

HYDROCARBONS

After completing this lesson, you will be able to:

- Classify hydrocarbons as aliphatic and aromatic.
- Describe nomenclature of alkanes and cycloalkanes.
- Describe the mechanism of free radical substitution in alkanes exemplified methane and ethane.
- Describe the structure and reactivity of alkenes as exemplified by ethene.
- Describe the chemistry of alkenes by the following reaction of ethene
- Describe what is meant by the term delocalized electrons in the context of the benzene ring.
- Describe addition reactions of benzene and methyl benzene.
- Describe the mechanism of electrophilic substitution in benzene
- Describe the preparation of alkynes using eliminain reactins.
- Describe acidity of alkynes.
- Describe and differentiate between substitution and addition reactions.
- Explain the shapes of alkanes and cycloalkanes exemplified by ethane and cyclopropane.
- Explain unreactive nature of alkanes towards polar reagents.
- Explain what is meant by a chiral center and show that such a center gives rise optical isomerism.
- Explain the nomenclature of alkenes.
- Explain shape of ethane molecule in terms of sigma and pi C-C bonds.
- Explain dehydration of alcohols and dehydrohalogenation of RX for the preparation of ethene.
- Explain the shape of benzene molecule (molecular orbital aspect).
- Explain isomerism in alkanes, alkenes, alkynes and substituted benzene.
- Define hemolytic and heterolytic fission, free radical initiation, propagation and

- Identify organic redox reaction.
- Define and explain with suitable examples the terms isomerism, stereoisomerism and structural isomerism.
- Define resonance, resonance energy and relative stability.
- Hydrogenation, hydrohalogenation, hydration, halogenation, halohydrate, epoxidation, ozonolysis, polymerization.
- Compare the reactivity of benzene with alkanes and alkenes.
- Compare the reactivity of alkynes with alkanes, alkene and arenes.
- Discuss chemistry of benzene and ethyl benzene by nitration, sulphonation, halogenation, Friedel Craft's alkylation and acylation.
- Discuss the shape of alkyens in terms of sigma and pi C-C bonds.
- Discuss chemistry of alkynes by hydrogenation, hydrohalogenation, hydration, bromination, ozonolysis, and reaction with metals.
- Apply the knowledge of position of substituents in the electrophilic substitution of benzene.
- Use the IUPAC naming system for alkynes.

Q1. Define and explain different types of Hydrocarbons.

Answer

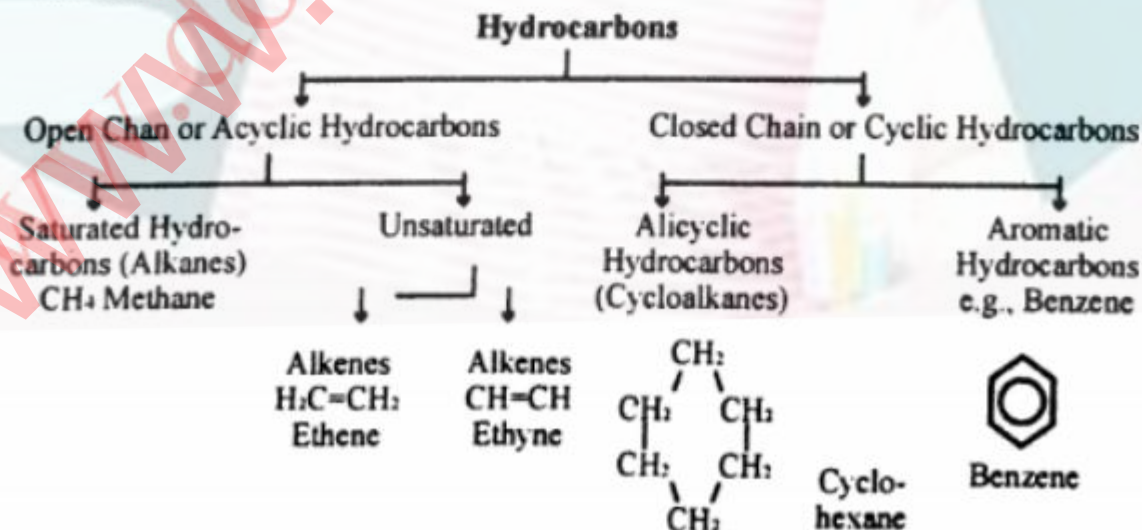
Definition

"Organic compounds which contain carbon and hydrogen only are called hydrocarbons."

The ability of carbon atoms to attach with each other to form a chain or ring is called Catenation.

Types of Hydrocarbons

Hydrocarbons have been divided into various classes on the basis of their structure as shown below:



Open Chain Hydrocarbons

The hydrocarbons in which carbon atoms attached with each other to form open chains are called open chain hydrocarbons.

Types:

- 1) Saturated hydrocarbons: (Alkanes or Paraffins)
- 2) Unsaturated hydrocarbons: (Alkenes or Olefins) and (Alkynes or Acetylenes)

Explanation and Examples:

(1) Saturated Hydrocarbons	(2) Unsaturated Hydrocarbons
These are the hydrocarbons in which carbon atoms are attached with each other through single bonds. Each carbon atom is sp^3 hybridized. For example, Alkanes. These may have straight chain or branched chain. $CH_3-CH_2-CH_2-CH_2-CH_3$ pentene (Straight Chain) $CH_3-CH-CH_2-CH_3$ CH_3 2-Methyl Butane (Branched Chain) No further atoms or groups of atoms can be attached to the carbon atoms of such hydrocarbons. This is why they are known as saturated hydrocarbons.	These are the hydrocarbons in which at least two carbon atoms are attached through double or triple bonds, and are sp^2 or sp hybridized. For example, alkenes and alkynes. (i) Alkenes or Olefins: These are the unsaturated hydrocarbons in which at least two carbon atoms are sp^2 hybridized, which cause to form a double bond between these carbon atoms. Alkenes may be straight chain or branched chain. $CH_2=CH-CH_2-CH_2-CH_3$ 1-pentene (Straight Chain) $CH_2=CH-CH-CH_3$ CH_3 3-Methyl-1-Butene (Branched Chain) (ii) Alkynes or acetylenes: These are the unsaturated hydrocarbons in which at least two carbon atoms are sp hybridized, which cause to form a triple bond between these carbon atoms. Alkynes may be straight chain or branched chain. $CH \equiv C-CH_2-CH_2-CH_3$ 1-pentene (Straight Chain) $CH \equiv C-CH-CH_3$ CH_3 3-Methyl-1-Butyne (Branched Chain)

Closed Chain Hydrocarbons:

These are the hydrocarbons in which carbon atoms attach with each other to form rings.

Types:

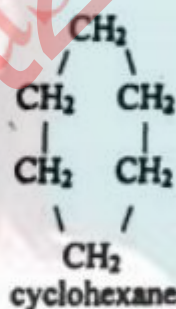
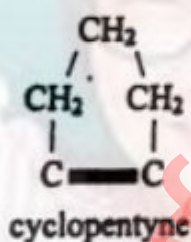
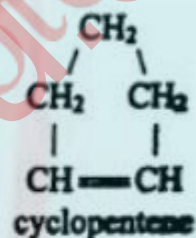
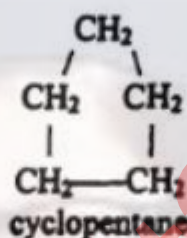
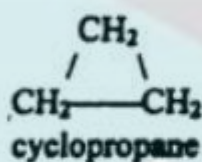
These hydrocarbons are of two types.

1) Alicyclic Hydrocarbons.

2) Aromatic Hydrocarbons.

1) Alicyclic Hydrocarbons:

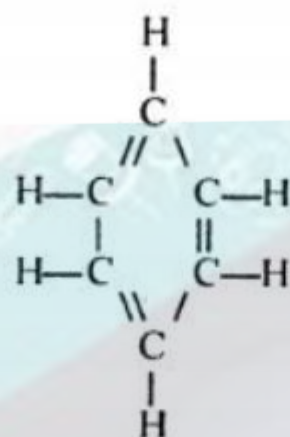
Non-benzenoid cyclic hydrocarbons are alicyclic hydrocarbons.



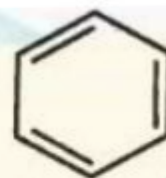
Alicyclic hydrocarbons possess two hydrogen atoms less than their corresponding open chain hydrocarbons.

2) Aromatic Hydrocarbons:

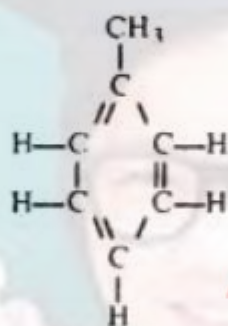
Benzenoid cyclic hydrocarbons are known as aromatic hydrocarbons. In these compounds all the carbon atoms present in the ring are sp^2 hybridized. Benzene, which is the simplest aromatic hydrocarbon, has a regular hexagonal structure with alternate single or double bonds between carbon atoms.



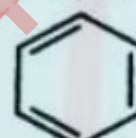
Or



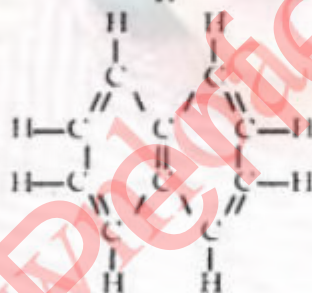
benzene



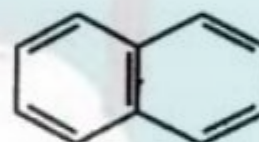
Or



toluene



Or



naphthalene

Alkanes and Cycloalkanes

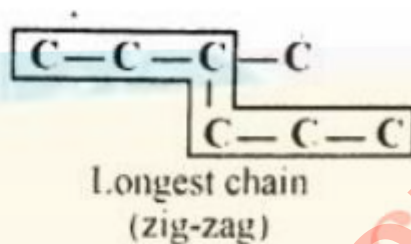
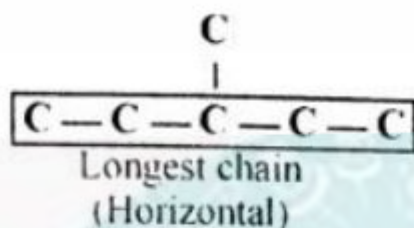
Alkanes

Simplest organic molecules with only C and H atoms. Commercially important as fuels and oils.

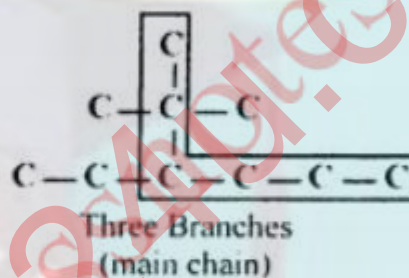
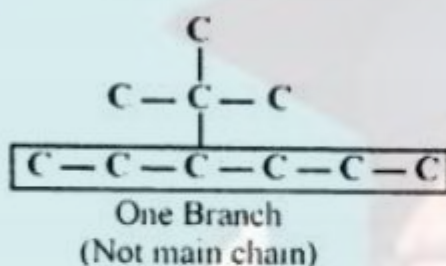
Nomenclature:

The I.U.P.A.C rules of naming alkanes are as:

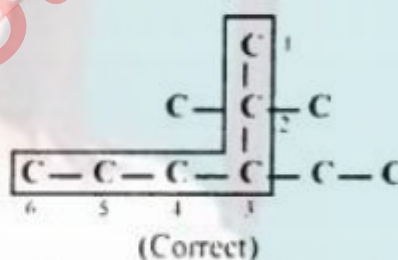
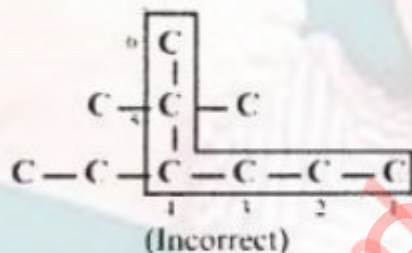
- 1) Locate the largest continuous chain of carbon atoms independent of direction of the chain. It is called main chain, stem, principal chain or parent chain.



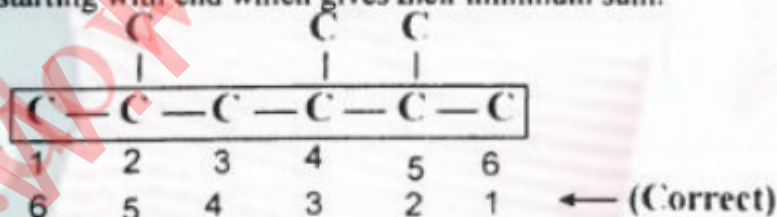
- 2) If there are two or more chains of equal lengths, the chain with larger number of branches is selected as main chain.



- 3) Number the main chain starting from the end nearest to the substituent.

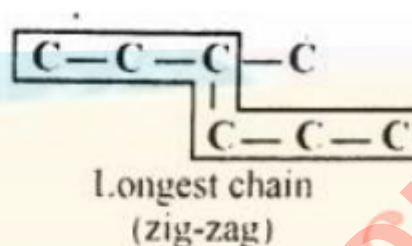
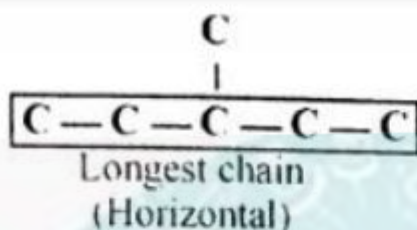


- 4) When two identical substituents are present at equal distance from either end, number the chain starting with end which gives their minimum sum.

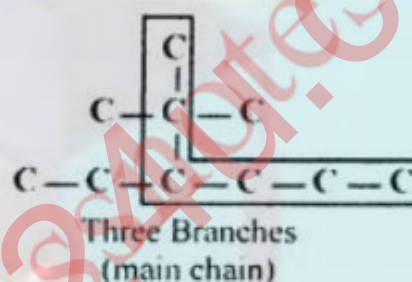
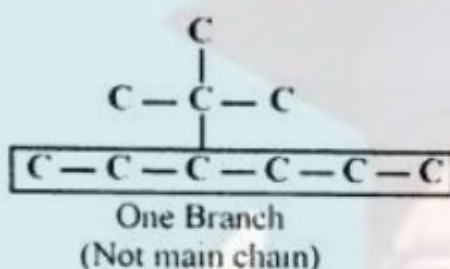


Since the sum of number $2 + 3 + 5 = 10$, is less than $2 + 4 + 5 = 11$, the correct numbering starts from the right.

