

Gas-Phase Reactions between Silane and Ammonia: A Theoretical Study

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Gas-phase reactions between silane (SiH_4) and ammonia (NH_3) were investigated using ab initio calculations at the CCSD(T)/6-311++g**//MP2/6-31+G* level. Within the energy range of 180 kcal/mol, we located 34 equilibrium and 23 transition states on the potential energy surfaces of the Si–N–H systems. The initially weakly bonded molecular complex $\text{H}_3\text{N}-\text{SiH}_4$ eliminates the first hydrogen molecule (H_2) to form the Si–N bond three ways. The first route is through a dihydrogen-bonded transition state, over a barrier of 49.31 kcal/mol, leading directly to the most stable product silylamine ($\text{H}_2\text{N}-\text{SiH}_3$). The second route is through SiH_4 dissociating into SiH_2 and H_2 , over a barrier of 57.47 kcal/mol, leading to the dative-bonded silylammonia complex $\text{H}_3\text{N}-\text{SiH}_2$. The third route is through a stepwise atomic dissociation and radical formation process, over a barrier of 131.21 kcal/mol, also leading to $\text{H}_3\text{N}-\text{SiH}_2$. With more energy, both $\text{H}_2\text{N}-\text{SiH}_3$ and $\text{H}_3\text{N}-\text{SiH}_2$ are liable to further H_2 or H elimination, leading to smaller species including molecules $\text{H}_2\text{N}-\text{SiH}$, $\text{HN}-\text{SiH}_2$, $\text{H}_3\text{N}-\text{Si}$, HNSi , and HSiN and radicals $\text{H}_2\text{N}-\text{SiH}_2$, $\text{H}_3\text{N}-\text{SiH}$, $\text{H}_2\text{N}-\text{Si}$, and NSi . Dihydrogen-bonded structures are also responsible for lowering barriers in these processes.

I. Introduction

Understanding the mechanisms of gas-phase reactions between silane (SiH_4) and ammonia (NH_3) is the focus of numerous research,^{1–14} because the two simple hydrides are widely used as source gases in chemical vapor deposition (CVD) producing solid silicon nitride,^{15–22} a material having special properties.^{23–26} Experiment¹ shows that silylamine ($\text{H}_2\text{N}-\text{SiH}_3$) is the main product of the initial reaction. It is not clear how this product is formed from the original reactants because solid evidence is lacking.^{1,2} According to a current view,¹ the first step is SiH_4 dissociating into SiH_2 and H_2 with SiH_2 then inserting into a N–H bond of NH_3 . Calculations show that a dative complex $\text{H}_3\text{N}-\text{SiH}_2$ is another possible intermediate besides $\text{H}_2\text{N}-\text{SiH}_3$, the insertion product. The transformation between the two species happens over a higher barrier than that for SiH_4 dissociation.^{2,27} On the other hand, SiH_2 is known to insert into a Si–H bond of SiH_4 to form Si_2H_6 with almost no barrier.^{28–30} Therefore, it seems more reasonable that large amounts of Si_2H_6 and $\text{H}_3\text{N}-\text{SiH}_2$ instead of $\text{H}_2\text{N}-\text{SiH}_3$ should be observed following SiH_4 dissociation. In our previous studies,^{30–33} we have demonstrated that silane can act either as a Lewis acid or a base depending on the acidity of the species with which it reacts. When it meets with strong Lewis base like NH_3 , the reaction pathways should be significantly different from what happens in a pure SiH_4 system. To elucidate reaction pathways that were probably missed in previous studies, we performed a more extended computational exploration on the potential energy surfaces of the Si–N–H system within an energy range of 180 kcal/mol.

II. Calculation Method

The geometry structures were fully optimized at the MP2=Full/6-31+G* level. Transition states were located using synchronous

transit-guided quasi-Newton (STQN) methods³⁴ in combination with stepwise partial optimization along each pathway with one geometric parameter fixed as constant. Frequency calculations were performed following each optimization to obtain the zero point energy (ZPE) and IR spectral data and to characterize all the stationary points located on the potential energy surface. Intrinsic reaction coordinate (IRC) calculations were performed to confirm the relationship of each transition state with its reactant and product. Single point calculations at the MP2=Full/6-311++g** and the CCSD(T)=Full/6-311++g** levels were performed to determine the electronic energies. The relative energies reported in discussion are obtained at the CCSD(T)=Full/6-311++g** level with MP2/6-31+G*-calculated ZPE corrections. For open shell species, the geometry optimization and energy calculation were performed using the same level of theories except that electron spins were unrestricted. The Gaussian 98 program package³⁵ was employed for these calculations.

III. Results and Discussions

Our previous work³⁰ has shown that geometry optimization for silicon hydride at the MP2/6-31+G* level is in good agreement with experiments and calculations using other theoretical models. For some Si–N–H system, calculations at different levels are reported.^{6,36–39} It seems that there is no significant change in geometry parameters and relative energies using higher level theoretical models. In these works the calculated IR data are also compared with available experimental results. Therefore, we did not repeat our geometry optimizations at other levels. Instead, in calculating the pathways, dissociation reactions were treated as isomerization from tight combinations to loosely associated fragments before calculating each part separately. This effort may add accuracy by circumventing basis set superposition error (BSSE). Also, the reaction pathways appear clearer.

