

Article

Multidimensional analysis of time-resolved charged particle imaging experiments

Vincent Lorient^{1,2,3} , Luis Bañares^{1*}  and Rebeca de Nalda² 

¹ Departamento de Química Física (Unidad Asociada I+D+i al CSIC), Facultad de Ciencias Químicas, Universidad Complutense de Madrid, 28040 Madrid, Spain

² Instituto de Química Física Rocasolano, CSIC, C/Serrano 119, 28006 Madrid, Spain

³ Institut lumière matière, UMR5306 Université Lyon 1-CNRS, Université de Lyon 69622 Villeurbanne cedex, France

* Correspondence: lbanares@ucm.es

Abstract: We present a tutorial to realize a multidimensional fitting procedure capable of extracting all the relevant information contained in a sequence of charged particle images acquired as a function of time in femtosecond pump-probe experiments. The images are reproduced using a 3D fitting method, which provides the velocity (or center-of-mass kinetic energy) and angular distributions contained in the images and their time evolution. A detailed example of the method is shown through the analysis of the time-resolved predissociation dynamics of CH₃I on the *B*-band origin [Gitzinger *et al.*, *J. Chem. Phys.* **133**, 234313 (2010)]. We show that the multidimensional approach is essential for the analysis of complex images that contain several overlapping contributions where reduced dimensionality analyses cannot provide a reliable description of the features present in the image sequence. This methodology can be generalized to many types of multidimensional data analysis.

Keywords: Femtochemistry; VMI (velocity map imaging); Multidimensional analysis.

PACS: 07.05.Kf, 33.80.Gj, 07.77.Ka

A broad range of experimental scientific fields have moved over the last few years from the study of scalar or vectorial quantities (*i.e.* measurement of a magnitude or a string of data as a function of a relevant variable) to the acquisition of images (*i.e.* 2D sets of data). The broad availability of cheap charge-coupled devices (CCD), the larger storage capabilities and the faster communication protocols have contributed to this remarkable change. In particular, in the field of Atomic and Molecular Physics, traditional methods, such as time-of-flight detection of ions or photoelectrons, are increasingly being replaced by techniques like ion or photoelectron imaging, or even ion-photoelectron coincidence imaging, for the study of photoionization, photodissociation, reaction dynamics or molecular alignment [1–8]. The acquisition of spatially-resolved data on the final position of these particles can yield a wealth of information of the process under study that was unimaginable with previous methods. In the analysis of these data it has been common practice to analyze either integrated sections or cuts of the images to obtain 1D information that is then analyzed with standard 0D or 1D fitting procedures [9–12]. In many cases, the richness of the information that can be extracted from the data is lost. Multidimensional analysis can separate certain contributions that are often the key to unravel the dynamical processes.

In this work, we present a multidimensional fitting solution dedicated to obtain the best fit to the complete set of data contained in a time sequence of a sequence of velocity map images measured in femtosecond pump-probe experiments, through parameterized functionals that describe radial and angular properties of the particle distribution as a function of time. As will be shown, the multidimensional fit becomes essential for instance when contributions with different time behavior are overlapping. Additionally, for those cases where the initial guesses for the parameters or functional forms of the fit are misguided (on the number or nature of the contributions to the image, on the time behavior of anisotropy, etc...), discrepancies can be detected easily through the use of the

analysis of the residuals. It is important to note that the multidimensional nature of the fit allows the discrimination of the different contributions to the images, in a manner that a reduced-dimensionality analysis cannot achieve. This method has revealed its value in a number of contributions where the need for discrimination of overlapping contributions in charged particle images was crucial [13–18]. The method is analogous to the global 2D fit approach used in Stolow's group [19–22] but can easily be extended to extra dimensions such as the anisotropy, the temperature, the intensity dependence, measurements in coincidence, etc. . . With some modifications, the method can be equally applied to other problems, such as the detection of spectrally and spatially resolved X-rays from high-harmonic generation [23], or temporal-spectral-spatial ultrashort pulse characterization [24–26] and time-resolved time-of-flight measurements [27]. For each particular application, functional shapes and dependences have to be adapted, but the strategy presented here is of general applicability to the study of 2D or higher dimensionality data. We describe the procedure in a pedagogical way to adapt any algorithms of optimization to a multidimensional analysis.

The paper is organized as follows. In Sec. 1, the method to construct velocity map images and to describe their time evolution is presented, including both 3D and 2D versions. The multidimensional numerical fitting procedure is explained in Sec. 2, and Sec. 3 is dedicated to the application of the method to a case example: the femtosecond pump-probe velocity map imaging (VMI) experiment on CH₃I predissociation on the *B*-band. Sec. 4 closes the paper with the main conclusions.

1. Construction of a sequence of velocity map images and description of its time evolution

The first demonstration of charged-particle imaging applied to reaction dynamics was made by Chandler and Houston. In their 1987 work [1], they showed how it is possible to record, at once, the entire spatial distribution of fragments originating from a photodissociation event. In this way, within the resolution limits, it is possible to directly measure the angular and velocity distributions of the products of a chemical reaction. The technique of ion/photoelectron imaging made a giant leap a decade later with the discovery by Eppink and Parker of the technique that is known as velocity map imaging [2], where through the use of open-lens electrodes with appropriate voltages, it is possible to work in a configuration where products of a photodissociation event with the same initial velocity vector are imaged onto the same position in the detector. This implies that the observed images are in fact 2D projections onto the plane of the detector of a velocity distribution on a spherical surface. Inversion techniques, such as the inverse Abel transform [4,28–31], need to be implemented in order to extract the true distribution from the 2D projection. Further developments of this technique led to the discovery of slice imaging for ions [32–34], where the extraction and detection conditions are such that only the central slice of the distribution on the sphere is detected, eliminating the need for inversion procedures that invariably introduce additional noise and required the existence of cylindrical symmetry in the interaction.

