BUILDING BRIDGES BETWEEN INORGANIC AND ORGANIC CHEMISTRY

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by

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R. B. Woodward, a supreme patterner of chaos, was one of my teachers. I dedicate this lecture to him, for it is our collaboration on orbital symmetry conservation, the electronic factors which govern the course of chemical reactions, which is recognized by half of the 1981 Nobel Prize in Chemistry. From Woodward I learned much: the significance of the experimental stimulus to theory, the craft of constructing explanations, the importance of aesthetics in science. I will try to show you how these characteristics of chemical theory may be applied to the construction of conceptual bridges between inorganic and organic chemistry.

FRAGMENTS

Chains, rings, substituents - those are the building blocks of the marvelous edifice of modern organic chemistry. Any hydrocarbon may be constructed on paper from methyl groups, CH₃, methylenes, CH₂, methynes, CH, and carbon atoms, C. By substitution and the introduction of heteroatoms all of the skeletons and functional groupings imaginable, from ethane to tetrodotoxin, may be obtained.

The last thirty years have witnessed a remarkable renaissance of inorganic chemistry, and the particular flowering of the field of transition metal organometallic chemistry. Scheme 1 shows a selection of some of the simpler creations of the laboratory in this rich and ever-growing field.

Structures 1-3 illustrate at a glance one remarkable feature of transition metal fragments. Here are three iron tricarbonyl complexes of organic moieties - cyclobutadiene, trimethylenemethane, an enol, hydroxybutadiene - which on their own would have little kinetic or thermodynamic stability. Yet complexed to Fe(CO)₃, these molecules are relatively stable, they exist in a bottle. The inorganic fragment is not merely a weakly attached innocent bystander. It transforms essentially and strongly the bonding relationships in the molecule.

Structures 4-6 contain the ubiquitous cyclopentadienyl (Cp) ligand, two of them in the archetypical ferrocene, one in CpMn(CO)₃, two bent back in Cp₂Ti(CO)₂. Structures 7-9 introduce us to the simplest representatives of the burgeoning class of clusters-assemblages of two or more metal atoms embellished with external ligands.
If we seek order, unity, a way of thinking about these complexes it is not difficult to perceive that the molecules contain as building blocks transition metal-ligand fragments, MLₙ, such as M(CO)₅, M(CO)₄, M(CO)₃, MCp. It must be said immediately that there is nothing special about the carbonyl ligand. It is merely a representative and common component of organometallic complexes. Phosphines, olefins, alkyls will do as well.

To reconstruct the complexes 1-9, we need to know the electronic structure of the fragments. For the simple qualitative picture of the bonding in these molecules that we seek, we do not need to know every last detail of the electronic structure of each molecule. It will suffice that we know the frontier orbitals of the fragments - the higher occupied and the lower unoccupied levels - in other words the valence active orbitals of each fragment. It is K. Fukui who taught us the importance of the frontier orbitals. We shall soon see that it is the resemblance of the frontier orbitals of inorganic and organic moieties that will provide the bridge that we seek between the subfields of our science.

Over the last eight years my coworkers and I have built up a library of the orbitals of MLₙ fragments. (l-3) We have done so using entirely qualitative, approximate molecular orbital calculations of the extended Hückel type (a procedure for its time, developed with another of my teachers, W. N. Lipscomb) and symmetry arguments (the value of which I first learned from still another of my teachers, M. P. Gouterman). Molecular orbital theory, R. S. Mulliken’s great contribution to chemistry, is fundamental to our approach, be it in the construction of the very orbitals of the fragments, their changes on molecular deformations, or the interaction of several such fragments to restore
the composite molecule. Yet when I seek the simplest of all possible ways to tell you of the orbitals of these fragments, I am led back to the valence bond picture introduced into chemistry by L. Pauling. (4)

Let us go back to the building blocks. The common fragments ML

\[ \text{ML}_n, 10-13, \]

may be viewed in many ways. One convenient approach is to see them as pieces of an octahedron. This is quite analogous to perceiving CH

\[ \text{CH}_n, \text{CH}_2, \text{and CH}_3 \]
in a tetrahedron. If not a unique viewpoint, it is a useful one. Given that we have an octahedron, or pieces thereof, let us prepare the metal atom for octahedral bonding, and then bring in the appropriate number of ligands.

