TITLE:
From roaming atoms to hopping surfaces: mapping out global reaction routes in photochemistry.

AUTHOR(S):
Maeda, Satoshi; Taketsugu, Tetsuya; Ohno, Koichi; Morokuma, Keiji

CITATION:

ISSUE DATE:
2015-02-23

URL:
http://hdl.handle.net/2433/198681

RIGHT:
© 2015 American Chemical Society; This is an open access article published under an ACS AuthorChoice License, which permits copying and redistribution of the article or any adaptations for non-commercial purposes.
From Roaming Atoms to Hopping Surfaces: Mapping Out Global Reaction Routes in Photochemistry

Satoshi Maeda,*† Tetsuya Taketsugu,† Koichi Ohno,‡§ and Keiji Morokuma*∥

†Department of Chemistry, Faculty of Science, Hokkaido University, Sapporo 060-0810, Japan
‡Graduate School of Science, Tohoku University, Sendai 980-8578, Japan
§Graduate School of Science, Kyoto University, Kyoto 606-8103, Japan
∥Fukui Institute for Fundamental Chemistry, Kyoto University, Kyoto 606-8103, Japan

5 Supporting Information

ABSTRACT: The photodissociation of small molecules occurs upon irradiation by ultraviolet or visible light, and it is a very important chemical process in Earth’s atmosphere, in the atmospheres of other planets, and in interstellar media. Photodissociation is an important method used to thoroughly investigate the fundamental issues of chemical reactivity. Photodissociation involves molecules and reaction fragments moving over ground- and excited-state potential surfaces (PESs). Molecules can move on a single PES (adiabatic pathway) or can cross over from one PES to another (nonadiabatic pathways). For a full theoretical understanding of a photodissociation mechanism, all of the important nonadiabatic and adiabatic pathways must be determined. This is not an easy task. We have developed an efficient computational method, called the global reaction route mapping (GRRM) strategy, that allows a theoretical exploration of ground- and excited-state PESs and their crossing seams in an automatic manner. In this Perspective, we summarize our approaches and present examples of their application together with newly determined chemical insights. These include the complex photodissociation mechanism of the formaldehyde molecule, the exclusive excited-state roaming dynamics of the nitrate radical, and all product channels and conformational memory in the photodissociation of the formic acid molecule. Finally, perspectives for the theoretical design of photofunctional molecules are discussed.

INTRODUCTION

The photodissociation of small molecules plays important roles in atmospheric processes on the Earth’s surface, in the atmospheres of other planets, and in interstellar media. The accurate modeling of these processes is of great significance and requires kinetic data of all possible elementary reactions. Recently, quantum-chemical calculations3 combined with kinetic theories4 have become a powerful means for the prediction of atmospheric reaction rate constants that occur on the ground electronic state potential energy surface (PES).3 However, making similar predictions for photochemical reactions that involve excited electronic state PESs is not that simple for two reasons. One is the accuracy and efficiency of quantum-chemical calculations on excited electronic states. The other is that it is still difficult to find all of the feasible reaction pathways for high-energy molecules that involve excited electronic states as well as the ground state by a conventional geometry optimization approach. This Perspective presents our approaches to a resolution of the latter problem.

Another motivation for studies of the photodissociation of small molecules is to obtain a thorough understanding of the fundamental issues of these chemical reactions. The photodissociation of small molecules is relatively simple and is ideally suited for this purpose. In particular, the photodissociation dynamics of small molecules has been studied in great detail.4 One of the hottest topics in reaction dynamics over the last 10 years is “roaming”. This refers to a pathway to molecular products in a unimolecular reaction with a very different configuration space that describes the dissociation to radical products and a subsequent “self-reaction” of the radicals to form molecular products. This unusual pathway was suggested as the most likely of two possible mechanisms to explain a feature in the CO rotational distribution during the photodissociation of H2CO.5 A roaming pathway was found (and named) definitively in 2004 in joint theoretical/experimental work.6 Quasiclassical trajectory calculations in ref 6 showed that this unusual pathway is the one that leads to the shoulder feature in the CO rotational distribution described in ref 5. In the trajectories of the roaming pathways, one of the H atoms partially dissociates from H2CO to form a weakly bound radical−radical (HCO−H) complex. Instead of dissociation of the complex into two radicals, the partially dissociated H atom roams around the HCO radical and finally abstracts the other H atom from the HCO radical. This results in the formation of the molecular products CO + H2.6 The roaming channel has only been recognized since 2004, when only a conventional geometry optimization approach is considered, and this is also a topic of this Perspective.

To unravel the entire photoreaction processes, a systematic characterization of the PESs of several excited states as well as the ground state is required. With the Franck-Condon (FC)
approximation, a photochemical reaction starts at the FC point on an excited-state PES. The system then goes through various reaction pathways depending on the topography of the PESs and the available excess energy. Bond rearrangements or dissociations may occur on the excited-state PES through various transition states (TSs). The system may undergo a nonadiabatic transition to a lower PES and then react on this PES. The system may cascade through several PESs via nonadiabatic transitions.

Nonadiabatic transitions take place efficiently near a seam of the intersection between two PESs.8 When the two states have the same spin and space symmetry, the intersection, called a “conical intersection”, spans an \((f-2)\)-dimensional hypersurface, where \(f\) is the number of vibrational degrees of freedom. If the spin multiplicity or the space symmetry is different, two PESs cross in the \((f-1)\)-dimensional hyperspace, and this termed the “seam of crossing”. The minimum-energy conical intersection (MECI) and minimum-energy seam of crossing (MESX) represent the lowest-energy structures or the critical points (or, less accurately, the “nonadiabatic transition states”) where nonadiabatic transitions take place efficiently.

To determine all of the possible photochemical reaction pathways for a given system, a systematic search of TSs, MECIs, and MESXs is required for the excited- and ground-state PESs that are accessible at a given photon energy. Figure 1 schematically illustrates the potential profiles of a three-state system. Three channels are present for the singlet first excited electronic state \(S_1\): an adiabatic pathway going over a TS on the \(S_1\) surface, an intersystem crossing (ISC) path to the lower triplet electronic state through the MESX point, and a nonadiabatic pathway leading to the singlet ground electronic state \(S_0\) via the MECI point. These pathways are open when the available photon energy exceeds the energies of the corresponding critical points (i.e., TS, MESX, or MECI). ISC is slow in systems that only contain elements from the upper part of the periodic table because of the small amount of spin–orbit coupling. Transitions to a lower state may take place far from the conical intersection and the seam of the crossing regions by weak vibronic coupling and/or the emission of light, although these processes are generally slower than the three pathways illustrated in Figure 1 when these pathways are open.

