# **Inorganic Chemistry**

### Establishing the Two-Photon Linkage Isomerization Mechanism in the Nitrosyl Complex trans-[RuCl(NO)(py)<sub>4</sub>]<sup>2+</sup> by DFT and TDDFT

Juan Sanz García,† Fabienne Alary,† Martial Boggio-Pasqua,† Isabelle M. Dixon,† Isabelle Malfant,‡ and Jean-Louis Heully\*,†

†Laboratoire de Chimie et [Phy](#page-6-0)sique Quantiques, UMR 5626, IRSAMC, CNRS et Université de Toulouse, 118 route de Narbonne, 31062 Toulouse, France

‡ Laboratoire de Chimie de Coordination, CNRS UPR 8241, 205 route de Narbonne, 31077 Toulouse, France

**S** Supporting Information

[AB](#page-6-0)STRACT: [The density](#page-6-0) functional theory calculations presented in this work allow the first rationalization of the full linkage photoisomerization mechanism of trans- $\mathrm{[RuCl(NO)(py)_4]}^{2^+}$ , in both the forward and reverse directions. These mechanisms are consistent with the experimental data establishing that blue-light irradiation triggers the forward process, while red or IR photons trigger the reverse process. Characterization of the singlet and lowest triplet potential energy surfaces shows that, despite the unfavorable thermodynamic character of the forward process, the topologies of the surfaces and particularly some crucial surface crossings enable the isomerization. In the forward Ru−NO → Ru−ON direction, a sequential two-photon absorption mechanism is



→ Ru-ON Linkage photoisomerization coordinate

unraveled that involves a sideways-bonded metastable state. In contrast, in the reverse reaction, two mechanisms are proposed involving either one or two photons.

#### 1. INTRODUCTION

Since the discovery of the light-induced metastable isomers of the iron nitrosyl complex  $\text{Na}_2[\text{Fe(CN)}_5(\text{NO})]$  (sodium nitroprusside), $1,2$  several iron compounds with similar photophysical properties have been found.<sup>3−10</sup> Because of their photochromic [pr](#page-7-0)operties, these complexes offer not only a wide range of technological applications suc[h as](#page-7-0) the design of new optical high-capacity storage devices but also important knowledge in the fundamentals of chemical bonding and photochemical reactions.<sup>11−14</sup> A few years later, photoisomerizable ruthenium nitrosyl compounds have been developed.15−<sup>26</sup> By extensi[on of](#page-7-0) the nitroprusside terminology, the lowest ground-state species (denoted as GS) is characteriz[ed by](#page-7-0) the commonly known N-bound form of the nitrosyl ligand to the metal; upon adequate irradiation, GS turns into two different metastable (MS) isomers: the oxygenbonded isomer (isonitrosyl), called MS1, and the sidewaysbonded isomer, called MS2. Besides photoisomerization, nitrosyl metal complexes can also undergo photorelease of NO and thus display biological activity.27−<sup>31</sup> Despite numerous extensive experimental studies, as well as theoretical investigations, which have afforded a full [structu](#page-7-0)ral and electronic description of the different isomers,<sup>32–36</sup> the photoisomerization mechanism is still unclear.

The current study focuses on t[he ph](#page-7-0)otoinduced isomerization of the *trans*-[RuCl(NO)(py)<sub>4</sub>](PF<sub>6</sub>)<sub>2</sub>·<sup>1</sup>/<sub>2</sub>H<sub>2</sub>O complex.<sup>37</sup> Figure 1 displays a schematic representation of the structures involved in the photoisomerization process. Upon blue[-lig](#page-7-0)ht irradiation of a single crystal, the GS isomer (orange



Figure 1. Schematic representations of the linkage isomers of the trans-[RuCl(NO)py<sub>4</sub>]<sup>2+</sup> complex in its ground state (GS), metastable states (MS1 and MS2), and experimental irradiation conditions (blue, 473 nm; red, 782 nm; dark red, 980 nm).<sup>23–26</sup>

translucent crystal) turns into the MS1 isomer (green translucent crystal). Subsequent irradiation with near-IR light generates a mixture of GS and MS2 (black crystal); the latter eventually returns to the starting isomer GS (Figure 1). Alternatively, MS1 returns to GS upon red-light irradiation.<sup>26</sup> A remarkable conversion of ca. 100% from GS toward MS1 was achieved on a single crystal upon irradiation for 1  $h^{24}$ 

Received: May 4, 2015 Published: August 14, 2015

<span id="page-1-0"></span>Electronic structure calculations have become an essential tool in the search of new materials and the understanding of their properties. In particular, density functional theory (DFT) and its time-dependent formalism (TDDFT) have been shown to be efficient for the reproduction of UV−vis absorption spectra of metal nitrosyl complexes.<sup>38-40</sup> Besides, DFT has proven to be a powerful method to describe the photoisomerization of ruthenium polypy[rid](#page-7-0)i[ne](#page-7-0) or nitrosyl metal complexes and to propose underlying mechanisms.<sup>41−49</sup> In all of these studies, triplet excited states appear to play a major role; this also holds for the current system. For th[e](#page-7-0) fi[rst](#page-7-0) time, complete pathways for the photoinduced linkage isomerization of GS toward MS1 and the reverse photoreaction from MS1 to GS are unveiled in this study.

The Article is organized as follows: First, the ground-state (singlet) potential energy surface (PES) is studied in order to describe a possible thermal isomerization pathway. Second, the TDDFT absorption spectra of the three species are discussed, and the different electronic transitions are characterized. This TDDFT analysis proves to be especially important to rationalize the experimental conditions necessary for the forward and reverse photoisomerizations. Next, the lowest triplet PES with all of the characteristic critical points is reported to discuss the full excited-state adiabatic pathway. Then, singlet−triplet minimum-energy crossing points (MECPs) are discussed in the context of nonradiative deactivation and intersystem crossing (ISC). Finally, all of this information allows us to establish a photoisomerization mechanism for the conversion from GS to MS1 and for the reverse conversion from MS1 to GS.

#### 2. COMPUTATIONAL DETAILS

Gas-phase geometry optimizations of all of the stationary points found on the closed-shell singlet (hereafter called "singlet" for simplicity) and the lowest triplet PES were carried out with the Gaussian 09 quantum package.<sup>50</sup> Starting from the crystallographic X-ray structures,<sup>24</sup> the isomers GS and MS1 were optimized in  $C_4$  symmetry. DFT was used in orde[r](#page-7-0) to perform these calculations using the standard [hy](#page-7-0)brid functional  $B3LYP$ ,  $51,52$  including Grimme's dispersion correction,<sup>5</sup> with a double- $\zeta$  Ahlrichs-type basis set<sup>54</sup> with a p polarization function for the hydrogen a[toms](#page-7-0), a triple- $\zeta$  Ahlrichs-type basis set<sup>54</sup> with one [d](#page-7-0) polarization function for the second- [an](#page-7-0)d third-row elements, and for ruthenium a Stuttgart relativistic effective core potential<sup>55</sup> (including 28 c[o](#page-7-0)re electrons) with its associated basis set<sup>55</sup> and two [f](#page-7-0) and one g polarization functions.<sup>56</sup> After geometry optimizatio[ns,](#page-7-0) vibration frequency analyses were performed at the s[am](#page-7-0)e level of theory to verify the nature of the [st](#page-7-0)ationary points. At the transition state (TS) geometries, steepest-descent (SD) optimizations and subsequent intrinsic reaction coordinate (IRC) calculations were carried out to confirm the connections between the isomers on the singlet and triplet PESs.

