

# Electronic Basis of the Comparable Hydrogen Bond Properties of Small $\text{H}_2\text{CO}/(\text{H}_2\text{O})_n$ and $\text{H}_2\text{NO}/(\text{H}_2\text{O})_n$ Systems ( $n = 1, 2$ )

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The electronic and structural properties of dihydronitroxide/water clusters are investigated and compared to the properties of formaldehyde/water clusters. Exploring the stationary points of their potential energy surfaces (structurally, vibrationally, and energetically) and characterizing their hydrogen bonds (by both atoms in molecules and natural bond orbitals methods) clearly reveal the strong similarity between these two kind of molecular systems. The main difference involves the nature of the hydrogen bond taking place between the X–H bond and the oxygen atom of a water molecule. All the properties of the hydrogen bonds occurring in both kind of clusters can be easily interpreted in terms of competition between intermolecular and intramolecular hyperconjugative interactions.

## 1. Introduction

Nitroxides are spin-doublet radicals, whose single electron is mainly described by the  $\pi^*$  orbital of the N–O bond. They exhibit rather long half-life times and their electron paramagnetic resonance (EPR) spectra are highly sensitive to molecular mobility and environment.<sup>1</sup> That explains why they are widely used as spin probes to investigate the properties of biopolymers and nanostructures,<sup>2</sup> as well as controlling species in the living radical polymerization.<sup>3</sup> Moreover, nitroxides can be produced by the attachment of a transient free radical to a nitron. In that case, the EPR spectrum of the resulting nitroxide is characteristic of both the nitroxide and the free radical. Such a procedure, referred to as "spin-trapping", is commonly used for monitoring reactions involving reactive radicals at concentrations too low for direct observations (such as the active forms of oxygen<sup>4</sup>). As in nearly every field of chemistry, hydrogen-bonding plays also a key role in the understanding of the EPR characteristics of the spin probe in solution. For instance, Barone and co-workers, who have shown a long standing interest for the computations of organics EPR spectra in condensed phase (cf., e.g., their recent review<sup>5</sup>), demonstrated the necessity of accounting explicitly for the interactions of the free radicals with the solvent molecules to compute accurate hyperfine coupling constants.

By contrast with the massive amount of experimental and theoretical results regarding hydrogen bonding among water molecules (whose current knowledge is still far from being complete<sup>6</sup>), only a few theoretical results are available concerning the interactions between nitroxides and water (see ref 5 and references therein): they all concern some particular structures, which cannot be used as such to draw a clear picture of these

interactions. In particular, most of the theoretical studies devoted to nitroxide/water aggregates have focused on their global minimum and essentially ignored the rest of their potential energy surface (PES). However, it has been shown that the understanding of high-resolution experiments concerning small water aggregates (ranging from the dimer to the hexamers) needs to consider the rearrangement pathways connecting their global minimum.<sup>7</sup> Hence, reliable theoretical investigations of hydrogen-bonded systems have to focus not only on structures corresponding to minima but also on important stationary points of their PES.

Hence, the primary, but not sole, goal of this work is to theoretically investigate at different levels of theory the properties of several structures of the  $\text{H}_2\text{NO}/\text{H}_2\text{O}$  dimer and of the  $\text{H}_2\text{NO}/(\text{H}_2\text{O})_2$  trimer, corresponding to either minima or saddle points. This will provide further insight into hydrogen bonding involving nitroxides. Moreover, nitroxides can be seen as carbonyl compounds with an extra electron in a  $\pi^*$  orbital. That suggests that the properties of hydrogen bonds involving either a NO or a CO moiety are expected to be similar. To test this hypothesis, we have also investigated at the same levels of theory all the corresponding formaldehyde/water structures drawn by substituting  $\text{H}_2\text{NO}$  by  $\text{H}_2\text{CO}$ . To draw reliable conclusions, several properties have been considered, such as interaction energies, vibrational spectra, geometrical parameters as well as topological properties of the electronic density along the hydrogen bond axes. Particular attention was also devoted to evaluate the energetic incidence of cooperative effects on the heterotrimers, which are known to strongly affect the properties of hydrogen-bonded clusters by enhancing their hydrogen bond network.

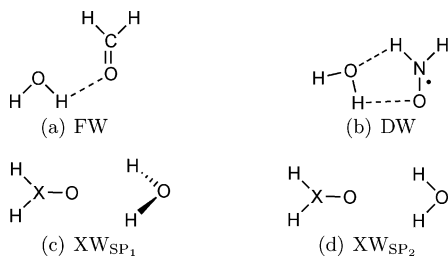
Anticipating the results, we show that carbonyl/ and nitroxide/water clusters mainly differ by the hydrogen bond taking place between the X–H bond of the  $\text{H}_2\text{XO}$  moiety ( $X = \text{C}, \text{N}$ ) and the water oxygen atom, whereas the properties of all the

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**Figure 1.**  $\text{H}_2\text{XO}/\text{H}_2\text{O}$  heterodimer: minimum and saddle points of the potential energy surface.

remaining hydrogen bonds are close. The electronic basis of these similarities (and differences) are mainly discussed in the present paper by considering the theoretical framework proposed by Weinhold and co-workers since 1988.<sup>8</sup> According to the latter authors, the properties of a hydrogen bond  $\text{XH}\cdots\text{Y}$  mainly result from hyperconjugative interactions between the lone pairs of Y and the acceptor antibonding  $\text{X}-\text{H}$  orbitals.<sup>9</sup>

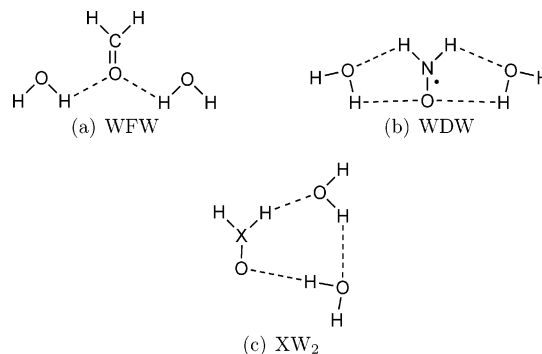
Note that the latter framework usually does not permit a simple interpretation of the so-called “blue-shifting hydrogen bonds”, for which no fundamental difference compared to classical red-shifting ones has been evidenced (cf. ref 10 and the references mentioned therein). In 2003, in an attempt to propose an unified theoretical framework allowing for the explanation of the properties of both red- and blue-shifting hydrogen bonds, Weinhold and co-workers<sup>11</sup> proposed that the properties of a hydrogen bond  $\text{XH}\cdots\text{Y}$  are the results of a subtle balance of the above hyperconjugative interactions and of rehybridization/repolarization phenomena affecting the properties of the  $\text{X}-\text{H}$  bond once the hydrogen bond is formed. Recently, Joseph and Jemmis<sup>10</sup> concluded that the latter approach is not able to explain all the known examples of blue-shifting hydrogen bonds, and they propose a simpler explanation: all hydrogen bonds face opposite contracting and lengthening forces. The first are due to the electron affinity of X, whereas the second are due to the attractive interaction between the positively charged proton H and the electron rich Y.

In the present report, we show that almost all the properties of the hydrogen bonds (whatever they correspond to red- or blue-shifting ones) occurring in the heteromers under investigation can be easily interpreted as arising from a competition between intra- and intermolecular hyperconjugative interactions. Hence, such a phenomenon represents also an important factor in understanding the fundamental properties of hydrogen bonds, as recently demonstrated by Li<sup>12</sup> and Liu and co-workers.<sup>13</sup>

## 2. Computational Details

**2.1. Structures.** All studied clusters are heterodimers or heterotrimers, composed by either a dihydroneitroxide  $\text{H}_2\text{NO}$  (denoted by D hereafter) or a formaldehyde  $\text{H}_2\text{CO}$  (F) molecule interacting with one or two water molecules (W) (Figures 1 and 2).