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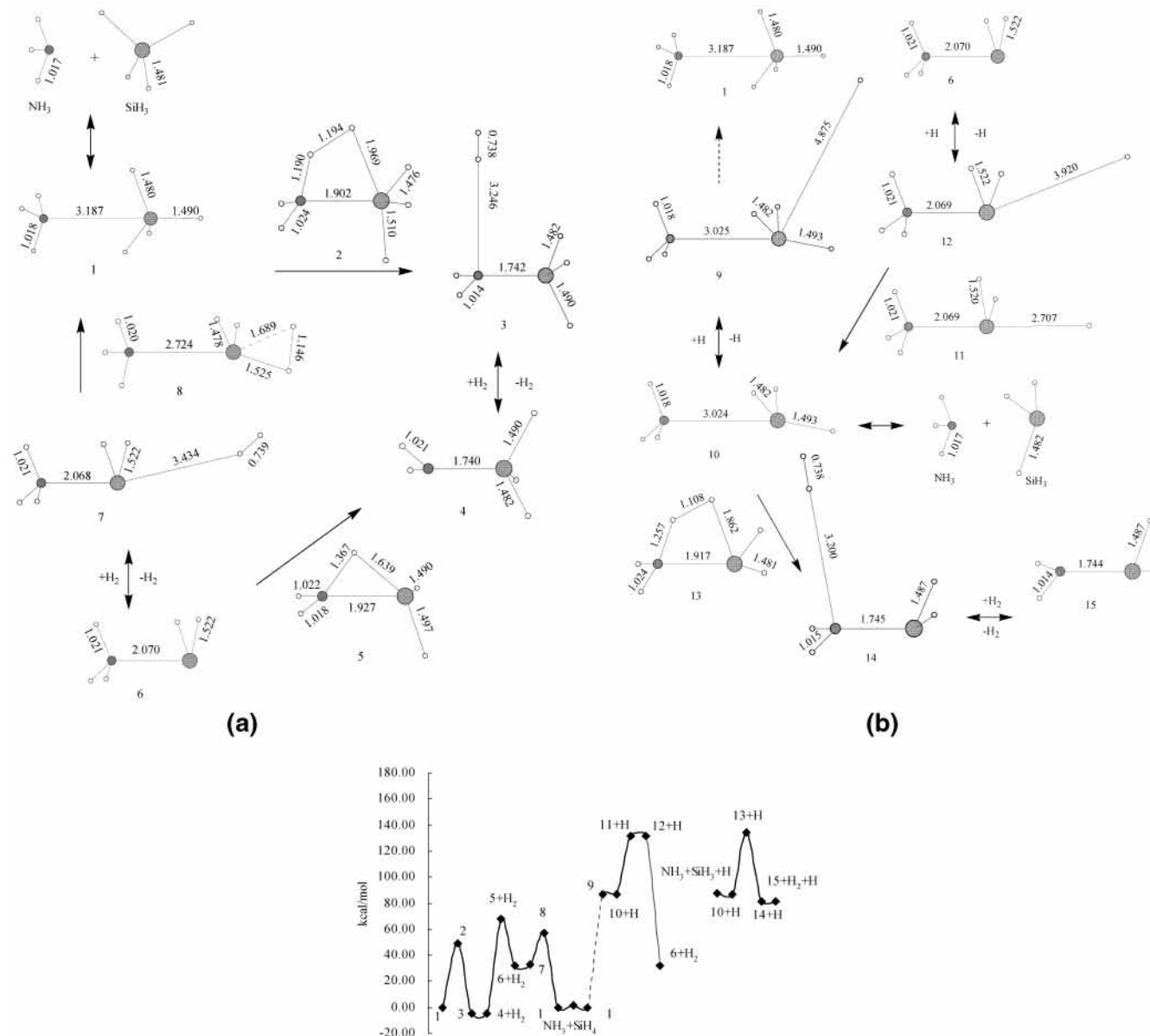


Figure 1. Species involved in hydrogen elimination from $\text{H}_3\text{N}-\text{SiH}_4$ (**1**). Bond lengths are in Å; the species beside the arrows are transition states, H_2 , or H . The direction of the arrows is toward energy descent. The dashed lines or arrows indicate triplet-singlet transitions. The relative energy of $\text{H}_3\text{N}-\text{SiH}_4$ (**1**) is 0.00 kcal/mol.

have been reported.^{3,38} As a result, the two monomers in **1** are more compact than silane dimer $\text{SiH}_4-\text{SiH}_4$. The dipole moment of **1** is significantly larger than that of NH_3 , indicating the electron flow effect upon NH_3 bonding to SiH_4 . With 49.31 kcal/mol energy, the system can be activated to transition state $\text{H}_2\text{N}-\text{H}_2-\text{SiH}_3$ _TS (**2**). The ring structure of **2** is formed through an intramolecular dihydrogen bond $-\text{H}-\text{H}-$, which is responsible for the first H_2 elimination. The direct product is $\text{H}_2\text{N}-\text{SiH}_3-\text{H}_2$ (**3**), a molecular combination of silylamine $\text{H}_2\text{N}-\text{SiH}_3$ (**4**) and H_2 . The energy of **3** is -4.55 kcal/mol relative to **1**. Dihydrogen bonding,^{41,42} a newly discovered unconventional interaction between two species containing partial oppositely charged hydrogen atoms, has been found responsible for molecule-cation interaction between silane and ammonium.⁴³ For the neutral SiH_4/NH_3 system, because the $\text{N}-\text{Si}$ bond is dative in nature, as it shortens, more electrons transfer from nitrogen to silicon, and the more negatively charged hydrogen atom in $\text{Si}-\text{H}$ then tends to associate with the more positively charged one in $\text{N}-\text{H}$. This accounts for the formation of a dihydrogen bond $-\text{H}-\text{H}-$ in **2**.

