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EXCIMER LASER PHOTOCHEMICAL
DECOMPOSITION OF DIMETHYLNITRAMINE

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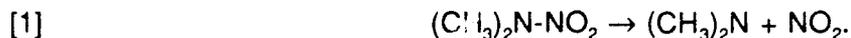
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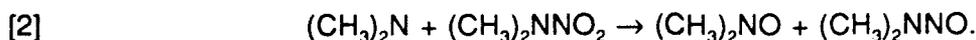
1. INTRODUCTION

Cyclic nitramines such as HMX and RDX are energetic materials used in propellants and explosives. One of the keys to understanding the ignition and combustion of these compounds is a characterization of the pathways involved in their unimolecular decomposition. This information is difficult to obtain since the utility of energetic materials is based on their propensity to undergo extremely rapid, exothermic reactions. Moreover, functionally useful nitramines may decompose via a number of possible pathways, and secondary bimolecular reactions involving product radicals may obscure the identity of the initial reaction products.

Because of these difficulties, dimethylnitramine (DMNA), $(\text{CH}_3)_2\text{NNO}_2$, has been studied as a simple analog expected to exhibit some of the processes important in cyclic nitramine decomposition. DMNA decomposition has been investigated in thermal pyrolysis (Fluornoy 1962; Korsunski and Dubovitskii 1964, 1967; Lloyd, Umstead, and Lin 1985), "pulsed laser pyrolysis," (McMillen et al. 1987; Nigenda, McMillen, and Golden 1989; Stewart et al. 1989) photodissociation (Mialocq and Stephenson 1986; Lazarou and Papagiannakopoulos 1990), and theoretical (Shaw and Walker 1977; Sumpter and Thompson 1987, 1988) studies. An early investigation of DMNA decomposition reported by Fluornoy (1962) found that approximately 80% of the DMNA thermally pyrolyzed in a static bulb was converted to dimethylnitrosamine (DMNO), $(\text{CH}_3)_2\text{NNO}$. Since this product indicates that the C-N-C structure remains intact subsequent to the initial decomposition step, Fluornoy proposed that the rate determining step for DMNA dissociation was a scission of the following $(\text{CH}_3)_2\text{N-NO}_2$ bond:



Subsequent studies have corroborated the importance of this reaction step. Lin and coworkers came to this conclusion based on the results of low-temperature static bulb and high-temperature single-pulse shock-tube experiments (Lloyd, Umstead, and Lin 1985). Lazarou and Papagiannakopoulos (1990) have recently reported a study of the infrared multiphoton dissociation of DMNA which concludes that process [1] is the most important initial step for decomposition initiated in this manner. These researchers have also reported evidence that DMNO is formed via the following reaction (Lazarou and Papagiannakopoulos 1990):

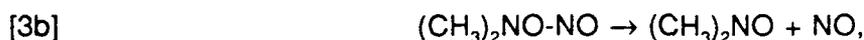


This reaction would account for the formation of DMNO in the static bulb experiments.

Golden and coworkers have studied the decomposition of DMNA following its laser pyrolysis in a bath of argon. Using GC (McMillen et al. 1987; Nigenda, McMillen, and Golden 1989) and mass spectrometric (Stewart et al. 1989) sampling techniques for product detection, these researchers conclude that a nitro-nitrite rearrangement,

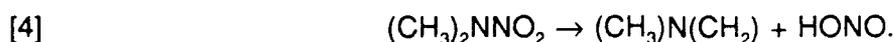


followed by rapid scission of the $(\text{CH}_3)_2\text{NO-NO}$ bond,



effectively competes with process [1] in their experiments.

An initial decomposition step, which has been theoretically investigated, is HONO elimination,



To obtain Arrhenius parameters based on thermochemical data which are consistent with experimentally determined values, Shaw and Walker were required to postulate that HONO elimination contributed no more than 10% to the rate of DMNA decomposition (Shaw and Walker 1977). Similarly, Sumpter and Thompson have calculated that HONO elimination is not important for a random distribution of energy, but proposed that the rate of this reaction would significantly increase by overtone excitation of one of the CH stretches (Sumpter and Thompson 1988).

The decomposition of DMNA following its photolysis with UV radiation has also been studied. Mialocq and Stephenson demonstrated this approach in a picosecond laser study of the collisionless photodissociation of DMNA at 266 nm (Mialocq and Stephenson 1986). These researchers found that the mechanisms forming $\text{NO}_2 \tilde{X}^2A_1$ and $\text{NO}_2 \tilde{A}^2B_2$,

