

Theoretical calculation of position-specific carbon and hydrogen isotope equilibria in butane isomers

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ABSTRACT

Position-specific isotope analysis has shown its potential to reveal information regarding formation, migration, and conversion processes of hydrocarbons. The intramolecular isotope compositions of butane are promising to serve as a new thermometer and tracer. Therefore, position-specific isotope signatures in butane at equilibrium are needed for calibrating experimental measurements, establishing new geothermometers, and recognizing kinetic isotope effects. Here we conduct quantum chemistry modeling with corrections beyond the harmonic approximation and the Born-Oppenheimer approximation to obtain accurate intramolecular and intermolecular carbon and hydrogen isotope fractionation factors for butane isomers at equilibrium. Temperature dependences of these equilibrium isotope effects are presented for the range from 0 °C to 726.85 °C. The contribution of higher-order energy terms to 1000lnα values beyond the Bigeleisen-Mayer equation is found to be comparable to the magnitude of current experimental precisions. In addition to the significance of anharmonicity, the contribution of hindered internal rotation and diagonal Born-Oppenheimer correction is found to be important for accurate predictions of position-specific hydrogen isotope equilibria. The abundance ratio of *n*-butane to *i*-butane at equilibria is also calculated at various temperatures. Our results provide fundamental understanding of equilibrium properties for studying position-specific isotope effects in butane.

1. Introduction

Position-specific isotope effects (PSIEs, sometimes called site-specific isotope effects) describe intramolecular isotope fractionations arising from isotope substitutions at the non-equivalent positions in a molecule (Eiler, 2013). For example, carbon sites of the methyl and carboxyl groups within acetic acid, which are non-equivalent positions, have their unique isotope signatures ($\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{methyl}}$ and $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{carboxyl}}$, respectively) and the difference between their $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values ($\Delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{carboxyl-methyl}} = \delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{carboxyl}} - \delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{methyl}}$) expresses the intramolecular ^{13}C distribution within acetic acid. Since methyl and carboxyl groups participate differently in (bio)chemical reactions or physical processes, the “bulk” isotope effects measured using conventional methods (compound-specific isotope analysis, CSIA) reflect an average isotopic composition of

these two carbon positions (Yamada et al., 2014).

The study of position-specific isotope effects can be tracked back to several decades ago. Abelson and Hoering (1961) measured the intramolecular carbon isotope fractionation in amino acids, and found the carboxyl carbon positions are isotopically enriched relative to the rest. This work triggered the further analyses and implements of position-specific isotope effects (e.g., Corso and Brenna, 1997; Melzer and Schmidt, 1987; Monson and Hayes, 1980, 1982a,b; Vogler and Hayes, 1980). With the technological advances of mass spectrometry (MS) and nuclear magnetic resonance (NMR) spectroscopy, position-specific isotope analysis (PSIA) has shown its great potential to trace the origin or the formation mechanism of substances. For example, position-specific nitrogen isotope effects served as a valuable tracer to constrain global budget of N_2O (Yoshida and Toyoda, 2000). Position-specific

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hydrogen isotope analysis has been utilized for determinations of illicit drugs (Armellin et al., 2006; Brenna et al., 2007). The position-specific carbon isotope analysis, such as $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values of methyl carbons and other carbon sites, can provide unique information to differentiate the sources of functional groups (Bayle et al., 2014; Gilbert et al., 2013a,b; Hattori et al., 2011). The development of the position-specific carbon isotope analysis for propane makes it possible to improve our understanding of the formation of natural gases and their isotopic variations (Gao et al., 2016; Gilbert et al., 2016a; Li et al., 2018; Liu et al., 2018; Piasecki et al., 2016a, 2018). Recently, Xie et al. (2018) catalyzed position-specific hydrogen isotope equilibrium in propane, and demonstrated the possibility of using position-specific hydrogen isotope analysis as a new geothermometer. Gilbert et al. (2019) found anaerobic microbial degradation of propane produced position-specific carbon isotope anomalies in propane, and extended the application of PSIA to identify anaerobic microbial oxidation processes in natural settings. Liu et al. (2019) showed both position-specific carbon and hydrogen isotope effects in propane from natural gases with high accuracy and illustrated the potential applications of position-specific isotope effects in other hydrocarbon gases.

Considering that the techniques can be expanded to analyze larger hydrocarbons (e.g., Gilbert et al., 2016b; Liu et al., 2018), the position-specific isotope effects in butane would draw much attention in the upcoming studies. Butane (C_4H_{10}), the gaseous alkane at room temperature and atmospheric pressure, is one component of natural gas (Claypool and Kvenvolden, 1983), an atmospheric organic pollution on Earth (Schauer et al., 1999), and an important compound in chemical and petrochemical industries (e.g., Zhang et al., 2008). Butane also represents a typical hydrocarbon with an abiotic origin under deep Earth conditions (Huang et al., 2017; Kolesnikov et al., 2009, 2017), and an astrophysical molecule on extraterrestrial planets and their satellites (Curtis et al., 2005; Dobrijevic et al., 2016; Murphy et al., 2003). Butane has two structural isomers: normal butane (*n*-butane) and isobutane (*i*-butane, also called 2-methylpropane). Because of the structural difference, *n*-butane and *i*-butane differ in physical and chemical properties, such as their stabilities and isotopic enrichments. Meanwhile, normal butane has two conformers due to the rotational isomerization: the *trans* (*anti*) form and the *gauche* form. The *trans* and *gauche* forms of *n*-butane co-exist in a conformational equilibrium, where their abundances are temperature dependent. These properties make butane system a potentially useful proxy for geochemical studies. Very recently, Julien et al. (2020) demonstrated position-specific ^{13}C variations in *n*-butane and *i*-butane with their newly developed analytical method, lightening the further application of intramolecular isotope effects in butane isomers.

In the near future, we would expect that there are increasing studies of position-specific isotope effects to contribute fundamental knowledge for geoscience, forensic science, pharmacological science, food science, etc. (Eiler, 2013). Therefore, the combination of theoretical work and experimental analysis has to be strengthened to make these studies step further. Especially, it is imperative to obtain accurate equilibrium position-specific isotope fractionation factors for calibrating geothermometry and identifying kinetic processes.

Although several theoretical studies have shown equilibrium position-specific isotope fractionation factors (Galimov, 1985; Galimov and Ivlev, 1973; He et al., 2020; Piasecki et al., 2016b; Polyakov and Horita, 2021; Rustad, 2009; Wang et al., 2009a, 2013; Webb and Miller III, 2014), none of their results can be directly used for comparing the temperature dependences of intramolecular carbon and hydrogen isotope equilibria in butane isomers. For example, Galimov (1985, 2006) used “isotopic bond numbers” method to provide position-specific isotope fractionation factors only for carbon isotope equilibria. Wang et al. (2009a) and He et al. (2020) predicted equilibrium position-specific hydrogen or carbon isotope fractionations for large organic molecules based on the “cutoff” effects respectively. However, for building a hydrogen isotope or carbon isotope thermometer, these results are not accurate enough for smaller hydrocarbons such as propane

or butane. In this study, we calculate position-specific carbon and hydrogen isotope equilibria for both *n*-butane and *i*-butane by using methods beyond the harmonic approximation and the Born-Oppenheimer approximation. The contributions of energy terms from anharmonicities, non-rigid rotations, and adiabatic corrections are carefully investigated. Accurate temperature dependences of intramolecular and intermolecular isotope equilibria within and between butane isomers are provided.

