

Laser Photoelectron Spectroscopy and Dynamics of S₁ *p*-Fluorotoluene

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Laser photoelectron spectra have been obtained following the preparation of 10 vibrational states in S₁ *p*-fluorotoluene. For eight of the vibrational states (up to ~850 cm⁻¹ excess energy), excitation and ionization with nanosecond laser pulses gives rise to photoelectron spectra with well-resolved vibrational peaks. For the other two states (>1100 cm⁻¹ excess energy), the photoelectron spectra show a loss of structure when nanosecond pulses are used, as a result of intramolecular dynamics, but this structure is recovered when overlapped picosecond pulses are used. In all cases the vibrational peaks in the photoelectron spectra are assigned, and the spectra are used to deduce the frequencies of 12 vibrational modes in the ion.

Introduction

Laser photoelectron spectroscopy (PES) is well-suited to the study of small aromatic molecules whose S₁ electronic states and ionization potentials typically lie at around 4.5 and 9 eV, respectively, enabling one-color (1 + 1) resonance-enhanced multiphoton ionization (REMPI) experiments to be performed. Such REMPI-PES experiments, which have the advantage of state selection prior to ionization, provide information both on S₁ spectroscopy and dynamics and, through the photoelectron spectra of different S₁ vibrational modes, on the spectroscopy of the ion ground state. A number of such molecules have been studied by this means, including benzene,¹ *p*-difluorobenzene,² toluene,³ and phenol.⁴

Our interest in *p*-fluorotoluene (pFT) was stimulated by the intramolecular vibrational energy redistribution (IVR) dynamics it exhibits in its S₁ excited electronic state. In this electronic state pFT appears to show anomalous IVR lifetimes when compared with the very similar molecule *p*-difluorobenzene (pDFB). Moss and Parmenter⁵ have reported that whereas S₁ pDFB with an excitation energy of ~2000 cm⁻¹ has an estimated IVR lifetime of 150 ps, S₁ pFT with the same excitation energy has an estimated IVR lifetime of 3.5 ps. In the course of our own investigations of these dynamics by picosecond pump–probe photoelectron spectroscopy,⁶ it became apparent that although S₁ pFT has been extensively studied by laser excitation and fluorescence^{7,8} the photoelectron spectroscopy following ionization from S₁ and the vibrational frequencies of its ion ground state were unknown. Although there is a ZEKE study of pFT in the literature,⁹ this concentrates on the torsional motion of the methyl rotor and other vibrational modes were not probed.

In this paper we present a comprehensive and systematic investigation of the photoelectron spectroscopy of pFT that has been prepared in a series of S₁ vibrational states prior to ionization, covering S₁ excitation energies up to 1230 cm⁻¹. We present photoelectron spectra taken with both nanosecond and picosecond laser pulses and show that whereas vibrational resolution is achieved in the nanosecond case for excitation energies up to 845 cm⁻¹, this resolution is lost for S₁ excitation energies greater than ~1100 cm⁻¹ as a consequence of IVR. The vibrational resolution is recoverable at these higher excitation energies when picosecond laser pulses are used. From the

assignments we have made of the photoelectron spectra we have been able to deduce approximate vibrational frequencies for 12 vibrational modes in the electronic ground state of the ion.

Experimental Section

The apparatus has been described in detail in previous publications from this group;¹⁰ here we provide a brief description and report details relevant to this work.

Room temperature *p*-fluorotoluene (Aldrich, 99%) was seeded in helium and expanded through a pulsed nozzle (General Valve) into a skimmed molecular beam chamber. The skimmed molecular beam was intersected perpendicularly by a loosely focused laser beam at one end of a 24 cm long, doubly μ -metal shielded drift tube. All surfaces on the inside of the drift tube were coated with graphite to minimize the buildup of contact potentials and so providing an almost completely field-free environment.

