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REVISION 1

TITLE: Electronic structure effects in the vectorial bond-valence model

REVISION 1

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28

Abstract

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The vectorial bond-valence model (VBVM) describes the spatial distribution of bonds to each atom in a system in terms of the vector sum of the incident bond valences. It has been applied in the past to cations not subject to electronic structure effects (e.g., lone-pair or Jahn-Teller effects,) in which case the expectation is that the vector sum will be approximately zero. Here we analyze 178 simple-oxide crystal structures and show that the vectorial bond-valence sum is a predictable function of the atomic valence (oxidation state) of each atom and the valence of the strongest bond to atoms for which second-order Jahn-Teller and lone-pair effects play a role in determining molecular geometry. Outliers are uniformly metastable or unstable under ambient conditions, suggesting that deviation from ideal vectorial bond-valence sums might be used as a proxy for some aspect of structural potential energy. These results are all strictly in harmony with the VSEPR model of molecular geometry, but may allow for more quantitative prediction.

Keyword: crystal structure, oxide, bond valence, vectorial bond-valence model, electronegativity, lone pair, second-order Jahn-Teller effect, spherical symmetry, minimum coordination number

48 Introduction

49 The bond-valence model (BVM) has become a standard in inorganic chemistry
50 for predicting acceptable combinations of bonds, with their corresponding lengths, to ions
51 in solid structures, as well as for assessing unknown oxidation states of ions in crystals
52 (Brown, 2002; 2009). It is now commonplace (e.g., Müller et al., 2003) to assess the
53 plausibility of proposed crystal structures in terms of their adherence to the valence-sum
54 rule, which states that in a stable crystal structure, the valence of bonds incident to an ion
55 should ideally counterbalance the atomic valence of the ion. (See the *Theory* section
56 below for details.) Bickmore et al. (2009) recently used *ab initio* molecular dynamics
57 simulations to show that the valence-sum rule applies on a time-averaged basis to liquid
58 structures, in addition to solids.

59 Simple structural models like the BVM, e.g., the Lewis model and the valence
60 shell electron pair repulsion (VSEPR) model, have historically been very important for
61 generating new ideas about, for example, reaction mechanisms (Brown, 2003). And yet,
62 the BVM stands apart from the others because of its ability to make quantitative
63 predictions of bond lengths via the valence-sum rule. The BVM is conceptually and
64 mathematically very simple, as it boils down complex, multi-body interactions into a
65 single parameter, the bond-valence sum, which is predictive for many systems.

66 Even in cases where known structures deviate significantly from BVM
67 predictions, the model can prove useful by identifying which aspects of the molecular
68 structure cause the strain. If the valence-sum rule puts constraints on structures, it
69 follows that deviation from the rule entails some energetic cost. A number of
70 quantitative structure-activity relationships (QSARs) have been formulated based

71 partially on energy cost functions for deviation from the valence-sum rule (Salinas-
72 Sanchez et al., 1992; Hiemstra et al., 1996; Adams, 2001; Adams and Swenson, 2002;
73 Adams et al., 2004; Bickmore et al., 2004; Bickmore et al., 2006; Adams and Rao, 2009;
74 Perez-Mato et al., 2009). In fact, Rappe and coworkers have constructed a molecular
75 mechanics force field based on such a cost function, along with a number of more
76 standard potential energy terms (Grinberg et al., 2002; Cooper et al., 2003; Grinberg et
77 al., 2004; Shin et al., 2005).

78 BVM-based energy cost functions are attractive because bond-valence
79 calculations are empirically calibrated for different cation-anion pairs, so that the end
80 product (bond valence) is a common currency, no matter what types of atoms are
81 involved. This point is well illustrated by the work of Angel and colleagues, who showed
82 that the rate of change of bond-valence sums with pressure is constant for cations in both
83 the A and B sites in ABO_3 perovskites (Zhao et al., 2004a; b; Angel et al., 2005b; Angel
84 et al., 2005a; Zhao et al., 2006). Such a relationship would be very unlikely if the bond
85 valence-energy relationship were substantially different for A-O and B-O bonds.

86 QSARs based solely on the valence-sum rule necessarily have limited
87 applicability, because they are an incomplete description of molecular structure. Since
88 bond valences are only calculated between cations and anions, the model obviously
89 neglects non-bonded forces such as would be needed to describe ligand-ligand
90 interactions. And even if non-bonded interactions were addressed in the BVM, the
91 valence-sum rule is non-directional, i.e., concerned with the lengths of bonds between
92 cations and anions, but not with the spatial distribution of those bonds, so the BVM could
93 not deal with electronic structure effects. In cases where these other factors are

94 important, the BVM cannot fully address how molecular structure affects stability and
95 reactivity.

96 To maximize the quantitative usefulness of the BVM, it would be worthwhile to
97 expand the model to predict more aspects of condensed-phase structures. Harvey et al.
98 (2006) partially addressed this problem by proposing the vectorial bond-valence model
99 (VBVM), which incorporates some predictions of the Valence Shell Electron Pair
100 Repulsion (VSEPR) model (Gillespie and Hargittai, 1991) within a bond-valence
101 framework. VSEPR has been very successful at predicting bond angles and basic
102 molecular shapes, but does not quantitatively address bond lengths. In the VBVM, the
103 bonds incident to an atom are treated as vectors in the direction from the center of a
104 cation to the center of a coordinating anion, with magnitude equal to the bond valence.
105 Harvey et al. (2006) postulated that the sum of the valence vectors about a cation should
106 ideally be around zero, and showed that this postulate works well for group 12 cations
107 coordinated by 2-3 organic ligands, even when those ligands are multi-dentate. Lufaso
108 and Woodward (2001) used this postulate to accurately predict the positions of cations in
109 perovskite structures. Thus, the vector sum postulate reproduces the VSEPR prediction
110 that ligands will generally distribute themselves as symmetrically as possible about a
111 central atom. Harvey et al. (2006) acknowledged, however, that their vector sum
112 postulate is incomplete because it does not account for the influence of electronic
113 structure effects such as those due to lone pairs, which is one of the great successes of
114 VSEPR.

115 In this contribution, we explore a number of oxide structures to show how, by
116 using a novel definition of coordination number, the VBVM can be generalized to

117 address certain types of electronic structure effects. We also show how ideal vectorial
118 bond-valence sums can be estimated solely upon the basis of electron configuration and
119 coordination environment, and provide a preliminary evaluation of the potential for using
120 deviation from these ideal values as a proxy for some aspect of structural potential
121 energy.

122 Theory

123 Bond Valence

124 The concept of bond valence stems from Pauling's (1929) treatment of oxidation
125 number, or atomic valence (V), as a measure of an ion's bonding power, which is
126 distributed among any bonds incident to it. More recently, Preiser et al. (1999) showed
127 that the valence of individual bonds can be rationalized in terms of the electric flux
128 between charged centers, and Gibbs et al. (2003; 2004) showed that bond valence
129 correlates well with electron density at bond-critical points.

130 Bond valence is typically estimated via Eqn. 1 (e.g., Brown and Altermatt, 1985):

$$132 \quad s_{ij} = e^{((R_0 - R)/B)} \quad (1)$$

133
134 where s_{ij} is bond valence in valence units (v.u.) between ions i and j , R is bond length, R_0
135 is the bond length at which $s_{ij} = 1$ v.u., and B is another length term that describes the
136 softness of the bond type. Both R_0 and B are empirical valence parameters specific to a
137 given cation-anion pair, averaged over many structures.

