

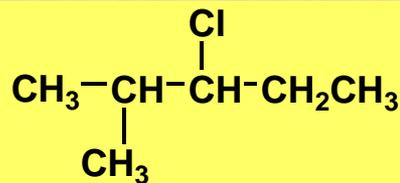
# Nucleophilic Substitution and Elimination Alkyl Halides

## A. Nomenclature

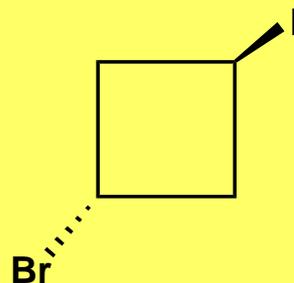
1. IUPAC - add fluoro-  
chloro-  
bromo-  
iodo-

to alkane name

examples:



2-methyl-3-chlorohexane

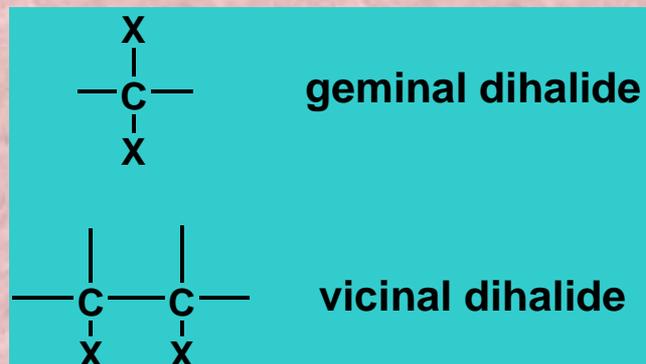


trans-1-bromo-3-iodocyclobutane

## 2. common names

$\text{CH}_3\text{Cl}$	methyl chloride
$\text{CH}_3\text{CH}_2\text{Cl}$	ethyl chloride
$\begin{array}{c} \text{CH}_3-\text{CH}-\text{Cl} \\   \\ \text{CH}_3 \end{array}$	<i>i</i> -propyl chloride
$\text{CH}_2\text{Cl}_2$	methylene chloride
$\text{CHCl}_3$	chloroform
$\text{CCl}_4$	carbon tetrachloride

## 3. special names



## B. Industrial uses

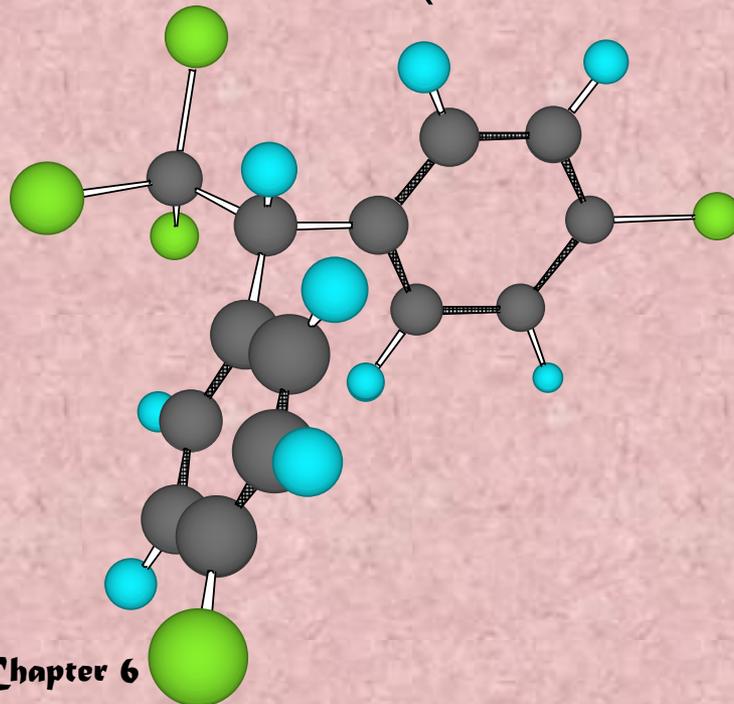
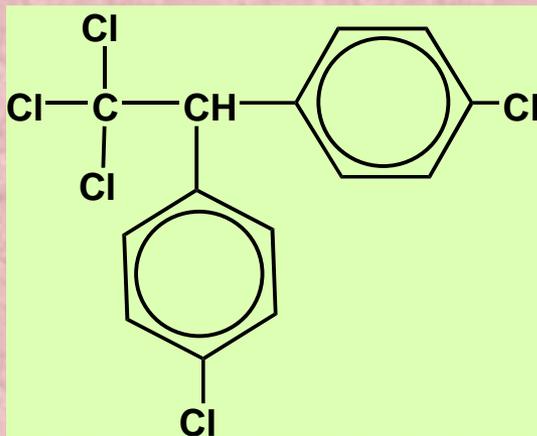
a. solvents:  $\text{CH}_2\text{Cl}_2$ ,  $\text{CHCl}_3$ ,  $\text{CCl}_4$

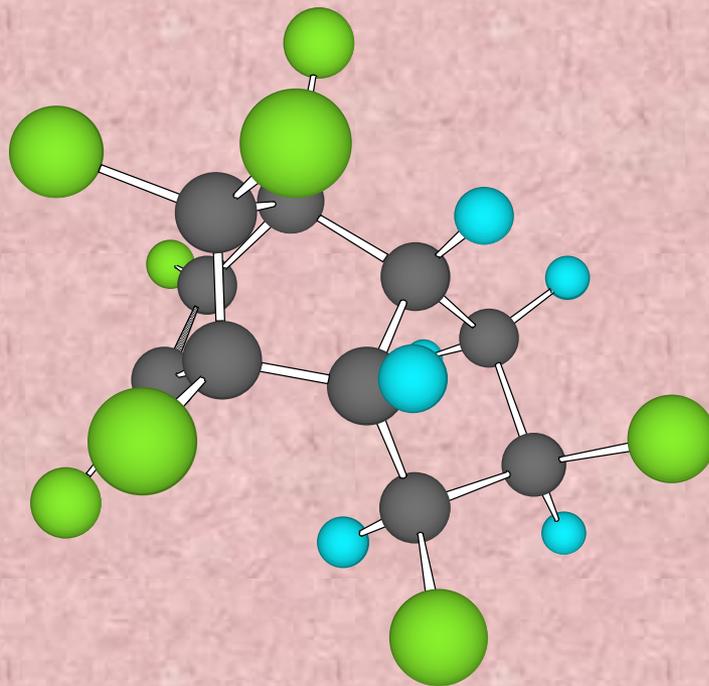
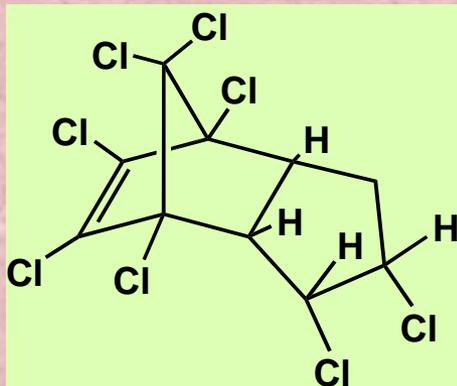
b. refrigerants:

$\text{CF}_2\text{Cl}_2$  - Freon-12 (eats  $\text{O}_3$ )

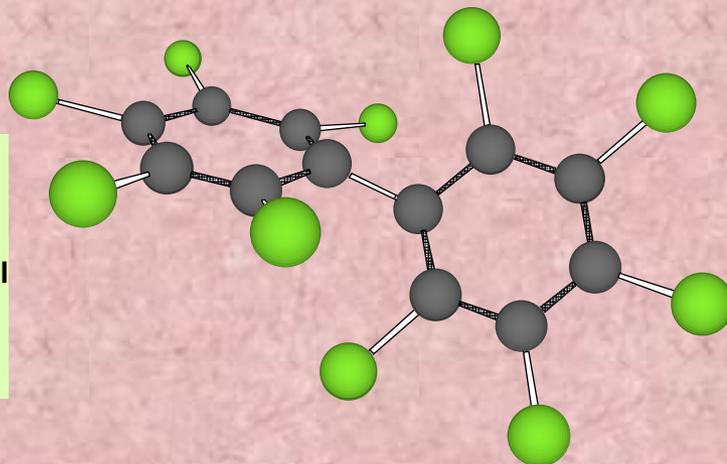
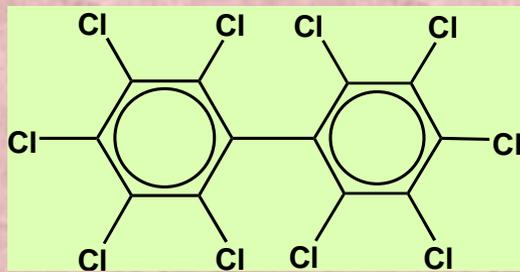
$\text{HCF}_2\text{Cl}$  - Freon-22 (destroyed at  
lower altitudes)

c. pesticides: DDT • introduced 1939  
• banned 1972 (Rachael Carson)





chlordane -  
termites  
•banned 1995



capacitors, etc.  
PCB (polychlorinated biphenyl)  
•banned 1985

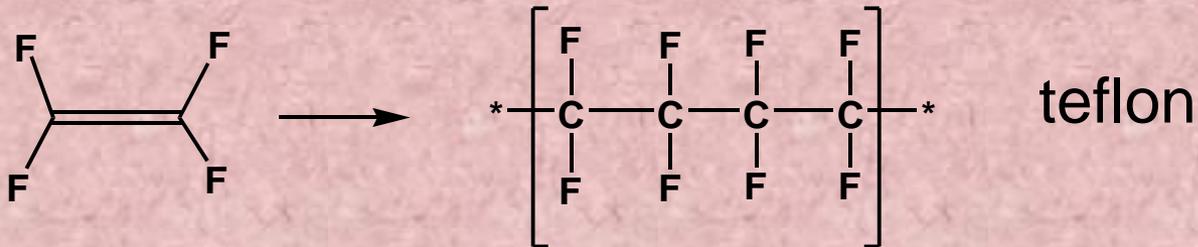
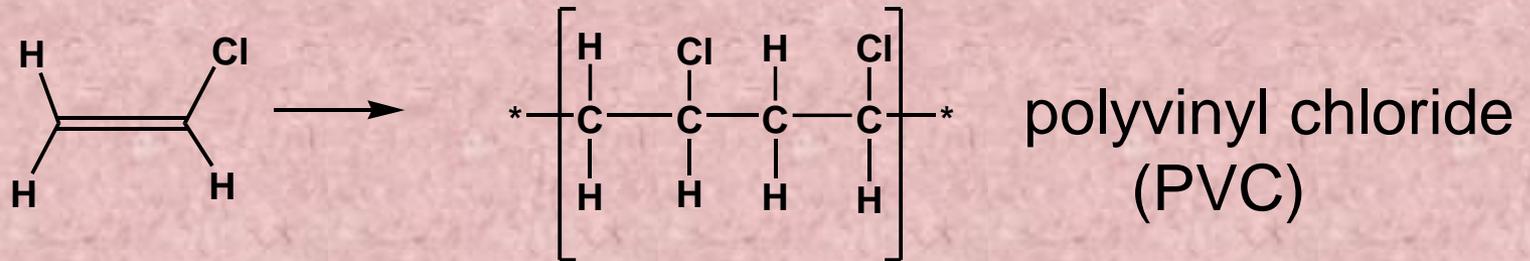
## d. Anesthetics

$\text{CHCl}_3$  - chloroform carcinogenic

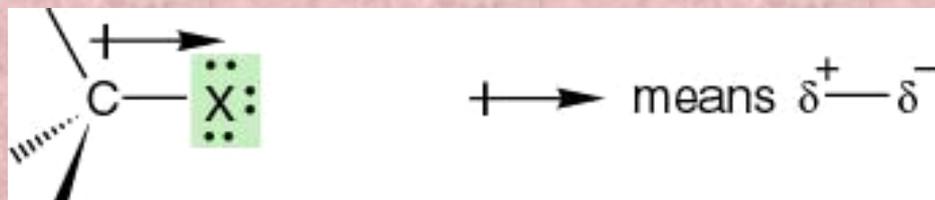
$\text{CH}_3\text{CH}_2\text{Cl}$  - ethyl chloride topical use

$\text{CF}_3\text{CHBr-Cl}$  - halothane - general

## e. polymers

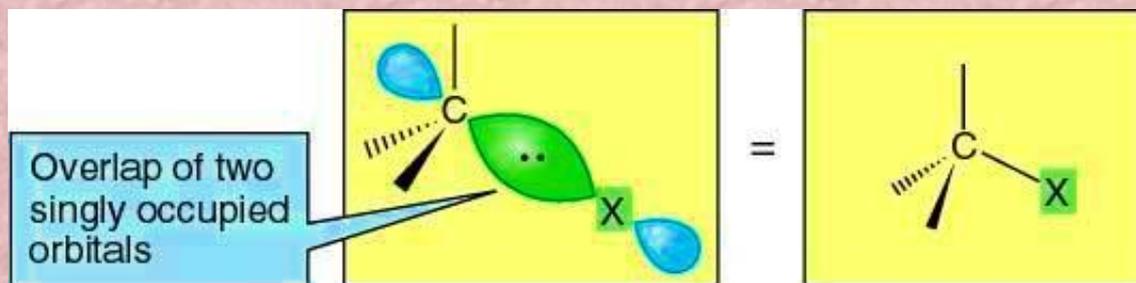


# C. structure/properties

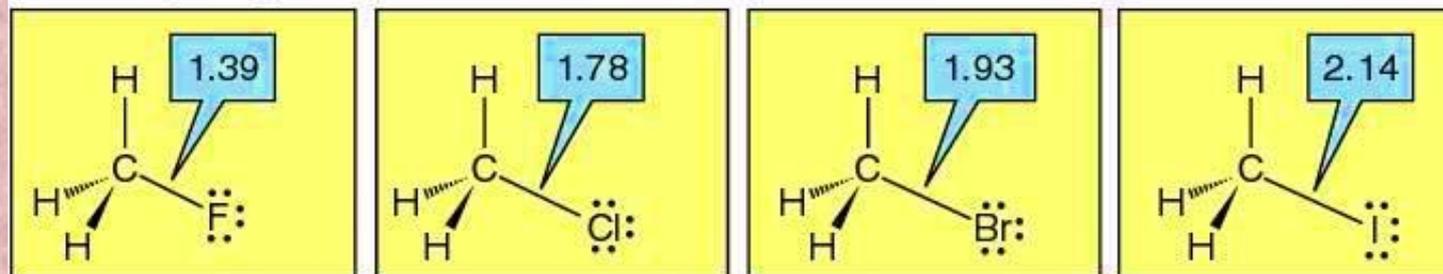


X = F  
= Cl  
= Br  
= I

↑  
increasing  
electronegativity



Bond lengths (Å)

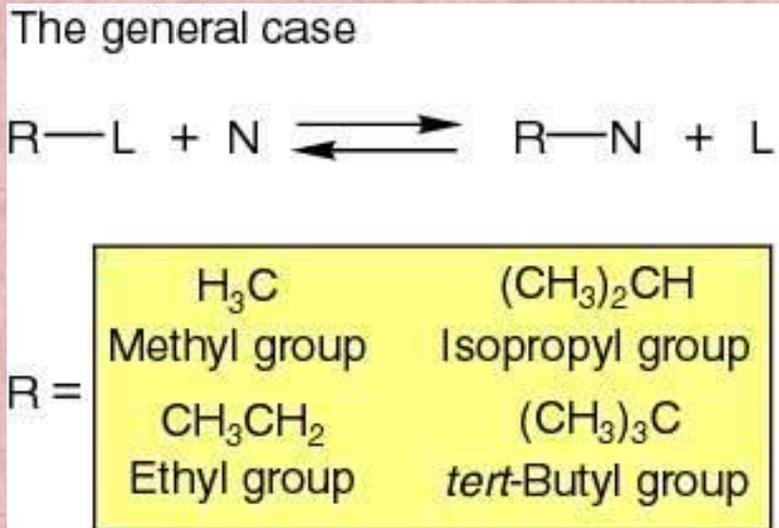


Bond strengths (kcal/mol)