A typical image acquired in this type of experiment, either raw (through slice imaging), or, equivalently, mathematically inverted (through velocity map imaging), contains, in general, a set of "contributions" in the form of isotropic or anisotropic rings, by which we mean each of the possible processes or channels associated with a given ion or photoelectron. Typically, a "channel" is characterized by ions or photoelectrons with a given velocity (or center-of-mass kinetic energy) distribution, which, on the image, can be modeled, for instance, by a radial Gaussian function of the form

$$R(r) = \exp \left[-4 \ln 2 \left(\frac{r - r_c}{\sigma_c} \right)^2 \right], \quad (1)$$

where r_c is the radial distance from the center of the image and σ_c is the full-width-at-half-maximum (FWHM) of the contribution. Figure 1a shows an example of such a contribution in the form of an isotropic ring with parameters $r_c = 40$ and $\sigma_c = 3$ in units of pixels (px) of the CCD camera, which are proportional to the speed of the charged species.

The angular distribution (anisotropy) of charged particles for a given radius provides additional information on the nature of the channel. In the case of inversion symmetry, the anisotropy A can be written as

$$A(\alpha) \propto 1 + \sum_n \beta_{2n} P_{2n}(\cos \alpha) \quad (2)$$

75 where α is the angle between the polarization axis of the electric field and the considered direction and
 76 n takes maximum values of 1 and 2 for one-photon and two-photon processes, respectively. Legendre
 77 polynomials, $P_{2n}(\cos \alpha)$, represent a complete angular basis set, which has the advantage that only few
 78 terms in Eq. 2 are generally sufficient to describe the ring anisotropy. A 2D plot of this function using
 79 $\beta_2 = 2$ and $\beta_{2n>2} = 0$ is shown in Fig.1b.

80 A channel can be fully described by the product of the velocity and angular distributions,
 81 $R(r)A(\alpha)$. Figure 1c shows the result of the product of the 2D radial and angular representations
 shown in Figures 1a and 1b. The corresponding raw velocity map image can be simulated by applying

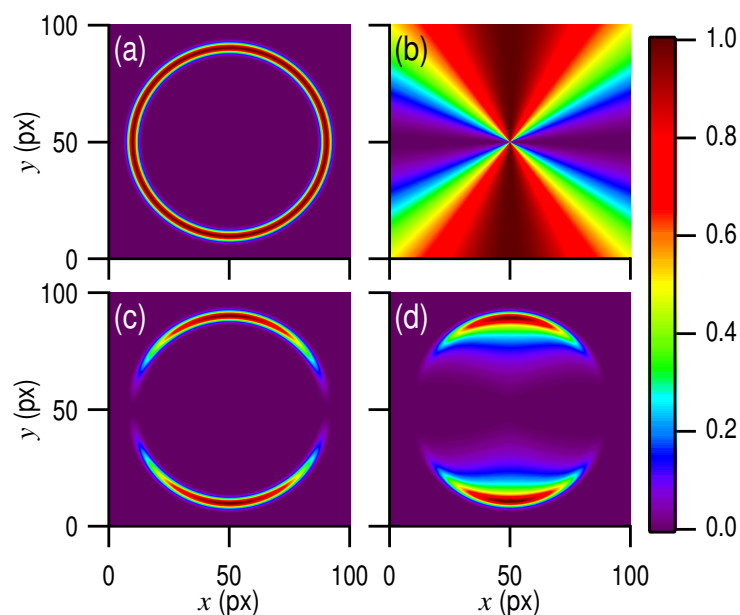


Figure 1. 2D representation of (a) the radial distribution given by Eq. (1) with parameters $r_c = 40$ px and $\sigma_c = 3$ px, (b) the angular distribution given by Eq. (2) using $\beta_2 = 2$ and $\beta_{2n>2} = 0$, (c) the product of the radial and angular distributions shown in (a) and (b), and (d) the corresponding Abel projection of (c).

82 the Abel projection [4] and the result is shown in Figure 1d. This simulation of a VMI image has been
 83 obtained assuming cylindrical symmetry on the 3D distribution, for which Figure 1c is the central slice.
 84

Multichannel processes lead to images I with a collection of contributions C_i like the one described above. In the case that the different contributions do not interfere with each other, the experimental signal can be described by the following sum:

$$I = \sum_i a_i C_i, \quad (3)$$

85 where a_i is the amplitude of each contribution. In the case that interferences occur, Eq. (3) would
 86 include additional interference terms.

Let us now consider the particular case of a channel for which the shape of the velocity and angular distributions does not change with time. In that case, the temporal evolution of the channel is represented just by an amplitude factor of the contribution that changes with time. For instance, in

the case of a contribution which appears from the depopulation of an excited state (described by an exponential-type growth of the amplitude factor), the temporal behavior can be modeled as

$$\Gamma(t) = I_r(t) \otimes \left[H(t - t_0) \times \left(1 - e^{-\frac{(t-t_0)}{\tau}} \right) \right], \quad (4)$$

where $H(t)$ is the Heaviside step function and $I_r(t)$ is the apparatus function, which typically depends on the duration of the laser pulses. The variable t_0 represents the central pump-probe delay time for which the contribution appears, and τ is the time constant of the exponential.

Therefore, the complete 3D description of a contribution $C_i(r, \alpha, t)$ can be written as

$$C_i(r, \alpha, t) = R_i(r) A_i(\alpha) \Gamma_i(t). \quad (5)$$

This contribution is illustrated in Figure 2.

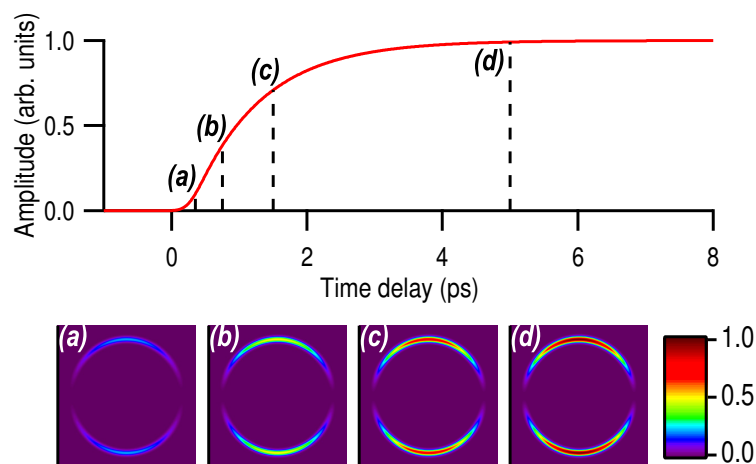


Figure 2. Temporal evolution of a contribution with a temporal behavior described by Eq. 4 with $\tau = 1$ ps, $t_0 = 250$ fs and where $I_r(t)$ is a Gaussian function with a FWHM of 300 fs. The images shown below correspond to the contribution depicted in Figure 1 at selected delay times.

