

Photodriven Ammonia Synthesis from Manganese Nitrides: Photo- physics and Mechanistic Investigations

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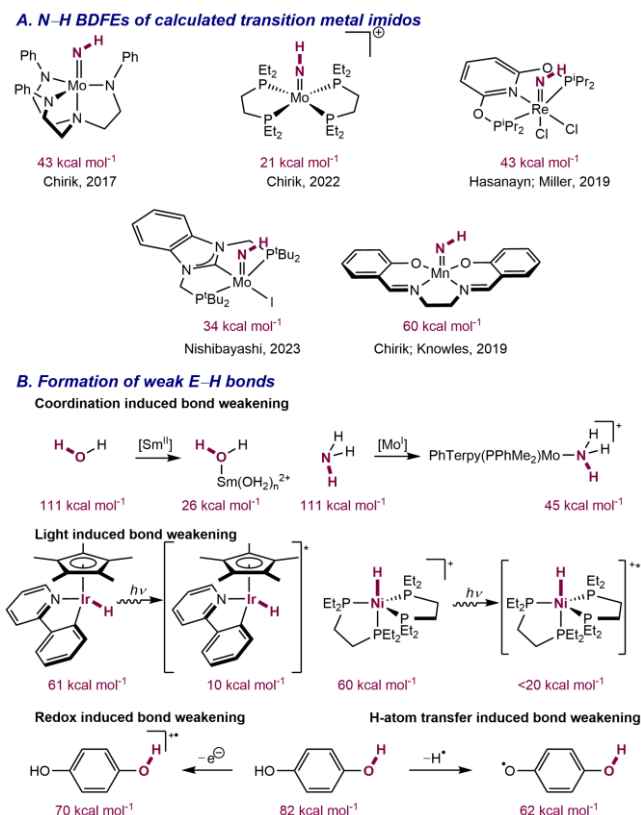
ABSTRACT: Ammonia synthesis from N,N,O,O-supported manganese (V) nitrides and 9,10-dihydroacridine using proton-coupled electron transfer and visible light irradiation in the absence of a precious metal photocatalyst is described. While the reactivity of the nitride correlated with increased absorption of blue light, excited-state lifetimes determined by transient absorption were on the order of picoseconds. This eliminated excited state manganese nitrides as responsible for bimolecular N–H bond formation. Spectroscopic measurements on the hydrogen source, dihydroacridine, demonstrated that photooxidation of 9,10-dihydroacridine was necessary for productive ammonia synthesis. The transient absorption and pulse radiolysis data for dihydroacridine provided evidence for the presence of intermediates with weak E–H bonds, including the dihydroacridinium radical cation and both isomers of monohydroacridine radical. Additional optimization of the reaction conditions using catalytic amounts of acridine, resulted in higher rates of the ammonia production from the manganese(V) nitrides due to introduction of a photooxidant.

INTRODUCTION

Metal nitrides are of broad interest due to applications in materials science and coordination chemistry.¹ Notably, terminal transition metal nitrides serve as the nitrogen source in both atom transfer and ammonia synthesis chemistry.² However, the thermodynamic stability of most isolable metal nitrides results in *weak* N–H bonds in the corresponding imido complexes.³ One approach to overcoming this energetic limitation is the use of separate proton and electron sources that by formation of stoichiometric byproducts incur large chemical overpotentials.^{3c,4}

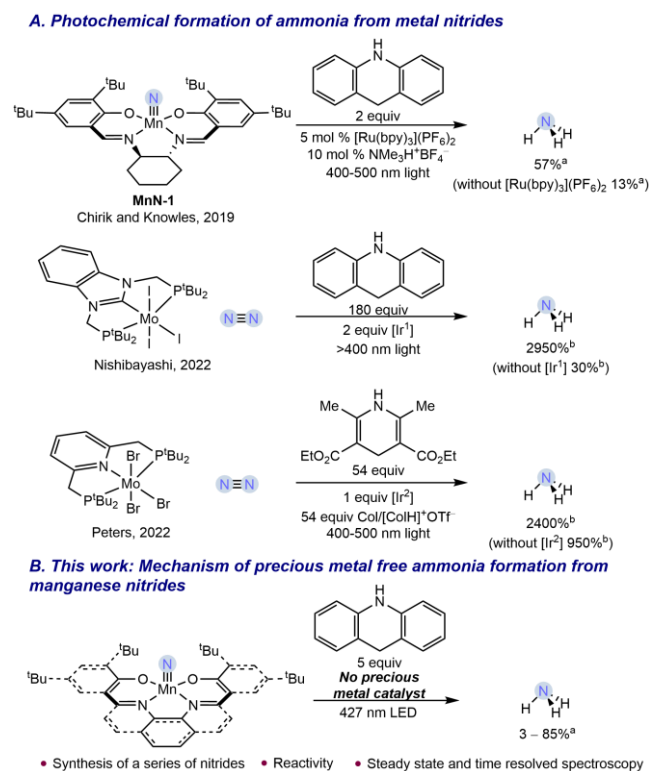
Alternatively, molecules containing weak element-hydrogen (E–H) bonds are attractive for forming N–H bonds from thermodynamically stable metal nitrides. Those with BDFEs less than 50 kcal mol⁻¹ are of particular interest to promote additional chemistry.⁵ Various alternative approaches have been explored to activate molecules to reduce BDFEs and enable productive H-atom transfer chemistry. Strategies include coordination to a metal (coordination-induced bond weakening), photon absorption, redox chemistry or H-atom transfer events (Scheme 1b).^{5b,6} While irradiation with visible light has been posited, photoredox methods have dominated as an effective strategy for generating reactive intermediates with low effective BDFEs.⁷ These approaches have been used extensively for the formation and cleavage of E–H bonds through proton-coupled electron transfer (PCET) with implications in biochemistry and organic chemistry and activation of metal-ligand multiple bonds.⁵

Scheme 1. Metal nitrides and the production of weak E–H bonds either by coordination, redox, light absorption or H-atom transfer events.