# Reactions of alkyl halides - substitution

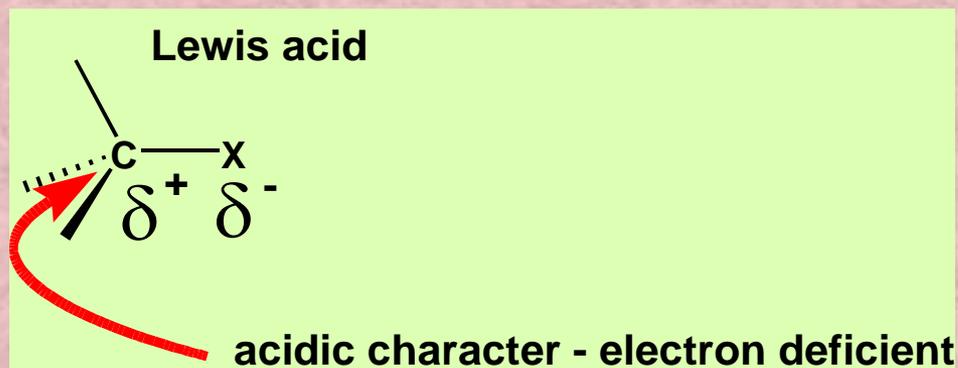
## 1. general reaction



N = nucleophile - electron rich - Lewis base

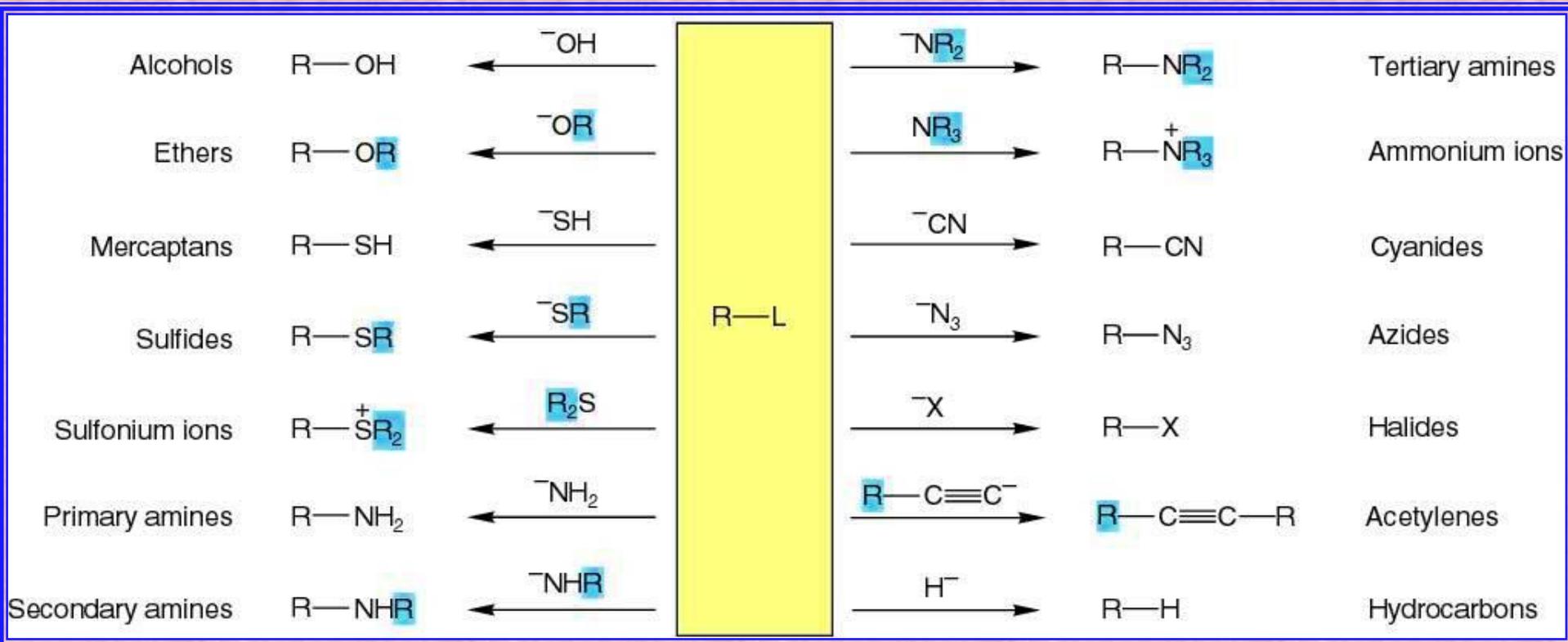
R-L = electrophile - electron poor - Lewis acid

L = leaving group - must form a stable species (weak base e.g. X<sup>-</sup>)



# Reactions of alkyl halides - substitution

general examples:

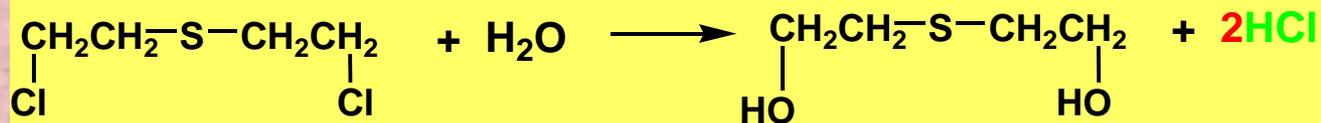
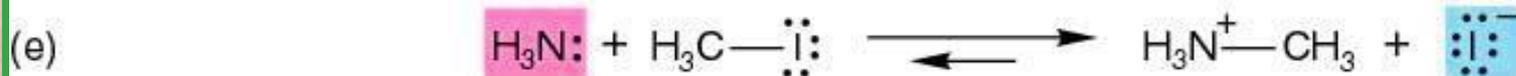
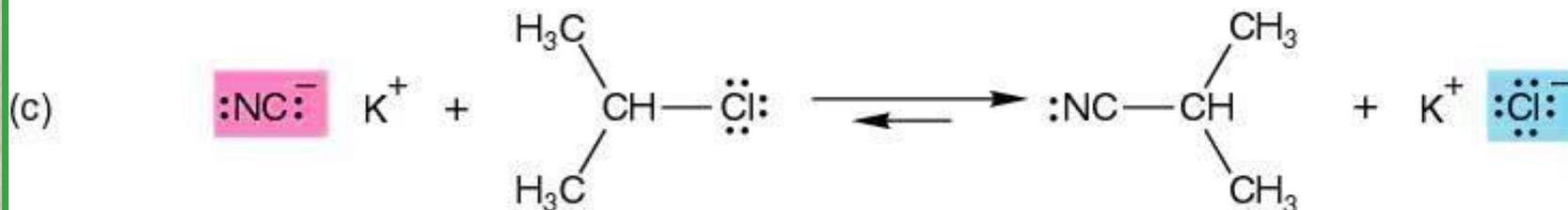
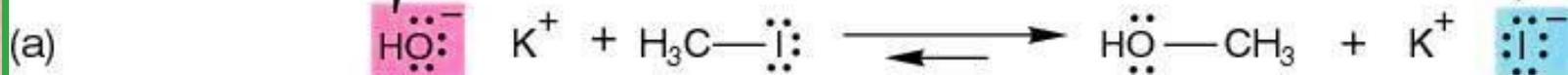


(L is not always  $X^-$  in these examples)

# Reactions of alkyl halides - **substitution**: specific examples

Nucleophile (Nu:)

Leaving group (:L)

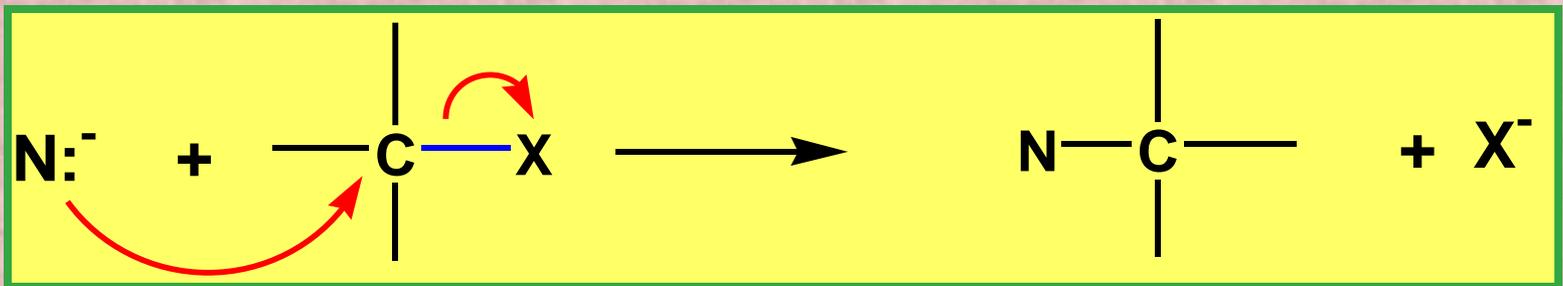


Reaction mechanism - there are two: First we will look at  $S_N2$  - substitution nucleophilic bimolecular

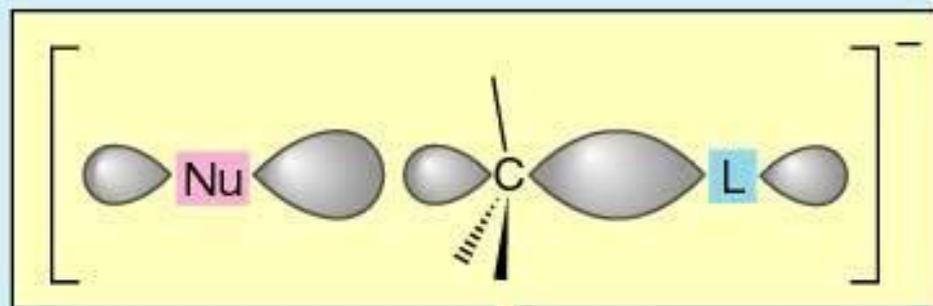
1. Rate law:

rate =  $k[R-L][N]$  ie dependent on both concen. of nucleophile and electrophile

2. Mechanism - one step:



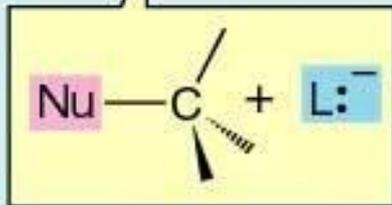
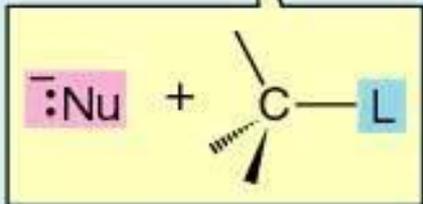
Energy



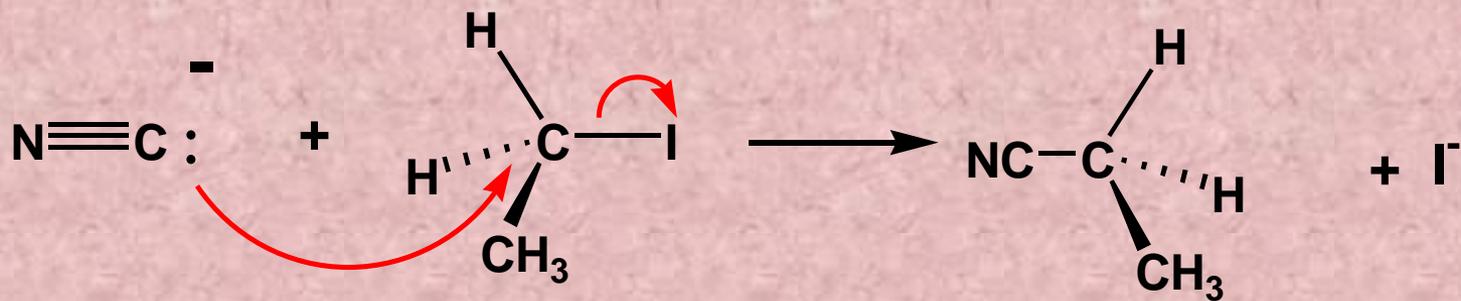
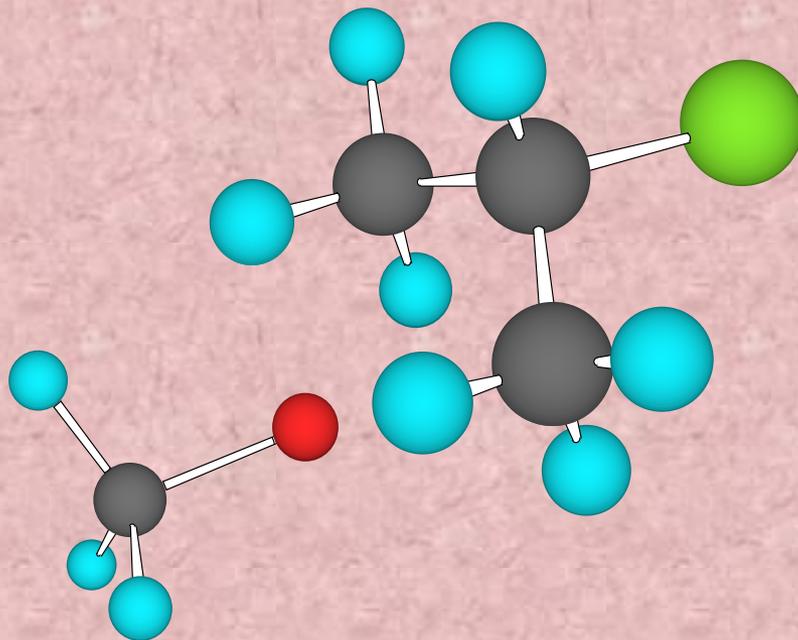
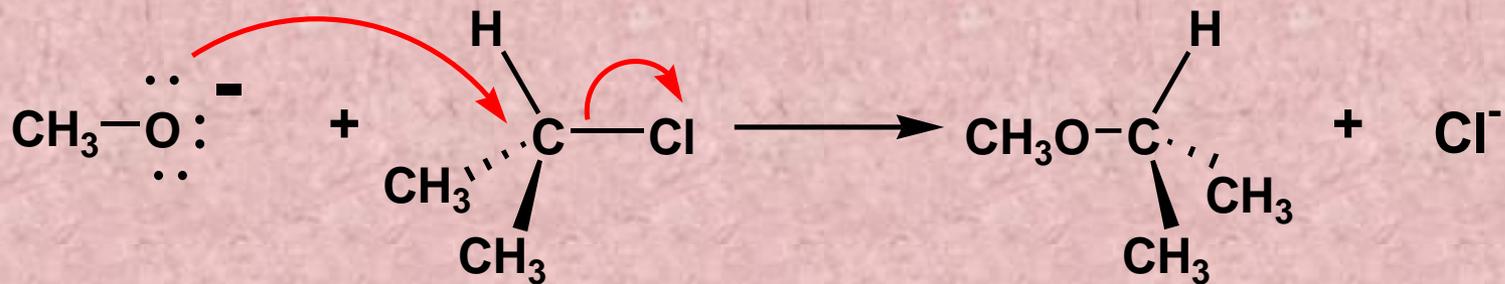
Activation energy forward

Transition state — in the general case it is not exactly at the midpoint between starting material and product

