

Study of HCO₂ and DCO₂ by negative ion photoelectron spectroscopy

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Photoelectron spectra of HCO₂⁻ and DCO₂⁻ at 299 nm, 266 nm, and 213 nm are reported. Photodetachment accesses the ²A₁, ²B₂, and ²A₂ states of the formyl radical, HCO₂. The ²A₁ state is assigned as the HCO₂ ground state, although it is nearly degenerate with the ²B₂ state (*T*₀=0.027 eV), and the ²A₂ state lies at *T*₀=0.536 eV. The electron affinity of HCO₂ is 3.498±0.015 eV. The spectra show partially resolved vibrational features, primarily involving progressions in the CO₂ bending mode. The irregular appearance of the spectra in some regions suggests vibronic coupling between the ²A₁ and ²B₂ states. The possible role of the HCO₂ radical as an intermediate in the OH+CO→H+CO₂ reaction and in H+CO₂ inelastic scattering is discussed. © 1995 American Institute of Physics.

I. INTRODUCTION

The formyl radical, HCO₂, is a seemingly simple species which has resisted experimental and theoretical characterization. Although emission spectra have been reported which were attributed to HCO₂ fluorescence, there has been no definitive identification of this species in the gas phase. This is in contrast to the more stable HOCO isomer, which has been observed in both matrix isolation spectroscopy¹ and gas phase transient absorption.²⁻⁴ Both species are of interest as reactive intermediates on the potential energy surface for the reaction OH+CO→H+CO₂. The HCO₂ radical poses a considerable challenge to *ab initio* theory because it has several low-lying electronic states which are sufficiently close so that even the assignment of the ground electronic state depends on the level of the calculation. Moreover, the HCO₂ radical is a classic "symmetry-breaking" species which undergoes distortion from a C_{2v} to a C_s structure if the calculation is not done at a sufficiently high level. In this paper, we use photoelectron spectroscopy of the formate anion, HCO₂⁻, to achieve the first definitive experimental observation of the HCO₂ radical as well as a detailed characterization of its low-lying electronic states.

Style and Ward⁵ reported the first observation of HCO₂ in 1952. In their experiment, formic acid was photoexcited with broadband vacuum ultraviolet light and one of the resulting emission bands was assigned to HCO₂; the band system extends from 330 to 440 nm with a characteristic spacing of 1130 cm⁻¹. Similar bands have been observed more recently by Suto *et al.*⁶ following excitation of formic acid with synchrotron radiation at 123.9 nm. Tuckley and co-workers⁷ performed low-level SCF molecular orbital calculations on the electronic states of HCO₂ and found several possible transitions in the range of the observed emission

bands. On the other hand, Lee and Pimentel⁸ observed chemiluminescence from the cryogenic reaction between CH₂ and O₂ in a matrix from 390 to 490 nm in which the lower state vibrational frequency was approximately 1125 cm⁻¹. This was tentatively assigned to the A'¹A'-A¹A'' transition of formic acid, implying that formic acid rather than HCO₂ was responsible for the emission band seen in Refs. 5 and 6.

McDonald and Sloan⁹ found that the F+DCOOH reaction yielded both HF and DF products, suggesting that both the HOCO and DCO₂ radicals were being formed. In a photoionization mass spectrometry study by Ruscic *et al.*¹⁰ in which the same reaction scheme was used to generate the radicals, only CO₂ and the HOCO radical was observed. This was the first observation of HOCO in the gas phase, and the ionization potential of this species showed that it was stable with respect to H+CO₂ by 10.2±0.6 kcal/mol. However, the results of this study indicated that the nascent H(D)CO₂ radical formed from this reaction rapidly decomposed to H+CO₂. From this work it was not possible to conclude whether HCO₂ was thermodynamically unstable with respect to H+CO₂, or if instead the nascent HCO₂ from the F atom reaction was simply formed with sufficient energy to dissociate. Ruscic *et al.* point out that photodetachment of HCO₂⁻ would be a good way to better characterize the HCO₂ radical.

In contrast to the dearth of experimental information on HCO₂, there have been numerous *ab initio* studies of this species. Two interesting features of this radical make it a particularly interesting species from the perspective of *ab initio* calculations. First, in C_{2v} symmetry, three relatively low-lying electronic states of the HCO₂ are predicted, the ²A₁, ²B₂, and ²A₂ states. These result from single occupation of the 6a₁, 4b₂, or 1a₂ molecular orbitals, all of which are shown in Fig. 1. The predicted splittings and energy ordering of the states depends strongly on the level of theory, even for quite sophisticated calculations. For example, a multireference configuration interaction (MRD-CI) calculation by Peyrimhoff *et al.*¹¹ predicts the ²B₂ state to be the ground state, followed by the ²A₁ state (0.312 eV) and the ²A₂ state (0.436 eV). Feller *et al.*¹² investigated HCO₂ in a multiconfiguration self-consistent field/configuration interaction (MCSCF/CI)

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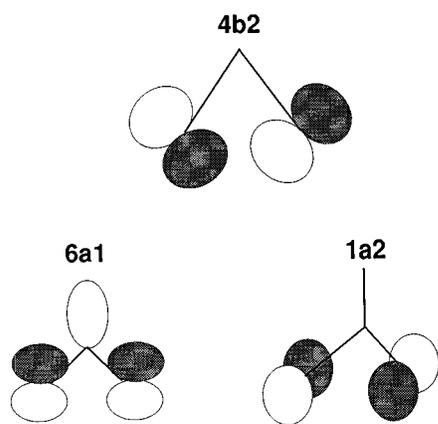


FIG. 1. The $6a_1$, $4b_2$, and $1a_2$ molecular orbitals in HCO₂⁻.

calculation, finding the 2B_2 state to be the ground state with the 2A_1 and 2A_2 states lying above it by 0.16 eV and 0.24 eV, respectively. In contrast, Rauk *et al.*¹³ found the 2A_1 state to be the ground state at the MP2/6-311G(*D,P*) level of theory, with the 2B_2 state lying 0.15 eV higher. This ordering was reversed for higher level calculations [MP4, G2, and QCISD(T)], but the authors concluded that the ground vibrational levels of the two states are nearly degenerate because of the lower zero-point energy of the 2A_1 state.

A second point of interest arises because, depending on the level of theory, one finds C_s structures formed by distortion along the OCO antisymmetric stretch to lie lower in energy than the corresponding C_{2v} states. At the MCSCF level, for example, Feller *et al.*¹² find that a ${}^2A'$ C_s structure is lower than both the 2B_2 and 2A_1 states (both of which have A' symmetry in the C_s point group), and a ${}^2A''$ structure lies below the 2A_2 state. The inclusion of configuration interaction changes this picture considerably, destabilizing both C_s states so that the ${}^2A'$ state lies between the 2B_2 and 2A_1 states, and the ${}^2A''$ state lies above the 2A_2 state. McLean and co-workers¹⁴ have carried out a thorough study of this symmetry-breaking phenomenon, and have found that with a sufficiently sophisticated basis, one predicts C_{2v} equilibrium geometries for the 2B_2 and 2A_2 states even at the MCSCF level of theory; they did not consider the 2A_1 state in their calculation. Symmetry-breaking also complicates the calculation of vibrational frequencies; this has been discussed by McLean¹⁴ and Burton *et al.*¹⁵

The HCO₂ radical is also of interest as an intermediate on the potential energy surface for the reaction OH+CO→H+CO₂. This system has been the subject of extensive experimental and theoretical interest in recent years. The kinetics of the OH+CO (Refs. 16–20) and H+CO₂ (Ref. 21) reactions have been extensively studied, along with more detailed dynamics studies of the forward²² and reverse^{23–25} reactions. Frequency and time-resolved studies in which the H+CO₂ is initiated by photolysis of a van der Waals cluster have provided further insight into the reaction dynamics.^{26,27} Several studies of H+CO₂ inelastic scattering have also been carried out.²⁸ The unusual temperature dependence of the OH+CO reaction rate led to the proposal of a

reaction mechanism involving a relatively stable HOCO complex,^{16(a)} and calculations on the dynamics of the forward and reverse reaction^{29–31} confirm that this complex plays a key role. The role of the HCO₂ radical is less clear; the potential energy surfaces used in the calculations predict sizable barriers both for the addition of H to CO₂ to form HCO₂ and for the decomposition of this radical to OH+CO, leading to the conclusion that this radical does not play a major role in the reaction dynamics. However, given that a change of a few kcal/mol in barrier heights would alter this conclusion, it is clear that experimental information on the spectroscopy and energetics of the HCO₂ radical would aid in assessing its role in the OH+CO reaction.

