Spartan’10
for Windows, Macintosh and Linux

Tutorial
and
User's Guide

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Scope of this Guide

This guide provides a general reference for Spartan’10 for Windows, Macintosh and Linux. It is divided into 22 chapters grouped into three sections, along with several appendices.

Section I (Introduction, Chapter 1) introduces Spartan as a tool for exploring organic, bioorganic, inorganic and organometallic chemistry by way of molecular mechanics and quantum chemical calculations, together with an array of graphical models for conveying the results of these calculations. The section ends with a brief discussion of new capabilities in Spartan’10 as well as changes and improvements over previous versions.

Section II (Getting Started, Chapters 2 to 11) describes the overall operating environment of Spartan, and then provides an extensive set of hands-on tutorials. This section is the place to start for new users of the program and should also be examined by users of previous versions of Spartan.

Section III (Features and Functions, Chapters 12 to 22) describes in detail the functions available from the menus and dialogs incorporated into the graphical user interface for Spartan. The focus is on graphical input and manipulation of structure, input of other required information and text, spectral and graphical output resulting from molecular mechanics and quantum chemical calculations, and on use of databases of previously-calculated structures, energies, properties and spectra accessible from Spartan. This section is intended as a general reference to Spartan’10.

What this guide does not do is document the performance and cost (in computation time) of the different molecular mechanics and quantum chemical models available in Spartan’10, or recommend specific models or combinations of models for use on chemical problems. Nor does it show the utility of graphical models in presenting and interpreting the results of the calculations. These topics, among several others, are touched on in Appendix A (also available under
Topics from the Activities menu). They are also covered in depth in A Guide to Molecular Mechanics and Quantum Chemical Calculations included as a PDF under the Help menu and available from Wavefunction as a hardbound volume. The guide also provides a collection of illustrative examples.

Additional appendices provide an overview of the program’s overall architecture as well as its present capabilities and limitations (B), a directory of functions under its menus (C), a listing of commonly-used options (D), a listing of units (E), the proper citation for the program (F), instructions for installing the Cambridge Structural Database (G), directions for making databases from Spartan calculations (H), examples of pharmacophore input (I), input of experimental infrared, UV/visible and NMR spectra (J), directions for installing a network HASP (K) and a listing of NMR chemical shift standards (L). Additional materials relating to several of these appendices may be found as PDFs under the Help menu.

An up-to-date version of this Tutorial and User’s Guide is available on Wavefunction’s website (directly accessible from the Help menu).
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Section I

Introduction

Molecular mechanics calculations and quantum chemical calculations play an ever-increasing role in modern chemistry. Primary functions are to supply information about structures, relative stabilities and other properties of isolated molecules. Because of their inherent simplicity, molecular mechanics calculations on complex molecules are widespread throughout the chemical community. Quantum chemical calculations, including Hartree-Fock molecular orbital calculations, but especially calculations that take account of electron correlation, are much more time demanding. Only recently, have fast enough computers become widely available to make their application routine among mainstream chemists.

Quantum chemical calculations may also be called upon to furnish information about the mechanisms and product distributions of chemical reactions, either directly by calculations on transition states, or indirectly based on the Hammond Postulate, by modeling the steric and electronic demands of the reactants. Quantitative calculations, leading directly to information about the geometries of transition states, and about reaction mechanisms in general, are becoming more and more common, while qualitative models are still needed for systems that are too large or too complicated to be subjected to the more rigorous treatments. Finally, quantum chemical calculations can supply information to complement existing experimental data or to replace it altogether, for example, atomic charges for QSAR analyses, and intermolecular potentials for molecular mechanics and molecular dynamics calculations.

Spartan’10 (“Spartan”) has been designed to address the ever increasing role that calculations play in chemistry and related fields. It represents a continuing collaboration between Wavefunction, Inc., and Q-Chem, Inc. Q-Chem codes supplement and extend the traditional strengths of Spartan as an easy to learn and use tool for
molecular mechanics, semi-empirical and Hartree-Fock molecular orbital calculations, as well as a wide variety of graphical models, with a full range of density functional models and a broad selection of wavefunction-based post-Hartree-Fock models. All models have been implemented using what we believe are the most robust algorithms currently available, and have been tuned for high performance on Intel and AMD processors including multi-core processors.

**Spartan is intended to be utilized by chemists,** not only computational chemists who are already familiar with the capabilities of molecular mechanics and quantum chemical methods, but also experimental chemists who may have little or no prior experience, but who want to use calculations much in the same way as experimental techniques such as NMR spectroscopy. This ambitious goal is directly reflected in the program’s overall design criteria: “convenient access both to a full range of modern molecular mechanics and quantum chemical models and tools for interpretation of the results of calculations”, and clearly distinguishes Spartan from other molecular modeling packages.

Spartan is supported under Windows (XP, XP 64, Vista and 7, 32 and 64 bit), Macintosh (OS X 10.5 and 10.6), Linux (Linux Kernel 2.6 or later). The Linux version (only) may be used in a server mode with Windows, Macintosh or Linux acting as a front end, and can also perform calculations locally. The appearance and functionality of the different versions of Spartan are nearly identical.

New features in Spartan’10 include the following:

**Infrastructure**

**Tabs.** Each open molecule is now given a tab, any or all of which may either be turned on or off. All tabs on mimics Spartan’s previous display paradigm (all open molecules are displayed). Turning tabs off simplifies screen clutter.

**64-Bit Implementation (Windows only).** The graphical user interface now supports 64 bit chip architectures (64 bit versions of back-end codes were released with Spartan’08). This allows Spartan documents in excess of 2 GB, meaning that very large molecule lists
may now be handled. Choice between 32 and 64 bit architectures is automatic and made at the time of installation.

**File Compression.** Files generated from *Spartan* (.spartan files) have been significantly reduced in size due to elimination of the part of the wavefunction that is not used, to file compression and reduction of precision of data used for construction of graphical displays. This reduction ranges from a factor of five to between one and two orders of magnitude.

**Monitor.** The *Spartan* job monitor has been extended to allow real-time visualization of molecular structure. This means that progress of a geometry/transition-state geometry optimization can be followed.

**Color Palette.** A new color palette has been provided.

**Customizable Icons.** *Spartan*’s icons may now be individually selected for display.

**Graphical User Interface**

**Simplified Graphics Requests.** The most commonly requested graphics (HOMO, LUMO, electron density, and electrostatic potential, local ionization potential and LUMO maps) may now be requested by the above names instead of as combinations of surfaces and properties.

**Multi-Dimensional Energy Profiles.** Multi-dimensional energy profiles may now be constructed with arbitrary limits on the number of steps in each dimension. Plots from two-dimensional profiles may be made.

**Ramachandran Plot.** A Ramachandran plot may be made for a protein structure retrieved from PDB.

**Formula Editor.** A dialog has been provided for construction of quantities (properties or combination of properties) of individual molecules or of molecules related by chemical reaction. These formulas can then be used in spreadsheet calculations or as queries for database searches (mining) and subsequent statistical analysis and plotting.
**QSAR Descriptors.** Descriptors for QSAR type analyses have been collected in one place, and may now be conveniently transferred for data analysis. A series of new descriptors based on the electron density surface and the electrostatic potential and local ionization potential maps have been added.

**Thermodynamic Quantities.** The zero-point energy, enthalpy, heat capacity, entropy and Gibbs energy (the last four as a function of temperature) are available. These require vibrational frequencies (the infrared spectrum) to have been calculated.

**Computation**

**RI-CIS(D) Gradients.** Gradients from RI-CIS(D) models are available allowing efficient calculation of the geometries of excited states.

**Multi-Core Parallel.** Vibrational frequency calculation has been parallelized for Hartree-Fock and density functional models, resulting in a speed improvement of approximately 1.8 for a two-core machine and 3.2 for a four-core machine. RI-MP2 has been parallelized. The underlying Hartree-Fock part (which completely dominates the calculation for less than 500 basis functions) gives speed improvements of approximately 1.9 for a two-core machine and 3.5 for a four-core machine. Speed improvements for the MP2 part are not as large. An important practical consequence is that the speed of T1 thermochemical calculations now improve significantly on multi-core machines.

**PM6.** The PM6 semi-empirical model has been implemented. This offers some improvement over PM3. PM6 becomes the second semi-empirical method available in *Spartan* that may be applied to transition metals.

**T1 Extensions.** The T1 thermochemical recipe has been extended to include molecules with silicon and phosphorus. Extension to boron is underway. A procedure for reliably estimating the best (lowest) T1 energy for a flexible molecule has been specified and implemented inside the graphical user interface.
**IRC.** The Intrinsic Reaction Coordinate (IRC) procedure in previous versions of Spartan has been improved.

**Graphical Models**

**Orbital Energy Diagram.** An orbital energy diagram (spanning up to 20 occupied valence molecular orbitals and 2 unoccupied molecular orbitals) may now be displayed for the selected molecule. Clicking on a line (energy level) in this diagram generates on-the-fly and displays the orbital (assuming that the wavefunction is available). Orbitals generated in this way are not kept when the molecule is closed.

**Slicing Planes.** Graphical surfaces may now be sliced allowing the inside or graphical surfaces (in particular, property maps) to be seen.

**Areas of Banded Property Maps.** This allows the area of a band on a property map to be determined. It is useful in quantifying the results of graphical models, for example, which face of a molecule is more likely to undergo electrophilic or nucleophilic attack.

**Spectroscopy**

**NMR.** The NMR spectra dialog has been completely reorganized allowing (independent or simultaneous) display of six different spectra: $^1$H, $^{13}$C, DEPT, COSY, HMBC and HSQC. Empirically-estimated H-H coupling constants may or may not be included in $^1$H, COSY, HMBC and HSQC plots and all plots may be averaged using Boltzmann weights (if available). Experimental $^1$H, and $^{13}$C and DEPT spectra (available from a public online database or accessed from a local file) may be displayed with or in place of calculated spectra.

A new scheme for correcting $^{13}$C chemical shifts has been implemented for spectra obtained from the EDF2/6-31G* model (only). The supplements the scheme provided in Spartan’08 (based on topology and applicable only to spectra obtained from the B3LYP/6-31G* model). The new scheme (based on topology and on bond orders to atoms connected to carbon) provides shifts with an (RMS) error of approximately 1.7 ppm (down from approximately
Infrared

Raman. Raman spectra may be calculated from Hartree-Fock and density functional models. Calculated Raman spectra may be fit to experimental spectra the using an overall frequency scale parameter and a width parameter (analogous to what is done for infrared spectra).

Databases

Spartan Molecular Database (SMD). The full Spartan Molecular Database (provided with maintenance) continues to expand. Approximately 3,000 transition-metal inorganic and organometallic compounds have been added to SMD obtained from calculations using the B3LYP/6-31G* model (or the analogous B3LYP/LACVP* model for second and third-row metals). This model has been shown to provide a good account of equilibrium geometries for organometallic compounds (based primarily on comparisons with X-ray crystal structures). Experimental thermochemical data for organometallic compounds are almost non-existent, and detailed assessment of the B3LYP for reaction energies is not possible. However, the B3LYP/6-31G* model appears to properly account for observed products in cases where multiple products are possible. All entries correspond to optimized geometries, and infrared spectra have been provided for most entries. (A sample of approximately 6,000 molecules is provided with all copies of Spartan.)

Spartan Spectra and Properties Database (SSPD). A new database of IR and NMR spectra and of molecular and atomic properties, QSAR descriptors and thermodynamic quantities has been developed and is available as an option to Spartan’10. (A sample of approximately 6,000 molecules is provided with all copies of Spartan.) At first release, it contains ~70,000 molecules and is expected to double in size by the end of 2011. SSPD entries are based on equilibrium geometries from the EDF2/6-31G* density functional model using the best conformation obtained from the
T1 thermochemical recipe. In addition to spectra, properties, QSAR descriptors and thermodynamic quantities, SSPD entries include the T1 heat of formation, the vibrational modes (allowing animation of the motions associated with individual frequencies) and the wavefunction (allowing on-the-fly generation and display of graphical surfaces) including the molecular orbitals and property maps such as the electrostatic potential map.

**Data Mining.** Data mining allows access to all information relating to molecular structure, properties and spectra contained in SMD and SSPD (presently >600K entries in total). The primary objective is to allow relationships among different quantities or combinations of quantities to be examined across entire series of molecules. Information retrieved from mining may be presented in the form of histograms or XY plots and may be used as the basis for linear regression. Data mining opens up a wealth of information to exploration.

Data mining is accomplished in a series of steps. First, a **structural query** is devised and all entries in SMD or SSPD containing this query are retrieved. For example, were the structural query the molecule phenol with an open valence at the *para* position, all *para*-sustituted phenols available in SMD or SSPD would be retrieved. Next, one or more **property queries** are formulated. These might simply refer to individual quantities such as the dipole moment or the charge on a particular atom. More generally, they may reference a combination of properties, for example, the charge on one atom times the charge on another atom. By associating reaction arrows with a structural query, property queries can be extended to refer to one of the products of a chemical reaction (fully defined given the structural query and the reaction arrows) or to a property of the reaction itself, most conspicuously, the energy of the reaction. Finally, one or more properties queries and brought together with the retrieved data from SMD or SSPD. Results from mining SMD or SSPD may be displayed in terms of histograms or scatter plots. In addition, multiple regression analysis may be carried out to uncover relationships among properties.
**Spartan Infrared Database (SIRD).** The interface to the Spartan Infrared Database has been completely reworked. Matching to an unknown (experimental) spectrum may now be accomplished with or without functional group, formula and substructure filters.

**Documentation**

**Tutorials, Topics and Problems.** The full set of Spartan tutorials and a selection of discussion topics and problems may be opened inside of Spartan. Tutorials are indexed by chapter (in this manual).

**Wikipedia Access.** A Wikipedia page may be brought up from Spartan. Access is provided both from the Activities menu where the query is entered explicitly and from the Database Preview dialog where the query is the name of the molecule.

Changes from Spartan’10 and Spartan’08 include the following:

**Attachment Points/Reaction Arrows.** Specification of attachment points (used in database searches and reaction arrows (used both in database searches and transition-state guessing) have been separated from these functions.

**Database Dialogs.** A Spartan document (including a blank document in the case of a name search or spectra search) is required for entry into the databases. This is a consequence of being able to save search and data mining results.

**T1 Database.** The T1 database is no longer available. Rather, T1 heats of formation are included with all entries in the SMD and SSPD databases for which the T1 data are available.

**On-Line PDB Access.** PDB access has been moved from the Search menu to the File menu.

Since the release of Spartan’08, Spartan users have diligently reported program bugs via support@wavefun.com. All reported bugs have been addressed. Wavefunction would like to thank our customers for their help in making Spartan a better program. User-feedback is greatly appreciated!
This chapter describes the architecture of Spartan’10, focusing on the connectivity of graphics, database and computational components. Available molecular mechanics and quantum chemical methods are enumerated, and their overall role suggested.

Spartan’10 (“Spartan”) is a cross-platform application. With very few exceptions, Spartan’s operations and features are identical between Windows, Mac and Linux versions. The following nomenclature will be used throughout this manual to indicate the few cases where features are not available: NAL; Not Available Linux, NAM; Not Available Macintosh and NAW; Not Available Windows.

Spartan comprises a series of independent modules tightly connected via a graphical user interface that is highly functional, yet simple and uncluttered. It has been designed not only to greatly reduce the drudgery and possibility for human error associated with the preparation of input, but also to guide the interpretation of output. The interface is perhaps best viewed as an interactive and intuitive window into a full range of modern computational techniques.
Included in the interface are builders for organic, inorganic and organometallic molecules, polypeptides and polynucleotides, as well as for creating substituted molecules, and a procedure for guessing transition states. Access to ChemDraw\textsuperscript{1} is provided without having to exit Spartan’s interface. The interface provides access by substructure to the Spartan Molecular Database (SMD), a collection of over 150,000 calculated structures and associated properties of molecules, each obtained from as many as nine different theoretical models (Hartree-Fock models with 3-21G, 6-31G* and 6-311+G** basis sets, B3LYP and MP2 models with the 6-31G* and 6-311+G** basis sets, the EDF1 model with the 6-31G* basis set and the G3(MP2) model. New in Spartan’10 is a collection of approximately 3,000 transition-metal inorganic and organometallic molecules obtained from the B3LYP/6-31G* model. The Spartan Reaction Database (SRD) has been significantly enhanced and now contains transition states for approximately 1,500 organic and organometallic reactions each obtained at one or more theoretical models. It may be accessed either by substructure searching (as SMD) or automatically, based on the structure of the reactant and a set of “curly arrows” defining the reaction.

The Spartan Spectra and Properties Database (SSPD)\textsuperscript{2} appears for the first time with Spartan’10. It comprises IR and NMR spectra and diverse atomic and molecular properties together with QSAR and thermodynamic quantities descriptors for ~70,000 molecules. Database entries include the vibrational modes, allowing animation of atomic motions associated with lines in the IR spectrum, and the wavefunction, allowing on-the-fly generation and display of graphical models. Entries are based on equilibrium structures obtained from the EDF2/6-31G* density functional model and (where T1 has been defined) assuming the lowest-energy conformer assigned by the T1 thermochemical recipe. SSPD will be updated twice a year and the next release scheduled for June 2011 will contain upwards of ~120,000 molecules.

The Spartan Infrared Database (SIRD)\textsuperscript{2} comprises almost all the molecules with molecular weights < 400 amu as well as a selection of larger molecules in SSPD. It differs from SSPD in that it is searched
by matching to an unknown (experimental) infrared spectrum.

New to Spartan’10 is capability to “mine” SMD and SSPD, not only for information about individual molecules, but also about relationships among molecules in balanced chemical reactions. Basic statistical analysis and plotting capabilities have been provided, including a new capability for singular value decomposition (finding the most important of a starting set of variables).

Also provided is an interface to the Cambridge Structural Database (CSD), comprising (at the time of writing) more than 500,000 experimental X-ray crystal structures, and automatic retrieval from the PDB database comprising (at the time of writing) nearly 72,000 protein and related crystal structures. Both CSD and PBD continue to increase in size. Finally, Spartan allows for import of a variety of data files, most important among them being PDB (protein structures) and SDF (structure drawings). Thus, it is not only possible to construct molecules from scratch, but also to access existing structures.

Spartan’s interface provides the gateway to a range of modern computational methods, including molecular mechanics models, semi-empirical and Hartree-Fock molecular orbital models, and a variety of correlated models including density functional and Møller-Plesset models. None of these models is likely to be ideal for every application. While the most sophisticated quantum chemical models may yield excellent results, they will likely be too time consuming for routine application, and it will usually be necessary to contend with lesser treatments. Spartan’s interface facilitates mixing and matching different molecular mechanics and quantum-chemical models. Results from one model may easily be passed on for further analysis with another (more rigorous) model.

The simplest computational methods in Spartan are molecular mechanics models using the SYBYL and MMFF force fields, with aqueous energy corrections available for the latter (MMFFaq). These are available to determine equilibrium geometries and conformations of molecules comprising upwards of several thousand atoms. These are the only computational techniques that are applicable to biopolymers.
In addition, databases of diverse conformers obtained from MMFF molecular mechanics and intended to be used for similarity analysis are available.

Quantum chemical models are required to account for the geometries of transition states as well as for reaction and activation energies. The simplest of these, semi-empirical molecular orbital models, can be routinely applied to systems with 100-200 atoms. Supported in Spartan are the MNDO model (with extensions for second-row and heavier main-group elements), the AM1 model, the PM3 model (with parameters for transition metals) and the RM1 model (a reparameterization of AM1). The PM6 semi-empirical molecule has been made available with the introduction of Spartan’10. While semi-empirical models have proven to be quite successful for determining equilibrium geometries including the geometries of transition-metal compounds, they have not proven to be reliable for the calculation of the reaction energies.

Hartree-Fock molecular orbital models are a mainstay of quantum chemical techniques, in particular, for equilibrium and transition-state structure determination, and for thermochemical comparisons. The models available in Spartan may be routinely applied to molecules with up to one hundred atoms. Hartree-Fock models are, however, not adequate for thermochemical comparisons where bonds are broken or formed, making them suspect for the calculation of activation energies. Also, Hartree-Fock models provide a poor account of the geometries of molecules incorporating transition metals. So-called correlated models are required. Several classes of correlated models are available in Spartan: density functional models, Møller-Plesset models, coupled cluster models and quadratic configuration interaction (QCI) models. Density functional models may be routinely applied to molecules of the same size as with Hartree-Fock models. On the other hand, the simplest Møller-Plesset model (MP2) is limited to molecules comprising thirty or fewer atoms. The recently introduced RI-MP2 model is nearly an order of magnitude faster than MP2 for energy calculations and 2-3 times faster for equilibrium and transition-state geometry calculations, but provides nearly identical results.
Higher order (MP3 and MP4) Møller-Plesset, coupled-cluster and QCI models are available for energy calculations only. They are limited in practice to molecules with less than 10-20 heavy (non-hydrogen) atoms. Hartree-Fock and correlated models may be used with a variety of all-electron Gaussian basis sets. Hartree-Fock models are often quite successful with split-valence basis sets, while correlated models require polarization basis sets, and in some cases basis sets incorporating diffuse functions. Dual-basis set calculations, which approximate changes in energy and wavefunction resulting from extension from a small basis set to a large basis set, are also available. They can lead to an order of magnitude performance enhancement over calculations that directly use large basis sets. Pseudopotentials are provided for use with both Hartree-Fock and correlated models for calculations on molecules incorporating elements heavier than Kr (for which all-electron bases sets are not available).

A series of recipes (combinations of different methods) are available to estimate heats of formation. G2, G3 and G3 (MP2) recipes, while applicable only to very small systems, have been shown to yield heats of formation in excellent accord with experiment, and are benchmarks against which other calculations may be judged. The T1 recipe closely reproduces heats of formation from the G3 (MP2) recipe but requires 2-3 orders of magnitude less computation time. T1 is used as a basis for choosing the lowest-energy conformer for almost all entries in the Spartan Spectra and Properties Database, and the T1 heat of formation is included as a property.

**Spartan** provides singles configuration interaction (CIS) techniques for energies, equilibrium and transition-state geometry and conformation calculations on molecules in electronically-excited states. In addition, energy calculations (only) on excited states with the CIS (D) and RI-CIS(D) models as well as a range of density functional models may be performed.

**Spartan** provides access to several common spectral quantities, in particular infrared spectra (molecular mechanics, semi-empirical, Hartree-Fock, density functional and MP2 models), Raman spectra (Hartree-Fock and density functional models), NMR spectra (Hartree-
Fock and density functional models) and UV/visible spectra (CIS, CIS(D) and density functional models). These are available both as numerical data (vibrational frequencies, chemical shifts, etc.) as well as spectral plots. Spectra may be directly input to Spartan and internet connections to public IR, NMR and UV/visible databases are available allowing direct comparison of calculated and experimental spectra. The infrared spectra fitting procedure first provided in Spartan’08 has been significantly improved in Spartan’10 and a new interface has been implemented. This accesses the Spartan Infrared Database, a collection of 70,000 calculated infrared spectra at initial release.

The empirical scheme introduced in Spartan’08 to correct $^{13}$C chemical shifts obtained from the B3LYP/6-31G* model has been supplemented by a new scheme that applies to the EDF2/6-31G* density functional model. It reduces the rms error in $^{13}$C shifts to 1.2-1.8 ppm, down from 2.0-2.6 ppm for the original correction scheme and from >6 ppm for uncorrected shifts. We believe that $^{13}$C NMR spectra obtained from the corrected EDF2/6-31G* model are now of sufficient quality to be useful in assigning experimentally determined NMR spectra. A collection of ~70,000 calculated proton and $^{13}$C NMR spectra is available in the initial release of the Spartan Spectra and Properties Database.

Spartan provides tools to quantify both the similarity of molecular structures and of chemical environments characteristic of these structures. Also available is the ability to identify molecules that fit into a specific chemical environment (a so-called pharmacophore). Finally, pharmacophores may be extracted from small molecules bound to proteins and nucleotides in the PDB.

Spartan provides a variety of graphical tools to assist in interpreting the results of calculations as well as similarity analyses. These include structure models, and also molecular orbitals, electron and spin densities, local ionization potentials and electrostatic potentials that can be displayed as surfaces, slices and property maps. New to Spartan’10 is an orbital energy diagram with subsequent clicking on an individual energy level in the diagram leading to display of the associated molecular orbital (assuming that a wavefunction is
available). **Spartan** provides the ability to distinguish accessible and inaccessible regions on a density surface and on property maps based on this surface. New to **Spartan’10** is the ability to measure the area of a banded region on a property map and slice into a graphical surface or property map allowing the inside to be seen.

Graphical models may be manipulated in real time, and as many as desired can be displayed simultaneously. Animation files may be made, and can be used to depict conformational changes or chemical reactions.

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1. ChemDraw is not included with **Spartan**, but may be obtained from CambridgeSoft (www.cambridgesoft.com). **NAL**, **NAM**. While all versions of **Spartan** are able to read ChemDraw files, seamless access is presently available only in the Windows version.
2. Subsets of SMD, SIRD and SSPD are provided with **Spartan**. The full SMD database is provided under maintenance contract. The full SSPD and SIRD databases (SIRD uses the entries in SSPD) may be licensed separately from Wavefunction.
3. The Cambridge Structural Database is not included with **Spartan**, but is available by subscription from the Cambridge Crystallographic Data Centre (www.ccdc.cam.ac.uk).
6. Databases comprising sets of diverse conformers pharmaceutical candidates as well as Maybridge and Life Chemicals collections may be licensed from Wavefunction.
Section II

Getting Started

The chapters in this section provide a brief introduction to the graphical user interface for Spartan’10, and following this, a series of tutorials. The objective of the latter is to provide hands on experience, and in doing so, illustrate the way in which molecular mechanics, quantum chemical calculations and similarity analyses may be set up, performed and interpreted. This is the place to start for new users. Users of previous versions of Spartan are also advised to review this section as there are a variety of new capabilities.

No attempt has been made to illustrate the full range of Spartan’s capabilities. For this, the reader should consult Section III of this guide. Focus is on the use of Spartan to calculate equilibrium and transition-state geometries, to search conformation space, to align molecules and evaluate the similarities of molecules, to evaluate reaction thermochemistry and activation energetics and to obtain NMR, infrared and UV/visible spectra with emphasis on NMR. Likewise, no attempt has been made to assess the performance of the various molecular mechanics and quantum chemical models.

Graphical models are illustrated in several of the tutorials that follow, and connections between specific models and chemical observables are pointed out, for example, between electrostatic potential maps and molecular polarity and between local ionization potential maps and electrophilic character.

Discussion of both the behavior of different molecular mechanics and quantum chemical models and of graphical modeling techniques is provided in Topics available under the Activities menu. A more complete account is provided in A Guide to Molecular Mechanics and Quantum Chemical Calculations, included as a PDF under the Help menu and also available from Wavefunction as a hardbound volume.
Operating Spartan (Chapter 2) outlines the basic workings of Spartan’s graphical user interface. It should be reviewed before starting the tutorials and referred to as needed. The tutorials that make up the bulk of this section are divided across nine chapters: Basic Operations, Organic Molecules, Groups of Organic Molecules, Spectra of Organic Molecules, Organic Reactions, Medicinal Chemistry, Polypeptides to Proteins, Inorganic/Organometallic Molecules and “Dry Labs”: Using the Spartan Spectra and Properties Database. The initial three cover a number of important general features and should be completed first, and in order. The next five chapters cover more specialized topics and may be completed in any order. The final chapter points to an entirely different mode of using Spartan by drawing on the large amount of information in the Spartan Spectra and Properties Database.

A few tutorials require precalculated results (in .spartan files) and/or experimental spectra (in .dx or .cml files). These have been provided and are specifically referenced for the individual tutorials.

Estimates for required computer time (in minutes, assuming a single processor on an Intel I7/920 processor) are indicated at the top of the first page of each tutorial. Users with dual and quad-core processors and who access Spartan’s parallel Hartree-Fock, density functional and RI-MP2 codes can expect significant reductions in these times.

Where two times are provided, the second corresponds to the total time including the optional parts of the tutorial.
Chapter 2

Operating Spartan

This chapter describes the general operating features of Spartan’10. It should be read prior to starting the tutorials.

Opening and Exiting Spartan

To open under Windows, click on the Start button, then click on All Programs, and finally click on Spartan’10 (or double click on the Spartan icon on your desktop). To open under Macintosh, double click on the Spartan’10 icon in the Applications Folder. To open under Linux, bring up a terminal and type spartan. To exit, select Exit from the File menu (Select Quit Spartan 10 from the Spartan 10 menu on Mac), or click the Close button (X) at the top right (top left for Mac) of the Spartan interface.

Menus

Program functions may be accessed using pull-down menus under the headings in the menu bar, for example, the Setup menu.

File Edit Model Geometry Build | Setup Display Search | Options Activities Help

| Calculations... | Surfaces | Submit |

File

Allows you to create a new molecule or read in a molecule that you have previously saved, or a file created by another program (for example, an SD file created by ChemDraw) to print text and graphics, embed external files (for example, Word and Excel files) into Spartan documents, to access PDB files online and to make QuickTime movies.

Edit

Allows you to transfer information to and from the clipboard, to undo the last operation, to find text strings and molecule fragments, to center molecules on screen, and to clear the active molecule by deleting it.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>Allows you to control the style of your model, to display hydrogen bonds and chemical function descriptors, and to couple or decouple molecules in a multi-molecule file. Allows you to display a Ramachandran plot for a protein structure brought in from PDB.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Geometry</td>
<td>Allows you to measure and constrain bond lengths, angles and dihedrals, define points and planes, setup frozen atoms, alter default settings for conformational degrees of freedom, select centers for similarity analysis and align molecules.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Build</td>
<td>Allows you to build and edit molecules and to create lists of substituted molecules. Provides seamless access to ChemDraw™. (NAL, NAM)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Setup</td>
<td>Allows you to specify the task to be performed and the theoretical model to be employed for this task, to specify graphical surfaces and property maps and to submit jobs for calculation.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Display</td>
<td>Allows you to display text output, molecular and atomic properties, QSAR descriptors and thermodynamic quantities, orbital energy diagrams, surfaces and property maps and infrared, Raman, NMR and UV/visible spectra, as well as to access experimental IR, NMR and UV/visible spectra over the internet or from local files. Allows you to present data in a spreadsheet and make plots from and perform regression analysis on these data, to access the results of a similarity analysis and to compute reaction energies based either on user data or from entries in the Spartan Molecular Database (SMD) or Spartan Spectra and Properties Database (SSPD).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Search</td>
<td>Allows you to specify queries for the Spartan Molecular Database (SMD), the Spartan Spectra and Properties Database (SSPD) and the Spartan Reaction Database (SRD). Allows you to search and mine SMD and SSPD for calculated structures, properties and spectra, and to search SRD for calculated transition-state structures. Allows you to search the Cambridge Structural Database (CSD) of experimental X-ray crystal structures, and to extract ligands from the Protein Data Bank (PDB). Allows you to match an unknown (experimental) infrared spectrum to calculated spectra in the Spartan Infrared Database</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
(SIRD). Allows you to guess a transition-state geometry based on a library of reactions and to identify tautomers.

**Options**
Allows you to set display standards, specify databases, assign compute servers, monitor executing jobs and specify queues and customize icons and other aspects of the graphical user interface.

**Activities**
Allows you to display tutorials and topics inside of Spartan and open up a Wikipedia search page.

**Help**
Provides access to information on Spartan’s general operation, the Spartan’10 Tutorial and User’s Guide, A Guide to Molecular Mechanics and Quantum Chemical Calculations, and a number of computational FAQ’s.

A complete listing of menu functions is provided in Appendix C.

**Keystroke Equivalents (NAM)**

Keystroke equivalents for menus are designated by the underlined letter: **File, Edit, Model, Geometry, Build, Setup, Display, Search, Options, Activities** and **Help**. To access a menu, *press* the **Alt** key (**Option** key on Mac) and the appropriate letter key (case insensitive), for example, **Alt S** to access the **Setup** menu.

Each menu entry is designated by an underlined letter. To access the entry, *press* the appropriate letter key, for example, *press* the **C** key to access the **Calculations** dialog.

**Icons**

Icons provide convenient access to selected functions under the **File, Build, Geometry, Properties** and **Search** menus, as well as other specialized functions. Icons may be selected or deselected for display from the **Toolbars Preferences** dialog (**Preferences** under the **Options** menu; **Chapter 20**).
Tabs

*Spartan’10* assigns a tab to each open document. These appear in a single row along the bottom of the screen in the order that the documents were created or read. Backward and forward step keys (and) at the far right provide access to tabs outside of those displayed. Documents are selected for display by *clicking* on its tab. To the left of each tab is a check box, which if checked indicates that the document will be displayed on screen even if it is not the selected document. The behavior of previous versions of *Spartan* (all tabs checked) can be preserved by selecting *Pin New Documents* from the *Settings Preferences* dialog (*Options* menu; Chapter 20). Alternatively, one or only a few tabs can be checked leading to less clutter on the screen.
**Mouse and Keyboard Operations**

The following functions are associated with the two-button mouse.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>keyboard</th>
<th>left</th>
<th>right</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>−</td>
<td>selection, X/Y rotate, atom/fragment exchange&lt;sup&gt;a&lt;/sup&gt;, fragment insertion&lt;sup&gt;a&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>X/Y translate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Shift</td>
<td>range selection, Z rotate</td>
<td>scaling&lt;sup&gt;b&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ctrl</td>
<td>global X/Y rotate&lt;sup&gt;c&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>global X/Y translate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ctrl + Shift</td>
<td>multiple selection, global Z rotate&lt;sup&gt;e&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>scaling&lt;sup&gt;b&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ctrl (add fragment mode)</td>
<td>fragment X/Y rotate</td>
<td>fragment X/Y translate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ctrl + Shift (add fragment mode)</td>
<td>fragment Z rotate</td>
<td>absolute configuration invert&lt;sup&gt;a,d&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ctrl + Shift&lt;sup&gt;d&lt;/sup&gt; (Mac &amp; Linux)</td>
<td>bond rotation</td>
<td>bond stretching</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Alt (Windows), <strong>option</strong> (Mac)</td>
<td>group selection&lt;sup&gt;e&lt;/sup&gt;, bond rotation&lt;sup&gt;f&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>bond stretching</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

a) Requires *double clicking*.
b) Scaling is always applied to all open molecules and all fragments. The center mouse wheel will also scale molecules.
c) Global rotations can be either molecule or screen centered. This is controlled by Global Rotate in the Miscellaneous Preferences dialog (Preferences... under Options menu).
d) For Macintosh, **command** key replaces Ctrl key for chirality inversion.
e) In **View** mode only.
f) In **Add Fragment** mode with bond selected (red arrow visible).

Mouse/keyboard operations may be broadly separated into two categories: selection (picking) and manipulation (translation/rotation).

**Selection.** The left button is used for selection of objects on screen and/or of menu items. Left and right buttons together are used to define a selection box for copying to the clipboard, as well as for multiple model selection. Together with the **Shift** key, the left button allows for selection over a range. Together with the Ctrl (Control) key, the left button allows for multiple selection. Both range and multiple selection apply not only to text items in lists, but to atoms...
and bonds in molecules as well. Together with the Alt key (option key for Mac), the left button allows for selection of an entire group (detached molecular fragment). In add fragment mode, double clicking the left button leads to atom or group exchange. Double clicking on an atom with the Ctrl key depressed leads to inversion in chirality of the atom and double clicking on an atom with both Ctrl and Shift keys depressed inverts the absolute configuration of the molecule. Once an initial fragment, group or ring has been drawn, double clicking on the background will insert it alongside (but not bonded to) whatever fragments currently exist on screen.

**Manipulation.** The left button is used for rotation and the right button is used for translation and scaling of objects on screen. With no keys depressed, the left mouse button gives rise to rotation about the X and Y (screen) axes, while the right mouse button gives rise to translation in the X and Y (screen) directions. Together with the Shift key, the left mouse button gives rise to rotation about the Z direction and the right mouse button gives rise to scaling. The center (scroll) wheel on the mouse may also be used for scaling.

The Ctrl key in conjunction with the left or right mouse buttons and (optionally) the Shift key, signifies a change in focus away from the default for the purpose of rotations and translations. Outside of add fragment mode, the default is focus on a single molecule (the selected molecule). Use of the Ctrl key changes focus to the entire set of molecules on screen, meaning that rotations and translations are carried out globally. In add fragment mode, the default is focus on the full set of fragments that make up the molecule being constructed, and rotations and translations refer to this set of fragments as a whole. Use of the Ctrl key changes focus to a single fragment (the selected fragment), and rotations and translations now refer only to this fragment.

In add fragment mode, use of the Alt key (option key for Mac, Ctrl and Shift keys for Linux) with the left mouse button allows for rotation about a selected bond and, with the right mouse button, for changing the length of the selected bond.

Additional keys control various Spartan functions.
3 selects red-cyan stereo display. Pressing again returns to non-stereo display.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>Page Up, Page Down</strong></th>
<th>Moves up (Page Up), down (Page Down), to the top (Home) and to the bottom (End) of the set of open molecules. Also, moves up and down pages in the Output dialog.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Home, End</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

- **Insert** *(option for Mac)*
  - In add fragment mode only, inserts a new fragment on screen. This is accomplished by selecting the fragment from the model kit, holding down the Insert key and clicking on screen. Insertion may also be accomplished by double clicking on the background following selection of a fragment.

- **Delete**
  - Deletes a fragment, free valence, CFD, reaction arrow, the contents of a selection box, spectrum, curve, or plot. This is accomplished by holding down the Delete key and clicking on the fragment, etc.

- **Enter** *(return for Mac)*
  - Required following text or data entry into spreadsheet or dialogs.

**Selecting Molecules, etc.**

Two or more molecules may be simultaneously displayed in Spartan’s window (see Tabs earlier in this chapter). However, only one molecule may be selected. The selected molecule has access to all capabilities (molecule building, job setup and submission and text and graphical display and manipulation), while non-selected molecules may only be displayed as static images. The exceptions involve scaling and the use of the Ctrl key.

Selection of a molecule occurs by clicking on its structure model or on any of its associated graphical surfaces. This will also result in deselection of any previously selected molecule. Molecular properties for the selected molecule are available in the Properties dialog *(Display menu; Chapter 18)*. Atom, bond, substituent and surface display properties, pharmacophores and group descriptors, as well as information about geometrical constraints may be
accessed by subsequent *clicking* on an atom, bond, etc., associated with the selected molecule, that are then highlighted (colored gold). *Clicking* on the selected atom, bond etc. resets the display to molecular properties. *Clicking* on another molecule results in display of molecular properties for that molecule. Information about plots (including spectra) and changes to plot style and range are also available from the **Plot Properties** dialog.

Where the molecule belongs to a document with more than a single member, selection from among the different members in the document may be made using either the ▲ and ▼ buttons or the scroll bar at the bottom left of the screen. Alternatively, if the spreadsheet for the document is open on screen (Spreadsheet under the **Display** menu; **Chapter 18**), selection can be made by *clicking* on the molecule label at the left of the spreadsheet. *Clicking* on ▶ at the bottom left of the screen animates the display of molecules in the document, that is, steps through them sequentially. This is useful for displaying a progression of graphical surfaces along a reaction coordinate. *Clicking* on ▼ (that replaces ▶) stops the animation.

Two or more molecules from the same document may be displayed at once (although only one may be selected). Molecules are marked for display by *checking* the box immediately to the left of the molecule label in the spreadsheet.

**Dialogs**

Dialogs are either modal (as indicated by ... following their reference in a menu) or non-modal. Modal dialogs must be dismissed before program operation can continue, while non-modal dialogs may be kept open on screen. Only one modal dialog may be open on screen, while several different non-modal dialogs and/or several copies of the same non-modal dialog (each copy referring to a different molecule in a document or different documents) may be open on screen.
Database Access

*Spartan* comes with sample copies of both the Spartan Molecular Database (SMD) and the Spartan Spectra and Properties Database (SSPD), each covering ~5,000 molecules. Full versions (~150,000 molecules for SMD and ~70,000 molecules for SSPD) are available from Wavefunction. SMD accesses up to nine different quantum chemical models for each molecule, whereas SSPD is limited to a single model (the EDF2/6-31G* density functional model). SSPD is based on a more reliable model for selecting best conformer and includes infrared and NMR spectra as well as the wavefunction. Either (or both) SMD and SSPD may be searched by substructure ([Open Databases under the Search menu; Chapter 19](#)), but explicit molecular replacement requires that either SMD or SSPD be selected. This is done from a menu at the bottom of *Spartan*’s screen. Most of the tutorials that follow make use of SMD, and the menu should be set to SMD. The tutorials in [Chapter 11](#) make use of SSPD and here the menu should be set to SSPD.

Stereo Displays

*Spartan* supports red-cyan stereo. Red/blue glasses must be worn. To enter stereo mode, press the 3 key. Press again to return to non-stereo mode.

Changing Colors and Setting Preferences

[Colors and Preferences... under the Options menu (Chapter 20)](#) allows for changing default background and graphical object colors, and for setting (and resetting) program defaults, respectively. Further control of color is available in the various [Style dialogs accessible from Properties under the Display menu; Chapter 18](#).

Monitoring and Terminating Jobs

[Monitor under the Options menu (Chapter 20)](#) allows for monitoring of executing jobs as well as for terminating jobs.
Chapter 3

Basic Operations

This tutorial introduces a number of basic operations in Spartan required for molecule manipulation, property query and spectra and graphics display. It is a must for new Spartan users, and should at least be skimmed by experienced users to expose them to new features of Spartan’10. Specifically it shows how to: i) open molecules, ii) view different models and manipulate molecules on screen, iii) measure bond distances, angles and dihedral angles, iv) display energies, dipole moments, atomic charges and infrared, NMR and UV/visible spectra, and v) display graphical surfaces and property maps. Spreadsheet operations are not illustrated, no molecules are built and no quantum chemical calculations are performed.

1. Start Spartan. Click (left mouse button) on File from the menu bar that appears at the top of Spartan’s main window. Click on Open... from the File menu that appears. Alternatively, click on the icon at the top of the screen. A file browser appears.

Move to the tutorials directory*, click on basic operations and click on Open (or double click on basic operations). A single file containing ethane, acetic acid dimer, propene, ammonia, hydrogen peroxide, acetic acid, water, cyclohexanone, camphor, 3-aminobenzophenone, ethylene, benzene, aniline and cyclohexenone will be opened. A ball-and-spoke model for the first molecule (ethane) will be displayed, and its name appears at the bottom right of the screen. The appearance of the name means that ethane is in the Spartan Molecular Database.**

* For Windows, this directory is found in Program Files/Wavefunction/Spartan10 or Program Files(x86)/Wavefunction/Spartan10. It needs to be copied to another location available to the user prior to opening it in Spartan. For Linux, this is found in the directory where Spartan was installed. For Macintosh, this is located at the top level on the installation CDROM.

** Make certain that SMD and not SSPD is selected from the menu at the bottom of the screen.
2. Practice rotating (move the mouse while holding down the left button) and translating (move the mouse while holding down the right button). Click on Model from the menu bar.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Wire</th>
<th>Ball and Wire</th>
<th>Tube</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Ball and Spoke</td>
<td>Space Filling</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Line</td>
<td>Hide</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>✓</td>
<td>Global Model</td>
<td>✓ Coupled</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>✓ Hydrogens</td>
<td>Labels</td>
<td>Ribbons</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Ramachandran Plot</td>
<td>Hydrogen Bonds</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>CFD’s</td>
<td>Configure...</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

One after another, select Wire, Ball and Wire, Tube and finally Ball and Spoke from the Model menu. All four models for ethane show roughly the same information. The wire model looks the most like a conventional line formula. It uses color to distinguish different atoms, and one, two and three lines between atoms to indicate single, double and triple bonds, respectively.

The ball-and-wire model is identical to the wire model, except that atom positions are represented by small spheres, making it easy to identify atom locations. The tube model is identical to the wire model, except that bonds are represented by solid cylinders. The tube model is better than the wire model in conveying three-dimensional shape. The ball-and-spoke model is a variation on the tube model; atom positions are represented by colored spheres, making it easy to see atom locations.

Select Space Filling from the Model menu.
The space-filling model is different from the other models in that bonds are not shown. Rather, each atom is displayed as a colored sphere that represents its approximate size. Thus, the space-filling model for a molecule provides a measure of its size. While lines between atoms are not drawn, the existence (or absence) of bonds can be inferred from the extent to which spheres on neighboring atoms overlap. If two spheres substantially overlap, then the atoms are almost certainly bonded, and conversely, if two spheres barely overlap, then the atoms are not bonded. Intermediate overlaps suggest weak bonding, for example, hydrogen bonding.

3. *Click* once on the right arrow key at the bottom left of the screen. This will move to the next molecule in the document, *acetic acid dimer*. Its name will appear at the bottom of the screen. If you make a mistake, use the backward or forward step keys to get to *acetic acid dimer* in the document. Switch to a space-filling model and look for overlap between the (OH) hydrogen on one acetic acid molecule and the (carbonyl) oxygen on the other. Return to a ball-and-spoke model and select **Hydrogen Bonds** from the **Model** menu.

The two hydrogen bonds, that are responsible for holding the acetic acid molecules together, will be drawn.
Use the 3 key to toggle between stereo 3D and regular display. To view in 3D you will need to wear red/blue glasses.

4. Distances, angles, and dihedral angles can easily be measured with *Spartan* using Measure Distance, Measure Angle, and Measure Dihedral, respectively, from the Geometry menu.

   a) **Measure Distance**: This measures the distance between two atoms. *Click* once on propene to move to the next molecule, propene, and then select Measure Distance from the Geometry menu (or click on the ? icon at the top of the screen). *Click* on a bond or on two atoms (the atoms do not need to be bonded). The distance (in Ångstroms) will be displayed at the bottom of the screen. Repeat the process for several atoms. When you are finished, select View from the Build menu (or click on the icon at the top of the screen).

   ![Measure Distance Menu]

   b) **Measure Angle**: This measures the angle around a central atom. *Click* once on propene to move to the next molecule, ammonia, and then select Measure Angle from the Geometry menu (or click on the ? icon at the top of the screen).
screen). Click first on H, then on N, then on another H. Alternatively, click on two NH bonds. The HNH angle (in degrees) will be displayed at the bottom of the screen. Click on √ when you are finished.

c) **Measure Dihedral:** This measures the angle formed by two intersecting planes, one containing the first three atoms selected and the other containing the last three atoms selected. Click once on ▶ to move to the next molecule, *hydrogen peroxide*, then select **Measure Dihedral** from the Geometry menu (or click on the ➫ icon at the top of the screen) and then click in turn on the four atoms (HOOH) that make up hydrogen peroxide. The HOOH dihedral angle will be displayed at the bottom of the screen. Click on √ when you are finished.

5. Energies, dipole moments and atomic charges among other calculated properties, are available from **Properties** under the **Display** menu.

a) **Energy:** Click once on ▶ to move to the next molecule, *acetic acid*, and then select **Properties** from the **Display** menu. The Molecule Properties dialog appears. It is divided into three parts designated by tabs. **Molecule** provides the energy and other information relating to the isolated molecule, **QSAR** provides quantities that may be used as QSAR descriptors and **Thermodynamics** provides the enthalpy, heat capacity, Gibbs energy and zero-point energy. Make certain that the **Molecule** tab is selected.
This provides the energy for acetic acid in atomic units (Energy in au). Also provided is an estimate of the energy in water (Energy(aq) in au) and the difference between the two (Solvation E kJ/mol).

b) **Dipole Moment:** The magnitude of the dipole moment (Dipole Moment in debyes) is also provided in the Molecule Properties dialog. A large dipole moment indicates large separation of charge. You can attach the dipole moment vector, \( \leftrightarrow \) where the + side refers to the positive end of the dipole, to the model on the screen, by checking the box to the left of Display Dipole Vector near the bottom of the dialog.

The vector will not be displayed if the dipole moment is zero. The dipole moment will not be reported if the molecule is charged because in this case it depends on the location and orientation of the molecule in space.

c) **Atomic Charges:** To display the charge on an atom, click on it with the Molecule Properties dialog on the screen. The Atom Properties dialog replaces the Molecule Properties dialog.
Three different atomic charges, Electrostatic, Mulliken and Natural, are given in units of electrons. A positive charge indicates a deficiency of electrons on an atom and a negative charge, an excess of electrons. Repeat for other atoms. Confirm that the positively-charged atom(s) lie at the positive end of the dipole moment vector. When you are finished, close the dialog by clicking on \( \times \) at the top.

The three sets of atomic charges for acetic acid are different because the charge on an atom in a molecule cannot be uniquely defined, let alone measured. While the nuclear charge is equal to the atomic number, it is not possible to say how many electrons “belong” to a particular nucleus. The different calculated charges correspond to different ways of counting the number of electrons associated with an atom.

d) **Infrared Spectra:** Molecules vibrate (stretch, bend, twist) even if they are cooled to absolute zero. This is the basis of infrared spectroscopy, where absorption of energy occurs when the frequency of a particular molecular motion matches the frequency of the light. Infrared spectroscopy is important for identifying molecules as different functional groups vibrate at noticeably different and characteristic frequencies.

Click once on \( \square \) to move to the next molecule in the document, **water**. To animate a vibration, select Spectra from the Display menu and click on the IR tab. This leads to the IR Spectra dialog.
This displays the three vibrational frequencies for the water molecule, corresponding to bending and symmetric and antisymmetric stretching motions. One after the other, click in the box to the left of each frequency and examine the motion. Turn off the animation by clicking in the box of the selected frequency when you are finished.

Click once on \[D\] to move to cyclohexanone, the next molecule in the list. The Spectra dialog now lists its 45 frequencies corresponding to the 45 vibrational motions of this molecule with 17 atoms. Examine each in turn (click on the entry in the dialog) until you locate the frequency corresponding to the CO (carbonyl) stretch. Next, click on Draw Calculated at the top of the dialog. The infrared spectrum of cyclohexanone appears.
You can move the spectrum around the screen by first clicking on it to select it (it will turn yellow) and then moving the mouse while holding down the right button. You can size it with the scroll wheel or by moving the mouse up and down while holding down both the Shift key and the right button. Identify the line in the spectrum associated with the C=O stretch (a small red circle moves from line to line as you step through the frequencies in the Spectra dialog). Note that this line is isolated and that it is very intense, making it easy to find.

If your computer is connected to the internet, you can draw the experimental IR spectrum for cyclohexanone on top of the calculated spectrum. Select Web Site under Experimental Data From: at the bottom of the dialog. Make certain that Global Spectra is not checked before you click on Draw Experimental in the middle of the dialog. Click on Draw Experimental.

If you are not online or have trouble downloading the experimental spectrum, select Local File under Experimental Data From: and find cyclohexanoneIR.dx in the tutorials directory. For Windows, this directory is found in Program Files/Wavefunction/Spartan10 or Program Files(x86)/Wavefunction/Spartan10. It needs to be copied to another location available to the user prior to opening it in Spartan. For Linux, this is found in the directory where Spartan was installed. For Macintosh, this is located at the top level on the installation CDROM.

Note that the lines in the calculated spectrum are consistently of higher frequency. To scale the calculated spectrum, bringing it into closer agreement with the experimental spectrum,
click on it and move the slider bar to the right of Scale near the top of the dialog. Calculated and experimental spectra are automatically fit by selecting Experimental under Calculated Fit at the center of the IR Spectra dialog.

You can remove the plot by clicking on both Delete Calculated and Delete Experimental in the Spectra dialog. (These buttons have replaced Draw Calculated and Draw Experimental, respectively.)

e) NMR Spectra: Along with mass spectrometry, NMR spectroscopy is the most powerful tool available with which to assign molecular structure. Many nuclei exhibit NMR spectra, but proton and $^{13}$C are by far the most important.

Click once on  to move to the next molecule in the document, camphor. With the Spectra dialog on screen, click on the NMR tab to bring up the NMR Spectra dialog.
Make certain that **Boltzmann Averaging** is not checked and **click** on **Draw Calculated** under **\(^{13}\text{C Spectrum}\)** to show the calculated \(^{13}\text{C}\) spectrum.

This comprises nine lines, in the range of 50 to 0 ppm (there is a tenth line corresponding to the carbonyl carbon at 218 ppm). Note that the scale used here is different than the default range (150 to 0 ppm). Scale adjustment will be discussed in a later tutorial.

If you are connected to the internet, select **Web Site** under **Experimental Data From:** at the bottom right of the dialog and make certain that **Global Spectra** is not checked before you **click** on **Draw Experimental** (under **\(^{13}\text{C Spectrum}\)**) to superimpose the experimental spectrum onto the calculated one. **Click** on **Draw Experimental**.

If you are not online or have trouble downloading the experimental spectrum, select **Local File** under **Experimental Data From:** and find *camphorNMR.dx* in the *tutorials* directory.

Remove the spectra by **clicking** on **Delete Calculated** and **Delete Experimental** in the **NMR Spectra** dialog. (These buttons have replaced **Draw Calculated** and **Draw Experimental**, respectively.)
You can obtain numerical values for the individual chemical shifts by bringing up a properties dialog (Properties from the Display menu) and clicking on the atom of interest. Note that proton shifts in addition to $^{13}$C shifts are available.

Finally, draw both calculated and measured DEPT spectra. There is no experimental file, so before you click on Draw Experimental DEPT, select Local File under Experimental Data From: and find camphorDEPT.dx in the tutorials directory. Make certain that Global Spectra is not checked before you click on Draw Experimental.

Note that both spectra now contain only seven lines. The lines corresponding to the three quaternary carbons (including the carbonyl carbon that is off scale) are missing. The three lines pointing down correspond to the methylene carbons while four lines pointing up correspond to the methyne carbon and the three methyl groups.

f) UV/visible Spectra: Absorption of light in the visible or ultraviolet range of the electromagnetic spectrum leads to electronic excitation from the ground-state to excited-states and (in the case of absorption in the visible), is responsible for a molecule’s color. UV/visible spectroscopy not only offers a valuable fingerprint but is also an important screen to identify molecules that may be damaged by exposure to light.

Click once on $\square$ to move to the next molecule, 3-aminobenzophenone. Bring up the Spectra dialog and click on the UV/vis tab to give the UV/vis Spectra dialog.
Click on **Draw Calculated** to show the calculated spectrum.

If you are on the internet, select **Web Site** under **Experimental Data From:** at the bottom of the dialog and *click* on **Draw Experimental**. Make certain that **Global Spectra** is not checked before you *click* on **Draw Experimental**. In either case, the experimental spectrum will be superimposed onto the calculated one.
The two spectra are visually similar at least in a qualitative sense. Note, however, that any vibrational structure revealed in the experimental spectrum will not be mirrored in the calculated spectrum. Remove the spectra by clicking on **Delete Calculated** and **Delete Experimental** in the UV/vis Spectra dialog. (These buttons have replaced **Draw Calculated** and **Draw Experimental**, respectively.)

Even though the spectra look similar, they are sufficiently different that the theory would not likely be successful in accounting for the “color” of the molecule. Where it is likely to be more successful is in anticipating changes in color resulting from changes in structure.

6. **Spartan** permits display, manipulation and query of a number of important graphical quantities resulting from quantum chemical calculations. Most important are the **electron density** (that reveals how much space a molecule actually takes up), the **bond density** (that reveals chemical bonds), and key **molecular orbitals** (that provide insight into both bonding and chemical reactivity). In addition, the **electrostatic potential map**, an overlay of the electrostatic potential (the attraction or repulsion of a positive charge for a molecule) on the electron density, is valuable for describing overall molecular charge distribution as well as anticipating sites of electrophilic addition. Another indicator of electrophilic addition is provided by the **local ionization potential map**, an overlay of the energy of electron removal (ionization) on the electron density. Finally, an indicator of nucleophilic addition is provided by the **|LUMO| map**, an overlay of the absolute value of the lowest-unoccupied molecular orbital (the LUMO) on the electron density.

*Click* once on to move to the next molecule in the list, **ethylene**. Select **Orbital Energies** from the **Display** menu
(or click on icon). An orbital energy diagram for ethylene will appear at the left of the screen. This provides the energies of all six occupied valence molecular orbitals and two unoccupied molecular orbitals.

Click on the energy level in the diagram labelled HOMO. In a second, the familiar π bond in ethylene will appear. Note that the graphic has “blue and red” regions. These correspond to positive and negative values of the orbital (the absolute sign is arbitrary). Examine the other occupied orbitals (by clicking on their respective energy levels in the diagram) as well as the lowest-unoccupied molecular orbital (the LUMO).

Click once on [ ] to move to the next molecule in the list, benzene. Select Surfaces from the Display menu. The Surfaces dialog appears.
Select *Electrostatic Potential Map* inside the *Surfaces* dialog (*click* inside the box to the left of the name). An electrostatic potential map for benzene will appear. *Click* on the map. The *Style* menu will appear at the bottom right of the screen. Select *Transparent* from this menu. This makes the map transparent and allows you to see the molecular skeleton underneath. Go back to a *Solid* display (*Style* menu) in order to clearly see color differences. The surface is colored red in the \( \pi \) system (by convention, indicating negative potential and the fact that this region is attracted to a positive charge), and blue in the \( \sigma \) system (by convention, indicating positive potential and the fact that this region is repelled by a positive charge). Bring up the *Properties* dialog (*Display* menu) and *click* on the surface. Remove the checkmark from the box to the left of *Bands* in the *Surface Properties* dialog to replace the series of color bands (discrete display) by a continuous display.*

---

* Discrete displays are the default in *Spartan’10*. You can change the default to continuous displays (the default in *Spartan’08*) from the *Molecule Preferences* dialog (*Preferences* under the *Options* menu; Chapter 20).
Click once on \[ \text{P} \] to move to the next molecule in the list, \textit{aniline}, and select \textit{Local Ionization Potential Map} inside the \textit{Surfaces} dialog. By convention, red regions on a local ionization potential map indicate areas from which electron removal (ionization) is relatively easy, meaning that they are subject to electrophilic attack. These are easily distinguished from regions where ionization is relatively difficult (by convention, colored blue). Note that the \textit{ortho} and \textit{para} ring carbons are more red than the \textit{meta} carbons, consistent with the known directing ability of the amino substituent.

Click once on \[ \text{P} \] to move to the next molecule in the list, \textit{cyclohexenone}, and select \textit{LUMO} inside the \textit{Surfaces} dialog. The resulting graphic portrays the lowest-energy empty molecular orbital (the LUMO) of cyclohexenone. This orbital is delocalized onto several atoms and it is difficult to tell where exactly a pair of electrons (a nucleophile) will attack the molecule.

A clearer portrayal is provided by a LUMO map, that displays the (absolute) value of the LUMO on the electron density surface. By convention, the color blue is used to represent maximum value of the LUMO and the color red, minimum value. First, remove the LUMO from your structure (select \textit{LUMO} in the \textit{Surfaces} dialog) and then turn on the LUMO map (select \text{\lumomap} in the dialog). Note that there are two blue regions, one directly
over the carbonyl carbon and the other over the β carbon. This is entirely consistent with known chemistry. Enones may either undergo carbonyl addition or conjugate (Michael) addition.

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{HO} & \quad \text{CH}_3 \\
\text{CH}_3Li & \quad \text{carbonyl addition} \\
\text{(CH}_3\text{)}_2\text{CuLi} & \quad \text{Michael addition} \\
\end{align*}
\]

7. When you are finished, close the document by selecting **Close** from the **File** menu or alternatively by **clicking** on the icon at the top of the screen.
Chapter 4

Organic Molecules

This chapter shows how to: i) construct organic molecules from atomic fragments, functional groups and rings, ii) carry out molecular mechanics and quantum chemical calculations and iii) calculate and interpret graphical models. It also illustrates use of the Spartan Molecular Database* of calculated structures, energies and molecular properties as well as Spartan’s interface to the Cambridge Structural Database. Discussion of the calculation and display of infrared and NMR spectra is deferred until Chapter 6.

The simplest building blocks incorporated into Spartan’s organic model kit are atomic fragments. These constitute specification of atom type, for example, carbon, and local environment, for example, tetrahedral. However, much of organic chemistry is organized around functional groups, collections of atoms the structure and properties of which are roughly the same in every molecule. The organic model kit also incorporates a small library of functional groups that can easily be extended or modified. For example, the carboxylic acid group may be modified to build a carboxylate anion (by deleting a free valence from oxygen), or an ester (by adding tetrahedral carbon to the free valence at oxygen).

* Spartan’10 includes subsets of approximately 5,000 molecules from the Spartan Molecular Database (SMD) which comprises more than 150,000 molecules along with their structures, energies, spectra and properties calculated with up to 9 quantum chemical models, and from the Spartan Spectra and Properties Database (SSPD), which comprises more than 70,000 molecules, includes the wavefunction allowing on-the-fly generation of graphical surfaces and property maps, and most of which provide both infrared and NMR spectra.
Rings are also common components in organic molecules, and the organic model kit incorporates a library of commonly-encountered hydrocarbon rings that can easily be modified by atom replacement. For example, pyridine may be built starting from benzene by selecting aromatic nitrogen from the list of atomic fragments, and then double clicking on one of the carbons. This results in the substitution of aromatic nitrogen for aromatic carbon.

![Diagram](image)

Functional groups may also be modified in this manner.

In addition to illustrating the construction of organic molecules, the tutorials in this chapter also illustrate the way in which molecular mechanics and quantum chemical calculations are set up and their results examined and interpreted. A variety of graphical models are introduced and illustrated. Finally, examples of the use of the Spartan Molecular Database of calculated molecular structures, energies and properties and of the Cambridge Structural Database of experimental X-ray crystal structures are provided.
Acrylonitrile provides a good opportunity to illustrate the basics of molecule building in Spartan, as well as the steps involved in carrying out and analyzing a quantum chemical calculation.

1. Click with the left mouse button on File from the menu bar. Then click on New from the menu that appears (or click on the icon at the top of the screen). The organic model kit appears.

At the center of the kit is a library of atomic fragments. Click on trigonal planar sp$^2$ hybridized carbon $\equiv$ from the fragment library. A model of the fragment appears at the top of the model kit. Bring the cursor anywhere on screen and click (left button). Rotate the carbon fragment (drag the mouse while holding down the left button) so that you can clearly see both the double free valence (=) and the two single free valences (−).

Spartan’s model kits connect atomic fragments (as well as groups, rings and ligands) through free valences. Any free valences that
remain upon exiting a model kit are automatically converted to hydrogen atoms; it is not necessary to explicitly add hydrogens to open valences.

2. sp\textsuperscript{2} carbon is still selected. Click on the double free valence. The two fragments are connected by a double bond, leaving you with ethylene. The name ethylene will appear at the bottom right of the screen. If you make a mistake and click instead on the single free valence, select **Undo** from the **Edit** menu. You can also start over by selecting **Clear** from the **Edit** menu.

   *Spartan’s* organic model kit allow only the same type of free valences to be connected, for example, single to single, double to double, etc.

3. **Click** on **Groups** in the model kit, and select **Cyano** from the functional groups available from the menu.

   ![Groups menu]

   **Click** on any of the four single free valences on ethylene (they are equivalent). This bonds the cyano group to ethylene, leaving you with acrylonitrile.* Its name will now appear at the bottom right of the screen.

---

*You could also have built acrylonitrile without using the Groups menu. Starting from scratch (Clear from the Edit menu), first build ethylene as above, then select sp hybridized carbon \(\text{\textbullet} \) from the model kit and then click on one of the free valences on ethylene. Next, select sp hybridized nitrogen \(\text{\textbullet} \) from the model kit and click on the triple free valence on the sp carbon. Alternatively, you could have built the molecule entirely from groups. Starting from scratch, click on Groups, select Alkenyl from the menu and click anywhere on screen. Then select Cyano from the menu of functional groups and click on one of the free valences on ethylene. In general, molecules can be constructed in more than one way.*
4. Select **Minimize** from the **Build** menu (or **click** on the icon at the top of the screen). The final molecular mechanics energy (36.2 kJ/mol) and symmetry point group (C$_s$) are provided at the bottom right of the screen.

5. Select **View** from the **Build** menu (or **click** on the icon at the top of the screen). The model kit disappears, leaving only a ball-and-spoke model of acrylonitrile on screen.

![ball-and-spoke model](image)

This model can be rotated, translated and zoomed by using the mouse in conjunction with keyboard functions. To rotate the model, **drag** the mouse while holding down the left button; to rotate in the plane of the screen also hold down the **Shift** key. To translate the model, **drag** the mouse with the right button depressed. To zoom the model (translation perpendicular to the screen), use the center mouse wheel (scroll wheel) if available, or hold down the **Shift** key in addition to the right button while **dragging** the mouse up (zoom in) or down (zoom out).

6. Select **Calculations...** from the **Setup** menu, and perform the following operations in the **Calculations** dialog which appears.
a. Select **Equilibrium Geometry** from the top menu to the right of **Calculate**. This specifies optimization of equilibrium geometry. **Ground** and not **First Excited** should appear in the menu to the left of **State**.

b. Select **Hartree-Fock** and then **3-21G** from the two bottom menus to the right of **Calculate**. This specifies a Hartree-Fock calculation using the 3-21G split-valence basis set. Keep the default in **Vacuum** setting.

When you finish, *click* on **OK** to remove the dialog.

7. Select **Submit** from the **Setup** menu.* A file browser appears.

![File browser](image)

The name **acrylonitrile** will be presented to you in the box to the right of **File name**. Either use it or type in whatever name you like and then *click* on **Save**.** You will be notified that the calculation has been submitted.

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* You could also have clicked on **Submit** inside the **Calculations** dialog.

** Proper names will automatically be provided for you to accept, modify or replace whenever the molecule exists in the Spartan Molecular Database or Spartan Spectra and Properties Database (whichever is selected) and where the document being submitted contains only one molecule. Otherwise the names “spartan1”, “spartan2” will be provided.
Click on **OK** to remove the message from the screen. After a molecule has been submitted, and until the calculation has completed, you are not permitted to modify any dialogs or other information associated with it.

8. You will be notified when the calculation has completed. Click on **OK** to remove the message from the screen. Select **Output** from the **Display** menu. A window containing text output for the job appears.

You can scan the output from the Hartree-Fock calculation by using the scroll bar at the right of the window or by **clicking** (left button) on or inside the output window and using the scroll wheel on your mouse. The information at the top of the dialog includes the task, basis set, number of electrons, charge and multiplicity, as well as further details of the calculation. Below this is the symmetry point group of the molecule that was maintained during the optimization.
Eventually, a series of lines appear, under the heading *Optimization*. These tell the history of the optimization process. Each line (or *Step*) provides results for a particular geometry. Ideally, the energy will monotonically approach a minimum value for an optimized geometry. If the geometry was not optimized satisfactorily an error message, such as: *Optimization has exceeded N steps – Stop*, will be displayed following the last optimization cycle. If this were the case, you would have been notified that the job had failed.

Near the end of the output is the final energy* (-168.82040 atomic units for acrylonitrile with the 3-21G basis set), and the computation time. Click on \( \times \) at the top of the output dialog to close it.

You may examine the total energy and dipole moment among other calculated properties without having to go through the output. Select Properties from the Display menu to bring up the Molecule Properties dialog (make certain that the Molecule tab and not the QSAR Thermodynamics tab is selected).

To see the dipole moment vector (indicating the sign and direction of the dipole moment), check the box to the right of Display Dipole Vector. Wire, ball-and-wire or tube models are best for this display.

* See Calculations... (Setup menu; Chapter 17) for a discussion of how energy relates to heat of formation and strain energy.
Uncheck the box to remove the dipole moment vector.

Click on an atom. The (Molecule Properties) dialog will be replaced by the Atom Properties dialog.

Among other things, this provides three different sets of atomic charges: Electrostatic, Mulliken and Natural. To obtain the charge on another atom, simply click on it. Inspect all the atomic charges on acrylonitrile (by clicking on the appropriate atoms). When you are finished, click on ❌ at the top of the Atom Properties dialog to close it.

9. Select Surfaces from either the Setup or Display menu. Click on Add (at the bottom of the Surfaces dialog that results) and select Electrostatic Potential Map from the menu.* This requests an

* Surfaces selected from this menu will be obtained at the resolution set in the last access to the Add Surfaces dialog. This is normally set to medium. Both lower and higher resolution images are available. The former provides rough images that require significantly less computer time to generate. The latter provides production quality images that require significantly more computer time and disk space. To specify resolution, click on More Surfaces instead of Add in the Surfaces dialog (or select More Surfaces... from the menu that follows from clicking on Add in the Surfaces dialog). This gives rise to the Add Surfaces dialog from which you can select the desired resolution from the Resolution menu. Computer time and storage can also be reduced by checking Fixed to the right of Isovalue in the Add Surface dialog. This results in constant isovalue surfaces that cannot be changed and cannot be used to generate “Slice” type displays.
electrostatic potential map (an electron density surface onto which the value of the electrostatic potential will be mapped). *Click on OK.* A line **Electrostatic Potential Map** appears at the top of the dialog. If you make a mistake, *click on this line (Electrostatic Potential Map)* and then *click on Delete* at the bottom of the dialog.

10. The graphics calculation will run automatically (without needing to resubmit the job) following your request.* When it has completed (a few seconds), select **Electrostatic Potential Map** by *clicking* in the selection box in the **Surfaces** dialog. The surface itself corresponds to the electron density and provides a measure of the overall size and shape of acrylonitrile. The colors indicate values of the electrostatic potential on this surface; by convention, colors toward red correspond to negative potential (stabilizing interaction between the molecule and a positive charge), while colors toward blue correspond to positive potential. The nitrogen (the most electronegative atom) is red and the hydrogens (the most electropositive atoms) are blue.**

11. Select **Close** from the **File** menu (or *click on*) to remove acrylonitrile from the screen.*** Also, close any dialogs that may be open.

* If it does not, you need to select **Auto-Gen Graphics** in the **Settings Preferences** dialog (Preferences under the Options menu; Chapter 20). Note that automatic generation of graphics is suppressed irrespective of the preferences setting when the request applies to a list with more than 10 molecules.

** The default display is a set of discrete color bands. You can alter the number of bands by bringing up (Molecule) Properties dialog (Properties from the Display menu), *clicking* on the map to bring up the Surface Properties dialog and altering the number to the right of Bands. You can change to a continuous display by removing the checkmark to the left of Bands.

*** While Spartan permits as many molecules as desired on screen at a given time, it will be less confusing for first-time users to keep only a single molecule open at a time.
**Cyclohexanone**

Cyclohexanone provides the opportunity to illustrate additional building features as well as graphical models for investigation of the stereoselectivity of an important class of organic reactions.

1. *Click on* ☐* to bring up the organic model kit. *Click on Rings* and select **Cyclohexane** from the menu of rings.

   ![Organic Model Kit](image)

   *Click anywhere on screen and cyclohexane will appear. Select sp² carbon ☐ from the model kit. *Double click* on any carbon (not free valence). The sp³ hybridized center will be replaced by an sp² hybridized carbon.*

   *Spartan’s* organic model kit allows replacement of fragments, subject both to the usual valence rules and to the availability of free valences. For example, replacement of an sp³ carbon by an sp² carbon requires that at least two free valences be available. This is possible for cyclohexane (above), but would not have been allowed for the substituted ring carbon in methylcyclohexane.

   ![Organic Model Kit](image)

   Select sp² oxygen ☐ from the model kit. *Click* on the double free valence on the sp² carbon. You have made cyclohexanone (its name will appear at the bottom right of the screen). *Click*
on ☐ to produce a final structure with $C_s$ symmetry, and then on ☑ to remove the model kit.

2. Select **Calculations...** from the **Setup** menu. Specify **Equilibrium Geometry** from the top menu to the right of **Calculate**, and **Hartree Fock, 3-21G** and **Vacuum** from the three bottom menus to the right of **Calculate**. Click on **OK**.

3. Cyclohexanone undergoes nucleophilic attack at the carbonyl carbon, and it is reasonable to expect that the molecule’s lowest-unoccupied molecular orbital (the LUMO) will be localized here. To visualize the LUMO, enter the **Surfaces** dialog (Setup or **Display** menu). Click on **Add** and select **LUMO** from the menu. Also request an electron density surface onto which the (absolute) value of the LUMO has been mapped in color (a so-called LUMO map). Click on **Add** and select $|\text{LUMO}|$ **Map** from the menu. Submit the job (**Submit** from the **Setup** menu) with the name **cyclohexanone** (the selection that is offered).

   Graphical displays may either be requested at the time of geometry calculation (as in the present example), or at anytime after (as in the previous example). In the latter case, it is not necessary to submit the job. **Spartan** keeps track of what has been done and will not perform unnecessary calculations.

4. After the calculations have completed, reenter the **Surfaces** dialog and **click** on **LUMO**. As expected, this is a $\pi^*$ orbital primarily localized on the carbonyl group.

5. Inside the **Surfaces** dialog, turn display of the LUMO off (**click** to deselect **LUMO**). Next, **click** on $|\text{LUMO}|$ **Map** to display the electron density surface onto which the (absolute) value of the LUMO has been mapped. By convention, colors toward red indicate small (absolute) values of the LUMO (near zero), while colors toward blue indicate large (absolute) values of the LUMO. Note the blue spot directly over the carbonyl carbon. This corresponds to the maximum value of the LUMO and is where nucleophilic attack will occur.
6. You will see that the blue spot over the *axial* face of the carbonyl carbon is bigger (and more blue) than that over the *equatorial* face. This indicates preferential attack by nucleophiles onto the *axial* face. Quantify the difference by measuring the (absolute) value of the LUMO on these two faces. Bring up the (Molecule) **Properties** dialog (Display menu) and click anywhere on the LUMO map. The Surface Properties dialog appears.

![Surface Properties dialog](image)

*Check* the box next to **Legend** to display the property range on screen. (Remove the checkmark to remove the legend.) To translate the legend, *click* on the legend to select, then hold down the right mouse button and move the mouse. The legend is useful when making qualitative comparisons of property values. Turn the map such that you can clearly see the *axial* face of the carbonyl carbon, and *click* on the area of maximum blue. The (absolute) value of the LUMO at the surface point you have selected is provided in the dialog to the right of **Val**. Note the value, and then turn the map over such that you can now see the *equatorial* face of the carbonyl carbon, and *click* on the region of maximum blue on this face*. Do these values support your qualitative conclusions from viewing the image?

7. Turn off the LUMO map (*click* to deselect). Keep cyclohexanone on screen, it will be used in the next tutorial.

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* *Click* on the background to return to the Molecule Properties dialog.
Camphor illustrates how one molecule may be used as the starting point for another. It also illustrates a search on the Cambridge Structural Database (CSD). * No calculations are involved in this example.

1. If you do not already have cyclohexanone on screen (see previous tutorial), select Open... from the File menu (or click on 🔄), select cyclohexanone in the dialog that results and click on Open (or double click on cyclohexanone). Select Save As... from the File menu (or click on the icon at the top of the screen), supply the name camphor and click on Save.

2. Select Add Fragment from the Build menu (or click on the icon at the top of the screen) to bring up the organic model kit. Click on sp³ carbon from the model kit and then click on the axial free valence two positions removed from the carbonyl carbon. You have made axial 3-methylcyclohexanone. The name 3-methylcyclohexanone will appear at the bottom right of the screen.

3. Select Make Bond from the Build menu (or click on the icon at the top of the screen). Click on one of the free valences of the sp³ carbon which you have just added and then on the equatorial free valence on the opposite side of the six-membered ring (adjacent to the carbonyl group). A bond will be drawn. Click on the to produce a refined (intermediate) structure. It is 2-norbornone, the name of which will appear at the bottom right of the screen. Finish making camphor by adding three methyl

* CSD will need to be licensed and installed in order to complete this tutorial. For information refer to the CCDC website (www.ccdc.cam.ac.uk). For installation instructions, see Appendix G. If you don’t have access to CSD, a trial license may be obtained from the Cambridge Crystallographic Data Centre (www.ccdc.cam.ac.uk).
groups (*click* on $\text{H}$ from the model kit and, one after the other, *click* on the three appropriate free valences; refer to image above for CH$_3$ positions). Finally, *click* on $\text{M}$ to give a minimized camphor geometry with C$_1$ symmetry. Its name will appear at the bottom right of the screen. *Click* on $\checkmark$ to remove the model kit.

4. Select **Configure...** from the **Model** menu to bring up the **Configure** dialog.

![Configure dialog](image)

*Check* R/S under **Atom** in the dialog that results, and *click* on **OK**. R/S labels now appear (only) on the two bridgehead carbons. Both should be R (or both S). You can change from one to the other by *double clicking* on any atom while holding down both the Ctrl and Shift keys. You can turn the labels off by selecting **Labels** from the **Model** menu.

5. Move the molecule to the far right of the screen. Then, select **Open Databases** from the **Search** menu (or *click* on the $\text{🔍}$ icon at the top of the screen). *Click* on the **CSD** tab at the top of the **Databases** dialog that results. This brings up the **CSD** dialog.
Click on one of the free valences on the methyl group at the bridgehead carbon adjacent to the carbonyl group. The free valence is replaced by an orange cone. This restricts the search to molecules that derive from substitution of camphor at this carbon.

6. Click on the **Search** button at the bottom of the dialog. Hits will appear in the text box at the right of the **CSD** dialog.

7. Wait for the search to complete. Click on any line marked by a filled yellow circle.* Click on any one of these. Its name will be highlighted and a structure model will appear in the window at the top of the dialog. This model can be manipulated in the usual way.**

8. Close camphor and remove the **CSD** dialog (click on **X**).

* Unfilled circles correspond to entries for which structural data are unavailable. The literature reference is available.

** One (or more) structures may be transfered to **Spartan**’s file system using the **Retreive** button. Full discussion is provided in **Chapter 19**.
Acrylonitrile, cyclohexanone and camphor are examples of molecules that adopt only a single conformation. Most molecules can adopt more than one conformation, due to rotation about single bonds or puckering of rings. The sedative ethinamate offers both rotation about the ring oxygen bond and the possibility for the carbamate functionality to occupy either the *equatorial* or *axial* position on the ring. This tutorial and the one immediately following, show how to find the lowest-energy conformer (the global minimum) of a conformationally-flexible molecule.

1. Bring up the organic model kit ([ ]). Click on **Rings**, select **Cyclohexane** from the menu and *click* anywhere on screen. *Click* on sp\(^3\) oxygen ([ ]) in the model kit and add to either an *equatorial* or *axial* free valence on cyclohexane. *Click* on **Groups** and select **Amide** from the menu. Make certain that free valence on the amide group to be used for bonding is associated with carbon and not with nitrogen. This is indicated by a • on the icon at the top of the model kit.

You can move the bonding position by repeatedly *clicking* on the icon. *Click* on the free valence on oxygen on the molecule on screen to make the carbamate functionality. Finally, select **Alkynyl** from the **Groups** menu and add to the same carbon on the cyclohexane ring as occupied by the carbamate group (using the remaining *axial* or *equatorial* free valence). *Click* on and then on √ to remove the model kit.

2. Bring up the **Calculations** dialog (**Setup** menu). Select **Equilibrium Conformer** from the top menu to the right of **Calculate** and **Molecular Mechanics** and **MMFF** from the
two bottom menus. You have requested that Spartan examine all possible conformers*, but then select only the most stable conformer (according to the MMFF model). Click on Submit at the bottom of the dialog. Accept the name ethinamate that is provided.

3. When completed, the preferred conformer will replace the initial conformer (just like a calculated equilibrium geometry replaces a starting geometry). Which group, alkynyl or carbamate, occupies the equatorial position?

4. The name ethinamate appears at the bottom right of the screen. This indicates that the molecule exists in the Spartan Molecular Database (SMD) of structures and properties. Click on immediately to the left of the name. This brings up the Preview dialog**.

Listed at the right are theoretical models for which ethinamate is available, while a ball-and-spoke model of the selected SMD entry is displayed at the left. Select 6-31G* and click on Replace. The entry in SMD will replace your model. Is the conformation of ethinamate in the database entries the same as you have found?

5. If you are on-line, you can learn more about ethinamate by clicking on the Wikipedia button in the Preview dialog.

6. Close ethinamate as well as any open dialogs.

---

* This system is small, and the possible conformers will be systematically examined. This is not practical for molecules with a large number of degrees of conformational freedom. Here, Spartan employs Monte-Carlo methods.

** Make certain that SMD and not SSPD is selected from the menu at the bottom of Spartan’s screen.
3-Cyano-4-methylcyclohexenyl Radical

This tutorial illustrates how different models may be combined to achieve a desired result with minimum computation cost. MMFF molecular mechanics will be employed to establish equilibrium conformation, the semi-empirical AM1 model to establish equilibrium geometry and the Hartree-Fock 3-21G model to provide a basis for graphical calculations.

1. Build 3-cyano-4-methylcyclohexene. Start with Cyclohexane from the Rings menu, click on , and then click on axial free valences on any two adjacent carbons. Add Cyano from the Groups menu to one of the equatorial free valences on a carbon adjacent to the double bond. Finally, add a methyl group ( ) to the appropriate ring position using either the equatorial or axial free valence.

2. Select Delete from the Build menu (or click on the icon at the top of the screen), and click on the (axial) free valence on the carbon to which the cyano group is attached. Click on to produce a refined geometry with C₁ symmetry. Click on to remove the model kit.

3. Select Calculations... (Setup menu). Specify Energy from the top menu to the right of Calculate, Hartree-Fock and 3-21G from the two bottom menus. Next, specify MMFF Conformer from the Start from menu and AM1 from the menu which then appears to the right. You have requested that a Hartree-Fock energy is to be obtained using an AM1 geometry, which in turn is to be based on the best conformation according to MMFF.

This molecule has one unpaired electron. It is necessary to change Multiplicity from Singlet to Doublet. Click on OK.

4. Select Surfaces (Setup or Display menu). Click on Add and select Spin from the menu. Click on Add and select Spin
Density Map from the menu. You have requested two different representations of spin distribution. The first presents spin density as a surface of constant value, while the second uses color to map the value of the spin density onto an electron density surface. Finally, request the singly-occupied molecular orbital. Click on Add one more time and select aHOMO (the highest occupied molecular orbital of α spin) from the menu.

5. Submit the job. Name it 3-cyano-4-methylcyclohexenyl radical. When completed, examine the conformation. Is the methyl group equatorial or axial? Next, enter the Surfaces dialog. Select spin to display the spin density surface. Note that the spin density is delocalized over two of the ring carbons and onto the cyano group.

6. Again enter the Surfaces dialog. First, remove the spin density surface. Then, display the spin density map. Select Spin Density Map. Note that the areas of maximum spin (colored blue) exactly match those where the surface is large in the previous image.

Select Properties (Display menu) and click anywhere on the spin density map. This brings up the Surface Properties dialog. Range provides the range of spin density values. Note, in particular, that negative values of the spin density are possible.

7. Enter the Surfaces dialog, turn the display of the spin density map off and then select aHOMO to turn the display of the α HOMO on. Note that the singly-occupied molecular orbital is nearly identical to the previously-displayed image of the spin.

* SMD contains very few radicals and/or charged species so a chemical name will only rarely be provided.
8. Turn the display of the $\alpha$ HOMO off. Then, click on More Surfaces... at the bottom of the (Surfaces) dialog, and select Slice from the Surfaces menu and spin from the Properties menu. Click on OK. A new line Slice, spin appears in the window at the top of the dialog.* Select it.

9. A plane (a slice of spin density) surrounded by a frame appears in the middle of the model on screen. Click inside the frame to select. The frame will turn gold. Position the cursor outside the frame, then press both the Shift key and right button and move the mouse up and down (or use the scroll wheel). This will zoom the plane. You can also translate and rotate the plane independently of the molecule using the usual mouse operations. Alternatively, you can move the molecule and plane together by first clicking on the molecule (the frame will now turn white) and then using the mouse. For all operations, be certain to keep the cursor positioned outside of the frame. Size and orient the slice as you wish.**

10. Remove 3-cyano-4-methylcyclohexenyl radical and any remaining dialogs from the screen.

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* No further calculations are involved as this is just another way of representing the spin density.
** You can change the display style from Contours to Solid or Transparent using the Style menu at the bottom right of the screen. This will appear only when the slice is selected.
Androsterone

The steroid androsterone illustrates the use of ChemDraw directly from Spartan. Also, the molecule provides a good opportunity to compare space-filling models and electron density surfaces as metrics of molecular size and shape.

1. Click on and then click on the 2D tab. Click on the New button to open ChemDraw.\textsuperscript{*} Draw androsterone (pay close attention to stereochemistry) and close ChemDraw. You will now see the ChemDraw image of androsterone at the bottom of the 2D model kit and a 3D model at the top. Click in the workspace. The name androsterone will appear in the lower right hand corner. Click on (✓).

\textsuperscript{*} The 2D model kit in Spartan will automatically open ChemDraw if it is available on your machine (NAM, NAL). If you do not have access to ChemDraw, contact CambridgeSoft (www.cambridgesoft.com). While Spartan for Macintosh and Linux cannot automatically access ChemDraw, both programs can open 2D molecule files in .CDX or .SKC formats.
If you are not running *Spartan* for Windows, or if you do not have ChemDraw installed on your machine, follow the directions below to build androsterone.

*Click on* \(\text{Cyclohexane}\). Select *Cyclohexane* from the *Rings* menu, and *click* anywhere on screen to create the A ring. *Cyclohexane* is still selected. The icon at the top of the model kit should indicate \(\text{eq}\) (equatorial) rather than \(\text{ax}\) (axial); attachment needs to be made using an equatorial free valence. If not, *click* on the icon to switch to \(\text{eq}\). *Click* on an equatorial free valence of the A ring to join it to the C ring. You have made bicyclohexane. Its name will appear at the bottom right of the screen.

Rotate around the bond connecting the A and C rings to position the axial free valences on the connecting carbons opposite (180\(^\circ\)) to each other. (This bond should be encircled by a red marker. If it is not, *click* on the bond.) To do so, hold down both the *Alt* key and the left button and *drag* the mouse up and down. Equatorial free valences on the cyclohexane carbons adjacent to those that connect the two rings are now positioned to form the B ring (in a chair geometry).

Select sp\(^3\) carbon \(\text{\[\text{sp}^3\]}\) and *click* on the two opposing equatorial free valences on the rings you have just joined. The resulting structure should appear as follows.

![Structure of Bicyclohexane](image)

*Click on* \(\text{\[\text{sp}^3\]}\) and, one after another, *click* on the (equatorial) free valences that nearly overlap to create the B ring. *Click on* \(\text{\[\text{sp}^3\]}\). Check to see that all rings are chairs and that the stereochemistry is as in the figure in the previous page. If not, you can start over (Clear from the *Edit* menu), or undo the last operation (Undo from the *Edit* menu).

Next, form the D ring starting from the carbon that will become a carbonyl group. Select *Carbonyl* from the *Groups* menu and *click* on the appropriate free valence on the C ring. Select sp\(^3\) carbon \(\text{\[\text{sp}^3\]}\) from the model kit and *click* first on the single free valence on the carbonyl carbon and then on a free valence of the sp\(^3\) carbon just added. *Click on* \(\text{\[\text{sp}^3\]}\) and join the free valence from the second sp\(^3\) carbon added in the previous step and the appropriate equatorial free valence on the C ring.
You have made one of the forms of perhydrophenanthrene and its name will appear at the bottom right of the screen.

Add two methyl groups. Select sp³ carbon (\(\text{\textsuperscript{\(\text{\textnormal{CH}}\text{\textsuperscript{3}}\)\text{\textnormal{C}}\text{\textsubscript{\textnormal{}}}}\)\)) from the model kit. Click on the axial free valence at the appropriate juncture of the C and D rings, and then on the axial free valence at the proper juncture of the A and B rings. Add the hydroxy group. Select sp³ oxygen (\(\text{\textsuperscript{\(\text{\textnormal{O}}\text{\textsuperscript{\textnormal{\textsuperscript{3}}}}\)\text{\textnormal{O}}\text{\textsubscript{\textnormal{}}}}\)\}) from the model kit, and click on the appropriate axial position on the A ring. Click on the \(\text{\textnormal{H}}\) and then on \(\text{\textnormal{V}}\). The name adrosterone should appear at the bottom right of the screen.

2. Androsterone incorporates several chiral centers. To assign them as R or S, select Configure... (Model menu) and check R/S under Atom in the dialog that appears. Click on OK. R/S labels will appear next to each of the chiral centers. (To remove the labels, select Labels from the Model menu.)

3. Select Calculations... from the Setup menu and specify calculation of an energy using the Hartree-Fock 3-21G model. Select AM1 from the menu to the right of StartFrom. Click on Submit and accept the name androsterone.

4. When completed (several minutes), select Properties (Display menu). Write down the surface area of a space-filling (CPK) model given in the Molecule Properties dialog.

5. Select Surfaces (Setup or Display menu). Click on Add and select Density from the menu. Leave the dialog on screen.

6. When completed, click on Density in the Surfaces dialog. Click on the density surface to bring up the Surface Properties dialog. This provides both the surface area and the volume of the electron density surface. The second box to the right of IsoVal contains the percentage of the total number of electrons that are enclosed by the density surface. Adjust this value by typing over the existing value and pressing the Enter key (return on Mac) such that the surface area of the density surface is nearly the same as that for the CPK model. What is the percentage enclosure?

7. Remove androsterone and any dialogs from the screen.
Chapter 5
Groups of Organic Molecules

This chapter introduces and illustrates a number of basic operations involved in processing groups of molecules, as well as the associated spreadsheet for organizing and fitting data and facilities for making plots.

Computational investigations, like experimental investigations, are rarely restricted to single molecules, but typically involve a series of related molecules. Here, it may be of interest to compare geometries, energies or other calculated properties, or to compare trends in calculated and measured properties. Spartan provides facilities for these purposes. In particular, it allows molecules to be grouped, either manually, or automatically as a result of a conformational search, from following a particular vibrational motion, or from a scan of one or more geometric variables. Once put into a group, molecules may be aligned based either on their structure or chemical functionality. Calculations may be performed either on individual molecules or, just as simply, on the complete group of molecules. The results of calculations on a group can be examined and analyzed individually or altogether to seek out trends.

Associated with a group (or an individual molecule) is a spreadsheet. This allows convenient access to virtually any calculated quantity that can be given a value. Additionally, data may be entered manually into the spreadsheet or transferred from another application such as Excel. Data in the spreadsheet may be manipulated, linear regression analyses performed and both 2D and 3D plots constructed. Alternatively, the data in a Spartan spreadsheet may be transferred to Excel for further analysis. The Excel worksheet can then be embedded in the Spartan document (see Embedded Data under the File menu; Chapter 12).

The tutorials in this chapter introduce and illustrate a number of the basic group operations available in Spartan. These include building
a group from scratch and processing groups resulting from both a conformational search and from varying a torsion angle. Also provided is an example of fitting an experimental observable to one or more calculated properties by way of linear regression. The use of the **Reactions** dialog is illustrated both as it operates on molecules in a group and on molecules derived from substitution of grouped molecules.
**Dienophiles in Diels-Alder Cycloadditions**

The most common Diels-Alder reactions involve electron-rich dienes and electron-deficient dienophiles.

![Chemical structure](image)

\[ \text{X} = R, \text{OR} \quad \text{Y} = \text{CN, CHO, CO}_2\text{H} \]

The rate of these reactions generally increases with increasing \( \pi \)-donor ability of the diene substituent, and with increasing \( \pi \)-acceptor ability of the dienophile substituent. This can be rationalized by noting that donor groups raise the energy of the highest-occupied molecular orbital (the HOMO) on the diene, while acceptor groups lower the energy of the lowest-unoccupied molecular orbital (the LUMO) on the dienophile. Thus, the HOMO-LUMO gap is reduced, leading to enhanced stabilization.