Many efficient geometry optimization techniques are available for TSs, MESXs, and MECIs,9,10 and these methods require best-guess structures to initiate the search. It is extremely difficult for chemists to guess where the MECI or MESX is found. Therefore, any optimization method that requires a best-guess structure makes the determination of unexpected crossing structures difficult. A guess-free method is thus required.

Ab initio molecular dynamics (AIMD) simulations are a promising approach to the study of ultrafast photoreaction processes.11 AIMD simulations are highly desirable for studies of ultrafast nonstatistical dynamics. However, this method is extremely expensive and can be executed only for a short period (i.e., for very fast processes) for a limited number of trajectories.

To determine all of the feasible pathways, including those containing slow processes, we have developed automated reaction path search methods12,13 that constitute what we have called the global reaction route mapping (GRRM) strategy.14 These were originally developed for the TSs of the ground-state PES and have been expanded to assist in guess-free searches for the TSs, MECIs, and MESXs of different electronic states. To achieve this, we developed three approaches as briefly explained in the next section.15–17 These developments opened the door to the automated exploration of both nonadiabatic and adiabatic reaction pathways for multiple PESs. It should be noted that this approach does not explicitly consider the dynamics as well as the surface-hopping probability. The resulting discussions are thus only qualitative. Nevertheless, it is useful for a qualitative understanding of overviews of complex reaction mechanisms.

In this Perspective, we first describe our GRRM strategy for the systematic exploration of reaction pathways.14 Here we restrict ourselves to the GRRM strategy for photochemical reactions.15–17 With this strategy, we have discovered many unknown and unexpected channels for the photodissociation of small molecules.15,18,19 We first applied this method to the photolysis of formaldehyde, \(\text{H}_2\text{CO}\), which has been extensively studied experimentally and theoretically for decades, and we discovered an unknown nonadiabatic channel that involves the triplet state.15 A roaming channel on the excited electronic state PES was discovered for the first time during the photolysis of the nitrate radical, \(\text{NO}_3\).18 Moreover, unlike other roaming channels, no normal (nonroaming) channel coexists, and all of the \(\text{O}_2\) was exclusively produced via this excited-state roaming channel. In the photolysis of formic acid, \(\text{HCOOH}\), the GRRM exploration comprehensively accounted for the numerous different channels observed in various experiments.19 This result also suggests a mechanism for the conformational memory dynamics observed for the photolysis of the cis isomer of formic acid. Other application examples are also briefly introduced.20

## METHODS

Seam Model Function (SMF) Approach. The SMF approach is a two-step procedure that allows the exploration and determination of the geometry of the MECI or MESX without a best-guess structure.15 In the first step, a search for local minima is performed using the following model function \(p_{\text{SMF}}(\mathbf{Q})\):

![Figure 1. Schematic of the potential energy profiles of the three states \(S_0\) (blue), \(S_1\) (red), and \(T_1\) (green). Cross and cone marks represent the MESX points between the singlet and triplet states and the MECI points between \(S_0\) and \(S_1\), respectively.](image)
This function consists of a mean energy term for the two target PESs, $E^{\text{state-1}}(\mathbf{Q})$ and $E^{\text{state-2}}(\mathbf{Q})$, and a penalty function for their energy gap. In eq 1, $\mathbf{Q}$ represents the atomic coordinates $\{\mathbf{Q}_i\}$ and $\alpha$ is a constant parameter. Tests have shown that the results are not very sensitive to the value of $\alpha$, and it is usually set to a standard value of $\alpha = 30$ kJ/mol. We note that similar penalty functions have been used for the geometry optimization of MECIs.10–8 The minimization of $F^{\text{SMF}}(\mathbf{Q})$ reveals a geometry in which both the mean energy and the energy gap are small. This is illustrated in Figure 2a, where the $F^{\text{SMF}}(\mathbf{Q})$ curve shown with the black thick line has local minima near the two crossing points between the two target states. Therefore, the minima on this function can be used as approximate MECI or MESX geometries. Because $F^{\text{SMF}}(\mathbf{Q})$ is a smooth, single-valued function, any automated local-minimum search method can be used without modification. In the second step, the approximate geometries obtained in the first step are optimized to the true MECI or MESX using any optimization method. The optimization approach in the GRRM code21 described by any automated reaction path search method that has been developed for smooth PESs can thus be applied to $F^{\text{SMF}}$. The function $U(\mathbf{Q})$ is designed so that it has an effect only in limited regions with a small energy gap. Hence, $F^{\text{SMF}}$ is very similar to the PES $E^{\text{state-1}}$ in areas with a large energy gap, as illustrated in Figure 2b. The $F^{\text{SMF}}(\mathbf{Q})$ curve shown by the black thick line is smooth around the two crossing points. Any automated reaction path search method that has been developed for smooth PESs can thus be applied to $F^{\text{SMF}}$. The function $U(\mathbf{Q})$ is designed so that it has an effect only in limited regions with a small energy gap. Hence, $F^{\text{SMF}}$ is very similar to the PES $E^{\text{state-1}}$ in areas with a large energy gap, as illustrated in Figure 2b. The accuracy (i.e., how well stationary structures on $F^{\text{SMF}}$ reproduce those on $E^{\text{state-1}}$) depends on the $\beta$ value. In our experience, $\beta$ should be set to $\sim 1/10$ the vertical excitation energy. In the discussed examples, $\beta$ was set to 30 kJ/mol.

The local-minimum and TS structures on the excited-state (adiabatic) PES $E^{\text{state-1}}$ can be explored in two steps: (1) an exploration of the approximate local-minimum and TS structures as local minima and first-order saddle points, respectively, on $F^{\text{SMF}}$ by any automated reaction path search method and (2) the reoptimization of the true local-minimum and TS structures on the PES $E^{\text{state-1}}$ using the approximate structures as initial guesses. It should be noted that all of the local-minimum and TS structures discussed in this paper are fully optimized true structures on adiabatic PESs.

