

An ab initio study on the concerted interaction between chalcogen and pnictogen bonds

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Abstract We analyzed cooperation between chalcogen-bonding and pnictogen-bonding interactions in $XHS \cdots NCH_2P \cdots NCY$ ($X=F, Cl$; $Y=H, OH, NH_2, CN$ and NC) complexes at the MP2/6–311++G** level. These effects were studied in terms of geometric and energetic properties, harmonic frequencies, and nuclear magnetic resonance (NMR). A cooperativity factor was adopted to measure the cooperativity between the two types of interaction in triads based on $S-X$ and $P-CN$ stretching frequencies. The size of the cooperative effect in each complex depends on the strength of $S \cdots N$ and $P \cdots N$ interactions. It is largest for $FHSN \cdots CH_2P \cdots NCNH_2$ and smallest for $ClHS \cdots NCH_2P \cdots NCCN$ and $ClHS \cdots NCH_2P \cdots NCNC$ complexes. The total spin–spin coupling constants across the chalcogen and pnictogen bonds in the ternary complexes are always larger than those in the binary systems. This trend can be also interpreted as a cooperative effect between chalcogen and pnictogen bond interactions. The enhancing mechanism was analyzed in terms of electron redistribution effects in $XHS \cdots NCH_2P \cdots NCY$ complexes.

Keywords Pnictogen bond · Chalcogen bond · Cooperativity · IR stretching frequency · Spin–spin coupling constants

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Introduction

The understanding and control of noncovalent interactions plays a key role in supramolecular chemistry and biological systems. Noncovalent interactions are the main interactions responsible for the properties of condensed phases, solutions, and crystals [1–4]. The classical hydrogen bond—an example of a strong intermolecular interaction—has been studied extensively from both theoretical and experimental viewpoints [5, 6]. Hydrogen bond interactions are defined most frequently as an $A-H \cdots B$ attraction, where A and B are electronegative elements and B possesses one or more lone electron pairs. However, there are also so-called unconventional hydrogen bonds such as $C-H \cdots B$ hydrogen bonds [7], blue-shifting hydrogen bonds [8], π -hydrogen bonds [9], and single-electron hydrogen bonds [10]. While hydrogen-bonding has long been acknowledged however, considerable attention has been paid recently to other intermolecular interactions. Currently, halogen-bonding [11–13] is one such interaction that is being investigated intensively, since it has been found to share many properties with hydrogen bonds [14, 15]. A halogen bond is defined as an attractive $R-X \cdots B$ interaction where the halogen X acts as a Lewis acid and B is any site with an excess of electron charge density, most often being an atom with an electron lone-pair. In the literature, the occurrence of halogen bonds is explained in terms of a region of positive electrostatic potential that is present along the outermost portions of some covalently bonded halogen atoms. This electron-deficient region was referred to as a “ σ -hole” by Politzer et al. [16–25], and its presence allows for the intuitive description of halogen-bonding as an electrostatically driven interaction between the Lewis base and the σ -hole.

Although the σ -hole concept was used initially to rationalize the seeming anomaly of an electronegative halogen interacting attractively with a negative site, it has since been found to be extended also to covalently bonded atoms in

Group VI [26, 27]. This means that chalcogen atoms (O, S, Se and Te) can indeed have regions of positive electrostatic potential on extensions of the covalent bonds to these atoms. Since this positive electrostatic potential arises from the shifting of electronic charge that accompanies the formation of the covalent bond to the chalcogen atom, it can be expected that the σ -hole potential becomes more positive (1) in going from the lighter to the heavier atoms, as polarizability increases and electronegativity decreases ($O < S < Se < Te$); and (2) as the remainder of the molecule becomes more electron withdrawing. The formation of noncovalent interactions between positive σ -holes on chalcogen atoms and negative sites has been studied extensively computationally [28–30] and many such complexes have also been reported experimentally [31–33]. This interaction was named “chalcogen-bonding” [34] by analogy with halogen-bonding and hydrogen-bonding. Chalcogen-bonding plays important roles in controlling molecular recognition processes in biological systems and determining molecular orientation in the packing of molecules in crystals [35–37]. As in halogen bonds, the dominance of either electrostatic [38] or dispersion [39] contributions to the stabilization energy of the chalcogen bond is evident, although polarization and charge transfer effects seem also to play a significant role in determining the complex structure [40].

The anisotropic distribution of electrostatic potentials is also found for covalently bonded Group V atoms [26, 27]. Therefore, the pnictogen atoms (N, P, As and Sb) can also interact with an electron donor to form a noncovalent interaction, which is similar in nature to the halogen bond. The well-known “pnictogen bond” usually refers to the noncovalent R–Pn \cdots B interaction, in which the pnictogen atom (Pn) acts as a Lewis acid and B is an electron donor [41–43]. Pnictogen bond interactions have been studied widely, both theoretically [44–46] and experimentally [47]. Pnictogen bond interactions are relevant in biological systems. For instance, the P \cdots N pnictogen bond interactions were found in protein β -sheets [48]. Pnictogen bonds involving the Sb atom also likely participate in the mechanism of inhibition of Sb-based drugs used to treat leishmaniasis [49].