In the particular case described above, time appears completely decorrelated from the other dimensions. However, in a more general case, some parameters of the radial or angular distributions can change with time. For example, the anisotropy can relax, the central position of the ring can shift or its width can vary. Hence, the contribution can be written in a more general way as:

$$C_i(r, \alpha, t) = R_i(r, t) A_i(\alpha, t) \Gamma_i(t) \quad (6)$$

where now both R and A become functions that depend on time. The $\Gamma_i(t)$ function could be contained in the functional form of R_i or A_i , but we have chosen to keep it explicitly written in Eq. 6 for convenience. This formalism can be generalized in a straightforward manner to any image scan as a function of an arbitrary observable, such as wavelength or temperature, for example, thus extending the dimensionality of the problem.

In some cases, the study of the dependence of the velocity distribution with time can be sufficient to extract all the relevant information of the pump-probe VMI experiment, with no additional insight to be gained from the anisotropy. In this situation, Eq. 6 can be angularly integrated and the signal originating from a given contribution becomes

$$C_{2D}(r, t) = R(r, t) \Gamma(t) \quad (7)$$

in the case that the velocity distribution changes with time, or

$$C_{2D}(r, t) = R(r)\Gamma(t), \quad (8)$$

if it does not.

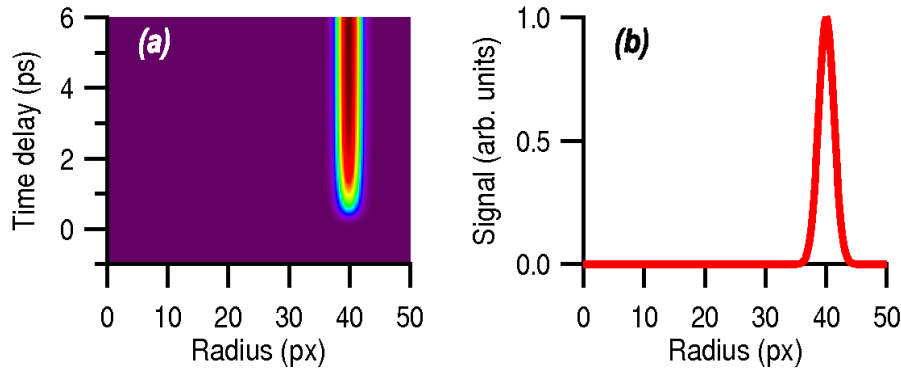


Figure 3. (a) 2D representation of the signal shown in Figure 2 angularly integrated as a function of radius and time. (b) Velocity distribution (in pixels of the CCD camera) extracted from (a) at a fixed delay time of 5 ps.

96

A 2D representation (angularly integrated) of the contribution considered in Figure 2 is displayed in Figure 3a. Figure 3b shows the velocity distribution (in pixels of the CCD camera) corresponding to a delay time of 5 ps. The amplitude and shape of the 2D and 3D representations can be directly compared through the angular integration

$$C_{2D}(r, t) = \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} r^2 \frac{|\sin(\alpha)|}{2} C(r, \alpha, t) d\alpha. \quad (9)$$

In the case that the non-zero anisotropy parameters β_{2n} are limited to the first few orders, an alternative method to keep the 3D information consists of angularly integrating the VMI image in steps of $\Delta\theta$ (10° for example) providing a set of 2D maps as follows

$$C_{2D}^{\theta_n}(r, t) = \int_{\theta_n - \Delta\theta/2}^{\theta_n + \Delta\theta/2} r^2 \frac{|\sin(\alpha)|}{2} C(r, \alpha, t) d\alpha. \quad (10)$$

97 In that case, the 3D fitting procedure is employed using the n maps of $C_{2D}^{\theta_n}(r, t)$. This last method
 98 provides the same results as the direct 3D method (Eq. 6) but tends to reduce the data size through the
 99 integration step. This can be employed in case of slow convergence of the optimization algorithm.

100 2. Numerical fitting procedure

101 The quality of a 1D least-squares fitting procedure is related to the possibility to produce a 1D
 102 vector, constructed from a parameterized functional form, to fit a 1D data vector. The most commonly
 103 available fit procedures are developed for one dimension. Typically, the routine optimizes a set of
 104 parameters, p_m , of a user-defined functional $F(x; p_m)$, which minimizes the global difference between
 105 the fit and the data for all values of the x variable.

106 A multidimensional fit can be performed using the same procedure by comparing each element
 107 of the matrix generated by the initial guess $F(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n; p_m)$ with the corresponding element in the
 108 data matrix, and searching for a global minimization (in our case, the minimization algorithm employed
 109 is a Levenberg-Marquardt nonlinear regression method [35–37]). In this sense, the multidimensional
 110 fit method can be realized using the standard 1D procedure for which all the elements of the n D matrix
 111 are stored in a single 1D vector. In this approach, the multidimensional fitting procedure requires

112 the use of invertible functions that convert an n -dimensional matrix into a single vector. The method
 113 of choice is to construct a 1D vector that contains, in queue, all the columns of the matrix and all
 114 the images of the sequence. This same conversion procedure is applied to both simulated and data
 115 matrices before and after the used of the optimisation algorithm.

116 A second issue concerns the choice of coordinates. Whereas the formalism of Sec. 1 is written
 117 in polar coordinates (r , the distance from the center, and α , the angle from the vertical axis), the
 118 experimental signal is normally recorded using a widely available 2D CCD camera with pixels that are
 119 well defined in cartesian coordinates. We propose to relate the polar and cartesian coordinates through
 120 the advantageous complex representation:

$$re^{i\alpha} = i(x - c_x) - (y - c_y) d \quad (11)$$

121 where (c_x, c_y) are the coordinates of the center of the image and d is a distortion parameter of the image
 122 (different from unity in the case that the pixels are not square). In this way, α is defined from $-\pi$ to
 123 π with respect to the vertical-up semi-axis, which is taken as the origin angle. In the case that the
 124 polarization axis of the laser does not match with the vertical lines of the camera but holds an angle $\delta\alpha$
 125 with it, it can be taken into account by multiplying Eq. 11 by $\exp(i\delta\alpha)$. We choose to fix $\alpha = 0$ in the
 126 singular case of $r = 0$ (i.e. c_x and c_y are integers). The images shown in Figures 1 and 2 are constructed
 127 using this conversion from polar to cartesian coordinates.