![Energy diagram](image)

To test such an hypothesis, you will examine the extent to which experimental relative rates of Diels-Alder cycloadditions involving cyclopentadiene and a variety of cyanoethylenes correlate with dienophile LUMO energies.

1. Build acrylonitrile, \( \text{H}_2\text{C} = \text{C(H)CN} \), (to start, select **New** from the **File** menu or **click** on [ ]), minimize ( ) and place it on the clipboard. **Right click** on the background and choose **Copy** from the resulting menu.
2. Select **New Molecule** (not **New**) from the **File** menu. This requests that a molecule that has yet to be built is to be appended onto the end of a group of molecules in which the currently selected molecule (acrylonitrile) is a member. The screen will be cleared. *Click on Clipboard* at the bottom of the model kit and *click* on screen. Acrylonitrile will appear. *Click on Groups* in the model kit, select **Cyano** and add to the appropriate free valence on acrylonitrile to make 1,1-dicyanoethylene. *Click on ✓*. 

3. Repeat this procedure (**New Molecule**, followed by **Clipboard**, followed by **Groups**, followed by ✓) four more times to build *cis* and *trans*-1,2-dicyanoethylene, tricyanoethylene and tetracyanoethylene. When you are all done (six molecules in total), *click on ✓ to remove the model kit.*

4. The molecules have been grouped together, that is, put into a single document, allowing calculated properties to be accessed via a spreadsheet. Select **Spreadsheet** from the **Display** menu.

To select an individual molecule in the group, *click* on its label (M0001, ...) in the left hand column, or use the ↑ and ↓ keys at the bottom left of the screen. Position the cursor in the header field above the left-hand column and *left click*, then *right click* and select **Rename Selected Using SMD** from the menu that results.
This results in replacement of the default labels by proper names from the Spartan Molecular Database.

5. Enter the **Calculations** dialog (**Calculations** under the **Setup** menu), select **Energy** using the **Hartree-Fock 3-21G** model, and **AM1** from the **Start from** menu. A 3-21G energy calculation will be preceded by calculation of geometry using the AM1 model. Make certain that **Global Calculations** is checked to ensure that the calculations are to be applied to all the molecules.

6. Submit the job. Name it **Diels-Alder dienophiles**. After it completes, enter experimental relative rates into the spreadsheet.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>dienophile</th>
<th>$\log_{10}$ (relative rate)</th>
<th>dienophile</th>
<th>$\log_{10}$ (relative rate)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>acrylonitrile</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1,1-dicyanoethylene</td>
<td>4.64</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>trans-1,2-dicyanoethylene</td>
<td>1.89</td>
<td>tricyanoethylene</td>
<td>5.66</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cis-1,2-dicyanoethylene</td>
<td>1.94</td>
<td>tetracyanoethylene</td>
<td>7.61</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Double click inside the header cell for a blank column in the spreadsheet, type \texttt{Log(rate)=} and press the Enter key (return key on Mac). You need to press the Enter key (return key on Mac) following each entry or use the ▼ key. Sort by relative rate. Click on the column header \texttt{Log(rate)}, and then click on Sort at the bottom of the spreadsheet.

7. Click inside a header cell for a blank column and click on Add... at the bottom of the spreadsheet. Alternatively, right click inside the header cell for a blank column in the spreadsheet, and select Add... from the menu that results. Select \texttt{E LUMO} from the list in the dialog that results and \texttt{eV} from the Energy menu. Click on OK.

Two data columns are added to the spreadsheet.

The spreadsheet has now served its purpose by collecting both calculated (LUMO energy) and experimental (relative rate) data for all six dienophiles. You can, if you wish, now remove it from
the screen (*click on ❌ at the top).

8. Select **Plots...** from the **Display** menu. This leads to the **Plots** dialog.

![Plots dialog](image)

Make certain that the **XY Plot** tab at the top of the dialog is selected. Select **Log(rate)** from the list of items in the **X Axis** menu and **E LUMO(eV)** from the **Y Axes** list. *Click on Create Plot* to remove the dialog and show the plot.

![Plot graph](image)

The default curve (a so-called cubic spline) smoothly connects the data points. To establish a correlation, use a simple linear least-squares fit. Select **Properties** from the **Display** menu and *click anywhere on the curve that you have just drawn*. The **Curve Properties** dialog appears.
Select **Linear LSQ** from the **Fit** menu. A new plot appears.

![Curve Properties](image)

9. If the **Database Preview** dialog is not already on screen, *click* on ☰ at the bottom of the screen to bring it up. *Check* the box to the left of B3LYP/6-31G* in the dialog and *click* on **Replace All**. The LUMO energies you have just calculated will be replaced by values from the Spartan Molecular Database, and the plot will be updated. Is the correlation between reaction rates and LUMO energies better or worse than that previously noted?

10. Remove all molecules and any remaining dialogs from the screen.
**Addition vs. Substitution**

Alkenes normally undergo addition reactions whereas aromatic compounds normally undergo substitution reactions. For example, bromine reacts with cyclohexane to give *trans*-1,2-dibromocyclohexane (the addition product) not 1-bromocyclohexene, whereas it reacts with benzene to give bromobenzene (the substitution product) not *trans*-5,6-dibromo-1,3-cyclohexadiene.

\[ \text{Cyclohexane} + \text{Br}_2 \rightarrow \text{trans}-1,2\text{-dibromocyclohexane} \quad \text{vs.} \quad \text{Cyclohexene} + \text{Br}_2 \rightarrow \text{1-bromocyclohexene} \]

\[ \text{Benzene} + \text{Br}_2 \rightarrow \text{trans}-5,6\text{-dibromo-1,3-cyclohexadiene} \quad \text{vs.} \quad \text{Benzene} + \text{Br}_2 \rightarrow \text{Bromobenzene} \]

In this tutorial you will use results from the Spartan Molecular Database as accessed from *Spartan’s* reaction energy calculator in an effort to establish the change in preferred product. Specifically, heats of formation from the T1 thermochemical recipe will be employed. No calculations are involved.

1. **One after another, build cyclohexene, *trans*-1,2-dibromocyclohexane, 1-bromocyclohexene, benzene, *trans*-5,6-dibromo-1,3-cyclohexadiene, bromobenzene, bromine (Br\(_2\)) and hydrogen bromide (eight molecules in total).** Put all in the same document. Use **New** from the **File** menu (●) to enter the builder for the first molecule, and **New Molecule** (**File** menu) for each successive molecule.

2. Select **Spreadsheet** from the **Display** menu. **Left click** inside the header cell for the leftmost column, then **right click** and select **Rename Selected Using SMD** in the menu that appears. **Click** on **OK** in the dialog that results. The molecules can now be referenced using chemical names. Close the spreadsheet (**click** on ✗ at the top).

3. Select **Reactions** from the **Display** menu.
Choose SMD Database from the menu to the right of Use and T1 from the menu to the right of Theoretical Model at the bottom of the dialog.* Compute the energy for Br₂ addition to cyclohexene: select cyclohexene and bromine as Reactants and trans-1,2-dibromocyclohexane (and <none>) as Products and click on the Compute Energies button at the bottom left of the dialog. Record the reaction energy. Repeat for the corresponding substitution energy (same reactants but the products are 1-bromocyclohexene and hydrogen bromide) and for both addition and substitution reactions of benzene (reactants are benzene and bromine and products are trans-5,6-dibromomo-1-3-cyclohexadiene and <none> for addition and bromobenzene and hydrogen bromide for substitution).

Are all reactions thermodynamically favorable (exothermic)? Identify any reactions that are not and provide a rationale as to why they are not. Why is there a change in preferred reaction in moving from the alkene to the arene?

4. Close the (unnamed) document and any open dialogs.

* The T1 model was developed to closely reproduce heats of formation obtained from the G3(MP2) model, which in turn closely reproduces experimental heats. The T1 heat of formation is provided as a property for the molecule in SMD and SSPD.
Allyl Vinyl Ether

Allyl vinyl ether undergoes Claisen rearrangement, the mechanism presumes a chair arrangement of the reactant.

Is this the lowest-energy conformer (global minimum) or is additional energy required to properly orient the molecule for reaction? To find out, you need to locate all the conformers of allyl vinyl ether, identify the best chair structure and evaluate its energy relative to that of the actual global minimum. You will first carry out a conformational search using the MMFF molecular mechanics model, and then obtain relative conformer energies using single-point 6-31G* Hartree-Fock calculations based on 3-21G Hartree-Fock equilibrium geometries.

1. Bring up the organic model kit and build allyl vinyl ether from a sequence of sp² and sp³ carbons and an sp³ oxygen. Click on \( \text{to produce a refined geometry.} \) Click on \( \text{.} \)

2. Bring up the Calculations dialog and select Conformer Distribution from the top menu to the right of Calculate and Molecular Mechanics and MMFF from the two bottom menus. Click on OK.

3. Submit the job. Accept the name allyl vinyl ether. When completed, it will give rise to a series of low-energy conformers placed in a new file allyl vinyl ether.Conf.M0001.** A prompt will ask you if you want to open this file. Click on OK.*** Select Spreadsheet from the Display menu.

* By default, only conformers within 40 kJ/mol of the global minimum will be kept. This can be changed (see Conformational Search in Appendix D).

** M0001 is the default label of the molecule you built. You can change it by altering the Labels field in the Molecule Properties dialog (Properties under the Display menu; Chapter 18).

*** To avoid confusion, it is a good idea to close the original file allyl vinyl ether.
Size the spreadsheet such that all rows (corresponding to different conformers) are visible at one time. Click on Add... at the bottom of the spreadsheet. Select E from the list at the top of the dialog which appears, kJ/mol from the Energy menu and click on OK. Energies for each of the different conformers will be added to the spreadsheet. Examine the lowest-energy conformer (the top entry). Is it in a chair conformation suitable for Claisen rearrangement? If not, identify the lowest-energy conformer that is suitable. You can keep two or more conformers on screen at the same time by checking the boxes immediately to the left of the molecule labels (the leftmost column) in the spreadsheet. To get a clearer idea of structural similarities and differences, align the conformers. Select Align from the Geometry menu (or click on the icon at the top of the screen) and select Structure from the Align by menu at the bottom right of the screen. A message will appear at the bottom left of the screen.

Click on oxygen and on the two carbons of the vinyl group bonded to oxygen to designate them as alignment centers. Each will be marked by a red circle. If you make a mistake, click on the circle and it will disappear. When you are done, click on the Align by button at the bottom right of the screen. Click on .

4. To obtain a better estimate of the energy required to twist allyl vinyl ether into a conformer suitable for Claisen rearrangement, perform 6-31G* energy calculations using 3-21G geometries. Make a copy of allyl vinyl ether.M0001, and name it allyl vinyl ether Hartree-Fock. Using the copy, delete all conformers except the global minimum and the lowest-energy conformer that is most closely poised for Claisen rearrangement. Select each conformer to be discarded, and then select Delete Molecule from the File menu. Alternatively, click on the cell in the spreadsheet containing the label for the molecule to be deleted, and then click on Delete at the bottom of the spreadsheet. When you are done, the spreadsheet should contain only two entries.
5. Enter the **Calculations** dialog, and specify calculation of an energy using the **Hartree-Fock 6-31G** model. Also, specify **3-21G** from the **Start from** menu. Make certain that **Global Calculations** at the bottom of the dialog is checked to specify that the dialog settings apply to both conformers. **Click on Submit.**

6. When completed, examine the conformer energies. What is the energy needed to go from the global minimum to a conformer poised to undergo Claisen rearrangement?

7. Remove all molecules and any remaining dialogs from the screen.
Internal Rotation in Dimethylperoxide

\[ \text{Etorsion}(\omega) = k_{\text{torsion}1} (1 - \cos(\omega - \omega^{eq})) + k_{\text{torsion}2} (1 - \cos^2(\omega - \omega^{eq})) + k_{\text{torsion}3} (1 - \cos^3(\omega - \omega^{eq})) \]

Here, \( \omega^{eq} \) is the ideal dihedral angle and \( k_{\text{torsion}1} \), \( k_{\text{torsion}2} \) and \( k_{\text{torsion}3} \) are parameters. The first (one-fold) term accounts for the difference in energy between \( \text{syn} \) and \( \text{anti} \) conformers, the second (two-fold) term for the difference in energy between planar and perpendicular conformers, and the third (three-fold) term for the difference in energy between eclipsed and staggered conformers.

In this tutorial, you will generate a potential energy function for rotation about the oxygen-oxygen bond in dimethylperoxide using 6-31G* Hartree-Fock calculations (and optionally from B3LYP/6-31G* density functional calculations) and then fit this potential to a truncated Fourier series.

1. Build dimethylperoxide. If the molecule is not already in an \( \text{anti} \) conformation, click on \( \text{anti} \) and set the COOC dihedral angle to \( 180 \) (180°) by typing \( 180 \) in the box at the lower right of the screen and pressing the Enter key (return key on Mac). Do not minimize.
2. Select **Constrain Dihedral** from the **Geometry** menu (or **click** on the icon at the top of the screen). Select the COOC torsion, and then **click** on at the bottom right of the screen. The icon will change to indicating that a dihedral constraint is to be applied.

*Check* the box to the left of **Profile** at the bottom right of the screen. This will result in two additional text boxes.

![Constraint settings](image)

Leave **180** (180°) in the original (leftmost) box alone, but change the contents of the box to the right of **to** to **0** (0°). You need to **press** the **Enter (return)** key after you type in the value. **Steps** should be **10**. If it is not, **type** **10** and **press** the **Enter (return)** key. What you have specified is that the dihedral angle will be constrained first to 180°, then to 160°, etc. and finally to 0°. **Click** on .

4. Bring up the **Calculations** dialog and select **Energy Profile** from the top menu to the right of **Calculate**, and **Hartree-Fock** and **6-31G** from the two bottom menus. **Click** on **Submit** and accept the name **dimethylperoxide**.

5. When the calculations have completed, they will go into a file named **dimethylperoxide.Prof.M0001**. A prompt will ask you if you want to open this file. **Click** on **OK**. Align the conformers. **Click** on , select **Structure** from the **Align by** menu at the bottom right of the screen and, one after the other, **click** on both oxygens and on one of the carbons. Then **click** on the **Align by** button at the bottom right of the screen. Bring up the spreadsheet (**Display** menu), and enter both the energies relative to the 180° conformer, and the COOC dihedral angles. First **click** on the label (**M0001**) for the top entry in the spreadsheet (the 180° conformer), then **click** on the header cell for the leftmost blank column, and finally, **click** on **Add...** at the bottom of the spreadsheet. Select **rel. E** from the quantities in the dialog that results, **kJ/mol** from

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* The difference between constraint values is given by: \((\text{final-initial})/(\text{steps-1})\).
the **Energy** menu and *click* on **OK**. To enter the dihedral angle constraints, *click* on ☐, *click* on the constraint marker attached to dimethylperoxide and *click* on ☐ at the bottom of the screen (to the right of the value of the dihedral angle). *Click* on ☑.

6. Select **Plots...** (Display menu). Select **Constraint(Con1)** from the **X Axis** menu and **rel. E(kJ/mol)** from the **Y Axes** list. *Click* on **Create Plot**.

![Graph](image)

A smooth curve (a so-called cubic spline) connects the data points. To fit the points to a Fourier series, bring up the **Properties** dialog (Display menu) and *click* anywhere on the curve. Select **Fourier LSQ** from the **Fit** menu and *click* on ☒ to remove the dialog. A new plot appears.

![Graph](image)

rel. E (kJ/mol) = +57.5 - 27(1 - cos(x)) - 12(1 - cos(2x)) - 1.1(1 - cos(3x)) + 2.5sin(x) - 1.4sin(2x) - 0.81sin(3x)
The actual fit expression appears at the bottom of the plot.

7 and 8 optional

7. Use energies from B3LYP/6-31G* density functional calculations, together with the Hartree-Fock geometries to provide a better fitting function. First, make a copy of dimethylperoxide.Prof.M0001. Name it dimethylperoxide density functional. Next, enter the Calculations dialog and specify calculation of Energy using the B3LYP/6-31G* Density Functional model. Make certain that Global Calculations (at the bottom of the dialog) is checked to signify that energy calculations are to be performed on all conformers. Click on Submit.

8. Energy calculations for all ten conformers will require several minutes to complete. When they are done, draw a new energy plot and compare it to the energy plot produced earlier.

9. Remove all molecules and dialogs from the screen.
Hydration of Carbonyl Compounds

The hydration of carbonyl compounds has been extensively studied primarily because it serves as a model for a number of important reactions, nucleophilic addition to carbonyl compounds among them.

\[
\begin{align*}
R' & \quad \xrightarrow{\text{H}_2\text{O}} \quad \text{R} \quad \text{H}_2\text{O} \quad \xleftarrow{\text{R}} \quad \text{OH} \quad \text{OH} \quad \text{K}_{eq} = \frac{[\text{hydrate}]}{[\text{H}_2\text{O}][\text{carbonyl}]} = \frac{\text{[hydrate]}}{55.5 \text{ [carbonyl]}}
\end{align*}
\]

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Experimental (K_{eq}) for hydration of carbonyl compounds*</th>
<th>(\log(k_{eq}/55.5))</th>
<th>(\log(k_{eq}/55.5))</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>PhCOCH(_3)</td>
<td>-6.8</td>
<td>CF(_3)COCH(_3)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CH(_3)COCH(_3)</td>
<td>-4.6</td>
<td>PhCOCF(_3)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PhCHO</td>
<td>-3.8</td>
<td>H(_2)CO</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(t)-BuCHO</td>
<td>-2.4</td>
<td>CF(_3)CHO</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CH(_3)CHO</td>
<td>-1.7</td>
<td>CF(_3)COCF(_3)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


In this tutorial, you will use Spartan’s linear regression analysis tool to correlate calculated properties of carbonyl compounds with measured equilibrium constants for their hydration.

1. Build all the compounds listed above. Use Carbonyl (Groups menu) to start each to ensure consistent atom numbering. Put in one list; select New Molecule following construction of each molecule. That is, select New, build and minimize acetophenone, select, New Molecule, build and minimize acetone, select New Molecule, etc. Click on .

2. Enter the Calculations dialog and specify calculation of Equilibrium Geometry using the Hartree-Fock 3-21G model.**

---

* Keep the phenyl ring and the carbonyl group coplanar for benzaldehyde, acetophenone and trifluoroacetophenone.

** You can save computer time by specifying calculation of an Energy using the Hartree-Fock 3-21G model, and then selecting AM1 from the Start from menu. This requests a semi-empirical AM1 geometry in place of the 3-21G geometry. As all of these molecules are in SMD, you can save even more time by bringing up the Preview dialog (click on at the bottom right of the screen), clicking on the yellow square to the left of 3-21G and then clicking on Replace All at the bottom of the dialog. (You need to be certain that SMD and not SSPD is selected in the menu at the bottom of Spartan’s screen.) In this case, skip the next step as all the results you require are already available.
Make certain that **Global Calculations** is checked. **Click on Submit.** Name the job **carbonyl compounds.**

3. After the calculations complete, bring up the spreadsheet. **Double click** inside the header cell of an empty column, **type Log(Keq)** and **press** the **Enter** key (**return** key on Mac). Then enter the experimental equilibrium constants from the table on the previous page. You need to **press** the **Enter (return)** key following each data entry (or use the **key**). Sort the list according to the value of Log(Keq). **Click** inside the header cell **LogKeq** and then **click on Sort** at the bottom of the spreadsheet. Also, replace the molecule identifiers in the spreadsheet (**M0001, ...**) by correct names (**acetophenone, ...**). Position the cursor inside the header cell of the leftmost column of the spreadsheet, **left click**, then **right click** and choose **Rename Selected Using SMD** from the menu that appears.

4. **Select Properties (Display menu)** to bring up the **Molecule Properties** dialog. **Click on** to the left of the following entries: **E HOMO, E LUMO, Dipole Moment** and **Weight.**

5. **Click** on the **QSAR** tab at the top of the **Molecule Properties** dialog.

![Molecule Properties dialog]

**Click on** to the left of **Volume** under **From CPK Model.**

6. **Click** on the oxygen atom for whatever compound is displayed. **Click on** to the left of **Electrostatic** (under **Charges**) in the **Atom**
Properties dialog (that has replaced the Molecule Properties dialog), to place oxygen charges into the spreadsheet.

7. Click on Add... at the bottom of the spreadsheet, and then click on the Linear Regression tab at the top of the dialog that results. This brings up the Add Linear Regression dialog.

Select Log(Keq) from the Fit menu and Electrostatic (Ox)* from the Using list. Click on OK. Two new rows will be added at the bottom of the spreadsheet. With a Properties dialog on screen, click anywhere on the row in the spreadsheet labelled Fit1 (the first fit performed on this data set). The Regression Properties dialog appears.

---

* Numbering depends on the order that atoms were introduced during building, but the reference is to the carbonyl oxygen.
This provides information about the fit of Log(Keq) to the charge on oxygen, in particular, the value of $R^2$. This will tend to unity as the quality of the fit improves.

8. Inside the **Regression Properties** dialog, try fitting to different (single) properties in the **Using** list. (The entries toggle on and off with repeated *clicking.*) Maximize the value of $R^2$. Next, try all combinations of two properties. The combination of $E_{LUMO}$ and **Electrostatic (Ox)** should give the highest value of $R^2$. With this combination selected, bring up the **Plots** dialog (**Display** menu) and select **Log(Keq)** from the **X Axis** menu, and **FitVals (Fit1)** from the **Y Axes** list and *click on Create Plot*. Next, *click on the curve (not on the axes) to bring up the **Curve Properties** dialog (which replaces the **Regression Properties** dialog). Select **Linear LSQ** (to replace **Cubic Spline**) from the **Fit** menu. The resulting plot should show a reasonable correlation.

9. Close *carbonyl compounds* and remove any remaining dialogs from the screen.
Acidities of Carboxylic Acids

Acid strength is among the most important molecular properties. It is readily available from calculation, either in terms of absolute deprotonation energy,

\[ \text{AH} \rightarrow \text{A}^- + \text{H}^+ \]

or, more commonly, as the deprotonation energy relative to that of some standard acid (\(A^\circ\text{H}\)).

\[ \text{AH} + A^\circ- \rightarrow A^- + A^\circ\text{H} \]

The value of the electrostatic potential in the vicinity of the acidic hydrogen in the neutral acid provides a possible additional measure of (relative) acid strength. Electrostatic potential maps are known to uncover gross trends in acidity, for example, the acidic hydrogen in a strong acid, such as nitric acid, is more positive than that in a weak acid, such as acetic acid, which in turn is more positive than that in a very weak acid, such as ethanol.

In this tutorial, you will explore the use of electrostatic potential maps to quantify changes in acid strength due to subtle variations in structure. You will use the Spartan Molecular Database of calculated structures, energies and properties to shorten the time required for an investigation.

1. One after the other, build trichloroacetic, dichloroacetic, chloroacetic, formic, benzoic, acetic and pivalic acids. Put all molecules into the same document (use New Molecule from the File menu following the first molecule). Click on when you are done.
2. All of the molecules that you have built are available in the Spartan Molecular Database. Click on ▶️ to the left of the name of the presently selected molecule at the bottom of the screen. The Preview dialog will appear. (You need to be certain that SMD and not SSPD is selected in the menu at the bottom of Spartan’s screen.) This displays the structure of the selected molecule on the left and a list of theoretical models for which calculated results are available on the right. Check the yellow square to the left of 3-21G, click on Replace All at the bottom of the dialog and respond OK to the message that follows. Structures obtained from Hartree-Fock 3-21G calculations will replace those you have built. However, you need to calculate a wavefunction for each of the molecules in order to produce electrostatic potential maps.

3. Enter the Calculations dialog (Calculations from the Setup menu). Request a Hartree-Fock 3-21G Energy calculation, and make certain that Global Calculations is checked. Click on OK. Enter the Surfaces dialog (Surfaces from the Setup menu). Make certain that Global Surfaces at the bottom of the dialog is checked. Click on Add at the bottom of the dialog and select Electrostatic Potential Map from the menu. Leave the Surfaces dialog on screen. Submit the job (Submit from the Setup menu). Name it carboxylic acids.

4. After the calculations have completed, bring up the spreadsheet (Spreadsheet from the Display menu). Expand it so that you can see all seven molecules, and that two data columns are available. Position the cursor in the leftmost header cell of the spreadsheet, right click and select Rename Selected Using SMD in the menu that appears. Double click inside the header cell of the next available data column, type pKa and press the Enter key (return key on Mac). Enter the experimental pK\textsubscript{a}’s (given on the next page) into the appropriate cells under this column. You need to press the Enter (return) key following each entry. Alternatively, use the ▼ key to move to the next cell.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>acid</th>
<th>pKₐ</th>
<th>acid</th>
<th>pKₐ</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>trichloroacetic (Cl₃CCO₂H)</td>
<td>0.7</td>
<td>benzoic (C₆H₅CO₂H)</td>
<td>4.19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>dichloroacetic (Cl₂CHCO₂H)</td>
<td>1.48</td>
<td>acetic (CH₃CO₂H)</td>
<td>4.75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>chloroacetic (ClCH₂CO₂H)</td>
<td>2.85</td>
<td>pivalic ((CH₃)₃CCO₂H)</td>
<td>5.03</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>formic (HCO₂H)</td>
<td>3.75</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


5. Arrange the seven molecules on screen such that you can clearly see the acidic hydrogen on each. To display all molecules at once, check the box on the right hand side of the Label column (in the spreadsheet) for each entry. To manipulate them independently of one another, click to deselect Coupled from the Model menu.

6. Select Electrostatic Potential Map inside the Surfaces dialog to turn on the electrostatic potential map for each molecule. Bring up the Properties dialog (Properties from the Display menu). If the Surface Properties dialog is not already displayed, click on the electrostatic potential map to display it. Click on Max to the right of Max inside the Surface Properties dialog. The maximum value of the electrostatic potential (corresponding to the acidic proton) will be pasted to the spreadsheet. Leave the dialog on screen.

7. Plot experimental pKₐ vs. maximum in the electrostatic potential. Bring up the Plots dialog (Plots from the Display menu), select pKa under the X Axis menu and Property Max (Surface) from the Y Axes list, and click on Create Plot. The data points are connected by a smooth curve (a so-called cubic spline). To get a least squares fit, click on the curve, and select Linear LSQ from the Fit menu in the Curve Properties dialog. Does there appear to be a correlation between pKₐ and the maximum value of the electrostatic potential?

8. Close carboxylic acids and any remaining dialogs from the screen.
Positional Selectivity of Substituted Naphthalenes

Thermochemical stabilities of positional isomers may depend on several factors, including a tendency to minimize unfavorable non-bonded intramolecular interactions (sterics) and to minimize overall dipole moment (electrostatics). Naphthalene offers a good example with only two different positions.

In this tutorial you will use results from the Spartan Molecular Database as accessed from Spartan’s reaction energy calculator to assign in an effort to establish the change in preferred product. Specifically, heats of formation from the T1 thermochemical recipe* will be employed. Instead of building a series of substituted naphthalenes, you will use Spartan’s substituent model kit to construct a pair of molecules, one marked for substitution on the 1-position and the other on the 2-position. No calculations are involved.

1. One after the other build methane, ammonia, water, hydrogen fluoride, hydrogen cyanide and formic acid. Put all in the same list (use New to enter the builder for the first molecule and New Molecule for each successive molecule). Bring up the spreadsheet (Spreadsheet under the Display menu), double click inside the leftmost cell for each molecule and replace the identifier (M0001, …) by proper functional group names (methyl, amino, hydroxy, fluoro, cyano and carboxylic acid). Put the contents on the clipboard. Right click inside the header cell for the leftmost column of the spreadsheet and select Copy for the menu that results. Close the document without saving.

* The T1 model was developed to closely reproduce heats of formation obtained from the G3(MP2) model, which in turn closely reproduces experimental heats. The T1 heat of formation is provided as a property for the molecule in SMD and SSPD.
2. Select **New** from the **File** menu (or **click** on 📐), **click** on **Rings** in the model kit, select **Naphthalene** from the menu and **click** on screen. **Click** on the **Substituent** tab at the top of the organic model kit to bring up the substituent model kit.

![Model Kit Image]

**Click** on **Cust. A** near the middle of the model kit, then **right click** inside the box near the bottom and select **Paste** from the menu that results. Names of the six functional groups that you built in the previous step will appear in the box. As you **click** through the list, ball-and-wire models of their structures will appear in the small screen at the top of the model kit. Note that one of the hydrogens (white balls) for each is highlighted in gold. This hydrogen will be removed to make a free valence for attachment. The carboxylic acid group has two different hydrogens, one on carbon (leading to a carboxylic acid) and one on oxygen (leading to a formate). If the hydrogen on the carbon is not already highlighted, **click** on it and it will be highlighted. **Click** on the free valence on naphthalene that will lead to 1-substituted naphthalenes. The molecule on screen will now appear with a marker to indicate substitution at the 1-position.
3. Select New Molecule (File menu). Bring up the organic model kit and again build naphthalene. Reenter the substituent model kit, make certain that Cust. A is selected (if not, click on it) and click on the free valence on naphthalene that will lead to 2-substituted naphthalenes. Click on ☑ to remove the model kit.

4. Bring up the spreadsheet (Spreadsheet from the Display menu). Double click inside the leftmost cell for the first molecule and change the default identifier (M0001) with 1-substituted naphthalenes. Double click inside the corresponding cell for the second molecule and replace the default name by 2-substituted naphthalenes.

5. Bring up the Reactions dialog (Reactions from the Display menu). Choose SMD Database from the menu to the right of Use and T1 from the menu to the right of Theoretical Model. Select 1-substituted naphthalenes as Reactants and 2-substituted naphthalenes as Products, and click on Compute Energies at the bottom of the dialog. Reactions will be written (and reaction energies computed) for all six substituents.

6. Close the (unnamed) document and any open dialogs.
Tautomers of Nucleotide Bases

Protons bound to heteroatoms in heterocyclic compounds are likely to be very mobile in solution and, where two or more heteroatoms are present in a structure, different isomers (tautomers) may be in equilibrium. As a case in point, consider the nucleotide base cytosine (where a methyl group has replaced the sugar-phosphate backbone at the 1-position).

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{NH}_2 & \quad \text{NH} \\
\text{CH}_3 - \text{N} - \text{O} & \quad \text{NH} - \text{N} - \text{O} \\
\text{CH}_3 & \quad \text{CH}_3 - \text{N} - \text{O}
\end{align*}
\]

The existence of a low-energy tautomer could have far-reaching consequences, given that the valence structure of cytosine is key to hydrogen bonding in DNA. In this tutorial, you will examine the possible tautomers of 1-methylcytosine for evidence of low-energy structures.*

1. Build 1-methylcytosine. Start with Amide from the Groups menu. Select planar trigonal nitrogen for the external amino group. Minimize (click on \(\mathbin\rightarrow\)) and click on \(\mathbin\checkmark\).

2. Note that the word Tautomer appears at the bottom right of the screen, indicating that tautomers exist. Select Identify Tautomers from the Search menu (or click on the \(\mathbin\?\)) icon at the top of the screen). Step through the tautomers using the \(\mathbin\downarrow\) and \(\mathbin\uparrow\) keys that appear at the bottom right of the screen. To put the tautomers in a list, click on \(\mathbin\checkmark\) at the bottom right of the screen and click on OK in the dialog that results.

3. Enter the Calculations dialog with the list of tautomers. (It is a good idea to close the molecule you built to get the tautomers.) Specify calculation of Equilibrium Geometry using the 3-21G

* Note, however, that were the energy of an alternative tautomer only 10 kJ/mol higher than that for the normal structure, this would translate into a relative abundance of only about 1% at room temperature. Thus, any alternative tautomers would need to be very close in energy to the lowest-energy tautomer to have noticeable effect.
**Hartree-Fock** model. Submit the job with the name *cytosine tautomers*.

4. After the calculations have completed, bring up the spreadsheet and **click** on the line corresponding to the structure for cytosine that you originally built. **Click** on **Add** at the bottom of the spreadsheet, select **rel.E** and **Boltzmann Distribution** from the available quantities and **kJ/mol** from the **Energy** menu and **click** on **OK**. Are either of the alternatives close in energy to the normal form of cytosine?

5 and 6 optional

To get a better estimate of relative tautomer energies, perform energy calculations using the T1 model.*

5. Make a copy of *cytosine tautomers*. Name it *cytosine tautomers T1*. Enter the **Calculations** dialog (**Setup** menu) with this copy. Specify **Energy** from the top menu to the right of **Calculate** and **Thermochemical Recipes** and **T1** from the two bottom menus. Submit the job.

6. When the calculations have completed (several minutes), bring up the spreadsheet and again examine relative tautomer energies and Boltzmann populations. Are either of the alternative structures competitive?

7. Remove all molecules and remaining dialogs from the screen.

---

* The T1 model was developed to closely reproduce heats of formation obtained from the G3(MP2) model, which in turn closely reproduces experimental heats. The T1 heat of formation is provided as a property for the molecule in SMD and SSPD.
Chapter 6
Spectra of Organic Molecules

In addition to equilibrium geometries and conformations, reaction energies and conformational energy differences and diverse molecular properties, calculations are able to account for molecular spectra. These include, infrared and Raman spectra, NMR spectra and UV/visible spectra. The first two arise from the transitions between ground and excited vibrational states, the third from transitions between nuclear spin states and the fourth from transitions between ground and excited electronic states. Most commonly, experimental spectra are used to provide clues to the structure of an unknown molecule, that is, features in the spectrum are taken as evidence for features in the molecular structure. On the other hand, a calculated spectrum starts with a known structure. A high degree of similarity with a measured spectrum may be taken as evidence that the molecule on which the calculation was made is the same as that for which a spectrum was measured. Lack of similarity suggests that the two molecules are not the same.

The first tutorial in this chapter deals with the infrared spectrum of methyl formate. It details the steps needed to calculate a spectrum and to relate the spectrum to the underlying molecular structure. The second tutorial illustrates the use of the Spartan Infrared Database to identify a molecule based on its infrared spectrum. The remaining tutorials in the chapter deal with NMR spectroscopy. The first details the steps involved in calculating a displaying a proton spectrum and a 2D COSY spectrum for 2-norbornene. The second details the steps involved in calculating and interpreting both an $^{13}\text{C}$ spectrum and a DEPT spectrum for a more complex organic molecule. The two final tutorials also focus on $^{13}\text{C}$ NMR. The first of these compares NMR spectra for flexible and rigid molecules that are structurally similar, while the second examines the dependence of carbon chemical shifts on stereochemistry.
All of the tutorials in this chapter make use of the EDF2/6-31G* density functional model. Structures and (infrared and NMR) spectra for all the molecules considered actually exist in the Spartan Spectra and Properties Database (SSPD). As the calculations involved in the last three tutorials involve significant computer time, you might want to obtain some or all of the data from SSPD. On the other hand, running the calculations will give you a more accurate impression of the practical limits of the calculations. If you do decide to use SSPD, you need to change the selection at the bottom of *Spartan*’s interface from SMD to SSPD.
Infrared Spectrum of Methyl Formate

In the harmonic approximation, the frequency at which a diatomic molecule vibrates is proportional to the square root of the ratio of the force constant (the second derivative of the energy with respect to change in bond length) and the reduced mass (the product of the masses of the two atoms divided by their sum). This is in the infrared region of the electromagnetic spectrum. Frequency increases with increasing force constant or stiffness of the bond and decreases with increasing masses of the atoms involved in the bond.

\[ \text{frequency} \propto \sqrt{\frac{\text{force constant}}{\text{mass}}} \]

In order to generalize this expression to a polyatomic molecule, it is necessary to change into a coordinate system that leads to a diagonal matrix of second energy derivatives (so-called normal coordinates). The normal coordinates for a polyatomic molecule will typically involve the motions of several (and perhaps all) of the atoms.

The degree (or intensity) of absorption of infrared radiation by a diatomic molecule is proportional to the change in the dipole moment with change in bond length. Note that there is no change in the dipole moment of a homonuclear diatomic molecule with change in bond length, meaning that the intensity of absorption is zero. Molecules such as N₂ and O₂ are transparent in the infrared.

Were this not the case, the earth would be far hotter as radiation of the energy due to the sun would be trapped in the atmosphere (the greenhouse effect). The atmospheric concentration of carbon dioxide, the major atmospheric component that absorbs in the infrared, is < 400 ppm.

The intensity of each of the individual lines in an infrared spectrum of a polyatomic molecule follows from the change in dipole moment along the associated normal coordinate. Note that some of the normal coordinates in a polyatomic molecule may lead to no change in dipole moment, for example, the symmetric stretch in carbon dioxide where both CO bonds are simultaneously moved.
This tutorial illustrates the steps required to calculate and display an infrared spectrum and to compare it with an experimental spectrum. You will see how the ease or difficulty of molecular motion and atomic masses affect frequency.

1. Build methyl formate and click on \( \text{Submit} \). Bring up the Calculations dialog (Setup menu), and request an equilibrium geometry using the EDF2/6-31G* density functional model. Check IR to the right of Compute and click on Submit. Accept the name.

2. After the calculation has completed (several minutes), select Spectra from the Display menu and click on the IR tab.

   ![IR Spectrum](image)

   Click on both Draw Calculated and Draw Experimental at the right of the IR Spectra dialog. If you are online, select Web Site under Experimental Data from at the bottom of the dialog before clicking on Draw Calculated. If not or if you are having trouble downloading the experimental spectrum, select Local File at the bottom right of the dialog. Navigate to the spectra of organic molecules subdirectory in the tutorials directory* and

* For Windows, this directory is found in Program Files/Wavefunction/Spartan10 or Program Files(x86)/Wavefunction/Spartan10. It needs to be copied to another location available to the user prior to opening it in Spartan. For Linux, this is found in the directory where Spartan was installed. For Macintosh, this is located at the top level on the installation CDROM.
**click** on **methyl formate**. You need to select **All Files** from the menu to the right of the file name in the **Open** directory. The calculated frequencies have been scaled to take account of a systematic error due primarily to the harmonic approximation. You can alter the default value (0.962) with the **Scale** slider bar. You can also alter the width of the lines in the calculated spectrum (which can be loosely associated with temperature) with the **Temp** slider bar. To get a best fit to the experimental spectrum (shown below), **click** on the **Experimental** button below the two slider bars. The scale factor has been reduced slightly (to 0.950) and the “temperature” has increased. You can, if you wish, return to the default values by **clicking** on the **Standard** button.

3. Calculated frequencies scaled by the value on the slider bar are listed at the left of the dialog. **Check** the box to the left of the smallest frequency. Describe the motion. Repeat for the largest frequency. Which motion should be more difficult? Why? Finally, **check** the box corresponding to the most intense line, and describe the motion. Why is this line intense?

4. Make a copy of methyl formate (**еще раз**); name it **methyl formate d3**. Select **Properties** from the **Display** menu and **click** on one of the three hydrogen atoms on the methyl group to bring up the **Atom Properties** dialog. Change **Mass Number** from 1 to **2 Deuterium**. Repeat for the other two methyl group hydrogen atoms. Resubmit the calculation (it will require only a few seconds). Compare the frequencies of the undeuterated and deuterated forms of methyl formate, and identify which change the most and which change the least. Explain your results.

5. Close all molecules and dialogs that are open on screen.
Searching *Spartan’s* Infrared Spectral Database

Pattern matching (“fingerprinting”) a measured infrared spectrum to experimental spectra contained in a library (database) has been common practice for many years. This has not previously been extended to comparisons of measured spectra to databases of calculated spectra. The likely reason is that the results of calculations (a set of vibrational frequencies and intensities to go along with these frequencies) do not look like experimental infrared spectra, at least, they do not look like spectra obtained at normal temperatures. However, a fit of the calculated data to a Lorentzian function in which peak width at half height is treated as a parameter (one value for all peaks) makes the two visually quite similar. One could argue that this parameter loosely corresponds to temperature, which is consistent with the fact that infrared spectra measured at low temperature comprise a series of sharp lines (rather than bands).

The frequency of an infrared absorption is proportional to (the square root of) the second derivative of the energy at a minimum in the potential surface for a particular vibrational coordinate, that is, the curvature of the surface. Practical frequency calculations replace the real potential at the energy minimum by a quadratic function. This leads to a surface that is too steep (and an energy second derivative that is too large), meaning that calculated frequencies will be larger than measured frequencies. For the most part, the error is systematic, with calculated frequencies being between 3% and 15% larger than measured frequencies, depending on the theoretical model. Hartree-Fock models show an error near the top of the range, while density functional models show an error near the bottom of the range. Semi-empirical models do not show a consistent error pattern. Such a systematic error can be compensated for, at least in part, by incorporating a single linear scaling parameter into the fitting function.

In summary, *Spartan* fits calculated and measured infrared using a Lorentzian function that incorporates two parameters, a non-linear parameter accounting for peak width and a linear scaling parameter. This tutorial illustrates the way in which searches of the Spartan
Infrared Database (SIRD) are setup and performed and the results examined. You may choose from a small selection of measured infrared spectra (or supply your own spectra as a .dx file).

1. Click on [ ] and then select Databases from the Search menu (or click on [ ]). Click on the SIRD tab to bring up the Spartan Infrared Database dialog.

Click on Select Spectrum at the bottom right of the dialog. Navigate to the spectra of organic molecules subdirectory under the tutorials directory.* You need to select All Files from the menu to the right of the file name inside the Open dialog.

Select one of the following molecules and click on Open.

![chromone-3-carbonitrile](image)
![dibenzopyrrole](image)
![8-amino-2-methylquinoline](image)

The experimental infrared spectrum of the selected molecule will appear in the window at the top right of the dialog with the name

* For Windows, this directory is found in Program Files/Wavefunction/Spartan10 or Program Files(x86)/Wavefunction/Spartan10. It needs to be copied to another location available to the user prior to opening it in Spartan. For Linux, this is found in the directory where Spartan was installed. For Macintosh, this is located at the top level on the installation CDROM.
underneath. Immediately to the left is a scroll box containing the most intense lines in the spectrum (obtained from a fit of the experimental spectrum to a Lorentzian function).

2. **Click on Filters** at the bottom of the dialog to bring up the **Search Filters** dialog.

![Search Filters dialog](image)

This provides for substructure and formula filters (neither of which is used in this tutorial) as well as functional group filters. You can if you wish **check** an appropriate entry, for example, **nitrile**, if you have selected chromone-3-carbonitrile. **Click on OK** to exit the dialog.
3. Click on **Search** at the bottom of the (**Spartan Infrared Database**) dialog. The search may require a minute or two. When it has completed, scan the list of hits at the lower right of the dialog for the name of your query. It will be at or near the top of the list.* Click on the name. The calculated infrared spectrum will be superimposed onto the experimental spectrum (in the window at the top right of the dialog).

4. Close all molecules and dialogs that are open on screen.

---

* This will not always be the case. The obvious exception occurs where the query is not in the database. Problems will also occur when the (query) infrared spectrum lacks sufficient structure to distinguish it from similar molecules.
Proton NMR Spectrum of 2-Norbornene

Proton NMR spectroscopy was the first tool available to chemists that allowed definitive assignment of the molecular structures of complex organic molecules. By the 1970’s, it had largely replaced infrared spectroscopy and to a large extent chemical proofs of structure. $^{13}$C NMR is now more dominant, but proton NMR remains an essential tool in the chemist’s arsenal.

NMR is based on the fact that nuclei possess spins that can either align parallel or antiparallel to an applied magnetic field, giving rise to different nuclear spin states. The relative energy of these states ($\Delta E$) depends on the nucleus and on the strength of the applied magnetic field, by way of a simple relationship.

$$\Delta E = \gamma \hbar B_0$$

$\gamma$ is the gyromagnetic ratio (a constant for a given type of nucleus), $\hbar$ is Planck’s constant divided by $2\pi$ and $B_0$ is the strength of the magnetic field at the nucleus. While the two nuclear spin states are normally in equilibrium, this equilibrium can be upset by applying a second magnetic field. The absorption of energy as a function of field strength (a resonance) between the states can then be detected.

The key to the utility of the magnetic resonance experiment is that the energy at which a nucleus resonates depends on its location in the molecule, and is different for each (chemically) distinct nucleus. The reason is that the applied magnetic field is weakened by electrons around the nucleus. Nuclei that are well shielded by the electron cloud will feel a lesser magnetic field than those that are poorly shielded, and will show a smaller energy splitting. The difference, given relative to a standard, is termed a chemical shift. By convention, both proton and $^{13}$C chemical shifts (treated later in this chapter) are reported relative to tetramethylsilane (TMS) as a standard.

While each unique proton in a molecule gives rise to a single line (resonance) in the spectrum, the spins on nearby nuclei add and subtract to the external magnetic field. This leads to a splitting of lines, the splitting pattern depending on the number of neighboring protons and their geometry. Discounting splitting, the intensity of
the lines is approximately proportional to the number of equivalent protons that contribute. For example, the proton NMR spectrum of 2-norbornene shows six lines, two with unit intensity corresponding to the two different protons on the methylene bridge ($C_7$), and four with twice the intensity corresponding to protons at $C_1$ ($C_4$), $C_2$ ($C_3$) and the two different (endo and exo) protons on $C_5$ ($C_6$).

In this tutorial, you will calculate the proton NMR spectrum of 2-norbornene and compare it with that contained in the Spectral Database of Organic Compounds (SDBS), freely-accessible on the web from the National Institute of Advanced Industrial Science and Technology (AIST) in Japan.*

You will also make a COSY plot which identifies pairs of protons that are separated by three bonds. This requires HH coupling constants that are not calculated by Spartan but evaluated empirically based on the three-dimensional geometry of the molecule.

1. Build 2-norbornene. Start from cyclohexane (Rings menu), add an sp$^3$ carbon (ך) to an axial ring position and bond to (ך) to a free valence on the opposite side of the ring. Make a double bond between the appropriate ring carbons (ך). Minimize (ך) and click on (ך). The name 2-norbornene will appear at the bottom right of the screen.

2. Enter the Calculations dialog (Calculations from the Setup menu), and specify an Equilibrium Geometry calculation using the EDF2 Density Functional model with the 6-31G* basis set. Check NMR to the right of Compute. Click on Submit. Accept the name 2-norbornene.

3. The calculation will require several minutes. When it has completed, proton shifts can be found in Atom Properties

* Web address: http://riodb1.ibase.aist.go.jp/sbds.cgi-bin/cre_index.cgi. Unfortunately, electronic access to SDBS is prohibited by AIST.
dialog. Select **Properties** from the **Display** menu and one after another *click* on the hydrogens. Propose assignments for the six resonances observed in the experimental spectrum: 5.99, 2.84, 1.61, 1.31, 1.08 and 0.95 ppm.

4. Select **Spectra** from the **Display** menu and click on the **NMR** tab. The **NMR Spectra** dialog appears.

![NMR Spectra Dialog](image)

*Click on** **Draw Calculated** and **check** the box to the left of **Show HH Couplings** (under **1H Spectrum**) at the top left of the dialog. The following proton spectrum appears.

![Proton Spectrum](image)

Compare the calculated proton spectrum with that in SDBS (see below or examine it on-line).
5. You may have a difficult time seeing that the lines are split (in both calculated and observed spectra). This is because the splittings are very small relative to differences in the magnitudes of the chemical shifts themselves. *Spartan* provides a magnifier tool to assist. With the Properties dialog on screen, click on the horizontal axis of the spectra plot. Click on the Magnifier button at the bottom right of the Plot Properties dialog that results. Click on the border of the green magnifier box that results to select it. Move it (as you would any graphical object) to a position directly above the resonance around 6 ppm. The single line (due to protons on the double bond) will be split in two due to interaction (coupling) with the magnetic spins of the protons on the bridgehead carbons.

6. Draw the COSY spectrum for 2-norbornene (in addition to the proton spectrum). Click on Draw COSY under 2D H vs. H Spectra.
The circles indicate interactions between neighboring protons. Note that coupling constants are not obtained from quantum chemical calculations, but rather are based on geometrical relationship between protons in the calculated structure.

7. Close 2-norbornene and any remaining dialogs when you are finished.
There are several reasons why NMR spectroscopy, in particular, $^{13}$C NMR, is one of the most important routine analytical techniques available for characterizing organic molecules. The experiment, which is straightforward and can be carried out rapidly, requires relatively small samples and is non-destructive. The resulting (proton decoupled) spectrum is quite simple, comprising but a single line for each and every unique carbon. However, assigning $^{13}$C spectra is by no means trivial, even for molecules that might appear to be quite simple. The problem is that the positions of the lines in the spectrum (the chemical shifts) are very sensitive to the environment in which the carbons find themselves. Where two or more carbons in a molecule reside in what appears to be similar environments, it may be very difficult to distinguish them.

This tutorial uses the alkaloid caulophylline (cytisine) to illustrate the use of calculated $^{13}$C spectra to assist in assigning the measured spectrum of the molecule.

1. Build caulophylline and minimize (_thumbnail). Bring up the Calculations dialog (Setup menu) and specify calculation of equilibrium geometry with the EDF2/6-31G* density functional model. Check NMR to the right of Compute. Click on Submit and specify a name. The job will require upwards of one hour to complete*.

2. When the calculation is done (or after you have accessed information from SSPD), bring up the NMR Spectra dialog (Spectra under the Display menu) and click on the NMR tab. Click on Draw Calculated in the section designated $^{13}$C Spectra.

* An optimized structure and NMR spectrum for caulophylline are available in the Spartan Spectra and Properties Database (SSPD). If you decide to use this instead of doing the calculations, select SSPD from the menu at the bottom of Spartan’s main screen, and click on Replace inside the Preview dialog.
Next, check **Local File** in the section designated **Experimental Data From**, click on **Draw Experimental** (in the $^{13}$C Spectra section), move to the **spectra of organic molecules** subdirectory under the **tutorials** directory* and click on **caulophylline carbon NMR**. You need to select **All Files** from the menu to the right of the file name inside the **Open** dialog. The reason that two of the resonances are missing from both calculated and experimental spectra is because they are outside the default scale (0 to 150 ppm). To change the scale, select **Properties** from the **Display** menu and click on the horizontal axis of the plot, to bring up the **Plot Properties** dialog. Click on the **X-Axis** tab at the top of the dialog. Change **150** at the left below **Range** to **175**, increase the number of horizontal increments (**Tics**) from **6** to **8** (top right of dialog) and close the dialog. The plot now shows all ten resonances.

3. Use the calculated spectrum to associate the individual lines in the experimental $^{13}$C spectrum with specific carbons in the structure of caulophylline.** Predict the DEPT spectrum, where CH groups point up, CH$_2$ groups point down and quaternary carbons are missing. Leave the $^{13}$C plots on screen and click on **DEPT Draw** and on **Draw Experimental DEPT** (in the $^{13}$C section of the **NMR Spectra** dialog). The experimental spectrum is **caulophylline DEPT NMR** in the **spectra of organic molecules** subdirectory under the **tutorials** directory. Are your peak assignments consistent with the experimental DEPT spectrum?

4. Close all molecules and dialogs that are open on screen.

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* For Windows, this directory is found in **Program Files/Wavefunction/Spartan10** or **Program Files(x86)/Wavefunction/Spartan10**. It needs to be copied to another location available to the user prior to opening it in **Spartan**. For Linux, this is found in the directory where **Spartan** was installed. For Macintosh, this is located at the top level on the installation CDROM.

** $^{13}$C chemical shifts from EDF2/6-31G* calculations have been corrected to account for local environment.
$^{13}$C Spectrum of $\textit{cis}$-$1,2$-Dimethylcyclohexane

At normal temperatures, the NMR spectrum of a conformationally-flexible molecule represents a (Boltzmann-weighted) average of the NMR spectra of all accessible conformers. Only when the temperature is lowered will the spectrum reveal its components, and its complexity. A simple example is $\textit{cis}$-$1,2$-dimethylcyclohexane, a molecule with two equivalent conformers.

![Structural diagram of $\textit{cis}$-$1,2$-dimethylcyclohexane]

The room temperature $^{13}$C NMR spectrum contains only four lines at 34.9, 31.9, 24.2 and 16.4 ppm relative to TMS, corresponding to an equal weighting of $\text{C}_1$ and $\text{C}_2$, $\text{C}_3$ and $\text{C}_6$, and $\text{C}_4$ and $\text{C}_5$ and the two methyl carbons, respectively. Only when the sample is cooled does the spectrum reveal eight distinct lines.

In this tutorial, you will calculate the $^{13}$C NMR spectrum of $\textit{cis}$-$1,2$-dimethylcyclohexane, and then average chemical shifts for equivalent carbons to yield a room temperature spectrum. You will then obtain a $^{13}$C spectrum for $\textit{cis}$-decalin to see if it serves as a model for static $\textit{cis}$-$1,2$-dimethylcyclohexane.

1. Build and minimize $\textit{cis}$-$1,2$-dimethylcyclohexane. Inside the Calculations dialog, specify calculation of Equilibrium Geometry using the Density Functional EDF2 6-31G* model. Check NMR to the right of Compute, and submit the job. Accept the name $\textit{cis}$-$1,2$-dimethylcyclohexane.

2. After the calculation has completed (several minutes), record the $^{13}$C chemical shifts* for all ring carbons in $\textit{cis}$-$1,2$-dimethylcyclohexane, either from the Atom Properties dialog (select Properties from the Display menu and click on a

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* $^{13}$C chemical shifts from EDF2/6-31G* calculations have been corrected to account for local environment.
carbon) or by labeling the model (select **Configure...** from the **Model** menu and **check Chem Shift** under **Atom** in the dialog that results). In the latter case, you may want to remove the hydrogens (**click** to deselect **Hydrogens** from the **Model** menu) to simplify the display. Finally, average the calculated chemical shifts in order to mimic what is seen at room temperature. Are the resulting $^{13}$C shifts consistent with what is actually observed? Elaborate.

3. *cis*-Decalin is a plausible model for static *cis*-1,2-dimethylcyclohexane, in that it is unable to undergo (rapid) ring inversion.

Build *cis*-decalin. Start with cyclohexane, add sp$^3$ carbons at adjacent *cis* free valences and connect these carbons by two additional sp$^3$ groups. Instead of calculating its equilibrium geometry and NMR spectrum, get them from the Spartan Spectra and Properties Database (SSPD). **Click** on the name (**cis-decalin**) at the bottom of the screen to bring up the **Preview** dialog. **Click** on the **Replace** button at the bottom of the dialog. The entry in SSPD will replace the molecule you built.

4. Select **Spectra** from the **Display** menu and **click** on the **NMR** tab. **Click** on **Draw Calculated** under $^{13}$C **Spectrum**. Because of the (C$_2$) symmetry of *cis*-decalin, your spectrum will contain only five lines, all of equal intensity. Relate these to the six lines corresponding to the ring carbons in static *cis*-1,2-dimethylcyclohexane. Pay particular attention to the differences in chemical shifts between carbons which average in the equilibrating molecule. Is *cis*-decalin a good model for *cis*-1,2-dimethylcyclohexane?

5. Close all molecules and any open dialogs.
Stereochemical Assignments from $^{13}$C Spectra

NMR spectroscopy, in particular $^{13}$C spectroscopy, is without doubt the method of choice to establish the three-dimensional structure of organic molecules. Only X-ray diffraction provides more definitive results, although the requirement of a crystalline sample severely limits its application. It is now practical to routinely calculate the NMR spectra of organic molecules. In time, the availability of a virtual NMR spectrometer will offer organic chemists an entirely new paradigm for structure determination, that is direct comparison of a measured spectrum with calculated spectra for one or more chemically reasonable candidates.

Here, you will obtain $^{13}$C chemical shifts for endo and exo stereoisomers of 2-methylnorbornane, and compare these to experimental shifts. The EDF2/6-31G* density functional model will be employed. You will establish the extent to which the calculations are able to reproduce differences in chemical shifts as a function of stereochemistry.

1. Build norbornane. Start with Cyclohexane from the Rings menu. Add sp$^3$ carbon to one of the axial free valences (leaving you with axial-3-methylcyclohexane). Click on and then click on one of the free valences of the methyl group and the equatorial free valence on cyclohexane that is directly across. Click on . The name norbornane should appear at the bottom right of the screen. Put norbornane onto the clipboard. Right click and select Copy from the menu that appears.

2. Select sp$^3$ carbon from the model kit and click on the exo free valence of the carbon in the 2-position. The name exo-2-methylnorbornane should appear at the bottom right of the screen.

3. Select New Molecule from the File menu. Click on Clipboard at the bottom of the model kit and click on screen. Norbornane appears. Select sp$^3$ carbon and click on the endo free valence of the carbon in the 2-position. The name endo-2-methylnorbornane should appear at the bottom right of the screen. Click on .
4. Name your molecules. Bring up the spreadsheet (Spreadsheet under the Display menu), right click on the header cell of the leftmost column and select Rename Selected Using SSPD from the menu that results.

5. Inside the Calculations dialog, specify calculation of Equilibrium Geometry using the EDF2 6-31G* Density Functional model. Check NMR (to the right of Compute). Submit the job with the name 2-methylnorbornane.

6. When completed (several minutes), compare the $^{13}$C chemical shifts with experimental values with particular attention to differences between endo and exo stereoisomers.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>endo</th>
<th>exo</th>
<th>Δ</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>C₁</td>
<td>43.5</td>
<td>42.2</td>
<td>-1.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C₂</td>
<td>36.8</td>
<td>34.6</td>
<td>-2.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C₃</td>
<td>40.2</td>
<td>40.7</td>
<td>0.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C₄</td>
<td>37.3</td>
<td>38.2</td>
<td>0.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>30.6</td>
<td>0.3</td>
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<td>-6.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C₇</td>
<td>35.0</td>
<td>38.9</td>
<td>3.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CH₃</td>
<td>22.3</td>
<td>17.4</td>
<td>-4.9</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Can the calculations be used to distinguish between the two isomers?


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* $^{13}$C chemical shifts from EDF2/6-31G* calculations have been corrected to account for local environment.


13C Chemical Shifts Depend on Conformation

The time for nuclear spin relaxation is very long relative to time required for equilibration among conformers, at least at normal temperatures. This means that the each of the carbon chemical shifts in the NMR spectrum of a flexible molecule, $^{13}C$, will be a weighted average of the shifts NMR of the individual conformers, $^{13}C_i$.

$$^{13}C = \sum_i \omega_i^{13}C_i$$

The weight, $\omega_i$, is given by the Boltzmann equation, and depends on its energy, $\varepsilon_i$ (relative to that of the lowest-energy conformer, $\varepsilon_0$) and on temperature, $T$. Summation is over all conformers (including the lowest-energy conformer), $g_i$ is the number of times that conformer $i$ appears in the overall distribution and $k$ is the Boltzmann constant.

$$\omega_i = g_i \exp \left[ - \frac{\varepsilon_i - \varepsilon_0}{kT} \right] \sum_j \left\{ \exp \left[ - \frac{\varepsilon_j - \varepsilon_0}{kT} \right] \right\}$$

In practice, conformers that are 10 kJ/mol or more above the lowest-energy conformer make a negligible contribution to the total (at room temperature).

1. Open **limonene** from the *spectra of organic molecules* subdirectory under the *tutorials* directory. This molecule with one freely-rotatable bond has three distinct conformers.

2. Select **Spreadsheet** under the *Display* menu. Click on **Add...** at the bottom of the spreadsheet, select both **rel. E** and **Boltzmann Distribution** from the menu and click on **OK**. You will see that

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all three conformers are within 2 kJ/mol, meaning that all should contribute significantly to the NMR spectrum.

3. Select **Spectra** under the **Display** menu and *click* on the NMR tab. *Click* on both **Draw Calculated** and **Draw Experimental** under $^{13}$C **Spectra** (the experimental spectrum has been attached to the .spartan file). Move among the three conformers and examine the changes to the calculated $^{13}$C spectrum and the quality of fit to the experimental spectrum.* Do any of the chemical shifts differ by more than a few ppm from one conformer to another?

4. *Click* on **Boltzmann Averaging** at the bottom of the NMR **Spectra** dialog. The calculated spectrum will now be based on the Boltzmann average (it will not change as you move from one conformer to another). Close **limonene** when you are done.

5. Repeat the above steps for **3,5-dimethyl-2-furyl methyl ketone** (also available in the **spectra of organic molecules** subdirectory under the **tutorials** directory).

   ![Chemical Structure](image)

   The two conformers of this molecule are different in energy by 17 kJ/mol and the minor conformer contributes very little to the overall average NMR spectrum. Does the large difference in (conformer) energy anticipate a large difference in $^{13}$C shifts (at least for those carbons that are directly involved in the change)?

6. Close **3,5-dimethyl-2-furyl methyl ketone** and any open dialogs.

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* $^{13}$C chemical shifts from EDF2/6-31G* calculations have been corrected to account for local environment.
Chapter 7

Organic Reactions

This chapter outlines and illustrates strategies for locating and verifying transition states for organic reactions as well as exploring changes in product distributions as a function of substituents and reactant stereochemistry.

The treatment of chemical reactions adds an entirely new dimension to the application of quantum chemical models. Whereas unique valence structures may generally be written for most molecules and, based on these structures, reasonable guesses at bond lengths and angles may be made, it is often difficult to designate appropriate valence structures for transition states, let alone specify detailed geometries. While there is a complete absence of experimental data for the structures of transition states, calculated transition-state geometries are now commonplace. *Spartan* provides both an extensive library of calculated transition-state geometries and a facility for automatically matching an entry in this library with the reaction at hand. This library is also available as the Spartan Reaction Database (SRD), and may be searched by substructure to yield all available transition states of reactions related to the one of interest.

*Spartan* also provides a procedure for driving user-defined coordinates. Aside from conformational analysis (see discussion in previous chapter), the major application of this is to force reactions, thereby permitting identification of transition states.

The first four tutorials in this chapter illustrate *Spartan’s* automatic procedure for guessing transition-state geometries based on its library of organic reactions. The last two of these show how a transition state for one reaction may be used to provide a good guess at the transition state of a closely-related reaction. These tutorials also illustrate the

* Where a reaction is unknown to *Spartan’s* library, a fallback technique which averages reactant and product geometries (similar to the so-called linear synchronous transit method) is invoked.
use of vibrational analysis (infrared spectroscopy) to verify that a particular structure corresponds to a transition state and to show the motion connecting it to reactants and products. The fifth tutorial illustrates how a reaction may be driven through a transition state. This tutorial, along with the fourth tutorial, draw the connection between relative activation energies and kinetic product distributions. The last tutorial in this chapter illustrates how transition states may be extracted from the Spartan Reaction Database.

An example of a transition state calculation for an organometallic reaction is provided in Chapter 10.
Ene Reaction of 1-Pentene

The proposed mechanism of the ene reaction involves simultaneous transfer of a hydrogen atom and CC bond cleavage. In this tutorial, you will obtain the transition state for the ene reaction of 1-pentene from 3-21G Hartree Fock calculations, and examine the reaction coordinate for evidence of concerted motion. Optionally, you will perform B3LYP/6-31G* density functional energy calculations to estimate the activation energy for the reaction.

1. Bring up the organic model kit and build 1-pentene in a conformation in which one of the terminal hydrogens on the ethyl group is poised to transfer to the terminal methylene group. To rotate about a (single) bond, first click on it to select (it will be marked by a yellow cylinder), hold down the left button and Alt key (option key on Mac) and move the mouse up and down. Minimize and click on ☑.

2. First, save 1-pentene as 1-pentene density functional for optional use later ((Expected 10 mins/20 mins). Also make a copy for immediate use; name it ene reaction 1-pentene. In both cases you will need to replace the suggested name (1-pentene).

3. Select Guess Transition State from the Search menu (or click on the icon at the top of the screen). Click on bond a in the figure on the following page and then click on bond b. A curved arrow from double bond a to single bond b will be drawn.
Next, click on bond c and then on bond d. A second curved arrow from bonds c to d will be drawn. Finally, click on bond e and then, while holding down the Shift key, click on the (methyl) hydrogen to be transferred and on the terminal (methylene) carbon to receive this hydrogen. A third curved arrow from bond e to the center of a dotted line that has been drawn between the hydrogen and oxygen, will appear.

If you make a mistake, you can remove an arrow by selecting Delete from the Build menu (click on ✗) and then clicking on the arrow. (You will need to select ⌘ to continue.) Alternatively, hold down the Delete key as you click on an arrow. With all three arrows in place, click on ⌘ at the bottom right of the screen. Your structure will be replaced by a guess at the ene transition state. If the resulting structure is unreasonable, then you have probably made an error in the placement of the arrows. In this case, select Undo from the Edit menu to return to the model with the arrows and modify accordingly.

4. Enter the Calculations dialog (Setup menu), and specify calculation of transition-state geometry using the 3-21G Hartree-Fock model. Select Transition State Geometry from the top menu to the right of Calculate, and choose Hartree-Fock and 3-21G from the two bottom menus. Finally, check IR to the right of Compute. This will allow you to confirm that you have found a transition state, and that it smoothly connects reactant and product. Click on Submit.

5. When the job completes, animate the motion of atoms along the reaction coordinate. Select Spectra from the Display menu and click on the IR tab. Click on the top entry in the list in the IR dialog that results. It corresponds to an imaginary frequency, and will be designated with an i in front of the number.
A vibrational frequency is proportional to the square root of the ratio of the force constant (reflecting the curvature of the potential surface along a particular coordinate) divided by a combination of the masses of atoms involved in motion along that coordinate. At a transition state (a maximum in the reaction coordinate), the curvature is negative. Since the mass term is positive, the quantity inside the square root is negative and the frequency is an imaginary number.

Is the vibrational motion consistent with an ene reaction of interest and not with some other process?

6. Controls at the bottom right of the IR dialog allow for changing both the amplitude of vibration (Amp) and the number of steps that make up the motion (Steps). The latter serves as a speed control. Change the amplitude to 0.3. Type 0.3 in the box to the right of Amp and press the Enter key (return key on Mac). Next, click on Make List at the bottom of the dialog. This will give rise to a group of structures that follow the reaction coordinate down from the transition state both toward reactant and product. Remove the original transition state from the screen. Click on ene reaction 1-pentene (the vibrating molecule) and close it, along with the IR dialog.

7. Enter the Calculations dialog and specify calculation of Energy using the 3-21G Hartree-Fock model (the same level of calculation used to obtain the transition state and calculate the frequencies). Make certain that Global Calculations is checked. Next, enter the Surfaces dialog and specify evaluation of two surfaces: a bond density surface and a bond density surface onto which the electrostatic potential has been mapped. Before you do so, make certain that Global Surfaces is checked. Click on More Surfaces..., select density (bond) for Surface and none for Property and click on Apply. Select density (bond) for surface and potential for Property and click on OK.

* You need to use More Surfaces rather than Add as the electrostatic potential is mapped on the bond density surface.
8. Submit for calculation. Name it *ene reaction 1-pentene sequence*. Once the job has completed, enter the **Surfaces** dialog and examine the surfaces that you have calculated. For each, step through the sequence of structures ("" and "") keys at the bottom of the screen) or animate the reaction ("`). Note, in particular, the changes in bonding revealed by the bond density surface. Also pay attention to the value of the potential on the migrating atom. This reflects its charge. Is it best described as a proton (blue), hydrogen atom (green) or hydride anion (red)?

9. Close *ene reaction 1-pentene sequence* as well as any remaining dialogs.

**10 to 13 optional**

Methods that account for electron correlation are generally needed to furnish accurate estimates of absolute activation energies. Perform B3LYP/6-31G* density functional energy calculations on both 1-pentene and on the ene reaction transition state (using 3-21G geometries).

10. Open *ene reaction 1-pentene* and make a copy. Name it *ene reaction 1-pentene density functional*.

11. Enter the **Calculations** dialog, and specify calculation of Energy using the **B3LYP/6-31G* Density Functional** model. Remove the checkmark from **IR**. Submit the job.

12. Open *1-pentene density functional*. Specify calculation of Energy using the **B3LYP/6-31G* Density Functional** model. Also select **3-21G** from the **Start from** menu. This designates that a 3-21G equilibrium structure is to be used (that is, the same as employed for the transition state geometry). Submit the job.

13. Obtain the activation energy (difference in total energies between 1-pentene and the ene reaction transition state).

14. Remove any molecules and dialogs from the screen.
**Sₙ₂ Reaction of Bromide and Methyl Chloride**

\[
\text{Br}^- + \text{CH}_3\text{Cl} \rightarrow \begin{array}{c}
\text{Br} \cdot \cdot \cdot \text{C} \cdot \cdot \cdot \text{Cl} \\
\text{H} \\
\text{H} \\
\text{H} \\
\text{H}
\end{array} \rightarrow \text{Br}-\text{C}^- + \text{Cl}^-
\]

1. The \(S_n\)₂ reaction passes through a transition state in which carbon is in a trigonal bipyramid geometry and the entering and leaving groups are colinear. To build it, first construct methyl chloride. Then select bromine from the palette of icons in the model kit, \textit{click} on the \textbf{Insert} button at the bottom right of the screen or hold down the \textbf{Insert} key (option key on Mac) and \textit{click} anywhere on screen. Alternatively, \textit{double click} in a blank area of the screen following selection of bromine. Two detached fragments, methyl chloride and hydrogen bromide, appear on screen. \textit{Click} on \(\text{Br}^-\) and then \textit{click} on the free valence on bromine. Make sure to \textit{click} on \(\text{CH}_3\text{Cl}\) when you are done. Alternatively, hold down the \textbf{Delete} key and \textit{click} on the free valence on bromine. You are left with methyl chloride and bromine atom (bromide). Manipulate the two such that bromide is poised to attack methyl chloride from the backside (as in the transition state above). (Translations and rotations normally refer to both fragments, but can be made to refer to a single fragment by first \textit{clicking} on the fragment and then holding down on the \textbf{Ctrl} key while carrying out the manipulations.) \textbf{Do not minimize} (If you do so by accident, select \textbf{Undo} from the \textbf{Edit} menu). \textit{Click} on \(\checkmark\).

2. Select \textbf{Guess Transition State} from the \textbf{Search} menu or \textit{click} on \(\text{Br}^->\text{Cl}\). \textit{Click} on bromide and, while holding down the \textbf{Shift} key, \textit{click} again on bromide and then on carbon. A dotted line will be drawn from bromine to carbon, together with an arrow from bromine to the center of this line. Next, \textit{click} on the CCl bond and then \textit{click} on the chlorine. A second arrow from the carbon-chlorine bond to the chlorine will be drawn.

Chapter 7
Click on \(\text{ }\) at the bottom right of the screen. Your structure will be replaced by a guess at the transition state.

3. Select **Measure Distance** from the **Geometry** menu (or *click on \(\text{ }\)) and then *click on the CBr bond. Replace the current CBr distance in the box at the bottom right of the screen by **3.8** (3.8Å) and *press the **Enter** key (return key on Mac). You have made a complex representing the reactant.

4. Select **Constrain Distance** from the **Geometry** menu (or *click on \(\text{ }\)) icon at the top of the screen). *Click on the CBr bond, and then *click on \(\text{ }\) at the bottom right of the screen. The icon will change to \(\text{ }\) indicating a constraint is to be applied to this distance. Check the box to the left of **Profile** at the bottom right of the screen. This will result in two additional text boxes.

| Constraint (Con1) = | P | 3.800 Å | to | 3.800 Å | Step: | 10 | \(\text{ }\) Profile |

Leave the value **3.8** (3.8Å) in the leftmost box alone, but change the number in the box to the right of to **1.9** (1.9Å) and *press the **Enter** (return) key. Change the number in the box to the right of **Steps** from **10** (the default) to **20**. 20 Calculations with CBr bond lengths constrained from 3.8Å (the starting point) to 1.9Å (the ending point) will be performed. The transition state should have a CBr distance in between these values. *Click on \(\text{ }\).

5. Enter the **Calculations** dialog, and select **Energy Profile**, **Semi-Empirical** and **AM1** from the appropriate menus to the right of **Calculate**. You need to change **Total Charge** to **Anion**.

6. Submit the job. Name it **bromide+methyl chloride**. When completed, it will give rise to a sequence of calculations placed in **bromide+methyl chloride.Prof.M0001**. You will be prompted as to whether you want to open this file. *Click on **OK**. Align the molecules. *Click on \(\text{ }\), select **Structure** from the **Align by** menu at the bottom right of the screen and, one after the other, *click on the three hydrogens. Finally *press the **Align by** button at the bottom right of the screen. *Click on \(\text{ }\).

7. Bring up the **Spreadsheet** (**Spreadsheet** from the **Display** menu)
and *click on Add...* Select E from among the quantities listed at the top of the dialog, kJ/mol from the Energy menu, and *click on OK*. Next, enter the (constrained) CBr distances and bromine charges in the spreadsheet. *Click on , click on the constraint marker and click on [P] at the bottom right of the screen. Click on [V]. Bring up the Properties dialog. Click on bromine and *click on [P] to the left of Electrostatic under Charges in the Atom Properties dialog*. Finally, bring up the Plots dialog, and select Constraint (Con1) (the distance at which the CBr bond has been constrained) from the X Axis menu, and both E (kJ/mol) and Electrostatic (Br1) from the Y Axes list. *Click on Create Plot.*

One plot gives the energy as the reaction proceeds and the other gives charge on bromine. Are the two related? Explain.

![Plot](image)

S_N2 reactions involving charged species normally need to be carried out in highly-polar media, for example, water. *Spartan* provides two solvation models in which the solvent is represented by a reaction field ([Appendix B](#)). The SM5.4 model only alters the energy and not the charges. The more recent SM8 model does affect charges but is available only for Hartree-Fock and density functional models.

8. Add aqueous phase data (based on the SM5.4 model) to the spreadsheet. *Click on an empty column header, click on Add..., select Eaq from the list of available quantities (kJ/mol from the
Energy menu), and click on OK. Bring up the Plots dialog and select Constraint (Con1) from the X Axis and Ea(kJ/mol) from the Y Axes list. Click on Create Plot.

9 to 12 optional

9. With bromide+methyl chloride.Prof.M0001 selected, enter the Calculations dialog. Specify Energy (Semi-Empirical and AM1 should be selected) and click on OK.

10. Enter the Surfaces dialog. Click on More Surfaces... * Select density (bond) from the Surface menu and none from the Property menu and click on Apply. Select density (bond) from the Surface menu, but this time potential from the Property menu. Click on OK.

11. Submit the job. When completed, enter the Surfaces dialog and examine the bond density surface that you generated. Click on 📹 at the bottom left of the screen to animate the display. Note, that bonds are smoothly broken and formed during the course of reaction. Click on 📹 at the bottom of the screen when you are done.

12. Reenter the Surfaces dialog. Turn display of the bond density off, and then turn display of the electrostatic potential mapped onto the bond density on. Click on 📹. Relate the migration of negative charge during reaction as indicated by colors in the electrostatic potential map to the plot you constructed earlier in step 7. Recall, that colors near red indicate maximum negative potential.

13. Remove all molecules and any remaining dialogs from the screen.

* You need to use More Surfaces rather than Add as the electrostatic potential is mapped on the bond density surface.
Carbene Additions to Alkenes

Singlet carbenes add to alkenes to yield cyclopropanes. Since a singlet carbene possesses both a high-energy occupied molecular orbital in the plane of the molecule, and a low-energy, out-of-plane unoccupied molecular orbital, this reaction presents an interesting dilemma. Clearly it would be more advantageous for the low-lying vacant orbital on the carbene, and not the high-lying filled orbital, to interact with the olefin $\pi$ system during its approach.

However, this leads to a product with an incorrect geometry. The carbene must twist by 90° during the course of reaction.

In this tutorial, you will use the Hartree-Fock 3-21G model to find the transition state and to analyze the motion of the fragments.

1. Bring up the organic model kit and build ethylene.
2. Select $\text{CCH}_2$ from the model kit. Click on the Insert button at the bottom right of the screen or hold down the Insert key (option key on Mac) and then click anywhere on screen. Alternatively, double click on a blank area of the screen following selection of sp$^3$
carbon. Next, select \( \text{\textsuperscript{+}} \) from the model kit and click on two of the free valences on the sp\(^3\) carbon. Next, click on \( \text{\textsuperscript{-}} \) and, one after the other, click on the remaining two free valences on the sp\(^3\) carbon. Finally, click on \( \text{\textsuperscript{+}} \). You are left with two fragments, ethylene and difluorocarbene. Orient the two as to be poised for reaction.\(^*\)

\[
\text{\textsuperscript{F}}\text{C} \\
\text{\textsuperscript{F}}
\]

Translactions and rotations normally refer to the complete set of fragments, but if you click on a fragment (not on a free valence) to select it, and then hold down the Ctrl key they will refer to an individual fragment.

3. Select **Guess Transition State** from the Search menu or click on \( \text{\textsuperscript{+}} \). Click on the carbon on the CF\(_2\) fragment and then, while holding down the Shift key, click on the CF\(_2\) carbon and on the closer of the carbons on the ethylene fragment. A dotted line is drawn between the two carbons that are to be bonded along with an arrow from the CF\(_2\) carbon to the center of this line.

\[
\text{\textsuperscript{F}}\text{C} \\
\text{\textsuperscript{F}}
\]

Click on the CC double bond and then, while holding down the Shift key, click on the other ethylene carbon and on the CF\(_2\) carbon. A second dotted line and arrow will be drawn.

\[
\text{\textsuperscript{F}}\text{C} \\
\text{\textsuperscript{F}}
\]

* Proper orientation of the two fragments is not crucial in this case, but is primarily to allow you to associate the arrows with the intended reaction. Proper orientation is, however, essential where different stereochemical outcomes are possible.
Chapter 7

Click on at the bottom right of the screen. Your structure will be replaced by a guess at the transition state.

4. Enter the Calculations dialog. Specify calculation of a Transition State Geometry using the 3-21G Hartree-Fock model. Check IR to the right of Compute, and click on Submit. Name the job difluorocarbene+ethylene.

5. When the job is complete, examine the geometry of the transition state. In light of the previous discussion, would you describe your structure as corresponding to an early or late transition state? Animate the vibration corresponding to the reaction coordinate. Bring up the IR dialog (Spectra under the Display menu and click on the IR tab). Click on the imaginary frequency at the top of the list of frequencies. Does the animation show that the carbene reorients as it approaches the double bond? Turn the animation off by again clicking on the imaginary frequency.

6. Select Properties (Display menu) and, in turn, click on each of the four hydrogens in the transition state. Change the value in the Mass Number menu in the Atom Properties dialog (Properties under the Display menu) from 1 to 2 Deuterium. Resubmit the job. (No additional quantum chemical calculations are involved, but the vibrational analysis needs to be repeated.) When complete, examine the new set of vibrational frequencies. Note that they are uniformly smaller than those for the undeuterated system, and that the largest changes are for vibrational motions where hydrogens are involved.

7 to 10 optional

7. Make a copy of difluorocarbene+ethylene (name it difluorocarbene+cyclohexene. The original file will be closed.

8. Bring up the organic model kit with the copy (click on ). Select Freeze Center from the Geometry menu (or click on the icon at the top of the screen). One after the other, click on all atoms in the transition state except two of the hydrogens on one side (on different carbons) of the ethylene fragment. Each of the selected
atoms will be given a magenta colored marker, indicating that it is to be frozen (not moved during optimization). Build a chain of four \( \text{sp}^3 \) carbons \( \text{sp}^3 \) off one of the free valences that you have not frozen. Select \( \text{sp}^3 \) and \textit{click} on the free valence on the terminal \( \text{sp}^3 \) carbon and on the remaining free valence that you have not frozen to make a cyclohexene ring. \textit{Click} on \( \text{Click} \). Note that the only four methylene groups that you have just introduced move and not the underlying transition state. You have produced an excellent guess at the transition state for difluorocarbene addition to cyclohexene based on your previous transition state for the simpler process.*

9. Enter the \textbf{Calculations} dialog. It should already specify calculation of \textbf{Transition State Geometry} using the \textbf{3-21G Hartree-Fock} model. Remove the checkmark on IR (to the right of \textbf{Compute}). \textbf{Do not check Frozen Atoms} (to the right of \textbf{Subject To}). \textit{Click} on \( \text{Click} \).

10. To compare the geometries of the two transition states, you need to put them into the same document. Select \textbf{Append Molecule(s)}... from the \textbf{File} menu, \textit{click} on \textbf{difluorocarbene+ethylene} in the browser that results and \textit{click} on \textbf{Open}. Select \textbf{Spreadsheet} from the \textbf{Display} menu and \textit{check} each of the boxes to the right of their identifiers. This allows the two transition states to be displayed simultaneously on screen. \textit{Click} on \textbf{Add} at the bottom of the spreadsheet and select \textbf{Alignment Scores} from the menu that results. \textit{Click} on \( \text{Click} \), select \textbf{structure} from the \textbf{Align by} menu at the bottom right of the screen, \textit{click} on the three carbons that make up the cyclopropane ring and \textit{click} on \textbf{Align by} at the bottom right of the screen. \textit{Click} on \( \text{Click} \). Are the two transition states very similar as expected (an alignment score of 1.0 is perfect alignment)?

11. Remove all molecules and dialogs from the screen.

* It is not necessary to replace the deuteriums by hydrogens. You will not request an IR spectrum and calculated geometry does not depend on atomic mass
Stereospecific Diels-Alder Reactions

Diels-Alder cycloaddition of 5-substituted cyclopentadienes with acrylonitrile can lead to four stereoproducts, in which the substituent, X, at the 5 position is syn or anti to the dienophile, and the nitrile is endo or exo. Anti products are preferred when X is alkyl (consistent with sterics), while syn products are favored when X is halogen or alkoxy. In general, endo adducts are kinetically favored over exo adducts (see following tutorial). In this tutorial, you will use AM1 calculations to obtain both syn and anti transition states for endo addition of both 5-methylcyclopentadiene and 5-fluorocyclopentadiene and acrylonitrile, and then use Hartree-Fock 3-21G calculations to estimate relative activation energies. All four transition states are likely to be very similar to the transition state for the parent cycloaddition (cyclopentadiene and acrylonitrile). You will take advantage of this, and obtain a transition state for the parent reaction, and then to use it as a starting point for locating transition states for the substituted systems.

1. Construct the following substituted norbornene (the product of endo addition of cyclopentadiene and acrylonitrile).

2. Select **Guess Transition State** from the **Search** menu or click on ![Guess Transition State](image). Click on bond a (see figure above) and then on bond b. A curved arrow will be drawn from a to b. Next, click on bond c and then on bond d; a second curved arrow from c to d be drawn. Finally, click on bond e and then on bond f, leading to a third curved arrow. The model on screen should now appear as follows.
Click on [image] at the bottom right to produce a guess at the transition state.

3. Inside the Calculations dialog, specify calculation of Transition State Geometry using the Semi-Empirical AM1 model. Check IR under Compute to specify calculation of vibrational frequencies. This will allow you to verify that you have indeed located a transition state that is consistent with a Diels-Alder reaction.

4. Submit the job. Name it cyclopentadiene+acrylonitrile. When completed, examine the resulting structure and calculated frequencies. Verify that there is one and only one imaginary frequency. Animate the motion associated with the imaginary frequency (Spectra under the Display menu, click on the IR tab and check the box to the left of the imaginary frequency in the dialog that results) to verify that it corresponds to the expected motion along the reaction coordinate.

5. Place the transition-state structure onto the clipboard. Right click on the background and select Copy from the resulting menu. Close cyclopentadiene+acrylonitrile (image).

6. Bring up the organic model kit (image). Click on Clipboard (at the bottom of the model kit) and then click anywhere on screen. The transition-state structure will appear. Add a fluorine to the methylene group on the cyclopentadiene fragment of the transition state either syn or anti. Do not minimize. Your starting structure should provide an excellent guess at the transition state for the substituted system.

7. Select New Molecule (not New) from the File menu. The screen will clear. Click on Clipboard and then click anywhere on screen. Add fluorine to the other methylene group position. Repeat the
process two more times (starting with \textbf{New Molecule}), to add a methyl group (sp$^3$ carbon) to both \textit{syn} and \textit{anti} on methylene. When you are done (four substituted transition states in total), \textit{click} on $\sqrt{\text{✓}}$.

Bring up the spreadsheet and replace the molecule identifiers in the leftmost column (\textit{M0001}, etc.) but more descriptive names (\textit{F syn}, etc.). \textit{Click} inside each cell and type.

8. Enter the \textbf{Calculations} dialog and specify calculation of \textbf{Transition State Geometry} using the \textbf{Semi-Empirical AM1} model. \textit{Check} IR to the right of \textbf{Compute}. Make certain that \textbf{Global Calculations} is checked. Submit the job (name it \textit{Diels-Alder stereochemistry}. When it has completed, verify that all four structures correspond to transition states, that is, have one and only one imaginary frequency (\textbf{Spectra} from the \textbf{Display} menu).

9. Make a copy of \textit{Diels-Alder stereochemistry} (\textit{Duplicate}). Name it \textit{Diels-Alder stereochemistry Hartree-Fock}. Enter the \textbf{Calculations} dialog with this copy and specify a \textbf{3-21G Hartree-Fock Energy} calculation. Make certain that you remove the checkmark on IR and that \textbf{Global Calculations} is checked before you exit the dialog.

10. Submit the job. When it completes, bring up the \textbf{Reactions} dialog (\textbf{Reactions} from the \textbf{Display} menu). Select \textit{syn} and \textit{anti} F compounds (and then \textit{syn} and \textit{anti} Me compounds) for \textbf{Reactants} and \textbf{Products}, respectively, select \textbf{Current Document} from the \textbf{Use} menu, \textit{kJ/mol} from the \textbf{Units} menu and \textit{click} on the \textbf{Compute Energies} button at the bottom of the dialog. Use the results to identify the more stable (thermodynamic) product in each case.

11. Remove all molecules and any remaining dialogs from the screen.
Chemical reactions may yield different products depending on the conditions under which they are carried out. High temperatures and long reaction times favor the most stable (thermodynamic) products, whereas low temperatures and short reaction times favor the most easily formed (kinetic) products. For example, the kinetic product in Diels-Alder cycloaddition of cyclopentadiene and maleic anhydride is the \textit{endo} adduct, whereas it seems likely that the less-crowded \textit{exo} adduct is the thermodynamic product.

Here you will first obtain pathways for reactions leading to both \textit{endo} and \textit{exo} adducts using the PM3 semi-empirical model and then follow these by 3-21G Hartree-Fock energy calculations to get a better estimate of the difference in activation energies.

1. Build the \textit{endo} Diels-Alder adduct of cyclopentadiene and maleic anhydride and minimize (\checkmark).

2. Select \textbf{Constrain Distance} from the \textbf{Geometry} menu (or \textit{click} on \checkmark), and \textit{click} on bond \textit{a} in the figure above. \textit{Click} on the icon \checkmark at the bottom right of the screen (it will then turn to \checkmark). \textbf{Check} the box to the left of \textbf{Profile} at the bottom right of the screen. This will give rise to three additional check boxes. Change the value in the leftmost box from 1.54Å to 1.5Å by \textit{typing 1.5} inside the box and then \textit{pressing} the \textbf{Enter} key (\textit{return key on Mac}). \textit{Type 2.7} (2.7Å) into the box to the right of \textit{to} and \textit{press} the \textbf{Enter (return)} key. \textit{Type 13} into the box to the right of \textbf{Steps} and \textit{press} the \textbf{Enter (return)} key. You have specified that bond \textit{a} will be constrained first to 1.5Å, then to 1.6Å, then to 1.7Å, etc. and finally to 2.7Å. \textit{Click} on \checkmark.
3. Repeat the process for bond \( b \). When you are done, both bonds \( a \) and \( b \) will be constrained from 1.5 Å to 2.7 Å in 13 equal steps. **Click on [✓].**

4. Bring up the **Calculations** dialog and select **Energy Profile** from the top menu to the right of **Calculate**, and **Semi-Empirical** and **PM3** from the two bottom menus. **Click on Submit** at the bottom of the dialog. Name it **cyclopentadiene+ maleic anhydride endo**.

5. When completed the job will give rise to a new document **cyclopentadiene+maleic anhydride endo.Prof.M0001**. This contains 13 calculations corresponding to the 13 steps that make up the energy profile. You will be prompted as to whether you want to open this file. **Click on OK.** *

6. Bring up the **Spreadsheet**, and **click on Add...** at the bottom. Select **E** from among the entries, **kJ/mol** from the **Energy** menu, and **click on OK**. Next, **click on [✓]** and **click on one of the two CC bonds varied in the energy profile. Click on [✓]** at the bottom right of the screen. **Click on [✓].** Finally, bring up the **Plots** dialog (**Plots** from the **Display** menu), and select **Constraint (BondX)** **from among the items in the X Axis menu and E (kJ/mol)** from the **Y Axes** list. **Click on Create Plot.**

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* To avoid confusion, it is a good idea to close the original file **cyclopentadiene+maleic anhydride endo**.
** Bonds are numbered in the order they were formed upon initial construction of the molecule.
Identify both the reactant and transition state from the plot and estimate the activation energy for the cycloaddition reaction.

7. Repeat steps 1 to 6 for the \textit{exo} adduct. Compare the activation energy for \textit{exo} addition to that for \textit{endo} addition (above). What is the kinetic product?

\textbf{8 and 9 optional}

8. Open \textit{cyclopentadiene+maleic anhydride endo.Prof.M0001} and make a copy. Name it \textit{cyclopentadiene +maleic anhydride endo Hartree-Fock}. Enter the \texttt{Calculations} dialog and specify a \texttt{Hartree-Fock 3-21G Energy} calculation. Submit. When completed, perform the same spreadsheet and plot operations you did for the PM3 calculations.

9. Repeat the above procedure for the \textit{exo} adduct and compare the two activation energies. What is the kinetic product?

10. Remove all molecules and dialogs from the screen.
Activation Energies of Diels Alder Reactions

In an earlier tutorial *Dienophiles in Diels-Alder Reactions* (Chapter 5), you examined the extent to which LUMO energies for a series of related dienophiles correlated with relative rates of Diels-Alder cycloadditions involving cyclopentadiene. In this tutorial, you will compare calculated activation energies for this same set of reactions with the experimental rates. You will use the previous set of calculations on the dienophiles and obtain transition states from the Spartan Reaction Database (SRD). The only quantum chemical calculation that is required is for cyclopentadiene.

1. Build cyclopentadiene and minimize (1 min). Before you proceed with the next step, copy cyclopentadiene onto the clipboard. Right click and select Copy from the menu that appears.

2. Enter the Calculations dialog (Setup menu) and specify an Equilibrium Geometry calculation using the Hartree-Fock 3-21G model. Submit the job with the name *cyclopentadiene*. Move it off to the side of the screen for use later on.

3. Enter the builder ( ). Click on Clipboard. The structure of cyclopentadiene will appear at the top of the model kit. Click anywhere on screen and cyclopentadiene will appear.

4. Select Alkenyl from the Groups menu, press the Insert button (at the bottom right of the model kit) or hold down the Insert key (option key on Mac) and click on screen, or double click in a blank area on screen. Both cyclopentadiene and ethylene will appear on screen, but they will not be connected. Select Cyano from the Groups menu and click on one of the free valences on ethylene. Both cyclopentadiene and acrylonitrile will appear on screen.