2. Methods

2.1. Theoretical calculation of equilibrium isotope fractionation

For an isotope equilibrium of single substitution,

$$\text{AX}^1\text{X}^2 + \text{X}^* = \text{AX}^{*1}\text{X}^2 + \text{X} \quad (1)$$

where AX^1X^2 (formula AX_2), containing no heavy isotopes, has two non-equivalent positions of element X (position 1 and position 2, respectively), X^* means the heavy isotope of element X, AX^{*1}X^2 represents the isotopologue that X^* substituted at the position 1. The reduced partition function ratio for calculating isotope equilibrium of this reaction can be expressed by the Bigeleisen-Mayer equation using the β factor (Bigeleisen and Mayer, 1947; Galimov, 2006; Liu et al., 2010; Schuble, 2004; Urey, 1947):

$$\begin{aligned} \beta_1(\text{AX}_2) &= \beta(\text{AX}^{*1}\text{X}^2 / \text{AX}^1\text{X}^2) = \frac{s_{\text{AX}^{*1}\text{X}^2}}{s_{\text{AX}^1\text{X}^2}} \frac{Q_{\text{AX}^{*1}\text{X}^2}}{Q_{\text{AX}^1\text{X}^2}} / \frac{Q_{\text{X}^*}}{Q_X} \\ &= \prod_i \frac{u_i(\text{AX}^{*1}\text{X}^2) \exp[-u_i(\text{AX}^{*1}\text{X}^2)/2] \{1 - \exp[-u_i(\text{AX}^{*1}\text{X}^2)]\}}{u_i(\text{AX}^1\text{X}^2) \exp[-u_i(\text{AX}^1\text{X}^2)/2] \{1 - \exp[-u_i(\text{AX}^1\text{X}^2)]\}} \end{aligned} \quad (2)$$

Q represents partition function, i.e., Q_X means the partition function of X. s means symmetry number. $u_i = hc\omega_i/k_B T$ where h is the Planck constant, c is the speed of light in vacuum, ω_i is the harmonic frequency of normal mode i in the unit of cm^{-1} , k_B is the Boltzmann constant and T is absolute temperature. The position-specific isotope fractionation factor α at equilibrium arising from isotope substitutions at individual positions can be expressed as the ratio of their β factors:

$$\alpha_{2-1} = \frac{\beta_2}{\beta_1} \quad (3)$$

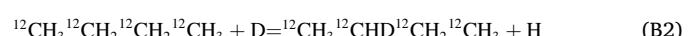
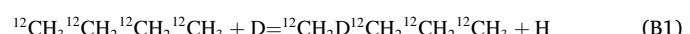
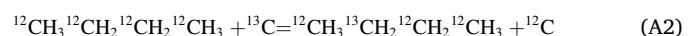
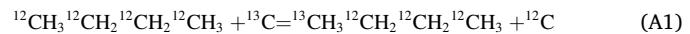
When one calculates isotope equilibria between two compounds, an arithmetic average of β factors can be utilized if a molecule has n positions (not non-equivalent positions) for isotope substitutions (Galimov, 2006):

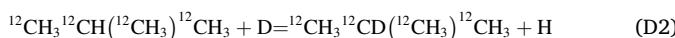
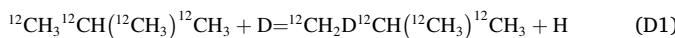
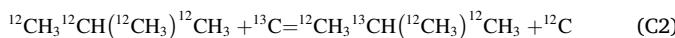
$$\beta_{\text{AX}_n} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_i^n \beta_i(\text{AX}_n) \quad (4)$$

then,

$$\alpha_{\text{AX}_n - \text{BX}_m} = \frac{m}{n} \frac{\beta_{\text{AX}_n}}{\beta_{\text{BX}_m}} \quad (5)$$

Therefore, we consider the following reactions for calculating carbon and hydrogen isotope equilibria in butane isomers,





Here, A, B, C, and D denote four kinds of isotope exchange reactions, 1 and 2 refer in particular to the non-equivalent positions for isotope substitutions. For example, position 1 and 2 in *n*-butane belong to methyl (CH_3) group and methylene (- CH_2 -) group, respectively.

2.2. Isotope effects from higher-order energy corrections

The Bigeleisen-Mayer equation is derived based on the harmonic approximation and the Born-Oppenheimer approximation. However, corrections beyond these approximations are recommended to obtain more accurate predictions of isotope effects, especially for those reactions containing hydrogen isotope exchanges (Bron et al., 1973; Liu et al., 2010; Richet et al., 1977; Webb and Miller III, 2014). In this study, we considered eight higher-order corrections to the Bigeleisen-Mayer equation when estimating the intramolecular isotope equilibria in butane. These include the anharmonic correction for zero-point energy, anharmonic correction for vibrational excited states, vibration-rotation coupling correction for zero-point energy, vibration-rotation coupling correction for vibrational excited states, quantum mechanical correction to rotation, centrifugal distortion correction, hindered internal rotation correction, and diagonal Born-Oppenheimer correction. We define the results of those corrections contributing to β factors as AnZPE, AnEXC, VrZPE, VrEXC, QmCorr and CenDist, HIR, and DBOC, respectively (Liu et al., 2010; Zhang and Liu, 2018, and the equations and citations within). The β factor corrected by considering these corrections is distinguished by a superscript "Corr", i.e.,

$$\beta^{\text{Corr}} = \beta \cdot \text{AnZPE} \cdot \text{AnEXC} \cdot \text{VrZPE} \cdot \text{VrEXC} \cdot \text{QmCorr} \cdot \text{CenDist} \cdot \text{HIR} \cdot \text{DBOC} \quad (6)$$

2.3. Computational details

We use the CCSD(T) method (Pople et al., 1987; Purvis and Bartlett, 1982) with the 6-311+G(d,p) basis set (Frisch et al., 1984; Krishnan et al., 1980; McLean and Chandler, 1980) for geometry optimizations, single-point energy calculations, harmonic frequency generations and hindered internal rotation analyses, and extra MP2/6-311+G(d,p) (Møller and Plesset, 1934) for the calculations of higher-order energy terms. Gaussian 09 package (Frisch et al., 2013) is used to perform all calculations except for DBOC. For the computation of DBOC, the CFOUR package (CFOUR, 2000; Harding et al., 2008a,b) is used based on the optimized butane structures. The calculation of hindered internal rotation is adopted by the treatment of McClurg et al. (1997) and McClurg (1999). "Very tight" geometry convergence criteria and "superfine" grids built in Gaussian 09 are applied for geometry optimization procedures and further computations. Because butane contains equivalent carbon and hydrogen positions, we consider all cases in which that isotope is substituted at different equivalent positions and use the average results (Liu and Liu, 2016). For example, the results of ${}^{12}\text{CDH}_2$, ${}^{12}\text{CHDH}$ - and ${}^{12}\text{CH}_2\text{D}$ - are averaged when we handle deuterium substituted methyl groups. Furthermore, harmonic frequencies at MP2/6-311+G(d,p) (Møller and Plesset, 1934) and B3LYP/6-311+G(d,p) (Becke, 1993; Lee et al., 1988) are obtained to constrain the uncertainty of β factors calculated on the harmonic approximation.