The application of photoinduced PCET to generate weak E–H bonds for subsequent N–H bond formation with metal nitrides has been demonstrated as a distinct route for ammonia synthesis (Scheme 2A).^{3c} Blue light irradiation of salen-supported manganese nitrides in the presence of a ruthenium photocatalyst, acid and 9,10-dihydroacridine (H₂Acr) as the terminal reductant was effective for ammonia synthesis.^{6g,8} Related work by Nishibayashi and coworkers demonstrated catalytic ammonia synthesis using a PCP pincer molybdenum complex, an iridium photocatalyst, and H₂Acr.⁹ Peters and coworkers have also applied this approach to catalytic ammonia synthesis using a PNP pincer molybdenum complex, an iridium photocatalyst, and a Hantzsch ester as the stoichiometric H-atom source.¹⁰ In all of the reported examples, ammonia formation was observed, albeit in significantly lower yields in the absence of the precious metal photocatalyst. These observations raise questions as to the nature of the photoactive compound in solution responsible for N–H bond formation. Despite extensive photophysical measurements on terminal metal oxides¹¹ and metal alkylidynes,¹² related studies on the photophysics of metal nitrides are comparatively rare and principally focused on luminescence.¹³

Scheme 2. Photocatalytic production of ammonia using metal nitrides



A. Previous examples of photo-induced formation of ammonia. Examples are shown with and without photocatalyst. ^aYield of ammonia reported versus added Mn species. ^bYield of ammonia reported versus added Mo species. [Ir¹] = [iridium bis(2-(2-pyridyl)phenyl)(4,4'-di-tert-butyl-2,2'-bipyridine) [SO₃CF₃]₂]; [Ir²] = [iridium bis(2-(4-trifluoromethyl-2-pyridyl)-3,5-difluoro-phenyl)(4,4'-di-tert-butyl-2,2'-bipyridine)][tetrakis(3,5-trifluoromethyl phenyl) borate]. **B. Mechanistic study and optimization of manganese-based precious metal free photo-ammonia production.**

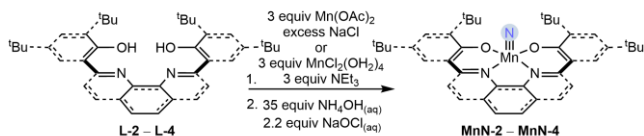
Here we describe the exploration of the origin and mechanism of light-driven ammonia formation from manganese nitrides in the absence of a precious metal photocatalyst (Scheme 2B). The synthesis and isolation of multiple manganese nitrides is reported and their ground state spectroscopy and electrochemical data are described. The BDFEs of previously proposed intermediates indicate that the formation of either the manganese (IV) imido or acridine radical are responsible for ammonia formation. Using transient absorption pump-probe spectroscopy, the lifetimes of salen-supported manganese nitrides were measured and determined to be significantly shorter than the required lifetime to engage in diffusion-based reaction chemistry. Instead, light absorption of acridine derivatives is responsible for the initiation of N–H bond formation and subsequent ammonia production.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

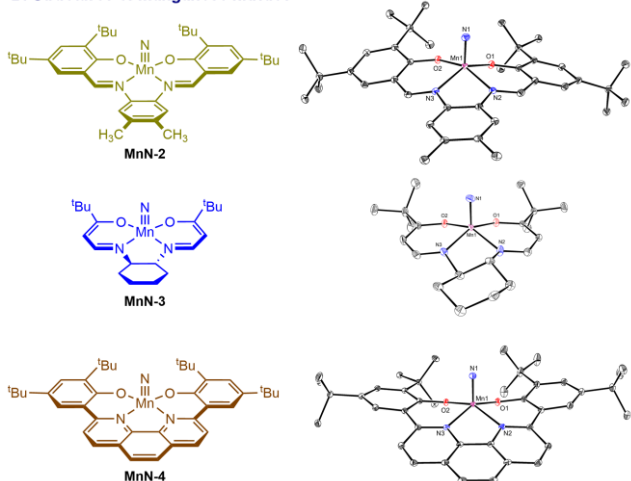
Synthesis and Spectroscopy of Manganese(V) Nitride Derivatives. One hypothesis for the photoproduction of ammonia in the absence of a precious metal photocatalyst relies on excitation of the manganese nitride by visible light to engage in subsequent N–H bond formation. Because only one example of a salen-supported manganese nitride (MnN-1) was examined for ammonia synthesis,^{6g,8} ligand modifications were explored to systematically evaluate the role of blue light absorption. Related acacen **L-3** was targeted to absorb shorter wavelength light with a lower extinction coefficient, while both salophen **L-2** and bis-phenoxypyrenanthroline **L-4** were expected to absorb light of higher wavelength with a higher molar extinction coefficient. The corresponding manganese nitrides were synthesized either by initial treatment of the proligand with an excess of Mn(OAc)₂·4(H₂O) followed by a quench with a saturated NaCl solution or treatment of the proligand with 3 equivalents of NEt₃ and 3 equivalents of MnCl₂(OH)₂ to obtain the putative manganese(III) chloride. In all three cases, these intermediates were used without further purification. The resulting brown solids were then treated first with an excess of NH₄OH at 0 °C in a methylene chloride/methanol mixture followed by dropwise addition of a solution of 8% w/w NaOCl_(aq). Each of the isolated manganese nitrides was characterized by X-ray diffraction and molecular geometries similar to MnN-1 were observed in all cases.¹⁴ The geometries of the pentacoordinate complexes are best described as idealized square pyramidal where the nitrogen atom occupies the apical position. The Mn–N distances in all four molecules range between 1.5192(6) and 1.530(4) Å and are statistically indistinguishable. Interrogation of the Mn–N stretching frequency by infrared spectroscopy produced values between 1049–1053 cm⁻¹ and is consistent with a strong metal-nitrogen triple bond for each member of the series (Figures S31–S32).

Scheme 3. Syntheses and Structures of MnN-2, MnN-3, and MnN-4.

A. General synthesis of manganese nitrides



B. Structures of manganese nitrides



Thermal ellipsoids are shown at 30% probability with hydrogen atoms removed for clarity.

While the IR and crystallographic data suggest little difference between the manganese nitrides, their electronic absorbance spectra are distinct. In THF solution, each compound exhibits a weak absorbance with a local λ_{max} between 600–645 nm with molar extinction coefficients ranging between 160–370 $\text{L}\cdot\text{mol}^{-1}\cdot\text{cm}^{-1}$ (Figure 1). However, the signal with the second lowest energy in the spectra varies greatly with the identity of the supporting ligand with λ_{max} ranging between 326–450 nm with molar extinction coefficients

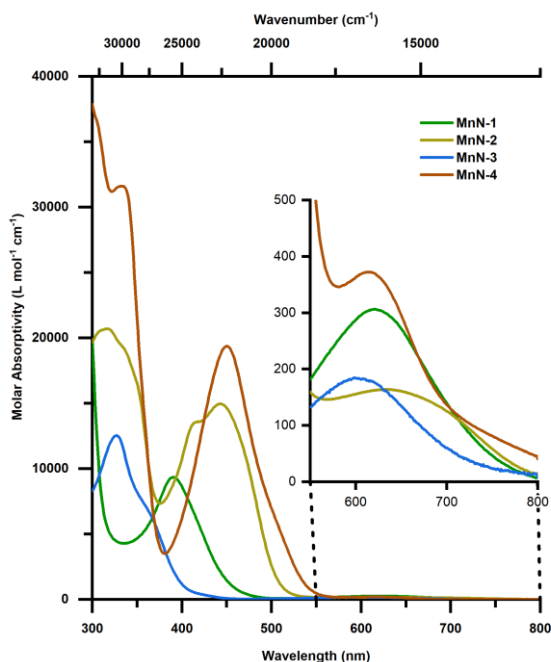


Figure 1. Electronic absorption spectra of manganese nitrides. The electronic absorption spectra in THF of the series of

manganese nitrides MnN-1–MnN-4. An inset of the peaks showing the d-d transitions is included.

between 9300–19400 $\text{L}\cdot\text{mol}^{-1}\cdot\text{cm}^{-1}$. These observations are consistent with previous reports by Gray and coworkers on similar salen-supported manganese(V) nitrides. The lowest energy absorption was assigned as principally a d-d transition, while the higher energy transition was attributed to intraligand charge transfer (ILCT) bands.¹⁵ These assignments are consistent with the observations herein, where the identity of the ligand has very little impact on the energy or intensity of the lower energy band, but the higher energy absorption is dependent on ligand identity. These results further demonstrate that the identity of the N,N,O,O-ligand does not have a major impact on the manganese–nitrogen interaction.

