

First class

Chemical Engineering

Second Semester

Organic Chemistry

Lec. Alyaa Esam

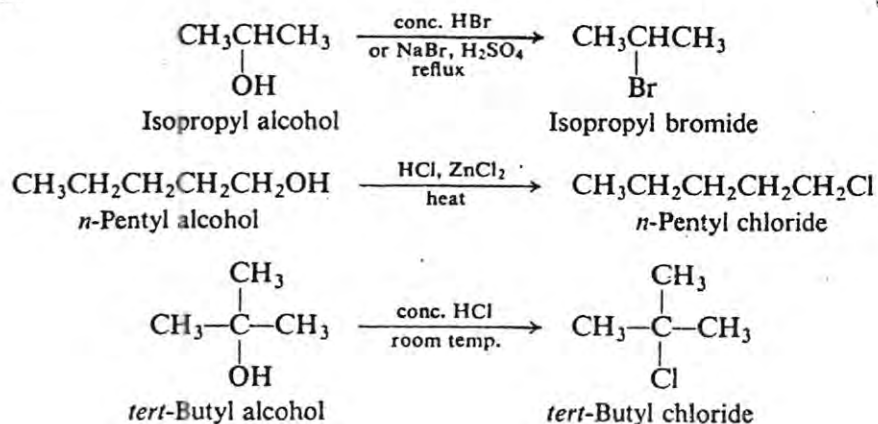
- تالیف - عملیات -

REACTIONS

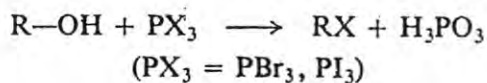
Reactivity of HX: HI > HBr > HCl

Reactivity of ROH: allyl, benzyl > 3° > 2° > 1°

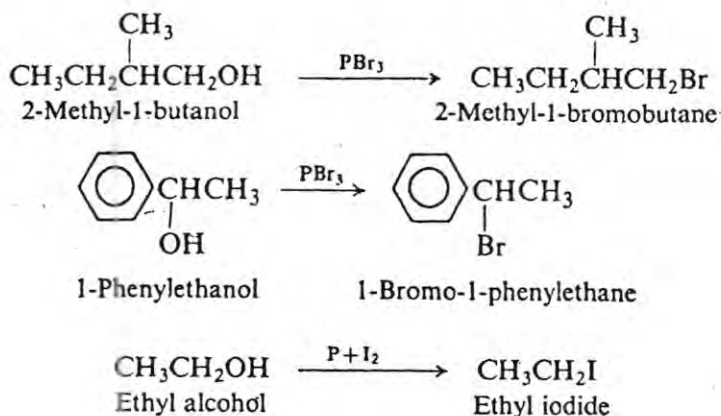
Examples:



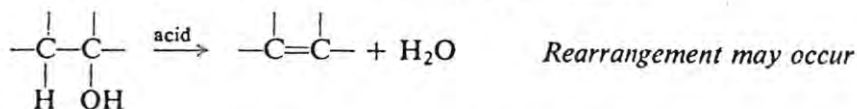
2. Reaction with phosphorus trihalides. Discussed in Sec. 16.10.



Examples:

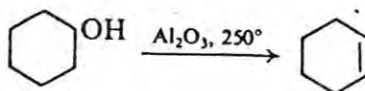
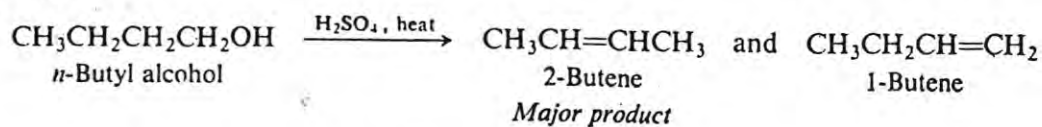


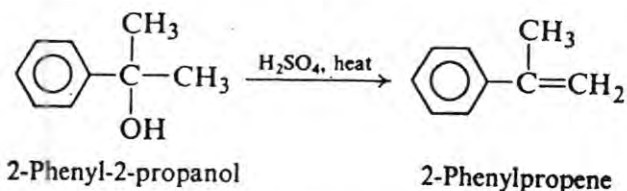
3. Dehydration. Discussed in Secs. 5.19-5.23, and 16.3.



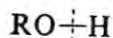
Reactivity of ROH: 3° > 2° > 1°

Examples:

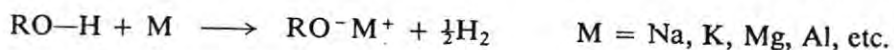




O--H BOND CLEAVAGE

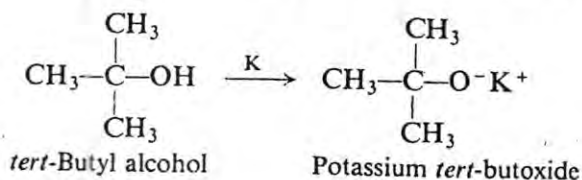
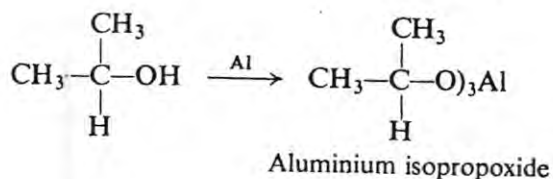
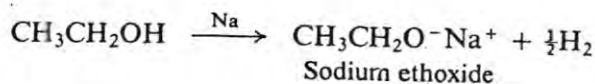


4. Reaction as acids: reaction with active metals. Discussed in Sec. 16.6.



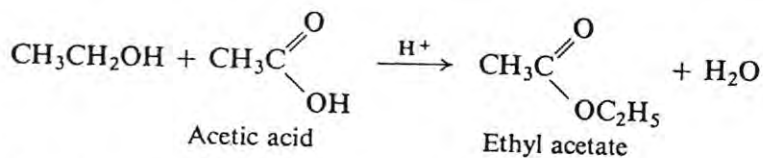
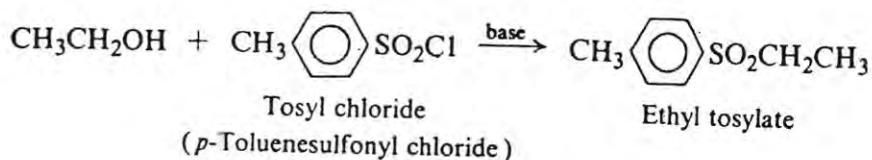
Reactivity of ROH: $\text{CH}_3\text{OH} > 1^\circ > 2^\circ > 3^\circ$

Examples:

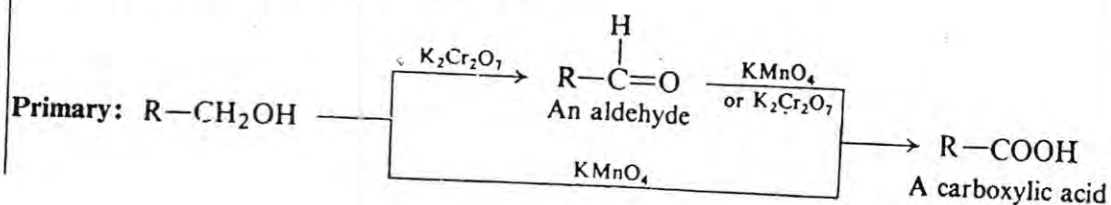


5. Ester formation. Discussed in Secs. 16.7 and 18.16.

Examples:

