

Chapter 5

Huckel Aromaticity

SIMPLE HÜCKEL THEORY

D.S. Urch, Orbitals & Symmetry (83)
(W.L. Tilly, Modern Inorganic Chemistry,
pp. 96-102 & pp. 129-133).
(1st edition)

Simple L.C.A.O. (A closer look) and the hamiltonian operator

considering a M.O. as a L.C.A.O., thus the M.O. is affected by more than one ~~sto~~ nucleus.

However, the valence e^- circulates among the nuclei, but it will at any one time be much closer to one nucleus than any other, and the M.O. wave function will be fairly well represented by a valence atomic orbital for that nucleus.

Consider M.O.s. & their energies for a single e^- associated with (these atoms), each as H_1^+ , Li_2^+ or LiH^+

Schrödinger equation is:

$$\left[V - \frac{\hbar^2}{8\pi^2 m} \left(\frac{\partial^2}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2}{\partial y^2} + \frac{\partial^2}{\partial z^2} \right) \right] \psi = E \psi \quad (1)$$

Thus the left hand side of the equation is it self an operator (called the Hamiltonian) on ψ ; where ψ is a N.O.

thus: $H\psi = E\psi \quad (2)$

ψ = eigenfunction, E = eigen value

note that ψ could be + or - values.

ψ^2 is proportional to electron density.

From equation (2), multiply by ψ and integrate over all space, then:

$$\int \psi H \psi d\tau = E \int \psi^2 d\tau \quad (3)$$

(note that, in eqn. (3) we used single integral only, and $d\tau = dx dy dz$)

$$E = \frac{\int \psi H \psi d\tau}{\int \psi^2 d\tau} \quad (4)$$

Remember that ψ is a molecular orbital wave function, resulting from linear combination of two atomic orbitals $\phi_1 + \phi_2$

$$\psi = C_1 \phi_1 + C_2 \phi_2 \quad (5)$$

C_1 & C_2 are coefficients to be determined

From equations (4) & (5), then:

$$E = \frac{\int (C_1 \phi_1 + C_2 \phi_2) H (C_1 \phi_1 + C_2 \phi_2) d\tau}{\int (C_1 \phi_1 + C_2 \phi_2)^2 d\tau} \quad (6)$$

$$= \frac{\int (C_1^2 \phi_1 H \phi_1 + C_2^2 \phi_2 H \phi_2 + C_1 C_2 \phi_1 H \phi_2 + C_1 C_2 \phi_2 H \phi_1) d\tau}{\int (C_1^2 \phi_1^2 + 2C_1 C_2 \phi_1 \phi_2 + C_2^2 \phi_2^2) d\tau} \quad (7)$$

From mathematics

we know that:

$$H C_1 \phi_1 = C_1 H \phi_1 \quad (8)$$

$$\int \phi_1 H \phi_2 d\tau = \int \phi_2 H \phi_1 d\tau \quad (9)$$

From mathematics } $H C_1 \Phi_1 = C_1 H \Phi_1$ (8)
 we know that, $\int \Phi_1 H \Phi_1 d\tau = \int \Phi_1 H \Phi_1 d\tau$ (9)

So, eqn. (7) becomes:

$$E = \frac{C_1^2 \int \Phi_1 H \Phi_1 d\tau + 2C_1 C_2 \int \Phi_1 H \Phi_2 d\tau + C_2^2 \int \Phi_2 H \Phi_2 d\tau}{C_1^2 \int \Phi_1^2 d\tau + 2C_1 C_2 \int \Phi_1 \Phi_2 d\tau + C_2^2 \int \Phi_2^2 d\tau} \quad (10)$$

For the sake of simplicity, we make substitutions as:

$H_{11} = \int \Phi_1 H \Phi_1 d\tau$	$S_{22} = \int \Phi_2^2 d\tau$
$H_{22} = \int \Phi_2 H \Phi_2 d\tau$	$S_{12} = \int \Phi_1 \Phi_2 d\tau$
$H_{12} = \int \Phi_1 H \Phi_2 d\tau$	$\downarrow$ overlap integral
$S_{11} = \int \Phi_1^2 d\tau$	

