

International Journal of Mass Spectrometry 204 (2001) 125–131

Complexes of Li atoms with water and ammonia: a combined neutralization–reionization mass spectrometry and theoretical study

Jianglin Wu, Michael J. Polce, Chrys Wesdemiotis*

Department of Chemistry, The University of Akron, Akron, OH 44325, USA

Received 9 March 2000; accepted 10 April 2000

Abstract

The hypervalent complexes of Li atom with water and ammonia, viz. Li–OH₂ and Li–NH₃, are generated in the gas phase by neutralization of Li⁺-OH₂ and Li⁺-NH₃, respectively. The mass spectra obtained by subsequent reionization ~0.3 μ s later clearly indicate that the neutral complexes $Li-OH₂$ and $Li-NH₃$ are stable species in the gas phase, as had been predicted by theory. Li–OH₂/Li–NH₃ dissociate partly to Li+H₂O/NH₃ within the timescale of the experiments, the dissociating fraction of the water complex being larger. Parallel ab initio calculations reveal that the more extensive dissociation of Li–OH₂ versus Li–NH₃ is the result of a lower binding energy (51 versus 62 kJ mol⁻¹ for Li–OH₂ and Li–NH₃, respectively) and a less favorable Franck-Condon factor for transitions between Li–OH₂ and Li⁺–OH₂, as compared to transitions between Li–NH₃ and $Li⁺-NH₃$. (Int J Mass Spectrom 204 (2001) 125–131) © 2001 Elsevier Science B.V.

Keywords: Hypervalent species; Li-atom complexes; Solvated Li atom; Neutralization–reionization

1. Introduction

The complexes between alkali metal atoms and Lewis base molecules may be viewed as charge transfer complexes because the electron lone pair of the base can be delocalized into vacant metal atom orbitals [1]. According to theory, there is considerable bonding between the metal atom and the base, which is further enhanced by electron correlation effects, charge polarization of the metal atom, and electrostatic interactions within the complex [2–12]. A large number of computational studies has so far interrogated the structures and stabilities of alkali atom– Lewis base complexes [1–14]; this interest has been spurred by the implication that such complexes, which are nominally hypervalent [10], are (1) intermediates in reactions involving alkali metal atoms [13], (2) limiting models for excess electrons in metal–solvent systems [2], and (3) test cases for electrostatic models of bonding [14].

 $Li-OH₂$ and $Li-NH₃$ are prototype metal atom-Lewis base complexes. An early ab initio molecular orbital study by Nicely and Dye predicted a binding energy of \sim 84 kJ mol⁻¹ for Li–NH₃ [2]. Later calculations by Trenary et al. on a family of alkali atom–Lewis base complexes found that Li binds * Corresponding author. E-mail: wesdemiotis@uakron.edu stronger to $NH₃$ than to $H₂O$, the corresponding bond

^{1387-3806/01/\$20.00 © 2001} Elsevier Science B.V. All rights reserved *PII* S1387-3806(00)00333-X

energies being 61 and 54 kJ mol^{-1}, respectively [1]. A reinvestigation of $Li-OH₂$ by Curtiss and Pople revealed that the electron correlation contribution to the bond energy is 13 kJ mol^{-1} and that the optimized geometry of $LiOH₂$ is nonplanar, with Li bent off the OH₂ plane by 40.1° at the MP4/6-311G^{**} level [8]. A comparison of the calculated vibrational frequencies of Li–OH₂ and Li–NH₃ further indicated that Li can bend off its equilibrium angles (wag) much more easily in the $H₂O$ than in the NH₃ complex [5].

