# Nucleophilic Substitution Reactions SN<sub>1</sub> and SN<sub>2</sub> Dr Syed Gohar Taqi Kazimi Department of Chemistry University of Sargodha



# **Substitution reaction**

A chemical **reaction** in which an atom or group of atoms (functional group) of a molecule is replaced by another atom or functional group. There are mainly two types of this reaction **Electrophilic substitutions** involve displacement of a functional group by an electrophile (generally a hydrogen atom). Electrophiles are species that are attracted to electrons.

**Nucleophilic substitutions** involve attack of a positively charged (or partially positively charged) atom or group by a nucleophile.



# $\mathbf{R}\operatorname{-}\mathbf{CH}_{2}\mathbf{Br} + \mathbf{OH}^{-} \longrightarrow \mathbf{R}\operatorname{-}\mathbf{CH}_{2}\mathbf{OH} + \mathbf{Br}^{-}$

Negatively charged nucleophiles like HO<sup>-</sup> and HS<sup>-</sup> are used as salts with Li<sup>+</sup>, Na<sup>+</sup>, or K<sup>+</sup> counter ions to balance the charge. Since the identity of the counter ion is usually in consequential, it is often omitted from the chemical equation.



When a neutral nucleophile is used, the substitution product bears a positive charge.



Furthermore, when the substitution product bears a positive charge and also contains a proton bonded to O or N, the initially formed substitution product readily loses a proton in a Bronsted-Lowry acid-base reaction, forming a neutral product.



To draw any nucleophilic substitution product:

Find the *sp3 hybridized carbon with the leaving group*.

Identify the nucleophile, the species with a lone pair or π bond.
 Substitute the nucleophile for the leaving group and assign charges (if necessary) to any atom that is involved in bond breaking or bond formation.

# **The Leaving Group**

In a nucleophilic substitution reaction of R—X, the C—X bond is heterolytically cleaved, and the leaving group departs with the electron pair in that bond, forming X:<sup>-</sup>. The more stable the leaving group X:<sup>-</sup>, the better able it is to accept an electron pair. For example, H<sub>2</sub>O is a better leaving group than HO<sup>-</sup> because H<sub>2</sub>O is a weaker base.



There are periodic trends in leaving group ability:



| Table 7.2   | <b>Good Leaving Groups for Nucleophilic Substitution</b> |                |              |
|---|--|----------------|--------------|
| Starting material                                 | Leaving group  | Conjugate acid | р <b>К</b> а |
| R-CI  | Cl⁻  | HCI            | -7           |
| R—Br  | Br   | HBr            | -9           |
| R-I   | I-   | HI             | -10          |
| R-OH <sub>2</sub> +                               | H <sub>2</sub> O   | $H_3O^+$       | -1.7         |
| t   | - 1  |                |              |
| ese molecules undergo<br>cleophilic substitution. | good leaving groups                                      |                |              |

| Table 7.3   | Poor Leaving Groups for Nucleophilic Substitution |                  |              |
|---|---|------------------|--------------|
| Starting material   | Leaving group                                     | Conjugate acid   | р <b>К</b> а |
| R-F   | F <sup>-</sup>                                    | HF               | 3.2          |
| R-OH  | −он   | H <sub>2</sub> O | 15.7         |
| R-NH <sub>2</sub>   | ⁻NH₂  | NH <sub>3</sub>  | 38           |
| R-H   | H   | H <sub>2</sub>   | 35           |
| R-R   | R-  | RH               | 50           |
| 1   | 1   |                  |              |
| These molecules do not underg<br>nucleophilic substitution. | o poor leaving groups                             |                  |              |

# Nucleophile

Nucleophiles and bases are structurally similar: both have a lone pair or a  $\pi$  bond. They differ in what they attack

Bases attack protons. Nucleophiles attack other electron-deficient atoms (usually carbons).



# Although nucleophilicity and basicity are interrelated, they are fundamentally different.

Basicity is a measure of how readily an atom donates its electron pair to a proton. It is characterized by an equilibrium constant, *Ka in an acid-base reaction, making it a* thermodynamic property.

