

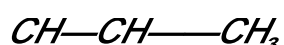
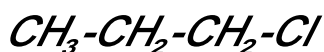
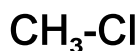
ALKYL HALIDES

Replacement of one or more Hydrogen atoms by halogen atom (s) in hydrocarbon gives Halo hydrocarbons (or) Alkyl halides.

The general formula of Alkyl halides is $C_nH_{2n+1}X$.

Nomenclature:

Formula



Common name

Methyl Chloride

Ethyl chloride

n-propyl chloride

Iso propyl chloride

IUPAC Name

Chloro methane

Chloro Ethane

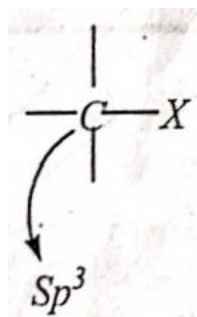
1-chloro propane

2-chloro propane

Classification of alkyl halides

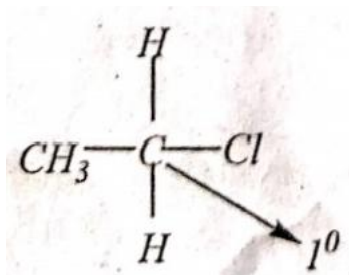
Compounds containing sp^3C-X bond:

1) Alkyl halides: The compounds in which halogen atom is attached to sp^3 hybridised carbon atom are called Alkyl halides.

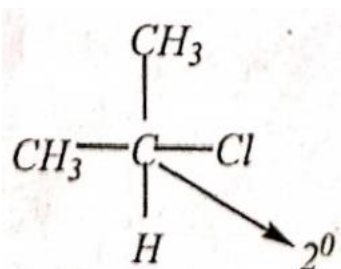


$(X=F/Cl/Br/I)$

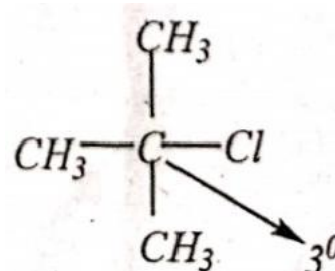
Further alkyl halides may be primary, secondary and Tertiary, depending upon whether the halogen atom is attached to a 1°, 2° and 3° carbon atom.



1°-alkyl halide

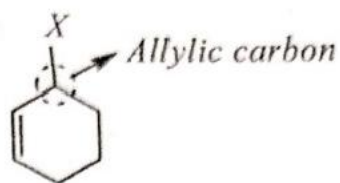
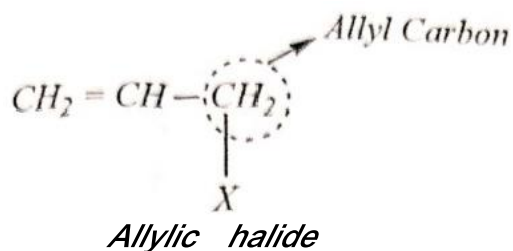


2°-alkyl halide

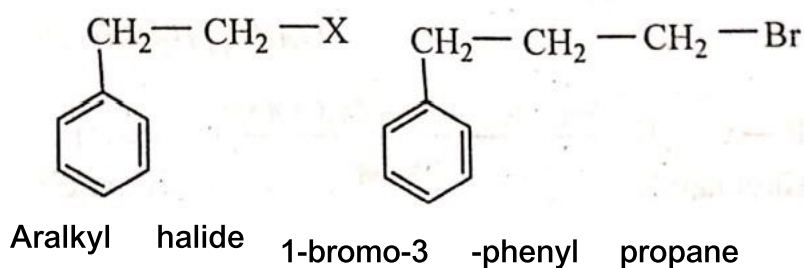
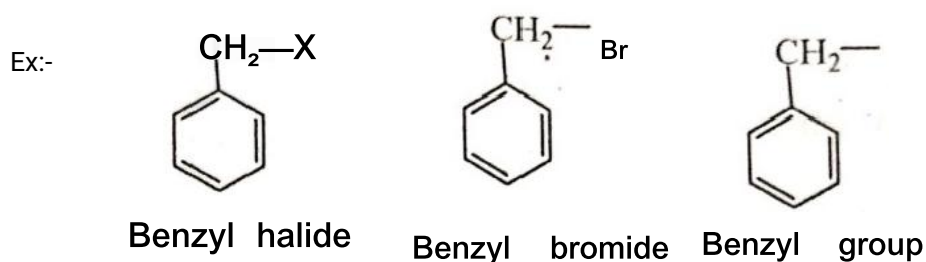


3°-alkyl halide

2) Allylic halides: In these compounds the halogen atom is bonded to an sp^3 hybridised carbon atom next to carbon-carbon double bond ($C=C$)

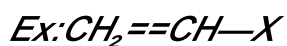


a) Benzylic halides and Aralkyl halides: The compounds in which the halogen atom is bonded to an sp^3 -hybridized carbon atom next to an aromatic ring



) compounds containing sp^2C-X bond:

1. Vinyl halides: The compounds in which the halogen atom is directly attached to sp^2 -hybridised carbon atom (or) a unsaturated system.



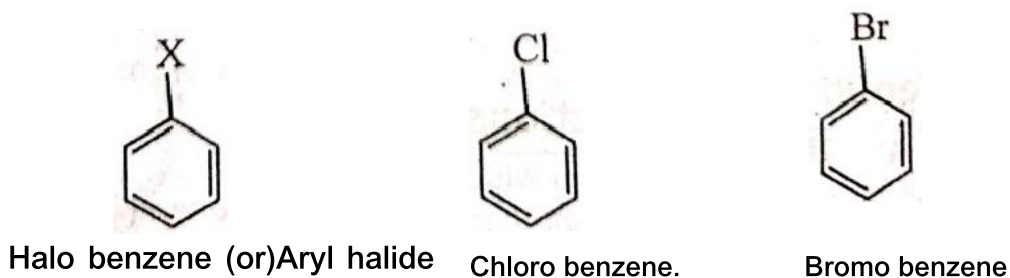
(sp^2)

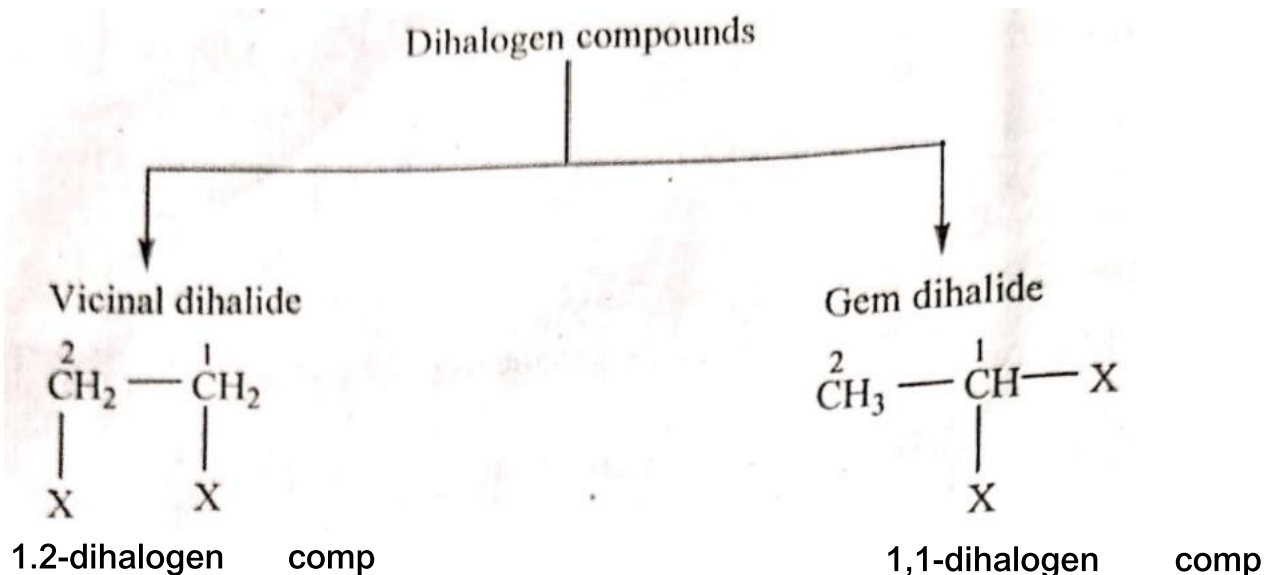


Vinyl chloride

2. Aryl halides: The compounds in which the carbon atom of Aromatic ring

halogen atom is directly attached to sp^2 hybridised



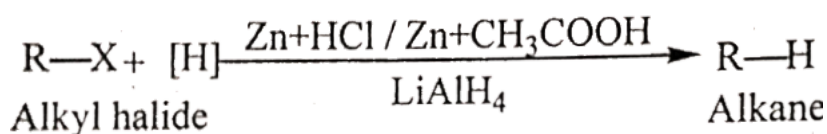


Chemical reactivity(or)Chemical reactions:

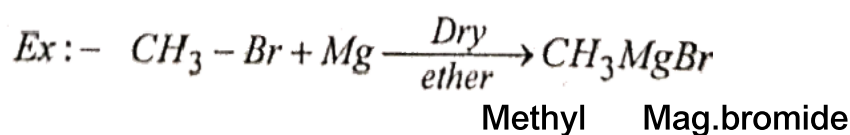
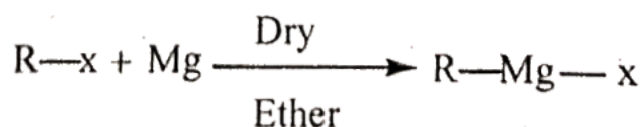
Reduction: reduction of alkyl halides in presence of reducing agents like

$\text{Zn} + \text{HCl}$, $\text{Zn} + \text{CH}_3\text{COOH}$,
alkanes

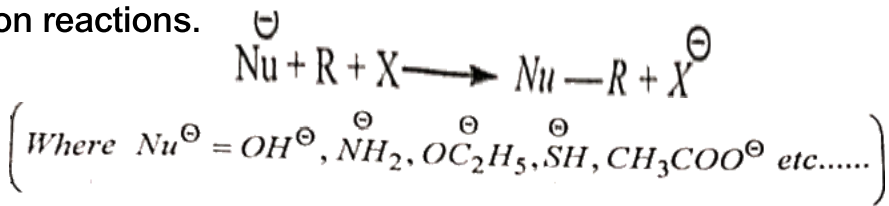
LiAlH_4 , $\text{H}_2/\text{Ni}/\text{Pt}/\text{Pd}$ gives



Formation of Grignard reagent(RMgX): Alkyl halides react with 'Mg' metal in presence of ether to give alkyl magnesium halides. Known as Grignard reagents.



Nucleophilic substitution reactions(NPSR):The substitution reactions in which one nucleophile(Halogen (or)-ve nait is relacod another nucleophile is called nucleophilic substitution reactions.



Depending upon the mechanism NPS reactions are of two types.

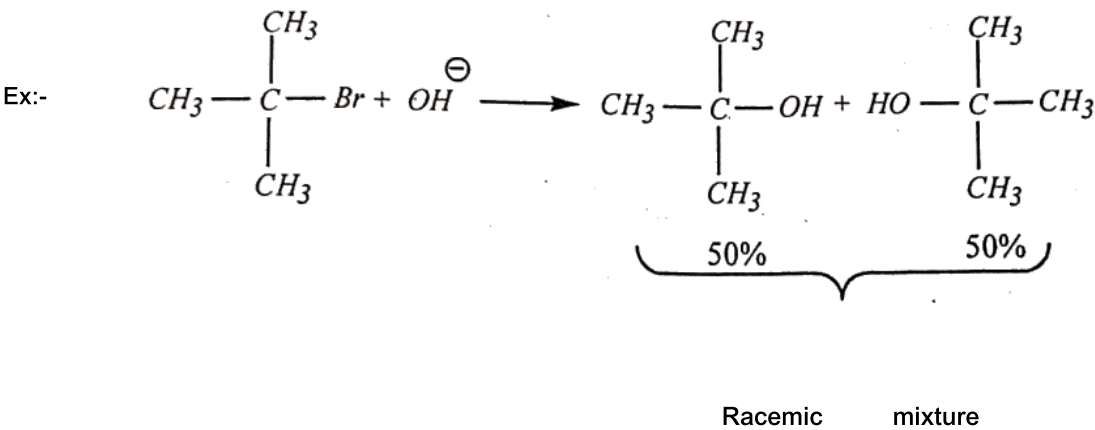
1)SN¹reactions 2)SN²reactions

UNI MOLECULAR NUCLEOPHILIC REACTION

The rate of reaction depends only on the concentration of one reactant hence it is called unimolecular reaction.In sn'reaction 3°-Alkyl halides are involved.

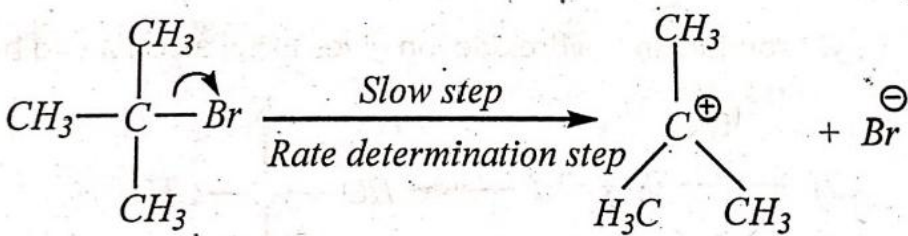
Rate a[R-X].....unimolecula

Ex:The reaction between Tert.butyl bromide and hydroxide ion gives tert.butyl



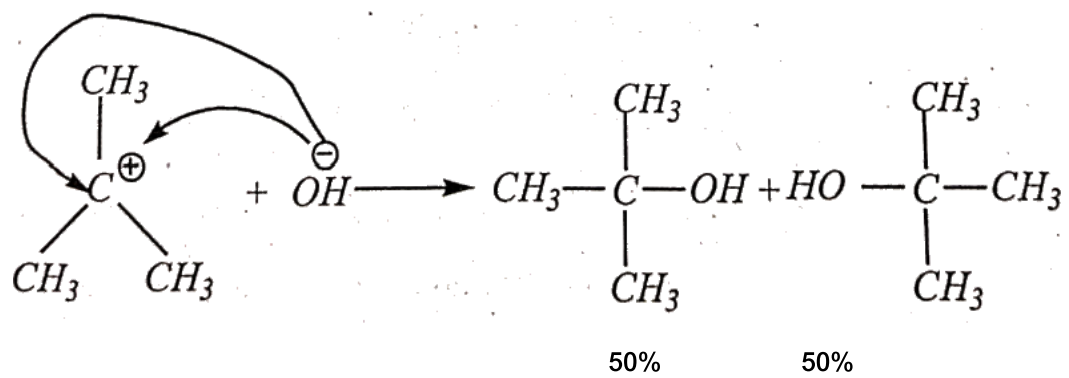
Mechanism:SN¹ reaction takes place in two steps.

Step-I:This is also called "rate determining step"(rds),the alkylhalide ionises to give carbonium ion.



Carbocation (Symmetrical)

Step-II:This is fast step,the incoming nucleophile attacks on carbocation either from front side (or)backside to give 1:1 ratio of products known as Racemic mixture.



Tert.butyl alcohols

Recemic mixture

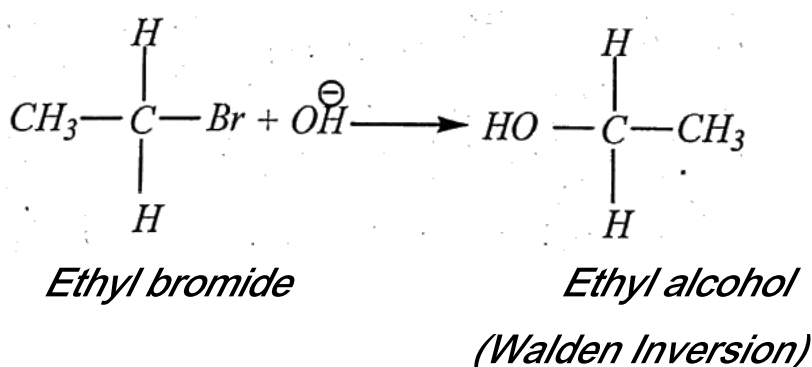
2) Bimolecular nucleophilic substitution reactions (or) S_N2-reactions:

The rate of reaction depends on the concentration of alkyl halide as well as the base (nucleophile), hence it is called bimolecular reaction.

Rate of R-X / [OH⁻] Bimolecular

10 Alkyl halides are involved in S_N2 reactions, these are facilitated by non-polar solvents.

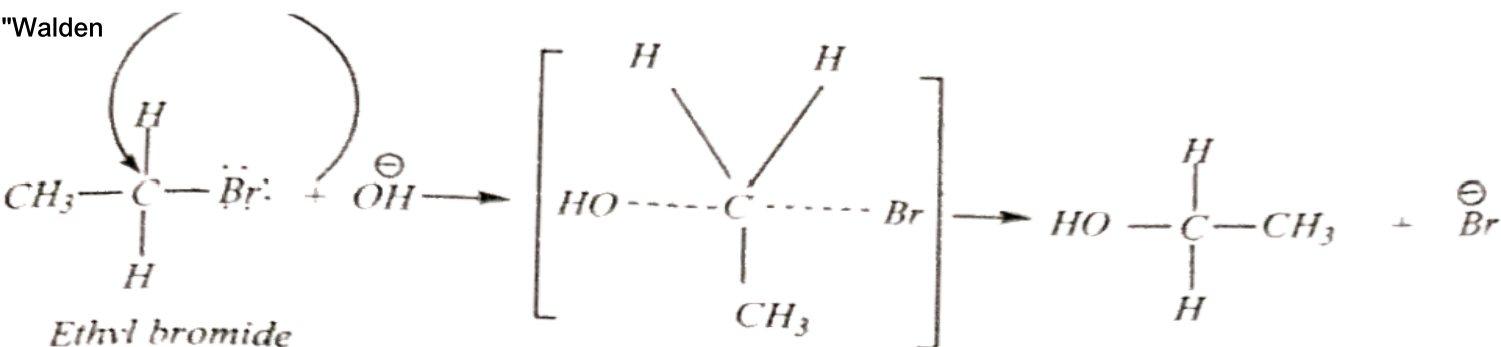
Ex: Reaction between Ethyl bromide and hydroxide ion gives Ethyl alcohol and bromide ion.



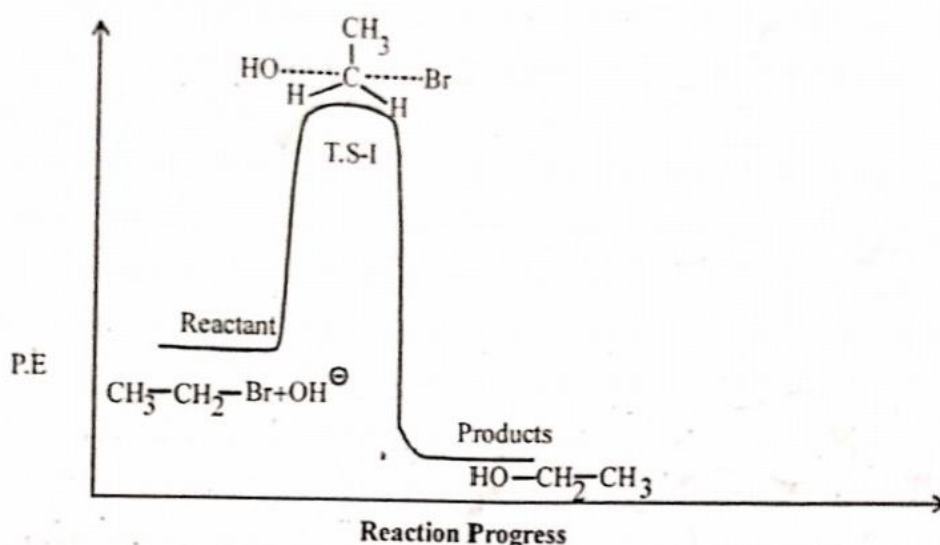
Mechanism: S_N2 reactions take place in a single step. In S_N2 reactions, the nucleophile attacks on

alkyl halide carbon from the opposite side to that of the halogen atom (backside attack) to give an unstable transition state, simultaneously the halide ion is cleaved from the carbon atom to give the product alcohol.

Thus the alcohol formed has opposite configuration to that of the bromide (has been inverted just as an umbrella turned inside out in a strong wind), the change in configuration is called



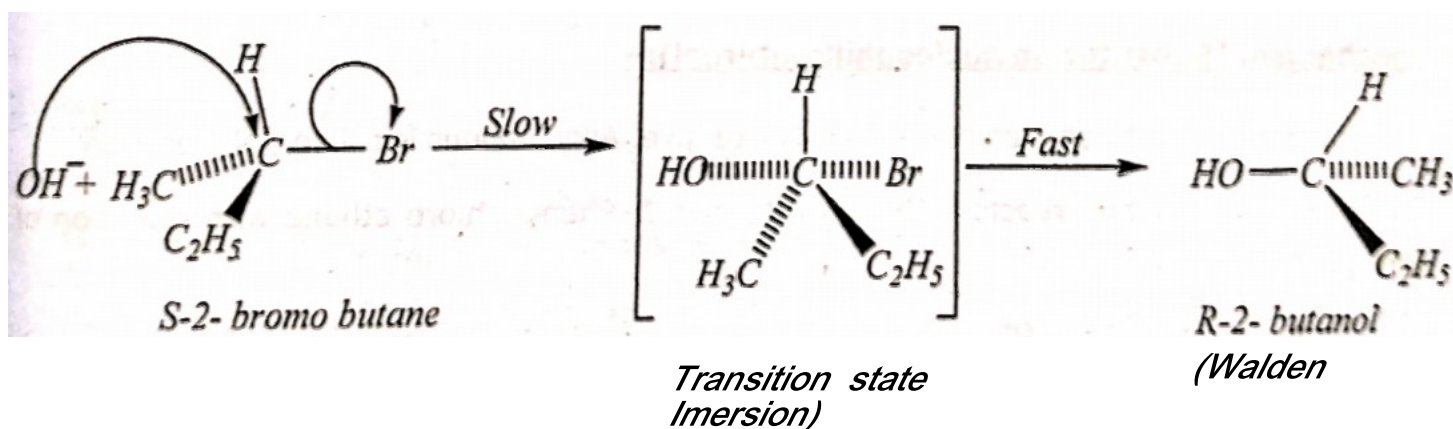
Energy profile diagram of SN² reactions



Stereo chemistry of SN¹ & S_N2 reactions:

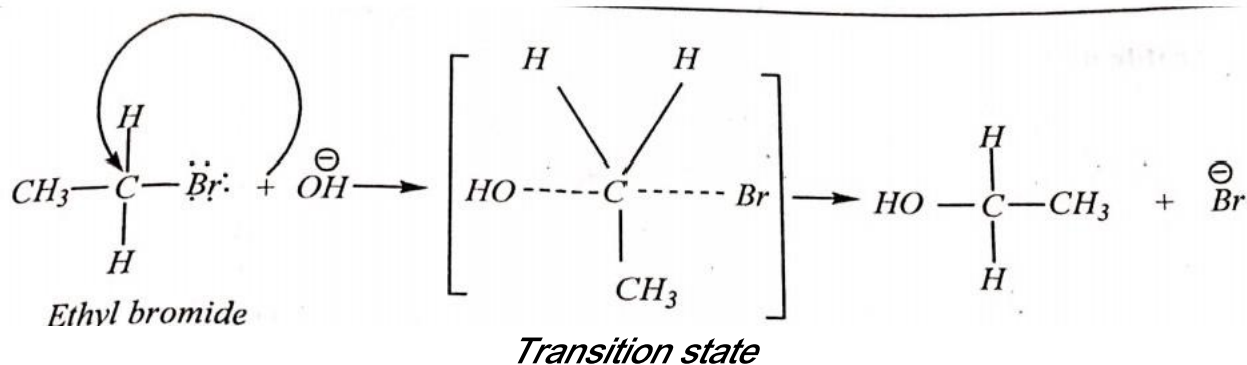
SN²-reaction:(Walden Inversion) Ex:2-bromo butane

When S-2-bromo butane (optically active) is allowed to react with hydroxide ion, it gives R-2-butanol which is inversion of configuration (Walden Inversion)

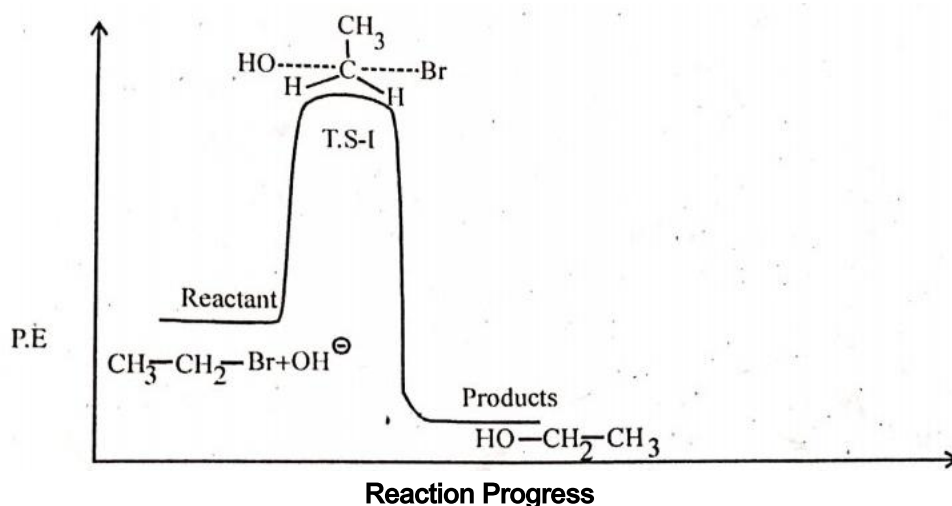


SN¹-reaction(Racemisation):

Ex:1-bromo-1-phenyl propane has a chiral centre so it exhibits optical activity. The compound is involved in an S_N1 reaction, giving a 1:1 ratio of enantiomer mixture (Racemic mixture) of 1-Hydroxy-1-phenyl propane.



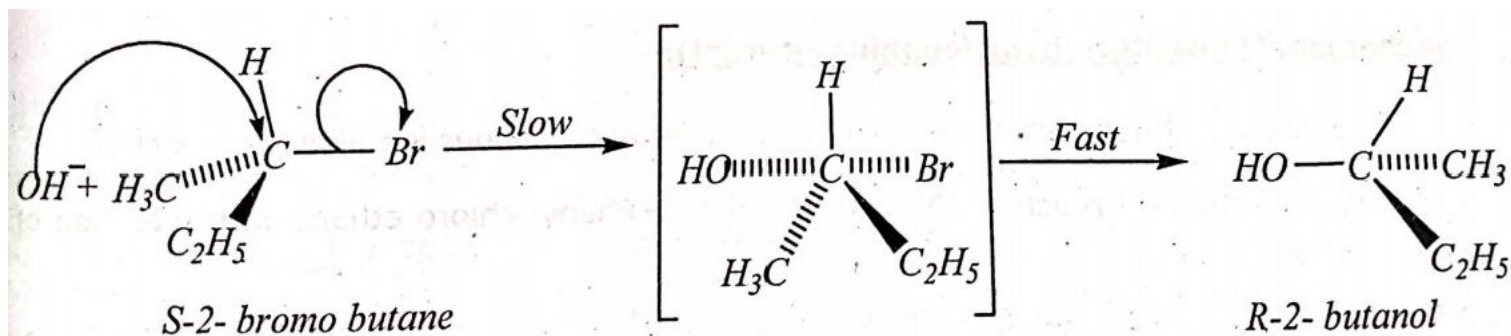
Energy profile diagram of SN² reactions

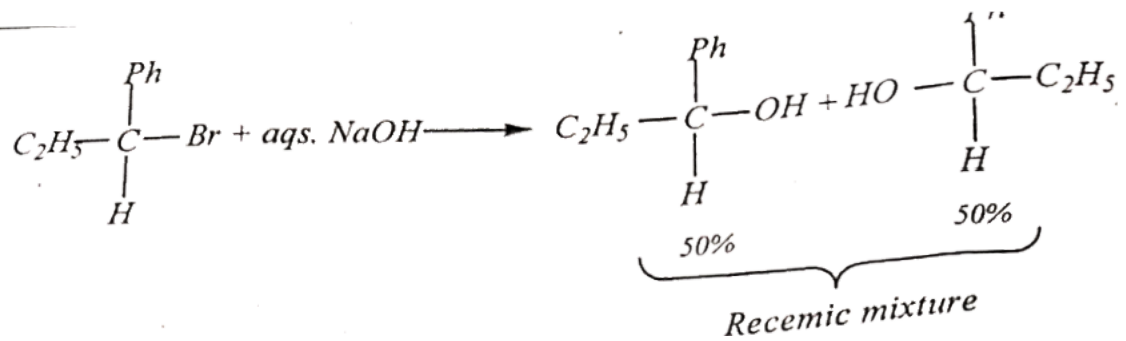


Stereo chemistry of SN¹ & SN² reactions:

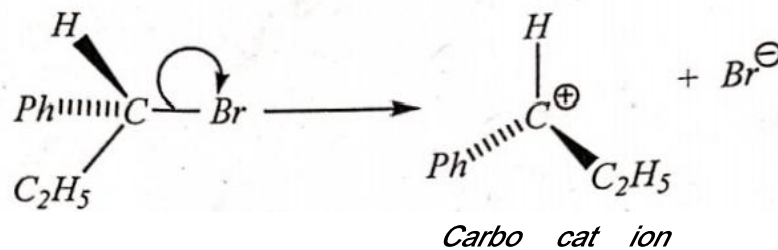
sn² -reaction:(Walden Inversion) Ex:2-bromo butane

When S-2-bromo butane (optically active) is allowed to react with hydroxide ion, it gives R-2-butanol which is inversion of configuration (Walden Inversion)

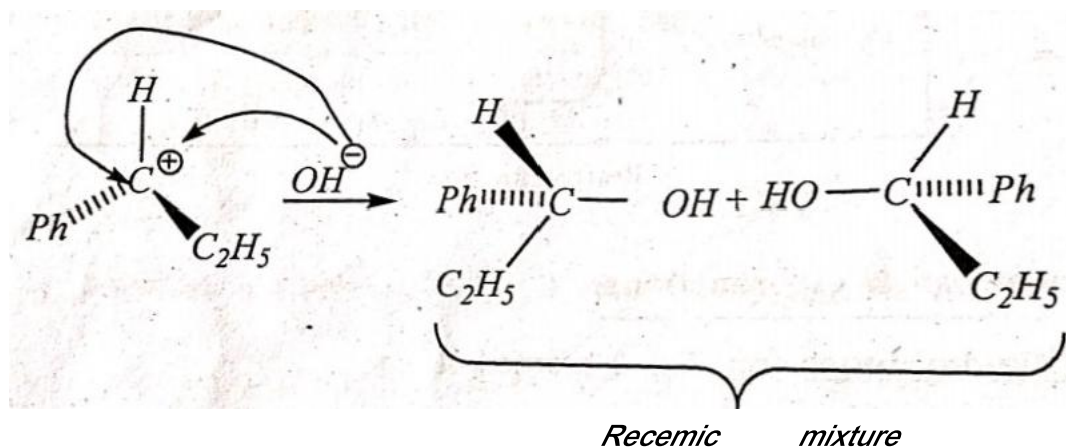




Mech;
Step-I:



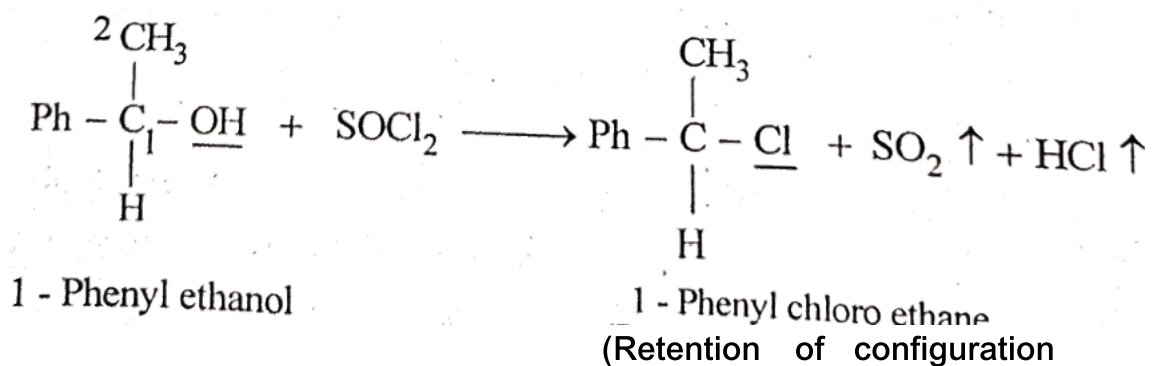
Step-II:

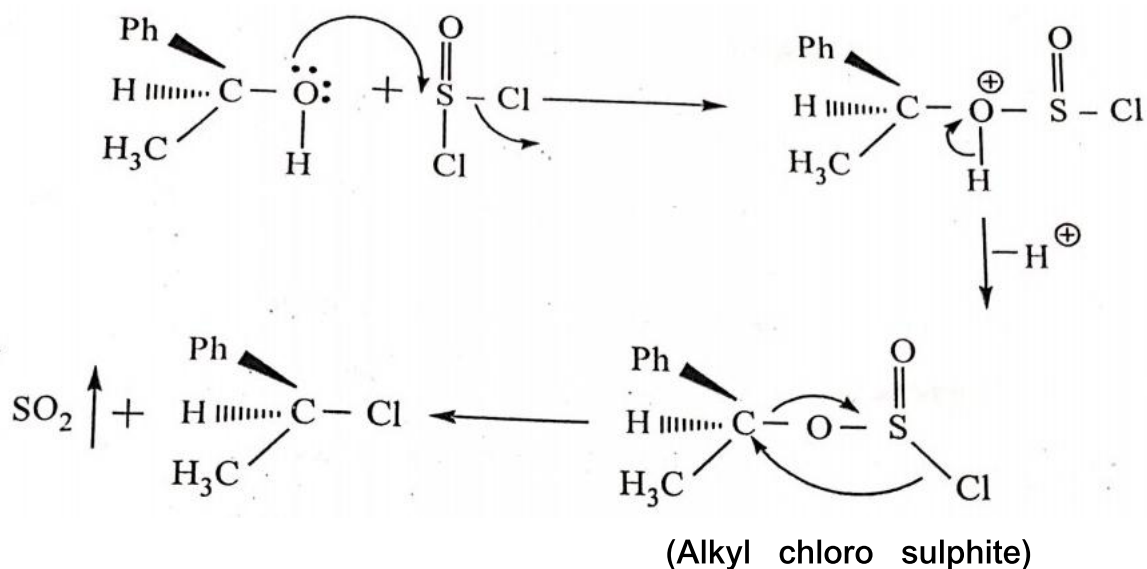


SNi mechanism (Substitution nucleophilic internal):-

Alcohols react with thionyl chloride (SOCl_2) to give alkyl halides is called S_{Ni} reaction.

Ex: 1-Phenyl ethanol, reacts with SOCl_2 to give 1-Phenyl chloro ethane with retentive configuration.





internal nucleophilic substitution(SN_i)reaction

Factors affecting reaction SN_i&SN₂?:-

(1)Nature of substrate:

SN_i_Reaction:

Carbocation intermediate involved in the reaction. So the order of reactivity of Alkyl halides in SN_i reaction is 3°-Alkyl halide > 2°-Alkyl halide > 1°-Alkyl halide > methyl halide.

SN₂_Reaction:

Nucleophile attacks from backside of Alkyl halide and due to steric effect the order

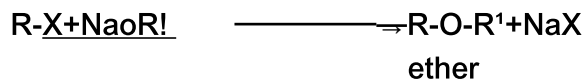
reactivity of Alkyl halides in SN₂ reaction is methyl halide > 1°-Alkyl halide > 2°-Alkyl halide > 3°-Alkyl halide.

2) Nature of nucleophile

Strong nucleophiles favour SN₂ reaction. While weak nucleophiles favour SN_i reaction (SN_i reaction is independent on nature of nucleophile)

Williamson's synthesis :-

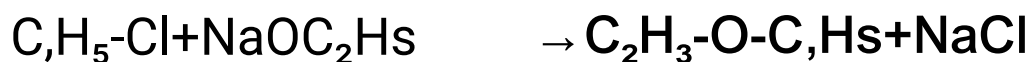
Alkylhalides reacts with sodium alkoxide to form ethers is known as williamson's synthesis.



Ex:

$\text{CH}_3\text{-Br} + \text{NaOCH}_3$
Methyl bromide
Sod. ethoxide

$\text{-CH}_3\text{-O-CH}_3 + \text{NaBr}$
Dimethyl ether

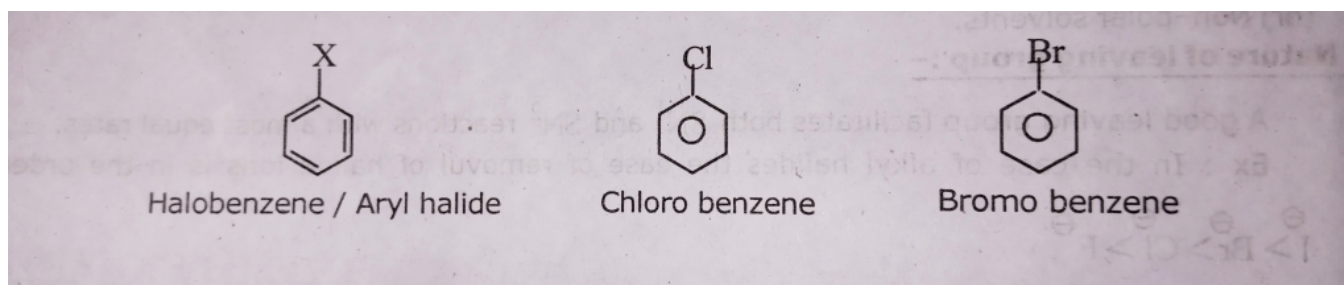


Ethyl chloride Sod. ethoxide

Diethyl ether

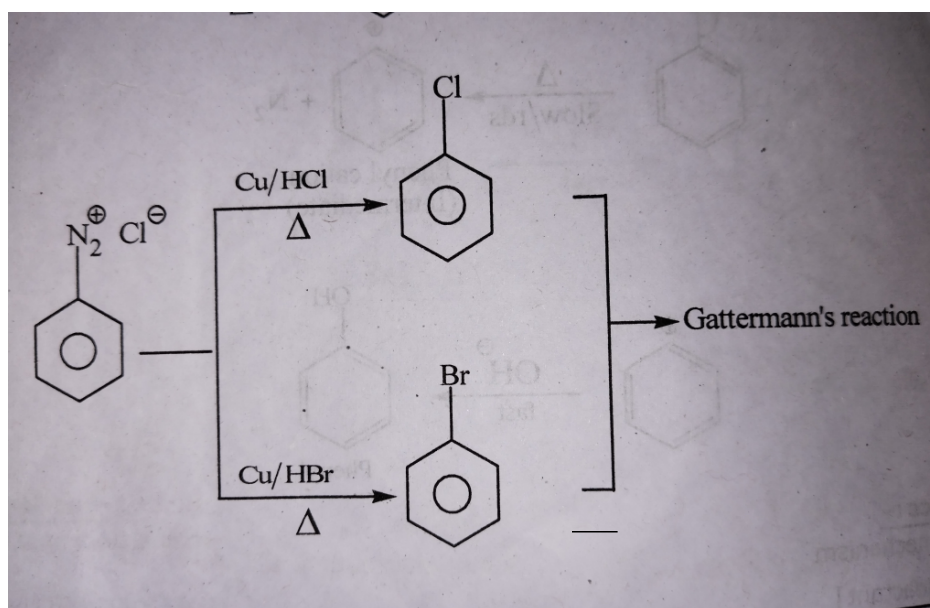
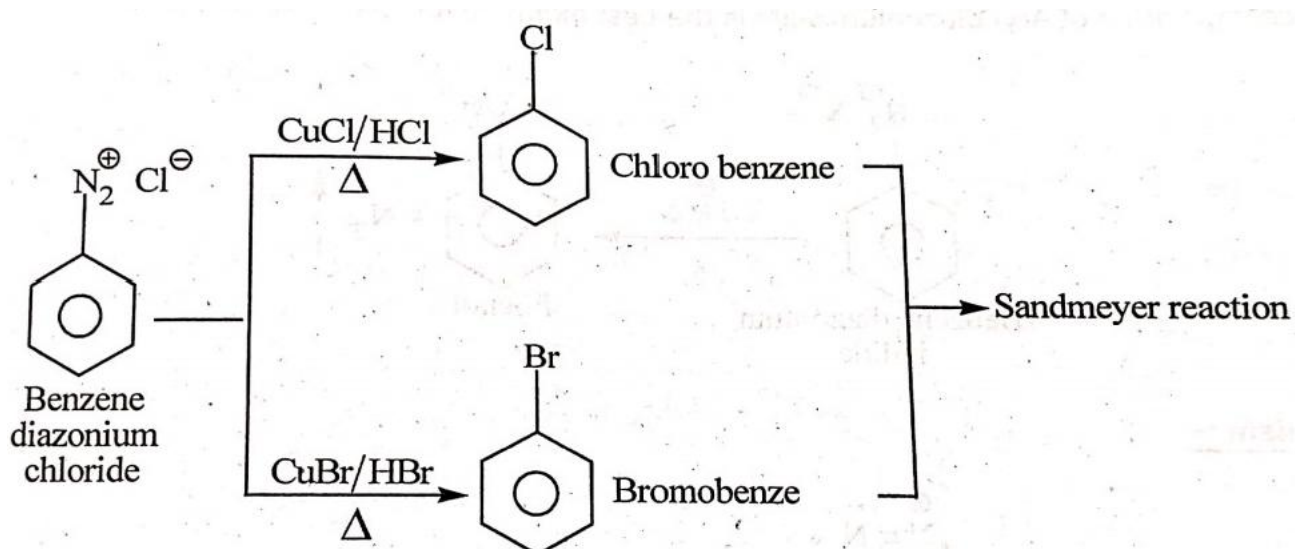
Best results are obtained when Alkylhalide is taken as primary and alkoxide is taken as

ARYL HALIDES



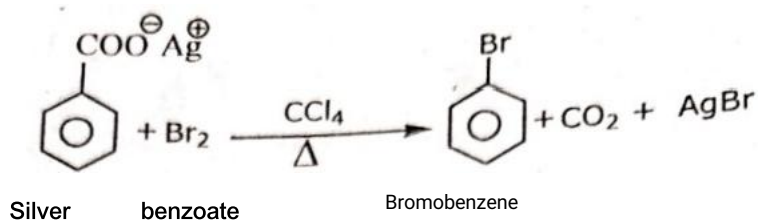
2. By decomposition of diazonium salts:

Aryl halides can be prepared by the decomposition of aryl diazonium salts in the

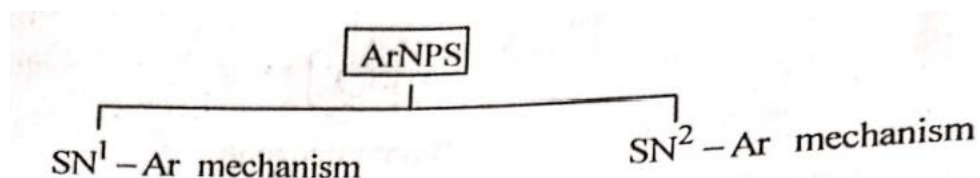


3. From silver salt of carboxylic acids :-

The silver salt of carboxylic acids when heated with bromine and CCl_4

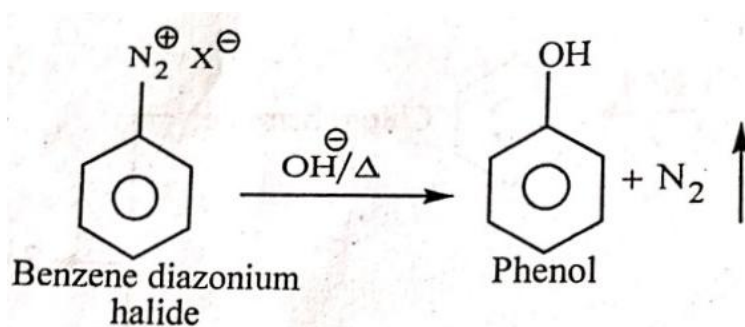


Nucleophilic aromatic substitution (ArNPs):-

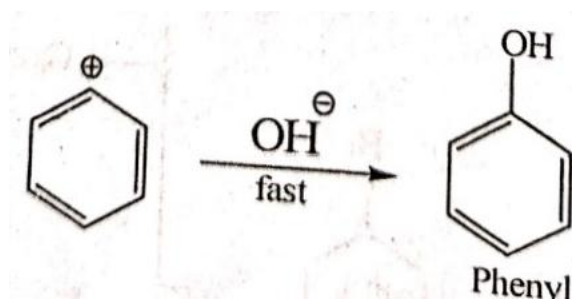
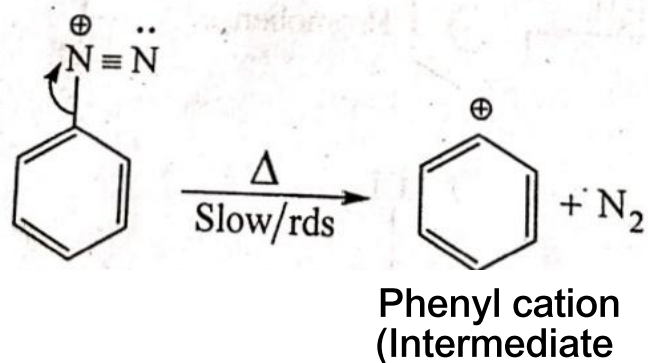


$\text{SN}^1\text{-Ar mechanism}$:-

Decomposition of Aryl diazonium salts is the best example for $\text{SN}^1\text{-Ar}$ reaction.



Mechanism :-



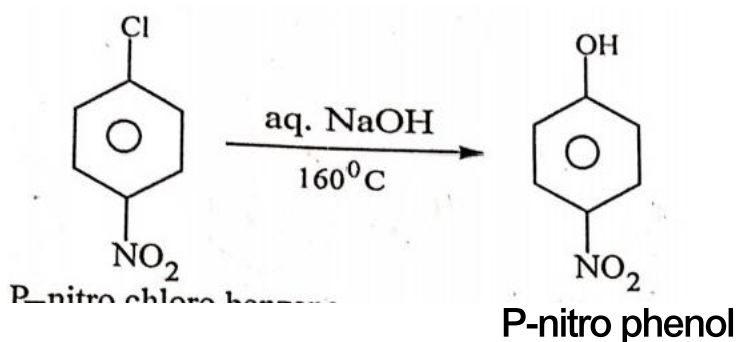
Characteristics :-

Two step mechanism

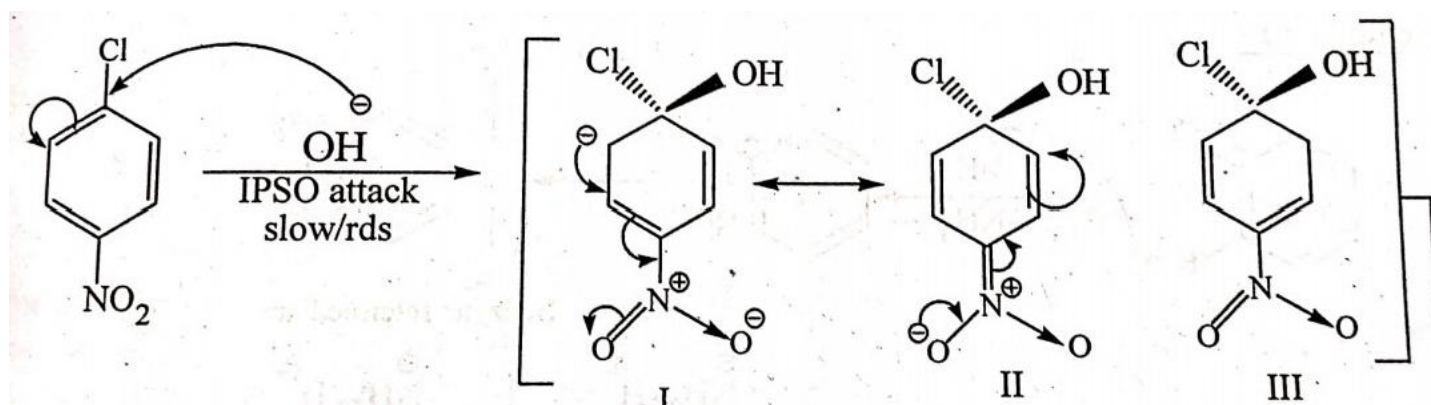
Rate $\propto$ [Reactant]

SN2-Ar mechanism (bimolecular aromatic NPS)

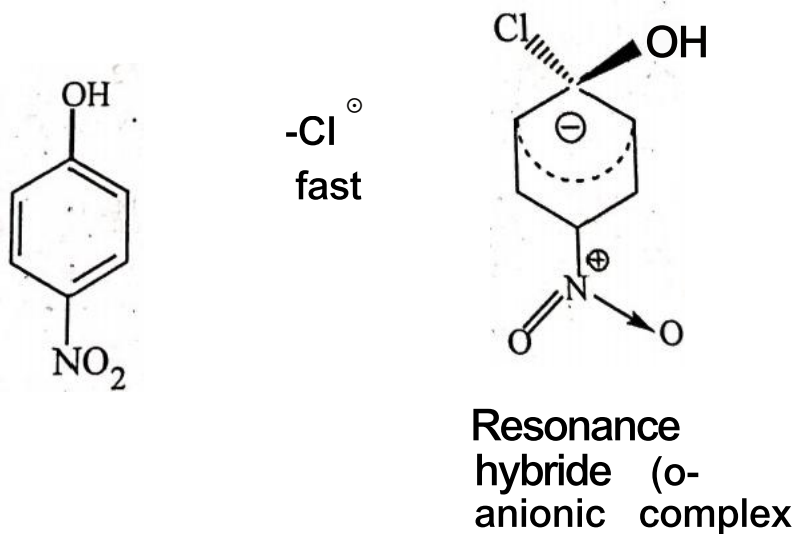
Activated aryl halides (aryl halides with electron withdrawing groups at ortho / para positions) will undergo nucleophilic substitution reactions via SN2-Ar mechanism.