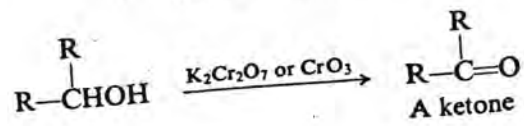


6. Oxidation. Discussed in Sec. 16.8.

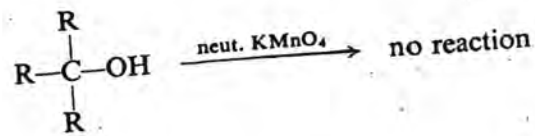


DEHYDRATION

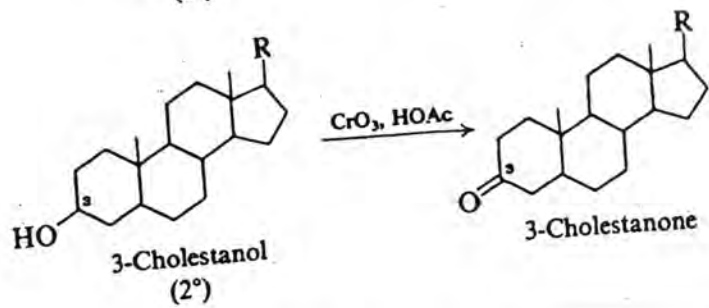
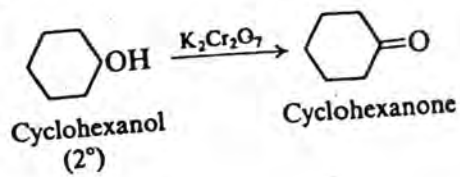
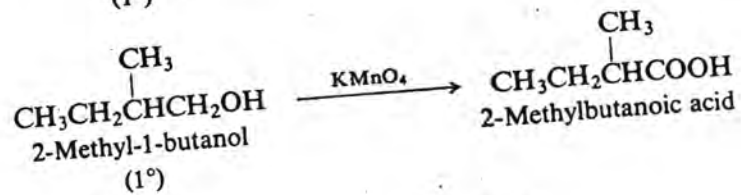
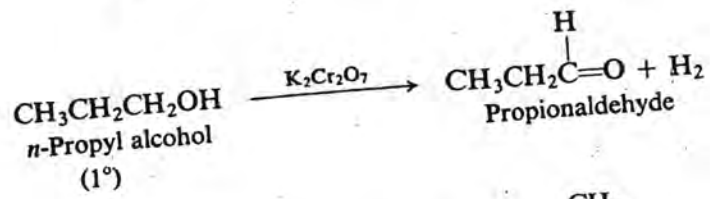
Secondary:



Tertiary:



Examples:



— Carboxylic acids —

NOMENCLATURE

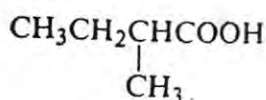
17

and *caproic*, *caprylic*, and *capric acids* are all found in goat fat (Latin: *caper*, goat).

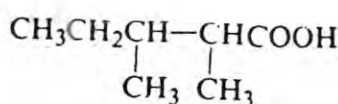
Branched-chain acids and substituted acids are named as derivatives of the straight-chain acids. To indicate the position of attachment, the Greek letters, α -, β -, γ -, δ -, etc., are used; the α -carbon is the one bearing the carboxyl group.



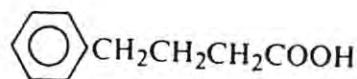
For example:



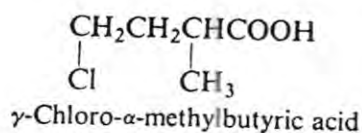
α -Methylbutyric acid



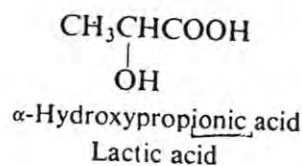
α, β -Dimethylvaleric acid



γ -Phenylbutyric acid



γ -Chloro- α -methylbutyric acid



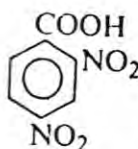
α -Hydroxypropionic acid
Lactic acid

Generally the parent acid is taken as the one of longest carbon chain, although some compounds are named as derivatives of acetic acid.

Aromatic acids, ArCOOH , are usually named as derivatives of the parent acid, *benzoic acid*, $\text{C}_6\text{H}_5\text{COOH}$. The methylbenzoic acids are given the special name of *toluic acids*.



p-Bromobenzoic acid

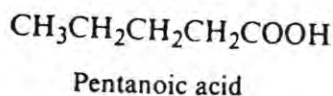


2,4-Dinitrobenzoic acid

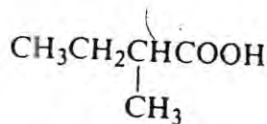


m-Toluic acid

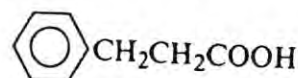
The IUPAC names follow the usual pattern. The longest chain carrying the carboxyl group is considered the parent structure, and is named by replacing the *-e* of the corresponding alkane with *-oic acid*. For example:



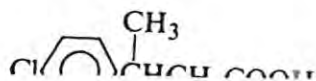
Pentanoic acid



2-Methylbutanoic acid

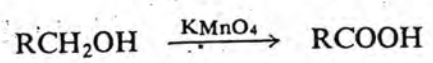


3-Phenylpropanoic acid

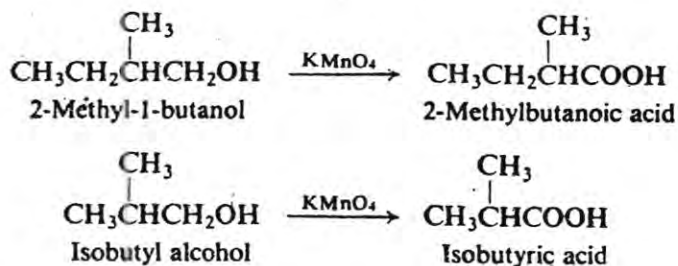


PREPARATION OF CARBOXYLIC ACIDS

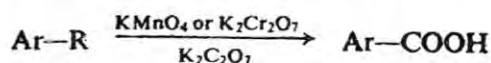
1. Oxidation of primary alcohols. Discussed in Sec. 16.8.