Nucleophilicity is a measure of how readily an atom donates its electron pair to other atoms. It is characterized by a rate constant, *k, making it a kinetic property*.

#### **Nucleophilicity parallels basicity in three instances:**

1. For two nucleophiles with the same nucleophilic atom, the stronger base is the stronger nucleophile. The relative nucleophilicity of HO<sup>-</sup> and CH<sub>3</sub>COO<sup>-</sup>, two oxygen nucleophiles, is determined by comparing the p*Ka values of their* conjugate acids (H<sub>2</sub>O = 15.7, and CH<sub>3</sub>COOH = 4.8). HO<sup>-</sup> is a stronger base and stronger nucleophile than CH<sub>3</sub>COO<sup>-</sup>.

2. A negatively charged nucleophile is always a stronger nucleophile than its conjugate acid. HO<sup>-</sup> is a stronger base and stronger nucleophile than H<sub>2</sub>O.
3. Right-to-left-across a row of the periodic table, nucleophilicity increases as basicity increases:



Nucleophilicity does not parallel basicity when steric hindrance becomes important.

• Steric hindrance is a decrease in reactivity resulting from the presence of bulky groups at the site of a reaction.

• Steric hindrance decreases nucleophilicity but not basicity.

• Sterically hindered bases that are poor nucleophiles are called nonnucleophilic bases.



If the salt NaBr is used as a source of the nucleophile  $Br^-$  in  $H_2O$ , the Na<sup>+</sup> cations are solvated by ion-dipole interactions with  $H_2O$  molecules, and the  $Br^-$  anions are solvated by strong hydrogen bonding interactions.



In polar protic solvents, nucleophilicity increases down a column of the periodic table as the size of the anion increases. This is the opposite of basicity.



Polar aprotic solvents solvate cations by ion—dipole interactions.

• Anions are not well solvated because the solvent cannot hydrogen bond to them. These anions are said to be "naked".



In polar aprotic solvents, nucleophilicity parallels basicity, and the stronger base is the stronger nucleophile. • Because basicity decreases as size increases down a column, nucleophilicity decreases as well.



| Table 7.4 | Common Nucleophiles in Organic Chemistry |      |         |                      |                                 |
|-----------|--|------|---------|----------------------|---------------------------------|
|           | Negatively charged nucleophiles          |      | Neut    | Neutral nucleophiles |                                 |
| Oxygen    | ⁻ОН                                      | ⁻OR  | CH₃COO⁻ | H <sub>2</sub>       | O ROH                           |
| Nitrogen  | $N_3^-$                                  |      |         | NF                   | I <sub>3</sub> RNH <sub>2</sub> |
| Carbon    | ⁻CN                                      | HC≡C |         |                      |                                 |
| Halogen   | Cl⁻                                      | Br⁻  | Г       |                      |                                 |
| Sulfur    | HS⁻                                      | RS⁻  |         | H <sub>2</sub>       | S RSH                           |

#### **Possible Mechanisms of Nucleophilic Substitution**



But what is the order of bond making and bond breaking? There are three possibilities.

# [1] Bond making and bond breaking occur at the same time.

In this scenario, the mechanism is comprised of one step. In such a bimolecular reaction, the rate depends upon the concentration of both reactants, that is, the rate equation is second order.



#### [2] Bond breaking occurs before bond making.

In this case the mechanism has two steps and a carbocation is formed as an intermediate. Because the first step is rate-determining, the rate depends on the concentration of RX only, that is, the rate equation is first order.



#### [3] Bond making occurs before bond breaking. This mechanism has an inherent problem. The intermediate generated in the first step has 10 electrons around carbon, violating the octet rule. Because two other mechanistic possibilities do not violate a fundamental rule, this last possibility can be disregarded



Nucleophilic Substitution Bimolecular Reaction SN2
The rate of the reaction depends on the concentration of Alkyl halide and the concentration of nucleophile.
The reaction is second order overall.
The reaction is first order with respect to alkyl halide and first order with respect to nucleophile.

SN<sub>2</sub> Mechanism

One step The C-Br bond breaks as the C-O bond forms.