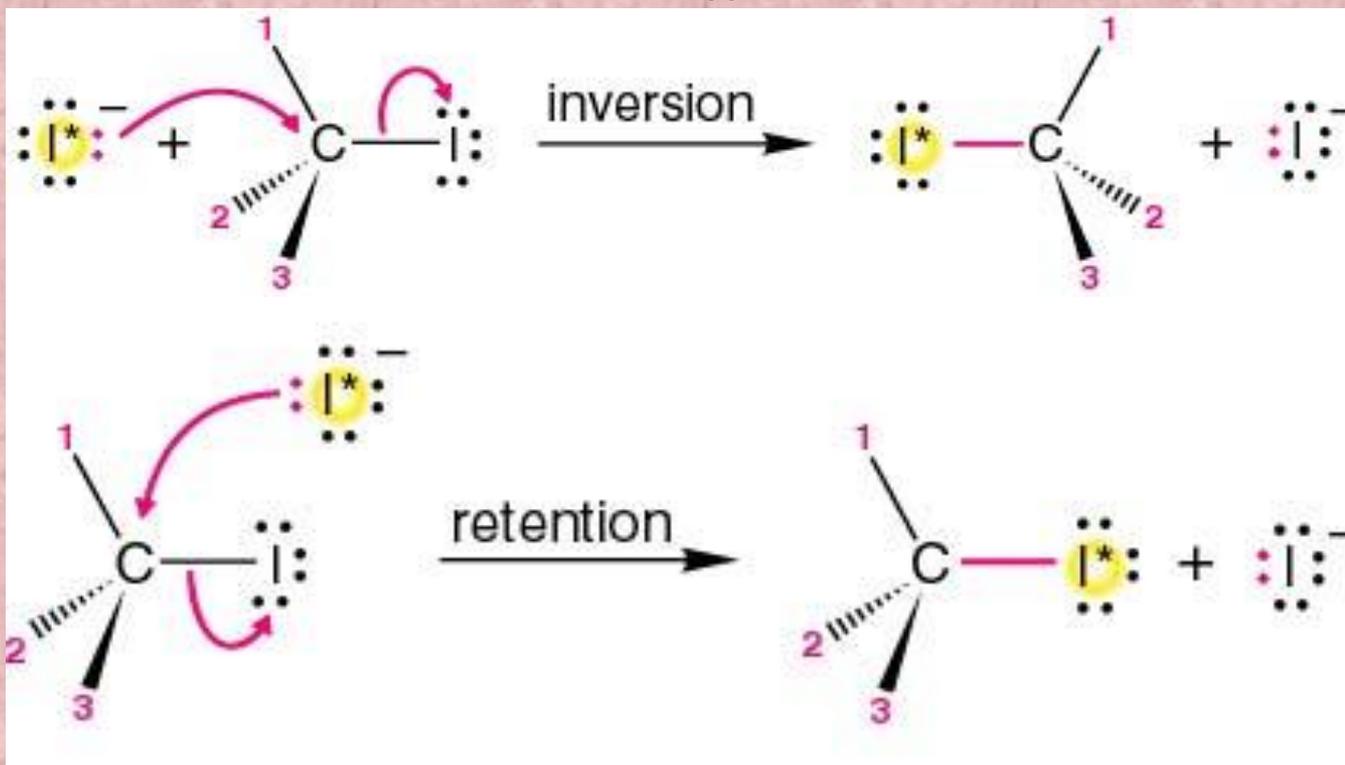
Activation energy reverse



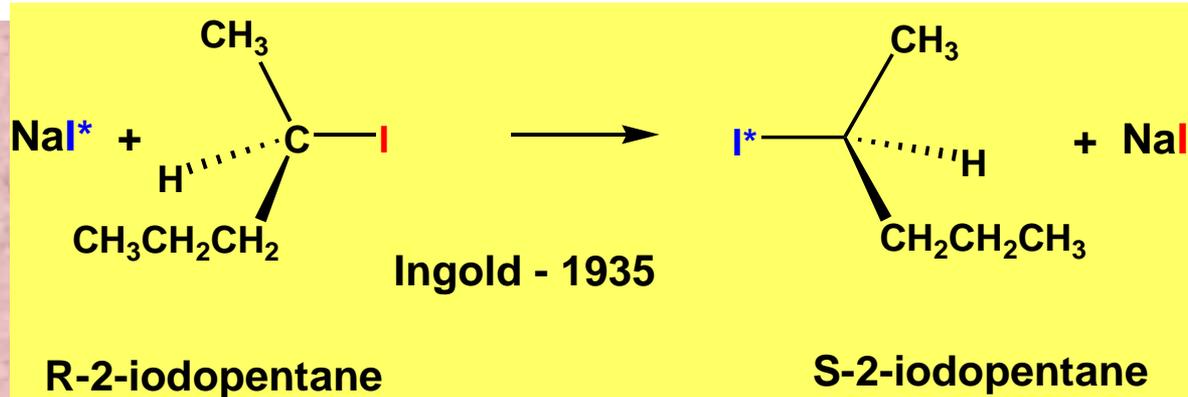
Reaction progress



# stereochemistry in $S_N2$ mechanism:



**Experimentally - always get inversion - backside attack**



## Effect of nucleophile

The stronger the base - in general - the stronger the nucleophile.

Examples:

$\text{H}_2\text{O}:$  versus  $\text{HO}^-$

$\text{CH}_3\text{O}^-$  versus  $\text{HO}^-$

$\text{H}_2\text{N}^-$  versus  $\text{HO}^-$

### Basicity factors -

- electronegativity of atom that contains the lone pair
- inductive effects of substituents on lone pair
- resonance effects - delocalization of lone pair

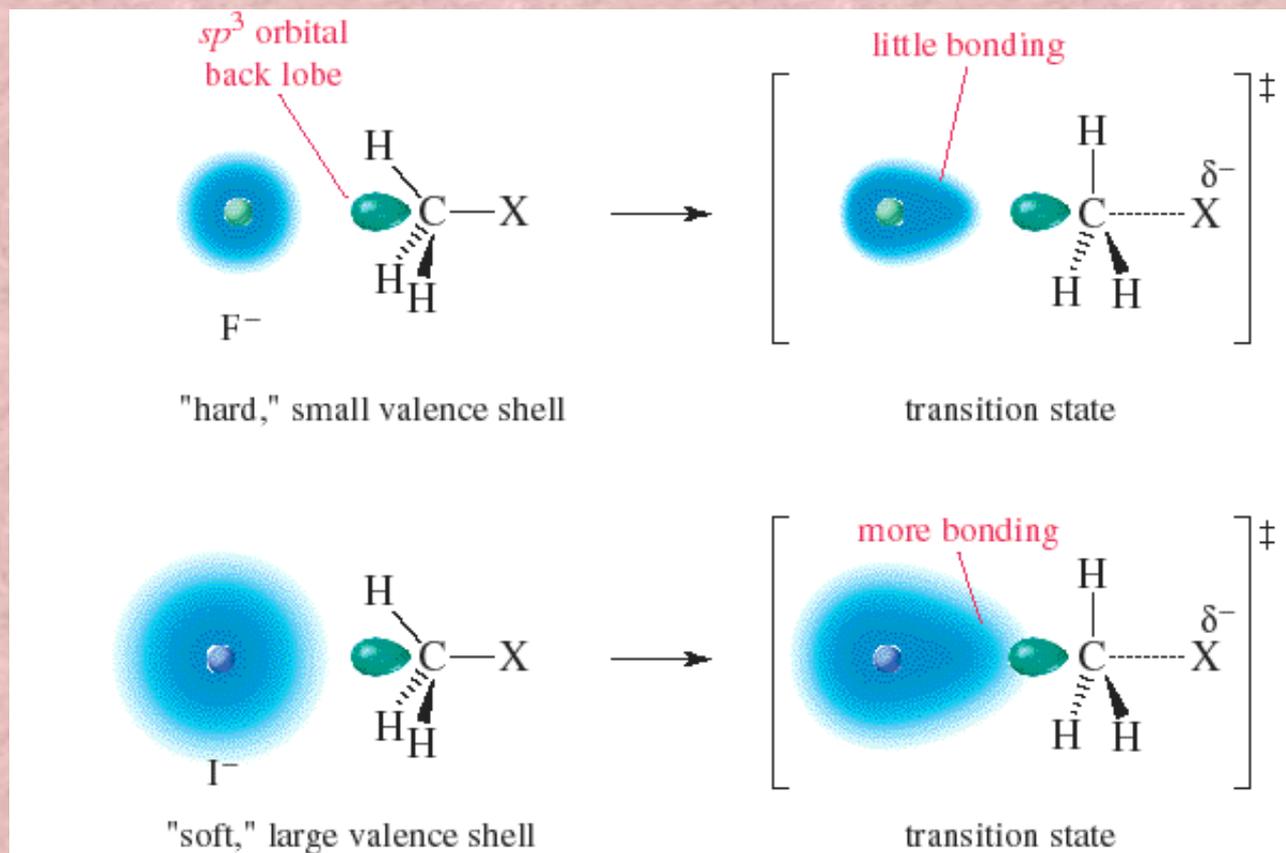
There is one major exception to this behaviour:

**The size of the orbital and polarizability -**

Nucleophilicity increases going from top to bottom row in Periodic Table.

## The size of the orbital and polarizability -

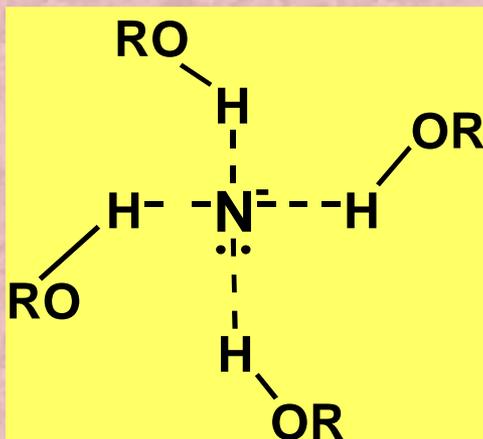
Nucleophilicity increases going from top to bottom row in Periodic Table.



## Solvent effects on nucleophilicity -

In general nucleophiles are polar or ionic molecules so we need a polar solvent to solvate them.

a. protic solvents, ie  $\text{H}_2\text{O}$ ,  $\text{ROH}$ , etc.

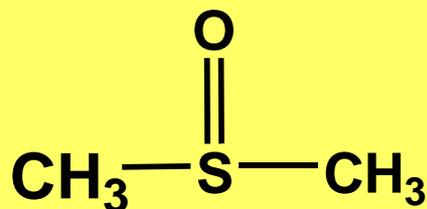


Hydrogen bonding decreases nucleophilicity - particularly for small nucleophiles

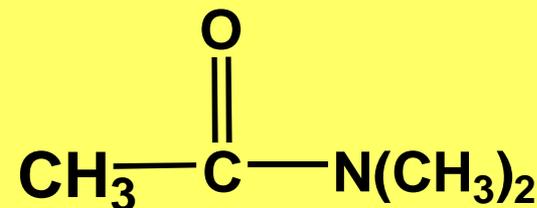
b. polar, aprotic solvents - very high bp.



Acetonitrile



DMSO



DMF

drug delivery - rabbits

Leaving group effects:  
The R-L bond should be as weak as possible,  
therefore, L should be as stable as possible.

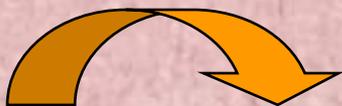
In other words, L should have:

- an electron withdrawing group or atom connected to L
- a polarizable atom connected to R
- as weakly basic as possible

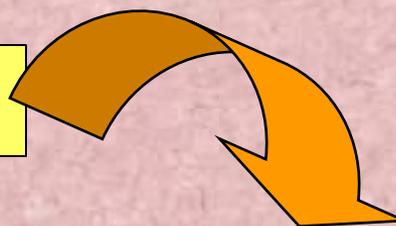
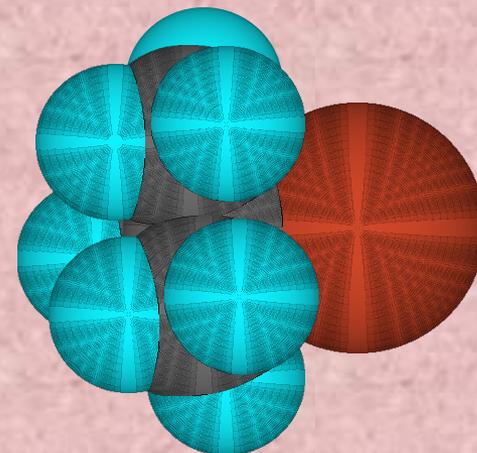
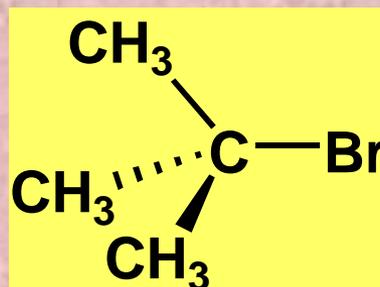
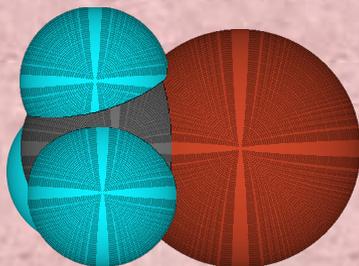
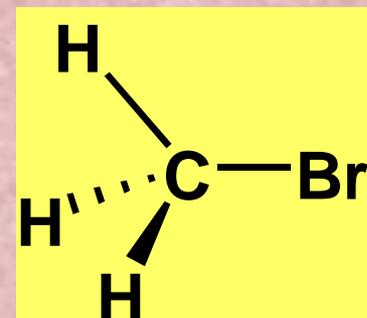
Acid	pK <sub>a</sub>	Leaving Group	Name
Good Leaving Groups			
HI	-10	I <sup>-</sup>	Iodide
HBr	- 9	Br <sup>-</sup>	Bromide
HCl	- 7	Cl <sup>-</sup>	Chloride
HOSO <sub>2</sub> R	- 6.5	OSO <sub>2</sub> R <sup>-</sup>	Sulfonate
H <sub>3</sub> O <sup>+</sup>	- 1.7	H <sub>2</sub> O	Water
Bad Leaving Groups			
HF	+ 3.2	F <sup>-</sup>	Fluoride
H <sub>2</sub> S	+ 7.0	SH <sup>-</sup>	Thiolate
HCN	+ 9.2	CN <sup>-</sup>	Cyanide
H <sub>2</sub> O	+15.7	OH <sup>-</sup>	Hydroxide
HOR	+16-18	OR <sup>-</sup>	Alkoxide

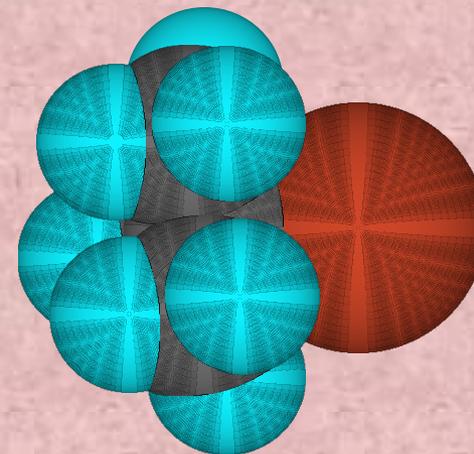
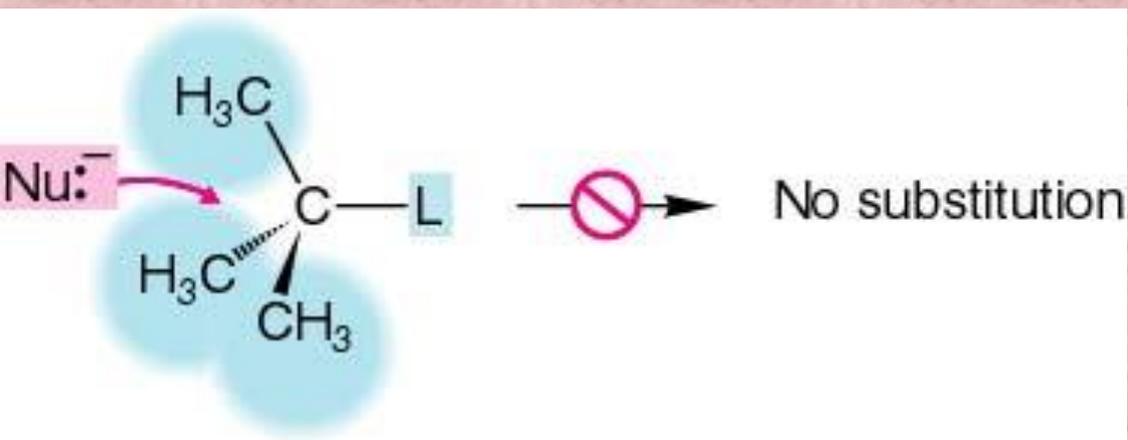
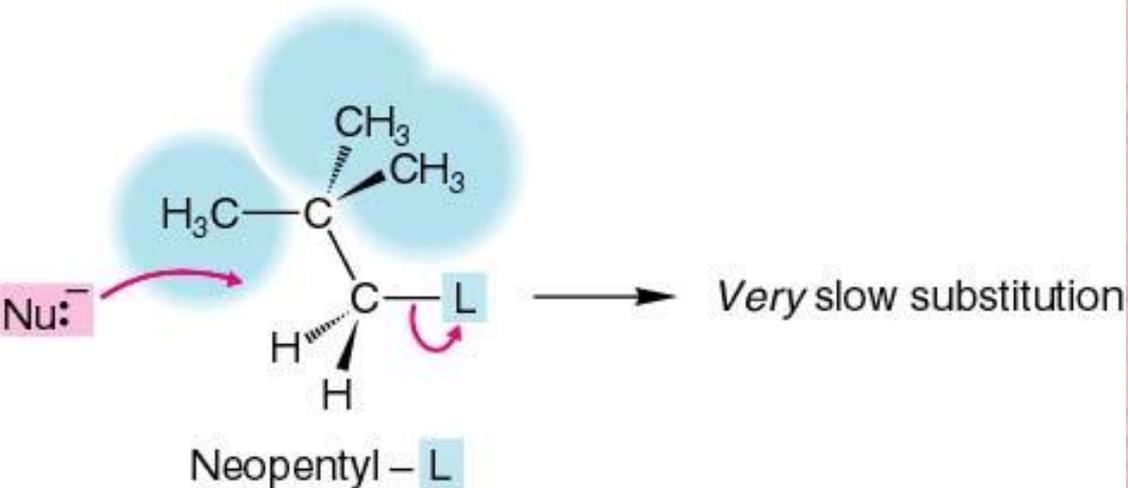
Effects in R - the alkyl group - primarily steric:

<u>R</u>	<u>Relative rates</u>
CH <sub>3</sub> -	1.0
CH <sub>3</sub> CH <sub>2</sub> -	0.033
CH <sub>3</sub> CH <sub>2</sub> CH <sub>2</sub> -	0.013
(CH <sub>3</sub> ) <sub>2</sub> CH-	8.3 x 10 <sup>-4</sup>
(CH <sub>3</sub> ) <sub>3</sub> CCH <sub>2</sub> -	2 x 10 <sup>-7</sup>
(CH <sub>3</sub> ) <sub>3</sub> C-	<<10 <sup>-7</sup>



