ORGANOMETALLICS

σ/π Plasticity of NHCs on the Ruthenium–Phosphine and Ruthenium=Ylidene Bonds in Olefin Metathesis Catalysts

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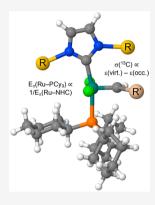


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ABSTRACT: The nature of the Ru bonding environment in a set of Grubbs catalysts has been studied by means of density functional theory (DFT). On the one hand, for a set of 20 [Ru(= CH₂)(NHC)(PCy₃)][Cl]₂ second-generation adducts, the results show that calculated ³¹P NMR shieldings exhibit a good correlation with the calculated R(Ru-P) bond lengths, which are in turn strongly correlated with the calculated PCy₃ ligand dissociation energies. Bond energy decomposition analysis (EDA) also indicates that there is a strong correlation between the σ and π orbital interaction energies for the Ru-PCy₃ bond, while no correlation was found for the case of the bond between the Ru moiety and the N-heterocyclic carbene (NHC) ligands, Ru-NHC. Furthermore, π orbital interaction energies of the Ru-PCy₃ bond were found to be strongly correlated with the calculated PCy₃ ligand dissociation energies, as well as with the R(Ru-P) bond lengths, confirming the significance of the π back-donation component from Ru to PCy₃ in determining the lability of the PCy₃ ligand in the studied adducts. On the other, for a set of 17 [Ru(=CHR)(NHC)_x(PCy₃)_{2-x}]-[Cl]₂ first (x = 0)- and second-generation (x = 1) complexes, DFT results show that changes occurring in the ¹³C NMR shielding of the Ru=ylidene bond are mainly due to $\sigma(Ru=C) \rightarrow$



SI Supporting Information

 $\pi^*(\text{Ru}=\text{C})$ molecular orbital (MO) transitions. Good correlations are observed between $\sigma(^{13}\text{C})$ and the energy gaps of the MOs involved in such transitions, between the binding energies of the ylidene moiety and the rest of the Ru fragment, as well as with the R(Ru=C) bond lengths. Finally, our novel preliminary results suggest that, once the metallacycle intermediate is formed by reaction with ethylene, ${}^{13}\text{C}'(\beta)$ NMR shielding retains the NMR information from $\sigma({}^{13}\text{C})$ in the 16e species, in contrast to what happens with the ${}^{13}\text{C}(\alpha)$ NMR shielding.

INTRODUCTION

In the less than three decades since Arduengo reported the synthesis of the first crystalline N-heterocyclic carbene (NHC),¹ the use of this organic species as a ligand in organometallic complexes has increased exponentially.² In a mimetic manner, NHCs have often been a perfect substitute for phosphines in organometallic catalysts, in which changes in the steric and/or electronic properties³ have resulted in an improved catalytic activity.

Apart from the recent advances in organocatalysis,⁴ the effect of the NHCs in catalysis has been basically circumscribed when they are linked to metals.⁵ Particularly, as a ligand of organometallic complexes, the inclusion of an NHC ligand by Grubbs in exchange for a phosphine provoked the definitive impulse for the olefin metathesis to be recognized soon after, in 2005, with the Nobel Prize,⁶ together with Chauvin⁷ and Schrock.⁸ Further, this represented the switch from first-⁹ to second-generation Grubbs catalysts.¹⁰

Several methods have been developed for the characterization and rationalization of specific properties in NHC ligands, with special emphasis on the electronic and steric properties,¹¹ such as the Tolman electronic parameter (TEP)¹² and the percent buried volume ($%V_{bur}$).¹³ In this context, the metal-ligand electronic parameter (MLEP) also includes the metal in the analysis, 14 apart from the extended view that steric maps also provide. 15

With regard to the electronic part, NHCs have been assumed to be purely σ donors, ^{5g,16} although subsequent studies confirmed that the contributions of π bonding are not insignificant.^{3a,17} In this context, while the σ donor effect in NHCs is prominent, an important dose of π back-donation is observed when NHCs are complexed, thus accepting electron density or even behaving as π donor agents.¹⁸

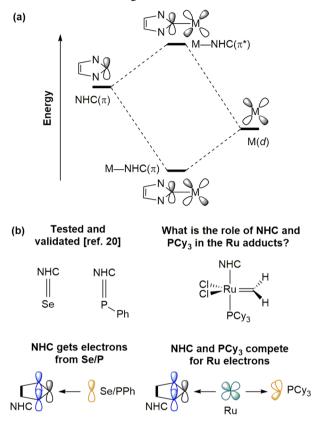
Scheme 1a exemplifies how the back-donation works with any metal (M),¹⁹ involving a d orbital of M and the π^* orbital from the NHC. Actually, it consists of the in-phase combination between a filled d orbital on the metal with an empty π^* orbital of the NHC, whereas the interaction of the same orbitals also generates the corresponding antibonding orbital.²⁰

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Scheme 1. (a) Simple Representation of the Frontier Molecular Orbitals involving the M(d) and $NHC(\pi)$ Orbitals^{*a*} and (b) Previously Studied Systems²⁰ and Overview of this Investigation



^{*a*}Ru to NHC back-bonding gathers a filled d orbital on Ru with an empty π orbital of the NHC (M refers to metal).

