

§ 6 Structures of polyatomic molecules (II)

Introduction:

- In chapter 5, we focused on the (localized and delocalized) σ - and π -bonds within polyatomic molecules in terms of hybrid orbital theory (VB) and MO theory as well as the symmetry rules for chemical reactions of polyatomic molecules.
- In this chapter, we will discuss *multi-center bonds in electron-deficient molecules* (e.g., boranes and carboranes) and the chemical bonds in coordination compounds.

§ 6 Structures of polyatomic molecules (II)

6.1 Multi-center bonds in electron-deficient systems

6.2 Chemical bonds in coordination compounds

6.3 Ligand Field Theory (LFT)

6.4 Transition-metal cluster compounds

6.5 Carbon clusters and nanotubes

Qualitative description of Chemical bonding within a molecule: VB vs. MO

- **VB:** Valence AOs or hybridized orbitals of each atom(s)
 - Forming 2c-2e σ -/ π -bonds with AOs of surrounding atoms.
 - If necessary, resonance of VB structures are used to account for electron delocalization (e.g., the Π_6^6 bond in benzene)!
- **MO: LCAO-MO**
 - Formation of bonding & nonbonding MOs.
- * Both hybridization & electron delocalization (e.g., Π_a^b bond) are inherently taken into account.

A molecule/an aggregate of atoms can have several isomers.
How to quickly predict its structure/bonding pattern?

Qualitative description of Chemical bonding within a molecule: VB vs. MO

A molecule/an aggregate of atoms can have several isomers.
How can one quickly predict its structure/bonding pattern?

1. Chemical bondings occur between the valence atomic orbitals (VAOs) (and valence electrons (VEs)) of the constituent atoms within a molecule.
2. The more VEs and VAOs involved in chemical bondings, the more stable is a molecule.
→ A molecule prefers the bonding pattern/structure that involves as many bonding VEs & VAOs as possible!

A brief summary on the electronic structures of molecules we have learnt

(MO & VB)

A polyatomic molecule with a closed-shell electronic configuration has m (=even) VEs and n VAOs.

1) If $m = n$,

VB: $n/2$ 2c-2e (σ -/ π -) bonds (σ first!);

MO: $n/2$ bonding MOs (occupied!) & $n/2$ antibonding MOs.

Then if necessary can electron delocalization be considered.

C_2H_2 : 10 VAOs/VEs = 2×4 (C) + 2×1 (H)

→ VB: 3 σ -bonds & 2 π -bond.

→ MO: 3 σ - & 2 π -bonding MOs .

A brief summary on the electronic structures of molecules we have learnt

(MO & VB)

2) If $m > n$,

VB: $(m-n)$ lone pairs & $(2n-m)/2$ $2c-2e$ bonds;

MO: $(m-n)$ *nonbonding* MOs & $(2n-m)/2$ *bonding* MOs.

Then if necessary can electron delocalization be considered.

H₂O: 4 VAOs(O) + 2 1s(H) + 8VE → VB: 2 LPs & 2 σ -bonds.

→ **MO: 2 nonbonding, 2 σ -bonding MOs (occupied)**

& 2 antibonding MOs (unoccupied!)

3) If $m < n$, ? (to be learnt in this chapter).

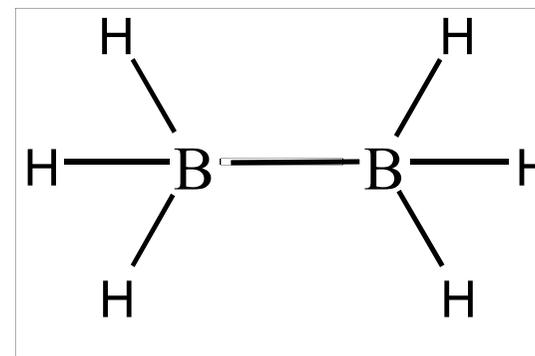
6.1 Multi-center bonds in electron-deficient systems

6.1.1 Boranes and their relatives

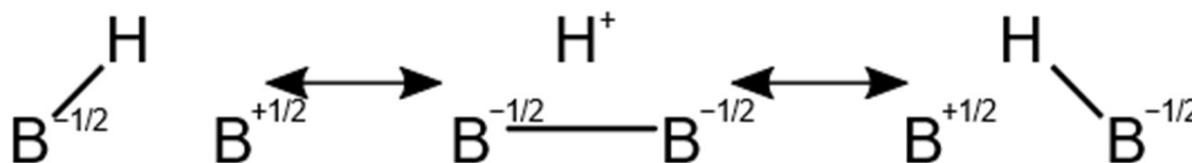
i. B_2H_6

$$VAO = 4(B) \times 2 + 1(H) \times 6 = 14$$

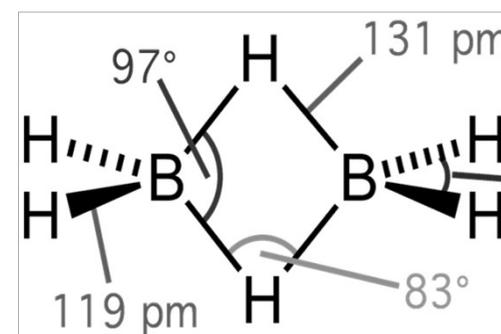
$$VE = 3(B) \times 2 + 1(H) \times 6 = 12$$



- An ethane-like structure having 7 2c-2e bonds needs 14 VEs. Lack of two VEs!
- To make full use of all VAOs, two three-center two-electron (3c-2e) B-H-B bonds are formed.

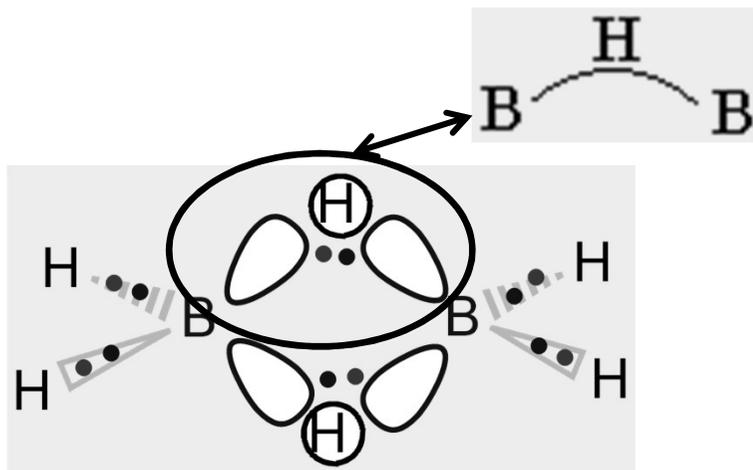


Resonance structures of 3c-2e bond
in diborane (*VB description*)



i. B₂H₆

Localized MO description



For a B atom: sp³-hybridization

- 2 VEs used by 2 terminal B-H bonds
- One VE&HO is used to form a B-H-B bond with a H 1s and a HO of another B atom!

three-center two-electron B-H-B bond:

B : sp³ hybridization, H : 1s orbital

$$\psi = C_a \psi_{B1} + C_b \psi_H + C_a \psi_{B2}$$

its HMO secular equation is :

$$\begin{vmatrix} E_B - E & \beta & 0 \\ \beta & E_H - E & \beta \\ 0 & \beta & E_B - E \end{vmatrix} = 0$$

$$E_1 = E_H + c\beta \quad (\text{bonding})$$

$$E_2 = E_B \quad (E_2 > E_H) \quad (\text{non - bonding})$$

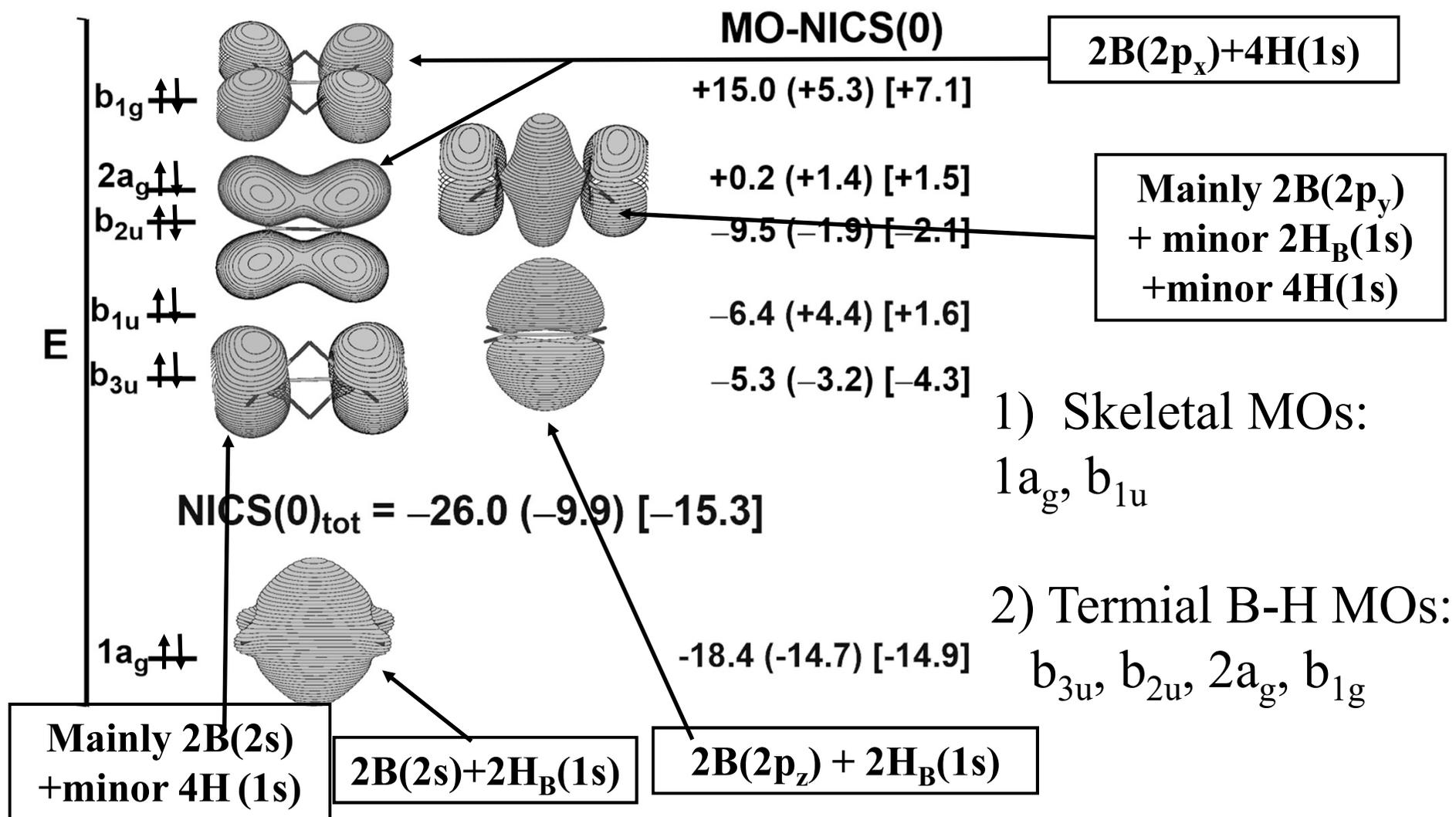
$$E_3 = E_B - c'\beta \quad (\text{anti - bonding})$$

$$\psi_1 = \frac{1}{2}(\psi_{B1} + \sqrt{2}\psi_H + \psi_{B2})$$

$$\psi_2 = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(\psi_{B1} - \psi_{B2})$$

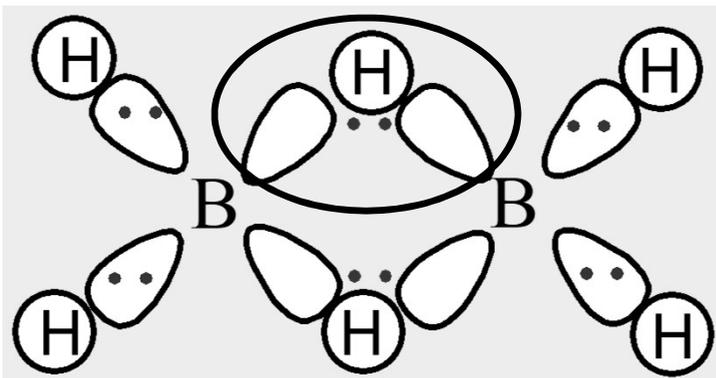
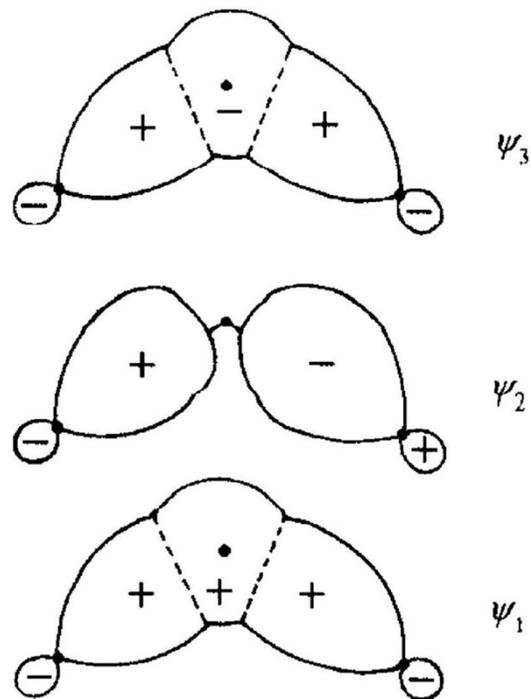
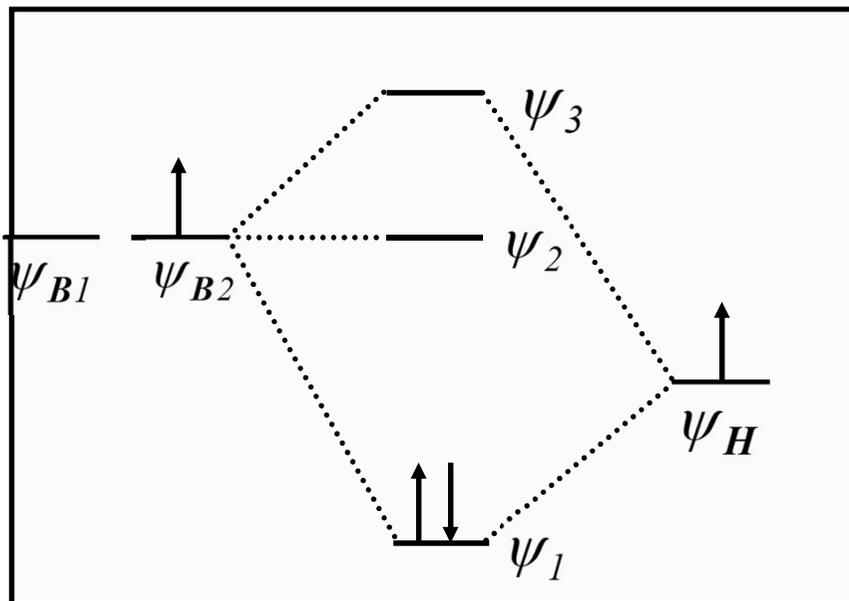
$$\psi_3 = \frac{1}{2}(\psi_{B1} - \sqrt{2}\psi_H + \psi_{B2})$$

B₂H₆: canonical valence molecular orbitals



Note: The CMOs can be transformed into LMOs, two of which are the 3c2e LMOs!

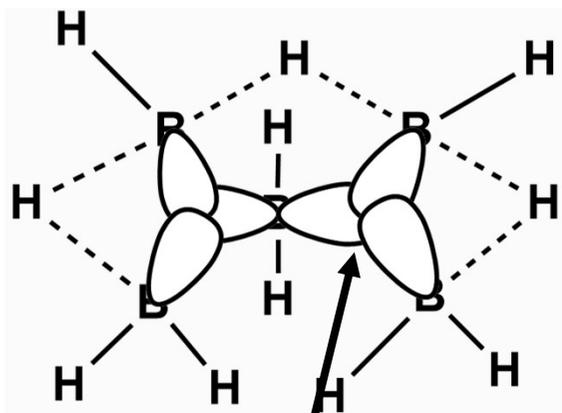
Three-center two-electron (3c-2e) B-H-B bond:



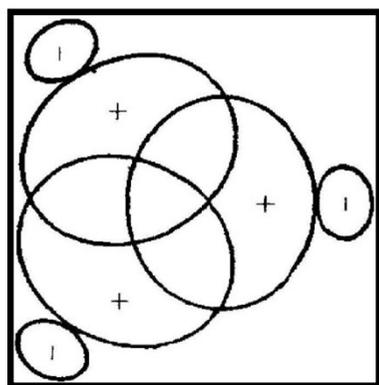
- B_2H_6 , actually having 14 VAOs and 12 VEs, has to form two 3c-2e BHB bonds to involve all VAOs into bonding MOs.

ii. B_5H_{11} Nido structure

Electron-deficient multi-center bonds



- $VAO = 5 \times 4(B) + 11(H) = 31$ (needs 31VE)
- $VE = 15(B) + 11(H) = 26$
- Actually having 8 BH σ -bonds, 3 BHB 3c-2e bonds, and **2 BBB 3c-2e bonds!**



Triangular BBB
3c-2e bond

$$\begin{vmatrix} E_B - E & \beta & \beta \\ \beta & E_B - E & \beta \\ \beta & \beta & E_B - E \end{vmatrix} = 0 \quad \text{HMO treatment}$$

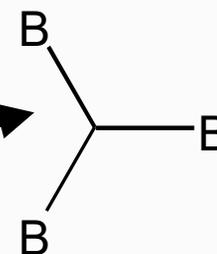
solve secular equation

$$E_1 = E_B + 2\beta$$

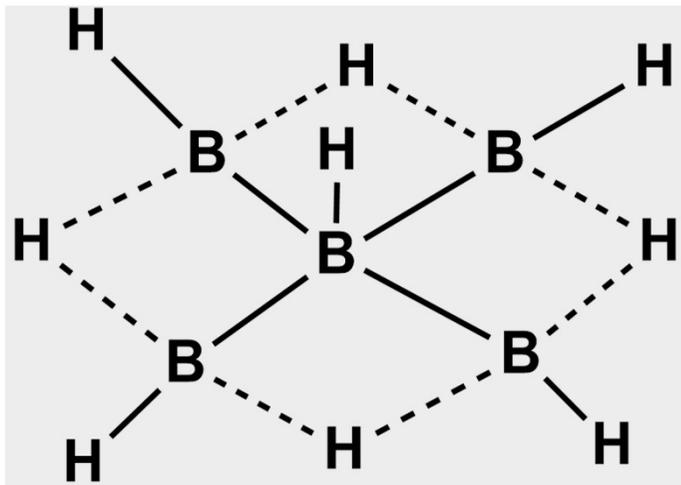
$$E_2 = E_3 = E_B - \beta$$

$$\psi_1 = \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}}(\psi_a + \psi_b + \psi_c)$$

BBB 3c-2e bond



iii. B_5H_9 Nido structure



Electron-deficient multi-center bonds

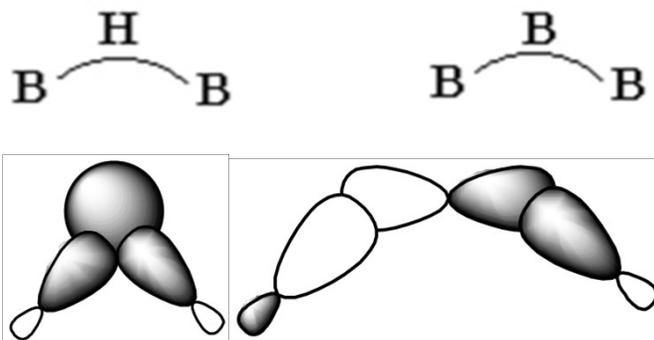
- $VAO = 5 \times 4(B) + 9(H) = 29$
- $VE = 5 \times 3(B) + 9 \times 1(H) = 24e$
 - 1) 5 B-H σ -bonds; (10e)
 - 2) 4 BHB 3c-2e bonds; (8e)
 - 3) a B_5 5c-6e bond. (6e)

- Each peripheral B atom contributes one sp^3 -HO and one electron.
- The central B atom contributes three sp^3 -HOs and 2e.

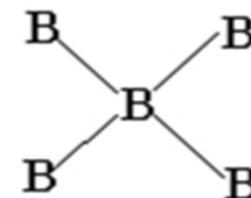
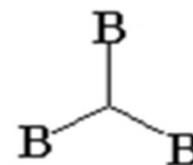
Types of Chemical bonds in Boranes

(a) Single σ -bond (2c-2e): B-H and B-B

(b) 3c-2e bond:



(c) Other polycenter-polyelectron bond

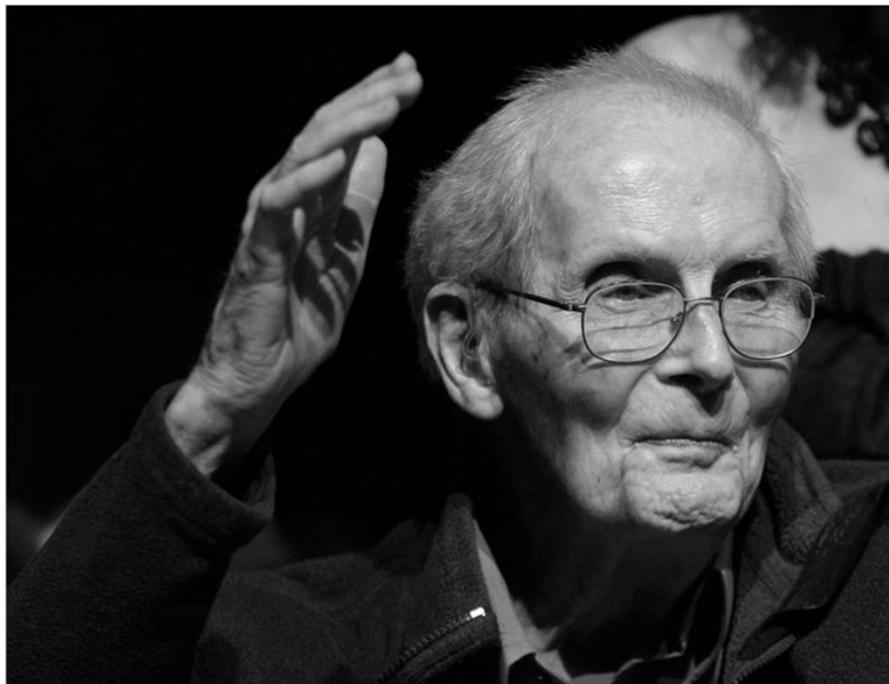


Question arisen:

How to determine the geometric and electronic structures of more complicated boranes?

6.1.2 B_nH_{n+m} with an open-framework structure (including nido- and arachno-type) and Lipscomb's *styx* method.

In mid 1950s, Lipscomb proposed the *styx method* to predict the topological structures of boranes B_nH_{n+m} with open-framework structures.



Linus Pauling
(1954&1962 Nobel Prize winner)



William Lipscomb
(1976 Nobel Prize winner)



Roald Hoffmann
(1981 Nobel prize winner)

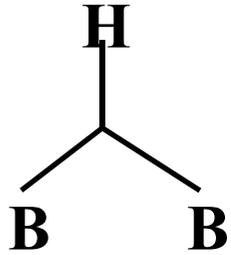
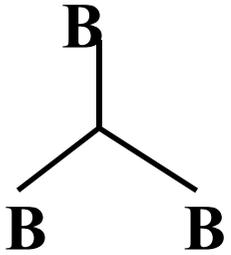
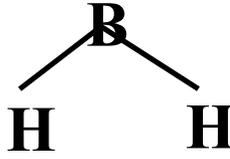
Boranes and their chemical bonding: William Lipscomb

Won Nobel prize, 1976; Passed away on Apr. 14, 2011.

$B_n H_{n+m}$ with an open-framework structure

n : the number of B atoms, thus the minimal number of B-H bonds

m : the number of extra H atoms.

Type	BHB 3c-2e	BBB 3c-2e	BB 2c-2e	Extra B-H
				
Number	s	t	y	x

The condition for a stable borane:

$$\begin{aligned}
 &x = m - s \quad \text{or} \quad m = x + s \\
 &t = n - s \quad \text{or} \quad n = s + t \quad \Longrightarrow \quad p \text{ sets of } styx \quad \Longrightarrow \quad p \text{ isomers} \\
 &y = (2s - m) / 2
 \end{aligned}$$

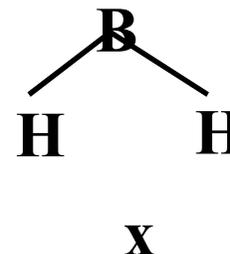
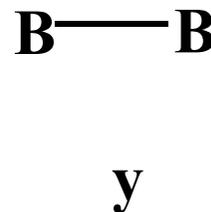
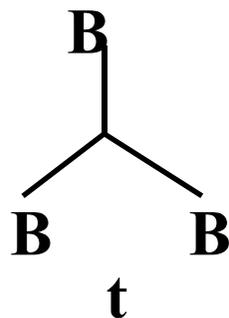
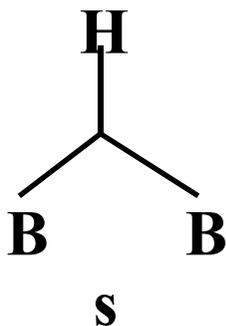
- To differentiate the isomers, each isomer can be labeled by a set of (**styx**).

Why do the three equations define a stable structure?

- a) A B_nH_{n+m} molecule has $(5n+m)$ valence AOs and $(4n+m)$ valence electrons, yet being short of n electrons in order to form a normal $(2c-2e)\sigma$ -bonded molecule.

$(5n+m)$ AOs $\rightarrow (5n+m)/2$ $2c-2e$ bonding σ -bonds.

- b) Thus requiring the formation of n $3c-2e$ bonds to make the whole molecule stable, meaning $n = s + t$ or $t = n - s$.

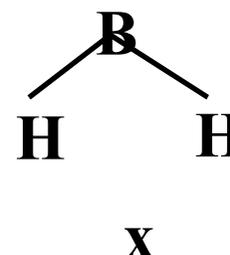
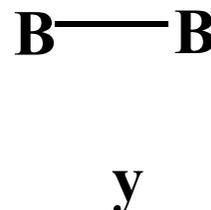
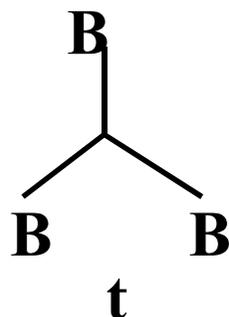
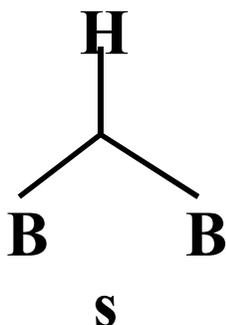


$$t = n - s \quad \text{or} \quad n = s + t$$

Why do the three equations define a stable structure?

c) Except the minimal n terminal B-H σ -bonds, the extra m H atoms are used to form s 3c-2e B-H-B bonds and x extra B-H σ -bonds, meaning $m = s + x$ or $x = m - s$.

d) The total electrons are all used to form various types of bonds, meaning $4n + m = 2n + 2(s + t + y + x) \rightarrow y = (2s - m)/2$.



$$x = m - s \quad \text{or} \quad m = x + s$$

$$t = n - s \quad \text{or} \quad n = s + t$$

$$y = (2s - m)/2$$

$\implies p$ sets of $styx \implies p$ isomers

To differentiate the isomers, each isomer can be labeled by a set of ($styx$).

Example 1: B_4H_{10} (2 isomers)

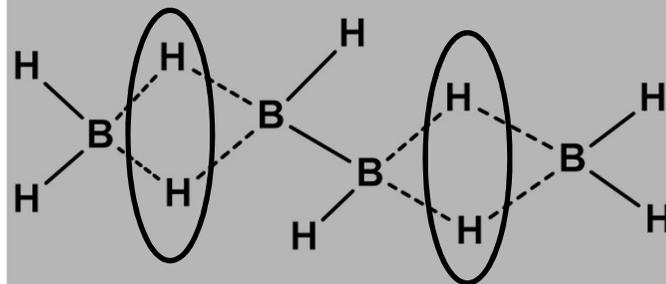
$n=4, m=6$
 $S_{\max} = 4$
 $S_{\min} = 3$
 $x = m - s$
 $t = n - s$
 $y = (2s - m) / 2$

Solution 1
 $s=4$
 $t=0$
 $y=1$
 $x=2$
 BHB
 BBB
 B-B
 B-H_{extra}

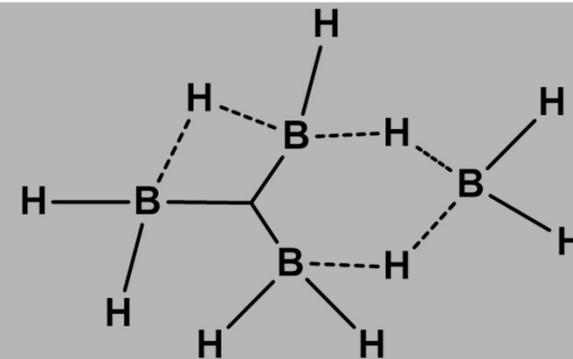
Solution 2

$s=3$
 $t=1$
 $y=0$
 $x=3$

Expt. Structure

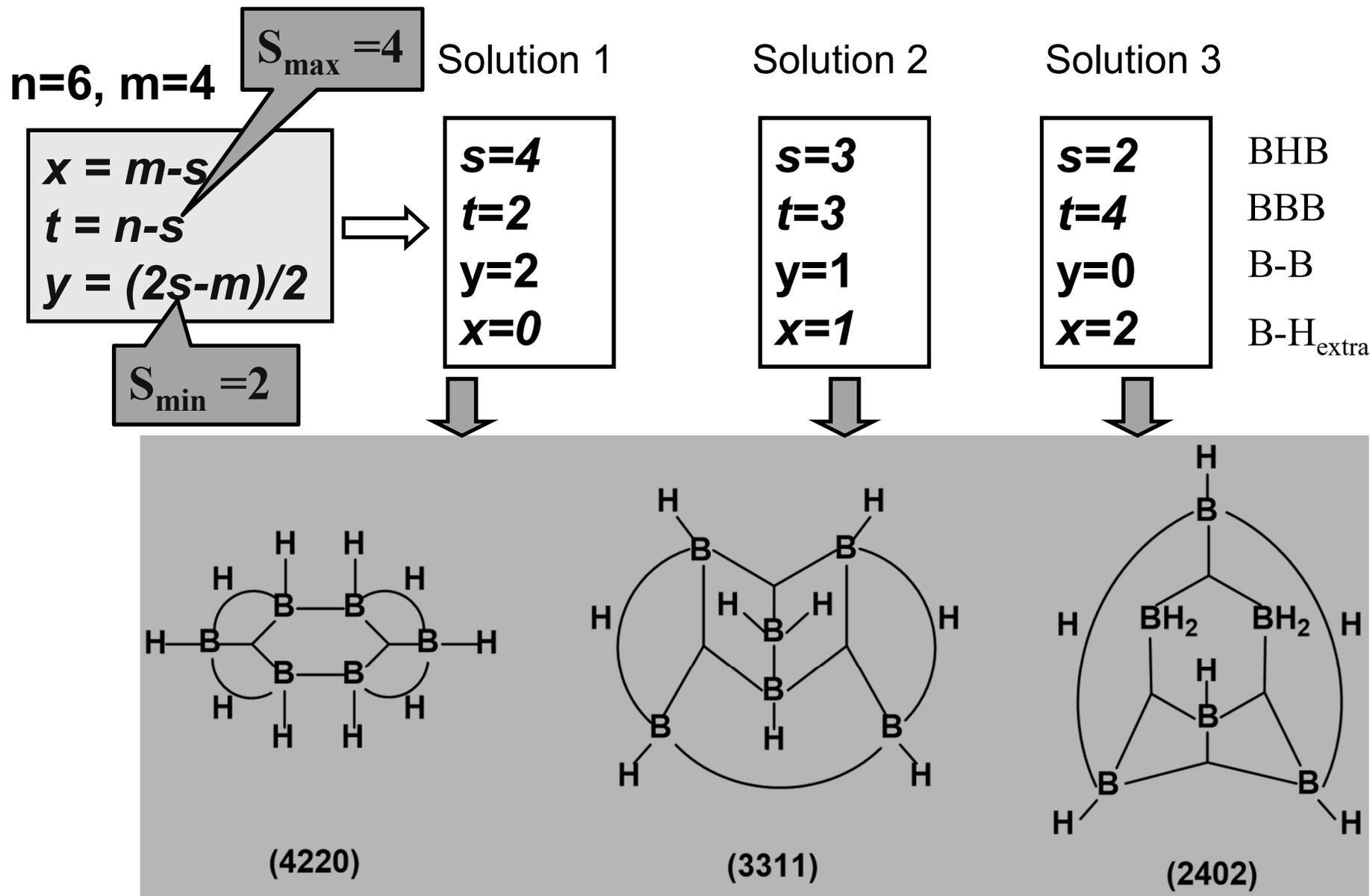


(4012)



(3103)

Example 2: The topological structure of B₆H₁₀ (3 isomers)



Example 3: B_5H_9 (3 isomers)