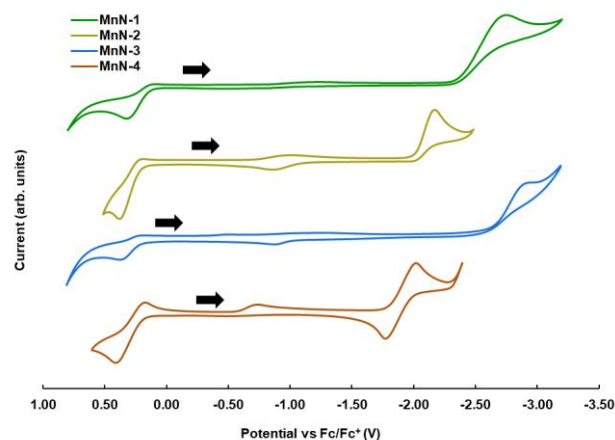


Figure 2. Cyclic voltammograms of manganese nitrides. Solvent: THF; electrolyte: 0.1 M $[\text{NBu}_4][\text{PF}_6]$; [analyte] = 0.001 M; $v = 100 \text{ mV/s}$; MnN-1 OCP = $-0.35 \text{ V vs. Fc/Fc}^+$; MnN-2 OCP = $-0.44 \text{ V vs. Fc/Fc}^+$; MnN-3 OCP = $-0.17 \text{ V vs. Fc/Fc}^+$; MnN-4 OCP = $-0.17 \text{ V vs. Fc/Fc}^+$. Arrow indicates direction of scan and open circuit potential. Signals between $-0.25 \text{ V vs. Fc/Fc}^+$ and $-1.25 \text{ V vs. Fc/Fc}^+$ are not observed in the initial scan.

To verify the impact of ligand identity on redox properties of the complex, electrochemical studies were performed. Each experiment was conducted in THF with $[\text{NBu}_4][\text{PF}_6]$ as the electrolyte (Figure 2). Analysis of the anodic sweep of the cyclic voltammograms (CV) reveals an irreversible peak between $E_{\text{pa}} = 0.35 \text{ V}$ versus Fc/Fc^+ and $E_{\text{pa}} = 0.41 \text{ V}$ versus Fc/Fc^+ for all four nitrides. These peaks are consistent with a nitride-centered oxidation, as reported previously.¹⁶ In the cathodic sweep MnN-1, MnN-2, and MnN-3 exhibited an irreversible feature at $E_{\text{pc}} = -2.71, -2.16,$ and -2.90 V versus Fc/Fc^+ respectively assigned as a reduction. MnN-4 instead showed a reversible reduction wave centered at $E_{1/2} = -1.88 \text{ V}$ versus Fc/Fc^+ . The breadth of the reduction potential supports a ligand-based redox event. This is consistent with the correlation between reduction potential and increased conjugation ($\text{MnN-3} < \text{MnN-1} < \text{MnN-2} < \text{MnN-4}$). Furthermore, while nearby electric fields,¹⁶ electron donating, and electron withdrawing groups^{15,17} have been reported to perturb the manganese nitride-based oxidation, the ligands used in this study produced only minor perturbations to this redox event. This observation is consistent with other spectroscopic data that support minimal perturbation of the manganese-nitride but major differences in the ligand-based properties. All nitrides

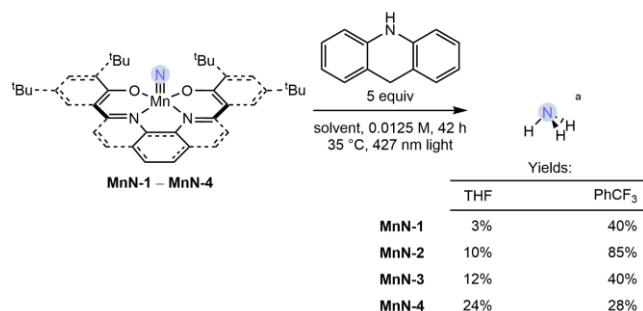
following either reduction or oxidation show additional peaks between -1.0 and -0.7 V versus Fc/Fc^+ that have been assigned as $\text{Mn(II)}/\text{Mn(III)}$ redox features from decomposition of the nitride.¹⁵ Initial scans with these peaks absent are reported in Figures S34–S37.

Reactivity of Manganese Nitride Derivatives. Having established that the electronic differences between the manganese nitrides are principally ligand centered, reactivity studies with these compounds were explored. Addition of five equivalents of H_2Acr to a THF solution of each manganese nitride followed by irradiation with 427 nm light under reduced pressure furnished acridine (Acr), ammonia, and a reduced, paramagnetic manganese byproduct. When these studies were conducted in THF, **MnN-4** produced the highest yield of ammonia at 24% yield relative to the manganese nitride (Scheme 4). Using α,α,α -trifluorotoluene (PhCF_3) as the solvent significantly increased the yield of ammonia across the series of manganese nitrides. Under these conditions, **MnN-2** proved the most efficient with an 85% yield of free ammonia. **MnN-4** rapidly resulted in a turbid mixture, likely due to the manganese byproduct being insoluble, which is expected to decrease light absorption.

Isotopic labeling studies were conducted to confirm the terminal metal nitride as the N-atom source in the observed NH_3 . The synthesis of the ^{15}N isotopologue, **Mn¹⁵N-2** was accomplished by using a mixture of $^{15}\text{NH}_4\text{Cl}$ and NaOH in the place of the NH_4OH solution. The ^1H NMR spectrum of **Mn¹⁵N-2** was indistinguishable from the natural abundance isotopologue. Notably a signal was observed at 1054 ppm in the ^{15}N NMR spectrum, diagnostic of a metal nitride (Figure S10). Additionally, the Mn–N stretching frequency of **Mn¹⁵N-2** exhibited a redshift to 1023 cm^{-1} , verifying the assignment of the Mn–N stretch (Figure S33). Irradiation of **Mn¹⁵N-2** under the standard reaction conditions produced $^{15}\text{NH}_3$ exclusively as judged by observation of a doublet rather than a 1:1:1 triplet in the $\text{DMSO-}d_6$ ^1H NMR spectrum (Figure S1). To support H_2Acr as the hydrogen source in ammonia synthesis, 9,10-dihydro-9,10-*d*-2-acridine-9-*d* ($\text{H}_2\text{Acr-}d_3$) was used and the free ammonia generated from the photodriven reaction was analyzed by trapping as $(\text{ND}_{3-x}\text{H}_x)\text{BH}_3$. The isotopic composition of reaction between ammonia and BH_3 furnished both the ammonia borane adduct $(\text{ND}_{3-x}\text{H}_x)\text{BH}_3$ and cyclotriborazane $[(\text{ND}_{2-x}\text{H}_x)\text{BH}_2]_3$, formed from spontaneous loss of H_xD_{2-x} . Both compounds had deuterium incorporation in the N–H position as judged by ^2H NMR spectroscopy (Figures S2–S3). With the source of the atoms in the produced ammonia confirmed, attention was devoted to understanding the mechanism of formation.

