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Abstract. We have measured the kinetic energy distributions for the mutual neutralization of a large ensemble of atomic anions and cations. Ions are accelerated to equal velocities in a merged beam setup, enabling measurements at collision energies as low as 5 meV. Three-dimensional momentum imaging is performed with two position sensitive detectors located several meters downstream from the few centimeter long region where the beams overlap. An unprecedented resolution in the kinetic energy release (KER) spectra allows us to identify the states of both reactants and products down to their fine structure. Knowing the angular distribution of the products in the laboratory and center-of-mass frame, allows for total, partial, and differential cross sections to be retrieved.

1. Introduction

Anions are present in a variety of astrophysical environments [1]. Their presence in molecular clouds has been confirmed quite recently with the detection of C$_6$H$^-$ [2], soon to be followed by C$_4$H$^-$ [3], C$_3$H$^-$ [4], C$_3$N$^-$ [5], C$_5$N$^-$ [6], and lately CN$^-$ [7]. They are thought to be the main reservoir of negative charges in cold and dense environments. While radiative and dissociative attachment are thought to be their dominant formation route, mutual neutralization would constitute an important destruction mechanism besides photodetachment [8].

Vuitton et al [9] characterized the abundance and role of CN$^-$ and C$_3$N$^-$ anions in the chemistry of Titan’s upper atmosphere. More importantly, they identified associative detachment to radical species as the major destruction pathway. Closer to us, the role of oxygen anions in Earth’s upper atmosphere is clearly established [10]. Electrons attach to oxygen on the night side, and ionospheric reactions take place that produce characteristic nightglows. Satellite images of the UV tropical nightglow of O I at 135.6 nm have been interpreted as resulting for a large part from the mutual neutralization reaction O$^- + O^+ \rightarrow O(^5P) + O$, followed by the radiative cascade O($^5P$) $\rightarrow$ O($^5S$) $\rightarrow$ O($^5P$) (note that the first emission at 777 nm is also observed) [11, 12]. Finally, high-resolution spectroscopy of trace metallic elements present in the outer layers of stellar objects is now widely available [13]. A quantitative interpretation
of those spectra in terms of elemental abundances can only be reached through non-local thermodynamic equilibrium (non-LTE) stellar atmosphere modeling [14], which in turn requires full understanding of the ion-pair to covalent transitions responsible for collisional excitation between neutrals and mutual neutralization between ions [15, 16].

Of more practical application is the role played by negative ions in technical plasmas, the most obvious being the large scale production of high energy, high current negative deuterium beams as precursors of powerful neutral beams [17]. Their tangential injection into the toroidal plasma of tokamaks like ITER should increase the plasma temperature beyond the point where ohmic heating becomes inefficient. Volume production of D\(^{-}\) is normally impeded by the concurrent neutralization with D\(^{+}\), D\(^{2+}\) and D\(^{3+}\) cations [18]. This limitation has been overcome by means of cesiated surfaces increasing the relative abundance of low energy electrons and the partitioning of the plasma volume between hot ionization and colder recombination regions, with the help of magnetic grids [19].

2. Mutual neutralization

Subthermal collisions, i.e., collisions at velocities typical of a cold gas, do not necessarily proceed along weakly attractive potentials nor do they exhibit long-range potential barriers limiting the rate coefficient to some finite value. Indeed, anion-cation collisions are dominated by the long-range Coulomb attraction that captures increasingly large impact parameters as the collision velocity is reduced. Such processes have diverging rate coefficients as allowed by Wigner’s threshold law. The reaction channels that are accessible at low energy are:

\[ A^+ + B^- \rightarrow A^* + B^* \quad \text{MN} \]  
\[ \rightarrow A + B^+ + e^- \quad \text{TI} \]  
\[ \rightarrow A^- + B^+ \quad \text{CX} \]  
\[ \rightarrow AB^+ + e^- \quad \text{AI} \]  

where MN stands for mutual neutralization, TI for transfer ionization, CX for (double) charge exchange and AI for associative ionization (see [20] for a review). When dealing with polyatomic systems, e.g. H\(_2^+\) + O\(^-\) [21] and CH\(^+\) + O\(^-\) [22], one may further distinguish:

\[ \text{AB}^+ + \text{C}^- \rightarrow \text{AC}^* + \text{B} \quad \text{RN} \]  
\[ \rightarrow \text{AC}^+ + \text{B} + e^- \quad \text{RI} \]  
\[ \rightarrow \text{ABC} + h\nu \quad \text{RA} \]  

where RN stands for reactive neutralization, RI for reactive ionization, and RA for radiative association. For the latter process to occur, a long-lived resonance must be formed, for the radiative stabilization to compete with the predissociation of the collisional complex.