 $LiOH₂$ and $LiNH₃$ have been detected experimentally in frozen argon matrices by infrared and electron spin resonance spectroscopy [15–17]. These complexes, as well as analogous Na and K compounds, have also been formed in molecular beams for measurement of their vertical ionization energies by photoionization mass spectrometry [18–23]. Other chemical or physical properties of Li -OH₂ and Li - $NH₃$ have not been determined experimentally. The present study obtains new insight about the intrinsic chemistry of LiOH₂ and LiNH₃ by means of neutralization–reionization mass spectrometry (NRMS) [24– 26]. The complexes are generated in the gas phase by reduction of the corresponding cations and characterized by the mass spectra arising after reoxidation [27–30]. In addition, ab initio molecular orbital (MO) theory is employed to elucidate the redox behavior and relevant thermochemistry of the couples $LiOH₂/$ Li^+OH_2 and $LiNH₃/Li^+NH₃$.

2. Methods

All experiments were performed on a modified Micromass AutoSpec tandem mass spectrometer of E_1BE_2 geometry [31], which contains two collision cells, separated by an intermediate ion deflector, in the field-free region between the magnet (B) and the second electric sector (E_2) . This configuration permits the acquisition of various types of tandem mass spectra, including collision-activated dissociation (CAD) and neutralization–reionization (NR) spectra. The instrument and the detailed acquisition protocol for CAD and NR mass spectra have been reported elsewhere [29,31].

The precursor ions $LiOH₂⁺$ and $LiNH₃⁺$ were formed by fast atom bombardment (FAB) ionization, using a 20 keV cesium ion gun as the source of primary particles. The sample used to produce LiOH_2^+ was a solution of a few milligrams lithium trifluoroacetate in 1–2 mL concentrated sulfuric acid. A few milligrams ammonium sulfate were added to this solution to produce $LiNH_3^+$. Approximately 1–2 μ L of the final solutions were introduced into the FAB source. The secondary ions generated by FAB were accelerated to 8 keV upon leaving the ion source. The ⁷Li isotopomers of LiOH₂⁺ (m/z 25) and LiNH₃⁺ (m/z 24) were mass-selected by E_1B for the measurement of CAD and NR spectra; the product ions arising from these processes were mass analyzed by scanning $E₂$. Trimethylamine (TMA) served as the neutralization target and $O₂$ as the reionization or CAD target. The pressure of each collision gas was gradually increased until the intensity of the mass-selected precursor ion was attenuated by \sim 25%. The CAD spectra shown combine 50 added scans, whereas the shown NR spectra of $LiNH_3^+$ and $LiOH_2^+$ are the sums of \sim 4000 and 2000 scans, respectively. All chemicals were purchased from Aldrich and were used as received.

The structures and energetics of $LiOH₂$ and $LiNH₃$ and of the corresponding cations were evaluated by parallel ab initio MO calculations, run on a pentium PC using GAUSSIAN 94 for Windows [32] interfaced with CHEM-3D [33]. Geometry optimization and energy minimization were computed at the MP2/6- $311 + +G(d,p)$ level of theory.

3. Results and discussion

3.1. Precursor ions Li^+OH_2 *and* Li^+NH_3

The CAD spectra of $Li⁺OH₂$ (m/z 25) and $Li⁺NH₃$ $(m/z 24)$ are shown in Figs. 1 and 2, respectively $(^{7}Li$ isotopomers unless specified otherwise). CAD of Li^+OH_2 leads to $LiOH_{0-1}^+$ (*m/z* 23–24), $H_{0-2}O^+$ (*m/z* 16–18), and Li^+ (m/z 7); such products agree well with the connectivity Li^+ –OH₂. CAD of Li^+NH_3 gives rise to the fragments LiNH_{0-2}^+ (m/z 21–23), NH_{0-3}^{+} (m/z 14–17), and Li⁺ (m/z 7) which, again,

Fig. 1. CAD mass spectrum of $Li⁺OH₂$ (m/z 25). A composite signal is observed for m/z 18 (H_2O^+). The peak widths of the narrow and broad components are 65 V (at half-height) and 410 V (across the dish), respectively.

support the connectivity Li^+ –NH₃. The CAD spectrum of Li^+NH_3 also displays small peaks at m/z 18 (H_2O^+) and 6 (⁶Li⁺), indicating that the Li⁺NH₃ beam is contaminated by a small amount of isobaric ${}^{6}Li^+OH_2$ (both of m/z 24). Based on the abundance ratio $(m/z \ 18):(m/z \ 7)$ in Figs. 2 and 1, the proportion of ${}^{6}Li^{+}OH_{2}$ in the $Li^{+}NH_{3}$ beam is \sim 2%.