So, eqn. (10) becomes:

$$E = \frac{C_1^2 H_{11} + 2C_1 C_2 H_{12} + C_2^2 H_{22}}{C_1^2 S_{11} + 2C_1 C_2 S_{12} + C_2^2 S_{22}} \quad (11)$$

If we differentiate eqn. (11) when minimum value of E is used, so:

$$\left(\frac{\partial E}{\partial C_1}\right)_{C_2} = 0 \quad \text{and} \quad \left(\frac{\partial E}{\partial C_2}\right)_{C_1} = 0$$

Differentiation of eqn. (11) yields:

$$\begin{aligned} C_1(H_{11} - ES_{11}) + C_2(H_{12} - ES_{12}) &= 0 \quad (12) \\ C_1(H_{12} - ES_{12}) + C_2(H_{22} - ES_{22}) &= 0 \quad (13) \end{aligned}$$

Equations (12) & (13) are called secular equations.

A solution to these eqns. (12) & (13) can be expressed in terms of the Secular Determinant:

$$\begin{vmatrix} H_{11} - ES_{11} & H_{12} - ES_{12} \\ H_{12} - ES_{12} & H_{22} - ES_{22} \end{vmatrix} = 0 \quad (14)$$

where H_{11} & H_{22} are called "Coulomb Integrals".

From eqn. (4) a coulomb integral is approximately, the coulomb integral is approximately equal to the energy of an electron in the valence ~~orbital~~ atomic orbital (α). This is logical for a neutral molecule, where e-e rep and nucleus-nucleus repulsions are compensating.

thus, we may write:

$$(14) \quad H_{11} = \alpha_1 \quad \text{and} \quad H_{22} = \alpha_2$$

The term H_{12} is called "Exchange Integral", which is essentially the energy of interaction of two atomic orbitals, (β) .

Both α & β have negative values, with reference to original ground level (zero level).

Assuming that the atomic wave functions ϕ_1 & ϕ_2 of equation (5) are normalized, then

$$(15) \quad S_{11} = \int \phi_1^2 d\tau = S_{22} = \int \phi_2^2 d\tau = 1$$

Equation (15) states that the probability of finding an electron in the orbital is exactly unity.

The term S_{12} is called "overlap integral" because it is a measure of the extent to which orbitals 1 & 2 overlap, for simplicity, S_{12} is written as S .

Thus, equation 14 becomes:

$$(16) \quad \begin{vmatrix} \alpha_1 - E & \beta - ES \\ \beta - ES & \alpha_2 - E \end{vmatrix} = 0$$

In case of homonuclear diatomic molecules (H_2^+), we equal $\alpha_1 = \alpha_2 = \alpha$

thus, equation (16) becomes:

$$(\alpha - E)^2 = (\beta - ES)^2 \quad (17)$$

thus, two solutions are:

$$\alpha - E = -(\beta - ES) \rightarrow E = (\alpha + \beta)/(1 + S) \quad (18)$$

$$\text{2nd } \alpha - E = +(\beta - ES) \rightarrow E = (\alpha - \beta)/(1 - S) \quad (19)$$

If we substitute equations (18) & (19) in equation (15) (20)

$$\text{we get: } C_1(\alpha - E) + C_2(\beta - ES) = 0$$

From eqn. (12)

$$C_1 = - \frac{(\beta - ES)}{(\alpha - E)} C_2 \quad (20)$$

from eqn. 20.12

thus, from equation (20) if $E = (\alpha + \beta)/(1 + S)$ (eqn. 18),

$$\therefore C_1 = \left[\frac{-\beta + \frac{(\alpha + \beta)}{1 + S}}{\alpha - \frac{(\alpha + \beta)}{1 + S}} \right] C_2 = \frac{-\beta + \frac{(\alpha + \beta)}{1 + S}}{\frac{\alpha(1 + S) - (\alpha + \beta)}{1 + S}} C_2 = \frac{-\beta + \frac{(\alpha + \beta)}{1 + S}}{\frac{\alpha + \alpha S - \alpha - \beta}{1 + S}} C_2 = \frac{-\beta + \frac{(\alpha + \beta)}{1 + S}}{\frac{\alpha S - \beta}{1 + S}} C_2 = C_2$$