138 The relative energetic favorability of a particular coordination environment for
139 ion i can be assessed by calculating the valence sum (S_i):

140

$$141 \quad S_i = \sum_j s_{ij} \quad (2)$$

142

143 where the valence of each bond is positive in the direction of the anion and negative in
144 the direction of the cation. This simple treatment of the relationship between bond
145 valence and bond length usually results in bond-valence sums incident to both cations
146 and anions that are very close to the ideal, which is described by the valence-sum rule
147 (Brown and Altermatt, 1985; Brown, 2002).

148

$$149 \quad S_i + V_i = 0 \quad (3)$$

150

151 That is, in a stable structure, the summed valence of bonds incident to an ion (S_i) ideally
152 should exactly counterbalance its atomic valence (V_i).

153 VSEPR and VBVM

154 The VSEPR model explains the spatial distribution of bonds about a central atom
155 via repulsion between electron pairs in the valence shell, including both lone pairs and
156 bonded pairs. To determine an ideal molecular geometry, one first finds the number of
157 valence-shell electron pairs, and then considers how the pairs can be arranged on a sphere
158 around the atom to achieve minimum energy due to repulsion between the pairs
159 (Gillespie and Hargittai, 1991). E.g., the O^{2-} in an H_2O molecule has two bonded
160 electron pairs with H and two lone pairs, and so ideally the electron pairs would be
161 distributed in a tetrahedron about the O^{2-} , giving rise to $\angle HOH = 109.5^\circ$. This is fairly
162 close to the actual bond angle for a water molecule, $\angle HOH = 104.5^\circ$.

163 Ideal molecular shapes, then, can be rationalized in terms the valence-bond
164 formulas of the atoms involved, but deviations from ideal geometries are due to a number
165 of factors (Müller, 2007). 1) Bonded pairs repel others less than lone pairs. Hence
166 $\angle HOH$ in water is smaller than the ideal tetrahedral angle. 2) Multiple bonds (e.g.,
167 double or triple bonds) repel other electron pairs to a greater degree than single bonds. 3)
168 The size of the ligands (i.e., the degree of repulsion among ligands) can also affect the
169 degree of distortion. Finally, 4) the electronegativity of the ligands, relative to the central
170 atom, determines the distribution of electron density along bond axes, and thus how
171 effectively bonded pairs repel other electron pairs around the central atom.

172 In the VBVM, bonds are treated as vectors in the direction from the cation center
173 to the anion center, with magnitude equal to the bond valence (\bar{s}_{ij}). Brown (1988) and
174 Harvey et al. (2006) showed that the sum of the bond-valence vectors around a central
175 cation (\vec{S}_i) very often has a magnitude close to 0 v.u. Harvey et al. (2006) formalized this
176 principle, which they called the “Valence Vector Sum Postulate”:

177

$$178 \quad \vec{S}_i = \sum_j \vec{s}_{ij} \approx \vec{0} \quad (4)$$

179

180 When the norm of the vector sum ($\|\vec{S}_i\|$) deviates from 0, it is a good single-parameter
181 descriptor of the degree to which factors such as steric and electronic structure effects
182 (e.g., lone pairs) have distorted the bonding geometry (Brown, 1988).

183 The valence vector sum postulate (Eqn. 4) can reproduce some VSEPR
184 predictions. For example, cations with no lone pairs should ideally adopt a spherically
185 symmetrical coordination sphere, and stronger bonds tend to repel weaker ones since this

186 behavior would tend to minimize $\|\vec{\mathbf{S}}_i\|$. However, ligand-ligand interaction, as well as
187 the spatial distribution of bonds as a function of ligand electronegativity, coordination
188 number, and the presence of electronic distortions, has so far not been addressed.
189 Coordination number (N_c) and electronegativity (E_n)

190 While we do not address ligand-ligand interactions here, it may be that we can
191 largely predict the effect of some types of electronic distortions on $\|\vec{\mathbf{S}}_i\|$ by taking into
192 account the effects of N_c and E_n . If this is our goal, however, standard definitions of N_c
193 and E_n are problematic.

194 When determining N_c , some cutoff distance is typically defined and all
195 neighboring atoms within that distance are counted equally, while those outside are not
196 counted at all. The cutoff distance is usually short enough to exclude weaker interactions
197 that nevertheless exert a discernible influence, but long enough so interactions of very
198 different strengths are all counted equally. This makes N_c a discontinuous function of the
199 atomic environment, where small changes would sometimes cause large jumps in N_c ,
200 while relatively large changes would sometimes cause no change in N_c .

201 Such a blunt instrument would necessarily lead to poor correlations with a
202 quantity like $\|\vec{\mathbf{S}}_i\|$, which can take into account subtle differences in bond strength.
203 Clearly, we require a more subtle definition of coordination number, like the following:

204

$$205 \quad N_{min,i} = |V_i|/s_{max,i} \quad (6)$$

206

207

208 where $N_{min,i}$ is the minimum coordination number, which is the absolute value of the
209 atomic valence of ion i (V_i) divided by the valence of the strongest bond incident to it
210 ($s_{max,i}$). N_{min} is not a true coordination number (i.e., a count of nearest neighbors or
211 bonds,) but rather an expectation value of N_c , given s_{max} , for the case in which all bonds
212 are of equal strength. However, N_{min} is insensitive to cutoff distance.

213 The concept of E_n is equally problematic for models based on bond valence,
214 because if we define bond valence in terms of electric flux, it simply does not matter how
215 the valence electron density involved in a bond is distributed along the bond axis; the
216 total flux between the atomic centers stays the same (Preiser et al., 1999). This is why V_i
217 can be used rather than more realistic “partial” charges. Nevertheless, Brown and
218 Skowron (1990) have shown that cation electronegativity correlates very well with a
219 valence-based quantity called “Lewis acid strength” (L_A), which is the atomic valence of
220 the ion (V_i) divided by its average observed coordination number ($N_{t,i}$) in a large sample
221 of oxides (Eqn. 7).

222

$$223 \quad L_{A,i} = V_i / N_{t,i} \quad (7)$$

224

225 The corresponding value for anions is called “Lewis base strength,” and is calculated as
226 in Eqn. 7, except that the absolute value of V_i is used. L_A provides an expectation value
227 for the average strength of the individual bonds formed, and is correlated with
228 electronegativity because it is an indicator of the electric field strength at the surface of
229 an atom (Brown and Skowron, 1990; Brown, 2011). Large cations with low charge (and
230 hence low electronegativity,) for instance, have low L_A values.

231 L_A is averaged over many structures, however, so Brown and Skowron also
232 defined an “actual Lewis acid strength”, which depends on N_c of a cation in a particular
233 environment, rather than N_t , but this reintroduces the same problems with standard
234 definitions of N_c as we discussed above. In place of L_A , therefore, we simply use s_{max} ,
235 which is specific to individual atomic environments and does not depend on any
236 particular definition of N_c . However, s_{max} should be strongly correlated with E_n .

237 Electronic Structure Effects

238 One of the strengths of using $\|\vec{\mathbf{S}}_i\|$ to describe the distortion of coordination
239 polyhedra is that it condenses a large amount of information about the structural
240 environment into a single parameter, but by the same token, some of that information
241 cannot be extracted again. In fact, this approach is only likely to be useful for describing
242 certain types of electronic distortions. Distortions due to lone pairs and the second-order
243 Jahn-Teller (SOJT) effect tend to produce concurrent changes in $\|\vec{\mathbf{S}}_i\|$, N_{min} , and s_{max} ,
244 whereas the first-order Jahn-Teller (FOJT) effect usually does not.

