

# Electron Paramagnetic Resonance (EPR) Spectroscopy

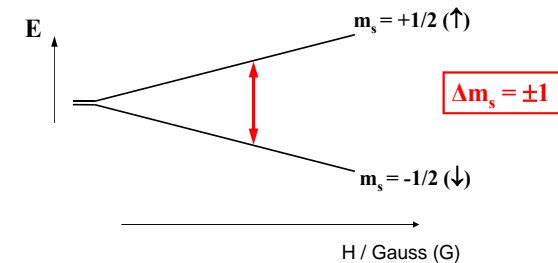
(a.k.a. ESR, EMR)

## Lecture I. Basic principles of EPR spectroscopy

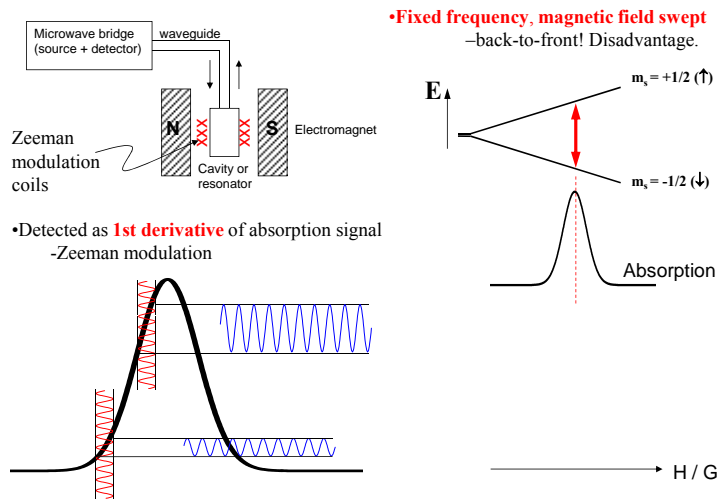
Eric McInnes & David Collison, EPSRC UK National EPR Facility & Service Photon Science Institute, The University of Manchester  
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## EPR Spectroscopy

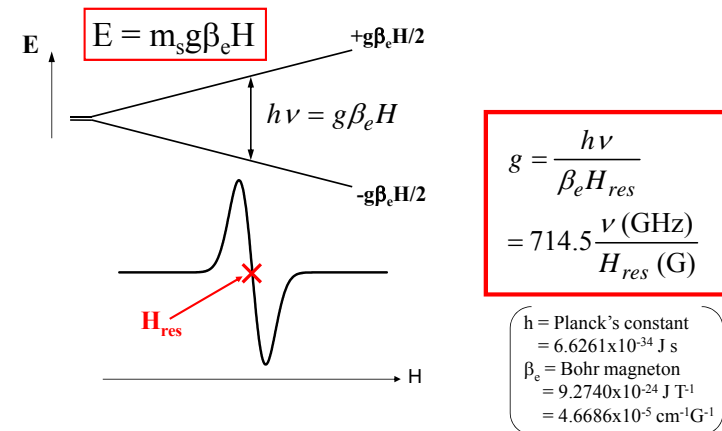
- The electron spin equivalent of NMR
- Requires **unpaired electrons** ( $S \geq 1/2$ )
- Information on the **environment of the unpaired electron** → electronic structure, geometric structure, physical properties, reactivity, dynamics, etc.
- EPR transition = **flipping the electron spin**. E.g. for  $S = 1/2$ ...



## Basics of the experiment



## The resonance condition



## Frequency vs. Field

- Microwaves appropriate for convenient lab magnets
- Can use different fixed frequencies.
- Advantages to both up- and down-frequency/field

Frequency band	$\nu$ / GHz	$H_{res}$ / G for $g_e$
S	4.0	~1400
X (most common)	9.0	~3200
Q	34	~12000
W	94	~33000

Electromagnets

← Supercon magnet

↑  
Microwave frequencies

## Electron Paramagnetic Resonance (EPR) Spectroscopy

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### Lecture II. Isotropic (fluid solution) spectra

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## The g-value

•**Free electron:**  $g_e = 2.002319...$  a fundamental constant, related to the magnetic moment of the electron due to its **spin** (ang. mom.).  
[Nb: gyromagnetic ratio  $\gamma_e = g_e\beta_e/h$ ; magn. mom.,  $\mu_e = -g_e\beta_e\sqrt{S(S+1)}$ ]

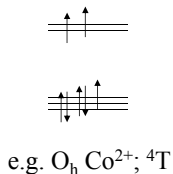
•In real materials, **measured  $g \neq g_e$** .

$g \propto 1/H_{res} \Rightarrow$  **higher  $g$  at lower field.**

• ...because of **orbital angular momentum** contribution to the magnetic moment.

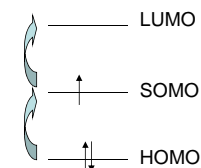
• Can be:

(i) Ground state (T or E terms)  $\rightarrow$  large orbital moment; need to treat spin-orbit split states. Complicated, and won't consider further here.



## The g-shift

(ii) Mixing with **excited states** via **spin-orbit coupling (SOC)**  $\rightarrow$  small orbital moment  $\propto 1/\Delta E$ .  
 $g \sim g_e$  for orbital singlets (A or B terms).  
Normal range  $3 > g > 1$ .



Often discussed as the *g-shift*:

$$g = g_e - \frac{a^2 n \lambda}{\Delta E}$$

$$\Delta g = g - g_e$$

$\lambda$  = SOC constant - larger for heavier elements.  
 $a^2 (\leq 1)$  = covalency parameter  
 $n$  = quantum mechanical coefficient

## Trends in g-shift

$$g = g_e - \frac{a^2 n \lambda}{\Delta E}$$

Consequently:

- (i) Organic free-radicals: usually large  $\Delta E$  (colourless), small  $\lambda$ . hydrocarbon radicals  $\rightarrow g \approx 2.002-2.003$   
N/O-based radicals  $g \approx 2.003-2.006$   
S-based radicals  $g \approx 2.007-2.010$

(ii) transition metal ions: small  $\Delta E$  (coloured; crystal field splittings), big  $\lambda \rightarrow g$  significantly different from  $g_e$ .