The second route is an analogue of H_2 elimination in the pure SiH_4 system. The two H atoms of SiH_4 monomer in **1** associate to H_2 , as shown by transition state $\text{H}_3\text{N}-\text{SiH}_2-\text{H}_2$ _TS (**8**). To activate **1** to **8** requires 57.47 kcal/mol energy, forming a barrier of 8.16 kcal/mol higher than that along the first route. The H_2 then eliminates to produce $\text{H}_3\text{N}-\text{SiH}_2-\text{H}_2$ (**7**), a molecular combination of a donor-acceptor complex $\text{H}_3\text{N}-\text{SiH}_2$ (**6**) and H_2 . The energy of **6** is 37.18 kcal/mol relative to **4**. Compared with SiH_4 , the electron donor NH_3 can stabilize the remaining SiH_2 more effectively. As a result, the activation energy is slightly lower to produce **6** than to produce the $\text{SiH}_4-\text{SiH}_2$ complex. In addition, the transient intermediate $\text{SiH}_4-\text{SiH}_2$ isomerizes to normal disilane Si_2H_6 with almost no barrier,^{29,30} whereas 35.23 kcal/mol energy is required to turn **6** into the more stable **4**. The transition state for the latter isomerization is $\text{H}_2\text{N}-\text{H}-\text{SiH}_2$ (**5**), a hydrogen-bridged structure. Therefore, it is likely that a large amount of **4** is produced along the first rather than the second route, and **6** should be a detectable intermediate species if the activation energy is sufficient to dissociate SiH_4 to SiH_2 and H_2 . Compared with **4**, the donor-