With regard to the π bonding nature of NHCs, Nolan,²¹ Bertrand,²² and Ganter²³ overcame small inconsistencies of the TEP using NMR coupling constants on the Pt–C bond for [PtCl₂(DMSO)(NHC)] complexes and the phosphorus and selenium signals of phosphinidene adducts²⁴ and selenourea compounds, respectively. In this context, Nolan and coworkers also probed the π back-bonding abilities to NHC of phosphinidene and selenium adducts and the capabilities of selenoureas to be deployed as ligands for Au(I).²⁵

The theoretical interpretation derived from these compounds is insufficient, and therefore it is not fully valid for metallic complexes bearing NHC ligands,³ only for NHC= PPh and NHC=Se.²⁰ In this sense, Belpassi and Zuccaccia examined the σ donation and the π back-donation in Au(NHC)-based complexes, taking into account the *trans* ligand to the NHC,²⁶ continuing the work of Ciancaleoni and Belpassi in the same sense, although the latter only considered the use of phosphine ligands.²⁷ More recently, the π backdonation has been analyzed to distinguish between cationic Au-NHC complexes and their isolobal NHC-proton compounds.²⁸ However, for the case of Grubbs olefin metathesis catalysts, in order to properly define the NHC ligand, its description should be in combination with, at least, the *trans* Ru–P bond.

Thus, in order to understand the nature of the Ru–P and Ru–NHC bonds, and also to shed light onto the mode of communication between the phosphine (PCy₃) and NHC ligands (Scheme 1b), a total of 20 [Ru(=CH₂)(NHC)-(PCy₃)][Cl]₂ second-generation adducts (Figure 1), of which 14 contain standard NHCs covering derivatives of imidazol-2-ylidenes and 4,5-dihydroimidazol-2-ylidenes, 3 include triazol-2-ylidene carbenes, and 3 contain cyclic alkylaminocarbenes (CAAC), were investigated. In a second part, an analysis of the bonding and NMR properties for the Ru=ylidene bond has been performed for a set of 17 [Ru(=CHR)-(NHC)_x(PCy₃)_{2-x}][Cl]₂ first (x = 0)- and second-generation

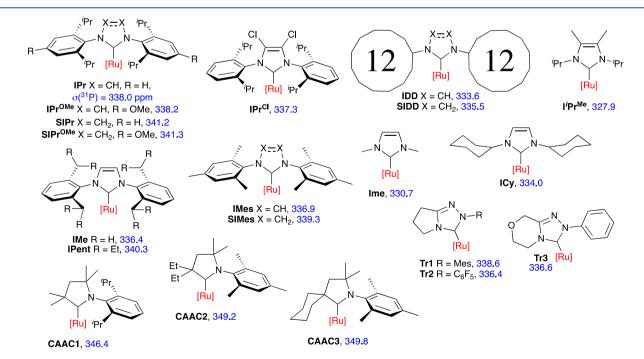


Figure 1. Set of 20 $[Ru(=CH_2)(NHC)(PCy_3)][Cl]_2$ second-generation adducts considered in the first part of this study, where [Ru] (red) = $[Ru(=CH_2)(PCy_3)][Cl_2]$ and ³¹P magnetic shieldings, $\sigma(^{31}P)$, are shown in ppm (blue).

(x = 1) Grubbs catalysts, in which different ylidene moieties, =CHR, from previously synthesized complexes have been studied (*vide infra*, Figure 7). In this sense, our objective is to provide a comprehensive view of the connectivity between the most important functional groups linked to the central metal atom in ruthenium-based olefin metathesis catalysts: i.e., what is the communication mode in terms of energy, orbital, and NMR analysis?

COMPUTATIONAL DETAILS

The structures and energies for a set of second-generation [Ru(= CH₂)(NHC)(PCy₃)][Cl]₂ and first (x = 0)- and second-generation (x = 1) [Ru(=CHR)(NHC)_x(PCy₃)_{2-x}][Cl]₂ Grubbs catalysts have been studied through the use of density functional theory (DFT) *via* the spin-restricted Kohn–Sham (RKS) formalism. The generalized gradient approximation (GGA) has been used *via* the BP86 functional²⁵ together with the TZ2P Slater-type orbital (STO) basis set,³⁰ which is augmented by one polarization function for both light (hydrogen) and heavy atoms. The DIIS procedure was applied for the self-consistent field (SCF) convergence with the Becke fuzzy cell integration scheme (quality good).³¹

The zeroth order regular approximation $(ZORA)^{32}$ to the Dirac equation was applied during the optimization calculations in the gas phase in order to include relativistic effects (scalar) and freeze the inner-core orbitals. Nuclear magnetic resonance (NMR) chemical shifts were calculated using the gauge-including atomic orbitals (GIAO) method³³ through all-electron basis sets and inclusion of relativistic spin–orbit coupling.

Energy decomposition analysis (EDA)³⁴ has been performed over Cs-symmetrized complexes by rigid fragmentation into the two respective moieties. In the framework of EDA, the total binding energy (BE) is divided into deformation energy and interaction energy (BE = $\Delta E_{int} + \Delta E_{def}$). The interaction energy (ΔE_{int}) is the energy released when the two free deformed fragments are brought to the position that they have in the joint complex between both moieties, whereas the deformation energy $(\Delta \bar{E}_{
m def})$ is the energy needed to modify the geometry of the ground state free fragments to attain the geometry that they have together. Next, in a second decomposable level ΔE_{int} can be split into electrostatic, Pauli repulsion, and orbital interaction terms ($\Delta E_{int} = \Delta E_{elstat} + \Delta E_{Pauli} +$ $\Delta E_{
m oi}$). The attractive term $\Delta E_{
m elstat}$ corresponds to the classical electrostatic interaction between the unperturbed charge distributions of the prepared fragments. The also attractive orbital interaction term, ΔE_{oit} accounts for charge transfer and polarization, while the repulsive Pauli term, ΔE_{Pauli} , comprises the destabilizing interactions between occupied orbitals and is responsible for the steric repulsion. In the present study, we will focus on an analysis of values derived from ΔE_{oi}

All calculations were carried out through the facilities provided by the Amsterdam Density Functional (ADF) modeling suite package (revision 2016.102).

