Electronic Structure, Spectroscopic Properties, and Reactivity of Molybdenum and Tungsten Nitrido and Imido Complexes with Diphosphine Coligands: Influence of the trans Ligand

MERSMANN, Klaus, et al.

Abstract

A series of molybdenum and tungsten nitrido, [M(N)(X)(diphos)2], and imido complexes, [M(NH)(X)(diphos)2]Y, (M = Mo, W) with diphosphine coligands (diphos = dppe/depe), various trans ligands (X = N3-, Cl-, NCCH3) and different counterions (Y- = Cl-, BPh4-) is investigated. These compounds are studied by infrared and Raman spectroscopies; they are also studied with isotope-substitution and optical-absorption, as well as emission, spectroscopies. In the nitrido complexes with trans-azido and -chloro coligands, the metal−N stretch is found at about 980 cm⁻¹; upon protonation, it is lowered to about 920 cm⁻¹. The 1A1 → 1E (n → π*) electronic transition is observed for [Mo(N)(N3)(depe)2] at 398 nm and shows a progression in the metal−N stretch of 810 cm⁻¹. The corresponding 3E → 1A (π* → n) emission band is observed at 542 nm, exhibiting a progression in the metal−N stretch of 980 cm⁻¹. In the imido system [Mo(NH)(N3)(depe)2]BPh4, the n → π* transition is shifted to lower energy (518 nm) and markedly decreases in intensity. In the trans-nitrile complex [Mo(N)(NCCH3)(dppe)2]BPh4, the metal−N(nitrido) [...]

Reference


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Electronic Structure, Spectroscopic Properties, and Reactivity of Molybdenum and Tungsten Nitrido and Imido Complexes with Diphosphine Coligands: Influence of the trans Ligand†

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A series of molybdenum and tungsten nitrido, [M(N)(X)(diphos)2], and imido complexes, [M(NH)(X)(diphos)2]Y, (M = Mo, W) with diphosphine coligands (diphos = dppe/depe), various trans ligands (X = N2−, Cl−, NCCH3) and different counterions (Y− = Cl−, BPh4−) is investigated. These compounds are studied by infrared and Raman spectroscopies; they are also studied with isotope-substitution and optical-absorption, as well as emission spectroscopies. In the nitrido complexes with trans-azido and -chloro coligands, the metal–N stretch is found at about 980 cm−1; upon protonation, it is lowered to about 920 cm−1. The 1A1→1E (n→π∗) electronic transition is observed for [Mo(N)(N2)(depe)2] at 398 nm and shows a progression in the metal–N stretch of 810 cm−1. The corresponding 2E→1A (π∗→n) emission band is observed at 542 nm, exhibiting a progression in the metal–N stretch of 980 cm−1. In the imido system [Mo(NH)(N2)(depe)2]BPh4, the n→π∗ transition is shifted to lower energy (518 nm) and markedly decreases in intensity. In the trans-nitrido complex [Mo(N)(NCCH3)(dppe)2]BPh4, the metal–N(nitrido) stretching frequency increases to 1016 cm−1. The n→π∗ transition now is found at 450 nm, shifting to 525 nm upon protonation. Most importantly, the reduction of this nitrido trans-nitrido complex is drastically facilitated compared to its counterparts with anionic trans-ligands (Erred = −1.5 V vs FC+/Fc). On the other hand, the basicity of the nitrido group is decreased (pKb{[Mo(NH)(NCCH3)(dppe)2]BPh4}2 = 5). The implications of these findings with respect to the Chatt cycle are discussed.

1. Introduction

The transition-metal-mediated conversion of dinitrogen to ammonia under ambient conditions is a subject of continuing interest.1 Recently, Yandulov and Schrock succeeded in catalytically performing this reaction using a Mo(III) complex with a sterically shielding triamidoamine ligand.2 With decamethylchromocene as the reductant and lutidinium as the acid (Ar′ = 3,5-(CF3)2C6H3), they were able to generate NH3 from N2 at room temperature and normal pressure, achieving 6 cycles with an overall yield of 65%. On the basis of the available experimental information, a mechanism was proposed for this reaction (Schrock cycle)3 and reproduced by DFT calculations.3

Many years before, Pickett and Talarmin, in a classic experiment, had already succeeded in producing ammonia from N2 in a cyclic fashion; however, it was a stepwise procedure with a much lower yield.4 Their process was based on the complex [WNH2]2(TsO(dppe))3+ (TsO = p-CH3C6H3SO3−) which was electrolyzed to give the parent dinitrogen complex [WN(1,2)(dppe)]2, ammonia, and H2. Protonation of the bis(dinitrogen) complex reformed the starting complex; this procedure was repeated twice. The

1 Reduction and protonation of end-on terminally coordinated dinitrogen. Part VI.
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corresponding chemistry proceeds within the Chatt cycle, which provided the first complete scheme for the transition-metal-mediated conversion of N₂ to ammonia (Scheme 1). The first two steps of this cycle involve the protonation of molybdenum and tungsten dinitrogen complexes with diphosphine coligands to give the corresponding NNH₂ complexes. We have investigated the molybdenum and tungsten N₂, NNH, and NNH₂ intermediates appearing in this chemistry by a variety of spectroscopic methods coupled to DFT calculations. In the presence of strong acids, an additional proton can be added giving NNH₃ (hydrazidium) species. At this stage, the N=N triple bond of N₂ has been reduced to a single bond and can be cleaved by adding two electrons from an external reductant or electrochemically. Alternatively, two-electron reduction can be performed at the NNH₂ stage, leading to the elimination of the trans ligand and formation of five-coordinate Mo(II) intermediates. This process has been studied on the basis of alkylated derivatives. If the doubly reduced, five-coordinate intermediates, [M(II)(dppe)₂NNR₂], are protonated, the N=N bond cleaves, and secondary amines, as well as M(IV) nitrido or imido complexes, are formed. We spectroscopically and kinetically followed the splitting of the N=N bond and explored various mechanistic scenarios to account for the experimental observations.