$n=5, m=4$ $S_{\max}=4$ $S_{\min}=2$

$x = m - s$
 $t = n - s$
 $y = (2s - m) / 2$

Solution 1: $s=4, t=1, y=2, x=0$
 Solution 2: $s=3, t=2, y=1, x=1$
 Solution 3: $s=2, t=3, y=0, x=2$

BHB
 BBB
 B-B
 B-H_{extra}

Expt. Structure

Example 4: B_5H_{11} (3 isomers)

$n=5, m=6$ $S_{\max}=5$ $S_{\min}=3$

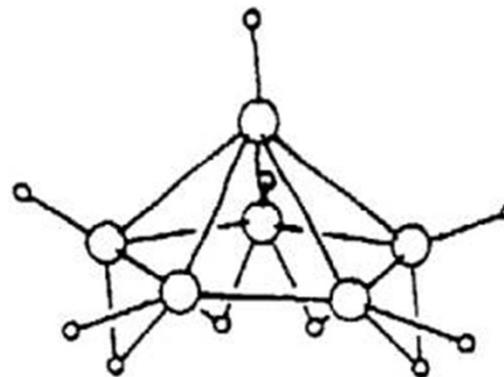
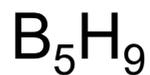
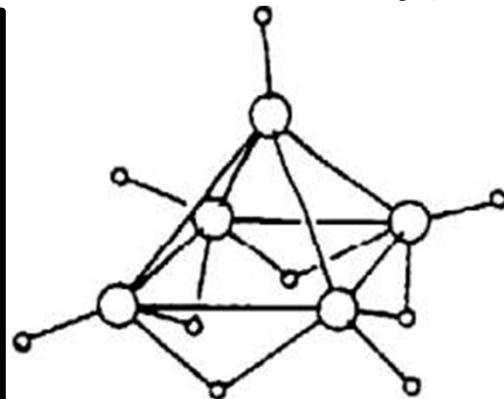
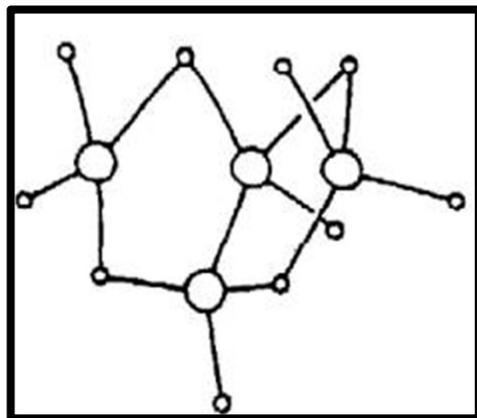
$x = m - s$
 $t = n - s$
 $y = (2s - m) / 2$

Solution 1: $s=5, t=0, y=2, x=1$
 Solution 2: $s=4, t=1, y=1, x=2$
 Solution 3: $s=3, t=2, y=0, x=3$

BHB
 BBB
 B-B
 B-H_{extra}

Expt. Structure

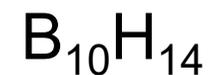
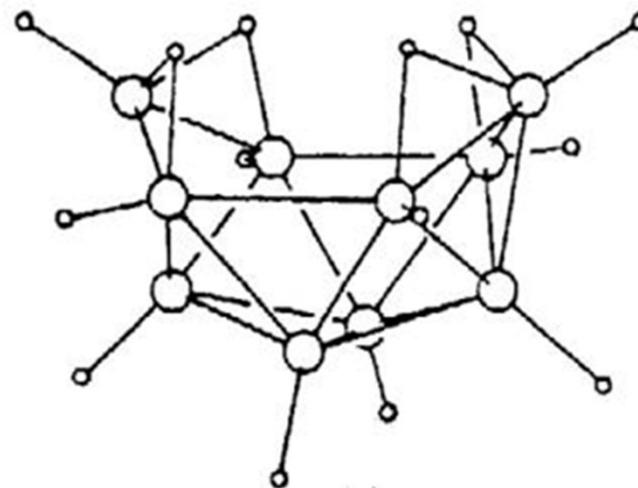
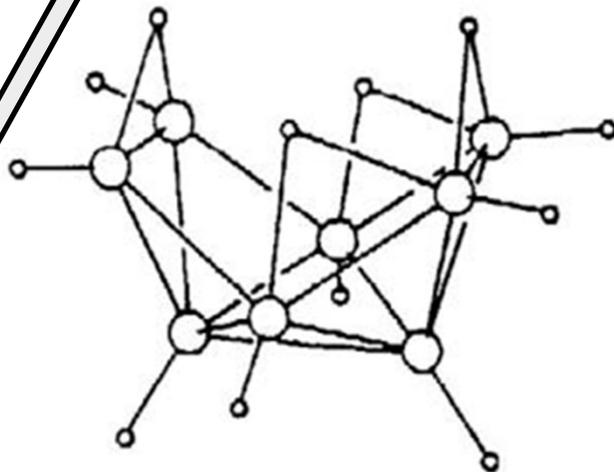
Structures of Boranes: Three types/series



Arachno-type



Nido-type



Closo-type (Cage): $B_nH_n^{2-}$

6.1.3 Borohydride anions $B_nH_n^{2-}$ and carboranes

$C_{n'}B_nH_{(n+n'+m)}$ with closo-structures and the Wade's rule

$B_nH_n^{2-}$ (closo):



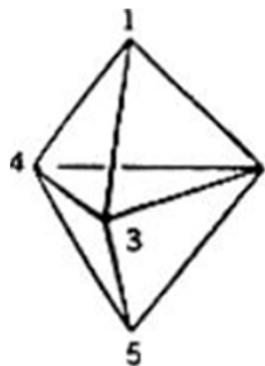
(octahedral)



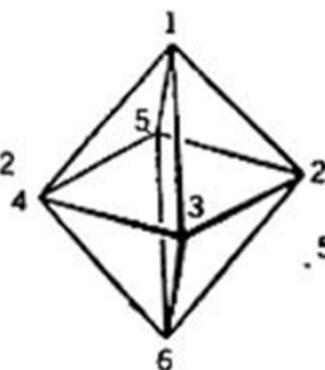
(dodecahedral)



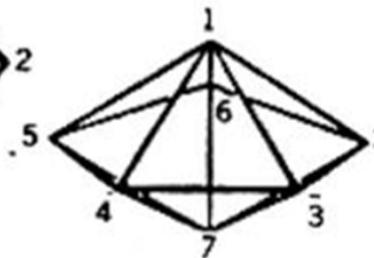
(icosahedral)



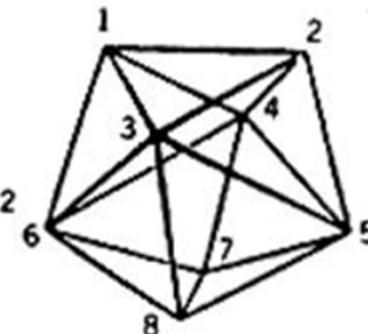
$B_5H_5^{2-} (D_{3h})$



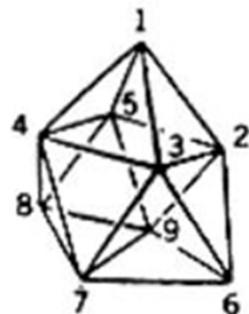
$B_6H_6^{2-} (O_h)$



$B_7H_7^{2-} (D_{5h})$



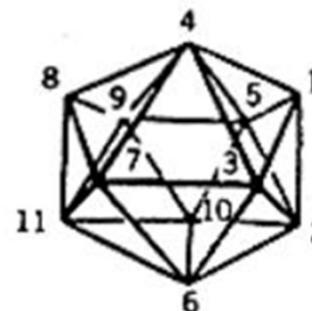
$B_8H_8^{2-} (D_{2d})$



$B_9H_9^{2-} (C_{2v})$



$B_{10}H_{10}^{2-} (D_{4d})$



$B_{11}H_{11}^{2-} (C_{2v})$



$B_{12}H_{12}^{2-} (I_h)$

◆ There is little tendency to add H^+ and form neutral species.

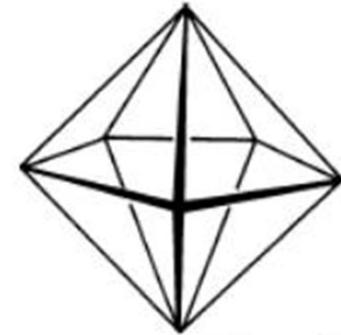
polyhedra with n vertices



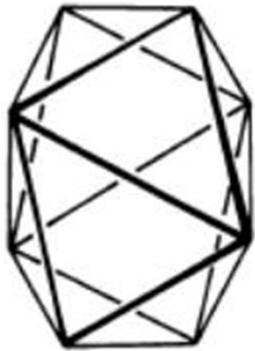
trigonal bipyramid
N = 5



octahedron
N = 6



pentagonal bipyramid
N = 7



dodecahedron
N = 8



tricapped trigonal prism
N = 9



bicapped square
antiprism
N = 10



octadecahedron
N = 11



icosahedron
N = 12

16.8

“Closos” series - formula $B_nH_n^{2-}$

- Total valence electrons:

$$N_{VE}(\text{Total}) = 3n \text{ (B)} + n \text{ (H)} + 2 \text{ (charge)} = 4n+2$$

- Total valence atomic orbitals:

$$N_{VO}(\text{Total}) = 4n \text{ (B)} + n \text{ (H)} = 5n$$

- Each B-H bond uses **2** electrons. (2c-2e σ -bond)

$$\rightarrow N_{VE}(\text{B-H}) = 2n \text{ \& } N_{VO}(\text{B-H}) = 2n$$

- The skeletal VEs (for the polyhedral framework):

$$N_{VE}(\text{skeletal}) = (4n + 2) - 2n = 2(n+1) = N_{FE}$$

$$N_{VO}(\text{skeletal}) = 5n - 2n = 3n$$

MOs in “closo”-series $B_nH_n^{2-}$

- Each B atom is sp-hybridized, forming an exocentric B-H bond.
- Each B atom contributes a radial hybrid orbital to form a total of n radial skeletal MOs with the only one bonding MO being occupied.
- Each B atom has two tangential AOs. These AOs form $2n$ tangential skeletal MOs, half of which are bonding orbitals and doubly occupied.
- **A n -vertice closo-borane anion or carborane has in total of $(n+1)$ bonding skeletal MOs.**

Wade's $(n+1)$ rules



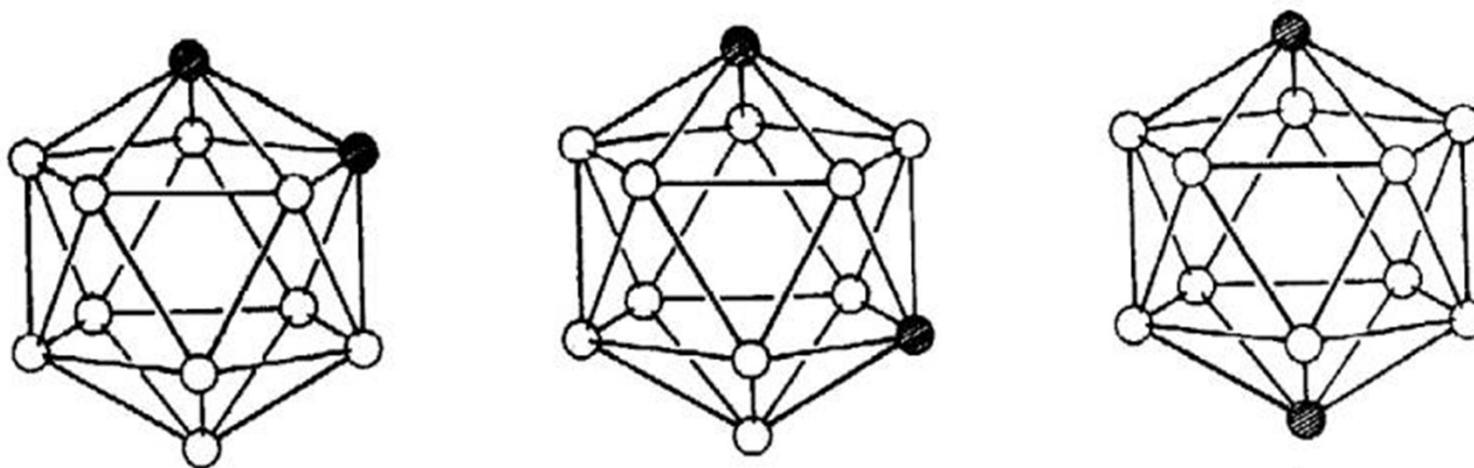
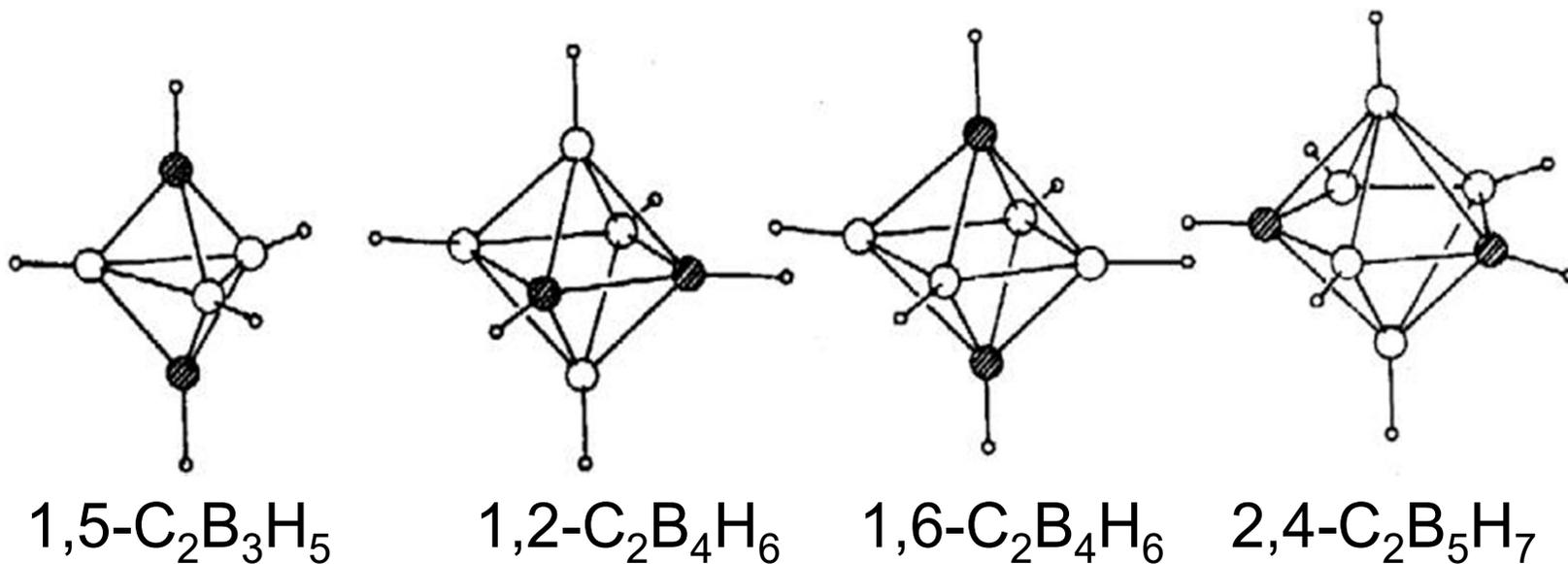
radial
1 bonding
 $n-1$ antibonding



tangential
 n bonding
 n antibonding

- $3n$ skeletal AOs/MOs
- $n+1$ bonding skeletal MOs
- $2n-1$ antibonding skeletal MOs
- $N_{FE} = 2n + 2$

Structure of Carboranes



3 isomers of $C_2B_{10}H_{12}$ (with hydrogen omitted)

Note: Herein the topological atom-atom linkage does not mean the presence of a 2c-2e σ -bond! (3D aromaticity!)

Tang's rule

- For a *closo*-borane/carborane with a n -vertex triangular polyhedral structure, its total bonding MOs amount to **$BMO = 4n - F$** , with **$F = f + 3(s+1)$** .

(f is the number of faces in the polyhedron, s is the number of defected vertices. For a *closo*-structure, $s=0$).

e.g., for octahedral $B_6H_6^{2-}$, $F=8 + 3 = 11$, $BMO = 4 \times 6 - 11 = 13$.

(6 B-H bonds, 7 skeletal bonding MOs.)

- **This rule also works for *nido*- and *arachno*-boranes by supposing the number of defected vertices being 1 and 2, respectively.**

e.g. *nido*- C_5H_9 , $f = 8$, $s = -1$, $F = 8$, **$BMO = 4 \times 5 - 8 = 12$**

5 B-H bonds, 7 skeletal BMOs (i.e., 4 BHB 3c2e bonds, 3 BBB 3c2e bonds).

“Nido” series – formula $B_nH_{(n+4)}$

- Total valence electrons(VEC) = $3n$ (B) + n (H) + 4 (extra H) = $4n + 4$
- Framework electrons (NFE) = $2n + 4$
(i.e., $n+2$ pairs).
- The structure of the “nido” compound is based on the “closo” polyhedron with one more vertex than the “nido” compound.

“Arachno” series – formula $B_nH_{(n+6)}$

- Total valence electrons(VEC) = $4n + 6$
- Framework electrons (NFE) = $2n + 6$
(i.e., $n+3$ pairs).
- The structure of the “nido” compound is based on the “closo” polyhedron with two more vertices than the “nido” compound.

$$BMO = 4n - F$$

$$F = f + 3(s+1).$$

Number of skeletal electrons
to make the structure stable:

$2n+2$ where n = the
number of surface
atoms present in the
cluster, i.e. $n = N$



Closo

$2n+4$ Now $N = n+1$ (so
the number of elec-
trons = $2n'+2$ where
 $n' = n+1$)



missing surface
atom on cluster

Nido

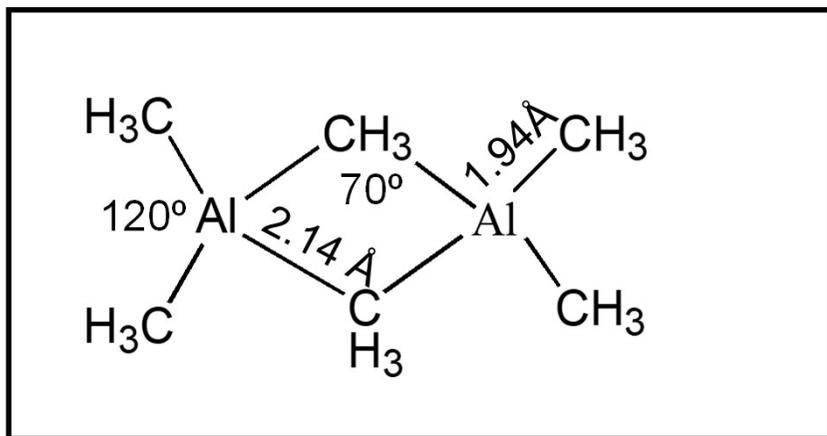
$2n+6$ Now $N = n+2$ (so
the number of elec-
trons is still $2n'+2$
where $n' = n+2$)



Arachno

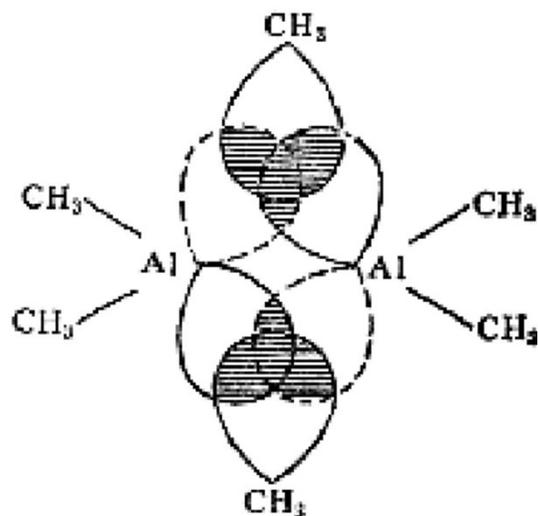
6.1.4 other electron-deficient compounds

Boron group **B**、**Al**、**Ga**、**In**、**Tl**

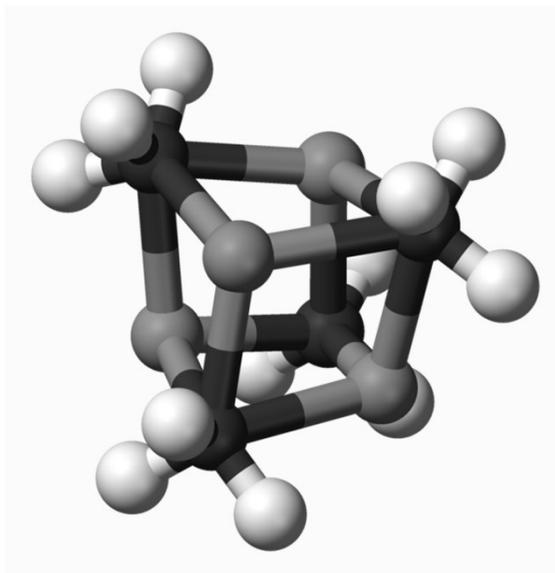
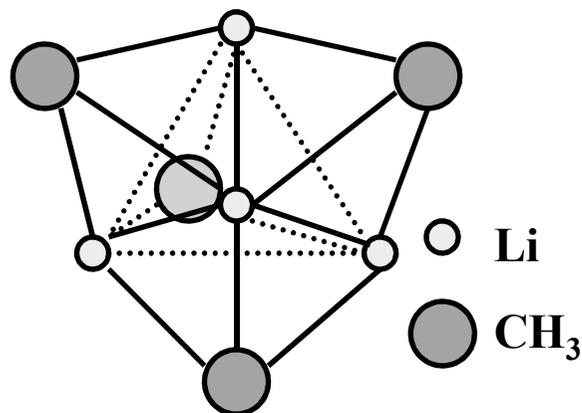


Gas-phase: monomer

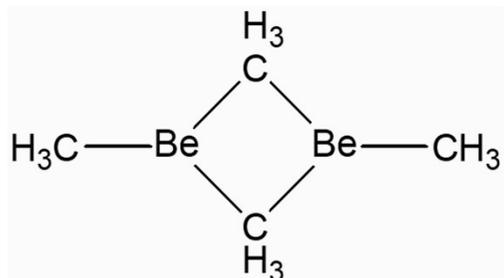
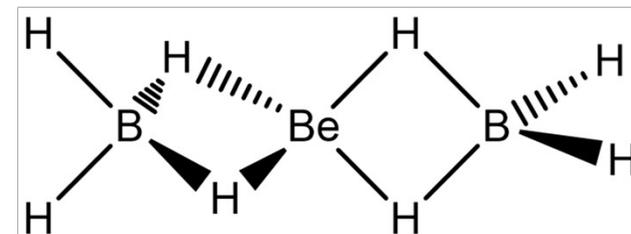
Solid state: dimer or polymer



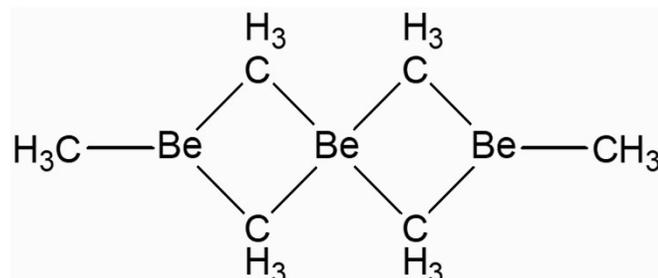
Alkali metal and alkali earth metal alkylides



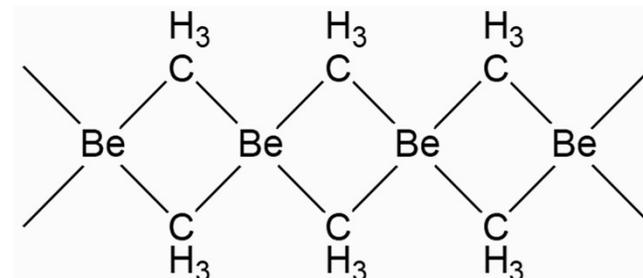
$$\begin{aligned} R(\text{Li-Li}) &= 2.68 \text{ \AA} \\ R(\text{Li-CH}_3) &= 2.31 \text{ \AA} \end{aligned}$$



dimer



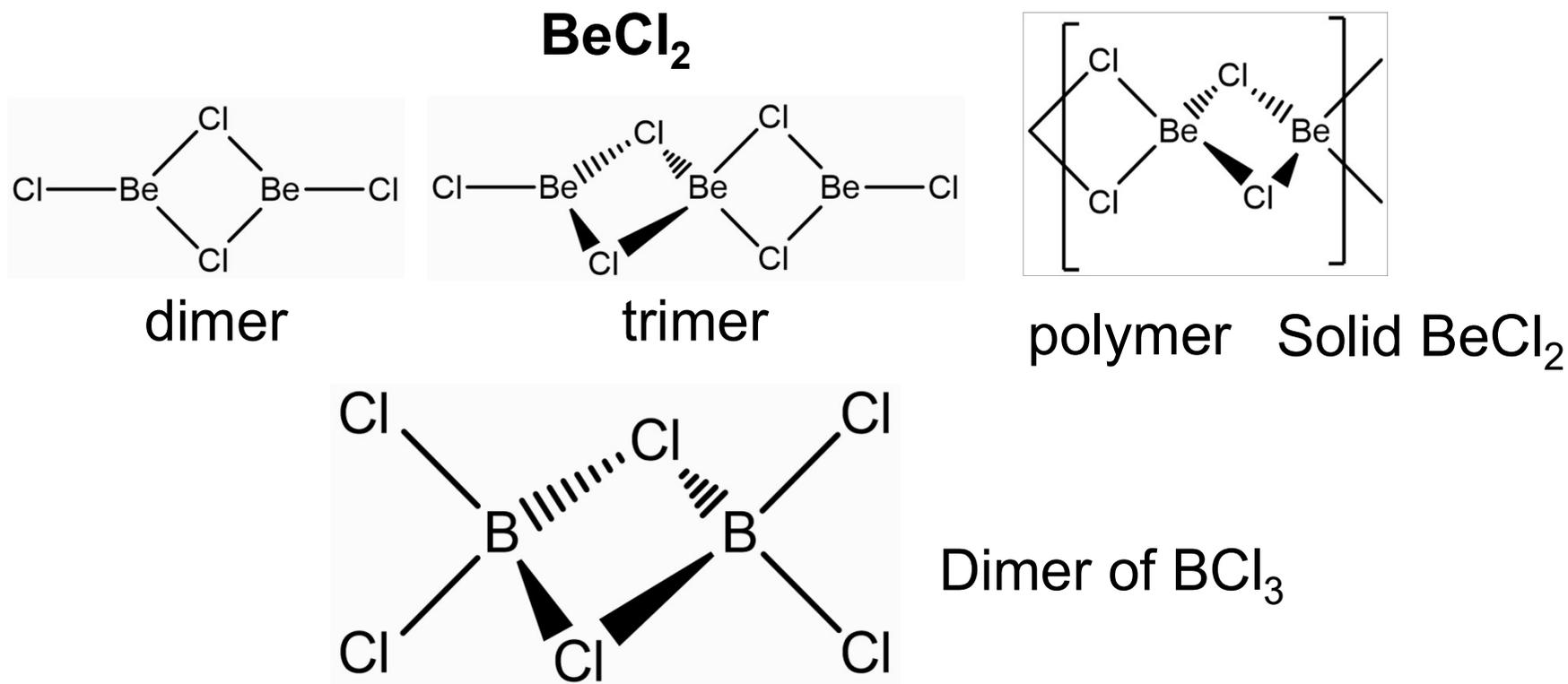
trimer



polymer

Multicenter bond can also exist in transition-metal cluster compounds!

Is there any 3c-2e bond in the following compounds?



There is no 3c-2e bond in these compounds!

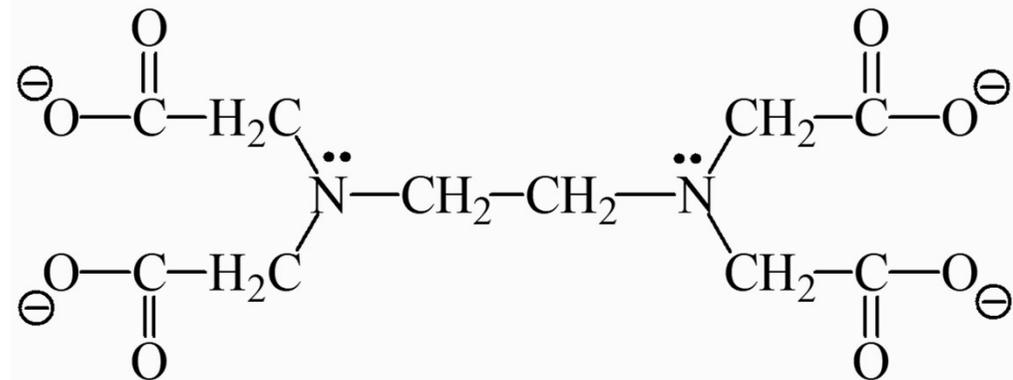
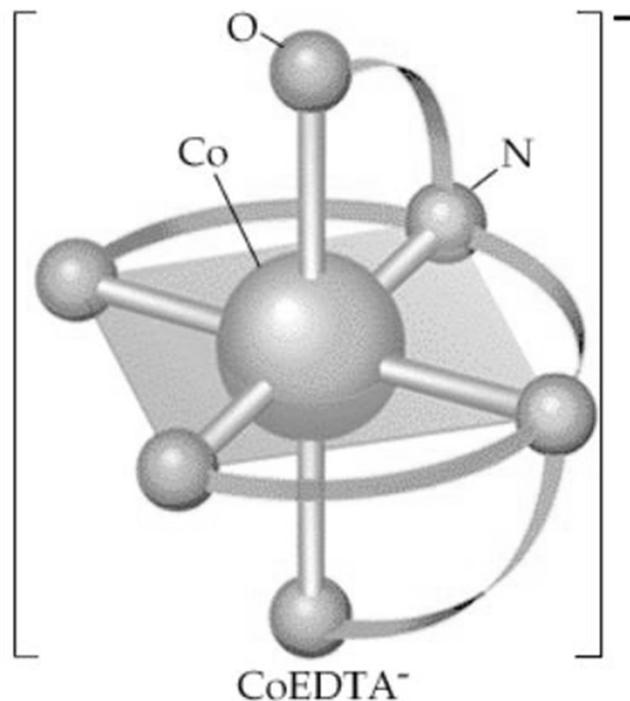
They just have normal & dative 2c-2e bonds!

6.2 Chemical bonds in coordination compounds

Definition of Coordination compound:

Composed of a metal atom or ion and one or more ligands.

- Ligands usually donate electrons to the metal
- Includes organometallic compounds



ethylenediaminetetraacetate (EDTA⁴⁻)
(hexadentate ligand)

Theories to describe the bonding within coordination compounds.

- 1) Valence bond theory: developed by Pauling in early 1930s to explain the coordination number, geometry and magneticity of coordination compounds. (**Hybrid Orbital + Dative Bond!**)
- 2) Crystal field theory: developed by **Bethe** and **van Vleck** in early 1930 to explain the spectra of coordination compounds, but not their chemical bonding!
- 3) Molecular orbital Theory: qualitative description, also can be computationally approached by *ab initio* calculations.
- 4) Ligand field theory: a combination of CFT and MOT.

6.2.1 Coordination polyhedron: (VB description)

molecule	C.N.	hybridization Of metal	Symmetry	Geometry
$\text{Ag}(\text{NH}_3)_2^+$	2	sp		linear
CuCl_3^-	3	sp^2	D_{3h}	triangular
$\text{Ni}(\text{CO})_4$	4	sp^3	T_d	tetrahedral
PtCl_4^{2-}	4	dsp^2	D_{4h}	square planar
$\text{Fe}(\text{CO})_5$	5	dsp^3	D_{3h}	Trigonal bipyramidal
	5	d^2sp^2	C_{4v}	square pyramid
FeF_6^{4-}	6	d^2sp^3	O_h	octahedral
others	8		D_{4h}	tetragonal
	8		D_{4d}	Antisquare pyramidal
	10			Bicapped square antiprism
	12		I_h	icosahedral

Coordinate covalent bond & Coordinate ionic bond

Coordinate covalent bond & Coordinate ionic bond

Coordinate covalent bond:

To form dative covalent bonds, the central transition metal ion has to rearrange its nd -AO electrons to empty some of its d -AOs for hybridization!

→ Central transition metal ion adopts a low-spin state.

Coordinate ionic bond: M-L bond is ionic (electrostatic)!

→ Central transition metal ion adopts a high-spin state.

6.2.2 Crystal Field Model

Mainly focuses on the energy splitting of d (or f) orbitals (belonging to the central TM atom).

Assumptions:

1. Ligands are regarded as negative point charges or point dipoles.
2. Metal-ligand bonding is supposed to be entirely ionic.

The otherwise degenerate $(n-1)d$ -orbitals of the central metal atom are split into two or more groups of different energies and symmetries in the electrostatic field exerted by the surrounding ligands.

- Strong-field: large splitting of d orbitals \rightarrow low-spin
- Weak-field: small splitting of d orbitals \rightarrow high-spin

Perturbation Theory

$$\hat{H} = \hat{H}_0 + \hat{H}' \text{ (Crystal Field)}$$

Hamiltonian of metal atom (central force field)

Potential energy operator arising from the crystal field.