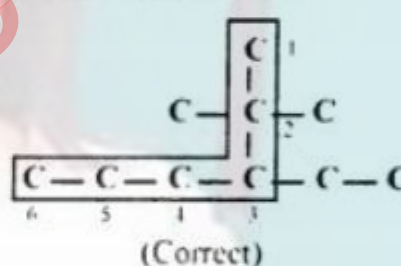
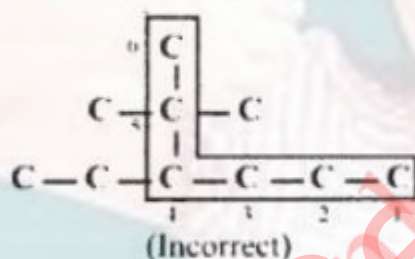
- 5) The position of substituent is indicated by the number of e-atom to which it is attached. The number is prefixed to the name of group separated by hyphen.
- 6) Names of alkyl groups are written before the name of parent hydrocarbon in alphabetical order or in order of increasing size, separated by hyphen.



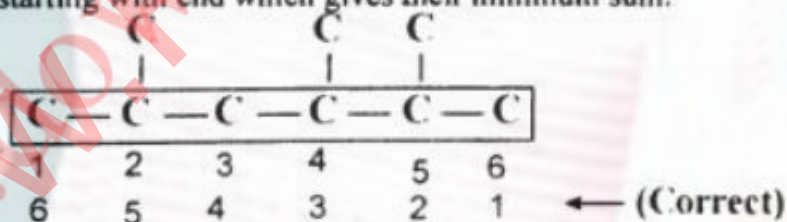
- 2) If there are two or more chains of equal lengths, the chain with larger number of branches is selected as main chain.



- 3) Number the main chain starting from the end nearest to the substituent.

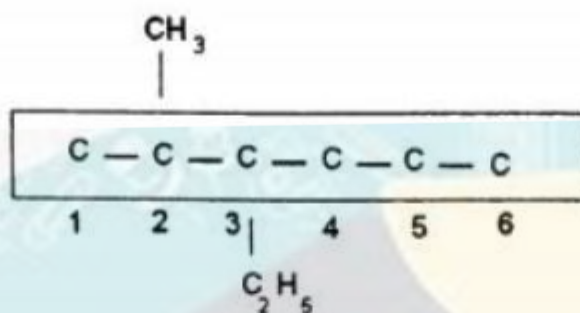


- 4) When two identical substituents are present at equal distance from either end, number the chain starting with end which gives their minimum sum.



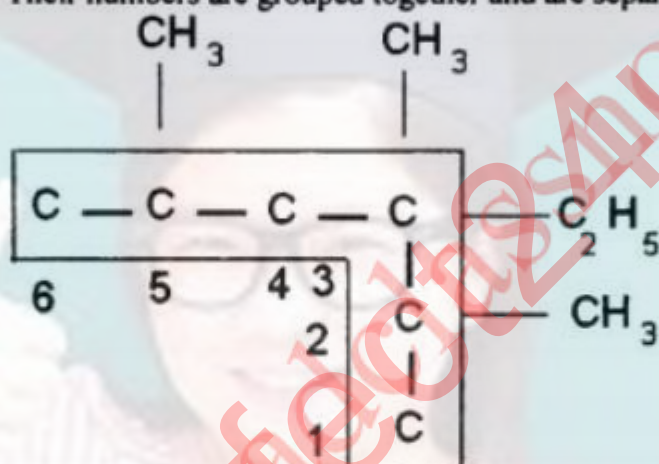
Since the sum of number $2 + 3 + 5 = 10$, is less than $2 + 4 + 5 = 11$, the correct numbering starts from the right.

- 5) The position of substituent is indicated by the number of c-atom to which it is attached. The number is prefixed to the name of group separated by hyphen.
- 6) Names of alkyl groups are written before the name of parent hydrocarbon in alphabetical order or in order of increasing size, separated by hyphen.



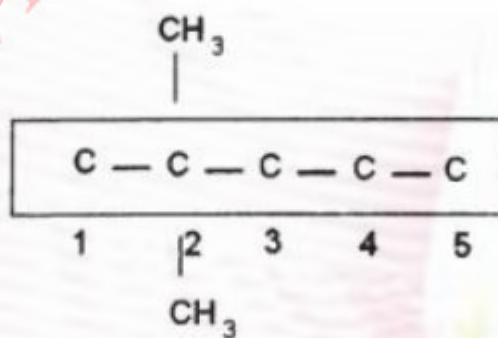
3-Ethyl 2-Methyl hexene

- 7) When two or more like groups are present, their numbers are indicated by prefixes di, tri-, tetra-, etc. Their numbers are grouped together and are separated by commas.



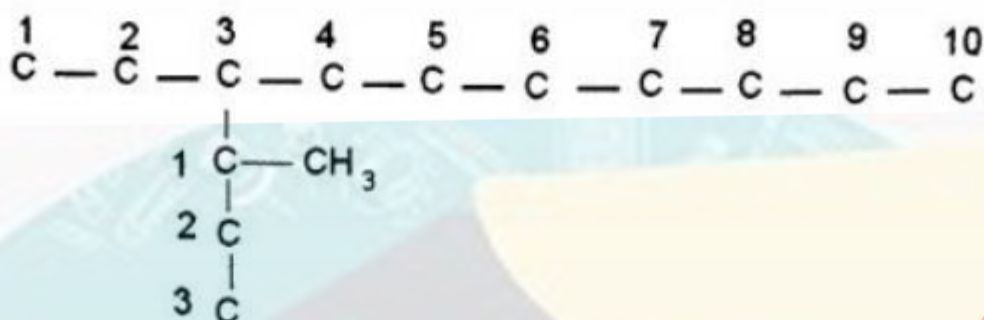
3-Ethyl 2,3,4-Trimethyl Hexene

- 8) If two identical groups appear at the same c-atom, the number is separated twice, separated by commas.



2,2-Dimethyl Pentane

- 9) The longest chain of the substituent is numbered starting with the carbon attached directly to the main chain. Parentheses are used to separate the numbering of the substituent and the main chain.



5-(1-Methyl Propyle)-Decane

The structural formula and names for the simple alkanes are shown in the following table.

Number of C atoms	Formula	Line Drawing	Alkane Name
1	CH ₄	N/A	methane
2	C ₂ H ₆		ethane
3	C ₃ H ₈ or CH ₃ CH ₂ CH ₃		propane
4	C ₄ H ₁₀ or CH ₃ (CH ₂) ₂ CH ₃		butane
5	C ₅ H ₁₂ or CH ₃ (CH ₂) ₃ CH ₃		pentane
6	C ₆ H ₁₄ or CH ₃ (CH ₂) ₄ CH ₃		hexane
7	C ₇ H ₁₆ or CH ₃ (CH ₂) ₅ CH ₃		heptane
8	C ₈ H ₁₈ or CH ₃ (CH ₂) ₆ CH ₃		octane
9	C ₉ H ₂₀ or CH ₃ (CH ₂) ₇ CH ₃		nonane

Q2. Give physical properties of alkanes.

Answer

- Methane to Butane is colorless, odorless gases while pentane to heptadecane (C₅ to C₁₇) is colorless, odorless liquids. The higher members from C₁₈ onwards are waxy solids, which are also colorless and odorless.
- Alkanes are non-polar or very weakly polar and are insoluble in polar solvents like water, but soluble in non-polar solvents like benzene, ether, carbon tetra chloride, etc.
- Their boiling points, melting points, density etc increase with the increase in number of carbon atoms, whereas solubility decreases with the increase in mass. The boiling points increases by 20 to 30°C for addition of each CH₂ group to the molecule. However the boiling points of alkanes, having branched chain structures are lower than

their isomeric normal chain alkanes, e.g. n-butane has a higher boiling point 55oC) then iso-butane (-102oC).

Structure

Alkanes are the simplest organic compounds, comprised of only sp^3 hybridized C and H atoms connected by σ bonds. They have a generic formula of C_nH_{2n+2} (a relationship that also defines the maximum number of hydrogen atoms that can be present for a given number of C atoms). Structures of the simple C1 to C4 alkanes are shown below in a variety of representations. As the number of C atoms increases then other isomeric structures are possible

Methane CH_4 (b.pt. = -160°C)	$\begin{array}{c} H \\ \\ H-C-H \\ \\ H \end{array}$
Ethane C_2H_6 (b.pt. = -89°C)	$\begin{array}{c} H & H \\ & \\ H-C & -C-H \\ & \\ H & H \end{array}$
Propane C_3H_8 (b.pt. = -42°C)	$\begin{array}{c} H & H & H \\ & & \\ H-C & -C & -C-H \\ & & \\ H & H & H \end{array}$
Butane C_4H_{10} (b.pt. = -0.4°C)	$\begin{array}{c} H & H & H & H \\ & & & \\ H-C & -C & -C & -C-H \\ & & & \\ H & H & H & H \end{array}$

Isomeric Alkanes:

The molecular formula for the C1 to C3 alkanes lead to single, unique structures. However for C_4H_{10} , there are two possible constitutional isomers. It is important to be able to recognize isomers because they can have different chemical, physical properties and biological properties. The constitutional isomers of C_4H_{10} are shown below along with some properties:

n-butane	$\begin{array}{c} H & H & H & H \\ & & & \\ H-C & -C & -C & -C-H \\ & & & \\ H & H & H & H \end{array}$	m.pt. = -139°C b.pt. = -0.4°C $\Delta H_f = -125.6 \text{ kJ/mol}$ (-30.0 kcal/mol) $\Delta H_c = -2877 \text{ kJ/mol}$ (-687 kcal/mol)
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isobutane	$ \begin{array}{c} \text{H} \quad \text{H} \quad \text{H} \\ \quad \quad \\ \text{H}-\text{C}-\text{C}-\text{C}-\text{H} \\ \quad \quad \\ \text{H} \quad \text{H} \quad \text{H} \\ \\ \text{H} \end{array} $	m.pt. = -161°C b.pt. = -10.2°C $\text{DH}_f = -135.6 \text{ kJ/mol}$ (-32.4 kcal/mol) $\text{DH}_c = -2868 \text{ kJ/mol}$ (-685 kcal/mol)
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C_5H_{12} has three possible constitutional isomers:

n-pentane	$ \begin{array}{c} \text{H} \quad \text{H} \quad \text{H} \quad \text{H} \quad \text{H} \\ \quad \quad \quad \quad \\ \text{H}-\text{C}-\text{C}-\text{C}-\text{C}-\text{C}-\text{H} \\ \quad \quad \quad \quad \\ \text{H} \quad \text{H} \quad \text{H} \quad \text{H} \quad \text{H} \end{array} $	b.pt. = 36.1°C $\text{DH}_f = -147 \text{ kJ/mol}$ (-35.1 kcal/mol) $\text{DH}_c = -3509 \text{ kJ/mol}$ (-839 kcal/mol)
isopentane	$ \begin{array}{c} \text{H} \quad \text{H} \quad \text{H} \quad \text{H} \\ \quad \quad \quad \\ \text{H}-\text{C}-\text{C}-\text{C}-\text{C}-\text{H} \\ \quad \quad \quad \\ \text{H} \quad \text{H} \quad \text{H} \quad \text{H} \\ \\ \text{H} \end{array} $	b.pt. = -30°C $\text{DH}_f = -154.1 \text{ kJ/mol}$ (-36.8 kcal/mol) $\text{DH}_c = -3502 \text{ kJ/mol}$ (-837 kcal/mol)
neopentane	$ \begin{array}{c} \text{H} \\ \\ \text{H}-\text{C}-\text{H} \\ \quad \quad \\ \text{H} \quad \text{C} \quad \text{C} \quad \text{C}-\text{H} \\ \quad \quad \\ \text{H} \quad \text{H} \quad \text{H} \\ \\ \text{H} \end{array} $	b.pt. = 9.5°C $\text{DH}_f = -168.0 \text{ kJ/mol}$ (-40.1 kcal/mol) $\text{DH}_c = -3493 \text{ kJ/mol}$ (-835 kcal/mol)

Q3. What is relative stability and reactivity?

Answer

Branched alkanes are more stable than linear alkanes, e.g. 2-methylpropane is more stable than n-butane.

Reactivity

The Alkanes or Paraffins are inert towards acids, alkalis, oxidizing and reducing agents under normal conditions.

Explanation:

The unreactivity of Alkanes can be explained on the basis of inertness of a σ bond and non-polar C-H/C-C bonds.

i) Inertness of σ bond

In a σ bond the electrons are very tightly held between the nuclei. A lot of energy is required to break it. Moreover, the electrons present in a σ bond can neither attack on any electrophile nor a nucleophile can attack on them. Hence Alkanes less reactive.

ii) Non-polar Bonds:

The electro negativity of carbon (2.5) and hydrogen (2.1) do not differ appreciably and the bonding electrons between C-H and C-C are equally shared making them almost nonpolar. In view of this, the ionic reagents such as acids, alkalies, oxidizing agents, etc find no reaction in the alkane molecules to which they could be attached.

However, under suitable condition, Alkanes give two types of reactions.

i) Thermal and Catalytic Reactions

ii) Substituted Reactions.

These reactions take place at high temperature or on absorption of light energy through the formation of highly reactive free radicals.

ii) Cycloalkanes

Another type of molecule containing only sp^3 hybridized C and H atoms connected by s bonds is possible with a ring of 3 or more C atoms. These are the **cycloalkanes** which are fairly common in the world of organic chemistry, both man-made and natural.

1) Nomenclature:

According to IUPAC system, cyclo alkanes with one ring are named by prefixing cyclo to the name of the corresponding alkane having the same number of carbon atoms as the ring, e.g.,



Cyclo
Propane

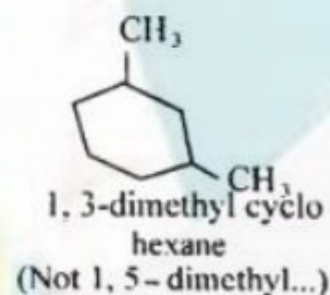
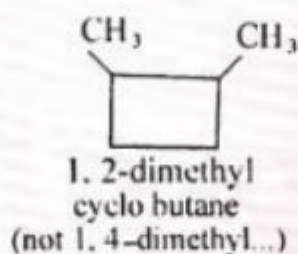
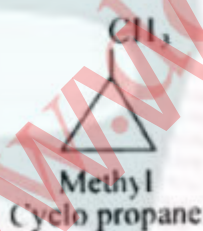


Cyclo
Butane

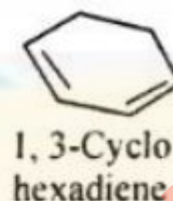
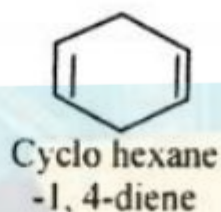


Cyclo
pentane

The substituents are numbered in such a way that the sum of numbers is kept minimum, e.g.,



If the alicyclic hydrocarbon is unsaturated, the rules applied to alkenes (for double bond) or alkynes (for triple bond) are used, e.g,



Multiple bonds are given the lowest possible number.