In the second part of the Chatt cycle, Mo and W nitrido complexes have to be converted to the corresponding low-valent ammine complexes that are able to exchange NH₃ against N₂. One of the problems associated with this chemistry are the strongly negative potentials which, in particular, are needed to regenerate the +I and zerovalent Mo and W species. The presence of such negative potentials accounts for the large fraction of H₂ that is formed from the acids employed in these experiments (vide supra). One of the possibilities to shift the reduction potentials to less negative values is to use a weakly donating or even labile ligand in the trans position to the nitrido/imido group. Replacing, for example, halide by acetonitrile (i) increases the total charge of the complex because of the exchange of a negatively charged by a neutral ligand, (ii) increases the effective nuclear charge, Z_eff, of the metal center because of a decreased ligand α/ð donor strength, and in particular (iii), lowers the dₓz/dᵧz orbitals of the metal centers because of the lack of ð-donor capability. All of these effects should act to make the nitrido complex easier to reduce (i.e., shift the reduction potential to less negative values).

Herein, we investigate the influence of the trans ligand on the electronic structure, the spectroscopic properties and reactivity of the molybdenum and tungsten nitrido complexes. To this end, a series of molybdenum and tungsten nitrido and imido complexes with dppe and depe coligands and trans ligands of different α/ð-donor strengths (azide, chloride, acetonitrile) is investigated by UV-vis, IR, and Raman spectroscopies and electrochemistry. The results are interpreted by means of DFT calculations, and the general implications with respect to a catalytic ammonia synthesis on the basis of the Chatt cycle are discussed.

2. Experimental Section

Sample Preparation and Isotopic Substitution. A set of molybdenum and tungsten nitrido complexes with dppe as the coligand was synthesized (i.e., the trans azido complexes [Mo(N]-

References:

Larger deviations between the calculated and observed values are observed. A cross-check with a drop of rubber cement without compound 5 gave a vanishing intensity at 11 K, proving that the luminescence in fact derives from [Mo(N)(N)dppe]2+. The luminescence intensity is strongly temperature dependent and at 77 K already quite weak.

**Electrochemical Investigations.** Cyclic voltammograms were recorded with an EG and G PAR model 273A potentiostat controlled by EG and G PAR M270 software using a Pt knob working electrode, a Pt counter electrode, and a silver reference electrode. A solution of [Mo(NCCCH3)2(dppe)]2BPh4 (0.5 mM) and [NBu4][PF6] (0.1 M) in acetonitrile was recorded at 25 °C. The scan rate was set to 100 mVs⁻¹. The potentials are referenced against ferrocenium-ferrocene.

**Normal Coordinate Analysis.** Normal coordinate calculations were performed using the QCPE computer program by Peterson and McIntosh. It involves solutions of the secular equation GFL = AZ by the diagonalization procedure of Miyazawa. The calculations are based on a general valence force field, and the force constants are refined using the nonlinear optimization of the simplex algorithm according to Nelder and Mead.17 Normal coordinate analysis is based on the QCB–NCA procedure which involves generation of an initial force field by DFT methods.

**DFT Calculations.** Spin-restricted DFT calculations were performed for the nitrido systems, [Mo(N)(N)dppe]2+, [Mo(N)(NCCCH3)2(dppe)]2+, and [Mo(N)(NCCCH3)2(dppe)]2+ (VI), and for the corresponding imido systems, [Mo(NH)(N)dppe]2+ (I′H+), [Mo(NH)(Cl)(dppe)]2+ (III′H+), and [Mo(NH)(NCCCH3)2(dppe)]2+ (VI′H+), using Becke’s three-parameter hybrid functional with the correlation functional of Lee, Yang, and Parr (B3LYP).18 All diphenylphosphine ligands (dppe, depe) are simplified to H2PCH2CH2PH2 (“diphos”). I, III, and VI are models of compounds 1,2,3,4,5, VI′H and I′H are models of compounds 1′HPh3/2′HPh2/5′HbPh2, 3′HPhb/4′HPhb, and 3′HPhb, respectively. The LANL2DZ basis set was used for the calculations. It applies the Dunning/Huzinaga full double–ζ basis functions on the first row and the Los Alamos effective core potentials plus DZ functions on all other atoms.20 Charges were analyzed using the natural bond orbital (NBO) formalism (natural population analysis, NPA).21 All computational procedures were used as implemented in the Gaussian 98 package.22 Wave functions were plotted with GaussView. The f matrix in internal coordinates was extracted from the Gaussian output using the program REDONG.23

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(15) Larger deviations between the calculated and observed values are observed for compounds 1 and 6. As evident from NMR, the deviations in compound 1 are the result of trimethylsilyl impurities. Trimethylsilyl azide was added to convert [Mo(N)(N)dppe]2 to [Mo(N)(N)dppe]2+ (I). In compound 6, the deviation is caused by an admixture of HNEt2BPh2; triethylamine was added as a base to deprotonate [Mo(NHCCH3(dppe)]2Cl and NaBPh4 was added to precipitate [Mo(N-CH3CN(dppe)]2BPh4 (6).

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3. Results and Analysis

Vibrational Spectroscopy and DFT Frequency Analysis. The infrared spectra of the tungsten-dppe nitrido complexes, [W(N)(N$_3$)(dppe)$_2$] (2) and [W(N)(Cl)(dppe)$_2$] (4), are presented in Figure 1, along with the IR spectrum of the $^{15}$N isotopomer of 4, 4($^{15}$N). On the right-hand side of Figure 1, the region between 850 cm$^{-1}$ and 1050 cm$^{-1}$ is presented on a larger scale. The spectrum of the trans-azido-nitrido complex 2 is dominated by the antisymmetric N–N vibration of the azide ligand, $\nu_{as}$($N_3^-$), at 2062 cm$^{-1}$. Its symmetric counterpart, $\nu_{s}$($N_3^-$), can be found at 1354 cm$^{-1}$. The metal–nitrido stretching vibration is located at 979 cm$^{-1}$. The remaining bands are mostly caused by vibrations of the dppe ligand. The IR spectrum of the molybdenum analogue of 2, [Mo(N)(N$_3$)(dppe)$_2$] (1, not shown), is very similar (i.e., the antisymmetric azide vibration is found at 2051 cm$^{-1}$, the corresponding symmetric mode is at 1348 cm$^{-1}$, and the metal–nitrido stretching vibration appears at 975 cm$^{-1}$). As is evident from the spectrum of the nitrido–chloro complex [W(N)(Cl)(dppe)$_2$] (4), exchange of the trans ligand from azide to chloride has almost no effect on the position of the metal–nitrido vibration, which appears in the spectrum of 4 at 978 cm$^{-1}$. In the $^{15}$N isotopomer [W($^{15}$N)(Cl)(dppe)$_2$], ($^{15}$N), this vibration shifts by about 30 cm$^{-1}$ to 947 cm$^{-1}$.