In the vicinity of singlet and triplet minima, a search for MECPs has been performed. Optimization of the MECPs was performed with the ORCA 3.0.2 quantum package<sup>57</sup> at the same level of theory. The UV− vis absorption spectra of GS, MS1, and MS2 in acetonitrile<sup>58</sup> were computed using the COSMO<sup>[59](#page-7-0)</sup> solvation model with ORCA, applying  $TDDFT$  using the  $TPSSh^{60}$  functional within the Tamm-[Da](#page-7-0)ncoff approximation,  $61,62$  and the [sam](#page-7-0)e basis sets as described above. The natural transition orbitals  $(NTOs)^{63}$  $(NTOs)^{63}$  corresponding to the different singlet excited [state](#page-7-0)s at the GS, MS1, and MS2 geometries were also computed. Complete active-space s[elf](#page-7-0)-consistent field (CASSCF) plus second-order *n-*electron valence states for multireference perturbation<br>theory (NEVPT2)<sup>64–66</sup> calculations have also been done on the **MS1** state in order to confirm the results of TDDFT calculations in the lowest-energy par[t o](#page-7-0)f [th](#page-8-0)e absorption spectrum (six electrons and six orbitals; see Table S18). For the reverse photoisomerization MS1  $\rightarrow$ 

GS, two-photon absorption (TPA) was envisaged for MS1 and MS2. The TPA probability was computed using  $\widetilde{\mathsf{GAMESS\text{-}US}}^{67}$  within the formalism presented in the work of Zahariev et al.<sup>68</sup> For the final results, eq 93 from the work of Friese et al.<sup>69</sup> has been [us](#page-8-0)ed. Natural bond orbital (NBO) analyses are a powerful tool [for](#page-8-0) the study of chemical bonding. This kind of analysi[s w](#page-8-0)as performed at the optimized geometries of GS, MS1, and MS2. It was performed with  $NBO$  6, $''$ which is directly accessible from ORCA.

#### 3. RE[SUL](#page-8-0)TS

**3.1. Singlet PES.** The three trans- $\left[\text{RuCl(NO)(py)}_4\right]^{2+}$ isomers, GS, MS1, and MS2, were optimized, and the computed geometries were compared to the experimental data (Table 1). As pointed out before,<sup>25</sup> the geometries of the

Table 1. Selected Geometrical Para[met](#page-7-0)ers (Distances in Å and angles in deg) for the Three Isomers in Their Singlet and Lowest Triplet States



<sup>a</sup>Mean value for the four different Ru–N<sub>py</sub> distances. <sup>b</sup>Optimized in  $C_4$  symmetry.

three isomers are well reproduced with B3LYP. From a structural point of view, the four pyridine ligands appear as spectator ligands because their spatial arrangement in the three isomers is very similar. It is important to remind everyone that, as mentioned in ref 24, the reduced data set available for MS2 did not permit a perfect refinement of the X-ray crystallographic structure. T[hus](#page-7-0), the experimental bond lengths might not be fully reliable, in particular the N−O distance, which is reported to be only 1.08 Å (too short for a N−O bond length). A sideways-bonded NO ligand should indeed see its N−O distance increase, as was obtained by DFT. Further information on the optimized structures can be found in the Supporting Information (Tables S1−S3). The energetic ordering of the isomers also perfectly fits the experimental data.

[Location a](http://pubs.acs.org/doi/suppl/10.1021/acs.inorgchem.5b00998/suppl_file/ic5b00998_si_001.pdf)nd subsequent optimization of the TSs [connecting](http://pubs.acs.org/doi/suppl/10.1021/acs.inorgchem.5b00998/suppl_file/ic5b00998_si_001.pdf) the three isomers, along with IRC calculations, allowed full characterization of a possible thermal isomerization pathway. Following this procedure, the singlet PES was determined along the isomerization reaction coordinate, with  ${}^{1}TS_{1}$  connecting the GS and MS2 isomers and  ${}^{1}TS_{2}$  connecting the MS2 and MS1 isomers (Supporting Information, Tables S4 and S5 and Figures S5 and S6). The results are presented in Figure 2. Compare[d to previous work,](http://pubs.acs.org/doi/suppl/10.1021/acs.inorgchem.5b00998/suppl_file/ic5b00998_si_001.pdf) $^{23}$  the trend is well reproduced.

<span id="page-2-0"></span>

Figure 2. Singlet ground-state potential energy profile of trans- $\text{[RuCl(NO)(py)}_4\text{]}^{2+}$  along the isomerization reaction coordinate.

By analogy with the photoisomerizable iron(II) nitrosyl complexes, the first step of the thermal isomerization pathway would consist of the conversion of GS to MS2, 1.56 eV (150.5 kJ/mol) higher in energy, with a highly unfavorable 2.44 eV energy barrier (235.4 kJ/mol). With a sideways-bound NO ligand, the MS2 geometry roughly corresponds to half of the geometric deformation between GS and MS1, and the nitrogen atom is much closer to the ruthenium atom than the oxygen atom (Table 1). The second step from MS2 to MS1 is also kinetically highly unfavorable [barrier of 1.57 eV (151.5 kJ/ mol)] [but only](#page-1-0) slightly thermodynamically unfavorable [MS1 lies 0.30 eV (28.9 kJ/mol) higher than MS2]. Thus, from a kinetic and thermodynamic point of view, the  $GS \rightarrow MS1$ isomerization cannot be achieved on the singlet state PES.

The reverse pathway from MS1 to GS is thermodynamically favorable (exothermic), and from a kinetic point of view, it is more favorable than the forward process because the energy barriers are reduced: 1.27 eV (122.5 kJ/mol) from MS1 to MS2 and 0.88 eV (84.9 kJ/mol) from MS2 to GS. Thus, the thermal isomerization pathway from MS1 to GS is globally more favorable than the linkage isomerization from GS to MS1 but would remain challenging.

In an attempt to rationalize the energetic profile shown in Figure 2, an NBO analysis was undertaken. A second-order perturbation theory analysis of the Fock matrix in the NBO basis set allows a quantitative analysis, in terms of stabilizing energies gained upon electron delocalization between donors and acceptors, and a qualitative analysis based on interacting fragments in terms of two-center bonds and three-center fourelectron (3c-4e) hyperbonds. Table 2 reports the main results from this NBO analysis.

The energetic ordering of the three isomers is perfectly mirrored in the total delocalization energies. The energy gaps that appear on Figure 2 are also very well reproduced. From this analysis, GS is expected to be much more stabilized than MS2 and MS1. MS1 is expected to be slightly less stabilized than MS2. In terms of interacting fragments, GS and MS2 are composed of two fragments, while MS1 is described by one

fragment only because one bonding orbital is found between the ruthenium and nitrogen atoms. Along the forward pathway, the largest activation barrier is associated with the disappearance of two highly stabilizing hyperbonds, in particular because of the tilting of the nitrogen lone pair and the loss of Cl−Ru−N linearity (from GS to MS2). When the Ru−N bond of MS2 is broken (from MS2 to MS1), a large activation barrier is also found. In the MS1 isomer, it should be noticed that the  $(N)O$  $\rightarrow$  RuCl interaction is much weaker than the  $(O)N \rightarrow RuCl$ interaction in GS. Along the reverse pathway, slightly smaller activation barriers are associated with the disappearance of one hyperbond (from MS1 to MS2) or one bond (from MS2 to GS). It can be seen that in this case the NBO analysis explains perfectly the relative positions of the three isomers as well as the energetic barriers between them.

