Inorganic Chemistry

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

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Supporting Information

ABSTRACT: The density functional theory calculations presented in this work allow the first rationalization of the full linkage photoisomerization mechanism of trans-[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 \rightarrow Ru–ON direction, a sequential two-photon absorption mechanism is



Ru-NO → 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 $Na_2[Fe(CN)_5(NO)]$ (sodium nitroprusside),^{1,2} several iron compounds with similar photo-physical properties have been found.³⁻¹⁰ Because of their photochromic properties, these complexes offer not only a wide range of technological applications such as the design of new optical high-capacity storage devices but also important knowledge in the fundamentals of chemical bonding and photochemical reactions.¹¹⁻¹⁴ A few years later, photoisomerizable ruthenium nitrosyl compounds have been developed. $^{15-26}$ By extension of the nitroprusside terminology, the lowest ground-state species (denoted as GS) is characterized by 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.^{27–31} Despite numerous extensive experimental studies, as well as theoretical investigations, which have afforded a full structural and electronic description of the different isomers,³²⁻³⁶ the photoisomerization mechanism is still unclear.

The current study focuses on the photoinduced isomerization of the trans-[RuCl(NO)(py)₄](PF₆)₂·1/2H₂O complex.³⁷ Figure 1 displays a schematic representation of the structures involved in the photoisomerization process. Upon blue-light irradiation of a single crystal, the GS isomer (orange



Figure 1. Schematic representations of the linkage isomers of the trans- $[RuCl(NO)py_4]^{2+}$ 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).²³

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.²⁶ 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 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.^{38–40} Besides, DFT has proven to be a powerful method to describe the photo-isomerization of ruthenium polypyridine or nitrosyl metal complexes and to propose underlying mechanisms.^{41–49} In all of these studies, triplet excited states appear to play a major role; this also holds for the current system. For the first 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.⁵⁰ Starting from the crystallographic X-ray structures,²⁴ the isomers GS and MS1 were optimized in C4 symmetry. DFT was used in order to perform these calculations using the standard hybrid functional B3LYP,^{51,52} including Grimme's dispersion correction,⁵³ with a double- ζ Ahlrichs-type basis set⁵⁴ with a p polarization function for the hydrogen atoms, a triple- ζ Ahlrichs-type basis set⁵⁴ with one d polarization function for the second- and third-row elements, and for ruthenium a Stuttgart relativistic effective core potential⁵⁵ (including 28 core electrons) with its associated basis set⁵⁵ and two f and one g polarization functions.⁵⁶ After geometry optimizations, vibration frequency analyses were performed at the same level of theory to verify the nature of the stationary 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 package⁵⁷ at the same level of theory. The UV– vis absorption spectra of **GS**, **MS1**, and **MS2** in acetonitrile⁵⁸ were computed using the COSMO⁵⁹ solvation model with ORCA, applying TDDFT using the TPSSh⁶⁰ functional within the Tamm-Dancoff approximation, ^{61,62} and the same basis sets as described above. The natural transition orbitals (NTOs)⁶³ corresponding to the different singlet excited states at the **GS**, **MS1**, and **MS2** geometries were also computed. Complete active-space self-consistent field (CASSCF) plus second-order *n*-electron valence states for multireference perturbation theory (NEVPT2)^{64–66} calculations have also been done on the **MS1** state in order to confirm the results of TDDFT calculations in the lowest-energy part of the 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 GAMESS-US⁶⁷ within the formalism presented in the work of Zahariev et al.⁶⁸ For the final results, eq 93 from the work of Friese et al.⁶⁹ has been used. Natural bond orbital (NBO) analyses are a powerful tool for the study of chemical bonding. This kind of analysis was performed at the optimized geometries of **GS**, **MS1**, and **MS2**. It was performed with *NBO* 6,^{70,71} which is directly accessible from ORCA.