(iii)  $g$  can be  $<$  or  $>$   $g_e$ .

Coupling with filled orbital  $\rightarrow$  +ve contribution to  $\Delta g$ .  
Coupling with empty orbital  $\rightarrow$  -ve contribution to  $\Delta g$ .

e.g.  $\{V^{IV}O\}^{2+}$ ,  $d^1$  typical  $g \approx 1.9$   
e.g.  $Cu^{2+}$ ,  $d^9$  typical  $g \approx 2.1$

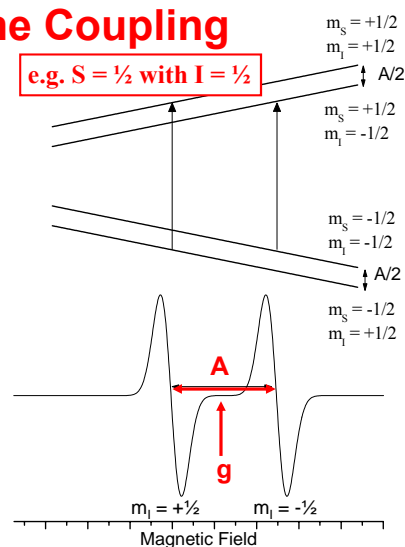
## Hyperfine Coupling

- If electron spin interacts with nuclear spin (**I**)  $\rightarrow$  **hyperfine structure**, with coupling constant  $A$  (or  $a$ ).

- Analogous to nuclear spin-nuclear spin ( $J$ ) coupling in NMR.

- **2<sup>nd</sup> selection rule:  $\Delta m_I = 0$**

- Each transition corresponds to a given value of  $m_I$   
 $\rightarrow 2I+1$  transitions.



## Coupling Patterns

- Coupling to **n equivalent spin I nuclei**  $\rightarrow 2nI+1$  multiplet.
- Relative intensities from **triangles** or **stick spectra** (as for NMR).

- E.g. for coupling to n equivalent  $I = 1/2$  nuclei... Pascal's triangle

"add up  $2I + 1$  numbers to obtain the next row"

n	#	$\Sigma$
1	0 1 0	2
2	0 1 2 1 0	3 4
3	1 3 3 1	4 8
4	1 4 6 4 1	5 16
5	1 5 10 10 5 1	6 32
6	1 6 15 20 15 6 1	7 64
7	1 7 21 35 35 21 7 1	8 128
8	1 8 28 56 70 56 28 8 1	9 256

## Triangles for $I > 1/2$ nuclei

$n \times (I = 1)$ : add up  $2I + 1 = 3$  numbers

n	#	$\Sigma$
1	0 0 1 1 0 0	3 3
2	0 0 1 2 3 2 1 0 0	5 9
3	1 3 6 7 6 3 1	7 27
4	1 4 10 16 19 16 10 4 1	9 81
5	1 5 15 30 45 51 45 30 15 5 1	11 243
6	1 6 21 50 90 126 141 126 90 50 21 6 1	13 729

