

TRIUMF Summer Institute 2011

Lecture 10

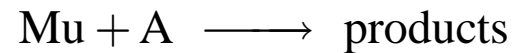
# Chemical Kinetics

Paul Percival

# Muonium Kinetics

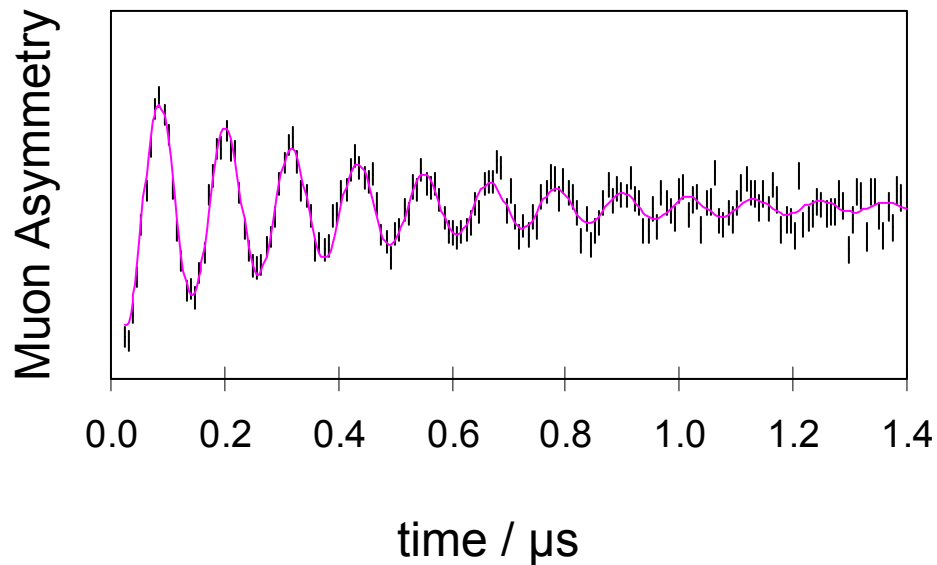
Muonium reactions are **pseudo-first order** because...

only a few million Mu atoms are needed for an experiment.



$$-\frac{d[\text{Mu}]}{dt} = k_{\text{M}}[\text{A}][\text{Mu}] = \lambda[\text{Mu}]$$

[A] is constant



The Mu signal decays exponentially

$$[\text{Mu}] = [\text{Mu}]_{t=0} e^{-\lambda t}$$

with  $\lambda = k_{\text{M}}[\text{A}]$

second-order rate constant

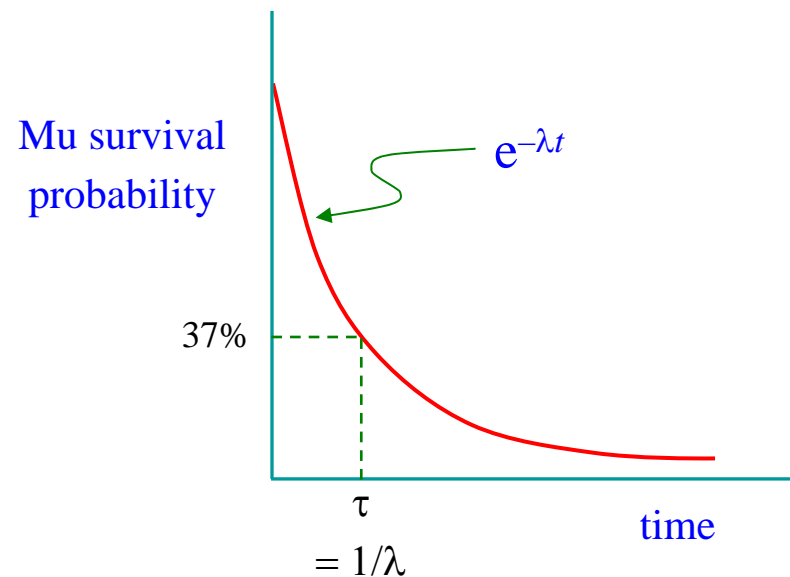
units:  $\text{M}^{-1}\text{s}^{-1}$

# The Ergodic Principle

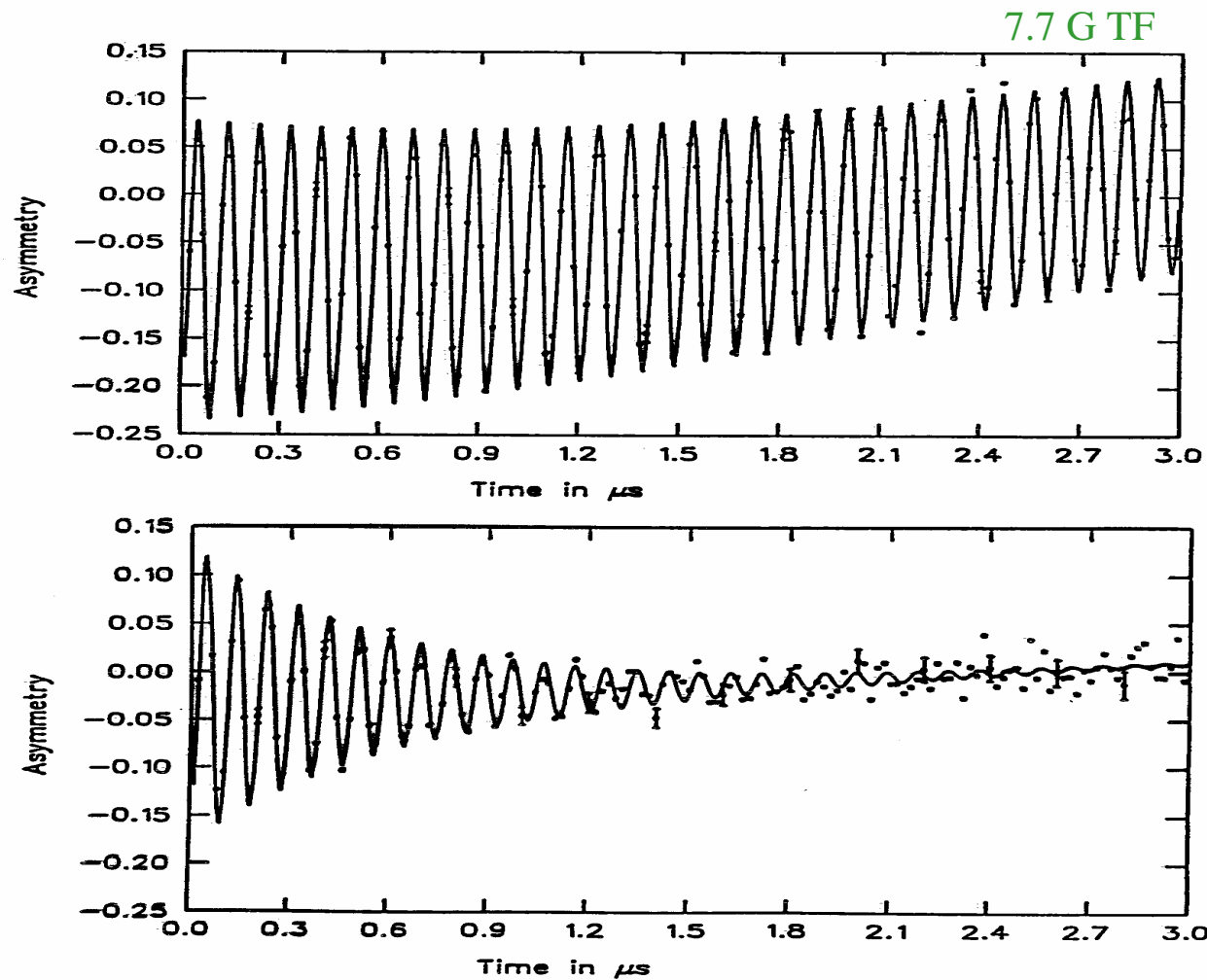
**Complaint:** What does [Mu] mean when we only have one Mu atom at a time?

**Answer:** It doesn't matter if the atoms are present at the same time or spread over an interval.

The average of a parameter over time and the average over the statistical ensemble are the same



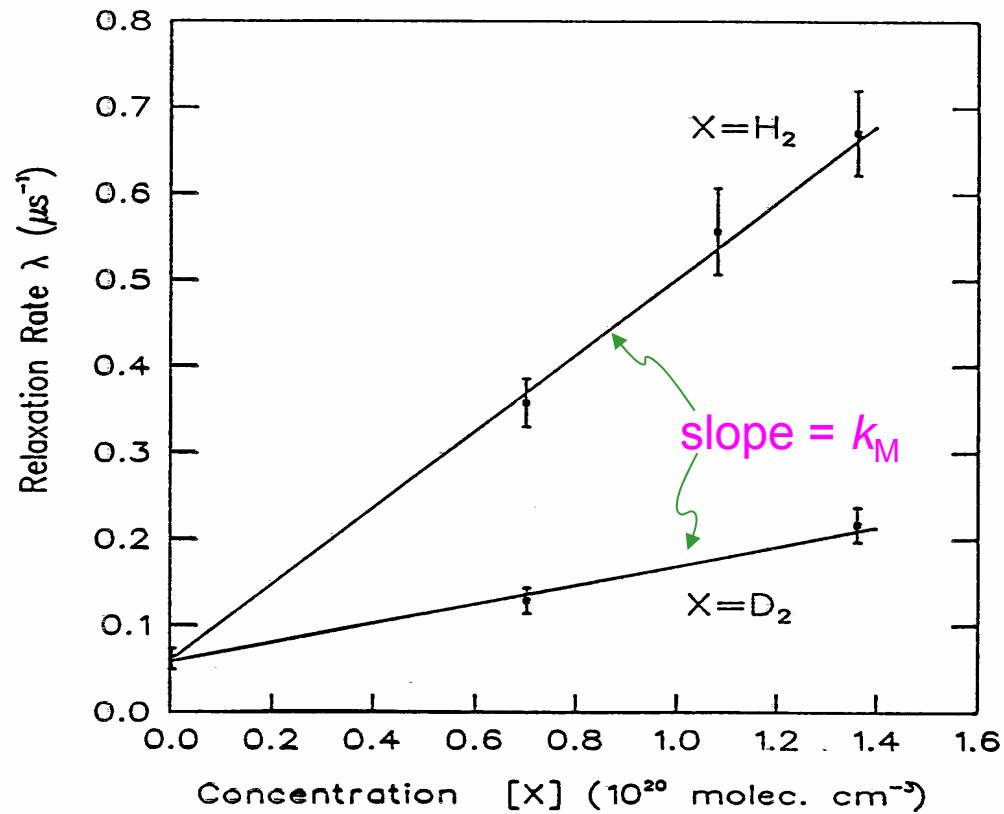
# Chemical Decay of Muonium



Garner, Fleming, Arseneau, Senba, Reid and Mikula (1990)

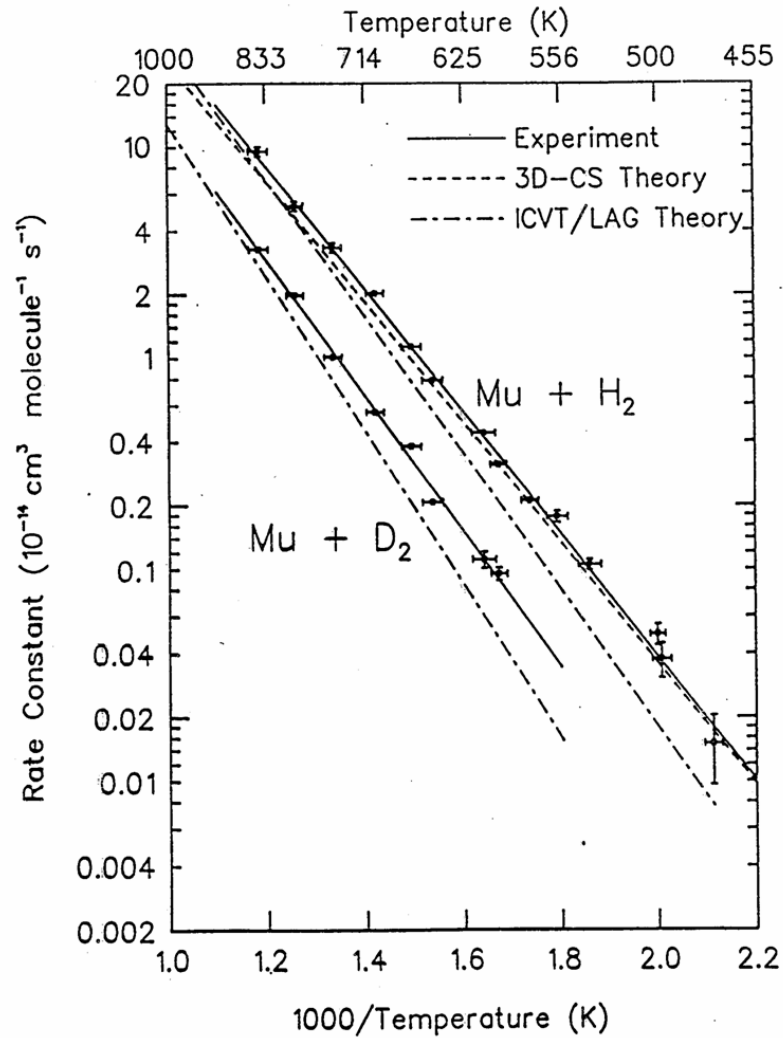
# Extracting the Second-order Rate Constant

Muonium decay rate  $\lambda = \lambda_0 + k_M[X]$



Reid, Garner, Lee, Senba, Arseneau and Fleming (1987)