**Branching Plane Updating (BPU) Approach.** On a conical intersection, there are two directions that lift the degeneracy of the two adiabatic PESs: the gradient difference vector (GDV) direction and the derivative coupling vector (DCV) direction. The plane defined by these two vectors is called the branching plane (BP), and the BP is required at every MECI optimization step to retain the geometry on the conical intersection hyperspace. The GDV is the difference between the gradient vectors of the two target states and can be readily calculated. The DCV, however, requires extra calculations. Furthermore, the DCV is not available in all ab initio theories. We thus developed an approach to estimate the BP without calculation of the DCV, using a history of the optimization steps.17

We express a BP at the $k$th optimization step by two vectors, $\mathbf{x}_k$ and $\mathbf{y}_k$, where $\mathbf{x}_k$ is a unit vector parallel to the GDV for the adiabatic energy at the $k$th step and $\mathbf{y}_k$ is a unit vector on the BP perpendicular to $\mathbf{x}_k$. At the $k$th step, $\mathbf{x}_{k-1}$, $\mathbf{y}_{k-1}$, and $\mathbf{x}_k$ are known and $\mathbf{y}_k$ is unknown. In the first-order approximation of diabatic PESs, the BP (i.e., the $xy$ plane) does not change by any geometrical displacement. In other words, the first-order BP at the $k$th step is simply the plane defined by $\mathbf{x}_{k-1}$ and $\mathbf{y}_{k-1}$. At the $k$th step, $\mathbf{x}_k$ is calculated exactly and may have a component not
Newton method known as rational function optimization.

We used a quasi-

These approximate structures can then be reoptimized by any

force term. The minimization path of the AFIR function (the

obtain the following simultaneous equations for $s$ and $t$:

$$s(x_{k-1};x_0) + t(y_{k-1};x_0) = 0$$

$$s^2 + t^2 = 1$$

By solving eq 3, we obtain $y_k$ as

$$y_k = \frac{(y_{k-1};x_0)x_{k-1} - (x_{k-1};x_0)y_{k-1}}{\sqrt{(y_{k-1};x_0)^2 + (x_{k-1};x_0)^2}}$$

This $y_k$ is used together with $x_0$ to construct an updated BP at the

step, and they are saved for the next step. At the initial

step, the first-order BP (x and y from the last step) is not available. A plane made of $x_0$ and the mean energy gradient vector was used as an initial BP. This BP is exact at the stationary points in the conical intersections because the mean energy gradient vector does not contain any components perpendicular to the BP at these points. The DCV is thus no longer necessary at every optimization step when this BPU algorithm is employed. Although this scheme in part assumes a first-order approximation, higher-order effects are taken into account by using the exact $x_0$, and this works very well as demonstrated in numerical tests.17

Structure Exploration and Optimization. With the above approaches, our own automated reaction path search methods were applied for the exploration of stationary structures: local minima and TSs on the ground- and excited-state PESs as well as MECIs and MESXs between adjacent PESs. We have developed two automated reaction path search methods. In this study, the anharmonic downward distortion following12 (ADDF) method was mainly employed. Along a typical reactive potential curve, an anharmonic downward distortion (ADD) arises and increases toward a TS. Therefore, TSs and local minima beyond the TSs can be found by following the ADDs starting from a local minimum. The application of this ADDF procedure to all of the obtained local minima provides a full reaction path network including local minima and TSs on a given PES. The other automated reaction path search method called the artificial force induced reaction (AFIR) method. In the AFIR method, two (or more) fragments are pushed together by minimizing the AFIR function, which is composed of the adiabatic potential energy and an artificial force term. The minimization path of the AFIR function (the AFIR path) can be an approximate reaction path. A TS and a product for the corresponding reaction can be obtained from the AFIR path. A sufficient ensemble of the AFIR path and the resulting reaction path network can be obtained by the multicomponent algorithm13c (MC-AFIR) for bimolecular and multicomponent reactions and by the single-component algorithm13d (SC-AFIR) for intramolecular reactions. In the photochemical GRRM strategy, the ADDF and AFIR methods, which have previously been applied mainly to the ground-state PES, are applied to $F^{\text{SMF}}$ and $F^{\text{AMF}}$.$^{21}$

As discussed above, the application of ADDF and AFIR to $F^{\text{SMF}}$ and $F^{\text{AMF}}$ generates approximate stationary structures. These approximate structures can then be reoptimized by any standard geometry optimization method. We used a quasi-

Newton method known as rational function optimization (RFO)$^{22}$ implemented in the GRRM code,$^{21}$ for local-minimum and TS geometry optimizations. In MESX and MECI optimizations, the gradient projection (GP) method was used. In the GP method$^{18}$, a gradient vector is recomposed as the sum of two vectors: the difference gradient between the two PESs and the projected mean-energy gradient for the two PESs. The projected mean-energy gradient is a mean-energy gradient multiplied by the projection matrix that eliminates the gradient components of degeneracy-lifting directions, i.e., the GDV direction in MESX optimization and the GDV and DCV directions in MECI optimization. An optimization using the recomposed gradient of the GP method thus minimizes the energy gap in these GDV or GDV and DCV directions and the mean energy on the remaining $(3N-7)$- or $(3N-8)$-dimensional hypersurface. In this study, MESX and MECI optimizations were also performed with the RFO method using the recomposed gradient of the GP method$^{17}$.

Refining Structures and Energies toward Reliable Prediction. A third step is also required. Usually, the above-mentioned automated exploration is performed by a computationally less demanding method such as CASSCF with a small active space and basis set. All of the obtained structures are fully reoptimized at a more reliable computational level such as CASPT2 with a large active space and basis set. However, in the excited-state calculations, the dependence of the topography of the PES on the computational level is relatively large. Therefore, we sometimes face serious cases wherein the paths obtained from low-level automated searches disappear during the final high-level reoptimization process. In these cases, we locate the corresponding path manually using double-ended-type reaction path search methods such as the double-end version of the ADDF method and the locally updated plane method.$^{23,24}$ We note that this manual step is the most difficult part for people who conduct these studies. As will be shown in the following examples, the automated search sometimes only provides hints about the unknown and unexpected reaction mechanisms, and a careful examination of the search output is often critically important to determine the real mechanisms.

Summary of the Workflow. The workflow can be summarized as follows:

(A) Application of the ADDF method to the PESs for all of the relevant electronic states to find the local-minimum and TS structures, where the AMF approach is employed in electronic excited state applications.

(B) Application of the ADDF-SMF approach to all adjacent PES pairs to find the MESX and MECI structures for the two PESs.

(C) Reoptimization of each critical point in stages (A) and (B) (obtained with a computationally less demanding method such as CASSCF) using a more reliable computational method such as CASPT2.