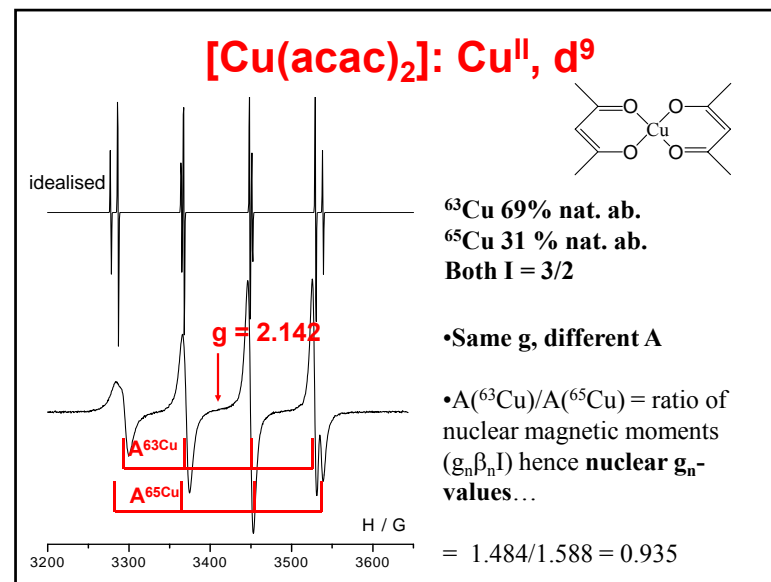
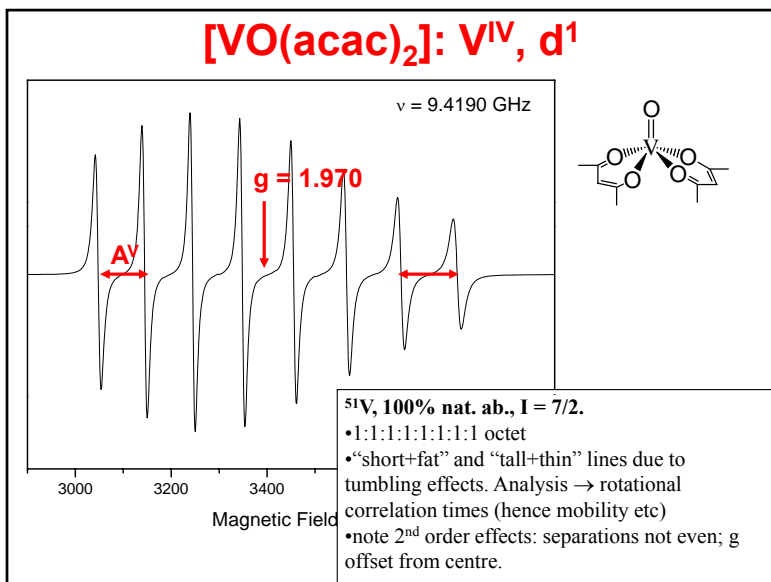
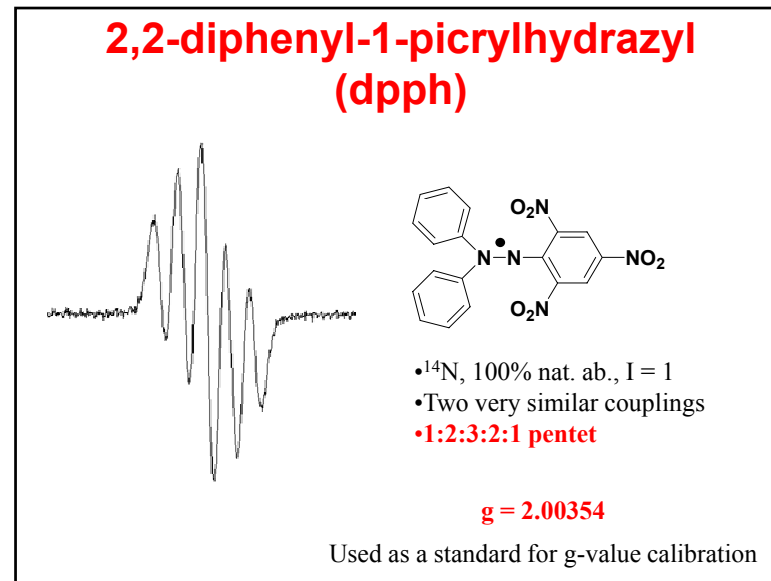
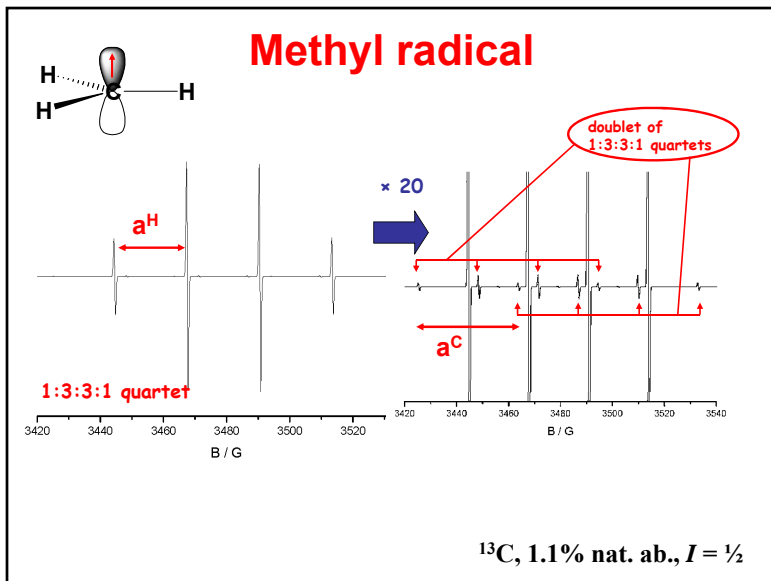
$n \times (I = 3/2)$ : add up  $2I + 1 = 4$  numbers

n	#	$\Sigma$
1	0 0 0 1 1 0 0 0	4 4
2	0 0 0 1 2 3 1 0 0 0	7 16
3	1 3 6 10 12 12 10 6 3 1	10 64
4	1 4 10 20 31 40 44 40 31 20 10 4 1	13 256

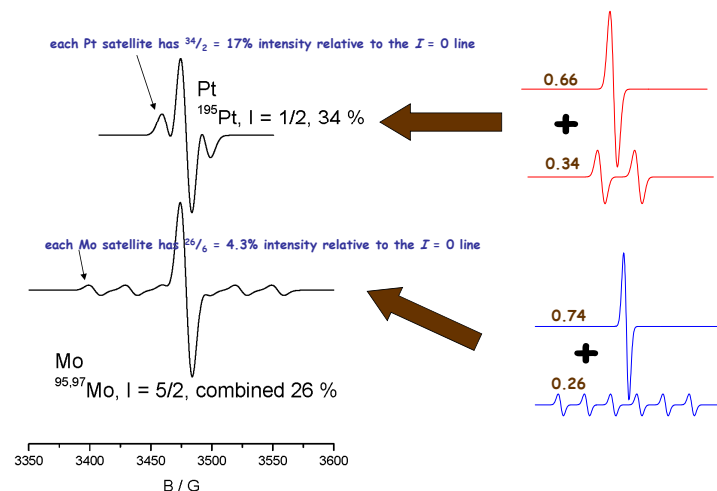
$n \times (I = 5/2)$ : add up  $2I + 1 = 6$  numbers

n	#	$\Sigma$
1	0 0 0 0 0 1 1 0 0 0 0	6 6
2	1 2 5 10 15 21 25 21 15 10 5 2 1	11 36
3	1 3 6 10 15 21 27 27 21 15 10 6 3 1	16 216

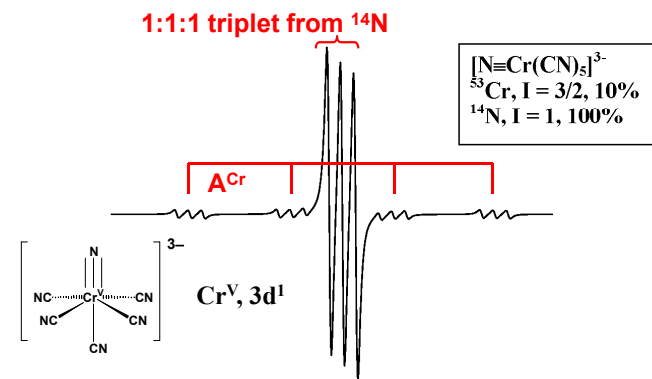
Can observe coupling to quadrupolar nuclei, even if in low symmetry



## Other poly-isotopic examples



## “Superhyperfine” = ligand hyperfine



- Unpaired electron must be partly delocalized out to  $^{14}\text{N}$  nucleus.
- Superhyperfine coupling is direct evidence for **covalency** in coordination compounds.

