Photodissociation Dynamics of Propyne and Allene: A View from ab Initio Calculations of the C_3H_n (n = 1-4) Species and the Isomerization Mechanism for C_3H_2

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Abstract: Potential energy surfaces of various primary and secondary products from the photodissociation of propyne and allene, including the C₃H_n (n = 1-3) species, have been investigated at the CCSD(T)/6-311+G-(3df,2p)//B3LYP/6-311G(d,p) level of theory. The calculated heats of the reactions and the activation barriers for H₂ elimination from C_3H_n (n = 2-4) have been employed to analyze the experimental translational energy distribution for different photodissociation channels. The electronic spectra of propyne and various isomers of C_3H_2 have been calculated by using the CASSCF, MRCI, and EOM-CCSD methods with the ANO(2+) basis set. The calculations suggest that the photodissociation of propyne at 193 nm involves a Franck-Condon transition to the ¹E excited state. After internal conversion into the vibrationally excited ground electronic state, propyne can either dissociate to produce $HCCCH + H_2$ or isomerize to allene which, in turn, undergoes the H₂ elimination giving H₂CCC. The HCCCH produced from propyne can have sufficiently high internal energy to rearrange to H_2CCC . In both mechanisms, the formation of $C_3 + H_2$ from propyne and allene goes via the same intermediate, which explains the identical rotational distribution of the C_3 products in experiment. The H_2 elimination is a minor channel of propyne photodissociation and the major channel is elimination of the acetylenic hydrogen atom. The rearrangement mechanism of C_3H_2 in the ground electronic state also has been studied. Automerization of H₂CCC can take place either via a cyclopropyne transition state (the barrier is 37.5 kcal/mol, ref 18) or through isomerization to cyclopropenylidene and backward via TS6 (the barrier is 41.7 kcal/mol). Isomerization of triplet propargylene to cyclo- C_3H_2 occurs by the ring closure via the triplet-singlet seam of crossing MSX1, and the activation energy is predicted to be about 41 kcal/mol. Cyclopropenylidene can undergo automerization by the 1,2-H shift via TS10 with the barrier of 32.4 kcal/mol. The direct triplet HCCCH \rightarrow H₂CCC isomerization proceeds by the 1,3-hydrogen shift via MSX2 and TS8 or TS9 with a high activation energy of 78-81 kcal/mol. The singlet propargylene can also rearrange to cyclo-C₃H₂ via TS7 (barrier 37.4 kcal/mol) and to H₂CCC via TS8 or TS9. The calculated PES for the ground and excited states have allowed us to explain the experimentally observed automerizations and isomerizations of C₃H₂ isomers and to assign their UV absorption spectra.

Introduction

There have been substantial efforts in recent years to study and understand the photodissociation dynamics of two isomers of C_3H_4 , allene and propyne.¹⁻⁴ The primary product channels of the allene photodissociation include $C_3H_3 + H$ and $C_3H_2 +$ H₂.¹ The C₃H₃ and C₃H₂ molecules undergo secondary photolysis to give various products, such as $C_3H + H_2$, $C_3H_2 + H$, and $C_2H_2 + CH$ for C_3H_3 and $C_3 + H_2$, $C_2H_2 + C$, and $C_2H +$ CH for C₃H₂. The C₃H₄ ($h\nu$) \rightarrow C₃H₂ + H₂ ($h\nu$) \rightarrow C₃ + 2H₂

process has been suggested to be responsible for the formation of the C₃ molecules in comets.³ The highly reactive C_3H_n (*n* = 1-3) molecules and radicals are of fundamental significance for organic chemistry, but they are also thought to be precursors for the formation of soot in flames⁵ and the reactants that could lead to unsaturated molecules in the interstellar medium.⁶⁻⁸

The laser induced fluorescence (LIF) study of the photodissociation of allene² at 193 nm showed that C₃ is produced from C₃H₂ with very cold rotational distributions in the 000 and 010 states. Although propyne has a geometry and electronic structure, distinctly different from those of allene, it also absorbs at 193 nm and produces C3 with a rotational population identical to the one observed from allene.² To explain this result, one

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has to postulate that the two processes pass through a common intermediate at a certain reaction step.

To get a deeper insight into the photodissociation dynamics of allene and propyne, one has to study potential energy surfaces (PES) of various isomers of C₃H₄, C₃H₃, C₃H₂, and C₃H and their isomerization and dissociation channels in the ground and excited states which are accessible with absorption of a 193 nm photon. This determines the broad scope of this paper. The ground-state PES of C_3H_4 is well established.⁹⁻¹² For the other species of the series, equilibrium structures have been reported.^{13–16} However, their isomerization and dissociation pathways and excited electronic states have not received as much attention by theorists. In the previous work,¹⁷ we studied the electronic spectra of allene and vinylidenecarbene (H₂CCC) and potential energy surfaces for excited states of these species. We also investigated PES for H₂ elimination from allene. In this paper, we present the results of ab initio calculations of the electronic spectrum of propyne and PES for its various primary and secondary photodissociation products, such as C_3H_n (n =1-3). We discuss in more detail the isomerization mechanism of C_3H_2 and the electronic spectra of this species. C_3H_2 is the key intermediate in production of C₃ during the photodissociation of propyne and allene. Earlier we found that once H₂CCC is formed in the primary photodissociation of allene, its most probable internal energy is ~43 kcal/mol.¹⁷ HCCCH formed from propyne can also have a high internal energy. Therefore, isomerization of the C₃H₂ species can affect the photodissociation dynamics if the rearrangement barriers are low enough. On the other hand, the isomerization mechanism is interesting itself and was a subject of a recent experimental study by Seburg

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et al.¹⁸ After considering the C_3H_2 isomerization, the electronic spectrum is considered because it may be useful for the detection of this radical. Stanton et al.¹⁹ recently published the first experimental absorption spectrum of one of the isomers of C_3H_2 , vinylidenecarbene, and interpreted the spectrum using EOM-CCSD calculations.

Possible dissociation channels of C_3H_2 which can occur after absorption of the second photon during the laser photolysis of allene and propyne are also discussed. The results of the PES calculations are applied to understand and compare the photodissociation mechanism of two fundamental geometric isomers of C_3H_4 .

Methods of Calculations

For the ground electronic state, the geometry of equilibrium structures and transition states of C_3H_n (n = 1-4) have been optimized by using the hybrid density functional B3LYP method²⁰ and, in some cases, the ab initio MP2²¹ or CCSD(T)²² methods with the 6-311G(d,p) basis set. Vibrational frequencies, calculated at the B3LYP/6-311G(d,p) level, have been used for characterization of the stationary points and zeropoint energy (ZPE) correction. To obtain more accurate energies on the ground-state PES we used the CCSD(T) approach with the large 6-311+G(3df,2p) basis set. The CCSD(T)/6-311+G(3df,2p)//B3LYP calculational scheme has been shown²³ to provide accuracies of 1-2kcal/mol for the atomization energies of the G2 test set of molecules. At the CCSD(T)/6-311+G(3df,2p)//B3LYP/6-311G(d,p) + ZPE[B3LYP/ 6-311G(d,p)] level, the atomization energy of the H₂ molecule is underestimated by 2.2 kcal/mol. However, we do not use any empirical "higher level correction" in the present study. For the reactions involving a bond fission we expect the calculated energies to be 1-2kcal/mol lower than the actual values. A similar CCSD(T)//B3LYP approach has also been demonstrated to be accurate for transition state energies.²⁴ The search for minima on the seam of crossing (MSX) between singlet and triplet PES of C3H2 has been performed at the B3LYP/6-311G(d,p) level by using the program written by Cui, Dunn, and Morokuma.25

For excited states, geometry optimization of various stationary points has been carried out by using the multireference CASSCF method²⁶ with the 6-311+G(d,p) basis set. The active space included eight electrons distributed on 10 orbitals, CASSCF(8,10). Vibrational frequencies for the excited-state equilibrium structures have been calculated at the CIS/6-311+G(d,p) level.²⁷ The energies of excited

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Table 1. Vertical and Adiabatic Excitation Energies (eV) and

 Oscillator Strengths for Electronic Transitions of Propyne

state	CASSCF(8,10)/ ANO(2+)	MRCI(4,8)/ ANO(2+)	MRCI+D(4,8)/ ANO(2+)	oscillator strength
¹ E				
vertical adiabatic:	6.60	7.30	7.31	0.0276
¹ A" trans	5.32	5.13	5.01	
cis	5.76	5.62	5.47	
2 ¹ A' trans		6.90	6.62	
cis	6.30	6.07	5.77	
${}^{1}A_{2}$	7.02	7.72	7.48	0.0
$2^{1}A_{1}$	7.29	7.94	7.95	0.0413
2 ¹ E	7.76	8.42	8.17	0.0246

state structures were then refined by using internally contracted MRCI²⁸ calculations. The CASSCF(8,10) wave function was taken as a reference for the MRCI(4,8) computation with the Davidson correction for quadruple excitations (MRCI+D). The basis set used in the MRCI calculations is ANO(2+), i.e., the ANO basis set²⁹ (4s3p2d for C, 3s2p for H) augmented with several diffuse functions for the carbon atom.³⁰ The oscillator strengths have been calculated by using the CASSCF transition moments and the MRCI+D energies. For comparison, we have also carried out the equation-of-motion coupled cluster (EOM-CCSD)³¹ calculations for the vertical excitation energies.