In this paper, photoelectron spectroscopy of HCO₂⁻ and DCO₂⁻ is used to probe the HCO₂ radical. Studies of polycrystalline NaHCO₂ by x-ray diffraction³² and vibrational spectroscopy³³ show the anion to have C_{2v} symmetry; this is supported by *ab initio* calculations.³⁴ Thus the C_{2v} form of the radical will be accessible via photodetachment of the anion. Moreover, the anion is a closed shell species with molecular orbital configuration ...($1a_2$)²($4b_2$)²($6a_1$)², so all three low-lying states of the HCO₂ radical (the 2A_1 , 2B_2 , and 2A_2 states) can be reached by one electron photodetachment transitions. Our experiment yields vibrationally resolved spectra for all three neutral electronic states. To aid in understanding the spectra, we have performed *ab initio* calculations on the anion and three neutral electronic states. The assignment of bands in the spectra to specific anion→neutral electronic transitions is aided both by these calculations and by differences in the HCO₂⁻ and DCO₂⁻ spectra. We find that the 2A_1 and 2B_2 states are nearly degenerate, with the 2A_2 state lying 0.53 eV above the 2A_1 state. The complexity of the spectra in the region of the 2A_1 and 2B_2 states suggests strong vibronic coupling between these states. We also report the electron affinity of HCO₂; from this and other known thermodynamic quantities, the energetics of HCO₂ with respect to H+CO₂ can be obtained to assess its role in the global potential surface.

II. EXPERIMENTAL METHODS

The photoelectron spectra of HCO₂⁻ and DCO₂⁻ are taken on a negative ion time of flight photoelectron spectrometer described in detail previously.³⁵ HCO₂⁻ is generated by bubbling NF₃ over formic acid, passing the resulting gas mixture through a pulsed molecular beam valve, and crossing the molecular beam with 1 keV electron beam. The formate ion is most likely formed from dissociative attachment of NF₃ by slow secondary electrons, NF₃+e⁻→NF₂+F⁻, followed by the proton transfer reaction F⁻+HCOOH→HF+HCOO⁻. The ions are extracted with a pulsed electric field and injected into a Wiley–McLaren-type time-of-flight mass spectrometer. After acceleration by 1 keV, ions separate according to their masses and are detected by a microchannel plate detector. Ions of the desired mass are photodetached just before the ion detector with a pulsed, linearly polarized Nd:Yag laser, and a small fraction of these photoelectrons are detected at the end of a 1 m long flight tube by a 70 mm diam dual microchannel plate detector. The time-of-flight distribution of the detached electrons is recorded

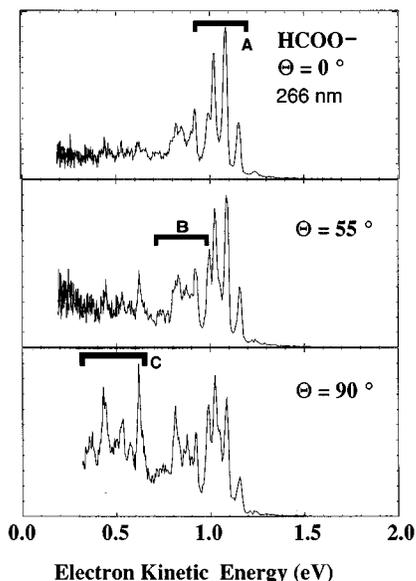


FIG. 2. Photoelectron spectra of HCO₂⁻ at 266 nm ($h\nu=4.66$ eV) for three laser polarization angles Θ .

and converted to the center-of-mass electron kinetic energy (eKE) distribution. The resolution of the spectrometer is 10 meV for 0.65 eV electrons and degrades as $(\text{eKE})^{3/2}$ at higher kinetic energies.

In these experiments, photoelectron spectra were taken with the fourth and fifth harmonics of Nd:YAG laser at 266 nm (4.66 eV) and 213 nm (5.822 eV), respectively, as well with 299 nm (4.147 eV) light which was generated by Raman shifting 266 nm laser pulses in high pressure H₂. The spectra presented here are averaged for approximately 700 000 laser shots. At each wavelength, the laser polarization could be rotated so that the photoelectron spectrum could be measured at various values of θ , the angle between the electric vector of the laser radiation and the direction of electron detection. The photoelectron differential cross section depends on the laser polarization angle according to³⁶

$$\frac{d\sigma}{d\Omega} = \frac{\sigma_{\text{total}}}{4\pi} [1 + \beta(E) \cdot P_2(\cos \Theta)], \quad (1)$$

where $-1 \leq \beta \leq 2$. The experimental spectra presented in this paper are obtained at three different values of θ , 0°, 54.7°, and 90°. $P_2(\cos \theta)$ is zero at $\theta=54.7^\circ$, the “magic angle,” at which the cross section no longer depends on $\beta(E)$. Since β is often different for different anion→neutral electronic transitions, a variation of relative peak intensities with θ is a strong indication of overlapping electronic transitions. This type of measurement is very useful in analyzing the photoelectron spectrum of HCO₂⁻.

III. RESULTS AND ANALYSIS

A. Experimental results

The photoelectron spectra of HCO₂⁻ and DCO₂⁻ obtained at 266 nm are shown in Figs. 2 and 3. Each figure shows spectra obtained at three different values of the laser polarization angle θ . Additional spectra taken at 299 nm and 213

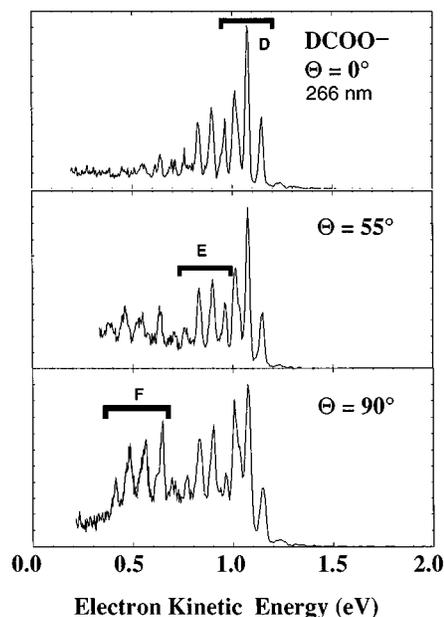


FIG. 3. Photoelectron spectra of DCO₂⁻ at 266 nm ($h\nu=4.66$ eV) for three laser polarization angles Θ .

nm are shown in Figs. 4 and 5, respectively. In all spectra, the electron kinetic energies (eKEs) are related to internal energies of the neutral species by the following expression:

$$\text{eKE} = h\nu - EA - T_0^n + T_0^- - E_v^n + E_v^- . \quad (2)$$

In Eq. (2), $h\nu$ is the laser photon energy, EA is the electron affinity of the neutral species, T_0^n and T_0^- are the term values of the neutral and anion electronic states, respectively, while E_v^n and E_v^- are the vibrational energies of the neutral and anion states.

In Fig. 2, each spectrum of HCO₂⁻ shows three characteristic regions marked A, B, and C. Region A is dominated

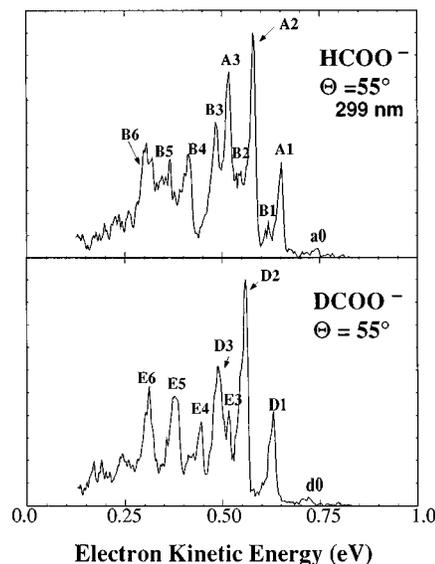


FIG. 4. Photoelectron spectra of HCO₂⁻ and DCO₂⁻ at 299 nm ($h\nu=4.147$ eV), $\Theta=55^\circ$.