As discussed below, the  $\text{FW}_{\text{sp}1}$  and  $\text{DW}_{\text{sp}1}$  nonplanar bifurcated  $C_{2v}$  dimer structures, as well as the  $\text{FW}_{\text{sp}2}$  and  $\text{DW}_{\text{sp}2}$  planar ones correspond to stationary points of the formaldehyde/water and dihydroneitroxide/water PES. They have thus to be involved in the rearrangement processes of the FW and DW dimers by connecting their six equivalent global minima (obtained by interchanging the hydrogen atoms via rotations and tunneling). Their structures are comparable to those of the nonplanar and planar bifurcated  $C_{2v}$  structures of the water dimer, which have been recently investigated at high levels of theory.<sup>14</sup>



**Figure 2.**  $\text{H}_2\text{XO}/(\text{H}_2\text{O})_2$  heterotrimers: noncyclic and cyclic structures.

Among the structures considered here, the FW dimer and the  $\text{FW}_2$  cyclic trimer have already been investigated at the MP2 level of theory:<sup>15</sup> they were shown to correspond to minima, and in the case of  $\text{FW}_2$ , strong stabilizing cooperative effects were shown to occur in it (they represent about 15% of the interaction energy). Moreover, a weak blue-shifting hydrogen bond  $\text{CH}-\text{O}_w$  was evidenced in the two aggregates. As far as we know, theoretical results concerning all the remaining complexes have never been reported.

Last, the water dimer ( $\text{W}_2$ ) and the cyclic trimer ( $\text{W}_3$ ) are also considered in the present study, for comparison purposes. Both have been intensively studied using high level ab initio computations and density functional methods, in conjunction with very extended basis sets.<sup>14,16</sup> As all cyclic hydrogen-bonded complexes,  $\text{W}_3$  is strongly stabilized by cooperative effects (they represent about 15% of its interaction energy) and its hydrogen bonds are reinforced compared to that of  $\text{W}_2$ .

**2.2. Theoretical Details.** Standard ab initio and DFT computations were carried out by using the Gaussian 03 package of programs.<sup>17</sup> As an accurate description of hydrogen bonding requires flexible basis sets,<sup>18,19,14</sup> geometry optimizations were performed using the 6-311+G(d,p) basis set at three levels of theory: namely, the DFT (using the PBE0 and B3LYP functionals), the MP2, and the QCISD levels (with all electrons correlated).

The PBE0, B3LYP, and QCISD levels are commonly employed to investigate nitroxide radical properties, especially the spectromagnetic ones.<sup>20,21,5,22</sup> The PBE0, B3LYP, MP2, and QCISD levels were also shown to provide a proper description of hydrogen-bonded systems. In the particular case of the water dimer, the results reported at the MP2, PBE0, or B3LYP levels with intermediate size basis sets (such as 6-311+G(d,p) or aug-cc-pVTZ(-f)) are in good agreement with those derived from higher levels of theory, such as MP2-R12 and CCSD(T) with extended basis sets.<sup>19,14</sup>

The nature of the optimized structures was evaluated by computing their harmonic vibrational frequencies at the levels of theory mentioned above (however, only the dimer frequencies were computed at the QCISD level). Concerning the  $\text{O}-\text{H}$  stretching vibrational modes, the  $\delta\nu_{\text{O}-\text{H}}$  shifts in the vibrational frequencies were computed by comparing the frequencies of the dimers and of the trimers to the  $\bar{\nu}_{\text{O}-\text{H}}$  average frequency of the water monomer. In the case of  $\text{X}-\text{H}$  vibrational modes ( $\text{X} = \text{C}, \text{N}$ ), an average shift  $\delta\bar{\nu}_{\text{X}-\text{H}}$  is considered: it is computed by comparing the  $\bar{\nu}_{\text{X}-\text{H}}$  average frequency value of the dimers and of the trimers to the values corresponding to the isolated F and D monomers.

As earlier studies exhibited,<sup>23-25</sup> quantum computations concerning hydrogen-bonded systems are affected by the basis set superposition error (BSSE), which can represent up to 10%

**TABLE 1: B3LYP/6-311+G(d,p) Bond Distances (in Å), and Valence and Torsional Angles (in deg) of Water Dimer and Trimer (Average Values), Dihydrinitroxide/Water and Formaldehyde/Water Clusters, X = C, N**

	$\angle\text{HXHO}$	$r_{\text{X-H}}$	$r_{\text{X-O}}$	$r_{\text{XH}\cdots\text{O}_w}$	$r_{\text{X-O}_w}$	$r_{\text{OH}_w\cdots\text{O}}$	$r_{\text{O}_w-\text{O}}$	$r_{\text{OH}_w\cdots\text{O}_w}$	$r_{\text{O}_w-\text{O}_w}$	$\angle\text{XHO}_w$	$\angle\text{OH}_w\text{O}$	$\angle\text{OH}_w\text{O}_w$	
W <sub>2</sub>								1.932	2.900			174.8	
W <sub>3</sub>								1.904	2.783			148.5	
F	179.9	1.108	1.202										
FW	180.0	1.105	1.207	2.816	3.222	1.992	2.874			101.4	150.1		
FWF	180.0	1.102	1.212	2.711	3.169	2.019	2.871			104.3	145.6		
				2.708	3.166		2.870				145.5		
FW <sub>2</sub>	180.0	1.102	1.106	1.212	2.275	3.250	1.897	2.841	1.864	2.800	146.3	162.2	159.7
FW <sub>sp1</sub>	180.0	1.107	1.203				2.636	3.127				112.0	
FW <sub>sp2</sub>	180.0	1.107	1.204				2.540	3.028				111.5	
D	171.6	1.016	1.276										
DW	168.2	1.020	1.016	1.281	2.192	2.829	2.028	2.798			118.9	134.7	
WDW	179.9	1.019	1.284	2.190	2.832	2.039	2.801			119.3	133.9		
DW <sub>2</sub>	177.2	1.029	1.016	1.283	1.895	2.874	1.838	2.786	1.816	2.740	157.8	161.7	155.9
DW <sub>sp1</sub>	180.0	1.016	1.275				2.541	3.029				111.5	
DW <sub>sp2</sub>	180.0	1.016	1.275				2.482	2.969				111.2	

of their interaction energies. In the present paper, the BSSE was estimated at the B3LYP/6-311+G(d,p) level using the full counterpoise method introduced by Boys and Bernardi.<sup>26</sup> For a system composed of  $n$  interacting molecules ( $n$ -mer), the BSSE is defined as

$$\text{BSSE}_{n\text{-mer}} = \sum_1^n (E(\text{mol})_{\text{mol}} - E(\text{mol})_{n\text{-mer}}) \quad (1)$$

where  $E(\text{mol})_{\text{mol}}$  represents the energy of a molecule calculated using its geometry within the  $n$ -mer and only its basis functions, and  $E(\text{mol})_{n\text{-mer}}$  represents the energy of the same molecule using the full set of basis functions. To estimate the uncertainty of our calculations with respect to the basis set limit, single point energy computations were also performed at the B3LYP level using a more extended basis set (the 6-311+G(2df,2p)) on geometries optimized at the B3LYP/6-311+G(d,p) level.

To estimate the incidence of the cooperative effects on the trimers, the three-body interaction energies  $\Delta E_{3\text{-body}}$  were evaluated according to

$$\Delta E_{3\text{-body}} = \Delta E_{\text{int}} - \sum \Delta E_{2\text{-body}} \quad (2)$$

where  $\Delta E_{\text{int}}$  corresponds to the total interaction energy of a trimer and  $\Delta E_{2\text{-body}}$  to the interaction energy of each dimer subunit.

To characterize the hydrogen bonds within the systems, the topological analysis of the electronic density  $\rho$  was performed using the Bader's AIM approach<sup>27</sup> implemented in the Gaussian 98 suite of programs.<sup>28</sup> When the properties of hydrogen-bonded systems are theoretically investigated, this analysis is commonly performed since it usually reveals the presence of a critical point (i.e., an extremum of the electronic density) along the axis of a hydrogen bond  $\text{XH}\cdots\text{Y}$ . Typical values of the electronic density at the hydrogen bond critical point ( $\rho_{\text{C}}$ ) range from 0.01 to 0.03 au, and a relationship exists between the magnitude of  $\rho_{\text{C}}$  and the hydrogen bond strength.<sup>18,15</sup>

The hyperconjugation interactions mentioned in Introduction are quantified in the present study by means of the NBO analysis, performed using the NBO v 3.15 program of the Gaussian 03 suite of programs. This analysis transforms a delocalized many-electron wavefunction into optimized electron pair bonding subunits, i.e., in a set of Lewis-type (such as  $\sigma$  bonding and lp lone pairs) and non-Lewis-type (such as Rydberg and  $\sigma^*$  antibonding) orbitals. The interactions among the latter two groups of orbitals can be used as a measure of the electronic delocalization within the systems under investigation. According to second-order perturbation theory arguments,<sup>29</sup> the strength

of a hyperconjugative interaction between two orbitals  $\gamma_1$  and  $\gamma_2$  can be efficiently estimated from the magnitude of the charge  $q_{\text{c}}$  "transferred" between these two orbitals

$$q_{\text{c}} \approx \sum_{\alpha/\beta \text{ electrons}} \left( \frac{\langle \gamma_1 | \hat{F} | \gamma_2 \rangle}{\epsilon_{\gamma_1} - \epsilon_{\gamma_2}} \right)^2 \quad (3)$$

Here,  $\hat{F}$  is the Fock operator, and  $\epsilon_{\gamma_1}$  and  $\epsilon_{\gamma_2}$  are the energies of  $\gamma_1$  and  $\gamma_2$ , in terms of diagonal Fock matrix elements. Other quantities can be used to quantify the hyperconjugation phenomena, like the bond-order descriptors arising in the natural resonance theory of Weinhold,<sup>9</sup> however, in the present paper, we have only considered the charge  $q_{\text{c}}$ .