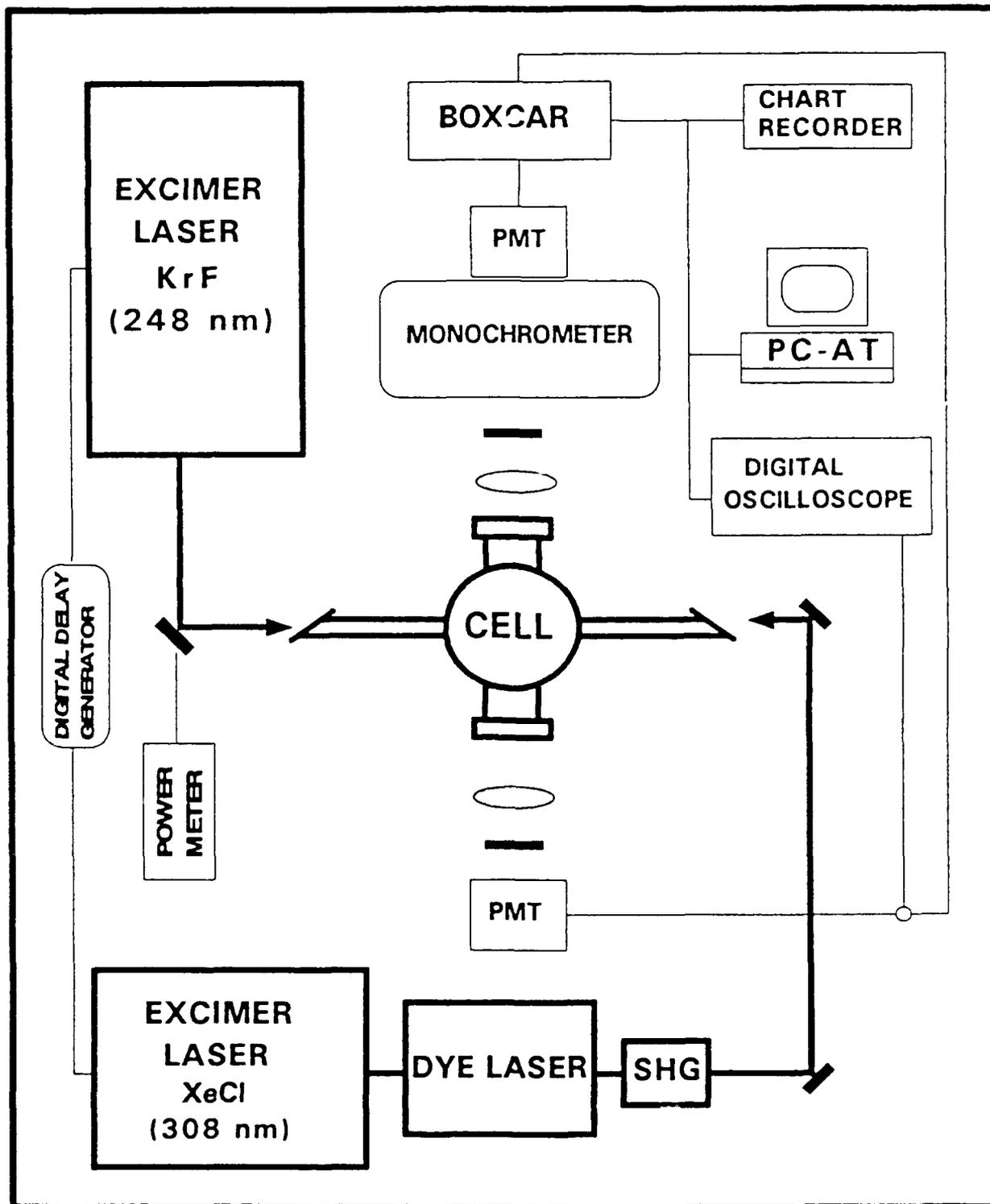


Figure 1. Schematic Diagram of the Experimental Setup.

pressure was monitored with a capacitance manometer (Datametrics, Type 600). A trap cooled with liquid nitrogen was installed between the turbo pump and the roughing pump to prevent pump oil from backstreaming into the photolysis region.

The photolysis beam entered and exited the vacuum chamber via MgF_2 windows. The unfocused beam was collimated with irises to a diameter of 0.7 cm. Photolysis beam energies were ≤ 5 mJ/pulse. These conditions were chosen based on the trade-off between 1) obtaining reasonable signal levels for one-photon excitation processes and 2) avoiding multiphoton excitation processes. The photon dependencies of the pathways leading to the various reaction products were measured by varying the fluence of the photolysis beam using calibrated dielectric filters (Acton Research). The absolute energy/pulse was measured with a disc calorimeter. Measurements of the energy/pulse were taken immediately before and after each data set to establish the stability of the photolysis beam intensity.

Fluorescence resulting directly from the photolysis event was collected at 90° to the photolysis beam by a fused silica lens and exited the vacuum chamber via a MgF_2 viewing port. The emission was focused on the entrance slit of a monochromator (Spex, 500M) equipped with an EMI 9558QB photomultiplier tube (PMT). The spectral response and resolution of this arrangement was calibrated using a standard lamp (Optronic Laboratories, UV-40) and a mercury lamp, respectively.

The output signal from the PMT was directed to a gated integrator (Stanford Research Systems, SR250) and displayed on a digital oscilloscope (Hewlett-Packard, 54111D, or LeCroy, 9400). The radiative lifetimes of the fluorescing products and the temporal delay between the photolysis pulse and boxcar gate were measured from the oscilloscope display. The start of the boxcar gate was typically set 50 to 100 ns following the arrival of the photolysis pulse to reduce noise. Spectra were recorded in digital form on a PC-AT computer via a commercial computer interface/software package (Stanford Research Systems).

For the LIF experiments, the probe beam was provided by an XeCl excimer-pumped dye laser (Lumonics HyperEX 400/HyperDYE 300) which was frequency doubled (HyperTRAK 1000) to obtain wavelengths less than 320 nm. The line width for the fundamental frequency of the dye laser is approximately 0.08 cm^{-1} FWHM. The line width for wavelengths obtained

by frequency doubling is approximately 0.16 cm^{-1} . The probe beam was directed collinear and counterpropagating with respect to the photolysis beam. The probe beam was collimated with irises to the same diameter (0.7 cm) as the pump beam. The delay between the arrival of pump and probe pulses was controlled by a digital delay generator (Stanford Research Systems, DG535). The boxcar gate was positioned to obtain the best signal-to-noise ratio. Fluorescence was collected and the monochromator used as a bandpass filter to block laser scatter and extraneous fluorescence. Alternately, a PMT (Hamamatsu, R955) could be placed adjacent to the viewing port with a wavelength bandpass shaped by appropriate color filter glasses. The following detection schemes were used for probes of ground state OH, NO, and NO_2 .

2.1 OH. The OH $A^2\Sigma^+ - X^2\Pi$, (1,0) and (0,0) electronic transitions are excited in the ranges 281–285 nm and 306–310 nm, respectively (Dieke and Crosswhite 1962). When exciting the (1,0) transition, emission corresponding to the (1,1) transition was monitored using a 10-nm FWHM bandpass filter centered at 313 nm (Corion). When exciting the (0,0) transition, emission corresponding to the (0,1) transition near 347 nm was monitored using a WG-335, UG-11 (Schott) and 350-nm (Optics Technology) bandpass filter combination. Only the results obtained for excitation of the (0,0) band are presented. The limited results obtained with (1,0) excitation are consistent with the results obtained with (0,0) excitation. However, DMNA is observed to photolyze at 281 nm, while photolysis at 308 nm is not observed, even when the beam is focused. Thus, excitation of the (0,0) band is considered a better choice for the OH probe.

Nascent OH rotational distributions were investigated, necessitating that the line intensities be corrected for probe energy fluctuations. This was accomplished by directing a portion of the probe beam to a photodiode and monitoring it as a function of wavelength. This beam was attenuated with a neutral density filter to avoid saturating the detector. To obtain probe laser fluxes such that the OH (0,0) transitions were not saturated, the probe beam was attenuated with calibrated dielectric filters (Acton Research) such that the signal was a linear function of the beam fluence. Beam energies used were $\leq 100 \mu\text{J/pulse}$.

2.2 NO_2 . The $\text{NO}_2 \tilde{A} - \tilde{X}$ transition was excited at 448 nm, and fluorescence at 464 nm was monitored using the monochromator as a bandpass filter. A GG 450 (Schott) long-pass

filter was used to further reduce noise from laser scatter. These conditions were chosen based on preliminary experiments with pure NO₂ gas. Dispersed emission spectra obtained from the NO₂ photoproduct and room-temperature NO₂ were compared to establish that the same transition(s) was being excited in each case. Probe beam energies of ~3 mJ/pulse were used for exciting this molecule.

2.3 NO. The NO A²Σ⁺-X²Π (0,0) electronic transition is excited near 226 nm (Herzberg 1950). In this case, emission associated with the (0,1) transition was monitored near 236 nm using the monochromator as a bandpass filter. It should be noted that DMNA strongly absorbs 226-nm radiation ($\sigma = 1.3 \times 10^{-17} \text{ cm}^2$) (McQuaid and Sausa, to be published), and NO production due to the probe pulse was a potential problem. Nitrogen dioxide and other potential products of DMNA photolysis such as HONO may also dissociate at this wavelength to form NO. Attempts to circumvent these problems using two-photon excitation LIF or 2 + 2 resonance-enhanced multiphoton ionization (REMPI) schemes were unsuccessful. For the results presented, the probe fluxes were reduced to levels such that the NO LIF signal observed without a prior photolysis pulse was negligibly small. This corresponded to probe beam energies < 500 μJ/pulse.