Mechanism :-



Resonance structures

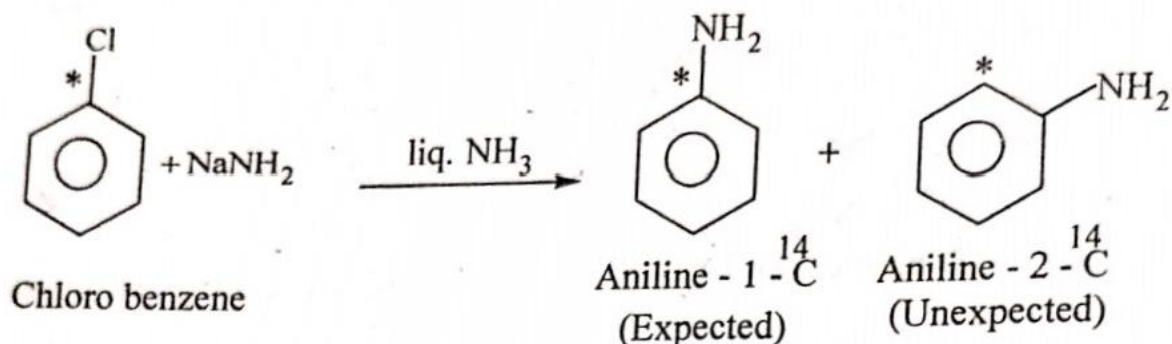


Characteristics :-

Single step mechanism

Rate $\propto [\text{Reactant}][\text{OH}^-]$

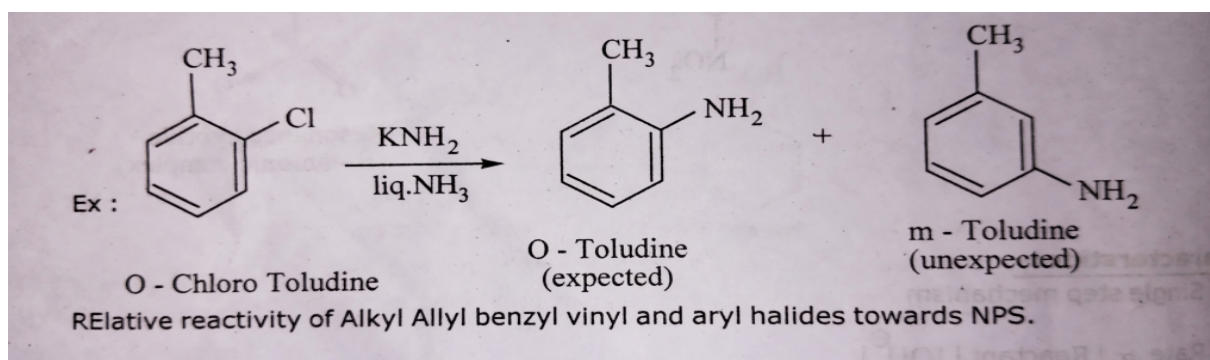
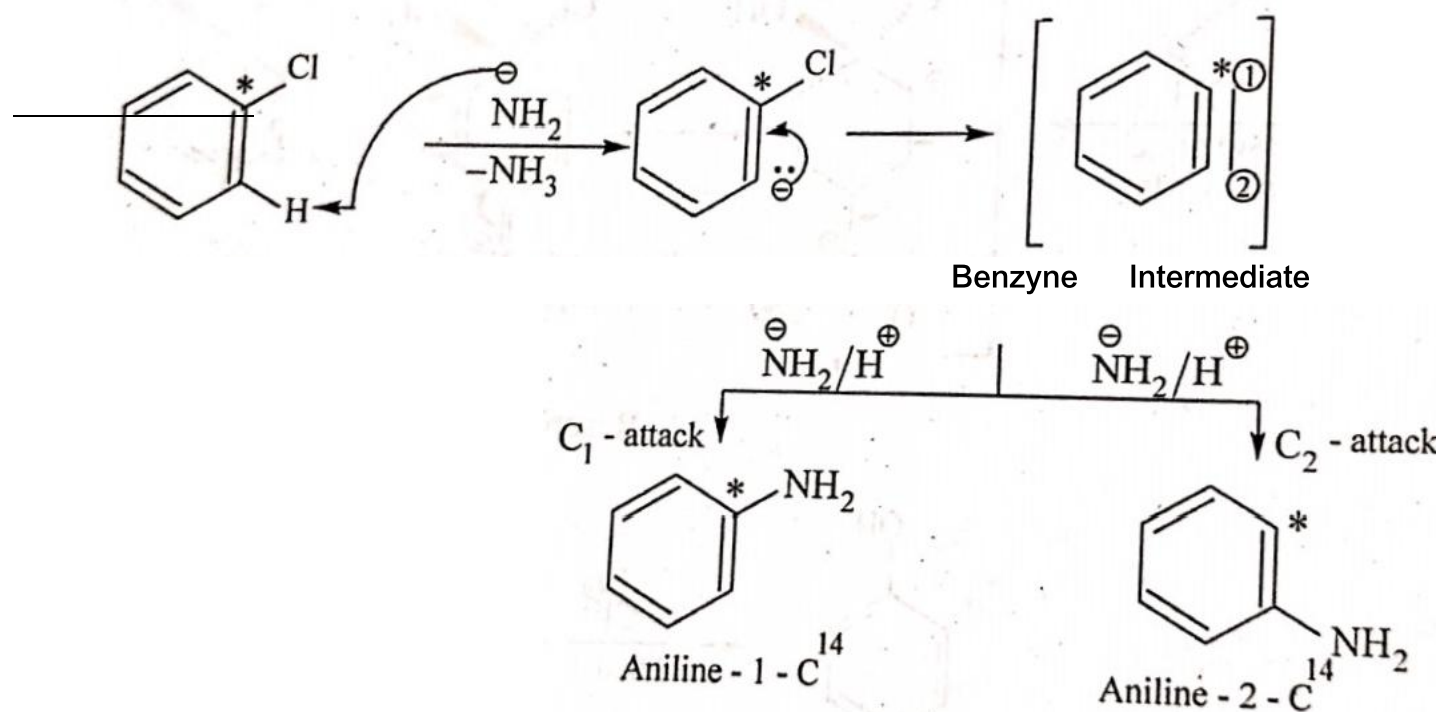
Benzene mechanism: (1) $\text{NaNH}_2/\text{liq. NH}_3$
(2) $\text{KNH}_2/\text{liq. NH}_3$



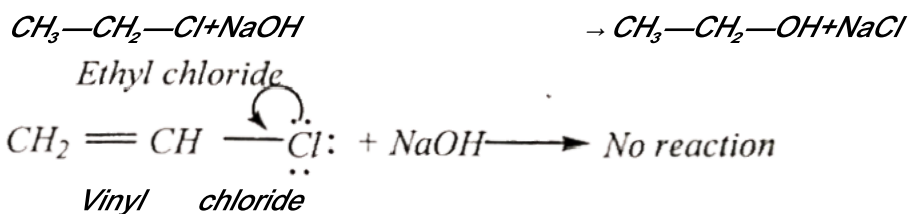
* - C^{14} isotope

In benzyne mechanism along with expected product an unexpected product always formed.

Mechanism :-

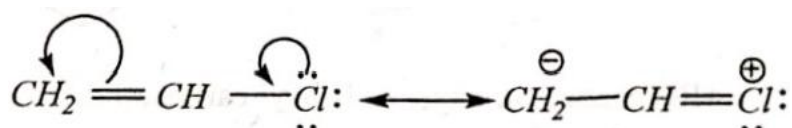


VINYL HALIDES



In vinyl chloride due to +m effect of chlorine atom the carbon-chlorine bond acquire

partial double bond character, due to this shortening of bond length, the chlorine atom is more strongly attached to carbon atom cannot be replaced easily.

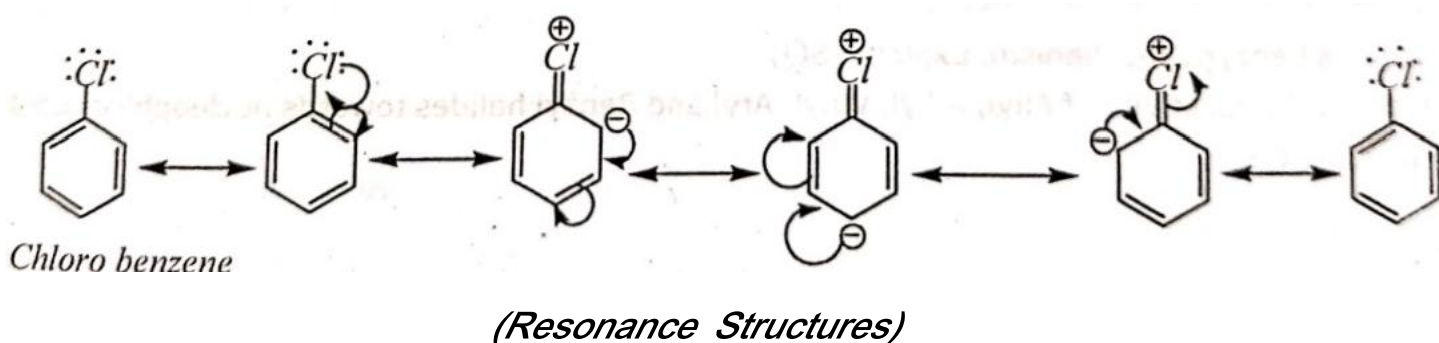


The delocalisation of electrons in vinyl chloride results in its increased stability. There are fewer electrons for it is difficult to remove halogen.

Aryl halides: Unlike alkyl halides; but like

vinyl halides do not undergo nucleophilic substitution under

normal conditions and in aryl halides the pair on halogen atom involved in resonance with benzene ring, due to resonance with bond acquires partial double bond character, hence it becomes shorter and stronger and thus cannot be easily replaced by other nucleophiles.



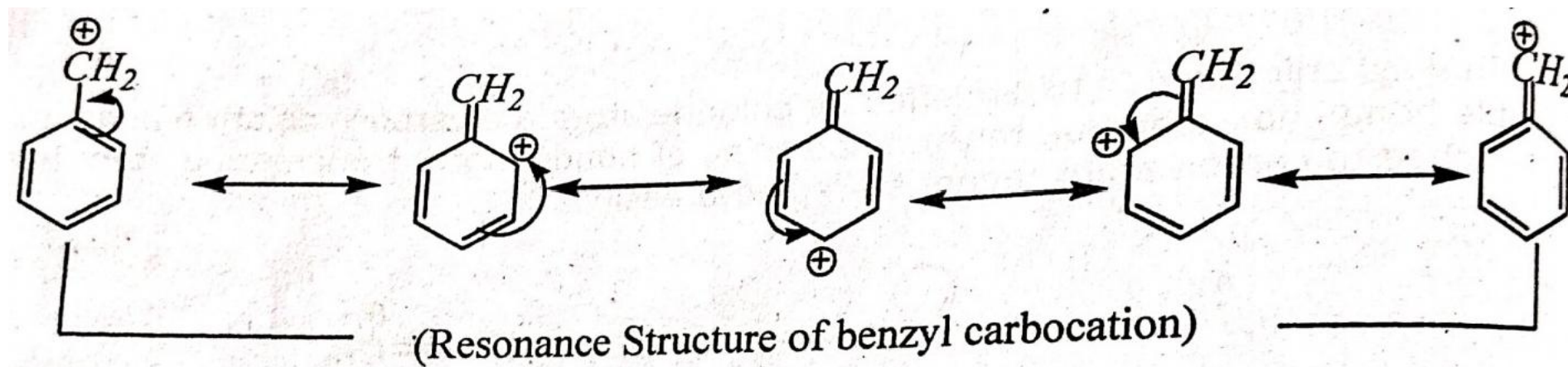
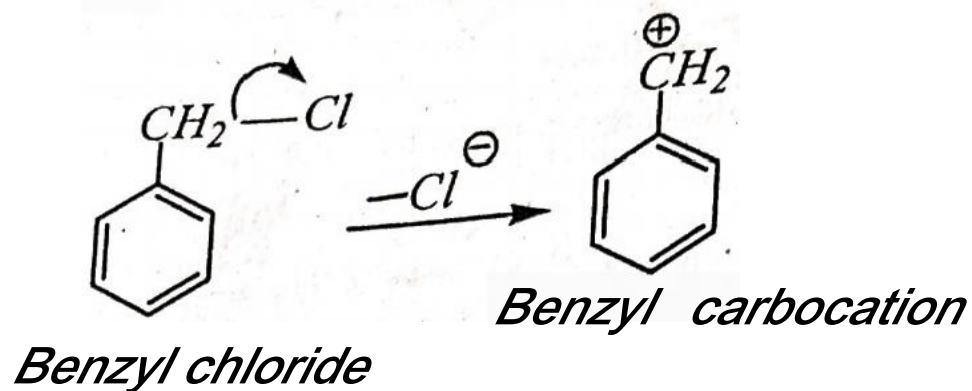
Reactivity of Halogen in Allyl, Benzyl halides:

Reactivity of halogen atom in allyl and benzyl halides is greater than alkyl halides. In these compounds Halogen atom is attached to Sp^3 hybridised carbon atom.

The High reactivity of halogen atom in Allyl halides is due to its ionization to form allyl carbocation. Once the allyl carbocation is formed it is stabilised by resonance.

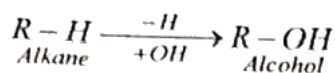
Benzyl halides;

The High reactivity of halogen atom in benzyl halide is also due to the stabilization of benzyl carbocation by resonance.



ALCOHOLS

Compounds which are formed by replacing one or more hydrogen atoms of alkanes by hydroxy (-OH) group are called alcohols. They are indicated



Nomenclature

S.No	Formula	Common name	IUPAC name
1	CH ₃ -OH	Methyl alcohol	methanol
2	CH ₃ -CH ₂ OH	Ethyl alcohol	ethanol
3	CH ₃ -CH ₂ -CH ₂ -OH	n-propyl alcohol	1-propanol
4	$\begin{array}{c} \text{CH}_3 \\ \diagdown \\ \text{CH} - \text{OH} \\ \diagup \\ \text{H}_3\text{C} \end{array}$	Iso propyl alcohol	2-propanol
5	CH ₃ -CH ₂ -CH ₂ -CH ₂ -OH	n-Butyl alcohol	1-Butanol

Classification;

Alcohols are classified into 4-classes according to the number of hydroxy groups.

a) Monohydric alcohols

b) Dihydric alcohols

c) Trihydric alcohols

d) Polyhydric alcohols

a) Monohydric alcohols:

These alcohols contain only one -OH group

Ex:-CH₃OH-Methyl alcohol

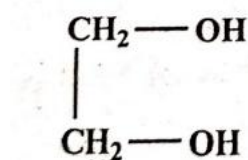
CH₃-CH₂-OH-Ethyl alcohol

CH₂=CH-OH-Vinyl alcohol

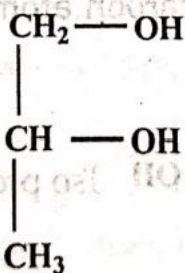
CH₂=CH-CH₂-OH-Allyl alcohol

b) Dihydric alcohols:

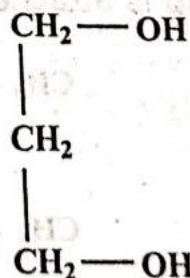
These alcohols contain two -OH groups



Ethylene Glycol



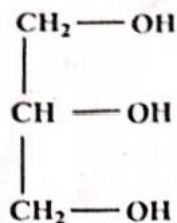
Propylene-1,2-Glycol



Propylene-1,3-Glycol

c) Trihydric alcohols:

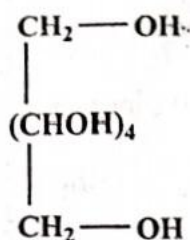
Alcohols contain three -OH groups



Glycerol (Propane-1,2,3-Triol)

a) Polyhydric alcohol

Асопоіб мпгсП сопатт тоге ЕНап тпге -ОН дгоир



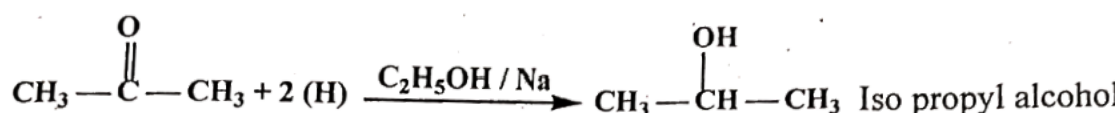
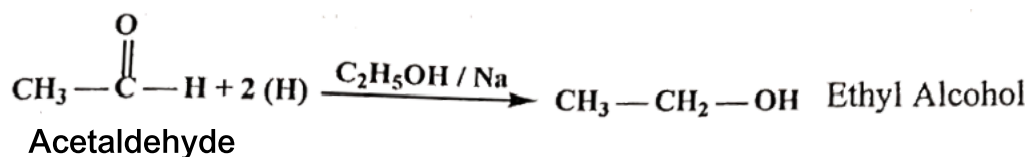
Mannitol

Monohydric alcohols again classified into 3 types. They are

Preparation methods

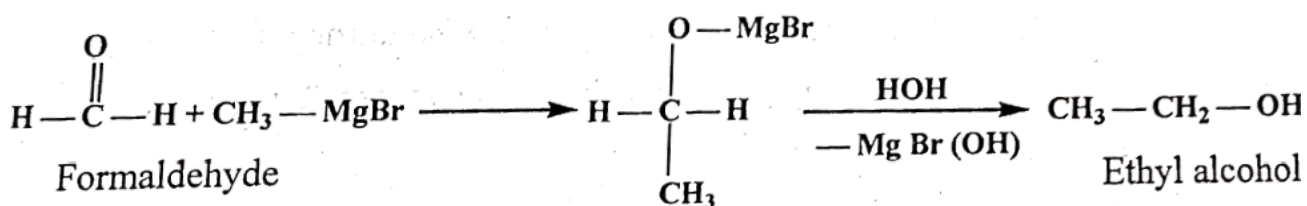
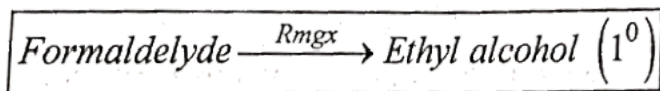
1. Reduction of carbonyl compounds

Reduction of carbonyl compounds with $\text{Na}/\text{C}_2\text{H}_5\text{OH}$ gives Alcohols.

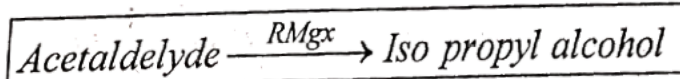


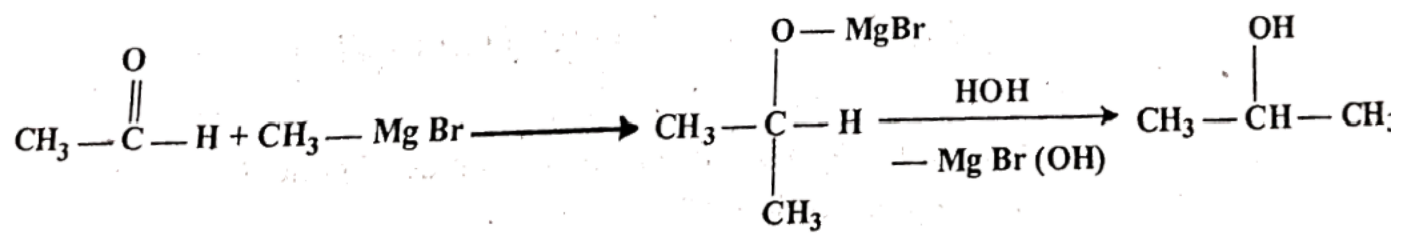
2. From Grignard reagents:

Primary alcohols are obtained by reaction of Grignard reagent with formaldehyde.

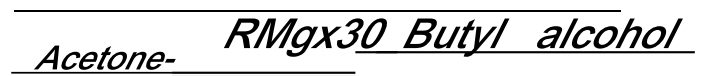


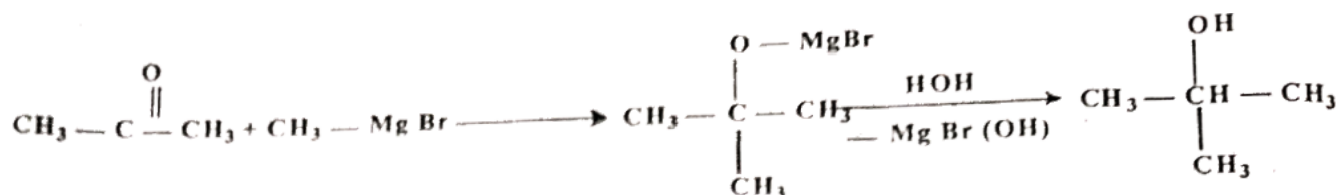
ii) Aldehydes (other than formaldehyde) react with Grignard reagent gives sec. alcohols.





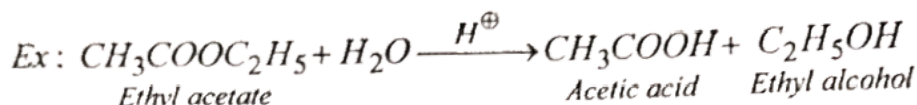
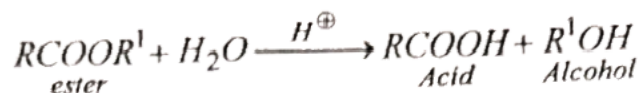
n) Ketones reacts with Grignard reagent gives 3°-Alcohols





3. From Ester hydrolysis:

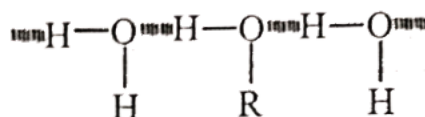
Acidic hydrolysis of esters gives alcohols and carboxylic acids



properties:

Physical

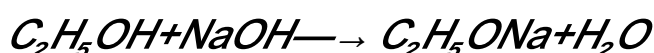
1. The lower alcohols are soluble in water due to formation of hydrogen bond with water.



2. Alcohols show higher boiling points than those isomeric ethers due to formation of intermolecular H-bonding. It is absent in ethers.

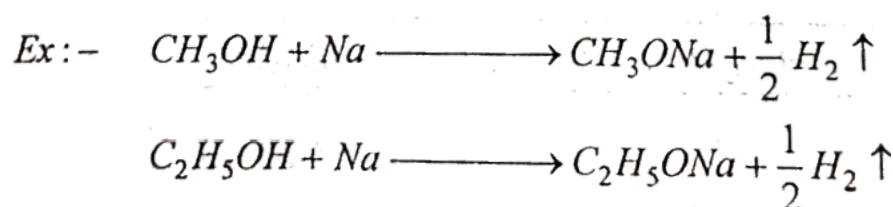
3. Due to high polarisation of O-H bond in alcohols, they lose H⁺ ion and act as weak acids. So they form salts with strong bases.

Ex: Ethyl alcohol reacts with NaOH to form sod. ethoxide.

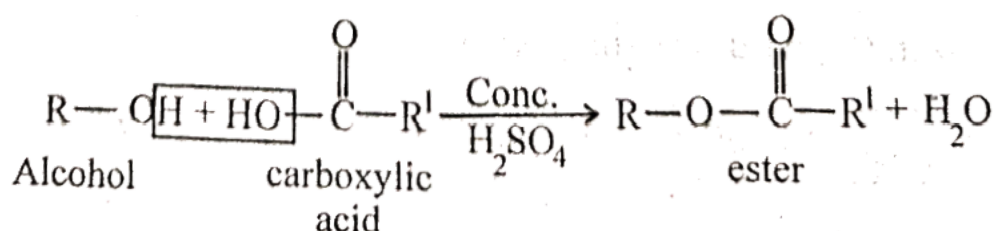


Chemical properties:

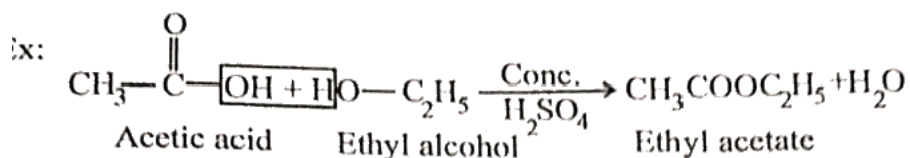
1. Reaction with sodium metal: Alcohols react with 'Na' metal to liberate H₂ gas



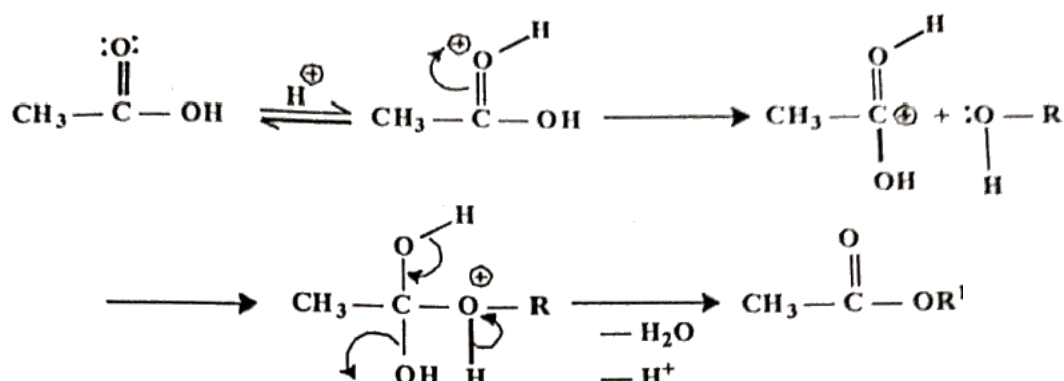
2. Esterification: Alcohols react with Carboxylic acids in presence of conc. H₂SO₄ to form esters. This process is called esterification.



Ethyl alcohol reacts with acetic acid to form ethyl acetate

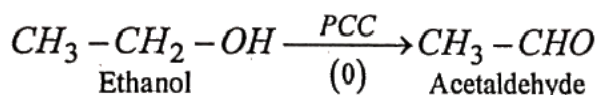
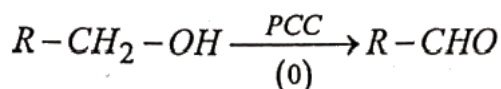


Mechanism; _____



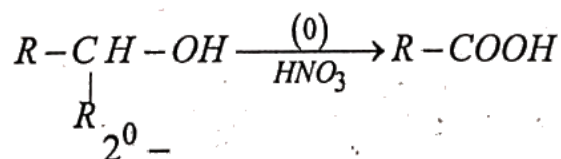
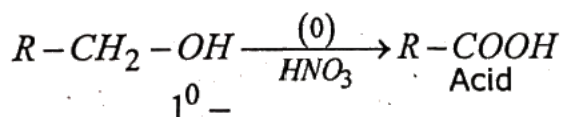
.oxidation with PCC(Pyridinium chloro chromate)

oxidation of 1°-alcohols by PCC gives Aldehydes.



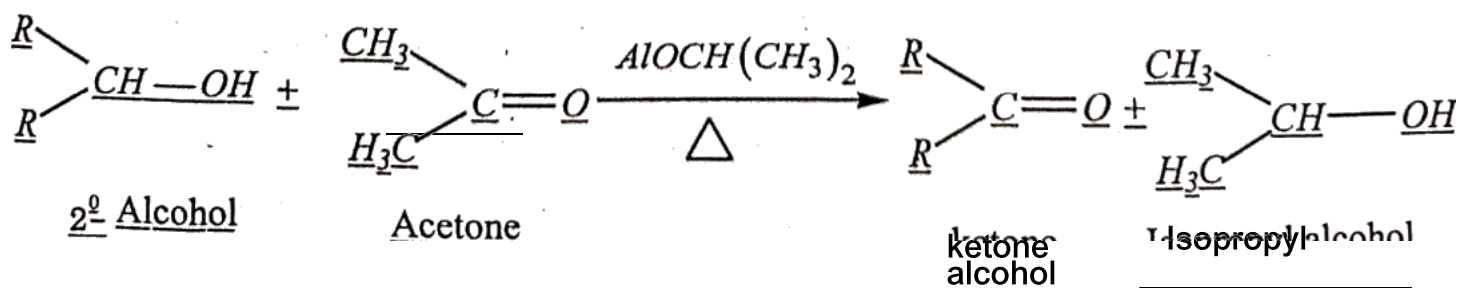
4.Oxidation with Conc.HNO₃:

oxidation of 1°,2°-Alcohols by Conc.HNO₃ gives Carboxylic acids.



5.Oppenauer oxidation:

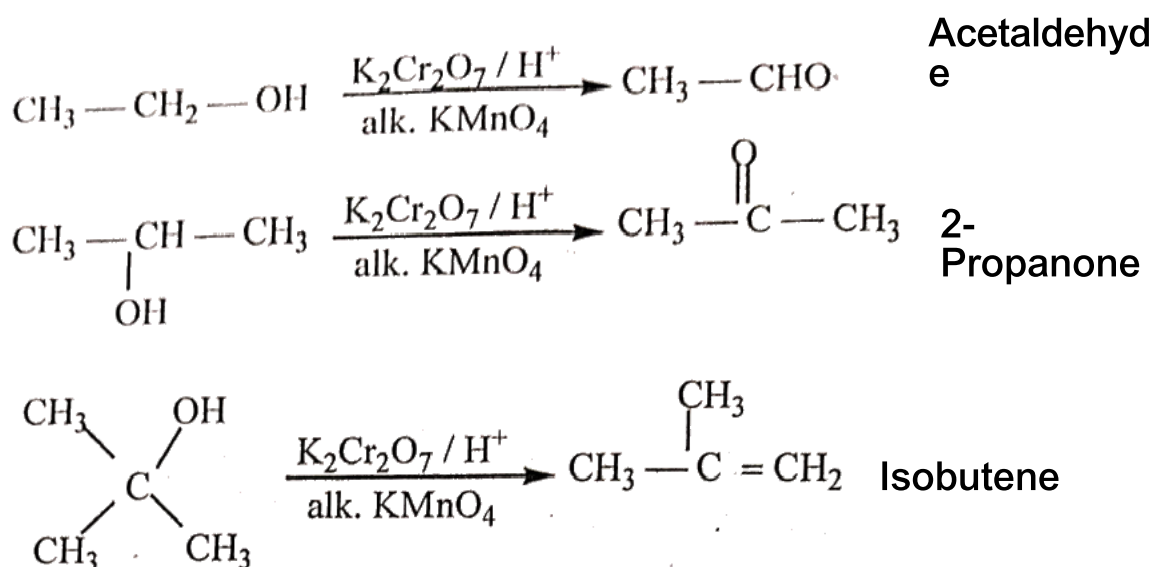
2°-alcohols reacts with Aluminum Isopropoxide In presence of acetone gives ketones.



6. Oxidation with KMnO_4 and acidic dichromates

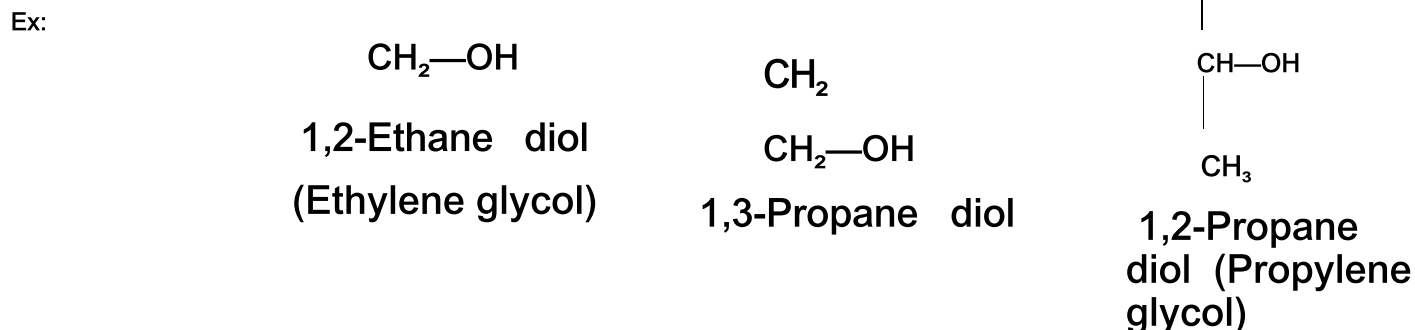
Oxidation of $1^\circ, 2^\circ, \& 3^\circ$ -alcohols with KMnO_4 (basic) and

$\text{K}_2\text{Cr}_2\text{O}_7/\text{H}_2\text{SO}_4$ gives Aldehydes, ketones and alkenes respectively



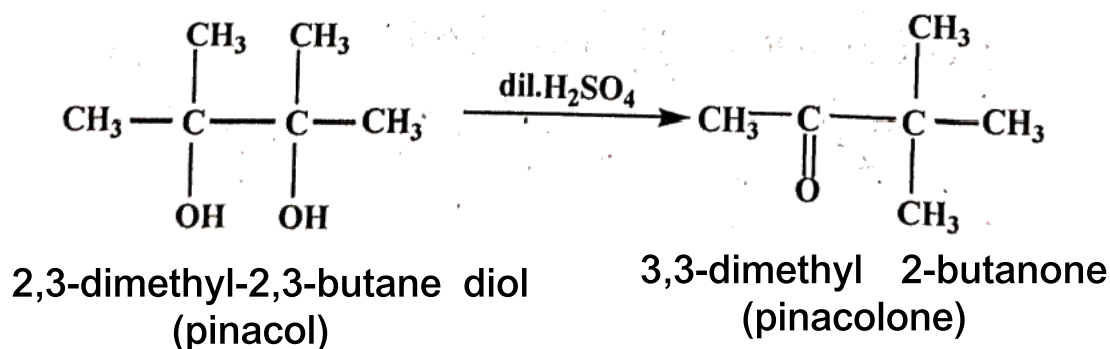
Diols:

Compounds which contain two hydroxyl groups are known as dihydric alcohols (or) diols (or) Glycols.

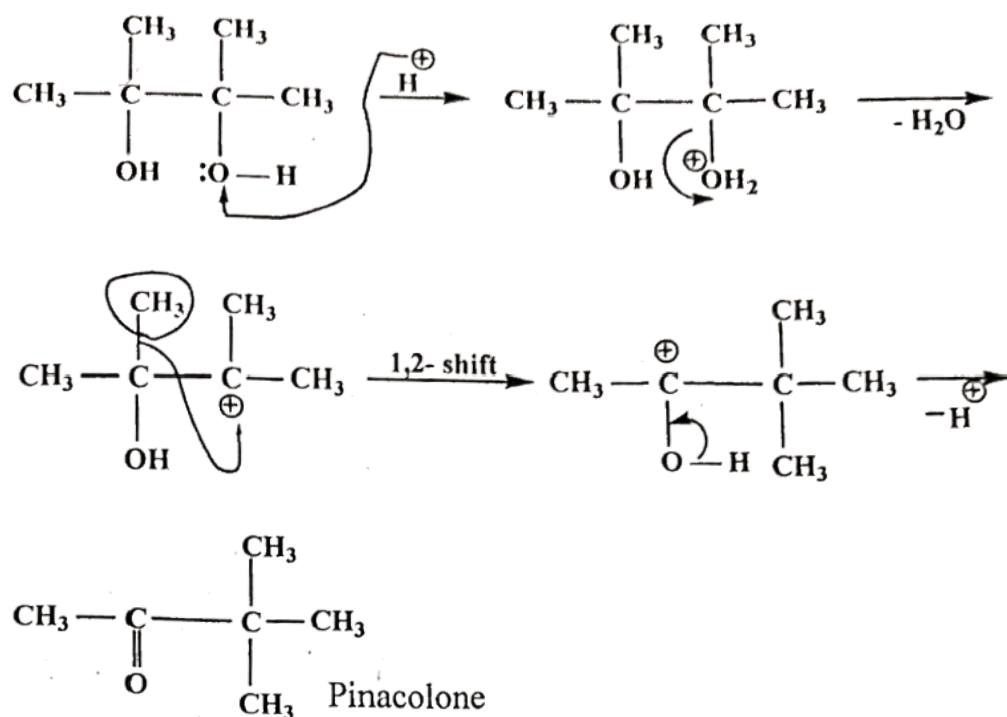


Pinacol-Pinacolone rearrangement:

The conversion of pinacols (1,2-glycols) into ketones in presence of acids is known as pinacol-pinacolone rearrangement.

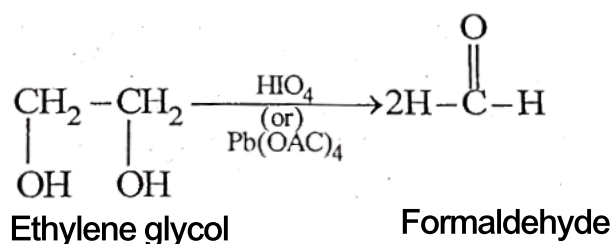


Mechanism



Oxidation of diols

Ethylene glycol with periodic acid and lead tetra acetate gives formaldehyde.

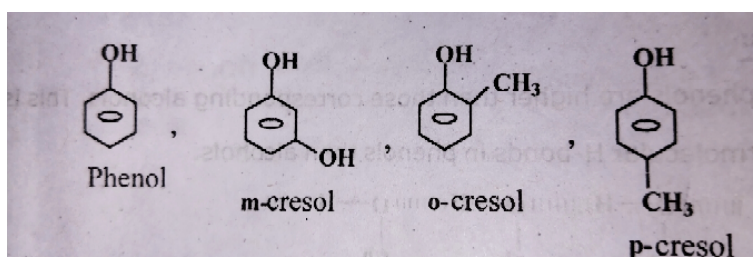


PHENOLS

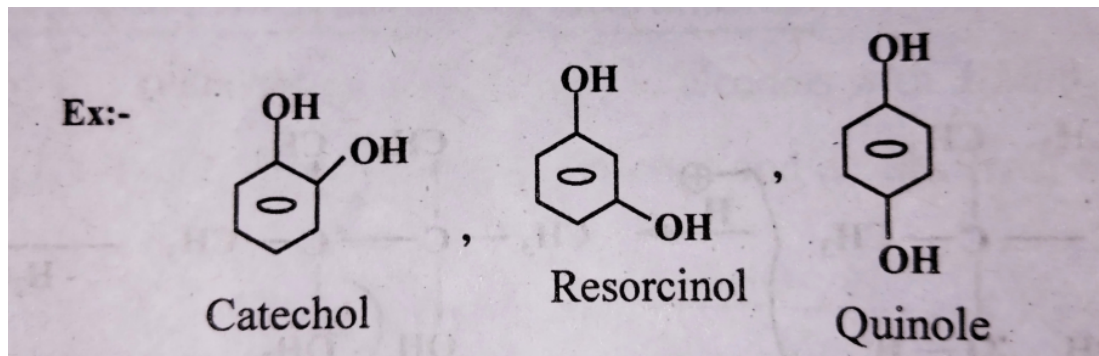
The aromatic hydroxy compounds in which hydroxyl group is directly attached to an aromatic (benzene) ring are called phenols.

Phenols are classified into (1) mono hydric (2) dihydric (3) tri hydric phenols depending on number of hydroxy groups attached to an aromatic ring.

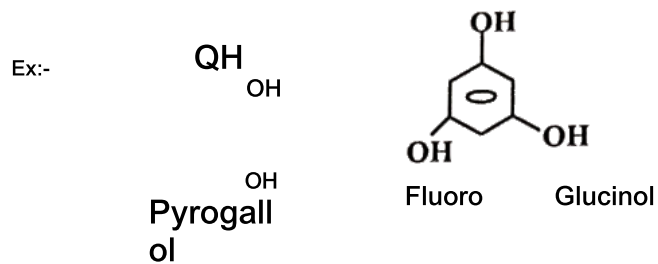
1. Monohydric phenols: Only one -OH group is attached to aromatic ring.



2. Dihydric phenols: In these two -OH groups are attached to aromatic ring

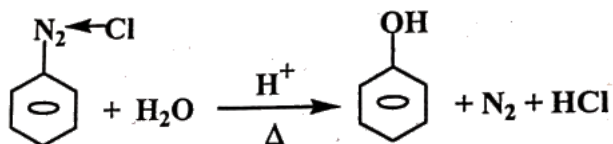


3. Trihydric phenols: In these three -OH groups are attached at aromatic ring.

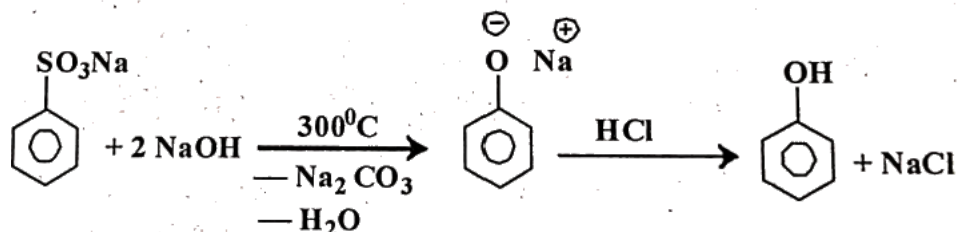


Preparation methods of phenol:

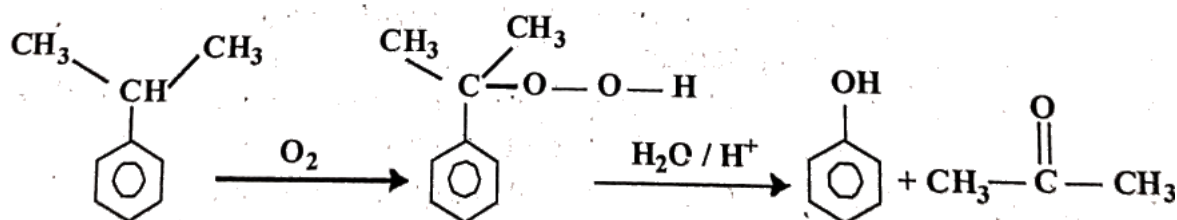
1. Heating of benzene diazonium salts with dil. H_2SO_4 gives phenol.



2. Reaction of sodium benzene sulphonate with NaOH at 300°C gives phenol.

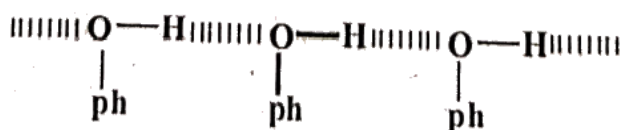


3. From cumene: Isopropyl benzene (cumene) is oxidised by atmospheric oxygen gives cumer hydroperoxide, which decompose into phenol and acetone in presence of an acid.

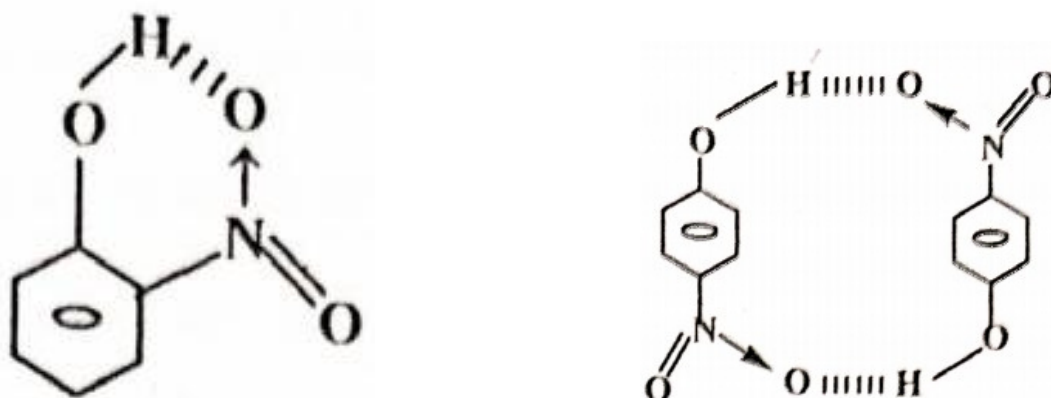


Physical properties:

1. Boiling points of phenols are higher than those corresponding alcohols. This is due to relatively strong intermolecular H-bonds in phenols than alcohols.



2. Ortho nitro phenol has Low boiling point than those isomeric P-nitro phenol, due to

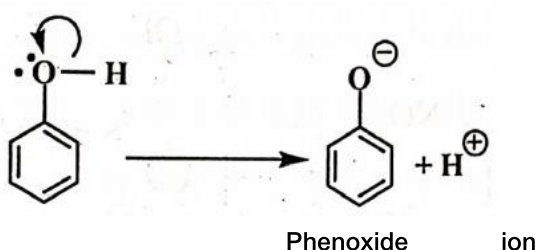


intramolecular H bonding.

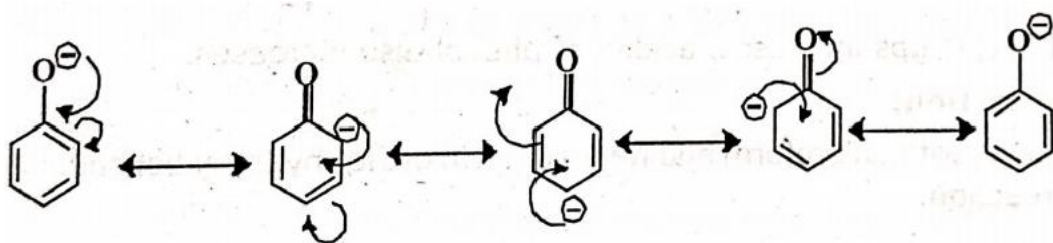
3. Pure phenols are colourless solids/liquids. The light colour usually associated with phenols either due to its oxidation by air or light.

Acidic nature of phenol:

In phenol due to resonance, The oxygen atom of the -OH group acquires a +Ve charge and hence attracts the electron pair of O-H bond leading to the release of hydrogen atom as proton, and form phenoxide ion.

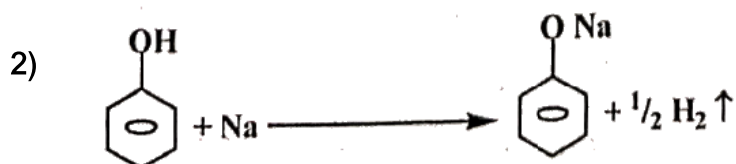
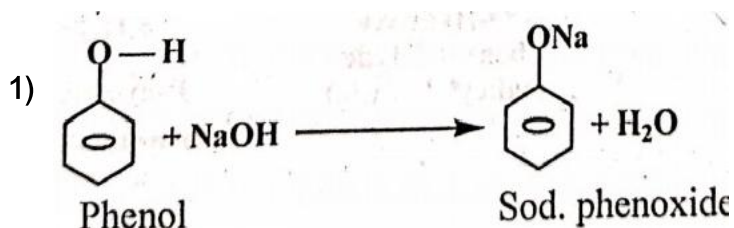


Once the phenoxide ion is formed, it stabilises itself by resonance



The stability of phenoxide ion is greater than parent phenol. Therefore phenol easily loses H^+ and act as a weak acid.

Evidence:



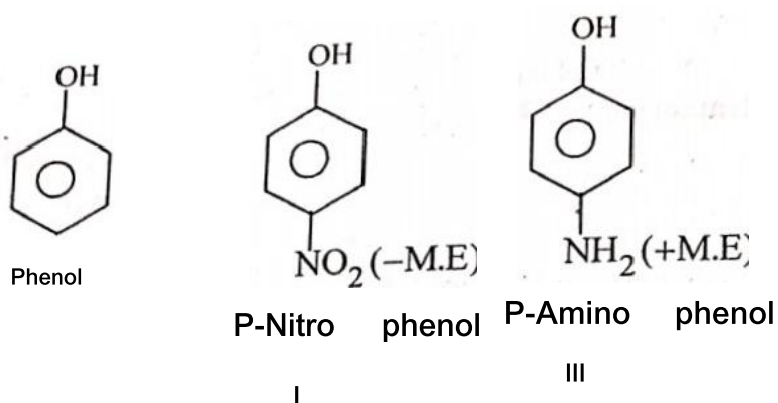
In above reactions phenol reacts with strong bases to form a salt. So phenol is confirmed as an acid.

Acidity of phenol-

increases the acidity of phenol

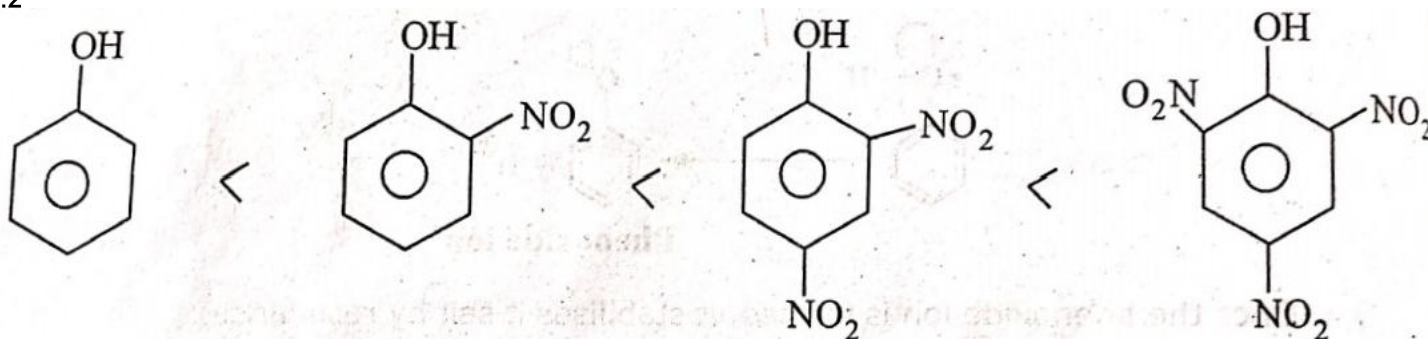
+ME groups decreases the acidity of phenol

Ex:1



Acidity: I > II > III

Ex:2

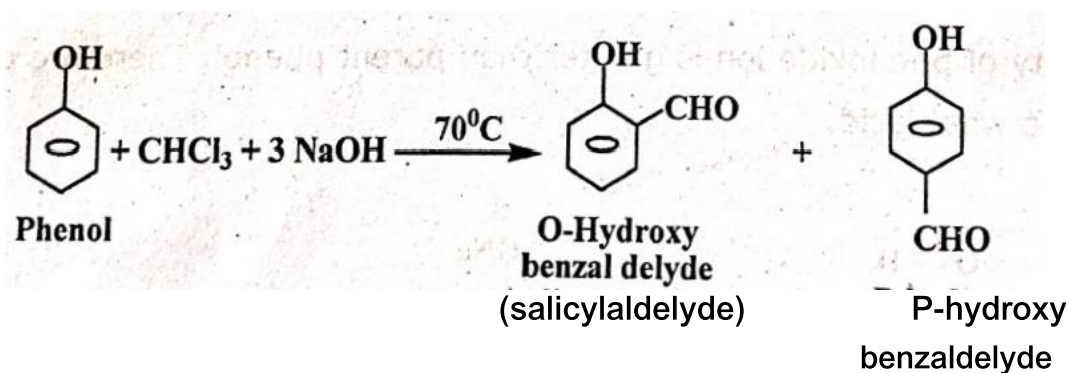


As the no. of -M.E groups increases, acidity of phenol also increases.

