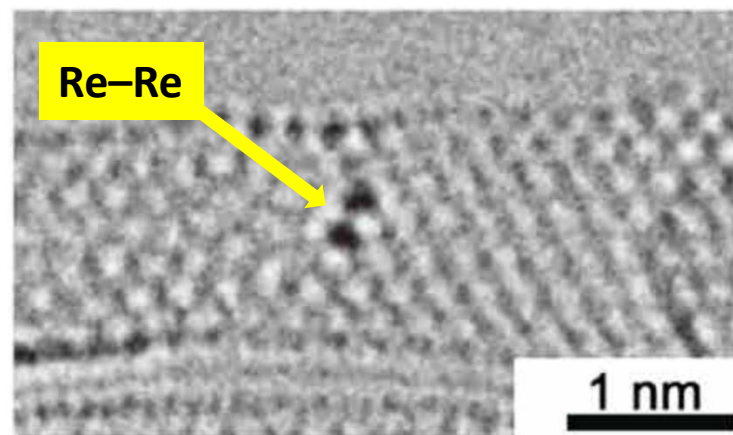


Chemical Bonding

- Effects on Bonding
- Pauling's Rules
- Dative Bonds
- Bond Order
- Multiple Bonds
- Sigma Hole Interactions
- Bond-Stretch Isomers
- Relativistic Effects
- Auophilicity
- H-Bonding

“Imaging an unsupported metal–metal bond in dirhenium molecules at the atomic scale” by K. Cao, S. T. Skowron, J. Biskupek, C. T. Stoppiello, C. Leist, E. Besley, A. N. Khlobystov and U. Kaiser, 2020, Science Advances. DOI: 10.1126/sciadv.aay5849

Chromatic and spherical aberration-corrected TEM



- Re–Re bond length changes in discrete steps correlating with bond order from one to four
- Direct imaging of the Re–Re bond breaking process reveals a new bonding state with the bond order less than one
- A high-amplitude vibrational stretch precedes the bond dissociation



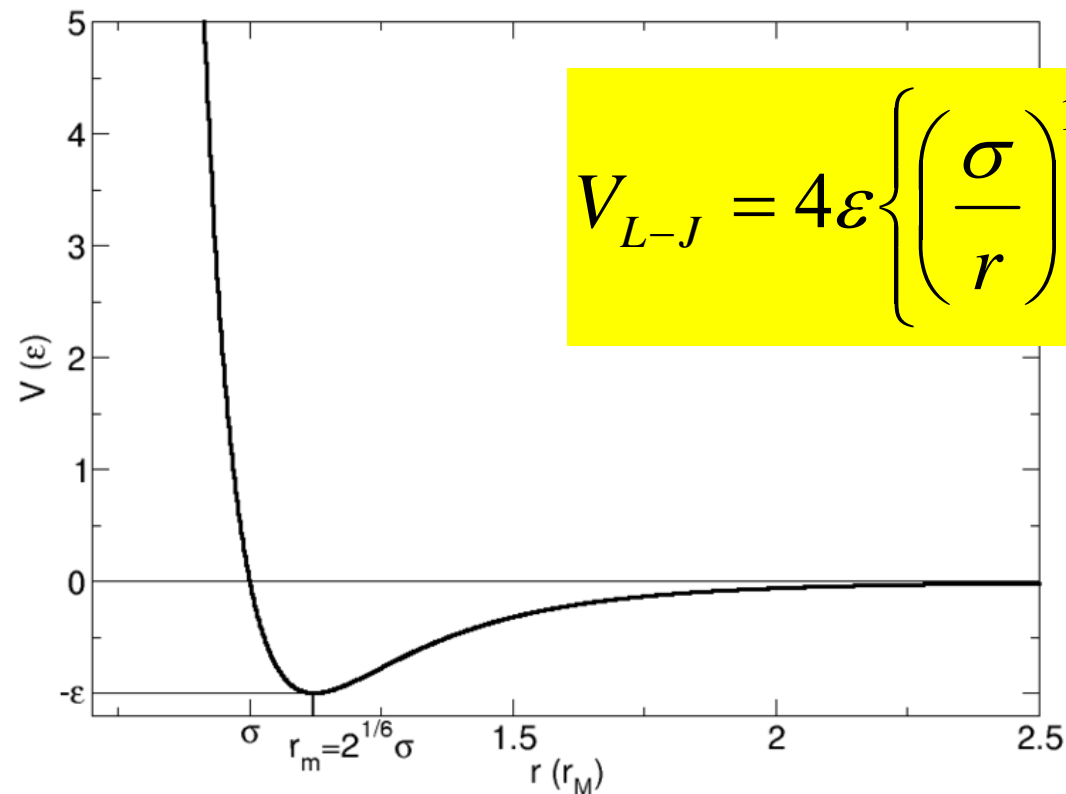
Lennard-Jones Potential

A model for weak **van der Waals bonds** between molecules

Two interacting particles repel each other at very close distance, attract each other at moderate distance, and do not interact at infinite distance

The **repulsive** term (12) - the Pauli repulsion of overlapping electron orbitals

The **attractive** term (6) - attraction at long ranged interactions (dispersion forces)



$$V_{L-J} = 4\epsilon \left\{ \left(\frac{\sigma}{r} \right)^{12} - \left(\frac{\sigma}{r} \right)^6 \right\}$$

ϵ = depth of potential well

σ = distance where attractive and repulsive forces are at equilibrium

r_m = distance at the minimum V



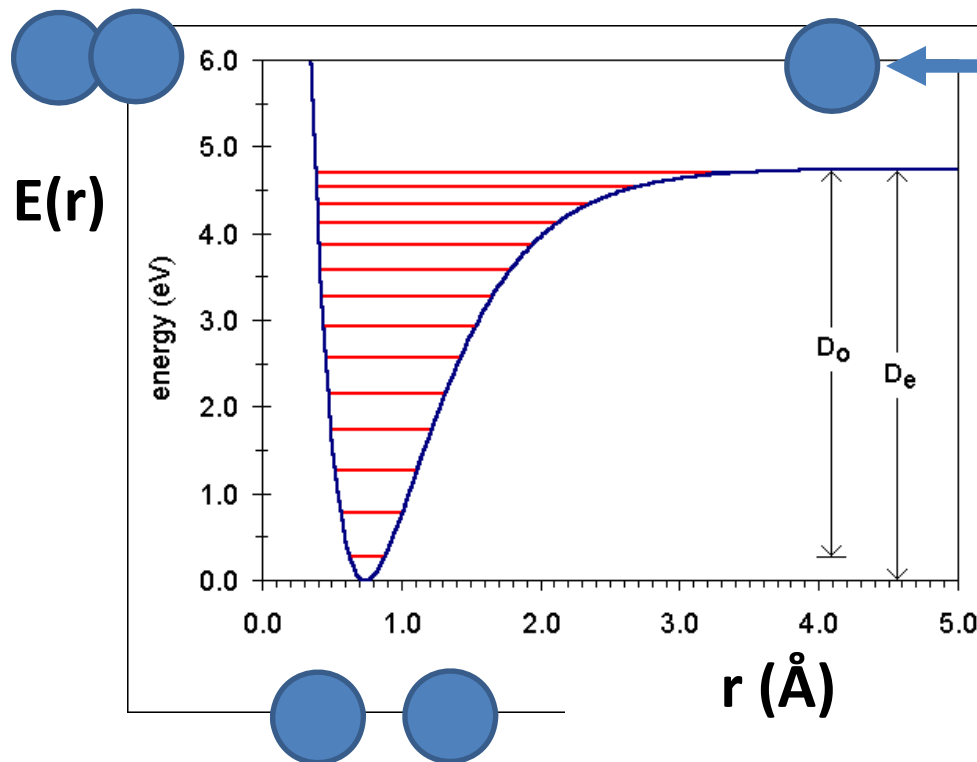
Morse Potential

A model for potential energy of a **covalent bond** in a diatomic molecule

Solving the Schrödinger Equation with the Morse Potential can be done analytically

$$E(r) = D_e (1 - e^{-\alpha(r-r_e)})^2$$

$$\alpha = \sqrt{\frac{k_e}{2D_e}}$$

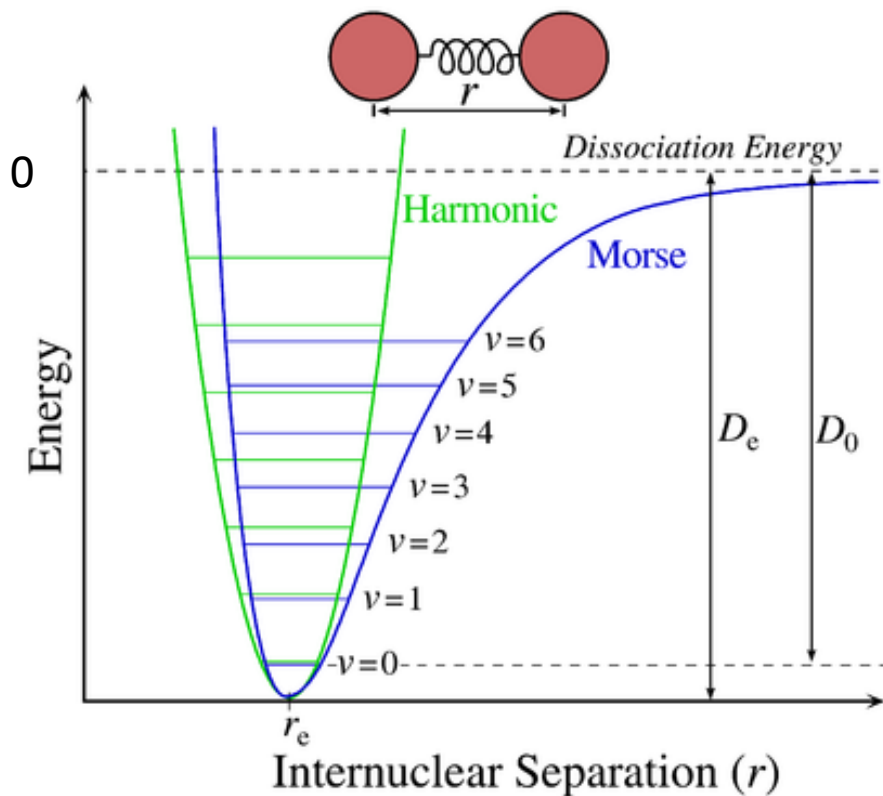


D_e - the well depth
 D_0 - the dissociation energy
 r - internuclear distance
 r_e - the equilibrium internuclear distance = bond length
 k_e - force constant at the well minimum

Stretching vibrations
Harmonic oscillator



Morse Potential



Harmonic oscillator in quantum mechanics
 Quantized vibrational energies - levels
 $E^n = (v + \frac{1}{2})hf$
 v - vibrational quantum number
 $v = 0$ - the vibrational ground state
 Never dissociates

Morse-Potential energy curve
 D_0 = bond dissociation energy

The ground-state energy is not 0

$$E^0 = \frac{1}{2}hf$$

Vibrational frequency f

k - force constant
 μ - reduced mass

$$f = \frac{1}{2\pi} \sqrt{\frac{k}{\mu}}$$

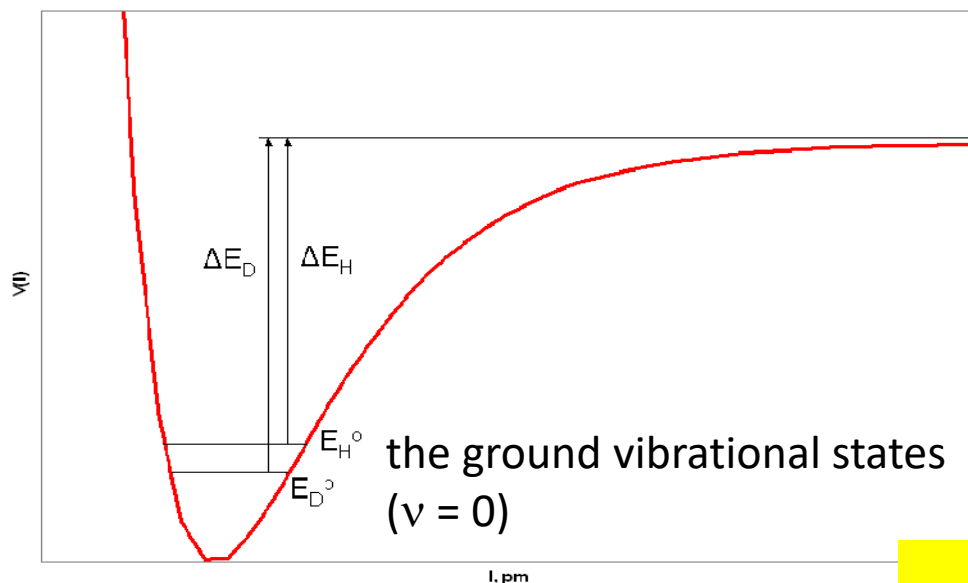
Bond	wavenumber cm ⁻¹
C-H	3000
C-D	2200

The C-H bond is a stronger spring (larger k)
 The C-D bond has lower zero-point energy E_D^0
 Force constant k does not change with isotopic H/D substitution



Bond Length and Isotopes

Is the C–H bond longer or shorter than the C–D bond?



A Morse potential curve

The zero point vibrational energy (ZPE) is the lowest possible energy of a system, the ground state energy ($v = 0$)

E_D^0 and E_H^0 (for $v = 0$)

the ZPE of R–H and R–D (R is much heavier than H or D) depend upon the reduced mass μ of the molecule

$$E^0 = \frac{1}{2} hf$$

$$f = \frac{1}{2\pi} \sqrt{\frac{k}{\mu}}$$

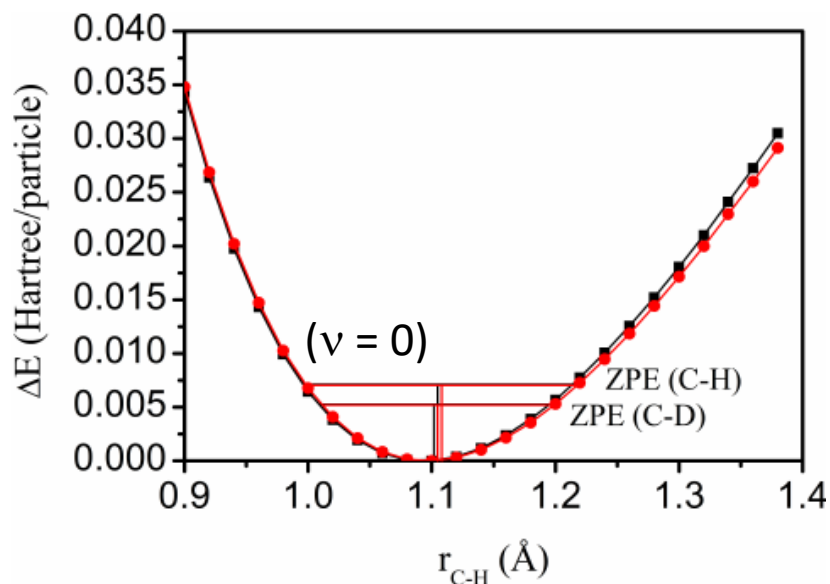
$$\mu = \frac{m_1 m_2}{m_1 + m_2}$$

- The **heavier** the atom, the **lower** the frequency of vibration and the **smaller** ZPE
- **Lighter** molecules or atoms have a **greater** frequency of vibration and a **higher** ZPE
- Deuterium is **heavier** than hydrogen and therefore has the **lower** zero point energy



Bond Length and Isotopes

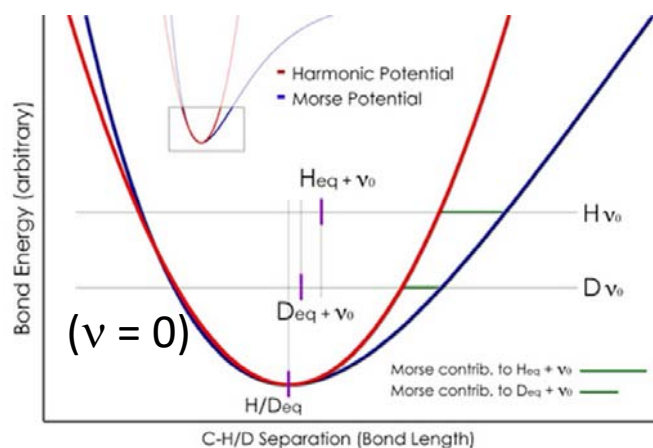
Is the C–H bond longer or shorter than the C–D bond?



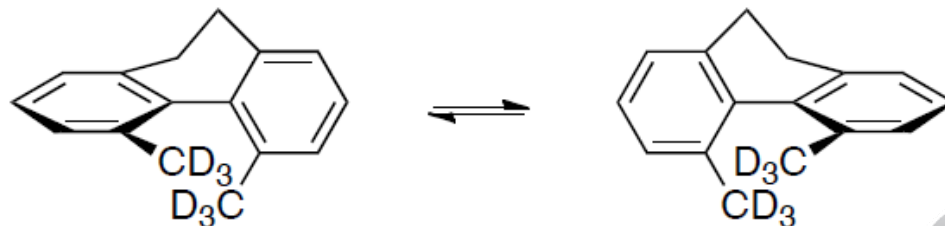
Due to the anharmonicity of the C–H/C–D vibrational potential energy function and the lower ZPE of a C–D bond

The midpoint of C–H level is at a longer distance than C–D

The average C–D bond length is typically ~ 0.005 Å **shorter** than an equivalent C–H



Secondary Isotope Effect - Steric effect of a CD_3 group **smaller** than CH_3



$$k_H/k_D = 0.86$$

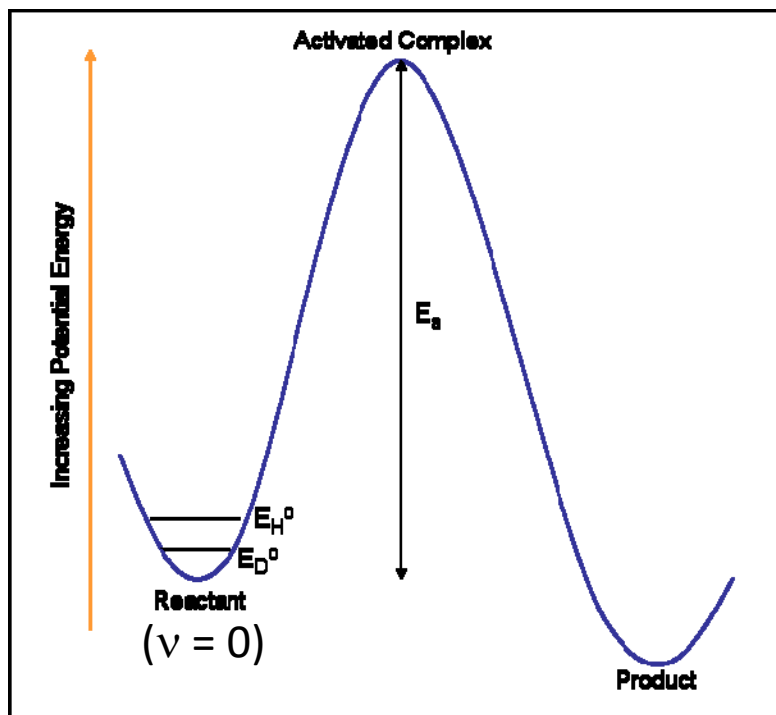


Kinetic Isotope Effects

The **kinetic** isotope effect (KIE) = isotopically substituted molecules exhibit different reaction rates, the change in rate of a reaction due to isotopic substitution
An isotopic substitution **does not influence the electronic** potential energy surface

hydrogen (^1H) - deuterium (^2H) - tritium (^3H)

carbon (^{12}C , ^{13}C), nitrogen (^{14}N , ^{15}N), oxygen (^{16}O , ^{18}O), chlorine (^{35}Cl , ^{37}Cl)



Different bond dissociation energies for R–D and R–H: E_{D} is greater than E_{H}

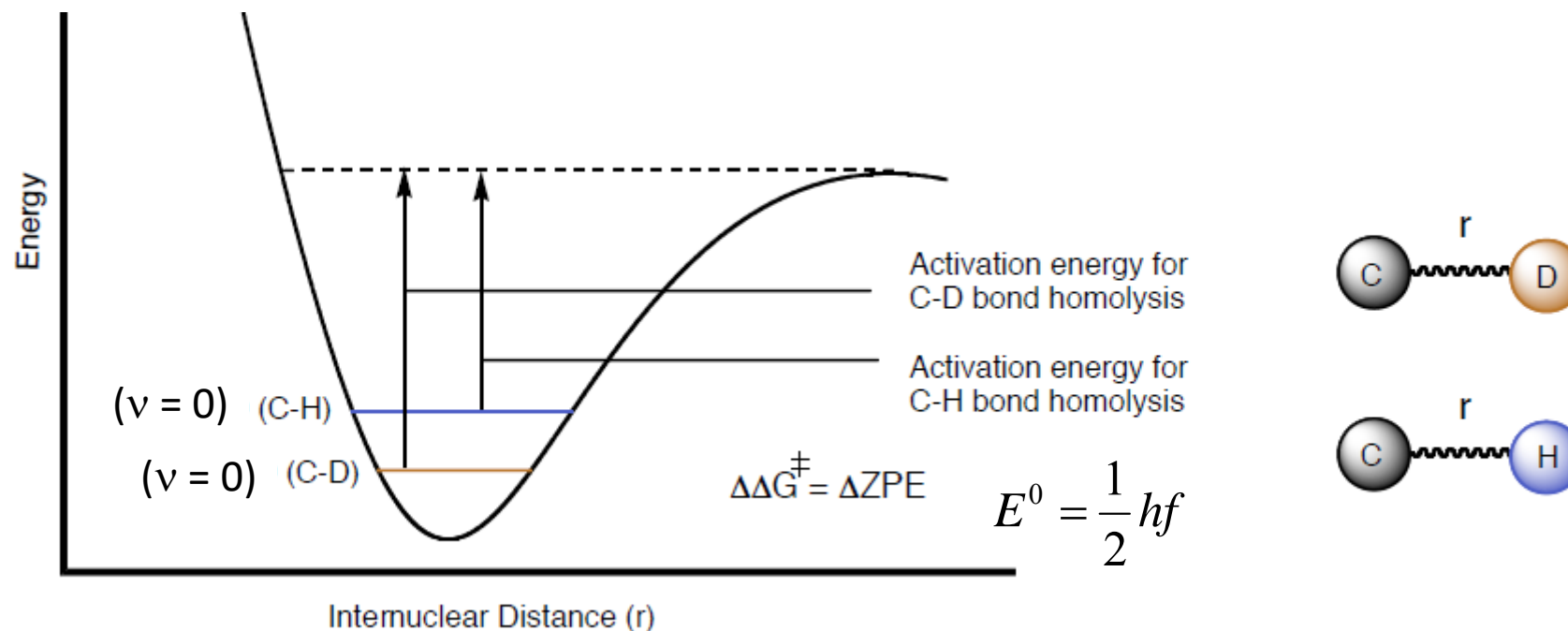
This difference in ZPE due to isotopic replacement results in differing rates of reaction k – the rate determining step

The effect is measured in KIE:

The reaction rate for the conversion of R–D is slower than the reaction rate for the conversion of R–H



Kinetic Isotope Effects



Different bond dissociation energies for C–D and C–H:
 E_D is greater than E_H - differing rates of reaction k – the rate determining step

The kinetic isotope effects:

The reaction rate for the conversion of **C–D** is **slower** than the reaction rate for the conversion of **C–H**



Kinetic Isotope Effects

Isotope replacement does not change the electronic structure of the molecule or the potential energy surfaces of the reactions

The greater the atom mass, the more energy is needed to break bonds

A **heavier** isotope forms a **stronger bond** - less of a tendency to dissociate

The increase in energy needed to break the bond results in a **slower reaction** rate and the observed isotope effect:

The ratio $k_H/k_D = 1$ to 7

Heavy atom isotope effects = the substitution of carbon, oxygen, nitrogen, sulfur, and bromine, with effects that are much smaller and are usually 1.02 - 1.10

The maximum isotopic rate ratio is proportional to the square root of the inverse ratio of isotopic masses

Secondary kinetic isotope effects = rate changes due to isotopic substitutions at a site other than the bond breaking site in the rate determining step of the reaction, α , β , and γ effects



Kinetic Isotope Effects

Harmonic oscillator frequency

Bond stretching frequency - f

$$f = \frac{1}{2\pi} \sqrt{\frac{k}{\mu}}$$

Reduced mass

$$\mu = \frac{m_1 m_2}{m_1 + m_2}$$

<u>bond</u>	<u>μ</u>
C-H	0.92
C-D	1.71
¹² C- ¹² C	6.00
¹² C- ¹³ C	6.24

Zero point energy ($v = 0$)

$$E^0 = \frac{1}{2} hf$$

Reaction rate

$$k = A e^{-\frac{E^0}{kT}}$$

Isotope effect

$$\frac{k_H}{k_D} = e^{\frac{h(f_D - f_H)}{2kT}}$$

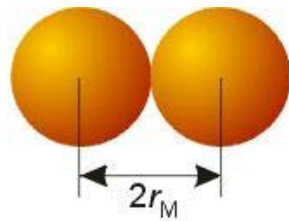


Pauling's Rules

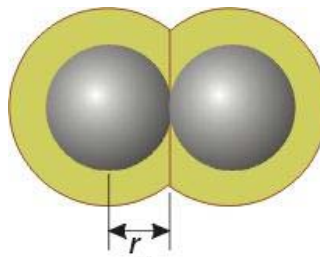
Five principles which could be used to determine the structures of complex ionic/covalent crystals

Pauling's Rule no. 1 Coordination Polyhedra

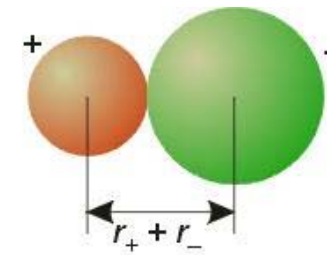
- A coordinated polyhedron of anions is formed about each cation
- Cation-Anion distance is determined by sums of ionic radii
- Cation coordination environment is determined by radius ratio



1 Metallic radius



2 Covalent radius



3 Ionic radius

$r(\text{O}^{2-}) = 140 \text{ pm}$ (Linus Pauling)



Bond Length

Pauling $R(A - B) = r_A + r_B$

Schomaker-Stevenson Rule

polar bonds are shorter than the sum of covalent radii

Original $c = 9 \text{ pm}$, $n = 1$

Modified $c = 8.5 \text{ pm}$, $n = 1.4$

$$R(A - B) = r_A + r_B - c |\chi_A - \chi_B|^n$$

Allred-Rochow electronegativities give the best fit



Ionic Radii

R.D. Shannon and C.T. Prewitt, Acta Cryst. B25, 925-945 (1969)

R.D. Shannon, Acta Cryst. A32, 751-767 (1976)

As the coordination number (CN) increases, the Ionic Radius increases

Sr²⁺

CN	Radius, Å
6	1.32
8	1.40
9	1.45
10	1.50
12	1.58

As the oxidation state increases, cations get smaller
(6-fold coordination, in Å)

Mn ²⁺	0.810
Mn ³⁺	0.785
Mn ⁴⁺	0.670

Ti ²⁺	1.000
Ti ³⁺	0.810
Ti ⁴⁺	0.745



Ionic Radii

The radius increases down a group in the periodic table

The exception - 4d/5d series in the transition metals - the lanthanide contraction

(6-fold coordination, in Å)

Al³⁺ 0.675

Ga³⁺ 0.760

In³⁺ 0.940

Tl³⁺ 1.025

Left to right across the periodic table the radius decreases

Ti⁴⁺ 0.745

Zr⁴⁺ 0.86

Hf⁴⁺ 0.85

(6 coordinate radii, in Å)