The valence orbitals of the transition metals are nd, (n+1)s and (n+1)p, with n=3, 4, 5. To prepare the metal atom for bonding we must form six equivalent octahedral hybrids. This is accomplished, 14, by using all of the s and p functions and two of the d’s. Three d functions, d_xz, d_yz, and d_{yz}, are left unhybridized. They may be described, and we will do so often, as the t_{2g} set of the crystal field, ligand field, or molecular orbital theories of an octahedral complex. (5)

To form an octahedral complex we would bring in six ligands to make use of the six octahedral hybrids. Perhaps it is appropriate to digress here and make clear our ligand convention, which is to consider the ligand always as an even electron Lewis base. While acceptor character or Lewis acidity is a desirable feature in a ligand, Lewis basicity or donation is essential. We see the basicity in the lone pairs of CO, PH, and CH,15-17, in bidentate four-electron ligands, be they ethylenediamine 18, or butadiene 19, or in the electronically tridentate C,H, Cp20, the equivalent of three two-electron bases. (6)
Let six two-electron ligands approach the metal atom prepared for octahedral bonding, $21$. Sizable $\sigma$ overlaps lead to formation of strongly metal-ligand $\sigma$ bonding combinations, and their strongly metal-ligand $\sigma^*$ antibonding counterparts. The six electron pairs of the ligands enter the six bonding combinations. Any electrons the metal contributes enter the $t_{2g}$ orbital left behind.
Indeed, for Cr(CO)₆ with its 6 metal electrons we attain a nice closed shell configuration, a situation we have learned to associate with relative kinetic and thermodynamic stability in organic chemistry.

What if we have not six ligands coming in, but only five? This situation is depicted in 22. Five hybrids interact strongly, are removed from the frontier orbital region, just as all six were in 21. One hybrid, the one pointing toward where the ligands are not, remains roughly untouched, relatively low-lying in energy. The frontier orbitals, enclosed in a dashed box in 22, now contain the \( t_{2g} \) set plus one hybrid.

What if we have four ligands, ML₄ or three, ML₃? Much the same things happens. In ML₄ two hybrids are left behind, in ML₃, three. We have thus reached the simplest of all possible pictures of the electronic structure of the MLₙ fragments with N = 5, 4, 3, namely that given in 23-25.
fragment’s frontier orbitals consist of the descendants of an octahedral $t_2g$ set at relatively low energy, and above them 6-n (one for $n = 5$, two for $n = 4$, three for $n = 3$) hybrids pointing toward the missing octahedral vertices.

What remains is to decide how many electrons to place into these frontier orbitals, and here the ever-useful Mendeleev Table, modified in 26 for electron counting purposes, tells us that Fe in oxidation state zero will have eight electrons in Fe(CO)$_4$ or Fe(CO)$_3$ and so will Co(I), or Ni(II).

The reader had best beware. The account given here is simplified, as much as I dare simplify it. In that process, perforce, is lost the beautiful detail and complexity that makes Fe(CO)$_3$ different from FeCl$_3$$_{-}$. There is a time for detail and there is a time for generality. The reader of my papers will know that I and my coworkers do not stint on detail, whether it is in explication or in perusal of the literature. But the time now, here, is for building conceptual frameworks and so similarity and unity take temporary precedence over difference and diversity.

Recall that the reason for building up the frontier orbitals of inorganic fragments is that we wish to use these orbitals in the construction of organometallic and inorganic complexes. We are now ready for that task. For instance, if we want trimethylenemethane iron tricarbonyl we construct a molecular orbital interaction diagram, 27. On one side are the newly learned orbitals of Fe(CO)$_3$, on the other side the older, better known frontier orbitals of C(CH$_3$)$_3$. We interact the two, using the full armament of group theory and perturbation theory (7) to follow what happens.

I will not trace this argument any further, for the primary purpose of this lecture is not the description of the electronic structure of organometallic complexes. My coworkers and I have done this comprehensively elsewhere. (1, 8) Instead, I wish to describe a bridge between organic and inorganic chemistry that becomes possible the moment we gain knowledge of the orbitals of the ML$_n$ fragments.
THE ISOLOBAL ANALOGY

Consider the d’fragment, Mn(CO)$_3$(or CO(CN)$_3$). Above three lone pairs in the $t_2$ set this doublet molecule has a single electron in a hybrid pointing away from the ML$_5$. The similarity to CH$_3$, the methyl radical, is obvious, 28.
The drawing 28 is, of course, schematic. In Figure 1 I show the \( \alpha \) orbitals of \( \text{MnH}_5^- \) and \( \text{CH}_3 \), so as to provide a more realistic comparison.

If \( \text{d}'\text{ML}_3 \) is like \( \text{CH}_3 \) then they should both behave similarly. Let us think about what a methyl radical does. It dimerizes to ethane and starts radical chains. \( \text{Mn(CO)}_5 \) or \( \text{CO(CN)}_5^- \) do similar things. They dimerize to \( \text{Mn}_2(\text{CO})_{10} \) or \( \text{Co}_2(\text{CN})_{10}^{5-} \) and there is a rich radical-type chemistry of each. (9) One can even codimerize the organic and inorganic fragments to give \( \text{(CO)}_5\text{MnCH}_3 \). That may not be the preferred way to make this quite normal organometallic alkyl complex in the laboratory, but the construction on paper is quite permissible.

