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UNIT - 7: Organic Chemistry-Some Basic Principles and Techniques

 Organic chemistry deals with the study of hydrocarbons (compounds of carbon and hydrogen elements) and other compounds regarded as derivatives of hydrocarbons. Some organic compounds may also contain nitrogen, oxygen, sulphur, phosphorus, halogens, etc.

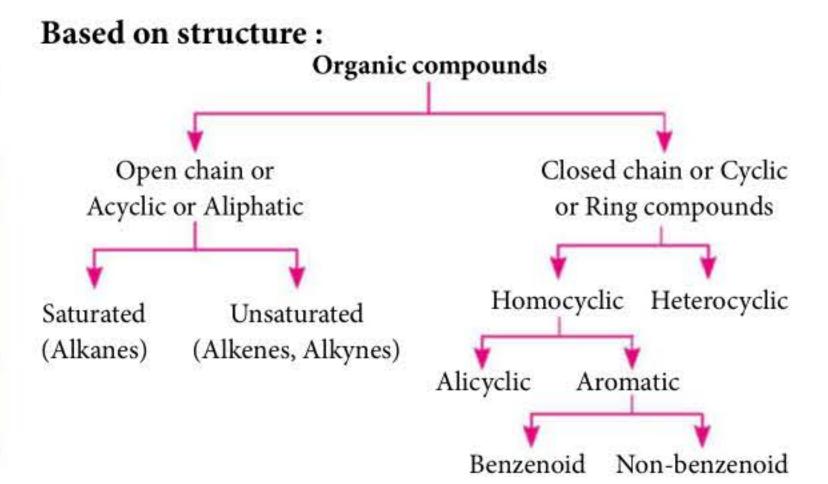
Structure	Tetrahedral	Trigonal planar	Linear
Examples	Ethane, methane	Ethene, propene	Ethyne, propyne

TETRAVALENCY OF CARBON

Carbon atom has four half filled orbitals in its excited state and hence, forms four covalent bonds.

Hybridisation	sp^3	sp^2	sp
Number of equivalent orbitals formed	4	3	2
Unhybridised orbitals	0	1	2

CLASSIFICATION OF ORGANIC COMPOUNDS



Based on functional groups:

Organic compounds containing >c=c< Oxygen Halogen Sulphur Nitrogen → - SH (thiols) → - CONH₂ (amides) (Alkenes) → X (halides) → - OH (alcohols) → – CHO (aldehydes) → - NH₂ (amines) → - COX →>c=s → >C=O (ketones) (acid halides) → CN (cyanides) (thioketones) → –NC (isocyanides) → -S-(thioethers) \rightarrow - O - (ethers) \rightarrow - NO₂ (nitro) → – COOH (carboxylic acids) → -SO₃H → -ONO (nitrites) → COOR (esters) (sulphonic acids)

NOMENCLATURE OF ORGANIC COMPOUNDS

IUPAC Nomenclature: The complete IUPAC name of an organic compound consists of five parts:

Secondary prefix	Primary prefix	Word root	Primary suffix	Secondary suffix
Indicates the	Indicates the	Indicates the	Indicates the nature of	Indicates the nature
nature of side	presence of	number of carbon	C—C bond in the longest	of functional group.
chains and	alicyclic system	atoms in a suitably	chain selected	(A) (B)
substituents	(cyclo = alicyclic)	selected longest	(-ane : C—C single bond)	
attached to longest	£	continuous chain of	(-ene : C=C double bond)	
chain selected		carbon atoms.	(-yne : C≡C triple bond)	

Rules for Nomenclature

- Longest chain rule: The very first step for naming an organic compound is to select longest continuous carbon chain, which may be either straight or branched. This is called principal chain or parent chain.
- Numbering of the principal chain: The principal carbon chain is numbered from one end to other by numerals (1, 2, 3, 4,) in such a way that it gives the lowest possible number to the carbon atom carrying the substituent.
- Lowest set of locants rule: When the parent chain has two or more substituents, numbering should be done in such a way that sum of the locants on the parent chain is lowest possible number. This is also known as lowest sum rule.
- Alphabetical order of the substituents: When two or more substituents are present on the parent chain, then these substituents prefixed with their position number are arranged in alphabetical order