Estimates of ground state NO and NO₂ quantum yields were made by comparing LIF signal levels observed following DMNA photolysis with LIF signal levels observed for known pressures of room temperature NO and NO₂. To obtain a calibration curve for the NO LIF signal, the capacitance manometer was used to establish the pressure of a 0.1% NO/Ar balance gas mixture (Matheson) for a given signal level. Calibration for the NO₂ signal was facilitated using an ionization gauge (Varian, Model 563) to establish the pressure of neat NO₂ (Matheson, stated purity 98%). (Since the gauge is calibrated for N₂, the gauge readout had to be corrected for the difference in the ionization potentials of NO₂ and N₂.)

An estimate of the OH quantum yield was made by comparing the OH LIF signal levels following DMNA photolysis with the OH LIF signal levels for the photolysis of nitric acid, HNO₃, obtained under identical conditions. HNO₃ was obtained from the vapor above a 70 wt% HNO₃ aqueous solution which had been subjected to several freeze-thaw cycles to eliminate dissolved gases. HNO₃ comprises 42% of the total vapor pressure above such a solution (Chemical Engineers' Handbook 1973). In preliminary experiments, the photolysis of water

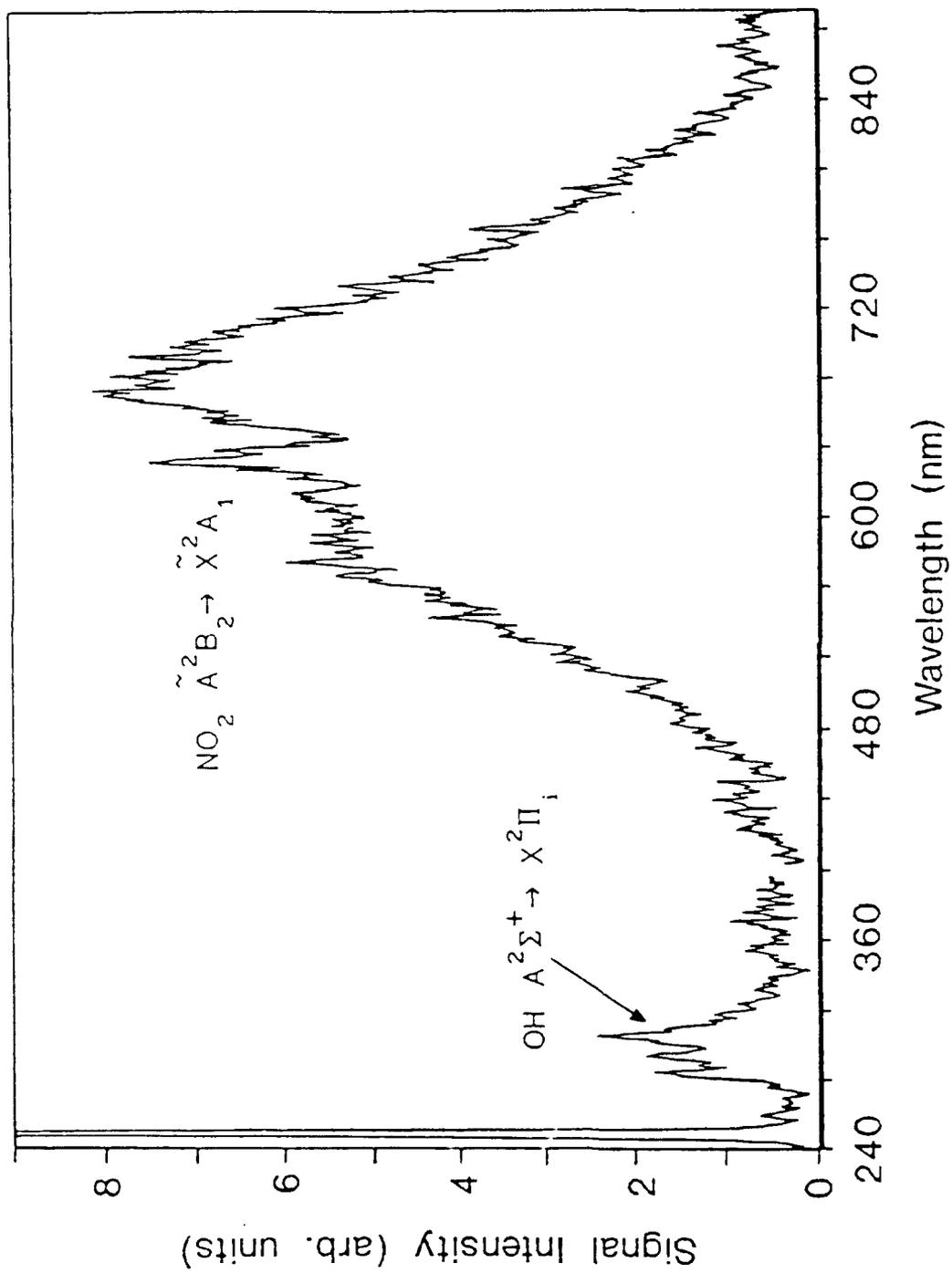
at 248 nm was not observed for the photon fluxes used in these experiments. Also, within experimental error, the relative intensities of the OH rotational lines were the same over the pressure range (1-10 mTorr) studied. Thus, collisional quenching of OH by water is negligible at the pressures and time scales employed.

3. RESULTS

3.1 Prompt Emission. The prompt emission spectrum observed following the photolysis of DMNA at 248 nm is shown in Figure 2. The feature centered at 310 nm is due to OH $A^2\Sigma^+ - X^2\Pi_1$ (0,0) emission. This assignment is based upon a computer simulation of the feature (see Figure 3). The simulation was generated from a computer program based on the Einstein A coefficients reported by Dimpfl and Kinsey (1979) and spectroscopic constants reported by Dieke and Crosswhite (1962). The simulation is based on a Boltzmann rotational population distribution in the A state. The "temperature" corresponding to this distribution is $4,200 \pm 500$ K.