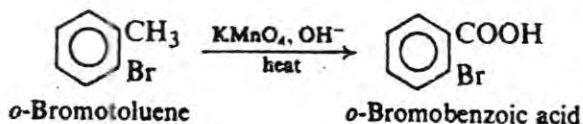
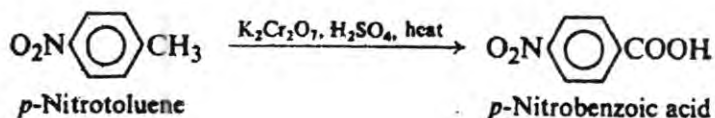
Examples:



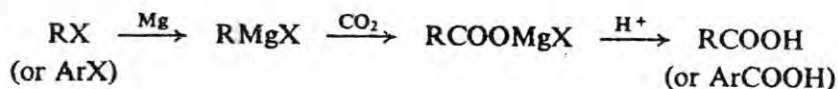
2. Oxidation of alkylbenzenes. Discussed in Sec. 12.10.



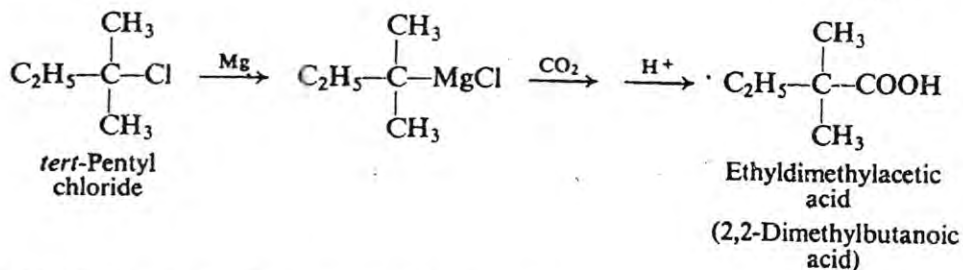
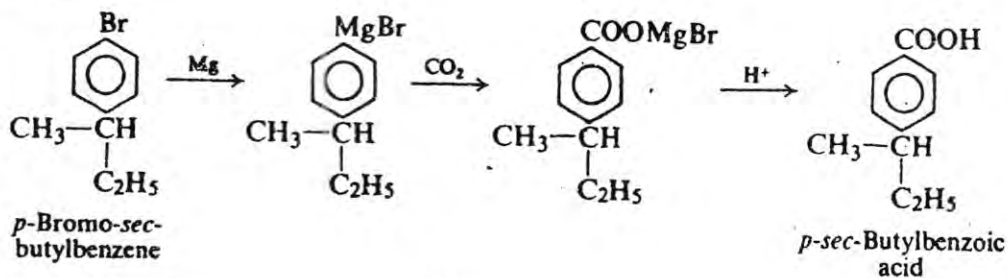
Examples:



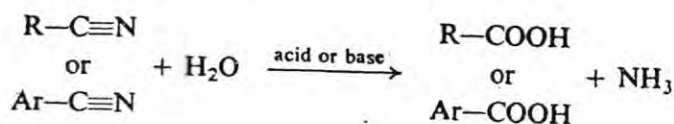
3. Carbonation of Grignard reagents. Discussed in Sec. 18.7.



Examples:



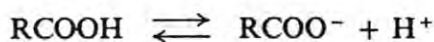
4. Hydrolysis of nitriles. Discussed in Sec. 18.8.



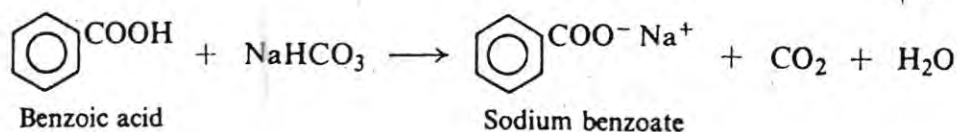
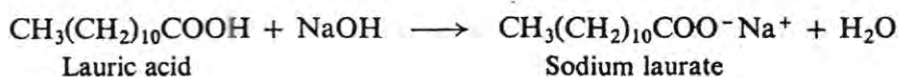
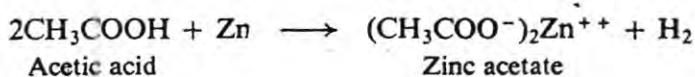
The rest of the molecule undergoes reactions characteristic of its structure; it may be aliphatic or aromatic, saturated or unsaturated, and may contain a variety of other functional groups.

REACTIONS OF CARBOXYLIC ACIDS

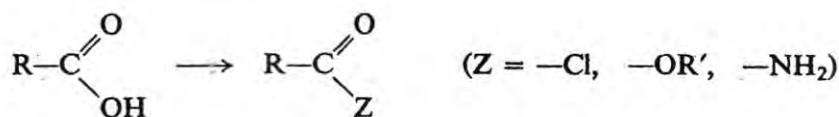
1. Acidity. Salt formation. Discussed in Secs. 18.4, 18.10-18.14.



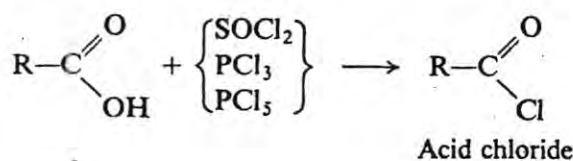
Examples:



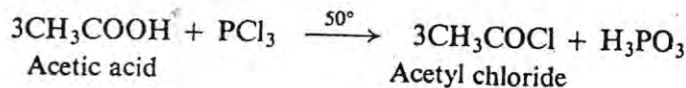
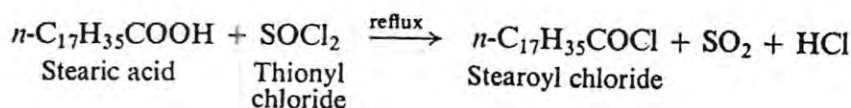
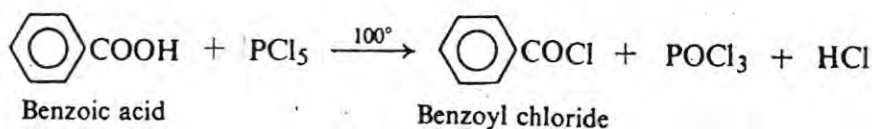
2. Conversion into functional derivatives



(a) Conversion into acid chlorides. Discussed in Sec. 18.15.

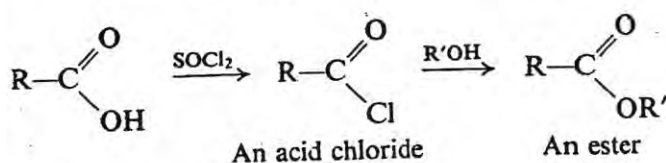
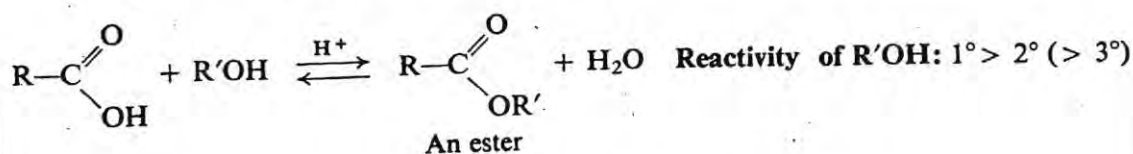


Examples:

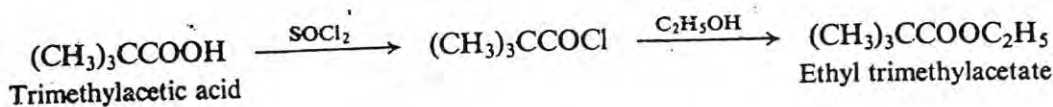
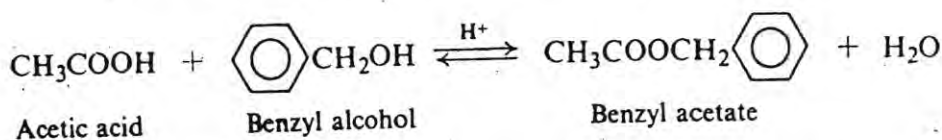
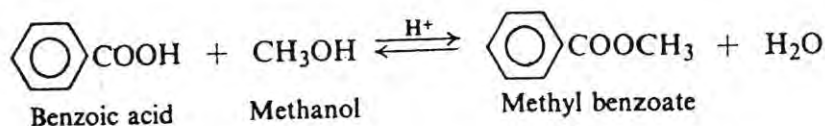


REACTIONS

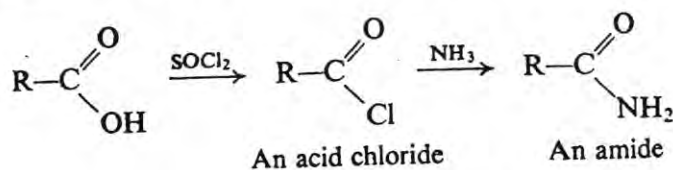
(b) Conversion into esters. Discussed in Secs. 18.16 and 20.15.



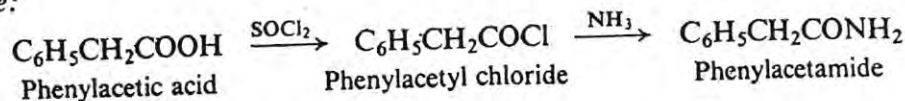
Examples:



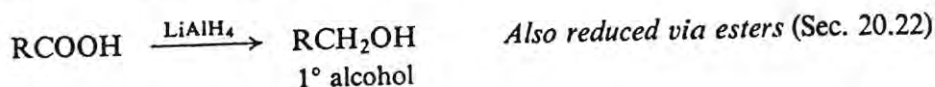
(c) Conversion into amides. Discussed in Sec. 18.17.



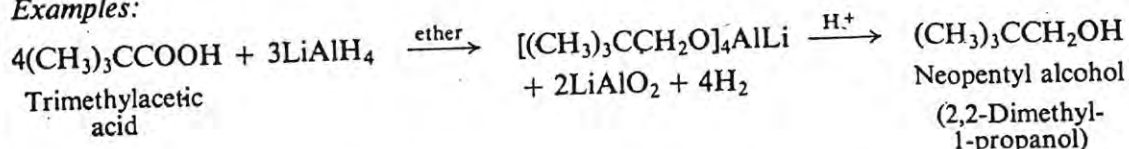
Example:



3. Reduction. Discussed in Sec. 18.18.



Examples:

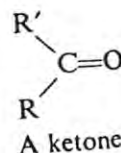
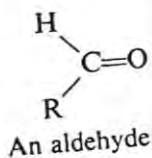


Aldehydes and Ketones

Nucleophilic Addition

Structure

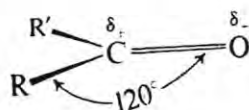
Aldehydes are compounds of the general formula $RCHO$; ketones are compounds of the general formula $RR'CO$. The groups R and R' may be aliphatic or aromatic.



Both aldehydes and ketones contain the carbonyl group, $C=O$, and are often referred to collectively as **carbonyl compounds**. It is the carbonyl group that largely determines the chemistry of aldehydes and ketones.

It is not surprising to find that aldehydes and ketones resemble each other closely in most of their properties. However, there is a hydrogen atom attached to the carbonyl group of aldehydes, and there are two organic groups attached to the carbonyl group of ketones. This difference in structure affects their properties in two ways: (a) aldehydes are quite easily oxidized, whereas ketones are oxidized only with difficulty; (b) aldehydes are usually more reactive than ketones toward nucleophilic addition, the characteristic reaction of carbonyl compounds.

Let us examine the structure of the carbonyl group. Carbonyl carbon is joined to three other atoms by σ bonds; since these bonds utilize sp^2 orbitals (Sec. 1.10), they lie in a plane, and are 120° apart. The remaining p orbital of the carbon overlaps a p orbital of oxygen to form a π bond; carbon and oxygen are thus



ALDEHYDES AND KETONES

joined by a double bond. The part of the molecule immediately surrounding carbonyl carbon is *flat*; oxygen, carbonyl carbon, and the two atoms directly attached to carbonyl carbon lie in a plane.

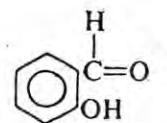
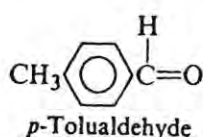
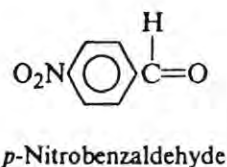
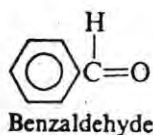
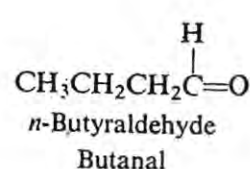
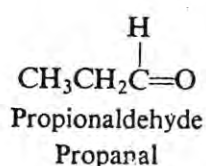
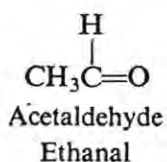
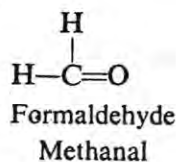
The electrons of the carbonyl double bond hold together atoms of quite different electronegativity, and hence the electrons are not equally shared; in particular, the mobile π cloud is pulled strongly toward the more electronegative atom, oxygen.

The facts are consistent with the orbital picture of the carbonyl group. Electron diffraction and spectroscopic studies of aldehydes and ketones show that carbon, oxygen, and the two other atoms attached to carbonyl carbon lie in a plane; the three bond angles of carbon are very close to 120° . The large dipole moments (2.3–2.8 D) of aldehydes and ketones indicate that the electrons of the carbonyl group are quite unequally shared. We shall see how the physical and chemical properties of aldehydes and ketones are determined by the structure of the carbonyl group.

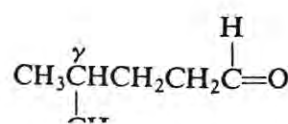
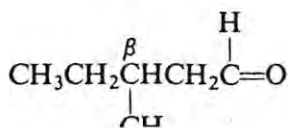
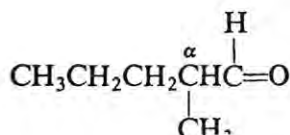
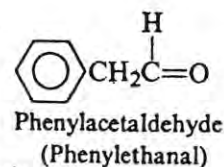
19.2 Nomenclature

The common names of aldehydes are derived from the names of the corresponding carboxylic acids by replacing *-ic acid* by *-aldehyde*.