Two independent laser sources were used to generate UV light resonant with S₁ ← S₀ vibronic transitions of pFT. Light pulses of approximately 5 ns duration were produced by using a 10 Hz Nd:YAG laser (Continuum Surelite III) to pump a dye laser (Continuum ND6000) operating with either LDS 750 or LDS 698 dye. The dye laser system was equipped with an UVT autotracking unit in which the dye beam was first doubled in a KDP crystal and then mixed with the fundamental from the Nd:YAG laser in a second KDP crystal to generate light in the range 260–272 nm.

Light pulses of approximately 1 ps duration were produced with a titanium sapphire regenerative amplifier (RGA, Spectra-Physics Spitfire) configured for the chirped pulse amplification of picosecond pulses. The RGA was seeded by a self-mode locked titanium sapphire laser (Spectra-Physics Tsunami). The output pulses from the RGA were used to pump an optical parametric amplifier (OPA) providing tunable light in the region of 260 nm with a bandwidth of around 20 cm⁻¹. Experiments involving these picosecond pulses were carried out in the Lasers for Science Facility at the Rutherford-Appleton Laboratory.

Photoelectrons formed by one-color (1 + 1) REMPI and ejected along the axis of the drift tube were detected with a 2.5 cm diameter triple microchannel plate detector (Photek) mounted at the other end, thus giving a small solid angle of detection. The photoelectron signal was passed through an amplifier (Ortec

TABLE 1: Vibrational Modes and Frequencies of *p*-Fluorotoluene and *p*-Difluorobenzene in Their S_0 and S_1 Electronic States and Ground Ion State^a

		<i>p</i> -fluorotoluene				<i>p</i> -difluorobenzene				
	C_{2v}	S_0^b (cm ⁻¹)	S_1^b (cm ⁻¹)	D_0^c (cm ⁻¹)	descriptions ^d		D_{2h}	S_0^e (cm ⁻¹)	S_1^e (cm ⁻¹)	D_0^e (cm ⁻¹)
1	A ₁	3071			CH stretch	1	A _g	3088		
2	A ₁	3068			CH stretch	10	B _{1u}	3089		
3	A ₁	2925			CH stretch					
4	A ₁	1607		1575 ± 20	ring stretch	2	A _g	1617		1640
5	A ₁	1509			CH rock	11	B _{1u}	1508	1339	
6	A ₁	1380			CH ₃ umbrella					
7	A ₁	1223	1230	1344 ± 20	CF stretch	3	A _g	1257	1251	1375
8	A ₁	1214	1194	1200 ± 20	CH ₃ -C stretch	12	B _{1u}	1210	1016	
9	A ₁	1155		1122 ± 20	CH rock	4	A _g	1140	1116	1148
10	A ₁	1017	845	944 ± 20	ring bend	13	B _{1u}	1016	936	
11	A ₁	844	803	786 ± 20	ring breathing	5	A _g	860	818	836
12	A ₁	728			CH ₃ -C stretch	14	B _{1u}	734		
13	A ₁	455	408	418 ± 20	ring breathing	6	A _g	450	410	439
14	A ₂	956			CH out of plane	7	A _u	945	583	
15	A ₂	810			CH out of plane	9	B _{1g}	798		
16	A ₂	404	199	328 ± 20	ring twist	8	A _u	422	179	359
17	B ₁	2952			CH stretch					
18	B ₁	1455			CH ₂ scissors					
19	B ₁	1041			CH ₂ rock					
20	B ₁	927			CH out of plane	15	B _{2g}	927		
21	B ₁	638			CH out of plane	28	B _{3u}	831		
22	B ₁	816			chair def	16	B _{2g}	694		
23	B ₁	492	435		CF out of plane	29	B _{3u}	508	436	508
24	B ₁	340	255		CH ₃ wag	17	B _{2g}	379	274	
25	B ₁	157	137	150 ± 20	boat def	30	B _{3u}	161	122	129
26	B ₂	3089 ^f			CH stretch	23	B _{3g}	3081		
27	B ₂	3040			CH stretch	18	B _{2u}	3089		
28	B ₂	2976			CH stretch					
29	B ₂	1592			ring stretch	24	B _{3g}	1621		
30	B ₂	1463 ^f			CH ₃ def					
31	B ₂	1435			ring stretch	19	B _{2u}	1436		
32	B ₂	1321			CH rock	20	B _{2u}	1282	1589	
33	B ₂	1300			ring stretch	25	B _{3g}	1282		
34	B ₂	1099			CH rock	21	B _{2u}	1089	1097	
35	B ₂	988 ^f			CH ₂ rock					
36	B ₂	638	549	578 ± 20	ring bend	26	B _{3g}	635		
37	B ₂	420	399	383 ± 20	CF rock	27	B _{3g}	436	395	
38	B ₂	312	219	222 ± 20	CH ₃ rock	22	B _{2u}	347	355	