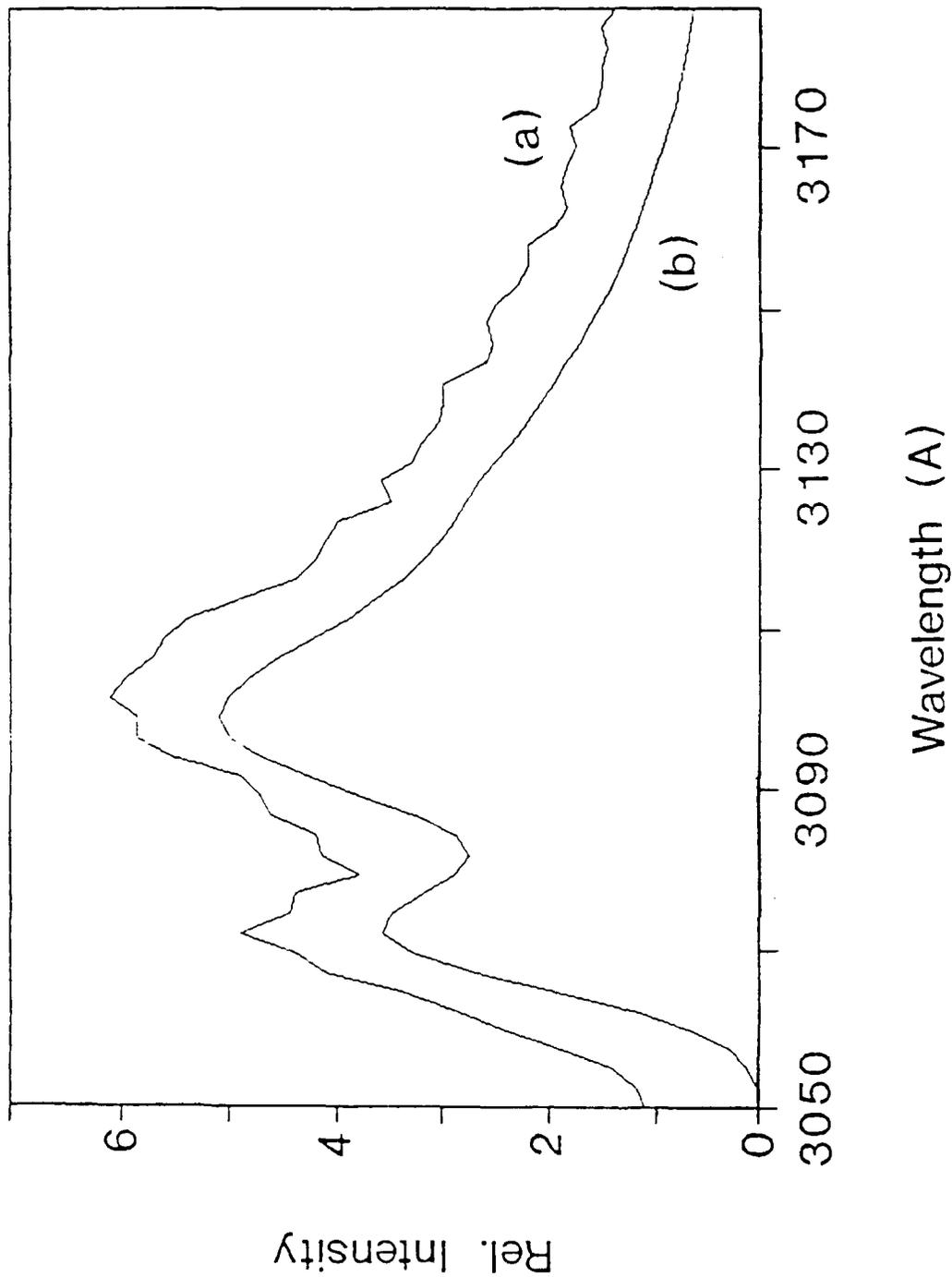
The simulation assumes that the OH $A^2\Sigma^+$ ($v'=1$) level is not populated. This assumption is based, in part, on the absence of emission attributable to the OH $A^2\Sigma^+ - X^2\Pi_1$ (1,0) transition near 285 nm. However, the Franck-Condon factor for the (1,0) transition is relatively small compared to the (0,0) and (1,1) transitions near 310 nm, and interference from an unassigned feature at 289 nm may obscure such emission. Also, the (1,1) transition may be obscured due to overlap with the intense (0,0) band emission. On the basis of simulations of the feature centered at 310 nm, an upper limit on the ratio of $v' = 1$ to $v' = 0$ populations was determined to be 5%.

The features centered at 289 nm and 298 nm have not been assigned. The possibility that the feature at 289 nm was an OH (1,0) emission was addressed based on its observed radiative lifetime of ~ 100 ns at 5 mTorr of DMNA. The radiative lifetimes of both the $v' = 0$ and $v' = 1$ levels of the OH A state are approximately 700 ns (Sutherland and Anderson 1973; German 1975). This value is approached for the feature attributed to the (0,0) band. Since the lifetime of the feature at 289 nm is significantly shorter, it is doubtful that it is associated with (1,0) emission. Also, it is not possible to generate the intensity distribution shown in Figure 2 with an upper limit of 5% on the ratio of $v' = 1$ to $v' = 0$ populations. Finally, the



Note: This spectrum is a composite of $\lambda < 400$ nm and $\lambda > 400$ nm scans and is not corrected for detection system response.

Figure 2. Prompt Emission Spectrum Following DMNA Photolysis at 248 nm.



Note: The simulation assumes a Boltzmann population distribution of the A-state rotational levels. The "temperature" corresponding to this distribution is 4,200 K.

Figure 3. Comparison of (a) the Experimentally Observed Emission Feature at 309 nm Following DMNA Photolysis and (b) a Computer-Generated Simulation of Emission From the $\text{OH } A^2\Sigma^+ (v = 0)$ Level.

signal intensity of the features at 289 and 298 nm were observed to have quadratic dependencies with respect to variation in DMNA pressure and photolysis beam fluence. This implies that the features are the result of collision-induced processes following multiphoton excitation of DMNA. Thus, further attempts to characterize the carrier of these features were not pursued.

Log-log plots of the emission intensity vs. photolysis beam fluence for the features ascribed to prompt emission from the OH $A^2\Sigma^+$ and NO₂ \tilde{A}^2B_2 states are presented in Figure 4. The slope of these plots yields a value of n for the following equation:

$$S = C(\Phi_{248})^n, \quad (1)$$

where S is the emission (signal) intensity, Φ_{248} is the photolysis beam fluence, and C is a system-dependent constant. The value of n for OH $A^2\Sigma^+$ state emission is 1.97 ± 0.20 , indicating that formation of this state requires two photons. A similar observation has been made for cyclic nitramine RDX (Capellos, Papagiannakopoulos, and Liang 1989). The value of n for NO₂ \tilde{A}^2B_2 state emission is 0.83 ± 0.20 , indicating a one-photon excitation process. This result is similar to that obtained by Mialocq and Stephenson for DMNA photolysis at 266 nm (Mialocq and Stephenson 1986). In addition, the intensity of OH $A^2\Sigma^+$ and NO₂ \tilde{A}^2B_2 emission as a function of DMNA pressure is linear, indicating these products are formed via unimolecular processes.