5. Orient the two molecules such that they are poised for a Diels-Alder reaction leading to an endo product.
Select **Define Reaction Query** from the **Search** menu (*click on [](#*)). *Click* on the bond marked a in the above figure and, while holding down the **Shift** key, *click* on the two carbons that when connected will lead to the bond marked b. A dotted line will be drawn between these carbons and a curly arrow drawn from the center of bond a to the center of bond b. Next, *click* on bond c and then on bond d. A second arrow will be drawn. Finally, *click* on bond e and, while holding down the **Shift** key, *click* on the two carbons that when connected will lead to the bond marked f. A second dotted line and a third arrow will be drawn.

6. Select **Define Structure Query** from the **Search** menu (*click on [](#*)). *Click* on all three free valences on the acrylonitrile fragment. They will be replaced by orange cones, meaning that anything (including hydrogen) may be attached to these positions.

7. Select **Open Databases** from the **Search** menu (*click on [](#*) and *click* on the **SRD** tab at the top of the dialog that results. This leads to the **Spartan Reaction Database (SRD)** dialog.

Before you begin the search, *click* on [](#) to the right the **Search** button at the bottom of the dialog. This brings up the **Search Options** dialog.

* **Define Search Query** is equivalent to **Guess Transition State** for the purpose of defining curly arrows. It lacks the ability to automatically guess a transition state.*
Check 3-21G under Method Filters and click on OK. Click on the Search button to search the Spartan Reaction Database for Diels-Alder transition states between cyclopentadiene and substituted acrylonitriles.

8. When the search completes, a listing of hits appears at the right of the dialog.

This should contain four Diels-Alder transition states for endo additions of cyclopentadiene and trans-1,2-dicyanoethylene, cis-1,2-dicyanoethylene, tricyanoethylene and tetracyanoethylene. All need to be retrieved into a single document. Click on to the right of the Retrieve button at the bottom of the dialog to bring up the Retrieve Options dialog. Make sure that New Document is selected in this dialog and click on OK. Hold down the Ctrl key, select (click on) all four Diels-Alder transition states and click on Retrieve at the bottom of the dialog. A new (unnamed) document will be created. Open a spreadsheet for this document.
9. Open *Diels-Alder dienophiles* that you created in an earlier tutorial* and bring up a spreadsheet for this document. Select all entries in this document. *Click* inside the lefthand cell of the first entry, hold down the *Shift* key and *click* on the last entry. *Right click* and select *Copy* from the menu that results. Move the cursor over the lefthand cell of the first empty column of the new (unnamed) document, *right click* and select *Paste* from the menu that results. The contents of *Diels-Alder dienophiles* (the dienophiles and cyclopentadiene) will be copied into the new document. Close *Diels-Alder dienophiles*.

10. Bring up the **Reactions** dialog (**Reactions** from the **Display** menu). One after the other, calculate activation energies for the six Diels-Alder reactions. Use cyclopentadiene and one of the dienophile for **Reactants** and the appropriate transiton state and **none** for **Products**. Select **Current Document** under **Use** at the bottom of the dialog and *click* on **Compute Energies**. Is the ordering calculated activation energies consistent with the experimental relative rates (available in the tutorial *Diels-Alder Dienophiles* in Chapter 5)?

11. Close all molecules and any open dialogs.

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* If you have not completed this tutorial, a copy of the document *Diels-Alder dienophiles* may be found in the *organic reactions* sub-directory (**tutorials** directory). For Windows, this directory is found in **Program Files/Wavefunction/Spartan10** or **Program Files(x86)/Wavefunction/Spartan10**. It needs to be copied to another location available to the user prior to opening it in **Spartan**. For Linux, this is found in the directory where **Spartan** was installed. For Macintosh, this is located at the top level on the installation CDROM.
Chapter 8
Medicinal Chemistry

This chapter illustrates applications of Spartan to problems of relevance to medicinal chemists. The first involves an investigation of the relationship between polar surface area (defined both by atom counts and by electrostatic potential maps) and the rate of transport between blood and brain. The second uses a published pharmacophore to decide whether the antihistamine terfenadine should be considered a potential potassium channel blocker. The third seeks to find molecules with similar analgesic activity as morphine, based first on similar structure and then on similar chemical functionality.

Many molecular properties may now be calculated using quantum chemical methods, some more accurately than they can be measured. Still, some quantities of key interest to medicinal chemists are not yet subject to calculation. A good example is the rate at which a molecule passes through a membrane. Here, overall molecular polarity plays an obvious role. Too polar and the lipid may not be able to drag the molecule from the (aqueous) solvent. Not sufficiently polar and the molecule will not want to leave the membrane to return to the aqueous environment. One descriptor commonly used to account for polarity is the so-called polar surface area, defined as the area of space-filling model due to nitrogen and oxygen together with any bonded hydrogens. The first tutorial in this chapter examines the correlation between polar surface area and blood-brain transport and then proposes an alternative based on electrostatic potential maps.

Many (if not most) drugs act by binding to a protein or nucleotide, either promoting a particular process (agonists) or inhibiting one (antagonists). New drugs can be found by identifying molecules that are structurally and/or functionally similar to compounds that are known or presumed to bind. The second tutorial examines whether the antihistamine terfenadine is likely to show serious side effects because of a binding affinity in potassium ion channels. Here, the
similarity analysis is not carried out between molecules but between a molecule and an environment. The third tutorial makes use of similarity analysis to suggest compounds that look like morphine and hence might exhibit similar analgesic action.
Anticipating Blood-Brain Transport

A drug must be able to be transported throughout the body. This includes intestinal absorption and passage across the blood/brain barrier. In this tutorial, you will first examine how well the polar surface area, the area of space-filling model due to nitrogen and oxygen atoms together with any attached hydrogens, correlates with log \((\text{C}_{\text{brain}}/\text{C}_{\text{blood}})^*\).

1. Open blood brain transport from the medicinal chemistry sub-directory (tutorials directory).** This comprises a list of drugs/drug candidates for which experimental data relating to the ratio of concentrations in the brain and in the blood \((\text{C}_{\text{brain}}/\text{C}_{\text{blood}})\) are available. These span a range of nearly 5 log units.

2. Bring up a spreadsheet (Spreadsheet under the Display menu) and size it to show all compounds, several extra rows and three columns, in addition to the column of experimental data \(\log(\text{brain/blood})\) that is already displayed. Bring up the Molecule Properties dialog and click on the QSAR tab. Click on the \(\text{PSA}\) to the left of \(\text{PSA}\). Polar surface area values will fill one column in the spreadsheet.

3. Click on the Add button at the bottom of the spreadsheet and select (click on) the Linear Regression tab at the top of the dialog that appears (most likely the Add Columns dialog). This leads to the Add Linear Regression dialog. Select \(\log(\text{brain/blood})\) from the Fit menu and click on PSA from the quantities in the box below Using. Click on OK. Bring up the Regression Properties dialog by first selecting Properties from the Display menu and then clicking on the cell labelled Fit1 under Label in the spreadsheet. RMSD and \(R^2\) values are reported. The smaller RMSD and the closer to unity \(R^2\), the better the fit. Leave the

* J. Kelder et al, Pharmaceutical Res., 16, 1514 (1999). All 19 named compounds considered in this paper have been included.

** For Windows, this directory is found in Program Files/Wavefunction/Spartan10 or Program Files(x86)/Wavefunction/Spartan10. It needs to be copied to another location available to the user prior to opening it in Spartan. For Linux, this is found in the directory where Spartan was installed. For Macintosh, this is located at the top level on the installation CDROM.
Regression Properties dialog on screen.

4. Make a plot of log(brain/blood) vs. the regression fit. Select Plots from the Display menu to bring up the Plots dialog. Select log(brain/blood) from the X Axis menu, Fit Vals (Fit 1) from the Y Axis list and click on OK. Initial presentation uses a smooth curve (cubic spline) to connect the data points. Click on the curve (not on the axes) to bring up the Curve Properties dialog. Select Linear LSQ from the Fit menu to give a least squares line.

![Graph of log(brain/blood) vs. Fit Vals (Fit 1)](image)

Next, you will consider an alternative definition of polar surface area, based on electrostatic potential maps.

5. Select Surfaces from the Display menu and select Electrostatic Potential Map in the dialog that results. An electrostatic potential map for the selected drug appears (maps for the remaining drugs may be seen by stepping through the list). The overall size and shape is that of the electron density and corresponds roughly to a conventional space-filling model. The colors indicate the value of the electrostatic potential. Colors toward red designate areas of negative potential (where a positive charge is most likely to be attracted), while colors toward blue designate areas of positive potential (where a positive charge is least likely to be attracted). To see the molecular skeleton underneath the electrostatic potential map, change to a transparent or mesh display. Click on the map to select it and select Transparent or Mesh from the Style menu that appears at the bottom right of the screen.
6. Select **Properties** from the **Display** menu. **Click** on the map. **Click** on the **P** button to the left of **P-Area** inside the **Surfaces Properties** dialog that results. Polar areas, defined as the area for which the absolute value of the electrostatic potential is > 100 kJ/mol*, will be added to the spreadsheet.

7. **Click** on the **Add** button at the bottom of the spreadsheet and **click** on the **Linear Regression** tab at the top of the dialog that results. Select **log(brain/blood)** from the **Fit** menu and **click** on **Polar Area** from the quantities in the box below **Using**. **Click** on **OK**. Bring up the **Regression Properties** dialog by **clicking** on the cell labelled **Fit2** under **Label** in the spreadsheet. Note that the R² value is better (closer to unity) for this fit than for the previous fit (to PSA defined in the usual manner). Make a plot of log (brain/blood) vs. the new regression fit. Select **Plots** from the **Display** menu, choose **log (brain/blood)** from the **X-Axis** menu and **FitVals (Fit 2)** (instead of **Fit Vals (Fit 1)** from the **Y Axis** list and **click** on **OK**. Switch to a least square fit by **clicking** on the curve that results and selecting **Linear LSQ** from the **Fit** menu in the **Curve Properties** dialog. Which property provides better correlation with transport across the blood/brain barrier, PSA or polar area?

![Graph of log(brain/blood) vs. fit values](image)

8. Close **blood brain transport** when you are finished.

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* This value may be changed in the **Settings Preferences** dialog (**Preferences** under the **Options** menu; **Chapter 20**).
Terfenadine. A Potassium Channel Blocker?

Cardiovascular toxicity due to blocking of potassium ion channels is commonly screened early in the drug development process. One way this is done is to compare drug candidates to a pharmacophore deduced from 3D QSAR studies. This tutorial uses a published pharmacophore* to see whether the antihistamine, terfenadine should be considered a potential channel blocker.

1. Open terfenadine conformer library from the medicinal chemistry sub-directory (tutorials directory).** This contains a selection of several hundred conformers of terfenadine (the number is reported in the Molecule Properties dialog) obtained from a conformer library calculation. It has been supplied in order to save computer time. Close terfenadine conformer library.

2. Open potassium channel blocker pharmacophore from the medicinal chemistry sub-directory (tutorials directory). This is a five-point pharmacophore comprising four hydrophobes (blue spheres) and one positive ionizable center (red sphere).

3. Select Set Similarity Centers from the Geometry menu (or click on the icon at the top of the screen) and then select CFD from the menu at the bottom right of the screen. In turn, click on each of the (five) pharmacophore elements. In response,
each will be surrounded by a violet circle indicating that it is to be used in the similarity analysis.

4. Select **Calculations...** from the **Setup** menu. Select **Similarity Analysis** from the top left menu to the right of **Calculate** inside the **Calculations** dialog. This leads to a new form of the **Calculations** dialog.

![Image of Calculations dialog]

*Click* on **Add Library** to bring up a file browser. Locate *terfenadine conformer library* in the *medicinal chemistry* sub-directory (*tutorials* directory) and *click* on **OK**. This indicates that the library of terfenadine conformers will be searched for a match to the pharmacophore. *Click* on **Submit**.

5. When the analysis has completed, select **Similarities...** from the **Display** menu to bring up the **Similarities** dialog.

![Image of Similarities dialog]

One or more hits will appear in the box at the right of the dialog, together with a similarity score (limiting on 1.0 which means a perfect match). If there is more than one hit, *click* on that
with the largest score. A composite graphic of terfenadine and the pharmacophore will appear in a window at the left of the dialog. You can manipulate the two (as a single object) in the usual way (you need to position the cursor inside the window). Note that the positive ionizable center is positioned above the nitrogen, while the four hydrophobes are above the phenyl rings and the tert-butyl group.

The scoring algorithm not only accounts for position but also for direction of any nitrogen or oxygen centers that overlap with (non-hydrophobe) pharmacophore elements.

6. You can, if you wish, retrieve your hit (without retrieving the pharmacophore), by clicking on the Retrieve button at the bottom left of the Similarities dialog. This can be used for further analysis.

9. Close all open documents on screen.
Morphine. Structure vs. Pharmacophore

Three elements of morphine appear to be required in order for the molecule to act as an analgesic. These are: i) the nitrogen center (assumed to be protonated in the protein-bound complex), ii) the aromatic ring and iii) the hydroxyl group attached to the aromatic ring. Loss of any of these results in significant loss of activity. This knowledge may either be used directly, to identify other likely analgesics based on structure, or indirectly, to construct a simple 3-point pharmacophore that in turn may be employed to find compounds with potentially comparable analgesic activity.

This tutorial comprises three parts. In the first part, you will identify molecules in SMD that incorporate the three required elements. In practice, you will look for molecules that incorporate a nitrogen center substituted by a methyl group and two other (sp$^3$) carbons and a substituted phenol. You will then select a single hit and generate a conformer library for similarity analysis. (In a comprehensive investigation, you would likely use several hits or all hits; the restriction here is simply in order to save computer time.)

1. Bring up the organic model kit (atories). Select Benzene from the Rings menu and click anywhere on screen. Select sp$^3$ oxygen (觎) and click on one of the free valences of benzene. You have made phenol. Select sp$^3$ nitrogen (に入れ), click on the Insert button at the bottom of the screen or hold down the Insert key (option key on Mac) and click anywhere on screen. Alternatively, double click on a blank region on screen following selection of sp$^3$ nitrogen. Two molecules (phenol and ammonia) appear on screen. Click on sp$^3$ carbon (に入れ) and click on all three free
valences on the nitrogen. Phenol and trimethylamine now appear on screen. Click on \( \checkmark \) remove the model kit.

2. Select Define Structure Query \( \square \) from the Search menu. Click on all five free valences on the carbons in the phenol fragment and on all three free valences on two of the three methyl groups and on one free valence for the remaining methyl group in the trimethylamine fragment. Orange cones will appear at all (twelve) selected positions.

![Diagram of molecules]

Anything can be grown from these positions (including hydrogen) but any hit must contain phenol and a nitrogen bonded to three \( \text{sp}^3 \) carbon centers.

3. Select Open Databases from the Search menu \( \square \). Click on the SMD tab in the dialog that results. Click on \( \square \) to the right of the Search button in the SMD dialog to bring up the Search Options dialog.

![Search Options dialog]

Check 6-31G* under Method Filters and Structure under Search by in the Search Options dialog. Click on OK. Finally, click on the Search button at the bottom of the SMD dialog.
4. The search will result in several hits. Find and click on cephaeline from among those hits listed inside in the scroll box at the right of the SMD dialog.

Its structure will be displayed in the window at the left of the dialog*. You can manipulate the model in the usual way by positioning the cursor inside this window. Click on ☐ to the right of the Retrieve button at the bottom of the SMD dialog to bring up the Retrieve Options dialog. Check New Document under Retrieve Options and click on OK. Finally, click on the Retrieve button. Dismiss the SMD dialog by clicking on ☒ at the top right-hand corner.

Close the molecule used for the search (phenol and trimethylamine) without saving (☒). Save the molecule you retrieved under the name cephaeline (☐).

5. To shorten computer time, remove some of the degrees of conformational freedom from cephaeline. Select Set Torsions from the Geometry menu (or click on ☐). Your model will be augmented with yellow cylinders to designate flexible bonds. Remove the markers from the bonds connecting the three methoxy groups to the aromatic rings by double clicking on each in turn. These bonds will no longer be included in the conformational search. Your model should now appear as follows with only three single bonds selected.

* Right click on Name at the top of the list to sort in alphabetical order.
If more are selected, *double click* on the appropriate torsion markers to remove them.

6. Bring up the **Calculations** dialog (**Calculations...** from the **Setup** menu). Select **Conformer Library** from the top left menu to the right of **Calculate**. No further information is required. **Click** on **Submit** at the bottom of the dialog. Name it *cephaeline library*. You can continue with the tutorial while you are waiting for the job to complete. When *cephaeline library* completes, close this file ( 文件 ).

In the second part of the tutorial, you will identify the key structural components in morphine and perform a similarity analysis based on structure on the conformer library for cephaeline.

7. You can either build morphine or (to save time) open it: **morphine** from the **medicinal chemistry** sub-directory (**tutorials** directory).*

To build morphine, start with **Benzene** from the **Rings** menu. Add two (ortho) sp³ oxygens (.decorators) to make catechol and orient as below (free valences not drawn).

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* For Windows, this directory is found in **Program Files/Wavefunction/Spartan10** or **Program Files(x86)/Wavefunction/Spartan10**. It needs to be copied to another location available to the user prior to opening it in **Spartan**. For Linux, this is found in the directory where **Spartan** was installed. For Macintosh, this is located at the top level on the installation CDROM.
Select **Cyclohexane** from the **Rings** menu and **click** on the free valence on the *’ed carbon in catechol. Orient as below, with the free valence on the cyclohexane carbon used to attach to benzene pointing straight up.

![Cyclohexane structure](image)

Select **Make Bond** from the **Build** menu (or **click** on \[\text{B}\]). **Click** on the *’ed free valences indicated in the structure above, one on oxygen and one on carbon pointing down (relative to the free valence on the carbon used to attach the two rings). A bond will be drawn to make the D ring.

![Bonded structure](image)

**Make Bond** is still selected. **Click** on axial free valences on the *’ed carbons in the cyclohexane ring to introduce a double bond. Also, add a hydroxyl group to this ring (\[\text{CH}_2\text{OH}\]) adjacent to the double bond. (Pay attention to stereochemistry.) Select **Minimize** from the **Build** menu (or **click** on \[\text{C}\]) to refine your structure.

![Minimized structure](image)

Add sp³ carbons (\[\text{sp³}\]) to free valences at the *’ed positions in the figure above (pay attention to stereochemistry on the cyclohexene ring). **Click** on \[\text{D}\] and then **click** on free valences on each of the two sp³
carbons that you have just added. You have made the B ring. Check that the stereochemistry is as it should be.

Connect the two *'ed free valences in the figure above with a chain of two sp\(^3\) carbons (\(\text{\rlap{\times}}\text{\rlap{\times}}\)) and an sp\(^3\) nitrogen (\(\text{\rlap{\times}}\)). Add an sp\(^3\) carbon to the nitrogen. You have made morphine (its name should appear at the bottom of the screen). Click on \(\text{\rlap{\times}}\) to produce a refined structure and on \(\text{\rlap{\checkmark}}\) to remove the model kit.

8. Select **Set Similarity Centers** from the **Geometry** menu (or click on \(\text{\rlap{\times}}\)) and select **structure** from the menu at the bottom right of the screen. Click on the eleven *'ed atoms in the figure below. A red circle will be drawn around each. If you make a mistake and select the wrong atom, click on the circle to deselect it.

9. Select **Calculations...** from the **Setup** menu. Select **Similarity Analysis** from the top left menu to the right of **Calculate** inside the **Calculations** dialog. Click on **Add Library** to bring up a file browser, locate and select **cephaline library**, and click on **OK**. Make certain that **Structure** is selected from the **Use** menu at the lower right of the dialog. You have requested that the library of cephaline conformers be searched for a match
to the key structural elements of morphine. *Click on Submit.* Supply the name *morphine.*

10. The similarity analysis will require a few seconds. When it completes, select **Similarities...** from the **Display** menu.

![Similarities dialog](image)

11. One or more hits appear in the box at the right of the dialog together with a score. Sort according to score (best on top) by *clicking* on **Score** at the top of the box. Select (*click on*) one of the best matches. A composite graphic consisting of morphine and the matching cephaeline conformer from the library will appear in a window at the left. You can manipulate the two structures (as a single object) in the usual way.

Repeat the similarity analysis using CFD’s rather than structure.

12. Select **Set Similarity Centers** from the **Geometry** menu (*), but this time select **CFD** from the menu at the bottom right of the screen. CFD’s will augment the morphine structure.

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* Make sure *cephaeline library* is closed before carrying out the similarity analysis.
13. Designate three of the CFD’s as similarity centers. Select (click on) the CFD over the phenolic oxygen. A violet circle will surround this center indicating that it is to be used in the similarity analysis. (If you make a mistake and select the wrong CFD, click on the circle and it will disappear.) Select (click on) the CFD at nitrogen and the CFD at the middle of the phenol ring.

14. Enter the Calculations dialog. This should already designate Similarity Analysis and the appropriate library (cephaline). Change the entry in the Use menu to CFD. Click on Submit.

15. When the analysis is complete, bring up the Similarities dialog (Similarities... under the Display menu). One or more hits should appear in the box at the right of the dialog. Select a hit to get a composite graphic (CFD and structure from the library). You can easily see the extent to which the two are matched.

16. Close any molecules and dialogs that are open on screen.
Chapter 9
Polypeptides to Proteins

This chapter introduces the peptide model kit and shows how a structure from the Protein Data Bank (PDB) may be brought into Spartan for further analysis and a Ramachandran plot displayed.

At present, calculations on biopolymers (proteins and RNA/DNA strands) are limited to molecular mechanics models. However, quantum chemical calculations are now routinely applicable to molecules bound into biopolymers and to the investigation of the electronic and steric factors that are responsible.

This chapter comprises three tutorials. The first illustrates Spartan’s peptide model kit to construct triglycine and decaglycine in idealized helical arrangements. Comparisons are made between zwitterion and non-zwitterion forms in and out of water and electrostatic potential maps are employed to investigate charge separation.

The second tutorial illustrates Spartan’s on-line access to PDB. A small molecule is extracted from a protein structure and the question is posed as to the energy of its (bound) conformer compared to that of the free conformer.

The third tutorial also involves extraction from a PDB file, but this time the quantity of interest is not the molecule itself, but rather its environment. This is turned into a so-called pharmacophore (a simplified representation of the environment), and a search for other molecules that may also be consistent with this environment is carried out.
Polyglycine

Triglycine and decaglycine may be used to illustrate construction of simple amino acid sequences using Spartan’s peptide model kit, as well as to investigate the role of aqueous media in altering the equilibrium between neutral and zwitterionic forms of polypeptides and to show the utility of electrostatic potential maps in conveying information about overall charge distribution.

1. Bring up the peptide model kit by clicking on , and then clicking on the Peptide tab at the top of the organic model kit.

2. Click on (glycine) from the amino acid codes to select and check the box to the left of Sequence. Then click two more times on . The sequence gly-gly-gly will appear in the box at the top of the model kit.

3. α Helix near the bottom of the model kit should be selected. If it is not, click on it. The backbone ψ and φ angles which define an α helix will appear at the right. Click anywhere on screen. Triglycine will appear, although it will not be properly terminated.

4. First consider the non-zwitterionic structure. Click on Terminate in the model kit. The Terminate dialog will appear allowing you to specify C and N terminating groups.
Choose \( \text{CO}_2\text{H} \) for the C terminating group and \( \text{NH}_2 \) for the N terminating group. Click on \textbf{OK}.

Amino acids replace atomic fragments, functional groups, rings and ligands as the basic building blocks in the peptide model kit, and these other building blocks are missing. Therefore, most modifications of peptides, aside from modifications in sequence of amino acids and in overall conformation, need to be carried out using either the organic or inorganic model kits.

5. Select \textbf{Freeze Center} from the \textbf{Geometry} menu (or click on \( \checkmark \)). Click on \textbf{Freeze Heavy} at the bottom right of the screen. This indicates that all heavy (non-hydrogen) atoms are not to be moved during molecular mechanics minimization.* Click on \( \checkmark \) to produce a refined structure (subject to the restriction that heavy atoms are kept in place).

6. Select \textbf{New Molecule} from the \textbf{File} menu. The triglycine fragment is already specified. Click anywhere on screen. Click \textbf{Terminate} inside the model kit and this time select \( \text{CO}_2^- \) and \( \text{NH}_3^+ \) for C and N terminating groups, respectively. Click on \textbf{OK}. Click on \( \checkmark \) and then click on \textbf{Freeze Heavy} at the bottom of the screen. Finally, click on \( \checkmark \).

7. Click on \( \checkmark \). Both forms of triglycine are now in the same document. Enter the \textbf{Calculations} dialog and specify an \textbf{Energy} calculation using the \textit{Hartree-Fock 3-21G} model. Do not change \textbf{Total Charge} (from \textit{Neutral}) for the zwitterionic form of triglycine. Even though its Lewis structure incorporates formal + and - charges, the molecule is neutral. Also make certain that \textbf{Global Calculations} is checked. Click on \textbf{Submit} at the bottom

* This is necessary to maintain the idealized helix structure.
of the dialog. Name the job \textit{triglycerine}.

8. After the calculations complete, bring up the spreadsheet, \textit{click} on the header cell of an empty column, and \textit{click} on \texttt{Add...} at the bottom of the spreadsheet. Select both \texttt{E} and \texttt{Eaq} from the list of available properties at the top of the dialog which appears, and \texttt{kJ/mol} from the \textbf{Energy} menu, and then \textit{click} on \texttt{OK}.

Which form of triglycerine, zwitterion or non-zwitterion, is favored in the gas phase? Why? Does solvent better stabilize the neutral or zwitterionic form? Why?

9. Remove \textit{triglycerine} and remaining dialogs from the screen.

\textbf{10 to 14 optional}

An electrostatic potential map for the zwitterionic form of a larger polypeptide, decaglycerine, clearly shows charge separation, and explains why such a structure is not favored in the gas phase.

10. Select \texttt{New} from the \textbf{File} menu (\texttt{File}) and bring up the peptide model kit. \textit{Click} seven times on \texttt{(glycine)} from the selection of amino acid codes.* A sequence of ten glycines has now been requested. Make certain that \texttt{α Helix} is selected. \textit{Click} anywhere on screen. \textit{Click} on \texttt{Terminate} in the model kit and select \texttt{CO}_2^- \textit{and} \texttt{NH}_3^+ \textit{for} \texttt{C} \textit{and} \texttt{N} terminating groups, respectively, and then \textit{click} on \texttt{OK}. \textit{Click} on \texttt{ and then \textit{click} on \texttt{Freeze Heavy} at the bottom of the screen. \textit{Click} on \texttt{ and then \textit{click} on \texttt{.}

11. Enter the \textbf{Calculations} dialog and specify \textbf{Energy} using the \textbf{AM1 Semi-Empirical} model. \textit{Check} \texttt{Converge} (near the bottom right of the dialog). Semi-empirical calculations on molecules of this complexity often have trouble converging and this option invokes a number of special convergence techniques. \textit{Click} on \texttt{OK}.

12. Bring up the \textbf{Surfaces} dialog and request calculation of an electrostatic potential map. \textit{Click} on \texttt{Add} and select \textbf{Electrostatic Potential Map} from the menu.

\* This assumes that the box at the top of the peptide model kit already contains a sequence of three glycines. If you are starting from scratch, first make certain that \texttt{α} \textit{is selected and Sequence} is checked, and then \textit{click} nine times on \texttt{.}
13. Submit the job. Name it **decaglycine zwitterion**. When completed, again enter the **Surfaces** dialog. **Click** on the line **Electrostatic Potential Map**. Examine the electrostatic potential map. Choose **Properties** from the **Display** menu and then **click** on the electrostatic potential map. **Click** on the selection box next to **Legend** to provide a graphical legend for the value of electrostatic potential. Recall that colors near red correspond to areas on the surface that are negatively charged (attracted to a point-positive charge), while colors toward blue designate regions that are positively charged. Intermediate colors (greens) represent neutral regions. What do you conclude about the environment in which decaglycine wishes to exist?

14. Remove decaglycine and any remaining dialogs from the screen.
Gleevec. Protein Bound vs. Free Conformer

Gleevec (Glivec, Imatinib) is a protein kinase inhibitor used in anticancer therapy. It specifically targets a protein kinase coded for in the rogue gene \textbf{bcr-abl}. Several crystal structures for gleevec docked in protein kinases have appeared in the literature and are available in the PDB. In this tutorial, you will examine one of them\(^*\) to establish whether or not the conformation of gleevec in the protein is identical (or similar) to that of the free (gas-phase) molecule, and if not, what energy penalty is to be paid to adopt the protein-bound conformation. The next tutorial will return to this same structure and extract a pharmacophore (gleevec’s footprint).

1. Retrieve a protein structure from the PDB. Select \textbf{Access PDB Online...} from the \textbf{File} menu. Type \textit{1opj} into the box to the right of PDB ID and \textbf{click on Open}.

   {}\small{If you are not online, you may skip this step as the structure is available as \textit{1opj} in the \textit{polypeptides to proteins} sub-directory (\textit{tutorials} directory).\(^**\)}

   {}\small{The protein will be represented by a ribbon model. Red sections correspond to parts of the chain that are \(\alpha\) helices, while blue


\(^**\) For Windows, this directory is found in \textit{Program Files/Wavefunction/Spartan10} or \textit{Program Files(x86)/Wavefunction/Spartan10}. It needs to be copied to another location available to the user prior to opening it in \textit{Spartan}. For Linux, this is found in the directory where \textit{Spartan} was installed. For Macintosh, this is located at the top level on the installation CDROM.
regions correspond to parts that are \( \beta \) sheets (the remaining regions are green). Note that these assignments are taken from the PDB file. A Ramachandran plot (the \( \phi \) and \( \psi \) torsional angles connecting the individual amino acids) allows you to see the clustering of \( \alpha \) helices and \( \beta \) sheets. To display, select **Ramachandran Plot** from the **Model** menu. The colors of the dots in the resulting plot map one-to-one with the colors of the ribbon model. When you are done, go back to the **Model** menu and deselect **Ramachandran Plot** to remove the plot.

The colors on the ribbon display may be modified, by selecting **Configure...** from the **Model** menu and **clicking** on the **Ribbons** tab. Coloring **By Residue** will give each amino acid its own unique color.

The protein you have brought in from PDB incorporates two sets of bound molecules, depicted in the model as two sets of translucent spheres. Gleevec is the larger of the two incorporated molecules and is designated by its **PDB HET** code **STI**.

2. Select **Extract Ligands** from the **Search** menu (or **click** on the \( \text{ } \) icon at the top of the screen). Select (**click on**) one of the gleevec molecules inside the protein structure and **click** on the **Extract Ligands** button at the bottom right of the screen. This leads to the **Extract Ligands** dialog.

![Extract Ligands](image)

*Check** **Ligand Structures** under **Include** and **Grow Hydrogens** under **Extraction Filters** inside the dialog and **click** on **OK**.
3. A ball-and-spoke model for gleevec will appear on screen. (You no longer need the protein; select and close it.) Put a copy of gleevec on the clipboard. With the molecule selected, select **Copy** from the **Edit** menu.

4. Select **New Molecule** (not **New**) from the **File** menu. Select **Clipboard** from the organic model kit and **click** anywhere on screen. **Click** on **✓**. You now have two copies of gleevec in a single document. You can step between them using the step buttons at the bottom left of the screen.

5. Select the first copy and then select **Calculations...** from the **Setup** menu. **Equilibrium Geometry** from the top left menu to the right of **Calculate** and **Molecular Mechanics** and **MMFF** from the two bottom menus. The conformation will remain unchanged, but bond lengths and angles will be optimized.

Structure optimization is necessary in order to establish the energy difference between protein-bound and free conformations of gleevec. The resolution of protein X-ray crystallography is not adequate to establish bond lengths and angles to chemical accuracy.

Remove the checkmark from **Global Calculations** at the bottom of the dialog to signify that your choice (geometry optimization) only applies to this copy of gleevec. **Click** on **OK** (not on **Submit**).

6. You will use the second copy of gleevec as a starting point for a conformational search. First, remove some degrees of conformational freedom in order to shorten the computer time for the conformational search. Select the second copy and **click** on **✍️**. Your model will be augmented with yellow cylinders and circles to designate flexible bonds and rings, respectively. Remove the marker from the bond connecting the phenyl ring to the carbonyl end of the amide group, by **double clicking** on it. Also, remove the (two) circles on the piperazine ring by **double clicking** on each in turn. The conformation of the piperazine ring will not change during the search. The model should now appear as below.
7. Re-enter the **Calculations** dialog. Select **Equilibrium Conformer** from the top left menu to the right of **Calculate** and (as before) **Molecular Mechanics** and **MMFF** from the two bottom menus. Click on **Submit**, and provide the name **gleevec protein bound vs. free conformer**.

8. When the calculations have completed, bring up the spreadsheet (Spreadsheet under the **Display** menu), click inside leftmost the cell for the second molecule (the one on which a conformational search was performed) then click inside the header cell for a blank data column. Click on **Add** at the bottom of the dialog and select **Rel. E** from the scroll box in the dialog that appears and **kJ/mol** from the **Energy** menu. The relative energy of the protein bound conformer is provided in the spreadsheet. Is it close to zero meaning that the protein-bound conformer will be present in significant amount in a sample of free gleevec?

9. Close **gleevec protein bound vs. free conformer** and any dialogs remaining on screen.
In the previous tutorial, you extracted gleevec from a PDB structure of a protein kinase in order to see if the bound conformer was the same as the free conformer. Here, you will start from the same protein structure*, but instead of abstracting the molecular structure of gleevec, you will abstract its footprint, that is, the locations from which it interacts with its protein host in terms of hydrogen-bond or charge-charge interactions (non-steric contacts). This information, together with knowledge of either the steric requirements of the guest or the space occupied by the protein (excluded volumes), constitutes a structural pharmacophore, that is, a template for scrutiny of other possible guests. In this tutorial, you will use a subset of the non-steric contacts together with excluded volume elements to see to what extent this pharmacophore fits another protein kinase inhibitor, flavopiridol.

1. Either obtain the PDB file 1opj from the PDB database (see previous tutorial) or open 1opj from the *polypeptides to proteins* sub-directory (*tutorials* directory)**. Select *Ligands* from the *Search* menu (or *click* on [ა]), *click* on the model for gleevec inside the protein structure (displayed as a set of transparent

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** For Windows, this directory is found in *Program Files/Wavefunction/Spartan10* or *Program Files(x86)/Wavefunction/Spartan10*. It needs to be copied to another location available to the user prior to opening it in *Spartan*. For Linux, this is found in the directory where *Spartan* was installed. For Macintosh, this is located at the top level on the installation CDROM.
spheres and look much like a space-filling model) to select it, and click on the **Exact Ligands** button. Inside the **Extract Ligands** dialog, check both **HBA/HBD and +/- Centers** and **Excluded Volume Centers**. If any other items are selected, make certain to deselect them before you click on **OK**.

2. You are finished with *lopj* and may close it (🗑). Also, simplify the display of the extracted information by removing the excluded volume elements from view. Select **Configure...** from the **Model** menu and click on the **CFDs** tab. **Uncheck Excluded Volumes** and click on **OK**.

3. The model that now appears comprises five blue spheres representing non-steric contacts between gleevec and its protein host. Turn on labels. Select **Configure...** from the **Model** menu, click on the **Labels** tab, check **CFD Labels** and click on **OK**.

   ![Diagram](image)

These have been assigned based on the observation that each is within a predefined distance of (one or more) complementary groups from amino acids in the protein host. Because hydrogen positions are not established (in the experimental X-ray structure) it may be impossible to say whether a particular site on the guest is acting as a (hydrogen-bond) donor or acceptor. In fact, it may not even be possible to say whether a particular site is protonated or deprotonated (although pH may dictate this). This being the case, all non-steric contacts have initially been given four CFD definitions: hydrogen-bond acceptor (HBA), hydrogen-bond donor (HBD), positive ionizable (+) and negative ionizable (–). Examination of the structure of gleevec suggests more focused assignments: 1 (HBA, +), 2 (HBA), 3 (HBD), 4 (HBA) and 5 (HBA). (See above figure for numbering.)
4. You will use only three elements of this pharmacophore (together with all the excluded volume elements) to assess whether or not flavopiridol is likely to fit into the same host environment as gleevec. Select Properties from the Display menu. Then select Set Similarity Centers from the Geometry menu (or click on ). Make certain that CFD (not Structure) is selected in the lower right hand corner of Spartan’s interface. Click on the pharmacophore element designated as 1 (see figure on previous page). A violet circle will surround the element designating that it is to be used in the similarity analysis. If you make a mistake and select the wrong element, click on the circle and the designation will be removed. Inside the CFD Properties dialog, remove checkmarks from HBD and – Ionizable (you are left with HBA and + Ionizable). Repeat the process for the pharmacophore element 3, designating it as HBD only and 5, designating it as HBA only. When you are done, only three of the five pharmacophore elements should be marked. Click on .

5. Select Calculations... from the Setup menu and then Similarity Analysis from the top left menu to the right of Calculate. Click on Add Library... and then locate and select flavopiridol in the polypeptides to proteins sub-directory (tutorials directory) and click on OK. Make certain that CFD is selected next to Use: in the lower right of the Calculations dialog. Click on Submit. Name the document flavopiridol fit to gleevec pharmacophore.

6. When the similarity analysis has completed, bring up the Similarities dialog (Similarities... from the Display menu). Sort the hits according to similarity score (click on Score at the top of the dialog). One after the other, click on the top scoring entries in the box to the right of the dialog and examine the fits in the window at the left.

7. Close any open documents and dialogs on screen.
Inorganic and Organometallic Molecules

This chapter shows how to construct inorganic and organometallic molecules using Spartan’s inorganic model kit. It also identifies quantum chemical models that appear to be suitable for calculations on molecules incorporating transition metals.

Many molecules are made up of a relatively few elements and obey conventional valence rules. They may be easily built using the organic model kit. However, others cannot be assembled with this model kit either because they incorporate other elements, or do not conform to normal valence rules or they involve ligands. Important among these are inorganic and organometallic compounds involving transition metals. They may be constructed using the inorganic model kit.

Transition-metal inorganic and organometallic compounds may also require different quantum chemical methods from those that have proven to be satisfactory for organic molecules. In particular, Hartree-Fock and MP2 models are known to produce poor results where transition metals are involved. The PM3 and PM6 semi-empirical models have been parameterized for most transition metals, and generally provide a good account of equilibrium geometries. Density functional models are also successful with regard to the calculation of geometries of molecules incorporating transition metals. Semi-empirical models would not be expected to properly account for the energies of reactions involving transition metals as they generally perform poorly for reactions involving molecules without metals. By the same reasoning, it might be expected that density functional models would provide a solid account as they generally do well for reactions involving molecules without metals. Note, however, that there are very few experimental thermochemical data with which to compare.
Finally, note that there is almost no experience with molecules incorporating lanthanides and actinides, and few practical quantum chemical methods are available.

The tutorials in this chapter illustrate construction of inorganic and organometallic molecules, as well as the selection of suitable quantum chemical models.
Sulfur Tetrafluoride

Sulfur tetrafluoride cannot be constructed using Spartan’s organic model kit. This is because sulfur is not in its normal bent dicoordinate geometry, but rather in a trigonal bipyramid geometry with one of the equatorial positions vacant. However, the molecule can easily be made using the inorganic model kit.

1. Bring up the inorganic model kit by clicking on and then clicking on the Inorganic tab at the top of the model kit.

The inorganic model kit comprises an atom bar (clicking on which bring up the Periodic Table*) followed by a selection of atomic hybrids, then bond types, and finally Rings, Groups.

* Not all methods are available for all elements listed. Elements for which a specific method (selected in the Calculations dialog) are available will be highlighted following selection of a theoretical model from the Model menu that appears in the center of the Periodic Table.
It should be noted that were an incorrect geometry specified at the outset, optimization would lead to the correct structure, as long as the starting geometry possessed no symmetry (C\textsubscript{1} point group). Thus, square planar SF\textsubscript{4} in D\textsubscript{4h} symmetry would remain square planar, while an almost square planar structure (distorted only slightly from D\textsubscript{4h} symmetry to C\textsubscript{1} symmetry) would collapse to the proper structure.

The 3-21G basis set is extended by a set of d-type valence functions for sulfur (and other second-row elements).

**Ligands, More** and **Clipboard** menus (all except for **Ligands** are the same as found in the organic model kit).

2. **Click** on the atom bar to bring up the **Periodic Table**.

Select (click on) **S** in the **Periodic Table** and the five coordinate trigonal bipyramid structure from the list of atomic hybrids. **Click** on screen. A trigonal bipyramid sulfur will appear at the top of the model kit.

3. Again, **click** on the atom bar, select **F** in the **Periodic Table** and the one-coordinate entry from the list of atomic hybrids. One after the other, **click** on both axial free valences of sulfur, and two of the three equatorial free valences.

4. It is necessary to delete the remaining free valence (on an equatorial position); otherwise it will become a hydrogen. **Click** on \(\text{X}\) and then **click** on the remaining equatorial free valence.

5. **Click** on \(\text{E}\). **Click** on \(\checkmark\) to remove the model kit.

6. Select **Calculations...** from the **Setup** menu. Specify calculation of **Equilibrium Geometry**\* using the **Hartree-Fock 3-21G model**\** and **click** on **OK**.

7. Select **Surfaces** from the **Setup** menu, **click** on **Add** and select **HOMO** from the menu that results. Leave the dialog on screen.

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\* It should be noted that were an incorrect geometry specified at the outset, optimization would lead to the correct structure, as long as the starting geometry possessed no symmetry (C\textsubscript{1} point group). Thus, square planar SF\textsubscript{4} in D\textsubscript{4h} symmetry would remain square planar, while an almost square planar structure (distorted only slightly from D\textsubscript{4h} symmetry to C\textsubscript{1} symmetry) would collapse to the proper structure.

\** The 3-21G basis set is extended by a set of d-type valence functions for sulfur (and other second-row elements).
8. Submit the job. Accept the name *sulfur tetrafluoride*. When completed, select **Properties (Display menu)** and **click** on an atom, for example, sulfur. Three different atomic charges will appear in the (**Atom Properties**) dialog (corresponding to different methods for establishing atomic charge). Of these, the procedure based on fitting the electrostatic potential is generally considered to be the best. Are the electrostatic charges consistent with covalent or ionic bonding?

9. **Check** the box to the left of **HOMO** inside the **Surfaces** dialog. Is the highest-occupied molecular orbital in sulfur tetrafluoride consistent with the notion that sulfur is surrounded by six electron pairs? Elaborate.

10. Remove *sulfur tetrafluoride* and any remaining dialogs from the screen.
Reactivity of Silicon-Carbon Double Bonds

With the exception of so-called phosphorous ylides, compounds incorporating a double bond between carbon and a second-row element are quite rare. Most curious perhaps is the absence of stable compounds incorporating a carbon-silicon double bond. This can be rationalized by using local ionization potential and LUMO maps to compare the reactivities of olefins and silaolefins.

1. Build 2,3-dimethyl-2-butene with the organic model kit, minimize (保存) and copy onto the clipboard. (Right click on the molecule and select Copy from the resulting menu.) Select New Molecule (not New) from the File menu, click on Clipboard inside the organic model kit and click anywhere on screen. Click on the Inorganic tab (at the top of the organic model kit) to bring up the inorganic model kit. Click on the atom bar and select Si from the Periodic Table. Double click on one of the sp² carbons to substitute a silicon atom for a carbon atom and to make tetramethylsilaethylene. Click on 保存 and then on 保存. You are left with 2,3-dimethyl-2-butene and tetramethylsilaethylene in the same document.

2. Use the structures in SMD to save computer time. Click on 保存 to the left of the molecule name (either 2,3-dimethyl-2-butene or tetramethylsilaethylene) at the bottom of the screen, select 3-21G from the entries in the Preview dialog, click on Replace All and click on OK in the dialog that results.

3. Select Calculations from the Setup menu. Specify calculation of Energy using the Hartree-Fock 3-21G model. Click on OK.

4. Select Surfaces from the Setup menu. First request a local ionization potential map. Click on Add and select Local Ionization Potential Map from the menu. Then request a LUMO
map. Click on Add and select |LUMO|map from the menu.

5. Submit the job. Name it tetramethylsilaethylene. (Even though both molecules are in SMD, Spartan does not attempt to assign a name to a document that contains more than one molecule.) When completed, bring up the spreadsheet (Spreadsheet under the Display menu) and check the box at the far left for each entry in the spreadsheet. This allows simultaneous display of both molecules. Select Coupled (Model menu) to uncouple the motions of the molecules. Position the two molecules side by side on screen.

6. Inside the Surfaces dialog, select Local Ionization Potential Map. Compare local ionization potential maps for the olefin and silaolefin, recognizing that the more red the color, the lower the ionization potential and the more susceptible toward electrophilic attack. Which molecule do you conclude is likely to be more reactive toward an electrophile? Turn the local ionization potential maps off by again selecting it. Select |LUMO|map to turn the LUMO maps on. Here, the more blue the color, the greater the concentration of the LUMO and the more susceptible toward nucleophilic attack. Which molecule do you conclude is likely to be more reactive toward a nucleophile? Speculate why molecules which incorporate a silicon-carbon double bond are chemically problematic. Close tetramethylsilaethylene when you are finished.

7 - 10 Requires Access to the Cambridge Structural Database

Identify molecules in the Cambridge Structural Database (CSD) that incorporate a carbon-silicon double bond.

7. Build silaethylene, H₂Si=CH₂, by starting from ethylene and (using the inorganic model kit) substituting a silicon for one of the carbons.

8. Select Define Structure Query from the Search menu ( ). Click on all four free valences in silaethylene. They will be marked by orange cones.
9. Bring up the **Cambridge Structural Database (CSD)** dialog by first selecting Open Databases from the Search menu (or click on (انتقال) and then clicking on the CSD tab. Click on the Search button at the bottom of the dialog. In a few seconds, hits will begin to appear in the box at the right of the dialog. Examine each in turn (in the window at the left of the dialog) by clicking on its CSD reference code (**REFCODE**). Identify a structure that appears to be representative for closer scrutiny. Before you retrieve it, click on (انتقال) to the right of the Retrieve button at the bottom of the dialog. Make certain that all five boxes under Post Retrieval Filters in the Retrieve Options dialog are checked. Click on **OK**. Click on the selected **REFCODE** and then click on the Retrieve button. Dismiss the CSD dialog.

10. **Click on (انتقال).** Except for hydrogens, all atoms in the structure you have retrieved will be fixed and energy minimization will only change hydrogen positions. This is to compensate for the fact that hydrogens are generally not well located in X-ray crystal structure determinations.

    Change the display to a space-filling model. Pay particular attention to the incorporated silicon-carbon double bond. Is it accessible in all of the compounds or is it encumbered by the surrounding groups? What, if anything, do your observations suggest about why this particular compound can be (has been) made?

11. Close silaethylene and any open dialogs.
Benzene Chromium Tricarbonyl

Comparison of electrostatic potential maps for benzene chromium tricarbonyl and free benzene will allow you to classify Cr(CO)$_3$ as an electron-donor or an electron-acceptor substituent.

1. Click on and bring up the inorganic model kit. Click on the atom bar and select Cr from the Periodic Table. Select the four-coordinate tetrahedral structure $\text{Cr}$ from the list of atomic hybrids. Click anywhere on screen.

2. Click on Ligands in the model kit, select Benzene from the menu of available ligands.

Click on one of the free valences on the four-coordinate chromium center.

3. Select Carbon Monoxide from the Ligands menu, and click on the remaining (three) free valences on chromium. Click on to produce a refined structure.

4. Select New Molecule from the File menu. Click on Rings, select Benzene and click on the screen. Click on $\text{C}$ and then on $\checkmark$. The document now contains both benzene chromium tricarbonyl and benzene.

5. Select Calculations... (Setup menu). Specify calculation of Equilibrium Geometry with the Semi-Empirical PM3 model. Make certain that Global Calculations (at the bottom of the
dialog) is checked. **Click on OK.**

6. Select **Surfaces** (Setup or Display menu). **Click on Add** and choose **Electrostatic Potential Map** from the menu. Make certain that **Global Surfaces** is checked.

7. Submit the job. Name it **benzene chromium tricarbonyl**. When completed bring up the spreadsheet (Spreadsheet from the Display menu), and **check** the box to the right of the label for both entries. This allows the two molecules to be displayed simultaneously on screen. If **Coupled** (Model menu) is **checked**, remove the checkmark by selecting it. The two molecules may now be moved independently. Orient each molecule so that you can clearly see the benzene face (exposed face in the case of the organometallic).

8. **Check Electrostatic Potential Map** in the **Surfaces** dialog. Compare electrostatic potential maps for both free and complexed benzene, with attention to the exposed benzene face.* Does the Cr(CO)$_3$ group donate or withdraw electrons from the ring? Would you expect the aromatic ring in benzene chromium tricarbonyl to be more or less susceptible to electrophilic attack than free benzene? More or less susceptible to nucleophilic attack?

9. Both benzene and benzene chromium tricarbonyl are available from the Spartan Molecular Database. Make a copy of **benzene chromium tricarbonyl** (Save As from the File menu or **click** on Save); name it **benzene chromium tricarbonyl density functional**. With either molecule in the copy selected, **check B3LYP/6-31G** from the list of available models in the Preview dialog and **click** on Replace All. Inside the Calculations dialog, specify an **Energy** calculation using the **B3LYP/6-31G** Density Functional model. Submit. When completed, examine the electrostatic potential maps. Are they qualitatively similar to those from the PM3 calculations?

10. Remove all molecules and any remaining dialogs from the screen.

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* Electrostatic potential maps (as well as other maps) for molecules in a group will be put onto the same (color) scale. This allows comparisons to be made among different members.
Ziegler-Natta Polymerization of Ethylene

Ziegler-Natta polymerization involves a metallocene. This first complexes an olefin, which then inserts into the metal-alkyl bond.

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{Cp}_2\text{Zr}^+\text{R} & \xrightarrow{\text{H}_2\text{C} = \text{CH}_2} \text{Cp}_2\text{Zr}^+\text{R} \\
& \xrightarrow{\text{H}_2\text{C} = \text{CH}_2} \text{Cp}_2\text{Zr}^+\text{CH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{R}
\end{align*}
\]

In this tutorial, you will use PM3 calculations to obtain a transition state for insertion of ethylene into \(\text{Cp}_2\text{ZrCH}_3^+\) and, (optionally), estimate the activation energy using density functional calculations.

1. Bring up the inorganic model kit. Click on the atom bar and select Zr from the Periodic Table. Select \(-\) from the list of hybrids and click on screen. Select Cyclopentadienyl from the Ligands menu and click on two of the free valences on zirconium.

2. Move to the organic model kit. Select sp\(^3\) carbon \(\equiv\) and click on the remaining free valence on zirconium. Select Alkenyl from the Groups menu, click on the Insert button at the bottom of the model kit or hold down the Insert key (option key on Mac) and click anywhere on screen or double click in a blank area on screen.

3. Orient the two fragments (\(\text{Cp}_2\text{ZrCH}_3\) and ethylene) as shown below:

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{H}_2\text{C} & = \text{CH}_2 \\
\text{Cp} & \equiv \text{Zr} \equiv \text{CH}_3
\end{align*}
\]

(To move the two fragments independently, hold down the Ctrl key.)

4. Select Guess Transition State from the Search menu ( ). Click on the ZrC (methyl) bond, hold down the Shift key and, one after another, click on the methyl carbon and on one of the ethylene carbons. Next, click on the ethylene double bond, hold down the Shift key and, one after another, click on the other ethylene carbon and on zirconium. Click on at the bottom right of the screen. In a few seconds, a guess at the transition state appears.
5. Bring up the Calculations dialog. Specify a Transition State Geometry calculation using the PM3 Semi-Empirical model. Change Total Charge to Cation and check IR to the right of Compute. Click on Submit and name the job Cp2ZrMe cation + ethylene.

6. When the job has completed, bring up the IR dialog (Spectra from the Properties menu and click on the IR tab) and click on the imaginary frequency at the top left of the dialog. Would you describe the process as concerted or occurring in discrete steps?

7 to 9 optional

7. Perform B3LYP/6-31G* density functional energy calculations using PM3 geometries to obtain a better estimate for the energy barrier for ethylene insertion. Spartan will automatically make use of a pseudopotential for Zr instead of the all-electron 6-31G* basis set. Make a copy of Cp2ZrMe cation+ethylene; name it Cp2ZrMe cation+ethylene density functional. Enter the Calculations dialog with this copy, and specify calculation of Energy using the B3LYP/6-31G* Density Functional model. Remove the checkmark on IR (to the right of Compute). Total Charge should still be set to Cation. Click on Submit.

8. Build both ethylene and Cp2ZrCH3+ (name them ethylene density functional and Cp2ZrMe cation, respectively). For Cp2ZrCH3+, start with three-coordinate trigonal Zr, and then add two cyclopentadienyl ligands and a four-coordinate tetrahedral carbon. For each, enter the Calculations dialog, and specify calculation of Energy using the B3LYP/6-31G* Density Functional model. Select PM3 from the Start from menu to designate use of a PM3 geometry. For Cp2ZrMe cation density functional (only), set Total Charge to Cation.

9. Submit both jobs. When they have completed, calculate an activation energy for the insertion reaction.

10. Remove all molecules and any remaining dialogs from the screen.
Chapter 11

“Dry Labs”: Using the Spartan Spectra and Properties Database

The tutorials in this chapter comprise examples where structures, energies, spectra and other properties can be extracted from the Spartan Spectra and Properties Database doing away with the need for actually having to carry out new quantum chemical calculations.

The Spartan Spectra and Properties Database (SSPD) is a collection of molecular structures, spectra and diverse properties obtained from a single theoretical model, specifically the EDF2/6-31G* density functional model. SSPD includes many of the molecules found in the Spartan Molecular Database (SMD) as well as numerous molecules not found in SMD, but differs from (and we believe, improves on) this previous collection in several important ways. First, for the vast majority of entries, the choice of conformer is based on the T1 thermochemical recipe rather than on the MMFF molecular mechanics model. T1 is far more likely to correctly identify the lowest-energy conformer (or at least a conformer that is very close in energy to the lowest-energy conformer) than is MMFF. Second, SSPD entries provide a much wider variety of molecular properties than available in SMD, including a selection of QSAR descriptors. They also include both the infrared and NMR spectra (neither of which is available in SMD). Third, all SSPD entries include the wavefunction, allowing “on-the-fly” generation of molecular orbitals, electron densities and other graphical surfaces and the electrostatic potential and other property maps. In short, SSPD provides a rich source of diverse information for a wide selection of molecules.
The limitation of SSPD to a single theoretical model is a deliberate attempt to focus attention away from the characteristics of a particular model (and the question “which model is best”) and onto the chemistry at hand. While the choice EDF2/6-31G* can be seen as a compromise between accuracy and practicality, in fact, EDF2/6-31G* provides excellent results for a variety of properties that can be accurately measured, including molecular geometry and infrared and NMR spectra. Furthermore, the T1 heat of formation, a byproduct of using the T1 recipe to establish best conformer, is included in the SSPD entry. We believe that over the wide variety of molecules considered, T1 provides a reliable an indicator of internal energy as any (calculated or experimental) measure presently available.

Collections of calculated results such as the Spartan Spectra and Properties Database can serve different roles. At one end, information in a database may be used to supplement the calculation capabilities of Spartan and eliminate the need to perform calculations that have already been done. At the other end, is to use the database as the exclusive source of information, doing away altogether with the need for quantum chemical calculations. From the instructional perspective (teaching about molecular models and molecular modeling) this allows use of more complex examples than might otherwise be practical. The tutorials in this chapter fall into the latter category, and can be thought as the ultimate in “dry labs”.

To complete the tutorials in this chapter, SSPD needs to be installed on Spartan (the sample version included with the program will suffice or the full version can be used). In addition, database selection menu at the bottom of Spartan’s main screen needs to be set to SSPD.
Isomeric C\textsubscript{5}H\textsubscript{8} Dienes

In addition to 2-methyl-1,3-butadiene, \textit{cis} and \textit{trans}-1,3-pentadiene (conjugated dienes) and 1,4-pentadiene (a non-conjugated diene), there are three other dienes with the same formula: 3-methyl-1,2-butadiene (1,1-dimethylallene) 1,2-pentadiene (ethyl allene) and 2,3-pentadiene (1,3-dimethylallene).

1. Build all seven C\textsubscript{5}H\textsubscript{8} dienes (place in a single document) and bring up the spreadsheet (Spreadsheet from the Display menu). With any of the dienes selected, click on the Replace All button in the Preview dialog at the bottom of the screen. This will substitute entries in SSPD for all seven C\textsubscript{5}H\textsubscript{8} dienes. Molecule names are available but are not used unless requested explicitly. To use the names in SSPD, click on the top left header cell (Label) in the spreadsheet, hold down the right mouse button and select Rename Selected Using SSPD from the menu. Bring up Molecule Properties dialog (Display menu) and click on the \textit{[P]} buttons to the left of both Expt. Heat and T1 Heat. This enters the experimental heat of formation (from the NIST database) as well as the value obtained from the T1 thermochemical recipe into the spreadsheet. The T1 heat of formation should provide a more accurate account of relative stability than available from the EDF2/6-31G* model itself.

The T1 model is presently defined only for uncharged, closed-shell molecules comprising H, C, N, O, F, Si, P, S, Cl and Br only. T1 heats of formation are not available for the other molecules in SSPD (~2% of the total).

2. First verify that the T1 model correctly reproduces the ordering of experimental heats. Then use the T1 heats to answer the following questions:

What is the difference in stability (heat) between the best of the three conjugated dienes and 1,4-pentadiene? What is the approximate energy gain due to conjugation? What is the difference in stabilities between the best of the substituted allenes
and the best of the conjugated dienes?

3 Optional

3. There are several other C₅H₈ isomers in addition to the dienes discussed above, a number of which will be in SSPD (many more in the full version than in the sample). With any of the dienes selected, bring up the Databases window (Open Databases from the Search menu or click on and click on the SSPD tab). Click on to the right of the Search button in the SSPD dialog and select Isomer under Search By in the Search Options menu that results. Click on the Search button. Select several (or all) of the non-diene isomers, by clicking on them in the list at the right of the dialog while holding down the Ctrl key. Click on to the right of the Retrieve button, then click on Current Document in the dialog that results. Remove the Databases window by selecting Close Databases (that has replaced Open Databases) from the Search menu or clicking on . Bring up the spreadsheet. Add both experimental and T1 heats of formation to the spreadsheet. Note that not all the experimental heats of formation are available. In fact, experimental heats of formation exist for only around 2,000-3,000 molecules. According to the T1 model, are any of the non-diene isomers more stable than the best diene?

4. Close any molecules and dialogs that are open on screen.
Using Infrared Spectroscopy to Identify an Unknown Ethyl Benzoate Derivative

Unlike NMR spectra (at least carbon spectra) infrared (IR) spectra are rich in detail. Some chemists would view this as a curse, in that the complexity of an infrared spectrum masks its connection with the three-dimensional molecular structure. Others might see complexity as a blessing, providing a detailed pattern or fingerprint with which to identify a molecule. In fact, this difference reflects the different ways that chemists actually use NMR and infrared spectroscopy. NMR is most commonly employed to assign structures of new molecules whereas IR is most commonly used to identify previously characterized (known) molecules.

Extensive databases of experimental infrared spectra exist, and sophisticated programs have been developed to search these databases for matches to unknown spectra. It turns out that infrared spectra calculated from density functional models and adjusted to account for known systematic errors in frequencies and for finite temperature, generally closely match experimental spectra. This suggests that they might be used in lieu of experimental spectra to identify unknowns. This tutorial illustrates the point, attempting to identify which of a series of meta-substituted ethyl benzoates contained in the Spartan Infrared Database (SIRD) best matches the infrared spectrum of an unknown molecule.

SIRD uses the infrared spectra contained in the Spartan Spectra and Properties Database (SSPD). The fact that there are two different tabs simply reflects the different search paradigms (spectra matching for SIRD vs. substructure matching for SSPD).

1. Build ethyl benzoate. Then select Define Structure Query from the Search menu and click on one of the free valences on the phenyl ring that is meta to the ester group.
2. Select **Open Databases** from the **Search** menu and **click** on the **SIRD** tab at the top of the dialog that results. Size the dialog to occupy the greater part of the screen. **Click** on **Select Spectrum**, move to the **using SSPD** subdirectory under the **tutorials** directory* and **click** on **unknown ethyl benzoate**. Make certain that **All Files** is selected in the menu to the right of the file name in the **Open** dialog. In a few seconds, the experimental infrared spectrum of the unknown will appear at the top right of the dialog. A list of the frequencies for all peaks may be found under **Unknown**: immediately to the left is the spectrum. This has been obtained by fitting the experimental spectrum to a Lorentzian function. You can obtain the frequency of a line in the spectrum using the yellow measurement bar. Position the cursor on top of the bar, hold the left button and move the mouse left of right until the bar is over the peak.

3. You could carry out your search with nothing other than the unknown spectrum (see the optional part of this tutorial), or you could restrict it using structural or other information that you have. Let’s assume that we know that the unknown is a **meta**-substituted ethyl benzoate. **Click** on the **Filters** button and then **click** on **Copy Current Molecule** at the top left of the **Search Filters** dialog that results. **Click** on **OK** to exit the dialog. What you have done is to restrict the search to **meta**-substituted ethyl benzoates, that is, examine only molecules that contain this particular substructure (ethyl benzoate substituted in the **meta** position). **Click** on the **Search** button and wait for the search to complete. Hits resulting from the search appear at the bottom right of the **SIRD** dialog, in numerical order starting from the best. As you **click** on each, the corresponding calculated infrared spectrum will be superimposed onto the experimental spectrum (of the unknown) at the top left of the display. Suggest a structure for the unknown.

* For Windows, this directory is found in **Program Files/Wavefunction/Spartan10** or **Program Files(x86)/Wavefunction/Spartan10**. It needs to be copied to another location available to the user prior to opening it in **Spartan**. For Linux, this is found in the directory where **Spartan** was installed. For Macintosh, this is located at the top level on the installation CDROM.
4 Optional

4. Remove the substructure filter and repeat the search. *Click* on the **Filters** button, *click* on the **Clear** button at the top left of the **Search Filters** dialog and *click* on **OK**. *Click* on the **Search** button. Be patient; the search will require a minute or two. Unlike searches of experimental databases where spectra are directly compared, each of the calculated spectra in the database are adjusted for frequency scale and peak width (roughly associated with temperature) as it is compared to the unknown. Removing the substructure filter greatly increases the number of spectra that need to be examined. Does the *meta* substituted ethyl benzoate that came in at the top in the previous search, also come in at or very near the top in the full search?

A search of the full database will require more computer time than the search of the 5,000 molecule sample database supplied with **Spartan**, simply because it contains more molecules. However, the search is actually divided into preliminary and final parts, only the first of which depends on the overall size of the database.

5. Close any molecules and dialogs that are open on screen.
Infrared Spectra of Short-Lived Molecules

While infrared spectroscopy is by no means as formidable a tool as NMR for elucidating the structures of molecules, it does offer significant advantages which can make it the method of choice in some instances. It is more sensitive, meaning that it can be used to detect transient species, for example, molecules trapped in an inert matrix at very low temperature. On the practical side, an infrared spectrometer is inherently simpler (more robust) and can be put into a much smaller package than an NMR spectrometer. This means that the spectrometer can be brought to the sample rather than the other way around. Imagine, putting an NMR spectrometer on the Mars rover! The problem is that IR spectroscopy unlike NMR typically does not provide an unambiguous structure. However, a close match to a calculated spectrum may offer convincing evidence for the veracity of a particular structure (or a mismatch convincing evidence that a structure is incorrect).

The infrared spectrum of an unknown C₄H₄ isomer shows strong absorptions at 854, 1608, 2994 and 3080 cm⁻¹. Possible structures include but-1-yn-3-ene, butatriene, singlet-1,3-butadiene, methylenecyclopropene and tetrahedrane.

1. Build any one of these molecules. Select Open Databases from the Search menu ( franç and click on the SSPD tab. Click on to the left of the Search button, select Isomer under Search By: inside the Search Options dialog and click on OK. Click on the Search button. Structures for all C₄H₄ isomers will appear in a list at the right of the Databases dialog. Retrieve all of them to a new document. Click on to the left of the Retrieve button, select New Document and click on OK. Click on each in turn while holding down the Ctrl key. Click on the Retrieve
button. Remove the Databases dialog (select Close Databases from the Search menu or click on  

2. Give proper names to the compounds. Open the spreadsheet (Spreadsheet under the Display menu), click on Label (the leftmost header cell), then right click and select Rename Selected Using SSPD from the menu that appears.

3. Select Spectra from the Display menu and click on the IR tab at the top of the resulting dialog. Numerical values of the frequencies and infrared intensities of the selected molecule in the document will appear at the left of the dialog. Note that the frequencies have been scaled to take account of systematic errors in the calculations (primarily due to the harmonic approximation). To see unscaled frequencies, move the slider bar to the right of Scale: from 0.962 (the default) to 1.000. To return to scaled frequencies, click on the Standard button. Display the infrared spectrum of the selected isomer. Click on Display Calculated at the right of the dialog. Move through the list to bring up the spectra for the other isomers.

The calculated infrared spectrum of which if any of the C\textsubscript{4}H\textsubscript{4} isomers best fits the unknown infrared spectrum?

4. Close any molecules and dialogs that are open on screen.
Using $^{13}$C NMR to Distinguish Structural Isomers

NMR spectroscopy, in particular $^{13}$C NMR spectroscopy, is arguably the single most important tool available to an organic chemist to establish molecular structure. Obtaining an NMR spectrum is straightforward and the spectrum itself is very simple, comprising but a single line for each unique carbon the molecule. Because a mass spectrum is normally also available, the molecular formula will be known, and assignment of the NMR reduces to deciding among possible isomers. Chemical evidence (how the molecule was made) can usually be counted on to eliminate some choices and to strengthen the case for others. Still, pinning an NMR spectrum to a particular molecule can be difficult and fraught with error.

NMR assignment problems can be reduced but not altogether eliminated by requiring that both proton and $^{13}$C NMR spectra are consistent with a particular structure. This is routine practice. Further help comes from taking a DEPT spectrum, allowing methylene carbons to be distinguished from methyne and methyl carbons and (in conjunction with the $^{13}$C spectrum) from quaternary carbons. This is less common but becoming more and more routine. In principal, all ambiguity can be eliminated by cross-correlating the results of the $^{13}$C NMR with those of proton NMR using a variety of so-called 2D spectra, most important, the HMBC spectrum. However, 2D NMR experiments are not yet the norm, if for no other reason because they require significant instrument time on a spectrometer that may cost upward of $1,000,000.

The fact that NMR spectra for reasonable size organic molecules may now be routinely calculated in a few minutes to a few hours on a personal computer costing $1000 or less raises the possibility for another tool to assist with spectral assignments. Whether this turns into reality ultimately depends on the ability of the calculations to obtain NMR spectra that are sufficiently accurate to distinguish among the different isomers.

In this tutorial we first see which of three structural isomers with molecular formula $C_{17}H_{19}NO_3$ (morphine, norcodeine and hydromorphone) best fits the NMR spectrum of an unknown isomer, or if clear assignment is not possible. Then, we draw comparisons
between calculated and experimental DEPT spectra (the former just a different presentation of the $^{13}$C spectra) to see if this further clarifies the assignment.

1. Build morphine, norcodeine and hydromorphone and put in the same document.

If the name for each fails to appear at the bottom of the screen (all three isomers are in SSPD), then you have made a mistake. When you are done, click on the Replace All button at the bottom of the Preview dialog. This will substitute structures from SSPD for what you have built. Give proper names to the three isomers. Bring up a spreadsheet (Spreadsheet under the Display menu), click on Label (the leftmost header cell), then right click and choose Rename Selected Using SSPD from the menu.

2. Bring up the NMR Spectra dialog (Spectra under the Display menu) and click on the NMR tab. First make certain that the box to the left of Boltzmann Averaging at the bottom of the dialog is not checked (if it is, click inside the box to remove the checkmark). Click on Draw Calculated in the section designated $^{13}$C Spectra. Next, check Local File in the section designated Experimental Data From, click on Draw Experimental (in the $^{13}$C Spectra section), move to the using SSPD subdirectory under the tutorials directory* and click on unknown C17H19NO2 carbon NMR. Make certain that All

* For Windows, this directory is found in Program Files/Wavefunction/Spartan10 or Program Files(x86)/Wavefunction/Spartan10. It needs to be copied to another location available to the user prior to opening it in Spartan. For Linux, this is found in the directory where Spartan was installed. For Macintosh, this is located at the top level on the installation CDROM.
**Files** is selected in the menu to the right of the file name in the **Open** dialog. You will need to repeat this two more times (providing the same experimental spectrum for each of the three candidates). Calculated and experimental $^{13}$C spectra now appear on the same plot. Step through the three isomers. Which, if any, of the calculated $^{13}$C spectra bests fits the experimental spectrum? To associate lines with specific carbons in each of the calculated spectra, bring up the **Atom Properties** dialog. Select **Properties** from the **Display** menu and click on an atom. Alternatively, you can attach chemical shifts as labels on your structures. Select **Configure** from the **Model** menu and click on **Chem Shift** under **Atom** in the dialog that results. Simplify your models by changing to a tube model (**Tube** under the **Model** menu) and by removing hydrogens from the model (**Hydrogens** under the **Model** menu).

3. **Click** on both **Delete Calculated** and **Delete Experimental** buttons in the dialog (which have replaced the corresponding **Draw** buttons) to remove the $^{13}$C spectra. In their place, show the corresponding calculated and experimental DEPT spectra. **Click** on the **Draw DEPT**. **Click** on **Draw Experimental**, then move to the **using SSPD** subdirectory under the **tutorials** directory and **click** on **unknown C17H19NO2 DEPT NMR**. Again, you will need to do this three times. Recall that lines in a DEPT spectrum that point up correspond to carbons with either one or three attached hydrogens, lines that point down to carbons with two attached hydrogens and that missing lines correspond to quaternary carbons. How many methyne and methyl carbons are in the structure of the unknown? How many methylene carbons are there? How many quaternary carbons are there? Which if any of the three isomers examined provide the same count? What is the structure?

4. Close any molecules and dialogs that are open on screen.
Using $^{13}$C NMR Spectra to Distinguish Stereoisomers

As commented in the previous tutorial, the combination of 1D and 2D NMR spectra is almost always able to provide unambiguous assignment of molecular structure, including assignment of stereochemistry. However, as also noted, practical considerations (time on an expensive instrument) often make 2D experiments (in particular HMBC) the exception rather than the normal. Without the additional experiments, distinguishing stereoisomers based on their $^{13}$C NMR spectra may be difficult experimentally, simply because the alternatives are likely to be structurally very similar. For the same reason, it is likely to be an ideal case for calculations as comparisons between molecules with similar structures should benefit from cancellation of errors. The bottom-line question is whether or not calculated $^{13}$C NMR spectra good enough to be able to clearly be able to distinguish between stereoisomers? This tutorial provides an illustration.

The hydroxyl CO bond in tibolone, shown below on the left, is gauche to the methyl group at C$_{17}$ (the alkyne is anti), whereas it is anti (and the alkyne is gauche) in the stereoisomer shown on the right. The experimental $^{13}$C spectrum of a molecule that has been assigned as tribolone shows a line at 12.7 ppm attributed to the methyl group at C$_{17}$ and lines at 88.9 and 74.8 ppm attributed to the internal and external alkyne carbons, respectively. The full $^{13}$C spectrum may be found in the using SSPD subdirectory under the tutorials directory* as tibolone proposed carbon NMR. Make certain that All Files is selected in the menu to the right of the file name in the Open dialog.

* For Windows, this directory is found in Program Files/Wavefunction/Spartan10 or Program Files(x86)/Wavefunction/Spartan10. It needs to be copied to another location available to the user prior to opening it in Spartan. For Linux, this is found in the directory where Spartan was installed. For Macintosh, this is located at the top level on the installation CDROM.
1. Build both stereoisomers and replace your structures with those in SSPD. Select **Properties** from the **Display** menu and for each stereoisomer, record the calculated $^{13}$C shifts for the methyl group carbon and for the two alkyne carbons. Do the calculations support or refute the experimental assignment, or are they ambiguous?

2. Which stereoisomer is more stable according to the T1 heats of formation accessible from SSPD? Offer a reasonable explanation for the observed preference.

3. Close any molecules and dialogs that are open on screen.
Finding Stable Enols

The equilibrium between ketones and their corresponding alcohols (enols) almost always greatly favors the former, for example, between acetone and propen-2-ol favors acetone.

\[
\text{acetone} \rightleftharpoons \text{propen-2-ol}
\]

In this tutorial you will “mine” SSPD to see if you can find an enol that is actually more stable than its keto form. You will consider enols related to propen-2-ol by substitution at C_1.

1. Build propen-2-ol. Select Define Structure Query from the Search menu and click on both free valences at C_1. Orange cones will appear designating these as growth points.

2. Define the relationship between propen-2-ol and acetone using curly arrows.* Select Define Reaction Query from the Search menu. Click on the OH bond, hold down the Shift key and one after another, click on the OH hydrogen and on C_1. An arrow will be drawn from the OH bond to the space between the (OH) hydrogen and C_1. Click on the (double) bond connecting C_1 and C_2 and then click on the (single) bond connecting C_2 to oxygen. A second arrow will be drawn between these two bonds.

---

* Organic chemists interpret curly arrows in terms of the relationship between reactants and transition state but they also connect the reactants to the products. It is in this context that they are used here.
3. Select Formulas from the Display menu. Click on the T1 Heat button under Energies and select P-R (reaction) from the Applied to: menu under Context (both near the bottom of the Formula Editor dialog). A formula for the query appears in the box at the center of the Formula Editor dialog, preceded by the name of the query F0. Replace this name by enol to keto, click on the Enter button (to the right of the query name and formula). You have now defined the query as the difference between the T1 heats of formation of the keto and enol forms of (substituted) propen-2-ol. Leave the Formula Editor dialog open.

4. Select Open Databases from the Search menu () and click on the SSPD tab at the top of the dialog. Drag the query name enol to keto from the formula editor onto an empty column header at the top right of the SSPD dialog, and click on the Search button. In a few seconds, hits (molecules in SSPD formed from propen-2-ol by single or double substitution at C1) will begin to appear at the right of the dialog. Reaction energies for any entries where T1 data exists both for actual search query (the substituted enol) and for its associated keto form will appear in the column designated enol to keto. Pending signifies that an entry exists for the search query (the enol) but not for the keto form.

5. After the search has completed, position the cursor over the enol to keto column, hold down the right mouse button and select Sort enol to keto from the menu that appears. Molecules where the equilibrium most favors the keto form now appear at the top. Scroll down the list to identify molecules where the enol form is preferred.

6. Close any molecules and dialogs that are open on screen.
Electrophilic Reactivity of Polycyclic Aromatics

Naphthalene, anthracene and phenanthrene undergo electrophilic substitution just as does benzene. Are they likely to be more or less reactive? Local ionization potential maps should be able to provide an answer. The lower the potential on the aromatic ring, the more likely it is to give up an electron, that is, the more susceptible it will be to electrophilic attack.

![Chemical structures of naphthalene, anthracene, and phenanthrene](image)

1. Build benzene, naphthalene, anthracene and phenanthrene and put into a single document. With any of the four molecules selected, click on Replace All from the Preview dialog. Give the molecules proper names. Bring up a spreadsheet (Spreadsheet under the Display menu), click on Label (leftmost header cell), then right click on an empty header cell and choose Rename Selected Using SSPD from the menu.

2. Bring up the Surfaces dialog from the Setup or Display menu and make certain that Global Surfaces is checked. Click on More Surfaces... at the bottom of the dialog to bring up the Add Surfaces dialog. (You need to use this route to specify fixed surfaces and save computer time.) Select density from the Surfaces menu and ionization from the Properties menu (medium from the Resolution menu), check Fixed to the right of IsoValue and click on OK. When the graphics calculations have completed, bring up the spreadsheet (Spreadsheet under the Display menu) and check the box to the left of each of the four entries. The four molecules will now be simultaneously displayed, but they will be coupled. To move them independently, select Coupled from the Geometry menu (this will remove the checkmark to the left). Position the four molecules on screen such that the π system is visible, and check Local Ionization Potential Map inside the Surfaces dialog. Which of the four molecules is indicated by its local ionization
potential map to be most susceptible to electrophilic attack? Which positions on naphthalene, anthracene and phenanthrene are most susceptible?

3. Compare local ionization potential maps for naphthalene, quinoline and isoquinoline. Focusing on the carbon ring, which of the three is likely to be most susceptible to electrophilic attack? Which is likely to be least susceptible?

![Quinoline and Isoquinoline](image)

4. Compare the local ionization potential map for naphthalene with those of indole, benzofuran and benzothiophene. Focusing on the carbon ring, which of the four compounds is most susceptible to electrophilic attack? Which is the least susceptible?

![Indole, Benzofuran and Benzothiophene](image)

5. Close any molecules and dialogs that are open on screen.
Section III
Features and Functions

This section describes the functions available under the menus incorporated into *Spartan’10*, and is intended to serve as a general reference to the program. The coverage follows the order of the menus presented in *Spartan’s* user interface: **File**, **Edit**, **Model**, **Geometry**, **Build**, **Setup**, **Display**, **Search**, **Options**, **Activities** and **Help**. In turn, it describes the functions and usage of each of the menu entries. Entries under the **File**, **Model**, **Geometry** and **Build** menus deal primarily with the input of 2D structures and with the input and construction of 3D structures and with their display and query. Entries under the **Setup** menu specify molecular mechanics or quantum chemical models as well as similarity analysis tools, designate what properties and spectra are to be obtained, request one or more graphical models and submit jobs for calculation in the background. Entries under the **Display** menu access calculated quantities including calculated spectra, while those under the **Search** menu access databases of calculated information. Entries under the **Options** menu set program defaults, designate file paths and control job queues.

This chapter provides only limited commentary about the performance and requirements of different computational methods and the utility of the different graphical models. Additional information is provided under **Topics** accessed from the **Activities** menu and to *A Guide to Molecular Mechanics and Quantum Chemical Calculations*, available as a PDF under the **Help** menu.
Chapter 12

The File Menu

Operations under the File menu access model kits to build, edit and substitute molecules and the file system to read and write both native and non-native files, print text and on-screen graphics, access the online PDB database of protein and nucleotide structures, embed text and other files into Spartan documents and create QuickTime movies.

New ()

Brings up a model kit and clears the screen. Model kits are discussed in Chapter 16.

Open... ()

Opens a file that contains all information associated with a particular molecule or pharmacophore (or list of molecules and/or pharmacophores). In addition to native (.spartan) files (documents), supported are files containing 2D drawings: CambridgeSoft
(ChemDraw) CDX (.cdx), and MDL SDF (.sdf)*, SKC (.skc), and TGF (.tgf), files containing 3D structures: MacroModel (.mac), SYBYL Mol (.mol), SYBYL Mol2 (.mol2), and PDB (.pdb), and files containing 1D “strings”: SMILES (.smi). Finally, infrared, NMR and UV/visible spectra may be input (discussion of file formats is provided in Appendix J).

We use the word “file” to refer to any information contained in the “file system” (the disk on your computer) and the word “document” to refer to files that are native to Spartan. Thus, an MDL SDF file may be read into Spartan and then written as a document. Documents may contain information on a single molecule or single pharmacophore or on a collection of molecules and/or pharmacophores. This collection is loosely referred to as a “list” or as a “spreadsheet” (in the context that it is presented in a spreadsheet).

Cartesian coordinates from any of these files (except spectra files which do not necessarily contain coordinates) may be replaced by coordinates generated based on atomic connectivity using Replace Coords. in the Molecule Utilities dialog (accessible from Properties under the Display menu; Chapter 18). Additionally, hydrogen atoms that are missing in the input structure may be provided using Grow Hydrogens in the Molecule Utilities dialog. Non-native files are normally hidden from view, but may be seen by selecting All Files from the Files of type menu at the bottom of the dialog.

Close ()

Closes the document containing the selected molecule, as well as the spreadsheet, graphics, plots, spectra and document specific dialogs. If the document has not previously been saved, a name is requested.

* SDF files may contain information in addition to geometry, for example, the name of the molecule or its CAS number. Each quantity appears in a line following <xyz> where xyz is a character string denoting the quantity, for example, CAS to denote the CAS number.

<CAS>
22090-26-2

This information may be accessed in the spreadsheet by typing the character string into a header cell, for example, typing CAS will result in the CAS number.
If a previously-saved document has been altered, verification that the changes are to be saved is requested.

**Save**

**Save As** (F)

Saves the document containing the selected molecule *exactly as it appears on screen*. Opening the document will bring it on screen exactly as it was last saved. If the document has not previously been named, **Save** behaves as **Save As**. Documents may be either be saved in native format or in one of the formats listed under **Open**. In addition, bitmap (.bmp), JPEG (.jpg) and PNG (.png) graphics file formats are supported as is the Spartan Database (.spentry) format for creating custom databases (see **Appendix H**). Support is also provided for writing QuickTime (movie) files (see discussion later in this chapter). Selection is made under the **Save as type** menu in the **Save As** dialog.

![Save as type menu](image)

**New Molecule**

Brings up a model kit and clears the screen. This differs from **New**, in that the resulting molecule is appended to the end of the list associated with the molecule that is presently selected.*

* Examples are provided in the tutorials Dienophiles in Diels-Alder Cycloadditions and Hydration of Carbonyl Compounds in Chapter 5, Stereospecific Diels-Alder Reactions in Chapter 7, Polyglycine in Chapter 8 and Benzene Chromium Tricarbonyl in Chapter 10.
Delete Molecule

Deletes the selected molecule(s) from a document. Deleting the last molecule leads to an empty document.

Append Molecule(s)...

Appends one or more documents onto the end of the document that contains the selected molecule.* Append Molecule(s)... leads to a file browser from which one or more documents need to be selected.**

Access PDB Online...

Provides access to the online Protein Data Bank (PDB)*** comprising nearly 72,000 protein and nucleotide structures. Selection results in a dialog.

To access a PDB structure, enter the four character identification code in the box to the right of By PDB ID at the bottom of the dialog and click on the Search button. If the PDB entry contains more than one structure (typical with protein structures obtained from NMR

* An example is provided in the tutorial Carbene Additions to Alkenes in Chapter 7.
** Alternatively, molecules may be appended onto an existing document either by copy/paste operations using the clipboard or by dragging from an external window. Both require that the spreadsheet associated with the destination document be open on screen. To copy a molecule open on screen onto the clipboard, first select (click on) it, and then select Copy from the Edit menu. Alternatively, click on its label in its spreadsheet (in the leftmost column), and then select Copy from the Edit menu. The latter permits several molecules to be selected (and copied) at once using the Shift and Ctrl keys in the usual manner. Once on the clipboard, the molecule or molecules may be moved to the destination list by clicking on an empty row header in the spreadsheet (for the destination document), and then selecting Paste from the Edit menu.
To copy a document from an external window, drag it onto the open spreadsheet (associated with the destination document) inside of Spartan. Several documents can be dragged at once using the Shift and Ctrl keys in the usual manner.
*** The web address is http://www.rcsb.org.
spectroscopy) and/or the PDB ID yields more than one entry, all structures will be returned in a list.

PDB access will typically require a few seconds. The PDB ID will appear at the right and a ribbon model of the protein or nucleotide will appear on screen. A Ramachandran plot associated with a protein structure may either be upon initial retrieval of the PDB file by checking the box to the left of Draw Ramachandran Plot or later from Ramachandran Plot under the Model menu (Chapter 14).

Print

Selection leads to a dialog in order to designate a printer, specify print layout and number of copies. It also allows printing to a file.

The contents of the spreadsheet (Spreadsheet under the Display menu; Chapter 18) may be printed using Print from the contextual menu. The results of a reaction energy calculation (Reactions... under the Display menu; Chapter 18), may be printed using Print from the contextual menu.
Embedded Data

This allows non-native files, for example, Word, Excel or PowerPoint files, to be embedded in a Spartan document. These may be associated either with an individual molecule or with all the molecules (or both). Selection results in the Embedded Data dialog, the upper half of which relates to document level files and the lower half of which relates to molecule level files.

![Embedded Data Dialog](image)

A file may be imported (at the document or molecule level) by clicking on the appropriate Import button. This leads to a file browser from which a file may be selected. Once embedded in a Spartan document, a non-native file may be exported by first selecting (clicking on) it and then clicking on Export Selected. It may be deleted by first selecting it and then clicking on Delete Selected.

Note that applications cannot be launched from the Embedded Data dialog. They need to be copied outside prior to launching.
Start/Stop QuickTime Recording

This allows QuickTime movies to be created. To start making a movie, select Start QuickTime Recording. Any motions of all molecules in Spartan’s main screen will be captured. Dialogs (including the builders) will not be captured. Note the use of “tumbling” (see Settings Preferences under Preferences in the Options menu; Chapter 20) in making QuickTime movies. To stop making a movie, select Stop QuickTime Recording (which has replaced Start QuickTime Recording in the File menu) and supply the requested file name.

Note that the QuickTime entry in the File menu will only appear if QuickTime is actually installed on your machine.

Exit

Exits Spartan, that is, clears the screen and closes all open documents. A prompt for a name is provided for each document that has not previously been saved.
Chapter 13

The Edit Menu

Operations under the Edit menu provide for undoing commands, copying items to and from the clipboard, finding text and graphics, centering molecules on screen and clearing the selected molecule.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Command</th>
<th>Shortcut</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Undo</td>
<td>Ctrl+Z</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cut</td>
<td>Ctrl+X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Copy</td>
<td>Ctrl+C</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Paste</td>
<td>Ctrl+V</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Select All</td>
<td>Ctrl+A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Find...</td>
<td>Ctrl+F</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Find Next</td>
<td>F3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Center</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Clear</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Undo

Undoes the last operation from the Build and Edit menus and from the Molecule Utilities dialog. Undoes transition-state formation and retrieval from Spartan’s Databases.

Cut, Copy, Paste

Cut moves the selected item to the clipboard and removes it from the document. Copy copies the item to the clipboard. The item is unaffected. Paste transfers the contents of the clipboard to the selected location. The contents of the clipboard are unaffected. Among the important uses of the clipboard within Spartan are:

(i) Transferring on-screen graphics into other applications such as Microsoft Word® and PowerPoint®.

(ii) Temporary storage of a molecular structure for use in molecule building.

(iii) Transferring data between Spartan spreadsheets and between a Spartan spreadsheet and other applications such as Microsoft Excel®.
(iv) Making multi-molecule documents and/or transferring molecules between documents.

**Cut** operations for (i) and (ii) require drawing a selection box. Position the cursor slightly above and slightly to the left of the item to be transferred, hold down both buttons and **drag** the mouse to a location slightly below and slightly to the right of the item to be transferred and release both buttons. **Copy** operations for (i) and (ii) also refer to the contents of a selection box *if one has been drawn*, but to the selected molecule if a box has not been drawn. **Copy** operations from a *Spartan* spreadsheet refer to all information associated with a molecule if selection is made on the header cell of the leftmost column, but only to the selected (text) information if selection is made on any other column. Further discussion relating to use of the clipboard in molecule building is provided in Chapter 16 and for moving data in and out of the spreadsheet is provided in Chapter 18.

**Select All**

Selects all atoms in the selected molecule.

**Find..., Find Next**

**Find** locates a text string defined in the **Find** dialog if an output window or a spreadsheet is selected, or a structure sequence defined on the clipboard if an on-screen model is selected. **Find Next** locates the next occurrence of a text string or a structure sequence.

**Center**

Centers on screen all molecules in the document for which the selected molecule is a member (only the selected molecule is displayed).

**Clear**

Clears (deletes) the structure and other information for the selected molecule, and brings up a model kit. No information is actually removed from the file system until the document is saved.
Chapter 14

The Model Menu

Structure models available under the **Model** menu include wire, ball-and-wire, tube, ball-and-spoke, space-filling (CPK) and line models, with or without hydrogens, with or without hydrogen bonds indicated, with or without chemical function descriptors (CFD’s) shown and with or without atom labels, as well as ribbon displays for polypeptides and polynucleotides, with or without labels and with or without hydrogen bonds indicated. It allows drawing a Ramachandran plot for a protein structure retrieved from the Protein Data Bank (PDB). The menu also provides for configuring atom labels to display element name, R/S chirality, mass number, charge or chemical shift, and for specifying color coding and display style for ribbon labels, as well as turning a variety of other labels on and off. Finally, it allows model style to be applied globally (to all molecules in a document) and models to be manipulated in concert.

Only one model style **Wire, Ball and Wire, Tube, Ball and Spoke, Space Filling** or **Hide** may be selected. The selected model is designated by a check mark ✅ in front of its entry in the menu. **Global Model, Coupled, Hydrogens, Labels, Ribbons, Hydrogen Bonds** and **CFD’s** operate as toggle switches. A ✅ in front of the entry in the menu indicates that it is turned on.
All structure models, and graphics may be displayed either in orthogonal or perspective projections. The latter may be valuable in helping to visualize large molecules. Selection is done in the Settings Preferences dialog (Preferences... under the Options menu; Chapter 20). Both structure models and graphics may be presented in 3D stereo. This is also controlled from the Settings Preferences dialog as well as from the 3 key. Stereographic displays require perspective projections.

**Wire**

This represents the molecule as a wire model where the vertices represent the atoms.

![Wire Model](image)

The bonds are drawn in two colors, one for each of the atoms making up the bond. Default atom colors are given in Table 14-1.

Atom colors apply globally (to all atoms of given type), and may be changed using the Set Colors dialog (Colors under the Options menu; Chapter 20). Colors of individually selected atoms may be set using the Atom Style dialog (Properties under the Display menu; Chapter 18). All models use the same color scheme for atoms, and provide for the same mechanism of changing colors globally or individually.

**Ball and Wire**

This represents atoms by small balls and bonds by wires.

![Ball-and-Wire Model](image)
### Table 14-1: Default Atom Colors

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>main group</th>
<th>main group (con’t)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Hydrogen</td>
<td>white</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lithium</td>
<td>orange</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Beryllium</td>
<td>green</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Boron</td>
<td>orange</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Carbon</td>
<td>gray</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nitrogen</td>
<td>blue-gray</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Oxygen</td>
<td>red</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fluorine</td>
<td>pale yellow</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sodium</td>
<td>yellow</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Magnesium</td>
<td>purple</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Aluminum</td>
<td>magenta</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Silicon</td>
<td>gray</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Phosphorus</td>
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<tr>
<td>Sulfur</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chlorine</td>
<td>green</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Potassium</td>
<td>red</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Calcium</td>
<td>red</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gallium</td>
<td>orange</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Germanium</td>
<td>gray</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Arsenic</td>
<td>dark orange</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Selenium</td>
<td>red orange</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bromine</td>
<td>dark red</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rubidium</td>
<td>red</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strontium</td>
<td>red</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Indium</td>
<td>orange</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tin</td>
<td>gray</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Antimony</td>
<td>orange</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tellurium</td>
<td>orange</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Iodine</td>
<td>violet</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>transition metals</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Scandium-Zinc</td>
<td>green</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yttrium-Cadmium</td>
<td>green</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lanthanum-Mercury</td>
<td>green</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>lanthanides</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cerium-Lutetium</td>
<td>violet</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>actinides</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Thorium-Lawrencium</td>
<td>dark blue</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>noble gases</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Helium</td>
<td>dark orange</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Neon</td>
<td>dark orange</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Argon</td>
<td>dark orange</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Krypton</td>
<td>dark orange</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Xenon</td>
<td>orange</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The balls are color coded according to atom type, and the wires representing bonds are drawn in two colors (as in wire models).