^a Vibrational modes are numbered by the Mulliken notation.¹² In the case of pFT, the assigned symmetries neglect the methyl group. ^b Taken from ref 7. ^c This work. ^d Taken from ref 11. ^e Taken from ref 2. ^f Calculated frequencies (ref 11).

× 10) and the flight times of the photoelectrons were recorded with a time-to-digital converter (TDC, LeCroy 2277), which has a time resolution of 1 ns. The TDC was controlled and read by a PC via a CAMAC interface (Hytec Electronics). Photoelectron spectra caused by the ejection of photoelectrons along the direction of the polarization vector of the ionizing light were accumulated over approximately 100 000 laser shots. Although some sample photoelectron angular distributions were also measured by rotating the polarization vector of the ionizing light, there was no evidence of any significant change in the branching ratios of the ion states formed with ejection angle and so the photoelectron spectra taken at one angle are representative of the angle-integrated photoelectron spectra.

Results

Photoelectron time-of-flight spectra were obtained for jet-cooled pFT as described in the previous section with the nanosecond dye laser resonant with 10 $S_1 \leftarrow S_0$ vibronic transitions (excess energy in S_1 is given in parentheses): 0_0^0 , 25_0^1 (137 cm⁻¹), 38_0^1 (219 cm⁻¹), the unresolved pair $37_0^1 + 16_0^2$ (399 cm⁻¹), 13_0^1 (408 cm⁻¹), 36_0^1 (549 cm⁻¹), 11_0^1 (803 cm⁻¹), 10_0^1 (845 cm⁻¹), 8_0^1 (1194 cm⁻¹), and 7_0^1 (1230 cm⁻¹). The excess energy available to the ion ground state (D_0) following (1 + 1) REMPI varies from ~2000 cm⁻¹ (0_0^0) to ~5000 cm⁻¹

(7_0^1). The nature of the vibrational modes is given in Table 1, following ref 11; those excited represent the main active modes following one-photon excitation from S_0 .^{7,8} There are various conventions used to number the vibrational modes in the literature;^{7,8} we have used strict Mulliken notation.¹² The excited modes ν_{25} , ν_{36} , ν_{37} , and ν_{38} are nontotally symmetric; the activity of these modes is believed to result from vibronic coupling, in analogy with behavior in pDFB.¹³

The flight times were converted to ion internal energy by use of the known pFT ionization potential⁹ of 70 940 cm⁻¹ in order that assignments could be made. This conversion process required the application of a correction to both the flight times (Δt) and the photoelectron energy (ΔE) to allow for the imperfect conditions in the flight tube, as is usual in time-of-flight photoelectron spectroscopy.¹⁻⁴ To establish appropriate values for these two parameters, peaks believed to be due to the vibrationless level in the ion were corrected to appear at zero ion energy in such a fashion that the same two parameters could be used for all photoelectron spectra. The resulting, rather large, values for the two parameters were $\Delta t = +40$ ns and $\Delta E = -320$ cm⁻¹. Despite these large corrections we have confidence in our assignments owing to the self-consistency of the resulting 10 photoelectron spectra, their analogy with the corresponding photoelectron spectra for pDFB, which has