La³⁺ 1.172

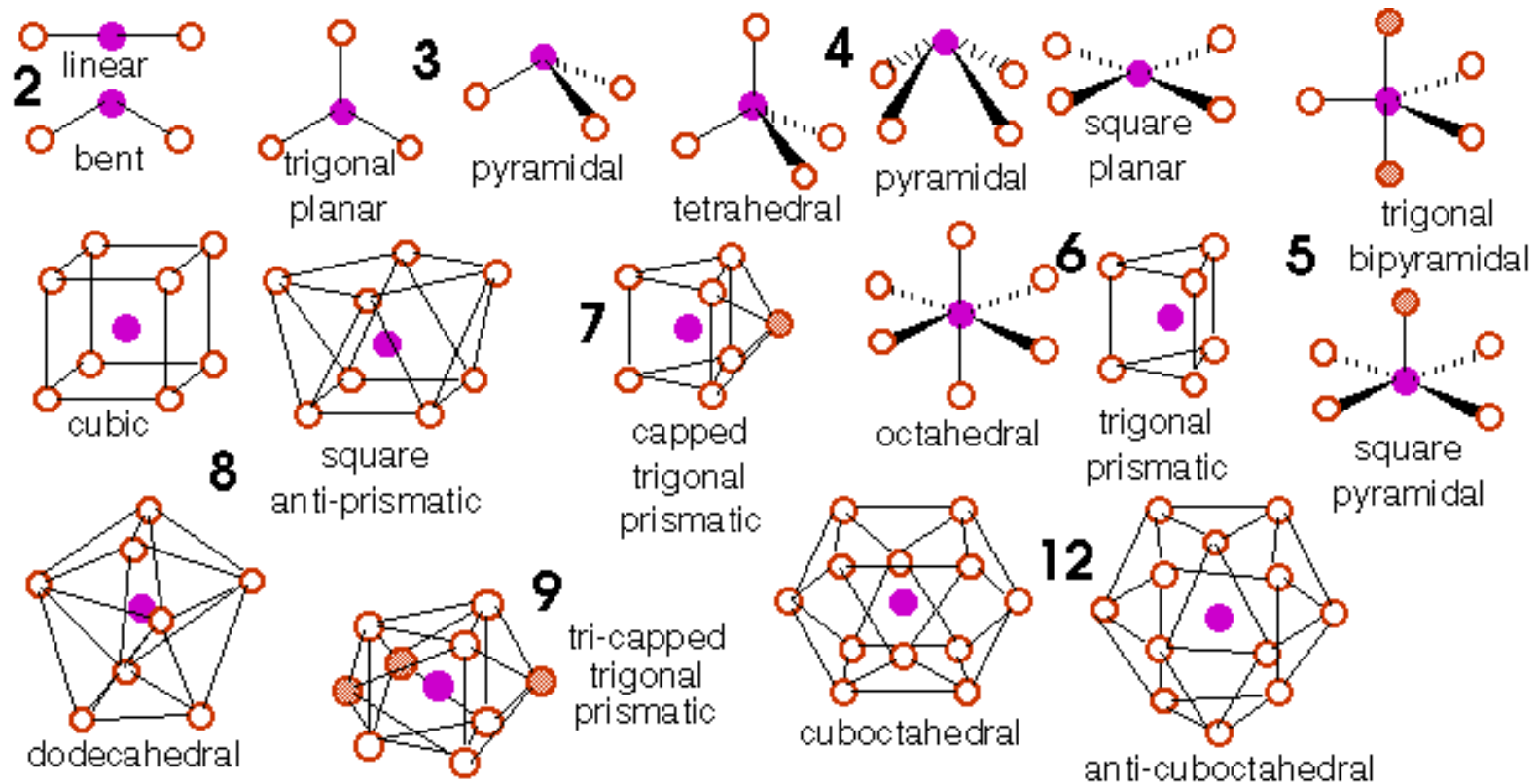
Nd³⁺ 1.123

Gd³⁺ 1.078

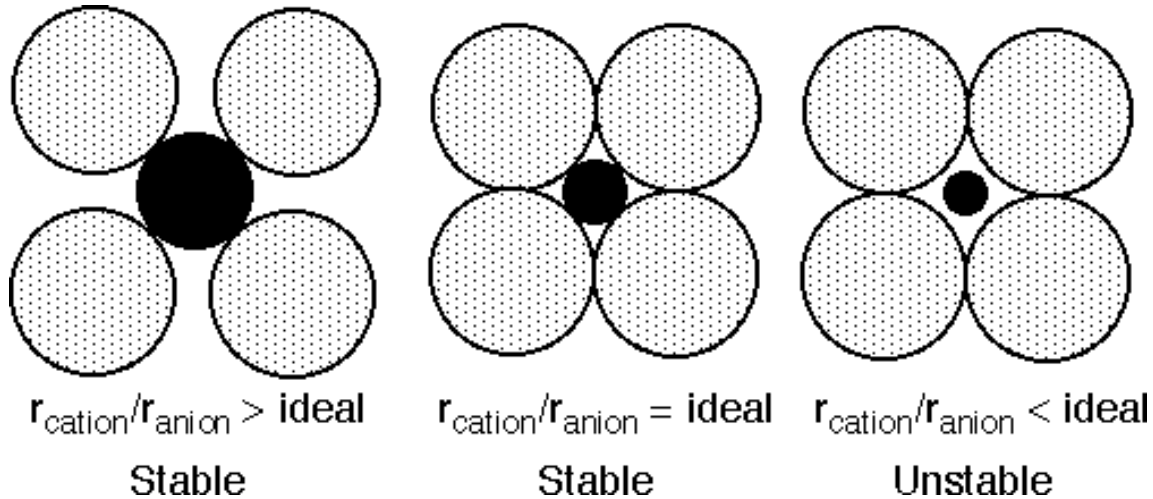
Lu³⁺ 1.001



Coordination Polyhedra



Cation/Anion Radius Ratio



CN	r/R
12 – hcp/ccp	1.00 (substitution)
8 – cubic	0.732 – 1.00
6 – octahedral	0.414 – 0.732
4 – tetrahedral	0.225 – 0.414

optimal radius ratio
for
given CN
ions are in touch



The Same or Not the Same

Three sigma criterion

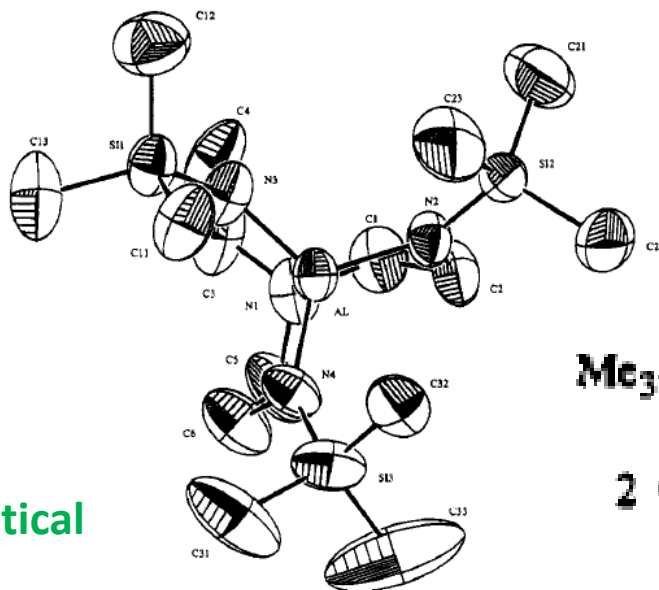
$$\Delta = A \pm B$$

$$\sigma_{\Delta} = \sqrt{\sigma_A^2 + \sigma_B^2}$$

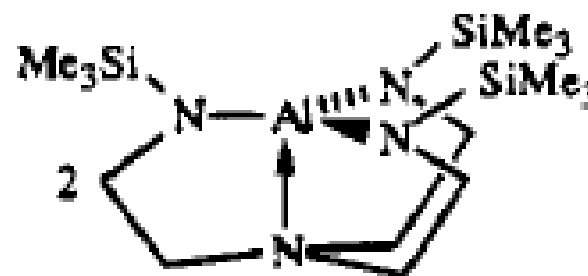
$$\Delta < 3\sigma_{\Delta} \quad \text{A, B – are identical}$$

$$\Delta > 3\sigma_{\Delta} \quad \text{A, B – are different}$$

σ - standard deviation



Crystallographically imposed C_3 axis??



Al-N(1) 1.983(6)

Al-N(2) 1.805(5)

Al-N(3) 1.812(6)

Al-N(4) 1.810(6)

$\Delta = 0.007$

$\sigma = 0.008$

$3\sigma = 0.024$

Si(2)-N(2) 1.684(5)

Si(1)-N(3) 1.697(6)

Si(3)-N(4) 1.690(6)

$\Delta = 0.013$

$\sigma = 0.008$

$3\sigma = 0.024$



Pauling's Rules

Pauling's Rule no. 2 Bond strength and the bond order conservation principle (a rule of local electroneutrality)

The strength of an electrostatic bond: $s_{ij} = \text{valence} / \text{CN}$

The bond valence sum of each ion equals its oxidation state

The valence of an ion (V_i , equal to the oxidation state of the ion) is equal to a sum of the valences of its bonds (s_{ij})

$$v_i = \sum s_{ij} = \sum \frac{z_i}{\text{CN}}$$

In a stable ionic structure the charge on an ion is balanced by the sum of electrostatic bond strengths (s_{ij}) to the ions in its coordination polyhedron

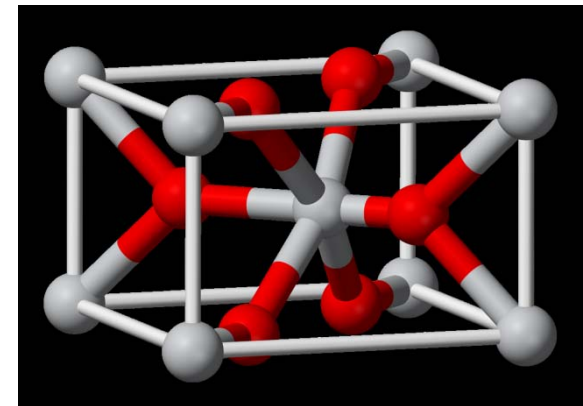
TiO₂ (Rutile) Ti - oxidation state of +4, coordinated to 6 oxygens

$$V_{\text{Ti}} = +4 = 6 (s_{ij}) \quad s_{ij} = +2/3$$

The bond valence of oxygen, coordinated by 3 Ti atoms

$$V_{\text{O}} = 3 (s_{ij}) = 3 (-2/3) = -2$$

Each bond has a valence of s_{ij} with respect to the cation
and $-s_{ij}$ with respect to the anion



Bond Strength

Brown, Shannon, Donnay, Allmann:

Correlation of the valence of a bond s_{ij} with the (experimental) bond distance d_{ij}

$$s_{ij} = \exp \frac{R_{ij} - d_{ij}}{b}$$

R_{ij} = standard single bond length - determined empirically from (many) structures where bond distances and ideal valences are accurately known

Tables of R_{ij} values for given bonding pairs (i.e., Nb–O, Cr–N, Mg–F, etc.) have been calculated, just as tables of ionic radii are available

A constant $b = 0.30 - 0.37$

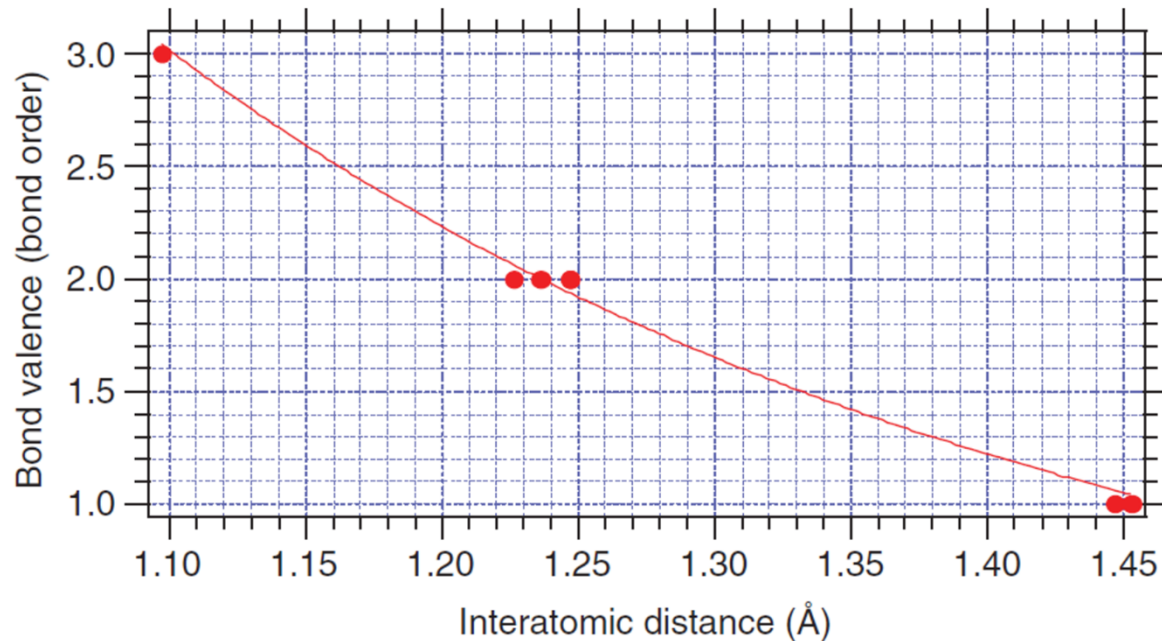
$$R = d \quad s = e^0 = 1$$

$$R < d \quad s = e^{-1} < 1 \quad \text{a bond longer than } R \text{ is weaker than } 1$$

$$R > d \quad s = e^1 > 1 \quad \text{a bond shorter than } R \text{ is stronger than } 1$$



Bond Strength vs. Bond Length



triple 1.097 Å in N_2
double 1.247 Å in N_2H_2 and dimethyldiazene 1.226 Å of N_2^{2-} in SrN_2
or calculated 1.236 Å in dimethyldiazene
single 1.447 or 1.453 Å in hydrazine N_2H_4

Bond Valence Sum (BVS)

Correlation of the valence of a bond s_{ij} with the (experimental) bond distance d_{ij}

$$s_{ij} = \exp \frac{R_{ij} - d_{ij}}{b}$$

$$v_i = \sum s_{ij} = \sum \frac{z_i}{CN}$$

Use of **the bond valence sum** concept

- A) To check experimentally determined structures for correctness, or bonding instabilities
- B) To predict new structures
- C) To locate light atoms such as hydrogen or Li ion, which are hard to find experimentally
- D) To determine ordering of ions which are hard to differentiate experimentally, such as Al^{3+} and Si^{4+} , or O^{2-} and F^-
- E) To check/confirm oxidation states of atoms ($\text{Co}^{2+} / \text{Co}^{3+}$, $\text{Fe}^{2+} / \text{Fe}^{3+}$)



Bond Valence Sum (BVS)

Correlation of the valence of a bond s_{ij} with the (experimental) bond distance d_{ij}

$$s_{ij} = \exp \frac{R_{ij} - d_{ij}}{b}$$

$$v_i = \sum s_{ij} = \sum \frac{z_i}{CN}$$

FeTiO₃ (mineral Ilmenite) possesses the **corundum** structure – an hcp array of oxides with cations filling 2/3 of octahedral holes

Decide which oxidation states are present: Fe(II) Ti(IV) or Fe(III) Ti(III)

Bond Distances (d_{exp} , Å)	Tabulated R_{ij} values	Constants
Fe–O = 3×2.07 and 3×2.20	$R_0(\text{Fe–O}) = 1.795 \text{ Å}$	$b = 0.30$
Ti–O = 3×1.88 and 3×2.09	$R_0(\text{Ti–O}) = 1.815 \text{ Å}$	$b = 0.37$

Oxygen valence and coordination number O?

Each oxygen is bound to Fe and Ti with both bond distances



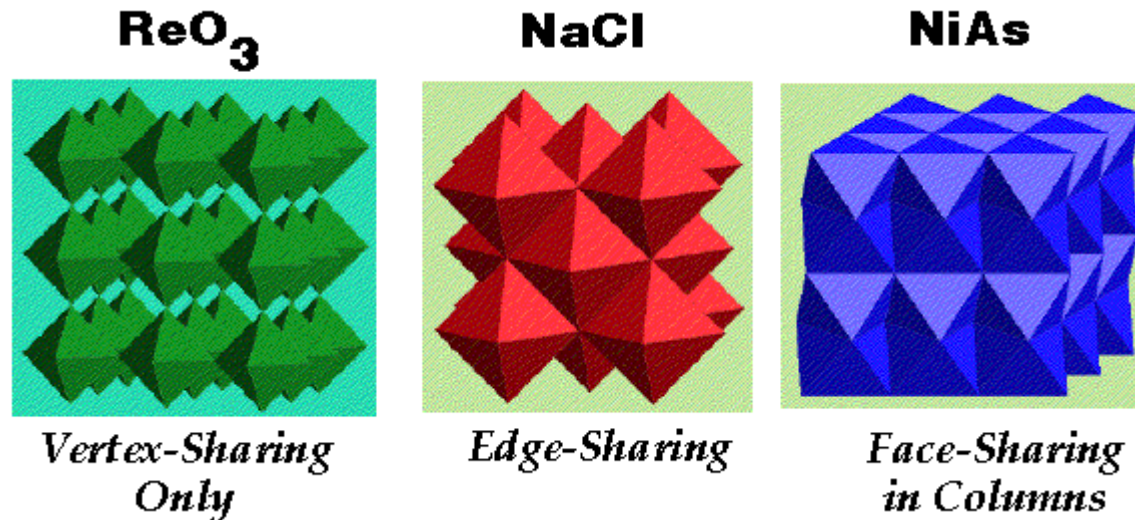
Pauling's Rules

Pauling's Rule no. 3 Polyhedral Linking

The presence of shared edges, and particularly shared faces **decreases the stability** of a structure

This is particularly true for cations with large valences and small coordination numbers

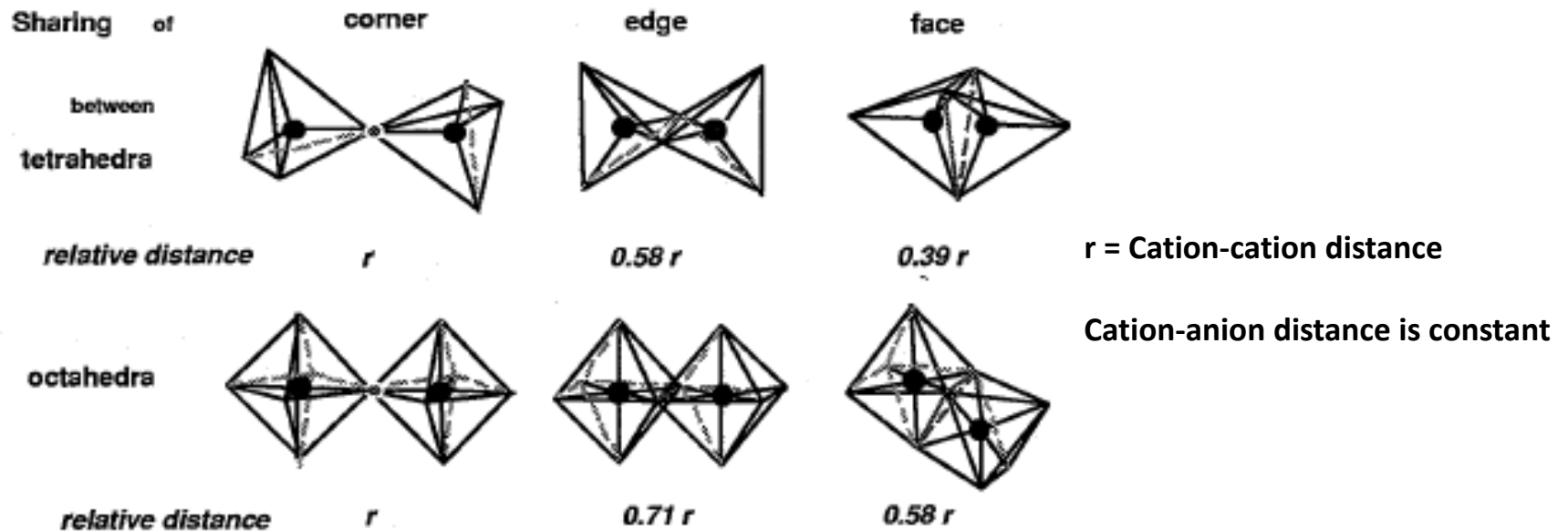
Avoid shared polyhedral edges and/or faces



Polyhedral Linking

The Coulombic interactions: maximize the cation-anion interactions (attractive), and minimize the anion-anion and cation-cation interactions (repulsive)

- increasing the coordination number
- decreasing the cation-anion distance



The cation-cation (the Coulomb) **repulsion increases** as the

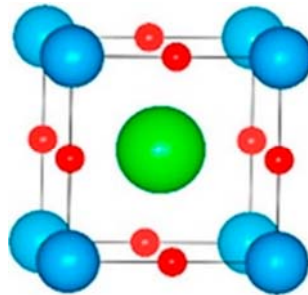
- distance decreases - degree of sharing increases (vertex < edge < face)
- CN decreases (cubic < octahedral < tetrahedral)
- cation oxidation state increases

Pauling's Rules

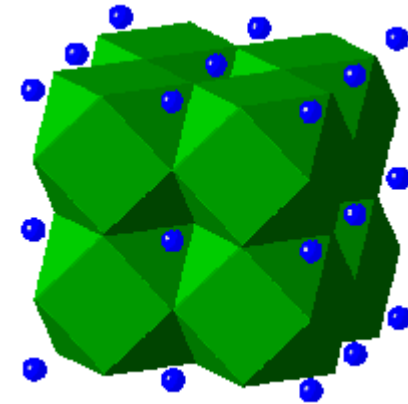
Pauling's Rule no. 4 Cation Evasion

In a crystal containing different cations those with large valence and small coordination number tend not to share polyhedral elements (anions)

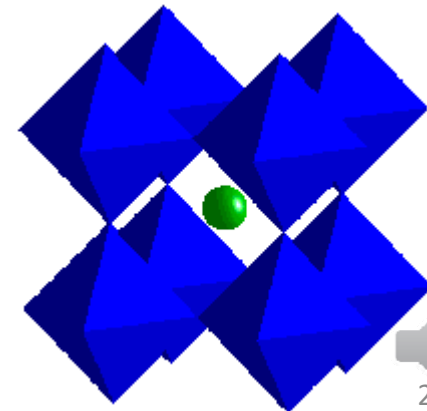
Perovskite, CaTiO_3



Ca^{II} 12-coordinate CaO_{12} cuboctahedra share **FACES**



Ti^{IV} 6-coordinate TiO_6 octahedra share only **VERTICES**



Pauling's Rules

Pauling's Rule no. 5 Environmental Homogeneity (The rule of parsimony)

The number of chemically different coordination environments for a given ion tends to be small

Once the optimal chemical environment for an ion is found, if possible all ions of that type should have **the same environment**



Covalent Radius of Fluorine

1938 Brockway – electron diffraction on $F_2(g)$

$R(F-F) = 145 \text{ pm}$ $r(F) = 73 \text{ pm}$ **TOO LONG**

Lone pair repulsion, abnormally weak bond

M–F bonds are highly polar

1960 Pauling – backbonding in A–F

1990 Reed and Schleyer – pi bonding in A–F

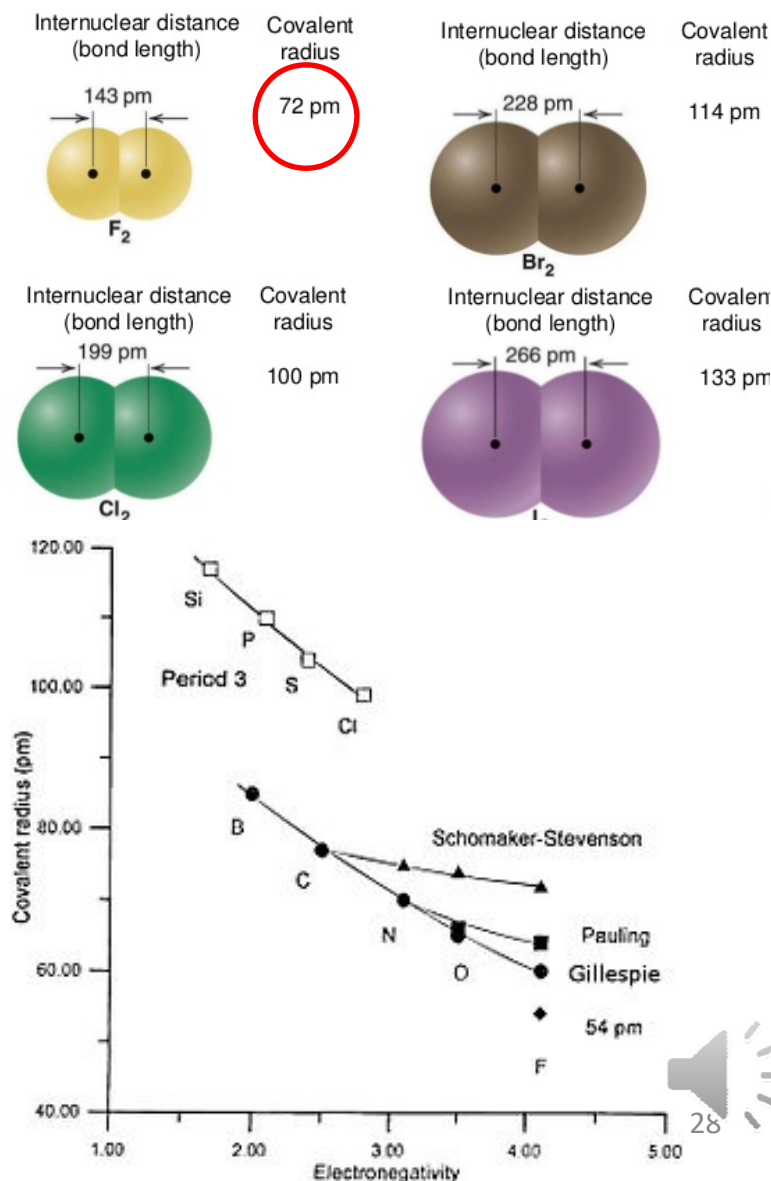
1992 Gillespie and Robinson - 54 pm

Longer if a lone pair on EAF_n

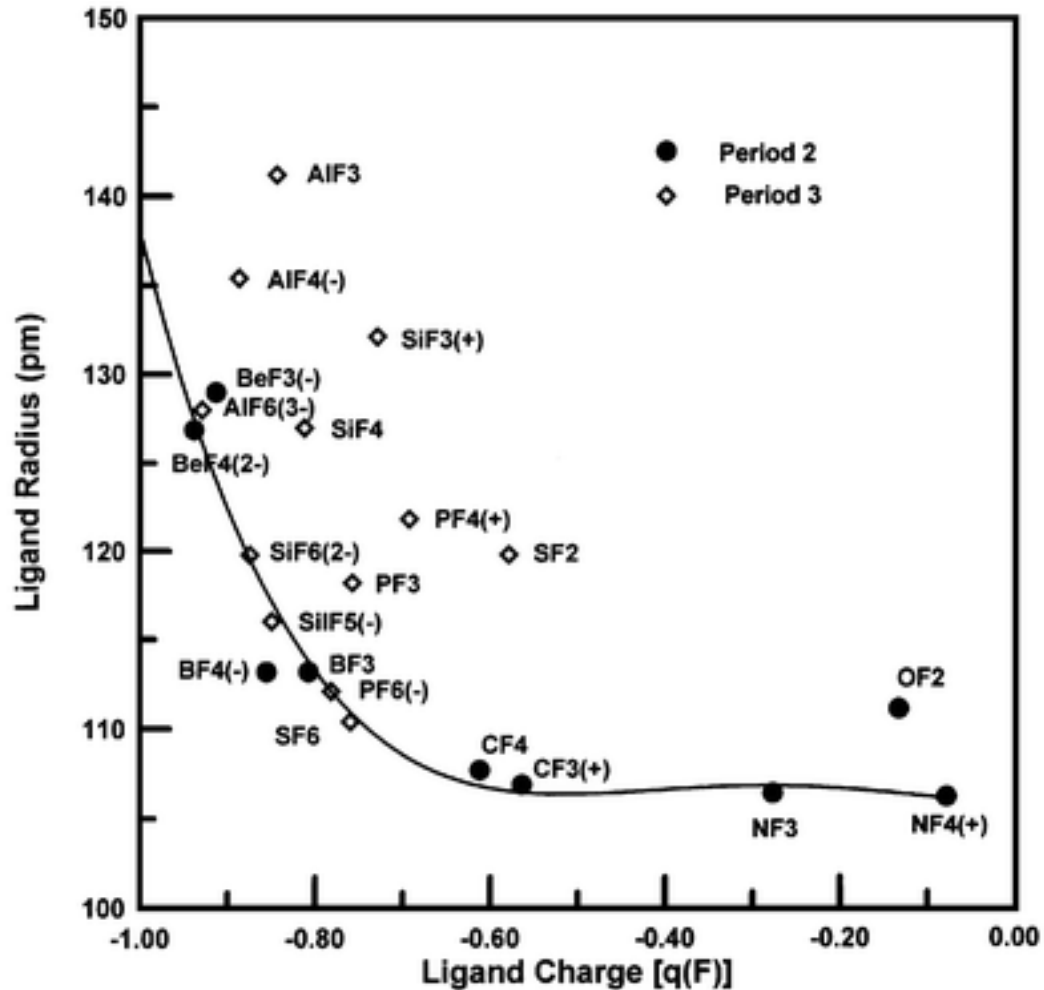
Shorter in an incomplete octet BF_3

1997 Gillespie - 60 pm, the X–F bond length decreases with a decreasing CN, the smaller the bond angle ($\angle F-A-F$) the longer the bond length