In complex systems with the presence of two or more noncovalent interactions, there is a mutual interplay between them, irrespective of whether they are of the same type [50, 51] or different [52–55]. This mutual influence can lead to interesting cooperativity or synergic effects. Thus, the strength of chalcogen bond or pnictogen bond interactions in complexes usually increases as further molecules are added [56–58]; also, the frequencies of some vibrational modes are shifted by effect of the incorporation of new molecule(s). For example, the cooperative effects between pnictogen and halogen bonds were studied by Li and coworkers [59] for XCl \cdots FH₂P \cdots NH₃ (X=F, OH, CN, NC, and FCC) complexes. Interestingly, the increased percentage is more prominent for the interaction energy of the halogen bond. The interplay

between halogen and chalcogen bond interactions in F₂S \cdots NCX \cdots NCY (X=F, Cl, Br, I; Y=H, F, OH) has been investigated recently [60]. Ab initio calculations revealed that the formation of X \cdots N halogen bond interaction leads to a shorter S \cdots N distance, increased strength of chalcogen bond, and synergistic energetic effects. Due to the similarity between pnictogen and chalcogen bonds, it is believed that a cooperative effect is also present between them. Studying the interplay between the two interactions could be helpful in understanding the mutual influence between them in crystal engineering and molecular recognition.

Careful studies of simple models are of interest in order to extend their conclusions to larger ones. The main objective of the present study was to examine the cooperative effect of chalcogen and pnictogen bonds on selected properties of XHS \cdots NCH₂P \cdots NCY complexes, where X=F, Cl and Y=H, OH, NH₂, CN, NC. A detailed analysis of the binding distances, interaction energies, harmonic vibrational frequencies and nuclear magnetic resonance (NMR) properties of these complexes was performed. The mechanism of cooperative effects was unveiled by energy decomposition analysis and molecular electrostatic potentials. According to our literature survey, no theoretical investigations concerning this issue are available to date. The results of this study could be very helpful in crystal engineering and molecular recognition, because pnictogen and chalcogen bonds have recently been applied in the design and synthesis of novel functional materials and effective molecular receptors [32, 33, 48].

Computational details

The geometries of all studied complexes were fully optimized at the MP2/6-311++G** level of theory using the GAMESS suite of programs [61]. Harmonic frequency calculations performed at the same level indicated that all the structures obtained correspond to energetic minima. The interaction energies were estimated at the MP2/6-311++G** level with corrections for basis set superposition error (BSSE) using the counterpoise method of Boys and Bernardi [62]. The nature of the interaction was explored using the following energy decomposition analysis [63]:

$$E_{int} = E_{elst} + E_{exch-rep} + E_{pol} + E_{corr} \quad (1)$$

where E_{elst} describes the classical columbic interaction of the occupied orbitals of one monomer with those of another monomer, and $E_{exch-rep}$ is the sum of the exchange and repulsive energy terms, resulting from the Pauli exclusion principle. E_{pol} is defined as the “orbital relaxation energy” on going from the monomer Hartree-Fock (HF) spin orbitals to the supermolecule HF spin orbitals, and E_{corr} contains all intramolecular electron correlation terms (i.e., electron correlation

correction to the electrostatic, exchange-repulsion and polarization terms) as well as inter-molecular correlation energy.

To further understand the cooperativity between the chalcogen and pnictogen bonds interactions, we performed an analysis of many-body decomposition of the interaction energy [64]. The total interaction energy of a triad (T) equals to the sum of relaxation energy and many-body terms:

$$E_{int}(T) = E_R + E_{2-body} + E_{3-body} \quad (2)$$

where

$$E_{2-body} = E_{int}(12) + E_{int}(23) + E_{int}(13) \quad (3)$$

The relaxation energy (E_R) is defined as the energy sum of the monomers frozen in the geometry of the triads minus the energy sum of the optimized monomers. The two-body terms $E_{int}(12)$, $E_{int}(23)$, and $E_{int}(13)$ can be calculated as the interaction energy of each molecular pair in the geometry of triad minus the energy sum of the monomers, all of them frozen in the geometry of the triad. The three-body term E_{3-body} is a measure of cooperativity between the two interactions in a ternary system, where a negative E_{3-body} indicates that the two interactions work in concert with each other and enhance each other's strength.

Molecular electrostatic potentials (MEP) were calculated with wave function analysis–surface analysis suite (WFA–SAS) developed by Politzer and coworkers [65]. Chemical shielding tensors as well as spin–spin coupling constants across the S···N and P···N bonds were computed using the gauge-including atomic orbital (GIAO) approach [66].

Results and discussion

Structures and IR frequencies

The optimized geometry of XHS···NCH₂P···NCY (X=F, Cl and Y=H, OH, NH₂, CN, NC) complexes is illustrated schematically in Fig. 1. For each complex studied, there are two interaction modes. The first is a chalcogen bond formed between the S atom in SHX and the nitrogen atom of PH₂CN. The second is a pnictogen bond through the P atom in PH₂CN as an electron acceptor and the N atom in NCY as an electron donor. The formation of these interactions can be understood using electrostatic potentials. The electrostatic potentials of PH₂CN and SHF and SHCl molecules are

indicated in Fig. 2, which figure shows the locations of the different most positive and most negative $V_S(r)$, designated as $V_{S,max}$ and $V_{S,min}$, respectively. Looking at the potentials on the surfaces of PH₂CN molecule (Fig. 2), it is evident that the P atom has a buildup of positive potentials on its surface, along the extension of the P–C bond. This positive region corresponds to the σ -hole, because it is centered on the P–C axis and is surrounded by negative electrostatic potential. The $V_{S,max}$ is 43.8 kcal mol⁻¹. There is also a negative potential $V_{S,min}$ associated with the N atom of PH₂CN. This $V_{S,min}$ is about -36.8 kcal mol⁻¹, which is distinctly smaller than that of the nitrogen atom in the NH₃ (-42.7 kcal mol⁻¹). From Fig. 2, it is evident that the sulfur atom in SHF and SHCl molecules also has a region of very positive potential, the σ -hole, with a $V_{S,max}$ value of 52.3 (SHF) and 38.8 kcal mol⁻¹ (SHCl) that is located approximately at the extension of the S–F and S–Cl covalent bonds. These positive regions can interact with any negative site, thereby giving rise to a directional interaction. Thus, the noncovalent bonds in these systems are all σ -hole bonds, and the nature of these is no different than that of halogen or hydrogen bonding [26, 27, 67].