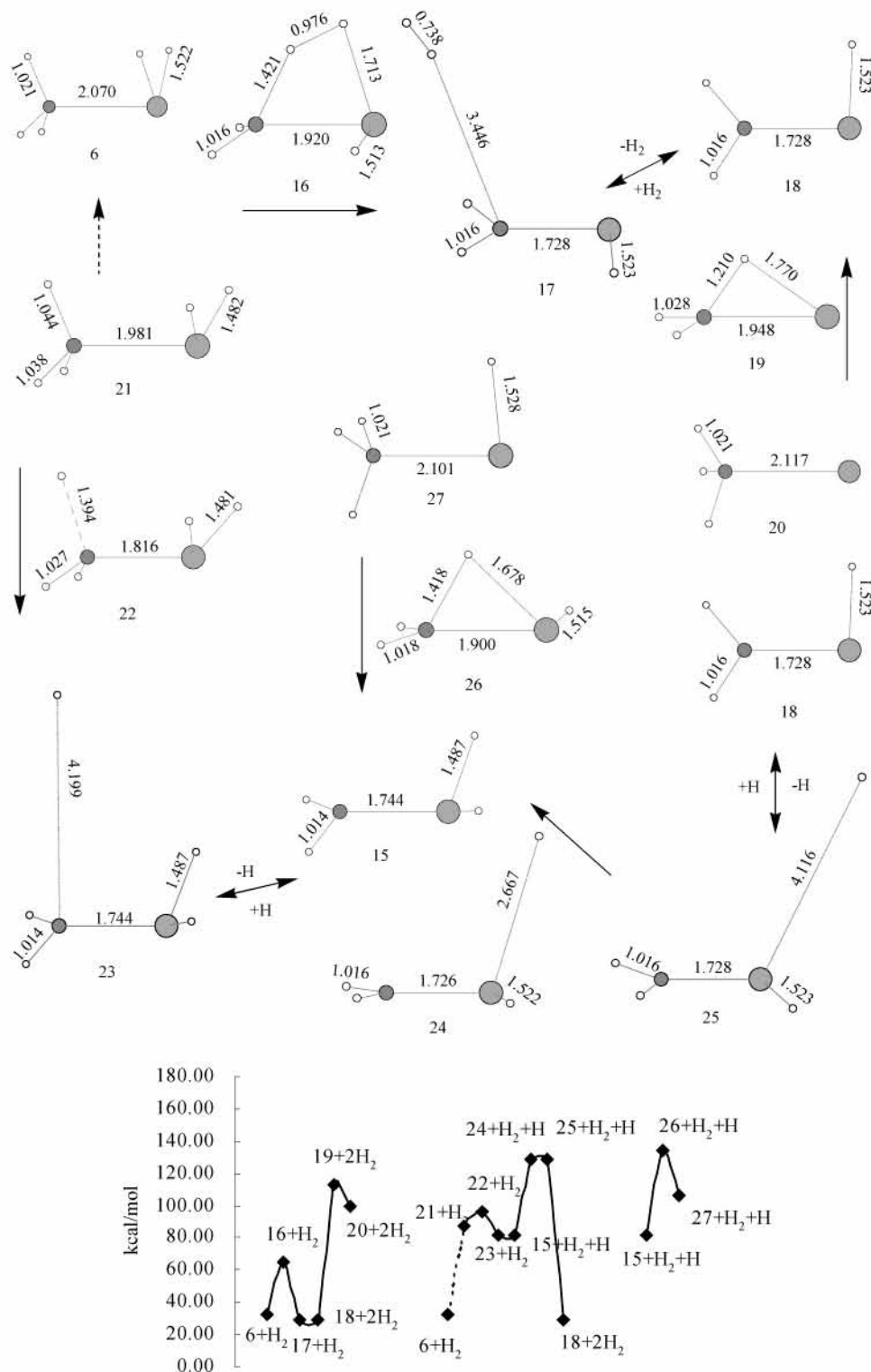


Figure 2. Species involved in hydrogen elimination from $\text{H}_3\text{N-SiH}_2$ (**6**). Bond lengths are in Å; the species beside the arrows are transition states, H_2 , or H . The direction of the arrows is toward energy descent. The dashed lines or arrows indicate triplet-singlet transitions. The relative energy of $\text{H}_3\text{N-SiH}_4$ (**1**) is 0.00 kcal/mol.

acceptor complex **6** is less stable and its dipole moment is much larger. This implies that **6** is more stable under polar conditions and may be easier to condense.

With 87.05 kcal/mol energy, one of the hydrogen atoms attached to silicon in **1** can dissociate as shown by triplet state $\text{H}_3\text{N-SiH}_3-\text{H}_3$ (**9**), leaving $\text{H}_3\text{N-SiH}_3$ (**10**), a loosely bonded complex of NH_3 , and the radical SiH_3 . Unlike SiH_2 , SiH_3 is essentially not stabilized by NH_3 . Thus the binding energy is only 0.96 kcal/mol between NH_3 and SiH_3 , compared to the

binding energy of 22.37 kcal/mol between NH_3 and SiH_2 . One of the three Si-H bonds in **10** is longer than the other two, implying that there is the potential for further H elimination. With 44.24 kcal/mol energy, the second H eliminates from **10** through transition state $\text{H}_3\text{N-SiH}_2-\text{H}_3\text{TS}$ (**11**) to $\text{H}_3\text{N-SiH}_2-\text{H}$ (**12**). If the second dissociated H then associates with the first one to form H_2 , the energy of the total system falls to that of **6** + H_2 . The stepwise H elimination is energy demanding and influenced by the concentration of surrounding atomic H .

H₂ elimination can also take place from radical **10** via a dihydrogen-bonded transition state H₂N–H₂–SiH₂_TS (**13**). The activation energy is 47.19 kcal/mol, slightly lower than that from **1** to **2**. The product H₂N–SiH₂–H₂ (**14**) is a weak combination of radical H₂N–SiH₂ (**15**) and H₂. The energy of **14** is –5.48 kcal/mol relative to **10**.

For triplet and doublet state species discussed in this part, the calculated $\langle S^2 \rangle$ values are close to 2 and 0.75, respectively, indicating small spin contamination.

Part II: Pathways from H₃N–SiH₂ (6**) to H₂N–SiH (**18**), H₃N–Si (**20**), H₂N–SiH₂ (**15**), and H₃N–SiH (**27**) (Figure 2).** Because the dative N–Si bond in **6** is stronger than that in **1**, the H atom should be more positively charged in N–H and more negatively charged in Si–H. This presumption is justified by easier formation of another intramolecular dihydrogen-bonded transition state structure H₂N–H₂–SiH_TS (**16**). The activation energy is 32.44 kcal/mol relative to **6**, marking a much lower barrier for second H₂ elimination from **6**. The product H₂N–SiH–H₂ (**17**), a molecular combination of H₂N–SiH (**18**) and H₂, is 3.30 kcal/mol more stable than **6**. Compound **18** can be seen either as a –SiH derivative of NH₃ or as a –NH₂ derivative of SiH₂, but the atoms are confined in one plane and the dipole moment of **18** is larger than that of NH₃, indicating the electron delocalization effect on the geometry. With 83.93 kcal/mol activation energy, the H attached to silicon in **18** can transfer to nitrogen, as shown by transition state H₂N–H–Si_TS (**19**). This process results in H₃N–Si (**20**), a complex formed between NH₃ and silicon. The energy of **20** is 70.30 kcal/mol relative to **18**. The dipole moment of **20** is much larger than **18**, indicating **20** is an electron donor–acceptor complex.

With 87.24 kcal/mol energy to the system, the singlet ground electronic state of **6** can be activated to triplet state H₃N–SiH₂_3 (**21**). The energy gap between the two states is 54.82 kcal/mol. The structural change from **6** to **21** is small, but the dipole moment drops significantly. Over a small barrier (8.36 kcal/mol) through triplet transition state H₃N–SiH₂_3_TS (**22**), one of the N–H bond breaks and results in H₂N–H–SiH₂_3 (**23**), a weak combination of radical **15** and H atom. The three triplet state species involved in the reaction all have correct $\langle S^2 \rangle$ values. Over a barrier of 46.75 kcal/mol, the SiH₃ like radical **15** can dissociate another H as shown by transition state H₂N–SiH–H_TS (**24**) and produce H₂N–SiH–H (**25**). If dissociated H combines with another H into H₂, the system falls to **18** and two H₂ molecules. Clearly, the atomic stepwise transformation from **6** to **18** is much more energy demanding. In calculating the doublet transition state **24**, spin contamination appears serious, with an $\langle S^2 \rangle$ value larger than 0.8, but the geometry and energy of **24** are very close to **25**, which has a correct $\langle S^2 \rangle$ value.

