Chapter 6

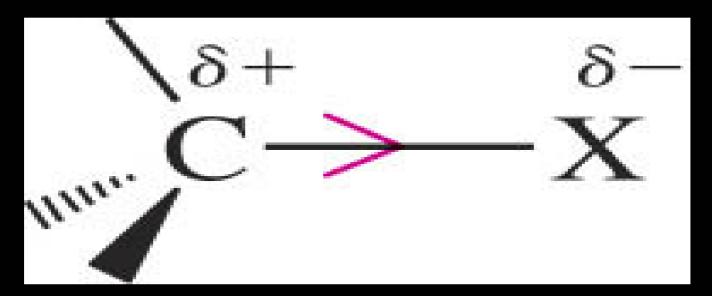
Alkyl Halides

NEPHAR 109 Organic Chemistry Assist.Prof. Banu Keşanlı

6.1 Alkyl Halides

The polarity of a carbon-halogen bond leads to the carbon having a partial positive charge

In alkyl halides this polarity causes the carbon to become activated to substitution reactions with nucleophiles



Carbon-halogen bonds get less polar, longer and weaker in going from fluorine to iodine

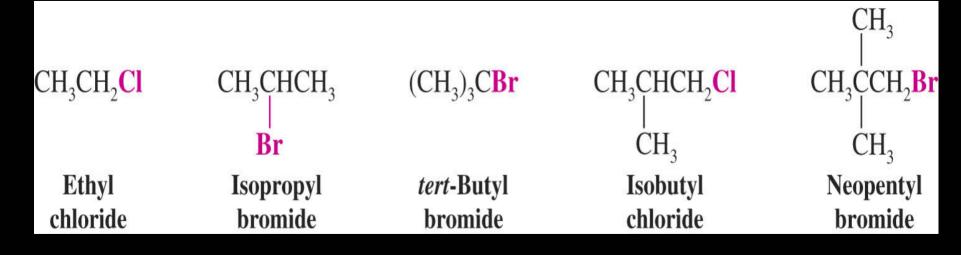
		8-3	300	6.
	H H H H	H - C - C I H	H H H H	H H H H
C—X Bond length (Å) C—X Bond strength (kJ mol ⁻¹)	1.39 472	1.78 350	1.93 293	2.14 239

4.3E Nomenclature of Alkyl Halides (RX)

 In IUPAC nomenclature halides are named as substituents on the parent chain

Halo and alkyl substituents are considered to be of equal ranking

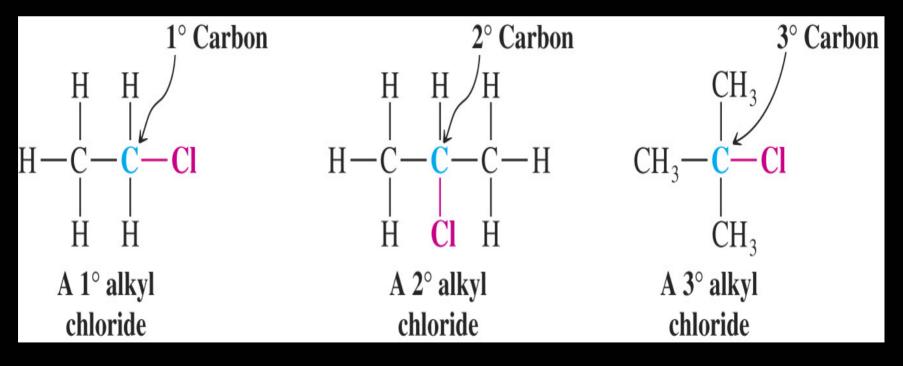
 Common nomenclature of simple alkyl halides is accepted by IUPAC and still used



 If the carbon is attached to one other carbon that carbon is primary (1°) and the alkyl halide is also 1°

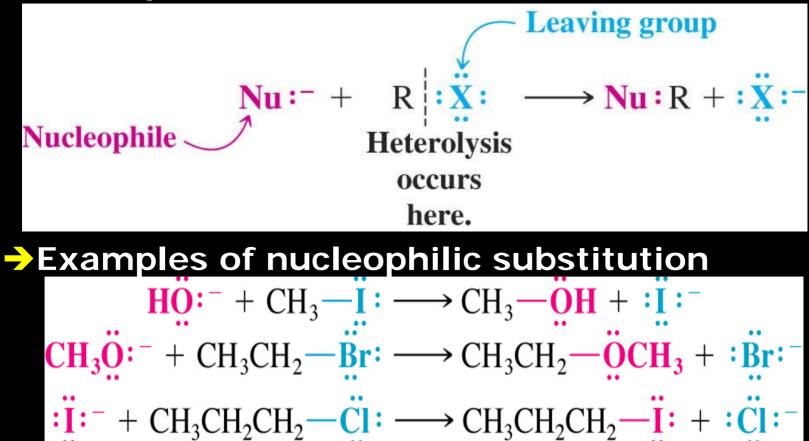
 If the carbon is attached to two other carbons, that carbon is secondary (2°) and the alkyl halide is 2°

•If the carbon is attached to three other carbons, the carbon is tertiary (3°) and the alkyl halide is 3°



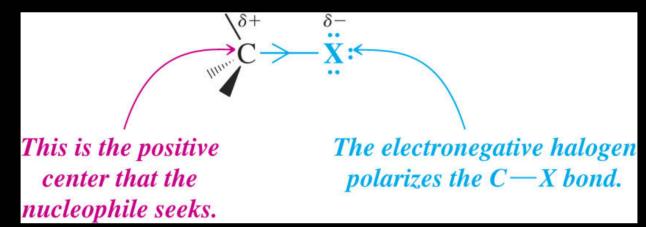
6.3 Nucleophilic Substitution Reactions (S_N)