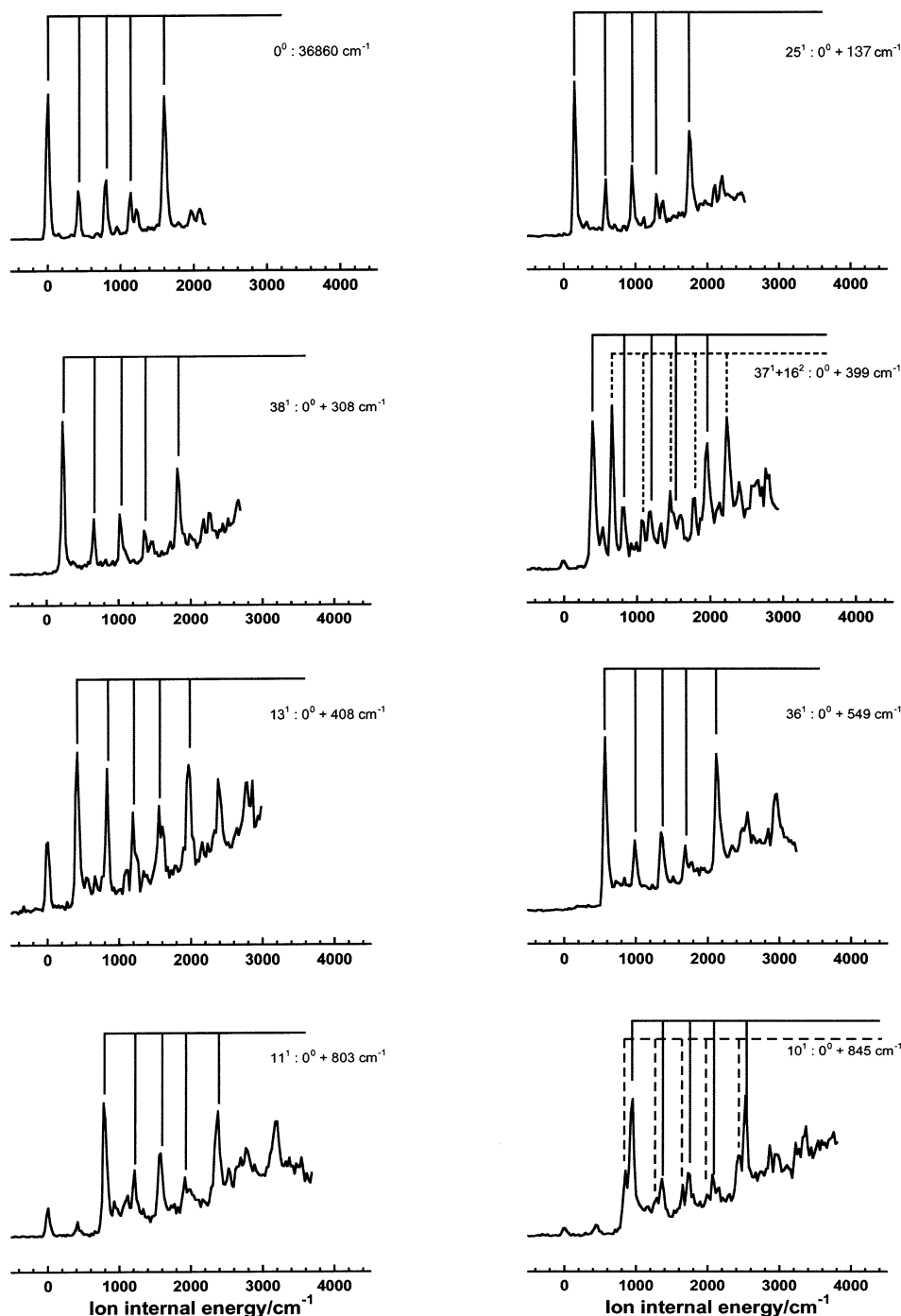


Figure 1. Nanosecond photoelectron spectra following the excitation of eight $S_1 \leftarrow S_0$ bands as labeled on each spectrum, and ionization with the same wavelength. On each spectrum the characteristic series X^m , X^m13^1 , X^m11^1 , X^m9^1 , and X^m4^1 , where m quanta of mode X have been prepared in S_1 , has been labeled.