Space-filling model





So for any R-L compound, the relative rates of  $\text{S}_{\text{N}}2$ :

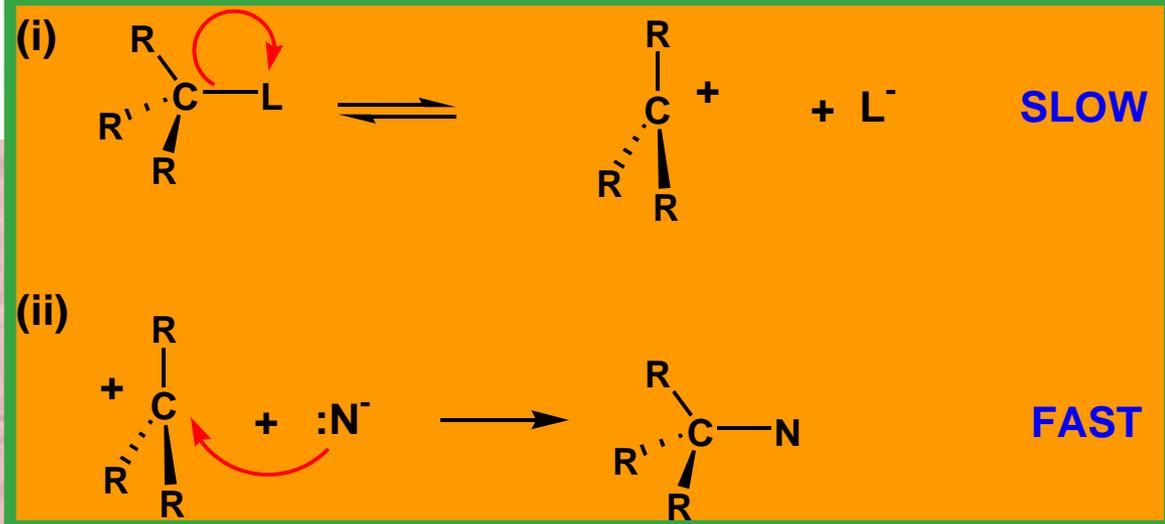
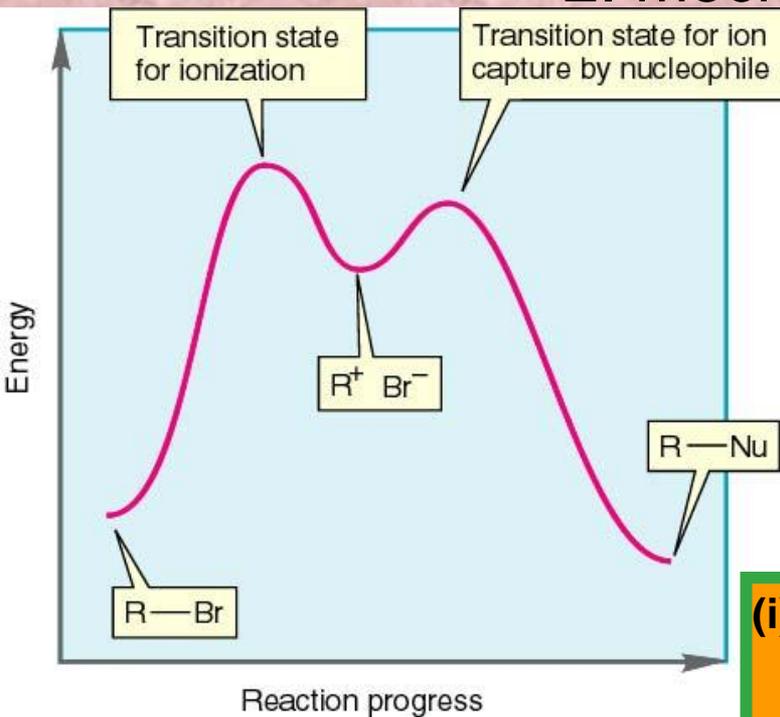


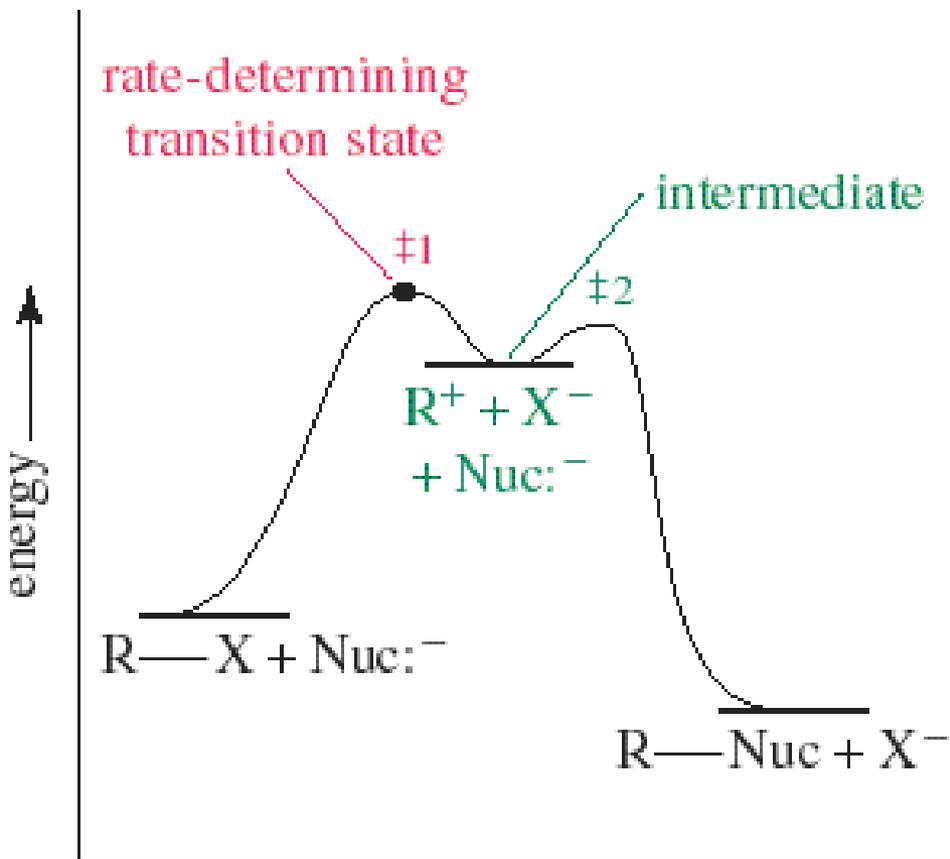
# $S_N1$ - substitution nucleophilic unimolecular

1. rate law:

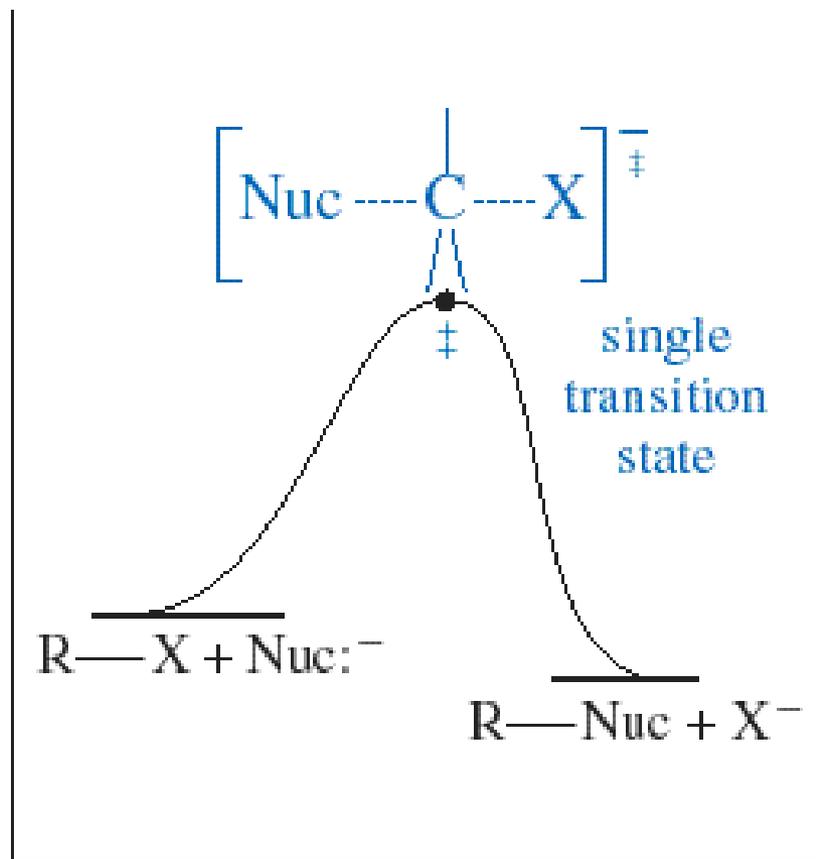
rate =  $k[R-L]$  not dependent upon the conc. of N:!

2. mechanism - two steps:



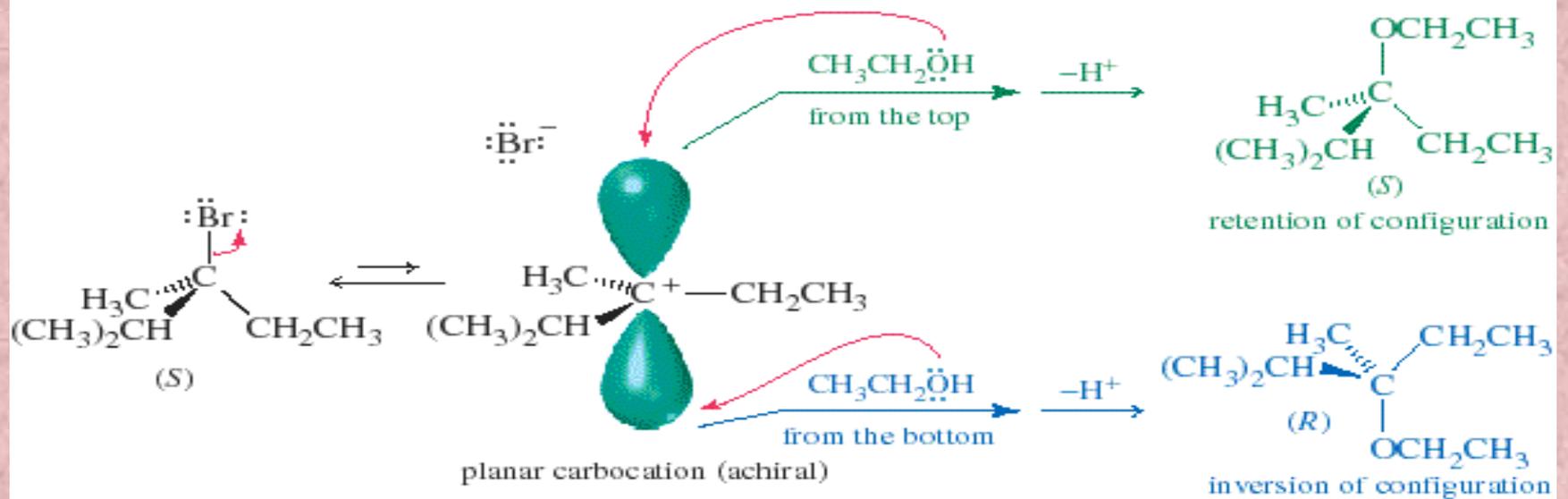
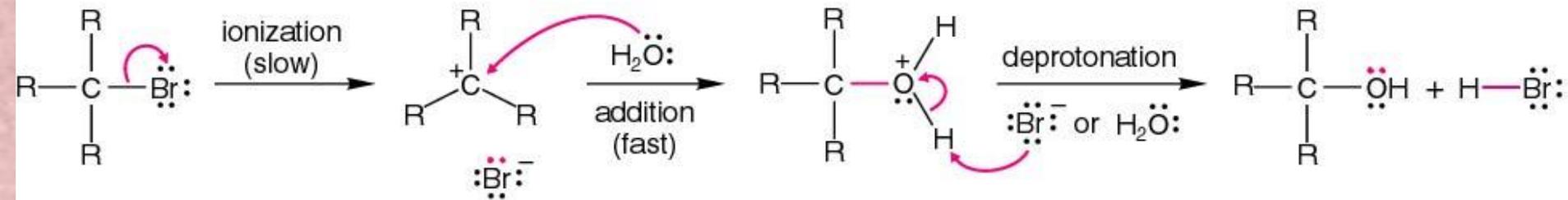


$S_N1$

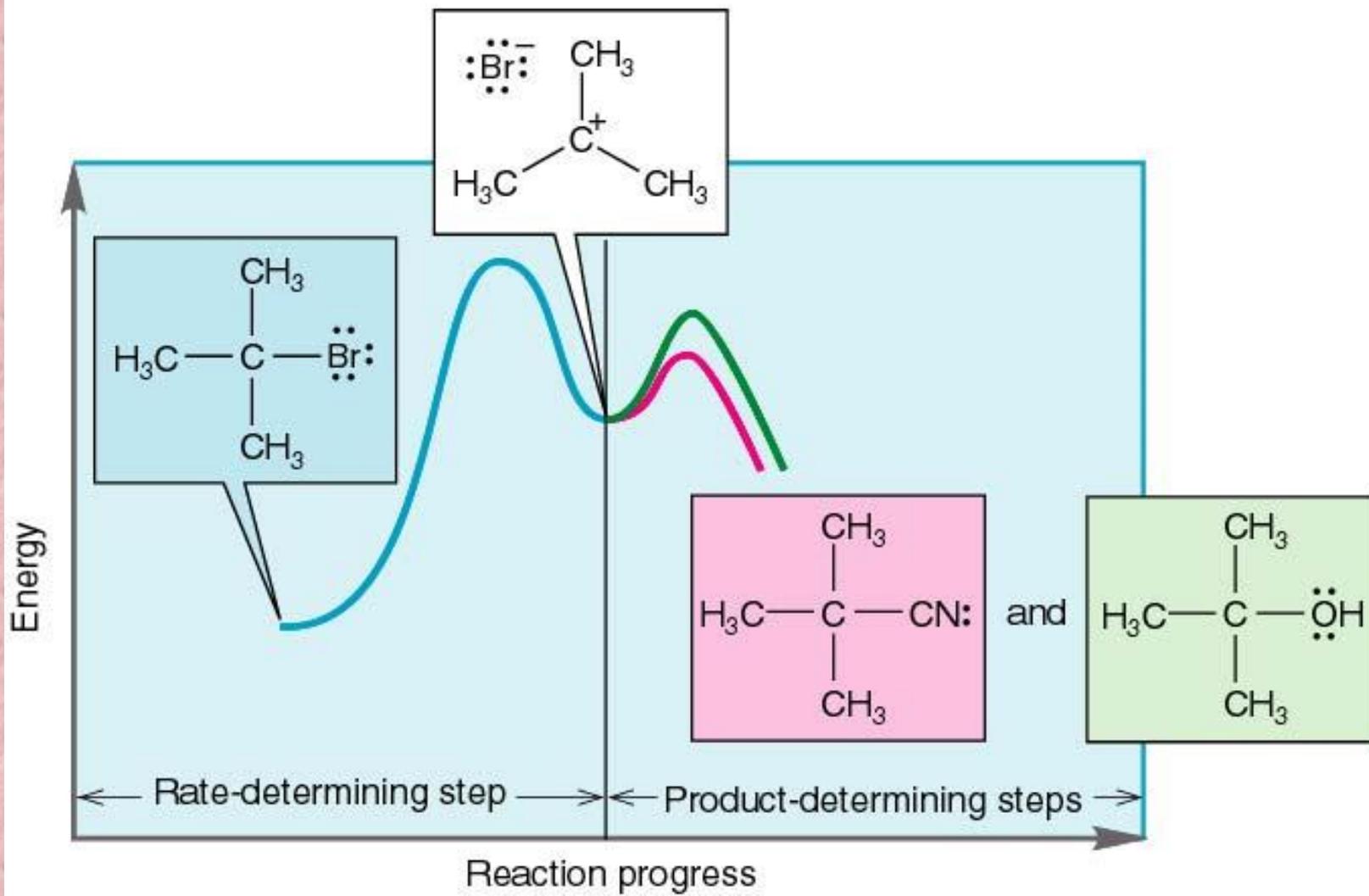
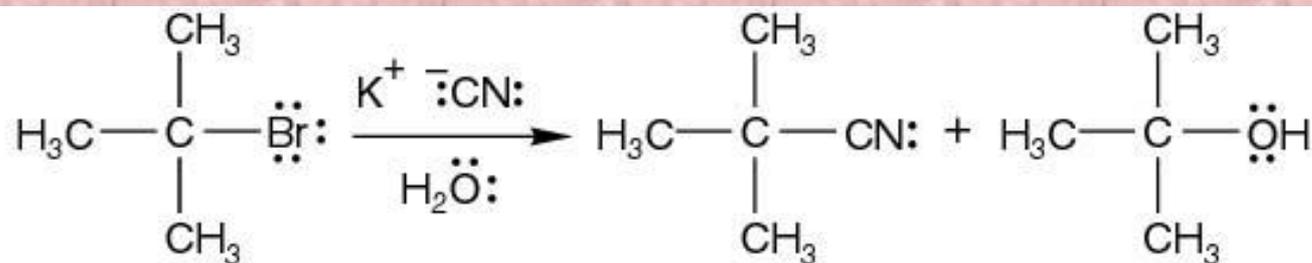