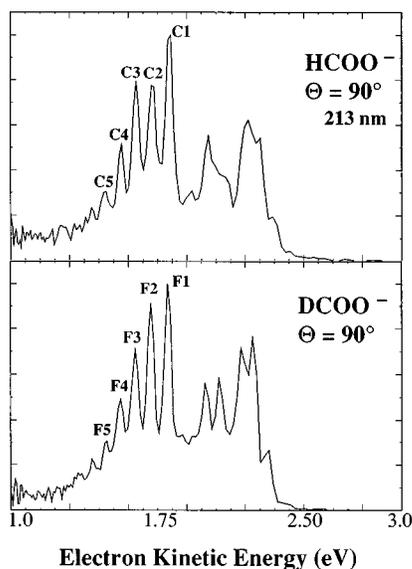


FIG. 5. Photoelectron spectra of HCO_2^- and DCO_2^- at 213 nm ($h\nu=5.822$ eV), $\Theta=90^\circ$.

by three peaks spaced by about 600 cm^{-1} . The peak spacing in region B is quite irregular, while in region C a progression with a characteristic peak spacing of about 700 cm^{-1} is seen, although the intensity profile is irregular. The relative intensities of the peaks in the three regions change markedly with θ . At $\theta=0^\circ$, region A is the most intense, but regions B and C grow in intensity as θ is rotated towards 90° . This intensity dependence suggests that three different anion \rightarrow neutral electronic transitions contribute to the spectra.

The DCO_2^- spectra in Fig. 3 also consist of three distinct sets of peaks, labeled D, E, and F, whose intensity dependence upon laser polarization mirrors that of regions A, B, and C in Fig. 2. Although features in regions A and D look similar, region E in the DCO_2^- spectra appears far more regular than the corresponding region B in the HCO_2^- spectra. This is also true for regions C and F, but to a lesser extent. The peaks in the region F are shifted by 10 meV toward higher eKE relative to the peaks in the region C.

The spectra in Fig. 4 at 299 nm show regions A and B in the HCO_2^- spectrum and regions D and E in the DCO_2^- spectra in more detail. Since the photon energy is lower than in Figs. 2 and 3, the electrons have less kinetic energy and the

TABLE I. Peak positions for 4.147 eV HCO_2^- spectrum.

Peak	Position (eV)
a0	0.740
B1	0.620
A1	0.650
A2	0.579
B2	0.547
A3	0.519
B3	0.484
B4	0.420
B5	0.356
B6	0.310

TABLE II. Peak positions for 4.147 eV DCO_2^- spectrum.

Peak	Position (eV)
d0	0.720
D1	0.630
D2	0.557
E3	0.514
D3	0.489
E4	0.443
E5	0.379
E6	0.311

resolution of the spectrometer is improved. The HCO_2^- spectrum exhibits two progressions in which the peak spacings are approximately constant. Peaks A1–A3 represent the more obvious progression; the A1–A2 and A2–A3 spacings are 570 and 490 cm^{-1} , respectively. The spectrum at lower eKE appears to consist of several overlapping transitions, but the four most prominent peaks labeled B3–B6 are spaced by about 550 cm^{-1} . Two smaller peaks at higher eKE, B1, and B2, appear to be part of this progression; they show the same laser polarization dependence (not shown) as peaks B3–B6 and their spacing is approximately correct. Peak positions for these two progressions are listed in Table I, along with the small peak a0, which lies 730 cm^{-1} towards higher eKE than A1. The DCO_2^- spectrum also shows two progressions. Peaks D1–D3 correspond to peaks A1–A3 in the HCO_2^- spectrum, and peaks E3–E6 correspond to peaks B3–B6. Table II lists the peak positions for the DCO_2^- spectrum.

A comparison between the two spectra in Fig. 4 shows that the peak spacings in the two progressions are relatively insensitive to isotopic substitution. Instead, the positions of all the peaks in a progression shift by approximately the same amount. Peaks D1–D3 are shifted 20 meV towards lower eKE relative to peaks A1–A3, whereas peaks E3–E6 are shifted 25 meV, on the average, towards higher eKE relative to peaks B3–B6. These isotope shifts will provide very useful in assigning the progressions to particular electronic transitions.

Figure 5 shows the photoelectron spectra of HCO_2^- and DCO_2^- taken at 213 nm. Although the resolution is worse compared to the spectra at lower photon energies, the spectra in Fig. 5 show a more complete picture of regions C and F, corresponding to the highest energy anion \rightarrow neutral electronic transition. The spectra show that for both isotopes, this region is dominated by a single progression of peaks separated by $700\pm 50\text{ cm}^{-1}$. The peak positions in the regions C and F are listed in Tables III and IV.

TABLE III. Peak positions for 5.822 eV HCO_2^- spectrum.

Peak	Position
C1	1.790
C2	1.705
C3	1.619
C4	1.544
C5	1.459

TABLE IV. Peak positions for 5.822 eV DCO₂⁻ spectrum.

Peak	Position
F1	1.800
F2	1.714
F3	1.639
F4	1.559
F5	1.489

The dependence of the peak intensities upon laser polarization implies that regions A, B, and C in the HCO₂⁻ spectra and corresponding regions in the DCO₂⁻ spectra are due to three different anion→neutral electronic transitions. The transitions responsible for regions A and B appear to be partially overlapped, while the transition responsible for region C is reasonably well-separated from the other two. As discussed in the Introduction, the ground state of the anion is a closed shell ¹A₁ state, whereas the open-shell radical is predicted to have three low-lying electronic states, the ²A₁, ²B₂, and ²A₂ states. We therefore assign the three electronic transitions seen in the photoelectron spectra to transitions between the anion ground state and these three states of the radical. A more specific assignment of each band to a particular electronic transition requires that we compare our experimental band origins, vibrational frequencies, intensity distributions, and isotope shifts with the results of *ab initio* calculations. We have carried out our own calculations on the anion and neutral to facilitate this comparison, and the results are given in the next section.

B. *Ab initio* calculations

In order to assign and simulate our photoelectron spectra, we require a set of geometries, vibrational frequencies, and force constants for the anion and the three neutral states. We have carried out calculations on HCO₂⁻ and HCO₂ at the Hartree–Fock (HF) and second order Møller–Plesset (MP2) levels of theory with the standard 6-31++G** basis set using GAUSSIAN 92 and CADPAC *ab initio* packages; this is similar to the basis set that used by Rauk *et al.*¹³ in their study of HCO₂, although some of their calculations were performed at a higher level of theory. In all calculations, the anion and neutral were constrained to have C_{2v} symmetry. Fully optimized geometry and frequencies were calculated for HCO₂⁻ and the ²A₁ and ²B₂ states of HCO₂ at the MP2 level. All frequencies were found to be real, indicating that our geometries for the neutral states correspond at least to local minima; we did not search for minima corresponding to symmetry-broken C_s structures. All frequencies for the ²A₂ state were found to be real at the UHF level of theory, but at the MP2 level, the ν₅ OCO antisymmetric stretch was found to be imaginary. The calculated anion geometries and energetics are listed in Table V, whereas those for the three neutral states are given in Table VI. (For the ²A₂ state, the optimized geometry is from the MP2 calculation while the frequencies are from the UHF calculation.) Table VII lists the calculated anion and neutral vibrational frequencies. Figure 6 shows the six normal modes calculated using the force constants obtained for HCO₂⁻.

TABLE V. *Ab initio* calculated and experimental geometries of HCO₂⁻.

	R _{CO} (Å)	R _{CH} (Å)	∠OCO (°)
HCOO ⁻ (HF)	1.234	1.119	130.4
HCOO ⁻ (MP2)	1.267	1.125	130.2
Expt ^a	1.246	1.106	126.4 ^a

^aNa⁺ HCOO⁻ crystal structure in Ref. 33.