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Ruthenium–Phosphine Bond. The calculated magnetic shielding of the P atom in the 20 complexes of Figure 1 spans a window of 21.9 ppm, with the complexes **CAAC3** and **I'Pr^{Me}** presenting the highest and lowest calculated ³¹P magnetic shielding (349.8 vs 327.9 ppm, respectively). This narrow range is somewhat surprising, despite the fact that the considered N-heterocyclic carbenes (NHC) are remarkably different in terms of both steric and electronic properties. In detail, unsaturated imidazol-2-ylidenes bearing secondary alkyl N substituents exhibit the lowest DFT calculated ³¹P magnetic shielding (328–334 ppm), followed by unsaturated N,N'-diarylimidazol-2-ylidenes and one example of a saturated N,N'-dialkyl-4,5-dihydroimidazol-2-ylidene (335–338 ppm). Triazoles also appear in the same region. On the other hand,

saturated *N*,*N'*-diaryl species exhibit higher σ ⁽³¹P) values (339–341 ppm). Interestingly, **CAAC** complexes exhibit the highest ³¹P magnetic shielding (346–350 ppm).

Decomposition of the total isotropic magnetic shielding into paramagnetic and diamagnetic terms (plus spin–orbit),³⁵ $\sigma = \sigma_p + \sigma_d (+\sigma_{SO})$, indicates that the main variable is the paramagnetic shielding term, σ_p , which varies over a range of 22 ppm, while the diamagnetic shielding term σ_d covers a range of only 2 ppm (see Table S1 in the Supporting Information). This observation is consistent with our recent findings for selenoureas and phosphinidine adducts.²⁰

We start the analysis by examining the correlation between the ^{31}P magnetic shielding and one of the most trivial geometrical parameters in these complexes, the Ru–PCy₃ distance. As shown in Figure 2, an excellent correlation (R^2

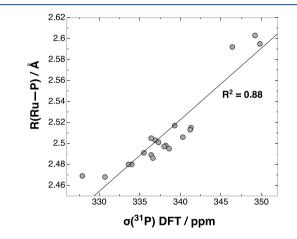


Figure 2. Calculated ³¹P magnetic shielding, σ (³¹P), vs the distance between the Ru and P atoms, *R*(Ru–P), in the ruthenium complexes shown in Figure 1.

= 0.88) is obtained, with higher magnetic shielding corresponding to longer Ru–PCy₃ distances. A point worth mentioning here is that, similarly to the calculated magnetic shielding of the P atom, Ru–PCy₃ distances also span a rather small window of about 0.12 Å.³⁶ On the other hand, we did not find any reasonable correlation between the Ru–PCy₃ and the Ru–NHC distances and, consequently, between the Ru–NHC distance and the calculated ³¹P shielding, with R^2 values of 0.59 and 0.53, respectively (see Figure S1 in the Supporting Information).

The calculated R(Ru-P) and R(Ru-C) distances can be good indicators of the corresponding bond strengths. Therefore, we estimated the Ru-PCy₃ and Ru-NHC bond energies as the ligand dissociation energies (ΔE_L , where L = PCy₃, NHC), i.e., the difference in potential energies of the optimized geometries of products and reactants, as shown in eqs 1 and 2:

$$\Delta E_{PCy3} = (E_{[NHC-Ru(CH2)(Cl)2]} + E_{PCy3}) - (E_{[NHC-Ru(CH2)(Cl)2-PCy3]})$$
(1)

$$\Delta E_{\rm NHC} = (E_{\rm [Ru(CH2)(Cl)2-PCy3]} + E_{\rm NHC}) - (E_{\rm [NHC-Ru(CH2)(Cl)2-PCy3]})$$
(2)

For the 20 ruthenium adducts studied, in a plot of the calculated ΔE_{PCv3} vs R(Ru-P), a strong correlation (R^2 =

0.86) is gratifyingly achieved (Figure 3). In contrast, no correlation ($R^2 = 0.09$) was observed for the calculated ΔE_{NHC}

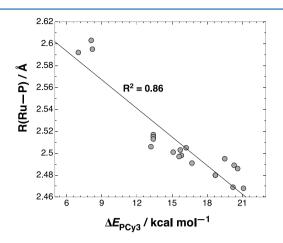


Figure 3. Interatomic distance between the Ru and P atoms, R(Ru-P), vs. calculated Ru-PCy₃ dissociation energies, ΔE_{PCy3} , in the ruthenium complexes shown in Figure 1.

vs R(Ru-C) (Figure S2 in the Supporting Information). This observation can be attributed to the fact that different NHCs presented in the considered ruthenium adducts possess different steric and electronic properties, which strongly influence the coordination of NHC to the Ru metal and thus the strength of the Ru–NHC bond.

