

## Chapter → 12

### Organic chemistry – Some Basic Principle

#### → Organic chemistry :-

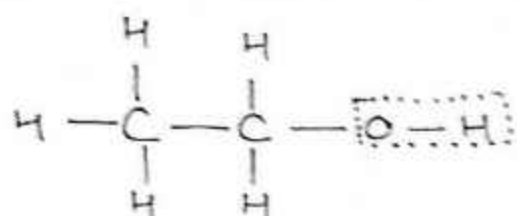
Organic chemistry is the branch of chemistry that deals with the study of hydrocarbons and their derivatives.

#### The shape of compounds :-

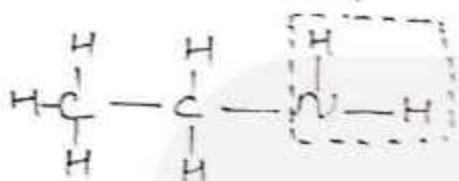
In organic carbon  $s$  and  $p$  orbitals are involved in hybridisation. This leads to 3 types of hybridisation which are  $sp^3$  (in alkanes) – Tetrahedral in shape  $sp^2$  (in alkenes) – Planar structure  $sp$  (in alkynes) – Linear molecule.

#### functional Group :-

The functional group are atom or group of atoms joined in a specific manner which determine the chemical properties of the organic compound. The examples are hydroxyl group ( $-OH$ ), aldehyde group ( $-CHO$ ) and carboxylic acid group ( $-COOH$ ) etc.



functional group



functional group

### Homologous Series

A homologous series may be defined as a family of family organic compounds having the same functional group, similar chemical properties and the successive members differ from each other in molecular formula by  $-\text{CH}_2$  units.

The members of a homologous series can be represented by same general molecular formula.

### Nomenclature of Organic Compounds

Common name (common system) :-

Before the IUPAC system of nomenclature, organic compounds were named after the sources of origin, for example, urea was so name because it was obtained from the sources of origin, for example, mammals.

Compound	Common Name
$\text{CH}_4$ $\text{H}_3\text{CCH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{CH}_3$ $(\text{H}_3\text{C})_2\text{CHCH}_3$ $(\text{H}_3\text{C})_4\text{C}$ $\text{H}_3\text{CCH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{OH}$ $\text{HCHO}$ $(\text{H}_3\text{C})_2\text{CO}$ $\text{CHCl}_3$ $\text{CH}_3\text{COOH}$ $\text{C}_6\text{H}_5\text{COCH}_3$ $\text{CH}_3$	$\text{CH}_4$ Methane n-Butane Isobutane Neopentane n-Propyl alcohol formaldehyde Acetone chloroform Acetic acid Anisole

### IUPAC (International Union of Pure and Applied Chemistry)

According to IUPAC system, the name of an organic compound contains three parts:

(i) word root, (ii) suffix (iii) prefix.

#### (i) word root :-

word root represents the number of carbon atom present in the principal chain, which is the longest possible chain of carbon atoms.

four special word root: four

meth —  $\text{C}_1$   
 eth —  $\text{C}_2$   
 Prop —  $\text{C}_3$   
 but —  $\text{C}_4$

## (ii) Suffix :

Suffix are of two types, primary suffix ,  
Secondary suffix.

(a) primary suffix : It indication the types of  
bond in the carbon atoms .

four example : Primary suffix

ane for C-C bond  
ene for C=C bond  
yne for C≡C bond

(b) Secondary Suffix :-

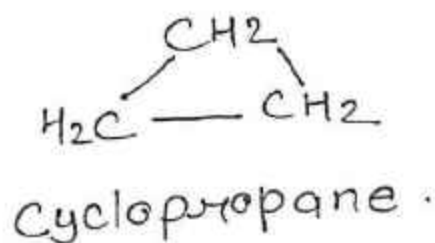
Secondary suffix is used to represent the  
functional group.

## (iii) Prefix :-

Prefix is a part of IUPAC name which appears  
before the word root.

Prefix are of two type .

(a) Primary prefix : four example , primary  
prefix cyclo is used to differentiate cyclic  
compounds .



## (b). Secondary prefix:

Some functional group are considered as substituents and denoted by secondary prefix.

For example:

<u>Substituted Group</u>	<u>Secondary prefix</u>
- F	Fluoro
- Cl	Chloro
- Br	Bromo
- NO	Nitroso
- NO <sub>2</sub>	Nitro
- CH <sub>3</sub>	Methyl
	Methoxy

## ⇒ Naming of Compounds Containing Functional Groups:

The longest chain of carbon atoms containing the functional group is numbered in such a manner that number in the chain. In case of polyfunctional compound, one of the functional group is selected as principle functional group is made on the basis of order of preference.

The order of decreasing priority for the functional group is



-COOH, -SO<sub>3</sub>H, -COOR (R = alkyl group), COCl, -CONH<sub>2</sub>, COCl, -CONH<sub>2</sub>-CN, -C=O, >-C=O, -OH, -NH<sub>2</sub>, >C=>, -C≡C-

### → Isomerism :-

When there are two or more compounds possessing the same molecular formula but different structural formula and different physical and chemical properties, the phenomenon is called Isomerism. Such compounds are called isomers.

It is two types :

- (1) Structural Isomerism
- (2) Stereoisomerism

#### (1) Structural Isomerism :

Structural isomerism is shown by compounds having the same molecular formula but a different physical structural formula differing in the arrangement of atoms.

#### → The Structural isomerism type :

- Chain
- Position
- Functional
- meta - isomerism
- Tauto - isomerism

The different types of Stereoisomerism are :

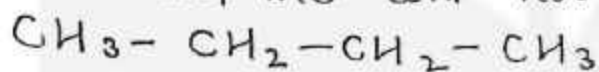
- Geometrical
- Optical
- Conformational

Let us study first Structural isomerism types :

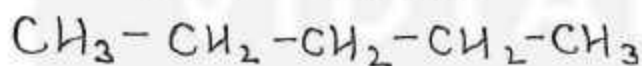
1. Chain isomerism - The compound that have same molecular formula, but different arrangement of atoms within the chain.