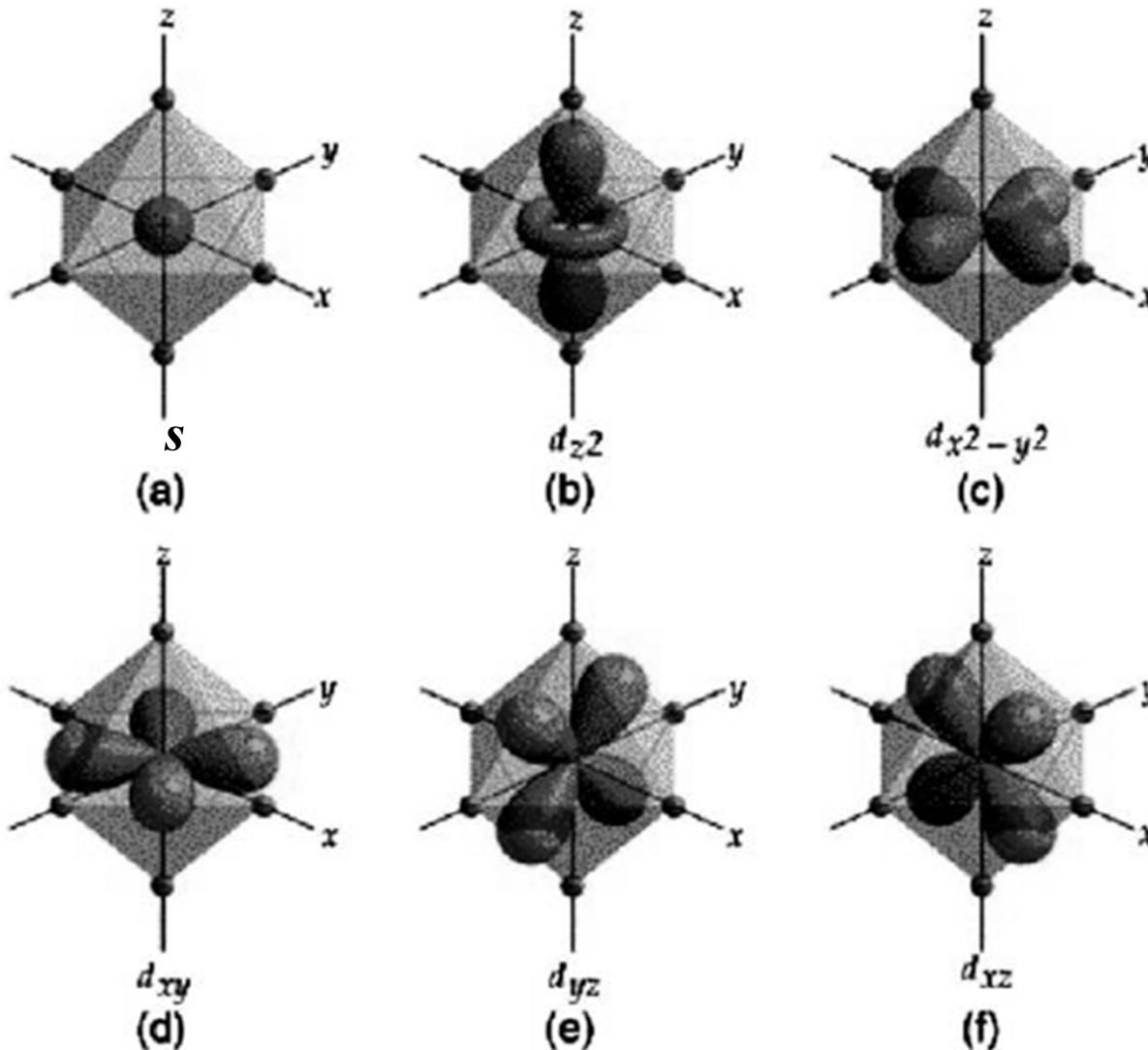
Spherical symmetry

Non-spherical symmetry

- The AOs' symmetries of the central atom now depend on the symmetry of the crystal field.
- The energy gap between the otherwise degenerate atomic orbitals (e.g., *d AOs*) is dependent on the strength of the crystal field.

CFT A. Crystal-field splitting of d orbitals

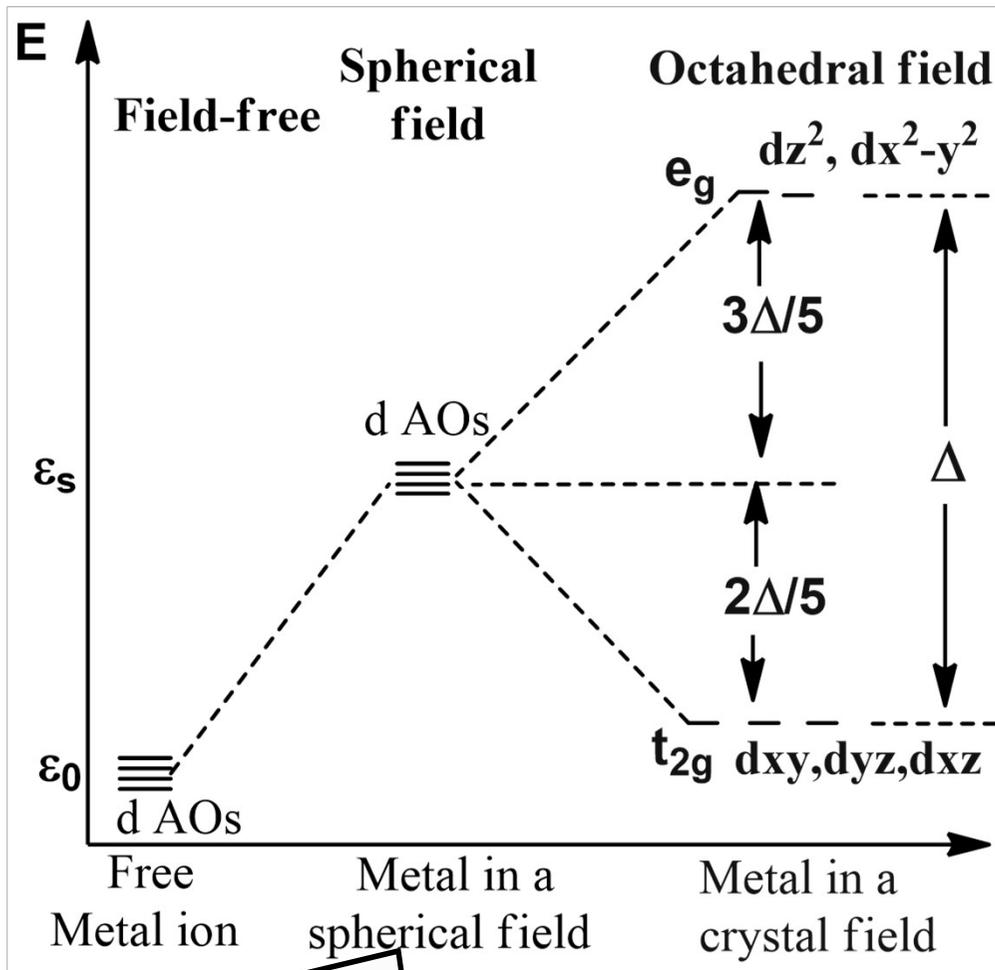
Example 1: octahedral field



s and d-orbitals of a transition-metal atom.

- CF: octahedrally distributed negative charges.
- A qualitative picture: The d_{z^2} and $d_{x^2-y^2}$ orbitals of the central atom suffer from stronger repulsion from the ligands than do the other three d-orbitals.

Octahedral field: Semi-quantitative picture



Stronger CF results in:

- i) Larger $\epsilon_s - \epsilon_0$ gap.
- ii) Larger crystal-field splitting energy Δ .

$$\because 6E_{t_{2g}} + 4E_{e_g} = 10\epsilon_s$$

Suppose $\epsilon_s = 0$, and

$$\Delta = E_{e_g} - E_{t_{2g}} = 10D_q$$

$$\Rightarrow 6E_{t_{2g}} + 4E_{e_g} = 10\epsilon_s = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow E_{e_g} = \frac{3}{5}\Delta = 6D_q$$

$$E_{t_{2g}} = -\frac{2}{5}\Delta = -4D_q$$

A hypothetical field by supposing the negative charges of ligands are evenly distributed over the shell.

Crystal-field stabilization energy (CFSE):

For a d^n ion in a crystal field (e.g., an octahedral field), the CFSE is defined as,

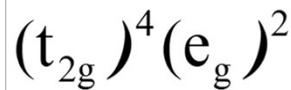
$$CFSE = E(d^n)_{CF} - E(d^n)_{MSF}$$

Sum of electronic energy in CF with d-splitting.

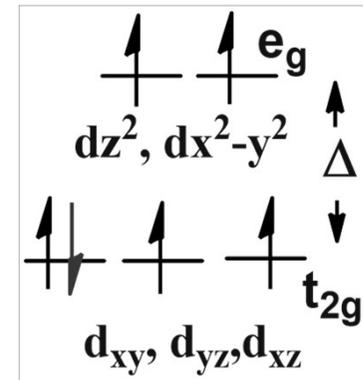
Sum of electronic energy in a mean spherical field without d-splitting.

$$E(d^n)_{MSF} = n\varepsilon_s = 0 \text{ (Let } \varepsilon_s = 0\text{)}$$

e.g., Fe (d^6) in a weak field,



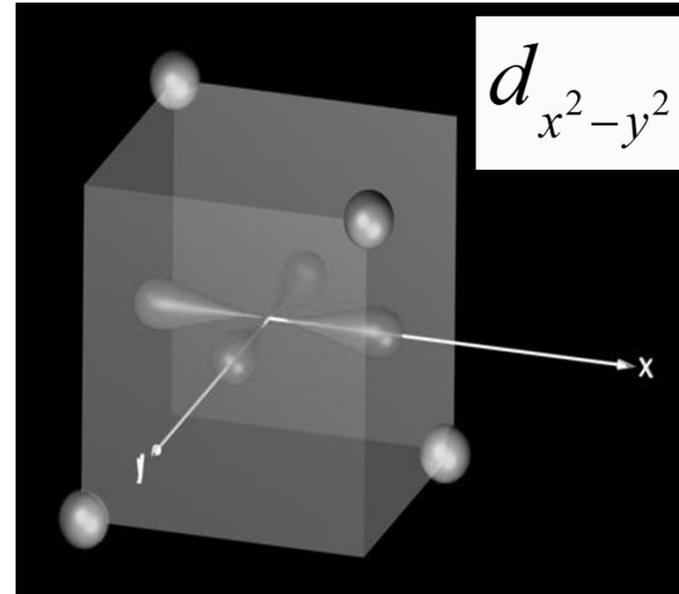
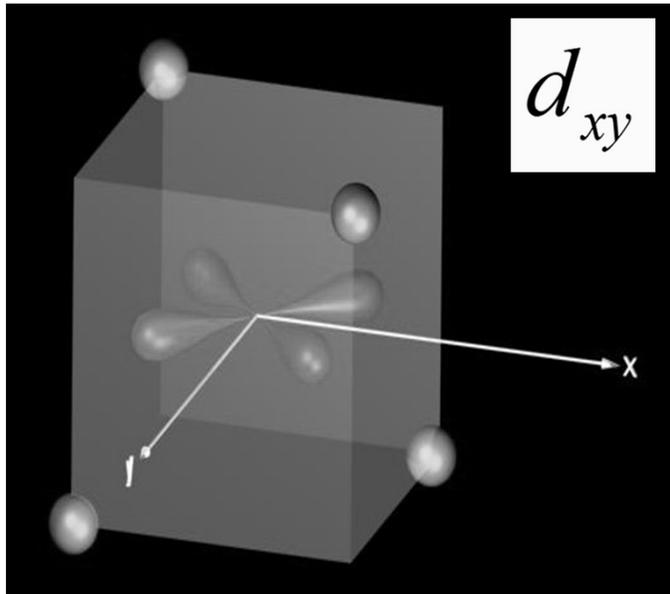
$$CFSE = 4E_{t_{2g}} + 2E_{e_g} = 4\left(-\frac{2\Delta}{5}\right) + 2\left(\frac{3\Delta}{5}\right) = -\frac{2\Delta}{5}$$



Question: Please derive the pattern of d-orbital splitting in a cubic field (also being O_h -symmetric)?

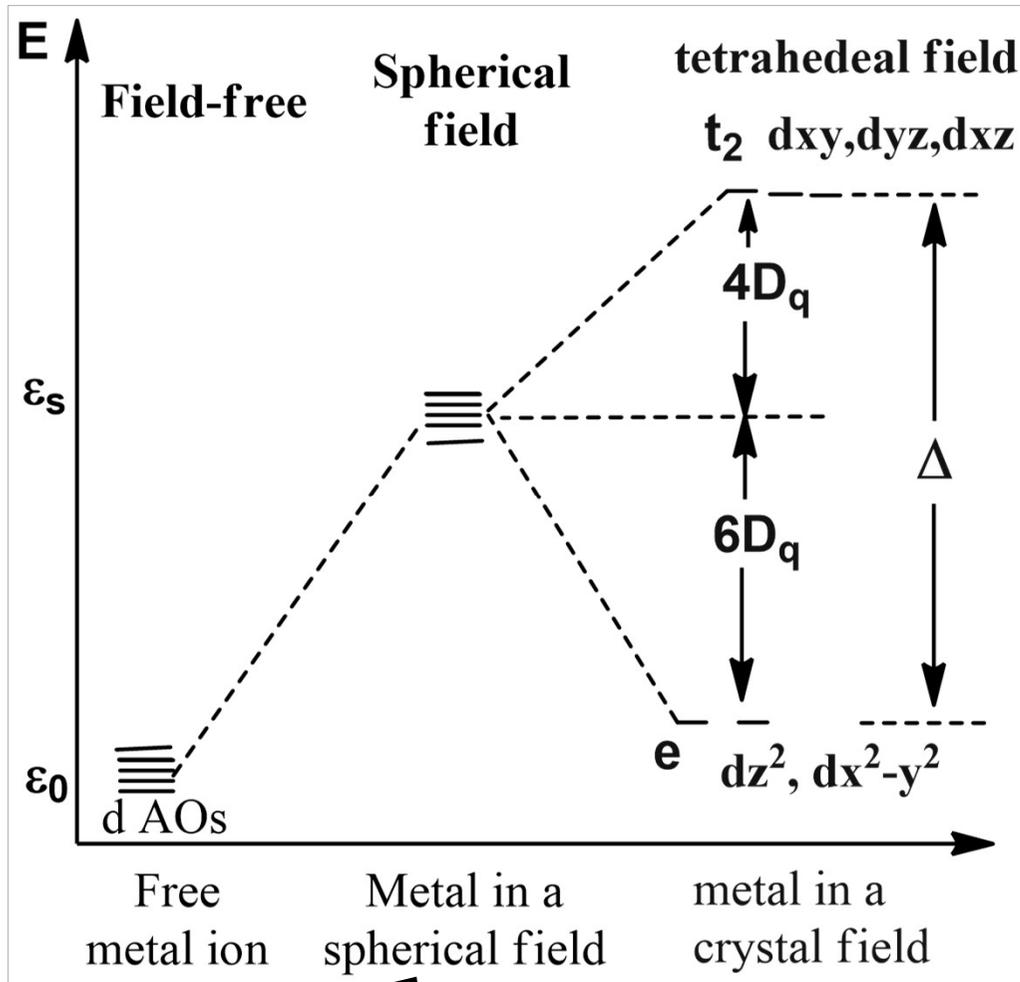
A. Crystal-field splitting of d orbitals

Example 2: tetrahedral field - qualitative analysis



- The distance between d_{xy} (also d_{yz} , d_{xz}) and ligands is shorter than that between $d(x^2-y^2)$ (also d_{z^2}) and ligands.
- Accordingly, the d_{xy} , d_{yz} , and d_{xz} suffer stronger repulsion of the ligands than do the $d(x^2-y^2)$ & d_{z^2} orbitals.

Example 2: tetrahedral field – A semiquantitative picture



Stronger CF results in:

- i) Larger $\epsilon_s - \epsilon_0$ gap.
- ii) Larger crystal-field splitting energy Δ .

$$\because 6E_{t_2} + 4E_e = 10\epsilon_s$$

Suppose $\epsilon_s = 0$, and

$$\Delta = E_{t_2} - E_e = 10D_q$$

$$\Rightarrow 6E_{t_2} + 4E_e = 10\epsilon_s = 0$$

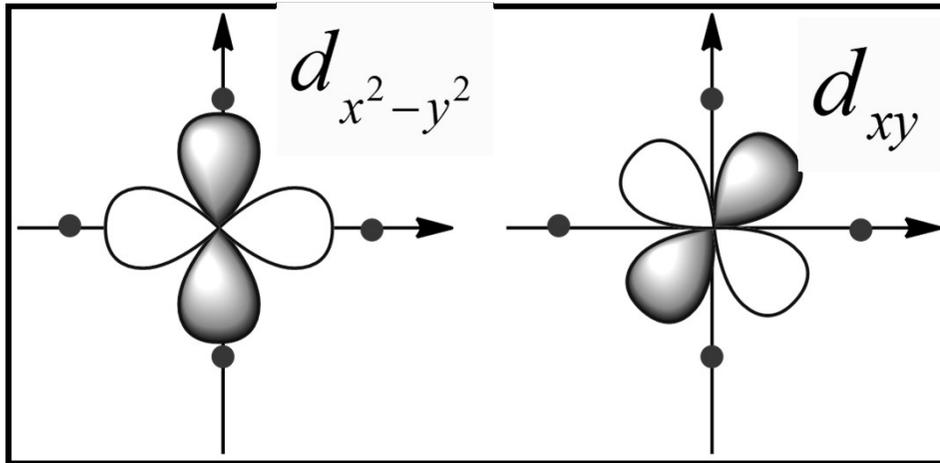
$$\Rightarrow E_e = -6D_q = -\frac{3}{5}\Delta$$

$$E_{t_2} = 4D_q = \frac{2}{5}\Delta$$

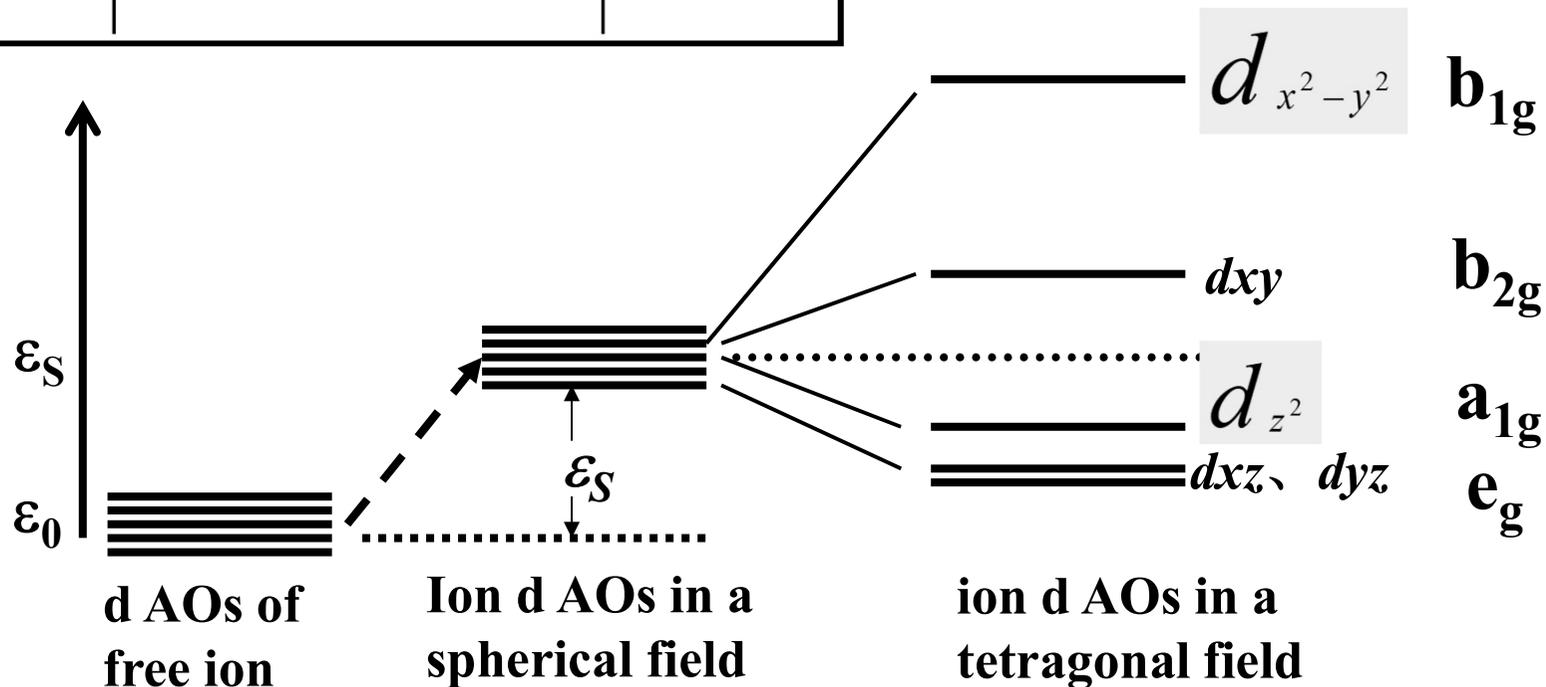
A hypothetical field by supposing the negative charges of ligands are evenly distributed over the shell.

A. Crystal-field splitting of d orbitals

Example 3: Planar tetragonal (D_{4h}) field



- Repulsion of ligands:
 $d(x^2-y^2) > dxy > dz^2$
 $> dxz = dyz$



Different types of crystal field induce different patterns of d-orbital splitting.

l	AOs	O_h (octahedral)	T_d	D_{4h}
0	s	a_{1g}	a_1	a_{1g}
1	p	t_{1u}	t_2	$a_{2u} < e_u$
2	d	$t_{2g} < e_g$ ($t_{2g} > e_g$ in a cube)	$e < t_2$	$e_g < a_{1g} < b_{2g}$ $< b_{1g}$
3	f	$a_{2u} + t_{1u} + t_{2u}$		

Question: Why are the three p orbitals degenerate in a crystal field of O_h - or T_d -symmetry, but non-degenerate in a crystal-field of D_{4h} -symmetry?

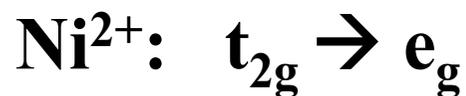
B. Effects of Crystal-field splitting

B1. spectrochemical series



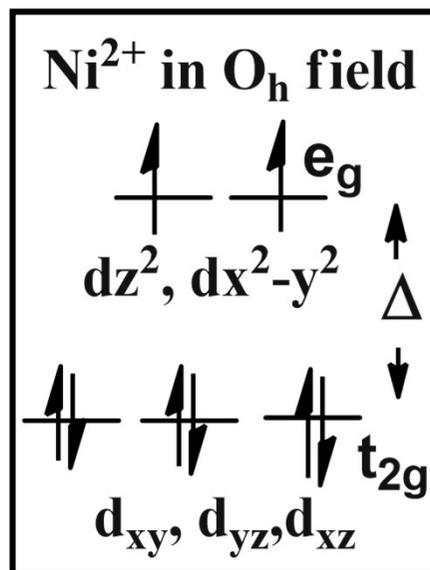
strongest CF

largest Δ



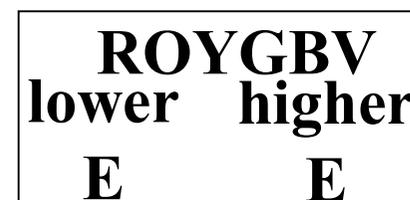
d-d excitation:

$\Delta E = h\nu$ ~visible region
(UV-vis)

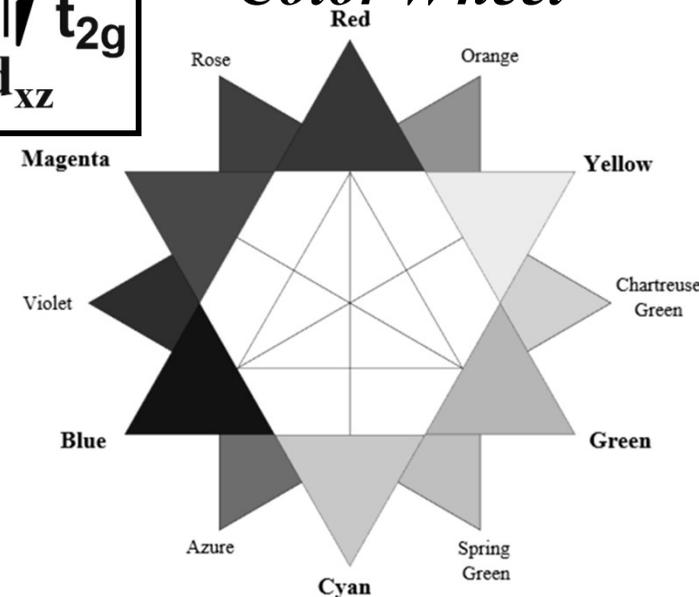


weakest CF

smallest Δ



Color Wheel



	<u>absorbs</u>	<u>appears</u>
weakest $\text{Ni}(\text{H}_2\text{O})_6^{2+}$	<R	GB
$\text{Ni}(\text{NH}_3)_6^{2+}$	O	B
$\text{Ni}(\text{en})_3^{2+}$	G	V
Strongest $\text{Ni}(\text{CN})_4^{2-}$	BV	Yellow

en=ethylenediamine

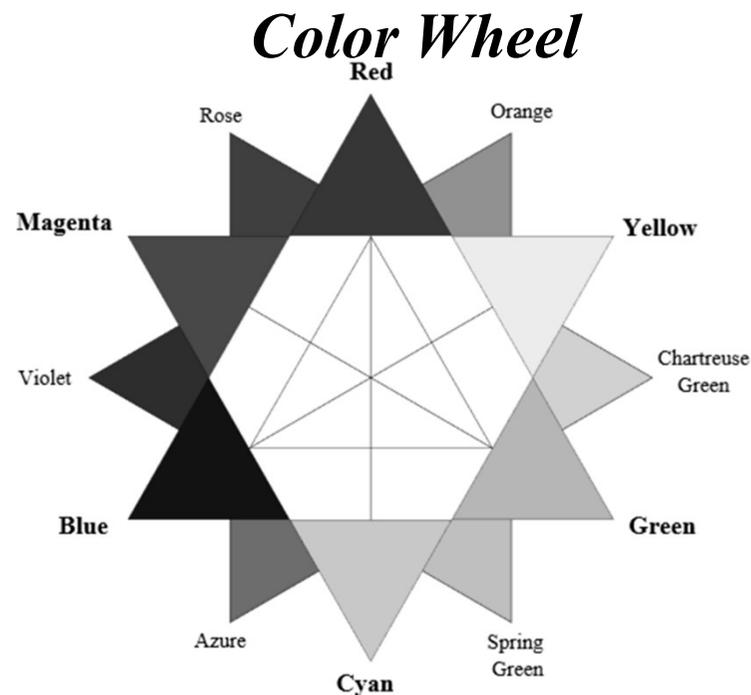
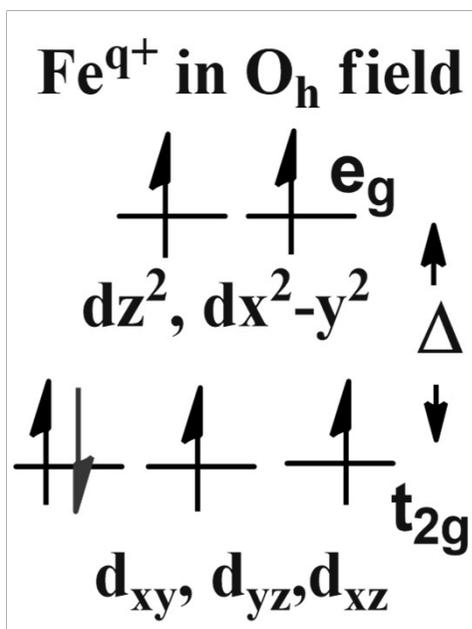
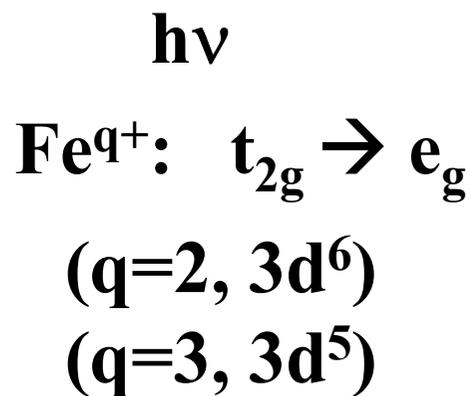
B. Effects of Crystal field splitting

charge on metal

- greater charge \Rightarrow larger Δ
 (ligands held more closely, thus interacting more strongly with d orbitals, and exerted a stronger crystal field.)

	<u>absorbs</u>	<u>appears</u>
$\text{Fe}(\text{H}_2\text{O})_6^{2+}$	Red	Green
$\text{Fe}(\text{H}_2\text{O})_6^{3+}$	Violet	Red-Orange

ROYGBV
lower E higher E



B2. Magnetic properties

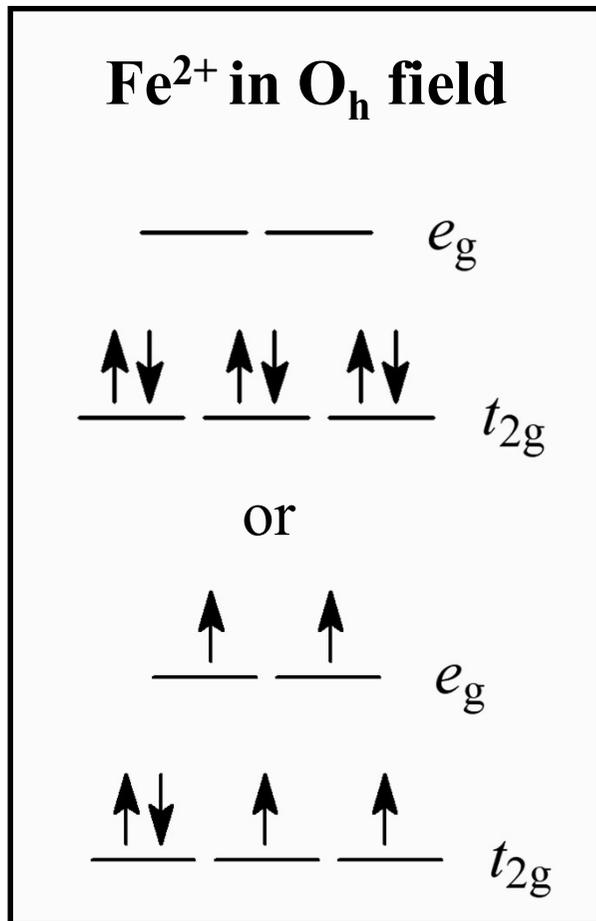
No unpaired electrons, $S = 0$, diamagnetic

unpaired electrons, $S \neq 0$, paramagnetic, ESR active!

Magnetic
momentum

$$\mu_m = 2\sqrt{S(S+1)}\mu_B = \sqrt{n(n+2)}\mu_B$$

n : number of spin-unpaired electrons



e.g., Fe(H₂O)₆²⁺ (Fe²⁺ = d⁶)

weak-field ligands !