3.2. Absorption Spectra of GS, MS1, and MS2. Irradiation of GS with blue light at 473 nm happens to produce the largest amount of MS1. We will return to this point later (section 4.1). On the way back, irradiation with red light at several wavelengths (658, 782, and 808 nm)<sup>20</sup> can be used to generate GS from MS1.

As can be [observed](#page-4-0) [in](#page-4-0) Figure 3, isomers GS and M[S2](#page-7-0) present absorption bands in the region from 400 to 500 nm and



Figure 3. TDDFT spectra of the three linkage isomers of trans-  $[\text{RuCl}(\text{NO})(\text{py})_4]^{2+}$  computed in acetonitrile.

isomers MS1 and MS2 show similar absorption bands in the 600−750 nm spectral region. It should be noted that the extinction coefficients of the bands in those regions are quite small compared to those of polypyridyl ruthenium complexes. This is one of the reasons why the experimental irradiation times needed to achieve the photoisomerization are on the order of tens of minutes. In Table 3, the nature, absorption wavelengths, and oscillator strengths of the main transitions are summarized (NTO for the s[elected](#page-3-0) states can be found in Tables S15−S17).

Experimentally, only the absorption of pure GS is available in solution  $(450 \text{ nm})$ .<sup>58</sup> In order to reproduce this spectrum, it is necessary to take into account solvent effects (Figures S1−S4).

Table 2. Delocalization Energies (kJ/mol; Donation and Backdonation Are Defined with Respect to the Metal [Center\), Natur](http://pubs.acs.org/doi/suppl/10.1021/acs.inorgchem.5b00998/suppl_file/ic5b00998_si_001.pdf)e of the Fragments, and Number of Bonds and Hyperbonds



<span id="page-3-0"></span>Table 3. Selected TDDFT States near the Spectral Irradiation Wavelengths (i.e., in the 400−500 and 600−1100 nm Ranges) Computed in Acetonitrile for the Three Isomers in Their Singlet States (Oscillator Strength Threshold 10<sup>−</sup><sup>3</sup> )



In these conditions, the lowest-energy absorption band is computed at 434 nm (416 nm without solvent). The 434 nm band in the spectrum of the GS isomer (Table 3) corresponds to two degenerate metal-to-ligand charge-transfer (MLCT) transitions from a  $Ru(d_{xy})$  orbital to antibonding  $RuNO$  $(d_{xz}-\pi_x^*$  and  $d_{yz}-\pi_y^*$ ) molecular orbitals (MOs).<sup>72</sup> At higher energies in the spectral region of interest, the two other states,  $S_6$  and  $S_7$ , correspond to transitions from pyridyl [M](#page-8-0)Os to the Ru−NO MOs described before.

The MS2 spectrum displays its lowest-energy band at  $\lambda_{\text{max}} =$ 706 nm (Figure 3). The MS2 isomer presents a band similar to that of GS in the region between 400 and 500 nm. This is crucial, a[s shown](#page-2-0) in the description of the photoisomerization mechanism. At the experimental irradiation wavelength (473 nm), MS2 is the most efficient absorber of the three isomers. The excitation wavelength that produces the largest amount of MS1 is 473 nm, which corresponds to a compromise between the absorptions of GS and MS2.

The MS1 isomer shows a band at the same position and intensity as MS2 at 703 nm. It should be noted that, upon transposition of the 0.1 eV shift found for GS between theory and experiment, MS1 does not absorb at the experimental irradiation wavelength (473 nm).

3.3. Lowest Triplet PES. The lowest triplet PES was explored in order to investigate a possible adiabatic  $N \rightarrow O$ linkage photoisomerization on this surface, similarly to ruthenium sulfoxides.41−45,73,74 The singly occupied natural orbitals, geometries, spin densities, and other relevant information on the [three](#page-7-0) [min](#page-8-0)ima can be found in Tables S6−S8. Starting from the singlet optimized structures, three different stationary points corresponding to three different [minima](http://pubs.acs.org/doi/suppl/10.1021/acs.inorgchem.5b00998/suppl_file/ic5b00998_si_001.pdf) were identified. These minima were labeled ac[cording](http://pubs.acs.org/doi/suppl/10.1021/acs.inorgchem.5b00998/suppl_file/ic5b00998_si_001.pdf) to their affiliation with their corresponding closed-shell isomer: GS, <sup>3</sup>MS2, and <sup>3</sup>MS1. On the basis of Mulliken spin densities, these triplet states can be considered as standard MLCT states. It is worth noticing that, in contrast with polypyridyl ruthenium complexes, no triplet metal-centered states  $(\overline{3}MC)$  have been identified for this system on the lowest triplet PES.<sup>43,45,73,74</sup>

The lowest triplet state minima have been compared with their parent singlet geometries (Table 1) in order [to hi](#page-7-0)[ghlig](#page-8-0)ht the main geometrical differences. It is remarkable that the Ru− N−O (or its homologous Ru−O−N for the MS1/<sup>3</sup>MS1 couple) bond angle bends from 180° [\(in](#page-1-0) GS and MS1) to 134°  $(in \n3GS \nand \n3MS1)$ . Furthermore, the triplet states exhibit an

elongated bond to the nitrosyl or isonitrosyl ligand, from 1.745 Å (GS) to 1.975 Å (<sup>3</sup>GS) and from 1.854 Å (MS1) to 2.169 Å (3 MS1). Thus, for both the forward and reverse photoisomerizations, population of the triplet state initiates the rotation of the NO ligand.

In the Ru−NO → Ru−ON isomerization process (GS → MS1), the key geometrical change must involve a step where Ru−N < Ru−O becomes Ru−O < Ru−N. This key step is observed with the population of  $3MS2$ , whose geometry perfectly reflects this inversion (Table 1). From a structural point of view, it seems more favorable to go from one triplet to the other, rather than from one si[nglet to t](#page-1-0)he other, because the changes in the Ru−N−O angles in the triplet state are smaller. The location and optimization of the TSs, followed by IRC calculations, is shown in Figure 4, with  ${}^{3}TS_{1}$  connecting the  ${}^{3}CS$  and  ${}^{3}MS2$  minima and  ${}^{3}TS$  connecting  ${}^{3}MS2$  and  ${}^{3}MS1$ GS and  ${}^{3}$ MS2 minima and  ${}^{3}TS_{2}$  connecting  ${}^{3}MS2$  and  ${}^{3}MS1$ minima (further information can be found in Tables S9 and S10 and Figures S7 and S8).



Figure 4. Lowest triplet potential energy profile of trans-[RuCl(NO)- $(py)_4$ <sup>2+</sup> along the photoisomerization reaction coordinate.