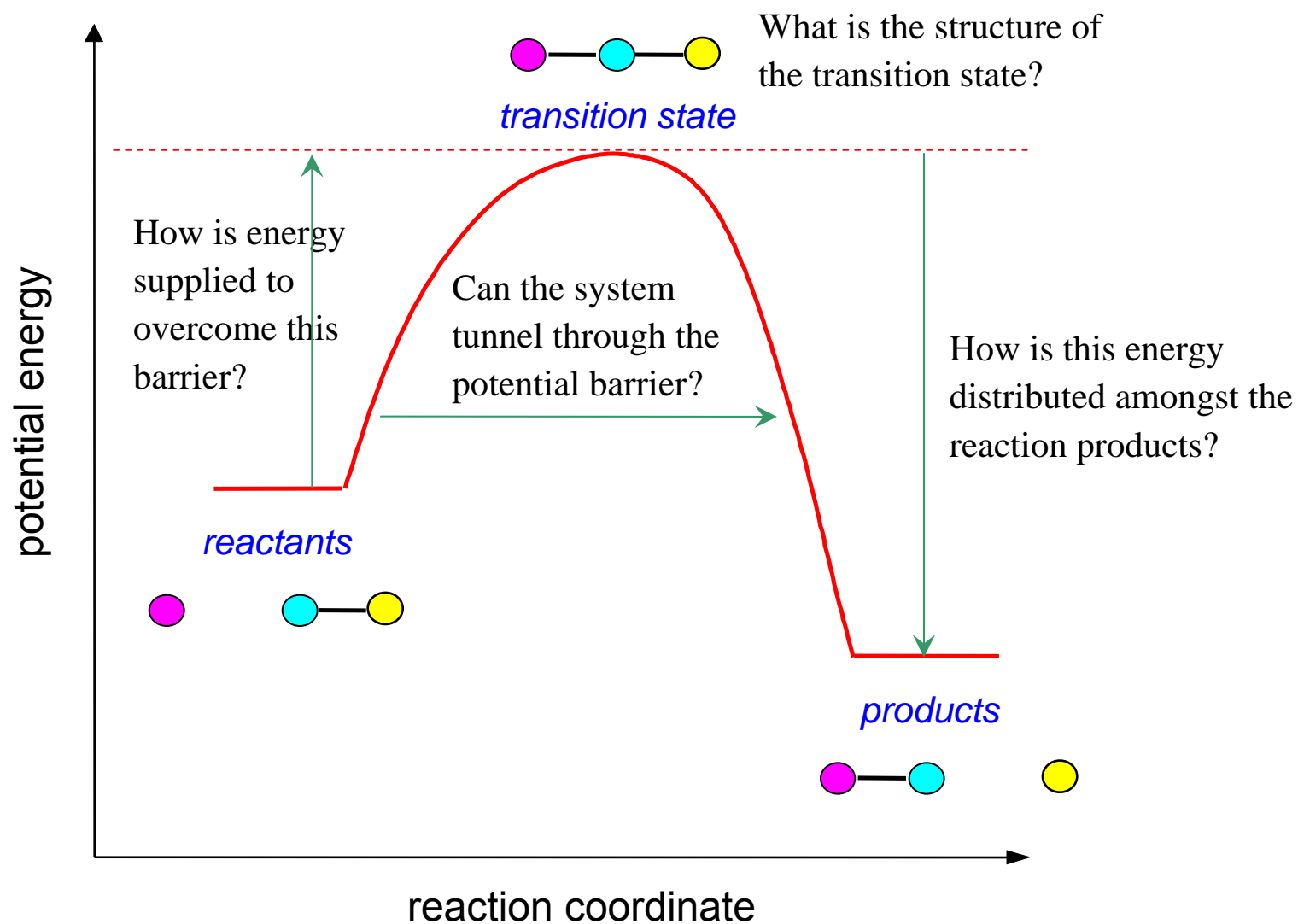
# Fundamental Kinetic Studies: H + H<sub>2</sub>



Experimental tests of reaction rate theory:  $\text{Mu} + \text{H}_2$  and  $\text{Mu} + \text{D}_2$   
 Fleming et al,  
 J. Chem. Phys. 1987

# Reaction Dynamics

What is the probability that the system will move from reactants to products?



# 1-D Reaction Coordinate

The **potential energy**  $V$  is the internal energy  $U$  from thermodynamics.

In the **Born-Oppenheimer Approximation** the nuclear and electronic parameters are separable: **product of wavefunctions, sum of energies.**

The potential energy surface then corresponds to a plot of the energy of the system as a function of nuclear coordinates.

The simplest reaction “surface” has 1 dimension, such as the interatomic distance in the dissociation of a diatomic. **e.g.**  $AB \rightarrow A + B$

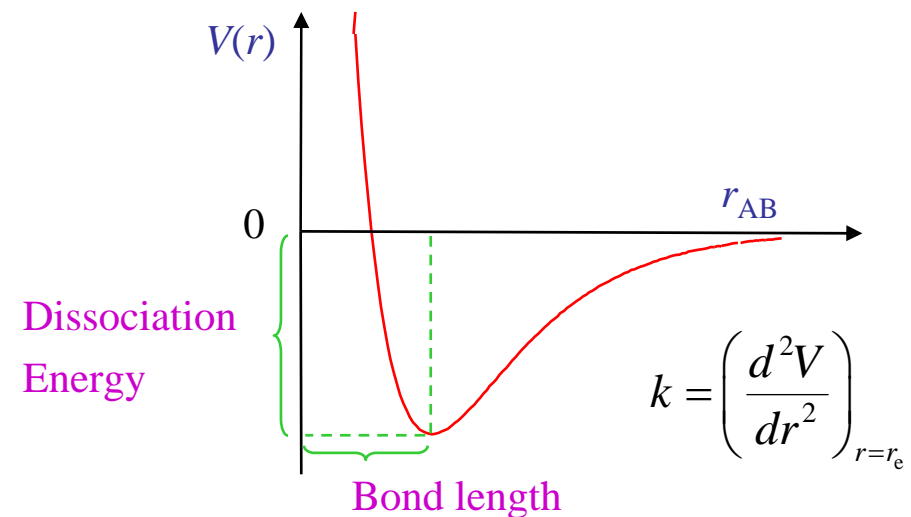
For  $r \approx r_e$  the potential can be modelled by the simple harmonic oscillator.

$$V(r) = V(r_e) + \frac{1}{2}k(r - r_e)^2$$

But extreme anharmonicity is needed to model dissociation:

## The Morse Potential

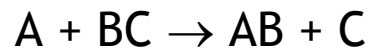
$$V(r) = D_e \left[ 1 - e^{-\alpha(r-r_e)} \right]^2 - D_e$$



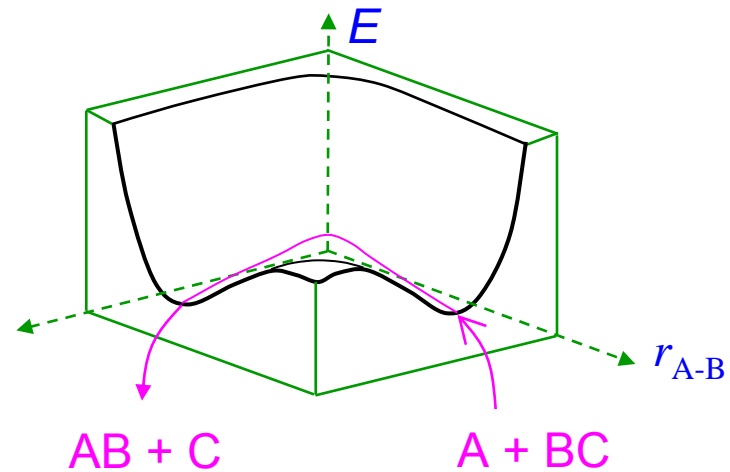


## 2-D Potential Energy Surface

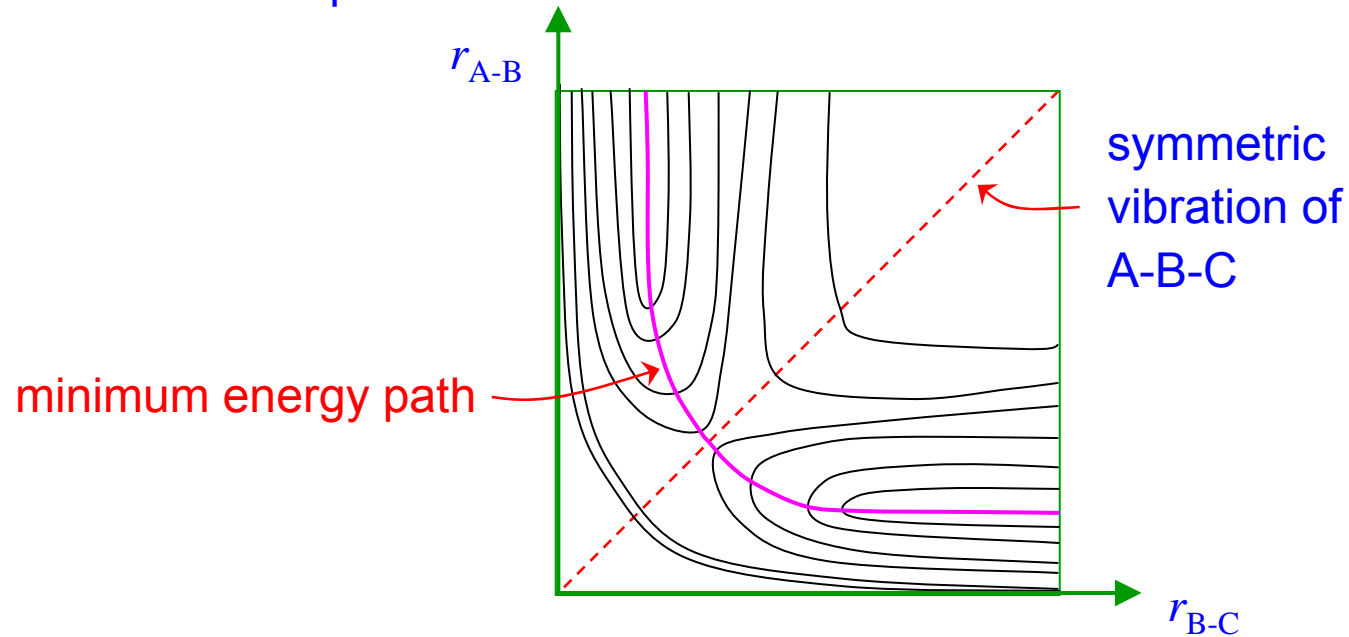
A collinear triatomic  
reaction such as



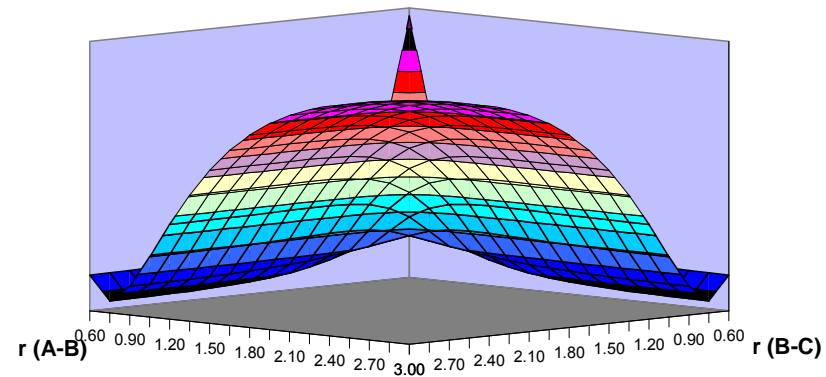
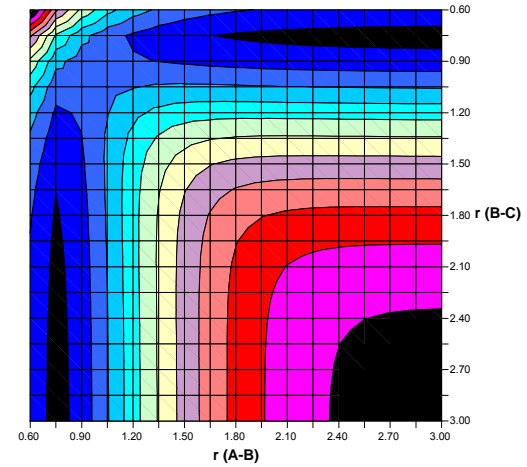
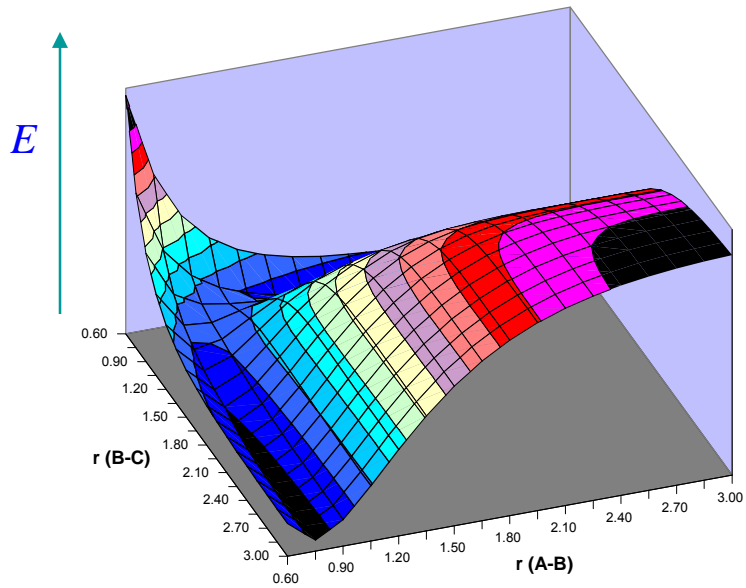
needs a 3-D plot:



or a contour plot:



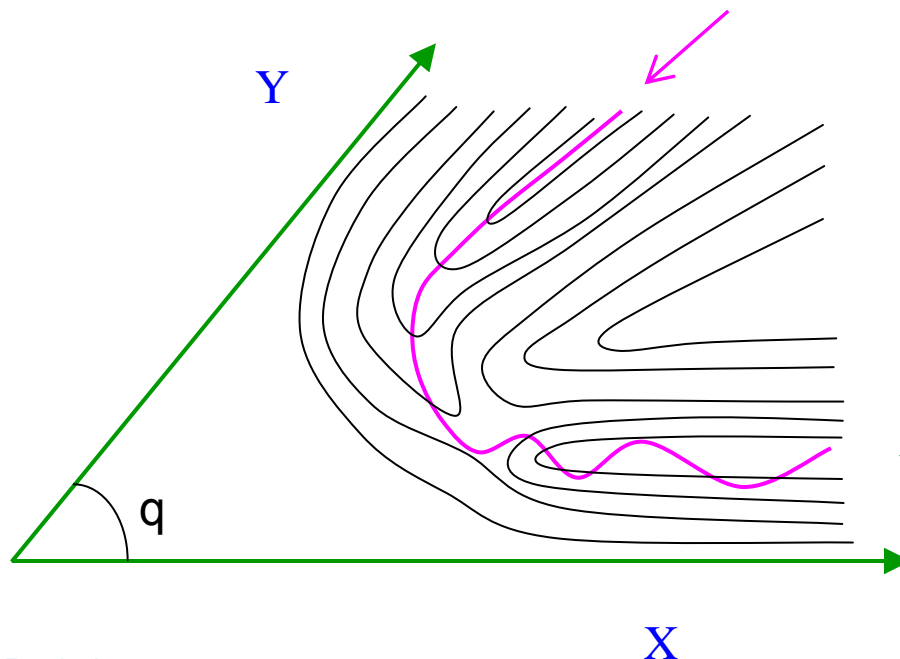
# Views of a Potential Energy Surface



## Skewed Coordinate System

PE surfaces can be used for classical trajectory calculations as long as the effective mass of the reacting system (modelled by rolling ball) is constant.

A mass-weighted coordinate system diagonalizes the kinetic energy of the system.



$$X = \alpha r_{ab} + \beta r_{bc} \cos \theta$$

$$Y = \beta r_{bc} \sin \theta$$

$$\alpha = \left[ \frac{m_a (m_b + m_c)}{M} \right]^{\frac{1}{2}}$$

$$\beta = \left[ \frac{m_c (m_b + m_a)}{M} \right]^{\frac{1}{2}}$$

$$M = m_a + m_b + m_c$$

$$\cos^2 \theta = \frac{m_a m_c}{(m_a + m_b)(m_b + m_c)}$$

vibrational  
excitation  
of product

## The LEPS Surface

An analytic function is often more practical than a table of points – it is continuous and can have adjustable parameters.