The MOLPRO-96,³² GAUSSIAN 94,³³ and ACES-II³⁴ programs were used for the calculations. The total energies and ZPE corrections as well as vibrational frequencies of the C_3H_n species, calculated at various levels of theory, are collected in the Supporting Information.

Results and Discussion

Electronic Spectrum of Propyne. The vertical and adiabatic excitation energies of propyne are shown in Table 1 and the optimized geometries of the ground and excited states are drawn in Figure 1. The simple assumption, often used in the theoretical analysis of electronic spectra, is that "vertical excitation energy" = "absorption maximum". The adiabatic excitation energy should correspond to the origin of the absorption band, i.e., the lowest energy an excited state can absorb if the optical transition occurs from the vibrationalless ground state. In principle, the excited state can absorb photons with any energies spaced from the origin by integer numbers of vibrational frequencies of the excited state (in harmonic approximation). The intensity of each vibronic (electronic + vibrational) transition is defined by its Franck-Condon factor. The higher the difference between the photon energy and the adiabatic excitation energy, the more vibrationally excited the molecule should be in the excited electronic state after absorption of the photon.

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Figure 1. Optimized geometry of the ground and excited states of propyne.

Propyne has three singlet states of $\pi - \pi^*$ character with symmetries of ¹E, ¹A₂, and 2¹A₁. At our best level, MRCI+D/ ANO(2+), the vertical excitation energies are 7.31, 7.48, and 7.95 eV, respectively. The next state is 2¹E (π -3s) with the excitation energy of 8.17 eV. A recent study of Fahr and Nayak showed³⁵ the maximum in the absorption spectrum of propyne at 7.19 eV, which is close to the vertical excitation energy for ¹E. This state is calculated to have the oscillator strength of ~0.03. The ¹A₁ \rightarrow ¹A₂ transition is symmetry forbidden, and the oscillator strengths for 2¹A₁ and 2¹E are 0.04 and 0.02, respectively. The excitation energies of propyne are close to those of acetylene.^{36,37}

With lowering the symmetry from C_{3v} to C_s , the first excited ¹E state splits into the 2¹A' and ¹A'' components, both with trans and cis geometries. The geometry optimization for these states gives four minima on PES, shown in Figure 1. The trans and cis forms of the ¹A'' state have adiabatic excitation energies of 5.01 and 5.47 eV, respectively, at the MRCI+D level without ZPE. The geometry is characterized by the bent CCC and CCH groups in the molecule. The acetylenic CC bond is stretched from 1.20 to 1.36–1.39 Å, and the acetylenic CH bond is elongated by 0.02–0.03 Å. There are only small changes in the geometry of the H₃C–C group. The structures of the CCH group and the adiabatic excitation energies of the trans- and cis-bent ¹A'' are close to those of the trans-¹A_u and cis-¹A₂ states of acetylene,^{37b} respectively.

The geometry and energy of the trans-bent minimum on the $2^{1}A'$ surface is similar to the trans ${}^{1}B_{u}$ structure of acetylene.^{37b} The acetylenic CC bond is stretched to 1.34 Å and the CCC and CCH angles are bent to $143-147^{\circ}$. The elongation of the H₃CC=C-H bond is small. The geometry of the cis-bent $2^{1}A'$ minimum is peculiar. The CCH angle reaches 93.8° and the acetylenic CC and CH bonds are stretched to 1.43 and 1.13 Å, respectively. This structure is quite different from that of ${}^{1}B_{2}$ for acetylene, earlier reported in the literature.^{37b} However, recent calculations of Cui et al.³⁸ showed that the ${}^{1}B_{2}$ structure

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ΔE, kcal/mol



Figure 2. Potential energy diagram of primary channels of photodissociation of propyne. Dissociation of allene is shown for comparison by dashed curves. All the energies are calculated at the CCSD(T)/6-311+G(3df,2p)//B3LYP/6-311G(d,p) + ZPE[B3LYP/6-311G(d,p)] level.

for acetylene has two imaginary frequencies. Lowering the symmetry to C_s , they obtained a cis- $C_s 2^1 A'$ minimum with one strongly bent HCC (~90°). The adiabatic excitation energies for the cis- $2^1 A'$ states of propyne and acetylene are calculated to be 5.77 and 6.22 eV, respectively. Interestingly, Cui et al. found that the trans- $^{1}B_u$ structure of acetylene has one imaginary frequency. However, for propyne the corresponding trans- $2^1A'$ structure has all real frequencies at the CIS/6-311+G(d,p) level.

The large geometric changes in the ${}^{1}A''$ and ${}^{2}A'$ states lead to large differences between the vertical and adiabatic excitation energies which reach 2.3 eV. Therefore, the vibronic spectrum of propyne corresponding to the ${}^{1}A_{1} \rightarrow {}^{1}E$ transition should be spread over a broad energy region, with small Franck-Condon factors for individual vibronic transitions. Also, the vertical ¹E state is correlated to four minima on the ¹A" and 2¹A' potential energy surfaces. Therefore, the absorption spectrum should include several overlapping bands. This is consistent with the experiment³⁵ where the absorption in the region of 6.2-7.5 eV consists of a broad continuum. The second maximum of the absorption band observed at \sim 7.4 eV could be a result of splitting the ¹E state. On the other hand, this maximum might be due to the symmetry-forbidden ${}^{1}A_{2}$ state, which borrows some intensity from the allowed transitions because of vibronic coupling.

Primary Photodissociation Channels of Propyne. The energetics of various primary channels of propyne photodissociation is shown in Figure 2 and the optimized geometry of different products is presented in Figure 3. The mechanism of photodissociation of propyne at 193 nm involves as the initial step vertical excitation to the ${}^{1}E$ state,

$$H_3CCCH(S_0, A_1) + h\nu_{193 \text{ nm}} \rightarrow H_3CCCH(S_1, E)$$

The differences between the photon energy and the adiabatic excitation energies of the S_1 (¹A'') and S_2 (2¹A') equilibrium structures are 0.7–1.4 eV. The normal modes corresponding to the CCC and CCH bending and CH stretching of the acetylenic hydrogen should be excited, while the methyl fragment is not affected. This sheds light on why the elimination of the acetylenic (but not methyl) hydrogen is the major



Figure 3. Optimized geometry of the equilibrium structures of the C_3H_n (n = 0-3) species, calculated at the B3LYP/6-311G(d,p) level (unless otherwise mentioned).

photodissociation channel,^{2,4} although the acetylenic CH bond is much stronger than H–CH₂CCH. Also, a recent study by Cui et al.³⁸ showed that the photodissociation mechanism of acetylene involves crossings between the S₁ and S₂, as well as S₂ and S₀, surfaces in the energy range of 6.1–6.3 eV along the pathway of the H atom elimination. In view of the similarity of the excited-state surfaces for propyne and acetylene, we expect the fast elimination of the acetylenic hydrogen in H₃-CCCH to occur by a similar mechanism: traveling along the S₁ and S₂ surfaces followed by the S₂ \rightarrow S₀ crossing and elimination of the H atom producing H₃CCC (²A₁).

Experimental measurements by Robinson et al.³⁹ give the bond dissociation energy (BDE) of 130.2 ± 3 kcal/mol for the acetylenic CH bond in propyne. On the other hand, the MCPF calculations by Bauschlicher and Langhoff⁴⁰ resulted in a significantly higher value of 135.9 ± 2 kcal/mol. They found that the ground state of H₃CCC is ²E, which lies 9.7 kcal/mol below the ²A₁ first excited state. When propyne BDE [*D*₀-(CH₃C=C-H)] is referenced to the ²A₁ state, a diabatic BDE is more than 10 kcal/mol higher than the BDE of acetylene (131 \pm 0.7 kcal/mol).⁴¹ For C₂H, the ground electronic state is of the ²A₁ type (² Σ), but not of ²E (² Π). Our calculations do not

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support the conclusion of Bauschlicher and Langhoff. In the restricted open shell CCSD(T) approximation³² with the MP2 ZPE correction, the ²A₁ state of H₃CCC lies 1.0 kcal/mol lower than ²E.⁴² The acetylenic CH bond strength in propyne is then calculated to be 130.5 kcal/mol, in excellent agreement with experiment.³⁹

A slower and less probable dissociation mechanism involves internal conversion into the ground state and a redistribution of the energy between vibrational degrees of freedom. Then, propyne can eliminate either a methyl hydrogen or H₂ on the vibrationally excited ground-state surface. The splitting of one of the methyl hydrogens produces the propargyl radical, H₂-CCCH, and is endothermic by 88.7 kcal/mol. The H-CH₂-C = CH BDE calculated here at the CCSD(T) level is lower than the values suggested by Bauschlicher and Langhoff,⁴⁰ 90.5 (MCPF) and 92.5 \pm 2 (corrected) kcal/mol. The experimental CH bond strength for methyl hydrogens is 90.3 ± 3 kcal/mol.³⁹ By comparison, the elimination of a hydrogen atom from allene producing the H₂CCCH radical is calculated to be endothermic by 87.8 kcal/mol, which is close to the experimental value of 88.7 kcal/mol.³⁹ The hydrogen atom splitting reactions from propyne and allene have no barrier since the reverse reaction is a radical-radical association.