The energy gaps between the first two minima are smaller in the triplet state case (<sup>3</sup>GS  $\rightarrow$  <sup>3</sup>MS2: 0.84 eV, 81.1 kJ/mol) than in the singlet state case ( $GS \rightarrow MS2$ : 1.56 eV, 150.5 kJ/mol). With the  $\mathrm{^{3}MS2}$  state being the highest of all triplet minima, the second step is now thermodynamically favorable (-0.17 eV, 16.4 kJ/mol), while it was unfavorable on the singlet state PES  $(+0.30 \text{ eV}, 28.9 \text{ kJ/mol}).$ 

The energy barriers encountered on the triplet PES are all reduced with respect to the singlet PES. However, the barrier found between  ${}^{3}\text{GS}$  and  ${}^{3}\text{MS2}$  (1.06 eV, 102.3 kJ/mol) is still large, but once <sup>3</sup>MS2 is reached, the progression of the reaction toward <sup>3</sup> MS1 is, from a thermodynamic and a kinetic (0.26 eV,

<span id="page-4-0"></span>25.1 kJ/mol) point of view, favorable. Thus, the reaction would be easier on the lowest triplet PES than on the singlet PES.

The reverse pathway from  $3MS1$  to  $3GS$  is globally more favorable than the forward one, with an initial  ${}^{3}$ MS1  $\rightarrow$   ${}^{3}$ MS2 barrier of 0.43 eV (41.5 kJ/mol) and a second  $^3\mathrm{MS2} \rightarrow \mathrm{^3GS}$ barrier of 0.22 eV (21.2 kJ/mol). The backreaction  ${}^{3}MS1 \rightarrow {}^{3}CS$  is exothermic:  $\Delta E = -0.67$  eV ( $-64.6$  kJ/mol) <sup>3</sup>GS is exothermic;  $\Delta E = -0.67$  eV (-64.6 kJ/mol).

3.4. Singlet–Triplet MECPs. In order to discuss possible nonadiabatic relaxation pathways, we have also searched the MECPs between the lowest triplet PES and the singlet state PES. This kind of relaxation through MECPs is decisive in the photoisomerization mechanism of ruthenium sulfoxide and phosphinidene oxide complexes.<sup>43−45</sup> The size of the singlet– triplet spin−orbit coupling constant, about 1000 cm<sup>−</sup><sup>1</sup> 49,75 is , sufficient to ensure that ISC will [occur](#page-7-0) at these crossing points. Four MECPs between the singlet and triplet PESs wer[e f](#page-7-0)[oun](#page-8-0)d and are shown in Figure 5 (the geometries, gradients, triplet



Figure 5. Energy profile showing the singlet−triplet MECPs versus the Ru−N−O angle of *trans*-[RuCl(NO)(py)<sub>4</sub>]<sup>2+</sup>. The blue line represents the lowest-energy reaction path of the closed-shell singlet state along the photoizomerization process. The red line represents the lowest triplet state energy path along the photoizomerization process. Triplet–singlet funnels are represented by double-cone pictograms.<br>Figure 6. Schematic depiction of the major events involved in the

electronic structures, and relaxation pathways at these MECPs can be found in Tables S11−S14 and Figures S9−S12). The energy is plotted against the Ru−N−O angle, which was selected as a re[levant reaction coordinate for the](http://pubs.acs.org/doi/suppl/10.1021/acs.inorgchem.5b00998/suppl_file/ic5b00998_si_001.pdf) photoisomerization process.

The first MECP found, MECP<sub>1</sub>, is almost similar in energy and geometry to  ${}^{3}$ GS. MECP<sub>2</sub> is located between the geometries of the  ${}^{3}GS$  and MS2 species, 0.67 eV (64.6 kJ/ mol) higher in energy than <sup>3</sup>GS. This MECP is very important because it affords a way to go from  ${}^{3}GS$  to MS2 at a reasonable cost. MECP<sub>3</sub> is almost similar in energy and geometry to  $3$ MS2. Finally,  $MECP_4$  allows the ISC between  ${}^{3}$ MS1 and MS1, i.e., the population of the final photoisomerization product, MS1. It is easily accessible from  ${}^{3}\mathrm{\widetilde{M}S1}$  (0.17 eV, 16.4 kJ/mol) and has an intermediate geometry between MS1 and  ${}^{3}{\rm MS1}$  (especially in terms of the Ru−O distance and Ru−O−N angle). As will be explained in the discussion,  $MECP<sub>4</sub>$  is important for both the forward and reverse isomerizations.

#### 4. DISCUSSION

Before a discussion about the photoisomerization mechanisms of the *trans*-[RuCl(NO) $py_4$ ]<sup>2+</sup> system is presented in detail, three points have to be noted to describe this peculiar system:

(i) From a structural point of view, the MS2 geometry is an inevitable stopover and plays a central role in the mechanism, in the both forward and reverse directions. In addition, we have seen that the absorption properties of MS2 were partly overlapping those of GS (in the blue region) and partly overlapping those of MS1 (in the red region). This property makes MS2 the cornerstone of this photoisomerization.

(ii) The second remarkable specificity of this system is that, during the rotation of the NO fragment, two important regions of the PES exhibit the high-spin state (triplet states) as being more stable than the low-spin state (closed-shell singlet states). This is reminiscent of the physical properties of iron(II) magnetic compounds where spin crossover commonly occurs.

(iii) Our initial working hypothesis is that the photoisomerization occurs on the lowest triplet PES. However, on the basis of the following calculations, we have envisaged the significant intervention of higher excited states (noted as  $T_n$ hereafter) in the mechanism, which avoid invoking thermodynamically uphill steps.

4.1. Mechanism for the Forward Isomerization (GS  $\rightarrow$ MS1). The forward isomerization is performed by irradiation of the single crystal with  $\lambda = 473$  nm at ca. 100 K for 1 h.<sup>24</sup> The  $GS \rightarrow MSI$  photoisomerization can be viewed as a two-step sequence (GS  $\rightarrow$  MS2 followed by MS2  $\rightarrow$  MS1), in [w](#page-7-0)hich MS2 is an essential intermediate displaying an  $\eta^2$  geometry. The corresponding mechanism is schematically presented in Figure 6.



photoisomerization mechanism from GS to MS1. The various steps that result in population of the MS1 state are labeled sequentially (a− k). Solid arrows are used when states of the same multiplicity are involved, and dashed arrows are used otherwise. The singlet states are in blue and the triplet states in red.

Step 1:  $GS \rightarrow MS2$ . Following photoexcitation (elementary step a in Figure 6),  ${}^{3}{\rm GS}$  is populated (steps b and c). The a, b, and c sequence is extremely well documented both experimentally and, more recently, theoretically, on the ruthenium complexes.  $49,76,77$  S<sub>n</sub> refers to the lowest most absorbing singlet state.  $T_n$ , which is coupled by spin–orbit coupling with  $S_n$ , sho[uld](#page-7-0) [be](#page-8-0) more or less degenerate with  $S_n$ and, furthermore, should be built on a determinant having one orbital orthogonal to the  $S_n$  determinant. Step c is the internal conversion from  $T_n$  to the lowest triplet state, i.e., <sup>3</sup>GS. From  $3CS$  in its <sup>3</sup>GS, ISC through MECP<sub>2</sub> (step d) populates MS2 in its ground state. This step d involves an important change in the Ru−N−O angle (from 134.2° to 84.7°) and in the Ru−O distance (from 2.90 to 2.16 Å). Assuming a full thermal relaxation to <sup>3</sup>GS( $\nu$ =0), the activation energy to reach MECP<sub>2</sub> amounts to 0.67 eV (64.6 kJ/mol). Alternatively, if  ${}^{3}GS$  is populated in high vibrational states, i.e.,  ${}^{3}$ GS ( $\nu$ >0), then the 0.67 eV value is just an upper limit of this activation energy. In addition, a direct connection between  $T_n$  and MS2 has also

<span id="page-5-0"></span>been considered (step e). In particular, two triplets states, which lie 0.47 and 0.70 eV (45.3 and 67.5 kJ/mol) above  ${}^{3}$ GS (at the  ${}^{3}GS$  geometry), are perfect candidates to populate MS2 and would avoid the system to fall in the  ${}^3{\rm GS}$  potential well. It is even possible that these triplet states undergo ISC to MS2, but this point was not addressed in this work.