128 As was mentioned before, it is common that VMI images are recorded as a function of an
 129 experimental variable of interest. Examples of this are pump-probe time delay, laser wavelength,
 130 polarization angle, temperature or sample density. This implies that a standard experiment performed
 131 in this way can produce tens or hundreds of images (for instance, 640×480 pixels, with 12-bit dynamic
 132 range). With the conditions above, a single experiment with 100 images produces 50 MB in a stack of
 133 3D data. Since the larger the size of the data stack, the slower the convergence of the minimization
 134 algorithm, it is important to find either symmetries or constraints that can reduce the number of data
 135 points. For example, in the case of symmetric Abel-inverted images, it is possible to work only with a
 136 square quarter of the image (corresponding to, say, 240×240 pixels). The image size can be further
 137 reduced performing an $(n \times n)$ local integration, which reduces the size by a factor n^2 , although it can
 138 only be used if the spatial resolution required is not lower than n .

139 The description of a 3D functional necessarily requires a large number of parameters. The shape
 140 of each contribution along each axis and the correlations between them need to be considered. In the
 141 case of a time-resolved VMI experiment, the simplest contribution requires at least 6 parameters: one
 142 global amplitude, two temporal parameters (central position and time constant), two radial parameters
 143 (position and width) and one angular parameter (β_2 in Eq. 2). Indeed, the number of parameters
 144 increases with the number of observed channels. However, some parameters can be common for
 145 several contributions such as the origin of time which usually corresponds to the temporal overlap
 146 between the pulses and the width of some of the peaks that can be related to the apparatus function.

147 Initial guesses for the parameters must be carefully chosen in order to reduce the convergence
 148 time. A step by step procedure is proposed as follows. In order to find reasonable initial values for
 149 the parameters and test the functionals, prospective low resolution fits are previously realized with
 150 an $(n \times n)$ binning accompanied with a reduction of the number of images per time interval, so that
 151 the convergence time is reduced to a few minutes. The introduction of the contributions has to be
 152 performed stepwise, starting with the most intense one. A functional form for this main contribution
 153 is proposed, either empirically or from theoretical arguments, using parameters that can be estimated
 154 from visual inspection of a few images. Depending on the quality of the fit (looking at the residual),
 155 the functional can be improved. Then the other contributions are introduced one by one using the
 156 same strategy. Finally, the final adjustment is realized by removing the binning and considering all the
 157 images.

158 3. Case example: Analysis of a femtosecond pump-probe VMI experiment

159 In this section, we illustrate the strategy described in Secs. 1 and 2 to the analysis of an
160 experimental image sequence obtained in a femtosecond pump-probe VMI experiment. We take
161 as an example the photodissociation of CH₃I in the *B*-band, using a 201.2 nm femtosecond pump laser
162 pulse where the appearance of the I*(²P_{1/2}) fragment is probed by (2+1) REMPI with an ultrashort
163 305 nm laser pulse [38]. The dissociative mechanism of CH₃I in the *B*-band is relatively simple and
164 consists of an electronic predissociation process [39–42]. The absorption of one pump photon at
165 201.2 nm excites the CH₃I molecule from the electronic ground state into a bound Rydberg state in the
166 ground vibrational state (0₀⁰ transition). This Rydberg state is crossed by a repulsive potential energy
167 surface (PES) belonging to the *A*-band, which correlates with CH₃ and I*(²P_{1/2}) fragments [43]. The
168 initial population in the Rydberg state can be transferred into the repulsive PES with an efficiency
169 that depends on the coupling between the two surfaces. Once the transfer is done, the dissociation
170 of the molecule occurs in tens of femtoseconds producing CH₃ and I*(²P_{1/2}). When the iodine atom
171 is created, it can be resonantly ionized by the probe pulse using a (2+1) REMPI scheme. The ionized
172 fragments are accelerated by an external static electric field and focalized onto a microchannel plate
173 coupled with a phosphor screen. The VMI-image (*i.e.* the Abel projection of the Newton sphere) is
174 then recorded by a 12-bit Peltier cooled CCD camera. A set of images is recorded as a function of the
175 pump-probe delay time. Each image is numerically inverted using an Abel inversion procedure [28]
176 to retrieve the 3D velocity distribution of fragments as shown in Figure 4a and 4c. See Ref. [38] for
177 further details.

178 As usual in VMI experiments, each image contains information about the fragment velocity
179 and angular distributions. Typically, a number of well defined rings representing the velocity-angle
180 distribution of given photodissociation channels can be observed in the images. In the present case, the
181 time and anisotropy evolution of one ring is clearly observed in the sequence of images. The amplitude
182 of the signal of the ring depends on the number of iodine ions that are detected. The width of this
183 contribution directly depends on the rovibrational temperature of the initial molecule and that of the
184 CH₃ co-fragment, convoluted by the imaging apparatus resolution. The exact shape of the curve of
185 the velocity distribution can be quite complicated; nevertheless, it can be reasonably approximated by
186 Boltzmann, Gaussian or Lorentzian functions. In this experiment the main ring can be modeled as
187 the sum of two Gaussian functions which represents the CH₃ co-fragment in the ground vibrational
188 state ($\nu = 0$) and with one quantum of vibrational excitation in the symmetric stretch mode ($\nu_1 = 1$).
189 The temporal behavior expected for the relaxation of population can be modeled by an exponential
190 function, as shown in Eq. 4. The anisotropy of a single linearly polarized photon phenomenon can
191 be described by the second Legendre polynomial, considering β_2 as the only non-zero coefficient in
192 Eq. 2. The value of β_2 primarily depends on the angular nature of the transition, *i.e.* whether the
193 transition dipole moment is parallel or perpendicular to the dissociation axis. For the parallel case,
194 $\beta_2 > 0$ with a maximum value of $\beta_2 = 2$; for the perpendicular case, $\beta_2 < 0$ with an extreme value of
195 $\beta_2 = -1$. Both theoretical calculations and experiments for CH₃I have shown that the transition from
196 the electronic ground state to the *B*-band is of perpendicular nature. The observed final anisotropy,
197 measured through angular distributions of the fragments, can differ from the limiting cases of parallel
198 ($\beta_2 = 2$) or perpendicular ($\beta_2 = -1$) anisotropy, mainly because rotation of the molecule prior to
199 dissociation tends to blur the angular preference. This is especially relevant in the case of an indirect
200 dissociation process if the time scales are similar or slower than molecular rotation.

