

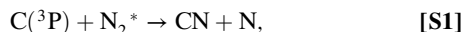
# Supporting Information

Daranlot et al. 10.1073/pnas.1200017109

## S1 Text

**Experimental cross-checks.** Early test experiments at 152 K showed that the pseudo-first-order decay curves of the OH radicals such those shown in Fig. 2 did not vary as a function of the ICN concentration. In contrast, it was seen that under certain conditions, the CN radical fluorescence signal did not decay to zero at long times, but instead to a non-zero baseline value. This residual signal varied as a function of the gas-phase  $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$  (or  $\text{H}_2\text{O}$ ) concentration, so that at high concentrations of  $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$ , the CN fluorescence signal decayed to the pre-trigger zero level. At low  $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$  concentrations, the baseline value was as large as 9% of the peak signal amplitude. When the values of  $k'_4$  determined from fits to decays measured in the presence of low  $[\text{H}_2\text{O}_2]$  were plotted as a function of the corresponding  $k'_1$  value, the ratio  $k_4/k_1$  was seen to be larger than the ratio determined at high  $[\text{H}_2\text{O}_2]$ . Several test experiments under conditions identical to those used in these early experiments were performed to determine the origin of this effect. Using a solar blind channel photomultiplier tube (Perkin Elmer MP1911) in photon counting mode coupled to a monochromator with a grating blazed at 121 nm, it was possible to observe emission from excited  $\text{A}^3\Sigma_u^+$  molecular nitrogen  $\text{N}_2^*$  within the supersonic flow at several wavelengths between 145 and 185 nm. The emission intensity was seen to vary strongly as a function of  $[\text{H}_2\text{O}_2]$  within the flow, with little or no emission occurring at the highest  $[\text{H}_2\text{O}_2]$ .

In light of these findings, further test experiments employing  $\text{CBr}_4$  as a precursor for  $\text{C}(^3\text{P})$  atoms were performed at 152 K. Here,  $\text{CBr}_4$  was entrained in the supersonic flow and underwent pulsed multi-photon dissociation at 266 nm. No other minor reagent precursor molecules were used, atomic nitrogen was produced in the usual manner (thereby producing  $\text{N}_2^*$ ), and the probe laser was tuned to a CN  $\text{B}^2\Sigma^+ \leftarrow \text{X}^2\Sigma^+$  transition. Under these conditions, formation of CN radicals was clearly observed in the supersonic flow. Moreover, the rate of production of CN varied as a function of the atomic nitrogen concentration (tested by varying the  $\text{N}_2$  flow through the discharge and/or the discharge power). This last observation indicates that the rate of formation of CN is strongly linked to  $[\text{N}_2^*]$ . We postulate that the following process may have led to secondary CN formation:



with atomic carbon being formed as the primary product of reaction 4. Given the experimental evidence, two possible mechanisms are potentially responsible for inhibiting reaction S1, leading to zero residual baseline values. Firstly, it is probable that  $\text{N}_2^*$  is either quenched or reacts with  $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$  or  $\text{H}_2\text{O}$  given the dependence of the emission intensity on  $[\text{H}_2\text{O}_2]$  or  $[\text{H}_2\text{O}]$ . Secondly, we cannot rule out the possibility that  $\text{C}(^3\text{P})$  is also removed by reaction with  $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$ . In both cases, high  $[\text{H}_2\text{O}_2]$  would lead to less secondary CN formation. As a result, all experiments used in the final analysis were those conducted with  $[\text{H}_2\text{O}_2]$  greater than  $3.9 \times 10^{12} \text{ cm}^{-3}$ .

Although reaction 4 from ground state reactants  $\text{N}(^4\text{S}^0)$  and  $\text{CN}(^2\Sigma^+)$  leading to ground state products  $\text{C}(^3\text{P})$  and  $\text{N}_2(^1\Sigma_g^+)$  is exothermic by  $191.4 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1}$ , the formation of excited state  $\text{C}(^1\text{D})$  is also energetically possible (although the products no longer correlate adiabatically with the reactants), with an exothermicity of  $69.3 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1}$ . As a result, further test experiments were performed at 152 K to check for the presence of these atoms. Unlike  $\text{C}(^3\text{P})$ ,  $\text{C}(^1\text{D})$  is known to react rapidly with  $\text{H}_2$  at room temperature to form methylidyne radicals (1), CH, which