A hypothesis for N–H bond formation with the N,N,O,O-supported manganese nitrides involved photoinitiation. Either an initial electron or effective hydrogen atom transfer event from H_2Acr to the manganese nitride generates a product more thermodynamically poised to participate in PCET (Scheme 5A). Activation of H_2Acr either by electron or H-atom transfer produces an intermediate that contain thermodynamically weaker E–H bonds (dihydroacridine $\text{BDFE}_{\text{calc}} = 69\text{ kcal mol}^{-1}$; dihydroacridinium radical cation $\text{BDFE}_{\text{calc}} = 33\text{ kcal mol}^{-1}$; N-hydroacridine radical $\text{BDFE}_{\text{calc}} = 43\text{ kcal mol}^{-1}$). Upon accepting an H-atom, subsequent additions of H-atom to the manganese intermediates are also more thermodynamically favorable (N–H $\text{BDFE}_{\text{calc}} = 60\text{ kcal mol}^{-1}$; HN–H $\text{BDFE}_{\text{calc}} = 84\text{ kcal mol}^{-1}$; $\text{H}_2\text{N–H}$ $\text{BDFE}_{\text{calc}} = 85\text{ kcal mol}^{-1}$).^{6f}

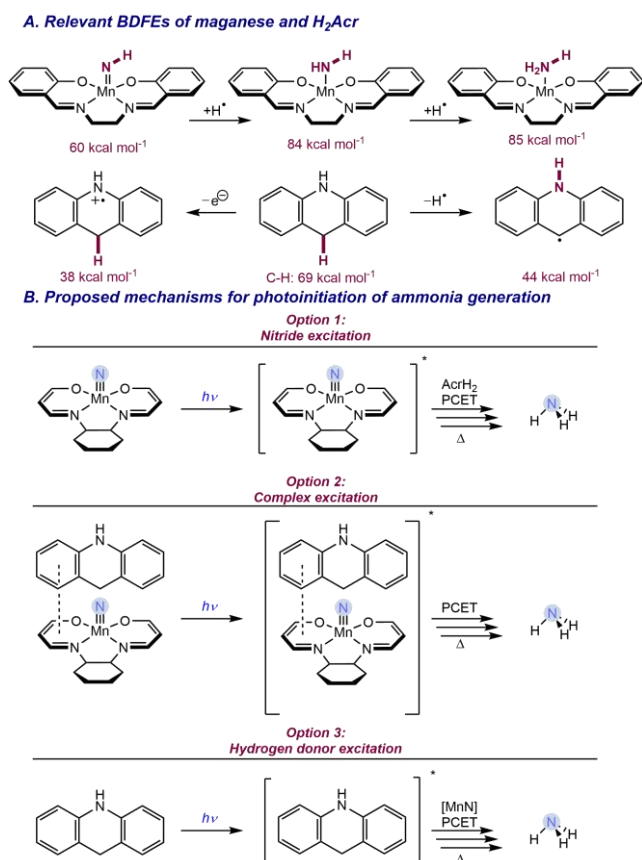
Scheme 4. Comparison of the reactivity of the manganese nitrides in the H_2Acr photoproduction of ammonia.



MnN 8 mmol; H_2Acr 40 mmol; 5 mL solvent. ^aAmmonia converted into NH_4Cl and measured by ^1H NMR spectroscopy against a CH_2Br_2 internal standard.

While the first PCET event is endergonic, subsequent steps are exergonic. Based on these data, three pathways for the initiation of photodriven ammonia formation were proposed (Scheme 5). The first is the photoexcitation of the manganese nitride and PCET or ET occurs with H_2Acr from the excited state. A second possibility is that the manganese nitride and H_2Acr form a donor-acceptor pair in solution and the resulting association complex is responsible for the initial photo-PCET or photo-ET. A final possibility involves H_2Acr as the light absorbing compound and its photoexcited state is responsible for either the initial ET or PCET event.

Scheme 5. Proposed mechanisms for the photoreductions of manganese nitrides by H_2Acr



Photophysical Studies of Manganese Nitrides. To evaluate the pathway involving reactivity from the excited state of the

manganese nitride, the excited state lifetimes of each complex was measured using pump-probe transient absorption (TA) spectroscopy. Using a 430 nm pulse to best replicate the conditions of the ammonia synthesis reaction, signals were observed for all four manganese nitride derivatives. However, the signals that were observed did not exceed 100 ps (Figure 3, Figures S53–S68). All of the manganese nitrides studied display bleaching of signals observed in the ground state electronic absorption spectra. In addition, new excited state absorbances (ESAs) were detected at lower energies. These observations are diagnostic of a vibrationally hot ground state, rather than an electronic excited state.¹⁹ No evidence for an observable excited state was obtained, consistent with the excited state lifetime being shorter than the limit of the experiment (< 100 fs). These lifetimes were also invariant in the solvents examined (THF, PhCF₃, and 1:1 THF:iPrOH) and inconsistent with the observed experimental solvent effect. Relevant to the ammonia synthesis reaction, such short lifetimes are incompatible with pathways involving a bimolecular reaction between a photoexcited manganese nitride and H₂Acr in solution.

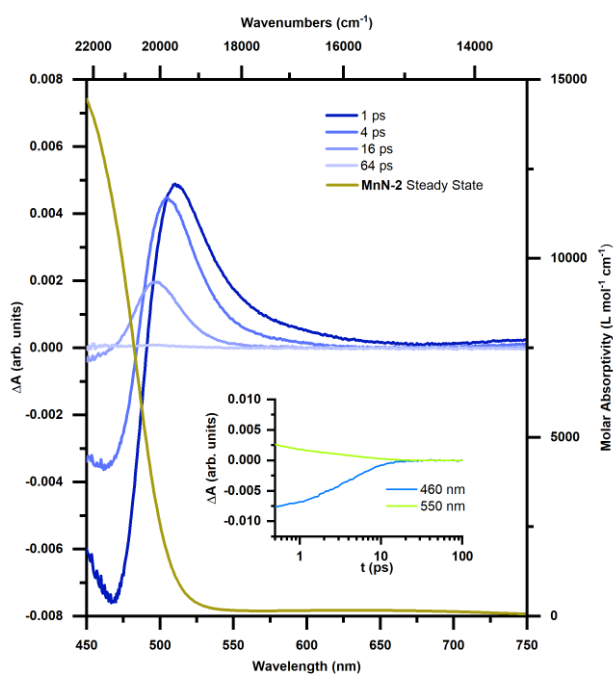


Figure 3. Transient absorption spectra of photoexcited MnN-2 at 23 °C in THF with $\lambda_{\text{exc}} = 430$ nm and pump power = 600 μW at 1, 4, 16, and 64 ps with a trace of the steady state absorption spectra. Inset contains kinetic data at 460 and 550 nm from 500 fs to 100 ps.

