

Chapter 6

Nucleophilic Substitution and Elimination Reactions of Alkyl Halides

Created by
Professor William Tam & Dr. Phillis Chang

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About The Authors

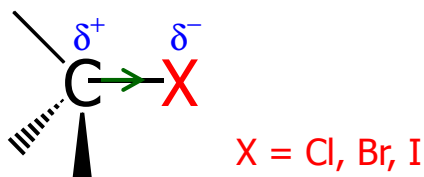
These PowerPoint Lecture Slides were created and prepared by Professor William Tam and his wife, Dr. Phillis Chang.

Professor William Tam received his B.Sc. at the University of Hong Kong in 1990 and his Ph.D. at the University of Toronto (Canada) in 1995. He was an NSERC postdoctoral fellow at the Imperial College (UK) and at Harvard University (USA). He joined the Department of Chemistry at the University of Guelph (Ontario, Canada) in 1998 and is currently a Full Professor and Associate Chair in the department. Professor Tam has received several awards in research and teaching, and according to *Essential Science Indicators*, he is currently ranked as the Top 1% most cited Chemists worldwide. He has published four books and over 80 scientific papers in top international journals such as *J. Am. Chem. Soc.*, *Angew. Chem.*, *Org. Lett.*, and *J. Org. Chem.*

Dr. Phillis Chang received her B.Sc. at New York University (USA) in 1994, her M.Sc. and Ph.D. in 1997 and 2001 at the University of Guelph (Canada). She lives in Guelph with her husband, William, and their son, Matthew.

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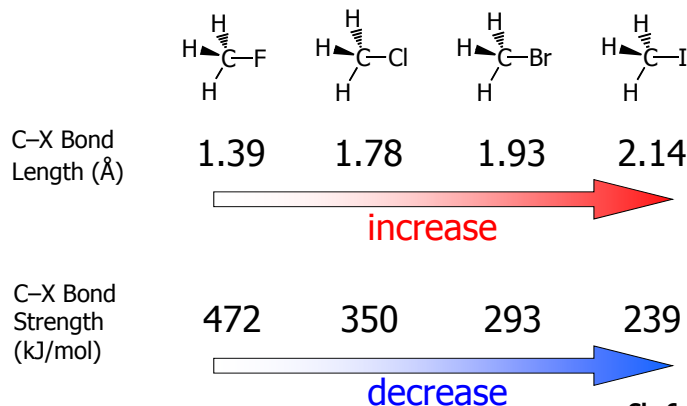
1. Organic Halides



- ❖ Halogens are more electronegative than carbon

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Carbon-Halogen Bond Lengths and Bond Strength



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1A. Physical Properties of Organic Halides: Boiling Point (bp/°C)

Group	Fluoride	Chloride	Bromide	Iodide
Me	-78.4	-23.8	3.6	42.5
Et	-37.7	13.1	38.4	72
Bu	32	78.4	101	130
^s Bu	-	68	91.2	120
ⁱ Bu	-	69	91	119
^t Bu	12	51	73.3	100(dec)

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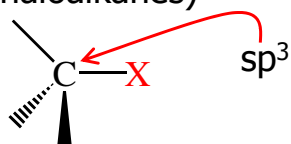
Physical Properties of Organic Halides: Density (ρ)

Group	Fluoride	Chloride	Bromide	Iodide
Me	0.84(-60)	0.92	1.73(0)	2.28
Et	0.72	0.91(15)	1.46	1.95
Bu	0.78	0.89	1.27	1.61
^s Bu	-	0.87	1.26	1.60
ⁱ Bu	-	0.87	1.26	1.60
^t Bu	0.75(12)	0.84	1.22	1.57(0)

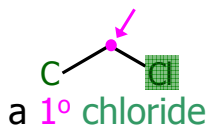
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Different Types of Organic Halides

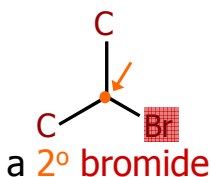
❖ Alkyl halides (haloalkanes)



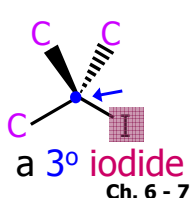
Attached to
1 carbon atom



Attached to
2 carbon atoms

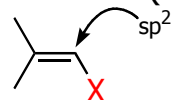


Attached to
3 carbon atoms

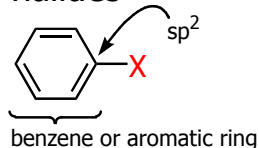


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❖ Vinyl halides (Alkenyl halides)



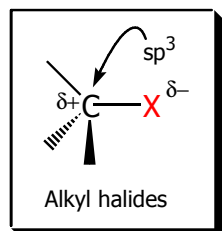
❖ Aryl halides



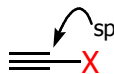
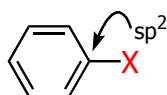
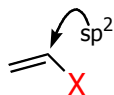
❖ Acetylenic halides (Alkynyl halides)



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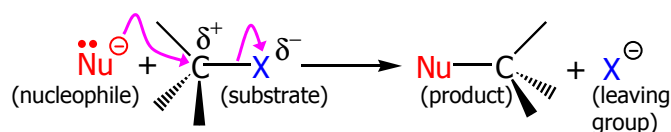
❖ Prone to undergo
Nucleophilic Substitutions
(S_N) and **Elimination**
Reactions (E) (the focus
of this Chapter)



❖ Different reactivity than alkyl halides,
and do not undergo S_N or E reactions

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2. Nucleophilic Substitution Reactions



The Nu^-
donates
an e^- pair
to the
substrate

The bond
between
C and LG
breaks,
giving both
 e^- from the
bond to LG

The Nu^- uses
its e^- pair to
form a new
covalent bond
with the
substrate C

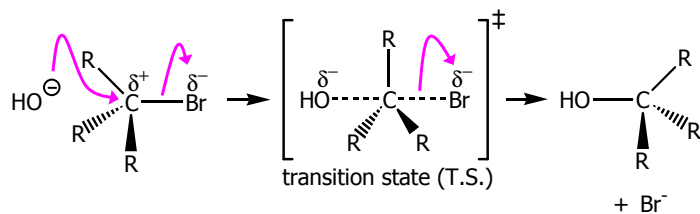
The LG
gains the
pair of e^-
originally
bonded
in the
substrate

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Timing of The Bond Breaking & Bond Making Process

❖ Two types of mechanisms

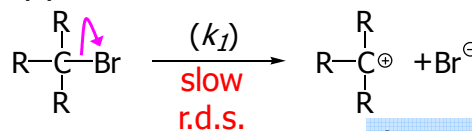
- 1st type: S_N2 (concerted mechanism)



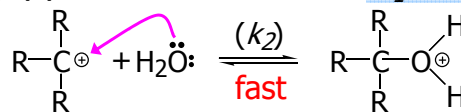
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• 2nd type: S_N1 (stepwise mechanism)

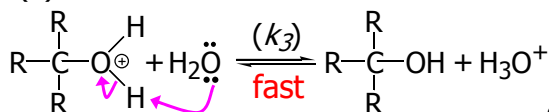
Step (1):



Step (2)



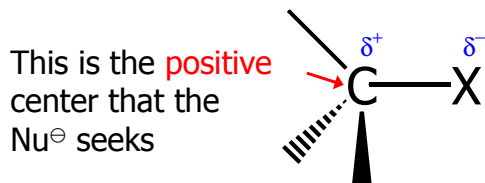
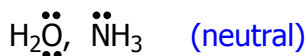
Step (3)



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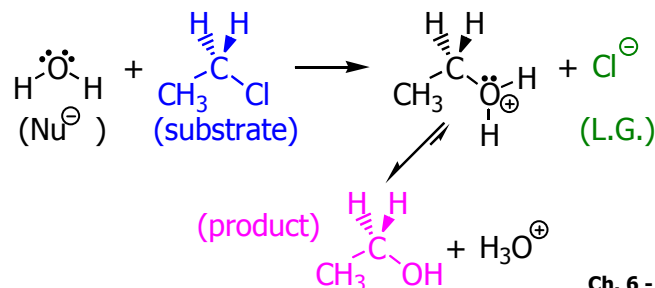
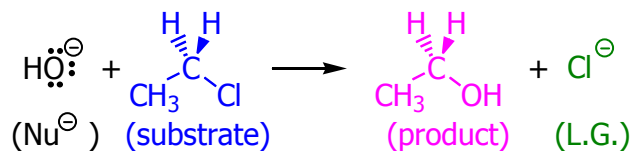
3. Nucleophiles

- ❖ A reagent that seeks a **positive** center
- ❖ Has an unshared pair of e^-
e.g.: HO^- , CH_3O^- , H_2N^- (negative charge)



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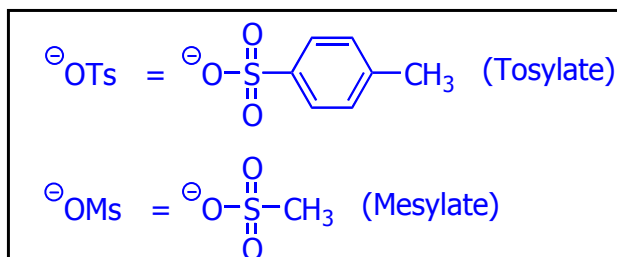
- ❖ Examples:



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4. Leaving Groups

- ❖ To be a good leaving group, the substituent must be able to leave as a relatively stable, weakly basic molecule or ion
e.g.: I^- , Br^- , Cl^- , TsO^- , MsO^- , H_2O , NH_3



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5. Kinetics of a Nucleophilic Substitution Reaction: An S_N2 Reaction



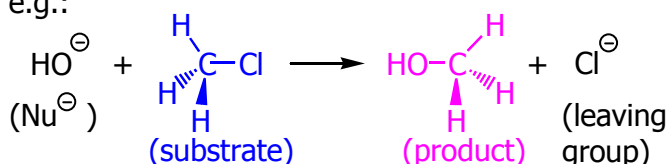
$$\text{Rate} = k[\text{CH}_3\text{Br}][\text{OH}^-]$$

- ❖ The rate of the substitution reaction is linearly dependent on the concentration of OH^- and CH_3Br
- ❖ Overall, a **second-order** reaction \Rightarrow **bimolecular**

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5A. How Do We Measure the Rate of This Reaction?

