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# **Nucleophile**

In <u>chemistry</u>, an **nucleophile** is a <u>chemical species</u> that forms bonds with <u>electrophiles</u> by donating an <u>electron</u> <u>pair</u>. All <u>molecules</u> and <u>ions</u> with a free pair of electrons or at least one <u>pi bond</u> can act as nucleophiles. Because nucleophiles donate electrons, they are <u>Lewis bases</u>.

*Nucleophilic* describes the affinity of a nucleophile to bond with positively charged atomic nuclei. Nucleophilicity, sometimes referred to as nucleophile strength, refers to a substance's nucleophilic character and is often used to compare the affinity of atoms. Neutral nucleophilic reactions with solvents such as <u>alcohols</u> and water are named <u>solvolysis</u>. Nucleophiles may take part in <u>nucleophilic substitution</u>, whereby a nucleophile becomes attracted to a full or partial positive charge, and <u>nucleophilic addition</u>. Nucleophilicity is closely related to <u>basicity</u>.

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# **History**

The terms *nucleophile* and *electrophile* were introduced by <u>Christopher Kelk Ingold</u> in 1933, [1] replacing the terms *anionoid* and *cationoid* proposed earlier by <u>A. J. Lapworth</u> in 1925. [2] The word nucleophile is derived from <u>nucleus</u> and the Greek word  $\varphi i \lambda o \zeta$ , philos, meaning friend.

# **Properties**

In general, in a group across the periodic table, the more basic the ion (the higher the  $pK_a$  of the conjugate acid) the more reactive it is as a nucleophile. Within a series of nucleophiles with the same attacking element (e.g. oxygen), the order of nucleophilicity will follow basicity. Sulfur is in general a better nucleophile than oxygen.

### **Nucleophilicity**

Many schemes attempting to quantify relative nucleophilic strength have been devised. The following <u>empirical</u> data have been obtained by measuring <u>reaction rates</u> for many reactions involving many nucleophiles and electrophiles. Nucleophiles displaying the so-called <u>alpha effect</u> are usually omitted in this type of treatment.

### Swain-Scott equation

The first such attempt is found in the Swain–Scott equation [3][4] derived in 1953:

$$\log_{10}\!\left(rac{k}{k_0}
ight) = sn$$

This free-energy relationship relates the pseudo first order reaction rate constant (in water at 25 °C), k, of a reaction, normalized to the reaction rate,  $k_0$ , of a standard reaction with water as the nucleophile, to a nucleophilic constant n for a given nucleophile and a substrate constant s that depends on the sensitivity of a substrate to nucleophilic attack (defined as 1 for methyl bromide).

This treatment results in the following values for typical nucleophilic anions: <u>acetate</u> 2.7, <u>chloride</u> 3.0, <u>azide</u> 4.0, <u>hydroxide</u> 4.2, <u>aniline</u> 4.5, <u>iodide</u> 5.0, and <u>thiosulfate</u> 6.4. Typical substrate constants are 0.66 for <u>ethyl</u> <u>tosylate</u>, 0.77 for  $\beta$ -propiolactone, 1.00 for <u>2,3-epoxypropanol</u>, 0.87 for <u>benzyl chloride</u>, and 1.43 for <u>benzoyl</u> chloride.

The equation predicts that, in a <u>nucleophilic displacement</u> on <u>benzyl chloride</u>, the <u>azide</u> anion reacts 3000 times faster than water.

#### Ritchie equation

The Ritchie equation, derived in 1972, is another free-energy relationship: [5][6][7]

$$\log_{10}\!\left(rac{k}{k_0}
ight)=N^+$$

where  $N^+$  is the nucleophile dependent parameter and  $k_0$  the <u>reaction rate constant</u> for water. In this equation, a substrate-dependent parameter like s in the Swain–Scott equation is absent. The equation states that two nucleophiles react with the same relative reactivity regardless of the nature of the electrophile, which is in violation of the <u>reactivity–selectivity principle</u>. For this reason, this equation is also called the *constant selectivity relationship*.