Inspection of a few experimental images of the sequence shows that the anisotropy does evolve in
this way [38], *i.e.* images taken at earlier delay times show a more pronounced anisotropy than those
taken at later times. The present example, therefore, provides a test of the fitting procedure where one

of the angular parameters is a function of time. The functional form of the loss of anisotropy with time is not known. An exponentially decreasing modulus of the β_2 parameter is proposed as:

$$\beta_2(t) = \beta_{2_0} + \Delta\beta_2 e^{-\frac{(t-t_0)}{\tau_{\beta_2}}}, \quad (12)$$

201 where β_{2_0} is the asymptotic anisotropy parameter, $\beta_{2_0} + \Delta\beta_2$ is the amplitude of the anisotropy
 202 parameter at $t = t_0$ and τ_{β_2} is the relaxation time. Some theoretical work has been dedicated to define
 203 the final value of β_{2_0} for a dissociation process that is either parallel or perpendicular, considering the
 204 dissociation time [44,45]. Those theoretical models are based on the rotation of the excited wave packet
 205 prior to dissociation. Although no predictions are available on the relaxation time, it can be estimated
 206 to be in the picosecond time scale.

The complete 3D function that was employed to describe the main contribution (anisotropic ring) on the *B*-band photodissociation of CH₃I can be written as follows:

$$C_1(r, \alpha, t) = \Gamma(t) \times \beta_2(t) P_2(\cos \alpha) \times [R_{1,a}(r) + \epsilon R_{1,b}(r)]. \quad (13)$$

207 where $R_{1,a}(r)$ and $R_{1,b}(r)$ are the radial contributions corresponding to CH₃ fragments in the two
 208 vibrational states mentioned above, and ϵ is the fraction of the population of CH₃ in $\nu_1 = 1$.

209 Femtosecond pump-probe VMI images contain, in general, some other low intensity secondary
 210 contributions, which can arise from different mechanisms, as for example, absorption of two pump
 211 photons, relaxation of the molecule over another state which has lower absorption probability, detection
 212 by non-resonant ionization or background gas contamination. The secondary contributions have to be
 213 considered in the fitting procedure if they are overlapped with the contribution or contributions of
 214 interest. In fact, a good reproduction of the secondary signals allows the isolation of the contribution
 215 of interest from the rest by subtraction of the previously fitted secondary signals. If these secondary
 216 contributions are neglected, then an error is generated in the fit with a magnitude corresponding to the
 217 sum of the secondary signals in the spatial overlap region.

218 In the present case example [38], the secondary contributions can be grouped into two classes.
 219 The first one appears in a broad range of velocities, is characterized by an asymmetric temporal
 220 shape and presents a complex anisotropy. This contribution appears quickly at short delay times and
 221 then slowly disappears. The second contribution has more localized velocities around the region
 222 of the contribution of interest (main ring). Moreover, it has a temporal evolution similar to the
 223 main contribution. Additionally, the secondary contributions show anisotropies which require the
 224 consideration of both β_2 and β_4 terms in Eq. 2.

225 In what follows, the specific results of the 3D fitting procedure applied to the mentioned case
 226 example are presented. Figure 4 shows two typical images, out of the sequence of 80 images recorded,
 227 fitted at short (120 fs) and asymptotic (10 ps) delay times. In order to remove the standard 3-4 pixel
 228 region of noise produced by the Basex inversion around the central column of the images [28], the fit
 229 has been carried out 4 pixels away from the central axis. Those points are thus removed from the fitted
 230 and measured images shown in Figure 4. Additionally, some of the mathematical functions used in the
 231 fitting procedure present a singularity at the center of the images. In order to avoid the singularities, a
 232 10 pixel circle was set to zero in the fitted and measured matrices. The elimination of these areas of the
 233 images does not represent any problem in the analysis, since all the relevant contributions are far away
 234 from the center.

235 The advantage of the 3D fitting procedure is that the anisotropy is considered. In the present case,
 236 the main contribution (ring) starts with a pronounced anisotropy (of perpendicular character), with
 237 the ion signal concentrated at the equator of the images, and later the ring evolves to become more
 238 isotropic. The anisotropy parameters of Eq. 12 obtained from the fit for this main contribution are
 239 $\beta_{2_0} = -0.50 \pm 0.03$, $\Delta\beta_2 = -0.51 \pm 0.03$ and $\tau_{\beta_2} = 1.26 \pm 0.13$ ps. Therefore, the fitted anisotropy at
 240 $t = t_0$ is $\beta_2(t = t_0) = -1.01 \pm 0.06$, which is characteristic of a purely perpendicular transition.