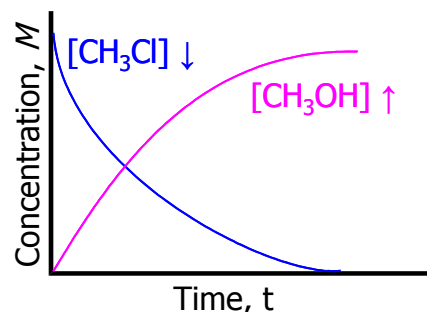
e.g.:



- ❖ The rate of reaction can be measured by
 - The consumption of the reactants (HO^- or CH_3Cl) or
 - The appearance of the products (CH_3OH or Cl^-) over time

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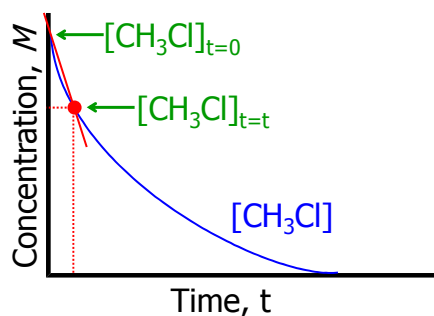
Graphically...



$$\text{Rate} = \frac{\Delta[\text{CH}_3\text{Cl}]}{\Delta t} = - \left\{ \frac{[\text{CH}_3\text{Cl}]_{t=t} - [\text{CH}_3\text{Cl}]_{t=0}}{\text{Time in seconds}} \right\}$$

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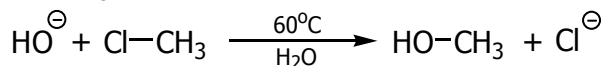
Initial Rate



$$\text{Initial Rate (from slope)} = - \left\{ \frac{[\text{CH}_3\text{Cl}]_{t=t} - [\text{CH}_3\text{Cl}]_{t=0}}{\Delta t} \right\}$$

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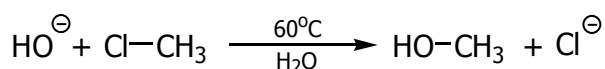
❖ Example:



$[\text{OH}^\ominus]_{t=0}$	$[\text{CH}_3\text{Cl}]_{t=0}$	Initial rate mole L ⁻¹ , s ⁻¹	Result
1.0 M	0.0010 M	4.9×10^{-7}	
1.0 M	0.0020 M	9.8×10^{-7}	Doubled
2.0 M	0.0010 M	9.8×10^{-7}	Doubled
2.0 M	0.0020 M	19.6×10^{-7}	Quadrupled

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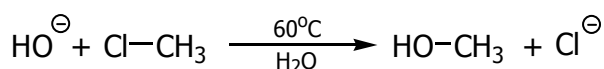
❖ Conclusion:



- The rate of reaction is directly proportional to the concentration of either reactant.
- When the concentration of either reactant is doubled, the rate of reaction doubles.

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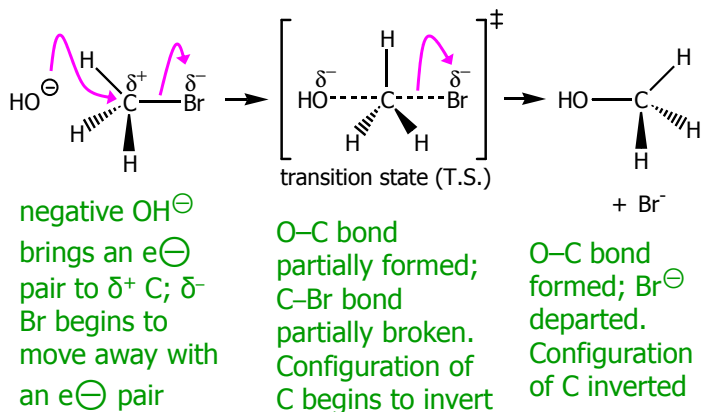
The Kinetic Rate Expression



$$\begin{aligned} \text{Rate} & \propto [\text{OH}^\ominus][\text{CH}_3\text{Cl}] \\ \text{Rate} & = k[\text{OH}^\ominus][\text{CH}_3\text{Cl}] \\ k & = \frac{\text{Initial Rate}}{[\text{OH}^\ominus][\text{CH}_3\text{Cl}]} \\ & = 4.9 \times 10^{-7} \text{ L mol}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1} \end{aligned}$$

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6. A Mechanism for the S_N2 Reaction



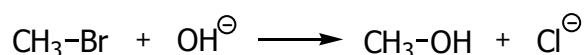
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7. Transition State Theory: Free Energy Diagrams

- A reaction that proceeds with a **negative** free-energy change (releases energy to its surroundings) is said to be **exergonic**
- A reaction that proceeds with a **positive** free-energy change (absorbs energy from its surroundings) is said to be **endergonic**

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❖ At 60°C (333 K)



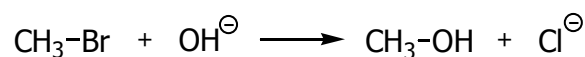
$$\Delta G^\ominus = -100 \text{ kJ/mol}$$

- This reaction is highly **exergonic**

$$\Delta H^\ominus = -75 \text{ kJ/mol}$$

- This reaction is **exothermic**

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- Its equilibrium constant (K_{eq}) is

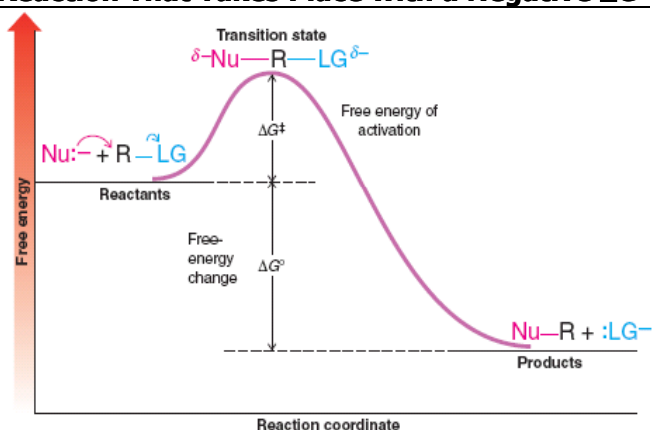
$$\Delta G^\ominus = -RT \ln K_{eq}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \ln K_{eq} &= \frac{-\Delta G^\ominus}{RT} \\ &= \frac{-(-100 \text{ kJ/mol})}{(0.00831 \text{ kJ K}^{-1} \text{ mol}^{-1})(333 \text{ K})} \\ &= 36.1 \end{aligned}$$

$$K_{eq} = 5.0 \times 10^{15}$$

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A Free Energy Diagram for a Hypothetical S_N2 Reaction That Takes Place with a Negative ΔG^\ominus

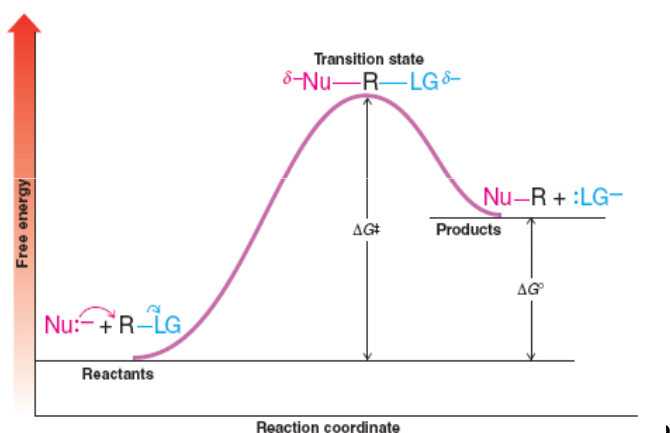


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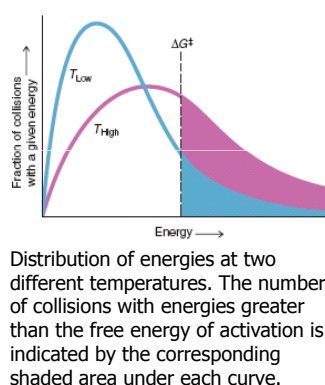
- ❖ The **reaction coordinate** indicates the progress of the reaction, in terms of the conversion of reactants to products
- ❖ The top of the energy curve corresponds to the **transition state** for the reaction
- ❖ The **free energy of activation** (ΔG^\ddagger) for the reaction is the difference in energy between the reactants and the transition state
- ❖ The **free energy change for the reaction** (ΔG^\ominus) is the difference in energy between the reactants and the products

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A Free Energy Diagram for a Hypothetical Reaction with a Positive Free-Energy Change



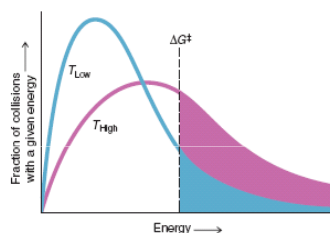
7A. Temperature, Reaction Rate, and the Equilibrium Constant



- ❖ A 10°C increase in temperature will cause the reaction rate to double for many reactions taking place near room temperature

Distribution of energies at two different temperatures. The number of collisions with energies greater than the free energy of activation is indicated by the corresponding shaded area under each curve.

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Distribution of energies at two different temperatures. The number of collisions with energies greater than the free energy of activation is indicated by the corresponding shaded area under each curve.