- In this reaction a nucleophile is species with an unshared electron pair which reacts with an electron deficient carbon
- A leaving group is substituted by a nucleophile

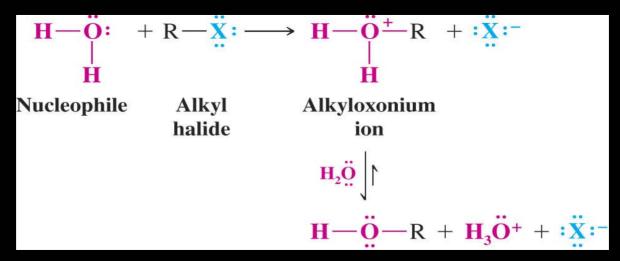


6.4 Nucleophile

The nucleophile reacts at the electron deficient carbon



A nucleophile may be any molecule with an unshared electron pair



6.5 Leaving Group

A leaving group is a substituent that can leave as a relatively stable entity

It can leave as an anion or a neutral species

$$\mathbf{Nu}^{-} + \mathbf{R} - \mathbf{L} \longrightarrow \mathbf{R} - \mathbf{Nu}^{+} + \mathbf{L}^{-}$$

$$\mathbf{H}\overset{\mathbf{O}}{\mathbf{O}}^{-} + \mathbf{C}\mathbf{H}_{3} - \overset{\mathbf{O}}{\mathbf{C}}\mathbf{I}^{-} \longrightarrow \mathbf{C}\mathbf{H}_{3} - \overset{\mathbf{O}}{\mathbf{H}}^{+} + \overset{\mathbf{O}}{\mathbf{C}}\mathbf{I}^{-}$$

$$\mathbf{H}_{3}\mathbf{N}^{+} + \mathbf{C}\mathbf{H}_{3} - \overset{\mathbf{B}}{\mathbf{R}}^{-} \longrightarrow \mathbf{C}\mathbf{H}_{3} - \mathbf{N}\mathbf{H}_{3}^{+} + \overset{\mathbf{B}}{\mathbf{R}}^{-} \overset{\mathbf{C}}{\mathbf{N}}^{-}$$

$$\mathbf{Nu}^{+} + \mathbf{R} - \mathbf{L}^{+} \longrightarrow \mathbf{R} - \mathbf{Nu}^{+} + \mathbf{L}$$

Specific Example

$$\begin{array}{c} \mathbf{CH}_{3} - \ddot{\mathbf{O}}^{:} + \mathbf{CH}_{3} - \ddot{\mathbf{O}}^{+} - \mathbf{H} \longrightarrow \mathbf{CH}_{3} - \ddot{\mathbf{O}}^{+} - \mathbf{CH}_{3} + : \ddot{\mathbf{O}} - \mathbf{H} \\ \downarrow \\ \mathbf{H} & \mathbf{H} & \mathbf{H} & \mathbf{H} & \mathbf{H} \end{array}$$

S_N2 Reactions

Rate determining step is bimolecular
 Methyl and 1° alkyl halides undergo S_N2 type nucleophilic substitutions

$$HO^{-} + CH_{3} - CI \longrightarrow \begin{bmatrix} \delta^{-} & \delta^{-} \\ HO^{-} - CH_{3} - CI \end{bmatrix} \longrightarrow HO - CH_{3} + CI^{-}$$

Transition state

6.6 Kinetics of a Nucleophilic Substitution Reaction: An $S_N 2$ Reaction

- The rate equation reflects this dependence
- S_N2 reaction: substitution, nucleophilic, 2nd order (bimolecular)

$$CH_{3} - Cl + OH^{-} \xrightarrow{60^{\circ}C}_{H_{2}O} CH - OH + Cl^{-}$$

$$Rate = k[CH_{3}Cl][OH^{-}]$$

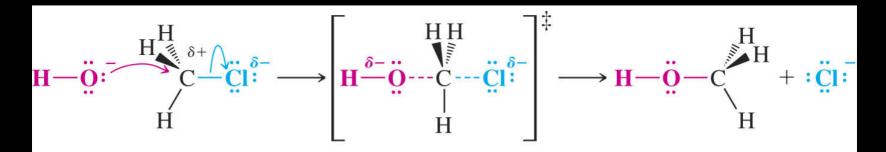
A Mechanism for the $S_N 2$ Reaction

A transition state is the high energy state of the reaction

- It is an unstable entity with a very brief existence (10⁻¹² s)
- In the transition state of this reaction bonds are partially formed and broken
 - Both chloromethane and hydroxide are involved in the transition state and this explains why the reaction is second order

A Mechanism for the S_N2 Reaction

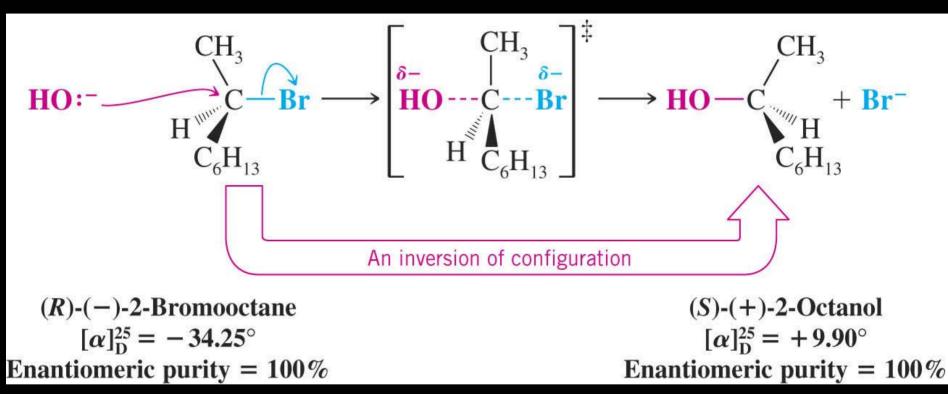
Mechanism of a Reaction: The events that are postulated to take place at the molecular level as reactants become products



