Rotational Mode Specificity in the F^- + CH_3Y [Y = F and Cl] S_N2 Reactions

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ABSTRACT: More than 12 million quasiclassical trajectories are computed for the $F^- + CH_3Y(v = 0, JK)$ [Y = F and Cl] S_N2 reactions using fulldimensional ab initio analytical potential energy surfaces. The initial (J, K = 0) and (J, K = J) [J = 0, 2, 4, 6, 8] rotational state specific cross sections are obtained at different collision energies (E_{coll}) in the 1–20 kcal mol⁻¹ range, and the scattering angle and initial attack angle distributions as well as the mechanism-specific opacity functions are reported at $E_{coll} = 10$ kcal mol⁻¹. The tumbling rotation (K = 0) inhibits the $F^- + CH_3F$ reaction by a factor of 3 for J = 8 at $E_{coll} = 10$ kcal mol⁻¹. This tumbling rotational effect becomes smaller at low and high E_{coll} , and the tumbling motion affects the cross sections of $F^- + CH_3Cl$ by only a few percent. The spinning rotation (K = J) hinders both reactions by factors in the 1.3–1.7 range for J = 8 at low E_{coll} , whereas slight promotion is found as the E_{coll} increases. The tumbling rotation may counteract the attractive ion-dipole forces, and the spinning motion hinders the complex formation, thereby decreasing the reactivity.



I. INTRODUCTION

Chemical reactivity depends on how the total energy of the systems is distributed among the translational, vibrational, and rotational degrees of freedom. For atom + diatom reactions both reactant's vibration and rotation can be characterized by single quantum numbers, ν and J, respectively. Vibrational excitations usually promote the atom + diatom reactions, whereas the J dependence of the reactivity can be more complicated showing promotion or inhibition depending on the magnitude of J and the type of the system.¹⁻³ For polyatomic reactants the picture is even more complex. An Natomic nonlinear molecule has 3N - 6 vibrational modes, and the excitation of different modes can have different effects on the reactivity. Furthermore, symmetric or asymmetric polyatomic rotors are characterized by the total rotational angular momentum quantum number J and its projections, K (symmetric top) or $K_a K_c$ (asymmetric top), to the body-fixed axes. The vibrational mode specificity in polyatomic reactions has been widely studied; $^{4-9}$ however, little is known about rotational mode specific, that is, K-dependent, effects on chemical reactivity. Nevertheless, there are a couple of recent experimental and theoretical studies on rotational mode specificity.^{10–14} In 2012 rotational enhancement effects were observed experimentally for the $H_2O^+(J, K_a, K_c) + D_2$ reaction,¹⁰ and later in 2014, ab initio computations showed that rotational excitation facilitates the reorientation of H_2O^+ , thereby enhancing the reactivity.¹¹ The JK-dependent reactivity of CHD₃ with H, Cl, and O(³P) was studied in 2014.^{12–14} For $H + CHD_3(v = 0) \rightarrow H_2 + CD_3$ a seven-dimensional timedependent wave packet study found that rotational excitation up to J = 2 has negligible effect on the reactivity.¹² For the Cl +

 $CHD_3(v_1 = 1) \rightarrow HCl + CD_3$ reaction a joint crossed-beam, quantum dynamics, and quasiclassical trajectory (QCT) study showed that tumbling rotation (K = 0) significantly increases the reactivity, whereas the spinning rotation (K = J) about the CH axis gives smaller enhancement factors.¹³ Similar behavior was recently found by QCT calculations for the $O(^{3}P)$ + $CHD_3(v_1 = 0,1) \rightarrow OH + CD_3$ reactions.¹⁴ In 2015 Liu and coworkers showed that the total reactivity (integral cross sections) of the Cl + CHD₃($v_1 = 1$) reaction depends on the initial JK states, but rotational excitations have virtually no effect on the angular distributions (differential cross sections).¹⁵ A previous QCT study reported the same findings for the $O(^{3}P) + CHD_{3}$ reaction.¹⁴ In 2015 the rotational effects in the $OH + CH_3 \rightarrow O + CH_4$ reaction were studied by Wang and coworkers using six- and seven-dimensional quantum models.^{16,17} It was shown, albeit not *JK* specifically, that the rotational excitation of CH₃ (and OH) significantly hinders the reactivity.