# **Stereochemistry of the SN<sub>2</sub> Reaction**

All SN<sub>2</sub> reactions proceed with backside attack of the nucleophile, resulting in inversion of configuration at a stereogenic center.



# The bond to the nucleophile in the product is always on the opposite relative to the bond to the leaving group in the starting material



The rate of an SN<sub>2</sub> reaction depends upon 4 factors:

- 1. The nature of the substrate (the alkyl halide)
- 2. The power of the nucleophile
- 3. The ability of the leaving group to leave
- 4. The nature of the solvent

## Nature of the substrate

Methyl and 1° alkyl halides undergo SN<sub>2</sub> reactions with ease.

• 2° Alkyl halides react more slowly.

• 3° Alkyl halides do not undergo  $SN_2$  reactions. This order of reactivity can be explained by steric effects. Steric hindrance caused by bulky R groups makes nucleophilic attack from the backside more difficult, slowing the reaction rate.



Increasing the number of R groups on the carbon with the leaving group increases crowding in the transition state, thereby decreasing the reaction rate.

• The SN<sub>2</sub> reaction is fastest with unhindered halides.



To be a good leaving group the substituent must be able to leave as a relatively stable, weakly basic molecule or ion.

 In alkyl halides the leaving group is the halogen substituent -- it leaves as a halide ion.

• Because halide ions are relatively stable and very weak bases, they are good leaving groups.

## **Overview**

• The nucleophile attacks the carbon bearing the leaving group from the back side.

• The bond formation between the nucleophile and the carbon atom, and the bond breaking between the carbon atom and the leaving group occurs simultaneously.

• The configuration of the carbon atom becomes inverted during SN<sub>2</sub> reaction.

 Because bond formation and bond breaking occur simultaneously in a single transition state, the SN<sub>2</sub> reaction is a concerted reaction.

Rate of reaction depends upon two species i.e., alkyl halide and attacking nucleophile.

Nucleophilic Substitution Unimolecular Reaction SN1
The rate of this reaction depends only on the concentration of one reactant, alkyl halide
SN1 reactions happen in two steps: 1. The leaving group leaves, and the substrate forms a carbocation intermediate. 2. The nucleophile attacks the carbocation, forming the product.

#### **SN1** Mechanism



Step [2] The C-O bond is formed.



- Heterolysis of the C Br bond forms an intermediate carbocation. This step is rate-determining because it involves only bond cleavage.
- Nucleophilic attack of acetate on the carbocation forms the new C-O bond in the product. This is a Lewis acid-base reaction; the nucleophile is the Lewis base and the carbocation is the Lewis acid. Step [2] is *faster* than Step [1] because no bonds are broken and one bond is formed.

Stereochemistry of the  $SN_1$  Reaction To understand the stereochemistry of the SN1 reaction, we must examine the geometry of the carbocation intermediate



 A carbocation (with three groups around C) is sp<sup>2</sup> hybridized and trigonal planar, and contains a vacant p orbital extending above and below the plane.

Loss of the leaving group in Step [1] generates a planar carbocation that is achiral. In Step [2], attack of the nucleophile can occur on either side to afford two products which are a pair of enantiomers.
Because there is no preference for nucleophilic attack from either direction, an equal amount of the two enantiomers is formed—a racemic mixture. We say that racemization has occurred.



#### Nature of Substrate

The rate of an SN1 reaction is affected by the type of alkyl halide involved

 As the number of R groups on the carbon with the leaving group increases, the rate of an S<sub>N</sub>1 reaction increases.

|        | Increasing rate of a | an S <sub>N</sub> 1 reaction |                    |
|--------|----------------------|------------------------------|--------------------|
| methyl | <b>1</b> °           | <b>2</b> °                   | 3°                 |
| CH3-X  | RCH <sub>2</sub> -X  | R <sub>2</sub> CH-X          | R <sub>3</sub> C-X |

increasing rate of an on reaction

This trend is exactly opposite to that observed in  $SN_2$  reactions.

#### **Carbocation Stability**

• The effect of the type of alkyl halide on  $SN_1$  reaction rates can be explained by considering carbocation stability.