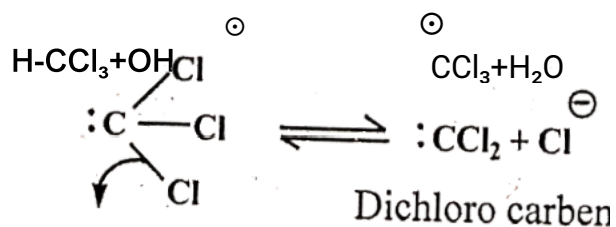
Riemer-Tiemann reaction:

Phenol reacts with chloroform and NaOH to form ortho-hydroxy benzaldehyde is

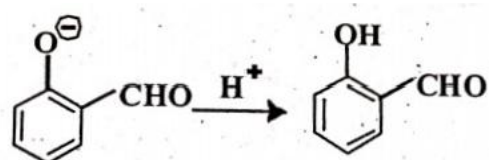
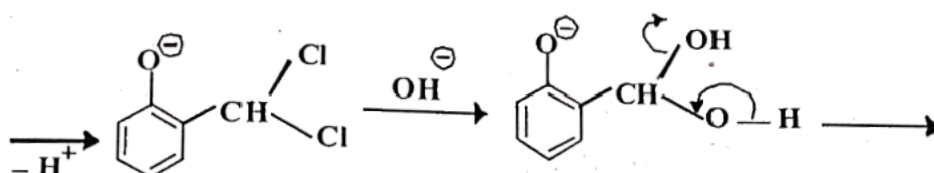
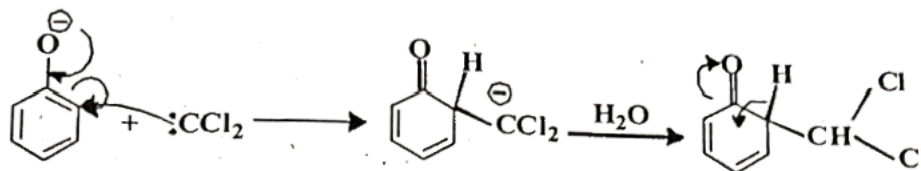
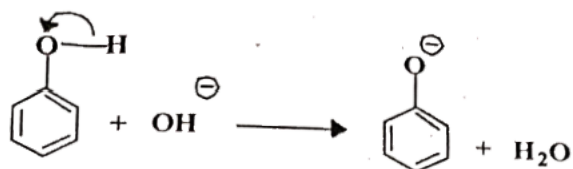
known as Riemer-Tiemann reaction.



Mech:

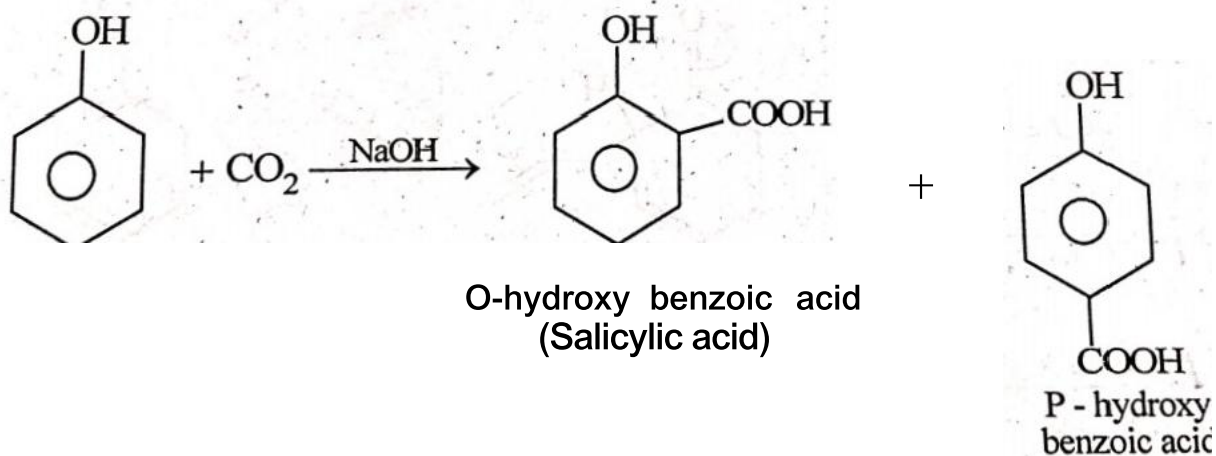


e (neutral electrophile)

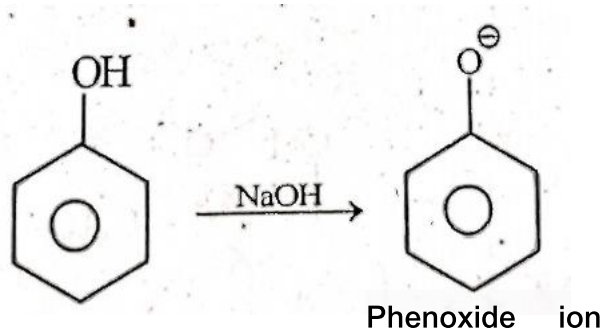


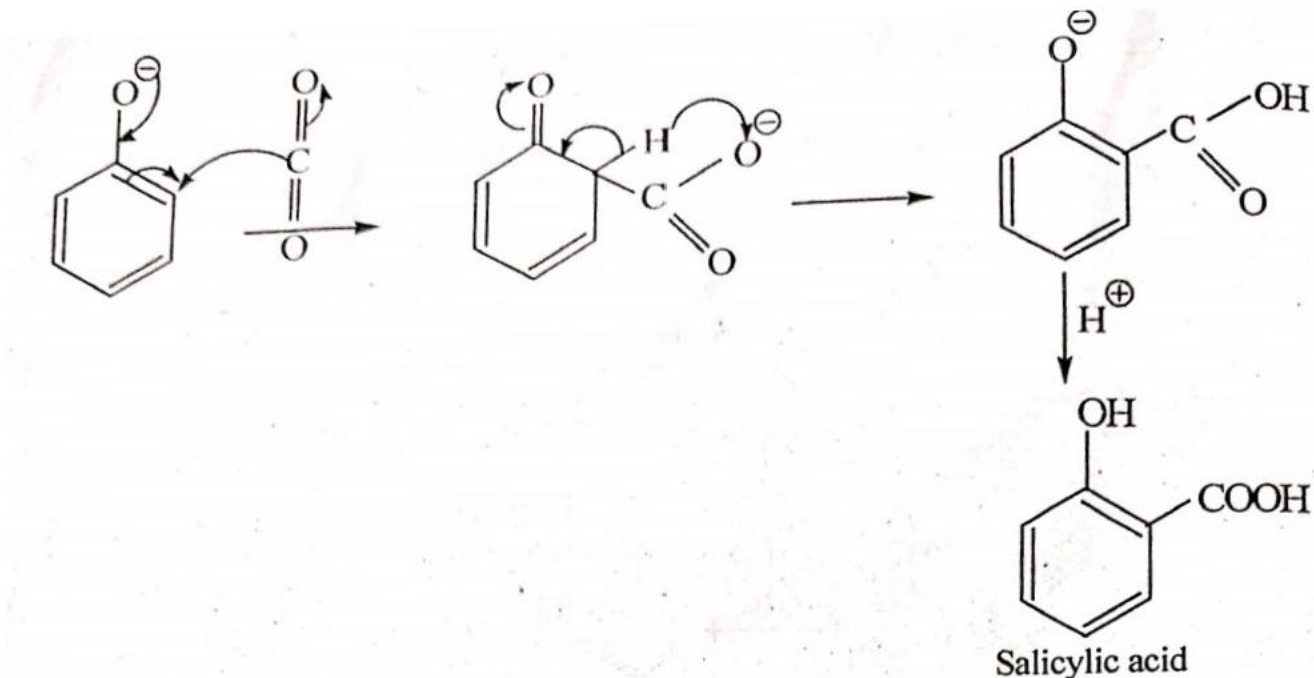
~~Kolbe's Schmidt reaction :-~~

Phenol reacts with CO_2 in presence of base to give salicylic acid and P-hydroxy benzoic acid.

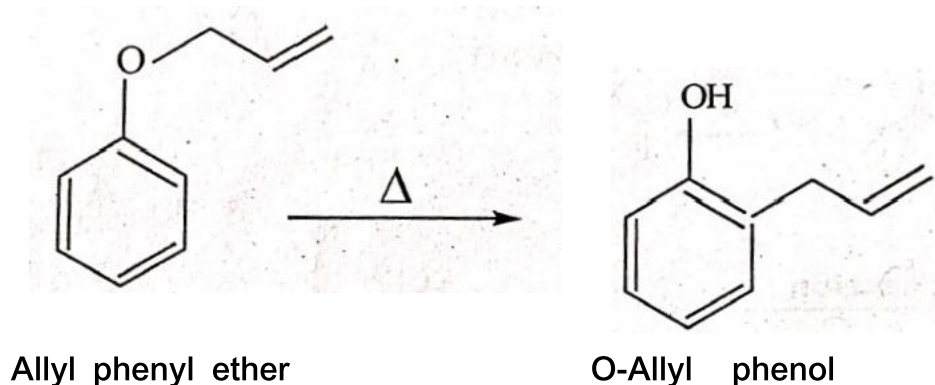


Mechanism :-

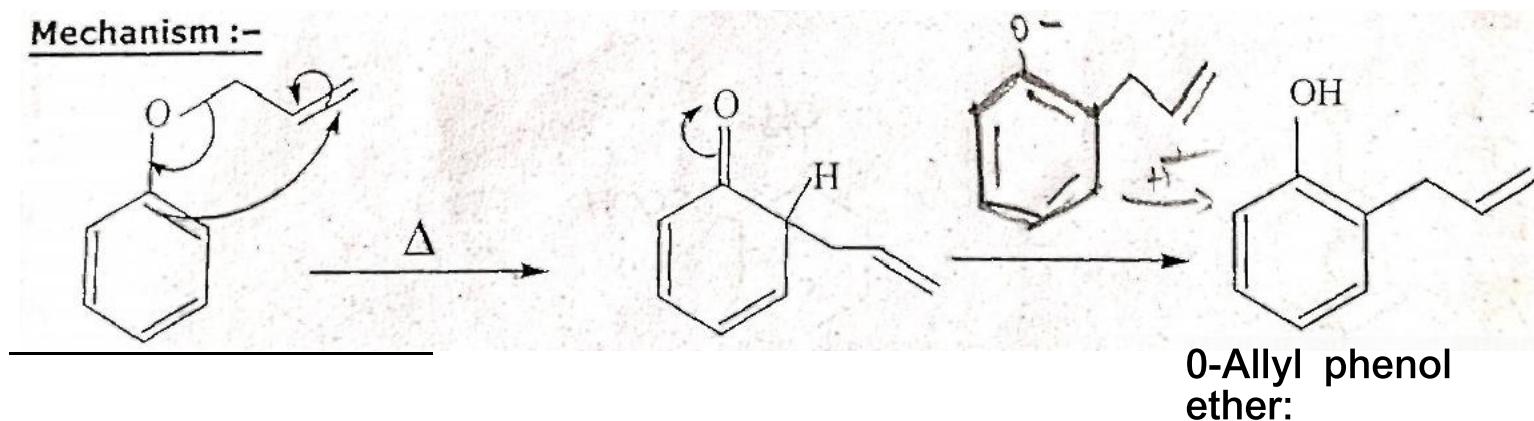




Claisen Rearrangement :- Thermal rearrangement of allyl phenyl ether into ortho -allyl phenol is called Claisen rearrangement.



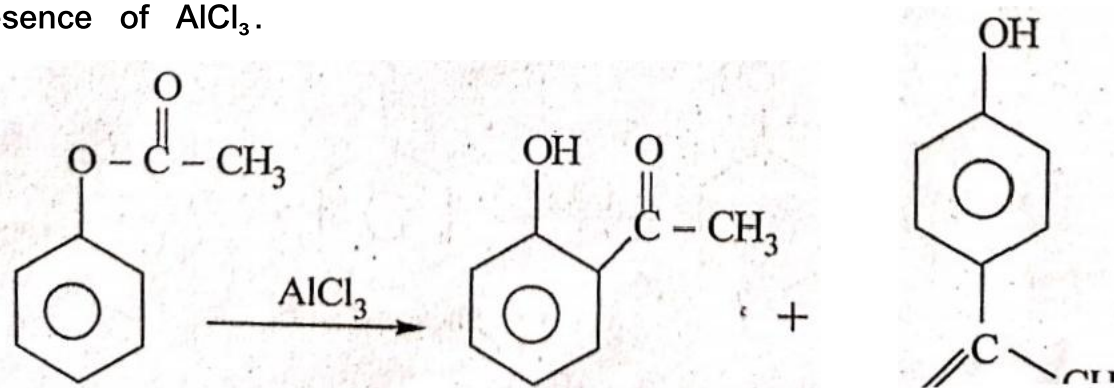
Mechanism :-



Fries rearrangement;

Conversion of phenolic ester into O-and P-acyl phenol in presence of AlCl_3 is called Fries rearrangement.

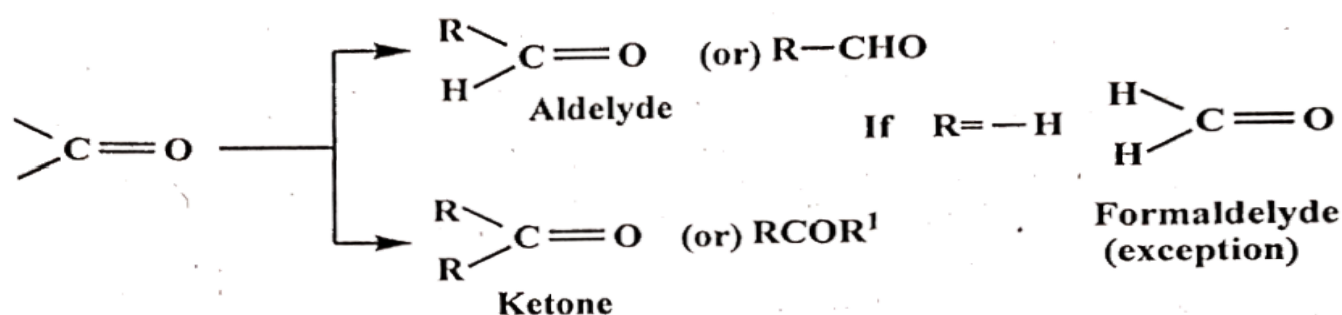
Ex: Phenyl acetate rearrange to O-hydroxy acetophenone and P-hydroxy acetophenone in the presence of AlCl_3 .



UNIT-II

compounds which contains carbonyl group are called carbonyl compounds

General formula of these compounds is $C_nH_{2n}O$



Nomenclature:

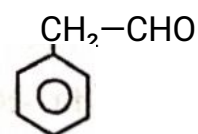
1. Aldehydes (R=CHO):

<u>Compound</u>	<u>IUPAC Name</u>	<u>Common name</u>
m-1 $\text{CH}_3 - \overset{\text{O}}{\underset{\text{ }}{\text{C}}} - \text{H}$	Methanal	Formaldehyde
$\text{CH}_3 - \overset{\text{O}}{\underset{\text{ }}{\text{C}}} - \text{H}$	Ethanal	Acetaldehyde
$\text{CH}_3 - \text{CH}_2 - \overset{\text{O}}{\underset{\text{ }}{\text{C}}} - \text{H}$	Propanal	Propeonaldehyde
$\text{CH}_3 - \text{CH}_2 - \text{CH}_2 - \overset{\text{O}}{\underset{\text{ }}{\text{C}}} - \text{H}$	Butanal	Butyraldehyde

Aromatic aldehydes:

CHO

Benzaldehyde
 (or)
 Benzene carbaldelyde



2-phenyl ethanal (IUPAC)
 (or)

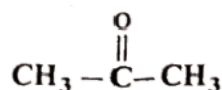
Phenyl acetaldehyde (common)

2.Ketones:

Compound

IUPAC Name

Common name



2-propanone

Acetone(or)

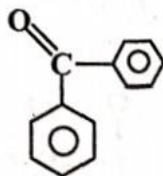
Dimethyl ketone



2-Butanone

Ethyl.methyl ketone

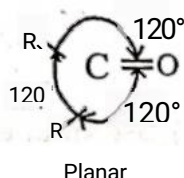
CH₃



Aceto phenone

Benzo phenone

In these compounds carbonyl carbon undergo sp² hybridisation and having planar shape. The Bond angle is 120°.

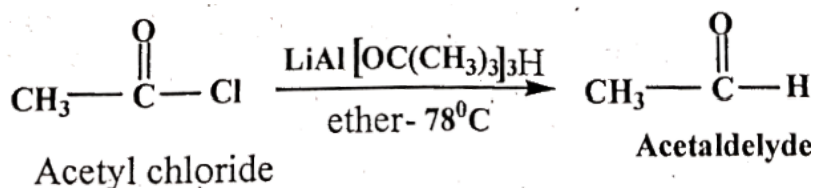
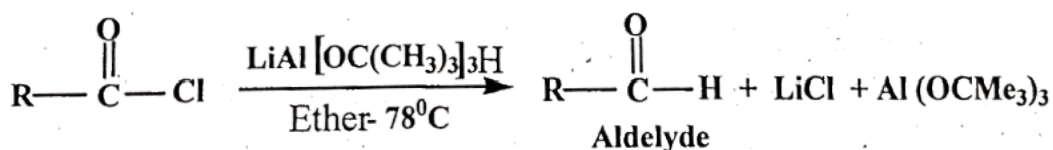


Preparation methods:

I.Preparation of Aldehydes & ketones:

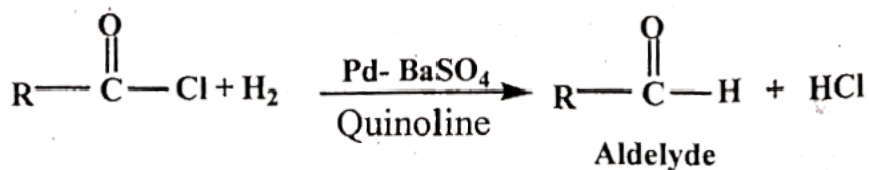
1.From acid chlorides:

Reaction of acid chlorides with Lithium tri tert.butoxy aluminium hydride(LBAH)in presence of ether at -78°C gives aldehydes.



Rosemund's reduction (only for aldehydes):

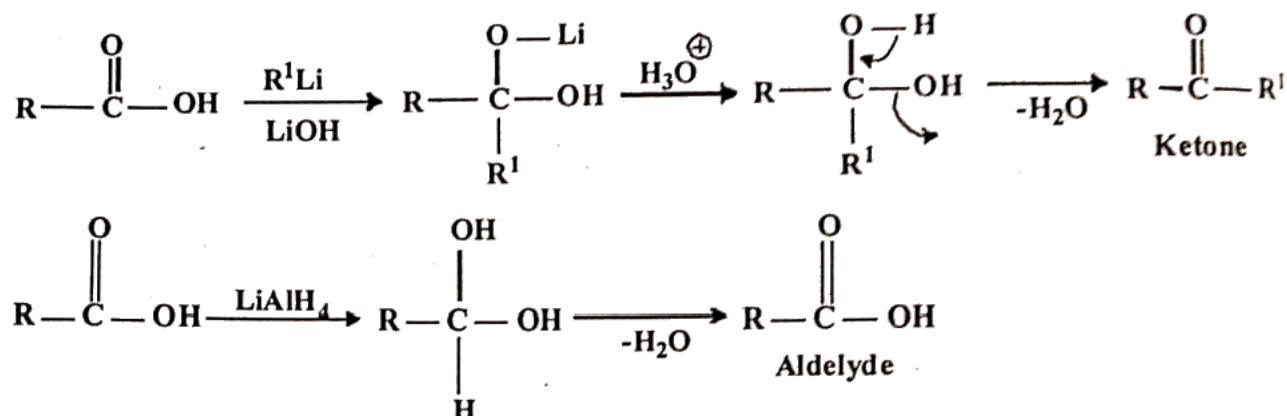
Reduction of acid chlorides with Pd/BaSO₄ in presence of quinoline gives aldehydes.





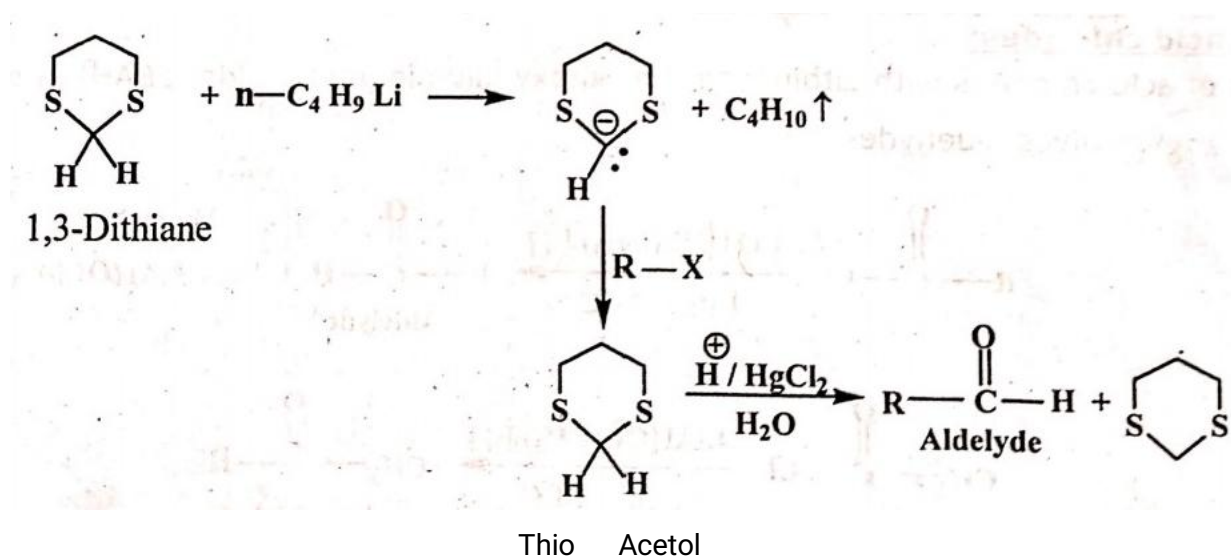
3. from carboxylic acids:

Carboxylic acids react with LiAlH_4 (or) alkyl lithium (R-Li) to form carbonyl compounds,

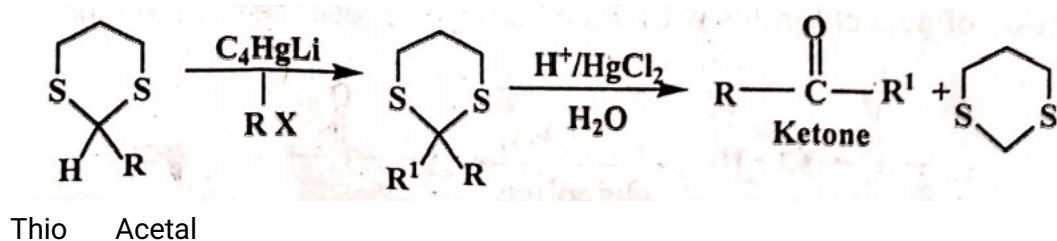


4. from 1,3-dithianes:

1,3-dithiane reacts with n-butyl lithium first to give 1,3-dithiane anion, which reacts with R-X to form thioacetal, which on reaction with HgCl_2 in acid followed by hydrolysis gives carbonyl compound,

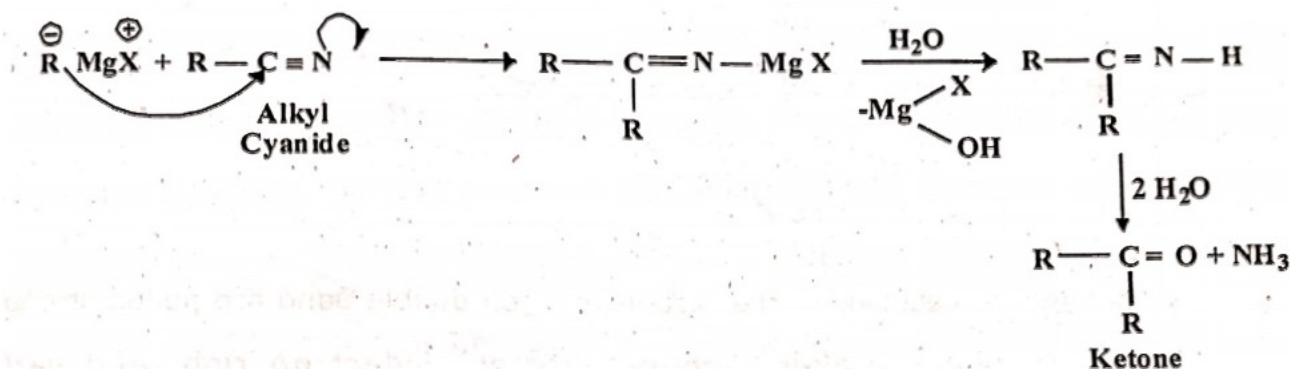
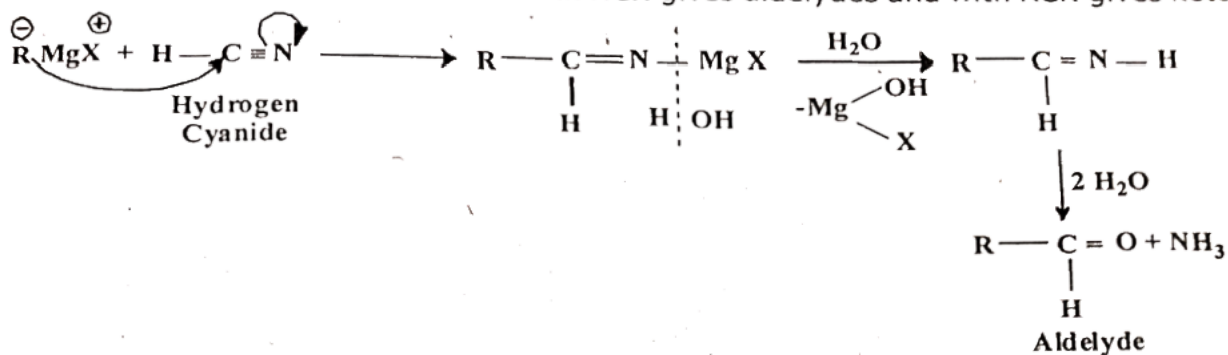


Alkylation and hydrolysis of thioacetal gives ketone



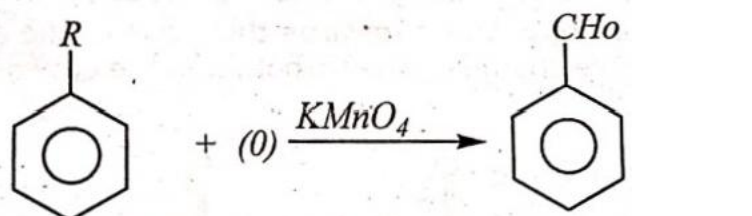
5. From nitriles/Grignard reagents:

Grignard reagent (RMgX) reacts with HCN gives aldehydes and with RCN gives ketone



Special methods:

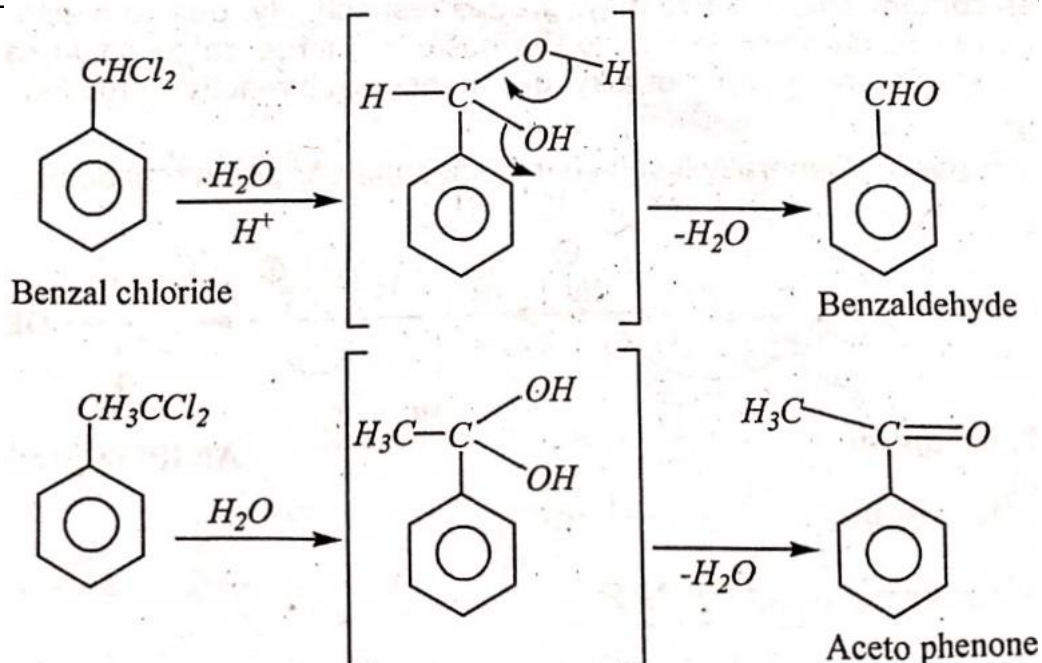
1. Oxidation of arenes: Oxidation of alkyl benzene (or) arenes with KMnO_4 gives benzaldehyde



Benzaldehyde

($\text{R} = -\text{CH}_3, -\text{CH}_2\text{CH}_3, -\text{CH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{CH}_3, \dots$)

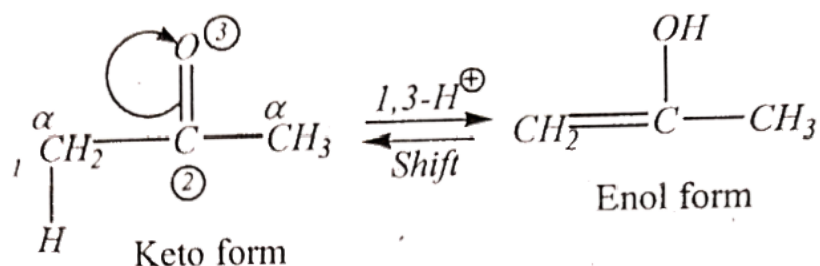
2. Hydrolysis of benzal halides: Hydrolysis of benzal halides gives benzaldehyde (or) acetophenone.



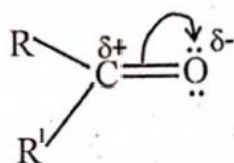
PHYSICAL PROPERTIES

1. keto-enol tautomerism Ketones (Aldehydes) with α -H atoms tautomerises to form enol, compound is known as keto-enol tautomerism

1,3-H shift is called tautomerism



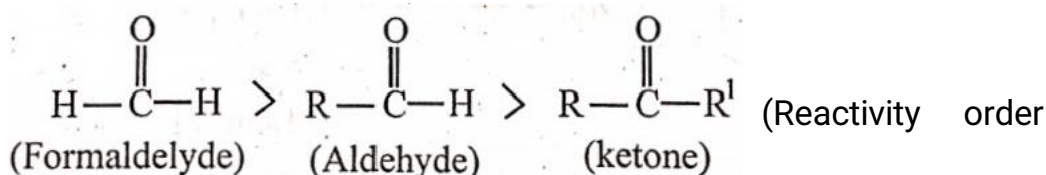
2. Reactivity of carbonyl group in aldehydes & ketones:



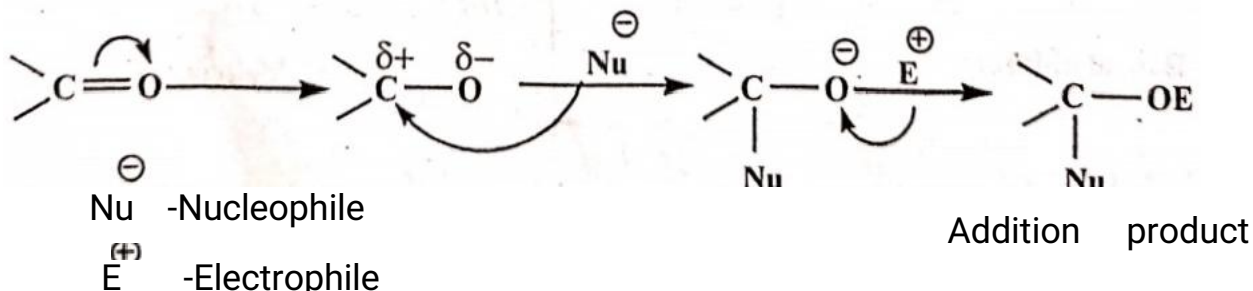
The mobile π -electrons of the carbon-oxygen double bond are pulled strongly towards oxygen atom, which makes carbonyl oxygen^{δ-} electron rich, and carbon^{δ+} electron deficient. The positive charge on the carbonyl carbon facilitates the attacking of nucleophile. So carbonyl compounds undergo nucleophilic addition reactions.

The reactivity of the carbonyl group towards the nucleophilic addition reactions depends upon the magnitude of positive charge on the carbon, and the crowding around the carbonyl carbon atom.

Ex:

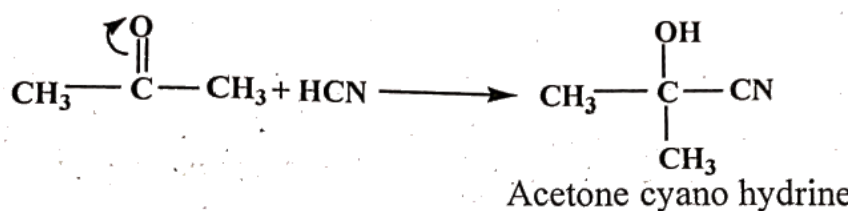
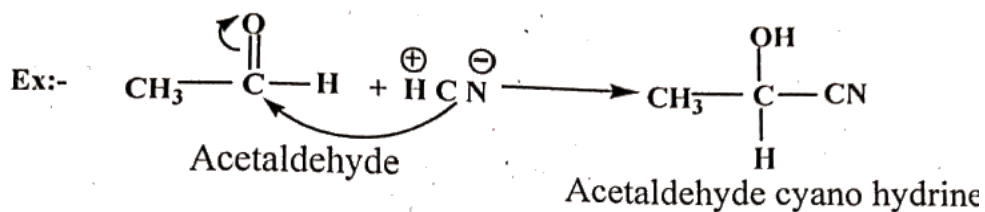
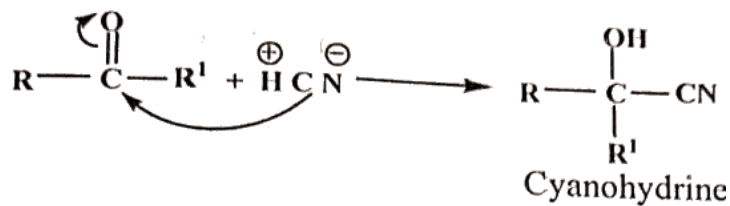
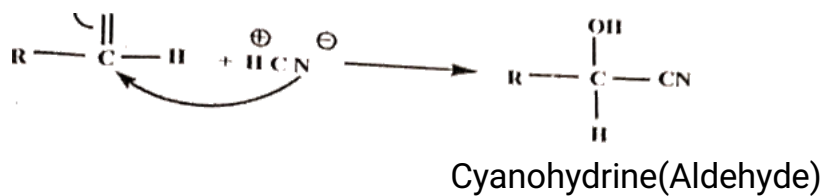


To observe the above reactivity order. We concluded that reactivity of aldehydes is more than ketone. This is explained as follows. Formaldehyde has no alkyl groups, whereas other aldehyde and ketones contain one and two alkyl groups respectively. Due to electron-releasing nature of alkyl groups (+I.E) partially neutralize the positive charge on carbonyl carbon, hence reactivity also decreases. And the number of alkyl groups increases, reactivity further decreases.



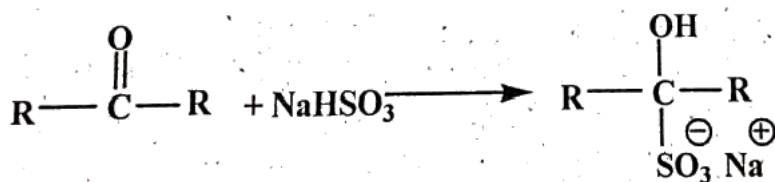
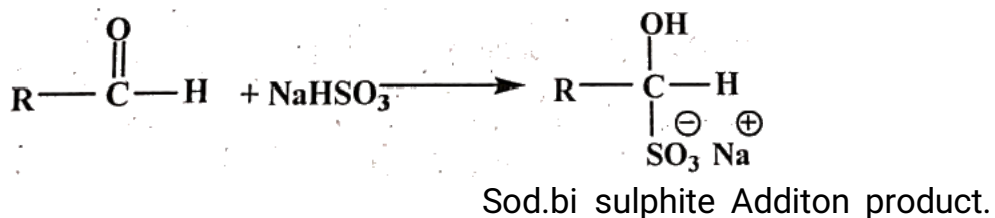
Nucleophilic addition reactions (NAR)

1. Addition with HCN: Addition of HCN to a carbonyl compound gives cyanohydrins.



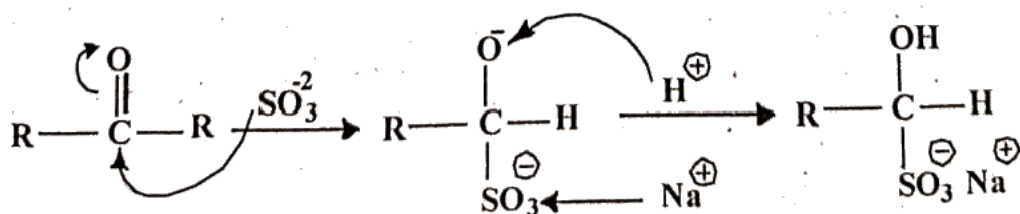
2.Addition with NaHSO₃(Sod.bisulphite):

Carbonyl compounds adds with NaHSO₃to form bisulphite addition products.



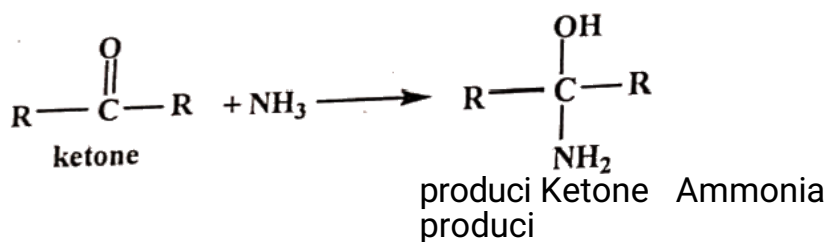
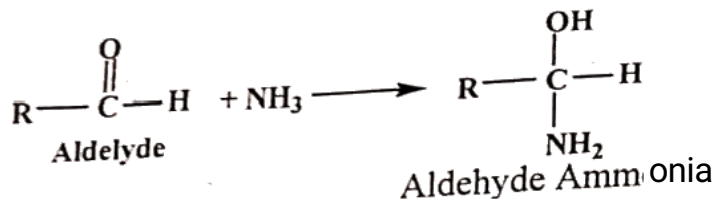
Mech:- NaHSO₃ ————— Na⁺ + HSO₃⁻

HSO₃⁻ ————— H⁺ + SO₃²⁻

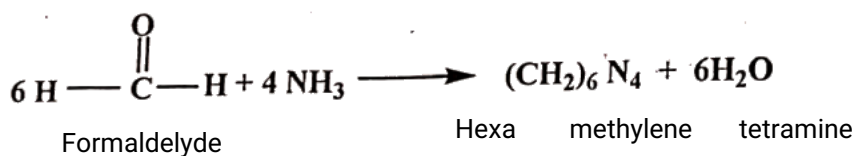


3.Addition with Ammonia (NH₃):

Addition of carbonyl compound with NH₃to give addition products



Formaldehyde reacts with NH_3 to form Hexamethylene tetramine (or) Urotropine (an addition product).

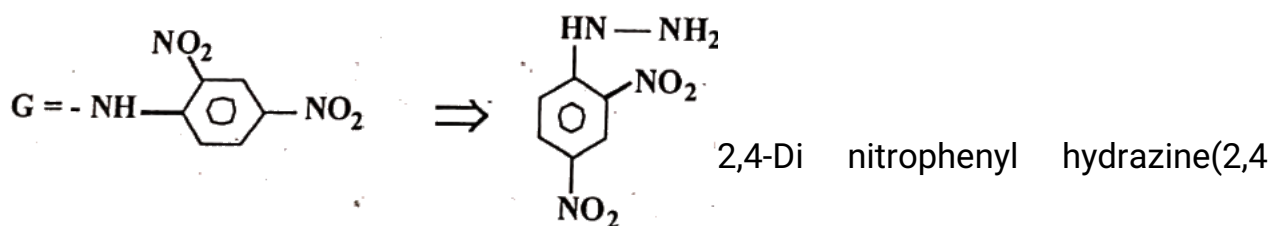
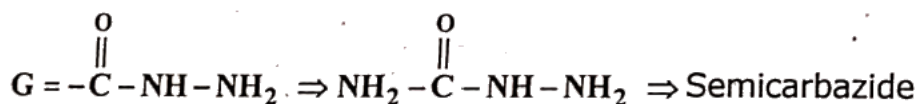


4. Addition with Ammonia derivatives ($\text{H}_2\text{N-G}$):

Carbonyl compounds add with $\text{H}_2\text{N-G}$ (derivatives of ammonia) to form corresponding addition products.

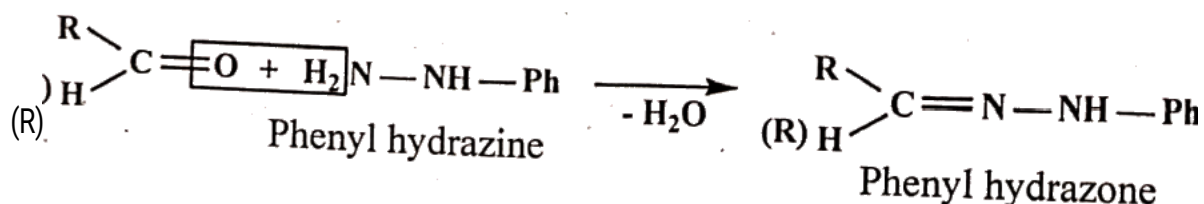
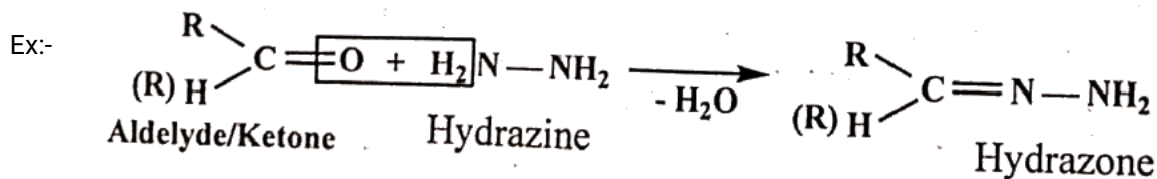
If $\text{G} = -\text{NH}_2 \rightarrow \text{NH}_2-\text{NH}_2$ - Hydrazine

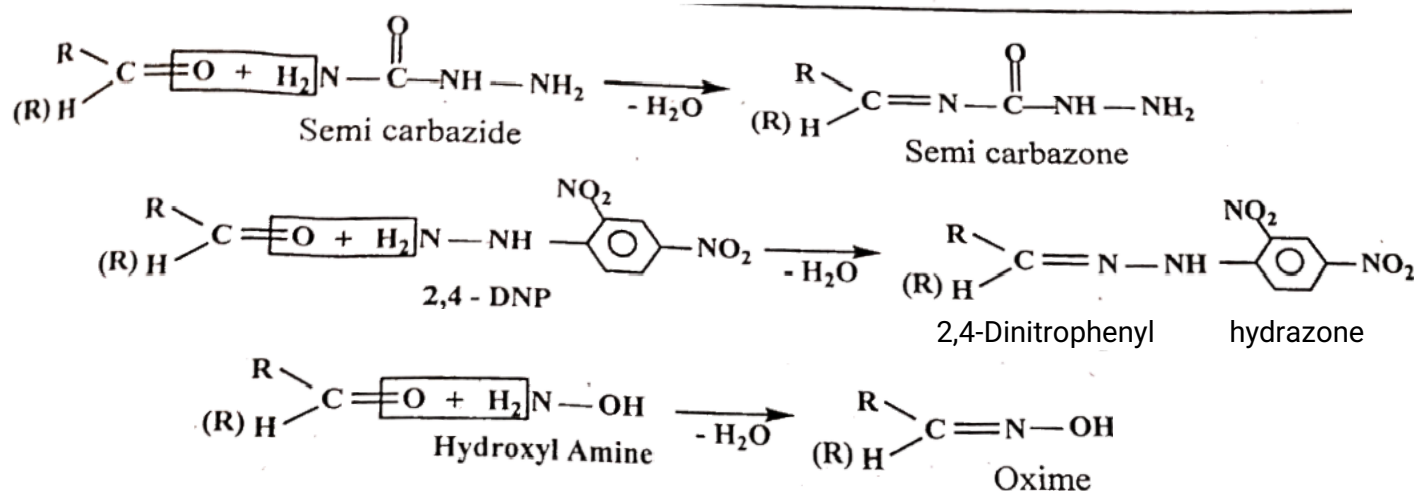
$\text{G} = -\text{NH-Ph} \rightarrow \text{Ph-NH-NH}_2$ - Phenylhydrazine



DNP)

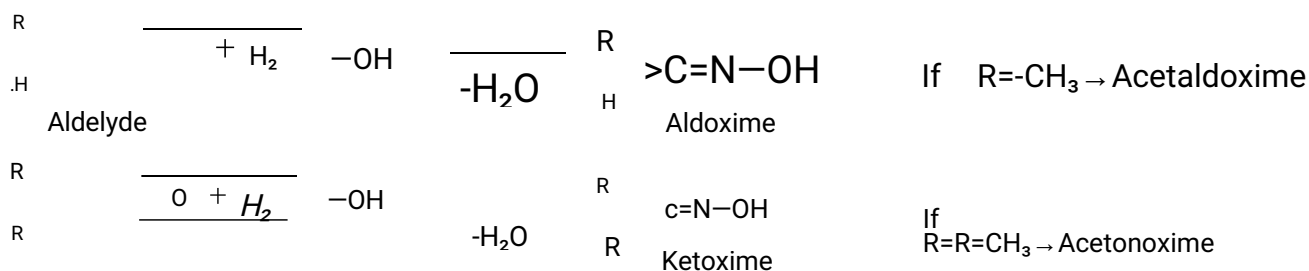
$\text{G} = -\text{OH} \rightarrow \text{NH}_2-\text{OH}$ - Hydroxylamine





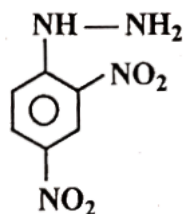
5. Reaction with hydroxyl amine NH_2OH :

Aldelydes ketones reacts with $\text{NH}_2\text{-OH}$ to formaldoximes ketoximes respectively



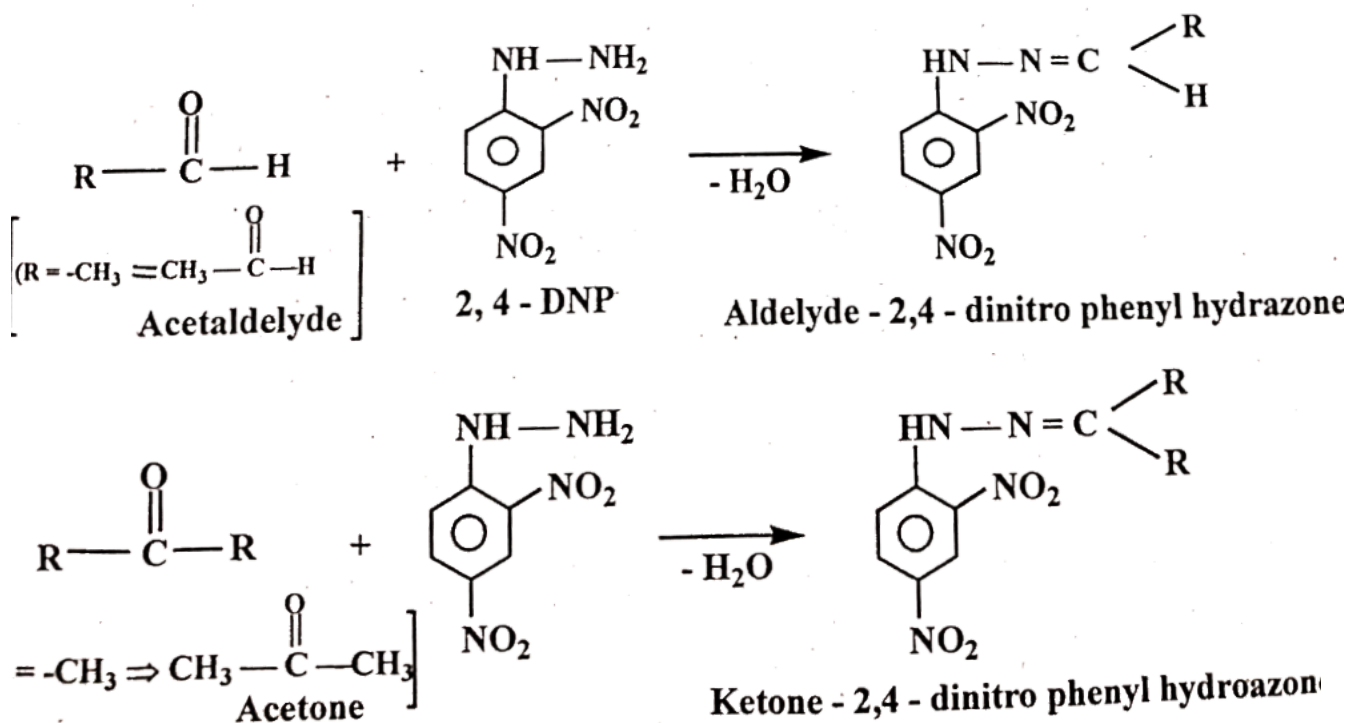
6, Reaction with 2,4-DNP

Aldelydes and ketones reacts with 2,4-DNT to form 2,4-dinitrophenyl hydrazones.