The polyatomic reactant in the X⁻ + CH₃Y [X,Y = F, Cl, Br, I] bimolecular nucleophilic substitution ($S_N 2$) reactions is a symmetric top, like the above-discussed CHD₃ molecule. Although the dynamics of $S_N 2$ reactions have been widely studied,^{18–23} to the best of our knowledge, the *JK* rotational state specific reactivity of $S_N 2$ reactions has not been investigated yet. We recently developed global full-dimensional

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Figure 1. Schematic energy diagram of the F^- + CH₃F and F^- + CH₃Cl reactions showing the stationary points of the S_N2 backside attack pathways. The accurate benchmark relativistic all-electron CCSDT(Q)/complete-basis-set quality focal-point energies, taken from refs 24 and 25, are relative to the F^- + CH₃F(eq) and F^- + CH₃Cl(eq) asymptotes.

analytical potential energy surfaces (PESs) for the F⁻ + CH₃F (ref 24) and F^- + CH₃Cl (ref 25) reactions by fitting high-level coupled-cluster-based ab initio energy points. In the present study we investigate the JK-dependence of the reactivity of the F^- + CH₃Y(ν = 0, JK) [Y = F and Cl] S_N2 reactions by performing QCT calculations on the analytical PESs. Although both CHD₃ and CH₃Y are symmetric tops, CHD₃ is an oblatetype rotor with rotational constants A = B = 3.29 and C = 2.64cm⁻¹, whereas CH₃Y is a prolate top with A = 5.25/5.27 and B = C = 0.86/0.44 cm⁻¹ for Y = F/Cl. The X + CHD₃ [X = H, Cl, $O(^{3}P)$ reactions are endothermic with substantial barriers, whereas the S_N2 reactions F^- + CH_3F and F^- + CH_3Cl are isoenergetic with a slightly negative barrier and highly exothermic with negative barrier, respectively, as seen in Figure $1.^{24,25}$ Furthermore, in the $S_{\rm N}2$ reactions one can expect significant stereodynamical effects due to the relatively strong long-range attractive ion-dipole forces, whereas in the X + CHD₃ reactions only weak van der Waals interactions can occur. Thus, the very different rotational constants and PES shapes indicate that the state-specific rotational excitations may have different effects on the dynamics of the X + CHD₃ and F⁻ + CH₃Y reactions. In Section II we describe the quasiclassical initial JK-specific rotational mode sampling and give the details of the QCT calculations. In Section III we present the JKdependent QCT results for the F^- + CH₃Y($\nu = 0$, JK) S_N2 reactions and compare the rotational effects for two different leaving groups, Y = F and Cl. The paper ends with summary and conclusions in Section IV.

II. METHODS

QCT computations are performed for the F^- + CH₃F and F^- + CH₃Cl reactions using the recently developed full-dimensional analytical ab initio PESs.^{24,25} According to the standard QCT methodology,²⁶ the vibrational energy of the polyatomic reactants is set to the zero-point energy (ZPE) by random distribution of the harmonic ground state (v = 0) mode-specific vibrational energy in the phase space of each normal mode. The

initial rotational quantum numbers (JK) for the CH₃F and CH₃Cl reactants are set following the procedure described in detail below.

A. Rotational Mode Sampling. If the rigid-rotor approximation is assumed, the CH_3F and CH_3Cl molecules are prolate-type symmetric tops characterized by the *J* and *K* rotational quantum numbers. The length of the classical angular momentum vector (**j**) is related to the *J* quantum number according to (in atomic units)

$$i = \sqrt{J(J+1)} \tag{1}$$

where j satisfies the following relation:

$$j = \sqrt{j_x^2 + j_y^2 + j_z^2}$$
(2)

In principal axis system (PAS) the j_x^{PAS} component of the angular momentum vector corresponds to the *K* projection quantum number:

$$j_x^{\text{PAS}} = K \tag{3}$$

(Note that this convention applies only to prolate-type symmetric tops.) To perform computations with fixed J and K, the two remaining components of \mathbf{j} should be sampled employing the following expressions:

$$j_{y}^{\text{PAS}} = (j^{2} - K^{2})^{1/2} \sin 2\pi R$$
 (4)

$$j_z^{\text{PAS}} = (j^2 - K^2)^{1/2} \cos 2\pi R \tag{5}$$

where $R \in [0, 1]$ is a real random number. Note that eqs 3, 4, and 5 satisfy eq 2. The j^{PAS} vector is then transformed to the space-fixed Cartesian coordinate system, defined during the QCT computation, using the similarity transformation matrix obtained by the diagonalization of the moment of inertia tensor (I). The desired angular momentum j is tuned²⁶ by the modification of the velocity vectors for each atom

$$\mathbf{v}_i = \mathbf{v}_i^0 + \mathbf{\Omega} \times \mathbf{q}_i \tag{6}$$

where $\Omega = I^{-1}(j - j_0)$, and q_i stands for the Cartesian coordinates of the *i*th atom, and j_0 denotes the preexisting angular momentum.