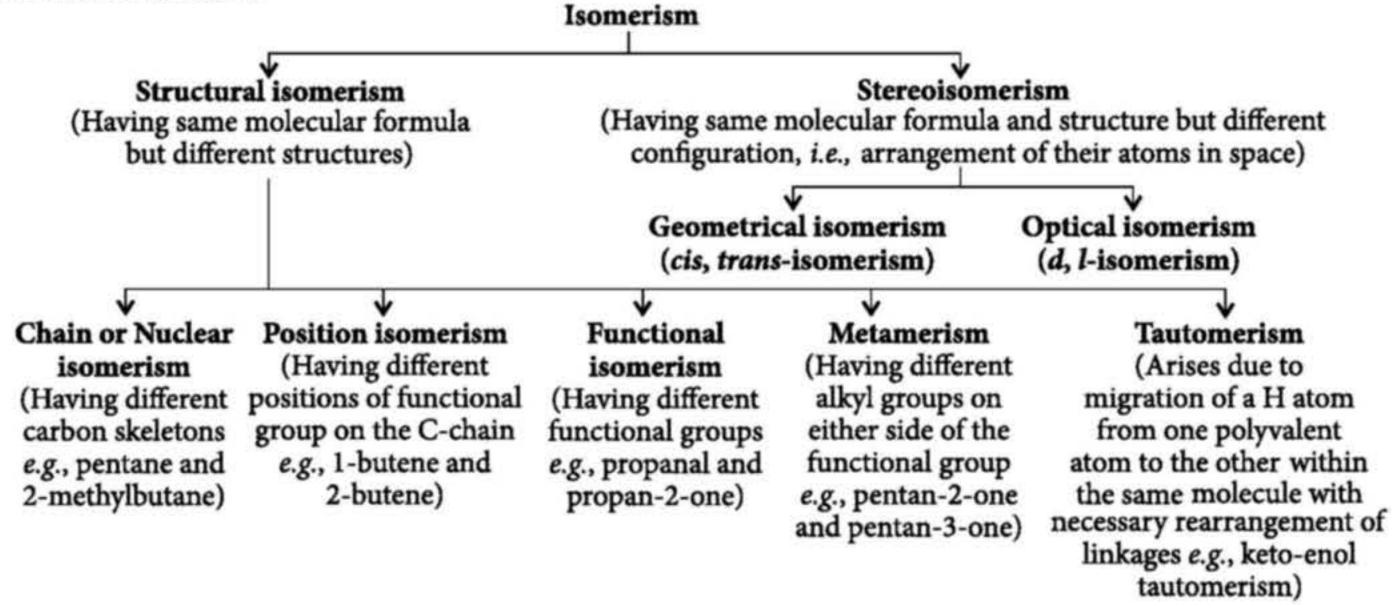
(irrespective of the position number) before word root.

- Naming same group at different positions: When
 the same substituent occurs more than once on the
 parent chain, position of each substituent separated
 by commas is mentioned with suitable prefix such
 as di (for two), tri (for three), tetra (for four).
- Naming of complex substituent: If the substituent on the parent chain is complex (*i.e.* branched), it is named as a substituted alkyl group by numbering the group in the same manner as the numbering of parent chain has been done, starting with the carbon atom directly attached to the parent chain.

ISOMERISM

Two or more compounds possessing same molecular formula but different physical and chemical properties are known as isomers and the phenomenon is called isomerism.

Types of Isomerism



REACTION MECHANISM AND INTERMEDIATES

Fission of a Covalent Bond

- A covalent bond can get cleaved either by :
 - Heterolytic cleavage: It involves breaking of a covalent bond in such a fashion that the shared pair of electrons remains with one of
- the fragments, which results in the formation of carbocations or carbanions as intermediates.
- ➤ Homolytic cleavage: It involves breaking of a covalent bond in such a fashion that one of the electrons of the shared pair goes with each of the bonded atom, which results in the formation of free radicals as intermediates.