The S···N and P···N distances of the XHS···NCH₂P···NCY complexes are summarized in Table 1. Corresponding data for XHS···NCH₂P and NCH₂P···NCY dyads are also reported for comparative purposes. All binary and ternary complexes have a nearly linear structure with C1 symmetry (Fig. 1). The S···N binding distances in the triads range from 2.683 Å in FHS···NCH₂P···NCH₂ to 3.194 Å in CIHS···NCH₂P···NCCN. For a given Y substitution, the S···N distance in the FHS complex is smaller than that in the CIHS complex, which is consistent with the positive electrostatic potentials on the S atoms. The S···N binding distance becomes shorter when the electron-donating ability of the Y group increases. The intermolecular P···N distances between the NCH₂P and NCY molecules in the triads are between 3.004–3.159 and 3.014–3.165 Å for X=F and Cl, respectively. These are comparable to pnictogen bond distances in HOCl···PH₂F, and HOI···PH₂F complexes [68]. Linear relationships are found between the P···N and S···N distances in the ternary complexes (Fig. 3), with the squared correlation coefficient, R^2 , having values of 0.976 and 0.974 for X=F and Cl, respectively.

As can be seen from Table 1, the equilibrium binding distances S···N and P···N in the triads are always shorter than those in the respective dyads. The shortening of the S···N distance varies from 0.017 Å in the CIHS···NCH₂P···NCCN

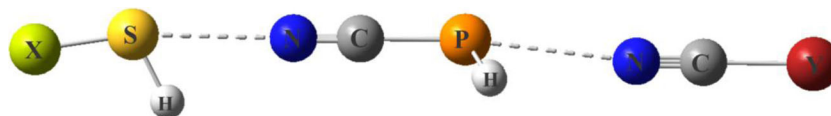
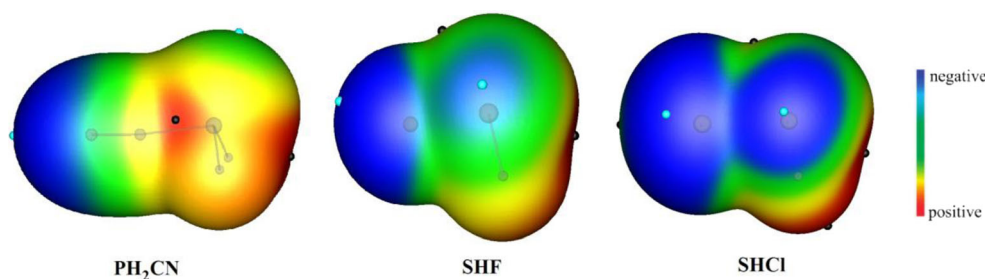


Fig. 1 Structure of XHS···NCH₂P···NCY (X=F, Cl, Y=H, OH, NH₂, NC, CN) triads

Fig. 2 Electrostatic potentials on the 0.001 a.u. electron density isosurfaces of PH_2CN , SHF and SHCl molecules. *Black circles* Surface maxima, *blue circles* surface minima



to 0.040 Å in the $\text{FHS}\cdots\text{NCH}_2\text{P}\cdots\text{NCNH}_2$, while the shortening of the $\text{P}\cdots\text{N}$ distance is in the range of 0.029–0.050 Å. This can be interpreted as a cooperative (or synergic) effect between the chalcogen and pnictogen bonds in these systems. The shortening effect is larger in the FHS complexes than in the corresponding CIHS ones. Moreover, the effect is larger in complexes with shorter intermolecular distances than in those with the longest ones. This supports the view that the degree of cooperativity is proportional to strength of the intermolecular interactions [52, 53].

Upon formation of chalcogen and pnictogen bonds, the S-X and P-CN bonds are elongated, accompanied by a shift in the S-X and P-CN stretch frequencies, respectively. The calculated vibrational frequencies shifts for the S-X and P-CN stretching modes of the complexes are listed in Table 2. It is evident that the formation of the $\text{XHS}\cdots\text{NCH}_2\text{P}$ complexes results in a red-shift of the S-X stretching vibration in the infrared spectra. The S-F stretch shift in the SHF complex is more prominent than that of the S-Cl bond in the SHCl counterpart, and the bond elongation in the former is larger than that in the latter. This is due to the larger atomic mass of halogen. Cooperative effects strengthen the $\text{S}\cdots\text{N}$ interactions and therefore lead to a further red-shift in the S-X frequency. In the pnictogen-bonded complexes, the associated P-CN bond stretch shows also a red-shift. Notice, however, that in the triads, the elongation of the corresponding bond length and the red-shifted value of the stretching mode are smaller than

those of dyads (Table 2). This may be because P-CN bond elongation is a combinative result of $\text{S}\cdots\text{N}$ and $\text{P}\cdots\text{N}$ interactions in the triads. This indicates that the formation of the $\text{S}\cdots\text{N}$ chalcogen bond after the addition of SHX slightly strengthens the P-CN bond in $\text{NCH}_2\text{P}\cdots\text{NCY}$. Meanwhile, the amount of red-shift of P-CN in each complex depends on the strength of $\text{P}\cdots\text{N}$ and $\text{S}\cdots\text{N}$ interactions. It is largest for $\text{FHS}\cdots\text{NCH}_2\text{P}\cdots\text{NCNH}_2$ and smallest for the $\text{CIHS}\cdots\text{NCH}_2\text{P}\cdots\text{NCCN}$ and $\text{CIHS}\cdots\text{NCH}_2\text{P}\cdots\text{NCNC}$ complexes. This can be considered as evidence for the interplay between the chalcogen and pnictogen bonds.