2009 Pyykkö - 64 pm in single, 59 pm in double and 53 pm in triple bond character



Ionic Radius of Fluoride



2nd Period

Fluoride radii decrease across the 2nd period with increasing electronegativity of the central atom and therefore with decreasing F ligand charge $q(\text{F})$

3rd Period 3

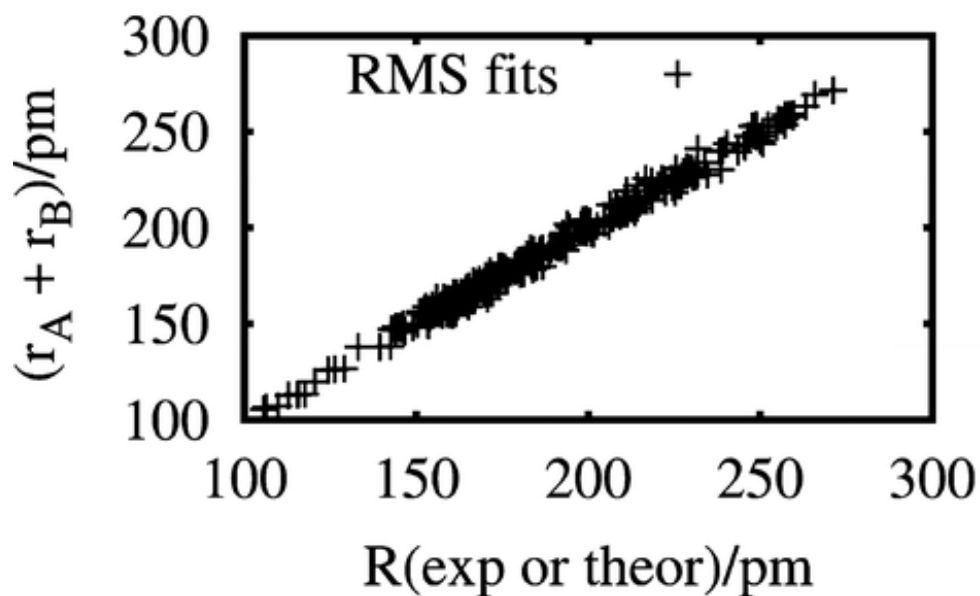
The six-coordinated fluorides (SF_6 , AlF_6^{3-}) fall on the same smooth curve as for the Period 2 fluorides = close-packed

The 3- and 4-coordinated fluorides of the Period 3 elements (AlF_4^-) do not fall on this curve = not close packed

Additive Covalent Radii

Additive covalent radii = approximate a bond length as the sum of two atomic radii
Predominantly covalent

Calculated versus experimental distance



The A–B bond is not too ionic

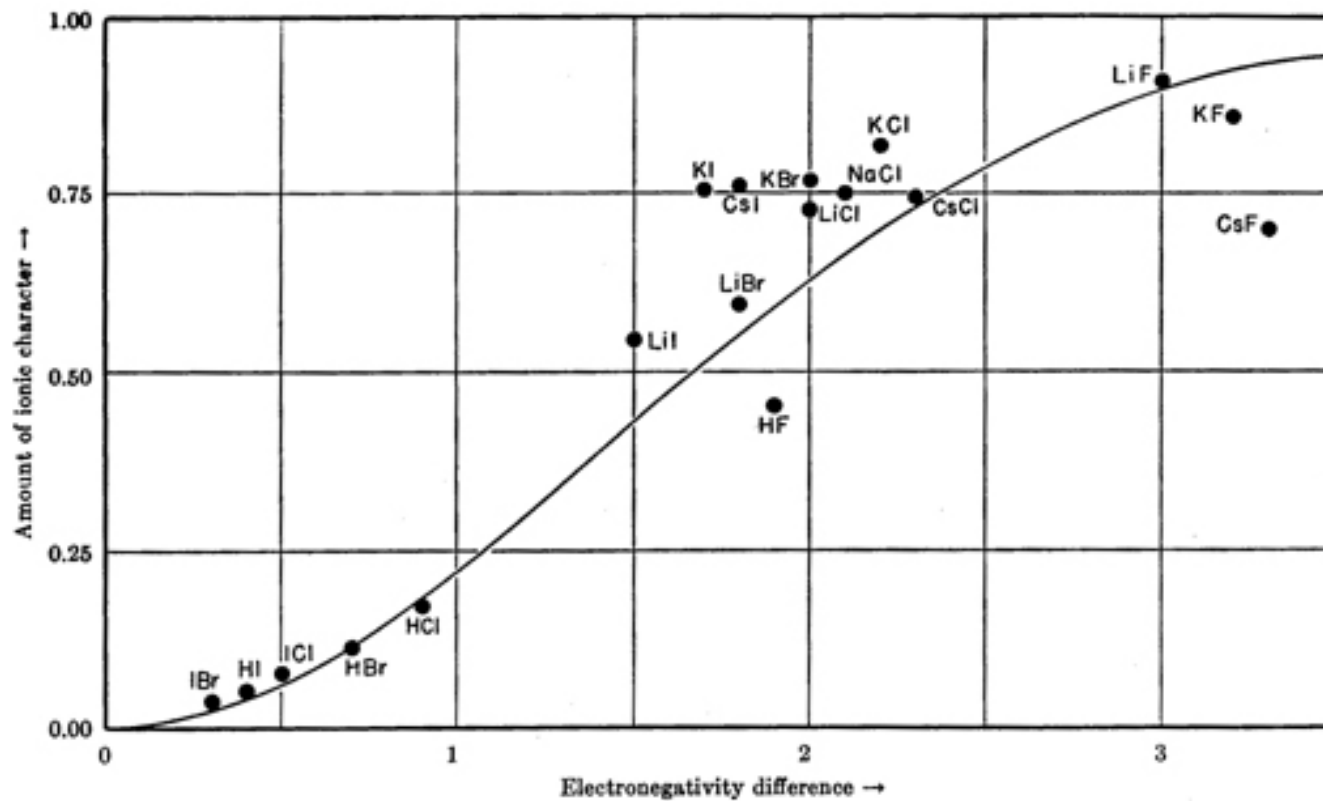
Pekka Pyykkö J. Phys. Chem. A, 2015, 119 (11), 2326–2337



1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18															
1 H 32 - -	<h1>Additive Covalent Radii</h1>															2 He 46 - -																
3 Li 133 124 -	4 Be 102 90 85	<table border="1" style="margin: auto;"> <tr> <td>Z</td><td>Radius, r_n:</td><td>Symbol</td></tr> <tr> <td></td><td>r_1</td><td></td></tr> <tr> <td></td><td>r_2</td><td></td></tr> <tr> <td></td><td>r_3</td><td></td></tr> <tr> <td colspan="3" style="text-align: center;">pm</td></tr> </table>										Z	Radius, r_n :	Symbol		r_1			r_2			r_3		pm			5 B 85 78 73	6 C 75 67 60	7 N 71 60 54	8 O 63 57 53	9 F 64 59 53	10 Ne 67 96 -
Z	Radius, r_n :	Symbol																														
	r_1																															
	r_2																															
	r_3																															
pm																																
11 Na 155 160 -	12 Mg 139 132 127											13 Al 126 113 111	14 Si 116 107 102	15 P 111 102 94	16 S 103 94 95	17 Cl 99 95 93	18 Ar 96 107 96															
19 K 196 193 -	20 Ca 171 147 133	21 Sc 148 116 114	22 Ti 136 117 108	23 V 134 112 106	24 Cr 122 111 103	25 Mn 119 105 103	26 Fe 116 109 102	27 Co 111 103 96	28 Ni 110 101 101	29 Cu 112 115 120	30 Zn 118 120 -	31 Ga 124 117 121	32 Ge 121 111 114	33 As 121 114 106	34 Se 116 107 107	35 Br 114 109 110	36 Kr 117 121 108															
37 Rb 210 202 -	38 Sr 185 157 139	39 Y 163 130 124	40 Zr 154 127 121	41 Nb 147 125 116	42 Mo 138 121 113	43 Tc 128 120 110	44 Ru 125 114 103	45 Rh 125 110 106	46 Pd 120 117 112	47 Ag 128 139 137	48 Cd 136 144 -	49 In 142 136 146	50 Sn 140 130 132	51 Sb 140 133 127	52 Te 136 128 121	53 I 133 129 125	54 Xe 131 135 122															
55 Cs 232 209 -	56 Ba 196 161 149	La-Lu	72 Hf 152 128 122	73 Ta 146 126 119	74 W 137 120 115	75 Re 131 119 110	76 Os 129 116 109	77 Ir 122 115 107	78 Pt 123 112 110	79 Au 124 121 123	80 Hg 133 142 -	81 Tl 144 142 150	82 Pb 144 135 137	83 Bi 151 141 135	84 Po 145 135 129	85 At 147 138 138	86 Rn 142 145 133															
87 Fr 223 218 -	88 Ra 201 173 159	Ac-Lr	104 Rf 157 140 131	105 Db 149 136 126	106 Sg 143 128 121	107 Bh 141 128 119	108 Hs 134 125 118	109 Mt 129 125 113	110 Ds 128 116 112	111 Rg 121 116 118	112 Cn 122 137 130	113 136	114 Fl 143	115 162	116 Lv 175	117 165	118 157															

57 La 180 139 139	58 Ce 163 137 131	59 Pr 176 138 128	60 Nd 174 137	61 Pm 173 135	62 Sm 172 134	63 Eu 168 134	64 Gd 169 135 132	65 Tb 168 135	66 Dy 167 133	67 Ho 166 133	68 Er 165 133	69 Tm 164 131	70 Yb 170 129	71 Lu 162 131 131
89 Ac 186 153 140	90 Th 175 143 136	91 Pa 169 138 129	92 U 170 134 118	93 Np 171 136 116	94 Pu 172 135	95 Am 166 135	96 Cm 166 136	97 Bk 168 139	98 Cf 168 140	99 Es 165 140	100 Fm 167	101 Md 173 139	102 No 176	103 Lr 161 141

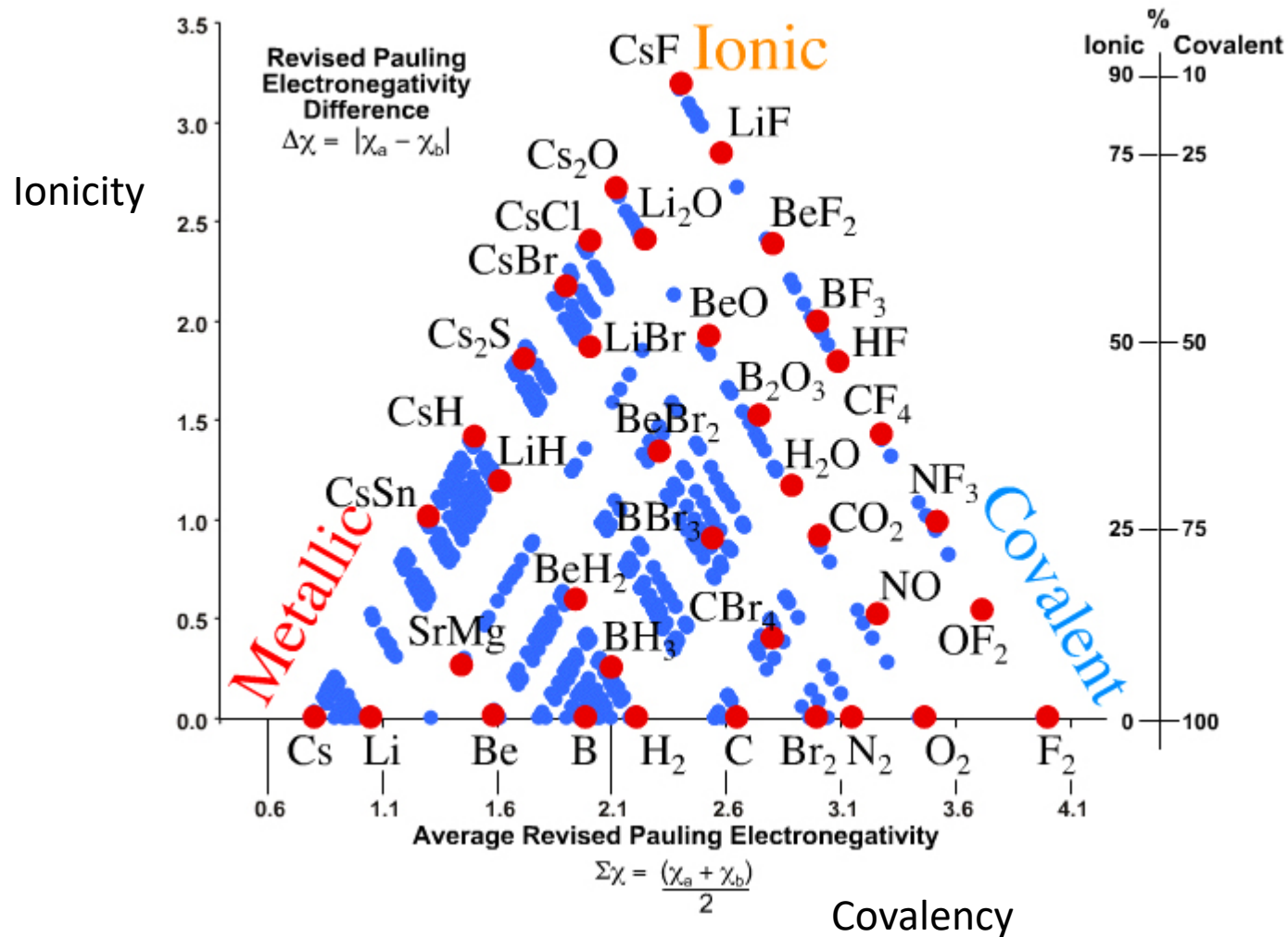
Ionic Character vs. Electronegativity



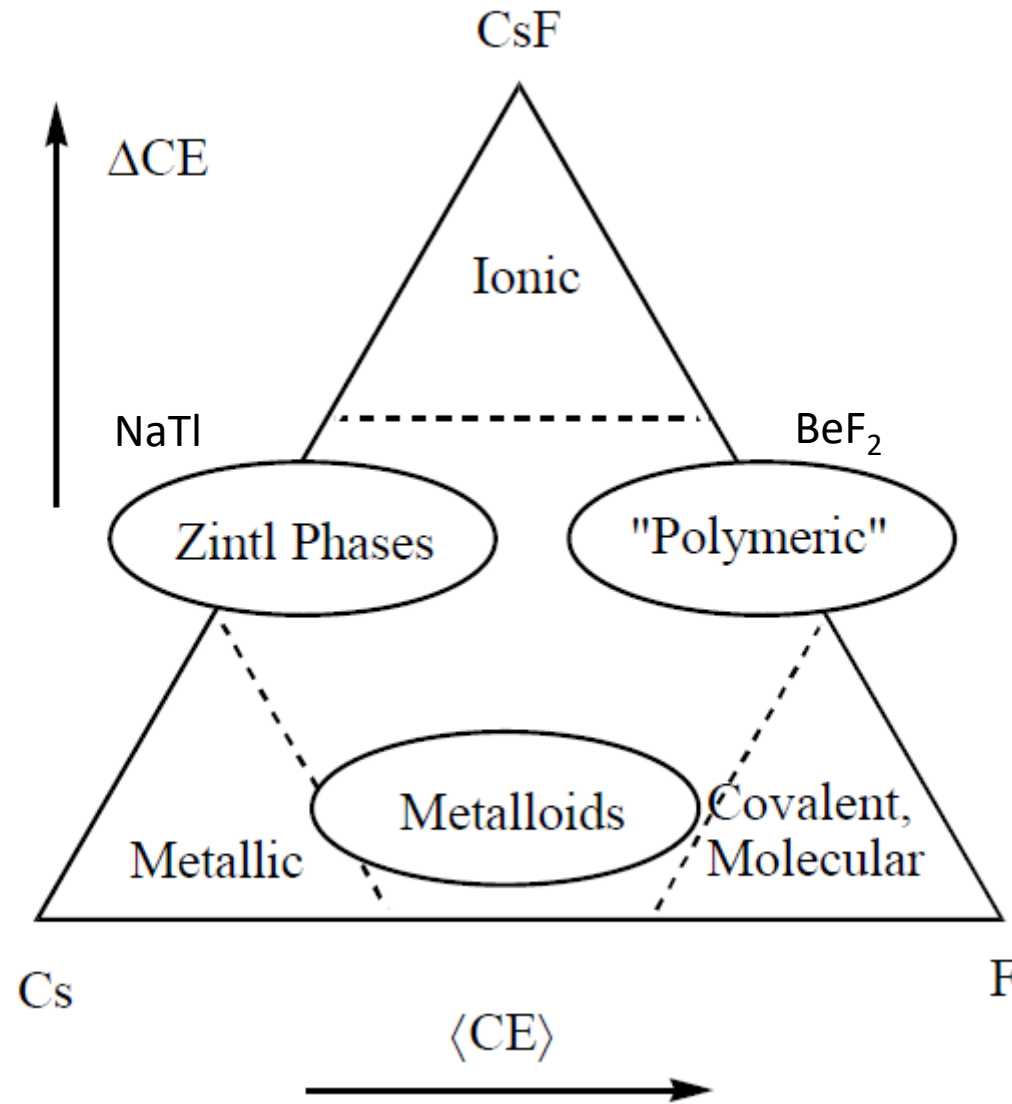
$$i = 1 - \exp [-0.21(\chi_A - \chi_B)^2]$$



van Arkel-Ketelaar Triangle

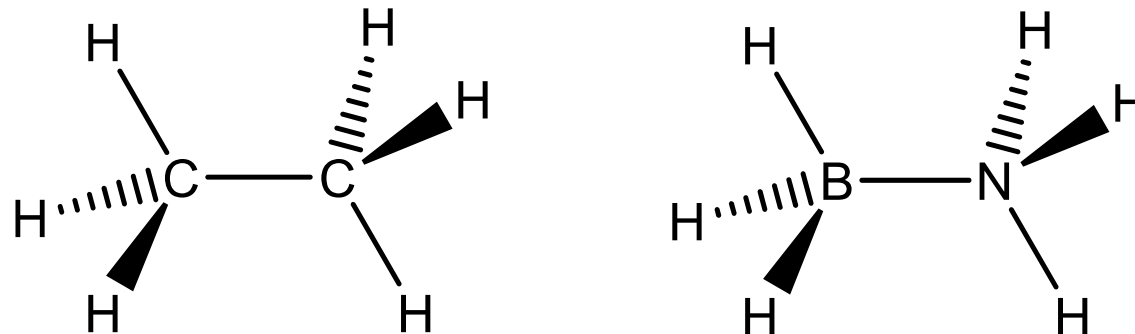


van Arkel-Ketelaar Triangle



Normal vs. Dative Bond

Isoelectronic molecules

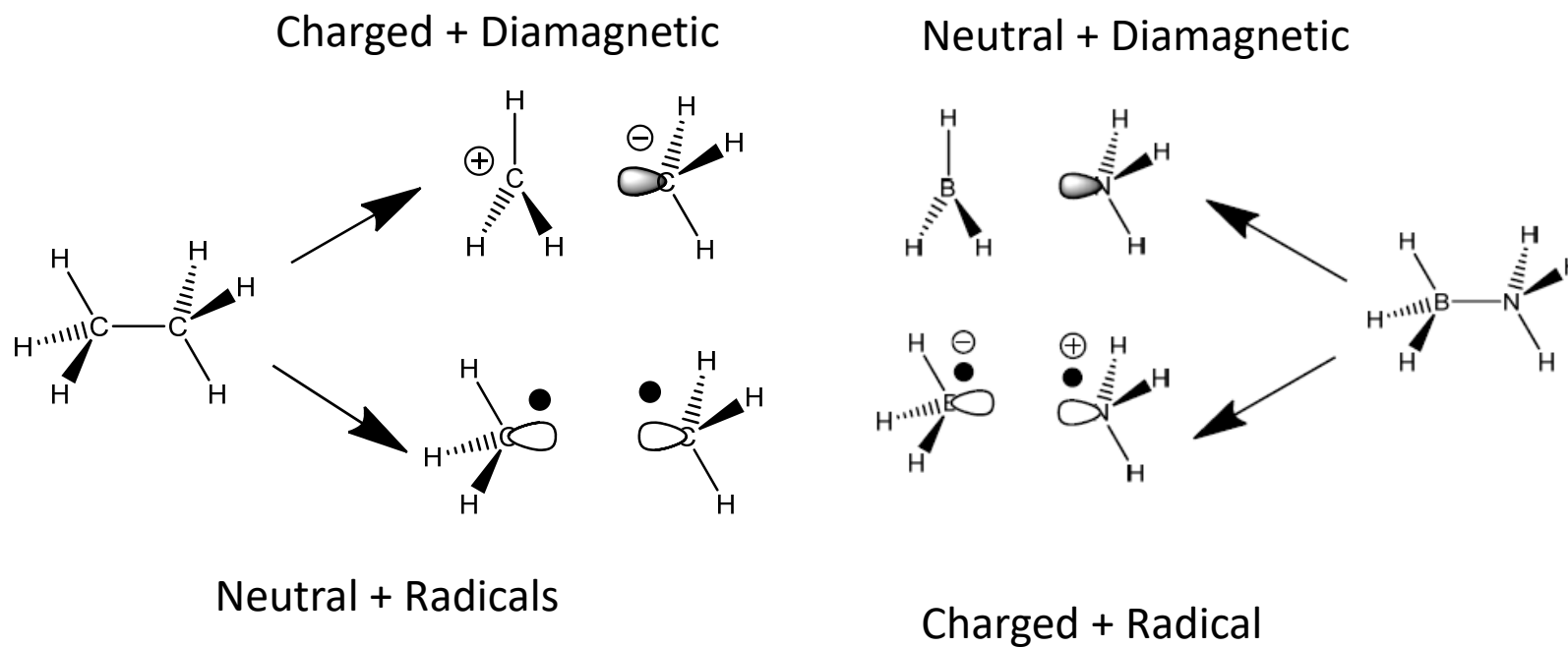


	13	14	15	16	
	5 B boron 10.81 [10.806, 10.821]	6 C carbon 12.011 [12.009, 12.012]	7 N nitrogen 14.007 [14.006, 14.008]	8 O oxygen 15.999 [15.999, 16.000]	
	13 Al aluminium 26.982	14 Si silicon 28.085 [28.084, 28.086]	15 P phosphorus 30.974	16 S sulfur 32.06 [32.059, 32.076]	[35.
2					
0	31 Ga gallium	32 Ge germanium	33 As arsenic	34 Se selenium	t
n					
ic					



Normal vs. Dative Bond

Heterolytic Bond Cleavage



Homolytic Bond Cleavage

Badger's Rule

Empirical relationships linking force constants, bond lengths, bond dissociation energies and bond orders – MANY EXCEPTIONS

1935 Badger's rule relates vibrational frequencies to bond distances for various atomic pairs

$$r_e = \left(\frac{C_{ij}}{k} \right)^{\frac{1}{3}} + d_{ij}$$

r_e = equilibrium bond distance

k = force constant (can be substituted with ν , the stretching frequency)

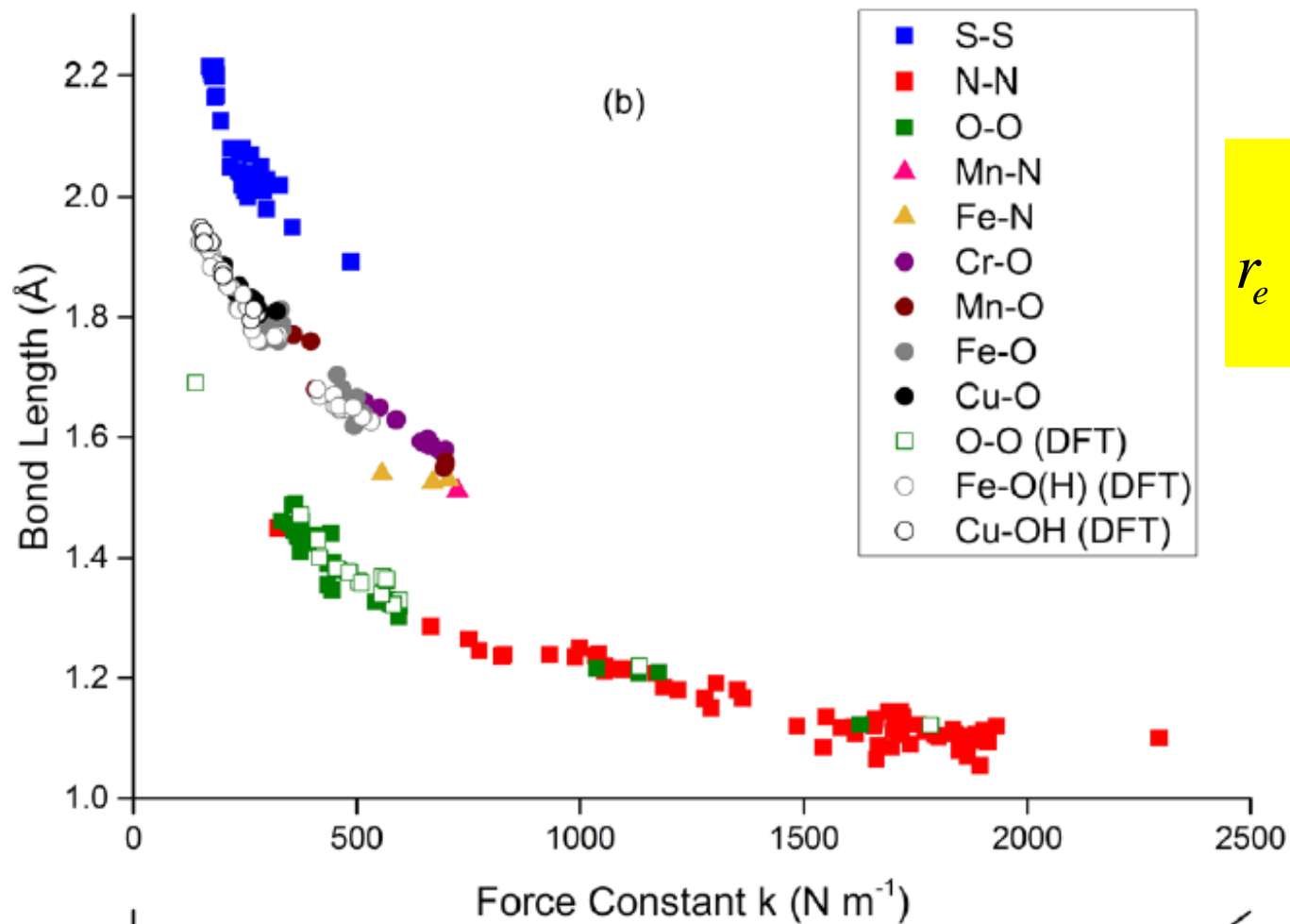
C_{ij} and d_{ij} = empirically fitted values for a particular atomic pair i - j