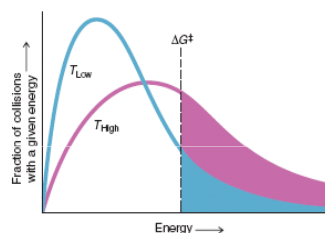
- ❖ The relationship between the rate constant (k) and ΔG^\ddagger is *exponential*:

$$k = k_0 e^{-\Delta G^\ddagger/RT}$$

$e = 2.718$, the base of natural logarithms

k_0 = absolute rate constant, which equals the rate at which all transition states proceed to products (At 25°C, $k_0 = 6.2 \times 10^{12} \text{ s}^{-1}$)

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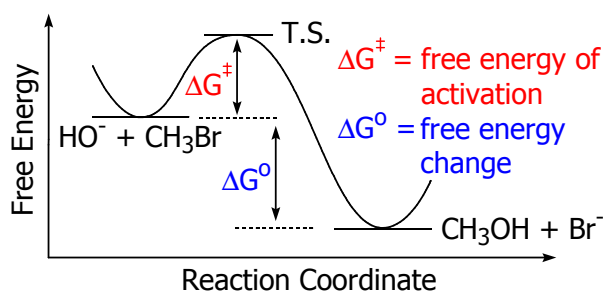
Distribution of energies at two different temperatures. The number of collisions with energies greater than the free energy of activation is indicated by the corresponding shaded area under each curve.

- ❖ A reaction with a lower free energy of activation (ΔG^\ddagger) will occur exponentially faster than a reaction with a higher ΔG^\ddagger , as dictated by

$$k = k_0 e^{-\Delta G^\ddagger/RT}$$

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Free Energy Diagram of S_N2 Reactions

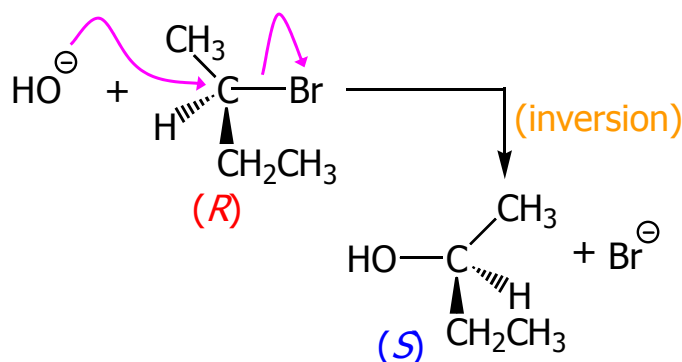


- ❖ **Exothermic** (ΔG° is negative)
- ❖ **Thermodynamically favorable** process

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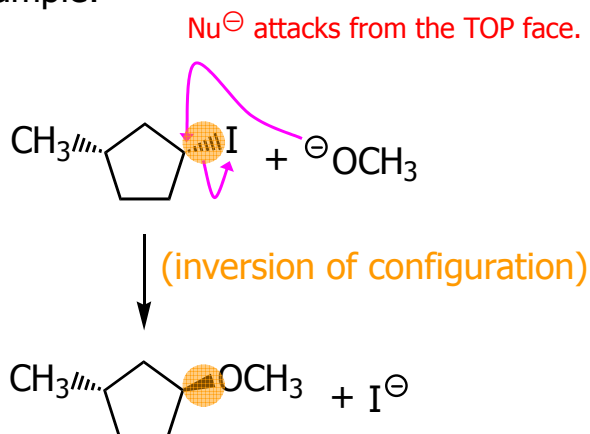
8.The Stereochemistry of S_N2 Reactions

- ❖ Inversion of configuration



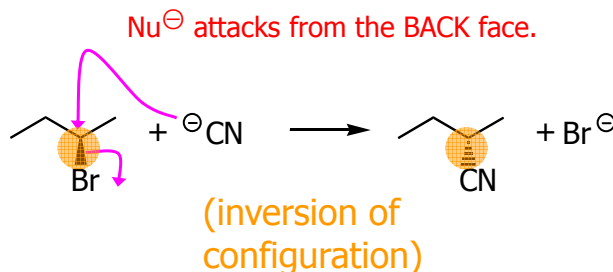
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- ❖ Example:



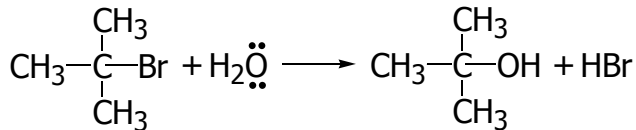
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- ❖ Example:



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9. The Reaction of tert-Butyl Chloride with Hydroxide Ion: An S_N1 Reaction



- The rate of S_N1 reactions depends only on concentration of the alkyl halide and is independent on concentration of the Nu[⊖]

$$\text{Rate} = k[\text{RX}]$$

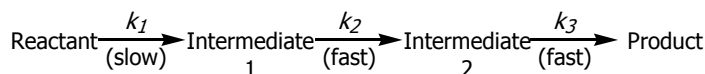
In other words, it is a *first-order* reaction
⇒ *unimolecular* nucleophilic substitution

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9A. Multistep Reactions & the Rate-Determining Step

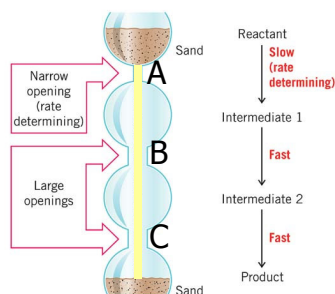
- In a multistep reaction, the rate of the overall reaction is the same as the rate of the **SLOWEST** step, known as the **rate-determining step (r.d.s)**

- For example:



$$k_1 \ll k_2 \text{ or } k_3$$

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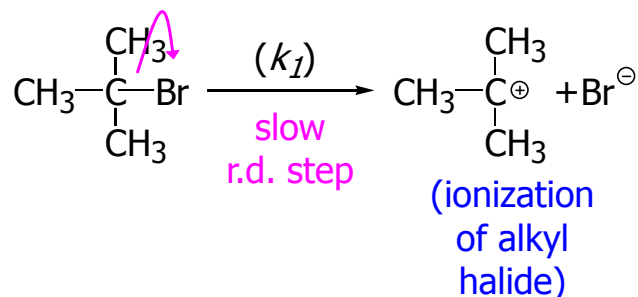
- The opening A is much smaller than openings B and C
- The overall rate at which sand reaches to the bottom of the hourglass is **limited** by the rate at which sand falls through opening A
- Opening A is analogous to the **rate-determining step** of a multistep reaction

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10. A Mechanism for the S_N1 Reaction

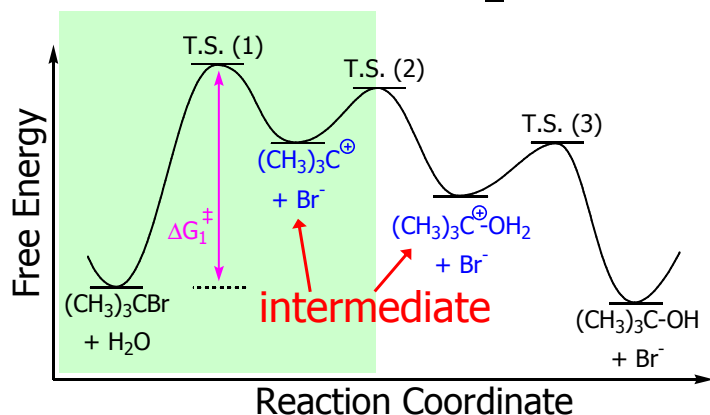
- A multistep process

Step (1):



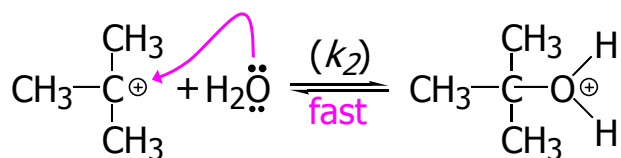
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Free Energy Diagram of S_N1 Reactions



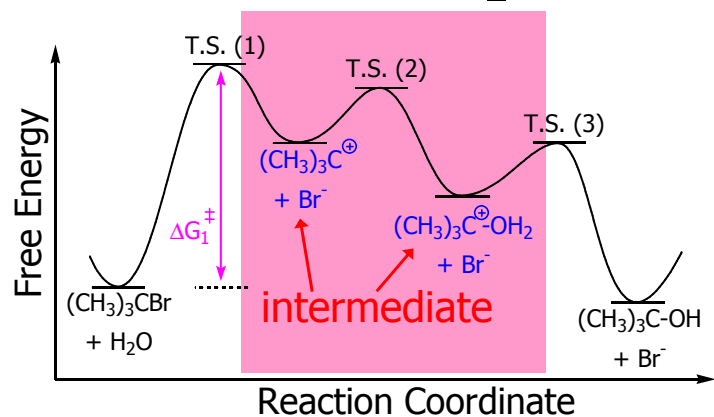
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Step (2):



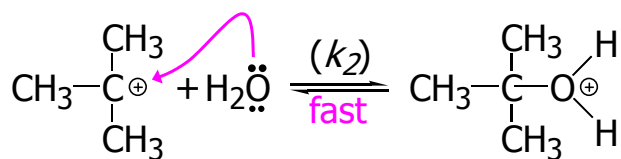
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Free Energy Diagram of S_N1 Reactions