• Carbocations are classified as primary (1°), secondary (2°), or tertiary (3°), based on the number of R groups bonded to the charged carbon atom. As the number of R groups increases, carbocation stability increases.



#### **Inductive Effect**

• Carbocation stability depends upon inductive effects & hyperconjugation. • Inductive effects are electronic effects that occur through  $\sigma$  bonds. The inductive effect is the pull of electron density through  $\sigma$  bonds caused by EN differences between Atoms. • Alkyl groups are electron donating groups that stabilize a positive charge. Since an alkyl group has several  $\sigma$  bonds, each containing electron density, it is more polarizable than a hydrogen atom, and better able to donate electron density. • The greater the no. of alkyl groups attached to a carbon with a positive charge, the more stable will be the cation.



# Hyperconjugation

• The order of carbocation stability is also a consequence of hyperconjugation.

• Hyperconjugation is the spreading out of charge by the overlap of an empty *p* orbital with an adjacent  $\sigma$  bond. This overlap (hyperconjugation) delocalizes the positive charge on the carbocation, spreading it over a larger volume, and this stabilizes the carbocation.

• Example:  $CH_3^+$  cannot be stabilized by hyperconjugation, but  $(CH_3)_2CH^+$  can



# The Alkyl Halide-The Most Important Factor Among Four factors the most important is the identity of the alkyl halide.

- Increasing alkyl substitution favors S<sub>N</sub>1.
- Decreasing alkyl substitution favors S<sub>N</sub>2.



- Methyl and 1° halides (CH<sub>3</sub>X and RCH<sub>2</sub>X) undergo S<sub>N</sub>2 reactions only.
- 3° Alkyl halides (R<sub>3</sub>CX) undergo S<sub>N</sub>1 reactions only.
- 2° Alkyl halides (R<sub>2</sub>CHX) undergo both S<sub>N</sub>1 and S<sub>N</sub>2 reactions. Other factors determine the mechanism.

# **The Nucleophile**

- Rate of SN also depends on nucleophile.
- Strong nucleophiles having negative charge and present in high concentrations favor SN<sub>2</sub> reactions.
- Weak nucleophiles, such as  $H_2O$  and ROH favor  $SN_1$  reactions by decreasing the rate of any competing  $SN_2$  reaction.
- Let us see the products formed when the 2° alkyl halide A is treated with either the strong nucleophile  $HO^-$  or the weak nucleophile  $H_2O$ . Since a 2° alkyl halide can react by either mechanism, the strength of the nucleophile determines which mechanism takes place.



#### The strong nucleophile favors an SN<sub>2</sub> mechanism.



#### The weak nucleophile favors an SN<sub>1</sub> mechanism.



# **The Leaving Group**

A better leaving group increases the rate of both SN1 and SN2 reactions.



## **The Solvent**

- The nature of the solvent is a fourth factor.
- Polar protic solvents like  $H_2O$  and ROH favor  $SN_1$  reactions because the ionic intermediates are stabilized by solvation.
- Polar aprotic solvents favor  $SN_2$  reactions because nucleophiles are not well solvated, and therefore, are more nucleophilic.

| Alkyl halide            | Mechanism                            | Other factors  |
|-------------------------|--------------------------------------|--|
| CH <sub>3</sub> X       | S <sub>N</sub> 2                     | Favored by   |
| RCH <sub>2</sub> X (1°) |                                      | <ul> <li>strong nucleophiles (usually a net negative charge)</li> </ul>  |
|                         |                                      | polar aprotic solvents   |
| R <sub>3</sub> CX (3°)  | S <sub>N</sub> 1                     | Favored by   |
|                         |                                      | <ul> <li>weak nucleophiles (usually neutral)</li> </ul>  |
|                         |                                      | polar protic solvents  |
| R <sub>2</sub> CHX (2°) | S <sub>N</sub> 1 or S <sub>N</sub> 2 | The mechanism depends on the conditions.   |
|                         |                                      | <ul> <li>Strong nucleophiles favor the S<sub>N</sub>2 mechanism over the S<sub>N</sub>1 mechanism. For<br/>example, RO<sup>-</sup> is a stronger nucleophile than ROH, so RO<sup>-</sup> favors the S<sub>N</sub>2 reaction<br/>and ROH favors the S<sub>N</sub>1 reaction.</li> </ul>   |
|                         |                                      | <ul> <li>Protic solvents favor the S<sub>N</sub>1 mechanism and aprotic solvents favor the S<sub>N</sub>2 mechanism. For example, H<sub>2</sub>O and CH<sub>3</sub>OH are polar protic solvents that favor the S<sub>N</sub>1 mechanism, whereas acetone [(CH<sub>3</sub>)<sub>2</sub>C=O] and DMSO [(CH<sub>3</sub>)<sub>2</sub>S=O] are polar aprotic solvents that favor the S<sub>N</sub>2 mechanism.</li> </ul> |

