

# Persistent Covalency and Planarity in the $B_nAl_{6-n}^{2-}$ and $LiB_nAl_{6-n}^-$ ( $n = 0-6$ ) Cluster Ions

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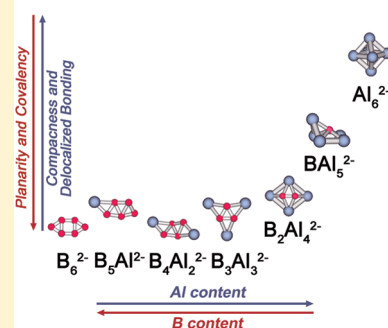
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Supporting Information

**ABSTRACT:** The chemical bonding being covalent, metallic, or mixed reflects in the structure and properties of solids. How does this play out on the small cluster scale? We report on the interplay between covalent and strongly delocalized bonding in the series of mixed boron–aluminum cluster ions,  $B_nAl_{6-n}^{2-}$  ( $n = 0-6$ ), and their lithium salts and show that covalent bonding is an extraordinarily resilient effect that governs the cluster shape more than the delocalized bonding does. The covalent bonding achieved only through the direct B–B interactions is persistent in the considered clusters down to the smallest concentrations of B atoms. As a result, clusters remain planar, and the quality of the delocalized bonding is unavoidably compromised. We explain this trend on the basis of the  $s-p$  hybridization of atomic orbitals affordable in the B versus Al atoms. The found effect may be general and not specific to the considered systems.

**SECTION:** Dynamics, Clusters, Excited States

## Covalency governs cluster shape



Covalent and metallic bonding in solids profoundly impacts their properties, which have been widely exploited by humankind since ancient times. More exotic types of chemical bonding in solids are also known, for example, mixed ionic-covalent bonding characteristic of certain ceramics and perovskites. The basic classification of materials according to the type of chemical bonding in them goes together with our intuition about their structure and properties. However, it is less understood how similar covalent-metallic bonding interplay manifests itself at the small cluster size. As modern technology evolves toward nano- and subnanoscales, it becomes increasingly important to have a qualitative understanding of the chemical bonding in clusters to have intuition about them and predict their properties and shapes, much as we are capable of doing for extended solids and surfaces.

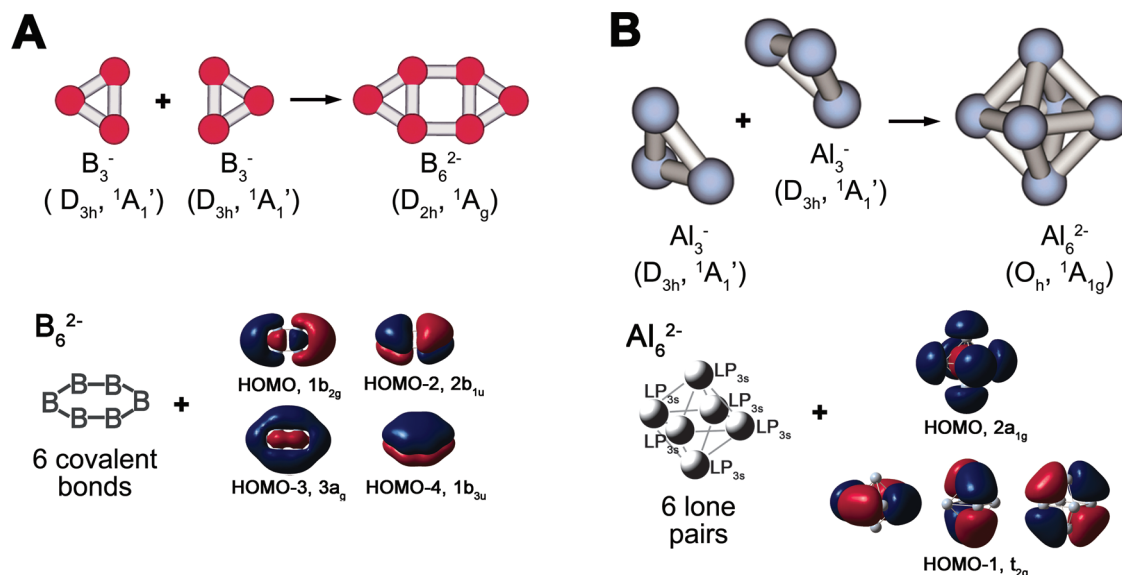
Recent theoretical and experimental discoveries have moved us closer to such understanding. Among a few successful examples are clusters of boron and aluminum.<sup>1-8</sup> Despite the apparent electronic structure similarity of B ( $[He]2s^22p^1$ ) and Al ( $[Ne]3s^23p^1$ ), their clusters adopt very different structures, except at the smallest cluster size of 1–5 atoms. Specifically, all-B clusters are planar,<sup>1-4</sup> whereas all-Al clusters are closed 3-D.<sup>5-8</sup> Consider the two species, the  $B_6^{2-}$  and  $Al_6^{2-}$  anions, observed experimentally in the form of lithium salts,  $LiB_6^{2-}$  and  $LiAl_6^{2-}$ .<sup>8</sup> In Figure 1, the global minimum forms of the  $B_6^{2-}$  and  $Al_6^{2-}$  ions are shown, along with the details of chemical bonding in them. Both clusters can be described as formed by two triangular units,  $B_3^-$  and  $Al_3^-$ . In the case of  $B_6^{2-}$  the two units bind in plane, forming a planar  $D_{2h}$  ( $^1A_g$ ) cluster, whereas for  $Al_6^{2-}$  the two units bind in 3-D forming an octahedron,  $O_h$  ( $^1A_1'$ ). Upon coordination of  $Li^+$ , the shapes and nature of the chemical bonding in the ions are preserved.