### 3. Results and Discussion

**3.1. Levels of Theory.** A selected set of optimized geometrical parameters obtained at the B3LYP/6-311+G(d,p) level for the H<sub>2</sub>XO/(H<sub>2</sub>O)<sub>n</sub> systems (X = C, N) are listed in Table 1. The interaction energies  $\Delta E_{\text{int}}$ , the vibrational frequencies  $\nu_{\text{X-H}}$ , and the electronic density values at the bond critical point  $\rho_{\text{C}}$  for highlighted hydrogen bonds are summarized in Table 2. The results for the other levels of theory are available as Supporting Information.

Regardless of the level of theory, all of the heterotrimers and the DW and FW dimers correspond to minima. The DW<sub>sp1</sub>, DW<sub>sp2</sub>, and FW<sub>sp1</sub> structures correspond to saddle points of their corresponding PES, whose order depends on the considered level of theory. All levels except MP2 predict DW<sub>sp1</sub> to be a third-order saddle point, whereas DW<sub>sp2</sub> is a transition state according to PBE0 and to MP2 and a second-order saddle point for B3LYP and for QCISD. Note that both B3LYP and QCISD predict a nonplanar structure for the D isolated monomer, whereas PBE0 and MP2 predict a planar one (cf. tables available as Supporting Information and discussion below). However, very small energy barriers (<1 kcal mol<sup>-1</sup>) have been found at the B3LYP and QCISD levels concerning the inversion of the nitrogen center in the dihydrinitroxide, meaning that the inversion is so easy that the mean experimental value should fall around 0°.

Regarding FW<sub>sp1</sub>, it is predicted to be a third-order saddle point at the PBE0 and B3LYP levels and a second-order saddle point at the MP2 and QCISD levels. Last, FW<sub>sp2</sub> is a transition state regardless of the level of theory.

To compare the different levels of theory, the results obtained at the DFT and MP2 levels are compared to those given by the highest level of theory employed, i.e., QCISD/6-311+G(d,p). To this end, the root-mean-square deviations (RMSD) concerning the geometries, the interaction energies for the minima, and

**TABLE 2: B3LYP/6-311+G(d,p) Absolute Energies (in Hartrees), Interaction and 3-Body Energies (in kcal mol<sup>-1</sup>), Number of Imaginary Frequencies, X–H Stretching Frequencies (in cm<sup>-1</sup>), and Electronic Densities (in au) of Water Dimer and Trimer, Dihydroneitroxide/Water, and Formaldehyde/Water Clusters, X = C, N**

	$E$	$\Delta E_{\text{int}}$	$\Delta E_{3\text{-body}}$	$N$	$\nu_{\text{X-H}}$	$\rho_{\text{C,XH}\cdots\text{O}_w}$	$\rho_{\text{C,OH}_w\cdots\text{O}}$	$\rho_{\text{C,OH}_w\cdots\text{O}_w}$
W	-76.458 46			0				
W <sub>2</sub>	-152.926 23	-5.842		0				0.0247
W <sub>3</sub>	-229.402 95	-17.300	-2.836	0				0.0271
F	-114.541 76			0	2886			
					2944			
FW	-191.007 92	-4.832		0	2917		0.0223	
					2995			
WFW	-267.473 59	-9.356	-0.609	0	2947		0.0212	
					3038			
FW <sub>2</sub>	-267.481 47	-14.301	-2.504	0	2915	0.0137	0.0275	0.0294
					3023			
FW <sub>sp1</sub>	-191.004 28	-2.548		3				
FW <sub>sp2</sub>	-191.005 01	-3.006		1				
D	-131.138 67			0	3425			
					3558			
DW	-207.608 81	-7.329		0	3403	0.0155	0.0224	
					3563			
WDW	-284.078 61	-14.445	-0.671	0	3396	0.0156	0.0219	
					3553			
DW <sub>2</sub>	-284.087 19	-19.829	-4.009	0	3277	0.0286	0.0326	0.0333
					3540			
DW <sub>sp1</sub>	-207.602 12	-3.131		3				
DW <sub>sp2</sub>	-207.602 56	-3.407		2				

**TABLE 3: Geometrical (in Å) and Energetic (in kcal mol<sup>-1</sup>) RMSD from the QCISD Results (Using the 6-311+G(d,p) Basis Set)**

		PBE0	B3LYP	MP2
RMSD <sub>G</sub>	D	0.057	0.036	0.056
	DW	0.066	0.042	0.064
	DW <sub>sp1</sub>	0.022	0.005	0.029
	DW <sub>sp2</sub>	0.040	0.060	0.047
	WDW	0.058	0.035	0.063
	DW <sub>2</sub>	0.067	0.047	0.052
	$\langle \text{RMSD}_G \rangle$		0.052	0.038
RMSD <sub>E</sub> <sup>int</sup>		1.460	0.452	2.341
RMSD <sub>E</sub> <sup>sp</sup>		0.640	0.283	0.743
RMSD <sub>G</sub>	F	0.004	0.003	0.002
	FW	0.036	0.056	0.056
	FW <sub>sp1</sub>	0.010	0.013	0.008
	FW <sub>sp2</sub>	0.026	0.010	0.003
	WFW	0.065	0.129	0.018
	FW <sub>2</sub>	0.059	0.037	0.028
	$\langle \text{RMSD}_G \rangle$		0.033	0.041
RMSD <sub>E</sub> <sup>int</sup>		0.748	0.384	0.499
RMSD <sub>E</sub> <sup>sp</sup>		0.457	0.277	0.274

the relative energies for the saddle points are computed for all systems (Table 3), according to

$$\text{RMSD} = \sqrt{\frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N (x_i - x_{\text{iref}})^2} \quad (4)$$

Here, the reference corresponds to the QCISD results. For the geometrical RMSD (RMSD<sub>G</sub>),  $N$  is the number of considered atoms and the sum runs over their Cartesian coordinates, whereas for the energetic RMSD (RMSD<sub>E</sub>),  $N$  is the number of systems and  $x$  their interaction energies or relative energies.

Concerning the geometries, all levels provide results fairly close to the QCISD ones: regardless of the system and of the level of theory, the RMSD<sub>G</sub> values are at most 0.07, except for the WFW trimer at the B3LYP level, for which RMSD<sub>G</sub> reaches a value of 0.13. In the case of the nitroxide systems, the B3LYP RMSD<sub>G</sub> values correspond on average to the smallest (about 0.04). For the carbonyl systems, the MP2 level leads on average to results closer to the QCISD ones ( $\langle \text{RMSD}_G \rangle = 0.02$ ), whereas

**TABLE 4: Interaction Energy  $\Delta E_{\text{int}}$  and Basis Set Superposition Error BSSE at the B3LYP/6-311+G(d,p) Level and Interaction Energy  $\Delta E_{\text{int}}$  at the B3LYP/6-311+G(2df,2p)//B3LYP/6-311+G(d,p) Level (in kcal mol<sup>-1</sup>)**

	$\Delta E_{\text{int}}$	BSSE <sub>1</sub>	$\Delta E_{\text{int}}$
DW	-7.329	0.439	-6.802
WDW	-14.445	0.985	-13.266
DW <sub>2</sub>	-19.829	1.688	-17.966
FW	-4.832	0.295	-4.487
WFW	-9.356	0.552	-8.591
FW <sub>2</sub>	-14.301	1.180	-12.764

they are slightly larger for PBE0 and B3LYP (0.03 and 0.04, respectively). All levels predict a planar conformation for the formaldehyde in all clusters, as well as in the F isolated monomer, whereas the dihydroneitroxide out-of-plane angle varies from 0 to 25° (and only the B3LYP values are consistent with the QCISD ones, cf. Supporting Information). This agreement between B3LYP and QCISD geometries has already been reported by Barone.<sup>30</sup> Note that he has also shown<sup>31</sup> that the large QCISD out-of-plane angle (25°) is reduced to 16.9° when the triple excitations are included in a perturbative manner.