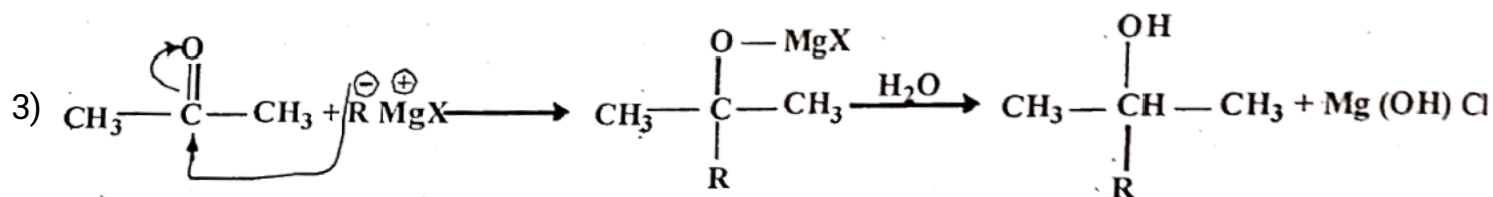
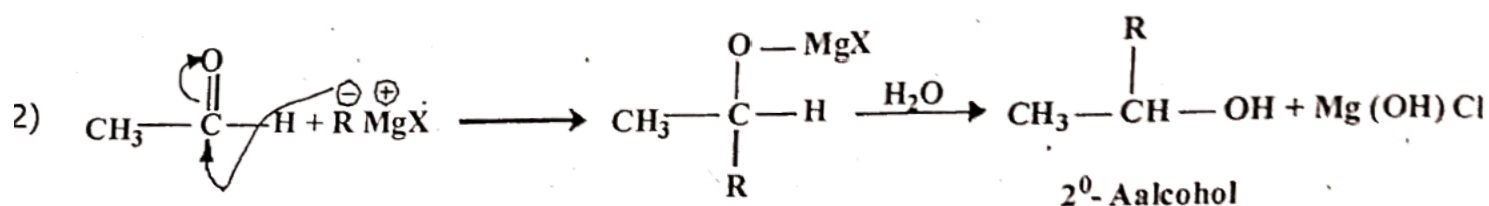
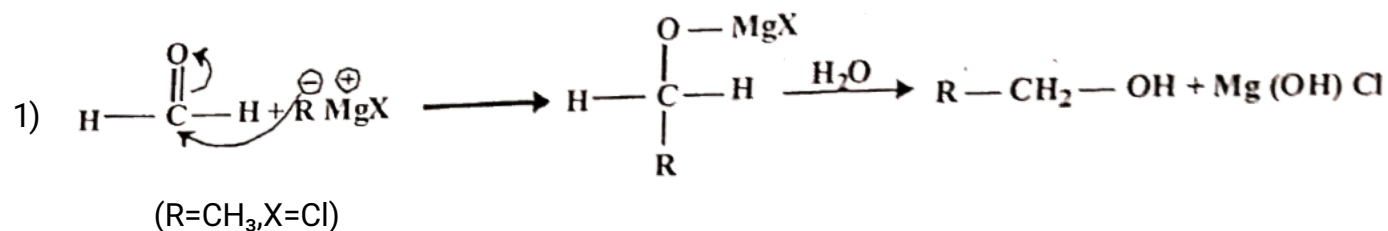
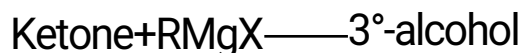
2,4-DNP(2,4-dinitrophenyl hydrazine)

Ex:-

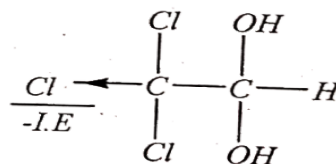
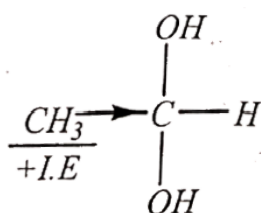
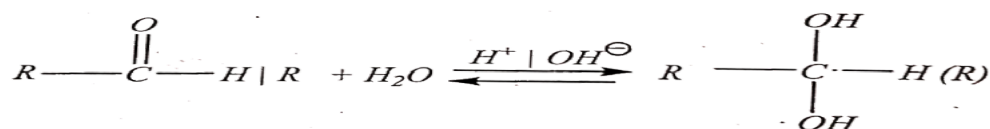


7. Reaction with RMgX:

Carbonyl compounds react with Grignard reagent (RMgX) to form 1°, 2°, 3°-alcohol

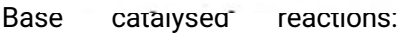


8. Addition with H₂O (or) Hydrate formation: Aldehydes, ketones react with water in presence of acid / base to form hydrates.

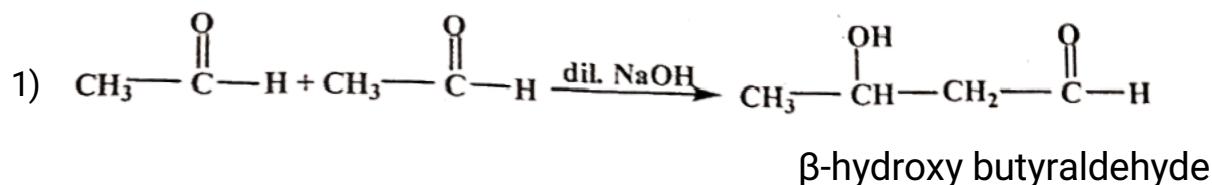


9. Addition with alcohol;

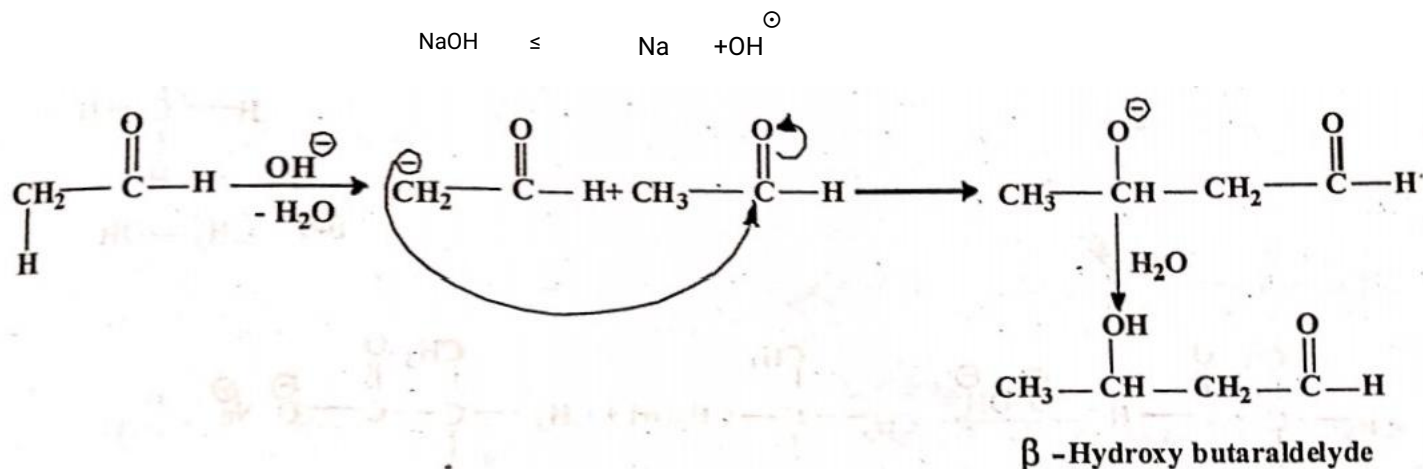
Alcohols react with aldehydes in the presence of HCl to form unstable addition product hemiacetal, which on further reaction with alcohol to form stable compound known as acetal.



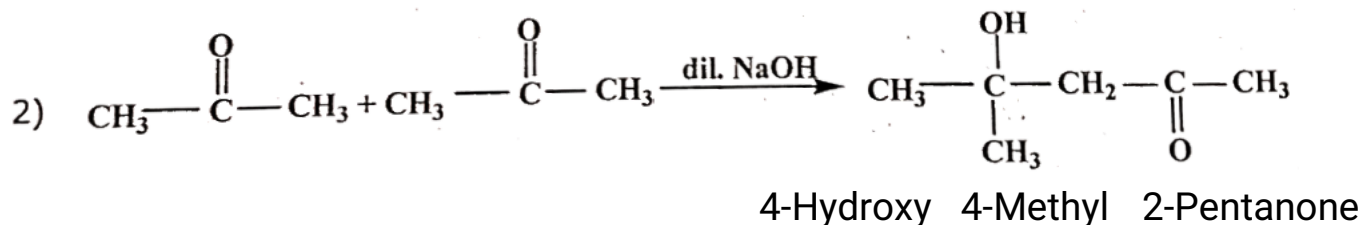
.Aldol condensation reaction; Aldehydes containing α -hydrogens undergo self-addition in the presence of dil. base (NaOH) to form β -hydroxy aldehyde (Aldol) is known as aldol condensation.



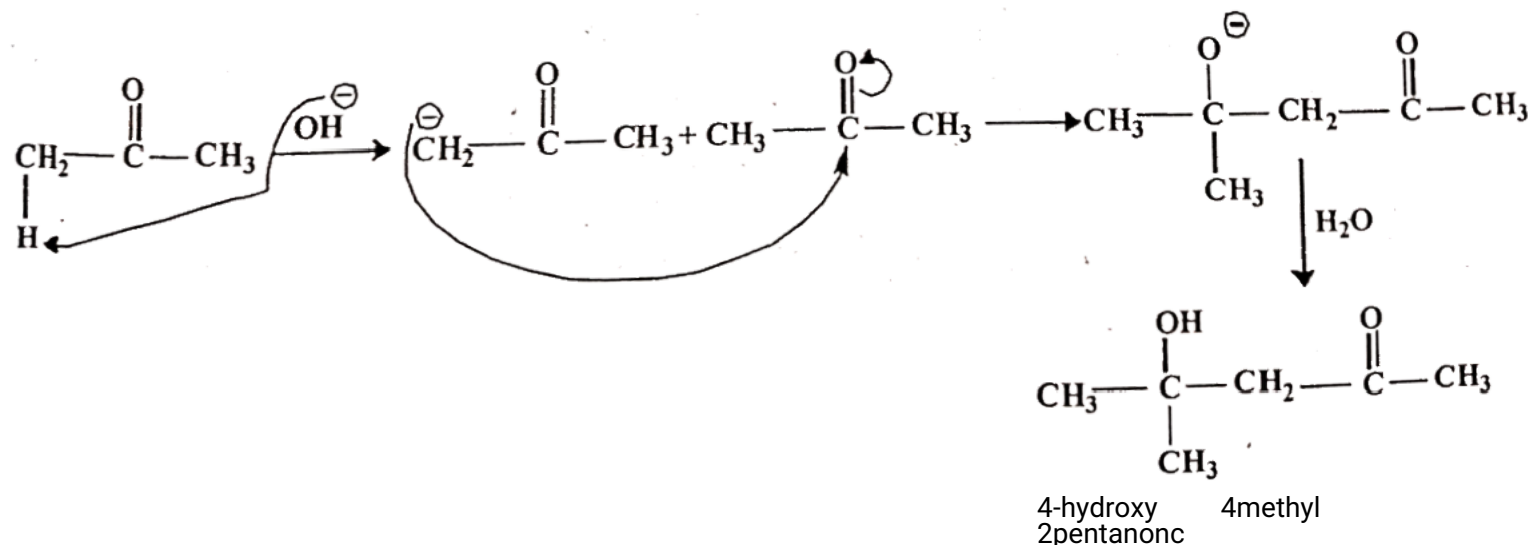
Mechanism:



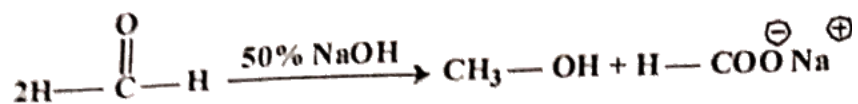
2) Self addition of ketones containing α -hydrogens in presence of dil. base to form β -hydroxy ketone (ketol).



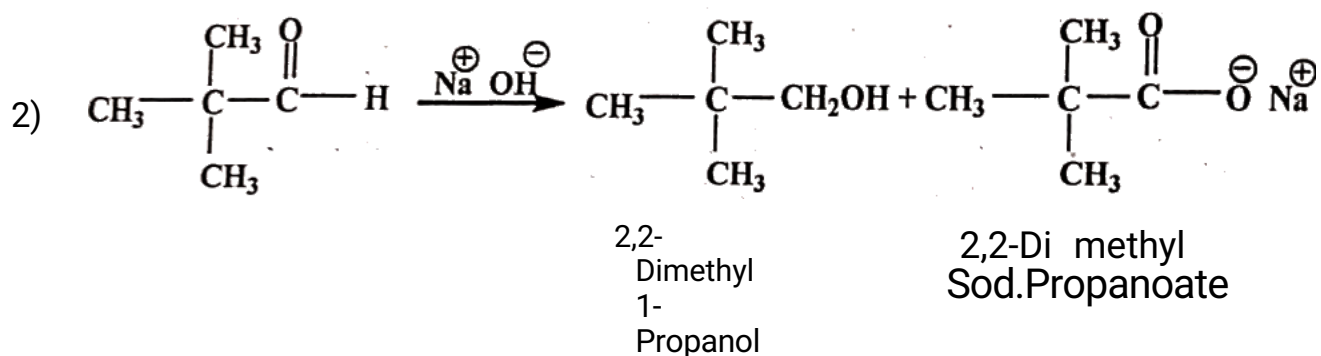
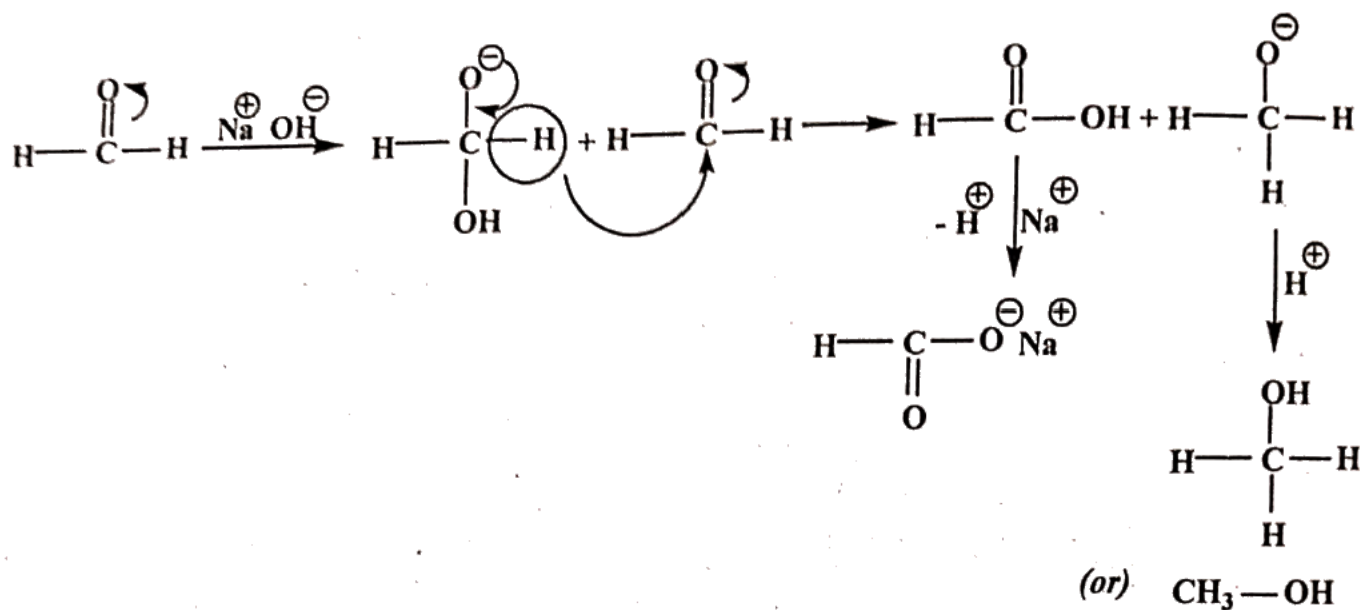
Mechanism



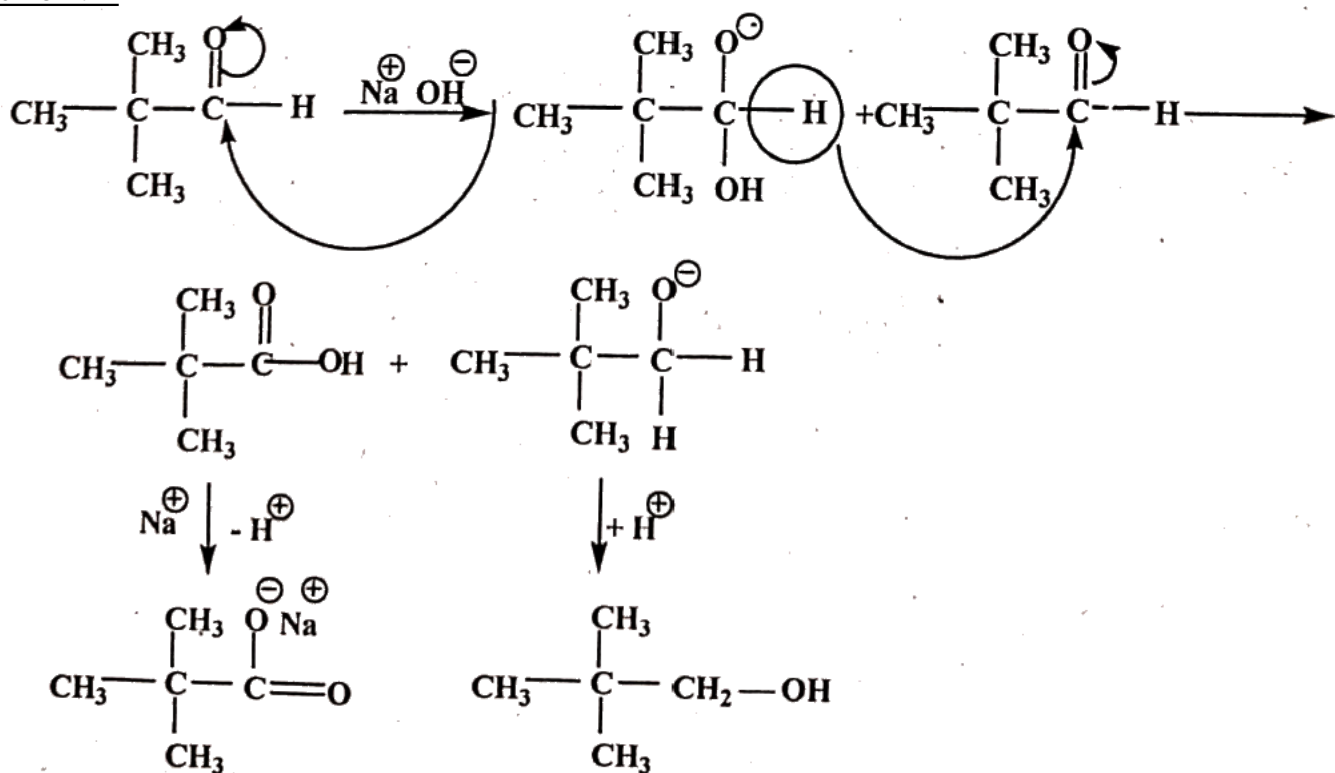
2. Cannizzaro's reaction



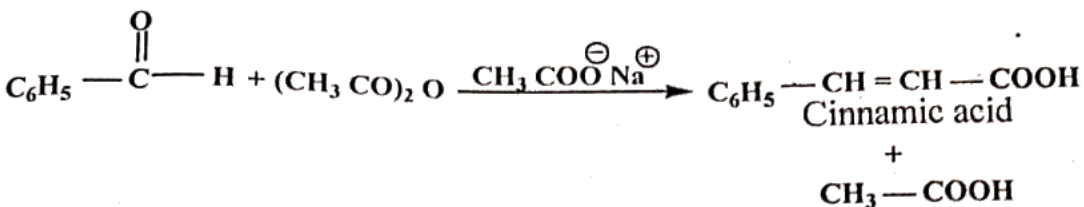
Mechanism:



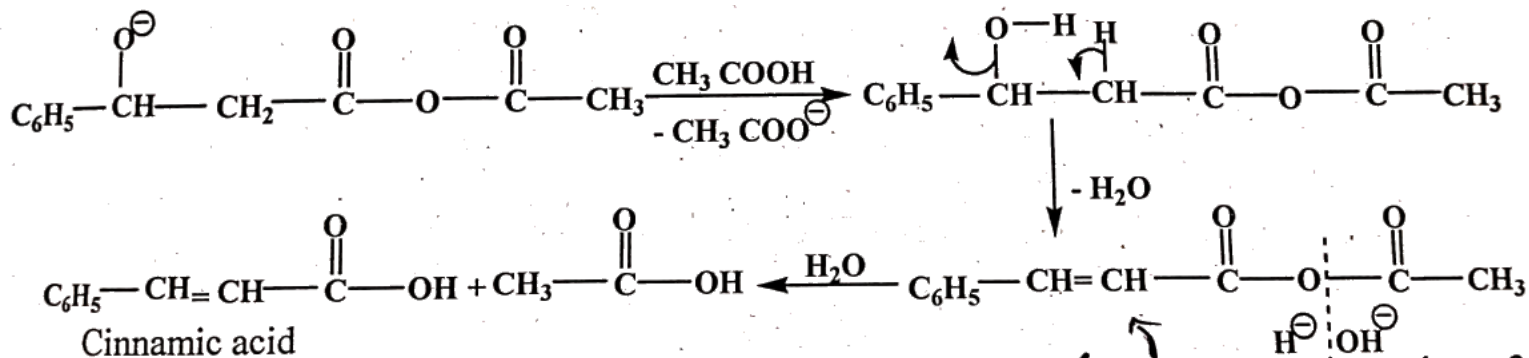
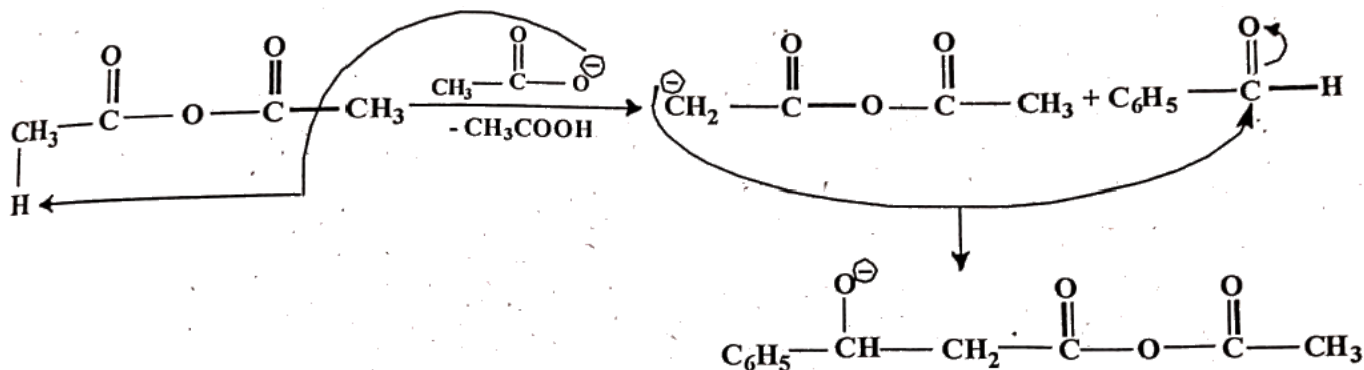
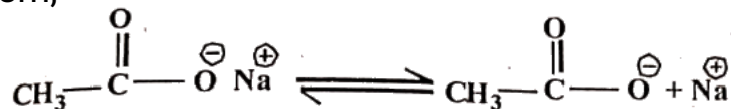
Mechanism:



3. perkin reaction :benzaldehyde reacts with acetic anhydride in presence of sodium acetate to form cinnamic acid is called perkin reaction

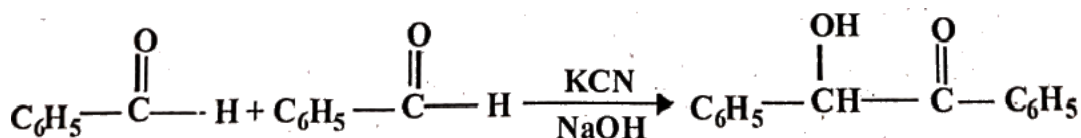


Mechanism;



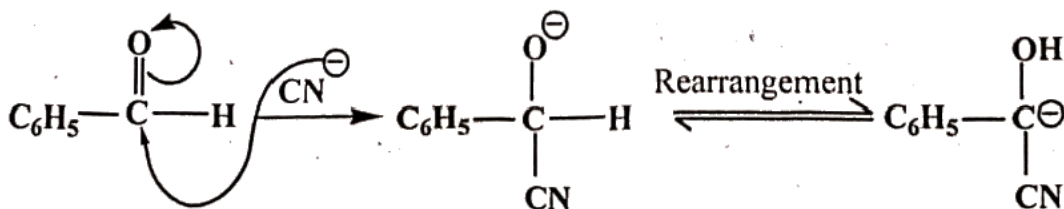
[see in the running not]

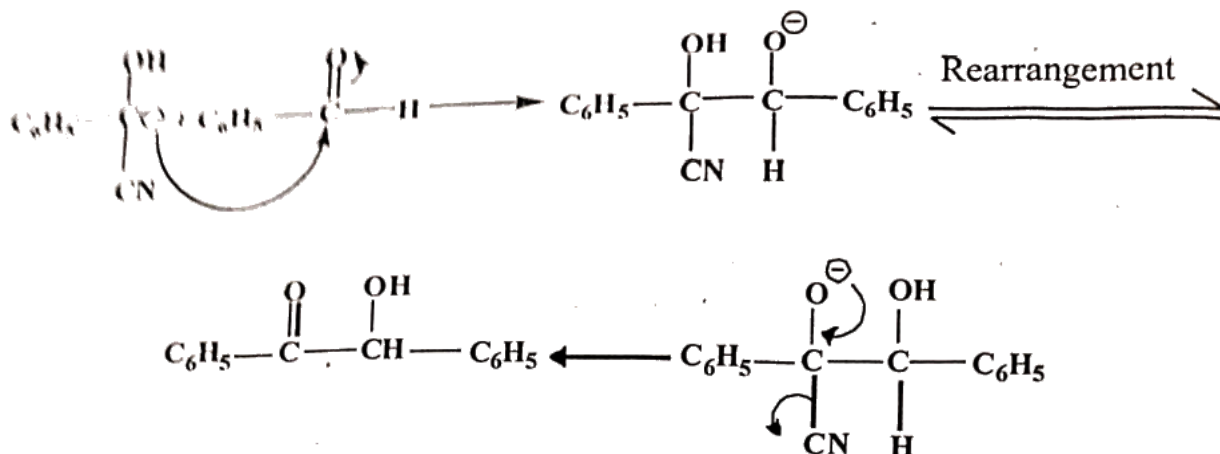
4. **Benzoin condensation:** Two moles of benzaldehyde reacts with alcoholic KCN to form benzoin



Механизм

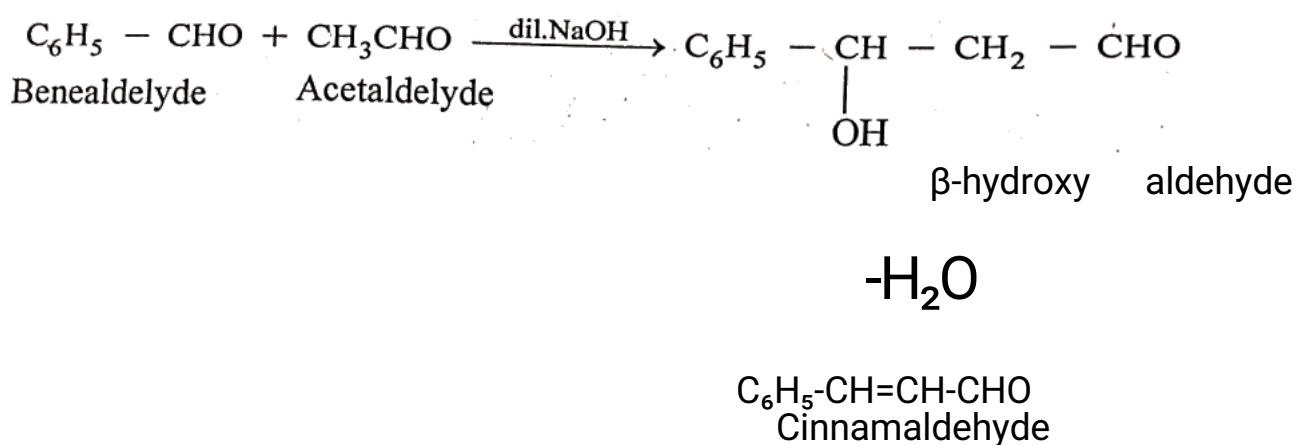
АЭЯ Я + CN[⊖]



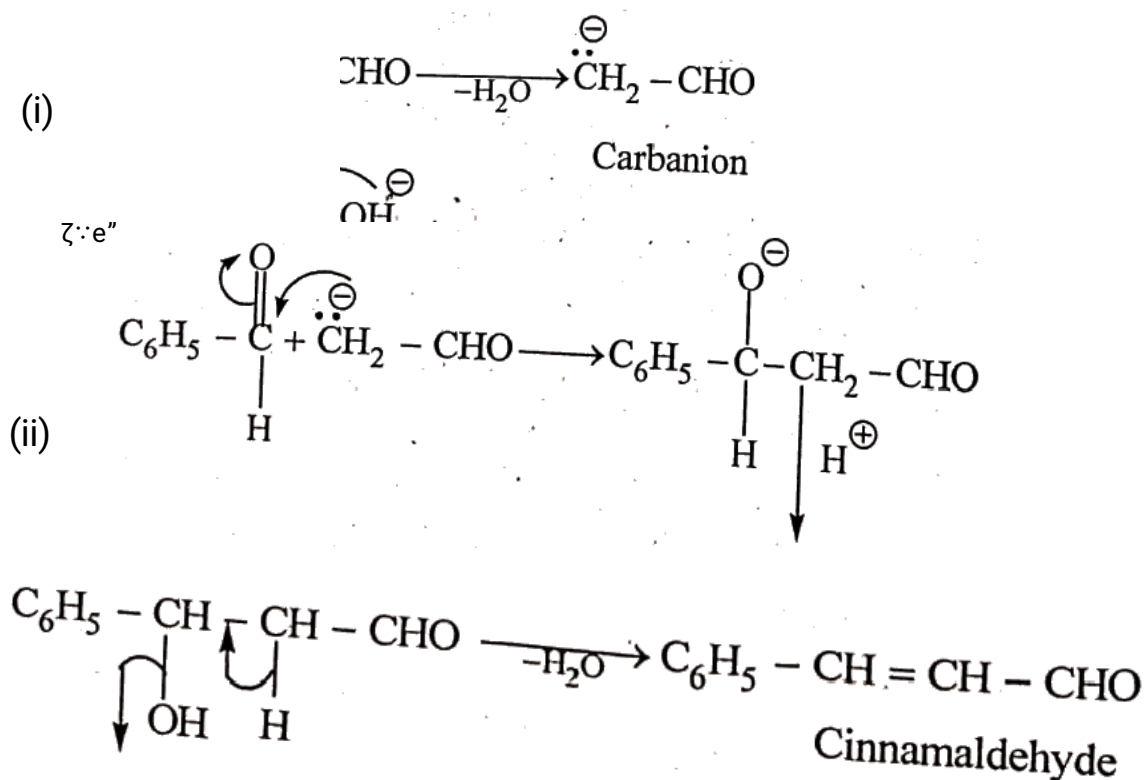


Claisen -schmidt reaction

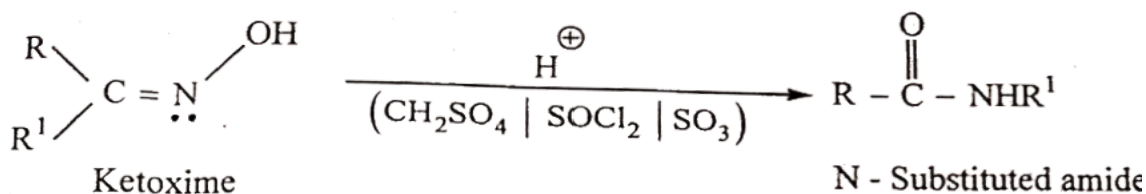
The base catalysed cross -aldolcondensation between an aromatic aldehyde and aliphatic aldehyde or a ketone is called claisen -schmidt reaction.



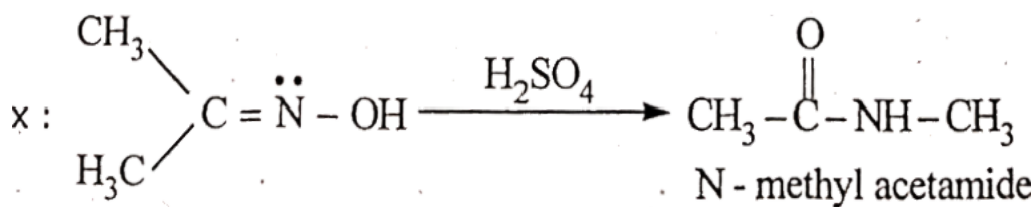
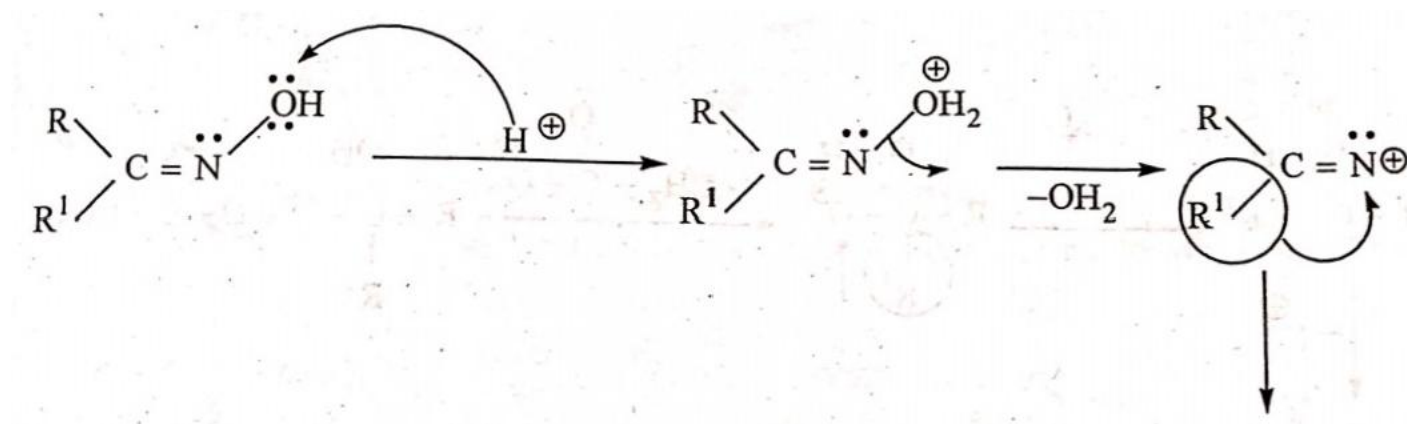
Mechanism



The acid catalyzed conversion of ketoximes into N-substituted amides is known as Beckmann rearrangement.

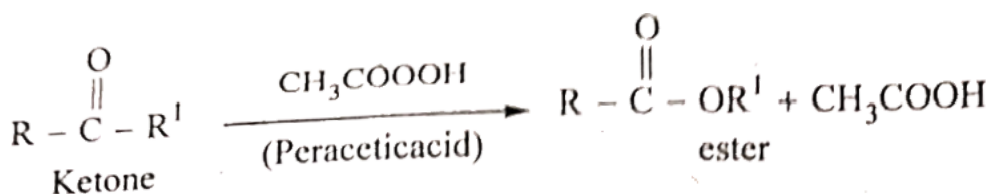


Mechanism :-

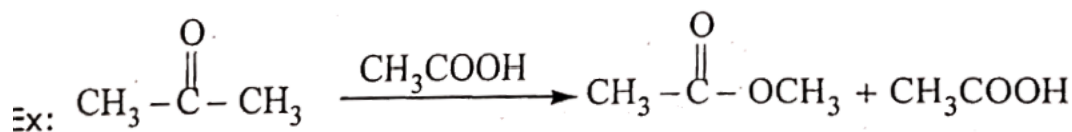
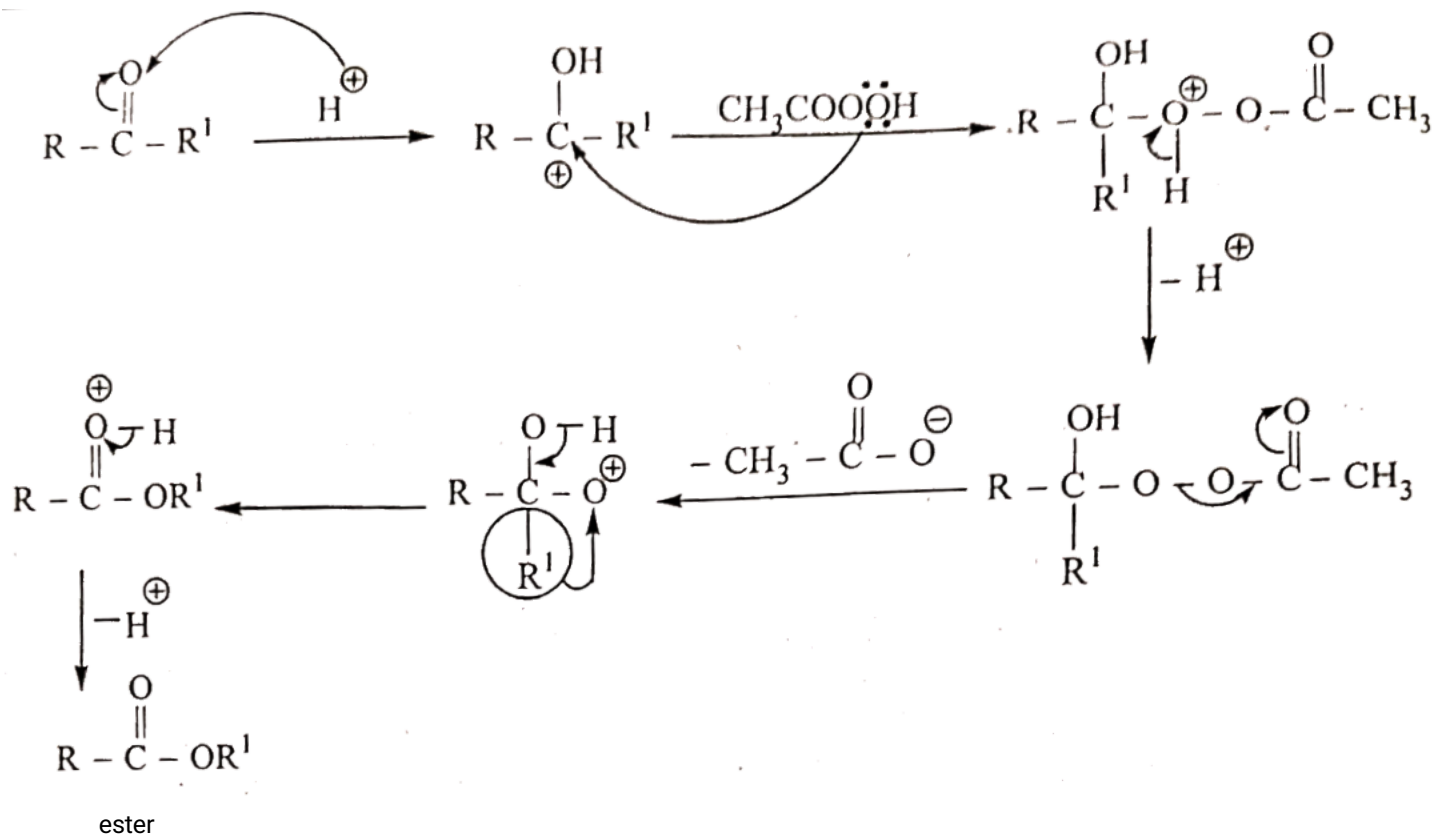


Bayers-villegers oxidation

Oxidation of ketones to esters by the reaction with peracids like peracetic acid perbenzoic acidis called baeyer villiger oxidation.

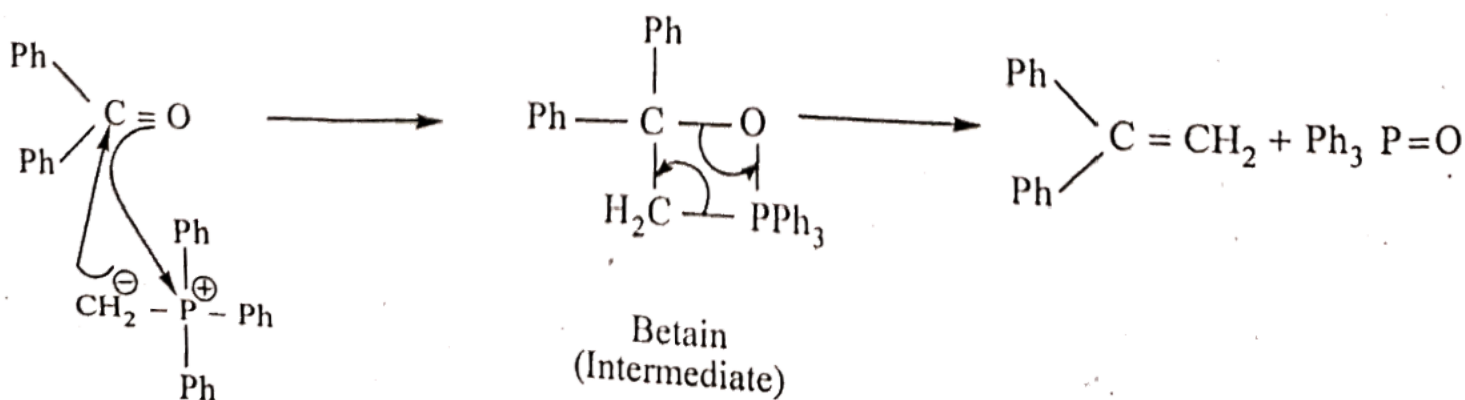
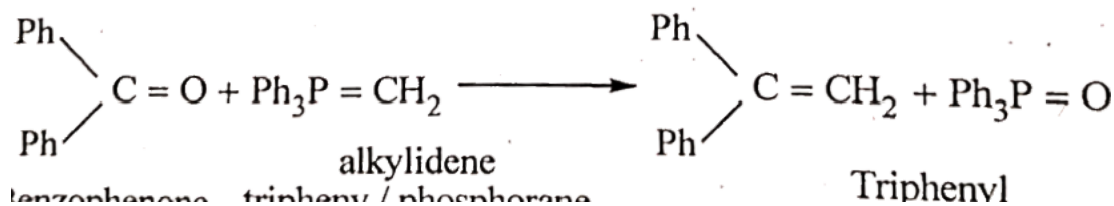


MECHANISM:



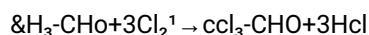
Acetone

Aldehydes and ketones react with alkylidene triphenyl-phosphorane (ylide) to give alkenes called Wittig reaction



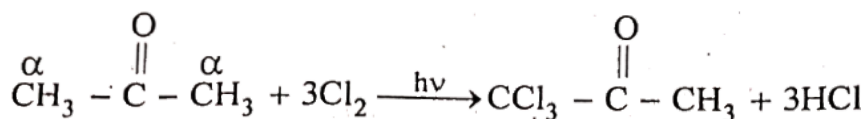
x -substitution reaction

Aldehydes and ketones with α -hydrogen atom(s) are replaced by chlorine atoms in presence of light.



Ex: Acetaldehyde

Trichloro acetaldehyde
(Chloral)



Ex:

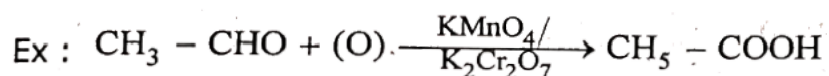
Acetone

Trichloro acetone

oxidation and reductions :-

(i) Oxidation :-

With strong oxidising agents like KMnO_4 , $\text{K}_2\text{Cr}_2\text{O}_7$, HNO_3 , aldehydes give carboxylic acids with same number of carbon atoms and ketones give carboxylic acids with less number of carbon atoms.

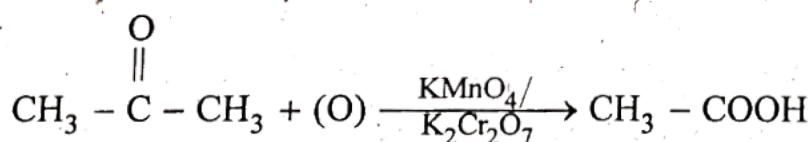


Acetaldehyde

Acetic acid

(C_2)

(C_2)



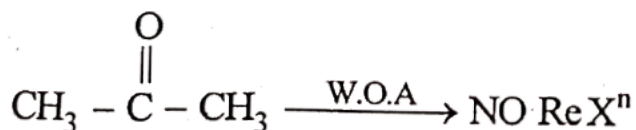
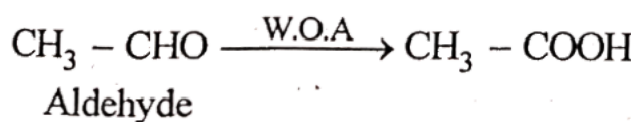
Acetone

Acetic acid

(C_3)

(C_2)

$\text{Br}_2/\text{H}_2\text{O}$Aldehydes give carboxylic acids but ketones do not oxidise by weak oxidising agents.



Ketone

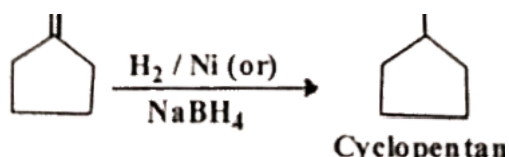
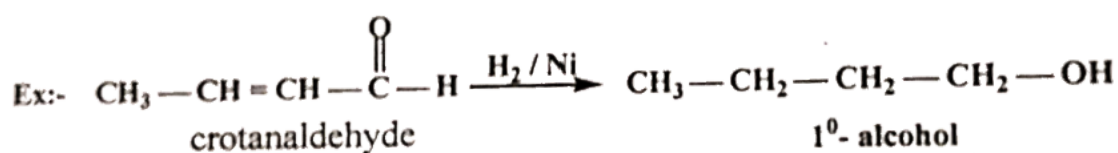
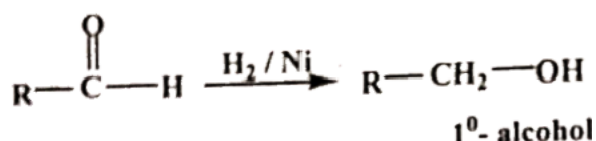
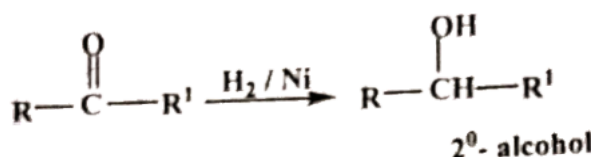
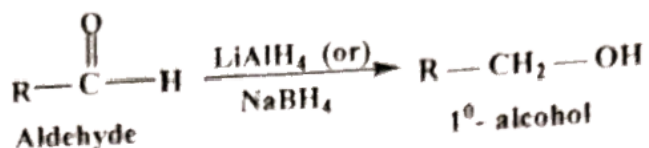
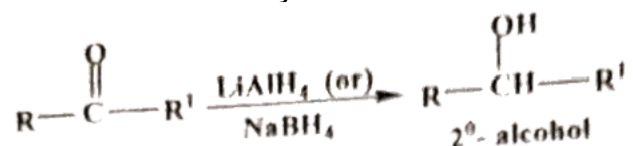
REDUCTION

9,stro

1. catalytic hydrogenation (or) Reduction with H_2/Ni :

Reduction of carbonyl compounds with H_2/Ni (or) $LiAlH_4$ (or) $NaBH_4$

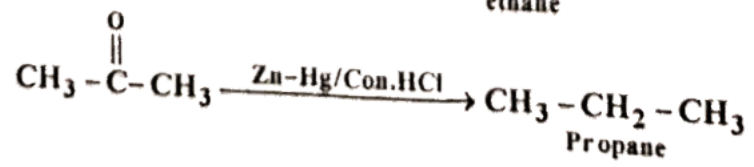
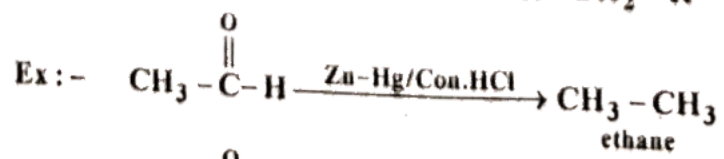
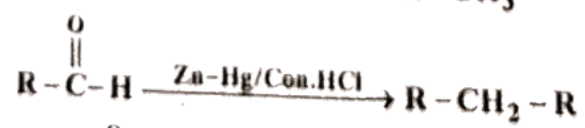
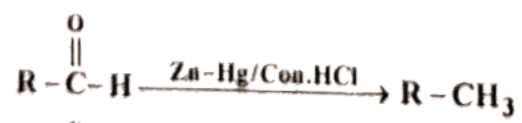
alcohols



2. Clemmenson reduction

Aldehydes and ketones reduced to hydrocarbons (Alkanes) in presence of Zinc amalgam and conc. HCl is called clemmenson reduction.

$Zn-Hg + \text{Conc. HCl}$ is called clemmenson reducing agent



63

63

63



63

63



63

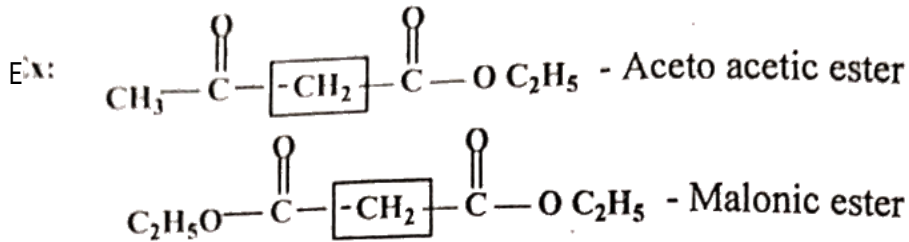
63

63



ACTIVE METHYLENE COMPOUNDS

groups ($>\text{C}=\text{O}$, $-\text{CN}$, $-\text{NO}_2$...)s known as "active methylene group", and the compounds contain such methylene group are known as "active methylene compounds".

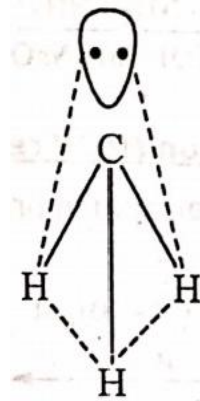


Structure of carbanion

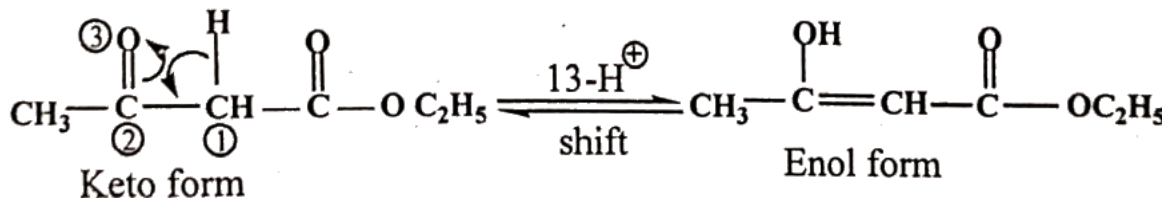
Ex: CH_3 methyl carbonion:

Hybridisation: Sp^3

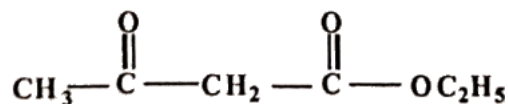
Shape: Pyramidal



Keto -Enol tautomerism: Acetoacetic ester shows keto enol tautomerism. This is because of α -Hydrogen atoms (Active methylene group). In this keto form, it is converted by tautomerism (1,3-H⁺ shift). Hence it is called keto enol tautomerism.