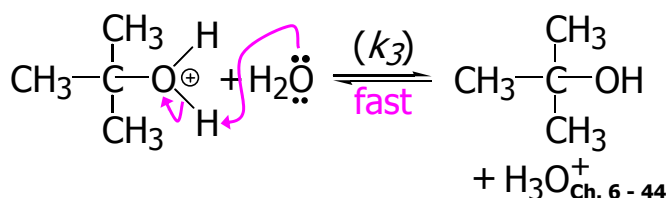


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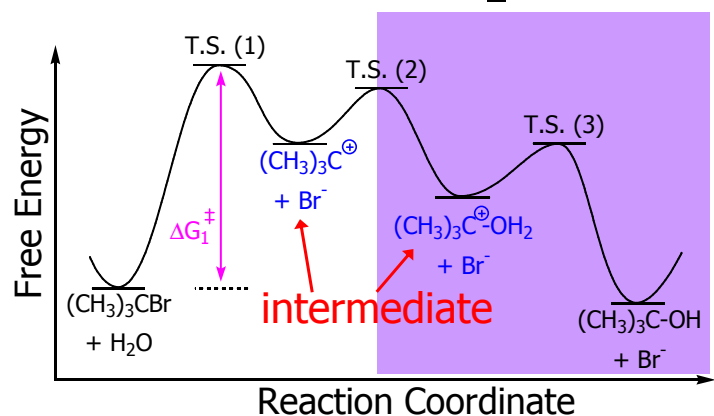
Step (2)



Step (3)

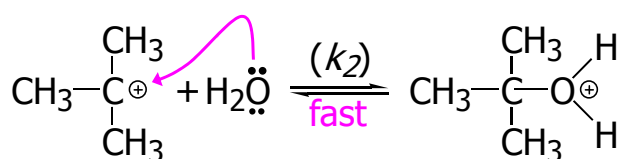


Free Energy Diagram of S_N1 Reactions

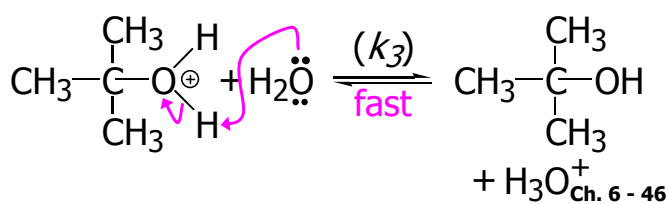


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Step (2)



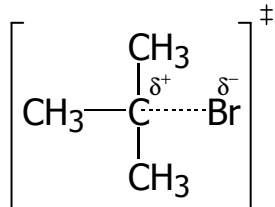
Step (3)



$$k_1 \ll k_2 \text{ and } k_3$$

❖ 2 intermediates and 3 transition states (T.S.)

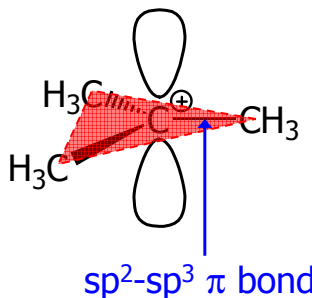
❖ The most important T.S. for S_N1 reactions is T.S. (1) of the rate-determining step (r.d.s.)



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11. Carbocations

11A. The Structure of Carbocations



- ❖ Carbocations are trigonal planar
- ❖ The central carbon atom in a carbocation is electron deficient; it has only six e⁻ in its valence shell
- ❖ The p orbital of a carbocation contains no electrons, but it can accept an electron pair when the carbocation undergoes further reaction

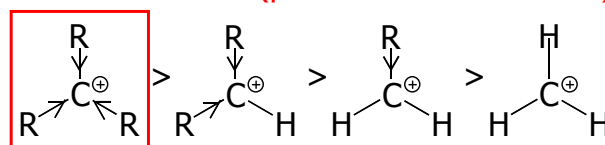
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11B. The Relative Stabilities of Carbocations

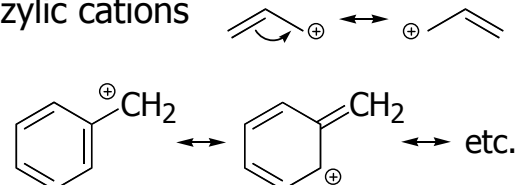
- General order of reactivity (towards S_N1 reaction)
 - $3^\circ > 2^\circ \gg 1^\circ > \text{methyl}$
- The more stable the carbocation formed, the faster the S_N1 reaction

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- Stability of cations
 - most stable (positive inductive effect)

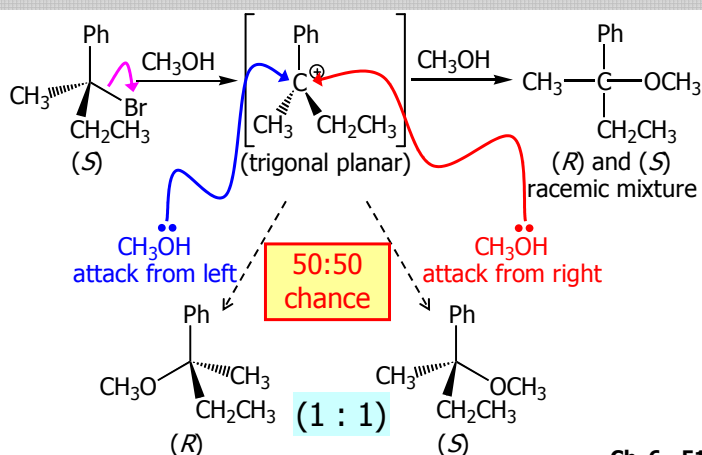


- Resonance stabilization of allylic and benzylic cations

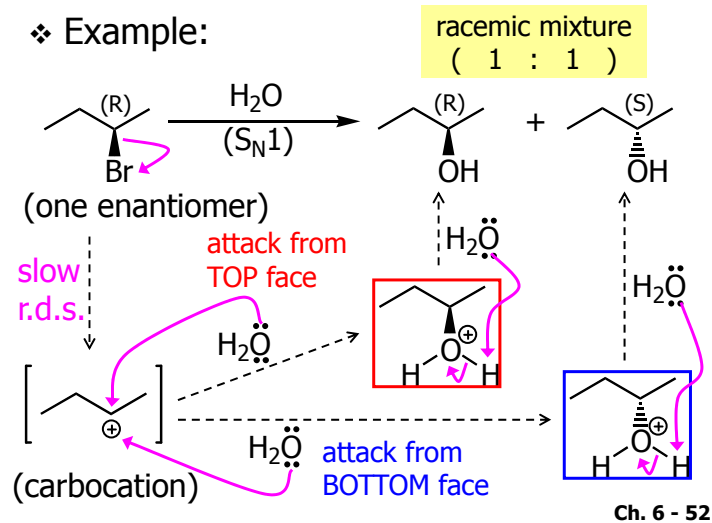


Ch. 6 - 50

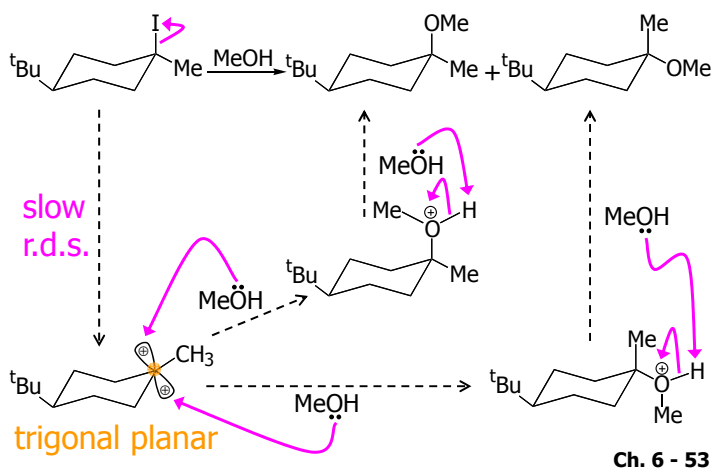
12. The Stereochemistry of S_N1 Reactions



- Example:



- Example:



13. Factors Affecting the Rates of S_N1 and S_N2 Reactions

- The structure of the substrate
- The concentration and reactivity of the nucleophile (for S_N2 reactions only)
- The effect of the solvent
- The nature of the leaving group

Ch. 6 - 54

13A. The Effect of the Structure of the Substrate

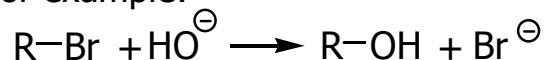
❖ General order of reactivity (towards S_N2 reaction)

- Methyl $>$ $1^\circ > 2^\circ >> 3^\circ >$ vinyl or aryl

**DO NOT
undergo
 S_N2 reactions**

Ch. 6 - 55

❖ For example:

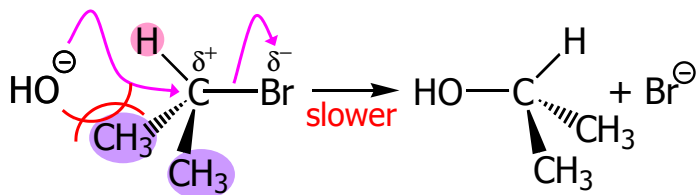
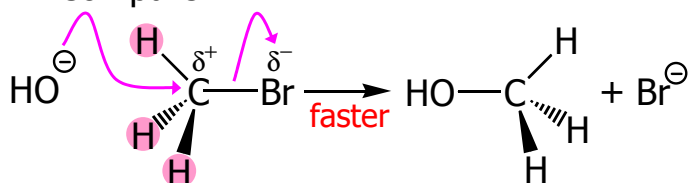


Relative Rate (towards S_N2)

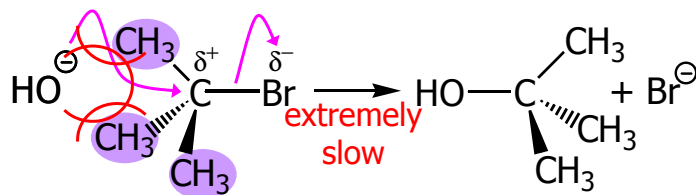
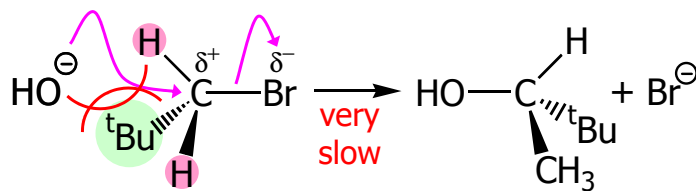
CH_3-Br	CH_3CH_2-Br	CH_3CH-Br CH_3	$CH_3-C(CH_3)_2-CH_2Br$	$CH_3-C(CH_3)_3-Br$
methyl	1°	2°	neopentyl	3°
2×10^6	4×10^4	500	1	< 1
Most reactive	←			Least reactive