2) Physical Properties:

Like alkanes, the low polarity of all the bonds in cycloalkanes means that the only intermolecular forces between molecules of cycloalkanes are the very weak induced dipole - induced dipole forces, also known as **London forces** which are easily overcome. As a result, compared to other functional groups, but like alkanes, cycloalkanes tend to have low melting and boiling points.

3) Structure:

They have a generic formula of C_nH_{2n} (note: there 2 less H atoms compared to the analogous alkane).

The C3 to C6 cycloalkanes are shown below in a variety of representations.

Cyclopropane	C_3H_6	
Cyclobutane	C_4H_8	
Cyclopentane	C_5H_{10}	
Cyclohexane	C_6H_{12}	

4) Reactivity:

Very similar reactivity to the closely related alkanes which have the same types of bonds.

Since C and H atoms have very similar electronegativities, both the C-H and C-C bonds are non-polar.

As a result, cycloalkanes, like alkanes, are not a very reactive functional group.

Q4. Give mechanism of free radical reactions.

Answer

Interesting Information:

When reaction mechanisms are being described, a 'curly arrow' is sometimes used to show the movement of a pair of electrons. The beginning of the arrow shows where the

electron pair starts from and the arrow head shows where the pair ends up. Figure 16.1 shows an example.



Figure 16.1

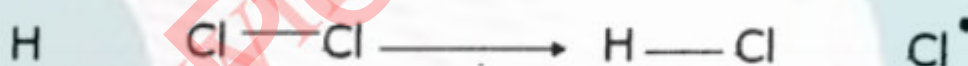
The arrows a pair of electrons moving from the Br-ion to the region between the bromine and the carbon, where it forms a covalent bond between the atoms. The same reaction is shown again below, with all the bonding electrons indicated.



Figure 16.2

A half-arrow is used to show the movement of a single electron in reactions involving free radicals. The beginning of the arrow shows where the single electron starts from and the half-arrow head shows where it ends up.

For example, the reaction



Would be shown as

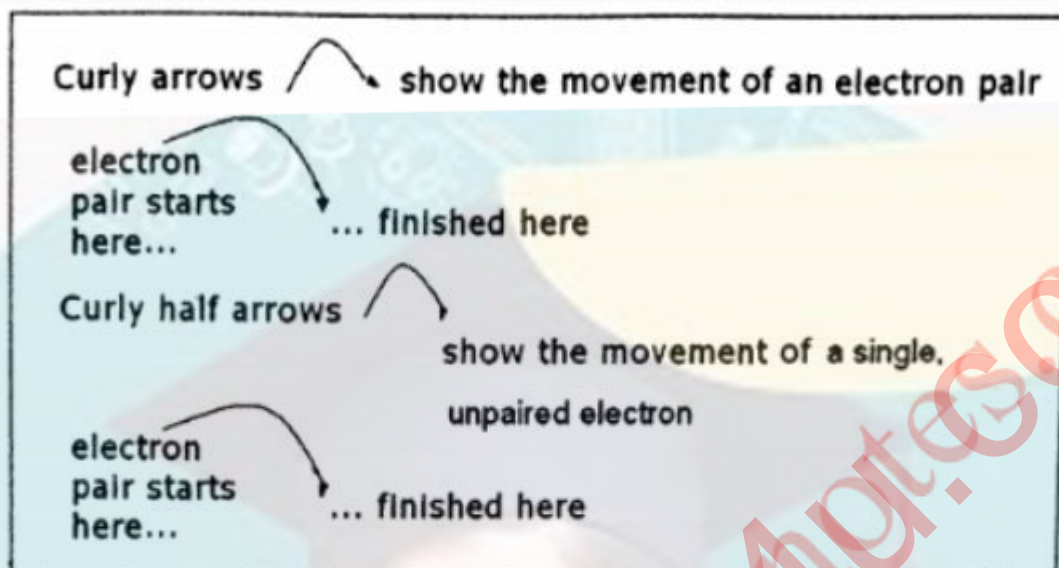


This is shown again below, with all the bonding electrons indicated.



Figure 16.3

Figure 16.3 summarizes the way curly arrows and half-arrows are used.



The mechanism for the bromination of methane is shown below, but the mechanism for chlorination or higher alkanes is the same. Note that it contains three distinct types of steps, depending on the net change in the number of radicals that are present.

RADICAL CHAIN MECHANISM FOR REACTION OF METHANE WITH Br_2

Step 1 (Initiation)

Heat or uv light cause the weak halogen bond to undergo homolytic cleavage to generate two bromine radicals and starting the chain process.



Step 2 (Propagation)

(a) A bromine radical abstracts a hydrogen to form HBr and a methyl radical, then



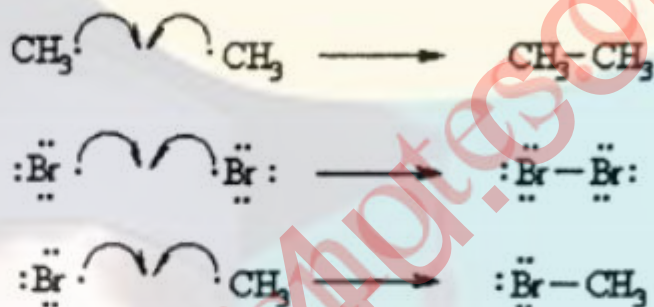
(b) The methyl radical abstracts a bromine atom from another molecule of Br_2 to form the methyl bromide product and



another bromine radical, which can then itself undergo reaction 2(a) creating a cycle that can repeat.

Step 3 (Termination)

Various reactions between the possible pairs of radicals allow for the formation of ethane, Br₂ or the product, methyl bromide. These reactions remove radicals and do not perpetuate the cycle.



Q5. Give oxidation and reduction reactions of organic compounds.

Answer

Oxidation, [O], and reduction, [R], are opposites and both must occur simultaneously, hence *redox reactions*.

Organic chemists will normally describe a reaction as either oxidation or reduction depending on the fate of the major organic component.

Oxidation

- more C-O bonds (or other atoms more electronegative than C)
- less C-H bonds
- loss of electrons
- increased oxidation state, e.g. +1 to +3 (see below)

Reduction

more C-H bonds

less C-O bonds (or other atoms more electronegative than C)

gain of electrons

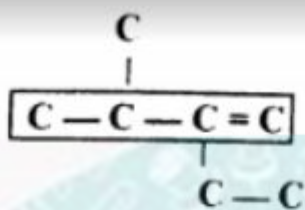
decreased oxidation state, e.g. +1 to -1 (see below)

Alkenes

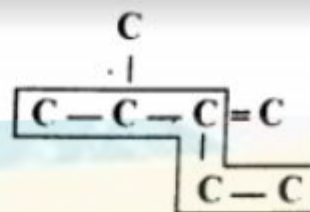
Nomenclature:

IUPAC system for naming Alkenes are as:

- 1) The longest continuous chain containing double bond is selected as parent chain.

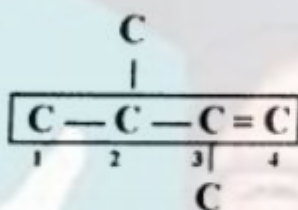


The parent chain containing double bond (correct)

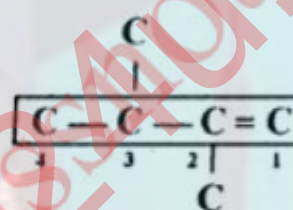


Longest chain with no double bond (incorrect)

- 2) The ending 'ane' is replaced by 'ene'.
- 3) The chain is numbered in such a manner as to give minimum number to the doubly bonded C-atoms.

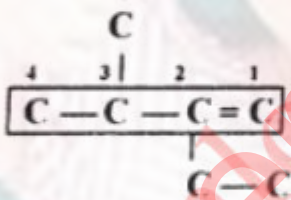


(Incorrect)

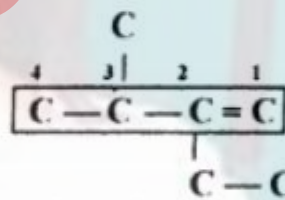


(Correct)

- 4) The position of double bond is indicated by the lower number of C-atom.

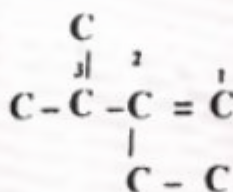


2-ene (incorrect)



1-ene (correct)

- 5) The lower number of C-atom is placed before the name of parent alkene.
- 6) The presence of more than double bond is indicated by the suffix -diene for two double bonds, -triene for three double bonds and so on.
- 7) Alkyl groups are indicated by the methods mentioned in alkane.



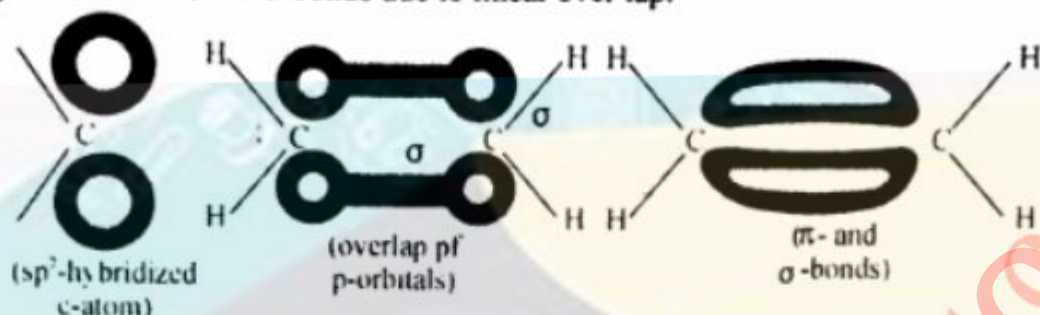
2-ethyl-3-methyl-1-butene

Q6. Give Structure of alkanes.

Answer

The carbon atoms linked through π -bond are sp^2 hybridized. Therefore, each atom carries three sp^2 -hybrids and one p-orbital. The p-orbital overlap to form π -bond and

hybrid orbitals form σ -bonds due to linear overlap.



The carbon-carbon distance in ethane is shorter (1.34Å) than the C-C bond distance of ethane (1.54Å). It is due to increased electron density between carbon atoms.



Carbon atoms are coplanar, and the rotation of one c-atom with respect to other is restricted which results in cis-trans isomerism in alkene.

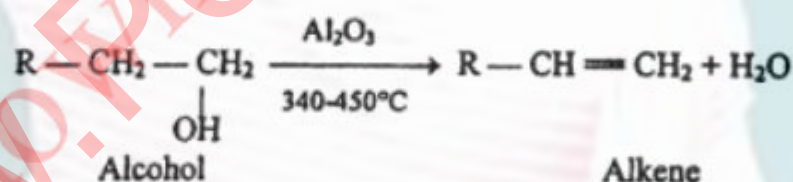
Q7. Give preparation of alkenes.

1) Dehydration of Alcohols

Removal of water molecule is called dehydration.

Example

When vapors of alcohol are passed over heated alumina, dehydration takes place with the formation of alkene.

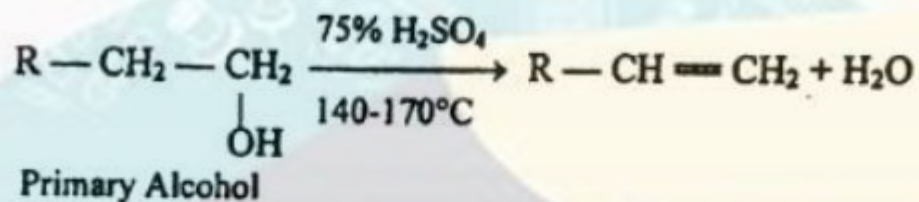


P_4O_{10} , H_2SO_4 , H_3PO_4 are also used for dehydration. The ease of dehydration of various alcohols is in the order.

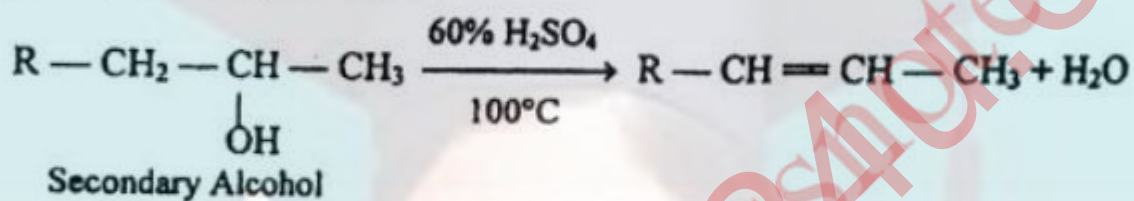
Ter.alcohol > sec.alcohol > pri.alcohol

Example:

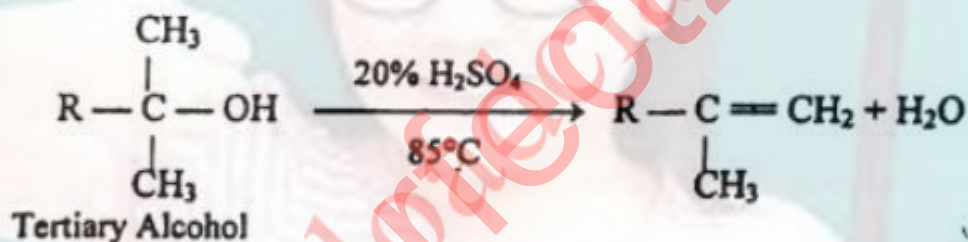
(i) Primary Alcohol:



(ii) Secondary Alcohol:



(iii)

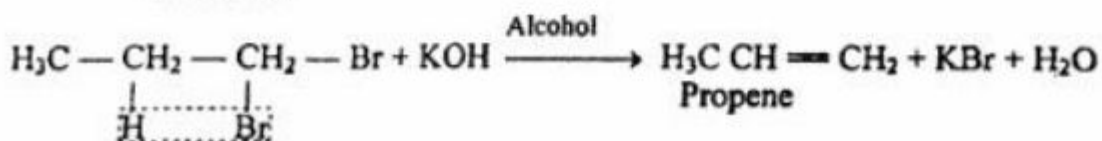
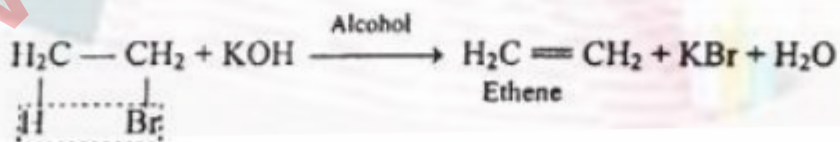
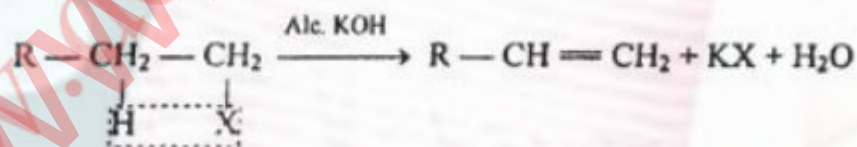


2) Dehydrohalogenation of Alkyl Halides

Removal of hydrogen halide (HX) from alkyl halides is called Dehydrohalogenation"

Example

Alkyl halides on heating with alcoholic potassium hydroxide undergo Dehydrohalogenation to form alkenes.