**Tube**

This is similar to the wire model, except that tubes instead of wires are used to represent bonds.

Tubes may either be solid cylinders or be split to represent multiple bonds depending on whether Split Tubes in the Settings Preferences dialog (Preferences... under the Options menu; Chapter 20) is turned off or on. As with wire models, bonds are drawn in two colors.

**Ball and Spoke**

This represents atoms by balls (the size and color of which depend on atom type), and bonds by spokes.

Spokes may either be cylinders or be split to represent multiple bonds depending on whether Split Tubes in the Settings Preferences dialog (Preferences... under the Options menu; Chapter 20) is turned off or on. Bond (spoke) color is gray by default but it may be changed using the Set Colors dialog (Colors under the Options menu; Chapter 20). Colors of individually selected bonds may be set using the Bond Style dialog (accessible from Properties under the Display menu; Chapter 18).
Space Filling
This represents the molecule as a composite of spheres, the radii of which have been chosen to approximate van der Waals contact distances. Also known as CPK models, space-filling models are intended to portray overall molecular size and shape.

Volume, surface area and polar surface area (PSA)** displayed under the QSAR tab in the Molecule Properties dialog (accessible from Properties under the Display menu; Chapter 18) correspond to a space-filling model.

Line
A line model is a 2D representation (similar to that provided from drawing programs such as ChemDraw and IsisDraw). It designates carbons as the termini or the intersection of lines and non-carbons by their elemental symbols without any use of color.

Line models include stereochemical cues (→ and ←) if these have been provided in the 2D drawing or if they are specified from

* Default values for van der Waals radii may be changed from the VDW Radii dialog accessible from Preferences under the Options menu (Chapter 20). Settings apply to all atoms of given atomic number.

** By default, polar surface area is defined as the area due to nitrogen and oxygen and any hydrogens attached to nitrogen and oxygen. Other combinations of atoms may be employed to define a polar surface area. See Formulas under the Display menu (Chapter 18).
the **Bond Properties** dialog (accessible from **Properties** under the **Display** menu; Chapter 18).

**Hide**

This removes the structure model from the screen. This may be desirable where its display may lead to unnecessary crowding, for example, in proteins where ribbon displays are more appropriate. A structure model may be restored by selecting it from the **Model** menu.

Different parts of a molecule may be rendered in terms of different model styles and colors. This allows focus on specific interesting regions of a molecule. Regions may be individual atoms and/or bonds or any collection of atoms and/or bonds contiguous or not. They are selected either by *clicking* on an individual atom or bond or, with the aid of the **Ctrl** (select multiple) or **command** key (Macintosh), **Shift** (select over a range), and **Alt** (select all bonded) or **option** key (Macintosh), by *clicking* on a set of atoms and/or bonds, or by defining a selection box. Discussion has already been provided in Chapter 2. Style and color of selected model components is by way of the “**Selected**” **Style** dialog accessible from **Properties** under the **Display** menu (Chapter 18).

**Global Model**

If *checked* (turned on), this signifies that all molecules in a document will share attributes. These include presentation of hydrogens, atom and other labels, hydrogen bonds, CFD’s and ribbon displays. Global model style is controlled from the **Molecule Preferences** dialog (**Preferences...** under the **Options** menu; Chapter 20). **Global Model** acts in a toggle manner, switching between global and local display. **Global Model** is normally on.

**Coupled**

If *checked* (turned on), this signifies that all molecules in a document selected for simultaneous display will be moved together. **Coupled** is turned on following molecule alignment (see **Align** under the **Geometry** menu; Chapter 15). **Coupled** acts in a toggle manner, that is, repeated selection couples and decouples the molecules.
Hydrogens

If checked, this signifies that hydrogens are to be included in the model. Note that 2D SD files as well as structures retrieved from the Cambridge Structural Database or the Protein Data Bank may lack hydrogens. These need to be added to the model before they can be displayed, before CFD’s (Chemical Function Descriptors) can be assigned (see discussion later in this chapter) and before calculations may be performed. This may be done either upon retrieval (see Open/Close Databases and Extract Ligands under the Search menu; Chapter 19) or using Grow Hydrogens in the Molecule Utilities dialog (accessible from Properties under the Display menu; Chapter 18). Hydrogens acts in a toggle manner, that is, repeated selection turns the display of hydrogens on and off.

Labels

If checked, this signifies that labels associated with atoms, ribbons and bonds as well as with other attributes specified in Configure... (see discussion later in this chapter) are to be displayed in the model. Labels acts in a toggle manner, that is, repeated selection turns display of labels on and off. Labels is automatically turned on following selection of Apply or OK in the Configure dialog.

Ribbons

If checked, this signifies that ribbons are to be displayed along with the selected model. (If only ribbons are desired, for example, in proteins, select Hide for the model.) Ribbons acts in a toggle manner, that is, repeated selection turns display of ribbons on and off.

Ramachandran Plot

If checked, this draws a Ramachandran plot for a protein input from the Protein Data Bank (see Access PDB Online under the File menu; Chapter 12). Ramachandran Plot acts in a toggle manner, that is, repeated selection turns the plot on and off. Note that coloring of the points on the plot (red for α-helices, blue for β-sheets, green otherwise) is not based on the actual 3D geometry but rather on assignments in the PDB file.
Hydrogen Bonds

If checked, this signifies that hydrogen bonds are to be drawn as part of the model. Hydrogen bonds are defined as non-bonded contacts between a nitrogen or oxygen and a hydrogen attached to nitrogen or oxygen separated by a distance ranging from 1.6 to 2.1 Å and making an X–H--Y (X,Y = N, O) angle of >120°. Note that hydrogen bonds are not used in either molecular mechanics or quantum chemical calculations. **Hydrogen Bonds** acts in a toggle manner, that is, repeated selection turns display of hydrogen bonds on and off.

CFD’s

If checked, this signifies that Chemical Function Descriptors (CFD’s) are to be displayed along with the structure model. CFD’s are descriptors given to a molecule in order to characterize or anticipate its chemical behavior or to identify commonality among molecules with different structures. They parallel terms in a chemist’s vocabulary such as *lone pair* (to suggest the role of a hydrogen-bond acceptor) and *sterically crowded* (to suggest that getting close may be difficult).

Spartan uses seven different kinds of CFD, the first six of which may be thought of as attributes of a molecule.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>CFD</th>
<th>chemical language</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. hydrophobe</td>
<td>sterically-crowded region</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. aromatic</td>
<td>aromatic π system</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. hydrogen-bond donor</td>
<td>acidic hydrogen</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. hydrogen-bond acceptor</td>
<td>lone pair</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. positive ionizable site</td>
<td>basic site</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. negative ionizable site</td>
<td>acidic site</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Default CFD assignments follow from atomic connectivity and rules covering common organic functional groups. They may be modified on a case-by-case basis using the **CFD Properties** dialog (accessible from **Properties** under the **Display** menu; Chapter 18). CFD’s (represented by *’s in the figures below) may either be atom centered, or they may be centered in between atoms. For example,
a hydrogen-bond acceptor CFD is placed on an ether oxygen, while
an aromatic CFD is placed at the center of a benzene ring.

\[ \text{R} \xrightarrow{\text{aromatic}} \text{hydrogen-bond acceptor} \]

CFD’s may also be associated with a number of common functional
groups. For example, a single CFD is provided for the carboxylic acid
group, sited in-plane and equidistant from the carbon and two oxygens.
The CFD’s for this and other functional groups may depend on pH. At
neutral (or basic) pH this CFD should be designated both as a
hydrogen-bond donor and a hydrogen-bond acceptor, whereas at
acidic pH it should be designated as a negative ionizable site.

\[ \text{neutral pH: hydrogen-bond donor} \quad \text{acidic pH: negative ionizable site} \]

Finally, note that default assignments for hydrogen-bond donors and
acceptors depend not only on atomic type (N, O, \ldots) and (in the case
of hydrogen-bond donors) on the availability of hydrogens, but also
on known (or presumed) chemical behavior. For example, because an
amide nitrogen would generally not be considered to be a hydrogen-
bond acceptor, no (hydrogen-bond acceptor) CFD is provided. It is
assigned to be a hydrogen-bond donor (if hydrogens are available)
and the amide oxygen is assigned as a hydrogen-bond acceptor.

\[ \text{hydrogen-bond acceptor} \]

Note that, hydrogen-bond acceptor and donor CFD’s may be related to the
electrostatic potential obtained from quantum chemical calculations. For
example, a negative potential associated with an oxygen center suggests
that it might serve as a hydrogen-bond acceptor, while a positive potential
associated with a hydrogen attached to such a center suggests its role as
a hydrogen-bond donor. These are, of course, the same conclusions that
a chemist would draw simply by looking at the molecule. However, the
calculations may be able to say which acceptor or donor sites are likely to be strong and which are likely to be weak.

Calculated electrostatic potentials may offer significant advantage over CFD’s and other qualitative descriptions when there are no heteroatoms and hydrogen bonding is not possible. The π systems of benzene and other aromatics provide the most common examples. The same conditions that make the ring susceptible to electrophilic aromatic substitution mean that it repels other electron-rich regions (and attracts electron-poor regions).

A seventh CFD type, excluded volume, derives from knowledge of a molecule incorporated into a host. Excluded volumes may be obtained for ligands extracted from PDB files using the Ligands dialog (Extract Ligands under the Search menu; Chapter 19).

Configure...

This selects the types of labels attached to atoms, ribbons and CFD’s.

Configure Labels

Atom labels may be selected from among the following: Labels, a unique element/number combination that may be changed from the Atom Properties dialog (accessible from Properties under the Display menu; Chapter 18), Element, Mass Number, R/S (chirality), Mulliken Charge, Electrostatic Charge, Natural
Charge, Strand: Res\Label (polypeptides and polynucleotides), Exposed Area (of an atom in a space-filling model), Chem Shift. Selection of Custom leads to a text box into which a formula defining an atomic label may be entered. Details are provided in Formulas under the Display menu (Chapter 18). In addition, Bond Labels, Point Labels, Plane Labels, Constraint Labels, Residue Labels, Reaction Labels and/or CFD Labels may be provided. Default settings (for a new molecule) are made in the Molecule Preferences dialog (Preferences under the Options menu; Chapter 20).

Configure Objects

Clicking on the Objects tab leads to the Configure Objects dialog.

If checked, Constraint and Frozen markers, Points and Planes, infrared and Raman Peaks, Reaction arrows and CFD’s attach to the model. If not checked, these are shown only in the respective modes, for example, Frozen markers are shown only if Freeze Center is selected.
Configure Ribbons

Clicking on the Ribbons tab leads to the Configure Ribbons dialog.

Ribbon coloring may be selected from among the following: Monochrome, By Secondary Structure, By Strand or By Residue. Ribbon style may be selected from among the following: Ribbons, Beads or Lines.

Configure CFD’s

Clicking on the CFD’s tab leads to the Configure CFDs dialog.

This allows for turning CFD descriptors on (identifying the
type of CFD) identifiers and CFD’s corresponding to excluded volumes.

The **Configure** dialog is removed from the screen with all selections maintained by *clicking on OK*. *Clicking on Cancel* or on ✗ removes the dialog but selections are lost. *Clicking on Apply* maintains the selections but leaves the **Configure** dialog on screen. Note, that **Labels** (from the **Model** menu) will be turned on following either *clicking on OK* or on **Apply**.
Chapter 15

The Geometry Menu

Functions available under the Geometry menu allow querying and changing bond lengths, angles and dihedral angles, defining points and ligand points, planes and chemical function descriptor (CFD) locations, setting geometrical constraints or ranges of constraints, freezing atomic centers, altering default bond and ring conformer assignments, introducing NOE's (maximum intramolecular distances) in conformational searching, selecting atoms or CFD's for similarity analysis and aligning molecules in a list.

Measure Distance (D)
Measure Angle (E)
Measure Dihedral (F)

Measure Distance displays the distance (in Ångstroms) between two atoms, whether or not they are bonded. Selection results in a message at the bottom left of the screen.

Clicking on two atoms displays the distance at the bottom right of the screen.

Distance(C1,C2) = 1.500 Å
Alternatively, *clicking* on a bond displays its length.

\[
\text{Length(Bond1)} = 1.53 \text{ Å}
\]

**Measure Distance** may also be used to alter the distance between atoms (as long as both are not incorporated into the same ring), by altering the contents of the box to the right of **Distance (A,B) =** or **Length (A)=**, and then *pressing* the **Enter** key (**return** key on Mac). The distance (length) may be entered into the spreadsheet by *clicking* on \( \text{P} \) to the right of its display (see **Spreadsheet** under the **Display** menu; **Chapter 18**). Alternatively, the label “**Distance (A,B)=”** or “**Length (A)=”** may be *dragged* into the spreadsheet, the formula editor (see **Formulas** under the **Display** menu; **Chapter 18**) or into any of the dialogs associated with the Spartan Molecular Database or Spartan Spectra and Properties Database (see **Open Databases** under the **Search** menu; **Chapter 19**).

Angle and dihedral angle queries are handled in a similar manner. Angles require that three atoms or two bonds be identified in the proper order while dihedral angles require that four atoms or three bonds be identified in the proper order.

**Freeze Center (\( \text{F} \))**

This allows one or more atoms to be held in place during minimization (in build mode) or (optionally) during equilibrium or transition-state geometry optimization, conformational searching, or energy profile generation. Outside of build mode, use of frozen atoms needs to be explicitly indicated in the **Calculations** dialog (**Chapter 17**).

Atom freezing may be useful in a number of situations, among them guessing a transition-state geometry for a reaction that is closely related to one for which a transition state is available. For example, a good guess at the transition state for pyrolysis of cyclohexyl formate will be obtained by modifying the transition state for pyrolysis of ethyl formate, freezing all but the modified sections (designated in bold in the figure below) and then minimizing.*

* An example of this is presented in the tutorial **Carbene Additions to Alkenes** in **Chapter 7**.
Selection of **Freeze Center** leads to a message at the bottom left of the screen.

*Clicking* on an atom or free valence*, freezes it; *clicking* again thaws it. Buttons at the bottom right of the screen allow for freezing all atoms (**Freeze All**), freezing all heavy (non-hydrogen) atoms (**Freeze Heavy**) and for thawing all atoms (**Thaw All**).

Another important use of frozen atoms is to adjust XH bond lengths in structures resulting from a search of the Cambridge Structural Database (see **Open/Close Databases** under the **Search** menu; **Chapter 19**). Hydrogen positions are more often than not poorly located in small molecule X-ray structures, and XH bond lengths are commonly as much as 0.1 to 0.2Å shorter than they should be. Structures incorporating such bond lengths are clearly inappropriate for energy and property calculations and may also be problematic as starting geometries in quantum chemical calculations. Protein crystal structures always lack hydrogens, and hydrogen positions of bound ligands extracted from PDB files may be poorly defined. A reasonable solution to both problems is to freeze all heavy (non-hydrogen) atoms (**Freeze Heavy**) and then to carry out molecular mechanics minimization using either **Minimize** from the **Build** menu (see discussion in **Chapter 16**) or from the **Calculations** dialog under the **Setup** menu (see discussion in **Chapter 17**).

Frozen atoms are indicated by magenta colored markers (\[\text{\textcolor{magenta}{}}\]). Whether or not these are included with the model (outside of freeze center mode) is controlled from the **Molecule Preferences** dialog under **Preferences...** in the **Options** menu (**Chapter 20**).

---

* The bond distance in this case is that appropriate for hydrogen being added to the free valence.
Set Torsions ($\Rightarrow$)

*Spartan* automatically identifies bonds and rings for conformational searching and specifies default step sizes.

Two different rule sets have been provided. *Normal* is intended for use in determining the lowest-energy conformation or in establishing a distribution of low-energy conformers, whereas *Trimmed* is intended for use in building conformer libraries for use in similarity analyses. (Different modes of conformational analysis are discussed in Chapter 17.) Selection of rule set is made in the Settings Preferences dialog (Preferences... under the Options menu; Chapter 20).

Set Torsions allows these defaults to be altered. Selection results in rotatable bonds each being marked by a gold cylinder, and flexible rings each being marked by a gold circle around one or more atoms, and a message at the bottom left of the screen.

Clicking on a bond or an atom contained in a ring selects it for rotation. In the case of a ring, rotation means that the atom is to be puckered up and down (restricted rotation). The default rotation is provided in a box to the right of Fold at the bottom right of the screen. This is typically 2 or 3 for a single bond (step size of 180° and 120°, respectively) and 3 for a flexible ring. A value of either 0 or 1 indicates that the bond (ring) is not to be rotated (rotation by 360°). Other integer values may be entered into the box, followed by pressing the Enter key (return key on Mac). The original settings may be retrieved by clicking on Defaults at the bottom right of the screen. Double clicking on a marked bond or ring atom removes the marker and eliminates the conformational degree of freedom.

Saturated six-membered rings, for example, cyclohexane, are treated as special cases with only chair conformers examined. This is indicated by two circles on opposite atoms. Other conformers, for example, twist-boat conformers, can be generated by selecting additional ring atoms.

and buttons at the bottom right of the screen are available to step
through the possible single-bond conformers* (ring conformers are not provided). Geometries have not been optimized and some conformers may be severely crowded. Any conformer can be selected in lieu of the initial structure. The full set of single-bond conformers may be placed in an unnamed document by clicking on ✓ (to the right of the step buttons), and then clicking OK in the dialog that results. Note, that duplicate conformers have not been removed.

The total number of conformers (excluding ring conformers) that will be examined in a systematic search (see discussion in Chapter 17) is indicated at the bottom right of the screen Conformers = xx. This is an upper bound to the number of conformers that will actually be kept as duplicates and high-energy conformers are eliminated. This can be dragged into the spreadsheet (see discussion in Chapter 18), into the Formulas dialog (see discussion in Chapter 19), or into any of the dialogs associated with the Spartan Molecular Database or Spartan Spectra and Properties Database (see discussion in Chapter 19). The number of conformers is also available under the Molecule tab in the Molecule Properties dialog (Properties under the Display menu; Chapter 18). This can also be dragged into the same dialog as well as posted to the spreadsheet.

Set Torsions is also used to specify non-bonded distances that need to be kept below a threshold value. These follow from NOE (Nuclear Overhauser Effect) measurements and may be referred to as NOE conditions or simply NOEs. NOEs are specified by clicking on two (non-bonded) atoms while holding down the Shift key. In response, a message appears at the bottom of the screen.

\[
\text{NOE}(H_2,H_7) = \text{[value]}
\]

Clicking on ✓ changes it to ✓ and enters the default value for the NOE threshold into the box. This value can be changed. A line is drawn between atoms that are to be kept within the threshold value.

* A limit of 1000 conformers is enforced.
Once set, NOEs are used in conformational searching (conformer distribution only; see discussion under Calculations in Chapter 17) without further user intervention. They act as a post-processor filter to eliminate conformers that do not satisfy the constraints and do not affect the speed of the search.

**Set Similarity Centers (○)**

This specifies the set of atomic centers, or Chemical Function Descriptors (CFD’s) or pharmacophore elements that are to be used in similarity analysis. Choice of whether the similarity analysis is to be based on structure or CFD’s (pharmacophore elements) is made from a menu that appears at the bottom right of the screen following selection of Set Similarity Centers. This menu is also accessible from the Similarity Analysis task in the Calculations dialog (Calculations... under the Setup menu; Chapter 17).

**Similarity Based on Structure**

Selection of **structure** from the Similarity by menu at the bottom right of the screen results in a message at the bottom left of the screen.

*Clicking* on an atom designates it as an alignment center and it marks it with a violet circle. *Clicking* on the circle removes the designation (and the circle). Hydrogens are not used in similarity analysis and may not be selected.

The computer time required for similarity analysis based on structure depends on the number of molecules in the query, the number of molecules in the library to which comparisons are being made and the choice of
similarity centers. Single atoms should never be selected as similarity centers unless they are unique. Rather, contiguous groups of atoms that are likely to be unique should be chosen. For example, analysis carried out on morphine based on selection of its phenol and trialkylamine components (left) will be much faster and much more informative than that based on selection of the phenol oxygen, two carbons on benzene and the nitrogen (right).

This is because there will be many few occurrences of phenol and trialkylamine substructures in the library entries than there will be aromatic carbons and nitrogen atoms and fewer permutations that need to be examined and fewer false positive results.

**Similarity Based on CFD’s**

Similarity analysis may also be based on CFD’s. These indicate whether a particular center is likely to act as a hydrogen-bond donor or hydrogen-bond acceptor, is likely to take on positive or negative charge or is a hydrophobe. This is accomplished by selecting **CFD** from the **Similarity by** menu at the bottom right of the screen. In response, the selected molecule is augmented with CFD’s, and a message appears at the bottom left of the screen.

Clicking on a CFD designates it as a similarity center and marks it with a violet circle. Clicking on the circle removes the designation (and the circle).

The computer time required for similarity analysis based on CFD’s depends on the number of molecules and/or pharmacophores in the query, the number of molecules and/or pharmacophores in the library and the
nature of the selected CFD’s in the query. For each query/library pair, where the query is represented by i CFD’s of type A, j CFD’s of type B, k CFD’s of type C, etc., the number of different alignment combinations that need to be considered is given by:

\[i!j!k! \ldots\]

(! is the factorial symbol.) This rapidly becomes unmanageable. For example, if there are 6 CFD’s of type A, 3 of type B and 2 of type C, the number of combinations is 6!3!2! or 8640. Considerable savings can be achieved by limiting the number of CFD’s of a given type in the overall representation.

**Similarity Based on a Pharmacophore**

Finally, it is possible to base similarity on a pharmacophore. This is set up in exactly the same way as similarity based on CFD’s insofar as the elements of a pharmacophore are CFD’s (see previous section).

Selection of similarity centers either needs to be repeated for the remaining molecules in the list or the selections may be designated as global, that is, applying to all molecules in the list. The latter is applicable where the molecules in the list are conformers or are closely related at least insofar as the alignment centers are concerned. Global designation is accomplished by checking the **Global Similarity Settings** at the bottom of the screen.

**Constrain Distance (\(\text{\textbullet}\))**  
**Constrain Angle (\(\text{\textbullet}\))**  
**Constrain Dihedral (\(\text{\textbullet}\))**

These introduce one or more geometrical constraints during structure minimization (in build mode), and (if requested) during equilibrium or transition-state geometry optimization or conformational searching using methods under the **Calculations** dialog (*Chapter 17*). They also allow for setting a range of constraints needed for generation of energy profiles. Constraints may be useful in a number of situations, among them:
(i) constructing conformational energy profiles where one or more dihedral angles need to be fixed while other geometrical variables are optimized,

(ii) optimizing molecular structures where the values of certain key parameters are known, for example, optimizing the geometry of a molecule with an intramolecular hydrogen bond or a disulfide linkage, and

(iii) building molecules with unusual geometries, for example, molecules with very long bonds, as might be required in the construction of transition states and intermolecular complexes.

Selecting **Constrain Distance** results in a message at the bottom left of the screen.

![Select two atoms, a bond,...](image)

**Clicking** on two atoms, or a bond results in a message at the bottom right of the screen.

![Constraint(C1,C2) = 1.500 Å](image)

**Clicking** on changes it to and shows the current distance.

This (constraint) distance can now be changed by altering the contents of the box and then **pressing** the **Enter** key (**return** key on Mac). Alternatively, the existing distance may be used as the constraint distance. If the selected distance had previously been constrained, the icon would have been initially displayed. In this case, **clicking** on turns the constraint off and returns the icon to . Finally, the value of the constraint (that may be different from the value of the current distance*) may be entered into the spreadsheet by **clicking** on to its right. Alternatively, the label **Constraint (A,B)=** may be **dragged** into the spreadsheet, the formula editor (see **Formulas** under the **Display** menu; **Chapter 18**) or into any of the dialogs associated with the Spartan Molecular Database or Spartan Spectra

* Note, however, that it may be problematic to carry out a constrained geometry optimization starting from a structure that is very different from that satisfying one or more constraints.
and Properties Database (see **Open Databases** under the **Search** menu; **Chapter 19**).

This sequence of operations (bond identification followed by turning the constraint on and off) may be repeated as many times as necessary. Any bonds or non-bonded distances on which constraints are to be imposed are indicated by magenta colored markers. Any constraints introduced are automatically enforced only upon energy minimization in add fragment mode ( ), but need to be requested for methods under the **Calculations** dialog (**Chapter 17**).

Angle and dihedral angle constraints are handled in a similar manner. Note that *points and planes may not be used to define constraints*.

Locking in a constraint leads to two additional text boxes at the bottom right of the screen. This allows a sequence of constraints to be defined (from some initial value to some final value in a given number of steps) for the purpose of constructing an energy profile along a predefined set of coordinates* (see discussion under **Calculations** from the **Setup** menu; **Chapter 17**).

![Constraint properties dialog](image)

The leftmost box sets the initial value of the constraint, the middle box to the right of **to** sets the final value, and the rightmost box to the right of **Steps**: sets the number of steps. For example, were the initial value set to $0^\circ$, the final value to $180^\circ$ and the number of steps to 10, then a series of ten constraints ($0^\circ, 20^\circ, 40^\circ, ... 180^\circ$) would be specified. This can also be accomplished using the **Constraint Properties** dialog, and the value of the constraint posted to the spreadsheet.

Whether or not constraint markers are included as part of the model (outside of constrain distance, constrain angle or constrain dihedral mode) is controlled from the **Molecule Preferences** dialog (**Preferences...** under the **Options** menu; **Chapter 20**).

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* Examples of this are provided in the tutorial **Internal Rotation in Dimethylperoxide** in **Chapter 6**, and the tutorial **Thermodynamic vs. Kinetic Control** in **Chapter 7**.
Define Point ( 

This defines a point as the geometric (unweighted) center of selected atoms (or points) previously defined. Selection results in display of a message at the bottom left of the screen.

Clicking on atoms (or points) in any order, and clicking a second time on any one of the atoms (or points) defines a point (depicted as a small sphere). As many points as desired can be defined and these are treated in the same way as an atom in defining distances, angles, etc. Points move with the molecule as its geometry is altered.

Selecting Define Point (or clicking on ) while holding down on the Shift key, followed by clicking on the appropriate atoms, leads to a ligand point. This is a point of attachment directed perpendicular to the geometric center of the plane defined by three atoms (or best plane in the case of four or more atoms). A ligand point shares all the characteristics of a normal point, but may also be used to bond to atomic fragments, functional groups, etc. See Make Bond under the Build menu (Chapter 16) for a discussion. Ligand points move with the molecule as geometry is altered.

Delete from the Build menu ( ) or the Delete key may be used to remove a point or ligand point.

Whether or not points and ligand points are shown as part of the model is controlled from the Molecule Preferences dialog (Preferences... under the Options menu; Chapter 20).

Define Plane ( 

This defines and displays a reference plane. Selection results in display of a message at the bottom left of the screen.

Clicking on three atoms or points defines a plane. As many planes as desired may be defined, and these may be used in defining
distances, angles, etc. Planes move with the molecule as its geometry changes.

**Delete** from the **Build** menu (삭제) or the **Delete** key may be used to remove a plane.

Whether or not planes are included as part of the model for an is controlled from the **Molecule Preferences** dialog (**Preferences** under the **Options** menu; **Chapter 20**).

**Define CFD** (설정)

This defines the position of a new CFD. The **CFD Properties** dialog (accessible from **Properties** under the **Display** menu; **Chapter 18**) allows CFD size and type to be selected. Selection results in display of a message at the bottom left of the screen.

*Clicking* on atoms (or points) in any order, and *clicking* a second time on any one of the atoms (or points) defines the position of a CFD (depicted as a transparent sphere labelled Null). *Clicking* twice on only one atom locates the CFD on the atom. As many CFD’s as desired can be defined. These move with the molecule as its geometry is altered.

Whether or not CFD’s are included as part of the model is controlled from the **Molecule Preferences** dialog (**Preferences** under the **Options** menu; **Chapter 20**).

**Align** (정렬)

This aligns the selected molecule to all other molecules in the same document based either on structure or on CFD’s. If the selected molecule is a pharmacophore, aligns the pharmacophore to all molecules in the same document (based on CFD’s). Choice of whether alignment is based on structure or CFD’s is made from the **Align by** menu that appears at the bottom right of the screen.
The terms “alignment” and “similarity analysis” have subtly different meanings inside of Spartan. Alignment refers to the operation in which the molecules and/or pharmacophores in a document are reoriented to best coincide with the selected molecule (pharmacophore). Where a molecule is selected, alignment may either be based on a set of atoms or on a set of CFD’s. Where a pharmacophore is selected, alignment is based on a set of CFD’s. A single reorientation is provided for each molecule in the document that can be aligned to the selected molecule (pharmacophore).

Similarity analysis refers to the operation in which all molecules in a user-specified library comprising one or more documents are compared one-on-one to all molecules and/or pharmacophores in the selected document (in the graphical user interface). As with alignment, either structural elements or CFD’s may be employed. The result is a similarity score from 0 to 1 (1 is perfect) and a manipulatable model of the two molecules (or molecule and pharmacophore). It is likely that most comparisons will not be successful, and also that some comparisons may lead to more than one score (corresponding to different orientations of the two components). Similarity analysis both by structure and CFD as well as to a pharmacophore is discussed in detail in Chapter 17.

In short, the role of alignment is to orient molecules and/or pharmacophores in order to highlight their common features, while the role of similarity analysis is to rank pairs of molecules or molecule/pharmacophore pairs according to the extent of their common features.

**Align Based on Structure**

Selection of Structure from the Align by menu results in a message at the bottom left of the screen.

![Select atoms.]

Clicking on an atom designates it as an alignment center, and marks it with a red circle. Clicking on the circle removes the designation (and the circle). Following selection of alignment centers, clicking on the Align by button at the bottom right of the screen aligns the molecules. If no atoms are selected prior to clicking on Align by, then alignment is based on all (non-hydrogen) atoms.

Following alignment, two or more molecules may be displayed at once using spreadsheet functions (see Spreadsheet under the
Display menu; Chapter 18). Their motions (coordinates) will be coupled following alignment, but may be uncoupled allowing the aligned molecules to move independently (see Coupled under the Model menu; Chapter 14). Note that alignment center selections are kept and molecules can be realigned by again selecting Align from the Geometry menu (or clicking on $$$) followed by clicking on the Align by button.

Align Based on CFD’s

It is also possible to base molecule alignment on CFD’s. These indicate whether a particular center is likely to act as a hydrogen-bond donor or acceptor, is likely to take on positive or negative charge or is a hydrophobe. This is accomplished by choosing CFD from the Align by menu at the bottom right of the screen followed by clicking on the Align by button. In response, the selected molecule is augmented with CFD’s, and a message appears at the bottom left of the screen.

Clicking on a CFD designates it as an alignment center and marks it with a red circle. Clicking on the circle removes the designation (and the circle).

The CFD Properties dialog (accessible from Properties under the Display menu; Chapter 18) allows definitions of the individual CFD’s to be altered.

Following selection of CFD’s, clicking on the Align by button at the bottom right of the screen aligns the molecules. If no CFD’s are selected prior to clicking on Align by, then alignment is based on all CFD’s.

Following alignment, one or more molecules may be displayed at once using spreadsheet functions (see Spreadsheet under the Display menu; Chapter 18). Their motions (coordinates) will be coupled following alignment, but may be uncoupled allowing the aligned molecules to move independently (see Coupled under the Model menu; Chapter 14). Note that alignment center selections
are kept and molecules can be realigned by again selecting Align from the Geometry menu (or clicking on 🔄) followed by clicking on the Align by button.

**Align to a Pharmacophore**

Finally, it is possible to align molecules to a pharmacophore contained in the same list. This is set up in exactly the same way as alignment based on CFD’s insofar as a pharmacophore element is a CFD (see previous section).

For both structure and CFD alignment (and for alignment to a pharmacophore), an alignment score from 0 to 1 (perfect alignment), is available in the spreadsheet. This is accessed by clicking on the Add button at the bottom of the spreadsheet, and selecting Alignment Score from the list of available properties (see Spreadsheet under the Display menu; Chapter 18). A score of 0 is assigned to molecules that cannot be aligned to the selected molecule.
Chapter 16

The Build Menu

The Build menu provides model kits and tools for building and editing organic, inorganic and organometallic molecules, as well as polypeptides and polynucleotides, for generating lists of substituted molecules, and a molecular mechanics procedure for structure refinement. This menu also provides seamless access to ChemDraw.

Model Kits

Spartan provides five different model kits for assembling a variety of molecular systems: an organic model kit for most organic molecules, an inorganic model kit for organic molecules not well represented in terms of an uncharged (non-zwitterionic) valence structure, as well as inorganic and organometallic molecules, model kits for polypeptides and polynucleotides and a model kit for attaching substituents (lists of chemical groups) to previously-built molecules. The organic and inorganic model kits utilize atomic fragments, functional groups and rings (and ligands in the inorganic model kit), while the peptide model kit uses the set of natural amino acids as building blocks, and the nucleotide model kit the set of nucleotide bases.

Two-dimensional molecular structures (drawings) produced using ChemDraw* can also be brought into Spartan and converted to three-dimensional structures.

Molecule construction in Spartan proceeds much in the same manner as a chemist would assemble a structure from a model kit, that is, pieces are taken from the kit one at a time and added sequentially to the molecule under construction.

* Seamless access to ChemDraw is available for the Windows version only. All versions are able to read ChemDraw files. ChemDraw is not included with Spartan and must be obtained from CambridgeSoft at http://www.cambridgesoft.com.
Organic Model Kit

The organic model kit contains a suite of molecule building/editing tools specifically designed to construct organic molecules.

In the center of the model kit are a selection of atomic fragments, which from left to right and then top to bottom, correspond to:

- C(sp\textsuperscript{3})
- C(sp\textsuperscript{2})
- C(sp)
- C(aromatic)
- Si(sp\textsuperscript{3})
- N(sp\textsuperscript{3})
- N(sp\textsuperscript{2})
- N(sp)
- N(aromatic)
- N(planar)
- P(sp\textsuperscript{3})
- O(sp\textsuperscript{3})
- O(sp\textsuperscript{2})
- S(sp\textsuperscript{3})
- S(sp\textsuperscript{2})
- H
- F
- Cl
- Br
- I

A fragment is chosen by clicking on its icon, which is then displayed at the top of the model kit. Once selected, the fragment may be used to initiate building, to add alongside of an existing structure or appended onto an existing structure. To initiate building, click anywhere on screen. To add alongside of an existing structure, first click on the Insert button at the bottom right of the screen or hold down the Insert key (option key on Mac), and then click anywhere on screen or double click in a blank area on screen. To bond to an existing structure, click on a free valence (not an atom). (Free valences are colored yellow on the selected molecule.) Bond type in the case of atomic fragments...
with multiple bond types, for example, sp² carbon, depends on the nature of the free valence selected.

While only H, C, N, O, F, Si, P, S, Cl, Br and I are available from the organic model kit, other elements may be substituted using atom replacement feature available in the inorganic model kit (see General Molecule Building Functionality later in this chapter). Similarly, bond types may be altered in the inorganic model kit. The latter may be necessary in order to alter bonding in structures retrieved from the Cambridge Structural Database or ligands obtained from PDB files. Atom and bond types may also be altered using the Atom and Bond Properties dialogs, respectively (accessible from Properties under the Display menu; Chapter 18). Note that bond type (or the fact that bonds may be present) is not utilized in quantum chemical calculations, and only atom identities and coordinates are required. They are, however, utilized in molecular mechanics calculations.

Menus inside the model kit provide access to a number of pre-built fragments corresponding to functional groups (Groups) and rings (Rings), and to additional libraries of rings (as well as any user-defined structures) stored in Spartan’s file system (More). The model kit also accesses the clipboard (Clipboard).

**Groups**

Clicking on Groups brings up a menu of groups, and displays an icon of one group at the top of the model kit.

Once selected from the menu, a group may be used to initiate building, to add alongside of an existing structure on screen, or to add to an existing structure.
The amide and carboxylic acid/ester groups have more than one different free valence. The free valence that is to be used is marked with a gold • (in the icon at the top of the model kit). The marked position circulates among the possible positions with repeated clicking on the icon.

**Rings**

Clicking on **Rings** brings up a menu of hydrocarbon rings, and displays an icon of one ring at the top of the model kit.

![Rings menu](image)

Once selected from the menu, a ring may be used to initiate building, to add alongside of an existing structure on screen, or to add to an existing structure.

Cyclohexane, cycloheptane, naphthalene, anthracene, phenanthrene, indene and fluorene have more than one different free valence. The one that is to be used is marked with a gold • (in the icon). The marked position circulates among the available positions with repeated clicking on the icon. Selection of an **axial** or **equatorial** free valence in cyclohexane and cycloheptane is indicated by the label **ax** or **eq** appearing alongside the icon. All rings in this menu are hydrocarbons, but heteroatoms may be substituted (see **General Molecule Building Functionality** later in this chapter).

**More**

This provides access to a broader selection of rings as well as to access user-defined entities (rings, groups, ligands, etc.). Upon initial entry, the menu to the right of **More** will be empty. It can be populated, by clicking on ☐ to the far right. This brings up a file browser that has been set to point toward a directory containing
several *Spartan* files of common rings.

- nitrogen heterocycles
- oxygen heterocycles
- sulfur heterocycles
- mixed heterocycles
  saturated nitrogen rings
  saturated oxygen rings
  saturated sulfur rings
  saturated mixed rings

*Clicking* on a file followed by *clicking* on *Open* or *double clicking* on a file fills the menu to the right of *More*. Menu entries are selected in the usual way. In response, a ball-and-wire model of the selected ring will appear at the top of the model kit. This may be manipulated (rotated, translated, zoomed) using the usual mouse/keyboard commands (you need to position the cursor inside the box). The ring may be used to initiate building, to add alongside of an existing structure, or to add to an existing structure. In the latter case, the attachment point (on the ring in the window) needs to be identified by *clicking* on the appropriate free valence.

Three other collections (ligands, chelates and high-coordination fragments) appear in the selected directory. They are intended for use with the inorganic model kit as discussed in the next section. User-defined libraries may also be accessed (they are normal *Spartan* documents).

**Clipboard**

*Clicking* on *Clipboard* accesses the clipboard. A ball-and-wire model of whatever is on the clipboard is displayed at the top of the model kit. This may be manipulated using the usual mouse/keyboard commands (you need to position the cursor inside the box). Once selected, the contents of the clipboard may be used to initiate building, to add alongside of an existing structure, or to add to an existing structure. In the latter case, the attachment point needs to be identified by *clicking* on the appropriate free valence.

An empty clipboard will be signaled by:
Inorganic Model Kit

Spartan’s inorganic model kit allows construction of a much wider class of molecules (including inorganic and organometallic species) than possible with the organic model kit. Structures that violate conventional bonding rules may be constructed, as this model kit purposefully provides no checking. The inorganic model kit is reached by clicking on the Inorganic tab, located at the top of the organic (peptide, nucleotide or substituent) model kit. (Return to the organic, peptide, nucleotide or substituent model kit or to ChemDraw is accomplished by clicking on the Organic, Peptide, Nucleotide, Substituent or 2D tab, respectively, in the inorganic model kit).

Atoms may be selected by clicking on the center atom button, which brings up a full Periodic Table. Main-group elements are colored red, transition metals are colored green and lanthanides and actinides are colored blue. The Model menu inside the Periodic Table contains a selection of theoretical models (basis sets except for semi-empirical models).
Selecting an entry from this menu leads to recoloring of the *Periodic Table*. A light green color is used to indicate elements for which the selected model may be used. *Immediately below is a selection of atomic hybrids.*

Selection of atom type is effected by *clicking* on the appropriate element in the *Periodic Table*. The entry will be highlighted. Selection of an atomic hybrid follows by *clicking* on the appropriate icon which will then be highlighted. **This combination (atom type + atomic hybrid) may be used to initiate building, to add alongside of an existing structure or to append onto an existing molecular fragment. To initiate building, *click* anywhere on screen. To add alongside of an existing structure, first *click* on *Insert* at the bottom right of the screen or *press* the *Insert* key (option key on Mac), and then *click* anywhere on screen, or *double click* in a blank area on screen. To bond to an existing fragment, *click* on the appropriate free valence.

Two of the hybrids (trigonal bipyramidal and square-based pyramidal) may bond either *axially* or *equatorially*. Selection of the appropriate bonding point, marked by a •, is effected by repeatedly *clicking* on the icon; the bonding point alternates between the two sites.

Atoms are connected with whatever bond type (partial single, single, aromatic, double, triple or quadruple) is selected from a menu below atom types in the model kit. A bond type may be changed by first selecting a type and then *double clicking* on the bond. Bond types have no impact on quantum chemical calculations, but do affect molecular

---

* The existence of either an all-electron basis set or a pseudopotential is sufficient to classify a model as available for a particular element. Note that while molecular mechanics models are available for all elements, they have been carefully parameterized for only a relatively few of these. Use caution in interpreting molecular mechanics geometries for molecules incorporating heavy main-group elements, transition metals, lanthanides and actinides.

** Hybrids for a number of high-coordination centers are available as a library reachable from *More* (see discussion under *Organic Model Kit*).
mechanics calculations which reference a Lewis structure (including minimization in the builder; see discussion later in this chapter).

No valence checking is performed in the inorganic model kit, and the user is free to construct any arrangement of atoms.

Menus under Groups, Rings and More are the same as those described for the organic model kit as is Clipboard. One additional fragment collection is provided:

Ligands

This provides access to a number of pre-built ligands, useful in the construction of inorganic and organometallic molecules. Its operation is analogous to that for the Groups and Rings menus. Clicking on Ligands brings up a menu of available ligands, and results in an icon of one ligand from this menu being displayed at the top of the model kit.

A ligand may be used to initiate building or to add alongside or to an existing structure. Additional ligands are accessible from More (see previous discussion). Ligands may also be built with the aid of ligand points (Define Point in the Geometry menu; Chapter 15).
Peptide Model Kit

A model kit for construction of polypeptides is reached by clicking on the Peptide tab located at the top of the organic, inorganic, nucleotide and substituent model kits. (Return to the organic, inorganic, nucleotide or substituent model kit or to ChemDraw is accomplished by clicking on the Organic, Inorganic, Nucleotide, Substituent or 2D tab, respectively, in the peptide model kit.) This builder is not intended to be used for constructing proteins (although this is actually possible). Rather, it is primarily intended to build idealized helix and sheet structures. Protein structures are best entered from the Protein Data Bank (see Access PDB Online... under the File menu; Chapter 12).

At the middle of the peptide model kit are icons designating the amino acids (specified by their usual three-letter codes). An amino acid is selected by clicking on its three-letter code, following which either an icon of the amino acid is displayed in the box at the top of the model kit, or the three-letter code for the amino acid is appended to the sequence of codes in the box. Amino acids replace atoms, functional groups, rings and ligands as the building blocks in the peptide model kit. Because these other building blocks are missing, modifications of peptides, aside from modifications in sequence and in overall conformation, need to be carried out using the organic or
inorganic model kits.

There are two different modes of operation: single amino acid mode and polypeptide mode. The former is used to initiate building with a single amino acid, to add a single amino acid alongside of an existing structure or to add a single amino acid to an existing structure, while the latter is used to construct amino acid sequences (polypeptides). **Sequence** off (unchecked) corresponds to single amino acid mode, and on (checked) corresponds to polypeptide mode.

Peptide construction (**Sequence** on) is accomplished in three steps:

**Specification of Amino Acid Sequence**

This is accomplished by *clicking* in the desired order on the amino acid codes. Building occurs from the N end to the C end of the peptide. In response to each selection, the three-letter code is appended to the sequence of codes in the box at the top of the model kit. The stereochemical configuration of the amino acid is by default the l configuration; this may be changed to the d configuration prior to selection of the amino acid, by *checking* d to the right of **stereoisomer** in the model kit. (It may be changed back to l by *checking* l). d amino acids are indicated by .d following the code in the box.

The sequence may be altered by changing the text in the box. Existing amino acid codes may be deleted or changed or new codes can be added. The entire sequence may be specified in this way if desired. Specification of a non-existent code will result in an error message. The sequence can be cleared by *clicking* on **Clear**.

**Specification of Macroscopic Structure**

Once sequencing is complete, macroscopic structure (ψ and φ angles), is specified by *clicking* on one of α **Helix**, β **Sheet** or **Other**. In the case of the first two, preset angle values are displayed on the right. In the case of specification of **Other**, boxes appear, into which the desired dihedral angles need to be entered.
Termination

The peptide is not yet terminated, and the two ends are still set up for addition of further amino acids.

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{O} & \quad \text{H} \\
\text{C} & \quad \text{N} \\
\text{C end} & \quad \text{N end}
\end{align*}
\]

where the * indicates a free valence. Clicking on Terminate at the bottom of the model kit leads to the Terminate dialog.

![Termination Dialog](image)

C and N terminating groups may be selected by repeated clicking on the C and N icons, respectively. Selection will rotate among the available terminating groups. Clicking on OK removes the dialog and terminates the polypeptide. Clicking on Cancel or X removes the dialog but does not terminate the polypeptide.

The peptide (or single amino acid) may now be used either to initiate building, by clicking anywhere on screen or added alongside of an existing structure, by first clicking on Insert at the bottom right of the screen or pressing the Insert key (option key on Mac), followed by clicking anywhere on screen, or double clicking in a blank area on screen. If unterminated, it may also be joined onto an existing structure by clicking on a free valence. In the latter case, attachment is made from the N end, unless the free valence corresponds to an unterminated peptide fragment, in which case the appropriate end required to make an amide bond is used.
Nucleotide Model Kit

Finally, *Spartan* provides a model kit for construction of polynucleotides. It is reached by *clicking* on the **Nucleotide** tab which is located at the top of the organic, inorganic, peptide and substituent model kits. (Return to the organic, inorganic, peptide or substituent model kit or to ChemDraw is accomplished by *clicking* on the **Organic**, **Inorganic**, **Peptide**, **Substituent** or **2D** tab, respectively, in the nucleotide model kit.)

At the middle of the model kit is a menu designating the type of polynucleotide.

- DNA
- DNA (single strand)
- DNA-RNA
- RNA
- RNA (double strand)
- RNA-DNA

Immediately below this menu are icons, designating the nucleotide
bases. Selection of DNA, DNA (single strand) or DNA-RNA from the menu leads to one set of icons.

A nucleotide base is selected by clicking on its letter, following which either an icon of the base is displayed in the box at the top of the model kit, or the letter for the base is appended to the sequence of letters in the box. Nucleotide bases replace atomic fragments, functional groups, rings and ligands as the building blocks in the nucleotide model kit. Because these other building blocks are missing, modifications of nucleotides, aside from modifications in sequence and helical structure, need to be carried out using either the organic or inorganic model kits.

There are two different modes of operation: single base mode and polynucleotide mode. The former is used to place a single base or base pair on screen, to add a single base or base pair alongside of an existing structure, or to add a single base or base pair to an existing structure, while the latter is used to construct strands of DNA or RNA (or mixed strands). Sequence off (unchecked) corresponds to single base (base pair) mode and on (checked) corresponds to polynucleotide mode.

Polynucleotide construction (Sequence on) is accomplished in two steps:

**Specification of Base Sequence**

This is accomplished by clicking in order on the base codes. In response to each selection, the letter code is appended to the sequence of codes in the box at the top of the model kit. The sequence may be altered by editing the contents of the box. Existing base codes may be deleted or changed or new codes added. The entire sequence can be specified in this way if desired. The sequence may be cleared by clicking on Clear.
Specification of Helical Structure

Once sequencing is complete, a helical structure may be specified by *clicking* on A or B. These correspond to A and B helices, respectively. Selecting **Other** allows user modification of the rise (in Å) per base (**Rise/Base**) and twist (in degrees) per base (**Twist/Base**).

Note that the polynucleotide is not yet terminated, and the two ends are still set up for addition of further bases or base pairs.

![Diagram of base and phosphate groups]

* indicates a free valence. Hydrogens occupy all free valences (except the *’ed positions at the two ends of the chain).

The polynucleotide (or single base pair) may now be used to either initiate building, by *clicking* anywhere on screen, added alongside of an existing structure, by first *clicking* on **Insert** at the bottom right of the screen or *pressing* the **Insert** key (**option** key on Mac) followed by *clicking* on screen, or *double clicking* on a blank area on screen, or joined onto an existing structure by *clicking* on a free valence. In the latter case, attachment is made from the phosphate end.

Substituent Model Kit

The substituent model kit designates one or more locations for libraries of substituents to be added to a molecule. Additionally, it designates one or more carbon hybrids for replacement by their heteroatom equivalents, for example, sp³ carbon by sp³ nitrogen. There are two uses for the **Substituent** model kit. The first is to facilitate assembling lists of molecules that differ only in substitution and/or heteroatom. The second application is to use molecules incorporating one or more substituent libraries as queries in searches of the Spartan Molecular Database and Spartan Spectra and Properties Database (see **Open Databases** under the **Search** menu; **Chapter 19**) or as elements of
reaction energy calculations (see Reactions under the Display menu; Chapter 18). Here, the search or reaction energy calculation is not confined to a single molecule but rather is open to a set of molecules that are related by substitution. Further discussion is provided in the appropriate sections of Chapters 18 and 19.

The substituent model kit is accessed by clicking on the Substituent tab located at the top of the organic, inorganic, peptide and nucleotide model kits. (Return to the organic, inorganic, peptide or nucleotide model kit or to ChemDraw is accomplished by clicking on the Organic, Inorganic, Peptide, Nucleotide or 2D tab, respectively, in the substituent model kit.)

At the center of the model kit are four rows of buttons. Buttons in the first two rows provide access to predefined substituent libraries: R (alkyl groups), Ar (aromatic groups), OR (alkoxy groups), EDG (electron donor groups), EWG (electron withdrawing groups) and LG (leaving groups). Buttons in the third row allow access to user-defined substituent libraries (Cust. A, Cust. B, Cust. C), while those in the last row permit substitution of heteroatom hybrids for sp³, sp²
and aromatic carbons incorporated in a molecule. Immediately below the buttons, a dialog lists the entries in the individual libraries (the three custom libraries should be blank upon initial entry). As entries are selected, they will appear in the window at the top of the dialog. Predefined libraries may not be altered and individual entries may not be renamed, but existing library entries in custom libraries may be renamed or deleted and new entries added. Modifications to existing substituent libraries need to be performed following attachment using the Substituent Properties dialog (accessible from Properties under the Display menu; Chapter 18).

Creating lists of substituted molecules starting from an unsubstituted molecule occurs in three stages: library preparation, attachment and (optionally) list generation.

**Library Preparation**

Six substituent libraries have been provided.


- **Ar** (aromatic ring): phenyl, *p*-tolyl, *p*-nitrophenyl, 1-naphthyl, 2-naphthyl, 2-pyridyl, 3-pyridyl, 4-pyridyl

- **OR** (alkoxy group): methoxy, ethoxy, *n*-propoxy, isopropoxy, *t*-butoxy

- **EDG** (electron donor group): hydroxy, methoxy, ethoxy, phenoxy, amino, dimethylamino, mercapto, methylthio, phenylthio

- **EWG** (electron withdrawing group): cyano, nitro, trifluoromethyl, carboxy, formyl, methoxycarbonyl, ethoxycarbonyl, methyl sulfonyl, methyl sulfoxyl

- **LG** (leaving group): bromo, iodo, tosylate, triflate, mesylate

The contents of an existing library may be displayed in the scroll box at the bottom of the model kit by clicking the appropriate button. A ball-and-wire model of a substituent may be seen at the top of the model kit by clicking on its name in the scroll box. The model may be manipulated in the usual way. The attachment point is indicated by a gold ball surrounding a free valence.
To create a custom substituent library, first click on the Cust. A, Cust. B or Cust. C buttons inside the model kit. The scroll box is empty. If a substituent (set of substituents) has previously been copied to the clipboard, it may be pasted into the library by right clicking inside the scroll box and selecting Paste from the menu that appears. Alternatively, a substituent (set of substituents) may be appended to the document (including an empty document) by right clicking inside the scroll box, selecting Append from the menu that results and selecting a Spartan document comprising one or more molecules from the browser. Finally, any Spartan document may be dragged onto the scroll box from the file system. As many substituents (sets of substituents) as desired may be pasted, appended and/or dragged into a library. To remove a substituent from the library, right click on its name in the scroll box and select Delete from the menu that appears. Ctrl (command for Mac) and Shift keys may be used in the usual way.

Substituents need to be specified in terms of both their structure and their connection point. One way to do this is to specify the latter is to replace all free valences except the one that will serve as the connection point by hydrogens. For example, to designate a 2-pyridyl substituent, add hydrogens (from the organic model kit) to four of the five free valences in pyridine, leaving only one free valence in the 2-position available. Alternatively, a connection point can be specified by clicking on the appropriate position as the substituent displayed at the top of the model kit.

The three buttons in the last row designate heteroatom equivalents of carbon-based hybrids.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Hybrid</th>
<th>Carbon</th>
<th>Nitrogen</th>
<th>Oxygen</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>sp²</td>
<td>carbon</td>
<td>nitrogen</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(\xrightarrow{\text{sp²}})</td>
<td>(\xrightarrow{\text{sp²}})</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sp³</td>
<td>carbon</td>
<td>nitrogen</td>
<td>oxygen</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(\xrightarrow{\text{sp³}})</td>
<td>(\xrightarrow{\text{sp³}})</td>
<td>(\xrightarrow{\text{sp³}})</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Arom</td>
<td>carbon</td>
<td>nitrogen</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(\xrightarrow{\text{Arom}})</td>
<td>(\xrightarrow{\text{Arom}})</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Attachment

Following selection, a substituent library may be used to initiate building, to add alongside of an existing structure or to attach to an existing structure. The model is augmented by an icon containing the library name from the button, for example EWG, followed by a number. As many substituent libraries as desired may be attached to a molecule. Each library is given a unique label, that can be changed prior to list generation using the Substituent Properties dialog. A substituent library may be removed from the molecule by selecting Delete from the Build menu and then clicking on the library icon.

A document containing one or more molecules with attached substituent libraries may be saved prior to list generation just as any other Spartan document. Any queries (bond distances, angles, etc.) and calculations refer to the unsubstituted molecule, that is, hydrogens replacing substituent markers. Database searches on the Spartan Molecular Database (SMD) or Spartan Spectra and Properties Database (SSPD) and reaction energy calculations based on entries in SMD or SSPD pertain to all possible substituted molecules.

List Generation

Generation of a list of substituted molecules follows specification and (optionally) editing of one or more substituent libraries and attachment of each of these libraries at one or more positions in a molecule. Duplicates are eliminated. Clicking on Generate List at the bottom of the model kit, leads to the Generate List dialog.

A box at the top of the dialog allows the user to specify (or modify)
a **Name Template**, from which the names of substituted molecules will be derived. Upon entry, this takes the form.

Ax-By-Cz-molecule name

A, B, C are the names of the substituent libraries (**R**, **EWG**, etc.), x, y, z are integers and molecule name is the name of the unsubstituted molecule if and as it appears in the Spartan Molecular Database (SMD) or in the Spartan Spectra and Properties Database (SSPD). If the unsubstituted molecule is not in the database, then the box below **Name-Template** will be blank. If the substituted molecule is in SMD or SSPD, its name in the database may be used (instead of the name generated from the template) by checking the box to the left of **Use names from SMD or SSPD where possible**.

Nulls are molecules with less than the full complement of substituents, for example, monosubstituted molecules in the case where two different positions have been substituted. These will not be included in the list of substituted molecules unless **Generate Nulls** is checked.

Note, that the conformations of the substituted molecules are arbitrary and they have not been subjected to energy minimization to relieve unfavorable crowding interactions. Therefore, the list entries should be examined, conformations adjusted as appropriate and minimized with molecular mechanics prior to using them for quantum chemical calculations.

The list may either be written to a **New Document** or appended to the end of the **Current Document**.

**Accessing ChemDraw (NAL, NAM)**

The ChemDraw program may be seamlessly accessed inside of **Spartan** allowing chemical drawings to be produced in a familiar environment and then brought over as 3D structures. The conversion

---

* ChemDraw files (.cdx) may be read with all versions of **Spartan**.
** ChemDraw is not provided with **Spartan** but must be obtained from CambridgeSoft at http://www.cambridgesoft.com.
*** Transfer is one directional only. 3D structures that have been altered may not be transferred back to ChemDraw.
is unambiguous as long as all stereochemical cues are in place in the 2D drawing. Note that the conformation implied by the 2D drawing may be ambiguous and need to be altered.

To access ChemDraw, enter the builder, click on the 2D tab and click on Edit at the bottom of the panel that results. ChemDraw will appear. To return to Spartan, close ChemDraw. The 2D drawing will appear at the center of the panel and manipulatable 3D structure will appear at the top of the panel. Clicking on screen will move the 3D structure into Spartan’s main window.

General Molecule Building Functionality

Additional capabilities are available with Add Fragment selected:

Multiple Fragments

Multiple fragments may result either from bond breakage (see Break Bond later in this chapter) or from use of the Insert button or Insert key (option key on Mac), or double clicking in a blank area on screen. A fragment is selected by clicking on it, following which the associated free valences are colored gold (free valences for any non-selected fragments are colored white). All builder functions apply to the selected fragment only. Rotation and translation also apply to the selected fragment, but may be made to apply to the entire set of fragments by holding down the Ctrl key while carrying out these operations.

Fragments may be attached using Make Bond (see discussion later in this chapter).

Bond Rotation/Bond Stretching

In addition to molecule rotation, translation and scaling, the mouse is used to rotate about and stretch bonds not incorporated into rings. This is accomplished via the following sequence of operations:

(i) Clicking on the bond, which is then marked by a red cylindrical arrow. (The bond connecting the last atom, group,
ring or substituent added to the molecule is automatically selected.)

(ii) Simultaneously holding down the Alt key (option key on Mac) and the left mouse button while dragging the mouse up and down, for bond rotation, or the Alt (option) key and the right mouse button for bond stretching.

Atom/Fragment Replacement

Another function of the mouse is atom replacement. This behaves differently in the organic and inorganic model kits. Double clicking on an atom (not a free valence) while an atomic fragment in the organic model is highlighted, replaces the atom by selected fragment. Free valences are adjusted to accommodate the replacement, for example, replacement of sp³ carbon by sp³ oxygen results in two free valences being removed. Atom replacements that violate valence rules or that would disrupt substituents are not permitted. Double clicking on an atom (not a free valence) while an element in the Periodic Table from the inorganic model kit is selected, replaces the atom by the selected element, that is, changes the atomic number. No changes in the number or arrangement of free valences is made, and no checking is done. Atom replacement is not available in the peptide, nucleotide and substituent model kits.

Chirality Inversion

In the Add Fragment mode, double clicking on a chiral atom with the Ctrl key (command key on Mac) depressed inverts the chirality of the atom (R→S or S→R). This is not available in fused ring systems. Double clicking on any atom with both Ctrl (command key on Mac) and Shift keys depressed inverts the absolute configuration of the molecule.
Building/Editing Menu Functions

Molecule building/editing functions are found under the **Build** menu.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>View</th>
<th>Add Fragment</th>
<th>Delete</th>
<th>Make Bond</th>
<th>Break Bond</th>
<th>Minimize</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

**View (✓)**

This exits build mode, and removes the model kit from the screen.

Initial entry into build mode is by way of **New** or **New Molecule** under the **File** menu (Chapter 12). **Add Fragment, Delete, Make Bond, Break Bond** and **Minimize** are for modifying existing structures.

**Add Fragment (+)**

In addition to the capabilities discussed under **General Molecule Building Functionality**, this allows access to the libraries of atomic fragments, groups, rings, ligands and substituents, as well as the file system and the clipboard. **Clicking** on any buttons or menus in the organic, inorganic, peptide, nucleotide or substituent model kits, leads to **Add Fragment**. (If a model kit is not already on screen, selection brings up the last-accessed model kit.) A fragment may be used to initiate building by **clicking** anywhere on screen, to add alongside an existing structure on screen by **clicking** on the **Insert** button at the bottom right of the screen or **pressing** the **Insert** key (**option** key on Mac) followed by **clicking** anywhere on screen, or by **double clicking** in a blank area on screen, or be added to an existing structure by **clicking** on the appropriate free valence. Fragment addition can be terminated by selection of any other function.
Delete (×)

This allows atom, free valence and substituent library removal from a structure. Selection leads to a message at the bottom left of the screen.

Subsequent clicking on an atom, free valence or substituent library results in its deletion. Deletion of an atom results in deletion of all of its associated free valences. Free valences for any atoms to which the deleted atom was previously connected are restored. Note that atom deletion may result in one or more detached fragments. Clicking inside a selection box results in deletion of everything inside the box. Selection of Delete does not bring up a model kit nor does it remove a model kit that is present on screen. Delete may be terminated by selection of any other function.

Delete is also used to delete points and planes, CFD’s and pharmacophore elements as well as spectra and plots (or individual curves that make up plots). Be careful!

Deletion may also be accomplished by holding down on the Delete key while clicking on the item to be deleted.

Make Bond (²)

This allows bonds to be drawn between free valences and/or atoms. Selection leads to a message at the bottom left of the screen.

Clicking on two free valences (on different atoms) will cause these atoms to be linked by a single bond. Alternatively, double clicking on each of two atoms will bond them, and clicking on a free valence on one atom and double clicking on a different atom will bond the two atoms. Note that available free valences are consumed as a result of bond formation, irrespective of whether free valences or atoms are selected.* If the selected atoms are

* Free valences can be protected without altering the molecule by adding hydrogens to them (↑ from the organic model kit). One use of this is in conjunction with custom substituent libraries (see discussion under Substituent Model Kit earlier in this chapter).
already bonded, this will result in the bond order being increased by one, that is, single $\rightarrow$ double, double $\rightarrow$ triple. Selection of Make Bond does not bring up a model kit nor does it remove a model kit that is already present on screen. Make Bond may be terminated by selection of any other function.

**Break Bond ($\text{Break Bond}$)**

This allows breaking an existing bond resulting in free valences. Selection leads to a message at the bottom left of the screen.

*Clicking* on a bond breaks it and restores free valences. Note that bond breaking may result in detached fragments. Selection of Break Bond does not bring up a model kit nor does it remove a model kit that is present on screen. Break Bond may be terminated by selection of any other function.

**Minimize ($\text{Minimize}$)**

This uses MMFF molecular mechanics to refine the geometry. Selection leads to a message at the bottom left of the screen.

The molecular mechanics energy* in kJ/mol, displayed at the bottom right of the screen, is continually updated during the minimization process. Minimization may be stopped at any time by clicking on the icon at the bottom right of the screen. Any geometrical constraints imposed on the structure (see Constrain Distance, Constrain Angle, Constrain Dihedral in Chapter 15) are enforced during minimization. NOE’s are not taken into account. Also, any frozen atoms in the structure (see Freeze Center under the Geometry menu; Chapter 15) remain frozen.

Following completion, Minimize reverts back to Add Fragment only if a model kit is on screen.

---

* The mechanics energy is a combination of the strain energy which is necessarily positive and the non-bonded or intramolecular interaction energy which can be either positive or negative. It will most commonly be a positive quantity, although it can be slightly negative.
Chapter 17

The Setup Menu

This chapter describes functions available under the Setup menu. Calculations is used to specify molecular mechanics calculations, semi-empirical calculations, Hartree-Fock molecular orbital calculations and correlated calculations, including density functional calculations, Møller-Plesset calculations, coupled cluster calculations and quadratic configuration interaction calculations for ground-state species, and configuration interaction calculations and (time dependent) density functional calculations for excited-state species. Tasks include calculation of energy, equilibrium structure and conformation, transition-state structure and constructing energy profiles, although not all tasks are available for some methods. In addition, Hartree-Fock and density functional calculations may be extended to include an empirical solvation term, allowing equilibrium and transition-state structures, infrared spectra and molecular properties to be obtained in the presence of a solvent. (Solvated NMR, Raman and UV/visible spectra are not available.) A wide variety of all-electron Gaussian basis sets are supported for Hartree-Fock and correlated calculations as are pseudopotentials for calculations on molecules incorporating elements for which all-electron basis sets are not available. Also provided are a number of thermochemical recipes, including G3 and G3(MP2), as well as the T1 recipe that has been parameterized to closely reproduce G3(MP2) heats of formation with 2-3 orders of magnitude less computation time. Calculations also requests IR, Raman, NMR and UV/visible spectra, and calculation and printing of a variety of molecular properties, QSAR descriptors and thermodynamic quantities. Finally, Calculations specifies conditions for identifying similar molecules, based either on molecular structure or chemical functionality, as well as for identifying molecules that are compatible with a particular molecular environment (a pharmacophore).
Surfaces is used to designate graphical surfaces, including electron and spin densities, electrostatic potentials, local ionization potentials and molecular orbitals, for later display as surfaces, property maps and contour plots. Accessible regions on electron density surfaces and property maps based on these surfaces may be demarked.

Submit is used to direct jobs for calculation, either locally or on a remote Linux server. Multi-core processors may either be used to simultaneously process different jobs or (for most tasks involving Hartree-Fock, density functional and RI-MP2 models) may be directed at a single job.

The Setup menu provides access to dialogs for specifying molecular mechanics and quantum chemical calculations, for specifying conditions for similarity analysis as well as specifying surfaces and property maps and for submitting jobs for calculation.

Calculations...

Calculations modules perform: molecular mechanics calculations using the SYBYL and MMFF force fields; MNDO (MNDO/d for second-row elements), AM1, RM1, PM3 and PM6 semi-empirical calculations, including PM3 and PM6 calculations on transition-metal inorganic and organometallic systems; Hartree-Fock molecular orbital calculations; BP, BLYP, EDF1, EDF2 and B3LYP among other density functional calculations, including calculations based on a user-specified mix of existing exchange and correlation functionals; MP2 and RI-MP2 Møller-Plesset calculations; configuration interaction calculations (for excited-state species). All are applicable to energy calculation, equilibrium and transition-state geometry determination, conformational searching and energy profile construction, although some methods may not be practical for some tasks. Available for energy calculations only, are a series of high-order correlated models, including MP3 and MP4 Møller-Plesset models, coupled cluster models and quadratic configuration interaction models.
A wide selection of basis sets is available, ranging from the STO-3G minimal basis set (recommended for Hartree-Fock models only), to the 3-21G split-valence basis set (recommended for Hartree-Fock models only), to 6-31G*, 6-311G*, and cc-pVDZ, cc-pVTZ, cc-pVQZ and cc-pV5Z polarization basis sets. In addition, pseudopotentials for elements which all-electron basis sets do not exist are available. Note, however, that first derivatives of pseudopotentials in the case where the valence incorporates f-type and higher order functions are not presently available. All basis sets, except STO-3G and 3-21G, may be supplemented with polarization functions on hydrogen, additional and/or higher-order polarization functions on heavy atoms and/or diffuse functions on hydrogens and/or heavy atoms.

Finally, a series of recipes for estimating heats of formation are available. These include the G3 and G3 (MP2) recipes as well as the T1 recipe that is based on G3(MP2) and provides nearly identical heats of formation, but is two to three orders of magnitude less costly in terms of computation.

Quantum chemical calculations also result in a variety of atomic and molecular properties, QSAR descriptors and thermodynamic quantities as well as IR, Raman, NMR and UV/visible spectra. IR spectra are available for molecular mechanics, semi-empirical, Hartree-Fock, density functional and MP2 and RI-MP2 models. Other spectra are available only for Hartree-Fock and density functional models. Note, however, that NMR spectra are not presently available with pseudopotentials.

Solvent may be introduced in one of two ways, both of which involve empirical formulations. The simpler and less costly in terms of computation is to add the aqueous solvation energy obtained using the semi-empirical SM5.4 model to the energy of any molecular mechanics or quantum chemical calculation. Equilibrium and transition-state geometries as well as spectra and any properties derived from the wavefunction are unaffected. A second and computationally more costly method is based on the more recent SM8 model. Here, the correction affects the wavefunction in addition to the energy. This means that it can be used to obtain equilibrium and transition-state
geometries as well as infrared spectra and most properties that depend on the wavefunction. The SM8 solvation correction is limited to Hartree-Fock and density functional models, and applies to water in addition to a variety of organic solvents. A listing of available solvents is provided in the Properties FAQ section accessed from the Help menu. Solvent-corrected Raman, NMR and UV/visible spectra are not available.

Discussion of molecular mechanics and quantum chemical methods in general, focusing on the specific methods available in Spartan, is provided both in Topics under the Activities menu and in A Guide to Molecular Mechanics and Quantum Chemical Calculations which is provided as a PDF under the Help menu. The guide also discusses how different methods may be combined, as well as illustrates graphical modeling techniques.

Finally, the Calculations dialog accesses a procedure to quantify the extent to which two molecules or a molecule and a pharmacophore are similar. This does not involve either molecular mechanics or quantum chemical calculations but depends only on geometry of the molecule (pharmacophore).

Selection of Calculations... results in the Calculations dialog*

This contains a number of pull-down menus, buttons, check boxes and a space to enter additional information (keywords):

The dialogs associated with similarity analysis and with conformer library generation are different from that associated with the other entries under the Calculate menu, and will be presented later in this chapter.
Calculate

This section contains a series of menus and check boxes that specify the task to be accomplished, the electronic state (ground or first excited), the type of calculation, method, basis set and solvent to be employed, as well as details specific to each calculation type.

Task

Specification of Task is by way of a pull-down menu:

| Energy    | Equilibrium Geometry | Transition State Geometry | Equilibrium Conformer | Conformer Distribution | Conformer Library | Energy Profile | Similarity Analysis |

Energy specifies calculation of energy (and in the case of quantum chemical methods, a wavefunction) at a single geometry.

Spartan reports energies from molecular mechanics calculations in kJ/mol, from semi-empirical calculations and from T1, G3(MP2) and other thermochemical recipes as heats of formation in kJ/mol, and from Hartree-Fock and correlated calculations as total energies in atomic units (hartrees).

The molecular mechanics energy comprises two parts: the strain energy and the non-bonded energy. The strain energy is the difference in energy between a molecule and its strain free analog. It is nearly always positive and less than a few hundred kJ/mols in magnitude. The non-bonded energy accounts for attraction or repulsion between atomic centers that are not connected due to van der Waals and Coulombic interactions. Because the strain energy of every molecule relates to a different standard, molecular mechanics energies cannot be used to obtain reaction energies (unless there are no changes in bonding between reactants and products).

The heat of formation is to the enthalpy at 298K of a balanced chemical reaction in which a molecule is converted to a set of standard products. For example, the heat of formation of ethylene is given by reaction,

\[ \text{C}_2\text{H}_4 \rightarrow 2\text{C (graphite)} + 2\text{H}_2 \text{(gas)} \]

where graphite and hydrogen molecule are the carbon and hydrogen standards, respectively. In practice, the actual measurement is typically carried out for a combustion reaction, for example, for ethylene:
Heats of formation may either be positive or negative quantities and generally span a range of only a few thousand kJ/mol.

Heats of formation are not suitable for presenting energy data from most quantum chemical calculations (except thermochemical recipes), simply because the standards for several important elements (most notably, carbon) are not well-defined isolated species. In its place is the energy of a reaction that splits a molecule into isolated nuclei and electrons, for example, for ethylene:

\[
C_2H_4 \rightarrow 2C^+6 + 4H^+ + 16e^-
\]

Total energies, as the energies of such reactions are termed, are always negative and may be very large (tens of thousands of kJ/mol). They are most commonly given in atomic units (hartrees).

1 atomic unit = 2625 kJ/mol

Aside from a difference in units (see Appendix E), it makes no difference whatsoever which standard is employed to investigate thermochemistry.

To summarize, the heat of formation differs from the total energy both with regard to the standard reaction and with regard to units. Either provides a suitable basis for thermochemical calculations.

**Equilibrium Geometry** specifies that the nearest energy minimum will be located, and **Transition State Geometry** that the nearest first-order saddle point (energy maximum in one dimension and energy minima in all other dimensions or commonly known as a transition state) will be located. **Equilibrium Conformer, Conformer Distribution** and **Conformer Library** attempt to characterize the conformers available to a molecule based on different criteria (see discussion following). **Energy Profile** steps along a user-defined coordinate or set of coordinates. **Similarity Analysis** quantifies the likeness among molecules based either on structure or chemical functionality or between molecules and a template (a pharmacophore).
Three different conformational analysis procedures are available in Spartan. The first two (Equilibrium Conformer and Conformer Distribution) may be employed with a variety of molecular mechanics and quantum chemical models (although practical concerns may limit application to molecular mechanics), while the third (Conformer Library) is restricted to the MMFF molecular mechanics model.

Equilibrium Conformer replaces the initial conformer of a molecule by the lowest-energy conformer. This procedure is typically used to get a good guess at the best (lowest-energy) conformer for calculation of properties using quantum chemical methods.

Conformer Distribution provides a selection of low-energy conformers. This procedure is commonly used to identify a set of energetically accessible conformers and construct a Boltzmann distribution for calculation of average molecular properties.

Except for molecules with very few degrees of conformational freedom full systematic searches (looking everywhere) are not likely to be practical. A Monte-Carlo search follows a path that biases in favor of low-energy conformers (but that does not completely exclude high-energy conformers). While there is no guarantee that the lowest-energy conformer (the global minimum) will actually be located, it can be shown that the set of conformers examined (and kept) approach a Boltzmann distribution. (This is strictly true only for a large number of search steps, but is closely approximated for searches with reasonable numbers of steps.)

Conformer Library replaces the initial conformer of a molecule by the lowest-energy conformer and attaches the coordinates of a set of conformers spanning all shapes accessible to the molecule without regard to energy. Used to build libraries for similarity analysis.

The following recipe is used to generate a conformer library:

1. Step through all possible conformers in a systematic manner and calculate equilibrium structures and energies for each using the MMFF force field. Eliminate duplicates and very high-energy conformers.

2. Place spheres on each nitrogen, and oxygen atom and at the center of each hydrophobic region for each conformer.

3. Find the smallest set of conformers for which spheres do not overlap, that is, eliminate any conformer for which all of its spheres overlap with the corresponding spheres on another conformer.
Because this procedure involves a systematic search of all possible conformers, it is desirable to use a set of conformer assignment rules that eliminate degrees of freedom, but are unlikely to produce significant shape changes. See Set Torsions under the Geometry menu (Chapter 15) and Settings Preferences under the Options menu (Chapter 20). A limit may be placed on the total number of conformers actually considered. This is known as a restricted systematic search, a procedure that walks through all possible conformers but randomly discards some without further minimization in order to enforce a fixed number of conformers. Conformers Examined sets this number and Conformers Kept (≤ to Conformers Examined) sets the number that are actually kept. This is different from the Monte-Carlo method, in that it strives to span all possible shapes open to a flexible molecule without consideration of energy.

Selection of Conformer Library results in a different dialog.

Conformers Examined, sets the maximum number of conformers.

Energy applies to all methods. Equilibrium Geometry, Equilibrium Conformer, Conformer Distribution and Energy Profile does not apply to advanced correlated methods and thermochemical recipes. Transition State Geometry does not apply to molecular mechanics methods, advanced correlated methods and thermochemical recipes. Conformer Library applies only to MMFF molecular mechanics. Similarity Analysis does not involve any molecular mechanics or quantum chemical methods.
State

Specification of State (electronic state) is by way of a pull-down menu. The default setting Ground (state) may be changed to First Excited (state) by clicking on \( \Rightarrow \) to the right of the box and back again to Ground (state) by clicking on \( \Rightarrow \). Different methods are available to handle ground and excited-state species.\(^*\) Hartree-Fock, Møller-Plesset as well as a variety of advanced correlated methods are available only for ground-state species, while configuration interaction methods are available only for excited-state species. Density functional methods are available for both ground and excited-state species. State is ignored for molecular mechanics calculations, and semi-empirical calculations are limited to the ground state.

Type of Calculation

Specification of Type of Calculation is by way of a menu, the selections in which depend on electronic state. For ground states:

Some calculation types require additional information:

Molecular Mechanics

- MN1
- MN2
- MN3
- MN4
- MN5

Møller-Plesset

- MP2
- MP3
- MP4
- MP5

Semi-Empirical

- AM1
- PM3
- PM6
- MNDO

Advanced Correlated\(^**\)

- CIS
- CIS(D)
- QCISD(T)

---

\(^*\) Note that gradients for density functional methods for excited states need to be calculated numerically. This means that determining an equilibrium geometry for an excited state of a molecule is significantly slower than determining an equilibrium geometry for the ground state. Analytical gradients for CIS and CIS(D) methods for excited states are available.

\(^**\) A number of other advanced correlated methods are available, but need to be entered directly into the Options box: CCSD(2), OD, OD(T), QCCD, QCCD(2), QCISD and QCISD(T).
The most important application of **molecular mechanics models** is conformational searching, in particular, for molecules with several degrees of conformational freedom. In these cases, even the simplest quantum chemical models may not be practical. The MMFF force field is known to properly assign equilibrium conformation in a variety of simple molecules for which experimental data are available. It also has been shown to generally (but not always) provide a reasonable account of conformational energy differences in larger organic molecules as obtained from high-level quantum chemical calculations. Aside from conformational energy differences, molecular mechanics models are not suitable for thermochemical calculations.

**Semi-empirical models** are simplest methods based on quantum mechanics. They are applicable to molecules containing 100 - 200 atoms, but not to molecules containing thousands of atoms, for example, proteins. The MNDO, AM1, RM1, PM3 and PM6 models generally provide geometries in good accord with experimental structures. This makes them suitable for evaluation of such properties as polar surface area that depend solely on geometry. However, none of the present-generation semi-empirical models is suitable for the calculation of relative energies as might be required to conclude, whether a chemical reaction is weakly or strongly *exothermic*, thermoneutral or weakly or strongly *endothermic*, or whether one isomeric product of a reaction is likely to be more or less stable than another, or to identify the lowest-energy tautomer. Also, none of the methods reliably accounts for conformational energy differences, as would be required to establish whether a particular conformer has a good chance at actually being present or to calculate the average value of a property based on the relative (Boltzmann) populations of different conformers.

**Hartree-Fock models** follow from the *Schrödinger equation* by requiring that the electrons be independent particles. This is known as
the Hartree-Fock approximation. Here, the motions of electrons in molecules (molecular orbitals) are approximated by a sum of the motions of electrons in atoms (atomic orbitals). A second approximation, termed the LCAO or Linear Combinations of Atomic Orbital approximation, distinguishes different Hartree-Fock models. Different models use different basis sets, that is, different numbers and kinds of atomic orbitals. For example, the model with the 3-21G split-valence basis set uses one atomic orbital to describe each non-valence electron and two atomic orbitals to describe each valence (core) electron, that is, it comprises one 1s atomic orbital and two sets of 2s and 2p atomic orbitals.

\[
\begin{align*}
1s \\
2s, \ 2p_x, \ 2p_y, \ 2p_z \\
2s', \ 2p_x', \ 2p_y', \ 2p_z'
\end{align*}
\]

The model with the 6-31G* polarization basis set increases the flexibility by including d type atomic orbitals that, while not occupied in the atom, are used in molecules.

\[
\begin{align*}
1s \\
2s, \ 2p_x, \ 2p_y, \ 2p_z \\
2s', \ 2p_x', \ 2p_y', \ 2p_z' \\
d_{xx}, \ d_{xy}, \ d_{xz}, \ d_{yy}, \ d_{yz}, \ d_{zz}
\end{align*}
\]

Larger basis sets involving even higher splitting of valence shells, including higher-order (f and g type) functions as well as diffuse functions can be and have been defined and are available in Spartan. Description of their makeup is provided in Topics available under the Activities menu and in A Guide to Molecular Mechanics and Quantum Chemical Calculations which is provided as a PDF under the Help menu.

3-21G and 6-31G* and larger basis set Hartree-Fock models generally provide good accounts of the geometries of organic molecules. This extends to unusual or unstable systems for which experimental data may be limited (and hence may be poorly represented in parameterization of the semi-empirical models). The 6-31G* model (and to a lesser extent, the 3-21G model) also properly accounts for thermochemistry, at least insofar as being able to say whether a particular reaction is weakly or strongly exothermic or weakly or strongly endothermic. It is also able to properly order the stabilities of isomeric products and to reliably identify the lowest-energy tautomer. Finally, Hartree-Fock 6-31G* calculations provide a qualitatively correct account of the relative stabilities of different conformational arrangements. Hartree-Fock models with larger basis sets show similar behavior but 3-21G calculations do not provide reliable results.
Hartree-Fock models are generally able to properly describe the energies of *isodesmic* reactions, that is, reactions where formal bond count is maintained. The most conspicuous and most important flaw of Hartree-Fock models is their inability to properly account for the energetics of bond dissociation. This includes activation energies, that is, the difference in energy between reactants and transition state. This is the case even with very large basis sets, and can be traced to the Hartree-Fock approximation which in effect replaces interactions between electrons by interactions between one electron and the average field created by all other electrons. As a consequence, electrons get in each other’s way to a greater extent than they should. This leads to overestimation of the electron-electron repulsion energy, most significantly for electrons that are paired. Because bond dissociation reduces the number of electron-pairs (by one), the overestimation will be greater for reactants than for products and the calculated dissociation energy will be too small.

Models that do away with the Hartree-Fock approximation, or at least lessen its effect, are termed **correlated models**. These divide into two broad categories, **density functional models** and **wavefunction-based models**. Density functional models explicitly introduce an approximate correlation term (a functional). They are not much more costly in terms of computation time than Hartree-Fock models, although it is not apparent how to improve on a particular choice of functional. Wavefunction-based models, typified by **Møller-Plesset models** and **configuration interaction models** extend the flexibility of Hartree-Fock models by mixing ground-state and excited-state wavefunctions. They are significantly more costly than both Hartree-Fock and density functional models, but offer the advantage over the latter of a clear path to improvement. In the limit of complete mixing, so-called full configuration interaction and infinite order Møller-Plesset models, wavefunction-based models lead to the exact result, although in practice this limit cannot be reached.

Density functional and wavefunction-based correlated models make use of the same basis sets as Hartree-Fock models, except that minimal and split-valence basis sets do not yield satisfactory results. Among the simplest and most popular models are the B3LYP/6-31G* density functional model and the MP2/6-31G* (second-order) Møller-Plesset model. The primary use of these models (and other correlated

* Consider the bond dissociation energy of $\text{H}_2$. The (limiting)Hartree-Fock energy of the products (hydrogen atoms each with only one electron) is exact, while the energy of the reactant ($\text{H}_2$ with two electrons) is too large. Therefore, the bond dissociation energy will be too small.
models) is to obtain thermochemistry, including for reactions in which bonds are made or broken and including activation energies.

A number of thermochemical recipes or combinations of different quantum chemical methods have been formulated to reproduce experimental heats of formation to within 4-8 kJ/mol. (Except for very simple molecules, experimental heats are seldom more accurate than this.) G3(MP2) is the simplest of the recipes that have been formulated. It reproduces experimental heats of formation for a wide variety of small molecules to within 6 kJ/mol (mean absolute error), with only a small number of systems showing errors twice this amount. The problem with G3(MP2) is its large computational cost, which limits the size of systems that can be dealt with. G3(MP2) may easily be applied to molecules comprising up to ten heavy (non-hydrogen) atoms, but applications to molecules comprising fifteen or more heavy atoms will generally not be practical.

Three different energies are required in the G3(MP2) recipe:

- $E_A$ MP2/6-31G* using the MP2/6-31G* equilibrium geometry
- $E_B$ MP2/6-311++G(2df, 2p) using the MP2/6-31G* equilibrium geometry
- $E_C$ QCISD(T)/6-31G* using the MP2/6-31G* equilibrium geometry

These are combined in order to take into account both the effects of increased basis set size and of electron correlation beyond the MP2 level. Note, that the two effects are treated independently in order to avoid having to perform a QCISD(T) calculation using a large basis set.

$$E = E_A + (E_B - E_A) + (E_C - E_A)$$

Two corrections are needed to bring the calculated energy in line with what is actually measured experimentally: a correction for zero-point energy; $E_{\text{zero-point}}$, and a correction to the enthalpy (energy) to account for finite temperature (298K), $H(T)$.

$$E_{\text{zero-point}} = -\frac{1}{2} h \sum \nu_i$$

$$\Delta H(T) = H_{\text{trans}}(T) + H_{\text{rot}}(T) + \Delta H_{\text{vib}}(T) + RT$$

$$H_{\text{trans}}(T) = \frac{3}{2} RT$$

$$H_{\text{rot}}(T) = \frac{3}{2} RT \text{ (RT for a linear molecule)}$$

$$\Delta H_{\text{vib}}(T) = H_{\text{vib}}(T) - H_{\text{vib}}(T) - H_{\text{vib}}(0)$$

$$= Nh \sum \frac{\nu_i}{(e^{\nu_i/kT} - 1)}$$
h is Planck’s constant, k is the Boltzmann constant, R is the gas constant and N is Avogadro’s number. Both zero-point and temperature corrections require vibrational frequencies. These are obtained from Hartree-Fock/6-31G* calculations and require the corresponding equilibrium geometry.

To summarize, the G3(MP2) recipe requires two equilibrium geometry calculations (at HF/6-31G* and MP2/6-31G*), a HF/6-31G* frequency calculation, a MP2/6-311++G (2df, 2p) energy calculation and a QCISD(T)/6-31G* energy calculation. The QCISD(T) calculation dominates with increasing molecular size. Next most costly is the MP2/6-31G* geometry optimization, although both the large basis set MP2 energy and the HF/6-31G* frequency may be significant.

T1 is a simplified recipe based on G3(MP2) and intended to closely reproduce G3(MP2) heats of formation. It eliminates the QCISD(T)/6-31G* energy calculation ($E_C$), the zero-point energy calculation ($E_{\text{zero-point}}$) and the temperature correction to the enthalpy ($\Delta H(T)$), and replaces the large basis set MP2 energy calculation ($E_B$) with a dual-basis-set RI-MP2 calculation, where G3MP2large is the large basis set (the same basis set that is used in the G3(MP2) recipe) and 6-311G* is the small basis set. To compensate, an empirical correction based on the Hartree-Fock and RI-MP2 energies and Mulliken bond orders is introduced. This follows from a linear regression analysis involving G3(MP2) heats of formation for ≈1,050 molecules. T1 uses HF/6-31G* equilibrium geometries, instead of MP2/6-31G* geometries.

An automated procedure has been developed to locate the best (lowest heat of formation) conformer, or at least a conformer that is very close to the best. This involves four steps: (i) examine up to 1,000 conformers using a restricted systematic search procedure and the MMFF molecular mechanics model; (ii) obtain equilibrium geometries for (up to) the six best conformers, making certain to exclude duplicate conformers and conformers that are nearly the same using the HF/6-31G* model; (iii) perform (up to) two T1 calculations on the two best HF/6-31G* structures; (iv) select the lower energy T1 conformer. The default numbers of structures examined in the second and third steps (six and two, respectively) may be altered by keywords typed into the Options box (Appendix D).

* Note, that the expression for $\Delta H_{\text{vib}}(T)$ goes to RT instead of 1/2 RT as $\nu_i$ goes to zero. This requires that contributions that would exceed 1/2 RT be set to 1/2 RT.
Except for semi-empirical methods and for thermochemical recipes, either restricted or unrestricted scf methods may be used. The former restricts paired electrons to the same orbital, whereas the latter allows the electrons to occupy different orbitals. The default (singlets with restricted methods and non-singlets with unrestricted methods) may be overridden using the Scf keyword from the Options box (Appendix D). Semi-empirical methods and thermochemical recipes are limited to the default settings.

**Basis Sets**

Except for molecular mechanics and semi-empirical methods and for thermochemical recipes, a basis set needs to be specified. Menus provide a number of choices.* For Hartree-Fock methods:

The 3-21G basis set for second-row and heavier main-group elements incorporates a set of d-type functions. While these are not occupied in the atomic ground state, they have been found necessary for proper description of bonding in molecules. 6-311++G (2df,2p) uses the 6-311++G (3d2f,2p) basis set for second-row elements.

The combination of a method, for example, B3LYP, and a basis set, for example, 6-31G*, constitutes a theoretical model or more simply a model. The nomenclature is to separate method and basis set by a “/”, for

* A number of other basis sets are available, and may be entered directly into the Options box: These include the Pople 6-31G or 6-311G basis sets followed by: (idjf) or (idjf, kpld) where i is the number of sets of d functions on non-hydrogen atoms, j is the number of sets of f functions on non-hydrogen atoms, k is the number of s functions on hydrogen atoms, and l is the number of sets of p functions on hydrogen atoms. If 0 eliminate p, d, f; if 1 eliminate the number; 6-31G or 6-311G with “+” or “++” inserted before G; cc-pVDZ, cc-pVQZ and cc-PV5Z.
example, B3LYP/6-31G*. By convention, specification of Hartree-Fock (HF) as a method is optional. That is, specification of basis set alone refers to Hartree-Fock models, for example, both HF/6-31G* and 6-31G* refer to combination of the Hartree-Fock method and the 6-31G* basis set. Methods without basis sets, for example, MMFF (molecular mechanics) and PM3 (semi-empirical) are themselves models.

**Pseudopotentials**

Pseudopotentials are employed only where all-electron basis sets are unavailable, and are used in conjunction with all-electron basis sets for elements where they are available. This is primarily for elements heavier than Kr, most importantly fourth-row main-group elements and second and third-row transition metals. For example, a B3LYP/6-31G* calculation on rutherium ethylene tetracarbonyl would employ a pseudopotential only for rutherium and the all-electron 6-31G* basis set for hydrogen, carbon and oxygen. The overall method is referred to as B3LYP/6-31G*. Pseudopotentials pertain to Hartree-Fock, density functional, MP2 and advanced correlated calculations only, but not to RI-MP2 calculations or calculations using the STO-3G and 3-21G basis sets.

**Solvent**

A solvent is specified for Hartree-Fock and density functional calculations by replacing *vacuum* in the menu to the right of *in* by water or one of a selection of common organic solvents.*

*Other solvents are available and can be entered via the Solvent keyword in the Options box.*
the SM8 model. This has been parameterized to reproduce experimental energies of solvation and related quantities. It has not been parameterized to reproduce equilibrium geometries and properties other than the energy, and there is no solid calibration of its success or failure for anything other than energy. It should be used with caution.

The cost of SM8 in terms of computation time is roughly equal to that of an energy calculation. Therefore, solvated Hartree-Fock and density functional energy calculations are twice as costly as the corresponding calculation in vacuum while geometry calculations are roughly 30% more costly.

If checked, **Dual Basis** signifies that a Hartree-Fock, density functional, MP2 or RI-MP2 energy equilibrium and transition-state geometry calculations with the 6-311+G**, 6-311++G**, 6-311++G (2df, 2p), or cc-pVTZ basis set will be approximated by a calculation in which scf convergence is first achieved using the smaller 6-311G* basis set and then corrected pertubatively for the effects of basis set extension. Other combinations of small and large basis sets may be specified under **Options** (see discussion following). Use of dual basis has only a small effect on calculated relative energies, but can reduce the cost of large-basis-set energy calculations by two to ten times (depending on the choice of the small and large basis sets). A dual basis set is employed for calculations with the T1 thermochemical recipe.