Detailed analysis of the chemical bonding in these clusters can be found in the literature,<sup>2,3,8</sup> and here we will present only a brief overview of these findings and strategically compare the two, thus posing the question to be answered. The reason for the observed structural difference is explainable on the basis of the affordability of  $s-p$  hybridization of atomic orbitals (AOs) in B versus Al. In B, the  $2s-2p$  energy separation is smaller, and the hybridization is more attainable. This hybridization is adopted to achieve  $2c-2e$  B–B covalent bonding. Indeed, the HOMO-9, HOMO-8, HOMO-7, HOMO-6, HOMO-5, and HOMO-1 in  $B_6^{2-}$  can be localized, as six covalent bonds along the periphery of the planar cluster. The rest of the chemical bonding in the system is realized through delocalized MOs (the HOMO, HOMO-2, HOMO-3, and HOMO-4), and the cluster was characterized as doubly antiaromatic ( $\sigma$  and  $\pi$ ) because of the population of the  $\pi$ - and  $\sigma$ -subsets of delocalized MOs by four electrons each (Figure 1A).<sup>6</sup>

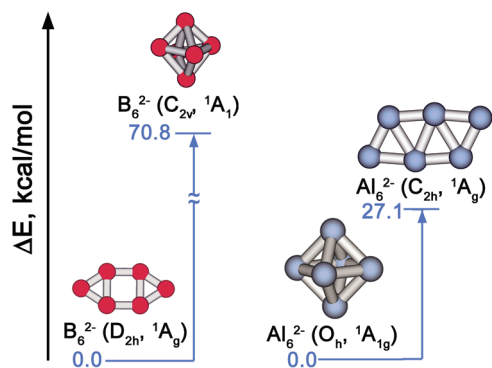
In Al, the larger nuclear charge favors the AOs of lower angular momentum, the  $3s-3p$  energy separation increases, and mixing is discouraged. As a result, in contrast with  $B_6^{2-}$ , no directional covalent bonding occurs in  $Al_6^{2-}$ . The HOMO-9, HOMO-8, HOMO-7, HOMO-6, HOMO-5, and HOMO-2 are simply combinations of nonoverlapping 3s AOs on Al atoms, whose net bonding effect in the cluster is zero. The entire bonding in  $Al_6^{2-}$  thus comes from the delocalized MOs: the HOMO and HOMO-1 (Figure 1B). Because of the population of these MOs, the system was previously characterized as 3-D aromatic.<sup>8</sup>