![Figure 1. Contour diagram of the isolobal \( \alpha \) orbitals of \( \text{MnH}_5^- \) (left) and \( \text{CH}_3 \) (right), as computed by the extended Hückel method. The contours of \( \psi \), plotted in a plane passing through Mn and three H's (left) and C and one H (right), are ±0.2, ±0.1, ±0.55, ±0.25, ±0.1.](image-url)

\( \text{CH}_3 \) and \( \text{d}'\text{ML}_3 \) resemble each other. Another way we can see that resemblance, traceable to their singly occupied \( \alpha \) orbitals, is to compare the overlap of both orbitals with a probe ligand, let us say a hydrogen. This is done in Figure 2. Note the remarkable parallelism of the two overlaps. The H-CH\(_3\) overlap is everywhere smaller than the H-MnL\(_3\) overlap, but the dependence of both on the distance is quite similar.
A word is needed to describe the resemblance of the two fragments, \( \text{CH}_3 \) and \( d^7 \text{ML}_5 \). They are certainly not isostructural, nor are they isoelectronic. However, both possess a frontier orbital which looks approximately the same for the two fragments. We will call two fragments *isolobal* if the number, symmetry properties, approximate energy and shape of the frontier orbitals and the number of electrons in them are similar—not identical, but similar.\(^{10}\) Thus \( \text{CH}_3 \) is isolobal with \( \text{Mn(CO)}_5 \). We will introduce a symbol for the isolobal relationship: a “two-headed” arrow with half an orbital below. Thus,

\[
\text{CH}_3 \rightarrow \text{Mn(CO)}_5
\]

Let's extend the definition a little.

1. If \( \text{Mn(CO)}_5 \) is isolobal with \( \text{CH}_3 \), so are \( \text{Tc(CO)}_5 \) and \( \text{Re(CO)}_5 \), as well as \( \text{Fe(CO)}_5 \). The shape of the \( s \) hybrid will vary slightly with different principal quantum number, but essentially it is only the \( d \)-electron count that matters.

Figure 2. Overlap integrals between the \( a_1 \) frontier orbital of \( \text{MnH}_5^- \) and \( \text{CH}_3 \), and a \( 1s \) orbital at a distance \( R \) from the Mn or C.
(2) If \( \text{Mn(CO)} \), is isolobal with \( \text{CH}_3 \), then \( \text{Cr(CO)} \), \( \text{Mo(CO)} \), or \( \text{W(CO)} \), are isolobal with \( \text{CH}_3^+ \), and \( \text{Fe(CO)} \), (square pyramidal!) is isolobal with \( \text{C H}_3^- \).

(3) If \( \text{Mn(CO)} \), is isolobal with \( \text{CH}_3 \), so are \( \text{Mn(PR}_3)_5 \), or \( \text{MnCl}_5 \), or any \( \text{d'}M\text{L}_5 \), species. And so is \( \text{CpFe(CO)} \), a ubiquitous fragment. The procedure here is to write \( \text{CpFe(CO)} \), as \( \text{CpFe}^+(\text{CO})_5 \), and to replace the \( \text{Cp} \) by its isolobal equivalent of three carbonyls, reaching \( \text{Fe(CO)}_5^+ \), isoelectronic with \( \text{Mn(CO)}_5 \).

Let us go on the \( \text{ML}_4 \) fragment. It is clear that a \( \text{d'}M\text{L}_4 \), e.g. \( \text{Fe(CO)}_4 \), is isolobal with a methylene or carbene, \( \text{CH}_2 \).

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{Fe(CO)}_4 & \rightleftharpoons \text{CH}_2 \\
\end{align*}
\]

As 30 reveals, both fragments have two electrons in delocalized \( a_1 \) and \( b_2 \), orbitals which are the equivalent of two localized hybrids. There are explicable differences in the ordering of the two combinations. (11) The different ordering has, however, no grave consequences - recall that we are not so much interested in the fragments themselves as in their bonding capabilities. The moment we interact \( \text{Fe(CO)}_4 \), or \( \text{CH}_2 \), with another ligand, the initial ordering of \( a_1 \) and \( b_2 \), becomes relatively unimportant since both are typically strongly involved in the bonding.

Dimerize, conceptually, the isolobal fragments \( \text{Fe(CO)}_4 \), and \( \text{CH}_2 \). One gets the known ethylene, 31, the carbene-iron tetracarbonyl complex, 32, derivatives of which are known, (12) and \( \text{Fe}_2(\text{CO})_8 \), 33. The last is an unstable molecule, so far observed only in a matrix. (13) We come here to a cautionary note on the isolobal analogy. The isolobal analogy carries one between organic and inorganic molecules of similar electronic structure. But there is no guarantee that the result of such an isolobal mapping \( \begin{array}{c}
31 \rightleftharpoons 33
\end{array} \) leads one to a molecule of great kinetic stability. It might, and it might not.
Lest the reader be concerned about this limitation of the analogy let me remind him or her of what happens as one proceeds from ethylene down Group IV. Si, Ge, Sn, Pb substitution leads to olefin analogues, but they are kinetically and thermodynamically so unstable that it has taken great effort to provide evidence for their fleeting existence.