Summary of Factors that Determine the SN<sub>1</sub> or SN<sub>2</sub> Mechanism

#### **SNi Reactions**

Internal or intramolecular nucleophilic substitution reaction is known as **SNi reaction**. Best example of **SNi** is replacement of OH group by Cl, by reacting alcohols with thionyl chloride. This is second order **reaction** as rate of **reaction** depends upon concentration of alcohol molecule as well as thionyl chloride.

 $ROH + SOCl_2$ 

 $RCI + SO_2 + HCI$ 

It differ from  $SN^1$  reactions as there is no formation of racemic mixture here. It is also different from  $SN^2$  reactions as no inversion of configuration, and the stereo-chemistry of reactant and the product is nearly same. Hence the reaction is neither explained by  $SN^1$  or  $SN^2$ 



# **Prime Reactions**

It is a nucleophilic substitution reactions in which allylic type substrate undergo substitution along with the rearrangement of double bond.

Such SN reactions are called prime reactions and rearrangements are known as allylic shifts.



# S<sub>N</sub>1' (Prime) Reaction

Rearranged product formed under SN<sup>1</sup> condition is SN<sup>1</sup> prime product and reaction is called SN<sup>1</sup> Prime reaction. It is a type of nucleophilic reaction in which molecularity of rate determining step is one. The rate of the reaction is proportional to the concentration of the substrate . It is a first order reaction.

For example CH<sub>3</sub>CH=CHCH<sub>2</sub>CI on solvolysis with 0.8 M NaOH at 25 C yields 60% of CH<sub>3</sub>CH=CHCH<sub>2</sub>OH (Normal product) and 40% of  $CH_3CHOHCH=CH_2$  (rearranged product). In above example the nucleophile OH<sup>-</sup> attacks gamma carbon instead of alpha carbon, as attacking nucleophile experiences steric repulsions from  $\pi$  e- cloud. OH<sup>-</sup> undergo nucleophilic addition at gamma carbon, followed by  $\pi$ -bond rearrangement to next C-C bond & loss of leaving group Br forming product.

SN<sup>1</sup> and SN<sup>1'</sup> both are uni-molecular reaction and proceed through a carbocation intermediate. But the difference is, when the reaction occurs on an allylic system the carbonation formed is not localized, rather delocalized.

Another example is the reaction of 3-bromobut-1ene, in which the bromine leaves instantly, double bond changes to the 2 position, and after that water attacks the 1 carbon which creates but-2-ene-1-ol.

 $CH_2 = CH - CH(Br) - CH_3 \longrightarrow CH_2 = CH - CH^+ - CH_3 \longrightarrow$ 

+CH<sub>2</sub>CH=CH-CH<sub>2</sub>

## Nucleophilic Conjugate Substitution – The S<sub>N</sub>2' Mechanism

SN2' prime reaction takes place when allyl halide reacts with any nucleophile. Here the nucleophile SH<sup>-</sup> attacks gamma carbon instead of alpha carbon, as attacking nucleophile experiences steric repulsions from  $\pi$  e cloud and the saturated carbon being hindered (it is a secondary carbon), making the regular S<sub>N</sub>2 mechanism less favorable. Many reactions proceed through a series of steps.