## Electron Paramagnetic Resonance (EPR) Spectroscopy

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### Lecture III. Meaning of hyperfine interaction

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## Units for hyperfine coupling

- Measured in field units, but coupling constant is an interaction energy
- Need to convert to energy (or equivalent) units...

$g_{\text{iso}} = 2.00$

$A_{\text{iso}} = 100 \text{ Gauss}$

From:  $\Delta E = h\nu = g\beta_e H_{\text{res}}$

$A(\text{cm}^{-1}) = g \times \beta_e \times A(\text{G})$

$= 2.00 \times 4.66858 \times 10^{-5} \times 100$

$= 93.4 \times 10^{-4} \text{ cm}^{-1}$

$A(\text{MHz}) = g \times A(\text{G}) / 0.7145$

$= 2.00 \times 100 / 0.7145$

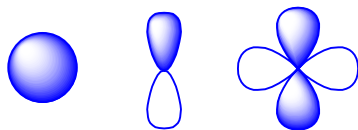
$= 279.9 \text{ MHz}$

Conversion from field to energy units depends on the  $g$ -value

## Hyperfine (e-n) Mechanisms

• **Dipolar** (through space): Depends on e-n distance and orientation w.r.t. applied field.

$A_{\text{dip}} \propto 3\cos^2\theta - 1$  - **Averages to zero in fluid solution.**

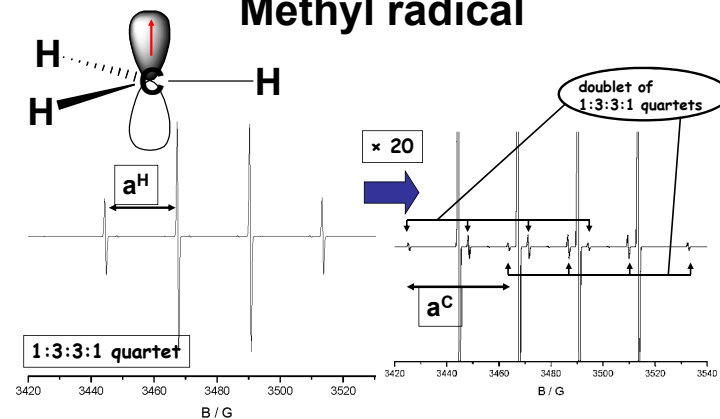


• **Spin density at the nucleus (Fermi contact):** Direct contribution only possible if upe is (at least partly) in an **s-orbital** (p,d,f orbitals have **nodes** at the nucleus).

• **Spin-orbit coupling** [ $\propto \Delta g$ ]: important for d-block

⇒ Should **only see s-electron density in solution**, but...

## Methyl radical

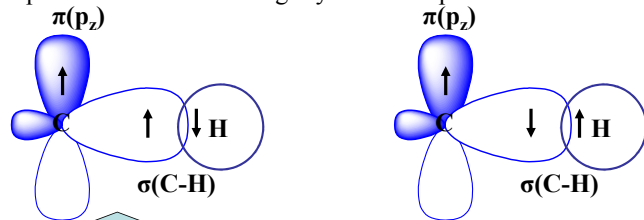


**Often see solution hyperfine where symmetry should preclude it!**

## Spin Polarisation

• Unpaired electron interacts differently with the  $\uparrow$  and  $\downarrow$  electrons in a filled orbital

• → the paired electrons have slightly different spatial distributions.



• Slightly favoured by spin correlation (cf. Hund's rule)

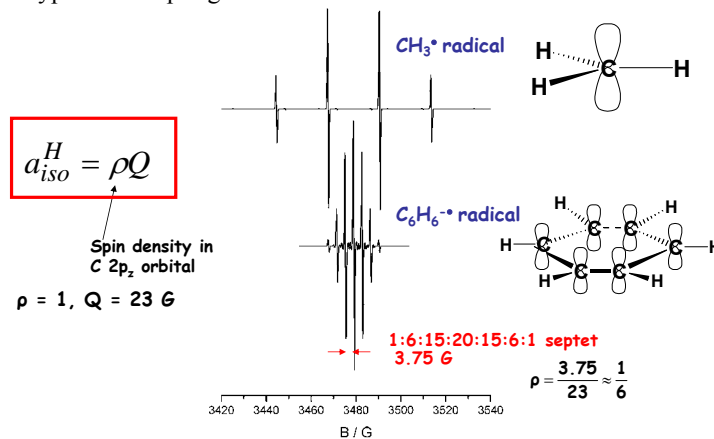
• "excess" spin up at C; spin down at H – including nucleus.

• Or, configuration interaction between  $p_z^1\sigma^2$  with excited states

• Similar arguments for observation of  $^{13}\text{C}$  splitting or, e.g., metal hyperfine in d-block complexes

## McConnell analysis

Calculation of spin population of  $2p_z$  orbital in  $\pi$ -radical from hyperfine coupling to bound H



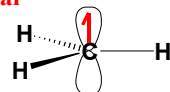
## Structural information from hyperfine

- Radical identification
- Geometric structure can be inferred, e.g. ...

$$\alpha^2 = \frac{38}{1347} = 0.028$$

$$A^C = 38 \text{ G}$$

$\text{CH}_3^\bullet$  radical

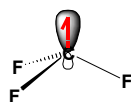


Hyperfine for unit population of  $^{13}\text{C}$  2s orbital = 1347 G (from theory)

$$A^C = 272 \text{ G}$$

$$\alpha^2 = \frac{272}{1347} \approx 0.2$$

$\text{CF}_3^\bullet$  radical



## Electron Paramagnetic Resonance (EPR) Spectroscopy

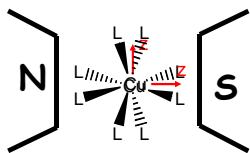
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### Lecture IV. What happens when we immobilise the sample?