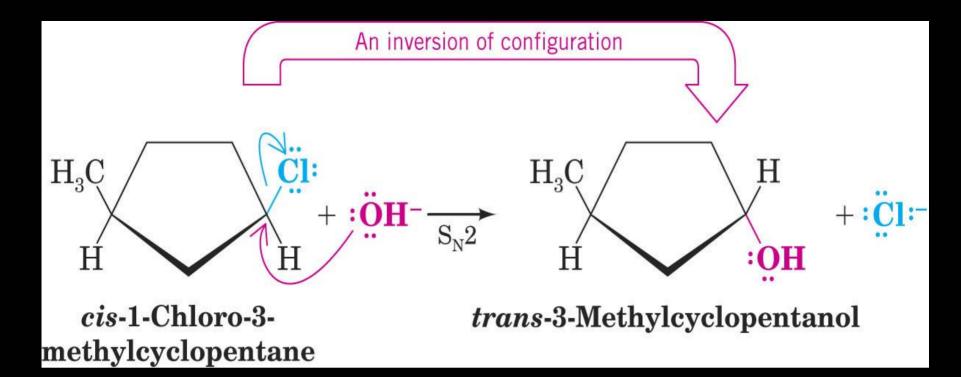
The negative hydroxide ion brings a pair of electrons to the partially positive carbon from the back side with respect to the leaving group. The chlorine begins to move away with the pair of electrons that bonded it to the carbon. Transition state In the transition state, a bond between oxygen and carbon is partially formed and the bond between carbon and chlorine is partially broken. The configuration of the carbon atom begins to invert.

Now the bond between the oxygen and carbon has formed and the chloride ion has departed. The configuration of the carbon has inverted. 6.9 The Stereochemistry of S_N2 Reactions

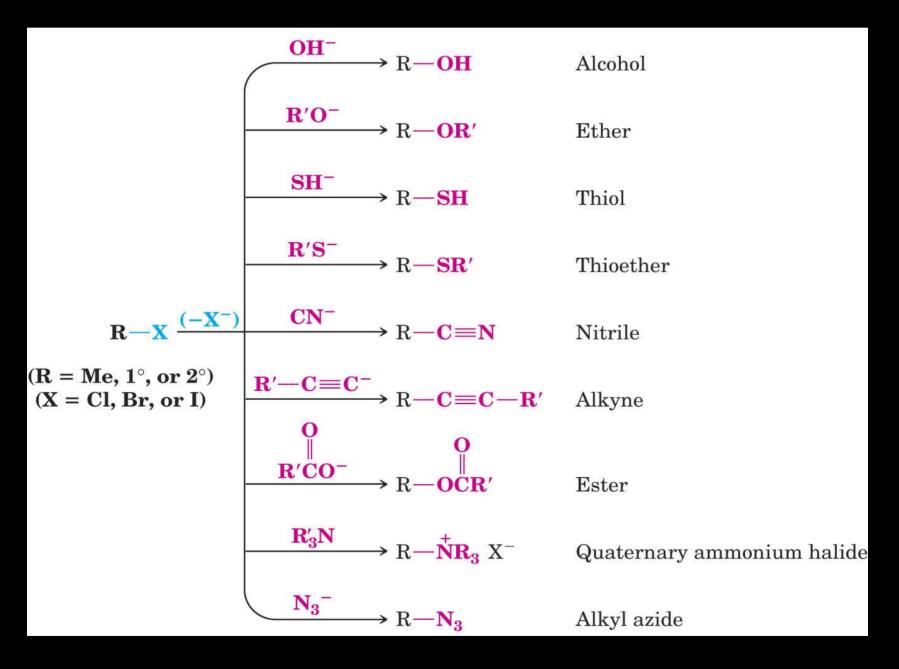
- Stereochemistry can be controlled in S_N2 reactions
- Backside attack of nucleophile results in an inversion of configuration



In cyclic systems a cis compound can react and become trans product



Transformations Using S_N2 Reactions



6.10 S_N1 Reactions

Rate determining step is unimolecular
 Tertiary halides show S_N1 type nucleophilic substitution reactions

$$(CH_3)_3 CCI \xrightarrow{slow} (CH_3)_3 C^+ + CI-$$

 $(CH_3)_3 C^+ \xrightarrow{H_2 O} (CH_3)_3 COH + H_3 O^+$

6.10 The Reaction of *tert*-Butyl Chloride with Hydroxide Ion: An S_N1 Reaction

tert-Butyl chloride undergoes substitution with hydroxide

The rate is independent of hydroxide concentration and depends only on concentration of *tert*-butyl chloride

 $(CH_3)_3C - Cl + OH^{-} \xrightarrow{\text{acetone}}_{H_2O} (CH_3)_3C - OH + Cl^{-}$ Rate $\propto [(CH_3)_3CCl]$ Rate = $k[(CH_3)_3CCl]$ S_N1 reaction: Substitution, nucleophilic, 1st order (unimolecular)