\( \text{Fe}_2(\text{CO})_8 \), has \( \pi \) and \( \pi^* \) levels similar to those of ethylene. But the low energy of its \( \pi^* \) makes this molecule coordinatively unsaturated. It can, for instance, add another CO to reach the stable diiron enneacarbonyl. More interesting, as we will soon see, it is the strategy of stabilizing the unstable \( \text{Fe}_2(\text{CO})_8 \) by making a complex of it, just as is routinely done for unstable organic molecules 1-3.

\( \text{Fe}(\text{CO})_4, \text{Ru}(\text{CO})_4, \text{or Os}(\text{CO})_4 \), may be trimerized in various combinations with methylene, in 34-37. These cyclopropanes, ranging from all organic to all inorganic, are known. But note that when I show the “all-metallic” three-

\[
\text{Fe}_2(\text{CO})_8, \quad \text{Fe}(\text{CO})_4, \quad \text{Ru}(\text{CO})_4, \quad \text{Os}(\text{CO})_4
\]

membered ring I have to go to Os. It is well known that the ground state structure of \( \text{Fe}_3(\text{CO})_12 \) is 38, with two bridging carbonyls. (14) Another limitation of the isolobal analogy is exposed here: the unbridged Fe structure analogous to 37 is certainly not much higher in energy than 38, but nevertheless the lowest energy structure is bridged. Movement of some ligands (e.g. carbonyls, but not phosphines) in and out of bridging sites is an experimental reality, a facile process, for transition metal complexes, especially of the first transition series. Such easy terminal to bridging interconversions are rare in organic chemistry, with the exception of carbonium ions. Bridging in inorganic structures, when it does occur, does not cause a major perturbation in the nature of the frontier orbitals.
Consider next the d’ML₃ fragment, e.g. Co(CO)₃. This is isolobal with a carbyne CH, as 39 shows. Once again there are differences, though of no great significance, in the a₁ versus e energy ordering between the two fragments. Their similarity is revealed most strikingly by the existence of the entire series of mixed organic and inorganic tetrahedranes, 40-44. To be sure, 41 can be called a cyclopropenium complex and 42 a binuclear acetylene complex, but I do believe that something is gained in seeing the entire series as a progression of isolobal substitution.

The fundamentals of the isolobal analogy have now been exposed. Just how far reaching the relationships written down here
are will become clearer in a while. For the moment it is important to note that
the isolobal analogy is not solely the creation of my research group. In his
fruitful explorations of the reactivity of d’ square planar complexes J. Halpern
often made use of the similarity of such an ML_{4} entity to a carbene. (9a) He
did the same for d’ML_{5} and organic free radicals. (9b) L. F. Dahl, in a
beautiful series of structural studies of transition metal clusters, saw clearly
the relationship of the orbitals of an ML_{n} fragment to a chalcogen or pnicogen
atom, which of course are easily related to CR. (15,16) And most importantly,
K. Wade (17) and D. M. P. Mingos (18) independently developed a compre-
hensive and elegant picture of the electronic structure of transition metal
clusters by relating them to the polyhedral boron hydrides (which W. N.
Lipscomb and I studied - the circle closes!) It is a trivial step from BH to CH’.
All of these workers saw the essence of the isolobal analogy.

STRUCTURAL IMPLICATIONS OF THE ISOLOBAL ANALOGY

How quickly do the hands and mind of man provide us with the problem of
choice! The molecules I would need to illustrate the isolobal analogy at work
did not exist thirty years ago. Now they are around us, in superabundance. I
have made a selection, based in part on the ease with which these lovely
molecules illustrate the principles, in part on the ambiguous and ephemeral
basis of recent (1981) appearance in the literature.

One obvious use of the isolobal analogy is in the structural sense. The
analogy allows us to see the simple essence of seemingly complex structures. I
should like to show you some examples centering on the ML_{n} fragment.

Last summer there appeared a structure of the cluster HRe_{3}(CO)_{12}
Sn(CH_{3})_{2}, from the work of H. D. Kaesz and collaborators. (19) The unique
hydrogen was not located; presumably it bridges one Re-Re bond. If we remove
the hydrogen as a proton, a convention we have found useful, "we reach Re,
(CO)_{12}SnMe_{2}.45. Not a usual molecule, but the isolobal chain

\[
\text{Re(CO)_{4}} \leftrightarrow \text{Fe(CO)_{4}} \leftrightarrow \text{CR}_{2} \leftrightarrow \text{SnR}_{2}
\]

allows us immediately to see the very close similarity of this structure to the
previously known 46 (20) and 47 (21).
It is interesting to speculate when we might see the missing members of the series on the organic side, \((\text{CO})_4\text{Re(CH}_2)_3^+\) and \((\text{CH}_2)_4^{2+}\).