$S_N2$

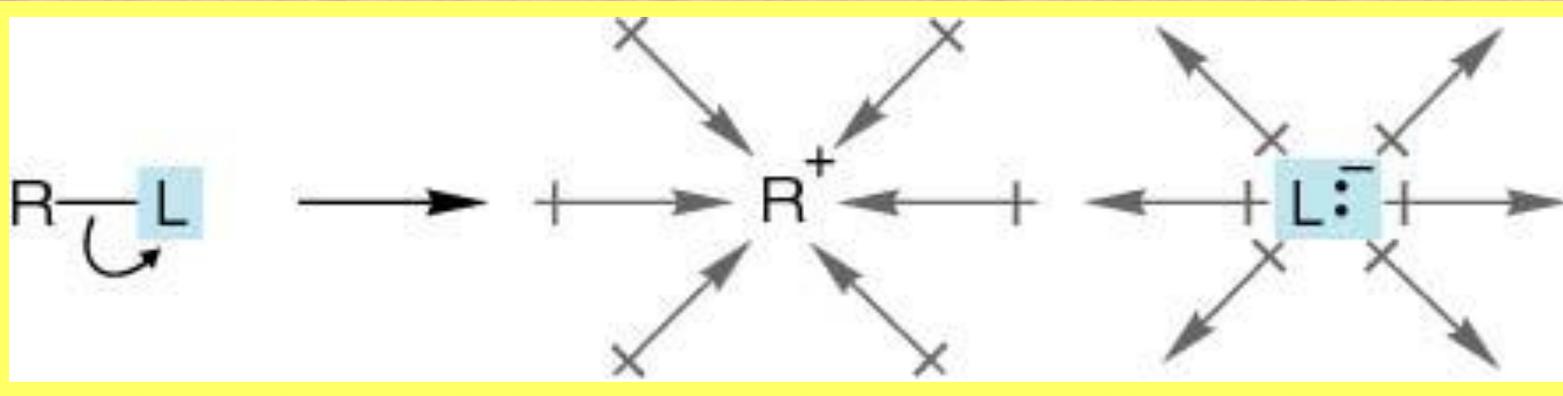
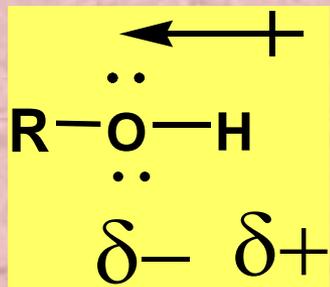
# Stereochemistry - racemization



# Effect of nucleophiles: to a first approximation - **none**



Solvents - we need a very polar solvent to stabilize the carbocation - water and alcohols are good



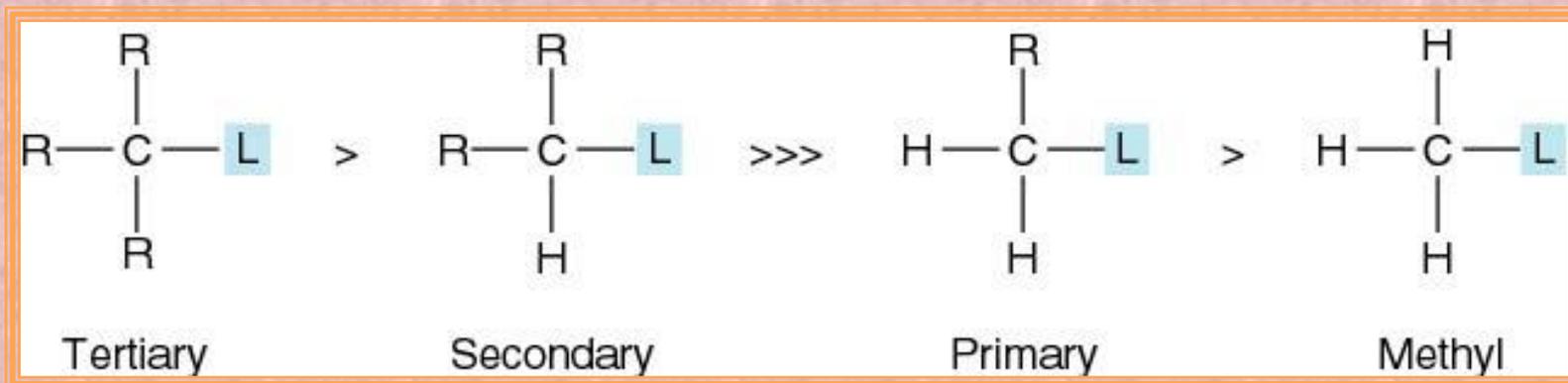
Leaving group effects - same as for S<sub>N</sub>2 (weak R-L, stable L<sup>-</sup>)

## Effects in the alkyl group, R

primarily determined by the stability of the carbocation, R<sup>+</sup>.

- R<sup>+</sup> is unstable - therefore, endothermic step
  - late transition state resembles R<sup>+</sup>
  - stabilize R<sup>+</sup>, stabilize transition state, faster reaction
  - destabilize R<sup>+</sup>, destabilize transition state, slower reaction

} Hammond  
principle

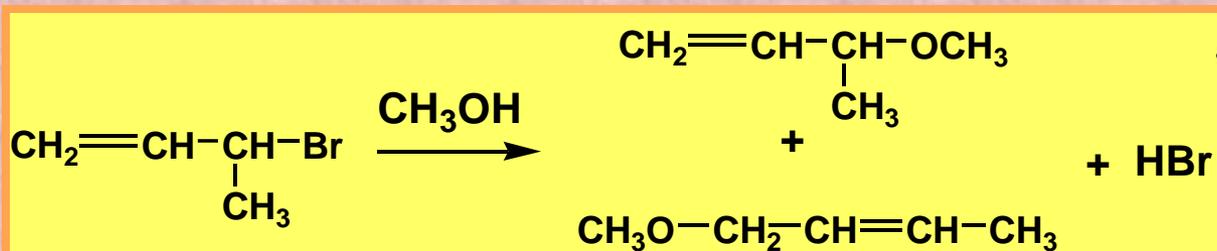


**Steric argument:** R-L = sp<sup>3</sup> but R<sup>+</sup> sp<sup>2</sup> hybridized.

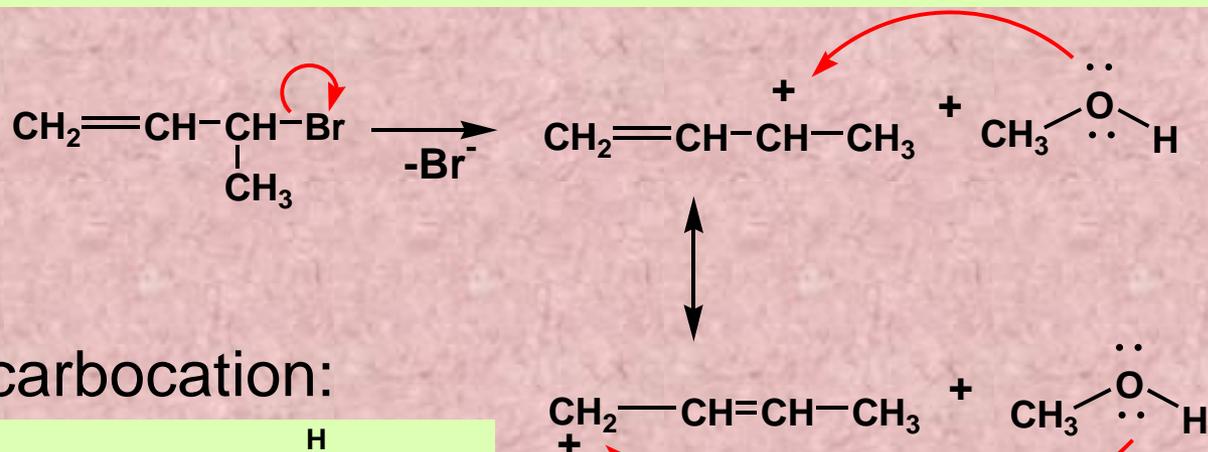
**Electronic argument:**

Recall **hyperconjugation and resonance**

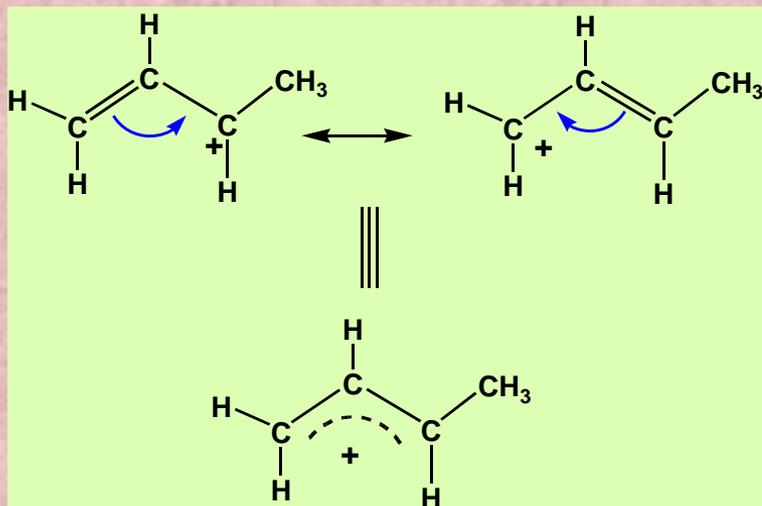
A special case - allylic substitution:



mechanism - consistent with carbocation intermediate:

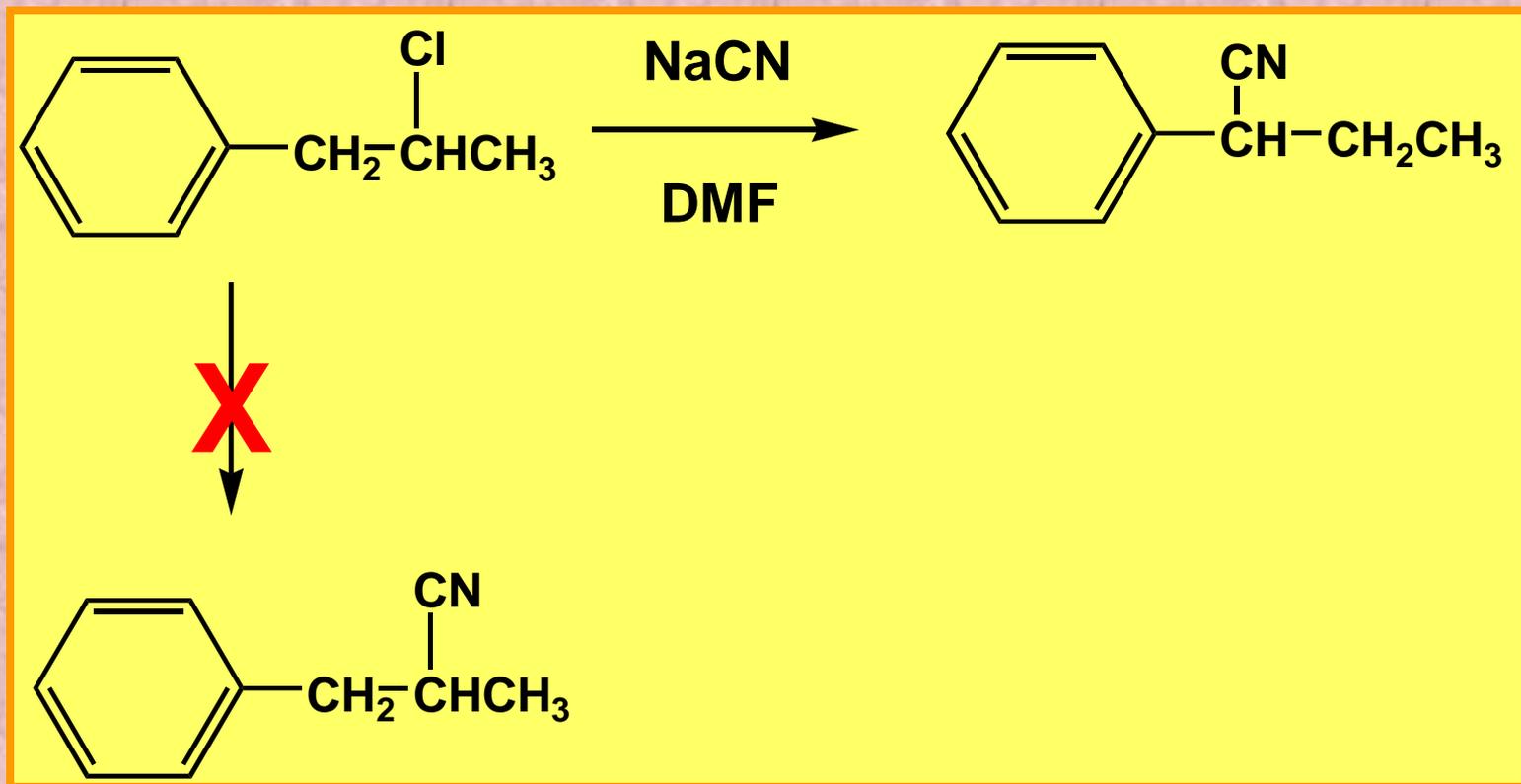


allyl carbocation:

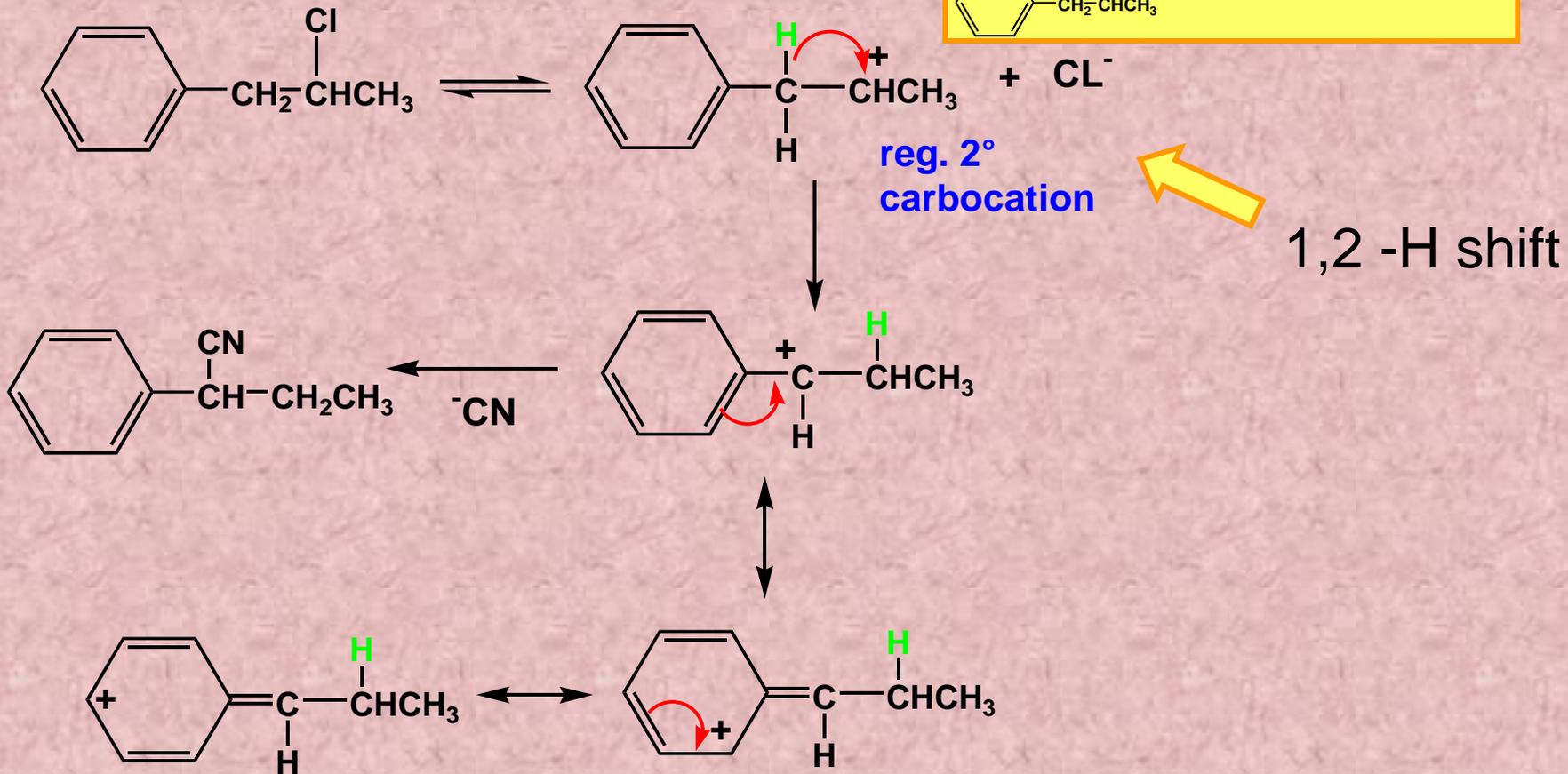
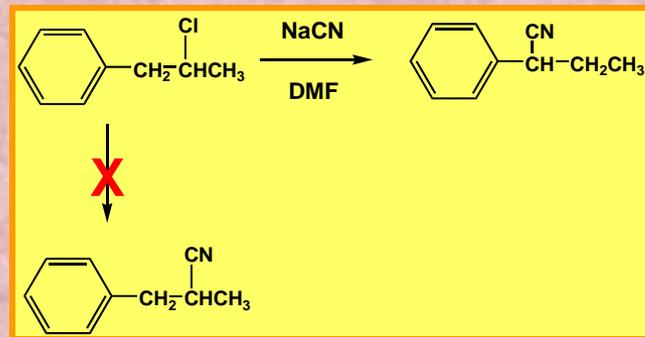


8. Rearrangements from a carbocation -  
Primarily a 1,2-H shift to form a more stable carbocation.

Another mystery!!