Computational Program. All of the above-mentioned approaches (i.e., SMF, AMF, BPU, ADDF, and AFIR) have been incorporated into the GRRM program and are available in the latest version (GRRM14).$^{21}$ The GRRM program calls an electronic structure calculation code as an external subroutine to obtain the energy, gradient, and Hessian of the target electronic state(s) at a given geometry. Using these PES data, the GRRM program modifies the molecular geometry. In the following applications, the MOLPRO22 program was called to obtain the PES data using multireference CASSCF and CASPT2 theories. DFT calculations for the ground-state PES.
Figure 3. Potential energy profiles (in kJ/mol) for the three states S0 (blue), S1 (red), and T1 (green) of H2CO at the CASPT2 level. Cross and cone marks represent MESX points for the singlet and triplet states and the MECI points for S0 and S1, respectively.

and spin-flip time-dependent DFT (TDDFT) calculations for MECI optimizations were performed using Gaussian 0926 and GAMESS,27 respectively, in combination with the GRRM program. In GRRM14, tight connectors (i.e., internally implemented interfaces) to these three quantum-chemical calculation programs are available. Furthermore, any quantum-chemical or molecular-mechanics program can be used with the GRRM code by a loose connector developed by the users.

## RESULTS

**Formaldehyde Molecule: Complex Photodissociation Mechanisms for a Simple Molecule.** The first example is the photolysis of formaldehyde at relatively low photon energies (<383 kJ/mol). It was suggested experimentally that photodissociation occurs on the PES of the singlet ground electronic state (S0) after internal conversion (IC) from the singlet first excited electronic state (S1).28 The dynamics and reaction pathways on the S0 PES have been studied extensively.29 Early studies focused on the following two channels:

\[
\text{H}_2\text{CO} \rightarrow \text{CO} + \text{H}_2 \quad (5)
\]

\[
\text{H}_2\text{CO} \rightarrow \text{HCO} + \text{H} \quad (6)
\]

For the channel shown in eq 5, the corresponding TS was determined computationally for the first time in 1974.29 The radical dissociation channel (eq 6) can occur both from the S0 state and from the lowest triplet electronic state (T1), and therefore, the T1 PES has also been studied.30 Additionally, a third channel, called “roaming”, also exists and was discovered in 2004.6 The third channel can be expressed as follows:

\[
\text{H}_2\text{CO} \rightarrow \text{HCO} \cdots \text{H} \rightarrow \text{CO} + \text{H}_2 \quad (7)
\]

where one of the H atoms, once partially dissociated, roams around the HCO fragment and finally abstracts the other H atom to generate CO + H2. The dynamics of the partially dissociated H atom has been termed “roaming”. The remaining question concerning the low-energy photolysis was how the excited molecules reach the S0 PES from the S1 PES. However, knowledge about the nonadiabatic pathways has been scarce until recently.31 Therefore, we performed an SMF/ADDF search for the MECI and MESX structures.15

Figure 3 shows a potential energy profile for the three low-lying states S0, S1, and T1 of H2CO. These calculations were performed at the CASPT2/aug-cc-pVDZ level with the full-valence active space (MS-CASPT2 for S0 and S1 and SS-CASPT2 for T1). To avoid the intruder state problem of CASPT2, a shift parameter of 0.3 was applied. In this figure, for clarity, we do not show the PES areas of the very high energy structures such as the H2O···C and related pathways as well as the pathways for the roaming channels. The molecular channel occurs through TS 2, which lies 355.7 kJ/mol above the ground state of H2CO. At 376.1 kJ/mol, the radical dissociation channel to H + HCO opens. At higher than 408.4 kJ/mol, the radical channel is also apparent from the T1 PES through TS 13. These energetics correspond well with the available experimentally determined energy thresholds.

ISC from T1 to S0 was initially considered to occur in the potential well of the H2CO form. However, in 2008, low-energy T1/S0 MESXs 16 and 17 were located in the potential well of hydroxycarbene in the HCOH form, and ISC was proposed to take place from this HCOH form.32 To visit the potential well of HCOH on the T1 PES, the high-energy TS 14 for the 1,2-shift of the H atom must be overcome, and this was suggested to take place by quantum tunneling. In 2009 we explored the MESX and MECI points that involve the S0, S1, and T1 PESs systematically by the SMF/ADDF approach. We discovered the new MESX point 12 between the S0 and T1 PESs.15

Adopting our MESX 12, we proposed a new mechanism for low-energy photolysis as follows. After the photoexcitation, the system stays around the S1 local minimum 21 for a long time because all of the structures connected to 21 are high in energy. The S1/T1 ISC takes place by trickling down from S1 to T1 for all of the geometries, while the molecule in the S1 state spends a long time oscillating around 21. This occurs because the PESs for the S1 and T1 states have similar energies throughout the basin of 21. Although the probability at each geometry may be small because the spin–orbit coupling between the two states S1 and T1 that belong to the same (n → π*) electronic
configuration is small, the integrated probability over a long time could be substantial. Once the system comes down to \(T_1\) from the \(S_1\) basin region, the \(T_1/S_0\) ISC through the newly found MESX point 12 (391 kJ/mol) takes place within the \(H_2CO\) basin. This mechanism based on CASPT2 energetics is consistent with the result obtained by highly accurate MRCISD(Q)/aug-cc-pV5Z calculations.\(^{33}\) After the transition to \(S_0\), the dynamics on the \(S_0\) PES should start in the potential well of \(H_2CO\).

Our mechanism was confirmed by three-state trajectory surface hopping (3S-TSH) simulations involving the \(S_0\), \(S_1\), and \(T_1\) states.\(^{34}\) In the 3S-TSH simulations, highly accurate (analytically fitted) PESs were used, and hopping between PESs was treated with Tully’s fewest switches algorithm. The 3S-TSH simulations demonstrated that the above-mentioned decay mechanism involving the \(S_1/T_1\) trickling down and the subsequent \(T_1/S_0\) ISC near 12 is the major process. Furthermore, a new, unexpected dynamics was discovered in which the system decays to the \(S_0\) PES and then isomerizes to HCOH on the \(S_0\) PES before dissociation. In these trajectories, the system hopped up to the \(T_1\) PES and then hopped down to the \(S_0\) PES near 16 and 17. This is energetically allowed, as shown in Figure 3.