On the other hand, the RMSD<sub>E</sub> values allow one to make a clear distinction among the levels. Considering first the interaction energies, RMSD<sub>E</sub><sup>int</sup> range from 0.45 to 2.34 kcal mol<sup>-1</sup> for the nitroxide systems and from 0.38 to 0.75 kcal mol<sup>-1</sup> for the carbonyl systems. Clearly, the B3LYP interaction energies are always the closest to the QCISD ones. Concerning the saddle point structures of the FW dimer, the MP2 level leads to the smallest RMSD<sub>E</sub><sup>sp</sup> value but the B3LYP value is marginally larger than this one (by only 0.003). Once again, the B3LYP RMSD<sub>E</sub><sup>sp</sup> value is the lowest for the nitroxide.

In summary, the B3LYP level provides satisfying and accurate results with respect to the QCISD ones for the geometrical and the energetic properties of both the dihydroneitroxide/water and the formaldehyde/water systems. In the particular case of dihydroneitroxide systems, the results agree with an earlier conclusion of Barone.<sup>31</sup> Concerning the BSSE, the results listed in Table 4 show that the BSSE values computed at the B3LYP/6-311+G(d,p) level do not exceed 8.5% of the system interaction energies: they are about 0.4 kcal mol<sup>-1</sup> for



the dimers and they range from 0.6 to 1.7 kcal mol<sup>-1</sup> for the trimers. The latter values are in good agreement with those reported in earlier studies of small hydrogen-bonded systems at the same level of theory with similar basis sets.<sup>32,33</sup> Interestingly, the difference between interaction energies computed, respectively, at the B3LYP/6-311+G(2df,2p)//B3LYP/6-311+G(d,p) and B3LYP/6-311+G(d,p) levels are of the same order of magnitude as the BSSE values computed at the B3LYP/6-311+G(d,p) level.

Hence, all the following discussions concerning the nitroxide and the carbonyl systems will be based on the B3LYP results.

**3.2. Formaldehyde and Dihydroneitroxide Systems.** 3.2.1. *Formaldehyde/Water H<sub>2</sub>CO/(H<sub>2</sub>O)<sub>n</sub> Systems.* Regarding the formaldehyde systems, the FW dimer and the FW<sub>2</sub> cyclic trimer have been already investigated at the MP2 level of theory.<sup>15</sup> Compared to our B3LYP results, those earlier results differ at most by a few percentages for all of the properties discussed in the present paper (geometries, vibrational spectra, interaction energies, and electronic density at hydrogen bond critical points).

Regarding the FW dimer and as previously reported, our computations exhibit the existence of a classical red-shifting hydrogen bond O<sub>w</sub>H...O and of a weak blue-shifting hydrogen bond CH...O<sub>w</sub> (compared to the F monomer, the C–H bond length is shortened by 0.003 Å and the δν<sub>C–H</sub> frequency is shifted to the blue by 41 cm<sup>-1</sup>). The properties of the red-shifting hydrogen bond match those of classical hydrogen bonds: its length is 1.99 Å and its ρ<sub>C</sub> value is 0.022 au at the B3LYP level. The main difference between this hydrogen bond and prototypical red-shifting ones, such as that occurring in the W<sub>2</sub> water dimer, concerns the ∠O<sub>w</sub>HO angle, which is predicted by all levels of theory to range between 146 and 150°. Such a distorted structure results from the presence of the CH...O<sub>w</sub> interaction. However, (1) as no critical point along the CH...O<sub>w</sub> axis is highlighted by the topological analysis of the electronic density and (2) as the CH...O<sub>w</sub> distance is about 2.81 Å, this hydrogen bond is particularly weak.

Among the three dimer structures, only FW is a minimum and the FW<sub>sp1</sub> and FW<sub>sp2</sub> saddle points are higher in energy than FW by, respectively, 2.3 and 1.8 kcal mol<sup>-1</sup>. FW<sub>sp1</sub> and FW<sub>sp2</sub> are close to the nonplanar and planar bifurcated C<sub>2v</sub> structures of the water dimer, investigated first at the MP2 level by Smith and co-workers in 1990<sup>34</sup> and reinvestigated more recently at higher levels of theory (up to the CCSD(T) level) by Tschumper and co-workers<sup>14</sup> (in the latter study, the two structures are denoted by no. 9 and no. 10 and they correspond to a nonplanar transition state and to a planar higher-order saddle point, respectively). At the difference of the water dimer, the FW<sub>sp2</sub> planar bifurcated structure is predicted by all theory levels to be a transition state, whereas the FW<sub>sp1</sub> nonplanar bifurcated structure is predicted to be a higher-order saddle point (whose order, 2 or 3, depends on the level of theory). However, the difference in energy ΔE<sub>sp</sub> between the no. 9 water dimer stationary point and the W<sub>2</sub> water dimer global minimum is equal to the difference in energy between the FW<sub>sp2</sub> stationary point and the FW minimum: regardless of the level of theory, ΔE<sub>sp</sub> range from 1.7 to 1.9 kcal mol<sup>-1</sup> (Table 2 and refs 34,14). Similarly, the difference in energy ΔE<sub>sp</sub> between FW<sub>sp1</sub> and FW is also close to the difference in energy between no. 10 and W<sub>2</sub>: they range between 2.3 and 2.7 kcal mol<sup>-1</sup> (Table 2 and refs 34,14).

As may be seen in Table 2, the interaction energy of the WFW trimer is 2 times larger than the FW dimer one (respectively, -4.8 and -9.4 kcal mol<sup>-1</sup>), and the cooperative effects are slightly stabilizing for this trimer: they account for

6.5% of its interaction energy. Both the trimer OH<sub>w</sub>...O hydrogen bonds present very close properties with that observed in FW, with regard to the bond lengths (2.03 Å), to the ∠OH<sub>w</sub>O angle values (146–150°), and to the values of ρ<sub>C</sub> (0.021 au). Similarly, most of the properties of the CH...O<sub>w</sub> interactions in WFW are fully comparable to those of the CH...O<sub>w</sub> hydrogen bond of FW: the CH...O<sub>w</sub> distances are about 2.71 Å and no critical point is observed along the CH...O<sub>w</sub> axis. However, it may be noticed that, compared to the values in the F monomer, the two C–H bonds are shortened by 0.006 Å and their ν<sub>C–H</sub> mean frequency is now blue-shifted by 78 cm<sup>-1</sup>. Even if these values are about 2 times larger than in FW, their magnitudes are comparable in FW and WFW. Hence, each water molecule interacts with H<sub>2</sub>CO in WFW in the same way as in FW, without being affected by the presence of the second water molecule. That may explain the weak incidence of cooperative effects on this symmetric trimer.

An additional hydrogen bond between the two water molecules is observed in the FW<sub>2</sub> cyclic trimer, compared to the WFW symmetric one. FW<sub>2</sub> is also more stable than WFW (its interaction energy is -14.3 kcal mol<sup>-1</sup>), and the cooperative effects have a stronger incidence on it: they are stabilizing and they account for 17.5% of its interaction energy. As previously reported, this strong incidence of stabilizing cooperative effects is related to a global reinforcement of the hydrogen bond network within FW<sub>2</sub>. For instance, the OH<sub>w</sub>...O hydrogen bond is here shortened by about 0.1 Å and the electronic density at the critical point is larger by 20%, as compared to FW and WFW. The most remarkable interaction reinforcement in FW<sub>2</sub> concerns the CH...O<sub>w</sub> interaction: the CH...O<sub>w</sub> distance is significantly shortened compared to FW and WFW (by 0.4 and 0.5 Å, respectively), and a critical point is now observed along the CH...O<sub>w</sub> axis with a density value of 0.014 au. However, for the ν<sub>C–H</sub> frequency, a weaker blue shift is observed in FW<sub>2</sub> than in WFW: they are, respectively, 54 and 78 cm<sup>-1</sup>. Last, the properties of the hydrogen bond between the two water molecules of FW<sub>2</sub> are comparable to those of the hydrogen bonds occurring in the W<sub>3</sub> cyclic water trimer, which are also reinforced compared to that of W<sub>2</sub> (Table 2).