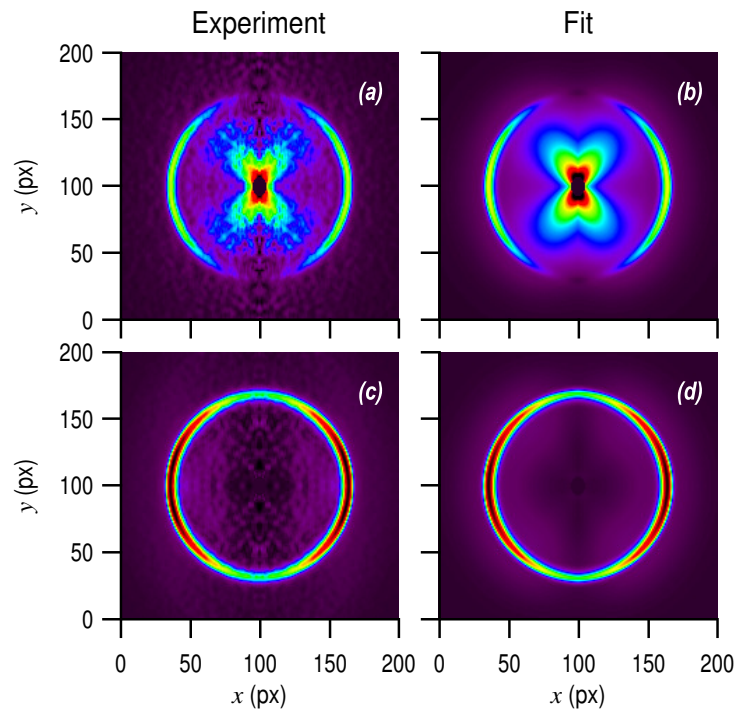


Figure 4. (a) and (c) Experimental Abel inverted VMI images recorded for the $I^*(^2P_{1/2})$ fragment at 120 fs and 10 ps delay times, respectively. (b) and (d) Corresponding fitted reconstructed images.

241 The two secondary contributions are visible in the experimental images shown in Figure 4. The
 242 first can be clearly seen at the center of the image shown in Fig. 4a; the second is appreciated at the
 243 vicinity of the main ring in Fig. 4c. These secondary contributions, together with the main contribution,
 244 can be distinguished in a more clear way in the velocity distributions shown in Fig. 5 at two delay
 245 times.

246 The time evolution of the velocity distribution can be well represented by angular integration of
 the images, as shown in Figure 6. The main contribution (ring) has been fitted in velocity (pixels) using

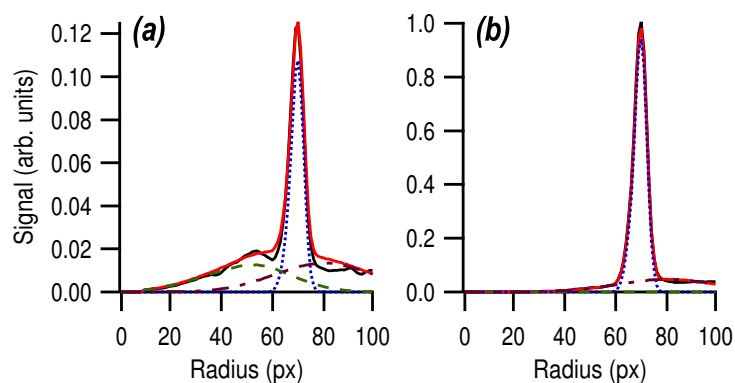


Figure 5. $I^*(^2P_{1/2})$ fragment velocity distributions (in pixels) at (a) 120 fs and (b) 10 ps delay times. The experimental data (—), the fitted total (---) and the fitted different contributions (main (···) and secondary (--- and ·-·)) are shown.

247 the sum of two Gaussian functions, which have the same width (5.27 ± 0.04 pixel) as indicated in Ref.
 248 [38]. The central position has been found to be at 69.9 ± 0.5 px for the main peak and at 65.7 ± 0.5 px for
 249 the minor shoulder with an amplitude $\epsilon = 0.147 \pm 0.002$. As was indicated above, the main peak and
 250

251 the shoulder are assigned to dissociation channels yielding $\text{CH}_3(\nu = 0)$ and $\text{CH}_3(\nu_1 = 1)$, respectively.

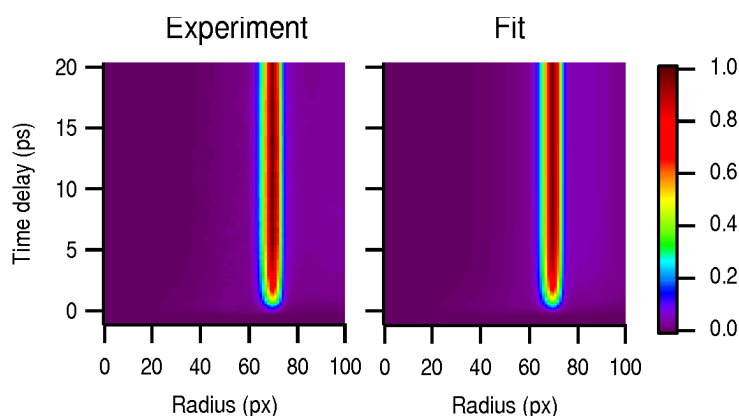


Figure 6. 2D representation corresponding to the angular integration of the $I^*(^2P_{1/2})$ fragment image sequence as a function of the delay time.

252

253 The temporal evolution of the secondary contribution appearing in the center of the images has
 254 been fitted using a 400 ± 50 fs Gaussian convolution of a 1.7 ± 0.1 ps exponential decay, and that of
 255 the other secondary contribution, which is closer to the main contribution, can be modeled with a
 256 functional form as in Eq. 4 with a time constant of $\tau = 1.48 \pm 0.05$ ps.

257 The temporal behavior of the contribution of interest isolated from the secondary contributions
 258 is shown in Figure 7 as a 1D transient. The data points shown in this figure have been obtained
 259 through subtraction of the fitted secondary contributions from the experimental measurement. Then
 260 the resulting signal has been fully integrated angularly and radially integrated over the region of
 interest. An exponential-type growth (Eq. 4) with a time constant of 1.54 ± 0.04 ps for this particular

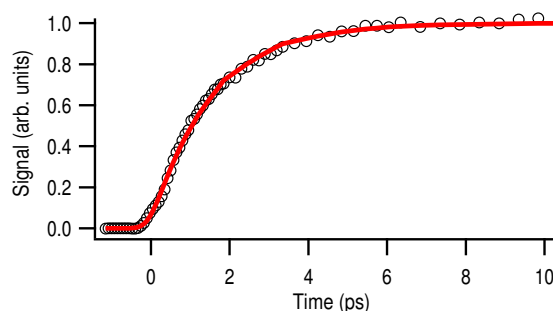


Figure 7. 1D transient for the amplitude of the main contribution as a function of time. (○) experimental data and (-) fit. See text for more details.