B. Computational Details. The initial orientation of CH₃Y is randomly selected and the distance of its center of mass from F^- is $(x^2 + b^2)^{1/2}$, where *b* is the impact parameter scanned with a step size of Δb from 0 to b_{max} , where b_{max} is the maximum value of *b*, where reactive substitution event can occur. The settings for *x*, Δb , and b_{max} values at each collision energy (E_{coll}) are shown in Table 1. Trajectories are run at $E_{coll} = 1, 2, 4, 7$,

Table 1. Settings for the Initial Distance of the Reactants and Impact Parameter Scans (in bohr) and the Total Number of Trajectories at Each Collision Energy (in kcal mol^{-1}) and Each *JK* Rotational State⁴

$E_{\rm coll}$	x	Δb	$b_{\rm max}$	$N_{ m traj}$
$F^- + CH_3F(v = 0, JK)$				
1	25	1.0	23	120 000
2	20	1.0	15	80 000
4	20	0.5	10	105 000
7	20	0.5	8	85 000
10	20	0.5	7	75 000
15	20	0.5	7	75 000
20	20	0.5	6	65 000
$F^- + CH_3Cl(\nu = 0, JK)$				
1	30	1.0	28	145 000
2	25	1.0	21	110 000
4	20	1.0	19	100 000
7	20	1.0	16	85 000
10	20	0.5	12	125 000
15	20	0.5	10	105 000
20	20	0.5	9	95 000
The initial distance of the reactants is $(r^2 + h^2)^{1/2}$ where $h = 0$ Λh				

^{*a*}The initial distance of the reactants is $(x^2 + b^2)^{1/2}$, where b = 0, $\Delta b = 2\Delta b$, ..., b_{max} and $N_{\text{traj}} = (b_{\text{max}}/\Delta b + 1) \times 5000$.

10, 15, and 20 kcal mol⁻¹ and J values are increased from 0 to 8 with $\Delta J = 2$ and K = 0 or J. At each b, 5000 trajectories are computed, resulting in a total number of ~12.5 million trajectories in this study. The trajectories are propagated using a 0.0726 fs time step, and each trajectory is stopped when the maximum of the actual interatomic distances is 1 bohr larger than the initial one. The ZPE constraint decreases the absolute cross sections, as it was shown previously for the substitution channel of the F⁻ + CH₃F reaction,²⁴ but does not have significant effects on the cross-section ratios and angular distributions. For the highly exothermic F⁻ + CH₃Cl S_N2 reaction the product ZPE violation is even less significant; therefore, we consider only the nonconstrained results.

III. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The JK initial rotational state specific integral cross sections and the rotational enhancement factors for the F⁻ + CH₃Y($\nu = 0$, JK) [Y = F and Cl] S_N2 reactions in the 1–20 kcal mol⁻¹ E_{coll} range are shown in Figure 2. The excitation function (cross sections vs E_{coll}) of the F⁻ + CH₃Cl reaction decreases rapidly with increasing $E_{coll\nu}$ as expected for an exothermic barrierless reaction. The cross sections of the F⁻ + CH₃F reaction are approximately an order of magnitude smaller and decrease at low $E_{coll\nu}$ have a minimum at $E_{coll} \approx 4-7$ kcal mol⁻¹ and become nearly constant above $E_{coll} = 10$ kcal mol⁻¹. In the present study the cross sections are investigated in the 1–20 kcal mol⁻¹ E_{coll} range, but as shown in ref 24 the J = 0 excitation function of F⁻ + CH₃F remains almost constant up to $E_{coll} = 80$ kcal mol⁻¹. The shape of the J > 0 excitation functions at E_{coll} larger than 20 kcal mol⁻¹ may be different. Furthermore, we should note that at low E_{coll} the ZPE violation effect on the absolute cross sections is significant for F⁻ + CH₃F, as discussed in ref 24.