The rate depends only on the concentration of the alkyl halide

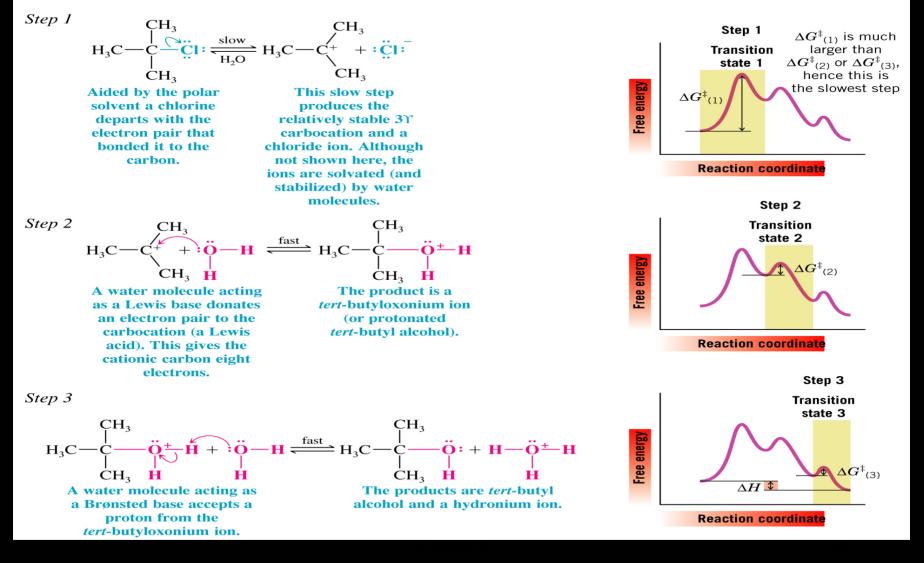
Only the alkyl halide (and not the nucleophile) is involved in the transition state of the step that controls the rate 6.11 A Mechanism for the S_N1 Reaction

Step 1 is rate determining (slow) because it requires the formation of unstable ionic products

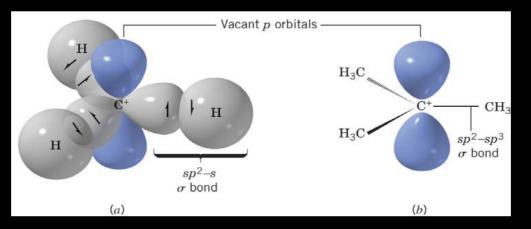
In step 1 water molecules help stabilize the ionic products

Reaction:

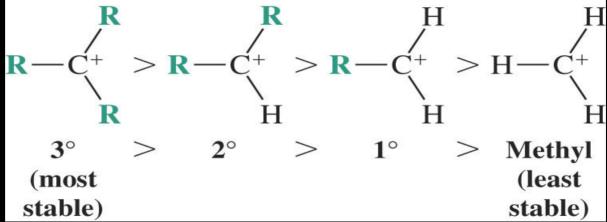
Mechanism:



6.12 Carbocations A carbocation has only 6 electrons, is sp² hybridized and has an empty p orbital

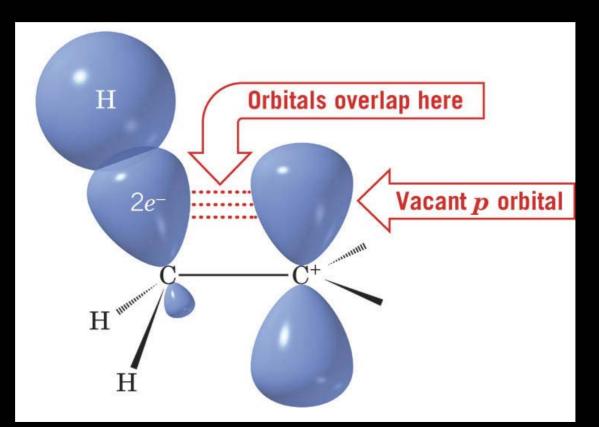


The more highly substituted a carbocation is, the more stable it is and the easier it is to form



Hyperconjugation stabilizes the carbocation by donation of electrons from an adjacent carbonhydrogen or carbon-carbon σ bond into the empty p orbital

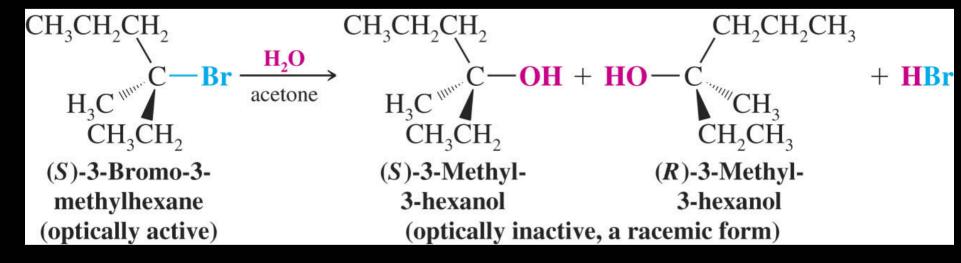
 More substitution provides more opportunity for hyperconjugation