Two transition states shown in Figure 4 have been found for H_2 elimination from propyne. The reaction pathway via TS1 corresponds to the 1,1-H₂ elimination and leads to propargylene, HCCCH. If the reaction occurs in the singlet manifold, the endothermicity is 94.3 kcal/mol. The barrier height at TS1 is 100.6 kcal/mol. This can be compared with a barrier of 92.4 kcal/mol calculated earlier for the 1,1-H₂ elimination from allene.¹⁷ The H₂CCCH₂ \rightarrow TS2 \rightarrow H₂CCC + H₂ reaction was calculated to be endothermic by 83.0 kcal/mol, in close agreement with experiment.^{39,43} The reverse barrier for the insertion of H2 into singlet HCCCH is 6.3 kcal/mol, or ~3 kcal/ mol lower than that for the H₂ insertion into H₂CCC leading to allene via TS2. TS1 is a later transition state than TS2. It has longer CH distances, 1.68 and 2.18 Å, and the HH bond in H₂ is stretched by only 0.04 Å as compared to that in free H₂. The geometry of the HCCCH molecular component in TS1 is nearly identical with the geometry of singlet propargylene. The 1,3-H₂ elimination occurring via TS3 requires a much higher activation energy. The barrier is 127.1 kcal/mol, while the H₃- $CCCH \rightarrow TS3 \rightarrow H_2CCC + H_2$ reaction is endothermic by 83.9 kcal/mol. Therefore, the barrier for the insertion of H₂ into vinylidenecarbene producing propyne is high, 43.2 kcal/mol. The 1,3-insertion of H₂ is not expected to compete with the 1,1-insertion leading to allene. TS3 has a five-member-ring geometry and is a rather early transition state. The forming HH bond is 0.27 Å longer than the regular HH bond in H_2 . The CH distances in the breaking CH bonds are shorter than those in TS1 and TS2. The geometry of the H₂CCC fragment is quite different from the geometry of propyne and vinylidenecarbene. In particular, the CCC angle is strongly bent, but in the reactant



Figure 4. B3LYP/6-311G(d,p) optimized geometry of the transition states for H₂ elimination from the C_3H_n species (n = 2-4).

and the final product the CCC group is linear. If the $1,3-H_2$ elimination from propyne takes place, the dissociation has to proceed via a strongly distorted geometry, which results in a high barrier for this process.

In propyne, the activation energies for the 1,1-elimination of H_2 and a H elimination from the CH₃ carbon atom are 100.6 and 88.7 kcal/mol, respectively. In the combustion of propyne the large energy difference between these two processes leads to CH fission.⁴⁴ In the photodissociation of propyne a small amount of H_2 is produced.² This can be due to isomerization of propyne to allene followed by H_2 elimination,

$$H_3CCCH^{\dagger}(S_0) \rightarrow H_2CCCH_2 \rightarrow H_2CCC + H_2$$

The vibrationally excited propyne molecule possesses sufficient energy to overcome the rearrangement barriers.^{9–11}

Secondary Dissociation of C₃H₃. The energies of secondary dissociation channels involving C₃H₃ are shown in Figure 5. First we follow the fate of the propyn-1-yl radical, H₃CCC, the major product of the propyne photodissociation. After absorption of the second photon and internal conversion onto the ground-state surface H₃CCC can dissociate by three different mechanisms. The most energetically favorable mechanism is fission of a CH bond giving vinylidenecarbene, H₂CCC. The reaction does not have a reverse barrier. The calculated BDE for this process is 54.5 kcal/mol, so the bond in propyn-1-yl is much weaker than the CH bond in the CH₃ group of propyne. Elimination of H₂ from the propyn-1-yl radical proceeds via transition state TS4 and leads to the linear HCCC. The theoretical endothermicity and barrier height are 42.7 and 68.0 kcal/mol, respectively. As seen in Figure 4, the character of

⁽⁴²⁾ Both ROHF and MP2/6-311G(d,p) optimization for the ²E-like state of H₃CCC give the geometry which is similar to that obtained in ref 40, but slightly deviates from C_{3v} symmetry. The symmetry was lowered to C_s and the ²A' component was used for the frequency calculations. All the frequencies are real. Geometry optimization of the ²A₁ state at the B3LYP level gives a C_s -symmetric structure with a slightly bent CCC fragment, while the C_{3v} structure has two imaginary frequencies of e symmetry. However, this result is not confirmed by the higher level calculations. At CCSD(T)/6-311+G(3df,2p), the C_{3v} structure is 1.8 kcal/mol lower in energy than the C_s one. At the MP2/6-311G(d,p) level, the ²A₁ state has no imaginary frequencies for the C_{3v} geometry. The bond lengths, optimized for ²A₁ within C_{3v} symmetry at the B3LYP and MP2 levels, are close.

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Figure 5. Potential energy diagram of the secondary dissociation of C_3H_3 .



Figure 6. B3LYP/6-311G(d,p) optimized geometry of the transition states and minima on the singlet-triplet seam of crossing involved in isomerization of C₃H₂.

TS4 can be characterized as late, in accordance with endothermicity of the $H_3CCC \rightarrow HCCC + H_2$ reaction. The propyn-1-yl radical can also undergo a cleavage of the single CC bond and produce $CH_3 + C_2$. The CC bond dissociation energy is predicted to be 101.1 kcal/mol.

The H₂CCCH formed as a primary product can absorb a second 193 nm photon⁴⁵ and dissociate. Splitting a hydrogen atom from the propargyl radical results either in singlet or triplet propargylene, with an endothermicity of 106.7 (94.1) kcal/mol because of the 12.6 kcal/mol splitting between these two states (see Figure 7). Vinylidenecarbene ($H_2C=C=C$:) can also be formed with an endothermicity of 96.3 kcal/mol. The C-H bond dissociation energy, $D_0(CH_2=C=\dot{C}-H)$, measured ex-



Figure 7. Potential energy diagram for isomerization and dissociation of C₃H₂. The energies are calculated at the CCSD(T)/6-311+G(3df,-2p)//B3LYP/6-311G(d,p) + ZPE[B3LYP/6-311G(d,p)] level. The energies of MSX1 and MSX2 (numbers in parentheses) are calculated at the B3LYP/6-311G(d,p) level.

perimentally by Robinson et al., is 100 ± 5 kcal/mol.³⁹ Our theoretical result lies within the error bars of the experimental value. Both reactions of hydrogen elimination from propargyl leading to singlet C₃H₂ might have a barrier because the reverse reactions involve a radical and a closed shell species. However, the search of transition states in both cases leads to the dissociation of a hydrogen. This means that the reverse reactions of H addition to the singlet HCCCH and H2CCC have no barrier. These results can be attributed to the high exothermicity of the hydrogen addition.

The propargyl radical can undergo the 1,1-H₂ elimination leading to the linear C₃H structure. The calculated heat of the $H_2CCCH \rightarrow TS5 \rightarrow HCCC (^2\Pi) + H_2$ reaction is 84.5 kcal/ mol. The barrier height is 94.9 and 10.4 kcal/mol with respect to the reactant and products, respectively. In the experiment, $C_3H_2 + H$, not $C_3H + H_2$, are the major products (96%) of the H₂CCCH secondary photodissociation.¹ The reason for that is not clear yet because the energies required for the H₂ and H elimination differ by less than 2 kcal/mol. Considering the reverse reactions of 1,1-insertion of H₂ into HCCC, the barrier to form H₂CCCH is much lower than that to form H₃CCC. With respect to $HCCC + H_2$, TS4 is a later transition state than TS5, with a longer breaking HH bond and shorter forming CH bonds.

The geometry of TS5 is quite similar to that of TS2, the transition state for the 1,1-H₂ elimination from allene. In both structures, the H₂ fragment is stretched by ~ 0.08 Å as compared to the free H₂. The CCC fragment is bent to 167-168° and the breaking CH distances differ from each other. In TS5, the CH distances are slightly shorter than in TS2, 1.39 vs 1.42 and 1.88 vs 1.95 Å. Thus, TS5 is a slightly earlier transition state than TS2. The $1,1-H_2$ elimination from propargyl is 1.5 kcal/ mol more endothermic than that from allene, and the barrier at TS5 is 2.5 kcal/mol higher than that at TS2. For the reverse reactions, the insertion of H₂ into C₃H ($^{2}\Pi$) has an activation energy ~ 1 kcal/mol higher than the activation energy for the corresponding H₂ insertion into vinylidenecarbene. Despite the small differences discussed above, the reactions of H2 elimination from allene and propargyl are very similar according to their energetics and the character of the transition states. Similar to the case of allene, a transition state for 1,3-H₂ elimination from H₂CCCH does not exist.