The (JK)/(J = 0) cross-section ratios show that rotational excitations usually inhibit the reactivity in the 1–20 kcal mol⁻¹ E_{coll} range for both the F⁻ + CH₃F and F⁻ + CH₃Cl reactions. As Figure 2 shows, the inhibition factors depend sensitively on the J and K rotational quantum numbers, E_{coll} , and the leaving group. For F^- + CH₃F₂ the K = 0 rotational effects are small $(\sim 10\%)$ at low and high E_{coll} values, whereas the inhibition is substantial around $E_{coll} = 10$ kcal mol⁻¹. At $E_{coll} = 10$ kcal mol⁻¹ the K = 0 rotational enhancement factors are 0.93, 0.74, 0.56, and 0.35 for J = 2, 4, 6, and 8, respectively. For the K = J states the rotational enhancement factors are in the 0.6-1.0 range for E_{coll} 's up to ~10 kcal mol⁻¹ and tend to 1.0–1.1 as E_{coll} increases. The picture is quite different for the F⁻ + CH₃Cl reaction. For the $CH_3Cl(J, K = 0)$ states the rotational effects are negligible, as the enhancement factors are $\sim 0.95-1.0$ for J up to 8. If K = J, the rotational effects are larger, for example, the enhancement factors are in the 0.9-1.0 range for I = 4 and in the 0.75–0.9 range for J = 8. These CH₃Cl(J, K = J) enhancement factors are the most significant at low E_{coll} , especially at $E_{coll} = 10$ kcal mol⁻¹, and increase in the E_{coll} range of 10–20 kcal mol⁻¹. At $E_{coll} = 10$ kcal mol⁻¹, the enhancement factors are 0.97, 0.89, 0.79, and 0.75 for J = 2, 4, 6, and 8, respectively, whereas the corresponding values at $E_{coll} = 20$ kcal mol^{-1} are 1.03, 1.00, 0.94, and 0.90. As seen, at $E_{coll} = 20$ kcal mol^{-1} the (*JK*) = (22) state starts to promote the reaction, and we expect promotion for higher J values as well, as we further increase E_{coll} . To check this, we have computed the (*JK*) = (44) enhancement factor at $E_{coll} = 30$ kcal mol⁻¹, which turned out 1.06

Before we move forward, let us consider the "rotational modes" of the CH₃Y molecule. The (J > 0, K = 0) case means that the classical angular momentum vector is perpendicular to the CY axis (C_3 axis); thus, this motion corresponds to tumbling rotation. For (J > 0, K = J), the angular momentum vector is parallel with the CY axis, resulting in spinning rotation about the CY bond. Since CH₃Y is a prolate top, where $A \gg B = C$, the angular velocity of the spinning rotation is significantly larger than that of the tumbling rotation.

To get deeper insight into the mechanistic origin of the rotational effects we computed the product angular and initial attack angle distributions as well as the opacity functions (reaction probabilities vs *b*) at $E_{\rm coll} = 10$ kcal mol⁻¹, as shown in Figures 3 and 4, respectively. ($E_{\rm coll} = 10$ kcal mol⁻¹ is chosen, because the rotational effects are the most significant at this $E_{\rm coll}$.) The attack angle (α) is defined at the beginning of each trajectory as the angle between the velocity vector of CH₃Y and the CY vector. Thus, $\alpha = 0^{\circ}$ corresponds to frontal attack, and $\alpha = 180^{\circ}$ means backside attack initial orientation. On the basis of the integration time, we could distinguish between direct and indirect trajectories as shown for the opacity functions in Figure 4.

For F^- + CH₃F, the J = 0 angular distributions show the dominance of backward scattering, which indicates the preference of the direct rebound mechanism at $E_{coll} = 10$ kcal mol⁻¹ as shown in Figure 4. As we increase J while K = 0, the



Figure 2. *JK*-dependence of the integral cross sections, ICS(*JK*), and their ratios, ICS(*JK*)/ICS(*J* = 0), for the $F^- + CH_3F(v = 0, JK) \rightarrow F^- + CH_3F$ and $F^- + CH_3Cl(v = 0, JK) \rightarrow Cl^- + CH_3F$ reactions as a function of collision energy.