In the original publication the data were obtained by reactions of selected nucleophiles with selected electrophilic carbocations such as tropylium or diazonium cations:

$$X \longrightarrow N \stackrel{\text{Nur}}{\longrightarrow} X \longrightarrow N = N$$

or (not displayed) ions based on malachite green. Many other reaction types have since been described.

Typical Ritchie  $\mathbf{N}^+$  values (in <u>methanol</u>) are: 0.5 for <u>methanol</u>, 5.9 for the <u>cyanide</u> anion, 7.5 for the <u>methoxide</u> anion, 8.5 for the <u>azide</u> anion, and 10.7 for the <u>thiophenol</u> anion. The values for the relative cation reactivities are -0.4 for the malachite green cation, +2.6 for the <u>benzenediazonium cation</u>, and +4.5 for the <u>tropylium</u> cation.

#### Mayr-Patz equation

In the Mayr–Patz equation (1994):[8]

$$\log(k) = s(N+E)$$

The <u>second order reaction rate constant</u> k at 20 °C for a reaction is related to a nucleophilicity parameter N, an electrophilicity parameter E, and a nucleophile-dependent slope parameter s. The constant s is defined as 1 with 2-methyl-1-pentene as the nucleophile.

Many of the constants have been derived from reaction of so-called benzhydrylium ions as the electrophiles: [9]

and a diverse collection of  $\pi$ -nucleophiles:

Typical E values are +6.2 for  $R = \underline{\text{chlorine}}$ , +5.90 for  $R = \underline{\text{hydrogen}}$ , 0 for  $R = \underline{\text{methoxy}}$  and -7.02 for  $R = \underline{\text{dimethylamine}}$ .

Typical N values with s in parenthesis are -4.47 (1.32) for electrophilic aromatic substitution to toluene (1), -0.41 (1.12) for electrophilic addition to 1-phenyl-2-propene (2), and 0.96 (1) for addition to 2-methyl-1-pentene (3), -0.13 (1.21) for reaction with triphenylallylsilane (4), 3.61 (1.11) for reaction with 2-methylfuran (5), +7.48 (0.89) for reaction with isobutenyltributylstannane (6) and +13.36 (0.81) for reaction with the enamine  $7.\frac{[10]}{}$ 

The range of organic reactions also include **SN2** reactions: [11]

With E = -9.15 for the *S-methyldibenzothiophenium ion*, typical nucleophile values N (s) are 15.63 (0.64) for piperidine, 10.49 (0.68) for methoxide, and 5.20 (0.89) for water. In short, nucleophilicities towards  $sp_2$  or  $sp_3$  centers follow the same pattern.

#### **Unified equation**

In an effort to unify the above described equations the Mayr equation is rewritten as: [11]

$$\log(k) = s_E s_N(N+E)$$

with  $s_E$  the electrophile-dependent slope parameter and  $s_N$  the nucleophile-dependent slope parameter. This equation can be rewritten in several ways:

- with  $s_E = 1$  for carbocations this equation is equal to the original Mayr–Patz equation of 1994,
- with  $s_N = 0.6$  for most n nucleophiles the equation becomes

$$\log(k) = 0.6s_EN + 0.6s_EE$$

or the original Scott-Swain equation written as:

$$\log(k) = \log(k_0) + s_E N$$

• with  $s_E = 1$  for carbocations and  $s_N = 0.6$  the equation becomes:

$$\log(k) = 0.6N + 0.6E$$

or the original Ritchie equation written as:

$$\log(k) - \log(k_0) = N^+$$

# **Types**

Examples of nucleophiles are anions such as  $Cl^-$ , or a compound with a <u>lone pair</u> of electrons such as  $NH_3$  (ammonia),  $PR_3$ .

In the example below, the  $\underline{oxygen}$  of the hydroxide ion donates an electron pair to form a new chemical bond with the  $\underline{carbon}$  at the end of the  $\underline{bromopropane}$  molecule. The bond between the carbon and the  $\underline{bromine}$  then undergoes  $\underline{heterolytic}$  fission, with the bromine atom taking the donated electron and becoming the  $\underline{bromide}$  ion (Br $^-$ ), because a  $S_N^2$  reaction occurs by backside attack. This means that the hydroxide ion attacks the carbon atom from the other side, exactly opposite the bromine ion. Because of this backside attack,  $S_N^2$  reactions result in a inversion of the  $\underline{configuration}$  of the electrophile. If the electrophile is  $\underline{chiral}$ , it typically maintains its chirality, though the  $S_N^2$  product's  $\underline{absolute}$  configuration is flipped as compared to that of the original electrophile.