Q8. Give diffractions of alkanes.

Answer

1) Hydrogenation

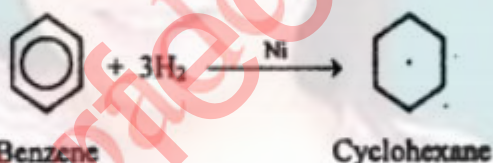
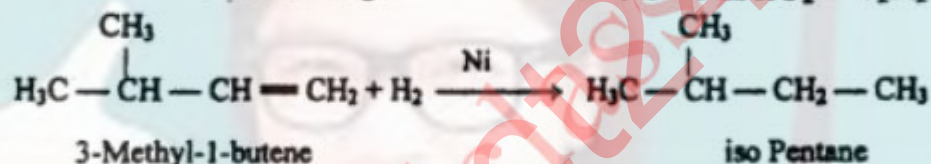
A process in which a molecule of hydrogen is added to an alkene in the presence of a catalyst and at moderate pressure (1-5 atm) to give a saturated compound is known as catalytic hydrogenation.

Explanation

It is a highly exothermic process and the amount of heat evolved when one mole of an alkene is hydrogenated is called *Heat of Hydrogenation*. The heat of hydrogenation of most alkenes is about 120 kJ mol⁻¹ for each double bond present in a molecule. The catalysts employed are Pt, Pd and Raney Nickel.

Raney Nickel

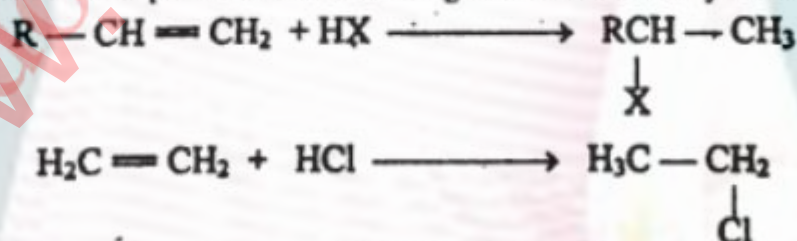
It is prepared by treating a Ni – Al alloy with caustic soda.



Catalytic hydrogenation of alkenes is used in the laboratory as well as in industry. In industry, it is used for the manufacture of vegetable ghee from vegetable oils. In the laboratory, it is used as a synthetic as well as an analytical tool.

2) Hydrohalogenation

Alkenes react with aqueous solution of halogen acid to form alkyl halides.



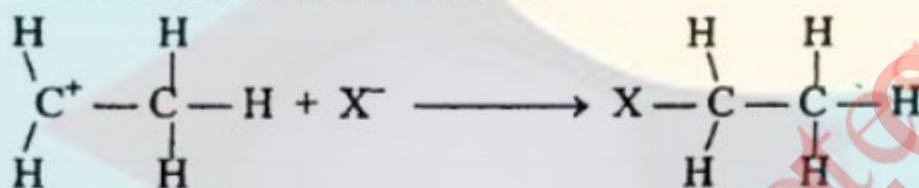
The order of reactivity of halogen acids is $\text{HI} > \text{HBr} > \text{HCl}$

Mechanism of Reaction:

The addition of a hydrogen halide to an alkene takes place in two steps. Alkene accepts the proton of hydrogen halide to form a carbocation.



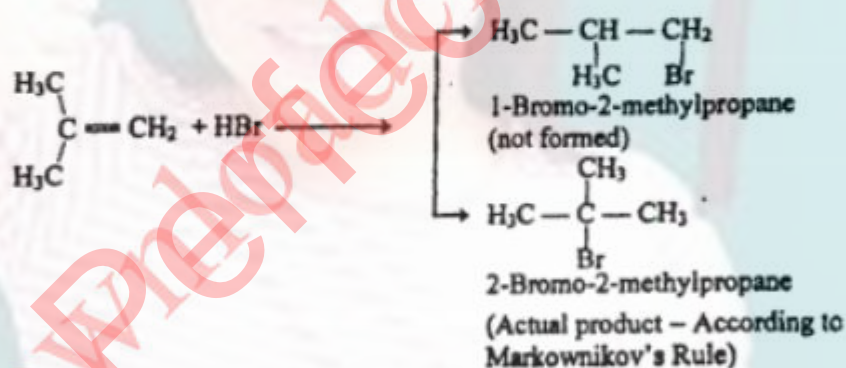
The carbocation then reacts with the halide ion.



Markownikov's Rule:

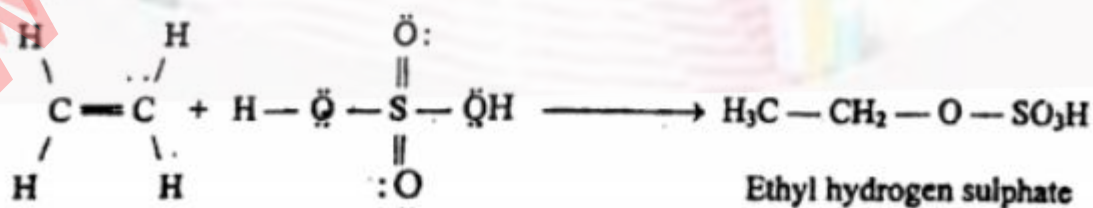
The addition of hydrogen halide over an unsymmetrical alkene is according to Markownikov's Rule. Which states that; in the addition of an unsymmetrical reagent to an unsymmetrical alkene, the negative part of the adding reagent goes to that carbon, consisting the double bond, which has least number of hydrogen atoms.

Example

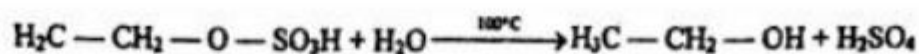


3) Hydration

- Addition of water is called hydration. Some reactive alkenes react with water in the presence of suitable substances as acid etc. to form alcohol. It is possible as alkenes are soluble cold concentrated sulfuric acid. They react by addition to form alkyl hydrogen sulphate.



These alkyl hydrogen sulphates on boiling with water decompose to give corresponding alcohols.



4) Halogenation

The alkenes react with halogen in an inert solvent like carbon tetrachloride at room temperature to give vicinal dihalides or 1,2 dihalogenated products.

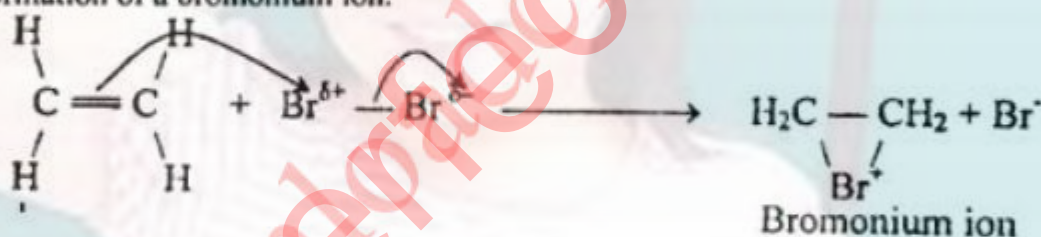


Vicinal dihalide

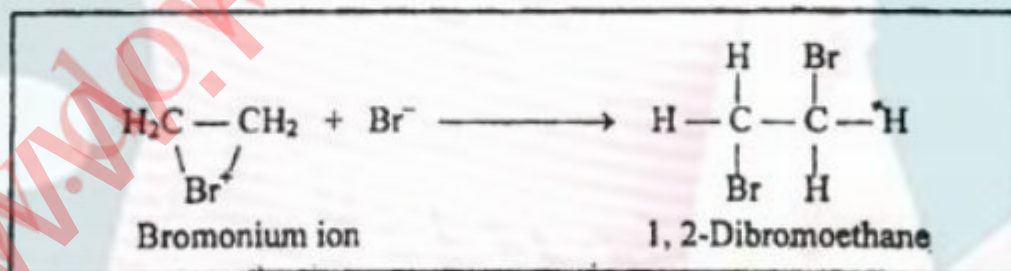
Br_2 and Cl_2 are effective electrophilic reagents. Fluorine is too reactive to control the reaction. Iodine does not react.

Mechanism

- a) A bromine molecule becomes polarized as it approaches the alkene. This polarized bromine molecule transfers a positive bromine atom to the alkene resulting in the formation of a bromonium ion.



- b) The nucleophilic bromide ion then attacks on the carbon of the bromonium ions to form vic. Dibromide and the color of bromine is discharged.



This test is applied for the detection of double bond in a molecule.

5) Halohydratation

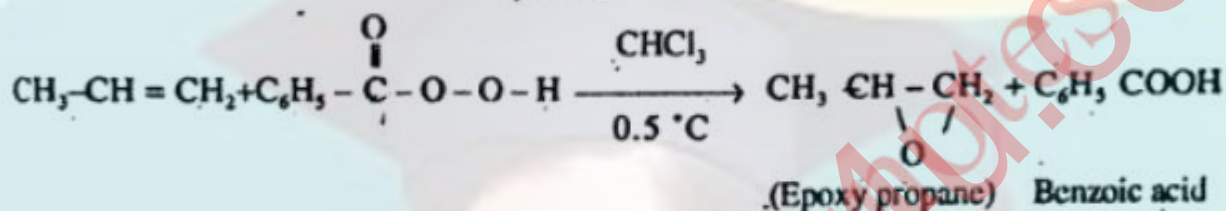
Addition of hypohalous acid (HOX) is called halohydratation.

Alkenes react with hypohalous acid to give Halohydrin. In this reaction, molecules of the solvent become reactants too.



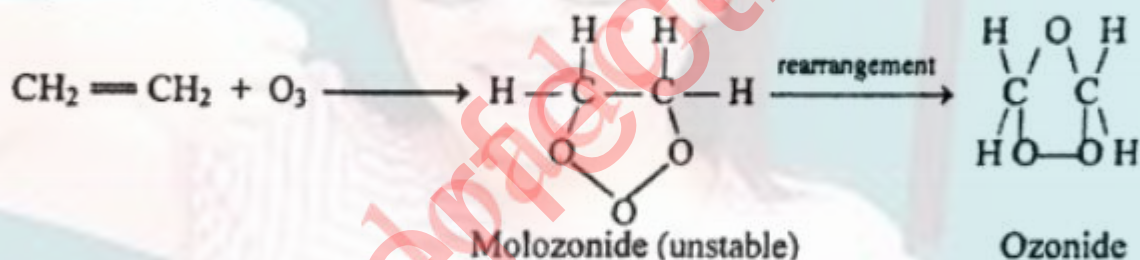
6) Epoxidation

It is the formation of epoxides. Peracids such as per oxyacetic acid or peroxy benzoic acid react with alkenes to form epoxides.



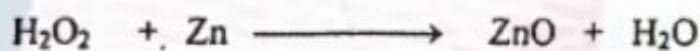
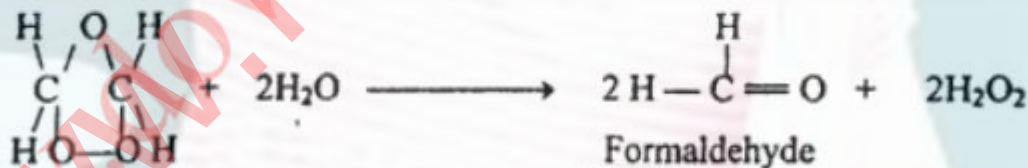
7) Ozonolysis

Ozone (O_3) reacts vigorously with alkenes to form unstable molozone. It rearranges spontaneously to form an ozonide.



Reduction Ozonide:

Ozonides are unstable compounds and are reduced directly on treatment with zinc and H_2O . The reduction produces carbonyl compounds (aldehydes or ketones).



Ozonolysis is used to locate the position of double bond in an alkene. The C-atom of double bond is changed to $-\overset{\text{O}}{\text{C}}=$ group.

8) Polymerization

Polymerization is a process in which a small organic molecules which are called monomers combine together to form larger molecules. The substances so produced are called polymers.

Ethene polymerizes to polythene at 400°C at a pressure of 100 atm.

400°C



Pressure = 100 atm

Traces of O₂ (0.1%)

Polythene
(Polyethylene)

A good quality polythene is obtained when ethane is polymerized in the presence of aluminium triethyl Al(C₂H₅)₃ and titanium tetrachloride (TiCl₄).

Interesting Information			
Examples of natural and synthetic polymers			
	Polymer	Monomer	Where you find it
Natural	protein	amino acids	wool, silk, etc.
	starch	glucose	potato, wheat, etc.
	cellulose	glucose	paper, wood, dietary fibre
	DNA	nucleotides	chromosomes, genes
Synthetic	poly (ethane)	ethane	bags, washing-up bowls, etc.
	poly (chloroethene) (PVC)	chloroethene	fabric coatings, electrical insulation
	poly (phenylethene) (polystyrene)	phenylethene	toys, expanded polystyrene
	polyester	ethane-1,2- diol and benzene- 1,2- dicarboxylic acid	skirts, shirts, trousers

Q9. What is conjugation?