**Start from (Energy, Equilibrium Geometry)**

Energy and equilibrium geometry calculations (only) from one model may be preceded by equilibrium geometry calculations at another (simpler) model. Choices depend on the model:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>Molecular Mechanics</strong></th>
<th><strong>Semi-Empirical</strong></th>
<th><strong>Hartree-Fock</strong></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>not applicable</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

---

Chapter 17

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Density Functional, Møller-Plesset, Advanced Correlated, Thermochemical Recipes

Selection of **MMFF conformer** or **MMFFaq conformer** signifies that geometry optimization will follow a search for the lowest-energy conformer. These lead to an additional menu specifying the level of geometry optimization.

**Molecular Mechanics, Semi-Empirical** not applicable

**Hartree-Fock**

**Density Functional, Møller-Plesset, Advanced Correlated, Thermochemical Recipes**

**Maximum (Equilibrium Conformer, Conformer Distribution)**

**Maximum Conformers Examined** sets a maximum for the number of possible conformers that will be considered both for **Equilibrium Conformer** and **Conformer Distribution** tasks. Note, that if a systematic search has been requested (**SearchMethod** keyword; **Appendix D**) this invokes an algorithm whereby systematic conformers are randomly eliminated in order to enforce the conformer limit.

**Maximum Conformers Kept** sets a maximum for the number of conformers returned at the end of a **Conformer Distribution** task. It must be smaller or equal to the number of conformers examined.

**Subject to**

**Spartan** allows calculations to be carried out in the presence of geometrical constraints or with atoms which have been frozen in place. In addition, **Spartan** attempts to make use of symmetry.

If **checked**, **Constraints** signifies use of any previously defined constraints on distances, angles and dihedral angles.
into equilibrium and transition-state geometry optimization, conformation searching and generation of energy profiles. Does not apply to energy calculation, conformer library generation or similarity analysis. See Constrain Distance, Constrain Angle and Constrain Dihedral under the Geometry menu (Chapter 15) for information about constraining geometrical parameters.

NOE data are not treated as constraints, but rather as post-calculation filters in establishing conformer distributions.

If checked, Frozen Atoms signifies that the coordinates of any atoms that have previously been frozen will not be moved during equilibrium and transition-state geometry optimization, conformation searching and generation of energy profiles. Does not apply to energy calculation, conformer library generation or similarity analysis. See Freeze Center under the Geometry menu (Chapter 15) for information about freezing atoms. See also discussion in Chapter 19 regarding the freezing of heavy atoms in structures resulting from a search of the Cambridge Structural Database.

If checked, Symmetry signifies that molecular symmetry is to be employed wherever possible to simplify the calculation. By default Symmetry is checked.

Compute

Entries under this section request calculation of infrared, Raman, NMR and UV/visible spectra as well as a variety of descriptors used in QSAR analyses.

IR

If checked, calculates vibrational frequencies and infrared intensities together with the corresponding vibrational modes. These are available in the output (Output under the Display menu; Chapter 18). Thermodynamic properties (enthalpy, entropy, heat capacity and Gibbs energy) are available from the Thermodynamics tab of the Molecule Properties dialog accessible from Properties under the Display menu (Chapter
18). Vibrational modes may be animated and an IR spectrum displayed from the IR dialog accessible from Spectra under the Display menu (Chapter 18). Second derivatives required for frequency calculation are evaluated analytically for molecular mechanics, semi-empirical, Hartree-Fock and density functional models, but involves numerical differentiation of analytical gradients for RI-MP2 and MP2 models. This is much more costly in terms of computation. Frequency calculations for higher-order correlated models are not available.

**Raman**

If checked, calculates Raman intensities (IR must also be checked in order for vibrational frequencies to be available.) The Raman spectrum may be displayed from the Raman dialog accessible from Spectra under the Display menu (Chapter 18).

**NMR**

If checked, calculates NMR chemical shifts. These are then available in the output (Output under the Display menu; Chapter 18) as well as from the Atom Properties dialog (accessible from Properties under the Display menu; Chapter 18) and as atom labels (Configure... under the Model menu; Chapter 14). $^{13}$C (proton decoupled) and $^1$H (shifts only) spectra from Hartree-Fock or density functional calculations may be displayed from the NMR Spectra dialog accessible from Spectra under the Display menu (Chapter 18)**. DEPT spectra may also be displayed ($^{13}$C spectra in which carbons with one or three attached protons point up, carbons with two attached protons point down and quaternary carbons are absent). Finally, 2D COSY (proton vs. proton) and HSQC and HMBC

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* Note that the linear harmonic oscillator approximation incorrectly leads to a vibrational contribution to the entropy that goes to $\infty$ as frequency goes to 0. Vibrational entropy contributions from frequencies below 300 cm$^{-1}$ should be treated with caution.

** Chemical shifts for other nuclei are available in the Output dialog (Output under the Display menu) and may also be attached as labels (Configure... under the Model menu). All chemical shifts are given relative to standard compounds, for example, TMS in the case of both proton and carbon. Standards are listed in Appendix L.
(proton vs $^{13}$C) spectra may be displayed from the dialog. $^{13}$C chemical shifts calculated from the B3LYP/6-31G* have been empirically corrected for local topology (numbers and kinds of directly-bonded atoms), and $^{13}$C shifts calculated from the EDF2/6-31G* model have been corrected using a more elaborate scheme involving both topology and bond orders to neighboring atoms. Corrections for other quantum chemical models and for proton chemical shifts are not available. Experience suggests that uncorrected $^{13}$C shifts are not sufficiently accurate to be useful for NMR spectra prediction, but that corrected shifts are generally successful in this regard. Uncorrected shifts are available in the printed output. Line intensities are assumed to be proportional to the number of equivalent carbons or hydrogens. HH and CH coupling constants are not calculated, but are estimated empirically from the molecular geometry.

**UV/vis**

If *checked*, specifies that a series of excited-state energy calculations will be performed (following a ground-state calculation), state-to-state energy differences will be reported in, and if desired a UV/visible spectrum will be displayed from the UV/vis Spectra dialog accessible from Spectra under the Display menu (Chapter 18). The default number of excited states is 6, but may be changed using the UV States keyword from the Options box (Appendix D). UV/visible spectra calculations are available for Hartree-Fock models (CIS for the excited state) and density functional models (time-dependent density functional theory for the excited state).

**QSAR**

If *checked*, specifies calculation of a number of QSAR descriptors that would not otherwise be available. These include descriptors based on the electron density surface, the
electrostatic potential map and the local ionization potential map, as well as polarizability and logP.*

**Total Charge**

Total charge. The default setting, **Neutral**, may be changed either by **clicking** on \( \equiv \) to the right of the box, and selecting **Cation**, **Anion**, etc. from the menu which appears, or by replacing any menu entry by a numerical value. **Total Charge** is ignored for molecular mechanics calculations.

**Multiplicity**

Spin multiplicity (number of unpaired electrons). The default setting, **Singlet**, may be changed either by **clicking** on \( \equiv \) to the right of the box, and selecting instead **Doublet** or **Triplet** from the menu which appears, or by replacing any menu entry by a numerical value. Multiplicity is 1 for singlets (no unpaired electrons), 2 for doublets (one unpaired electron), 3 for triplets (two unpaired electrons), 4 for quartets (three unpaired electrons), etc. **Multiplicity** is ignored for molecular mechanics calculations.

**Print**

If **checked**, writes the quantity to the output window. Text output may be seen by selecting **Output** from the **Display** menu (Chapter 18) and printed by first selecting the output dialog and then selecting **Print Output** from the **File** menu (Chapter 12). Additional printing may be requested from the **Options** box (see discussion following).

**Orbitals & Energies**

If **checked**, writes the orbitals and energies to the output. Orbital energies are also available in the spreadsheet (Chapter 18). An orbital energy diagram is available from **Orbital Energies** under the **Display** menu (Chapter 18).

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Thermodynamics

If checked, writes thermodynamic quantities to the output. Requires that vibrational frequencies (IR under Compute) have been calculated. Selected thermodynamic quantities are also available in the spreadsheet (Spreadsheet under the Display menu; Chapter 18).

Vibrational Modes

If checked, writes vibrational frequencies and modes to the output. Requires that IR under Compute have been calculated.

Charges & Bond Orders

If checked, writes Mulliken, natural and electrostatic-fit charges and Millikan and Löwdin bond orders to the output. Note that Mulliken and natural charges from semi-empirical models are identical. Atomic charges are also available from the Atom Properties dialog (accessible from Properties under the Display menu; Chapter 18), in the spreadsheet (Spreadsheet under the Display menu; Chapter 18) and as atom labels (Configure... under the Model menu; Chapter 14). Mulliken and Löwdin bond orders are available from the Bond Properties dialog (accessible from Properties under the Display menu; Chapter 18). Atomic charges and bond orders are not available for calculations using advanced correlated models or for thermochemical recipes.

Options

Program options may be specified using keywords entered into the Options box. Keywords may be either single words or expressions. Keyword=N indicates an integer argument, and keyword=F indicates a real argument. Appendix D contains a listing of commonly-used keywords.

Converge

If checked, invokes procedures to assist in convergence of quantum chemical calculations. May lead to an increase in computation time.
Similarity

*Spartan* provides a procedure to assess and quantify the similarity of one or more molecules in a document to one or more molecules in one or more different documents. Similarity may either be based on molecular structure (geometry) or on chemical function descriptors (CFD’s). *Spartan* also assesses the similarity of one or more pharmacophores in a document to one or more molecules in one or more different documents.

Three different similarity analysis modes are available, depending on the **template** (the selected document in the graphical user interface) and the **library** (one or more different documents specified in the **Calculations** dialog).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>template</th>
<th>library</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>pharmacophores</td>
<td>molecular structures for which CFD’s are assigned on-the-fly</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>molecular structures</td>
<td>molecular structures</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CFD’s from molecular structures</td>
<td>molecular structures for which CFD’s are assigned on-the-fly</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Two types of libraries are supported for molecular structures (and CFD’s generated on-the-fly from molecular structures). In the first, each entry represents a single molecule. In the second, each entry represents a selection of different conformers of a single molecule and spanning all possible shapes that the molecule may take on. The latter are generated using **Conformer Library** under the **Calculate** menu (see discussion earlier in this chapter), and *may only be used as library entries in similarity analysis and not as templates*.

Of the three similarity analysis modes, only the second makes direct use of molecular structures (selected atomic centers for the molecules in the template) as a similarity measure. The other two make use of CFD’s generated (and optionally edited) for the template, and generated on-the-fly in the library. Selection of structure or CFD as the basis of similarity measure must be explicitly stated (see discussion following).
Seven different chemical function descriptors (CFD’s) are recognized by the similarity analysis procedure, the first six of which are attributes of a molecule while the seventh derives from knowledge of a molecule bound to a protein or nucleic acid.

hydrophobe (sterically crowded region)
aromatic hydrophobe (aromatic ring)
hydrogen-bond donor
hydrogen-bond acceptor
positive ionizable site
negative ionizable site
excluded volume

Discussion of CFD types has already been provided (see CFD’s under the Model menu; Chapter 14).

The individual CFD’s for molecules in the template (only) may either be used or ignored in the similarity procedure. This is specified from Set Similarity Centers under the Geometry menu (Chapter 15). The CFD Properties dialog (accessible from Properties under the Display menu; Chapter 18) allows for changing or extending the definition of a CFD For example, the nitrogen in a dimethylamino group might initially be assigned as a hydrogen bond acceptor CFD, but could be changed to a positive ionizable site (as such a center could become positively-charged at biological pH) or could be extended to cover both possibilities.

*Spartan* assumes that any chiral molecules in a library are unresolved (they comprise an equal mixture of enantiomers). By default, similarity comparisons are carried out on both the library molecules as they are stored and (if the molecules are chiral) on their mirror images. The default procedure may be overridden (providing comparisons only to the stored molecules) by way of the SingleEnantiomer keyword entered in the Options box. See discussion later in this chapter and also Appendix D.

Note that only a single enantiomer of a chiral template molecule is considered. If comparisons involving both enantiomers are desired, the second enantiomer must be added to the query.
Selection of **Similarity** from the **Calculate** menu with either a molecule or pharmacophore (list of molecules/pharmacophores) leads to a dialog for setting up a similarity analysis.

One or more libraries need to be identified. This is accomplished by *clicking* on the **Add Library...** button, and gives rise to a file browser. Once selected, *clicking* on **Open** adds the library to the list of templates. A library may be deleted from the list by *clicking* on its name in the list and *clicking* on the **Remove Selected** button at the bottom of the dialog. **Shift** and **Ctrl** keys function in the usual manner in both library addition and removal.

Prior to starting a similarity analysis, it is necessary to select either **structure** or **CFD** from the **Use** menu near the bottom of the **Calculations** dialog.

Similarity analysis is most valuable where the template molecule is conformationally flexible, and it is not apparent which (if any) of the different shapes it adopts might match a particular target in a library. It becomes indispensable where the target is also flexible and its conformation is not established. Here, the process must be repeated for every template conformer-target conformer pair, that is, thousands or tens of thousands of times.

This process can be shortened if the purpose is simply to identify which target molecules a particular template molecule might match, irrespective of conformer. In this case, the first good match concludes the analysis, and the user is left with the knowledge that template and target can be made to match (together with an example of a match).
The similarity algorithm incorporated in Spartan attempts to examine template-target pairs that are most likely to lead to matches before examining pairs that are less likely. It also allows early termination upon finding a single good match, or a user-specified number of good matches*. Taken together, these can lead to one or two orders of magnitude speedup in the analysis.

* Criteria for early termination are specified using program options. See Similarity Analysis Options in Appendix D.

Global Calculations

If checked, signifies that settings in the Calculations dialog are to be applied to all molecules in the document.

The Calculations dialog may be exited by clicking on Submit, Cancel or OK at the bottom right of the dialog, or on ❌ at the top. (Submit and OK are not available if the job is already executing.) Clicking on OK or on Submit overwrites any previous information. Additionally, Submit enters the job in the execution queue (see discussion later this chapter). Clicking on Cancel or on ❌ exits the Calculations dialog without saving any changes.

Surfaces and Property Maps

Spartan allows graphical display of the HOMO and LUMO among other molecular orbitals, the electron density, the spin density for molecules with unpaired electrons, the electrostatic potential, and the local ionization potential.

The electron density is the number of electrons found at a point in space. It is the quantity measured in an X-ray diffraction experiment that is then used to locate atomic positions, that is, most electrons are closely associated with atoms. While the electron density is non-zero everywhere, it is possible to define surfaces of constant density. The most important of these contains most of a molecule’s electrons and that roughly corresponds to a space-filling model, that is, a van der Waals surface. We will refer to this as the electron density. It is interesting because it reveals overall molecular size and shape and demarks the steric barrier seen by encroaching molecules. Another important surface, that we will refer to as the bond density, contains fewer electrons in total and demarks atomic connectivity.
The **spin density** is the difference in the number of electrons of $\alpha$ and $\beta$ spin at a point in space. It indicates the location of the unpaired electron in a radical or unpaired electrons in a triplet or higher multiplicity state.

The **electrostatic potential** is the energy of interaction of a positive charge with a molecule. This assumes a fixed electron distribution for the molecule. It represents a balance between repulsive interactions involving the positively-charged nuclei and attractive interactions involving the negatively-charged electrons. Regions where the balance tips toward attraction are said to be electron rich (basic) and subject to attack by electrophiles, while regions where the balance tips toward repulsion are said to be electron poor (acidic) and subject to attack by nucleophiles. Electron-rich regions such as lone pairs are typically located outside the van der Waals surface. As such, they may be easily identified by constructing a surface of negative (attractive) electrostatic potential. While interesting electron-poor areas such as acidic hydrogens also lie outside the van der Waals surface, the electrostatic potential is also positive (repulsive) throughout the region inside this surface.

The **local ionization potential** indicates the ease or difficulty of electron removal (ionization). Like the negative regions of the electrostatic potential, regions of low local ionization potential are likely to be subject to attack by electrophiles.

Note that neither of the last two quantities are experimental observables, although all relate to quantities that can be given clear chemical interpretation.

Additionally, any one of the quantities listed above (except the electron density) may be mapped onto any surface (except a molecular orbital surface). In practice, the only maps to have received widespread attention are those based on the electron density surface (depicting overall molecular size and shape). Most common are the electrostatic potential map, the local ionization potential map and the LUMO map.

The **electrostatic potential map** paints the value of the electrostatic potential onto an electron density surface. By convention, colors toward red depict negative potential, while colors toward blue depict positive potential, and colors in between (orange, yellow, green) depict intermediate values of the potential. Thus, an electrostatic potential map for $p$-**tert**-butylphenol will show oxygen to be red, its attached (acidic)
hydrogen to be blue, the π faces of benzene to be orange or yellow and the tert-butyl group to be green.

The main advantages of this presentation relative to separate electron density and electrostatic potential surfaces are its clarity and its compactness. The main disadvantage is that it provides information only about the contact surface and does not reveal how far electron-rich and electron-poor areas extend beyond the surface.

An alternative to an electrostatic potential map, referred to as an exposed electrostatic potential surface, is a composite of three different surfaces: an electron density surface depicting overall molecular size and shape, a negative electrostatic potential surface identifying electron-rich regions and a positive electrostatic potential surface identifying electron-poor regions. These surfaces need to be generated and then displayed simultaneously. The electron density may either be displayed as an opaque solid or as a transparent solid (in order that the molecular skeleton may be seen inside). The two potential surfaces are best represented as transparent solids, the negative surface colored red and the positive surface colored blue. The exposed electrostatic potential surface for p-tert-butyl phenol is shown on the next page.

Note that the exposed electrostatic potential surface provides the same information as the electrostatic potential map. Red areas in the map correspond to regions when the negative electrostatic potential surface is likely to protrude from the electron density while blue areas correspond to regions where the positive electrostatic potential surface is likely to stick out. There is broad similarity of this graphic to CFD representations discussed previously (see CFD’s under the Model menu in Chapter 14).
Hydrogen-bond acceptors and/or positive ionizable sites are associated with protruding negative potential surfaces, whereas hydrogen-bond donors and/or negative ionizable sites are associated with protruding positive potential surfaces.

The *local ionization potential map* paints the value of the local ionization potential onto an electron density surface. By convention, colors toward red indicate low ionization potential, while colors toward blue indicate high ionization potential. Thus, the local ionization potential map for aniline shows that the *ortho* and *para* ring positions have a lower ionization potential than the *meta* positions, consistent with the known directing ability of an amino group in electrophilic aromatic substitution.

![Local Ionization Potential Map](image)

The *LUMO map* paints the absolute value of the lowest-unoccupied molecular orbital (the LUMO) onto an electron density surface. By convention, colors near blue indicate high concentration of the LUMO, while colors near red indicate low concentration. Given that the LUMO designates space available for a pair of electrons, a LUMO map indicates where nucleophilic attack would likely occur. For example, a LUMO map for cyclohexenone shows concentration in two regions, one over the carbonyl carbon and the other over the β carbon, consistent with both carbonyl addition and Michael (conjugate) addition.

![LUMO Map](image)
The spin density map paints the value of the spin density onto an electron density surface. By convention, colors near blue indicate high concentration of spin density, while colors near red indicate low concentration. For example, a spin density map for the radical resulting from loss of hydrogen from 3,5-di-tert-butylhydroxytoluene (BHT) shows that the spin has delocalized from oxygen onto the ortho and para ring positions.

This radical would be expected to be particularly stable, which explains why BHT acts as an antioxidant (scavenging less favorable localized radicals).

All of these maps use an electron density surface and to delineate overall molecular size and shape. Not all regions on this surface are accessible and therefore available for interaction with their environment (or with an incoming reagent). Spartan allows these regions to be identified.*

Surfaces (including those underlying maps) connect points of equal value (they are isosurfaces), and may be displayed as an arrangement of dots, a mesh, or an opaque or translucent solid. Examples of graphical output in orthogonal projection are provided in Figure 17-1. Surfaces (and maps) may also be rendered in perspective (see Chapter 14) and in stereo (see Chapter 2).

Calculated quantities may also be displayed as two dimensional contour plots (slices). Unlike surfaces and maps, these can be translated, rotated and zoomed independently of the molecular skeleton. An example of a slice display is provided in Figure 17-1.

* A region on a density surface is designated as inaccessible if a sphere of radius 1.0 Å centered on a line normal to the surface and touching a point in the middle of the region, impinges on any other regions of the density surface. The sphere radius may be changed in the Settings Preferences dialog (Preferences under the Options menu; Chapter 20).
Figure 17-1: Examples of Graphical Displays Available in *Spartan*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Description</th>
<th>Image</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Frontier orbitals for a symmetry-allowed Diels-Alder reaction,</td>
<td><img src="image1.png" alt="Image" /></td>
<td>Space-filling model and electron density surface of cyclohexanone,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>showing interaction of the HOMO of 1,3-butadiene and the LUMO of ethylene.</td>
<td><img src="image2.png" alt="Image" /></td>
<td>showing overall molecular size and shape.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Electron density surface (0.08 electrons/au³) of transition structure for pyrolysis of ethyl formate,</td>
<td><img src="image3.png" alt="Image" /></td>
<td>Electrostatic potential surfaces (-40 kJ/mol) of trimethylamine (left) and dimethyl ether (right),</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>showing bonding in the transition state.</td>
<td><img src="image4.png" alt="Image" /></td>
<td>showing the lone pairs on nitrogen and oxygen, respectively.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Electron density slice for acetic acid dimer,</td>
<td><img src="image5.png" alt="Image" /></td>
<td>Simultaneous display of the LUMO and the electron density surfaces of cyclohexanone,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>showing hydrogen bonding.</td>
<td><img src="image6.png" alt="Image" /></td>
<td>showing accessibility for nucleophilic attack.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Several different surfaces, maps and slices may be simultaneously displayed. In addition, any of the usual structure models may be displayed along with the graphic. The total display can become very complex, and selective use of meshes and/or translucent solids (as opposed to opaque solids) may facilitate visualization.

Discussion of the utility of graphical models for describing molecular structure and chemical reactivity is provided in *Topics* available under the *Activities* menu and in *A Guide to Molecular Mechanics and Quantum Chemical Calculations*, provided as a PDF under the *Help* menu.

Selection of *Surfaces* from the *Setup* menu results in display of the *Surfaces* dialog.

This contains a box at the top for listing requested surfaces and property maps.

**Common Surfaces and Property Maps**

*Add* at the bottom of the dialog is used to specify a number of commonly-used graphical surfaces and property maps*. Clicking on it leads to a menu.

* The number of selections will increase if the molecule has unpaired electrons.
Selection of all but the last entry in the menu leads to a request for the analogous surface or map. This will be calculated at medium resolution unless a different resolution has been selected (see below). Additional surfaces and maps or the same surfaces or maps at different resolution may be requested by selecting More Surfaces... from the menu (or by clicking on More Surfaces... at the bottom of the Surfaces dialog). This leads to the Add Surfaces dialog that contains three menus and a check box:

Surface

Available surface types appear under the Surface menu.

*Density* portrays overall molecular size*, *density (bond) locates bonds, *HOMO{-}, HOMO, LUMO, LUMO{+}, SOMO** are molecular orbitals, *potential* is the electrostatic potential, *ionization* is the local ionization potential and *spin** is the spin density.

Unlike the molecular orbitals, the electron density and the electrostatic potential, the local ionization potential does not go to zero with increasing distance. This makes its use as a surface problematic.

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* In the case of molecular mechanics, the density will be based on van der Waals radii.
** These menu entries appear only for molecules with unpaired electrons.
Selection of HOMO{-} and LUMO{+} results in display of a box to decrement the HOMO and increment the LUMO. This allows any molecular orbital to be specified.

Slice designates that a plane will cut through the graphic defined by Property (see discussion following).

Property

Properties for maps appear in the Property menu.

Available properties are the molecular orbitals (HOMO{-}, HOMO, LUMO, LUMO{+}, SOMO*), the electrostatic potential (potential)**, the local ionization potential (ionization) and the spin density (spin)*. none indicates that no property is to be mapped onto the surface). As with Surface above, selection of HOMO{-} and LUMO{+} leads to a decrement (increment) box.

A Spin button will be displayed if Multiplicity (in the Calculations dialog) is set to a value other than Singlet, or if Scf=unrestricted has been specified in the Options box (Calculations dialog; see also Appendix D) and if HOMO{-}, HOMO, LUMO or LUMO{+} has been selected for Surface or for Property. Clicking on Spin toggles it between Alpha and Beta. Alpha designates that the molecular orbital either to be displayed as a surface or mapped as a property corresponds to α spin; Beta designates that the molecular orbital corresponds to β spin.

* These menu entries appear only for molecules with unpaired electrons.

** In the case of molecular mechanics, the electrostatic potential will be based on charges.
Resolution

Selection of surface resolution is from the Resolution menu.

Medium resolution generally is intended for routine work, low resolution is used to get rough images very quickly, while intermediate and high resolution may be employed to obtain publication quality graphics. Both calculation time and disk storage increase significantly with increasing resolution.

IsoValue

This allows a fixed isosurface to be generated in place of a three-dimensional grid of points (from which different isosurfaces, and/or slices can be constructed). Fixed isosurfaces are particularly attractive for property maps (that are generally based on a density surface representing molecular size and shape) as they require less computer time and disk storage. Note that a fixed density surface needs to be based on a specific isovalue (see below) and not on percentage enclosure of the total number of electrons.

Checking the box to the left of Fixed leads to display of the isovalue (0.002 electrons/au$^3$ in the case of density). This value may be changed prior to surface generation by editing the text box that appears to the right. Fixed may not be specified in conjunction with Slice as a Surface.

Following Surface, Property, Resolution and (optionally) spin selection, clicking on OK adds the requested graphic to the list and removes the (Add Surfaces) dialog. Clicking on Apply adds the requested graphic to the list but leaves the dialog on screen. Clicking on Cancel does not add a graphic to the list but removes the (Add Surfaces) dialog.

The process (clicking on Add..., surface and property selection, clicking on OK or Apply) may be repeated as required.

An existing graphic or a request for a graphic may be deleted from
the list by first highlighting (clicking on) it and then clicking on Delete.

**Global Surfaces**

If checked, **Global Surfaces** signifies that the requested surfaces will be calculated for all members of the list.

Only one copy of the **Surfaces** dialog may appear on screen, and any actions relate to the currently selected molecule. The dialog may be removed by clicking on ❌.

**Submit**

Following setup of a molecular mechanics or quantum chemical calculation, or a similarity analysis, as well as any requests for properties, spectra and/or graphical displays, the required calculations will begin when **Submit** is selected. If the job has not previously been named, selection of **Submit** triggers a request for a name. If the document being submitted comprises a single molecule and the molecule exists in the Spartan Molecular Database or the Spartan Spectra and Properties Database, the name in the database will be presented as a default name. Otherwise, the default name presented will be **spartan** for the first job and **spartanX** (X an integer starting with 1 for all successive jobs). After a name has been provided (or if a name already exists or if the default name is accepted) a dialog appears indicating that the job has actually been submitted.*

* The job is submitted to a job queue and will be submitted for execution only when released from this queue. See **Monitor** under the **Options** menu (Chapter 20) for discussion.

**Click** on **OK** to remove it. After a job has started, and until it has completed, all associated files will be designated read only.
In addition to the local (Windows, Macintosh or Linux) machine, Spartan’s computational codes may run on a remote (licensed) Linux server. The only exception is the similarity analysis code which must be run on the local machine. If remote submission has been set up (see Hosts from the Preferences dialog under the Options menu; Chapter 20), selection of Submit will also request a name for the destination machine.

Another dialog appears following completion of a calculation.

Click on OK to remove it.

Some types of jobs, including requests for a conformer distribution and an energy profile, lead to an additional document being created for each molecule in the original document. These new documents are named document.task.identifier where document is the name given to the original document, for example, Conf for a conformer distribution and Prof for energy profile, and identifier identifies the molecule inside the original document.

In the case where there is only one molecule in the original document, a query dialog is provided asking whether the resulting Spartan document is to be opened.
Chapter 18

The Display Menu

Functions available under the Display menu provide for text, dialog, spreadsheet and graphical displays following structure/property calculation, conformational analysis or similarity analysis. Functions are also available to query a variety of on-screen objects, display and compare IR, Raman, NMR and UV/visible spectra, animate vibrational motions, construct relationships among calculated properties or for a property between reactants and products of a chemical reaction, perform linear regression and prepare plots from spreadsheet data, display similarities between molecular structures and between molecular structures and pharmacophores and calculate reaction energies.

Output

Selection of Output opens a window.
A menu at the top left of the window selects the type of output.

**Output** provides normal output. **Verbose Output** contains more detailed output, but is eliminated upon normal completion unless **Keep Verbose** is checked in the **Setting Preferences** dialog (**Preferences** under the **Options** menu; **Chapter 20**). **CSD Reference** provides the literature reference for data retrieved from CSD. **Job Log** and **List Output** contain diagnostic information. The contents of the output window may be printed by right clicking inside it and selecting **Print** from the menu, or copied to the clipboard by right clicking inside it and selecting **Copy** from the menu. **Find...** and **Find Next** functions are also available from the contextual menu. An output window is associated with each document and pertains to the selected molecule. Several output windows may be open and may be closed by clicking on ✗ at the top right.

Output is not accessible for jobs that are executing or are in the execution queue. Output for jobs that execute locally may be viewed using the **Monitor** under the **Options** menu (**Chapter 20**), and the current structure (in a geometry or transition-state optimization) can be examined.

**Properties**

**Spartan** provides specialized dialogs for reporting (and in some cases changing) the properties of molecules, atoms, bonds, surfaces and constraints, and for changing default plot styles, limits and fitting functions, and for editing CFD’s and substituent libraries. Only one **Properties** dialog may be open, and this refers either to the selected molecule (**Molecule Properties**), or to the selected component (atom, bond, etc.) or attribute (spectra, graphical surface, substituent, etc.) of the selected molecule (**Atom Properties, Bond Properties, Surface Properties**, etc.), or to a plot (**Plot Properties, Curve Properties**, etc.), or fitting function (**Regression Properties**). Selection of a different molecule leads to the **Molecule Properties** dialog for that
molecule. Dialogs that refer to components/attributes of the (newly selected) molecule follow by clicking on the component/attribute.

Dialog selection operates in toggle mode, with the Molecule Properties dialog being in the neutral position. With the Molecule Properties dialog on screen, clicking on a component/attribute brings up the appropriate Properties dialog. For example, clicking on an atom brings up the Atom Properties dialog. Clicking on a different component/attribute brings up the appropriate Properties dialog. Clicking a second time on the same component reverts back to the Molecule Properties dialog.*

Most Properties dialogs have an associated Utilities or Style dialog. For example, associated with the Molecule Properties dialog is a Molecule Utilities dialog. These access additional information about the molecule and its components/attributes, or provide style and color controls. This is useful for highlighting (or dehighlighting) a particular molecule, component or attribute. Utilities/Style dialogs are reached by clicking on ▼ at the bottom right of the appropriate Properties dialog. Return to the Properties dialog follows from clicking on ▲ at the bottom right of the associated Utilities/Style dialog.

The Properties (or Utilities/Style) dialog may be removed from the screen by clicking on ❌.

Molecule Properties, QSAR Descriptors and Thermodynamics

The Molecular Properties dialog is divided into three displays Molecule, QSAR and Thermodynamics, controlled by tabs at the top left. Entries under the Molecule tab relate to common molecular properties that (if applicable to the selected level of calculation) are automatically calculated.

* The exception to this involves clicking on a graphical surface or property map, for example, clicking on a property map to obtain the value of the property at a particular surface location. Clicking a second time on the surface or map will report a new value of the property. Clicking on the background leads to the Molecule Properties dialog.
Molecule

These include the energy (in au), the heat of formation (in kJ/mol), or the sum of the strain energy and the intramolecular interaction energy (in kJ/mol) depending on the theoretical model, the energy (heat of formation, strain energy) corrected for an aqueous environment according to the SM5.4 model (in the same units as the non-corrected quantity), the HOMO and LUMO energies (in eV), the dipole moment (in debyes), the formula, the molecular weight (in amu), the point group, the predicted number of tautomers and the predicted number of conformers, and (if available) the experimental heat of formation (in kJ/mol), the heat of formation from the T1 thermochemical recipe (in kJ/mol) and the CAS number. These may be posted to the spreadsheet using the buttons, or dragged into the spreadsheet, into the formula editor (see Formulas in this chapter), or onto any of the dialogs associated with the Spartan Molecular Database or Spartan Spectra and Properties Database (see Open Database under the Search menu; Chapter 19). Label identifies the molecule in a document and appears in the first column of the spreadsheet (see Spreadsheet in this chapter). Conformer Library Entries is the number of entries in a conformer library (see discussion under Calculations from the Setup menu; Chapter 17). Finally, the dialog permits display of the dipole moment vector by checking the box to the right of Display Dipole Vector.
Entries under the **QSAR** tab provide additional properties, some of which may be particularly valuable in QSAR type analyses.

These include: the area, volume, polar surface area (PSA)* and ovality obtained from a space-filling model, and other structure-dependent indicators: LogP, polarizability and the number of hydrogen-bond donor (HBD) and acceptor sites (HBA).** All of these are provided automatically. Additional quantities based on the electron density surfaces as well as on electrostatic potential maps are also available: the accessible area, the polar area and accessible polar area corresponding to absolute values of the electrostatic potential greater than 75, 100 and 125 kJ/mol (selection is made by repeated **clicking** on ▶), the minimum and maximum values of the electrostatic potential (as mapped onto an electron density surface) and the minimum value of the local ionization potential (as mapped onto an electron density surface). These quantities need to be requested by checking **QSAR** inside the **Calculations** dialog (**Calculations** under the **Setup** menu; **Chapter 17**).

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* Polar surface area is defined as the area due to nitrogen and oxygen and any attached hydrogens. Polar surface areas corresponding to arbitrary alternative definitions are available for posting into the spreadsheet using the **PAREA** function. See **Table 18-3**.

** Counts of hydrogen-bond donors and acceptors and positive and negative ionizable sites derive from CFD assignments. These in turn follow from atomic connectivity together with special case designations for common organic functional groups. CFD’s assignments may be modified on a case-by-case basis using the **CFD Properties** dialog (**Properties** under the **Display** menu; this chapter).
Thermodynamics

Entries under the **Thermodynamics** tab provide the zero-point energy, the enthalpy, the constant volume heat capacity, the entropy and the Gibbs energy. Except for the zero-point energy, all depend on temperature. All require vibrational frequencies.

![Thermodynamics](image)

Molecule Utilities

*Clicking* on ▼ at the bottom right of the **Molecule Properties** dialog brings up the **Molecule Utilities** dialog (*clicking* on ▲ returns to the **Molecule Properties** dialog).

![Molecule Utilities](image)

**Notes** is reproduced in the output. Controls reset model color and style, add missing hydrogens and bonds, provide information about amino acids in polypeptides and about CFD’s, replace coordinates by standards based only on atomic connectivities, change enantiomers and reset default conformer selections.
Atom Properties

Selection of an atom with a Properties dialog on screen, or selection of Properties following selection of an atom, leads to the Atom Properties dialog.

This displays the element name and symbol, mass number (isotope), R/S chirality, Mulliken, electrostatic-fit and natural charges (in electrons), NMR chemical shifts (in ppm relative to an appropriate standard; see Appendix L). Charges and chemical shifts may be posted into the spreadsheet. The dialog also allows changing the element and/or the isotope and the default label.

For B3LYP/6-31G* and EDF2/6-31G* only, $^{13}\text{C}$ chemical shifts have been empirically corrected (see Appendix A). Corrections for the B3LYP/6-31G* model use only topological data and show an RMS error of 2.6 ppm. Corrections for the EDF2/6-31G* model use both topology and bond orders to neighboring atoms, and show an RMS error of 1.8 ppm. Uncorrected shifts from B3LYP/6-31G* and EDF2/6-31G* calculations show RMS errors of 5-6 ppm.

Check boxes allow freezing the atom (see Freeze Center in Chapter 15), and turning off (unchecked) its line in the NMR spectrum. Clicking on at the bottom right of the Atom Properties dialog brings up the Atom Style dialog (not shown). This contains controls for selecting atom color and changing model style. Clicking on at the bottom right of this dialog returns to the Atom Properties dialog.
**Bond Properties**

Selection of a bond with a *Properties* dialog on screen, or selection of *Properties* following selection of a bond leads to the *Bond Properties* dialog.

![Bond Properties dialog](image)

This displays the bond length, bond type (and allows changing the bond type) and Mulliken and Löwdin bond orders (the latter are used in NMR shift corrections).

*Clicking* on at the bottom right of the *Bond Properties* dialog brings up the *Bond Style* dialog (not shown). This contains controls for changing bond color. *Clicking* on at the bottom right of this dialog returns to the *Bond Properties* dialog.

**Constraint Properties**

Selection of a constraint marker with a *Properties* dialog on screen, or selection of *Properties* following selection of a constraint marker, leads to the *Constraint Properties* dialog (not shown). This allows setting the value of a constraint, posting it to the spreadsheet and changing the default constraint label. *Checking Profile* leads to an expanded dialog.
This allows specifying a sequence of constraints for an energy profile (see Calculations... under the Setup menu; Chapter 15). The value of the starting constraint is given in the lefthand box to the right of Value, and the value of the ending constraint is given in the righthand box to the right of Value. The number of steps in the profile is given in the box to the right of Steps. Initially, the numbers in both boxes to the right of Value will be the same, and Steps will be set to 1. These may be altered by typing the desired numbers into the appropriate boxes and then pressing the Enter key (return key on Mac). This functionality may also be accessed from Constrain Distance (Angle, Dihedral) under the Geometry menu (Chapter 15). An energy profile may involve constraints on more than one geometrical variable (changed in lock-step with one another). In this case, the constraint ranges for the individual variables need to be selected. If Global Steps is checked, the independent variables are moved in concert, meaning that the number of steps must and will be the same for each variable. If unchecked, the variables are moved independently and the number of steps may differ from one to another. In this case, the total number of steps in the profile is the product of the number of steps for each variable.

Clicking on at the bottom right of the Constraint Properties dialog brings up the Constraint Style dialog (not shown). This contains controls for selecting the color of the constraint marker. Clicking on returns to the Constraint Properties dialog.
Point and Plane Properties

Selection of a user-defined point or plane with a Properties dialog on screen, or selection of Properties from the Display menu following selection of a point or plane, leads to the Point Properties or Plane Properties dialog (not shown). These allow changing point or plane labels. Clicking on ☐ at the bottom right of the Point (Plane) Properties dialog leads to the Point (Plane) Style dialog (not shown), with controls for adjusting point (plane) colors. Clicking on ☐ returns to the Point (Plane) Properties dialog.

Surface Properties

Selection of a graphical display with a Properties dialog on screen, or selection of Properties following selection of a graphical display, leads to the Surface Properties dialog.

This allows changing display style (Style), selecting between continuous and banded displays and, in the case of the latter, setting the number of bands, specifying isovalue (and for electron density surfaces), percentage of the electrons contained inside the surface, turning on mapped properties, setting the property range of maps, and changing default surface labels. The dialog reports (and optionally posts) the area (Area), volume (Vol) and accessible area (Acc. Area) of the surface, the polar area (P-Area) and accessible

* A region on a density surface is designated as inaccessible if a sphere of radius 1.0 Å centered on a line normal to the surface and touching a point in the middle of the region, impinges on any other regions of the surface. The default radius (Accessible Area Radius) may be changed in the Settings Preferences dialog (Preferences under the Options menu; Chapter 20).
polar area (Acc. P-Area) of an electrostatic potential map*, the value of the mapped property at the cursor position (Val)** and the area enclosed in a selected band (Selected Area). The dialog also allows posting of the minimum and maximum value of the mapped property. If checked, Legend displays a color scale. If checked, Selected Area outlines the band containing the cursor. If checked, Display Accessible Markers reveals regions that are inaccessible. If checked, Global Surfaces designates that the settings apply to all molecules in the document.

The dialog also provides for up to three independent clipping planes which operate in toggle mode. Following selection, a plane may be rotated, translated or zoomed with the usual mouse operations.

Where the graphic is a slice, the Slice Properties dialog appears.

![Slice Properties dialog](image)

This contains controls to set the range of the property and to change the number of contours displayed and to the type of slice (plane, cylinder or sphere). The value of the property at the cursor position is displayed and, together with the minimum and maximum values of the property, may be posted to the spreadsheet. Check boxes allow for a legend, a frame around the slice and for a grid.

Clicking on at the bottom right of the Surface Properties dialog brings up the Surface Style dialog (not shown). This contains

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* This is defined as that part of the surface area for which the absolute value of the electrostatic potential is > 100 kJ/mol. The cutoff (Polar Area Range) may be changed in the Settings Preferences dialog (Preferences under the Options menu; Chapter 20).

** To determine property value at another position click on it. To bring up the Molecule Properties dialog, click on the background.
controls for selecting surface color. Clicking on at the bottom right of this dialog returns to the Surface Properties dialog.

**Curve and Plot Properties**

Plots created either using data from the spreadsheet or from spectra may be edited using a set of closely-related dialogs. These refer to curves (a relationship between variables), and plots (a set of relationships that share variables).

Selection of a plot frame with a Properties dialog on screen, or selection of Properties following selection of a plot frame, leads to the Plot Properties dialog (XY plot case shown).

The X Axis menu and the Y Axes list duplicate functionality under the Plots dialog (see Plots... later in this chapter) and allow specification of a molecular property to serve as the X axis of the plot and one or more properties to serve as the Y axes. The contents of the Y-Axes list depends on selection from the Type menu: By Molecule and Free Form reference explicit entries in the spreadsheet (see discussion later in this chapter) while By Atom references Spartan's file of atom-based properties (the Property Archive). Initial selections may be altered as desired. In addition, the aspect ratio of the plot may be changed, the numerical scale of the X (horizontal) axis turned on or off, a grid added to the plot, and the default label changed. Magnifier brings up a frame with which to magnify selected areas of a plot. The magnifier may be positioned by clicking on the frame and then moving the mouse with the right button depressed. Magnifier selection results in
the **Plot Magnifier Properties** dialog (not shown) with a single control to alter the width. The magnifier may be removed from the plot using **Delete** (**Build** menu) or the **Delete** key.

The range along the X (horizontal) axis may be altered from default settings by **clicking** on the **X-Axis** tab at the left of the dialog. This brings up the **Plot X-Axis Properties** dialog (**clicking** on the **Plot** tab returns to the **Plot Properties** dialog).

![Plot Properties dialog](image)

To alter the range, edit the values inside the **Range** boxes, and **press** the **Enter** key (**return** key on Mac). Controls are also available to alter the number of tic marks on the X axis, the label size and precision and change the scale from linear to logarithmic.

**Clicking** on [ ] at the bottom right of either the **Plot Properties** or **Plot X-Axis Properties** dialog brings up the **Plot Style** dialog (not shown). This contains controls for selecting the color of the plot frame, as well as the label associated with the X axis. **Clicking** on [ ] at the bottom right of this dialog returns to either the **Plot Properties** or **Plot X-Axis Properties** dialog.

The **Style** menu in the **Plot Properties** dialog allows shifting between 2D (XY) and 3D (XYZ) plots. Selection of **XYZ Plot** leads to an extended **XYZ Plot Properties** dialog.
This is identical to the *XY Plot Properties* dialog, except that it includes an additional menu (*Y Axis*) from which one property needs to be selected. In addition, the *Y Axes* list in the *XY Plot Properties* dialog has been renamed to *Z Axes*.

Ranges along X and Y axes may be adjusted by clicking on *X-Axis* and *Y-Axis* tabs to the left of the dialog. This leads to the *Plot X-Axis* (*Plot Y-Axis*) *Properties* dialog (clicking on the *Plot* tab at the left of this dialog returns to the *Plot Properties* dialog). These are analogous to the (*Plot X-Axis Properties*) dialog discussed for XY plots.

Selection of an individual curve in a plot with a *Properties* dialog on screen, or selection of *Properties* from the *Display* menu following selection of an individual curve, leads to the *Curve Properties* dialog.

This allows changing the quantity that is plotted (*Axis*), providing a scale and error bars (obtained from the column in the spreadsheet designated in the *Error* menu) and turning clipping on. Controls
are available to designate the kind of markers for the data points, request marker labels, and designate the kind of fit to the data points and the line width of the fitting curve*. If checked, Focus marks the selected molecule on the curve.

The scale along the Y axis of an XY plot or Z axis of an XYZ plot may be altered from the default (minimum to maximum value of the Y or Z) by clicking on the Axis tab. This brings up the Curve Axis Properties dialog.

To alter the scale, type in new values inside the boxes underneath Range. You need to press the Enter key (return key on Mac) following each entry. Controls are also available to alter characteristics of the Y (XY plot) or Z axis (XYZ plot) labels.

Clicking on at the bottom right of either the Curve Properties or Curve Axis Properties dialog brings up the Curve Style dialog (not shown). This contains controls for selecting the color of the curve (and the label associated with the Y (or Z) axis). Clicking on at the bottom right returns to the original dialog.

Substituent Properties

Selection of a substituent icon with a Properties dialog on screen, or selection of Properties following selection of a substituent icon, leads to the Substituent Properties dialog.

* Fitting functions include linear, quadratic and cubic least square, a Fourier series, a Lorentzian or a Gaussian. The data points may also be connected by straight lines (point-to-point) or by a smooth curve (cubic spline) or be presented as a skyline. Finally, the fitting curve can be removed.
This allows substituent libraries already attached to a molecule to be edited, and the label on the substituent icon to be changed. It does not allow for attachment points to be reassigned. The dialog comprises a scroll box (listing the substituent names), a viewing window (showing a model of the substituent) and a label field.

To delete a substituent from the library, click on its name in the scroll box, then right click and select Delete from the menu that appears. To add a new substituent that has previously been copied to the clipboard, right click inside the scroll box and select Paste from the menu that appears. Note, that if the clipboard contains several molecules, all will be added to the substituent library. To add a substituent (or list of substituents) in a Spartan document to the library, right click inside the scroll box, select Append from the menu that appears and choose a document from the browser. Alternatively, drag the document that contains the substituent(s) from a window into the scroll box.

Clicking on at the bottom right of the Substituent Properties dialog brings up the Substituent Style dialog (not shown). This contains controls for selecting substituent (icon) color. Clicking on returns to the Substituent Properties dialog.

**CFD Properties**

Selection of a chemical function descriptor (CFD) or of an element of a pharmacophore with a Properties dialog on screen, or selection of Properties (Display menu) following selection of a CFD or pharmacophore element, leads to the CFD Properties dialog.
This allows changing the definition of the CFD, its label and the precision of the fit (the bigger the radius of the CFD, the less precise the fit). If checked, Global CFD specifies that CFD definitions will apply to all molecules in the document.*

Clicking on ☑ in the dialog brings up the CFD Style dialog (not shown). This contains controls for selecting CFD color. Clicking on ☑ in this dialog returns to the CFD Properties dialog.

Regression Properties

Following a linear regression analysis, a new row, labeled Fit1**, appears near the bottom of the spreadsheet. This contains information about the fit. Clicking on this line with a Properties dialog on screen, or selecting Properties (Display menu) after clicking on the line, leads to the Regression Properties dialog.

* This is generally applicable only where the molecules are conformers, or the CFD labels have been adjusted to associate positions on different molecules. Label reassignment is accomplished using the Atom Properties dialog (see discussion earlier in this chapter).

** More precisely, a row will be written for each fit, and labelled Fit1, Fit2, . . . .
This reports RMSD and $R^2$, as well as allows for changing what is to be fit (Fit) and what it is to be fit to (Using). The error statistics will immediately update.

“Selected” Style

The “Selected” Style dialog is accessed either by defining a selection box (see Mouse and Keyboard Operations in Chapter 2) with a Properties dialog on screen, or by selecting Properties from the Display menu after defining a selection box. This contains controls for changing the color and model type of whatever is included in the selection box.

Orbital Energies

Selection of Orbital Energies leads to the display of an orbital energy diagram (this assumes that a wavefunction is available). This comprises up to twelve occupied molecular orbitals and two unoccupied molecular orbitals, the highest-occupied (HOMO) and lowest-unoccupied (LUMO) being explicitly designated.

Clicking on an energy level in the diagram leads to display of the corresponding molecular orbital. This may be manipulated in the usual way and the display style altered (from the menu at the bottom right of the screen). Only one orbital at a time may be displayed.
Surfaces

This accesses the same dialog already described in Chapter 17.

Spectra

*Spartan* displays calculated IR, Raman, NMR and UV/visible spectra. (Spectra need to have been previously requested from the Calculations dialog under the Setup menu; Chapter 17.) In addition, it allows on-line access and display of experimental IR, NMR and UV/visible spectra from publicly available collections, facilitating comparison with calculated spectra. Calculated IR and Raman spectra may be fit to measured spectra, using a linear scaling parameter and a peak width parameter.*

Access to spectra display is via a series of tabbed dialogs (IR, Raman, NMR and UV/vis).

**IR, Raman** (these two dialogs are nearly identical and will be discussed together)

*Clicking* on the IR (Raman) tab leads to the IR Spectra (Raman Spectra) dialog. This displays the calculated and (if available) experimental infrared (Raman) spectra, and allows for animated display of the vibrational modes as well as for generation of a sequence of structures along a vibrational coordinate.

* While IR and Raman frequencies are the same and only the intensities are different, both the scaling and line-width parameters may differ in order to provide best fits to the respective experimental spectra.
At the left-hand side of the dialog is an ascending list of frequencies (in cm$^{-1}$) together with (infrared) intensities and symmetry labels. A frequency is selected for display (animation) by clicking on it. Clicking again deselects it (stops the animation).

The amplitude of vibrational motion (the maximum displacement away from equilibrium of any pair of atoms) may be changed from the default amplitude (0.5Å which is much larger than appropriate for vibrational motion at room temperature) by altering the contents of the box to the right of Amp at the lower right of the dialog. The default number of steps that make up the display (11) may be changed by altering the contents of the box to the right of Steps** at the lower right of the dialog.

**Clicking** on **Make List** creates an unnamed Spartan document containing a sequence of structures corresponding to motion along the selected vibrational mode. The original document is not closed and additional sequences (corresponding to different vibrations) can be created.

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* Imaginary frequencies, for example, corresponding to the reaction coordinate for a transition state, will appear first in the list, and will be designated by the letter $i$ in front of the frequency value.

** It is recommended that the number of steps be odd ensuring that the center point corresponds to the actual equilibrium or transition-state structure.
Note that the information required to produce vibrational motions (animations) and to construct lists of structures along different vibrational coordinates is not available as part of an entry in the Spartan Molecular Database. However, it is available as part of the entry in the Spartan Spectra and Properties Database (see discussion in Chapter 19).

The calculated spectrum may be drawn by clicking on **Draw Calculated** at the top right of the dialog (IR spectrum shown).

The experimental spectrum (if available) may be drawn on top of the calculated spectrum (or by itself) by clicking on **Draw Experimental** at the center right of the dialog (IR spectrum shown).

Finally, a reference spectrum (a spectrum shared by all molecules in the document; see discussion of the Spartan Infrared Database in Chapter 19) if available, may be displayed along with the calculated and/or experimental spectra by clicking on **Draw Reference**.

Draw operations for both calculated and experimental IR and Raman spectra, apply to all molecules in the document (not just the selected molecule). Note, however, that the reference spectrum is common to all molecules in the document.
Experimental IR spectra are accessed from the NIST (National Institute of Standards and Technology) website (http://webbook.nist.gov/chemistry). This comprises approximately 7,000 IR spectra, primarily for organic molecules. Spartan keeps an index to facilitate retrieval but the actual data are on the website. Alternatively, the user may supply a spectra file (see Appendix J). Selection (website vs. file) is made at the bottom right of the dialog. Global Spectra controls whether spectra access pertains to all molecules in the document (checked) or just the selected molecule (unchecked). Note that experimental spectra, once retrieved either on-line or from a file, are kept in the document (and need not be retrieved again if they are deleted). They can be removed from the document by clicking on the Reset button.

The default range for calculated, experimental and (for infrared only) reference IR and Raman spectra is from 4000 cm\(^{-1}\) to 500 cm\(^{-1}\). This corresponds to the range commonly measured and reported. This range may be changed by selecting Properties from the Display menu, clicking on the horizontal axis to bring up the Plot Properties dialog, clicking on the X Axis. tab at the left of the dialog and editing the values under Range. The spectrum is treated like any other graphical object, and may be translated and scaled using the appropriate mouse operations. It may not be rotated.

The calculated spectrum may be removed by clicking on Delete Calculated (that has replaced Draw Calculated) in the dialog. Similarly, the experimental spectrum (infrared only) may be removed by clicking on Delete Experimental (that has replaced Draw Experimental) and the reference spectrum may be removed by clicking on Delete Reference (that has replaced Draw Reference). The last spectrum (calculated, experimental or reference) removed will also cause removal of the plot axes. These operations apply to all molecules in the document (not just the selected molecule). An individual (calculated or experimental) spectrum or entire plot may also be removed by selecting Delete from the Build menu and then clicking on a spectrum or on the plot axes, respectively. Holding down the Delete key while clicking on the spectrum or plot axes has the same effect.
Calculated IR (Raman) frequencies exhibit systematic errors. Frequencies obtained from (limiting) Hartree-Fock models are typically 10-12% larger than measured frequencies, while frequencies obtained from density functional and MP2 models are typically 3-4% larger than measured frequencies. Systematic errors may be revealed (and quantified) by first simultaneously displaying calculated and experimental spectra and then scaling one of the spectra to provide a best visual fit. To scale the calculated spectrum, use the slider bar to the right of Scale near the top right of the dialog. This is limited in range (from 0.8 to 1.0). If it is necessary to scale outside this range, click on the spectra (not on an axis) to select and move the mouse up and down while simultaneously depressing the Shift and Alt keys (option on Mac) keys in addition to the right button. The scale factor (multiplying the frequency) will be displayed on the vertical axis. Scaling applies uniformly to all molecules in the list (not just the selected molecule).

A scaling factor may be applied to frequencies, and to all properties that make use of frequencies, prior to reporting using the FreqScale keyword typed into the Options box in the Calculations dialog (Calculations... under the Setup menu, Chapter 17).

A second slider bar marked Temp controls peak width. This is loosely connected with the temperature at which the experimental measurement is carried out. Low “temperature” (slider to the left) will produce sharp spikes, whereas high “temperatures” (slider to the right) will produce broad bands. The default setting is intended to give calculated spectra that broadly resemble experimental infrared spectra. Both Scale and Temp slider bars actually control the fit of the calculated frequencies and intensities to a Lorentzian function. The default settings can be restored by clicking on the Standard button. A best fit to an experimental spectrum superimposed onto the calculated spectrum can be obtained by clicking on the Experimental button. A best fit to an unknown reference spectrum (associated with all the molecules
in the document rather than a single molecule) can be obtained by clicking on the Reference button.

NMR

Spectra are divided into four categories*: $^1$H spectra, $^{13}$C and DEPT spectra, COSY spectra and HSQC and HMBC spectra. Access to experimental 1D spectra is provided either on-line or from a local file. Clicking on the NMR tab leads to the NMR Spectra dialog.

Calculated proton, $^{13}$C and DEPT spectra may be drawn by clicking on their respective Draw Calculated buttons. Carbon shifts (only) for both $^{13}$C and DEPT spectra from the B3LYP/6-31G* model are corrected based on topology and from the EDF2/6-31G* model are corrected based on topology and bond orders. Carbon shifts from other models and proton shifts are not corrected.

* Chemical shifts for other nuclei may be displayed as labels (see Configure... under the Model menu; Chapter 14).
Experimental $^{13}$C and DEPT spectra (if available) may be drawn together with or independently of the calculated spectra by clicking on Draw Experimental. Draw operations apply to all molecules in the list.

Experimental proton and $^{13}$C spectra are accessed from http://nmrshiftdb.ice.mpg.de. This comprises approximately 15,000 experimental spectra, all for organic molecules. Alternatively, the user may supply a spectra file (Appendix J). Selection (website vs. file) is made at the bottom right of the dialog. Global Spectra controls whether spectra access pertains to all molecules in the document (checked) or just to the selected molecule (unchecked). Note that experimental spectra, once retrieved either on-line or from a file, are kept in the document (and need not be retrieved again if they are deleted). They can be removed from the document by clicking on the Reset button.

Proton spectra may be drawn to reflect spin-spin coupling due to neighboring nuclei. Coupling constants are not calculated, but are estimated empirically based on three-dimensional geometry. A magnifier is available under the Plot Properties dialog (see discussion earlier in this chapter).
Default ranges for proton spectra (0 to 10 ppm) and $^{13}$C spectra (0 to 150 ppm) may be changed by selecting **Properties** from the **Display** menu, **clicking** on the horizontal axis to bring up the **Plot Properties** dialog, **clicking** on the **X Axis** tab at the left of the dialog and editing the values under **Range**. Spectral plots may be translated and scaled.

A calculated spectrum may be removed by **clicking** on **Delete Calculated** (that has replaced **Draw Calculated**) and an experimental spectrum removed by **clicking** on **Delete Experimental**. The last spectrum removed will also cause removal of the plot axes. These operations apply to all molecules in the document. An individual (calculated or experimental) spectrum or entire plot may also be removed by selecting **Delete** from the **Build** menu (or holding down the **Delete** key) and then **clicking** on the spectrum or on the plot axes, respectively.

2D spectra are available from **Draw Calculated** buttons. COSY spectra identify protons three bonds removed, HSQC spectra identify protons directly attached to carbons and HMBC spectra identify protons that are two or three bonds removed. Note that proton spectra “broadened” because of the inclusion of spin-spin coupling are not used in construction of 2D spectra. The corresponding proton and carbon spectra axes may be displayed along with 2D spectra by selecting them in addition to the 2D spectra. 2D spectra (and the 1D axes spectra) may be removed using the **Delete Calculated** buttons (that have replaced the **Draw Calculated** buttons). Experimental 2D spectra displays
are not yet available. An HMBC spectrum is shown below.

Uncorrected spectra (all proton spectra and $^{13}\text{C}$ and DEPT spectra from models other than B3LYP/6-31G* and EDF2/6-31G*) are likely to show significant systematic errors in chemical shifts. To scale either the calculated or experimental spectra in order to provide a best visual fit, *click* on the spectra (not on an axis) to select and move the mouse up and down while simultaneously depressing the Shift and Alt (option on Mac) keys in addition to the right button. The scale factor (multiplying the chemical shifts) will be displayed on the vertical axis. Scaling applies uniformly to all molecules in the document.
UV/vis

Clicking on the UV/vis tab leads to the UV/vis Spectra dialog that provides for display of UV/visible spectra.

This lists wavelengths and intensities. Click on Draw Calculated to draw the calculated spectrum.

Click on Draw Experimental to draw the corresponding experimental spectrum. Draw operations for both calculated and experimental UV/visible spectra and apply to all molecules in the list.
Experimental UV/visible spectra are accessed from the NIST (National Institute of Standards and Technology) website (http://webbook.nist.gov/chemistry). This comprises approximately 1,500 UV/visible spectra, primarily for organic molecules. **Spartan** keeps an index to facilitate retrieval but the actual data are on the website. Alternatively, the user may supply a spectra file (see Appendix J). Selection (website vs. file) is made at the bottom right of the dialog. **Global Spectra** controls whether spectra access pertains to all molecules in the document (checked) or just to the selected molecule (unchecked). Note that experimental spectra, once retrieved either on-line or from a file, are kept in the document (and need not be retrieved again if they are deleted). They can be removed from the document by **clicking** on the **Reset** button.

The default range for both calculated and experimental UV/visible spectra is from 200 nm to 700 nm. This corresponds to the range commonly measured and reported. This range may be changed by selecting **Properties** from the **Display** menu, **clicking** on the horizontal axis to bring up the **Plot Properties** dialog, **clicking** on the **X Axis** tab at the left of the dialog and editing the values under **Range**. The spectrum is treated like any other graphical object, and may be translated and scaled using the appropriate mouse operations.

The calculated spectrum may be removed by **clicking** on **Delete Calculated** (that has replaced **Draw Calculated**) in the dialog. Similarly, the experimental spectrum may be removed by **clicking** on **Delete Experimental** (that has replaced **Draw Experimental**). The last spectrum removed will also cause removal of the plot axes. These operations apply to all molecules in the document (not just the selected molecule). An individual (calculated or experimental) spectrum or entire plot may also be removed by selecting **Delete** from the **Build** menu (or holding down the **Delete** key) and then **clicking** on the spectrum or on the plot axes, respectively.

To help reveal similarities and differences between calculated and experimental UV/visible spectra, one or the other may be scaled. To scale, **click** on the spectra (not on an axis) to select and move the mouse up and down while simultaneously depressing the **Shift** and **Alt (option)** on Mac) keys in addition to the right
button. The scale factor will be displayed on the vertical axis. Scaling applies to all molecules in the document.

Only a single copy of one of the dialogs under Spectra may appear on screen; scaling will relate to the currently selected molecule. The dialog may be removed by clicking on ✗.

Formulas

The molecular mechanics and quantum chemical methods available in Spartan are able to provide a wide variety of molecular and atomic properties and QSAR descriptors. Quantities related to structure are available through functions under the Geometry menu (Chapter 15), while most other properties may be accessed from Properties dialogs or from the spreadsheet. In some cases, however, it is not the properties or descriptors themselves that are of interest, but rather relationships among them. For example, while the energies of the HOMO and LUMO of a molecule may not be of interest, the difference in their energies (the HOMO-LUMO gap) may be. Another important kind of relationship is that involving a change in property between reactants and products of a chemical reaction, in particular, the change in energy.

Spartan provides a tool to help define relationships among properties of a single molecule or of a single property between molecules that formally correspond to the reactants and products of a chemical reaction. The former will be discussed here and the latter will be discussed in the next chapter in the context of data mining. The Formula Editor dialog is accessed by selecting Formulas from the Display menu.
The bottom half of the dialog contains controls to build formulas, while the top half is a box to store finished formulas. As the most important property is arguably the energy, it is provided its own control (button). So too is the heat of formation obtained from the T1 model.* Both are found under Energies at the lower left of the Formula Editor dialog along with a menu to specify units. Other properties need to be accessed by dragging the property from its on-screen display (for example, a bond distance from its display at the bottom of the screen following selection of Measure Distance from the Geometry menu) or from one of the Properties dialogs (for example, the dipole moment in the Molecule Properties dialog) onto one of the three buttons under Properties at the lower right of the Formula Editor dialog. Following this, the button takes the name of the property. The property obtained from Spartan is now available for use in a formula.

The only other setting required is the Theoretical Model (under Context in the lower center of the Formula Editor dialog). The choices reflect the theory levels stored in databases available to Spartan (see discussion in Chapter 19). Ambient refers to the theoretical model actually used for the calculation of the selected molecule, and should not be selected if a calculation has not actually been run. The Applied to menu under Context will be grayed out if the molecule that Spartan is pointing to does not contain reaction information. Use of the formula editor to relate information for the reactants and products of chemical reactions is discussed in Chapter 19.

Pressing either the E or H(T1) buttons or a Property button onto which a property has been dragged, builds a formula and places it inside the second box at the center of the dialog. The default name (Fx, x=0, 1, 2...) appears in the first box. Either the formula or its name may be edited. Pressing Enter (return on Mac) stores the formula with the default or edited name. Pressing Clear removes the formula. Double clicking on a formula in storage brings it back to the boxes at the center of the formula editor (but does not remove it from

* Heats of formation from the T1 recipe where available are included with SMD and SSPD entries.
storage). The formula can then be edited and returned to storage (by clicking on Enter). If the name of the formula has not been changed, it will replace the original in storage. If it has been changed, it will be treated as a new formula. Once in storage, a formula can be dragged to wherever it is needed, in particular, into the spreadsheet, the Plots dialog or any of the dialogs associated with the Spartan Molecular Database or Spartan Spectra and Properties Database. To remove a stored formula, right click on it and select Delete from the menu.

Formulas use the usual set of arithmetic operations and parentheses to connect different properties. In addition, Boolean operators and standard mathematical functions designated in Table 18-1 may be used. These need to be typed into the box at the center of the dialog. For example, to construct a formula for the HOMO-LUMO gap, first drag the LUMO energy from the Molecule Properties dialog onto one of the properties buttons in the Formula Editor dialog. Pressing the button leads to the text string @LUMO*@hart2eV at the center of the dialog. Insert (type) “-” at the end of the string. Next, drag the HOMO energy from the Molecule Properties dialog onto a properties button in the editor and press the button. The text string is now @LUMO*@hart2eV-@LUMO*@hart2eV. Note that while orbital energies are evaluated in atomic units (hartrees), the formula includes a conversion factor @hart2eV to bring them into electron volts (eV). You can change units by manually editing the text string using the expressions provided in Table 18-2 (preceeded by @). Change the title to the left of the string from Fx to HOMO/LUMO gap, and press the Enter (return) key to the right of the string. The full formula is moved to the storage area at the top of the dialog. Note that the formula will be evaluated and numerical results presented if the appropriate data for the selected molecule with the selected theoretical model are available in the database (in this case, HOMO and LUMO energies).

A number of the quantities that are calculated by Spartan are not available from the graphical interface, but must be extracted from the archive of properties maintained by Spartan. Examples include orbital energies other than those corresponding to the HOMO and
### Table 18-1: Arithmetic and Boolean Operations and Mathematical Functions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Arithmetic Operations</th>
<th>Boolean Operations</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>+</td>
<td>&gt;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-</td>
<td>&gt;=</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>*</td>
<td>&lt;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/</td>
<td>&lt;=</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>^</td>
<td>==</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>!=</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>&amp;</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mathematical Functions</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ABS(x) absolute value</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ACOS(x) inverse cosine</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ASIN(x) inverse sine</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ATAN(x) inverse tangent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>COS(x) cosine</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EXP(x) exponential</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LN(x) natural logarithm</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LOG(x) log (base 10)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SIN(x) sine</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SQRT(x) square root</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TAN(x) tangent</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Table 18-2: Conversion Factors and Constants

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Conversion Factor</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ANGS2AU Ångstroms to atomic units</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AU2ANGS atomic units to Ångstroms</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EV2HART eV to atomic units (hartrees)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EV2KCAL eV to kcal/mol</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EV2KJ eV to kJ/mol</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HART2KCAL atomic units (hartrees) to kcal/mol</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HART2EV atomic units (hartrees) to eV</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HART2KJ atomic units (hartrees) to kJ/mol</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>KCAL2EV kcal/mol to eV</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>KCAL2HART kcal/mol to atomic units (hartrees)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>KCAL2KJ kcal/mol to kJ/mol</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>KJ2EV kJ/mol to eV</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>KJJ2HART kJ/mol to atomic units (hartrees)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>KJ2KCAL kJ/mol to kcal/mol</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PI π</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
LUMO, and the polar surface area defined to include sulfur and any attached atoms in addition to nitrogen, oxygen and any attached hydrogens (the default). However, these and other quantities may be used in formulas by manually editing the text string. The expressions provided in Table 18-3 need to be preceded by a @. For example, @HOMO(-1) accesses the energy of the molecular orbital immediately below the HOMO, while @PAREA(7,8,16,7;8;16:) accesses the polar area extended to sulfur and any attached hydrogens.

Formulas are used in conjunction with spreadsheet manipulations and plotting (both discussed later in this chapter) and with data mining (discussed in Chapter 19).

**Spreadsheet**

Associated with each Spartan document (including documents comprising a single molecule) is a spreadsheet. This may be displayed by selecting Spreadsheet.

The spreadsheet comprises a series of rows (corresponding to different molecules in the document) and columns (corresponding to different molecular properties). This gives rise to cells, the number of which is the product of the number of rows (molecules) and the number of columns (molecular properties). The spreadsheet may be expanded or contracted by positioning the cursor at one of the corners, pressing the left mouse button and dragging the mouse.
### Table 18-3: Calculated Quantities

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>Description</strong></th>
<th><strong>Formula/Definition</strong></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>AREA</td>
<td>area of a user-defined plane (Å²)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ELECTRONEGATIVITY EV</td>
<td>QSAR descriptor -(HOMO+LUMO)/2 (eV)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HARDNENES EV</td>
<td>QSAR descriptor -(HOMO-LUMO)/2 (eV)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HOMO(-n) EV</td>
<td>energy of nᵗʰ orbital below the HOMO (eV)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HOMOBETA(-n) EV</td>
<td>energy of the nᵗʰ orbital below the β HOMO (eV)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HYPERPOLARIZABILITY</td>
<td>beta hyperpolarizability parameter</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>INERTIA(i)</td>
<td>principle movements of inertia from largest (i=1) to smallest (i=3)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ISOTOPE(i)</td>
<td>mass number of atom i</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LENGTH (i)</td>
<td>length of bond i (Å)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LOGPC</td>
<td>LogP from Crippen model</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LOGPV</td>
<td>LogP from Villar model</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LUMO(+n) EV</td>
<td>energy of nᵗʰ orbital above the LUMO (eV)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LUMOBETA(+n) EV</td>
<td>energy of the nᵗʰ orbital above the β LUMO (eV)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PAREA (i, j, ...)</td>
<td>surface area of space-filling model due to atoms of type i, j, ... (atomic numbers or elemental symbols). i, j, ... signifies that attached hydrogens are also included. The surface area of nitrogen, oxygen and bonded hydrogens is the polar surface area. (Å²)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>POLARIZABILITY</td>
<td>alpha polarizability parameter</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Table 18-4: Specialty Functions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>Description</strong></th>
<th><strong>Formula/Definition</strong></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>AVG (column name)</td>
<td>average of values in column</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FITVAL (fit name)</td>
<td>column of fit values from regression analysis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MIN (column name)</td>
<td>minimum of values in column</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MAX (column name)</td>
<td>maximum of values in column</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NUM (column name)</td>
<td>number of defined entries in column</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ROW</td>
<td>the number of the row in the spreadsheet</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ROW(molecule name)</td>
<td>the number of the row of molecule</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>REF(i, x)</td>
<td>the value of the x referenced to row i</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>STDEV (column name)</td>
<td>standard deviation of values in row i</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SUM (column name)</td>
<td>sum of values in column</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Only one molecule from one document may be selected (although several molecules may be simultaneously displayed). Molecule selection follows either by clicking on the spreadsheet cell containing the molecule label or identifier (leftmost column), or by using the buttons or the scroll bar at the bottom left of the screen. Molecules may be \textit{animated} (stepped through in succession) using the button at the bottom left of the screen. Animation speed may be adjusted from the \textit{Settings Preferences} dialog (\textit{Preferences} under the \textit{Options} menu; \textit{Chapter 20}). Selection of a new molecule in the document results in deselection of the previously selected molecule. A molecule may be designated for permanent display by checking the box to the left of its identifier in the spreadsheet. The molecules in a document may either be translated and rotated in concert or manipulated independently. This is controlled by \textit{Coupled} (which operates in toggle mode) under the \textit{Model} menu (\textit{Chapter 14}). By default (\textit{Coupled} checked) molecules move in concert. \textit{Uncheck Coupled} to move them independently.

Upon initial entry, all columns of the spreadsheet except the leftmost column, are blank. The leftmost column contains a label that may be changed either by directly typing a new label into the spreadsheet or into the \textit{Label} box in the \textit{Molecule Properties} dialog (see discussion earlier in this chapter). Additionally, default identifiers (\textit{M0001}, ...) may be replaced by chemical names if the molecule exists in the Spartan Molecular Database (SMD) by clicking on \textit{Label} (the leftmost header cell), then right clicking and selecting \textit{Rename Selected using SMD} from the menu that results. To replace all identifiers, right click inside the header cell of the leftmost column and again select \textit{Rename Selected using SMD}. Renaming also applies to molecules in the Spartan Spectra and Properties Database (SSPD) in which case the menu entry is \textit{Rename Selected Using SSPD}.

Information may be added to the spreadsheet in several different ways:

\textbf{From the Add Dialog}

A selection of molecular properties may be entered into the
spreadsheet by first *clicking* on the header cell of an empty column, and then *clicking* on Add... at the bottom of the spreadsheet. Alternatively, *right click* inside the header cell and then to select Add... from the menu that results.

This leads to the Add Columns dialog.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name</th>
<th>molecule name as it appears in SMD or SSPD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Formula</td>
<td>molecular formula</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E</td>
<td>energy (heat of formation, strain energy)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E_{aq}</td>
<td>aqueous energy (heat of formation, strain energy) based on the SM5.4 model</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>rel. E</td>
<td>energy (heat of formation, strain energy) relative to selected molecule</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>rel. E_{aq}</td>
<td>aqueous energy (heat of formation, strain energy) relative to selected molecule based on the SM5.4 model</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E HOMO</td>
<td>energy of highest-occupied molecular orbital</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E LUMO</td>
<td>energy of lowest-occupied molecular orbital</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dipole</td>
<td>dipole moment (in debyes)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Molecular Weight  molecular weight (in amu)
Boltzmann Distribution  Boltzmann distribution based on energy
Boltzmann Distribution (aq)  Boltzmann distribution based on aqueous energy as estimated from SM5.4 model
Alignment Scores  $1-R^2/N$, where $R^2$ is the root mean square distance and $N$ is the number of alignment centers. 1 is a perfect score

One or more properties may be added to the spreadsheet by clicking on their entries, then specifying appropriate units from the Energy and Length menus, varying temperature from the Temp menu (as applied to the Boltzmann distributions), and finally clicking on OK or on Apply. In the former case, the dialog is dismissed and in the latter it is left on screen. Clicking on Cancel or $\times$ removes the dialog without further affecting the contents of the spreadsheet. (Any previous additions to the spreadsheet as a result of clicking on Apply are maintained.)

Column totals, averages and Boltzmann-weighted averages may be accessed by clicking on the Summaries tab. This leads to the Add Summaries dialog.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Totals</th>
<th>sum of column values</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Averages</td>
<td>average of column values</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Boltzmann Averages</td>
<td>Boltzmann weighted average of column values</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Boltzmann Averages (aq)  Boltzmann weighted average of column values using energies corrected for aqueous environment based on the SM5.4 model

Clicking on one or more of these followed by clicking on OK or Apply, leads to the requested summaries as rows at the bottom of the spreadsheet, identified as Totals, Averages, etc. (one row for each summary). Note, that this dialog can be brought up directly by clicking on an empty row header (instead of an empty column header) inside the spreadsheet prior to clicking on Add...

Finally, a linear regression analysis may be performed on the data in the spreadsheet. First click on the Linear Regression tab to bring up the Add Linear Regression dialog.

Select one entry from the Fit menu and one or more entries from the list under Using. Clicking on OK or Apply performs the linear regression analysis and places the results in a row at the bottom of the spreadsheet identified by Fit. As many regression analyses as desired may be performed on the data in the spreadsheet. The individual results will be entered as separate rows in the spreadsheet, with names Fit1, Fit2, etc. Additional information about the regression analyses is available from the Regression Properties dialog (see discussion earlier in this chapter).
From Post (P) Buttons

Post buttons (P) found in a number of properties dialogs provide an alternative method to the Add dialog for entering calculated properties into the spreadsheet. Note that some properties may require user specification. These include individual bond distances, angles and dihedral angles (available from Measure Distance, Measure Angle and Measure Dihedral under the Geometry menu; Chapter 15), bond distance, angle and dihedral angle constraints (available from Constrain Distance, Constrain Angle and Constrain Dihedral under the Geometry menu; see discussion in Chapter 15), atomic charges, chemical shifts (available from the Atom Properties dialog; this chapter), the accessible area of an electron density surface, the polar area and accessible polar area of an electrostatic potential map, the area of a selected region (band) of a banded property map, minimum and maximum property values on a map and the value of the property at a specific location on a property map (available from the Surfaces Properties dialog; this chapter). With the exception of the property value on a map and the area of a selected band, post generates an entire column. Where atom labels are involved, for example, in defining a specific distance, post can be expected to yield consistent results for all molecules in a document only where the molecules are closely related, for example, molecules resulting from a conformational search, or where labels have been explicitly reassigned*. The property value and the area of a selected band on a map is posted only for the selected molecule. Post buttons are also available for CAS numbers and experimental heats of formation contained in Spartan’s internal database, and for T1 heats of formation contained in both SMD and SSPD databases.

From the Clipboard

Properties of one or more molecules in a document may be copied into the clipboard and then pasted into individual spreadsheet

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* Label reassignment is accomplished using the Atom Properties dialog (see discussion earlier in this chapter).
cells. These include (but are not restricted to) bond distances, angles and dihedral angles (Measure Distance, Measure Angle and Measure Dihedral under the Geometry menu), bond distance, angle and dihedral angle constraints (Constrain Distance, Constrain Angle and Constrain Dihedral under the Geometry menu), atomic charges and chemical shifts (Atom Properties dialog), and the value of a property on a property map and the area of a selected band (Surface Properties dialog).

To copy the spreadsheet, first highlight the numerical value of the property in the appropriate screen location (distances, etc.) or dialog (charges, etc.), then select Copy from the Edit menu, then click on the appropriate (destination) cell in the spreadsheet, and finally select Paste from the Edit menu.

User-Defined Expressions

An expression may be entered either into a header cell (in which case it refers to all molecules) or into an individual cell (in which case it refers only to a single molecule). Expressions in the column header take the form name=formula, where formula is made up of arithmetic operations (Table 18-1), specialty functions (Table 18-4), calculated quantities (Table 18-3), conversion factors and constants (Table 18-2) in addition to numerical values. References to specialty functions, calculated quantities and conversion factors and constants must be preceded by @. For example, \( mu=@\text{DIPOLE} \) typed into a header cell gives the dipole moment. Some functions have arguments, for example, \( c1 \) and \( c2 \) in the expression \( c12=@\text{DISTANCE}(c1,c2) \) refer to atoms \( c1 \) and \( c2 \), while \( 3 \) in the expression \( \text{orbitalE}=\text{@HOMO}(-3) \) designates the energy of the molecular orbital three orbitals below the HOMO. It is necessary to press the Enter key (return key on Mac) following entry of the expression into a cell. The leading name= is optional for individual entries.

Formula construction inside the spreadsheet uses the same rules and references the same set of functions described in Formulas earlier in this chapter (in addition to the specialty functions in Table 18-4). It may be more convenient to construct expressions
in the formula editor and *drag* them into the spreadsheet than to construct them in the spreadsheet. Note that spreadsheet expressions refer to the molecules in the spreadsheet and not to their reaction products.

**Numerical Data**

Numerical data may be entered by typing directly into the spreadsheet. A column header first needs to be specified. *Double click* on an empty column header cell, type in a name and *press the Enter key* (*return* key on Mac). Then, type the data into individual cells of the new column (*press the Enter (return) key following each data entry*). Alternatively, use the ↓ key.

Each row in a spreadsheet corresponds to a molecule in a document, and new rows are automatically added in response to adding new molecules to the document. New molecules may be added by building (*New Molecule* under the *File* menu; *Chapter 12*), by appending one or more existing documents each containing one or more molecules using either *Append Molecule(s)*... under the *File* menu (*Chapter 12*), or by *right clicking* inside the header cell of the first available row and selecting *Append* from the menu that appears, by pasting from the clipboard, or by *dragging* from the file system. To copy a molecule into the clipboard, first select (*click on*) it, and then select *Copy* from the *Edit* menu, or *click* on its identifier (left most column) in its spreadsheet, and then select *Copy* from the *Edit* menu. Alternatively *right click* either on the molecule or on its identifier in the spreadsheet and select *Copy* from the menu that appears. Use of the clipboard permits several molecules to be selected (and copied) at once using the *Shift* and *Ctrl* keys in the usual manner. To copy the contents of the clipboard to its destination, *click* on an empty row header in the spreadsheet (for the destination document), and then select *Paste* from the *Edit* menu. An alternative to the two-step *Copy-Paste* procedure is to *drag* the molecule or set of molecules from one spreadsheet to another.

A row (molecule) may be deleted from a spreadsheet, either by first selecting the molecule and then selecting *Delete Molecule* from the...
File menu (Chapter 12), or by first clicking on its identifier in the spreadsheet (leftmost column) and then either clicking on the Delete button at the bottom of the spreadsheet, or by right clicking on its identifier in the spreadsheet and then selecting Delete Selected from the menu that appears. In all cases, a warning is provided prior to deletion. An entire column in the spreadsheet may be deleted by first clicking inside its header cell and then clicking on the Delete button (or Delete Selected from the menu).

Rows in the spreadsheet may be sorted according to the numerical values in any column either by first clicking inside the header cell and then clicking on the Sort button at the bottom of the spreadsheet or by right clicking inside the header cell and selecting Sort from the menu that appears. The rows are placed in ascending order, the smallest (least positive) value of the selected property at the top, largest (most positive) value at the bottom. To sort in descending order, hold down the Shift key before clicking on the Sort button or selecting Sort from the menu.

Information in one or more columns of the spreadsheet may be formatted by right clicking inside the header cell(s) and selecting Format Selected from the menu that appears.

Format as desired and click on OK to remove the dialog. The full contents of the spreadsheet may be formatted by right clicking inside the header cell for the left most column and then selecting Format Selected from the menu.

A button at the bottom right of the spreadsheet toggles between numerical representation of data, \( f(x) \), and formula presentation, \( =? \).

The spreadsheet may be printed by right clicking inside the spreadsheet and selecting Print from the menu that results.
As many spreadsheets as desired (corresponding to the same or to different documents) may be open on screen. A spreadsheet is removed when the associated document is closed and may also be removed by clicking on ✗.

The contents of the spreadsheet may be brought into Excel™ using the clipboard. Select whatever cells are to be copied, select Copy from the Edit menu. Alternatively, right click with the proper cells selected and select Copy from the menu that appears. Paste into Excel.

The contents of an Excel spreadsheet may be brought into Spartan. Copy whatever information is to be transferred to the clipboard, move into Spartan, then click on the appropriate cell and select Paste from the Edit menu (or right click on the appropriate cell and select Paste from the menu that appears). Note, that information on the clipboard that goes beyond the number of rows in Spartan’s spreadsheet will be ignored.

Plots...

Plots may be constructed from data in a spreadsheet and a variety of simple curves fit to these data. Selection of Plots... from the Display menu leads to the Plots dialog.

A tab at the top of the dialog selects between XY Plot (two dimensions) or XYZ Plot (three dimensions). Common to both is the Plot Type menu.
This distinguishes between plots based on the entire set of molecules in a document (By Molecule), to those based on the atoms in a single molecule (By Atom). The latter is the mode used to plot calculated IR, Raman and NMR spectra. The third choice (Free Form) is used to construct single molecule plots, for example, calculated, UV/vis spectra as well as plots of experimental IR, Raman, NMR and UV/visible spectra. This is normally done automatically from the appropriate spectra dialog (see discussion earlier in this chapter).

By atom and free form plots make use of vector capabilities in Spartan’s spreadsheet. See the FAQ Vector Spreadsheet Operations available under Help from the Help menu (Chapter 22).

Also common to both is the Properties checkbox at the bottom left of the dialog. Unchecked, this provides access for the X-Axis (X-Axis and Y-Axis for an XYZ plot) menu and Y-Axes (Z-Axes for an XYZ plot) only to quantities that have been entered in the spreadsheet. Checked, it provides access to all quantities in the Spartan’s Property Archive.

**XY Plots**

The XY Plot incorporates an X Axis menu designating the molecular property to be displayed among the X (horizontal) axis, and a list of properties to be displayed along the Y (vertical) axis. These properties correspond one to one to the columns in the associated spreadsheet. To construct a 2D plot, select an item from the X Axis menu, then click on one or more items from the Y Axes list and finally click on OK. (Repeated clicking on a property in the Y Axes turns the list on and off.) The dialog is removed from the screen and a plot appears.
The plot may be moved about the screen. Select (click on) either the frame or on one of the curves (it will turn gold in response), then hold down the right mouse button and drag the mouse. The plot may also be scaled (expanded or shrunk) by first selecting either the frame or one of the curves and dragging the mouse while holding down both the right button and the Shift key. The plot may not be rotated.

**XYZ Plots**

The XYZ Plot is reached by clicking on the **XYZ Plot** tab at the top of the dialog. This leads to a new dialog.

This is very similar to the XY Plot, except that it incorporates **X Axis** and **Y Axes** menus to designate quantities to be displayed along the X and Y axes, respectively, as well as a list of properties to be
displayed along the Z axis. To construct a 3D plot, select one item from each of the X Axis and Y Axis menus, then click on one or more items from the Z Axes list and finally click on OK. A plot appears.

![3D plot example](image)

The plot can be moved about the screen. Select (click on) either the frame or on one of the curves (it will turn gold in response), then hold down the right mouse button and drag the mouse. The plot may also be scaled (expanded or shrunk) by first selecting either the frame or one of the curves and dragging the mouse while holding down both the right button and the Shift key. Finally, 3D plots (unlike 2D plots discussed earlier) may be rotated, by first selecting either the frame or one of the curves and dragging the mouse while holding down the left button.

Plots initially presented connect the data points with cubic splines. A variety of curve fits (linear, least squares, Fourier, etc.) as well as a variety of different presentation formats are available under the Plot Properties and associated dialogs (see Properties earlier in this chapter).

A plot may be deleted by first selecting (clicking on) Delete from the Build menu, or clicking on ⌃Delete, or holding down the Delete key, and then clicking on either the plot frame or on an individual curve. Clicking on the frame removes it and all associated curves, while clicking on a curve removes only this
curve. However, the last curve deleted also deletes the frame. IR, Raman, NMR and UV/vis spectral plots may also be removed from the corresponding Spectra dialog.

**Similarities...**

The results of a similarity analysis based either on selected atoms in a structure or on a set of CFD’s as a template may be viewed using the Similarities dialog.

![Similarities dialog](image)

The box at the right of the dialog identifies each hit in terms of the identity of the Template Molecule, the Library Molecule, and in the case where a library molecule has been expanded in terms of a set of diverse conformers, the identity of the conformer. It also provides a score* and, in the case where excluded volume CFD’s are present in the template, the number of collisions between these elements and the library molecule. Finally, it indicates whether the enantiomer for the molecule included in the library has been inverted. Entries in the dialog may be sorted by score or number of collisions (as well as by the names of the template and library molecules) by clicking on the appropriate column header at the top of the box.

* The score is defined as \([(1-R^2)/N]\)-penalty, where \(R^2\) is the root mean square distance between template and library molecule centers and \(N\) is the number of similarity centers. Whereas molecule alignment as a prelude to similarity scoring is based on atomic, CFD and pharmacophore centers only, penalties are given for alignments that lead to unfavorable steric interactions between template and library entries or (in the case of molecule alignment by CFD’s) to incorrect orientation of hydrogen bond donor or acceptor CFD’s. These are subtracted from the score based on \(R^2\). 1 is a perfect score.
A minimum score can be set from the **Minimum Score** menu at the bottom right of the dialog. The number of matches that satisfy this minimum is reported.

As hits are selected by *clicking* on them in the box, the library entry superimposed onto the template will be displayed in the window at the left of the dialog. This graphic may be manipulated (rotated, translated, scaled) with the usual mouse/keyboard commands (the cursor needs to be positioned inside the window). The display style cannot be altered, nor can any measurements be made.

The library entry associated with a particular hit may be retrieved (brought into *Spartan*’s main window) by first selecting it and then *clicking* on the **Retrieve** button at the bottom of the **Similarities** dialog. The template cannot be retrieved. Retrieval can either be to a New Document or to the Current Document depending on the setting in the **Retrieve Options** dialog accessed by *clicking* on ▼ to the right of the **Retrieve** button.

Retrieval to the Current Document (that with the template) allows both the template and one or more hits from the library to be displayed simultaneously, with a full range of model styles and display options.

The **Similarities** dialog is closed by *clicking* on the **Done** button.

**Reactions...**

Data entered in a *Spartan* document may be used to calculate reaction energies including activation energies.

\[
\Delta E = E_{\text{product1}} + E_{\text{product2}} - E_{\text{reactant1}} + E_{\text{reactant2}}
\]

Selection of **Reactions...** from the **Display** menu leads to the **Reactions** dialog.
Two menus under **Reactants:** and two menus under **Products:** identify the reactants and products of reaction. They correspond to the labels (identifiers) of the molecules in the document, plus a null entry `<none>`. Note that the overall reaction is mass balanced.

The **Use** menu identifies the source of the energies to be used in the reaction energy calculation.

**SMD Database** or **SSPD Database** refers to energies drawn from entries in the Spartan Molecular Database (SMD), or Spartan Spectra and Properties Database (SSPD), **Current Document** refers to energies in document and **Current Document (aq)** refers to energies in the document that have been empirically corrected for aqueous solvent using the SM5.4 model.

Selection of **SMD Database** or **SSPD Database** (from the **Use** menu) requires specification of theoretical models. This is made from the **Theoretical Model** menu.
Note that while T1 is not included in either SMD or SSPD, T1 heats of formation have been made available.

The **Units** menu allows for selection of units.

![Units menu]

A reaction energy is computed by *clicking* on **Compute Energies** at the bottom left of the dialog.

![Reaction energy calculation dialog]

Substituted molecules can be used in place of real molecules as reactants and products. By accessing SMD or SSPD, this means that the energies for a series of related (by substitution) reactions can be computed at once.*

The results of a reaction energy calculation may be printed by *right clicking* inside the display area of the **Reactions** dialog and selecting **Print** from the menu that results.

The **Reactions** dialog is closed by either *clicking* on **OK** or on **X**.

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* An example is provided in the tutorial *Positional Selectivity of Substituted Naphthalenes* in Chapter 5.
Chapter 19

The Search Menu

Functions available under the **Search** menu provide for defining structure and reaction queries to be used in searches of databases attached to **Spartan**. These include the Cambridge Structural Database (CSD) of experimental X-ray structures, the Spartan Molecular Database (SMD) of calculated structures, energies, and properties, the Spartan Spectra and Properties Database (SSPD) of calculated spectra, properties, QSAR descriptors and thermodynamic quantities, the Spartan Infrared Database (SIRD) of calculated infrared spectra and the Spartan Reaction Database (SRD) of calculated transition states. CSD and SRD are searchable by substructure, whereas SMD and SSPD are searchable by substructure, name, formula, molecular weight and isomer and SIRD is searched based on matching to an unknown infrared spectrum. The **Search** menu also accesses procedures for automatically guessing transition states for reactions based on their similarity to transition states in SRD, for identifying tautomers, and for extracting ligands from PDB files.

**Define Structure Query** (▲)

This designates one or more free valances on a structure as attachment points. **Clicking** on the free valence marks it with an orange cone and designates it as an attachment point. This means that anything directly bonded to the valence (including hydrogen) is an acceptable hit for a search on a database. For example, **clicking** on the *para* free valence in toluene designates that any *para*-substituted toluene (including toluene itself) is an acceptable hit. **Clicking** on both free valences of hydrogen peroxide means that all peroxides (including hydrogen
peroxide and all hydroperoxides) are acceptable hits. Free valences not designated as attachment points are assumed to be hydrogens. Clicking on a free valence previously designated as an attachment point removes the cone and its designation as an attachment point.

**Define Reaction Query (e.p.)**

This serves either to identify the product or products of a chemical reaction from the reactants to be used for mining the Spartan Molecular Database or Spartan Spectra and Properties Database, or to provide an entry into the Spartan Reaction Database in order to access a previously calculated transition state, or to identify a similar transition state. All three functions make use of a set of curly arrows familiar to generations of organic chemists and formally corresponding to the movement of a pair of electrons.