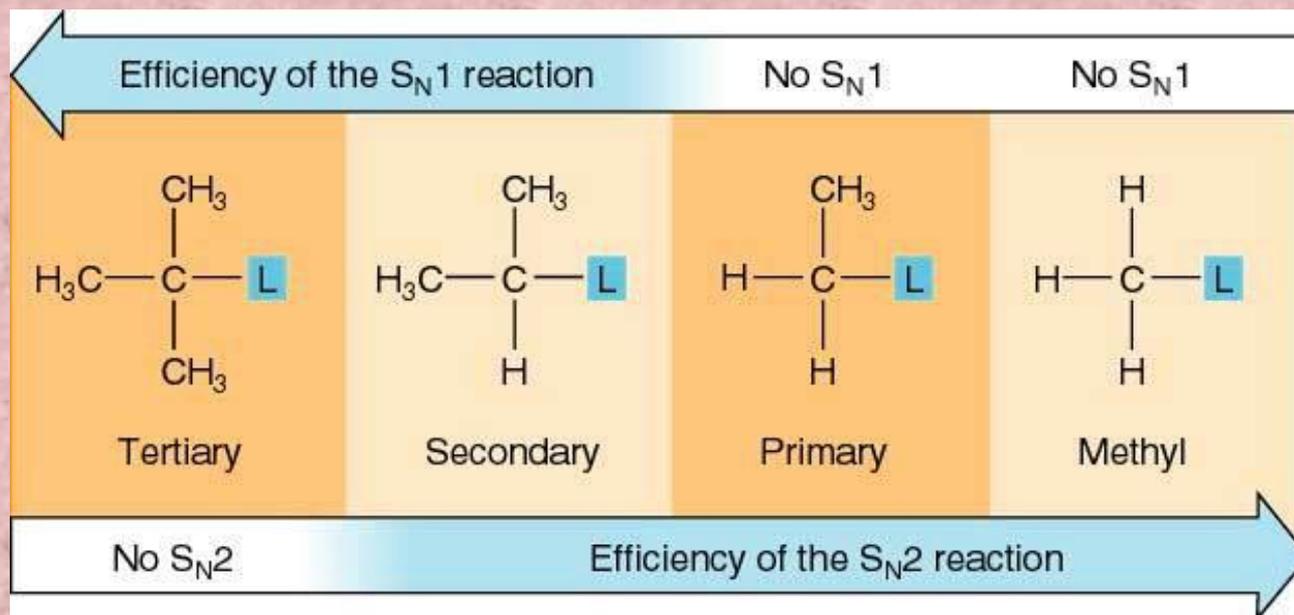


mechanism:



benzyl carbocation -  
stabilized by  
resonance

## 9. Difference between $S_N1$ and $S_N2$ - **PRIMARILY** the structure of R



- solvent polarity
- strength of R-L bond



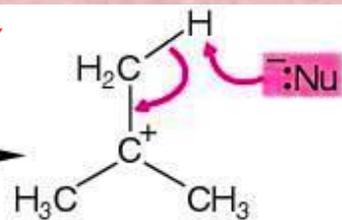
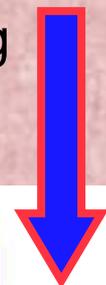
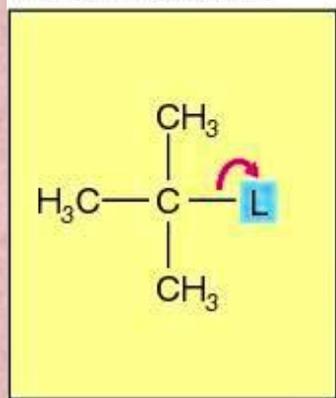
I. E1 - elimination unimolecular - proceeds just like  $S_N1$  - first step forms carbocation - -

1. mechanism:

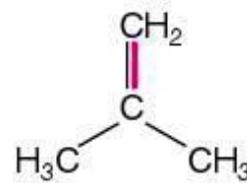
rate determining  
slow step

fast step

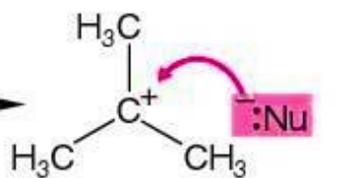
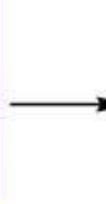
The general case



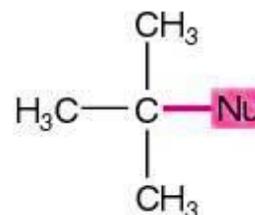
E1



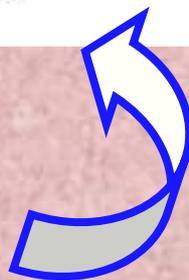
Favored by a highly  
*basic* nucleophile



$S_N1$



Favored by a highly  
*nucleophilic* nucleophile



Note: potential competition with  $S_N1$  reaction

Nucleophiles tend to be less basic.

Nucleophilicity refers to "how much" a reactant wants to "find" a positive charge. In other words, it measures the instability of the reactant's negative charge.

Basicity refers to "how much" a reactant wants to "find" a Hydrogen ion.

In both of these, the underlying drive is the same--both the base and the nucleophile want to stabilize their negative charge with a positive one.

So, the more unstable the negative charge of a reactant is, the higher its nucleophilicity AND its basicity.

The defining difference, then, is how a reactant behaves in the presence of a substrate that contains an electrophile or an abstractable hydrogen

A strong base will have such a great thermodynamic instability that it will attack a protic hydrogen

A good nucleophile, then, is not as basic and is more likely to be sterically unhindered.

Consider  $\text{CN}^-$ . It will tend to act as a nucleophile and attack an electrophile

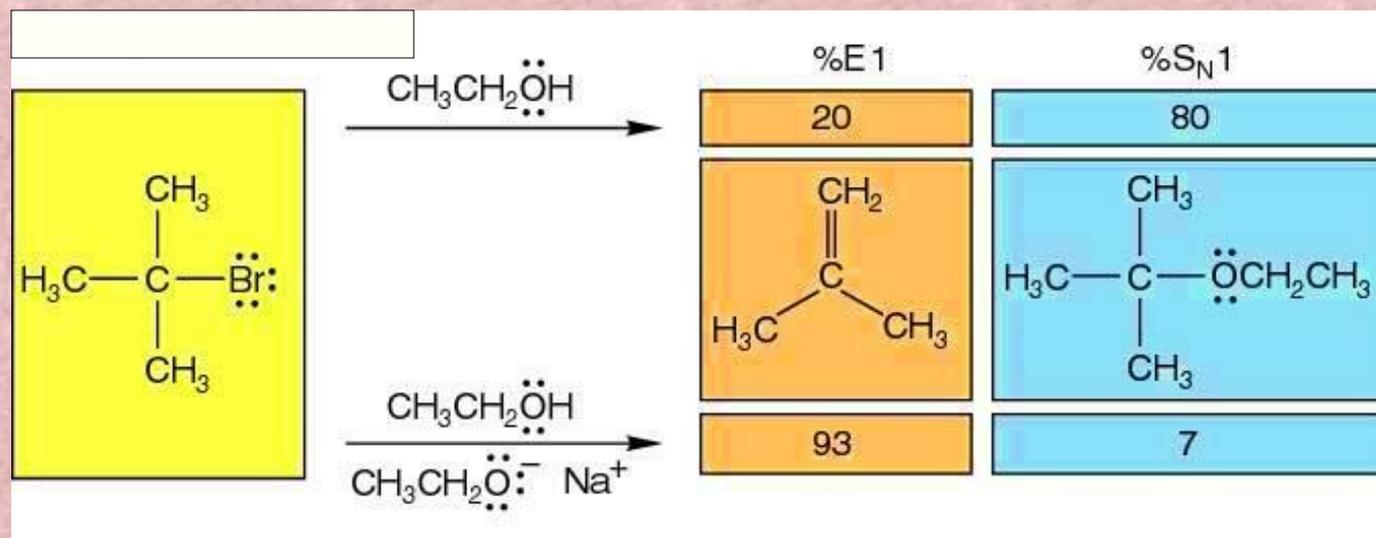
A reactant can be a good nucleophile and a good base and act as either.

Consider  $\text{HO}^-$  or hydroxide. Depending on the conditions, it can act as a base and turn into water, or it can attack an electrophile in an  $\text{S}_{\text{N}}2$  fashion

Consider  $\text{Br}^-$  which is a base and a good nucleophile, It will tend to act in an  $\text{S}_{\text{N}}2$  fashion

As you can see it is very nuanced, and you have to consider the whole reaction when determining nucleophilicity and basicity.

In **GENERAL** E1 is favored by a strong base, e.g.