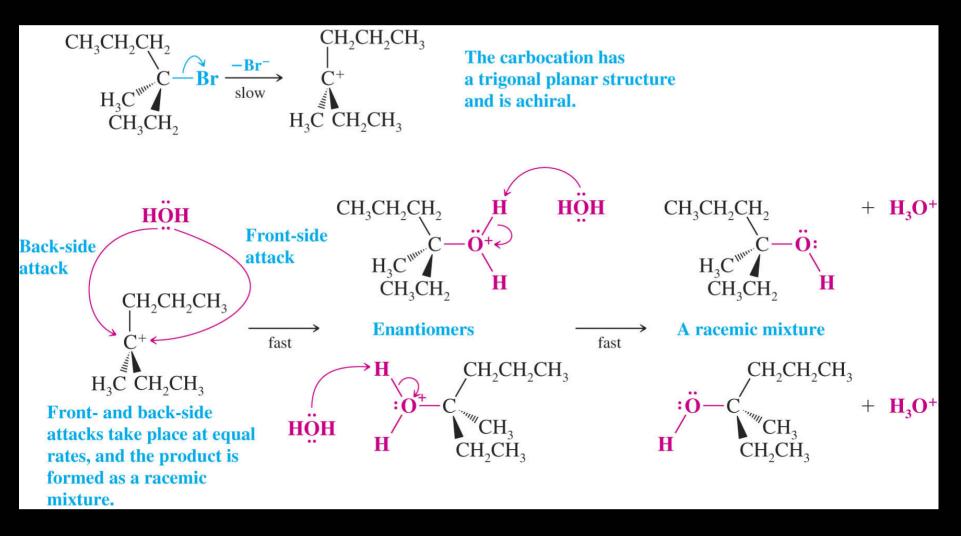


6.13 The Stereochemistry of S_N1 Reactions
 When the leaving group leaves from a stereogenic center of an optically active compound in an S_N1 reaction, racemization will occur

 This is because an achiral carbocation intermediate is formed

Racemization: transformation of an optically active compound to a racemic mixture





Solvolysis

A molecule of the solvent is the nucleophile in a substitution reaction

 If the solvent is water the reaction is a hydrolysis

6.14 Factors Affecting the Rate of $S_N 1$ and $S_N 2$ Reactions

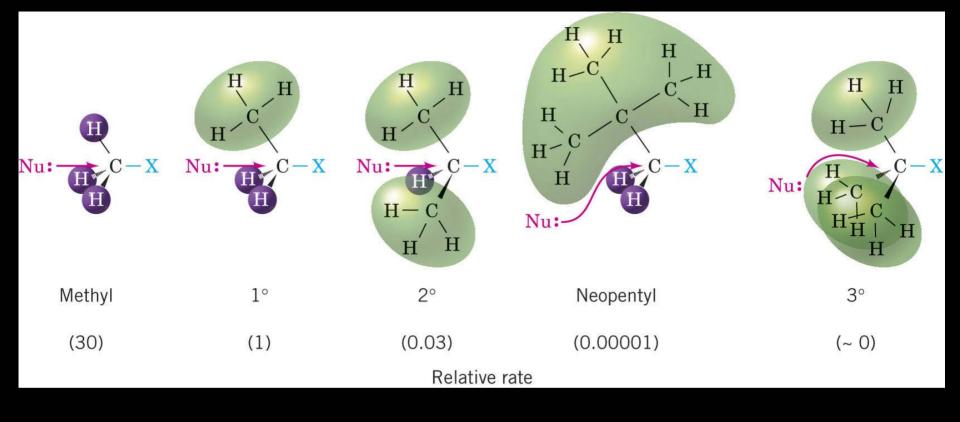
- The Effects of the Structure of the Substrate
- S_N2 Reactions

➔In S_N2 reactions alkyl halides show the following general order of reactivity

Methyl > primary > secondary >> (tertiary - unreactive)

Steric hinderance: the spatial arrangement of the atoms or groups at or near a reacting site hinders or retards a reaction

 In tertiary and neopentyl halides, the reacting carbon is too sterically hindered to react



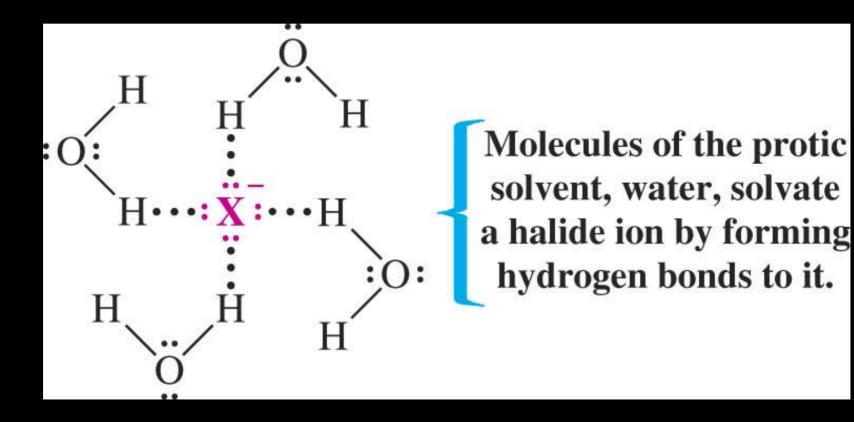
• S_N1 reactions

→Generally only tertiary halides undergo S_N1 reactions because only they can form relatively stabilized carbocations

Solvent Effects on $S_N 2$ Reactions: Polar Protic and Aprotic Solvents

Polar Protic Solvents

- Polar solvents have a hydrogen atom attached to strongly electronegative atoms
- They solvate nucleophiles and make them less reactive



>Larger nucleophilic atoms are less solvated and therefore more reactive in polar protic solvents

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

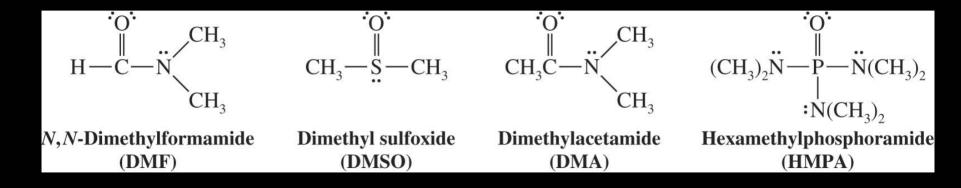
Larger nucleophiles are also more polarizable and can donate more electron density