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## Sample phase and orientation

- in **fluid solution** molecules tumbling rapidly (mostly) on timescale of experiment.
- Magnetic field “sees” **average orientation** of the molecule.  
→ “isotropic” spectrum.
- ...but molecules are not, in general, isotropic. They look different from different orientations.
- As with ALL spectroscopies, spectrum depends on the orientation of the molecule (e.g. polarisation of optical transitions). EPR easy to measure on powders, single crystals, frozen solutions etc.

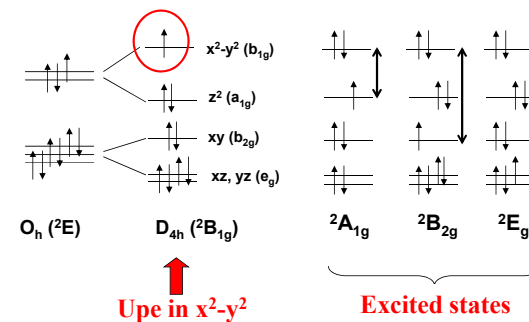


- e.g. sq. planar  $\text{Cu}^{\text{II}}$  ( $D_{4h}$ )
- $g$  and  $A$  will depend on orientation of molecule (can define by  $C_4$ ) w.r.t. H.

## $g$ anisotropy

- Remember  $g \neq g_c$  due to excited state orb. ang. mom. via SOC.
- **Different excited states** contribute to magnetic moment (hence  $g$ ) in different orientations. Easiest to see by example.

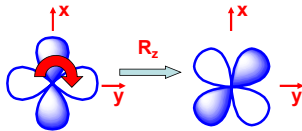
- Consider a square planar  $\text{Cu}(\text{II})$  complex,  $D_{4h}$  symmetry.



## Hand-wavey approach

• Non-zero orbital ang. mom. if orbitals can be transformed by rotation about an axis. E.g...

(i)  $x^2-y^2$  transforms to  $xy$  via  $R_z$



• ∴ contribution to magn. moment along z from  $xy$  excited state  
• and contribution to  $g$  measured with  $H$  parallel to  $z$  - “ $g_z$ ”

$$g_z = g_e - \frac{a^2 n \lambda}{E_{x^2-y^2} - E_{xy}}$$

## ...or from group theory

$D_{4h}$	E	$2C_4(z)$	$C_2$	$2C_2'$	$2C_2''$	i	$2S_4$	$\sigma_h$	$2\sigma_v$	$2\sigma_d$		
$A_{1g}$	+1	+1	+1	+1	+1	+1	+1	+1	+1	+1	-	$x^2+y^2, z^2$
$A_{2g}$	+1	+1	+1	-1	-1	+1	+1	+1	-1	-1	$R_z$	-
$B_{1g}$	+1	-1	+1	+1	+1	+1	-1	+1	+1	-1	-	$x^2-y^2$
$B_{2g}$	+1	-1	+1	-1	-1	+1	-1	+1	-1	+1	-	$xy$
$E_g$	+2	0	-2	0	0	+2	0	-2	0	0	$(R_x, R_y)$	$(xz, yz)$
$A_{1u}$	+1	+1	+1	+1	+1	-1	-1	-1	-1	-1	-	-
$A_{2u}$	+1	+1	+1	-1	-1	-1	-1	-1	+1	+1	$z$	-
$B_{1u}$	+1	-1	+1	+1	-1	-1	+1	-1	-1	+1	-	-
$B_{2u}$	+1	-1	+1	-1	-1	-1	+1	-1	+1	-1	-	-
$E_u$	+2	0	-2	0	0	-2	0	+2	0	0	$(x, y)$	-

• Orb. ang. mom. along z, x or y axes has rotational vector symmetry rep.,  $R_i$  (think about “orbiting about that axis”).  
• Multiply symmetry rep. of ground state by  $R_i$ .

$$B_{1g}(x^2-y^2) \cdot A_{2g}(R_z) = B_{2g}$$

∴ SOC along z mixes  $B_{1g}$  ground state with  $B_{2g}$  excited state ( $xy$ )

## ...or from group theory

$D_{4h}$	E	$2C_4(z)$	$C_2$	$2C_2'$	$2C_2''$	i	$2S_4$	$\sigma_h$	$2\sigma_v$	$2\sigma_d$		
$A_{1g}$	+1	+1	+1	+1	+1	+1	+1	+1	+1	+1	-	$x^2+y^2, z^2$
$A_{2g}$	+1	+1	+1	-1	-1	+1	+1	+1	-1	-1	$R_z$	-
$B_{1g}$	+1	-1	+1	+1	+1	+1	-1	+1	+1	-1	-	$x^2-y^2$
$B_{2g}$	+1	-1	+1	-1	-1	+1	-1	+1	-1	+1	-	$xy$
$E_g$	+2	0	-2	0	0	+2	0	-2	0	0	$(R_x, R_y)$	$(xz, yz)$
$A_{1u}$	+1	+1	+1	+1	+1	-1	-1	-1	-1	-1	-	-
$A_{2u}$	+1	+1	+1	-1	-1	-1	-1	-1	+1	+1	$z$	-
$B_{1u}$	+1	-1	+1	+1	-1	-1	+1	-1	-1	+1	-	-
$B_{2u}$	+1	-1	+1	-1	-1	-1	+1	-1	+1	-1	-	-
$E_u$	+2	0	-2	0	0	-2	0	+2	0	0	$(x, y)$	-

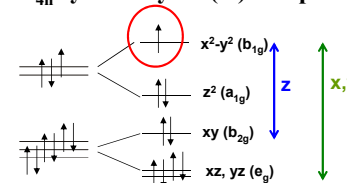
• SOC along  $x(y)$ ...

$$B_{1g}(x^2-y^2) \cdot E_g(R_{x,y}) = E_g$$

∴ SOC along  $x(y)$  mixes  $B_{1g}$  ground state with  $E_g(xz, yz)$

## Result...

•  $D_{4h}$  symmetry  $Cu(II)$  complex.