In Figure 2, the infrared spectra of [Mo(NH)(N$_3$)(depe)$_2$]-BPh$_4$ (5*HBPh$_4$) and [Mo(ND)(N$_3$)(depe)$_2$]BPh$_4$ (5*DBPh$_4$) are presented along with the spectrum of the parent nitrido complex [Mo(N)(N$_3$)(depe)] (5). In the latter system, the metal–N vibration is easily identified at 980 cm$^{-1}$; the symmetric azide stretch is located at 1328 cm$^{-1}$, whereas the antisymmetric combination is found at 2029 cm$^{-1}$. In the spectrum of the imido complex, these peaks are shifted to 1376 and 2080 cm$^{-1}$, respectively. The metal–N stretch shifts to 922 cm$^{-1}$. Upon deuteration, this signal shifts to 892 cm$^{-1}$. The decrease of the metal–(NH) stretching frequency upon deuteration is due to an increasing mass of the NH moiety by one, and therefore, it has an effect comparable to the $^{15}$N substitution in the nitrido complex. At 3250 cm$^{-1}$, a broad band can be identified, which in the deuterated complex is shifted to 2430 cm$^{-1}$. This signal derives from the imido N–H stretching vibration and an O–H stretch which is associated with methanol being present as a crystal solvent. Unfortunately, attempts to isolate the imido complex in the absence of methanol failed. In addition to the nitrido complex, the spectra of the imido system also contain the signals of the counterion, tetraphenylborate. The Raman spectra of these compounds, which are given in Figure S1 (Supporting Information), exhibit bands at similar positions. The results of the IR and Raman experiments are collected in Table 1.

A DFT frequency analysis of the optimized model [Mo(N)(N$_3$)(diphos)$_2$] predicts a frequency of 1049 cm$^{-1}$ for the metal–N stretch, slightly higher than the observed value. This corresponds to the finding that the metal–N distance is calculated slightly too short (see below). The frequency analysis further provides an $f$ matrix which is used as an initial guess for a normal coordinate analysis (quantum chemistry-based normal coordinate analysis, QCB-NCA). The results of the fitting procedure are collected in Table 2. In particular, the fitting of the metal–N stretch to the experimental value gives a corresponding force constant of 7.065 mdyn/Å.

Figure 1. IR spectra of nitrido complexes [W(N)(N$_3$)(dppe)$_2$] (2), [W(N)(Cl)(dppe)$_2$] (4), and [W($^{15}$N)(Cl)(dppe)$_2$] (4($^{15}$N)).

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A DFT frequency analysis was also performed for the imido-azido model system $\text{[Mo(NH)(N}_3\text{)(diphos)}_2\text{]+}$ ($\text{I^*H}$) of compounds $1^*\text{HBPh}_4$, $2^*\text{HBPh}_4$, and $5^*\text{DBPh}_4$. The calculated metal–$\text{N}$ vibrational frequencies of 964 cm$^{-1}$ for the protonated and 932 cm$^{-1}$ for the deuterated complexes are again somewhat too high, as found for the nitrido complexes. The $\text{N–H}$ stretching vibration is calculated to be 3586 cm$^{-1}$, and the $\text{N–D}$ stretch is calculated to be 2639 cm$^{-1}$, also higher than observed. After normal coordinate analysis, force constants of 6.7 mdyn/Å for the metal–$\text{N}$ and 5.848 mdyn/Å for the $\text{N–H}$ bonds are obtained. This demonstrates that the strength of the metal–$\text{N}$ bond is only slightly (i.e., by 0.365 mdyn/Å) reduced upon protonation.

Table 1. Comparison of Metal–$\text{N}$, $\text{N–H}$, Symmetric (sym) $\text{N}_3^-$, and Antisymmetric (asym) $\text{N}_3^-$ Vibrations in Different Nitrido and Imido Complexes

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Table 2. Vibrational Data of Nitrido and Imido Complexes and Comparison to Calculated Results and Force Constants

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<th>NCA (cm$^{-1}$)</th>
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A DFT frequency analysis was also performed for the imido-azido model system $\text{[Mo(NH)(N}_3\text{)(diphos)}_2\text{]}$ ($^1\text{H^*}$) of compounds $1^*\text{HBPh}_4$, $2^*\text{HBPh}_4$, and $5^*\text{DBPh}_4$. The calculated metal–$\text{N}$ vibrational frequencies of 964 cm$^{-1}$ for the protonated and 932 cm$^{-1}$ for the deuterated complexes are again somewhat too high, as found for the nitrido complexes. The $\text{N–H}$ stretching vibration is calculated to be 3586 cm$^{-1}$, and the $\text{N–D}$ stretch is calculated to be 2639 cm$^{-1}$, also higher than observed. After normal coordinate analysis, force constants of 6.7 mdyn/Å for the metal–$\text{N}$ and 5.848 mdyn/Å for the $\text{N–H}$ bonds are obtained. This demonstrates that the strength of the metal–$\text{N}$ bond is only slightly (i.e., by 0.365 mdyn/Å) reduced upon protonation. Table 2 shows the results of this analysis.

Counterions which form hydrogen bridges with the imido proton have an influence on the metal–$\text{(NH)}$ and $\text{N–H}$ vibrations. This can be seen in the spectral pattern of the $\text{N–H}$ vibration in $\text{[W(NH)(Cl)(dppe)}_2\text{Cl]}$ ($^4\text{HCl}$ (Figure S2, Supporting Information), which appears in the range between 2400 and 2900 cm$^{-1}$. In this case, the metal–$\text{N}$ vibration is centered at 946 cm$^{-1}$ and appears to be split. In the deuterated complex, the signal intensities are markedly decreased. The $\text{N–D}$ vibration appears in the range between 1750 and 2200 cm$^{-1}$, and the metal–$\text{N}$ vibration is shifted...
to $916 \text{ cm}^{-1}$. The positions of the metal–N vibrations for the systems with chloride as counterion are reproduced by the Raman spectra of $2^\text{HCl}$ and $2^\text{DCl}$ (Figure S3) which exhibit these vibrations at $950 \text{ cm}^{-1}$ for the protonated and $912 \text{ cm}^{-1}$ for the deuterated complexes.