Another energy-rising process leading **15** to H₃N–SiH (**27**) is via H-bridged transition state H₂N–H–SiH_TS (**26**). The barrier is 52.47 kcal/mol and the energy of **27** is 24.40 kcal/mol relative to **15**. The spin contaminations of the three species are all small. It seems that large spin contamination is likely to happen when a loosely bonded radical transition state such as **24** is evaluated, which can be seen as a molecule–radical complex, whereas for a compact doublet transition state such as **26**, the spin contamination is less serious.

In summary, a H₂ molecule is most easy to dissociate from **6**, resulting in a more stable product **18**. Probably this is the reason that the predicted intermediate species **6** is not easily observed.

Part III: Pathways from H₂N–SiH₃ (4**) to HN–SiH₂ (**30**), H₂N–SiH (**18**), and HSiN (**37**) (Figure 3).** With 84.46 kcal/

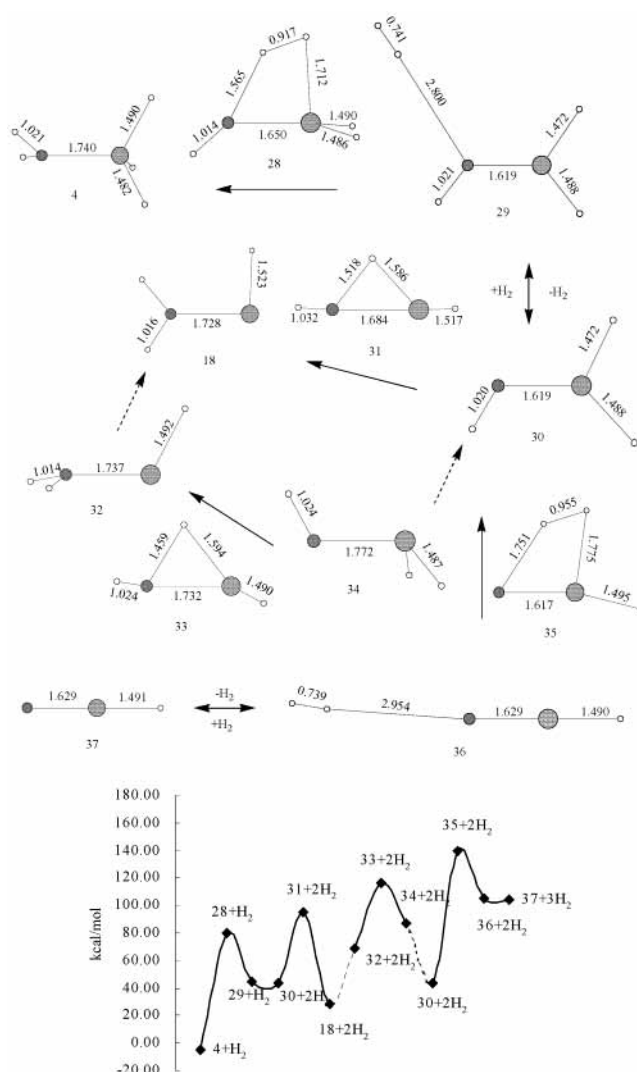


Figure 3. Species involved in hydrogen elimination from H₂N–SiH₃ (**4**). Bond lengths are in Å; the species beside the arrows are transition states, H₂, or H. The direction of the arrows is toward energy descent. The dashed lines or arrows indicate triplet–singlet transitions. The relative energy of H₃N–SiH₄ (**1**) is 0.00 kcal/mol.

mol activation energy, a dihydrogen-bonded ring structure can also be formed from species **4**, as shown by transition state HN–H₂–SiH₂ (**28**). Because the N–Si bond in **4** is covalent rather than dative in nature, the smaller electronic transfer effect accounts for the 52.02 kcal/mol higher barrier from **4** to HN–SiH₂–H₂ (**29**) than that from **6** through **16** to **17**. Compared with **17**, the eliminating H₂ connects a little more closely to nitrogen in **29**. The silicon in the H₂-eliminated product HN–SiH₂ (**30**) is three-coordinated with a planar structure, indicating the N–Si bond has some double bond character. The energy of **30** is 15.24 kcal/mol relative to the most stable three-hydrogen isomer **18**. One H atom has to transfer between nitrogen and silicon, leading to interconversion of **30** and **18**. Such conversion can be realized through either a singlet or triplet state. To activate **18** to transition state HN–H–SiH_TS (**31**) requires 65.94 kcal/mol energy. Alternatively, with 25.01 kcal/mol energy, compound **18** can be excited to triplet state HN–SiH₂_3 (**32**), which then transfers a H atom from silicon to nitrogen through triplet transition state HN–H–SiH_3_TS (**33**), resulting in H₂N–SiH_3 (**34**), the triplet state of **30**. The barrier is 47.00 kcal/mol relative to **32**. The energy of **34** is 42.98 kcal/mol relative to **30**. Unlike the planar structure of the low spin species **18** and **30**, the H atoms in the high spin species **32** and **34** are