Example :  $\text{CH}_3 - \text{CH}_2 - \text{CH}_3$

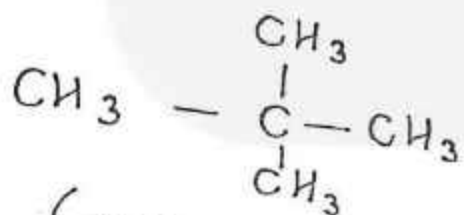
Propane will not show chain isomerism



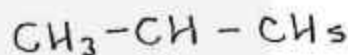
Normal - Butane



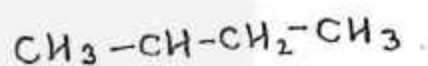
Normal Pentane



(neo - pentane)



$\begin{array}{c} \text{CH}_3 \\ | \end{array}$   
iso - butane

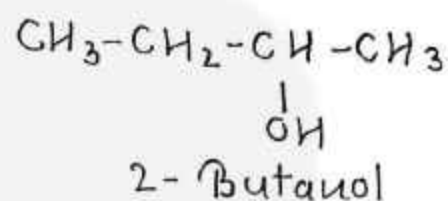
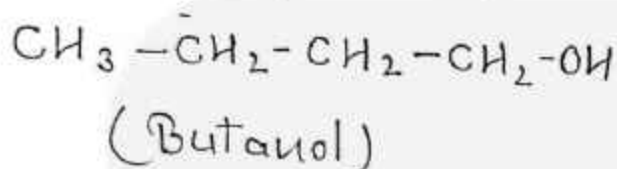
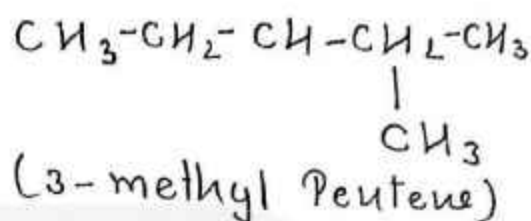
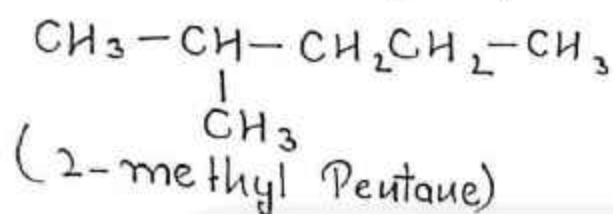


$\begin{array}{c} | \\ \text{CH}_3 \end{array}$   
iso - pentane (2 methyl)  
butane)

2 - Position isomerism :

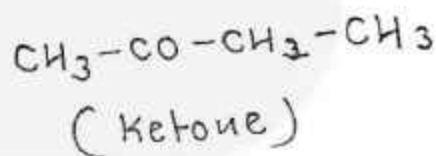
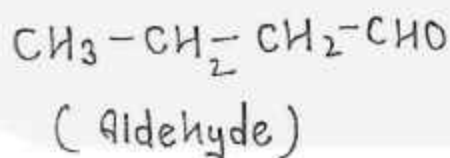
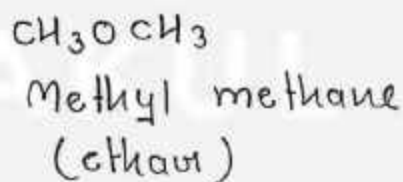
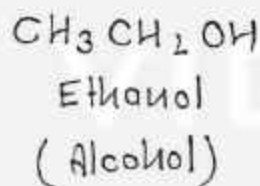
The compounds with same molecular formula,

but differ in position of substituent, side chain or functional group.



### 3. Functional isomerism :-

The compounds with same molecular formula, but differ type of functional group and also in physical and chemical properties.

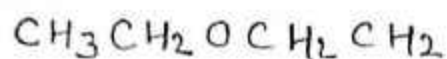


### 3. Metamerism :

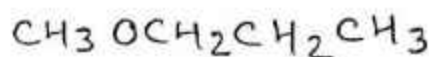
The compounds that have same molecular formula, but differ in It is shown by functional groups like ether, esters, Ketones.



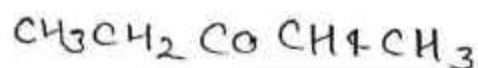
Example :-



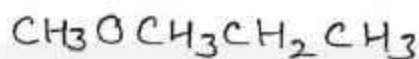
Ethoxy-ethane



Methoxy-propane



3-pentanone



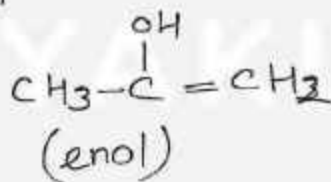
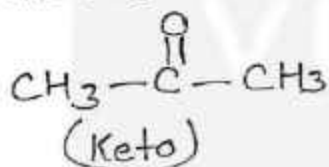
2-pentanone

#### 4. Tautomerism:

In this simultaneous movement of  $\pi$  electron cloud and Hydrogen takes place. Most common tautomerism is Keto-enol tautomerism.

Keto-enol tautomerism

↓ ↓ ↓  
Ketone = Alcohol



#### 2. Stereoisomerism:

When isomerism is caused by the different arrangements of atoms or groups in space, the phenomenon is called stereoisomerism. The stereoisomers have same structural formula but differ in arrangement of atoms in space. Stereoisomerism is of two types:

- (i) Geometrical or Cis-Trans Isomerism
- (ii) Optical Isomerism

• Fundamental Concepts in Organic Reaction

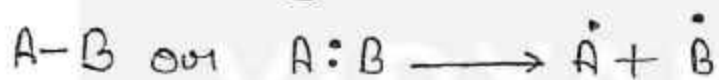
Mechanism:--

fission of a covalent bond: A covalent bond can undergo fission in two ways:

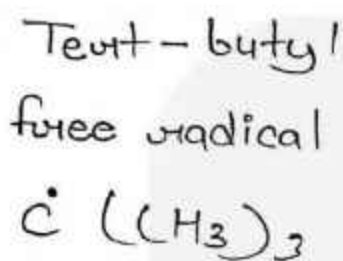
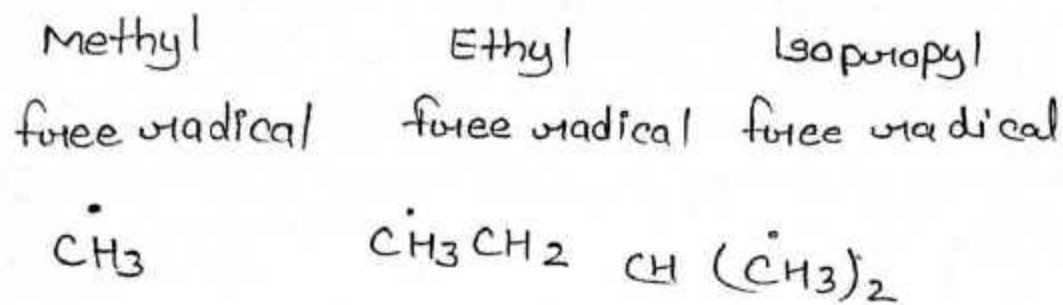
- (i) By Homolytic fission or Homolysis
- (ii) By Heterolytic fission or Heterolysis.

Homolytic fission:

In this process each of the atoms acquires one of the bonding electrons:



The products  $\dot{A}$  and  $\dot{B}$  are called free radicals. They are electrically neutral and have one unpaired electron associated with them. Homolytic fission is the most common mode of fission in vapour phase. Alkyl radicals are classified as primary, secondary or tertiary. Alkyl radical stability increases as we proceed from primary to tertiary.



### Heterolytic fission:

In this process one of atoms acquires both of the bonding electrons when the bond is broken. If B is more electronegative than A which thereby acquires both the bonding electrons and becomes negatively charged.



The products of heterolytic fission are ions:

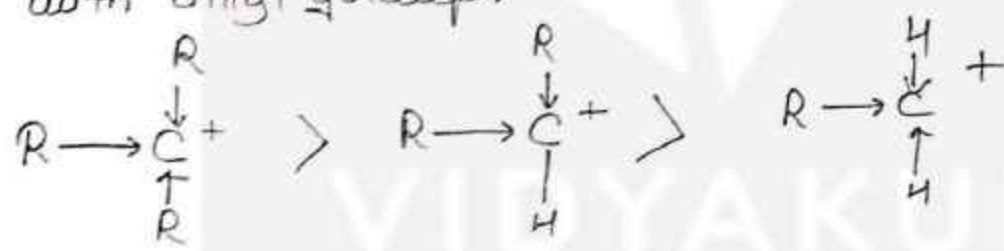
- Reaction Intermediates:  
Heterolytic and homolytic both fission result in the formation of short-lived fragments called reaction intermediates. Among the important reaction intermediates are carbonium ions, carbanions, carbon free radicals and carbenes.

## • Carbocation Ions (Carbocations):

Organic ions which contain a positively charged carbon atom are called carbocation ions or carbocations. They are formed by heterolytic bond fission.



where Z is more electronegative than carbon. Tertiary carbocation ion is more stable than a secondary, which in turn is more stable than a primary because of +I effect associated with alkyl group.



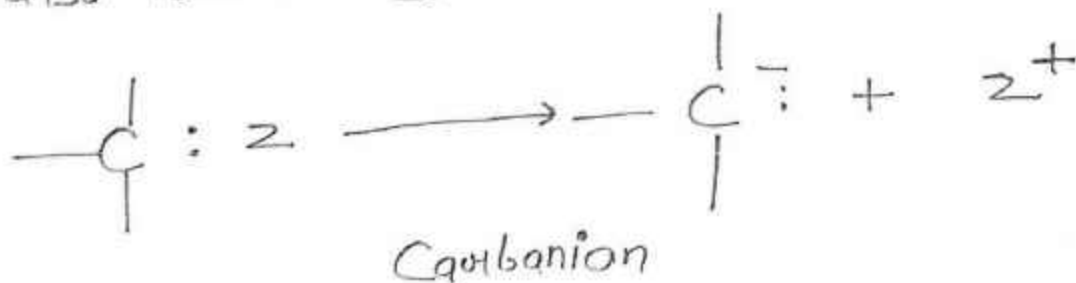
3° Tertiary

2° Secondary

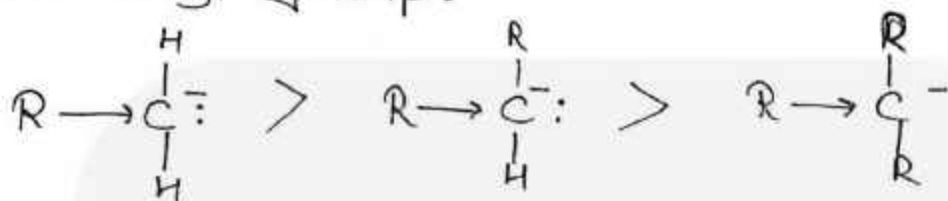
1° Primary

## Carbanion:

Organic ion which contains a negatively charged carbon atom are called carbanions. They are also formed by heterolytic bond fission.



where  $Z$  is less electronegative than carbon. A primary carbanion is more stable than a secondary, which in turn is more stable than a tertiary, because of  $+I$  effect associated with alkyl group.



### • Electrophile :-

It is positively charged or neutral species which is electron deficient, eg.

$\text{H}^+$ ,  $\text{H}_2\text{O}^+$ ,  $\text{CH}_3^+$ ,  $\text{NH}_4^+$ ,  $\text{AlCl}_3$ ,  $\text{SO}_3$ ,  $\text{CHCl}_2$ ,  $\text{CCl}_3$ .

### • Nucleophile :-

It is negative charged or neutral species with lone pair of electrons

eg  $(\text{HO}^-)$  Cyanide ( $\text{C}=\text{N}^-$ ),  $\text{H}_2\text{O}$ :  $\text{R}_3\text{N}$ ,  $\text{R}_2\text{NH}$  etc.

