

Atomic Properties of N<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub> Based on Its Experimental Charge DensityMarc Messerschmidt,<sup>†</sup> Armin Wagner,<sup>†</sup> Ming Wah Wong,<sup>‡</sup> and Peter Luger<sup>\*,†</sup>

Institute for Chemistry/Crystallography, Free University Berlin, Takustrasse 6, 14195 Berlin, Germany, and

Department of Chemistry, National University of Singapore, Kent Ridge, Singapore 119260

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Bader's theory of atoms in molecules (AIM)<sup>1</sup> provides a well-defined procedure of partitioning a molecule into atomic regions with zero-flux surfaces (ZFS) as boundaries. Surfaces of this type establish atomic basins around nuclear attractors of the corresponding trajectories of the electron density gradient vector field. As a result, each basin uniquely defines an atomic volume. With the knowledge of the shape and volume of an atom, a number of atomic or functional group properties can be evaluated; for instance, atomic charges can be obtained by integration over the charge density in the given atomic volume. Because of the nontrivial shape of the ZFS, they are not easy to evaluate. Although this procedure has been applied successfully to charge density analysis in theoretical calculations,<sup>2</sup> partitioning of experimental charge densities is only possible very recently, for example with the newly developed TOPXD program by Coppens et al.<sup>3</sup> Because the algorithm to derive the experimental ZFS is still very time-consuming, present applications are restricted to smaller molecules. Nitrogen dioxide is therefore considered as an ideal system for experimental investigation. Furthermore, the electronic structure and bonding of this species are of fundamental chemical interest. NO<sub>2</sub><sup>\*</sup> radical is known to exist in the crystal as a dimer N<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub>, formed via addition of two NO<sub>2</sub><sup>\*</sup> radicals. N<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub> is characterized by a very long N–N bond length of 1.76 Å.<sup>4</sup> Nitrogen dioxide (mp = –15 °C) is a liquid at ambient conditions. In the present experiment, it was crystallized from the melt in an X-ray capillary at low-temperature conditions directly on the diffractometer. The cubic phase of N<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub> crystallizes in the space group *Im* $\bar{3}$ . Due to the high Laue symmetry, a data set of high redundancy (average  $\approx$  17.8) could be collected.<sup>5</sup> After merging, a data set of 720 unique reflections ( $\sin(\theta_{\max})/\lambda = 1.249 \text{ \AA}^{-1}$ ) was used for a multipole refinement according to the Hansen–Coppens formalism<sup>6</sup> up to the hexadecapole level with the XD program.<sup>7</sup> The refinement led to a reasonable fit ( $R(F) = 2.17\%$ ) with a maximum residual density of 0.14 e/Å<sup>3</sup>. From the obtained multipole parameters,<sup>8</sup> a topological analysis of charge density was performed and atomic properties were evaluated.

N<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub>, a prototypical species of weakly bonded systems, has been the subject also of intense theoretical interest.<sup>9–11</sup> A comprehensive theoretical study by Schaefer et al. has shown that this weakly bonded system can be described properly by using single reference treatments.<sup>9</sup> In addition, Kovacs et al. have indicated that DFT calculations can reproduce well the structure and vibrational spectra of N<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub>.<sup>10</sup> Here, we have employed the B3LYP functional in conjunction with the 6-31G(d) basis set to investigate the structure and charge density of N<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub><sup>12</sup> and to compare with the experimental findings. We note that the calculated N–N and N–O bond lengths are in excellent agreement with experiment (Table 1). To gain further insight into the electronic structure of this intriguing species,

Table 1. Electron Densities at BCPs<sup>a</sup>

bond	<i>d</i> [Å]	$\rho_b$ [e/Å <sup>3</sup> ]	$\nabla^2\rho_b$ [e/Å <sup>3</sup> ]	$\epsilon$
N–O	1.1902(3)	3.69(3)	–27.30(13)	0.10
	1.196	3.63	–26.60	0.07
N–N	1.7586(7)	1.22(1)	0.83(3)	0.19
	1.781	1.00	1.83	0.13

<sup>a</sup> Theoretical values in second row.