London-Eyring-Polanyi-Sato (LEPS) surface

$$V(r_{ab}, r_{bc}, r_{ac}) = \frac{Q_{ab}}{1+S_{ab}} + \frac{Q_{bc}}{1+S_{bc}} + \frac{Q_{ac}}{1+S_{ac}} - \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \left[ \left( \frac{J_{ab}}{1+S_{ab}} - \frac{J_{bc}}{1+S_{bc}} \right)^2 + \left( \frac{J_{bc}}{1+S_{bc}} - \frac{J_{ac}}{1+S_{ac}} \right)^2 + \left( \frac{J_{ac}}{1+S_{ac}} - \frac{J_{ab}}{1+S_{ab}} \right)^2 \right]^{1/2}$$

$$Q(r) = \frac{1}{2} \left[ M(r)(1+S^2) + AM(r)(1-S^2) \right]$$

$$J(r) = \frac{1}{2} \left[ M(r)(1+S^2) - AM(r)(1-S^2) \right]$$

$$M(r) = D_e \left[ e^{-2\alpha(r-r_e)} - 2e^{-\alpha(r-r_e)} \right]$$

$$AM(r) = \frac{1}{2} D_e \left[ e^{-2\alpha(r-r_e)} + 2e^{-\alpha(r-r_e)} \right]$$

Morse function

anti-Morse function

$Q$ ,  $J$  and  $S$  are derived from the Coulomb, exchange and overlap integrals of the Heitler-London valence-bond theory

# Tunnelling

Consider a particle of energy  $E$  striking a potential barrier of height  $V$ .

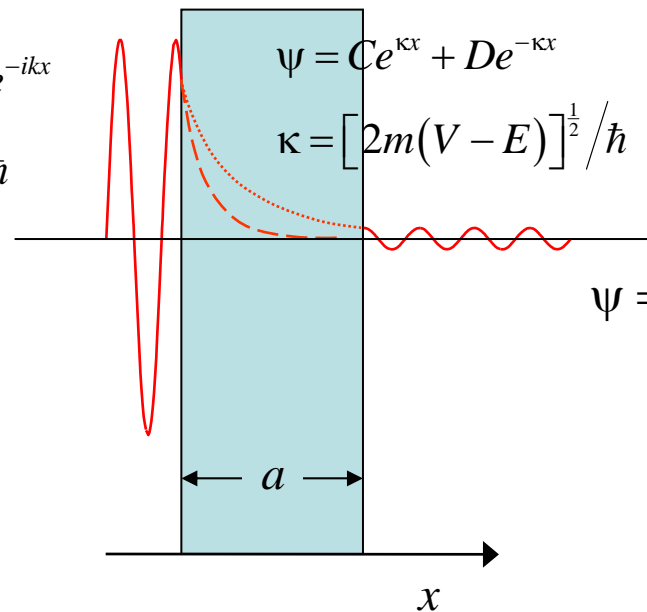
$$\psi = Ae^{ikx} + Be^{-ikx}$$

$$k = (2mE)^{1/2} / \hbar$$

$$\psi = Ce^{\kappa x} + De^{-\kappa x}$$

$$\kappa = [2m(V - E)]^{1/2} / \hbar$$

$$\psi = A'e^{ikx} + B'e^{-ikx}$$

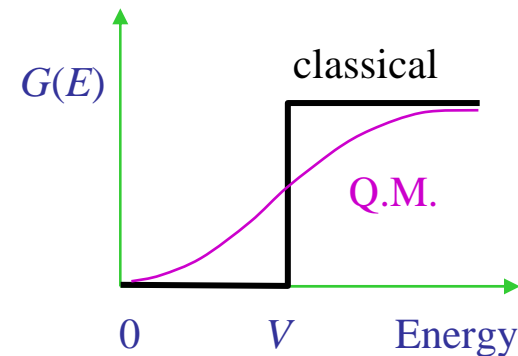


Application of boundary conditions gives the transmission probability:

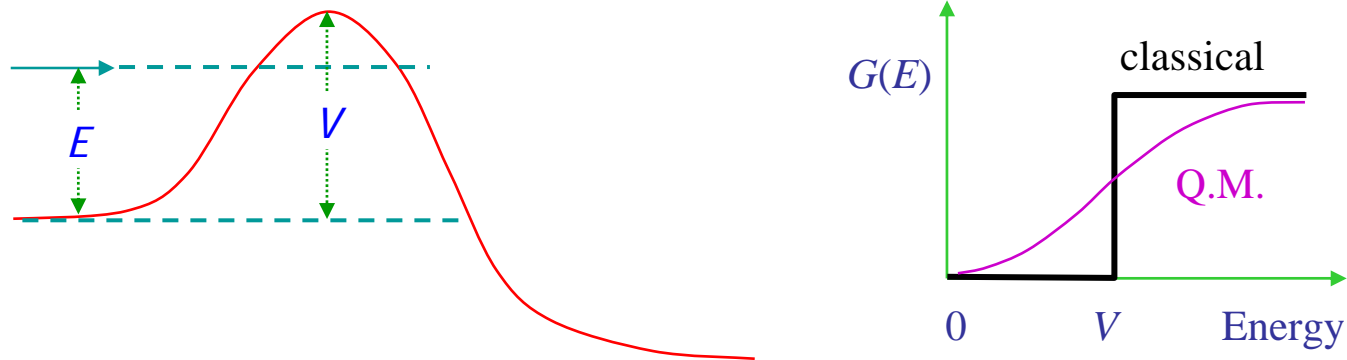
$$G = \frac{A'^2}{A^2} = \left\{ 1 + \frac{(e^{\kappa a} - e^{-\kappa a})^2}{16 \frac{E}{V} (1 - \frac{E}{V})} \right\}^{-1}$$

Tunnelling depends on:

- the mass of the particle
- its energy (compared to the barrier)
- the width of the barrier



# Tunnelling in Chemical Reactions



The transmission probability  $G$  or permeability depends on energy.

The transmission coefficient  $\kappa$  is the correction factor

$$\kappa(T) = \frac{\int_0^\infty k_{\text{quant}}(T) dE}{\int_0^\infty k_{\text{class}}(T) dE} = \frac{\int_0^\infty G_{\text{quant}} e^{-E/RT} dE}{\int_0^\infty G_{\text{class}} e^{-E/RT} dE} = \frac{\int_0^\infty G_{\text{quant}} e^{-E/k_B T} dE}{\int_V^\infty e^{-E/k_B T} dE} = \frac{e^{V/k_B T}}{k_B T} \int_0^\infty G_{\text{quant}} e^{-E/k_B T} dE$$

$$k_{\text{quantum}}(T) = \kappa(T) k_{\text{classical}}(T)$$

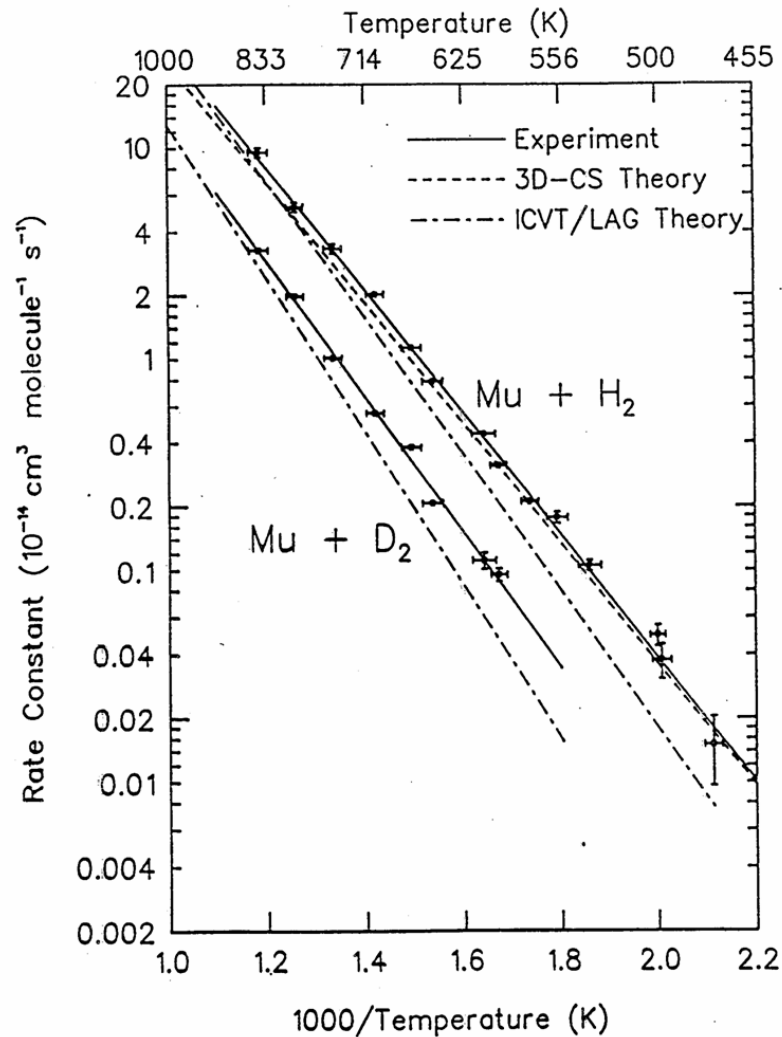
The PE curve is often approximated by a standard function to get an analytic solution.

e.g the Eckart barrier gives

$$\kappa(T) = 1 + \frac{1}{24} \left( \frac{h\nu^\ddagger}{k_B T} \right)^2 + \dots$$

imaginary frequency  
of reaction coordinate

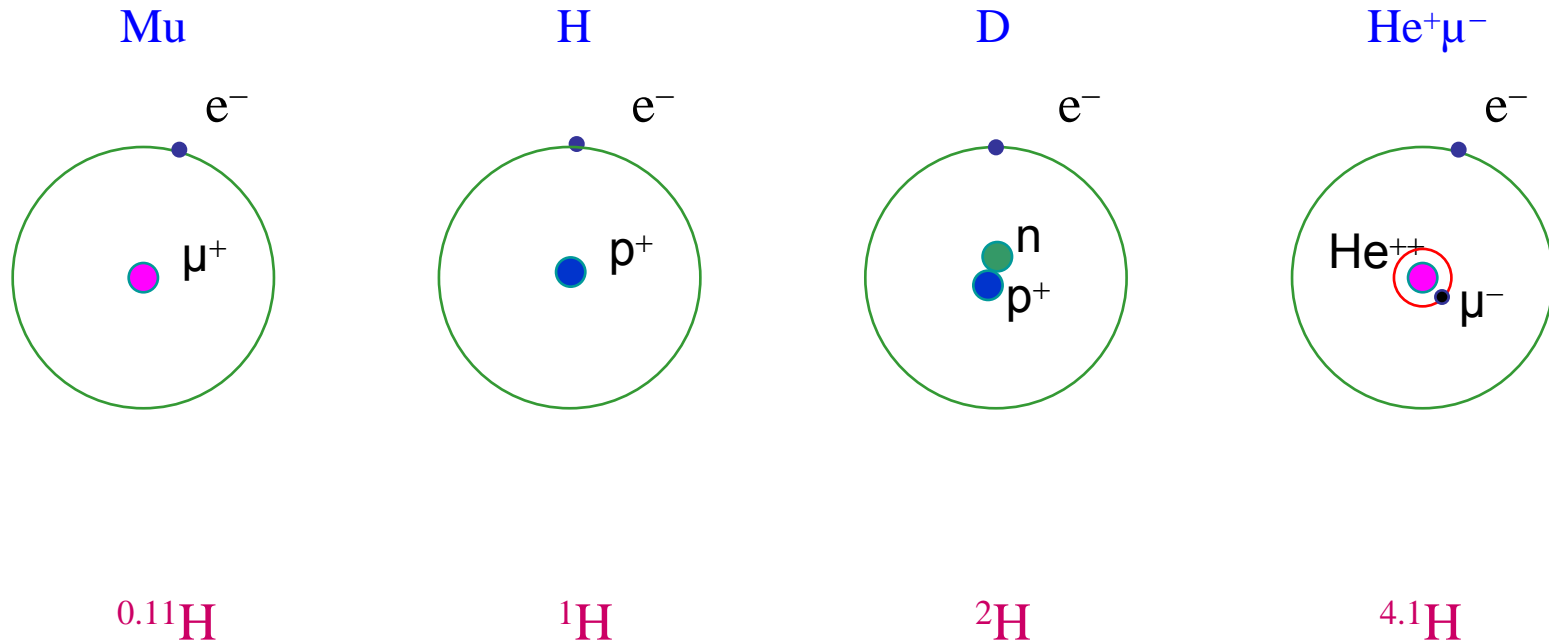
## Fundamental Kinetic Studies: H + H<sub>2</sub>



Experimental tests of reaction rate theory:  $\text{Mu} + \text{H}_2$  and  $\text{Mu} + \text{D}_2$   
 Fleming et al, J. Chem. Phys. 1987

Quasiclassical trajectory (and variational transition state theory) study of the rates and temperature-dependent activation energies of the reactions  $\text{Mu} + \text{H}_2$  (completely thermal) and H, D, and  $\text{Mu} + \text{H}_2$  ( $v=0, j=2$ )  
 Truhlar et al, J. Chem. Phys. 1983

# Hydrogen Isotopes



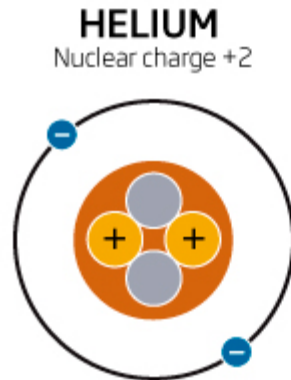


# Muonic Helium is a heavy isotope of hydrogen

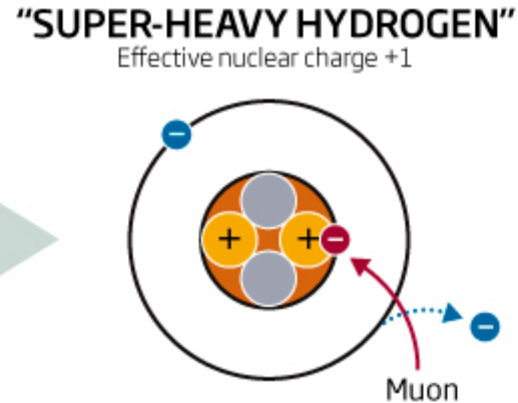
## Camouflaging the atom

Adding a muon to a helium atom makes it behave like a super-heavy hydrogen atom

- Electron  
 + Proton  
 ● Neutron



A muon can replace an electron in a helium atom. The muon is heavier than the electron and orbits much closer to the nucleus, shielding half its positive charge