### • Electron Displacement effect in Covalent

#### Bond :-

Electronic displacement in covalent bonds occurs due to the presence of an atom or group of different electronegativity



or under the influence of some outside attaching group.

These lead to a number of effect which are as follows:

- (i) Inductive effect
- (ii) Electromeric effect
- (iii) Resonance or Mesomeric effect
- (iv) Hyperconjugation effect.

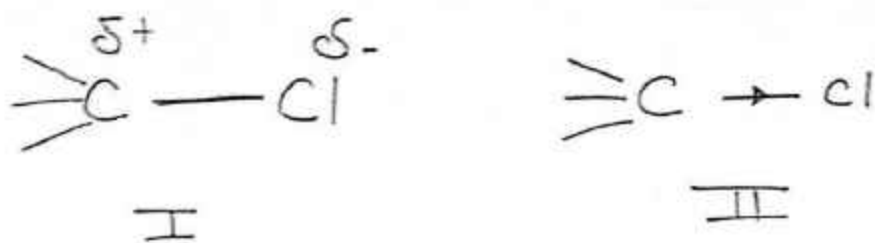
### • Inductive Effect :-

It involves electron. The electrons which form a covalent bond are seldom shared equally between the two atoms. Due to different electronegativity electrons are displaced towards the more electronegative atom. This introduces a certain degree of polarity in the bond.

The more electronegative atom acquires a small negative charge ( $\delta^-$ ). The less electronegative atom acquires a small positive charge ( $\delta^+$ ).

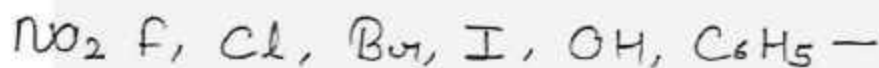
Consider the carbon-chlorine bond.

As chlorine is more electronegative, it will become negatively charged with respect to the carbon atom.



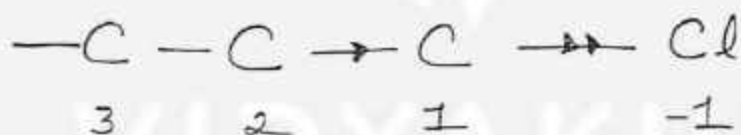
Some common atoms or groups which cause +I or -I effects are shown below:

(i) -I Effect Groups (Electron-attracting)



(ii) +I Effect Groups (Electron-releasing)

An inductive effect is not confined to the polarization of one bond.



The inductive effect of  $\text{C}_3$  upon  $\text{C}_3$  is significantly less than the effect of the chlorine atom on C.

### Resonance Structure :-

A number of organic compounds cannot be accurately represented by one structure.

For example, benzene is ordinarily represented as



Benzene

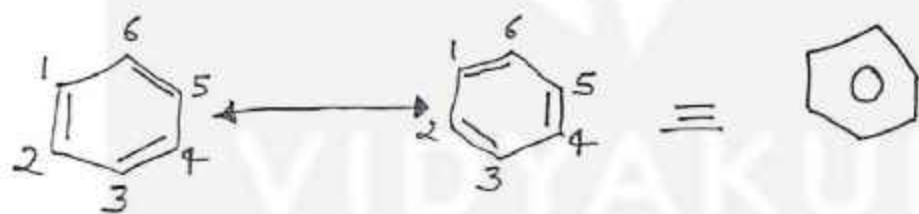
This structure has three C-C bond and three C=C bonds.

Carbon-Carbon single bond length = 1.54 Å.

Carbon-Carbon double bond length = 1.34 Å

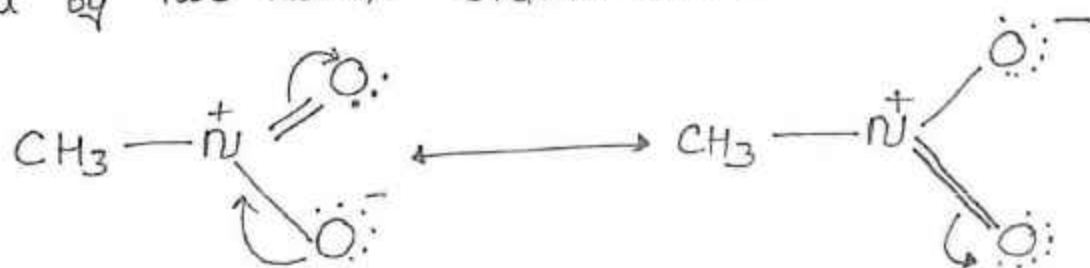
Experimentally that all carbon-carbon bond in benzene are identical and have same bond length (1.39 Å).

Thus the structure of benzene cannot be represented by single structure. It can be represented equally well by the energetically similar structures I and II.



Actual structure of benzene is resonance hybrid of structures I and II.

Another example of resonance is provided by nitromethane ( $\text{CH}_3\text{NO}_2$ ) which can be represented by two Lewis structures.





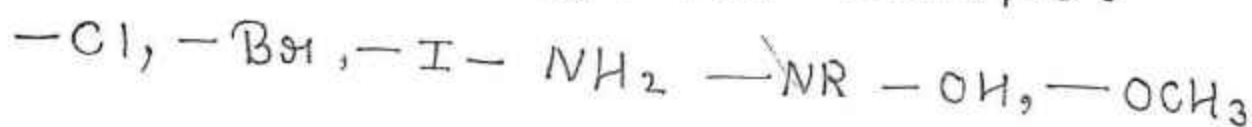
the actual structure of nitromethane is a resonance hybrid of the two canonical forms, I and II. Resonance energy: The difference in the energy between the most stable contributing structure for a compound and its resonance hybrid is called as resonance energy or resonance stabilisation energy.

### → Resonance Effect :-

The polarity produced in the molecule by the interaction of two  $\pi$ -bonds or between a  $\pi$ -bond and a pair of electrons present on an adjacent atom. These are two types of resonance or mesomeric effects designated as R or M effect.