$O_h$  ( ${}^2E$ )

$D_{4h}$  ( ${}^2B_{1g}$ )

$$g_z = g_e - \frac{a^2 n \lambda}{E_{x^2-y^2} - E_{xy}}$$

$$g_x = g_y = g_e - \frac{a^2 n \lambda}{E_{x^2-y^2} - E_{xz, yz}}$$

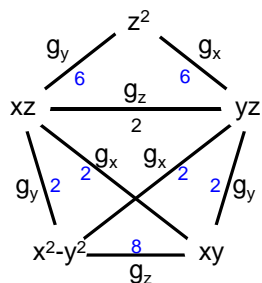
- $g$ -values are anisotropic
- Can predict that  $g_z > g_x = g_y (> g_e)$
- Exercise:  $z^2$  ground state for  $d^9$  (e.g. Jahn-Teller compressed  $Cu^{II}$ ).
- Should find  $g_x = g_y > g_z (= g_e)$

**Pattern of  $g$ -values tells you about the orbital in which the unpaired electron is located.**



## The magic pentagon

- Contributions to g-values summarised in...



$$g = g_e - \frac{a^2 n \lambda}{\Delta E}$$

- Start at a vertex for a given ground state
- Links give contributions to  $g_i$ -values
- Coefficients  $n$  also given

## How does this affect spectra?

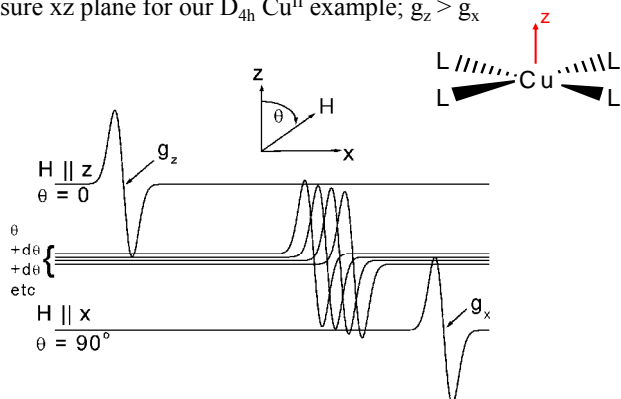
- Fluid solution:** field “sees” **AVERAGE** orientation

- Measure **average g-value**, labelled  $g_{iso}$

$$g_{iso} = \frac{g_x + g_y + g_z}{3}$$

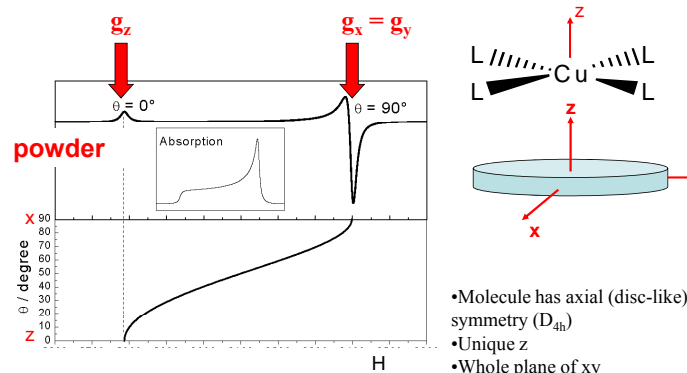
## Single orientation spectra (e.g. single crystal)

- Each spectrum looks “isotropic”
- e.g. measure xz plane for our  $D_{4h}$   $Cu^{II}$  example;  $g_z > g_x$



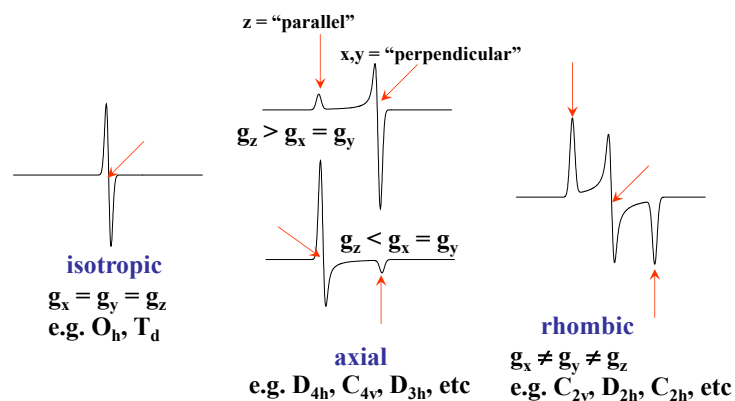
- If we **sum** these, the “in-between” orientations cancel out

## Powder spectra and “road maps”



- Powder spectrum is the SUM over ALL orientations**
- Features observed at turning points in road map
- Different shapes and intensities due to summation

## Powder spectra and symmetry



Arrows denote positions used to measure  $g$ -values

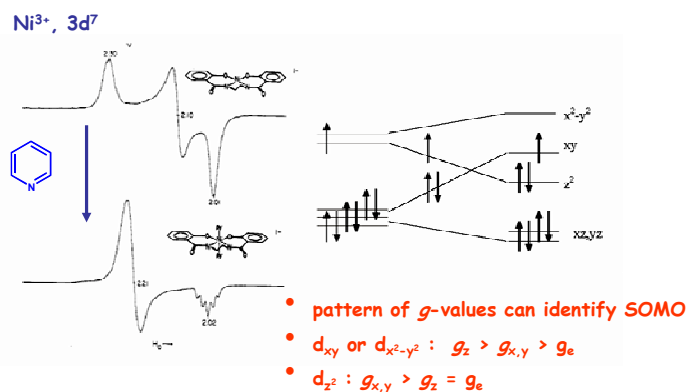
## Electron Paramagnetic Resonance (EPR) Spectroscopy