When the available energy is higher than the \(T_1\) barrier 13 and lower than 23, the H atom dissociation mainly takes place on the \(T_1\) PES. This was confirmed by the sudden decrease in the HCO product’s rotational energy around the energy of 13.\(^{30b}\) This is strong evidence of the involvement of the \(T_1\) PES in the decay mechanism due to photon-energy photolysis. If the available energy is higher than the \(S_1\) TS 23, H atom dissociation can take place on the \(S_1\) PES. MECI 24 is present after H atom dissociation,\(^{33}\) and the system can also reach the \(S_0\) PES via this MECI. A symmetric CI structure that corresponds to a saddle point within the same CI is also known.\(^{31b}\) CASSCF on-the-fly dynamics studies have shown that a nonadiabatic transition takes place at MECI 24 after H atom dissociation through 23, and these dynamics result in the generation of the molecular products \(CO + H_2\) by a recombination between \(H\) and \(HCO\).\(^{30}\) This path may be an alternative (fourth) channel that may open when the available energy is relatively high (higher than \(\sim 440\) kJ/mol).

Some discussion has occurred about the TS of the roaming channel (eq \(7\))\(^{6,37−39}\) It was first suggested that no explicit TS exists for this channel.\(^{6}\) However, three different TSs that may be relevant to this channel have been reported: (1) a TS that connects 1 with 3 directly and has a structure in which the roaming H atom is in the out-of-plane direction of the HCO fragment;\(^{37,39}\) (2) a TS that connects 1 and 7 directly and has a structure in which the roaming H atom is in the out-of-plane direction of the HCO fragment;\(^{12b}\) and (3) planar TSs for a multistep roaming path in which the roaming H atom migrates once to the O atom side of the HCO fragment and then goes back and abstracts the other H atom.\(^{38}\) Although the relevance of the second path to the roaming channel has not been discussed,\(^{12b}\) we reconsidered it because the atomic movements in this path also involve long-distance H atom migration.

Figure 4 shows a reaction path network for the long-distance H atom migration around HCO. Although these pathways have previously been reported at different computational levels, for consistency we recalculated them at the CASPT2 level, and all three paths were found and confirmed by the computational level used. In all of the TSs in Figure 4, the H atom goes through regions \(3.5−4.0\) Å from the HCO fragment. These TSs lie only slightly below the potential asymptote of the \(H + HCO\) direct dissociation channel at 376.1 kJ/mol. This is typical in the many roaming channels discovered to date.\(^{7}\) However, it is difficult to tell which path is the most important using only the potential profile. Roaming trajectories that go through various HCO fragment directions have been discovered in extensive molecular dynamics simulations.\(^{6}\) Moreover, the potential valleys for these roaming paths are very shallow, and their trajectories can easily deviate from the corresponding minimum-energy paths. From this viewpoint, the initial suggestion of the absence of an explicit TS for this channel would be partially correct. Nevertheless, in general roaming channels can be represented by some TSs, and by locating them one can discuss the existence of roaming channels.\(^{30}\) For quantitative discussions, it is obvious that more reliable analyses such as extensive molecular dynamics simulations\(^{41}\) and/or extended transition state theory and phase space theory simulations\(^{42,43}\) are required. Moreover, one needs to choose the computational level carefully because the roaming pathways pass near a dissociation limit (\(H + HCO\) in this case) and the shapes of the PESs in such asymptote regions can easily change depending on the computational level.

**Nitrate Radical: Exclusive Excited-State Roaming Mechanism.** Roaming channels are known to occur on the ground electronic state and as a minor channel. However, questions arise about the possibility of exclusive roaming and whether roaming on the electronic excited state is possible. The discovery of such a case would considerably expand the generality and the importance of the roaming channel.

In 2011, for the photolysis of \(NO_3\), we discovered an exclusive excited-state roaming channel, which breaks both of these two known rules.\(^{18}\) The photodissociation dynamics of \(NO_3\) has been studied extensively, mainly because of its relevance in atmospheric chemistry.\(^{44}\) It has two channels:

\[
NO_3 \rightarrow NO + O_2 \quad (8)
\]
\[
NO_3 \rightarrow NO_2 + O \quad (9)
\]
The path shown in eq 8 is observed only over a very narrow wavelength range of 585–595 nm (204.5–201.1 kJ/mol), and that in eq 9 is predominant at wavelengths less than 585 nm. However, no theoretical reaction path that explains the NO + O2 channel at 585–595 nm was known until 2011. In 2010 it was shown experimentally that at 588 nm (203.4 kJ/mol) there are two pathways that give vibrationally hot and cold O2 molecules, respectively.44 A roaming path was suggested to be responsible for the generation of vibrationally hot O2 because roaming channels have previously been shown to generate vibrationally hot products as a result of the nearly barrierless recombination of two unstable fragments.7 No clear interpretation existed for the vibrationally cold product. We thus conducted SMF/ADDF and AMF/ADDF searches and discovered a highly unexpected mechanism, as discussed below.

Figure 5 shows potential energy profiles for the four states $D_0$–$D_4$ of NO3. The profiles were obtained by MS-CASPT2/6-31+G* for $D_{0–2}$ and four-state-averaged CASCF/6-31+G* calculations for $D_3$ with the 11 electron, orbital (11e, 8o) active space.18 To avoid the intruder state problem of CASPT2, a shift parameter of 0.3 was applied. For clarity, only the important stationary points that are discussed below are shown in Figure 5. At the FC point with $D_3$ symmetry, the degenerate $D_1$ and $D_2$ states are dark states and the degenerate $D_3$ and $D_4$ states are bright states. The 588 nm photon excites NO3 to $D_3$ with $D_0$, and the dynamics start from $D_3$. The molecules excited to $D_3$ can easily move to $D_4$ as the system is already in the intersection hyperspace at the FC point. MECI 53 between $D_3$ and $D_2$ is close to the FC point, and the system rapidly decreases to $D_2$. The lowest-energy point on the $D_2$ PES is located inside the $D_2$ conical intersection as MECI 51. The system thus moves to $D_1$. On the $D_1$ PES, there is no pathway that further decays to the $D_2$ PES because the lowest MECI 46 is very high in energy and is difficult to reach with the available energy. The dissociation dynamics thus starts from $D_1$ minimum 45 rather than $D_2$ minimum 36.