At this point, a bond energy decomposition analysis (EDA) of the considered ruthenium adducts, rigidly fragmented into the $[Ru(=CH_2)(NHC)][Cl]_2$ and PCy₃ moieties and the $[Ru(=CH_2)(PCy_3)][Cl]_2$ and NHC moieties, was performed to unravel the nature of the Ru-PCy₃ and Ru-NHC bonds, with the main focus on the extent of π back-donation from a filled Ru d_z orbital to the empty PCy₃ or NHC π^* orbital. To this end, the geometries of all the complexes were reoptimized under the constraint of C_s symmetry, with the NHC ring lying in the σ_{rr} plane. This allows the orbital interaction energy contribution of the A' and A'' irreducible representations to be associated with the σ and π Ru-PCy₃ and Ru-NHC bonds $(E_{\sigma} \text{ and } E_{\pi})$, respectively. Focusing on the nature of the Ru– PCy_3 bond in Figure 4a, we found an excellent correlation (R^2 = 0.93) between $E_{\sigma}(\text{PCy}_3 \rightarrow \text{Ru})$ and $E_{\pi}(\text{Ru-PCy}_3)$, indicating that a stronger Ru–PCy₃ σ bond means a stronger Ru–PCy₃ π bond. On the other hand, for the Ru-NHC bond, in Figure 4b correlating $E_{\sigma}(\text{NHC} \rightarrow \text{Ru})$ vs $E_{\pi}(\text{Ru} \rightarrow \text{NHC})$ there was a poor correlation ($R^2 = 0.23$), which is in line with our earlier findings for selenoureas and phosphinidine adducts.²⁰ Additionally, we observed an excellent correlation $(R^2 = 0.94)$ between $E_{\pi}(\text{Ru} \rightarrow \text{PCy}_3)$ and the calculated ³¹P magnetic shielding (see Figure S3 in the Supporting Information).

With these insights into the nature of the Ru-PCy₃ and the Ru-NHC bonds in hand, we then explored the mode of communication between PCy₃ and NHC ligands interconnected *via* the Ru metal. Figure 5 shows those orbitals of each moiety involved in the σ and π bonding of the Ru-PCy₃ and Ru-NHC bonds. Then, we searched for a correlation between the estimated E_{σ} and E_{π} of Ru-PCy₃ and Ru-NHC bonds (Figure 6); a strong correlation ($R^2 = 0.91$) was observed between $E_{\pi}(\text{Ru} \rightarrow \text{NHC})$ and $E_{\pi}(\text{Ru} \rightarrow \text{PCy}_3)$ (Figure 5a), whereas a poor correlation ($R^2 = 0.47$) was found between $E_{\sigma}(\text{NHC} \rightarrow \text{Ru})$ and $E_{\sigma}(\text{PCy}_3 \rightarrow \text{Ru})$ (Figure 5b). Taking these observations together, we hypothesize that PCy₃ and

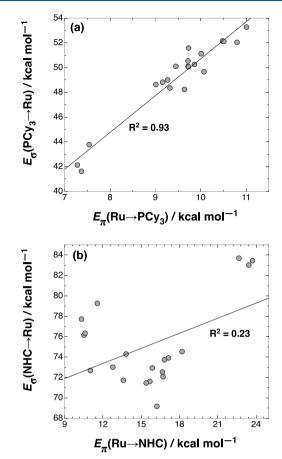


Figure 4. (a) $E_{\sigma}(\text{PCy}_3 \to \text{Ru})$ vs E_{π} (Ru \to PCy₃) for the Ru–PCy₃ bond and (b) $E_{\sigma}(\text{NHC} \to \text{Ru})$ vs E_{π} (Ru \to NHC) for the Ru–NHC bond in the ruthenium complexes shown in Figure 1.

NHC ligands in the considered ruthenium adducts communicate through π bonding: i.e., the weaker the Ru–PCy₃ π bond, the stronger the Ru–NHC π -bond and *vice versa*. In other words, when there is less π electron density available for PCy₃, the NHC is more π accepting, and thus the Ru–PCy₃ bond is weaker.

For example, among the 20 studied ruthenium adducts, complexes CAAC1-3 presented the highest E_{π} for the Ru-NHC bond (22.7–23.7 kcal mol⁻¹) and thus the lowest E_{π} for the Ru-PCy₃ bond (7.3–7.5 kcal mol⁻¹). On the other hand, $I^{i}Pr^{Me}$ presented the lowest E_{π} for the Ru–NHC bond (10.3 kcal mol^{-1}) and the highest E_{π} for the Ru–PCy₃ bond (11.0 kcal mol^{-1}). As an end result, in support of our hypothesis, complexes CAAC1-3 presented weaker Ru-PCy₃ bonds $(\Delta E_{PCy3} = 7.0 - 8.2 \text{ kcal mol}^{-1})$, while $I^{i}Pr^{Me}$ presented a stronger Ru-PCy₃ bond ($\Delta E_{PCy3} = 20.2$ kcal mol⁻¹). Additionally, as further evidence for our hypothesis, in the studied 20 ruthenium adducts we observed a reasonably good correlation ($R^2 = 0.82$) between $E_{\pi}(Ru \rightarrow PCy_3)$ and ΔE_{PCy_3} and an excellent correlation $(R^2 = 0.86)$ between $E_{\pi}(Ru \rightarrow$ PCy_3) and R(Ru-P) bond lengths, suggesting that the R(Ru-P)P) distances are indeed indicative of the amount of Ru to PCy_3 back-donation, which in turn determines the lability of the PCy₃ ligand (see Figure S4 in the Supporting Information).

As additional remarks, for the cases of ruthenium adducts **IMes**, **SIMes**, **IPr**, and **SIPr**, it is possible to do a comparison among the different NHCs and their influence on the corresponding Ru–PCy₃ bond strength, ΔE_{PCy3} . At first, it is

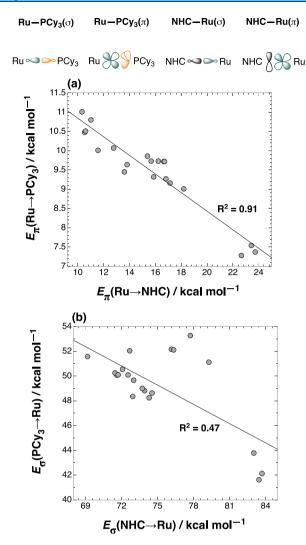


Figure 5. (a) $E_{\pi}(\text{Ru} \rightarrow \text{NHC})$ vs $E_{\pi}(\text{Ru} \rightarrow \text{PCy}_3)$ and (b) $E_{\sigma}(\text{NHC} \rightarrow \text{Ru})$ vs $E_{\sigma}(\text{PCy}_3 \rightarrow \text{Ru})$ in the ruthenium complexes shown in Figure 1.