245 In the FOJT effect, electron configurations other than d^0 , d^5 (high-spin), and d^{10} in
246 transition metals can result in distortion if the strength of interaction between the d
247 subshell and the valence shell is sufficient. Gillespie and Hargittai (1991) recommended
248 adapting the VSEPR model to describe such distortions by assuming an ellipsoidal, rather
249 than spherical, electron-density distribution around the metal atom, with electron pairs
250 repelling one another to the greatest possible distances while adhering to those surfaces.
251 The ideal distribution of ligands when a metal is 4-coordinated, for instance, is
252 tetrahedral, with $\|\vec{\mathbf{S}}_i\| = 0$ v.u. But in some cases where transition metals have d^8 or d^9
253 configurations, the tetrahedral polyhedron is flattened into a disphenoidal or square-

254 planar shape. As long as the bonds all remain the same length, these distorted geometries
255 would still result in $\|\vec{\mathbf{S}}_i\| = 0$ v.u. Also, 6-coordination ideally results in an octahedron
256 of ligands and $\|\vec{\mathbf{S}}_i\| = 0$ v.u., but the ligands of some d^4 and d^9 transition metals instead
257 adopt a tetragonal bipyramidal configuration, also resulting in $\|\vec{\mathbf{S}}_i\| = 0$ v.u.. In the
258 second case, there would at least be a difference in N_{min} and s_{max} between the distorted
259 and ideal geometries, but not in the first. In neither case would $\|\vec{\mathbf{S}}_i\|$ be predictable as a
260 function of N_{min} or s_{max} .

261 The SOJT effect occurs in oxides with some d^0 (and sometimes d^1 or low-spin d^2)
262 transition metals (e.g., Zr^{4+} , Hf^{4+} , V^{4+} , V^{5+} , Nb^{5+} , Ta^{5+} , Mo^{6+} , and W^{6+}), when empty d -
263 orbitals of a cation mix with the p -orbitals of O, resulting in a large number of nearly
264 degenerate electron configurations that can be eliminated by distortion (Kaupp, 2001; Ra
265 et al., 2003; Brown, 2009; Halasyamani, 2010). In these cases, the ligands around the
266 metal often adopt configurations in which $\|\vec{\mathbf{S}}_i\| > 0$ v.u. Kunz and Brown (1995)
267 modified the BVM to address the SOJT effect, but our approach is somewhat different.

268 Lone-pair effects produce similar distortions, and some authors even include lone-
269 pair effects on cations (e.g., Sn^{2+} , Pb^{2+} , As^{3+} , Sb^{3+} , Bi^{3+} , S^{4+} , Se^{4+} , and Te^{4+}) under the
270 SOJT heading (see Kaupp, 2001). For our purposes, we separate the two because lone-
271 pair effects on O^{2-} follow patterns similar to those affecting cations. Furthermore, the
272 above ions span a vertical trend in the p -block from the classic sp^n lone pair to
273 unhybridized s orbitals.

274 Finally, the distortion around lone-pair cations is enhanced when they are paired
275 with cations subject to SOJT distortion (Halasyamani, 2010). Therefore, we treat this as
276 a separate category.

277 Our hypothesis is that many of these types of electronic distortions will be well
278 described by $\|\vec{S}_i\|$, which should usually be predictable as a function of N_{min} and/or s_{max} .

279 Methods

280 We analyzed the structural environments of the atoms in 178 simple-oxide
281 structures, with one or two cation types, with respect to bond-valence sum (S_i), the norm
282 of the valence vector sum ($\|\vec{S}_i\|$), valence coordination number (N_{min}), and maximum
283 bond valence (s_{max}). All symmetrically unique atoms in these structures were treated as
284 individual data points.

285 Structures

286 Crystal structures were taken from the Crystallography Open Database
287 (<http://www.crystallography.net/>) and the American Mineralogist Crystal Structure
288 Database (Downs and Hall-Wallace, 2003). Structures were only chosen for analysis if
289 they were published in 1960 or later, the oxidation states of the cations were
290 unambiguous, and appropriate valence parameters (see below) were available. We also
291 did not include structures with H^+ as one of the cations, because this would have required
292 restricting ourselves to those obtained by neutron diffraction.

293 Analysis

294 Structural analysis was done with a MATLAB™ program designed to read crystal
295 structures from crystallographic information files and calculate atomic distances,
296 directions, bond valences, and valence vectors. (The program is available upon request
297 from B. R. Bickmore.)

298 We used the SoftBV valence parameters derived by Adams and coworkers
299 (Adams, 2001; Adams and Swenson, 2002; Adams et al., 2004; Adams and Rao, 2009) to

300 account for the effects of polarizability. Because of the way they are derived, each set of
301 SoftBV parameters is associated with a cutoff distance that is long enough to account for
302 very weak, secondary interactions.

303 Results and Discussion

304 Our results suggest that $\|\vec{\mathbf{S}}_i\|$ is surprisingly predictable as a function of N_{min} and
305 s_{max} for lone-pair and many SOJT distortions. In the following subsections, we report
306 these results for five groups of ions: 1) cations not expected to exhibit lone pair or SOJT
307 distortions, 2) O^{2-} ions, 3) cations with a lone pair, 4) cations expected to exhibit the
308 SOJT distortions, and 5) lone-pair cations paired with SOJT cations. Values of the
309 parameters analyzed for all atoms are reported in Table S1 (Supplementary Information).

310 Normal Cations

311 The ligands around most cations without lone pairs tend to distribute themselves
312 about the cation in a spherically symmetrical fashion. In cases where FOJT distortions
313 are expected, the distortions are often centrosymmetric. In either case, we expect valence
314 vector sums to ideally be close to zero. Our results confirm these cations tend to follow
315 the “Valence Vector Sum Postulate” (Eqn. 4) of Harvey et al. (2006), with $\|\vec{\mathbf{S}}_{Me}\| \approx 0$
316 v.u. Figure 1a plots $\|\vec{\mathbf{S}}_{Me}\|$ vs. s_{max} , showing that there is no trend, and Fig. 1b is a
317 histogram of $\|\vec{\mathbf{S}}_{Me}\|$ for these cations, showing that the values cluster around zero, with
318 an exponential distribution. The standard deviation of the $\|\vec{\mathbf{S}}_{Me}\|$ values, which is equal
319 to the mean for an exponential distribution, is 0.06 v.u.

320 One aspect of our results not addressed by Harvey et al. (2006) is that when
321 $\|\vec{\mathbf{S}}_{Me}\|$ is plotted vs. N_{min} (Figure 1c), it becomes clear that while the $\|\vec{\mathbf{S}}_{Me}\|$ values cluster
322 near zero at all values of N_{min} , the range of possible deviation decreases as N_{min} increases.

323 One likely reason for this is illustrated by Rb_2O , which has $\|\vec{\mathbf{S}}_{Me}\| = 0$ v.u., $N_{min} = 7.51$,
324 and $N_c = 4$. This is an unusual coordination environment for Rb^+ , as the radius ratio of
325 cation to anion favors 12-coordination (Shannon, 1976). In this case, the average N_c of
326 the O^{2-} ions must be twice that of the Rb^+ , but 24-coordinated O^{2-} ions would be
327 physically implausible, so the Rb^+ adopts a smaller coordination shell. In this situation,
328 the cations are forced into close proximity with a Rb-Rb distance of 3.37 Å, just over
329 twice the ionic radius of 1.66 Å, so any deviation from spherical symmetry in the
330 distribution of O^{2-} ligands would increase Rb-Rb repulsion (as well as O-O repulsion.)
331 Likewise, the bond-valence sum incident to Rb^+ is only 0.54 v.u., which indicates severe
332 under-bonding, but shorter Rb-O bonds would once again increase Rb-Rb and O-O
333 repulsion. Therefore, the reason for the trend in Fig. 1c may simply be that deviations
334 from spherical symmetry among ligands tend to result in more co-ion repulsion when
335 coordination numbers are higher. It may also be that the energetic cost (neglecting co-ion
336 repulsion) for deviations from $\|\vec{\mathbf{S}}_{Me}\| = 0$ v.u. varies with N_{min} , but further study is
337 needed to settle this question.