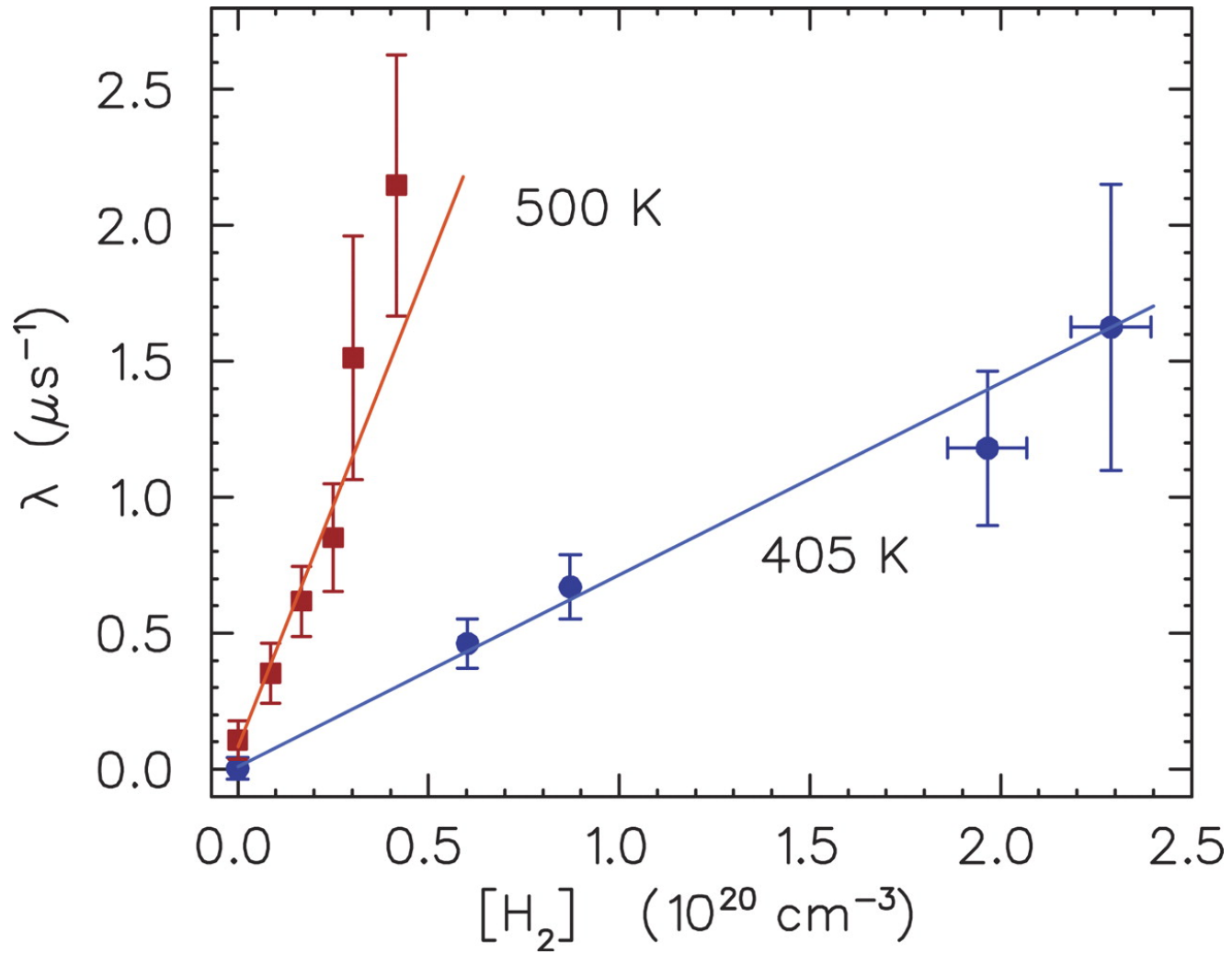
The resulting atom behaves chemically like hydrogen but is four times the mass



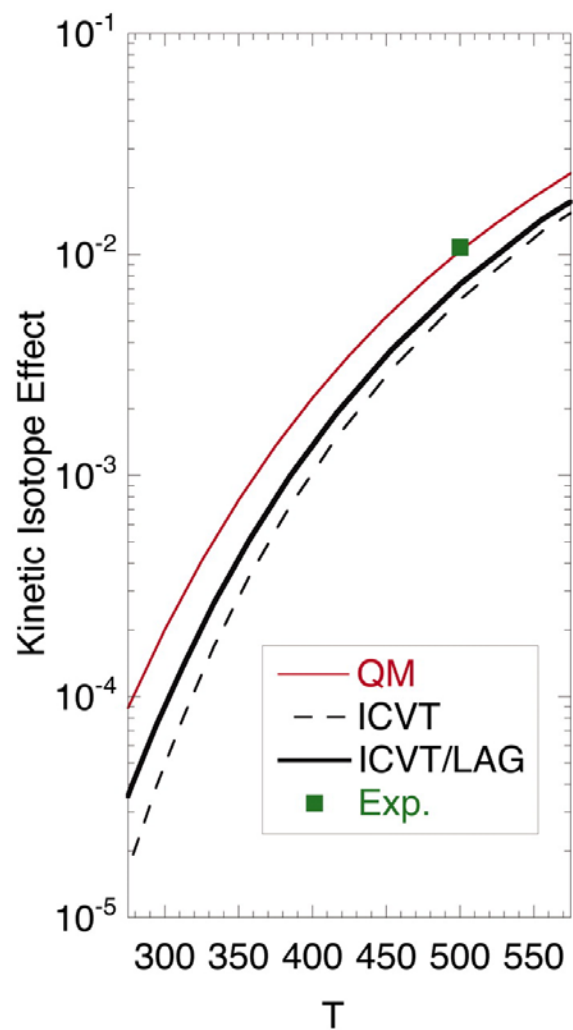
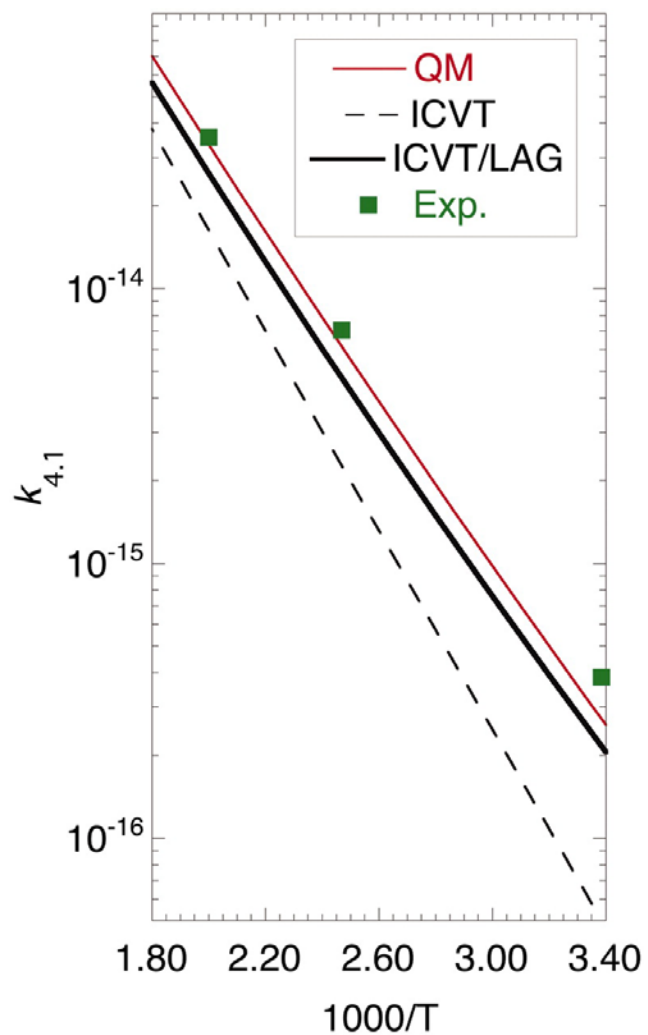
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Taken from a comment on a TRIUMF experiment by Don Fleming et al.

D G Fleming et al. Science 2011; 331: 448-450



# D G Fleming et al. Science 2011; 331: 448-450



$k_{0.11}/k_{4.1}$



## Muonium Isotope Effects

The chemistry of an atom depends primarily on

- ✧ the ionization potential      How easy is it to remove an electron?
- ✧ the radius      How are the electrons distributed?

For Mu these are almost the same as for H

However, for molecular vibrations involving Mu,

Mu—X

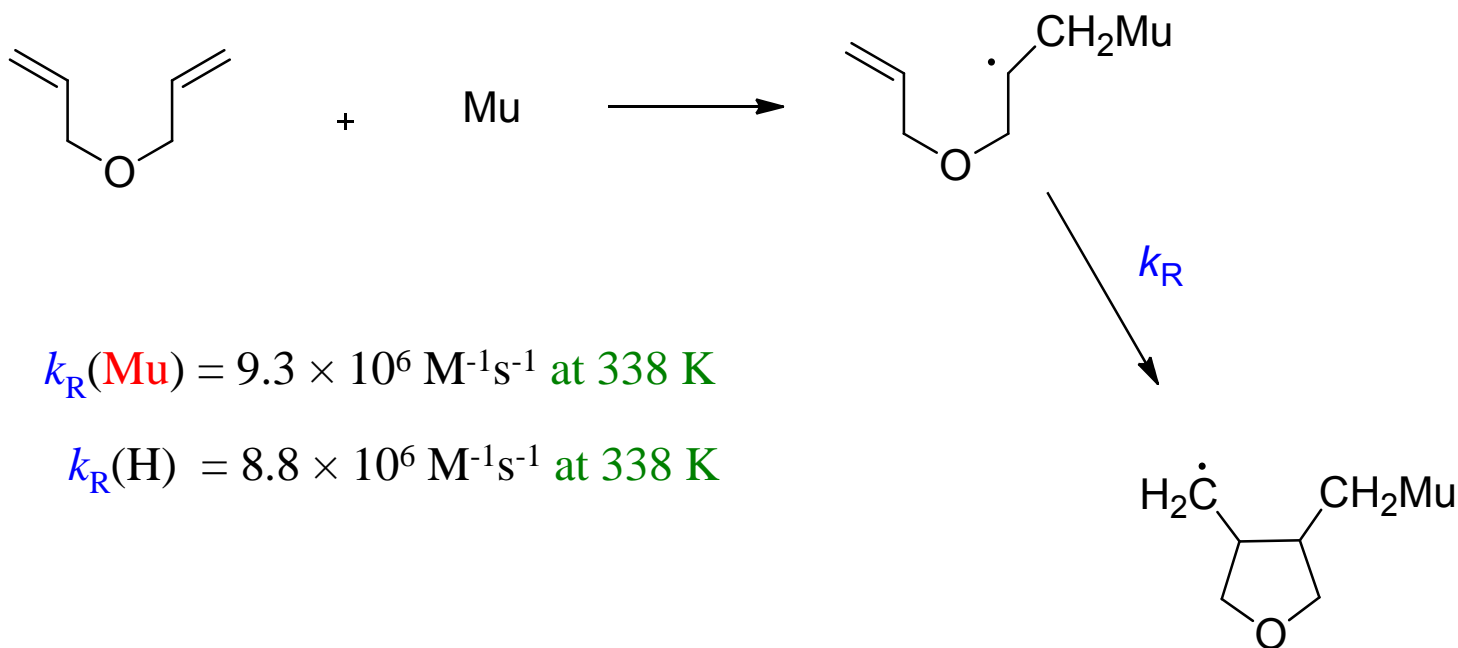
$$m_r = \frac{m_\mu m_X}{m_\mu + m_X} \approx m_\mu \quad \text{if } m_X \gg m_\mu$$

$$\therefore \nu_{\text{MuX}} = \sqrt{\frac{m_{\text{HX}}}{m_{\text{MuX}}}} \nu_{\text{HX}} \approx 3\nu_{\text{HX}}$$

⇒ Vibrational frequencies involving Mu are higher than for H

## The Muon as Spectator

in a free radical rearrangement



$$k_R(\text{Mu}) = 9.3 \times 10^6 \text{ M}^{-1}\text{s}^{-1} \text{ at } 338 \text{ K}$$

$$k_R(\text{H}) = 8.8 \times 10^6 \text{ M}^{-1}\text{s}^{-1} \text{ at } 338 \text{ K}$$

Mu does not affect the reaction rate because it is remote from the reaction site

Burkhard, Roduner, Hochmann and Fischer (1983)

# Arrhenius Temperature Dependence

The **Arrhenius** “law” is an **empirical** description of the  $T$  dependence of the rate constant:

$$k = A e^{-E_a/RT}$$

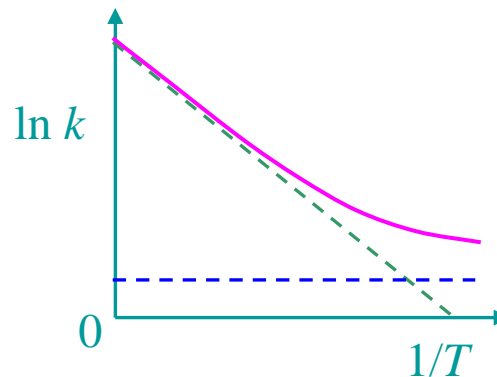
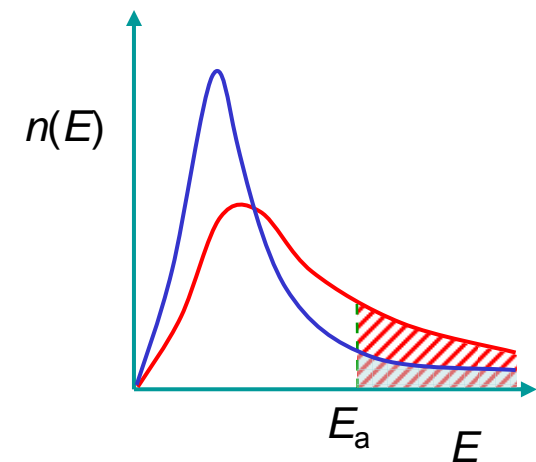
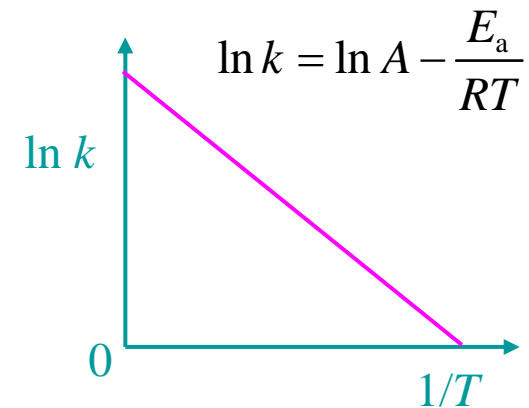
The pre-exponential factor is often interpreted as a collision rate.

Collision theory predicts  $T^{1/2}$  dependence for  $A$ .

Transition-state theory predicts linear  $T$  dependence for  $A$ .

