Electronic Structure Studies of Tetrazolium-Based Ionic Liquids

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14. ABSTRACT
New energetic ionic liquids are investigated as potential high energy density materials. Ionic liquids are composed of large, charge-diffuse cations, coupled with various (usually oxygen containing) anions. In this work, calculations have been performed on the tetrazolium cation with a variety of substituents. Density functional theory (DFT) with the B3LYP functional, using the 6-311G(d,p) basis set was used to optimize geometries. Improved treatment of dynamic electron correlation was obtained using second order perturbation theory (MP2). Heats of formation of the cation with different substituent groups were calculated using isodesmic reactions and Gaussian-2 calculations on the reactants. The cation was paired with oxygen rich anions ClO4-, NO3-, or N(NO2)2- and those structures were optimized using both DFT and MP2. The reaction pathway for proton transfer from the cation to the anion was investigated.

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Electronic Structure Studies of Tetrazolium-Based Ionic Liquids

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New energetic ionic liquids are investigated as potential high energy density materials. Ionic liquids are composed of large, charge-diffuse cations, coupled with various (usually oxygen containing) anions. In this work, calculations have been performed on the tetrazolium cation with a variety of substituents. Density functional theory (DFT) with the B3LYP functional, using the 6-311G(d,p) basis set was used to optimize geometries. Improved treatment of dynamic electron correlation was obtained using second-order perturbation theory (MP2). Heats of formation of the cation with different substituent groups were calculated using isodesmic reactions and Gaussian-2 calculations on the reactants. The cation was paired with oxygen rich anions ClO$_4^-$, NO$_3^-$, or N(NO$_2$)$_2$ and those structures were optimized using both DFT and MP2. The reaction pathway for proton transfer from the cation to the anion was investigated.

Introduction

There is considerable current interest in ionic liquids as solvents. No other class of solvents offers the versatility that ionic liquids do: They are typically thermally stable and have negligibly low vapor pressure, high density, and large liquid ranges up to 400 °C. Because of these unique properties, ionic liquids may be used as electrolytes for batteries, extraction media, and catalyst carriers. The popularity of ionic liquids has also been spurred on by their classification as “green”, due to their negligible vapor pressure, thereby decreasing levels of volatile organic carbons in the environment.\(^1\)

1-Butyl-3-methyl-imidazolium (BMIM) is one of the most widely used and best understood ionic liquid cations, so when one is beginning to design energetic ionic liquids, this cation is a natural place to start. The unsubstituted imidazolium cation is shown in Figure 1a. The energy content of the ionic liquid cation needs to be raised for high energy applications, and this can be done in several ways.

First, replacing the imidazolium ring with a more nitrogen rich ring can increase the energy content of the ionic liquid. Second, the hydrogen or alkyl side chains can be replaced with high energy groups, such as −CN, −NH$_2$, −N$_3$, and −NO$_2$. Finally, the anion chosen should be oxygen rich to serve as an oxidizer. Interesting anions include nitrate, perchlorate, and dinitramide anions (Figure 2). Two promising nitrogen-rich candidates are the triazolium (Figure 1b) and the tetrazolium (Figure 1c) cations with three and four nitrogens respectively, in the ring. These two cations could present a useful balance between exothermicity and thermal stability. A thorough study of the 1,2,4-triazolium cation has recently been published.\(^3\) The focus of the present study is on the electronic structure of the tetrazolium cation.

The energetic tetrazolium cations that have been synthesized include 1-amino-4,5-dimethyltetrazolium,\(^3\) 2-amino-4,5-dimethyltetrazolium,\(^3\) 2,4,5-trimethyltetrazolium,\(^4\) and 1,5-diamino-4H-

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understanding the structure and dynamics of ionic liquids. There have been several molecular dynamics (MD) simulations of ionic liquids based on imidazolium, pyridinium and ammonium cations. These studies modeled bulk properties, such as melting points, diffusion, and viscosity. Radial distribution functions and densities have also been calculated.

Dynamics simulations have revealed that 1-ethyl-3-methylimidazolium nitrate has diffusion properties similar to those of a supercooled liquid. Systematic MD studies of 1-alkyl-3-methylimidazolium ionic liquids with several anions have been performed using various classical force fields. Three first principles based MD studies on 1,3-dimethylimidazolium chloride have been performed and compared to classical simulations and experimental neutron scattering experiments. There are differences in the local structures predicted by classical vs first principles based MD. Efforts to improve both classical and first principles based MD simulations of ionic liquids are ongoing in several groups.