3.2.2. *Dihydroneitroxide/Water H<sub>2</sub>NO–(H<sub>2</sub>O)<sub>n</sub> Systems.* Considering the results summarized in Table 2, the DW structure corresponds to a minimum. Its interaction energy is -7.3 kcal mol<sup>-1</sup> and its out-of-plane angle is about 12°, which is close to the value observed in the isolated monomer (about 8°). As discussed in Section 3.1, the DW<sub>sp1</sub> and DW<sub>sp2</sub> geometries correspond to saddle points, whose order depends on the level of theory. Their interaction energies are greater than the DW one by about 4.2 and 3.9 kcal mol<sup>-1</sup>, respectively.

The interaction energy of the WDW symmetric trimer is almost twice that of the DW dimer (-14.4 and -7.3 kcal mol<sup>-1</sup>, respectively), while the DW<sub>2</sub> cyclic trimer is more stable than WDW by 5.4 kcal mol<sup>-1</sup>. From the results presented in Table 2, the cooperative effects are stabilizing for the two trimers, however, they affect in a stronger manner the cyclic one: the cooperative contribution ΔE<sub>3-body</sub> represents 20.2% of the DW<sub>2</sub> interaction energy and only 4.6% in the case of WDW.

The electronic density analysis evidences two types of hydrogen bonds in DW and WDW: the NH...O<sub>w</sub> and OH<sub>w</sub>...O bonds (Figures 1 and 2). The properties of each type of hydrogen bond are particularly close in both aggregates. For instance, the NH...O<sub>w</sub> hydrogen bonds are characterized by ρ<sub>C</sub> values of about 0.016 au, by hydrogen bond lengths of about 2.19 Å and by ∠NHO<sub>w</sub> angles of about 119°. Relative to the D isolated monomer, the NH groups involved in the latter hydrogen bonds

**TABLE 5: Shifts of the X–H Distance (in Å) and of the X–H and O–H Stretching Frequencies (in cm<sup>-1</sup>) with Respect to the Monomer Values, X = C, N**

	$\Delta r_{X-H}$	$\Delta \nu_{X-H}$	$\Delta \nu_{O-H}$
DW	0.004 0.000	-9	-186
WDW	0.003	-17	-174
DW <sub>2</sub>	0.013 0.000	-83	-381 -320
FW	-0.003	41	-155
WFW	-0.006	78	-138
FW <sub>2</sub>	-0.006 -0.002	54	-237 -281

are characterized by a very weak increase of their bond length  $r_{N-H}$  (about  $3 \cdot 10^{-3}$  Å) and a small red shift in the  $\bar{\nu}_{N-H}$  average frequency is observed in DW and WDW (respectively, -9 and -17 cm<sup>-1</sup>, Table 5). Similarly, concerning the OH<sub>w</sub>⋯O hydrogen bonds, their  $\rho_C$  values are about 0.022 au, their bond lengths  $r_{OH_w \cdots O}$  about 2.03 Å, and their  $\angle OH_w O$  angle values about 134–135° in DW and WDW. Hence, these results show that in WDW, each water molecule interacts with H<sub>2</sub>NO in the same way as in DW, without being affected by the presence of the second water molecule. The results are related to the weak incidence of cooperative effects on the WDW symmetric trimer.

In the DW<sub>2</sub> cyclic heterotrimer, the topological analysis of the electronic density highlighted three hydrogen bonds: compared to WDW, there exists here an additional hydrogen bond between the two water molecules (Figure 2). From the results summarized in Tables 1 and 2, each of these hydrogen bonds is significantly reinforced in DW<sub>2</sub>, as compared to the hydrogen bonds of W<sub>2</sub> and DW. For instance, in the trimer, and compared to the dimers, the  $r_{XH-O}$  hydrogen bond lengths are shorter by 0.1–0.3 Å and the values of  $\rho_C$  are reinforced by 30–100%. In the particular case of the NH⋯O<sub>w</sub> hydrogen bond, and relative to the D isolated monomer, the N–H bond is elongated by 0.013 Å and a more pronounced red shift in the  $\bar{\nu}_{N-H}$  average frequency is also observed (-83 cm<sup>-1</sup>). These values are from 2–4 times larger than those obtained from the comparison between DW and D. Similarly, the hydrogen bond between the two water molecules of DW<sub>2</sub> is stronger than that occurring in the W<sub>2</sub> water dimer, and its properties are close to those of the W<sub>3</sub> cyclic water trimer (Tables 1 and 2). For instance, the DW<sub>2</sub>  $r_{OH-O_w}$  distance is 2.74 Å, whereas it is 2.90 Å in W<sub>2</sub> and 2.78 Å on average in W<sub>3</sub>.

Clearly, the three hydrogen bonds of DW<sub>2</sub> are much stronger than those of the DW and W<sub>2</sub> dimers and, therefore, than those of the WDW symmetric trimer. These stronger hydrogen bonds are related to strong stabilizing cooperative effects occurring in DW<sub>2</sub>, and all these results are characteristic of systems presenting a cyclic hydrogen bond pattern.

**3.2.3. Comparison of Formaldehyde and Dihydroneitroxide Systems.** From the above results, the hydrogen bond network of both the formaldehyde and the dihydroneitroxide systems present very close properties, in terms of geometry, of vibrational spectrum, and of electronic density. The main differences concern the interaction energies, which are systematically stronger for nitroxide systems, and the properties of the X–H⋯O<sub>w</sub> hydrogen bonds, which correspond on average to blue-shifting ones in the case of H<sub>2</sub>CO and to red-shifting ones in the case of H<sub>2</sub>NO.

In particular, the PESs of the heterodimers present several similarities: their global minima correspond to a cyclic structure with two hydrogen bonds (O–H⋯O and X–H⋯O<sub>w</sub>), and the planar and nonplanar bifurcated  $C_{2v}$  structures shown in Figure 1 correspond to important stationary points of their respective

PESs. As mentioned above, the three main differences between the heterodimers concern the interaction energy, which is stronger by about 2 kcal mol<sup>-1</sup> for DW than for FW, the position in energy of the DW<sub>sp1,2</sub> and the FW<sub>sp1,2</sub> extrema (which, respectively, lie 4 and 2 kcal mol<sup>-1</sup> higher in energy than the DW and FW global minima), and last, the properties of the X–H⋯O<sub>w</sub> hydrogen bond. In the particular case of DW, this bond can be defined as a weak red-shifting one, whereas for FW, it corresponds to a blue-shifting one (the respective average shifts are -9 and 41 cm<sup>-1</sup>).

Concerning the WFW and WDW symmetric heterotrimers, their properties are comparable to those of the heterodimers. Note in particular that each of their water molecules interact with the H<sub>2</sub>XO moiety in the same way as in the FW and DW dimers, without being affected by the presence of the second water molecule. This is supported by the weak incidence of cooperative effects in the two trimers: they account for about 5% of their interaction energies, which are twice those of the corresponding dimers within a few tenths of a kcal mol<sup>-1</sup>. The main differences between the two symmetric heterotrimers match the differences observed between the heterodimers: the interaction energy is stronger by 5 kcal mol<sup>-1</sup> for WDW than for WFW and their X–H⋯O<sub>w</sub> hydrogen bonds correspond, respectively, to blue-shifting ones for WFW (with a mean shift of 78 cm<sup>-1</sup>) and to weak red-shifting ones for WDW (with a mean shift of -17 cm<sup>-1</sup>).

Finally, the hydrogen bond network of the DW<sub>2</sub> and FW<sub>2</sub> cyclic heterotrimers are also very close. It is made of three hydrogen bonds (XH⋯O<sub>w</sub>, OH<sub>w</sub>⋯O, and OH<sub>w</sub>⋯O<sub>w</sub>), and as in all hydrogen-bonded trimers with a cyclic donor/acceptor pattern, strong cooperative effects occur in them (they account for 17–20% of their interaction energies). Regarding their remaining properties, they are all very close, except for the interaction energies (stronger by 5 kcal mol<sup>-1</sup> for DW<sub>2</sub> than for FW<sub>2</sub>) and the properties of their X–H⋯O<sub>w</sub> hydrogen bond, which corresponds to a red-shifting one for DW<sub>2</sub> and to a blue-shifting one for FW<sub>2</sub>. However, the average red shift is more pronounced for DW<sub>2</sub> than for WDW (respectively, -83 and -17 cm<sup>-1</sup>), whereas the mean blue shift is less pronounced for FW<sub>2</sub> than for WFW (respectively, 54 and 78 cm<sup>-1</sup>).