Ch. 6 - 56

❖ Compare

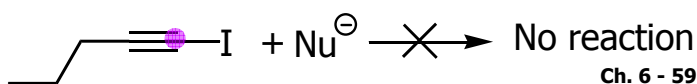
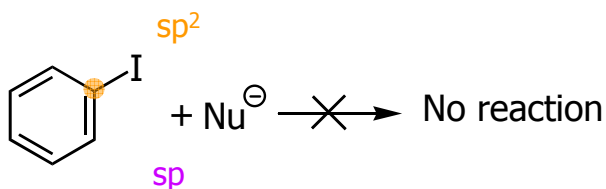
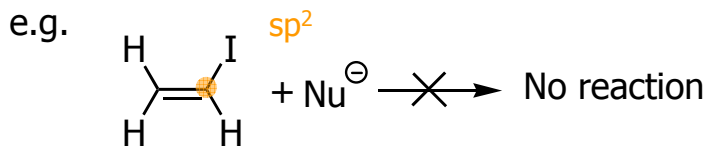


Ch. 6 - 57



Ch. 6 - 58

❖ Note **NO** S_N2 reaction on sp^2 or sp carbons



Ch. 6 - 59

Reactivity of the Substrate in S_N1 Reactions

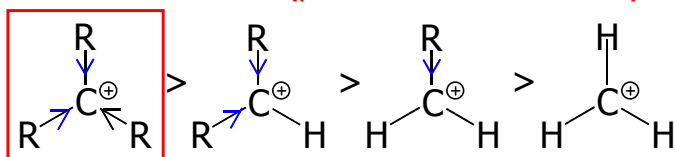
❖ General order of reactivity (towards S_N1 reaction)

- $3^\circ > 2^\circ >> 1^\circ >$ methyl

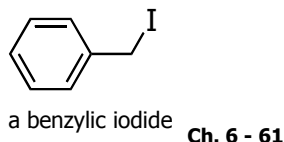
❖ The more stable the carbocation formed, the faster the S_N1 reaction

Ch. 6 - 60

- ❖ Stability of cations
most stable (positive inductive effect)

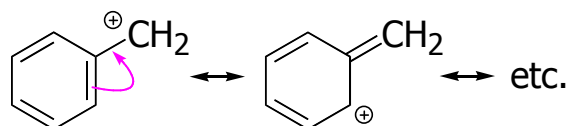
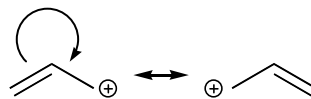


- ❖ Allylic halides and benzylic halides also undergo $\text{S}_{\text{N}}1$ reactions at reasonable rates



Ch. 6 - 61

- ❖ Resonance stabilization for allylic and benzylic cations



Ch. 6 - 62

13B. The Effect of the Concentration & Strength of the Nucleophile

- ❖ For $\text{S}_{\text{N}}1$ reaction

Recall: **Rate = $k[\text{RX}]$**

- The Nu^- does **NOT** participate in the r.d.s.
- Rate of $\text{S}_{\text{N}}1$ reactions are **NOT** affected by either the **concentration** or the **identity** of the Nu^-

Ch. 6 - 63

- ❖ For $\text{S}_{\text{N}}2$ reaction

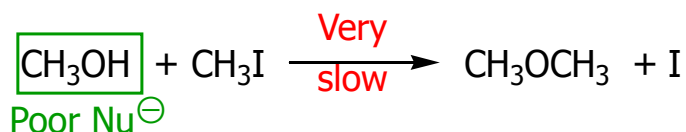
Recall: **Rate = $k[\text{RX}][\text{RX}]$**

- The rate of $\text{S}_{\text{N}}2$ reactions depends on both the **concentration** and the **identity** of the attacking Nu^-

Ch. 6 - 64

- ❖ **Identity** of the Nu^-

- The relative strength of a Nu^- (its **nucleophilicity**) is measured in terms of the relative rate of its $\text{S}_{\text{N}}2$ reaction with a given substrate



Ch. 6 - 65

- ❖ The relative strength of a Nu^- can be correlated with 3 structural features

- A negatively charged Nu^- is always a more reactive Nu^- than its conjugated acid
 - ♦ e.g. HO^- is a better Nu^- than H_2O and RO^- is better than ROH
- In a group of Nu^- s in which the nucleophilic atom is the same, nucleophilicities parallel basicities
 - ♦ e.g. for O compounds, $\text{RO}^- > \text{HO}^- \gg \text{RCO}_2^- > \text{ROH} > \text{H}_2\text{O}$

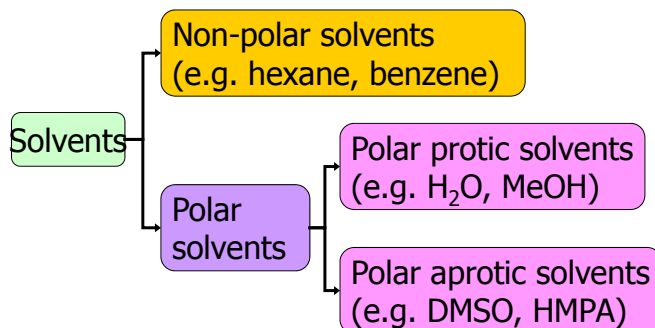
Ch. 6 - 66

- When the nucleophilic atoms are different, then nucleophilicities may not parallel basicities
 - e.g. in protic solvents HS^\ominus , CN^\ominus , and I^\ominus are all weaker bases than HO^\ominus , yet they are **stronger Nu $^\ominus$ s** than HO^\ominus
- $$\text{HS}^\ominus > \text{CN}^\ominus > \text{I}^\ominus > \text{HO}^\ominus$$

Ch. 6 - 67

13C. Solvent Effects on $\text{S}_\text{N}2$ Reactions: Polar Protic & Aprotic Solvents

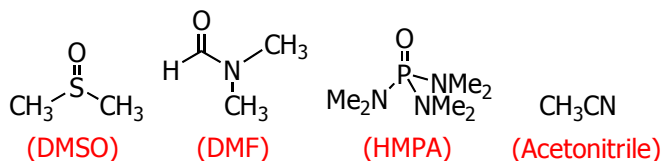
❖ Classification of solvents



Ch. 6 - 68

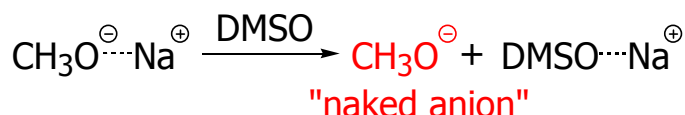
❖ $\text{S}_\text{N}2$ Reactions in Polar Aprotic Solvents

- The best solvents for $\text{S}_\text{N}2$ reactions are
 - Polar aprotic solvents**, which have strong dipoles but do not have OH or NH groups
 - Examples



Ch. 6 - 69

- Polar aprotic solvents tend to solvate metal cations rather than nucleophilic anions, and this results in “**naked**” anions of the Nu^\ominus and makes the e^\ominus pair of the Nu^\ominus more available



Ch. 6 - 70

- Tremendous acceleration in $\text{S}_\text{N}2$ reactions with polar aprotic solvent

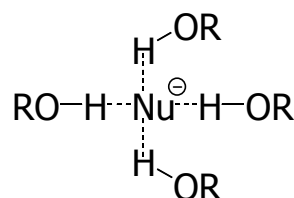


Solvent	Relative Rate
MeOH	1
DMF	10^6

Ch. 6 - 71

❖ $\text{S}_\text{N}2$ Reactions in Polar Protic Solvents

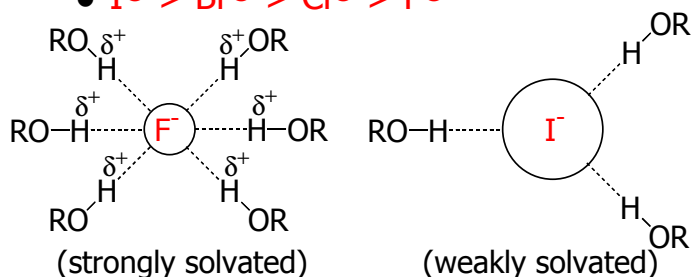
- In polar protic solvents, the Nu^\ominus anion is solvated by the surrounding protic solvent which makes the e^\ominus pair of the Nu^\ominus less available and thus less reactive in $\text{S}_\text{N}2$ reactions



Ch. 6 - 72

❖ Halide Nucleophilicity in Protic Solvents

- $I^- > Br^- > Cl^- > F^-$



☞ Thus, I^- is a stronger Nu^- in protic solvents, as its e^- pair is more available to attack the substrate in the S_N2 reaction.