Answer

The word "*conjugation*" is derived from a Latin word that means "to link together". In organic chemistry, it is used to describe the situation that occurs when p systems are "linked together".

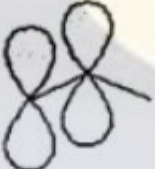
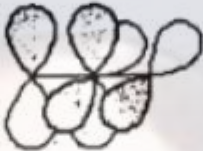
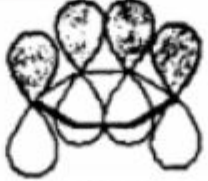
- An "*isolated*" p system exists only between a single pair of adjacent atoms (e.g. C=C)
- An "*extended*" p system exists over a longer series of atoms (e.g. C=C-C=C or C=C-C=O etc.).

- An extended p system results in a extension of the chemical reactivity.

The fundamental requirement for the existence of a conjugated system is revealed if one considers the orbital involved in the bonding within the system.

- A conjugated system requires that there is a continuous array of "p" orbitals that can align to produce a bonding overlap along the whole system.
- If a position in the chain does not provide a "p" orbital or if geometry prevents the correct alignment, then the conjugation is broken at that point.

You can investigate these differences by studying the following examples, pay particular attention to the "p" orbitals:

System	p system	Type
ethene		isolated
propene		isolated
1,2-propadiene (allene)		cumulated
1,3-butadiene		conjugated
1,3-pentadiene		conjugated
1,4-pentadiene		isolated
1,3-cyclopentadiene		conjugated
1,3-cyclohexadiene		conjugated

1,4-cyclohexadiene		isolated
benzene		conjugated

The result of conjugation is that there are extra p bonding interactions between the adjacent p systems that results in an overall stabilisation of the system.

Q10. What is isomerism? Explain with examples.

Answer

Compounds that have the same molecular formula but different chemical structures are called *isomers* and the phenomenon is called *isomerism*.

Since isomers have the same molecular formula, the difference in their properties must be due to different modes of combination or arrangement of atoms within the molecule. There are two main types of isomerism:

(1) Structural Isomerism

(2) Stereoisomerism

Structure Isomerism: When the isomerism is due to difference in the arrangement of atoms within the molecule, without any reference to space, the phenomenon is called Structural Isomerism. In other words, structural isomers are compounds that have the same molecular formula but different structural formulas. Structural isomerism is of five types:

- i) Chain isomerism
- ii) Position isomerism
- iii) Functional isomerism
- iv) Metamerism
- v) Tautomerism

Stereoisomerism: When isomerism is caused by the different arrangements of atoms or groups in space, the phenomenon is called Stereoisomerism. The stereoisomers have the same structural formulas but differ in arrangement of atoms in space. In other words stereoisomer is exhibited by such compounds which have the same structural formula but differ in configuration, (The term configuration refers to the three-dimensional arrangement of atoms that characterizes a particular compound). Stereoisomer is of two types:

- (a) Geometrical or Cis-Trans Isomerism
- (b) Optical Isomerism

1) Chiral Center:

First, we will discuss plane of symmetry which help us to understand this topic.

Plane of Symmetry

A plane which divides an object into two symmetrical halves, is said to be plane of symmetry. For example, a person or a hat has a plane of symmetry (Fig. a person's hand or gloves lack plane of symmetry).

An object lacking a plane of symmetry is called dissymmetric or Chiral (pronounced as Ki-ral). A symmetric object is referred to as Achiral.

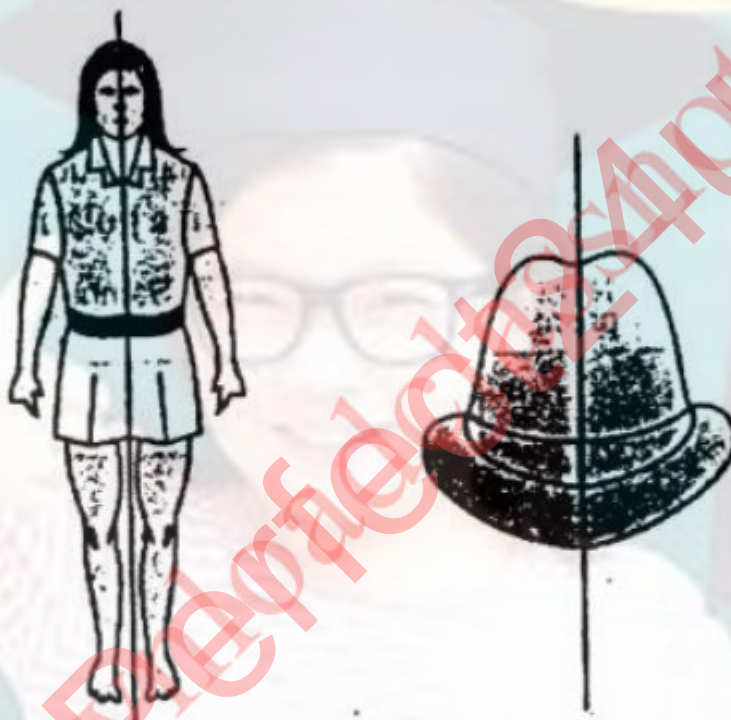


Fig.16.4 Planes of Symmetry

A dissymmetric object cannot be superimposed on its mirror image. A left hand for example does not possess a plane of symmetry, and its mirror image is not another left hand but a right hand (Fig.). The two are not identical because they cannot be superimposed. If we were to lay one hand on top- of the other, the fingers and the thumb would clash.



Fig.16.5 The mirror image relationship of the left hands. Notice that right hand is the mirror image of the left hand.



Fig 16.6 Chiral objects

Achiral molecule has at least one asymmetric center and does not have a plane of symmetry.



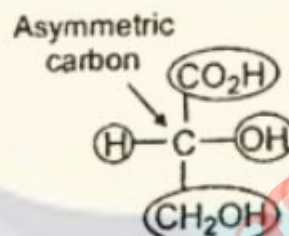
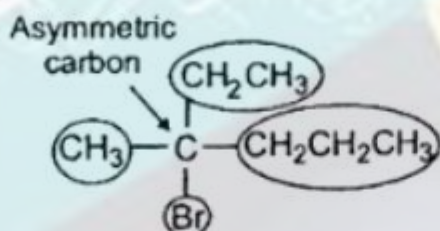
Fig 16.7 Achiral objects

An achiral molecule has a plane of symmetry

2) Carbon-Based Chiral Centers:

A carbon atom which is bonded to four different groups is called an Asymmetric Carbon Atom.

Examples are:



The term asymmetric carbon atom is rather misleading. It only means that a carbon atom is bonded to four different groups and that a molecule of this type lacks plane of symmetry. Such a molecule is called asymmetric (Latin a = without), that is, without symmetry. Presently the term Dissymmetric or Chiral Molecules is often for asymmetric molecules.

3) Optical Activity:

Light from ordinary electric lamp is composed of waves vibrating in many different planes. When it is passed through Nicol prism (made of calcite, CaCO_3) or Polaroid lens, light is found to vibrate in only one plane, and is said to be plane-polarized or simply polarized. The diagrams illustrate the vibrations of ordinary and polarized light from a beam propagated perpendicularly to the plane of paper. Solutions of some organic compounds have the ability to rotate the plane of polarized light. These compounds are said to be Optically Active. This property of a compound is called Optical Activity.

Optical activity in a compound is detected and measured by means of a Polarimeter. When a solution of a known concentration of an optically active material is placed in the polarimeter, the beam of polarized light is rotated through a certain number of degrees, either to the right (clockwise) or to the left (anticlockwise). The compound which rotates the plane of polarized light to the right (clockwise) is said to be Dextrorotatory. It is indicated by the sign (+). The compound which rotates the plane of polarized light to the left (anticlockwise) is said to be Levorotatory. It is indicated by the sign (-). The magnitude of rotation in degrees is referred to as observed rotation, α . Fig shows the part of polarimeter.

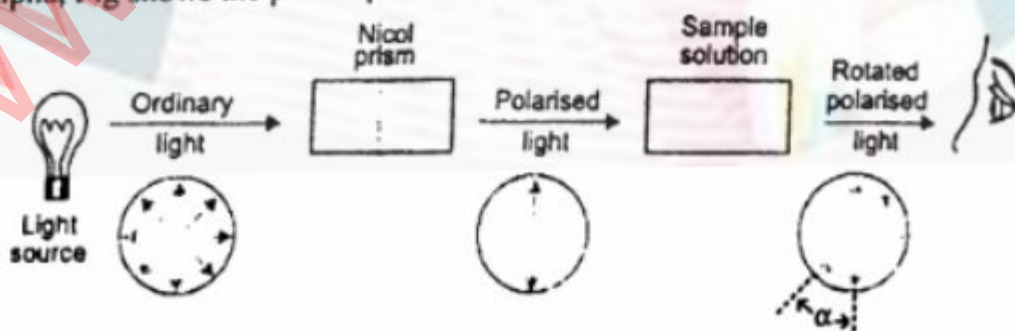


Fig.16.8 A simple polarimeter in operation

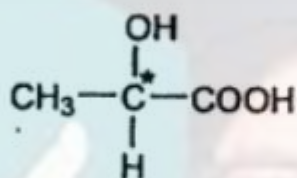
4) Optical Isomerism

An optically active compound can exist in two isomeric forms which rotate the plane polarized light in opposite directions. These are called Optical Isomers and the phenomenon is known as Optical Isomerism.

The isomer which rotates the plane of polarized light to the right (clockwise direction) is known as **Dextrorotatory Isomer** or (+) isomer. The isomer which rotates the plane of polarized light to the left (anticlockwise direction) is known as the **Laevorotatory Isomer** or (-) isomer.

Optical Isomerism of Lactic Acid

Lactic acid (2-Hydroxypropionic acid) is an example of a compound which shows optical isomerism. It contains one asymmetric carbon atom.



Lactic acid. The asymmetric carbon is shown by an asterisk.

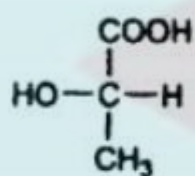
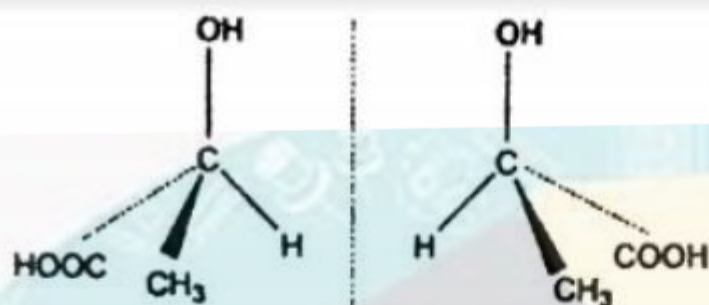
Two three dimensional structures are possible for Lactic acid

These structures are not identical because they cannot be superimposed on each other. On the mirror image of the other, such non superimposable mirror image forms are optical isomers and called *enantiomers*. Thus, three forms of lactic acid are known. Two are optically active and this is optically inactive.

(+) **Lactic Acid**: it rotates the plane of polarized light to the right (clockwise direction) is called dextrorotatory.

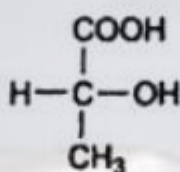
(-) **Lactic Acid**: it rotates the plane of polarized light to the left (anticlockwise direction) is called laevorotatory. (-) Lactic acid is the mirror image of (+) lactic acid and vice versa.

(±) **Lactic Acid**: it does not rotate the plane of polarized light. That is, it is optically inactive. It is an equimolar mixture of (+) and (-) forms (racemic mixture).



(+)-Acid
mp = 26°C

Optically active



(-)-Acid
mp = 26°C

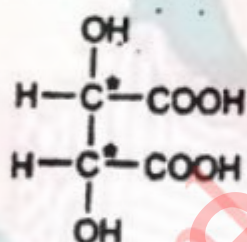
Equimolar mixture of
(+) and (-) forms
(racemic mixture)

(±)-Acid
mp = 18°C

Optically inactive

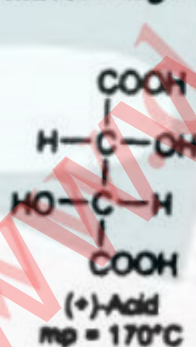
Optical Isomerism of Tartaric Acid

Tartaric acid (2,3-Dihydroxybutanedioic acid) contains two asymmetric carbon atoms.



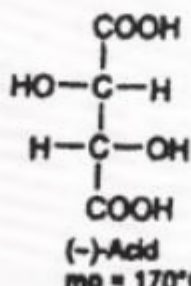
Tartaric acid. The two
asymmetric carbons are
shown by asterisks.

Four forms of tartaric acid are known. Two of them are optically active and two are optically inactive. The optically active forms are related to each other as an object to its mirror image. That is, they are enantiomers.