similar excitation spectra^{2,14} (see later), and the values of the ion vibrational frequencies obtained that compare sensibly with the values of the vibrational frequencies both in neutral pFT^{7,8} and in the pDFB ion.^{2,14}

Because the pFT ion vibrational frequencies were unknown, our assignments of peaks in the photoelectron spectra made use of the fact that only small changes are expected from the frequencies of the same modes in the neutral parent ground and first excited states,¹⁵ which are known from laser-induced fluorescence and dispersed fluorescence spectra.^{7,8} The resulting converted and assigned photoelectron spectra for the eight lowest energy modes are shown in Figure 1, and the energies and assignments of the peaks, which all have fwhm values of 50–

70 cm^{-1} , are shown in Table 2. It will be seen that the peak energies deduced are consistent from spectrum to spectrum to within $\pm 20 \text{ cm}^{-1}$ and that the spectra all show vibrationally resolved peaks. Ion vibrational frequencies, deduced by taking averages of the values determined from the photoelectron spectra, have been included in Table 1 for comparison with the frequencies in the S_0 and S_1 electronic states of the neutral molecule.

Two relevant studies of the related molecule pDFB exist in the literature with which we can make comparisons; Table 1 includes complementary vibrational frequencies and mode labels for this molecule. The first study describes REMPI-PES experiments performed by Reilly and co-workers² in which 10

TABLE 2 (Continued)

assignments	0 ₀ ⁰	25 ₀ ¹	38 ₀ ¹	37 ₀ ¹ + 16 ₀ ²	13 ₀ ¹	36 ₀ ¹	11 ₀ ¹	10 ₀ ¹	8 ₀ ¹	7 ₀ ¹
4 ¹ 7 ¹ (+7 ¹ 11 ²)										2894
4 ¹ 11 ¹ 36 ¹ (+11 ³ 36 ¹)						2939				
4 ¹ 10 ¹ 13 ¹ (+10 ¹ 11 ² 13 ¹)								2956		
4 ² (+11 ⁴)							3178			
4 ¹ 8 ¹ 13 ¹ (+8 ¹ 11 ² 13 ¹)									3222	
4 ¹ 7 ¹ 13 ¹ (+7 ¹ 11 ² 13 ¹)										3294
4 ¹ 10 ¹ 11 ¹ (+10 ¹ 11 ³)								3344		
4 ¹ 9 ¹ 11 ¹ (+9 ¹ 11 ³)							3445			
4 ¹ 8 ¹ 11 ¹ (+8 ¹ 11 ³)									3622	
4 ¹ 7 ¹ 11 ¹ (+7 ¹ 11 ³)										3667
4 ¹ 8 ¹ 9 ¹ (+8 ¹ 9 ¹ 11 ²)									3972	
4 ¹ 7 ¹ 9 ¹ (+7 ¹ 9 ¹ 11 ²)										4006
4 ¹ 8 ¹ 11 ¹ 13 ¹ (+8 ¹ 11 ³ 13 ¹)									4022	
4 ¹ 7 ¹ 11 ¹ 13 ¹ (+7 ¹ 11 ³ 13 ¹)										4056
4 ² 8 ¹ (+8 ¹ 11 ⁴)									4433	
4 ² 7 ¹ (+7 ¹ 11 ⁴)										4439

^a The top row denotes the S₁ ← S₀ band excited prior to ionization, and the left-hand column shows the assignment given to each peak in the photoelectron spectrum.