Reaction Intermediates

Intermediates	Definition	Hybridisation of carbon and shape	Stability order
Carbocation	Carbon species carrying +ve charge on carbon.	sp ² hybridised carbon and planar structure.	3° > 2° > 1°
Carbanion	Carbon species carrying –ve charge on carbon.	sp ³ hybridised carbon and pyramidal shape.	1° > 2° > 3°
Free radical	Atom or group of atoms having odd or unpaired electron.	sp ² hybridised carbon and planar structure.	3° > 2° > 1°

Attacking Reagents

Reagent	Description	Examples
Electrophiles	They are positively charged or neutral	Charged: H_3O^+ , X^+ (where $X = Cl$, Br, I),
(Electro = Electron,	molecules having electron deficient	NO_{2}^{+} , NO^{+} , NH_{4}^{+} , $SO_{3}H$, $C_{6}H_{5}\mathring{N}_{2}$, R^{+} ,
<i>phile</i> = loving)	atom, seeking a site of high electron	RCO^+ .
	density. Electrophiles have an incomplete	Neutral: BF ₃ , AlCl ₃ , FeCl ₃ , SiCl ₄ , BeCl ₂ ,
	outer shell and are also called Lewis acids	ZnCl ₂ , SO ₃ , CO ₂ , CS ₂ , CX ₄ , RCOCl,
	(electron-pair acceptors).	>C=O, $:$ CCl ₂ etc.
Nucleophiles	They are negatively charged or neutral	Charged: H^- , OH^- , X^- , CN^- , N_3^- , RO^- , R^- , RS^- ,
(Nucleo = nucleus, phile molecules having electron-rich atom with		SH ⁻ , HSO ₃ ⁻ , NO ₂ , NH ₂ ⁻ , RCOO ⁻ , HC \equiv C ⁻ .
= loving)	unshared electron pair, seeking electron	Neutral: NH ₃ , H ₂ O, ROH, ROR, RSH,
1 0 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1		
Ambiphiles (ambidents)	They behave like both electrophiles and	Charged : H₃Ō:
55 S	nucleophiles hence, have dual nature	
	(amphoteric).	110 and 111 112, etc.

ELECTRONIC DISPLACEMENT EFFECTS IN COVALENT BONDS

Inductive Effect

- It involves displacement of σ electrons along a saturated carbon chain when an electron donating (+*I* effect) or electron withdrawing (-*I* effect) group is attached at the end of the carbon chain.
- Decreasing order of -I effect: $-NO_2 > -CN >$ -COOH > -F > -Cl > -Br > -I > -H
- Decreasing order of +I effect : $(CH_3)_3C^- > (CH_3)_2CH^- > CH_3CH_2^- > CH_3^- > D^- > H^-$

Electromeric Effect

- It involves complete transfer of π electrons of a multiple bond towards one of the bonded atoms in the presence of an attacking reagent.
- +E effect when electron transfer takes place towards the atom to which the attacking reagent gets attached.
- –E effect when electron transfer takes place away from the atom to which the attacking reagent gets attached.

Resonance or Mesomeric Effect

• It is defined as the polarity produced in the molecule by the interaction of two π bonds or between a

 π bond and a lone pair of electrons present on adjacent atom.

- +R or +M effect : -OH, -OR, -SH, -SR, $-NH_2$, -NHR, $-NR_2$, -Cl, -Br, -I, etc.
- -R or -M effect : >C=O, -CHO, -COOR, -CN, $-NO_2$, etc.

Hyperconjugation

It involves delocalisation of σ electrons of C—H bond of an alkyl group directly attached to an atom of unsaturated system or to an atom with an unshared *p*-orbital. For an alkyl group attached to unsaturated system it decreases with decrease in number of α -hydrogens :

$$CH_3 - > CH_3CH_2 - > (CH_3)_2CH - > (CH_3)_3C -$$

Types of Organic Reactions

Substitution or Displacement Reactions

- In these reactions an atom attached to a carbon atom in a molecule is replaced by another atom or group. CH₄ + Cl₂ ^{UV light}→ CH₃Cl + HCl
- These are of three types:
 - > Free radical substitution : When the attacking species is free radical.
 - **Electrophilic substitution :** When the attacking species is electrophile.
 - > Nucleophilic substitution: When the attacking species is nucleophile.

Addition Reactions

In these reactions attacking reagent adds up to the substrate without eliminations.

The methods commonly used for purification are:

$$CH_2 = CH_2 \xrightarrow{200^{\circ}C} CH_3 - CH_3$$

- These are also of three types:
 - Free radical addition
 - Electrophilic addition
 - Nucleophilic addition

Elimination Reactions

In these reactions generally atoms from two adjacent atoms are removed and multiple bond is formed. It is just reverse of addition reactions.

$$H_3C - CH_2Br + KOH \xrightarrow{-HBr} CH_2 = CH_2 + KBr + H_2O$$

- These are of three types:
 - \triangleright α -elimination reactions: Elimination occurs from the same atom of the substrate molecule.
 - β -elimination reactions: Elimination occurs from the adjacent atom of the substrate molecule.
 - > γ-elimination reactions: Elimination occurs from α -and γ -positions (*i.e.*, three bonds away) of the substrate molecule leading to the formation of the three-membered rings.