It is noticed that the CAD signals for H_2O^+ . (m/z 18) and NH₃⁺ (m/z 17) are composite, with narrow, Gaussian components superimposed onto broad, dishtopped components (Figs. 1 and 2). The central, narrow peaks are ascribed to the direct dissociations

Fig. 2. CAD mass spectrum of $Li⁺NH₃$ (m/z 24). A composite signal is observed for m/z 17 (NH₃⁺). The peak widths of the narrow and broad components are 61 V (at half-height) and 440 V (across the dish), respectively.

Fig. 3. NR mass spectrum of $Li⁺OH₂$ (m/z 25).

 Li^+OH_2 (Li^+NH_3) \rightarrow OH₂⁺. (NH₃⁺.). On the other hand, the broad peaks are attributed to fragmentation after charge stripping [34], as illustrated in

$$
Li+-OH2 (CAD with O2) \rightarrow [Li+ \cdots OH2+]*
$$

\n
$$
\rightarrow Li+ + H2O+.
$$
 (1)

for the H₂O complex. The $LiOH₂²⁺$ ($LiNH₃²⁺$) dications generated upon charge stripping most likely lie on a dissociative surface and, thus, decompose with a significant reverse activation energy which in turn causes the broad, dish-topped shapes observed. The $Li⁺$ fragments co-generated in this process should also yield broad peaks. Indeed, the base of *m/z* 7 (Figs. 1 and 2) appears to contain a broad component; its smaller relative abundance vis à vis the broad $H_2O^{\dagger}/NH_3^{\dagger}$ signals must be due to the more severe scattering losses and poorer transmission efficiency of the lighter Li⁺ fragment [34]. The wide $H_2O^{\text{+}}/\text{NH}_3^{\text{+}}$. peak components disappear when the CAD target is changed from O_2 to He, in keeping with the markedly lower charge-stripping cross section of the latter target gas [34].

3.2. Generation and characterization of gaseous LiOH2 and LiNH3

Neutralization of $LiOH₂⁺$ (m/z 25) with trimethylamine and subsequent reionization of the intermediate neutral(s) with oxygen leads to the NR spectrum of Fig. 3. The recovered Li^+OH_2 ion (m/z 25) in this

Fig. 4. NR mass spectrum of $Li⁺NH₃$ (m/z 24).

spectrum indicates that the intermediate neutral $LiOH₂$ has survived intact between the neutralization and reionization events (average lifetime $\sim 0.3 \mu s$ [31]). For this, $LiOH₂$ must be a bound species with a considerable dissociation energy. This result unequivocally shows that the $LiOH₂$ complex is stable in the diluted gas phase, as predicted by theory [1,2,5,35].

The NR spectrum of $Li⁺OH₂$ contains all fragments present in the CAD spectrum. The only significant difference is the higher relative intensity of the $H_{0-2}O^+$ peak group (m/z 16–18) upon NR versus CAD. The most probable reason is partial dissociation of LiOH₂ to Li+H₂O, followed by a more efficient reionization of $H₂O$ (than Li) due to its higher kinetic energy and reionization cross section [24]. Additionally, the surviving $LiOH₂$ molecules may preferentially reionize to $H_nO⁺$ (versus Li⁺) because the charge distribution in $LiOH₂$ provides a partial positive charge to the $OH₂$ ligand [1].