3. RESULTS

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

Table 1. Selected Geometrical Parameters (Distances in Å and angles in deg) for the Three Isomers in Their Singlet and Lowest Triplet States

	parameter	X-ray data ²⁴	singlet state	triplet state
GS	Ru-N _{NO}	1.755	1.745	1.975
	Ru-O _{NO}		2.886	2.901
	N-O	1.146	1.141	1.155
	Ru-Cl	2.321	2.317	2.290
	Ru-N _{py}	2.107 ^a	2.139 ^b	2.132 ^a
	∠Ru–N–O	178.3	180.0 ^b	134.2
MS2	Ru-N _{NO}	1.921	1.926	2.148
	Ru-O _{NO}	2.144	2.163	2.099
	N-O	1.08	1.177	1.216
	Ru-Cl	2.305	2.302	2.249
	Ru-N _{py}	2.101 ^a	2.147 ^a	2.144 ^a
	∠Ru–N–O	87.3	84.7	71.1
MS1	Ru-N _{NO}		2.991	3.092
	Ru-O _{NO}	1.863	1.854	2.169
	N-O	1.140	1.137	1.159
	Ru-Cl	2.278	2.278	2.252
	Ru-N _{py}	2.097 ^a	2.128 ^b	2.121 ^a
	∠Ru–N–O		0.0 ^b	30.2
a Maan wa	lus for the form	distances	^b Ontimized in	

"Mean value for the four different Ru– N_{py} distances. "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. Thus, 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 and subsequent optimization of the TSs connecting 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 ¹TS₁ connecting the **GS** and **MS2** isomers and ¹TS₂ connecting the **MS2** and **MS1** isomers (Supporting Information, Tables S4 and S5 and Figures S5 and S6). The results are presented in Figure 2. Compared to previous work,²³ the trend is well reproduced.



Figure 2. Singlet ground-state potential energy profile of *trans*- $[RuCl(NO)(py)_4]^{2+}$ 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 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 four-electron (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)²⁶ can be used to generate GS from MS1.

As can be observed in Figure 3, isomers GS and MS2 present absorption bands in the region from 400 to 500 nm and



Figure 3. TDDFT spectra of the three linkage isomers of *trans*- $[RuCl(NO)(py)_4]^{2+}$ 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 selected states can be found in Tables S15–S17).

Experimentally, only the absorption of pure **GS** is available in solution (450 nm).⁵⁸ 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), Nature of the Fragments, and Number of Bonds and Hyperbonds

	delocalization energy				
	donation	backdonation	sum	fragments	bonds/hyperbonds
GS	1367 (ON \rightarrow RuCl)	744 (RuCl \rightarrow NO)	2111	[Cl-Ru]/[NO]	0/3
MS2	995 (ON \rightarrow RuCl)	217 (RuCl \rightarrow NO)	1212	[Cl-Ru-NO]	1/1
MS1	693 (NO \rightarrow RuCl)	267 (RuCl \rightarrow ON)	960	[Cl-Ru]/[ON]	0/2

Table 3. Selected TDDFT States near the Spectral Irradiation Wavelengths (i.e., in the 400–500 and 600–1100 nm Ran	ges)
Computed in Acetonitrile for the Three Isomers in Their Singlet States (Oscillator Strength Threshold 10^{-3})	

	state	wavelength/nm	f _{osc}	nature
GS	S ₁ , S ₂	434	0.0031	$\operatorname{Ru}(d) \to \operatorname{Ru}(d)\operatorname{NO}(\pi^*)$
	S ₆ , S ₇	402	0.0010	$py(\pi) \rightarrow Ru(d)NO(\pi^*)$
MS2	S ₁	706	0.0017	$Cl(p)Ru(d) \rightarrow Ru(d)NO(\pi^*)$
	S ₆	478	0.0016	$Cl(p)Ru(d)NO(\pi^*) \rightarrow Ru(d)NO(\pi^*)$ py(\u03c0)Ru(d) \u03c0 Cl(p)Ru(d)NO(\u03c0)
	S ₇	476	0.0020	$Cl(p)Ru(d) \rightarrow Ru(d)NO(\pi^*)$ $Cl(p)Ru(d) NO(\pi^*) \rightarrow Cl(p)Ru(d)NO(\pi^*)$
	S ₁₀	450	0.0012	$py(\pi) \rightarrow Cl(p)Ru(d)NO(\pi^*)$
	S ₁₁	436	0.0028	$Cl(p)Ru(d)py(\pi) \rightarrow Ru(d)NO(\pi^*)$
	S ₁₂	433	0.0021	$Cl(p)Py(\pi) \rightarrow Cl(p)Ru(d)NO(\pi^*)$
	S ₁₃	427	0.0019	$Cl(p)Ru(d)py(\pi) \rightarrow Ru(d)NO(\pi^*)$
	S ₁₅	417	0.0030	$Cl(p)py(\pi) \to Ru(d)NO(\pi^*)$
MS1	S ₁ , S ₂	703	0.0013	$\operatorname{Ru}(d) \to \operatorname{Ru}(d)\operatorname{ON}(\pi^*)$
	S ₁₇	408	0.0043	$Cl(p)py(\pi) \to Ru(d)ON(\pi^*)$
	S ₁₈ , S ₁₉	408	0.0043	$py(\pi) \rightarrow Ru(d)ON(\pi^*)$