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### Lecture V. Information about electronic structure

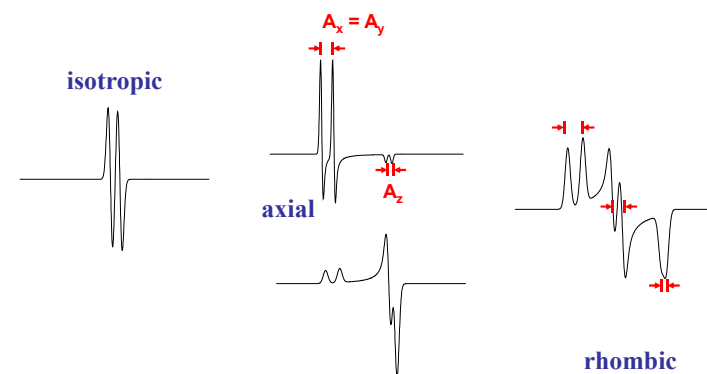
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## Information from $g$ -values



Krüger and Holm, *Inorg. Chem.*, 1987, **26**, 3645.

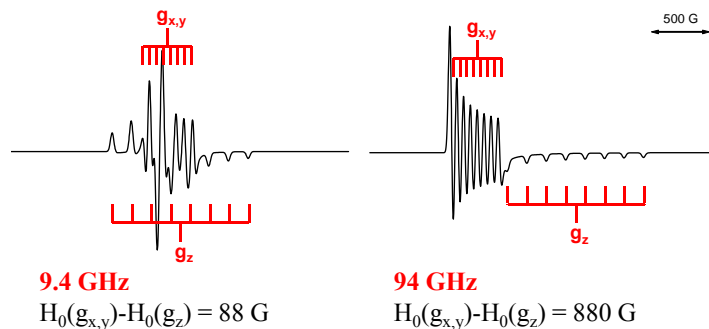
## Powder spectra with hyperfine: $I = 1/2$



- Each  $g$ -feature is split by hyperfine.
- Hyperfine coupling is also anisotropic, determined by symmetry.

## Powder spectra: A vs. g-anisotropy

- If  $A >$  separation between  $g$  in field units, then “parallel” and “perp” regions will overlap. Very common.
- E.g. typical  $\{VO\}^{2+}$ :  $g_z = 1.93$ ,  $g_{x,y} = 1.98$ ,  $A_z = 170$  G,  $A_{x,y} = 60$  G



## More on hyperfine

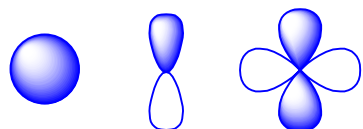
- **Fluid solution:** field “sees” **AVERAGE** orientation
- Measure **average A-value**, labelled  $A_{iso}$

$$A_{iso} = \frac{A_x + A_y + A_z}{3}$$

In energy ( $cm^{-1}$ ) or frequency units (MHz)  
 – **NOT** field units.

- $A_{iso}$ ,  $A_x$ ,  $A_y$  and  $A_z$  can be either sign. No **direct** information in spectrum, BUT...
- Can get **relative signs** from averaging to  $A_{iso}$ .
- Can also use  $A_{iso}$  to determine unresolved anisotropic component.

## Hyperfine Anisotropy



### Remember:

- Spin density at nucleus:  $A_s$
  - SOC [=  $P\Delta g_{iso}$ ]
- $\left. \vphantom{\begin{matrix} A_s \\ P\Delta g_{iso} \end{matrix}} \right\} A_{iso}$

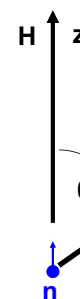
- **Dipolar**,  $A_{dip}$ : Depends on e-n distance and orientation w.r.t. applied field.

• In solid state, observe **SUM** of the isotropic and dipolar part.

$$A = A_{iso} + A_{dip}$$

## Dipolar part of hyperfine

$$A_{dip} \propto \mu_{ez} \mu_{nz} \frac{(3\cos^2\theta - 1)}{r^3}$$



$$\begin{aligned} \theta = 0^\circ & \quad 3\cos^2\theta = +2 \\ \theta = 90^\circ & \quad 3\cos^2\theta = -1 \end{aligned}$$

Any dipolar interaction has form  
 $+2a, -a, -a$

## Electron in a $p_z$ -orbital

Angular factor from form of wavefunction

Hyperfine observed for unit population of a p-orbital for that isotope. Calcd from theory.<sup>1</sup>

Exptly observed hyperfines

$$\begin{cases} A_z = A_{iso} + \frac{4}{5} a^2 P_p \\ A_{x(y)} = A_{iso} - \frac{2}{5} a^2 P_p \end{cases}$$

Covalency,  $a^2 \leq 1$ .  
 $a$  = MO coefficient of  $p_z$  in SOMO.

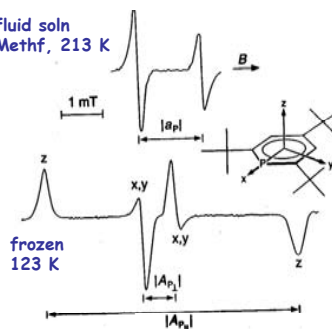
$$A_z - A_{x(y)} = \frac{6}{5} a^2 P_p$$

Anisotropic hyperfine  $\rightarrow$  composition of molecular orbitals!

1. J.R. Morton and K.F. Preston, *J. Mag. Reson.* 1978, **30**, 577;  
P.H. Rieger, *J. Magn. Reson.* 1997, **124**, 140.