338 The essential meaning of our results for normal cations is that where the
339 coordination polyhedron is distorted about them, the distortion occurs so as to minimize
340 $\|\vec{\mathbf{S}}_{Me}\|$. The first coordination shell of Fe^{3+} in hematite (Fe_2O_3), for example, is shown in
341 Fig. 2. The cation is in distorted octahedral coordination, with two sets of three
342 equivalent bonds clustered together, one set with $s_{FeO} = 0.57$ v.u., and another with
343 $s_{FeO} = 0.38$ v.u. (A number of secondary bonds bring the valence sum on the Fe^{3+} to an
344 acceptable 2.98 v.u.) The stronger bonds repel one another, so that $\angle OFeO = 102.5^\circ$,
345 and the weaker bonds cluster together with $\angle OFeO = 78.2^\circ$, with the net result of

346 $\|\vec{\mathbf{S}}_{Fe}\| = 0.04$ v.u., very close to zero. As mentioned above, this result is consistent with
347 the VSEPR model, but provides a more quantitative expectation for distorted structures.
348 It is also worth noting that this sort of distortion is qualitatively required by Pauling's 4th
349 rule (Pauling, 1929).

350 We find that the compounds in which the most extreme outliers in this group are
351 found, with $\|\vec{\mathbf{S}}_{Me}\| > 0.3$ v.u., are likely metastable or unstable under ambient conditions.
352 Scrutinyite (PbO₂), for example, has $\|\vec{\mathbf{S}}_{Pb}\| = 0.47$ v.u., but is a metastable polymorph of
353 plattnerite, for which $\|\vec{\mathbf{S}}_{Pb}\| = 0$ v.u. The Cs⁺ in Cs₂O has $\|\vec{\mathbf{S}}_{Cs}\| = 0.36$ v.u. and the
354 compound is hygroscopic (Earnshaw and Greenwood, 1997). Finally, $\|\vec{\mathbf{S}}_{Al}\| = 0.31$ v.u.
355 for one of the Al³⁺ ions in κ -Al₂O₃, which is a metastable, nanophase polymorph of
356 corundum. One of the B³⁺ ions in diomignite (Li₂B₄O₇) has $\|\vec{\mathbf{S}}_B\| = 0.10$ v.u., which is
357 within two standard deviations of zero, while the other has $\|\vec{\mathbf{S}}_B\| = 0.76$ v.u. Diomignite
358 forms from spodumene fluid inclusions, crystallizing from incompatible elements during
359 the late stages of pegmatite formation (London et al., 1987), so it is not likely to be stable
360 under ambient conditions. The same seems to be true for compounds incorporating
361 cations with $\|\vec{\mathbf{S}}_{Me}\|$ values considerably less than 0.3, but there are too many of them to
362 discuss here.

363 O²⁻ Ions

364 The coordination geometries of anions are often less symmetrical, because lone
365 pairs are typically involved. O²⁻ ions, for example, have 8 valence electrons, so unless N_c
366 > 4 they are expected to have 4 total electron pairs, including bonded and lone pairs.
367 VSEPR predicts that bond angles about a central O²⁻ ion will be close to the ideal

368 tetrahedral angle of 109.5° , but may deviate from this due to ligand-ligand repulsion and
369 differences in how effectively particular electron pairs repel others, which depends on the
370 strength and electronegativity of the bonds (Gillespie and Hargittai, 1991). When $N_c > 4$,
371 the ligands are expected to distribute themselves as symmetrically as possible around the
372 central O^{2-} .

373 Figure 3a shows $\|\vec{\mathbf{S}}_O\|$ plotted vs. s_{max} for the O^{2-} ions. Most of the data points in
374 Fig. 3a lie around the thick, solid line, which was determined as follows. If all the bonds
375 incident to the O^{2-} ion are of equal strength, then $s_{max} = 0.5$ v.u. implies $N_{min} = 4$, $s_{max} =$
376 2 v.u. implies $N_{min} = 1$, and $s_{max} < 0.5$ v.u. implies $N_{min} > 4$ (Eqn. 6). Where $N_{min} \geq 4$, it is
377 expected that $\|\vec{\mathbf{S}}_O\| = 0$ v.u., and if the valence-sum rule (Eqn. 3) is obeyed then
378 $\|\vec{\mathbf{S}}_O\| = 2$ v.u. for $N_{min} = 1$. Connection of these theoretically constrained values results
379 in the line in Fig. 3a. Eqns. 8-9 describe the two segments of the line.

380

$$381 \quad \|\vec{\mathbf{S}}_O\| = \frac{4}{3}s_{max} - \frac{2}{3} \quad \text{v.u.} \quad (1 \leq N_{min} \leq 4) \quad (8)$$

$$382 \quad \|\vec{\mathbf{S}}_O\| = 0 \text{ v.u.} \quad (N_{min} > 4) \quad (9)$$

383

384 The dotted line in Fig. 3a denotes $\|\vec{\mathbf{S}}_O\| = s_{max}$, and where $s_{max} > 1.5$ v.u., $\|\vec{\mathbf{S}}_O\|$
385 tends to fall along this line. This occurs in cases where a single, strong bond accounts for
386 almost all the bond valence incident to the O^{2-} ion, and when the strength of this bond is
387 less than 2 v.u., steric constraints can prevent other bonds from taking up the remaining
388 valence on the O^{2-} , and hence lowering $\|\vec{\mathbf{S}}_O\|$, as well.

389 In Fig. 3b, we have plotted $\|\vec{\mathbf{S}}_O\|$ vs. N_{min} for the O^{2-} ions, and the thick, solid line
390 described by Eqns 8-9 is transformed via Eqn. 6 and reproduced there. The thin, dashed
391 line represents the $\|\vec{\mathbf{S}}_O\|$ values expected if we enforce the valence-sum rule (Eqn. 3) and
392 tetrahedral (109.5°) bond angles. Where $1 < N_{min} < 4$, the $\|\vec{\mathbf{S}}_O\|$ values generally fall
393 below the dashed line, and this is for three reasons. First, only very covalent bonds can
394 be as strong as 2 v.u., and as N_{min} increases, the bonds generally become more ionic (i.e.,
395 the electronegativity of the cations decreases.) Where the electronegativity of the ligands
396 is less, the electron density in the bonded pairs is closer to the central atom, and they take
397 up more space on the central atom's surface, causing the bond angles to increase
398 (Gillespie and Hargittai, 1991). Larger bond angles lead to decreased values of $\|\vec{\mathbf{S}}_O\|$,
399 relative to what would be expected with ideal tetrahedral angles.

400 The intermediate values along the solid line in Fig. 3b are also of interest. For
401 instance, if the strengths of all bonds are equal and the valence-sum rule is obeyed, then
402 $s_{max} = 1$ v.u. implies $N_{min} = 2$, and Eqn. 8 predicts $\|\vec{\mathbf{S}}_O\| = 0.67$ v.u., which corresponds
403 to $\angle MeOMe = 141^\circ$. In the SiO_2 polymorphs, $\angle SiOSi$ is typically in the range 140-
404 145° , with some notable exceptions discussed below. Given the same assumptions, s_{max}
405 $= 0.67$ v.u. for $N_{min} = 3$, and Eqn. 8 predicts $\|\vec{\mathbf{S}}_O\| = 0.23$ v.u., which is exactly the value
406 obtained for O^{2-} in the rutile (TiO_2) structure (see Table 1).