In the present study, a cooperativity factor (A) [69] was adopted to measure the cooperativity between both interactions in the triads. It was calculated as $A = \Delta\nu(\text{T})/\Delta\nu$ where $\Delta\nu(\text{T})$ and $\Delta\nu$ are the frequency shifts in the ternary and binary systems, respectively. The results are listed in Table 3. It can be seen that the cooperativity factor ranges from 1.09 to 1.24 (for $\nu_{\text{S-X}}$) and from 0.75 to 0.94 (for $\nu_{\text{P-CN}}$). For each series, the cooperativity factor is largest for strongest and smallest for weakest complex. However, the cooperativity factors obtained in this study are much less than those found for the $\text{H}_3\text{N}\cdots\text{XY}\cdots\text{HF}$ ($\text{X}, \text{Y} = \text{F}, \text{Cl}, \text{Br}$) triads involving halogen and hydrogen bonds [70].

Table 1 Optimized binding distances (R , Å) of chalcogen bond (CB) and pnictogen bond (PB) interactions in the dyads and triads (T)

Complex	R_{CB}	$R_{\text{CB}}(\text{T})$	R_{PB}	$R_{\text{PB}}(\text{T})$
$\text{FHS}\cdots\text{NCH}_2\text{P}\cdots\text{NCH}$	2.723	2.694	3.145	3.102
$\text{FHS}\cdots\text{NCH}_2\text{P}\cdots\text{NCOH}$	2.723	2.689	3.087	3.041
$\text{FHS}\cdots\text{NCH}_2\text{P}\cdots\text{NCNH}_2$	2.723	2.683	3.054	3.004
$\text{FHS}\cdots\text{NCH}_2\text{P}\cdots\text{NCCN}$	2.723	2.705	3.194	3.159
$\text{FHS}\cdots\text{NCH}_2\text{P}\cdots\text{NCNC}$	2.723	2.703	3.183	3.144
$\text{CIHS}\cdots\text{NCH}_2\text{P}\cdots\text{NCH}$	2.894	2.867	3.145	3.110
$\text{CIHS}\cdots\text{NCH}_2\text{P}\cdots\text{NCOH}$	2.894	2.862	3.087	3.050
$\text{CIHS}\cdots\text{NCH}_2\text{P}\cdots\text{NCNH}_2$	2.894	2.857	3.054	3.014
$\text{CIHS}\cdots\text{NCH}_2\text{P}\cdots\text{NCCN}$	2.894	2.877	3.194	3.165
$\text{CIHS}\cdots\text{NCH}_2\text{P}\cdots\text{NCNC}$	2.894	2.876	3.183	3.151

Interaction energies

The interaction energy has been used widely in the study of the interplay between two kinds of noncovalent interactions. The interaction energies in the binary and ternary complexes

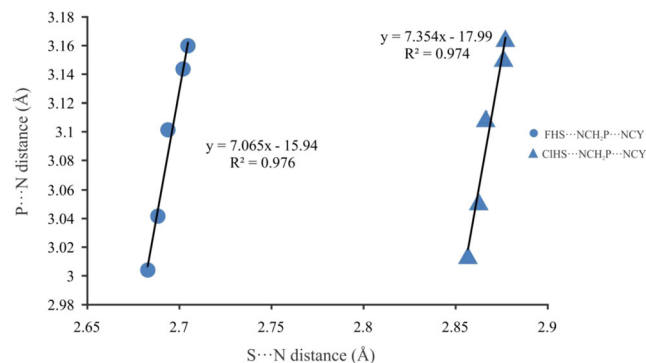


Fig. 3 Correlation between $\text{S}\cdots\text{N}$ and $\text{P}\cdots\text{N}$ binding distances in $\text{XHS}\cdots\text{NCH}_2\text{P}\cdots\text{NCY}$ triads

Table 2 Calculated S–X and P–CN stretching frequencies shifts (in cm^{-1}) for dyads and triads (T), and cooperativity factor ^{a,b}

Complex	$\Delta\nu_{\text{S-F/Cl}}$	$\Delta\nu_{\text{S-F/Cl}}(\text{T})$	$\Delta\nu_{\text{P-CN}}$	$\Delta\nu_{\text{P-CN}}(\text{T})$	$A_{\text{S-F/Cl}}$	$A_{\text{P-CN}}$
FHS \cdots NCH ₂ P \cdots NCH	–34	–40	–12	–10	1.18	0.83
FHS \cdots NCH ₂ P \cdots NCOH	–34	–41	–15	–13	1.21	0.87
FHS \cdots NCH ₂ P \cdots NCNH ₂	–34	–42	–17	–16	1.24	0.94
FHS \cdots NCH ₂ P \cdots NCCN	–34	–37	–8	–6	1.09	0.75
FHS \cdots NCH ₂ P \cdots NCNC	–34	–37	–8	–6	1.09	0.75
CIHS \cdots NCH ₂ P \cdots NCH	–15	–18	–12	–6	1.20	0.83
CIHS \cdots NCH ₂ P \cdots NCOH	–15	–19	–15	–6	1.27	0.87
CIHS \cdots NCH ₂ P \cdots NCNH ₂	–15	–19	–17	–10	1.27	0.94
CIHS \cdots NCH ₂ P \cdots NCCN	–15	–17	–8	–13	1.13	0.75
CIHS \cdots NCH ₂ P \cdots NCNC	–15	–17	–8	–16	1.13	0.75