Due to energy conservation, the energy imparted to mutual neutralization products reflects their degree of internal excitation. This exoergicity will be referred to as the (total) kinetic energy release (KER):

\[ A^+ + B^- \rightarrow A^* + B^* + \text{KER} \]  
\[ \text{KER} = [\text{IP}(A) - \text{E}_{\text{exc}}(A^*)] - [\text{EA}(B) + \text{E}_{\text{exc}}(B^*)] \]  

where \text{IP} is the ionization potential of atom A, \text{E}_{\text{exc}} its excitation energy, and \text{EA} the electron affinity of atom B. A schematic potential energy diagram is given in Figure 1 for the O\(^+\) + O\(^-\) reaction. As discussed below, the electron transfer will preferably occur at the crossing points
constant potentials corresponding to the various covalent channels situated below the incoming asymptote. The experimental challenge will therefore be to energetically resolve these outgoing channels while collecting all mutual neutralization products, thereby obtaining total and partial MN cross sections. These will eventually benchmark theoretical calculations giving complete access to the full scattering matrix, i.e., excitation, deexcitation, mutual neutralization and ion pair formation reactions. We describe hereafter some recent advances towards the completion of this task.

3. Single-pass merged beam experiment

In order to manipulate ion beams of different species and bring them to low relative collision velocities, we opt for the well-established merged beam arrangement (see [23] for a review). In this configuration, collimated beams of fast ions are brought into confluence at equal velocities, reducing the center-of-mass collision energy \( E_r \) to virtually zero. More precisely:

\[
E_r = \mu \left[ \frac{E_1}{M_1} + \frac{E_2}{M_2} - 2 \sqrt{\frac{E_1 E_2}{M_1 M_2} \cos \phi} \right] \simeq \frac{\mu}{M_1} E_1 \phi^2
\]  

(10)

where \( E_1, M_1, E_2 \) and \( M_2 \) stand for the laboratory energies and masses of colliding ions, with \( E_1/M_1 \simeq E_2/M_2 \), \( \mu \) is the reduced mass and \( \phi \) is the average angle formed by the interacting beams. As a consequence, beam energies have to be scaled according to the mass ratio between the species under study, which limits the range of applicability of the method. In the set-up depicted on Figure 2 [24, 25], cations and anions are first accelerated and brought along parallel trajectories, to be electrostatically merged by two pairs of parallel plates mounted on a movable assembly. This motion is required to fulfil the merging criterion, i.e., they must enter the last steering element at an angle that is inversely proportional to their kinetic energy for them to come out parallel to one another. Detuning the collision energy from near-zero to a finite and controlled value is performed by applying some electrical bias to the interaction cell located in the UHV section of the apparatus (\( \sim 10^{-10} \) mbar). Reaction products may be charged or neutral. For mutual neutralization studies, both ion beams are dumped at the exit of the UHV region, while the neutrals fly unaffected towards the detection system located 3 to 5 m downstream. For the simple case of particles of equal velocity \( v \) and laboratory energy \( E \), the kinetic energy release (KER) is related to the spatial \( (\Delta x) \) and temporal \( (\Delta t) \) separation of the

![Figure 1. Diabatic potential energy diagram (schematic) for the O\(^+\) + O\(^-\) mutual neutralization. The excitation energy \( E_{exc} \) of O(2\(s^22p^3nl^{2S+1}L \) levels is converted to the kinetic energy release KER by means of Eq. 9. \( R_X \) is the internuclear distance at which electron transfer takes place.](image-url)
products detected at a distance $L$ from the interaction region:

$$\text{KER} = \frac{E}{2L^2} \left[ \Delta x^2 + v^2 \Delta t^2 \right]$$

(11)

The resolution of the KER measurement will strongly depend on the precision to which $L$ is known, i.e., on the ratio of the interaction length $d$ to the average distance to the detectors. In the present case, $2 < d < 7.5$ cm and $L < 5$ m, producing a relative KER resolution of $\sim 1\%$.