Case I: low-spin
(maximum pairing)
diamagnetic

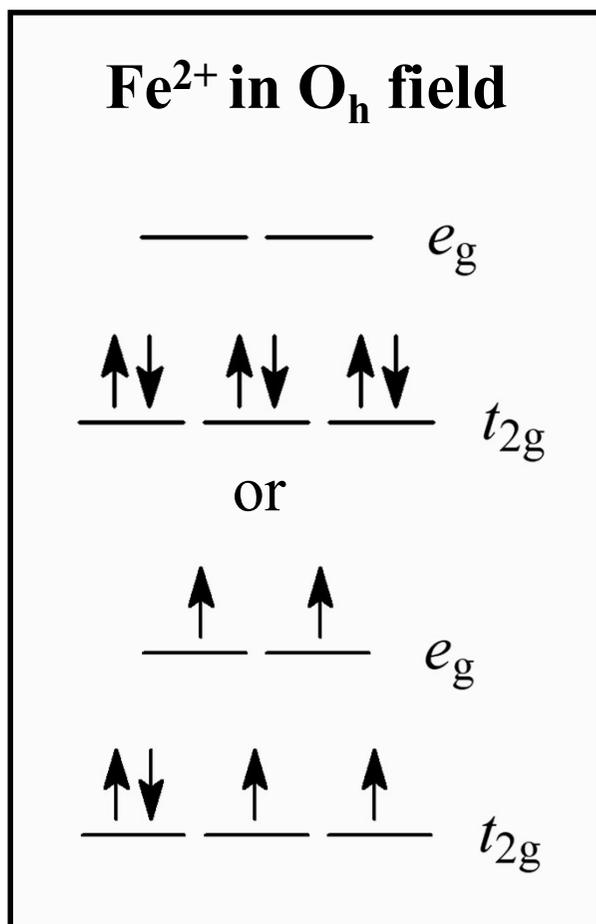
Case II: high-spin
(minimum pairing)
paramagnetic

← **found experimentally**

S=2, $\mu \approx 4.9\mu_B$

B2. Magnetic properties

e.g., $\text{Fe}(\text{NH}_3)_6^{2+}$ ($\text{Fe}^{2+} = d^6$) Strong-field ligands



Case I: low-spin
(maximum pairing)
diamagnetic

← found experimentally!
S=0

Case II: high-spin
(minimum pairing)
paramagnetic

B2. Magnetic properties

Competition between:

crystal-field splitting (Δ) vs electron pairing energy ($P > 0$)

enhanced e-e repulsion!

when $\Delta < P \Rightarrow$ high-spin complex

when $\Delta > P \Rightarrow$ low-spin complex

In General,

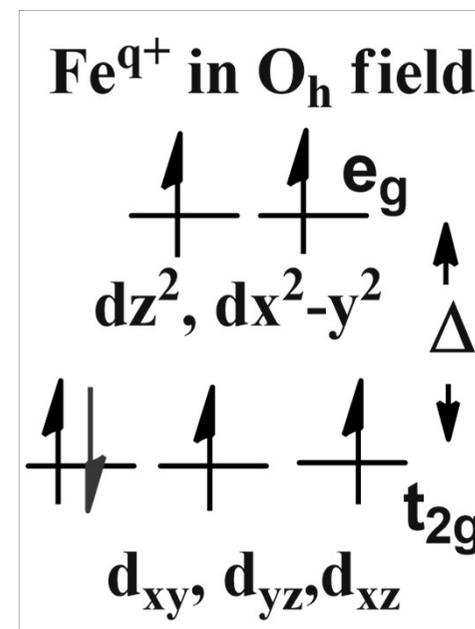
d^1, d^2, d^3 : always high-spin

d^4, d^6 : high-spin with ligands $\leq \text{H}_2\text{O}$

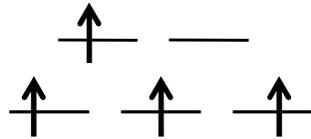
low-spin with ligands $> \text{H}_2\text{O}$

d^5 : high-spin with all ligands except CN^-

d^7-d^{10} always low-spin



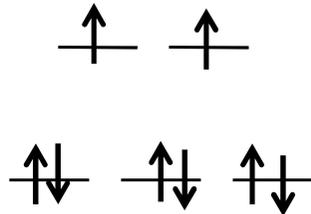
B2. Magnetic properties



weak CF

→ high-spin

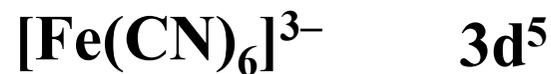
→ $S=2$



strong CF

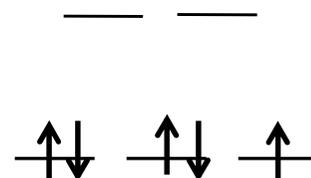
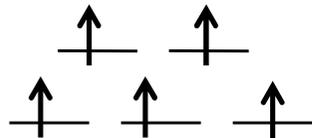
→ low-spin (too many electrons)

→ $S=1$



weak field

Very strong field



$S=5/2$, $\mu \approx 5.9\mu_B$

$S=1/2$, $\mu \approx 1.7\mu_B$

Question: Is it possible to design such a coordination compound that has comparable energy in its high- and low-spin states?

• **Spin crossover (SCO)/Spin transition (ST) *Entropy-driven!***

1) M^{q+} : d^4 - d^7 ; 2) $\Delta E(\text{HS-LS}) \approx k_B T$; 3) Mostly six-coordinated.

$\Delta S(\text{HS-LS}) > 0$ & $\Delta H(\text{HS-LS}) \approx \Delta E(\text{HS-LS}) > 0$

$\Delta G(\text{HS-LS}) = \Delta H - T\Delta S \approx \Delta E - T\Delta S$;

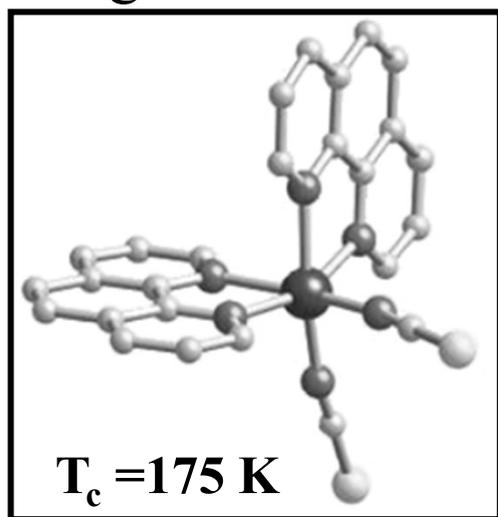
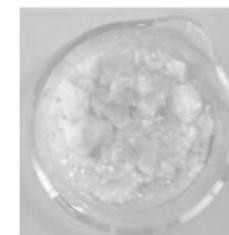
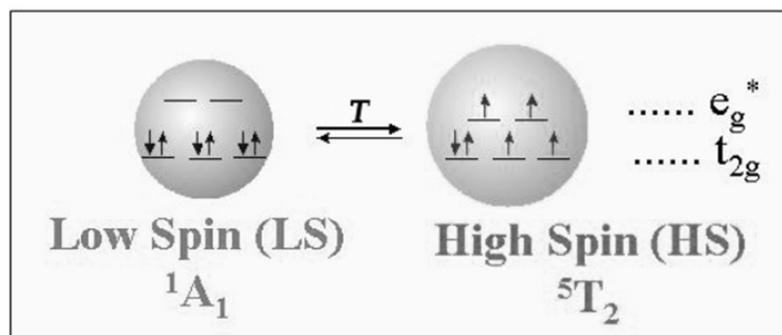
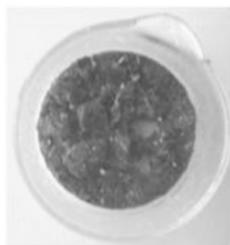
When $T > T_c$, $\Delta G \leq 0$; $\rightarrow T_c = \Delta E / \Delta S$ & $\Delta E(\text{HS-LS}) \approx k_B T$

HS state:

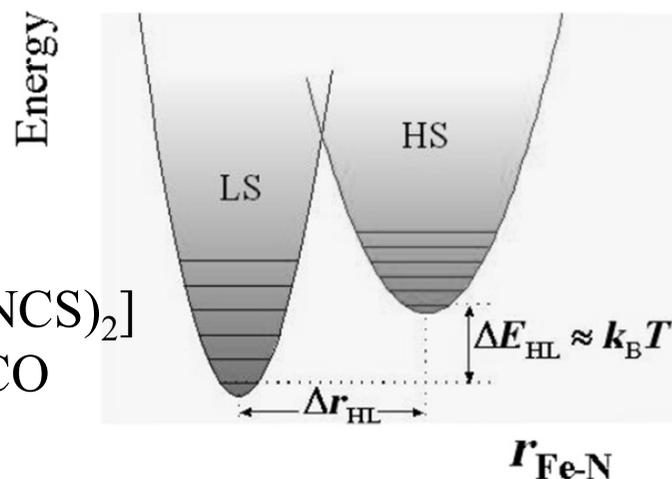
weaker CFT! \rightarrow

Longer M-L distance!

\rightarrow higher S!



$[\text{Fe}(\text{phen})_2(\text{NCS})_2]$
--the first SCO
compound



Madeja, K.; König, E. *J. Inorg. Nucl. Chem.* **1963**, *25*, 377–385.

External stimuli for spin crossover:

- 1) Variation of Temperature
- 2) Variation of pressure
- 3) Light irradiation
- 4) Influence of a magnetic field

Methods of Study:

SQUID(Magnetic susceptibility), Mössbauer Spectroscopy, X-ray crystallography, UV-vis, Raman etc.

6.2.3 σ ligands and σ -bonding MO's

Symmetry-adapted linear combination (SALC) of MOs:

$$\psi_1 = \varphi_{4s} \pm \frac{1}{\sqrt{6}} (\sigma_1 + \sigma_2 + \sigma_3 + \sigma_4 + \sigma_5 + \sigma_6)$$

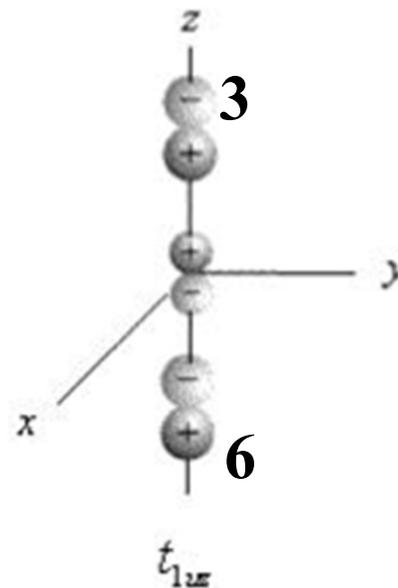
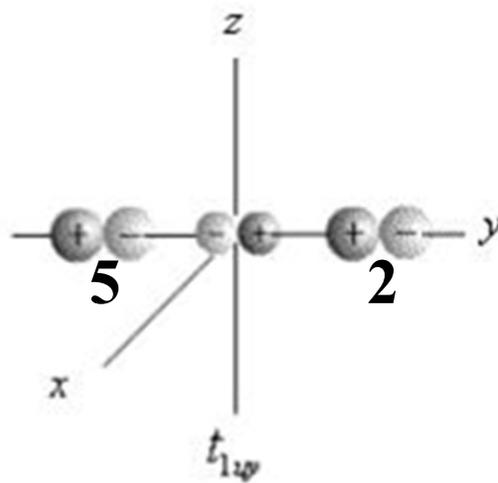
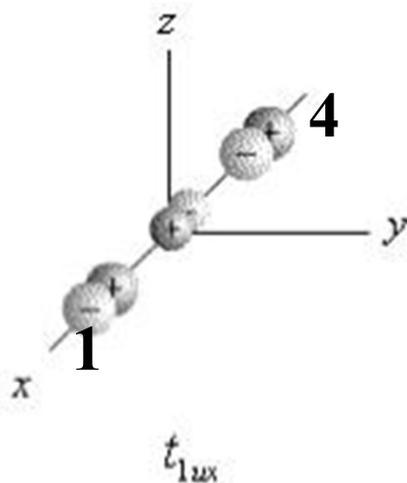
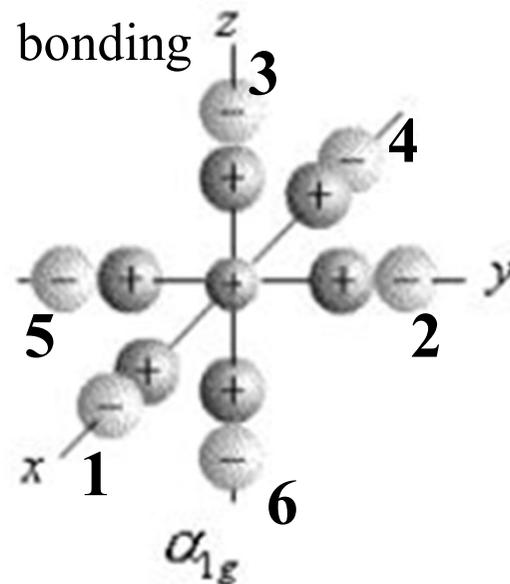
a_{1g}

t_{1u}

$$\psi_2 = \varphi_{4px} \pm \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} (\sigma_1 - \sigma_4)$$

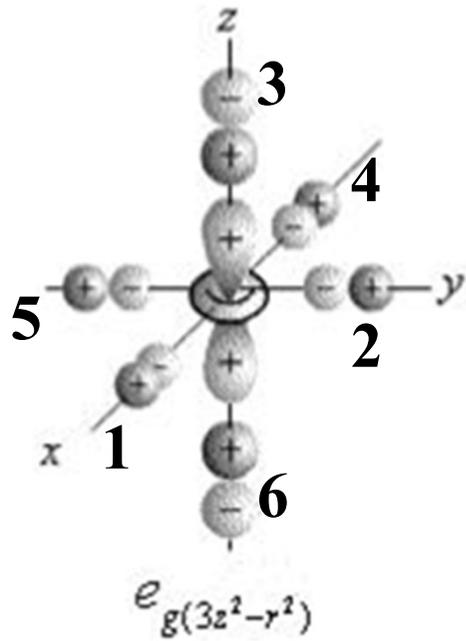
$$\psi_3 = \varphi_{4py} \pm \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} (\sigma_2 - \sigma_5)$$

$$\psi_4 = \varphi_{4pz} \pm \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} (\sigma_3 - \sigma_6)$$

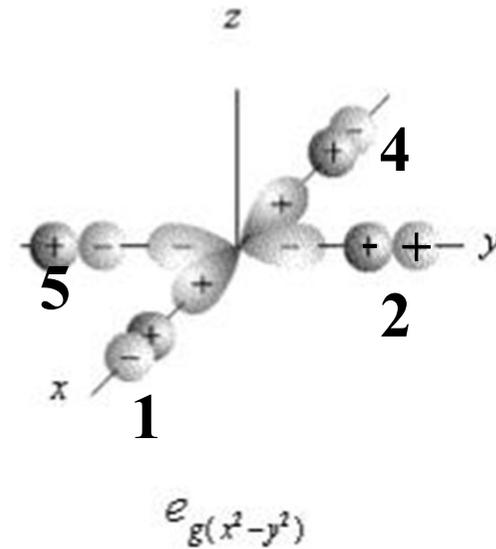


e_g

$$\psi_5 = \varphi_{3dz^2} \pm \frac{1}{2\sqrt{3}}(2\sigma_3 + 2\sigma_6 - \sigma_1 - \sigma_2 - \sigma_4 - \sigma_5)$$



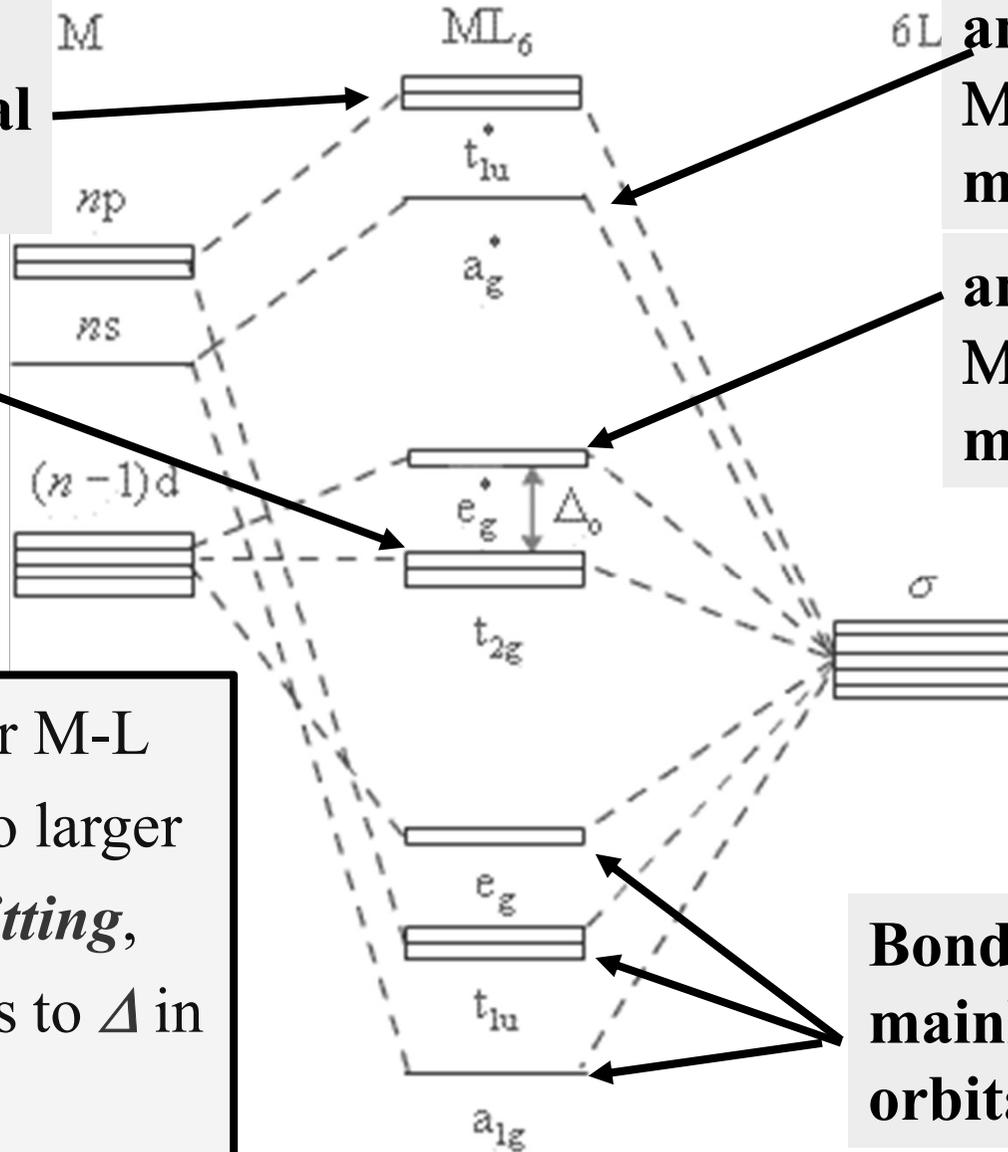
$$\psi_6 = \varphi_{3dx^2 - y^2} \pm \frac{1}{2}(\sigma_1 - \sigma_2 + \sigma_4 - \sigma_5)$$



anti-bonding σ -MOs/ mainly metal np orbitals

Non-bonding d_π orbitals of metal.

Note: The stronger M-L σ -bonding leads to larger $e_g^*-t_{2g}$ energy splitting, which corresponds to Δ in the CF theory.



anti-bonding σ -MOs / mainly metal ns orbitals

anti-bonding σ -MOs / mainly metal d_σ orbitals

Bonding σ -MOs/ mainly ligands σ orbitals

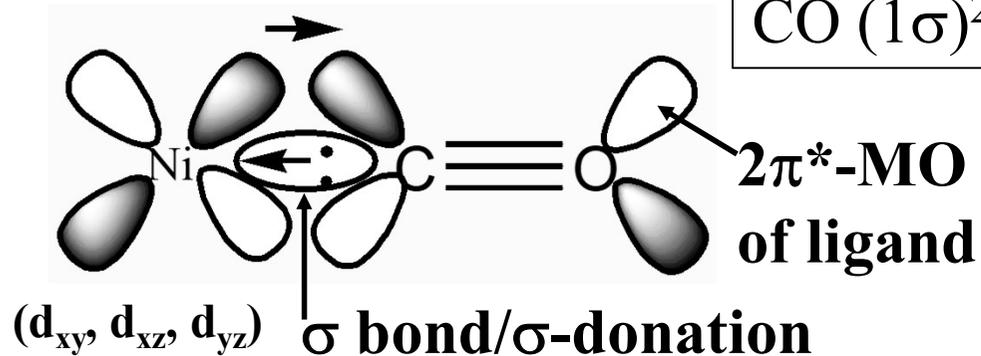
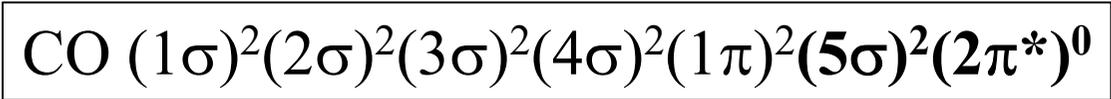
Energetic diagram of σ molecular orbitals

6.2.4 Metal-ligand π – Bonding

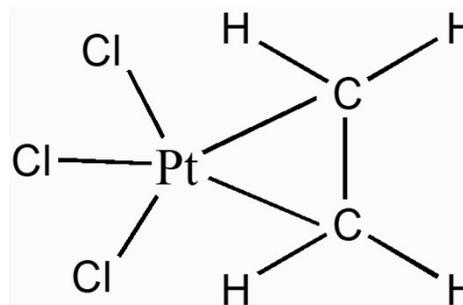
In addition to the aforementioned σ -bonding interactions, metal-ligand π -bonding may present in some metal complexes.

- A π -donor ligand donates electrons to the metal center in an interaction that involves a filled ligand orbital and an empty metal orbital.
 - **Cl⁻, Br⁻, and I⁻ donates p_{π} electrons to the metal center**
- A π -acceptor ligand accepts electrons from the metal center in an interaction that involves a filled metal orbital and an empty ligand orbital.
 - **CO, N₂, NO, and alkenes accept d_{π} -electrons into their vacant anti-bonding π^* -MOs.**
 - **π -acceptor ligands can stabilize low oxidation state metal complexes.**

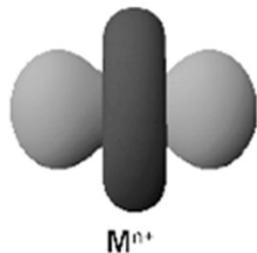
Ni(CO)₄ Ni(3d¹⁰: sp³ hybridization)



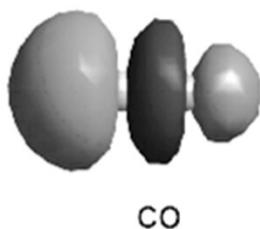
[PtCl₃(C₂H₄)]⁻ Pt²⁺(3d⁸): dsp²



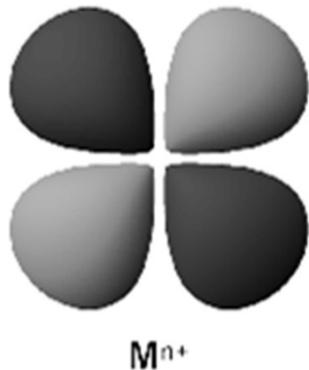
Metal d-AO



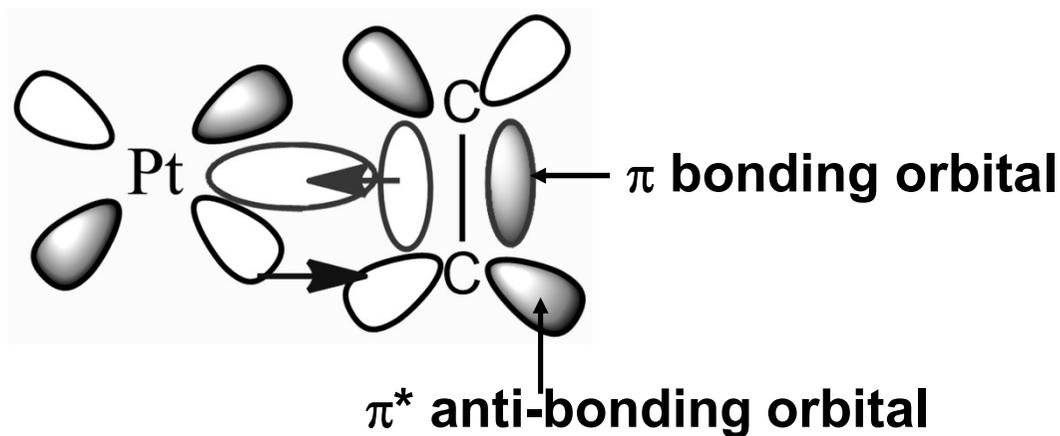
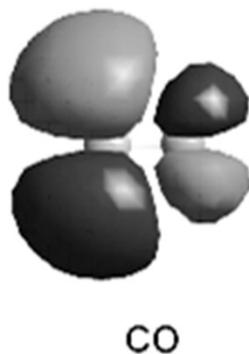
CO 5σ/HOMO



Metal dπ



CO 2π*/LUMO



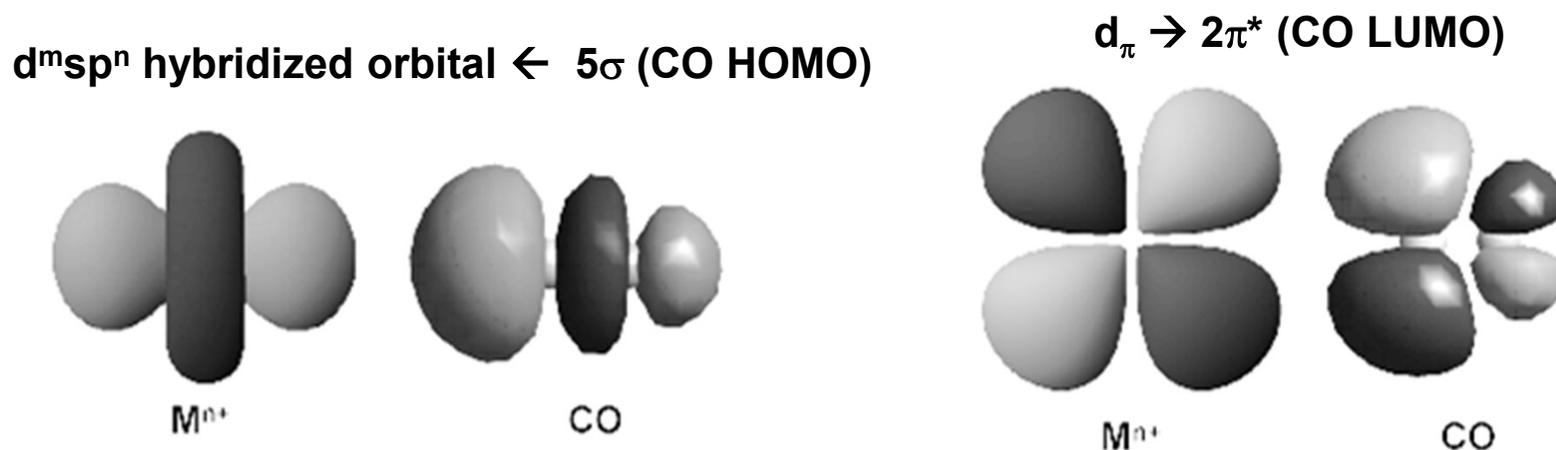
d_π-π* bonding/back-donation

CO bond weakened

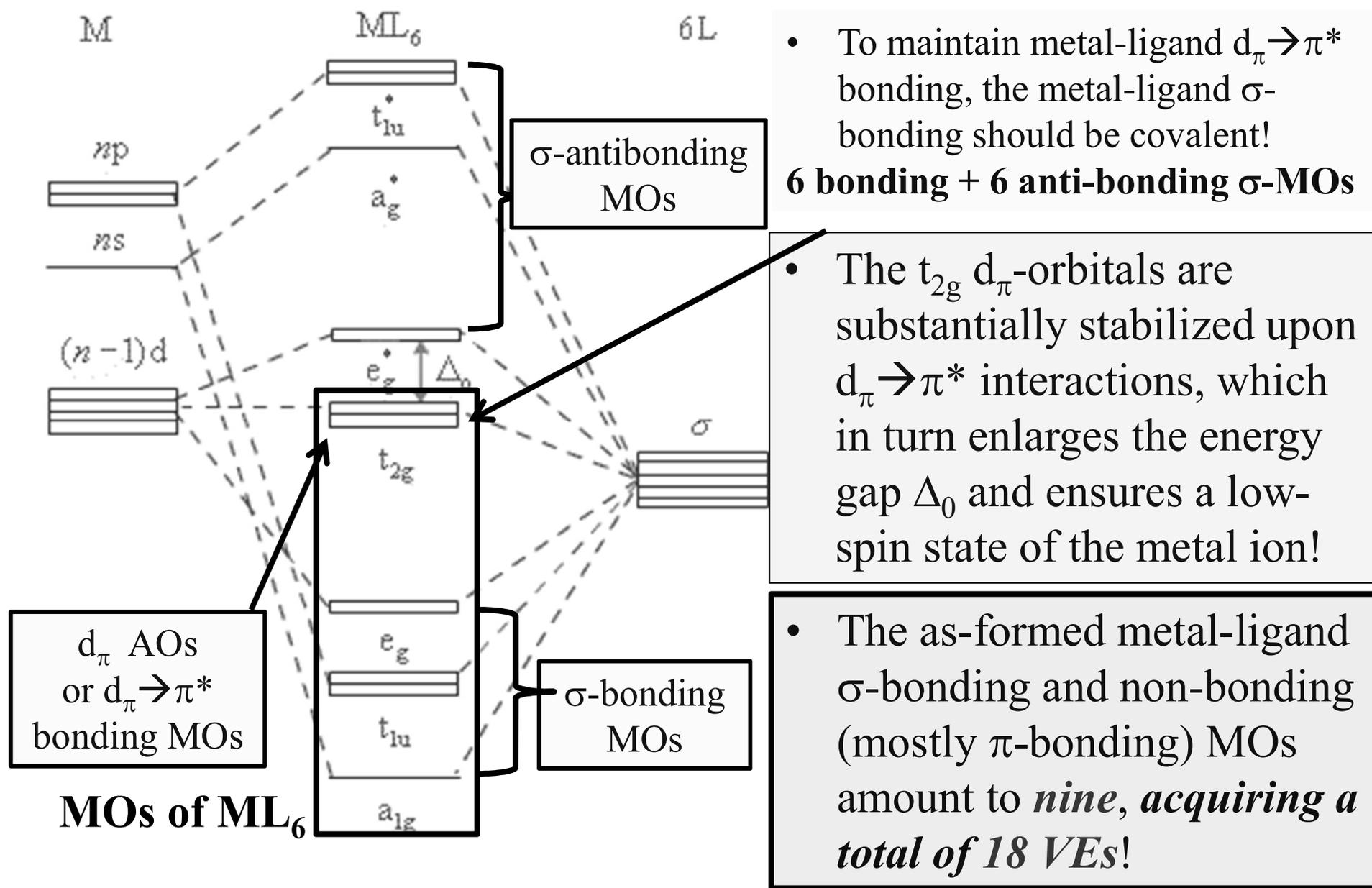
Dewar-Chatt-Duncanson complexation model

Bonding and charge transfer between transition metal and Ligands:

1. σ -bonding results in σ -donation from ligand to empty AO/HO of TM.
2. π -bonding, if available, gives rise to π -backdonation from $d\pi$ of TM to the empty π^* of ligands.



σ -donation and π -backdonation in metal carbonyl complexes



→ 18-electron rule of transition metal complexes !

6.2.5 18-electron rule

- First proposed by *Irving Langmuir* in 1921.
 - For a ***low-oxidation-state*** organometallic complex (mostly containing π -acceptor ligands), the metal center tends to acquire 18 electrons in its valence shell, i.e., ***(n-1)dnsnp***.
 - Combination of the **9** atomic orbitals, ***(n-1)dnsnp***, of a TM atom with ligand orbitals creates **9 occupied molecular orbitals** that are either metal-ligand bonding or non-bonding.
- **metal is electron rich (low oxidation number)**
 - **ligands are good π -acceptors (CO, NO) \rightarrow strong $d\pi-\pi^*$ bonding enhances M-L σ -bonding \rightarrow larger Δ .**
 - **mostly *6-coordinated* complexes with large splitting energy, i.e., the *M* atom adopts d^2sp^3 hybridization. (More convenient VB description).**

How to use the 18e rule:

- Treat the ligand as neutral entity.
- The number of valence electrons for a zero-valent metal center is equal to the group number. e.g., Cr(6e) in $\text{Cr}(\text{CO})_6$. $\text{Cr}(\text{CO})_6$ -- $d^2sp^3 + 3d^6$ vs. $3d^54s^1$ (free Cr)
- Rearrangement of valence-shell electrons, if necessary, occurs on the central TM atom.

$\text{Fe}(\text{CO})_5$: square pyramidal, $\text{Fe}(3d^8 + dsp^3$ hybridization)
(free Fe atom-- $3d^64s^2$)

$\text{Ni}(\text{CO})_4$: tetrahedral, $\text{Ni}(3d^{10} + sp^3$ hybridization).
(free Ni atom-- $3d^84s^2$)

Alternatively, you may treat the metal and its ligands in their valence states.

18-electron rule

Many ligands donate more than 1 electron. How to count the electrons donated by ligands?

a) 1-electron donor:

H•(in any bonding mode), and terminal Cl•, Br•, I•, R• (e.g. R=alkyl or Ph), and RO•;

b) 2-electron donor:

CO, PR₃, P(OR)₃, R₂C=CR₂ (η^2 -alkene), R₂C: (carbene)

π -MO as ligand orbital.

c) 3-electron donor:

η^3 -C₃H₅•(allyl radical), RC(carbyne), μ_2 -Cl•, μ_2 -Br•, μ_2 -I•, μ_2 -R₂P•;

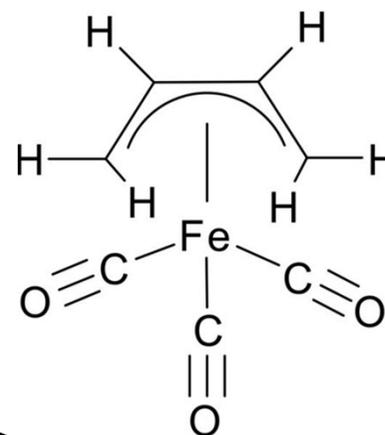
π -MOs as ligand orbitals.

+Lone pair as ligand orbital.

