

Reciprocal Hydrogen Bonding–Aromaticity Relationships

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S Supporting Information

ABSTRACT: Computed association energies and dissected nucleus-independent chemical shifts (NICS) document the mutual enhancement (or reduction) of intermolecular interactions and the aromaticity of H-bonded substrates. H-bonding interactions that increase cyclic $4n + 2$ π -electron delocalization boost aromaticity. Conversely, such interactions are weakened when aromaticity is decreased as a result of more localized quinoidal π character. Representative examples of the tautomeric equilibria of π -conjugated heterocyclic compounds in protic solvents and other H-bonding environments also illustrate such H-bonding/aromaticity interplay.

This communication elucidates the mutual reinforcement (or weakening) of “H-bonding interactions” and the “aromatic character” of representative systems through π -electron polarization effects. Such relationships are based on changes in the aromatic character (i.e., the degree of cyclic π -electron delocalization) of π -conjugated heterocycles. Thus, H-bonding interactions that increase cyclic $4n + 2$ π -electron delocalization simultaneously enhance both the aromaticity^{1,2} of H-bonded substrates and their association energy (Figure 1a).

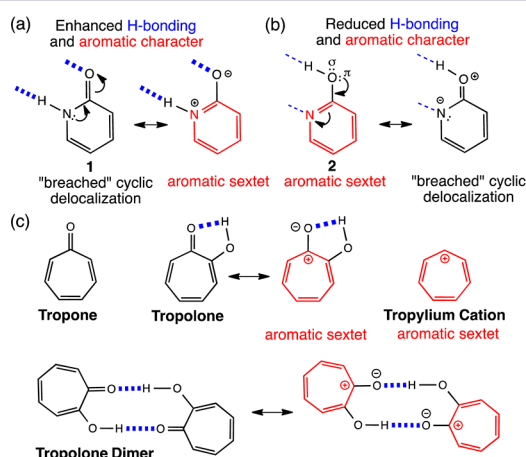


Figure 1. Mutually enhanced (a) and reduced (b) H-bonding interactions and π -aromatic character in H-bonded 2-pyridone (1) and 2-hydroxypyridine (2), respectively. (c) Tropone, tropolone, the tropylium cation, and the tropolone dimer (note the aromatic resonance contributors). Thick dotted lines (in blue) indicate strong H-bonding interactions; thin dashed lines indicate weak H-bonding interactions. “Aromatic sextets” are highlighted in red.

Conversely, H-bonding that results in greater π -electron localization decreases both the aromaticity and association energy (Figure 1b). The ca. 2–4 kcal/mol enhancement or reduction effects per H-bond are substantial; they correspond to changes of 20–60% in the usual H-bond strengths and up to 1000-fold shifts in tautomeric equilibria!

Dewar’s 1945 seminal proposals of non-benzenoid aromaticity in stipitatic acid³ and its parent analogue tropolone⁴ (2-hydroxytropone; Figure 1c) were based on his recognition of H-bond-enhanced π aromatization. While the cyclic six- π -electron character of cycloheptatrienone (tropone; Figure 1c) due to the polarization of its exocyclic carbonyl group is quite modest,⁵ the aromaticity of tropolone is conspicuous.⁶ Intramolecular H-bonding of the exocyclic O–H and C=O groups enhances the aromaticity of the tropolone seven-membered ring. Consequently, tropolone is more aromatic than tropone because of the enhanced cyclic six- π -electron delocalization induced by the O–H \cdots O=C hydrogen bond: the resulting dipolar resonance contributor of tropolone resembles the aromatic tropylium cation⁷ more closely (Figure 1c).

In 2,5-dihydroxytropone, the infrared stretching frequency of the H-bonded 2-OH (3170 cm^{-1}) is strongly shifted relative to that of the “free” 5-OH (3660 cm^{-1}) as a result of the strong intramolecular O–H \cdots O=C bonding,^{8,9} which enhances the π delocalization. The pronounced ring bond-length equalization of tropolone dimers (Figure 1c) in the solid state^{9,10} further illustrates the H-bonding/aromaticity coupling effect.