S₁ vibrational modes with energies up to ~2000 cm⁻¹ were prepared, four of which are relevant here; the origin, 6₀¹ (≡13₀¹ in pFT), 5₀¹ (≡11₀¹ in pFT) and 3₀¹ (≡7₀¹ in pFT). Ionization was performed either with the same wavelength as that used for excitation (for modes with energies > 800 cm⁻¹), or with a shorter wavelength (for modes with energies < 800 cm⁻¹). In the one color experiments the available ion energies were about half of those for the equivalent pFT modes studied here owing to the higher ionization potential of pDFB, and therefore some of the ion modes analogous to the ones we observe were not energetically accessible. The second study describes ZEKE experiments performed by Müller-Dethlefs and co-workers.¹⁴ In these experiments seven S₁ vibrational modes with energies up to ~1250 cm⁻¹ were prepared, four of which are relevant here: the origin, 6₀¹, 3₀¹, and 27₀¹ (≡37₀¹ in pFT). The ionization wavelength was scanned to obtain the ZEKE spectrum, giving ion energies up to ~3100 cm⁻¹ above the ionization potential, and the spectra are much better resolved than those in ref 2.

The forms of the pFT photoelectron spectra shown here and the assignments given to them are in good agreement with the pDFB work. As for pDFB, all the strong peaks that appear are due to the excitation of ion vibrational modes that are totally symmetric except for the mode that has been prepared in S₁. A series of strong peaks appears in each of the photoelectron spectra shown in Figure 1, taking the form X^m, X^m13¹, X^m11¹, X^m9¹, and X^m11², where *m* quanta of mode X have been prepared in S₁; this series is indicated on each spectrum. In the photoelectron spectrum following the unresolved excitation of 37₀¹ + 16₀², two such series can be identified because each band gives a characteristic photoelectron spectrum. The 10¹ spectrum also shows evidence of a series due to a second excited mode, but this has not been possible to assign. The presence of a strong X^m peak in each photoelectron spectrum is in agreement with the usual Franck–Condon propensity for this type of molecule,^{1–4} and is also observed for pDFB with one exception (see later). The pDFB analogues of the modes ν₁₁ and ν₁₃ (both of which are ring bends) are active in all the relevant photoelectron spectra given in refs 2 and 14. In both molecules these two modes are also active in the S₁ ← S₀ excitation spectrum.^{7,8,13} The pFT mode ν₉, a CH rock that appears in combinations with the excited mode in each photoelectron spectrum, also appears strongly in some of the relevant pDFB photoelectron spectra in refs 2 and 14. However, in a number of cases there was insufficient energy to form it. In neither

molecule does this mode appear strongly in the excitation spectrum.^{7,8,13}

A recurring feature of the photoelectron spectra in Figure 1 is the presence of surprisingly intense features at X¹ + ~1575 cm⁻¹. Inspection of the pDFB ZEKE spectrum following excitation of the S₁ origin¹⁴ reveals an intense peak assigned as 2¹ only a few wavenumbers away from a smaller peak, assigned 5². Although ν₂ (a ring stretch) is therefore active in the pDFB photoelectron spectra, it is absent in the excitation spectrum. The analogy between pFT and pDFB (see Table 1) leads us to the conclusion that, for the pFT ion with our experimental resolution, 11² is coincident with 4¹. Consequently, relevant peaks have been assigned as a mixture of 4¹ and 11². Although the ratio of the two cannot be determined in this work, there is evidence that 4¹ is in fact the major component, see later. In complete analogy with pDFB, ν₄ is absent in the excitation spectrum.^{7,8,13}

In summary, the main active modes in the excitation spectra of both pFT and pDFB are the ring breathing modes ν₁₁ and ν₁₃ (ν₅ and ν₆ in pDFB). On ionization these two modes remain active, but the CH rock ν₉ (ν₄ in pDFB) and the ring stretch ν₄ (ν₂ in pDFB) are also active. To understand this behavior, ab initio calculations with the complete active space self-consistent field (CASSCF) method with the 6-31G(d,p) basis set have been performed for the S₀, S₁, and ion ground states.¹⁶ The active space was chosen to consist of the six π molecular orbitals of the benzene ring. No orbitals were frozen during the CASSCF procedure, and the geometry of each state was optimized to its minimum energy structure. The calculations were performed with the MOLCAS 5.2 program.¹⁷ The relevant molecular orbitals for all three states are very similar and involve primarily the π system of the benzene ring. The resulting geometries of the three electronic states show that there are substantial changes in the C–C bond lengths. In particular, the benzene ring geometry in the ion ground state is very distorted with the C–C bonds nearest to F or CH₃ substantially longer than the other C–C bonds. The geometries adopted in both S₀ and S₁ give C–C bonds that are more comparable in length, although all are longer in S₁ than in S₀. This explains the activity of ν₄ in the photoelectron spectrum, its lack of activity in excitation, and the activity of ν₁₁ and ν₁₃ in both cases. These geometries also explain the activity of ν₉ in the photoelectron spectrum because the mode involves ring distortion as well as a CH rock. The calculations show in addition that the C–F bond length is similar in the S₀ and S₁ states, but substantially shorter in the

