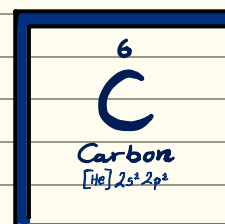


Foundations of Organic Chemistry.

Organic chemistry is based off the study of carbon-based compounds.
 focusing on Structure, bonding, reactivity, & functional groups.
 it's all about carbons ability to form
 four stable covalent bonds leading to huge diversity.



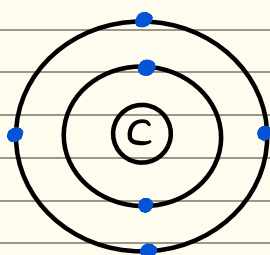
Basic

Terminology:

- Hydrocarbon** : Compound containing only C + H (alkanes, alkenes...)
- functional group** : A group of atoms that impact specific chemical behaviour
- Homologous Series** : A series of compounds with the same functional group, successive members differing by CH₂
- Isomers** : Same molecular formula but different structures
- Saturated / Unsaturated** : Saturated = ONLY single bonds
 Unsaturated = Has double + triple bond

Bonding, Hybridization & Structure

- Carbon has 4 valence electrons → forms 4 covalent bonds



Why is Carbon so special?

→ Think of Carbon as a "molecular lego block": it can link itself in chains, branches, rings, and connect to many functional groups.

- Hybridization** : the mixing of atomic orbitals to form new hybrid orbitals that are used to make covalent bonds. It explains molecular geometry, bond angles, & bond strength in organic molecules.

Hybridization table:

Hybridization	Orbital mix	Geometry	Bond Angle	Example	Common in
sp ³	1s + 3p	Tetrahedral	~ 109.5°	CH ₄	Alkanes, Alcohols
sp ²	1s + 2p	Trigonal planar	~ 120°	C ₂ H ₄	Alkenes, Carbonyls
sp	1s + 1p	Linear	~ 180°	C ₂ H ₂	Alkynes, nitriles

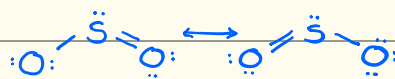
Common Organic Examples:

Methane (CH ₄)	→ sp ³	→ Tetrahedral, all single bonds
Ethene (C ₂ H ₄)	→ sp ²	→ Double bond
Ethyne (C ₂ H ₂)	→ sp	→ Triple Bond
Benzene (C ₆ H ₆)	→ sp ²	→ Delocalized π (planar structure)

What is Resonance?

Resonance structures are different ways of drawing the same molecules

eg (SO₂):



We use resonance structures to explain stability!

A little tip:

- In Benzene (C₆H₆), each carbon is sp² hybridized, and the leftover p orbitals combine into a delocalized π system (aromatic stability)

functional groups (Summary)

A functional group is the reactive part of a molecule that determines its chemical properties & type of reactions.

functional group	Example Compound	Formula / Structure	Suffix	General Reactions
Alkane	Ethane	$C - C$	-ane	Substitution
Alkene	Ethene	$C = C$	-ene	Addition
Alkyne	Ethyne	$C \equiv C$	-yne	Addition
Alcohol	Ethanol	$-OH$	-ol	Oxidation, Elimination
Aldehyde	Ethanal	$-CHO$	-al	Oxidation
Ketone	Propanone	$-CO-$	-one	Reduction
Carboxylic acid	Ethanoic acid	$-COOH$	-oic acid	Condensation
Ester	Ethyl ethanoate	$-COO$	-oate	Hydrolysis
Amine	Ethylamine	$-NH_2$	-amine	Substitution
Amide	Ethanamide	$-CONH_2$	-amide	Hydrolysis
Halogenoalkane	Bromoethane	$-X (X = Cl, Br, I)$	-	Nucleophilic Substitution

TIPS:

- functional groups act like a "Signature" for reactions
- Similar functional groups = Similar reactivity
- When naming, always number the carbon closest to the functional group.

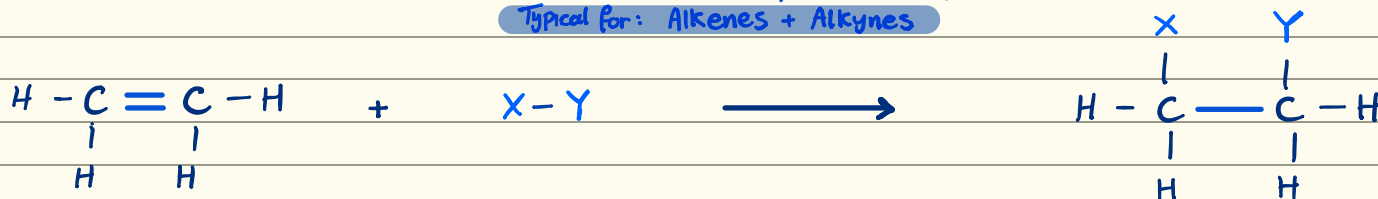
Key Reaction Types & Mechanisms

Overview: Reaction Types:

1- Addition Reactions

Two reactants combine to form one product.