Tables V and VII also include experimental values for the geometry and frequencies of HCO₂⁻. The experimental frequencies of the anion were detected and assigned from the infrared and Raman spectra of polycrystalline sodium salts, and the experimental geometry from x-ray diffraction.^{33,34} The agreement between experimental and calculated frequencies is reasonable, with the largest discrepancy being 75 cm⁻¹ for the ν₁ mode. The experimental C–O and C–H bond lengths and ∠OCO are slightly different from the calculated values at MP2 level. Although this may result from inadequacies in the calculation, it is more likely to be from distortion of the formate ion in the crystal structure from nearby sodium ions.

Table VI shows that at our level of calculation, the ²A₁ state is predicted to be the ground state, followed by the ²B₂ state at 0.09 eV and the ²A₂ state at 1.18 eV. This is the same energy ordering predicted by Rauk *et al.*¹³ at the MP2 level, and our level spacings are in reasonable agreement as well. However, given the small energy difference between the ²A₁ and ²B₂ states, and the sensitivity of the calculated energy ordering to the level of theory used,¹³ one might expect difficulties in determining the true ground state as well as in assigning experimental bands to a particular transition. These issues are discussed further below.

A comparison of the equilibrium geometries in Tables V and VI shows that ∠OCO is the parameter that varies the most in the anion and three neutral states. Also, the C–H bond is considerably longer in the ²A₁ state than in the anion and the other neutral states. These geometry changes can be understood by elementary molecular orbital considerations. Figure 1 shows that the 4b₂ and 2a₂ orbitals have electron density mainly on the in-plane and out-of-plane O atom p-orbitals, respectively. Both orbitals are antibonding between the two O atoms, but the antibonding interaction in the 4b₂ orbital is considerably stronger. On the other hand, the 6a₁ orbital is C–H bonding and O–O bonding. Thus, photo-detachment of the anion [...(1a₂)²(4b₂)²(6a₁)²] to form the ²B₂ and ²A₂ states should result in a smaller OCO bond angle, with a larger change in forming the ²B₂ state. Photo-detachment to the ²A₁ state should yield a longer C–H bond

TABLE VI. *Ab initio* calculated geometries for HCO₂ electronic states at MP2/6-31++G** level of theory.

	R _{CO} (Å)	R _{CH} (Å)	∠OCO (°)	E (eV)
¹ A ₁	1.236	1.158	145.9	0.000
² B ₂	1.262	1.089	111.3	0.092
² A ₂	1.262	1.092	121.7	1.184

TABLE VIII. Vibrational frequencies of DCO₂ and DCO₂⁻.^a

DCOO	$\omega_1(a_1)$	$\omega_2(a_1)$	$\omega_3(a_1)$	$\omega_4(b_1)$	$\omega_5(b_2)$	$\omega_6(b_2)$
² A ₁ (MP2)	1708	1205	658	752	2401	1057
² B ₂ (MP2)	2386	1470	654	965	2199	973
² A ₂ (UHF)	2506	1377	727	824	1119	955
DCOO ⁻ (MP2)	2015	1320	723	907	1668	1037

^aAll values in cm⁻¹.

C and F in the HCO₂⁻ and DCO₂⁻ spectra should be assigned to transitions to the ²A₂ state, whereas regions (A,B) and (D,E) are partially overlapped transitions to the lower-lying ²A₁ and ²B₂ states. This assignment of regions C and F is supported by the calculated vibrational frequencies and geometry changes. Since there is a large change in the ∠OCO bond angle between the anion and each neutral state, the ν_3 mode corresponding to the totally symmetric CO₂ bend should be active in transitions to all three states. The peak spacings in regions C and F are 710 cm⁻¹, this is in good agreement with the calculated ω_3 value for the ²A₂ state (733 cm⁻¹) but higher than the calculated values for the ²A₁ and ²B₂ states (664 and 660 cm⁻¹, respectively).

We next turn to regions A and B. The most prominent pattern in this region is the set of three peaks A1–A3, for which the average spacing is 530 cm⁻¹. This is quite close to the calculated ω_3 values for the ²A₁ and ²B₂ states, indicating that these peaks represent a progression in the ν_3 mode of one of these states. While one cannot make an assignment to one state or the other based on the frequencies alone, recall that peaks A1–A3 shift by 20 meV towards lower electron kinetic energy upon deuteration. The ²A₁ state is the only one for which the origin is predicted by the *ab initio* frequencies to shift in that direction, indicating that peaks A1–A3 should be assigned to the ²A₁ state. Peak A1 is assigned to the origin of this band. Thus, if the ²A₁ state is the ground state of HCO₂ (see below), the electron affinity of HCO₂ is 3.498 ± 0.010 eV. Peak a0, which has the same polarization dependence as peaks A1–A3, lies 730 cm⁻¹ from peak A1, and its intensity was observed to change with source conditions. We therefore assign it to a hot band transition originating from the $\nu_3=1$ level of the anion; this gives an anion frequency of 730 cm⁻¹ for the ν_3 mode, in excellent agreement with the calculated value of ω_3 for HCO₂⁻ in Table VII.

Peaks B3–B6 in region B are spaced by about 550 cm⁻¹ and shift to higher electron kinetic energy upon deuteration. We therefore assign them to a bending (ν_3) progression in the ²B₂ state. The origin of this progression is not obvious from inspection, although peaks B1 and B2 appear to be part of the same progression. The irregular appearance of region B is most likely due, at least in part, to transitions to vibrationally excited levels of the ²A₁ state which overlap B3–B6. Tables V and VI show that the C–H bond is noticeably longer in the ²A₁ state than in the anion, while the C–O bond is considerably shorter, so Franck–Condon activity in the high frequency ν_1 and ν_2 modes is expected. It is clear that a more quantitative analysis is required to characterize region B and the ²B₂ state; such an analysis is carried out in the following section.

From the assignments thus far, the splitting between the ²A₁ and ²A₂ states is given by the separation between peaks A1 and C1, 0.53 eV. This is significantly smaller than the splitting of ~1 eV calculated by us and by Rauk *et al.*,¹³ but it is close to the ²B₂–²A₂ splitting of 0.40 eV calculated by McLean.¹⁴ The subsequent analysis shows that the origins of the ²A₁ and ²B₂ states are very close, so our results support McLean's claim that a sophisticated multiconfiguration treatment is needed to accurately predict term values for the electronic states of HCO₂.

B. Spectral simulations

In this section, the HCO₂⁻ and DCO₂⁻ photoelectron spectra will be simulated using a Franck–Condon analysis. This should yield more detailed peak assignments as well as information about the change in geometry of HCO₂⁻ upon electron detachment. In these simulations, one assumes the electronic transition probability is constant for a given band, and that the relative intensity of a transition between an anion vibrational level v'' and neutral level v' transition is given by the Franck–Condon factor (FCF), $[C(v',v'')]^2$, where

$$C(v',v'') = \int \psi_{v'}(\mathbf{Q}') \psi_{v''}(\mathbf{Q}'') d\mathbf{Q}' \quad (4)$$

Here $\psi_{v'}(\mathbf{Q}')$ is the multidimensional vibrational wave function of the neutral in quantum state v' as a function of the mass-weighted normal coordinates of the neutral \mathbf{Q}' and $\psi_{v''}(\mathbf{Q}'')$ is the corresponding vibrational wave function of the anion terms of its normal coordinates \mathbf{Q}'' .