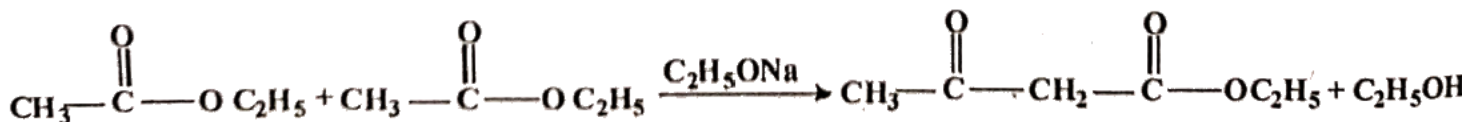


Aceto acetic Ester(or) Ethyl Acet Acetate(EAA):

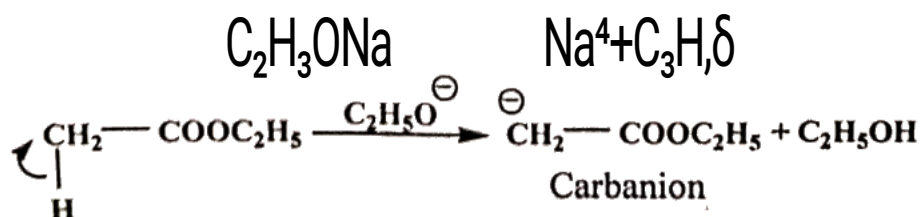


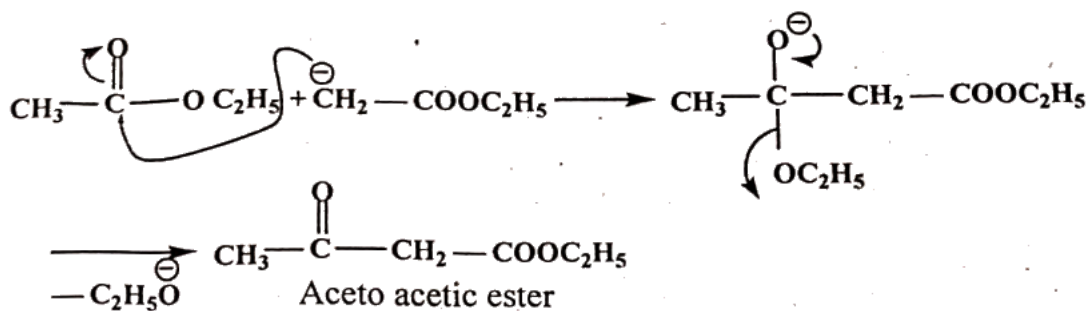
Preparation:

1. Claisen condensation: Condensation of two moles of ethyl acetate in the presence of SO Ethoxide to form Aceto acetic ester is called Claisen condensation.



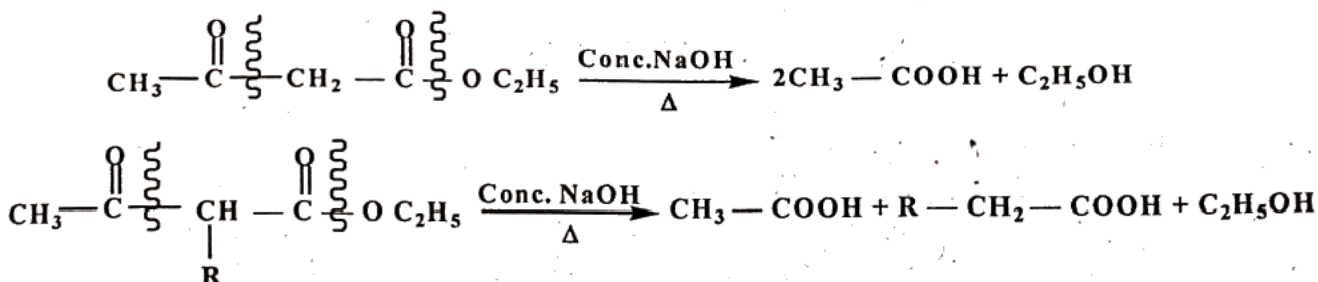
Mechanism:



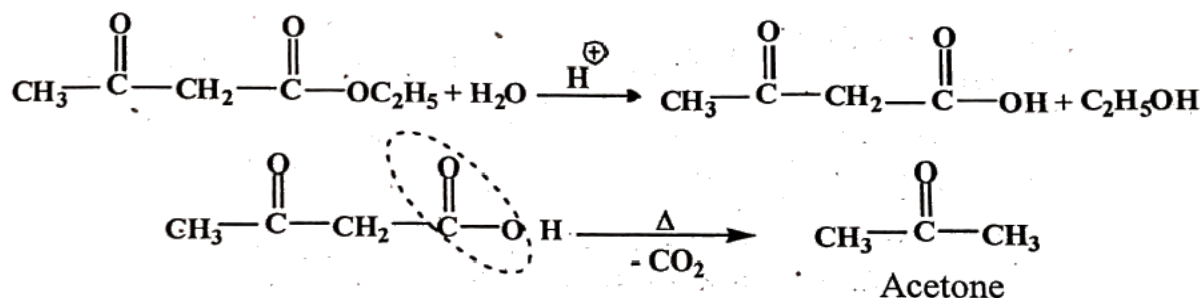


synthetic applications of acetoacetic ester

.Acidic hydrolysis: Hydrolysis of EAA with Conc.alcoholic KOH or NaOH gives carboxylic acids. Since here carboxylic acids are the main products, then hydrolysis is called acidic



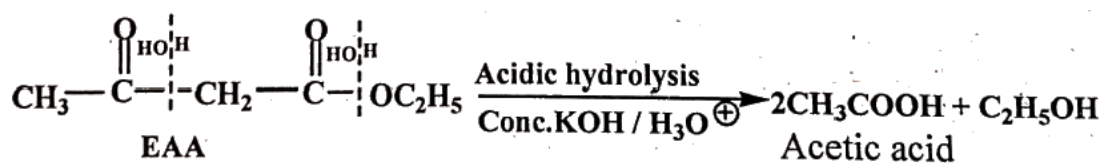
2. Ketonic hydrolysis: Hydrolysis of EAA with dilute acid (or) bases gives ketones.



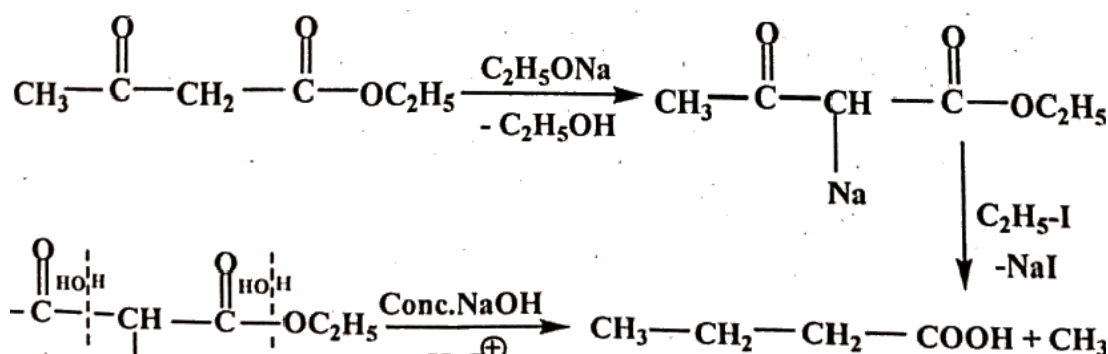
Application of EAA:

1. Preparation of Mono carboxylic acids: Hydrolysis of EAA and their derivatives gives mono carboxylic acids.

a) *Acetic acid*: ($\text{CH}_3\text{-COOH}$)

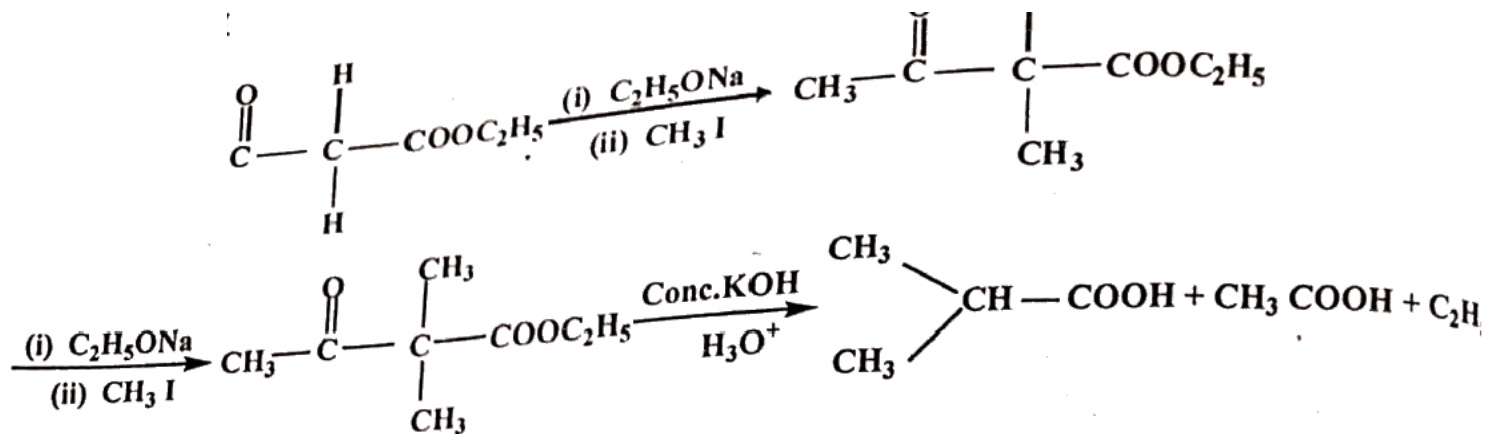


b) *Butanoic acid*:



corrected,

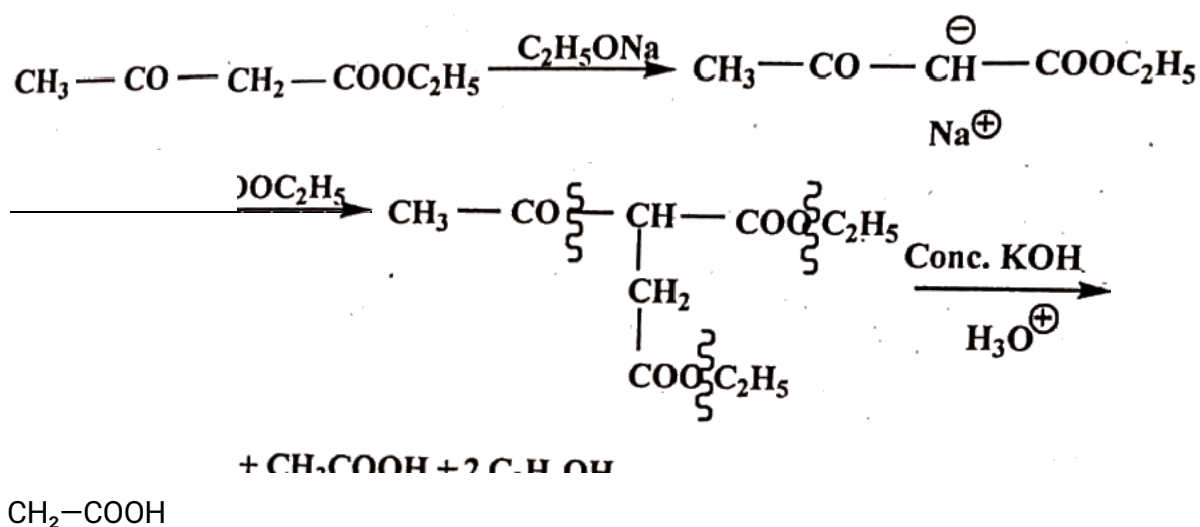
ISO BUTIRIC ACID



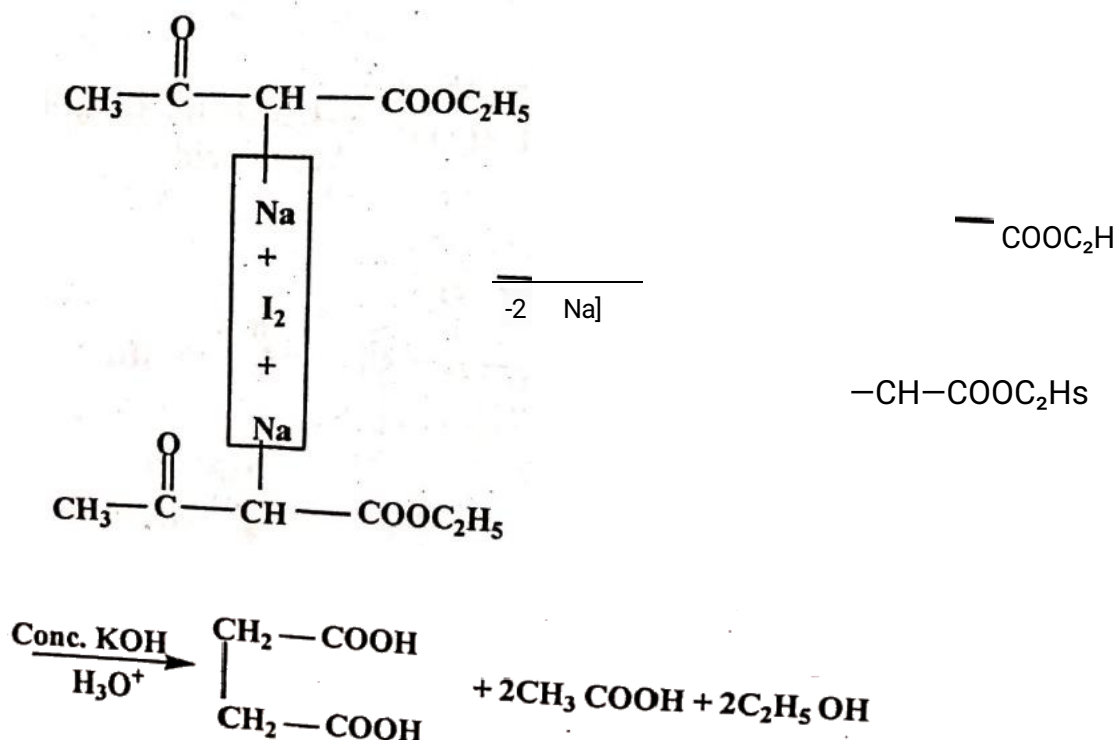
2. Preparation of dicarboxylic acid

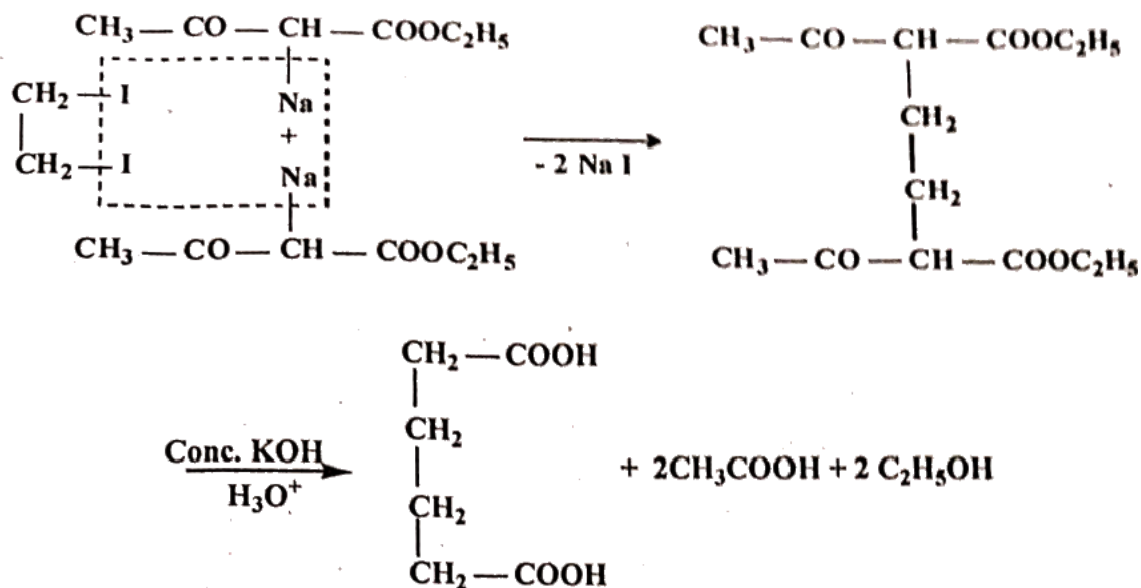
EAA reacts with chloro ethyl acetate followed by acidic hydrolysis with strong gives dicarboxylic acids.

Ex:(a) Succinic acid:

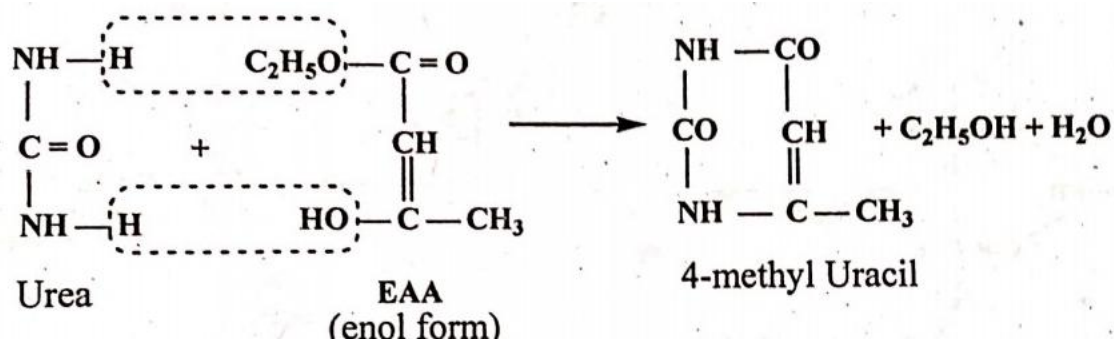


An alternate method used for preparation of succinic acid from EAA is as follows.





(C) Preparation of 4-methyl uracil: EAA reacts with urea to form 4-methyl uracil



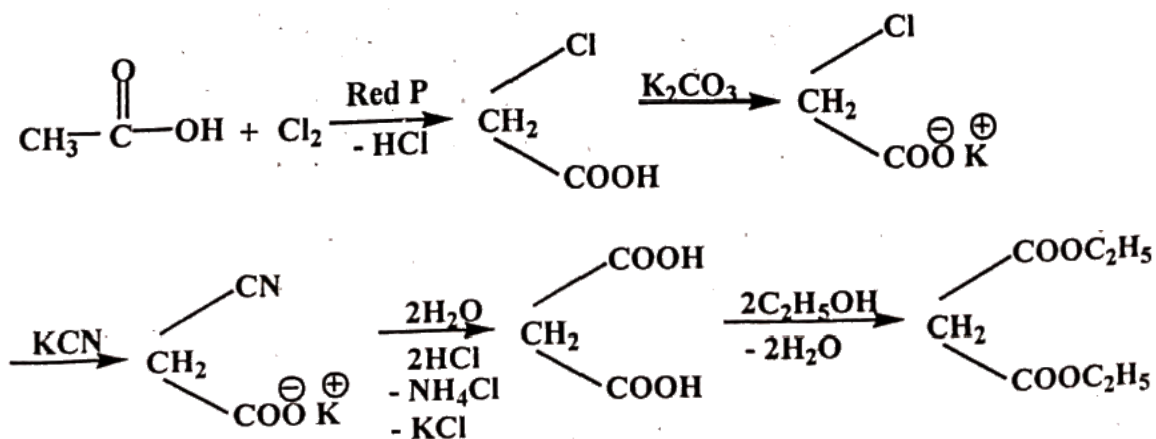
II. MALONIC ESTER

CH₂;

Preparation:

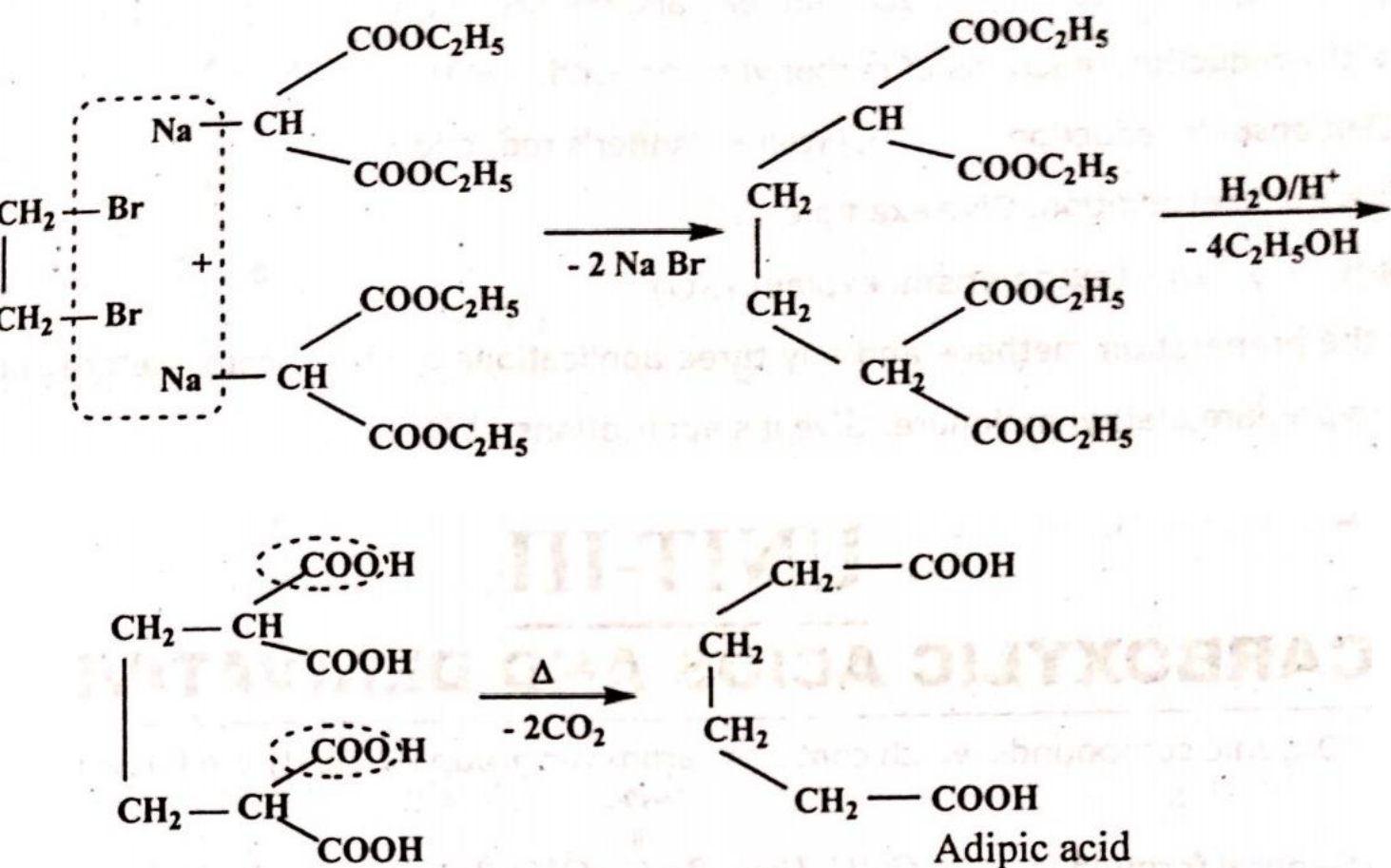
1. From acetic acid

Acetic acid reacts with Cl₂ / Red.P gives chloroacetic acid, which on reaction with K₂CO₃, KCN followed by hydrolysis with HCl and reaction with 2 moles of Ethyl alcohol gives malonic ester.

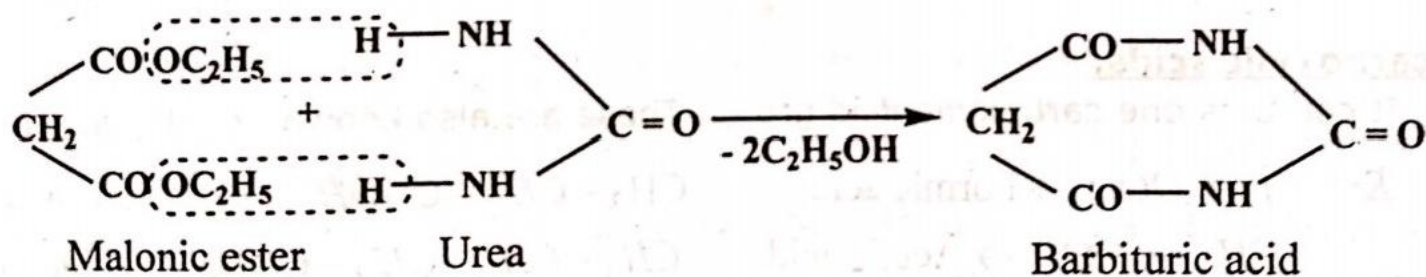


Preparation of adipic acid:

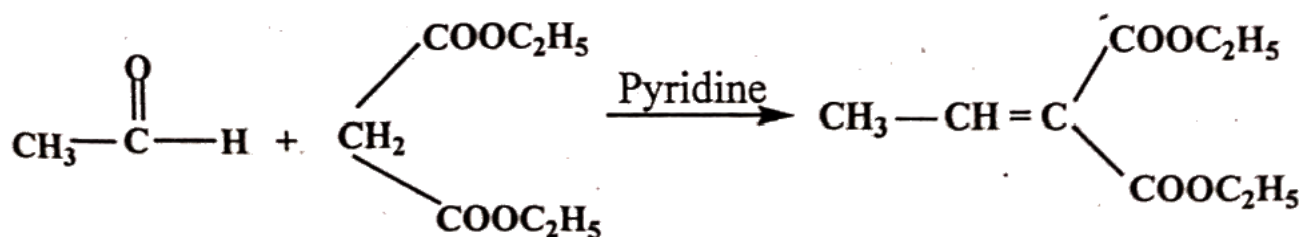
Two moles of mono sodium malonic ester reacts with 1,2-dibromo ethane followed by hydrolysis gives "Adipic acid".

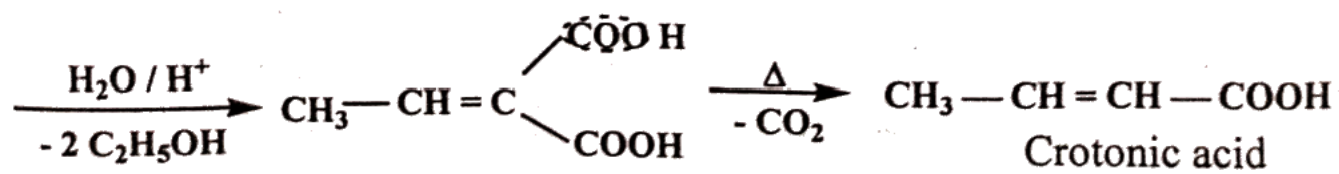


Preparation with urea: malonic ester reacts with Urea gives Barbituric acid



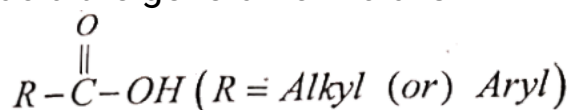
Knoevenagel reaction: Malonic ester reacts with aldehydes to form α,β -unsaturated carboxylic acids. This reaction is called the Knoevenagel reaction.





UNIT-III

Organic compounds which contain carboxylic acid group (-COOH) are known as carboxylic acids. The general formula is



2

Classification: Based on number of -COOH groups present, the carboxylic acids are classified

into 3 types,

MONO CARBOXYLIC ACIDS

It contains one carboxylic acid group. These are also known as fatty acids.

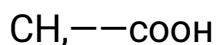
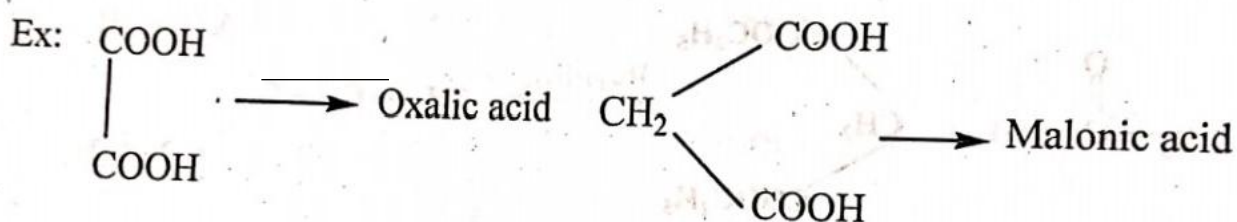
Ex.: $H-COOH$ — Formic acid

CH_3-CH_2-COOH — Propanoic acid

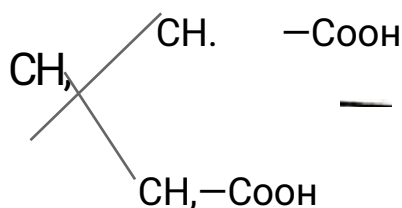
CH_3-COOH — Acetic acid

$CH_3-CH_2-CH_2-COOH$ — Butanoic acid

2) Dicarboxylic acids: These contain two carboxylic acid groups.



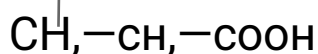
Succinic acid



Glutaric acid

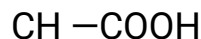
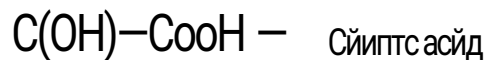


— 3 — Adipic acid



3) Tri carboxylic acids: these acids contain three -COOH groups

Ex: $\text{CH}_3\text{—COOH}$

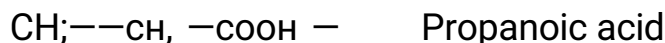


Моно Carboxylic acid

These are again classified into two types

1. saturated carboxylic acids: acid which contains saturated carbon chain.

Ex: $\text{CH}_3\text{—COOH}$ —» Ethanoic acid



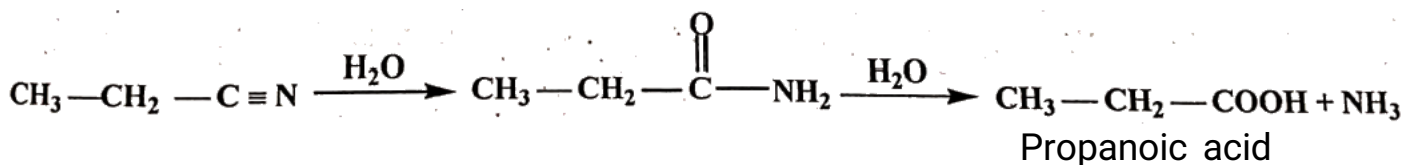
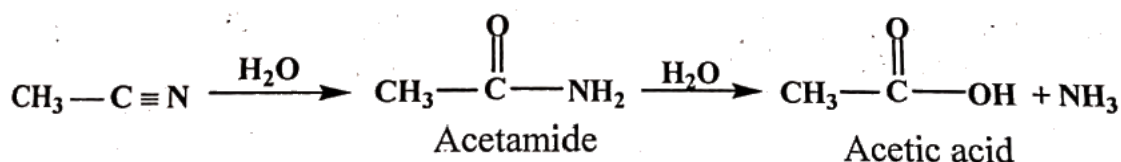
2. Unsaturated carboxylic acids: which contains unsaturated carbon chain.

Ex: $\text{CH}_3\text{—CH=CH—COOH}$ —» AcetoHc acid

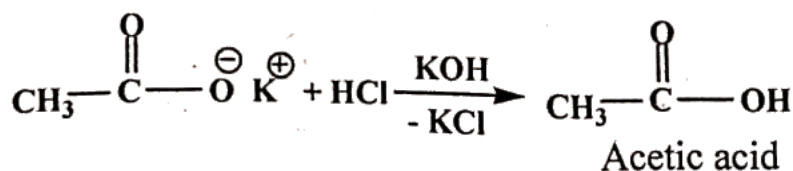
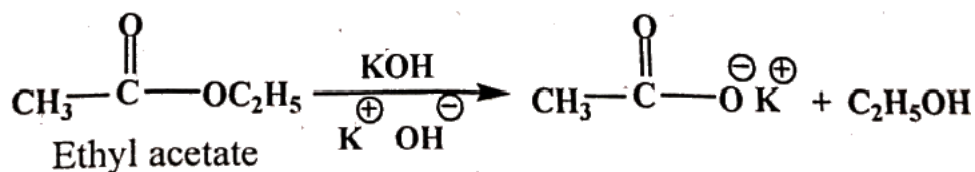


PREPARATION OF CARBOXYLIC ACIDS

A) from nitriles: hydrolysis of nitriles with acid or base to form carboxylic acids.



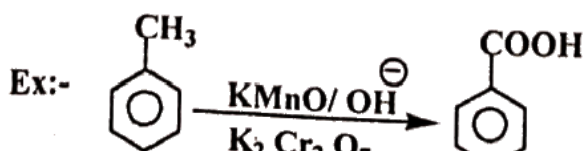
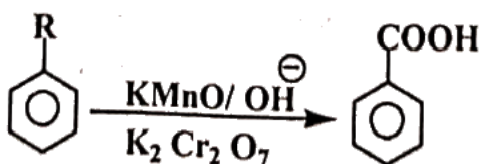
b) By Hydrolysis of ester: on boiling with alkali give the corresponding salt of the acid. Which on treatment with acid gives carboxylic acid.



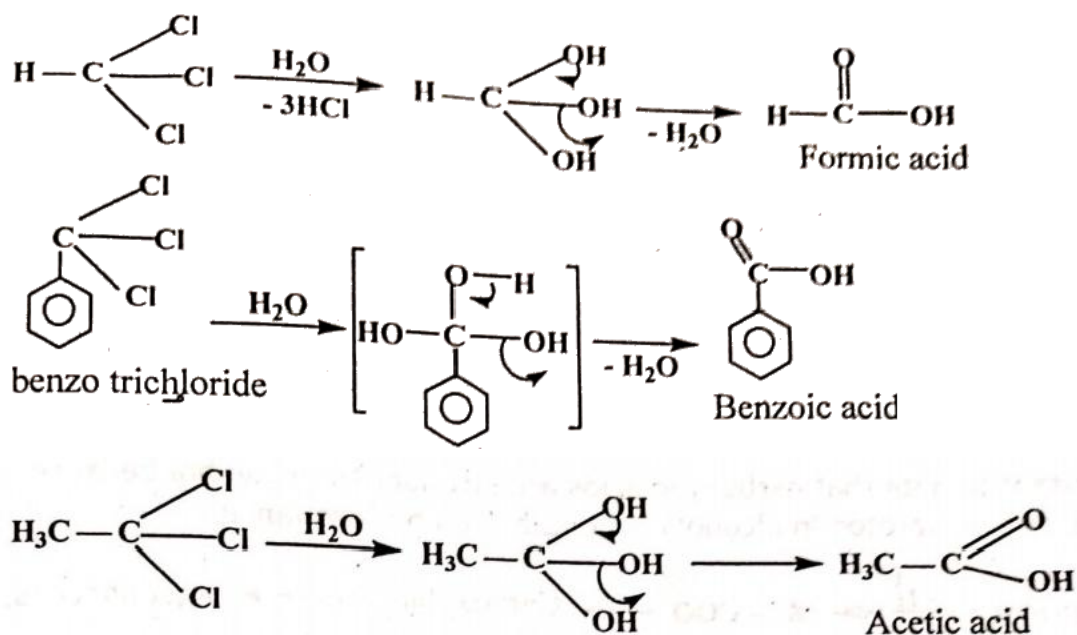
$$\text{R}^{\ominus}\text{MgX}^{\oplus} + \text{C}(=\text{O})_2 \longrightarrow \text{R}-\text{C}(=\text{O})-\text{O}^{\ominus}\text{Mg}^{\oplus}\text{X} \xrightarrow{\text{H}_2\text{O}} \text{R}-\text{C}(=\text{O})-\text{OH} + \text{Mg}(\text{OH})\text{X}$$
$$\text{f } \text{R}=\text{CH}_3$$

$$\text{CH}_3 \text{MgX} + \text{C}(=\text{O})_2 \longrightarrow \text{CH}_3 - \overset{\overset{\text{O}^\ominus - \text{Mg}^\oplus \text{X}}{\parallel}}{\text{C}} = \text{O} \xrightarrow{\text{H}_2\text{O}} \text{CH}_3 - \overset{\overset{\text{O}}{\parallel}}{\text{C}} - \text{OH} + \text{Mg}(\text{OH})\text{X}$$
$$\text{C}_2\text{H}_5\text{MgCl} + \text{C} \begin{matrix} \text{=O} \\ \text{=O} \end{matrix} \longrightarrow \text{C}_2\text{H}_5 - \text{C} \begin{matrix} \text{=O} \\ \text{O}^- - \text{Mg}^+ \text{Cl} \end{matrix} \xrightarrow{\text{H}_2\text{O}} \text{C}_2\text{H}_5 - \text{C} \begin{matrix} \text{=O} \\ \text{=O} \end{matrix} - \text{OH} + \text{Mg}(\text{OH})\text{Cl}$$
$$\text{R}-\overset{\text{O}}{\underset{\text{Amide}}{\text{C}}}-\text{NH}_2 + \text{H}_2\text{O} \longrightarrow \text{R}-\overset{\text{O}}{\text{C}}-\text{OH} + \text{NH}_3$$
$$\text{Ex: } \underset{\text{-Acetamide}}{\text{CH}_3-\overset{\text{O}}{\parallel}{\text{C}}-\text{NH}_2} + \text{H}_2\text{O} \longrightarrow \underset{\text{Acetic acid}}{\text{CH}_3-\overset{\text{O}}{\parallel}{\text{C}}-\text{OH}} + \text{NH}_3$$

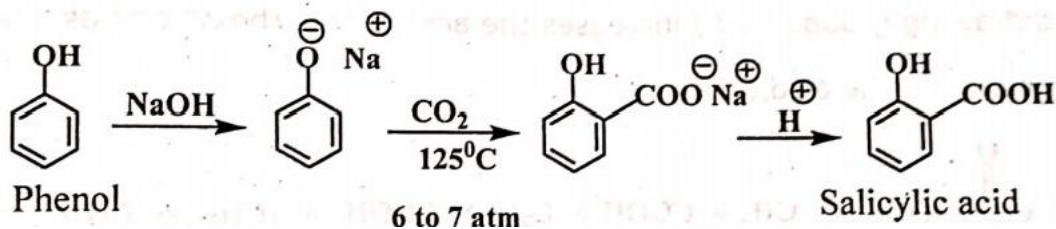
By oxidation of Alkyl benzenes: Oxidation of an alkyl group attached to benzene nucleus which will be oxidised to -COOH group in the presence of alkaline KMnO_4 (or) acidified $\text{K}_2\text{Cr}_2\text{O}_7$ respective of the size of the alkyl group.



2. By the hydrolysis of tri halogen derivative: Hydrolysis of tri halogen derivative of alkanes gives carboxylic acids

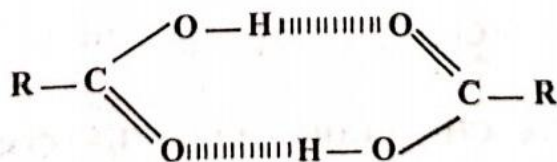


3. Kolbe's reaction: Phenol reacts with CO_2 and NaOH at 125°C and 6-7 atm pressure gives salicylic acid, is called Kolbe's reaction.

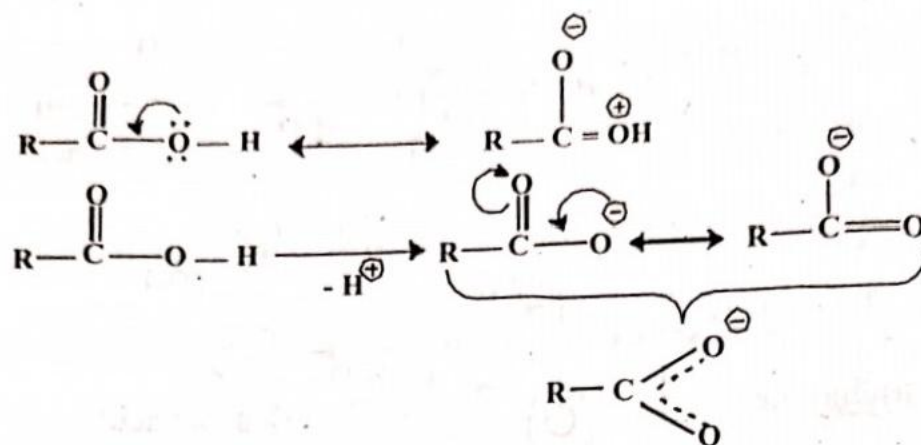


Physical properties:

1. Carboxylic acids upto 3 carbons are colourless, pungent smelling liquids.
2. Acids upto 4 carbons are freely soluble in water due to hydrogen bonding with water molecules.
3. Lower members show higher B.P. than higher members due to the fact that hydrogen bonding and they exist as dimers.



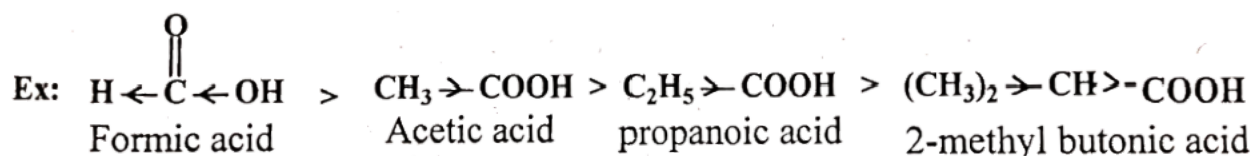
4. Acidity of carboxylic acids: acids as compared to inorganic acids. The acidic character of carboxylic acids is due to resonance in the acidic group which imparts electron character of



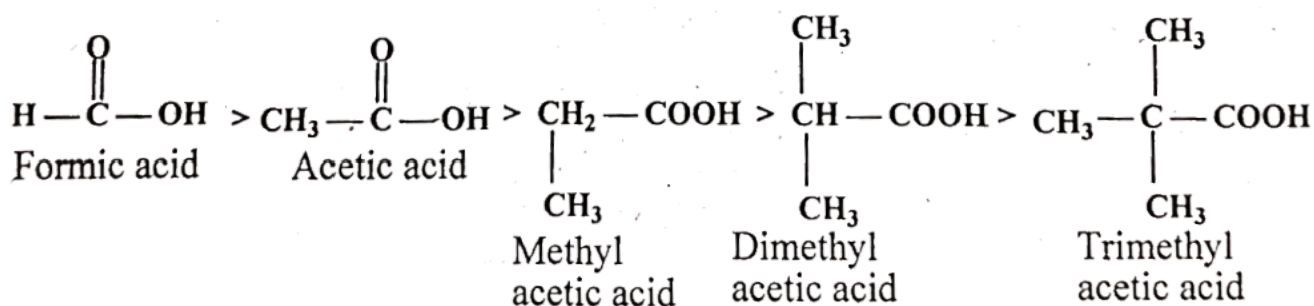
3. It is important to note that carboxylic acids are stronger than alcohols because alkoxide is formed by the removal of a proton in alcohols, which is not stabilized by resonance.

Strength of the acids- affecting factors:

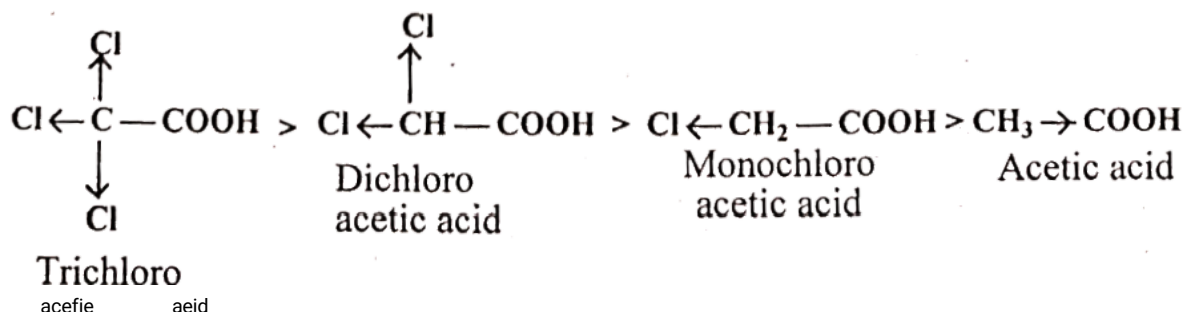
1. Electron withdrawing groups (-I.E) increases the acidity of carboxylic acids, electron releasing groups decreases the acidity.



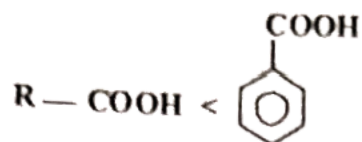
2. As the +I.E groups increase on a carboxylic acid group, acidity decreases. This is due to electron density on oxygen increasing.