*Relative nucleophilicity in polar solvents:

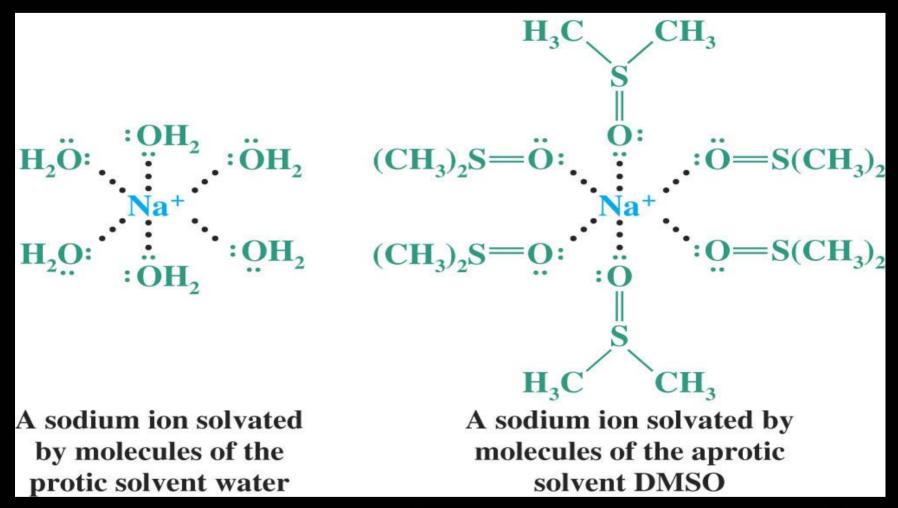
 $SH^- > CN^- > I^- > OH^- > N_3^- > Br^- > CH_3CO_2^- > CI^- > F^- > H_2O_2^-$

Polar Aprotic Solvents

 Polar aprotic solvents do not have a hydrogen attached to an electronegative atom



 Polar aprotic solvents solvate cations well but leave anions unsolvated because positive centers in the solvent are sterically hindered



- Polar aprotic solvents lead to generation of "naked" and very reactive nucleophiles
- Trends for nucleophilicity are the same as for basicity
- They are excellent solvents for $S_N 2$ reactions

• The Nature of the Leaving Group

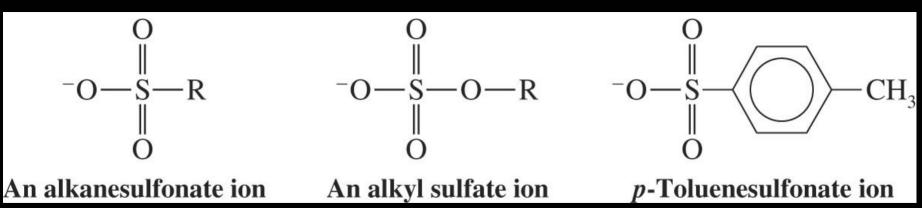
The best leaving groups are weak bases which are relatively stable

 The leaving group can be an anion or a neutral molecule

Leaving group ability of halides:

$$\mathbf{I}^- > \mathbf{Br}^- > \mathbf{Cl}^- \gg \mathbf{F}^-$$

Other very weak bases which are good leaving groups:



The poor leaving group hydroxide can be changed into the good leaving group water by protonation

$$\mathbf{Nu} \xrightarrow{\mathbf{Nu}} \mathbf{R} \xrightarrow{\mathbf{OH}} \mathbf{X} \xrightarrow{\mathbf{X}}$$

$R - Nu + OH^{-}$

This reaction does not take place because the leaving group is a strongly basic hydroxide ion.

$R - Nu + H_2O$

This reaction takes place because the leaving group is a weak base.

Summary $S_N 1$ vs. $S_N 2$

In both types of reaction alkyl iodides react the fastest because of superior leaving group ability

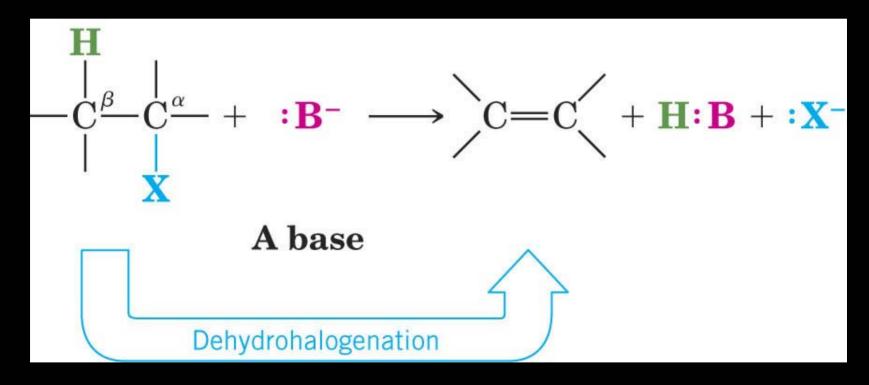
$R-I > R-Br > R-Cl \qquad S_N 1 \quad or \quad S_N 2$

Factor	S _N 1	S _N 2	
Substrate	3° (requires formation of a relatively stable carbocation)	Methyl $> 1^{\circ} > 2^{\circ}$ (requires unhindered substrate)	
Nucleophile	Weak Lewis base, neutral molecule, nucleophile may be the solvent (solvolysis)	Strong Lewis base, rate favored be the by high concentration of nucleophile	
Solvent	Polar protic (e.g., alcohols, water)	Polar aprotic (e.g., DMF, DMSO)	
Leaving group	$I>Br>CI>F$ for both $S_{\rm N}1$ and $S_{\rm N}2$ (the weaker the base after the group departs, the better the leaving group)		