3. Results

3.1. Frequencies and scale factor

Frequencies calculated at CCSD(T)/6-311+G(d,p), MP2/6-311+G(d,p), B3LYP/6-311+G(d,p) are compared with the experimental fundamentals (see "Exp.^F", Bernath et al., 2019; Shimanouchi, 1977) of *trans*, *gauche* and *iso* butane (Table 1). MP2^F means the calculated fundamental frequencies at MP2/6-311+G(d,p), other calculated frequencies (without the superscript F) are harmonic frequencies. Among the calculated harmonic frequencies, the results obtained at MP2/6-311+G(d,p) level are larger than these of CCSD(T)/6-311+G(d,p), while B3LYP/6-311+G(d,p) predicts smaller harmonic frequencies than CCSD(T)/6-311+G(d,p) does. Meanwhile, the fundamentals calculated at MP2/6-311+G(d,p) level are systematically larger than the experimental ones. These findings suggest that we may use a frequency scale factor to ensure the accuracy of our calculation at MP2/6-311+G(d,p) level. We therefore presented a correlation relationship between calculated and experimental fundamentals in Fig. 1. A linear least squares regression gives a slope of 1.0186 with a standard error of 0.0013 and an R-squared value of 0.9998. According to the regression line, a frequency scale factor of 0.9816 is estimated for MP2/6-311+G(d,p) level. This scale factor, which is slightly larger than the scale factor 0.9768 estimated by Merrick et al. (2007) for zero-point vibrational energy, will be employed to scale the harmonic frequencies at MP2/6-311+G(d,p) level to obtain the β factors with frequency scaling (distinguished by a superscript of "sf"). Because this scale factor is estimated for the normal modes, we do not scale any of our higher-order energy terms when we calculated the corrections (Liu and Liu, 2016). More discussion on the scale factor and related uncertainties can be found in Section 4.1.

3.2. β factor and corrections

Table 2 shows the β factors calculated at CCSD(T), MP2, and B3LYP methods with 6-311+G(d,p) basis set on the harmonic approximation. MP2^{sf} means the β factors calculated on the harmonic approximation with frequency scaling by a factor of 0.9816. The β factors, which are temperature dependent, decrease as temperature increases. Among the β factors without frequency scaling, CCSD(T)/6-311+G(d,p) predicts β factors very close to the mean value of the three sets of data, MP2/6-311+G(d,p) predicts the largest β factors, B3LYP/6-311+G(d,p) predicts the smallest ones. Although there are deviations between the β factors obtained from the computational levels, CCSD(T), MP2, and B3LYP show consistent results with standard deviations of ~ 0.003 and ~ 0.26 for carbon and hydrogen isotope substitutions at 50 °C, and the deviations decrease with temperature increases. Meanwhile, The frequency-scaled MP2/6-311+G(d,p) model (MP2^{sf}), provides the smallest predictions for hydrogen isotope equilibria among these harmonic β factors. We note that the β factors of B3LYP and MP2^{sf} are very close to each other. The β factors of CCSD(T) and MP2^{sf} have deviations within 0.003 and 0.3 for carbon and hydrogen isotope substitutions during the considered temperature range.

Higher-order corrections to β factors calculated at MP2/6-311+G(d,p) level are listed in Table 3. Except VrZPE, all other corrections to β factors are temperature dependent. AnZPE and DBOC contribute significantly to both carbon and hydrogen isotope substitutions. However, we note AnZPE contributes similarly to the non-equivalent carbon/hydrogen positions in butane isomers, therefore much of the contributions will be canceled when we calculate intramolecular isotope effects. AnEXC contributes less but discrepantly to the non-equivalent positions, especially for hydrogen isotope exchanges, therefore plays an important role in this study. Because the molecular mass of butane is large enough, the higher-order corrections related to rotation become insignificant, i.e., VrZPE and VrEXC show much less contributions and the contributions of QmCorr and CenDist are negligible. The contributions of HIR are significant only for hydrogen isotope substitutions at the terminal

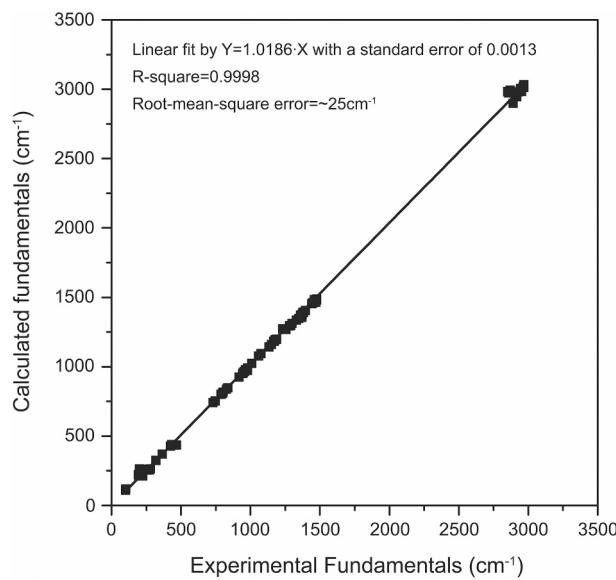


Fig. 1. Comparison of calculated fundamentals (MP2) with experimental ones. The linear least squares regression gives a slope of 1.0186 with an intercept of 0.

positions (in the methyl groups of butane), therefore are of importance for the calculation of intramolecular hydrogen isotope effects. DBOC contributes similarly to the non-equivalent carbon positions in butane isomers, and much of the contributions should be canceled at the calculation of carbon isotope effects.

3.3. Intramolecular and intermolecular equilibrium isotope fractionation

Table 4 shows the intramolecular carbon and hydrogen isotope equilibria of *trans*-butane, *gauche*-butane and *i*-butane calculated at CCSD(T), MP2 and B3LYP with 6-311+G(d,p) basis set. On the

harmonic approximation, CCSD(T) method generates intramolecular isotope fractionations at equilibria similar to MP2 although the β factors determined from CCSD(T) are smaller than those MP2 predicts. The frequency-scaled MP2 model (MP2^{sf}) shows slightly smaller predictions of isotope fractionation factors than the MP2 method. B3LYP method predicts smaller $1000\ln\alpha_{2-1}$ than those of CCSD(T) and MP2 methods for intramolecular carbon isotope equilibria, but relatively larger for intramolecular hydrogen isotope equilibria. Meanwhile, the corrections show negative contribution to $1000\ln\alpha_{2-1}(^{13}\text{C}/^{12}\text{C})$ values and positive contribution to $1000\ln\alpha_{2-1}(\text{D}/\text{H})$ values at equilibria. Because CCSD(T) method stands as a “gold standard” of quantum chemistry but the frequency-scaled MP2 method (MP2^{sf}) may be affected by the accuracy of experimental fundamentals (Liu and Liu, 2016), we have reasons to believe that CCSD(T) method can produce very accurate α values (Riley et al., 2010) and choose the results of CCSD(T) as our standard on the harmonic approximation. Therefore, when we combined the harmonic results of CCSD(T) with the effects of corrections, the corrected results (CCSD(T)^{corr}) provide closer predictions to the results of B3LYP method, and show a fractionation crossover of intramolecular carbon isotope equilibria near 500 °C for *n*-butane. We found the position-specific isotope fractionation factors in *trans*-butane and *gauche*-butane are quite similar when they reach isotope equilibria, therefore the isotope signature of *trans*-butane can be used to represent that of *n*-butane because of its more abundance at equilibrium. Furthermore, our results show that the equilibrium position-specific isotope fractionation factor of *i*-butane is almost twice the value of *n*-butane for either carbon or hydrogen isotope substitutions. This dramatic difference of PSIE may serve as an indicator to identify the processes related to the isomerization of alkanes.

Table 5 shows the intermolecular carbon and hydrogen isotope equilibria between the conformers and isomers of butane. To understand the equilibrium isotope fractionation between *n*-butane and *i*-butane, we need to confirm if it is valid to use the β factor of one conformer to represent that of *n*-butane. In fact, the conformation of *n*-butane does not contain bond break when the internal rotor overcomes a barrier height, therefore cannot affect the isotope signature of *n*-butane. For the equilibrium isotope fractionation between *gauche*-butane and

Table 2

Comparison of harmonic β factors calculated at various computational levels for *trans*-, *gauche*-, and *i*-butane.