should themselves react with  $\text{N}(^4\text{S}^0)$  to reform CN radicals (reaction 3). If present, the density of CH radicals should peak at a time delay governed by the ratio of the rate constants for the formation and loss processes. We looked for CH radicals over a range of time delays and over a range of atomic nitrogen concentrations by exciting the R1(1) line of the (1, 0) band of the  $\text{B}^2\Sigma^- \leftarrow \text{X}^2\Pi_{1/2}$  transition at 363.080 nm and observing fluorescence around 404 nm via the (1, 1) band of the  $\text{B}^2\Sigma^- \rightarrow \text{X}^2\Pi_{1/2}$  transition. Nevertheless, no fluorescence signal was ever seen at and around this wavelength, indicating that  $\text{C}(^1\text{D})$  formation is negligible under our experimental conditions.

**Model cross-checks.** The typical elemental abundance ratio (C/O) used by many authors is less than one so that a large amount of atomic oxygen is still available for the chemistry once CO has been formed. Depletion of oxygen compared to typical atomic abundances used has been proposed by Jenkins (2) based on the observation of atomic lines towards hundreds of lines of sight with different densities. Whittet (3) studied the budget of O-bearing species as a function of cloud density. In Fig. 3 of his article, he represented the fraction of the cosmic oxygen abundance that was observed in refractory grain cores, in the gas-phase (mainly in the form of CO), and in the ices. If one removes all these components, a large fraction of the oxygen is in an unidentified form that does not seem to participate in the chemistry. Hincelin et al. (4) used this hypothesis to explain the low  $\text{O}_2$  gas-phase abundance in dense clouds. Considering the uncertainty on the oxygen elemental abundance to be used in dense clouds, two different values have been used for oxygen, leading to C/O elemental ratios of 0.7 and 1.2. All the model runs that we performed showed that the use of a low C/O elemental abundance ratio led to lower  $\text{N}_2$  abundances, as explained by the influence of the  $\text{O} + \text{CN}$  reaction in the main article.

Other parameters, such as the choice of the initial conditions (initial species abundances), can be important for the model results. In our typical model, we start with all the species in atomic form, except for  $\text{H}_2$ , because we assume that dense clouds form from diffuse media where the elements are mostly in the atomic form. Nevertheless, molecules such as CO, OH, and CH are observed in diffuse clouds with abundances around  $10^{-6}$  for CO and  $10^{-8}$  ( $/n_{\text{H}}$ ) for OH and CH (5, 6). The inclusion of these molecules in our models as initial conditions at their diffuse cloud abundances does not change the results for dense clouds.

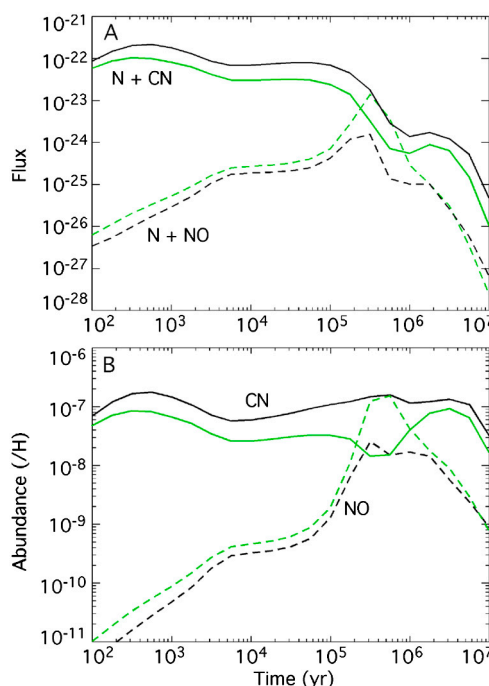
The cosmic-ray ionization rate is another parameter that might change the model results. We tested its importance by running the model with two extreme values of the cosmic-ray ionization rate  $\zeta$ :  $10^{-18}$  and  $10^{-16} \text{ s}^{-1}$ . The predicted abundances of the major N-bearing species as a function of time computed with these values are shown in Fig. S3, for dense cloud conditions and depleted oxygen ( $\text{C/O} = 1.2$ ). The age for which the model agrees with  $\text{N}_2\text{H}^+$  observations in TMC-1 (CP) is clearly very dependent on this parameter. For a larger  $\zeta$  than typically used ( $10^{-17} \text{ s}^{-1}$ ), the agreement between observations and models is obtained sooner ( $3\text{--}5 \times 10^4 \text{ yr}$ ) and the predicted abundance of  $\text{N}_2$  at that time is smaller. A smaller cosmic-ray ionization rate produces an agreement at later times ( $8\text{--}10 \times 10^5 \text{ yr}$ ) and again the predicted abundance of gas-phase  $\text{N}_2$  is smaller than for our typical model results.