The NR spectrum of $Li⁺NH₃$ (m/z 24) is shown in Fig. 4 and contains a sizable recovery peak. The contamination of this peak by ${}^{6}Li^+OH_2$ is very small based on the abundance of H_2O^+ ^{(m/z} 18) relative to the recovery peaks in Figs. 3 and 4 (\sim 1%). Hence, most m/z 24 (99%) in the NR spectrum of Li^+NH_3 represents surviving $LiNH₃$ and this complex must also be a stable species in the rarified gas phase, in agreement with the numerous, earlier theoretical predictions [1,2,5]. NR of $Li⁺NH₃$ produces a larger proportion of NH_n⁺ (m/z 14–17) as compared to CAD. This observation can be accounted for by the same

Fig. 5. Computationally predicted structures of $Li⁺OH₂$, LiOH₂, Li⁺NH₃, and LiNH₃ [MP2/6-311++G(*d*,*p*) level of theory].

rationales given for the increased production of $H_nO⁺$ upon NR versus CAD of $Li⁺OH₂$ (vide supra).

3.3. Ab initio calculations

Charge exchange neutralization of fast-moving (kiloelectron volts) cations takes place within femtoseconds and, hence, is a vertical process producing the incipient neutrals in the geometries of the respective ions. For a better understanding of the NRMS results, the structures and energies of the $Li^+OH₂/LiOH₂$ and $Li⁺NH₃/LiNH₃$ pairs were assessed by ab initio calculations. The most stable structures found are depicted in Fig. 5; the Li–N and Li–O bond lengths in the neutral complexes are longer than those in the corresponding ion complexes. Except for their difference in Li–N bond lengths, the geometries of $Li⁺NH₃$ and $LiNH₃$ are very similar. In contrast, the optimized geometries of $LiOH₂$ and $Li⁺OH₂$ differ more; in the neutral complex, Li binds to one of the *sp*³ lone electron pairs of O, whereas in the ionic complex, $Li⁺$ is attached to a sp^2 -hybridized O atom. As a result, $Li⁺OH₂$ has a planar structure, but $LiOH₂$ is nonplanar, with Li bent off the H_2O plane by 40.1°. These trends suggest that the transition between $Li⁺NH₃$ and $LiNH₃$ has a more favorable Franck-Condon factor than that between $Li⁺OH₂$ and LiOH₂. Figs. 6 and 7

Fig. 6. Potential energy surfaces of $Li⁺OH₂$ and $LiOH₂$ along the Li out-of-plane bending coordinate θ . The relative energies at each point were calculated at the MP2/6-311++G(d , p) level of theory on partially optimized structures.

show the potential energy surfaces of the $LiOH₂/$ $Li⁺OH₂$ and $LiNH₃/Li⁺NH₃$ systems, respectively, as a function of the bending angle θ (defined in Fig. 5).

Fig. 8. Potential energy surfaces of $Li⁺OH₂$ and $LiOH₂$ along the Li–O coordinate. The relative energies at each point were calculated at the MP2/6-311++G(d , p) level of theory on partially optimized structures.

For LiOH₂, the energy diagram indicates that Li atom can freely bend off the H_2O plane, switching between the two lone electron pairs of O; the

Fig. 7. Potential energy surfaces of $Li⁺NH₃$ and $LiNH₃$ along the Li bending coordinate θ . The relative energies at each point were calculated at the MP2/6-311++G(d , p) level of theory on partially optimized structures.

Fig. 9. Potential energy surfaces of $Li⁺NH₃$ and $LiNH₃$ along the Li–N coordinate. The relative energies at each point were calculated at the MP2/6-311++G(d , p) level of theory on partially optimized structures.

Table 1 Calculated energy data for the LiM/Li⁺M complexes ($M = OH₂$, NH₃)

^a This study, MP2/6-311++G(*d,p*)//MP2/6-311++G(*d,p*) level.

 b Dissociation energy of Li–M in the geometry of L^+ –M.

^c Computational value from [35], MP2/6-31++G(*d,p*)//HF6-31++G(*d,p*) level.

^d Range of MP2 computational values obtained with different basis sets, from [36] (149 kJ mol⁻¹ with the basis of our study).