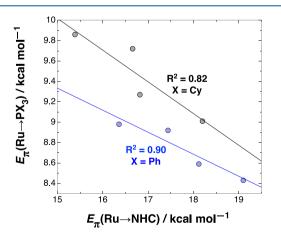


Figure 6. Calculated $E_{\pi}(\text{Ru} \rightarrow \text{NHC})$ vs $E_{\pi}(\text{Ru} \rightarrow \text{PX}_3)$, where X = Cy (black) or Ph (blue), for the ruthenium adducts **IMes, SIMes, IPr**, and **SIPr**.

evident from Table 1 that the calculated R(Ru-P) distances are slightly shorter in the case of unsaturated NHCs than in the saturated NHCs. This observed trend in bond lengths is in turn reflected in the estimated PCy₃ dissociation energies, $\Delta E_{\rm PCy3}$, as the Ru–PCy₃ bond is stronger (~2 kcal mol⁻¹) in the case of unsaturated NHCs than in the saturated NHCs.³⁷ As pointed out in our EDA discussion, the differential strength of the Ru–PCy₃ bonds can be explained from an orbital interaction standpoint. According to EDA, the sum of E_{σ} and E_{π} of Ru–PCy₃ bonds ($E_{\rm sum}$) for unsaturated NHCs (~60 kcal mol⁻¹) is around 2 kcal mol⁻¹ larger than for saturated NHCs (~58 kcal mol⁻¹).

Next, for ruthenium adducts **IMes**, **SIMes**, **IPr**, and **SIPr**, we substituted PCy₃ by PPh₃ and investigated the corresponding Ru–PPh₃ bond strength, ΔE_{PPh3} , and $E_{\pi}(Ru \rightarrow PPh_3)$. The calculated ΔE_{PPh3} values (21.0–23.0 kcal mol⁻¹) are around 7.0 kcal mol⁻¹ higher in energy than the corresponding ΔE_{PCy3} values (13.5–16.0 kcal mol⁻¹). In case of Ru–PCy₃- and Ru–PPh₃-containing adducts, we observed a strong correlation ($R^2 = 0.90$) between the calculated ruthenium and P bond dissociation energies and R(Ru-P) distances. Additionally, similarly to Ru–PCy₃ adducts, a strong correlation ($R^2 = 0.90$) was observed between $E_{\pi}(Ru \rightarrow NHC)$ and $E_{\pi}(Ru \rightarrow PPh_3)$ in the four considered Ru–PPh₃ adducts (Figure 6).

Ruthenium=Ylidene Bond. In order to elucidate the bonding and NMR properties of the Ru=ylidene bond for the set of 17 $[Ru(=CHR)(NHC)_x(PCy_3)_{2-x}][Cl]_2$ first (x = 0)and second-generation (x = 1) complexes (see Figure 7), our DFT results indicate that the calculated magnetic shielding of the carbene C atom spans a window of 92.8 ppm, complexes PCy_3 -a (R = CHEt) and PCy_3 -g (carbazole derivative) being the ones with the lowest and highest calculated ¹³C magnetic shielding (-139.4 vs - 46.7 ppm, respectively). Further, their experimental chemical shifts have been compared with the calculated shifts, giving an excellent correlation ($R^2 = 0.97$). This is also added to the fact that the slope and y-intercept variables from the correlation are close to 1 and 0, respectively, which validates the methodology employed by us (including relativistic spin-orbit effects) and provides an almost exact correspondence between the observed and calculated ¹³C magnetic shieldings. Furthermore, comparison of the DFT vs experimental ¹H chemical shifts in this selected set of 17 complexes containing the CHR ylidene motif also exhibits a very good correlation ($R^2 = 0.93$), with the complex **IMes-e** (R = CHPh) being somewhat out of the trend (see Figure 8 and Figure S7 in the Supporting Information).

As was also observed for the Ru–PCy₃ and Ru–NHC bonds, the main term contributing to the $\sigma(^{13}C)$ of ylidene C in the Ru=ylidene bond is due to the paramagnetic term, σ_{p} , spanning a range of 85.7 ppm (diamagnetic and spin–orbit terms exhibit minor contributions).

Since changes in the paramagnetic shielding are due to occupied-occupied but mainly to occupied-virtual molecular orbital (MO) transitions, Figure 9 rationalizes the most important of these for a simple $[Ru(=CH_2)(NHC)(PMe_3)]$ - $[Cl]_2$ model, with NHC = 2,3-dihydro-1*H*-imidazole. As can be seen, optimization under the constraint of C_s symmetry, with the NHC ring lying in the σ_{xy} plane, indicates that for this system $\sigma(^{13}C) = -113.9$ ppm and $\sigma_p(^{13}C) = -364.5$ ppm. Paramagnetic shielding tensors reveal that the main contributions for $\sigma_n(^{13}C)$ come from MO transitions projected along the Ox (occupied) and Oy (virtual) axes, with a shielding answer along the Oz axis: $\sigma_{p,zz}(^{13}C) = -711.8$ ppm. This corresponds with the transition between the occupied σ Ru= C bond to the empty π_{\parallel}^* Ru=C bond, contributing with a total of -69.4 ppm and an energy gap, $\Delta \varepsilon$, of 6.0 eV. In addition, a smaller but also significant contribution comes from pubs.acs.org/Organometallics

complex	R(Ru-P)/Å	$\Delta E_{\rm PCy3}/\rm kcal\ mol^{-1}$	$E_{\sigma}(\mathrm{PCy}_{3} \rightarrow \mathrm{Ru})/\mathrm{kcal} \mathrm{mol}^{-1}$	$E_{\pi}(\mathrm{Ru} \rightarrow \mathrm{PCy}_3)/\mathrm{kcal} \mathrm{mol}^{-1}$
IMes	2.503	15.7	50.1	9.7
IPr	2.497	15.6	50.3	9.9
SIMes	2.517	13.4	48.6	9.0
SIPr	2.513	13.4	49.0	9.3
		4		