Table 2. N–N BCP's of Model Compounds

compound	<i>n</i>	HF/6-31G(d) $\rho_b$ [e/Å <sup>3</sup> ]	B3LYP/6-31G(d) $\rho_b$ [e/Å <sup>3</sup> ]
N <sub>2</sub> H <sub>4</sub>	1	2.20	2.04
N <sub>2</sub> H <sub>2</sub>	2	3.48	3.21
N <sub>2</sub>	3	4.80	4.48

the AIM<sup>1</sup> topological analysis was carried out using the Morphy98<sup>13</sup> and TOPXD<sup>3</sup> programs. A summary of experimental and theoretical topological descriptors at the bond critical points (BCPs defined by the condition that  $\nabla\rho_b$  vanishes) of N<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub> is given in Table 1.

The bond strength (or bond order) of N<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub> is of chemical interest because of the extremely long N–N bond length of 1.76 Å. To obtain quantitative information about the bond order (*n*), the value of charge density  $\rho_b$  at the BCP of a model set of N–N and N–O containing compounds, namely N<sub>2</sub>H<sub>4</sub>, N<sub>2</sub>H<sub>2</sub>, N<sub>2</sub>, H<sub>3</sub>NO, HNO<sub>3</sub>, HNO<sub>2</sub>, HNO, N<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> were considered. Since experimental charge densities of these compounds are not available, the B3LYP/6-31G(d) wave functions were used for this purpose. From the calculations, N–O single and double bonds correspond to  $\rho_b$  value of 2.48(32) e/Å<sup>3</sup> and 3.60(20) e/Å<sup>3</sup>, respectively. Thus, the N–O bonds in N<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub> are equivalent to that of a normal double bond. If a linear fit is applied to the bond order/theoretical  $\rho_b$  value distribution (Table 2) an estimate bond order of  $n \approx 0.5$  is obtained for the N–N bond in N<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub>. However, an extrapolation to bond orders smaller than one is uncertain. For the relation between bond order and  $\rho_b$  values Bader<sup>1</sup> suggests an exponential function for C–C bonds and recommends a linear fit for N–N bonds. In both cases the extrapolation to zero bond order is not well defined. The rather weak N–N bond may be attributed to the strong repulsion between the oxygen lone pairs and the strong positively charged nitrogen atoms.

The valence-shell charge concentrations (VSCCs) are illustrated by the experimental Laplacian representation in Figure 1. The positions of the VSCCs at the oxygen are somewhat surprising because they are orthogonal to the N–O bond and form an angle of 174/156° (experiment/theory) with the oxygen atom. These positions can be explained with the sp-hybridized oxygen, which is in agreement with the theoretically calculated molecular orbitals (MOs). Inspection of the MOs indicates that there are orthogonal  $\pi$ -systems that form the N–O bond in addition to  $\sigma$  bonding MOs. Thus, in this case the localized VSCCs on oxygen are involved in the  $\pi$  bonds and do not correspond to lone pairs of the oxygen.

An atomic partitioning making use of the ZFS was performed

\* Author for correspondence. Fax: +49(30)838-53464. E-mail: luger@chemie.fu-berlin.de.

<sup>†</sup> Free University Berlin.<sup>‡</sup> National University of Singapore.

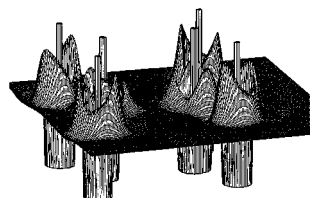


Figure 1. Experimental Laplacian distribution.

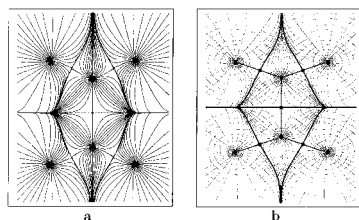


Figure 2. Experimental (a) and theoretical (b) gradient vector field.

Table 3. Atomic Volumes in  $\text{\AA}^3$ <sup>a</sup>

	expt	B3LYP/6-31G(d)	B3LYP/6-311+G(d)	B3LYP/6-311+(3df)
N	7.9	7.4	7.7	7.3
O	15.5	16.5	16.9	17.2

<sup>a</sup>Theoretical volumes were obtained from electron density contour of  $\rho = 0.001$  au.

with TOPXD.<sup>3</sup> As illustrated by the gradient vector field (Figure 2), the shape and atomic volumes derived by experiment and theory (Table 3) are very similar. The cutoff  $\rho = 0.001$  au, which is normally used in theory,<sup>14</sup> seems justified by the TOPXD findings in that its application to the experiment gives 98% of the ZFS atomic volumes. The atomic volume of oxygen is about twice that of nitrogen, and the sum multiplied by the number of atoms in the unit cell reproduces within less than 0.1% the cell volume obtained from X-ray experiment.