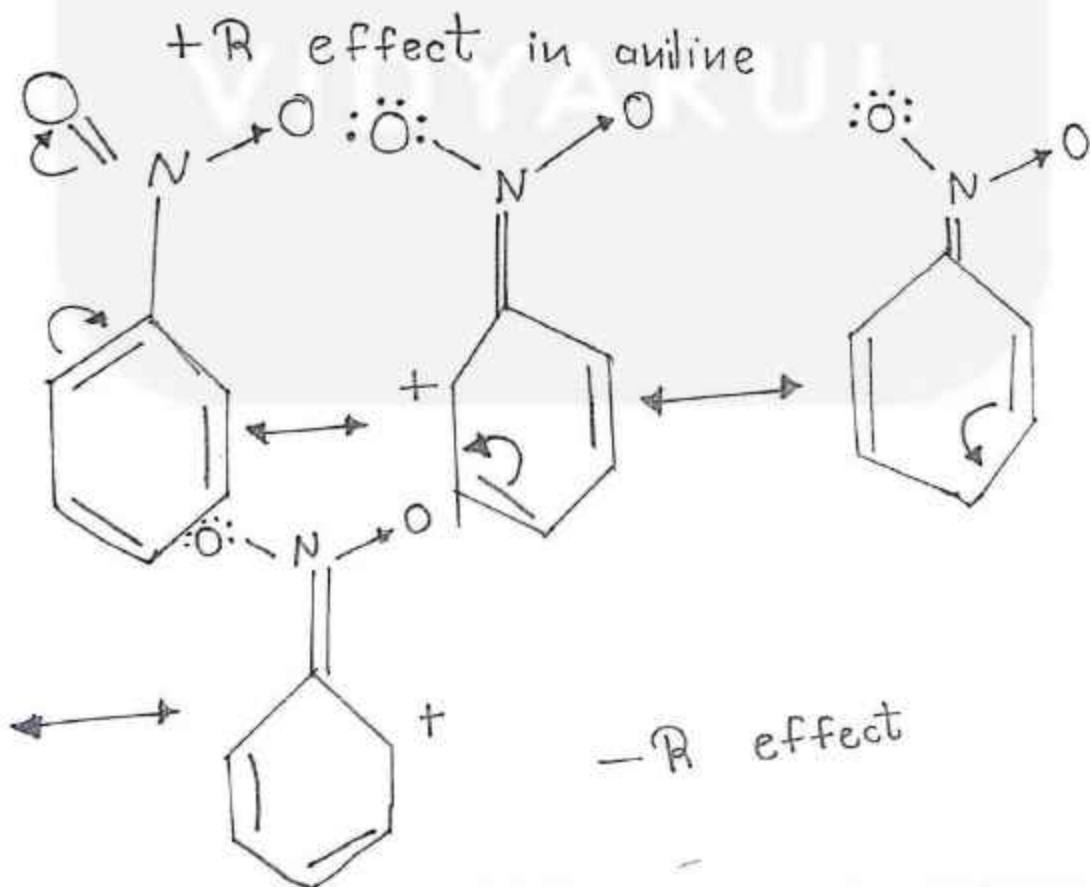
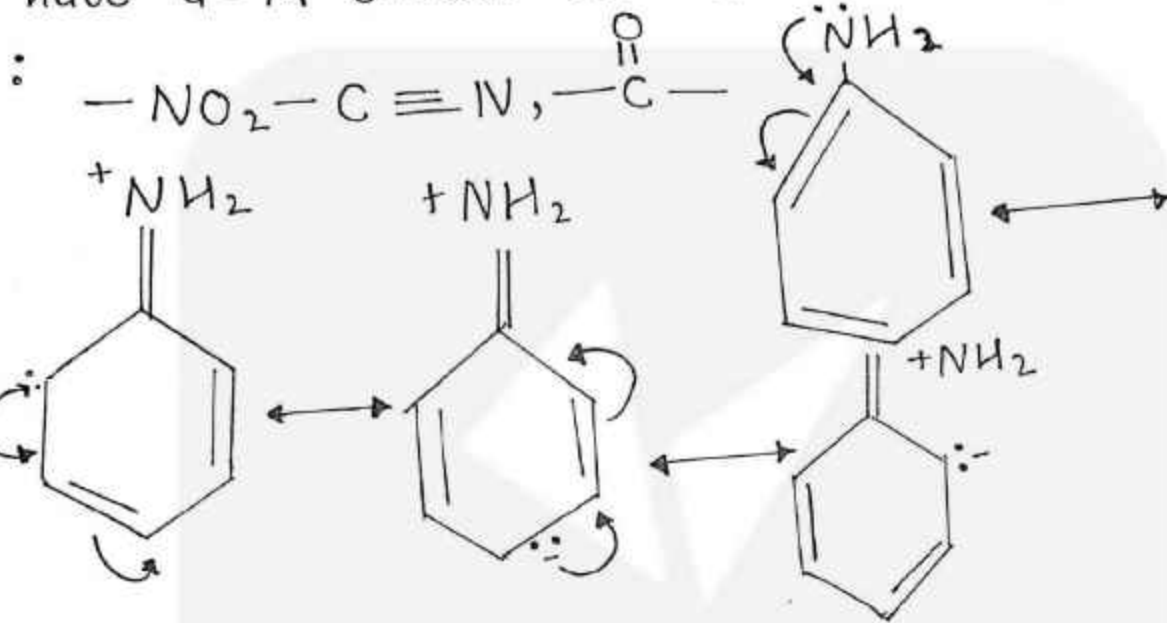
#### Positive Resonance Effect (+R effect):

Those atoms which lose electrons towards a carbon atom are said to have a +M effect or +R effect. for example:



## Negative Resonance Effect (-R effect):

Those atom or groups with draw electrons away from a carbon atom are said to have a -M effect or -R effect. four example



