Supporting Information: Ab Initio Molecular

Dynamics Calculations versus Quantum-State

Resolved Experiments on CHD₃ + Pt(111):

New Insights into a Prototypical Gas-Surface

Reaction

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1) EXPERIMENTAL METHODS

Quantum state resolved dissociation probabilities of CHD₃ on Pt(111) were measured in a molecular beam/surface science apparatus described previously¹⁻². Reflection absorption infrared spectroscopy (RAIRS) was used to detect the nascent dissociation products CD₃(ads) and CHD₂(ads) of CHD₃ on the cold Pt(111) surface (T_s=120 K) in order to measure both the absolute dissociation probability (S₀) and the branching ratio of the C-H and C-D cleavage channels with and without state specific laser preparation of the incident CHD₃. For the laser-off measurements above 0.7 eV incident energy, where the dissociation coefficient exceeds 1%, the King&Wells beam reflectivity technique³ was used to measure absolute sticking coefficients of CHD₃ on Pt(111). With this method, the branching ratio could not be measured.

Molecular beam parameters are supplied in Table S1. The stream velocity (v_0) and the width parameter (α) of the beams have been obtained by fitting a flux-weighted velocity distribution (equation (4) of Ref.⁴) to recorded TOF spectra.

2) THEORETICAL METHODS

Ab initio molecular dynamics (AIMD) calculations are performed with the VASP code⁵⁻⁷. The Pt surface is modeled with a 5 layer slab within a 3x3 supercell. A Γ-centered grid with 4x4x1 k-points samples the first Brillouin zone. Fermi smearing with a width of 0.1 eV has been used to facilitate convergence. The basis set includes plane waves up to a kinetic energy of 350 eV and core electrons have been represented with the projected augmented wave (PAW) method⁸⁻⁹. With the described computational setup, an equilibrium lattice constant of 3.975 Å has been obtained for bulk Pt, in reasonable agreement with the experimental value of 3.916 Å¹⁰⁻¹¹.

Table S2 shows the convergence of our computational setup in the evaluation of the energy barrier (E_b) for CH₄ + Pt(111). E_b is calculated as $E_{b,abs} - E_{\infty}$, where E_{∞} is the energy of the system with the CH₄ molecule in its equilibrium geometry at large distance from the ideal metal slab and $E_{b,abs}$ is the absolute barrier energy, computed for the minimum energy transition state configuration of Ref.¹² (D1 configuration in figure 3). The calculations with a 2x2 surface unit cell show that converged results may be obtained with 5 layers. The calculations with 5 layers show that converged results may be obtained with a 3x3 surface unit cell. We estimate that, with our computational setup, the PBE value of E_b is converged to within 1 kcal/mol (43 meV).

In order to take the experimental surface temperature into account, a similar procedure as described in Ref. has been followed: velocities and displacements from the equilibrium position have been assigned to surface atoms through an appropriate sampling and the optimized lattice constant has been expanded by $0.049\%^{-10-11}$ in order to simulate the platinum thermal expansion from 0 to 120 K, and by 0.386% for 0 to 500 K. These configurations are used in AIMD NVE simulations (constant number of atoms N, cell volume V and total energy E) to generate surface configurations for Monte-Carlo sampling, after which the molecule-surface collisions are simulated using NVE dynamics. Sticking probabilities are based on 1000 trajectories if the computed S_0 value is included in the range $1\% < S_0 < 10\%$, while 2000 and 500 trajectories have been computed for the $S_0 < 1\%$ and the $S_0 > 10\%$ cases, respectively. The dissociation probability values and their error bars (95% confidence interval unless otherwise stated) are evaluated using the Wilson (or score) method has been shown to provide a reasonable estimate of confidence intervals even for extremely low probabilities (close to $0\%)^{15}$, and which yields probabilities and

standard deviations converging to the values obtained with the binomial distribution for large numbers of trajectories and probabilities.

3) AVOIDING THE PITFALLS OF THE QUASI-CLASSICAL TRAJECTORY (QCT) METHOD

a) Zero Point Energy (ZPE) Conservation Problems

Calculations for D_2 + Cu(111) show that, if motion in all molecular DOFs is modeled for average total energies of the molecule $\langle E_{tot} \rangle$ above the ZPE-corrected minimum barrier height (E_b^c) , QCT calculations essentially reproduce the quantum dynamics (QD) results¹⁶. We therefore expect that ZPE conservation problems, which may hamper the accurate calculation of reaction probabilities near the reaction threshold if some of the coordinates are kept frozen or treated with other dynamical approximations¹⁷⁻¹⁸, will not much affect the accuracy of our calculations, which are all done for $\langle E_{tot} \rangle$ well above E_b^c (Table 1 of the paper).