407 Fig. 3c shows a histogram of $\Delta\|\vec{\mathbf{S}}_O\|$, defined as the deviation of $\|\vec{\mathbf{S}}_O\|$ from Eqns.
408 8-9. The distribution has a mean value of -0.03 v.u., standard deviation of ± 0.16 v.u.,
409 skewness of 0.62, and kurtosis of 8.24. This indicates that the distribution is centered
410 very close to zero, more peaked than the normal distribution and moderately skewed

411 toward positive values. Where chemical data are available, it seems that outliers with
412 deviations greater than 0.5 v.u. are all metastable or unstable under ambient conditions,
413 or exhibited bonding types not addressed by the BVM. An O^{2-} in kamiokite ($Fe_2Mo_3O_8$),
414 for instance, has $\Delta\|\vec{\mathbf{S}}_O\| = 1.10$ v.u., but this strange structure exhibits strong Mo-Mo
415 bonds (Kanazawa and Sasaki, 1986). One O^{2-} in diomignite ($Li_2B_4O_7$) (discussed above)
416 has $\Delta\|\vec{\mathbf{S}}_O\| = 0.54$ v.u. An O^{2-} in tridymite, a high-temperature polymorph of quartz
417 (SiO_2) has $\Delta\|\vec{\mathbf{S}}_O\| = -0.72$ v.u., while another in coesite, a high-pressure quartz
418 polymorph has $\Delta\|\vec{\mathbf{S}}_O\| = -0.71$ v.u. WO_3 has one O^{2-} with $\Delta\|\vec{\mathbf{S}}_O\| = 0.54$ v.u., but is
419 unique among oxides of the elements in that it has at least seven polymorphs and can
420 easily undergo numerous crystallographic transformations near ambient conditions
421 (Earnshaw and Greenwood, 1997).

422 Cations—Lone Pair

423 Cations having a lone pair or filled valence s -subshell (Sn^{2+} , Pb^{2+} , As^{3+} , Sb^{3+} ,
424 Bi^{3+} , S^{4+} , Se^{4+} , and Te^{4+}) range in atomic valence from +2 to +4, and vary widely in ionic
425 radius, and yet the behavior of $\|\vec{\mathbf{S}}_{Me}\|$ with respect to N_{min} and s_{max} for these cations is
426 surprisingly uniform. Figs. 4a and 4b plot $\|\vec{\mathbf{S}}_{Me}\|$ vs. s_{max} and N_{min} , respectively, and
427 different symbols are used to denote different cations. In Fig. 4b, it is clear that around
428 $N_{min} \approx 3-4$ the slope of the trend abruptly becomes more steep, while it is more shallow
429 for $N_{min} > 4$. By comparison with Fig. 4a, we can see that in this region, small changes in
430 s_{max} lead to large changes in $\|\vec{\mathbf{S}}_{Me}\|$ but small changes in N_{min} . These separate trends will
431 become clearer when we compare distortions involving the SOJT effect.

432 The origin of the two distinct trends in Fig. 4b may simply be geometric—i.e.,
433 distortion of coordination polyhedra with larger numbers of ligands may naturally result
434 in smaller changes in $\|\vec{\mathbf{S}}_{Me}\|$. In that case, it seems difficult to explain the consistency of
435 the slope for $N_{min} > 4$, and the rather abrupt transition in slope for $N_{min} \approx 3-4$.

436 These trends may also originate with differences in the electronic structure effects
437 involved. To this point, we have been calling any cation with an unbonded valence
438 electron pair a “lone-pair cation,” but it has traditionally been held that a “lone-pair” is
439 formed due to *s-p* hybridization in the valence shell, which may not be the right
440 explanation for the distortion around all of the cations discussed here. Some electronic
441 structure studies have concluded that distortion around Pb^{2+} in oxides, for example, is due
442 to *s-p* hybridization in the valence shell, but these studies have often used density
443 functional theory (DFT) with the lanl2DZ+d basis, which uses a large, 78 core e^-
444 effective core potential (ECP). Wander and Clark (2008) showed that a basis set (aug-cc-
445 pvdz-PP) using a smaller, 60 core e^- ECP produces very different results. That is, aug-cc-
446 pvdz-PP results in less distorted Pb^{2+} coordination environments, and this distortion does
447 not appear to be caused by *s-p* hybridization in the valence shell. Instead, the ligands
448 seem to be arranged in orientations roughly corresponding to those of the natural Pb *6p*
449 and *5d* orbitals.

450 Fig. 4c plots $\|\vec{\mathbf{S}}_{Me}\|$ vs. N_{min} for the Pb^{2+} ions in the crystal structures analyzed
451 here, along with $\text{Pb}^{2+} \cdot (\text{H}_2\text{O})_{1-9}$ structures optimized by Wander and Clark (2008) using
452 both lanl2DZ+d (Large Core DFT) and aug-cc-pvdz-PP (Small Core DFT) basis sets.
453 The lanl2DZ+d calculations would not allow more than 5 H_2O molecules to directly bond
454 to the central Pb^{2+} , but larger N_c values were possible with the aug-cc-pvdz-PP

455 calculations. Both sets of calculated structures plot within essentially the same range
456 covered by the crystal structures, but the ranges of the calculated structures do not
457 overlap with each other ($N_{min} \approx 3-4$ for lanl2DZ+d and $N_{min} > 4$ for aug-cc-pvdz-PP.) It is
458 intriguing that the lanl2DZ+d structures plot in the region where both trends on Fig. 4b
459 overlap, while the aug-cc-pvdz-PP structures plot exclusively along the trend for $N_{min} > 4$.
460 This behavior is consistent with the hypothesis that the structures in the $N_{min} \approx 3-4$ trend
461 distort via *s-p* hybridization in the valence shell, while those in the $N_{min} > 4$ trend distort
462 via the other mechanism identified by Wander and Clark (2008). Indeed, most of the
463 points along the $N_{min} > 4$ trend in Fig. 4b represent Pb^{2+} and Bi^{3+} , which are both Period 6
464 elements, and this may simply represent the general behavior of the *p*-block elements in
465 this region of the Periodic Table. This conjecture is supported by the results of Ayala et
466 al. (2008), who recently calculated Po^{4+} hydrated structures using DFT and a small-core
467 basis set, and obtained coordination-shell distortions very similar to those found by
468 Wander and Clark (2008) for Pb^{2+} . The only other points clearly belonging to the $N_{min} >$
469 4 trend represent a single Sn^{2+} from SnO and a single Te^{4+} from paratellurite. Both are
470 Period 5 *p*-block elements, and in fact, there are several other Te^{4+} data points from other
471 structures well within the $N_{min} \approx 3-4$ trend. Therefore, it may be that *p*-block elements
472 from Periods 5-6 are capable of both types of distortion mechanisms, depending on the
473 coordination number, but further electronic structure calculations are needed to establish
474 this conjecture.

475 Cations—SOJT

476 Cations expected to be subject to the SOJT effect (Hf^{4+} , Mo^{6+} , Nb^{5+} , Ta^{5+} , V^{4+} ,
477 V^{5+} , W^{6+} , Zr^{4+}) exhibit distortions similar to cations with a lone pair, but to a lesser

478 extent. Figs. 5a and 5b plot $\|\vec{\mathbf{S}}_{Me}\|$ vs. s_{max} and N_{min} , respectively, for the SOJT cations,
479 and the lone-pair cations are plotted there for comparison. Fig. 5a shows that the $\|\vec{\mathbf{S}}_{Me}\|$
480 distortion response of the SOJT cations to s_{max} is different for each cation, but the order
481 roughly follows the cation valence. That is, SOJT cations with higher valence tend to
482 distort less, given the same s_{max} , as s_{max} is a smaller share of the total bond valence
483 incident to higher-valence cations. These separate trends disappear in Fig. 5b, because
484 N_{min} takes the cation valence into account. Here, the SOJT cations seem to fall roughly
485 along the same trend as the lone-pair cations for $N_{min} \approx 3-4$, although the $\|\vec{\mathbf{S}}_{Me}\|$ values
486 for SOJT cations with $N_{min} > 4$ fall somewhat lower than their counterparts among the
487 lone-pair cations, with $\|\vec{\mathbf{S}}_{Me}\| = 0$ v.u. at $N_{min} \approx 6$, rather than $N_{min} \approx 8$.