Ch. 6 - 73

❖ Halide Nucleophilicity in Polar Aprotic Solvents (e.g. in DMSO)

- $F^- > Cl^- > Br^- > I^-$
 - ♦ Polar aprotic solvents **do not solvate anions** but **solvate the cations**
 - ♦ The “naked” anions act as the Nu^-
 - ♦ Since F^- is smaller in size and the **charge per surface area is larger** than I^- , the nucleophilicity of F^- in this environment is greater than I^-

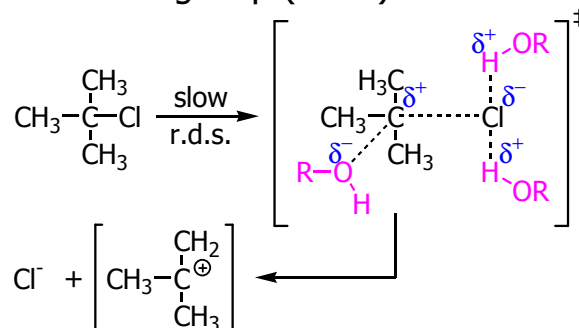
Ch. 6 - 74

13D. Solvent Effects on S_N1 Reactions:
The Ionizing Ability of the Solvent

- ❖ Solvent plays an important role in S_N1 reactions but the reasons are different from those in S_N2 reactions
- ❖ Solvent effects in S_N1 reactions are due largely to stabilization or destabilization of the transition state

Ch. 6 - 75

- ❖ Polar protic solvents stabilize the development of the polar transition state and thus accelerate this rate-determining step (r.d.s.):

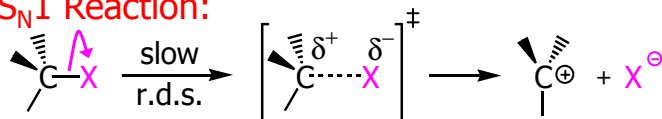


Ch. 6 - 76

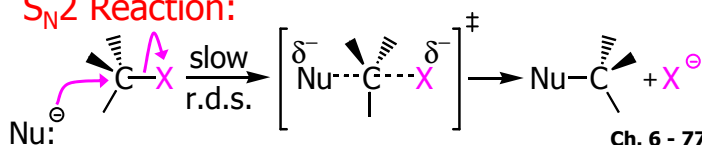
13E. The Nature of the Leaving Group

- ❖ The better a species can stabilize a negative charge, the better the LG in an S_N2 reaction

S_N1 Reaction:

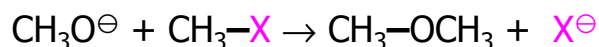


S_N2 Reaction:

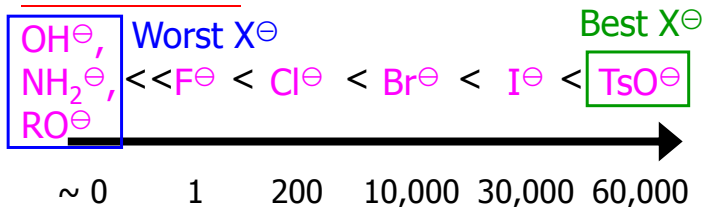


Ch. 6 - 77

- ❖ Examples of the reactivity of some X^- :



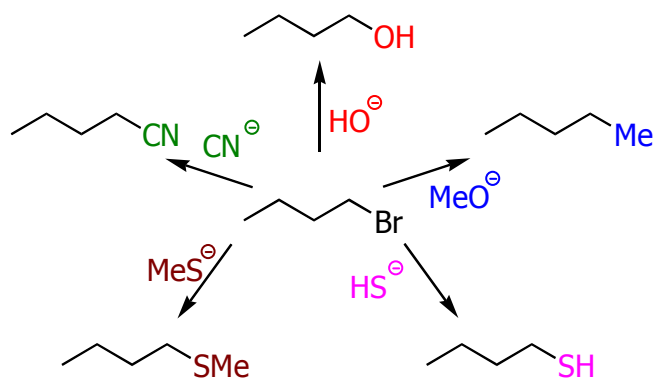
Relative Rate:



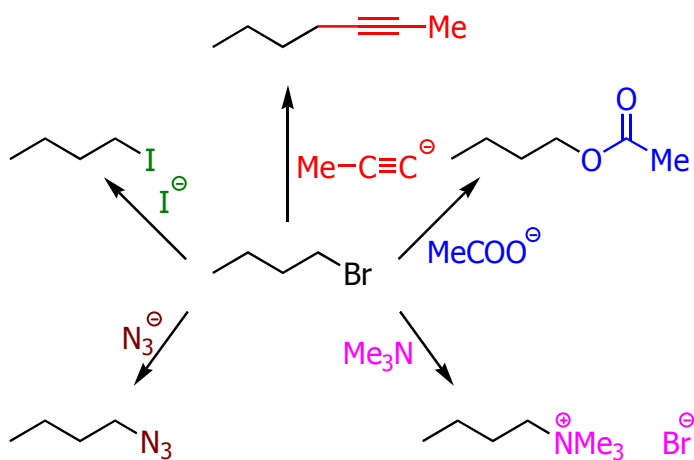
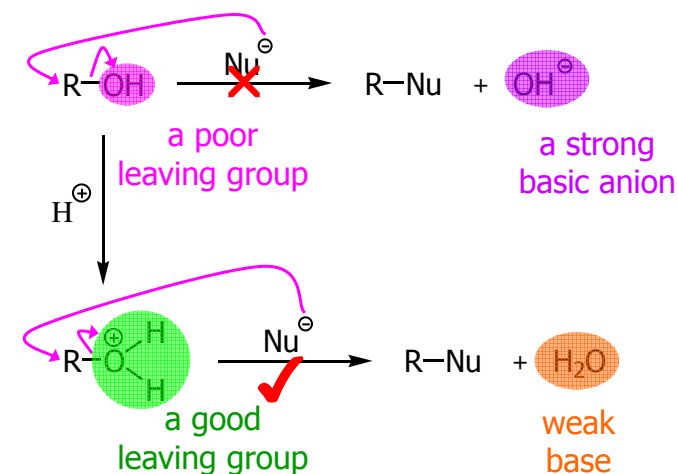
☞ Note: Normally $R-F$, $R-OH$, $R-NH_2$, $R-OR'$ do not undergo S_N2 reactions.

Ch. 6 - 78

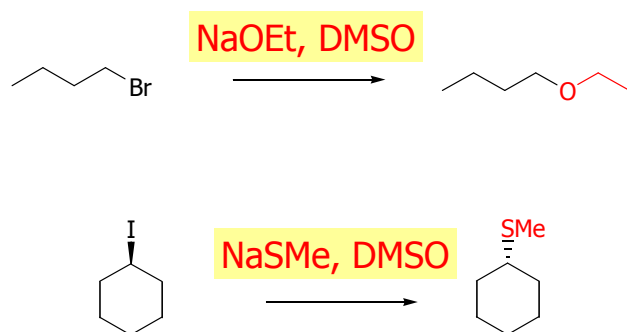
14. Organic Synthesis: Functional Group Transformation Using S_N2 Reactions



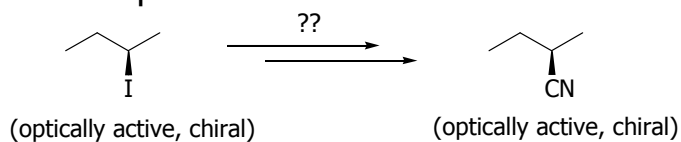
Ch. 6 - 79



❖ Examples:

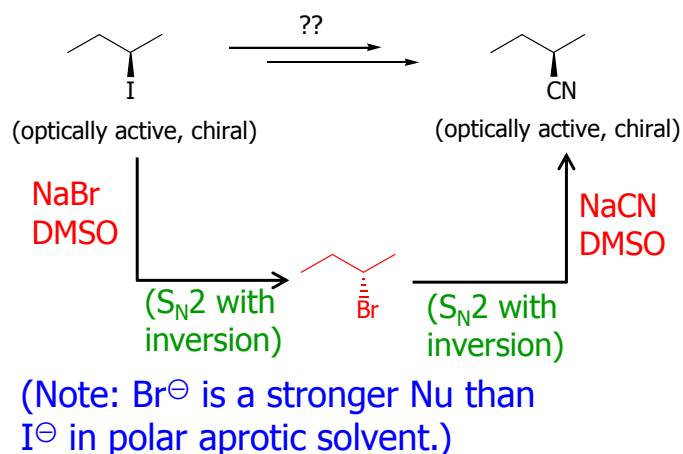


❖ Examples:

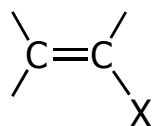


- Need S_N2 reactions to control stereochemistry
- But S_N2 reactions give the inversion of configurations, so how do you get the "retention" of configuration here??
- Solution:
"double inversion" ⇒ "retention"

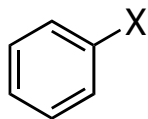
Ch. 6 - 83



14A. The Unreactivity of Vinylic and Phenyl Halides



vinylic halide

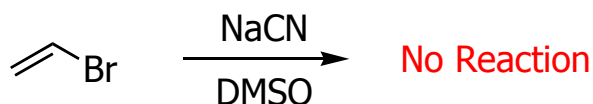


phenyl halide

- Vinylic and phenyl halides are generally unreactive in S_N1 or S_N2 reactions

Ch. 6 - 85

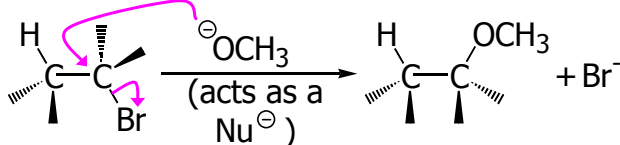
❖ Examples



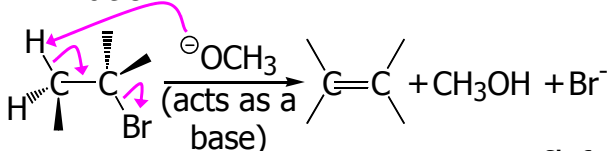
Ch. 6 - 86

15. Elimination Reactions of Alkyl Halides

❖ Substitution



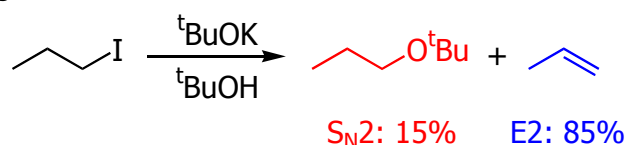
❖ Elimination



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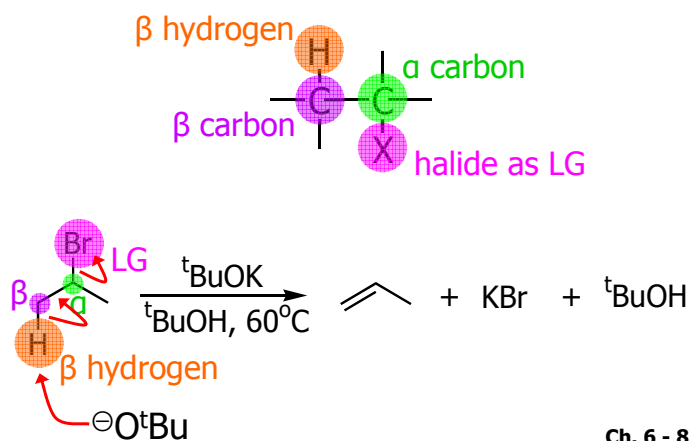
- Substitution reaction (S_N) and elimination reaction (E) are processes in competition with each other

e.g.