^a $A = \Delta\nu(\text{T})/\Delta\nu$ ^b Corresponding harmonic frequencies for isolated PH₂CN, SHF and SHCl molecules are 629, 741 and 528 cm^{-1} , respectively

were obtained as the energy difference between the complex and sum of the isolated monomers. All interaction energies were corrected for the BSSE using the counterpoise method (Table 3). The interaction energies of chalcogen bonds are –4.77 and –3.29 kcal mol^{-1} in FHS \cdots NCH₂P and CIHS \cdots NCH₂P dyads, respectively, which are consistent with the evaluated positive electrostatic potentials on the S atom. As evident from Table 3, the range of interaction energies of NCH₂P \cdots NCY dyads is relatively narrow, from –2.00 to –4.19 kcal mol^{-1} . The pnictogen bond energies in the binary systems vary in the order NH₂>OH>H>NC>CN. This ordering corresponds to the relative magnitudes of the negative electrostatic potentials associated with the nitrogen atom of NCY. The triad interaction energies range from –7.10 to –9.85 kcal mol^{-1} for FHS \cdots NCH₂P \cdots NCY and from –5.51 to –8.10 kcal mol^{-1} for CIHS \cdots NCH₂P \cdots NCY complexes. For each series, the presence of electron-donating groups (Y=OH and NH₂) on the NCY results in more negative interaction energies while the electron-withdrawing

substituents (Y=CN and NC) lead to smaller E_{int} (less negative) values.

Table 3 summarizes the evaluated cooperativity energy (E_{coop}), which is intended to provide an estimation of the “extra” energetic stabilization obtained in a multicomponent complex as a consequence of the coexistence of both interactions. It is computed with formulas of $E_{\text{coop}} = E_{\text{int}}(\text{T}) - E_{\text{int}}(\text{CB}) - E_{\text{int}}(\text{PB})$, where $E_{\text{int}}(\text{T})$ is the total interaction of the triad, $E_{\text{int}}(\text{CB})$ and $E_{\text{int}}(\text{PB})$ are the interaction energies of the isolated chalcogen and pnictogen bonded dyads within their corresponding minima configurations. One can see that the estimated values of E_{coop} are all negative, with the maximum and minimum energetic cooperativity values corresponding to the most and least stable complexes, respectively. In the ternary systems, the interaction energy of chalcogen bonding is increased by 15–22 %, whereas that of pnictogen bonding is increased by about 24–40 %. The increase of the latter is much greater than that of the former. It is demonstrated that the effect of the stronger interaction on the weaker one is prominent.

Table 3 Interaction energies (E_{int} , kcal mol^{-1}) of chalcogen bond (CB) and pnictogen bond (PB) interactions in the dyads and triads (T), cooperative energies (E_{coop} , kcal mol^{-1}), and many body analysis for XHS \cdots NCH₂P \cdots NCY complexes

Complex	$E_{\text{int}}(\text{CB})$	$E_{\text{int}}(\text{PB})$	$E_{\text{int}}(\text{T})$	E_{coop}	E_{R}	$E_{\text{int}}(12)$	$E_{\text{int}}(23)$	$E_{\text{int}}(13)$	$E_{3\text{-body}}$
FHS \cdots NCH ₂ P \cdots NCH	–4.77	–3.13	–8.53	–0.63	0.04	–4.74	–3.10	–0.18	–0.55
FHS \cdots NCH ₂ P \cdots NCOH	–4.77	–3.66	–9.19	–0.75	0.06	–4.76	–3.64	–0.21	–0.64
FHS \cdots NCH ₂ P \cdots NCNH ₂	–4.77	–4.19	–9.85	–0.88	0.09	–4.76	–4.16	–0.26	–0.76
FHS \cdots NCH ₂ P \cdots NCCN	–4.77	–2.00	–7.10	–0.32	0.03	–4.75	–1.98	–0.07	–0.33
FHS \cdots NCH ₂ P \cdots NCNC	–4.77	–2.19	–7.33	–0.37	0.03	–4.75	–2.16	–0.08	–0.37
CIHS \cdots NCH ₂ P \cdots NCH	–3.29	–3.13	–6.86	–0.44	0.04	–3.23	–3.11	–0.13	–0.43
CIHS \cdots NCH ₂ P \cdots NCOH	–3.29	–3.66	–7.47	–0.52	0.06	–3.24	–3.64	–0.14	–0.51
CIHS \cdots NCH ₂ P \cdots NCNH ₂	–3.29	–4.19	–8.10	–0.61	0.08	–3.25	–4.17	–0.18	–0.58
CIHS \cdots NCH ₂ P \cdots NCCN	–3.29	–2.00	–5.51	–0.22	0.02	–3.26	–1.98	–0.05	–0.24
CIHS \cdots NCH ₂ P \cdots NCNC	–3.29	–2.19	–5.73	–0.25	0.03	–3.26	–2.16	–0.06	–0.28

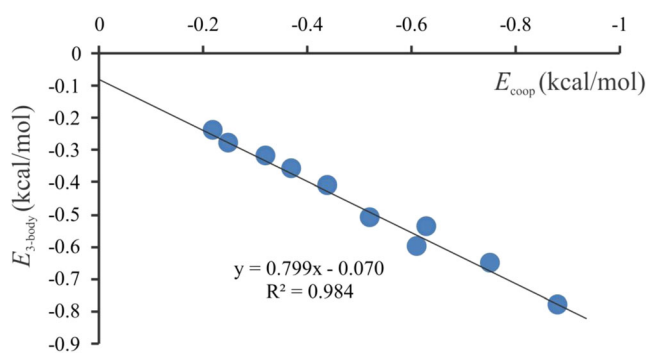


Fig. 4 Relationship between cooperative energy and three-body interaction energy

Table 3 lists the results of the many body interaction energy analyses of the triads. These data indicate that the monomer relaxation energy, E_R , is relatively small at no more than $0.1 \text{ kcal mol}^{-1}$. For all the ternary complexes, the two-body and three-body interaction energies are attractive, indicating a positive contribution to the interaction energy of complexes. As evident, the most important energy component arises from the two-body interactions which account for 93 % to 96 % of the total interaction energy. The contribution of the three-body energy $E_{3\text{-body}}$ decreases with the electron-withdrawing ability of the substitution Y. An excellent correlation is found between the E_{coop} energies in the ternary complexes and the calculated $E_{3\text{-body}}$ energies with $R^2=0.984$ (Fig. 4). This indicates that the three-body term $E_{3\text{-body}}$ can be used as a measure of cooperative effects between the two interactions in the ternary systems.