The IUPAC names of aldehydes follow the usual pattern. The longest chain carrying the $-\text{CHO}$ group is considered the parent structure and is named by replacing the *-e* of the corresponding alkane by *-al*. The position of a substituent is indicated by a number, the carbonyl carbon always being considered as C-1. Here, as with the carboxylic acids, we notice that C-2 of the IUPAC name corresponds to *alpha* of the common name.

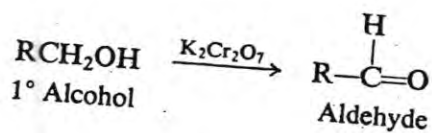


(*o*-Hydroxybenzaldehyde)

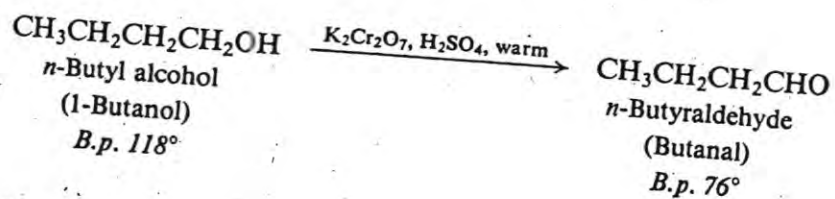


PREPARATION OF ALDEHYDES

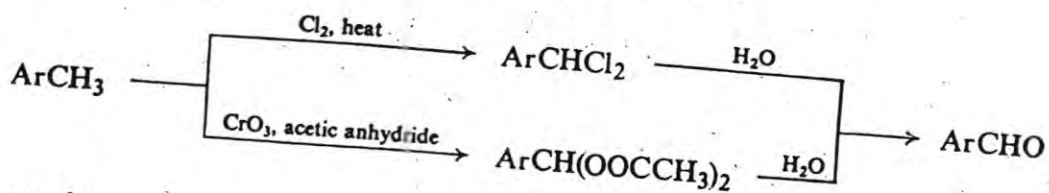
1. Oxidation of primary alcohols. Discussed in Secs. 16.8 and 19.5.



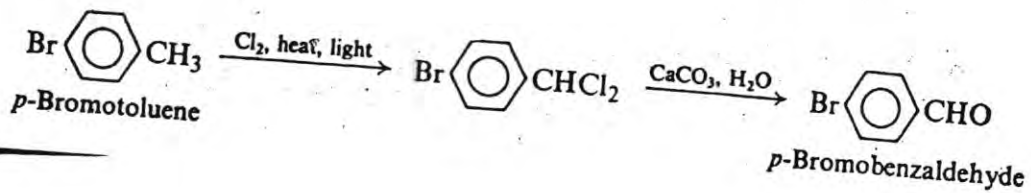
Example:



2. Oxidation of methylbenzenes. Discussed in Sec. 19.5.



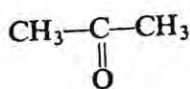
Examples:



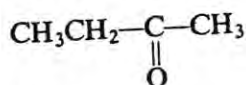
PHYSICAL PROPERTIES

The simplest aliphatic ketone has the common name of *acetone*. For most other aliphatic ketones we name the two groups that are attached to carbonyl carbon, and follow these names by the word *ketone*. A ketone in which the carbonyl group is attached to a benzene ring is named as a *-phenone*, as illustrated below.

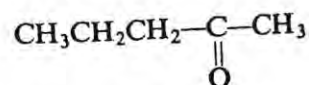
According to the IUPAC system, the longest chain carrying the carbonyl group is considered the parent structure, and is named by replacing the *-e* of the corresponding alkane with *-one*. The positions of various groups are indicated by numbers, the carbonyl carbon being given the lowest possible number.



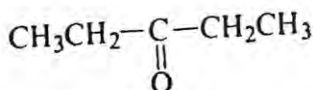
Acetone
Propanone



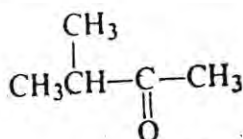
Methyl ethyl ketone
Butanone



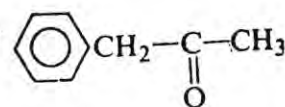
Methyl *n*-propyl ketone
2-Pentanone



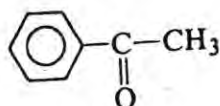
Ethyl ketone
3-Pentanone



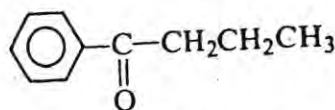
Methyl isopropyl ketone
3-Methyl-2-butanone



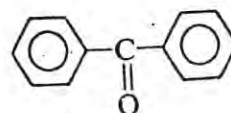
Benzyl methyl ketone
1-Phenyl-2-propanone



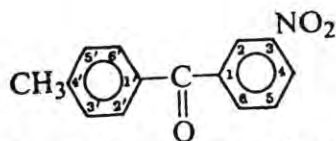
Acetophenone



n-Butyrophenone



Benzophenone



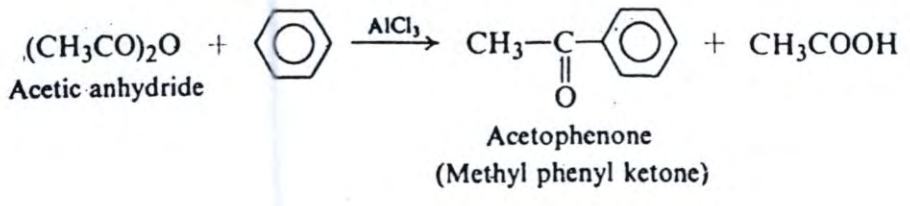
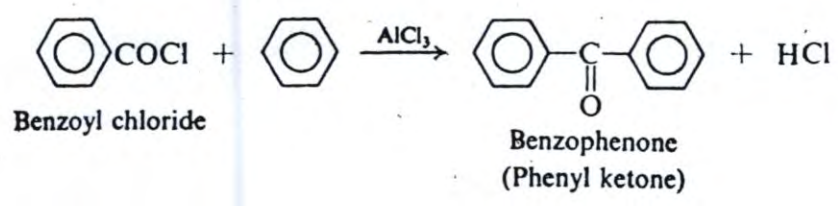
3-Nitro-4'-methylbenzophenone

19.3 Physical properties

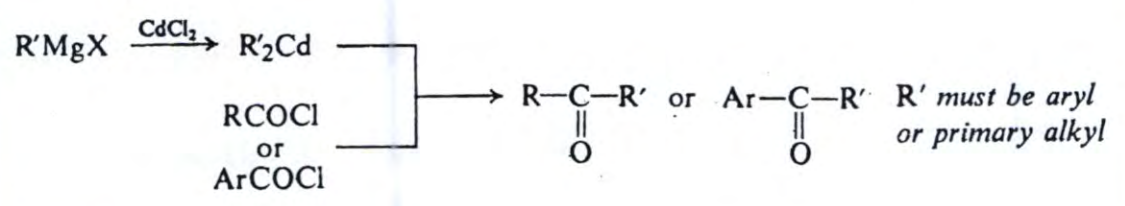
The polar carbonyl group makes aldehydes and ketones polar compounds, and hence they have higher boiling points than non-polar compounds of comparable molecular weight. By themselves, they are not capable of intermolecular hydrogen bonding since they contain hydrogen bonded only to carbon; as a result they have lower boiling points than comparable alcohols or carboxylic acids. For example, compare *n*-butyraldehyde (b.p. 76°) and methyl ethyl ketone (b.p. 80°) with *n*-pentane (b.p. 36°) and ethyl ether (b.p. 35°) on the one hand, and with *n*-butyl alcohol (b.p. 118°) and propionic acid (b.p. 141°) on the other.