With elimination of a pathway involving an excited-state manganese nitride, the possibility of the interaction of the manganese nitride with H₂Acr in the ground state was explored. Initial experiments focused on the evaluation of the potential of a ground state complex that contains the manganese nitride and H₂Acr in the same shell of solvation. Attempts to obtain evidence of a donor-acceptor complex using electronic absorption spectroscopy revealed minimal changes in the spectrum even at concentrations higher than those of the ammonia synthesis reaction (Figures S46–S49). These observations support no major change in the π -systems of the ligands of the manganese nitrides nor d-orbital splitting in the presence of H₂Acr. Therefore, there is little impact on the two components in solution together in the ground state.

Photophysics of Acridine Derivatives Relevant to Ammonia Formation. With H₂Acr excitation as the remaining option, efforts were then devoted to understanding the excited-state properties of H₂Acr. While photophysical studies on H₂Acr have been reported in the literature previously, these studies focused on the excitation in the ultraviolet region of the electromagnetic spectrum and in relatively dilute solutions.²⁰ It was important to sublime commercial H₂Acr to obtain material of appropriate purity for photophysical measurements. Impurities present in the commercial samples had little to no impact on catalytic ammonia synthesis, however for all subsequent spectroscopic studies, sublimed material was used exclusively.

Photophysical studies of the purified H₂Acr were initiated using fluorescence spectroscopy. Solutions of H₂Acr in THF irradiated at 310 nm produced a signal at 350 nm with a lifetime of 11 ns. Solutions of H₂Acr in PhCF₃ however exhibited no detectable fluorescence, consistent with a new potential non-radiative decay pathway (Figure 4A). Predicting the excited state reduction potential by the sum of the redox event and the excited state energy of H₂Acr in THF produced a value of approximately -3.2 V versus Fc/Fc⁺, which is capable of reducing PhCF₃ ($E_{\text{pc}} = -3.1$ V versus Fc/Fc⁺) to its radical anion.²¹ As derivatives of H₂Acr have been targeted for photoreduction,²² the ability to reduce PhCF₃ solvent is plausible. Acr was an observed byproduct of the reaction with manganese nitrides, resulting from oxidation of H₂Acr. In the steps to produce Acr, acridinium (HAcr⁺) is a potential intermediate. Understanding the interactions between Acr and HAcr⁺ with H₂Acr is important for understanding the mechanism of the reaction. Examining the fluorescence of Acr and HAcr⁺ in PhCF₃, Acr was irradiated at 370 nm; however no fluorescence was observed in the presence or absence of H₂Acr. HAcr⁺ was irradiated at 410 nm, which resulted in emission at 482 nm. Lifetime measurements were fit to a triexponential with τ_1 , τ_2 , and τ_3 being 15.5, 31.1 and 62.1 ns, respectively (Figure 4B). Addition of H₂Acr to HAcr⁺ resulted in a dramatic quenching of the fluorescence and a drop in the lifetime by an order of magnitude. The decay was fit to a biexponential of $\tau_1 = 1.0$ ns and $\tau_2 = 4.0$ ns. As H₂Acr is a reductant and HAcr⁺ is a potential photooxidant, photo-induced electron transfer is a plausible mechanism of interaction between these molecules.

Spectroelectrochemistry was applied to detect intermediates. Electrochemical potentials of H₂Acr were determined in THF using [NBu₄][PF₆] as the supporting electrolyte (Figure 4C). An irreversible oxidation feature at $E_{\text{pa}} = 0.52$ V versus Fc/Fc⁺ was observed. By comparison, Acr and HAcr⁺ displayed a reversible reduction at $E_{1/2} = -2.19$ V versus Fc/Fc⁺ and a quasi-reversible reduction at $E_{\text{pc}} = -1.01$ V versus Fc/Fc⁺, respectively (Figure S38). Reduction of Acr at -2.5 V versus Fc/Fc⁺ resulted in a series of peaks spanning the visible region consistent with the acridine radical anion (Figure S39).²³ Analyzing the product of reduction of HAcr⁺ at -1.2 V versus Fc/Fc⁺ appeared as a disappearance of the signals associated with HAcr⁺ (Figure S40) and the precipitation of a white solid at longer times, consistent with the formation of dihydrodiacridine ((HAcr)₂) derived from 10-hydroacridine radical (HAcr[•]). Finally, the oxidation of H₂Acr was evaluated. Oxidation of a solution of H₂Acr in THF resulted in the appearance of a broad peak at 580 nm, signaling formation of a donor-acceptor complex between H₂Acr and HAcr⁺ (Figure S41). This observation is rationalized by the oxidation of H₂Acr to the 9,10-dihydroacridinium radical cation (H₂Acr^{•+}), which, based upon comparison to known alkylated derivatives, is acidic.^{6c} H₂Acr^{•+} is capable of protonation of

H₂Acr in solution to produce HAcr[•] that is further oxidized at the electrode surface to HAcr⁺. This illustrates the low BDFEs of the N–H and C–H bonds of dihydroacridinium cation are comparable to the N–H and C–H bonds in H₂Acr.

To identify the molecules associated with oxidation and formal H-atom loss from H₂Acr, both pulse radiolysis and TA experiments were employed. Pulse radiolysis (PR) has the ability to generate strong oxidants, reductants, or high energy triplets from the irradiated solvent. As H₂Acr is capable of reducing PhCF₃ in its excited state, establishing how the H₂Acr^{•+} radical cation evolves in solution is important for determining its impact in the reaction. While PhCF₃ is not a common solvent in PR, the expectation is for it to act similarly to methylene chloride as an oxidant due to its

method along with the measured E_{pa} in THF is used to estimate the excited state oxidation potential, which indicates that the quenching may be from reduction of PhCF₃ solvent. **B.** Excitation spectra of HAcr[•] excited at 430 nm in PhCF₃. A comparison is made between the presence and absence of saturated solutions of H₂Acr (approximately 25 mM) to quench the excited state with excited state lifetimes included. **C.** Results of the reduction of HAcr[•] and oxidation of H₂Acr. Solvent = THF; electrolyte: 0.1 M [ⁿBu₄N][PF₆].

ability to be reduced and subsequently release halide anion. To support this hypothesis, a solution of 25 mM biphenyl was dissolved in PhCF₃ and irradiated with electrons under an atmosphere of either oxygen or argon. At 10 ns after the pulse a positive signal was observed at 370 nm and 660 nm, where the decay of the signal at 680 nm was fit to a biexponential decay with τ_1 and τ_2 are 81.8 ns and 3320 ns, respectively. These signals are characteristic of the biphenyl radical cation (Figure S81).²⁴ Additionally, some differences between the oxygen and argon purged samples were observed at $\lambda < 400$ nm, which were assigned to biphenyl triplet.²⁵ However, due to the high quantum efficiency of intersystem crossing of biphenyl, it is difficult to determine if this is from excitation of solvent by pulse radiolysis or Cherenkov radiation.