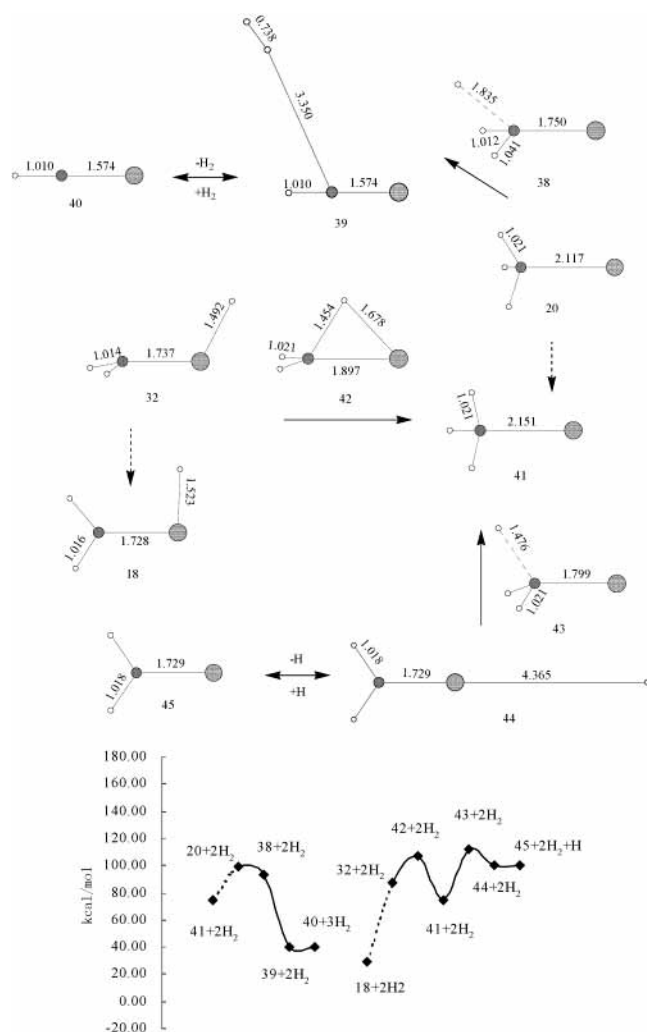


Figure 4. Species involved in isomerization and hydrogen elimination from $\text{H}_3\text{N}-\text{Si}$ (20). Bond lengths are in Å; the species beside the arrows are transition states, H_2 , or H. The direction of the arrows is toward energy descent. The dashed lines or arrows indicate triplet–singlet transitions. The relative energy of NH_3-SiH_4 (1) is 0.00 kcal/mol.

not confined in the molecular plane but prefer staggered positions, showing single bond characteristics. The calculated $\langle S^2 \rangle$ values of the three triplet state species are all close to 2, indicating small spin contamination.

Providing 95.13 kcal/mol energy to **30**, the H in N–H can associate with the H in Si–H to form another dihydrogen-bonded transition state N–H₂–SiH₂TS (**35**). The H₂ elimination results in HSiN–H₂ (**36**), a molecular combination of HSiN (**37**) and H₂. The energy of **36** is 60.69 kcal/mol relative to **30**.

Part IV: Pathways from $\text{H}_3\text{N}-\text{Si}$ (20) to $\text{H}_2\text{N}-\text{SiH}$ (18), $\text{H}_3\text{N}-\text{Si}_3$ (41), HNSi (40), and $\text{H}_2\text{N}-\text{Si}$ (45) (Figure 4). The structure of **20** shows it is like a molecule–radical complex formed between the NH_3 and Si atoms. The ground state of this complex is not the singlet state **20**, but the triplet state $\text{H}_3\text{N}-\text{Si}_3$ (**41**). From **20** to **41**, the energy gap is 24.67 kcal/mol. But the structures of the two states are quite similar. The pathways started from **20** or **41** represent the molecule–atom reactions between the NH_3 and Si atoms, which has been recently studied both experimentally and theoretically.⁶ At triplet state, one of the H connected to nitrogen transfers to silicon through a bridged transition state $\text{H}_2\text{N}-\text{H}-\text{Si}_3\text{TS}$ (**42**), resulting in **32**, the triplet state of **18**. The barrier of the process is 29.89 kcal/mol relative to **41**. Alternatively, one of the H connected to nitrogen can dissociate from **41**, as shown by