The lower aldehydes and ketones are appreciably soluble in water, presumably because of hydrogen bonding between solute and solvent molecules; borderline solubility is reached at about five carbons. Aldehydes and ketones are soluble in

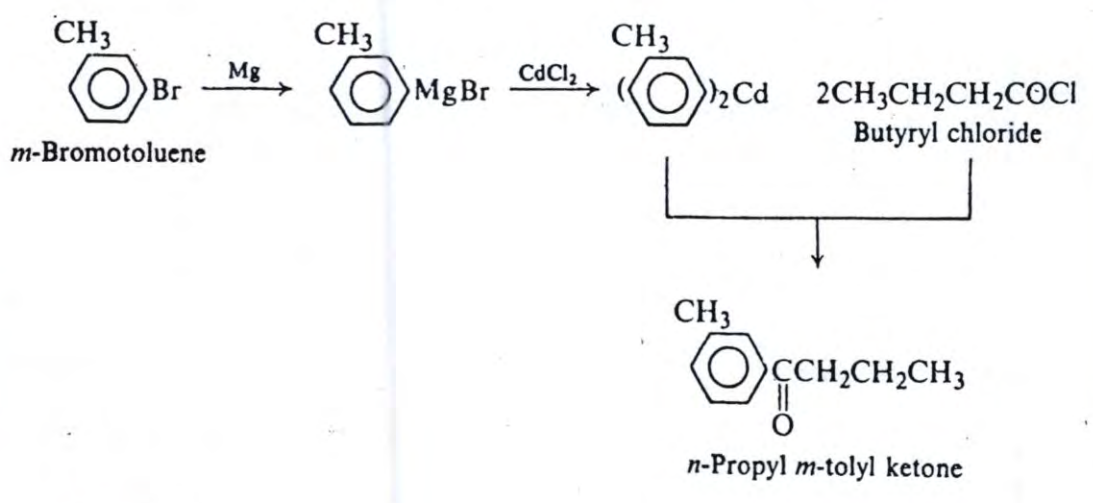
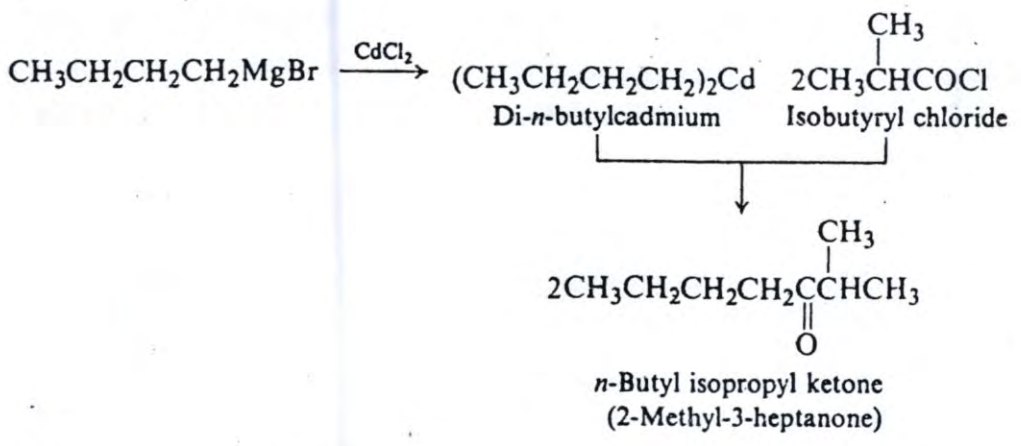
PREPARATION



3. Reaction of acid chlorides with organocadmium compounds. Discussed in Sec. 19.7.



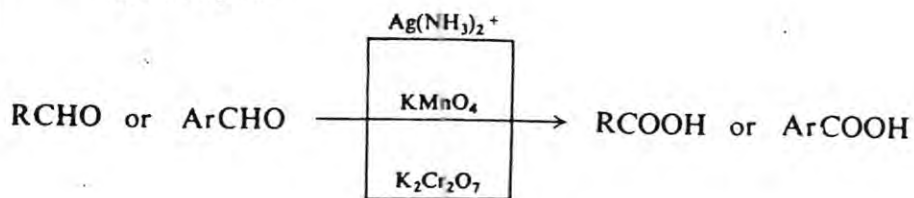
Examples:



REACTIONS OF ALDEHYDES AND KETONES

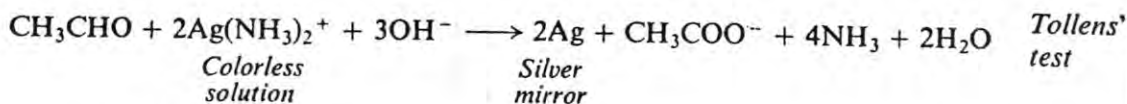
1. Oxidation. Discussed in Sec. 19.9.

(a) Aldehydes



Used chiefly for detection of aldehydes

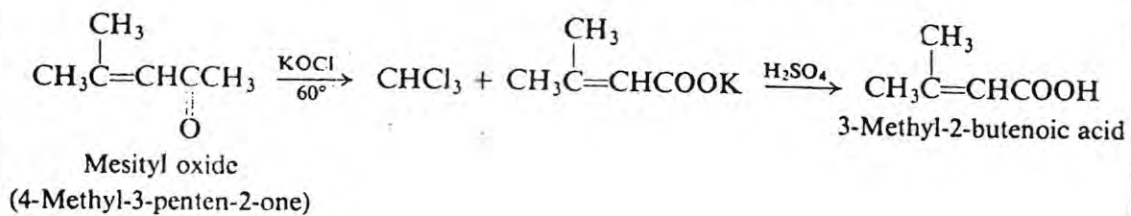
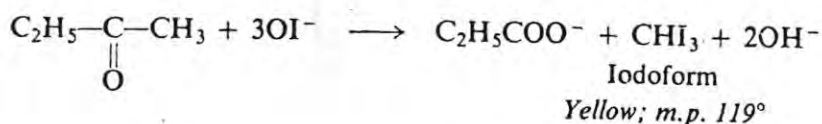
Examples:



(b) Methyl ketones

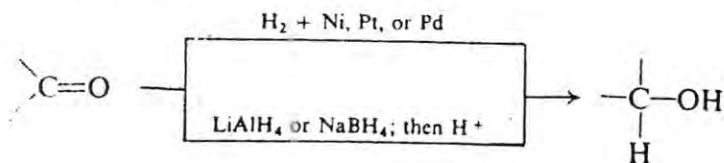


Examples:

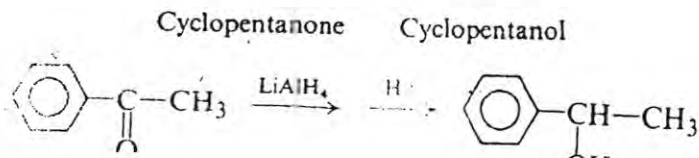
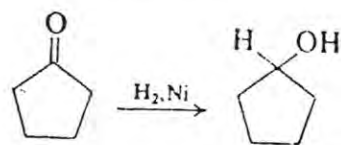


2. Reduction

(a) Reduction to alcohols. Discussed in Sec. 19.10.