Plots of bond distances vs $\nu^{-2/3}$ or $k^{-1/3}$ for a set of compounds comprising a particular atomic pair are fit to equation to determine C_{ij} and d_{ij} , which then allows a newly measured force constant or vibrational frequency to be used to calculate an unknown bond distance (or vice versa)

$$\nu = \frac{1}{2\pi} \sqrt{\frac{k}{\mu}} \Rightarrow k = \mu(2\pi\nu)^2 \quad \mu = \frac{m_1 m_2}{m_1 + m_2}$$



Badger's Rule

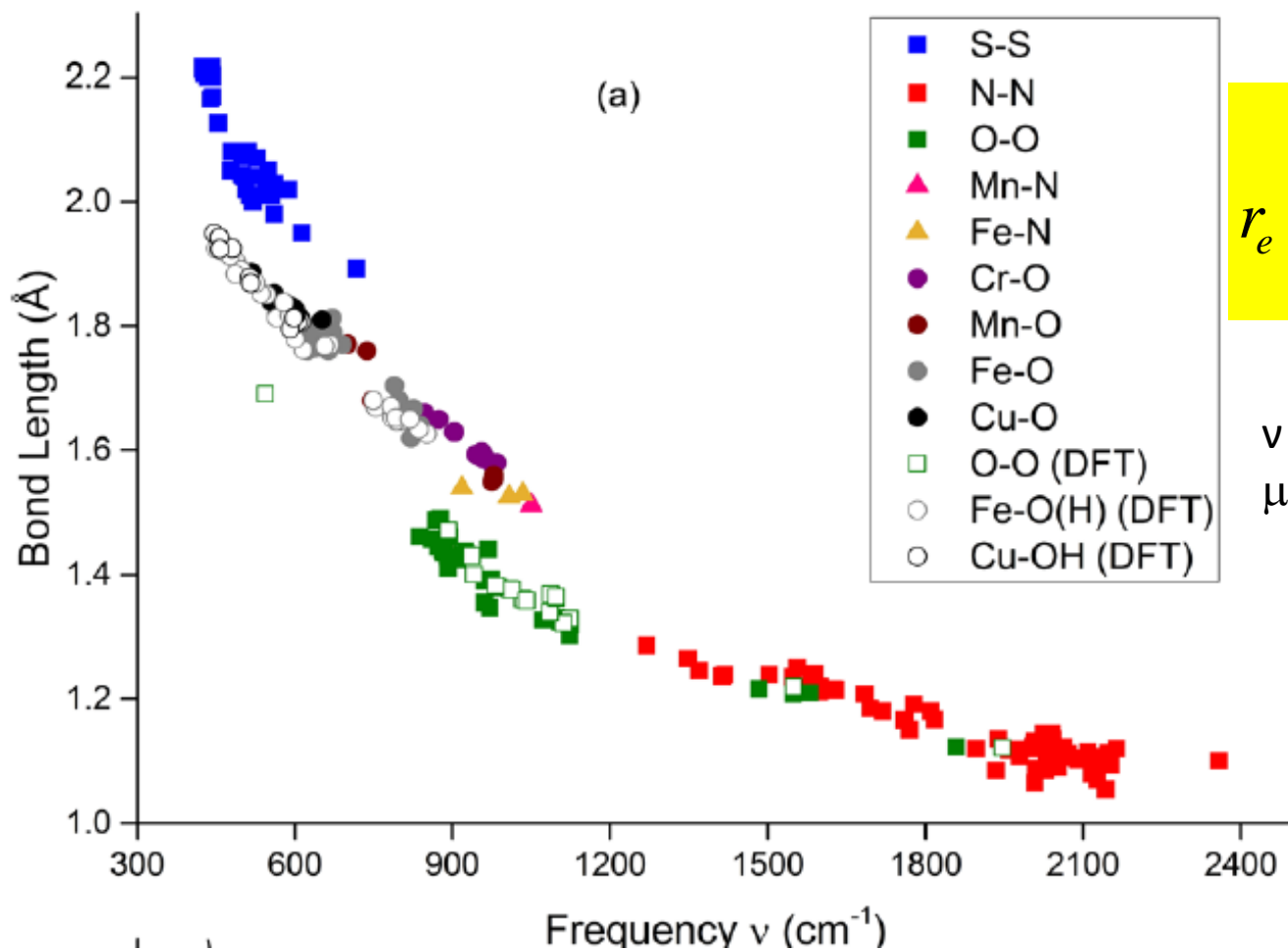


$$r_e = \left(\frac{C_{ij}}{k} \right)^{\frac{1}{3}} + d_{ij}$$

$$\nu = \frac{1}{2\pi} \sqrt{\frac{k}{\mu}}$$



Badger's Rule



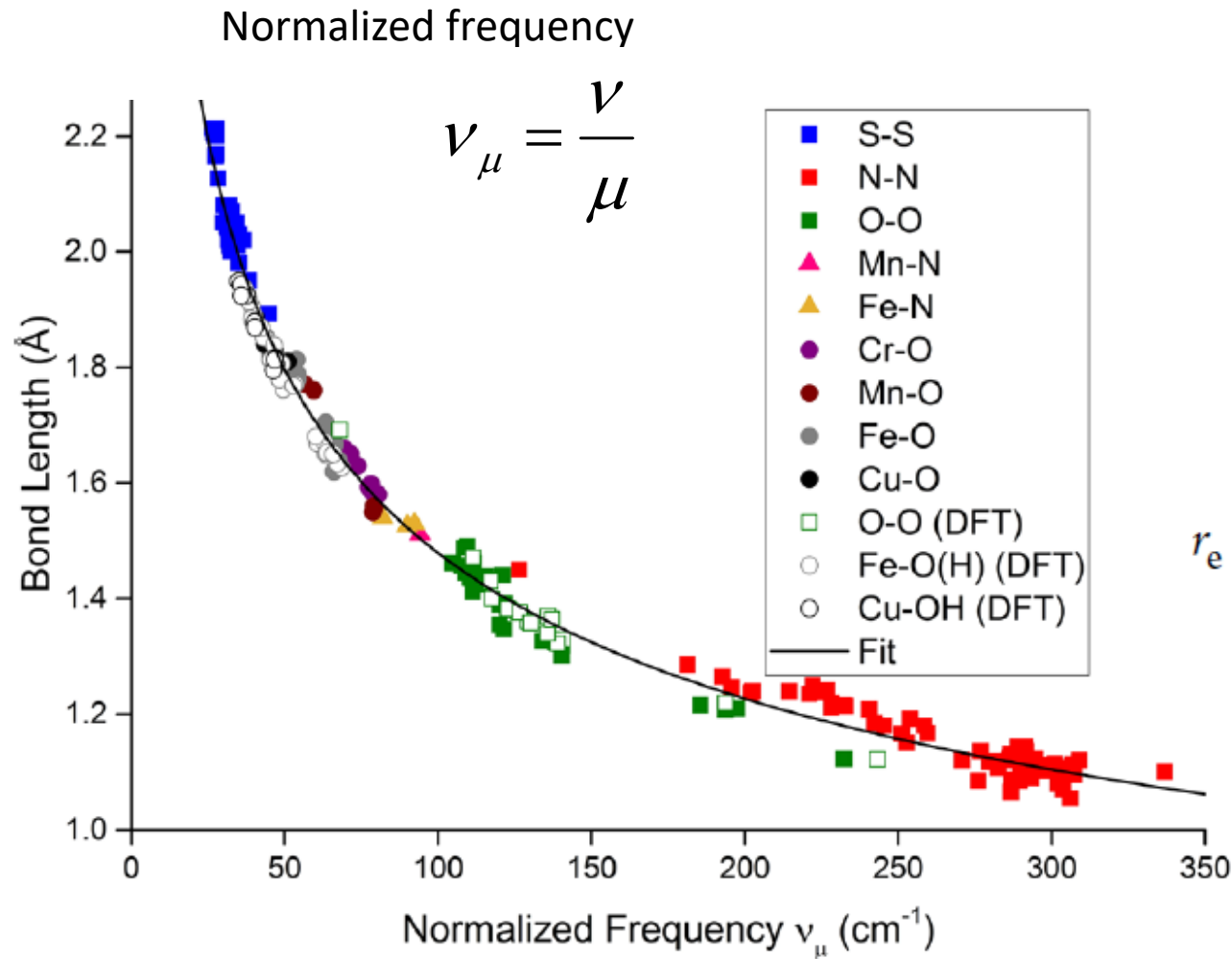
$$r_e = \left(\frac{C_{ij}}{\mu(2\pi\nu)^2} \right)^{\frac{1}{3}} + d_{ij}$$

ν - stretching frequency
 μ - reduced mass

$$\mu = \frac{m_1 m_2}{m_1 + m_2}$$



Normalized Badger's Rule

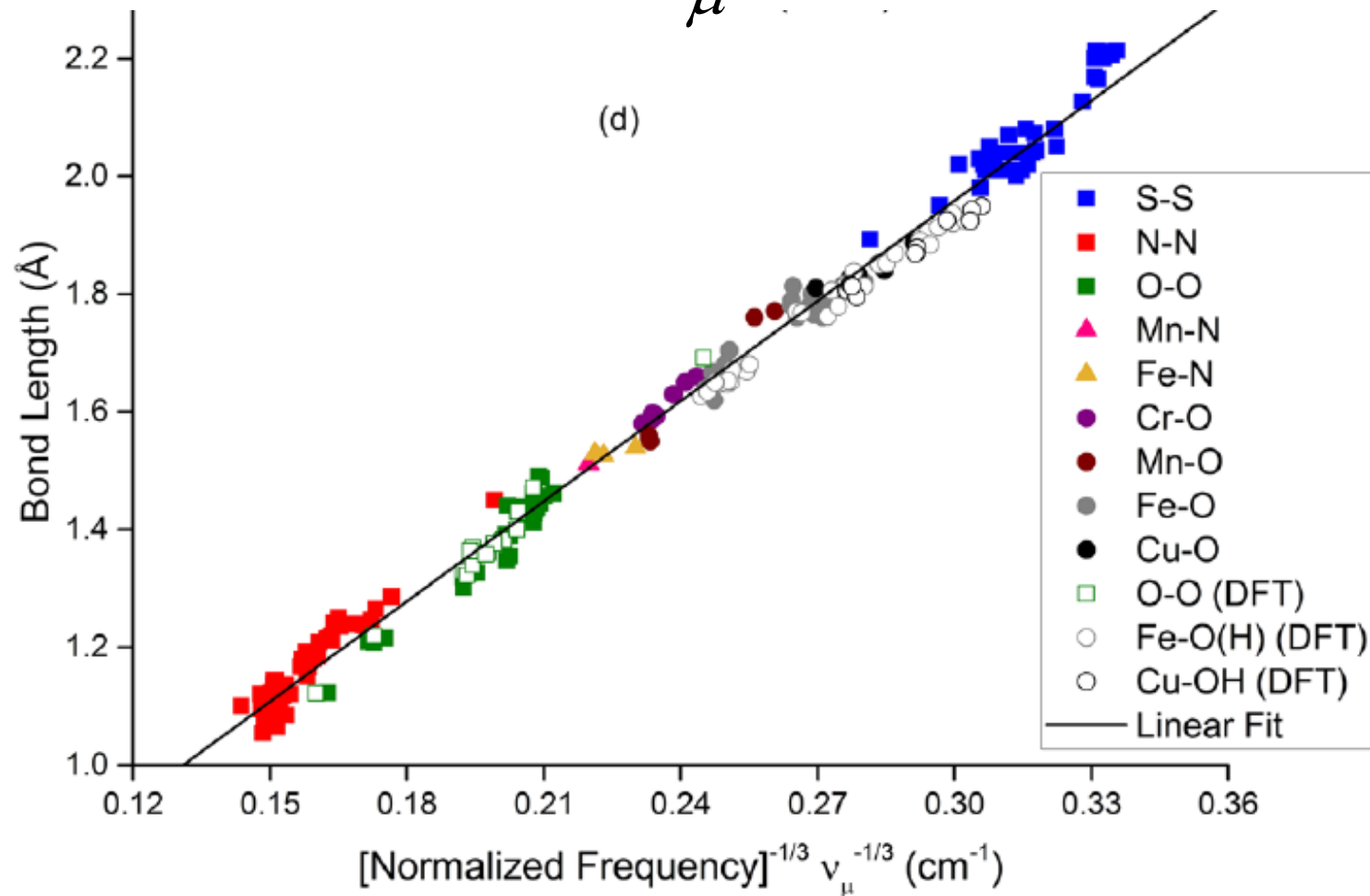


$$r_e = \left(\frac{181}{\nu_{\mu}} \right)^{1/3} + 0.259$$



Normalized Badger's Rule

Normalized frequency $\nu_{\mu} = \frac{\nu}{\mu}$



Gordy Relationship

1946 Gordy

$$k = aN \left[\frac{(\chi_A \chi_B)}{r_e^2} \right]^{\frac{3}{4}} + b$$

N - fractional bond multiplicity

$\chi_{A,B}$ - electronegativities of bonded atoms

k - force constant of bond stretching

r_e = equilibrium bond distance

a and b - constants, which differ for different families

- Determination of a force constant – spectrum analysis, peak assignment
- Prediction of bond length
- Prediction of bond order
- Determination of electronegativity

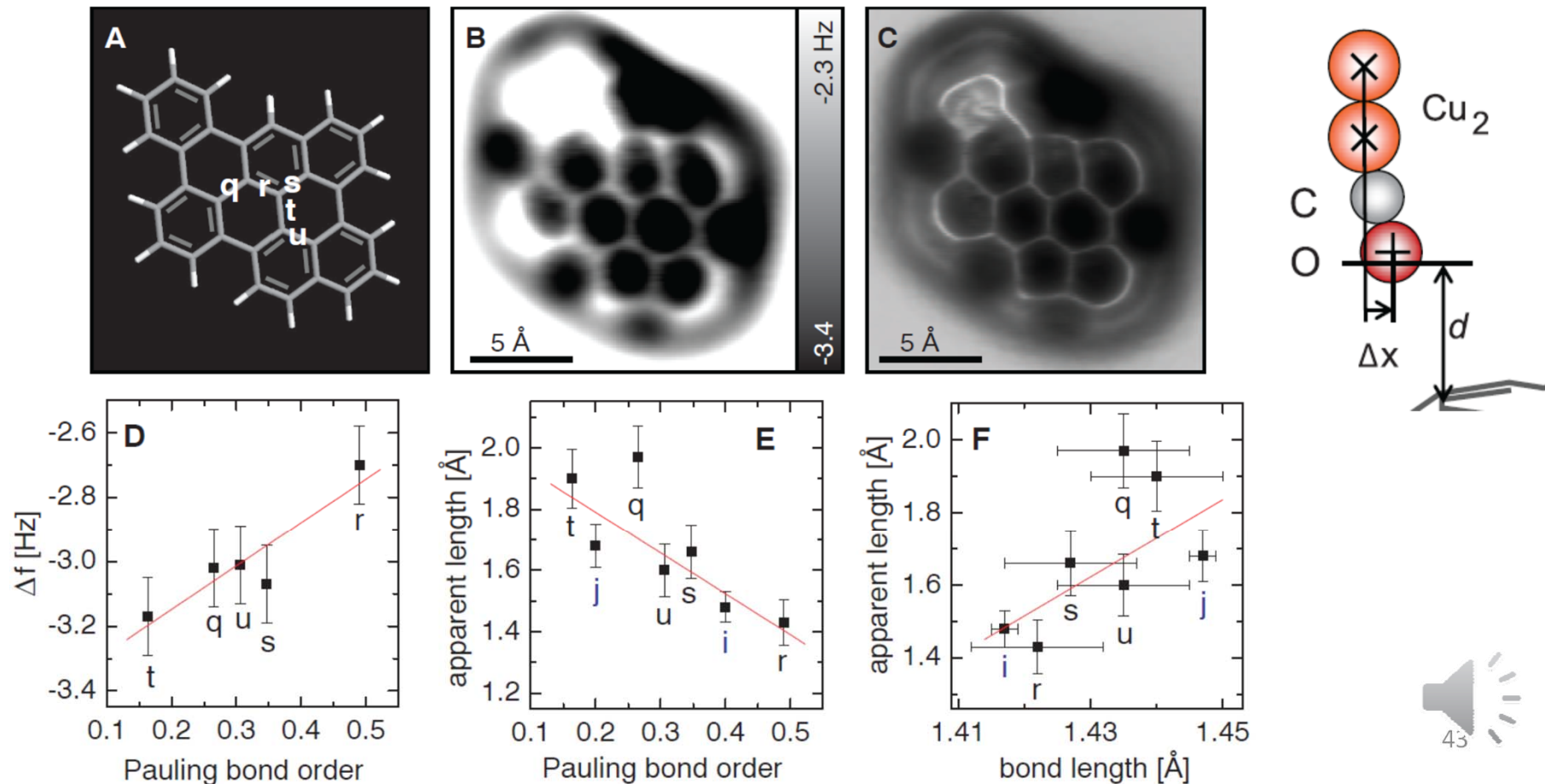


Bond Order - an Observable Quantity?

Bond-Order Discrimination by Atomic Force Microscopy

L. Gross, F. Mohn, N. Moll, B. Schuler, A. Criado, E. Guitián, D. Peña, A. Gourdon, G. Meyer, Science 2012, 337 (6100), 1326-1329 DOI: 10.1126/science.1225621

Noncontact atomic force microscopy (AFM) with a CO-functionalized Cu tip



Bond Order

G. N. Lewis 1916

Electron pair sharing between two atoms

Bond order = a measure of the number of electrons shared between two atoms

Resonance structures – fractional bond order

G. Herzberg

Bond order is equal to half the difference between the number of **bonding** electrons and the number of **antibonding** electrons in the (diatomic) molecule

Not a quantum chemical quantity, not calculated from the wave function, semi-integer *formal* bond order

Does not consider the magnitude of overlap and the bond polarity

Parr and Borkman

The delocalized charge density moving freely along the bond axis

k_e - force constant of a bond

r_e - bond length

a - constant

$$N = a \sqrt{\frac{k_e}{r_e}}$$



Bond Order

R. S. Mulliken

A non-integral bonding power of either sign is attributable to every outer electron - the Mulliken population analysis

The effective bond order (EBO)

Each bonding orbital i has a natural orbital (NO) occupation number b_i
The corresponding antibonding orbital has the occupation number ab_i
 $a = 0$ – full bond, $a = 1$ – no bond

$$\text{EBO} = \sum_i \frac{(b_i - ab_i)}{2}$$

The delocalization index between two any atoms in a system corresponds to the (fractional) number of electron pairs shared or exchanged between these atoms



Multiple Bonds

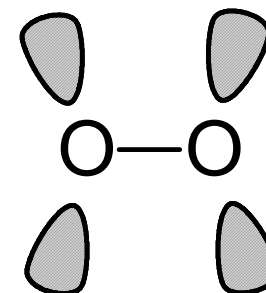
Dominant form of oxygen is O=O, a colourless paramagnetic gas

Ozone (O₃) is the only other allotrope

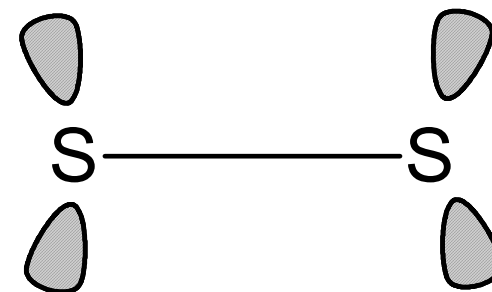
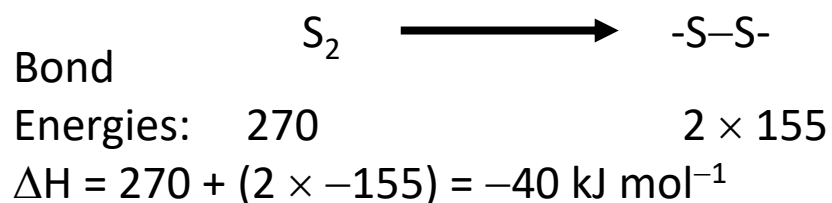
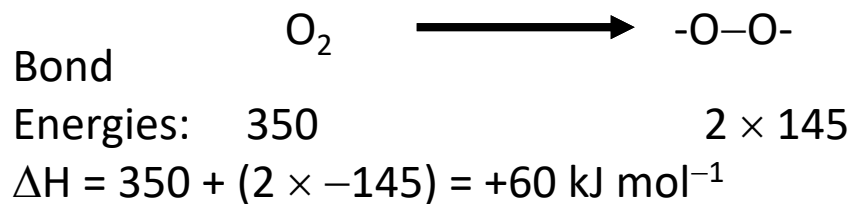
Why does not it form O₈ ?

Lone-pair repulsion across the short O–O distance

O is small, and its orbitals highly contracted, and so electrons feel a lot of e-e repulsion



Bond energies



S=S is thermodynamically unstable wrt -S-S- (*catenation*) but stable above 700 °C (Why?)



π -Bonds

Diffuseness of orbitals

2s and 2p orbitals are only shielded from the nucleus by the 1s electrons, therefore they are highly **contracted**, and π -**overlap** is **efficient** for the second period elements
3s and 3p orbitals in the 3rd row and higher elements are more **diffuse**, and so this side-on p-p overlap is **less effective**

Repulsion between core electrons

Second-row elements have only two core electrons (He)

Third-row (Ne) and heavier elements (Ar-Kr-Xe) have a significantly larger number of core electrons that cause **repulsion** between two heavy elements bonded to each other
This prevents the atoms to approach each other closer and form stronger π bonds

Atomic size

The large jump (50 %) in the covalent radii between the 2nd and 3rd rows of the periodic table (for example, C (0.77 Å), Si (1.17 Å))

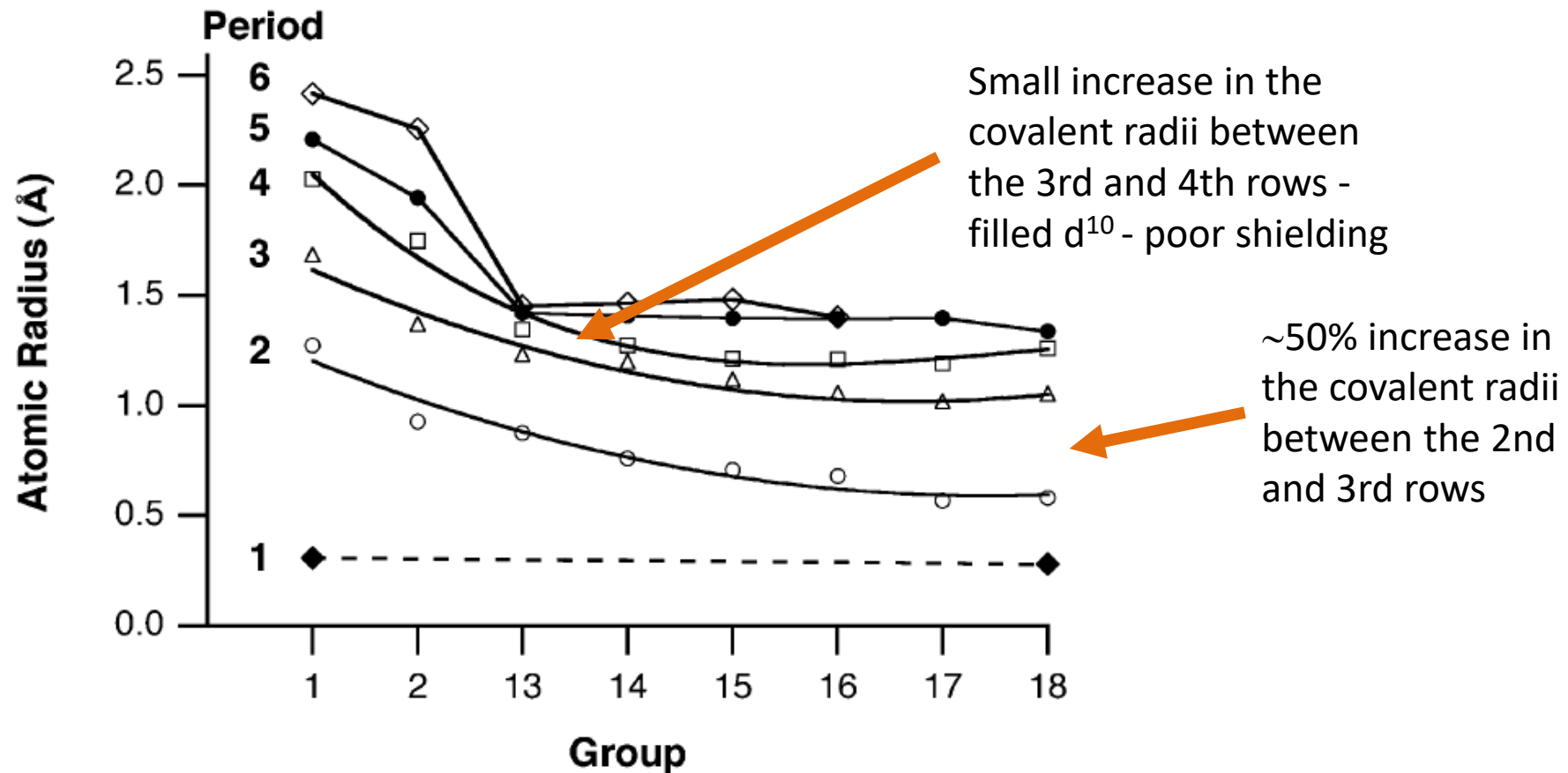
Higher coordination numbers observed for the 3rd row