3.2 Laser-Induced Fluorescence.

3.2.1 OH. A portion of the OH LIF spectrum obtained following DMNA photolysis is shown in Figure 5. Within experimental error, the relative intensities of the OH rotational lines are the same over the pressure range studied (1–8 mTorr). This indicates that collisional quenching of the (nascent) OH rotational state distribution is negligible. The relative population distribution of the OH $A^2\Sigma^+$ state rotational levels was calculated from the measured line intensities via the Einstein B coefficients (Dimpfl and Kinsey 1979) after accounting for the fluorescence detection bias associated with the PMT/bandpass filter combination and integration of fluorescence signal over gated time interval. Plots of the OH $^2\Pi$ rotational populations calculated from the measured line intensities are shown in Figure 6. The

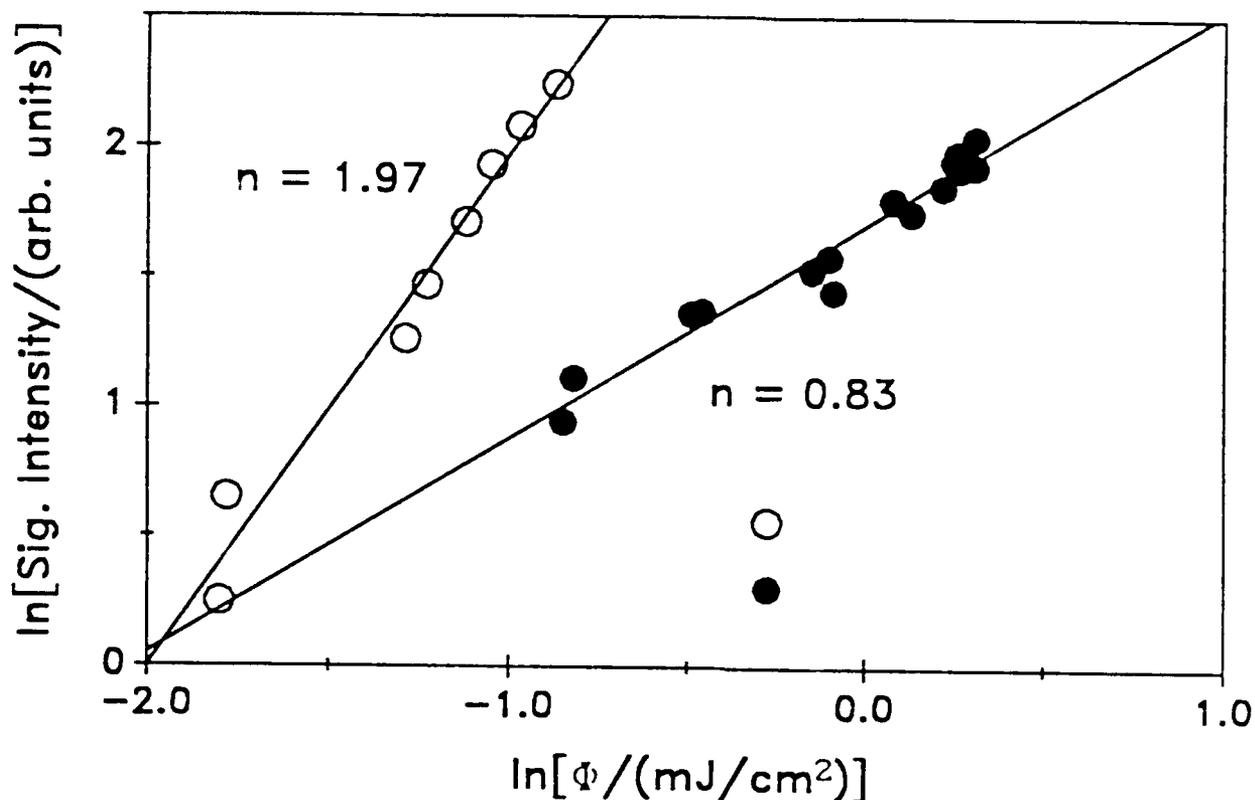


Figure 4. Log-Log Plot of the OH A²Σ⁺ State and NO₂ Ā²B₂ State Emission Intensity vs. Photolysis Beam Fluence.

rotational population for the ground state is found to be similar to a Boltzmann distribution corresponding to a temperature of $2,800 \pm 500$ K. A nonstatistical preference for populating ${}^2\Pi_{1/2}$ vs. ${}^2\Pi_{3/2}$ states is not observed (Dagdigian et al. 1989).

To obtain intensity measurements for variations in pressure or photolysis beam fluence, the dye laser was scanned through the range 306.3–306.6 nm. This range contains the R₁(6)–R₁(12) rotational lines of the OH A²Σ⁺–X²Π_{3/2} (0,0) transition. For a given photolysis beam fluence, the intensity vs. DMNA pressure for each rotational line, I_j(P), was determined. These distributions were then normalized, viz. $\sum_j I_j(P) = \text{constant}$, and the normalized distributions averaged. The same data reduction method was used for analyzing the intensity vs. photolysis beam fluence data for a given DMNA pressure. A fit of the OH LIF signal intensity vs. photolysis beam fluence data to Equation 5 yields $n = 0.9 \pm 0.2$, indicating that OH X²Π₁ is formed following a one-photon excitation of DMNA. The OH signal was found to be a linear function of DMNA pressure, indicating the process was unimolecular.