then $C_1 = C_2$ (21)

and, from eqn. (20), if $E = (\alpha - \beta)/(1 - S)$ (eqn. 19),

$$\text{then } C_1 = -C_2 \quad (22)$$

thus, the M.O. wave equation (eqn. 5) may be written as:

$$\psi = C_1 \phi_1 + C_2 \phi_2 \quad (23)$$

The question is: How can we find C_1 ??
 we normalize the wave function (23) as:

$$\psi = c_1 \phi_1 + c_2 \phi_2$$

$$\int \psi^2 dr = c_1^2 \int \phi_1^2 dr + 2c_1 c_2 \int \phi_1 \phi_2 dr + c_2^2 \int \phi_2^2 dr = 1$$

$$\text{defining } S = \int \phi_1 \phi_2 dr \quad \int \psi^2 dr = c_1^2 S_{11} + 2c_1 c_2 S + c_2^2 S_{22} = 1$$

$$\text{Hence: } c_1^2 (2 + 2S) = 1$$

$$\therefore c_1 = \pm \frac{1}{\sqrt{2+2S}} \quad (24)$$

thus, equation (23) becomes:

$$\psi_{\text{bonding}} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2+2S}} (\phi_1 + \phi_2) \quad (25)$$

$$\text{and: } \psi_{\text{antibonding}} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2-2S}} (\phi_1 - \phi_2) \quad (26)$$

If these functions are squared, then the valence-electron density is obtained as:

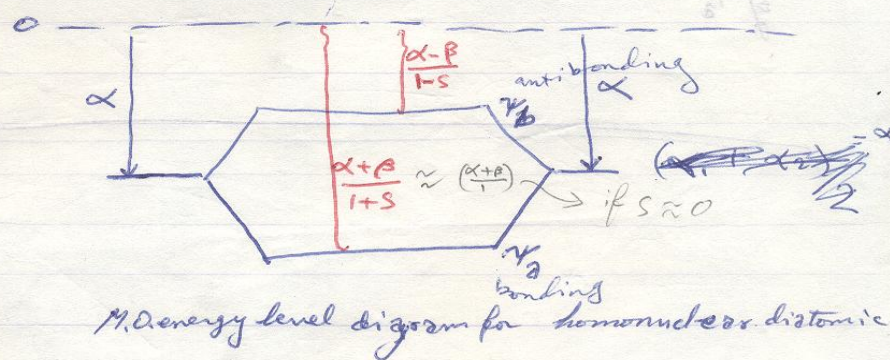
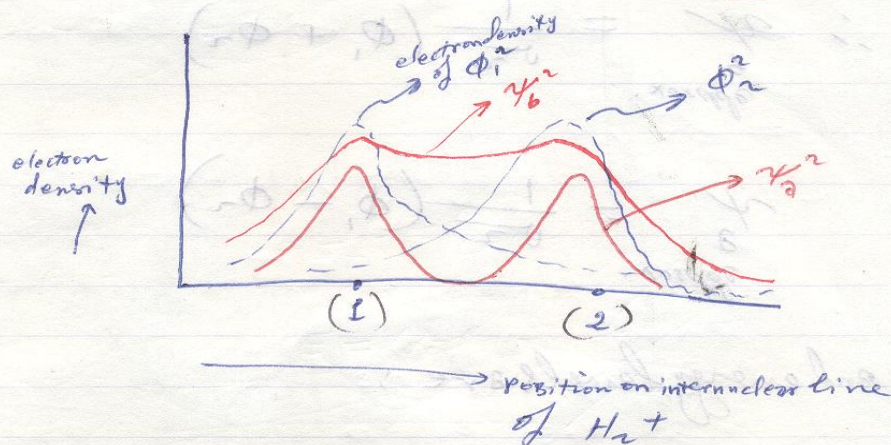
$$\psi_{\text{bonding}}^2 = \frac{1}{2+2S} (\phi_1^2 + \phi_2^2 + 2\phi_1 \phi_2) \quad (27)$$

$$\text{and: } \psi_{\text{anti}}^2 = \frac{1}{2-2S} (\phi_1^2 + \phi_2^2 - 2\phi_1 \phi_2) \quad (28)$$