![Curly Arrows Diagram](source_of_electron_pair → destination_of_electron_pair)

There are two possible sources of an electron pair and three possible destinations, leading to six combinations:

- lone pair → lone pair
- lone pair → bond
- lone pair → space between atoms
- bond → lone pair
- bond → bond
- bond → space between atoms

move lone pair
use lone pair to increase bond order
use lone pair to create new (single) bond
decrease bond order to make lone pair
decrease order of one bond to increase order of another bond
decrease order of one bond to make a new (single) bond

The first of these is a null operation, and its inclusion has no effect.

The reaction query procedure presently does not distinguish between a lone pair and a radical center. Examples are provided at the end of this section.
Selecting **Define Reaction Query** results in a message at the bottom left of the screen.

The tail of the arrow corresponds to the source of the electron pair. If the source is a lone pair, then select the atom that holds the lone pair. If the source is a bond, then select the bond. **Clicking** on an atom or bond highlights (colors gold) the atom or bond and leads to a new message at the bottom left of the screen.

The head of the arrow corresponds to the destination of the electron pair. If the destination is an atom (leading to a lone pair), then select the atom that will hold the lone pair. If the destination is an existing bond (leading to an increase in bond order from single $\rightarrow$ double or double $\rightarrow$ triple), then select the bond. If no bond presently exists, **press** the **Shift** key and select the two atoms that will become bonded upon reaction. These operations result in a curved arrow being drawn on the reactant structure. This extends from an atom, or the center of a bond to an atom, or the center of a bond, or the center of a dotted line that has been drawn between atoms that are to be bonded. The original message returns to the bottom left of the screen.

Note that the head and tail do not need to reside on atoms or bonds on the same fragment. Also the tail may involve atoms of two detached fragments.

The process (tail selection followed by head selection) is repeated as necessary to fully define the reaction. Incorrect reaction arrows may be removed by selecting **Delete** from the **Build** menu followed by **clicking** on the arrow to be deleted. You need to again select **Define Reaction Query** in order to continue arrow selection. More simply, **click** on the arrow(s) to be deleted while holding down the **Delete** key.

Once defined, reaction queries can be used to relate the properties of the products of chemical reactions to those of the products for the purpose of mining the Spartan Molecular Database or Spartan Spectra and Properties Database. Full discussion is provided in **Open Databases**.
later in this chapter. Reaction queries can also be used to search the Spartan Reaction Database for transition-state structures associated with the defined reaction (also discussed in Open Databases). In both of these cases, structure queries (discussed in Define Structure Query earlier in this chapter) will also normally be employed. Finally, reaction queries may be employed to automatically provide a guess at a transition state based on similarity to an entry in the Spartan Reaction Database (see discussion in Guess Transition State later in this chapter). Here, no structure queries would be defined.

Examples of Reaction Queries

**Diels-Alder reaction of 1,3-butadiene and ethylene**

\[
\begin{align*}
&\text{a, b. double bond to empty space leading to single bond and single bond} \\
&\text{c. double bond to single bond leading to single bond and double bond}
\end{align*}
\]

**S\text{N}2 reaction of chloride and methyl iodide**

\[
\begin{align*}
&\text{a. lone pair on Cl}^- \text{ to empty space leading to ClC bond} \\
&\text{c. CI bond leading to lone pair on I}
\end{align*}
\]

**Ene reaction of 1-pentene**

\[
\begin{align*}
&\text{a. CH bond to empty space leading to CH bond} \\
&\text{b. double bond to single bond leading to single bond and double bond} \\
&\text{c. single bond to single bond leading to empty space and double bond}
\end{align*}
\]
Ring closure of 1-hexenyl radical to methylcyclopentyl radical

- Radical center to empty space (between C₂ and C₆) leading to single bond
- Double bond to terminal carbon leading to single bond and radical center

Open Databases

This provides access to the Cambridge Structural Database (CSD) of experimental X-ray crystal structures, the Spartan Molecular Database (SMD) of calculated structures, energies, spectra and molecular properties, the Spartan Spectra and Properties Database (SSPD) of spectra, properties and QSAR descriptors, the Spartan Reaction Database (SRD) of calculated transition states and the Spartan Infrared Database (SIRD) of calculated infrared spectra. CSD, SMD and SRD may be searched based on substructure. SMD and SSPD may also be searched by name, formula, molecular weight and isomer. If a selected molecule on screen exists in SMD and/or in SSPD, it may be replaced by a database entry and, even if it is not replaced, the molecule name in SMD may be used. SIRD is searched by comparison with an input infrared spectrum.

Cambridge Structural Database (CSD)

The Cambridge Structural Database (CSD) is a collection of more than 500,000 experimental X-ray crystal structures for organic and organometallic molecules. It is maintained by the Cambridge Crystallographic Data Centre (CCDC) and grows approximately 10% per year. CSD not only contains information about the molecular...
geometry, but also about the manner in which molecules pack in the solid state*. In short, the CSD represents a gold mine of detailed experimental structural information, and also serves to identify molecules that can be (and have been) synthesized and purified through crystallization.

Access to the data in CSD is via a substructure searching procedure. A molecule is first constructed and one or more attachment points are identified. Clicking on the CSD tab at the top of the Database dialog leads to the CSD dialog.

This contains a window at the left for previewing structures, a box at the right for listing hits on CSD and buttons at the bottom to control aspects of the search and subsequent transfer of CSD data into the file system. Both the preview window and the text box may be scaled independently. A substructure search is set up by specifying one or more of the following**:

(i) **Attachment Points**

A free valence is designated as an attachment point by first selecting Define Structure Query from the Search menu and then clicking on it. It will be marked with an orange cone. Clicking again removes the designation and the cone.

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* Spartan’s interface to CSD accesses only molecular information. Additional information related to packing in the crystal may be accessed using CCDC’s program ConQuest, that is supplied as part of the CSD subscription.

** If nothing is specified, a search for an exact match is carried out assuming that all atoms and bonds are exactly as given in the query and that all free valences are assumed to be hydrogens.
Anything may be grown off an attachment point (including hydrogen), although substituents are not permitted. Free valences not designated as attachment points are assumed to be hydrogens.

(ii) **Wild-Card Atoms**

An atom may be designated as a wild-card (meaning that element type is unimportant) by first selecting **Define Structure Query** from the **Search** menu and then **clicking** on it. An orange ball will surround the atom. **Clicking** again removes the wild-card designation and the ball. Use of wild-card atoms will result in structures that incorporate variants of the original substructure with different atoms at designated positions. For example, wild-card designation of an unsubstituted position of a substituted benzene will allow substituted pyridines to be located.

(iii) **Wild-Card Bonds**

A bond may be designated as a wild-card (meaning that bond type is unimportant) by first selecting **Define Structure Query** from the **Search** menu and then **clicking** on it. An orange cylinder will be drawn around it. **Clicking** on this cylinder removes the wild-card designation and the cylinder. This is important in certain heterocycles where bond typing may be ambiguous.

To limit a CSD search either to organic molecules (about half the total collection) or to molecules containing transition metals, lanthanides or actinides, bring up the **Search Options** dialog by **clicking** on ☑ to the right of the **Search** button at the bottom right of the dialog, and select **Organics** or **Inorganics** respectively.
After a substructure has been specified, a search of CSD is initiated by clicking on the **Search** button at the bottom right of the dialog. If there are hits to be found, these will appear in the scroll box at the right of the dialog. The search can be terminated at any time by clicking on **Stop** to the right of the **Search** button at the bottom of the dialog. Once completed (or stopped), the CSD reference codes (**REFCODE**) and the names for the hits are displayed in the box and the number of hits is indicated immediately below. Structural data are available only for entries preceded by a filled yellow circle, although experimental references are available for all entries (see **Output** under the **Display** menu; Chapter 18). A ball-and-wire model for any entry for which a structure is available may be displayed in the window at the left of the dialog by clicking on its name in the box.

The model can be manipulated (rotated, translated, scaled) inside the window with the usual mouse/keyboard commands (you need to position the cursor inside the window).

The structure is **exactly as it appears in CSD**. In particular, it may contain two or more different molecules, two or more different conformations of the same molecule and/or extraneous molecules (most commonly solvent molecules and counterions). Hydrogens will be present only where they have been assigned in the experimental structure. The structure may also contain errors in bonding due to uncertainties in the original data. Modifications to the CSD entry to address these issues may be made prior to transfer to the file system using the **Retrieve Options** dialog. This is accessed by clicking on **Retrieve Options**.
to the right of the **Retrieve** button at the bottom of the **CSD** dialog.

![Retrieve Options dialog](image)

(i) **Delete Extraneous Fragments**
If *checked*, deletes any detached molecules that do not contain the search query.

(ii) **Identify Ligands**
Identifies ligands in structures that are returned from CSD (primarily for organometallic compounds) and replace whatever bonding is supplied by a representation in which a dashed line is drawn between the geometric center of the ligand and the atom to which it connects.

(iii) **Repair Bonds**
If *checked*, attempts to fix bonding errors based on the actual geometry in CSD and on normal valence rules.

(iv) **Grow Hydrogens**
If *checked*, adds hydrogens wherever they appear to be missing, based on the actual geometry and on normal valence rules. This function is also available under **Grow Hydrogens** in the **Molecule Utilities** dialog (Chapter 18).

(v) **Freeze Heavy Atoms**
If *checked*, freezes all atoms except for hydrogens. This allows experimental X-ray hydrogen positions that are often poorly determined, to be refined using molecular mechanics or quantum chemical methods, while maintaining the heavy
atom skeleton.*

(vi) **Retrieve to:**
Selection of *New Document* means that the search results are to be stored in a new document and leads to a request for a document name, whereas selection of *Current Document* results in the retrieved molecules being appended to the end of the current document.

The **Retrieve Options** dialog is dismissed with all changes to existing settings maintained by clicking on **OK**. Clicking on **Cancel** or on also dismissed the dialog but any changes to settings are lost.

Retrieval is accomplished by first selecting (clicking on) one or more hits in the scroll box and then pressing the **Retrieve** button at the bottom of the CSD dialog. The **Shift** and **Ctrl** keys may be used in the usual way to specify retrieval of multiple hits. Retrieval can be stopped at any time by clicking on to the right of the **Retrieve** button at the bottom of the CSD dialog.

**Spartan Molecular Database (SMD) and Spartan Spectra and Properties Database (SSPD)**

*Spartan* connects to two different collections of molecules for which quantum chemical calculations have already been performed and the results of these calculations are available. The first is the Spartan Molecular Database (SMD). This comprises more than 500,000 records of calculations performed using one or more of the following quantum chemical models: Hartree-Fock with 3-21G, 6-31G*, 6-311+G** basis sets, B3LYP and EDF1 density functional and MP2 with 6-31G* and 6-311+G** basis sets and G3(MP2). The LACVP pseudopotential is used in place of the 6-31G* basis set for main-group elements heavier than krypton and for second and third-row transition metals. Thus, a B3LYP/6-31G* calculation on benzene tungsten tricarbonyl (C₆H₆WCO₃) uses the LACVP

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* Hydrogen positions may be refined using molecular mechanics using **Minimize** under the **Build** menu; Chapter 16. Refinement using quantum chemical models is specified in the **Calculations** dialog (Calculations... under the **Setup** menu; Chapter 17) by way of **Frozen Atoms** (Freeze Center under the **Geometry** menu; Chapter 15).
pseudopotential for tungsten and the 6-31G* basis set for hydrogen, carbon and oxygen. Except for the G3(MP2) entries, the geometry of each molecule has been optimized, assuming the best (lowest-energy) conformer obtained from the MMFF molecular mechanics model. G3(MP2) entries use MP2/6-31G* equilibrium geometries. Included in the SMD entry is the geometry, the energy, the energy corrected empirically for aqueous solvation, the dipole moment and Mulliken, natural and electrostatic atomic charges. Properties related to geometry (area, volume and polar surface area) are calculated on-the-fly from the geometry. Also included, wherever it is available, is the heat of formation obtained from the T1 thermochemical model (see discussion in Chapter 17).

The following recipe has been used to create the individual entries in SMD:

1. Identify the lowest-energy conformer using the MMFF molecular mechanics model. Molecules with fewer than 200-300 conformers are searched systematically (guaranteeing that the global minimum will be found), while Monte-Carlo sampling is used for molecules with more conformers.

2. Starting from the best conformer, perform a geometry optimization using the appropriate quantum chemical model. This implies that all quantum chemical models for a particular molecule will refer to the same conformer.

The Spartan Spectra and Properties Database (SSPD) presently comprises approximately 70,000 molecules. The next release of SSPD is scheduled for early Summer 2011 and will include upwards of 120,000 molecules. SSPD differs from SMD in several important ways. The first difference is that all calculations have been obtained from a single theoretical model, specifically the EDF2/6-31G* density functional model. This represents a credible attempt to get around the commonly-asked and difficult to answer question “which model is best to use?” The EDF2/6-31G* density functional model consistently yields reliable structures, reaction energies, spectra and properties, yet is simple enough to be routinely applied to reasonable-size molecules, that is, up to 300-500 amu.
The second difference is that, *wherever possible*, SSPD entries use the best conformation assigned from the T1 thermochemical recipe rather than from MMFF molecular mechanics. T1 has been shown to reliably account for conformational energy differences in small molecules (where experimental data are available), which in turn suggests that it should be able to reliably identify the lowest-energy conformer. Note, however, that T1 is presently defined only for uncharged, closed-shell molecules incorporating H, C, N, O, F, Si, P, S, Cl and Br. The conformations of molecules outside of these limits (perhaps 2% of the entries in SSPD) use the MMFF method for assigning the lowest-energy conformer.

The following recipe has been used to create the individual entries in SSPD:

1. Identify a set of up to 100 diverse conformers using the PM3 semi-empirical model. This is done with the so-called restricted systematic search algorithm described under Calculations in the Setup menu (Chapter 17).
2. Perform T1 calculations on all conformers and select the one with the lowest (T1) heat of formation.
3. Starting from this conformer, perform a geometry optimization using the EDF2/6-31G* model.

A simpler and automated procedure for providing T1 heats of formation for conformationally flexible molecules has previously been described in Chapter 17.

The third difference is that the vast majority of SSPD entries include both the infrared and (proton and $^{13}$C) NMR spectra. (The future plan is for some entries to also include the Raman spectrum.) The vibrational motions associated with selected lines in the calculated infrared spectrum can be animated. In addition, COSY, HSQC and HMBC NMR spectra (2D spectra) can be generated on-the-fly from the information in SSPD.

The fourth difference is that, in addition to the properties available from SMD, each SSPD entry includes information useful for QSAR type analyses, specifically, information based on electrostatic potential
and local ionization potential maps and a variety of thermochemical quantities. Each SSPD entry also includes the heat of formation obtained from the T1 model (as does each SMD entry).

The fifth difference is that each SSPD entry includes the wavefunction, allowing on-the-fly generation of any graphical surface and property maps available to *Spartan*.

Because of inclusion of the wavefunction (and to a lesser extent inclusion of the vibrational motions), SSPD has a significantly larger disk footprint than SMD (3Gb vs. 1.5 Gb). However, the in-memory footprint of SSPD is actually smaller than that for SMD (because there are fewer records in total).

SMD and SSPD are configured separately (*Paths* from Preferences under the *Options* menu; Chapter 20), and can either be used independently or in concert. SMD facilitates comparisons among different models, whereas SSPD provides simple access to a wide selection of data from a single high quality model.

**Accessing and Processing Data From SMD and SSPD**

There are two ways to access data from SMD and SSPD. The first way is to replace a structure that has been built (or read in) with a matching database entry. (Note that it is possible to replace all structures in list of molecules for which there are matches in SMD or SSPD in a single operation.) The second way is to search SMD or SSPD for entries that share particular structural features.

**Molecule Replacement**

For the purpose of molecule replacement, SMD and SSPD are treated as independent databases. This gives the user the choice between the diversity of theoretical models represented in SMD and the simplicity brought on by the single model in SSPD. Selection is made from the menu to the left of the at the bottom of *Spartan*’s main screen. Once selected, the existence of the selected molecule in SMD or in SSPD is evidenced by its name appearing to the right of .
Both collections may be placed under either the SMD or SSPD heading. See Paths from Preferences under the Options menu; Chapter 20.

The structure of any SMD or SSPD entry can be seen by clicking on ▶. This brings up a dialog with a viewing screen on the left and a list of quantum chemical models for which database entries exist on the right. The ▶ changes to a ▼.

By default, the SMD entry of a 6-31G* calculation (if available) is checked and a ball-and-spoke model of its structure appears in the viewing screen. A different SMD entry (corresponding to a different quantum chemical model) may be selected by checking the box to the left of the name of the model in the dialog. Note, that there is only one entry corresponding to the EDF2/6-31G* model for SSPD. The model in the viewing window may be manipulated using the usual mouse/keyboard commands (you need to position the cursor inside the viewing area). Model style may not be changed.

The selected model may be replaced by the selected database entry by clicking on Replace at the bottom of the dialog. (Replacement can be undone by selecting Undo from the Edit menu; Chapter 13.) Replacement destroys all information except the molecule identifier (leftmost column of the spreadsheet (see Spreadsheet under the Display menu; Chapter 18). If desired, the molecule identifier can be changed to the molecule name (from the database) by first bringing up the spreadsheet, clicking on Label (the header cell corresponding to the leftmost column), right clicking and selecting Rename Selected from SMD or Rename Selected from SSPD from the menu that results.

Some SMD entries also include structures for higher-energy conformers (in addition to that for the lowest-energy conformer). These entries are designated by a ▶ to the left of the check box in the
preview dialog, clicking on which leads to an expanded entry. This accesses a higher-energy conformer and provides their energies (in kJ/mol) relative to the best conformer. Higher-energy conformers are generally not available for SSPD entries.

Entries are selected as before, after which they may be examined in the viewing screen and used to replace the on-screen molecule.

In the event that the selected (on-screen) molecule is part of a multi-molecule document, it is possible to replace all molecules in the document for which database entries for the specified theoretical model are available.* This is accomplished by clicking on Replace All instead of Replace. A warning message is provided prior to the replacement. Note that the lowest-energy conformer for all other (non-selected) molecules in the document is used, even though a higher-energy conformer may be indicated for the selected molecule. (Replacement of document entries with non-lowest energy conformers needs to be done one-by-one using Replace instead of Replace All.) Molecules in the document for which there are no database entries at the specified theoretical model are not affected. As with single molecule replacement, all information except the molecule identifier is replaced by that in the database. Molecule names from the selected database for all molecules in a document may be substituted for the original molecule identifiers by clicking on Label (the header cell of the leftmost column in the spreadsheet) right clicking and selecting Rename Selected from SMD or Rename Selected from SSPD from the menu that results.

The Wikipedia button at the bottom right of the database preview dialog brings up a Wikipedia page based on the name of the selected molecule.

* For 32 bit implementation, the practical replacement limit is 1,500-2,000 molecules for SMD and 500-800 molecules for SSPD.
Substructure and Other Modes of Searching SMD and SSPD

Access to data from SMD and SSPD follows selecting Open Databases, and then clicking on either the SMD or SSPD tab (at the top left of the resulting window). (Aside from the title, the resulting displays are identical.) Each comprises three different panels, Search, Plot and Analysis, selection of which is controlled by tabs at the bottom left of the window. A search of SMD or SSPD is carried out from the Search panel, plotting of the search results from the Plot panel and regression analysis of search results from the Analysis panel.

Substructure searching of SMD and SSPD is similar to that already described for substructure searching of the Cambridge Structural Database (CSD). The only required input is a three-dimensional structure. While one or more growth points (see Define Structure Query earlier in this chapter) will normally be specified, they are optional and in their absence an exact search will be carried out. Wild-card atoms and bonds used in searches of CSD are not supported. One or more substituents may be attached to the structure (see Substituent Model Kit under the Build menu; Chapter 16), in effect allowing multiple starting structures. (This capability is not available for CSD search.) Name searching requires a name (or partial name), formula searching requires an exact formula, weight searching requires a molecular weight and isomer searching requires a three-dimensional structure without any growth points.

Clicking on the Search tab leads to the Search dialog.

This contains a box on the right for listing the search hits and providing values for any requested properties (at the outset only the
molecule name is provided), and a window on the left for viewing and manipulating the individual hits. Controls along the bottom right access the **Search Options** dialog which specifies the databases to be searched, the kind of search, and (for SMD only) the theoretical model(s) to be searched. They are also used to initiate and terminate a search and to designate the location for any results that are retrieved from the search.

With the SMD tab selected, **clicking** on \( \square \) to the right of the **Search** button leads to the **Search Options** dialog.

![Search Options dialog]

**Using Directories** lists the collections that make up SMD. **SMD (sample)** is the sample of ~5000 molecules supplied with all copies of Spartan while **SMD** is the full collection. If SMD is installed, **SMD (sample)** should be removed (**Paths** from **Preferences** under the **Options** menu; Chapter 20). **Method Filters** specifies the theoretical models to be included in the search. **Other** accesses data with models that are not explicitly listed. **Search By** designates the type of search: **Structure, Name, Formula, Weight** or **Isomer**. **Limit Search to Entries with** designates information that must be in the hit.

(i) **Name**
Selection followed by **clicking** on **OK** in the **Search Options** dialog leads to a box **By Name** at the bottom right of the dialog. The search will return all entries that contain the string that is entered into the box. For example, *typing* toluene will not only result in toluene, but also in molecules such as *para*-toluenesulfonic acid and 4-chloro-2-fluorotoluene.
(ii) **Formula**
Selection followed by *clicking on OK* in the **Search Options** dialog leads to a box **By Formula** at the bottom right of the dialog. A formula of the form $C_cH_hHet_t$, where “Het” corresponds to elements other than carbon and hydrogen (each element needs to be specified explicitly). $c$, $h$, $t$ are integers and are required. For example, the formula for nitrobenzene needs to be written as $C6H5N1O2$. The order of atoms is irrelevant. The search will return all entries with this formula. For example, the formula $C6H5N1O2$ will return not only nitrobenzene but also molecules such as phenyl nitrite and pyridine-4-carboxylic acid.

(iii) **Weight**
Selection followed by *clicking on OK* in the **Search Options** dialog leads to a box **By Weight** at the bottom right of the dialog. The search will contain all entries with the specified molecular weight ± 0.05 amu.

(iv) **Isomer**
Selection followed by *clicking on OK* in the **Search Options** dialog specifies that all isomers of the selected molecule will be returned. The result is the same as specification of a molecular formula.

*Clicking on OK* removes the **Search Options** dialog with all settings maintained. *Clicking on Cancel* or $\times$ removes the dialog without maintaining the settings.

The **Search Options** dialog associated with SSPD is simpler in that the **Methods Filters** and **Limit Search** fields are missing. Only a single theoretical model (the EDF2/6-31G* density functional model) is available, most entries contain both calculated IR and NMR spectra, and none contain UV spectra. Using **Directories** lists the collections that make up SSPD. **SSPD (sample)** is the sample of ~5000 molecules supplied with all copies of Spartan while **SSPD** is the complete collection. If **SSPD** is installed, then **SSPD (sample)** should be removed (**Paths** from **Preferences** under the **Options** menu; **Chapter 20**). The same search methods available for SMD
A search on either SMD or SSPD is carried out by clicking on the Search button at the bottom right of the (SMD or SSPD) search dialog, following which hits will appear at the right. The search may be terminated at any time by clicking on the button to the right of the Search button. Any hits that have already been identified will be kept. A ball-and-spoke model of a hit may be examined at any time by clicking on its name in the box. It may be manipulated in usual way, although the model style cannot be changed.

Properties may be added to the hit list by dragging them (names not numerical values) from one of the properties dialogs (see Properties under the Display menu; Chapter 18), the formula editor (Formulas under the Display menu; Chapter 18) or from the main Spartan screen, primarily entries associated with the Geometry menu; Chapter 15. The hit list can be sorted using the property, by right clicking on the column header cell and selecting Sort from the menu.

The results of a search on SMD or SSPD as well as any subsequent plotting and analyses are saved in the Spartan document corresponding to the original structure query or to the blank document that was used for a name or spectra query. This behavior is different from previous versions of Spartan.

**Plotting Data Resulting from an SMD or SSPD Search**

Data resulting from a search on SMD or SSPD may be displayed either as a histogram (property value vs. number of occurrences) or as a 2D scatter plot (property value vs. property value). Access to plotting is via the Plot tab at the bottom left of the dialog.
Selection of plot type and variable ranges is from the **Plot Options** dialog accessible from ☐ to the right of the **Plot** button.

Default plot ranges are from minimum to maximum property values. Checking **Linear Least Squares Fit** (Scatter Settings) fits a straight line to the data. (A more general multi-variable regression analysis can be carried out from **Analysis**; see discussion following.) **Number of Intervals** (Histogram Settings) sets the number of bars in the histogram. Clicking on **OK** removes the dialog with all settings maintained. Clicking on **Cancel** or ☒ removes the dialog without maintaining the settings.

A plot is drawn by **clicking** on the **Plot** button at the bottom left of the dialog. The points will not appear instantaneously as the data need to be extracted from disk. Plotting may be terminated at any time by **clicking** on ☐ to the right of the **Plot** button. If a least-squares line has been requested, it will be based on the accumulated data. At anytime, the name of the molecule associated with a point on a scatter plot can be displayed by positioning the cursor over that point. The point can be deleted by **right clicking** and selecting **Delete** from the resulting menu. The plot will rescale as appropriate.
Regression Analysis of Data Resulting from an SMD or SSPD Search

A regression analysis of data resulting from a search may be carried out by selecting the Statistics tab at the bottom left of the dialog.

The name (not the numerical value) of the property to be fit is dragged from one of the properties dialogs, the formula editor or from the main Spartan screen, into the box to the right of Fit. The names of one or more properties to be used in the fit are dragged into the box to the right of Using. The fitting procedure (singular value decomposition) will use only variables that have been selected (clicked on) from among the list, up to a maximum number of independent variables (the most important in terms of their contribution to the fit from among this list) specified in the menu at the bottom right of the dialog. Note that the number of variables actually used in the fit may be smaller than the maximum number selected (from the menu at the lower right of the dialog), as variables that are linearly dependent and/or do not contribute significantly to the fit will be discarded. The analysis is started by clicking on the Analysis button at the bottom left of the dialog. As with plotting, this does not occur instantaneously as the underlying data needs to be extracted from the disk. Analysis may be terminated at any time by clicking on to the right of the Analysis button, following which results from a fit to a portion of the data will be displayed.

Upon completion, or upon stopping, the fit function will be displayed at the lower left of the dialog. This can be copied to the clipboard (right click and select Copy from the menu) and then pasted (right click and select Paste from the menu) in the Plot dialog.
Relationships Involving Chemical Reactions

We have previously discussed how the formula editor may be used to construct relationships among properties for a single molecule (see Formulas under the Display menu; Chapter 18). The formula editor can also be employed to construct relationships between the reactants and the products of a chemical reaction of the reaction. This is possible because the products of a reaction are completely and unambiguously defined given the structure of the reactant (or reactants) and a set of curly arrows (see Define Reaction Query earlier in this chapter). Note that the same information can also be used to guess a transition state for the reaction (see Guess Transition State later in this chapter).

For example, consider the difference in energies between 2,4-cyclohexadieneone and phenol. Whereas the normal preference is for keto forms be favored over enols, here the reverse is certainly true as phenol benefits from aromatic stabilization. Three steps are needed to use SMD or SSPD to ask to what extent substituents alter this preference. First, a structure query (the reactant) must be built, arrows placed to designate the product of reaction and one or more growth points added to define the limits of the search. For example, use 2,4-cyclohexadieneone and limit substituents to the 4 position.

Next, a formula for the energy of reaction needs to be constructed. Inclusion of arrows extends the formula from the query itself (a 4-substituted 2,4-cyclohexadieneone), to the product of reaction (a para-substituted phenol) and to the difference between product and reactant. Selection of which is to be employed in the formula follows from the Applied to menu under Context in the formula editor (highlighted only if arrows are present). In this case, the choices are (R) 2,4-cyclohexadieneone, (P1) phenol or (P-R) reaction. The formula for the reaction energy, \(@\text{energy}@\text{hart2kj}@\), appears in the
box at the center of the dialog following selection of (P-R) reaction from the Applied to menu and clicking on E under Energies. The default name may be changed by editing the text inside the box to the left of the formula. Clicking on Enter enters the (renamed) formula rea(@energy*@hart2kj) into the list at the top of the formula editor.

A search may now be carried out (click on the Search button inside the SMD or SSPD Search dialog). After it has completed, dragging the formula for the reaction energy onto an empty header cell of the hit list inside the SMD or SSPD Search dialog will result in reaction energies for all entries to appear.

As a second example, consider the energy for addition of hydrogen fluoride to propene, leading to 1-fluoropropane. Here there are two reactants (hydrogen fluoride and propene), but only the latter will be provided growth points*. Thus, the query is for information about the energy of HF addition as a function of substitution on the alkene.

The query starts from an intramolecular complex of propene and hydrogen fluoride, oriented such that the C=C and H–F bonds parallel with fluorine on the unsubstituted side of the alkene. Two arrows, one from the CC bond to the space between the unsubstituted carbon and fluorine and the other from the HF bond to the space between the substituted carbon and hydrogen, define the product (1-fluoropropane). Growth points attached to all three open valences extend the search to all available substituted propenes (for which analogous substituted 1-fluoropropanes are also available).

A formula for the energy of reaction may be constructed using the same sequence as in the previous example, selecting (P-R) reaction from the Applied to menu under Context in the formula editor, clicking on E, changing the default name and clicking on Enter.

* While there can be two or more reactants, only one can be provided growth points, that is, all other reactants need to be specific molecules.
Following a search using the query, dragging the formula for the reaction energy onto an empty header cell of the hit list inside the SMD or SSPD Search dialog adds a column of reaction energies to the list.

It is possible to apply different queries to the same set of search results, for example, to ask about the energy of addition of HCl (instead of HF) to a substituted propene. Whereas the query changes (the reaction of HCl and propene rather than of HF and propene), the underlying search (on propene) does not. The result is two sets of energies. (Results designated No DB Entry indicate that the required information is not available.)

A plot of HCl vs. HF reaction energies from the SMD or SSPD Plot dialog shows the extent to which they are actually correlated.
Retrieving Data from an SMD or SSPD Search

Prior to retrieval, it is necessary to specify a destination from the Retrieve Options dialog. Click on ☑️ to the right of the Retrieve button.

Selection of New Document results in request for a file name; selection of Current Document results in the retrieved molecules being appended to the end of the current document. The Retrieve Options dialog is dismissed by clicking on OK. Clicking on Cancel or on ☑️ also dismisses the dialog but any changes to settings are lost.

To retrieve, select (click on) one or more hits in the box and press the Retrieve button. The Shift and Ctrl keys may be used to specify retrieval of multiple hits. Retrieval may be stopped at any time by clicking on ☑️ to the right of the Retrieve button.

Spartan Reaction Databases (SRD)

The Spartan Reaction Database (SRD) is a collection of transition states for approximately 1,500 organic and organometallic reactions obtained from one or more of the following theoretical models: AM1, PM3, HF/3-21G and HF/6-31G*. Each entry contains the infrared spectrum, which should be characterized by a single imaginary
frequency corresponding to the reaction coordinate.

An entry in SRD is in terms of a three-dimensional structure (corresponding to the reactants or the product), together with an appropriate set of curly arrows (connecting the reactants to the product or vice versa) and designation of theoretical model.

Instructions for drawing reaction arrows has been provided earlier in this chapter (Define Reaction Query).

For example, an entry for the Diels-Alder reaction of cyclopentadiene and acrylonitrile is given on the left, while that for the corresponding retro Diels-Alder is given on the right.

Note, that stereoisomers are distinguished by the way the reactants are positioned. For example, reactions leading to endo and exo Diels-Alder adducts are distinct.

SRD is open-ended and users may construct their own data collections with additional reactions and/or results from additional theoretical models on existing reactions (Appendix H).

Substructure Searching

Substructure searching from SRD is very similar to that from SMD and SSPD. Access to SRD is provided by clicking on the SRD tab at the top of the Database dialog. This gives rise to the SRD dialog.
The **SRD** dialog contains a window on the left for previewing structures and a box on the right for listing hits on SRD, as well as buttons at the bottom to control various aspects of the search and subsequent transfer of data into *Spartan*’s file system.

A substructure search is set up by specifying one or more attachment points on the reactant structure (see **Define Structure Query** earlier in this chapter) that has been augmented with reaction arrows (see **Define Reaction Query** earlier in this chapter). Prior to starting the actual search, it is necessary to specify which theoretical model or set of models are to be included. This is done from the **Search Options** dialog, and is reached by clicking on ▼ to the right of the **Search** button at the bottom right of the dialog.

**Using Directories** indicates the libraries to be searched. One is supplied with *Spartan* and the users are free to replace or supplement this with their own collections (see **Appendix H**). **Checking** one or more boxes under the **Method Filters** specifies the theoretical model(s) to be searched. **Clicking** on **OK** removes the dialog.
(Clicking on Cancel or ❌ also removes the dialog, but selections are not made.)

Following specification of structure/reaction arrows, attachment points and designation of theory level(s), a search on SRD is carried out by clicking on the Search button at the bottom right of the dialog. If there are hits, they will begin to appear in a few seconds in the box at the right of the dialog. The search may be terminated at any time by clicking on to the right of the Search button at the bottom right of the dialog. Because the SRD is small, it may be difficult to stop the search before it has actually completed.

Database hits are displayed in the box at the right of the dialog. They may be sorted by name, molecular weight and theoretical model by clicking on the appropriate tab. A 3D structure for a particular hit may be previewed by clicking on its name in the box. A ball-and-wire model of the transition state with bonding consistent with the reactant and associated reaction arrows is displayed in the window at the left of the dialog, and its name appears immediately below the window. The model may be manipulated inside the window in the usual way, but the model style cannot be changed.

**Retrieving Data from an SRD Search**

Prior to retrieval of one or more database hits, it is necessary to specify a destination. This is accomplished with the Retrieve Options dialog, brought up by clicking on to the right of the Retrieve button.
Selection of **New Document** results in request for a file name; selection of **Current Document** results in the retrieved molecules being appended to the end of the current document. The **Retrieve Options** dialog is dismissed by **clicking** on **OK**. **Clicking** on **Cancel** or on **X** also dismisses the dialog but any changes to settings are lost.

Retrieval is accomplished by first selecting (**clicking** on) one or more hits in the box and then pressing the **Retrieve** button at the bottom of the **SMD** dialog. The **Shift** and **Ctrl** keys may be used to specify retrieval of multiple hits. Retrieval may be stopped at any time by **clicking** on **Stop** to the right of the **Retrieve** button.

**Spartan Infrared Database (SIRD)**

The **Spartan** **Infrared Database (SIRD)** is actually a second access point into the **Spartan Spectra and Properties Database (SSPD)** discussed earlier in this chapter. It comprises infrared spectra for ~70,000 molecules* calculated from the EDF2/6-31G* model and (where the T1 model is defined) based on the lowest-energy conformer from T1. Unlike the other databases of calculated information attached to **Spartan**, SIRD is searched not on substructure but rather on a measured (or calculated) infrared spectrum. This is input in JCAMP format (.dx).** The search is carried out in two steps: a fast search on the full database is performed first to identify a small set of possible matches which are then examined more thoroughly.

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* As with SMD, a small subset of ~5,000 molecules from SSPD is provided with **Spartan**. The full database, which is expected to grow to ~120,000 molecules by Summer of 2011, may be separately licensed.

** A sample .dx file is provided in **Appendix J**.
Spectra Searching

Access to SIRD is provided by clicking on the SIRD tab at the top of the Database dialog. A Spartan document must be open even if it is an empty document (New from the File menu). This gives rise to the SIRD dialog.

While this dialog is quite unlike those associated with other databases accessible from Spartan, it does, share two aspects with these dialogs, a window at the lower left for examining the 3D structure of the selected hit and a box at the lower right for listing all hits. It also contains a window at the top right for examining the match between the unknown (measured) infrared spectrum and that of a hit in the database, as well as boxes at the top left listing the frequencies and intensities for both unknown and database spectra. Finally, buttons at the bottom of the dialog access the unknown spectrum, provide (optional) filters for its search against spectra in the database and control transfer of any search results into Spartan’s file system.

A search is initiated by clicking on Select Spectrum at the bottom right of the dialog. This leads to a file browser that has been set up to recognize only .dx files. Selection of a file in the usual manner followed by clicking on Open (or double clicking on the name of the .dx file) leads to the display of the unknown spectrum in the window at the top right of the dialog.
The name of the (.dx) file is provided underneath the window. The unknown spectrum has been fit on-the-fly to a Lorentzian function to allow extraction of a set of vibrational frequencies and intensities. These are displayed in the box marked **Unknown**: immediately to the left of the spectrum, along with the corresponding intensities. Features in the unknown spectrum with very low intensity cannot be fit.

**Filters**

Conditions under which the search is carried out may be specified by clicking on the **Filters** button at the bottom of the dialog. (This step is optional.)
The **Filters** dialog contains a window for constructing a substructure filter on the left, a listing of common functional groups in the middle, and controls to limit the molecular formula of hits on the database on the top right. Controls at the bottom right govern the number of preliminary hits that are moved from the first pass of the search to the (more costly) second pass and the number of hits that are finally kept.

This allows a substructure to be constructed (or edited from the currently selected molecule) and used as a substructure filter. To build a substructure, *click* on **Edit** below the (empty) **Substructure Filter** window at the top left of the screen. Alternatively, you can start with the currently selected molecule by *clicking* on **Copy Current Molecule** prior to *clicking* on **Edit**. A builder panel appears.

![Builder Panel](image)

This contains most of the functionality in the organic model kit (see Chapter 16) and in addition, the ability to define one or more attachment points (see **Define Structure Query** earlier in this chapter). Whatever substructure is built needs to be in the hit. Note that if no attachment points are designated, the molecule that is built is the only acceptable hit. *Click* on **OK** to exit the build panel.

**Functional Group Filters** allow the search to be restricted to molecules that incorporate one or more of the functional groups. *Check* to select and *uncheck* to deselect.

**Formula Filter** allows selection of the minimum and maximum molecular formula (or both) to be considered in the search. The
format of the input is $C_n N_m O_o \ldots$, where C, N, O, etc. are atomic symbols and c, n, o are the number of each of the designated atoms. Neither hydrogens nor any elements that are not explicitly designated are considered.

**Keep Following Pass 1** controls the number of entries that are kept following the initial pass of *Spartan*’s spectra matching algorithm. The larger the number, the more computer time will be needed, but the more likely it will be to produce a good hit (assuming that the unknown or a closely-related molecule is actually in the database).

**Keep Following Pass 2** controls the number of hits that are returned to the user. Does not affect the time required for the search.

*Clicking* on **OK** exits the dialog. *Clicking* on **Cancel** or $\square$ also dismisses the dialog but any changes to the settings are lost.

In addition, the search may be restricted to a specific frequency range. This is controlled by the two grey slider bars displayed inside the dialog containing the spectrum of the unknown. Frequencies below $500$-$600$ cm$^{-1}$ (which typically correspond to torsional motions and therefore may depend on conformation) require special instrumentation to measure and are seldom reported. While the experimental spectrum is usually recorded and reported to $4500$ cm$^{-1}$, the region beyond $\sim 2800$ cm$^{-1}$ is dominated by CH stretching vibrations and may be too crowded to be of value in spectral searching. A reasonable range is from $700$-$2200$ cm$^{-1}$, but this will depend on the details of the unknown spectrum.

A search on the reference spectrum restricted by whatever conditions are specified in the **Search Options** dialog is carried out by *clicking* on the **Search** button at the bottom of the **SIRD** dialog. The search is carried out in two passes. The first pass may require several tens of seconds depending on the size of the database and the filters that have been set. The second pass may require several minutes (depending on the number of hits kept following the initial pass as specified in the **Search Options** dialog). Searching may be stopped at any time by *clicking* on $\square$ to the right of the **Search** button at the bottom of the **SIRD** dialog. However no results will
be returned if the search is stopped prematurely.

When the search has completed a listing of hits (the number of which is specified by Keep Following Pass 2 in the Search Options dialog) ordered by their fit errors (lowest is best) appears in the box at the right of the SIRD dialog. As each hit is selected (clicked on in the list), its spectrum will be superimposed onto the spectrum of the unknown.

![Spectral Infrared Database Image]

Calculated vibrational frequencies and intensities for the hit are displayed in a box at the top left of the dialog (to the left of the corresponding values for the unknown). Clicking inside the box to the left of a (calculated) frequency animates the vibrational motion.

**Retrieving Data from an SIRD Search**

Prior to retrieval on one or more database hits, it is necessary to specify a destination. This is accomplished with the Retrieve Options dialog, brought up by clicking on to the right of the Retrieve button.

![Retrieve Options Image]

Selection of destination is accomplished by toggling between New Document and Current Document. Selection of the former
creates a new document which will need to be named later, while selection of the latter results in the retrieved molecules being appended to the end of the current document. The dialog is dismissed by clicking on OK. Clicking on Cancel or x also dismisses the dialog but any changes are lost.

Retrieval is accomplished by first selecting (clicking on) one or more hits in the box and then pressing the Retrieve button at the bottom of the SIRD dialog. The Shift and Ctrl keys may be used to specify retrieval of multiple hits. Retrieval may be stopped at any time by clicking on ( ) to the right of the Retrieve button.

Whichever database dialog is open may be closed by clicking on x, or alternatively by selecting Close Databases (that has replaced Open Databases) in the Search menu.

**Guess Transition State ( )**

*Spartan* provides a facility for automatically guessing transition state geometries based on the similarity with one or more entries in *Spartan’s* reaction database*. An exact hit replaces the guess with transition state for the same reaction with the particular theoretical model entered in the database**. More commonly, *Spartan* will attempt to provide as close a match as possible with a database entry. This will generally involve a less substituted system or one in which substituents differ. Here, those parts of the structure of the transition state in the database that are common will be used, and the remaining parts will be optimized using molecular mechanics. No conformational searching is performed. Note that it may be essential for the reactants to be properly oriented to reflect the desired stereochemical outcome of the reaction.

Where a reaction is completely unknown to the database, a fallback technique similar to the linear synchronous transit method is automatically invoked.

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* The Spartan Reaction Database (SRD) may also be directly searched by substructure. See discussion earlier in this chapter.

** At the present time, the majority of database entries derive from very simple (semi-empirical and Hartree-Fock) quantum chemical models.
Input to Spartan’s transition-state guessing procedure will be familiar to organic chemists, in that it is based on curly arrows, where each arrow identifies the movement of one electron pair. The difference is that arrows are superimposed onto a three-dimensional structure rather than a two-dimensional drawing. The procedure has already been described and illustrations provided in Define Reaction Query earlier in this chapter.

After all reaction arrows have been properly designated, clicking on at the bottom right of the screen replaces the reactant with a guess at the transition state. In the event that the guess is unreasonable, this operation may be undone (select Undo from the Edit menu). This allows you to review your assignment of arrows and make changes as needed.

**Identify Tautomers (]**

Spartan provides a facility to automatically identify tautomers, that is, isomers arising from labile transfer of hydrogens among heteroatoms. Tautomer identification is especially important in dealing with heterocyclic compounds where two or more different tautomers may exist in equilibrium and the identity of the dominant tautomer may not be obvious. For example, while 2-hydroxypyridine is an aromatic molecule and would be expected to be unusually stable, the non-aromatic 2-pyridone molecule is actually thermodynamically favored.

![2-hydroxypyridine and 2-pyridone](image)

This, of course, has consequences in trying to locate a particular molecule in a database where it may be represented by a different tautomer.

In contrast, Spartan almost always recognizes different ways to draw the same structure. The most important example is benzene, which can be represented as one of two structures with alternating double and single bonds or a single delocalized structure in which all bonds are the same and intermediate in length between single and double bonds.
All of these translate into the same molecule.

The procedure incorporated into *Spartan* is limited to tautomers involving nitrogen, oxygen, phosphorous and sulfur. Tautomers involving carbon have intentionally been excluded (there are too many of them and inclusion would swamp the more likely heteroatom tautomers). Also excluded are zwitterion tautomers, for example, $\text{H}_3\text{N}^+\text{CH}_2\text{CO}_2^-$ as a tautomer of glycine. Within these limits, all possible tautomers will be identified.

The existence of (heteroatom) tautomers is signaled by the word **Tautomer** displayed at the bottom right of the screen. If tautomers exist, individual structures may be examined or a complete list of structures generated by selecting **Tautomers** from the **Search** menu (or clicking on the ? icon on the top of the screen). Following this, clicking on the step buttons at the bottom right of the screen moves through the list of tautomers. Any one of these may be used in place of the original. The full list of tautomers may be generated by clicking on [✓] (at the bottom right of the screen). This leads to a dialog.

**Clicking** on **OK** dismisses the dialog and leads to a new (unnamed) document containing the full list of tautomers. (The original document is unaffected.) **Clicking** on either **Cancel** or [✗] dismisses the dialog without generating a tautomer list.

As tautomers are generated without consideration of steric crowding, it is important to minimize each in turn (**Minimize** under the **Build** menu; **Chapter 16**) prior to using them for quantum chemical calculations.
Extract Ligands (.Excel)

*Spartan* provides a facility for extracting ligands from PDB files\(^*\) either as molecular structures or as footprints (pharmacophores) that these structures leave behind. The latter is separated into three parts, the first two of which follow from the molecular structure of the ligand and the third which follows from the immediate (protein or nucleotide) environment:

(i) hydrogen-bond donor/acceptor sites and positive/negative ionizable sites
(ii) hydrophobes
(iii) excluded volumes

A pharmacophore can be constructed by requiring (i) to account for hydrogen-bonded and electrostatic interactions and (optionally) *either* (ii) or (iii) to account for steric interactions. Selection of (ii) leads to a pharmacophore that is visually simpler, but selection of (iii) may provide a more realistic picture.

Selection of **Extract Ligands** leads to a message at the bottom of the screen.

Ligands in PDB files are represented as a transparent space-filling model. *Clicking* on a ligand selects it and displays the PDB HET name\(^**\) at the bottom of the screen (if a HET name is available). Multiple ligands may be selected if desired by holding down on the **Ctrl** key. All ligands may be selected by *clicking* on the **Select All Ligands** button at the bottom right of the screen. After one or more ligands have been selected, *clicking* on the **Extract Ligands** button at the bottom right of the screen brings up the **Extract Ligands** dialog.

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* This capability is not restricted to files in PDB, but extends to files written in PDB format.
** This is the code given to small molecules that are associated with proteins/nucleotides in PDB files.
This allows selection of whether **Ligand Structures** or one or more pharmacophore elements (**HBA/HBD and +/- Centers, Hydrophobe Centers** including aromatic centers, **Excluded Volume Centers**) or **both** structure and one or more pharmacophore elements are to be abstracted from the PDB file, and whether amino acid and/or nucleotide residues in close hydrogen-bonding or charge-charge contact with the ligand (**Environmental Structures**) are to be identified. It also allows the **Protein/Nucleotide Structure** (minus all ligands) to be extracted.

In the case of extraction of **Ligand Structures**, the **Extract Ligands** dialog also provides a set of utilities:

(i) **Grow Hydrogens**
   If checked, adds hydrogens wherever they appear to be missing, based on the actual geometry and on normal valence rules. This function is also available under **Grow Hydrogens** in the **Molecule Utilities** dialog (**Properties** under the **Display** menu; **Chapter 18**).

(ii) **Repair Bonds**
    If checked, attempts to fix bonding errors based on the actual geometry in the PDB entry and on normal valence rules.

*Clicking* on **OK** at the bottom of the **Extract Ligands** dialog extracts the ligand(s) or pharmacophore(s), placing them in a single new (unnamed) document. *Clicking* on **Cancel** dismisses the dialog without ligand (pharmacophore) extraction.
Chapter 20
The Options Menu

Functions under the Options menu* set default colors, fonts, user preferences and van der Waals radii, locate databases, identify remote servers, engage parallel computing, set program queue’s, set icon displays and identify/change URL’s for on-line accesses. They also allow for changing default colors and fonts and for monitoring executing jobs.

Preferences...

This sets up preferences relating to the graphical user interface (Settings), and to molecule displays (Molecules). It permits changes to default van der Waals radii used for space-filling models as well as for calculating molecular surface areas and volumes (VDW Radii). It also specifies the locations of databases (Paths), identifies remote servers (Hosts), sets job queues (Jobs), (optionally) specifies parallel operations (Parallel), specifies platform dependent features (X-Platform), specifies which icons are to be displayed (Toolbars) and specifies URL’s (URL’s) for on-line connections. Selection results in one of ten dialogs, depending on which tab has been selected in the previous entry. Clicking on a tab brings up the associated dialog.

* Preferences are also under the Spartan’10 menu on the Macintosh version.
To exit a Preferences dialog click on OK. Clicking on Cancel or exits the dialog without instituting any changes.

## Settings

![Preferences dialog](image)

(i) **View: Orthogonal/Perspective**
Controls the view of structural models and graphics.

(ii) **Toolbar Style: text/small icons/medium icons/large icons**
Controls presentation style (text vs. icons) and size of the icons.

(iii) **Stereo: off/red-cyan**
Turns red-cyan stereographic display on and off.

(iv) **Global Rotate: screen ctr./molecule ctr.**
**Screen ctr.** rotates all molecules about a common center; **while molecule ctr.** rotates each molecule about its own center.

(v) **Animation Speed**
A slider bar controls the maximum speed for animations. This has become an important control as the performance of graphics cards has increased.
(vi) **Pin New Documents**
If *checked*, defaults to display of any new documents (from building or brought in from the *File* menu) irrespective of whether or not they are selected. Does not affect the status of existing documents. **Pin New Documents** has no meaning unless **Show Document Tabs** (see discussion following) is *checked*.

(vii) **Show Document Tabs**
If *checked*, this displays a tab at the bottom of the screen for each open document. Only if the box to the left of the tab is *checked* will the molecule display (if it is not the selected document). If **Show Document Tabs** is not *checked*, the display corresponds to previous versions of *Spartan*.

(viii) **Split-Tubes**
If *checked*, the tubes in tube and ball-and-spoke models are split to designate multiple bonds.

(ix) **CSD Interface**
If *checked*, displays the CSD tab in the Database dialog (Database under the Search menu; Chapter 19). **Uncheck** if CSD is not installed.

(x) **Auto-Gen Graphics**
If *checked*, graphics calculations will be performed in the interface (without having to submit the job). Does not pertain to orbital displays initiated from *Orbital Energies* under the Display menu. Note, however, that graphics calculations on documents containing more than 25 molecules will not be performed in the interface irrespective of this setting.

(xi) **Tumble**
If *checked*, allows automatic tumbling of molecule. To tumble a molecule, select it, *press* the left mouse button, move the mouse and release the button. To stop tumbling, *left click*. 
(xii) **Keep Verbose**
If *checked*, keeps extended (verbose) output. Normally discarded upon successful completion, this may be useful for identifying the source of problems for calculations that have not successfully completed or have led to suspicious results. (Verbose output is automatically kept for a job that has abnormally terminated.) Note that keeping verbose output significantly increases the size of the *Spartan* document.

(xiii) **Conformer Rules**
Chooses between rule sets for conformational searching. *Normal* should be used for *Equilibrium Conformer* and *Conformer Distribution* where Monte Carlo methods are involved. *Trimmed* eliminates less important degrees of conformational freedom and should be used for *Conformer Library* where systematic searches are carried out.

(xiv) **PDB Water Filter**
If *checked*, removes water molecules from imported PDB files.

(xv) **MDL Water Filter**
If *checked*, removes water molecules from SD files.

(xvi) **MDL HCl Filter**
If *checked*, removes HCl molecules from SD files.

(xvii) **Max-Ligand Distance**
Set maximum distance (in Å) for an amino acid in a protein to be recognized as bonded to a ligand.

(xviii) **Polar Area Range**
Set potential (in kJ/mol) for calculating polar area from electrostatic potential map. Values > | range | contribute to polar area. Default is 100 kJ/mol.

(xix) **Accessible Area Radius**
Set sphere radius (in Å) for determining accessible area. Default is 1.0.
This specifies default settings for model appearance. These settings may be overridden for a specific molecule (or list of molecules) using entries under the **Model** menu and for specific portions of a molecule using **Utilities/Style** dialogs associated with **Properties** dialogs (**Properties** under the **Display** menu; **Chapter 18**).

(i) **Model:** Wire/Ball and Wire/Tube/Ball/Spoke/Space Filling/Line
Controls default model style.

(ii) **Show:** Constraints/Frozens/Points/Planes/Peaks/Reactions/CFD’s/Images/Annotations
If checked, constraints and frozen markers, points and planes, reaction arrows and CFD’s will always be shown as part of the model. Otherwise, they will be shown only in the appropriate mode.

(iii) **Atom Labeling:** Label/Element/Mass Number/Mulliken Charge/Electrostatic Charge/Natural Charge/Strand: Residue/Label/R/S/Exposed Area/Chem Shift/Custom Controls default label type. **Custom** allows the user to enter an expression designating a label. These are of the same form as used in the spreadsheet. See the section on **User-**
Defined Expressions under Spreadsheet in the Display menu (Chapter 18).

(iv) Bond Labels
If checked, bond labels will be shown.

(v) Point Labels
If checked, point labels will be shown.

(vi) Plane Labels
If checked, plane labels will be shown.

(vii) Constraint Labels
If checked, constraint labels will be shown.

(viii) Residue Labels
If checked, residue labels will be shown.

(ix) Reaction Labels
If checked, reaction arrow labels will be shown.

(x) CFD Labels
If checked, CFD labels will be shown.

VDW Radii
This provides a list of van der Waals radii
To order the list by element name click on **Element**, and by atomic radius click on **VDW Radius**. Individual entries may be changed from default values by first **clicking** on the entry and then entering a new value. The currently selected entry may be returned to its default radius by **clicking** on **Reset Selected** at the bottom of the dialog, and the full set of radii may be returned to their default values by **clicking** on **Reset All** at the bottom of the dialog.

**Paths**

This allows setting up of paths for SMD, SSPD/SIRD and SRD database directories.

![Preferences dialog](image)

**Molecular Database Directories** defines the content of SMD, SSPD/SIRD and SRD in terms of one or more directories. Multiple directories can be accessed at once. Specification of which directory (or directories) is to be searched in the **Search Options** dialogs associated with SMD, SSPD, SIRD and SRD (**Databases** under the **Search** menu; **Chapter 19**). Note that SIRD is the same database as SSPD, and only the method of access (spectral matching vs. substructure matching) are different.

All copies of **Spartan** are shipped with ~5,000 molecule subsets
of both SMD and SSPD databases (referred to as \textit{SMD (sample)} and \textit{SSPD (sample)}, respectively. The full databases (\textit{SMD} and \textit{SSPD}) are available from Wavefunction. To avoid duplicates, the sample databases should be removed upon installation of the full SMD and/or SSPD databases.

Other collections may be added, for example, collections of diverse conformations for use in similarity analyses, or user-supplied collections. \textbf{Appendix H} discusses creation of user-defined databases.

\textbf{Hosts}

This allows specification of one or more computers that may act as servers.

To add a new host, \textit{click} on the \textbf{New...} button and follow the directions provided in the \textbf{Host} dialog that appears.
Jobs

This allows setting of job limits.

Maximum Concurrent Jobs designates the maximum number of jobs that can be run at one time and Memory and Scratch Disk Space maximum amounts of memory and disk for a job.

You need to use caution that the maximum number of jobs does not significantly exceed the number of processors (cores) on your computer and also that you have sufficient memory to support this maximum number.
Parallel

This controls the use of a multi-core machine. The number of available cores is indicated at the top of the dialog.

(i) Core Allocation Method
Toggles between Automatic and Manual. Automatic will assign all available cores to a single molecule (single molecule inside a Spartan document) if there is only one molecule in the document and will divide the cores among the molecules in the document if there is more than one. Manual will follow settings under Manual Limits.

(ii) Manual Limits
Concurrent Molecules Per Job sets the number of jobs (molecules inside a Spartan document) that will run simultaneously and Cores Per Molecule sets the number of cores used on a single molecule.

If you are simultaneously working with two or more documents, you need to use caution in specifying more than one core/job. It is very easy (and, depending on available memory, potentially very inefficient) to demand more cores than are actually available. This is not an issue if you are working only with a single document even if it contains more than one molecule.
X-Platform

Items here refer to cross-platform applications and should not be of concern to users of a single platform.

(i) **Document Style**
Toggles between **File Based** and **Directory Based**. The latter is for compatibility between Windows and previous Macintosh and Unix/Linux versions of *Spartan*.

(ii) **Output/Spreadsheet Window**
Toggles between allowing the output window and the spreadsheet to be **Free** (able to move outside the main *Spartan* window) or **Confined** (restricted to move inside the main *Spartan* window). Previous versions of *Spartan* confined these windows.

(iii) **Dialog Buttons**
Menu selects between several dialog formats: **Windows**, **Macintosh**, and **KDE** and **Gnome** Linux. **Default** uses the style associated with the machine on which *Spartan* is installed.

(iv) **Data Compression Options**
Allows compression of text files (**Gzip text files**) and switches to binary for archive storage (**Use binary archive**).
Toolbars

A listing of all icons available for entries in the File, Geometry, Build, Display and Search menus is provided. If checked, the icon will appear at the top of the Spartan screen.

URL’s

Lists URL’s for access to experimental structural and spectral databases and to Wikipedia.
Colors

This alters default colors. Selection leads to the Colors dialog.

After selecting an object, its color may be set by choosing from the palette, moving the cursor inside the window of colors, or by selecting either a set of hue, saturation and values, or red, green and blue settings. The default color may be reset by clicking on Restore Default Color. Color selection applies to all objects of the same type, for example, all carbon atoms, and not just to the selected carbon. Further control of colors is available from Utilities/Style dialogs associated with Properties dialogs (Properties under the Display menu; Chapter 18). Clicking on removes the dialog.

Fonts/Graphic Fonts

This selects fonts, style and size of labels attached to molecules (Labels and Configure... under the Model menu; Chapter 14), and plots (Plots... under the Display menu; Chapter 18). Selection leads to the Fonts dialog.
Selections are made from the **Font**, **Font Style** and **Size** menus. *Clicking on OK* dismisses the dialog with selections kept. *Clicking on Cancel* or on **X** dismisses the dialog but selections are lost.

**Monitor**

This provides a listing of all executing/queued jobs and their status. To see accumulated output for an executing job, *click* on its name. A ball-and-spoke model of the selected (executing) job will be displayed in a window to the right of the dialog. It can be manipulated using the usual mouse commands (you need to position the cursor inside the window). Model style cannot be changed. Note that (except for
molecular mechanics and semi-empirical calculations) the structure is updated throughout an equilibrium geometry of transition state optimization, and bond lengths, angles and dihedral angles can be queried.

To kill a job, click on its name, and then select Terminate from the Actions menu at the top of the dialog (or right click on its name and select Terminate from the menu that appears). To start a queued job (irrespective of the imposed queue limits; see previous discussions under Jobs and Parallel), click on its name and select Start from the Actions menu (or right click on its name and select Start from the menu that appears).

The Monitor may be removed either by selecting Exit from the File menu or by clicking on ✗ at the top of the dialog.

**Calculator**

Selection brings up a Calculator.

![Calculator]

This functions the same way as a normal pocket calculator. The Calculator is removed by clicking on ✗.

**Model Kit**

If checked, this signifies that a model kit (organic, inorganic, peptide, nucleotide or substituent) is to remain on screen. Does not apply to ChemDraw.
File Toolbar, Geometry Toolbar, Build Toolbar, Display Toolbar, Search Toolbar

If checked, this provides display of toolbars that access functions contained in the File, Build, Geometry, Display and Search menus, respectively.

Cascade, Tile

Arranges open windows in a cascade or as tiles on top of Spartan’s main window (NAM).
Chapter 21

The Activities Menu

The Activities menu permits on-screen display of the full set of Spartan tutorials and a series of topics of practical relevance to molecular modeling. It also allows a Wikipedia page to be brought up (external to Spartan).

Tutorials/Topics

Selection of Tutorials or Topics brings up a dialog with either the Tutorials or Topics tab selected (Tutorials tab shown).

Selection of a Chapter (in this case, corresponding to a chapter in this User’s Guide) from the upper half of the dialog, followed by clicking on Open leads to a scrollable window containing the appropriate text. This may be moved about the screen but may not be sized.
Topics are specified by name only (in the upper half of the dialog).

Note that the full User’s Guide is available as a PDF under the Help menu (see next chapter).

**Look Up in Wikipedia...**

Selection results in a dialog.

Entering a query followed by *clicking* on OK leads to a Wikipedia page. This occupies a window that is external to Spartan.
Chapter 22

The Help Menu

This chapter describes help.

Help

This provides information relating to application of computational methods available in Spartan, as well as technical details regarding the program’s operation.

A number of topics are dealt with under Help; including Mouse/Keyboard Functions, General Operating Features, Units, Differences between Spartan’08 and ’10, Selecting a Theoretical Model, Relative Computational Times, Memory Usage, Calculation Options, and a number of FAQ documents (Energy Questions, Convergence Questions, Questions about Basis Sets, Problems with Memory, Questions about the Property Module, Questions about Conformations and Energy Profiles, MMFF94 Compliance, Units) related to computational questions. Help also provides a link to Wavefunction’s website. Help files are HTML documents and require that Internet Explorer is installed to access them.

The Spartan Tutorial and User’s Guide (this document) and A Guide to Molecular Mechanics and Quantum Chemical Calculations are also available (as PDF files) under Help.

Finally, note that several dialogs, in particular, the Calculations dialog incorporate imbedded help messages. Clicking on at the upper right, followed by clicking on a menu, button, etc. in the dialog gives rise to a brief informative message about the object queried.
About...

Provides information about the user’s release of *Spartan*. 

* About is located under the *Spartan 10* menu on the Macintosh version.
Appendix A

Topics

This appendix is made up of 12 short essays addressing topics that are important to molecular modeling in general and to modeling applications of Spartan in particular. These are also available from Topics under the Activities menu.

The first two essays are the most fundamental. Potential Energy Surfaces relates two of the quantities that directly result from a quantum chemical calculation, geometry and energy. Theoretical Models outlines the steps made in moving from the Schrödinger equation to practical techniques and broadly outlines the scope of these techniques.

The next two essays (Finding and Verifying Equilibrium and Transition-State Geometries and Total Energies and Thermodynamic and Kinetic Data) provide specifics about the relationship between geometry and energy in the context of practical quantum chemical models. A fifth essay (Calculating Accurate Heats of Formation) details what actually needs to be done to reliably reproduce the experimental measure of energy.

The next two essays discuss molecules that may not be adequately described in terms of a single conformer. Dealing with Conformationally-Flexible Molecules describes what needs to be done in order to identify the lowest-energy conformer and more generally to establish a Boltzmann energy distribution among different conformers. Interpreting Conformational Preferences shows how information resulting from calculating an energy profile for rotation about a single bond may be associated with familiar chemical notions.

The next two essays deal with spectroscopy. Calculating Infrared Spectra shows how the “raw data” resulting from a quantum chemical calculation may be combined with two empirical parameters to
produce accurate infrared spectra. **Calculating NMR Spectra** shows how a more complex parameterization scheme is needed to bring $^{13}$C spectra into close agreement with experiment.

The last four essays deal with graphical models. **Atomic and Molecular Orbitals** outlines the model that is certainly the most familiar to chemists. It illustrates how molecular orbitals arise from atomic orbitals in the context of the practical quantum chemical models introduced previously, and the information that can be drawn from them. While molecular orbitals are themselves not observable quantities, the square of the molecular orbitals (the electron density) corresponds to what is actually measured in an X-ray diffraction experiment. **Electron Densities: Sizes and Shapes of Molecules** connects this quantity to familiar notions about chemical bonds and about the space that molecules occupy (“sterics”). The electron density model underpins the three property maps described in the final two essays. **Electrostatic Potential Maps: Charge Distributions** describes a model that uses color to map the value of the electrostatic potential (the energy of a positive point charge with the nuclei and electrons of a molecule) and, in so doing, distinguish neutral, positively charged and negatively-charged regions on a sterically accessible surface. **Local Ionization Potential Maps and LUMO Maps: Electrophilic and Nucleophilic Reactivities** show how maps colored using two other quantities (the energy of ionization and the absolute value of the lowest-unoccupied molecular orbital) as a function of location on an electron density surface, may be used to account for electrophilic and nucleophilic reactivity.
POTENTIAL ENERGY SURFACES

One Dimensional Energy Surfaces

Every chemist has encountered a plot depicting the change in energy of ethane as a function of the angle of torsion (dihedral angle) around the carbon-carbon bond.

Full 360° rotation leads to three identical energy minima in which the hydrogens are staggered, and three identical energy maxima in which the hydrogens are eclipsed. The difference in energy between eclipsed and staggered structures of ethane, termed the barrier to rotation, is known experimentally to be 12 kJ/mol. Note, that any physical measurements on ethane pertain only to its staggered structure, or more precisely the set of three identical staggered structures. Eclipsed ethane *does not exist* in the sense that it cannot be isolated and characterized. Rather, it can only be imagined as a structure in between equivalent staggered forms.

Open *ethane rotation* in the *topics* directory. The image which appears is one frame in a sequence depicting rotation about the carbon-carbon bond in ethane. *Click* on the *d* and *r* keys at the bottom left of the screen to look at other frames. Verify that the staggered structures correspond to...
minima on the energy plot and that the eclipsed structures correspond to maxima. Click on the key to animate the sequence. Close ethane rotation when you are finished.

Somewhat more complicated but also familiar is a plot of energy vs. the dihedral angle involving the central carbon-carbon bond in \( n \)-butane.

This plot also reveals three energy minima, corresponding to staggered structures, and three energy maxima, corresponding to eclipsed structures. In the case of \( n \)-butane, however, the three structures in each set are not identical. Rather, one of the minima, corresponding to a dihedral angle of 180° (the \textit{anti} structure), is lower in energy and distinct from the other two \textit{gauche} minima (dihedral angles around 60° and 300°), which are identical. Similarly, one of the energy maxima corresponding to a dihedral angle of 0°, is distinct from the other two maxima (with dihedral angles around 120° and 240°), which are
identical. As with ethane, eclipsed forms of \( n \)-butane do not exist, and correspond only to hypothetical structures in between \( \text{anti} \) and \( \text{gauche} \) minima. Unlike ethane, which is a single compound, any sample of \( n \)-butane is made up of two distinct compounds, \( \text{anti} \ n \)-butane and \( \text{gauche} \ n \)-butane. The relative abundance of the two compounds as a function of temperature is given by the Boltzmann equation (see the topic Total Energies and Thermodynamic and Kinetic Data).

The important geometrical coordinate in both of the above examples may clearly be identified as a torsion involving one particular carbon-carbon bond. This is an oversimplification, as bond lengths and angles no doubt change during rotation around the carbon-carbon bond.

Quantum chemical models available in Spartan are able to account for the subtle changes in bond lengths and angles which result from changes in conformation. Open \( n \)-butane geometry changes in the topics directory. The two plots depict the variation in central CC bond distance and in CCC bond angle as a function of the CCCC torsional angle. The variation in energy is superimposed on each plot. Note how closely the bond distance and energy changes parallel each other. Note also that the bond angle is insensitive to conformation except in the region of the \( \text{syn} \) (0° torsional angle) structure where it has opened up by several degrees. Close \( n \)-butane geometry changes when you are finished.
Many Dimensional Energy Surfaces

It will usually not be possible to identify a simple geometrical coordinate to designate a chemical transformation. A good example of this is provided by the potential energy surface for ring inversion in cyclohexane.

In this case, the geometrical coordinate connecting stable forms is not specified in detail (as it was in the previous two examples), but is referred to simply as the *reaction coordinate*. The two energy maxima have been designated as *transition states* to indicate that their structures may not be simply described (as are the energy maxima for rotation in ethane and \(n\)-butane).

The energy surface for ring inversion in cyclohexane, like that for \(n\)-butane, contains three distinct energy minima, two of lower energy referred to as *chair* forms, and one of higher energy referred to as a *twist boat* form. In fact, the energy difference between the chair and twist boat structures is sufficiently large (around 23 kJ/mol) that only the former can be observed at normal temperatures. For a discussion, see the topic *Total Energies and Thermodynamic and Kinetic Data*.

All six carbons are equivalent in the chair form of cyclohexane, but the hydrogens divide into two sets of six equivalent *equatorial* hydrogens and six equivalent *axial* hydrogens.
However, only one kind of hydrogen can normally be observed, meaning that *equatorial* and *axial* positions interconvert via some low-energy process. This is the ring inversion process just described, in which one side of the ring is bent upward while the other side is bent downward.

As shown in the potential energy diagram on the previous page, the overall ring inversion process appears to occur in two steps, with a twist boat structure as a midway point (an intermediate). The two (equivalent) transition states leading to this intermediate adopt structures in which five of the ring carbons lie (approximately) in one plane.

The energy profile for ring inversion in cyclohexane may be rationalized given what we have already said about single-bond rotation in *n*-butane. Basically, the interconversion of the reactant into the twist-boat intermediate via the transition state can be viewed as a restricted rotation about one of the ring bonds.

Correspondingly, the interconversion of the twist boat intermediate into the product can be viewed as rotation about the opposite ring bond. Overall, two independent bond rotations, pausing at the high-energy (but stable) twist-boat intermediate effect conversion of one chair structure into another equivalent chair, and at the same time switch *axial* and *equatorial* hydrogens.
Open *cyclohexane ring inversion* in the *topics* directory. The image which appears is one frame in a sequence depicting ring inversion in cyclohexane. Click on the "↓" and "↑" keys at the bottom left of the screen to look at other frames. Verify that the three minima on the energy plot correspond to staggered structures and that the two maxima correspond to eclipsed structures. Also, verify that the twist boat structure is higher in energy than the chair structures. Click on [animation] to animate the sequence. Note that the overall ring inversion appears to occur in two steps, one step leading up to the twist boat and the other step leading away from it. Close *cyclohexane ring inversion* when you are finished.

Ethane, \(n\)-butane and cyclohexane are all examples of the types of motions which molecules may undergo. Their potential energy surfaces are special cases of a general type of plot in which the variation in energy is given as a function of reaction coordinate.

Diagrams like this provide essential connections between important chemical observables - structure, stability, reactivity and selectivity - and energy.

The positions of the energy minima along the reaction coordinate give the equilibrium structures of the reactant and product. Similarly, the position of the energy maximum gives the structure of the transition state. Both energy minima (which correspond to stable molecules) and the energy maximum (which may correspond to a transition state) are well defined. However, the path connecting them (reaction coordinate) is not well defined, in the sense that there are many possible paths. Liken this to climbing a mountain. The starting and ending points are well defined as is the summit, but there can be many possible routes.
As previously commented, the reaction coordinate for some processes may be quite simple. For example, where the “reaction” is rotation about the carbon-carbon bond in ethane, the reaction coordinate may be thought of as the HCCH torsion angle, and the structure may be thought of in terms of this angle alone. Thus, staggered ethane (both the reactant and the product) is a molecule for which this angle is 60° and eclipsed ethane is a molecule for which this angle is 0°.

A similar description applies to “reaction” of gauche $n$-butane leading to the more stable anti conformer. Again, the reaction coordinate may be thought of as a torsion about the central carbon-carbon bond, and the individual reactant, transition state and product structures in terms of this coordinate.
Equilibrium structure (geometry) may be determined from experiment, given that the molecule can be prepared and is sufficiently long-lived to be subject to measurement. On the other hand, the geometry of a transition state may not be experimentally established. This is simply because a transition state is not an energy well which can trap molecules. Therefore, it is impossible to establish a population of molecules on which measurements may be performed.

Both equilibrium and transition-state structures may be determined from quantum chemical calculations. The fact that a molecule may not be stable enough to be detected and characterized (or even exist) is not important. It would seem from our discussion that equilibrium and transition-state structures can be distinguished from one another simply by inspecting the shape of the potential energy surface in the vicinity of the structure. In practice, such a surface cannot actually be visualized for a system with more than one or at most two degrees of freedom. A better (more general) indicator is the set of frequencies associated with the vibrational motions around the structure, the same quantities measured by infrared spectroscopy. Structures for which all frequencies are real numbers correspond to stable molecules (energy minima), while structures which have one (and only one) vibrational frequency which is an imaginary number may be transition states. The coordinate (vibrational motion) associated with this imaginary frequency is the reaction coordinate. Further discussion is provided in the topic *Calculating Infrared Spectra*. 
THEORETICAL MODELS

A wide variety of different procedures based on quantum mechanics (so-called quantum chemical models) have been developed to calculate molecular structure and properties and infrared, NMR and UV/visible spectra. All follow from a deceptively simple looking Schrödinger equation first written down in 1927.

\[ \hat{H} \Psi = \varepsilon \Psi \]

\( \hat{H} \) (the Hamiltonian or more precisely Hamiltonian operator) is the only known. It describes the kinetic energies of the particles that make up a molecule and the Coulombic interactions between the individual particles. Positively-charged nuclei repel other nuclei, and negatively-charged electrons repel other electrons, but nuclei attract electrons. \( \Psi \) (the wavefunction) is a function of the Cartesian coordinates, and \( \varepsilon \) (the energy) is a number. The goal in solving the Schrödinger equation is to find a function that when operated on by the Hamiltonian yields the same function multiplied by a number. Note that there are many (actually an infinite number of) solutions to the Schrödinger equation. These correspond to the ground and various excited states of an atomic or molecular system.

The energy of a molecule can be measured. While the wavefunction itself has no physical meaning, the square of the wavefunction times a small volume element gives the probability of finding an electron inside the volume. This is what is measured in an X-ray diffraction experiment.

The Schrödinger equation can be solved exactly for the hydrogen atom (a one-electron system), where the wavefunctions are familiar to chemists as the s, p, d, ... atomic orbitals. These correspond to the ground and excited states of the hydrogen atom.

\[ s \text{ orbital} \quad p \text{ orbital} \quad d \text{ orbital} \]

Although the Schrödinger equation may easily be written down for many-electron atoms as well as for molecules, it cannot be solved,
even for a something as simple as the helium atom with only two-electrons. Approximations need to be made.

**Hartree-Fock Molecular Orbital Models**

*Hartree-Fock molecular orbital models* or more simply *molecular orbital models* were the first practical quantum chemical models to be formulated. They result from making three approximations to the Schrödinger equation:

1. Separate nuclear and electron motions. The *Born-Oppenheimer approximation* says that “from the point of view of the electrons”, the nuclei are stationary. This eliminates nuclear motion and leads to an *electronic Schrödinger equation* which can be solved for the H$_2^+$ molecule, but cannot be solved for molecules with more than one-electron.

2. Separate electron motions. The *Hartree-Fock approximation* eliminates the need of having to simultaneously account for the motions of several electrons. It leads to a much simpler set of equations in which the motion of each electron in an environment made up of the nuclei and all the other electrons is sought.

3. Represent each one-electron solution or *molecular orbital* by a linear combination of atom-centered functions or *atomic orbitals*. The *LCAO (Linear Combinations of Atomic Orbitals) approximation* reduces the problem of finding the best functional form for the molecular orbitals to the much simpler problem of finding the best set of linear coefficients. As the number and complexity of the atomic orbitals increases, the energy and other properties approach limiting values. However, computational cost also increases. The goal is to provide as few functions as possible to yield a value for the property of interest that adequately reflects its limit. Note, that the limiting values of properties are not expected to be same as experimental values, but rather reflect the behavior of the Hartree-Fock model.

Taken together, these three approximations lead to a set of equations known as the *Roothan-Hall equations* that can actually be solved.
for molecules with molecular weights in the range of 300-500 amu. In practice, the resulting models increase in computational cost as the cube of the size (number of basis functions). Note, however, that calculated atomic and molecular properties will not exactly match the corresponding experimental quantities.

**Basis Sets**

All practical molecular orbital calculations utilize Gaussian functions. These are polynomials in the Cartesian coordinates times an exponential in the square of the distance from the origin, and are closely related to the exact solutions of the hydrogen atom (exponential functions in the distance). Functions are labeled 1s, 2s, 2p, ... , the same nomenclature used to describe hydrogen atom solutions.

A **minimal basis set** includes only sufficient functions to hold all the electrons on an atom and to maintain its spherical shape. This involves a single 1s orbital for each hydrogen atom, and a set of five orbitals (1s, 2s, 2p_x, 2p_y and 2p_z) for each carbon atom. Because a minimal basis set incorporates only one set valence p functions, the components of which are the same size, atoms in nearly spherical environments will be better described than atoms in aspherical environments. A **split-valence basis set** addresses the problem by providing two different sets of valence p functions, one compact set and one loose set. This allows different linear combinations for different directions. For example, the compact p orbital can be emphasized to construct a σ bond while the loose p orbital can be emphasized to construct a π bond.

$$p_s = \text{inner} + \text{outer} \quad \Rightarrow$$

$$p_p = \text{inner} + \text{outer} \quad \Rightarrow$$

Because the functions in a minimal or split valence basis set are centered on the atoms, they may have difficulty describing
electron distributions that fall in between atoms (that is, bonds). A polarization basis sets addresses the problem by providing a set of d-type functions (polarization functions) on main-group elements, and (optionally) a set of p-type functions on hydrogen. The resulting combinations can be thought of as hybrid orbitals, for example, the pd and sp hybrids shown below.

\[ + \lambda \quad \text{leading to} \quad \text{hybrid orbital} \]

The so-called 6-31G* basis set will be used for the infrared and NMR calculations described in this chapter. The number “6” to the left of the “-” in the name indicates that 6 functions are used to describe each inner-shell (core) atomic orbital. The numbers, “31” to the right of the “-” indicate that two groups of 3 and 1 functions are used to describe each valence-shell atomic orbital. “*” designates that polarization functions are supplied for non-hydrogen atoms. Were two stars to be present (as in 6-31G**) this would indicate that p-type polarization functions would also be placed on hydrogen atoms.

Hartree-Fock models increase in computational cost as the cube of the total number of basis functions, and can easily be applied to molecules incorporating 50-100 heavy (non-hydrogen) atoms.

**Beyond Hartree-Fock Models**

According to the Hartree-Fock approximation, electrons “move independently”, which means that both the electron-electron repulsion energy and the total energy will be too large. The limiting Hartree-Fock energy is therefore higher (less negative) than the experimental energy. **Electron correlation** is the term given to describe the coupling or correlation of electron motions. The **correlation energy** is defined as the difference between the Hartree-Fock energy and the experimental energy.
There are two conceptually different approaches for calculating the correlation energy, and numerous specific models arising from each of these approaches. One way is to combine the Hartree-Fock wavefunction with wavefunctions formed by promoting electrons from molecular orbitals that are occupied to molecular orbitals that are unoccupied. You can think of this as combining the ground-state and wavefunction with wavefunctions arising from different excited states.

It can be shown that the energy corresponding to a wavefunction $\Psi$, formed by combining the Hartree-Fock wavefunction $\Psi_o$ and wavefunctions resulting from all possible electron promotions $\Psi_s$, is identical to that obtained from exact solution of the Schrödinger equation.

$$\Psi = a_o \Psi_o \sum_{s > o} a_s \Psi_s$$

This is referred to as **full configuration interaction**. Such a procedure is not practical (possible) simply because the number of excited states is infinite. Practical methods follow by reducing the number of electron promotions (excited states), for example, by limiting promotions to involve only one electron, only two electrons, etc. Collectively these are referred to as **limited configuration interaction**. **CID** (Configuration Interaction Doubles) and **CISD** (Configuration Interaction Singles and Doubles) are two practical limited configuration interaction methods.
An alternative to configuration interaction is *Møller-Plesset theory*. This assumes that the Hartree-Fock energy $E_0$ and wavefunction $\Psi_0$ are solutions to an equation involving a Hamiltonian, $\hat{H}_0$, that is very close to the exact Schrödinger Hamiltonian, $\hat{H}$. This being the case, $\hat{H}$ can be written as a sum of $\hat{H}_0$ a small correction, $V$. $\lambda$ is a dimensionless parameter.

$$\hat{H} = \hat{H}_0 + \lambda \hat{V}$$

Expanding the exact energy in terms of a power series of the Hartree-Fock energy yields:

$$E = E^{(0)} + \lambda E^{(1)} + \lambda^2 E^{(2)} + \lambda^3 E^{(3)} + \ldots$$

Substituting this expansion into the Schrödinger equation and collecting terms in powers of $\lambda$ leads to an explicit expression for the energy correction. The sum of $E^{(0)}$ and $E^{(1)}$ is the Hartree-Fock energy. Including the next term gives rise to the so-called *MP2* (second-order Møller-Plesset) model. This has largely replaced CID and CISD models in practical applications.

Both (the simplest) limited configuration interaction and the MP2 models increase in computational cost as the fifth power of the total number of basis functions. In practice, this limits them to molecules incorporating 20-25 heavy (non-hydrogen) atoms at most.

A completely different approach to these two procedures is based on the fact that the hydrogen atom is not the only problem for which the Schrödinger equation can be solved exactly (albeit numerically). Another is an so-called free electron gas (a box of non-interacting electrons), solution of which leads to a functional form for a term that accounts for electron correlation. This term, that depends on the electron density as well as the gradient of the density, is then added to the Hartree-Fock Hamiltonian.

Such a procedure is referred to as a *density functional model*. Actual implementation requires introduction of parameters and because of this, many different *functionals* (combinations of functional form and parameters) have been proposed, and each can be used in conjunction with a variety of different basis set.
Density functional models increase in computational cost as the cube of the total number of basis functions (the same dependence seen for Hartree-Fock models). In practice, they are 50% more costly but can easily be applied to molecules incorporating 50-75 heavy (non-hydrogen) atoms.

**Semi-Empirical Molecular Orbital Models**

The principal disadvantage of Hartree-Fock, density functional and MP2 models is their computational cost. It is possible to introduce further approximations in order to significantly reduce cost while still retaining the underlying quantum mechanical formalism. **Semi-empirical molecular orbital models** follow in a straightforward way from Hartree-Fock models:

1. Elimination of overlap between functions on different atoms (the *NDDO approximation*). This is rather drastic but reduces the computation effort by more than an order of magnitude over Hartree-Fock models.

2. Restriction to a *minimal valence basis set* of atomic functions. Inner-shell (core) functions are not included explicitly, and because of this, the cost of doing a calculation involving a second-row element, e.g., silicon, is no more than that incurred for the corresponding first-row element, e.g., carbon.

3. Introduction of adjustable parameters to reproduce specific experimental data. This is what distinguishes the various semi-empirical models currently available. Choice of parameters, more than anything else, appears to be the key to formulating successful semi-empirical models.

**Molecular Mechanics Models**

The alternative to quantum chemical models are molecular mechanics models. These do not start from the Schrödinger equation, but rather from a simple but chemically reasonable picture of molecular structure, a so-called *force field*. In this picture, just as with a Lewis structure, molecules are made up of atoms (as opposed to nuclei and
electrons), some of which are connected (bonded). Both crowding (van der Waals) and charge-charge (Coulombic) interactions between atoms are then considered, and atom positions are adjusted to best match known structural data (bond lengths and angles).

Molecular mechanics is much simpler than solving the Schrödinger equation, but requires an explicit description of chemical bonding, as well as a large amount of information about the structures of molecules. This biases results and seriously limits the predictive value of molecular mechanics models. Nevertheless, molecular mechanics has found an important role in molecular modeling as a tool to establish equilibrium geometries of large molecules, in particular, proteins and equilibrium conformations of highly-flexible molecules.

Choosing a Theoretical Model

No single method of calculation is likely to be ideal for all applications. A great deal of effort has been expended to define the limits of different molecular mechanics and quantum chemical models, and to judge the degree of success of different models. The latter follows from the ability of a model to consistently reproduce known (experimental) data. Molecular mechanics models are restricted to determination of geometries and conformations of stable molecules. Quantum chemical models also provide energy data, which may in turn be directly compared with experimental thermochemical data, as well as infrared spectra and properties such as dipole moments, which may be compared directly with the corresponding experimental quantities. Quantum chemical models may also be applied to transition states. While there are no experimental structures with which to compare (see the topic Potential Energy Surfaces), experimental kinetic data may be interpreted to provide information about activation energies (see the topic Total Energies and Thermodynamic and Kinetic Data).

Success is not an absolute. Different properties, and certainly different problems may require different levels of confidence to actually be of value. Neither is success sufficient. A model also needs to be practical for the task at hand. Were this not the case, there would be no reason to look further than the Schrödinger equation itself. The nature and
size of the system needs to be taken into account, as do the available computational resources and the experience and patience of the practitioner. Practical models usually share one common feature, in that they are not likely to be the best possible treatments which have been formulated. Compromise is almost always an essential component of model selection. Continued advances in both digital computers and computer software will continue to raise the bar higher and higher. There is much to be done before fully reliable models will be routinely applicable to all chemical systems of interest.

The table below provides an overview of the performance of the MMFF molecular mechanics model and five of the most popular quantum chemical models selected from the many available in Spartan, for the calculation of equilibrium and transition-state geometries and thermochemistry. The performance of the T1 recipe for the calculation of thermochemistry will be discussed in the topic Accurate Heats of Formation. The ability of these models to account for conformational energy differences and for infrared and NMR spectra will be dealt with in later topics (Dealing with Conformationally Flexible Molecules and Calculating Infrared Spectra and Calculating NMR Spectra).

Three different grades have been assigned: G is good, C is good with cautious application and P is poor. NA signifies not applicable.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>task</th>
<th>molecular mechanics</th>
<th>PM3 semi-empirical</th>
<th>Hartree-Fock 3-21G</th>
<th>Hartree-Fock 6-31G*</th>
<th>B3LYP/6-31/G</th>
<th>MP2/6-31G*</th>
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<tr>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>high</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
In Terms of Task

i) All models provide a good account of equilibrium geometries for organic and main-group inorganic molecules and, where they are applicable, of transition-state geometries. (Transition-state geometries cannot be judged by comparison with experimental data but only with the results of very good quantum chemical calculations.) Molecular mechanics and semi-empirical models only rarely yield very poor geometries. HF/3-21G, HF/6-31G* and MP2/6-31G* models do not provide a reliable account of the geometries of compounds incorporating transition metals, but the B3LYP/6-31G* model (and density functional models in general) provides a good account. Note that the PM3 semi-empirical model available in *Spartan* has been especially parameterized for this task and also generally provides a reasonable account of the geometries of transition metal inorganic and organometallic compounds.

ii) The HF/6-31G* model generally provides an acceptable account of the energetics of reactions which do not involve bond making or breaking. The HF/3-21G model is not as satisfactory. Neither Hartree-Fock models provide an acceptable account of the energetics of reactions which involve bond breaking. Both B3LYP/6-31G* and MP2/6-31G* models generally provide good accounts of the energetics of all types of chemical reactions.

Neither Hartree-Fock models provide an acceptable account of absolute activation energies, but both models generally provide an excellent description of relative activation energies. Both B3LYP/6-31G* and MP2/6-31G* models properly account for both absolute and relative activation energies. The PM3 semi-empirical model is unsatisfactory in describing the energetics of all types of processes.
In Terms of Model

The MMFF molecular mechanics model is restricted to the description of equilibrium geometry where it performs reasonably well.

The PM3* semi-empirical model is appropriate for:

i) Equilibrium geometry determinations for large molecules.

ii) Transition-state geometry determinations.

iii) Equilibrium and transition-state geometry determinations involving transition metals.

The PM3 semi-empirical model is unsuitable for:

i) Calculation of reaction energies.

The HF/3-21G and HF/6-31G* models are appropriate for:

i) Equilibrium and transition-state structure determinations of organic and main-group inorganic molecules (except molecules with transition metals).

ii) Calculation of reaction energies (except reactions involving bond making or breaking).

The HF/3-21G and HF/6-31G* models are unsuitable for:

i) Calculation of reaction energies which involve bond making or breaking and calculation of absolute activation energies.

ii) Equilibrium and transition-state structure determinations for transition-metal inorganic and organometallic molecules.

The B3LYP/6-31G* model is appropriate for:

i) Equilibrium and transition-state structure determinations for molecules incorporating transition metals.

ii) Calculation of all types of reaction energies.

The MP2/6-31G* model is appropriate for:

i) Equilibrium and transition-state structure determinations except

* The PM3 model in Spartan has been extended to transition metals.
for molecules including transition metals.

ii) Calculation of all types of reaction energies.

The MP2/6-31G* model is unsuitable for:

i) Equilibrium and transition-state structure determinations for transition-metal inorganic and organometallic molecules.

ii) Calculation of reaction and activation energies where transition-metals are involved.
FINDING AND VERIFYING EQUILIBRIUM AND TRANSITION-STATE GEOMETRIES

The energy of a molecule depends on its geometry. Even small changes in structure can lead to quite large changes in total energy. Proper choice of molecular geometry is therefore quite important in carrying out modeling studies. Experimental geometries, where available, would certainly be suitable. While experimental equilibrium geometries are available for many stable molecules*, the problem is that many, many more have not been determined. Also, experimental data for reactive or otherwise short-lived molecules are scarce, and data for transition states are completely lacking. In the final analysis, there is no alternative to obtaining geometries from calculation. Fortunately, this is not difficult, although it may be demanding in terms of computer time.

Determination of geometry (geometry optimization) is an iterative process. The energy and energy gradient (first derivatives of the energy with respect to all geometrical coordinates) are calculated for the initial geometry, and this information is then used to project a new geometry. This process continues until three criteria are satisfied. First, the gradient must closely approach zero. This insures that the optimization is terminating in a flat region of the potential surface (either the bottom of an energy well in the case of equilibrium geometry or the top of an energy hill in the case of transition-state geometry). Second, successive iterations must not change any geometrical parameter by more than specified (small) value. Third, successive iterations must not change the total energy by more than a specified (small) value.

Equilibrium Geometries

In order for a geometry to correspond to an energy minimum, the curvature of the energy surface must be positive, that is, the structure must lie at the bottom of an energy well. The surface’s curvature is defined by the Hessian (the matrix of second derivatives of the energy with respect to geometrical coordinates).

* The vast majority of experimental structures derive from X-ray crystallography on crystalline solids and may be different from gas-phase geometries due to requirements of crystal packing.
What is actually done is to transform from the original coordinates to a new set of geometrical coordinates (*normal coordinates*) for which the Hessian will be diagonal, that is, all off-diagonal elements will be zero. In this representation, all (diagonal) elements must be positive for the geometry to correspond to an energy minimum. Normal coordinate analysis, as it is termed, is required for the calculation of vibrational frequencies, which relate directly to the square root of the elements of the (diagonal) Hessian. Positive Hessian elements yield real frequencies; negative Hessian elements yield imaginary frequencies.

Geometry optimization does not guarantee that the final structure has a lower energy than any other structure of the same molecular formula. All that it guarantees is a *local minimum*, that is, a geometry with a lower energy than that of any similar geometry. This may not be the lowest energy geometry possible for the molecule. Finding the absolute or *global minimum* requires repeated optimization starting with different initial geometries. Only when all local minima have been located is it possible to say with certainty that the lowest energy geometry has been identified. This process is termed *conformational analysis*.

In principle, geometry optimization carried out in the absence of symmetry, that is, with $C_1$ symmetry, must result in a local minimum. On the other hand, imposition of symmetry may result in a geometry which is not a local minimum. For example, optimization of ammonia constrained to a planar trigonal geometry ($D_{3h}$ symmetry) will result in a structure which corresponds to an energy maximum in the direction of motion toward a puckered trigonal geometry ($C_{3v}$ symmetry). This is the transition state for inversion at nitrogen in ammonia. The most conservative tactic is always to optimize geometry in the absence of symmetry. If this is not done, it is always possible to verify that the structure located indeed corresponds to a local minimum by calculating the vibrational frequencies on the final (optimized) structure. If one or more frequencies are imaginary, then the geometry does not correspond to an energy minimum.
Transition-State Geometries

Chemists recognize a transition state as the structure that lies at the top of a potential energy surface connecting reactant and product (see the topic *Potential Energy Surfaces*).