Step 2:  $MS2 \rightarrow MS1$ . To continue the isomerization process from MS2 and literally to be dragged out of the MS2 potential well, the system has to be excited to the <sup>3</sup>MS2 state. As seen in the geometries (Table 1), the  $\text{MS2} \rightarrow \text{3MS2}$  step is crucial to switch in favor of the isonitrosyl coordination. Population of  $3\,$ MS2 can be ach[ieved eit](#page-1-0)her by overcoming a 0.73 eV (70.4 kJ/ mol) barrier to reach MECP<sub>3</sub> (step f) or much more probably by absorption of another blue photon (step g) and subsequent relaxation to <sup>3</sup>MS2 (steps h and i). Indeed, with such energy barriers to reach  $MECP_2$  or  $MECP_3$  that surround MS2, the system should be trapped in the MS2 isomer long enough to be detected by a color change of the crystal. However, the irradiated crystal goes directly from orange to green. Hence, before the MS2 isomer can be detected, it is depopulated by the absorption of a second photon. As seen in its absorption spectrum, MS2 absorbs strongly at the experimental excitation wavelength. Thus, once the system reaches the MS2 isomer, it absorbs a blue photon and relaxes preferentially to  $^3{\rm MS2}$  (GS  $\rightarrow$  MS1 photoisomerization completed in 1 h) versus relaxing to  ${}^3$ GS.

The next step ( ${}^{3}MS2 \rightarrow {}^{3}MS1$  via  ${}^{3}TS_{2}$ , step j) involves mainly a dramatic change in the Ru−N−O angle (from 71.1° to 30.2°) and a marked shortening of the N−O distance (from 1.216 to 1.159 Å). The last step of the photoisomerization  $(^3$ MS1  $\rightarrow$  MS1, step k) consists of an ISC through MECP<sub>4</sub>, with a small energy barrier of 0.17 eV (16.4 kJ/mol). The main coordinate involves a change in the Ru−N−O angle from 30.2° to 0.0°.

Pitfalls along the  $GS \rightarrow MSI$  Path. Depending on their location and depending on which side they are accessed from, MECPs can act as either reactive or quenching funnels for the photoisomerization process. The first pitfall (step l) is encountered very close to <sup>3</sup>GS, where  $\textrm{MECP}_1$  takes the system back to the starting point. This relaxation back to GS is the most probable path because it only involves spin change (almost no energy barrier). This is an important trap that would make the photoisomerization quite inefficient. The second pitfall is that the  ${}^{3}$ MS2 state can either go forward to  ${}^{3}$ MS1 (as seen before) or return to  ${}^{3}$ CS (step m) with similar MS1 (as seen before) or return to  $^3{\rm GS}$  (step m) with similar barriers (0.26 vs 0.22 eV). In addition, in the vicinity of  ${}^{3}{\rm MS2}$ lies MECP<sub>3</sub>, which allows the system to return to **MS2** (step n).

It is noteworthy that, experimentally, photoisomerization is achieved using a monochromatic excitation only because GS and MS2 absorb at the same wavelength. This photoisomerization fulfills the general scheme proposed by Ishikawa and Tanaka, $78$  where the absorption of a photon weakens the M−NO bond and crucial crossings are found between the singlet and [trip](#page-8-0)let excited-state surfaces.

4.2. Mechanism for the Reverse Isomerization (MS1  $\rightarrow$  GS). The oxygen-bound MS1 isomer is formed upon bluelight irradiation at low temperature, ca. 100 K. It is stable in the dark, but degradation is observed upon heating and upon redlight irradiation. Indeed, the  $MS1 \rightarrow GS$  transformation is achieved experimentally either by irradiation at 782 nm for 30  $min^{20}$  or by irradiation at 980 nm for 30 min to form a ca. 1:1 mixture of MS2/GS, which can eventually become the pure GS iso[me](#page-7-0)r upon heating. $24$  The corresponding mechanisms have

been studied separately and are schematically presented in Figures 7 and 8, respectively.



Figure 7. Schematic depiction of the major events involved in the photoisomerization mechanism from MS1 to GS with red light. The various steps that result in the population of the GS state are labeled sequentially (a−l). Solid arrows are used when states of the same multiplicity are involved, and dashed arrows are used otherwise. The singlet states are in blue and the triplet states in red.



Figure 8. Schematic depiction of the major events involved in the photoisomerization mechanism from MS1 to GS with near-IR light. The various steps that result in the population of the GS state are labeled sequentially (a−h). Solid arrows are used when states of the same multiplicity are involved, and dashed arrows are used otherwise. The singlet states are in blue and the triplet states in red.

- Red-Light Excitation (Figure 7). In the red spectral range, MS1 (and also MS2) shows a broad absorption band (650− 800 nm) centered at 705 nm (Figure 3). Starting from MS1, the initial step of the mechanism consists of the absorption of a photon (step a in Figure 7). Si[milarly to](#page-2-0) the previous case,  $S_n$ undergoes ISC to  $T_{n}$ , which may directly convert into  ${}^{3}$ MS2 (step c). Which  $T_n$  converts into <sup>3</sup>MS2 is an open question because we dispose of two other triplets [0.50 and 0.55 eV (48.2 and 53.1 kJ/mol) higher in energy than  $3MS1$  at its proper geometry] that could populate  $3MS2$ . If the system relaxes to <sup>3</sup>MS1 (step d), then there are two possibilities to depopulate this state: (i) by population of MS2 through  $\widehat{\text{MECP}}_3$  (step e); (ii) by population of <sup>3</sup>MS2 via <sup>3</sup>TS<sub>2</sub> (step f). If the system reaches <sup>3</sup>MS2, it can either relax to MS2 through  $\textrm{MECP}_3^{\phantom{3}}$  (step g) or relax to  $^3\textrm{GS}$  through  $^3\textrm{TS}_1$  (step h). In the latter case, only one photon is needed to complete the reaction.

If the system reaches MS2, it can absorb a red photon (step i) because both MS2 and MS1 absorb at the excitation wavelength. This is consistent with the impossibility of observing MS2 when irradiation is performed at 782 nm; i.e., MS2 is simultaneously produced and used; hence, it does not  $\alpha$  accumulate.<sup>26</sup> As described before, depending on the excitation wavelength, excitation of MS2 to an excited singlet  $S_n$  can lead to the pop[ulat](#page-7-0)ion of either  ${}^{3}{\rm MS2}$  or  ${}^{3}{\rm GS}$ . The very fact that, at the end of the process, a pure GS orange crystal is obtained implies that, at this wavelength (red light), the system evolves mainly to  ${}^{3}GS$  (steps j and k). The final step from  ${}^{3}GS$  to GS involves relaxation through MECP<sub>1</sub> (step l) via an efficient ISC with almost no energy barrier.