With demonstration that PhCF₃ acts as an oxidant with pulse radiolysis, H₂Acr was then investigated. Under electron irradiation, 25 mM solutions of H₂Acr in PhCF₃ produced two states (Figure 5). The first state contains a broad absorbance centered at 660 nm, which is fit to a biexponential decay with $\tau_1 = 95.6$ ns and 1260 ns. The second state exhibits a narrow absorbance centered at 568 nm with a smaller absorbance at 520 nm. The absorbance grew in with a rate of $\tau = 324$ ns and subsequently decayed at $\tau > 14$ μ s. The second set of signals survived longer than the experiment window and thus only an estimate of the decay is possible. These results mirror previous results using low temperature radiolysis of H₂Acr in sec-butyl chloride.²³ The first state was identified as H₂Acr^{•+} and the second state as the N-centered radical, 9-hydroacridine radical (HAcr[•]). The second state is likely formed by the deprotonation of dihydroacridinium radical cation by remaining H₂Acr in solution. The expectation that this second signal arises from a bimolecular collision with free H₂Acr in solution is supported by the formation of the second species occurring more slowly at lower concentrations of H₂Acr (1 mM H₂Acr PR in PhCF₃, Figure S83). This is an interesting result as HAcr[•] is the thermodynamically more stable species and HAcr[•] has been reported to rearrange to HAcr⁺.²³ Both compounds that were detected by PR, H₂Acr^{•+} and HAcr[•], are expected to have low enough BDFEs to promote donation of an H-atom to the manganese nitrides.^{6c} With the lifetime of HAcr[•] being longer than a microsecond, the likelihood of HAcr[•] being present to react with manganese nitride is plausible. With signatures of potential H-atom donors derived from oxidation of H₂Acr observed, the ability to generate these species with light was evaluated by TA.

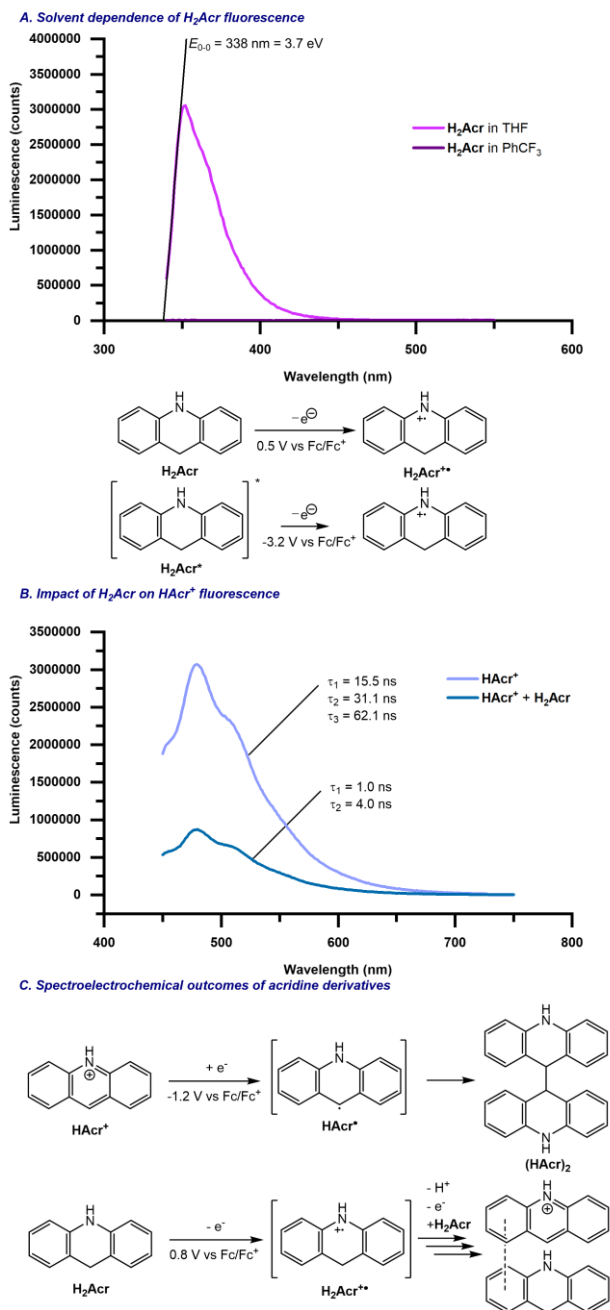


Figure 4. Steady state spectroscopy of acridine derivatives. A. Fluorescence data of H₂Acr in THF and PhCF₃. The tangent

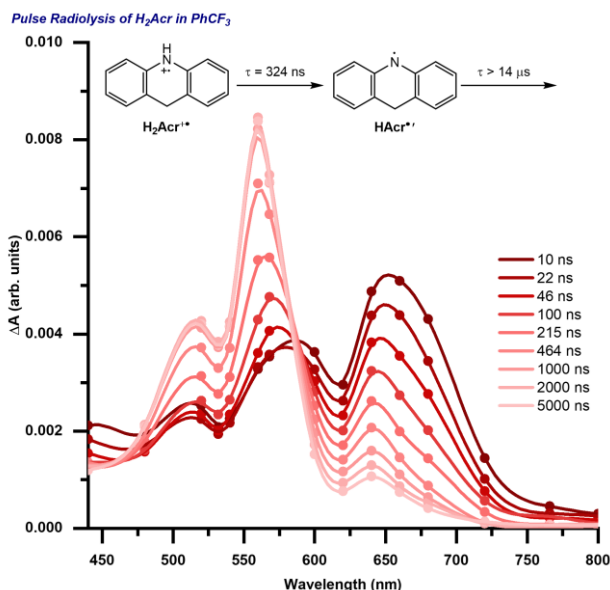


Figure 5. Observation of the H-atom abstracted product from H₂Acr. Pulse radiolysis of 25 mM H₂Acr in PhCF₃ saturated with O₂ at 10 ns, 22 ns, 46 ns, 100 ns, 215 ns, 464 ns, 1 μs, 2 μs, and 5 μs.