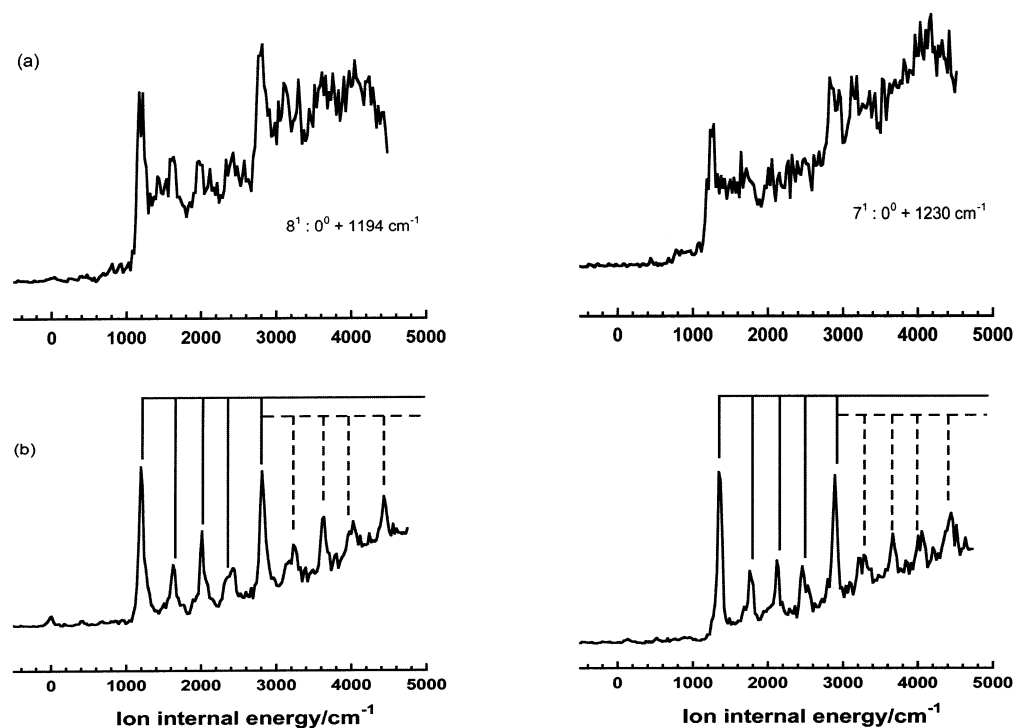


Figure 2. (a) Nanosecond and (b) picosecond photoelectron spectra following the excitation of the 8_0^1 and 7_0^1 bands as labeled. The characteristic series is labeled as in Figure 1, and a similar higher energy series also appears, taking the form X^{m4^1} , $X^{m4^1}13^1$, $X^{m4^1}11^1$, $X^{m4^1}9^1$, and X^{m4^2} .

ion. This would suggest that ν_7 , the C–F stretching mode, should be active in the photoelectron spectrum, but this is not observed. This fact remains unexplained.