A third isomer of C_3H_3 , cyclopropenyl (C_s ,²A'), is also known.^{14a} The cyclic structure is 31.5 kcal/mol less stable than propargyl but 10.3 kcal/mol more stable than H₃CCC. We could

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not find a transition state for H₂ elimination from the cyclopropenyl isomer of C_3H_3 leading to the cyclic C_3H . The saddle point search instead results in elimination of a hydrogen atom and formation of cyclopropenylidene C₃H₂. The calculated CH bond strength in cyclopropenyl is 51.3 kcal/mol. This value is in satisfactory agreement with the reliable CBS-QCI/APNO result (53.7 kcal/mol) of Montgomery et al.⁴⁶ The molecular hydrogen elimination from cyclopropenyl is expected to proceed by a multistep mechanism involving initial isomerization to H₂-CCCH, eventually leading to linear HCCC. The details of this mechanism are yet to be studied, although some steps have been investigated by Walch.¹⁵ The overall endothermicity of the pathway from cyclic C₃H₃ to linear HCCC is 53.0 kcal/mol. Among other dissociation channels of C₃H₃, the cyclopropenyl isomer can split into $CH + C_2H_2$, which requires an energy of 77.4 kcal/mol. For propargyl, the dissociation to CH $(^{2}\Pi)$ + C_2H_2 (acetylene) is endothermic by 108.9 kcal/mol and is not likely to occur in one step. One two-step process requires the H₂CCCH first to rearrange to the cyclopropenyl structure and then to eliminate CH. Another is dissociation to H₂CC (vinylidene) + CH with the former isomerizing to acetylene.

Isomerization of C₃H₂. Although the structure and stability of various isomers of C₃H₂ in the singlet and triplet electronic states has been well studied theoretically,¹³ PES for the isomerization pathways is much less investigated by theorists. Kaiser et al.⁴⁷ as well as Takahashi and Yamashita¹⁶ have studied PES for the C(³P) + C₂H₂ reaction and calculated some transition states for the isomerization of C₃H₂ in the triplet state. Takahashi and Yamashita also considered crossing between the singlet and triplet surfaces which can be involved in the rearrangement of singlet cyclopropenylidene to triplet propargylene. Seburg et al.¹⁸ have theoretically studied the automerization of singlet vinylidenecarbene, which proceeds via a planar cyclopropyne transition state. The automerization barrier was calculated to be 37.5 kcal/mol at the CCSD(T)/cc-pVTZ level.

Here, we consider various isomerization pathways of C_3H_2 . Optimized geometries of different isomers and transition states are shown in Figures 3 and 6, respectively. Note that the B3LYP/6-311G(d,p) geometry of the equilibrium structures is similar to that previously reported in the literature¹³ and, in particular, is close to that obtained by Seburg et al. at the CCSD-(T)/cc-pVTZ level.¹⁸ The only more problematic case is the singlet HCCCH isomer. The B3LYP calculations give for the C_s geometry one imaginary frequency, while two minima at this level of theory have $C_{2\nu}$ and C_{2h} symmetries. The energy difference between the C_s and C_{2v} structures is very small, 0.4 kcal/mol at the B3LYP level with ZPE correction. However, the CCSD(T)/6-311+G(3df,2p) calculations have reversed the order of stability: the C_s structure becomes 0.6 kcal/mol more favorable than the $C_{2\nu}$ one. Therefore, we re-optimized the geometry of the C_s -symmetric singlet propargylene at the CCSD(T)/6-311G(d,p) level. All frequencies at CCSD(T) are real for the C_s structure, which agrees with the earlier result of Byun and Stanton.⁴⁸ For triplet propargylene, the B3LYP calculation gives the correct symmetry for the equilibrium structure, (³B,C₂).^{13y} However, the difference between the B3LYP and CCSD(T) geometric parameters is significant, for instance, for the CCH bond angle and the CCCH dihedral angle.

The calculated energy differences between the isomers are also in line with theoretical and experimental literature data.^{13,39,43} Cyclopropenylidene is the most stable singlet isomer, while vinylidenecarbene and propargylene lie 13.5 and 23.9 kcal/mol higher in energy, respectively. Triplet propargylene is 2.2 kcal/ mol more stable than the singlet H₂CCC but lies 11.3 kcal/mol higher in energy than singlet cyclopropenylidene.

The potential energy surface for C_3H_2 isomerization and dissociation is presented in Figure 7. The cyclic structure rearranges to H₂CCC via transition state TS6. The calculated barrier is 55.2 and 41.7 kcal/mol relative to cyclopropenylidene and vinylidenecarbene, respectively. The ring opening—closure in TS6 is accompanied by a hydrogen shift. The hydrogen shift is a 1,3-H shift with respect to H₂CCC and a 1,2-H shift with respect to the cyclic isomer. The TS6 has C_s symmetry and is quite different from both the reactant and the product. The structure of the C₃ group in TS6 is closer to that in cyclopropenylidene.

Isomerization of cyclopropenylidene to the singlet HCCCH occurs by a simple ring opening. The corresponding transition state TS7 has C_2 symmetry and the ¹A electronic state. In TS7, the double (H)C=C(H) bond loses its double character and starts to break apart (1.73 Å). Interestingly, on the B3LYP potential energy surface, TS7 connects two minima of C_{2v} symmetry, cyclopropenylidene and the C_{2v} structure of HCCCH, which is slightly lower in energy than the C_s structure. The valence orbital occupation is $3a_1^2 2b_2^2 4a_1^2 5a_1^2 1b_1^2 3b_2^2 6a_1^2$ in cyclo-C₃H₂ vs $3a_1^2 2b_2^2 4a_1^2 3b_2^2 1b_1^2 5a_1^2 4b_2^2$ in HCCCH. Therefore, the interconversion between the two isomers should occur with the break of C_{2v} symmetry. The transition state structure substantially deviates from the planarity; the HCCC dihedral angle in TS7 is 111.6°. The barrier at TS7 is higher than that at TS6, 61.3 and 37.4 kcal/mol relative to the cyclic and linear isomers, respectively. Thus, the rearrangement of cyclopropenylidene to propargylene should be slower than that to vinylidenecarbene.

The transformation of H₂CCC to HCCCH requires a higher activation energy. We have found two transition states separating the two isomers. Both of them, TS8 and TS9, correspond to a 1,3-hydrogen shift. The barrier at TS8, 75.9 kcal/mol relative to vinylidenecarbene, is lower than that at TS9, 78.7 kcal/mol. The geometries of the C_3 fragment are similar in the two transition states, with a stronger CCC bending in TS8. The positions of the hydrogen atoms differ. In TS8, the HCCC fragment containing the moving hydrogen has a cis geometry and the second HCCC has a trans geometry. In TS9, both hydrogens are in trans positions relative to CCC. According to the position of the moving H atom, TS8 has a later character than TS9, if H₂CCC is considered as the reactant. The intrinsic reaction coordinate (IRC)49 calculations for TS8 and TS9 confirmed that the two transition states indeed connect H₂CCC and HCCCH. No HCC(H)C or propenediylidene isomer exists on the singlet PES. Upon geometry optimization, such structures spontaneously rearrange to the other isomers depending on the initial geometry. Propenedivlidene is an equilibrium structure only in the triplet electronic state.^{16,47}

Thermal automerization of the cyclic C_3H_2 occurs by the 1,2-H shift via TS10. The barrier is 32.4 kcal/mol, which is lower than the barriers for the rearrangement of this isomer to H_2CCC and HCCCH as well as the automerization barrier of vinylidenecarbene.

In an elegant experimental study with the ${}^{13}C$ isotope labeled C₃H₂, Seburg et al.¹⁸ have investigated the photochemical isomerizations and automerizations of this species. Although

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Scheme 1



photoexcitation puts C_3H_2 into excited electronic states, the products of the photochemical process are the ground-state isomers, indicating that internal conversion occurs to the ground electronic state. Comparison of the experimental data with the calculated ground-state PES clarifies the rearrangement mechanisms. At $\lambda > 444$ nm (<64.4 kcal/mol), Seburg et al. observed automerization of vinylidenecarbene. They concluded that the reaction proceeds via the cyclopropyne transition state with the barrier of 37.5 kcal/mol. The automerization involving cyclopropenylidene as an intermediate is not consistent with the experimental data on the ¹³C isotope scrambling. Indeed, the calculated barrier for the H₂CCC \leftrightarrow TS6 \leftrightarrow cyclopropenylidene \leftrightarrow TS6 \leftrightarrow H₂CCC automerization is 41.7, 4.2 kcal/ mol higher than the barrier at cyclopropyne.

Isomerization of the triplet HCCCH requires not only geometrical changes, such as hydrogen shifts and ring closure, but also an intersystem crossing of the singlet and triplet PES. Hence, we searched for the minimal energy points on the singlet-triplet seam of crossing. MSX1 is such a point on the pathway corresponding to the ring closure between HCCCH and cyclic C₃H₂.⁵⁰ The energy of MSX1 is 52.2 kcal/mol relative to singlet cyclopropenylidene at the B3LYP/6-311G-(d,p) level. At this level, the energy of MSX1 is 12.0 kcal/mol lower than that of TS7, the transition state for the ring closure in the singlet state. According to the geometry of MSX1, shown in Figure 6, in particular, the CCC angle of 72.7° vs 85.1° in TS9, the crossing occurs after TS7, if the system travels from HCCCH to cyclopropenylidene. Thus, starting from triplet propargylene the reaction proceeds along the triplet PES, crosses over to the singlet surface, and leads to the singlet cyclic C₃H₂ without going over the barrier at TS7.