Thermochemistry

π -bond energies in heavy double bonds too small to prevent polymerization



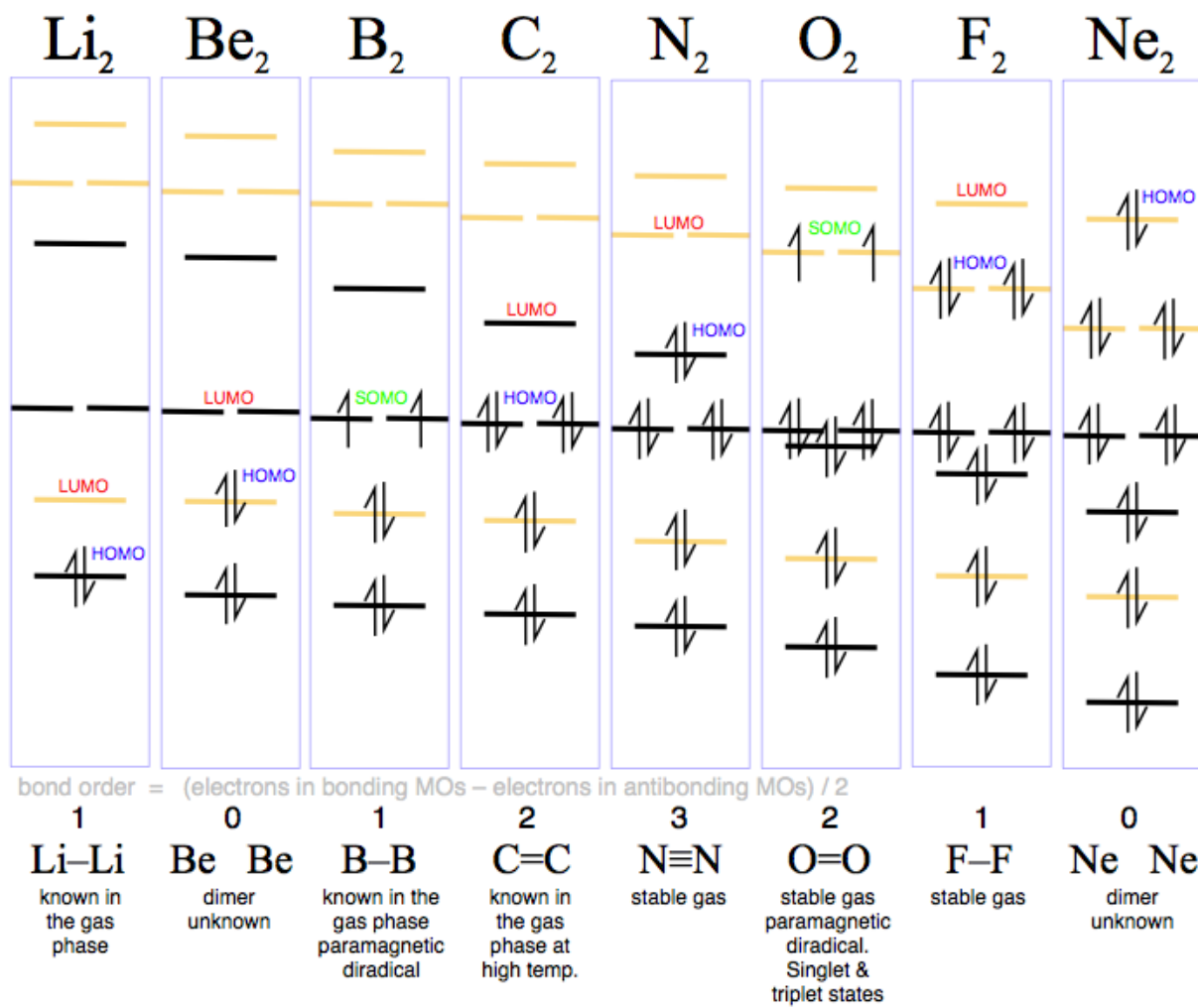
Atomic Radii



B. Cordero et al. *Dalton Trans.* **2008**, 2832–2838



Bonding in Diatomic Molecules



The Strongest Bond in Chemistry

The strength of a bond depends on

Covalent effects

- The degree of overlap between the interacting atomic orbitals

The elements of the **2nd period** of the periodic table - orbital hybridization, σ bond formed by $sp-sp$ overlap, two π -bonds of similar strengths

The elements of the **3rd and higher periods** - hybridization is largely absent and π -bonds are much weaker than the corresponding σ -bonds - with increasing atomic number and increasing covalent radius, overlap is reduced and the π -bonds become weaker

Ionic effects

- The bond polarity (electronegativity difference) reflected by the difference in the energies of the atomic orbitals involved in bonding

- The effective electronegativity - increased electronegativity means that the energies of the atomic valence orbitals and the bonding orbital(s) are lowered
= a strengthening of the bond



The Strongest Bond in Chemistry

the N≡N bond of the $[\text{H}-\text{N}\equiv\text{N}-\text{H}]^{2+}$ (${}^1\Sigma_g^+$) molecule

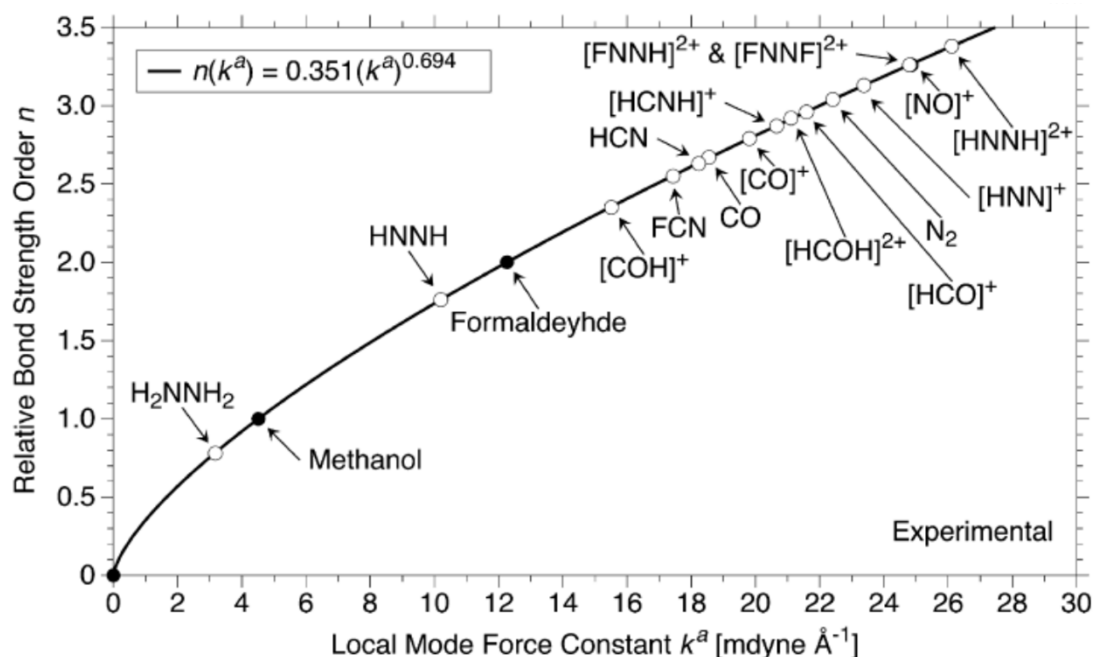
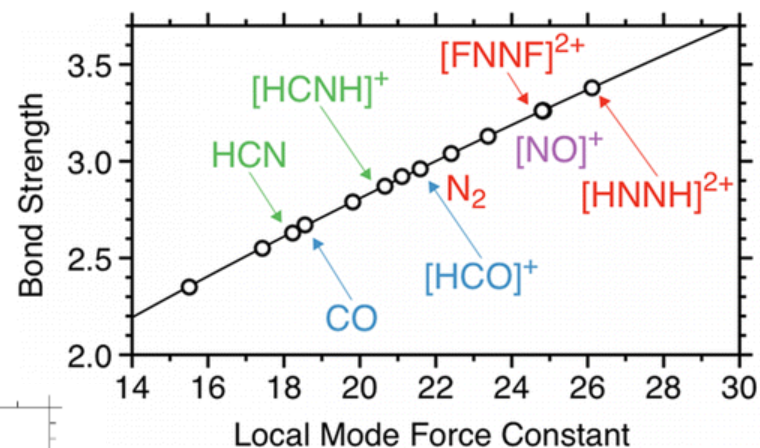
Stretching force constant

$k(\text{N}\equiv\text{N}) = 26.1 \text{ mdyn}/\text{\AA}$ (1 dyn = 10^{-5} N)

Bond length $r = 1.080 \text{ \AA}$

Relative bond strength order

RBSO = 3.38



Dinitrogen N₂

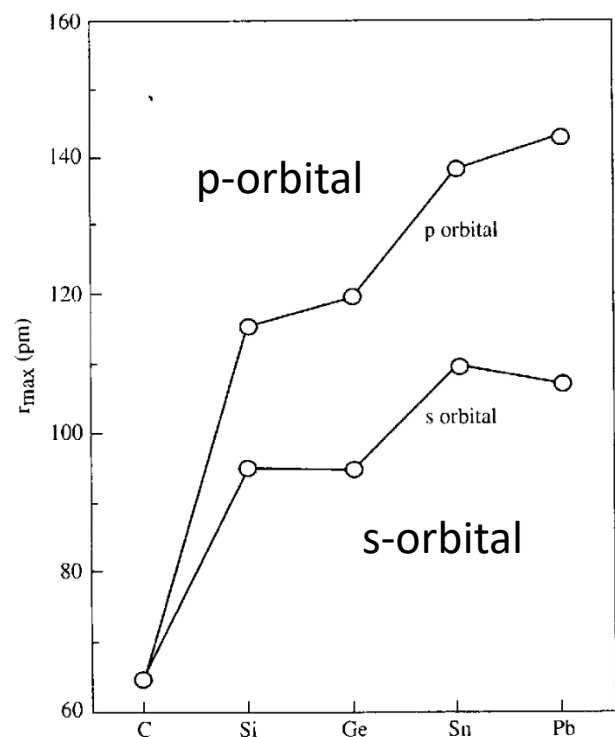
$k = 2293.8 \text{ N m}^{-1}$

Bond length $r = 1.1038 \text{ \AA}$

D. Cremer et al. *J. Phys. Chem. A*
2013, 117, 8981



π -Bonds



Atom	C	Si	Ge	Sn	Pb
n	2	3	4	5	6
Orbital energy					
ns	-19.39	-14.84	-15.52	-13.88	-15.41
np	-11.07	-7.57	-7.29	-6.71	-6.48
Ionization energy					
ns	16.60	13.64	14.43	13.49	16.04
np	11.26	8.15	7.90	7.39	7.53
Electron affinity					
	1.26	1.39	1.23	1.11	0.36
Polarizability					
	1.76	5.38	6.07	7.7	6.8
Electronegativity					
Mulliken	1.92	1.46	1.40	1.30	1.21
Pauling	2.55	1.90	2.01	1.96	2.33
Allen	2.28	1.76	1.81	1.68	1.91
Atomic radius					
ns	1.58	2.20	2.19	2.48	2.39
np	1.74	2.79	2.88	3.22	3.22

Carbon - 2s and 2p electrons approximately **the same spatial extension** (the core electrons occupy only the 1s orbital)

Heavier Group 14 elements, the np valence electrons ($n > 2$) are **spatially separated** from ns due to Pauli repulsion with the $(n-1)p$ electrons in the inner shell

Difficult to hybridize ns and np orbitals for heavier atoms, tend to preserve the valence ns electrons as core-like electrons while carbon shows a preference for an effective hybridization of the s and p - the strong overlap binding ability



π -Bonds

In Group 14 all double-bonded E=E species are unstable!



Exothermic !

	kJ mol^{-1}	E=E	E-E	ΔH
C		602	-2(356)	-110
Si		310	-2(226)	-142
Ge		270	-2(188)	-106
Sn		190	-2(151)	-112

1933 at ICI
R. Gibson, E. Fawcett
High pressure
polyethylene

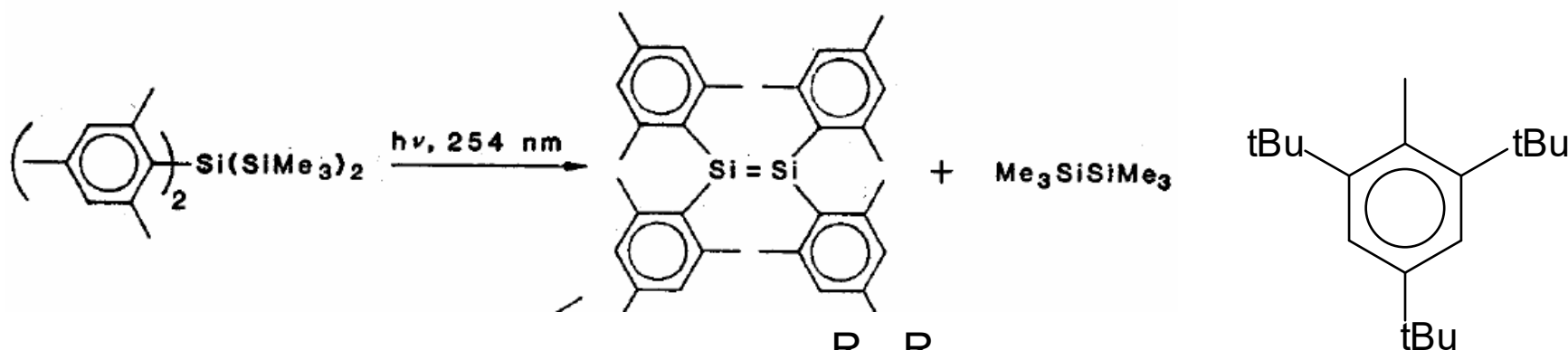
C=C **double** bonds are **thermodynamically less stable than** two corresponding **single** bonds but are **kinetically stabilized**

The preparation of polymers involves a catalyst to overcome the kinetic barrier and induce an exothermic reaction

The Si=Si bond are much weaker, the driving force for polymerization is large, hard to prevent polymerization



Stabilisation of Si=Si



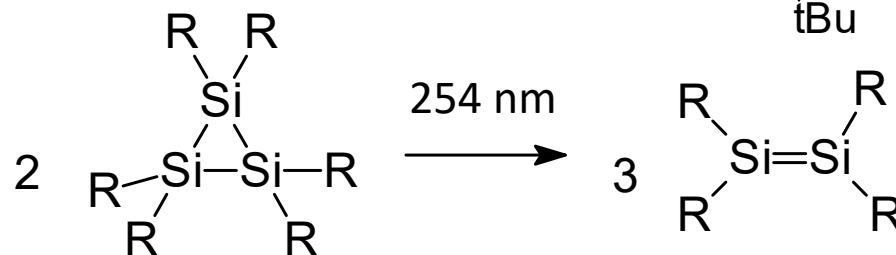
Disilene

Bulky groups can inhibit catenation

Si=Si 216.0 pm

a typical Si–Si 232 pm - 8% shortening

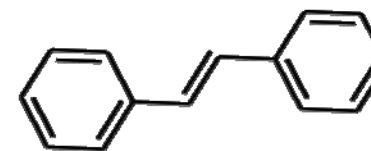
Tetraphenylethene - C=C 12% shortening



The Z → E isomerization energy of unsymmetrical disilene, (Mes)(tBu)Si=Si(tBu)(Mes)

The barrier to inversion in the disilene is high $E_{\text{act}} = 131 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1}$

trans-stilbene only 179 kJ mol^{-1}



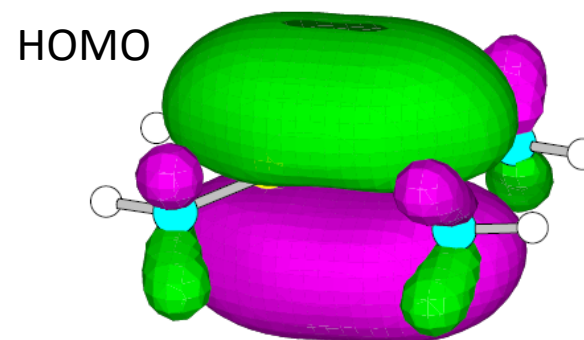
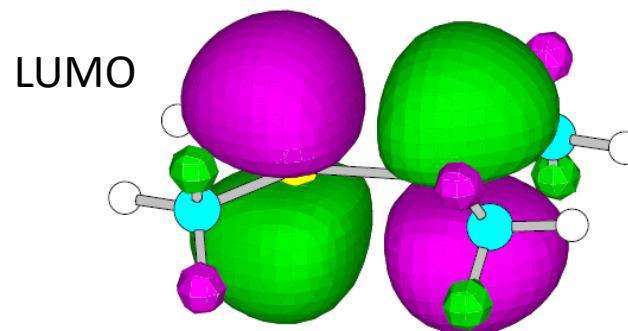
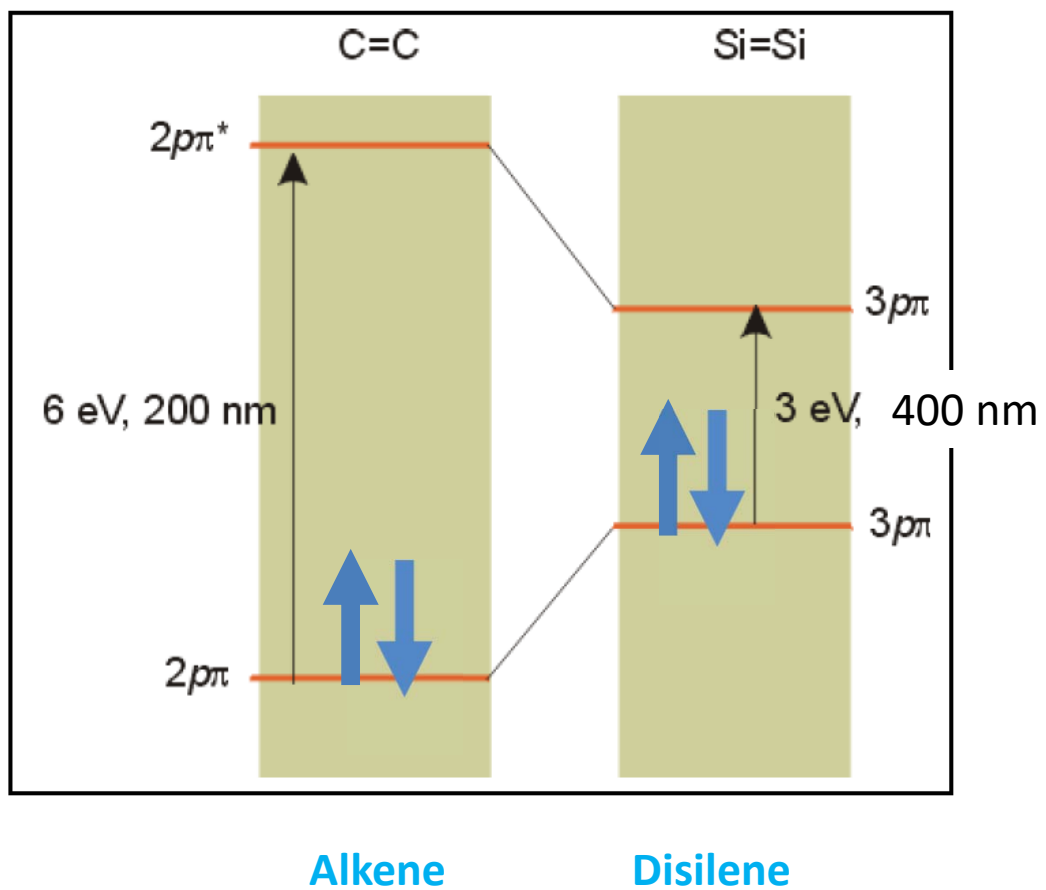
West, R.; Fink, M.J.; Michl, J. *Science* **1981**, 214, 1343

Masamune, S. et al. *J. Am. Chem. Soc.* **1982**, 104, 1150



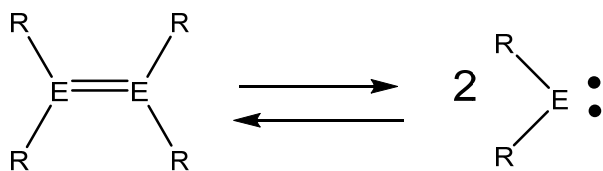
π -Bonds

Differences in reactivity?

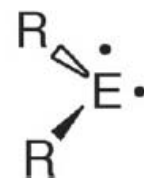
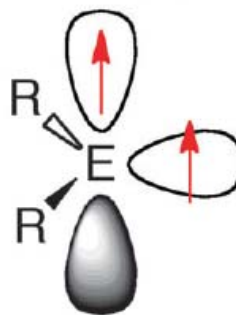


Triplet - Singlet

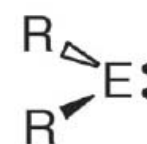
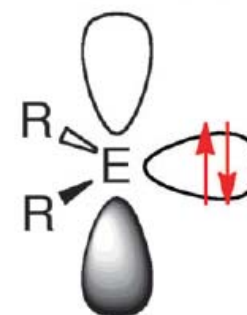
			$\Delta E_{ST}, \text{kJ mol}^{-1}$
R_2C :	carbene	triplet	-58.5
R_2Si :	silylene	singlet	69.8
R_2Ge :	germylene	singlet	91.1
R_2Sn :	stanylene	singlet	103.7
R_2Pb :	plumbylene	singlet	145.5



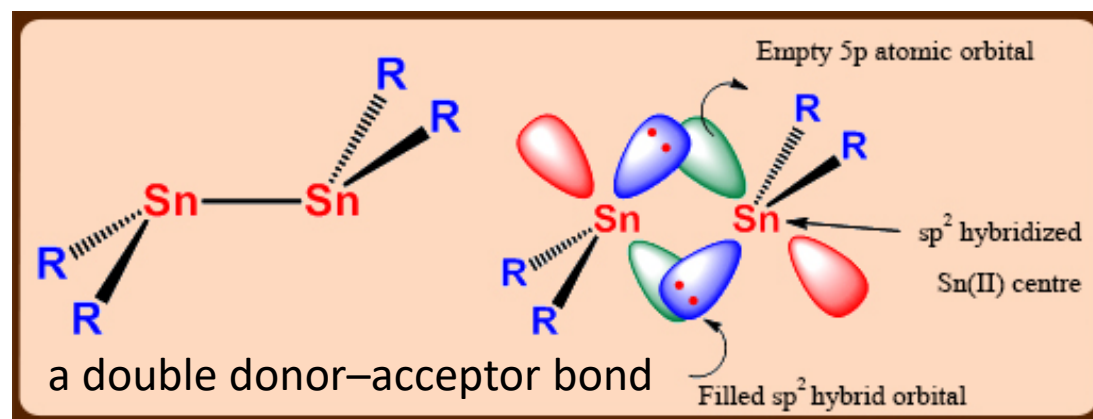
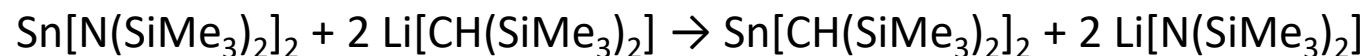
triplet (T)



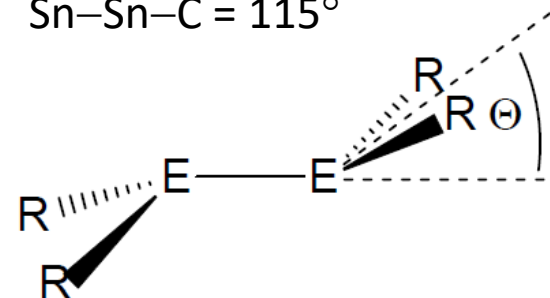
singlet (S)



Stabilisation of Sn=Sn



Trans-pyramidalization
Sn-Sn-C = 115°



Distannene = the first isolable species with multiple bonding between two heavier main group elements

Sn=Sn distance = 2.768(1) Å - not very short, the compound is dissociated in solution to stannylene R₂Sn:

Sn elemental = 2.80 Å

Ph₃Sn-SnPh₃ = 2.770(4) Å

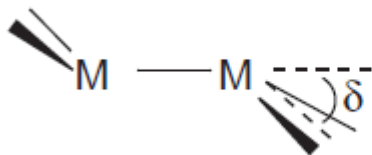
Lappert. M.F. et al. *J. Chem. Soc., Chem. Commun.* **1976**, 261



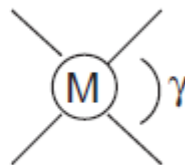
Double Bond in Heavy Elements

Compound	M-M/Å	$\delta^*/^\circ$	$\gamma^*/^\circ$
[Ge(C ₆ H ₃ Et ₂ -2,6) ₂] ₂	2.213(2)	12	10
[Ge(C ₆ HMe ₃ -2,3,4-Bu ^t -6) ₂] ₂	2.2521(8)	0	20.4
[Ge(SiMePr ⁱ) ₂] ₂	2.267(1)	0	6.5
[Ge(SiPr ⁱ) ₂] ₂	2.298(1)	0	16.4
[Ge(Mes)(C ₆ H ₃ Pr ⁱ -2,6)] ₂	2.301(1)	36	7
[Ge{CH(SiMe ₃) ₂ }] ₂	2.347(2)	32	0
[GeCl(C ₆ H ₃ Mes ₂ -2,6)] ₂	2.443(2)	39	0
{GeN(Bu ^t)(CH ₂) ₃ N(Bu ^t)SiN(Bu ^t)(CH ₂) ₂ N(Bu ^t)} ₂	2.451(2)	41.3	42.3
[{Ge(SiBu ^t) ₂ }] ₂ Ge(SiBu ^t) ₂	2.239(4)	—	—
[{Ge(SiBu ^t) ₃ }] ₃ [BPh ₄]	2.226(4)	—	—
[Ge(C ₆ H ₃ Mes ₂ -2,6)] ₃	2.35(7)	—	—
K[{Ge(C ₆ H ₃ Mes ₂ -2,6)] ₃]	2.422(2)	—	—
[Sn{CH(SiMe ₃) ₂ }] ₂	2.768(1)	41	0
[Sn{Si(SiMe ₃) ₃ }] ₂	2.8247(6)	28.6	63.2
[Sn{C ₆ H ₂ (CF ₃) ₃ -2,4,6}{Si(SiMe ₃) ₃ }] ₂	2.833(1)	41.5	0
[Sn(C ₆ HMe ₃ -2,3,4-Bu ^t -6) ₂] ₂	2.910(1)	21.4, 64.4	—
[Sn{C ₆ H ₂ (CF ₃) ₃ -2,4,6}] ₂	3.639(1)	46	0
[K(THF) ₆][{SnC ₆ H ₃ Trip ₂ -2,6}] ₂	2.8123(9)	95.20	0
[Pb{C ₆ H ₂ (CF ₃) ₃ -2,4,6}{Si(SiMe ₃) ₃ }] ₂	3.537(1)	40.8	0