## Electromeric Effect (E Effect):

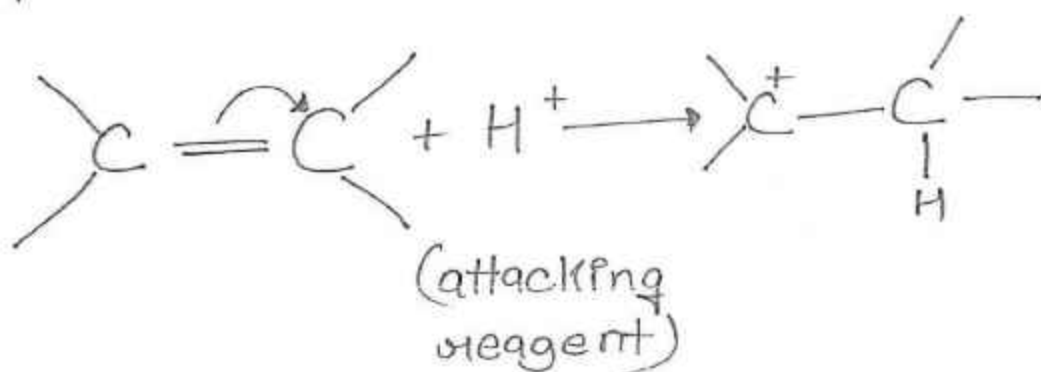
The electromeric effect refers to the polarity produced in a multiple bonded compound when it is attacked by a reagent when a bond is exposed to an attack by a reagent by electrophile  $E^+$  (a reagent) the two  $n$  electrons which form the  $n$  bond are completely transferred to one atom or the other. The electromeric effect is represented as:



The curved arrow shows the displacement of the electron pair. This atom A has lost its share in the electron pair and B has gained this share.

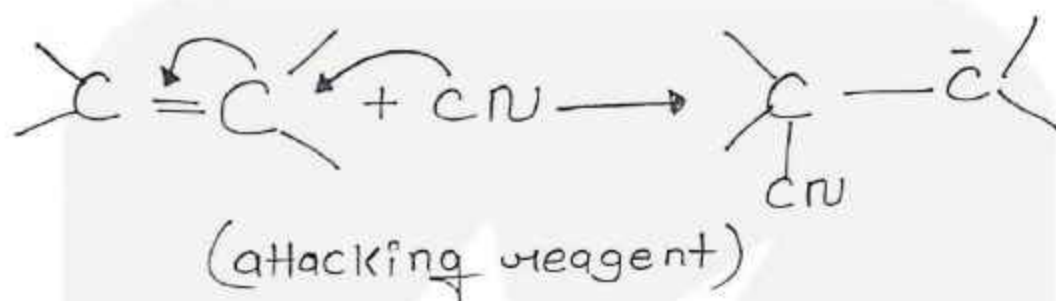
### (i) Positive Electromeric effect (+E effect) :-

In this effect the  $\pi$  electrons of the multiple bond are shifted to that atom to which the reagent gets attached.



(ii) Negative electromeric effect:

In this effect the  $\pi$  electrons of the multiple bond are transferred to the atom to which the reagent gets attached.

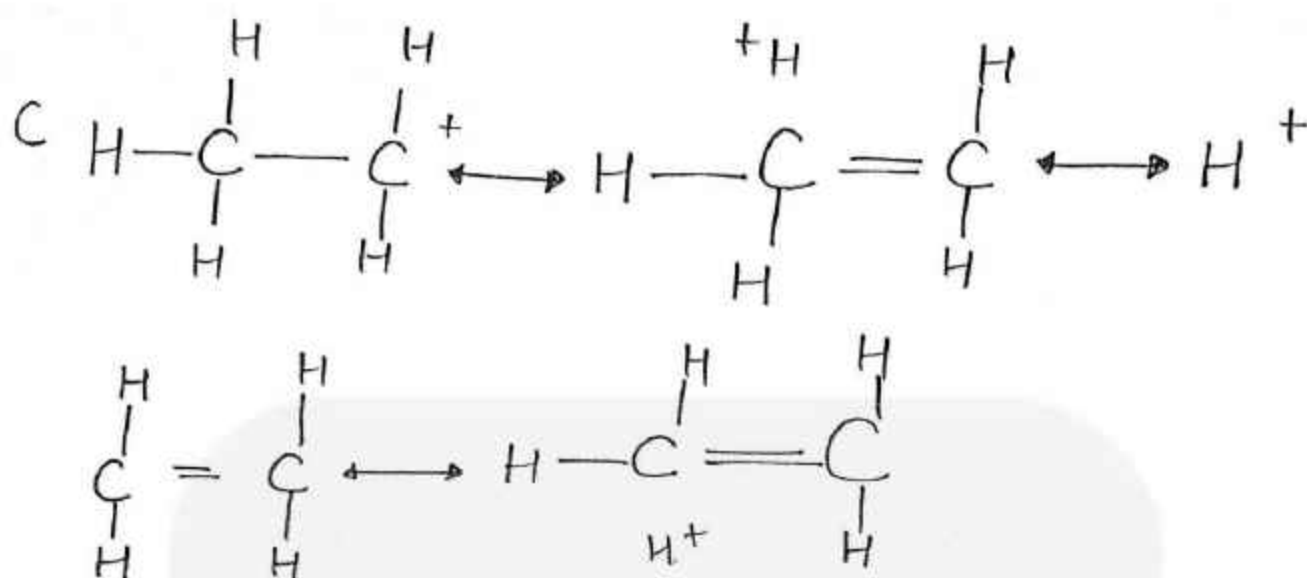


• Hyperconjugation or No Bond Resonance:-

when the alkyl group is attached to an unsaturated system such as  $-\text{CH}=\text{CH}_2$  group the order of inductive effect gets reversed. the behaviour can be explained by hyperconjugation effect.

Such structures are arrived at by shifting the bonding electrons from an adjacent  $\text{C}-\text{H}$  bond to the electron deficient carbon.