Table 1. Comparison of Bonding Properties in Ruthenium Adducts IMes, IPr, SIMes, and SIPr

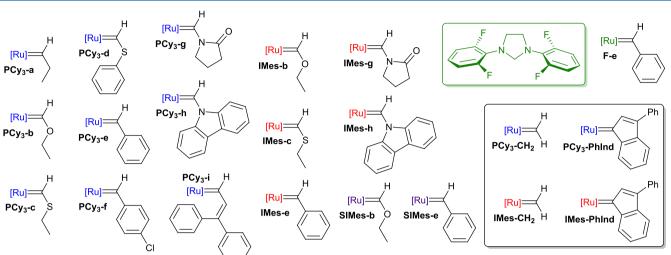


Figure 7. Set of 17 $[Ru(=CHR)(NHC)_x(PCy_3)_{2-x}][Cl_2]$ first (x = 0)- and second-generation (x = 1) adducts considered in the second part of this study. [Ru] moieties refer to $[Ru(PCy_3)_2][Cl]_2$ (blue), $[Ru(IMes)(PCy_3)][Cl]_2$ (red), $[Ru(SIMes)(PCy_3)][Cl]_2$ (purple), and $\{Ru[1,3-bis(2,6-difluorophenyl))$ imidazolidine] (PCy_3) }[Cl]_2 (green). The nomenclature is consistent with these [Ru] moieties. The first- and second-generation (NHC = IMes) complexes for methylene and phenyl-indenylidene are also included: PCy₃-CH₂, PCy₃-PhInd, IMes-CH₂, and IMes-PhInd.

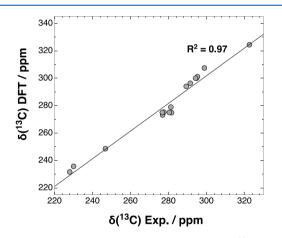
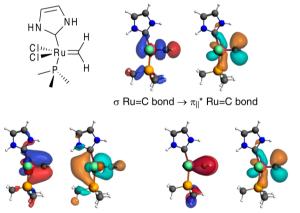


Figure 8. Comparison of experimental vs calculated ¹³C chemical shifts for the complexes in Figure 7 containing the ==CHR motif, using tetramethylsilane (TMS) as reference: $\delta = \sigma_{ref} - \sigma$.

a transition from the filled π_{\parallel} Ru=C bond to the virtual σ^* Ru=C bond, participating with -14.5 ppm and an energy gap of 5.0 eV.

A complete analysis requires the elucidation of the main MOs transitions that respond to the changes occurring in the shielding answer along the Ox axis, since $\sigma_{p,xx}(^{13}C) = -315.0$ ppm. In this case, a π_{\perp} Ru=C bond $\rightarrow \pi_{\parallel}^*$ Ru=C bond transition is showed as the main transition explaining $\sigma_{p,xx}(^{13}C)$, contributing with -10.3 ppm and an energy gap of 7.8 eV. Finally, the very low value of $\sigma_{p,yy}(^{13}C) = -66.6$ ppm suggests practically no participation of MOs projected along the Ox and Oz axes.



Article

 $\pi_{II} \operatorname{Ru=C} \text{ bond} \to \sigma^* \operatorname{Ru=C} \text{ bond} \qquad \pi_{\bot} \operatorname{Ru=C} \text{ bond} \to \pi_{II}^* \operatorname{Ru=C} \text{ bond}$

Figure 9. The most significant MO transitions explaining σ_p for the simplest $[Ru(=CH_2)(NHC)(PMe_3)][Cl]_2$ model, NHC = 2,3-dihydro-1*H*-imidazole.

When we focus on the main σ Ru=C bond $\rightarrow \pi_{\parallel}^*$ Ru=C bond transition for the set of 17 Ru adducts shown at Figure 7 plus the first- and second-generation (NHC = IMes) complexes for methylene and phenyl-indenylidene, there is a clear relationship between the energy gap of the MOs involved in such transitions and the calculated ¹³C magnetic shielding. This reveals the dominant role that they play, exhibiting that the smaller the $\Delta\varepsilon$, the stronger the coupling (deshielded) and *vice versa*. Interestingly, similar adducts that are only differentiated by the presence of two PCy₃ ligands (first generation) or one PCy₃ and one NHC ligand (second generation) present close values of both $\Delta\varepsilon$ and $\sigma(^{13}C)$, showing that there is a minor influence of such ligands in the NMR response of the ylidene C atom.³⁸ In addition to this, ¹³C magnetic shieldings can be grouped on the basis of the nature of the alkylidine group; thus ylidene C atoms directly attached to aromatic C atoms are less shielded than those in which these atoms are bonded to a chalcogen atom such as O or S, and these are less shielded than those directly bonded to a N atom, such as the carbazole and pyrrilidone derivatives. The energy of the empty MOs of the π_{\parallel} * Ru=C bond range 1.68 eV over the 21 adducts studied, while the occupied MOs of the σ Ru=C bond range 0.83 eV; thus a larger range of energy is spanned by the virtual MOs. Finally, when both first- and second-generation [Ru]=CH₂ and PCy₃-a complexes are excluded, a good correlation ($R^2 = 0.78$) can be seen, as shown in Figure 10.