Other examples of H-bond-induced aromatization^{11–29} and the effects of intramolecular H-bonding and aromaticity on the tautomeric equilibria of heterocycles have been noted,^{11–19} but we emphasize here the general importance of this relationship for intermolecular H-bonding interactions. Satsyuk et al. found that intermolecular H-bonding interactions²⁰ and metal complexation²¹ influenced π -electron delocalization in the tautomeric forms of purines. Maksić and co-workers ascribed the high proton affinity of several organic superbases to ring π aromatization.^{22–24} Quiñonero and co-workers attributed the superior catalytic H-bond-donor ability of squaramide over urea to the increased aromaticity of the four-membered ring.^{25,26} Krygowski and co-workers pointed out that the aromaticity of the purines and pyrimidines constituting DNA and RNA is “sensitive to much weaker perturbations, such as those caused by H-bonding.”²⁷ The effect of intermolecular H-bonding interactions on the geometries of aniline, anilinium, anilide,

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pyridine, and pyridinium derivatives also have been examined.^{28,29}

We now present a proof-of-concept for intermolecular H-bonding/aromaticity coupling by emphasizing the remarkable geometric,³⁰ energetic, and magnetic consequences of this synergistic relationship. H-bonding interaction energies were computed at the PBE0/6-311++G(3df,3pd) level^{31,32} without zero-point energy (ZPE) corrections, employing Gaussian 03.³³ Dissected nucleus-independent chemical shifts at 1 Å above the heavy-atom ring centers, NICS(1)_{zz}^{34–36} (computed at the PW91/Def2-TZVPP level), were used to quantify *changes* in the magnetic aromaticities of the six-membered rings (see ref 37).

Remarkably, 2-pyridone (**1**) (Figure 2a) and 2-hydroxypyridine (**2**) (Figure 2c) dimers, **1**_{dimer}^{38–40} and **2**_{dimer}, display

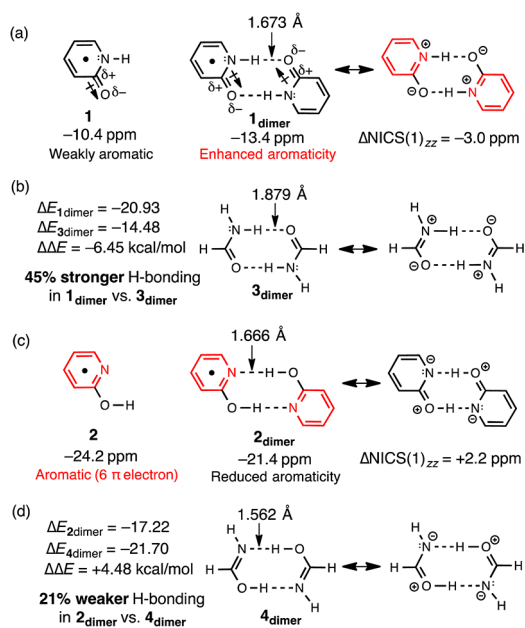


Figure 2. Computed NICS(1)_{zz} (PW91/Def2-TZVPP) and dimerization energies [ΔE_{dimer} in kcal/mol; PBE0/6-311++G(3df/3pd), no ZPE] for (a) **1**_{dimer} (H-bond-induced aromaticity enhancement), (b) **3**_{dimer}, (c) **2**_{dimer} (H-bond-induced aromaticity reduction), and (d) **4**_{dimer}.

opposite *intermolecular* H-bond-induced effects on π aromaticity. Thus, the aromaticity of **1** [NICS(1)_{zz} = -10.6 ppm], due to the polarization of its exocyclic C=O π bond toward the more electronegative O atom (Figure 2a, left), increases in **1**_{dimer} [NICS(1)_{zz} = -13.4 ppm (more negative NICS values indicate enhanced π aromaticity); Figure 2a, right] since the two N–H \cdots O=C interactions polarize the benzenoid ring π -electron clouds and enhance their aromatic sextet character (cf. the resonance structure in red at the right of Figure 2a).

As a result of this H-bonding/aromaticity coupling effect, the N–H \cdots O=C interactions in **1**_{dimer} are *stronger* than those in formamide dimer (**3**_{dimer}), where no H-bond-induced π -aromatization results. Thus, the computed dimerization energy (ΔE_{dimer}) of **1**_{dimer} (-20.9 kcal/mol) is 45% larger than that of **3**_{dimer} (-14.5 kcal/mol) (Figure 2b). In accord with its stronger H-bond strength, the intermolecular H \cdots O distances of **1**_{dimer} (1.673 Å; Figure 2a) also are noticeably shorter than those of **3**_{dimer} (1.879 Å; Figure 2b). The shortened N–CO bond (1.377 Å) and lengthened C=O bond (1.242 Å) of **1**_{dimer} (cf. **1**: N–

CO, 1.398 Å; C=O, 1.218 Å) also indicate enhanced aromatization in the six-membered rings of **1**_{dimer}.