Two ML\(_4\) fragments united yield the forementioned unstable \(\text{Fe}_2(\text{CO})_6\) system, 48. It was hinted before that one should think of stabilizing this species by complexation. A pretty example is at hand, 49. (22) Two \(\text{Fe}_2(\text{CO})_6\) units are complexed by a tin atom! Note the pinning back of the equatorial carbonyls, analogous to the bending back of hydrogens in a transition metal complexed olefin. Alternatively, and interestingly, this is spiropentane.

Earlier in 1981, J. Lewis, B. F. G. Johnson and their collaborators published a synthesis and structure of \(\text{Os}_5(\text{CO})_{19}\). (23) The structure appears terribly complicated, 50, until one realizes it is really 51, a typical trigonal bipyramidal Os(CO)\(_5\) derivative, with two of the equatorial carbonyls substituted by olefins, or rather by the Os\(_2(\text{CO})_8\) analogues. The “olefin” orientation is just as it should be. (1k, o)
Another system isologal to ethylene and Fe₂(CO)₉ is the “mixed dimer” (CO)₄FeCH₂. Upon formally shifting an electron from the metal to the carbon, a bit of alchemy, one gets to a phosphido complex, 52:

The reason for this transformation sequence is that complexes of Mn(CO)₄ PR₂ have been made. P. Braunstein, D. Grandjean and coworkers have reported a remarkable set of structures, among them the three shown with their isologal analogues in 53-55. (24) In each structure we can see the obvious ethylene-like (CO)₄ MnPR₂ entity.

At the same time that these structures were published there appeared a structure of 56, synthesized in an entirely different way by R. J. Haines, N. D. C. T. Steen and R. B. English. (25) Unbridge the two semibridged carbonyls, do a bit more of electronic alchemy relating Mn-Pt to Fe-Rh, and the relationship to 55 becomes crystal clear.
Realizing that \( \text{Fe}(	ext{CO})_4 \) we see immediately that 57 is still another \( \text{Fe}_x(	ext{CO})_y \) analogue.

Thus, the W. A. Herrmann methylene complex, 58, is a two-thirds inorganic cyclopropane. (26)

There are a few more fascinating \( \text{Cp}_2 \text{Rh}_2(	ext{CO})_2 \) structures to be shown, but first we need to examine one extension of the isolobal concept.

**THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN ML\(_n\) AND ML\(_{n-2}\) FRAGMENTS**

Earlier in the discussion we looked at two octahedral fragments, ML\(_x\) and ML\(_y\) in which a pair of axial ligands remained. If we remove these ligands, 59, an interesting extension of the isolobal analogy emerges.
If the z axis is oriented along the direction of the vanishing ligands, then it is clear that the main result of this perturbation is that the metal d\_z^2 is lowered in energy. It returns from the metal-ligand σ antibonding manifold to become a non-bonding orbital, 60, 61. (1o, 3c)

The high-lying orbitals (one in ML\_5, two in ML\_4) remain. (27) The obvious relationships that emerge then are those between a d\^nML\_5 and a d\^n+2C\_2V or T-shaped ML\_3; and between d\^nC\_2VML\_4 and d\^n+2ML\_2. Or to put it explicitly in terms of the most common fragments, 62.
An obvious application is to olefin complexes; the similarity of \(\text{(CO)}_4\text{Fe} (\text{C}_2\text{H}_4)\) and \((\text{PR}_3)_2\text{Ni} (\text{C}_2\text{H}_4)\), and that of \(\text{(CO)}_5\text{Cr}(\text{C}_2\text{H}_4)\) and Zeise’s salt emerges directly. (10, x)

Returning to the \([\text{CpRh(CO)}]_2\) analogue of ethylene, we can now think about some other structures. First, it turns out that moving the carbonyls into the bridge does little to change the ethylene-like nature of the dirhodium fragment, 63. (11u)

Since \(\text{CH}_2\) it is possible to see in the compound of R. G. Bergman and coworkers, 64, (28) an analogue of W. A. Herrmann’s 58.

Essentially the same fragment, 63, reappears in the fantastic \([\text{Cp’Rh(CO)}]_4\) Pt structure of F. G. A. Stone and coworkers, 65, (29) \([\text{Cp’} = \eta^5 - \text{C}_3\text{Me}_3]\), and can be related to the \((\text{RC} = \text{CR})_2\text{Pt}\) structure earlier synthesized by the same group, 66. (30)
INTO THE $t_{2g}$ SHELL

It turns out that not only is $d^1$Co(CO)$_3$ isolobal with CH, but so is $d^5$CpW(CO)$_2$. To see how this comes about let us first relate the Cp complex to a simple ML$_n$.

As was shown earlier, Cr(CO)$_3^+$ is isolobal with CH$_3^+$. That is not a very productive analogy. So let us examine Cr(CO)$_3^+$ in more detail. The electronic structure of an ML$_5$ fragment was given earlier. It is repeated in more detail at left in 67. The ML$_5$-CH$_3$ analogy concentrates on the hybrid of $\sigma$(a$_1$) symmetry. But the $t_{2g}$ set, even if it is less “directional” than the hybrids, has extent in space and well-defined symmetry properties. In particular, two of the $t_{2g}$ orbitals are of $\pi$ pseudosymmetry, one of $\delta$. If, as we are forced to do by the electron deficiency, we extend our view at least to the $\pi$ component of the $t_{2g}$ set (dotted lines at right in 67), we see a clear relationship between d$^5$ML$_5$ and CH, just as there is between d$^7$ML$_5$ and CH$_3$.