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**Figure 1.**  $B_6^{2-}$  (A) versus  $Al_6^{2-}$  (B): In the all-B cluster, six valence MOs are localizable as six  $2c-2e$  B–B bonds along the periphery of the cluster, and the rest of the MOs are shared by all atoms, that is, delocalized. In the all-Al cluster, six valence MOs are localizable as six  $3s$  lone pairs on Al atoms, and the rest of the MOs are delocalized. Both clusters can be seen as formed by two triatomic units, except that in  $Al_6^{2-}$  the units come together in 3-D to maximize the delocalized overlap, whereas in  $B_6^{2-}$  the units come in plane to allow for covalent bonding but compromise the delocalized bonding.



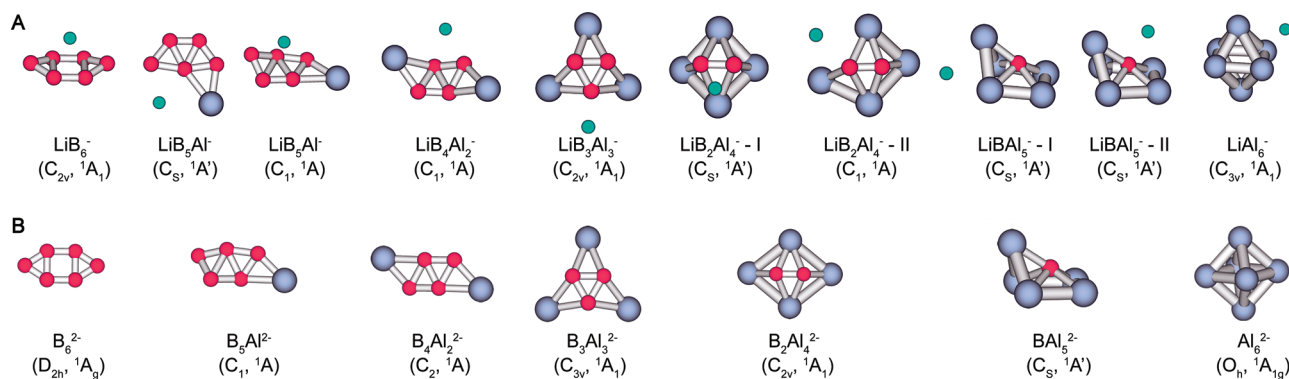
**Figure 2.** Relative energies of the planar and 3-D isomers of  $B_6^{2-}$  and  $Al_6^{2-}$  (B3LYP<sup>9–11</sup>/6-311+G\*<sup>12,13</sup> level), illustrating how covalent bonding is favored in 2-D structures, whereas delocalized overlap is favored in 3-D.

Notice that when  $Al_6^{2-}$  adopts a 3-D structure, the overlap of completely delocalized MOs of the two  $Al_3^{2-}$  units is more extensive and constructive. If a planar structure is formed, then this delocalized overlap is compromised. This is illustrated by the energy difference between the 3-D global minimum and the planar  $C_{2h}$  structure of  $Al_6^{2-}$ , which is 27.1 kcal/mol. (The  $D_{2h}$  structure analogous to that of  $B_6^{2-}$  is not a minimum for  $Al_6^{2-}$ .) Even though the delocalized overlap is suboptimal in 2-D, the planar structure is still adopted in  $B_6^{2-}$ . The reason is that the covalency achievable in 2-D more than compensates for the deficiency in delocalized bonding. The compact  $C_{2v}$  structure of  $B_6^{2-}$  lays 70.8 kcal/mol higher in energy than the planar global minimum, as shown in Figure 2. (The  $O_h$  structure is a saddle point for  $B_6^{2-}$ .)

