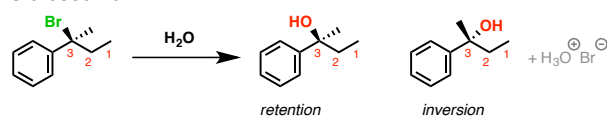


## S<sub>N</sub>1 Reaction

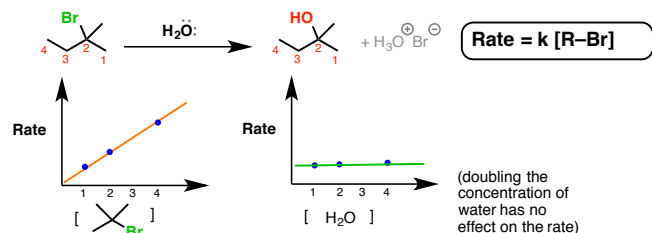
### Stereochemistry

Substitution occurs with a mixture of retention and inversion at a stereocenter



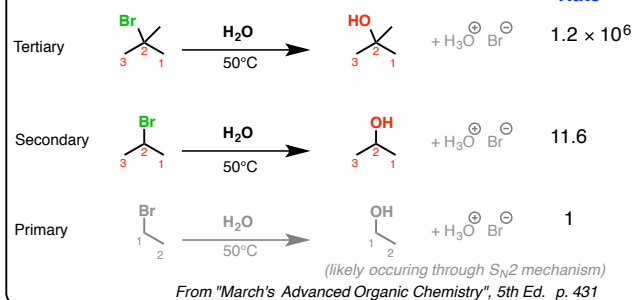
### Rate Law

The rate of the reaction is **ONLY** sensitive to the concentration of the substrate (and not the nucleophile)



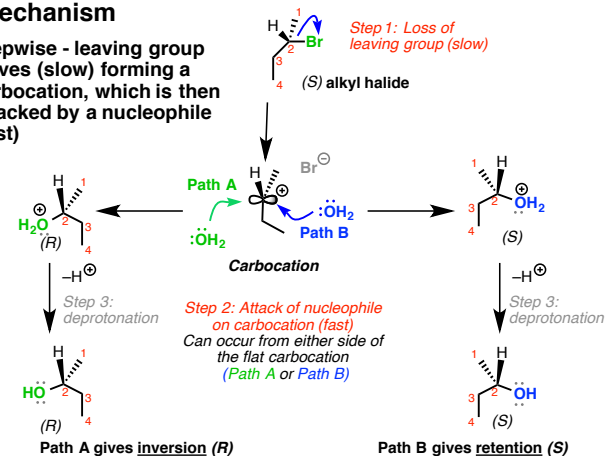
### Substrate

Fastest for tertiary, slowest for primary



### Mechanism

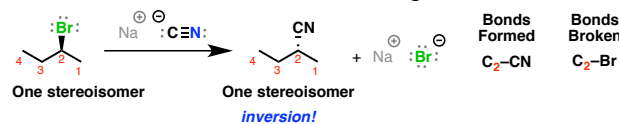
Stepwise - leaving group leaves (slow) forming a carbocation, which is then attacked by a nucleophile (fast)



## S<sub>N</sub>2 Reaction

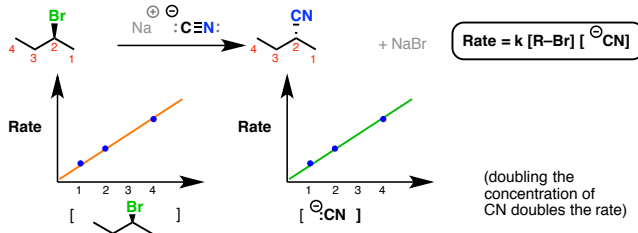
### Stereochemistry

Substitution occurs with inversion of configuration at chiral centers



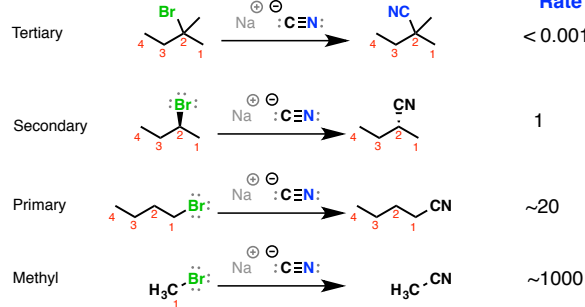
### Rate Law

The rate of the reaction is sensitive to the concentration of the substrate **AND** the nucleophile



### Substrate

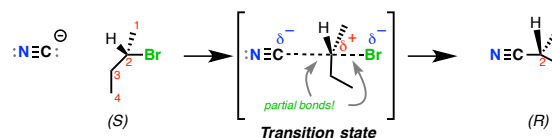
Slowest for tertiary, fastest for primary (methyl even faster)



### Mechanism

One step (backside attack)

In the "backside attack", the nucleophile attacks the substrate from the backside in a single step, resulting in inversion of configuration.



- Explains bimolecular rate law (depends on conc. of nucleophile and substrate)
- Explains inversion of stereochemistry
- Explains sensitivity to steric hindrance (bulky groups slow down backside attack)

This is called the **S<sub>N</sub>2 mechanism**  
(Substitution, Nucleophilic, bimolecular)

## S<sub>N</sub>1 vs. S<sub>N</sub>2 Summary

	SN1	SN2
<b>Rate Law</b>	Unimolecular (substrate only)	Bimolecular (substrate and nucleophile)
<b>"Big Barrier"</b>	Carbocation stability	Steric hindrance
<b>Alkyl halide (electrophile)</b>	3° > 2° >> 1° (fastest)	1° > 2° >> 3° (fastest)
<b>Nucleophile</b>	Weak (generally neutral)	Strong (generally bearing a negative charge)
<b>Solvent</b>	Polar protic (e.g. alcohols)	Polar aprotic (e.g. DMSO, acetone)
<b>Stereochemistry</b>	Mix of retention and inversion	Inversion

### Comparing S<sub>N</sub>1 vs. S<sub>N</sub>2 reactions

The key skill to start with is **identifying the leaving group**. Look for halogens (Cl, Br, I) or tosylates/mesylates (OTs, OMs). Alternatively, look for alcohols (OH) if **acid** is present

Once you've identified the leaving group, inspect the **carbon** it is attached to. How many carbons is that carbon connected to? That will tell you if the carbon is primary, secondary, or tertiary. If there are no attached carbons, that's the special case of "methyl" (S<sub>N</sub>2 for sure!)

If the carbon is tertiary, it's likely S<sub>N</sub>1. You can rule out S<sub>N</sub>2 due to steric hindrance.

If the carbon is primary, it's likely S<sub>N</sub>2. You can rule out S<sub>N</sub>1 due to the fact that primary carbocations are unstable [one exception: resonance stabilized carbocations].

Next, examine the **nucleophile**. A negatively charged nucleophile generally indicates an S<sub>N</sub>2 reaction. A neutral nucleophile (such as H<sub>2</sub>O or ROH) generally indicates an S<sub>N</sub>1 reaction.

Finally, check the **solvent**. A polar aprotic solvent (such as DMSO, acetone, acetonitrile, or DMF) generally indicates S<sub>N</sub>2, whereas a polar protic solvent such as H<sub>2</sub>O or ROH generally indicates S<sub>N</sub>1 conditions.

If you found this useful, [click here](#) to check out more great organic chemistry "cheat sheets"!