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).⁷² At higher energies in the spectral region of interest, the two other states, S₆ and S₇, correspond to transitions from pyridyl MOs to the Ru–NO MOs described before.

The MS2 spectrum displays its lowest-energy band at $\lambda_{max} =$ 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, as shown 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 minima can be found in Tables S6–S8. Starting from the singlet optimized structures, three different stationary points corresponding to three different minima were identified. These minima were labeled according to their affiliation with their corresponding closed-shell isomer: ³GS, ³MS2, and ³MS1. 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 (³MC) have been identified for this system on the lowest triplet PES.^{43,45,73,74}

The lowest triplet state minima have been compared with their parent singlet geometries (Table 1) in order to highlight the main geometrical differences. It is remarkable that the Ru–N–O (or its homologous Ru–O–N for the $MS1/^3MS1$ couple) bond angle bends from 180° (in GS and MS1) to 134° (in ³GS and ³MS1). Furthermore, the triplet states exhibit an

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

In the Ru–NO \rightarrow Ru–ON isomerization process (GS \rightarrow 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 singlet to the 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 ³TS₁ connecting the ³GS and ³MS2 minima and ³TS₂ connecting ³MS2 and ³MS1 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)- $(py)_4$]²⁺ along the photoisomerization reaction coordinate.

The energy gaps between the first two minima are smaller in the triplet state case (${}^{3}\text{GS} \rightarrow {}^{3}\text{MS2}$: 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 ${}^{3}\text{MS2}$ 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 eV, 28.9 kJ/mol).

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

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 ³MS1 \rightarrow ³MS2 barrier of 0.43 eV (41.5 kJ/mol) and a second ³MS2 \rightarrow ³GS barrier of 0.22 eV (21.2 kJ/mol). The backreaction ³MS1 \rightarrow ³GS 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.^{43–45} The size of the singlet–triplet spin–orbit coupling constant, about 1000 cm^{-1,49,75} is sufficient to ensure that ISC will occur at these crossing points. Four MECPs between the singlet and triplet PESs were found 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)₄]²⁺. 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.

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 relevant reaction coordinate for the photo-isomerization process.

The first MECP found, MECP₁, is almost similar in energy and geometry to ³GS. MECP₂ is located between the geometries of the ³GS and MS2 species, 0.67 eV (64.6 kJ/ mol) higher in energy than ³GS. This MECP is very important because it affords a way to go from ³GS to MS2 at a reasonable cost. MECP₃ is almost similar in energy and geometry to ³MS2. Finally, MECP₄ allows the ISC between ³MS1 and MS1, i.e., the population of the final photoisomerization product, MS1. It is easily accessible from ³MS1 (0.17 eV, 16.4 kJ/mol) and has an intermediate geometry between MS1 and ³MS1 (especially in terms of the Ru–O distance and Ru–O–N angle). As will be explained in the discussion, MECP₄ is important for both the forward and reverse isomerizations.

4. DISCUSSION

Before a discussion about the photoisomerization mechanisms of the *trans*- $[RuCl(NO)py_4]^{2+}$ 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.²⁴ The **GS** \rightarrow **MS1** photoisomerization can be viewed as a two-step sequence (**GS** \rightarrow **MS2** followed by **MS2** \rightarrow **MS1**), in which **MS2** is an essential intermediate displaying an η^2 geometry. The corresponding mechanism is schematically presented in Figure 6.