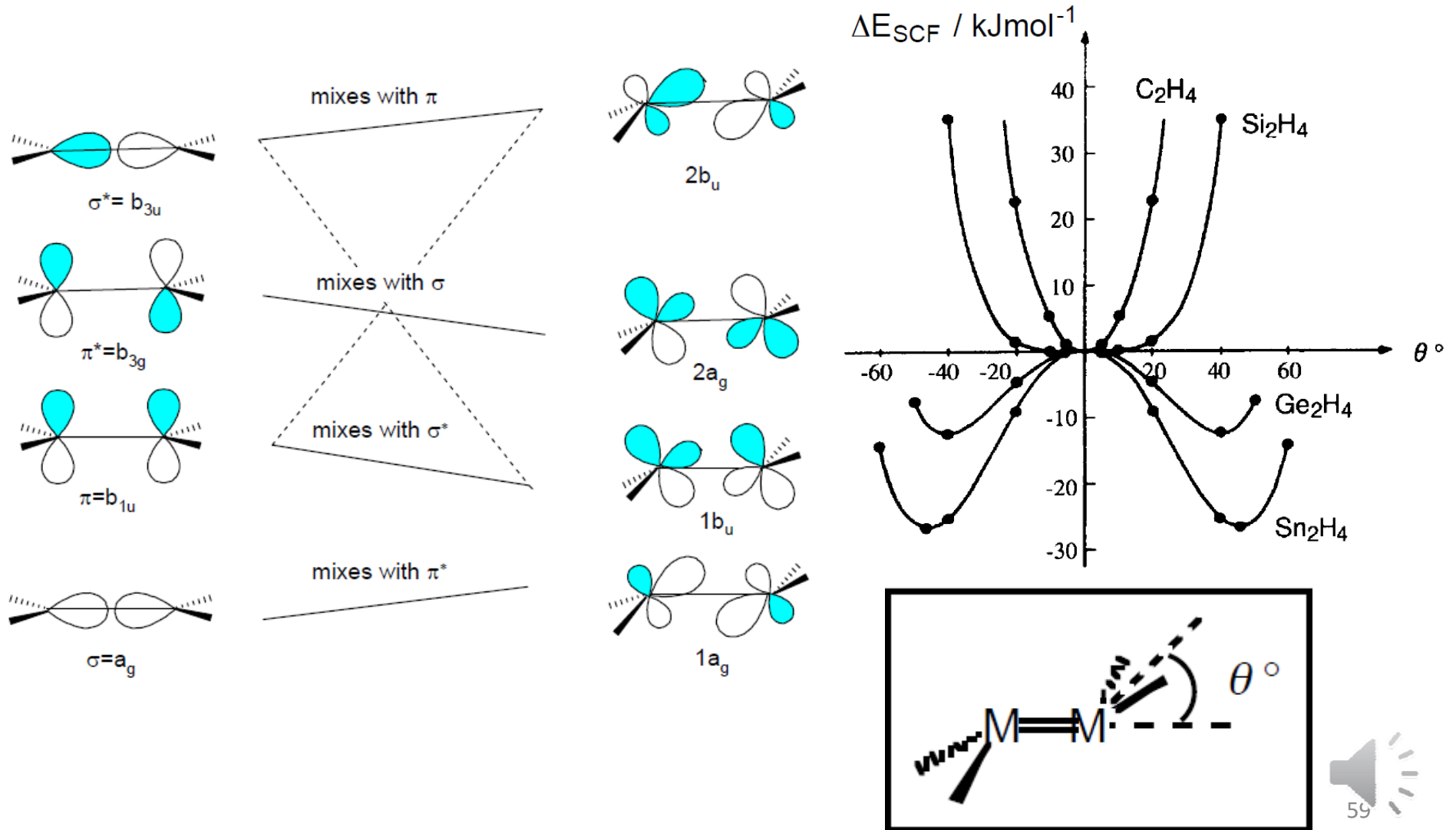
Trans-pyramidalization
out-of-plane angle, δ



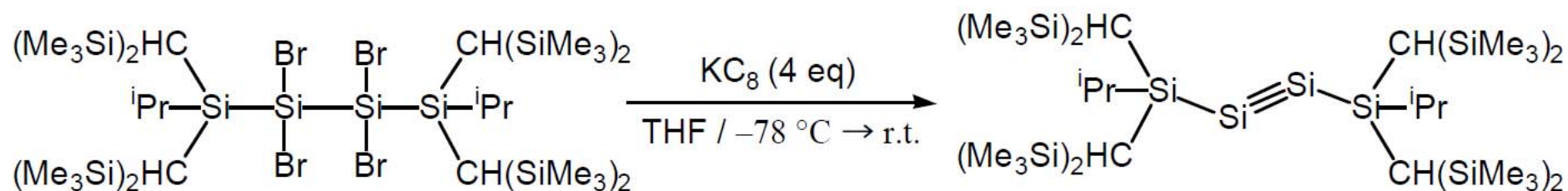
Twist angle, γ



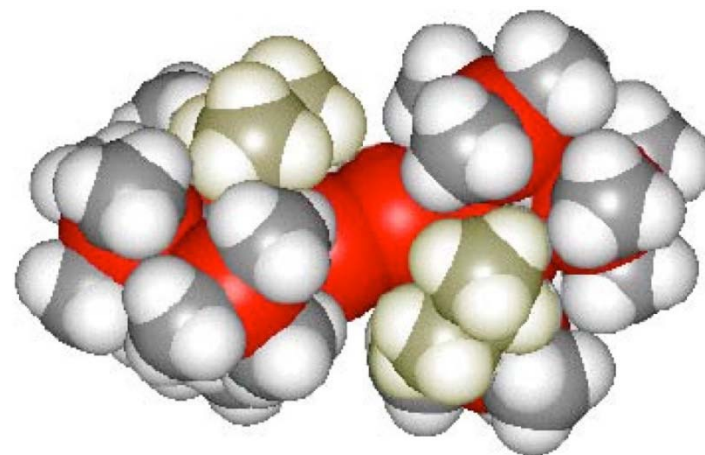
Double Bond in Heavy Elements



Triple Bond - Disilyne



Disilyne



Si≡Si 206.22(9) pm

Half the magnitude of the bond shortening of
alkynes C≡C /alkenes C=C

Si=Si 216.0 pm

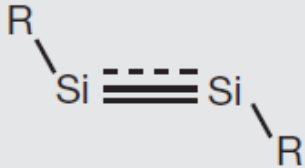
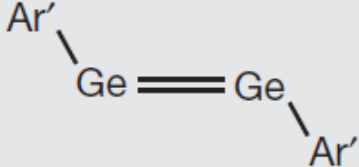
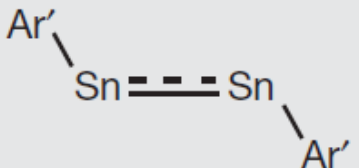
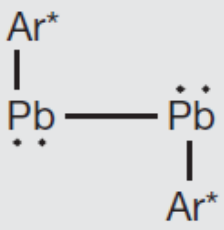
Si-Si 232 pm

The substituents at the Si≡Si group are trans-bent
a bond angle of 137.44(4)°

Sekiguchi, A.; Kinjo, R.; Ichinohe, M. *Science* **2004**, *305*, 1775

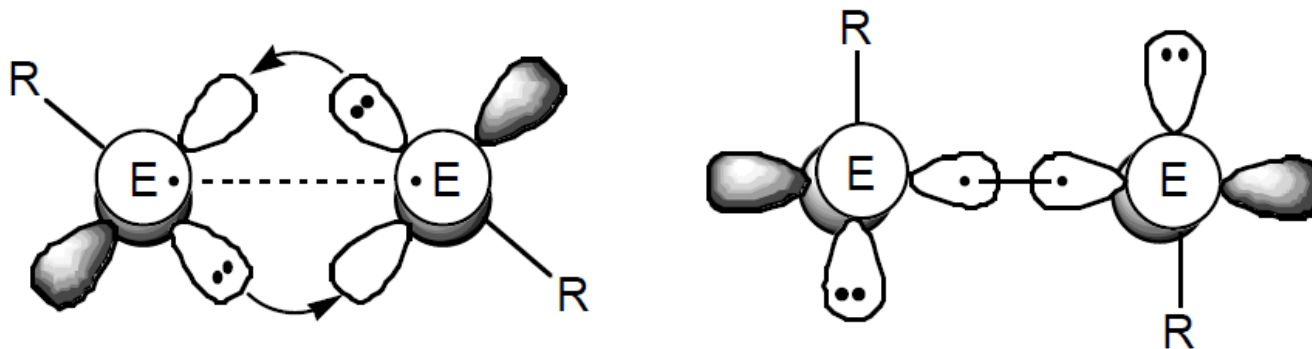


Heavier Gr14 Alkyne Analogues

	Compound	M≡M (Å)	M≡M-C bending angle (degrees)	Shortening* (%)
		2.0622(9) (ref. 21)	137.44(4)	11.87
Digermyne		2.285(6) (ref. 22)†	128.67(8)	6.35
Distannyne		2.6675(4) (ref. 23) †	125.1(2)	5.07
Diplumbyne		3.1811 (ref. 24)‡	94.26(4)	-9.69

* Shortening with respect to a single bond.
† Ar' = C₆H₃-2,6(C₆H₃-2,6-*i*-Pr₂)₂.
‡ Ar* = C₆H₃-2,6(C₆H₂-2,4,6-*i*-Pr₃)₂.

Heavier Gr14 Alkyne Analogues



The $6s^2$ valence electrons are stabilized by **relativistic effects** - they participate less in bonding

In an atom of a heavy element, **the velocities of its electrons** are close to the speed of light if they approach the nucleus, Einstein's theory of relativity indicates that the electrons at such high velocities have higher masses, **increasing** their electromagnetic **attraction** with the positive nucleus and leading to the **contraction** of the inner atomic orbitals in comparison to non-relativistic analogs

The Pb-Pb single bond formed by head-to-head overlap of 6p orbitals, which have a larger radius than 6s and hence form longer bonds

Triple E≡E Bond in Gr13

Diboryne

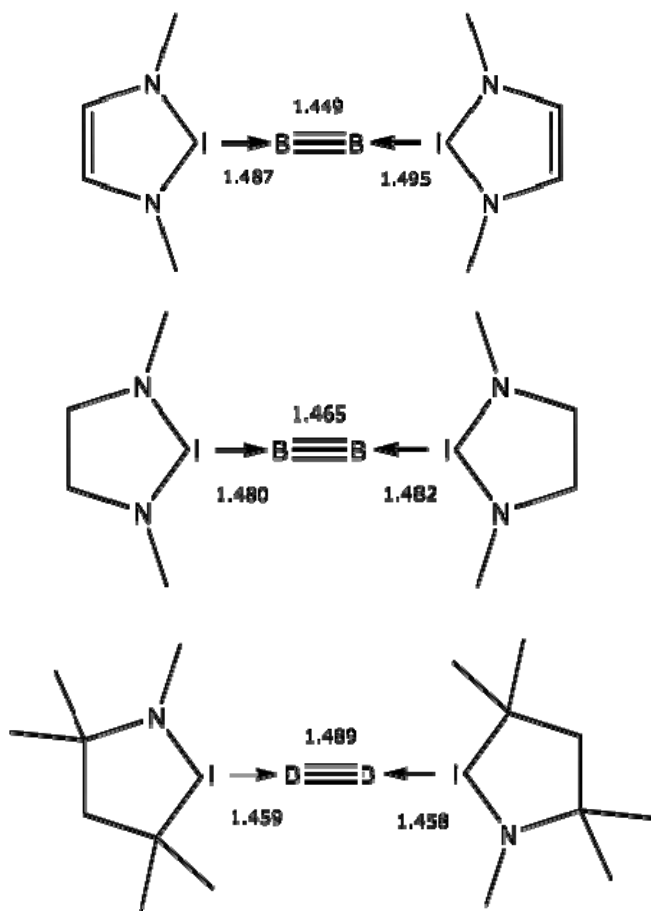
R₂C: carbene stabilized B₂

Braunschweig et al., *Science*
2012, 336, 1420

Braunschweig et al., *Angew.
Chem. Int. Ed.* **2014**, 53, 9082

Braunschweig et al., *Angew. Chem.
Int. Ed.* **2015**, 54, 13801
cyclic (alkyl)(amino)carbenes = CAAC

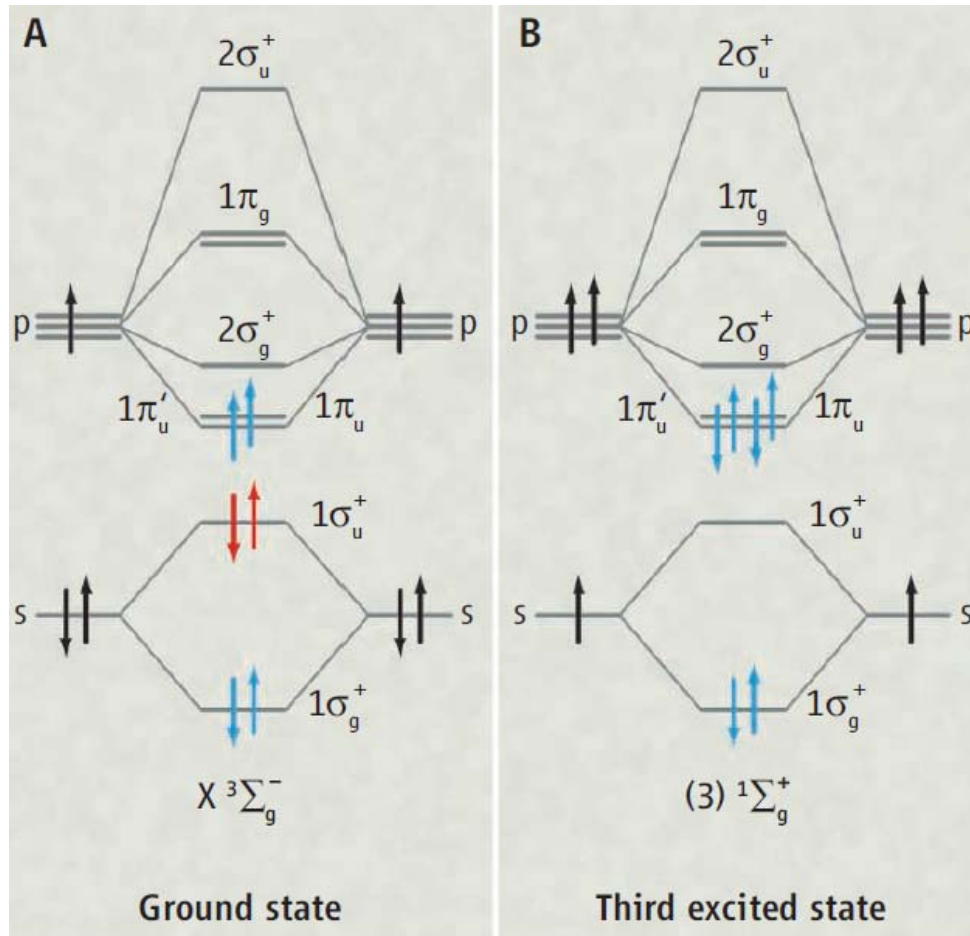
C=B=B=C an electron deficient
(4-π-electron) cumulene



Braunschweig, Dewhurst, *Organometallics* **2014**, 33, 6271



Triple E≡E Bond in Gr13



Molecule B₂

(NHC)→B≡B←(NHC)

B₂ molecule

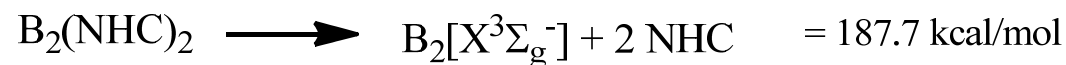
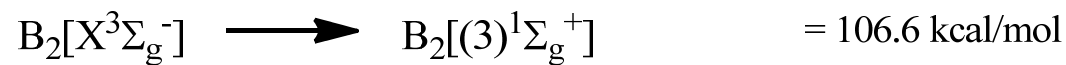
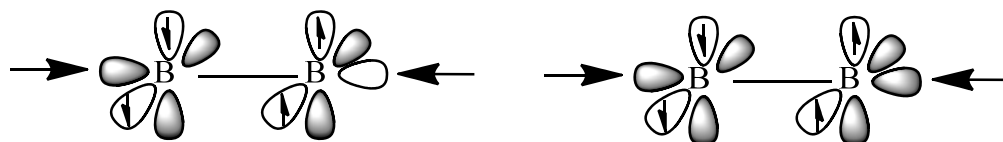
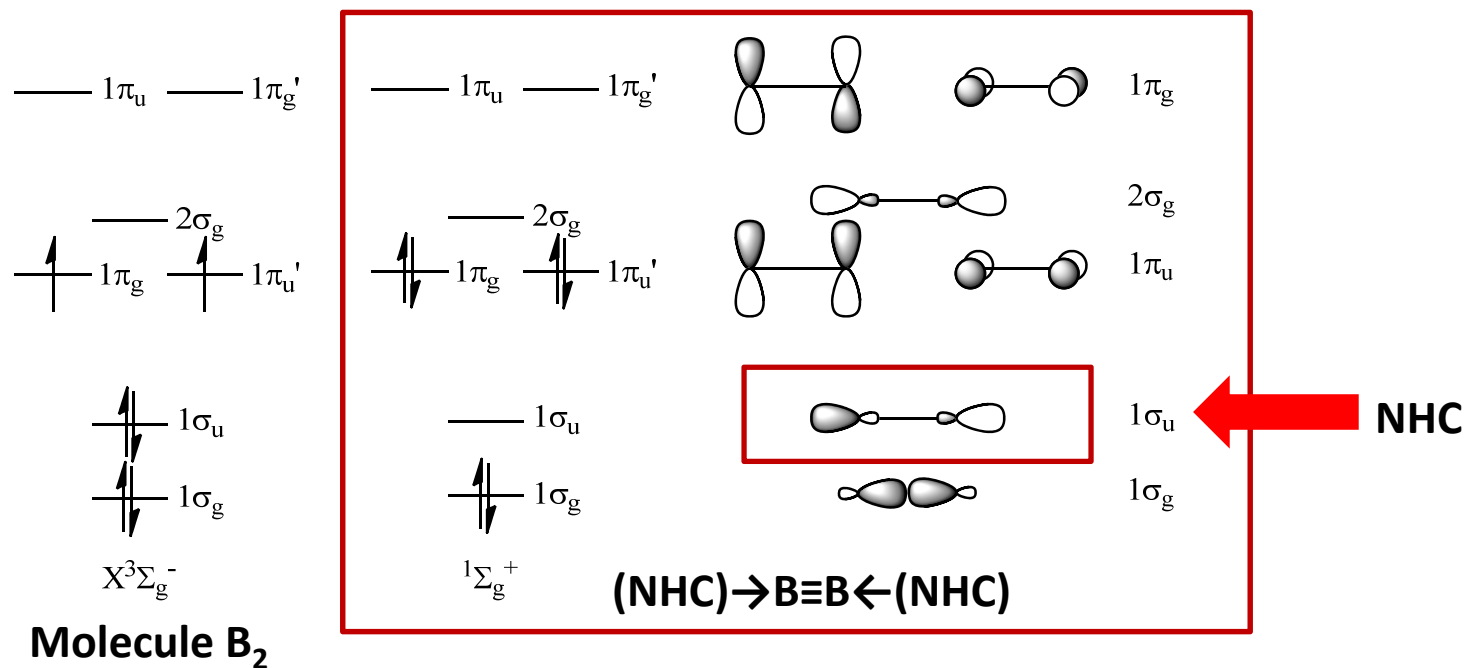
The ground state has two doubly occupied bonding orbitals (blue) but one doubly occupied antibonding orbital (red) - a bond order = 1

a **single bond B–B**

(NHC)→B≡B←(NHC)

the excited state has three doubly occupied bonding orbitals and hence a **triple bond B≡B**

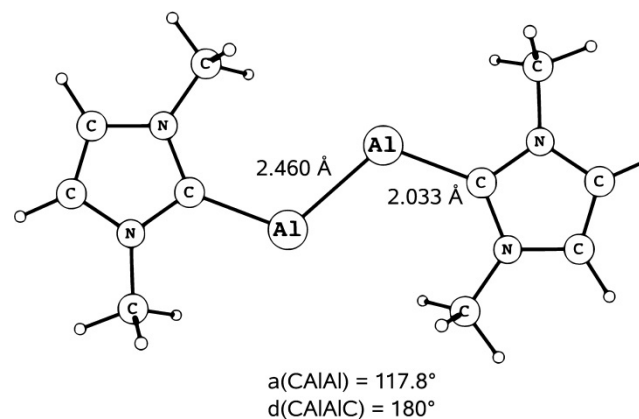
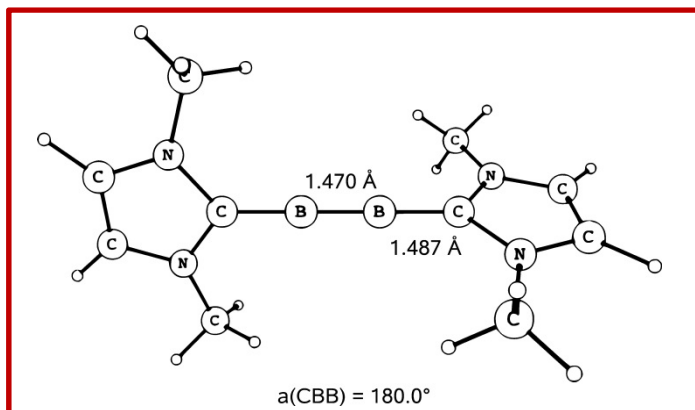
Triple E≡E Bond in Gr13



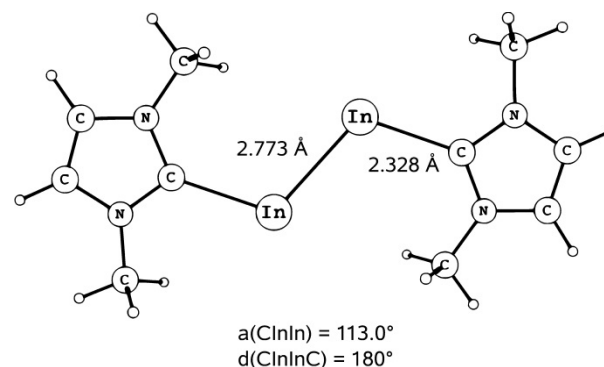
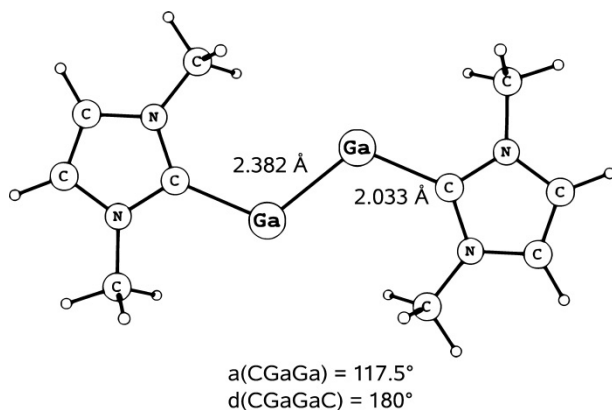
Triple M≡M Bond in Gr13

Quantum chemical calculations DFT

NHC = N-Heterocyclic Carbenes



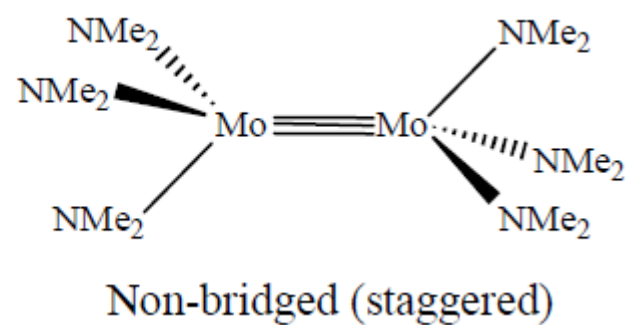
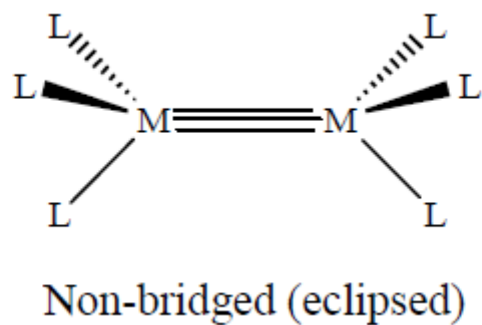
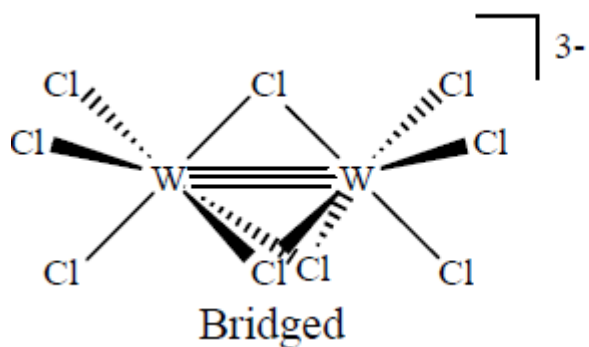
anti-periplanar
trans-bending
E=E double bond

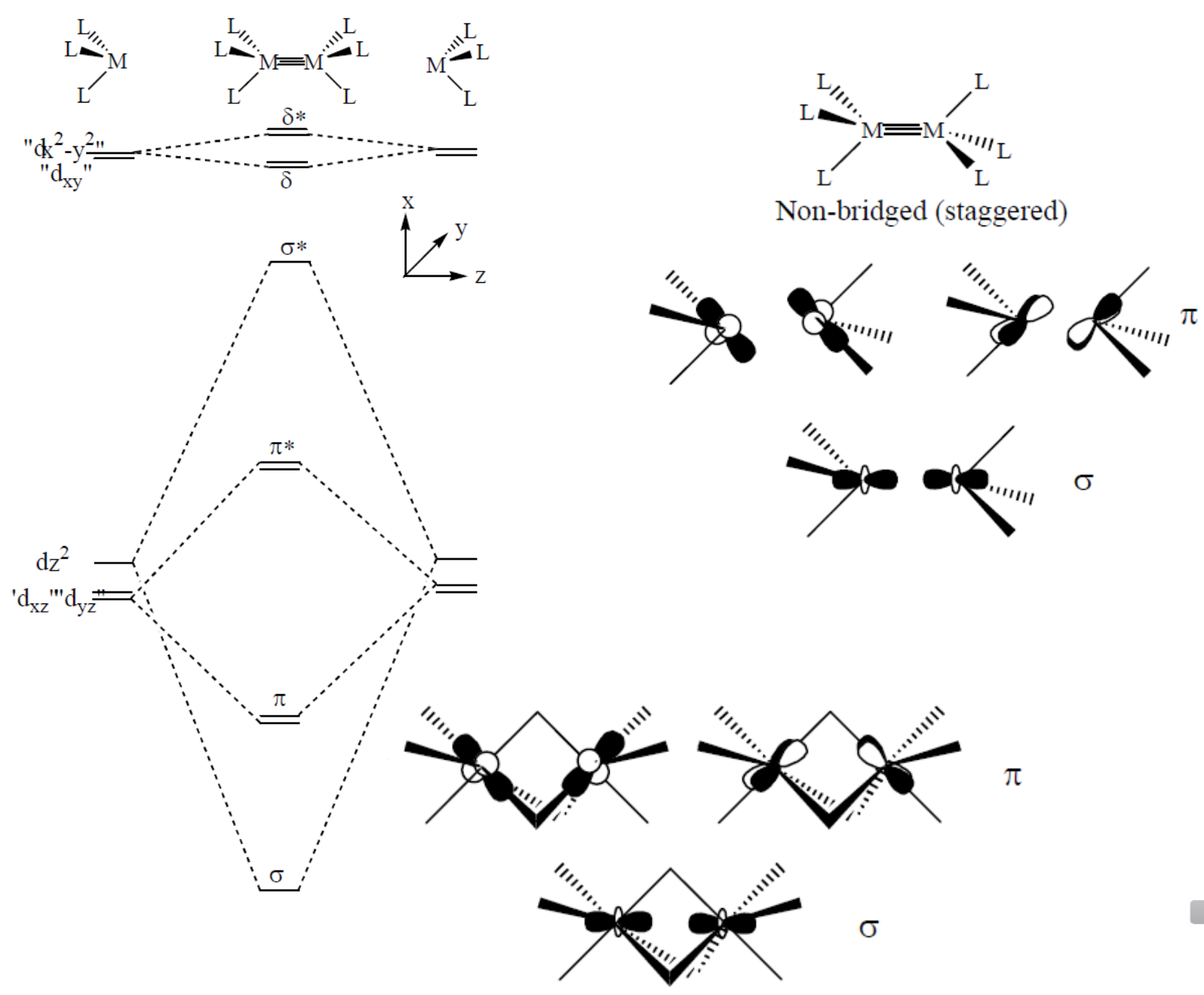


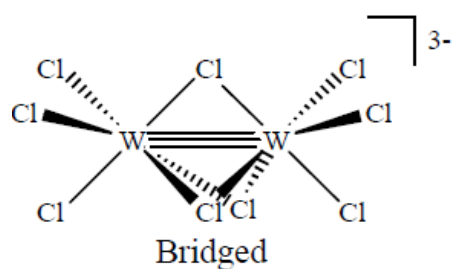
N. Holzmann, A. Stasch, C. Jones, G. Frenking, *Chem. Eur. J.* **2011**, *17*, 13517