Finally, the IR and Raman spectra of complexes with trans nitrile ligands were recorded (Figure 3). In these systems, the IR spectrum of the nitrido complex $\left[\text{Mo(N)}(\text{NCCH}_3)(\text{dppe})_2\right]\text{BPh}_4$ (6) exhibits weak bands at 2270 and 2248 cm$^{-1}$ which are attributed to coordinated acetonitrile. At 1016 cm$^{-1}$, a shoulder appears which could be associated with the metal–N stretch. A more definitive assignment is difficult because of the intense bands at 1000 and 1030 cm$^{-1}$, which originate from the aromatic ligands. Unfortunately, no complementary information with respect to this problem could be derived from the corresponding Raman spectrum. Because of the low basicity of this complex (see below), the protonated species, $\left[\text{Mo(NH)}(\text{NCCH}_3)(\text{dppe})_2\right]\text{BPh}_4$ (6$^\text{H}$), is only obtained as a mixture with the protonating agent lutidinium tetraphenylborate. The corresponding sample does not exhibit the shoulder at 1016 cm$^{-1}$. Instead, new bands at 932 and 920 cm$^{-1}$ appear, which could be associated with the metal–N stretch of the imido complex. At 2245 cm$^{-1}$, the C–N vibration of the coordinated acetonitrile is again observed. The results are also collected in Table 1.

A DFT frequency analysis of the model $\left[\text{Mo(N)}(\text{NCCH}_3)(\text{diphos})_2\right]^+$ (VI) for the trans nitrito–nitrido system predicts a frequency of 1088 cm$^{-1}$ for the metal–N vibration. On the basis of a comparison with the other calculated frequencies, this would support our assignment of the shoulder at 1016 cm$^{-1}$ to the metal–N stretch. The corresponding analysis for the imido system, $\text{VI}^\text{H}$, leads to frequencies of 913 cm$^{-1}$ for the metal–N stretch and 3059 cm$^{-1}$ for the N–H stretch. Thus the frequency of the metal–N vibration is, in this case, predicted too low compared to the experimental value.

**DFT Geometry Optimizations.** The optimized structure of the simplified model $\left[\text{Mo(N)}(\text{N}_3)(\text{diphos})_2\right]$ (I) (diphos = $\text{PH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{PH}_2$) is shown in Figure 4. In this case, the azido ligand forms an almost linear unit together with the metal center and the trans nitrido ligand (\(\angle\text{Mo–N–N} = 174.6^\circ\)). This agrees with the crystal structure of the complex $\left[\text{Mo(N)}(\text{N}_3)(\text{dppe})_2\right]$ determined by Dilworth et al.\(^{24}\) Apart from minor discrepancies, the bond lengths resulting from the optimization also agree with the X-ray structural analysis.

The metal–nitrido distance is calculated to be 1.711 Å, which is somewhat too short with respect to the experimentally determined value (1.79(2) Å). The metal–N(azido) distance, in turn, is calculated to be 2.295 Å, which is somewhat too long with respect to the observed value (2.20(2) Å).

In addition to the optimization of the singlet ground state, the triplet excited state \( ^3E \) of \( I \) was geometry optimized. As an unrestricted optimization was found to lead to dissociation of one phosphine ligand, the N–metal–P angles and the metal–P bond distances were fixed. This way, the triplet state, which results from a one-electron HOMO–LUMO excitation, could be optimized. The spin density in the triplet excited state was geometry optimized. As evident from Figure 4, the azido–metal–N unit is almost linear (\( \angle \text{Mo–N–N} = 179.1^\circ \)); moreover, the imido–hydrogen is bound in a linear fashion. The metal–azide bond length increases from 2.295 to 2.403 Å, which corresponds to a weakening of this bond in the excited state.

A geometry optimization was also performed for the model of the imido complexes, \([\text{Mo(NH)}(\text{N}_3)(\text{diphos})_2]^+ (\text{I}^+)\). As evident from Figure 4, the azido–metal–N unit is almost linear (\( \angle \text{Mo–N–N} = 179.1^\circ \)); moreover, the imido–hydrogen is bound in a linear fashion. The metal–N bond of 1.763 Å is only elongated by 0.05 Å, in comparison to the nitrido–metal–P distance of 1.729 Å. The metal–N bond is, with distances of 1.69 and 1.729 Å, respectively, markedly decreased. On the other hand, the distances from the metal center to the trans ligands (2.629 and 2.353 Å) are longer than in the analogous azide orbitals. Moreover, the slight bending of the azido ligand in the ground state is drastically enhanced. The metal–azide bond length increases from 2.295 to 2.403 Å, which corresponds to a weakening of this bond in the excited state.

The geometries of the models for the trans nitrile systems \([\text{Mo(N)}(\text{NCCH}_3)(\text{diphos})_2]^+ (\text{II})\) and \([\text{Mo(NH)}(\text{NCCH}_3)(\text{diphos})_2]^+ (\text{VI})\) can be inferred from Table 3 as well. In these cases, the metal–N bond is, with distances of 1.69 and 1.729 Å, respectively, markedly decreased. On the other hand, the distances from the metal center to the trans ligands (2.629 and 2.353 Å) are longer than in the analogous trans-azido systems.

**MO Schemes.** Figure 5 presents the MO scheme and some important orbitals of \( I \); charge decompositions of important molecular orbitals are collected in Table S1 (Supporting Information). The HOMO of \( I \) corresponds to the metal–ligand nonbonding \( d_{xz} \) orbital. At lower energy, the degenerate \( \pi_{\text{ax}} \) orbitals in the \( x \) and \( y \) directions are located; they are nonbonding with respect to the metal. Then, the metal–ligand bonding MOs follow; they are involved in the metal–nitride triple bond. These comprise the \( \sigma \)-bonding orbital \( p_{\sigma} \equiv \sigma \) and the degenerate \( \pi \)-bonding orbitals \( p_{\pi} \equiv \pi_x \) and \( p_{\pi} \equiv \pi_y \). The corresponding metal–ligand
antibonding combinations \(d_{z^2} - p_z \equiv \pi^*_x\) and \(d_{y^2} - p_y \equiv \pi^*_y\) form the LUMO and the LUMO+1 of the complex. Evidently, the degeneracy of these orbitals is lifted through the presence of the bidentate equatorial phosphine ligands. NPA charge analysis reveals a molybdenum p contribution of 32% for the \(\pi^*_x\) orbital and one of 25% for the \(\pi^*_y\) orbital. The presence of d–p mixing accounts for the comparatively high intensity of the HOMO–LUMO transition (see below).