<span id="page-6-0"></span>In summary, there are two pathways for the reverse  $MS1 \rightarrow$ GS photoisomerization: one that involves the absorption of only one photon, which avoids formation of the MS2 isomer, and a second one consisting of the sequential absorption of two photons by populating and depopulating the MS2 isomer.

- IR-Light Excitation (Figure 8). IR light has been used to induce the stepwise photoisomerization from MS1 to GS via MS2, with the total disap[pearance](#page-5-0) of MS1 being observed after 30 min of irradiation.<sup>24</sup> A 1:1 mixture of GS and MS2 is obtained, according to X-ray diffraction and IR spectroscopy,  $2<sup>3</sup>$ which slowly evolves i[nto](#page-7-0) a crystal of GS after a further 7 h of irradiation or just by an increase in the temperature.

As seen in the TDDFT spectrum of MS1 (Figure 3), there is no absorption band in this region; this has been confirmed by using several functionals  $(B3LYP, ^{51,52}$  PBE0,<sup>79</sup> TPSSh,<sup>60</sup> X3LYP, $^{80}$   $\omega$ B97X, $^{81}$  and L[C](#page-2-0)-PBE $^{82,83}$ ) and [also](#page-2-0) [by](#page-2-0) CASSCF/ NEVPT2<sup>64-66</sup> calculations, which [can](#page-7-0) be f[oun](#page-8-0)d in t[he](#page-7-0) Suppor[tin](#page-8-0)g Infor[mat](#page-8-0)ion (Tables [S18 a](#page-8-0)nd S19). Thus, IR light is not cap[ab](#page-7-0)l[e o](#page-8-0)f causing electronic excitations of MS1, and thus [other explanations must](http://pubs.acs.org/doi/suppl/10.1021/acs.inorgchem.5b00998/suppl_file/ic5b00998_si_001.pdf) be found to justify the disappearance of MS1. TPA cannot be excluded because many excited states fall in the suitable range. Alternatively, given that MS1 can be thermally depopulated and by analogy with iron $(II)$  spincrossover compounds, $84$  one can propose that a fraction of MS1 exists as <sup>3</sup> MS1. Depopulation of <sup>3</sup> MS1 by IR-light excitation ensures the [gr](#page-8-0)adual consumption of MS1.

In the hypothesis of a TPA, MS1 would be excited to higher singlet states, which by ISC could populate the <sup>3</sup>MS1 state. Indeed, the ca. 1000 nm excitation wavelength (corresponding to a virtual excitation of 500 nm) matches several excited states of MS1. We have calculated the TPA cross sections for these states, but these cross sections lie around 10<sup>−</sup><sup>4</sup> GM, which is too low to yield efficient excitations. Furthermore, calculations on MS2 show similar cross sections. Hence, if MS1 excitation (by TPA) was sufficient, MS2 would be consumed as soon as produced and, thus, it could not be observed, in contrast to experimental evidence. Thus, TPA can be ruled out.

In the second hypothesis, which has not yet been experimentally proven, the system can partially exist as <sup>3</sup>MS1 (step a in Figure 8) thanks to spin−orbit coupling and a low activation energy (0.38 eV). Interestingly, two transitions are found in the <sup>3</sup>[MS1](#page-5-0) TDDFT calculation, at 933 and 1396 nm, near the experimental irradiation wavelengths (980 and 1064 nm). Thus, absorption from <sup>3</sup>MS1 takes the system to higher electronic triplet states  $T_n$  (step b), and then the system can relax to  ${}^{3}{\rm MS2}$  via internal conversion (step c). Alternatively,  $3\textbf{MS1}$  can also populate  $3\textbf{MS2}$  via  $3\textbf{TS}_2$  (step d), but with this step being thermodynamically uphill, it is certainly less probable than step c. Once the system gets to  ${}^{3}{\rm MS}$ 2, it can either relax to  ${}^{3}$ GS through  ${}^{3}$ TS<sub>1</sub> (step e) or easily relax to MS2 through  $MECP_3$  (step f) (this explains why MS2 is always observed as a blend of GS and MS2). The MS2 isomer does not absorb in the IR region, and thus it is trapped long enough to be observed. This is fully consistent with the fact that, experimentally, this is the only way to observe the MS2 isomer.

From MS2, given that the system does not absorb IR light (and TPA is not efficient enough), it can only relax to  $3\text{GS}$ through MECP<sub>2</sub> (step g) with a barrier of 0.52 eV (50.2 kJ/ mol) for  $MS2(\nu=0)$ . Finally, the last step of the mechanism consists of the <sup>3</sup>GS  $\rightarrow$  GS relaxation via MECP<sub>1</sub> (step h).

#### 5. CONCLUSIONS

In this Article, we report a mechanistic study of the reversible nitrosyl linkage photoisomerization in trans-[RuCl(NO)-  $(py)_4$ <sup>2+</sup>. Three isomers, Ru–NO (GS), Ru– $\eta^2$ -NO (MS2), and Ru−ON (MS1), are successively populated during the process, which was already well established experimentally. The singlet and triplet PESs show that the forward isomerization, both thermodynamically and kinetically, is unfavorable and thus will necessitate the intervention of two photons. For the reverse photoisomerization with red-light excitation, two pathways coexist: one monophotonic process directly producing GS and one biphotonic process going to GS through MS2. For the reverse photoisomerization with IR-light excitation, only one species absorbs IR photons and thus only a monophotonic process is operative, yielding both MS2 and GS in the same crystal.

For the forward and reverse mechanisms, the  $Ru - \eta^2$ -NO isomer plays a pivotal role, both optically and structurally, for the second photon absorption: (i) its absorption spectrum overlaps that of GS in the blue region and that of MS1 in the red region, which is a compulsory condition for the forward and backward photoisomerizations to proceed; (ii) its excitation allows the system to go past the tipping point toward MS1 because Ru–O is shorter than Ru–N in <sup>3</sup>MS2. It should also be noted that the singlet and triplet PESs are highly entangled, which allows several spin changes along the reaction pathway. Furthermore, in certain regions of the PES, it is the triplet state that is the true ground state.

In contrast with ruthenium sulfoxide complexes, for which metal-centered states play a crucial role because large geometric reorganizations are required,  $43,45,73,74$  the proposed photoisomerization mechanisms for this system only involve moderately distorted triplet st[ates](#page-7-0) [of M](#page-8-0)LCT nature.

Besides linkage photoisomerization, metal nitrosyl complexes are promising candidates for NO photorelease. Understanding the factors controlling the competition between NO isomerization and NO release will be very challenging. Approaches that combine static and dynamic studies $49$  could bring further insight into the mechanisms involved in the versatile photosensitivity of ruthenium nitrosyl comple[xes](#page-7-0).

#### ■ ASSOCIATED CONTENT

#### **3** Supporting Information

The Supporting Information is available free of charge on the ACS Publications website at DOI: 10.1021/acs.inorgchem.5b00998.

Tables S1−[S10 for Car](http://pubs.acs.org)tesian coord[inates, energies, and](http://pubs.acs.org/doi/abs/10.1021/acs.inorgchem.5b00998) [orbitals o](http://pubs.acs.org/doi/abs/10.1021/acs.inorgchem.5b00998)f all of the optimized stationary points, Tables S11−S14 for structures of MECPs, Figures S1−S4 for computed absorption spectra with NTO analysis (Tables S15−S17), Table S18 for active-space orbitals of the MS1 CASSCF(6,6) calculation, Figures S5−S8 for IRC calculations, and Figures S9−S12 for SD optimizations from the four MECPs found (PDF)

#### ■ AUTHOR INFORMATION

#### Corresponding Author

\*E-mail:Heully@irsamc.ups-tlse.fr.