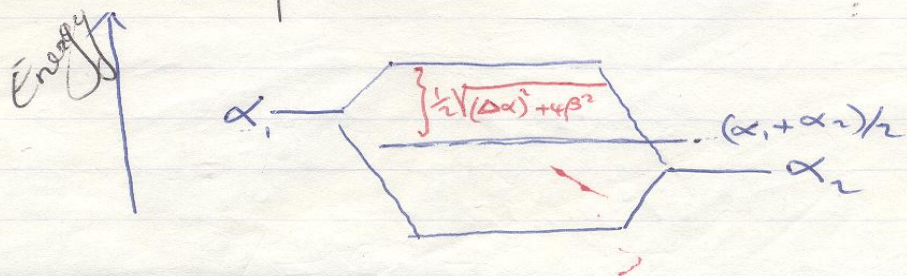
ψ_{bonding}^2 shows increase in e-density between the two nuclei
 thus stabilization occurs $\therefore \psi_b$ is bonding MO.
 energy level of ψ_b is

$$E = (\alpha + \beta) / (1+S) \quad (29)$$

Anti shows a decrease in e-density between nuclei,
 unstable ψ_a (antibonding)
 with $E = (\alpha - \beta) / (1 - S)$ (30)



but for heteronuclear diatomic molecule



S is always small (0.2-0.3 generally)
 so, approximated to be zero,

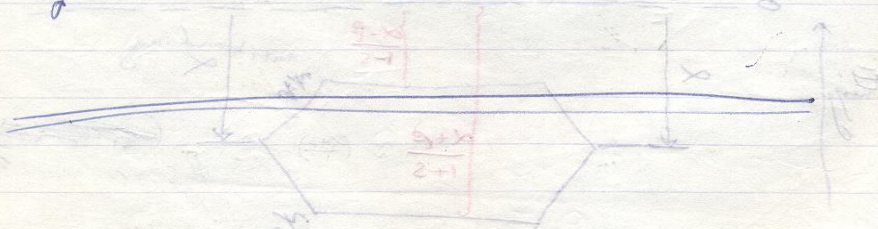
$$\therefore \psi_b \approx \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} (\phi_1 + \phi_2)$$

$$\psi_a \approx \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} (\phi_1 - \phi_2)$$

and energy levels are:

$$E_b \approx (\alpha + \beta)$$

$$E_a \approx (\alpha - \beta)$$



Homework: Construct the secular Det. for π -bonding in C_5H_5 systems as we did for diatomic molecules back to simple Hückel Theory. (91)

one of applications of ^{simple} M.O.T. is to study π -bonding in cyclic aromatic hydrocarbons, C_nH_n as was carried out by Hückel.

Aromatic hydrocarbons are planar, thus, σ M.O.'s + π M.O.'s are separated in discussions.

In simple Hückel theory, we consider only π M.O.'s, derived from n orbitals of $p\pi$ symmetry

approximations are: $\int \phi_i \phi_j d\tau = \delta_{ij}$, and $H_{ij} = 0$ except when the i th + j th $p\pi$ orbitals are on adjacent atoms.
(H_{ij} is H_{ji} - usually zero) ✓

The General Secular Determinant for a $C_n H_n$ system

Determinant for 2

$$\begin{vmatrix}
 H_{11}-E & H_{21} & H_{31}=0 & H_{41}=0 & \dots & H_{n1} \\
 H_{12} & H_{22}-E & H_{32} & H_{42}=0 & \dots & H_{n2} \\
 H_{13}=0 & H_{23} & H_{33}-E & H_{43} & \dots & H_{n3} \\
 H_{14}=0 & H_{24}=0 & H_{34} & H_{44}-E & \dots & H_{n4} \\
 \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\
 H_{1n}=0 & H_{2n}=0 & H_{3n}=0 & H_{4n} & \dots & H_{nn}-E
 \end{vmatrix} = 0$$