A little further reflection will show that by using one half of the $\pi$ set of the $t_{2g}$ we can get a relationship between d$^6$ML$_5$ and CH$_2$. 

![Diagram of molecular structures and orbitals showing the relationship between $t_{2g}$ orbitals and CH, CH$_3$, and d$^5$ML$_5$.]
To summarize:

\[
\begin{align*}
 &d^7 M L_5 \quad \rightarrow \quad \text{CH}_3 \\
 &d^6 M L_5 \quad \rightarrow \quad \text{CH}_2 \\
 &d^5 M L_5 \quad \rightarrow \quad \text{CH}
\end{align*}
\]

or to put it another way

\[
\begin{align*}
 &d^6 M L_5 \quad \rightarrow \quad \text{CH}_3^+ \\
 &d^6 M L_5 \quad \rightarrow \quad \text{CH}_2 \\
 &d^6 M L_5 \quad \rightarrow \quad \text{CH}^-
\end{align*}
\]

This gives us another way of looking at things, a \textit{deprotonation analogy}. In what way is \text{CH}_3 like \text{CH}_2 or like \text{CH}? Let us draw out their orbitals schematically, including CH₄ for good measure, in 68.

Taking away a proton from each molecular fragment does not change its ability to function as a donor (though its quality or donor strength will be \textit{very} different). Each fragment, from CH₄ to C⁴⁻, is in principle an eight electron donor.

To recapitulate: the isolobal analogy is not a one-to-one mapping. A d'ML₅ fragment is isolobal with CH₃⁺ and CH₂⁻ and CH⁻. This is why the d' CpW(CO)₃ is isolobal with CH.
The isolobal analogy for low d-electron count metals has been exploited most notably in the work of F.G.A. Stone’s group at Bristol. Just four compounds from their many beautiful examples are shown in 69-72. (31)

![Chemistry 1981](image)

Since $d^6$ Cr(CO)$_2$ is isolobal with CH$_2$, 69 is cyclopropane. Since CpW(CO)$_2$ is isolobal with CR, 70 is cyclopropene. Both isomers 71 and 72 are related to (CO)$_3$Fe(cyclobutadiene), 1, or for that matter to the organic square pyramidal C$_5$H$_5^+$. (32)

**FROM INORGANIC TO ORGANIC CHEMISTRY**

The psychological direction of the isolobal analogy in general has been to make one feel more comfortable about the structures of complex inorganic molecules by relating them to known, presumably simpler, organic molecules. It is interesting to reverse this process and think about as yet unsynthesized organic structures related to known inorganic ones. The mapping from one realm of chemistry to the other must be accompanied by the warning already given: there is no guarantee that the “product” of an isolobal transformation is as stable, kinetically or thermodynamically, as the “reactant”. (33)

Fe(CO)$_3$ is isolobal with CH$^+$. Thus, 1 is related to C$_5$H$_5^+$, 73, (32) and the ubiquitous ferroles, 74, (34) are related to C$_6$R$_6^{2+}$, 75. (35) Another product of
the interaction of acetylenes with iron carbonyls is the flyoverbridge, 76, a binuclear ring-opened fulvene complex. The isolobal replacement carries over to 77. This is an unusual C\textsubscript{2}H\textsubscript{2}\textsuperscript{2+} of C\textsubscript{2} symmetry, a hypothetical doubly homoallylic cation. It is not a geometry one would normally have thought of for a heptafulvene dication, yet once reached by the isolobal mapping it appears to be geometrically reasonable. More such mappings await exploitation.

FROM ORGANIC REACTION MECHANISMS TO INORGANIC ONES

R. J. Puddephatt, C. F. H. Tipper and co-workers have discovered a remarkable rearrangement of a platinacyclobutane, 78, in which a carbon adjacent to the metal, with its substituents, exchanges in a very specific way with the carbon opposite the metal. The labelling experiment of C. P. Casey that shows this most directly is given in 79. How does this happen?
Kinetic evidence for a primary dissociative step to Cl,(py)Pt(CH$_2$)$_3$ exists. (37) Suppose the ML$_3$ fragment can distort from its original T shape to a C$_3$V geometry. Since d$^0$PtCl$_2$(py) is isolobal with CH$^+$ we can see a relationship to the cyclobutyl cation, 80.