To make sure that ZPE conservation problems have no significant effect on our calculations, we looked at whether evidence of ZPE violation could be found in our actual AIMD calculations. No strong proof of ZPE violation has been found in the dynamics as a possible reason of the too high reaction probability even at low average incidence energy $\langle E_i \rangle$: the available energy to the reaction (the sampled E_{tot}) is larger than the ZPE-corrected minimum energy barrier from static calculations, in almost all (i.e., 143) of the 144 reacted trajectories computed in total for the three lowest $\langle E_i \rangle$ laser-off simulations, and in all of the laser-on reacted trajectories. Furthermore, the reaction probability is overestimated even at the highest $\langle E_i \rangle$, where the experimental reaction probabilities are larger than 15% and ZPE violation is not expected to play a role.

b) Artificial intramolecular vibrational energy redistribution (IVR)

In order to avoid the potential problem of artificial energy flow among vibrations alluded to above, we focus on two types of experiment. The first ("laser-off") experiment addresses the reactivity of CHD₃ in a hyperthermal supersonic beam, in which the vibrational ground state has the highest population. In the second type of experiment the v_1 CH-stretch is pre-excited with one quantum but due to the localization of the vibrational mode on the CH bond, this mode is off-resonance with other vibrations, so that artificial intra-molecular vibrational energy redistribution (IVR) is minimised¹⁹. We carefully verified that AIMD is able to simulate freely vibrating CH-stretch (v_1) excited CHD₃ without significant energy 'leakage' from the v_1 mode to others. Figure S1 shows the normal mode energies as a function of time, averaged over 100 trajectories for which the initial conditions (normal mode vibrational coordinates and velocities) sample classical microcanonical distributions. The normal mode energies have been evaluated by projecting the vibrational coordinates of CHD₃ onto its equilibrium normal mode coordinates. As evident from **Figure S1**, the vibrational energy imparted to the v_1 mode remains localized in this vibrational mode on the time-scale of the collisions in our simulations (100-200 fs).

c) Role of Tunneling

Early on, it was argued that an exponential dependence of the dissociation probability on E_i observed in supersonic molecular beam experiments between $E_i = 0.70$ to 0.98 eV should be due to tunneling, on the basis of a one-dimensional model²⁰. However, this model implied a very high ZPE-corrected barrier height of 1.25 eV, whereas experiments suggest a value of only 0.6 ± 0.2 eV²¹.

Even though we use it here for a different surface (Ni(100)), the reaction path Hamiltonian model described in Ref.²² allows an estimate to be made of the tunneling contribution for the lowest surface temperature (T_s) considered in our calculations on CHD₃+Pt(111). The reaction probability has been computed by averaging the results of one-dimensional (1D) quantum dynamics calculations over surface sites and a surface atom coordinate, after setting all the vibrationally non-adiabatic couplings to zero (see figure 9 and the corresponding more detailed discussion in Ref.²²). The tunneling contribution can be excluded by setting all the 1D reaction probabilities ≤ 0.5 equal to zero. The reaction probability curves including and excluding tunneling contributions are plotted in Figure S2. The two curves are displaced from one another along the energy axis by less than 1 kJ/mol (0.01 eV) when $S_0 = 10^{-3}$ for $T_s = 120$ K. Since we only simulate conditions for which the experimental reaction probabilities are > 0.01, we do not expect that the neglect of tunneling effects in our calculations has a large effect on our most important conclusions. In particular, the neglect of tunneling should hardly affect our conclusion regarding the barrier height for CHD₃ + Pt(111), the conclusion being that the PBE functional underestimates this quantity by 0.1 eV. This does not mean that tunneling does not influence the reaction: at the incidence energy where the quantum mechanical reaction probability is 0.01 (80.5 kJ/mol ≈ 0.83 eV), the tunneling contribution to the reaction is approximately 10% (i.e., the tunneling contribution to the reaction probability is approximately 0.001). The reason that the tunneling contribution is so low for this low incidence energy (for Ni(100) the zero-point energy corrected barrier height for the static surface is 0.78 eV^{12}) is that even at T_s =120 K excited surface vibrational states are populated, and this allows reaction through a classical over the barrier mechanism because the outward motion of the surface atom above which methane reacts lowers the reaction barrier¹².

The comparison of calculations on reaction of a supersonic beam of CH₄ with Pt(111) at $E_i = 0.62$ eV and $T_S = 200$ K²³, which used a statistical model and either included²¹ or excluded²⁴ the effect of tunneling, likewise suggests only a minor role for tunneling under the conditions addressed by us.