N–O bond dissociation occurs on the $D_1$ PES through TS 47. However, the dissociating O atom stays around the NO2 fragment and forms a weak NO2·····O complex 48 on $D_1$. In the NO2·····O form, the system can move to $D_3$ through MECI 49. Finally, an intramolecular recombination between NO and O takes place either on the $D_1$ PES through TS 50 or on the $D_0$ PES via TS 39. These pathways exhibit roaming O atom dynamics. Interestingly, the roaming dynamics involve not only the ground electronic state $D_0$ but also the first excited state $D_1$, in contrast to the previously reported roaming channels. Furthermore, the next-lowest TS generates the same products, i.e., $36 \rightarrow 42 \rightarrow 43 \rightarrow 44 \rightarrow 40$, which is not accessible with a photon energy of 588 nm. This suggests that the NO + O2 products are exclusively generated from roaming dynamics starting at the excited electronic state $D_1$. The discovery of this exclusive roaming channel starting from an excited electronic state breaks two known conditions of roaming: on the ground electronic state and in small fraction. This extends the significance of roaming significantly in photochemical reaction dynamics.

Our proposal was confirmed three ways. First, DFT-based on-the-fly dynamics simulations were performed, starting from the recombination TSs 39 and 50.18 The trajectory from the higher TS 50 on the $D_1$ PES gave vibrationally cold O2, whereas vibrationally hot O2 was produced by the trajectory from the lower TS 39 on the $D_0$ PES. These trajectories explain the generation of vibrationally cold and hot O2 as minor and major products, respectively, in the earlier experiments.45 Second, the NO $\Lambda$ doublet propensity (correlation between the NO rotational plane and the direction of the unpaired electron) was determined by an ion-imaging experiment.46 In the recombination TSs 50 and 39, the unpaired electron is directed toward the out-of-plane direction in 50 and toward the molecular plane in 39. Therefore, the determination of the $\Lambda$ doublet propensity is strong evidence for the involvement of these two recombination TSs. Third, extensive dynamics simulations were performed using the global PESs47 obtained by fitting analytical potential functions to the 90 000 MS-(17e, 13o)-CASPT2/aug-cc-pVTZ energies for $D_0$ and $D_1$.48 These molecular dynamics simulations starting from either 36 or 45 only gave the products NO + O2 with a roaming mechanism, and they quantitatively reproduced the experimental vibrational and rotation distributions of the products. However, the simulations did not consider the nonadiabatic transition between $D_0$ and $D_1$.48 The branching ratio of the NO + O2 products is not known from the simulations or from any other work. Future quantitative simulations that account for the
nonadiabatic coupling of adiabatic potentials are required for a further understanding of this system. 49

Formic Acid Molecule: All Product Channels and Conformational Memory. The third example is the photodissociation of the trans and cis isomers of the formic acid molecule, HCOOH. The photolysis of trans-HCOOH has been a target of many experimental and theoretical studies. 50 However, the cis isomer, which easily undergoes isomerization to the lower-energy trans isomer, has been studied only in an Ar matrix. 51 For trans-HCOOH, the following five channels have been observed.

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{HCOOH} & \rightarrow \text{CO}_2 + \text{H}_2 \\
\text{HCOOH} & \rightarrow \text{CO} + \text{H}_2 \text{O} \\
\text{HCOOH} & \rightarrow \text{COOH} + \text{H} \\
\text{HCOOH} & \rightarrow \text{HCO} + \text{OH} \\
\text{HCOOH} & \rightarrow \text{HCOO} + \text{H} 
\end{align*}
\]

In this section, we will show how the results of a systematic reaction pathway search can be used to assign pathways for all of the experimental reaction channels. The special topic discussed is the conformation-specific dynamics observed for cis-HCOOH upon its 193 nm photolysis in an Ar matrix. 52 The CO/CO$_2$ ratios for the channels shown in eqs 10 and 11 vary dramatically depending on the initial conformation. The 193 nm photolysis of trans-HCOOH predominantly follows channel shown in eq 11 with a CO/CO$_2$ ratio of 5.0, while the photolysis of cis-HCOOH, in contrast, gives a CO/CO$_2$ ratio of 0.42. These conformation-specific dynamics are termed "conformational memory," and its mechanism has been clarified for the 1-iodopropane cation (1-C$_3$H$_7$I$^+$) and the propanal cation (C$_3$H$_6$O$^+$). 53 However, a theoretical interpretation of the mechanism of the conformational memory in HCOOH has not been very successful. We again performed SMF/ADDF and AMF/ADDF searches and identified the origin of the conformational memory.

Figure 6 shows the potential energy profiles (in kJ/mol) for the three states S$_0$ (blue), S$_1$ (red), and T$_1$ (green) of HCOOH at the CASPT2 level. Cross and cone marks represent MESX points between the singlet and triplet states and MECI points between the two singlet states, respectively. Energies at the MRCISD(Q)/CASPT2 and UCCSD(T)/UCCSD levels are shown in parentheses and square brackets, respectively, for selected structures in a quantitative comparison with the available experimental data. The uncertainty of ±2.3 kJ/mol at MESX 72 indicates a S$_0$/T$_1$ energy gap of 4.6 kJ/mol at the UCCSD(T) level calculated for the UCCSD-optimized MESX geometry. The roaming channels that involve the partially dissociated TSs 62 and 65 in the form of HCOО···OH and HCOO···H, respectively, are shown with dashed lines.

First, the experimental thresholds reported to date are interpreted using Figure 6. The origin band of the S$_0$−S$_1$ transition of trans-HCOOH was observed at ~267 nm (448 kJ/mol), and our calculated energy value of 442.0 kJ/mol is reasonably similar. The molecule is fluorescent at lower than ~259 nm (462 kJ/mol), and a rapid decrease in fluorescence was observed at ~259 nm, which suggests the opening of a dissociation channel at this wavelength. 50e,f A similar threshold was found in a fluorescence quenching study. 50g However, no
clear explanation was available for this 259 nm threshold. Our interpretation, based in Figure 6, is that this threshold is related to MESX 72. From the S1 minimum of 74, there is no accessible stationary point at lower than 462 kJ/mol except for 75 and 76 for the trans/cis isomerization. It is thus expected that the S1/T1 ISC occurs from 74 to 66 and from 75 to 67 with a trickling mechanism (without going through crossing), as is the case for formaldehyde. The S1 PES is very close to the T1 PES in the basin of HCOOH, and long residence allows slow S1/T1 ISC to take place inside the HCOOH basins. After the S1/T1 ISC, MESX 72 is the lowest gateway that escapes from the T1 minima 66 and 67. Moreover, the calculated energy value of 462.2 kJ/mol for 72 is very close to the experimental threshold. After the S1/T1 ISC through MESX 72, the system predominantly undergoes molecular dissociations on S0 to give CO + H2O (via TS 57) and CO2 + H2 (via TS 59) because of their low barriers.