Figure 6. Schematic depiction of the major events involved in the 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 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_n refers to the lowest most absorbing singlet state. T_w which is coupled by spin-orbit coupling with S_n , should be 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., ³GS. From ³GS, ISC through MECP₂ (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 3 **GS**(ν =0), the activation energy to reach MECP₂ amounts to 0.67 eV (64.6 kJ/mol). Alternatively, if ³GS is populated in high vibrational states, i.e., ³GS (ν >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 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 ${}^{3}GS$ 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 ³MS2 state. As seen in the geometries (Table 1), the MS2 \rightarrow ³MS2 step is crucial to switch in favor of the isonitrosyl coordination. Population of 3 MS2 can be achieved either by overcoming a 0.73 eV (70.4 kJ/ mol) barrier to reach MECP₃ (step f) or much more probably by absorption of another blue photon (step g) and subsequent relaxation to ³MS2 (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 ³MS2 (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 MECP₄, 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 $GS \rightarrow MS1$ 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 1) is encountered very close to ³GS, where MECP₁ 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 ³MS2 state can either go forward to ³MS1 (as seen before) or return to ³GS (step m) with similar barriers (0.26 vs 0.22 eV). In addition, in the vicinity of ³MS2 lies MECP₃, 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 triplet excited-state surfaces.

4.2. Mechanism for the Reverse Isomerization (MS1 → **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** → **GS** transformation is achieved experimentally either by irradiation at 782 nm for 30 min²⁶ 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** isomer 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). Similarly to the previous case, S_n undergoes ISC to T_n , which may directly convert into ³MS2 (step c). Which T_n converts into ³MS2 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 ${}^{\bar{3}}MS2$. If the system relaxes to ³MS1 (step d), then there are two possibilities to depopulate this state: (i) by population of MS2 through MECP₃ (step e); (ii) by population of ³MS2 via ³TS₂ (step f). If the system reaches ³MS2, it can either relax to MS2 through MECP₃ (step g) or relax to ³GS through ³TS₁ (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 accumulate.²⁶ As described before, depending on the excitation wavelength, excitation of MS2 to an excited singlet S_n can lead to the population of either ³MS2 or ³GS. 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 ³GS (steps j and k). The final step from ³GS to GS involves relaxation through MECP₁ (step 1) via an efficient ISC with almost no energy barrier.

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 disappearance of **MS1** being observed after 30 min of irradiation.²⁴ A 1:1 mixture of **GS** and **MS2** is obtained, according to X-ray diffraction and IR spectroscopy,²³ which slowly evolves into 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, ⁷⁹ TPSSh,⁶⁰ X3LYP, ⁸⁰ ω B97X, ⁸¹ and LC-PBE^{82,83}) and also by CASSCF/ NEVPT2^{64–66} calculations, which can be found in the Supporting Information (Tables S18 and S19). Thus, IR light is not capable of causing electronic excitations of **MS1**, and thus other explanations must 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 ³**MS1**. Depopulation of ³**MS1** by IR-light excitation ensures the gradual consumption of **MS1**.

In the hypothesis of a TPA, **MS1** would be excited to higher singlet states, which by ISC could populate the ³**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^{-4} 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 ³MS1 (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 ³MS1 TDDFT calculation, at 933 and 1396 nm, near the experimental irradiation wavelengths (980 and 1064 nm). Thus, absorption from ³MS1 takes the system to higher electronic triplet states T_n (step b), and then the system can relax to ³MS2 via internal conversion (step c). Alternatively, ³MS1 can also populate ³MS2 via ³TS₂ (step d), but with this step being thermodynamically uphill, it is certainly less probable than step c. Once the system gets to ³MS2, it can either relax to ³GS through ³TS₁ (step e) or easily relax to MS2 through MECP₃ (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 ${}^{3}GS$ through MECP₂ (step g) with a barrier of 0.52 eV (50.2 kJ/mol) for MS2(ν =0). Finally, the last step of the mechanism consists of the ${}^{3}GS \rightarrow GS$ relaxation via MECP₁ (step h).

5. CONCLUSIONS

In this Article, we report a mechanistic study of the reversible nitrosyl linkage photoisomerization in *trans*-[RuCl(NO)-(py)₄]²⁺. Three isomers, Ru–NO (GS), Ru– η^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 ³**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 photo-isomerization mechanisms for this system only involve moderately distorted triplet states of MLCT 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 studies⁴⁹ could bring further insight into the mechanisms involved in the versatile photosensitivity of ruthenium nitrosyl complexes.

ASSOCIATED CONTENT

S Supporting Information

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

Tables S1–S10 for Cartesian coordinates, energies, and orbitals of 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)

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Notes

The authors declare no competing financial interest.

Inorganic Chemistry

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.

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