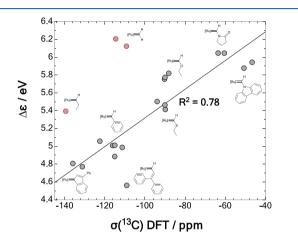


Figure 10. Comparison of energy gap, $\Delta \varepsilon$, vs the calculated ¹³C magnetic shielding, $\sigma(^{13}C)$, for the MOs involved in the σ Ru=C bond $\rightarrow \pi_{\parallel}^*$ Ru=C bond transition. Points in red are excluded from the regression analysis.

In support of these observations, EDA analyses also shed light on the nature of the Ru=ylidene bond and its relationship with $\sigma(^{13}C)$. For the 21 ruthenium adducts considered, rigidly fragmented into the [Ru-(NHC)_x(PCy₃)_{2-x}][Cl]₂ (x = 0, 1) and the CHR moieties (including [Ru]=CH₂ and [Ru]=PhInd complexes), it can be seen that the stronger the coupling (low field), the stronger the bond and *vice versa*, [Ru(NHC)_x(PCy₃)_{2-x}][Cl]₂ (x = 0, 1) moieties being triplet multiplicity fragments in all cases, while for CHR moieties the singlet vs triplet stability depends on the fragment. This relationship also exhibits a good correlation (R^2 = 0.89, excluding [Ru]=CH₂ and [Ru]=PhInd adducts), with shielding being grouped by alkylidenes and exhibiting a minor influence of the PCy₃ and NHC ligands (see Figure 11).

Previously described by us, calculated Ru–PCy₃ and Ru– NHC bond lengths were found to be good indicators of the corresponding bond strengths. For the case of the Ru=ylidene bond, it is observed that the calculated Ru=C distances also correlate with calculated ¹³C magnetic shielding, showing two different correlation behaviors: either those adducts in which the carbene C atom is directly attached to another C atom (aromatic or not) presents $R^2 = 0.93$, with the two [Ru]= PhInd complexes (**PCy₃-PhInd** and **IMes-PhInd**) excluded from this correlation (see Figure 12) or for those cases in which the ylidene C atom is bonded with another heteroatom (O, S, N) or for the two [Ru]=CH₂ complexes (**PCy₃-CH₂**

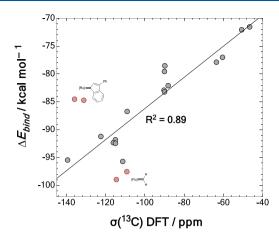


Figure 11. Comparison of the binding energy, ΔE_{bind} , vs the calculated ¹³C magnetic shielding, $\sigma(^{13}\text{C})$, of the [Ru] and ==CHR ylidene fragments. Points in red are excluded from the regression analysis.

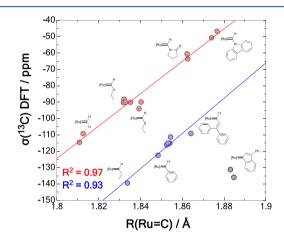


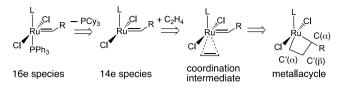
Figure 12. Comparison of the calculated ¹³C magnetic shielding, $\sigma(^{13}C)$, vs R(Ru=C) bond length. Two correlation behaviors are seen: for those adducts in which carbene C atom is directly attached to another C atom (aromatic or not, blue) and those in which it is bonded with a different heteroatom (red). Points in violet are excluded from the regression analysis.

and **IMes-CH**₂), a very good correlation is also obtained ($R^2 = 0.97$). On the basis of these two groups, it is seen that a lower field means stronger and shorter Ru=C bonds. However, it is worth mentioning that, for a given Ru=C distance, $\sigma(^{13}C)$ for the Ru=C-C motif is more deshielded than for the case of Ru=C-X (X = O, S, N).

Once the basis of the connectivity between the NMR shielding of the ylidene C atom with the orbital, bonding, and structural properties of the Ru=ylidene bond in the $[Ru(= CHR)(NHC)_x(PCy_3)_{2-x}][Cl]_2$ (x = 0, 1) 16e species is elucidated, an extension of our DFT findings to the initialization process of olefin metathesis establishes some interesting relations.

First of all, Scheme 2 gathers the general mechanism for the formation of the metallacycle compound from the 16e species, passing through PCy₃ dissociation (leading to the so-called 14e species) and through the insertion of one ethylene molecule (coordination intermediate). The metallacycle compound is characterized to have a four-membered ring constituted by the Ru metal, the former ylidene C atom, one $C(\alpha)$, and $C'(\alpha)$ and $C'(\beta)$ from C_2H_4 .

Scheme 2. General Mechanism for the Formation of the Metallacycle Compound from the 16e Species



In contrast to what has been recently observed by Gordon et al.³⁹ in some transition-metal olefin metathesis catalyst complexes, it seems that $\sigma[^{13}C(\alpha)]$ in the metallacycle does not retain some of the alkylidene character (Figure 13a).