We show in Fig. S1B the gas-phase abundances of CN and NO ( $/n_{\text{H}}$ ) predicted by our model (c) for the two C/O elemental ratios. The CN abundance observed in TMC-1 (CP) is reasonably reproduced by our models, at the times defined by the  $\text{N}_2\text{H}^+$

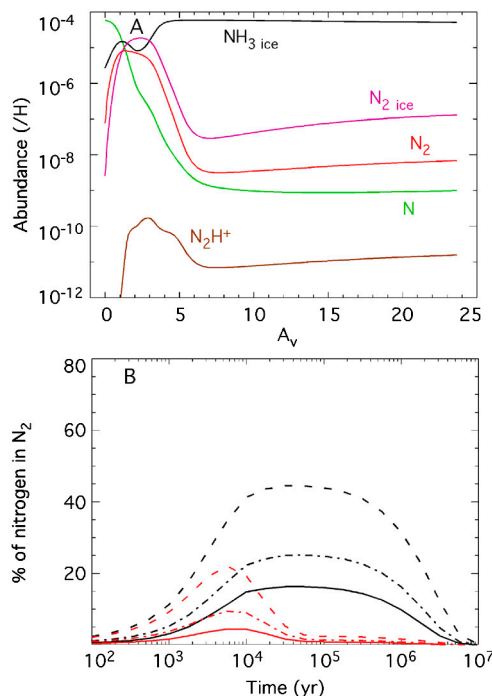
The results of the prestellar core model (B68) using the C/O elemental ratio of 1.2 are shown in Fig. 5 and those for the C/O ratio of 0.7 are presented in Fig. S2, both for a time of  $5 \times 10^6$  yr. This time was selected to reproduce the observed abundance of  $\text{N}_2\text{H}^+$  in B68 (12). At early times, the model produces too much  $\text{N}_2\text{H}^+$  whereas at later times, it produces too little of it. This time is very different from the one determined by Maret et al. (12) of  $2 \times 10^5$  yr, but in their model all of the carbon was initially present as CO and the remaining oxygen was in the form of water ice; therefore, their timescale cannot be compared directly with ours. A few  $10^6$  yr for the “chemical” age of a prestellar core

is in agreement with the conclusion of Pagani et al. (13) using deuterated species. In the case of prestellar cores, the choice of initial conditions can be debated since the material probably spent some time at intermediate densities during which some species are created. We tested this hypothesis by using the composition for a dense cloud computed by our model as the initial conditions for the prestellar core. We also ran simulations with half of the carbon already present as CO, keeping the rest in the atomic form. For these models, the results were similar to those shown in Fig. 5 and Fig. S2; however, the timescale to reach the observed  $\text{N}_2\text{H}^+$  abundance was simply shifted towards smaller times. The main conclusion of this paper, that the use of up-to-date gas-phase chemistry decreases the fraction of nitrogen converted into  $\text{N}_2$  at reasonable ages for both dense clouds and pre-stellar cores, appears to hold even for a wide range of initial model parameters.

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**Fig. S1.** Dense cloud model results for CN and NO molecules as a function of time. (A) Fluxes (the product of the rate constants and the densities of the two reactants) for the reactions  $\text{N} + \text{NO}$  and  $\text{N} + \text{CN}$  for dense cloud conditions using model (c) and for the elemental abundance ratios C/O of 1.2 (black lines) and 0.7 (green lines). (B) Gas-phase abundances of CN and NO ( $/n_{\text{H}}$ ) with the same models as (A).



Element	Abundance *	Element	Abundance
He	0.09	N	$6.2 \times 10^{-5}$
C	$1.7 \times 10^{-4}$	O	$(1.4, 2.4) \times 10^{-4}$
S	$8 \times 10^{-8}$	Si	$8 \times 10^{-9}$
Fe	$3 \times 10^{-9}$	Na	$2 \times 10^{-9}$
Mg	$7 \times 10^{-9}$	Cl	$1 \times 10^{-9}$
P	$2 \times 10^{-10}$		

\*Fractional abundances relative to elemental hydrogen.