angular distributions become more isotropic (Figure 3), which indicates that the indirect mechanisms dominate at high J. This is confirmed by the direct vs indirect (I = 8, K = 0) reaction probabilities shown in Figure 4. If K = I, the shift from direct to indirect mechanism is less significant; thus, the angular distributions show less pronounced I dependence. The I = 0attack angle distributions show the preference of backside attack, whereas the (I > 0, K = 0) distributions show that the rotational excitation hinders the backside attack reactivity, while virtually not affecting the frontal attack reactivity. This suggests that the tumbling rotation counteracts the orientation effects, thereby decreasing the reactivity of the F^- + CH₃F reaction by a factor of 3 at $E_{coll} = 10$ kcal mol⁻¹. At lower and higher E_{coll} the K = 0 rotational effects are smaller (Figure 2). This may be because at low E_{coll} the reaction is mainly indirect even at J = 0and at high E_{coll} the reaction is so direct and fast that the slow tumbling rotation cannot divert the trajectories from their reaction path. In the K = J case, the spinning rotation does not significantly affect the attack angle distributions. However, at low E_{coll} in the 1–4 kcal mol⁻¹ range, the rotational effects are found to be larger for K = J than for K = 0. This may be explained by the fact that the relatively fast spinning rotation can inhibit the indirect substitutions by hindering the complex formations, which is not significantly affected by the slow tumbling motion.

In the case of the F^- + CH₃Cl reaction the rotational effects are less significant than those for F^- + CH₃F. For K = 0, the rotational inhibition is almost negligible, and the scattering angle and attack angle distributions are virtually not affected by rotational excitations. The J = 0 and (J = 8, K = 0) direct and indirect mechanism-specific opacity functions are also very similar. This shows that the tumbling rotation does not have any significant effect on the dynamics of the F^- + CH₃Cl reaction, whereas substantial inhibition was found for the F⁻ + CH₃F reaction at $E_{coll} = 10$ kcal mol⁻¹. This may be explained by the fact that the attractive forces are stronger in F^- + CH₃Cl than in F^- + CH₂F; thus, the tumbling rotation cannot counteract the steering effects for the former system. The potential profile shown in Figure 1 supports this statement, since the entrance-channel well is $\sim 2-3$ kcal mol⁻¹ deeper for F^- + CH₃Cl. The *K* = *J* rotational excitations inhibit the F^- + CH_3Cl reaction and the effects are similar to those in F^- + CH₃F, as shown in Figure 2. The opacity functions reveal that the F^- + CH₃Cl reaction becomes more direct upon the excitation of the spinning rotation. Thus, the spinning rotational motion hinders the indirect reaction paths and makes most of the indirect trajectories nonreactive or speeds up their reactivity at small impact parameters.

One may wonder whether the different tumbling rotational effects found for the two reactions at $E_{coll} = 10 \text{ kcal mol}^{-1}$ originates from the different PESs or from the different rotational constants of the reactants. Rotational constant *A* is almost the same for CH₃F and CH₃Cl, whereas *B* is 0.86 and 0.44 cm⁻¹ for CH₃F and CH₃Cl, respectively. This means that the spinning motion of CH₃F and CH₃Cl has similar angular velocity, whereas the tumbling rotation of CH₃F is about twice as fast as that of CH₃Cl. Does this explain the rotational effects? To address this question we performed QCT computations for



Figure 3. *JK*-dependence of the scattering angle (θ) and initial attack angle (α) distributions at collision energy of 10 kcal mol⁻¹ for the F⁻ + CH₃F($\nu = 0$, *JK*) \rightarrow F⁻ + CH₃F and F⁻ + CH₃Cl($\nu = 0$, *JK*) \rightarrow Cl⁻ + CH₃F reactions.

the F⁻ + CH₃F' reaction using the PES of F⁻ + CH₃F and setting the mass of F' to 35.5 amu. The opacity functions of the F⁻ + CH₃F' reaction at $E_{coll} = 10$ kcal mol⁻¹ are shown in Figure 4. As seen, the overall reaction probability decreases as we increased the mass of the leaving group; however, the mechanism-specific opacity functions are rather like F⁻ + CH₃F than F⁻ + CH₃Cl. For F⁻ + CH₃F' the (J = 8)/(J = 0) crosssection ratios are 0.34(K = 0) and 0.71(K = J), which are very similar to the corresponding values of 0.35(K = 0) and 0.64(K = J) for F⁻ + CH₃F. Thus, we can conclude that the different tumbling rotational effects found for the two reactions are caused by the different PESs and not by the different rotational speed of the two reactants.