6.5
6.6
nonadjacent

0.5 0.5 0.5

Back to Simple Hückel Theory:

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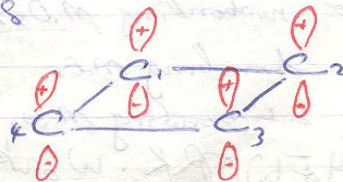
approximations are: $\int \phi_i \phi_j d\tau = 0$, and $H_{ij} = 0$ except when the

i th & j th $p\pi$ orbitals are on adjacent atoms.
($H_{12}, H_{21}, \dots$ are all zero) ✓

The general form of the secular determinant for a cyclic hydrocarbon C_nH_n is: ✓

$$\begin{vmatrix} H_{11}-E & H_{12} & 0 & \dots & 0 & H_{n1} \\ H_{12} & H_{22}-E & H_{23} & \dots & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & H_{23} & H_{33}-E & \dots & 0 & 0 \\ \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots \\ H_{1n} & 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 & H_{nn}-E \end{vmatrix} = 0 \quad (31)$$

To consider hypothetical cyclobutadiene C_4H_4 , square planar molecule as



We write:

$$\psi = c_1\phi_1 + c_2\phi_2 + c_3\phi_3 + c_4\phi_4$$

as in the previously, we make substitutions as

$$H_{ii} = \alpha, \checkmark$$

if i th & j th are adjacent, then $H_{ij} = \beta$

the secular determinant for π orbitals of C_4H_4 then becomes:

$$\begin{vmatrix} \overset{H_{11}}{\alpha-E} & \overset{H_{12}}{\beta} & \overset{H_{13}}{0} & \overset{H_{14}}{\beta} \\ \beta & \alpha-E & \beta & 0 \\ 0 & \beta & \alpha-E & \beta \\ \beta & 0 & \beta & \alpha-E \end{vmatrix} = 0$$

$\downarrow$
 H_{44}

for simplicity, divide by β , and replace

$(\alpha-E)/\beta$ by x where $\boxed{x = \frac{\alpha-E}{\beta}}$

$$\begin{vmatrix} x & 1 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & x & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & x & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 & x \end{vmatrix} = 0$$

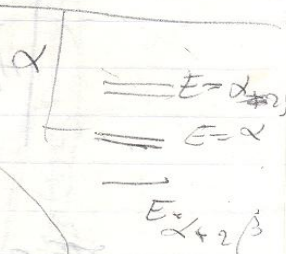
$$\therefore x^4 - x^2 = 0$$

with roots $x = -2, 0, 0, +2$

- ∴ E for two nonbonding n.o.s. with energy $= \alpha$
 one bonding n.o.s. with energy $= \alpha + 2\beta$
 one antibonding n.o. with energy $= \alpha - 2\beta$

HOMEWORK: Work out Secular determinant

for C_4H_4 and C_6H_6 systems

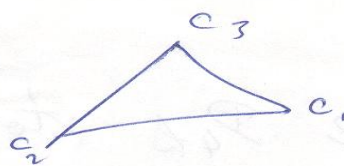


(91)

$$\begin{vmatrix} x & 1 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & x & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & x & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & x \end{vmatrix} =$$

$$+x \begin{vmatrix} x & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & x & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & x \end{vmatrix} - 1 \begin{vmatrix} 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & x \end{vmatrix} + 0 \begin{vmatrix} 1 & x & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & x \end{vmatrix} - 1 \begin{vmatrix} x & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & x & 1 \end{vmatrix} =$$

for $C_3H_3^+$



(91)

$$\begin{vmatrix} H_{11}-E & H_{12} & H_{13} \\ H_{12} & H_{22}-E & H_{23} \\ H_{13} & H_{23} & H_{33}-E \end{vmatrix} = 0 \Rightarrow \begin{vmatrix} \alpha-E & \beta & \beta \\ \beta & \alpha-E & \beta \\ \beta & \beta & \alpha-E \end{vmatrix} = 0$$