Figure 6 shows the MO scheme and the most important orbitals of the imido complex \(1^{1}H^+\). In analogy to the parent nitrido system \(1\), the HOMO corresponds to the \(d_{xy}\) orbital; HOMO–1 and HOMO–2 correspond to the \(\pi_{side}\) orbitals as discussed above. An important difference, compared to the nitrido complex, is observed for the metal–N \(\sigma\)-bonding orbital which shifts below the metal–ligand \(\pi\)-bonding orbitals \(\pi_x\) and \(\pi_y\). Again the corresponding \(\pi\)-antibonding combinations, \(\pi^*_x\) and \(\pi^*_y\), form the LUMO and the LUMO+1 of the complex. The charge decompositions indicate that these orbitals now only have 5% and 2% Mo p character (Table S2 in Supporting Information). Because of the protonation, the energy of these orbitals thus has decreased so much that the higher-lying Mo p orbitals are not admixed any more to a significant degree. Correspondingly, the intensity of the \(n \rightarrow \pi^*\) transition in this case is comparable to that of an ordinary ligand-field band (see below).

Electronic Absorption and Emission Spectroscopy. In Figure 7, optical absorption spectra of \([\text{Mo}(N)(N_3)(\text{depe})_2]\) (5) in thf solution are presented. The UV region exhibits two intense absorptions at 300 and 250 nm, and in the visible region, a weaker absorption band is found at 398 nm. The latter band is also present in the solid-state spectrum of compound 5 pressed between two sapphire plates (Figure S4, Supporting Information). When the sample is cooled from room temperature to 10 K, a vibrational structure appears on top of the 398 nm band. This is presented in Figure 8 along with a Gaussian fit of the band shape. The 398 nm band is assigned to the HOMO–LUMO transition which corresponds to the transfer of an electron from \(d_{xy}\) to \(d_{z^2} - p_z\), the low-energy component of the \(1\) \(A_1 \rightarrow 1\)E transition. The TD-DFT calculation based on the simplified model \([\text{Mo}(N)(N_3)(\text{diphos})_2]\) (1) calculates this singlet \(\rightarrow\) singlet transition to be at 401 nm, in excellent agreement with the experimental observation. The transition from the \(d_{xy}\) orbital into the \(d_{z^2} - p_z\) \((\pi^*_x)\) orbital (i.e., the higher-energy component of the \(1\) \(A_1 \rightarrow 1\)E transition) is calculated to be at 370 nm but with a much lower intensity (Table S3, Supporting Information). Another absorption band is found at 330 nm (Figure S4). This is assigned to a ligand field transition, either \(d_{xy} \rightarrow d_{z^2} \pi^*_x\) or \(d_{xy} \rightarrow d_{z^2} \pi^*_y\). Alternatively, it could be assigned to the high-energy component of \(1\) \(A_1 \rightarrow 1\)E. Nevertheless, its line width is much smaller than that of \(d_{xy} \rightarrow d_{z^2} - p_z\), and it does not exhibit a progression. At lower energy, an absorption band of much weaker intensity is observed and assigned to a spin-forbidden transition from the singlet ground state to the \(3\)E excited state.

Because the \(d_{xy}\) orbital is nonbonding and the \(d_{xz}/d_{yz}\) orbitals are antibonding with respect to the nitrido ligand, the singlet and triplet transitions have \(n \rightarrow \pi^*\) character, and the metal–ligand bond length is increased in the excited states. This excited-state displacement in turn acts to excite the metal–N vibrations which appear as a progression in
the singlet → singlet absorption band. The Gaussian fit of the line shape gives a spacing of 810 cm\(^{-1}\) which corresponds to the metal–N frequency in the excited state. The intensities of the individual transitions from the zero-point level of the ground state to the \(n\)th vibrational level of the excited state are determined by a Poisson distribution, as expressed by the equations

\[
\frac{I_{n}}{I_{0}} = \frac{S}{n} \quad \text{and} \quad \frac{I_{0n}}{I_{00}} = \frac{S_{n}}{n!}
\]

(1)

\(S\) is the Huang–Rhys factor which gives the excited-state displacement, \(\Delta Q\), in terms of quanta of the corresponding vibration

\[
Sh_{\nu} = 1/2k'\Delta Q^2
\]

(2)

The Gaussian fit gives \(S = 2.15\). Furthermore, by application of the excited-state frequency of 810 cm\(^{-1}\) in the normal coordinate analysis, an excited-state force constant, \(k'\), of 4.9 mdyn/Å is determined. Substitution of these values, in turn, into eq 2 gives an excited-state displacement, \(\Delta Q\), of 0.12 Å, which is in very good agreement with the theoretical prediction (\(\Delta Q = 0.08\) Å, cf Table 3).

In addition to the absorption spectrum, Figure 8 also shows the emission spectrum of compound 5. The luminescence is strongly temperature dependent, and at 11 K, it also shows a vibrational structure. The corresponding vibrational frequency is connected with the electronic ground state and is a vibrational structure. The corresponding vibrational frequency is connected with the electronic ground state and is a vibrational structure. The luminescence is strongly temperature dependent, and at 11 K, it also shows a vibrational structure. The corresponding vibrational frequency is connected with the electronic ground state and is a vibrational structure. The luminescence is strongly temperature dependent, and at 11 K, it also shows a vibrational structure. The corresponding vibrational frequency is connected with the electronic ground state and is a vibrational structure. The luminescence is strongly temperature dependent, and at 11 K, it also shows a vibrational structure. The corresponding vibrational frequency is connected with the electronic ground state and is a vibrational structure. The luminescence is strongly temperature dependent, and at 11 K, it also shows a vibrational structure. The corresponding vibrational frequency is connected with the electronic ground state and is a vibrational structure.

\[
\Delta Q = \frac{\hbar}{\lambda} \quad \text{for} \quad \lambda = 810 \text{ cm}^{-1}
\]

Figure 9. UV–vis spectra of [Mo(NH)(N\(_3\))(depe)]BPh\(_4\) (5\(^\ast\)HBPh\(_4\)) in CH\(_2\)Cl\(_2\).