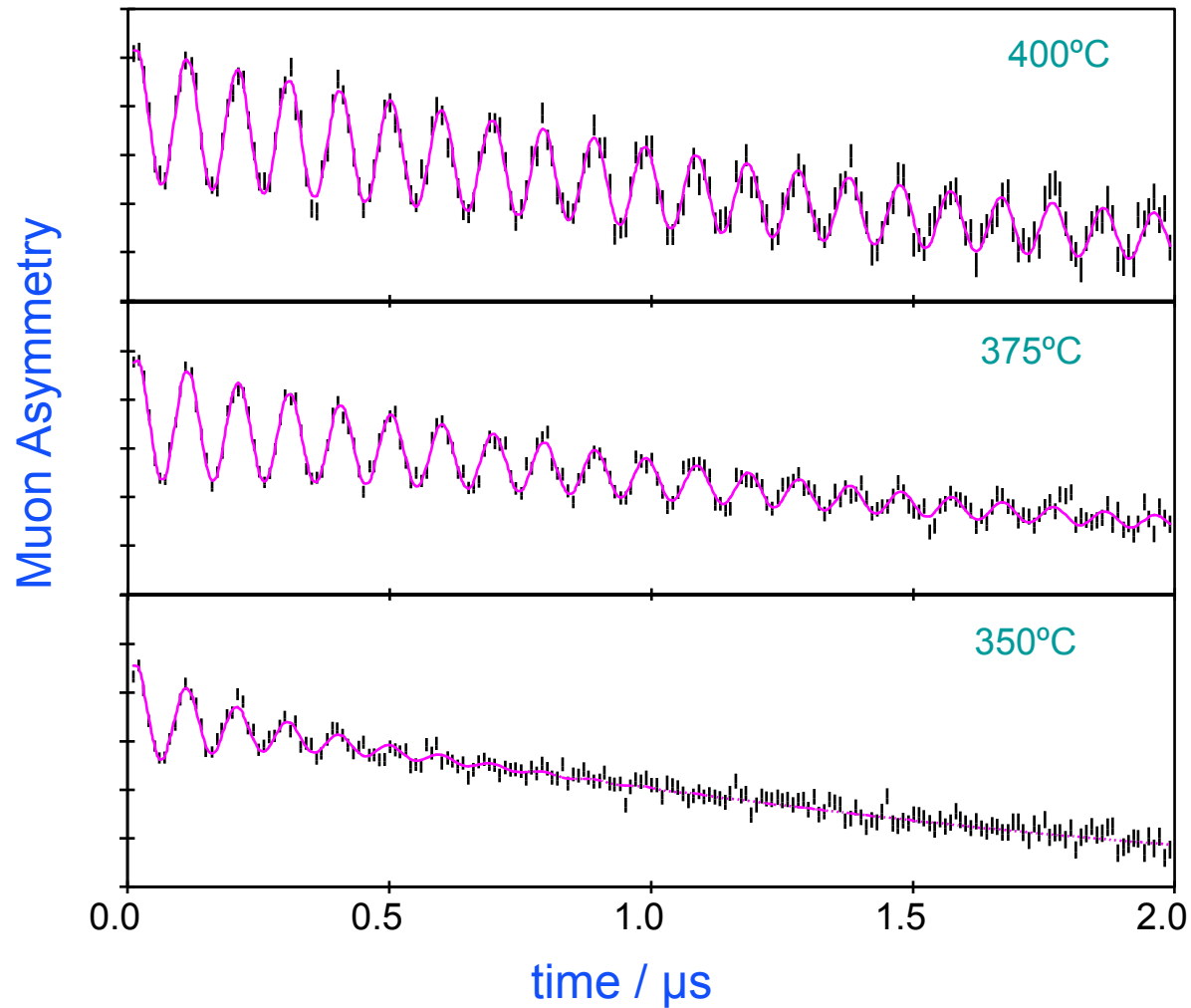
Curvature in the Arrhenius plot is often attributed to tunneling, but there are many other potential reasons.

The exponential factor describes the fraction of collisions with sufficient energy for reaction, as predicted by the **Boltzmann distribution**



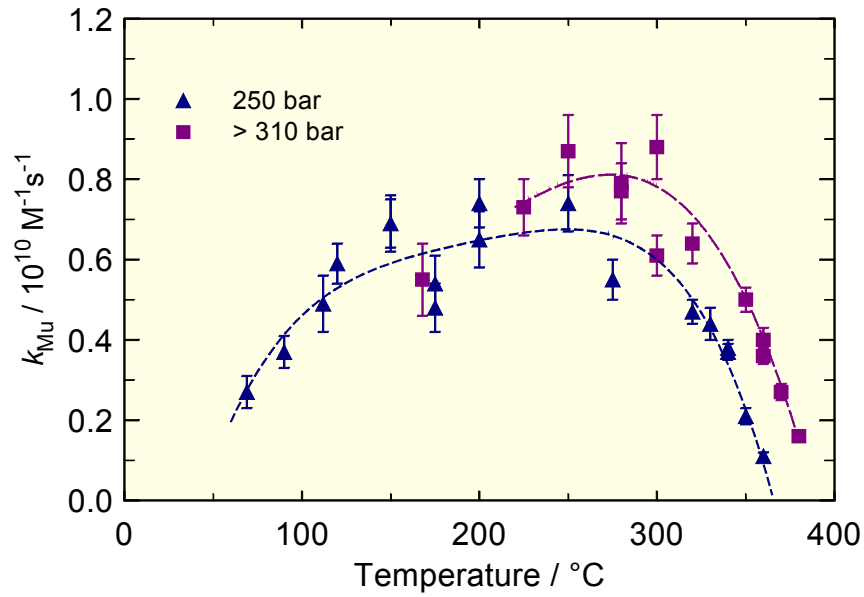
# Negative Temperature Dependence!

Muonium Signals in  $1.4 \times 10^{-4} \text{ M (Ni}^{2+})_{\text{aq}}$  at 250 atm

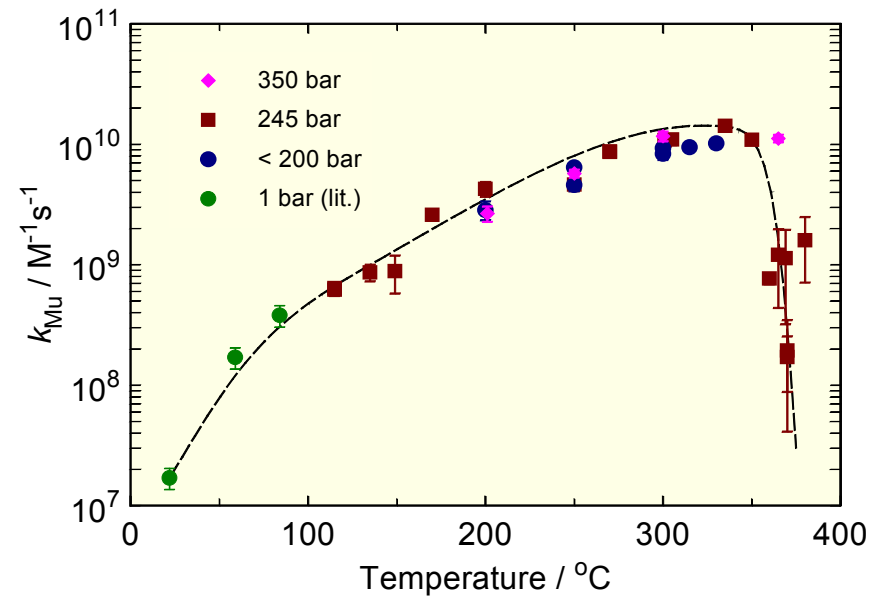


# A fall-off of rate is common for reactions in high T water

## Mu + Benzene



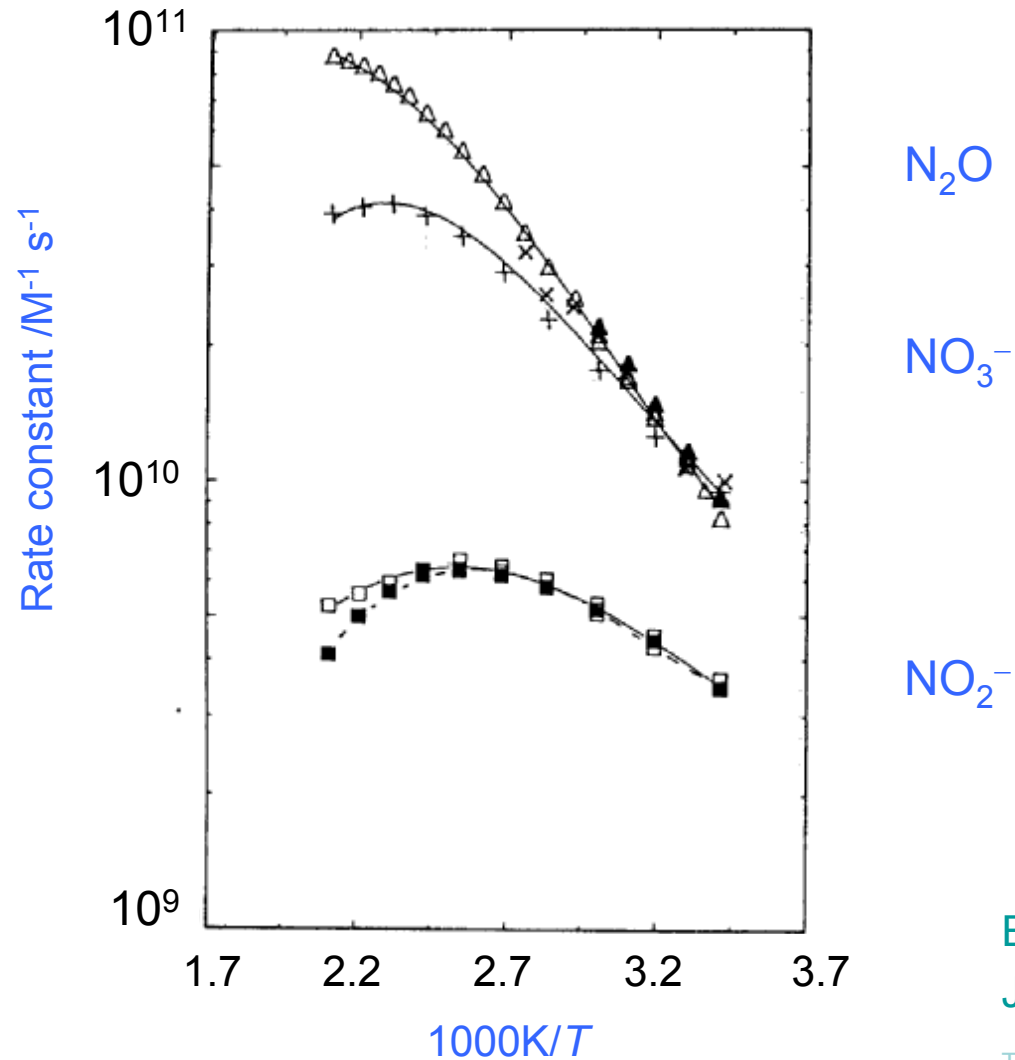
## Mu + OH<sup>-</sup> → MuOH + e<sub>aq</sub><sup>-</sup>





# Non-Arrhenius Temperature Dependence

Rate Constants for Reaction of the Hydrated Electron in Water

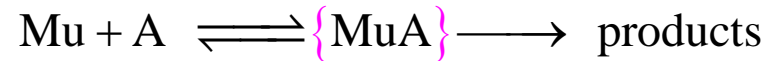


Elliot, Buxton, et al.,  
J C S. Far. Trans. (1990)

TRIUMF Summer Institute, August 2011

## Diffusion-Reaction Kinetics

For fast reactions in liquids the rate-determining step can be diffusion of the reactants to form the encounter pair.



diffusion

reaction

$$k_{\text{obs}} = \frac{k_{\text{diff}} k_{\text{act}}}{k_{\text{diff}} + k_{\text{act}}}$$

or

$$\frac{1}{k_{\text{obs}}} = \frac{1}{k_{\text{diff}}} + \frac{1}{k_{\text{act}}}$$

$$k_{\text{diff}} = 4\pi(R_{\text{Mu}} + R_{\text{A}})(D_{\text{Mu}} + D_{\text{A}})$$

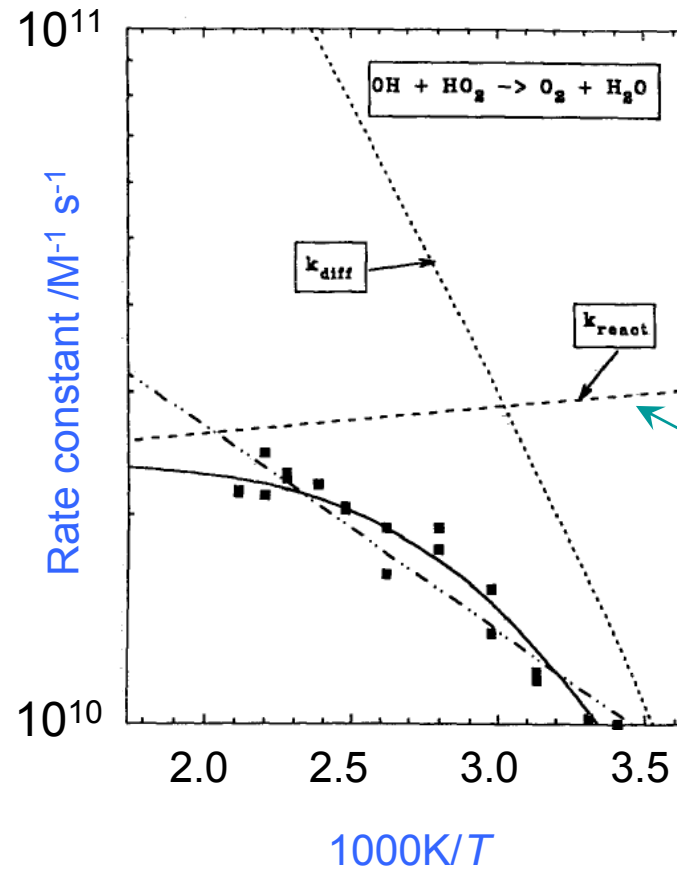
slow diffusion limit

$$k_{\text{act}} = A \exp(-E_a / RT)$$

fast diffusion limit, “reaction controlled”

## Non-Arrhenius Temperature Dependence – 2

Example: Reaction of the Hydroxyl Radical with Hydroperoxyl



$$\frac{1}{k_{obs}} = \frac{1}{k_{diff}} + \frac{1}{k_{react}}$$

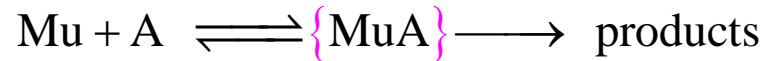
negative activation energy?