^e Experimental value from [37].

barrier of the latter process is only 0.04 $kJ \text{ mol}^{-1}$. In contrast, Li atom or $Li⁺$ ions are more rigid at their positions in the other three complexes, the resistance in θ deformation increasing in the order $Li⁺OH₂ < Li⁺NH₃ \approx LiNH₃.$

Because the neutral complexes are mostly stabilized by Li–O or Li–N bonds, potential energy surfaces along the Li–O or Li–N coordinates have also been constructed for the $Li^+OH_2/LiOH_2$ and $Li^+NH_3/$ $LiNH₃$ pairs and are shown in Figs. 8 and 9, respectively. The two sets of potential energy surfaces are very comparable. Table 1 summarizes important energy data that can be extracted from these diagrams, including the vertical electron affinities of $Li⁺OH₂$ and $Li⁺NH₃$ (EA_v), the adiabatic ionization energies of LiOH₂ and LiNH₃ (IE), the bond energies of the ionic complexes (D^+) , and the bond energies of the neutral complexes both in their equilibrium geometries $(D⁰)$ as well as in the geometries of the corresponding cations (D^*) ; recent literature values are also included. The data in Table 1 reveal that $LiOH₂/$ $Li⁺OH₂$ and $LiNH₃/Li⁺NH₃$ have similar thermochemical properties, with $Li⁺NH₃$ recovery upon NR being slightly favored by thermochemistry and Franck-Condon overlap.

4. Conclusions

The neutral complexes $LiOH₂$ and $LiNH₃$ have been synthesized and characterized in the gas phase by neutralization–reionization mass spectrometry. In addition, ab initio theory was applied to assess the stability of the complexes and the gas-phase redox properties of the pairs $LiOH₂/Li⁺OH₂$ and $LiNH₃/$ $LiNH₃⁺$. The ionization energies of $LiOH₂$ and $LiNH₃$ are very similar. On the other hand, the NH₃ complexes have slightly higher binding energies both in the neutral and cationic states. A major difference between the most stable structures of $LiOH₂$ and $LiNH₃$ is a high mobility of Li atoms in LiOH₂, where it can freely bend off the H_2O plane within a range of \sim 90°, but a high rigidity of Li atom in LiNH₃. This gives a better Franck-Condon overlap to transitions between $Li⁺NH₃$ and $LiNH₃$ than to transitions between $Li⁺OH₂$ and $LiOH₂$. When subjected to NR, the ammonia complexes benefit from a more favorable Franck-Condon factor and somewhat higher thermodynamic stabilities; as a result, less dissociation takes place, which is reflected by the higher recovery yield of neutralized–reionized $Li⁺NH₃$.

Acknowledgement

This work was generously supported by the National Science Foundation (CHE-9725003).