T	β factors	<i>trans</i> -butane				<i>gauche</i> -butane				<i>i</i> -butane			
		CCSD(T)	MP2	MP2 ^{sf}	B3LYP	CCSD(T)	MP2	MP2 ^{sf}	B3LYP	CCSD(T)	MP2	MP2 ^{sf}	B3LYP
50 °C	$\beta_1(^{13}\text{C}/^{12}\text{C})$	1.1247	1.1269	1.1235	1.1225	1.1245	1.1267	1.1233	1.1223	1.1262	1.1282	1.1248	1.1238
	$\beta_2(^{13}\text{C}/^{12}\text{C})$	1.1400	1.1423	1.1383	1.1363	1.1395	1.1419	1.1379	1.1358	1.1528	1.1553	1.1508	1.1470
	$\beta_1(\text{D}/\text{H})$	9.7293	10.0953	9.5514	9.5839	9.7626	10.1223	9.5763	9.6080	9.6916	10.0346	9.4945	9.5667
	$\beta_2(\text{D}/\text{H})$	10.3710	10.7536	10.1498	10.2419	10.4029	10.7827	10.1765	10.2792	11.0444	11.4292	10.7645	10.9580
	$\beta(^{13}\text{C}/^{12}\text{C})$	1.1323	1.1346	1.1309	1.1294	1.1320	1.1343	1.1306	1.1291	1.1328	1.1350	1.1313	1.1296
	$\beta(\text{D}/\text{H})$	9.9860	10.3586	9.7908	9.8471	10.0187	10.3865	9.8164	9.8765	9.8269	10.1740	9.6215	9.7058
120 °C	$\beta_1(^{13}\text{C}/^{12}\text{C})$	1.0932	1.0949	1.0923	1.0915	1.0931	1.0948	1.0921	1.0914	1.0941	1.0957	1.0930	1.0923
	$\beta_2(^{13}\text{C}/^{12}\text{C})$	1.1031	1.1049	1.1018	1.1003	1.1027	1.1045	1.1015	1.0999	1.1114	1.1133	1.1099	1.1071
	$\beta_1(\text{D}/\text{H})$	5.7586	5.9336	5.6748	5.6885	5.7738	5.9459	5.6863	5.7002	5.7378	5.9021	5.6451	5.6780
	$\beta_2(\text{D}/\text{H})$	6.0039	6.1825	5.9027	5.9425	6.0173	6.1945	5.9138	5.9587	6.2658	6.4422	6.1409	6.2236
	$\beta(^{13}\text{C}/^{12}\text{C})$	1.0982	1.0999	1.0971	1.0959	1.0979	1.0996	1.0968	1.0956	1.0984	1.1001	1.0972	1.0960
	$\beta(\text{D}/\text{H})$	5.8567	6.0331	5.7659	5.7901	5.8712	6.0454	5.7773	5.8036	5.7906	5.9561	5.6947	5.7325
200 °C	$\beta_1(^{13}\text{C}/^{12}\text{C})$	1.0702	1.0715	1.0695	1.0689	1.0701	1.0714	1.0688	1.0688	1.0707	1.0720	1.0699	1.0693
	$\beta_2(^{13}\text{C}/^{12}\text{C})$	1.0765	1.0779	1.0756	1.0744	1.0762	1.0776	1.0741	1.0741	1.0818	1.0832	1.0807	1.0785
	$\beta_1(\text{D}/\text{H})$	3.8615	3.9570	3.8170	3.8232	3.8695	3.9636	3.8297	3.8297	3.8492	3.9390	3.7999	3.8166
	$\beta_2(\text{D}/\text{H})$	3.9665	4.0623	3.9138	3.9329	3.9730	4.0681	3.9412	3.9412	4.0819	4.1754	4.0182	4.0581
	$\beta(^{13}\text{C}/^{12}\text{C})$	1.0734	1.0747	1.0725	1.0717	1.0731	1.0745	1.0714	1.0714	1.0735	1.0748	1.0726	1.0716
	$\beta(\text{D}/\text{H})$	3.9035	3.9992	3.8557	3.8671	3.9109	4.0054	3.8743	3.8743	3.8724	3.9627	3.8218	3.8408
500 °C	$\beta_1(^{13}\text{C}/^{12}\text{C})$	1.0317	1.0324	1.0314	1.0311	1.0316	1.0323	1.0313	1.0310	1.0318	1.0324	1.0314	1.0312
	$\beta_2(^{13}\text{C}/^{12}\text{C})$	1.0332	1.0339	1.0328	1.0323	1.0331	1.0337	1.0326	1.0321	1.0344	1.0351	1.0339	1.0330
	$\beta_1(\text{D}/\text{H})$	1.8931	1.9191	1.8823	1.8829	1.8951	1.9208	1.8839	1.8846	1.8894	1.9140	1.8774	1.8808
	$\beta_2(\text{D}/\text{H})$	1.9061	1.9315	1.8938	1.8969	1.9076	1.9328	1.8950	1.8989	1.9233	1.9476	1.9089	1.9160
	$\beta(^{13}\text{C}/^{12}\text{C})$	1.0324	1.0331	1.0321	1.0317	1.0324	1.0330	1.0320	1.0316	1.0325	1.0331	1.0321	1.0316
	$\beta(\text{D}/\text{H})$	1.8983	1.9240	1.8869	1.8885	1.9001	1.9256	1.8883	1.8904	1.8928	1.9173	1.8805	1.8843

MP2^{sf} means the harmonic β factors calculated by using scaled harmonic frequencies (scale factor is equal to 0.9816). Subscript 1 or 2 means the non-equivalent positions for isotope substitutions, e.g., $\beta_1(\text{D}/\text{H})$ represents the β factor of hydrogen isotope substitution at the methyl group. $\beta(^{13}\text{C}/^{12}\text{C})$ or $\beta(\text{D}/\text{H})$ is the β factor for calculating intermolecular isotope equilibria.

Table 3 (continued)

<i>i</i> -butane		AnZPE	AnEXC	VrZPE	VrEXC	QmCorr	CenDist	HIR	DBOC	Corr
50 °C	$\beta_1(^{13}\text{C}/^{12}\text{C})$	0.9947	1.0000	0.9999	1.0001	1.0000	1.0000	1.0000	1.1313	1.1253
500 °C	$\beta_1(^{13}\text{C}/^{12}\text{C})$	0.9978	1.0002	0.9999	1.0003	1.0000	1.0000	1.0000	1.0529	1.0511
	$\beta_2(^{13}\text{C}/^{12}\text{C})$	0.9979	0.9998	0.9999	1.0000	1.0000	1.0000	1.0000	1.0528	1.0502
	$\beta_1(\text{D/H})$	0.9696	1.0034	0.9997	1.0005	1.0000	1.0000	1.0019	1.0560	1.0295
	$\beta_2(\text{D/H})$	0.9694	1.0064	1.0000	0.9999	1.0000	0.9998	1.0000	1.0583	1.0321
	$\beta(^{13}\text{C}/^{12}\text{C})$	0.9978	1.0001	0.9999	1.0003	1.0000	1.0000	1.0000	1.0529	1.0509
	$\beta(\text{D/H})$	0.9696	1.0037	0.9997	1.0004	1.0000	1.0000	1.0017	1.0563	1.0298

AnZPE is the anharmonic correction for the zero-point energy. AnEXC is the anharmonic correction for the vibrational excited states. VrZPE is the vibration-rotation coupling correction for the zero-point energy. VrEXC is the vibration-rotation coupling correction for the vibrational excited states. QmCorr is a correction for quantum mechanical rotation. CenDist is the centrifugal distortion correction arising from rotation-vibration interaction. HIR is the correction due to hindered internal rotations. DBOC is the diagonal Born-Oppenheimer correction. Corr means the overall contribution of the corrections considered here, which is equal to AnZPE · AnEXC · VrZPE · VrEXC · QmCorr · CenDist · HIR · DBOC.

trans-butane, our results show that the conformers of *n*-butane contain similar isotope signature when they reach isotope equilibria. Therefore, it is reasonable to use the β factors of *trans*-butane to represent the β factors of *n*-butane under currently experimental precisions (e.g., within $\pm 0.5\%$ and $\pm 5\%$ for $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ and δD values, Liu et al., 2019). Considering the similar finding for PSIE, we will use the isotope signatures of *trans*-butane to represent those of *n*-butane hereafter. As shown in Table 5, there are negligible carbon isotope fractionations between *n*-butane and *i*-butane when they reach equilibria. However, equilibrium hydrogen isotope fractionations show that *n*-butane is enriched in deuterium than *i*-butane at equilibria. Within the temperature range of 200 °C to 500 °C, a crossover of hydrogen isotope fractionation was found when we calculate the equilibrium isotope effects beyond the harmonic and Born-Oppenheimer approximation.