Typical for: Alkenes + Alkynes



Mechanism:

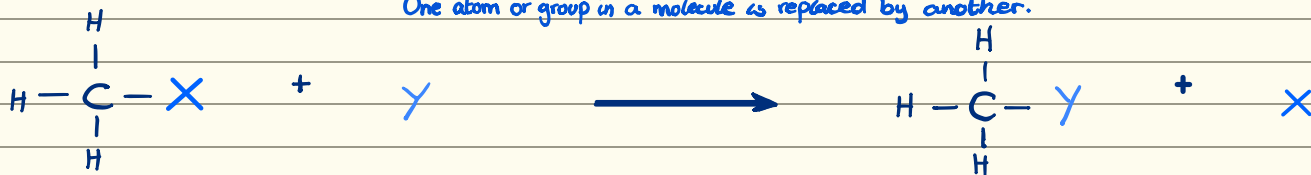
- Electrophilic addition: the double bond (rich in electrons) attracts an electrophile like Br_2 or HBr .
- The π bond breaks and two new σ bonds form.

Tip: addition reduces the number of multiple bonds

★ think:
"adding atoms,
breaking double bonds"

2- Substitution Reactions

One atom or group in a molecule is replaced by another.



Main Types:

- Free radical: Steps:

① Initiation:

UV light breaks a halogen molecule

e.g. $\text{Cl}_2 \rightarrow 2\text{Cl}\cdot$

- Free radicals are formed

② Propagation:

Chain reaction keeps going

e.g. 1. $\text{CH}_4 + \text{Cl}\cdot \rightarrow \text{CH}_3\cdot + \text{HCl}$

2. $\text{CH}_3\cdot + \text{Cl}_2 \rightarrow \text{CH}_3\text{Cl} + \text{Cl}\cdot$

- Radicals are used and regenerated

③ Termination:

Two radicals combine to end the reaction

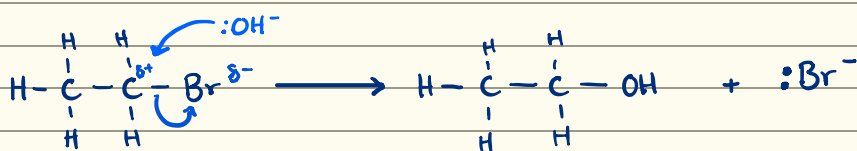
e.g. $\text{Cl}\cdot + \text{CH}_3\cdot \rightarrow \text{CH}_3\text{Cl}$

- No more radicals $\rightarrow$ reaction stops

- Nucleophilic

A nucleophile (electron-rich) replaces a leaving group (like a halogen) in a molecule

e.g. $\text{CH}_3\text{Br} + \text{OH}^- \rightarrow \text{CH}_3\text{OH} + \text{Br}^-$
haloalkane nucleophile leaving group



- Electrophilic

An electrophile (electron-poor species) replaces a hydrogen atom in an aromatic ring such as benzene.

e.g. $\text{C}_6\text{H}_6 + \text{Br}_2 \rightarrow \text{C}_6\text{H}_5\text{Br} + \text{HBr}$ Bromination of Benzene

Conditions:

FeBr_3 or AlBr_3 Catalyst

KEY POINTS

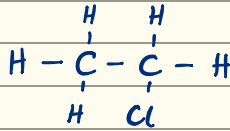
- Happens in haloalkanes
- Needs warm aqueous conditions
- Produces an alcohol, amine or nitrile (depending on nucleophile)

KEY POINTS

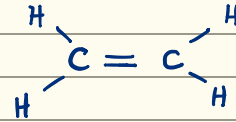
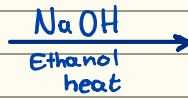
- Electrophile = electron seeking
e.g. Br^+ , NO_2^+
- Reaction keeps the stability of the ring

3-Elimination Reactions

A small molecule (like H_2O) is removed, forming a double bond



Alkyl halide



Alkene

e.g: $C_2H_5OH \rightarrow C_2H_4 + H_2O$
Ethanol $\rightarrow$ Ethene + water

Conditions:

- Concentrated H_2SO_4 (acid catalyst)
- Heat

KEY Idea : Remove water or hydrogen halide $\rightarrow$ get an alkene.