Putting it all together, covalent bonding is attainable in 2-D structures, whereas no covalent bonding can be achieved in 3-D; at the same time, delocalized overlap is favored in 3-D, and sub-optimal in 2-D. Hence, what becomes clear is that covalent and

delocalized bonding are opposite effects in governing cluster shapes. Which of the two chemical bonding effects is qualitatively more significant? In other words, how much of an impact on cluster shape and properties can one expect from each of them for a particular cluster composition? Understanding this would turn delocalization and covalency into rational cluster design tools. Let us now set covalency and delocalized bonding against each other using a specific cluster series,  $B_nAl_{6-n}^{2-}$  and  $LiB_nAl_{6-n}^{2-}$  ( $n = 0-6$ ), as a model system. We probe how many doping Al atoms it would take for the delocalized bonding to be strong enough to override the preference for directional covalent bonding, that is, to switch from planar to globular 3-D structure of the ions.

The found global minimum structures of the doubly charged ions and their Li salts are shown in Figure 3. These structures were found via our in-house ab initio gradient embedded genetic algorithm code (GEGA)<sup>19,20</sup> (Theoretical Methods section), and separate searches were performed for singlets and triplets. All lowest-energy isomers of these species are singlets, and the triplets are significantly higher in energy. The studied doubly charged ions are unstable against the ejection of an electron, just like the parent  $B_6^{2-}$  and  $Al_6^{2-}$  ions (the phenomenon well known in the chemistry of cluster ions<sup>1,21</sup>). However, the Li salts are stable. The first vertical electron detachment energies, corresponding to the removal of an electron from the HOMO range from 2.54 to 4.08 eV, as calculated at the MP2/6-311+G(2df) level of theory. Salts of  $B_6^{2-}$  and  $Al_6^{2-}$  have been observed experimentally, and our results suggest that all salts in the considered series are also obtainable at least in the gas phase. The charge distribution in the salts is such that Li holds the charge of +0.5 to +0.7, that is, mostly transfers an electron to the cluster ion and binds to it ionically (Table 1). An additional observation can be made that the structures of the isolated ions and the ions inside the Li salts are very similar. Hence, the following discussion is focused on the chemical bonding in the stand-alone doubly charged ions, which are apparently perturbed little by the presence of  $Li^+$ .



**Figure 3.** Global minima and lowest energy isomers of the  $\text{LiB}_n\text{Al}_{6-n}^-$  ionic salts (A) and the  $\text{B}_n\text{Al}_{6-n}^{2-}$  ions (B) found with GEGA and refined at the MP2/6-311+G\* level of theory. In cases where two isomers of the same species are shown, their energy difference was found to be insignificant across theoretical methods. The known all-B and all-Al ions are shown for completeness. Color scheme: red, B; purple, Al; green, Li. The geometries of the anions are mostly unchanged upon coordination of the metal.

**Table 1.** Natural Bond Order (NBO)<sup>14–18</sup>//B3LYP/6-311+G\* Average Charges on Atoms of the Same Type, Averaged B–B Distances, and Averaged Populations of the 2s AO on B and 3s AO on Al in the  $\text{LiB}_n\text{Al}_{6-n}^-$  Salts

species	Q(Li)	Q(B) <sub>av</sub>	Q(Al) <sub>av</sub>	R(B–B) <sub>av</sub> , Å	Pop(2s AO) <sub>B</sub> <sup>a</sup>	Pop(3s AO) <sub>Al</sub> <sup>a</sup>
$\text{LiB}_6^-$ ( $C_{2v}$ , $^1A_1$ )	+0.700	−0.283	n/a	1.566	0.90	n/a
$\text{LiB}_5\text{Al}^-$ ( $C_s$ , $^1A'$ )	+0.500	−0.169	+0.343	1.669	1.03	1.55
$\text{LiB}_5\text{Al}^-$ ( $C_1$ , $^1A$ )	+0.677	−0.200	+0.321	1.619	0.94	1.65
$\text{LiB}_4\text{Al}_2^-$ ( $C_1$ , $^1A$ )	+0.739	−0.346	+0.324	1.621	0.99	1.64
$\text{LiB}_3\text{Al}_3^-$ ( $C_{3v}$ , $^1A_1$ )	+0.471	−0.920	+0.763	1.643	1.04	1.58
$\text{LiB}_2\text{Al}_4^-$ ( $C_{3v}$ , $^1A_1$ ) – I	+0.715	−1.797	+0.720	1.576	1.14	1.44
$\text{LiB}_2\text{Al}_4^-$ ( $C_1$ , $^1A$ ) – II	+0.456	−1.645	+0.709	1.608	1.15	1.56
$\text{LiBAI}_5^-$ ( $C_{3v}$ , $^1A'$ ) – I	+0.448	−2.988	+0.508	n/a	1.33	1.44
$\text{LiBAI}_5^-$ ( $C_s$ , $^1A'$ ) – II	+0.669	−2.835	+0.433	n/a	1.38	1.50
$\text{LiAl}_6^-$ ( $C_{3v}$ , $^1A_1$ )	+0.380	n/a	−0.230	n/a	n/a	1.43