The experimental quantum yield of the HCO + OH channel (eq 13) is virtually zero below 475 kJ/mol (252 nm), and it gains intensity with an increase in the excitation energy. This threshold is reproduced well by T1 TS 69. Figure 6 shows that the other OH dissociation channel opens at 498.6 kJ/mol on the S1 PES through S1 TS 77. Because the ISC is a slow process, the direct OH dissociation on the S1 PES will be dominant if the available excess energy is sufficient to overcome barrier 77 on the S1 PES. The OH dissociation channel was observed to be dominant at 222 nm (539 kJ/mol) with an OH product quantum yield of ∼0.80. This is consistent with the experimental observation wherein different OH generation dynamics were observed for excitation energies of 244 nm (490.3 kJ/mol) and 230 nm (520.1 kJ/mol). MECI 78 is present for the partially dissociated HCOO·····OH geometry. This MECI is close to the roaming pathway through TS 62 on the S0 PES. After the nonadiabatic transition, CO + H2O may be produced via the roaming OH dynamics.

The COOH + H generation channel (eq 12) opens at 472.4 kJ/mol via T1 TS 71. A similar dissociation channel from the S1 PES requires much higher excess energy (not shown in Figure 6 for clarity). This is consistent with a hydrogen (Rydberg) atom photofragment translational spectroscopy study, which showed that this channel occurs exclusively on the T1 PES. In this experiment, it was also found that the HCOO + H channel (eq 14) is on the S1 PES, and the required energy was estimated to be ∼532 kJ/mol. As shown in Figure 6, this channel opens through S1 TS 80. The barrier at 541.4 kJ/mol is in qualitative agreement with the experimental estimate of ∼532 kJ/mol. A similar dissociation channel from the T1 PES needs higher excess energy (not shown in Figure 6 for clarity), which is consistent with the experimental result. After dissociation through TS 80 and the subsequent nonadiabatic transition through MECI 81 at the partially dissociated HCOO·····H geometry, the roaming dynamics for the generation of the molecular products CO2 + H2 may occur through S0 TS 65.

In summary, on the basis of our calculation results, all of the low-photon-energy photodissociation channels of trans-HCOOH observed to date and their mechanisms can be explained as follows. Between 462 and 472 kJ/mol, two successive ISCs from S1 to T1 via T1, followed by the molecular channels shown in eqs 10 and 11 on the S0 PES are dominant. At 472 kJ/mol, a C–H bond dissociation channel (eq 12) opens on the T1 PES. At 475 kJ/mol, an OH dissociation channel (eq 13) from the T1 PES becomes accessible. Above 499 kJ/mol, a direct OH dissociation channel (eq 13) on the S1 PES becomes dominant. Above 541 kJ/mol, a direct O–H bond dissociation channel (eq 14) becomes available on the S1 PES. Overall, these results that were obtained by a systematic exploration of stationary structures are consistent with all of the experimental data. This result is highly encouraging for the future use of our photochemical GRRM strategy in combination with a proper quantum-chemical calculation method and kinetic theory for the prediction of elemental reaction channels for use in atmospheric modeling.

The remaining question is that of the conformational memory observed upon the 193 nm (620 kJ/mol) photolysis of cis-HCOOH. Figure 7 shows potential energy profiles that provide a possible answer to this question. The S0−→S1−→S2−→S1−→S0 CASPT2/aug-cc-pVDZ was applied to the S1/S0 MECIs 84 and 86; S0−→S1−→S2−→S1−→S0 CASPT2/aug-cc-pVDZ to the S1/S0 MECIs 82, 83, and 85 and to the S2 energy at the FC point; and S0−→S1−→S2−→S1−→S0 CASPT2/aug-cc-pVDZ to the other structures, all with a (10e, 8o) active space. During this photolysis, a total energy of 637.5 kJ/mol relative to trans-HCOOH is available. The photolysis was postulated to occur starting from the S1 PES. Searches for the stationary structures as well as molecular dynamics simulations have been performed on the S1 PES. However, it is obvious from Figure 6 that isomerization from the cis isomer to the trans isomer occurs rapidly on the S1 PES through a very low barrier of only 2.0 kJ/mol. In molecular dynamics simulations, this isomerization was found to occur immediately after photoexcitation. Thus, explanations of the conformation-specific dynamics for cis-HCOOH have not been successful in previous theoretical studies.

We found the S0/S1 MECIs 82 and 83 in the weakly interacting HCOO·····H region with the partially dissociated H

![Figure 7. Potential energy profiles (in kJ/mol) for the three states S0 (blue), S1 (red), and S2 (orange) of HCOOH. Cone marks represent the MECI points between the two singlet states. (A) Profiles for the conformation-specific dynamics starting from the FC point of cis-HCOOH. (B) Profiles for the conformation-specific dynamics starting from the FC point of trans-HCOOH.](https://repository.kulib.kyoto-u.ac.jp)
atom in the cis conformation with respect to HCOO. After the nonadiabatic transition at MECI $82$, the system settles to the $S_2$ PES, and barrierless H atom abstraction from the HCOO part by the partially dissociated H atom in the HCOO·····H complex occurs. This result in the generation of the molecular products CO$_2$ + H$_2$. Through MECI $83$, a barrierless recombination between HCOO and H gives vibrationally highly excited cis-HCOOH. After the recombination, the excess energy localized in the O−H bond vibrational mode is expected to prefer, although not exclusively, a molecular dissociation to CO$_2$ + H$_2$ via TS $59$ over dissociation to H$_2$O + CO via TS $57$. A question arises about how the partially dissociated HCOO·····H complex is generated on the $S_1$ PES, which is of substantially lower energy than the FC $S_1$ state.

The extensive structure list obtained by the automated search did not show any H atom dissociation pathway from the OH part of the $S_1$ minimum of $75$. Instead, we found a cusp between the cis minimum $75$ and the HCOO·····H region along a maximal ADD path, and this was calculated as an approximate path by the ADDF method. The cusp was found to be related to the $S_1$/FC conical intersection, where $S_2$ is an $n \rightarrow \sigma^*$ state. Starting from the cusp geometry, $S_1$/FC MECI $84$ was obtained. Furthermore, geometry optimization at the MS-CASPT2 level on the $S_1$ PES starting from the FC geometry increased the O−H distance, and finally the $S_1$/MECI region was reached without a barrier. In other words, because of the $n \rightarrow \sigma^*$ repulsive character of $S_2$, the H atom can dissociate on $S_1$ without a barrier through MECI $84$ and then through $S_1$/MECI $82$ and $83$. Importantly, $S_1$/MECI $84$ and the $S_1$/MECI $82$ and $83$ that led, without barrier, to the H$_2$ + CO$_2$ products contain the partially dissociated H in the cis conformation with respect to the HCOO hydrogen, and the two H atoms in the cis position can form a bond to dissociate as CO$_2$ + H$_2$.