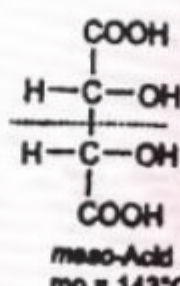


(+)-Acid
mp = 170°C

Optically active



(-)-Acid
mp = 170°C



meso-Acid
mp = 143°C

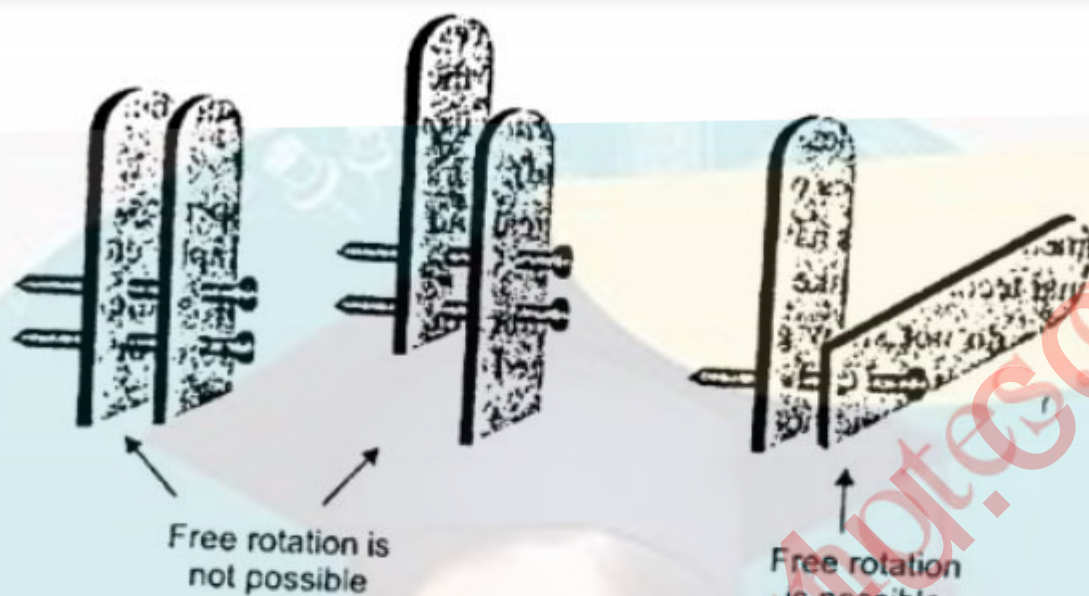
Optically inactive

Equimolar mixture of
(+) and (-) forms
(Racemic mixture)

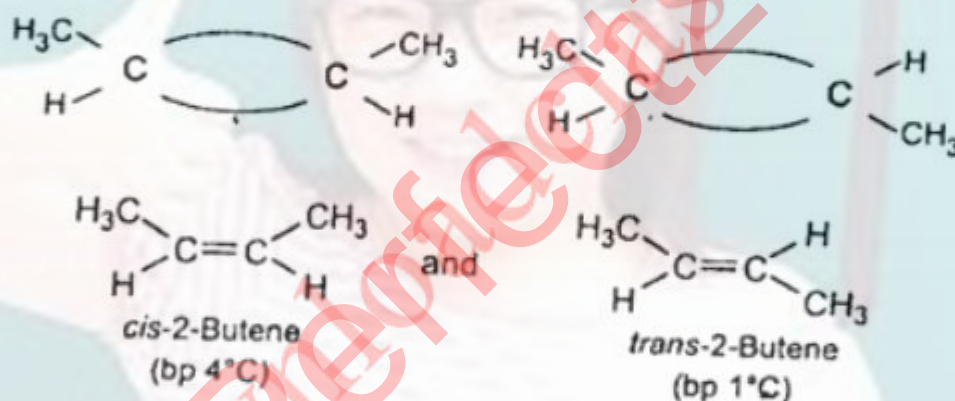
(±)-Acid
mp = 208°C

Isomers of Tartaric Acid

(+)-Tartaric Acid: it rotates the plane of polarized light to the left (anticlockwise direction) is called laevorotatory. (-) Lactic acid is the mirror image of (+) lactic acid and vice versa.

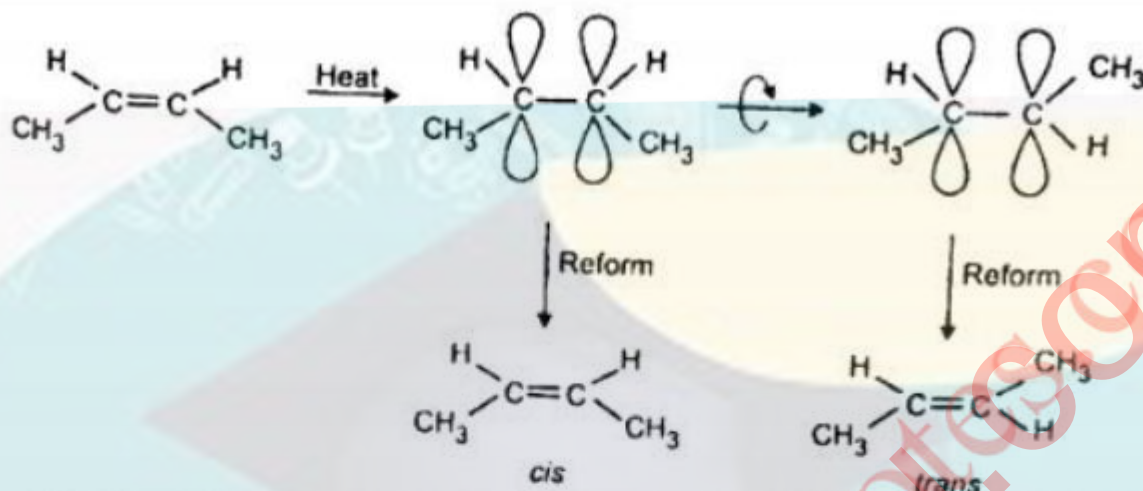


Consider the case of 2-butene. It exists in two special arrangements:



These two compounds are referred to as geometrical isomers and are distinguished from each other by the terms *cis* and *trans*. The *cis* isomer is one in which two similar groups are on the same side of the double bond. The *trans* isomer is that in which two similar groups are on the opposite sides of double bond. Consequently, this type of isomerism is often called *cis-trans* isomers. Geometrical isomers are stereoisomer, because they have the same structural formula but different special arrangement of atoms.

The conversion of *cis*-isomer into *trans*-isomer or vice versa is possible only if either isomer is heated to a high temperature or absorbs light. The heat supplies the energy (about 62 Kcal/mole) to break the π bond so that rotation about sigma bond becomes possible. Upon cooling, the reformation of the π bond can take place in two way giving mixture of *trans*-2-butene plus *cis*-2-butene.



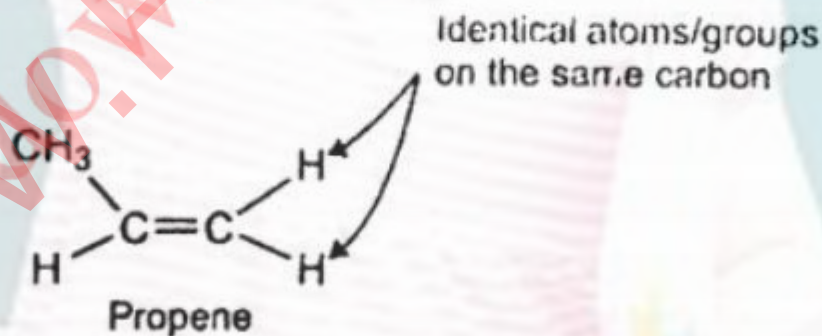
The trans isomers are more stable than the corresponding cis isomers. This is because, in cis isomer, the bulky groups are on the same side of the double bond. The steric repulsion of groups makes the cis isomers less stable than the trans isomer in which the bulky groups are far (they are on the opposite sides of the double bond).

The geometrical isomers have different physical and chemical properties. They can be separated by conventional isomers have different physical techniques like fractional distillation, gas chromatography etc.

All alkenes do not show geometrical isomerism. Geometrical isomerism is possible only when each double bonded carbon atoms is attached to two different atoms or groups. The following examples illustrate this condition for the existence of geometrical isomers.

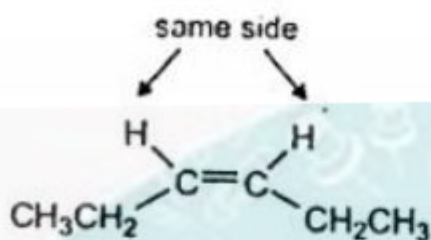
Example 1. Consider the case of Propene

No geometrical isomers are possible for propene ($\text{CH}_3\text{CH}=\text{CH}_2$). This is because one of double bonded carbons has two identical groups (H atoms) attached to it.

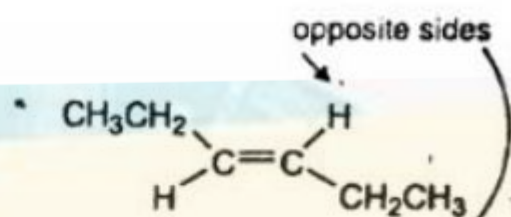


Example 2. Consider the case of 3-Hexene

Geometrical isomers are possible for 3-hexene ($\text{CH}_3\text{CH}_2\text{CH}=\text{CHCH}_2\text{CH}_3$). This is because each double bonded carbon atom is attached to two different groups (CH_2CH_3 and H). the cis and trans isomers of 3-hexene are shown below:



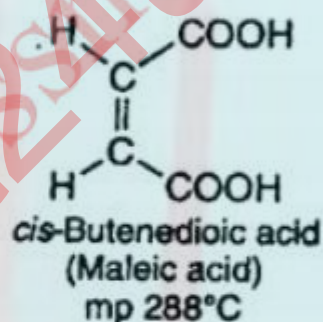
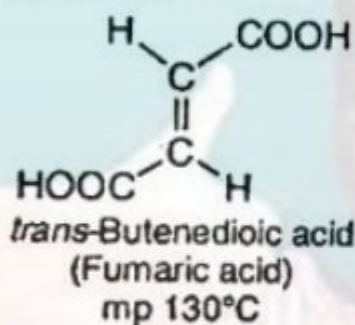
cis-3-Hexene



trans-3-Hexene

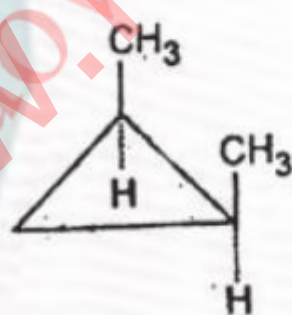
Example 3. Consider the case of Butenedioic acid.

Geometrical isomers are possible for butenedioic acid ($\text{HOOC}-\text{CH}=\text{CH}-\text{COOH}$). This is because each double bonded carbon atom has two different groups attached to it (H and COOH).

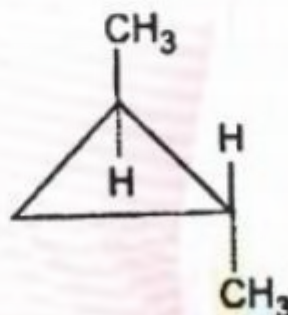


2) Geometrical Isomerism in Cyclic Compounds

Geometrical isomerism is also possible in cyclic compounds. There can be no rotation about carbon-carbon single bonds forming a ring because rotation would break the bonds and break ring. For example 1,2-dimethylcyclopropane exists in two isomeric forms.



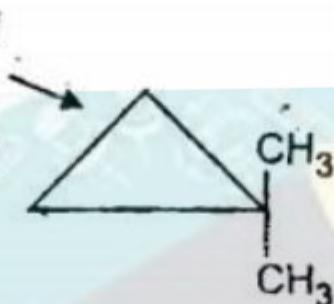
cis



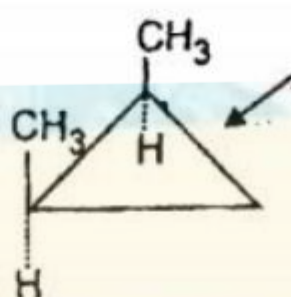
trans

In *cis*-1,2-dimethylcyclopropane the two methyl groups are on the same side of ring. In *trans* 1,2-dimethylcyclopropane, they are on opposite sides. A requirement for geometrical isomerism in cyclic compounds is that there must be at least two other groups beside hydrogen on the ring and these must be on different ring carbon atoms. For example, no geometrical isomers are possible for 1,1-dimethylcyclopropane.

No geometrical isomers are possible for this compound



Geometrical isomers are possible for this compound



Q12. Define and explain structural isomerism.

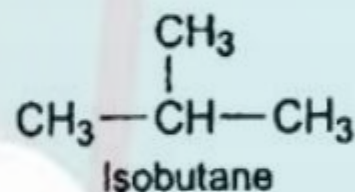
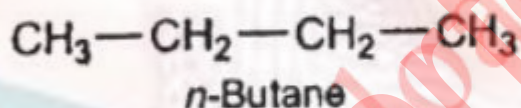
Answer

In structural isomerism the isomers have the same molecular formula but differ in structural formula, that is, in the order in which the different atoms are linked in the molecule. Structural isomerism is of five types:

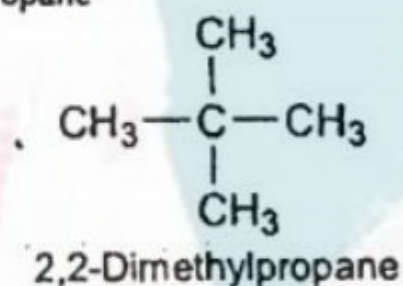
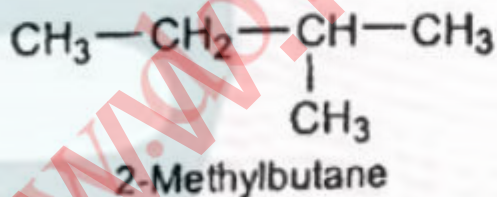
1) Chain Isomerism

Chain isomers have the same molecular formula but differ in order in which the carbon atoms are bonded to each other.

Example 1. n-Butane and Isobutane



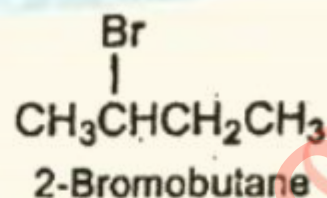
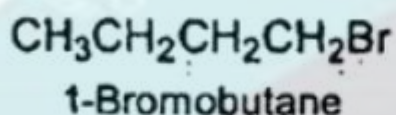
Example 2. 2-Methylbutane and 2,2-Dimethylpropane



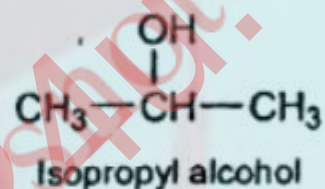
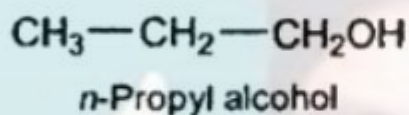
2) Position Isomerism

Position isomers have the same molecular formula but differ in the position of a functional group on the carbon chain.