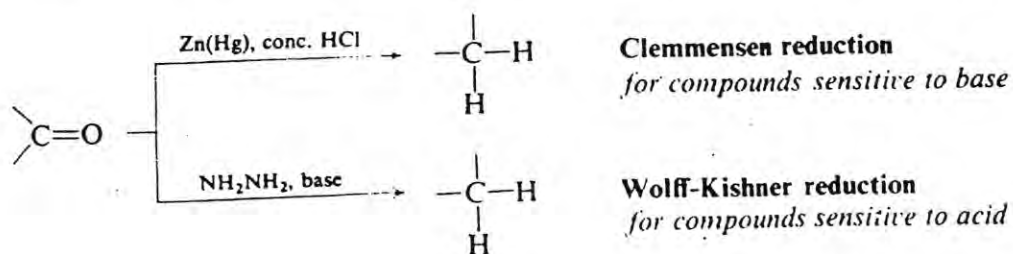


Examples:

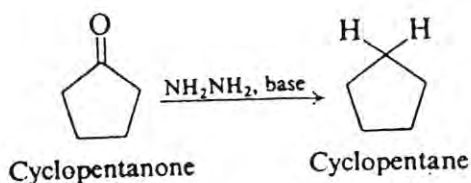
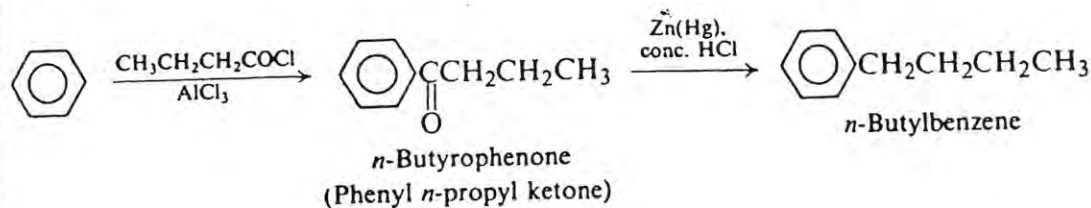


REACTIONS. NUCLEOPHILIC ADDITION

(b) Reduction to hydrocarbons. Discussed in Sec. 19.10.

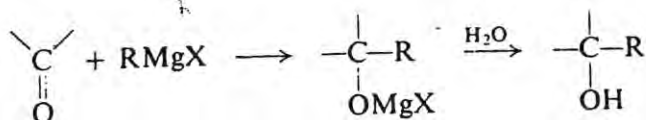


Examples:

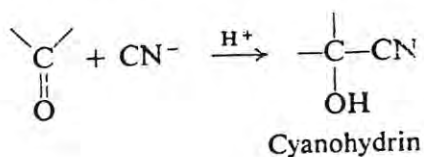


(c) Reductive amination. Discussed in Sec. 22.11.

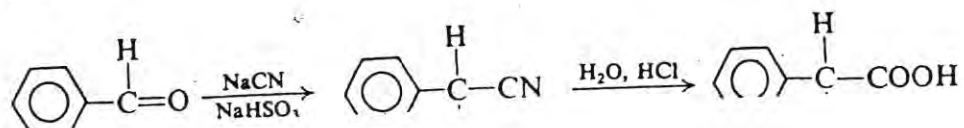
3. Addition of Grignard reagents. Discussed in Secs. 15.12–15.15 and 19.11.



4. Addition of cyanide. Cyanohydrin formation. Discussed in Sec. 19.12.



Examples:



Carbohydrates:-

Importance:-

24

Carbohydrates are widely distributed in both plant and animal tissues. They are indispensable for living organisms and serve as skeletal structures in plants and also in insects. They occur as food reserves in the storage organs of plants and animals. They are important source of energy required for the various metabolic activities of the living organisms.

In living organisms Carbohydrates:-

1. Providing Energy through oxidation
2. Providing carbon for synthesis of cell component.
3. Serve as a stored form of chemical energy.

Definition:- Carbohydrates are defined as polyhydroxy aldehyde or ketones and are generally classified as follows $C_n(H_2O)_n$ or $C_6H_{12}O_6$

Classification:- Carbohydrates are generally classified into 4 major groups:-

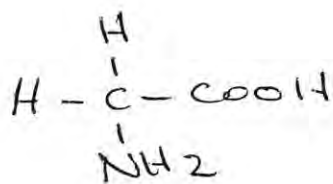
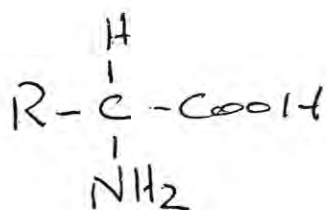
1-Monosaccharide	3-Oligosaccharide
2-Disaccharide	4-Polysaccharide

Functions of Carbohydrates:-

1. Source of energy.
2. Source of B-Vitamins.
3. Role of type of carbohydrate and diabetes.

Amino Acids

Amino acids are the simplest units of a protein molecule and they form the building blocks of protein structure. The general formula of an amino acid can be written as



Amino acid is an amino carboxylic acid. R is the side chain and it represents the group other than $-\text{NH}_2$ and $-\text{COOH}$

Amino acids are classified into two groups according to their inclusion in the diet

1. Essential amino acid: which can not be synthesised by the living organisms.
2. Non essential amino acid: which can be synthesised

In Proteins, amino acids are linked together by linkage called Peptid bonds. It also called as the amide bond. The two amino acids joined by a peptid bond constitute a dipeptide

Vitamins

The vitamins are a group of complex organic compound required in small quantities by the body for the maintenance of good health. They are not normally synthesized in the body and hence they should be supplied by the diet.

Classification :-

Vitamins are generally classified into two main groups

A₁ Water Soluble vitamins

B₂ Fat Soluble vitamins

Water Soluble vitamins :-

The members of this group are B complex vitamin and Vitamin C. They are readily soluble in water.

It consists B₁ Thiamine, Riboflavin (B₂), Niacin (B₃)

Fat soluble vitamins: -

Vitamin A, Vitamin D, Vitamin E, Vitamin K

Unlike other groups of nutrients, The Vitamins are not chemically similar to each other.

Each vitamin has specific chemical structure and a specific function or functions in the living system. Most of the vitamins act coenzyme in the body. Normally a well-balanced diet will supply all the necessary vitamin in sufficient quantity.