Conversely, the computed NICS(1)_{zz} of -24.2 ppm for the six- π -electron compound **2** becomes less negative (diatropic) upon dimerization (-21.4 ppm for **2**_{dimer}; Figure 2c). The two O–H \cdots N hydrogen-bonding interactions in **2**_{dimer} reduce the aromatic sextet character of the six-membered rings (cf. the resonance structure in black in Figure 2c at the right), and are weakened relative to those in the dimer of hydroxyimino (the iminol form of formamide) (**4**_{dimer}). Hence, the computed ΔE_{dimer} for **2**_{dimer} (-17.2 kcal/mol) is decreased by 21% compared with that of **4**_{dimer} (-21.7 kcal/mol), which lacks aromatic rings (Figure 2d). The weaker binding of **2**_{dimer} compared with **1**_{dimer} is especially surprising since phenolic O–H groups generally form stronger H-bonds than amide N–H groups. The computed intermolecular N \cdots H distances of **2**_{dimer} (1.666 Å; Figure 2c) also are longer than those of **4**_{dimer} (1.562 Å; Figure 2d). Like **2**, 2-aminopyridine^{41,42} also displays energetic, magnetic, and geometric features indicative of H-bond-induced aromaticity reduction upon dimerization (for details, see the Supporting Information).

Because of the stabilization afforded by the aromatic sextet (a cyclic array of six π electrons that resists disruption),^{1,2} the energy gained by H-bond strengthening due to increased aromaticity (e.g., in **1**_{dimer}) is greater than the energy lost by weakening an H-bonding interaction by reducing aromaticity (e.g., in **2**_{dimer}). Compared with aromatic systems, antiaromatic rings are even more susceptible to H-bond-induced π polarization because of their “frustrated” π systems and propensity to relieve antiaromatic destabilization. Such relationships will be explored in a separate publication.

Intermolecular H-bonding interactions between cyclic π -conjugated keto or enol tautomers and protic solvents (or other H-bonding substrates) also perturb aromaticity and can shift tautomeric equilibria in either direction, depending on the situation. The computed PBE0/6-311++G(3df,3pd) keto–enol tautomerization energies for **2** \rightarrow **1** versus **2**^w \rightarrow **1**^w (complexes with two water molecules) and **2**^{gly} \rightarrow **1**^{gly} (complexes with the zwitterionic glycine) in the gas phase (ΔE_{T}) and in water-solvated models ($\Delta E_{\text{T(PCM)}}$) are illustrative (Figure 3). Each model solvated system, **1**^w–**4**^w, was complexed with two explicit water molecules (in their lowest-energy conformation) and in addition with bulk “aqueous solvation” as simulated by the polarizable continuum model (PCM).⁴³

Although **1** and **2** are equally stable in the gas phase (tautomerization energy ΔE_{T} = +0.02 kcal/mol favoring **1**),⁴⁴ water solvation “aromatizes” and therefore lowers the energy of the keto form **1**^w (cf. the enhanced delocalization depicted in Figure 3a, top right) but “dearomatizes” and thereby destabilizes the enol tautomer **2**^w (Figure 3a, bottom right). Thus, the computed $\Delta E_{\text{T(PCM)}}$ for **2**^w \rightarrow **1**^w (-4.4 kcal/mol, with two explicit waters and simulated bulk water solvation; see Figure 3a, center) strongly favors the “aromatized” keto form (**1**^w)! Earlier work attributed such tautomeric shifts to the greater dipolar character of **1**.⁴⁵ However, on the basis of the same H-bonding motifs (but lacking H-bonding/aromaticity coupling), the computed ΔE_{T} values for **4** \rightarrow **3** (ΔE_{T} = -12.3 kcal/mol) and for **4**^w \rightarrow **3**^w ($\Delta E_{\text{T(PCM)}}$ = -11.2 kcal/mol) differ by only 1.1 kcal/mol (Figure 3b).

Computed NICS(1)_{zz} data reveal that **1**^w (-13.2 ppm) is more aromatic than **1** (-10.4 ppm), but **2**^w (-22.0 ppm) is less aromatic than **2** (-24.2 ppm) (Figure 3a). Notably, *changes* in aromaticity, i.e., **1** \rightarrow **1**^w (increased aromaticity) versus **2** \rightarrow **2**^w