More precisely, a transition state is a point on the potential energy surface for which the gradient is zero (just as it is for an equilibrium geometry; see preceding discussion), but for which the diagonal representation of the Hessian has one and only one negative element, corresponding to the reaction coordinate (see diagram above). All the other elements are positive. In other words, a transition state is a structure that is an energy minimum in all dimensions except one, for which it is an energy maximum. Mathematically, such a structure is referred to as a first-order saddle point.

The geometries of transition states on the pathway between reactants and products are not as easily anticipated as the equilibrium geometries of the reactants and products themselves. This is not to say that transition-state geometries do not exhibit the same systematic behavior as equilibrium geometries, but rather that there is not sufficient experience to identify what systematics do exist, and more importantly how to capitalize on structural similarities. It needs to be recognized that transition states cannot even be detected let alone characterized experimentally, at least not directly. While measured activation energies relate to the energies of transition states above reactants, and while activation entropies and activation volumes as well as kinetic isotope effects may be interpreted in terms of transition-state structure, no experiment can actually provide direct information...
about the detailed geometries and/or other physical properties of transition states. Quite simply, transition states do not exist in terms of a stable population of molecules on which experimental measurements may be made. Experimental activation parameters may act as a guide, although here too it needs to be pointed out that their interpretation is in terms of transition state theory, which assumes that all molecules proceed over a single transition state (the high point along the reaction coordinate) on their way to products. Even then, experiments tell little about what actually transpires in going from reactants to products.

Lack of experience about “what transition states look like” is one reason why their detailed geometries are more difficult to obtain than equilibrium geometries. Other reasons include:

i) Algorithms for locating transition states are less well developed than procedures for finding equilibrium structures. After all, minimization is an important task in many diverse fields of science and technology, whereas saddle point location has few if any important applications outside of chemistry.

ii) It is likely that the potential energy surface in the vicinity of a transition state is more flat than the surface in the vicinity of a local minimum. After all, transition states represent a delicate balance of bond breaking and bond making, whereas overall bonding is maximized in equilibrium structures. As a consequence, the potential energy surface in the vicinity of a transition state is likely to be less well described in terms of a simple quadratic function (assumed in all common optimization procedures) than the surface in the vicinity of a local minimum.

iii) To the extent that transition states incorporate partially (or completely) broken bonds, it might be anticipated that very simple theoretical models will not be able to provide entirely satisfactory descriptions.

In time, all of these problems will be overcome, and finding transition states will be as routine as finding equilibrium geometries is today. Chemists can look forward to the day when reliable tools become available for the elucidation of reaction mechanisms.
The same iterative procedure previously described for optimization of equilibrium geometry applies as well to transition states. However, the number of steps required for satisfactory completion is likely to be much larger. This is due to the factors discussed above. Note, however, that the task of transition state determination may be completely automated and needs no more human intervention than that involved in locating equilibrium geometries.

Having found a transition-state geometry, two tests need to be performed in order to verify that it actually corresponds to a proper transition state, and further that it actually corresponds to the transition state for the process of interest, that is, it smoothly connects energy minima corresponding to reactant and product:

i) Verify that the Hessian yields one and only one imaginary frequency. This requires that a normal mode analysis be carried out on the proposed transition-state geometry. The imaginary frequency will typically be in the range of 400-2000 cm\(^{-1}\), quite similar to real vibrational frequencies. In the case of flexible rotors, for example, methyl groups or floppy rings, the analysis may yield one or more additional imaginary frequencies with very small (<100 cm\(^{-1}\)) values. While these can usually be ignored, make certain to verify what motions these small imaginary frequencies actually correspond to (see discussion following) before doing so. Be wary of structures that yield only very small imaginary frequencies. This suggests a very low energy transition state, which quite likely will not correspond to the particular reaction of interest.

ii) Verify that the normal coordinate corresponding to the imaginary frequency smoothly connects reactants and products. A simple way to do this is to animate the normal coordinate corresponding to the imaginary frequency, that is, to walk along this coordinate without any additional optimization. This does not require any additional calculations beyond the normal mode analysis already performed. “Incorrect” transition states located by calculation, that is, transition states that do not link the reactant to the expected product, may indicate new chemistry. Don’t discard them so quickly!
Reactions Without Transition States

It may come as a surprise that not all chemical reactions have transition states, and that the rates of some reactions depend only on the speed with which reactants diffuse into one another (so-called, diffusion controlled reactions). In fact, reactions without energy barriers are quite common. Two radicals will typically combine without activation, for example, two methyl radicals to form ethane.

\[ \text{H}_3\text{C}' + \text{CH}_3 \rightarrow \text{H}_3\text{C}=\text{CH}_3 \]

Radicals will often add to paired-electron species with no (or very small) activation, for example, methyl radical and ethylene forming 1-propyl radical.

\[ \text{H}_3\text{C}'+ \text{H}_2\text{C}==\text{CH}_2 \rightarrow \text{H}_3\text{C}==\text{CH}_2==\text{CH}_2' \]

Exothermic ion-molecule reactions may have an activation energy in solution, but probably not in the gas phase. Any complex of an ion and a neutral molecule is likely to be lower in energy than the separated species and the entire reaction coordinate for an ion-molecule reaction might lie below the energy of the separated reactants for example, nucleophilic attack by \( \text{OH}^- \) on \( \text{CH}_3\text{Cl} \) to give \( \text{CH}_3\text{OH} \) and \( \text{Cl}^- \).

Failure to find a transition state, and location instead of what appears to be a stable intermediate or even the final product, does not necessarily mean failure of the theoretical model (nor does it rule this out). It may simply mean that there is no transition state! Unfortunately it is very difficult to tell which is the true situation.

Calculations Using Approximate Geometries

Given that semi-empirical models and even molecular mechanics models generally provide geometries that are quite close to those obtained from Hartree-Fock, density functional and MP2 models, it is legitimate to ask whether or not structures from these techniques may be used as the basis for energy and property calculations. It would be of great help were this the case as geometry optimization is a major cost in any modeling investigation. In fact, the answer depends on what property is being calculated and the level of confidence required. Experience suggests that, except for molecules
where parameterization has not been provided, use of either semi-
empirical or molecular mechanics geometries has very little effect on
relative energetics. Errors in reaction energies of 4-10 kJ/mol, which
may arise from the use of approximate geometries, must be balanced
against the large savings in computer time. Other properties such as
dipole moments, may show greater sensitivity to choice of structure,
and use of appropriate geometries may lead to unacceptable errors.

Semi-empirical techniques are not as successful in reproducing the
results of Hartree-Fock models for transition-state geometries as
they are for equilibrium geometries. However, the energy surface is
typically very flat in the vicinity of the transition state, and any errors
(in energy) incurred because of the use of approximate transition-state
geometries may be manageable. (The magnitude of errors for other
quantities are not predictable.) Molecular mechanics techniques are
not applicable to the description of transition states.

“Exact” geometries must be used for frequency (infrared spectra)
calculations. The reason for this is that frequencies are related to
the first finite term in a Taylor series expansion of the energy (as a
function of geometry). This is (assumed to be) the second-derivative
term, which will not be true if the first-derivative term (the gradient)
is not precisely zero. Frequencies evaluated at non-equilibrium (or
non-transition-state) geometries are meaningless.
TOTAL ENERGIES AND THERMODYNAMIC AND KINETIC DATA

In addition to molecular geometry, one of the most important quantities to come out of molecular modeling is the energy. Energy can be used to reveal which of several isomers is most stable, to determine whether a particular chemical reaction will have a thermodynamic driving force (an *exothermic* reaction) or be thermodynamically uphill (an *endothermic* reaction), and to ascertain how fast a reaction is likely to proceed. Other molecular properties, such as dipole moment, and infrared, UV/visible and most importantly NMR spectra are also of great interest, but the energy plays a special role.

There is more than one way to express the energy of a molecule. Most common to chemists is the heat of formation, $\Delta H_f$. This is the heat of a hypothetical chemical reaction that creates a molecule from the well defined but arbitrary standard states of each of its constituent elements. For example, $\Delta H_f$ for ethylene is the energy required to create the molecule from graphite and $H_2$, the standard states of carbon and hydrogen, respectively. Note that the heat of formation, which most commonly assumes a value between -1,000 and +500 kJ/mol, cannot be directly measured, but must be obtained indirectly.

An alternative, total energy, is the heat of a hypothetical reaction that creates a molecule from a collection of separated nuclei and electrons. Like the heat of formation, total energy cannot be measured directly, and is used solely to provide a standard method for expressing and comparing energies. Total energies are always negative numbers and, in comparison with the energies of chemical bonds, are very large. By convention, they are expressed in so-called atomic units* or au, but may be converted to other units as desired:

$$1 \text{ au} = 2625 \text{ kJ/mol}$$

It makes no difference which reference reaction (heat of formation or total energy) is used to calculate the thermochemistry of a balanced chemical reaction ($\text{reactant 1 + reactant 2 + \ldots} \rightarrow \text{product 1 + product 2 + \ldots}$):

* The exact energy of hydrogen atom is -0.5 atomic units.
\[ \Delta E(\text{reaction}) = E_{\text{product }1} + E_{\text{product }2} + \ldots - E_{\text{reactant }1} - E_{\text{reactant }2} - \ldots \]

Total total energies will be used in the discussion that follows. A negative \( \Delta E \) indicates an exothermic (thermodynamically favorable) reaction, while a positive \( \Delta E \) an endothermic (thermodynamically unfavorable) reaction.

A special case involves differences in isomer stability. This is the energy of a chemical reaction involving only two molecules, in which the reactant and product are isomers:

\[ \Delta E(\text{isomer}) = E_{\text{isomer }2} + E_{\text{isomer }1} \]

A negative \( \Delta E \) means that isomer 2 is more stable than isomer 1.

Total energies may also be used to calculate activation energies, \( \Delta E^\dagger \):

\[ \Delta E^\dagger = E_{\text{transition state}} - E_{\text{reactant }1} - E_{\text{reactant }2} - \ldots \]

Here, \( E_{\text{transition state}} \) is the total energy of the transition state. Activation energies will always be positive numbers*, meaning that the transition state is less stable than reactants.

Reaction and activation energies are sufficient to know whether a reaction is exothermic or endothermic or whether it proceeds with small or large activation barrier. There are, however, other situations where energies need to be replaced by Gibbs energies in order to take proper account of the role of entropy. For example, a proper account of the equilibrium concentrations of reactants and products requires calculation of the equilibrium constant, \( K_{eq} \), which according to the Boltzmann equation, is related to the Gibbs energy of reaction, \( \Delta G_{\text{rxn}} \):

\[ K_{eq} = \exp(-\Delta G_{\text{rxn}}/RT) \]

Here \( R \) is the gas constant and \( T \) is the temperature (in K). At room temperature (298K) and for \( \Delta G_{\text{rxn}} \) in au, this is given by:

\[ K_{eq} = \exp(-1060 \ \Delta G_{\text{rxn}}) \]

* As commented in a previous topic (Finding and Verifying Equilibrium Transition-State Geometries) some reactions proceed with zero activation energy, meaning that there is no transition state.
\[ \Delta G_{\text{rxn}} \] has two components, the enthalpy of reaction, \( \Delta H_{\text{rxn}} \), and the entropy of reaction, \( \Delta S_{\text{rxn}} \). These are defined as follows:

\[
\Delta G_{\text{rxn}} = \Delta H_{\text{rxn}} - T\Delta S_{\text{rxn}}
\]

\[ \Delta H_{\text{rxn}} \approx \Delta E_{\text{rxn}} = E_{\text{product } 1} + E_{\text{product } 2} + \ldots - E_{\text{reactant } 1} - E_{\text{reactant } 2} - \ldots \]

\[ \Delta S_{\text{rxn}} = S_{\text{product } 1} + S_{\text{product } 2} + \ldots - S_{\text{reactant } 1} - S_{\text{reactant } 2} - \ldots \]

Although \( \Delta G_{\text{rxn}} \) depends on both enthalpy and entropy, there are many reactions for which the entropy contribution is small, and can be neglected. Further assuming that \( \Delta H_{\text{rxn}} \approx \Delta E_{\text{rxn}} \), equilibrium constants can then be estimated according to the Boltzmann equation:

\[ K_{\text{eq}} \approx \exp(-\Delta E_{\text{rxn}}/RT) \approx \exp(-1060 \Delta E_{\text{rxn}}) . \]

This Boltzmann equation may also be used to establish the equilibrium composition of a mixture of isomers:

\[
\% \text{ Isomer } i = \frac{100 \exp(-1060 \ E_{\text{isomer } i})}{\sum_k \exp(-1060 \ E_{\text{isomer } k})}
\]

Isomer energies, \( E_{\text{isomer}} \), are given in atomic units relative to the energy of the lowest-energy isomer. An important special case is that involving an equilibrium between two isomers:

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{Isomer 1} & \rightleftharpoons \text{Isomer 2} \\
\frac{[ \text{Isomer 1} ]}{[ \text{Isomer 2} ]} &= \exp[-1060 (E_{\text{isomer1}} - E_{\text{isomer2}})]
\end{align*}
\]

Reaction rate constants, \( k_{\text{rxn}} \), are also related to Gibbs energies. As before, if entropy contributions can be neglected, the rate constant can be obtained directly from the activation energy, \( \Delta E^\ddagger \), according to the Arrhenius equation:

\[ k_{\text{rxn}} \approx (k_B T/h)[\exp(-\Delta E^\ddagger/RT)] \]

Here \( k_B \) and \( h \) are the Boltzmann and Planck constants, respectively. At room temperature and for \( \Delta E^\ddagger \) in au, \( k_{\text{rxn}} \) is given by:
\[ k_{\text{rxn}} = 6.2 \times 10^{12} \exp(-1060 \Delta E^\ddagger) \]

Another way to describe reaction rates is by half-life, \( t_{1/2} \), the amount of time it takes for the reactant concentration to drop to one half of its original value. When the reaction follows a first-order rate law, \( \text{rate} = -k_{\text{rxn}}[\text{reactant}] \), \( t_{1/2} \) is given by:

\[ t_{1/2} = \ln 2 / k_{\text{rxn}} = 0.69 / k_{\text{rxn}} \]

It is useful to associate reaction energies and reaction rates with potential energy diagrams (see the topic Potential Energy Surfaces). The connections are actually quite simple.

The thermodynamics of reaction is given by the relative energies of the reactant and product on the potential surface.

In the case of bond rotation in ethane (see the topic Potential Energy Surfaces), the reactant and product are the same and the reaction is said to be thermoneutral. This is also the case for the overall ring-inversion motion in cyclohexane (see the topic Potential Energy Surfaces).

The most common case is, as depicted in the above diagram, where the energy of the products is lower than that of the reactants. This kind of reaction is said to be exothermic, and the difference in stabilities of reactant and product is simply the difference in their energies. For example, the “reaction” of gauche \( n \)-butane to anti \( n \)-butane is exothermic (see the topic Potential Energy Surfaces), and the difference in stabilities of the two conformers is simply the difference in the energies (3.8 kJ/mol).
Chemical reactions can also be *endothermic*, which give rise to a reaction profile.

![Reaction profile diagram](image)

In this case, there would eventually be more reactant than product. Where two or more different products may form in a reaction, thermodynamics tells us that if we wait long enough, the product formed in greatest abundance will be that with the lowest energy irrespective of pathway.

![Thermodynamic product diagram](image)

In this case, the product is referred to as the *thermodynamic product* and the reaction is said to be *thermodynamically controlled*.

The energy of the transition state above the reactants (the activation energy) provides the connection with reaction rate (kinetics).
While absolute reaction rates also depend on the concentrations of the reactants and on such factors as the likelihood that encounters between molecules will actually lead to reaction (the so-called pre-exponential or A factor), generally speaking, the lower the activation energy, the faster the reaction.

The product formed in greatest amount in a kinetically controlled reaction (the kinetic product) is that proceeding via the lowest energy transition state, irrespective of whether or not this is lowest energy product (the thermodynamic product).

Kinetic product ratios show dependence with activation energy differences which are identical to thermodynamic product ratios with difference in reactant and product energies.
CALCULATING ACCURATE HEATS OF FORMATION

One of the most fundamental properties of a molecule is its internal energy. This is most commonly reported as a heat of formation, defined as the enthalpy at 298.15K of a hypothetical chemical reaction in which the molecule is transformed into a set of products that correspond to the most stable forms of its constituent pure elements at room temperature. For example, the heat of formation of ethylene corresponds to the enthalpy of a reaction to yield graphite and molecular hydrogen.

\[ C_2H_4 \rightarrow 2C \text{ (graphite)} + 2H_2 \]

Differences in heats of formation between the products and reactants (reaction enthalpies) indicate the extent to which the reaction will be favorable (exothermic) or unfavorable (endothermic), and allow thermodynamic product distributions to be established.

Heats of formation are most commonly obtained from heats of combustion. For example, the heat of formation of ethylene would likely be established from its reaction with oxygen to produce carbon dioxide and water.

\[ C_2H_4 + 3O_2 \rightarrow 2CO_2 + 2H_2O \]

Experimental heats of formation are available for ~2000 compounds. While much of the data is accurate to within 4-8 kJ/mol, a significant portion is subject to greater uncertainty. The most egregious source of error is that the reported heat does not correspond to the reported structure. Other more common sources of error include incomplete combustion and poorly characterized combustion products. In this regard, hydrocarbons and oxycarbons present fewest problems as combustion leads only to carbon dioxide and water. However, combustion of molecules with other elements may give rise to a complex mixture of products and greater uncertainty, with nitrogen compounds being particularly problematic. Despite their fundamental importance, heats of formation are not routinely determined for new compounds. The reason for this is obvious. While the combustion experiment is straightforward and does not require particularly expensive instrumentation, accurate measurements may require (and
destroy) significant quantities of compound. Very few chemists are willing to part with hundreds of mg of a compound that they have just spent weeks or months preparing.

Because of the lack of experimental data and serious concerns over the accuracy of part of the data that do exist, considerable attention has been directed at the use of quantum chemical calculations to obtain heats of formation. However, this has not proven to be simple for moderate-size organic molecules (molecular weight <400-500 amu) within experimental accuracy (<4-8 kJ/mol). Among the most successful procedures in terms of overall accuracy are the GX recipes. These combine the results of several different quantum chemical models in order to get reliable estimates of what enhancements in treatment of electron correlation (beyond the MP2 model) and increases in the size of the basis set are likely to do. However, even the simplest of these, G3(MP2), is limited in practice to small molecules. It scales as the seventh power of size and is generally not applicable to molecules with molecular weights that exceed 150 amu.

**The T1 Thermochemical Recipe**

The T1 recipe has been formulated in attempt to maintain the accuracy of the G3(MP2) recipe but at significantly reduced computation cost. It is presently limited to uncharged, closed-shell molecules comprising H, C, N, O, F, Si, P, S, Cl and Br. T1 substitutes the MP2/6-31G* geometry used in G3(MP2) by a HF/6-31G* geometry, eliminates both the HF/6-31G* frequency and the QCISD(T)/6-31G* energy calculations and approximates the MP2 energy calculation with the G3MP2 large basis set by an analogous calculation using dual basis set RI-MP2 techniques. Taken together, these changes reduce computation time by 2-3 orders of magnitude, and T1 calculations on molecules in the molecular weight range of 400-500 amu are now practical.

The T1 recipe, unlike G3(MP2), involves several parameters, specifically atom counts, Mulliken bond orders and HF/6-31G* and RI-MP2 energies. These have been determined using linear regression as a best fit to G3(MP2) (not experimental) heats of
formation for >1100 small molecules. It reproduces these values with mean absolute and RMS errors of 1.8 and 2.5 kJ/mol, respectively. A plot is shown below.

Performance of T1 for Heat of Formation Calculations

The T1 recipe reproduces experimental heats of formation for a set of >1800 diverse organic molecules from the NIST thermochemical database with mean absolute and RMS errors of 8.5 and 11.5 kJ/mol, respectively. The plot provided below covers the majority of the data from -1000 to +500 kJ/mol.

Treatment of Conformationally-Flexible Molecules

As a consequence of their high computation cost, the GX recipes are in practice limited to rigid molecules or to molecules with only one or two degrees of conformational freedom. This means that it is necessary to guess the conformation of most molecules.
This in turn may lead to heats of formation that are too large by 10 kJ/mol or more. On the other hand, T1 can routinely be applied to molecules with several degrees of conformational freedom. This makes it possible to establish energy differences among conformers (Boltzmann weights). A more modest goal is to identify the lowest-energy conformer, and to assume that the heat of formation of the molecule is the heat of formation of this conformer. In practice, the lowest-energy conformer is identified by examining all conformers for molecules with fewer than 100 conformers and by examining a random sample of 100 conformers for molecules with more than 100 conformers.

**Database of T1 Heats of Formation**

The Spartan Spectra and Properties Database (SSPD) is based on calculations performed using the EDF2/6-31G* density functional model starting from the best conformer assigned from the T1 recipe. T1 heats of formation are included as a property in SSPD, which presently contains ~60,000 entries (including ~2000 molecules for which experimental data are available). This number is expected to double by the end of 2011.
DEALING WITH CONFORMATIONALLY FLEXIBLE MOLECULES

Very few molecules are rigid and likely to be adequately described in terms of a single conformer. More commonly, two or more distinct conformers resulting from rotation around single bonds or changes in flexible rings are likely to exist. For example, and as already discussed in the topic *Potential Energy Surfaces*, three conformers result from rotation around the central carbon-carbon bond in \( n \)-butane, one *anti* conformer (CCCC dihedral angle = 180°) and two (equivalent) *gauche* conformers (CCCC dihedral angle = ±~60°). Two chair conformers result from ring inversion in methylcyclohexane, one with the methyl group *equatorial* and the other with it *axial*. Because energy barriers to single-bond rotation and to ring inversion are generally very small (on the order of <10-20 kJ/mol), the different conformers will be in equilibrium and the influence of any particular conformer on the properties of the molecule will depend on its energy and on the temperature. As a consequence, experimental measurements will either reveal the presence of the individual conformers or result from a weighted average of conformers. For example, the IR spectrum of a flexible molecule will show features due to individual conformers, whereas the NMR spectrum of the same molecule will show an average. The different behavior may be traced to the different timescales of the two experiments; IR is “fast” whereas NMR is “slow”.

What is required to calculate the properties of a flexible molecule? At the very least, the lowest-energy conformer needs to be identified and used for calculation of the property of interest. How well do calculations identify this conformer? It turns out that the answer is not obvious. While much is known about the preferred conformation of molecules in the solid (crystalline) state, most of it from X-ray diffraction, there is actually very little known about preferred conformation of isolated molecules. Furthermore, there is very little overlap between gas and solid-phase structures because small molecules tend not to crystallize and larger molecules that do crystallize are not easily investigated by gas-phase techniques such as microwave spectroscopy. This means that it is difficult to
separate inherent (gas-phase) conformational preferences from those associated with the requirements of crystal packing.

A more thorough, and also more costly (in terms of computation), procedure is to identify all low-energy conformers, estimate their relative energies and construct a (Boltzmann) average of the property of interest. There is even less known about the relative energies of different conformers than there is about the identity of the best conformer. What is known comes primarily from microwave spectroscopy and is restricted to molecules with a single degree of conformational freedom. A summary of mean absolute errors (in kJ/mol) associated with a number of theoretical models for conformational energy differences for simple (one degree of freedom) molecules is provided below. Semi-empirical models as well as Hartree-Fock models with minimal and split-valence basis sets have been excluded as they provide a very non-uniform account of conformational energy differences and are likely to lead to very poor results. In total the comparisons span about 30 molecules, covering perhaps half of the molecules for which experimental data of “reasonable” quality are actually available. The comparisons are separated into acyclic molecules, such as \( n \)-butane and 1,3-butadiene, and cyclic molecules, such as methylcyclohexane and N-methylpiperidine, to allow an honest assessment of the MMFF molecular mechanics model. Most of the molecules in the acyclic set were actually used to parameterize MMFF, whereas only a few of the cyclic molecules were used. The difference is striking. For acyclic molecules, MMFF is not only the least costly method it is also the best (along with the T1 thermochemical recipe). On the other hand, MMFF is the worst for cyclic molecules. This result should not come as a surprise as purely empirical methods such as MMFF cannot be expected to yield good results outside the range of their parameterization. With the exception of T1, there is little to distinguish among the quantum chemical models. In particular, results from Hartree-Fock, density functional and MP2 methods are all qualitatively similar and do not improve with increase in the size of the basis set. While there is considerable uncertainty in the experimental data, the T1 recipe appears to be the most reliable of
the procedures considered here. Also to be noted is that T1 is not the most costly of the methods considered.

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**Systematic vs. Monte-Carlo Conformational Searching**

There are two fundamentally different techniques available for searching conformation space. The obvious thing to do is to “look everywhere”, that is, walk through all possible single-bond rotations and ring twists. A **systematic search** guarantees that the lowest-energy conformer (the so-called **global minimum**) will be found, and provides a proper basis for calculation of the correct Boltzmann distribution. To see why systematic searching rapidly becomes impractical, we need to know how many different conformers may actually exist for a flexible molecule. While a precise number may be hard to come by, a few rules allow a rough estimate to be made. The best-known rule is that a chain of four or more (N) sp³ centers will lead to \(3^{N-3}\) conformers. Thus \(n\)-butane (N=4) will have three conformers, \(n\)-pentane will have nine conformers, \(n\)-hexane will have 27 conformers and so forth. Not all the conformers will be distinct, for example, only two the three conformers of \(n\)-butane are unique and only five of the nine conformers of \(n\)-pentane are unique. Bonds between sp³ and sp² centers will generally lead to similar conformer counts, whereas bonds between two sp² centers will generally lead to two (syn and anti) and not three conformers. The number of conformers for rings is more difficult to estimate. Four and five-member rings can all be thought of in terms of a single conformer
and six-member rings in terms of two low-energy conformers (higher-energy twist-boat conformers may usually be ignored), but seven-member and larger rings typically have a larger number of conformers. Molecules with several flexible bonds and one or more six-member or larger rings may easily have several hundred or several thousand distinct conformers. Looking everywhere quickly becomes impractical and an alternative searching technique is needed.

Many detailed alternative procedures (algorithms) have been formulated but all come down to the idea of replacing a systematic search by a so-called stochastic or random search. The procedure used in Spartan is referred to as the Monte-Carlo algorithm. It moves randomly in a single (randomly chosen) dimension in conformation space deciding to abandon the move (returning to the starting point for another random move) or keep the move (using it for the starting point for the next random move) based on the energy relative to that of the lowest-energy conformer yet found. Without getting into the detailed mathematics, suffice it to say that the criterion used to decide whether to accept or reject a move has been chosen to guarantee that the proper Boltzmann distribution will be approached as the number of random moves is increased. In practice, a Monte-Carlo search will nearly always find the lowest-energy conformer (or at least something very close to it) in 5-10% of the time that would be required for a systematic search. Thus, Monte-Carlo searching is likely to be an order of magnitude or more faster than systematic searching.

**All Conformational Searches are not Alike**

The obvious reason to conduct a conformational search (other than to be able to see what a molecule looks like) is to calculate the value of a particular property. At the very least, this requires finding the lowest-energy (equilibrium) conformer. This procedure, referred to as Equilibrium Conformer, would be expected to be satisfactory in the important case where the property of interest is the energy itself. The energy of the best conformer is necessarily lower (more negative) than the energy that would be obtained from a proper Boltzmann distribution, but only by a few kJ/mol at most. However, the value of some properties obtained based on the lowest-energy
conformer will not necessarily properly reflect the Boltzmann average. For example, \( n \)-butane has a small but finite dipole moment, despite the fact that the dipole moment of the lowest-energy (anti) conformer is rigorously zero. This is due to the small contributions made by the two equivalent gauche conformers. In cases such as this, it is necessary to identify all low-energy conformers and then to construct a proper Boltzmann average. This procedure, referred to as **Conformer Distribution**, is exactly the same as the search for the equilibrium conformer, except that it results in a set of low-energy conformers. In the case of a systematic search, this is a Boltzmann distribution; in the case of a Monte-Carlo search, this mirrors the correct Boltzmann distribution assuming that a sufficient number of random moves have taken place.

An entirely different reason to conduct a conformational search is to find a selection of diverse conformers, irrespective of their energy. This procedure, referred to as **Conformer Library**, is needed in order to decide to what extent two molecules are similar, or the extent to which a molecule “fits” into a particular molecular environment. Because energy is not considered (although very high-energy conformers are removed), there is no guarantee (or even likelihood) that the best conformer will actually be found. At present, only the MMFF molecular mechanics model is available in **Spartan** to generate a conformer library, and this library is available only for the purpose of similarity analysis. It is stored as a single molecule (corresponding to the lowest-energy conformer located), but includes the coordinates of the non-hydrogen atoms (only) for all the other conformers in the library.

The following recipe is used to generate a conformer library:

1. Systematically step through all possible single-bond and ring conformers and calculate structures and energies for each using the MMFF model. Eliminate duplicates and very high energy conformers. A limit may be placed on the total number of conformers examined by first calculating the fraction of conformers that are to be kept (number of conformers to be kept/total number of conformers possible from a systematic search),
and then randomly deciding to examine or skip each conformer in a systematic search in order to enforce this fraction. Such a procedure is different from a Monte-Carlo search in that it seeks to span all possible conformers open to a flexible molecule without consideration of energy.

2. For each conformer, place spheres on each nitrogen and oxygen atom and at the center of each hydrophobic region.

3. Find the smallest set of conformers for which the spheres do not overlap, that is, eliminate any conformer for which all of its spheres overlap to a predefined extent with the corresponding spheres on another conformer.
INTERPRETING CONFORMATIONAL PREFERENCES

Rotation about single bonds is periodic, retracing itself every 360°. Therefore, any function that seeks to describe the energy of internal rotation must also repeat itself every 360°. In fact it is possible to write a general energy function, $E_{\text{torsion}}$, as a combination of simpler functions, $V_n$, each of which repeats $n$ times in a 360° interval.

$$E_{\text{torsion}}(\omega) = V_1(\omega) + V_2(\omega) + V_3(\omega)$$

$V_1$, $V_2$, and $V_3$ are independent functions of the torsion angle $\omega$ that repeat every 360°, 180°, and 120°, respectively. These functions are referred to as one-fold, two-fold, and three-fold potentials.

The different n-fold potentials are useful because each can be associated with a particular chemical phenomenon. For example, a one-fold potential describes the different energies of anti and syn conformers of dimethylperoxide, while a two-fold potential describes the different energies of planar and perpendicular conformers of benzyl cation. Three-fold potentials, which are more familiar to chemists, describe the difference between staggered and eclipsed conformers in molecules like ethane.

While rotation in a symmetric molecule might be described using only one potential or a combination of two potentials, less symmetric molecules require more complex combination of potentials. This is illustrated by fluoromethylamine.
The heavy solid line in the figure describes $E_{\text{torsion}}$ for rotation about the CN bond, while the light solid line, the dashed line and the dotted line correspond to the one-fold, two-fold and three-fold components, respectively. There are two distinct minima.

The lower (global minimum) arises when the CF bond and the nitrogen lone pair are *anti*, while the higher and much more shallow minimum is almost, but not precisely, a *gauche* structure (FCN: dihedral angle $\sim45^\circ$). Also, note that one of the two energy maxima (FCN: dihedral angle $\sim115^\circ$) does not exactly correspond to an eclipsed structure.

The unusual behavior of $E_{\text{torsion}}$ becomes clear when it is resolved into its components (in this case, the sum of these components provides a virtually perfect fit of $E_{\text{torsion}}$). The one-fold term reflects a clear and very strong preference for the CF bond and the nitrogen lone pair to be *anti* and not *syn*. This preference might be electrostatic since the *anti* structure arranges the dipoles associated with the CF bond and nitrogen lone pair in opposite directions.
The three-fold term is also easy to explain. It reflects the preference for staggered over eclipsed structures. This term contributes much less to $E^{\text{torsion}}$ than either of the one-fold or two-fold terms, consistent with the low steric demands of the CH$_2$F and NH$_2$ groups.

What is most interesting, perhaps, and what might not have been anticipated without this type of analysis, is the large contribution made by the two-fold potential. This potential reflects a strong preference for a planar arrangement of FCN:, and can be attributed to stabilization resulting from donation of the lone pair orbital on nitrogen into low-energy unfilled molecular orbital associated with the CF bond. Such an interaction requires that the molecule adopts either a syn planar or anti planar conformation and not a perpendicular conformation.

Most of the popular features of $E^{\text{torsion}}$ can now be attributed to either $V_1$, $V_2$. $V_1$ accounts for the anti geometry being the global minimum. $V_2$, however, is responsible for the position of the maximum and the shift in the higher-energy minimum to smaller dihedral angles.

It is important to note that the terms that contribute to $E^{\text{torsion}}$ are completely independent of each other, and each may be treated as one part of a larger picture. Thus, the observation that electron donation from the nitrogen lone pair into the empty orbital associated with the CF bond is optimal when the two groups are planar is independent of the observation that cis coplanar structure is destabilized, relative to the anti structure, by dipole-dipole interactions.
CALCULATING INFRARED SPECTRA

The infrared spectrum of a molecule arises because of transitions between vibrational energy levels. Each line in an infrared spectrum is characterized by a frequency (energy) and an intensity. In one dimension (a diatomic molecule), the frequency is proportional to the square root of the ratio of the second-derivative term and the reduced mass (the product of the masses of the two atoms divided by their sum).

\[
\text{vibrational frequency } \propto \sqrt{\frac{(d^2E(x)/dx^2)/\text{reduced mass}}{}
\]

Calculation of the frequency involves expansion of the energy in a Taylor series.

\[
E(x) = E(x_0) + (dE(x)/dx) x + (d^2E(x)/dx^2) x^2 + \text{higher-order terms}
\]

\(E(x_0)\) is a constant and \(dE(x)/dx\) (the gradient) is assumed to be zero. The latter implies that the underlying structure corresponds precisely to a minimum (or a maximum) on the potential energy curve. Were this not the case, the first derivative would be non zero and the calculated frequency would be meaningless. All practical calculations are based on the harmonic model and ignore cubic and higher-order terms (anharmonic terms), leaving only the second derivative term (the force constant). The frequency may be interpreted as the relative ease or difficulty of stretching the bond away from its equilibrium position, that is, the curvature of the energy surface at the minimum. Where distortion away from the equilibrium position is easy, the result is a low frequency; where it is difficult the result is a high frequency. High (reduced) mass leads to a low frequency while low mass leads to high frequency.

The expression for vibrational frequency qualitatively accounts for mass effects on reaction energies (equilibrium isotope effects). Even at 0K molecules vibrate, giving rise to the so-called zero-point vibrational energy (or simply zero-point energy). Zero-point energy is directly proportional to the sum of the vibrational frequencies and decreases with increasing mass. For example, the zero-point energy of HCl is lowered upon replacement of hydrogen by deuterium. Thus, the measured energy (enthalpy) decreases with increasing mass and the energy of DCl is smaller (more negative) than that for HCl.
Because the potential energy has been approximated by a quadratic function, calculated frequencies will almost always be larger than measured frequencies. This is because a quadratic function goes to infinity with increase in distance rather than going asymptotically to a constant (separated atoms). This suggests that the potential curve will be too steep.

It is possible to extract the harmonic frequency by measuring the spacing of the energy levels associated with the ground and excited states of a particular vibration. (The lines would be evenly spaced were the potential quadratic.) However, such an analysis is possible only for diatomic and very simple polyatomic molecules.

Generalization from a diatomic to a polyatomic molecule is straightforward. The energy of displacement away from the equilibrium position is expanded in the same way as before, the only difference being that a vector quantity, $\mathbf{x}$, replaces a scalar quantity, $x$.

$$E(\mathbf{x}) = E(\mathbf{x}_0) + \Sigma_i (\partial E(\mathbf{x})/\partial x_i) x_i + \frac{1}{2} \Sigma_{ij} (\partial^2 E(\mathbf{x})/\partial x_i \partial x_j) x_i x_j + \text{higher-order terms}$$

For a molecule with $N$ atoms, the dimension of $\mathbf{x}$ is $3N$ ($x,y,z$ Cartesian coordinates for each atom), although there are only $3N-6$ ($3N-5$ for a linear molecule) vibrational frequencies. Six dimensions (five for a linear molecule) correspond to translation away from and rotation around the center of mass.

The first (and only computationally expensive) step involved in calculating the vibrational spectrum of a polyatomic molecule is evaluation of the full set of second energy derivatives in Cartesian
coordinates. These then need to be mass weighted. Diagonal terms \( (\partial^2 E(x)/\partial x_i^2) \) are divided by the mass of the atom associated with \( x_i \), and off-diagonal terms \( (\partial^2 E(x)/\partial x_i \partial x_j) \) are divided by the product of the square root of the masses of the atoms associated with \( x_i \) and \( x_j \). These expressions reduce to that already provided for the one-dimensional case.

The second step involves replacing the Cartesian coordinates by a new set of coordinates \( \zeta \), such that the matrix of mass-weighted second derivatives is diagonal. \( \delta_{ij} \) is the Kronecker delta function (1 if \( i=j \); 0 otherwise).

\[
\left[ \partial^2 E(\zeta)/\partial \zeta_i \partial \zeta_j \right]/(\sqrt{M_i} \sqrt{M_j}) = \delta_{ij} \left[ \partial^2 E(\zeta)/\partial \zeta_i^2 \right]/M_i
\]

These new coordinates are referred to as normal coordinates. While the normal coordinates for some vibrations may be described in terms of stretching of one bond or bending of one angle, more commonly they will be made up of mixtures of several bond stretches, angle bends and other motions.

The third step involves removing the six coordinates corresponding to the three translations and three rotations, leaving \( 3N-6 \) vibrational coordinates.

Obtaining an infrared spectrum also means having to account for the intensity of absorption, which is proportional to the change in the dipole moment along the vibrational coordinate. If there is no change in dipole moment, the infrared intensity is zero. For example, it is zero for both \( \text{N}_2 \) and \( \text{O}_2 \), the two major components of the earth’s atmosphere. Neither molecule will absorb in the infrared. However, two of the four vibrational motions of \( \text{CO}_2 \), the third most common but very minor molecular component in the atmosphere, have non-zero infrared intensities. As a result, carbon dioxide absorbs radiation reflected from the earth’s surface thereby trapping heat and leading to an increase in temperature (the so-called greenhouse effect).

Lack of a line in the infrared spectrum does not mean that the molecule does not vibrate or that the vibrational energy for this line does not contribute to the zero-point energy. Rather, it means that absorption of radiation does not occur leading to a change in
vibrational energy state. It should also be noted that a particular line that is infrared inactive might be visible in the Raman spectrum (an alternative form of vibrational spectroscopy based on reflectance rather than absorption). Here the intensity is related to the change in the polarizability rather than the change in dipole moment.

The application of quantum chemical models to infrared spectroscopy requires calculation of the second energy derivatives and first dipole moment derivatives with regard to changes in geometrical coordinate. The second derivative calculation dominates and scales as the fifth power of the size (number of basis functions). Infrared spectra may be calculated using semi-empirical molecular orbital models, for example, the popular AM1 and PM3 models, Hartree-Fock molecular orbital models, density functional models and MP2 models. Broadly speaking, semi-empirical models provide a poor account, Hartree-Fock models provide a reasonable account and density functional and MP2 models with polarization or larger basis sets. Density functional models are the obvious choice for infrared spectra calculations, offering better results than Hartree-Fock models at comparable cost, and comparable results at much lower cost than MP2 models. (A major factor contributing to the high cost of MP2 models is that second energy derivatives are not calculated analytically as they are for Hartree-Fock and density functional models, but rather are obtained from numerical differentiation of analytical first derivatives.)

The EDF2/6-31G* density functional model was specifically formulated to reproduce measured infrared frequencies. It is simple enough to be applicable to the calculation of infrared spectra of organic molecules of moderate size (up to 400-500 amu). There are two major deficiencies with infrared spectra obtained directly from the EDF2/6-31G* model. The first is that calculated frequencies are almost always too large, typically by 3-5%. This can be directly traced to the harmonic approximation and to a potential energy curve that is too steep.
Other density functional models and the MP2 model show similar behavior. Vibrational frequencies obtained from Hartree-Fock models show an even larger systematic error in the same direction (frequencies too large), typically by 12-14%. Here two factors contribute. The first is the insistence on a quadratic potential, the same problem associated with density functional and MP2 models. The second is due to the fact that bond dissociation is improperly described by Hartree-Fock models, as evidenced by the fact that Hartree-Fock bond lengths are uniformly shorter than experimental distances. This suggests that the potential energy surface will be too steep and the frequency will be too large.

The second and perhaps more conspicuous deficiency is that the lines in an infrared spectrum measured at finite temperature are broadened due primarily to rotational structure, whereas the lines in a calculated spectrum are sharp in that they correspond to an isolated molecule at 0K. There may be other differences, such as the absence of overtones, that is, vibrational transitions originating from excited vibrational states and, more importantly, lack of solvent. These differences are more difficult to quantify and will be ignored.

It is straightforward to correct the calculated spectrum to account for the two major deficiencies. First the spectrum may be uniformly scaled (multiplied by a parameter in the range of 0.95-0.97 for density functional models). Second, the calculated frequencies and intensities may be fit to a Lorentzian function with peak width and half peak height being treated as a second parameter.

**Quality of Calculated Infrared Spectra**

An infrared spectrometer records frequencies in the range 500-4500 cm\(^{-1}\). Frequencies below this range (which may require special instrumentation to measure) typically correspond to torsional motions and may depend strongly on conformation. It should be noted that the region beyond ~2800 cm\(^{-1}\) is dominated by CH stretching vibrations and may be too crowded to be of value.

Although the focus here is on the EDF2/6-31G* model, the comments broadly apply to other density functional models with polarization and larger basis sets. The EDF2/6-31G* model in particular has also
proven to be successful in providing accurate molecular geometries and heats of reaction, and it may fairly be described as a workhorse. That is, it is both reliable and simple enough to be routinely applied to molecules with molecular weights <500 amu. This places routine applications squarely in the range of organic molecules that can conveniently be synthesized.

Calculated infrared spectra that have been scaled to account for the systematic error in frequency and broadened to account for finite temperature are visually quite similar to the corresponding experimental spectra (taken from the NIST database). The four examples shown below, benzamide, (dimethylmethylidene) cyclopentadiene, 1,2-epoxy-cis-4-vinylcyclohexane and camphor are typical of the ~1000 comparisons that have been made.

*benzamide*

* (dimethylmethylidene)cyclopentadiene

*1,2-epoxy-cis-4-vinylcyclohexane*
Even though scale and line-broadening parameters have been individually adjusted for these four examples, the values of the parameters are quite similar. Default parameters could have been substituted with little change.

**Database of Infrared Spectra**

The Spartan Spectra and Properties Database (SSPD), which includes infrared spectra as well as proton and $^{13}$C NMR spectra, is based on calculations performed using the EDF2/6-31G* density functional model starting from the best conformer assigned from the T1 recipe.* SSPD presently comprises ~70,000 entries. This number is expected to approach ~120,000 entries by the time of the next update in June 2011. SSPD can be searched for match to an unknown experimental infrared spectrum.

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* This is strictly true for neutral, closed-shell molecules containing only the elements, H, C, N, O, F, Si, P, S, Cl and Br. Otherwise, best conformer is based on the MMFF molecular mechanics model.
CALCULATING NMR SPECTRA

Introduction

There are several reasons why NMR spectroscopy, in particular $^{13}\text{C}$ NMR, is the most important analytical technique for characterizing organic molecules. The experiment is straightforward and can be carried out rapidly. It requires relatively small samples and is non-destructive. The resulting (proton decoupled) spectrum is simple, comprising a single line (“resonance”) for each and every unique carbon. Despite its simplicity (or perhaps because of it), associating an $^{13}\text{C}$ spectra to a particular molecular structure can be problematic and prone to error, in particular, where alternative structures might be very similar. Three-bond HH and CH coupling constants that depend on 3D geometry, as well as a variety of so-called “2D spectra” that combine chemical shifts and coupling constants (most notably, COSY and HMBC spectra) are more and more commonly employed to assist in assignment.

A routine and reliable method to predict $^{13}\text{C}$ chemical shifts as a function of three-dimensional structure would clearly be of value in helping to assign experimental NMR spectra or, at the very least, confirming or refuting a proposed assignment. One might argue that such a method already exists in the form of NMR spectral databases. An exact match to an existing spectrum provides a definitive structure, while one or more “close matches” to entries in a database suggest what types of structures are reasonable. Of course, “new compounds” will never give exact matches, simply because the spectrum is not in the database. Closely related are empirical relationships obtained from fitting previously assigned (and presumed correctly assigned) spectra. While these can achieve some degree of success, the fact that NMR chemical shifts (in addition to three-bond coupling constants) are sensitive to conformation means that molecules that have very similar 2D structures may give rise to entirely different spectra.

An alternative to databases and purely empirical schemes would be to calculate chemical shifts $a$ priori using quantum mechanics. In so doing, differences in structure and conformation are directly
taken into account. The underlying methodology has been available for several decades, and both Hartree-Fock and density functional models have been shown to provide reasonable accounts of chemical shifts for simple molecules. However, calculations have only rarely been used to actually assist in the interpretation of spectra, and very few chemists are aware that accurate quantum chemical calculations are now possible (and practical) for “real molecules”. Those who are aware, are confronted and all too often stymied with what must seem to be an endless list of methods. We believe that the full potential of quantum chemical calculations as assists to assigning NMR spectra will only be realized after a small number of alternatives or “standard models” are elaborated and their limits and reliability clearly defined. Stated differently, chemists need to approach quantum chemical calculations much in the same way that they now approach a spectrometer.

**Underlying Theory**

Some but not all nuclei have a non-zero magnetic moment. Where they do, application of an external magnetic field causes the nuclear spins to align either parallel or antiparallel to the field. The difference in energy (ΔE) between nuclear spin states is given by:

\[ \Delta E = \gamma \hbar B_0 \]

\( \gamma \) is the gyromagnetic ratio, a constant that depends on the nucleus, \( \hbar \) is Planck’s constant/2\( \pi \) and \( B_0 \) is the strength of the magnetic field at the nucleus. What makes nuclear magnetic resonance (NMR) spectroscopy interesting to chemists is that the magnetic field felt at the nucleus is slightly different for each chemically distinct nucleus in a molecule. This is because the applied magnetic field is slightly weakened by electrons around the nucleus and the extent of this weakening depends on the detailed chemical environment. Nuclei that are well shielded by the electron cloud experience a lesser field than those that are poorly shielded and, as a result, show a smaller energy splitting. The splitting, relative to a standard, is termed a chemical shift.
As commented above, not all nuclei have a magnetic moment and can give rise to an NMR signal. In particular, the dominant isotope of carbon ($^{12}$C) does not have a magnetic moment and is transparent to an NMR spectrometer. Fortunately $^{13}$C does have a magnetic moment, although it makes up only about 1% of the total. The low natural abundance of $^{13}$C certainly slowed the application of carbon NMR to organic chemistry by several decades (waiting for magnet and spectrometer technology to catch up). However, the low abundance of $^{13}$C is a blessing in disguise in that a carbon NMR spectrum is much simpler (and easier to interpret) than a proton NMR spectrum. Whereas nearby protons interact (couple) leading to splitting of the individual lines in the proton NMR spectrum, the very low probability (1% x 1%) that two $^{13}$C nuclei will be adjacent all but eliminates carbon-carbon coupling. Proton-$^{13}$C coupling can occur but can be (and nearly almost always is) “removed”. The result is that the $^{13}$C NMR spectrum contains only one line per unique carbon.

From the perspective of the experiment, the fact that the difference in energy between nuclear spin states (and ultimately the ability of an NMR spectrometer to distinguish chemically-different nuclei) is directly proportional to the magnetic field strength is disheartening. Magnets used in NMR spectrometers are now approaching practical limits, and a mere 10–20% increase in field strength (translating to an equivalent increase in resolution) can mean more than doubling the cost of the spectrometer. Without a major breakthrough in magnet technology, the prognosis for greatly improved resolution over what is now possible (practical) is bleak. On the other hand, computer performance continues to double every few years (anticipated by Moore’s law), and NMR spectra calculations on larger and ever more complex molecules continue to become more routine.

**The EDF2/6-31G* Density Functional Model for $^{13}$C Chemical Shift Calculations**

Whereas Spartan can calculate NMR chemical shifts using Hartree-Fock as well as a wide range of density functional models and with a variety of basis sets, the focus here is on a single model, specifically, the EDF2/6-31G* density functional model. Considerable experience
indicates that density functional models provide a significantly better account of chemical shifts than Hartree-Fock models, and furthermore that the results are not very sensitive to the exact choice of functional. For example, results based on the EFD2 functional are quite similar to those obtained from the popular B3LYP functional. Indeed our choice of EDF2 was primarily based on a desire to maintain compatibility with calculations of other spectra, in particular infrared spectra, where the EDF2 functional is consistently superior to the B3LYP functional. The choice of the 6-31G* basis set over a larger, more flexible basis set, while due in large part to practical concerns, is supported by calculations that show that increased valence-shell splitting and addition of polarization function and/or diffuse functions does not significantly alter chemical shifts. It allows the calculations to easily be extended to moderate size organic molecules in the molecular weight range of 400-600 amu.

Assessment of the EDF2/6-31G* Density Functional Model for $^{13}$C Chemical Shift Calculations

$^{13}$C shift calculations were performed on a collection of ~3000 small organic molecules containing ~15,000 unique carbons for which experimental data are available. The majority of these are rigid molecules or molecules which exhibit a strong preference for a single conformer. The shift calculations are based on equilibrium geometries from the EDF2/6-31G* model starting from the best conformation established from the T1 thermochemical recipe.

Use of the T1 recipe to establish best conformer is limited to closed-shell, uncharged molecules containing the elements H, C, N, O, F, Si, P, S and Br only. Molecules incorporating other elements use the best conformer assigned from the MMFF molecular mechanics model.

Uncorrected, the calculations yield a RMS error of 5.5 ppm. A plot of EDF2/6-31G* vs. experimental $^{13}$C shifts over the range of -50 to 300 ppm reveals a number of significant outliers.
A few simple but nevertheless “real problems” serve to calibrate utility of the EDF2/6-31G* model as an assist to assigning measured spectra. These have been drawn from a broader selection of problems that we have investigated, and are not intended to show situations where calculations may be particularly valuable, but simply illustrate a variety of different applications. The central question that needs to be answered is whether or not the “raw data” from EDF2/6-31G* calculations are good enough to be value in assigning the NMR spectra of unknown molecules.

The first example typifies a situation where NMR is used to distinguish between two alternatives that are structurally very different. The observed $^{13}$C spectrum of cyclopentenebromonium ion contains lines at 18.8, 31.8 and 114.6 ppm. These could either correspond to a structure with bromine bonded to both sp$^2$ carbons (bridged) or from an equilibrium between a pair of equivalent structures with bromine attached only to one carbon (open).

The calculated spectrum for the bridged ion shows resonances at 20, 33 and 117 ppm, while that obtained by averaging the two open
ions shows lines at 28, 51 and 193 ppm. The former is a reasonable fit to the experimental spectrum whereas the latter is a poor fit. The “assignment” of a cyclic structure for cyclopentenebromonium ion is consistent with crystal structures for related ions.

Actually, the open ion is not an energy minimum according to the EDF2/6-31G* model, and collapses without barrier to the cyclic ion. The NMR calculations were performed using a geometry for the open ion obtained from the analogous Hartree-Fock model (where it is an energy minimum).

The second example involves the use of $^{13}$C NMR to distinguish structural isomers, specifically to distinguish between $\gamma$ and $\delta$ forms of valerolactone and caprolactone. Experimentally, the $^{13}$C shift for the carbonyl carbon in the $\gamma$ isomer of valerolactone is 5.8 ppm larger than that for analogous carbon in the $\delta$ isomer. The calculations show the proper ordering and a difference of 7.5 ppm. The same trend is found for the comparison of $\gamma$ and $\delta$ caprolactone. Experimentally, the $^{13}$C shift of the carbonyl carbon is 4.6 ppm larger for the compound with the 5-membered ring than it is for that with the 6-membered ring, compared to a calculated difference of 7.4 ppm.

![Structural isomers](image)

The third example examines an even more subtle situation where the alternatives are stereoisomers and therefore structurally nearly identical. Consider the choice between equatorial or axial stereochemistry in a rigid ring where equilibration cannot take place, for example, in trans decalin. EDF2/6-31G* calculations show that the $^{13}$C shift for the methyl group in equatorial trans-2-methyldecalin is 3.7 ppm smaller than that for methyl in the axial compound, in reasonable accord with both the direction and magnitude (4.9 ppm) found experimentally.
The fourth example is similar to the previous example in that it uses NMR to distinguish between stereoisomers, in this case, between the endo or exo stereoisomers of 2-norbornylmethanol. The calculated shift for C\textsubscript{7} (the methylene bridge) is larger than the experimental value for both stereoisomers, but both the direction (the shift in the exo isomer is smaller) and the magnitude of the difference (5.1 ppm vs. 4.6 ppm experimentally) are reproduced.

The calculations are successful for cyclopentenebromonium ion presumably because the chemical shifts for the alternative structures are sufficiently different that even sizable errors in the individual calculated \textsuperscript{13}C chemical shifts can be tolerated. Success in properly assigning the structural isomers of valerolactone and caprolactone, the equatorial and axial stereoisomers of trans-2-methyldecalin and endo and exo stereoisomers of 2-norbornylmethanol is on the other hand most likely due to the fact that the alternatives are very similar and that the calculations are benefiting from cancellation of errors.

What happens for the intermediate situation where the alternatives may not be different enough to be easily distinguished and may not be similar enough to benefit from error cancellation? Consider, for example, an attempt to use calculations to decide which of eight possible C\textsubscript{13}H\textsubscript{8}O\textsubscript{5} products arise from a biosynthesis related to the known pathway for lambertellol. This is the kind of “difficult” case where calculations were they reliable would be of real value.
Regrettably, neither the overall spectral pattern nor the detailed values $^{13}\text{C}$ shifts obtained from the EDF2/6-31G* model for either closely matches the experimental data. $^{13}\text{C}$ spectra for two of the eight structures including the correct structure (the top one) are shown below; the methyl resonance is off scale.

![Spectral Comparison](image)

**Empirically Corrected $^{13}\text{C}$ Chemical Shifts**

Successes and failures typified by the examples described above (drawn from a much more extensive list) have led to the development of a hybrid approach for calculating $^{13}\text{C}$ shifts. Our first scheme, implemented in *Spartan’08*, corrected carbon shifts obtained from the B3LYP/6-31G* density functional model based only on the number and kinds of directly-bonded atoms. A total of 29 parameters was involved in a linear regression to an experimental dataset made up of ~800 sp$^3$ carbons, ~1500 sp$^2$ and aromatic carbons and ~100 sp carbons. Note that this correction scheme depends only on topography and not on three-dimensional structure. This means that changes in chemical shifts between stereoisomers obtained from the B3LYP/6-31G* model are unaffected.

A second scheme has now been developed and implemented in *Spartan’10*. It changes the underlying quantum chemical model to EDF2/6-31G* (in part to avoid confusion with the previous correction scheme), replaces the previous scheme based only on bond counts to one which also make use of bond orders, and “special cases” several
common (sp$^2$ and sp) centers. This scheme involves 43 independent parameters for the general case and a similar number of parameters for the special cases. The dataset used for the linear regression is much larger, comprising ~8000 sp$^3$ carbons, ~6200 sp$^2$ carbons (including aromatic carbons) and ~450 sp carbons.

The general case formula is:

$$^{13}C_i = ^{13}C_i \cdot \text{Scale} + \sum_k [X^{(0)}_k + X^{(1)}_k(Q_{i,k} - 1) + X^{(2)}_k(Q_{i,k} - 1)^2]$$

$^{13}C$ is the corrected chemical shift and $^{13}C$ is the uncorrected chemical shift and Scale is a scaling factor. Summation is carried out over all bonds (1 or 2 for sp carbons, 3 for sp$^2$ carbons and 4 for sp$^3$ carbons). $X^{(0)}_k$, $X^{(1)}_k$ and $X^{(2)}_k$ are parameters that depend on the atom bonded to carbon (H, C, N, O, F, Si, P, S, Cl or Br) and $Q_{i,k}$ are natural bond orders. Different expressions apply to sp, sp$^2$ and sp$^3$ carbons. The equation for sp carbon involves four $X^{(0)}_k$ parameters, four $X^{(1)}_k$ parameters and one $X^{(2)}_k$ parameter (11 parameters in total), that for sp$^2$ carbon involves all ten $X^{(0)}_k$ parameters, six $X^{(1)}_k$ parameters and four $X^{(2)}_k$ parameters (21 parameters in total), and that for sp$^3$ carbon involves all ten $X^{(0)}_k$ parameters but no $X^{(0)}_k$ or $X^{(1)}_k$ parameters (11 parameters in total). As there are no special cases for sp$^3$ carbons, this means that the new correction scheme for sp$^3$ carbons, like the previous scheme, depends only on topography and not on three-dimensional structure. Changes in chemical shifts between stereoisomers involving sp$^3$ centers obtained from the EDF2/6-31G* model are unaffected.

A plot of $^{13}C$ shifts obtained from the general correction formula over the range of -50 to 300 ppm is shown below provides RMS error is 1.8 ppm (vs. 5.5 ppm for the uncorrected shifts) with no significant outliers.
The corrected scheme does a much better job for the type of situation illustrated previously for the C_{13}H_{8}O_{5} isomers. The first of the two spectra below is a reasonable match to what is observed, whereas the second (and the other six) are not.

The corrected spectra also properly account for the types of problems that were previously successful (the correction did no harm). A few (DEPT) spectra for natural products show the quality that can be expected.
ATOMIC AND MOLECULAR ORBITALS

Chemists have developed a variety of methods for describing electrons in molecules. Lewis structures are the most familiar. These drawings assign pairs of electrons either to single atoms (lone pairs) or pairs of atoms (bonds)*. The quantum mechanical equivalents are atomic and molecular orbitals which arise from solution of (approximate) Schrödinger equations for atoms and molecules, respectively. Molecular orbitals are spread throughout the entire molecule, that is, they are delocalized. Because of this, they are typically more difficult to interpret than Lewis structures.

Orbital Surfaces

Molecular orbitals provide important clues about chemical reactivity, but before we can use this information we first need to understand what molecular orbitals look like. The following figure shows two representations, a hand drawing and a *Spartan*-generated image of an unoccupied molecular orbital of hydrogen molecule, H₂.

![Unoccupied Molecular Orbital in Hydrogen](image)

The familiar hand drawing shows the orbital as two circles and a dashed line. The circles identify regions where the orbital takes on a significant value, either positive (*shaded*) or negative (*unshaded*). The dashed line identifies locations where the orbital’s value is exactly zero (a *node*). The drawing is useful, but it is also limited. We only

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* Treatment here is limited to molecules in which all electrons are paired. Molecules with one or more unpaired electrons (radicals, triplet states, etc.) may also be treated.
obtain information about the orbital in two dimensions, and we only learn the location of significant regions and not how the orbital builds and decays inside and outside of these regions.

The Spartan-generated image depicts the same orbital as a surface of constant value. The surface is accurate in that it is derived from an authentic (but approximate) calculated solution to the quantum mechanical equations of electron motion. Equally important, the image is three-dimensional, and can be manipulated and looked at from a variety of different perspectives. Note that an orbital surface actually consists of two distinct surfaces represented by different colors. The two surfaces have the same meaning as the two circles in the orbital drawing. They identify regions where the orbital takes on a significant value, either positive (blue) or negative (red). The orbital node is not shown, but we can guess that it lies midway between the two surfaces (this follows from the fact that the orbital’s value can only change from positive to negative by passing through zero).

Atomic Orbitals

Atomic orbitals (descriptions of atoms) are the fundamental building blocks from which molecular orbitals (descriptions of molecules) are assembled. The familiar atomic orbitals for the hydrogen atom are in fact exact solutions of the Schrödinger equation for this one electron system. They form an infinite collection (a complete set), the lowest-energy member representing the best location for the electron, and higher-energy members representing alternative locations. Orbitals for real many-electron atoms are normally assumed to be similar in form to those of hydrogen atom, the only difference being that, unlike hydrogen, more than the lowest-energy atomic orbital is utilized. In practical quantum chemical calculations, atomic orbitals for many-electron atoms are made up of sums and differences of a finite collection of hydrogen-like orbitals (see the topic Theoretical Models).

It is common practice to divide the full set of atomic orbitals into core and valence orbitals, and further to ignore the former. Valence orbitals for an element in the first long row of the Periodic Table are 2s, 2pₓ, 2pᵧ and 2pᶻ, and for the second long row are 3s, 3pₓ, 3pᵧ and 3pᶻ. In
the case of first-row elements, a single orbital, 1s, lies underneath (is a core orbital) while in the case of second-row elements, a set of five orbitals, 1s, 2s, 2pₓ, 2pᵧ and 2pₜ, lie underneath.

Open *fluoride and chloride* in the *topics* directory. On the top row are the four valence orbitals of fluoride anion and on the bottom row the four valence orbitals of chloride anion. You can select among them by clicking (left mouse button) on each in turn. First note that the three 2p orbitals in fluoride are identical except for the direction in which they point. The same is true for the three 3p orbitals in chloride. Next, note that the valence orbitals in chloride are larger than those in fluoride. Atoms further down in the *Periodic Table* are generally larger than analogous atoms further up. Close *fluoride and chloride* when you are finished.

**Orbitals and Chemical Bonds**

Although molecular orbitals and Lewis structures are both used to describe electron distributions in molecules, they are used for different purposes. Lewis structures are used to count the number of bonding and non-bonding electrons around each atom. Molecular orbitals are not useful as counting tools, but orbitals and orbital energies are useful tools for describing chemical bonding and reactivity. This section describes a few common orbital shapes and illustrates their use.

Molecular orbital surfaces can extend over varying numbers of atoms. If the orbital surface (or surfaces) is confined to a single atom or to atoms which are not close together, the orbital is regarded as non-bonding. If the orbital contains a surface that extends continuously over two neighboring atoms, the orbital is regarded as bonding with respect to these atoms. Adding electrons to such an orbital will strengthen the bond between these atoms and cause them to draw closer together, while removing electrons will have the opposite effect. Two different kinds of bonding orbitals are depicted below. The drawing and surface on the left correspond to a \( \sigma \) bond while the drawing and surface on the right correspond to a \( \pi \) bond.
Open **nitrogen bonding** in the *topics* directory. The image on the left corresponds to the $\sigma$ bonding orbital of $\text{N}_2$, while that on the right corresponds to one of two equivalent $\pi$ bonding orbitals. Switch to a transparent or mesh model to see the underlying molecular skeleton. Note that the $\sigma$ orbitals are drawn in a single color (insofar as NN bonding is concerned) while the $\pi$ orbital is made up of red and blue parts. This indicates a node or a break in the latter, although not involving the NN bond. Close **nitrogen bonding** when you are finished.

It is also possible for an orbital to contain a node that divides the region between two neighboring atoms into separate atomic regions. Such an orbital is regarded as antibonding with respect to these atoms. Adding electrons to an antibonding orbital weakens the bond and pushes the atoms apart, while removing electrons from such an orbital has the opposite effect. The following pictures show drawings and orbital surfaces for two different kinds of antibonding orbitals. As above, the left and right-hand sides correspond to $\sigma$ and $\pi$ type arrangements, respectively.

Open **nitrogen antibonding** in the *topics* directory. The image on the left corresponds to the $\sigma$ antibonding ($\sigma^*$) orbital of $\text{N}_2$ while that on the right corresponds to one of the two equivalent $\pi$ antibonding ($\pi^*$) orbitals. Switch to a mesh or transparent surface to see the underlying molecular skeleton. Note that the $\sigma^*$ orbital has a single node (change in color from red to blue) in the middle of the NN bond, while the $\pi^*$ orbital has two...
Bonds can be strengthened in two different ways, by adding electrons to bonding orbitals, or by removing electrons from antibonding orbitals. The converse also holds. Bonds can be weakened either by removing electrons from bonding orbitals or by adding electrons to antibonding orbitals.

**Singlet Methylene**

Molecular orbitals in molecules which contain many atoms are typically spread throughout the molecule (they are delocalized). Delocalized orbitals have complicated shapes and contain multiple interactions that may be bonding, non-bonding, antibonding, or any mixture of all three. Nevertheless, these shapes can still be broken down into two-atom interactions and analyzed using the principles outlined earlier. This process is illustrated for a triatomic molecule, singlet methylene, CH\(_2\). (Singlet refers to the fact that the eight electrons in this highly reactive molecule are organized into four pairs, and that each pair of electrons occupies a different molecular orbital. The lowest-energy state of methylene is actually a triplet with three electron pairs and two unpaired electrons.)

The lowest energy molecular orbital of singlet methylene is not very interesting in that it looks like a 1s atomic orbital on carbon. The electrons occupying this orbital restrict their motion to the immediate region of the carbon nucleus and do not significantly affect bonding. Because of this restriction, and because the orbital’s energy is very low, this orbital is referred to as a **core orbital** and its electrons are referred to as **core electrons**.
The next orbital is much higher in energy. It consists of a single surface that is delocalized over all three atoms. This means that it is simultaneously (σ) bonding with respect to each CH atom pair.

The next higher energy orbital is described by two surfaces, a positive (blue) surface that encloses one CH bonding region and a negative (red) surface that encloses the other CH bonding region*. Since each surface encloses a bonding region, this orbital is also (σ) bonding with respect to each CH atom pair. This reinforces the bonding character of the previous orbital. The node that separates the two surfaces passes through the carbon nucleus, but not through either of the CH bonding regions, so it does not affect bonding.

Thus, the two CH bonds in the Lewis structure for singlet methylene are replaced by two bonding molecular orbitals.

The highest-occupied molecular orbital (the HOMO) is also described by two orbital surfaces. One surface extends into carbon’s non-bonding region opposite the two hydrogens. The other surface encompasses the two CH bonding regions. Although it is hard to track the exact path of the orbital node in this picture, it happens to pass almost exactly through the carbon. This means that this particular orbital possesses only weak CH bonding character (it is H---H bonding). It turns out that the non-bonding character of the orbital is much more important than

* While the absolute signs (colors) of a molecular orbital are arbitrary, the relative signs (colors) indicate bonding and antibonding character.
the bonding character, in that it leads to the fact that singlet methylene is able to behave as an electron-pair donor (a nucleophile).

The above analysis shows that while the occupied orbitals of singlet methylene are spread over all three atoms, they are comprehensible. The orbitals divide into two groups, a single low-energy core orbital and three higher-energy valence orbitals. The latter consist of two CH bonding orbitals and a non-bonding orbital on carbon. There is no one-to-one correspondence between these orbitals and the Lewis structure. The bonding orbitals are not associated with particular bonds, and the non-bonding orbital contains bonding interactions as well.

Singlet methylene also possesses unoccupied molecular orbitals. The unoccupied orbitals have higher (more positive) energies than the occupied orbitals, and these orbitals, because they are unoccupied, do not describe the electron distribution in singlet methylene. Nevertheless, the shapes of unoccupied orbitals, in particular, the lowest-unoccupied orbital (LUMO), is worth considering because it provides valuable insight into the methylene’s chemical reactivity.

The LUMO in methylene has non-bonding character, and looks like a 2p atomic orbital on carbon. This suggests that singlet methylene should be able to behave as an electron-pair acceptor (an electrophile). Note, however, that were the molecule to accept electrons, these would

* Because Lewis structures describe electron pair bonds and non-bonding electron pairs, they may not be related to unoccupied molecular orbitals.
go into non-bonding orbital; carbon would become more electron-rich, but the CH bonds would not be much affected.

![LUMO of methylene](image)

Open *methylene LUMO* in the *topics* directory and switch to a mesh or transparent surface to see the underlying skeleton. Close *methylene LUMO* when you are finished.

**Frontier Orbitals and Chemical Reactivity**

Chemical reactions typically involve movement of electrons from an electron donor (base, nucleophile, reducing agent) to an electron acceptor (acid, electrophile, oxidizing agent). This electron movement between molecules can also be thought of as electron movement between molecular orbitals, and the shapes and energies of orbitals that act as electron donors or electron acceptors may provide considerable insight into chemical reactivity.

The first step in constructing a molecular orbital picture of a chemical reaction is to decide which orbitals are most likely to act as electron donors and acceptors. It is obvious that an electron-donor orbital must be drawn from the set of occupied orbitals, and an electron-acceptor orbital must be an unoccupied orbital, but there are many orbitals in each set to choose from.

Orbital energy is usually the deciding factor. The highest-energy occupied orbital (the HOMO) is most commonly assumed to be the relevant electron-donor orbital and the lowest-energy unoccupied orbital (the LUMO) is most commonly assumed to be the relevant electron-acceptor orbital. For example, the HOMO and LUMO of singlet methylene (σ and π non-bonding orbitals, respectively) would serve as the donor and acceptor orbitals. The HOMO and LUMO are
collectively referred to as the **frontier orbitals**, and most chemical reactions involve electron movement between them. In this way, the energy input required for electron movement is kept to a minimum.

Closely related to chemical reactivity (reaction rate) is chemical selectivity. The relevant question is, where more than one combination of reagents can react, which combination will react first? The answer can often be found by examining the energies of the frontier orbitals. Consider ranking the rates of a series of reagents, where chemical reaction requires electron donation from the donor’s HOMO. It is reasonable to expect that the donor with the highest energy HOMO will give up its electrons most easily and be the most reactive. Electron-acceptor reagents should follow the opposite pattern. The reagent with the lowest energy LUMO should be able to accept electrons most easily and be the most reactive. For a mixture of several donor and acceptor reagents, the fastest chemical reaction would be expected to involve the reagent combination that yields the smallest HOMO-LUMO energy gap.

A related selectivity question arises when a molecule has multiple reactive sites. In this case, the energy of the orbital is useless as a guide to site selectivity, but the shape of the relevant orbital is important. For example, the enolate of ethyl acetate shown below might react with an electrophile ($E^+$) at two different sites.
Because the anion acts as an electron donor, we can find clues to its reactivity preferences by examining the shape of its HOMO. Even though the HOMO is delocalized over several sites, the largest contribution clearly comes from the terminal carbon atom. Therefore, we expect electron movement and bond formation to occur at this carbon, and lead to the product shown on the left.

HOMO for enolate of ethyl acetate

Open ethyl acetate enolate HOMO in the topics directory, and switch to a mesh or transparent surface to see the underlying skeleton. Note that the orbital is most heavily concentrated on carbon, meaning that electrophilic attack will likely occur here. Close ethyl acetate enolate HOMO when you are finished.

The Fukui-Woodward-Hoffmann Rules

In certain cases, multiple frontier orbital interactions must be considered. This is particularly true of so-called cycloaddition reactions, such as the Diels-Alder reaction between 1,3-butadiene and ethylene.

\[ + \quad \rightarrow \quad \]

The key feature of this reaction is that the reactants combine in a way that allows two bonds to form simultaneously. This implies two different sites of satisfactory frontier orbital interaction (the two new bonds that form are sufficiently far apart that they do not interact with each other during the reaction). If we focus exclusively on the interactions of the terminal carbons in each molecule, then three different frontier orbital combinations made up of upper and lower components can be imagined.
The “upper” orbital components are the same sign in all three combinations, meaning that their overlap is positive. In the two cases on the left, the lower orbital components also lead to positive overlap. Thus, the two interactions reinforce, and the total frontier orbital interaction is non zero. Electron movement (chemical reaction) can occur. The right-most case is different. Here the lower orbital components lead to negative overlap (the orbitals have opposite signs at the interacting sites), and the total overlap is zero. No electron movement and no chemical reaction can occur in this case.

As it happens, the frontier orbital interactions in the Diels-Alder cycloaddition shown above correspond to those found in the middle drawing, that is, the upper and lower interactions reinforce and the reaction proceeds.

Open 1,3-butadiene+ethylene in the topics directory. The image on top is the LUMO of ethylene while that on the bottom is the HOMO of 1,3-butadiene. They are properly poised to interact, but you can manipulate them independently. Close 1,3-butadiene+ethylene when you are finished.

The same arguments suggest that cycloaddition of two ethylene molecules is unlikely to occur. This is because it involves a frontier orbital interaction like that found in the right drawing.

Open ethylene+ethylene in the topics directory. The image on top corresponds to the LUMO of one ethylene while that on the bottom corresponds to the HOMO of the other ethylene. You can manipulate them independently or in concert (hold down on the Ctrl key while you carry out rotation and translation). Note, that in this case, the two individual atom-atom interactions cancel. Close ethylene+ethylene when you are finished.
The importance of orbital overlap in determining why certain chemical reactions proceed easily while other similar reactions do not go at all was first advanced by Fukui and then beautifully elaborated by Woodward and Hoffmann, and collectively their ideas are now known as the Fukui-Woodward-Hoffmann rules.
ELECTRON DENSITIES: SIZES AND SHAPES OF MOLECULES

How big is an atom or a molecule? Atoms and molecules require a certain amount of space, but how much? A gas can be compressed into a smaller volume but only so far. Liquids and solids cannot be easily compressed. While the individual atoms or molecules in a gas are widely separated and can be pushed into a much smaller volume, the atoms or molecules in a liquid or a solid are already close together and cannot be squeezed much further.

Space-Filling Models

Chemists have long tried to answer the size question by using a special set of molecular models known as space-filling or CPK models. The space-filling model for an atom is simply a sphere of fixed radius. A different radius is used for each element, and this radius has been chosen to reproduce certain experimental observations, such as the compressibility of a gas, or the spacing between atoms in a crystal. Space-filling models for molecules consist of a set of interpenetrating atomic spheres. This reflects the idea that the chemical bonds that hold the molecule together cause the atoms to move very close together. Interpenetration can be used as a criterion for chemical bonding. If two atomic spheres in a space-filling model strongly interpenetrate then the atoms must be bonded.

Space-filling models for ammonia (left), trimethylamine (center) and 1-azaadamantane (right)

Space-filling models for ammonia, trimethylamine and 1-azaadamantane show how big these molecules are, and also show that the nitrogen in ammonia is more exposed than the corresponding nitrogen atoms in trimethylamine and 1-azaadamantane.
Open *amines space filling* in the *topics* directory. Space-filling models for ammonia, trimethylamine and 1-azaadamantane all appear on screen. Carbon atoms are colored dark grey, hydrogen atoms white and nitrogen blue. Note that the models clearly reveal the extent to which the nitrogen is exposed. Close *amines space filling* when you are finished.

**Electron Density Surfaces**

An alternative technique for portraying molecular size and shape relies on the molecule’s own electron cloud. Atoms and molecules are made up of positively-charged nuclei surrounded by a negatively-charged electron cloud, and it is the size and shape of the electron cloud that defines the size and shape of an atom or molecule. The size and shape of an electron cloud is described by the electron density (the number of electrons per unit volume). Consider a graph of electron density in the hydrogen atom as a function of distance from the nucleus.

![Graph of electron density vs distance from nucleus](image)

The graph brings up a problem for chemists seeking to define atomic and molecular size, in that the electron cloud lacks a clear boundary. While electron density decays rapidly with distance from the nucleus, nowhere does it fall to zero. Therefore, when atoms and molecules rub up against each other, their electron clouds overlap and merge to a small extent.

![Graph of electron density for two molecules](image)
This means that it is really not possible to say how big a molecule is. The best that can be done is to pick a value of the electron density, and to connect together all the points that have this value. The criteria for selecting this value is the same as that for selecting atomic radii in space-filling models, the only difference being that only a single parameter (the value of the electron density) is involved. The result is an electron density surface which, just like a space-filling model, is intended to depict overall molecular size and shape.

Open *amines electron density* in the *topics* directory. Electron density surfaces for ammonia, trimethylamine and 1-azaadamantane all appear on screen. Switch to a mesh or transparent surface in order to see the underlying skeletal model. *Click* on one of the surfaces, and select *Mesh* or *Transparent* from the menu which appears at the bottom right of the screen. With mesh selected, change the model to *Space Filling* (*Model* menu). This allows you to see how similar the electron density representation is to that offered by a simple space-filling model. Close *amines electron density* when you are finished.

Both space-filling and electron density models yield similar molecular volumes, and both show differences in overall size among molecules. Because the electron density surfaces provide no discernible boundaries between atoms, the surfaces may appear to be less informative than space-filling models in helping to decide to what extent a particular atom is exposed. This raises an important point. Electrons are associated with a molecule as a whole and not with individual atoms. The space-filling representation of a molecule with its discernible atoms does not reflect reality.
Bond Density Surfaces

Another useful surface, termed the bond density surface, is one that marks points corresponding to a much higher value of the electron density*. Since points of high electron density are located much closer to the atomic nuclei, bond density surfaces enclose relatively small volumes, and do not give a correct impression of molecular size. On the other hand, bond density surfaces identify regions corresponding to bonding electron density, and the volume of these surfaces may be roughly correlated with the number of electrons that participate in bonding. In this sense, bond density surfaces are analogous to conventional line drawings and skeletal models.

The bond density surface for hex-5-ene-1-yne clearly shows which atoms are connected, although it does not clearly distinguish single, double and triple carbon-carbon bonds.

The usefulness of the bond density surface is more apparent in the following model of diborane. The surface clearly shows that there is relatively little electron density between the two borons. Apparently there is no boron-boron bond in this molecule. This is information extracted from the bond density surface model, and has been obtained without reference to any preconceived ideas about the bonding in diborane.

* An even higher value of the electron density leads to a surface in which only nearly spherical regions of electron density around the non-hydrogen atoms are portrayed. This serves to locate the positions of these atoms and is the basis of the X-ray diffraction experiment.
Bond density surfaces can also be informative in describing changes in bonding in moving from reactants to products through a transition state in a chemical reaction. For example, heating ethyl formate causes the molecule to fragment into two new molecules, formic acid and ethylene. A line drawing can show which bonds are affected by the overall reaction, but it cannot tell us if these changes occur all at once, sequentially, or in some other fashion.

On the other hand, the bond density surface is able to provide quantitative information.

Compare the bond density surface in the pyrolysis transition state to those of the reactant and the products. The CO single bond of the
reactant is clearly broken in the transition state. Also, the migrating hydrogen seems more tightly bound to oxygen (as in the product) than to carbon (as in the reactant). It can be concluded that the transition state more closely resembles the products than the reactants, and this provides an example of what chemists refer to as a late (product-like) transition state.

To see the smooth change in electron density throughout the course of the ethyl formate pyrolysis reaction, open pyrolysis bond density in the topics directory. Click on ▶ at the bottom left of the screen to animate the graphic (click on ▼ to stop the animation). Switch to a mesh or transparent surface to follow the change in bonding. Close pyrolysis bond density when you are finished.
ELECTROSTATIC POTENTIAL MAPS: CHARGE DISTRIBUTIONS

The charge distribution in a molecule can provide critical insight into its physical and chemical properties. For example, molecules that are charged, or highly polar, tend to be water-soluble, and polar molecules may stick together in specific geometries, such as the double helix in DNA. Chemical reactions are also associated with charged sites, and the most highly-charged molecule, or the most highly-charged site in a molecule, is often the most reactive. The sign of the charge is also important. Positively-charged sites in a molecule invite attack by bases and nucleophiles, while negatively-charged sites are usually targeted by acids and electrophiles.

One way to describe a molecule’s charge distribution is to give a numerical atomic charge for each atom. A particularly simple and familiar recipe yields so-called formal charges directly from Lewis structures. Unfortunately, formal charges are arbitrary. In fact, all methods for assigning charge are arbitrary and necessarily bias the calculated charges in one way or another. This includes methods based on quantum mechanics.

An attractive alternative for describing molecular charge distributions makes use of a quantity termed the electrostatic potential. This is the energy of interaction of a point positive charge with the nuclei and electrons of a molecule. The value of the electrostatic potential depends on the location of the point positive charge. If the point charge is placed in a region of excess positive charge (an electron-poor region), the point charge-molecule interaction is repulsive and the electrostatic potential will be positive. Conversely, if the point charge is placed in a region of excess negative charge (an electron-rich region), the interaction is attractive and the electrostatic potential will be negative. Thus, by moving the point charge around the molecule, the molecular charge distribution can be surveyed.

Electrostatic potentials can be depicted in various ways. For example, it is possible to make an electrostatic potential surface by finding all of the points in space where the electrostatic potential matches some particular value. A much more useful way to show molecular charge
distribution is to construct an electrostatic potential map. This is done first by constructing an electron density surface corresponding to a space-filling model (see the topic *Electron Densities: Sizes and Shapes of Molecules*). The electrostatic potential is then mapped onto this surface using different colors to represent the different values of the electrostatic potential. Mapping requires an arbitrary choice for a color scale. *Spartan* uses the rainbow. Red, the low energy end of the spectrum, depicts regions of most negative (least positive) electrostatic potential, and blue depicts the regions of most positive (least negative) electrostatic potential. Intermediate colors represent intermediate values of the electrostatic potential, so that potential increases in the order: red < orange < yellow < green < blue.

The connection between a molecule’s electron density surface, its electrostatic potential surface, and an electrostatic potential map is illustrated below for benzene. The electron density surface defines molecular shape and size. It performs the same function as a conventional space-filling model by indicating how close two benzenes can get in a liquid or in a crystal.

Open *benzene electron density* in the *topics* directory. Two different images, a space-filling model and an electron density surface, appear side by side. You can switch between the two models (in order to manipulate them) by *clicking* on each in turn. Notice how similar they are. To get an even clearer impression, switch to a mesh surface. *Click* on the graphic and select *Mesh* from the menu which appears at the bottom right of the screen. Switch to a space-filling model (*Space Filling* from the *Model* menu). The two are now superimposed. Close *benzene electron density* when you are finished.
The electrostatic potential corresponding to points where the potential is negative shows two different surfaces, one above the face of the ring and the other below. Since the molecule’s \( \pi \) electrons lie closest to these surfaces, we conclude that these electrons are responsible for the attraction of a point positive charge (or an electrophile) to the molecule. An electrostatic potential surface corresponding to points where the potential is positive has a completely different shape. It is disk-shaped and wrapped fairly tightly around the nuclei. The shape and location of this surface indicates that a point positive charge is repelled by this region, or that a point negative charge (a nucleophile) would be attracted here.

![Negative and positive electrostatic potential surfaces for benzene](image)

Next, combine the electron density and electrostatic potential surfaces to produce a so-called electrostatic potential map. The map for benzene conveys both the molecule’s size and shape as well as its charge distribution in a compact and easily interpretable manner. The size and shape of the map are, of course, identical to that of the electron density surface, and indicate what part of the molecule is easily accessible to other molecules (the outside world). The colors reveal the overall charge distribution. The faces of the ring, the \( \pi \) system, are red (electron rich), while the plane of the molecule and especially the hydrogens are blue (electron poor).

Open benzene electrostatic potential in the topics directory. Two different images appear side by side. The one on the left depicts a surface of constant negative potential, while the one on the right depicts a surface of equal positive potential. You can switch between the two models (in order to manipulate them) by clicking on each in turn. Close benzene electrostatic potential when you are finished.
Electrostatic potential maps have made their way into mainstream general and (especially) organic chemistry textbooks as a means of displaying charge distributions in molecules. In addition, they have found application as a natural step beyond steric models for interpreting and predicting the way in which molecules fit together. A good example of this follows from the electrostatic potential map for benzene, which recall is negative on the π faces and positive around the periphery. The benzene dimer would, therefore, be expected to exhibit a perpendicular geometry, to best accommodate Coulombic interactions, instead of a parallel arrangement.
Of greater interest is the structure of benzene in solid state. Intuition suggests a parallel stack. Afterall, benzene is flat and flat things (plates, pancakes, hamburgers) make stacks. However, Coulombs law favors a perpendicular arrangement.

The experimental X-ray crystal structure shows a perpendicular arrangement, but in three dimensions. There are two lessons here. Intermolecular interactions go beyond steric interactions and sometimes our simple one-dimensional view of the world will lead us astray.
Electrostatic potential maps may also be used to describe in great detail the workings of chemical reactions. For example, a map may be used to show the transfer of negative charge during the S\textsubscript{n}2 reaction of cyanide with methyl iodide.

\[ :\text{N}=\text{C} : <\text{CH}_3\text{I} \rightarrow :\text{N}=\text{C} \text{CH}_3 + \text{I}^- \]

Open \textit{Sn2 cyanide+methyl iodide} in the \textit{topics} directory. One frame of a sequence of electrostatic potential maps for the S\textsubscript{n}2 reaction will appear. Animate by clicking on \( \text{▶} \) at the bottom left of the screen (stop the animation by clicking on \( \text{❚} \)). Note that the negative charge (red color) flows smoothly from cyanide to iodide during the reaction. Note also, that cyanide (as the reactant) is more red than iodide (as the product). Iodide is better able to carry negative charge, that is, it is the better leaving group. Switch to mesh or transparent map to see the making and breaking of bonds. Close \textit{Sn2 cyanide+methyl iodide} when you are finished.
LOCAL IONIZATION POTENTIAL MAPS AND LUMO MAPS: ELECTROPHILIC AND NUCLEOPHILIC REACTIVITIES

The Hammond Postulate states that the transition state in a (one-step) reaction will more closely resemble the side of the reaction that is higher in energy. Thus, the transition state of an endothermic reaction will more closely resemble the products. Conversely, the transition state of an exothermic reaction will resemble the reactants. One way to rationalize the Hammond postulate is to suggest that similarity in energy implies similarity in structure. That is, the transition state will resemble whichever reactants or products to which it is closer in energy. As seen in the reaction coordinate diagrams below this is the product in an endothermic reaction and the reactants in an exothermic reaction.

The Hammond Postulate provides a conceptual basis both for the Fukui-Woodward-Hoffmann rules (see the topic Atomic and Molecular Orbitals) and for the use of graphical models. Both consider the properties of reactants as an alternative to direct calculations of transition states and reaction pathways as a way to assess chemical reactivity and selectivity. In this context, two models stand out as being particularly useful: the local ionization potential map for electrophilic reactions and the LUMO map for nucleophilic reactions.

Local Ionization Potential Maps and Electrophilic Reactivity

The local ionization potential provides a measure of the relative ease of electron removal (ionization) at any location around a molecule. For example, a surface of low local ionization potential for sulfur tetrafluoride demarks the areas which are most easily ionized, and is
clearly recognizable as a lone pair on sulfur.

The local ionization potential by itself is not generally a useful model. However, a map of the local ionization potential onto an electron density surface is a useful model, in that it reveals those regions from which electrons are most easily ionized.

Local ionization potential maps may be employed to reveal sites which are susceptible to electrophilic attack. For example, they show both the positional selectivity in electrophilic aromatic substitution (NH₂ directs ortho/para, and NO₂ directs meta), and the fact that π-donor groups (NH₂) activate benzene while electron-withdrawing groups (NO₂) deactivate benzene.
Open *benzene, aniline, nitrobenzene local ionization potential maps* in the *topics* directory. Here, the color red corresponds to regions of lowest ionization potential (most accessible to electrophiles). Note, that the \( \pi \) system in aniline is more accessible than the \( \pi \) system in benzene (the standard) and that the *ortho* and *para* positions are more accessible than *meta* positions. Note also, that the \( \pi \) system in nitrobenzene is less accessible than the \( \pi \) system in benzene and that here the *meta* positions are more accessible than the *ortho* and *para* positions, in accord with observation. Close *benzene, aniline, nitrobenzene local ionization potential maps* when you are finished.

### LUMO Maps and Nucleophilic Reactivity

As elaborated in the topic *Atomic and Molecular Orbitals*, the energies and shapes of the frontier molecular orbitals may anticipate chemistry of a molecule. Molecular orbital maps may also lead to informative models. The most common of these is the so-called LUMO map, in which the (absolute value) of the LUMO is mapped onto an electron density surface. This anticipates where an electron pair (a nucleophile) might attack.

\[
\text{LUMO map for cyclohexenone showing positions for nucleophilic attack in blue}
\]

A good example is provided by the LUMO map for cyclohexenone.

The LUMO shows which regions of a molecule are most electron deficient, and hence most subject to nucleophilic attack. In this case,
one such region is over the carbonyl carbon, consistent with the observation that carbonyl compounds undergo nucleophilic addition at the carbonyl carbon. Another region is over the β carbon, again consistent with the known chemistry of α,β-unsaturated carbonyl compounds, in this case conjugate or Michael addition.

\[
\text{HO} \quad \text{CH}_3 \quad \text{CH}_3\text{Li} \quad \text{carbonyl addition} \quad \text{O} \quad \text{CH}_3 \quad \text{(CH}_3)_2\text{CuLi} \quad \text{Michael addition} \quad \text{O} \quad \text{CH}_3
\]

The buildup of positive charge on the β carbon leading to possibility of Michael addition could have been anticipated from resonance arguments, although the LUMO map, like an experiment, has the advantage of showing the result (“you don’t have to ask”).

Open cyclohexenone LUMO map in the topics directory and click on the resulting surface. Switch to a mesh or transparent surface in order to see the underlying skeletal model. On Windows, click on the graphic and select Mesh or Transparent from the menu which appears at the bottom right of the screen. On the Mac, position the cursor over the graphic, hold down on either the left or right button and select from the menu which appears alongside. Orient the molecule such that the two “blue regions” are positioned over the appropriate carbons and then switch back to a solid surface. Close cyclohexenone LUMO map when you are finished.
Appendix B
Capabilities and Limitations

**Molecular Mechanics Models**¹

The molecular mechanics module calculates the energy (a combination of strain energy and intramolecular interaction energy), equilibrium geometry and vibrational frequencies, as well as provides for conformational searching². SYBYL (Tripos, Inc.) and MMFF (Merck Pharmaceuticals) force fields are available. Energies from the latter may be corrected for the effects of aqueous solvent (MMFFaq). Structures are unaffected. There are no atom limits.

**Semi-Empirical Models**¹

The semi-empirical module calculates the heat of formation, wavefunction, equilibrium and transition-state geometries and vibrational frequencies, as well as provides for conformational searching. MNDO, AM1, RM1, PM3² and PM6 models are supported. MNDO/d replaces MNDO for second-row (and heavier) main-group elements. MNDO has been parameterized for H, He, Li-F, Al-Cl, Ca, Zn, Ge, Br, Cd, Sn, I, Hg and Pb; AM1 for H, B-F, Al-Cl, Zn, Ge, Br, Sn and I; RM1 for H, C–F, P, S, Cl, Br and I; PM3 for H-Ne, Mg-Ar, Ca, Ti-Br, Zr, Mo-Pd, Cd-I, Hf-Pt and Hg-Bi and Gd; PM6 for H–Bi except for Ce–Yb. All semi-empirical models involve a minimal valence basis set. Preset limits for semi-empirical calculations are 300 atoms.