18-electron rule

d) 4-electron donor:

η^4 -diene, η^4 - C_4R_4 (cyclo-butadienes);



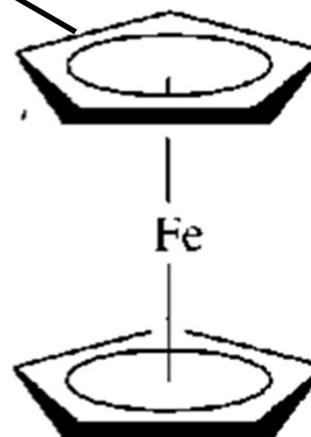
e) 5-electron donor:

μ_3 -Cl \cdot , μ_3 -Br \cdot , μ_3 -I \cdot , μ_3 -R $_2$ P \cdot , η^5 -C $_5$ H $_5$;

π -MOs as ligand orbitals.

f) 6-electron donor:

η^6 -C $_6$ H $_6$, η^6 -C $_6$ H $_5$ Me;

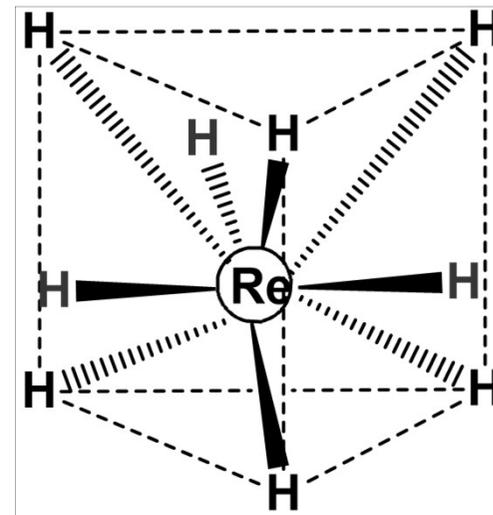


g) 1- or 3-electron donor: NO

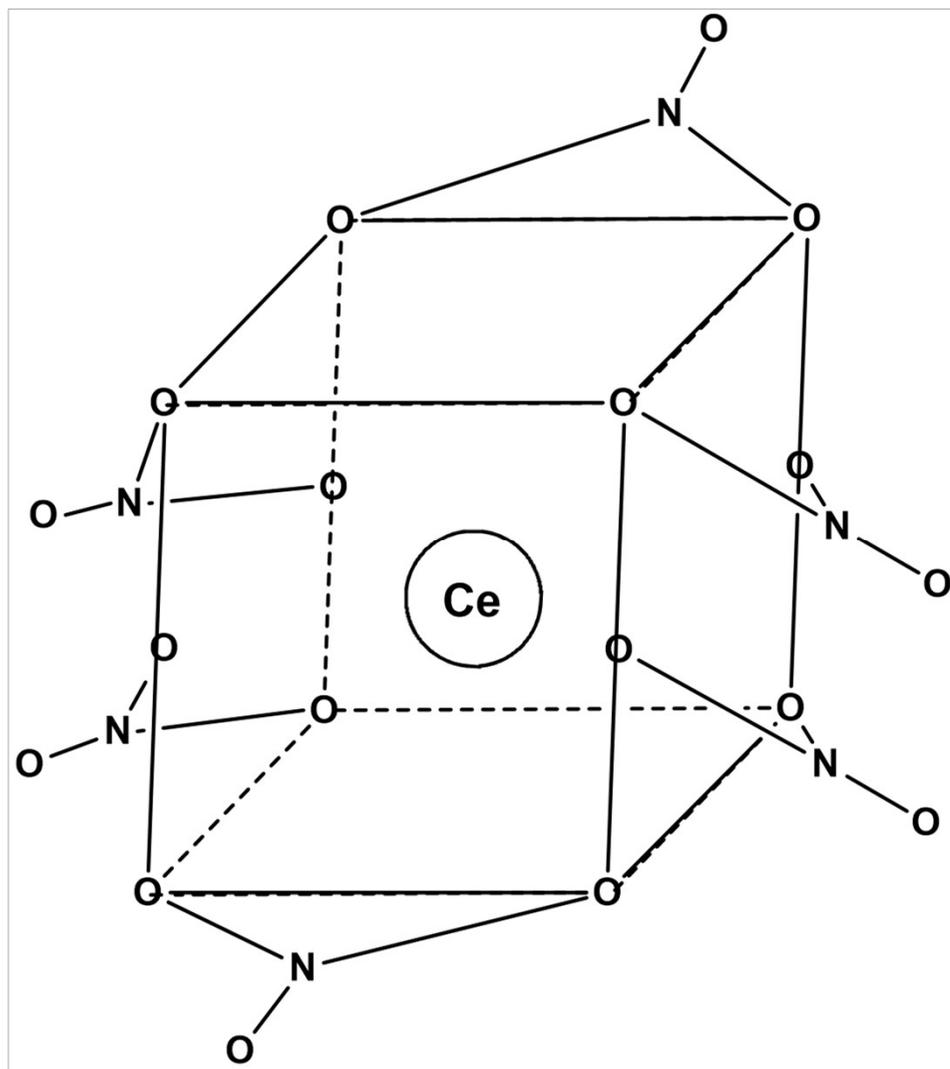
Example: Ferrocene

Some examples:

- $[\text{ReH}_9]^{2-}$: $7e (\text{Re}) + 9e (9\text{H}) + 2e = 18e$
Nine-coordinated! Tricapped trigonal prism!
All $(n-1)dnsnp$ AOs of metal are used to form M-L bonds!



- **All lanthanides can form nine-coordinated aquo-ions.**
 $[\text{Ln}(\text{H}_2\text{O})_9]^{3+}$; Ln 4f AOs are not involved in the dative bonding.
- In situation where covalency is important, **nine** would be the limiting coordination number of TM metals!
- However, many of the complexes involving small, nonpolarizable main-group ligand atoms have high-degree ionic characters and coordination numbers greater than **9**.



- $[\text{Ce}(\text{NO}_3)_6]^{2-}$ 12-coordinate

Some exceptions:

- If there is no possibility to stabilize the t_{2g} level via π -bonding

→ complexes with less than 18 electrons

Examples: WCl_6^{2-} (14 e), $OsCl_6^{2-}$ (16 e), TcF_6^{2-} (15 e)

- Or if Δ is small, e_g^* orbitals may be occupied,

Examples: $Co(H_2O)_6^{2+}$ (19 e), $Ni(en)_3^{2+}$ (20e), $Cu(NH_3)_6^{2+}$ (21e)

[It is not essential for weaker CFT complexes to fulfill the 18e rule!]

- “Left side” metals: 18 electron valence shell would require too many ligands (steric repulsion)

→ complexes with less than 18 electrons are very common

Examples: TiF_6^{2-} (12 e), $Cr(NCS)_6^{3-}$ (15 e), VCl_6^{2-} (13 e)

- Square planar complexes: “16 electron rule” (all bonding orbitals are occupied, 18 e complex would have 2 e in antibonding orbitals) ¹² ₃

Some exceptions:

- $[\text{PtCl}_3(\text{C}_2\text{H}_4)]^-$: $10e (\text{Pt}) + 3e (3\text{Cl}) + 2e (\text{C}_2\text{H}_4) + e = 16e$

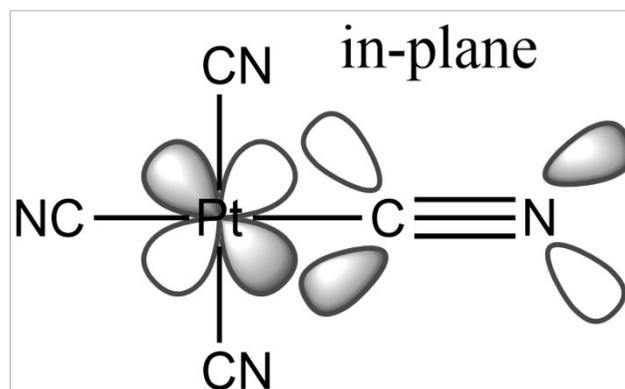
(Pt is dsp^2 -hybridized with one $6p_z$ orbital being unoccupied.

However, this unhybridized $6p_z$ orbital can interact with the p_π orbitals of such π -donor ligands as Cl, Br, I etc.)

- $[\text{Au}(\text{Cl})_4]^-$: $11e (\text{Au}) + 4e (4\text{Cl}) + e = 16e$

- $[\text{M}(\text{CN})_4]^{2-}$ (M= Pt, Ni): $10e (\text{M}) + 4e (4\text{CN}) + 2e = 16e$

(involving in-plane and out-of-plane $d\pi-\pi^*$ bondings!)



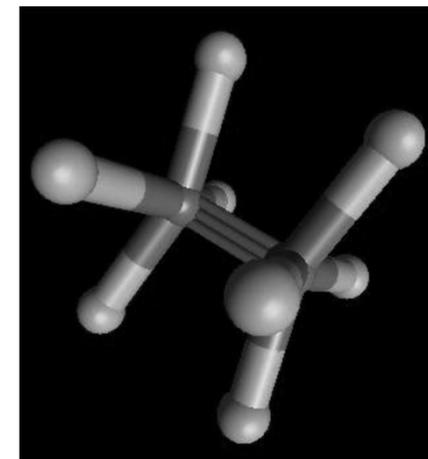
A more general rule accounts for such exceptions!

6.3 Ligand Field Theory (LFT)

- A combination of the crystal field theory, MO theory, and group theory, but focusing on the energy splitting, spectral terms of metal ion in coordination compounds.
- Two factors influence the d-orbital splitting of a metal atom in a ligand field,
 - 1) The interaction between d-orbital electrons;
 - 2) The bonding between the metal and ligands.
- A strong ligand field is formed in case type **2** interaction is stronger than type **1**. Otherwise, the ligand field is a weak field.
- This rule also helps us to understand the strong and weak crystal fields defined in the crystal field theory.

6.4 Transition-metal cluster compounds

6.4.1 Metal-metal multiple bonds

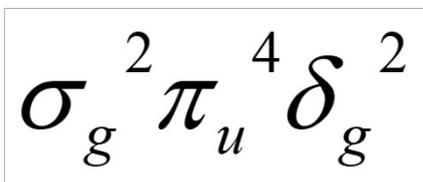


$\text{Re}_2\text{Cl}_8^{2-}$ Re-Re 2.24Å (2.76 Å in Re crystal)

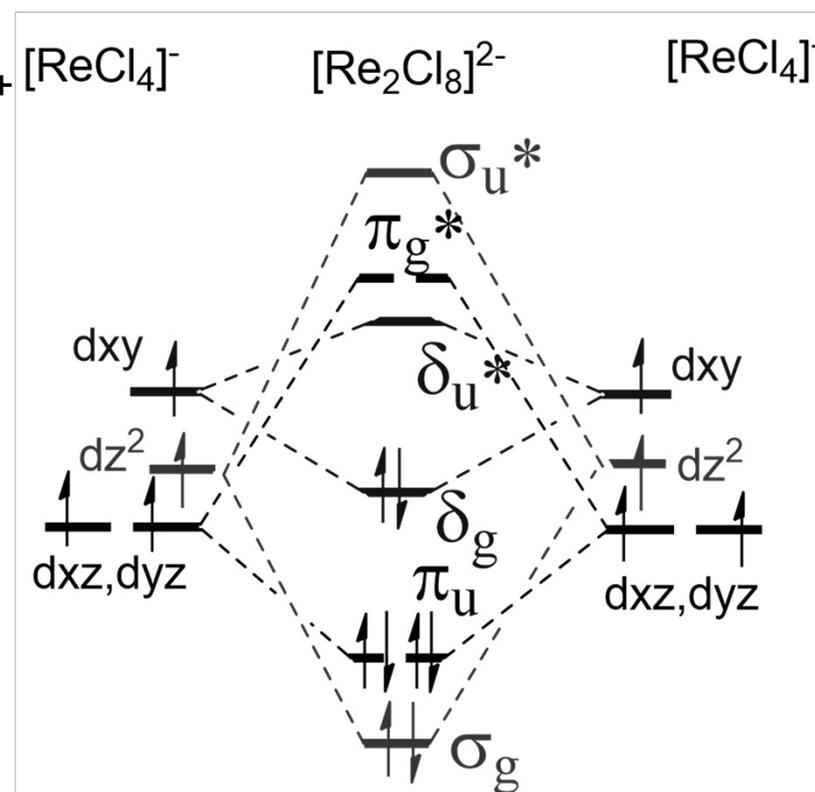
ReCl_4^- : $\text{Re}^{3+}-5d^4$, dsp^2 , $\{5dx^2-y^2, 6s, 6p_x, 6p_y\}$;

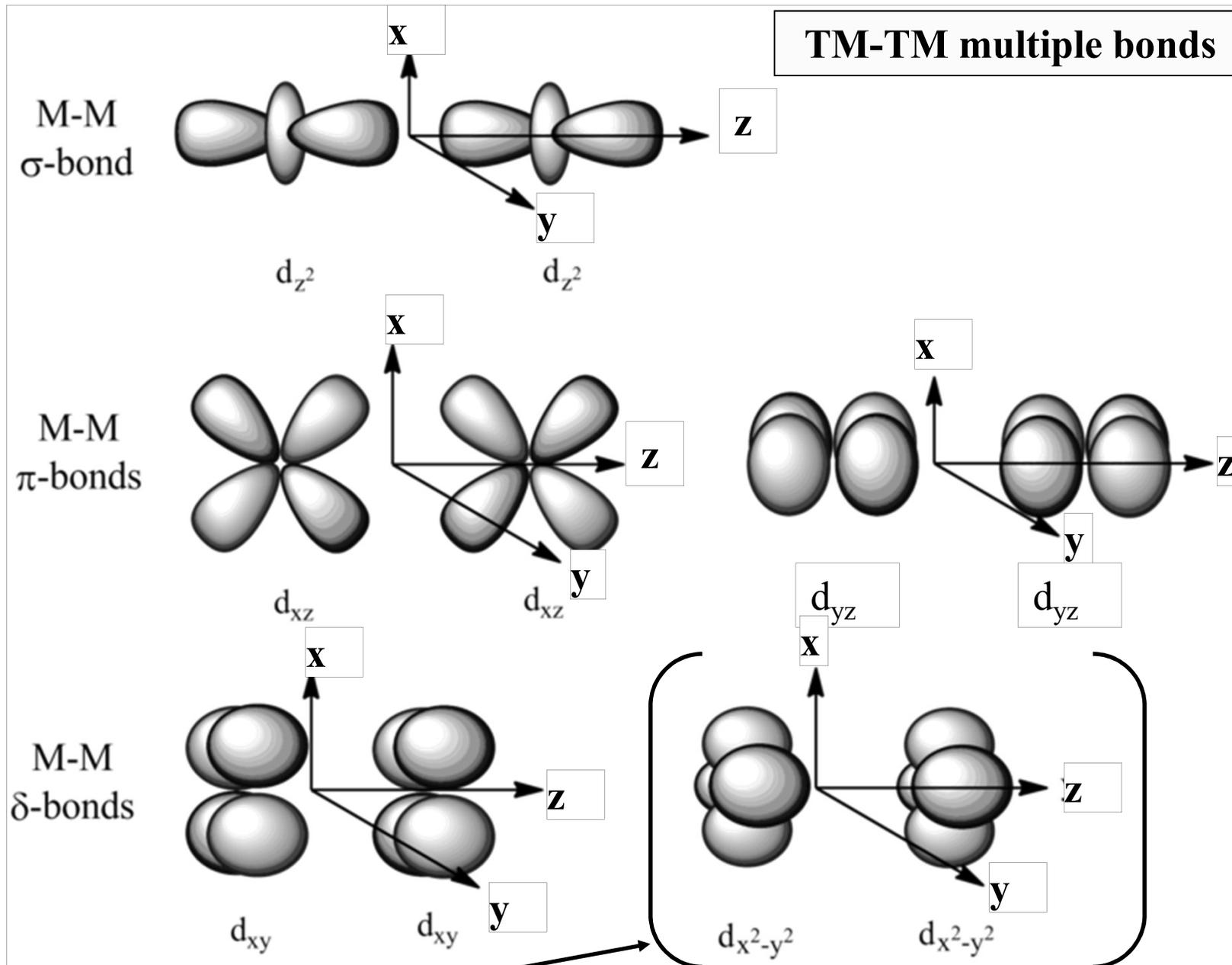
- Each HO forms a dative $\text{Re} \leftarrow \text{Cl}$ bond.
- The rest four 5d AO's (+4e) of Re^{3+} are used to form Re-Re quadruple bonds with another Re^{3+} .

Quadruple Bond



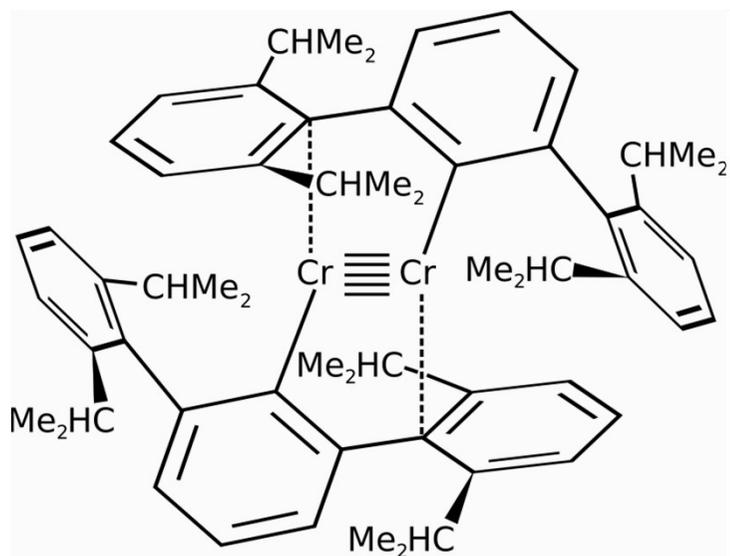
Analog: $\text{Mo}_2(\text{O}_2\text{CR})_4$ and $\text{Cr}_2(\text{O}_2\text{CR})_4$





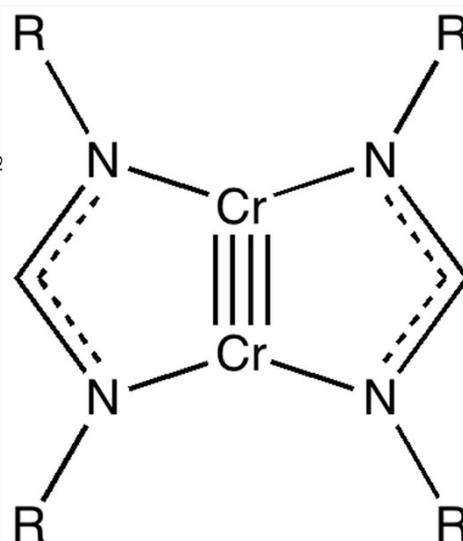
Note: This is not involved in the Re-Re quadruple bond.

- Extremely, a TM-TM bond can be a **quintuple bond** by making use of all $(n-1)d$ orbitals, e.g., in **Cr(I)-Cr(I)** and **Mo(I)-Mo(I)** complexes.



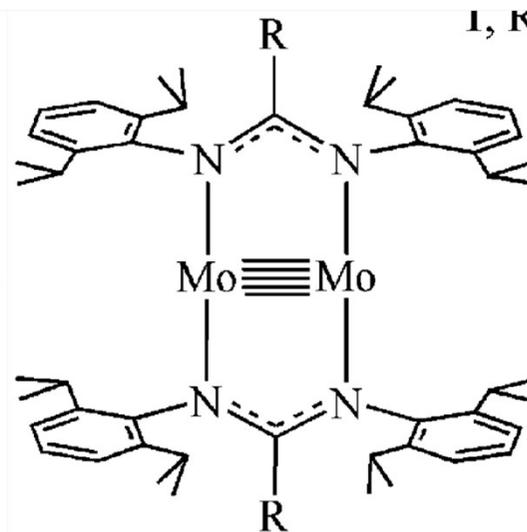
Cr₂(terphenyl)₂
(Cr-Cr = 1.86 Å)

P. Powers et al,
Science,
 2005, 310, 844



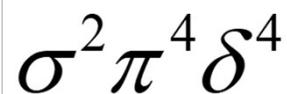
R=Phenyl
(Cr-Cr = 1.74 Å)

Y.-C. Tsai *et al*,
Angew Chem Int Ed,
 2008, 47, 9933.

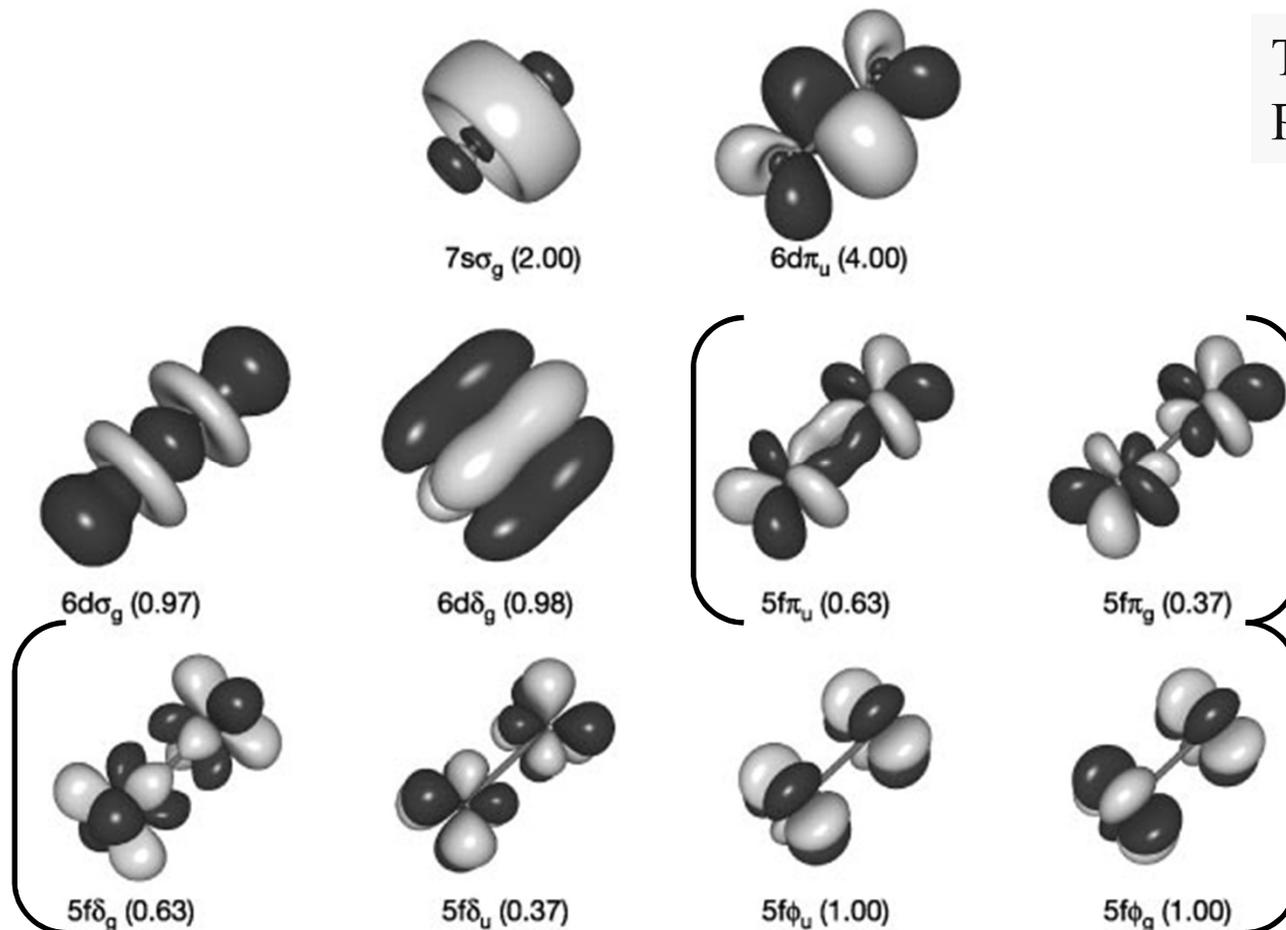


R=Phenyl, H
(Mo-Mo = 2.02 Å)

Y.-C. Tsai *et al*,
J. Am. Chem. Soc.,
 2009, 131, 12534.



- Similarly, two f-series metals (Ln-series or Am-series metal) can form f-orbital-based multiple M-M bond, i.e., U_2



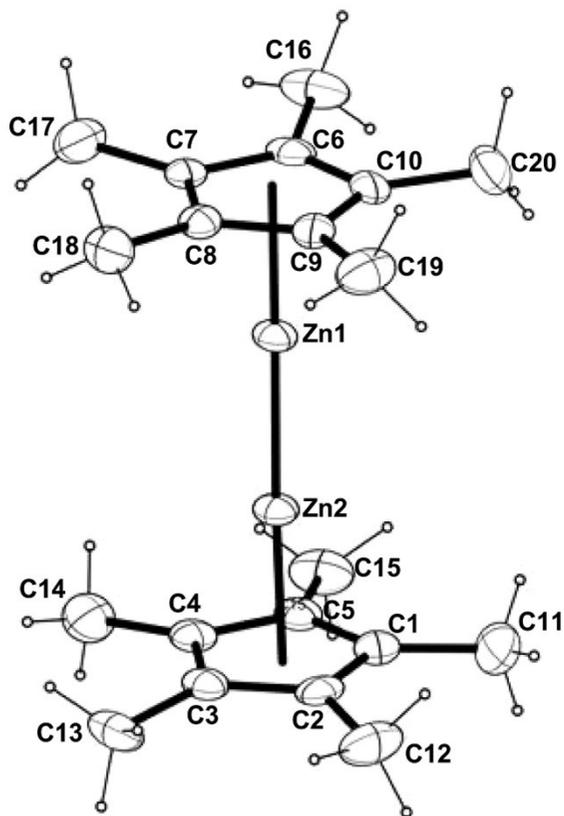
Theoretical Prediction!

However, owing to the quite strong exchange-correlation effects, the 5f-derived π -, δ - and ϕ -type MOs are weakly bonding or even non-bonding!

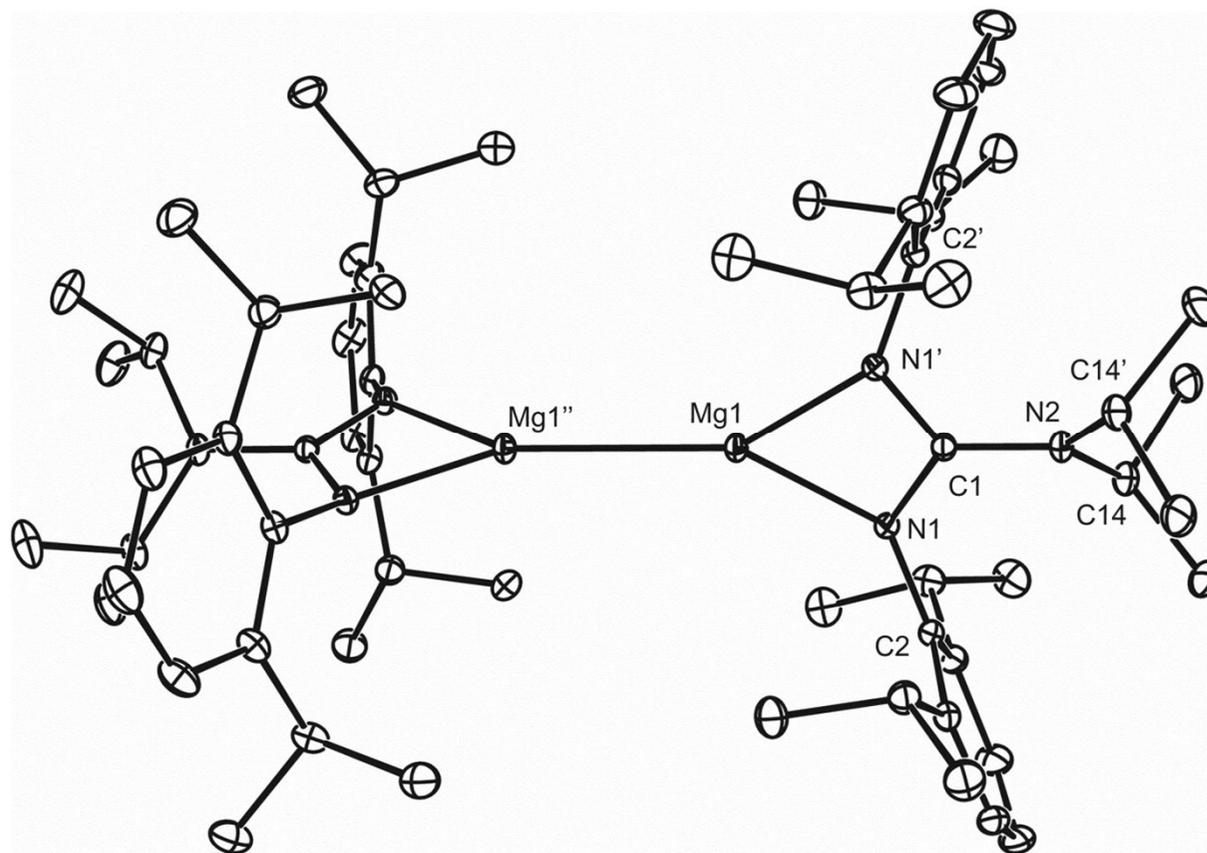
s-, d- and f-based bonding orbitals of U_2 that has a quintuple U-U bond.

- Gagliardi and Roos, *Nature*, 2005, 433, 848.

- A M-M bond also can be formed between *ns* AOs of two metal atoms, e.g., in Zn(I)-Zn(I) and Mg(I)-Mg(I) complexes.



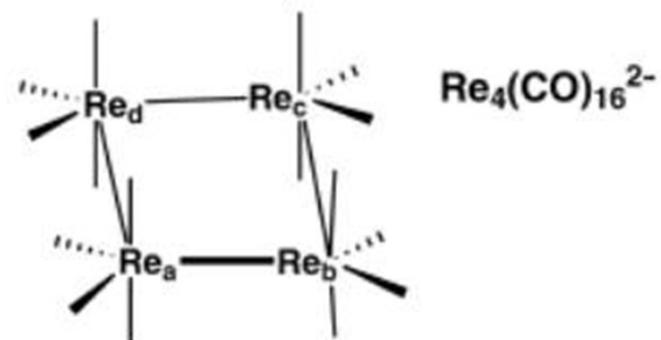
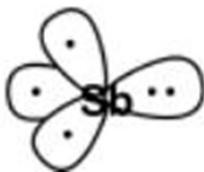
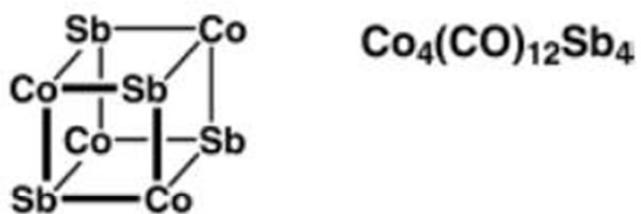
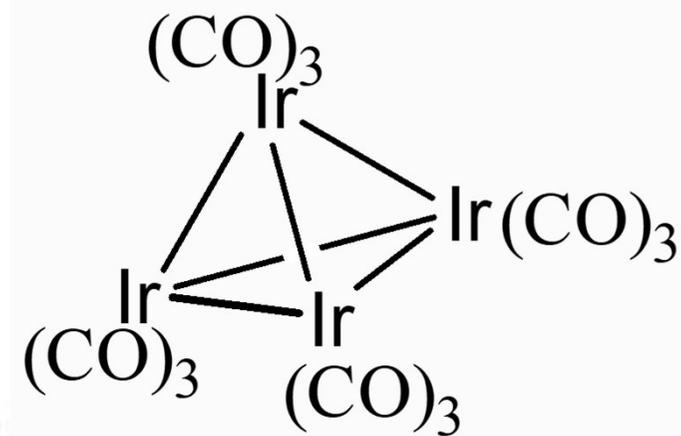
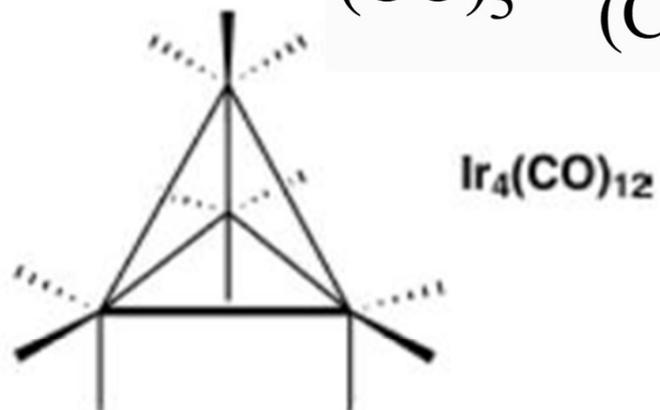
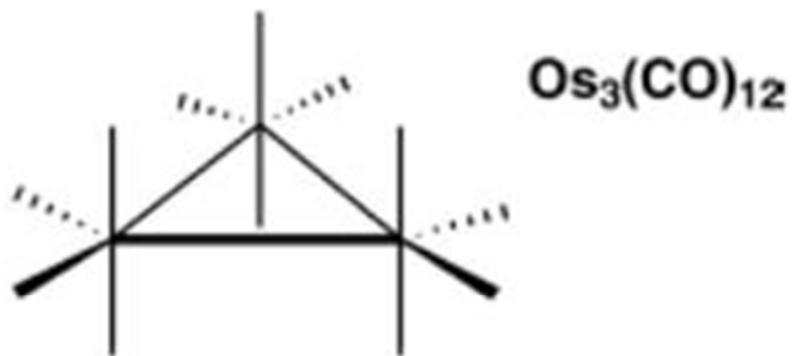
Resa et al. *Science*
2004, 305, 1136



S P Green et al. *Science* 2007;318:1754-1757

6.4.2 Cluster geometry

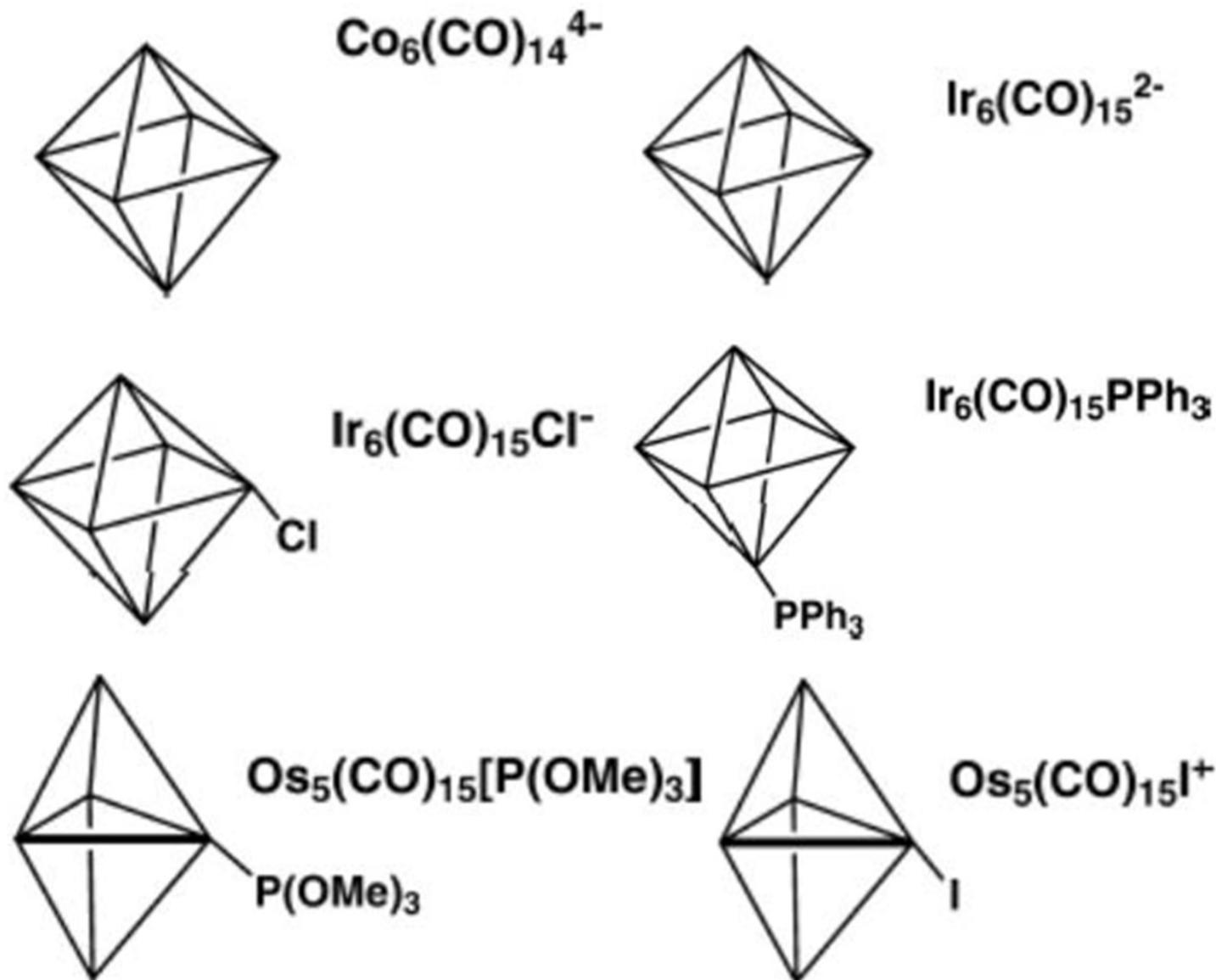
i. Structural polyhedron



$$\text{Re}_a\text{-Re}_b = 3.01 \text{ \AA}$$

$$\text{Re}_b\text{-Re}_d = 2.96 \text{ \AA}$$

$$\text{Re}_a\text{-Re}_c = 5.23 \text{ \AA}$$



Note: The number of edges of such polyhedra do not necessarily correspond to the number of M-M bonds!

ii. Electron counting and metal-metal bonds

$$b = \frac{1}{2}(18n - g)$$

* Derived from the 18e rule for *low-oxidation-state transition metal complexes!*

* Valid for low-oxidation-state metal clusters.

b: bond valence (i.e., total number of metal-metal bonds)

n: number of transition-metal atoms

g: total valence-shell electrons, including electrons from all

In a metal cluster, a **ML_x** fragment forms a suitable number of metal-metal covalent bond(s) with its neighboring **ML_y** fragments to attain 18 valence-shell electrons!