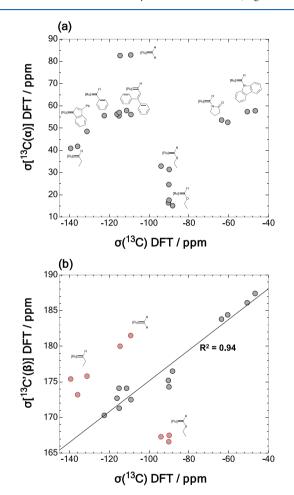


Figure 13. (a) Comparison of calculated ¹³C magnetic shielding for $C(\alpha)$ in the metallacycle and the carbene C in the 16e species. Groups of points are clustered by colors. (b) Comparison of calculated ¹³C magnetic shielding for $C'(\beta)$ in the metallacycle and the carbene C in the 16e species. Points in red are excluded from the regression analysis.

Although our work is focused on complexes using the same metal but different bonding environments by modifying the ylidene moiety, we do not observe any trend allowing the correlation of σ [¹³C(α)] before and after cyclization. Indeed, what is observed is that σ [¹³C(α)], ranging in a shielding window of ca. 50 ppm, is distributed by groups, highlighting the importance of the atoms directly bonded to C(α). However, surprising information can be extracted from Figure 13b, in which with the exception of some complexes such as PCy₃-CH₂, IMes-CH₂, PCy₃-PhInd, and IMes-PhInd and

complexes with sulfur-containing ylidenes a good correlation can be seen ($R^2 = 0.94$) for $\sigma[{}^{13}C'(\beta)]$ in the metallacycle and $\sigma({}^{13}C)$ in the 16e species. However, does this relationship mean that $C'(\beta)$ has the capacity to retain the information from the precatalyst? An additional comparison between $\sigma[{}^{13}C'(\beta)]$ and $\sigma({}^{13}C)$ in the isolated $C'(\beta)H_2=C(\alpha)HR$ alkenes demonstrates that this correlation does not come from the entering olefin, which points to validation of our hypothesis.

In this sense, the very low window of $\sigma[{}^{13}C'(\beta)]$ (ca. 20 ppm) as well as the large number of MO transitions contributing to $\sigma_p[{}^{13}C'(\beta)]$ does not allow us to establish a clear correlation as we did in Figure 10 between $\Delta \varepsilon$ and $\sigma[{}^{13}C'(\beta)]$. However, it seems that the nature of this shielding covers σ C–H bond to π^* C–H bond transitions mainly involving C(α) and C'(β) atoms with p orbitals from X at C'(β)–C(α)–X playing some role in the up- or downfield shielding of $\sigma[{}^{13}C'(\beta)]$.

CONCLUSIONS

In summary, using DFT calculations we have investigated the electronic nature of Ru–PCy₃ and the Ru–NHC bonds, probing a possible mode of communication between the PCy₃ and NHC ligands for a set of 20 [Ru(=CH₂)(NHC)(PCy₃)]-[Cl]₂ adducts. Phosphorus NMR shielding derived from calculations correlated well ($R^2 = 0.87$) with the calculated R(Ru-P) bond lengths. The latter was strongly correlated ($R^2 = 0.86$) with the calculated PCy₃ ligand dissociation energies, indicating that the calculated bond lengths are good indicators of the corresponding bond strengths. However, this explanation does not hold for the Ru–NHC bond, as no correlation ($R^2 = 0.09$) was observed between R(Ru–NHC) bond lengths and NHC ligand dissociation energies.

Bond energy decomposition analysis (EDA) indicated a strong correlation ($R^2 = 0.93$) between σ and π orbital interaction energies for the Ru–PCy₃ bond, while a poor correlation ($R^2 = 0.23$) for the Ru–NHC bond was seen. Additionally, we observed an excellent correlation ($R^2 = 0.91$) between π orbital interaction energies of the Ru–PCy₃ and the Ru–NHC bonds, suggesting that both ligands communicate through π -bonding: i.e., a stronger Ru–NHC π bond means a weaker Ru–PCy₃ π bond and *vice versa*. Furthermore, π orbital interaction energies of the PCy₃ ligand were found to be strongly correlated to ΔE_{PCy3} ($R^2 = 0.92$), as well as to the R(Ru-P) bond lengths ($R^2 = 0.95$). These observations indeed reflect the importance of Ru to PCy₃ back-donation, which in turn is regulated by the π -accepting ability of NHCs, in determining the lability of the PCy₃ ligand for the 20 studied ruthenium adducts.

Furthermore, for the set of 17 $[Ru(=CHR)-(NHC)_x(PCy_3)_{2-x}][Cl]_2$ first (x = 0)- and second-generation (x = 1) complexes, our DFT findings hypothesize that changes occurring in the ¹³C NMR shielding of the Ru=ylidene bond are mainly due to $\sigma(Ru=C) \rightarrow \pi^*(Ru=C)$ molecular orbital (MO) transitions. In this regard, $\sigma(^{13}C)$ for carbene C of the ylidene moiety correlates with the energy gap of the MOs involved in the aforementioned transition, with the binding energy between the alkylidene and the rest of the Ru fragment, and with the R(Ru=C) bond lengths.

Finally, novel preliminary results shown by us also hypothesize that, during the initial stage of the olefin metathesis reaction, ${}^{13}C'(\beta)$ NMR shielding from the metallacycle compound retains the NMR information from the

 $\sigma(^{13}C)$ in the 16e species, although it surprisingly does not with the $^{13}C(\alpha)$ NMR shielding, $C(\alpha)$ being the former carbene C form the ylidene moiety.

ASSOCIATED CONTENT

Supporting Information

The Supporting Information is available free of charge at https://pubs.acs.org/doi/10.1021/acs.organomet.0c00536.

Extended computational data (PDF) Cartesian coordinates (XYZ)

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Author Contributions

The manuscript was written through contributions of all authors. All authors have given approval to the final version of the manuscript.

Notes

The authors declare no competing financial interest.

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