In order to gain insight into the contribution of the different energy terms of the interaction energy, an interaction energy

decomposition analysis was performed for the binary and ternary complexes (Table 4). It can be seen that, for the FHS \cdots NCH₂P and CIHS \cdots NCH₂P dyads, the dominant attraction energy originates in the electrostatic term (E_{elst}), which amounts to about 65 % of the total attraction energy. The polarization energy in FHS \cdots NCH₂P is more negative than that of CIHS \cdots NCH₂P, which should be related to the greater dipole moment of FHS than CIHS molecule (2.32 vs 1.69 D). In all of the NCH₂P \cdots NCY complexes studied here, the E_{elst} term is the dominant one in absolute value, providing up to 75 % of the total attractive energy of NCH₂P \cdots NCNH₂, while in the weakest complex its contribution is only 60 %. The polarization (E_{pol}) energy, which corresponds to between 15 % and 17 % of the total attractive terms, increases in importance from the weakest complex to the strongest one. Finally, the correlation energy (E_{corr}) term contributes to 8 % of all the attractive terms in the strongest complex and increases its contribution, reaching 12 % in the weakest complexes. In the triads, the various energy terms follow the same trend as the interaction energy of the binary systems. As shown in Table 4, the attractive E_{elst} and E_{pol} components make a major contribution to the interaction energies of triads. Overall, the nature of S \cdots N and P \cdots N σ -hole interactions is no different than that of halogen or hydrogen bonding [26, 27].

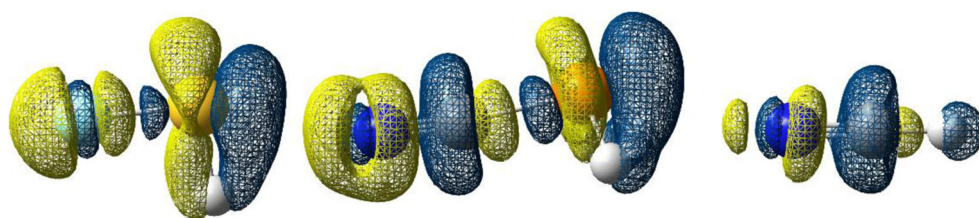
Electron density redistribution

It may be noted that formation of the R–X \cdots B pnictogen or chalcogen bond interaction is generally accompanied by some mutual polarization of R–X by the electric field of B, and of B

Table 4 Interaction energy terms (in kcal mol^{-1}) for binary and ternary complexes

Complex	E_{elst}	$E_{\text{exch-rep}}$	E_{pol}	E_{corr}	% E_{elst}	% E_{pol}
FHS \cdots NCH ₂ P	−9.04	8.95	−3.24	−1.42	66	24
CIHS \cdots NCH ₂ P	−6.06	6.05	−1.91	−1.36	65	20
NCH ₂ P \cdots NCH	−4.69	3.16	−0.97	−0.62	75	15
NCH ₂ P \cdots NCOH	−5.54	3.82	−1.23	−0.70	74	16
NCH ₂ P \cdots NCNH ₂	−6.45	4.41	−1.50	−0.64	75	17
NCH ₂ P \cdots NCCN	−2.68	2.47	−0.66	−1.14	60	15
NCH ₂ P \cdots NCNC	−3.73	2.66	−0.81	−0.31	77	17
FHS \cdots NCH ₂ P \cdots NCH	−12.27	12.33	−4.47	−2.65	63	23
FHS \cdots NCH ₂ P \cdots NCOH	−15.84	14.59	−5.7	−2.17	67	24
FHS \cdots NCH ₂ P \cdots NCNH ₂	−17.00	15.50	−6.19	−2.11	67	24
FHS \cdots NCH ₂ P \cdots NCCN	−14.77	13.58	−5.22	−2.08	67	24
FHS \cdots NCH ₂ P \cdots NCNC	−13.49	12.66	−4.81	−1.63	68	24
CIHS \cdots NCH ₂ P \cdots NCH	−9.12	9.16	−2.95	−2.57	62	20
CIHS \cdots NCH ₂ P \cdots NCOH	−12.45	11.09	−3.99	−2.1	67	22
CIHS \cdots NCH ₂ P \cdots NCNH ₂	−13.53	11.91	−4.40	−2.03	68	22
CIHS \cdots NCH ₂ P \cdots NCCN	−11.45	10.20	−3.57	−2.01	67	21
CIHS \cdots NCH ₂ P \cdots NCNC	−10.28	9.41	−3.24	−1.59	68	21

Fig. 5 Electron density difference plot (0.001 a.u.) for the FHS \cdots NCH₂P \cdots NCH complex. *Yellow* Increases in electronic density, *blue* decreases in electronic density



by the electric field of the positive σ -hole on X. This means that electron density on B should become somewhat polarized toward the positive portion of X, and the electron density on X should tend to move away from B. A similar polarization effect has been reported previously for hydrogen and halogen bonds by the groups of Politzer and Clark [23, 26]. Figure 5 indicates the computed electron density difference plot for the complex FHS \cdots NCH₂P \cdots NCH, where loss of electrons is indicated in blue, and electron enrichment is indicated in yellow. It can be seen that there is an increase in electron density between the FHS and NCH₂P surfaces, indicating the formation of the S \cdots N chalcogen bond interaction. The electric field of the positive σ -hole on the S atom of SHX tends to produce a rearrangement of electronic charge within the PH₂CN molecule. It should be noted that the electric field created by the CIHS is relatively weak, due to its small σ -hole (38.8 kcal mol⁻¹). This accordingly results in smaller electronic density shifts around the PH₂CN molecule compared to the FHS. At the same time, the electron density around the area of P atom of PH₂CN that interacts with the NCH unit is decreased. This electron redistribution increases the electric field of the σ -hole on the P atom, so the P \cdots N interaction in the triad is reinforced with respect to the binary NCH₂P \cdots NCH system.