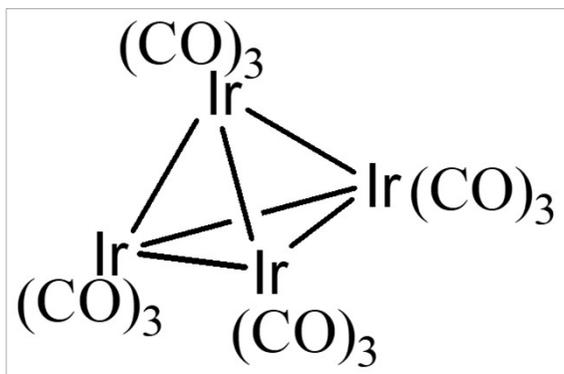
If a cluster involves main-group atoms,

$$b = \frac{1}{2}(18n_1 + 8n_2 - g)$$

n₁: number of transition-metal atoms

n₂: number of main-group atoms in the cluster polyhedron.

Examples:



$$\text{VE} = g = 4 \times 9 \text{ (Ir: } 5d^7 6s^2) + 12 \times 2 \text{ (CO)} = 60$$

$$\therefore b = (18n - g)/2 = (18 \times 4 - 60)/2 = 6$$

Ir(CO)₃ VAO (Ir) = 9 i.e., (n-1)d (5) + ns (1) + np (3)

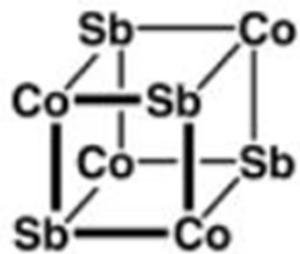
(Ir: 5d⁷6s²) VE = 9 + 3x2 = 15

→ Being lack of 3 VEs to fulfill the 18e rule!

→ The Ir atom in Ir(CO)₃ forms three covalent M-M bonds with other M centers to get three more electrons.

Full picture: In Ir₄(CO)₁₂, each Ir adopts d²sp³ hybridization with three VEs/HOs being used to form three M-M bonds, as well as three unhybridized 5d AOs doubly occupied.

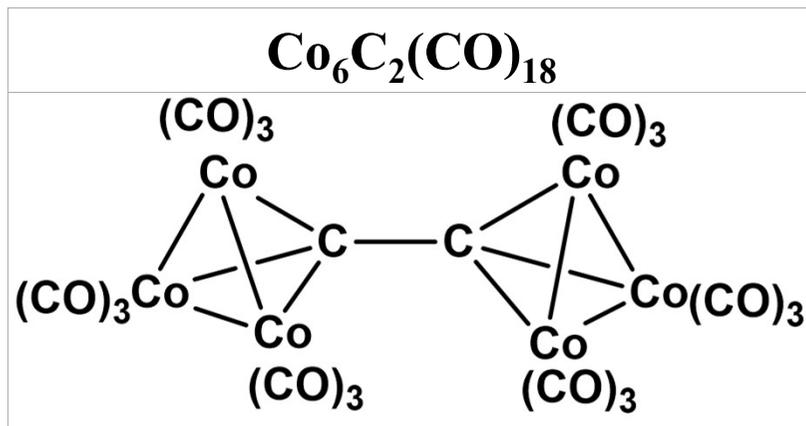
Examples:



$$\text{VE} = g = 4 \times 9 (\text{Co: } 3d^7 4s^2) + 4 \times 5 \\ + 12 \times 2 (\text{CO}) = 80$$

$$n_1 = 4, n_2 = 4$$

$$\therefore b = (18n_1 + 8n_2 - g)/2 \\ = (72 + 32 - 80)/2 = 12$$



$$\text{VE} = g = 6 \times 9 (\text{Co: } 5d^7 6s^2) + 2 \times 4 (\text{C}) \\ + 18 \times 2 (\text{CO}) = 98$$

$$\therefore b = (18 \times 6 + 8 \times 2 - g)/2 \\ = (124 - 98)/2 = 13$$

$$n_1 = 6, n_2 = 2$$

Problem: The metallocene Cp_2Ni reacts with $\text{Ni}(\text{CO})_4$ to afford a binuclear complex: $\text{Cp}_2\text{Ni} + \text{Ni}(\text{CO})_4 \rightarrow [\text{CpNiCO}]_2 + 2\text{CO}$
 Please derive the Ni-Ni bond order and structure of this complex!
 (Cp = cyclopentadienyl)

$$1) \quad \text{VE} = g = 2 \times 10 \text{ (Ni: } 3d^8 4s^2) + 2 \times 5 \text{ (Cp)} + 2 \times 2 \text{ (CO)} = 34$$

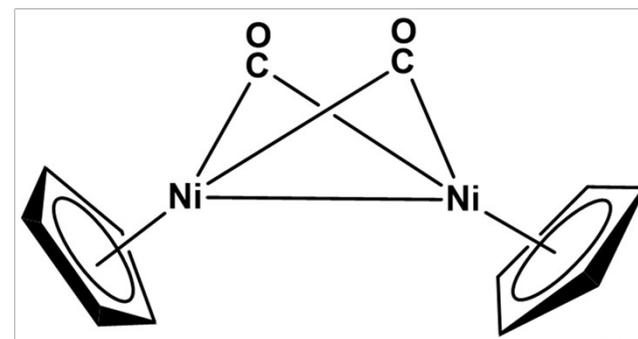
$$\quad \quad \quad b = (2 \times 18 - 34) / 2 = 1 \quad \text{(Ni-Ni bond order)}$$

2) **Key question: Are the CO ligands bridging or terminal?**

Key point: Each Ni atom should follow the 18e rule.

Each Ni atom adopts d^2sp^3 hybridization, thus forming 6 σ -bonds with its surrounding atom/ligands:

- 3 of them are used by a Cp ligand.
- 1 of them is used by the Ni-Ni bond.
- 2 of them should be used by the CO ligands.
- Only two CO ligands are available.
- **→ two μ_2 -CO ligands!**

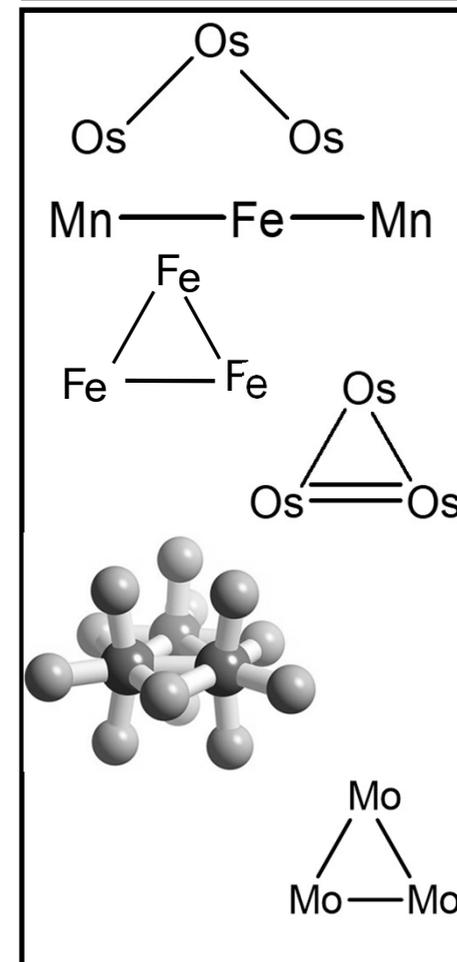


iii. Bond valence and cluster geometry

A. Tri-nuclear compounds

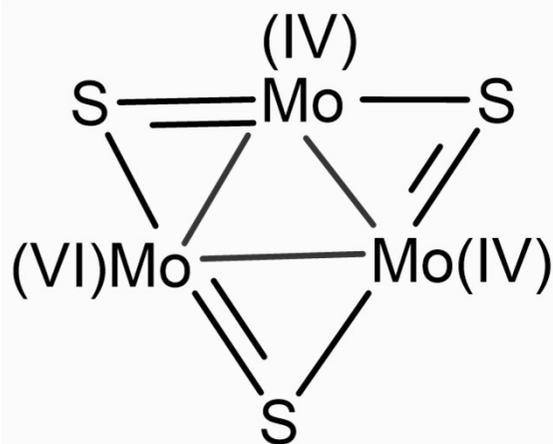
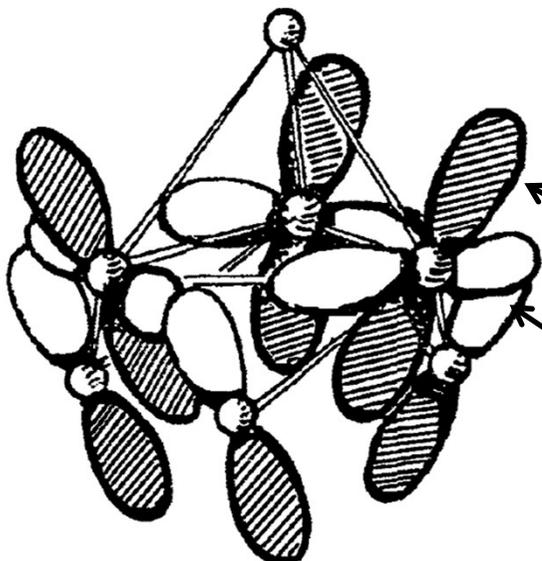
Metal cluster compounds	<i>g</i>	<i>b</i>	M-M/pm
$\text{Os}_3(\text{CO})_9(\mu_3\text{-S})_2$	50	2	Os-Os, 281.3
$\text{Mn}_2\text{Fe}(\text{CO})_{14}$	50	2	Mn-Fe, 281.5
$\text{Fe}_3(\text{CO})_{12}$	48	3	Fe-Fe, 281.5
$\text{Os}_3\text{H}_2(\text{CO})_{10}$	46	4	Os-Os, 281.5 Os=Os, 268.0
$[\text{Re}_3(\mu_2\text{-Cl})_3\text{Cl}_9]^{3-}$ Re(III) ~ 5d ⁴	42	6	Re=Re, 247
$[\text{Mo}_3(\mu_3\text{-O})(\mu_2\text{-O})_3\text{F}_9]^{5-}$ Mo(IV) ~ 4d ²	42	6(expected) 3 (actually)	Mo-Mo, 250.2

$$b = \frac{1}{2}(18n - g)$$



The last compound has such high-valent metal cations that are too electron-deficient to afford the hypothetical M-M bonds.

Special case: $[\text{Mo}_3(\mu_3\text{-X})(\mu_2\text{-X})_3]^{4+}$ (X= S, O) core with d-p π -conjugation & quasiaromaticity



- Each 6-coordinate Mo(IV) is d^2sp^3 -hybridized.
- Each Mo(IV) contributes two d-AO's and two VE's to afford three bonding skeletal MO's.
- Each Mo (IV) has 16VE with an empty d-AO!

- The 6c-6e d(Mo)-p(S) π -conjugation within the puckered $[\text{Mo}_3\text{S}_3]^{6+}$ ring, i.e., **the so-called quasi-aromaticity**.
- Only upon inclusion of such $p(\text{S}) \rightarrow d(\text{Mo})$ π -bonding can each Mo center approximately fulfill the 18e Rule.

B. Tetranuclear compounds

$$b = \frac{1}{2}(18n - g)$$

b= 6



(a)

6



(b)

5



(c)

5



(d)

4



(e)

4



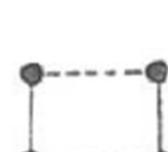
(f)

3

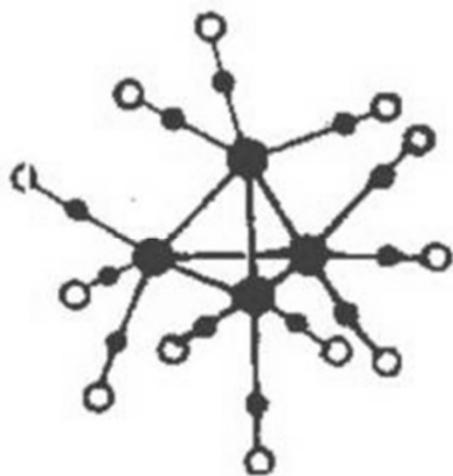


(g)

3

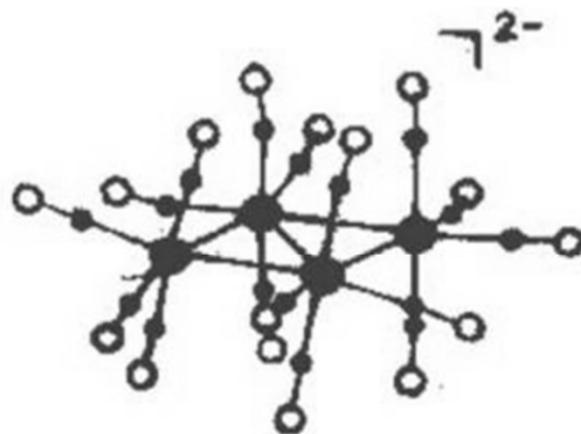


(h)



$g = 4 \cdot 9 + 12 \cdot 2 = 60$

$b = (18 \cdot 4 - 60) / 2 = 6$



$g = 4 \cdot 7 + 16 \cdot 2 + 2 = 62$

$b = (18 \cdot 4 - 62) / 2 = 5$



$g = 4 \cdot 9 + 16 \cdot 2 = 64$

$b = (18 \cdot 4 - 64) / 2 = 4$

Pentanuclear compounds

b= 9



(a)

8



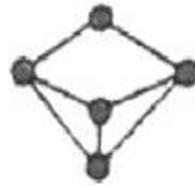
(b)

8



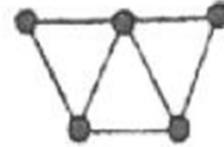
(c)

7



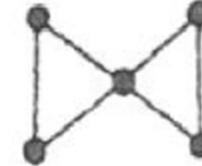
(d)

7



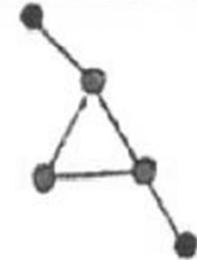
(e)

6



(f)

5



(g)

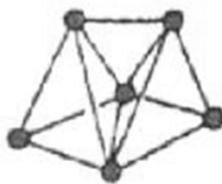
Hexanuclear compounds

b= 12



(a)

12



(b)

11



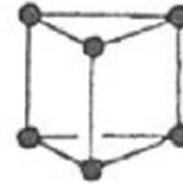
(c)

10



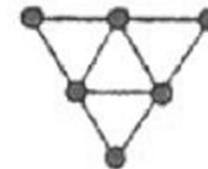
(d)

9



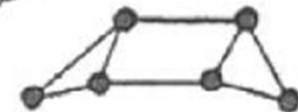
(e)

9



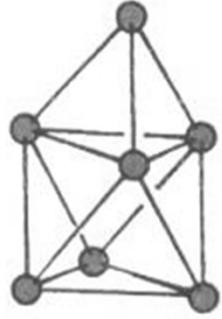
(f)

8

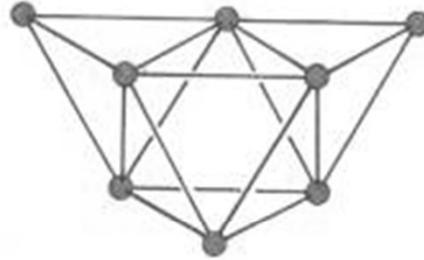


(g)

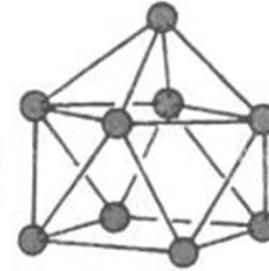
Multi-nuclear ($N > 6$) compounds



(a)



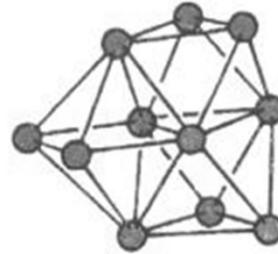
(b)



(c)



(d)

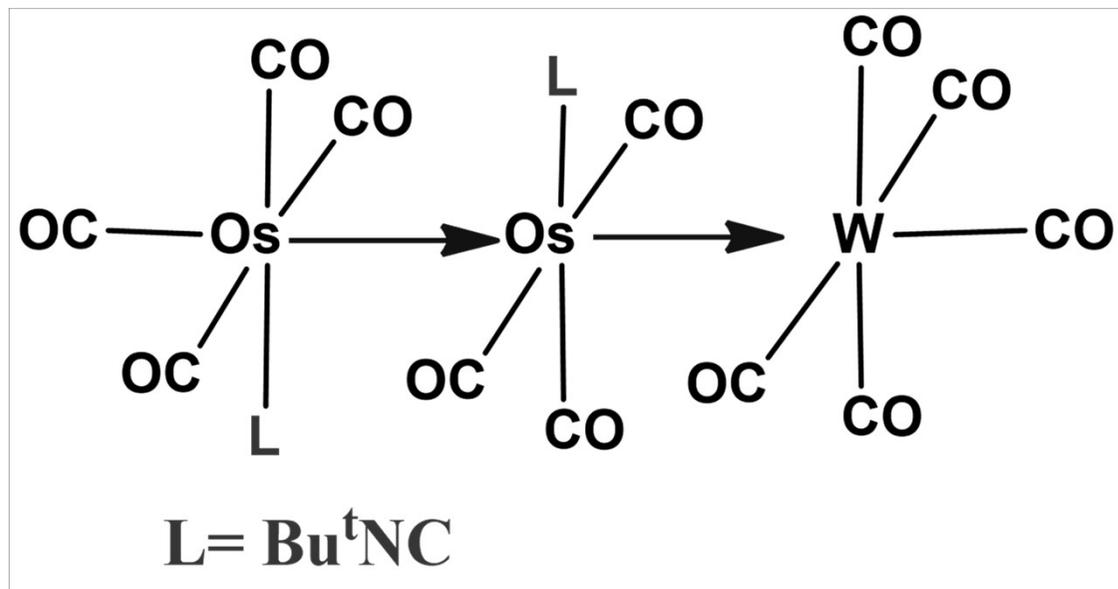


(e)



(f)

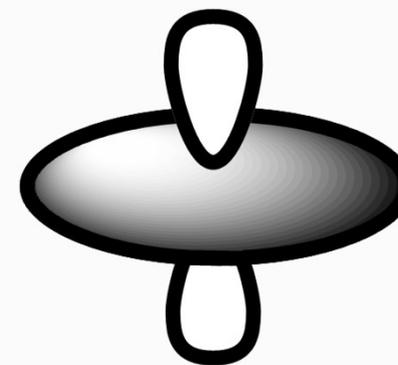
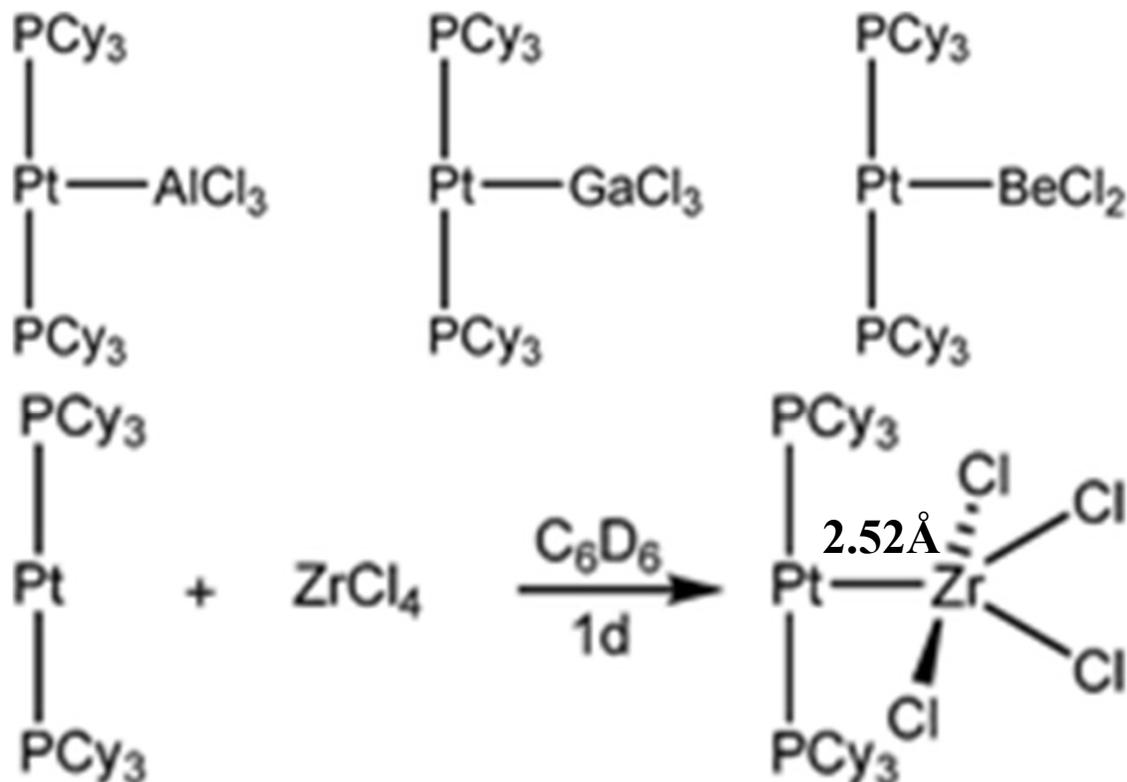
iii. Metal-metal dative bond



- VE or $g = (2 \times 8 + 6 + 14 \times 2) = 50$, $b = (18 \times n - g) / 2 = 2$
- For the Os(CO)₅L, its Os1 atom fulfills the 18e rule. So this fragment works as a ligand of Os2.
- W(CO)₅ requires 2 extra electrons to fulfill the 18e rule.
- Both metal-metal bonds could be regarded as **dative bonds** for the metal atoms to achieve an 18e configuration.

see Pomeroy et al, *Inorg. Chem.*, 1992, 31, 3155.

Metal-metal dative bond: more examples

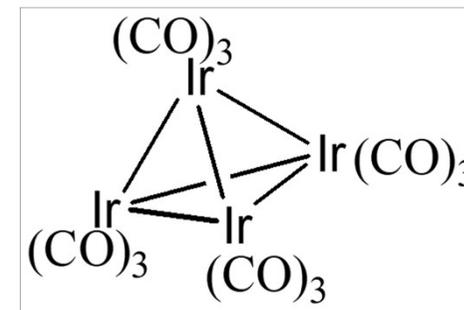


- Non-bonding sd_σ -hybridized orbital of Pt.
- It is electron-donative !

- Pt – sp-hybridization. Pt achieves a 14e configuration in $\text{Pt}(\text{PCy}_3)_2$. Or more exactly, Pt -- sd_σ -hybridization, 3c4e σ -bond in $\text{Pt}(\text{PCy}_3)_2$.
- Thus in $\text{Pt}(\text{PCy}_3)_2$, the occupied Pt sd_σ hybridized orbital has a high-degree of 6s contribution, and is diffusive and electron-donative!

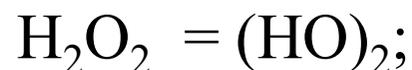
see Braunschweig et al, *Chem. Comm.*, 2010, 46, 913.

6.4.3 Molecular fragment, Generalized octet rule, and Isolobal analogy

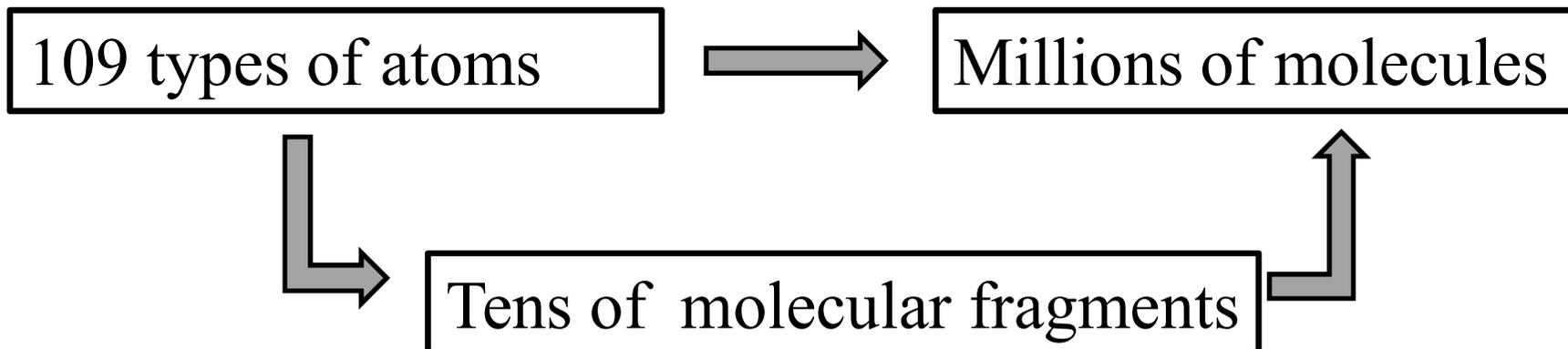


- **Molecular fragment** -- the constitutive groups of atoms in a molecule, e.g., functional groups in organic chemistry, monomer of a polymer, $\text{Ir}(\text{CO})_3$ in $\text{Ir}_4(\text{CO})_{12}$.
- A molecule can be regarded as a combination of molecular fragments chemically bonded with each other. (Proposed by R. Hoffmann!)

e.g., $\text{CH}_3\text{CH}_2\text{OH} = (\text{CH}_3)(\text{CH}_2)(\text{OH})$; $\text{Ir}_4(\text{CO})_{12} = [\text{Ir}(\text{CO})_3]_4$;



- This concept facilitates us to understand the construction of complicated molecules and to design new molecules.



- In practice, a molecular fragment can be regarded as an atom with certain valence electrons (VEs) and unsaturated valence V_i .

$$V_i = 2O_i - i \quad (V_i : \text{unsaturated valence or covalency}; \\ O_i : \text{number of VO's}; \quad i : \text{number of VE's})$$

- For a given molecular fragment, we focus on the total VEs (i) & VOs of its central atom with unsaturated valence (V_i), e.g., both CH_3 and OH have 7 VEs/4VOs and 1 free valence, CH_2 has 6 VEs and free valence of 2, $\text{Ir}(\text{CO})_3$ has 15VEs/9VOs and free valence of 3, $\text{Fe}(\text{CO})_4$ has 16 VEs and free valence of 2.

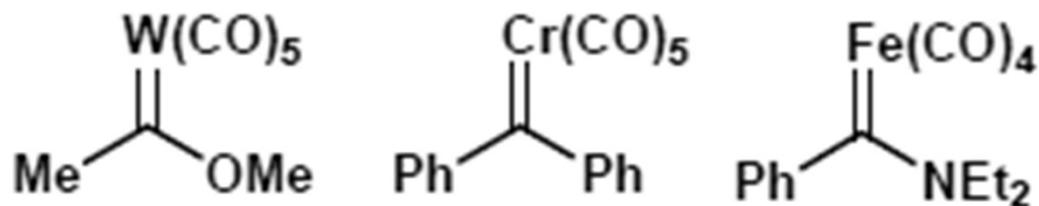
Examples:

Carbene CR_2 : $O = 4$, $i(\text{VE}) = 6$, $V = 2$

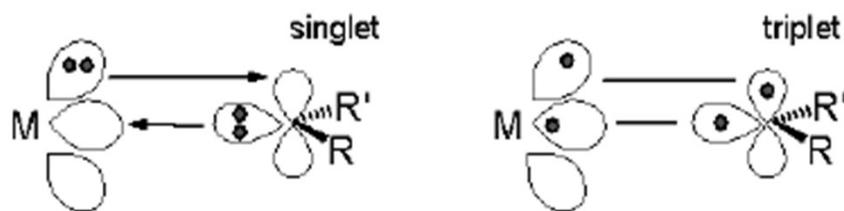
$\text{M}(\text{CO})_x$: $\text{Fe}(\text{CO})_4$, $\text{Cr}(\text{CO})_5$, $\text{W}(\text{CO})_5$

$O = 9$, $i = 16$, $V = 2$

The fragments can form $\text{M}=\text{C}$ double bond as in the following Fischer carbene complexes, **Representative Fischer Carbenes:**



Comparison of Fischer Carbene and Schrock carbene:



Fischer
Dative bond

Schrock
Covalent bond

How to understand the bond valence of a TM cluster compound in terms of molecular fragment theory?

$$b = \frac{1}{2}(18n - g)$$

- For the i th fragment of a cluster compound, the unsaturated valence is

$$V_i = 2O_i - i \quad (V_i : \text{unsaturated valence or covalency}; \\ O_i : \text{number of VO's}; \quad i : \text{number of VE's})$$

→ The total free valence (V) of all fragments in a cluster compound can be saturated upon formation of M-M bonds (b), i.e., $V = 2b$.

$$V = \sum_i V_i = \sum_i 2O_i - \sum_i i = \sum_i 2O_i - g, \quad b = V/2 = (\sum_i 2O_i - g)/2$$

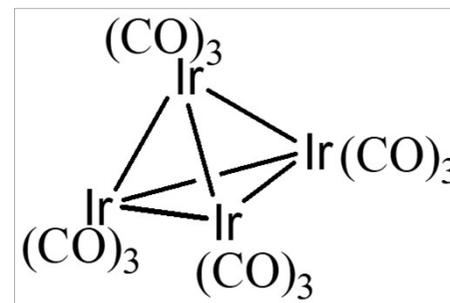
- For a TM cluster compound with n TM atoms, each TM center has $O_i = 9$. Then

$$\sum_{i=1}^n 2O_i = 18n \Rightarrow b = (18n - g)/2$$

Generalized octet rule: proposed by Pearson

- If the total VEs (i) of a molecular fragment is **2** times of its total valence orbitals (O_i), this molecule fragment has a closed-shell electronic configuration and can itself be a stable molecule. $i.e., i = 2O_i \Rightarrow V_i = 2O_i - i = 0$
- **central atom = main-group element ($O_i=4$), i.e., octet rule**
- **central atom = transition metal ($O_i=9$), i.e., 18e rule**

.....