TA of the isolable acridine derivatives was collected in PhCF₃. Samples of H₂Acr in PhCF₃ were pumped at 310 nm and resulted in two excited species with ESAs at $\lambda_{\text{max}} = 745$ nm and $\lambda_{\text{max}} = 520$ nm, respectively (Figures S72–S74). The first state was fit to a biexponential decay with time constants of $\tau_1 = 19.1$ ps and $\tau_2 = 395.4$ ps. Comparing this to an analogous solution of H₂Acr in THF, two similar states were observed (Figures S69–S71). The first has an ESA at $\lambda_{\text{max}} = 758$ nm that decays into a second state with an ESA at $\lambda_{\text{max}} = 520$ nm. The signal at 758 nm was fit to first a biexponential growth with constants equal to $\tau_1 = 13.6$ ps and $\tau_2 = 1010.2$ ps followed by a monoexponential decay fit to $\tau = 4706.0$ ps. These observed signals are likely the same states observed in the PhCF₃ sample. While these states are not related to any of the proposed species above, the difference in rate of formation of the second excited state may be of importance, e.g. facilitating the formation of reactive triplet. Upon pumping solutions of Acr in PhCF₃ there are two states observed, the first having an ESA at $\lambda_{\text{max}} = 557$ nm which was fit to a first order decay with a $\tau = 62$ ps (Figures S75–S77). The second state contains ESA at $\lambda_{\text{max}} = 444$ nm with additional peaks at $\lambda = 484$ nm and $\lambda = 518$ nm fit to a decay of $\tau = 22.4$ μs and $\tau = 23.4$ μs for the signals at 441 nm and 514 nm, respectively (Figures S78–S80). While only the peak at 444 nm has been reported previously for the triplet state of Acr,²⁵ the peaks at $\lambda = 484$ nm and $\lambda = 518$ nm are also likely due to the triplet state of Acr based on the kinetics of the formation of these signals.^{21,26} The formation of this species is important, as the triplet state of Acr and its derivatives have been proposed to be responsible for the ability of photoexcited Acr to engage in PCET.²⁷ Solutions of HAcrr' in PhCF₃ pumped at 400 nm or 430 nm resulted in a ground state bleach (GSB) at 440 nm, which persisted longer than the repetition rate of the instrument. This observation is likely due to the high intensity of the fluorescence of the sample. Subtracting this signal from the data revealed ESAs at $\lambda_{\text{max}} = 659$ nm, $\lambda_{\text{max}} = 509$ nm and $\lambda_{\text{max}} = 464$ nm (Figures S81–S85), which were fit to first order decays of 29.7 ns, 26.8 ns and 34.6 ns, respectively.

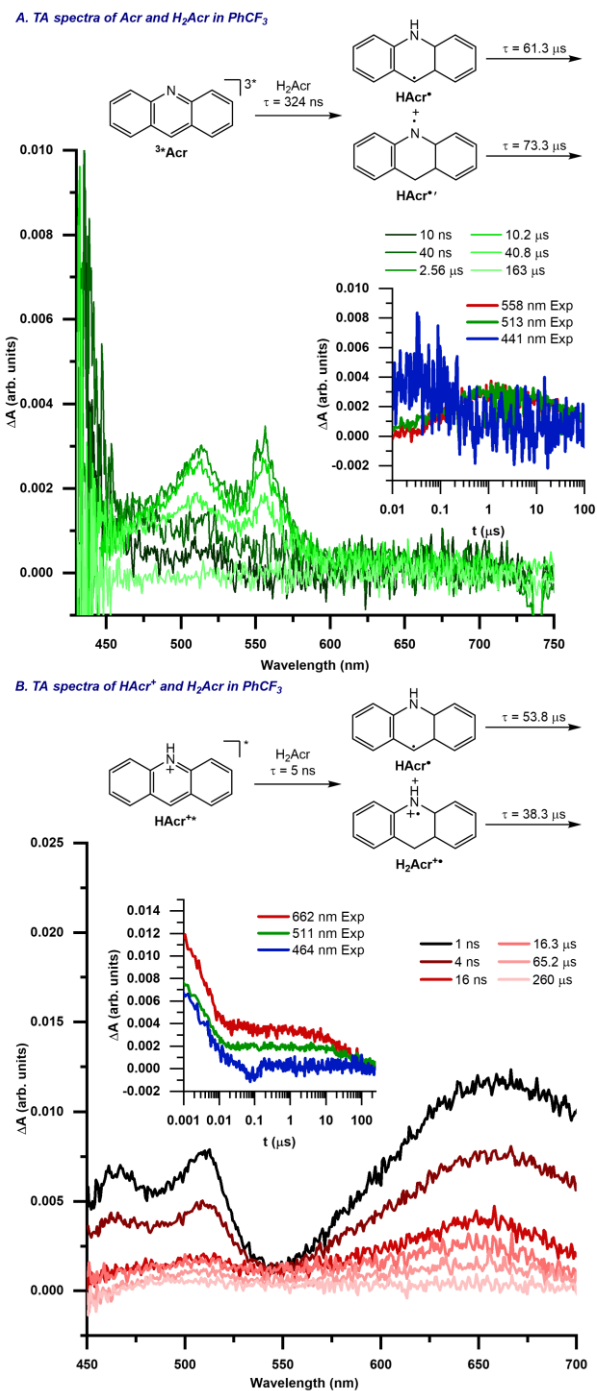


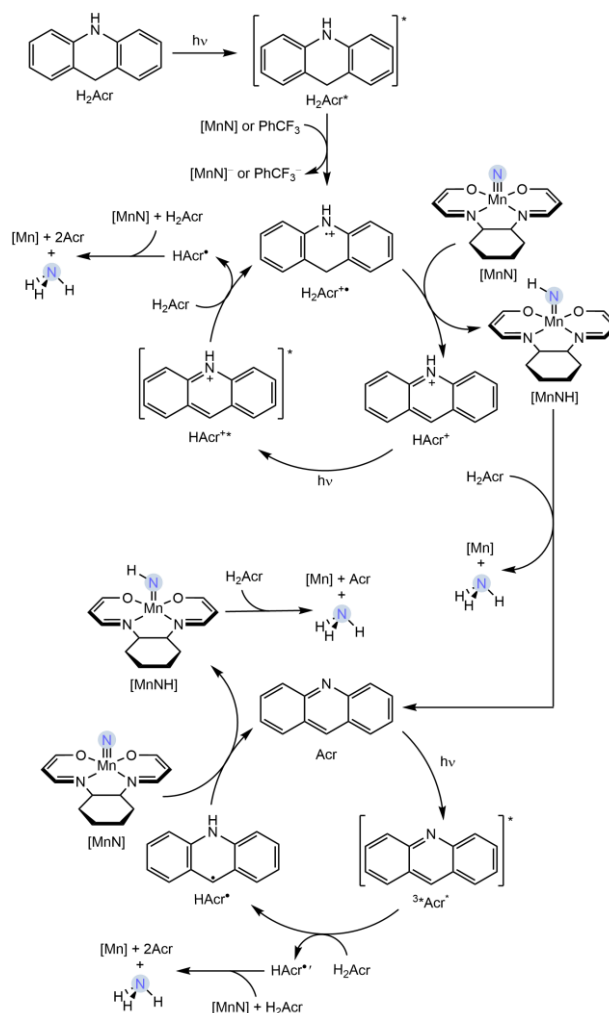
Figure 6. TA spectra of organic byproducts of the reaction and H₂Acr. A. TA spectra of a mixture of Acr and H₂Acr at 23 °C in PhCF₃ with $\lambda_{\text{exc}} = 370$ nm and pump power = 100 μW at 10 ns, 40 ns, 256 μs, 10.2 μs, 40.8 μs and 163 μs. Inset contains kinetic data at 558 nm, 513 nm and 441 nm. Time period ranges from 10 ns to 100 μs. B. TA spectra of a mixture of HAcrr' and H₂Acr at 23 °C in PhCF₃ with $\lambda_{\text{exc}} = 400$ nm and pump power = 150 μW at 1 ns, 4 ns, 16 ns, 16.3 μs, 65.2 μs, and 260 μs. Inset contains kinetic data at 662 nm, 511 nm and 464 nm. Time period ranges from 1 ns to 250 μs.