References

- [1] M. Trenary, H.F. Schaefer III, P. Kollman, J. Am. Chem. Soc. 99 (1977) 3885.
- [2] V.A. Nicely, J.L. Dye, J. Chem. Phys. 52 (1970) 4795.
- [3] M. Trenary, H. F. Schaefer III, P. A. Kollman, J. Chem. Phys. 68 (1978) 4047.
- [4] L.A. Curtiss, D.J. Frurip, Chem. Phys. Lett. 75 (1980) 69.
- [5] J. Bentley, I. Carmichael, J. Phys. Chem. 85 (1981) 3821.
- [6] J. Bentley, J. Am. Chem. Soc. 104 (1982) 2754.
- [7] J.O. Broughton, P.S. Bagus, J. Chem. Phys. 77 (1982) 3627.
- [8] L.A. Curtiss, J.A. Pople, J. Chem. Phys. 82 (1985) 4230.
- [9] L.A. Curtiss, E. Kraka, J. Gauss, D. Cremer, J. Phys. Chem. 91 (1987) 1080.
- [10] E.-U. Würthwein, P.v.R. Schlever, J.A. Pople, J. Am. Chem. Soc. 106 (1984) 6973.
- [11] Y.-W. Hsiao, K.-M. Chang, T.-M. Su, Chem. Phys. 162 (1992) 335.
- [12] H. Yang, Y.-H. Liau, T.-M. Su, J. Phys. Chem. 99 (1995) 177.
- [13] R.H. Hauge, P.F. Meier, J.L. Margrave, Ber. Bunsenges. Phys. Chem. 82 (1978) 102.
- [14] J.E. Douglas, P.A. Kollman, J. Am. Chem. Soc. 102 (1980) 4295.
- [15] P.F. Meier, R.H. Hauge, J.L. Margrave, J. Am. Chem. Soc. 100 (1978) 2108.
- [16] Z.H. Kafafi, R.G.S. Pong, J.S. Shirk, J. Mol. Struct. 222 (1990) 245.
- [17] A. Loutellier, L. Manceron, J.P. Perchard, Chem. Phys. 146 (1990) 179.
- [18] C.P. Schulz, R. Haugstätter, H.-U. Tittes, I.V. Hertel, Phys. Rev. Lett. 57 (1986) 1703.
- [19] C.P. Schulz, R. Haugstätter, H.-U. Tittes, I.V. Hertel, Z. Phys. D: At. Mol. Clusters 10 (1988) 279.
- [20] T.-C. Kuan, R.-C. Jiang, T.-M. Su, J. Chem. Phys. 92 (1990) 2553.
- [21] I.V. Hertel, C. Hüglin, C. Nitsch, C.P. Schulz, Phys. Rev. Lett. 67 (1991) 1767.
- [22] R. Takasu, K. Hashimoto, K. Fuke, J. Phys. Lett. 258 (1996) 94.
- [23] R. Takasu, F. Misaizu, K. Hashimoto, K. Fuke, J. Phys. Chem. A 101 (1997) 3078.
- [24] C. Wesdemiotis, F.W. McLafferty, Chem. Rev. 87 (1987) 485.
- [25] J.K. Terlouw, H. Schwarz, Angew. Chem. Int. Ed. Engl. 26 (1987) 805.
- [26] J.L. Holmes, Mass Spectrom. Rev. 8 (1989) 513.
- [27] N. Goldberg, H. Schwarz, Acc. Chem. Res. 27 (1994) 347.
- [28] D.V. Zagorevskii, J.L. Holmes, Mass Spectrom. Rev. 13 (1994) 133; 18 (1999) 87.
- [29] M.J. Polce, C. Wesdemiotis, Int. J. Mass Spectrom. 182/183 (1999) 45.
- [30] J. Wu, C. Wesdemiotis, Chem. Phys. Lett. 303 (1999) 243.
- [31] M.J. Polce, M.M. Cordero, C. Wesdemiotis, P.A. Bott, Int. J. Mass Spectrom. Ion Processes 113 (1992) 35.
- [32] M.J. Frisch, G.W. Trucks, H.B. Schlegel, P.M.W. Gill, B.G. Johnson, M.A. Robb, J.R. Cheeseman, T.A. Keith, G. . Petersson, J.A. Montgomery, K. Raghavachari, M.A. Al-Laham, V.G. Zakrzewski, J.V. Ortiz, J.B. Foresman, J. Cioslowski, B.B. Stefanov, A. Nanayakkara, M. Challocombe, C.Y. Peng, P.Y. Ayala, W. Chen, M.W. Wong, J.L. Andres, E.S. Replogle, R. Gomperts, R.L. Martin, D.J. Fox, J.S. Binkley, D.J. Defrees, J. Baker, J.J.P. Stewart, M. Head-Gordon, C. Gonzalez, J.A. Pople, GAUSSIAN 94, Gaussian, Inc., Pittsburgh, PA, 1995.
- [33] CHEM-3D, CambridgeSoft Corporation, Cambridge, MA.
- [34] K.L. Busch, G.L. Glish, S.A. McLuckey, Mass Spectrometry/ Mass Spectrometry, VCH, New York, 1988.
- [35] K. Hashimoto, T. Kamimoto, J. Am. Chem. Soc. 120 (1998) 3560.
- [36] D. Feller, E.D. Glendening, R.A. Kendall, K.A. Peterson, J. Chem. Phys. 100 (1994) 4981.
- [37] M.T. Rodgers, P.B. Armentrout, J. Phys. Chem. A 101 (1997) 1238.