The solvent properties of ionic liquids and their propensity to be synthesized depend greatly on their acid-base properties, so the ability to predict these properties would be of great use. The more acidic the cation, the more difficult it will be to protonate the neutral ring to form an ionic liquid. Of the three neutral rings, imidazole, triazole, and tetroazole, the weakest base is tetroazole. Tetroazolium is therefore, the most difficult to neutralize. Tetrazolium is therefore, the most difficult to neutralize. Tetrazolium is therefore, the most difficult to neutralize. Tetrazolium is therefore, the most difficult to neutralize. Tetrazolium is therefore, the most difficult to neutralize. Tetrazolium is therefore, the most difficult to neutralize.

To have low melting ionic liquids, the charge of at least one of the ions must be delocalized. Multiconfiguration self-consistent field (MCSCF) analysis of the triazolium cation shows that the electrons on the cation are shared between two resonance structures. This study also investigated the effects of more energetic and less energetic substituent groups. For example, the nitrile group was proposed as a better substituent for high energy applications than an azide group. The structures of triazolium dinitramide systems were investigated using dimer pairs. A wide variety of geometries were found and the presence of small barriers for proton transfer from the cation to the anion show that deprotonation may be an important mechanism in decomposition of triazolium-based ionic liquids.

### Computational Methods

Initial structures were obtained by performing gas-phase density functional theory (DFT) calculations on the isolated ions using the Becke three parameter Lee–Yang–Parr hybrid functional (B3LYP). The basis sets used were 6-31G(d,p), 6-311G(d,p), and 6-311G(d,p) basis sets. Hessian matrices of energy second derivatives are used to determine whether stationary points are minima or transition states. At the final step size used for the IRC calculations was 0.05 (amu)–1/2 bohr. All calculations were done with GAMESS, and all molecules were visualized with MacMolPlt.

#### Table 1: Energetic Tetrazolium Cations and Their Melting Points ($T_m$), Thermal Decomposition Temperatures ($T_d$), and Glass Transition Temperature ($T_g$)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Cation</th>
<th>$T_m$ (°C)</th>
<th>$T_d$ (°C)</th>
<th>$T_g$ (°C)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1-aminoo,4,5-dimethyltetrazolium iodide $^{a}$</td>
<td>121</td>
<td>170</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1-amino,4,5-dimethyltetrazolium nitrate $^{a}$</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>182</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1-amino,4,5-dimethyltetrazolium perchlorate $^{a}$</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>124</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2-amino,4,5-dimethyltetrazolium iodide $^{b}$</td>
<td>94</td>
<td>173</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2-amino,4,5-dimethyltetrazolium perchlorate $^{b}$</td>
<td>140</td>
<td>238</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2,4,5-trimethyltetrazolium iodide $^{b}$</td>
<td>94</td>
<td>193</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2,4,5-trimethyltetrazolium perchlorate $^{b}$</td>
<td>133</td>
<td>315</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1,5-diamino-4H–tetrazolium perchlorate $^{c}$</td>
<td>125–130</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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</table>

$^{a}$ From Xue et al. $^{b}$ From Xue et al. $^{c}$ From Drake et al.
Results and Discussion

Relative Energies of Tetrazolium Cations. The tetrazolium cation has four parent isomers (all $R = H$) labeled I, II, III, and IV (Figure 3). Each isomer has two possible resonance contributors. The relative energies of I, II, III, and IV are shown in Table 2. Isomer I is predicted by MP2 to be the lowest in energy, with isomer II only 1.9 kcal/mol higher in energy. The MP2 relative energy ordering is $I < II < IV < III$. In general, DFT and MP2 are in good agreement, although DFT slightly reverses the order of isomers I and II.

The relative energies of isomers I and II were also calculated using the CCSD(T) method at the MP2/6-311G(d,p) geometries. Using the 6-311G(d,p) and cc-pVTZ basis sets, isomer II is predicted to be lower in energy than I by 0.2 and 0.5 kcal/mol, respectively. The open chain form of the cation, azidoformidinium (V), shown in Figure 4, was also compared to the four parent isomers. At the MP2/6-311++G(d,p) geometry this isomer is 0.7 kcal/mol lower in energy than isomer I (Table 3). According to CCSD(T)/cc-pVTZ//MP2/6-31+G(d,p), isomer V is 1.8 kcal/mol higher in energy than isomer I, and 1.3 kcal/mol higher in energy than isomer II.