The normal coordinates \mathbf{Q} of the anion and neutral are related to the mass-weighted Cartesian displacement coordinates \mathbf{q} by³⁷

$$\mathbf{q}' = \mathbf{L}'\mathbf{Q}', \quad \mathbf{q}'' = \mathbf{L}''\mathbf{Q}'' \quad (5)$$

For a given anion or neutral electronic state, the columns of the matrix \mathbf{L} are the eigenvectors of the Cartesian force constant matrix. To evaluate the integral in Eq. (4), one requires the transformation between the normal coordinates of the anion and neutral states. This is given by^{38,39}

$$\mathbf{Q}'' = \mathbf{J}''\mathbf{Q}' + \mathbf{K}'' \quad (6)$$

The vector \mathbf{K}'' is given by

$$\mathbf{K}'' = \mathbf{L}''^T \mathbf{M}^{1/2} (\mathbf{R}'_{\text{eq}} - \mathbf{R}''_{\text{eq}}) \quad (7)$$

Here \mathbf{R}'_{eq} and \mathbf{R}''_{eq} are the equilibrium geometries of the neutral and anion, respectively, in Cartesian coordinates, so $\mathbf{K}'' = (\Delta Q''_1, \Delta Q''_2, \dots)$ is the displacement vector between the

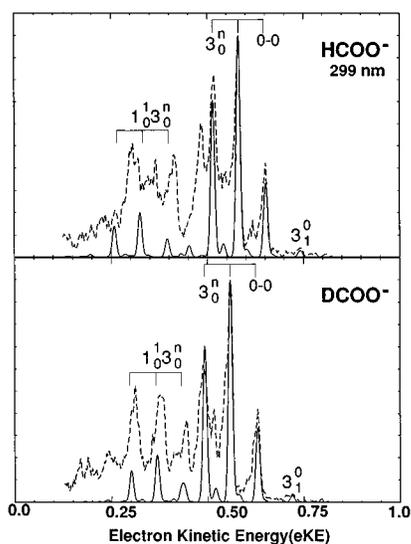


FIG. 8. Simulated photoelectron spectra (solid line) to 2A_1 state of HCO₂ and DCO₂ Morse function for Q_3 mode (all others harmonic). The simulations are superimposed on the experimental spectra.

the two states. Figures 8 and 9 show the simulated contributions from the 2A_1 and 2B_2 states, respectively, and Fig. 10 shows the summed contributions from the two states. The simulations of the individual electronic states are the result of multiple iterations in which the goal was to reproduce the experimental spectrum when the two simulations were summed. Tables IX and X show the parameters used to generate these simulations. Figure 10 shows that most of the major features in the experimental spectra are reproduced in the simulations, but the fit is far from perfect. This figure

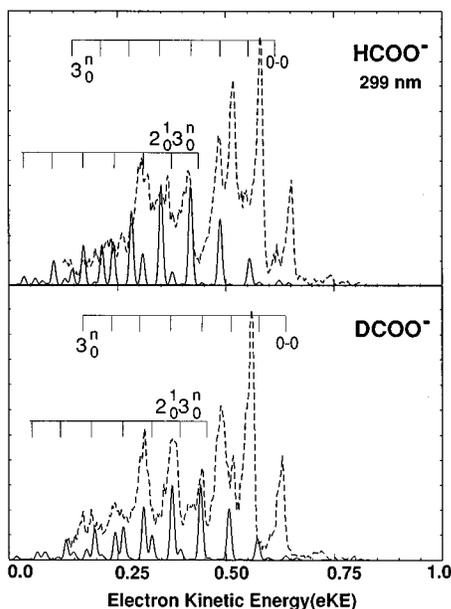


FIG. 9. Simulated photoelectron spectra (solid lines) to 2B_2 state of HCO₂ and DCO₂ assuming all modes harmonic. The simulations are superimposed on the experimental spectra (dashed line).

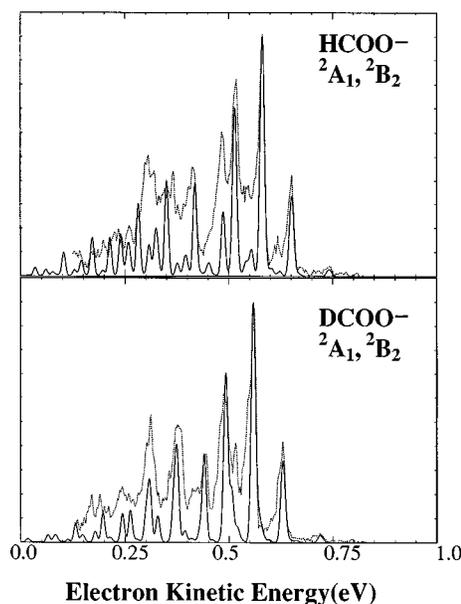


FIG. 10. Sum of simulations in Figs. 8 and 9 (solid line) superimposed on experimental spectra (dashed line).

also shows that it is easier to reproduce the DCO₂⁻ spectrum than the HCO₂⁻ spectrum. The discrepancies between experiment and simulation are of considerable interest and will be discussed in more detail below.

Figure 8 shows that in the simulated contribution from the 2A_1 state, the most intense peaks are from the 3_0^n progression, as discussed above. Clearly, the fit to the experimental progression is much improved compared to Fig. 7. At lower kinetic energy, there is a less intense progression (starting at 0.44 eV in the HCO₂⁻ spectrum) in the bend mode in which one quantum of the ν_1 mode is excited, the $1_0^1 3_0^n$ progression. Some activity in the ν_2 mode is also seen. The $1_0^1 3_0^n$ progression lines up reasonably well with the peaks in the experimental DCO₂⁻ spectrum between 0.25 and 0.5 eV, but the correspondence with the HCO₂⁻ spectrum is not nearly as clear. A comparison of Tables VII and IX shows that the frequencies used in the simulation are close to the *ab initio* frequencies for the 2A_1 state. From the ΔQ_i values in Table

TABLE IX. Parameters used for simulations of HCO₂⁻ photoelectron spectra.

$T=400$ K (anion)	2A_1	2B_2	2A_2
ω_3 (cm ⁻¹)	613	550	715
$\omega_3 x_3$ (cm ⁻¹)	20
$\Delta Q_3''$ (amu ^{1/2} Å, simulation) ^a	-0.460	+0.700	+0.260
ω_2 (cm ⁻¹)	1200	1450	1330
$\Delta Q_2''$ (simulation) ^a	+0.200	+0.165	+0.165
ω_1 (cm ⁻¹)	2038	3211	3160
$\Delta Q_1''$ (simulation)	-0.080	+0.034	+0.060
ω_5	2180	2235	...
ω_6	1420	1298	...
relative integrated areas	1.3	1.0	...
T_0 (eV)	0.00	0.027	0.536

^aFor 2B_2 and 2A_2 , a parallel mode approximation was made, i.e., $\Delta Q_i' = -\Delta Q_i''$ and $J''=E$, the unit matrix; for 2A_1 , $|\Delta Q_{i=2,3}'| \neq |\Delta Q_{i=2,3}''|$ due to Duschinsky rotation, and the listed values are in terms of $\Delta Q_{i=2,3}'$.

TABLE X. Parameters used for simulations of DCO₂⁻ photoelectron spectra.

	² A ₁	² B ₂	² A ₂
<i>T</i> =400 K (anion)			
ω_3 (cm ⁻¹)	620	530	710
$\omega_3 x_3$ (cm ⁻¹)	20
$\Delta Q_3'$ (amu ^{1/2} Å, simulation)	-0.460	+0.700	+0.275
ω_2 (cm ⁻¹)	1200	1440	1300
$\Delta Q_2'$ (simulation) ^a	0.200	+0.165	+0.145
ω_1 (cm ⁻¹)	1550	2390	2375
$\Delta Q_1'$ (simulation)	-0.080	+0.045	+0.090
ω_5	1520	2180	...
ω_6	1080	970	...
relative integrated areas	1.6	1.0	...
<i>T</i> ₀ (eV)	0.008	0.00	0.510

^aFor ²B₂ and ²A₂, a parallel mode approximation was made, i.e., $\Delta Q_i' = -\Delta Q_i''$ and $J''=E$, the unit matrix; for ²A₁, $|\Delta Q_{i=2,3}'| \neq |\Delta Q_{i=2,3}''|$ due to Duschinsky rotation, and the listed values are in terms of $\Delta Q_{i=2,3}''$.

IX, and assuming the MP2 geometry for the anion to be correct, we obtain the ²A₁ state geometry; $R_{\text{CH}}=1.15\pm 0.03$ Å, $R_{\text{CO}}=1.24\pm 0.03$ Å, and $\angle\text{OCO}=144\pm 1^\circ$. This agrees well with the calculated geometry in Table VI.