3. As the -I.E groups increase, acidity increases. due to decrease in electron density.



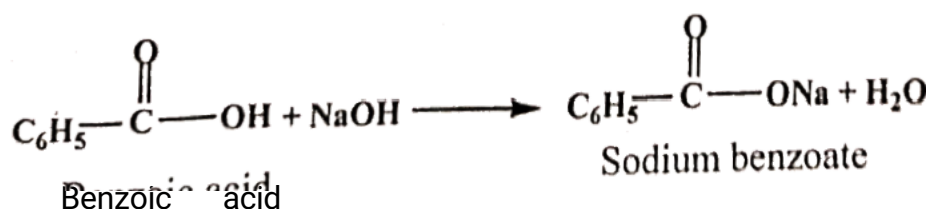
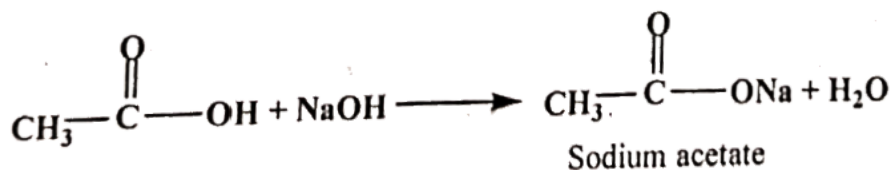
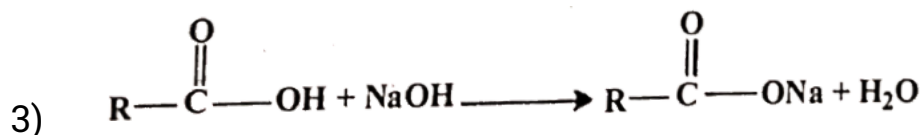
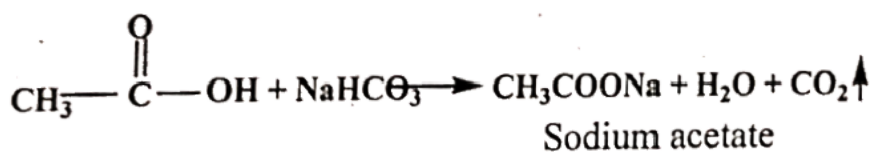
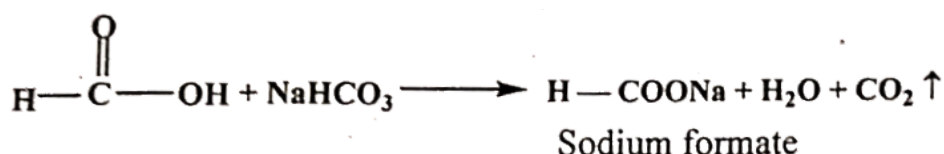
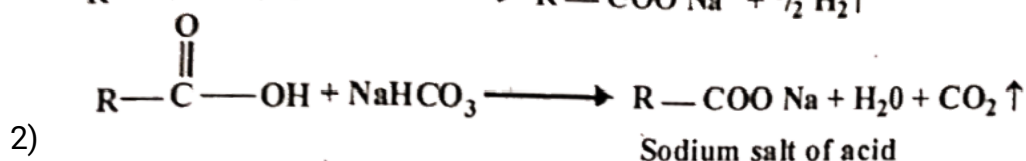
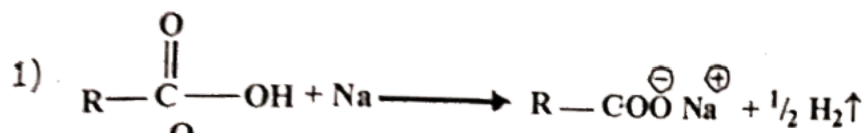
Due to resonance (-M.E) Aromatic carboxylic acids are stronger than aliphatic carboxylic acids,



like Aliphatic, Aromatic acids acidity also increased by electron withdrawing groups

(-NO₂, -Cl, -SO₃H ...;

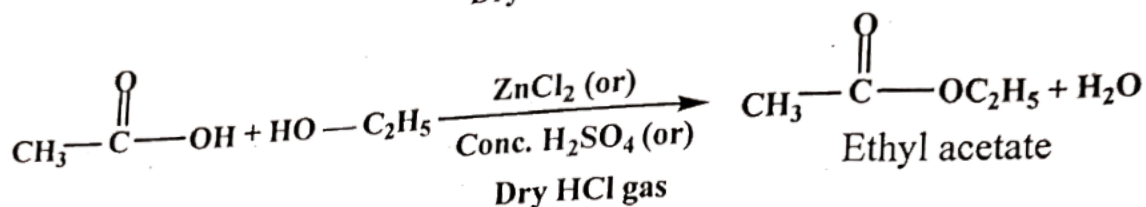
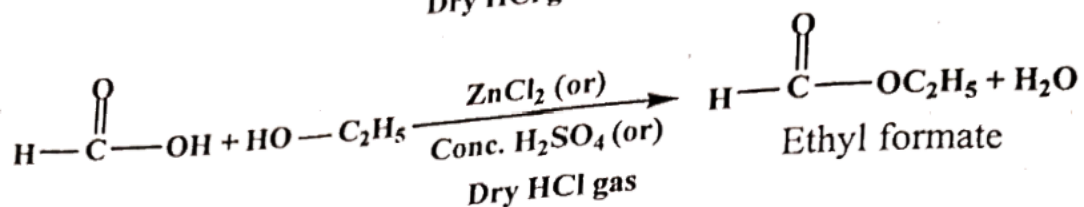
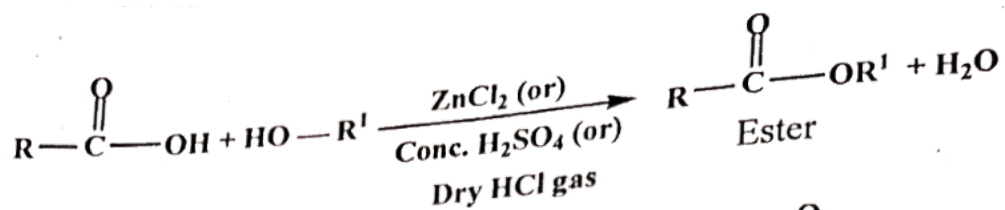
Reactions involving H-atom of -COOH group: Carboxylic acids react with metals and bases to form metal carboxylates



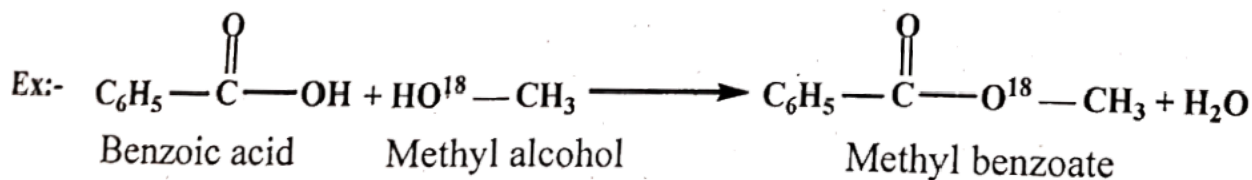
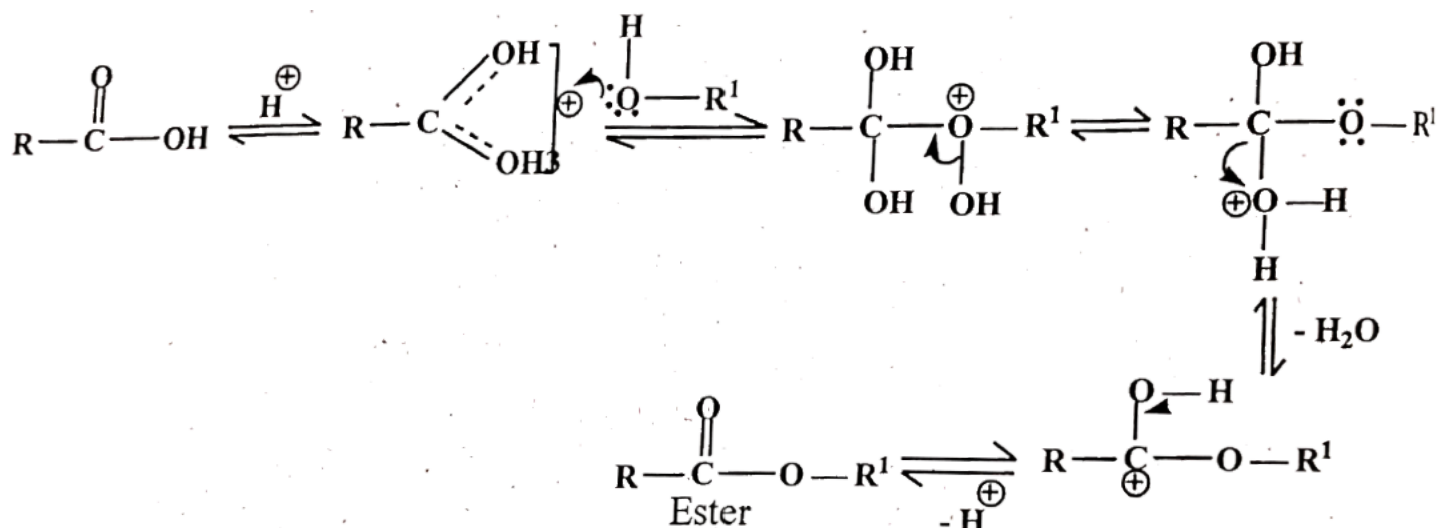
B Reactions involving -OH part of the -COOH

Esterification: Carboxylic acids react with Alcohols in the presence of Anhydrous

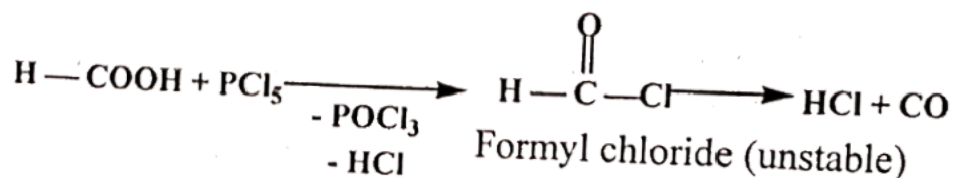
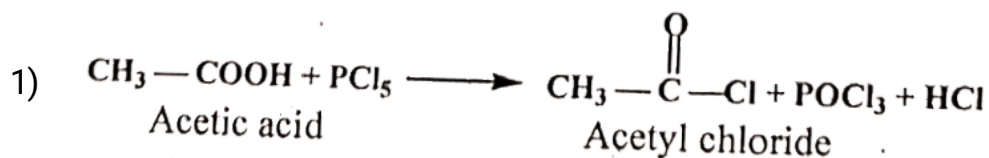
conc. H₂SO₄ (or) dry HCl gas to form esters. This reaction is known as

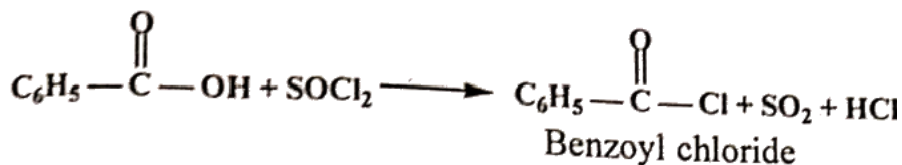
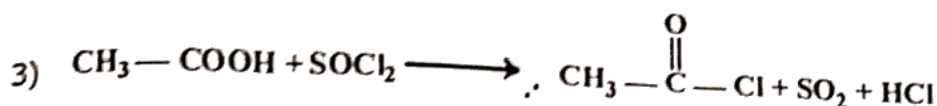
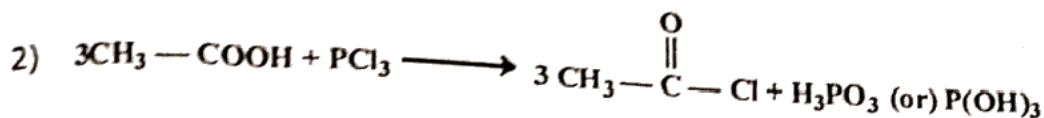


Mechanism: _____

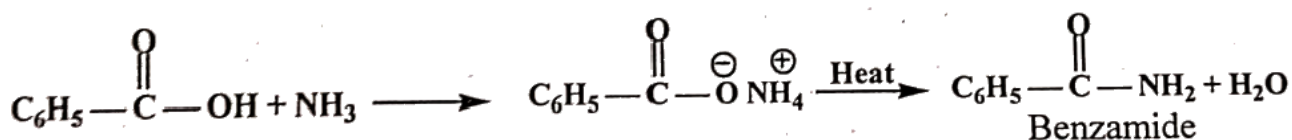
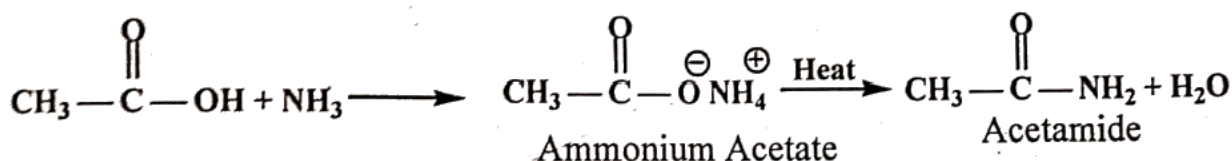
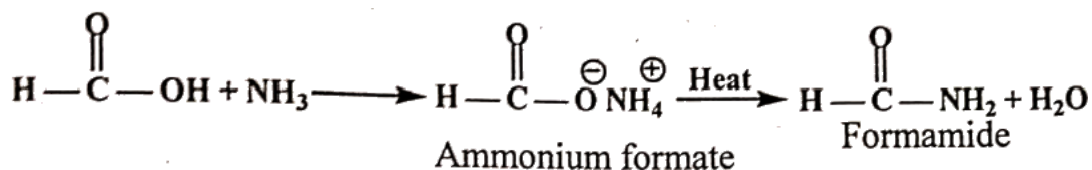
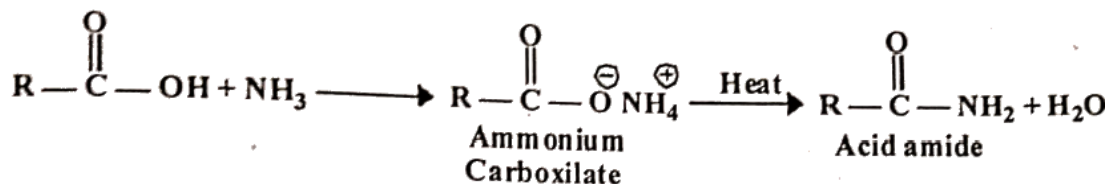


2. Reaction with $\text{PCl}_5, \text{SOCl}_2$: Carboxylic acids react with $\text{PCl}_5, \text{SOCl}_2$ to form acid chlorides

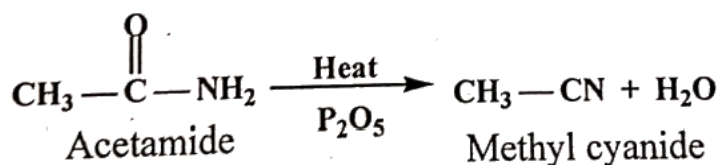




3, Reaction with Ammonia: Carboxylic acids react with Ammonia to form Amides.

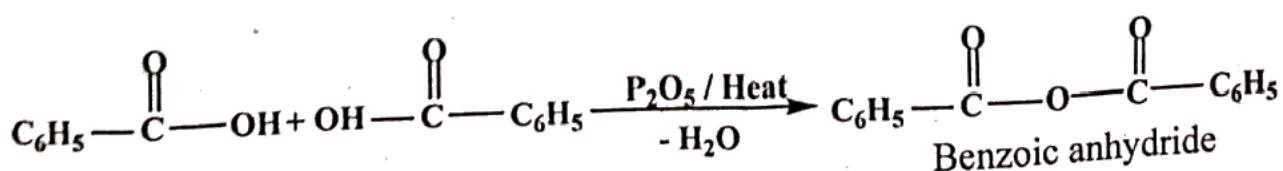
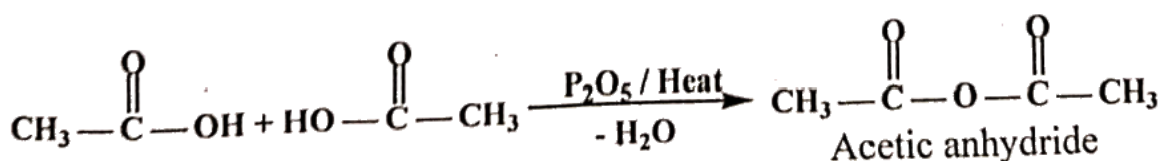
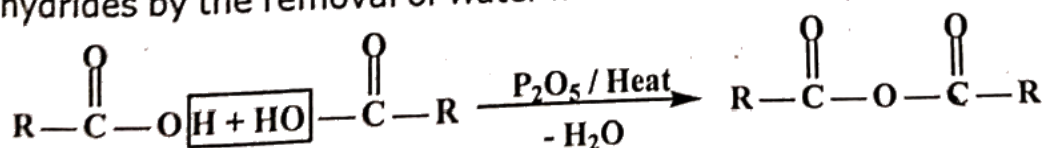


Note: Acetamide which on heating with P_2O_5 to give methyl cyanide

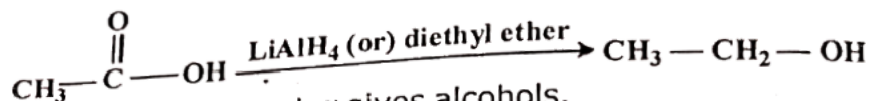
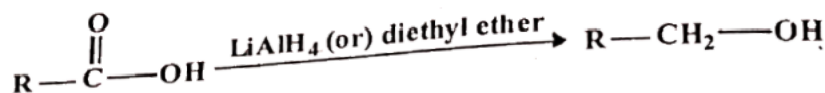


4, Formation of Anhydrides: Heating of two moles of carboxylic acids in the presence of BO

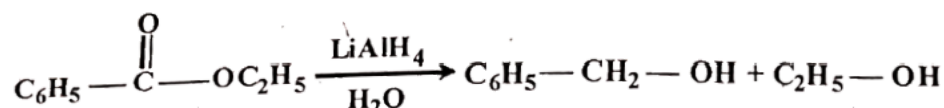
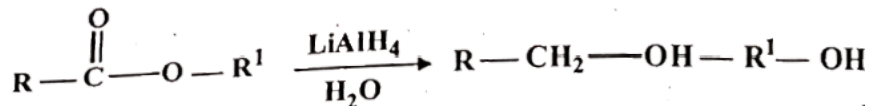
gives Anhydrides by the removal of water molecule.



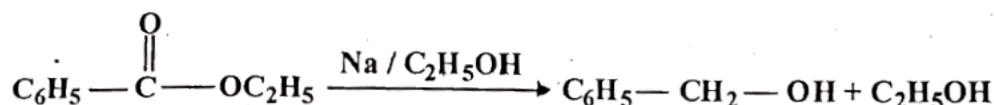
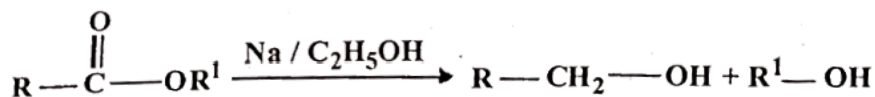
Reduction reactions(-CO-Group involving reactions)



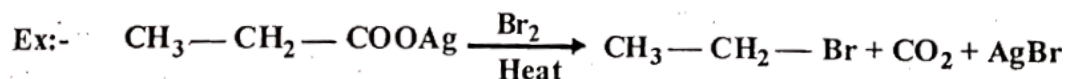
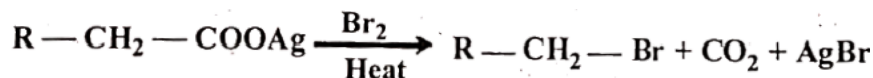
Similarly reduction of ester also gives alcohols.



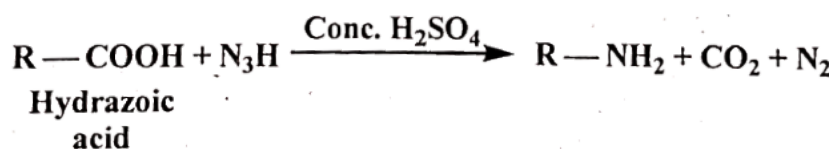
Bouveault -Blanc reduction: Reduction of esters with Na in alcohol gives Alcohols.



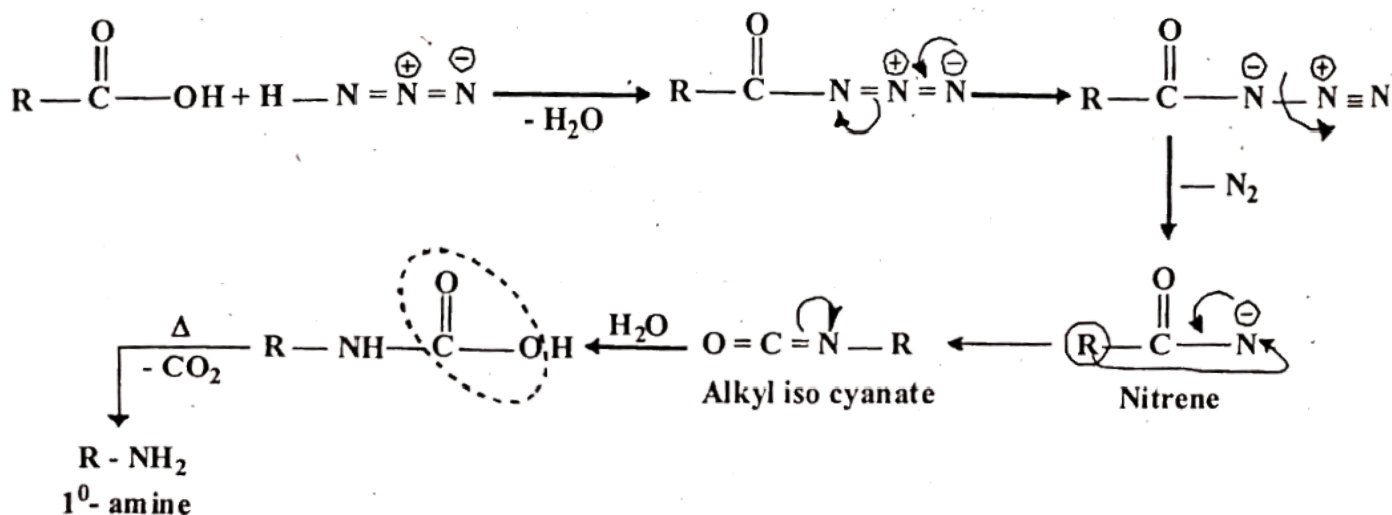
Hunsdiecker reaction: A heavy metal (Ag, Hg, Pb) salt of a carboxylic acid heated with bromine or iodine gives an alkyl halide with one carbon less than the starting carboxylic acid. The reaction is called Hunsdiecker's reaction.

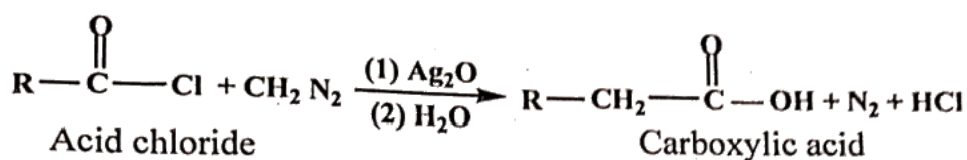


Schmidt reaction: Carboxylic acids react with hydrazoic acid in the presence of Conc. H₂SO₄ to give 1^o-Amines. This is known as Schmidt reaction.

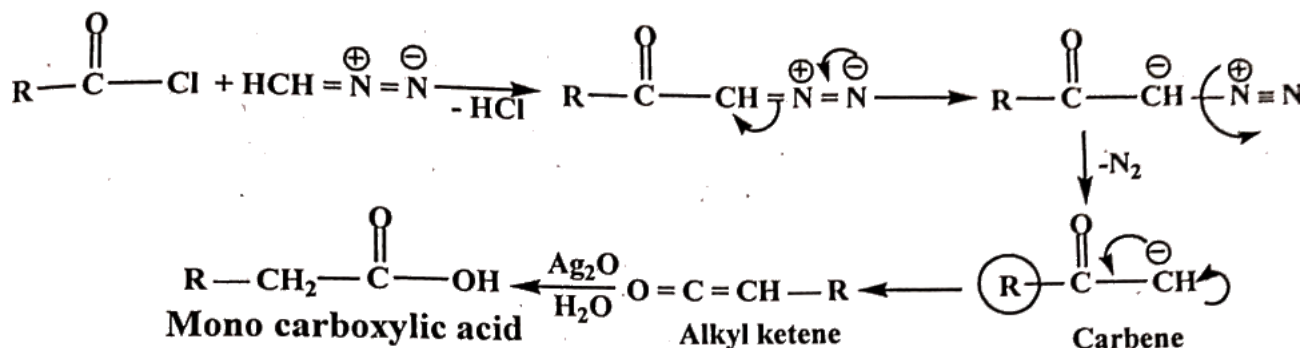


Mechanism:





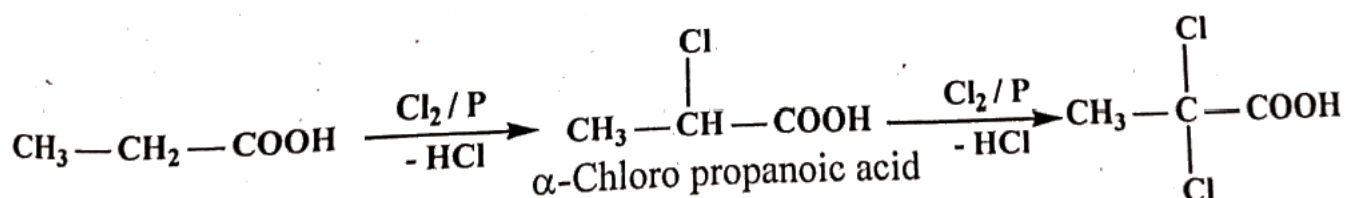
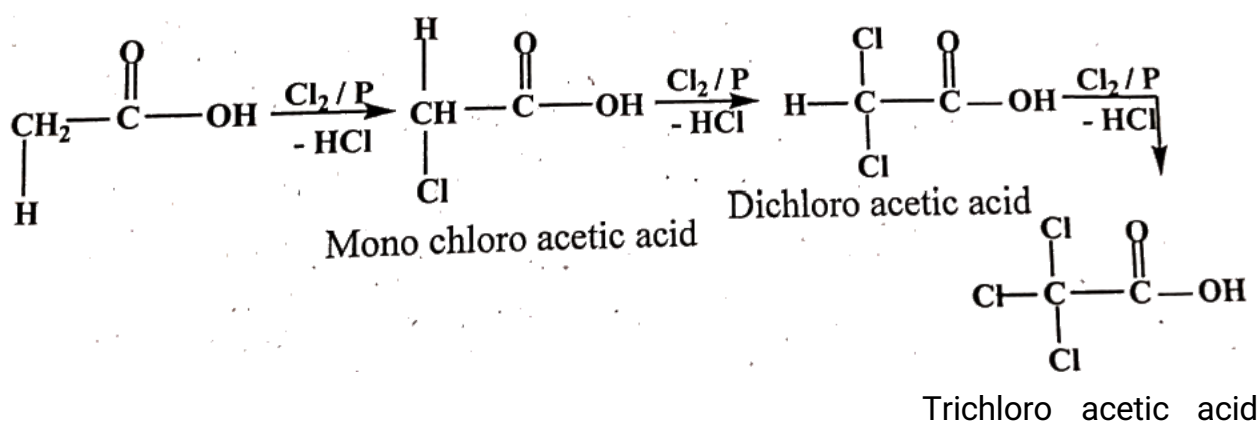
Mechanism!



Halogenation:

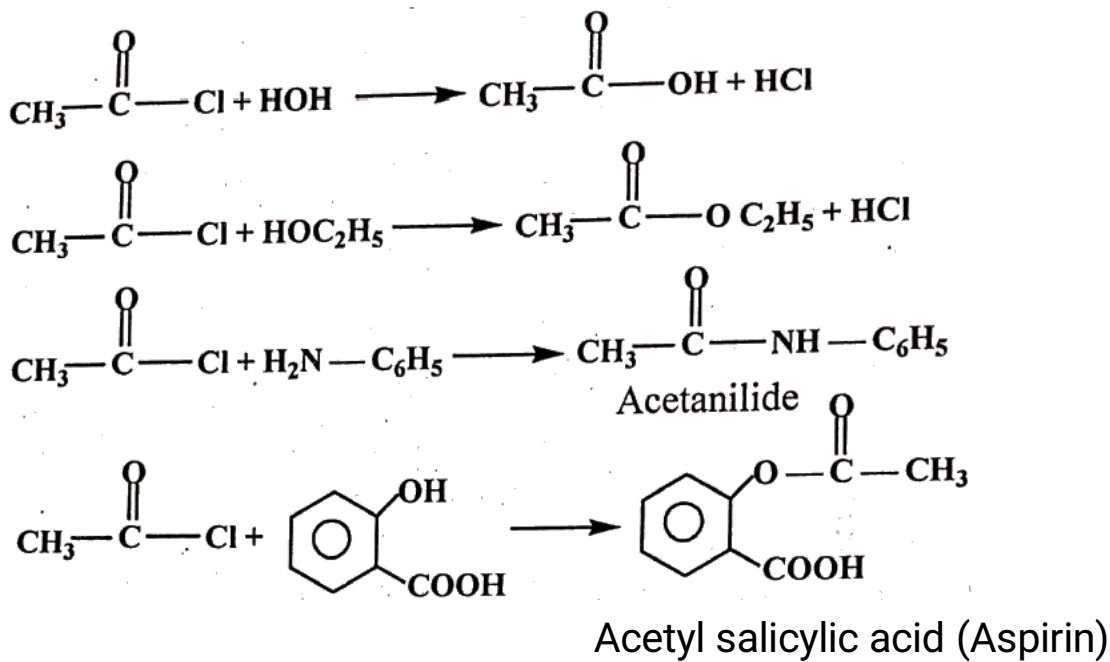
Hell-volhard- Zelensky reaction (HZ)

Mono carboxylic acids reacts with Cl_2 (or) Br_2 in the presence of Red - phosphorous to form halo substituted product .the reaction is known as HVZ reaction

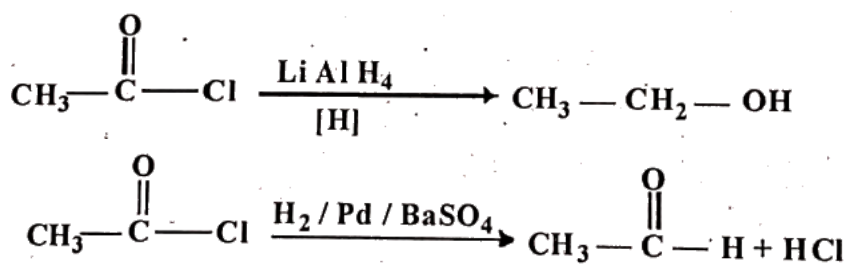


1.Acylation

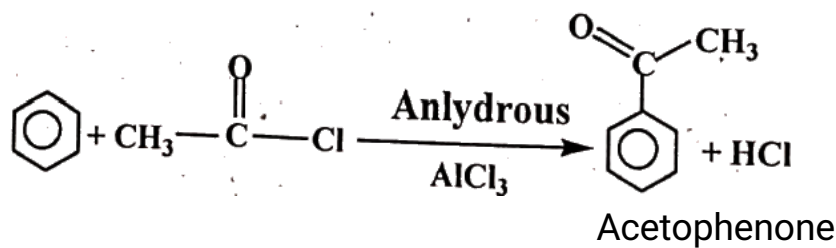
Acid chlorides are important acylating agents for compounds having -OH, -NH₂ & -NHR groups. During acylation hydrogen atom of these groups is replaced by acetyl group.



2.Reduction: Acetyl chloride reduced to Acetaldehyde in the presence of Pd /BaSO₄ and alcohol in the presence of LiAlH₄.

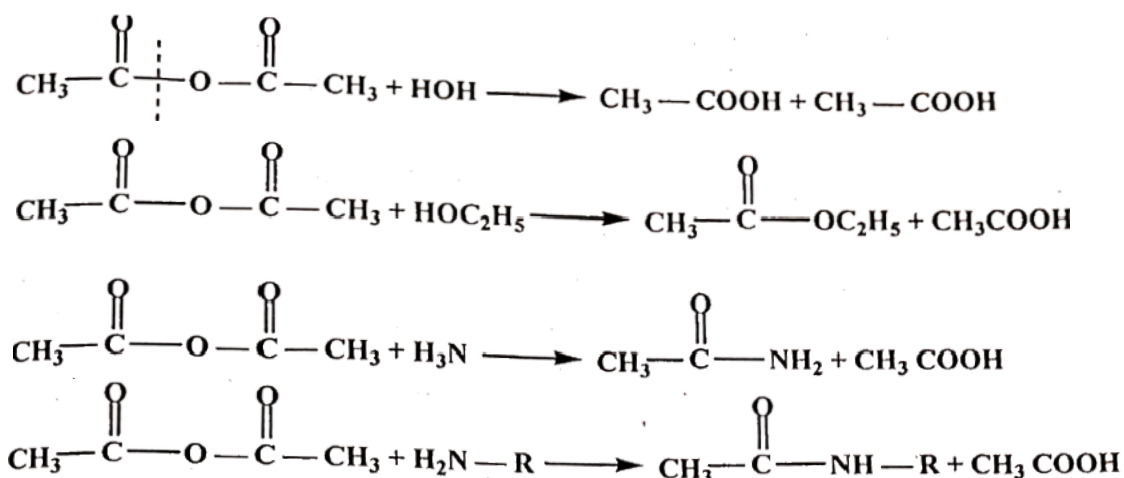


3.Fredal crafts reaction: Benzene reacts with Acetyl chloride in the presence of Anhydrous AlCl₃

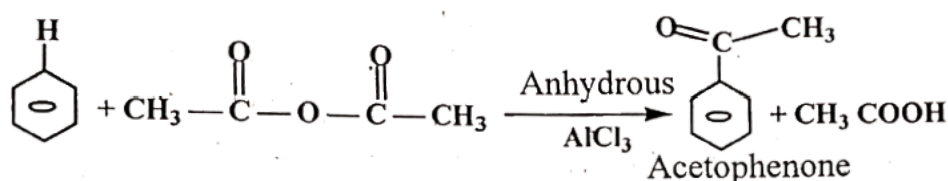


Reactions of Acetic anhydride

1. Acylation:

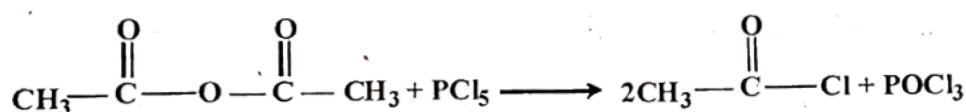


2. Benzene reacts with Acetic anhydride in the presence of AlCl_3 gives Acetophenone.



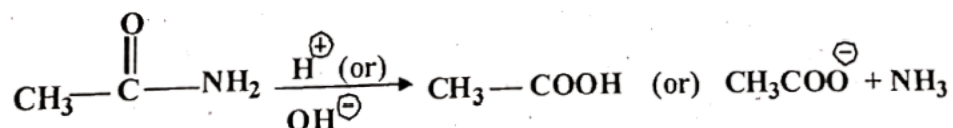
3. Reaction with PCls:

Acetic anhydride reacts with PCls to form Acetyl chloride.

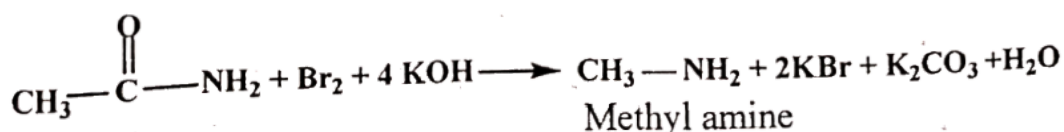
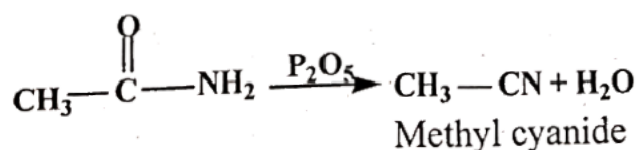


Reaction of acetamide $\left(\text{CH}_3-\overset{\text{O}}{\parallel}{\text{C}}-\text{NH}_2\right)$:

1. **Hydrolysis:** Hydrolysis of Acetamide in the presence of Acid / Base to form Acetic acid and Ammonia,



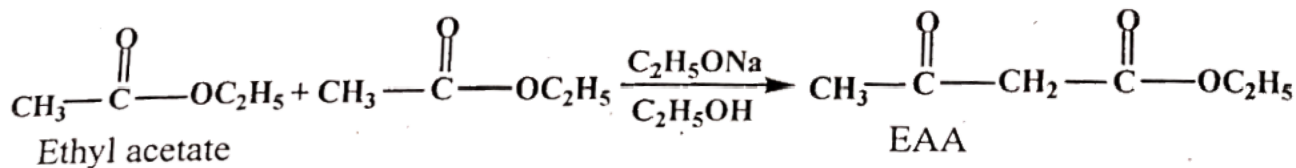
2. **Dehydration:** Dehydration of Acetamide with P_2O_5 gives methyl cyanide



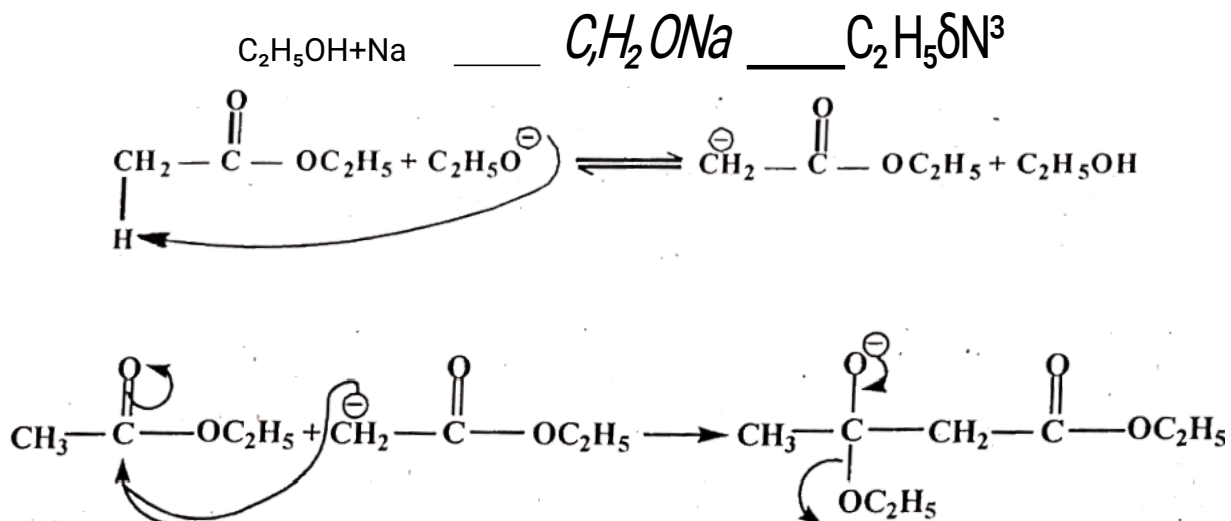
Reactions of ester(Ethyl acetate -CH₃-COOC₂H₅)

1. Claisen condensation reaction: Two moles of ethyl acetate react with sodium ethoxide to form acetylacetone.

Acetoacetic ester is called claisen condensation rxn



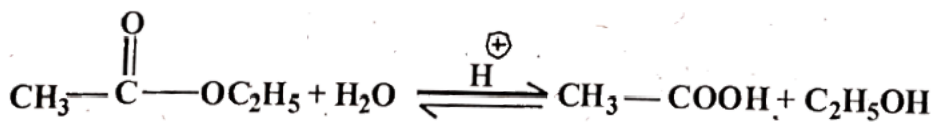
ec *hanism.*



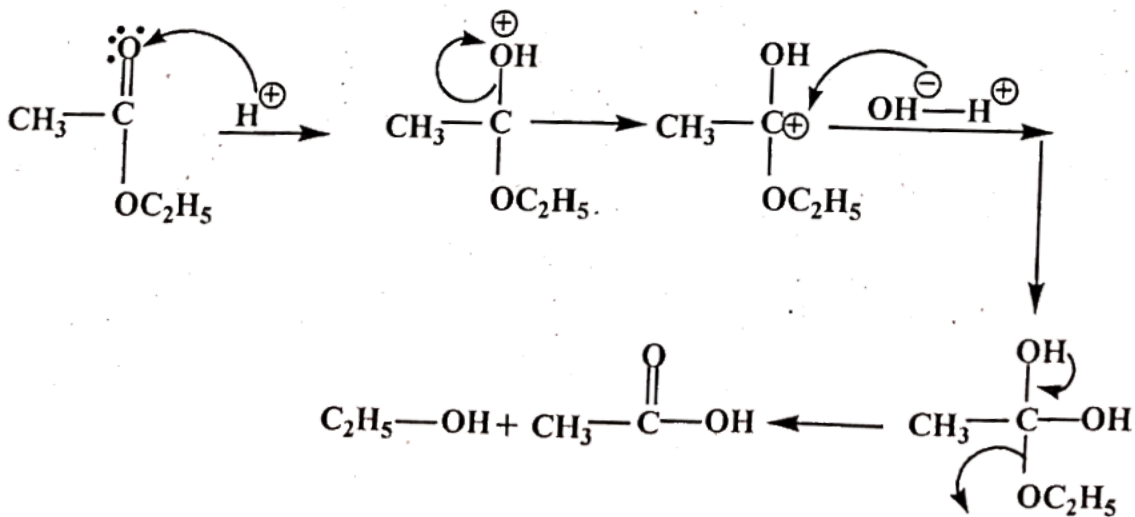
Aceto acetic est

Hydrolysis of ester:

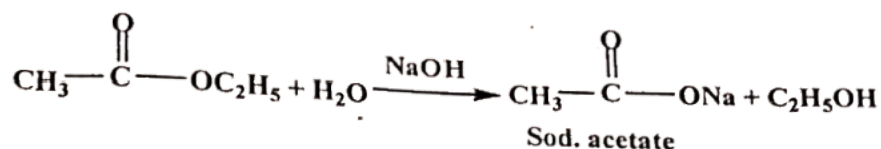
1.Ester hydrolysis by an acid /Acidic hydrolysis: Hydrolysis of ethyl acetate in the presem of an acid gives acetic acid and ethyl alcohol.



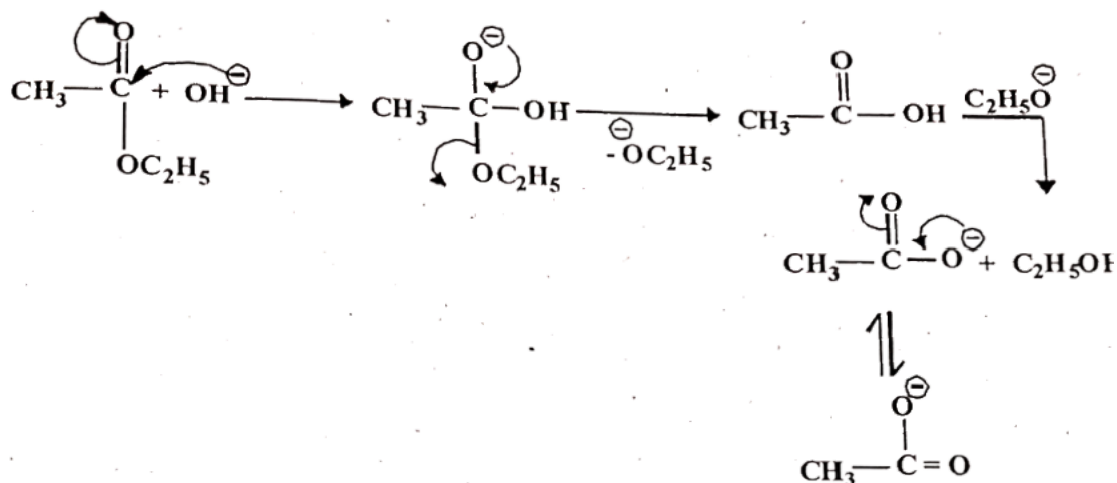
Mechanism:



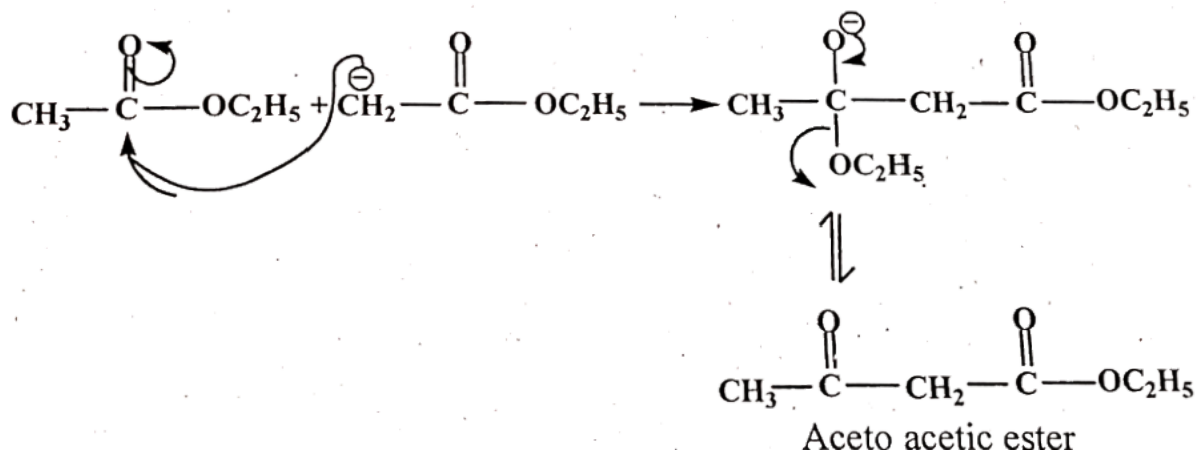
2. BASIC HYDROLYSIS OF ESTER acetate reacts with NaOH to form sodium acetate and Ethyl



Mechanism:

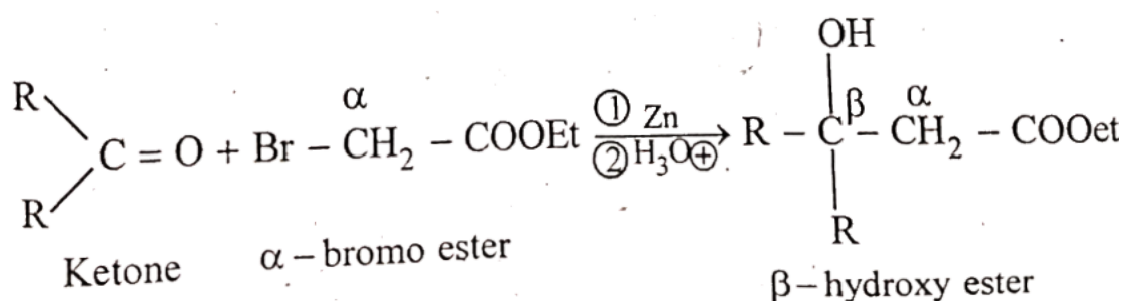


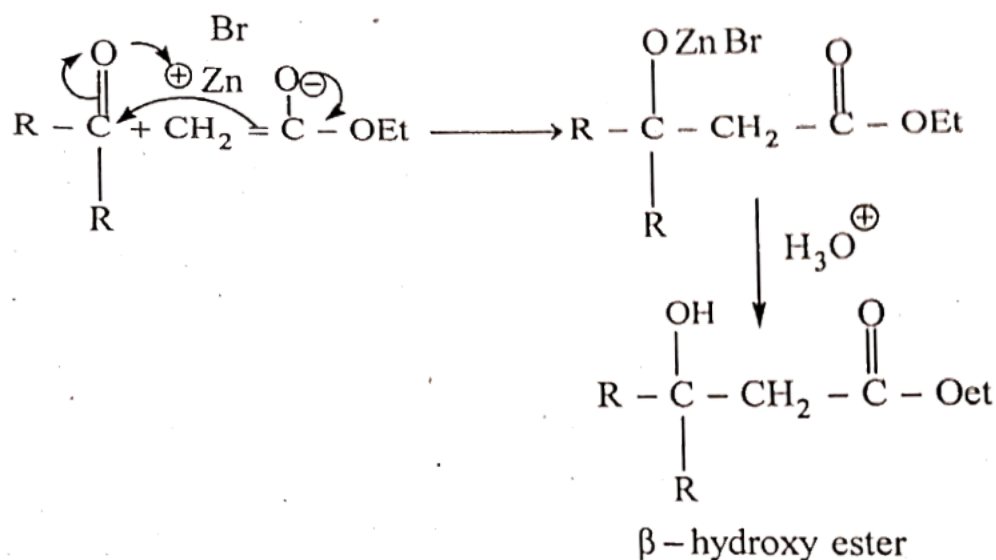
3. Reaction with Grignard reagent: Ethyl acetate reacts with Grignard reagent to form ketone when excess reagent is used followed by hydrolysis gives 3°-Alcohol



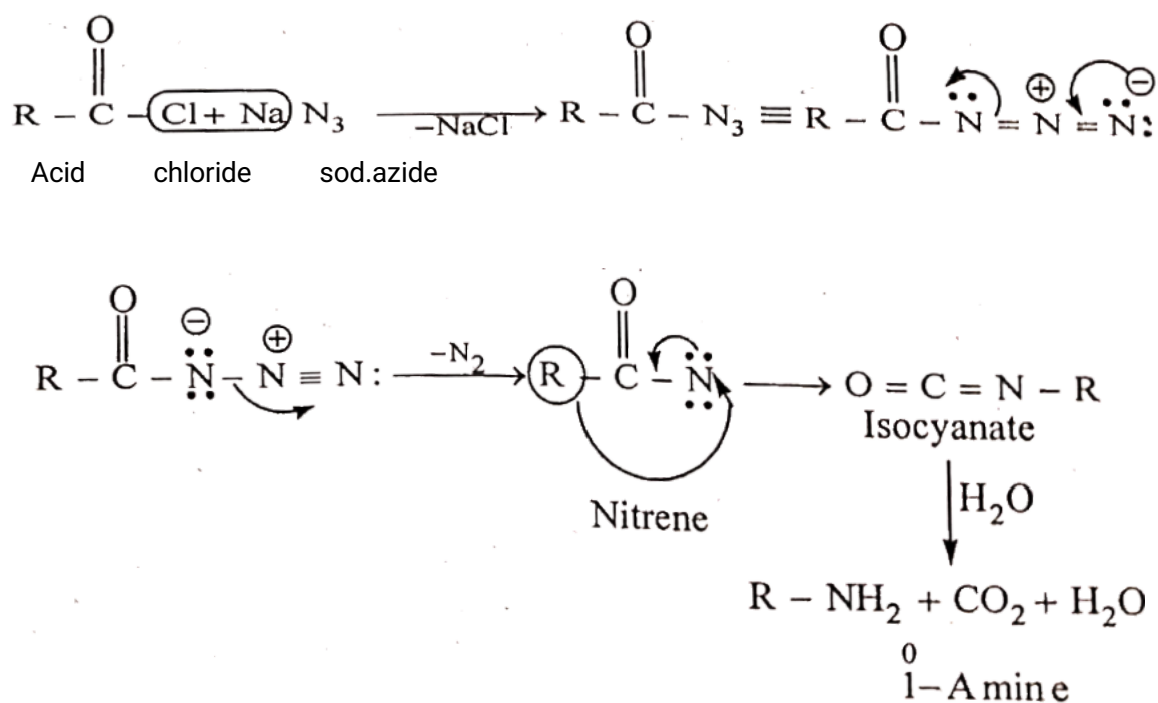
Reformatsky reaction :=

Carbonyl compounds reacts with α -haloesters in the presence of zinc metal to form β -hydroxy esters.





Acid chloride reacts with sod-azide to form acyl azide which on rearrangement to isocyanates, on further reaction gives amines.



UNIT-IV

MOLECULAR SPECTROSCOPY

In earlier days the structure and properties of organic compounds was determined by chemical methods. But in modern days it is done by using physical methods known as spectroscopic methods. These are most suitable methods than the other physical and classical chemical methods, by using these methods structure determination is possible in less time and accurately.

Advantages of spectroscopic methods:-

1. The sample required for spectroscopic analysis is very less (1mg /2mg)
2. Highly sensitive methods.
3. Time required for structure determination is very less (<1min)
4. Accurate results are obtained.
5. Sample recovery is possible and which is used for another time.

Some common spectroscopic methods are:

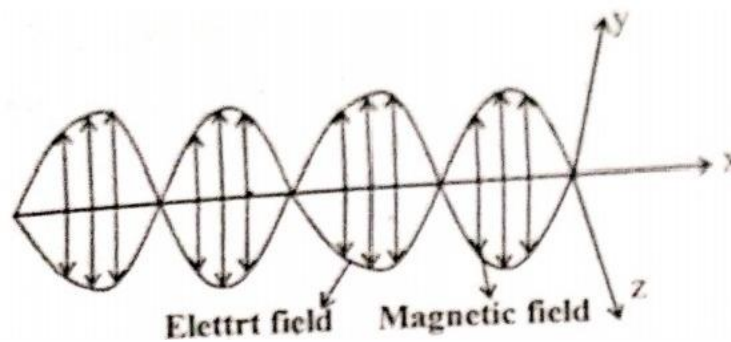
- 1) UV-Visible spectroscopy - To know unsaturation & conjugation.
- 2) Infrared (IR) Spectroscopy - To know nature of the functional group.
- 3) Raman spectroscopy - To know bond lengths & bond energies.
- 4) Microwave spectroscopy - To know various rotation of molecules.
- 5) Proton magnetic Resonance spectroscopy (pmr) - To know different types of protons
- 6) Mass spectroscopy - To know molecular weight & molecular formula of compounds.
- 7) Electron spin Resonance spectroscopy (ESR) - To know free radicals.

Electro Magnetic radiation -EMR:-

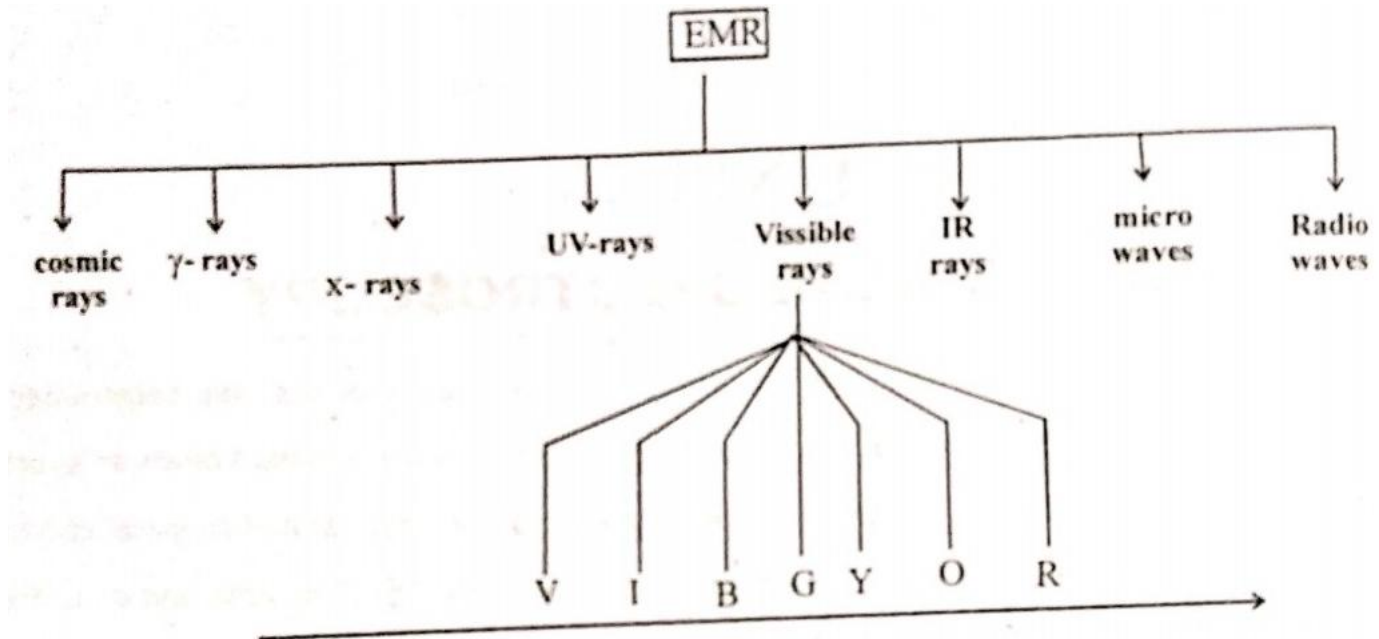
The radiation which possess both electric and magnetic fields in right angles which are per-

pendicular to each other is called electromagnetic radiation.

In spectroscopic methods these EMR are used



Types of EMR's;



Wave length (λ) increases (λ↑)
 (or)
 Frequency (ν) decreases (ν↓)
 (or)
 Energy (E) decreases (E↓)
 (Electro magnetic spectrum)

Interaction of electromagnetic radiation with molecules:-

When EMR is passed through a molecule/compound, it absorbs light energy and undergoes some internal changes. Due to absorption of energy, electrons of molecules get excited, but this is an unstable state. In this state, changes occur in energy levels of molecule. The difference in energy of excited state and normal state is equal to the energy absorbed by the molecule / compound.

h = Planck's constant
 ν = frequency

Depending upon the nature of EMR passed, the following changes occur in the molecules.