The simple ring closure in HCCCH does not explain the experimental observations of the isotope scrambling by Seburg et al., illustrated in Scheme 1 where ¹³C is marked by "*". They found that both isotopomers of cyclopropenylidene can be formed from each isotopomer of propargylene. Also, the second propargylene isotopomer HCCCH (**b**) or HCCCH (**a**), respectively, appears immediately upon photolysis of HCCCH (**a**) or HCCCH (**b**). To explain this, Seburg et al. suggested that the ring closure is followed by a rapid 1,2-hydrogen shift in cyclopropenylidene. Our findings support the mechanism shown in Scheme 1; the automerization barrier in the cyclo- C_3H_2 is relatively low.

The alternative isomerization scenario involves the hydrogen migration in concert with or preceding ring closure, as illustrated in Scheme 2. Hence, we have also optimized the geometry of





MSX2, the minimum on the seam of crossing in the vicinity of transient propenediylidene. The crossing takes place at the energy of 66.4 kcal/mol (B3LYP) relative to the triplet HCCCH, more than 20 kcal/mol higher than the energy of MSX1. MSX2 is also higher in energy than TS7. Therefore, after clearing the crossing point, singlet cyclopropenylidene can be formed. The mechanism of the HCCCH (³B) \leftrightarrow cyclo-C₃H₂ (¹A₁) isomerization involving MSX2 cannot be completely ruled out because the energy of MSX2 is below 91.4 kcal/mol available at $\lambda =$ 313 nm. However, this mechanism is much less favorable than the one involving MSX1 and 1,2-hydrogen shifts in cyclopropenylidene. The mechanism involving MSX2 is inconsistent with experimental data. It predicts that HCCCH (a) should initially produce cyclo- C_3H_2 (a) and (b) in a 1:1 ratio and that HCCCH (**b**) should initially produce only cyclo- C_3H_2 (**a**), which is not the case in the experiment.¹⁸

MSX2 also can be relevant to the formation of H₂CCC from the triplet HCCCH at $\lambda = 313$ nm. The isomerization occurs via the seam of crossing and then via transition states TS8 and TS9. The available energy is sufficient to overcome the barriers for the 1,3-hydrogen shift. The slow rate of reaction for the HCCCH \leftrightarrow H₂CCC interconversion as compared to HCCCH \leftrightarrow cyclo-C₃H₂ is due to the high energies of the transition states for the 1,3-hydrogen migration.

Electronic and Vibronic Spectra of C₃H₂. (a) Vinylidenecarbene. We considered the vertical and adiabatic excitation energies (Table 2) as well as the optimized geometry of excited states (Figure 8) of H₂CCC in the previous paper.¹⁷ Stanton et al.19 reported a more resolved absorption spectrum of vinylidenecarbene in the region between 200 and 800 nm and interpreted the spectrum using EOM-CCSD calculations. Two states, ¹B₁ and $2^{1}A_{1}$, can contribute to the spectrum. The first excited state of H₂CCC, ¹A₂, is symmetry-forbidden. Therefore, only weak absorption may be observed in the region of 1.77-1.88 eV (700-660 nm). Indeed, Stanton et al.¹⁹ reported a weak absorption band originating at 717 nm (1.73 eV). The absorption bands in the 400-600 and 200-250 nm region correspond to the ${}^{1}B_{1}$ and $2{}^{1}A_{1}$ states, respectively, with the vertical excitation energies of 2.44 eV (508 nm) and 5.39 eV (230 nm). In accordance with experimentally observed intensities, the calculated oscillator strength of ${}^{1}B_{1}$ is 4.7 times smaller than that of $2^{1}A_{1}$.

To carry out a more detailed comparison between the experimental and theoretical spectra, we calculated vibronic spectra for ${}^{1}B_{1}$ and $2{}^{1}A_{1}$. We used the ab initio approach to compute vibrational overlap integrals and Franck–Condon

⁽⁵⁰⁾ MSX1 has a C_2 -symmetric geometry and the crossing occurs between the ¹A and ³A electronic states. The ground state of the triplet C_2 -symmetric HCCCH is ³B. At the geometry of MSX1, ³A is the lowest triplet state, while ³B lies 61.0 kcal/mol higher at the MP2/6-311G(d,p) level. Thus, the ³A state of MSX1 must correlate with the ³B ground state of propargylene and the reaction pathway between them should go through nonsymmetric geometry.

Table 2. Vertical and Adiabatic Excitation Energies (eV) and Oscillator Strengths for Electronic Transitions of C_3H_2

state	MRCI(4,8)/ANO(2+)	MRCI+D(4,8)/ANO(2+)	oscillator strength	EOM-CCSD/ANO(2+)	oscillator strength
H ₂ CCC ^a					
$^{1}A_{2}$, vert	1.88	1.88	0.0	1.96	0.0
adiabatic	1.76	1.77			
¹ B ₁ , vert	2.73	2.44	0.0160	2.80	0.0087
adiabatic	2.12	2.05	010100	2.00	010007
$2^{1}A_{1}$ vert	5 57	5 39	0 0749	5 57	0 1597
adiabatic	5.12	4 92	0.07 19	5.57	0.1377
$3^{1}A_{1}$ vert	6.27	5.80	0.0461	7 47	0.0401
adiabatic	5 75	5.00	0.0101	//	0.0101
1B ₂ vert	5.92	5.84	0.0002	7 11	0.0083
adiabatic	5.92	5.87	0.0002	7.11	0.0005
$2^{1}\Lambda_{2}$ vert	6.67	6.58	0.0	7.80	0.0
adiabatic	5.88	5.81	0.0	7.80	0.0
	5.88	5.81		7.40	0.0400
$\frac{2}{4^1}$				7.49	0.0499
4 A]				7.97 9.16	0.2117
2 D ₁ 21D				8.10	0.0505
$3^{-}D_{2}$				0.24	0.0324
5 A2				8.40	0.0
J'A1				8.42	0.0893
4 ¹ A ₂				8.53	0.0
$4^{1}B_{2}$				8.57	0.0012
3'B ₁				8.63	0.0006
$4^{1}B_{1}$				8.86	0.0819
HCCCH, singlets ^o	1.00		0.000	1.17	0.0010
I'A'', vert	1.30	1.14	0.0026	1.17	0.0018
adiabatic	0.52	0.37	0.001=	1.50	0.0111
$2^{1}A'$, vert	2.83	2.79	0.0017	4.69	0.0114
adiabatic	1.21	1.00			
$2^{1}A''$, vert	3.76	3.32	0.0005	4.01	0.0015
adiabatic	3.31	3.05			
3 ¹ A'	5.89	5.68	0.0192	5.78	0.0141
$3^{1}A''$	6.52	6.14	0.0038	6.30	0.0040
$4^{1}A'$	6.63	6.33	0.0028	5.89	0.0009
5 ¹ A'	6.61	6.38	0.0427	6.51	0.0232
$4^{1}A''$	7.33		0.0007	7.04	0.0004
5 ¹ A″				7.30	0.0050
HCCCH, triplets ^c					
1^{3} A, vert	4.08	4.10	0.0169	4.42	0.0003
adiabatic	3.24	3.28			
$2^{3}B$, vert	4.10	4.33	0.0004	4.19	0.0089
adiabatic	3.03	3.02			
2^{3} A, vert	6.15	5.41	0.0019	4.69	4.6×10^{-6}
adiabatic	6.01	5.11		4.41	
3 ³ B	5.72	5.59	2.8×10^{-5}	4.42	0.0003
$4^{3}B$	6.76		3.9×10^{-5}	5.95	0.0036
3 ³ A				5.84	7.7×10^{-5}
$cyclo-C_3H_2^d$					
1A ₂ , vert	4.24	3.92	0.0	4.12	0.0
adiabatic	2.85	2.50			
$1B_1$, vert	4.99	4.77	0.0515	4.84	0.0193
adiabatic	4.78	4.50			
$2^{1}A_{1}$, vert	6.36	6.28	0.0160	6.36	0.0010
adiabatic	5.99	5.91			
1B ₂ , vert	6.78	6.73	0.0029	6.72	1.6×10^{-5}
adiabatic	6.40	6.35	0.002/	02	1.0 / 10
adiubutie	0.10	0.00			

^{*a*} Excitation energies are given relative to the 1¹A₁ state. ^{*b*} Excitation energies are given relative to the 1¹A' state. ^{*c*} Excitation energies are given relative to the 1³B state. ^{*d*} Excitation energies are given relative to the 1¹A₁ state.

factors for individual transitions.⁵¹ Scaled by 0.9,⁵¹ CIS/6-311+G(d,p) vibrational frequencies (shown in Table S2 of the Supporting Information) in conjunction with the MRCI+D adiabatic excitation energies were used to calculate the peak positions. The theoretical spectra are shown in Figure 9. In the ¹B₁ state, the H₂C-C bond is stretched from 1.32 to 1.44 Å and the second CC bond is shortened from 1.29 to 1.21 Å. As a result, two a₁ normal modes are displaced, ν_7 (2043 cm⁻¹ in the ground state and 1887 cm⁻¹ in the excited state) with $\Delta Q_7 = 0.48$ Bohr•amu^{1/2} and ν_5 (1147 cm⁻¹ in ¹A₁ and 1112 cm⁻¹ in ¹B₁) with $\Delta Q_5 = 0.15$ Bohr•amu^{1/2}. A b₁ mode ν_1 is strongly distorted, from 233 cm⁻¹ in ¹A₁ to 433 cm⁻¹ in the excited state. Comparison between the experimental and calculated positions of the peaks is given in Table 3, and the agreement is good. The spectrum looks like a combination of two vibrational progressions, a more intense one with the spacing of 1887 cm⁻¹ and a less intense one with the spacing of 900–1000 cm⁻¹. In the 2¹A₁ state, both CC bonds are stretched. The ν_5 and ν_7 normal modes are displaced by 0.62 and 0.34 Bohr•amu^{1/2}, respectively. The distortion of ν_1 is less significant. Two vibrational progressions with the spacing of 1704 and 956 cm⁻¹ appear in the spectrum. In general, our

^{(51) (}a) Mebel, A. M.; Chen, Y. T.; Lin, S. H. *Chem. Phys. Lett.* **1996**, 258, 53. (b) Mebel, A. M.; Chen, Y. T.; Lin, S. H. *J. Chem. Phys.* **1996**, *105*, 9007.