<sup>a</sup> Natural population of the s AOs serves as a qualitative metric on the s–p hybridization, even though in reality the picture is more complicated because of intracuster charge transfer.

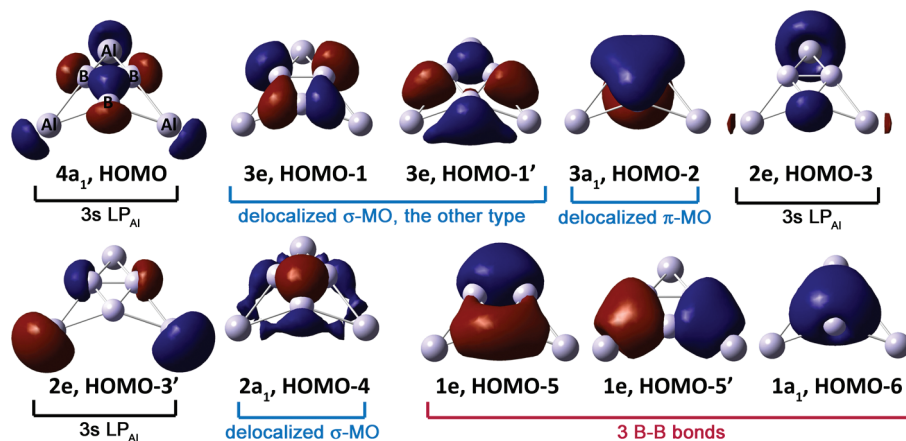
From Figure 3, one may clearly see a gradual progression from planar to 3-D structures as the number of Al atoms in the clusters increases. However, the onset of this structural change is late in the series: only as the content of Al atoms reaches four in the six-atomic cluster ion does the structure become 3-D. Al–Al bonding is completely discouraged before then. It is also worth remarking that DFT calculations predict the  $\text{B}_2\text{Al}_4^{2-}$  ion to be still planar and the 2-D to 3-D transition to happen only at  $\text{BAI}_5^{2-}$ , whereas at MP2<sup>41–43</sup> and CCSD(T)<sup>44–49</sup> levels the transition does happen at  $\text{B}_2\text{Al}_4^{2-}$ . In all clusters containing two or more B atoms, short covalent B–B bonds are formed, as predicted by the NBO analysis. This fact is illustrated by consistently short (ca. 1.6 Å) averaged interatomic B–B distances in all species (Table 1).

The global minimum structure of  $\text{B}_5\text{Al}^{2-}$ , stand-alone and inside the  $\text{LiB}_5\text{Al}^-$  salt, is planar. It contains the known  $\text{B}_5$  unit (approximately  $C_{2v}$  in symmetry).<sup>1</sup> The Al atom is bound to the  $\text{B}_5$ -unit in plane, and in the salt, there are two isoenergetic isomers that differ in the position of Al. Al donates a total of 0.3 electrons to the  $\text{B}_5$  unit (Table 1) and forms a weak ionic bond to it. No directional bonding between the B-core and Al can be detected. From the molecular orbital (MO) picture (Figure 1S in the Supporting Information), it can be seen that the mixing between AOs on Al and MOs on the  $\text{B}_5$  unit exists, but it is minimal. The species are remarkably similar to low-lying isomers

of  $\text{B}_6^{2-}$  although structurally frustrated. In this cluster, covalency inherent for B completely dictates the shape.