Lec = 5

chemistry of Polymeric materials

Polymer Technology.

Polymers derived from the Greek poly and mers meaning many and parts, respectively. The term polymers, macromolecules, and giant molecules are used to designate high molecular weight material, their natural or synthetic origin. This definition applies (now) enormous range of materials having widely different physical, chemical, biological and

Rubbers

- ~~Polymers~~ = Poly isoprene
- SBR (styrene, butadiene rubber)
- Poly chloroprene
- Poly sulfide

Fibers:-

- Poly amide
- Poly ester
- Acrylic

Adhesives

= are either plastic or rubber formulation for definite applications

Surface Coating:

- Paints
- Powder coating

الطلاء القابلة للتحويل = Convertible
 البوركي

لا بولك Lacquers = non convertible

According to properties of synthetic polymers we divide area of application into

Plastic are polymeric solid materials that are glassy and relatively stiff at room temp

Classification of polymers:

There are a number of methods of classifying polymers. One is to adopt the approach of using their response to thermal treatment and to divide them into thermoplastics and thermosets. Thermoplastics are polymers which melt when heated and resolidify when cooled, while thermosets are those which do not melt when heated but, at sufficiently high temp. decompose irreversibly. This system has the benefit that there is a useful chemical distinction between the two groups. Thermoplastics comprise essentially linear or lightly branched polymer molecules, while thermosets are substantially crosslinked materials consisting of an extensive 3-D network of covalent chemical bonding.

Another classification system, first suggested by Carothers in 1929, is based on the nature of the chemical reactions employed in the polymerisation. Here the two major groups are the condensation and the addition polymers.

Free Radical Polymerisation

Polymerization Reactions

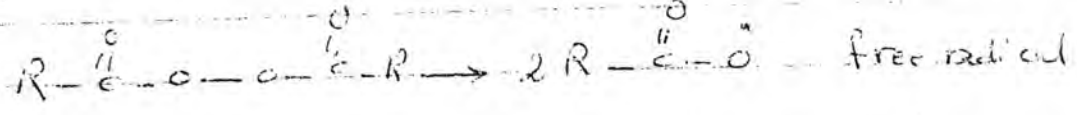
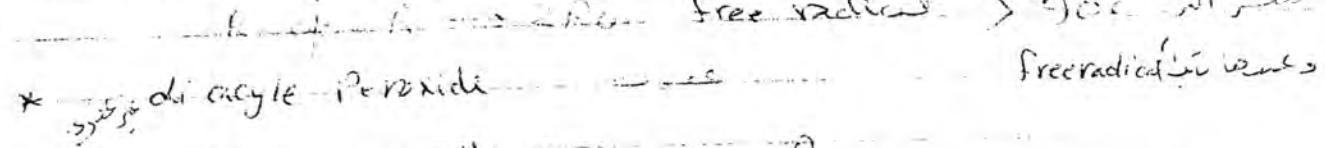
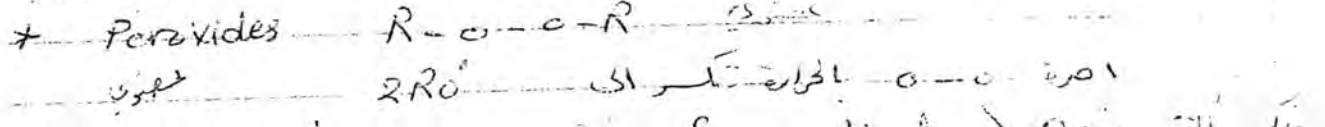
Initiator / Catalyst (المواد الحفازة)

Requires catalyst or Initiator

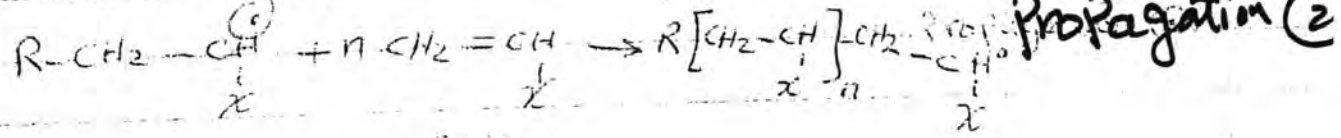
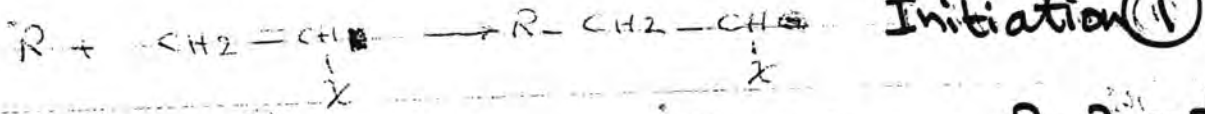
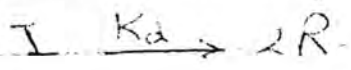
Initiator: \rightarrow Free radical polymer

- Catalyst: \rightarrow Anionic Polymerization
- Cation \rightarrow \leftarrow
- Coordination \leftarrow
- ring opening \leftarrow

Free radical Initiators are



Mechanism of free radical Polymer



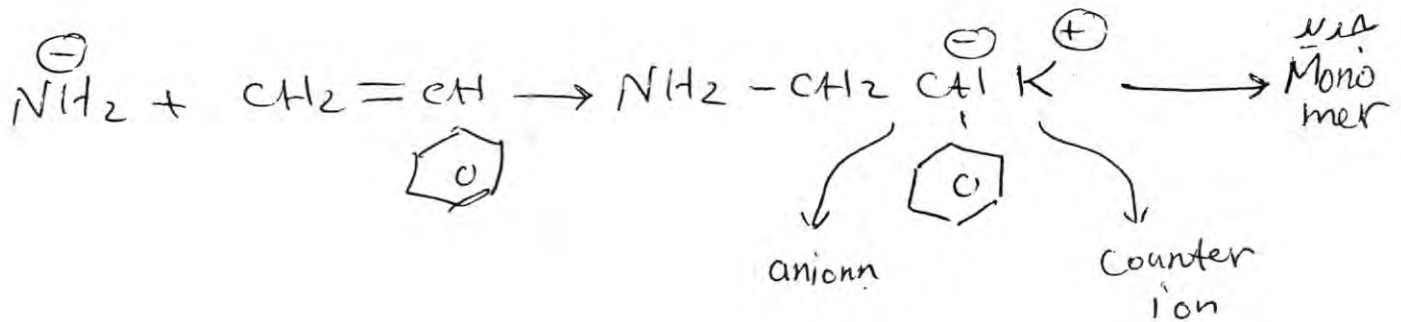
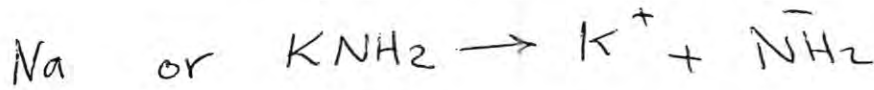
Termination (3)

Bimolecular

Ionic Polymerization

31

Anionic Polymerization:-



Cationic Polymerization