An **ambident nucleophile** is one that can attack from two or more places, resulting in two or more products. For example, the <u>thiocyanate</u> ion (SCN $^-$ ) may attack from either the <u>S</u> or the <u>N</u>. For this reason, the <u>S</u>N $^-$ 2 reaction of an alkyl halide with SCN $^-$  often leads to a mixture of an alkyl thiocyanate (R-SCN) and an alkyl isothiocyanate (R-NCS). Similar considerations apply in the Kolbe nitrile synthesis.

### **Halogens**

While the <u>halogens</u> aren't nucleophilic in their diatomic form (e.g.  $I_2$  is not a nucleophile), their anions are good nucleophiles. In polar, protic solvents,  $F^-$  is the weakest nucleophile, and  $I^-$  the strongest; this order is reversed in polar, aprotic solvents. [12]

#### Carbon

Carbon nucleophiles are often <u>organometallic reagents</u> such as those found in the <u>Grignard reaction</u>, <u>Blaise reaction</u>, <u>Reformatsky reaction</u>, and <u>Barbier reaction</u> or reactions involving <u>organolithium reagents</u> and <u>acetylides</u>. These reagents are often used to perform <u>nucleophilic additions</u>.

<u>Enols</u> are also carbon nucleophiles. The formation of an enol is catalyzed by <u>acid</u> or <u>base</u>. Enols are <u>ambident</u> nucleophiles, but, in general, nucleophilic at the <u>alpha carbon</u> atom. Enols are commonly used in <u>condensation</u> reactions, including the Claisen condensation and the aldol condensation reactions.

### Oxygen

Examples of oxygen nucleophiles are <u>water</u> (H<sub>2</sub>O), <u>hydroxide</u> anion, <u>alcohols</u>, <u>alkoxide</u> anions, <u>hydrogen</u> <u>peroxide</u>, and <u>carboxylate anions</u>. Nucleophilic attack does not take place during intermolecular hydrogen bonding.

#### Sulfur

Of sulfur nucleophiles, <u>hydrogen sulfide</u> and its salts, <u>thiols</u> (RSH), thiolate anions (RS $^-$ ), anions of thiolcarboxylic acids (RC(O)-S $^-$ ), and anions of dithiocarbonates (RO-C(S)-S $^-$ ) and dithiocarbamates (R $_2$ N-C(S)-S $^-$ ) are used most often.

In general, *sulfur is very nucleophilic because of its large size*, which makes it readily polarizable, and its lone pairs of electrons are readily accessible.

# Nitrogen

Nitrogen nucleophiles include <u>ammonia</u>, <u>azide</u>, <u>amines</u>, <u>nitrites</u>, <u>hydroxylamine</u>, <u>hydrazine</u>, <u>carbazide</u>, <u>phenylhydrazine</u>, <u>semicarbazide</u>, and <u>amide</u>.

#### **Metal centers**

Although metal centers (e.g.,  $Li^+$ ,  $Zn^{2+}$ ,  $Sc^{3+}$ , etc.) are most commonly cationic and electrophilic (Lewis acidic) in nature, certain metal centers (particularly ones in a low oxidation state and/or carrying a negative charge) are among the strongest recorded nucleophiles and are sometimes referred to as "supernucleophiles."

For instance, using methyl iodide as the reference electrophile,  $Ph_3Sn^-$  is about 10000 more nucleophilic than  $I^-$ , while the Co(I) form of <u>vitamin</u>  $B_{12}$  (vitamin  $B_{12s}$ ) is about  $10^7$  times more nucleophilic. Other supernucleophilic metal centers include low oxidation state carbonyl metalate anions (e.g.,  $CpFe(CO)_2^-$ ).

# See also

- Electrophile
- Lewis acids and bases
- Nucleophilic abstraction
- Addition to pi ligands

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