261

262 case has been found from the fit. A set of measurements has been carried out, which allows the
 263 evaluation of the statistical error. The time constant thus obtained has been found to be 1.5 ± 0.1 ps, as
 264 shown in Ref. [38].

265 4. Conclusions

266 A multidimensional fitting methodology has been developed for the full analysis of time-resolved
 267 velocity map image sequences obtained in femtosecond pump-probe photodissociation experiments.
 268 The key advantage of the method consists of its capability to distinguish the different overlapped
 269 contributions present in the set of images corresponding to different reaction channels of interest from
 270 other secondary signals arising from different mechanisms. Moreover, the contributions of interest

271 can be cleanly isolated from the secondary signals by filtering secondary contributions from the data
272 matrix. It must be noticed that the Abel projection can be implemented to fit recorded images directly,
273 in which case no previous requirements on inversion symmetry are necessary.

274 The present multidimensional fitting procedure has been applied to the analysis of a set of images
275 corresponding to the predissociation dynamics of CH₃I in the origin of the *B*-band detecting the
276 I*(²P_{1/2}) fragments by 2+1 REMPI. Additionally, this methodology has been applied successfully to the
277 analysis of other dissociation channels of vibrationally excited CH₃I in the *B*-band, and in the *A*-band,
278 both for the monomer and dimer species.

279 This multidimensional fitting concept applied in the present case to a set of velocity map images as
280 a function of time can be easily extended to other variables, like laser intensity, wavelength, temperature
281 or pulse duration. It can also be adapted to other types of signal detection, like fluorescence. In addition,
282 there is no conceptual problem to extend the fitting procedure to *n* dimensions, the only limitation
283 being computational time restrictions to analyze an *n*-dimensional matrix.

284 **Acknowledgments:** This work has been supported by the Spanish Ministry of Economy and Competitiveness
285 (grants CTQ2015-65033-P and CTQ2016-75880-P). This research has been carried out within the Unidad Asociada
286 Química Física Molecular between Departamento de Química Física I of UCM and CSIC. The facilities provided
287 by the CLUR (Centro de Láseres Ultrarrápidos) are gratefully acknowledged.

288 **Conflicts of Interest:** The authors declare no conflict of interest.

289 References

- 290 1. D. W. Chandler and P. L. Houston, "Two-dimensional imaging of state-selected photodissociation products
291 detected by multiphoton ionization," *J. Chem. Phys.* **87**, 1445 (1987).
- 292 2. A. T. J. B. Eppink and D. H. Parker, "Velocity map imaging of ions and electrons using electrostatic lenses:
293 Application in photoelectron and photofragment ion imaging of molecular oxygen," *Rev. Sci. Instrum.*, **68**,
294 3477 (1997).
- 295 3. J. A. Davies, J. E. LeClaire, R. E. Continetti and C. C. Hayden, "Femtosecond time-resolved
296 photoelectron-photoion coincidence imaging studies of dissociation dynamics," *J. Chem. Phys.* **111**, 1
297 (1999).
- 298 4. B. J. Whitaker, *Imaging in Molecular Dynamics. Technology and Applications* (Ed. Cambridge University Press,
299 Cambridge, 2003).
- 300 5. J. Ullrich, R. Moshammer, A. Dorn, R. Dörner, L. Ph. H. Schmidt, H. Schmidt-Böcking, "Recoil-ion and
301 electron momentum spectroscopy: reaction-microscopes," *Rep. Prog. Phys.* **66**, 1463 (2003).
- 302 6. M. N. R. Ashfold, N. H. Nahler, A. J. Orr-Ewing, O. P. J. Vieuxmaire, R. L. Toomes, T. N. Kitsopoulos, I. A.
303 Garcia, D. A. Chestakov, S.-M. Wu and D. H. Parker, "Imaging the dynamics of gas phase reactions," *Phys.*
304 *Chem. Chem. Phys.* **8**, 26 (2006).
- 305 7. I. V. Hertel and W. Radloff, "Ultrafast dynamics in isolated molecules and molecular clusters," *Rep. Prog.*
306 *Phys.* **69**, 1897 (2006).
- 307 8. A. I. Chichinin, K.-H. Gericke, S. Kauczok, C. Maul, "Imaging chemical reactions - 3D velocity mapping,"
308 *Int. Rev. Phys. Chem.* **28**, 607 (2009).
- 309 9. R. de Nalda, J. G. Izquierdo, J. Dura and L. Bañares, *J. Chem. Phys.* **126** 021101 (2007).
- 310 10. K. L. Wells, G. Perriam and V. G. Stavros, *J. Chem. Phys.* **130** 074308 (2009).
- 311 11. R. Spesyvtsev, O. M. Kirkby, M. Vacher and H. H. Fielding *Phys. Chem. Chem. Phys.* **14**, 9942-9947 (2012).
- 312 12. R. Spesyvtsev, O. M. Kirkby and H. H. Fielding, *Faraday Discuss.* **157** 165-179 (2012)
- 313 13. R. de Nalda, J. Durá, J. González-Vázquez, V. Lorient and L. Bañares, *Phys. Chem. Chem. Phys.*, 2011, 13,
314 13295-13304
- 315 14. G. Gitzinger, M. E. Corrales, V. Lorient, R. de Nalda, L. Bañares *J. Chem. Phys.* **136**, 074303 (2012)
- 316 15. M. E. Corrales, G. Balerdi, V. Lorient, R. de Nalda, L. Bañares *Faraday Discuss.*, **163**, 447 (2013)
- 317 16. M. E. Corrales, V. Lorient, G. Balerdi, J. González-Vázquez, R. de Nalda, L. Bañares, A. H. Zewail *Phys. Chem.*
318 *Chem. Phys.* **16**, 8703 (2014)
- 319 17. G. Balerdi, J. Woodhouse, A. Zanchet, R. de Nalda, M. L. Senent, A. García-Vela, L. Bañares *Phys. Chem.*
320 *Chem. Phys.*, **18**, 110 (2016)