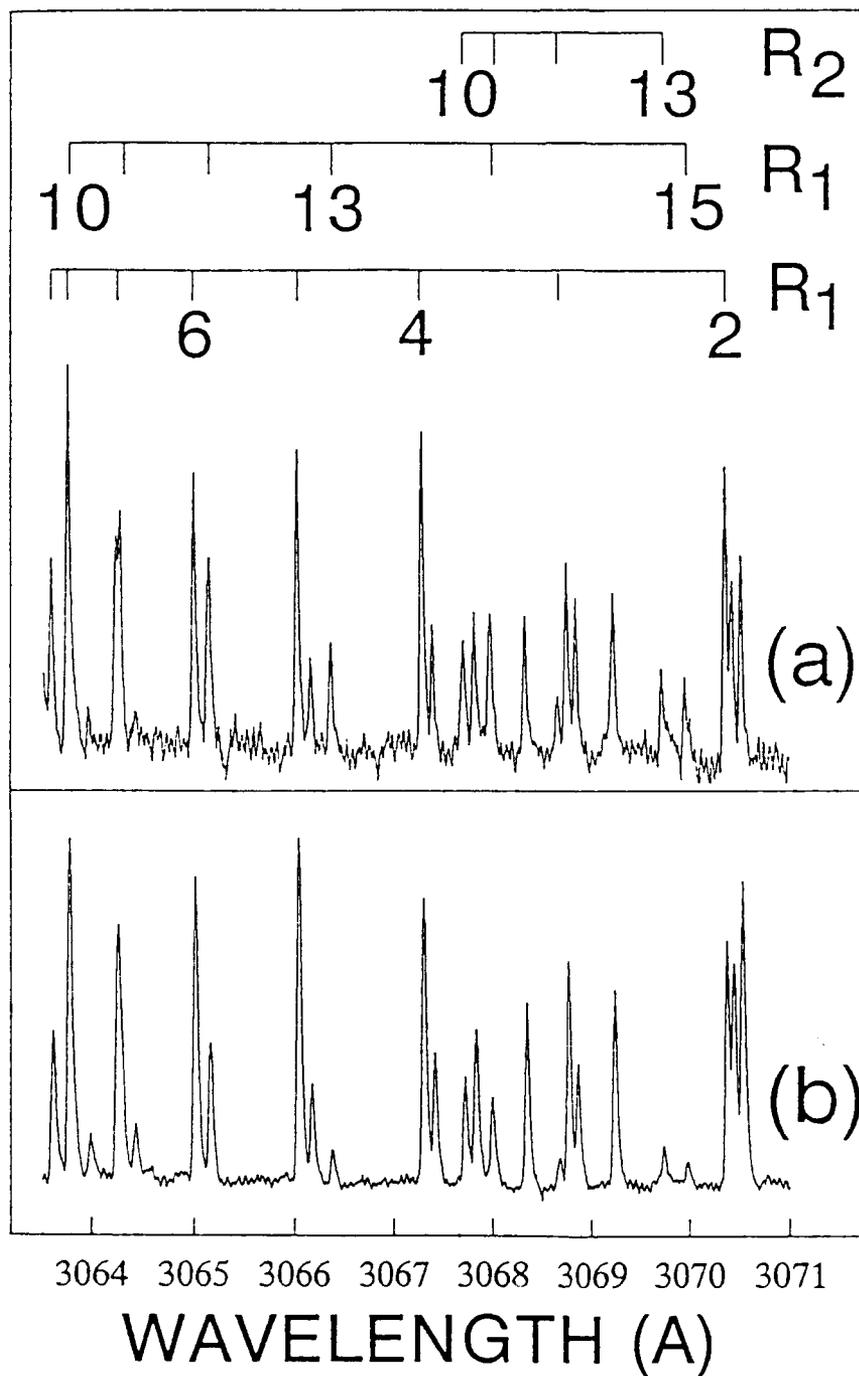


Figure 5. Comparison of the OH $A^2\Sigma^+$ ($v' = 0$) - $X^2\Pi_1$ ($v'' = 0$) LIF Spectra Obtained Following 248-nm Photolysis of (a) DMNA and (b) Nitric Acid.

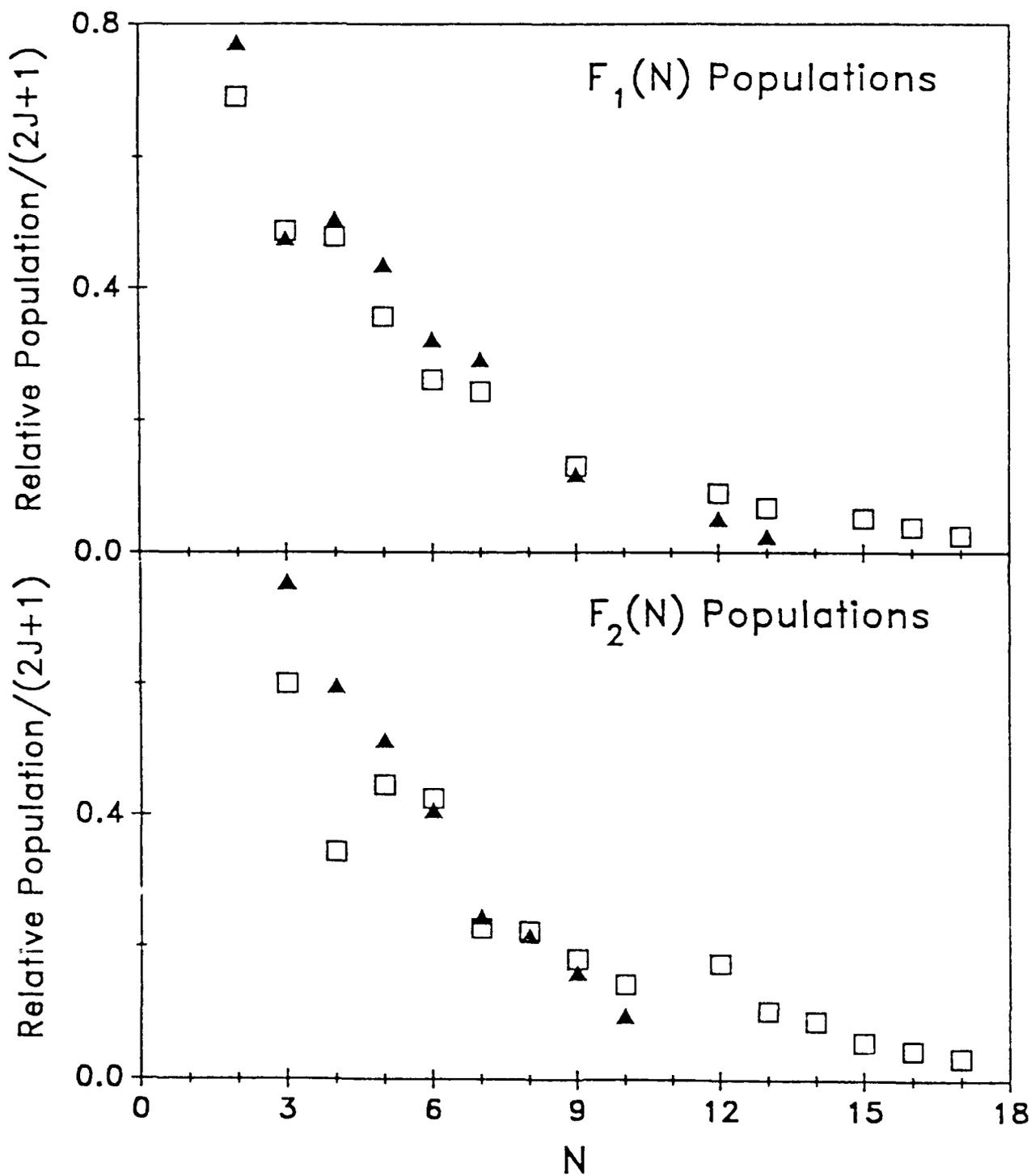
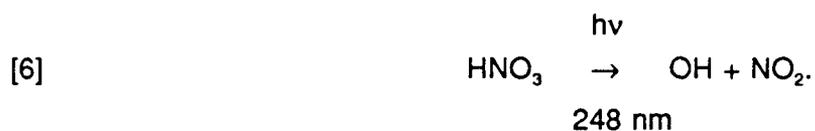


Figure 6. Plot of the Rotational Population Distributions for the OH X²Π₁ State Formed Following 248-nm Photolysis of (□) DMNA and (▲) Nitric Acid.

The quantum yield for OH production was determined by establishing an LIF signal vs. OH concentration calibration curve from the same experiments with HNO₃. A quantum yield near unity has been reported for the following process (Okabe 1978).



A portion of the OH LIF spectrum obtained following the 248-nm photolysis of HNO₃ is shown in Figure 5. The OH ²Π_i rotational populations formed via process [6] are shown in Figure 6. The rotational population distribution for this spectrum is similar to a 1,400 ± 200 K Boltzmann distribution. Boltzmann-like rotational distributions have also been observed following HNO₃ photolysis at 266 nm and 193 nm. The 1,400 K "temperature" obtained at 248 nm lies between the 1,235 ± 50 K value reported by Zabarnick, Fleming, and Baronavski (1986) for the photolysis of HNO₃ at 266 nm (lower energy) and the 2,200 ± 500 K value reported by Jacobs et al. (1983) for photolysis of HNO₃ at 193 nm (higher energy).

To compare OH densities which have different rotational population distributions, it is necessary to relate the population of individual levels to the entire population. Since the OH X²Π_i rotational distributions observed following both DMNA and HNO₃ photolysis at 248 nm are Boltzmann-like, the LIF signal levels for the two systems may be compared as follows.