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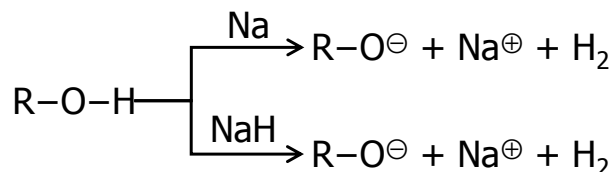
15A. Dehydrohalogenation



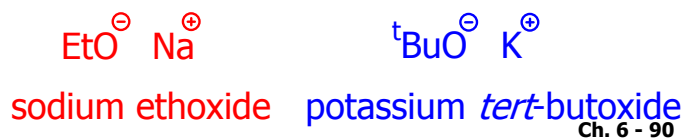
Ch. 6 - 89

15B. Bases Used in Dehydrohalogenation

- Conjugate base of alcohols is often used as the base in dehydrohalogenations

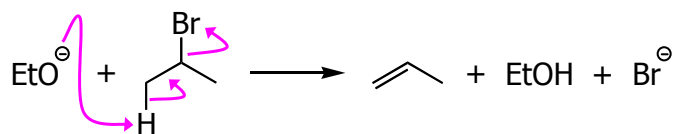


e.g.



Ch. 6 - 90

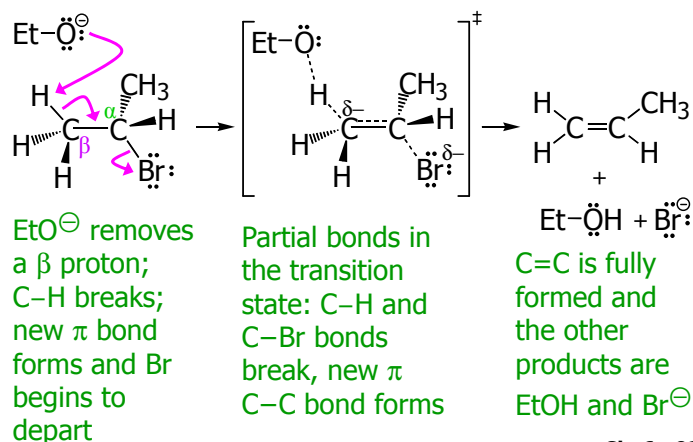
16. The E2 Reaction



- ❖ Rate = $k[\text{CH}_3\text{CHBrCH}_3][\text{EtO}^\ominus]$
- ❖ Rate determining step involves both the alkyl halide and the alkoxide anion
- ❖ A **bimolecular** reaction

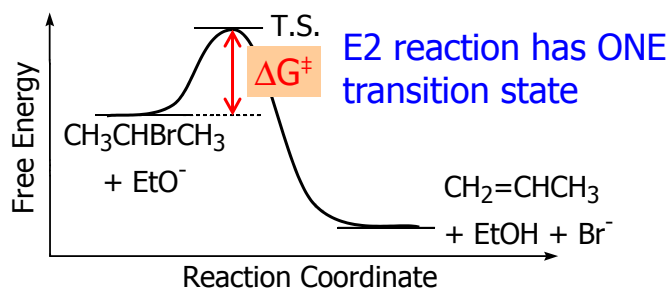
Ch. 6 - 91

Mechanism for an E2 Reaction



Ch. 6 - 92

Free Energy Diagram of E2 Reaction



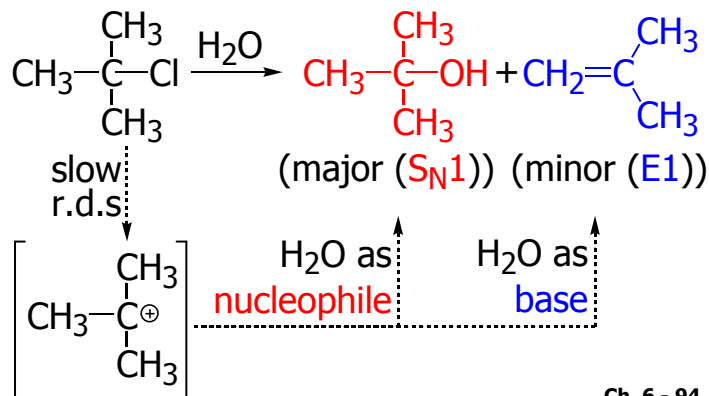
$$\text{Rate} = k[\text{CH}_3\text{CHBrCH}_3][\text{EtO}^\ominus]$$

- ❖ *Second-order* overall ⇒ **bimolecular**

Ch. 6 - 93

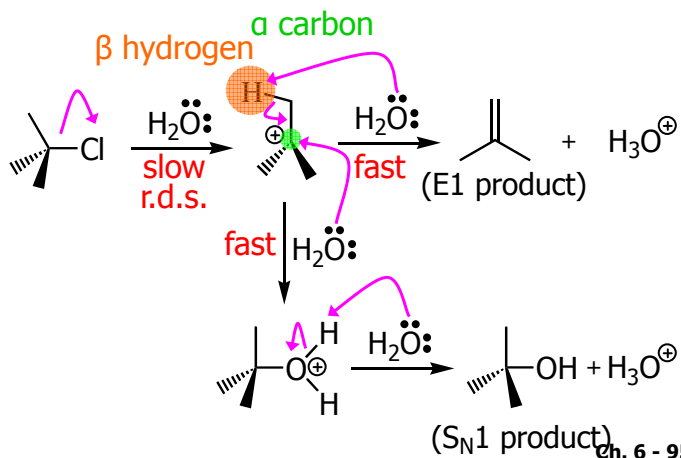
17. The E1 Reaction

- ❖ E1: Unimolecular elimination



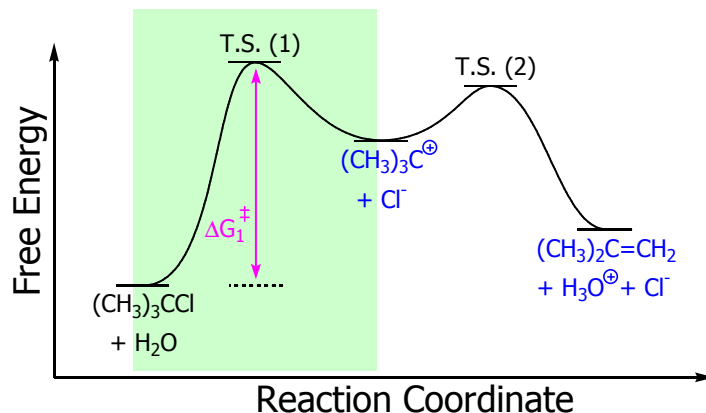
Ch. 6 - 94

Mechanism of an E1 Reaction



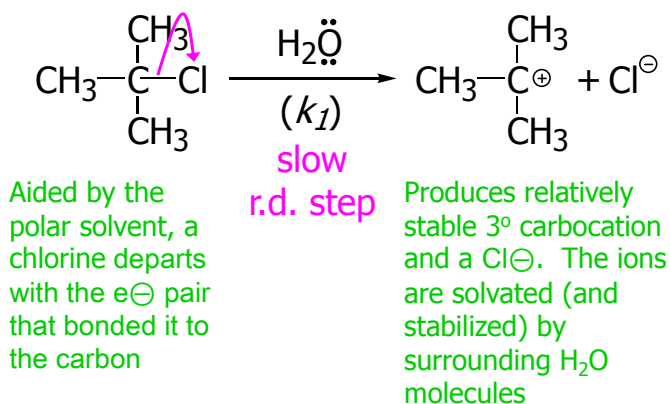
Ch. 6 - 95

Free Energy Diagram of E1 Reaction



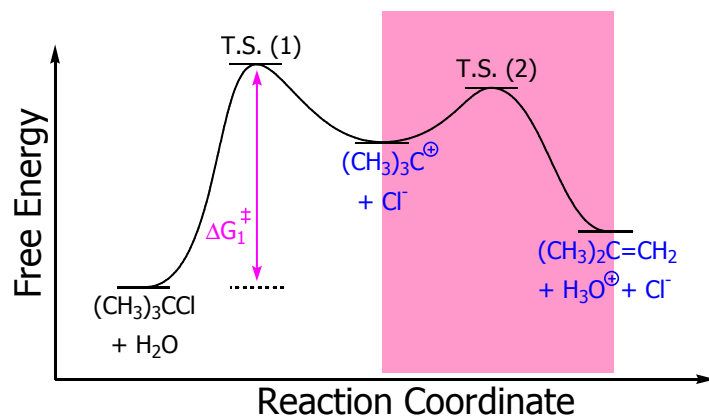
Ch. 6 - 96

Step (1):