**3.3. Electronic Basis of the Similarities between Formaldehyde and Dihydroneitroxide Systems.** **3.3.1. Intra- and Intermolecular Hyperconjugation Competition.** To understand the origin of the similarities (and differences) between the nitroxide and the formaldehyde systems, we may consider the NBO results listed in Tables 6–8 (the atom numbering follows the convention given in Figure 3). These results concern the lp(O) → σ\*(X–H) and the lp(O) → σ\*(O–H) hyperconjugative interactions occurring in the systems, as well as the electronic population of the σ\*(X–H) antibonding orbitals shown in Figure 4. Notice that the values discussed in the following paragraphs reflect all of the NBO results, whereas Tables 6–8 only report significant values ( $q_c \geq 0.001 e$ ). The full NBO results are given in Supporting Information.

Concerning the F and D monomers (Table 6), the NBO analysis reveals the existence of two lone pairs located on their oxygen atom. One of these lone pairs corresponds to a sp orbital oriented along the X–O axis, whereas the second one corresponds to a pure p orbital orthogonal to this axis and to the π cloud of the X–O bond. A double intramolecular hyperconjugative interaction between the oxygen p lone pair and the two σ\*(X–H) antibonding orbitals exists in the two monomers; however, this interaction is stronger for F: the charge  $q_c$  “transferred” from the p lone pair toward each antibonding

**TABLE 6: NBO Hyperconjugation Results (in Hartrees and *e*) for the Monomers and the Heterodimers (for  $q_c \geq 10^{-3}$ , cf. Supporting Information for the Complete Results)<sup>a</sup>**

		$\Delta\epsilon$	$F(1, 2)$	$q_c$
F	LP2(O1) <sup>p</sup> -BD* (C2H3)	0.62	0.106	0.0585
	LP2(O1) <sup>p</sup> -BD* (C2H4)	0.62	0.106	0.0585
D	LP3(O1) <sup>p</sup> -BD* (N2H3)	0.65	0.081	0.0328
		0.64	0.084	
	LP3(O1) <sup>p</sup> -BD* (N2H4)	0.65	0.081	0.0328
FW	LP2(O1) <sup>p</sup> -BD* (C2H3)	0.65	0.102	0.0492
	LP2(O1) <sup>p</sup> -BD* (C2H4)	0.64	0.104	0.0528
	LP1(O1)-BD* (O5H6)	1.21	0.028	0.0011
	LP2(O1) <sup>p</sup> -BD* (O5H6)	0.78	0.055	0.0099
	LP1(O1)-BD* (N2H3)	1.18	0.027	0.0012
DW		1.16	0.030	
	LP3(O1) <sup>p</sup> -BD* (N2H3)	0.68	0.076	0.0260
		0.67	0.078	
	LP3(O1) <sup>p</sup> -BD* (N2H4)	0.67	0.080	0.0297
		0.66	0.082	
	LP3(O1) <sup>p</sup> -BD* (O5H6)	0.75	0.052	0.0103
		0.73	0.054	
	LP1(O5)-BD* (N2H3)	0.81	0.036	0.0039
		0.82	0.036	

<sup>a</sup>The p superscript indicates the strong p character of the corresponding orbital. For unrestricted calculations, both  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  contributions are given.

**TABLE 7: NBO Hyperconjugation Results (in Hartrees and *e*) for the Symmetric Heterotrimers (for  $q_c \geq 10^{-3}$ , cf. Supporting Information for the Complete Results)<sup>a</sup>**

		$\Delta\epsilon$	$F(1, 2)$	$q_c$
WFW	LP2(O1) <sup>p</sup> -BD* (C2H3)	0.66	0.100	0.0459
	LP2(O1) <sup>p</sup> -BD* (C2H4)	0.66	0.100	0.0459
	LP1(O1)-BD* (O5H6)	1.22	0.027	0.0010
	LP2(O1) <sup>p</sup> -BD* (O5H6)	0.78	0.050	0.0082
	LP1(O1)-BD* (O8H9)	1.22	0.027	0.0010
WDW	LP2(O1) <sup>p</sup> -BD* (O8H9)	0.78	0.050	0.0082
	LP3(O1) <sup>p</sup> -BD* (N2H3)	0.69	0.076	0.0253
		0.68	0.078	
	LP3(O1) <sup>p</sup> -BD* (N2H4)	0.69	0.076	0.0253
		0.68	0.078	
	LP3(O1) <sup>p</sup> -BD* (O5H6)	0.76	0.050	0.0091
		0.74	0.051	
	LP3(O1) <sup>p</sup> -BD* (O8H9)	0.76	0.050	0.0091
		0.74	0.051	
	LP2(O5)-BD* (N2H3)	0.81	0.038	0.0042
	0.82	0.037		
LP2(O8)-BD* (N2H4)	0.81	0.038	0.0042	
	0.82	0.037		

<sup>a</sup>The p superscript indicates the strong p character of the corresponding orbital. For unrestricted calculations, both  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  contributions are given.

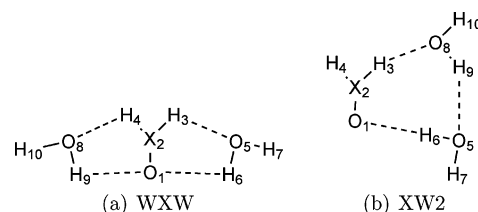
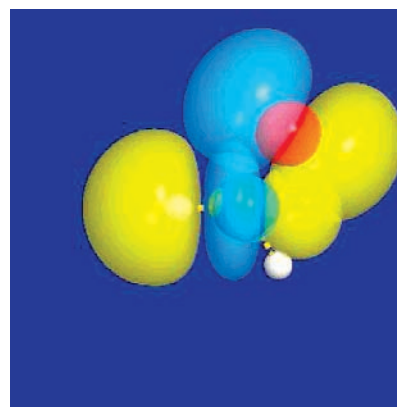
orbital is  $5.85 \times 10^{-2} e$  for F and  $3.28 \times 10^{-2} e$  for D. Regardless of the monomers, the lp (O)  $\rightarrow \sigma^*$  (X-H) interactions are responsible for almost all the occupancy of the  $\sigma^*$  (X-H) antibonding orbitals. Last, for D, the NBO analysis reveals also a weaker hyperconjugation between the oxygen sp lone pair and the two  $\sigma^*$  (N-H) orbitals ( $q_c = 0.08 \times 10^{-2} e$ ), which are related to the nonplanar structure of D.

Concerning the FW and DW dimers (Table 6), the NBO analysis exhibits a weakening of the latter intramolecular hyperconjugative interactions. It also highlights the presence of a medium range hyperconjugation between the oxygen p lone pair of H<sub>2</sub>XO and a water  $\sigma^*$  (O-H) antibonding orbital, as well as a weaker hyperconjugation involving the H<sub>2</sub>XO sp lone pair and the latter orbital. Hence, a part of the charge  $q_c$  transferred from the oxygen p lone pair toward the  $\sigma^*$  (X-H) within F and D is now transferred toward a water  $\sigma^*$  (O-H)

**TABLE 8: NBO Hyperconjugation Results (in Hartrees and *e*) for the Cyclic Heterotrimers (for  $q_c \geq 10^{-3}$ , cf. Supporting Information for the Complete Results)<sup>a</sup>**

		$\Delta\epsilon$	$F(1, 2)$	$q_c$
FW <sub>2</sub>	LP1(O1)-BD* (C2H3)	1.10	0.026	0.0011
	LP2(O1) <sup>p</sup> -BD* (C2H3)	0.68	0.096	0.0400
	LP2(O1) <sup>p</sup> -BD* (C2H4)	0.64	0.103	0.0518
	LP1(O1)-BD* (O5H6)	1.19	0.045	0.0029
	LP2(O1) <sup>p</sup> -BD* (O5H6)	0.76	0.067	0.0155
	LP2(O5)-BD* (O8H9)	0.95	0.087	0.0168
DW <sub>2</sub>	LP2(O8)-BD* (C2H3)	0.84	0.043	0.0052
	LP1(O1)-BD* (N2H3)	0.96	0.030	0.0024
		1.15	0.043	
	LP3(O1) <sup>p</sup> -BD* (N2H3)	0.71	0.066	0.0181
		0.70	0.068	
	LP3(O1) <sup>p</sup> -BD* (N2H4)	0.69	0.081	0.0290
		0.68	0.084	
	LP1(O1)-BD* (O5H6)	1.01	0.028	0.0021
		1.19	0.044	
	<b>LP2(O1)-BD* (O5H6)</b>	<b>1.02</b>	<b>0.032</b>	<b>0.0010</b>
LP3(O1) <sup>p</sup> -BD* (O5H6)	0.76	0.082	0.0251	
	0.74	0.086		
LP2(O5)-BD* (O8H9)	0.93	0.095	0.0209	
	0.93	0.095		
LP2(O8)-BD* (N2H3)	0.88	0.091	0.0211	
	0.89	0.091		

<sup>a</sup>The p superscript indicates the strong p character of the corresponding orbital. For unrestricted calculations, both  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  contributions are given. The interactions involving the single electron of H<sub>2</sub>NO are highlighted in bold.