For a Boltzmann distribution where $kT \gg 2B(J + 1)$, the ratio of an individual line to the entire population, $N_J(T)/N(T)$, is given by Herzberg (1950) as follows:

$$N_J(T)/N(T) = (hcB/kT)(2J + 1)\exp[-BJ(J + 1)hc/kT], \quad (2)$$

where h is Planck's constant, c is the speed of light, k is Boltzmann's constant, and B is the rotational constant. For two equal densities at different temperatures, T_1 and T_2 , the intensity for the J th line in the distributions are related by the following:

$$N_J(T_1)/N_J(T_2) = (T_2/T_1)\exp[-(BJ(J + 1)hc/k)((T_2 - T_1)/T_2T_1)]. \quad (3)$$

Figure 7 compares the OH F₁ [6] densities vs. DMNA and HNO₃ pressures (obtained under the same experimental conditions) based on these considerations.

The quantum yield for a system may be calculated from the following:

$$S_{LIF} = CN(\sigma_{248}\Phi_{248})(\sigma_p\Phi_p)\phi, \quad (4)$$

where S_{LIF} is the signal intensity of the excitation transition, C is a constant depending on the experimental configuration, N is the number density of the parent, $\sigma_{248}(\sigma_p)$ is the absorption cross section of the parent (photoproduct), $\Phi_{248}(\Phi_p)$ is the photolysis (probe) beam fluence, and ϕ is the photoproduct quantum yield. For the case where $(\Phi_{248})' = (\Phi_{248})''$ and $(\sigma_p\Phi_p)' = (\sigma_p\Phi_p)''$, taking the ratio of $(S_{LIF})'/(S_{LIF})''$ and rearranging yields the following relationship:

$$\phi' = S_{LIF}'(N\sigma_{248}\phi)''/S_{LIF}''(N\sigma_{248}), \quad (5)$$

where (') and (") denote DMNA and HNO₃ parameters, respectively. With substitution of 1) the absorption cross sections of DMNA ($\sigma'_{248} = 7.6 \times 10^{-18} \text{ cm}^2$) (McQuaid and Sausa, to be published) and HNO₃ ($\sigma''_{248} = 2 \times 10^{-20} \text{ cm}^2$) (Johnston and Graham 1973; Biame 1973–74), 2) the OH quantum yield for HNO₃ photolysis at 248 nm ($\phi'' \sim 1$) (Okabe 1978), and 3) the ratio $(N)''/(N)'$ for $(S_{LIF})'/(S_{LIF})''$ (from, for example, Figure 7), the quantum yield for OH production following DMNA photolysis at 248 nm is estimated to be 0.004.

3.2.2 NO₂. The NO₂ LIF signal intensity vs. DMNA pressure and NO₂ LIF signal intensity vs. photolysis fluence indicate that ground-state NO₂ is formed via a monophotonic, unimolecular process(es). On the basis of a comparison of the LIF levels for photoproduct and room-temperature NO₂ (Figure 8), the quantum yield for NO₂ production is estimated to be 0.15. This result is similar to the result obtained by Mialocq and Stephenson (MS) for DMNA photolysis at 266 nm (Mialocq and Stephenson 1986). Using the DMNA absorption cross section at 266 nm obtained in our laboratory (Mcquaid and Sausa, to be published), a nominal quantum yield of 0.11 is obtained from the MS experimental results. It should be noted that both studies neglect the difference between the internal energy distributions in making the quantum yield estimates. Thus, it is difficult to assess the accuracy of the estimates.

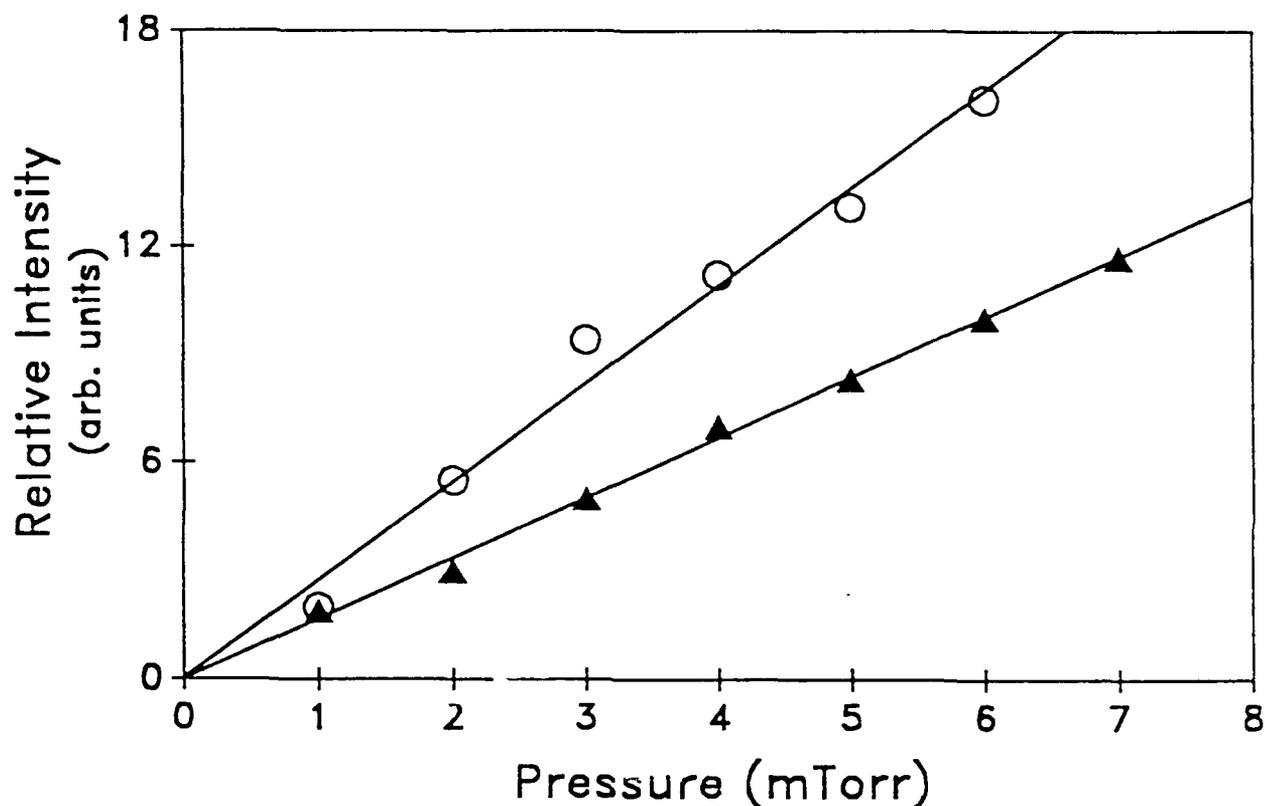


Figure 7. Comparison of the OH LIF Signal Intensity vs. Pressure for 248-nm Photolysis of (○) DMNA and (▲) Nitric Acid.