Figure 8. CASSCF(8,10)/6-311+G(d,p) optimized geometry of excited states of C_3H_2 .

assignment is close to that proposed by Stanton et al.¹⁹ MRCI energies are more accurate than the EOM-CCSD ones, while the EOM-CCSD vibrational frequencies for the excited states should be more precise than the CIS frequencies.

(b) Singlet and Triplet Propargylene. Excitation energies for the singlet and triplet HCCCH are presented in Table 2. All the optimized structures of excited states, discussed below, have all real frequencies at the CIS level. For the singlet, which has a C_s geometry in the lowest state, the first excited state is ¹A". The vertical energy is only 1.17 eV and the transition is weak. At the optimized geometry of ${}^{1}A''$, the CC bond lengths become close to each other and the CH bonds are shortened. The adiabatic excitation energy is as low as 0.37 eV. The ¹A' and ¹A" potential energy surfaces nearly cross in the vicinity of the equilibrium structure of ¹A". The second singlet excited state is $2^{1}A'$ with the vertical energy of 2.79 eV. The ${}^{1}A' \rightarrow 2^{1}A'$ transition should be stronger than ${}^{1}A' \rightarrow {}^{1}A''$, with the oscillator strength of 0.01. Optimization of 2¹A' gives a nearly linear $D_{\infty h}$ structure with the CC and CH bonds similar to those in ${}^{1}A''$. The adiabatic excitation energy of $2{}^{1}A'$ is predicted to be 1.00 eV. The third state is $2^{1}A''$ (3.32 eV). Upon optimization, this state loses symmetry and becomes 4¹A in terms of the C₁ point group. The CC bonds in 4¹A are stretched to 1.35-1.36 Å and the molecule is significantly bent and twisted. The energy of 4^{1} A with respect to the lowest singlet 1 A' is 3.05 eV. As seen in Table 2, we calculated vertical excitation energies for several more excited singlet states in the region up to \sim 7.3 eV. Of those, the most intense transitions are expected to be due to ${}^{1}A' \rightarrow 3{}^{1}A'$ (the energy is 5.68 eV and the oscillator strength is 0.01) and ${}^{1}A' \rightarrow 5{}^{1}A'$ (6.33 eV, 0.02).

For triplet HCCCH, the first excited state is ³A, 4.10 eV above ³B at the geometry of the latter. The oscillator strength for the ³B \rightarrow ³A transition is ~0.02. Geometry optimization for the



Figure 9. Calculated vibronic spectra of H_2CCC due to the ${}^1A_1 \rightarrow {}^1B_1$ and ${}^1A_1 \rightarrow {}^2IA_1$ electronic transitions.

³A state gives a structure of nearly C_{2h} symmetry, shown in Figure 8. The molecule is planar with a linear CCC fragment. The CC bonds are stretched from 1.29 to 1.35 Å and the CCH angles decrease from 158° in ³B to 129° in ³A. The adiabatic excitation energy is calculated to be 3.28 eV. The difference between the adiabatic and vertical excitation energies is 0.82 eV because of the significant geometry change in ³A. The second excited state, 23B, has the vertical and adiabatic excitation energies of 4.33 and 3.02 eV. The optimized geometry of 2^{3} B is also planar, but of C_{2v} symmetry. The CCC fragment is strongly bent (109°) and the CCC bonds are stretched to 1.37 Å. The calculated oscillator strength is as low as 0.0004. For third triplet excited state, 2³A, the optimized geometry is characterized by the elongation of the CC bonds and bending the CCH fragments, similar to those in ³A. Otherwise, the CH bond lengths, the CCC angle, and the HCCC dihedral angles remain close to those in the ground ³B state. The vertical excitation energy for 2^{3} A and the oscillator strength are 5.41 eV and 0.002, respectively. At the CASSCF(8,10)/6-311+G(d,p) level, the adiabatic energy of $2^{3}A$ is 0.54 eV lower than the vertical energy. The MRCI+D calculation at the CASSCF optimized geometry, which required the use of a larger active space, 6 electrons on 9 orbitals, gives the energy ~ 0.30 eV lower than the vertical MRCI+D(6,9) energy of 2^{3} A. Thus, the adiabatic excitation energy of the 2³A state is predicted to be 5.11 eV (243 nm).

The broad weak absorption band observed in the UV spectra of triplet propargylene¹⁸ between 275 and 350 nm (3.54–4.51 eV) apparently is due to the ${}^{3}B \rightarrow {}^{3}A$ and ${}^{3}B \rightarrow {}^{3}B$ electronic transitions. The bands lying between 260 (4.77 eV) and 231

Table 3. Calculated and Experimental Peak Positions (cm^{-1}) in the Vibronic Spectra of H₂CCC

	${}^{1}A_{1} \rightarrow {}^{1}B_{1}$		$^{1}A_{1} \rightarrow 2^{1}A_{1}$				
assign	theoretical peak	exptl band ^a	assign	theoretical peak	exptl band ^a		
origin	16534	16611	origin	39682	38810-39682		
		16949	5^{1}_{0}	40638	40650		
1_0^2	17400	17483	7^{1}_{0}	41386			
5_0^1	17646	17699	5_0^2	41594	41667		
7_0^1	18415	18692	$7^1_0 5^1_0$	42342			
$7^1_0 1^2_0$	19281		5_0^3	42550	42373		
$7^1_0 5^1_0$	19527	19685	7_0^2	43090			
7_0^2	20296	20833	$7_0^1 5_0^2$	43298	43290		
$7_0^2 1_0^2$	21162		5^4_0	43506			
$7^2_0 5^1_0$	21408	21834	$7_0^2 5_0^1$	44046	44053		
7_0^3	22177	22936	$7_0^1 5_0^3$	44254			
$7_0^3 1_0^2$	23043		5_0^5	44462			
$7^3_0 5^1_0$	23289	23923	7_0^3	44794			
7_0^4	24058	25000	$7_0^2 5_0^2$	45002	45045		
$7^4_0 1^2_0$	24924		$7^1_0 5^4_0$	45210			
$7^4_0 5^1_0$	25170		5_0^6	45418			
7_0^5	25939	26178	$7_0^3 5_0^1$	45750			
7_0^6	27820		$7_0^2 5_0^3$	45958	45872		
0			$7_0^1 5_0^5$	46166			
			5_0^7	46374			
			7_{0}^{4}	46498			
			$7_0^3 5_0^2$	46706			
			$7_0^2 5_0^4$	46914	46948		

^a From ref 19.

nm (5.37 eV) can be assigned to the 2³A state, although some contribution from 2³B cannot be excluded. The next two transitions, ${}^{3}B \rightarrow 3{}^{3}B$ (5.59 eV) and ${}^{3}B \rightarrow 4{}^{3}B$ (6.76 eV), are very weak.

(c) Cyclopropenylidene. For cyclic C₃H₂, the lowest singlet excited state is ${}^{1}A_{2}$, with the vertical excitation energy of 3.92 eV. The ${}^{1}A_{1} \rightarrow {}^{1}A_{2}$ transition is symmetry-forbidden. Therefore, only weak absorption due to vibronic coupling might be observed for cyclopropenylidene in the region of \sim 316 nm. The optimized geometry of the ¹A₂ state is quite different from that of the ground state. It is characterized by two short CC bonds (1.34 Å) and one long CC bond (1.54 Å) between two CH fragments. The electronic structure of ¹A₂, described earlier by Bofill et al.,^{13p} defines the geometric structure: one unpaired electron is located on the p_{σ} orbital of the top (hydrogen-less) carbon and three electrons form a π -system of the ring. The second unpaired π -electron is shared by the C(H) atoms. Due to the large geometry change, the adiabatic excitation energy of ${}^{1}A_{2}$ is 1.42 eV lower than the vertical energy. At the CIS level, the ¹A₂ optimized structure has no imaginary frequencies.