Triple $M\equiv M$ Bond







Triple M≡M Bond

	Configuration	rM-M / pm	Magnetism
 $\text{Cr}_2\text{Cl}_9^{3-}$	$\sigma^2(\delta/\pi)^4$	310	Paramagnetic
$\text{Mo}_2\text{Cl}_9^{3-}$	$\sigma^2(\delta/\pi)^4$	253-288	Variable
$\text{W}_2\text{Cl}_9^{3-}$	$\sigma^2(\delta/\pi)^4$	242-250	Diamagnetic

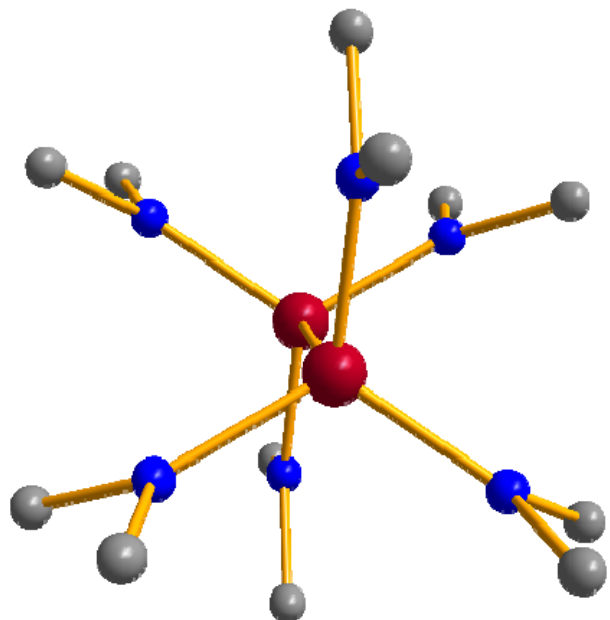
$\text{Cr}_2\text{Cl}_9^{3-}$ two CrCl_3 fragments held together by 3 bridging Cl, no d-orbital overlap, no direct Cr-Cr bond, paramagnetic with **6 unpaired** electrons

$\text{Mo}_2\text{Cl}_9^{3-}$ the Mo-Mo distance depends on the cation present in the crystal structure, variable bonding and magnetism

$\text{W}_2\text{Cl}_9^{3-}$ good overlap and a **triple W-W** bond with no unpaired electrons



Triple M≡M Bond

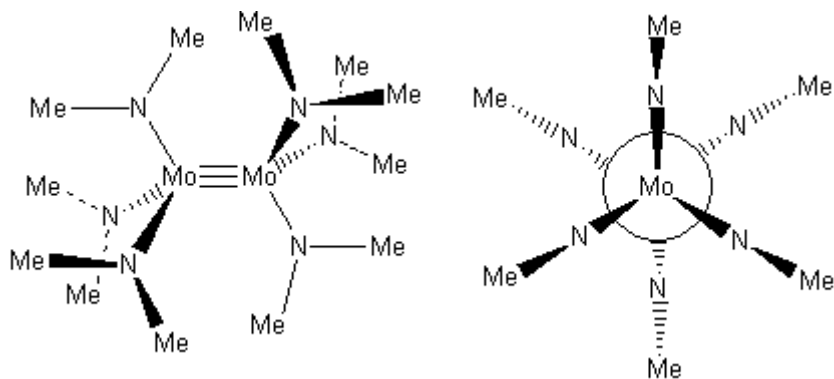


$\text{Mo}_2(\text{NMe}_2)_6$
a $\sigma^2\pi^4$ triple bond
a short Mo–Mo bond length of 2.214(2) Å

M.H. Chisholm, F.A. Cotton, B.A. Frenz, W.W. Reichert, L.W. Shive, B.R. Stults, *J. Am. Chem. Soc.* **1976**, *98*, 4469

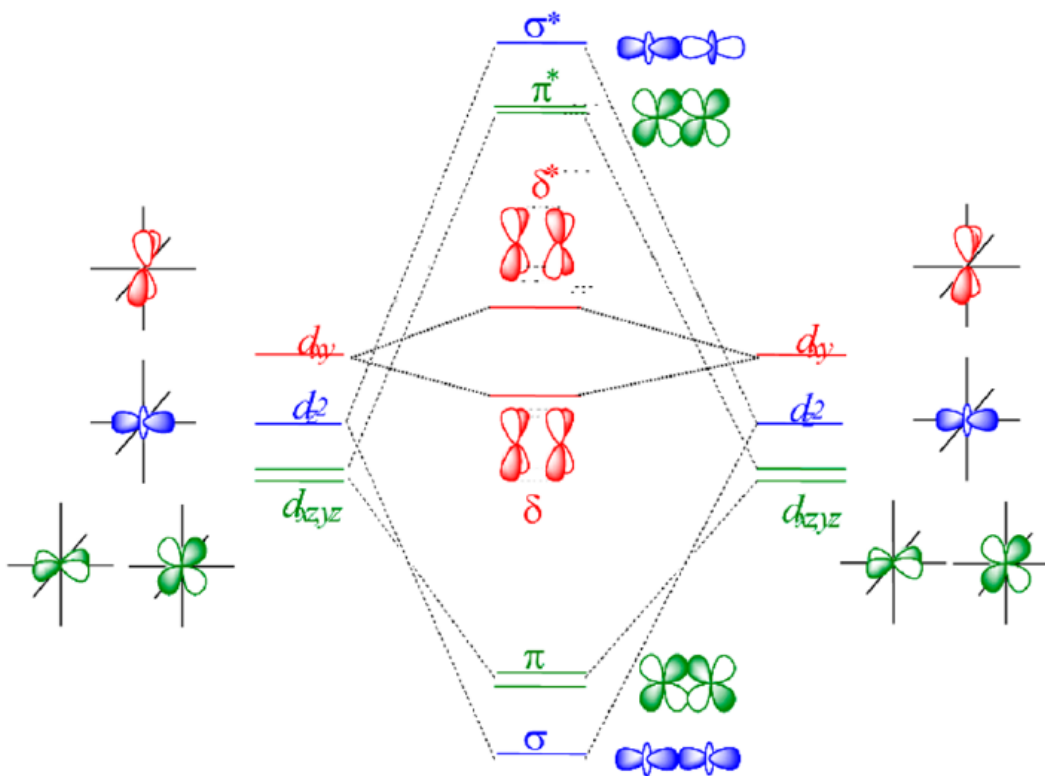
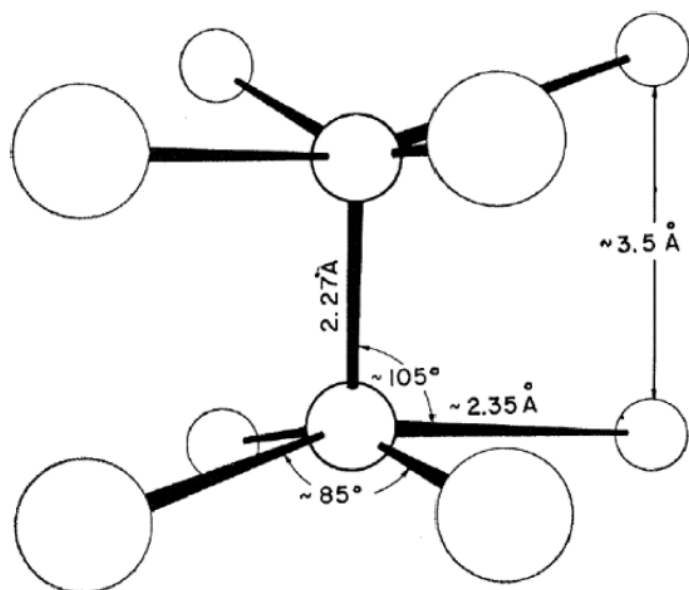
$\text{W}_2(\text{NMe}_2)_6$
a W–W bond length of 2.294(1) Å

M.H. Chisholm, F.A. Cotton, M. Extine, B.R. Stults, *J. Am. Chem. Soc.* **1976**, *98*, 4477



Quadruple Bond

1964 F. A. Cotton – the first bond order higher than 3



Eclipsed

δ - δ^* transition 14700 cm^{-1} (1.82 eV)

EBO = 3.2

the sum of the partial bond orders 0.92 (σ), 1.74 (π) and 0.54 (δ)



Formal Shortness Ratio (FSR)

Bond	Ratio	Bond	Ratio
C \equiv C	0.783	Cr \equiv Cr	0.771
N \equiv N	0.786	Mo \equiv Mo	0.807
		Re \equiv Re	0.848

F. A. Cotton - A short bond?

The FSR is a dimensionless number given by the ratio of the atom–atom **distance, d** , of a bond and **the sum of the radii** of the two atoms involved, $r_A + r_B$:

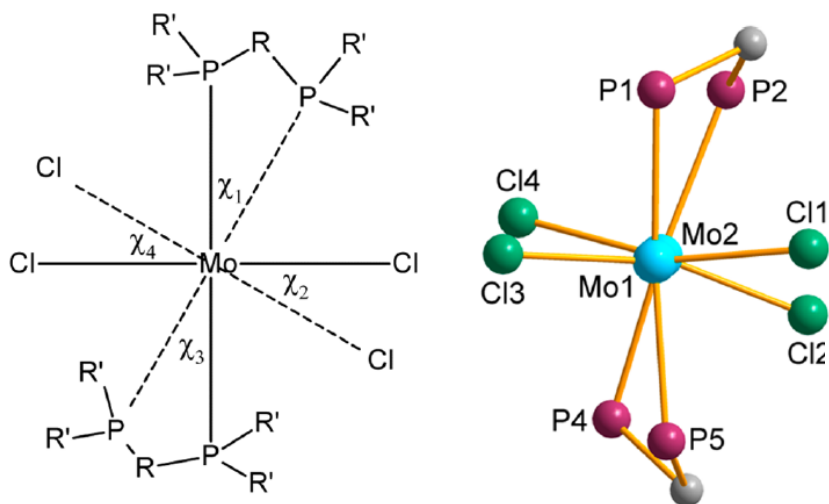
$$\text{FSR} = d / (r_A + r_B)$$

The advantage of this formalism is its interelement applicability
The FSR is a useful tool for comparing formal multiple bonding and short metal–metal distances



Quadruple Bond

The Mo–Mo distances changes as torsional strain is introduced by bridging diphosphines with concomitant diminution of the $d_{xy}-d_{xy}$ overlap, i.e., the δ bond

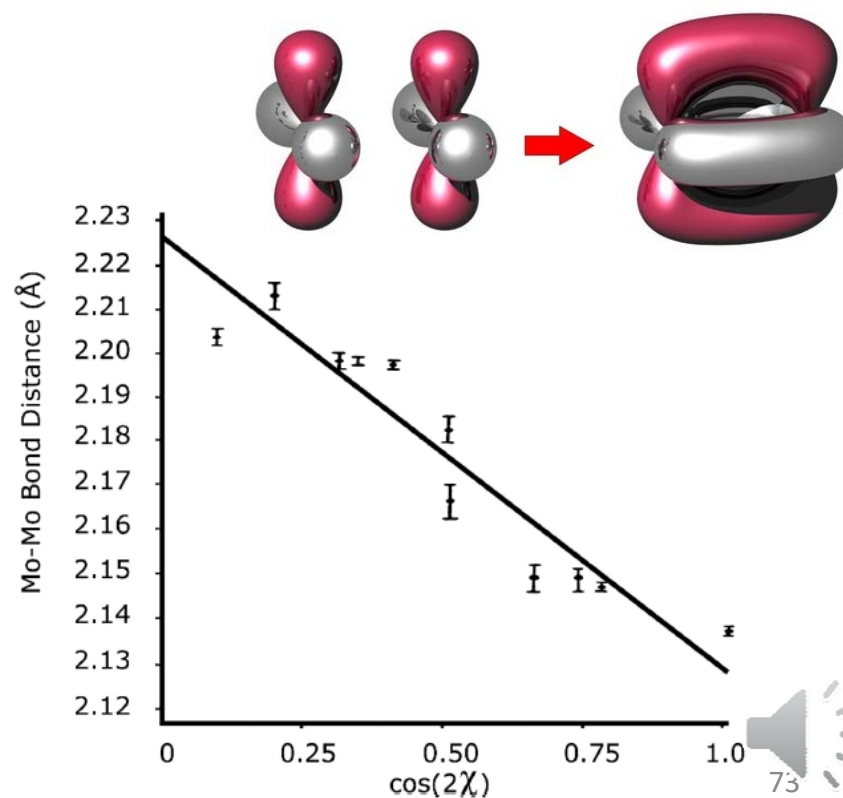


Internal twist χ

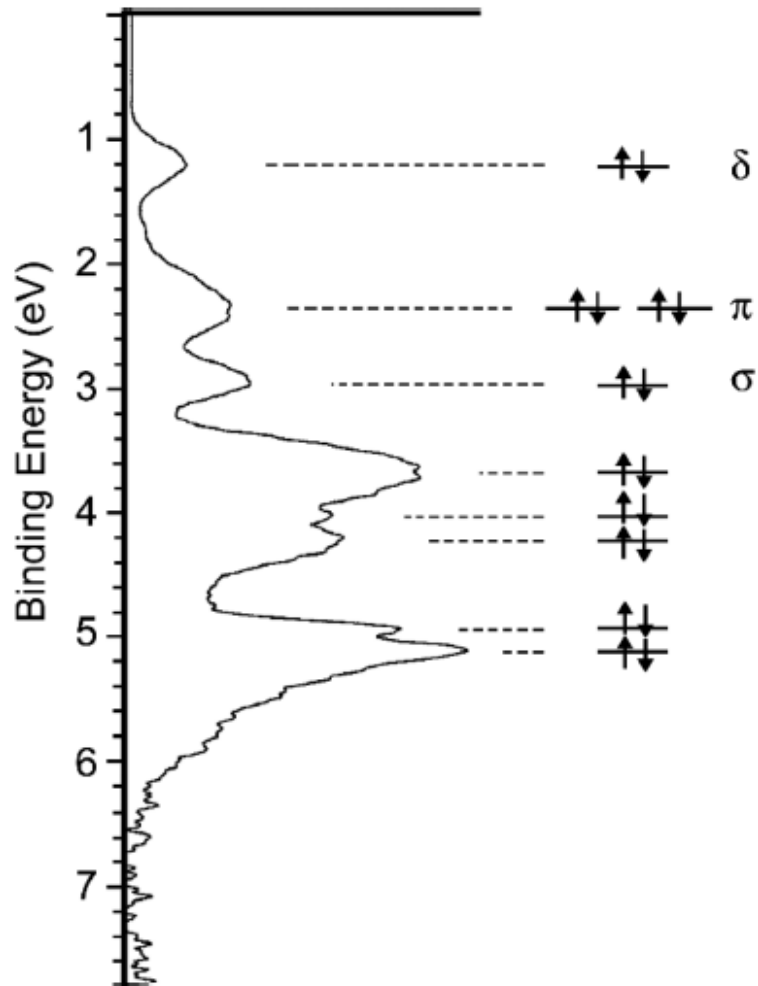
rotation about the metal–metal bond
average of 4 torsion angles

$\chi = 0^\circ$ - an eclipsed configuration (b.o. = 4)
 $\chi = 45^\circ$ - a staggered configuration (b.o. = 3)

$\text{Mo}_2\text{X}_4(\text{PR}_3)_4$ and $\text{Mo}_2\text{X}_4(\text{diphosphine})_2$
 $\text{X} = \text{Cl}$ and Br



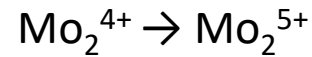
Quadruple Bond in PES



PES spectrum of the $[\text{Re}_2\text{Cl}_8]^{2-}$ anion

$$1 \text{ eV} = 1.6 \times 10^{-19} \text{ J}$$

Oxidation $\text{Mo}_2(\text{TiPB})_4$ to $[\text{Mo}_2(\text{TiPB})_4]^+$



one unpaired electron (EPR)

Mo–Mo distance 0.06 Å longer
electron removed from a bonding δ orbital

$$\text{b.o.} = 3.5$$

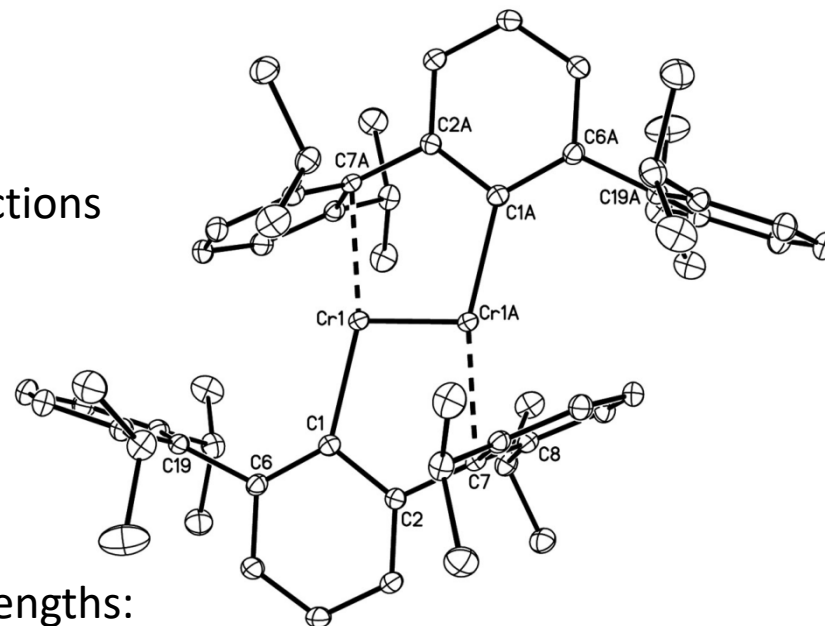
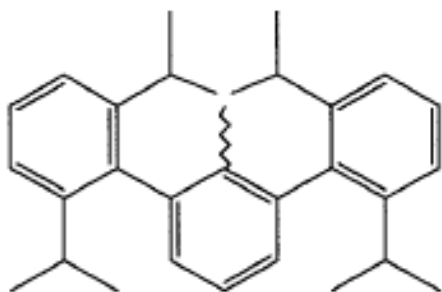


Quintuple Cr-Cr Bonding

Strategies for stabilization of multiple bonds

- Maximum of valence electrons at metal
- Minimum number of attached ligands
- Bulky ligands to prevent intermolecular reactions

Monovalent m-terphenyl ligands



Bond lengths:

Cr-Cr = 1.8351 Å

Cr(1)-C(1A) = 2.131 Å

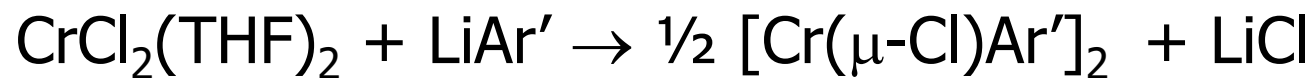
Cr(1)-C(7A) = 2.2943 Å

Bond angle: Cr(1A)-Cr(1)-C(1) = 102.78°

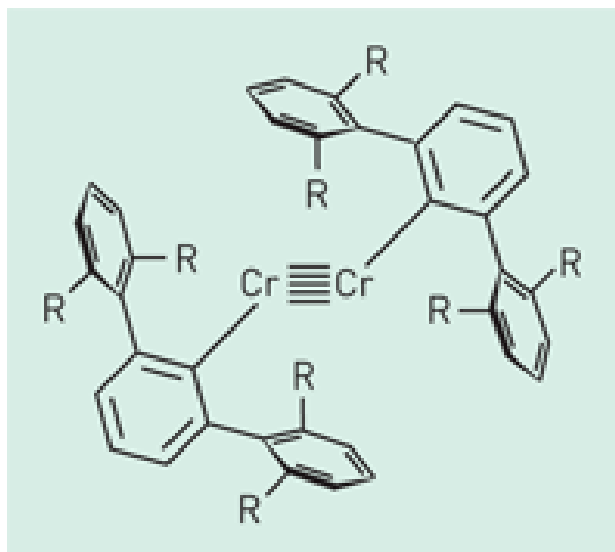
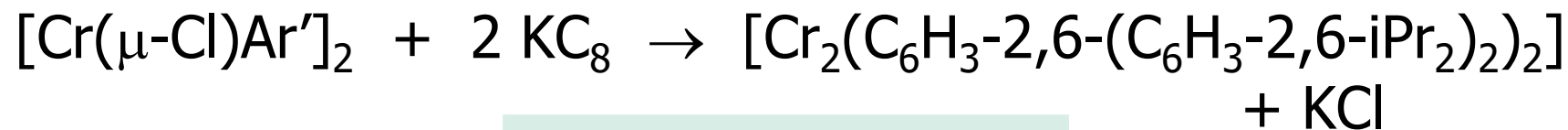
T. Nguyen, A. D. Sutton, M. Brynda, J.C. Fettingner, G. J. Long, P. P. Power, *Synthesis of stable compound with fivefold bonding between two chromium(I) centers*, *Science* **2005**, 310, 844. Doi 10.1126/science.1116789



Quintuple Cr-Cr Bonding

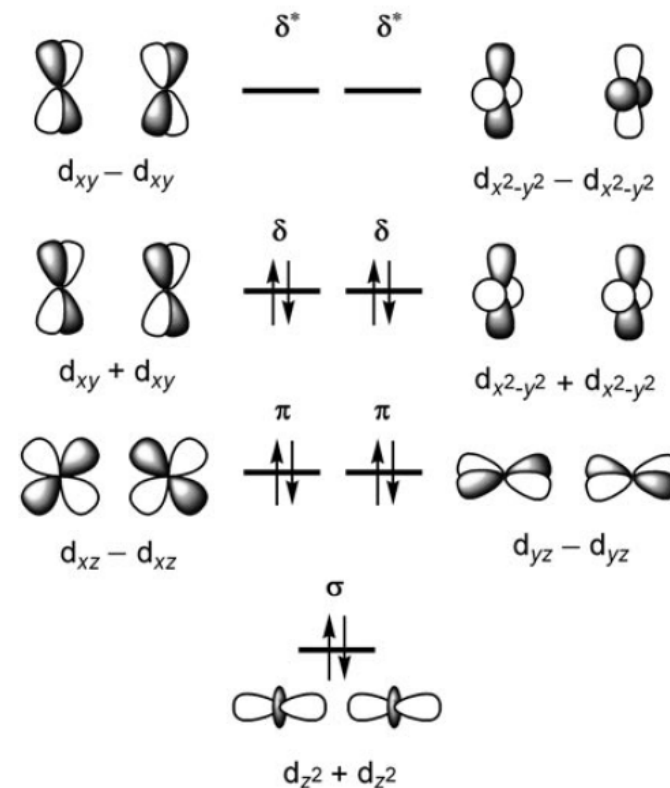
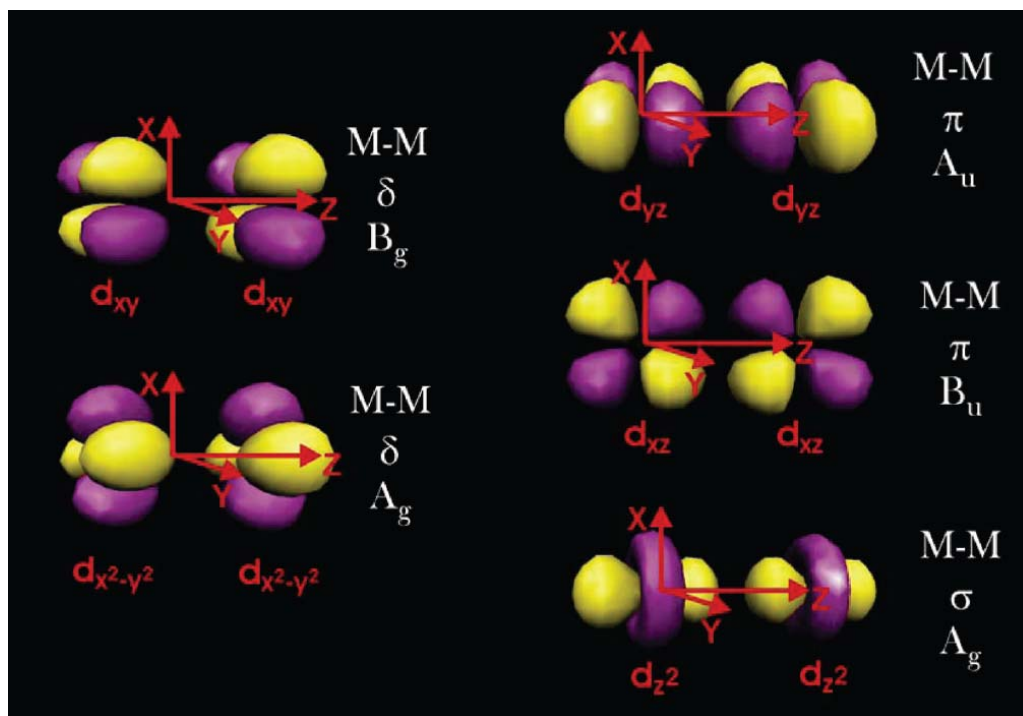


in THF, $\text{Ar}' = \text{C}_6\text{H}_3\text{-2,6}(\text{C}_6\text{H}_3\text{-2,6-iPr}_2)_2$



Quintuple Cr-Cr Bonding

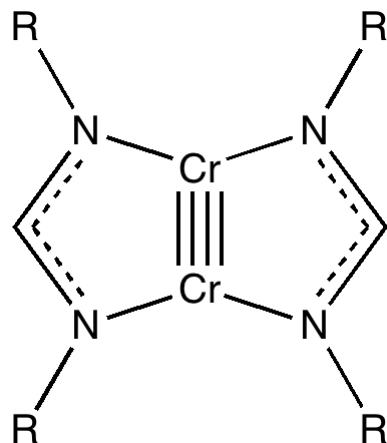
Cr-Cr bonding = $\sigma + 2\pi + 2\delta$



Quintuple bond = five electron pairs play a role in holding the metal atoms together. It does not imply that the bond order is five or that the bonding is very strong since the ground state of the molecule mixes with higher energy configurations with less bonding character, this gives lower, usually non-integer, bond orders.