The  $\text{B}_4\text{Al}_2^{2-}$  ion is very similar to  $\text{B}_5\text{Al}^{2-}$ : it is also planar, with two Al atoms coordinated in plane to the known  $\text{B}_4$  unit.<sup>1</sup> The Al atoms are located in the cluster as far apart from one another as possible. The total amount of charge transfer from Al atoms to the B-core (0.6 electrons) is double that in  $\text{B}_5\text{Al}^{2-}$ , again illustrating the similarity between these species. Planarity and covalency so far persist.

The  $\text{B}_3\text{Al}_3^{2-}$  ion, containing an equal number of B and Al atoms, is in a way the most remarkable in the series. It has a  $\text{B}_3$  triangular core, which is a very prominent, covalently bound motif in B clusters.<sup>1</sup> The Al atoms are bound to its periphery largely ionically, with a significant Al–B charge transfer. There is no Al–Al bonding; furthermore, Al atoms coulombically repulse each other. The structure overall is quasi-planar, guided by the covalent  $\text{B}_3$  core. Why is it that charge transfer from Al to  $\text{B}_3$  preferred over Al–Al bonding? The reason for this preference is in the relative electronegativities of the two elements and the electronic structure of the  $\text{B}_3$  core (Figure 4). The HOMO-6 and HOMO-5 are MOs that are localizable as 2c–2e covalent B–B bonds, as in the  $\text{B}_3^-$  cluster previously reported.<sup>22</sup> The HOMO-2 is a  $\pi$ -MO. Populated by two electrons, it makes the cluster obey the  $(4n + 2)$  Hückel's rule, and the cluster thus possesses



**Figure 4.** Valence MOs of the  $\text{Al}_3\text{B}_3^{2-}$  ion. The primary contributions to each MO are shown as a qualitative description because some mixing within MOs of the same symmetry always occurs. A delocalized  $\sigma$ -MO of “the other type” is filled in  $\text{B}_3$  within this cluster because of charge transfer from Al. All atoms are depicted schematically without designated colors or radii.

$\pi$ -aromaticity in the  $\text{B}_3$  unit, just like the isolated  $\text{B}_3^{2-}$ .<sup>22</sup> The HOMO-4 is a completely bonding and fully delocalized MO of the  $\sigma$ -character. It is formed by the  $2s-2p$  hybrids on B atoms pointing into the center of the cluster. Because of this MO, the cluster is also  $\sigma$ -aromatic. There is one more doubly degenerate MO that is mainly formed by AOs on B: the HOMO-1. This MO is formed by the B AOs that lay in the plane of the cluster and are orthogonal to those forming the HOMO-4. Their overlap happens on the periphery of the  $\text{B}_3$  core. The overlap achieved in the HOMO-1 is the most bonding for this type of AOs because of the symmetry of the cluster. Therefore, the charge transfer from Al allows for this new type of  $\sigma$ -bonding in  $\text{B}_3$  to be fulfilled, and it is apparently preferred over Al–Al bonding. It is clear that the structure of  $\text{Al}_3\text{B}_3^{2-}$  allows for both covalent bonding and significant delocalized bonding within  $\text{B}_3$ . The covalent B–B bonds bring the B atoms closer, and that makes the overlap of all kinds of B AOs more constructive. For this reason, delocalized bonding between B atoms also appears to be stronger than what could be achieved between Al atoms. This is how covalency fights solely delocalized bonding with a double-edged sword, wins, and thus constitutes a more significant bonding effect.

In  $\text{B}_2\text{Al}_4^{2-}$ , the two B atoms form a short bond, and the Al atoms are scattered around the B–B core. At the B3LYP/6-311+G\* level of theory, there is no bonding between Al atoms, and the cluster is planar. However, at MP2/6-311+G\* and CCSD-(T)/6-311+G\*, Al–Al bonding develops, together with the transition of the geometry from 2-D to 3-D. The cluster then consists of the B–B diatomic and the square  $\text{Al}_4$  unit. At this cluster composition, the balance between covalent bonding and optimal delocalized bonding (achievable in 3-D) is achieved.