\(\Delta Q = 0.08\) Å, cf Table 3.

In Table 3, the theory is compared with the experiment. The measured HOMO–LUMO transition upon substitution of an anionic trans ligand by a neutral acetonitrile reflects two antagonistic effects: on one hand, the energy of the \(\pi^*\) orbitals is increased because of the increased effective nuclear charge on the metal (vide supra). The absorption spectra of [Mo(NH)(Cl)(dppe)]Cl (3\(^\ast\)HCl) and [W(NH)(Cl)(dppe)]Cl (4\(^\ast\)HCl) have already been published by Henderson et al. \(^{27}\) Here the \(n \rightarrow \pi^*\) transitions were found at 525 and 488 nm, respectively. The TD-DFT calculation, based on model complex III, predicts an energy of 530 nm for this transition. Unfortunately, the \(n \rightarrow \pi^*\) transition energy of the parent complex [W(N)(Cl)(dppe)] (4\(^\ast\)) could not be exactly determined because of a new intense band which appears in complexes with aromatic phosphine ligands. We attribute this band to a transition from the metal to the phenyl phosphine group. In the corresponding alkyl phosphine complexes, this transition also exists but probably is at a much higher energy. \(^{6,28}\) In the case of complex 4, the metal–phosphine CT band appears at 360 nm. From the appearance of a weak shoulder, the much less intense \(n \rightarrow \pi^*\) transition of 4 may be located around 400 nm, which would be in agreement with the TD-DFT calculation predicting a transition energy of 392 nm for this system.

Figure 10 presents the UV–vis absorption spectra of the nitrido nitrile compound [Mo(N)(NCCH\(_3\))(dppe)]BPh\(_4\) (6). The CT transition from the metal to the phosphine ligands is found at 330 nm. In comparison with complex 5, which carries an anionic ligand trans to the nitrido group, the \(n \rightarrow \pi^*\) transition is shifted to lower energy (450 nm). The TD-DFT calculation based on model complex VI predicts this transition at 437 nm, in good agreement with the experimental result. The measured energy shift of the HOMO–LUMO transition upon substitution of an anionic trans ligand by a neutral acetonitrile reflects two antagonistic effects: on one hand, the energy of the \(\pi^*\) orbitals is increased because of the strengthening of the metal–N bond, as can be inferred from the increase of the metal–N vibration frequency (vide supra).
Table 4. Calculated and Experimental $d_{\pi} \rightarrow d_{\sigma}$ (*→$\pi^*$) Transition Energies

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* All data given in nm.

Supra). On the other hand, the energy of these orbitals is lowered because $\pi$ donation of the trans ligand is eliminated. This effect obviously exceeds the first one in magnitude and leads to the observed red shift of the $n \rightarrow \pi^*$ transition. The inset of Figure 10 shows the solid-state spectrum of compound 6 recorded at 10 K. Again, a progression is visible, but this time spectral resolution is not good enough to allow further analysis. The results of the TD-DFT calculations and the experimental energies of the $n \rightarrow \pi^*$ transition are collected in Table 4.

Spectrometric Determination of $pK_a$. Figure 11 shows the absorption spectra of a 2 mM solution of 6 before and after the addition of different amounts of acid (HLutBPh$_4$). Evidently the signal at 450 nm decreases and the signal at 525 nm increases in intensity, reflecting the conversion of the nitrido to the imido complex. TD-DFT predicts the $n \rightarrow \pi^*$ transition in the imido nitride model complex VI$^{\ddagger}$H$^+$ at 597 nm, in fair agreement with the experimental result. The inset in Figure 11 shows the spectrum of a dilute solution of 6 in the presence of a large excess of acid. In this case an approximately complete conversion of 6 to its protonated counterpart, [Mo(NH)(NCCH$_3$)(dppe)$_2$](BPh$_4$)$_2$ (6$^{\ddagger}$HBPh$_4$), is observed. In the intermediate range, the acid strength of the protonated complex 6$^{\ddagger}$HBPh$_4$ can be determined by the equation 29

$$\Delta pK_a = pK_a(6^{\ddagger}$HBPh$_4$) - pK_a(HLutBPh$_4$) =
$$

$$\log \left( \frac{[6^{\ddagger}$HBPh$_4$][Lut]}{[HLutBPh$_4$][6]} \right) \quad (3)$$

In acetonitrile, the $pK_a$ of complex 6$^{\ddagger}$HBPh$_4$ differs from lutidinium by 1.7 units. On the basis of a $pK_a$ of lutidinium of 6.7$^{29}$ in water, a $pK_a$ value of 5 is derived for 6$^{\ddagger}$HBPh$_4$. This is much lower than that determined for imido complexes with anionic trans ligands.$^{32}$ For the complex [Mo(NH)(F)-(dppe)$_2$]BF$_4$, for example, a $pK_a$ value of 12.7 was determined. This result indicates that the basicity of the nitrido N drastically decreases upon exchange of an anionic to a neutral trans ligand. Correspondingly, the conversion of 6 to its protonated counterpart using the weak acid HLutBPh$_4$ is found to be incomplete in solutions containing a higher concentration of 6. On the other hand, the reduction potential should increase upon substitution of the trans-halide by a trans-nitride group (i.e., become less negative), as shown in the next section.

Electrochemical Investigation of 6. For Mo/W nitrido systems with anionic trans ligands no reduction potential could be determined within the stability range of ordinary solvents and electrolytes, respectively. In contrast, electrochemical data for protonated and alkylated systems have been obtained (cf., Table 5).$^{11}$ Figure 12 shows a cyclovoltammogram of the trans nitrido nitrile complex 6, indicating an irreversible reduction at $-1.53$ V vs ferrocenium/ferrocene. Furthermore, two irreversible oxidations are observed at 65 and 540 mV. An inspection of Table 5 shows that the replacement of a trans halide by acetonitrile shifts the reduction potential by $\sim 1$ V toward more positive values. In fact, the reduction potential of nitrido complex 6 is comparable to that of the trans-alkylimido acetonitrile complex [Mo(NEt)(NCCH$_3$)(depe)$_2$](OTf)$_2$, which has depe instead of dppe coligands.$^{30}$ It thus can be concluded that 29


molybdenum trans imido- or alkylimido-acetonitrile complexes with dppe coligands should even be reducible at potentials above -1.5 V vs Fe+/Fc.