The large MP2/6-311G(d,p) barriers for proton transfer reactions between isomer I and isomers II, III, and IV (Figure 5) imply that movement of a proton on the ring is not likely.

Calculated MP2/6-311G(d,p) $\sigma$ and $\pi$ bond orders$^{[40]}$ (Figure 6) suggest that the two double bonds in the ring are delocalized. The bond lengths between atoms in the rings do not exhibit any significant changes among the four parent isomers (Table 4). The bond lengths between atoms in the cation rings are consistent with a delocalized ring system (cf., 1.32 Å for a CN double bond and 1.34 Å for a NN double bond).

Bond lengths can suggest which resonance structures are favored for isomers I and III. (The two resonance structures for isomers II and IV are equivalent.) The nearly equal $N_1-N_2$ and $N_2-N_3$ bond lengths in isomer I (1.31 and 1.29 Å, respectively) suggest that resonance structures I and I’ make similar contributions to the electronic structure of the ring, with perhaps a slight preference for I over I’. The two resonance structures for isomer III are likewise equally important as indicated by the equal $N_2-N_3$ and $N_3-N_4$ bond lengths and the nearly equal lengths of the $N_1-C_5$ and $N_4-C_5$ bonds.

MCSCF $\pi$ LMO populations and $\pi$ bond orders (Table 5) can provide a more sophisticated analysis of competing resonance structures.$^{[2]}$ The diagonal density matrix elements give the electron occupancy of the localized molecular orbitals. The off-diagonal elements give the bond orders. A positive bond order indicates a bonding interaction and a negative bond order indicates an antibonding interaction between the LMOs.

**Table 2: Relative Energies (kcal/mol) of Isomers I, II, III, and IV**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Cation</th>
<th>B3LYP/6-31G(d,p)</th>
<th>B3LYP/6-311G(d,p)</th>
<th>MP2/6-31G(d,p)</th>
<th>MP2/6-311G(d,p)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>II</td>
<td>-0.6</td>
<td>-0.4</td>
<td>1.4</td>
<td>1.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>III</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>16.2</td>
<td>19.1</td>
<td>19.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IV</td>
<td>14.9</td>
<td>14.7</td>
<td>15.2</td>
<td>14.7</td>
</tr>
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</table>

**Table 3: Relative Energies (kcal/mol) of the Closed Chain Isomers I and II and the Open Chain Isomer V, Using CCSD(T)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Cation</th>
<th>MP2/6-311++G(d,p)</th>
<th>CCSD(T)/cc-pVTZ//MP2/6-311++G(d,p)</th>
<th>CCSD(T)/6-311G(d,p)//MP2/6-311++G(d,p)</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>0.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>II</td>
<td>1.9</td>
<td>-0.5</td>
<td>-0.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>V</td>
<td>-0.7</td>
<td>1.8</td>
<td>1.6</td>
</tr>
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</table>
For isomer I, the $\pi$ orbital populations on N1 and N3 are 1.42 and 1.37, respectively. In a resonance structure that was purely I, N1 would have a $\pi$ population of 2.00 and all other atoms in the ring would have $\pi$ populations of 1.00 (cf., Figure 3). In reality both N1 and N3 have $\pi$ populations of less than 1.5 electrons. This indicates that the ring is a hybrid between I and I′ and is delocalized.

The $\pi$ orbital populations indicate that I is slightly favored over I′. In both I and I′ C5−N4 is a double bond. This bond has a $\pi$ bond order of 0.73, the largest of the five bonds. The N2−N3 $\pi$ bond order, a double bond in I, is 0.65. The N1−N2 $\pi$ bond order, a double bond in I′, is 0.57. Neither of these bond orders is close to 1.00 indicating once again that the ring is delocalized.

A similar analysis can be done for isomers II−IV showing that all the $\pi$ electrons are delocalized on the cations. According to the $\pi$ orbital populations in isomer III, the lone pair is distributed equally on N1 and N2. Similar comments apply to isomer II(IV), in which the lone pair is distributed equally on N1 and N4 (N2 and N3).

The relative energies of the parent isomers with a single substituent on a nitrogen or a carbon are shown in Table 6. The isomers with a substituent $R^{′}$ (on a nitrogen) are labeled I-A through IV-A (Figure 7a), the isomers with a substituent $R^{′′}$ (on the carbon) are labeled I-B through IV-B (Figure 7b), and the isomers with a substituent $R^{′′′}$ (on a nitrogen) are labeled I-C through IV-C (Figure 7c). For all substituents, the relative energies remain the same as those of the parent isomers with no substitution.