Rearrangement Reactions

Inthesereactions, migration of an atomora group from one site to another within the molecule takes place.

$$CH_3CH_2CH_3 \xrightarrow{Anhydrous} CH_3 - CH - CH_3$$

$$n\text{-Butane} CH_3$$

$$CH_3$$

METHODS OF PURIFICATION OF ORGANIC COMPOUNDS

The methods employed for purification depend upon the nature of substance and the type of impurity present in it.

Method	Used for separating		Examples
Crystallisation	Mixtures with difference in the solubility of the organic compound and its impurities in a solvent.	be	crystallised from hot ethanol (sugar solves but salt does not).
Sublimation	Mixtures of sublimable volatile compounds and non-sublimable impurities.		rification of camphor, anthracene, hthalene, benzoic acid, etc.
Distillation	Mixtures of liquids which boil without decomposition and contains non-volatile impurities.		oroform (b.pt. 334 K) and aniline (b.pt. K). er (b.pt. 308 K) and toluene (b.pt. 383 K).
Fractional distillation	Mixtures of two or more miscible liquids which have b.pt. close to each other.	(b.p	etone (b.pt. 330 K) and methyl alcohol ot. 338 K). nzene(b.pt. 353 K) and toluene (b.pt. 384 K).

Steam distillation	Mixtures of substances which are (i) volatile in steam, (ii) not miscible with water, (iii) possess a vapour pressure of about 10-15 mm of Hg, (iv) contain non-volatile impurities.	•	Purification of aniline (b.pt. 457 K). Purification of nitrobenzene (b.pt 484 K), etc.
Azeotropic distillation	Mixtures with constant boiling points- Azeotropic mixtures.	•	Ethanol and water in ratio 95.63: 4.37.
Distillation under reduced pressure or Vacuum distillation	Mixtures of high boiling liquids which decompose at or below their boiling points.		Glycerol from spent-lye in soap industry (at 453 K under 12 mm Hg). Concentration of sugarcane in sugar industry.
Chromatography	Mixtures with difference in the rates at which the components of the mixture move through a stationary phase under the influence of a mobile phase.		ortho and para nitroanilines. Blue and red dyes. Plant pigments and other natural products.
Differential extraction	Mixtures of organic compounds from their aqueous solutions using a solvent that should (i) be immiscible with water, (ii) dissolve the organic compound.		Benzoic acid can be extracted from its water solution using benzene.

QUALITATIVE ANALYSIS OF ORGANIC COMPOUNDS

• In addition to carbon and hydrogen, organic compounds may also contain oxygen, nitrogen, sulphur, halogens and phosphorus. The qualitative analysis of organic compounds involves the detection of all these major elements present in it with the help of suitable chemical tests:

Element	Detection	Confirmatory test	Reactions
Carbon	Copper(II) oxide test $2\text{CuO} + \text{C} \xrightarrow{\Delta} 2\text{Cu} + \text{CO}_2 \uparrow$	CO_2 gas turns lime water milky.	CO_2 ↑ + $Ca(OH)_2$ \longrightarrow $CaCO_3$ ↓ + H_2O Lime water Milkiness
Hydrogen	CuO + 2H $\stackrel{\Delta}{\longrightarrow}$ Cu + H ₂ O	Water droplets appear on the cooler part of the ignition tube and also turns anhydrous CuSO ₄ blue.	White Blue
Nitrogen	Lassaigne's extract (L.E.) Na + C + N → NaCN (L.E.)	L.E. + FeSO ₄ + NaOH, boil and cool + FeCl ₃ + conc. HCl Gives blue or green colour.	FeSO ₄ + 2NaOH \longrightarrow Fe(OH) ₂ + Na ₂ SO ₄ Fe(OH) ₂ + 6NaCN \longrightarrow Na ₄ [Fe(CN) ₆] + 2NaOH 3Na ₄ [Fe(CN) ₆] + 4FeCl ₃ $\stackrel{HCl}{\longrightarrow}$ Fe ₄ [Fe(CN) ₆] ₃ + 12NaCl Prussian blue
Sulphur	$2Na + S \xrightarrow{\Delta} Na_2S$ (L.E.)	 L.E. + sodium nitroprusside. A deep violet colour. L.E. + CH₃COOH + (CH₃COO)₂Pb Gives a black ppt. 	$Na_2S + Na_2[Fe(CN)_5NO] \longrightarrow$ Sodium nitroprusside $Na_4[Fe(CN)_5NOS]$ Deep violet $Na_2S + (CH_3COO)_2Pb \xrightarrow{CH_3COOH}$ $PbS \downarrow + 2CH_3COONa$ Black ppt.