4. Discussion

The preceding sections continue our line of theoretical and spectroscopic studies on the intermediates of the Chatt cycle. Previous publications have dealt with the protonation of the coordinated N₂ ligand in Mo(0) and W(0) diphosphine complexes and the subsequent N−N splitting process. Heterolytic cleavage of the N−N bond in Mo(II) and W(II) systems generates the corresponding Mo(IV) and W(IV) nitrido and imido systems which have to be protonated and reduced to the zero-valent state to produce NH₃ and rebind N₂. A problem of the Chatt cycle are the strongly negative potentials (down to -2.3 V vs Fe+/Fc) involved in these processes. It is therefore of considerable interest to investigate in more detail the electronic structures of these systems and to explore possibilities to shift these potentials to less negative values.

In the nitrido complexes with trans-azido and -cholo coligands, the metal−N stretch is observed at about 980 cm⁻¹, relatively independent of the nature of the trans ligand and the equatorial phosphine ligation. Substitution in compound 4 causes an isotopic shift of this vibration to ~950 cm⁻¹. A metal−N force constant of 7.065 mdyn Å⁻¹ is determined using the QCB-NCA procedure. When the corresponding imido systems are generated by protonation, the metal−N stretching frequency is lowered to about 950−920 cm⁻¹. In this case, a relatively strong dependence on the nature of the counterion is observed. As evident from a highly complex vibrational structure in the N−H stretching frequency region, extensive hydrogen bonding occurs in imido complexes with chloro counterions. In this case, the metal−N stretching frequency is observed at ~950 cm⁻¹. In the absence of hydrogen bonding (i.e., in the compounds with tetraphenylborate counterions), the metal−N(imido) stretch is observed at 925−920 cm⁻¹. On the basis of the latter value, a force constant of 6.7 mdyn Å⁻¹ is derived. This indicates that protonation only causes a minor decrease (0.3 mdyn Å⁻¹) of the metal−N force constant. For both systems with chloride and BPh₄⁻ counterions, deuteration causes a further decrease of the metal−N stretching vibration frequency by 30−40 cm⁻¹, reflecting the increased mass of the N−H moiety.

The vibrational-spectroscopic investigations of the nitrido and imido complexes are complemented by measurements of their electronic absorption and emission spectra. For this purpose, Mo and W complexes with depe ligands are better suited than corresponding dppe complexes as the latter exhibit low-energy metal → phosphine CT transitions which tend to obscure ligand-field (LF) transitions. Correspondingly, the molybdenum azido−nitrido complex [Mo(N)(N₃)(depe)₂] (5) was found to give a clean LF spectrum which, in particular, exhibited the δ₁(n) → δ₂−p(π *) transition at 398 nm. The relatively high intensity of this spin-allowed n → π* transition (ε = 460 M⁻¹ cm⁻¹) is ascribed to extensive d−p mixing. At lower energy, an absorption band of much weaker intensity is observed, which is assigned to the corresponding spin-forbidden transition from the singlet ground state to the lower-energy component of the ¹E(n → π*) excited state. When the sample had cooled, a vibrational progression appears on top of the singlet → singlet absorption band. Its spacing, 810 cm⁻¹, corresponds to the metal−N stretching frequency in the ¹E(n → π*) excited state. An excited-state force constant of 4.9 mdyn Å⁻¹ is derived by inserting this frequency into the ground-state normal coordinate analysis. Moreover, a Franck−Condon analysis of this absorption feature gives a Huang−Rhys factor of 2.15 and an excited-state displacement of 0.12 Å.

Remarkably, a vibrational progression is found in the emission spectrum of compound 5 at low temperatures as well. To the best of our knowledge, this is the first luminescence spectrum of such a molybdenum−nitrido system. In this case, a spacing of 980 cm⁻¹ is observed which corresponds to the metal−N stretching vibration in the electronic ground state. Franck−Condon analysis of the emission line shape gives a Huang−Rhys factor of 2.25 and a displacement, ΔQ, of 0.11 Å, in good agreement with the absorption data. As the emission band is at comparable energy to the low-intensity spin-forbidden transition in the absorption spectrum, it is assigned to the phosphorescence from the lower-energy component of the ¹E(n → π*) excited state to the ¹A₁ ground state. On the basis of the energy difference between the 0 → 0 transitions in absorption and emission, the splitting between the ¹E and ³E(n → π*) excited states is 3030 cm⁻¹. When the fact that this splitting corresponds to 6B + 2E is considered, it becomes clear that this system is highly covalent. Upon protonation of

(31) Different combinations of research topics such as molybdenum/tungsten, nitrido, and luminescence/phosphorescence with SciFinder resulted in no relevant hits.
(33) With a literature value of B = 682 cm⁻¹ for a Mo⁴⁺ ion and C = 4B, a splitting of 9548 cm⁻¹ is evaluated.
the nitrido complexes \( (n \rightarrow \pi^*) \) transition shifts to lower energy (518 nm); moreover, its intensity decreases considerably. The low-energy shift can be explained by a weaker \( \pi \)-antibonding interaction between the metal \( d_z^2 \) and \( p \) orbitals of the imido ligand, as compared to the nitrido system. The intensity decrease is attributed to a decrease in \( d-p \) mixing as a consequence of the increase in the effective nuclear charge of the \( M(IV) \) system.

Further insight into the electronic structure and spectroscopic properties of the nitrido and imido systems investigated in this study has been obtained by DFT calculations performed on the model systems \([\text{MoO}(\text{dmpe})_2 \text{Cl}]^+ \) (I), \([\text{MoO}(\text{NCCCH}_3)(\text{dppe})_2]^+ \) (III), \([\text{MoO}(\text{N}(\text{NCCH}_3)(\text{diphos})_2]^+ \) (VI), \([\text{MoO}(\text{N})(\text{Cl})(\text{diphos})_2]^+ \) (I*H^+), \([\text{MoO}(\text{NH})(\text{Cl})(\text{diphos})_2]^+ \) (III*H^+), and \([\text{MoO}(\text{NCCH}_3)(\text{diphos})_2]^+ \) (VI*H^+). In the corresponding geometry-optimized structures, the metal–N distances are generally found somewhat too short. This is also reflected by the fact that the metal–N frequencies are calculated somewhat too high in energy, TD-DFT-calculations give \( n \rightarrow \pi^* \) transition energies which are in very good agreement with the experimental data. For the \( n \rightarrow \pi^* \) excited state of \([\text{MoO}(\text{N})(\text{diphos})_2]^+ \) (I), a partial geometry optimization has been performed. In good agreement with the experimental value, an elongation of the metal–N(nitrido) distance by 0.08 Å has been found. However, the metal–N(azido) distance increases as well (by 0.11 Å), and the bending of the azido ligand increases.