**Figure 3.** Atom numbering used for the NBO analysis, X = C, N.**Figure 4.** NBO oxygen lone pair interacting with one  $\sigma^*$  (N-H) orbital in the dihydronitroxide H<sub>2</sub>NO.

orbital in the heterodimers. For the lp (O)  $\rightarrow \sigma^*$  (X-H) intramolecular interaction, the magnitude of the shift  $\Delta q_c$  between the monomers and the dimers supports this interpretation:  $\Delta q_c$  is about  $0.9 \times 10^{-2}$  and  $0.6 \times 10^{-2} e$  for the  $\sigma^*$  (C-H) orbitals of H<sub>2</sub>CO and about  $0.6 \times 10^{-2}$  and  $0.4 \times 10^{-2} e$  for the  $\sigma^*$  (N-H) orbitals of H<sub>2</sub>NO. These values have to be compared to the charge  $q_c$  corresponding to lp (O)<sup>p</sup>  $\rightarrow \sigma^*$  (O-H) interaction in both heterodimers: about  $1.0 \times 10^{-2} e$ .

Moreover, whereas the NBO analysis exhibits a particularly weak interaction between the water oxygen lone pairs and a  $\sigma^*$  (C-H) orbital for FW ( $q_c = 0.01 \times 10^{-2} e$ ), a weak but not



negligible interaction between a lone pair of the water oxygen and an antibonding N–H orbital exists in the case of DW: the corresponding charge  $q_c$  is  $0.4 \times 10^{-2} e$ . Hence, in the case of DW, the incidence of the weakening of the  $lp(O)^p \rightarrow \sigma^*(N-H)$  intramolecular interactions is in part counterbalanced by the  $lp(O_w) \rightarrow \sigma^*(N-H)$  intermolecular one. As a result, the latter interactions are responsible for a clear decrease in the  $\sigma^*(C-H)$  orbital population for FW, whereas the decrease in the  $\sigma^*(N-H)$  population for DW is much smaller: in terms of  $q_c$ , the decrease represents about 16 and 7% of the  $\sigma^*(X-H)$  antibonding populations of the F and D monomers. For the  $H_2CO$  systems, this explains the blue shift in the  $\bar{\nu}_{C-H}$  frequency observed in FW. Concerning the  $H_2NO$  systems, the decrease in the population of the  $\sigma^*(N-H)$  orbital should also lead to a reinforcement of the N–H bond and therefore to a blue shift in the mean  $\bar{\nu}_{N-H}$  frequency. This is however not the case, as the latter mean frequency is slightly red-shifted by  $9\text{ cm}^{-1}$ .

From the recent discussions of Alabugin and co-workers<sup>11</sup> and of Joseph and Jimmis,<sup>10</sup> we may conclude that when the hyperconjugative interactions  $lp(Y) \rightarrow \sigma^*(X-H)$  lead to a weak change in the population of the  $\sigma^*(X-H)$  orbital, the vibrational spectrum of the X–H bond is mainly influenced by higher order electronic density reorganization effects. However, their incidence on this spectrum cannot be readily predicted, especially in the present case where a complex hydrogen bond network is observed in both the FW and the DW dimers.

As the structures of the two WFW and WDW symmetric heterotrimers correspond to those of the FW and DW heterodimers, the same phenomena as above are observed within them, however they are all reinforced (Table 7). For instance, the weakening of the  $lp(O)^p \rightarrow \sigma^*(X-H)$  intramolecular hyperconjugation is more pronounced in these trimers: this is echoed in the decrease in the corresponding charges  $q_c$  from an average value of  $5.1 \times 10^{-2} e$  in FW to an average value of  $4.6 \times 10^{-2} e$  in WFW, and from  $2.8 \times 10^{-2}$  to  $2.5 \times 10^{-2} e$  in the corresponding nitroxide systems. Concerning WFW, and similarly to FW, the latter intramolecular hyperconjugations are the sole responsible for the occupancy of the  $\sigma^*(C-H)$ , and this explains the more accented blue shift in the  $\bar{\nu}_{C-H}$  frequency for WFW than for FW (respectively, 78 and  $41\text{ cm}^{-1}$ ). In the case of WDW, the two symmetric hydrogen bonds between the N–H bonds and the two water oxygens are stronger than the corresponding ones for WFW: they are at the origin of a transfer of  $0.44 \times 10^{-2} e$  in the two  $\sigma^*(N-H)$ . Hence, for WDW, the intra- and intermolecular hyperconjugative effects counterbalance each other so that the populations of the  $\sigma^*(N-H)$  antibonding orbitals are almost equal in WDW and in DW (respectively,  $3.08 \times 10^{-2}$  and  $3.07 \times 10^{-2} e$  on average). Hence, because of the similarities between DW and WDW, we expect a small red shift in the  $\bar{\nu}_{N-H}$  frequency for the latter symmetric trimer, which is confirmed by our computations:  $-17\text{ cm}^{-1}$ .

Last, concerning WFW and WDW, and as expected from their symmetric structures, the total charge  $q_c$  “transferred” from the lone pairs of the  $H_2XO$  oxygen atom toward the  $\sigma^*(O-H)$  orbitals are equal for the two water molecules. Moreover, these charges are practically the same regardless of the nature of  $H_2XO$ :  $0.92 \times 10^{-2} e$  and  $0.98 \times 10^{-2} e$ , respectively, for WFW and WDW.

As compared to the above symmetric heterotrimers, the NBO results exhibit a different electronic redistribution pattern within the molecules constituting the cyclic trimers (Table 8). First of all, the intermolecular hyperconjugations  $lp(O) \rightarrow \sigma^*(O-H)$  are approximately from 2 ( $1.8 \times 10^{-2} e$  for  $FW_2$ ) to 3 times

( $2.8 \times 10^{-2} e$  for  $DW_2$ ) stronger than in the heterodimers and the symmetric trimers. This is related to the stronger linear character of the  $OH_w \cdots O$  hydrogen bonds in the cyclic trimers ( $\angle OH_wO > 160^\circ$ ) than in the remaining oligomers ( $\angle OH_wO < 146^\circ$ ), allowing stronger interactions between the  $H_2XO$  oxygen lone pairs and the  $\sigma^*(O-H)$ . Concerning the intramolecular  $lp(O)^p \rightarrow \sigma^*(X-H)$  interactions, their corresponding charge  $q_c$  are smaller than in the symmetric trimers for the X–H bond involved in the hydrogen bond with a water molecule (by  $0.7 \times 10^{-2}$  and  $0.6 \times 10^{-2} e$ , respectively, for  $FW_2$  and  $DW_2$ ), whereas they are practically equal to those of the dimers in the case of the X–H bond not involved in such intermolecular interactions: about  $5.2 \times 10^{-2}$  and  $2.9 \times 10^{-2} e$ , respectively, for  $FW_2$  and  $DW_2$ .

Last, the main difference between the symmetric trimers (and therefore the dimers) and the cyclic trimers originates from the strength of the hydrogen bonds between the X–H bond of the  $H_2XO$  moiety and the second water molecule: they are strongly reinforced in cyclic trimers regardless of the nature of  $H_2XO$  (their corresponding  $q_c$  values are  $0.52 \times 10^{-2}$  and  $2.11 \times 10^{-2} e$ , respectively, for  $FW_2$  and  $DW_2$ ). These hydrogen bonds have a stronger linear character in the cyclic trimers (their corresponding  $\angle XHO_w$  angle values are  $146^\circ$  for  $FW_2$  and  $158^\circ$  for  $DW_2$ ) than in the dimers and in the symmetric trimers (about  $100^\circ$  for FW and WFW and  $120^\circ$  for DW and WDW), which favors the interactions among the water oxygen lone pairs and the  $\sigma^*(X-H)$  orbitals.