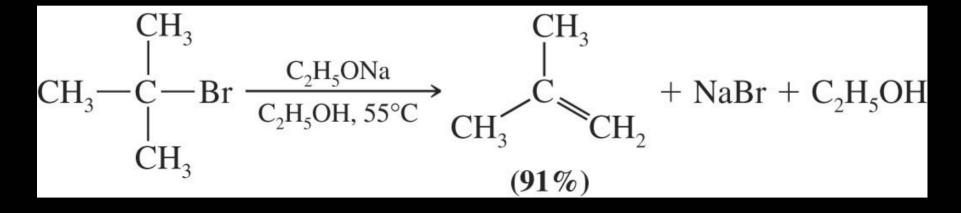
6.16 Elimination Reactions of Alkyl Halides Dehydrohalogenation

Used for the synthesis of alkenes

- Elimination competes with substitution reaction
- Strong bases such as alkoxides favor elimination



$$\begin{array}{c} CH_{3}CHCH_{3} \xrightarrow{C_{2}H_{5}ONa} \\ \downarrow \\ Br \end{array} \xrightarrow{C_{2}H_{5}OH, 55^{\circ}C} CH_{2} = CH - CH_{3} + NaBr + C_{2}H_{5}OH \\ (79\%) \end{array}$$



6.17 The E2 Reaction

E2 reaction involves concerted removal of the proton, formation of the double bond, and departure of the leaving group

Both alkyl halide and base concentrations affect rate and therefore the reaction is 2nd order

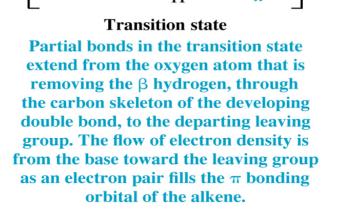
E2 Reaction Mechanism

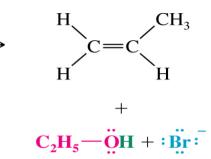
Reaction:

 $C_2H_5O^- + CH_3CHBrCH_3 \longrightarrow CH_2 = CHCH_3 + C_2H_5OH + Br^-$

Mechanism:

The basic ethoxide ion begins to remove a proton from the β carbon using its electron pair to form a bond to it. At the same time, the electron pair of the β C—H bond begins to move in to become the π bond of a double bond, and the bromine begins to depart with the electrons that bonded it to the α carbon



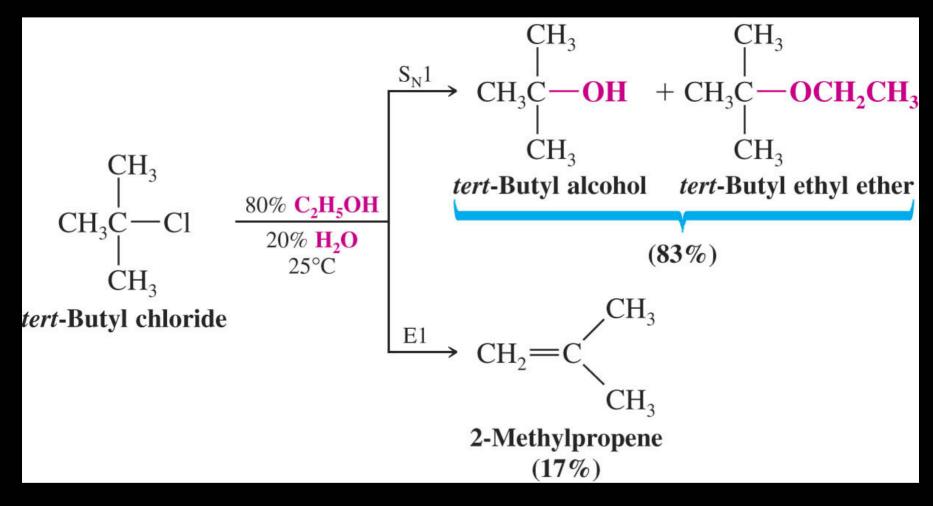


At completion of the reaction, the double bond is fully formed and the alkene has a trigonal planar geometry at each carbon atom. The other products are a molecule of ethanol and a bromide ion.

Rate \propto [CH₃CHBrCH₃][C₂H₅O⁻] Rate = k[CH₃CHBrCH₃][C₂H₅O⁻]

6.18 The E1 Reaction

The E1 reaction competes with the S_N1 reaction and likewise goes through a carbocation intermediate

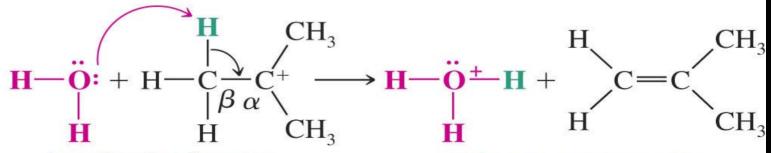


E1 Reaction Mechanism

Step 1

 CH_3 CH3 $C \xrightarrow{i} C \xrightarrow{slow} H_3C \xrightarrow{i} H_2O$ H₃C-CH₂ CH₃ This slow step Aided by the produces the polar solvent, a relatively stable 3° chlorine carbocation and a departs with chloride ion. The the electron ions are solvated pair that (and stabilized) by bonded it to surrounding water the carbon.

molecules.



A molecule of water removes one of the hydrogens from the β carbon of the carbocation. These hydrogens are acidic due to the adjacent positive charge. At the same time an electron pair moves in to form a double bond between the α and β carbon atoms.

This step produces the alkene and a hydronium ion.