Finally, it is interesting to contrast the rotational mode specificity in the F^- + CH₃Y [Y = F and Cl] S_N2 and the X + CHD₃ [X = Cl and O(³P)] abstraction reactions. Unlike for the above-discussed S_N2 reactions, for X + CHD₃ rotational excitations enhance the reactivity and tumbling rotation has usually larger effects than spinning rotation.^{13–15} This may be explained by considering the following facts: (a) unlike CH₃Y, CHD₃ is an oblate-type rotor, which means that the tumbling rotation of CHD₃ is faster than the spinning about the CH axis and (b) strong attractive forces present in the entrance channel



Figure 4. *JK*-dependence of the opacity functions at a collision energy of 10 kcal mol⁻¹ for the $F^- + CH_3F(v = 0, JK) \rightarrow F^- + CH_3F$, $F^- + CH_3F'(v = 0, JK) \rightarrow F'^- + CH_3F$, $F^- + CH_3Cl(v = 0, JK) \rightarrow Cl^- + CH_3F$ reactions; the direct reaction probabilities were obtained from fast trajectories characterized by integration times lower than 0.65, 1.16, and 0.87 ps, respectively.

of the S_N2 reactions and the prereaction well is ~13-17 kcal mol⁻¹ deep involving H-bonded and ion-dipole complexes separated by barriers (Figure 1), whereas the van der Waals interactions for X + CHD_3 are weak resulting in a well depth of only ~0.3-0.6 kcal mol^{-1.9} Thus, we may expect that that rotational motion counteracts the orientation effects in the S_N2 reactions, thereby inhibiting the reactions. In X + CHD₃ these steering effects are less pronounced; here the rotational motion, especially if K = 0, enlarges the range of the reactive attack angles, thereby promoting the reaction.¹³⁻¹⁵ An alternative explanation of the different rotational effects may be related to the fact that the rotational energy can easily flow to the other degrees of freedom once the trajectory enters the deep well of the $S_N 2$ reactions, whereas the X + CHD₃ reactions are much more direct without significant energy redistribution in the entrance channel.

IV. SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

Following the pioneering initial rotational state specific studies on the reactions of the symmetric top CHD_3 molecule with Cl and $O(^{3}P)$ atoms,¹³⁻¹⁵ we have investigated the rotational mode specificity in the F^- + CH₃F and F^- + CH₃Cl S_N2 reactions. The QCT calculations utilized our recent fulldimensional ab initio analytical PESs^{24,25} allowing the computation of ~12.5 million trajectories, which is unprecedented for S_N2 reactions. The initial JK-specific cross sections show that the tumbling rotation (K = 0) inhibits significantly the F⁻ + CH₃F reaction at $E_{coll} \approx 10$ kcal mol⁻¹, whereas the tumbling rotational effects are almost negligible for the F⁻ + CH₃Cl reaction. The spinning rotation (K = J) hinders both $S_N 2$ reactions at low E_{coll} and the inhibition diminishes and even slight promotion is seen as E_{coll} increases. For F⁻ + CH₃F the K = 0 rotational excitations made the scattering angle distributions more isotropic at $E_{coll} = 10$ kcal mol⁻¹, which correlates with the dominance of the indirect mechanisms characterized by the integration time. Test computations for the artificial F^- + CH₃F' reaction, where the mass of F' is set to the mass of Cl, showed that the different PES shapes are responsible for the different rotational effects, because the change of the rotational constants of the polyatomic reactant does not significantly affect the rotational inhibition factors. We explain the rotational inhibition by considering the fact that the tumbling rotation counteracts the orientation effects caused by ion-dipole interactions. This orientation effect is stronger in the $F^- + CH_3Cl$ reaction, which may diminish the rotational effects. The spinning rotation can hinder the complex formation, thereby reducing the reactivity.

Recent studies showed that rotational excitations, especially the tumbling rotation, promote the Cl/O + CHD₃ reactions.^{13–15} The present study shows opposite rotational effects for the F⁻ + CH₃F/CH₃Cl S_N2 reactions. Our detailed QCT analysis provides some insight into the mechanistic origin of the *JK*-specific rotational effects; however, a clear picture has not emerged that explains all the subtle features of the collision energy dependence of the *JK*-specific rotational enhancement/ inhibition factors. The present study may inspire future experimental and theoretical work to investigate the rotational mode specificity in S_N2 reactions. One may study the deuterium substitution effect, which slows the spinning rotation, and/or the *JK*-dependent reactivity of CH₃Y with different nucleophiles.

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Notes

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