Halogens	Na + $X \xrightarrow{\Delta}$ Na X (L.E.)	 L.E. + HNO₃ + AgNO₃ White ppt. soluble in aq. NH₃ (or NH₄OH) confirms Cl. Yellow ppt. partially soluble in aq. NH₃ (or NH₄OH) confirms Br. Yellow ppt. insoluble in aq. NH₃ (or NH₄OH) confirms I. 	$NaX + AgNO_3 \xrightarrow{HNO_3} AgX \downarrow ppt.$ $AgCl + 2NH_{3(aq.)} \longrightarrow [Ag(NH_3)_2]Cl$ White ppt. Soluble
Nitrogen and sulphur together	Na + C + N + S $\xrightarrow{\Delta}$ NaSCN Sodium thiocyanate (L.E.)	As in test for nitrogen; instead of green or blue colour, blood	3NaSCN + FeCl ₃ → Fe(SCN) ₃ Blood red colour + 3NaCl
Phosp- horus	$P \xrightarrow{Na_2O_2, boil} Na_3PO_4$	Solution is boiled with nitric acid and then treated with ammonium molybdate (NH ₄) ₂ MoO ₄ . Formation of yellow ppt. indicates presence of phosphate (hence, phosphorus) in organic compound.	$Na_3PO_4 + 3HNO_3 \longrightarrow H_3PO_4 + 3NaNO_3$ $H_3PO_4 + 12(NH_4)_2MoO_4 + 21HNO_3$ $\longrightarrow (NH_4)_3PO_4 \cdot 12MoO_3 \downarrow$ Ammonium phosphomolybdate (yellow ppt.) $+ 21NH_4NO_3 + 12H_2O$

QUANTITATIVE ANALYSIS OF ORGANIC COMPOUNDS

 The percentage composition of elements present in an organic compound is determined by the methods based on the following principles:

Element	Method		
Carbon and	Liebig's Combustion method :		
Hydrogen	% of $C = \frac{12}{44} \times \frac{\text{mass of CO}_2 \text{ formed}}{\text{mass of compound taken}} \times 100;$ % of $H = \frac{2}{18} \times \frac{\text{mass of H}_2\text{O formed}}{\text{mass of compound taken}} \times 100$		
Nitrogen	Dumas method: % of N = $\frac{28}{22400} \times \frac{\text{vol. of N}_2 \text{ at STP}}{\text{mass of compound taken}} \times 100$		
	Kjeldahl's method: % of N = $\frac{1.4 \times \text{molarity of acid} \times \text{vol. of acid used} \times \text{basicity of acid}}{\text{mass of compound taken}}$		
	mass of compound taken		
Halogens	Carius method: % of $X = \frac{\text{At. mass of } X}{108 + \text{At. mass of } X} \times \frac{\text{mass of AgX formed}}{\text{mass of compound taken}} \times 100$		
Sulphur	Carius method: % of $S = \frac{32}{233} \times \frac{\text{mass of BaSO}_4 \text{ formed}}{\text{mass of compound taken}} \times 100$		
Phosphorus	Ignition method: % of $P = \frac{62}{222} \times \frac{\text{mass of Mg}_2 P_2 O_7 \text{ formed}}{\text{mass of compound taken}} \times 100$		
Oxygen	Iodine method : $\% \text{ of O} = \frac{32}{88} \times \frac{\text{mass of CO}_2 \text{ formed}}{\text{mass of compound taken}} \times 100 \text{or } \% \text{ of O} = \frac{5 \times 16}{2 \times 127} \times \frac{\text{mass of I}_2 \text{ formed}}{\text{mass of compound taken}} \times 100$		