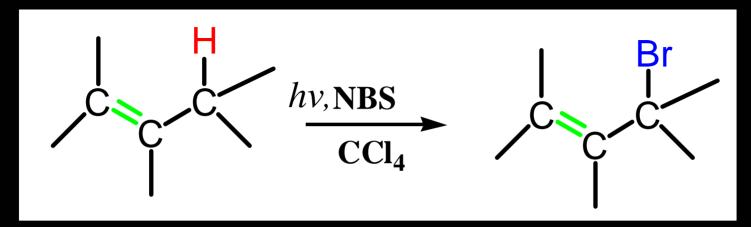
6.20 Reaction Types of Alkyl Halides

A Summary of Substitution and Elimination Reactions

Halide Type	S _N 1	S _N 2	E1	E2
RCH ₂ X (primary)	Does not occur	Highly favored	Does not occur	Occurs when strong bases are used
R ₂ CHX (secondary)	Can occur with benzylic allylic halides	Occurs in competitio n with E2 reaction	Can occur with benzylic and allylic halides	Favored when strong bases are used
R ₃ CX (tertiary)	Favored in hydroxylic solvents	Does not occur	Occurs in competitio n with S _N 1 reaction	Favored when bases are used

Preparation of Alkyl Halides

From radical halogenation of alkenes e.g. allylic bromination with N-bromosuccinimide (NBS) and light



From alkenes by addition of HBr and HCI

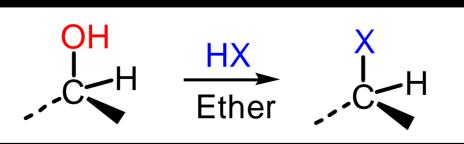


11.12 Conversion of Alcohols into Alkyl Halides

- Hydroxyl groups are poor leaving groups, and as such, are often converted to alkyl halides when a good leaving group is needed
- Three general methods exist for conversion of alcohols to alkyl halides, depending on the classification of the alcohol and the halogen desired
- Reaction can occur with phosphorus tribromide, thionyl chloride or hydrogen halides

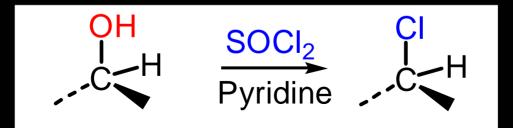
From alcohols

Reaction with HX, where X=CI, Br, I

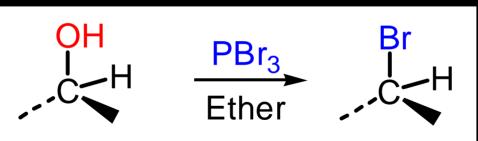


Reactivity order 3°>2°>1°

Reaction of 1° and 2° alcohols with SOCl₂

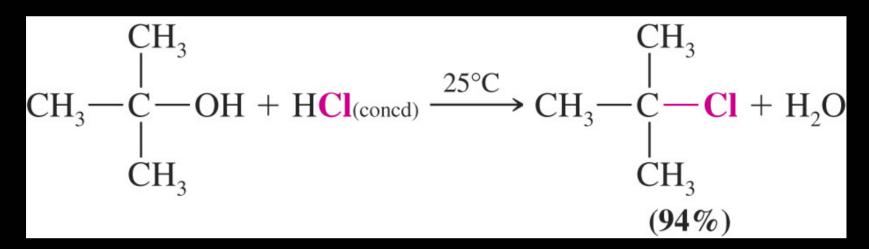


Reaction of 1° and 2° alcohols with PBr₃



Examples

By using hydrogen halides, HX

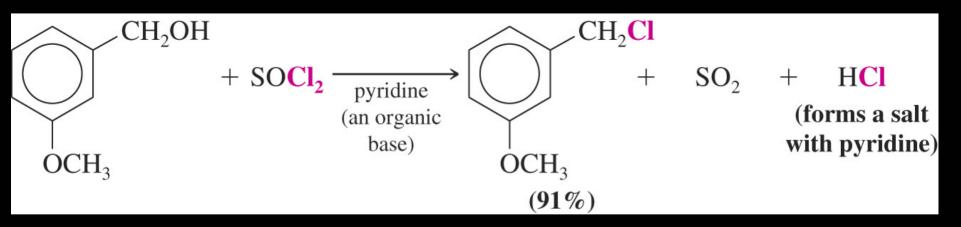


$CH_{3}CH_{2}CH_{2}CH_{2}OH + HBr_{(concd)} \xrightarrow{} reflux CH_{3}CH_{2}CH_{2}CH_{2}Br$ (95%)

• By using PBr₃

$$3 (CH_3)_2 CHCH_2 OH + PBr_3 \xrightarrow{-10 \text{ to } 0^\circ C} 3 (CH_3)_2 CHCH_2 Br + H_3 PO_3$$
(55-60%)

By using SOCl₂



12.7 Reactions of Organolithium and Organo-magnesium Compounds

Reactions with Compounds Containing Acidic Hydrogen Atoms

Organolithium and Grignard reagents behave as if they were carbanions and they are therefore very strong bases

$\mathbf{\hat{R}}^{\delta-}$ MgX -	+ H:ÖH	→ R:H +	- HÖ:- +	$Mg^{2+} + X^{-}$
Grignard reagent (stronger base)	Water (stronger acid, pK _a 15.7)	Alkane (weaker acid, pK _a 40–50)	Hydroxide ion (weaker base)	
$\mathbf{\hat{R}}^{-}$ MgX	+ H:ÖR	→ R :H	+ RÖ:- +	$Mg^{2+} + X^{-}$
Grignard reagent (stronger base)	Alcohol (stronger acid, pK _a 15–18)	Alkane (weaker acid, pK _a 40–50)	Alkoxide ion (weaker base)	