4. Discussion

4.1. Uncertainties in α values

The accuracy of calculated α values mainly depends on the accuracy of harmonic frequencies, which is further determined by the chosen theoretical methods and basis sets. According to our computational experience, the influence of theoretical methods is stronger than that of basis sets. When the utilized basis sets are sufficient in modeling, α values calculated from different basis sets should be very close to each other under the same theoretical method. For example, the equilibrium isotope fractionation factors calculated from 6-311+G(d,p) and aug-cc-pVTZ are almost the same under MP2 or B3LYP method. This means 6-311+G(d,p) basis set is adequate for the content of this study.

On the harmonic approximation, we used a frequency scale factor to correct the overestimation of harmonic frequencies generated from MP2/6-311+G(d,p). By comparing the α values of MP2 with and without frequency scaling, we can conclude that the use of scale factor only has limited influence on our calculations. Meanwhile, the difference between α values of MP2 and MP2^f can be considered as the computational errors due to the incomplete treatment of electron correlation and the use of finite basis sets. This suggests the computational error of α values obtained from CCSD(T)/6-311+G(d,p) should be even smaller than the deviation between $\alpha(\text{MP2})$ and $\alpha(\text{MP2}^f)$ values. The precision of our harmonic predictions at CCSD(T)/6-311+G(d,p) therefore can be roughly estimated to be within $\pm 1\%$ for $1000\ln\alpha_{2-1}(^{13}\text{C}/^{12}\text{C})$, $\pm 6\%$ for $1000\ln\alpha_{2-1}(\text{D/H})$, and $\pm 1\%$ for $1000\ln\alpha(\text{D/H})$, which is comparable to the magnitudes of experimental precisions (Liu et al., 2019; Julien et al., 2020).

Among all the corrections, anharmonicity plays an important role to improve the accuracy of α values for both carbon and hydrogen isotope substitutions. Even so, the magnitude that anharmonicity contributes to α values is about the same as the computational error of our harmonic predictions. Notably, HIR and DBOC together contribute more than half of the total correction (Corr) for hydrogen isotope substitutions, but little for carbon isotope substitutions. The significance of HIR in this

study can be attributed to its “position-specific” characteristic, i.e., HIR shows its only influence on the hydrogen isotope substitutions in the methyl groups of butane. Unlike the effects of anharmonicity, the importance of HIR is enlarged in the calculation of α values although the contribution of HIR to β values is much less than that of anharmonicity. DBOC is a small effect on electronic energy that is neglected in the Born-Oppenheimer approximation. The magnitude of this effect is argued to be $\sim Z^2/M$, where Z means atomic number, and M means nuclear mass (Handy et al., 1986; Imafuku et al., 2016). Therefore, consideration of DBOC is expected to improve the accuracy of isotope fractionation calculations for light elements, especially H/D exchanges (Zhang and Liu, 2018). As shown in Liu and Liu (2016), the numerical uncertainty of higher-order energy terms does not need to consider in the calculation of isotope effects because some of the errors should be canceled. For example, the contributions of DBOC to α values calculated from CCSD/aug-cc-pVTZ and MP2/6-311+G(d,p) are almost identical (i.e., with the deviation of $\sim 0.1\%$ for correcting $1000\ln\alpha_{2-1}(\text{D/H})$ in *trans*-butane at 50 °C). However, the methodology uncertainty of HIR is hard to estimate. Further comparison between theoretical calculation and experimental observation of isotope effects may provide valuable information to evaluate the uncertainty of HIR.

Meanwhile, we found that the harmonic results $\alpha(\text{B3LYP})$ are very close to our best estimated α values, $\alpha(\text{CCSD(T)}^{\text{Corr}})$. Because the calculations under CCSD(T) method are quite time-consuming, it is unrealistic to use CCSD(T) method for larger molecules. Obviously, B3LYP method provides a better balance of computational cost and overall reliability for the calculation of harmonic frequencies (Byrd et al., 2001). Therefore, a compromise for larger molecules can be obtained for isotope fractionation factors at the harmonic approximation under DFT method (e.g., B3LYP), which should meet the needs of many theoretical studies (Wang et al., 2009a,b; He et al., 2020).

4.2. Temperature dependences

The intramolecular and intermolecular isotope fractionation factors at equilibria were fitted as the fifth-order polynomial expressions of $1000/T$ in Table 6. Because there is no measurable equilibrium carbon isotope fractionation between *n*-butane and *i*-butane, we did not show the polynomial fit for the carbon isotope equilibria. We selected 55 points within the temperature range from 0 °C to 726.85 °C to fit the fifth-order polynomials for the harmonic predictions (CCSD(T)). Results of 6 temperature points (0 °C, 50 °C, 120 °C, 200 °C, 500 °C, 726.85 °C) were used for fitting the contribution of higher-order corrections (Corr). The polynomials of CCSD(T)^{Corr} then is equal to the combination of the fifth-order polynomial expressions of CCSD(T) and Corr. Note that the polynomial fits are only available during the fitted temperature range. There is no intercept in our polynomial fits because $1000\ln\alpha$ values theoretically become 0 when temperature is extremely high. The fitted $1000\ln\alpha$ values are generally within 0.04% compared to our original data for intramolecular hydrogen isotope equilibria, within 0.02% for intramolecular carbon isotope equilibria, within 0.004% for

Table 4
Intramolecular isotope effects at equilibria predicted at various computational levels for *trans*-, *gauche*-, and *i*-butane.

T	intramolecular		<i>trans</i> -butane		<i>gauche</i> -butane		<i>i</i> -butane					
	isotope equilibria	CCSD(T)	MP2	MP2 ^{sf}	B3LYP	CCSD(T) ^{Corr}	CCSD(T)	MP2	MP2 ^{sf}	B3LYP	CCSD(T) ^{Corr}	CCSD(T) ^{Corr}
50 °C	1000ln α_{2-1} (¹³ C/ ¹² C)	13.4	13.6	13.1	12.2	-1.3	12.1	13.2	12.9	11.9	-1.7	11.5
	1000ln α_{2-1} (D/H)	63.9	63.2	60.8	66.4	8.1	72.0	63.5	60.8	67.5	7.5	71.1
120 °C	1000ln α_{2-1} (¹³ C/ ¹² C)	9.0	9.1	8.7	8.0	-1.4	7.6	8.8	8.9	8.5	-1.6	7.1
	1000ln α_{2-1} (D/H)	41.7	41.1	39.4	43.7	7.4	49.2	41.3	41.0	39.2	44.3	6.8
200 °C	1000ln α_{2-1} (¹³ C/ ¹² C)	5.9	5.9	5.7	5.1	-1.5	4.4	5.7	5.7	5.5	4.9	48.1
	1000ln α_{2-1} (D/H)	26.8	26.3	25.1	28.3	7.2	34.0	26.4	26.0	24.8	28.7	6.3
500 °C	1000ln α_{2-1} (¹³ C/ ¹² C)	1.5	1.5	1.4	1.1	-1.7	-0.3	1.4	1.4	1.3	-1.6	-0.2
	1000ln α_{2-1} (D/H)	6.9	6.5	6.1	7.4	5.9	12.7	6.6	6.2	5.9	7.5	5.4

The results of CCSD(T), MP2 and B3LYP are isotope equilibria calculated on the harmonic approximation without frequency scaling. MP2^{sf} means the results calculated on a frequency-scaled MP2/6–311+G(d,p) model. Corr means the contribution of all the higher-order corrections. CCSD(T)^{Corr} means the harmonic results of CCSD(T) combined with the contribution of corrections.

intermolecular hydrogen isotope equilibria.