Finally, we examine the atomic charges derived from experiment and theory. Atomic charge is an important property, which is often used to rationalize structural and reactivity differences. Numerous definitions of atomic charges and atomic populations have been published in the literature.<sup>15</sup> Thus, it is instructive to provide a detailed comparison. The experimental atomic populations were obtained by integrating the charge density contributions over the atomic regions defined by the zero-flux surfaces, and the experimentally derived charges for N and O atoms are 0.464 and  $-0.235$ , respectively. For calculated atomic populations, we have considered four commonly used methods of computing atomic charges: (1) Mulliken,<sup>16</sup> (2) AIM,<sup>1</sup> (3) natural population (NPA),<sup>17</sup> and (4) the CHELP<sup>18</sup> analysis. The Mulliken and NPA methods are partition schemes based on the basis functions that are used to represent the wave functions, while CHELP charges are derived by fitting the electrostatic potential. The calculated charges using the Hartree–Fock (HF), B3LYP, and MP2 methods, based on the crystal geometry, are summarized in Table 4. Three different basis sets, namely 6-31G(d), 6-31+G(d), and 6-311+G(3df), were employed. Not surprisingly, the Mulliken charges are strongly basis-set dependent. Peculiarly, calculations with the 6-311+G(d) basis set predict the wrong sign in atomic charges. The calculated charges for the other three methods are less basis-set dependent. The AIM charges are rather independent of the theoretical method used. However, they are consistently too high compared to the experimental values. Few studies of experimental and theoretical AIM charges exist. Hence, it is uncertain, how the crystal field may influence the charge distribution. Additional periodic HF and B3LYP calculations<sup>19</sup> support the nonperiodic results (Table 4). The multipole model, which fits the experimental data, is based on Slater type functions and has been reported to be of insufficient flex-

Table 4. Calculated Atomic Charges Based on Experimental Geometry

level	Mulliken		AIM		NPA		CHELP	
	N	O	N	O	N	O	N	O
HF/6-31G(d)	0.71	-0.35	0.81	-0.41	0.71	-0.35	0.63	-0.31
HF/6-311+G(d)	0.00	0.00	0.81	-0.41	0.69	-0.35	0.66	-0.33
HF/6-311+G(3df)	0.96	-0.48	0.86	-0.43	0.71	-0.35	0.61	-0.30
B3LYP/6-31G(d)	0.60	-0.30	0.73	-0.37	0.55	-0.27	0.51	-0.25
B3LYP/6-311+G(d)	-0.10	0.05	0.72	-0.36	0.54	-0.27	0.56	-0.28
B3LYP/6-311+G(3df)	0.65	-0.33	0.76	-0.38	0.55	-0.27	0.53	-0.26
MP2/6-31G(d)	0.52	-0.26	0.73	-0.37	0.50	-0.25	0.48	-0.24
MP2/6-311+G(d)	-0.15	0.07	0.73	-0.37	0.48	-0.24	0.52	-0.26
MP2/6-311+G(3df)	0.75	-0.38	0.77	-0.39	0.49	-0.25	0.48	-0.24
PHF/6-21G(d)			0.94	-0.47				
PB3LYP/6-21G(d)			0.83	-0.41				
experiment			0.46	-0.24				

ibility.<sup>20</sup> Thus, the influence of the model on the AIM charges has to be further examined.

Both NPA and CHELP procedures give more comparable atomic charges. Their HF values are somewhat too high, but inclusion of electron correlation lowers the computed charges appreciably. At both B3LYP and MP2 levels, the calculated charges are close to the experimental derived values. It is important to note also that the observed trend in atomic charges is independent of the geometry used (see Supporting Information). Further work is in progress to examine whether our findings are of general nature.

**Supporting Information Available:** Additional tables (PDF). This material is available free of charge via the Internet at <http://pubs.acs.org>.

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