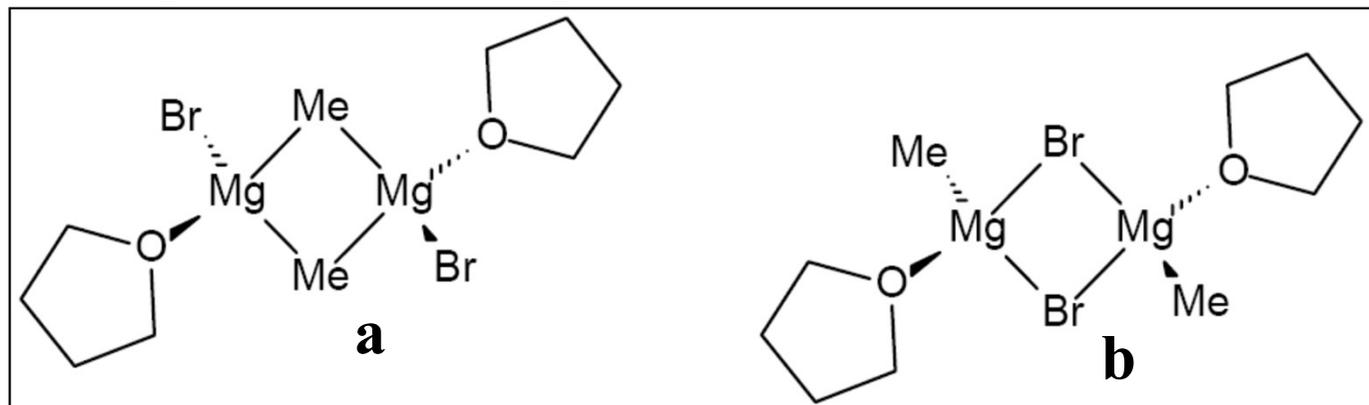
- This rule also governs the chemical bondings between molecular fragments, e.g., Ir(CO)₃ has 15 VEs and 9 VOs, being short of 3 VEs. To fulfill the rule, it forms three 2c-2e M-M bonds with other Ir(CO)₃ fragments in Ir₄(CO)₁₂.

Generalized octet rule

Rules	O_i	i	VO's	Examples
$2e$	1	2	s	LiH, LiR, Li ₂
$4e$	2	4	sp	BeR ₂ , R-Mg-Cl
$6e$	3	6	sp ²	BEt ₃ , La(Ph) ₃
$8e$	4	8	sp ³	CH ₄ , NF ₃ , H ₂ O
$10e$	5	10	sp ³ d	PF ₅ , SF ₄ , XeF ₂
$12e$	6	12	sp ³ d ²	SF ₆ , MoF ₆ , PF ₆ ⁻ , SiF ₆ ²⁻
$14e$	7	14	sp ³ d ³ /d ⁵ sp	IF ₇ / AgI ₂ ⁻ , Au(CN) ₂ ⁻
$16e$	8	16	d ⁵ sp ²	Cp ₂ Cr, Au(CN) ₄ ⁻
$18e$	9	18	d ⁵ sp ³	Ni(CO) ₄ , Fe(CO) ₅ , Cr(CO) ₆

Generalized octet rule (GOR): examples

- Complexes fulfilling the octet rule:



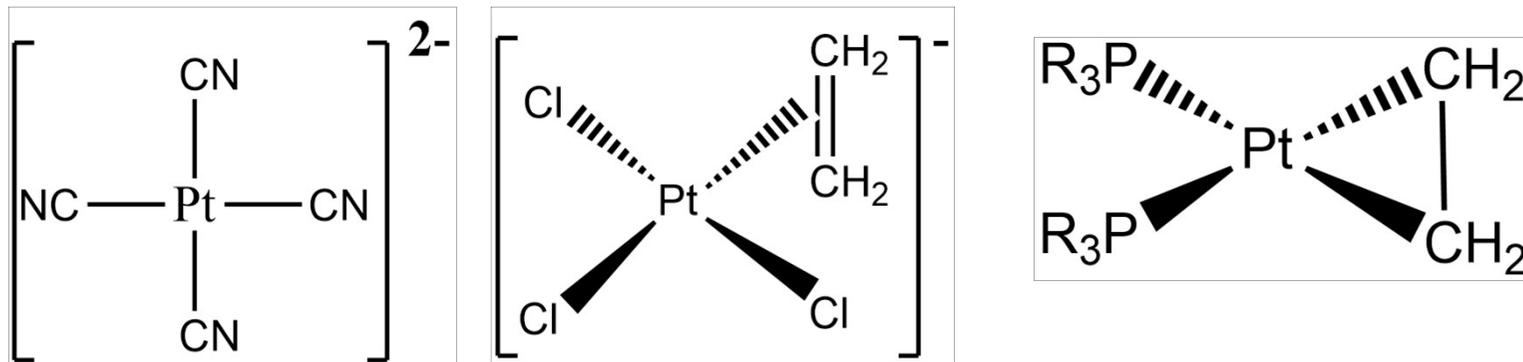
Why is isomer **b** more stable than isomer **a**?

Note: isomer **a**, has two Mg-Me-Mg 3c-2e bonds.

- 1) No metal-metal bond. $V = 8n - g = 0 \rightarrow g = 8n = 16!$
- 2) However, total skeletal bonding MO's: 8 (**b**) > 6 (**a**). \rightarrow
- 3) Total skeletal bonding electrons: $g = 16$ (**b**) > 12 (**a**) (needs extra **4e**)
- 4) Isomer **a** conflicts with GOR. Isomer **b** having four more bonding skeletal electrons and fulfilling GOR is more stable!

Generalized octet rule: examples

- **16e complexes:**



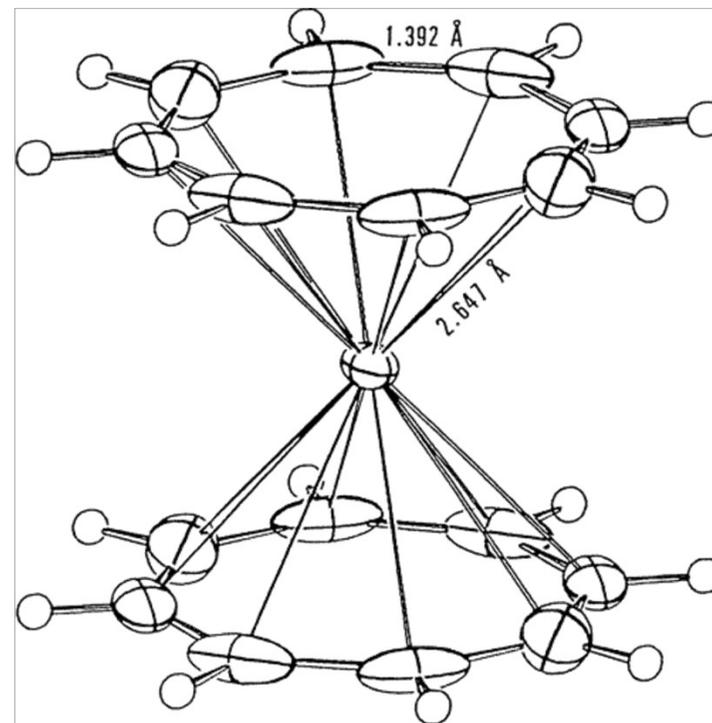
- 1) The Pt^{2+} ($5d^8$) adopts dsp^2 hybridization in order to form the 4-coordinated planar complexes. Meanwhile, each ligand contributes a lone-pair orbital.
- 2) A total of **8** AOs are involved in the M-L bondings, forming **8** σ -MOs (4 bonding and 4 antibonding).
- 3) The total valence electrons around Pt: **8** (nonbonding $5d^8$) + **8** (4 bonding σ -MOs/dative bonds) = **16**.

Generalized octet rule: examples

Beyond 18e: Thorocene and Uranocene



- 1) Th ($5f^0 6d^2 7s^2$) and $2C_8H_8$ ($8\pi e$)
 $\rightarrow Th^{4+}$ and $2C_8H_8^{2-}$ ($10\pi e$).
- 2) D_{8h} -symmetry, VE = 20.
- 3) $(\sigma_g)^2 (\sigma_u^*)^2 (\pi_u)^4 (\pi_g^*)^4 (\delta_g)^4 (\delta_u^*)^4$
- 4) A 5f AO of Th (U) is involved in the metal-ligand bonding!



Uranocene

2L: 2x5 MO's

M: 10 AO's

$(n-2)f(n-1)d^5 sp^3$

Prediction: Uranocene -- Fischer, R.D. *Theor. Chim. Acta*, **1963**, 1, 418.

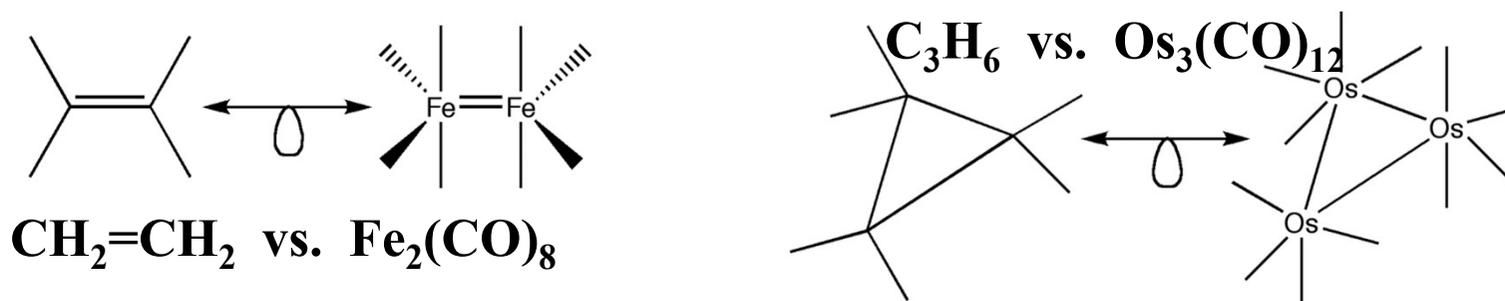
Synthesis: Uranocene -- Streitwieser A. Jr., *J. Am. Chem. Soc.* **1968**, 90, 7364.

Thorocene-- Streitwieser A. Jr., *J. Am. Chem. Soc.* **1969**, 91, 7528.

Isolobal Analogy : proposed by R. Hoffmann

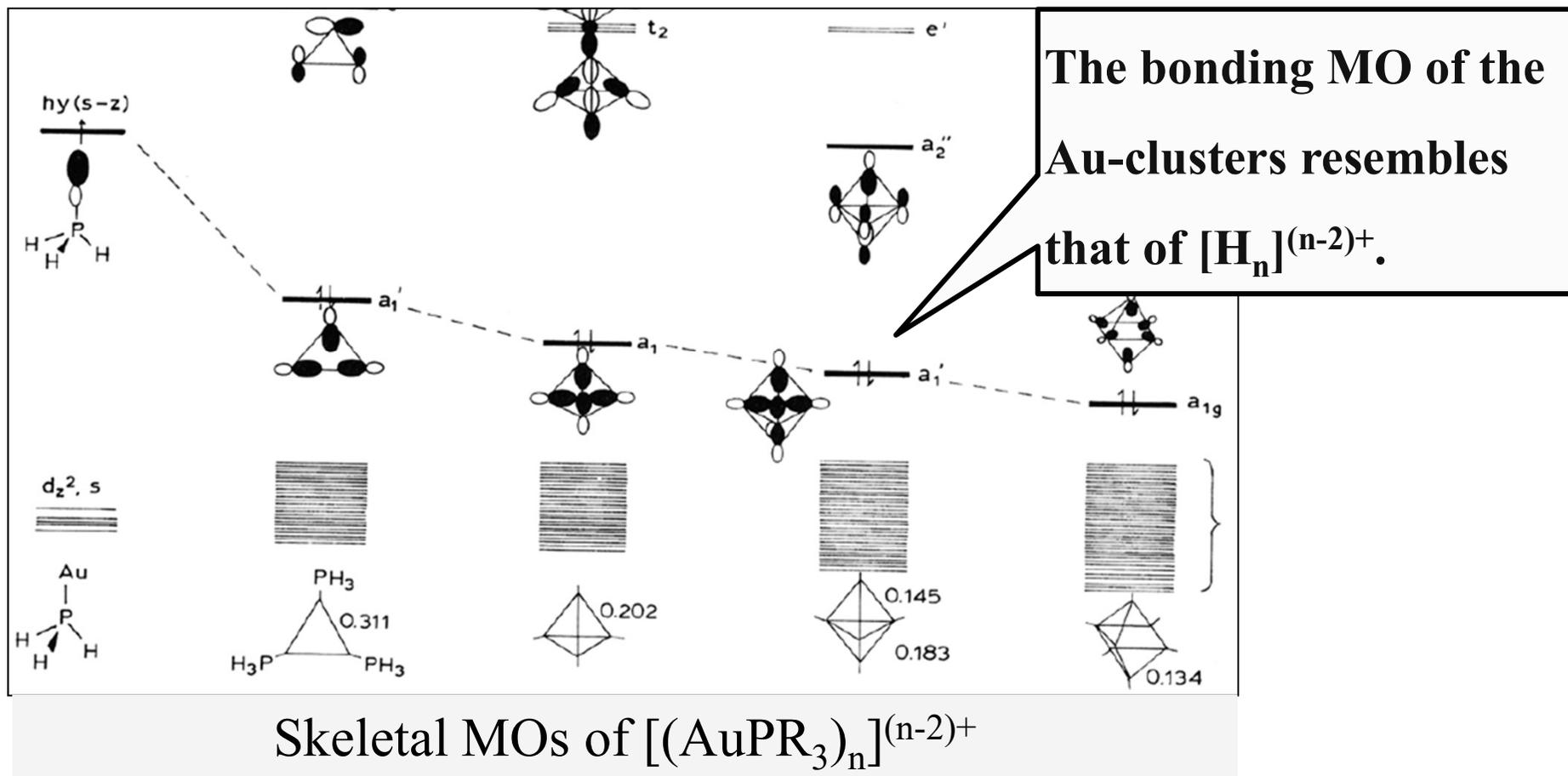
- Molecular fragments having *same number of VEs* (or $VE_a = VE_b - 10$) and *similar frontier orbitals* are isolobal.

e.g., CH_2 ($VE = 6, V = 2$) is isolobal to $\text{Fe}(\text{CO})_4$ ($VE = 16, V = 2$).



- A fragment in a molecule can be substituted with an isolobal fragment. e.g., CR_2 vs $\text{Fe}(\text{CO})_4$, AuPR_3 vs H
 → Metal-carbene complexes: $(\text{L})_n\text{M}=\text{CR}_2$
- Isolobal analogy has been widely exploited in synthetic chemistry and led to the production of numerous cluster compounds.
- One of the most widely exploited isolobal analogy is the isolobal analogy between AuPR_3 and H .

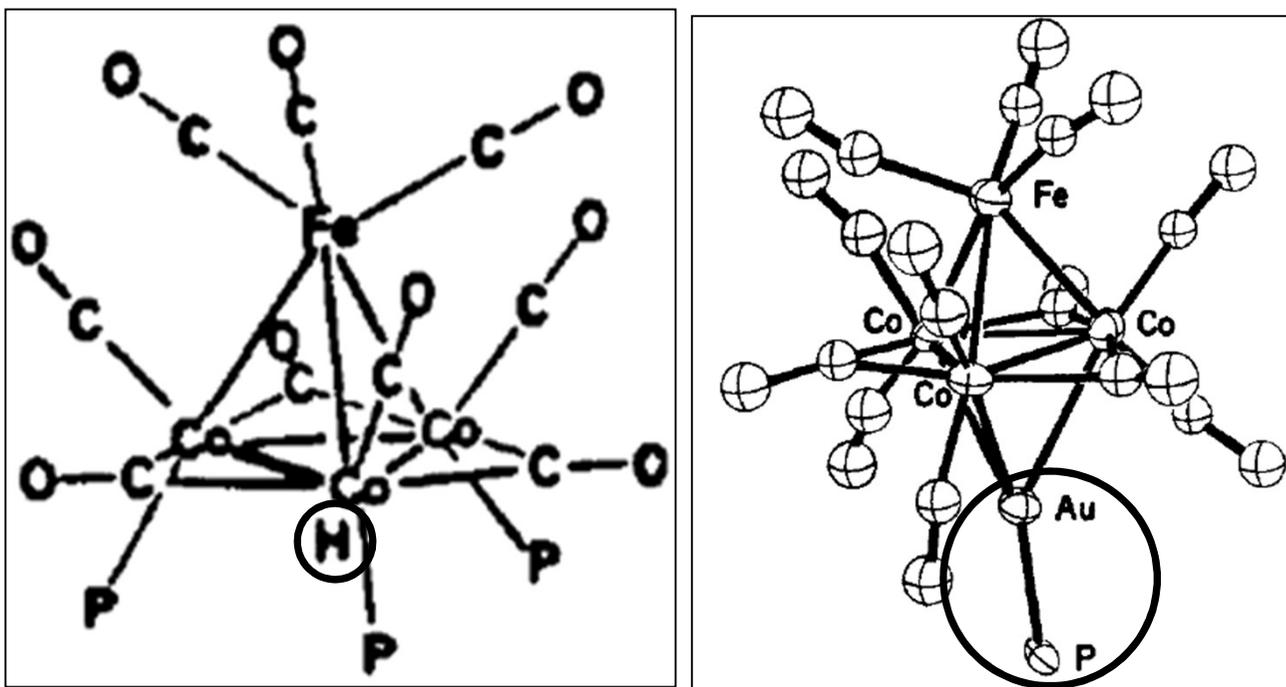
In 1970s, Mingos noticed the $\text{AuPR}_3 \sim \text{H}$ analogy.



- Mingos DMP, *J. Chem. Soc., Dalton Trans*, **1976**, 1163; *J. Organomet. Chem.* **1982**, 232, 171.
- Hoffmann R, *Angew. Chem.*, **1982**, 94, 725.

Early experimental evidences of isolobal $\text{AuPR}_3 \sim \text{H}$ analogy.

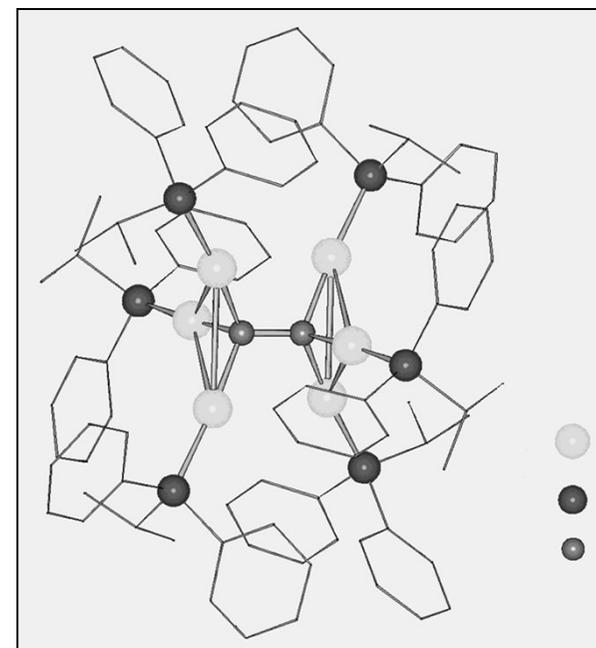
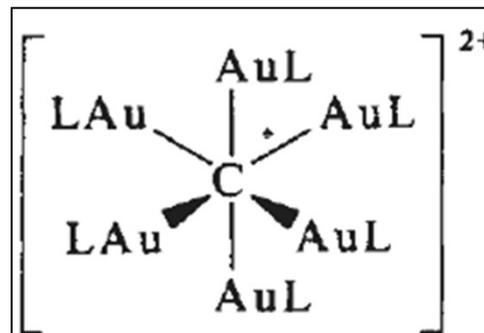
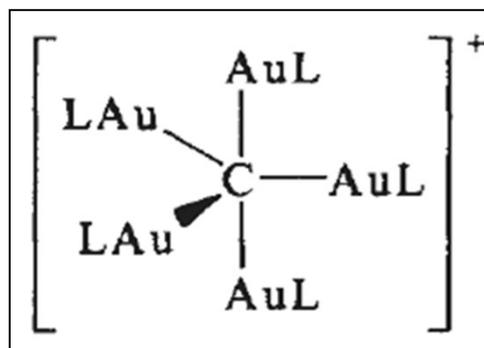
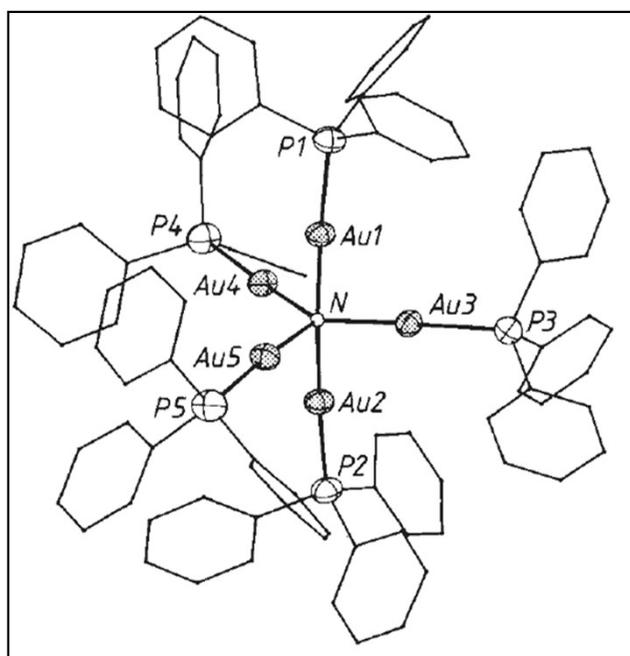
- isostructural $[\text{Co}(\text{CO})_4\text{X}]$ ($\text{X}=\text{H}, \text{AuPR}_3$)
- isostructural $[\text{FeCo}_3(\text{CO})_{12}(\mu_3\text{-X})]$ ($\text{X}=\text{H}, \text{AuPR}_3$) compounds



- Blundell and Powell, *J. Chem. Soc. A*, **1971**, 1685;
- McNeil and Scholer, *J. Am. Chem. Soc.* **1977**, 99, 6243.
- Lauher and Wald, *J. Am. Chem. Soc.* **1981**, 103, 7649.

The Isolobal AuPR₃~H Analogy

The AuPR₃ synthon as H analogue has been widely exploited in bench chemistry, e.g., [O(AuPR₃)_n]⁽ⁿ⁻²⁾⁺ (n = 3-4); [N(AuPR₃)_n]⁽ⁿ⁻³⁾⁺ (n = 4-5); [C(AuPR₃)_n]⁽ⁿ⁻⁴⁾⁺ (n = 4-6); [N₂(AuPR₃)₆]²⁺



- Schmidbaur, H. et al., *Nature*, 1990, 345, 140; 1991, 352, 141; 1995, 377, 503;
- Sharp P.R. et al. *Science*, 1997, 275, 1460.

- $[\text{O}(\text{AuPh}_3)_n]^{(n-2)+}$ ($n = 3-4$) $\approx [\text{OH}_3]^+$, $[\text{OH}_4]^{2+}$
- $[\text{N}(\text{AuPh}_3)_n]^{(n-3)+}$ ($n = 4-5$) $\approx [\text{NH}_4]^+$, $[\text{NH}_5]^{2+}$
- $[\text{C}(\text{AuPh}_3)_n]^{(n-4)+}$ ($n = 4-6$) $\approx \text{CH}_4$, $[\text{CH}_5]^+$, $[\text{CH}_6]^{2+}$
- $[\text{N}_2(\text{AuPR}_3)_6]^{2+}$ $\approx [\text{H}_3\text{N}-\text{NH}_3]^{2+}$;

In bench chemistry, the gold-hydrogen analogy is assisted exclusively by such type of ligands as PR_3 !

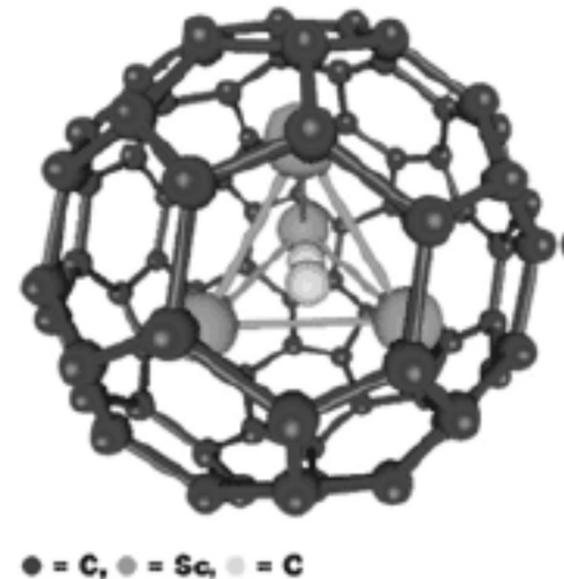
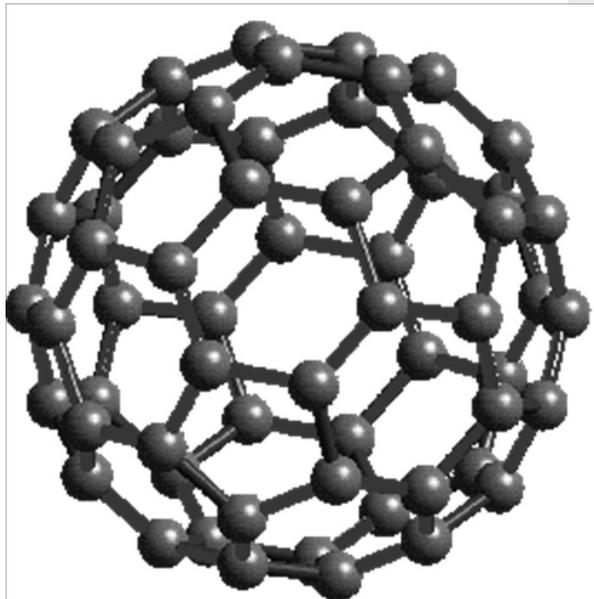
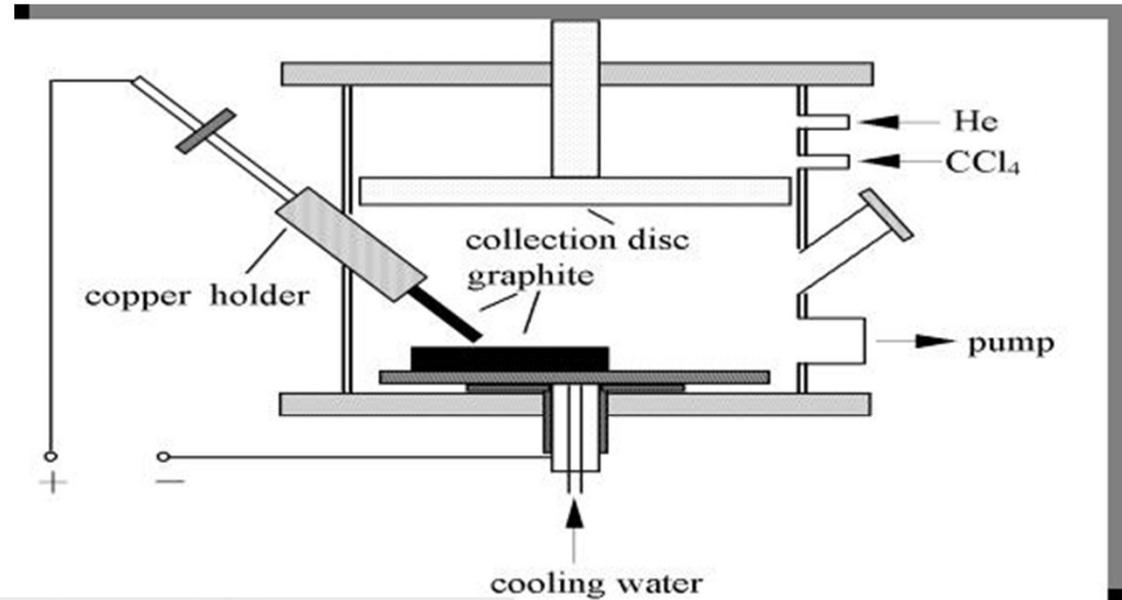
6.5 Carbon clusters and nanotubes

1. Fullerenes

a. Without Cl, C_{60} , C_{70} ...

b. With Cl, $C_{50}Cl_{10}$...

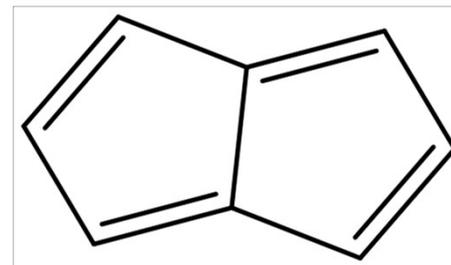
c. With metal, $M_x@C_y$...



- **Fullerenes** are convex carbon cages comprising hexagons and exactly *12* pentagons.
- **Euler's Theorem** states that exactly 12 pentagons must be accommodated to allow closure of a carbon network consisting of *n* hexagons.
- **Isolated pentagon rule (IPR)**: the pentagons within the most stable fullerenes are surrounded by hexagons and, hence, isolated from each other.
- The smallest IPR-satisfying fullerene is C_{60} (I_h), immediately followed by C_{70} (D_{5h}). Those with a size smaller than C_{60} or between C_{60} and C_{70} do not obey IPR.
- *Lu X et al., Chem. Rev. 2005, 105, 3643.*

Non-IPR fullerenes with adjacent pentagons are always unstable. Why?

- Adjacent pentagons of a convex cage introduce enhanced steric strain (*steric effect*).
- Adjacent pentagons introduce antiaromatic destabilization pertaining to the pentalene-type 8π -electron system (*electronic effect*).