We plot the temperature dependences of 1000ln α values with and without corrections in Fig. 2, comparing with the results of Polyakov and Horita (2021) for carbon isotope equilibria and Wang et al. (2009a) for hydrogen isotope equilibria. Note that the results of Wang et al. (2009a) were calculated under the treatment of “cutoff” effects and were fitted for the temperature range from 0 °C to 100 °C. At low temperature, our 1000ln α values show nearly linear correlation against 1000/T but have roughly linear correlation with T⁻¹ at high temperature. For both position-specific carbon and hydrogen isotope effects, the equilibrium isotope fractionations in *i*-butane are almost twice the magnitude of isotope fractionations in *n*-butane. This isotopic characteristic may have potential applications, e.g., identifying isotope signatures inherited from branched alkanes or isomerization of chain alkanes. For equilibrium isotope fractionation between *i*-butane and *n*-butane, only the temperature dependence of hydrogen isotope fractionations is detectable.

For the intramolecular carbon isotope effects (Fig. 2A), our results are generally in agreement with the calculation of Polyakov and Horita (2021) although deviations of ~ 2‰ can be found between our results of CCSD(T)^{Corr} and those of Polyakov and Horita (2021). For the intramolecular hydrogen isotope effects (Fig. 2B), our results show different temperature dependences from those of Wang et al. (2009a), which suggests that the calculation of equilibrium isotope fractionations using “cutoff” treatment is not accurate enough for the study of smaller hydrocarbons like butane. For isotope fractionations between *n*-butane and *i*-butane (Fig. 2C), there are significant differences between our results and those of Polyakov and Horita (2021) and Wang et al. (2009a). In contrast to our findings, for example, Polyakov and Horita (2021) predicted *n*-butane should be enriched in ¹³C relative to *i*-butane in a measureable magnitude when they reach isotope equilibria. We note that our calculation of equilibrium carbon isotope fractionation factors between butane isomers are in agreement with those of Thiagarajan et al. (2020). Since it is difficult to separate *i*-butane from *n*-butane in measurements (Thiagarajan et al., 2020), our results would provide valuable information for the experimental observations.

Fig. 3 shows the relationships of 1000ln α_{2-1} for intramolecular isotope equilibria in *n*-butane and *i*-butane. From a linear fitting point of view, the slopes of the equilibrium models are about 5 for *n*-butane and slightly larger than 5 for *i*-butane on the harmonic approximation. If the contribution of higher-order energy terms is considered, the slopes in Fig. 3 should be a little larger (~ 6) for both *n*-butane and *i*-butane. We found the slopes are smaller than the slope for intramolecular isotope equilibria in propane (i.e., ~ 7.5, Webb and Miller III, 2014). Since evidence shows that the intramolecular isotope signatures in propane are getting closer to equilibrium distributions with the increase of maturity (Liu et al., 2019), these curves may serve as an anchor to identify stages of maturation for oil and gas reservoirs.

Table 7 presents temperature-dependent abundance ratios of butane conformers and isomers when the species reach equilibria. The free energy differences we calculated at CCSD(T)/6–311+G(d,p) and MP2/6–311+G(d,p) are consistent with the previous studies (e.g., Karton et al., 2009; Barna et al., 2012), but B3LYP/6–311+G(d,p) failed to generate reasonable energy differences between *n*-butane and *i*-butane. It was reported that B3LYP sometimes may perform worse than HF methods for calculating energy differences (Zhao and Truhlar, 2008). Although the performance of B3LYP is good for harmonic frequency calculations, comparisons with other methods like MP2 or M06 suite are necessary if relative energies are required accurately. At equilibria, the abundance sequence of butane should be *i*-butane > *trans*-butane > *gauche*-butane. During the temperature range of interest, the abundance of *trans*-butane accounts for ~ 70% of *n*-butane, and collisions between molecules can provide enough energies to make the internal rotation mode overcome the barrier height without bond breaking (Cormanich and Freitas, 2009). In natural settings, the concentration of *n*-butane is usually observed to be similar to or even larger than that of *i*-butane (e.g., Liu et al., 2019; Suda et al., 2017), which means the proportions of

Table 5

Intermolecular isotope fractionations at equilibria between butane isomers calculated at various computational levels.

butane		gauche-trans						trans-iso					
T	1000lnα	CCSD(T)	MP2	MP2 ^{sf}	B3LYP	Corr	CCSD(T) ^{corr}	CCSD(T)	MP2	MP2 ^{sf}	B3LYP	Corr	CCSD(T) ^{corr}
50 °C	¹³ C/ ¹² C	-0.3	-0.3	-0.3	-0.3	-0.6	-0.9	-0.4	-0.4	-0.3	-0.2	-0.1	-0.5
	D/H	3.3	2.7	2.6	3.0	-2.7	0.6	16.1	18.0	17.4	14.5	-1.0	15.1
120 °C	¹³ C/ ¹² C	-0.3	-0.2	-0.2	-0.2	-0.5	-0.8	-0.2	-0.2	-0.2	0.0	-0.2	-0.4
	D/H	2.5	2.0	2.0	2.3	-2.4	0.0	11.3	12.9	12.4	10.0	-2.0	9.3
200 °C	¹³ C/ ¹² C	-0.2	-0.2	-0.2	-0.2	-0.5	-0.7	-0.1	-0.1	-0.1	0.0	-0.3	-0.4
	D/H	1.9	1.6	1.5	1.9	-2.0	-0.1	8.0	9.2	8.8	6.8	-3.1	4.9
500 °C	¹³ C/ ¹² C	-0.1	-0.1	-0.1	-0.1	-0.2	-0.3	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	-0.5	-0.5
	D/H	0.9	0.8	0.8	1.0	-1.4	-0.4	2.9	3.5	3.4	2.2	-5.3	-2.4

Table 6

Fifth-order polynomial fits of intramolecular and intermolecular isotope fractionation factors at equilibria from 273.15 K to 1000 K.

273.15 K - 1000 K		A	B	C	D	E	
CCSD(T)	n-butane	1000lnα ₂₋₁ (¹³ C/ ¹² C)	0.04606	-0.49203	1.64241	-0.19996	-0.41041
Corr	i-butane	1000lnα ₂₋₁ (D/H)	0.15997	-1.86117	6.97651	-1.61143	-0.69740
	i-butane	1000lnα ₂₋₁ (¹³ C/ ¹² C)	0.08818	-0.92497	3.01062	-0.36977	-0.81215
	n-i	1000lnα ₂₋₁ (D/H)	0.27231	-3.14150	11.22596	1.01955	-0.30995
	n-butane	1000lnα(D/H)	0.01842	-0.19850	0.52517	1.44545	-0.11692
	n-butane	1000lnα ₂₋₁ (¹³ C/ ¹² C)	-0.13750	1.37277	-5.21050	9.21319	-7.12072
	i-butane	1000lnα ₂₋₁ (D/H)	0.04985	-0.55541	2.58028	-6.42032	9.64809
CCSD(T) ^{corr}	i-butane	1000lnα ₂₋₁ (¹³ C/ ¹² C)	-0.04905	0.53921	-2.21285	4.15372	-3.35020
	n-i	1000lnα ₂₋₁ (D/H)	0.11318	-0.96804	2.41149	-0.66176	0.59192
	n-butane	1000lnα(D/H)	-0.06270	0.80249	-4.50287	12.69125	-14.51647
	n-butane	1000lnα ₂₋₁ (¹³ C/ ¹² C)	-0.09144	0.88074	-3.56809	9.01323	-7.53113
	i-butane	1000lnα ₂₋₁ (D/H)	0.20982	-2.41658	9.55679	-8.03175	8.95069
	i-butane	1000lnα ₂₋₁ (¹³ C/ ¹² C)	0.03913	-0.38576	0.79777	3.78395	-4.16235
n-i	i-butane	1000lnα ₂₋₁ (D/H)	0.38549	-4.10954	13.63745	0.35779	0.28197
	n-i	1000lnα(D/H)	-0.04428	0.60399	-3.97770	14.13670	-14.63339