Note that the sign of ΔQ_i is undetermined if both the anion and neutral vibrational modes are assumed to be harmonic oscillators; one actually uses the *ab initio* results as a guide to determine the direction of the bond length and bond angle displacements between the anion and neutral, and from this we determine the signs of the ΔQ_i in Table IX. The ΔQ_i refer to the displacement of the anion relative to the neutral, and the arrows in Fig. 6 show the nuclear displacements corresponding to positive ΔQ_i for each of the six normal modes. When a Morse potential is used, as is the case for the ν_3 mode, one can also determine whether photodetachment of the anion accesses the repulsive side or the “softer” side of the neutral Morse potential. Our simulations show that the latter is the case; the simulated 3_0^n progression is much more extended if the anion is displaced towards the repulsive wall of the neutral potential. Moreover, from the *ab initio* calculations, the $\angle\text{OCO}$ should be smaller in the anion than in the ²A₁ state, corresponding to a negative ΔQ_3 according to Fig. 6. Hence, our simulations indicate that the Morse potential for the ²A₁ state softens as the bond angle decreases and the C–H bond becomes shorter. This somewhat counterintuitive result is discussed in more detail below.

The simulated ²B₂ spectrum in Fig. 9 consists mainly of an extended 3_0^n progression, along with a less intense $2_0^1 3_0^n$ progression. The ν_3 frequency in the simulation is 550 cm⁻¹, considerably lower than our *ab initio* value of 660 cm⁻¹. The extended ν_3 progression is consistent with expectations; ΔQ_3 is 0.805 amu^{1/2} Å in the simulation vs 0.700 amu^{1/2} Å from our *ab initio* calculation. Using the *ab initio* force constant matrix and these displacements, the following geometry is obtained for the ²B₂ state: $R_{\text{CH}}=1.09\pm 0.05$ Å, $R_{\text{CO}}=1.28\pm 0.05$ Å, and $\angle\text{OCO}=112\pm 3^\circ$. Since the agreement between the observed frequencies and calculated frequencies are not good for this state, the *ab initio* force constants used in the **L** matrix [Eq. (6a)] are not as accurate as for the ²A₁ state, and the uncertainty in the calculation of the geometry is larger. The extended progression combined with the overlapped ²A₁ state at high electron kinetic energy makes it

difficult to pick out the origin of the ²B₂ state. In our simulation, it lies only 0.027 eV above the origin of the ²A₁ state in the HCO₂⁻ spectrum. Hence, the adiabatic electron affinity of HCO₂, which we find to be 3.498 ± 0.015 eV, corresponds to the energy difference between the anion and the ²A₁ state. However, the zero point energy differences between the two neutral states are sufficiently large so that in DCO₂, the ²B₂ state is actually slightly 0.012 eV lower than the ²A₁ state. According to our assignment, the adiabatic electron affinity of DCO₂, 3.510 eV, refers to the energy difference between the anion and the ²B₂ state.

The simulations in Figs. 8 and 9 offer a clearer picture of the isotope effects that cause the experimental HCO₂⁻ and DCO₂⁻ spectra look so different in regions B and E, between 0.5 and 0.25 eV. The $1_0^1 3_0^n$ progression is quite intense in the ²A₁ simulation, and it occurs at considerably higher electron kinetic energy in the DCO₂⁻ spectrum because the frequency of the ν_1 mode is significantly lower in DCO₂. In addition, because of the zero point effects discussed previously, the origins of the ²A₁ states and ²B₂ states shift in opposite directions upon deuteration (towards lower and higher electron kinetic energy, respectively). The result is that in the DCO₂⁻ spectrum, several peaks from the ²A₁ and ²B₂ states are approximately superimposed in region E, yielding a set of evenly spaced but somewhat broad peaks. In region B of the HCO₂⁻ spectrum, the corresponding transitions are far enough apart to appear as partially resolved peaks, leading to an irregular appearance of the spectrum in this energy region.

We now consider some of the problems with the simulation in Fig. 10. The major one is that many of the peaks in the experimental spectrum are not reproduced in the simulation, particularly between 0.25 and 0.5 eV. A likely cause for this is vibronic coupling between the ²A₁ and ²B₂ states. The calculations by Peyerimhoff¹¹ and Feller¹² predict a conical intersection between these two states at $\angle\text{OCO}\cong 130^\circ$, very close to our calculated value for the anion geometry. Hence, photodetachment should probe the two neutral states in the region of their conical intersection, where effects due to vibronic coupling should be most intense.

The primary effect of this interaction is that vibrational levels of either state with the same vibronic symmetry can perturb each other, leading to intensity borrowing effects and the appearance of more peaks in the photoelectron spectrum. For example, odd Δv transitions in nontotally symmetric vibrational modes are generally forbidden in electronic spectroscopy, but these transitions can occur if there is mixing with a totally symmetric mode in another electronic state. Thus, b_2 vibrational levels of the ²B₂ state, such as those in which ν_5 or $\nu_6=1$, would normally have zero Franck–Condon overlap with the ground vibrational level of the anion. However, these levels have A_1 vibronic symmetry, and therefore interact with a_1 vibrational levels of the ²A₁ state, leading to a nonzero transition probability from the anion ground state. Similarly, b_2 vibrational levels of the ²A₁ state have B_2 vibronic symmetry and can be mixed with a_1 vibrational levels of the ²B₂ state. Vibronic coupling can therefore significantly increase the number of peaks seen in the experimental photoelectron spectrum. Moreover, if the interactions between vibronic levels are strong enough, their energies

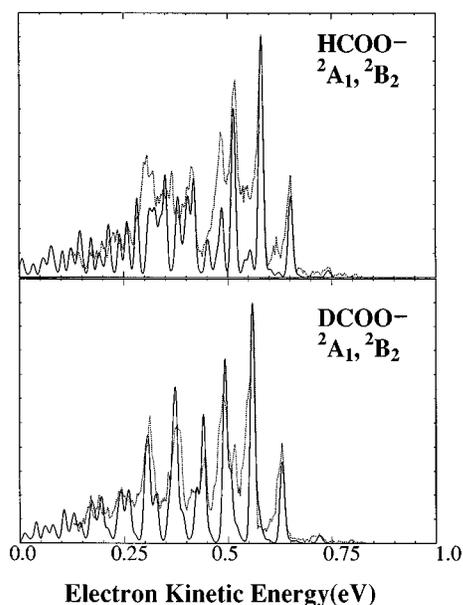


FIG. 11. Simulated photoelectron spectrum (solid line) assuming vibronic coupling between 2A_1 and 2B_2 states (see text). The simulations are superimposed on the experimental spectra (dashed line).

will be noticeably perturbed, particularly for levels which lie near or above the conical intersection, leading to a considerably more complex spectrum.

Without actually solving a Hamiltonian which includes the coupling matrix between the 2A_1 and 2B_2 states, we have made a somewhat crude attempt to see if the inclusion of the vibrational modes with b_2 symmetry improves our simulation. We assume that the transitions to vibrational levels with $\nu_5=1$ and $\nu_6=1$ contribute to FCFs mainly by combination bands with the ν_3 bend mode. Simulated combination bands ($5_0^1 3_0^n$ and $6_0^1 3_0^n$) of the 2A_1 state of HCO₂ were generated by shifting the 3_0^n progression by 1600 cm^{-1} (ω_5) and 1424 cm^{-1} (ω_6) towards lower eKE, while the $5_0^1 3_0^n$ and $6_0^1 3_0^n$ combination bands of the 2B_2 state are simulated using $\omega_5=2235\text{ cm}^{-1}$ and $\omega_6=1298\text{ cm}^{-1}$. The latter three frequencies were taken from Table VII, while the 1600 cm^{-1} value for ω_5 gave better results than the higher value in Table VII. The combination band intensities are scaled to fit the experimental spectra. Figure 11 shows the results. Compared to the simulation in Fig. 10, much of the missing intensity in region B is filled in. A similar procedure was used to simulate the DCO₂⁻ spectrum in Fig. 11. Frequencies for ω_5 and ω_6 are given in Table X; these are scaled appropriately from the HCO₂ values. The fit with the experimental DCO₂⁻ spectrum is clearly improved relative to Fig. 10, although changes due to vibronic coupling are not as dramatic as in the HCO₂⁻ simulation. Overall, the simulations in Fig. 11 imply that vibronic coupling is needed to accurately simulate the experimental spectra.