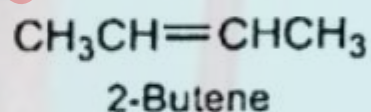
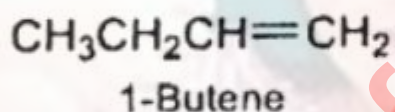
Example 1. 1-Bromobutane and 2-Bromobutane



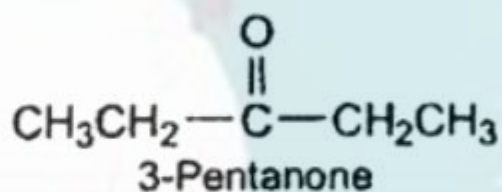
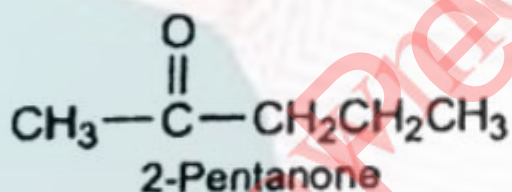
Example 2. n-Propyl alcohol and Isopropyl alcohol



Example 3. 1-Butene and 2-Butene



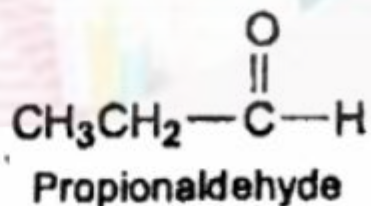
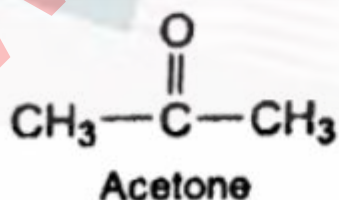
Example 4. 2-Pentanone and 3-Pentanone



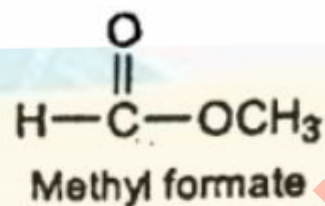
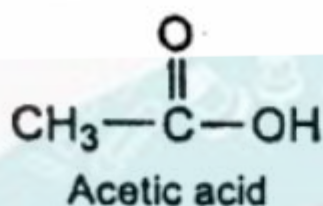
3) Functional Isomerism

Functional isomers have the same molecular formula but different functional groups.

Example 1. Acetone and Propionaldehyde



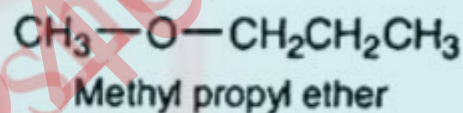
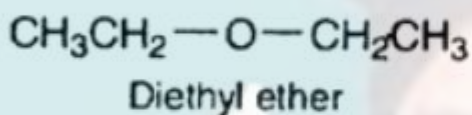
Example 2. Acetic acid and Methyl formate



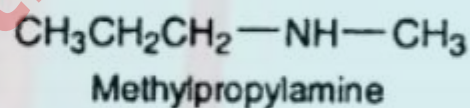
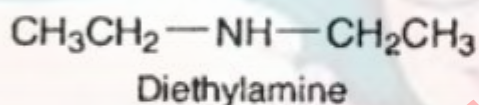
4) Metamerism

This type of isomerism is due to the unequal distribution of carbon atoms on either side of the functional group. Members belong to the same homologous series.

Example 1. Diethyl ether and Methyl propyl ether

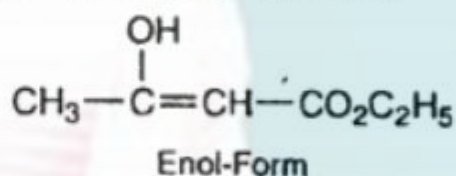
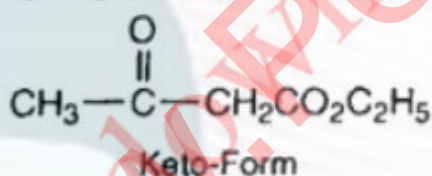


Example 2. Diethylamine and Methylpropylamine



5) Tautomerism

A type of isomerism in which a compound exists simultaneously in two forms in equilibrium with one another e.g. $\text{H}-\text{C}=\text{H}-\text{N}\equiv\text{C}$. It involves the shifting of position of hydrogen atom. This type of hydrogen atom is known as "mobile" hydrogen.



Alkynes

Nomenclature:

IUPAC System:

- 1) The parent hydrocarbon is the continuous chain containing triple bond.
- 2) The ending 'ane' of the alkane is changed by yne.

Relative Stability

Alkynes are more stable as compared to alkenes due to the presence of extra pi-bond. That is why alkynes are less reactive than alkene. This can be supported if we compare thermodynamic data of alkynes and alkenes, i.e.

OH of 1-Hexyne = 290 kJ/mol while

OH of 1-Hexene = 126 kJ/mol.

Q13. Give structure of alkynes.

Answer

The two carbons of acetylenic (alkyne) are sp-hybridized. They are linked by a sigma-bond due to sp-sp orbitals overlap. The unhybridized two p-orbitals on one carbon overlap with two p-orbitals on other carbon to form two pi-bonds. The cloud of pi-electrons is present cylindrically symmetrical about the carbon-carbon sigma-bond.



Rotation about carbon-carbon sigma bond does not cause any change in energy and electron density. It is a linear molecule, and hence geometrical isomer is not observed in it.

Physical Properties Alkynes.

In general, alkynes are non-polar and are insoluble in water but soluble in non-polar organic solvents.

Q14. Preparation of Alkynes by Elimination Reactions.

Answer

Alkynes can be prepared by the following methods:

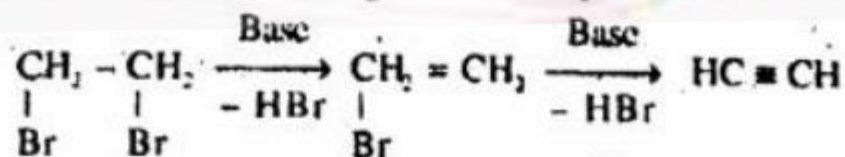
- i) Elimination reaction
- (ii) Alkylation of sodium acetylide.

But we discuss here only elimination reactions

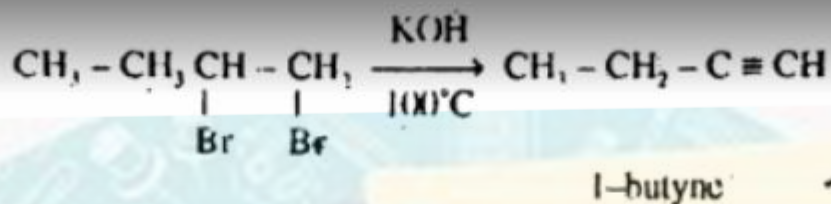
- i) Elimination of Hydrogen Halide:

Alkynes can be prepared by dehydrohalogenation of vicinal and geminal dihalides in the presence of some alkaline reagents.

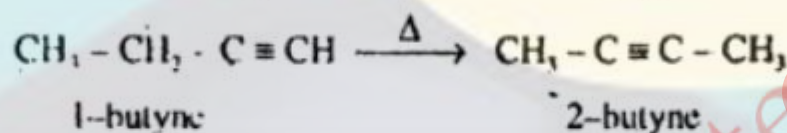
- a) A vicinal dihalide contains two halogen atoms on adjacent carbon atoms.



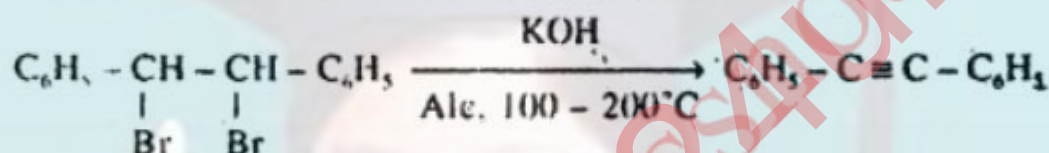
Higher alkynes are also formed in the presence of alcoholic KOH, e.g.,



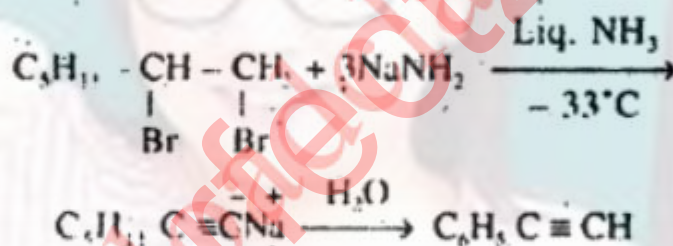
In the presence of strong base such as KOH and at high temperature triple bond at terminal c-atom migrates to give more disubstituted alkyne,



Therefore, alcoholic KOH is useful when rearrangement is not possible,

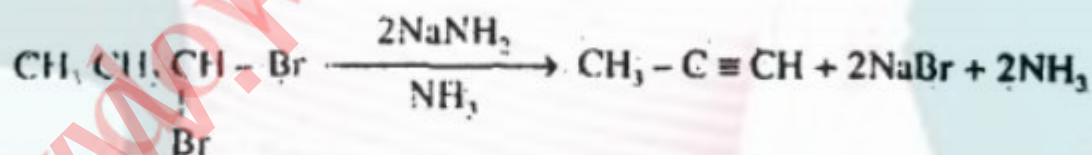


1-alkynes can be prepared from vic-dihalides with sodium amide in liquid ammonia



a) Germinal Dihalide:

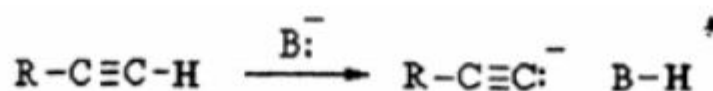
A dihalide containing two halogen atoms linked with the same carbon atom) on treatment with strong base gives alkyne, e.g.,



Acetylene (alkyne) is an unsaturated hydrocarbon and shows addition reactions. It also undergoes substitute reactions due to easy cleavage of C-H bond. The pi-electrons are present cylindrically symmetrical about carbon-carbon sigma bond and the removal of terminal hydrogen is possible without disturbing carbon-carbon bonding. Therefore electrophile substitute reactions are possible in acetyl and 1-alkynes.

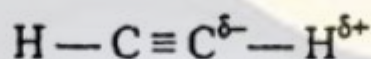
Q15. What is meant by acidity of terminal alkynes?

Answer





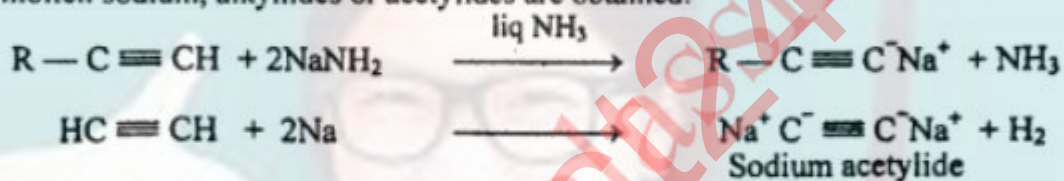
In ethyne and other terminal alkynes like propyne, the hydrogen atom is bonded to the carbon atoms with sp-s overlap. An sp hybrid orbital has 50% s-character in it and renders the carbon atoms more electronegative. As a result, the sp hybridized carbon atom of a terminal alkyne pulls the electrons more strongly making the attached hydrogen atom slightly acidic.



This $\text{H}^{\delta+}$ can be substituted with metal. Thus substitution reaction occurs due to $\text{H}^{\delta+}$:

Examples:

- i) When 1-alkyne or ethyne is treated with sodamide in liquid ammonia or passed over molten sodium, alkynides or acetylides are obtained.

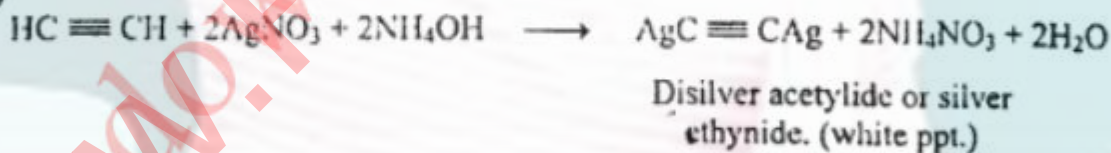


Sodium acetylide is a very valuable reagent for chemical synthesis and is essentially ionic in nature.

- (ii) Acetylides of copper and silver are obtained by passing acetylene in the ammoniacal solution of cuprous chloride and silver nitrate respectively.



(iii)



Silver and copper acetylides react with acids to regenerate alkynes.



These alkynides are used for the preparation, purification separation, and identification of alkynes.

Q16. Give addition reactions of alkynes.

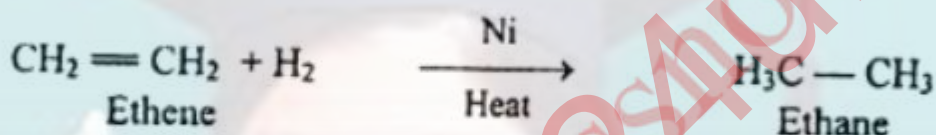
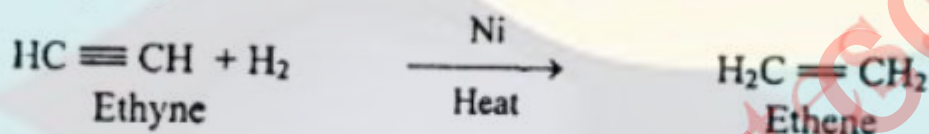
Answer

- 1) Alkynes undergo addition reactions in an analogous fashion to those of alkenes.
- 2) The high electron density of the p bonds makes them nucleophilic.

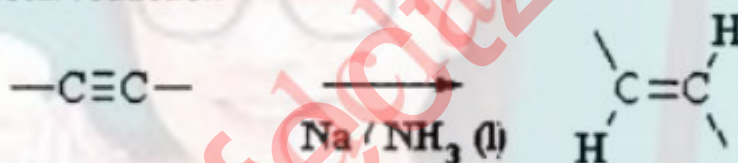
- 3) Two factors influence the relative reactivity of alkynes compared to alkenes:
 4) increased nucleophilicity of the starting p system, and
 5) stability of any intermediates (for example carbocations)

1) Hydrogenation

Alkynes react with hydrogen gas in the presence of suitable catalysts like finely divided Ni, Pt or Pd. In the first step alkenes are formed which then take up another molecule of hydrogen to form an alkane.



2) Dissolving Metal reduction



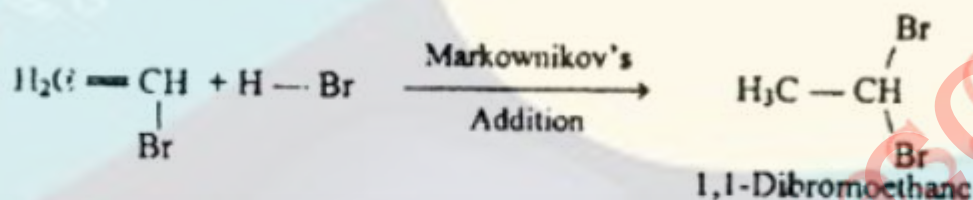
Reaction Type: Addition

Elaboration

- Alkynes can be reduced to *trans*-alkenes using Na in NH₃ (liq.)
- This reaction is **stereospecific** giving only the *trans*-alkene via an *anti* addition.
- Note that the stereochemistry of this reaction complements that of catalytic hydrogenation (*syn*)
- The reaction proceeds via single electron transfer from the Na with H coming from the NH₃
- These reaction conditions do not reduce alkenes, hence the product is the alkene.