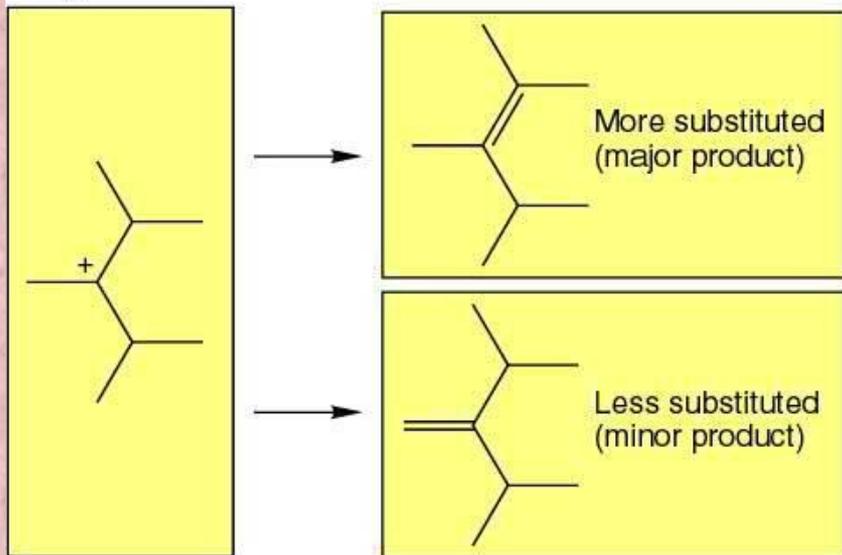


## 2. orientation - generally follows

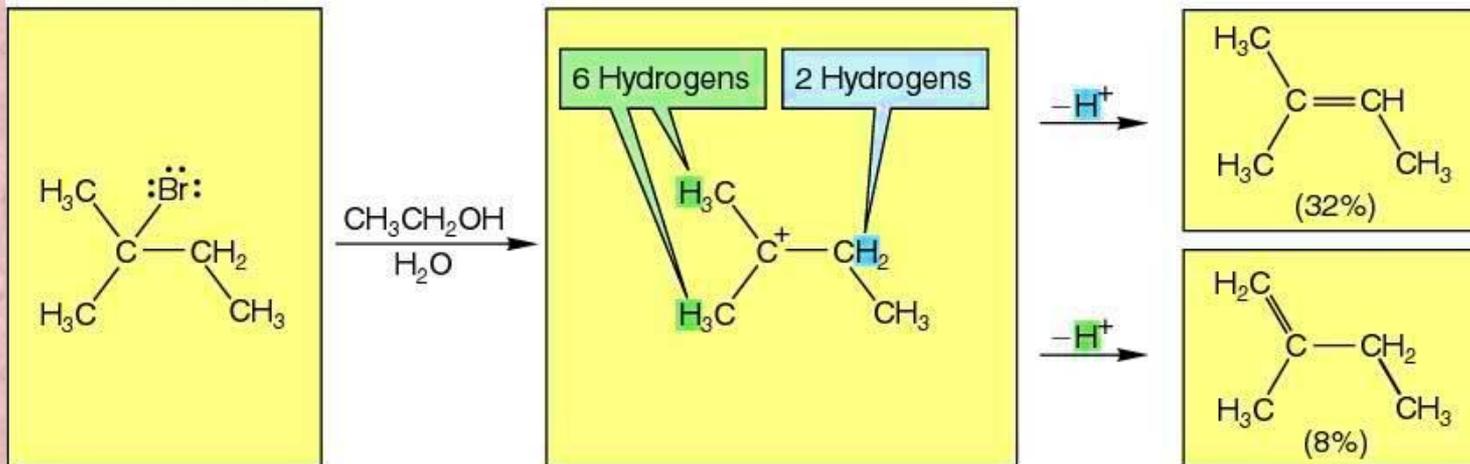
### Saytzeff rule -

the most substituted (most stable) olefin is formed

The general case

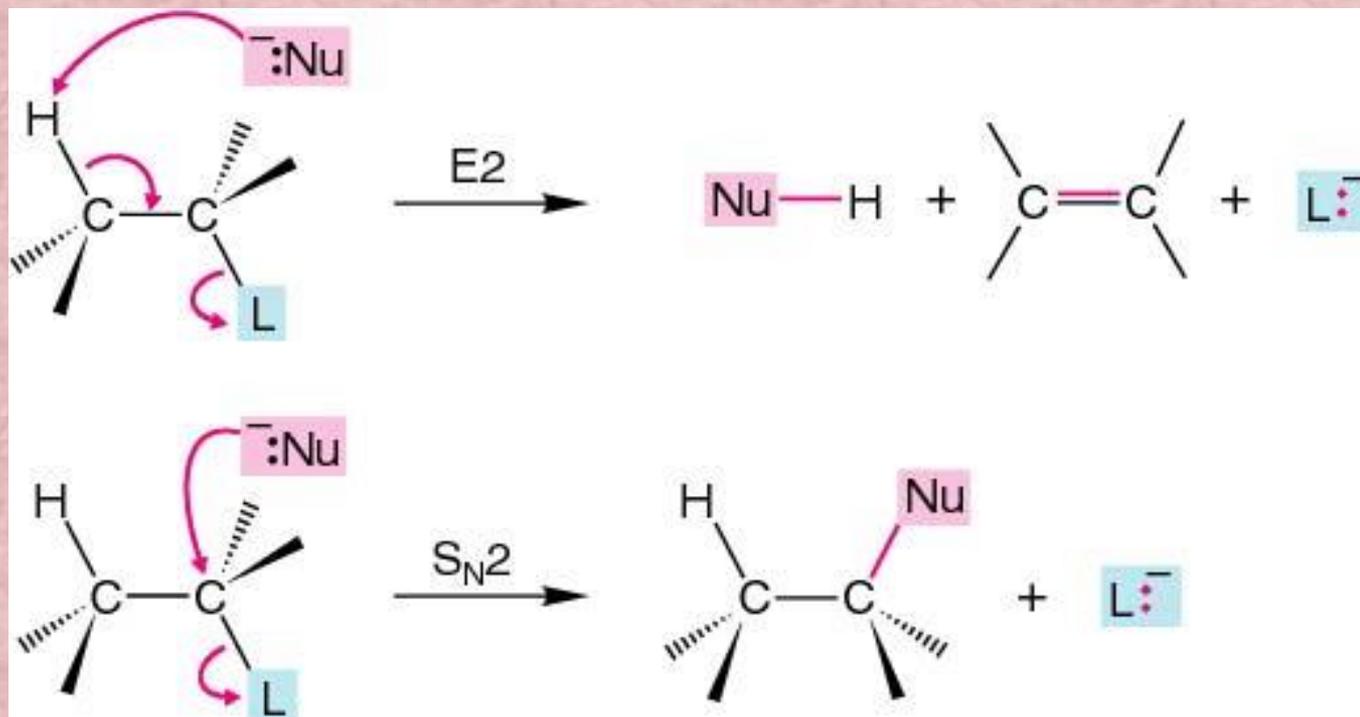


A specific example

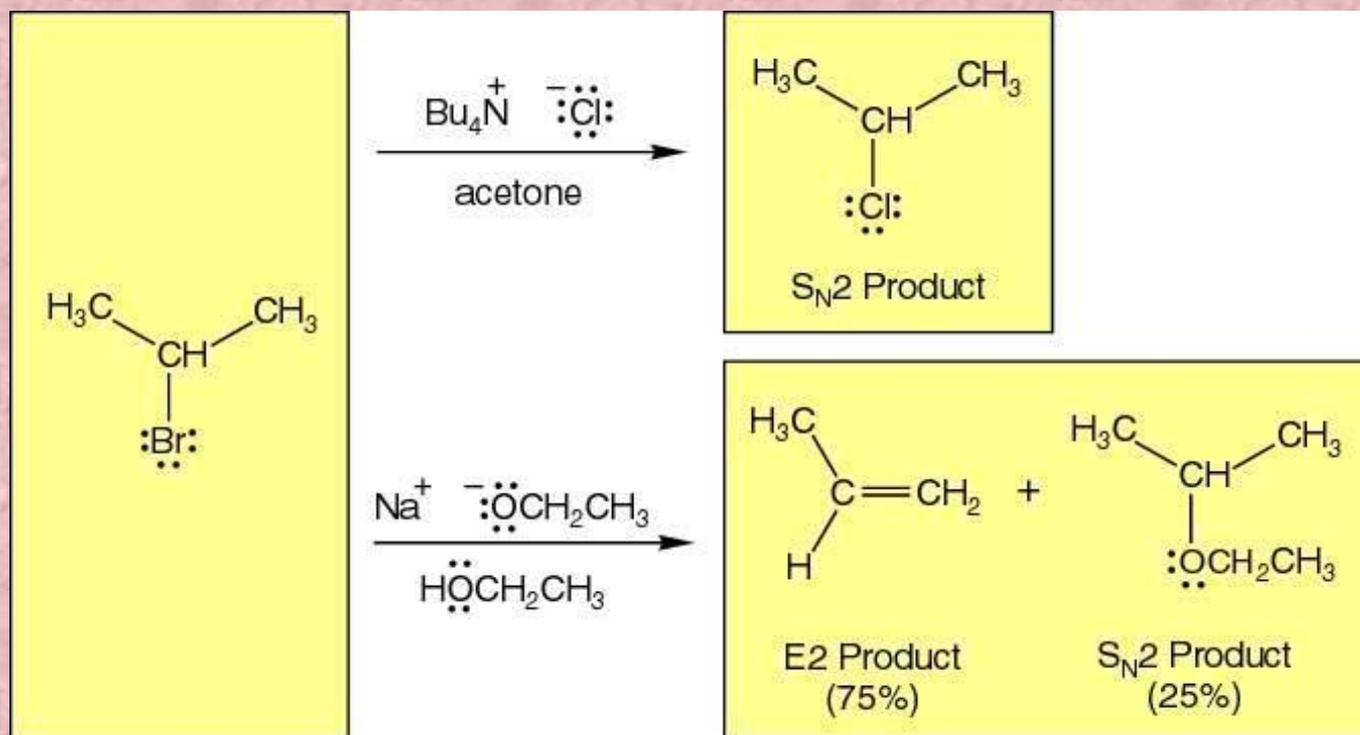


# J. E2 - elimination bimolecular - one step just like S<sub>N</sub>2

1. mechanism:

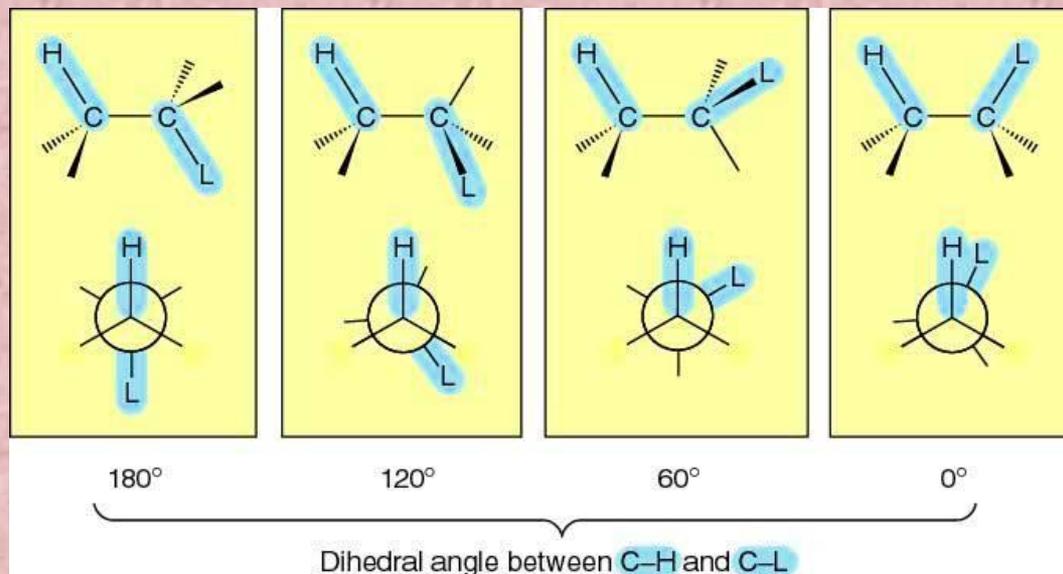


Strong bases are needed for E2 - but there is competition with S<sub>N</sub>2

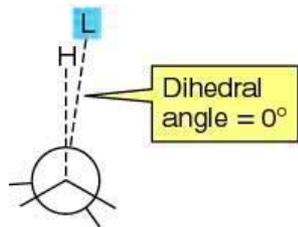
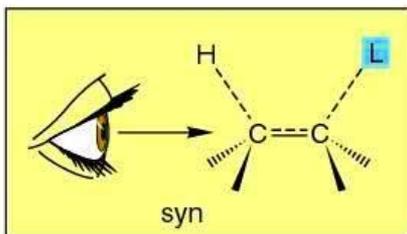


2. Stereochemistry - (there is none for E1- forms an achiral carbocation) - but for E2:

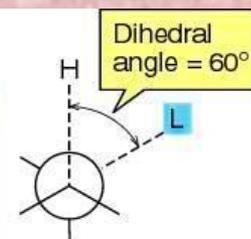
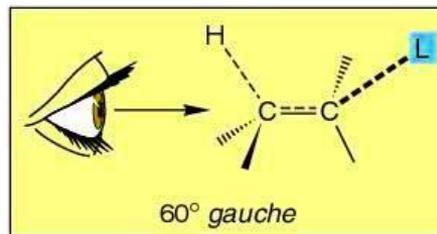
## anti-peri-planar stereochemistry



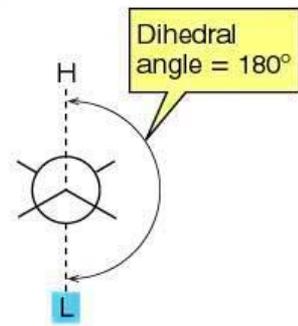
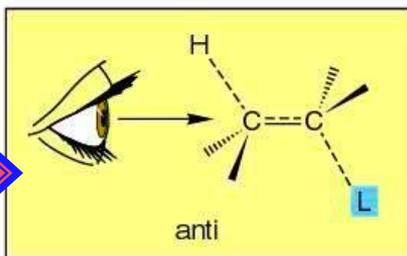
(a)



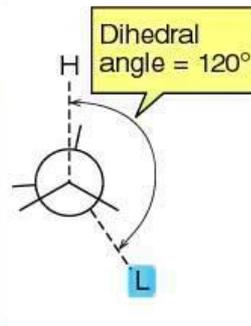
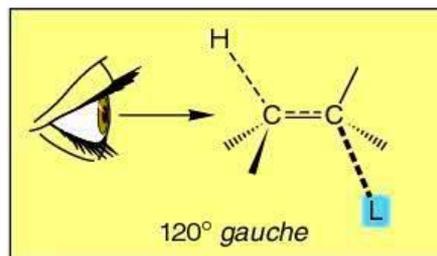
(c)

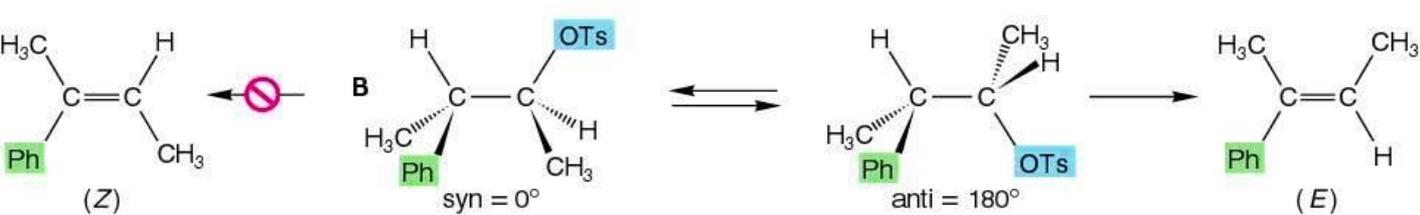
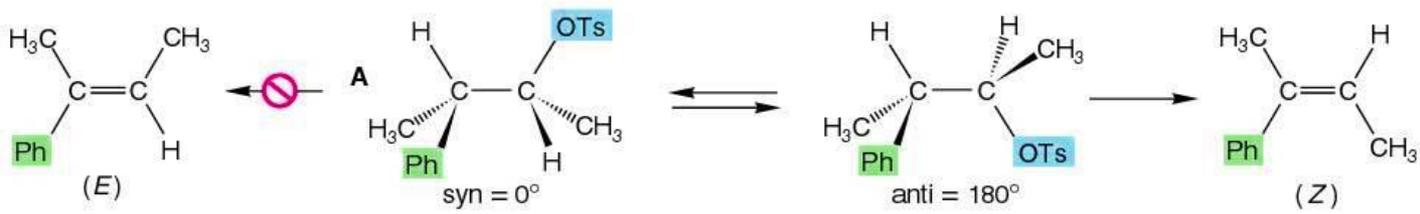
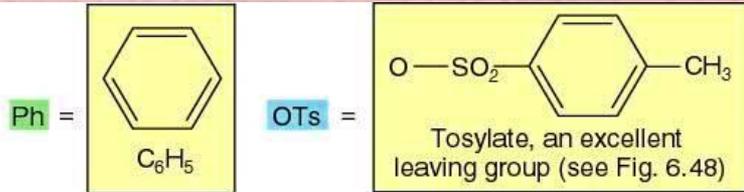
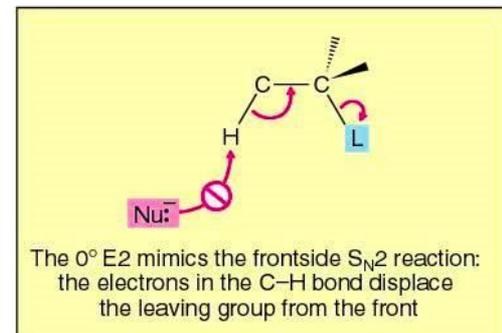
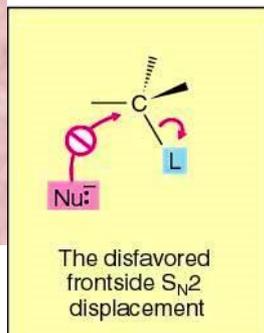
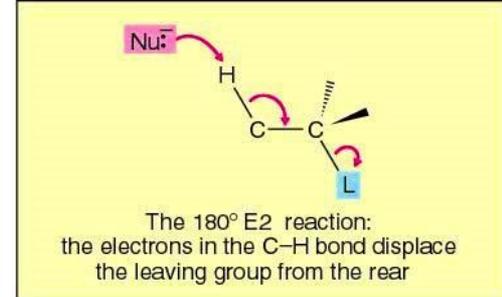
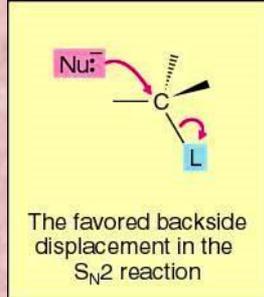


(b)

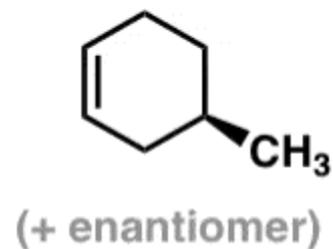
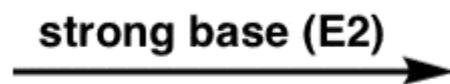
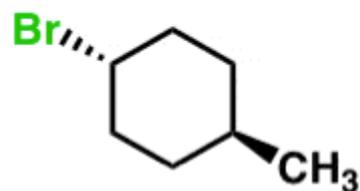


(d)

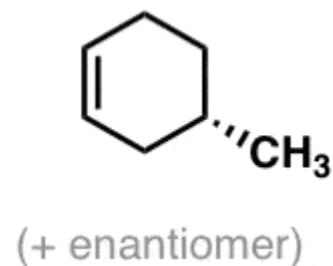
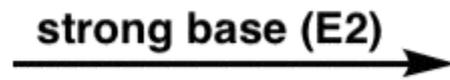
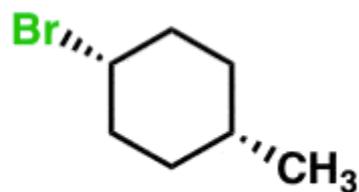




Application: Explain the difference in rate in these two cyclohexanes!

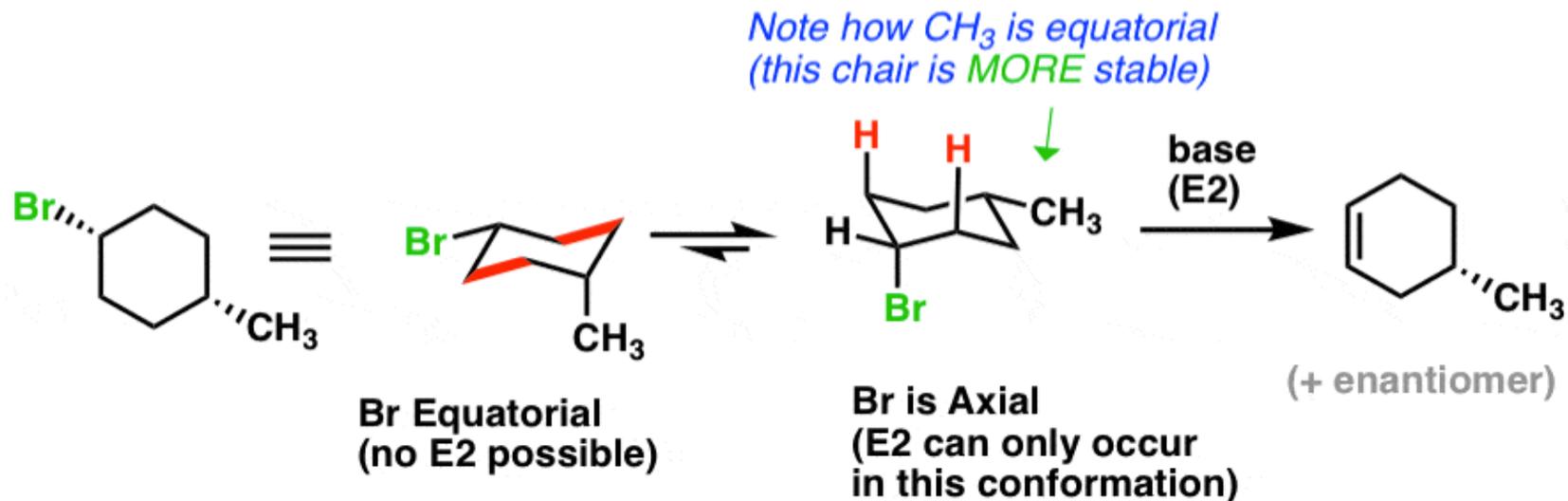
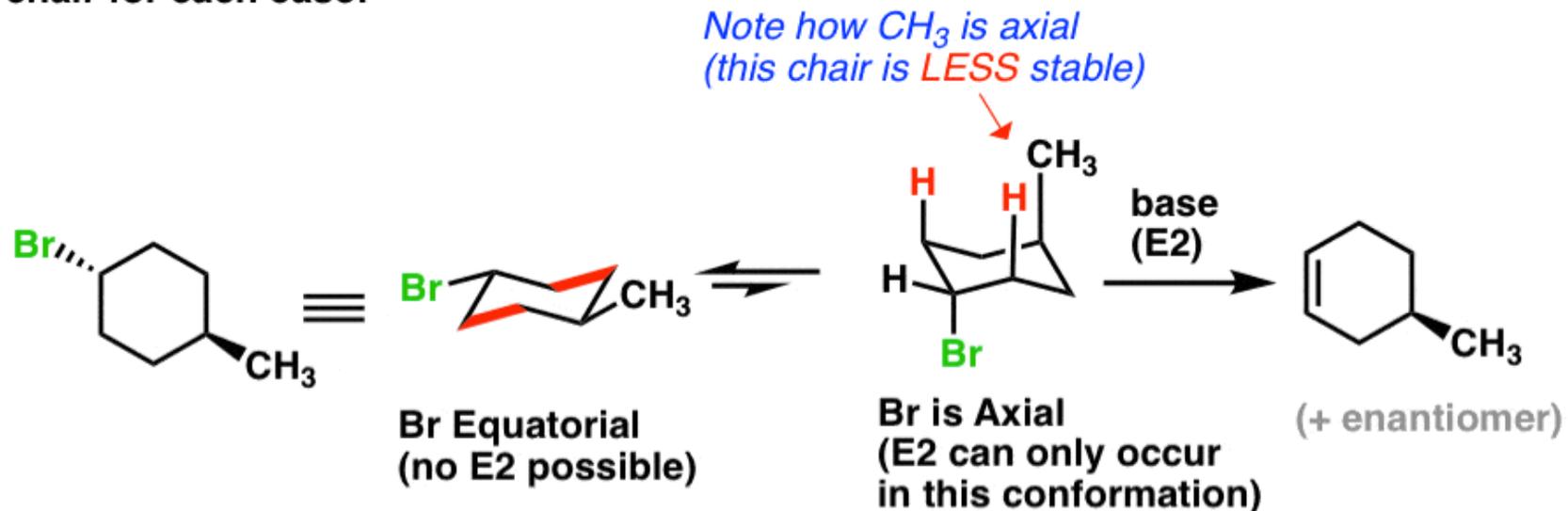


**SLOWER**



**FASTER**

Knowing that the elimination must occur when Br is axial, draw the corresponding chair for each case:



- The bottom reaction will occur more quickly because it goes through a **more stable** chair conformation (when Br is axial, CH<sub>3</sub> is equatorial)

What's going on?