Finally, we also expect no problems due to neglect of tunneling with computing branching ratios for CHD_3 dissociation into $CD_3 + H$ and $CHD_2 + D$, as a recent QCT study was able to show that the strong kinetic isotope effect observed previously when comparing CH_4 to CD_4 dissociation on $Pt(111)^{25}$ could be explained on the basis of the molecules' different $ZPEs^{26}$.

4) EFFECT OF VIBRATIONALLY EXCITED STATES ON LASER-OFF REACTIVITY

We analyzed the contribution of thermally excited vibrational states to the theoretical laser-off reactivity (Table S3). At the lowest E_i , the vibrationally excited molecules are 2.5 times more reactive than the ground state ones; this factor decreases with increasing E_i . At the highest simulated E_i (1.53 eV), the reactivity of ground-state molecules is roughly equal to that of the vibrationally excited molecules. The larger effect of vibration at low E_i arises because at low E_i vibrational energy is needed to overcome the barrier for dissociation, whereas at higher E_i molecules already possess enough translational energy to dissociate.

5) EFFECT OF SURFACE MOTION ON REACTION

In a similar analysis as used in earlier work that only allowed one-dimensional motion of a single surface atom²⁷, we looked at the time evolution of the vertical displacement of the surface atom closest to the incident molecule (**Figure S3**). Recoil

is observed if the average is performed over scattered trajectories at all E_i , but for reactive trajectories recoil is only seen at high E_i . The profile for reactive trajectories at low E_i is different: reaction occurs only if the closest surface atom is above the surface plane and moves towards the projectile, thereby lowering the barrier and increasing the relative velocity. At higher E_i reaction occurs regardless of the surface atom behavior, and only recoil is seen²⁷. Our AIMD results confirm the validity of the same result obtained earlier with models using a much more simplified treatment of surface motion²⁷⁻³⁰.

Supporting Tables

Translational Energy (eV)	Total Energy (eV)	State	Set Nozzle Temperature (K)	Gas Temperature (K)	<i>v</i> ₀ (m/s)	α (m/s)
0.514	0.552	Laser-off	500	534	2263	156
0.727	0.837	Laser-off	700	764	2679	227
0.781	0.919	Laser-off	750	836	2774	248
0.830	0.997	Laser-off	800	902	2857	265
0.875	1.074	Laser-off	850	971	2926	291
1.376	1.487	Laser-off	700	768	3739	417
1.535	1.7016	Laser-off	800	901	3948	482
0.276	0.648	$v_1=1$	-	300	1662	98
0.397	0.769	v ₁ =1	400	412	1992	122
0.514	0.886	v ₁ =1	500	534	2263	156

Table S1. Molecular beam parameters. v_0 and α represent the stream velocity and the width parameter of the beams, respectively. The beams which have been simulated using AIMD have been highlighted.

Number of	k-point	Cut-off energy	E_b (eV)
Atomic Layers	grid	(eV)	
4	8x8x1	350	0.926
4	8x8x1	400	0.931
4	8x8x1	600	0.933
4	16x16x1	350	0.928
5	8x8x1	350	0.872
10	8x8x1	350	0.885
4	6x6x1	350	0.887
5	4x4x1	350	0.805
5	4x4x1	500	0.811
5	8x8x1	350	0.813
4	4x4x1	350	0.861
5	4x4x1	500	0.801
	Atomic Layers 4 4 4 5 10 4 5 5 4	Atomic Layers grid 4 8x8x1 4 8x8x1 4 8x8x1 4 16x16x1 5 8x8x1 10 8x8x1 4 6x6x1 5 4x4x1 5 4x4x1 5 8x8x1 4 4x4x1	Atomic Layers grid (eV) 4 8x8x1 350 4 8x8x1 400 4 8x8x1 600 4 16x16x1 350 5 8x8x1 350 4 6x6x1 350 5 4x4x1 350 5 4x4x1 500 5 8x8x1 350 4 4x4x1 350 4 4x4x1 350

Table S2. Convergence tests of the electronic structure calculations for $CH_4 + Pt(111)$. The barrier energy E_b has been computed varying the surface unit cell size, the number of atomic layers in the slab, the k-point grid size (Γ -point is always included) and the cut-off energy for the plane waves expansion. The energy barrier of our computational setup has been highlighted.