Finally,  $\text{BAl}_5^{2-}$  has a 3-D structure, with prominent Al–Al bonding. In Tables 1S–5S (Supporting Information), selected molecular properties of the species shown in Figure 3 are presented and compared across theoretical methods.

The natural electronic configurations partially reported in Table 1 show the hybridization of AOs, reflected in the degree of covalency affordable in an atom. In all clusters, B atoms exhibit a strong  $2s-2p$  mixing, with a significantly reduced  $2s$  population. Al atoms within the studied clusters exhibit smaller  $3s-3p$  mixing and greater  $3s$  population. This is the origin of the structural preferences that B and Al clusters adopt.

The fact that planar structures persist in the considered cluster series demonstrates that covalency, which is associated with

planarity, is an electronic effect largely governing the structure. Stand-alone covalent bonds are strong, and when there is chance to form them in a cluster, it likely will happen. However, additionally, covalency welcomes delocalized bonding that develops on the covalent skeleton (on the B-core, in our case), because covalent bonds bring atoms closer together, and the delocalized overlap of AOs also becomes more constructive. This is illustrated by the significant charge transfer to the B-core within all considered ions (Table 1), which leads to new types of delocalized bonding within the covalent B-core, at the expense of delocalized bonding over the entire cluster possible in 3-D. Therefore, covalent bonding is a strong effect capable of overriding the optimal delocalized overlap through a complicated two-sided mechanism. As an illustration of stronger bonding due to covalency, it is worth mentioning that for the doubly charged ions the cluster binding energy per atom increases linearly with the B content, with  $R^2 = 0.99$  (Table 6S of the Supporting Information). This relative strength of covalent and delocalized bonding effects is most likely general in clusters and important to keep in mind in the design of cluster of desired shapes and properties.

## THEORETICAL METHODS

An automated extensive search for the global minima was performed for all discussed clusters, except for  $\text{B}_6^{2-}$ ,  $\text{B}_6\text{Li}^-$ ,  $\text{Al}_6^{2-}$ , and  $\text{Al}_6\text{Li}^-$ , whose structures were known from the literature. The searches were done with our in-house ab initio gradient embedded genetic algorithm (GEGA)<sup>19,20</sup> program at the B3LYP/3-21G level of theory. Separate searches were performed for singlets and triplets. For every structure, three independent runs of the GEGA search were performed. Details of the algorithm can be found elsewhere.<sup>19,20</sup> The population size was 30, and the convergence was considered to be sufficient when the current most stable structure was the same for 20 consecutive iterations. From our experience, GEGA performs exceptionally well for finding the global minima of clusters, as was confirmed in numerous joint theoretical and experimental spectroscopic studies.<sup>1,22–40</sup> The lowest energy isomers found to be within 15 kcal/mol from the global minimum were retained for further consideration. Their geometries and vibrational frequencies were refined at the B3LYP/6-311+G\*, MP2/6-311+G\*, and

CCSD(T)<sup>44–50</sup>/6-311+G\* levels of theory. For all global minima, the vertical electron detachment energies were calculated with MP2/6-311+G(2df)//MP2/6-311+G\*. The analysis of chemical bonding was done with NBO at the B3LYP/6-311+G\* level and MO analysis was done at the HF/3-21G level. In addition, single-point energy calculations at CASSCF(*n*, *m*)<sup>51–56</sup>/6-311+G\* (*n* = 4–6, *m* = 4–6) were carried out for the MP2 geometries to check the validity of the single determinant methods. It was confirmed that all considered species have unequivocally single configuration wave functions, and hence the single reference methods should be reliable. Gaussian 09<sup>57</sup> was used for all calculations and MOLDEN<sup>58</sup> was used for visualization.

## ■ ASSOCIATED CONTENT

**S Supporting Information.** Molecular properties of the lowest-energy isomers calculated at different levels of theory, structures of competitive isomers, and MO diagrams, and the partial results of the NBO analysis for the doubly charged ions. This material is available free of charge via the Internet at <http://pubs.acs.org>.

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