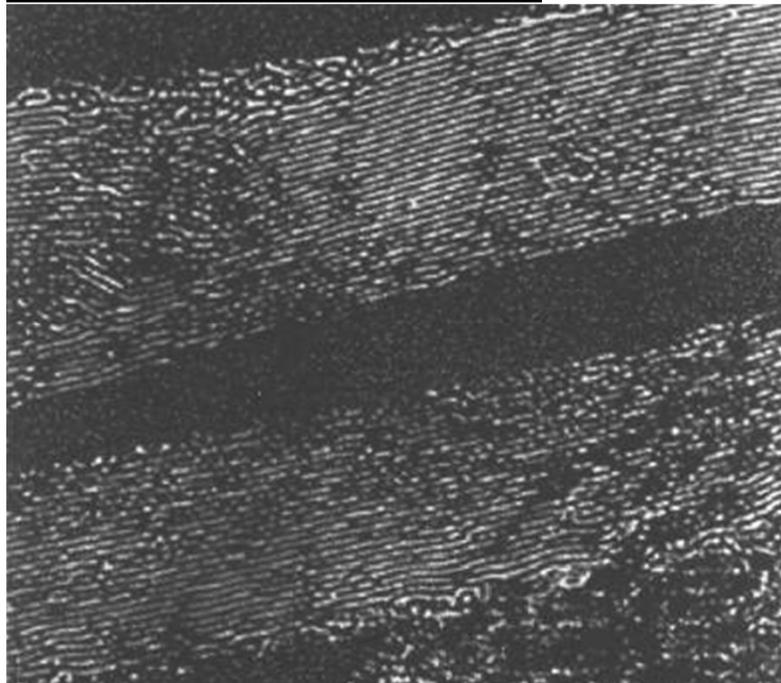
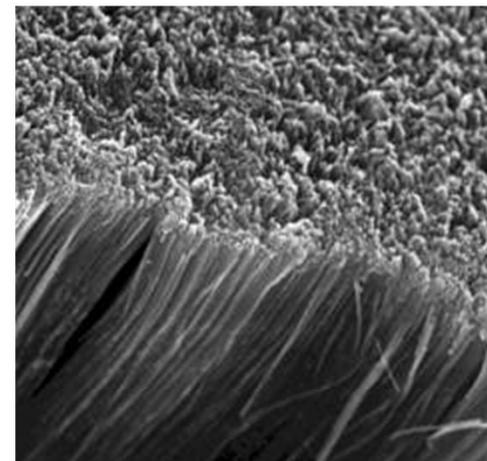
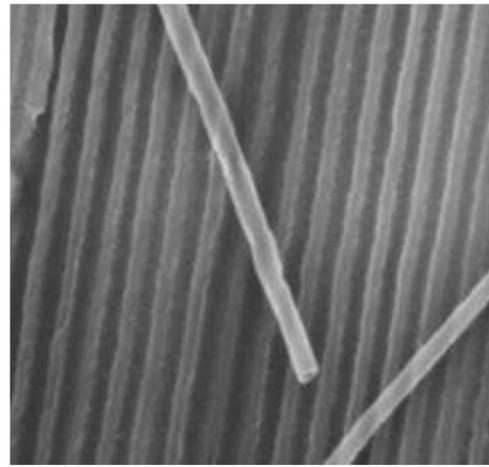
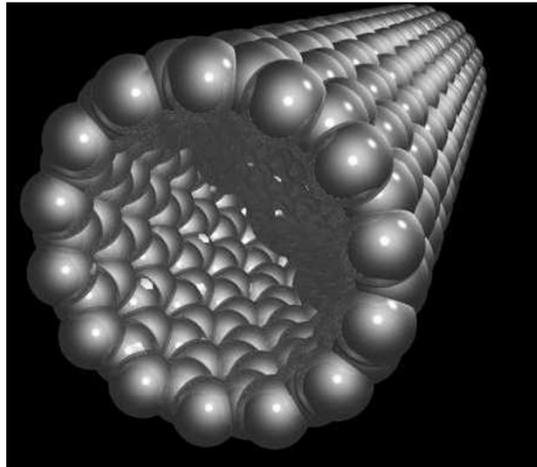


Antiaromatic pentalene

2. Carbon nanotubes

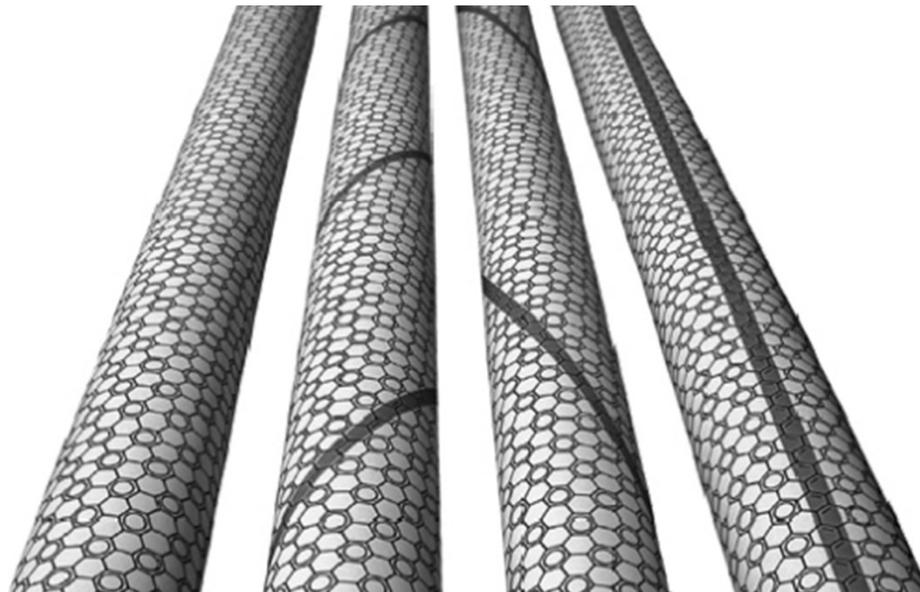
HRTEM

Discovered by Iijima (NEC, JPN) in 1991.



200 nm

1 μm



12

3

Single-walled carbon nanotube (SWCNT):

- The structure of a SWCNT can be uniquely defined by the roll-up vector, $\mathbf{C}_h = n\mathbf{a}_1 + m\mathbf{a}_2$, and is designated by (n,m) .

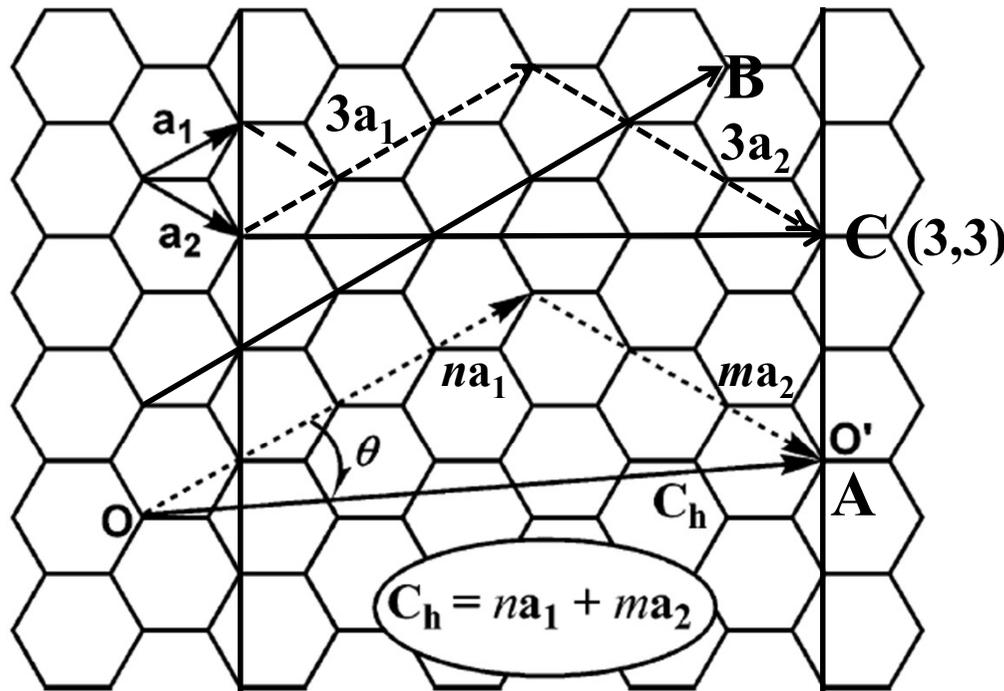


Figure 64. Roll-up vector \mathbf{C}_h ($\mathbf{C}_h = n\mathbf{a}_1 + m\mathbf{a}_2$) and chiral angle θ for a (n,m) SWCNT (for this special case, $n = 4$, $m = 3$), where \mathbf{a}_1 and \mathbf{a}_2 are the primitive vectors of a graphene sheet.

Types:

A) $\mathbf{C}_h = n\mathbf{a}_1 + m\mathbf{a}_2$

($n > m$, $m \neq 0$), chiral (n,m) .

B) $\mathbf{C}_h = n\mathbf{a}_1$

zigzag $(n,0)$ – achiral

C) $\mathbf{C}_h = n\mathbf{a}_1 + n\mathbf{a}_2$

armchair (n,n) – achiral

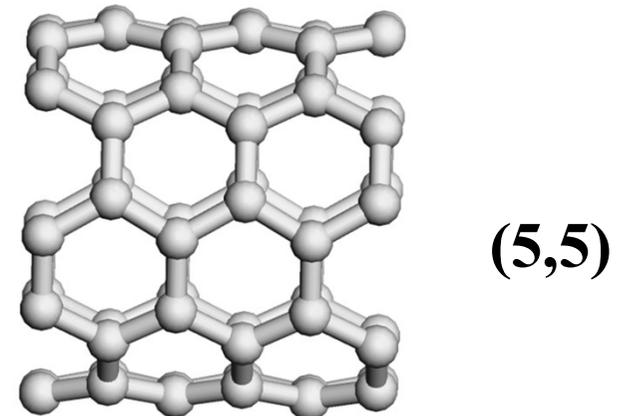
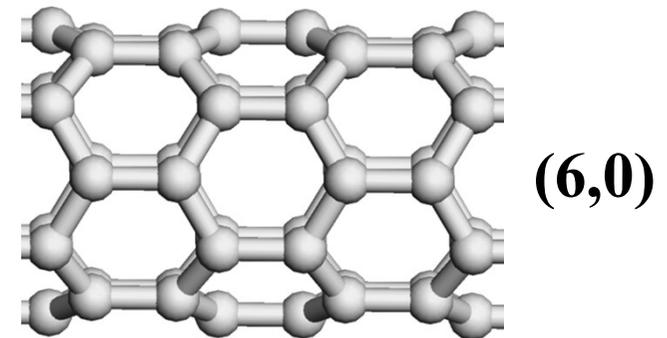
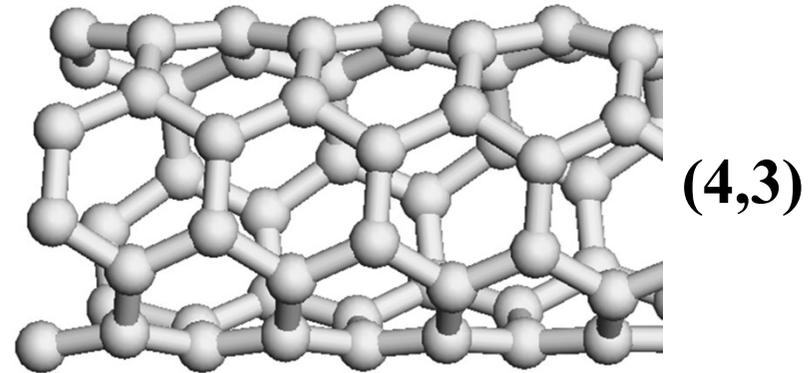
e.g., The roll-up vectors \mathbf{A} , \mathbf{B} and \mathbf{C} define the SWCNTs $(4,3)$, $(6,0)$ and $(3,3)$, respectively.

Types:

a) Chiral (n,m) ($n > m, m \neq 0$).

b) Achiral zigzag $(n,0)$.

c) Achiral armchair (n,n) .



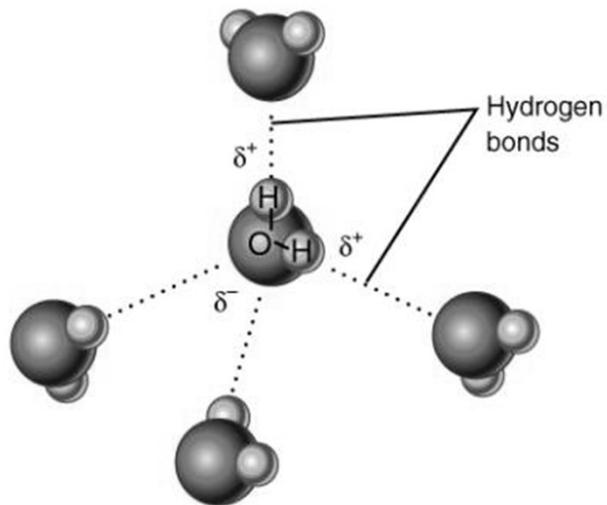
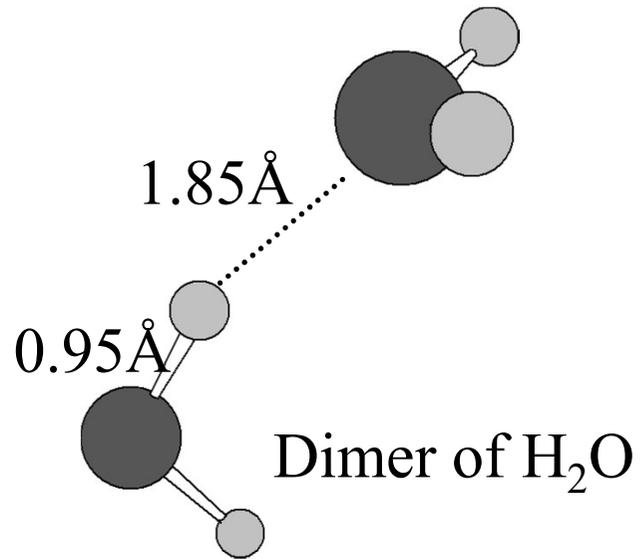
Conductivity:

$(n-m)/3 = k$ ($k = 0, 1, 2, \dots$) --- metallic

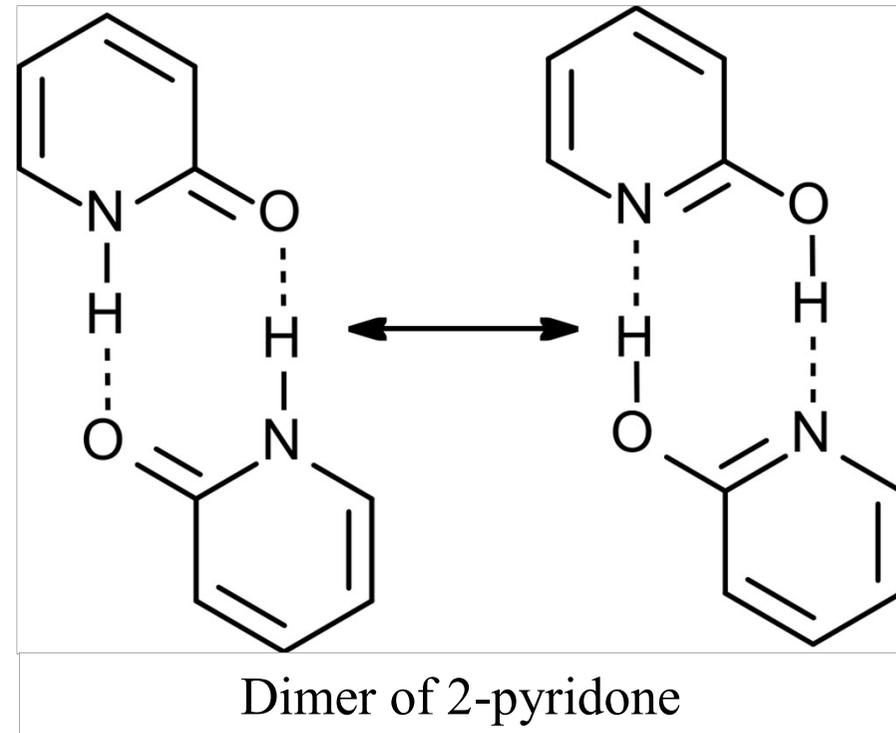
$(n-m)/3 \neq k$ --- semiconductive

→ Metallic (n,n) and $(3m,0)$

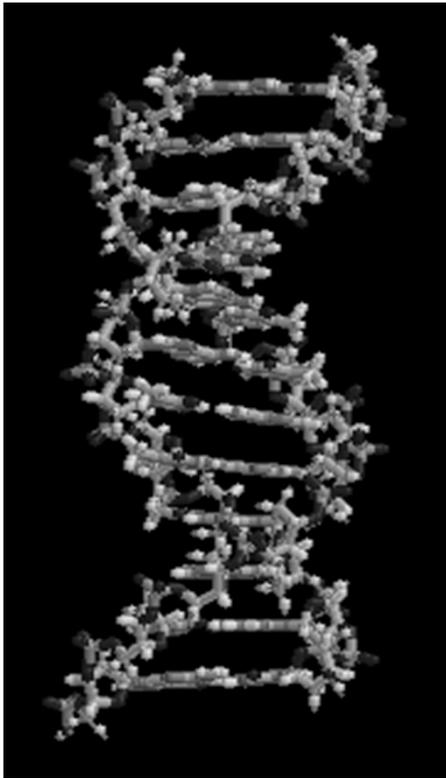
6.6 Hydrogen Bonding



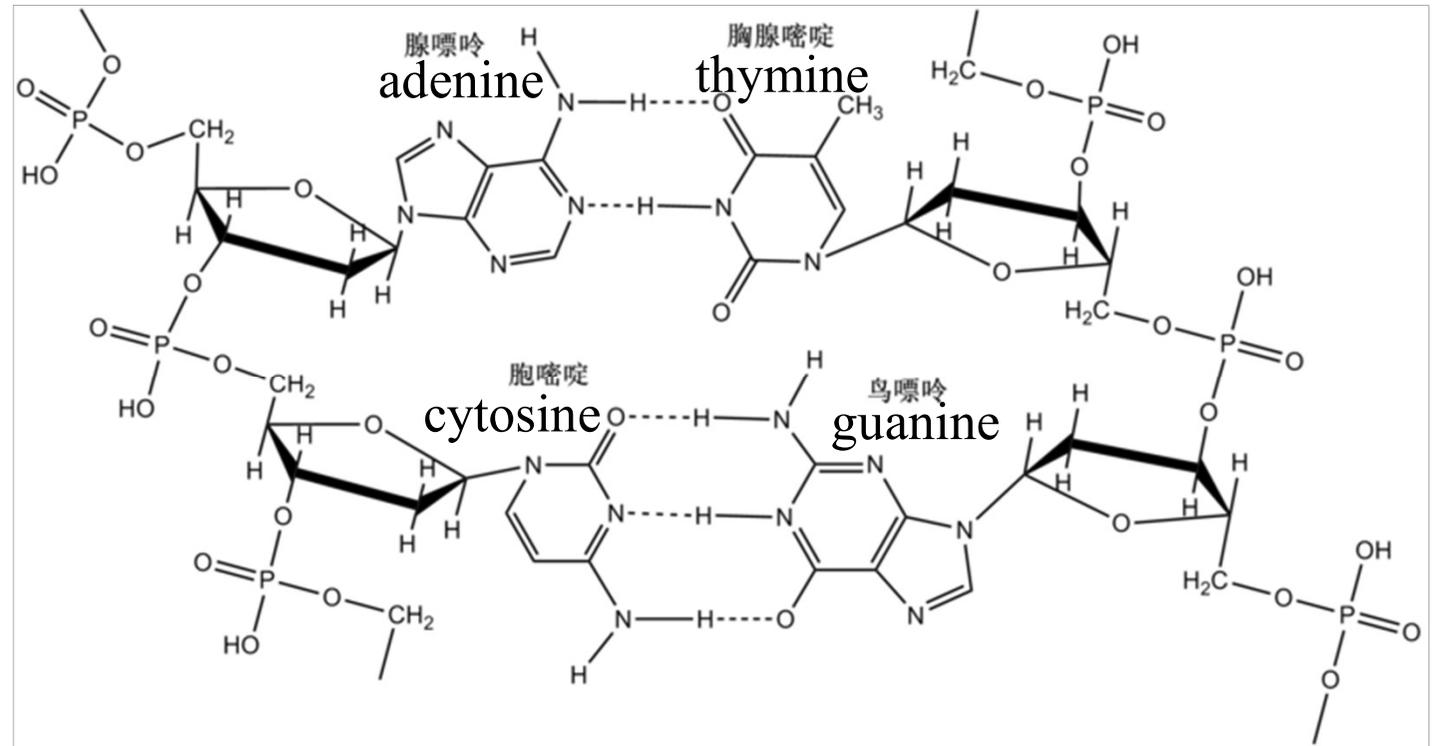
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Hydrogen bonds in DNA



part of DNA



- Hydrogen bonding within the base pairs of DNA

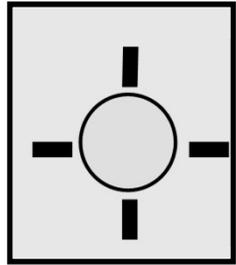
6.7 Prediction of structural features of inorganic iono-covalent compounds and tetrahedral anion complexes

Hume-Rothery's 8 - N rule (1930/31)

Rule rationalizes observed structural features of (post-transition) main group elements. By forming the correct number of shared bonds with its neighbors each atom succeeds to complete its octet.

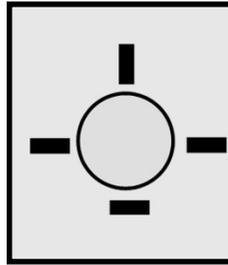
The number of bonds of an element is $8 - N$ where N is its column number in the periodic table (only for $4 \leq N \leq 8$).

Element structures which obey Hume-Rothery's $8 - N$ rule



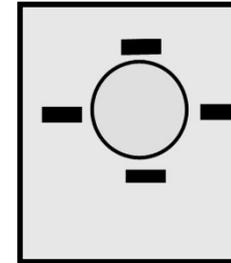
$N = 4$
4 bonds

C_D, Si, Ge, α -Sn



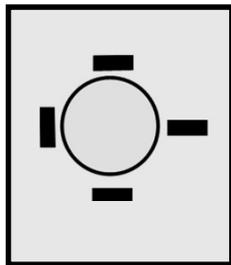
$N = 5$
3 bonds

P, As, Sb, Bi



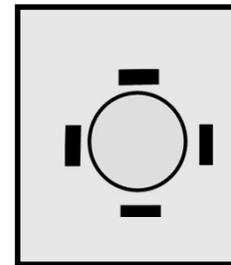
$N = 6$
2 bonds

S, Se, Te



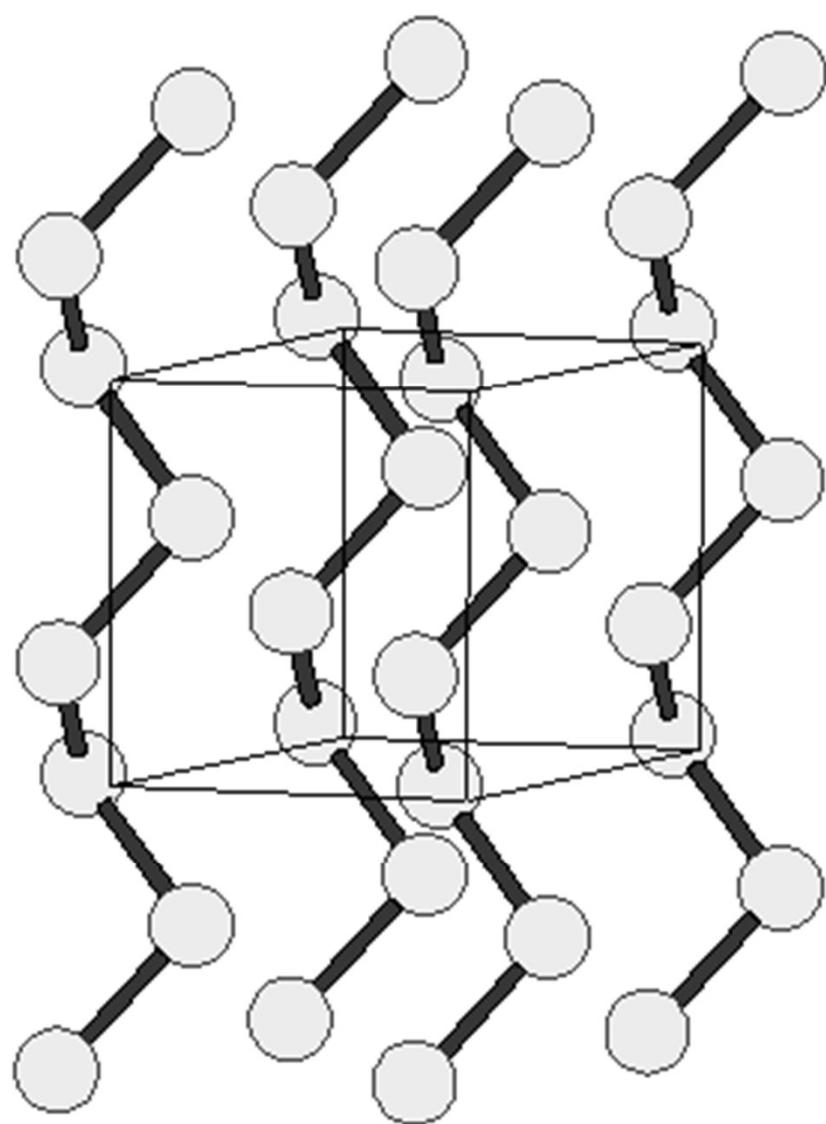
$N = 7$
1 bond

F, Cl, Br, I



$N = 8$
0 bonds

He, Ne, Ar, Kr, Xe, Rn



SELEN

Generalized 8 - *N* rule

Pearson (1964), Hulliger & Mooser (1965)

$$8 - \text{VEC}_A = \text{AA} - m\text{CC}/n \quad \text{for } C_m A_n$$

VEC_A: Number of valence electrons per atom in anion.

VEC_A < 8, AA > 0, CC = 0 ⇒ Polyanionic val. comp.

VEC_A = 8, AA = 0, CC = 0 ⇒ Normal valence compound

VEC_A > 8, AA = 0, CC > 0 ⇒ Polycationic val. comp.

AA: Average number of A-A bonds per anion

CC: Average number of C-C bonds per cations and/or electrons used for inert-electron pairs on cations

Polyanionic valence compound (1)

$$\text{K}_6\text{Pd(II)Se}_{20} : \text{VEC}_A = 128/20 = 32/5, \text{CC} = 0,$$

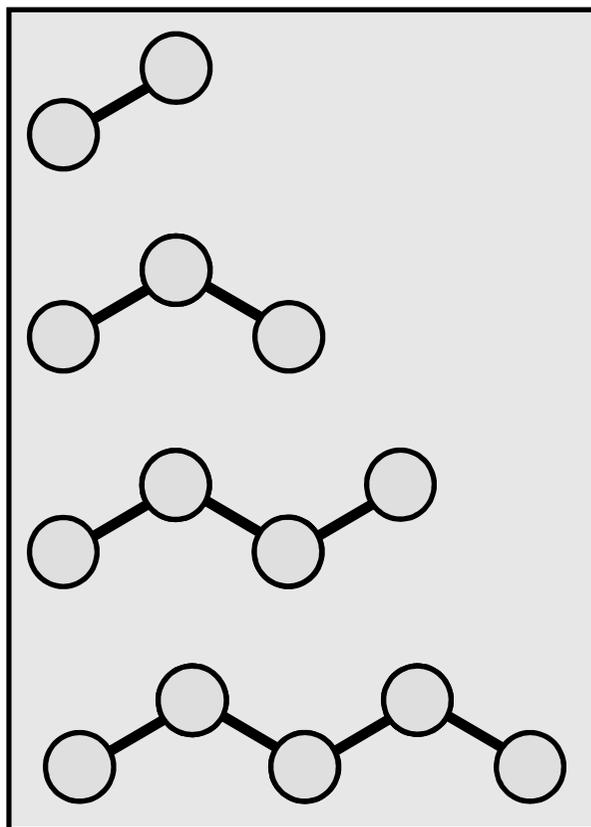
$$\rightarrow \text{AA} = 8/5, \text{ i.e., } \text{K}_6\text{Pd}[\text{Se}_5]_4$$

$$\text{AA} = (2 \times 1)/2 \\ = 1$$

$$\text{AA} = (2 \times 1 + 2)/3 \\ = 4/3$$

$$\text{AA} = (2 \times 1 + 2 \times 2)/4 \\ = 6/4$$

$$\text{AA} = (2 \times 1 + 3 \times 2)/5 \\ = 8/5$$



$$N_{A/M} = 2/(2 - \text{AA})$$

$N_{A/M}$: Average number of atoms in a non-cyclic charged anion molecule

Polyanionic valence compounds (2)

- **LaAs₂** : $VEC_A = 6.5$; $AA = 3/2$; $N_{A/M} = 4$
 $La_2^+[As_4]$ (LT) or $La_4^+[As_3]^+[As_5]$ (HT)
- **CsTe₄** : $VEC_A = 6.25$; $AA = 7/4$; $N_{A/M} = 8$
 $Cs_2^+[Te_8]$
- **Th₂S₅** : $VEC_A = 7.6$; $AA = 2/5$
- $Th_2^+[S_2][S]_3$
- **Sr₅Si₃** : $VEC_A = 7.33$; $AA = 2/3$
- $Sr_5^+[Si_2][Si]$

Polycationic valence compounds

- **HgCl** : $VEC_A = 9$; $CC = 1$
- $[\text{Hg-Hg}]\text{Cl}_2$
- **CCl₃** : $VEC_A = 8.33$; $CC = 1$
- $[\text{C-C}]\text{Cl}_6$
- **SiAs** : $VEC_A = 9$; $CC = 1$
- $[\text{Si-Si}]\text{As}_2$

Caution:

In most cases, the M-M bond valence of a cluster compound derived from the electron-counting rule may not be explicitly equal to the number of its M-M linkages!

Accordingly, it is better to make use of Wade's rule to count the number of skeletal bonding electron-pairs of a cluster compound!

- For each M center of a cluster compound that fulfills the 18e rule, it adopts supposedly d^2sp^3 hybridization with three non-hybridized d AOs unused.
- While some of the hybridized orbitals are used to form M-L dative bonds, the rest of the HOs are used to form the skeletal MOs of the cluster compound!
- Thus, the Wade's rule demands $2(n+1)$ bonding skeletal electrons for a n -vertex polyhedron.

Example: $\text{Fe}_3(\text{CO})_{12}$

A. Electron-counting rule: $g = 3 \times 8 + 12 \times 2 = 48$; $b = (3 \times 18 - 48) / 2 = 3$

--seemingly adopts a triangular geometry with 3 M-M bonds!

B. Wade's rule (MO theory):

i) Fe (8 VEs & 9 VAOs) in $\text{Fe}(\text{CO})_4$ fragment:

- 3 non-bonding VAOs (doubly occupied d AOs, thus 6VEs used);
- 4 VAOs used for M-CO dative bonds; The rest 2VAOs (together with 2 VEs) contribute to the skeletal MOs of the cluster.

ii) Three $\text{M}(\text{CO})_4$ fragments jointly form 3 bonding & 3 antibonding skeletal MOs.

In this case, predictions based on the simple electron-counting rule & Wade's rule agree well with each other!

Cautions: The electron-counting rule even fails for some low-oxidation state TM compounds!

Example: $M_6(CO)_{18}$ ($M = Fe, Ru, Os$)

A. Electron-counting: $g = 6 \times 8 + 18 \times 2 = 84$; $b = (6 \times 18 - 84) / 2 = 12$

The cluster compounds seemingly have 12 M-M bonds, thus adopting an octahedral geometry! Is this prediction correct?

B. Wade's rule (MO theory):

i) The M atom in a $M(CO)_3$ fragment has 8 VEs & 9 VAOs:

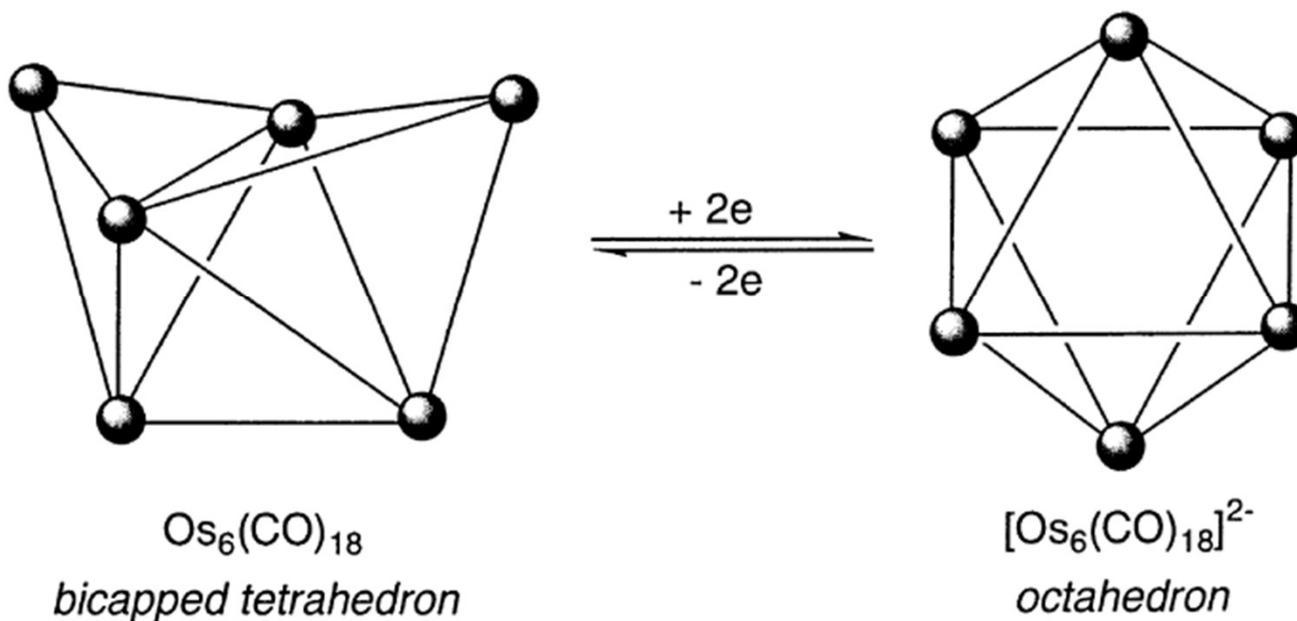
3 VAOs used for M-CO bonds; 3 non-bonding d VAOs & 6 VEs; the rest 3 VAOs, but only 2 VEs, used for the formation of the skeletal MOs of the cluster →

ii) The whole cluster has 12 VEs, i.e., 6 bonding skeletal MOs.

iii) However, **Wade's rule** demands in total 7 bonding skeletal MOs (1 radial + 6 tangential MOs) for an octahedron.

v) The cluster is not ideally an octahedron, but actually a bicapped tetrahedron!

Instead, $[\text{M}_6(\text{CO})_{18}]^{2-}$ is an octahedron with 7 bonding skeletal MOs!



Validation of the simple electron-counting rule requires an in-depth analysis in light of the MO theory!

m VEs n VAOs	VB description	MO description
$m = n$	$m/2$ (or $n/2$) 2c-2e bonds: (σ /+ π), e.g., 4 C-H bonds in CH_4	$m/2$ bonding MOs (σ /+ π) or plus Π_x^x (e.g., C_6H_6)
$m > n$	$(m-n)$ lone pairs & $(2n-m)/2$ 2c-2e bonds, e.g., NH_3	$(m-n)$ non-bonding MOs & $(2n-m)/2$ bonding MOs or plus Π_x^x (e.g., pyridine)
$m < n$	Electron deficient! ?	(e.g., boranes, carboranes) 3c-2e or more delocalized σ - MOs.