The second excited state is ${}^{1}B_{1}$, with the calculated vertical energy and the oscillator strength of 4.77 eV and 0.05, respectively. The geometry changes in ${}^{1}B_{1}$ are small: the CC-(H) bonds are slightly (0.02-0.04 Å) elongated, while the CH bonds are shortened by ~0.01 Å. At the CIS level, the $C_{2\nu}$ optimized geometry has one imaginary frequency of b₂ symmetry (in-plane). Therefore, we carried out the CASSCF optimization within C_{s} symmetry for the $2{}^{1}A''$ state. The optimization converged to a slightly distorted $C_{2\nu}$ structure. According to Bofill et al., 13p the ${}^{1}B_{1}$ state has two unpaired electrons on the p_{σ} and p_{π} orbitals of the top carbon. The adiabatic excitation energy of ${}^{1}B_{1}$ is 4.50 eV. The absorption band for cyclopropenylidene, observed by Seburg et al. in the 270–260 nm (4.59–4.77 eV) region,¹⁸ is due to the ${}^{1}A_{1} \rightarrow {}^{1}B_{1}$ transition. The assignment of individual vibronic bands for the ${}^{1}B_{1}$ state requires higher level calculations of vibrational frequencies of the excited state followed by the computations of Franck–Condon factors.

The electronic structure of ${}^{1}B_{2}$ is similar to that of ${}^{1}A_{2}$, but one of the unpaired electrons is located on the p_{π} orbital of the top C. The (H)C–C(H) bond in the optimized structure is 0.05 Å longer than that in ${}^{1}A_{1}$ and 0.16 Å shorter than that in ${}^{1}A_{2}$. The other two CC bonds are similar to those in the ${}^{1}A_{2}$ optimized structure. The vertical and adiabatic excitation energies for the ${}^{1}B_{2}$ state are calculated to be 6.73 and 6.35 eV, and the oscillator strength for the ${}^{1}A_{1} \rightarrow {}^{1}B_{2}$ transition is ~0.003. The ${}^{2}I_{A_{1}}$ state has the lone pair of the top carbon atom shifted from the p_{σ} to p_{π} orbital. ${}^{2}I_{A_{1}}$ is similar to the ${}^{1}B_{2}$ state by the geometry and its vertical and adiabatic excitation energies are ~0.4 eV lower than those for ${}^{1}B_{2}$. The ${}^{1}A_{1} \rightarrow {}^{2}I_{A_{1}}$ transition, with the oscillator strength of 0.016, is expected to be stronger than ${}^{1}A_{1}$ $\rightarrow {}^{1}B_{2}$.

The excitation energies of cyclopropenylidene obtained here are significantly lower than the values calculated by Bofill et al. at the CISD/6-31G level.^{13p} Comparison of the MRCI+D and EOM-CCSD vertical excitation energies shows that in most cases the EOM-CCSD method performs fairly well. However, there are several obvious failures, such as for the 2¹A' and 2¹A'' states of propargylene and some higher excited states of vinylidenecarbene.

Dissociation of C₃H₂. As seen from the previous section, various isomers of C₃H₂ can absorb a 193 nm photon. After internal conversion into the ground electronic state, C₃H₂ can dissociate by numerous pathways discussed below. H₂ elimination from H₂CCC produces C₃ with the energy loss of 59.8 kcal/ mol. The reaction proceeds via transition state TS11 with the barriers of 85.4 and 25.6 kcal/mol in the forward and reverse directions, respectively. The barrier for the 1,1-insertion of H₂ into C_3 is much higher than that for the insertion of H_2CCC . This result is related to the exothermicities of insertion, 59.8 kcal/mol for $C_3 + H_2$ and 83.0 kcal/mol for $H_2CCC + H_2$. Considering the elimination reaction, TS11 is an earlier transition state compared to TS2. The HH distance in TS11 is 0.11 Å longer than that in TS2, while the breaking CH bonds are significantly shorter. The CCC bending is similar in the two transition states. H atom elimination from vinylidenecarbene gives linear HCCC. The CH bond dissociation energy in H2-CCC is found to be 89.3 kcal/mol.

Singlet propargylene can also eliminate molecular hydrogen and form C₃. The endothermicity of the HCCCH \rightarrow C₃ + H₂ reaction is 49.4 kcal/mol. The corresponding transition state, TS12, has a peculiar five-member-ring structure of C_{2v} symmetry. Both C₃ and H₂ fragments are strongly distorted as compared to the free molecules. The HH bond is stretched by 0.16 Å, the CC bonds are lengthened by 0.05 Å, and the CCC angle is 88.8° vs 180° in C₃. Meanwhile, the energy of TS12, 84.3 and 73.9 kcal/mol relative to H₂CCC and HCCCH, respectively, is very close to the energy of TS11. As a result, the activation energies of the 1,3- and 1,1-insertion of C₃ into H₂ are nearly identical. To get some insight in this surprising result, we decomposed the relative energies of the transition states with respect to C₃ + H₂ into three components, distortion of the fragments and their repulsion:

$$E^{\#} = E_{\text{dist}}(C_3) + E_{\text{dist}}(H_2) + E_{\text{rep}}(C_3 - H_2)$$

Table 4. Energetics of Various Primary and Secondary Photodissociation Channels of Allene and Propyne and Translational Energy

 Distribution (kcal/mol)

		translational energy ^a			frag dist			
reaction	ΔH	min	most prob	max	$E^{\#}$	C_3H_n	H_2	$E_{ m rep}$
primary channels								
$H_2CCCH_2 \rightarrow H_2CCC + H_2$	83.0	5	20	35	9.4	0.5	2.0	6.9
$H_2CCCH_2 \rightarrow H_2CCCH + H$	87.8	0	5	34	0.0			
$H_3CCCH \rightarrow HCCCH + H_2$	94.3	$(5)^{b}$			6.3	1.0	0.5	4.8
$H_3CCCH \rightarrow H_2CCC + H_2$	83.9	$(0)^{b}$			43.2	30.3	17.9	-6.0
$H_3CCCH \rightarrow H_3CCC + H$	130.5	$(0)^{b}$			0.0			
$H_3CCCH \rightarrow H_2CCCH + H$	88.7	$(0)^{b}$			0.0			
secondary channels								
$H_2CCCH \rightarrow CCCH + H_2$	84.5	8	40	64	10.4	0.8	2.3	7.3
$H_2CCCH \rightarrow H_2CCC + H$	96.3	0	12	80	0.0			
$H_2CCCH \rightarrow HCCCH + H$	94.2	$(0)^{b}$			0.0			
$C_3H_3 \rightarrow C_2H_2 + CH$	77.4	0	4	50	0.0			
$H_3CCC \rightarrow CCCH + H_2$	42.7	$(20)^{b}$			25.3	2.6	2.8	19.9
$H_3CCC \rightarrow H_2CCC + H$	54.5	$(0)^{b}$			0.0			
$H_2CCC \rightarrow C_3 + H_2$	59.8	$(15)^{b}$			25.6	0.2	10.0	15.4
$H_2CCC \rightarrow HCCC + H$	89.3	$(0)^{b}$			0.0			
$HCCCH \rightarrow C_3 + H_2$	49.3	4	32	65	24.5	11.8	8.2	4.5
$HCCCH \rightarrow HCCC + H$	78.9	$(0)^{b}$			0.0			
$C_3H_2 \rightarrow C_2H + CH$	131.6	0	4	60	0.0			
$C_3H_2 \rightarrow C_2H_2 + C$	135.8	0	6	120	0.0			

^{*a*} From ref 1. ^{*b*} Theoretical prediction.

The fragment distortion energies were calculated at the B3LYP level and $E_{\rm rep}$ was obtained by subtraction of the distortion energies from the barrier height. For TS11, $E_{\rm dist}(C_3) = 0.2$, $E_{\rm dist}(H_2) = 10.0$, and $E_{\rm rep} = 15.4$ kcal/mol. For TS12, C₃ is strongly distorted and $E_{\rm dist}(C_3) = 11.8$ kcal/mol, the distortion of H₂ is slightly lower than that in TS11 (8.2 kcal/mol), and the repulsion energy is only 4.5 kcal/mol. The higher distortion of C₃ in TS12 is compensated by the lower repulsion energy of the fragments. Elimination of a hydrogen atom from propargylene is endothermic by 78.9 kcal/mol.

For the most stable cyclic isomer of C_3H_2 , we could not find a transition state for H_2 elimination. Formation of C_3 from cyclopropenylidene has to proceed via isomerization to H_2CCC or HCCCH. H atom splitting from the cyclic C_3H_2 gives the cyclic C_3H . The CH bond dissociation energy is calculated to be 100.8 kcal/mol.

Dissociation of propargylene can produce $C_2H + CH$ and the reaction is endothermic by 131.6 and 144.2 kcal/mol for the singlet and triplet HCCCH, respectively. Cyclopropenylidene can eliminate the hydrogen-less carbon atom giving acetylene. If the reaction proceeds within the singlet manifold, it is calculated to be 136.8 kcal/mol endothermic. The energy of the H₂CCC \rightarrow CH₂ (¹A₁) + C₂ (¹ Σ_g^+) reaction is 162.9 kcal/ mol. We expect that $C_3H_2 \rightarrow C_3 + H_2$ should be the major channel of dissociation of C₃H₂ on the ground state surface because it has the lowest activation energy. The other product channels, such as experimentally observed $C_3H_2 \rightarrow C_2H + CH$ and $C_3H_2 \rightarrow C_2H_2 + C$, as well as $C_3H_2 \rightarrow C_3H + H$, require higher activation energies. Interestingly, the three C₃H₂ dissociation product channels observed in the photolysis of allene,¹ $C_3 + H_2$, $C_2H + CH$, and $C_2H_2 + C$, are originated from different isomers, indicating that isomerization of C₃H₂ plays an important role in the photodissociation dynamics.