#### Notes

The aut[hors declare no competin](mailto:Heully@irsamc.ups-tlse.fr)g financial interest.

## <span id="page-7-0"></span>**Inorganic Chemistry**<br>■ ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

This work was granted access to the HPC resources of CALMIP supercomputing center under the allocation 2014- [1133]. The authors thank the anonymous reviewer 2 for his valuable comments and suggestions to improve the quality of the paper.

#### ■ REFERENCES

(1) Hauser, U.; Oestreich, V.; Rohrweck, H. D. Z. Z. Phys. A: At. Nucl. 1977, 280, 17.

- (2) Hauser, U.; Oestreich, V.; Rohrweck, H. D. Z. Z. Phys. A: At. Nucl. 1977, 280, 125.
- (3) Pressprich, M. R.; White, M. A.; Vekhter, Y.; Coppens, P. J. Am. Chem. Soc. 1994, 116, 5233−5238.
- (4) Delley, B.; Schefer, J.; Woike, T. J. Chem. Phys. 1997, 107, 10067−10074.
- (5) Boulet, P.; Buchs, M.; Chermette, H.; Daul, C.; Gilardoni, F.; Rogemond, F.; Schläpfer, C. W.; Weber, J. J. Phys. Chem. A 2001, 105, 8991−8998.
- (6) Boulet, P.; Buchs, M.; Chermette, H.; Daul, C.; Furet, E.; Gilardoni, F.; Rogemond, F.; Schläpfer, C. W.; Weber, J. J. Phys. Chem. A 2001, 105, 8999−9003.
- (7) Chacón Villalba, M. E.; Güida, J. A.; Varetti, E. L.; Aymonino, P. J. Inorg. Chem. 2003, 42, 2622−2627.
- (8) Lee, J.; Kovalevsky, A. Y.; Novozhilova, I. V.; Bagley, K. A.; Coppens, P.; Richter-Addo, G. B. J. Am. Chem. Soc. 2004, 126, 7180− 7181.
- (9) Novozhilova, I. V.; Coppens, P.; Lee, J.; Richter-Addo, G. B.; Bagley, K. A. J. Am. Chem. Soc. 2006, 128, 2093−2104.
- (10) Lynch, M. S.; Cheng, M.; Van Kuiken, B. E.; Khalil, M. J. Am. Chem. Soc. 2011, 133, 5255−5262.
- (11) Gütlich, P.; Garcia, Y.; Woike, T. Coord. Chem. Rev. 2001, 219- 221, 839−879.
- (12) Coppens, P.; Novozhilova, I.; Kovalevsky, A. Chem. Rev. 2002, 102, 861−884.
- (13) Ford, P. C.; Wecksler, S. Coord. Chem. Rev. 2005, 249, 1382− 1395.
- (14) Bitterwolf, T. E. Coord. Chem. Rev. 2006, 250, 1196−1207.
- (15) Fomitchev, D. V.; Coppens, P. Inorg. Chem. 1996, 35, 7021− 7026.
- (16) Fomitchev, D. V.; Coppens, P.; Li, T.; Bagley, K. A.; Chen, L.; Richter-Addo, G. B. Chem. Commun. 1999, 19, 2013−2014.
- (17) Da Silva, S. C.; Franco, D. W. Spectrochim. Acta, Part A 1999, 55, 1515−1525.
- (18) Gorelsky, S. I.; Lever, A. B. P. Int. J. Quantum Chem. 2000, 80, 636−645.
- (19) Schaniel, D.; Woike, T.; Boskovic, C.; Gü del, H.-U. Chem. Phys. Lett. 2004, 390, 347−351.
- (20) Bitterwolf, T. E. Inorg. Chem. Commun. 2008, 11, 772−773.
- (21) Giglmeier, H.; Kerscher, T.; Klüfers, P.; Schaniel, D.; Woike, T. Dalton Trans. 2009, 42, 9113.
- (22) Zangl, A.; Klüfers, P.; Schaniel, D.; Woike, T. Dalton Trans. 2009, 6, 1034−1045.
- (23) Schaniel, D.; Cormary, B.; Malfant, I.; Valade, L.; Woike, T.; Delley, B.; Krämer, K. W.; Güdel, H.-U. *Phys. Chem. Chem. Phys.* 2007, 9, 3717−3724.
- (24) Cormary, B.; Malfant, I.; Buron-Le Cointe, M.; Toupet, L.; Delley, B.; Schaniel, D.; Mockus, N.; Woike, T.; Fejfarová, K.; Petříček,
- V.; Dušek, M. Acta Crystallogr., Sect. B: Struct. Sci. 2009, 65, 612-623. (25) Cormary, B.; Ladeira, S.; Jacob, K.; Lacroix, P. G.; Woike, T.;
- Schaniel, D.; Malfant, I. Inorg. Chem. 2012, 51, 7492−7501. (26) Khadeeva, L.; Kaszub, W.; Lorenc, M.; Malfant, I.; Buron-Le
- Cointe, M. Submitted.
- (27) Tfouni, E.; Krieger, M.; McGarvey, B. R.; Franco, D. W. Coord. Chem. Rev. 2003, 236, 57−69.
- (28) Pestana, C. R.; Phelippin, D. P. S.; Polizello, A. C. M.; Dorta, D. J.; Uyemura, S. A.; Santos, A. C.; Doro, F. G.; Rodrigues, F. P.; Tfouni, E.; Curti, C. Nitric Oxide 2009, 20, 24−30.
- J.; Cunha, F. Q.; Franco, D. W. Eur. J. Med. Chem. 2010, 45, 4180− 4187.
- (30) Tfouni, E.; Truzzi, D. R.; Tavares, A.; Gomes, A. J.; Figueiredo,
- L. E.; Franco, D. W. Nitric Oxide 2012, 26, 38−53.
- (31) Ford, P. C. Nitric Oxide 2013, 34, 56−64. (32) Caramori, G. F.; Frenking, G. Organometallics 2007, 26, 5815−
- 5825.
- (33) Caramori, G. F.; Kunitz, A. G.; Andriani, K. F.; Doro, F. G.; Frenking, G.; Tfouni, E. Dalton Trans. 2012, 41, 7327.
- (34) Andriani, K. F.; Caramori, G. F.; Doro, F. G.; Parreira, R. L. T. Dalton Trans. 2014, 43, 8792−8804.
- (35) Delcey, M. G.; Freitag, L.; Pedersen, T. B.; Aquilante, F.; Lindh, R.; González, L. J. Chem. Phys. 2014, 140, 174103.
- (36) Freitag, L.; Knecht, S.; Keller, S. F.; Delcey, M. G.; Aquilante, F.; Bondo Pedersen, T.; Lindh, R.; Reiher, M.; Gonzalez, L. Phys. Chem. Chem. Phys. 2015, 17, 14383−14392.
- (37) Also known as trans- $[\text{RuCl(py)}_4(\text{NO})]^{2+}$  and trans- $[Ru(py)_4Cl(NO)]^{2+}.$
- (38) De Candia, A. G.; Marcolongo, J. P.; Etchenique, R.; Slep, L. D. Inorg. Chem. 2010, 49, 6925−6930.
- (39) Merkle, A. C.; Fry, N. L.; Mascharak, P. K.; Lehnert, N. Inorg. Chem. 2011, 50, 12192−12203.
- (40) Fry, N. L.; Mascharak, P. K. Dalton Trans. 2012, 41, 4726.
- (41) Ciofini, I.; Daul, C. A.; Adamo, C. J. Phys. Chem. A 2003, 107, 11182−11190.
- (42) Ciofini, I.; Laine, P. P.; Bedioui, F.; Daul, C. A.; Adamo, C. ́ C. R. Chim. 2006, 9, 226−239.
- (43) Göttle, A. J.; Dixon, I. M.; Alary, F.; Heully, J.-L.; Boggio-Pasqua, M. J. Am. Chem. Soc. 2011, 133, 9172−9174.
- (44) Vieuxmaire, O. P. J.; Piau, R. E.; Alary, F.; Heully, J.-L.; Sutra, P.;
- Igau, A.; Boggio-Pasqua, M. J. Phys. Chem. A 2013, 117, 12821−12830. (45) Göttle, A. J.; Alary, F.; Dixon, I. M.; Heully, J.-L.; Boggio-Pasqua, M. Inorg. Chem. 2014, 53, 6752−6760.
- (46) Atanasov, M.; Schönherr, T. J. Mol. Struct.: THEOCHEM 2002, 592, 79−93.
- (47) Karidi, K.; Garoufis, A.; Tsipis, A.; Hadjiliadis, N.; den Dulk, H.; Reedijk, J. Dalton Trans. 2005, 7, 1176−1187.
- (48) Kurtikyan, T. S.; Hayrapetyan, V. A.; Martirosyan, G. G.; Ghazaryan, R. K.; Iretskii, A. V.; Zhao, H.; Pierloot, K.; Ford, P. C. Chem. Commun. 2012, 48, 12088−12090.
- (49) Freitag, L.; Gonzalez, L. ́ Inorg. Chem. 2014, 53, 6415−6426.
- (50) Frisch, M. J.; et al. Gaussian 09, revision D.01; Gaussian, Inc.: Wallingford, CT, 2010.
- (51) Lee, C.; Yang, W.; Parr, R. G. Phys. Rev. B: Condens. Matter Mater. Phys. 1988, 37, 785.
- (52) Becke, A. D. J. Chem. Phys. 1993, 98, 5648.
- (53) Grimme, S.; Antony, J.; Ehrlich, S.; Krieg, H. J. Chem. Phys. 2010, 132, 154104.
- (54) Schäfer, A.; Horn, H.; Ahlrichs, R. J. Chem. Phys. 1992, 97, 2571.
- (55) Andrae, D.; Haeussermann, U.; Dolg, M.; Stoll, H.; Preuss, H.
- Theor. Chim. Acta 1990, 77, 123−141.
- (56) Martin, J. M. L.; Sundermann, A. J. Chem. Phys. 2001, 114, 3408.
- (57) Neese, F. WIREs: Comput. Mol. Sci. 2012, 2, 73−78.
- (58) Coe, B. J.; Meyer, T. J.; White, P. S. Inorg. Chem. 1995, 34, 593− 602.
- (59) Sinnecker, S.; Rajendran, A.; Klamt, A.; Diedenhofen, M.; Neese, F. J. Phys. Chem. A 2006, 110, 2235−2245.
- (60) Tao, J.; Perdew, J. P.; Staroverov, V. N.; Scuseria, G. E. Phys. Rev. Lett. 2003, 91, 146401.
- (61) Hirata, S.; Head-Gordon, M. Chem. Phys. Lett. 1999, 314, 291− 299.
- (62) Hirata, S.; Head-Gordon, M. Chem. Phys. Lett. 1999, 302, 375− 382.
- (63) Martin, R. L. J. Chem. Phys. 2003, 118, 4775−4777.
- (64) Angeli, C.; Cimiraglia, R.; Evangelisti, S.; Leininger, T.; Malrieu, J.-P. J. Chem. Phys. 2001, 114, 10252−10264.
- (65) Angeli, C.; Cimiraglia, R.; Malrieu, J.-P. Chem. Phys. Lett. 2001, 350, 297−305.