One marked breakdown in the analogy between pDFB and pFT arises from the comparison between the 6_0^1 (pDFB) and 13_0^1 (pFT) photoelectron spectra, which should be equivalent. In the pDFB case the photoelectron spectrum² shows 6^2 to be the most intense of the peaks in the ν_6 progression; this shift in the Franck–Condon maximum to $\Delta\nu = 1$ is supported by the corresponding ZEKE spectrum.¹⁴ Contrastingly, inspection of the relevant photoelectron spectrum in Figure 1 shows that for pFT the propensity for $\Delta\nu = 0$ prevails.

Small but reproducible peaks are present in the photoelectron spectra shown in Figure 1. Comparison with pDFB^{2,14} suggests that these peaks are caused by single quantum excitation of the low-frequency asymmetric modes, ν_{16} , ν_{24} , and ν_{25} . Our photoelectron spectra following excitation of ν_{25} and ν_{38} enable us to tentatively assign some of the peaks to the excited mode in combination with either ν_{16} or ν_{25} (see Table 2). Arguments for the appearance of asymmetric modes in both excitation and ionization have been well rehearsed for pDFB.^{13,14}

The photoelectron spectra obtained following the excitation of the 8_0^1 and 7_0^1 bands are shown in Figure 2. It will be seen that when excitation and ionization are performed with nanosecond laser pulses (upper panels) there is a definite loss of vibrational structure in the photoelectron spectra. This loss, which is almost complete in the case of the 7_0^1 spectrum, is attributed to intramolecular vibrational energy redistribution (IVR) which has been shown to have a lifetime of ~ 15 ps at this level of S_1 excitation.^{5,6} Therefore, each of these photoelectron spectra can be thought of as a sum of the photoelectron spectra emanating from each of the levels to which energy redistribution has occurred. Despite the small difference in S_1 internal energy for the two modes (36 cm^{-1}) the loss of structure is significantly more pronounced for the higher energy mode. The modes in question are a C–CH₃ stretch (ν_8) and a C–F stretch (ν_7), and so if the torsional motion of the methyl group

is the key to rapid IVR it seems unlikely that excitation of ν_7 would promote more efficient IVR than excitation of ν_8 . Work is in progress to attempt to explain this observation and other aspects of the IVR behavior of pFT, both through modeling and through picosecond time-dependent studies¹⁸ following on from ref 6.

In the lower panels of Figure 2 are shown the corresponding photoelectron spectra when excitation and ionization are performed with overlapped 1 ps laser pulses. In this case it can be seen that vibrational resolution is recovered. Vibrational assignments of the peaks in these two picosecond photoelectron spectra have been made, and the results are included in Tables 1 and 2. It will be seen that the characteristic series of peaks mentioned above appears for these two photoelectron spectra as well and that because of the higher energy available to the ion a further series is also present, taking the analogous form X^{m4^1} , $X^{m4^1}13^1$, $X^{m4^1}11^1$, $X^{m4^1}9^1$, and X^{m4^2} . It is the presence of this higher series that leads us to suggest that the X^{14^1} peak is likely to be more intense than the isoenergetic X^{11^2} peak. The assignment of the lower energy part of the 7_0^1 photoelectron spectrum exactly reproduces the assignment of the equivalent (3_0^1) spectrum in pDFB. As ν_8 in pFT involves the methyl group, there is no analogous mode in pDFB. The assignments and deduced vibrational frequencies given here replace the preliminary ones given in ref 6. In our picosecond time-resolved studies of these two modes, we have found that the photoelectron spectra following a 100 ps delay are very similar to the nanosecond photoelectron spectra.

Conclusions

The frequencies of 12 vibrational modes of the *p*-fluorotoluene ion have been deduced by use of nanosecond and picosecond laser photoelectron spectroscopy in which 10 different vibrational modes were prepared in S_1 prior to ionization. For S_1 energies below $\sim 900\text{ cm}^{-1}$, the nanosecond photoelectron spectra show clearly resolved vibrational structure. For S_1

energies above $\sim 1100\text{ cm}^{-1}$, the photoelectron spectra show resolved vibrational structure only when picosecond pulses are used to excite and ionize. This is caused by intramolecular dynamics in S₁ occurring on a subnanosecond time scale.

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