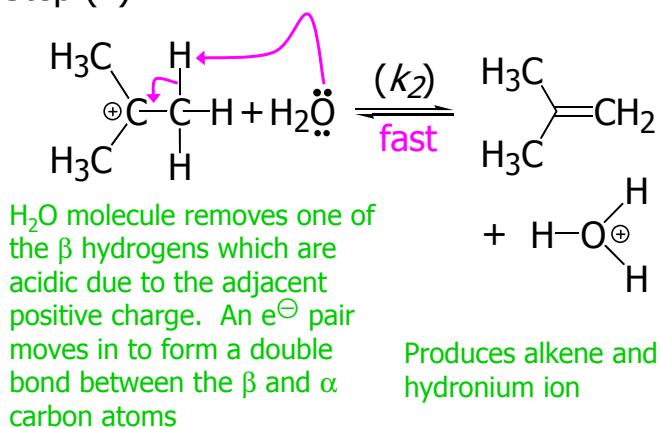
Ch. 6 - 97

Free Energy Diagram of E1 Reaction



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Step (2)



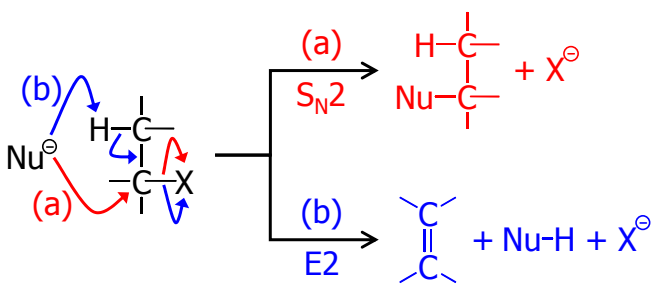
Ch. 6 - 99

18. How To Determine Whether Substitution or Elimination Is Favoured

- ❖ All nucleophiles are potential bases and all bases are potential nucleophiles
- ❖ Substitution reactions are always in competition with elimination reactions
- ❖ Different factors can affect which type of reaction is favoured

Ch. 6 - 100

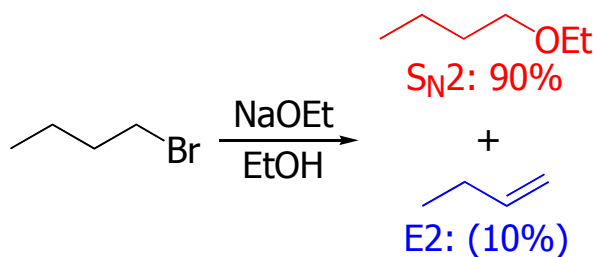
18A. $\text{S}_\text{N}2$ vs. E2



Ch. 6 - 101

Primary Substrate

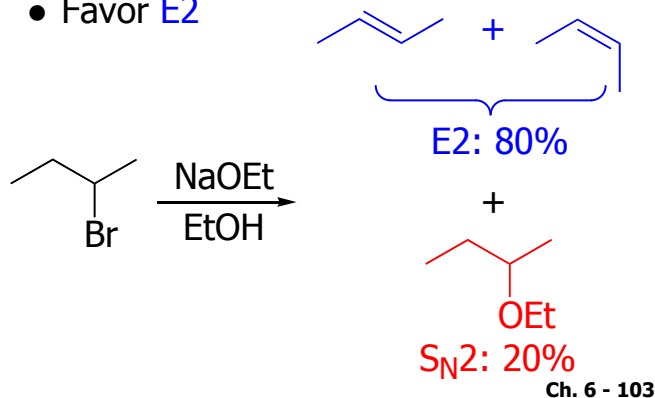
- ❖ With a strong base, e.g. EtO^-
 - Favor $\text{S}_\text{N}2$



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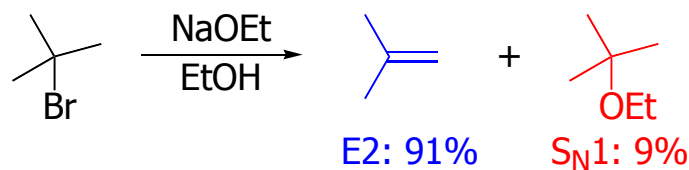
Secondary Substrate

- ❖ With a strong base, e.g. EtO^\ominus
 - Favor **E2**



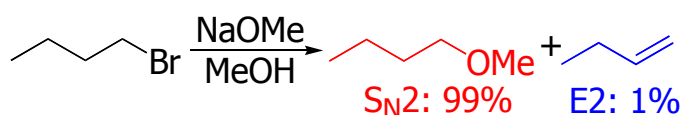
Tertiary Substrate

- ❖ With a strong base, e.g. EtO^\ominus
 - **E2** is highly favored

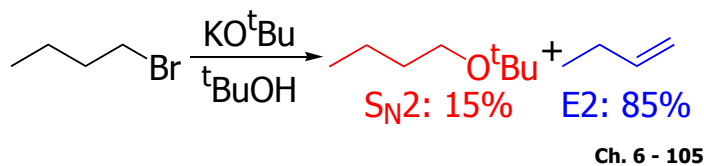


Base/Nu[⊖]: Small vs. Bulky

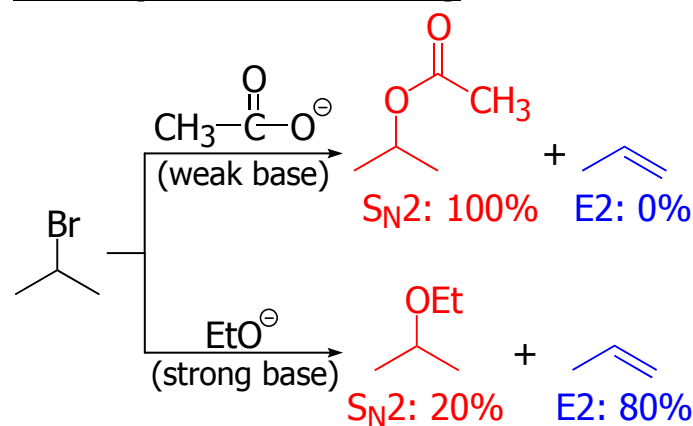
- ❖ Unhindered "small" base/Nu[⊖]



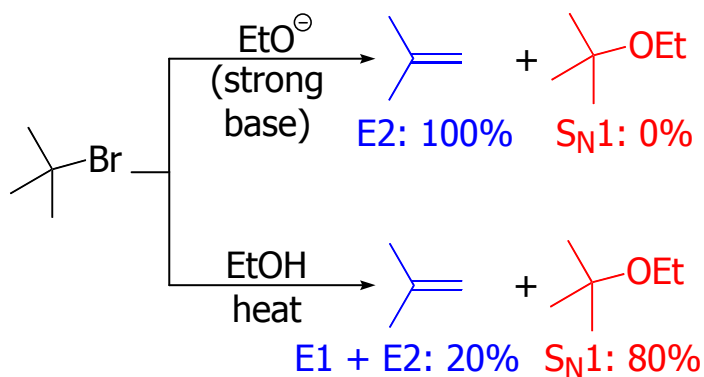
- ❖ Hindered "bulky" base/Nu[⊖]



Basicity vs. Polarizability



Tertiary Halides: S_N1 vs. E1 & E2

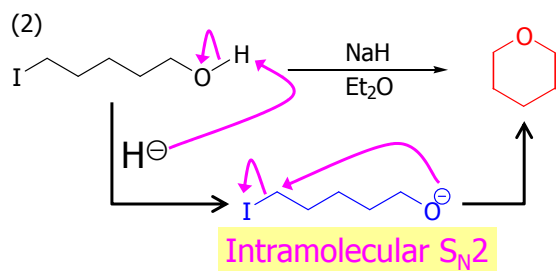
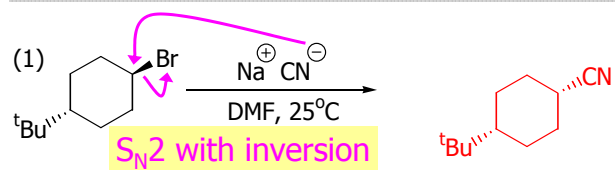


19. Overall Summary

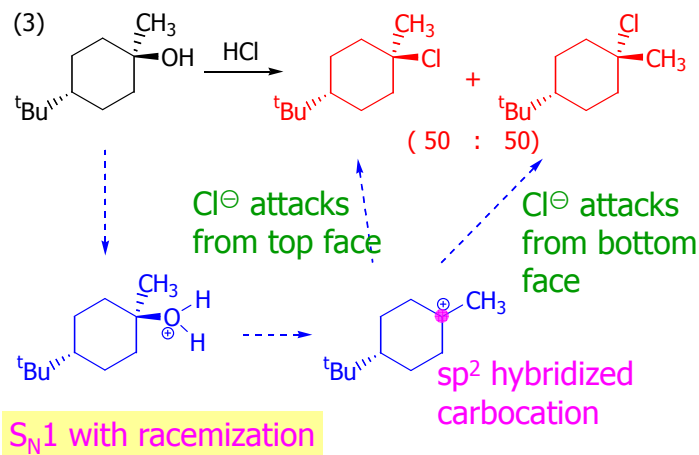
	S _N 1	S _N 2	E1	E2
CH ₃ X	–	Very fast	–	–
RCH ₂ X	–	Mostly	–	Hindered bases give mostly alkenes; e.g. with ^t BuO [⊖]
$\begin{smallmatrix} \text{R}' \\ \\ \text{RCHX} \end{smallmatrix}$	Very little; Solvolysis possible; e.g. with H ₂ O; MeOH	Mostly S _N 2 with weak bases; e.g. with CH ₃ COO [⊖]	Very little	Strong bases promote E2; e.g. with RO [⊖] , HO [⊖]
$\begin{smallmatrix} \text{R}' \\ \\ \text{RCX} \\ \\ \text{R}'' \end{smallmatrix}$	Very favorable with weak bases; e.g. with H ₂ O; MeOH	–	Always competes with S _N 1	Strong bases promote E2; e.g. with RO [⊖] , HO [⊖]

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Review Problems



Ch. 6 - 109



Ch. 6 - 110

 **END OF CHAPTER 6** 

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