488 In Fig. 5b, we have also plotted lines indicating the three trends just mentioned.
489 Line 1 is followed by both the lone-pair cations and SOJT cations around $N_{min} \approx 3-4$, and
490 seems to trace the distortion of a tetrahedral coordination shell toward a trigonal-
491 pyramidal geometry. Here, large changes in $\|\vec{\mathbf{S}}_{Me}\|$ result from small changes in N_{min} .
492 Lines 2 and 3 trace the distortion of SOJT and lone-pair cation coordination polyhedra,
493 respectively, with $N_{min} > 4$. Line 2 traces the distortion of octahedral coordination around
494 SOJT cations until it merges with the tetrahedral distortion trend, while Line 3 traces the
495 distortion of 8-coordination around lone-pair cations until it also merges with the
496 tetrahedral distortion trend. In cases where N_{min} is greater than the x -intercepts for Lines
497 2 and 3, $\|\vec{\mathbf{S}}_{Me}\| = 0$ v.u.

498 Given the previous discussion of the trends marked by Lines 1 and 3 for lone-pair
499 cations, it seems probable that the SOJT distortions marked by Lines 1 and 2 have similar
500 origins in distinct electronic structure effects. Further research will test this hypothesis.

523 trends followed by $\|\vec{\mathbf{S}}_o\|$ values for SOJT cations are more complex, but still quite
524 consistent among different cations in the category.

525 Why should $\|\vec{\mathbf{S}}_o\|$ be so transferable in this context? As discussed above, bond
526 valence is related to the factors assumed to control molecular geometry in the VSEPR
527 model. Gibbs and coworkers (Gibbs et al., 2001; Gibbs et al., 2003; Gibbs et al., 2004),
528 for instance, have used quantum mechanical calculations to show that bond valence
529 varies linearly with the electron density at bond-critical points, which implies that bond
530 valence really is a good measure of bond order. Since the VSEPR model posits that the
531 space taken up on the surface of an atom by bonded electron pairs depends partially on
532 bond order, it is reasonable to suppose that bonds of a given valence take up a fairly
533 consistent amount of space. The VSEPR model also posits that the electronegativity of
534 ligands relative to the central atom affects the amount of space that bonded pairs take up
535 at the surface of the central atom. As noted above, expectation values for bond valences
536 between various cations and O^{2-} (see Eqn. 7) are highly correlated with cation
537 electronegativity (Brown and Skowron, 1990).

538 Supposing it is possible to estimate an ideal value for $\|\vec{\mathbf{S}}_o\|$ in a given structural
539 context (e.g., with Eqns. 8-9,) it may be that deviation from that ideal value is a plausible
540 proxy for some aspects of structural potential energy. Although interpretation of
541 deviations from ideal $\|\vec{\mathbf{S}}_o\|$ values is complicated by other structural factors, such as
542 deviation from ideal valence sums and non-bonded interactions, our results indicate that
543 large deviations inevitably entail some energetic cost, as the outliers we identified are all
544 unstable or metastable under ambient conditions.

545 Nevertheless, accurately estimating ideal $\|\vec{\mathbf{S}}_o\|$ values may or may not require
546 further characterization. Compare, for instance, quartz (SiO_2) and isostructural GeO_2 . In
547 both cases, the strongest bonds incident to the O^{2-} ions are 1.01 v.u., which implies
548 $\|\vec{\mathbf{S}}_o\| = 0.68$ given Eqn. 8, which is equivalent to $\angle \text{MeOMe} = 141^\circ$. These are close to
549 the values obtained for quartz ($\|\vec{\mathbf{S}}_o\| = 0.62$ v.u., $\angle \text{SiOSi} = 143.6^\circ$), but somewhat
550 different from those for quartz-like GeO_2 ($\|\vec{\mathbf{S}}_o\| = 0.82$ v.u., $\angle \text{GeOGe} = 130.1^\circ$). It may
551 be that ideal $\|\vec{\mathbf{S}}_o\|$ values for O^{2-} ions attached to Si^{4+} ligands should be smaller than
552 those for O^{2-} ions attached to Ge^{4+} ligands. However, non-bonded forces might also
553 come into play; e.g., Ge is larger and more polarizable than Si, which would make Ge-Ge
554 van der Waals forces more attractive (Cambi et al., 1991; Rappé et al., 1992).

555 Research is ongoing to address such questions, but for now it is sufficient to note
556 that the VBVM has already proven to be a useful extension of bond-valence theory for
557 predicting certain structural features in crystals, and we have shown that it is possible to
558 extend its usefulness to atoms where electronic distortions play a role in determining
559 molecular geometry. Therefore, we now have a bond-valence-based framework for
560 predicting both acceptable combinations of bond lengths and their spatial distribution
561 about every atom in many crystals.

562

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568

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698
699

700 Figure Captions

- 701 **Figure 1.** a) $\|\vec{\mathbf{S}}_{Me}\|$ vs. s_{max} for cations not subject to electronic distortions, showing that
702 there is no trend. b) Histogram of $\|\vec{\mathbf{S}}_{Me}\|$ for these cations, showing that the values
703 cluster around zero. c) $\|\vec{\mathbf{S}}_{Me}\|$ vs. N_{min} for the same group of cations.

704

705 **Figure 2.** The coordination polyhedron of Fe^{3+} in hematite shows how distortion of the
706 polyhedron occurs in such a way as to minimize $\|\vec{\mathbf{S}}_O\|$. In this case, the octahedron is
707 distorted with one set of three weaker bonds, and another set of three stronger bonds.
708 The bond angles show that the weaker bonds bunch together, while the stronger bonds
709 are repelled from one another. The net result is $\|\vec{\mathbf{S}}_{Fe}\| = 0.04$ v.u.

710

711 **Figure 3.** a) $\|\vec{\mathbf{S}}_i\|$ vs. s_{max} for the O^{2-} ions. The thick, solid line represents Eqns. 8-9,
712 while the dotted line denotes $\|\vec{\mathbf{S}}_O\| = s_{max}$. b) $\|\vec{\mathbf{S}}_O\|$ vs. N_{min} for the O^{2-} ions. The thick,
713 solid line represents Eqns 8-9, transformed via Eqn. 6. The dotted line represents the
714 $\|\vec{\mathbf{S}}_O\|$ values expected if we enforce the valence-sum rule (Eqn. 3) and tetrahedral
715 (109.5°) bond angles. c) Histogram of $\Delta\|\vec{\mathbf{S}}_O\|$, defined as the deviation of $\|\vec{\mathbf{S}}_O\|$ from
716 Eqns. 8-9.

717

718 **Figure 4.** $\|\vec{\mathbf{S}}_{Me}\|$ vs. a) s_{max} and b) N_{min} , for cations with one lone pair. c) The $\|\vec{\mathbf{S}}_{Me}\|$ vs.
719 N_{min} values for Pb^{2+} ions in the crystals are re-plotted here, along with the values for
720 $\text{Pb}^{2+}\cdot(\text{H}_2\text{O})_{1-9}$ structures optimized by Wander and Clark (2008) using both lanl2DZ+d
721 (Large Core DFT) and aug-cc-pvdz-PP (Small Core DFT) basis sets.