There are three fundamental events of Elimination reactions:

1. Proton Removal
2. Formation of C-C pi bond
3. Removal of the leaving group

affecting factors:

- $\rightarrow$ The stability of the carbocation
- $\rightarrow$ The form of the leaving group
- $\rightarrow$ Solvent type

4-Oxidation & Reduction

Otherwise known as Redox Reactions

OIL

Oxidation Is Loss

RIG

Reduction Is Gain

$\rightarrow$ Gain of Oxygen or loss of hydrogen

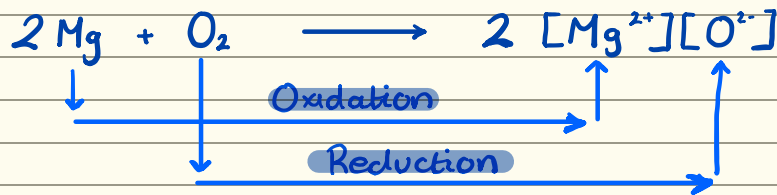
e.g:

Ethanol $\rightarrow$ Ethanoic acid

$\rightarrow$ Gain of hydrogen or loss of Oxygen

e.g:

$C_2H_4 + H_2 \rightarrow C_2H_6$



Redox

Reflux = How you make "what happens" happen safely

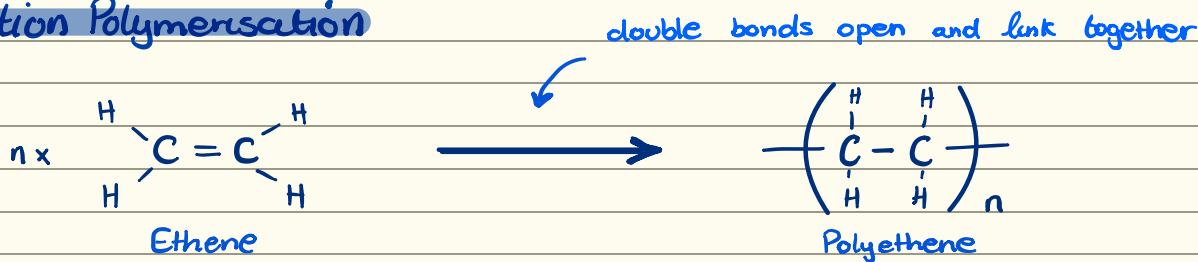
$\rightarrow$ used to heat safely without losing reactants

e.g: full oxidation of ethanol under reflux

5 - Polymerisation

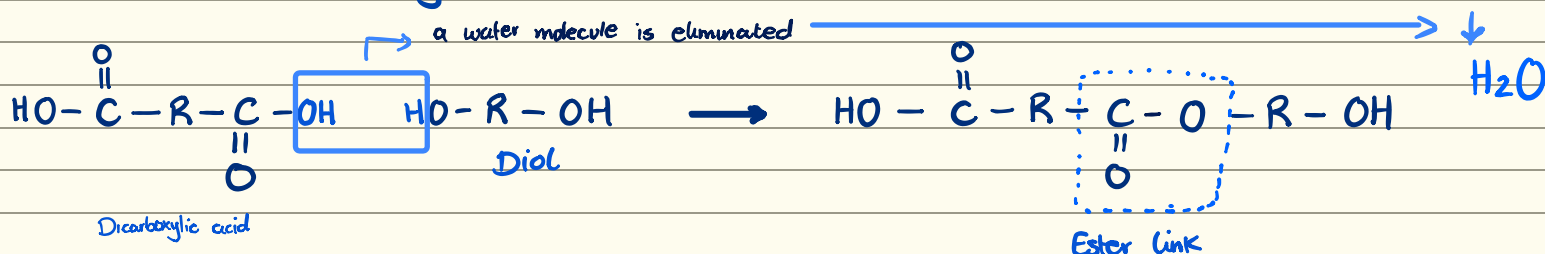
Many small molecules (monomers) join together to form one large molecule (polymer)

1. Addition Polymerisation



Monomers : alkenes (have C=C double bonds)

2. Condensation Polymerisation



The example above shows a Condensation Reaction between a Dicarboxylic acid & a Diol to form a polyester

Monomers : with two functional groups each (e.g. diol + dicarboxylic acid)
 ↳ they join together and lose a small molecule (like H₂O)

Q: So what ACTUALLY is different between the two polymerisations?

Feature	Addition Polymerization	Condensation Polymerization
Monomers	Alkenes (C=C)	Molecules with 2 functional groups
By-product	None	Small molecule (H ₂ O or HCl)
Bond Formed	C-C single bonds	Ester or amide bonds
Example	Ethene - Polyethene	Diol + Dicarboxylic acid → Polyester
Atoms Lost?	None	Yes (water or acid)

Addition : no loss
 Condensation : joins + loses water