$$x = \frac{\alpha-E}{\beta}$$

So:

$$\begin{vmatrix} x & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & x & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & x \end{vmatrix} = 0$$

$$x(x^2-1) - (1-x) + 1(1-x) = 0$$

$$x(x^2-1) - x + 1 + 1 - x = 0$$

$$(x-1)(x-1)(x+2) = 0 \quad \checkmark$$

$$x = -2, +1, +1$$

$$\frac{(\alpha-E)}{\beta} = -2$$

$$\frac{\alpha-E}{\beta} = 1$$

$$\frac{\alpha-E}{\beta} = 1$$

$$\begin{aligned} E &= \alpha + 2\beta \\ E &= \alpha - \beta \\ E &= \alpha - \beta \end{aligned}$$

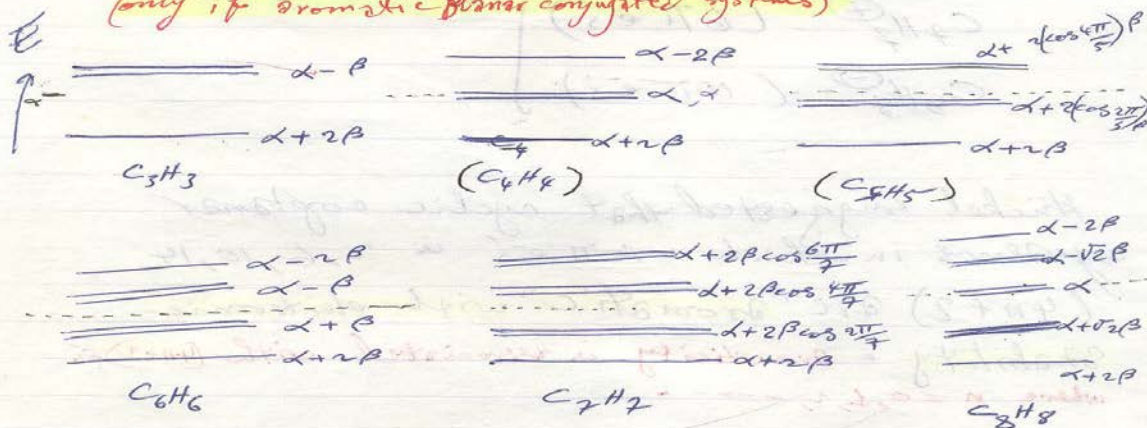
three different energy levels

$$\begin{aligned} &= \alpha - \beta \\ &= \alpha + 2\beta \end{aligned}$$

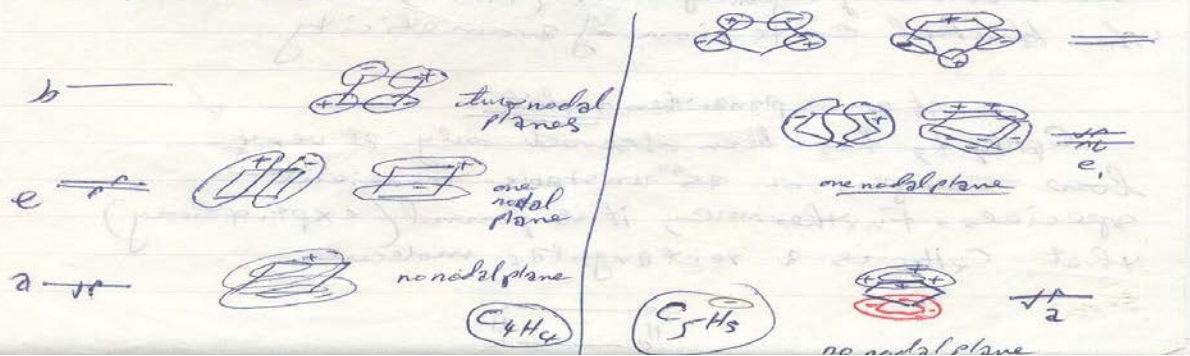
for C_nH_n molecules, the π -energy level diagram must always have strongly bonding nondegenerate level and one or more doubly degenerate levels lying at higher energies, when n is even number, a strongly antibonding nondegenerate level.

thus for C_nH_n ($n=3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8$) the π -energy level diagrams are shown as:

(only if aromatic planar conjugated systems)



consider the 2 examples, the π -M.O.s. of C_4H_4 and C_5H_5 molecules.