Last, when dealing with merged electron and ion beams, it is common practice to describe their interaction in the co-moving frame by two temperatures, $T_{\parallel}$ and $T_{\perp}$. The former is a direct measure of the longitudinal velocity spread, while the latter reflects the collimation of the beams. The distribution of relative velocities reads:

$$f(v_d, \vec{v}) = \frac{m}{2\pi k T_{\perp}} \sqrt{\frac{m}{2\pi k T_{\parallel}}} \exp \left[ -\frac{mv_{\perp}^2}{2\pi k T_{\perp}} - \frac{m(v_{\parallel} - v_d)^2}{2\pi k T_{\parallel}} \right]$$

(12)

where $v_{\parallel} \approx |v|(1 \pm \Delta E/2E)$ and $v_{\perp} \approx |v|\sin \phi$, and $v_d$ is the so-called detuning velocity, i.e., the average velocity difference imparted to the beams by their acceleration and/or the interaction cell bias. For 12 keV C$^-$ and C$^+$ beams with 5 eV energy dispersion, and 1 mrad angular spread, $T_{\parallel} \approx 8$ K and $T_{\perp} \approx 70$ K, subthermal values indeed. Early attempts to measure MN cross sections were limited by the inherent difficulty of detecting pairs of particles hitting a single detector close in time and space. We circumvented this limitation by installing a pair of position sensitive detectors operating in coincidence. Their circular shape and the dead area between them requires some modeling to retrieve the actual momentum distribution.

4. Results and interpretation

A joint effort by UCLouvain and Stockholm University has allowed the measurement of MN reactions for a large number of systems: C$^+$, N$^+$ and O$^+$ in combination with D$^-$, C$^-$, O$^-$, Si$^-$, P$^-$ and S$^-$. Figure 3 summarizes the findings in terms of kinetic energy release in the O$^+$ case, which directly correlate to the final electronic state of the oxygen atom. The anions are ordered according to the electron affinity, with tighter bound electrons in the anion occupying...
MN with O+ favors the 2s2p3 3p5P state with a branching fraction of 71 ± 9 % measured at 5 meV [25], in fair agreement with earlier theoretical predictions [10], i.e., 42 % at 300 K. The 3P state is however much less populated than originally estimated, i.e., 15 ± 4 % against 46 %. Since the UV tropical nightglow of oxygen has two distinct components at 130.4 and 135.6 nm, corresponding to 3S and 5S respectively, a reevaluation of the actual role of MN may be in order.

![Figure 3](image-url)

**Figure 3.** Kinetic energy release spectra for the O+ + X− mutual neutralization. The energy scale is converted to the excitation energy of the O(2s2p3nl2S+1L) level by means of Eq. 9.

In order to rationalize the branching ratios measured for a wide variety of collisional systems, one is tempted to resort to a simplified treatment of the non-adiabatic interactions prevailing at the successive avoided crossings. A powerful approach is the Firsov-Landau-Herring asymptotic method [26] as applied by Zhou and Dickinson [27], that allows the evaluation of the one-electron exchange interaction ∆(RX), where RX is the crossing distance and Hif ≃ ∆(RX)/2 is approximately the coupling matrix element between states i and f, without explicitly treating the many-electron configuration interaction. These matrix elements are incorporated in a multi-state Landau-Zener calculation to generate total and partial cross sections. As shown by de Ruette *et al.* [25], this single-electron treatment fails to reproduce the branching fractions observed in the case of N+ + O−, particularly for configurations like N(2s2p4 4P) that involve two-electron processes. This discrepancy is partially lifted by introducing some configuration interaction among terms sharing the same symmetry, as obtained by multiconfiguration Hartree-Fock (MCHF) calculations. What remains is a systematic underestimation of the high-KER, i.e., short RX channels. As shown by Mitrushchenkov *et al.* [28] for the Ca+ + H− MN reaction, the two-by-two treatment applied in the multi-state LZ approach underestimates the contribution of weak transitions to the cross section that may be active at smaller internuclear distances. The more reliable branching probability current method [29] still lies beyond a current computational...
to a full quantal treatment, as recently demonstrated by Launo et al for the Li\(^+\) + H\(^-\) case [30]. Care must however be taken of the proper asymptotic description of the various channels, through the inclusion of diffuse orbitals.

5. Conclusions and perspectives
A single-pass merged beam apparatus has allowed us to collect a large ensemble of branching fractions among the various excited states produced by electron transfer in mutual neutralization reactions. We were able to assess the validity of earlier measurements and calculations, and to improve the theoretical treatment of such processes by including configuration interaction in the outgoing channels. Further experimental developments are needed to gain full access to the angular distribution of the products, which translates into state-specific differential cross sections. This total collection is needed to produce reliable cross sections. The forward detection is still impeded by the excessive background caused by rest-gas collisions. Such a limitation is absent in DESIREE, the double cryogenic storage ring facility located at Stockholm University [31, 32], where beams of anions and cations circulating in juxtaposed storage rings interact in a common straight section. Beams of anions and cations are stored for long times, allowing them to relax to their lowest quantum states [33]. This is particularly relevant for molecular species which can not be cooled in a continuous, single pass experiment. Such data are urgently needed for the astrochemical modeling of dense clouds and planetary atmospheres.

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