As Acr and H₂Acr are known to react in the solid state to produce HAcrr' and HAcrr'',²⁸ a solution of Acr and H₂Acr in PhCF₃ was pumped at 370 nm. While at short times the peaks at 441 nm, 484 nm and 514 nm were observed, their lifetimes were shorter than solutions containing simply Acr. Furthermore,

additional signals were observed at long times centered at $\lambda = 513$ nm and $\lambda = 558$ nm. The signal at 441 nm decayed at a rate of $\tau = 230$ ns, and the growth of the new signals was fixed to a growth rate of $\tau = 200$ ns and subsequent decays at $\tau = 61.3$ μ s and $\tau = 73.3$ μ s for the signals at 513 nm and 558 nm respectively (Figure 6A). The signal at 513 nm was identified as HAc^+ and the signal at 558 nm was identified as $\text{HAc}^{\bullet+}$.²³ These species arise from an intermolecular PCET event between triplet Acr and H_2Acr , followed by the reverse reaction to ground state Acr and H_2Acr . These results agree with previously reported EPR studies in the solid state and show this process occurs in solution.²⁸ Solutions of HAc^+ and H_2Acr in PhCF_3 resulted in a short and long decay components at 511 nm and 662 nm fit to $\tau_1 = 5$ ns, $\tau_2 = 53.8$ μ s and $\tau_1 = 5$ ns, $\tau_2 = 38.3$ μ s (Figure 6B). These long-lived signals were identified as HAc^+ and $\text{H}_2\text{Acr}^{\bullet+}$, that arise from intermolecular single electron transfer (SET) from excited state HAc^+ and H_2Acr . These species then undergo SET to regenerate HAc^+ and H_2Acr . Rapid production of insoluble $(\text{HAc}^+)_2$ at the point of irradiation was observed in both experiments, which is generated from HAc^+ present in solution.

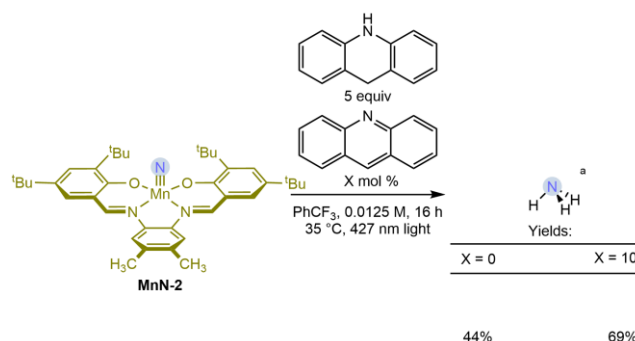
Proposed Mechanism and Improved Photoreactivity of Manganese Nitrides. A mechanism of precious metal-free photodriven ammonia synthesis based on the spectroscopic data is presented in Scheme 6. A small amount of H_2Acr is photoexcited to generate a highly reducing excited state. This excited state either reduces the manganese nitride or solvent in the case of PhCF_3 , as supported by fluorescence quenching, to generate $\text{H}_2\text{Acr}^{\bullet+}$. **MnN-2** and **MnN-4** are the optimal substrates as they are the most readily reduced. Because $\text{H}_2\text{Acr}^{\bullet+}$ is acidic and has low BDFEs,⁶⁸ it readily engages in PCET with the manganese nitride to generate a reactive manganese imido and HAc^+ . The HAc^+ serves as a photooxidant, engaging in SET with H_2Acr to generate $\text{HAc}^{\bullet+}$ and $\text{H}_2\text{Acr}^{\bullet+}$, as supported by fluorescence quenching and TA measurements. Both the produced HAc^+ and $\text{H}_2\text{Acr}^{\bullet+}$ are capable of reacting with manganese nitride to generate the manganese parent imido and Acr or HAc^+ respectively. The manganese imido undergoes additional reactions with H_2Acr to generate ammonia, Acr, and manganese(II) products. As H_2Acr is a poor absorber of visible light, additional radical chains are generated by excited state Acr that engages in PCET with H_2Acr generating reactive HAc^+ . This PCET is a known reaction from the T_1 state of Acr and was observed in TA experiments.²⁸ The resulting two equivalents of HAc^+ engage in PCET with two equivalents of manganese nitride to produce manganese imido. This produces more ammonia, manganese products, and importantly Acr that engages with H_2Acr again.

Scheme 6. Proposed mechanism of photoinitiated ammonia synthesis from manganese nitrides and H_2Acr



Based on the proposed mechanism addition of Acr at the beginning of the reaction, was hypothesized to greatly increase the rate of reaction. The reaction of **MnN-2** and H_2Acr at 16 h resulted in a 44% yield with 26% remaining nitride. Addition of 10 mol% of acridine to the reaction resulted in a 69% yield with 12% remaining nitride. This increase in relative rate is consistent with the formation of intermediates proposed based on the spectroscopic data.

Scheme 7. Impact of Acr on the formation of ammonia.



^a NH_3 production determined by ^1H NMR integration as NH_4Cl vs. CH_2Br_2 internal standard.

CONCLUSION

By tuning the ligand supporting a manganese(V) nitride, ammonia synthesis superior to that observed with precious metal

photocatalysts has been observed. The mechanistic investigation led by TA spectroscopy established that this ligand effect had little impact on the photophysics of the metal nitride but instead was correlated with the ability of the compound to accept electrons. Accepting electrons either by the ligand or the solvent is pivotal towards the activation of the source of the proton and the electron, H₂Acr. Oxidation of H₂Acr results in the production of H₂Acr^{•+}, HAcr[•] and HAcr^{•-}, which were all observed by TA experiments and all contain weak E–H bonds. This work is expected to have implications for future work into photodriven ammonia synthesis.

ASSOCIATED CONTENT

Supporting Information

The Supporting Information is available free of charge on the ACS Publications website.

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