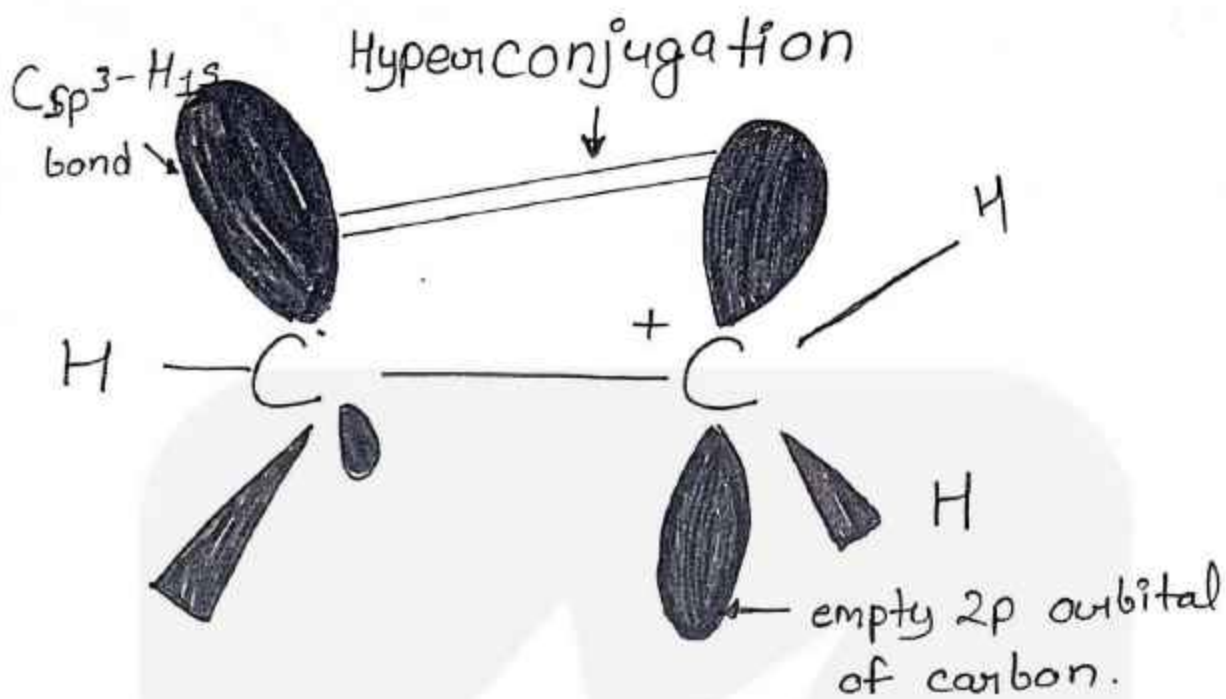
This way of electron release by assuming no bond character in the adjacent  $\text{C}-\text{H}$  bond is called No-Bond Resonance or Hyperconjugation.



### Orbital Concept of Hyperconjugation

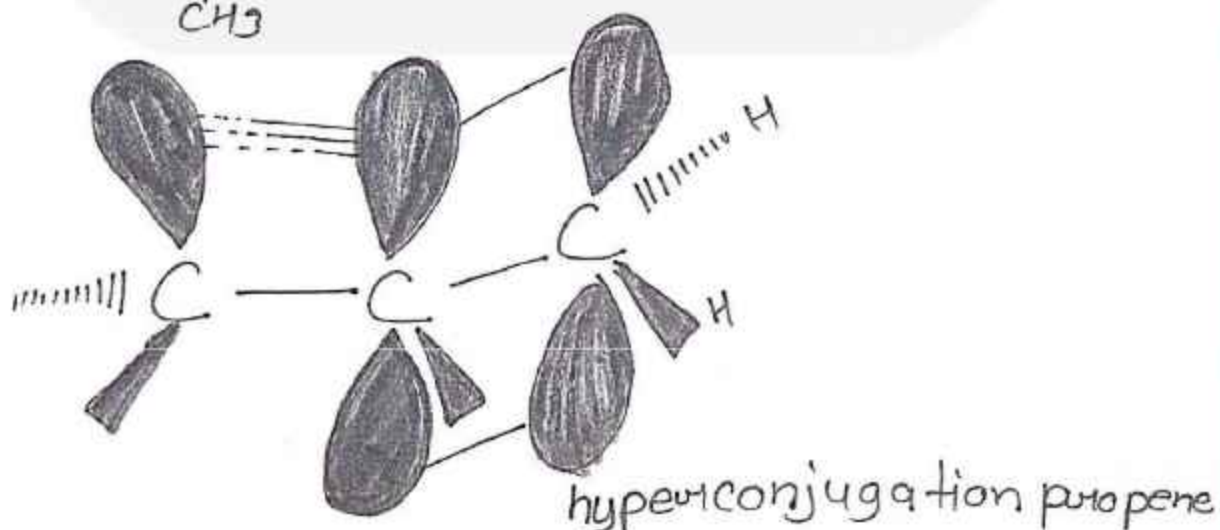
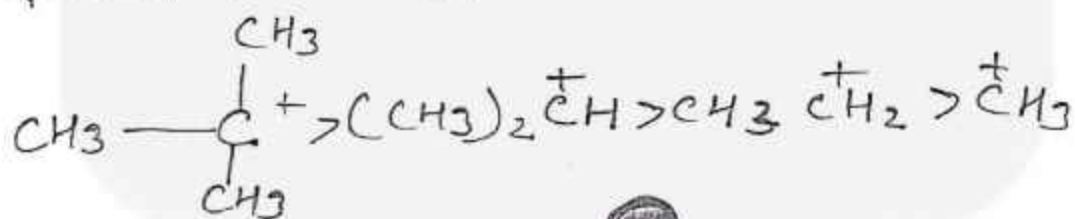
It involves delocalisation of a electrons of C-H bond of an alkyl group which is attached directly to an atom of the C-H bonds of the unsaturated system or to an atom with an unshared p-orbital.

Let us consider  $\text{CH}_3\text{CH}_2^+$  (ethyl cation) in which the positively charged carbon atom has an empty p-orbital. One of the C-H bond of the methyl group can align in the plane of this empty p-orbitals and electron constituting the C-H bond in plane with this p-orbital can then be delocalised into the empty p-orbital as.



Orbital diagram showing hyperconjugation in ethyl cation.

In general, greater the number of alkyl group attached to a positively charged carbon atom, the greater is the hyperconjugation.