<span id="page-8-0"></span>(66) Angeli, C.; Cimiraglia, R.; Malrieu, J.-P. J. Chem. Phys. 2002, 117, 9138−9153.

(67) Schmidt, M. W.; Baldridge, K. K.; Boatz, J. A.; Elbert, S. T.; Gordon, M. S.; Jensen, J. H.; Koseki, S.; Matsunaga, N.; Nguyen, K. A.; Su, S.; Windus, T. L.; Dupuis, M.; Montgomery, J. A. J. Comput. Chem. 1993, 14, 1347−1363.

(68) Zahariev, F.; Gordon, M. S. J. Chem. Phys. 2014, 140, 18A523. (69) Friese, D. H.; Beerepoot, M. T. P.; Ringholm, M.; Ruud, K. J.

Chem. Theory Comput. 2015, 11, 1129.

(70) Glendening, E. D.; et al. NBO 6.0; Theoretical Chemistry Institute, University of Wisconsin, Madison, WI, 2013.

(71) Glendening, E. D.; Landis, C. R.; Weinhold, F. J. Comput. Chem. 2013, 34, 1429−1437.

(72) In general, the common <sup>1</sup> MLCT states in ruthenium(II) polypyridine complexes consist of electronic promotions from a Ru(d) orbital to a pure ligand orbital. In this particular case, the orbital that receives the electron is unusual because it also has a nonnegligible metallic contribution.

(73) King, A. W.; Jin, Y.; Engle, J. T.; Ziegler, C. J.; Rack, J. J. Inorg. Chem. 2013, 52, 2086−2093.

(74) King, A. W.; McClure, B. A.; Jin, Y.; Rack, J. J. J. Phys. Chem. A 2014, 118, 10425−10432.

(75) Heully, J.-L.; Alary, F.; Boggio-Pasqua, M. J. Chem. Phys. 2009, 131, 184308.

(76) Balzani, V.; Ceroni, P.; Juris, A. Photochemistry and Photophysics: Concepts, Research, Applications, 1st ed.; Wiley-VCH: Weinheim, Germany, 2014; references cited therein.

(77) Salassa, L.; Garino, C.; Salassa, G.; Gobetto, R.; Nervi, C. J. Am. Chem. Soc. 2008, 130, 9590−9597.

(78) Ishikawa, T.; Tanaka, K. Z. Kristallogr. 2008, 223, 334−342.

(79) Adamo, C.; Barone, V. J. Chem. Phys. 1999, 110, 6158−6170.

(80) Xu, X.; Goddard, W. A. Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U. S. A. 2004, 101, 2673−2677.

(81) Chai, J.-D.; Head-Gordon, M. J. Chem. Phys. 2008, 128, 084106. (82) Perdew, J. P.; Burke, K.; Ernzerhof, M. Phys. Rev. Lett. 1996, 77, 3865−3868.

(83) Perdew, J. P.; Burke, K.; Ernzerhof, M. Phys. Rev. Lett. 1997, 78, 1396−1396.

(84) Hauser, A.; Enachescu, C.; Daku, M. L.; Vargas, A.; Amstutz, N. Coord. Chem. Rev. 2006, 250, 1642−1652.