**Hartree-Fock Models**¹⁻³

The Hartree-Fock module calculates the energy and wavefunction, equilibrium and transition-state geometries and vibrational frequencies, as well as provides for conformational searching. Both closed-shell

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* MMFF is the only method available for generation of conformer libraries.
** The published version of PM3 has been implemented and parameterized for transition metals. Except for Zn, Cd and Hg, these include d-type orbitals in the basis set.
and open-shell (either ROHF or UHF) calculations are supported. Available basis sets are enumerated later in this appendix. Hartree-Fock models have been implemented for use on multi-core processors. Preset limits for Hartree-Fock calculations are 200 atoms and 2,000 basis functions. Calculations on molecules with up to 100 atoms are practical.

**Density Functional Models**

The density functional module calculates the energy and wavefunction, equilibrium and transition-state geometries and vibrational frequencies, as well as provides for conformational searching. The module supports local density calculations and a wide variety of gradient corrected and hybrid functionals. Only a few functionals are provided in the menu of functionals, but other selections can be entered into the **Options** line of the **Calculations** dialog (Setup menu; Chapter 17). The **Options** line may also be used to specify combinations of exchange and correlation components to be used in building a total functional. For example, the line `EXCHANGE=SLATER:0.9,BECKE:0.1` indicates a combination of 9 parts Slater exchange and 1 part Becke exchange. Similarly, the line `CORRELATION=VWN:0.19,LYP:0.81` indicates a combination of 19 parts VWN and 81 parts LYP correlation.

A full listing of available functionals (including exchange and correlation functions to be used as components in construction of custom functionals) is provided in **Table B-1**. Available basis sets are enumerated later in this appendix. Density functional models have been implemented for use on multi-core processors. Preset limits for density functional calculations are 200 atoms and 2,000 basis functions. Calculations on molecules with up to 100 atoms are practical.

**Møller-Plesset Models**

The Møller-Plesset module calculates the energy and wavefunction and equilibrium and transition-state geometries as well as provides for conformational searching using either the MP2 or RI-MP2 models.
Table B-1: Available Exchange, Correlation and Combination Functionals

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>exchange functionals</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>HF</td>
<td>Fock exchange</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Slater</td>
<td>Slater (Dirac 1930)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Becke</td>
<td>Becke (1988)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gill96</td>
<td>Gill (1996)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GG99</td>
<td>Gilbert, Gill (1999)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B (EDF1)</td>
<td>Becke (uses EDF1 parameters)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PW91</td>
<td>Perdew, Burke, Ernzerhof (1996)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>correlation functionals</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>VWN</td>
<td>Vasko, Wilk, Nusair #5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LYP</td>
<td>Lee, Yang, Parr</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PW91</td>
<td>GGA91, Perdew</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LYP</td>
<td>(EDF1)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>P86</td>
<td>Perdew (1986)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PZ81</td>
<td>Perdew, Zungner</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PBE</td>
<td>Perdue, Burke, Ernzerhof (1996)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>combination functionals</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>B3PW91</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B3LYP</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B3LYP5 (Gaussian’s version of B3LYP)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EDF1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EDF2</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BMK</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M05</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M052X</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M06</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M062X</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M06HF</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M06L</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ωB97</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ωB97X</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ωB97XD</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Vibrational frequencies are also available from both models, but require numerical differentiation of analytical gradients. Available basis sets are enumerated later in this appendix. RI-MP2 models (only) have been implemented for use on multi-core processors.

Depending on basis set, practical considerations limit application of these techniques to molecules comprising 20-30 heavy (non-hydrogen) atoms, although program limits are set much larger.

MP3 and MP4 models are available for energy calculations only and are supported under Advanced Correlated Models.

**Advanced Correlated Models**

The advanced correlated module calculates only the energy using the MP3, MP4, CCSD, CCSD(T), CCSD(2), OD, OD(T), QCISD, QCISD(T), QCQCD and QCQCD(2) correlated models. Only a few models are provided in the menu and the others need to be entered into the Options line in the Calculations dialog (Setup menu; Chapter 17). Available basis sets are enumerated later in this appendix.

Depending on the specific model and basis set, practical considerations limit application of these techniques to molecules comprising 10-20 heavy (non-hydrogen) atoms, although program limits are set much larger.

**Thermochemical Recipes**

The G2, G3 and G3(MP2) recipes are available for highly-accurate heat of formation calculations. Practical considerations generally limit application of the first two recipes to molecules comprising less than 10 heavy atoms and the G3(MP2) recipe to molecules comprising less than 15 heavy atoms.

The T1 recipe has been developed to closely reproduce G3(MP2) heats of formation. It makes use of an HF/6-31G* geometry, instead of the MP2/6-31G* geometry, replaces the large basis set MP2 calculation in G3(MP2) by a dual-basis set RI-MP2 calculation, eliminates both the QCISD(T) calculation and the vibrational frequency calculation (needed to obtain zero-point energy and to correct the energy for finite
temperature) and introduces an empirical correction based on the atom counts and Mulliken bond orders. The result is that T1 requires 2-3 orders of magnitude less computation time than G3(MP2). Calculations on molecules with 30-50 heavy atoms are practical.

T1 is limited to closed-shell, uncharged molecules comprising H, C, N, O, F, Si, P, S, Cl and Br only, and that can be properly described in terms of a conventional valence structure. A “T1 like” recipe for transition states is under development.

**Excited-State Models**

Two classes of models are available for calculations of excited states: configuration interaction (CI) models and time-dependent density functional (TDDFT) models. The former comprises three models: CIS (configuration interaction singles), CISD (configuration interaction singles with doubles correction) and RI-CIS(D), while the latter supports the same functionals or combinations of functionals available for ground state density functional calculations. At the present time, only the CIS and RI-CIS(D) models are available for geometry optimization and frequency calculations, all other models being restricted to energy calculations. Available basis sets are enumerated later in this appendix.

Preset limits for excited-state calculations are 200 atoms and 2,000 basis functions. Depending on the specific model and basis set, practical considerations limit applications to molecules comprising 20-30 atoms.

**Basis Sets and Pseudopotentials**

Available basis sets for Hartree-Fock, density functional, MP2 (RI-MP2) and advanced correlated models for ground states and CIS, CISD (RI-CIS(D)) and time-dependent density functional (TDDFT) models for excited states include the full range of Pople basis sets: minimal STO-3G, split-valence 3-21G, 6-31G, 6-311G and polarization 6-31G*, 6-31G**, 6-311G* and 6-311G**. These may be supplemented with additional polarization functions and/or with diffuse functions. Also available are the cc-pVDZ, cc-pVTZ,
cc-pVQZ, cc-pV5Z and aug-cc-pCVQZ basis sets and the G3Large basis set.

STO-3G is available for H–I, 3-21G for H–Cs, 6-31G and basis sets built on it for H–Kr, 6-311G and basis sets built on it for H–Kr and I, cc-pVDZ, cc-pVTZ, cc-pVQZ, and G3 Large for H–Ca and Ge–Kr and aug-cc-pCVQZ for H–Ar.

Use of minimal and split-valence basis sets for any but Hartree-Fock calculations generally leads to poor results and is not recommended.

Dual-basis set techniques (mixing small and large basis sets) are supported for ground-state energy and equilibrium and transition-state geometry calculations for Hartree-Fock, density functional and MP2 models. These can be up to an order of magnitude faster than single-basis set calculations, depending on choice of small and large basis sets.

Pseudopotentials are available for calculations on molecules incorporating heavy atoms (for which all-electron basis sets are not available). Their use is automatic in \textit{Spartan'10} (a change from the need for explicit specification in earlier versions).

\textbf{Solvent Models}

\textit{Spartan'10} supports two different empirical solvation models. The simpler is the SM5.4 model\textsuperscript{5} (available for H, C–F, S–Cl, Br and I) which estimates only the aqueous solvation energy. This in turn may be added to the gas-phase energy obtained from any molecular mechanics or quantum chemical model. Because the computational cost of SM5.4 is very low (on the order of that for an energy using a semi-empirical model), this solvent correction is provided automatically for all quantum chemical calculations and is reported as a molecular property.

The SM8 model\textsuperscript{6} (available for H, C–F, S–Cl, Br and I) is applicable only to Hartree-Fock and density functional models. It leads to a change in the wavefunction. This means that, in addition to energy, equilibrium or transition-state geometry, properties, infrared spectra and graphical displays may be obtained in the presence of solvent.
SM8 has been parameterized for water as well as a variety of organic solvents. A few common solvents may be specified in a menu (acetone, diethyl ether, DMF, DMSO, ethanol, methylene chloride, THF and toluene) while others may be specified using the Solvent keyword in the Calculations dialog (Setup menu; Chapter 17). Available solvents are listed in Appendix D. The computational cost of SM8 is roughly that of an energy with the corresponding Hartree-Fock or density functional model.

Properties and Spectra

The properties module is automatically invoked following completion of a molecular mechanics or quantum chemical calculation. By default, it provides for text output printing, population analyses and atomic charge calculation (Mulliken, natural bond orbital and based on fits to electrostatic potentials), evaluation of thermodynamic quantities (heat capacity, enthalpy, entropy and free energy) as well as the zero-point energy if vibrational frequencies are available, and calculation of the dipole moment.

Several properties based on graphical displays have been implemented for the first time in Spartan’10. These include the area, exposed area and volume of an electron density surface, the polar area of an electrostatic potential map for cutoff values of 75, 100 and 125 kJ/mol, the maximum and minimum values of the electrostatic potential on an electrostatic potential map and the minimum value of the local ionization potential on a local ionization potential map. These require calculation of the respective surfaces and property maps, but only a small set of numerical values and not the surfaces and maps themselves are actually stored. These properties need to be explicitly requested by checking the QSAR box inside the Calculations dialog (Calculations under the Setup menu; Chapter 17). They are either available from the QSAR tab of the Molecule Properties dialog (Properties under the Display menu; Chapter 18) or from the Formula Editor dialog (Formulas under the Display menu; Chapter 18).

The properties module is also responsible for calculating quantities related to infrared/Raman spectra (vibrational frequencies and infrared/
Raman intensities), NMR spectra (chemical shifts) and UV/visible spectra (excited-state transition energies and intensities). IR spectra calculations may be carried out with molecular mechanics models, semi-empirical models, Hartree-Fock models, density functional models and MP2 and RI-MP2 models. Note, however, that MP2 and RI-MP2 infrared calculations need to be performed using numerical differentiation and are in practice limited to small molecules. NMR and Raman spectra calculations are limited to Hartree-Fock and density functional models and UV/visible spectra calculations are limited to Hartree-Fock models (CIS for excited states) and density functional models (TDDFT for excited states).

Graphical Models
The graphics module provides for data preparation associated with the display as surfaces, property maps and slices of molecular orbitals, electron densities, spin densities, electrostatic potentials, and local ionization potentials. The sizes of electron density surfaces (and property maps based on electron density surfaces) may be chosen either using a specific value of the density or a value that encloses a specific percentage of the total number of electrons. Accessible and inaccessible regions may be distinguished for electron density surfaces and all property maps based on electron density surfaces.

Spartan’10 displays an orbital energy diagram (up to 12 highest-occupied molecular orbitals and the 2 lowest-unoccupied molecular orbitals). Molecular orbital graphics may be generated on-the-fly, given that a wavefunction is available.

Similarity Analysis
The similarity analysis module evaluates and quantifies the extent to which molecules are similar based either on selected atomic centers (structure) or on selected chemical function descriptors (CFD’s). In addition, it quantifies the degree of fit of a molecule into a chemical environment (a pharmacophore). Similarity analyses are carried out between one or more molecules or pharmacophores in a document (the template) and one or more molecules or pharmacophores in one
or more documents (the library). Molecules in the library (only) may either correspond to single conformers or to collections of diverse conformers.

1. For a general discussion and assessment of the techniques and methods available in *Spartan*, see: W.J. Hehre, *A Guide to Molecular Mechanics and Quantum Chemical Calculations*, Wavefunction, Inc., Irvine, CA 2003. This is available as a PDF under the Help menu.


## Appendix C

### Menus

**Spartan Screen**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Menu Item</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>File</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>New</td>
<td>Brings up a model kit for molecule building or substitution</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Open...</td>
<td>Opens (imports) a molecule or set of molecules</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Close</td>
<td>Closes a molecule or set of molecules</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Save</td>
<td>Saves (exports) a molecule</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Save As...</td>
<td>Saves a molecule as a <em>Spartan</em> document under a user-specified name; creates files for use in the Spartan Molecular Database, Spartan Reaction Database, Spartan Infrared Database and Spartan Spectra and Properties Database</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>New Molecule</td>
<td>Adds a molecule to an existing list; brings up a model kit for molecule building or substitution</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Delete Molecule</td>
<td>Deletes a molecule (or molecules) from a list</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Append Molecule(s)...</td>
<td>Append molecules to an existing list</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Access PDB Online...</td>
<td>Accesses the online Protein Data Bank (PDB)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Print...</td>
<td>Prints on-screen display; also prints contents of output window and the <em>Spreadsheet</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Embedded Data</td>
<td>Associates external files with a <em>Spartan</em> document, either at molecule or document level (or both)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Start/Stop QuickTime Recording</td>
<td>Starts and stops QuickTime recording of contents of main <em>Spartan</em> screen (only)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Exit</td>
<td>Exits <em>Spartan</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Edit</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---------------------</td>
<td>-------------------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Undo</strong></td>
<td>Undoes previous operations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Cut</strong></td>
<td>Moves the current molecule or contents of the selection box to the clipboard</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Copy</strong></td>
<td>Copies the current molecule or contents of the selection box to the clipboard</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Paste</strong></td>
<td>Pastes contents of the clipboard to the screen</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Select All</strong></td>
<td>Selects all atoms in the selected molecule</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Find...</strong></td>
<td>Locates a text string in the output dialog or an on-screen molecular fragment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Find Next</strong></td>
<td>Locates next occurrence of a text string or molecular fragment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Center</strong></td>
<td>Centers the molecule on screen; applies to all molecules in a document</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Clear</strong></td>
<td>Clears the selected molecule</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>Model</strong></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Wire</strong></td>
<td>Displays structure as wire-frame model</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Ball and Wire</strong></td>
<td>Displays structure as ball-and-wire model</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Tube</strong></td>
<td>Displays structure as tube model</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Ball and Spoke</strong></td>
<td>Displays structure as ball-and-spoke model</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Space Filling</strong></td>
<td>Displays structure as space-filling model</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Line</strong></td>
<td>Displays structure as a line drawing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Hide</strong></td>
<td>Hides structure model from view</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Global Model</strong></td>
<td>Applies model type and labels of current molecule to all molecules in the document</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Coupled</strong></td>
<td>Couples motions of all molecules in the document</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Hydrogens</strong></td>
<td>Toggles hydrogens on and off</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Labels</strong></td>
<td>Toggles labels on and off</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Ribbons</strong></td>
<td>Toggles ribbons on and off</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Ramachandran Plot</strong></td>
<td>Display a Ramachandran plot for a protein that has been brought in from the Protein Data Bank (PDB)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Hydrogen Bonds  Toggles hydrogen bonds on and off
CFD’s  Toggles chemical function descriptors (hydrophobes, hydrogen-bond donors/acceptors, positive/negative centers) on and off
Configure...  Labels atoms, bonds, etc., provides information about polypeptides/polynucleotides residues and designates ribbon displays

**Geometry**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Command</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Measure Distance</td>
<td>Displays and/or sets bond distance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Measure Angle</td>
<td>Displays and/or sets bond angle</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Measure Dihedral</td>
<td>Displays and/or sets dihedral angle</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Freeze Center</td>
<td>Freezes selected atomic positions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Set Torsions</td>
<td>Selects bond rings for conformational searching</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Set Similarity Centers</td>
<td>Identifies atoms /CFD’s for similarity analyses</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Constrain Distance</td>
<td>Constrains bond distance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Constrain Angle</td>
<td>Constrains bond angle</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Constrain Dihedral</td>
<td>Constrains dihedral angle</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Define Point</td>
<td>Defines a point as a geometric mean of a set of atoms; defines ligand point as a position that is perpendicular to the centroid of a plane made by three or more atoms</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Define Plane</td>
<td>Defines a plane made by three or more atoms</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Define CFD</td>
<td>Defines the location of a CFD</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Align</td>
<td>Aligns molecules in a document according to selected atoms, structure, or CFD’s</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Build**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Command</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>View</td>
<td>Removes the model kit (unless designated for permanent display)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Add Fragment</td>
<td>Brings up a model kit that contains libraries of atomic fragments, functional groups, rings, ligands and substituents; accesses</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
user-defined libraries; provides access to ChemDraw (*NAL*, *NAM*)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Command</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Delete</td>
<td>Deletes atoms, bonds, points, planes, etc.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Make Bond</td>
<td>Makes bonds between free valences or atoms</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Break Bond</td>
<td>Breaks a bond</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Minimize</td>
<td>Performs energy minimization using MMFF molecular mechanics</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Setup

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Command</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Calculations...</td>
<td>Sets up molecular mechanics and quantum chemical calculations and similarity analyses; specifies calculation of IR, NMR and UV/vis spectra</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Surfaces</td>
<td>Sets up generation of and displays graphical surfaces</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Submit</td>
<td>Submits job to the execution queue</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Display

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Command</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Output</td>
<td>Displays text output</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Properties</td>
<td>Displays molecule, bond and atom properties as well as information about CFD’s, geometrical constraints, graphical surfaces, plots (including spectral plots) and statistical analyses</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Orbital Energies</td>
<td>Displays an orbital energy diagram and allows on-the-fly generation and display of molecular orbitals</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Surfaces</td>
<td>Sets up generation of and displays graphical surfaces (same as entry in Setup menu)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spectra</td>
<td>Displays IR, Raman, NMR and/or UV/visible spectra, animates vibrational modes (IR and Raman), and accesses on-line experimental spectral databases; fits calculated spectra to experimental spectra and (for IR and Raman) to reference spectrum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Description</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>----------</td>
<td>-----------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Formulas</td>
<td>Constructs expressions for use in spreadsheet and database searching/mining operations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spreadsheet</td>
<td>Displays spreadsheet</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Plots...</td>
<td>Creates plots from the data in the spreadsheet</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Similarities</td>
<td>Displays results of similarity analyses</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reactions</td>
<td>Calculates reaction (activation) energies using data either from current document or from the Spartan Molecular Database</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Search**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Define Structure Query</td>
<td>Add growth points to a structure defining an underlying substructure</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Define Reaction Query</td>
<td>Add curly arrows to structure query (the reactant) in order to relate it to the product of a chemical reaction or to the transition state leading to that product</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Open/Close Databases</td>
<td>Performs substructure search on Cambridge Structural Database (CSD), Spartan Molecular Database (SMD) and Spartan Reaction Database (SRD); performs spectral search of the Spartan Infrared Database (SIRD)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Guess Transition State</td>
<td>Provides transition-state guess based on reaction database or, lacking a database entry, based on linear synchronous transit</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Identify Tautomers</td>
<td>Identifies tautomers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Extract Ligands</td>
<td>Extracts ligands and pharmacophores based on protein-ligand binding from PDB files</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Options**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Preferences...</td>
<td>Sets various run-time and labeling preferences and specifies execution preferences and run-time queue; invokes parallel calculation; sets up icon displays; establishes url’s for on-line access</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Colors</td>
<td>Sets screen and model colors</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>------------------------</td>
<td>------------------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fonts...</td>
<td>Sets fonts for labels and plot displays</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Graphics Fonts...</td>
<td>Sets fonts for graphical displays</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Monitor</td>
<td>Monitors and allows for killing executing jobs and bypassing queue to start jobs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Calculator</td>
<td>Pocket calculator</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Model Kit</td>
<td>Keeps a model kit on screen</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>File, Build, Geometry,</td>
<td>Toggles toolbars on and off</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Search Toolbar</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cascade</td>
<td>Arranges open windows in a cascade</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tile</td>
<td>Arranges open windows as tiles (NAL, NAM)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Activities**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Tutorials</th>
<th>Brings up <em>Spartan’10</em> tutorials</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Topics</td>
<td>Brings up selection of topics relevant to calculations performed in <em>Spartan</em>.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Problems</td>
<td>Brings up a selection of problems suitable for <em>Spartan’10</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Look up in Wikipedia</td>
<td>Brings up an html page pointing to a Wikipedia page</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Help**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Help</th>
<th>Provides information about the performance and timing of computational methods in <em>Spartan</em>; provides information about using graphical models in <em>Spartan</em>; bulletin board for FAQs about <em>Spartan</em></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>About...</td>
<td>Provides program version information for citation and support</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
**Contextual**

**Main Screen**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Command</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Copy</td>
<td>Copies selected molecule to the clipboard</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Paste</td>
<td>Pastes the contents of the clipboard into the selected document</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Delete Selected</td>
<td>Deletes selected molecule from document</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Properties</td>
<td>Brings up the Molecular Properties dialog</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Spreadsheet**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Command</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Copy</td>
<td>Copies text of selected cell or cells to the clipboard. If leftmost cell (or cells) selected, copies molecule(s) to the clipboard</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Paste</td>
<td>Pastes the contents of the clipboard into selected cells. If leftmost cell (or cells) selected, either pastes text or molecule(s) depending on menu choice</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Add</td>
<td>Brings up the Add dialog (spreadsheet) for adding calculated quantities into the spreadsheet</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sort</td>
<td>Sorts the column from low to high. Pressing the Shift key prior to menu selection sorts from high to low</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Format Selected</td>
<td>Formats selected cell(s), selected column(s) if selection is in a header cell, or entire spreadsheet if selection is header cell of leftmost column</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Delete Selected</td>
<td>Deletes selected molecule(s) from document</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Append</td>
<td>Appends the contents of Spartan document(s) to the spreadsheet (corresponding to the selected document)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rename Selected Using SMD/SSPD</td>
<td>Rename selected molecule(s) with names in the Spartan Molecular Database or Spartan Spectra and Properties Database; appears only when leftmost cell(s) selected</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Properties</td>
<td>Brings up the <strong>Molecular Properties</strong> dialog</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>------------</td>
<td>--------------------------------------------</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Substituent Model Kit

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Action</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Copy</td>
<td>Copies selected molecule(s) from a custom library onto the clipboard</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Paste</td>
<td>Pastes molecule(s) from the clipboard into a custom library</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Delete</td>
<td>Deletes selected molecule(s) from the custom library</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Append</td>
<td>Appends the contents of <em>Spartan</em> document(s) to the custom library; brings up a file browser</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Reactions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Action</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Copy</td>
<td>Copies selected text to the clipboard</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Print</td>
<td>Prints selected text</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Output Window

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Action</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Copy</td>
<td>Copies selected text to the clipboard</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Print</td>
<td>Prints selected text</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Database
Appendix D
Commonly-Used Program Options

This appendix describes a number of commonly-used program options. These are specified using keywords input into the Options box in the Calculations dialog (Setup menu). In addition to the above, any method, functional or combination of functionals and/or basis set supported in Spartan (and not included explicitly in the menus) may be typed into the Options box. For example, typing **EDF2 6-311G(2df,2pd)** will result in density functional calculation using the EDF2 functional and the 6-311G(2df,2pd) basis set. (See Chapter 17 for further details.)

Keywords are case insensitive. An equals sign (=) separates a keyword from its integer, real or character string value. Keywords may either be single words or expressions. **Keyword=N** indicates an integer argument, **keyword=C** indicates a character argument, and **keyword=F** indicates a floating point argument. Real values can optionally include an **eNN** or **e-NN** (floating point power of ten). Default values for keywords are indicated in **bold**, and alternative values in **italics**.

**Conformational Search**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>keyword</th>
<th>value</th>
<th>description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>SearchMethod</td>
<td>C</td>
<td>conformational searching method employed; overrides default choice which depends on complexity of system may be overridden with one of the following:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td><strong>Systematic</strong> use systematic method</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td><strong>MonteCarlo</strong> use Monte-Carlo method</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td><strong>Sparse</strong> use systematic method but randomly eliminate conformers</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
to stay within set conformer limits. Used in conformer library generation.

**MaxEnergy** | F | sets the maximum energy (in kJ/mol) at which a conformer will be kept to (minimum energy + F), where minimum energy is the energy of the lowest energy conformer encountered at that point in the search; default is 40 kJ/mol

**StartTemperature** | F | sets initial temperature (in K) for a Monte Carlo search (only) to F; high temperatures will result in the molecule further exploring global space, while low temperatures will result in the molecule further exploring local space; default is 5000K

### Similarity Analysis

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>keyword</th>
<th>value</th>
<th>description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>SingleEnantiomer</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>Limits similarity analysis to the enantiomer actually in specified library documents. The default is to consider both enantiomers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>QuitSimilarity</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>Quit similarity analysis involving a conformer list (in the graphical user interface) and/or one or more conformer libraries when N good matches have been identified; default is 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>QuitCriterion</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>$R^2$ criterion for a good match; default is 0.9</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Geometry Optimization

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>keyword</th>
<th>value</th>
<th>description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>GeometryCycle</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>set maximum number of equilibrium and transition-state geometry optimization cycles to N; default is <strong>number of independent variables +20</strong> for equilibrium geometry optimization and <strong>3x number of independent variables</strong> for transition-state geometry optimization</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GradientTolerance</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>set convergence criterion in equilibrium and transition-state) geometry optimization for the maximum gradient component (in hartrees/bohr) to F; default is $3 \times 10^{-4}$</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
DistanceTolerance  F  set convergence criterion in equilibrium and transition-state geometry optimization for the maximum change in a bond length (in Å) to F; default is $1.2 \times 10^{-3}$

Hess  C  Choose Hessian (matrix of second derivatives) for start of geometry (transition-state geometry) optimization (in the absence of a Hessian from a previous calculation, the default is MMFF molecular mechanics for geometry optimization and PM3 semi-empirical for transition-state geometry optimization; may be overridden with one of the following:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>unit</th>
<th>unit matrix</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>MMFF</td>
<td>MMFF molecular mechanics</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AM1</td>
<td>AM1 semi-empirical</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>STO-3G</td>
<td>STO-3G Hartree-Fock</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3-21G</td>
<td>3-21G Hartree-Fock</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6-31G*</td>
<td>6-31G* Hartree-Fock</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Molecular Mechanics Calculations

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>keyword</th>
<th>description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>MMFF94s</td>
<td>Use MMFF94s method instead of MMFF94. The only significant difference between the two is that MMFF94 forces nitrogens attached to aromatic rings to be planar (as in aniline). While this is widely perceived to be the case, in fact the nitrogen in aniline and related molecules are pyramidal not planar.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Quantum Chemical Calculations

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>keyword</th>
<th>value</th>
<th>description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Diis</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>switch on diis all the time in SCF procedure. N is the size of the iterative subspace; it should be an integer between 2 and 10; default is 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NoDiis</td>
<td></td>
<td>turn off diis SCF convergence accelerator</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ScfCycle</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>set maximum number of SCF iterations to N; default is 50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Guess</td>
<td>C</td>
<td>choose initial wavefunction guess; in the absence of a guess from a previous calculation, the</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
default is either sad or PM3 depending on the calculation type, and may be overridden with one of the following:

core diagonalize the core Hamiltonian
sad superposition of atomic densities
PM3 PM3 semi-empirical

**Scf** C SCF procedure; default is **restricted** for closed-shell systems and **unrestricted** for open-shell systems, either of which may be specified for both closed and open-shell systems

**SmallBasis** C specifies the small basis set to be used in dual basis set calculations. The large basis set is that indicated in the menu.

**Core** C use of frozen core approximation in Møller-Plesset and advanced correlated calculations; default is **frozen** which may be changed to **thawed**

**ScfTolerance** C control of all tolerances in SCF procedure and to affect the precision of the algorithm; default is **normal** which may be changed to **high** or **veryhigh**

**BigGrid** – uses very large grid in density functional calculations

**Mix** – specifies that $\alpha$ and $\beta$ HOMO’s in the guess wavefunction should be constructed according to:

$$HOMO_\alpha = \frac{HOMO + LUMO}{\sqrt{2}}$$

$$HOMO_\beta = \frac{HOMO - LUMO}{\sqrt{2}}$$

useful for generating a guess wavefunction for singlet diradical

**Exchange** E specifies custom exchange functional or combination of exchange functionals for density functional calculation. See **Appendix A** for details.
Correlation

C specifies custom correlation functional or combination of correlation functionals for density functional calculation. See Appendix A for details.

EnergyOnly

skips calculation of the density matrix for an MP2 energy calculation, reducing the time by 50%

Semi-Empirical Calculations

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>keyword</th>
<th>value</th>
<th>description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>NoAmideFix</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>turns “off” molecular mechanics amide correction in PM3 calculations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>hh</td>
<td>C</td>
<td>turns “on” and “off” hydrogen-hydrogen repulsion term in PM3 calculations; default is on only where transition metals are involved and off otherwise</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Polarizability</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>calculates and prints polarizabilities and hyperpolarizabilities</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Property and Spectra Calculations

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>keyword</th>
<th>value</th>
<th>description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>NBO</td>
<td>C</td>
<td>specify details of NBO population analysis; default is normal which may be overridden for ionic and 3C (three center) systems</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NoElCharge</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>turns “off” calculation of electrostatic charges</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ElCharge</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>adjusts size of grid used to calculate charge from electrostatic potential; default is 1 point/atomic unit</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Temperature</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>temperature (in K) used in calculation of thermodynamic properties; default is 298°K</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TEMPRANGE</td>
<td>Fi,Fj,Fk</td>
<td>temperature range applied to thermodynamic properties when IR frequencies are calculated, where i=starting temperature, j=ending temperature, and k=increment, all values in K</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pressure</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>pressure (in atm) used in calculation of thermodynamic properties; default is 1 atm</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Moments</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>calculates and prints principal moments of inertia</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
NoSolvent  --  turns “off” calculation of aqueous solvation energy using SM5.4 model
Solvent    C specifies solvent for SM8 model beyond those included in menu. See FAQ (Properties) available under Help (Help menu; Chapter 19) for a list of available solvents. This will replace the menu entry.
NoAreaVolume --  turns “off” calculation of surface area and volume
MaxPropWeight N sets limit of molecular weight for electrostatic charge, solvent and area/volume calculations; default is 500 amu
Polarizability F calculates and prints either static (F not specified) or frequency dependent (frequency F in cm\(^{-1}\)) polarizabilities and hyperpolarizabilities
FreqScale    F scales calculated vibrational frequencies by F; default is 1
NumericalFreq --  uses numerical differentiation (of analytical gradients) for frequency calculation
UVstates     N specifies number of states to be examined in UV/visible spectra calculation; default is 5
IRCSteps     N maximum number of steps allowed in constructing IRC; default is 40
IRCStepSize  N maximum step size (in mass-weighted atomic units x 100) for IRC; default is 150
IncludeTriplets include excited triplet states in a UV spectra calculation where the ground state is a singlet. Ignore where the ground state is a triplet.
DropVibs     N ignore all vibrational modes with frequencies below N cm\(^{-1}\) in calculating thermodynamic products
ClampThermo  do not allow individual vibrational contributions to the temperature correction to the enthalpy to exceed 1/2 RT, to the entropy to exceed 1/2 R, and for the heat capacity to exceed 1/2 R.
AvgMass      use average mass instead of mass of dominant isotope in calculating thermodynamic properties
# Miscellaneous and Printing

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>keyword</th>
<th>value</th>
<th>description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>3DPlot</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>treat dynamic constraints independently (rather than in concert). This allows data for 3D (XYZ) plot to be collected. Two dynamic constraints only.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Execute</td>
<td>C</td>
<td>either skip execution (<strong>skip</strong>) or force execution regardless of history (<strong>force</strong>)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PrintVibCoords</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>print coordinates corresponding to normal mode vibrational frequencies</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PrintCoords</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>prints Cartesian coordinates</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PrintLev</td>
<td>C</td>
<td>print level; default is <strong>normal</strong> which may be changed to <strong>verbose</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PrintOrbE</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>print energies of molecular orbitals</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PruneVirtual</td>
<td>N,C</td>
<td>keep N virtual orbitals; default is <strong>10</strong>; <strong>None</strong> keeps all virtual orbitals</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Appendix E

Units

Geometries
Cartesian coordinates are given in Ångstroms (Å), and in atomic units (au).

Bond distances are given in Å and in au. Bond angles and dihedral angles are given in degrees (°).

Surface areas, accessible surface areas and polar surface areas are available in Å² and volumes in Å³, and in au² (au³).

1 Å = 0.1 nm = 1.889762 au

Energies, Heats of Formation and Strain Energies, Zero-Point Energies, Enthalpies and Gibbs Energies and Entropies
Total energies from Hartree-Fock calculations are available in au, kcal/mol, kJ/mol and electron volts (eV).

Experimental heats of formation as well as those from semi-empirical calculations and from thermochemical recipes are available in kJ/mol, au, kcal/mol and eV.

Strain energies from molecular mechanics calculations are available in kJ/mol, au, kcal/mol and eV.

Energies, heats of formation and strain energies corrected empirically for the effects of aqueous media are given in the same units as the corresponding gas-phase quantities.

Zero-point energies, enthalpies and Gibbs energies available in kJ/mol, kcal/mol and au/mol. Entropies are available in kJ/mol•degree, kcal/mol•degree and au/mol•degree.

Orbital Energies
Orbital energies are available in eV, kcal/mol, kJ/mol and au.
Energy Conversions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>au</th>
<th>kcal/mol</th>
<th>kJ/mol</th>
<th>eV</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1 au</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>627.5</td>
<td>2625</td>
<td>27.21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 kcal/mol</td>
<td>1.593 (-3)</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>4.184</td>
<td>4.337 (-2)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 kJ/mol</td>
<td>3.809 (-4)</td>
<td>2.390 (-1)</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>1.036 (-2)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 eV</td>
<td>3.675 (-2)</td>
<td>23.06</td>
<td>96.49</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

a) exponent follows in parenthesis, e.g., 1.593 (-3) = 1.593 x 10^{-3}

Electron Densities, Spin Densities, Dipole Moments, Charges, Electrostatic Potentials and Local Ionization Potentials

Electron densities and spin densities are given in electrons/au^3.

Dipole moments are given in debyes.

Atomic charges are given in electrons.

Electrostatic and hydride potentials are given in kJ/mol.

Local ionization potentials are given in eV.

Vibrational Frequencies, Infrared and Raman Intensities

Vibrational frequencies are given in wavenumbers (cm^{-1}). Intensities are given relative to the most intense peak.

Chemical Shifts, Coupling Constants

Chemical shifts are given in parts-per-million (ppm) relative to appropriate standards: hydrogen, tetramethylsilane; carbon, tetramethylsilane; nitrogen, nitromethane; fluorine, fluorotrichloromethane; silicon, tetramethylsilane, phosphorous, phosphoric acid. These are available for Hartree-Fock, BP, BLYP, B3LYP, EDF1 and EDF2 models with the 6-31G*, 6-31+G*, 6-31G**, 6-31+G**, 6-311G, 6-311+G*, 6-311+G** and 6-311++G** basis sets. Coupling constants are in ppm.

UV/visible Spectra

\( \lambda_{max} \) is given in wavenumbers (cm^{-1}).
Appendix F

Citation

The proper citation for *Spartan’10* is as follows:

*Spartan’10*
Wavefunction, Inc.
Irvine, CA


Appendix G

Installing the Cambridge Structural Database

Access to the Cambridge Structural Database (CSD) from Spartan should be automatic, following successful installation of the ConQuest program (supplied with CSD) according to the detailed instructions provided. If access is denied, the following steps need to be taken:

Windows:

(i) Click on Config near the bottom right of the dialog. This brings up the Configure CSD Interface dialog,

![Configure CSD Interface dialog]

This will list any files which are missing. Click on Setup Paths at the bottom of the dialog to bring up the CSD File Paths dialog,

This dialog may show one or more red lights.

(ii) Make certain that the path to ConQuest is correctly specified. The most common error will be that the version number is not current. (At the time of writing, the current version is 1.12.) You can get the current version number from your installation of ConQuest.
(iii) Given the proper version number for ConQuest, update the file names in the boxes below **MSK file**, **TCD file**, **IND file** and **INV file**. You can get the current file names from your installation of ConQuest. As you enter the current file names, the red lights turn to green lights. When all lights are green, *click on OK* to dismiss the **CSD File Paths** dialog and then *click on OK* to dismiss the **Configure CSD** dialog.

**Linux:**

(i) **CSD HOME** must be defined in order for **Spartan** to locate the CSD program.

(ii) Please refer to the **Cambridge Structural Database System Release and Installation Notes** for instructions on setting up **CSD HOME**.
Appendix H

Constructing Custom Databases

Custom collections may be added to SMD, SIRD and SRD. These may either include the geometry, energy (heat of formation, strain energy), HOMO and LUMO energies, dipole moment, atomic charges, chemical shifts and vibrational frequencies obtained from quantum chemical calculations, or (for SMD and SIRD only) conformer libraries generated from molecular mechanics calculations. Entries for SRD (transition states) need to derive from *Spartan*'s transition state guessing facility (*Guess Transition States* under the *Search* menu; Chapter 19) in order that they include the original set of reaction arrows.

Molecules (or lists of molecules) that are to be placed in a user database are first saved using *Save As* under the *File* menu with *Save as type* set to *Spartan Database*. This results in two files, a .spentry and a .spindex file for each molecule (or list). These should then be put in a single directory, the path to which must be entered into the *Paths Preferences* dialog under *Preferences...* in the *Options* menu (Chapter 20).

Note that it is important to specify a label for each molecule. Label specification is done either in the *Molecule Properties* dialog (see *Properties* under the *Display* menu in Chapter 18) or in the spreadsheet (see *Spreadsheet* under the *Display* menu in Chapter 18).
Appendix I

Pharmacophore Input

The following file format is used for input of a pharmacophore (illustrated for a pharmacophore with four hydrophobes and one positive ionizable center):

Blank line
Blank line
Blank line
ENDCART
BEGINCFD
HPHOBE|RING_AROM  8.050 -4.180 -0.400 0 2.000 1.000 1
HPHOBE|RING_AROM  9.630 -0.640 -3.590 1 2.000 1.000 1
HPHOBE|RING_AROM 10.280 -0.380  3.200 2 2.000 1.000 1
HPHOBE|RING_AROM  8.130 -2.300  4.330 3 2.000 1.000 1
POS       14.370 -1.700  0.280 4 3.000 1.000 1
ENDCFD

The lines between BEGINCFD and ENDCFD define the individual pharmacophore elements (one line/element):

type1|type2… (| separates types for multiple definitions), Cartesian (X,Y,Z) coordinates (in Angstroms), unique number, radius of element (in Angstroms), weight of element in fit, use the element in fit (1) or ignore the element (5)

The following element types are available:

HPHOBE    hydrophobe
RING_AROM aromatic ring
POS       positive ionizable center
NEG       negative ionizable center
HBA_CENTER hydrogen bond acceptor
HBD_CENTER hydrogen bond donor
EXCL_VOL  excluded volume
Appendix J
Input of Experimental Spectra

The databases of infrared and UV/visible spectra accessible online from Spartan are in JCAMP format. Specification of both and examples can be found at the NIST website (NIST.gov).

The database of $^{13}$C spectra is in CML (Chemical Markup Language) format. A description may be found at http://www.ch.ic.ac.uk/omf/cml. A sample file is provided below.

```xml
<?xml version="1.0" encoding="ISO-8859-1"?>
<cml>
  <spectrum type="NMR">
    <metadataList>
      <metadata name="nmr:OBSERVENCULEUS" content="13C"/>
    </metadataList>
    <peakList>
      <peak xValue="125.1399993896484" peakHeight="0.458"/>
      <peak xValue="128.4499969482422" peakHeight="0.558"/>
      <peak xValue="129.0099945068359" peakHeight="0.658"/>
      <peak xValue="21.64999961853027" peakHeight="0.758"/>
      <peak xValue="137.8399963378906" peakHeight="0.858"/>
    </peakList>
  </spectrum>
</cml>
```

This contains five shifts (xValue) and five associated intensities (peakHeight).
Appendix K
Installing a Network HASP

Multiple licenses of *Spartan’10* can be licensed with a network key that is installed on a computer that can act as a server. Installation is required for both the server and client computers.

**On the Server:**

1. Install Sentinel HASP Run-time from one of the following two places:
   a. `C:\Program Files\Wavefunction\Spartan10vXXX\HASPUserSetup.exe`
2. Plug in the red HASP key and ensure the light is on and NOT blinking.
3. Ensure the key can be seen by the network by navigating a web browser to http://localhost:1947 and clicking on the “HASP Keys” tab in the menu on the left. In the **HASP Keys** window, under the **Actions** column should be a “Products” button. Click this to open the window and confirm the software is what you ordered.

**On Each Client Computer:**

1. During installation of *Spartan’10* select “Local HASP” and Sentinel HASP Run-time will be installed. It can also be installed from the links listed in the section above.
2. If client machines are on the same subnet as the license server, installation is complete. If clients are on a separate subnet or you’re having difficulty obtaining a license, see next step.
3. When the license server and client computers are on separate subnets, you must enter the IP address of the license server in the “Specify Search Parameters” field on the “Access to Remote
License Managers” tab. If the client computers are unable to
obtain a license, navigate a web browser to http://localhost:1947
and select “Configuration” from the menu on the left. Under the
“Access to Remote License Managers” tab make sure “Allow
Remote Access to Remote Licenses” is checked, along with
“Aggressive Search for Remote Licenses”.

On a Macintosh:

It is normal to get a “server not found” on the first couple of
attempts. It may take the HASP drivers several minutes to perform
a retry cycle and make a successful initial connection to the remote
license server, especially if the server is on a different subnet. You
may click “Next” in the Spartan’10 licensing window periodically
(wait several seconds between attempts!) until the “Licensing was
successful” window appears.

Also, if you leave the <http://localhost:1947> web browser window
open, you can monitor the progress of the connection to the remote
server. Click “HASP Keys” in the left sidebar- when you see a line in
the table referencing the remote server you entered in step 4 (instead
of “table empty”), the connection should be ready to retrieve a
license.

Need additional help? Visit the Windows or Macintosh FAQs, www.
wavefun.com, support section.
Appendix L

NMR Chemical Shift Standards

Chemical shifts are given in parts-per-million (ppm) relative to standard absolute shifts for H, C, Si, N, F, and P. The following molecules were used for these standards: tetramethylsilane for H, C, and Si; nitromethane for N; fluotrichloromethane for F; phosphoric acid for P. Relative shifts for the above elements are available for Hartree-Fock, BP, BLYP, B3LYP, EDF1 and EDF2 models with the 6-31G*, 6-31+G*, 6-31G**, 6-31+G**, 6-311G, 6-311+G*, 6-311+G** and 6-311++G** basis sets. Chemical shifts for other elements, or originating from computational models other than those specified above will be reported as absolute shifts. Calculated absolute chemical shifts used for generation of relative shifts are provided in tables L1-L6 (below).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table L-1: Hartree-Fock Absolute Shifts</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Hartree-Fock</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>STO-3G</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3-21G</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6-31G</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6-31G*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6-31+G*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6-31G**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6-31+G**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6-311G*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6-311G*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6-311G**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6-311+G**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6-311++G**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6-311+G(2d,p)</td>
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</tbody>
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### Table L-2: BP Absolute Shifts

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<th>C Shift</th>
<th>Si Shift</th>
<th>N Shift</th>
<th>F Shift</th>
<th>P Shift</th>
</tr>
</thead>
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<tr>
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<td>429.14</td>
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<td>458.99</td>
<td>-91.21</td>
<td>125.28</td>
<td>415.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>32.31</td>
<td>192.40</td>
<td>420.60</td>
<td>-131.18</td>
<td>67.09</td>
<td>280.33</td>
</tr>
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<td>188.06</td>
<td>406.39</td>
<td>-97.02</td>
<td>142.42</td>
<td>354.67</td>
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<tr>
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<td>31.63</td>
<td>188.69</td>
<td>401.96</td>
<td>-98.81</td>
<td>139.93</td>
<td>348.16</td>
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<td>190.01</td>
<td>405.10</td>
<td>-96.82</td>
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<tr>
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<td>190.64</td>
<td>397.97</td>
<td>-98.60</td>
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<td>347.91</td>
</tr>
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<td>6-311G*</td>
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<td>182.93</td>
<td>341.14</td>
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### Table L-3: BLYP Absolute Shifts

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<th>Si Shift</th>
<th>N Shift</th>
<th>F Shift</th>
<th>P Shift</th>
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<td>184.00</td>
<td>402.47</td>
<td>-108.00</td>
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<td>351.31</td>
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<tr>
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<td>185.08</td>
<td>397.77</td>
<td>-111.60</td>
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### Table L-4: B3LYP Absolute Shifts

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<th>P Shift</th>
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<td>370.93</td>
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<td>153.83</td>
<td>292.10</td>
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<td>338.23</td>
<td>-152.48</td>
<td>153.84</td>
<td>292.23</td>
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</table>

### Table L-5: EDF1 Absolute Shifts

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<th>N Shift</th>
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<td>344.87</td>
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<td>126.51</td>
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Table L-6:  EDF2 Absolute Shifts

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<th>Si Shift</th>
<th>N Shift</th>
<th>F Shift</th>
<th>P Shift</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
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<tr>
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<td>410.69</td>
<td>-110.45</td>
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<td>337.33</td>
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<td>336.89</td>
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<td>155.37</td>
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<td>183.77</td>
<td>326.52</td>
<td>-146.02</td>
<td>158.36</td>
<td>288.31</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\(^{13}\)C Chemical Shifts calculated with B3LYP or EDF2 density functional models include additional empirical corrections for sp\(^3\), sp\(^2\), aromatic, and sp carbons. For correction scheme details, please refer to the Calculating NMR Spectra section in Appendix A.
This glossary addresses nomenclature (“jargon”) used throughout the guide and, more generally, in applications of molecular modeling. Some of the terms, such as Basis Set, will be familiar to the modeling community but foreign to the broader community, while other terms, such as Kinetic Product, may be foreign to the modeling community and familiar to the broader community. Terms such as Entropy should be familiar to all and are generally avoided. A number of terms from both categories have been defined “in the context” of their use in molecular modeling rather than more generally. For example, the term NOE has been defined in terms of providing information about which pairs of (non-bonded) atoms are inside a specified cutoff distance (information that is useful in the restricting the limits of a conformational search) rather than the nature of the phenomenon which produces this information.

References are provided following each entry. References in bold correspond to the first page of a tutorial.

3-21G. A Split-Valence Basis Set in which each Core Basis Function is written in terms of three Gaussians, and each Valence Basis Function is split into two parts, written in terms of two and one Gaussians, respectively. 3-21G basis sets have been determined to yield the lowest total Hartree-Fock Energies for atoms. The nomenclature 3-21G implies use of the 3-21G(*) basis set on molecules incorporating second-row (and heavier) main-group elements. [179,283,521]

3-21G(*). The 3-21G Basis Set supplemented by d-type Gaussians for each second-row and heavier main-group elements only. This is required in order to get good equilibrium geometries. Without the added functions, the 3-21G basis set is not recommended for use
for molecules incorporating second-row (and heavier) main-group elements.

6-31G. A Split-Valence Basis Set in which each Core Basis Function is written in terms of six Gaussians, and each Valence Basis Function is split into two parts, written in terms of three and one Gaussians, respectively. 6-31G basis sets have been determined to yield the lowest total Hartree-Fock Energies for atoms. The 6-31G basis set is rarely used alone but rather is supplemented by one or more sets of Polarization Functions and/or Diffuse Functions. [521]

6-31G*, 6-31G**. The 6-31G Basis Set in which non-hydrogen atoms are supplemented by d-type Gaussians and (for 6-31G**) hydrogen atoms are supplemented by p-type Gaussians (Polarization Functions). 6-31G* and 6-31G** are Polarization Basis Sets [81,283,521].

6-31+G*, 6-31+G**. Basis Sets that are identical to 6-31G* and 6-31G** except that all non-hydrogen atoms are supplemented by diffuse s and p-type Gaussians (Diffuse Functions). 6-31+G* and 6-31+G** are supplemented Polarization Basis Sets.

6-311G. A Split-Valence Basis Set in which each Core Basis Function is written in terms of six Gaussians, and each Valence Basis Function is split into three parts, written in terms of three, one and one Gaussians, respectively. 6-311G basis sets have been determined to yield the lowest total MP2 Energies for atoms. The 6-311G basis set is rarely used alone but rather is supplemented by one or more sets of Polarization Functions and/or Diffuse Functions.

6-311G*, 6-311G**. The 6-311G Basis Set in which non-hydrogen atoms are supplemented by d-type Gaussians and (for 6-311G**) hydrogen atoms are supplemented by p-type Gaussians (Polarization Functions). 6-311G* and 6-311G** are Polarization Basis Sets.

6-311+G*, 6-311+G**. Basis Sets that are identical to 6-311G* and 6-311G** except that non-hydrogen atoms are supplemented by diffuse s and p-type Gaussians (Diffuse Functions). 6-311+G*
and 6-311+G** are supplemented **Polarization Basis Sets**.

*Ab Initio Models.* The general term used to describe methods seeking approximate solutions to the many-electron **Schrödinger Equation**, but which do not involve empirical parameters. *Ab initio* models include Hartree-Fock Models, Möller-Plesset Models and Density Functional Models. [440]

**Acidity.** The energy required to break an XH bond into X⁻ and H⁺, that is, to undergo Heterolytic Bond Dissociation. Acidities in the gas phase are very large positive numbers (producing isolated ions is highly unfavorable), whereas they are much smaller (and of either sign) in solution. [92]

**Activation Energy.** The energy of a Transition State above that of reactants. Activation energy is related to reaction rate by way of the Arrhenius Equation. [125,454]

**AM1.** Austin Method 1. A Semi-Empirical Model. [129,517]

**Anharmonic Frequency Correction.** Non-quadratic contributions to a Vibrational Frequency. Because calculated frequencies are harmonic, that is, assume that the potential is quadratic, they are typically ~5% larger than measured frequencies, which include anharmonic corrections. Frequencies can be corrected for anharmonicity but, due to high computational cost, this is seldom done for any but very small molecules. [471]

**Anion.** An atom or molecule with a **Total Charge** of -1. [129]

**Antibonding Molecular Orbital.** A **Molecular Orbital** which is antibonding between particular atomic centers. The opposite is a Bonding Molecular Orbital. [491]

**Arrhenius Equation.** An equation governing the rate of a chemical reaction as a function of the **Activation Energy** and the temperature. [454]

**Atomic Orbital.** A **Basis Function** centered on an atom. Atomic orbitals typically take on the form of the solutions to the hydrogen atom (s, p, d, f... type orbitals). [489]
**Atomic Units.** The set of units which remove all of the constants from inside the Schrödinger Equation. The Bohr is the atomic unit of length and the Hartree is the atomic unit of energy. [543]

**Atomization Energy.** The energy of dissociation of an atom or molecule into separated nuclei and electrons. This is another term for Total Energy. [452]

**B3LYP Model.** A Hybrid Density Functional Model which improves on the Local Density Model by accounting explicitly for non-uniformity in electron distributions. It incorporates the Exchange Energy from the Hartree-Fock Model and involves three adjustable parameters. The B3LYP model is perhaps the most widely used density functional model and provides a solid account of equilibrium geometries (including the geometries of molecules incorporating transition metals), vibrational frequencies and reaction energies. [84,519]

**Basicity.** The energy gained from adding a proton to an atom or molecule. Basicities in the gas phase are very large negative numbers, whereas they are much smaller (and of either sign) in solution. [300]

**Basis Functions.** Functions usually centered on atoms which are linearly combined to make up the set of Molecular Orbitals. Except for Semi-Empirical Models where basis functions are Slater type, basis functions are Gaussian type. [435]

**Basis Set.** The entire collection of Basis Functions. [287,435,521]

**Becke-Lee-Yang-Parr Model.** See BLYP Model, B3LYP Model. [291,519]

**Becke-Perdew Model.** See BP Model. [291,519]

**BLYP Model.** A Density Functional Model which improves on the Local Density Model by accounting explicitly for non-uniformity in electron distributions. [291,519]

**Bohr.** The Atomic Unit of length. 1 bohr = 0.529167Å.

**Boltzmann Distribution.** The equilibrium distribution of products in a Thermodynamically-Controlled Reaction. A special (and very
important) case involves the equilibrium distribution of **Conformers** of a flexible molecule. [98]

**Boltzmann Equation.** The equation governing the distribution of products in **Thermodynamically-Controlled Reaction**. [121,454]

**Bonding Molecular Orbital.** A **Molecular Orbital** which is bonding between particular atom centers. The opposite is an **Antibonding Molecular Orbital**. [491]

**Bond Order.** A measure of the number of electrons shared between “bonded” atoms. [295]

**Bond Separation Reaction.** An **Isodesmic Reaction** in which a molecule described in terms of a conventional valence structure is broken down into the simplest (two-heavy-atom) molecules containing the same component bonds. [284]

**Bond Density Surface.** A **Density Surface** used to elucidate the bonding in molecules. The value of the density is typically taken as 0.1 electrons/bohr.$^3$ [125,129,299,503]

**Born-Oppenheimer Approximation.** An approximation based on the assumption that nuclei are stationary. Applied to the **Schrödinger Equation**, it leads to the **Electronic Schrödinger Equation**. [434]

**BP Model; A Density Functional Model** which improves on the **Local Density Model** by accounting explicitly for non-uniformity in electron distributions. [291,519]

**Cambridge Structural Database.** A collection of >525,000 experimental structures for organic and organometallic compounds almost entirely from X-ray crystallography. Structures lacking carbon are excluded as are biopolymers (the latter are available from the Protein Data Bank). [60,367]

**Cartesian Coordinates.** x, y, z spatial coordinates. [450]

**CAS Number** [314]

**Cation.** An atom or molecule with a **Total Charge** of +1. [187]
cc-pV5Z. A Polarization Basis Set which has been developed specifically for use with Correlated Models. The Valence has been split into five parts, and functions though g have been included. May be supplemented with Diffuse Functions. [292,521]

cc-pVDZ. A Polarization Basis Set which has been developed specifically for use with Correlated Models. The Valence has been split into two parts. May be supplemented with Diffuse Functions. [292,521]

cc-pVQZ. A Polarization Basis Set which has been developed specifically for use with Correlated Models. The Valence has been split into four parts, and functions though g have been included. May be supplemented with Diffuse Functions. [292,521]

cc-pVTZ. A Polarization Basis Set which has been developed specifically for use with Correlated Models. The Valence has been split into three parts, and functions though f have been included. May be supplemented with Diffuse Functions. [292,521]

$^{13}$C Spectrum; see also NMR Spectrum \[115,117,119,198,334\]

CCSD/CCSD(T) Models. Coupled Cluster Singles and Doubles optionally with a triples correction. Correlated Models. [520]

Chemical Function Descriptors. A set of locations each indicating specific “chemical behavior”, for example, a location indicating its possible role as a hydrogen-bond donor or acceptor. Chemical function descriptors may either be used without reference to atomic centers (the collection being termed a Pharmacophore) or attached to atoms. [152,155,173,296]

Chemical Shift. The difference in the energies of nuclear spin states for a nucleus in a molecule caused by an external magnetic field. This is the fundamental quantity measured in NMR spectroscopy. [110,479]

Chiral Molecule. A molecule with a non-superimposable mirror image. Most commonly (but not necessarily) a chiral molecule will incorporate one or more R/S centers. [68,228]
CID Model. Configuration Interaction Doubles. A limited Configuration Interaction scheme in which only double excitations from occupied to unoccupied molecular orbitals are considered. [437]

CIS Model. Configuration Interactions Singles. A limited Configuration Interaction scheme in which only single excitations from occupied to unoccupied molecular orbitals are considered. This is perhaps the simplest method available to the description of Excited States of molecules. [521]

CISD Model. Configuration Interaction, Singles and Doubles. A limited Configuration Interaction scheme in which only single and double excitations from occupied to unoccupied molecular orbitals are considered. [437]

Closed Shell. An atom or molecule in which all electrons are paired. [517]

Configuration Interaction. Provides an account of Electron Correlation by way of explicit promotion (excitation) of electrons from occupied molecular orbitals into unoccupied molecular orbitals. Full configuration interaction (all possible promotions) is not a practical method and limited schemes, for example, CIS, CID and CISD Models, need to be employed. [284,437]

Conformation. The arrangement about single bonds and of flexible rings. [80,121]

Conformational Analysis. One of several different procedures to deal with molecules that are not properly described in terms of a single Conformer. Determination of Equilibrium Conformer or establishing a Conformer Distribution or a Conformer Library are examples of conformational analysis. [169,446]

Conformer; See Conformation.

Conformer Distribution. A selection of Conformers based on their relative energies, in the limit comprising a Boltzmann Distribution. [87,278,279,466]
Conformer Library. A selection of Conformers based on their diversity. [152,155,466]

Core. Electrons which are primarily associated with individual atoms and do not participate significantly in chemical bonding (1s electrons for first-row elements, 1s, 2s, 2p_x, 2p_y, 2p_z electrons for second-row elements, etc.). [492]

Core Electrons; See Core [492]

Core Orbital. A Molecular Orbital that is primarily involved with the Core rather than with the Valence.[492]

Correlated Models. Models which take implicit or explicit account of the Correlation of electron motions. Møller-Plesset Models, Configuration Interaction Models and Density Functional Models are correlated models. [436]

Correlation. The coupling of electron motions not explicitly taken into account in Hartree-Fock Models. [436]

Correlation Energy. The difference in energy between the Hartree-Fock Energy and the experimental energy. [436]


COSY Spectrum; See also NMR Spectrum. [110]

Coulomb Energy. The electron-electron repulsion energy according to Coulomb’s law. [277,433]

Coulombic Interactions. Charge-charge interactions which follow Coulomb’s law. Stabilizing when charges are of opposite sign and destabilizing when they are of the same sign. [277,433]

Coupling Constant. A measure of the extent to which nuclear spins on neighboring atoms interact (couple) with each other, causing splitting of the lines in an NMR spectrum. [112,293]
**CPK Model.** A molecular model in which atoms are represented by spheres, the radii of which correspond to van der Waals Radii. Intended to portray molecular size and shape. Also known as a space-filling model. [223,500]

**CSD; See Cambridge Structural Database.** [60,367]

**Curtin-Hammett Principle.** The idea that reactive conformer in a Kinetically-Controlled Reaction is not necessarily the lowest-energy conformer. The rationale is that the energy barriers separating conformers are typically much smaller than barriers to chemical reaction, and that any reactive conformers will be replenished.

**Density; See Electron Density.** [299,304,501]

**Density Functional Models.** Methods in which the energy is evaluated as a function of the Electron Density. Electron Correlation is taken into account explicitly by incorporating into the Hamiltonian terms which derive from exact solutions of idealized many-electron systems. [438]

**DEPT Spectrum; See also NMR Spectrum.** [115]

**Diffuse Functions.** Functions added to a Basis Set to allow description of electron distributions far away from atomic positions. Important for descriptions of anions. [521]

**Diffusion-Controlled Reactions.** Chemical reactions without Transition States (or energy barriers), the rates of which are determined by the speed in which molecules encounter each other and how likely these encounters are to lead to reaction. [450]

**Dipole Moment.** A vector indicating the magnitude, sign and direction of the overall distribution of charge in a molecule based on the combination of nuclear and electron charges. Most commonly only the magnitude of the dipole moment is known experimentally. [49]

**Doublet.** A molecule with one unpaired electron, another name for which is a radical. [65,294]

**Dual Basis Set.** A technique whereby the converged wavefunction
resulting from a calculation using a small basis set is passed on for a single SCF cycle using a large basis set. This closely approximates the energy and wavefunction that would have resulted from a full calculation using the large basis set but with 5-10 times less computation. [522]

**EDF1 Model.** A *Density Functional Model* which improves on the *Local Density Model* by accounting explicitly for non-uniformity in electron distributions. [291,519]

**EDF2 Model.** A *Density Functional Model* which improves on the *Local Density Model* by accounting explicitly for non-uniformity in electron distributions. EDF2 was explicitly formulated to reproduce experimental vibrational frequencies (infrared spectra), and it was for this reason (together with practical concerns) that the EDF2/6-31G* model was chosen for use in the *Spartan Spectra and Properties Database (SSPD).* [291,519]

**Electron Affinity.** The energy gained as a result of adding an electron to an atom or molecule. May be calculated as the (negative of) the difference in energies between the atom/molecule and its corresponding radical anion. Note that not all atoms/molecules have positive electron affinities, that is, bind an electron.

**Electron Correlation.** *See Correlation.* [436]

**Electron Density.** The number of electrons per unit volume at a point in space. This is the quantity which is measured in an X-ray diffraction experiment. [299,304,501]

**Electron Density Surface.** A surface of constant *Electron Density.* May be used to elucidate bonding (*Bond Density Surface*) or to characterize overall molecular size and shape. [501]

**Electronic Schrödinger Equation.** The equation which results from incorporation of the *Born-Oppenheimer Approximation* to the *Schrödinger Equation.* [434]

**Electrostatic Charges.** Atomic charges chosen to best match the *Electrostatic Potential* at points surrounding a molecule, subject to overall charge balance. [49,88]
**Electrostatic Potential.** A function describing the energy of interaction of a positive point charge with the nuclei and fixed electron distribution of a molecule. [300,304,506]

**Electrostatic Potential Map.** A graph that shows the value of Electrostatic Potential on an Electron Density Isosurface corresponding to a van der Waals Surface. [29,49,92,129,149,300,508]

**Electrostatic Potential Surface.** It may be used to elucidate regions in a molecule which are particularly electron rich and subject to electrophilic attack and those which are particularly electron poor, subject to nucleophilic attack. [508]

**Energy Profile.** A plot of energy vs. change in geometrical coordinate, for example, change in bond length of in dihedral angle. [278]

**Enthalpy.** The heat of a chemical reaction. Related to energy by a pressure-volume that is insignificant at normal pressures. [33,277,285]

**Equilibrium Conformer.** The lowest-energy Conformer. [63,278,279,465]

**Equilibrium Geometry.** A Local Minimum on a Potential Energy Surface. [49,57,425]

**Equilibrium Isotope Effect.** The effect on the heat of reaction due to a change in nuclear mass of one or more atoms. The most common (and largest) isotope effects arise from substitution of deuterium for hydrogen [471]


**Exchange Energy.** An “attractive” (negative) component of the electron-electron interaction energy. Arises due to an overestimation of the “repulsive” (positive) component or Coulomb energy.
**Excited State.** An electronic state for an atom or molecule which is not the lowest-energy or **Ground State.** [40,274,281]

**Force Constant.** For a diatomic molecule, the second derivative of the energy with regard to change in bond length. For a polyatomic molecule, the second derivative of the energy with regard to a change in **Normal Coordinate.** [103,471]

**Force Field.** The set of rules underlying **Molecular Mechanics Models.** Comprises terms which account for distortions from ideal bond distances and angles and for **Non-Bonded van der Waals** and **Coulombic Interactions.** [439]

**Fourier Series.** An expansion of a periodic (in 360° rotation) in terms of powers of the cosine of the torsion angle. [84]

**Frontier Molecular Orbitals.** The **HOMO** and **LUMO.** [495]

**Fukui-Woodward-Hoffmann Rules; See Woodward-Hoffmann Rules.** [497]

**Functional; See Correlation Functional, Exchange Functional.** [438]

**G2, G3 Models.** “Recipes” which combine a series of **Hartree-Fock** and **Correlated Models** to properly account for **Atomization Energies** of atoms and molecules. Useful for providing accurate thermochemical data. G3 is a more recent implementation of G2. [282,520]

**G3(MP2).** A “simplified” version of the **G3 Model.** Reproduces experimental **Heats of Formation** with an RMS errors of ~8 kJ/mol, but applicable to molecules comprising 10-15 atoms at most. [282,459,520]

**Gaussian.** A function of the form $x^ly^mz^n \exp(\alpha r^2)$ where l, m, n are integers (0, 1, 2 . . .) and $\alpha$ is a constant. Used in the construction of **Basis Sets** for **Hartree-Fock, Density Functional, MP2** and other **Correlated Models.** [435]

**Gaussian Basis Set.** A **Basis Set** made up of **Gaussian Basis Functions.** [435]
Gaussian Function; See Gaussian. [435]

Global Minimum. The lowest energy Local Minimum on a Potential Energy Surface. [279,446, 464]

Gradient Corrected Density Functional Models; See Non-Local Density Functional Models. [291,519]

Ground State. The lowest energy electronic state for an atom or molecule. [281]

Hamiltonian. An operator which accounts for the kinetic and potential energy of an atom or a molecule. [433]

Hammond Postulate. The idea that the Transition State for an exothermic reaction will more closely resemble reactants than products. This provides the basis for “modeling” properties of Transition States in terms of the properties of reactants. [512]

Harmonic Frequency. A Vibrational Frequency which has been corrected to remove all non-quadratic (anharmonic) components. Calculated Vibrational Frequencies correspond to harmonic frequencies. The corrections require data on isotopically-substituted systems and are typically available only for small molecules. [472]

Hartree. The Atomic Unit of energy. 1 hartree = 627.47 kcal/mol. [544]

Hartree-Fock Approximation. Separation of electron motions in many-electron systems into a product form of the motions of the individual electrons. [283,434]

Hartree-Fock Energy. The energy resulting from Hartree-Fock Models.

Hartree-Fock Equations. The set of differential equations resulting from application of the Born-Oppenheimer and Hartree-Fock Approximations to the many-electron Schrödinger Equation.

Hartree-Fock Models. Methods in which the many-electron wavefunction in written terms of a product of one-electron wavefunctions. Electrons are assigned in pairs to functions called Molecular Orbitals. [282,434,517]
**Hartree-Fock Wavefunction.** The simplest quantum-mechanically correct representation of the many-electron wavefunction. Electrons are treated as independent particles and are assigned in pairs to functions termed **Molecular Orbitals.** Also known as **Single-Determinant Wavefunction.**

**Heat of Formation.** The **Enthalpy** at 298 K of a balanced chemical reaction in which a molecule is converted into the most stable form of the each element, for example, hydrogen molecule for hydrogen and graphite for carbon. [277,452]

**Hessian.** The matrix of second energy derivatives with respect to geometrical coordinates. The Hessian together with the atomic masses lead to the **Vibrational Frequencies** of molecular systems. [445]

**Heterolytic Bond Dissociation.** A process in which a bond is broken and a cation and anion result. The number of electron pairs is conserved, but a non-bonding electron pair has been substituted for a bond.

HMBC Spectra; See NMR Spectra.

**HOMO.** Highest Occupied Molecular Orbital. [25,73]

**Homolytic Bond Dissociation.** A process in which a bond is broken and two radicals result. The number of electron pairs is not conserved.

**HOMO-LUMO Gap.** The difference in energies between the HOMO and LUMO. [73]

**HOMO Map.** A graph of the absolute value of the HOMO on an Isodensity Surface corresponding to a van der Waals Surface.

HSQC Spectra; See NMR Spectra.

**Hybrid Density Functional Models.** Density Functional Models which incorporate the Exchange Energy from the Hartree-Fock Model. The **B3LYP Model** is a hybrid density functional model. [291,519]
**Hydrogen-Bond Acceptor.** An electronegative element (typically, nitrogen, oxygen or halogen) with one or more lone pairs able to “accept” a hydrogen from a **Hydrogen-Bond Donor.** [297]

**Hydrogen-Bond Donor.** A hydrogen bonded to an electronegative element (typically nitrogen or oxygen) that can be donated to a **Hydrogen-Bond Acceptor.** [297]

**Hydrophobe.** A non polar region of a molecule. [297]

**Hypervalent Molecule.** A molecule containing one or more main-group elements in which the normal valence of eight electrons has been exceeded. Hypervalent molecules are common for second-row and heavier main-group elements but are uncommon for first-row elements. [179]

**Imaginary Frequency.** A frequency which results from a negative element in the diagonal form of the Hessian. Equilibrium Geometries are characterized by all real frequencies while Transition States are characterized by one imaginary frequency. [125,134]

**Infrared Spectrum.** Spectrum resulting from transitions between vibrational energy levels. Infrared intensities depend on the change in dipole moment associated with the vibration. [29,103,291]

**Internal Coordinates.** A set of bond lengths, bond angles and dihedral angles (among other possible variables) describing molecular geometry. The **Z Matrix** is a set of internal coordinates.

**Intrinsic Reaction Coordinate.** The name given to procedures with seek to “walk” in a smooth pathway connecting reactant and product.

**Ionization Potential.** The energy required to completely eject an electron from an atom or molecule. May be calculated as the difference in energies between the atom/molecule and its corresponding radical cation. May be approximated from Koopman’s Theorem as the negative of the **HOMO Energy.**

**Isodesmic Reaction.** A chemical reaction in which the number of formal chemical bonds of each type is conserved. [284]
**Isosurface.** A three-dimensional surface defined by the set of points in space where the value of the function is constant.

**Isotope Effect; See Equilibrium Isotope Effect, Kinetic Isotope Effect.**

**Isovalue Surface; See Isosurface.**

**Kinetically-Controlled Reaction.** Refers to a chemical reaction which has not gone all the way to completion, and the ratio of products is not related to their thermochemical stabilities, but rather inversely to the heights of the energy barriers separating reactants to products. [457]

**Kinetic Isotope Effect.** The effect on the rate of reaction due to a change in nuclear mass of one or more atoms. The most common (and largest) isotope effects arise from substitution of deuterium for hydrogen [471]

**Kinetic Product.** The product of a Kinetically-Controlled Reaction. [140,457]

**kJ/mol.** The unit commonly used to express chemical energy differences, replacing kcal/mol. 1 kJ/mol = 0.239 kcal/mol = 0.000381 au. [544]

**Kohn-Sham Equations.** The set of equations obtained by applying the Local Density Approximation to a general multi-electron system. An Exchange/Correlation Functional which depends on the electron density has replaced the Exchange Energy expression used in the Hartree-Fock Equations. The Kohn-Sham equations become the Roothaan-Hall Equations if this functional is set equal to the Hartree-Fock Exchange Energy expression.

**Koopman’s Theorem.** Relates the Ionization Potential to the negative of the HOMO Energy.

**LCAO Approximation.** Linear Combination of Atomic Orbitals approximation. Approximates the unknown Hartree-Fock Wavefunctions (Molecular Orbitals) by linear combinations of atom-centered functions (Atomic Orbitals) and leads to the Roothaan-Hall Equations. [434]
LACVP*, LACVP**. Pseudopotentials which include not only Valence s and p-type orbitals (s, p and d-type for transition metals) but also the highest set of Core orbitals, and in which non-hydrogen atoms are supplemented by d-type Gaussians and (for LACVP**) hydrogen atoms are supplemented by p-type Gaussians. [187,275]

Ligand. This term has two meanings in the context of molecular modeling. It denotes a molecular fragment that is (viewed as) non-covalently bonded to a transition metal in an inorganic or organometallic compound. For example, both carbon monoxide and benzene are said to be ligands in benzene chromium tricarbonyl. [256] It also denotes a molecule that is “associated” (non-covalently bonded) to a protein. [400]

Linear Synchronous Transit. The name given to procedures which estimate the geometries of transition states based on “averages” of the geometries of reactants and products, sometimes weighted by the overall thermodynamics of reaction. [397]

LMP2 Model. An MP2 Model in which the Hartree-Fock orbitals are first localized. Not supported in Spartan.

Local Density Models. Density Functional Models which are based on the assumption that the Electron Density is constant (or slowly varying) throughout all space.

Local Ionization Potential. A function of the relative ease of electron removal (ionization) from a molecule. [300,512]

Local Ionization Potential Map. A graph of the Local Ionization Potential on an Isodensity Surface corresponding to a van der Waals Surface. [29,45,302,513]

Local Minimum. Any Stationary Point on a Potential Energy Surface for which all elements in the diagonal representation of the Hessian are positive. [446]

Local Spin Density Models; See Local Density Models.

LogP. An empirical measure of the extent to which a molecule partitions between water and octanol. [294]
Lone Pair. A Non-Bonded Molecular Orbital which is typically associated with a single atom.

LUMO. Lowest Unoccupied Molecular Orbital. [29,57]

LUMO Map. A graph of the absolute value of the LUMO on an Isodensity Surface corresponding to a van der Waals Surface. [29,57,302,304,514]

Mechanics Models; See Molecular Mechanics Models.

Mechanism. The sequence of steps connecting reactants and products in an overall chemical reaction. Each step starts from an equilibrium form (reactant or intermediate) and ends in an equilibrium form (intermediate or product). [428,431,447]

Merck Molecular Force Field; See MMFF94.

Minimal Basis Set. A Basis Set which contains the fewest functions needed to hold all the electrons on an atom and still maintain spherical symmetry. STO-3G is a minimal basis set. [435]

Minimal Valence Basis Set. A Minimal Basis Set from which Core Orbitals have been removed. Semi-Empirical Models make use of a minimal valence basis set [439]

MM2, MM3, MM4. A series of Molecular Mechanics Force Fields developed by the Allinger group at the University of Georgia.

MMFF94. Merck Molecular Force Field. A Molecular Mechanics Force Field for organic molecules and biopolymers developed by Merck Pharmaceuticals. [517]

MNDO. Modified Neglect of Differential Overlap. A Semi-Empirical Model. [517]

MNDO/d. An extension of the MNDO Semi-Empirical Model in which second-row (and heavier) main-group elements are provided a set of d-type functions. [517]

Molecular Mechanics; See Molecular Mechanics Models.

Molecular Mechanics Models. Methods for structure, conformation and strain energy calculation based on bond stretching, angle bending
and torsional distortions, together with Non-Bonded Interactions, and parameterized to fit experimental data. [282,439,517]

**Molecular Orbital.** A one-electron function made of contributions of Basis Functions on individual atoms (Atomic Orbitals) and delocalized throughout the entire molecule. [490]

**Molecular Orbital Models.** Methods based on writing the many-electron solution of the Electronic Schrödinger Equation in terms of a product of one-electron solutions (Molecular Orbitals).

**Møller-Plesset Energy.** The energy resulting from Møller-Plesset Models terminated to a given order, e.g., the MP2 energy is the energy of the second-order Møller-Plesset Model (or MP2).

**Møller-Plesset Models.** Methods which partially account for Electron Correlation by way of the perturbation theory of Møller and Plesset. [284,438,518]

**Monte-Carlo Conformation Search.** A limited search of Conformers resulting from a random sampling of all torsional angles (including constrained torsions associated with flexible rings) while satisfying the requirements imposed by the Boltzmann Equation. [279,465]

**MP2 Energy.** The energy resulting from MP2 Models.

**MP2 Model.** A Møller-Plesset Model terminated to be second order in the energy. [438,519]

**MP3 Model.** A Møller-Plesset Model terminated to be third order in the energy. [520]

**MP4 Model.** A Møller-Plesset Model terminated to be fourth order in the energy. [520]

**Mulliken Charges.** Atomic charges obtained from a Mulliken Population Analysis. [49,523]

**Mulliken Population Analysis.** A partitioning scheme in which electrons are shared equally between different Basis Functions. [523]
**Multiplicity.** The number of unpaired electrons (number of electrons with “down” spin) +1. 1=singlet; 2=doublet; 3=triplet, etc. [294]

**Natural Charges.** Atomic charges obtained from a Natural Population Analysis. [49,523]

**Natural Population Analysis.** [523]

**NDDO Approximation.** Neglect of Diatomic Differential Overlap approximation. The approximation underlying all present generation Semi-Empirical Models. It says that two Atomic Orbitals on different atoms do not overlap. [439]

**NIST Chemistry Web Book (National Institutes of Standards and Technology).** On-line source of experimental Infrared and UV/visible spectra. [191,332]

**NMR Spectrum.** Spectrum resulting from transitions between nuclear spin states under the influence of an external magnetic field. Both 1D spectra (most important, proton and $^{13}$C) and 2D spectra (most important COSY, HMBC and HSQC) are available. [29,110,115,117,119,478]

**NOE (Nuclear Overhauser Effect).** An NMR experiment that leads to identifying pairs of (non-bonded) atoms separated by less than a specified distance (typically 4-5Å). [237]

**Non-Bonded Interactions.** Interactions between atoms which are not directly bonded. van der Waals Interactions and Coulombic Interactions are non-bonded interactions.

**Non-Bonded Molecular Orbital.** A molecular orbital which does not show any significant Bonding or Antibonding characteristics. A Lone Pair is a non-bonded molecular orbital.

**Non-Local Density Functional Models.** Density Functional Models such as the BLYP, BP, EDF1, EDF2 and B3LYP Models which explicitly take into account electron inhomogeneities. [291,519]

**Normal Coordinates.** Coordinates that lead to a diagonal Hessian, and which correspond to vibrational motions in molecules.
Normal Mode Analysis. The process for calculating Normal Coordinates leading to Vibrational Frequencies. This involves diagonalizing the Hessian and accounting for atomic masses.

Octet Rule. The notion that main-group elements prefer to be “surrounded” by eight electrons (going into s, p_x, p_y, p_z orbitals).

OD/OD(T). Correlated Models. [520]

Orbital Energy. The energy of a Molecular Orbital.

Orbital Energy Diagram. A diagram listing Orbital Energies from most negative at the bottom. Usually restricted to occupied Valence Orbitals and the few lowest unoccupied orbitals. [29]

Orbital Symmetry Rules; See Woodward-Hoffmann Rules.

Open Shell. An atom or molecule in which one or more electrons are unpaired. [517]

Pharmacophore. Collection of Chemical Function Descriptors which characterizes a molecular environment. A pharmacophore may serve as a target for Similarity Analysis. [152,155]


Polar Area. The area of an Electrostatic Potential Map that is either more positive or more negative than some preset value (typically between 80-120 kJ/mol). [149]

Polarization Basis Set. A Basis Set which contains functions of higher angular quantum number (Polarization Functions) than required for the Ground State of the atom, e.g., d-type functions for main-group elements and p-type functions for hydrogen. 6-31G*, 6-31G**, 6-311G*, 6-311G**, cc-pVDZ, cc-pVTZ and cc-pVQZ are polarization basis sets. [436,521]
**Polarization Functions.** Functions of higher angular quantum than required for the *Ground State* atomic description. Added to a *Basis Set* to allow displacement of *Valence Basis Functions* away from atomic positions. [436,521]

**Polarization Potential.** A function describing the energy of electronic relaxation of a molecular charge distribution following interaction with a point positive charge. The polarization potential may be added to the *Electrostatic Potential* to provide a more accurate account of the interaction of a point-positive charge and a molecule.

**Polar Surface Area.** The area of a space-filling (CPK) model due to electronegative elements (typically, nitrogen and oxygen) and any hydrogens that are bonded to these elements. [149,315]

**Pople-Nesbet Equations.** The set of equations describing the best *Unrestricted Single Determinant Wavefunction* within the *LCAO Approximation*. These reduce the *Roothaan-Hall Equations* for *Closed Shell* (paired electron) systems.

**Population Analysis; see Mulliken Population Analysis, Natural Population Analysis**

**Potential Energy Surface.** A function of the energy of a molecule in terms of the geometrical coordinates of the atoms. [425]

**Property Map.** A representation or “map” of a “property” on top of an *Isosurface*, typically an *Isodensity Surface*. *Electrostatic Potential Maps*, and *HOMO* and *LUMO Maps* and *Spin Density Maps* are useful property maps. [506]

**Proton Affinity; See Basicity.**

**Proton Spectrum; see also NMR Spectrum** [110]

**Pseudopotential.** A *Basis Set* which treats only *Valence* electrons in an explicit manner, all other electrons being considered as a part of a “*Core*”. LAVCP (and extensions including *Polarization* and/or *Diffuse Functions*) are pseudopotentials. [288,522]

**Pseudorotation.** A mechanism for interconversion of *equatorial* and *axial* sites around trigonal bipyramidal centers, e.g., fluorines in
phosphorous pentfluoride.

**QCCD/QCCD(T) Models.** Correlated Models. [520]

**QCISD/QCISD(T) Models.** Quadratic CISD Models. Correlated Models. [520]

**QSAR.** Quantitative Structure Activity Relationships. The name given to attempts to relate measured or calculated properties to molecular structure. [293,315]

**Quantum Mechanics.** Methods based on approximate solution of the Schrödinger Equation.

**Ramachandran Plot.** A plot for each α carbon in a polypeptide of the two dihedral angles that define the conformation of the backbone. The points will typically cluster in two regions denoting helices and sheets. [170,213,225]

**Raman Spectrum.** Spectrum resulting from transitions between vibrational energy levels. Infrared intensities depend on the change in polarizability associated with the vibration. [292,329]

**Rate Limiting Step.** The step in an overall chemical reaction (Mechanism) which proceeds via the highest-energy Transition State.

**Reaction Coordinate.** The coordinate that connects the Local Minima corresponding to the reactant and product, and which passes through a Transition State. [447]

**Reaction Coordinate Diagram.** A plot of energy vs. Reaction Coordinate. [447]

**Restricted SCF.** An SCF procedure which restricts electrons to be paired in orbitals or permits orbitals to be singly occupied. [287,538]

**RI-MP2.** [519]

**RM1.** A Semi-Empirical Model. [517]

**Roothaan-Hall Equations.** The set of equations describing the best Hartree-Fock or Single-Determinant Wavefunction within the
LCAO Approximation. [434]

R/S. Atomic chirality markers. [68]

SCF. Self Consistent Field. An iterative procedure whereby a one-electron orbital is determined under the influence of a potential made up of all the other electrons. Iteration continues until self consistency. Hartree-Fock, Density Functional and MP2 Models all employ SCF procedures.

Schrödinger Equation. The quantum mechanical equation which accounts for the motions of nuclei and electrons in atomic and molecular systems. [433]

SDBS. Database of experimental infrared and NMR spectra from AIST (Advanced Industrial Science and Technology, Japan). Freely accessible on-line but automatic access is not permitted limiting its utility.

Self Consistent Field; See SCF.

Semi-Empirical Models. Quantum Mechanics methods that seek approximate solutions to the many electron Schrödinger Equation, but which involve empirical parameters. [282,439,517]

Similarity Analysis. A procedure to determine the extent to which a molecule is “similar” to either a standard molecule (defined in terms of a set of atoms or a set of Chemical Functional Groups) or by a set of unassociated Chemical Functional Groups (a Pharmacophore). [152,278,296,524]

Single-Determinant Wavefunction; See Hartree-Fock Wavefunction.

SIRD; see Spartan Infrared Database [106]

Size Consistent. Methods for which the total error in the calculated energy is more or less proportional to the (molecular) size. Hartree-Fock and Møller-Plesset models are size consistent, while Density Functional Models, (limited) Configuration Interaction Models and Semi-Empirical Models are not size consistent.
Size Surface. A Density Surface used to establish overall molecular size and shape. The value of the density is typically taken as 0.002 electrons/bohr$^3$.

Slater. A function of the form $x^l y^m z^n \exp(-\zeta r)$ where $l, m, n$ are integers (0, 1, 2 . . .) and $\zeta$ is a constant. Related to the exact solutions to the Schrödinger Equation for the hydrogen atom. Used as Basis Functions in Semi-Empirical Models.

Slater Determinant; See Hartree-Fock Wavefunction

Slater Function. See Slater.

SM5.4. An empirical solvation model for water only. Furnishes only an energy correction to be added to the (gas-phase) energy obtained from any quantum chemical model. A lower (computational) cost variation is available for use in conjunction with Molecular Mechanics Models. [129,522]

SM8. An empirical solvation model applicable to Hartree-Fock and density functional models. Available for water and a variety of organic solvents. Furnishes a wavefunction in addition to an energy, meaning that solvated structures, infrared spectra and properties may be obtained. [289,522]

SMD; see Spartan Molecular Database. [155,372]

Space-Filling Model; See CPK Model. [223,500]

Spartan Infrared Database (SIRD). An alternative entry point into the Spartan Spectra and Properties Database (SSPD) allowing searching by match to an (unknown) infrared spectrum. [106]

Spartan Molecular Database (SMD). A collection of molecular structures and properties for >100,000 molecules obtained from up to nine different quantum chemical models. Searchable by structure, name, formula, molecular weight and isomer. [155,372]

Spartan Reaction Database (SRD). A collection of ~1500 transition-state structures for a wide variety of simple organic and organometallic reactions obtained from up to five different quantum chemical models. Searchable by structure. [143]
Spartan Spectra and Properties Database (SSPD). A collection of molecular structures, infrared and NMR spectra, molecular and atomic properties and QSAR descriptors for >70,000 organic molecules obtained from the EDF2/6-31G* density functional model based on the lowest-energy conformer assigned from the T1 model. The wavefunction is available, meaning that surfaces and property maps may be generated “on-the-fly”. Searchable by structure, name, formula, molecular weight and isomer. [191,372,461,477]

Spin Density. The difference in the number of electrons per unit volume of “up” spin and “down” spin at a point in space. [65]

Spin Density Map. A graph that shows the value of the Spin Density on an Isodensity Surface corresponding to a van der Waals Surface [65,303].

Spin Multiplicity; See Multiplicity. [294]

Spin Orbital. The form of Wavefunction resulting from application of the Hartree-Fock Approximation to the Electronic Schrödinger Equation. Comprises a space part (Molecular Orbital) and one of two possible spin parts (“spin-up” and “spin-down”).

Split-Valence Basis Set. A Basis Set in which the Core is represented by a single set of Basis Functions (a Minimal Basis Set) and the Valence is represented by two or more sets of Basis Functions. This allows for description of aspherical atomic environments in molecules. 3-21G, 6-31G and 6-311G are split-valence basis sets. [283,435]

SRD; see Spartan Reaction Database [143]

SSPD; see Spartan Spectra and Properties Database. [191,372,461,477]

Stationary Point. A point on a Potential Energy Surface for which all energy first derivatives with respect to the coordinates are zero. Local Minima and Transition States are stationary points.

STO-3G. A Minimal Basis Set. Each atomic orbital is written in terms of a sum of three Gaussian functions taken as best fits to
Slater-type (exponential) functions. [521]

SVWN Model. (Slater, Vosko, Wilk, Nusair) A Density Functional Model which involves the Local Density Approximation.

SYBYL. A Molecular Mechanics Force Field developed by Tripos, Inc. [517]

Systematic Conformation Search. An exhaustive search of Conformers resulting from stepping through all torsional angles (including constrained torsions associated with flexible rings). This is the only procedure that guarantees identification of the Global Minimum. [279,465]

T1. A combination of quantum chemical models and empirical parameters formulated to reproduce Heats of Formation obtained from the G3(MP2) Model using 2-3 orders of magnitude less computation. T1 reproduces experimental heats with an RMS error of ~8 kJ/mol (the same error as obtained from the G3(MP2) Model). [95,286, 459,520]

Tautomer. An isomer related by rearrangement of hydrogen atoms, for example vinyl alcohol is a tautomer of acetaldehyde. All tautomers are isomers but not all isomers are tautomers. [98,398]

TDDFT (Time Dependent Density Functional Theory). [521]

Theoretical Model. A “recipe” leading from the Schrödinger Equation to a general computational scheme. A theoretical models needs to be unique and well defined and, to the maximum extent possible, be unbiased by preconceived ideas. It should lead to Potential Energy Surfaces which are continuous. It is also desirable (but not required) that a theoretical model be Size Consistent and Variational. Finally, a theoretical model will be applicable for the problems of interest. [287]

Theoretical Model Chemistry. The set of results following from application of a particular Theoretical Model.

Thermochemical Recipes. Combinations of quantum chemical models and (in the case of T1) empirical parameters to reproduce
experimental (or in the case of T1) \textbf{G3(MP2) Heats of Formation.} G3(MP2) and T1 are thermochemical recipes. [285]

\textbf{Thermodynamically-Controlled Reaction.} A chemical reaction which has gone all the way to completion, and the ratio of different possible products is related to their thermochemical stabilities according to the \textbf{Boltzmann Equation}. [140,456]

\textbf{Thermodynamic Product.} The product of a reaction which is under \textbf{Thermodynamic Control}. [140,456]

\textbf{Total Charge.} The sum of the nuclear charges minus the total number of electrons. [294]

\textbf{Total Energy.} The energy of a balanced chemical reaction in which a molecule is split into single particle fragments, that is, nuclei and electrons. Total energy is the standard way to report energy data derived from quantum chemical models (except \textbf{Semi-Empirical Models} and \textbf{Thermochemical Recipes}). [278]

\textbf{Total Electron Density; See Electron Density.} [299,304,501]

\textbf{Transition State.} A \textbf{Stationary Point} on a \textbf{Potential Energy Surface} in which all but one of the elements in the diagonal representation of the \textbf{Hessian} are positive, and one element is negative. Corresponds to the highest-energy point on the \textbf{Reaction Coordinate}. [445]

\textbf{Transition-State Geometry.} The geometry (bond lengths and angles) of a \textbf{Transition State}. [125,133,137,143,447]

\textbf{Transition State Theory.} The notion that all molecules react through a single well-defined \textbf{Transition State}. [278,447]

\textbf{Transition Structure; See Transition-State Geometry.}

\textbf{Triplet.} A molecule with two unpaired electrons.

\textbf{Unrestricted SCF.} An \textbf{SCF} procedure which does not restrict electrons to be paired on orbitals. [287,538]

\textbf{UV/visible Spectrum.} The spectrum resulting between ground and excited electronic states. [29,293]
Valence. Electrons which are delocalized throughout the molecule and participate in chemical bonding (2s, 2px, 2py, 2pz for first-row elements, 3s, 3px, 3py, 3pz for second-row elements, etc.).

Valence Orbital. A Molecular Orbital that is primarily involved with the Valence rather than the Core.

van der Waals Interactions. Interactions which account for short-range repulsion of non-bonded atoms as well as for weak long-range attraction.

van der Waals Radius. The radius of an atom (in a molecule), which is intended to reflect its overall size. van der Waals radii are used to define space-filling models. [408]

van der Waals Surface. A surface formed by a set of interpreting spheres (atoms) with specific van der Waals radii, and which is intended to represent overall molecular size and shape.

Variational. Methods for which the calculated energy represents an upper bound to the exact (experimental) energy. Hartree-Fock and Configuration Interaction Models are variational while Møller-Plesset Models, Density Functional Models and Semi-Empirical Models are not variational.

Vibrational Analysis; See Normal Mode Analysis.

VWN; See Local Density Models, SVWN Models.

Vibrational Frequencies. The energies at which molecules vibrate. Vibrational frequencies correspond to the peaks in an infrared and Raman spectrum. [29]

Wavefunction. The solution of the Schrödinger Equation. In the case of the hydrogen atom, a function of the coordinates which describes the motion of the electron as fully as possible. In the case of a many-electron system a function which describes the motion of the individual electrons. [433]

Woodward-Hoffmann Rules. A set of rules based on the symmetry of Frontier Molecular Orbitals on interacting molecules which indicate whether a particular reaction will be favorable or
unfavorable. These rules should more properly be referred to as the **Fukui-Woodward-Hoffmann Rules** to reflect the fundamental contribution of Fukui. [497]

**Zero-Point Energy.** The energy of molecular vibration at 0K, given as half the sum of the **Vibrational Frequencies** times Planck’s constant. [471]

**Z Matrix.** A set of internal coordinates (bond lengths, bond angles and dihedral angles only) describing molecular geometry. Of historical interest only. Not supported in *Spartan.*

**Zwitterion.** A neutral valence structure which incorporates both a formal positive charge and a formal negative charge. [265]
# Activity-Based Index

References to tutorials are given first and in **bold**. Only the first five (tutorial) references are provided. CSD = Cambridge Structural Database; PDB = Protein Data Bank; SIRD = Spartan Infrared Database; SMD = Spartan Molecular Database (SMD); SSPD = Spartan Spectra and Properties Database (SSPD); SRD = Spartan Reaction Database (SRD).

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