$\langle E_i \rangle$	$T_{\mathcal{S}}$	T_{Gas}	$P(\mathbf{v} = 0)$	$S_0^{\mathrm{v}=0}$	$S_0^{\mathrm{v} \neq 0}$	$S_0^{v \neq 0} / S_0^{v=0}$	
(eV)	(K)	(K)	1 (* 0)	50	50		
0.78	120	836	42.4%	$(1.8 \pm 0.6) \%$	$(4.4 \pm 0.9) \%$	2.4	
0.83	120	902	37.6%	$(3.3 \pm 0.9) \%$	$(6.6 \pm 1.0) \%$	2.0	
0.87	120	971	29.4%	$(3.9 \pm 1.1) \%$	$(6.9 \pm 1.0) \%$	1.8	
1.38	500	768	47.2 %	$(34.3 \pm 3.1) \%$	$(48.5 \pm 3.1) \%$	1.4	
1.53	500	901	38.8 %	(49.5 ± 3.6) %	$(50.0 \pm 2.9) \%$	1	

Table S3. Population and computed reactivity of ground state and vibrationally excited molecules in the laser-off simulations. $\langle E_i \rangle$ is the average translational energy, T_S is the surface temperature, T_{Gas} is the gas temperature in the expansion nozzle, P(v=0) is the v=0 population and $S_0^{v=0}$ ($S_0^{v\neq 0}$) is the dissociation probability of the ground state (vibrationally excited) molecules in the thermally excited beams. Error bars represent 68.3 % confidence intervals.

Supporting Figures

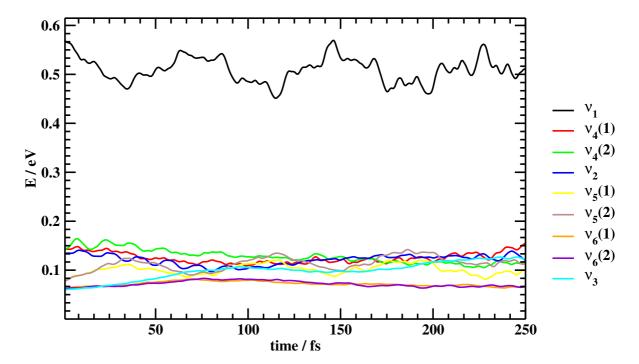


Figure S1. The normal mode energies are plotted as a function of time for freely vibrating CH-stretch (ν_1 , in black) excited CHD₃. The energies plotted here are the result of an average over 100 trajectories.

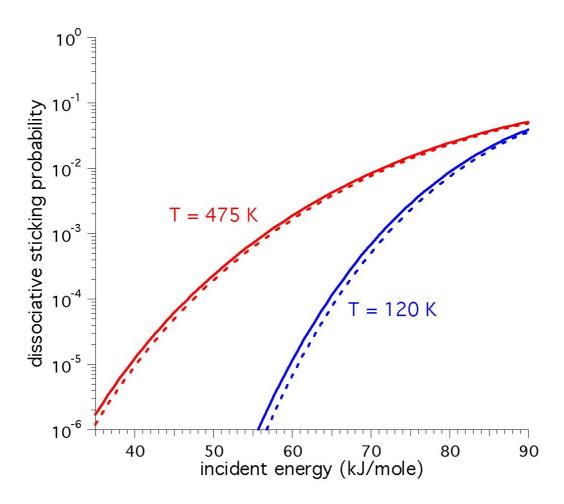


Figure S2. Dissociative sticking probability as a function of incident energy for vibrationally ground state CH₄ incident on Ni(100) at the temperatures indicated. The curves are from the reaction path model described in Ref.²², for the case where the vibrationally non-adiabatic couplings are set equal to zero. The dashed lines exclude contributions to the sticking from tunneling. The results reported for $T_s = 475$ K are from Ref.²².

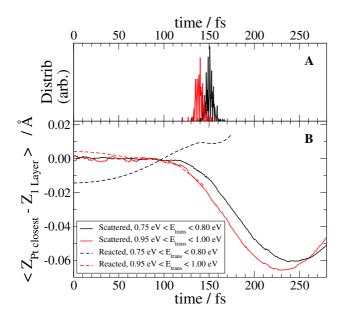


Figure S3. (A): Arrival distributions at the inner turning point in Z for scattered molecules for $0.75 \text{ eV} < E_i < 0.80 \text{ eV}$ (black) and for $0.95 \text{ eV} < E_i < 1.00 \text{ eV}$ (red). (B): Vertical displacement of the closest first layer atom as a function of time, averaged over scattered (solid lines) and reacted (dashed lines) laser-off trajectories in the two ranges of E_i (black and red, as in panel A).

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