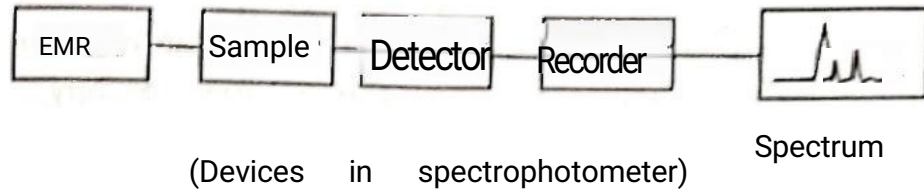
1. Translation motions
2. Rotations
3. Vibrations
4. Electronic Transitions
5. Magnetic energy changes

Spectrum:-

The arrangement of group of wavelengths | Frequencies of light is called spectrum.

0 spectrum is recorded by using spectrophotometer instrument.

Principle;-



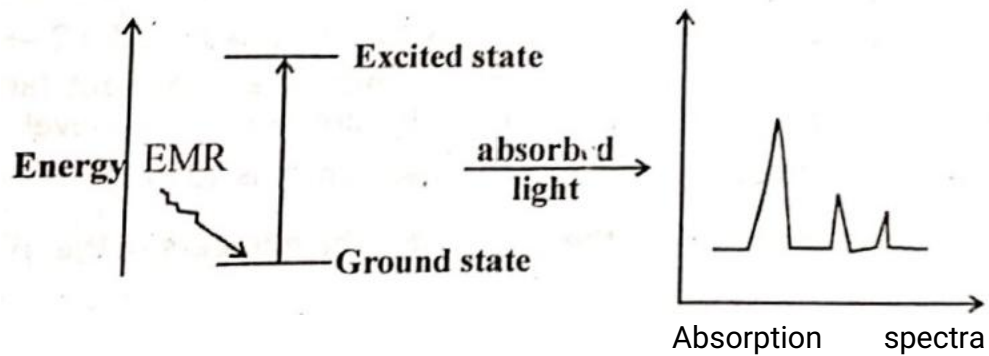
Types of molecular spectras:-

There are mainly two types of spectras.

(1) **Absorption spectras:** The spectrum which consist the lines corresponds to the waverlength of absorbed light is called absorption spectrum.

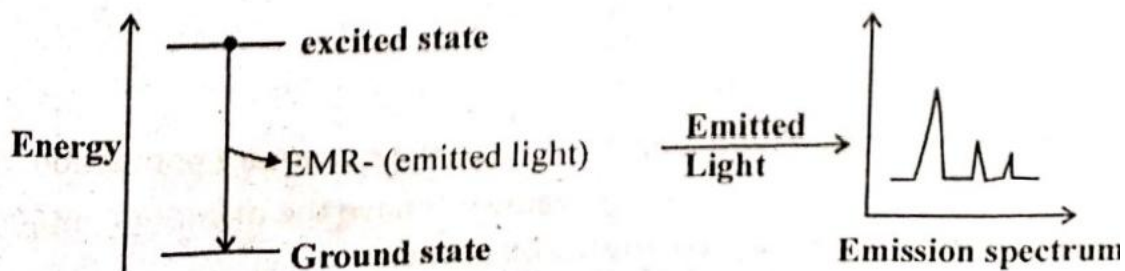
0 Absorption spectrum consist dark lines on bright background.

Ex:NMR, UV,I.R....



(2) **Emission spectra:** spectrum which consist,the lines corresponds to the wavelengths of emitted light is called emission spectrum. 0 Emission Spectrum Consist bright lines on dark background.

Ex:Fluorescence,Phosphorescence



ROTATIONAL SPECTROSCOPY (MICROWAVE SPECTROSCOPY)

Principle:-

Sample irradiated with microwave range ($\lambda=0.1-30\text{cm}$) of radiation brings about change in rotational energy levels of molecules is called rotational spectroscopy,

Sample must be in gaseous (or) vapour state.

Molecules should be with permanent ($\mu \neq 0$) dipole moment so homonuclear diatomic molecules cannot show M.W spectra.

Ex: $\text{H}_2, \text{O}_2, \text{Cl}_2, \text{N}_2, \dots$

Rotational axis:

The axis passes through the centre of the body / molecule around which the molecule can take infinite number of rotations is called Rotational axis. Ex: Rotation of earth on its own axis.

Intensities of spectral lines :-

The pure rotational spectrum of a diatomic molecule consists of a series of equally spaced lines corresponding to the transitions $J=0 \rightarrow J=1, J=1 \rightarrow J=2, J=2 \rightarrow J=3$. We now estimate the relative intensities of these spectral lines. The important factor that decides the intensity of lines will be the number of molecules present in each level. This depends on the Boltzmann factor and the degeneracy of the level which is $(2J+1)$.

If N_0 is the no. of molecules in the $J=0$ level. The numbers in the j th level is

$$N_J = N_0 \cdot e^{\left(\frac{-E_J}{KT}\right)} = N_0 \cdot e^{\left[\frac{-BhcJ(J+1)}{KT}\right]}$$

Taking degeneracy into account, the number actually available in a state.

$$N_J = N_0(2J+1) \cdot e^{\left[\frac{-BhcJ(J+1)}{KT}\right]}$$

To find the value of J for which the population is maximum, we have to set $dN_J/dJ=0$.

$$\text{This leads to } J = \sqrt{\frac{KT}{2Bhc}} - \frac{1}{2}$$

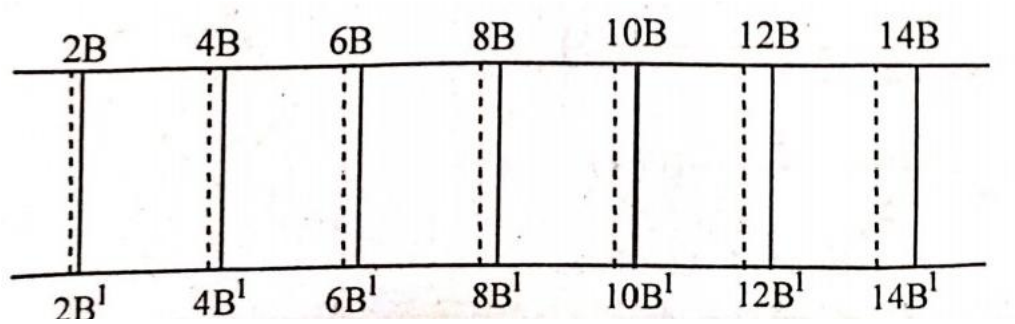
That is the level nearest to this ' J ' value will have the maximum population. Hence transition originating from the level having this ' J ' value will have the maximum intensity. Isotope effect in rotational spectra / Isotopic substitution :-

increase in mass of atom in the molecule - increases reduced mass (μ).

$$I = \mu r_0^2$$

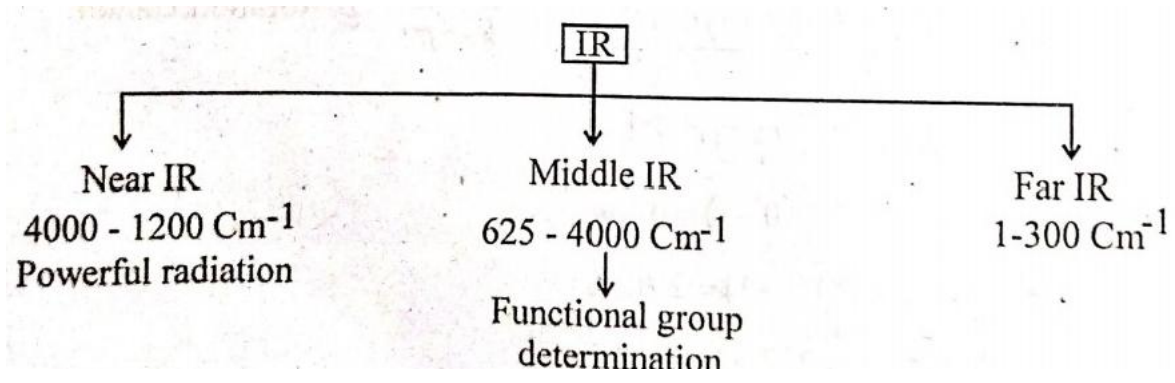
The change in mass does not change the bond length, with increase in μ the I also increases

Isotopic substitution decreases energy as well as wave numbers of rotational energy levels. i.e., energies of energy levels of $\text{Cl}^{35}\text{O}^{16}$ smaller than energies of energy levels of $\text{Cl}^{37}\text{O}^{16}$. The effect of Cl^{35} Isotope substitution on the rotational spectrum of diatomic molecule $\text{Cl}^{35}\text{O}^{16}$ is



INFRA RED SPECTROSCOPY

Radiation:



For organic molecules absorption energy is 625-4000cm⁻¹(or)2.5-154(1u=10cm).

Principle

When sample irradiated with IR-range of radiation, it absorbs and changes vibrational levels of molecules. The molecule vibrates from one vib level to another due to this change the dipole moment of the molecules are detected by detector and information pass to the recorder, and give a spectrum.

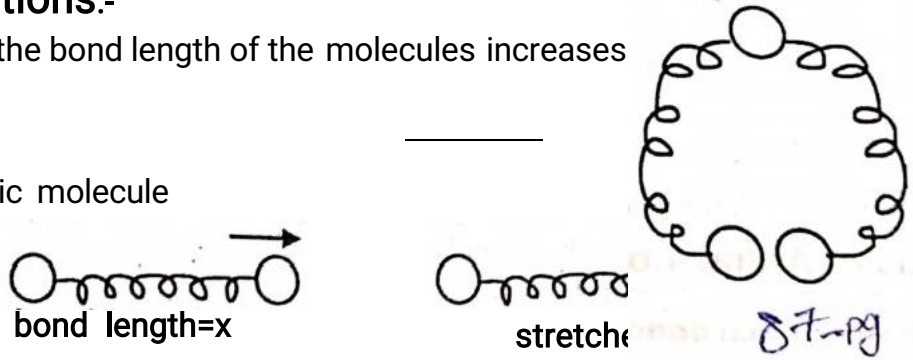
There are two type of molecular vibrations due to IR-radiation

- 1) Stretching vibrations
- 2) Bending vibrations

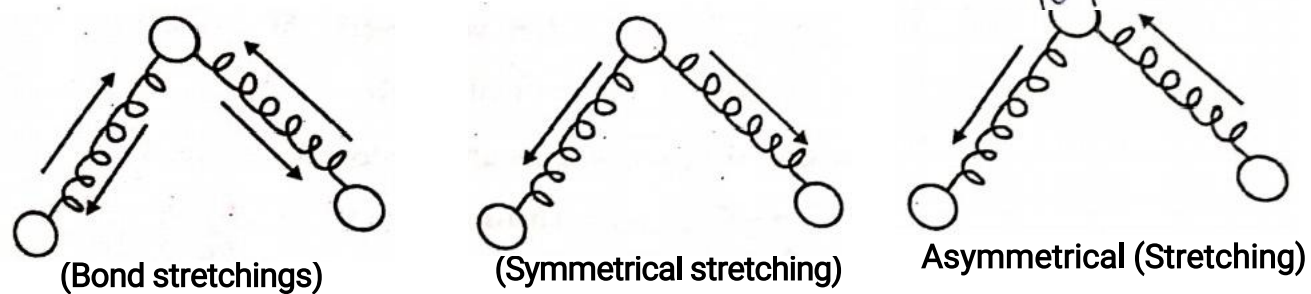
1. Stretching vibrations:-

In these vibrations the bond length of the molecules increases and decreases. These are high energetic vibrations.

Ex: For a diatomic molecule



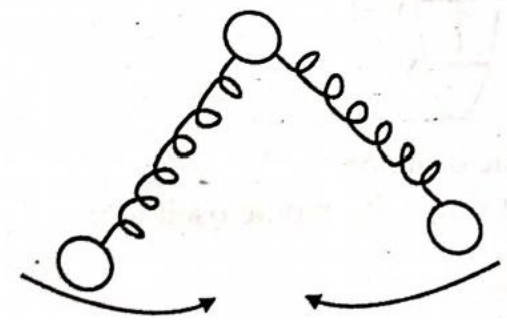
For triatomic molecule



For a diatomic molecules only stretching vibrations are possible

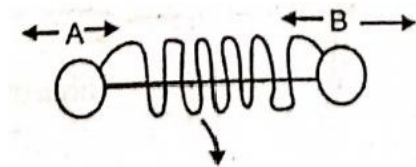
2. Bending vibrations:-

This is also called Deformation of molecule. These vibrations taking place with change in Bond angle of the molecule. These are low energetic vibrations.



Energy levels of simple harmonic oscillator:-

Ex: Diatomic molecule.



(spring) simple harmonic oscillator

The oscillator which takes in equal distance is called simple harmonic oscillator.

Frequency of simple harmonic motion is given by Hooke's Law.

m=Reduced

Divide the equation (1) with 'C'(velocity of light)

$$\frac{\nu}{C} = \bar{\nu} = \frac{1}{2\pi C} \sqrt{\frac{K}{\mu}} \text{ cm}^{-1} \quad \text{y=wave number}$$

Like other molecular energy levels, the vibrational energies also quantised. Vibrational energies of systems are calculated by using Schrodinger's wave equation

For a simple harmonic oscillator

$$E_V = (V + \frac{1}{2}) h \nu_{\text{osc}} \text{ Joules} \quad V = \text{Vib. quantum no.}$$

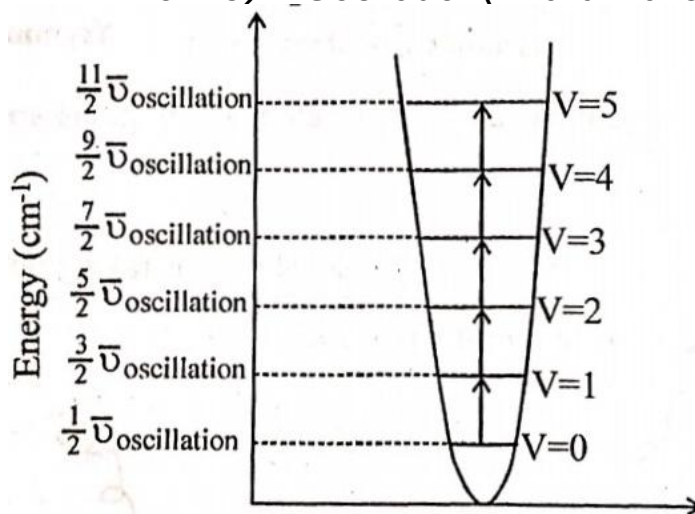
$$E = -((+3) \text{ a cm}^{-1} N = 0.4.23 \dots)$$

$V=0 \rightarrow E_0 = \frac{1}{2} h \nu_{\text{oscillation}}$ (Zero vib-level)

$V=1 \rightarrow E_1 = \frac{3}{2} h \nu_{\text{oscillation}}$ (First vib-level)

$V=2 \rightarrow E_2 = \frac{5}{2} h \nu_{\text{oscillation}}$ (Second vib-level)

$V=3 \rightarrow E_3 = \frac{7}{2} h \nu_{\text{oscillation}}$ (Third vib-level)

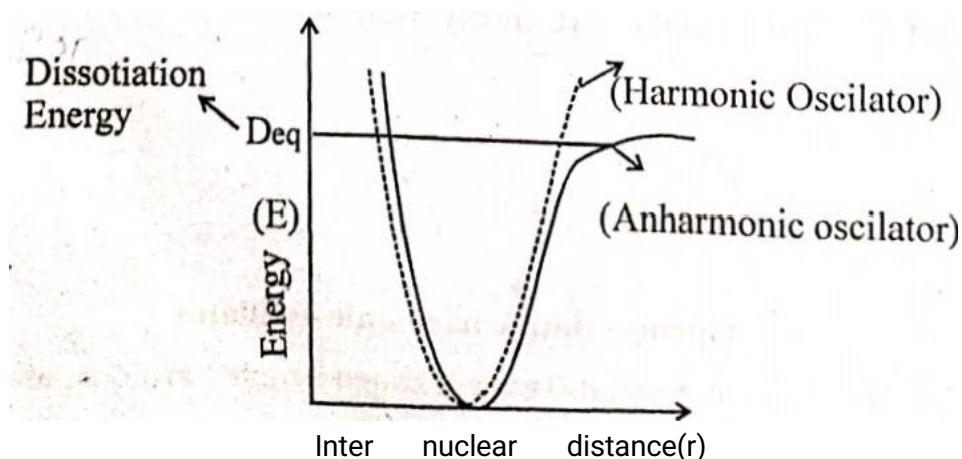


Vibrational energy level of simple harmonic oscillator

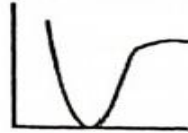
oscillator

Energy levels of Anharmonic Oscillator:-

"The oscillator which does not take equal distances is called Anharmonic oscillator."



Real molecules do not follow laws of simple harmonic motion. They do not obey Hooke's Law at all internuclear separation. In real molecules simple compressions & elongations are perfectly elastic, but for longer compressions and elongations they deviate. experimentally it is observed that the molecule is stretched beyond 10% of its bond length, the molecule dissociates into atoms (or) ions. The energy of real molecule as a function of internuclear separations is given by Morse curve

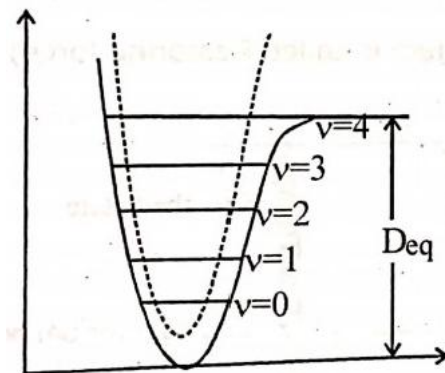


Sub.equation(1) in Schrodinger wave equation and solve it. We get equation for Anharmonic oscillator

$$\epsilon_v = \left(v + \frac{1}{2} \right) \omega_e^- - \left(v + \frac{1}{2} \right)^2 \omega_e^- x_e \text{ Cm}^{-1}$$

x_e = Anharmonicity constant

$$x_e = 0.001 (0 < x_e < 1)$$



Energy levels:

$$\text{If } v=0 \Rightarrow \epsilon_0 = \left(0 + \frac{1}{2} \right) \omega_e^- - \left(0 + \frac{1}{2} \right)^2 \omega_e^- x_e \text{ Cm}^{-1}$$

$$\epsilon_0 = \frac{1}{2} \omega_e^- - \frac{1}{4} \omega_e^- x_e \text{ Cm}^{-1}$$

$$v=1 \Rightarrow \epsilon_1 = \frac{3}{2} \omega_e^- - \frac{9}{4} \omega_e^- x_e \text{ Cm}^{-1}$$

$$v=2 \Rightarrow \epsilon_2 = \frac{5}{2} \omega_e^- - \frac{25}{4} \omega_e^- x_e \text{ Cm}^{-1}$$

$$v=3 \Rightarrow \epsilon_3 = \frac{7}{2} \omega_e^- - \frac{49}{4} \omega_e^- x_e \text{ Cm}^{-1}$$

Selection rules for Anharmonic oscillator (1) $\mu \neq 0$, (2) $\Delta v = \pm 1, \pm 2, \pm 3 \dots$

Ex: (1) $\epsilon_0 \rightarrow \epsilon_1$, $\Delta v = \pm 1$

$$\Delta \epsilon = \epsilon_1 - \epsilon_0 = \left(\frac{3}{2} \omega_e^- - \frac{9}{4} \omega_e^- x_e \right) - \left(\frac{1}{2} \omega_e^- + \frac{1}{4} \omega_e^- x_e \right)$$

Selection rules:

1. molecule should be with permanent (or) induced dipole moment i.e $\mu \neq 0$ (or)

$$\frac{d\mu}{dr} \neq 0$$

Ex: H_2 molecule. $\frac{d\mu}{dr} = 0$: IR inactive

All Homo atomic molecule ($H_2, Cl_2, O_2, N_2 \dots$) are IR inactive

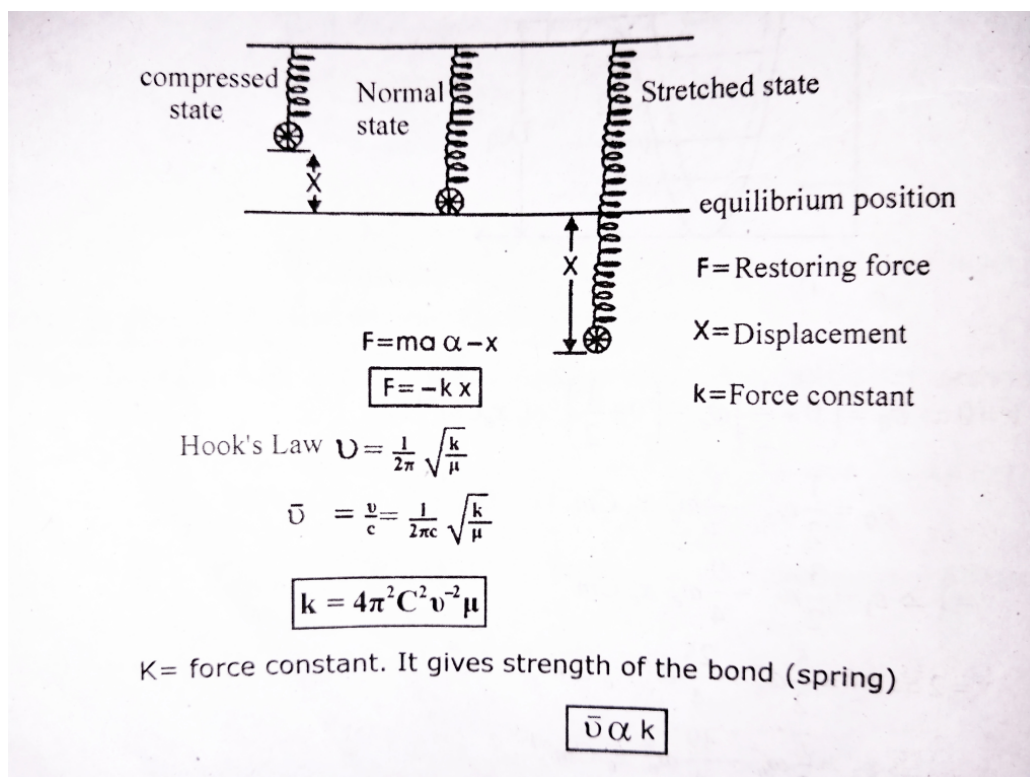
Hetero atomic molecules dipole moment change with vibration so they are IR active.

(2) $\Delta v = \pm 1$ Δv : Diff b/w vibrational quantum number.

Force constant (K):

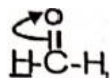
Force constant (K) is the measure of elasticity (or) strength of the bond.

Object with mass 'm' is hanging to the spring and pull downward takes simple harmonic oscillations. In this process the Restoring force of the object taking the object to original position. (Force responsible for taking back of object is called Restoring force).



Force constant is directly proportional to the vib.frequency. i.e molecules with large force constant value high frequency radiation.

Ex:-



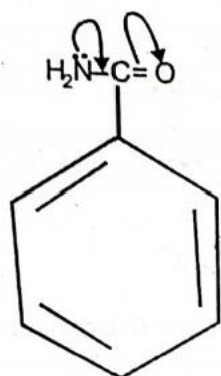
chH

chcH

$$F_{C=O} = \frac{1}{4\pi^2} \frac{k}{\nu^2} \quad \nu_{C=O} = 1715 \text{ cm}^{-1}$$

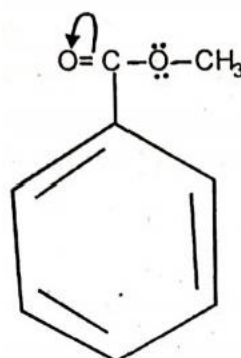
$$D_{C=O} = 1715 \text{ cm}^{-1} \quad \text{kJ} \downarrow$$

Due to +I effect of -CH₃ group the C=O bond is weakened and value of K decreases. Therefore absorption frequency also decreases.



Benzamide

$$\nu_{C=O} = 1693 \text{ cm}^{-1}$$



Phenyl acetate

$$\nu_{C=O} = 1730 \text{ cm}^{-1}$$

Oxygen is more E.N than Nitrogen. So for oxygen there is less chance to donate e⁻ pair. due to this C=O absorption frequency is more.

Force constant values of some molecules are given in the below table.

Molecules	force constant (k)(Nm)	vibration(cm ⁻¹)
HF	966	4138.5
HCl	516	2990.6
HBr	412	2649.7
HI	314	2309.5
CO	1902	2169.7
NO	1595	1904.0
ICl	238	384.2

degrees of freedom for polyatomic molecules:-

In 3D-space for a molecule total number of degrees of freedom = 3N

N = No. of atoms in a molecule.

out of 3N-degrees of freedom the translational degrees of freedom are three (for both linear & Non-linear)

For a non-linear molecule rotational degrees of freedom are three $= (3N-3-3)$

Fundamental vibrations of 'N' atoms molecules

For linear molecule $= 3N-5$

Over tones:

The transitions between $v=0$, $v=2,3,4$ results overtones with weak intensity.
i.e. transitions from ground state to higher vibrational levels.

Hot bands:-

The bands due to vibrational transitions such as $v=1 \rightarrow v=2, v=2 \rightarrow v=3$ in presence of high temperature only are called hot bands

Selection Rules:-

1. Molecules should possess a permanent dipole moment.

$$\mu \neq 0 \quad (\because \mu = \text{Dipole moment})$$

Ex: HCl, CO, NH₃, H₂O... (Hetero atomic molecules)

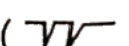
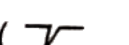
For H₂, Cl₂, O₂, N₂..... Homo atomic molecules $\mu=0$. So rotational spectrum is not possible.

2. $\Delta J = \pm 1$ $\Delta J = \text{Energy diff-b/w rotational levels.}$

Characteristic absorption bands of various functional groups:

In organic compounds there are various types of functional groups. Each functional group has its characteristic absorption frequency in IR-range. Based on these absorption frequency bands it is possible to detect nature of the functional group in the compound.

Some functional groups and their absorption frequencies are given below.

<u>Functional group</u>	<u>Absorption frequency region (cm⁻¹)</u>
C-H (Alkane)	2960-2850
C-C	1300-800
C=C	1650-1600
C≡C	2260-2100
C=C (aromatic)	1660 - 1500
O-H (Hydrogen Bond)	3400-3200
O-H (Free)	3600-3400
C=O	1750-1650
C=N	3210-2280
-NO ₂	1540
-NH ₂ (1°)	3500 - 3300 () two peaks
-N+ (2°)	3500 - 3300 () one peak

ELECTRONIC SPECTROSCOPY

Uv-Spectroscopy is the study of electronic transitions or rearrangement in the molecule produced from irradiation with UV-Visible light.

○ UV-Visible radiation brings about changes in electronic levels of molecules, also referred to as electronic spectroscopy, mainly valence electrons are involved in Transitions.

Bonding, Anti bonding molecular orbitals:

○ Linear combination of Atomic orbitals (LCAO) produces molecular orbitals (M.O.S)



○ Number of molecular orbitals produced are equal to no. of atomic orbitals mixed.

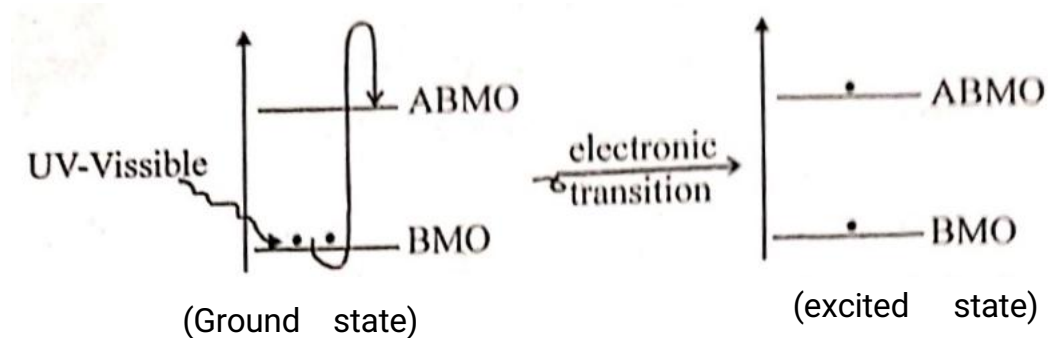


○ Half of the molecular orbitals possess low energy than Atomic orbitals and produced by addition method are called Bonding molecular orbitals.

○ Half of the molecular orbitals possess High energy than the Atomic orbitals and produced by subtraction method are called Antibonding molecular orbitals.

ELECTRONIC TRANSITION:

Promotion of electron from lower energy M.O to Higher energy M.O by interacting with radiation is called electronic transition.



The Range of UV-Visible radiation is 200 -800 nm

$\lambda=200-400\text{nm}$ -UV -radiation
400-800nm -Visible light

Energy levels of molecules:-

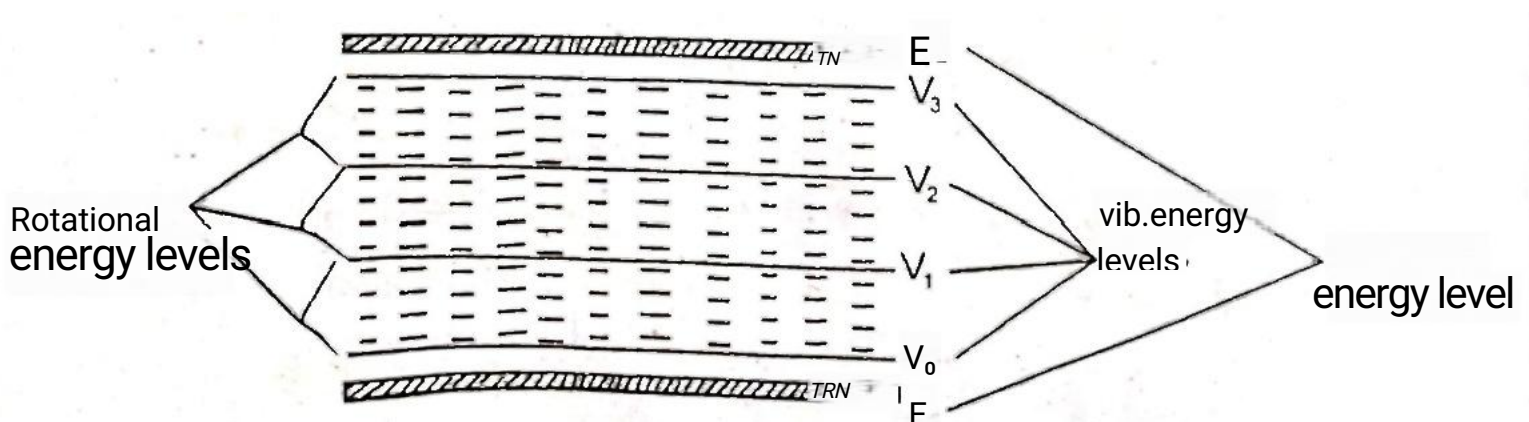
Generally molecules possess 4 types of energy levels. In molecules certain quantity of energy is stored internally, this energy is called Internal energy. It is associated with the following 4 types of energies.

- 1) Translational Energy
- 2) Vibration Energy
- 3) Rotational Energy
- 4) Electronic Energy

In the above four types of energies except translational energy remaining are quantised. The order of various energies is Electronic energy > Vib. energy > Rotation energy.

In b/w every two electronic energy levels, a number of vib. energy levels are present similarly in b/w every two vib. energy levels, a number of rotational energy levels are present.

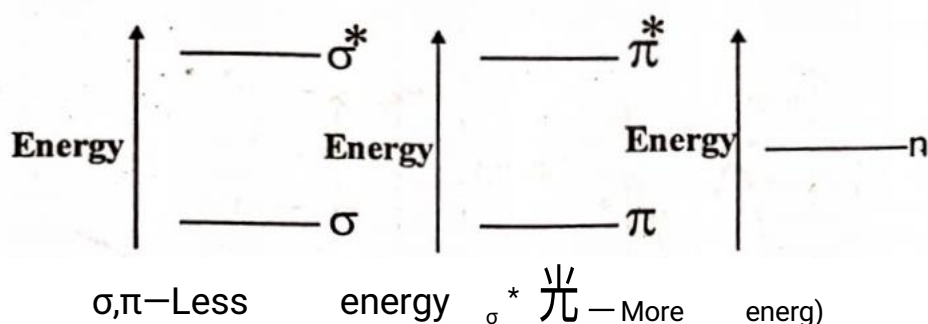
When electronic transition occurs that can lead to change in vib. and rotational energy levels of the molecules.



Types of electrons:

In organic compounds mainly there are three types of electron(bonds)

- (1) σ -bonded electrons -Ex: All org-molecules
- (2) π -bonded electrons -Ex: Unsaturated compound
- (3) non-bonded electrons -Ex: Compound with Lone pair of electrons



Based on nature of the electrons there are total six types of electronic transitions are possible in org. Compound they are

② $\sigma \rightarrow \sigma^*$ Transition

$\sigma \rightarrow \pi^*$ Transition

5) $\pi \rightarrow \pi^*$ Transition

6) $n \rightarrow \pi^*$ Transition

Although six transitions are possible but in reality only two types of transition ($\pi \rightarrow \pi^*$, $n \rightarrow n^*$) are detectable, remaining are ruled out because they occur in out of range of radiation.

($<200\text{nm}$ (or) $>400\text{nm}$)

1) $\sigma \rightarrow \sigma^*$ Transition:

Promotion of electron from σ -bonding M.O to σ^* -antibonding M.O in the absorption of UV - light..

Ex:- Alkanes ($\text{CH}_3\text{-CH}_3$), Cyclo alkanes, All org-compounds

2) $\pi \rightarrow \pi^*$ Transition:

Promotion of e⁻ from π -bonding M.O to π^* -Antibonding M.O by absorbing light

Ex: Unsaturated compounds (Alkenes, Alkynes, Carbonyl etc... Compounds)

3) $n \rightarrow \pi^*$ Transition:

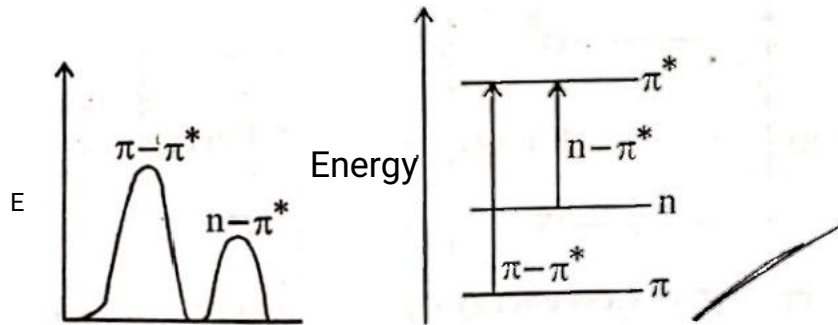
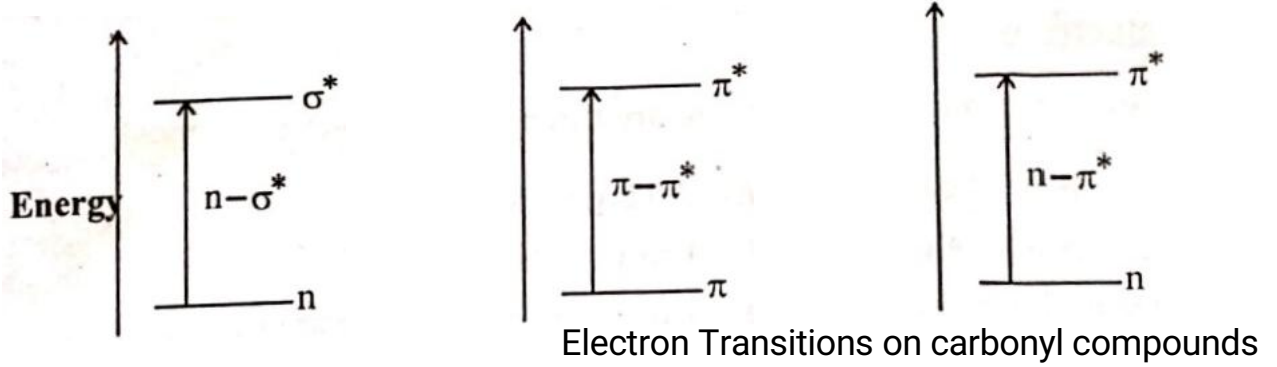
Promotion of e⁻ from Non-bonding M.O to π^* -Antibonding M.O.

Ex: Unsaturated compounds with Lone pair of electrons (Carbonyl compounds)

4) $n \rightarrow \sigma^*$ Transition:

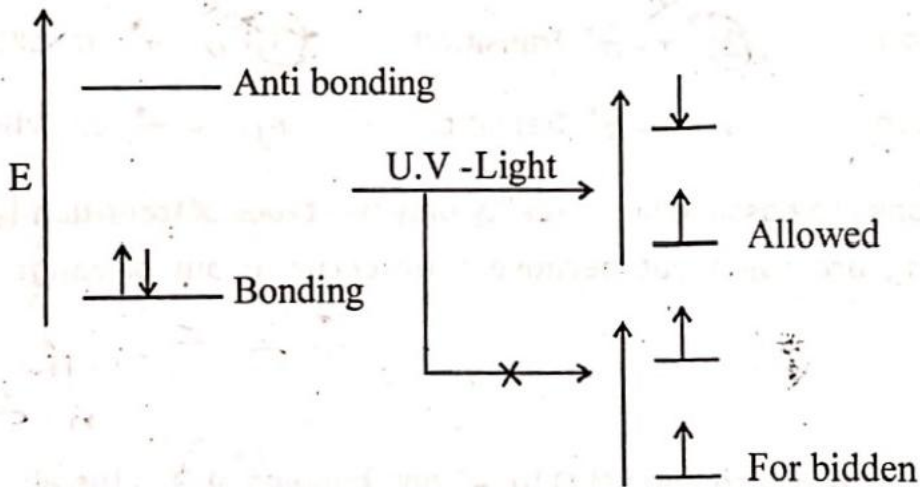
Promotion of e⁻ from Nonbonding M.O to σ^* -Antibonding M.O.

Ex: Saturated comp. With lone pair of e⁻s (Alcohols, Amines...)

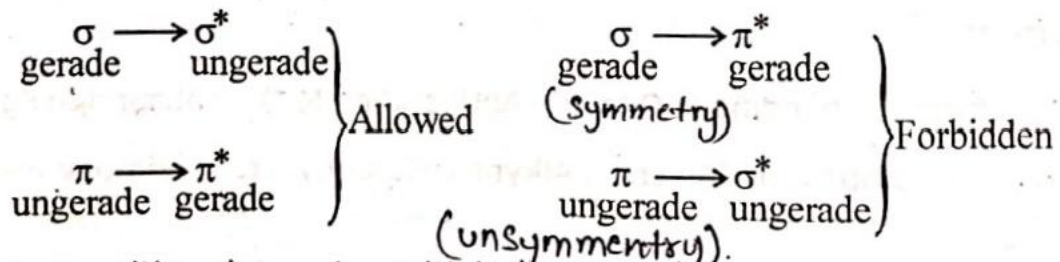


Selection Rules:

1. During the electronic transitions Retention of spin of electron is Allowed, Inversion of spin of electron is Forbidden.

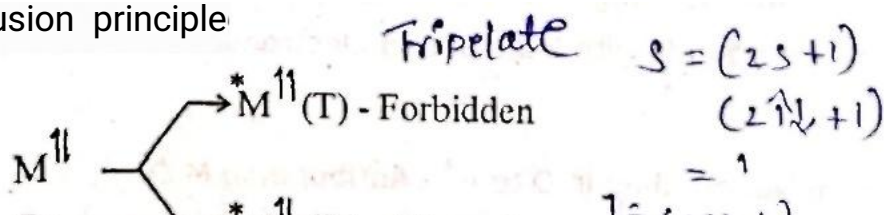


2. In electronic Transitions involved orbitals with different symmetry are allowed and orbitals with same symmetry are forbidden.



3. In electronic transition change in multiplicity is forbidden, Retention in multiplicity is Allowed

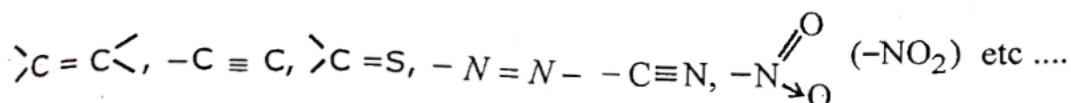
(multiplicity exclusion principle)



Terminology:- chromophore

The group which is responsible for absorption of UV-Visible range of radiation is called chromophore. These groups impart colour to the molecules.

Ex: All unsaturated groups are chromophores



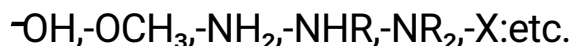
Nitro ($-NO_2$) group imparts yellow colour to the compound

Azo ($-N=N-$) group imparts colour to the compounds

2. Auxochrome:

Groups which cannot absorb UV-visible range of radiation by themselves, but enhance absorption wavelengths of chromophores are called auxochromes.

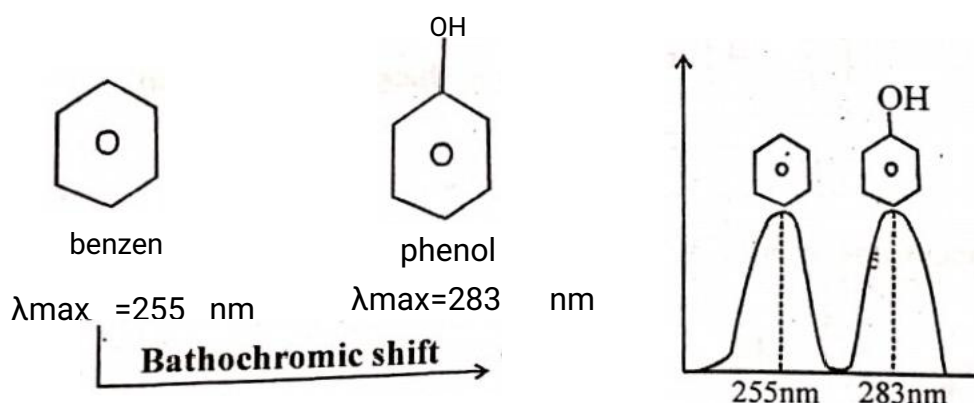
Ex: Group with lone pair of electrons.



Auxochromes are called colour intensifiers.

3. Bathochromic shift / Red shift:

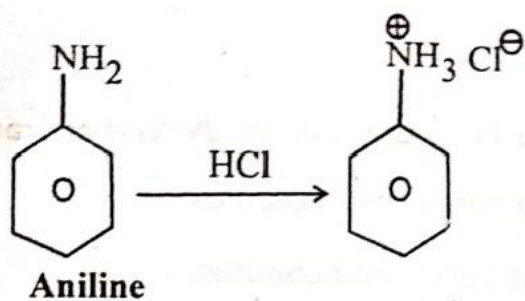
Shifting of UV-Visible band towards longer wavelengths (or) right side in a spectrum is called bathochromic shift (or) red shift.



4. Hypsochromic shift / Blue shift:

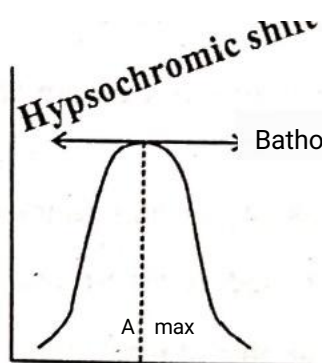
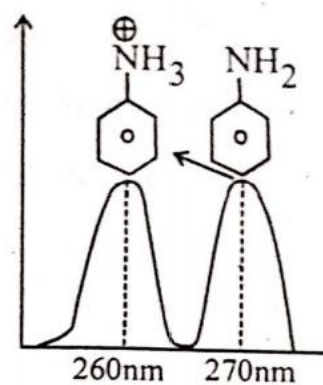
Shifting of UV-Visible band towards shorter wavelength (or) left side in a spectrum is called hypsochromic shift (or) blue shift.

Ex:



$\lambda_{\text{max}} = 270 \text{ nm}$ $\lambda_{\text{max}} = 260 \text{ nm}$

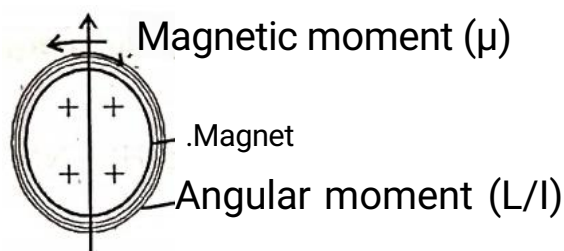
Hypsochromic shift



shift

P. ROTON MAGNETIC RESONANCE SPECTROSCOPY

Nature of nucleus

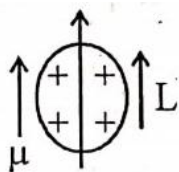


Spinning nucleus

Rotation of particle around its own axis called spinning.

Spinning nucleus produces magnetic field, therefore nucleus act as tiny bar magnet. Useful for NMR spectroscopy.

Spinning nucleus associates with magnetic moment vector (μ) and Angular momentum vector (L). Both are parallel to each other at nucleus.



Angular momentum $L/F_1 = \sqrt{TC+1}$.

I = sum of spin Quantum members

Spin quantum number zero - nucleus is non-magnetic.

S.N O	No. of 'P'S	No. of 'n'S	At. N O	Man No.	Spin Q.No(1)	Example
	Even	Even	Even	Even	Zero	${}^6_6\text{C}^{12} \cdot {}^{16}_{16}\text{S}^{32} \cdot {}^8_8\text{O}^{16}$
2	Even	Odd	Even	Odd	Non Integer NON INTEG ($\frac{1}{2}, \frac{3}{2}, \dots$)	$\text{C}^{13} 4=5) \cdot \text{g}^7 (=3)$
3	Odd	even	Odd	Odd	Non-Integer	$\text{N}^{15} (I=\frac{1}{2}), \text{F}^{19} (I=\frac{1}{2})$
4	Odd	Zero	Odd	Odd	Non-Integer	$?^3 (=5) \cdot \text{H} (=5)$
5	Odd	Odd	Odd	Even	Integer (1,2,3...)	$\text{N} (t=1) \cdot \text{D} (I=1)$

Principle:-

In the absence of external magnetic field spin orientation of nuclei are random:once

·magnetic field is applied at the nuclei disorder /random arrangement of nuclei disappears and nuclei orients in two possible directions.

In one orientation nuclear spins are parallel to direction of external magnetic field(Aligned orientation E_α),In another orientation nuclear spins are Ir to direction of external magneticfie:

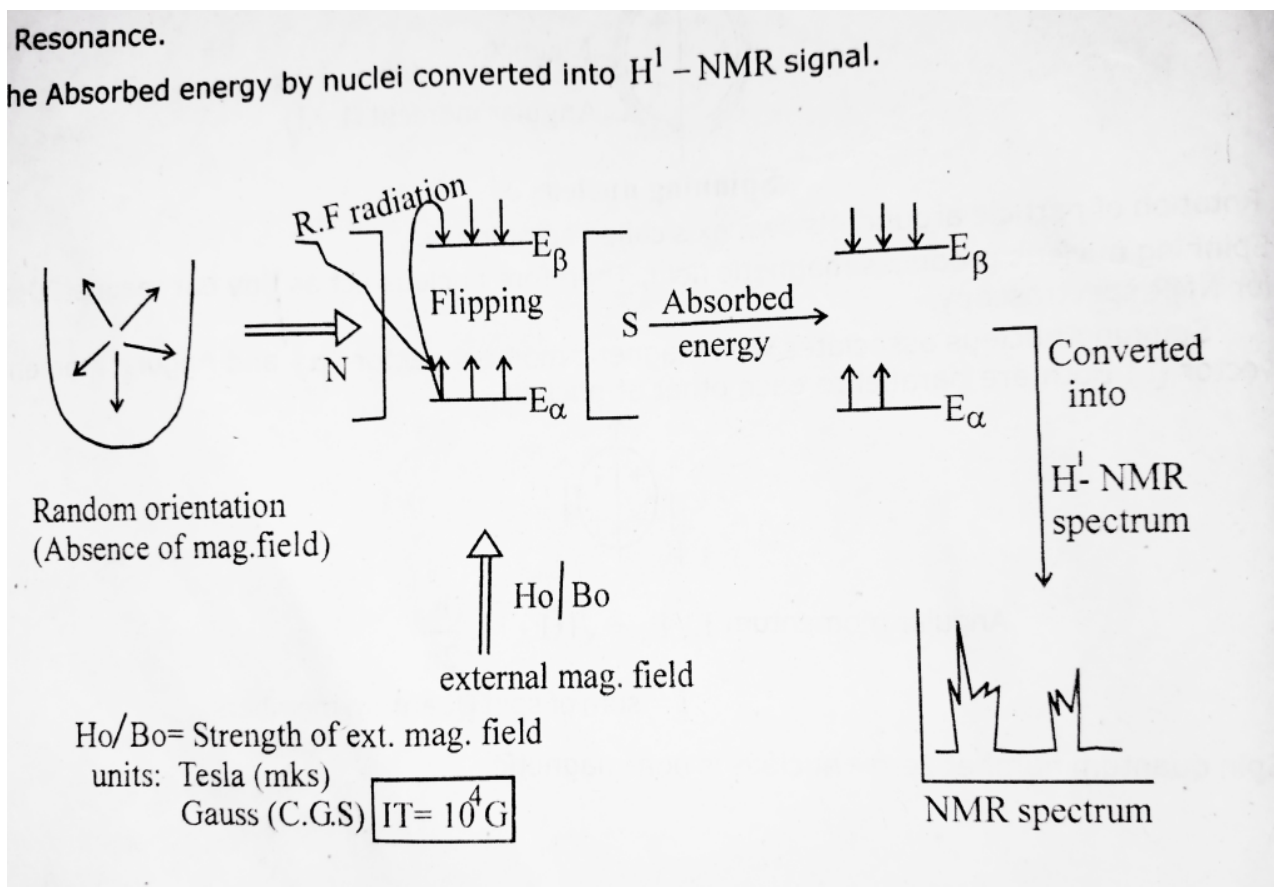
(opposed orientation E_β).Little excess of nuclei with aligned arrangement,then opposed arrangement

Under resonance condition,if nuclei irradiated with Radio frequency(RF)radiation nucle absorbs energy and participate in upward transitions with change in spin orientations are called a

Flipping of nuclei.

Resonance:- Matching of energy of R.F.radiation and energy gap of two nuclear energy levels called Resonance.

The Absorbed energy by nuclei converted into H^1 -NMR signal.