A $-\text{NO}_2$ substituent does not bind well to a nitrogen of the tetrazolium ring: the NN distance is 2.4 Å, compared with a normal single NN bond distance of 1.430 Å as, for example, in $\text{N}_2\text{H}_4$. Because of the lack of a strong NN bond, the nitro group easily changes positions on the ring. For example, III−A($\text{NO}_2$) converts to isomer I−A($\text{NO}_2$), with no barrier. A cation with a $-\text{NO}_2$ substituent bound to a ring nitrogen, is most likely an ion−dipole complex, in which the cation becomes a neutral tetrazole ring and the nitro group becomes an incipient cation.
This is easily verified by examining the charge on the substituent −NO₂ group. The average of the Mulliken charges 42 on the −NO₂ group for all isomers with −NO₂ on N is +0.83. The average MP2/6-311G(d,p) binding energy of NO₂ + to a tetrazole ring is 22.8 kcal/mol.

A comparison of relative energies (averaged for all four parent isomers) for substitution on a C vs N is shown in Table 7. Substitution at C is almost always energetically favored over substitution at N. The only exception is for the −NO₂ substituent. The bond lengths within the ring do not change significantly from the parent isomer when a single substituent is present.

Heats of Formation. The energy content of a heterocycle can be raised dramatically by increasing the number of nitrogen atoms in the ring. For example, the experimental heats of formation for imidazole, 1,2,4-triazole, and tetrazole are 14.0, 26.1, and 56.7 kcal/mol, respectively. 49

In this work, heats of formation for the cation rings were calculated using isodesmic reactions and the Gaussian-2 (G2) method, 33,44 a multilevel method designed to obtain accurate thermochemistry. The G2 calculations were performed using Gaussian 94. 45 Isodesmic reactions, in which the number of formal bond types is conserved, minimize the change in correlation energy, 46 thereby reducing the error in a computed heat of formation.

The isodesmic reactions of each resonance structure are shown in Figure 8. For I and III each resonance structure has a different isodesmic reaction. The heats of formation for I and I′ (III and III′) are similar, and their average will be taken as a heat of formation for the composite I/I′ (III/III′). 2 The largest difference in heats of formation between resonance structures is 13.0 kcal/mol for the −NO₂ substituent; the other differences are all less than 3 kcal/mol.

The heats of formation for the parent isomers are shown in column 2 of Table 8. These compare well to heats of formation that were calculated previously using Gaussian-3. 19 The changes in heats of formation for substituted cations relative to the hydrogen substituted cations are shown in Table 9. For the most part, substitution destabilizes the ring, although, substitution by a fluorine or an amine on a carbon stabilizes the ring by up to 40 kcal/mol. However, an azide group or a nitrile group can increase the heat of formation of the ring by as much as 112 kcal/mol. 40

Proton-Transfer Reactions. One possible reaction pathway for the simple ion pairs is proton transfer from the cation to a partner anion to form a neutral pair. The heats for the reaction CNH₃⁺ + Y⁻ → CNH₂ + HY (where Y = NO₂, ClO₄, or N(NO₂)₂) are shown in Table 10. All of the energy differences (∆E) are exothermic, by 46–144 kcal/mol, and the ∆Es for proton transfer to each of the three anions are similar. The heat

\[
\text{average values (EC− EN) are similar, and their average will be taken as} \text{ a}\]

\[
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\[
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of reaction for removal of $\text{H}''''$, shown in column three of Table 10, is more exothermic than the removal of $\text{H}'$ (see Figure 3) because the 2,5-disubstituted neutral ring is 3.7 kcal/mol lower in energy than the 1,5-disubstitued neutral ring. The 1,3-disubstituted ring is considerably higher in energy. There are three possible positions for proton transfer to the dinitramide anion, but dinitramic acid is most stable with the proton on the center nitrogen, so this is the acid used when calculating the $\Delta E$s.