The existence of vibronic coupling in HCO₂ is not surprising, as it is isoelectronic with both NO₂ and O₃⁺. Both of these have conical intersections between relatively close-lying 2A_1 and 2B_2 states with resulting spectral complications. NO₂ is the better known example,^{41–43} but O₃⁺ is

actually more similar to HCO₂ as the 2A_1 and 2B_2 states are believed to be nearly degenerate. The experimental photoelectron spectrum⁴⁴ of O₃ consists of partly resolved, irregular features, and the theoretical treatment of this spectrum by Muller *et al.*⁴⁵ showed that strong vibronic coupling between the 2A_1 and 2B_2 states could at least partially explain the experimental spectrum. In their simulations, they found that the regular peak progressions at low energy (high eKE) evolved into chaotic spectra at energies above the conical intersection between the two states; this is certainly reminiscent of the experimental HCO₂⁻ spectrum. While NO₂ and O₃⁺ are complex in their own right, understanding vibronic coupling in HCO₂ is likely to be even more challenging because of the additional number of vibrational modes; a multimode treatment such as that recently applied to NO₃ is probably required.⁴⁶

It is also possible that there are C_s minima in the energy range of the 2A_1 and 2B_2 states that have reasonable Franck–Condon overlap with the anion, or that one (or both) of these states do not correspond to minima at all but instead are transition states leading to distorted C_s equilibrium geometries. As mentioned above, both of these possibilities have been discussed in *ab initio* treatments of HCO₂. In either case, vibrational modes with b_2 symmetry in the C_{2v} point group are totally symmetric in the C_s point group and therefore would show Franck–Condon activity in the photoelectron spectrum. This would also lead to more lines in the photoelectron spectrum than predicted by our simulations. High level, multiconfigurational *ab initio* calculations on both states should be able to determine if C_s structures need to be considered; recall that McLean¹⁴ did not treat the 2A_1 state in his study.

The second problem with the simulation in Fig. 10 is the large anharmonicity in the ν_3 mode of the 2A_1 state; 20 cm^{-1} for a 613 cm^{-1} harmonic frequency. One might associate this with a small barrier to dissociation to H+CO₂, since motion along the positive Q_3 direction (increasing R_{CH} , $\angle\text{OCO}$) should correspond to the dissociation coordinate. Moreover, the 2A_1 state correlates to these products; a barrier of only 4.2 kcal/mol (0.18 eV) was predicted in the calculations by Feller.¹¹ However, our analysis indicates that the 20 cm^{-1} anharmonicity is associated with the ν_3 potential softening in the *other* direction, towards decreasing OCO angle and away from H+CO₂ products.

This is a somewhat unexpected result, and probably is more of an artifact of our analysis than a real indication of the potential energy along the Q_3 coordinate. Recall that the extent and direction of the anharmonicity were chosen to make the 3_0^n progression of the 2A_1 state fall off rapidly in order to match the experimental intensity profile. If there is strong vibronic coupling in HCO₂, then as the energy increases from the minimum in the 2A_1 state to above the conical intersection between the 2A_1 and 2B_2 states, one expects the oscillator strength in the photoelectron spectrum to be spread out over more transitions, namely those involving nontotally symmetric modes that only occur through vibronic coupling. This would cause the intensity of a nominally allowed progression such as the 3_0^n progression to fall off more quickly than it would in the absence of vibronic coupling,

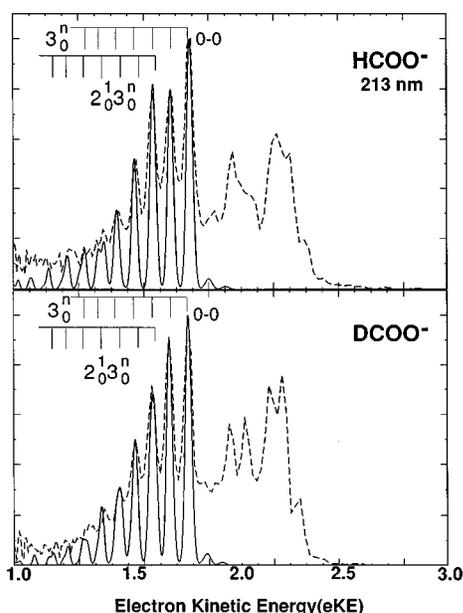


FIG. 12. Simulated photoelectron spectra (solid line) to 2A_2 state of HCO₂⁻ and DCO₂ superimposed on experimental spectra from Fig. 5 (dashed line).

and this sudden drop in intensity is just what is observed experimentally. Similar effects could be occurring in the ν_3 mode of the 2B_2 state, but they would be more difficult to observe experimentally because the ν_3 progression for this state is less well-resolved than for the 2A_1 state. Hence, the shape of the Morse potential along the Q_3 coordinate in the 2A_1 state results from using a one-dimensional potential to fit what is probably a multimode, non-Born–Oppenheimer effect, and therefore should not be taken too literally.

2. 2A_2 state

Figure 12 shows the simulated 2A_2 spectrum superimposed on the 213 nm photoelectron spectrum. For HCO₂⁻, the simulation was obtained with $\omega_3=715\pm 50$ cm⁻¹ and $\omega_2=1330\pm 50$ cm⁻¹ (other parameters are listed in Table IX). Although peaks C1–C5 are approximately evenly spaced, their intensity distribution could not be reproduced by attributing them to a single progression in the ν_3 mode. Instead, the contribution from the $2_0^1 3_0^n$ combination bands to peak intensities is also substantial. However, since the CO stretch frequency is being nearly twice the value of CO₂ bend frequency, these combination bands are not resolved from the ν_3 progression at our experimental resolution. Using these parameters and calculated force constants, the following geometry emerges for the 2A_2 state: $R_{\text{CH}}=1.09\pm 0.01$ Å, $R_{\text{CO}}=1.29\pm 0.03$ Å, and $\angle\text{OCO}=122\pm 1.5^\circ$. These values are in good agreement with the calculated values listed in Table VI. Since isotopic effects in the CO₂ bend mode are small in ν_3 and ν_2 modes, the band (F1–F5) in 213 nm DCO₂⁻ spectrum can be simulated with a small adjustment in these parameters. The simulated DCO₂⁻ spectrum in Fig. 12 shows the fit obtained using the parameters in Table X.

V. ENERGETICS AND DYNAMICS

Based on our assignments of the spectra, the adiabatic electron affinities of HCO₂ and DCO₂ are found to be 3.498 ± 0.015 and 3.510 ± 0.015 eV, respectively. From the known heat of formation of HCO₂⁻ (-111 kcal/mol) (Ref. 47) and our electron affinity value, $\Delta_f H_{298\text{ K}}(\text{HCO}_2)$ is calculated to be -31 ± 3 kcal/mol. For this calculation, the “ion convention” is adopted, taking a value of zero for the integrated heat capacity of the electron. The bond dissociation energy D_0 for the process, HCO₂→H+CO₂ is calculated by

$$\begin{aligned}
 D_0(\text{H}-\text{CO}_2) &= \Delta_f H_{298\text{ K}}(\text{CO}_2) \\
 &+ \Delta_f H_{298\text{ K}}(\text{H}) - \text{E.A.}(\text{HCO}_2) \\
 &- \Delta_f H_{298\text{ K}}(\text{HCO}_2^-) + \int_0^{298} [C_p(\text{HCO}_2^-) \\
 &- C_p(\text{CO}_2) - C_p(\text{H})]dT \quad (10)
 \end{aligned}$$

using the known heats of formation of CO₂ (-94.05 kcal/mol) and H ($+52.10$ kcal/mol) at 298 K.⁴⁸ The integrated heat capacities, C_p , in Eq. (10) are calculated by treating the atoms and molecules within the ideal gas approximation. The calculated D_0 (H–CO₂) is -13 ± 3 kcal/mol (-0.58 ± 0.13 eV); the negative value means that the ground state of HCO₂ is unstable with respect to dissociation to H+CO₂. This is in sharp contrast to the relatively strong C–H bond in HCO₂⁻, for which $D_0=76$ kcal/mol.⁴⁷ Our result also differs significantly from the OH+CO potential energy surface of Schatz and co-workers^{29,30} in which the ground state of HCO₂ lies only 0.08 eV higher than H+CO₂. Ruscic *et al.*¹⁰ have determined that ΔH_f for the HOCO isomer at 0 K is -52.5 ± 0.6 kcal/mol (-53.3 kcal/mol at 298 K), so this isomer is more stable than HCO₂ by 20 kcal/mol. Our finding that HCO₂ is unstable with respect to H+CO₂ is consistent with their failure to detect DCO₂ from the F+DCOOH reaction; this reaction presumably produces DCO₂ with sufficient internal energy to surmount the barrier to dissociation.