It is instructive to compare the properties of the Mo and W nitrido and imido systems to those of the corresponding oxo compounds which have been studied in detail by several groups. 34,35 Da Re and Hopkins have investigated a series of molybdenum oxo complexes of the type \([\text{MoO}(\text{L})_2]^+ \) (L = CNBu\(^1\), PMe\(_3\), and 1/2dppe). 32 The Mo–O stretching frequency of these ions (948–959 cm\(^{-1}\)) was essentially found to be insensitive to the nature and geometry of the equatorial ligands. However, the electronic absorption bands resulting from the \( d_{xy} \) to \( d_{z^2} \) \( n \rightarrow \pi^*(\text{Mo–O}) \) LF transition show a large dependence on the geometry of the equatorial ligation. Specifically, the \([\text{MoO}(\text{CNBu})_2]^+ \) complex exhibits a single \( [n \rightarrow \pi^*_{\text{ex}} \text{ band, whereas the spectra of both} \mid [\text{MoO}(\text{dmpe})_2]^+ \text{and} [\text{MoO}(\text{PMe}_3)_2]^+ \text{reveal separate} \mid [n \rightarrow \pi^*_{\text{ex}} \text{ and} \mid [n \rightarrow \pi^*_{\text{ex}} \text{ bands. Nitrido complex 5 is chemically related to these systems and therefore should have split singlet and triplet} \mid n \rightarrow \pi^* \text{ excited states; however, the magnitude of this splitting cannot be inferred from the spectroscopic data. It is clear that luminescence occurs from the lower-energy component of the} \mid E \text{ excited state. From the almost identical line shapes in the absorption and emission spectra, we conclude that the absorption band corresponds to the electronic transition from} \mid A_2 \text{ to the lower-energy component of} \mid E \text{, in agreement with the prediction from TD-DFT. The higher-energy component of} \mid E \text{ is not visible in the absorption spectrum. A possible explanation is the much lower intensity predicted for this transition by}

\[ \text{TD-DFT. Otherwise the absorption bands of the Mo–O systems have properties which are very similar to those of Mo–nitrido complex 5 (i.e., they show a vibronic spacing of \( \sim 800 \text{ cm}^{-1} \), which is considerably lower than the ground-state Mo–O stretching frequency of \( \sim 960 \text{ cm}^{-1} \), and Franck–Condon analysis gives an excited-state displacement,} \Delta Q, \text{ of} \sim 0.1 \text{ Å.}
\]

A major change in the spectroscopic properties and the reactivity of the nitrido complexes is observed upon exchange of the anionic trans ligands by acetonitrile. Most considerably, the metal–N(nitrido) stretching frequency increases to 1016 cm\(^{-1}\), reflecting a strengthening of the metal–nitrido bond. The \( n \rightarrow \pi^* \) transition now is found at 450 nm, shifting to 525 nm upon protonation. Furthermore, the reduction potential is shifted from more negative values to \( \sim -1.53 \text{ V vs} \text{ Fe}^{2+}/\text{Fe}^0 \) which is close to the \( E^0 \) value of decamethylchromocene used as a reductant in the Schrock cycle. 3 This drastically facilitates the reduction of the nitrido–nitrite system compared to its counterparts with anionic trans ligands which cannot be reduced at experimentally accessible potentials. Even less negative reduction potentials are expected for the corresponding imido systems \([\text{MoO}(\text{NCCCH}_3)(\text{dppe})_2]^+ \) and \([\text{MoO}(\text{NR})(\text{NCCH}_3)(\text{dppe})_2]^+ \) (for \([\text{MoO}(\text{NET})(\text{CH}_3\text{CN})(\text{depe})]^+ \) a reduction potential of \( -1.5 \text{ V has been determined.} \)

Exchange of the anionic trans ligands by nitrile, on the other hand, also leads to a considerable decrease in basicity of the nitrido group. By titration experiments with \( \text{HLutBPh}_4 \), a \( pK_a \) value of 5.0 was determined for complex \( 6^*\text{HBPh}_4 \), which is much lower than that observed for corresponding systems with trans halide ligands (\( pK_a \approx 10.27 \)). Importantly, however, the nitrido group is still \textit{basic enough} because protonation of 6, even with the weak acid \( \text{HLutBPh}_4 \), proceeds with an equilibrium constant \( K_a \) of 1/50. Conversion to a free reaction enthalpy gives a corresponding \( \Delta G^0 \) value of \( +10 \text{ kJ/mol which does not represent an appreciable barrier in the transformation of coordinated nitride to ammonia.}

In summary, the electronic structures of a series of Mo and W nitrido and imido complexes have been determined and their spectroscopic properties have been investigated in detail. The experimental and theoretical results have been correlated to the observed reactivities, in particular reduction potentials and Brønsted basicities. In this way, it has been found that the replacement of anionic trans ligands by acetonitrile causes a pronounced shift in the reduction potentials toward less negative values, thus rendering these systems promising intermediates for a catalytic realization of the Chatt cycle. In this respect, it is advantageous that the activation of \( N_2 \) in complexes with \textit{trans}-nitrile ligands is higher than in corresponding \textit{trans}-bis(dinitrogen) complexes. 36 The trade-off for the easier reducibility is a considerable decrease of the basicity of the nitrido group which,
however, should not present a serious obstacle to further conversion of the nitrido complex along the Chatt cycle.

Acknowledgment. Dedicated to Prof. Dr. Hansgeorg Schnöckel on the occasion of his 65th anniversary. F.T. thanks DFT Tu58/12-1 and FCI for financial support. K.M. thanks U. Cornelissen for help with the spectroscopic measurements.

Supporting Information Available: Tables of charge contributions, $n \rightarrow \pi^*$ transitions, and NPA charges, a description of the charge analysis, and figures showing Raman, IR, and UV–vis spectra. This material is available free of charge via the Internet at http://pubs.acs.org.