To further understand the cooperativity between the S \cdots N and P \cdots N interactions in the XHS \cdots NCH₂P \cdots NCY complexes, we calculated the electrostatic potentials of the monomers and corresponding dyads at the MP2/6-311++G** level. As indicated in Table 5, the calculated $V_{S,\min}$ on the nitrogen atom of the isolated NCY molecule becomes more negative in the order Y=NC<CN<H<NH₂<OH. Not surprisingly, the presence of electron-donating groups (OH and NH₂) in the NCY molecule causes an increase in the value of $V_{S,\min}$, while the electron-withdrawing CN and NC substituents leads to less negative $V_{S,\min}$ values. The $V_{S,\min}$ value is -36.8 kcal mol⁻¹ for the nitrogen atom in PH₂CN monomer. Upon pnictogen bond formation, this value is increased. For example, it is -44.9 kcal mol⁻¹ in the H₂NCN \cdots PH₂CN complex. This means that the nitrogen atom of the PH₂CN in the H₂NCN \cdots PH₂CN dyad is a stronger electron donor than that of the isolated molecule, which would enhance the mutual polarization of the PH₂CN and SHX molecules. On the other hand, when SHX interacts with the PH₂CN monomer, the σ -hole potential on the P atom becomes more positive. This demonstrates that the P atom in the PH₂CN is a better electron acceptor than the free PH₂CN molecule. Note that the P atom in FHS \cdots PH₂CN has a relatively larger σ -hole, due to the larger electric field associated with the σ -hole on the S atom in FSH than that of SHCl. Overall, the polarization induced in the PH₂CN by the S \cdots N interaction strengthens the concerted the P \cdots N bond. This demonstrates the importance of the polarization effects in mutual influence between pnictogen and chalcogen bond interactions.

Table 5 The most positive electrostatic potential ($V_{S,\max}$, kcal mol⁻¹) and the most negative electrostatic potential ($V_{S,\min}$, kcal mol⁻¹) of the monomers and dyads. For each structure, the $V_{S,\max}$ or $V_{S,\min}$ value is referred to the bold atom

Complex	$V_{S,\max}$	$V_{S,\min}$
NCH	-	-34.2
NCOH	-	-48.2
NCNH ₂	-	-42.5
NCCN	-	-19.0
NCNC	-	-10.0
PH ₂ CN	43.8	-36.8
SHF	52.2	-
SHCl	38.9	-
FHS \cdots NCH ₂ P	50.4	-
CIHS \cdots NCH ₂ P	49.0	-
NCH ₂ P \cdots NCH	-	-42.7
NCH ₂ P \cdots NCOH	-	-43.8
NCH ₂ P \cdots NCNH ₂	-	-44.9
NCH ₂ P \cdots NCCN	-	-39.4
NCH ₂ P \cdots NCNC	-	-41.3

NMR properties

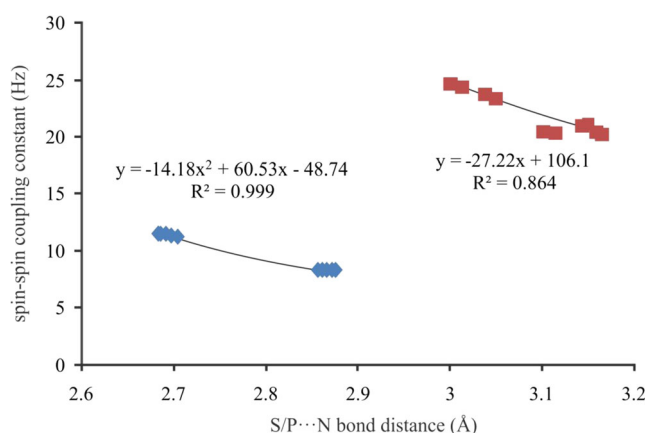
The ³³S and ³¹P absolute chemical shielding values in triads, and their changes relative to binary complexes are given in Table 6. The ³³S chemical shielding for FHS \cdots NCH₂P is 284.6 ppm—an increase of 104 ppm relative to the isolated SHF monomer (388.6 ppm). This is a much larger change upon dimer formation than observed for CIHS \cdots NCH₂P (about 5 ppm). The results also indicate that ³¹P absolute chemical shieldings always decrease in NCH₂P \cdots NCY complexes relative to the corresponding monomer NCH₂P. These decreases range from 1.8 to 4.0 ppm. The largest downshift corresponds to the most strongly bound complexes, i.e., for NCH₂P \cdots NCNH₂ and NCH₂P \cdots NCOH complexes, such

Table 6 Absolute ^{33}S and ^{31}P chemical shielding isotropies (σ_{iso} : ppm) and spin-spin coupling constants (Hz) across the chalcogen and pnictogen bonds in $\text{XHS}\cdots\text{NCH}_2\text{P}\cdots\text{NCY}$ complexes and the corresponding changes relative to dyads