It is of interest to compare HCO₂⁻ and HCO₂ to the FCO₂⁻/FCO₂ pair. The C–F bond dissociation energies for FCO₂ and FCO₂⁻ are found to be 11.5 and 31.7 kcal/mol, respectively.^{49–51} Hence the anion and neutral bond dissociation energies are significantly closer than in the HCO₂⁻/HCO₂ pair. The electron affinity of FCO₂ is 4.277 ± 0.030 eV,⁴⁹ about 0.8 eV higher than that of HCO₂. The electronic structure of the two neutral species are also quite different; FCO₂ has a 2B_2 ground state, with $T_0=0.576$ eV for the 2A_2 state and 1.63 eV for the 2A_1 state.^{49,52} Finally, the C–F bond length is calculated⁴⁹ to be about 0.2 Å longer in the anion than for the three neutral states of FCO₂, a considerably larger change than occurs in the C–H bond for photodetachment to any of the three HCO₂ states. The bond length calculations and relatively weak dissociation energy for FCO₂⁻ imply that the F⁻/CO₂ interaction is rather weak, and that the highest occupied molecular orbital is a relatively diffuse orbital localized on the F atom. In contrast, the strong C–H bond in HCO₂⁻ indicates that the additional electron fully participates in covalent bonding. This is reasonable in light of the similarity between the vertical detachment energies of H⁻ and CO₂⁻, 0.754 209 eV (Ref. 53) and 1.33 eV,⁵⁴

respectively. The detachment energy of F⁻ is considerably higher, 3.401 190 eV,⁵⁵ suggesting a much more asymmetric sharing of the additional electron in FCO₂⁻. A comparison of the neutral states of HCO₂ and FCO₂ is more problematic because the electronic state orderings and energetics are so different.

Finally, we consider the dynamical implications of our results for three processes of interest; the reaction OH+CO → H+CO₂ (ΔH = -1.06 eV), the reverse H+CO₂ reaction, and internal excitation of CO₂ from collisions with hot hydrogen atoms. Schatz and co-workers^{29,30} have constructed a complete potential energy surface based on a relatively small number of *ab initio* points. The surface has a global minimum at a *trans*-HOCO structure [$E = -1.61$ eV with respect to OH+CO (no zero point energy)], and two local minima corresponding to *cis*-HOCO ($E = -1.51$ eV) and C_{2v} HCO₂ ($E = -1.19$ eV). The most facile pathway for the forward OH+CO reaction on this surface is formation of *trans*-HOCO, passage over a small barrier ($E = -1.21$ eV) to form *cis*-HOCO, and finally passage over a higher barrier (0.13 eV) to form H+CO₂ (-0.97 eV). Alternatively, *trans*-HOCO could isomerize to HCO₂ and then dissociate to H+CO₂ over a barrier with $E = -0.48$ eV. However, the isomerization barrier on this surface is 0.28 eV, so this pathway is inconsistent with the rather weak temperature dependence of the OH+CO; this rate constant is substantial even at $T = 80$ K ($k \cong 1 \times 10^{-13}$ cm³ molecule⁻¹ s⁻¹).^{16(d)} Thus, the Schatz surface indicates that the HCO₂ minimum does not play a role in the OH+CO reaction, at least in the temperature range that has been studied so far.

The reverse H+CO₂ reaction has been extensively studied in hot atom experiments in which fast H atoms are formed by UV photolysis of a suitable precursor (HI, HBr, or HX).²³⁻²⁷ This technique has also been used to study vibrational excitation of the CO₂ in nonreactive collisions.²⁸ The H atoms typically have around 2 eV of translational energy in these experiments, more than enough to surmount any of the barriers on the above potential energy surface. However, quasiclassical studies by Schatz²⁹ show that even at high translational energy, the H+CO₂ reaction proceeds entirely through attack at the O atoms to form HOCO complexes; the HCO₂ complex is not formed. Nonreactive collisions were examined in the same study; some trajectories leading to vibrational excitation of the CO₂ were found to involve HCO₂ complex formation, although most did not.

Overall, the potential energy surface of Schatz and co-workers indicates a relatively minor dynamical role for the HCO₂ complex. However, our experiments call into question some aspects of this surface. First of all, as discussed above, our electron affinity shows that HCO₂ is unstable with respect to dissociation to H+CO₂ by 0.52 eV. On the Schatz surface, once zero point energy corrections are included, HCO₂ lies above H+CO₂ by only 0.08 eV. Secondly, the geometry calculated by Schatz and co-workers clearly corresponds to the ²B₂ state of HCO₂ rather than the ²A₁ state. The latter point is significant because the ²A₁ state correlates to ground state H+CO₂, whereas the ²B₂ state does not. The sharp structure in our photoelectron spectrum indicates that the ²A₁ state of HCO₂ does not dissociate rapidly, even

though it can, so there is a substantial barrier to dissociation to H+CO₂. However, this barrier may be lower (relative to the bottom of the HCO₂ well) than that on the Schatz surface, which presumably is associated with dissociation of the ²B₂ state. The more important barrier is the one associated with isomerization of HCO₂ to *trans*-HOCO. The structure at the isomerization transition state has C_s symmetry, and in this point group the ²A₁ and ²B₂ states of HCO₂ both have A' symmetry. It is therefore unclear whether consideration of an additional electronic state would lower this barrier.

In summary, our experiment does indicate that there are some deficiencies of the Schatz surface. Whether these are drastic enough to actually affect the dynamics for this system is unclear at this point. We hope the results presented here stimulate further investigation of the potential energy surface, particularly the barriers for HCO₂ dissociation and isomerization.

VI. CONCLUSION

Photoelectron spectroscopy of HCO₂⁻ and DCO₂⁻ has yielded the first experimental characterization of the ground and low-lying electronic states of the HCO₂ and DCO₂ radicals. The spectra consist of transitions to the ²A₁, ²B₂, and ²A₂ states of the radicals. Although the transitions to the ²A₁ and ²B₂ states are strongly overlapped, the polarization dependence and isotope shifts upon deuteration enable us to assign most features in this region of the spectrum to one state or the other. These assignments are facilitated by *ab initio* calculations on the anion and three neutral states. For HCO₂, the ²A₁ state is assigned to be the ground electronic state, with the ²B₂ state lying just slightly higher with $T_0 = 0.027$ eV, and the ²A₂ state at $T_0 = 0.536$ eV. Our analysis of the spectra indicates that, due to zero point effects, the energy ordering of the ²A₁ and ²B₂ states is reversed in DCO₂, so that the ²B₂ state is the ground state and the ²A₁ state is at $T_0 = 0.008$ eV. However, this result must be regarded with caution due to difficulties in locating the origin of the ²B₂ state. According to our assignment of the spectra, the adiabatic electron affinities for HCO₂ and DCO₂ are 3.498 ± 0.015 eV and 3.510 ± 0.015 eV, respectively. We find that $\Delta H_f(\text{HCO}_2) = -31 \pm 3$ kcal/mol.

All three electronic bands show resolved vibrational structure. The observed progressions are primarily due to excitation of the CO₂ bend (the ν_3 mode) upon photodetachment of the anion. Simulations of the spectra show that the ²A₂ band consists of a 3ⁿ progression superimposed on a 2₀3ⁿ combination band. While much of the ²A₁ and ²B₂ bands could be simulated by only permitting transitions involving totally symmetric vibrational modes, this was insufficient to reproduce many of the spectral features. It therefore appears likely that vibronic coupling between these two states via the b_2 vibrational modes is contributing to the spectra.

One of the motivations behind this work was to assess the role that the HCO₂ radical plays in reactive and inelastic scattering dynamics on the OH+CO → H+CO₂ potential energy surface. Scattering calculations on the currently accepted potential energy surface for this reaction indicate that the HCO₂ radical is relatively unimportant. However, our results indicate that the HCO₂ energetics on this surface are