Elliot et al.,  
AECL Report 11073 (1994)

TRIUMF Summer Institute, August 2011

## Diffusion-Reaction Kinetics – Modified

For fast reactions in liquids the rate-determining step can be diffusion of the reactants to form the encounter pair.



diffusion

reaction

$$k_{\text{obs}} = \frac{k_{\text{diff}} k_{\text{act}}}{k_{\text{diff}} + k_{\text{act}}}$$

or

$$\frac{1}{k_{\text{obs}}} = \frac{1}{k_{\text{diff}}} + \frac{1}{k_{\text{act}}}$$

$$k_{\text{diff}} = 4\pi(R_{\text{Mu}} + R_{\text{A}})(D_{\text{Mu}} + D_{\text{A}})$$

slow diffusion limit

$$k_{\text{act}} = f_{\text{R}} A \exp(-E_a / RT)$$

fast diffusion limit, “reaction controlled”

where

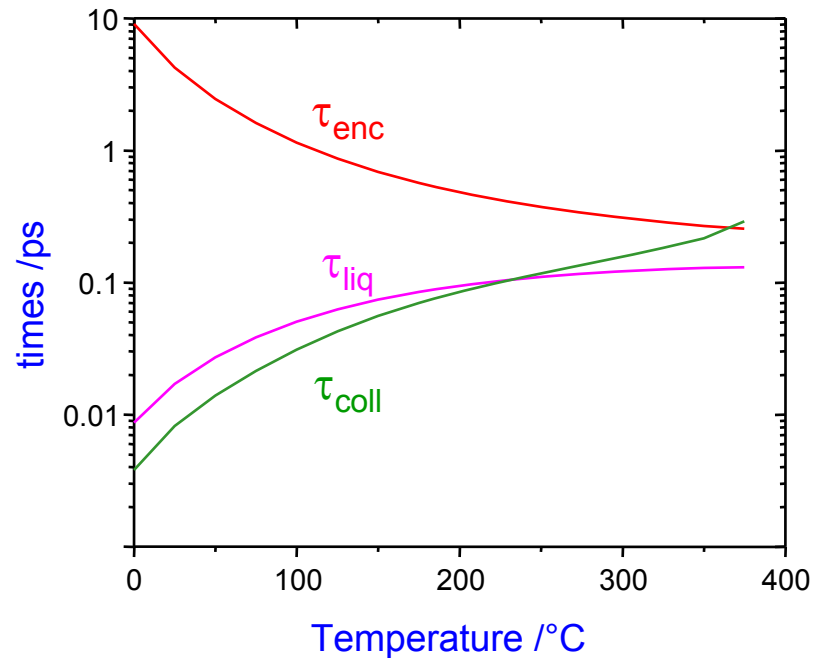
$$f_{\text{R}} = \frac{p_{\text{R}} Z_{\text{coll}}}{\tau_{\text{enc}}^{-1} + p_{\text{R}} Z_{\text{coll}}}$$

$p_{\text{R}}$  = orientation factor

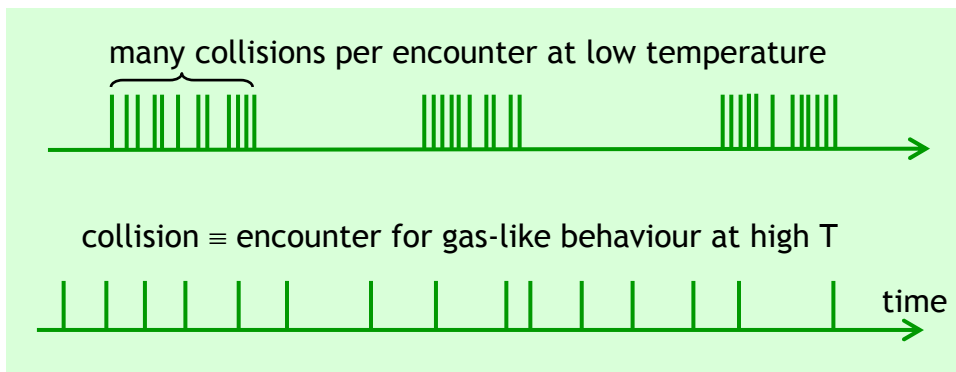
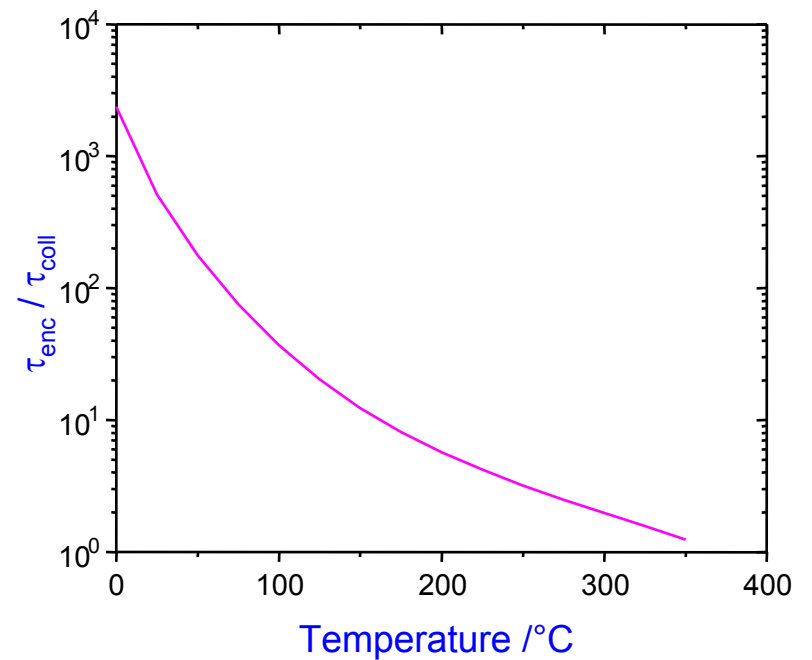
The reaction efficiency depends on the number of collisions of the reactant molecules per encounter.

# Collisions per Encounter

calculated for Mu + hydroquinone

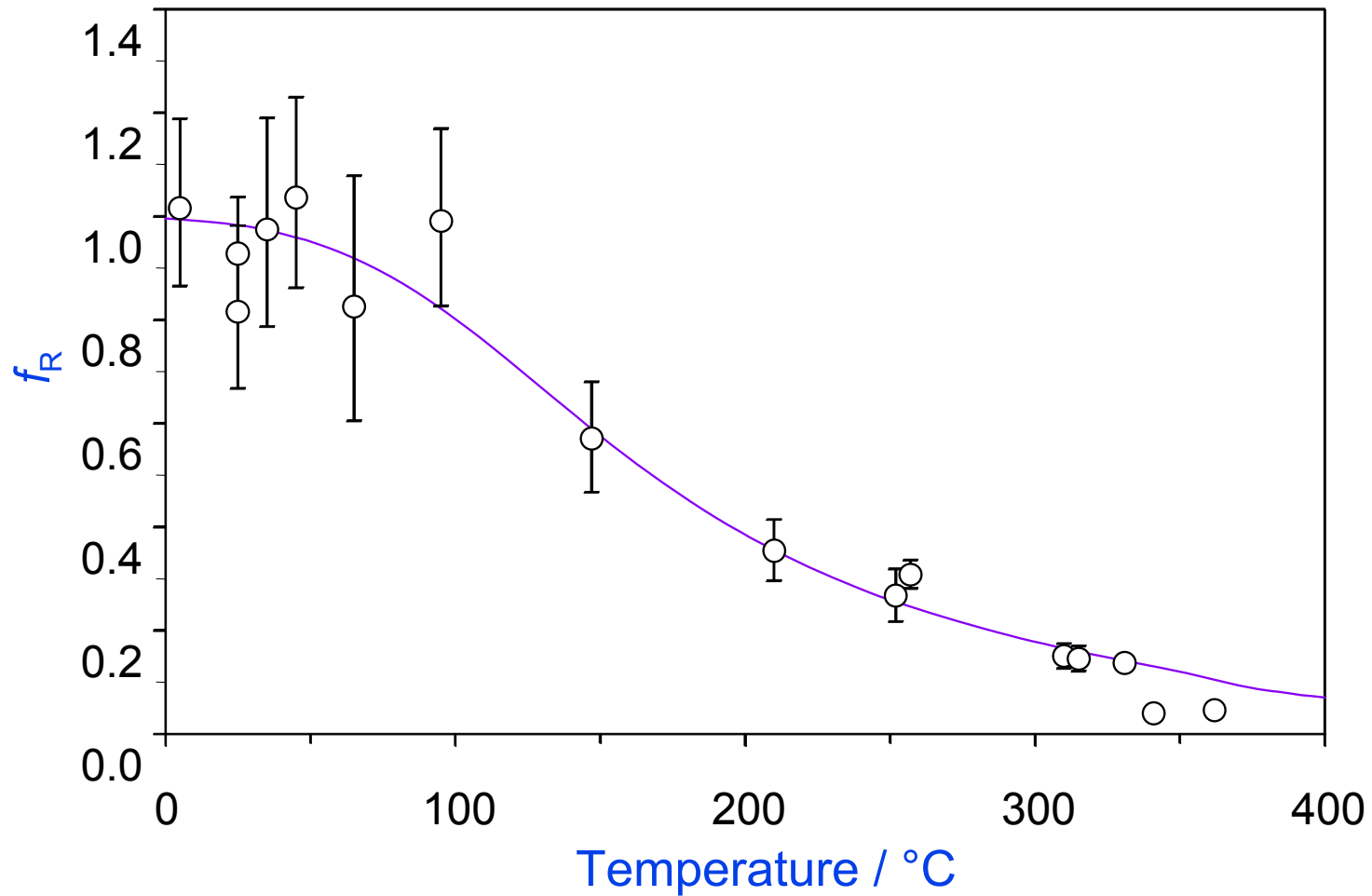


$$\tau_{enc} = \frac{8k_D^{-1}}{[H_2O]} \quad \tau_{liq} = \frac{\rho d^2}{6\eta} \quad \tau_{coll} = \frac{D_{liq}}{D_{gas}} Z_{gas}^{-1}$$



## Diffusion-Reaction Kinetics – 3

Reaction Efficiency for Mu + Hydroquinone in water

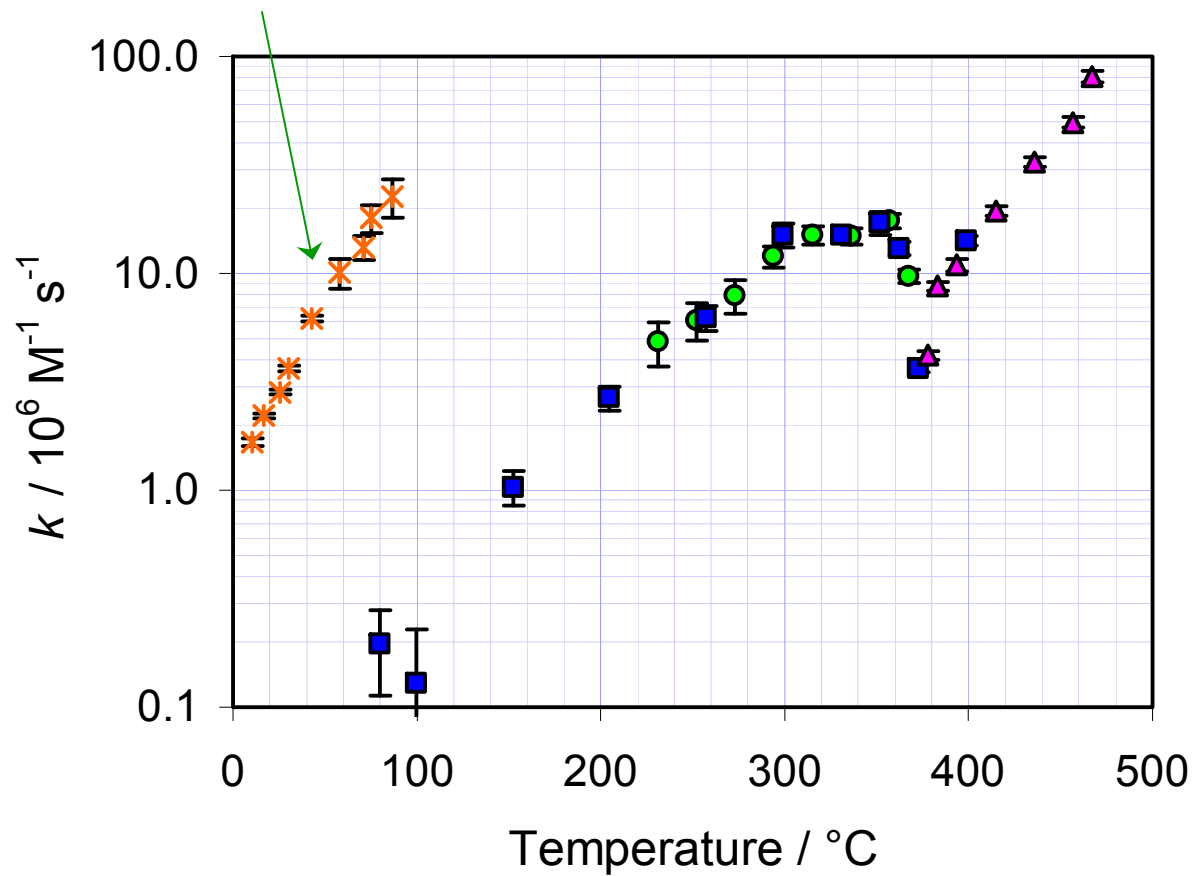


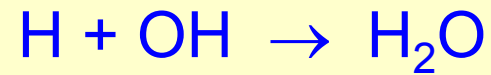
## H abstraction from methanol by Mu (H)

H + CH<sub>3</sub>OH

Mezyk and Bartels, 1994

Percival et al., 2007



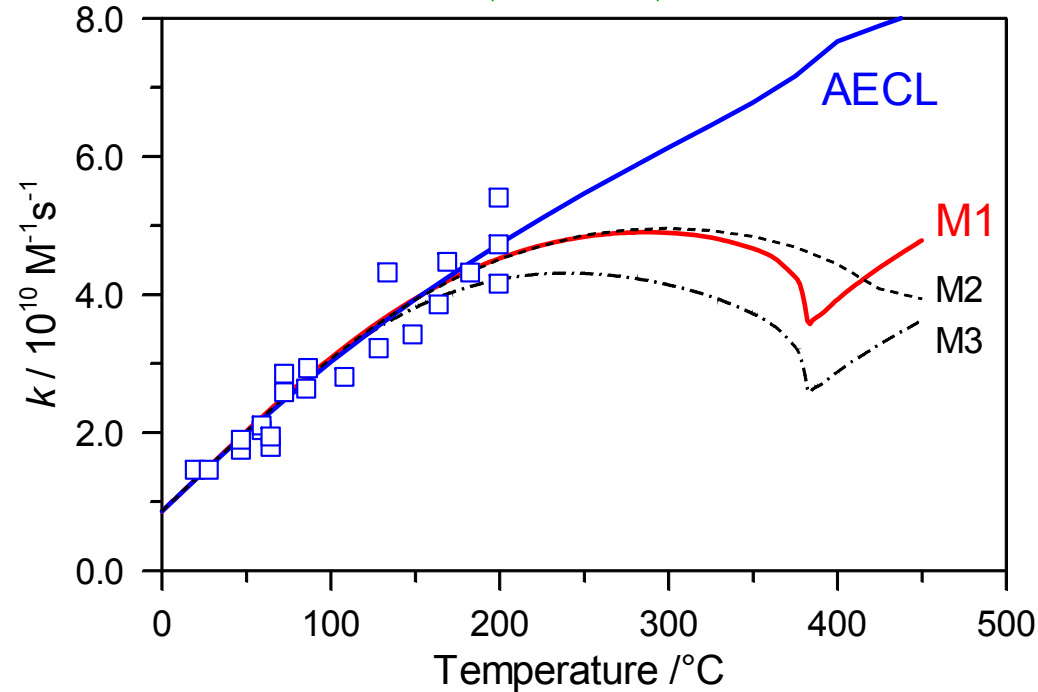


Data limited to 200°C

Buxton and Elliot,  
JCS Far. Trans. 89 (1993) 485

current PWR reactors

next generation reactors



Ghandi and Percival, J. Phys. Chem. A 107 (2003) 3006



## Supercritical-Water-Cooled Reactor

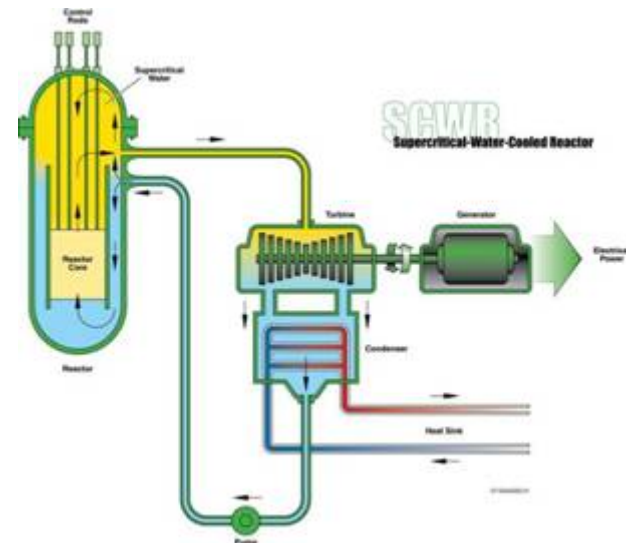
Canada is one of ten countries (the Generation IV International Forum) working together to lay the groundwork for fourth generation nuclear reactor systems.