This association immediately brings to mind the entire complex of speculations and facts surrounding the facile rearrangement of cyclobutyl cations through bicyclobutonium waypoints. (39) The motions likely to occur are shown in 81. Ligand loss is followed by geometric reorganization at the metal, approach to a “bicyclobutonium structure”, an itinerary around the periphery of a Jahn-Teller wheel through “cyclopropyl carbinyl” waypoints and exit through an isomeric “bicyclobutonium” structure. This is but one instance among many where the isolobal analogy is useful in moving between organic and inorganic reaction mechanisms.
BEYOND THE OCTAHEDRON

The octahedron was a most useful starting point for generating fragment frontier orbitals, thereby engendering the isolobal analogy. But the octahedral polytype is not unique for six-coordinate complexes, and higher coordination numbers are feasible. We seek another more far-ranging derivation and find one based on the eighteen electron rule.

An (unoriginal) justification of this rule goes as follows: Consider \( n \) ligands, \( n \leq 9 \), coming up to a metal with its 9 valence orbitals, 82. A little group theory shows that for the octahedron and most, but not quite all, coordination geometries the \( n \) ligand orbitals will find a match in number, symmetry properties and extent in space among the hybrid sets that can be formed from the nine metal orbitals. The exceptions are very well understood. (40) Given this match, \( n \) M-L \( \sigma \) bonding combinations will go down in energy, \( n \) M-L \( \sigma^* \) antibonding combinations will go up, and \( 9-n \) metal orbitals will remain relatively untouched, approximately non-bonding. The eighteen electron rule then is the statement: “Thou shalt not fill antibonding orbitals”. Filling bonding \( (n) \) + nonbonding \( (9-n) \) orbitals leads to 9 electron pairs or eighteen electrons.

This “proof” is trivial but not silly. Upon a little reflection it will lay bare the limitations of the eighteen electron rule on the left and right side of the transition series, for special symmetry cases, and for weak-field ligands.

Next remove a ligand, a base, from the 18 electron complex. A localized hole on the metal, a directional hybrid, is created. The electron pair leaves with the ligand, 83. To put it in another way, in some localized description of the
bonding, one M-L σ bond was formed by interaction of a ligand pair of electrons with a metal based hybrid. Reversing the process, breaking the bond, frees that hybrid.

A parallel analysis for main group elements leads to the octet rule, since only s and p are considered as valence orbitals. Hybrids are freed by removing ligands, so that CH₃⁺ has one vacant directional orbital, CH₂⁺ has two such.

The parallel between MLₙ and ELₙ fragments (M = transition metal, E = main group element) derives from the generation of similar hybrid patterns on removal of ligands from 18 or 8 electron configurations. For instance, if the octahedral polytope is used as a starting point, the eighteen electron rule is satisfied for a d⁶M L₆. The d⁶M L₅ will have one hybrid and no electrons in the gap between antibonding and bonding or nonbonding levels, just like C H⁺, 84. d⁶M L₄ will have two empty hybrids, so will CH⁺⁺. The common form of the isolobal analogy follows.
The advantage of this alternative derivation is that it is easily extended to higher coordination numbers. For instance in any of the multitude of seven coordinate geometries (8g) the 18 electron configuration is d'. It follows immediately that for fragments derived from these seven-coordinate structures

\[ d^6 \text{ML}_5 \quad d^6 \text{ML}_4 \quad d^6 \text{ML}_3 \]

**CH\(_3\)** \quad **CH\(_2\)** \quad **CH\(_3\)**

From an eightcoordinate starting point, (8p) where the 18 electron configuration is d':

\[ d^5 \text{ML}_6 \quad d^6 \text{ML}_5 \quad d^7 \text{ML}_4 \]

**CH\(_3\)** \quad **CH\(_2\)** \quad **CH**

The conclusions may be summarized in Table 1. Note once again the non-isomorphic, many-to-one nature of the isolobal analogy. Also, the results of the previous section on “Into the t\(_2\)e Shell” are contained in the present discussion.
Table 1. Isolobal Analogies

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Organic Transition Metal Coordination Number on which Analogy is Based</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Fragment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CH₃</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CH₂</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CH</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

L = neutral two electron ligand

MISCELLANEA

The general rules in hand, the cautions understood, one can proceed to apply the isolobal analogy. Indeed my strategy has been to show the applications as I introduced extensions of the model. Here are some additional examples:

In a recent study of binuclear acetylene complexes the discussion focused on four structural types, 85-88. (41)

That these were isolobal with tetrahedrane, an olefin, bicyclobutane and cyclobutene was not only a curiosity, but actually made easier for us the complicated analysis of the interconversions of these molecules. And the isolobal analogy points to the synthesis of the as yet unknown “isomers” in the series, dimetallacyclobutadienes and butadienes, already known in complexed form.

Finally for amusement, consider the chain assembled by H. Vahrenkamp and coworkers, 89. (42) (No implication is made in the simplified drawing of the chain stereochemistry.) There had better a relationship to n-heptane, and so there is. We proceed using Table 1 as needed. CpCr(CO)₃ appears in a seven-coordinate guise here, so does CpCr(CO)₂; while Co(CO)₃ and Fe(CO)₃ are in a live-coordinate environment. It follows that:
Now it is simple—the inorganic chain 89 is really n-heptane.