Note, that: If the all M.O's. at or below the "Centre of Gravity" of the levels are filled, then the system is stable.

Thus, CH_3^+ , $(2\pi e^-)$,

C_5H_5^+ , $(6\pi e^-)$

C_6H_6 , $(6\pi e^-)$

C_7H_7^+ , $(6\pi e^-)$

C_8H_8^+ , $(10\pi e^-)$

are stable species.

Hückel suggested that cyclic coplanar systems in which πe^- is 2, 6, 10, 14, ...

$(4n+2)$ are "aromatic" with electronic stability. Aromaticity is associated with $(4n+2)e^-$ where $n = 0, 1, 2, \dots$

(don't confuse n with n of C_nH_n)

so called the relation of cyclopentadienyl $(4n+2)$ rule or the Hückel criterion of aromaticity.

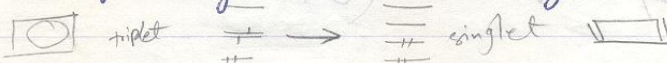
if square planar then triplet

C_4H_4 has been observed only at very low temps., or as an unstable transient species. Furthermore, it is found (expt. & theory) that C_4H_4 is a rectangular molecule



with two or less localized double bonds.

(thus, it is distorted from square planar structure) and the doubly degenerate level is split, ~~into~~ and the stabilization occurs by having the two unpaired e^- s pair up in the lower of the split levels.



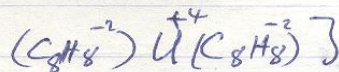
the square form of C_4H_4 can be stabilized when complexation to Transition metals occurs. $C_4H_4Fe(CO)_3$.

C_8H_8 also should have triplet if exists in the planar form, with all C-C bonds equivalent.

In fact, it is conjugated but nonplanar molecule.

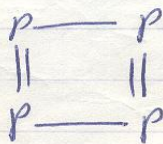
If reduced, $C_8H_8^{2-}$, then it becomes planar aromatic, forming sandwich complexes

such as:



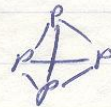
Hückel theory also applies to inorganic molecules, such as P_4 , ignoring the lone pairs at phosphorous atoms:

Thus, the hypothetical square planar P_4 is unstable.



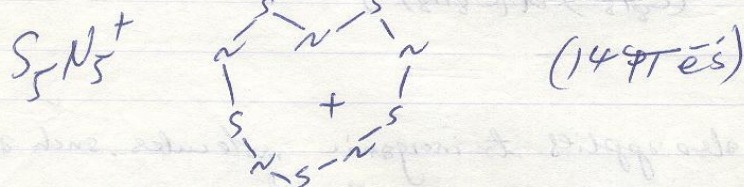
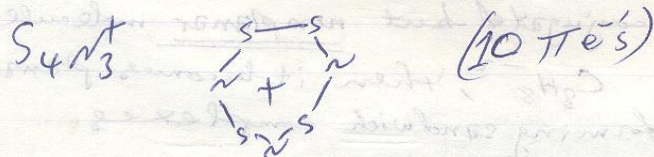
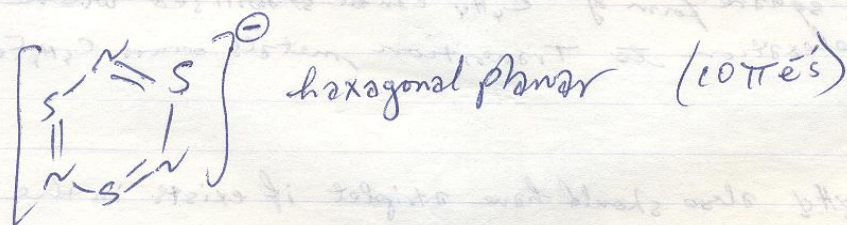
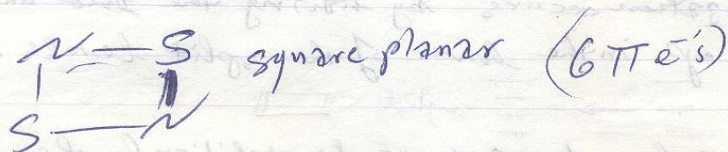
otherwise, it must be a rectangular configuration