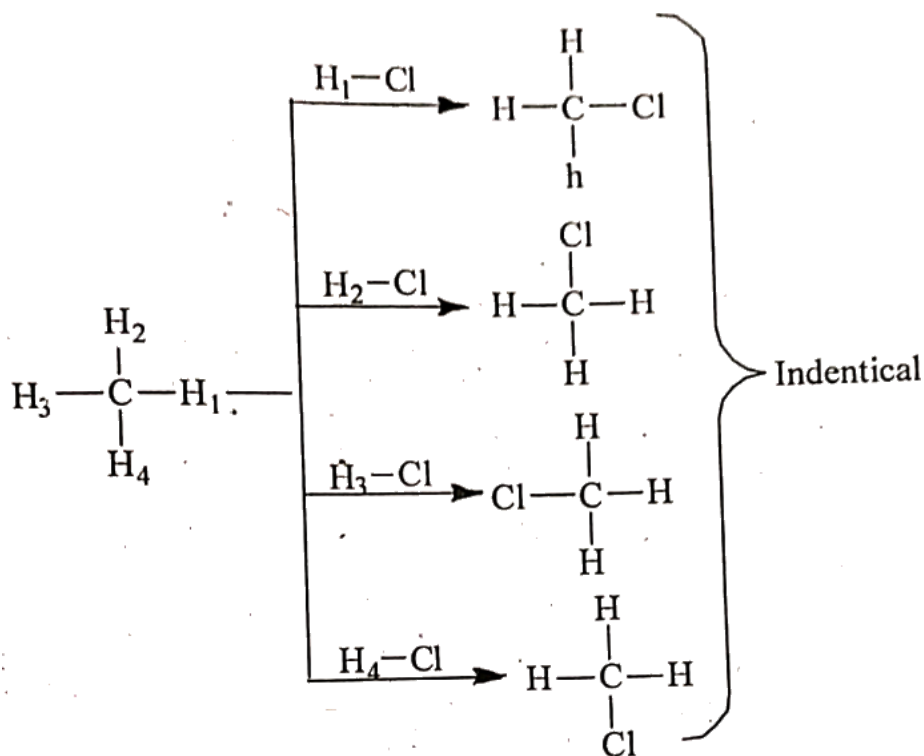


Equivalent and Non-equivalent protons:-

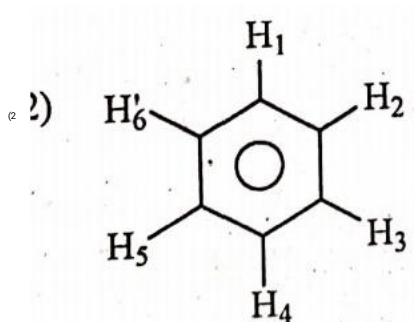
Equivalent protons:-

protons which possess same chemical environments and similar chemical shift (δ) values are called equivalent protons.

Ex:-(1) $\text{CH}_4 \rightarrow$ 4-protons of methane are equivalent i.e. 1 set



$\therefore \text{H}_1, \text{H}_2, \text{H}_3, \text{H}_4$ Protons are equivalent = 1 set

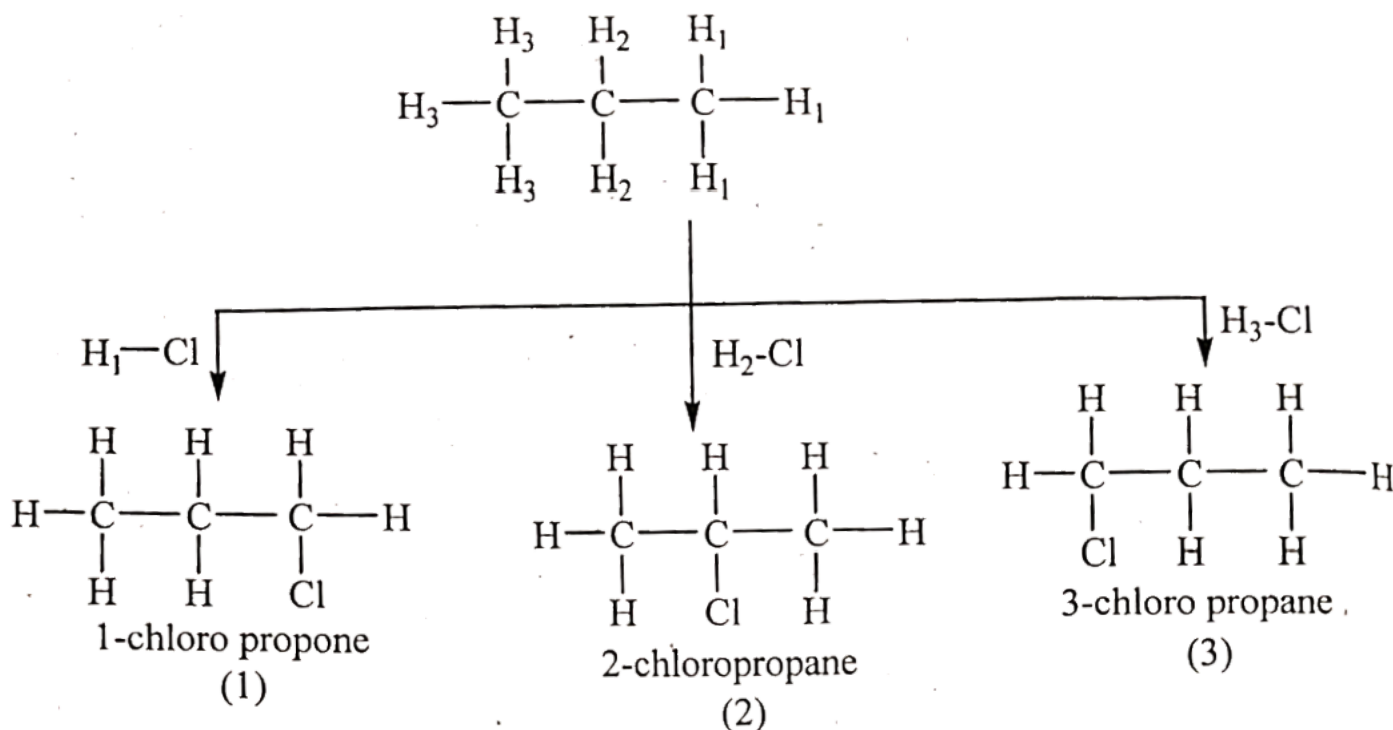


All the 6-H of benzene are equivalent

Non-equivalent protons:-

Protons which possess different chemical environments and show different chemical shift (δ) values are called Non-equivalent protons.

Ex--CH₃—CH₂—CH₃--Propane



(1),(3)are Identical → equivalent

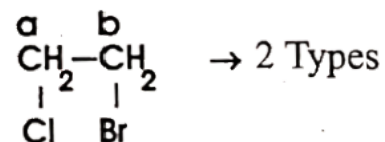
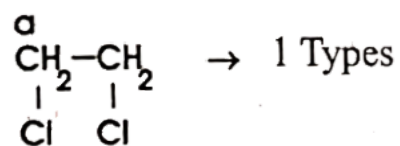
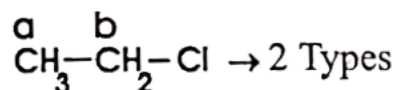
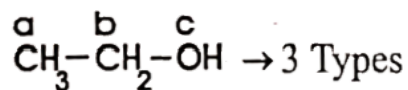
(2) → different

∴ Two types of protons = 2 sets

(2)CH₃-CH₂-OH-Ethanol

Ethanol posses three Non-equivalent sets of protons.

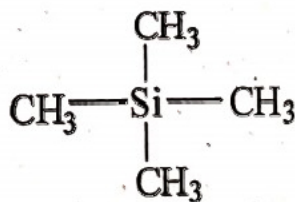
Examples: _____



The change in the position of nmr signal when compared with reference compound due to shielding(or) deshielding effect of protons is called chemical shift (δ)

$$\text{Chemical shift } (\delta) = \frac{\nu_{\text{Sample}} - \nu_{\text{Reference}}}{\nu_{\text{Instrument}}} \quad \text{(Hz)}$$

The reference compound used in NMR spectroscopy is TMS (Tetramethyl silane)



$\delta=0$

0 Chem.shift of equivalent protons is always same.

0 Chem.shit of non-equivalent protons is always different

$$\text{Chemical shift } (\delta) \propto \text{E.N}$$

Ex:-- CH_3 , -OH, NH_2 protons

E.N = $\text{O} > \text{N} > \text{C}$

$\delta = -\text{OH} > -\text{NH}_2 > -\text{CH}_3$

Type of proton	Chemical shift (δ)
Alcohols $\text{H}-\text{C}-\text{OH}$	3.4 - 4.0
Aldelydes $\text{R}-\text{CHO}$	9.0-10.0
Acids $\text{H}-\text{C}-\text{COOH}$	2.0 -2.5
Armomatic $\text{Ar}-\text{H}$	6.0-9.0
Acetylenic $-\text{C}=\text{CH}$	2-3
Ether $\text{H}-\text{C}-\text{OR}$	3.3 -4.0
s $\text{H}-\text{C}-\text{COOR}$	2-2.2
Esters $\text{R}-\text{OH}$	1-5.5
Hvdro $\text{R}-\text{CH}_3$	0.9
xy	
Alkan	
e	

Spin multiplicity:

Total number of lines in a nmr signal is called multiplicity

nmr-Signal	Namg	<u>Symbol</u>	<u>Spin multiplicity</u>
 One line	Singlet	S	1
 Two lines	Doublet	d	2
 Three lines	Triplet	t	3
 Four lines	Quartet	q	4
	Pentet	P	5
	Multiplet	m	5

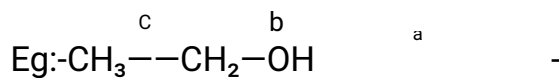
Splitting of nmr-signal:-

Due to interaction of spin of one particular set of protons with the spin of Neighbouring protons leads to splitting of nmr-signals.

0 Splitting of nmr signal is due to spin-spin coupling process.

Spin -Spin coupling:-

The process of spin of one particular set of protons coupled with the spin of neighbouring protons is called spin-spin coupling.



Ethyl alcohol

spin multiplicity of proton = $n + 1$

n = no. of neighbouring protons

for $-\text{OH}$ proton = no. of neighbouring protons (n) = 2

multiplicity of $-\text{OH}$ proton = $n + 1$

$$= 2 + 1$$

$$= 3$$



(Triplet)

or $-\text{CH}_2$ protons no. of neighbouring protons (n) = 3

$\therefore$ multiplicity of $-\text{CH}_2$ protons = $n + 1$

$$= 3 + 1$$

$$= 4$$



Quartet

quartet

for $-\text{CH}_3$ protons = no. of neighbouring protons (n) = 2 ($-\text{CH}_2$)

$\therefore$ multiplicity of $-\text{CH}_3$ protons = $n + 1$

$$= 2 + 1$$

$$= 3$$

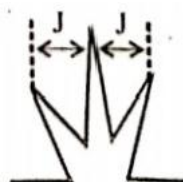


Triplet)

Coupling constant (J):

The distance between the two adjacent peaks in a multiplet is called coupling constant. The value of the coupling constant is independent of the external field.

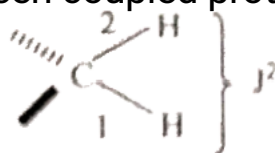
> it is measured in Hertz (HZ) (or) in cycles per second (CPS).



Types of coupling in ^1H -NMR

1. Geminal coupling $J_{\text{gem}}(\text{or}) J_2$

$j^* \times \text{no. of intervening bonds between coupled protons,}$



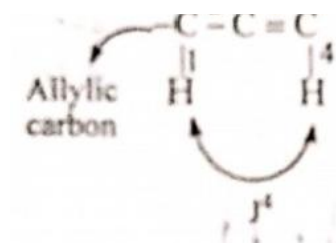
Coupling interactions of protons attached to same carbon are geminal couplings (N)

2. Vicinal coupling



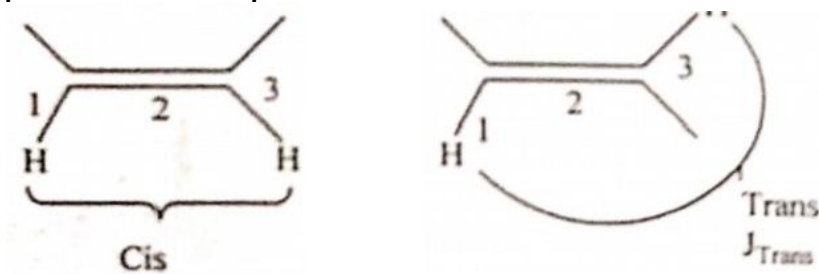
Coupling between adjacent carbon atom protons

3. Allylic coupling



Cis-trans coupling

Coupling between cis-protons/trans protons



Jay

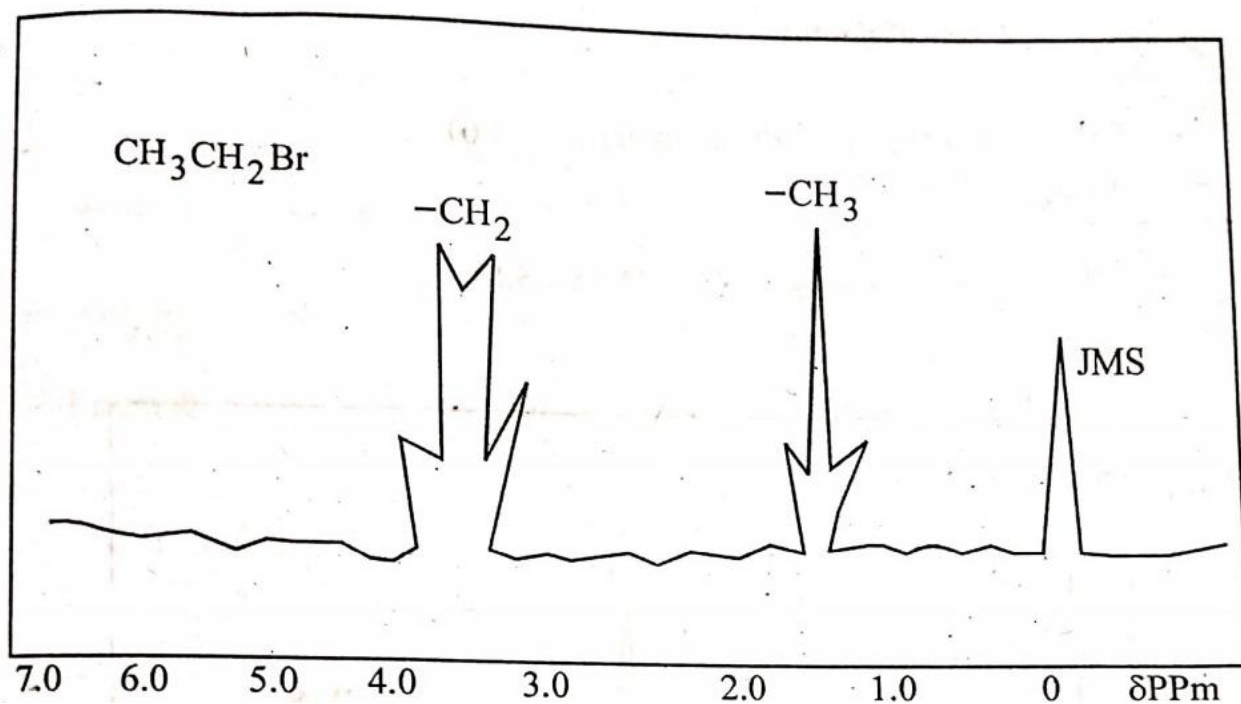
^1H -NMR spectra of some organic compounds:-

1) Ethyl bromide:-

^b
 $-\text{CH}_2 \rightarrow n=3$

from $n+1$ rule

$$3+1=4(\text{Quartet})(\delta=3.3)$$



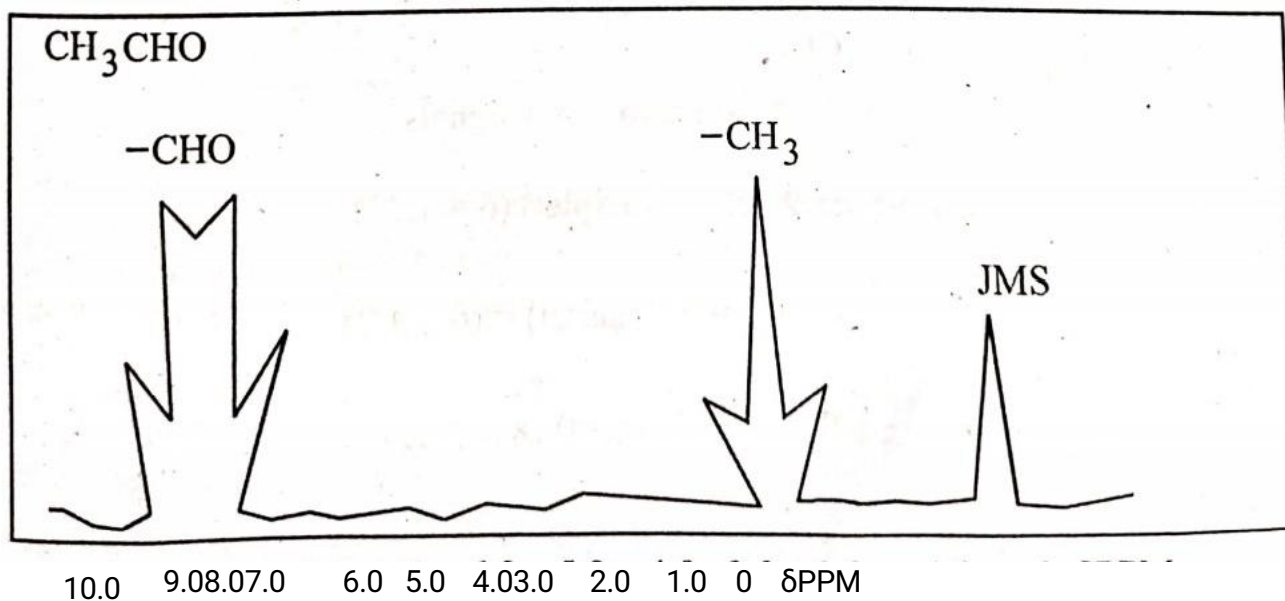
2) Acetaldehyde:-

CH_3 ;

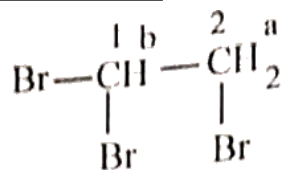
2-sets of protons

$-\text{CH}_2 \rightarrow n=1 \rightarrow 1+1=2(\text{Doublet})(\delta=2.2)$

$-\text{CHO} \rightarrow n=3 \rightarrow 3+1=4(\text{Quartet})(\delta=9.5)$



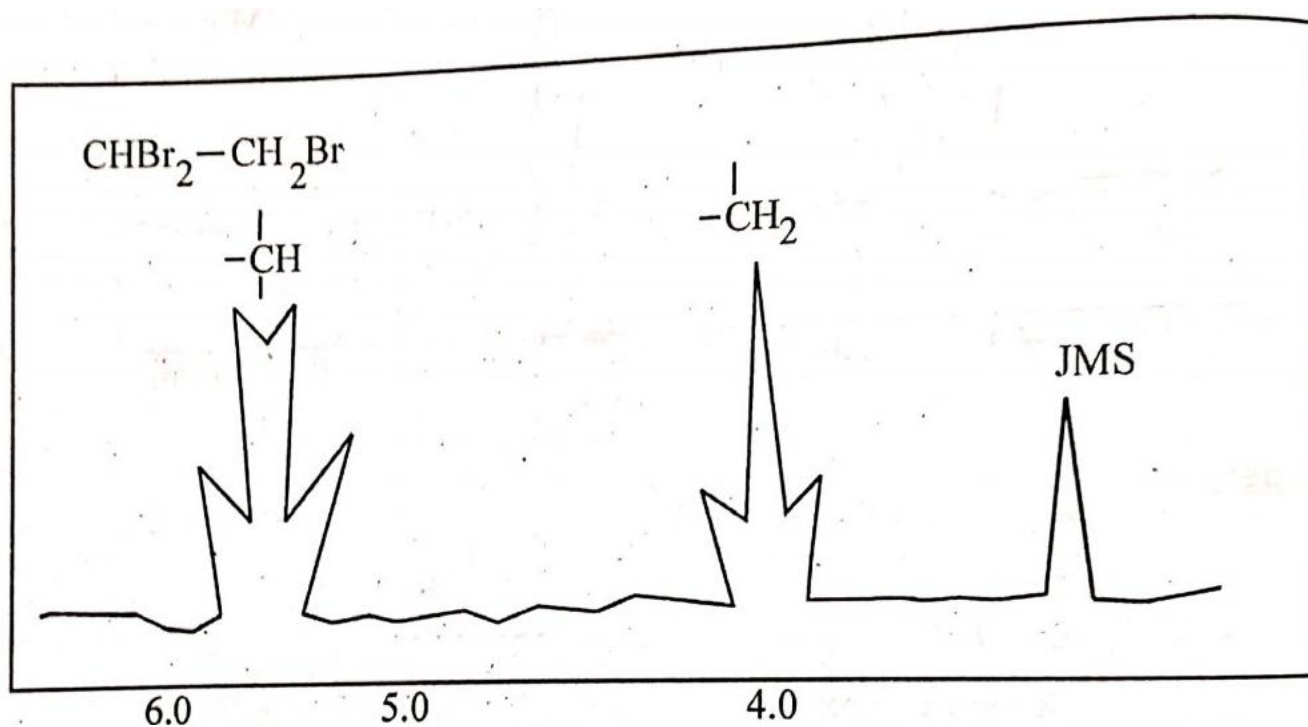
(3) 1,2-Tribromo ethane:



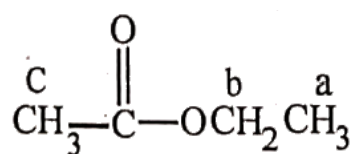
2-sets of protons

$$-\text{CH}_2- \Rightarrow n=1 \Rightarrow 1+1=2 (\text{doublet}) (\delta=4.0)$$

$$-\text{CH}- \Rightarrow n=2 \Rightarrow 2+1=3 (\text{triplet}) (\delta=5.8)$$



Ethyl acetate

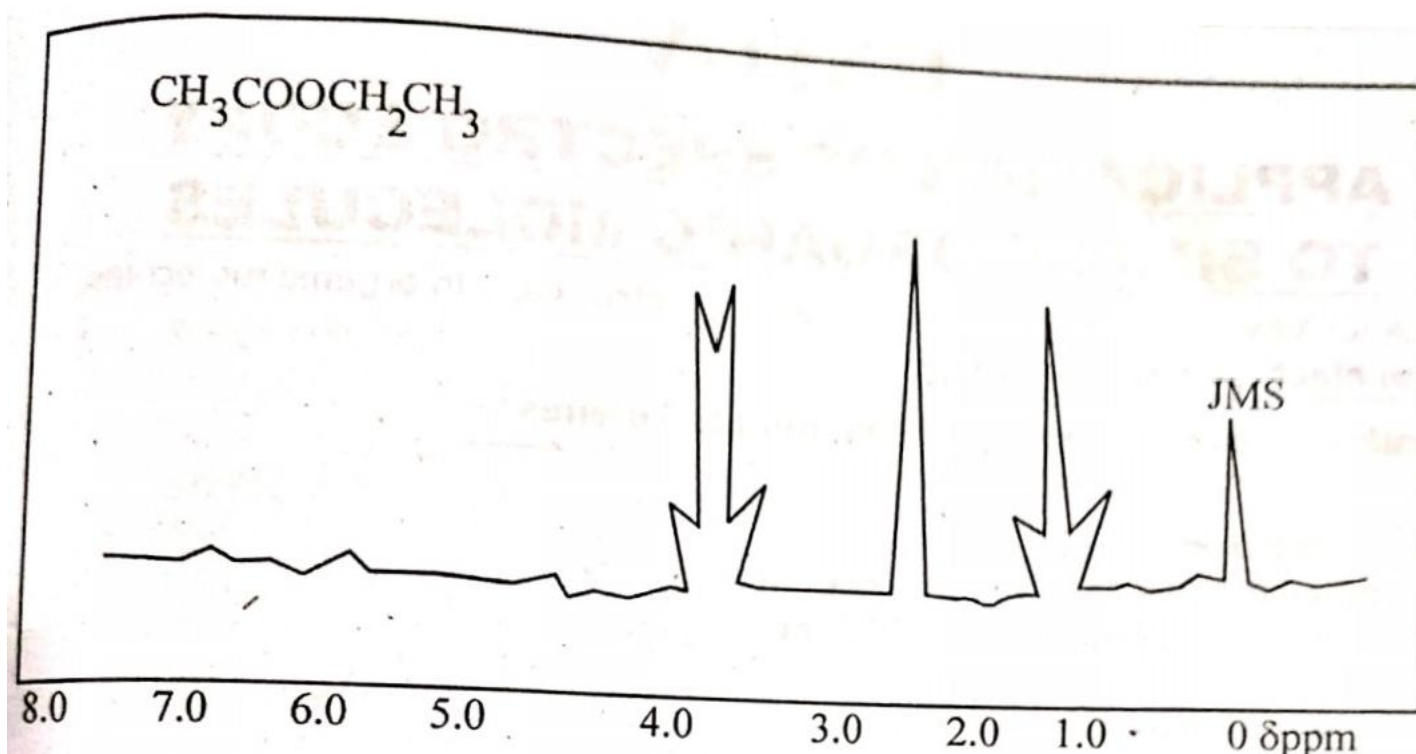


→ 3 sets of protons = 3 signals

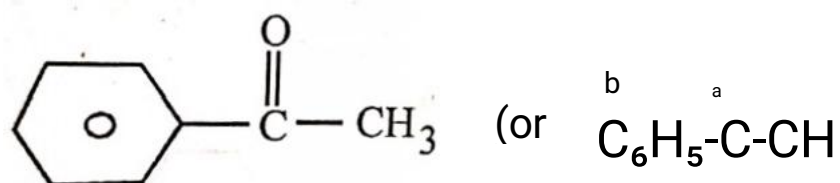
$$-\text{CH}_3^{\text{a}} \Rightarrow n=2 \Rightarrow 2+1=3 (\text{Triplet}) (\delta=1.21)$$

$$-\text{CH}_2^{\text{b}} \Rightarrow n=3 \Rightarrow 3+1=4 (\text{Quartet}) (\delta=4.2)$$

$$-\text{CH}_3^{\text{c}} \Rightarrow n=0 \Rightarrow 0+1=1 (\text{singlet}) (\delta=2.09)$$



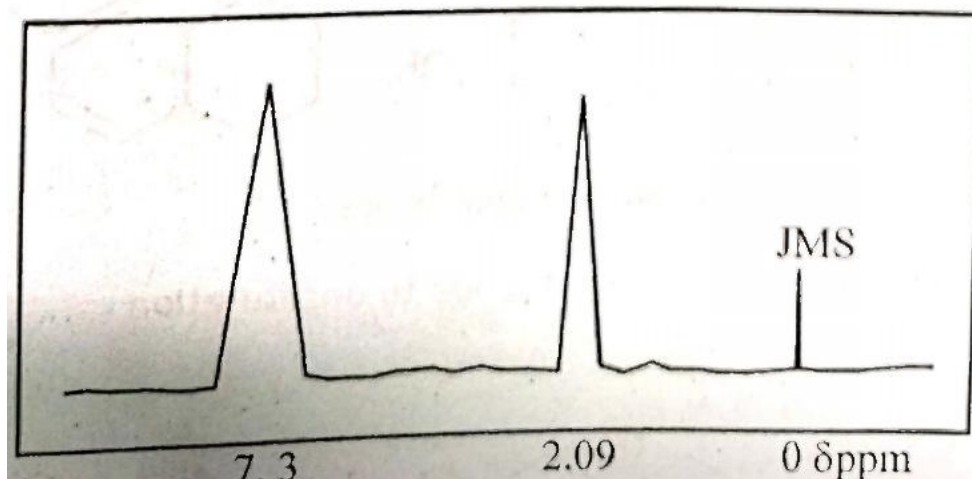
Acetophenone:-



2-sets of protons = 2 signals

$-\text{CH}_3 \rightarrow n=0 \rightarrow 0+1=1 (\text{Singlet}) (\delta=2.09)$

$-\text{C}_6\text{H}_5 \rightarrow n=0 \rightarrow 0+1=1 (\text{Singlet}) (\delta=7.3)$



APPLICATION OF SPECTROSCOPY TO SIMPLE ORGANIC MOLECULES

Application of visible ultraviolet and infrared spectroscopy in organic molecules.

Application of electronic spectroscopy:

Woodward rules for calculating λ_{max} of conjugated dienes :-

Rules:

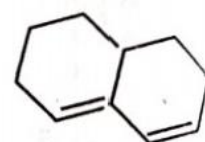
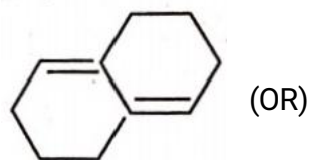
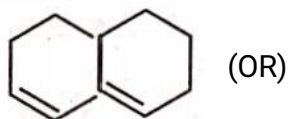
1. For a cyclic diene base value = 217 nm
2. For hetero annular diene base value = 214 nm
3. For homo annular diene base value = 253 nm

Increments:-

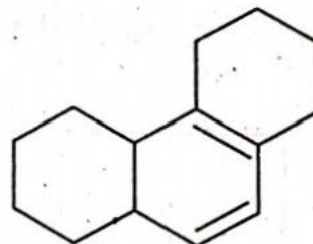
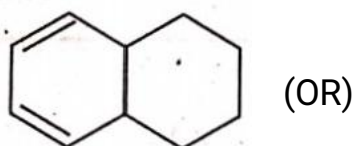
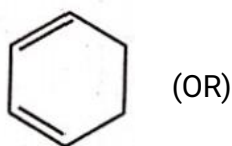
1. Per alkyl group/Ring residue = +5 nm
2. Per exo double bond = +5 nm
3. Per extended conjugation = +30 nm
4. Per Halo group = +5 nm

→ extended conjugation

Acyclic diene



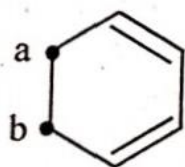
Hetero annular dienes



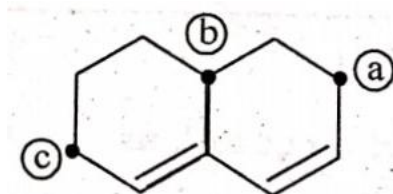
Homo annular diene

Ring residue

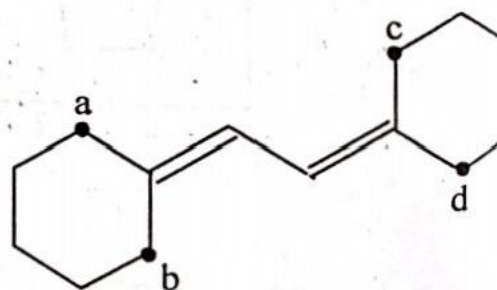
Saturated ring carbon groups directly attached to unsaturation



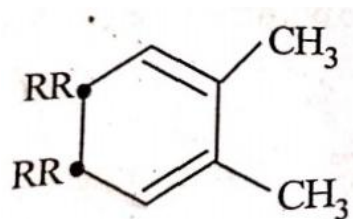
a & b → Ring residue



a, b, c → RR's



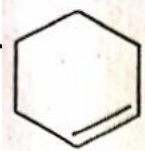
4-Ring residue



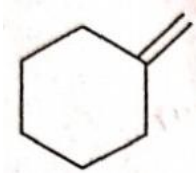
→ 2-RR's
2-Alkyl su

EXO CYCLIC DOUBLE BOND

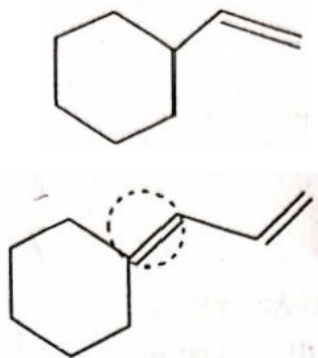
Double bond arranged out of ring, with one substituent



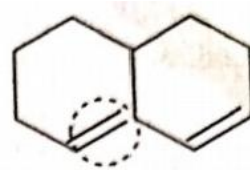
Not exocyclic



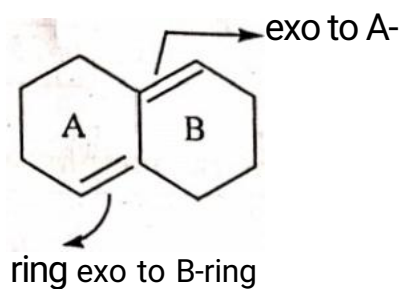
exo cyclic db



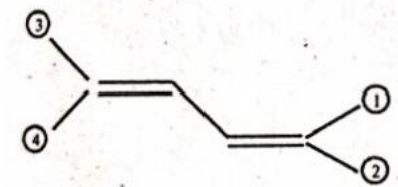
exo cyclic



exo cyclic db



→ If molecules having both homo annular and hetero annular dienes to apply Woodward rules, Homo annular should be selected.



$$\begin{array}{rcl} \text{Base value} & = & 217\text{nm} \\ 4\text{-Alkyl gps} & = & +20\text{nm} \\ (4 \times 5\text{nm}) & & \hline \end{array}$$

Ex:1.

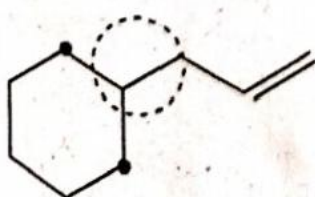
Acyclic diene

$$\lambda_{\text{max}} = 237 \text{ nm}$$

$$\begin{array}{rcl} \text{Base value} & = & 217\text{nm} \\ 2\text{-Alkyl gps} & = & +10\text{nm} \\ (2 \times 5\text{nm}) & & \hline \end{array}$$

$$\lambda_{\text{max}} = 227 \text{ nm}$$

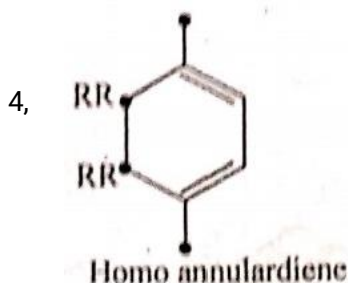
Acyclic diene



Acyclic diene

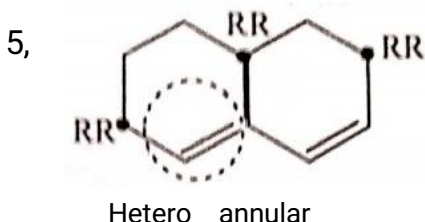
$$\begin{array}{rcl} \text{Base value} & = & 217\text{nm} \\ 2\text{-Ring residue} & = & +10\text{nm} \\ 1\text{-exodouble bond} & = & +5\text{nm} \\ & & \hline \end{array}$$

$$\lambda_{\text{max}} = 232 \text{ nm}$$



Base value = 253nm
 2-Alkyl group +10nm
 (2×5nm)
 2-Ring residue +410nm
 (2×5nm)

$$\lambda_{\max} = 273 \text{ nm}$$



Base value = 215nm 214nm
 3-Ring residue = +15nm
 (3×5nm)
 1-exocyclic double bond = +5nm

$$\lambda_{\max} = 234 \text{ nm}$$

α,β-unsaturated compounds / enone chromophore :-

Rules:

1. Parent acyclic (or) six-membered and higher membered ketones base value = 215nm
2. Parent five membered cyclic ketones base = 202nm
3. Parent α,β-unsaturated aldehyde base value = 207nm
4. Parent α,β-unsaturated acid / ester base value = 195nm

Increments :-

1. Per alkyl / Ring residue at
 - 'α' = +10nm
 - 'β' = +12nm
 - γ / higher = +18nm

2. Per exo-cyclic double bond = +5nm

3. Per extended conjugation = +30nm

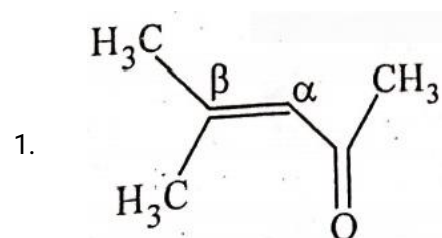
4. Per-OH group at

- α = +35nm
- β = +30nm
- γ = +50nm

5. Per chloro at

- α = +15nm
- β = +12nm

Examples :-

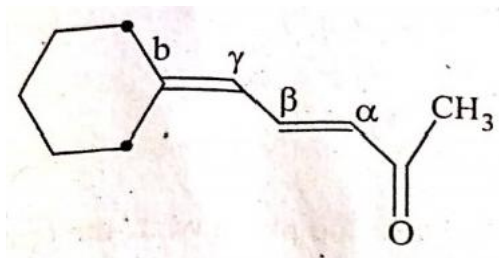


Acyclic

NATCANNA

Base value = 215 nm
 Two alkyls at (β) (2×12nm) = +24nm
 $\lambda_{\max} = 239 \text{ nm}$

2.



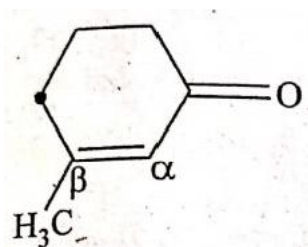
Base value =215nm
 1-extended conjugation 1-exo =+30 nm
 db =+5nm
 =+36nm

aty/morethan'y'2-RR's

$$(2 \times 18 \text{ nm}) \lambda_{\max} = 286 \text{ nm}$$

✓ B

3.



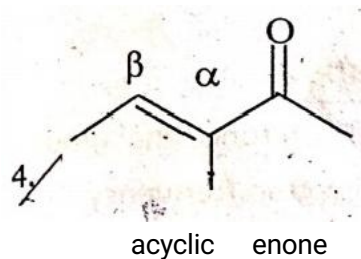
Base value =215nm

1-Alkyl at g=+12nm

1-RR at beta=+12nm

$$\lambda_{\max} = 239 \text{ nm}$$

6-membered enone



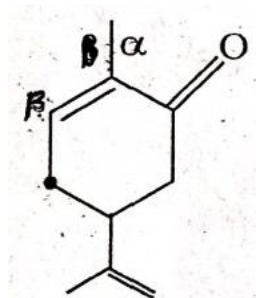
Base value =215nm
 1-Alkyl at a=+10nm

1-Alkyl at beta=+12nm

$$\lambda_{1\max} = 237 \text{ nm}$$

&15.
 10
 12

5



Base value =215nm

1-Alkyl at alpha=+10nm

1-RR at beta=+12nm

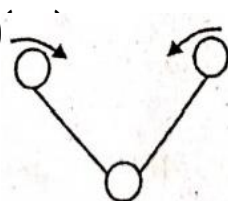
$$\lambda_{\max} = 237 \text{ nm}$$

Cyclic 6-membered enone

Types of molecular vibration:

1. scissors

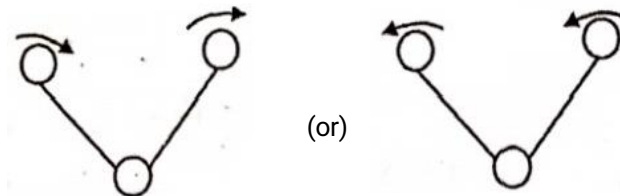
Two atoms approach each other in opposite direction.



ent of the atoms takes place in

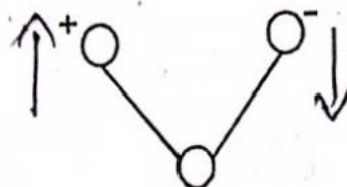
2. Rocking

In this type the movement of the atoms takes place in the same directi.



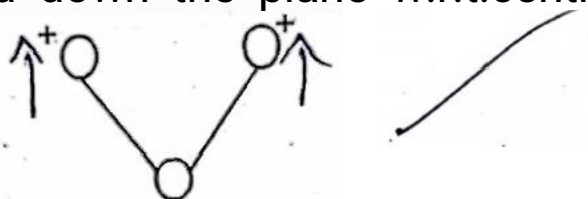
3. Twisting

the atom moves up the plane and the other moves down the plane w.r.t. the central atom.



4. Wagging:

Two atoms move up and down the plane w.r.t. central atom.



Characteristic absorption bands of various functional groups:

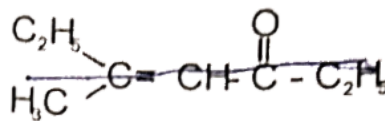
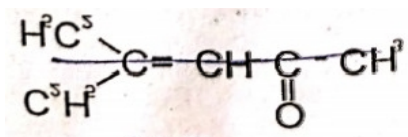
In organic compounds there are various types of functional groups. Each functional group has its characteristic absorption frequency in IR-range. Based on these absorption frequency bands it is possible to detect the nature of the functional group in the compound.

Some functional groups and their absorption frequencies are given

Functional group	Absorption frequency region
(cm ⁻¹)	
C-H(Akane)	2960-2850
C-C	1300 -800
C=C	1650-1600
C=C	2260-2100
C=C(aeromatic)	1660-1500
O-H(Hydrogen Bond)	3400-3200
O-H(Fee)	3600-3400
CC=O	1750-1650
C=N	3210-2280
-NO ₂	1540
-NH ₂ (1°)	3500.-3300(V wo peaks)
-NH ₂ (2°)	3500-3300(one peak)

Fingerprint region:

In IR spectroscopy the frequency range 1400-910 cm⁻¹ is called fingerprint region. In this region each compound has some specific absorption bands. Functional group region in IR cannot distinguish the structurally closer

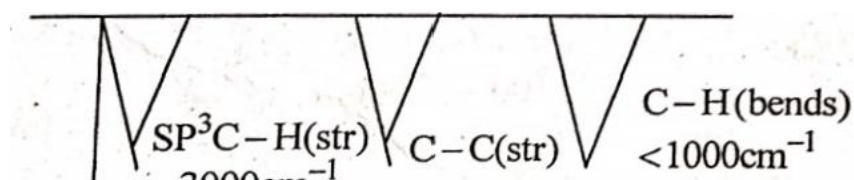


IR spectra of alkanes

такаже смо гурез оГ Ђапаз (C-H апа C-C)
spectra can be interpreted in terms of four vibrations.

1. C-H stretching
2. C-H bending

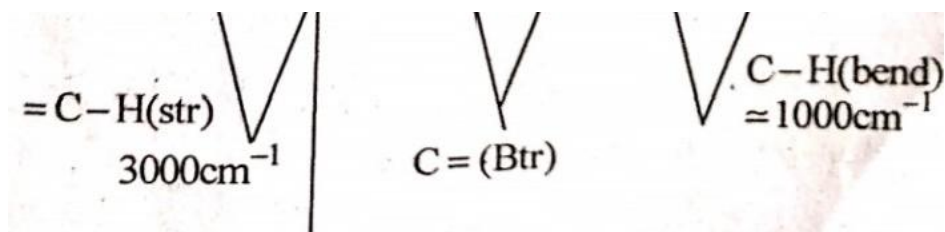
C-H(bend) $\rightarrow$ 1000 to 750 cm^{-1} ($< 1000 \text{ cm}^{-1}$)



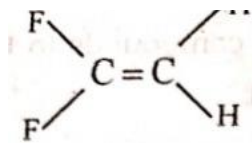
1100–1300 cm^{-1}

2. Alkenes

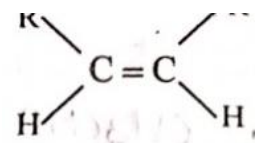
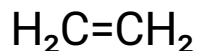
1
2



Presence of substituents on double bonded carbons also influences vibrational frequencies. Presence of -I.E of groups increases vib. frequencies and +M.E group decreases vibrational frequencies,



$$\nu_{C=C} = 1730 \text{ cm}^{-1}$$



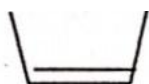
$$\nu_{C=C} = 1600-1580 \text{ cm}^{-1}$$

$$\nu_{C=C} = 1640 \text{ cm}^{-1}$$

In Cis & trans isomers cis vibrational frequency is larger than trans vibrational frequency

— In alkynes

$$1. \text{C}=\text{C}(\text{str}) = \nu \sim 2100-$$



$$970 \text{ cm}^{-1}$$

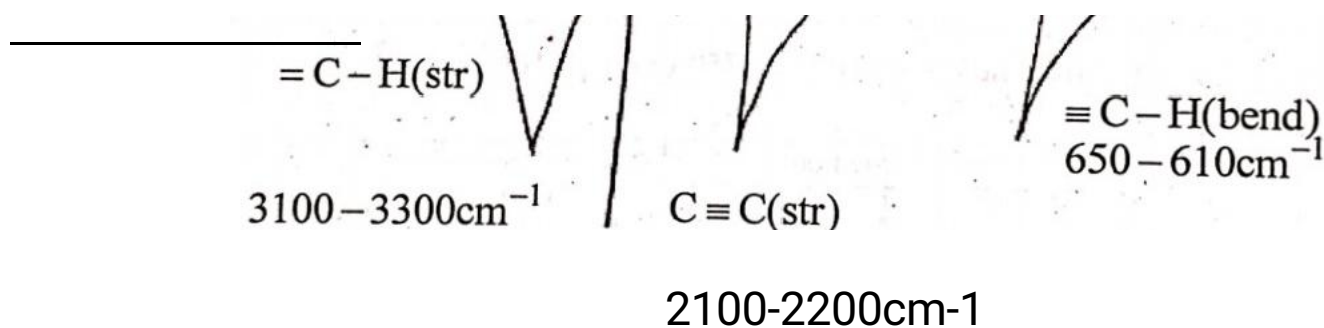


$$730-650 \text{ cm}^{-1}$$

3. Alkynes:-

$$2. \text{C}-\text{H}(\text{str}) \quad \nu \sim 3100-3300 \text{ cm}^{-1}$$

$$3. \text{C}-\text{H}(\text{bend}) \rightarrow \nu \sim 650-610 \text{ cm}^{-1}$$



4. Alcohols (-OH):-

$$\nu_{\text{O-H}(\text{free})} = 3600-3400 \text{ cm}^{-1}$$

$$\nu_{\text{O-H}(\text{H-bonded})} = 3200-3400 \text{ cm}^{-1}$$

$$\nu_{\text{C-O}(\text{Sr})} = 1000-1300 \text{ cm}^{-1}$$

Alcohols ;-

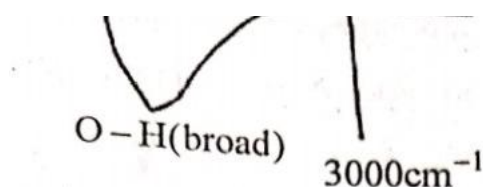
$$\bar{\nu}_{\text{C-O(str)}} \approx 1050 \text{ cm}^{-1}$$

$$\bar{\nu}_{\text{C-O(sr)}} = 1100 \text{ cm}^{-1}$$

$$\bar{\nu}_{\text{C-O(str)}} = 1200 \text{ cm}^{-1}$$

$$\text{Phenolic C-O(str)} = 1250 \text{ cm}^{-1}$$

ICATIAN.S.NALGONDA



helbqn gwinbs
egus

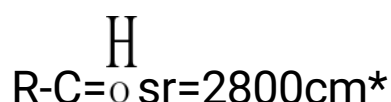
Ex:-IR spectra of ethanol consists the following band

O-H(str) → 3330cm⁻¹
C-H(str)- 2996cm⁻¹

C-H(str)- → 2924cm⁻¹

C-O(str)(for-1-Alcohols) 1050cm⁻¹

The O-H stretching depends upon concentration, nature of the solvent and temperature 5. Aldehydes (-CHO) & Ketones (-COR):-

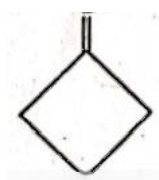


Carbonyl carbon C-H(str) is highly characteristic of Aldehydes, appears at 2800cm⁻¹ very intense.

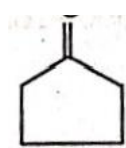
The appearance of a strong band in the spectrum between 1650-1750cm⁻¹ shows the presence of a carbonyl (C=O) function.

The C=O(Str) absorption for formaldehyde (HCHO) is 1750cm⁻¹ and for acetaldehyde is 1745cm⁻¹ and for acetone (CH₃-COCH₃) is 1718cm⁻¹.

Aldehydes can be easily distinguished from ketones due to the presence of C-H(Str) absorption band at near 2820cm⁻¹.

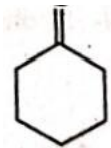


m



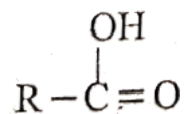
ν
C=O(Str) = 1775cm⁻¹

$\nu \sim 1750\text{cm}^{-1}$



$$\nu \sim 1715 \text{ cm}^{-1}$$

→ Ring size increases C=O(str) frequency decreases.
 6. Carboxylic acids and their derivatives :



Carboxylic group(-COOH) is the easiest functional group to detect by infrared spectroscopy since this group can be considered as being formed from C=O and O-H units.

»The absorption of O-H (Str) appears as a broadband near $3000-2500\text{cm}^{-1}$.
The y

stretching absorption in aliphatic acids occurs at $1725-1700\text{cm}^{-1}$

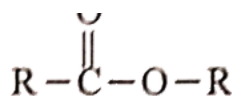
$$\nu_{\text{O-H (str)}} = 3000-2500\text{cm}^{-1}$$

$$\nu_{\text{C=O (str)}} = 1720-1750\text{cm}^{-1}$$

Some of the acids like acetic acid, benzoic acid exist as dimers due to hydrogen bonding.

Formation of bridge lowers the force constant and thus $\nu_{\text{C=O}}$ and $\nu_{\text{O-H}}$ absorption occurs at lower wave number.

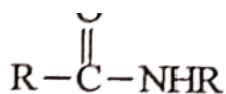
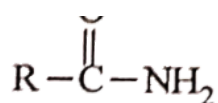
Esters :-



$$\nu_{\text{C=O (Str)}} = 1750-1725\text{cm}^{-1}$$

$$\nu_{\text{C-O (str)}} = 1260-1160\text{cm}^{-1}$$

Amides :-



g-m,

1°- amide
amide

2°- amide

3°-

10-amides:-

$$\nu_{\text{C=O (sr)}} = 1690\text{ cm}^{-1}$$

$\nu_{\text{N-H (bndg)}} = 3500\text{cm}^{-1}$ (broad peak)

$\nu_{\text{N-H (str)}} = 3350\text{cm}^{-1}$ & $\sim 3180\text{cm}^{-1}$

$$\nu_{\text{C-N (bndg)}} = 1600-1650\text{cm}^{-1}$$

90- amides :-

$$\nu_{\text{C=O (st)}} \sim 1700-1670\text{ cm}^{-1}$$

$\nu_{\text{N-H}}(\text{su}) = 3425(\text{cm}^{-1})$, (опереак)

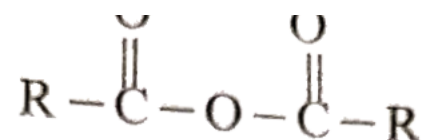
$\nu_{\text{N-H}}(\text{si-H-bondea}) = 3330\text{--}3140\text{cm}^{-1}$

ao..amides..-

Пп Сео гедЮп опу опе ЪапааєТбБО—ТТООстТ аьоуе 3000стТ Ъапдб аге
абзепЕьесоз д

absence of N-H hydrogens

Anhydrides :-



characteristic vibrations of anhydrides is $\nu_{\text{C=O}}=1250-1350\text{cm}^{-1}$ in carbonyl region two bands are observed one is from symm. stretching and another one is from asymmetrical stretches, $\nu_{\text{C=O}}(\text{sym})=1755-1744\text{cm}^{-1}$

, $\nu_{\text{C=O}}(\text{asym})=1825-1815\text{cm}^{-1}$

Important

note