ONE OF MANY BRIDGES
The isolobal analogy is a model. It is the duty of our scientific craft to push it to its extremes, and being only a model it is certain to fail somewhere. For any model, as ingenious a construction as it might be, is bound to abstract only a piece of reality. The reader has seen just how far the model can be pushed and he or she has seen where it breaks down.

The pleasing aspect of this particular model is that it brings together different subfields of our central science. We are separated, split asunder - organic, inorganic, physical, biological, analytical chemists - by the very largesse of our creation. The variety of molecules we create, and the methods we use to study them breed jargon and specialization. Yet underneath the seeming complexity there must be a deep unity. I think this approach would have pleased R. B. W.

ACKNOWLEDGMENT
It should be obvious to the reader that the spirit of this new line of work of my group owes much to what went on before. In particular I owe a direct debt of gratitude to my teachers M. P. Gouterman, W. N. Lipscomb, Jr., E. J. Corey, R. B. Woodward and my younger collaborators in the “organic days”. E. L.

I am in the business of communicating ideas to people. The graphical aspect of this enterprise, be it lecture slides or published articles, is critical. Throughout these years nearly all of my drawings, containing countless “lined orbitals”, have been expertly and beautifully executed by Jane S. Jorgensen and Elisabeth Fields, to whom I’m most grateful. The typing of my manuscripts and the associated details of production are the outcome of hard work by Eleanor R. Stolz and Eda J. Kronman, and I thank them for their help.

Throughout this period my research has been generously supported almost entirely by a research grant from the National Science Foundations’ Quantum Chemistry Program. Other support has come from the Materials Science Center at Cornell, and smaller unrestricted research grants from Eli Lilly, Allied and Exxon Foundation.

REFERENCES

(1) Some selected papers from my group on this subject are the following:

(c) Lauher, J. W. and Hoffmann, R., ibid, 98,1729 (1976).
(d) Lauher, J. W., Elian, M., Summersville, R. H. and Hoffmann, R., ibid, 98, 3219 (1976).
R. Hoffmann 63


(s) Goddard, R. J., Hoffmann, R. and Jemmis, E. D., ibid. 102, 7667 (1980).


(x) Eisenstein, O. and Hoffmann, R., ibid. 103, 4308 (1981); 102, 6148 (1980).

(y) Beautiful contour plots of the frontier orbitals of the most important fragments have been made in a rare unpublished pamphlet: T. A. Albright “A Holiday Coloring Book of Fragment Molecular Orbitals”, Cornell University, 1977. Some orbitals are reproduced in Reference 3a.

(2) Others have contributed much to the development of the fragment formalism in inorganic chemistry. For some early references see:


(g) Braterman, P. S., Struct. Bonding (Berlin), 10, 57 (1972).


(3) For three recent overviews of the fragment formalism by some of the most active workers in the field, see:


(c) Albright, T. A., Tetrahedron, in press.


(b) In recent times L. Pauling has returned to the problem of the electronic structure of transition metal complexes. See Pauling, L., Proc. Nat. Acad. Sci. USA, 72, 3799, 4200 (1975); 73, 274, 1403, 4290 (1976); 74, 2614, 5225 (1977); 75, 12, 569 (1978); Acta Crystallogr., Sect. B, 34, 746 (1978).


(c) Rossi, A. R. and Hoffmann, R., ibid, 14, 365 (1975).
(b) Kwiatek, J. and Seyler, J. K., ibid, 70, 207 (1968).
The term “isolobal” was introduced in Reference 1e, but the concept, as we will see below, is older.

In methylene a, is below bs because the latter is a pure p orbital, while the former has some s character. In Fe(CO)₄, the a₁ and b₂ can be thought of as being derived from the \( \epsilon_p \) orbital \((z^2-x^2-y^2)\) of the octahedron. Removal of two cis ligands stabilizes \( x^2-y^2 \) (b₂) more than it does \( z^2 \) (a₁). Were the ligands removed \( \text{trans} \), to reach the square planar ML₄ fragment, the situation would be reversed. See also Reference 3.


See also Ellis, J. E., J. Chem. Educ., 53, 2 (1976) for an extensive exposition of this analogy.


There are some further details, not discussed here but treated elsewhere (Reference 10, 1x, 3c). In particular the ML₂ will have another relatively low-lying orbital when L is a π acceptor.


(34) See Reference li for the relevant literature citations.


(40) The exceptions include $\text{Zr(BH}_4\text{)}_4$ and $\text{W(RCCR)}_2$ (CO), $\text{Cp}_3\text{M}$ and $\text{Cp}_3\text{MR}$, $\text{Cp}_2\text{U}$, $\text{UO_2L}_\text{e}$ among others. For the relevant references see Chu, S.-Y. and Hoffmann, R., J. Phys. Chem., 86, 1289 (1982), and Ref. 3a.

(41) Hoffman, D. M. and Hoffmann, R., to be published.