Actually, P_4 is in T_d structure



other examples are also known:

S_2N_2 , $S_3N_3^-$, $S_4N_3^+$ and $S_5N_5^+$ are known to be planar.



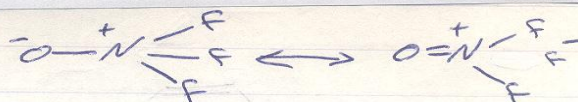
HYPERCONJUGATION

There is a special kind of resonance, called *no-bond resonance* or *hyperconjugation* to rationalize extraordinary bonding features.

In the no-bond resonance, involves an increase in the order of one bond at the expense of the order of another bond:



Example: ONF_3



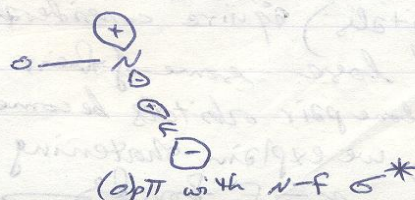
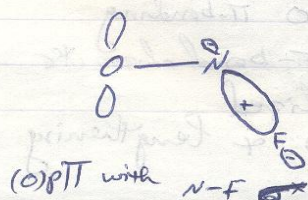
since N-F bonds appear to be abnormally long.

In BH_3/CO interaction is unexpectedly strong acid base interaction, explained by hyperconj.



Hyperconjugation may be defined generally as the interaction within a molecule of a π -system with a σ -system.

Consider ONF_3 with nonbonding pTT orbitals on (O) atom; the nonbonding pTT of (O) may interact with bonding + antibonding MOs of N-F bonds.

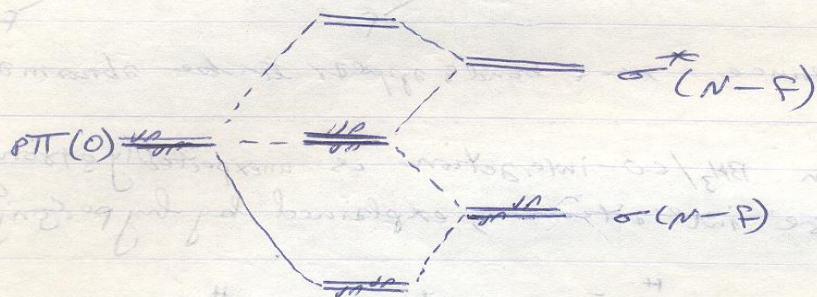


Due to different degrees of repulsion between the two structures, thus,

the $(O) pT \neq N-F$ orbitals interact as follows:

- (i) ~~$(O) pT$~~ with $N-F \sigma^*$ level is raised
- (ii) ~~$(O) pT$~~ with $N-F \sigma$ level is lowered
- (iii) $(O) pT$ ^{level} is slightly affected in

thus, $(O) pT$ orbital remains as nonbonding.



Energy level diagram illustrating hyperconjugation in ONF_3 , to give:



- (i) Note that there ~~is~~ is a net stabilization of energy for the whole system, taking place.
- (ii) lowest orbitals (derived from (O) $\text{p}\pi$ & N-F σ orbitals) require considerable N-O π -bonding and lose some of their N-F σ -bond character
- (iii) (O) lone pair orbitals become delocalized
- (iv) thus, we explain shortening of N-O & lengthening of N-F bonds.