Complexes	σ_{iso} (^{33}S)	$\Delta\sigma_{\text{iso}}$ (^{33}S)	σ_{iso} (^{31}P)	$\Delta\sigma_{\text{iso}}$ (^{31}P)	^{15}J (S–N)	$\Delta^{15}\text{J}$ (S–N)	^{19}J (P–N)	$\Delta^{19}\text{J}$ (P–N)
FHS $\cdots\text{NCH}_2\text{P}\cdots\text{NCH}$	278.4	−6.1	492.2	−3.5	11.4	0.4	20.4	0.4
FHS $\cdots\text{NCH}_2\text{P}\cdots\text{NCOH}$	277.2	−7.3	492.6	−4.2	11.5	0.5	23.6	1.3
FHS $\cdots\text{NCH}_2\text{P}\cdots\text{NHNH}_2$	275.7	−8.9	492.8	−4.6	11.5	0.5	24.7	1.9
FHS $\cdots\text{NCH}_2\text{P}\cdots\text{NCCN}$	280.6	−4.0	492.0	−2.9	11.2	0.2	20.4	0.4
FHS $\cdots\text{NCH}_2\text{P}\cdots\text{NCNC}$	280.0	−4.5	492.6	−3.3	11.2	0.2	21.0	0.2
ClHS $\cdots\text{NCH}_2\text{P}\cdots\text{NCH}$	197.1	−3.3	492.1	−3.2	8.2	0.4	20.4	0.4
ClHS $\cdots\text{NCH}_2\text{P}\cdots\text{NCOH}$	196.1	−4.2	492.4	−3.6	8.3	0.5	23.3	1.0
ClHS $\cdots\text{NCH}_2\text{P}\cdots\text{NHNH}_2$	195.7	−4.7	812.3	−4.0	8.4	0.6	24.4	1.6
ClHS $\cdots\text{NCH}_2\text{P}\cdots\text{NCCN}$	199.1	−1.3	491.9	−2.2	8.0	0.2	20.3	0.3
ClHS $\cdots\text{NCH}_2\text{P}\cdots\text{NCNC}$	198.4	−1.9	492.4	−2.8	8.0	0.2	21.1	0.3

changes amount to 4.0 and 3.8 ppm, respectively. When a SHX molecule is added to the $\text{NCH}_2\text{P}\cdots\text{NCY}$ complex, the calculated ^{31}P absolute chemical shielding is slightly decreased. The amount of this shift depends on the strength of $\text{S}\cdots\text{N}$ and $\text{P}\cdots\text{N}$ bonds. It is largest for the strongest and smallest for the weakest complex.

Table 6 lists the total spin-spin coupling constants ^{15}J (S–N) and ^{19}J (P–N) across the chalcogen and pnictogen bonds, respectively. All ^{15}J (S–N) and ^{19}J (P–N) are positive. One can see that the ^{15}J (S–N) and ^{19}J (P–N) values in the ternary complexes are always larger than those in the binary systems. This trend can be also interpreted as a cooperative effect between the chalcogen and pnictogen bond interactions. The ^{19}J (P–N) is significantly greater than ^{15}J (S–N), reflecting the dependency of spin-spin coupling constants on the nature of the interaction. The results of Table 6 indicate that the formation of a pnictogen bond interaction has little effect on ^{15}J (S–N) values of $\text{XHS}\cdots\text{NCH}_2\text{P}$ complexes, increasing their value by 0.2–0.6 Hz. This result confirms that the $\text{S}\cdots\text{N}$ interactions in the triads are reinforced with respect to binary systems. The corresponding increase in the ^{19}J (P–N) is more pronounced

**Fig. 6** Spin-spin coupling constants versus chalcogen and pnictogen bond distances

than those of ^{15}J (S–N), reflecting the strong cooperative effect of the $\text{S}\cdots\text{N}$ interaction on the $\text{P}\cdots\text{N}$ bond. Therefore, this can be understood as an indication of reinforcement of the chalcogen and pnictogen bonds interactions, in agreement with the binding distances and interaction energies discussed above. Figure 6 provides a plot of ^{15}J (S–N) and ^{19}J (P–N) versus the $\text{S}\cdots\text{N}$ and $\text{P}\cdots\text{N}$ bond distances, respectively. For each case, the trendline shown is a second-order polynomial with a correlation coefficient R^2 of 0.999 (for $\text{S}\cdots\text{N}$) and 0.864 (for $\text{P}\cdots\text{N}$). These correlations suggest that experimental ^{15}J (S–N) and ^{19}J (P–N) values could be used to estimate chalcogen and pnictogen bond distances, respectively.

Conclusions

Ab initio calculations at the MP2/6-311++G** level of theory were performed to investigate the mutual influence between the chalcogen bond and pnictogen bond interactions in the $\text{XHS}\cdots\text{NCH}_2\text{P}\cdots\text{NCY}$ complexes, where $\text{X}=\text{F}, \text{Cl}$; $\text{Y}=\text{H}, \text{OH}, \text{NH}_2, \text{CN}$ and NC . Our results indicated that chalcogen and pnictogen bonds interactions in the title complexes enhance each other, i.e., there is a positive cooperative effect between the monomers. This is confirmed by geometric and energetic parameters; the $\text{S(P)}\cdots\text{N}$ distance becomes shorter and the interaction energy becomes more negative in the ternary systems. In the ternary systems, the interaction energy of chalcogen bonding is increased by 15–22 %, whereas that of pnictogen bonding is increased by about 24–40 %. The increase of the latter is much greater than that of the former. According to energy decomposition analysis, the attractive E_{elst} and E_{pol} components make the major contribution to the interaction energies of dyads and triads. The variations of the ^{15}J (S–N) and ^{19}J (P–N) values in the triads are dependent on the strength of the interaction and they become larger in the order $\text{Y}=\text{NH}_2>\text{OH}>\text{H}>\text{NC}>\text{CN}$.

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