**Ion Pair Interactions.** Ionic liquid dimer pairs were optimized with DFT and MP2 methods using the 6-31+G(d) basis set. ZPE corrections at the B3LYP/6-31+G(d) level of theory were used in all cases. The structures of the tetrazolium dimers with perchlorate and nitrate partners are shown in Figures 9 and 10, respectively. For the cation with perchlorate or nitrate, at both levels of theory a proton transfers from the cation to the anion during geometry optimization of the ion pair. Hydrogen bonding and other attractive electrostatic interactions are found to be important in the dimer structures. Optimizations give geometries in which the number of attractive electrostatic interactions is maximized. For pairs containing $\text{HNO}_3$ or $\text{HClO}_4$, there is always one linear $\text{O}^-\text{H}^-\text{N}^+$ hydrogen bond. Hydrogen bond lengths vary from 1.795 to 1.846 Å for $\text{HNO}_3$ and 1.771 Å to 1.822 Å for $\text{HClO}_4$. The majority of structures also contain a nonlinear $\text{N}^-\text{H}^-\text{O}$ hydrogen bond or a $\text{C}^-\text{H}^-\text{O}$ attractive electrostatic interaction.

**Figure 8.** Isodesmic reactions for all resonance structures.

**TABLE 10: Heats of Proton Transfer Reaction (kcal/mol) for Anion = $\text{NO}_3^-$, $\text{ClO}_4^-$, and $\text{N(NO}_2\text{)}_2^-$ for Deprotonation at $\text{H}'$, $\text{H}''$, and $\text{H}''''$ (See Figure 3)**

<table>
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<tr>
<th>Cation</th>
<th>Anion</th>
<th>$\text{H}'$</th>
<th>$\text{H}''$</th>
<th>$\text{H}''''$</th>
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<tr>
<td>I</td>
<td>$\text{NO}_3^-$</td>
<td>-124.8</td>
<td>-86.1</td>
<td>-128.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>$\text{ClO}_4^-$</td>
<td>-102.6</td>
<td>-63.9</td>
<td>-106.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>$\text{N(NO}_2\text{)}_2^-$</td>
<td>-112.0</td>
<td>-73.3</td>
<td>-115.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>II</td>
<td>$\text{NO}_3^-$</td>
<td>-126.6</td>
<td>-103.7 same as $\text{H}'$</td>
<td>-85.7 same as $\text{H}'$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>$\text{ClO}_4^-$</td>
<td>-104.4</td>
<td>-81.5 same as $\text{H}'$</td>
<td>-63.7 same as $\text{H}'$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>$\text{N(NO}_2\text{)}_2^-$</td>
<td>-113.9</td>
<td>-90.9 same as $\text{H}'$</td>
<td>-73.1 same as $\text{H}'$</td>
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<tr>
<td>III</td>
<td>$\text{NO}_3^-$</td>
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<td>-85.9</td>
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<tr>
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<td>$\text{ClO}_4^-$</td>
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<td>-63.7</td>
<td>-125.3</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>$\text{N(NO}_2\text{)}_2^-$</td>
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<td>-73.1</td>
<td>-134.7</td>
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<tr>
<td>IV</td>
<td>$\text{NO}_3^-$</td>
<td>same as $\text{H}''''$</td>
<td>-68.9</td>
<td>-142.9</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>$\text{ClO}_4^-$</td>
<td>same as $\text{H}''''$</td>
<td>-46.7</td>
<td>-120.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>$\text{N(NO}_2\text{)}_2^-$</td>
<td>same as $\text{H}''''$</td>
<td>-56.2</td>
<td>-130.2</td>
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</table>
Tetrazolium dinitramide (Figure 11) pairs have a much wider variety of structures than tetrazolium nitrate or tetrazolium perchlorate pairs. This is because the dinitramide anion has the ability to bind a proton at three different positions (Figure 12). For HN(NO₂)₂, hydrogen bond lengths vary from 1.721 to 1.942 Å. Once again hydrogen bonding and other electrostatic interactions are important for structures containing HN(NO₂)₂. However, 6 out of 19 structures do not contain a linear hydrogen bond at all. These structures usually contain weaker, nonlinear, N–H–N, O–H–N, or N–H–O attractive electrostatic interactions.