Quintuple Cr-Cr Bonding



Amidinate ligand

Cr-Cr

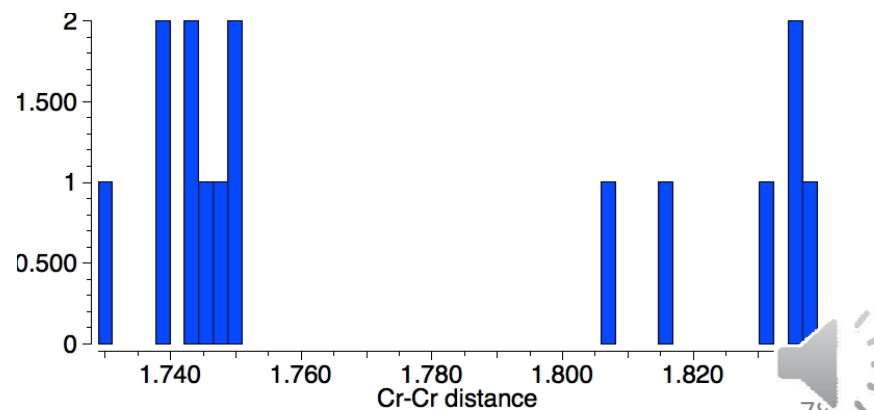
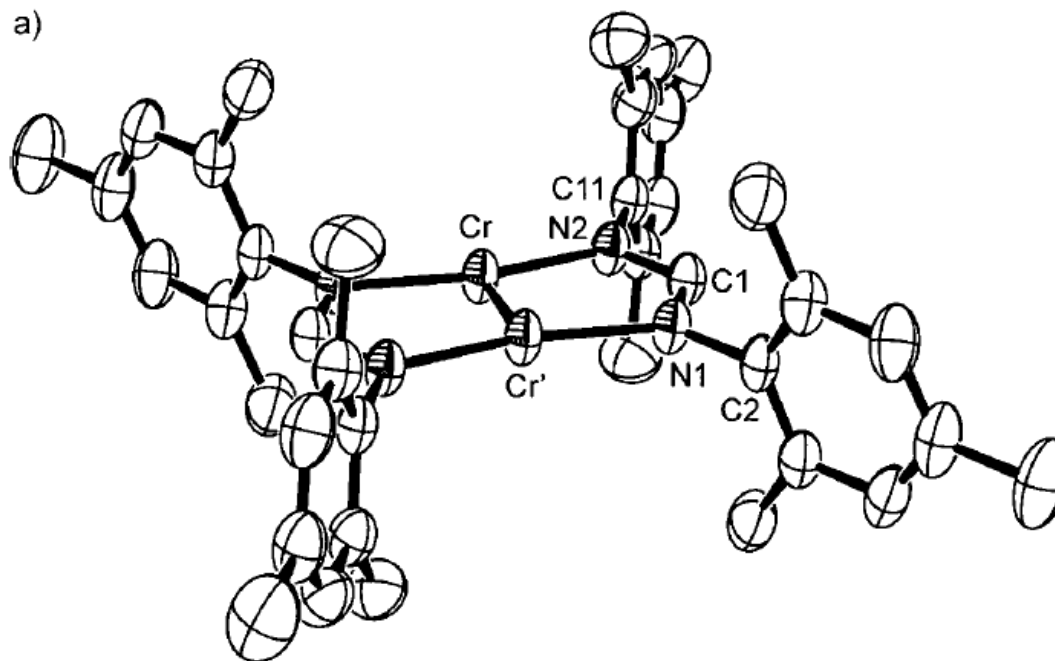
R = Mes **1.7404(8) Å**

R = Xylyl **1.7397(9) Å**

Cottons "formal shortness ratio" (FSR)

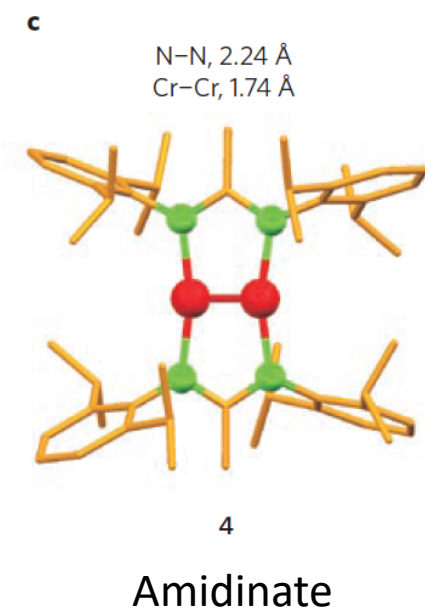
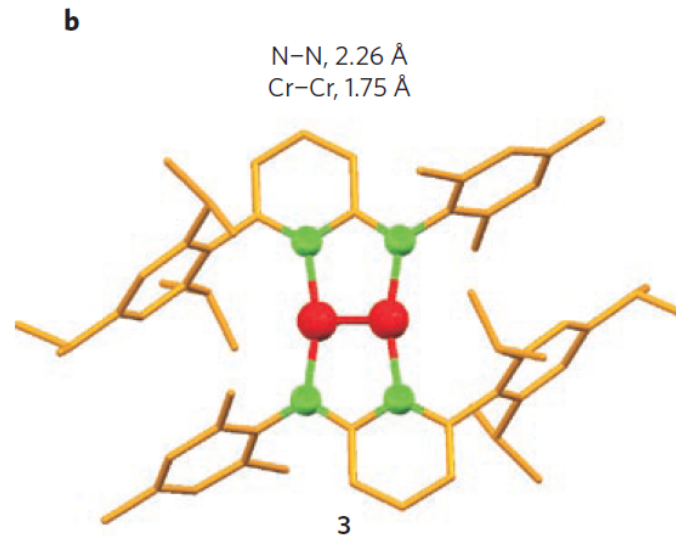
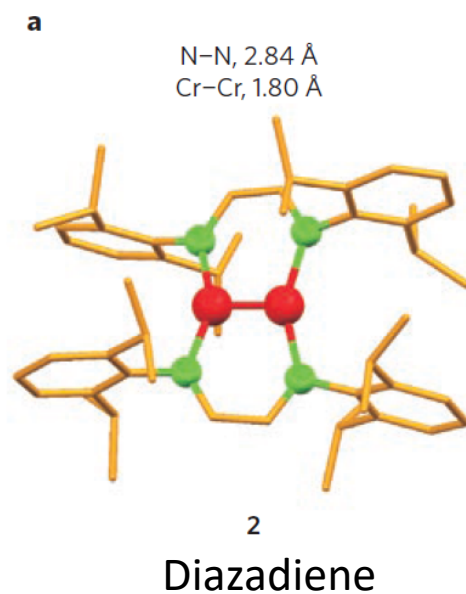
FSR = 0.733

the FSR of dinitrogen is 0.786



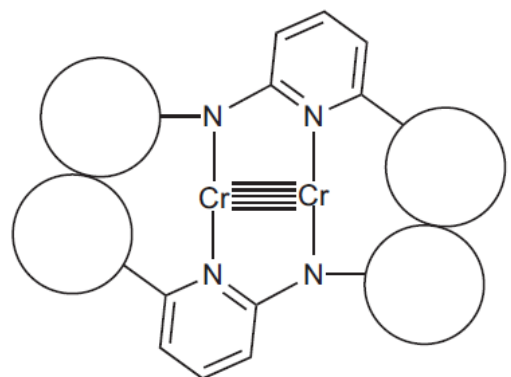
Quintuple Cr-Cr Bonding

The Hein–Cotton concept
three-atom bridging ligands to establish short metal–metal distances



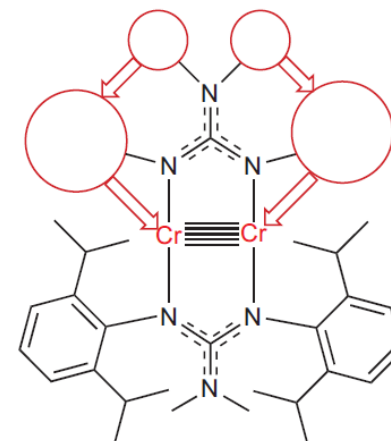
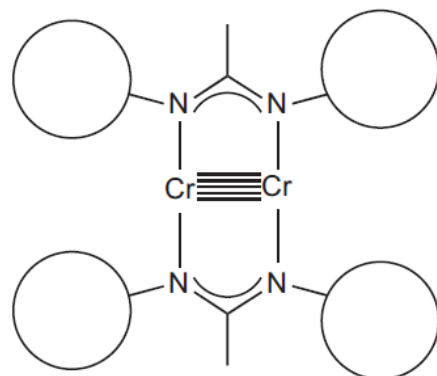
Importance of the ligand in establishing short metal–metal bonds:
The N–N distances correlate with the Cr–Cr bond lengths

The Shortest M–M Bond



a

Cr–Cr, 1.7293(12) Å

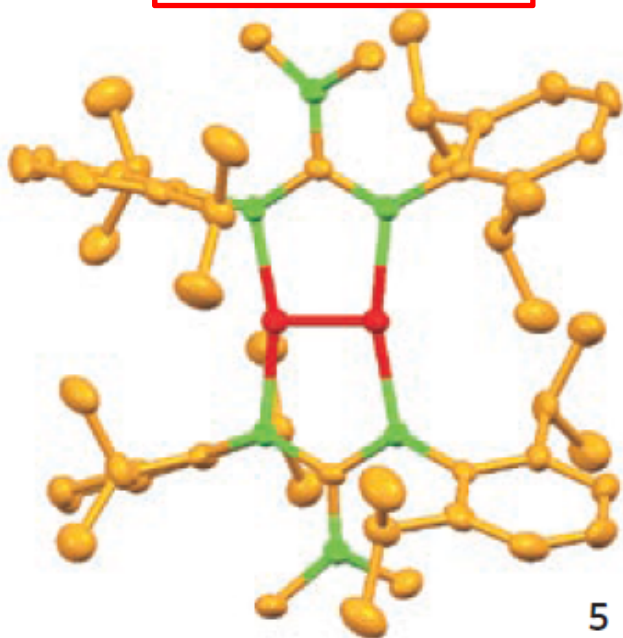


2009 Kempe

Steric pressure

a bulky substituent at the bridging carbon
a further reduced M–M distance

Guanidinate π system is delocalized and
planar

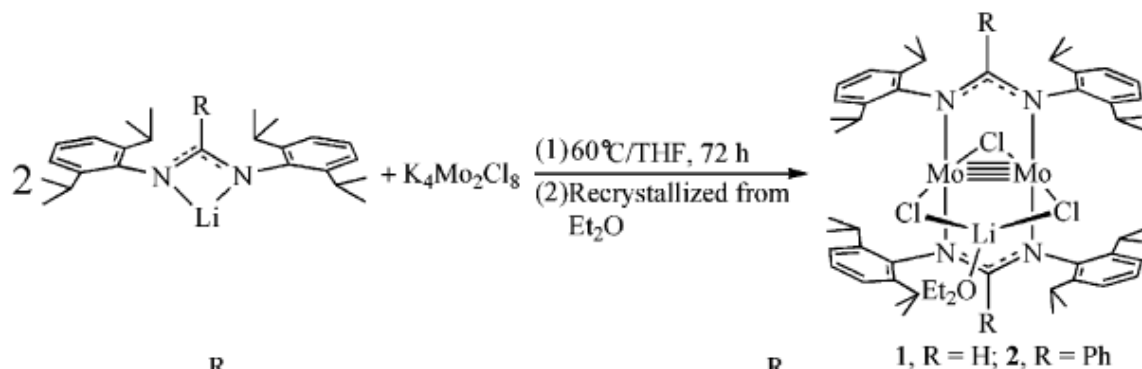


5

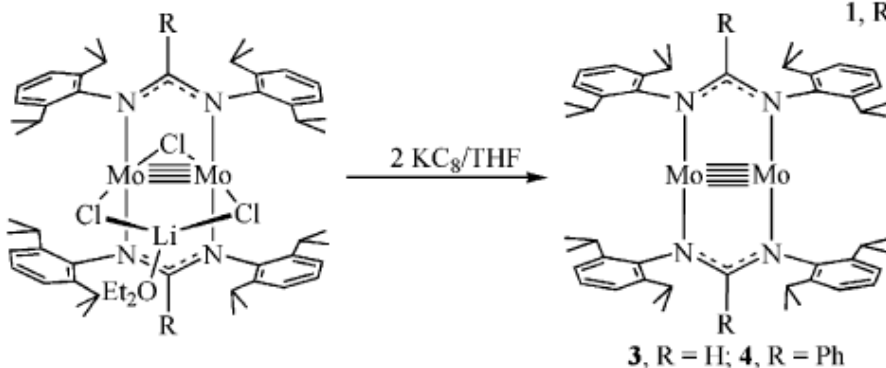


80

Quintuple Mo-Mo Bond



2009 Tsai
the first Mo-Mo
quintuple bond



diamagnetic

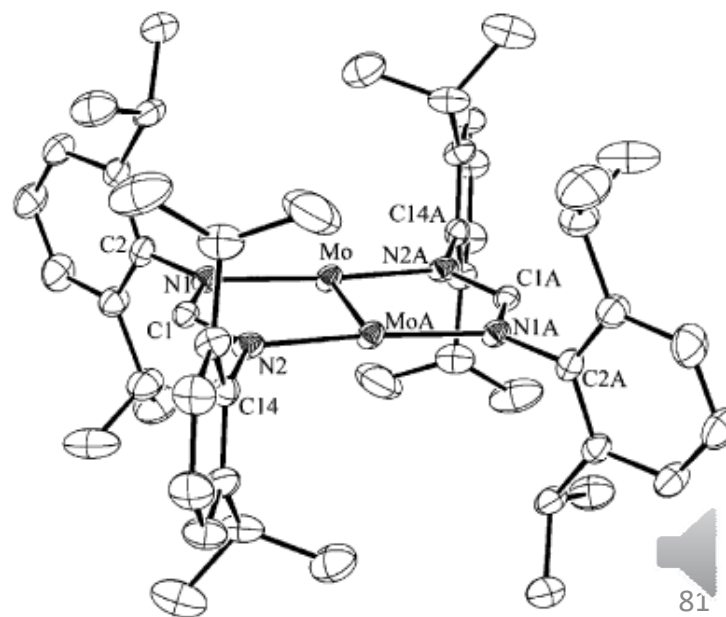
Mo-Mo quintuple bond lengths

3 - 2.0187(9) Å

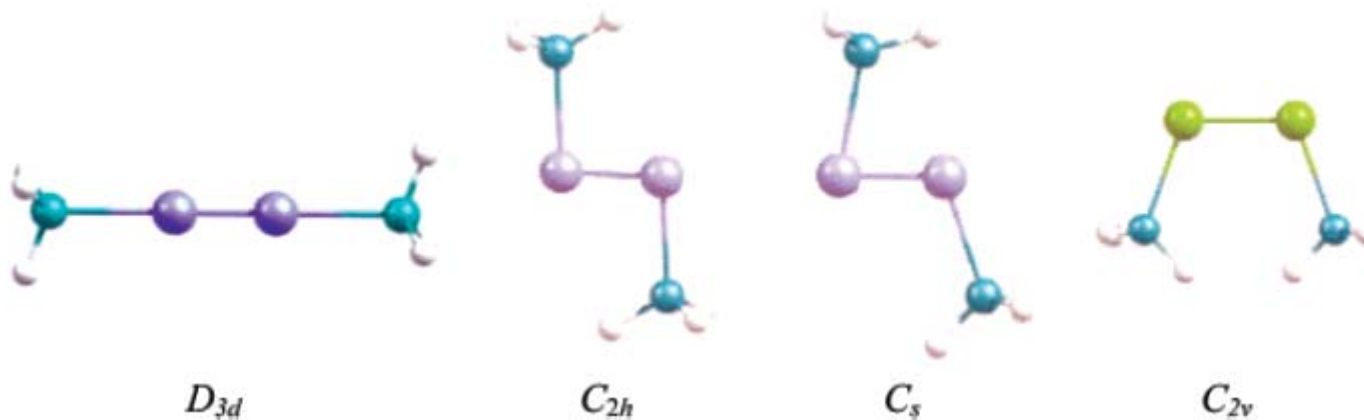
4 - 2.0157(4) Å

The shortest Mo-Mo quadruple bond

2.037(3) Å



Bonding in R-MM-R



R. Hoffmann - the potential energy surfaces of RMMR
R = H, F, Cl, Br, CN, and CH₃; M = Cr, Mo, and W

The potential energy surface is complex with several local minima

The linear geometry is always a minimum, but almost never the global minimum

A preference for either a **trans-bent** conformation or one of **the R groups bridging**

The potential energy surface is relatively flat

The lowest energy conformation - the best compromise between maximization of the MM bonding and minimization of orbital interactions that are MR antibonding

The MM quintuple bond persists



Sextuple Bonding in Gr6 M₂ Dimers

M₂ (M = Cr, Mo, W)

Matrix isolation

IR and UV spectroscopy

Short M-M distances

Singlet ground state

Laser-evaporated Cr₂ in the gas phase

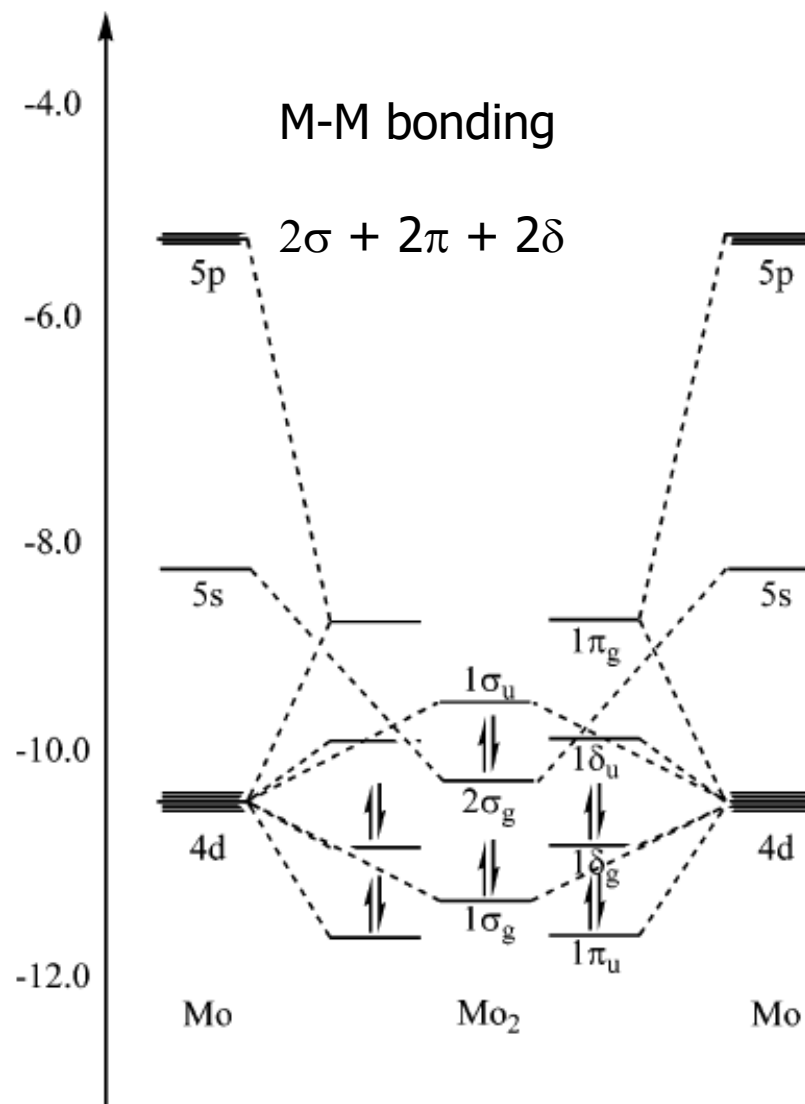
d(Cr-Cr) = 1.68 Å

Spectroscopic studies of Cr₂ generated from pulsed photolysis of Cr(CO)₆

d(Cr-Cr) = 1.71 Å

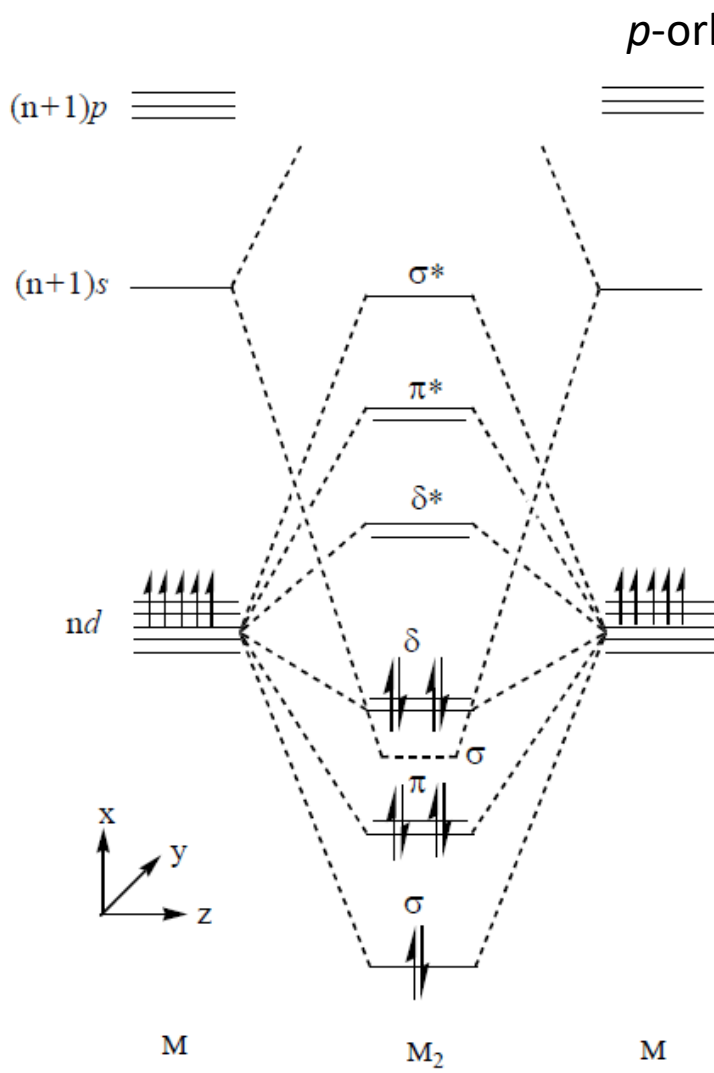
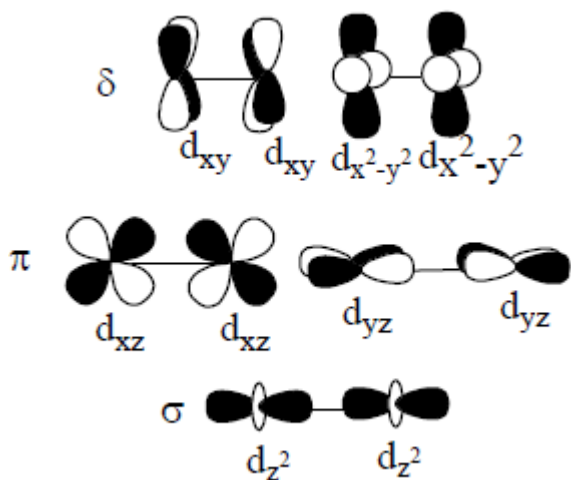
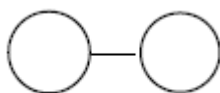
Mo-Mo molecule in the gas phase at low temperatures

d(Mo-Mo) = 1.93 Å



Sextuple Bonding in Gr6 M_2 Dimers

M_2 (M = Cr, Mo, W)



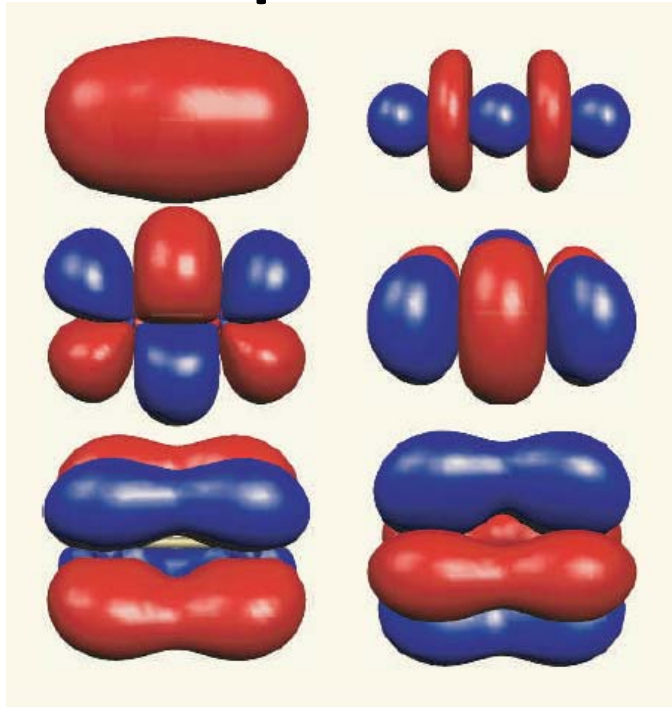
p -orbitals too high in energy

overlap **increases down** a group and can reach the bonding manifold

δ -bonds are weaker than π -bonds due to poor overlap between orbitals

M-M bonding energy increases down a group which is in contrast to the p -block

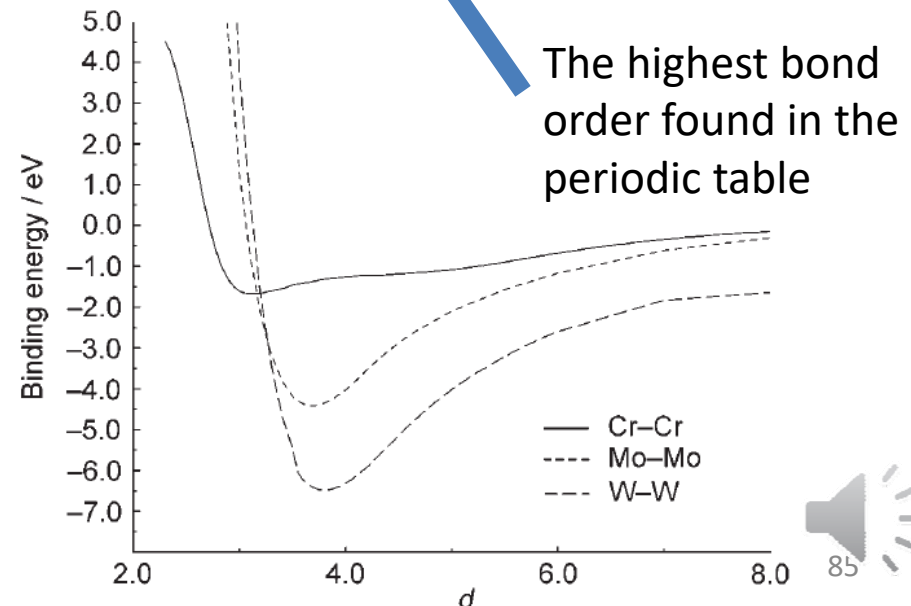
Sextuple Bonding in Gr6 M_2 Dimers



Cr_2 – poor delta bonding, 4 AF coupled electrons, larger 4s orbitals generate a considerably longer bond than the 3d-3d. This unbalance weakens the 3d bonds and makes the 4s bond repulsive at equilibrium geometry, the repulsive interaction between the closed 3p, which have about the same radial extension as 3d.

Effective bond order (EBO)
Dissociation energy (DE)

M	EBO	d(M-M), Å	DE, eV
Cr	3.5	1.66	1.65
Mo	5.2	1.95	4.4
W	5.2	2.01	5.4



85

Multiple Bonding

The bond energy only 1.65 eV for Cr₂ sextuple bond
but 3.17 eV for quintuple bond in [PhCrCrPh]
= no direct relation between bond order and bond energy, a complex quantity depends on many factors, such as atomic promotion energy, the interplay between attractive nuclear forces and electron repulsion, spin-orbit coupling-decreases the bond energy

Bond orders higher than 6?

Lanthanides – 4f orbitals?

Actinides – 5f orbitals participate in bonding

The EBO is always smaller than the maximum formal bond order (MBO = the number of electrons forming the bond divided by two)

Molecule	MBO	EBO	D ₀ [eV]
Cr ₂	6	3.5	1.6
[PhCrCrPh]	5	3.5	3.2
Ac ₂	3	1.7	1.2
Th ₂	4	3.7	3.3
Pa₂	5	4.5	4.0
U ₂	6	4.2	1.2



Multiple Bonding Trends In Groups

Main-Group Elements

Tendency to multiple bonding **decreases down the group**

$s + 3 \times p$ orbitals available

s/p size difference increases and propensity to hybridization decreases down the group

Transition Metals

Multiple bonding **increases down the group**

$s + 5 \times d$ orbitals available

Difference in size between the smaller nd and larger $(n+1)s$ orbitals decreases down the group

Relativistic effects contract s and p orbitals while d and f are expanded

The s and d orbitals in second- and especially third-row transition metals are more equal in size, this greater equivalency in size considerably enhances the bond strength



Dictionary of Used Terms

Potential well – potenciálová jáma

Stretching vibrations – valenční vibrace

Zero point energy – energie nulového bodu

Rate determining step – krok určující rychlost reakce

Polyhedral vertex/edge/face – vrchol/hrana/stěna polyedru

Parsimony – střídmost, šetrnost

Standard deviation – směrodatná odchylka

Close packed – nejtěsněji uspořádané