Polynomial fit follows the form: $1000\ln\alpha = A\left(\frac{1000}{T}\right)^5 + B\left(\frac{1000}{T}\right)^4 + C\left(\frac{1000}{T}\right)^3 + D\left(\frac{1000}{T}\right)^2 + E\left(\frac{1000}{T}\right)$.

CCSD(T)^{corr} = CCSD(T) + Corr.

butane isomers do not reach the equilibrated scenario. Because the dissociation energy of n-butane and i-butane is similar, it suggests that the proportion may be controlled by precursor hydrocarbons and formation mechanisms. For example, both n-butane and i-butane undergo C—C bond cracking processes during the formation of thermogenic gas. This also implies that methane, ethane, and propane should inherit partial isotope signatures from precursor butane, and the position-specific carbon isotope effects in butane may not be able to serve as a geothermometer. Recently, Thiagarajan et al. (2020) found that the bulk carbon and hydrogen isotope compositions of ethane, propane, n-butane and n-pentane approach equilibria as the maturity increases for most studied gas reservoirs, but i-butane and i-pentane do not show isotope equilibrated pattern. It may be also possible that i-alkanes form in a different pattern from that of n-alkanes. Therefore, the isotopic distributions combined with the proportions of butane isomers may provide a clue to the formation mechanism of i-alkanes.

4.3. Geochemical applications

4.3.1. Hydrogen isotope geothermometry

Although the δD values in n-alkyl and isoprenoid carbon skeletons suggest hydrogen barely exchanges in the young, cool sediments (Andersen et al., 2001; Yang and Huang, 2003), similar measurements show strong evidence of hydrogen exchange process in many ancient rocks (Sessions et al., 2004). Experimental estimates of exchange rates between organic hydrogen and water also suggest that hydrogen exchanges can occur on a geological timescale of 10⁴–10⁸ years at warm conditions (Sessions et al., 2004). The experimental lifetimes of hydrogen exchanges between propane and water are only in the order of days in the present of Ni and Pd at 200 °C, and metal catalytic reactions showed that intramolecular hydrogen isotope equilibria of propane

can be faster achieved in anhydrous environments than in hydrous environments (Xie et al., 2018). The isotopic measurements of natural samples suggest that terminal H of propane may equilibrate with water from the beginning, and the intramolecular hydrogen isotope signatures of propane with the highest maturity in Woodford shale may reflect isotope equilibrated distributions (Liu et al., 2019). Under hydrothermal conditions, experimental observations suggested that short chain n-alkanes and n-alkenes can achieve redox-dependent metastable equilibria rapidly (Seewald, 1994, 2001, 2003), n-butane and n-butene are likely approaching isotopic equilibria driven by reversible hydrogen isotope exchanges with water (Reeves et al., 2012). Based on a pseudo first-order approximation, hydrogen exchange half-times ($t_{1/2}$) were hypothetically estimated to be 1000 years and 10,000 years for methylene and methyl H positions and averaged 6400 years for all H positions in n-butane (Sessions et al., 2004). These evidences suggest that intramolecular and intermolecular hydrogen isotope equilibria within and between butane isomers may serve as a promising geothermometer for natural settings.

4.3.2. Aerobic and anaerobic microbial oxidations

Microorganisms are capable to oxidize hydrocarbons aerobically or anaerobically (Atlas, 1995; Kniemeyer et al., 2007). Understanding the isotope fractionations associated with aerobic and anaerobic microbial oxidation of hydrocarbons would provide information to identify the source and sink of hydrocarbons. Kinnaman et al. (2007) observed the δ¹³C and δD variations associated with the aerobic microbial oxidation of methane, ethane, propane, and n-butane, e.g., the δ¹³C values of resident n-butane changed from -30.8‰ to -18.3‰ in the aerobic microbial oxidation experiment at 15 °C, yielding a carbon isotope fractionation factor of -2.9‰ ± 0.9 for a Rayleigh fractionation model. The fractionation factors can be applied to determine oxidation of

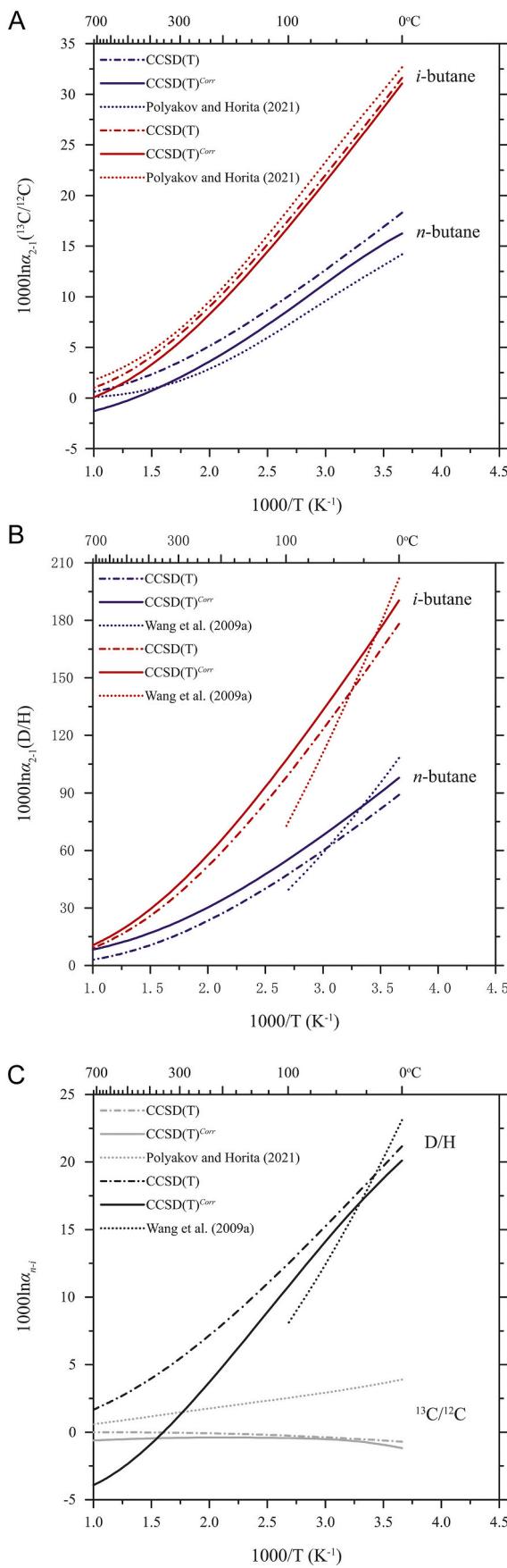


Fig. 2. Equilibrium isotope fractionation factors ($1000\ln\alpha$) within and between butane isomers.