Hence, together, all the above results concerning the hyperconjugative interactions in the cyclic trimers exhibit a large increase in the population of the  $\sigma^*(X-H)$  orbitals as compared to the symmetric trimers. That explains for instance why the mean blue shift in the  $\bar{\nu}_{C-H}$  frequency is smaller in  $FW_2$  than in WFW (namely, 54 and  $78\text{ cm}^{-1}$ ). In the case of  $DW_2$ , the latter increase is so large that the population of the  $\sigma^*(N-H)$  orbital corresponding to the bond involved in a hydrogen bond with a water molecule is even larger than in the D isolated monomer. That leads to a red shift in the average  $\bar{\nu}_{N-H}$  frequency for  $DW_2$  larger by an order of magnitude than for WDW and DW (namely,  $-83$ ,  $-17$ , and  $-9\text{ cm}^{-1}$ ).

**3.3.2. Does the Single Electron Influence the Hydrogen Bond Network of Dihydranitroxide/Water Systems?** Reed et al.<sup>8</sup> pointed out the donor capacity of the nitric oxide to form the so-called “half hydrogen bonds” with HF, which can be formed whatever angle HF approaches NO. In analogy with the HF/NO system, the dihydranitroxide may form such a type of hydrogen bond with a water molecule, as long as no other interaction imposes some directionality to the hydrogen bond. However, in the three complexes studied in this work, DW,  $DW_2$ , and WDW, the water molecules are always involved in two simultaneous hydrogen bonds, restricting strongly the range of the approach angles. Actually, hydrogen bonds are always located in the mean plane of dihydranitroxide. Consequently, the single electron (located in a  $\pi^*$  orbital) cannot directly influence the hydrogen bond network. NBO results support this explanation, since no or very weak intermolecular hyperconjugative interactions are evidenced between this  $\pi^*$  orbital and a water molecule ( $q_c$  is at most  $0.1 \times 10^{-2} e$ ).

Note that Lewis structure-like NBOs assign the NO  $\pi$  electrons to two  $\alpha$ -spin lone pairs on N and O and to one  $\beta$ -spin  $\pi^*$  NO orbital, reflecting the three-electron nature of the N–O  $\pi$  bond. Hence, two resonating Lewis structures can be drawn, as reported in Figure 5. Obviously, in the presence of a polar solvent like water, the zwitterionic structure is preferred.





Figure 5. Resonance structures of the nitroxide moiety.

Accordingly, the spin density is mainly located on the nitrogen side, favoring an almost planar structure of the nitroxide moiety.

**3.3.3. Hyperconjugation and Cooperative Effects.** The strong incidence of cooperative effects upon hydrogen bond networks presenting a cyclic donor/acceptor pattern can be interpreted as originating from a reinforcement of the hyperconjugative interactions within them. The charge transferred  $q_c$  from a lone pair of a given molecule toward the  $\sigma^*$  (X–H) antibonding orbital of a second molecule destabilizes the lone pairs of the latter one. As a result, if this molecule is also involved in a new hydrogen bond, this destabilization will reinforce the hyperconjugative interactions between its lone pairs and the  $\sigma^*$  (X–H) orbitals of a third molecule, and so on.

Such a mechanism can be also proposed to explain the strong incidence of cooperative effects on the two FW<sub>2</sub> and DW<sub>2</sub> cyclic trimers: in this particular case, the destabilization of the oxygen lone pairs of the H<sub>2</sub>XO moiety is due to the charge-transfer effects occurring between the water oxygen lone pairs and the  $\sigma^*$  (X–H) antibonding orbitals, which destabilize the lp (O)  $\rightarrow$   $\sigma^*$  (X–H) intramolecular hyperconjugative interaction.

However, intermolecular many-body polarization phenomena have been shown to play also a pivotal role in the interactions among the different monomers of the cyclic oligomers.<sup>35</sup> The dipole moment of the D isolated monomer is larger by 0.7 Debye compared to that of F (3.21 and 2.47 Debye, respectively, at the B3LYP/6-311+G(d,p) level), which suggests that the intermolecular polarization interactions have to be stronger for DW<sub>2</sub> than for FW<sub>2</sub>. That may explain the slightly stronger incidence of cooperative effects on DW<sub>2</sub> than on FW<sub>2</sub>. Note that the dipole analysis of the NBO Lewis structure allows one to recast the polarization in terms of NBO dipole contributions and hyperconjugative corrections.<sup>8</sup> The X–O oxygen lone pair dipole enhancements due to intra- and intermolecular hyperconjugations are reported in Table 9. It is apparent that the stronger cooperative effects in DW<sub>2</sub> are highlighted by the leading corrective term, arising from the intermolecular lp (O)  $\rightarrow$   $\sigma^*$  (O–H) hyperconjugation. Contrary to DW<sub>2</sub>, the leading corrections to the C–O NBO dipole in FW<sub>2</sub> are due to intramolecular lp (O)  $\rightarrow$   $\sigma^*$  (C–H) hyperconjugation. The comparison of Tables 8 and 9 clearly shows the same trends. A preferred intramolecular charge transfer in FW<sub>2</sub> leads to a small enhancement of the N–O dipole. However in DW<sub>2</sub>, the charge transfers to the N–H and to the water H–O antibonding orbitals are of same magnitude, resulting in a larger intermolecular contribution to the N–O dipole. This result further demonstrates the validity and the consistency of the hyperconjugative picture adopted in this study.

#### 4. Conclusion

In this work, some model nitroxide/water and carbonyl/water clusters have been studied in order to compare their properties, with particular emphasis on the hydrogen bond network.

Our results clearly exhibit that the properties of hydrogen bonds involving a nitroxyl group are very close to those of hydrogen bonds involving a carbonyl group. The main difference between the H<sub>2</sub>XO/water aggregates considered in the present paper results principally from the nature of the XH $\cdots$ O<sub>w</sub> interaction, which corresponds either to a conventional red-shifting hydrogen bond (within DW, WDW, and DW<sub>2</sub>) or to

TABLE 9: Hyperconjugation Correction (in Debye) to the X–O NBO Contribution to the Dipole<sup>a</sup>

		$\delta\mu$
F	LP2(O1) <sup>p</sup> –BD* (C2H3)	0.48
	LP2(O1) <sup>p</sup> –BD* (C2H4)	0.48
FW	LP2(O1) <sup>p</sup> –BD* (C2H3)	0.41
	LP2(O1) <sup>p</sup> –BD* (C2H4)	0.45
FW <sub>2</sub>	LP2(O1) <sup>p</sup> –BD* (O5H6)	0.20
	LP2(O1) <sup>p</sup> –BD* (C2H3)	0.34
	LP2(O1) <sup>p</sup> –BD* (C2H4)	0.44
	LP2(O1) <sup>p</sup> –BD* (O5H6)	0.27
D	LP3(O1) <sup>p</sup> –BD* (N2H3)	0.14
		0.15
DW	LP3(O1) <sup>p</sup> –BD* (N2H4)	0.14
		0.15
		0.11
DW <sub>2</sub>	LP3(O1) <sup>p</sup> –BD* (N2H3)	0.11
		0.12
	LP3(O1) <sup>p</sup> –BD* (N2H4)	0.13
	LP3(O1) <sup>p</sup> –BD* (O5H6)	0.14
DW <sub>2</sub>		0.11
		0.12
	LP3(O1) <sup>p</sup> –BD* (N2H3)	0.08
	LP3(O1) <sup>p</sup> –BD* (N2H4)	0.08
	LP3(O1) <sup>p</sup> –BD* (O5H6)	0.13
	0.14	
	0.20	
	0.22	

<sup>a</sup> For unrestricted calculations, both  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  contributions are given.

an improper blue-shifting one (within FW<sub>2</sub>, FW, and WFW). Last, our results exhibit that almost all the properties of the hydrogen bonds occurring in the model clusters can be interpreted by considering only inter- and intramolecular lp (O)  $\rightarrow$   $\sigma^*$  (X–H) hyperconjugation arguments.

Our results also suggest that it should be possible to accurately describe the solvation of nitroxide species using atomistic force fields and molecular dynamics techniques, which were shown to provide a reliable description of carbonyl–water hydrogen bonds (cf., for example, ref 36). Such a way of theoretically investigating the properties of solvated nitroxides is presently under investigation in our group, and our first results will be presented soon.

**Supporting Information Available:** Geometrical, electronic, energetic, and natural bond orbital results at all levels of theory. This material is available free of charge via the Internet at <http://pubs.acs.org>.

#### References and Notes

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