Comparison of the Photodissociation Dynamics of Allene and **Propyne.** To fully understand the photodissociation dynamics of C_3H_4 requires both electronic structure and trajectory or transition state calculations over the full range of the surface explored during the dissociation process. However, the analysis of the ground- and excited-state PES for the C_3H_n (n = 1-4) species, presented in the previous sections, in conjunction with the available experimental data, such as the translational energy distribution $P(E_T)$ curves,¹ allows us to obtain a qualitative insight into the photodissociation mechanism.

In Table 4, we present the theoretical ΔH and reverse barrier heights E[#] for various primary and secondary photodissociation channels of allene and propyne along with the available experimental data on translational energy distribution of the products taken from the $P(E_T)$ diagrams.¹ From the energy of a photon (193 nm or 148 kcal/mol), ΔH , and minimal, maximal, and most probable translational energy one can calculate the minimal, maximal, and most probable values for the internal energies of the products in the primary channels. For instance, for the $H_2CCCH_2 \rightarrow H_2CCC + H_2$ reaction, the minimal, most probable, and maximal internal energies of the products are estimated to be 30, 45, and 60 kcal/mol. Recent work⁵² suggests that the rotational and vibrational distribution of H₂ in this system is similar to the one measured for ethylene. Based on this, we derived the most probable internal energy of H_2CCC to be \sim 43 kcal/mol. For a sudden dissociation, conservation of angular momentum limits the rotational energy of H₂CCC to 1 or 2 kcal/mol. Therefore, the most probable value of $E_{\rm vib}({\rm H}_2{\rm CCC})$ is 41–42 kcal/mol, which is sufficient to overcome the barrier for the rearrangement of vinylidenecarbene to cyclopropenylidene. For the $H_2CCCH_2 \rightarrow H_2CCCH + H$ reaction, the minimal, most probable, and maximal $E_{int}(H_2-$ CCCH) are 26, 55, and 60 kcal/mol. The $P(E_T)$ diagrams for the photodissociation of propyne are not available now, but the theoretical data from Table 4 should be helpful for the analysis of the experimental data.² The analysis is more complicated for the secondary channels because the primary products already possess some internal energy when they absorb a second photon.

We can also predict the minimal energy threshold on the $P(E_T)$ curves. If dissociation takes place on the ground-state surface, after clearing the barrier the reaction occurs fast and most of the potential energy, except the internal energy of the fragments, should be transformed into the translational energy. Therefore, the minimal translational energy can be estimated

^{(52) (}a) Cromwell, E. F.; Stolow, A.; Vrakking, J. J.; Lee, Y. T. J. Chem. Phys. **1992**, 97, 4029. (b) Stolow, A. Private communications.

as follows:

$$E_{\rm T}({\rm min}) = E^{\#} - E_{\rm dist}({\rm fragment 1}) - E_{\rm dist}({\rm fragment 2}) = E_{\rm rep}$$

Here, $E^{\#}$ is the height of the reverse barrier and E_{dist} is the energy of the fragment distortion in the transition state with respect to the free molecule, i.e., the internal energy of the fragment. As seen in Table 4, the calculated fragment repulsion energies E_{rep} agree with experimental $E_{\text{T}}(\text{min})$ where available.

As we discussed earlier,¹⁷ the most likely mechanism for photodissociation of allene at 193 nm to produce $C_3H_2 + H_2$ involves a Franck–Condon transition to the ¹B₁ excited state. This is followed by a twisting of the CH₂ groups and then conversion to the vibrationally excited ground state through the seam of crossing. Once the vibrationally excited allene molecule is in the ground electronic state it dissociates to produce C_3H_2 + H₂. It can also produce C_3H_3 + H. The atomic hydrogen product channel dominates over the molecular hydrogen channel in both photodissociation¹ and thermal dissociation of allene.⁴⁴ This is probably due to the lower activation energy for H elimination (87.8 kcal/mol) compared to H₂ elimination (92.4 kcal/mol).

After absorption of a second photon, C_3H_2 can also undergo internal conversion to the vibrationally excited ground state and then eliminate H₂ via TS11 or TS12. Because of the low E_{T^-} (min) value, the experimental $P(E_T)$ diagram for the $C_3H_2 \rightarrow C_3 + H_2$ reaction is more consistent with the hypothesis that the H₂ elimination occurs from HCCCH via TS12, at least partially. This supports our suggestion that C_3H_2 has enough internal energy for the isomerization. If the reaction does occur via TS12, the C₃ molecules will have the bending mode excited. Experiments are currently underway to verify this.

The small amount of H₂ produced in photodissociation of propyne can be due to isomerization of propyne to allene followed by successive H₂ eliminations. On the other hand, HCCCH can be produced directly from propyne and it may have the internal energy up to \sim 54 kcal/mol for the case of $E_T = 0$. This energy is sufficient for the rearrangement to the other C₃H₂ isomers. In both scenarios,

$$H_{3}CCCH^{*}(S_{0}) \rightarrow H_{2}CCCH_{2} \rightarrow H_{2}CCC^{*} + H_{2} \xrightarrow{h\nu} C_{3} + 2H_{2}$$

and

$$H_3CCCH^{\ddagger}(S_0) \rightarrow HCCCH^{\ddagger} + H_2 \rightarrow H_2CCC + H_2 \xrightarrow{h\nu} C_3 + 2H_2$$

the formation of $C_3 + H_2$ from allene and propyne goes via a common intermediate, which gives the identical rotational distribution of the C_3 products, observed in experiment.²

Concluding Remarks

We have studied potential energy surfaces for various primary and secondary products of the photodissociation of propyne and allene. The calculated heats of the reactions and the activation barriers are expected to be accurate within 1-2 kcal/mol. The theoretical values of ΔH and $E^{\#}$ are employed to analyze the experimental translational energy distribution $P(E_T)$ diagrams, to predict the minimal, maximal, and most probable internal energies of the products, and to estimate the minimal energy threshold on the $P(E_T)$ curves. The theoretical results for the minimum translational recoil energy agree with those observed experimentally in all cases where there are available data.

The photodissociation of propyne at 193 nm is predicted to involve vertical excitation to the ¹E electronic state (the vertical energy is 7.31 eV and the adiabatic energies are 5.01-6.62 eV). The fast elimination of the acetylenic hydrogen occurs by traveling along the S_1 (¹A'') and S_2 (2¹A') surfaces followed by a $S_2 \rightarrow S_0$ crossing and dissociation to H_3CCC (²A₁) + H. A slower dissociation mechanism involves internal conversion into the vibrationally excited ground electronic state. Once the vibrationally excited propyne is on the ground-state PES it dissociates to produce $H_2CCCH + H$ or $HCCCH + H_2$, or isomerizes to allene, which, in turn, undergoes the H₂ elimination giving H₂CCC. The HCCCH produced from propyne can have sufficiently high internal energy to rearrange to H₂CCC. In both cases, the formation of $C_3 + H_2$ from propyne and allene goes via the same intermediate, which explains the identical rotational distribution of the C₃ products in experiment.

The rearrangement mechanism of C₃H₂ and the electronic spectra of various isomers of this species in a broad energy range also have been studied. On the ground-state PES, automerization of H₂CCC can take place either via a cyclopropyne transition state (the barrier is 37.5 kcal/mol)¹⁸ or through isomerization to cyclopropenylidene and backward via TS6 (the barrier is 41.7 kcal/mol). Isomerization of triplet propargylene to cyclo-C₃H₂ occurs by the ring closure via the crossing seam of the triplet and singlet PES and the activation energy (at MSX1) is predicted to be about 41 kcal/mol. Cyclopropenylidene can undergo automerization by the 1,2-H shift via TS10 with the barrier of 32.4 kcal/mol. The direct triplet HCCCH \rightarrow H₂CCC isomerization (which does not involve cyclo-C₃H₂) proceeds by the 1,3-hydrogen shift via MSX2 and TS8 or TS9 with a high activation energy of 78-81 kcal/mol. The singlet propargylene can also rearrange to cyclo-C₃H₂ via TS7 (barrier 37.4 kcal/mol) and to H₂CCC via TS8 or TS9. The calculated PES for the ground and excited states allowed us to explain the experimentally observed automerizations and isomerizations of C₃H₂ isomers and to assign their UV absorption spectra.

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Supporting Information Available: Tables of total energies of various species calculated at the B3LYP/6-311G(d,p) and CCSD(T)/6-311+G(3df,2p) levels, vibrational frequencies of various species, and total energies (hartrees) of various isomers of C₃H₂ calculated at the MRCI/ANO(2+) and CCSD/ANO-(2+) levels (5 pages, print/PDF). See any current masthead page for ordering instructions and Web access instructions.

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