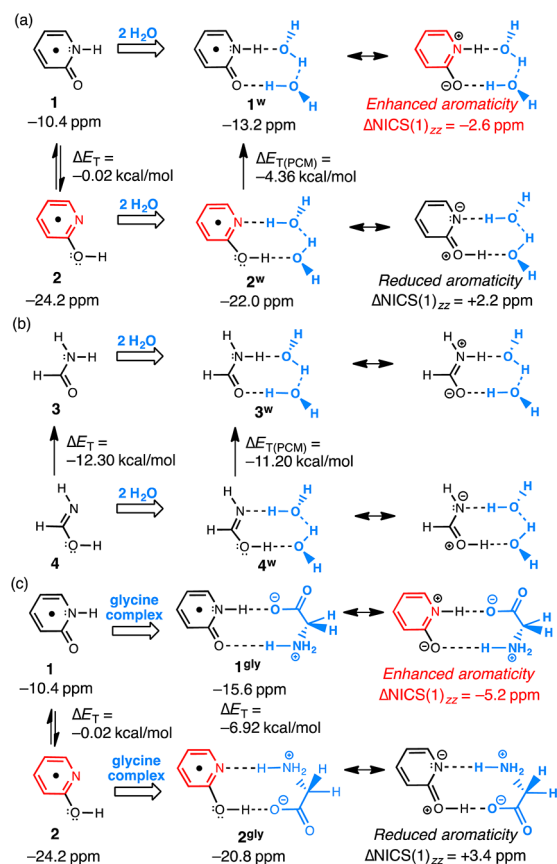


Figure 3. Computed tautomerization energies [PBE0/6-311++G(3df/3pd), no ZPE] and NICS(1)_{zz} (PW91/Def2-TZVPP) for (a) $2 \rightarrow 1$ vs $2^w \rightarrow 1^w$ and (b) $4 \rightarrow 3$ vs $4^w \rightarrow 3^w$ in the gas-phase (ΔE_T) and in implicit water solvent ($\Delta E_T(\text{PCM})$). (c) ΔE_T values for $2 \rightarrow 1$ vs $2^{\text{gly}} \rightarrow 1^{\text{gly}}$.

(decreased aromaticity), rather than the inherent relative aromatic character of 1^w (less aromatic) and 2^w (more aromatic) dictate their tautomeric ratios in water. Accordingly, the N–CO (1.374 Å) and C=O (1.248 Å) bonds of 1^w (in water) are shortened (−0.024, enhanced ring bond-length equalization) and lengthened (+0.030 Å) substantially compared with those of **1** (N–CO, 1.398 Å; C=O, 1.218 Å) in the gas phase.⁴⁵ In contrast, the N=CO (1.329 Å) and C–O (1.328 Å) bonds of 2^w (in water) are lengthened (+0.010) and shortened (−0.014) modestly relative to those of **2** (N=CO, 1.319 Å; C–O, 1.342 Å).

H-bonding interactions involving “zwitterions” (e.g., glycine; Figure 3c) can exhibit even more substantial H-bond-induced π -aromatization effects and shifts in tautomeric equilibria. Thus, the computed ΔE_T for $2^{\text{gly}} \rightarrow 1^{\text{gly}}$ (−6.9 kcal/mol) is considerably larger than that for $2 \rightarrow 1$ (−0.02 kcal/mol) (Figure 3c); H-bonding with glycine increases the aromaticity in 1^{gly} and lowers its energy relative to the dearomatized 2^{gly} . In the absence of H-bond/aromaticity coupling, the ΔE_T values for $3^{\text{gly}} \rightarrow 4^{\text{gly}}$ (+10.6 kcal/mol) and $3 \rightarrow 4$ (+12.3 kcal/mol) illustrate the opposite effect; glycine complexation reduces the preference for the keto tautomer. The significantly increased diatropicity of 1^{gly} [NICS(1)_{zz} = −15.6 ppm vs −10.4 ppm for **1**] and decreased diatropicity of 2^{gly} (−20.8 ppm vs −24.2 ppm for **2**) also reveal the difference in H-bond-influenced aromaticity (Figure 3c).

In chemistry, understanding often lags behind observations but then facilitates applications. The synergistic H-bonding/aromaticity coupling effect discussed here provides valuable insights into strategies for tuning H-bond strengths. H-bonding interactions that increase (or decrease) cyclic $4n + 2$ π -electron delocalization are strengthened (or weakened). Such relationships may have considerable implications for molecular design, as the functions of many heterocyclic biomolecules and drugs rely on binding via H-bonds of a dominant keto/imine or enol/amine tautomer.^{46–48} Magnifications of H-bonding/aromaticity coupling beyond tuning “H-bond strengths” with “aromaticity” also may be achieved for other types of noncovalent interactions.

ASSOCIATED CONTENT

Supporting Information

Cartesian coordinates and total electronic energies for all systems considered, a discussion of H-bond-induced aromaticity reduction in the 2-aminopyridine dimer, and complete ref 33. This material is available free of charge via the Internet at <http://pubs.acs.org>.

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Notes

The authors declare no competing financial interest.

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