3.2.3 NO. No monophotonic, collision-free formation of NO $X^2\Pi$ ($v'' = 0$) was observed following DMNA photodissociation. This result is based on an extensive search for NO $A^2\Sigma$ ($v' = 0$) - $X^2\Pi$ ($v'' = 0$) LIF via excitation in the range 224–228 nm. The search was conducted at the highest pressure (8 mTorr) at which these experiments could be run. Partial pressures of room temperature NO down to 1×10^{-7} Torr were readily observed. On the basis of the experimental data, we have calculated an upper limit of 0.001 on the quantum yield for unimolecular production of NO.

4. DISCUSSION

The excitation of gas phase DMNA with 248-nm radiation falls within an absorption continuum which onsets at approximately 300 nm and peaks near 230 nm (McQuaid and Sausa, to be published). A semiempirical, molecular orbital calculation predicts transitions

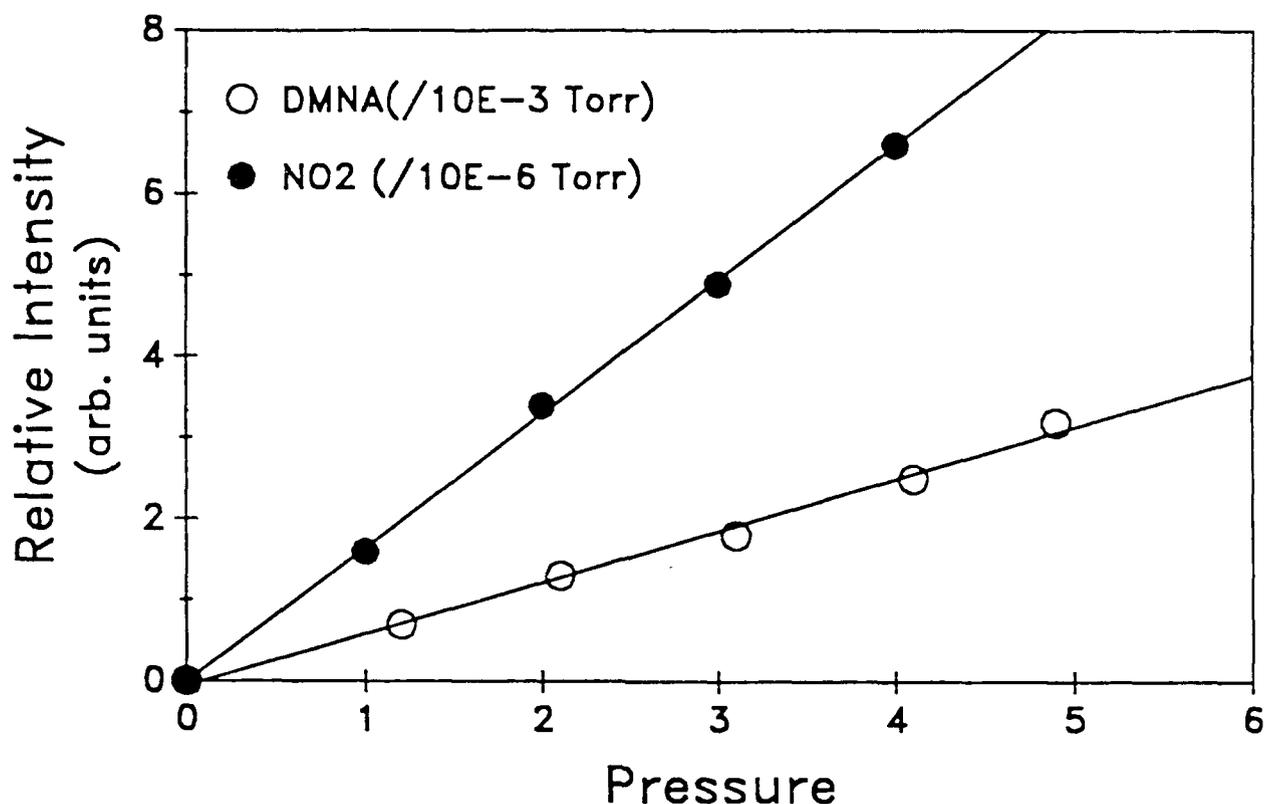


Figure 8. Comparison of the NO₂ LIF Signal Intensity vs. Pressure for (○) 248-nm Photolysis of DMNA and (●) Pure NO₂ Gas.

at 5.21 eV (${}^1A_1 \leftarrow {}^1A_1$) and 5.17 eV (${}^1B_1 \leftarrow {}^1A_1$) attributed to ($\sigma_{\text{CNC}} \rightarrow \sigma_{\text{CNC}}^*$) and [$(\pi \rightarrow \pi^*) + (n\pi\sigma \rightarrow \sigma_{\text{CNC,NO}_2}^*)$] configurations, respectively (Stals, Barraclough, and Buchanan 1969). The relatively large quantum yield for NO₂ production vs. other photoproducts is consistent with other studies on the decomposition of DMNA.

The observation of OH following a monophotonic, collision-free process suggests the possibility that DMNA may dissociate via an HONO elimination channel. Shaw and Walker (1977) have estimated this process to be 1–3 kcal/mole exothermic and to have an activation energy of 38 kcal/mole. Melius and Binkley (1986) have calculated the activation energy for HONO elimination in (mono)methylnitramine to be 41 kcal/mole. Thus, the barrier for this channel is expected to be lower than the barrier to N-N bond scission (46.2 kcal/mole). The excitation of DMNA at 248 nm (115.3 kcal/mole) is sufficient to overcome the activation energy and dissociate the HO-NO bond (49.6 kcal/mole) (JANAF Thermochemical

Tables 1971). The large discrepancy between the OH and NO quantum yields indicates that the observed OH is not the result of HONO dissociation. *Ab initio* calculations that may explain the production of OH are being considered. A more specific detection technique for HONO is desirable for determining the importance of the HONO elimination.

The importance of NO in the decomposition pathways of DMNA has been widely speculated. A conclusion of the recent low-pressure homogeneous pyrolysis study by Stewart et al. (1989), which suggests that reaction [3b] is important, is particularly intriguing. Our results indicate that unimolecular formation of NO is not important following DMNA photolysis at 248 nm.

5. CONCLUSION

The formation of OH $A^2\Sigma^+$, OH $X^2\Pi_1$, NO₂ \bar{A}^2B , NO₂ \tilde{X}^2A_1 , and NO $X^2\Pi$ following DMNA photolysis at 248 nm have been investigated in this study. The results were obtained in a predominantly collision-free experiment using LIF and emission spectroscopies for product detection. These techniques provide an alternative method for studying DMNA decomposition pathways, which have typically been inferred from end product or mass spectrometric analyses of DMNA decomposition initiated at higher pressures. NO₂ \bar{A}^2B_1 , NO₂ \tilde{X}^2A_1 , and OH $X^2\Pi_1$ were formed via monophotonic, unimolecular pathways. The quantum yield for NO₂ \tilde{X}^2A_1 and OH $X^2\Pi$ were estimated to be 0.15 and 0.004, respectively. An upper limit of 0.001 was established for the quantum yield of NO $A^2\Sigma$ ($v' = 0$). OH $A^2\Sigma^+$ was formed via a two-photon, unimolecular process.

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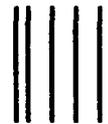
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