## Determining spin density distribution

fluid soln  
Methf, 213 K



$$A_{iso}(P) = \pm 28 \text{ G} \rightarrow \pm 26 \times 10^{-4} \text{ cm}^{-1}$$

$$\begin{aligned} A_z(P) &= \pm 118 \text{ G} \rightarrow \pm 110 \times 10^{-4} \text{ cm}^{-1} \\ A_{x,y}(P) &= \mp 15 \text{ G} \rightarrow \mp 14 \times 10^{-4} \text{ cm}^{-1} \end{aligned}$$

- $A_{iso} = (A_x + A_y + A_z)/3 \Rightarrow A_{x,y}$  and  $A_z$  must be opposite sign.
- Assume  $A_z$  -ve  $\rightarrow$  -ve  $a^2$ . Not physically meaningful.
- $A_z$  +ve  $\rightarrow a^2 = 0.45$ , i.e. 45% of spin density in  $P_{3p_z}$ .

$$P_p = +306 \times 10^{-4} \text{ cm}^{-1} \text{ for } ^{31}\text{P} \text{ (100\% nat. ab., } I = 1/2)$$

## Electron in a $d_{xy/x^2-y^2}$ orbital

Hyperfine for unit population of a d-orbital.

Different angular factor for d-orbitals

SOC (excited state) contribution.  
Convenient to cast in terms of g-shifts, because these can be measured.

$$A_z = A_{iso} + P_d \left[ -\frac{4}{7} a^2 + \frac{2}{3} \Delta g_z - \frac{5}{21} \Delta g_{x,y} \right]$$

$$A_{x,y} = A_{iso} + P_d \left[ +\frac{2}{7} a^2 - \frac{1}{3} \Delta g_z + \frac{5}{42} \Delta g_{x,y} \right]$$

Solve for  $a^2$ : spin density in d

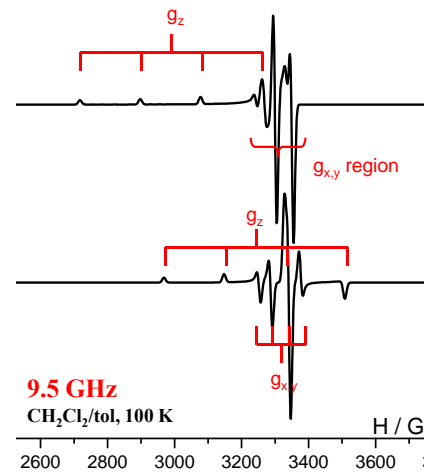
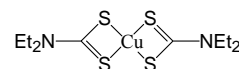
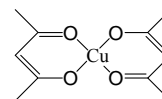
$$A_z - A_{x,y} = P_d \left[ -\frac{6}{7} a^2 + \Delta g_z - \frac{5}{14} \Delta g_{x,y} \right]$$

## Electron in a $d_{z^2}$ orbital

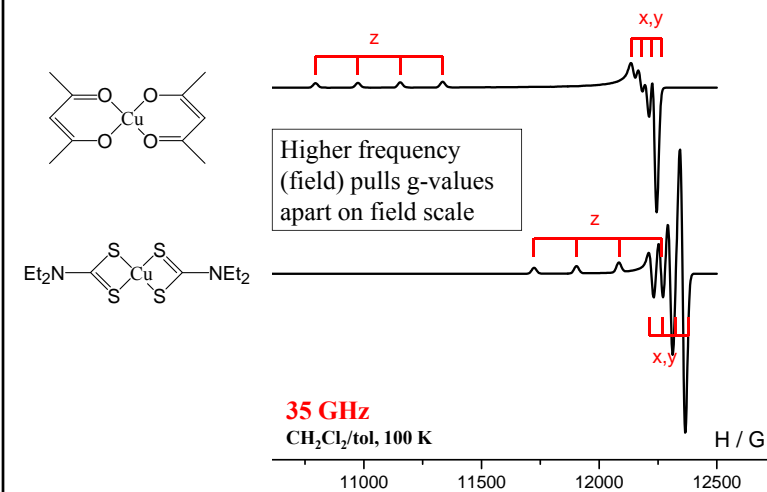
$$A_z = A_{iso} + P_d \left[ +\frac{4}{7} a^2 - \frac{1}{3} \Delta g_z - \frac{17}{21} \Delta g_{x,y} \right]$$

$$A_{x,y} = A_{iso} + P_d \left[ -\frac{2}{7} a^2 - \frac{1}{3} \Delta g_z + \frac{17}{42} \Delta g_{x,y} \right]$$

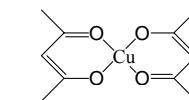
## Example: covalency in $\text{Cu}^{\text{II}}$ complexes



## Example: covalency in Cu<sup>II</sup> complexes



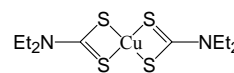
## Example: covalency in Cu<sup>II</sup> complexes



$$A_{\text{iso}} = 76 \times 10^{-4} \text{ cm}^{-1}$$

$$g_z = 2.260, g_{x,y} = 2.050$$

$$A_z = 189 \times 10^{-4} \text{ cm}^{-1}, A_{x,y} = 20 \times 10^{-4} \text{ cm}^{-1}$$



$$A_{\text{iso}} = 75 \times 10^{-4} \text{ cm}^{-1}$$

$$g_z = 2.085, g_{x,y} = 2.035$$

$$A_z = 175 \times 10^{-4} \text{ cm}^{-1}, A_{x,y} = 38 \times 10^{-4} \text{ cm}^{-1}$$

•  $A_{\text{iso}}, A_z$  and  $A_{x,y}$  all same sign (-ve)

• CFT predicts  $x^2-y^2$  ground state

•  $\rightarrow a^2 = 0.77$  for O-donor complex

•  $\rightarrow a^2 = 0.48$  for S-donor complex

• Spin much more delocalised (i.e. greater covalency) for S-donor

$$A_z - A_{x,y} = P_d \left[ -\frac{6}{7} a^2 + \Delta g_z - \frac{5}{14} \Delta g_{x,y} \right]$$