The 193 nm (620 ± 17.5 kJ/mol) photon energy is not enough to reach the $S_2$ PES at the FC geometry. Nevertheless, a fraction of the molecules can reach the $S_2$ PES with this photon energy at geometries slightly deviated from the FC point. Furthermore, the oscillator strength of 0.0362 for the $S_0$ transition at the FC point is much larger than the $S_1$ transition at the FC point, which is expected to be less important compared with the $S_0$ transition.

For nitrogen-atom-containing systems, we studied the photolysis of methylamine and nitromethane and the collision reaction N(2D) + H$_2$O. In these three studies, the SMF/ADDF and AMF/ADDF approaches were used. In a methylamine study, we also predicted a slow intersystem crossing mechanism from $S_1$ to $T_1$, with a trilling mechanism similar to that of formaldehyde, followed by CH$_3$ dissociation via a TS on $T_1$. This was found to be consistent with the observed long lifetime of the $S_1$ species of acetone. For MEK, we discovered an unusual $S_1$/S$_0$ diradical mechanism involving H atom transfer on the $S_1$ surface followed by a nonadiabatic transition for a diradical isomer CH$_3$−C(OH)−CH$_2$. This mechanism was consistent with experimental photodissociation quantum yield measurements. Ketene is another example of a carbonyl compound. In this reaction, using the SMF/ADDF and AMF/ADDF approaches, we located five nonadiabatic pathways starting from the $S_1$ FC point and using the six lowest PESs, $S_0$−$S_2$ and $T_1$−$T_3$, and we explained the five dissociation channels that were observed upon 193−215 nm photolysis.

Other Photodissociation Reactions. We have also reported many applications to other photodissociation reactions. Here these applications are summarized briefly. Two ketones, acetone and methyl ethyl ketone (MEK) were studied by the SMF and AMF approaches in combination with the double-ended ADDF method, assuming reaction products and intermediates. In the acetone study, we proposed a slow intersystem crossing mechanism from $S_1$ to $T_1$, with a trilling mechanism similar to that of formaldehyde, followed by CH$_3$ dissociation via a TS on $T_1$. This was found to be consistent with the observed long lifetime of the $S_1$ species of acetone. For MEK, we discovered an unusual $S_1$/S$_0$ diradical mechanism involving H atom transfer on the $S_1$ surface followed by a nonadiabatic transition for a diradical isomer CH$_3$−C(OH)−CH$_2$. This mechanism was consistent with experimental photodissociation quantum yield measurements. Ketene is another example of a carbonyl compound. In this reaction, using the SMF/ADDF and AMF/ADDF approaches, we located five nonadiabatic pathways starting from the $S_1$ FC point and using the six lowest PESs, $S_0$−$S_2$ and $T_1$−$T_3$, and we explained the five dissociation channels that were observed upon 193−215 nm photolysis.

For nitrogen-atom-containing systems, we studied the photolysis of methylamine and nitromethane and the collision reaction N(2D) + H$_2$O. In these three studies, the SMF/ADDF and AMF/ADDF approaches were used. In a methylamine study, we also predicted a slow intersystem crossing mechanism from $S_1$ to $T_1$, with a trilling mechanism similar to that of formaldehyde, followed by CH$_3$ dissociation via a TS on $T_1$. This was found to be consistent with the observed long lifetime of the $S_1$ species of acetone. For MEK, we discovered an unusual $S_1$/S$_0$ diradical mechanism involving H atom transfer on the $S_1$ surface followed by a nonadiabatic transition for a diradical isomer CH$_3$−C(OH)−CH$_2$. This mechanism was consistent with experimental photodissociation quantum yield measurements. Ketene is another example of a carbonyl compound. In this reaction, using the SMF/ADDF and AMF/ADDF approaches, we located five nonadiabatic pathways starting from the $S_1$ FC point and using the six lowest PESs, $S_0$−$S_2$ and $T_1$−$T_3$, and we explained the five dissociation channels that were observed upon 193−215 nm photolysis.

CONCLUSIONS AND PERSPECTIVES

In this Perspective, our approach toward the systematic exploration of photochemical reaction pathways has been...
explored by combining the SMF approach, SF-TDDFT, and SC-AFIR. This combined approach is currently being used in practical applications such as the analysis and design of photofunctional molecules containing 30–50 atoms.

**ASSOCIATED CONTENT**

3 Supporting Information

Full citations for refs 25 and 26. This material is available free of charge via the Internet at http://pubs.acs.org.

**AUTHOR INFORMATION**

**Corresponding Authors**

*m.inae@sci.kyoto-u.ac.jp

*morokuma@fukui.kyoto-u.ac.jp

**Notes**

The authors declare no competing financial interest.

**ACKNOWLEDGMENTS**

This work was partly supported by the Japan Science and Technology Agency (JST) through a Core Research for Evolutional Science and Technology (CREST) grant in the area of High Performance Computing for Multiscale and Multiphysics Phenomena at Kyoto University and a CREST grant in the area of Establishment of Molecular Technology towards the Creation of New Functions at Hokkaido University; the U.S. AFOSR (Grant FA9550-10-1-0304) at Emory University; and the Japan Society for the Promotion of Science (JSPS) through a Grant-in-Aid for Scientific Research (A) (24245005) at Kyoto University and a Grant-in-Aid for Young Researchers (A) (23685004) at Hokkaido University. We also deeply thank our collaborators, Prof. Simon W. North and Dr. Michael P. Grubb of Texas A&M University; Prof. Joel M. Bowman and Dr. Bina Fu of Emory University; Prof. Sándor Dóbé, Dr. Rebeka Nádasdi, Dr. Gábor L. Zügner, and Dr. Mária Farkas of the Chemical Research Center of the Hungarian Academy of Sciences; Dr. Hongyan Xiao, Dr. Fengyi Liu, Dr. Miho Isegawa, and Dr. Noriyuki Minezawa of Kyoto University; and Dr. Yu Harabuchi of Hokkaido University.

**REFERENCES**