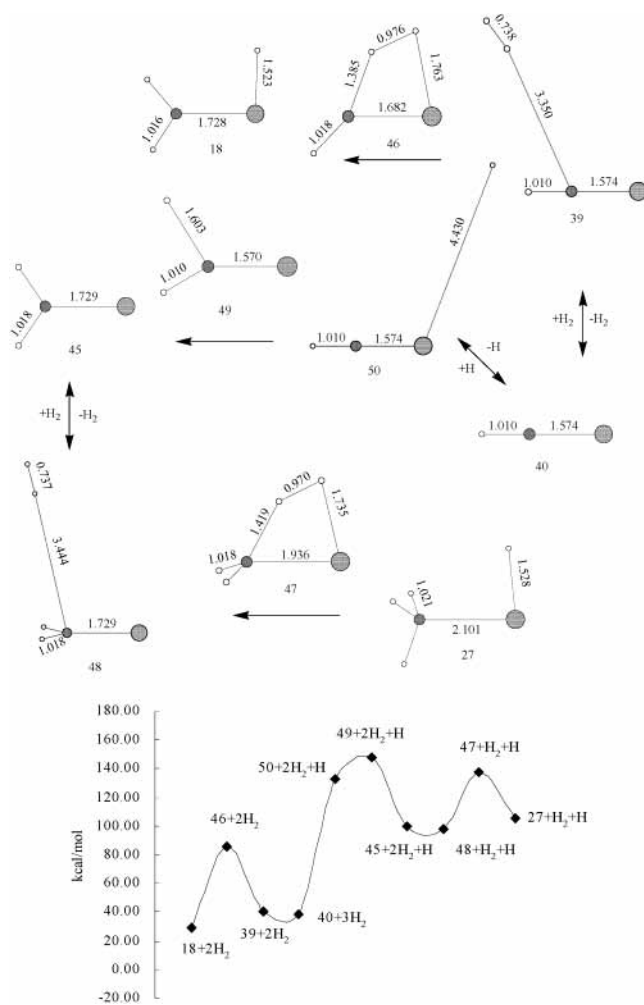


Figure 5. Species involved in hydrogen elimination from $\text{H}_2\text{N}-\text{SiH}$ (18) and $\text{H}_3\text{N}-\text{SiH}$ (27). Bond lengths are in Å; the species beside the arrows are transition states, H_2 , or H. The direction of the arrows is toward energy descent. The dashed lines or arrows indicate triplet–singlet transitions. The relative energy of $\text{H}_3\text{N}-\text{SiH}_4$ (1) is 0.00 kcal/mol.

transition state H–H₂N–Si₃TS (**43**), resulting in H–H₂N–Si₃ (**44**), a loose combination of H and radical $\text{H}_2\text{N}-\text{Si}$ (**45**). The barrier of the process is 37.23 kcal/mol and the energy of product **44** is 25.37 kcal/mol relative to **41**. Therefore, for **41**, it is slightly more energy demanding to produce radical **45** than isomerize to **32**, which can drop to the more stable singlet molecule **18**.

When the open shell species involved in this part is calculated, no serious spin contamination happens.

Hydrogen elimination can take place from singlet state **20**. As shown by transition state H–H₂N–Si₃TS (**38**) and product H_2-HNSi (**39**), one of the H atoms dissociates first, which then abstracts another H, leading to a H₂ molecule. When the energy of **38** is calculated, however, large discrepancies appear when different methods are used. At MP2 level, the energy of **38** is more than 30 kcal/mol higher than that of **20**, whereas the barrier almost disappears when the CCSD(T) method is used. More investigation and experimental evidence are necessary to clarify the situation. Nevertheless, the H₂ elimination results in a linear molecule HNSi (**40**). The energy of **39** is –34.40 kcal/mol relative to **41**, indicating **40** is quite a stable product resulting from interaction between silicon atom and ammonia.

Part V: Pathways from $\text{H}_2\text{N}-\text{SiH}$ (18) to HNSi (40), $\text{H}_3\text{N}-\text{SiH}$ (27) to $\text{H}_2\text{N}-\text{SiH}$ (45) and HNSi (40) (Figure 5).

The third H₂ elimination from the total system can also be realized through intramolecular dihydrogen-bonded transition state HN–H₂–Si_TS (46); each H of the –H–H– bond comes from the N–H and Si–H bonds in 18. To activate 18 to 46 requires 57.17 kcal/mol energy, larger than the energy rise in first and second H₂ eliminations. The product is 39, a molecular combination of 40 and H₂, same as the H₂-eliminated product of 20.

Started from intermediate radical 27, H₂ elimination can also take place through dihydrogen-bonded transition state H₂N–H₂–Si_TS (47), resulting in H₂N–Si–H₂ (48), a radical–molecule combination of 45 and H₂. Relative to 27, the barrier of the process is 31.78 kcal/mol and the energy of the product 48 is –5.64 kcal/mol, indicating 45 is a more stable radical than 27. Over a barrier of 48.11 kcal/mol, a H atom can dissociate from 45, as shown by transition state HN–Si–H_TS (49) and product HNSi–H (50), a weak combination of molecule 40 and H atom. As the two H atoms associate into H₂, the system's total energy falls to that of 40 plus three H₂. When the radical species involved in this part is calculated, serious spin contamination happens in the doublet transition state 49. Unlike radical 47, another doublet transition state, the structure of 49 is more like a molecule–radical complex. It seems spin contamination is likely to happen when such transition states are calculated.

Among the various ways toward 40, the smallest molecule produced from the SiH₄/NH₃ = 1:1 system through hydrogen elimination, the route 1 → 6 → 18 → 40 is least energy demanding. Two dihydrogen-bonded transition states 16 and 46 are responsible for lowering the barriers from 6 to 18 and from 18 to 40.