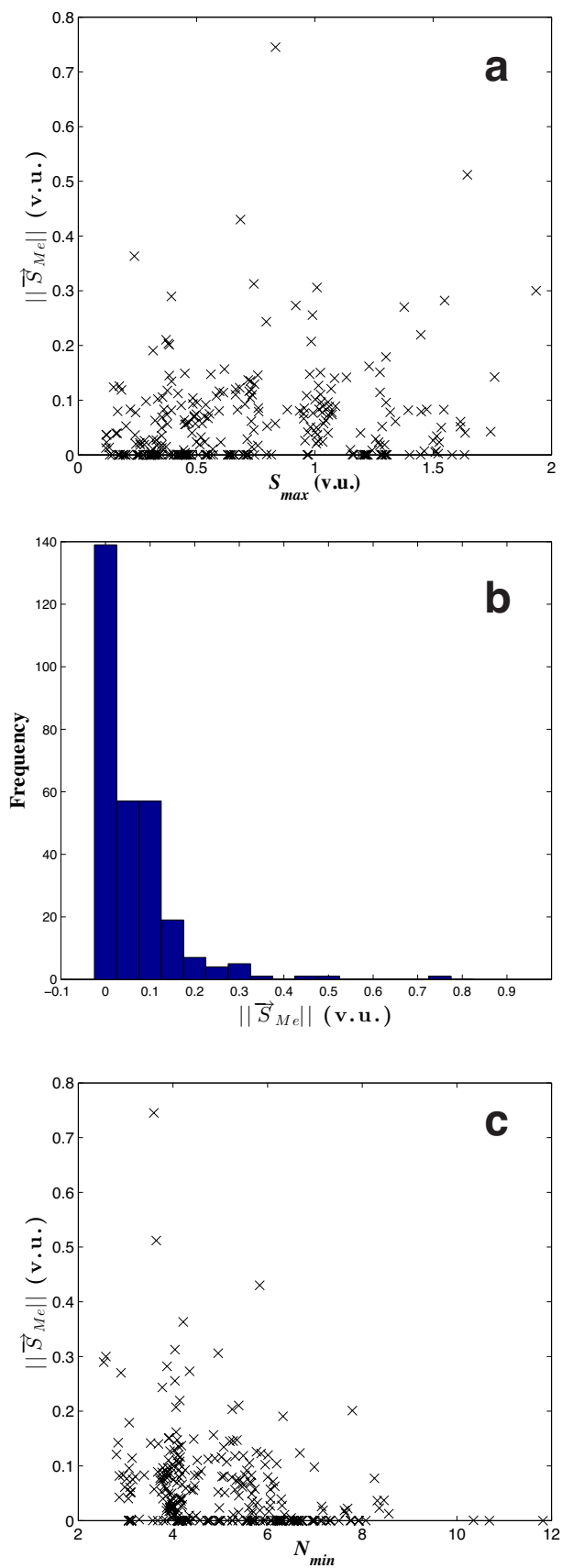
722

723 **Figure 5.** $\|\vec{\mathbf{S}}_{Me}\|$ vs. a) s_{max} and b) N_{min} , for cations subject to SOJT effects. Values for
724 cations with a lone pair (see Fig. 4) are plotted for comparison.

725

726 **Figure 6.** $\|\vec{\mathbf{S}}_{Me}\|$ vs. a) s_{max} and b) N_{min} , for cations with a lone pair that are paired with
727 cations subject to SOJT effects. Values for other cations with a lone pair (see Fig. 4) and
728 those for cations subject to SOJT effects (see Fig. 5) are plotted for comparison.