The relative energies of the pairs with HNO₃ or HClO₄ show that the lowest energy pairs contain the 1,3-H substituted tetrazole isomer. For example, structure 1 in Figure 11 is 2.8 kcal/mol lower in energy than structure 6. This difference in energy can be attributed to the difference in energy of the 1,3-H substituted tetrazole ring (number 1) and the 1,2-H substituted tetrazole ring (number 6). The lowest energy structures with HN(NO₂)₂ contain the 1,3-H substituted tetrazole isomer and have the proton transferred to the central nitrogen of N(NO₂)₂⁻. Also shown in Figures 9–11 are the changes in energy for the reaction in which the infinitely separated anion and cation come together to form either an ion pair or a neutral pair by proton transfer from the cation to the anion:

\[
[tetrazolium]^+ + [anion]^- \rightarrow [tetrazole][H-anion]
\]

or

\[
[tetrazolium]^+ + [anion]^- \rightarrow [tetrazolium][anion]
\]

(anion = NO₃⁻, ClO₄⁻, or N(NO₂)₂⁻)

For pairs in which a proton transfers, the neutral pair is lower in energy than the separated neutral products, due to the stabilization from electrostatic interactions in the neutral dimer products. The average dimer stabilization is 7.3, 9.6, and 8.4 kcal/mol for [HNO₃], [HClO₄], and [HN(NO₂)₂] respectively.

At the DFT level of theory there are some stable N(NO₂)₂⁻–cation pair geometries; however when those DFT geometries are optimized with MP2, the acidic proton usually transfers to the anion. Only one stable anion–cation pair was found at the MP2 level of theory. This ion pair is structure 13 in Figure 11. The ion pair is higher in energy by 17.8 kcal/mol than the lowest energy neutral pair at MP2/6-31G(d). In this structure the N–H bond length is stretched to 1.076 Å as compared to 1.019 Å for the nonacidic hydrogen. The hydrogen bond length is also much shorter at 1.598 Å. The length of the hydrogen bonds show that the hydrogen bond in the ionic structure is much stronger than the hydrogen bond in the various neutral structures. The MP2 barrier for proton transfer from the cation to the anion of structure 13 of Figure 11 is 0.4 kcal/mol (Figure 13); however, when ZPE corrections are accounted for, the barrier disappears. For all dimer pairs, proton transfer from a cation to the nitrogen of the dinitramide anion is favored energetically over proton transfer to one of the oxygens of the dinitramide anion.

Gas phase calculations on an ionic pair can, of course, only give an approximation to the true interactions in a crystallized ionic liquid. Proton transfer from the cation to the anion should be less likely in the crystal or in bulk liquid. For example, in studies of ammonium salts, proton transfer occurs in the isolated gas-phase ion pair, but stable ion pairs are found when two anions and two cations are present. MP2/6-31++G(d,p) calculations on 1,2,4-triazolium dinitramide typically do not give stable ion pairs. The most recent MP2 calculations done on three ion pairs of 1,2,4-triazolium dinitramide, show that the six ion cluster is only 1.0 kcal/mol higher in energy than the

![Figure 9](image1.jpg)

Figure 9. Optimized structures (Å) and MP2 and B3LYP (in parentheses) relative energies (kcal/mol) for proton transferred structures that result from optimization of initial geometries of a tetrazolium cation paired with a NO₃⁻ anion. MP2 heats of reaction (in brackets) in kcal/mol for the following reaction: tetrazolium + NO₃⁻ → [tetrazole][H–NO₃].

![Figure 10](image2.jpg)

Figure 10. Optimized structures (Å) and MP2 and B3LYP (in parentheses) relative energies (kcal/mol) for proton transferred structures that result from optimization of initial geometries of a tetrazolium cation paired with a ClO₄⁻ anion. MP2 heats of reaction (in brackets) in kcal/mol for the following reaction: tetrazolium + ClO₄⁻ → [tetrazole][H–ClO₄].

Tetrazolium dinitramide (Figure 11) pairs have a much wider variety of structures than tetrazolium nitrate or tetrazolium perchlorate pairs. This is because the dinitramide anion has the

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**References**


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Figure 11. Optimized structures (Å) and MP2 and B3LYP (in parentheses) relative energies (kcal/mol) of the tetrazolium cation paired with a N(NO₂)₂⁻ anion. MP2 heats of reaction (in brackets) in kcal/mol for the following reaction: tetrazolium + N(NO₂)₂⁻ → [tetrazole][HN(NO₂)]₂ or (see text) [tetrazolium][N(NO₂)]₂.
in energy than isomers I and II. A MCSCF $\sigma$ orbital analysis indicates that the electrons in the cation ring are delocalized. Calculated heats of formation show that the tetrazolium cation ring has the potential to release large amounts of energy during decomposition and thus has excellent potential as a high energy fuel. This is especially true when the ring is substituted with $-\text{N}_3$ or $-\text{CN}$. When a cation is paired with oxygen rich anions, a single gas phase ion pair was not generally found to be stable. A proton transfers without barrier from the cation to the anion to form a neutral pair.

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**References and Notes**


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