The priority R & D areas for Canada include

“improved understanding of radiolysis under supercritical water conditions and the effect of radiolysis products on corrosion and stress corrosion cracking”.

The Supercritical-Water-Cooled Reactor (SCWR) system is a high-temperature, high-pressure water cooled reactor that operates above the thermodynamic critical point of water (374° C, 22 Mpa)

The SCWR system is primarily designed for efficient electricity production.



## Pressure Dependence of Reaction Rates

From classical thermodynamics

$$dG = VdP - SdT \quad \left(\frac{\partial G}{\partial P}\right)_T = V \quad \left(\frac{\partial \Delta G}{\partial P}\right)_T = \Delta V$$

For a reaction at equilibrium

$$\left(\frac{\partial \ln K}{\partial P}\right)_T = -\frac{1}{nRT} \left(\frac{\partial \Delta G}{\partial P}\right)_T = -\frac{\Delta \bar{V}^\circ}{RT}$$

$$\Delta \bar{V}^\circ = \bar{V}_{\text{prod}} - \bar{V}_{\text{react}} = (\bar{V}^\ddagger - \bar{V}_{\text{react}}) - (\bar{V}^\ddagger - \bar{V}_{\text{prod}}) = \Delta^\ddagger \bar{V}_1^\circ - \Delta^\ddagger \bar{V}_{-1}^\circ$$

Since

$$K = k_1/k_{-1} \quad \left(\frac{\partial \ln k_1}{\partial P}\right)_T - \left(\frac{\partial \ln k_{-1}}{\partial P}\right)_T = -\frac{\Delta^\ddagger \bar{V}_1^\circ}{RT} + \frac{\Delta^\ddagger \bar{V}_{-1}^\circ}{RT}$$

Most books state

$$\left(\frac{\partial \ln k_1}{\partial P}\right)_T = -\frac{\Delta^\ddagger \bar{V}_1^\circ}{RT} \quad \left(\frac{\partial \ln k_{-1}}{\partial P}\right)_T = \frac{\Delta^\ddagger \bar{V}_{-1}^\circ}{RT}$$

This neglects the difference between  $K^\circ$  and  $K_c$  only different for  $\Delta v \neq 0$

Since  $K_c = \bar{V}^\circ K^\circ$  for  $\Delta v = -1$

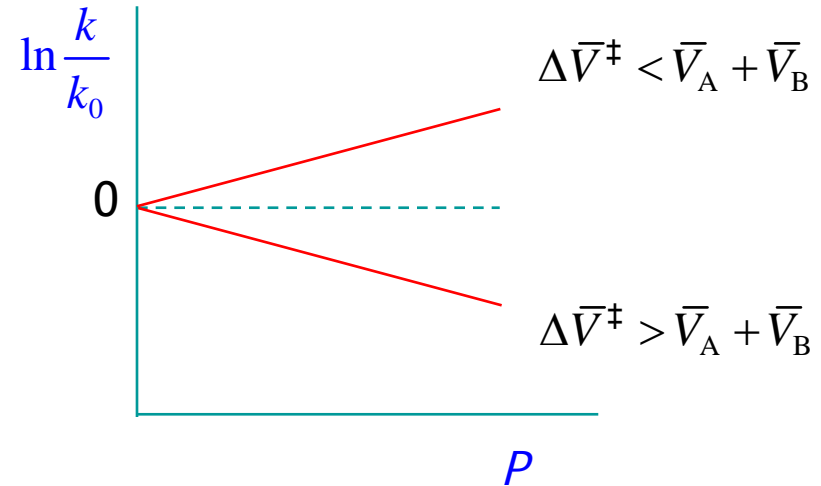
$$\left(\frac{\partial \ln k}{\partial P}\right)_T = -\frac{\Delta^\ddagger \bar{V}^\circ}{RT} - \kappa_0 \left(\frac{\partial \ln V}{\partial P}\right)_T = \frac{1}{V} \left(\frac{\partial V}{\partial P}\right)_T$$

← volume of activation  
← compressibility of the solvent

## Pressure Dependence – 2

Neglecting  $\kappa_0$

$$\ln k = \ln k_0 - \frac{\Delta \bar{V}^\ddagger}{RT} P$$



If reactants..

expect

combine

$$\Delta \bar{V}^\ddagger < 0$$

dissociate

$$\Delta \bar{V}^\ddagger > 0$$

have like charges

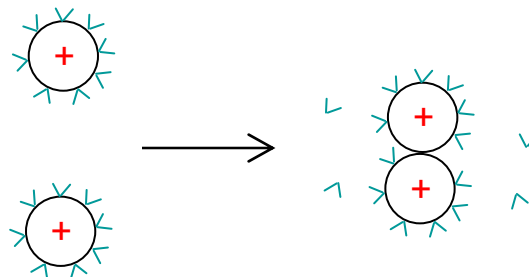
$$\Delta \bar{V}^\ddagger < 0$$

unlike charges

$$\Delta \bar{V}^\ddagger > 0$$

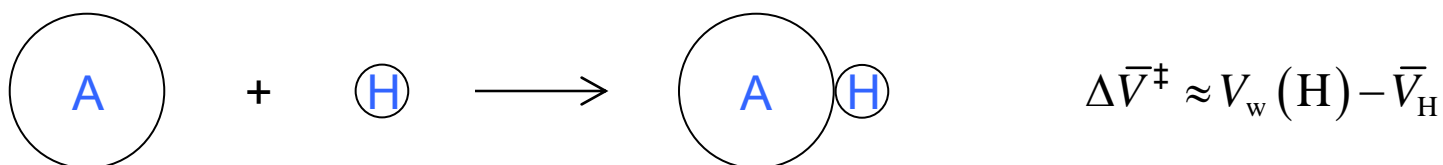
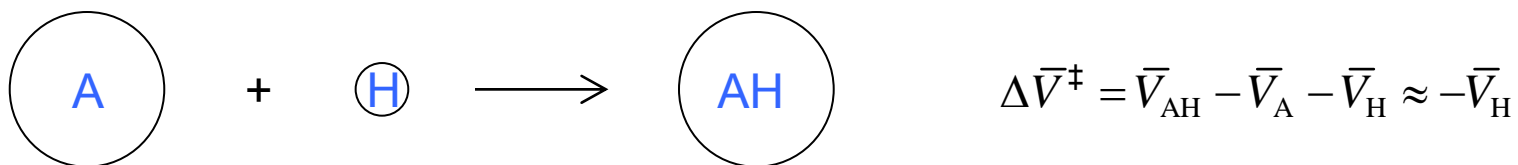
} similar effects for polar molecules (dipoles)  
Solvent effects are often dominant

Electrorestriction



ordering of the solvent  
molecules reduces  
their effective volume

## Volume of Activation for H Atom Reactions

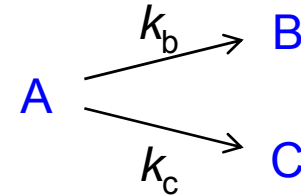


Comparison of  $\Delta \bar{V}^\ddagger(\text{H})$  and  $\Delta \bar{V}^\ddagger(\text{Mu})$  shows that  $V(\text{Mu}) > V(\text{H})$  in water.

## Parallel Reactions – Competition

Consider a molecule that can react by two different routes:

Define  $a = [A]$ ,  $b = [B]$ ,  $c = [C]$ .



The overall decay of A depends on both reactions:

$$-\frac{da}{dt} = k_b a + k_c a = (k_b + k_c) a \quad \Rightarrow \quad a = a_0 e^{-(k_b + k_c)t}$$

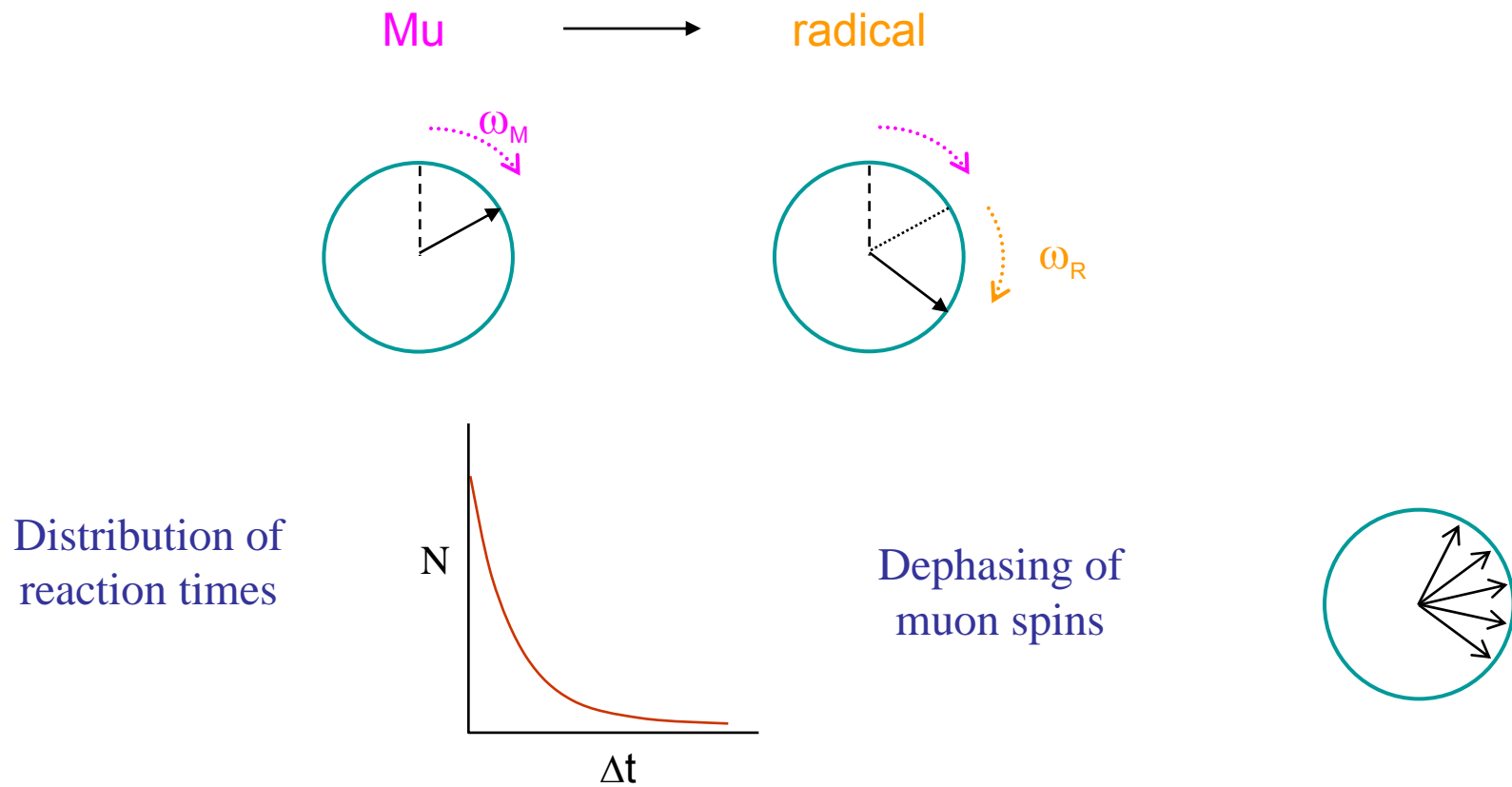
The rate of formation of each product depends on both rate constants:

$$\left. \begin{aligned} \frac{db}{dt} &= k_b a = k_b a_0 e^{-(k_b + k_c)t} \\ \frac{dc}{dt} &= k_c a = k_c a_0 e^{-(k_b + k_c)t} \end{aligned} \right\} \Rightarrow \frac{b}{c} = \frac{k_b \int a dt}{k_c \int a dt} = \frac{k_b}{k_c} = \frac{db/dt}{dc/dt}$$

$$\frac{k_b}{k_c} = \frac{[B]}{[C]} = \frac{\text{yield of B}}{\text{yield of C}}$$

This is the basis for **competition kinetics**, whereby an unknown rate constant is determined from a known rate constant and the ratio of competitive products.