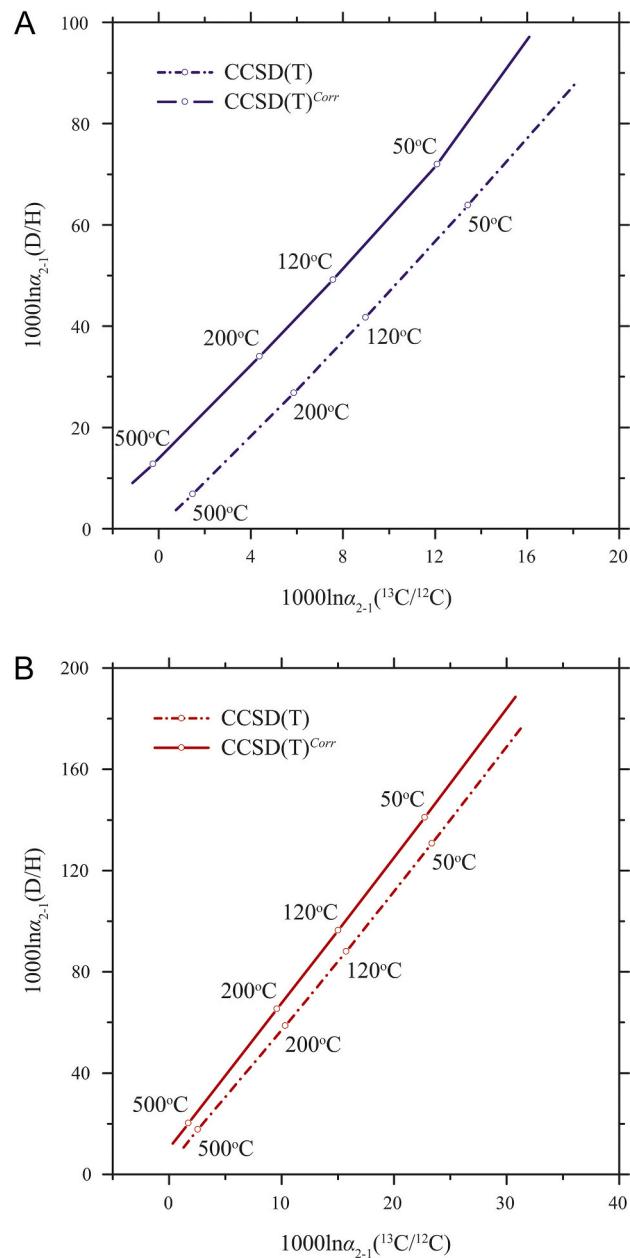


Fig. 3. Equilibrium models of intramolecular isotope effects in (A) *n*-butane and (Bb) *i*-butane.

hydrocarbons in the oxic marine sediments at 15 °C. Gilbert et al. (2019) applied position-specific carbon isotope effects of propane to trace processes related to anaerobic microbial oxidation of hydrocarbons. This isotope analysis may further provide insights into understand the mechanisms of biochemical processes that change the intramolecular isotope signatures of hydrocarbons.

Aerobic and anaerobic consumptions of butane invoke C—H or C—C bond breaking processes, therefore could change intramolecular carbon/hydrogen isotope signatures dramatically from the equilibrium isotope fractionations. For example, a novel oxidation mechanism of butane is observed in the presence of the archaeal genus, *Candidatus Syntrophoarchaeum* (Singh et al., 2017). The introduction of position-specific carbon/hydrogen isotope analysis of butane would expose correlated information to track biogeochemical cycle of hydrocarbons. We expect that the intramolecular isotope equilibrium signatures of butane may serve as a reference frame for identifying kinetic processes like aerobic and anaerobic microbial oxidations of hydrocarbons.

Table 7

Equilibrated abundance ratios of butane conformers and isomers at various temperatures.

Conformer	$\Delta E_{gauche-trans}$ (J mol ⁻¹) ^a			$R_{trans/gauche}$ ^b		
	T	CCSD(T)	MP2	B3LYP	CCSD(T)	MP2
50 °C	2993	2809	3781	3.0	2.8	4.1
120 °C	3103	2909	3815	2.6	2.4	3.2
200 °C	3235	3030	3854	2.3	2.2	2.7
500 °C	3731	3492	4001	1.8	1.7	1.9

Isomer	ΔE_{n-i} (J mol ⁻¹) ^a			$R_{i/n}$ ^c		
	T	CCSD(T)	MP2	B3LYP	CCSD(T)	MP2
50 °C	7175	7535	1468	14.4	16.5	1.7
120 °C	6881	7021	964	8.2	8.6	1.3
200 °C	6574	6461	420	5.3	5.2	1.1
500 °C	5611	4555	-1420	2.4	2.0	0.8

^a Free energy differences between butane conformers/isomers obtained from Gaussian 09 package.

^b Abundance ratios (R) at equilibria calculated using free energy values according to $\Delta G = -RT\ln K$.

^c Here the free energy values of *trans*-butane are used to represent the values of *n*-butane.

4.3.3. Abiotic origin of hydrocarbons

Recently, Suda et al. (2017) found the relationship of $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values of C₁ to C₅ straight-chain alkanes sampled from Hakuba Happo hot springs (Japan) is consistent with an abiotic polymerization model. Both bulk and position-specific isotope signatures provide valuable information for interpreting the mechanism of abiotic synthesis. In Suda et al. (2017), an unusual isotopic enrichment in *i*-butane was found to be 5–8‰ enriched in $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ relative to *n*-butane. Therefore, it is promising that the position-specific carbon and hydrogen isotope effects in butane can provide additional information for understanding formation mechanisms of abiotic hydrocarbons. Meanwhile, calibrations are thought to be needed for constraining the accuracy of position-specific isotope analysis when the analysis is applied to natural samples. The equilibrium properties calculated theoretically then may serve as a calibration of experimental analyses. Moreover, abiotic hydrocarbons can be produced during formation and evolution processes of planets and their satellites. For example, computational simulations show that the abundance of butane may be similar to that of propane in Titan's atmosphere (Dobrijevic et al., 2016). It may be possible that extraterrestrial hydrocarbons form in a thermodynamic pattern. The intramolecular isotope equilibria in butane may further provide unique information for understanding formations of extraterrestrial hydrocarbons.

5. Conclusions

Accurate temperature dependences of intramolecular and intermolecular carbon and hydrogen isotope distributions at equilibria within and between butane isomers have been calculated beyond the harmonic approximation and the Born-Oppenheimer approximation. 1000ln α_{2-1} values in *i*-butane are found to be almost twice the values in *n*-butane for both carbon and hydrogen isotope equilibria. The contribution of higher-order energy terms is found to be comparable to the magnitude of the current experimental measurements, e.g., at 200 °C, the total contribution of corrections is -1.5‰ and +7‰ to 1000ln α_{2-1} values for intramolecular carbon and hydrogen isotope equilibria in *n*-butane, -0.3‰ and -3.1‰ to 1000ln α values for equilibrium carbon and hydrogen isotope fractionations between *n*-butane and *i*-butane. Our results show that anharmonicity plays an important role to improve the accuracy of α values for both carbon and hydrogen isotope equilibria. Along with anharmonicity, hindered internal rotation and diagonal Born-Oppenheimer correction contribute significantly for accurate predictions of position-specific hydrogen

isotope equilibria. The proportions of equilibrated butane conformers and isomers are calculated for typical temperature points, and the abundance sequence follows *i*-butane > *trans*-butane > *gauche*-butane. The DFT method B3LYP is evaluated as a practical option to produce isotope fractionation factors for larger molecules, but may fail to generate reasonable proportions of equilibrated species. Our predictions provide a theoretical framework for further studies of position-specific isotope effects in butane, such as calibrating experimental measurements, establishing thermometers, and recognizing kinetic processes.

Declaration of Competing Interest

The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

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Appendix A. Supplementary data

Supplementary data to this article can be found online at <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.chemgeo.2020.120031>.

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