## METHOD of Purification of Organic compound

### • Sublimation :-

this method is used to separate the sublimable compounds from non sublimable compounds.

### • Crystallisation :-

This method is based on the different in the solubilities of compound and impurities in a suitable solvent. the impure compound is dissolved in solvent at heated at higher temp.

### • Distillation :

This method is used to separate volatile liquids from non volatile liquids and liquids having sufficient different in their boiling points.

### • Fractional distillation :

If the boiling points of two liquids is used to purify liquids having high boiling points.

### • Differential Extraction :-

when an organic compound is present in an aqueous medium it is separated by shaking it with organic solvent in which it is more soluble than in water. the aqueous solution is mixed with organic solvent in a separating



funnel and shaken for sometimes and then allowed to stand for some time.

### • Chromatography :-

This technique is used to separate mixture into their components, purify the compounds and test the purity of compounds.

#### • Adsorption Chromatography :-

It is based on the fact that different compounds are adsorbed on an adsorbent to different degree.

#### • Partition Chromatography :

It based on the fact that different partitioning of components of a mixture between stationary and mobile phase.

### • Quality Analysis of Organic Compounds :-

#### • Detection of Carbon and Hydrogen :-

The carbon and hydrogen present in the organic compound is detected by heating the compound with Copper II oxide in a hard glass tube when carbon present in the compound is oxidized to  $\text{CO}_2$  which can be tested with lime water.





and hydrogen is converted to water can be tested with anhydrous copper sulphate which turns blue.



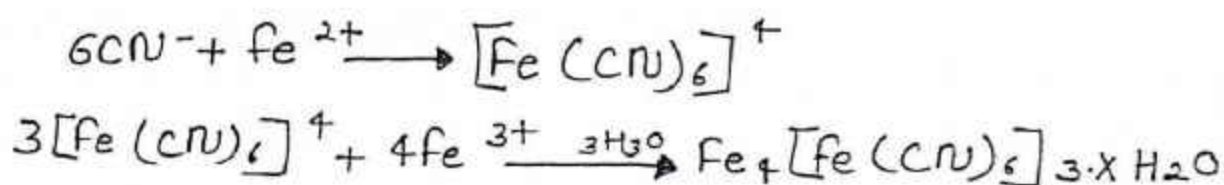
### • DETECTION OF OTHER ELEMENTS :-

#### • Sodium fusion Extract :-

A small piece of dry sodium metal is heated with a organic compound in a fusion tube for 2-3 minutes and the red hot tube is plunged into distilled water contained in a china dish. The contained of the china dish is boiled cooled and filtered.

#### • Test for Nitrogen :-

The sodium fusion extract is boiled with iron II sulphate and then acidified with conc. sulphuric acid. The formation of Prussian blue colour confirms the presence of nitrogen.



### • Test for Sulphur:-

The sodium fusion extract is acidified with acetic acid and lead acetate is added to it. A black precipitate of lead sulphide indicates the presence of sulphur.



### • QUANTITATIVE ANALYSIS (Carbon and hydrogen)

Let the mass of organic compound be  $m$  g  
 Mass of water and carbon dioxide produced be  $m_1$  and  $m_2$  g respectively:

$$\% \text{ of Carbon} = \frac{12 \times m_2 \times 100}{44 \times m}$$

$$\% \text{ of hydrogen} = \frac{2 \times m_1 \times 100}{18 \times m}$$

### • Nitrogen

### • Dumas method:-

A known mass of organic compound is heated



with excess of  $\text{CuO}$  in an atmosphere of  $\text{CO}_2$ . when nitrogen of the organic compound is converted into  $\text{N}_2$  gas. The volume of  $\text{N}_2$  thus obtained is converted into STP and the percentage of nitrogen determined by applying the equation:

$$\text{volume of Nitrogen at STP} = \frac{P_1 V_1 \times 273}{760 \times T_1}$$

$$\% \text{N} = \frac{28 \times \text{vol of } \text{N}_2 \text{ at STP} \times 100}{22400 \times \text{mass of the substance taken}}$$

### • KJELDAHL'S METHOD :-

A known mass of organic compound is heated with conc.  $\text{H}_2\text{SO}_4$  in presence of  $\text{K}_2\text{SO}_4$  and little  $\text{CuSO}_4$  or  $\text{Hg}$  in a long necked flask called Kjeldahl's flask when nitrogen present in the organic compound is quantitatively converted into  $(\text{NH}_4)_2\text{SO}_4$ , thus obtained is boiled with excess of  $\text{NaOH}$  solutions. to liberate  $\text{NH}_3$  gas which is absorbed in a known excess of a standard acid such as  $\text{H}_2\text{SO}_4$  or  $\text{HCl}$ .



$$\% N = \frac{1.4 \times \text{molarity of the acid} \times \text{Basicity of the acid} \times \text{vol of mass of the substance taken.}}{\text{mass of the substance taken.}}$$

• Halogens :

• Carius method :-

A known mass of an organic compound is heated with fuming nitric acid in the presence of silver nitrate contained in a hard glass test tube known as Carius tube in a furnace. Carbon and hydrogens present in the compound are oxidized to carbon dioxide and water.

Let the mass of the organic compound take =  $m_1$  g.

mass of AgX formed =  $m_2$  g

1 mol of AgX contains 1 mol of X

Mass of halogen in  $m_2$  g of AgX

$$= \frac{\text{at mass of X} \times m_2 \text{ g}}{\text{molecular mass of AgX}}$$

% of halogen

$$= \frac{\text{at mass of X} \times m_2 \text{ g} \times 100}{\text{molecular mass of AgX} \times m_1} \%$$



• Sulphur :-

Let the mass of the organic compound taken =  $m$  g

mass of  $\text{BaSO}_4$  formed =  $m_1$  g

$$\% \text{ of sulphur} = \frac{32 \times m_1 \times 100}{233 \times m}$$

• Phosphorous :-

Let the mass of the organic compound taken =  $m$  g

mass of ammonium phosphorous =  $m_1$  g

$$\% \text{ of phosphorous} = \frac{31 \times m_1 \times 100}{1877 \times m} \%$$