# Muon Spin Dephasing During Reaction



# Muon Spin Dephasing During Reaction: Theory

high field

$$P_x(\nu_{12}) = \frac{1}{2} \left[ \frac{c_M^2}{1 + \Delta_{1212}^2} + \frac{s_M^2}{1 + \Delta_{1412}^2} \right] \quad P_y(\nu_{12}) = \frac{1}{2} \left[ \frac{c_M^2 \Delta_{1212}}{1 + \Delta_{1212}^2} + \frac{s_M^2 \Delta_{1212}}{1 + \Delta_{1412}^2} \right]$$

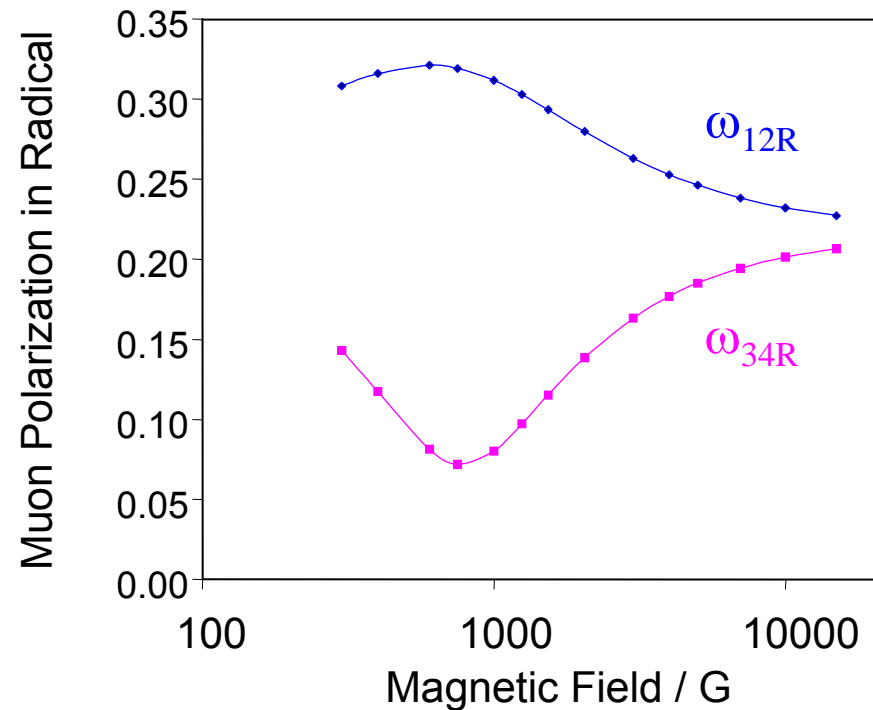
$$P_{\perp}(\nu_{12}) = \left[ P_x(\nu_{12})^2 + P_y(\nu_{12})^2 \right]^{1/2}$$

$$\Delta_{1212} = (\omega_{12M} - \omega_{12R}) / \lambda$$

$$\Delta_{1214} = (\omega_{12M} - \omega_{14R}) / \lambda$$

$$\Delta_{2343} = (\omega_{43M} - \omega_{23R}) / \lambda$$

$$\Delta_{4343} = (\omega_{43M} - \omega_{43R}) / \lambda$$

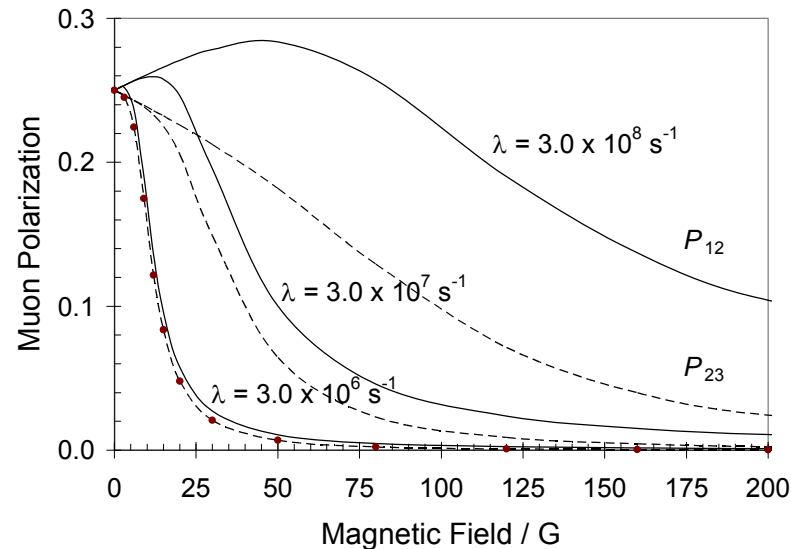


## Transfer of Muon Polarization as $\text{Mu} \rightarrow \text{Radical}$

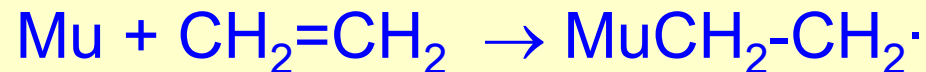
$$P(v_{12}) = \frac{1}{2} \left\{ \left[ \frac{(c_M^2 c_R^2 + c_M s_M c_R s_R)}{1 + \Delta_{1212}^2} + \frac{(s_M^2 c_R^2 - c_M s_M c_R s_R)}{1 + \Delta_{1412}^2} \right]^2 + \left[ \frac{(c_M^2 c_R^2 + c_M s_M c_R s_R) \Delta_{1212}}{1 + \Delta_{1212}^2} + \frac{(s_M^2 c_R^2 - c_M s_M c_R s_R) \Delta_{1412}}{1 + \Delta_{1412}^2} \right]^2 \right\}^{1/2}$$

$$P(v_{23}) = \frac{1}{2} \left\{ \left[ \frac{(c_M^2 c_R^2 + c_M s_M c_R s_R)}{1 + \Delta_{2323}^2} + \frac{(s_M^2 c_R^2 - c_M s_M c_R s_R)}{1 + \Delta_{4323}^2} \right]^2 + \left[ \frac{(s_M^2 s_R^2 + c_M s_M c_R s_R) \Delta_{2323}}{1 + \Delta_{2323}^2} + \frac{(c_M^2 s_R^2 - c_M s_M c_R s_R) \Delta_{4323}}{1 + \Delta_{4323}^2} \right]^2 \right\}^{1/2}$$

where  $\Delta_{1214} = (\omega_{12M} - \omega_{14R}) / \lambda$  etc.







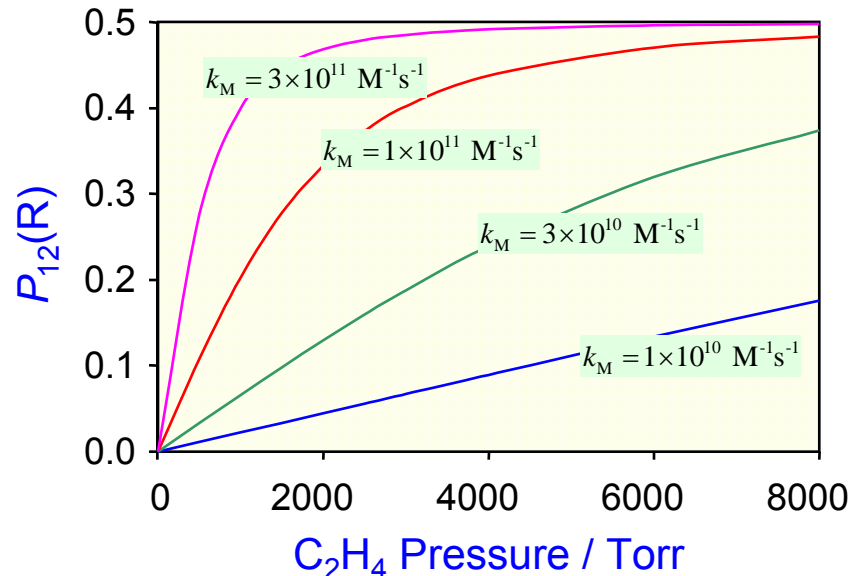
If the radical is formed via muonium there is loss of signal amplitude due to incoherent spin precession in the product. The muon polarization at the lower radical precession frequency is given by:

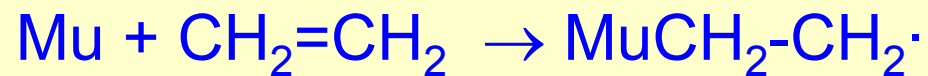
$$P_{12}(\text{R}) = \frac{1}{2} h_{\text{M}} \left[ \frac{\lambda^2}{\lambda^2 + \Delta\omega_{12}^2} \right]^{1/2}$$

$h_{\text{M}}$  = initial fraction of muon polarization in Mu

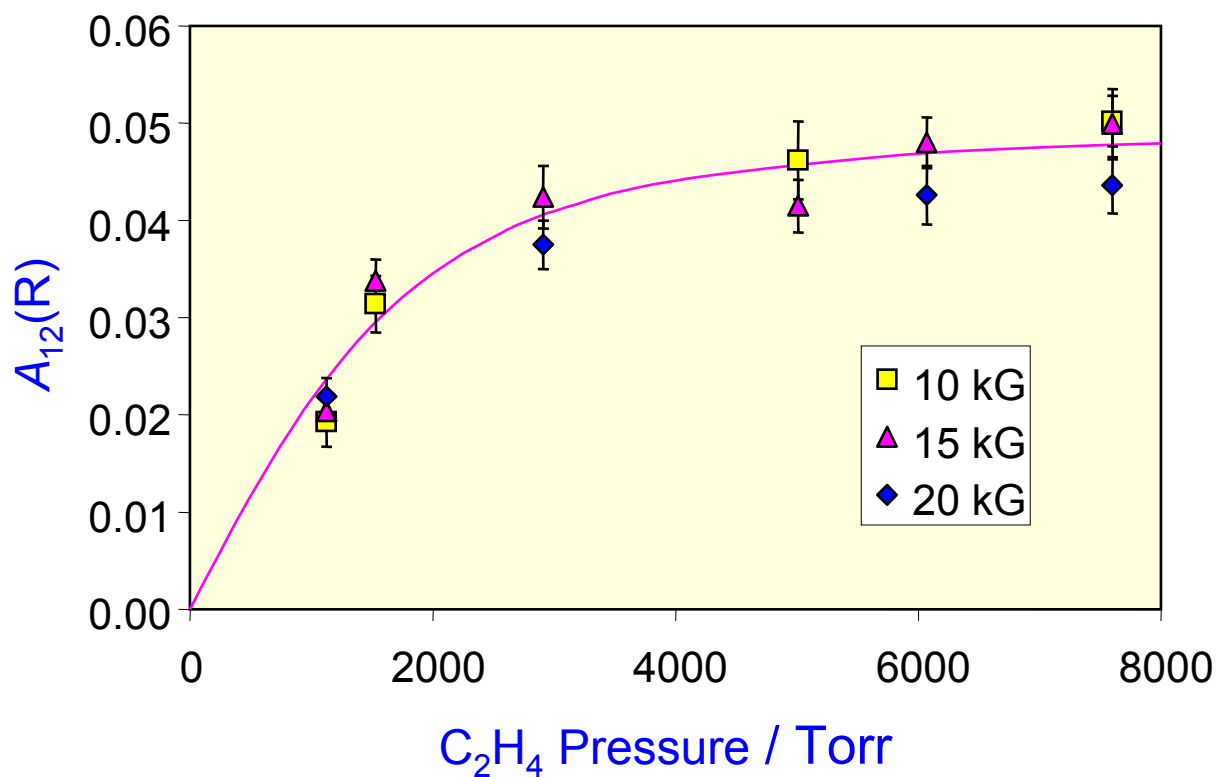
$\lambda = k_{\text{M}}[\text{ethene}] =$  first-order reaction rate

$\Delta\omega_{12} = \omega_{12}^{\text{M}} - \omega_{12}^{\text{R}} =$  change in precession frequency





The data for pure ethene can be described by a simple 1-step model in which Mu is converted to a radical.



## Transfer of Muon Spin Polarization Between Radicals

$$P(\omega_{12}) = \frac{1}{2} \left\{ \left[ \frac{C}{1 + \Delta_{1212}^2} + \frac{S}{1 + \Delta_{1412}^2} \right]^2 + \left[ \frac{C \Delta_{1212}}{1 + \Delta_{1212}^2} + \frac{S \Delta_{1412}}{1 + \Delta_{1412}^2} \right]^2 \right\}^{1/2}$$

$$P(\omega_{43}) = \frac{1}{2} \left\{ \left[ \frac{C}{1 + \Delta_{4343}^2} + \frac{S}{1 + \Delta_{2343}^2} \right]^2 + \left[ \frac{C \Delta_{4343}}{1 + \Delta_{4343}^2} + \frac{S \Delta_{2343}}{1 + \Delta_{2343}^2} \right]^2 \right\}^{1/2}$$

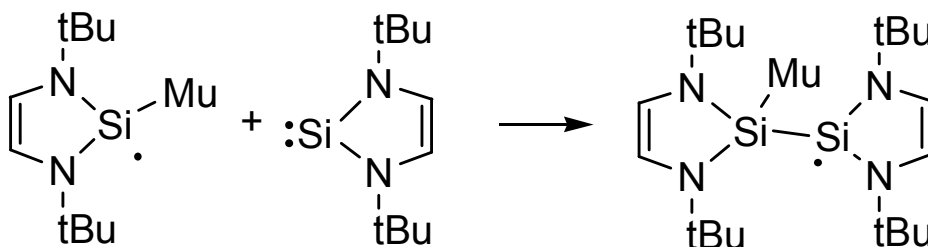
$$\Delta_{klmn} = (\omega_{kl} - \omega_{mn}) / \lambda$$

$$C = c_{R1}^2 c_{R2}^2 + c_{R1} s_{R1} c_{R2} s_{R2} \quad c = \left\{ 1 + \frac{(\omega_e + \omega_\mu)}{\left[ \omega_0^2 + (\omega_e + \omega_\mu)^2 \right]^{1/2}} \right\}^{1/2}, \quad s^2 = c^2 - 1$$

$$S = s_{R1}^2 c_{R2}^2 - c_{R1} s_{R1} c_{R2} s_{R2}$$

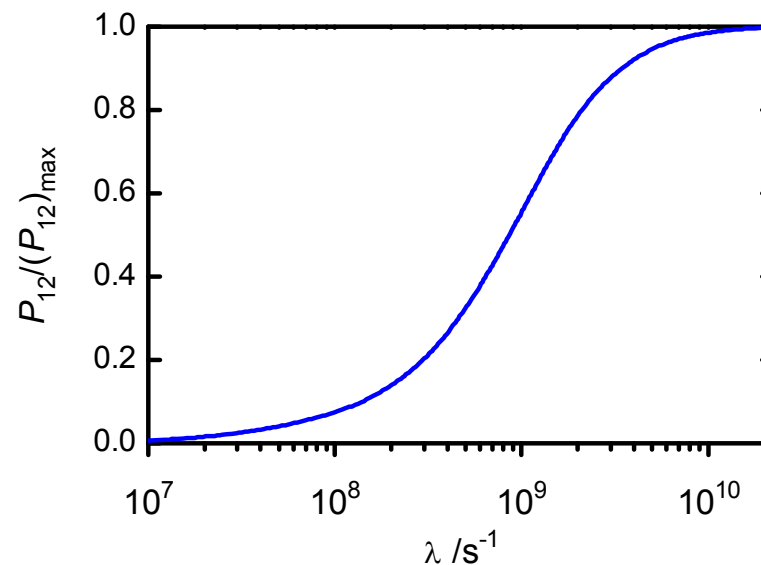
$$P(\omega_{12}) = \frac{1}{2} \left[ \frac{\lambda^2}{\lambda^2 + (\omega_{12R1} - \omega_{12R2})^2} \right]^{1/2}$$

## Radical Coupling of a Silyl to Form a Disilanyl



R1(hfc 722.5 MHz)  $\rightarrow$  R2(hfc 235.4 MHz)  
at 14.5 kG

$$P(\omega_{12}) = \frac{1}{2} \left[ \frac{\lambda^2}{\lambda^2 + (\omega_{12R1} - \omega_{12R2})^2} \right]^{1/2}$$



Measured polarization = 51%  $\Rightarrow \lambda = 8.9 \times 10^8 \text{ s}^{-1}$   
 $\Rightarrow k = 5.7 \times 10^8 \text{ M}^{-1}\text{s}^{-1}$

McCollum, Brodovitch, Clyburne, Percival and West, *Physica B*, 404 (2009) 940-942.