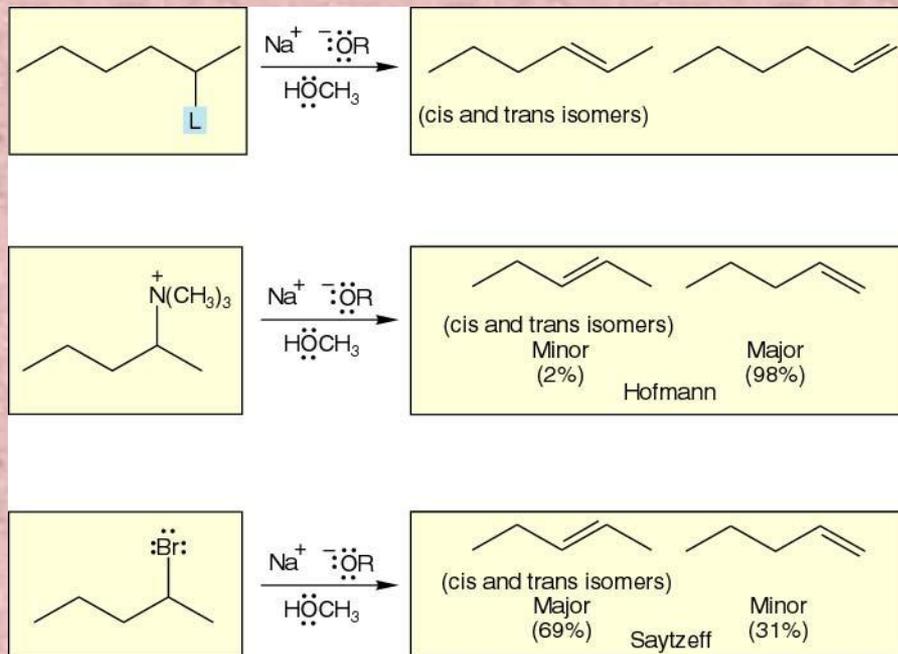
Each molecule will have an equilibrium between two chair forms.

In the top molecule, the left-hand conformation is favored, because the bulky methyl group\* [ $\text{CH}_3$  is actually bulkier than Br] is equatorial. So equilibrium will favor the left hand molecule.

In the bottom molecule, the rightmost conformation is favored, because the bulky methyl group is equatorial. So equilibrium will favor the right-hand molecule.

3. Orientation - mainly follows the **Saytzeff rule** (most substituted olefin) - HOWEVER - there is another pattern! The **Hofmann orientation** - the least substituted olefin is formed:

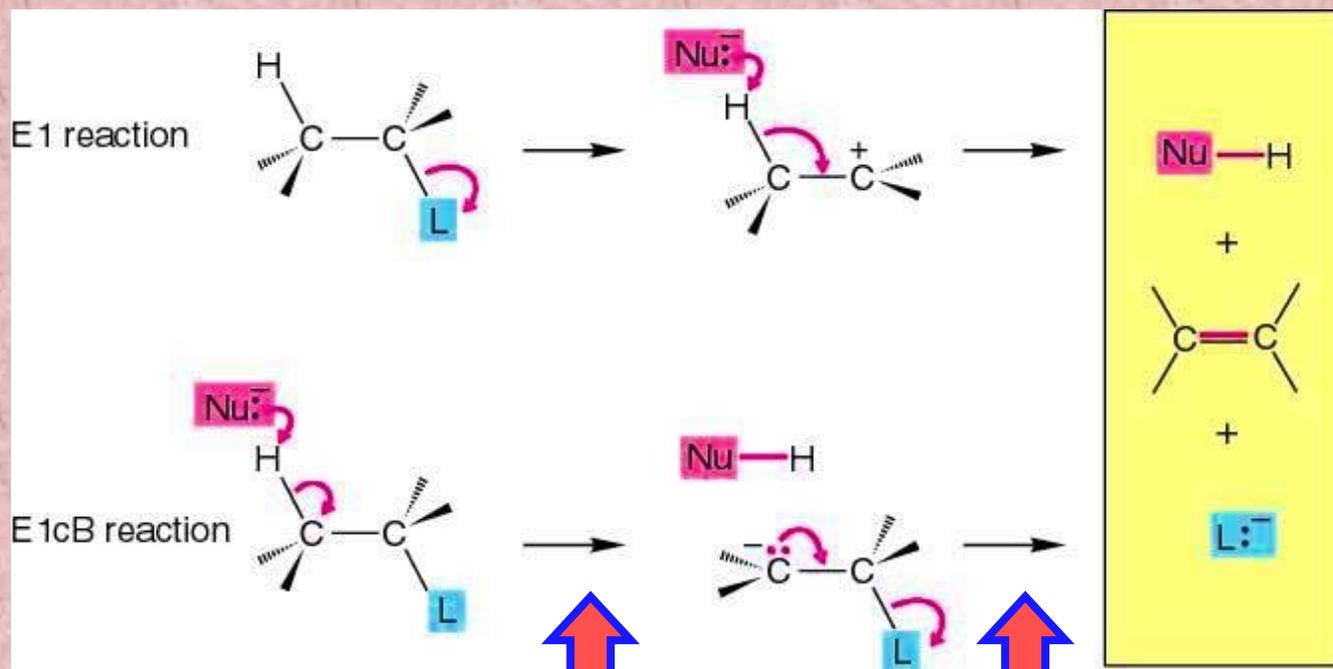
**Hofmann rule**



**Saytzeff rule**

The difference in orientation here is (obviously) due to the nature of the leaving group, L...

The orientational preference for the Hofmann rule is derived from a change in the nature of the E2 mechanism. Let us first look at the third mechanism - **E1cB** - elimination unimolecular carbon base:

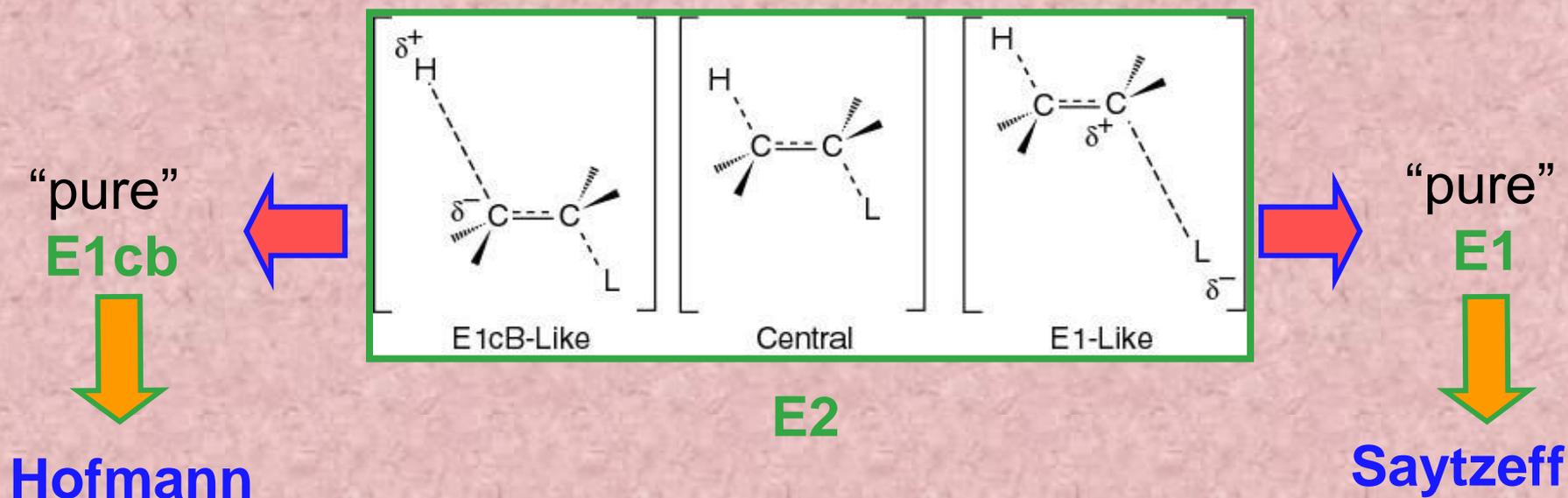


fast step

rate determining  
slow step

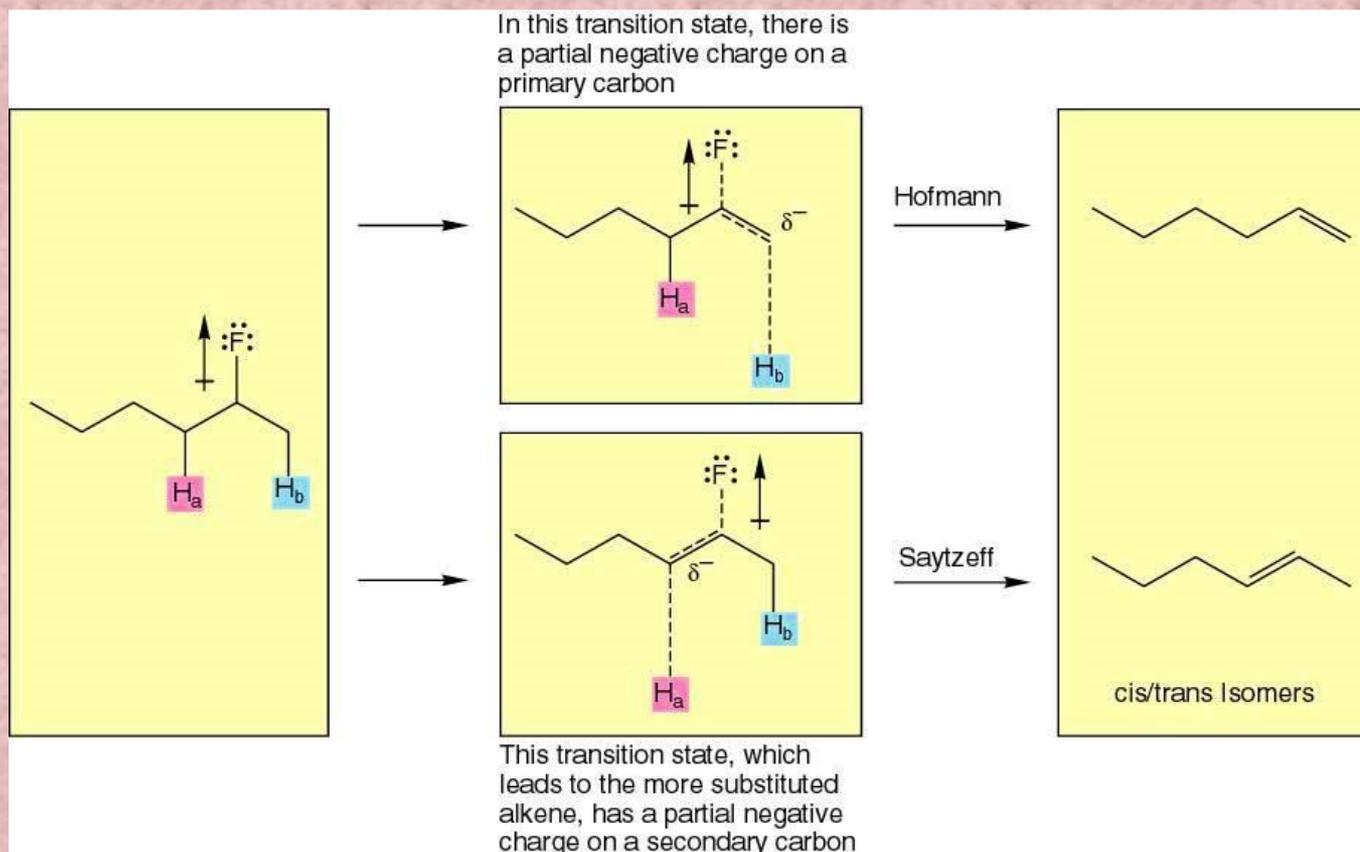
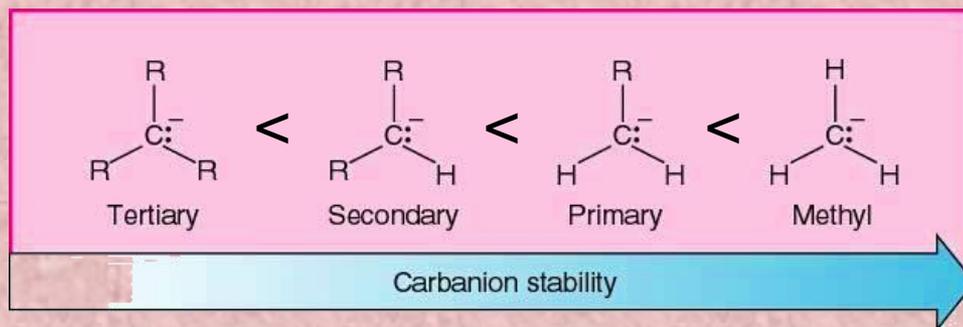
In reality there is a spectrum of reaction mechanisms!!

The transition states look like -



So if  $L$  is a strongly electron withdrawing group -  
e. g.  $-F$  or  $-N(NMe)_3$   
then a E1cB or E2 with "E1cB-like" character is favored.

# NOW REMEMBER - that the stability of carbanions is:



## K. Substitution versus elimination - general patterns:

1. Strong bases - favor  $S_N2$  or E2.
2. Weak bases - favor  $S_N1$  or  $S_N2$ .
3. Bulky bases ( $\text{Me}_3\text{C-O}^-$  etc.) favor elimination.
4. Polarizable bases ( $\text{Me}_3\text{P}$ , etc) favor substitution.
5. Primary halides - usually undergo  $S_N2$  -  
except if we are using a very, very strong base,  
then E2.
6. Tertiary halides - usually undergo E2 with a strong  
base but a combination of  $S_N1$ /E1 with a weak base.
7. Good leaving groups (form stable bases) favor  $S_N1$  or  
E1.
8. High temperatures promote elimination ( $-T\Delta S$  term).

## J. Summary

1. Nomenclature of R-X.
2. Preparation -
  - a. allylic halogenation -NBS.
3. Nucleophilic substitution
  - a. mechanisms of  $S_N1$  and  $S_N2$
  - b. rate laws and stereochemistry
  - c. variation of nucleophile, structure of R group, solvent and leaving group, L on reaction rates
  - d. rearrangements in carbocations
4. Elimination reactions
  - a. mechanisms of E1, E2 and E1cB
  - b. stereochemistry and rate laws
  - c. orientation - Saytzeff versus Hofmann
  - d. effect of base, leaving group and alkyl group
5. Factors favoring substitution versus elimination