- 321 18. O. M. Kirkby, M. Sala, G. Balerdi, R. de Nalda, L. Bañares, S. Guérin, N. Kaltsoyannis, H. Fielding *Phys.*
322 *Chem. Chem. Phys.* **17**, 16270 (2015)
- 323 19. D. Townsend, H. Satzger, T. Ejdrup, A. M. D. Lee, H. Stapelfeldt, and A. Stolow *J. Chem. Phys.* **125** 234302
324 (2006)
- 325 20. S. Ullrich, T. Schultz, M. Z. Zgierski and A. Stolow *Phys. Chem. Chem. Phys.*, **6**, 2796-2801 (2004)
- 326 21. A. E. Boguslavskiy, O. Schalk, N. Gador, W. J. Glover, T. Mori, T. Schultz, M. S. Schuurman, T. J. Martínez,
327 and A. Stolow *J. Chem. Phys.* **148**, 164302 (2018)
- 328 22. O. Schalk, A. E. Boguslavskiy and A. Stolow *J. Phys. Chem. A* **114** 4058-4064 (2010)
- 329 23. V. Lorient, A. Marciniak, L. Quintard, V. Despré, B. Schindler, I. Compagnon, B. Concina, G. Celep, C. Bordas,
330 F. Catoire, E. Constant and F. Lépine *J. Phys. Conf. Ser.* **635** 012006 (2015)
- 331 24. V. Lorient, A. Marciniak, G. Karras, B. Schindler, G. Renois-Predelus, I. Compagnon, B. Concina, R Brédy, G.
332 Celep, C. Bordas, E. Constant and F. Lépine, *J. Opt.* **19** 114003 (2017)
- 333 25. V. Lorient, G. Gitzinger and N. Forget *Opt. Express* **21** 24879 (2013)
- 334 26. V. Lorient, O. Mendoza-Yero, J. Pérez-Vizcaíno, G. Mínguez-Vega, R. de Nalda, L. Bañares and J. Lancis. *App.*
335 *Phys. B* **117** 67 (2014)
- 336 27. A. Marciniak, V. Despré, T. Barillot, A. Rouzée, M.C.E. Galbraith, J. Klei, C.-H. Yang, C.T.L. Smeenk, V.
337 Lorient, S. Nagaprasad Reddy, A.G.G.M. Tielens, S. Mahapatra, A.I. Kuleff, M.J.J. Vrakking and F. Lépine *Nat.*
338 *Commun.* **6** 7909 (2015)
- 339 28. V. Dribinski, A. Ossadtchi, V. A. Mandelshtam, and H. Reisler, "Reconstruction of Abel-transformable
340 images: The Gaussian basis-set expansion Abel transform method," *Rev. Sci. Instrum.* **73**, 2634 (2002).
- 341 29. G. A. Garcia, L. Nahon and I. Powis, "Two-dimensional charged particle image inversion using a polar basis
342 function expansion," *Rev. Sci. Instrum.* **75**, 4989 (2004).
- 343 30. C. Bordas, F. Paulig, H. Helm and D. L. Huestis, *Rev. Sci. Instrum.* **67** 2257 (1996).
- 344 31. M. J. J. Vrakking, "An iterative procedure for the inversion of two-dimensional ion/photoelectron imaging
345 experiments," *Rev. Sci. Instrum.* **72**, 4084 (2001).
- 346 32. C. R. Gebhardt, T. P. Rakitzis, P. C. Samartzis, V. Ladopoulos and T. N. Kitsopoulos, "Slice imaging: A new
347 approach to ion imaging and velocity mapping," *Rev. Sci. Instrum.* **72**, 3848 (2001).
- 348 33. D. Townsend, M. P. Minitti and A. G. Suits, "Direct current slice imaging," *Rev. Sci. Instrum.* **74** 2530 (2003).
- 349 34. J. J. Lin, J. Zhou, W. Shiu and K. Liu, "Application of time-sliced ion velocity imaging to crossed molecular
350 beam experiments," *Rev. Sci. Instrum.* **74** 2495 (2003).
- 351 35. D. W. Marquardt, "An Algorithm for Least-Squares Estimation of Nonlinear Parameters," *SIAM J. Appl.*
352 *Math.* **11**, 431 (1963).
- 353 36. Y. Bard, *Nonlinear Parameter Estimation* (Academic Press, New York, 1974).
- 354 37. N. R. Draper and H. Smith, *Applied Regression Analysis (Wiley Series in Probability and Statistics)* (John Wiley &
355 Sons Inc, New York, 1981).
- 356 38. G. Gitzinger, M. E. Corrales, V. Lorient, G. A. Amaral, R. de Nalda and L. Bañares, "A femtosecond velocity
357 map imaging study on B-band predissociation in CH₃I. I. The band origin," *J. Chem. Phys.* **132**, 234313
358 (2010).
- 359 39. D. J. Donaldson, V. Vaida and R. Naaman, "Ultraviolet absorption spectroscopy of dissociating molecules:
360 Effects of cluster formation on the photodissociation of CH₃I," *J. Chem. Phys.* **87**, 2522 (1987).
- 361 40. P. G. Wang and L. D. Ziegler, "Mode-specific subpicosecond photodissociation dynamics of the methyl
362 iodide B state," *J. Chem. Phys.* **95**, 288 (1991).
- 363 41. J. A. Syage, "Predissociation lifetimes of the \tilde{B} and \tilde{C} Rydberg states of CH₃I," *Chem. Phys. Lett.* **212**, 124
364 (1993).
- 365 42. A. P. Baronavski and J. C. Owruksy, "Vibronic dependence of the \tilde{B} state lifetimes of CH₃I and CD₃I using
366 femtosecond photoionization spectroscopy," *J. Chem. Phys.* **108**, 3445 (1998).
- 367 43. A. B. Alekseyev, H.-P. Liebermann, R. J. Buenker and S. N. Yurchenko, "An *ab initio* study of the CH₃I
368 photodissociation. I. Potential energy surfaces," *J. Chem. Phys.* **126**, 234102 (2007).
- 369 44. C. Jonah, "Effect of Rotation and Thermal Velocity on the Anisotropy in Photodissociation Spectroscopy," *J.*
370 *Chem. Phys.* **55**, 1915 (1971).
- 371 45. J. R. Waldeck, M. Shapiro and R. Bersohn, "Theory of transient anisotropy in molecular photodissociation," *J.*
372 *Chem. Phys.* **99**, 5924 (1993).