Part VI: Pathways from HNSi (40) to HSiN (37) and NSi (57) (Figure 6). Molecule 40 is 64.73 kcal/mol more stable than its isomer 37, different from their carbon analogues, for which HCN is more stable than HNC. Over a barrier of 10.04 kcal/mol, the less stable isomer 37 can transform to 40 with the H migrating from nitrogen to silicon, as shown by the transition state N–H–Si_TS (51). The isomerization can also happen at the triplet state. With 87.01 kcal/mol energy, the singlet–triplet transition can happen from 40 to HNSi₃ (52). Much less energy (32.09 kcal/mol) is required to excite 37 to its triplet state HSiN₃ (54). As a result, the two species are energetically closer at triplet states than at singlet states. Exciting from singlet to triplet state, the structure of both species changes from linear to bent, indicating that the two unpaired electrons may localize on nitrogen and silicon separately. The interconversion between 52 and 54 can be realized through H transfer between nitrogen and silicon, as shown by transition state N–H–Si₃_TS (53). The barrier of this process is 20.70 kcal/mol relative to 54.

Providing 43.38 kcal/mol energy to 52, the H attached to nitrogen can dissociate as shown by transition state 55, resulting in H–NSi₃_TS (56), a loose combination of radical NSi (57) and the dissociated H atom. The energy of 56 is 34.99 kcal/mol relative to that of 52. The small barrier shows some potential that the radical NSi can be detected. With the small radical NSi, the systems total energy reaches to 170.30 kcal/mol relative to 1. It seems that H dissociation from silicon can also happen in 54. But the attempt to locate the possible transition state was unsuccessful.

Except for 52, considerable spin contamination happens when the triplet and doublet species in this part are calculated. Further investigations are necessary to know how much the spin contamination affects the calculated geometry structures and energies.

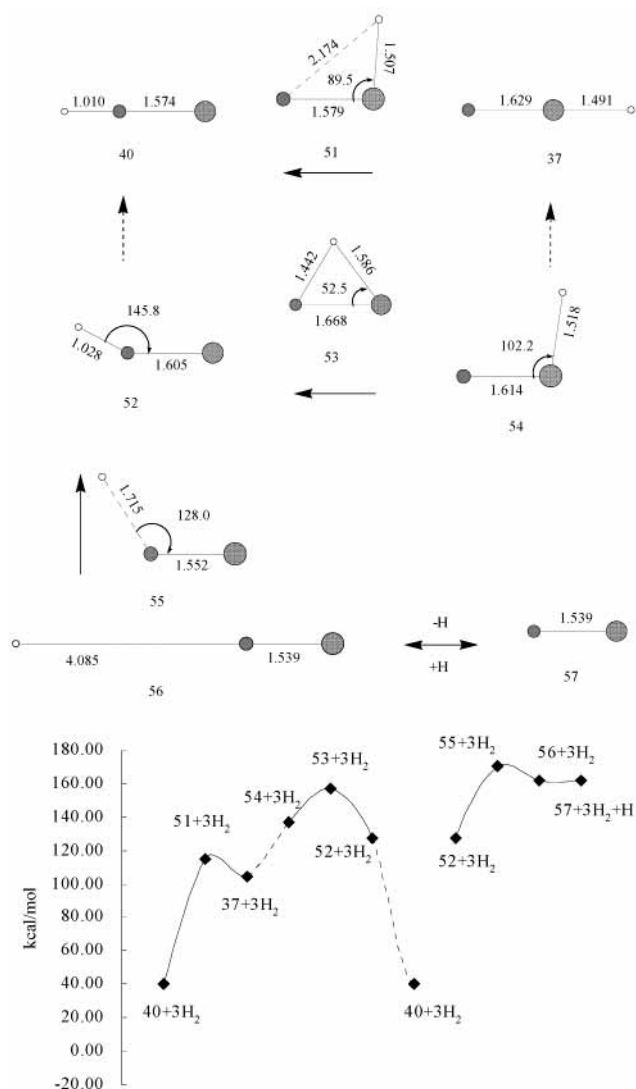


Figure 6. Species involved in isomerization and hydrogen elimination from HNSi (40). Bond lengths are in Å; the species beside the arrows are transition states, H₂, or H. The direction of the arrows is toward energy descent; the dashed lines or arrows indicate triplet–singlet transitions; the relative energy of H₃N–SiH₄ (1) is 0.00 kcal/mol.

IV. Concluding Remarks

Gas-phase reactions of SiH₄ and NH₃ produce a series of hydrogen-eliminated species containing a N–Si covalent or dative bond. Among them, silylamine H₂N–SiH₃ (4) is thermodynamically most stable and kinetically easiest to obtain. The NH₂ derivative of silylene H₂N–SiH (18) is the most stable isomer after second H₂ elimination. The linear molecule HNSi (40) is the most stable isomer after third H₂ elimination. Other products, including molecules H₃N–SiH₂ (6), H₃N–Si (20), HN–SiH₂ (30), and HSiN (37), radicals H₂N–SiH₂ (15), H₃N–SiH (27), H₂N–Si (45), and NSi (57) can be produced as transient intermediates via H₂ or H elimination or isomerization at various stages. Dihydrogen bonding, appearing in several transition state structures, is found to be responsible for H₂ elimination along pathways with relatively low activation energy. The atomic H elimination involving singlet–triplet excitation, with radicals as intermediates, requires higher activation energy.

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