Figure 1



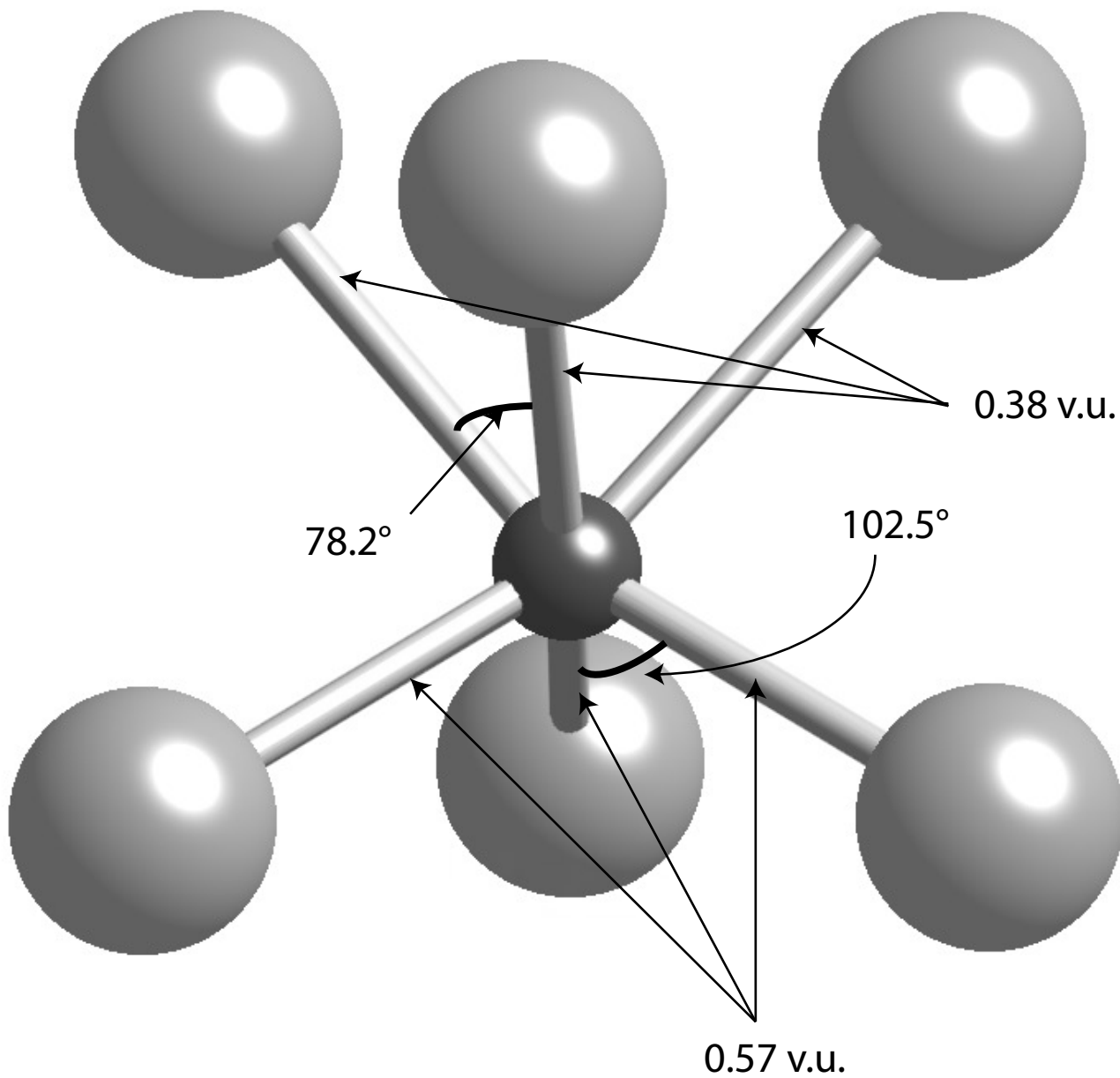


Figure 3

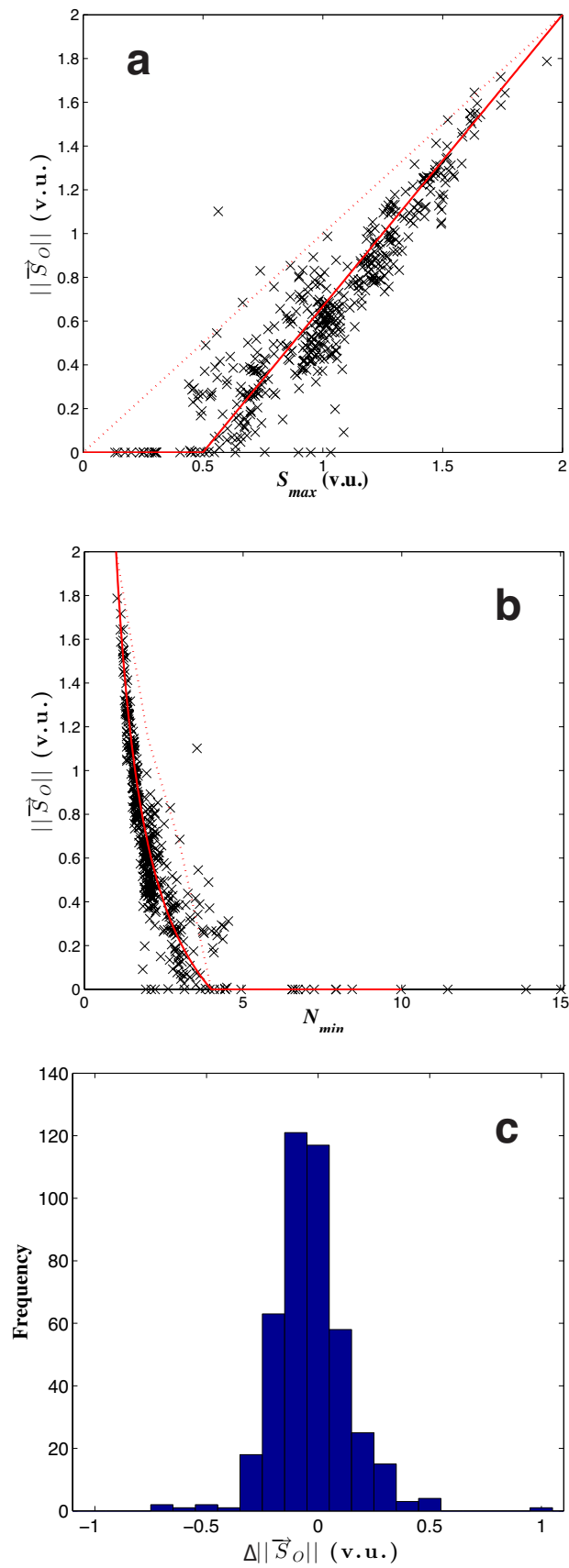


Figure 4

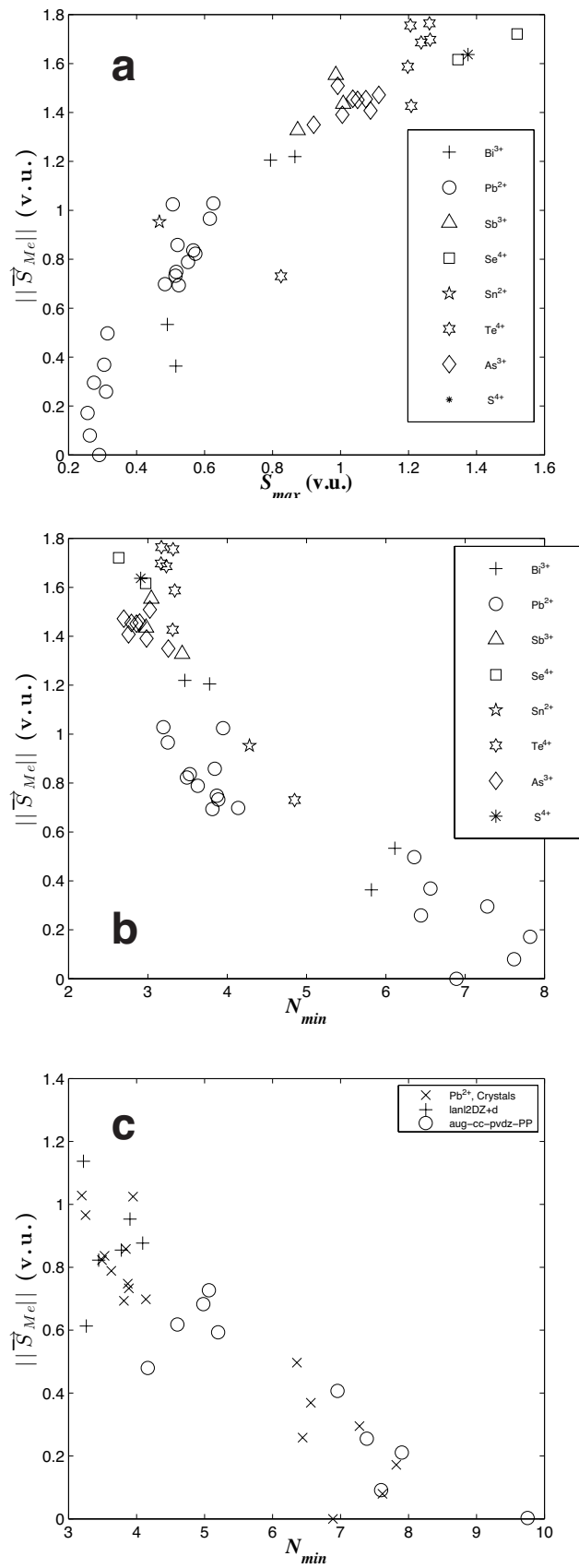


Figure 5

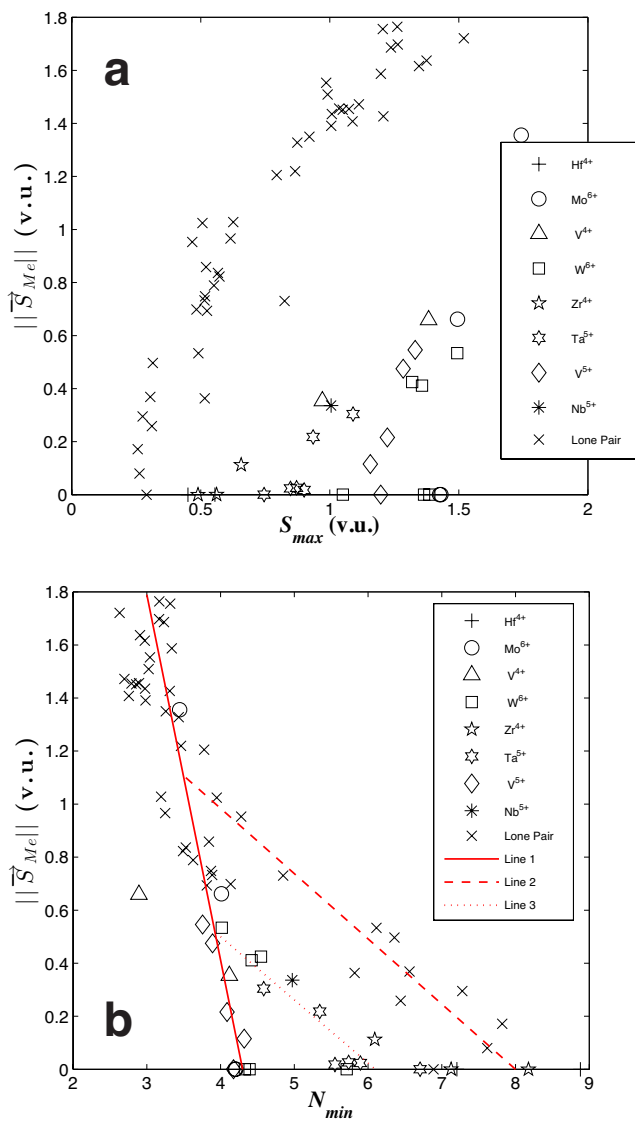


Figure 6