3) Hydrohalogenation

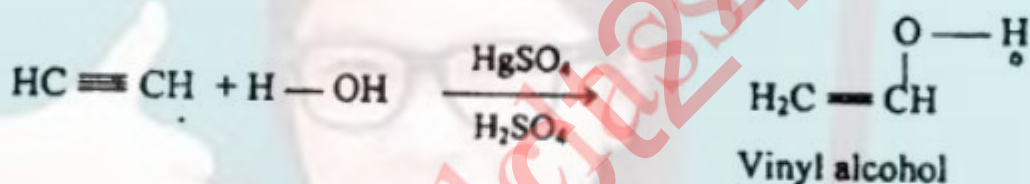
Alkynes react with hydrogen chloride and hydrogen bromide to form dihaloalkenes. The reaction occurs in accordance with Markovnikov's rule.



Second addition is according to Markownikov's Rule.

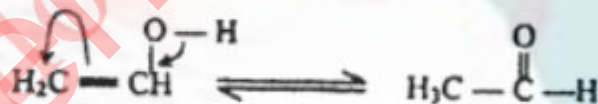
4) Hydration

Water adds to acetylene in the presence of mercuric sulphate dissolved in sulphuric acid at 75°C.



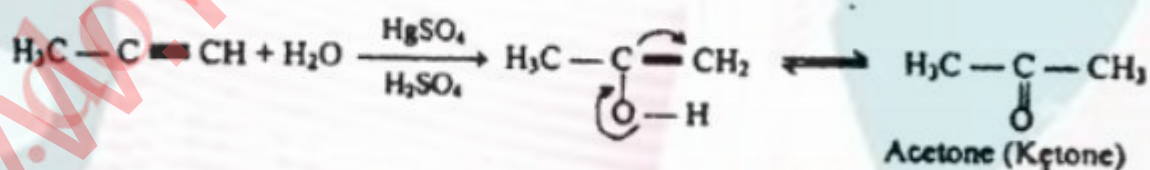
Rearrangement of Alcohol:

Vinyl alcohol is an unstable. It has the hydroxyl group attached to a doubly bonded carbon atom and isomerizes to acetaldehyde.



All others alkynes give ketones.

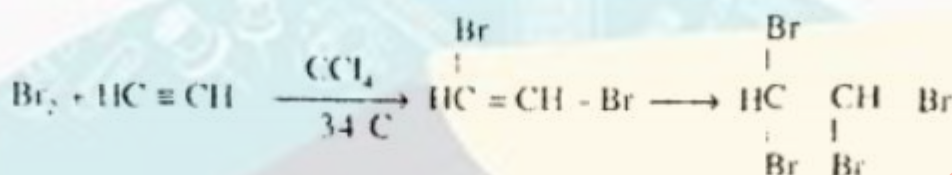
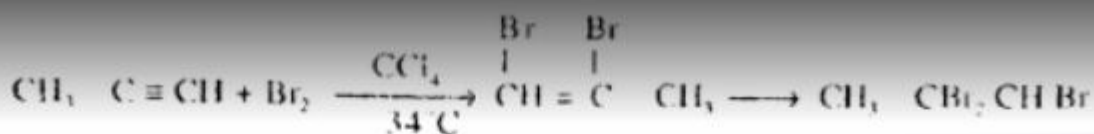
Acetaldehyde



This reaction is industrially important because aldehydes can be prepared by this method.

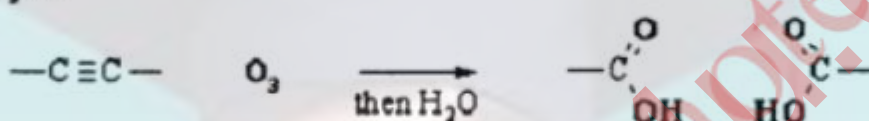
5) Bromination

Chlorine and bromine add to the acetylenic triple bond in the presence of lewis acid as catalyst



The Halogenation may be stopped at the dihaloalkene stage because the double bond of dihaloalkene is less nucleophilic than even triple bond itself.

6) Ozonolysis



When ozone reacts with alkyne followed by aqueous work up we get $2\text{XCO}_2\text{H}$.

Benzene and Substituted Benzenes

Discovered by	=	Michael Faraday
Isolated by	=	Hoffmann
Molecular formula	=	C_6H_6
Molecular weight	=	(i) Resonance (ii) Electrophilic substitution reaction

Michael Faraday discovered benzene in 1825, during the destructive distillation of vegetable oil. Hoffmann isolated it from coal tar.

As a functional group, benzene and substituted benzenes are called arenes.

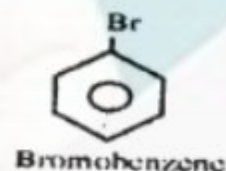
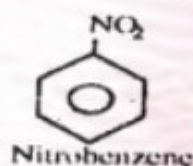
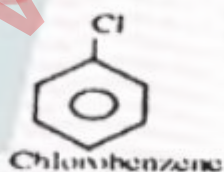
Nomenclature

Mono Substituted Benzenes:

a) Common system naming:

The following procedures are adopted for naming mono substituted benzenes:

(1) Parent name is benzene and the substituent is indicated by a prefix, e.g.,



2) The substituent and the benzene ring taken together may form a new parent name. The largest parent name is preferred e.g., $\text{C}_6\text{H}_5\text{CH}_3$ may be named as:

(i) Methyl benzene

(ii) Phenyl methane. According to "the largest rule" methyl benzene is preferred.

IUPAC System of Naming:

Mono substituted derivatives of benzene are named by prefixing the name of

substituted to the word 'benzene'. e.g.,



Chlorobenzene



Nitrobenzene

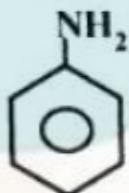
Many aromatic compounds have been known by their common or trivial names which are still in use. IUPAC system retains these names: A few are given below:

Structure

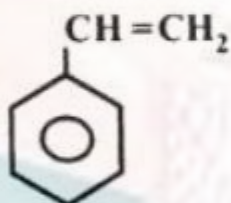
Names



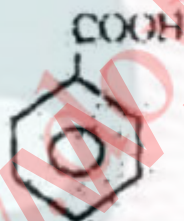
Toluene



Aniline



Styrene



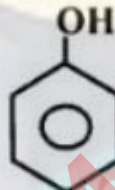
Benzoic acid



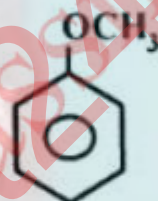
Bromobenzene

Structure

Names



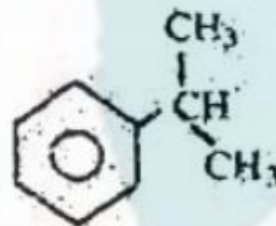
Phenol



Anisole



Nitrobenzene

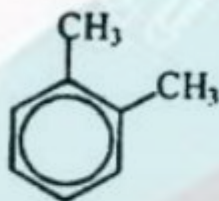


Cumene

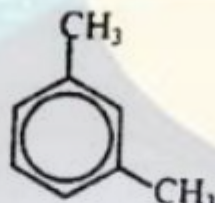
Q17. What are distributed benzene?

Answer

- 1) When there are two substituents on benzene ring their relative positions are indicated by prefixes ortho (o), Meta (m) and Para (p) in common system of naming and by numerals while naming according to IUPAC system. e.g.,



o-Dimethylbenzene

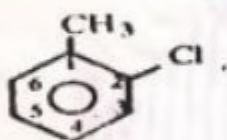


m-Dimethylbenzene

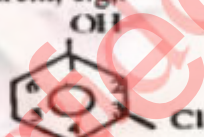


p-Dimethylbenzene

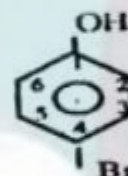
- 2) If the substituents are different and one of them is an alkyl group the numbering is started from the ring carbon which is linked to the alkyl group and the second substituent gets the lowest possible number.
- 3) When a common name is used, the substituent which is responsible for name, e.g., CH_3 in toluene, and $-\text{OH}$ in phenol, is considered to be on carbon -1, i.e., numbering is started from the carbon of ring bearing that group such a distributed compound is named as derivative of that parent, e.g.,



o-chlorotoluene
2-chlorotoluene
(IUPAC)

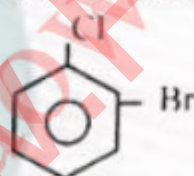


m-chlorophenol
3-chlorophenol
(IUPAC)

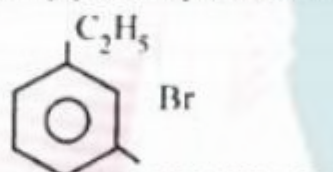


p-bromonitrobenzene
4-bromonitrobenzene
(IUPAC)

- 4) When two substituents are different, they are usually put in alphabetical order, e.g.

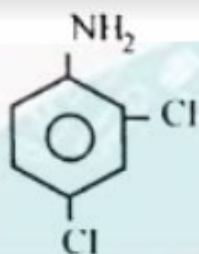


o-bromochlorobenzene
1-bromochlorobenzene
(IUPAC)

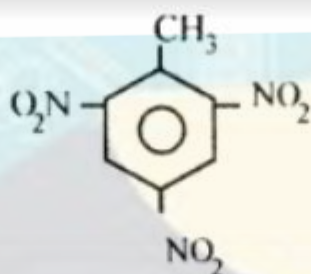


1-ethyl-3-propyl
benzene (IUPAC)

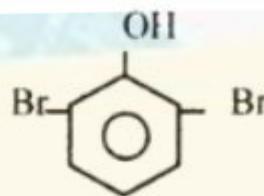
- 5) Poly substituted benzenes are named by numbering the substituent to ring so as to give the substituents lowest possible numbers. The last named substituent is assumed to be at position number 1. This number is not indicated in the name.



2,4 - dichloro aniline

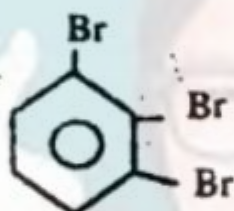


2, 4, 6 - trinitrotoluene
(TNT)

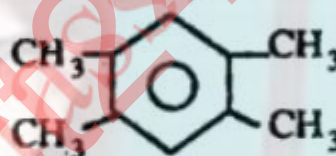


2, 6 - dibromophenol

- 6) If the substituents are all alike their positions are indicated by numbering the substituents in a manner so as to give the lowest number to the substituents.

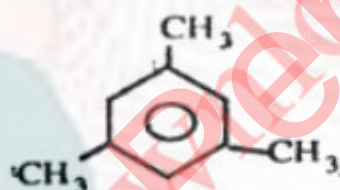


1, 2, 3 - tribromobenzene

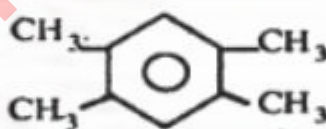


1, 2, 4, 5 - tetramethylbenzene

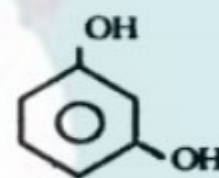
- 7) Some poly substituted benzenes are still known by their common name.



mesitylene



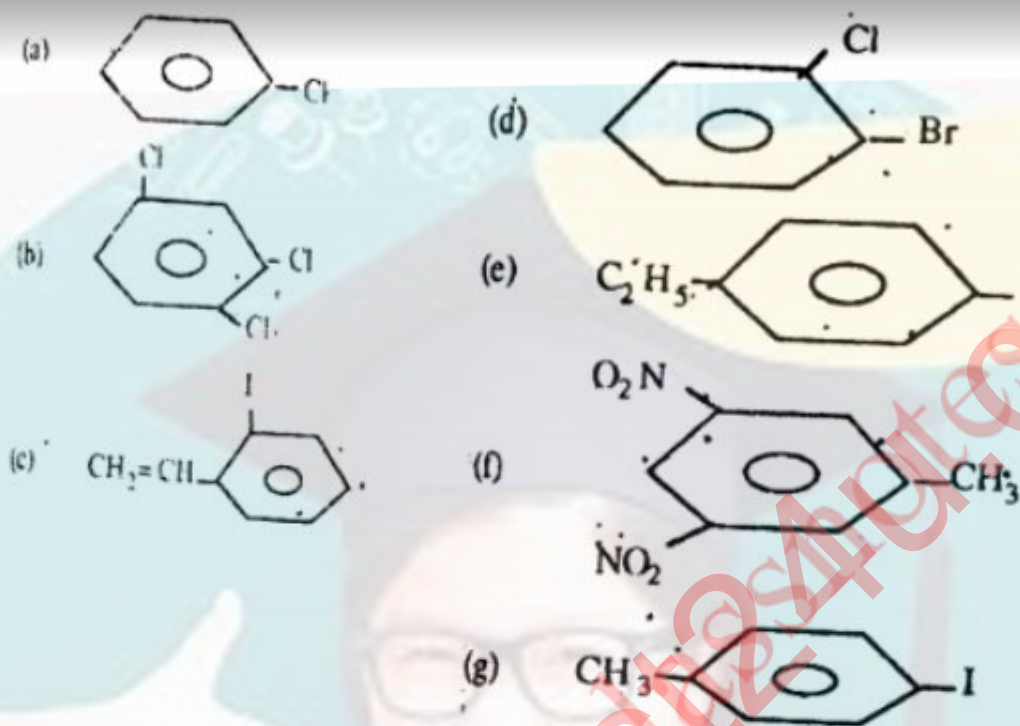
durene



Resorcinol

Activity:

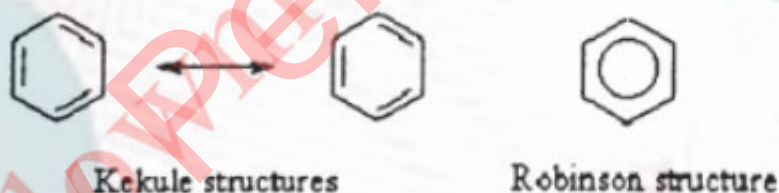
- 1- Give the suitable name to each of following:-



Physical Properties

In the absence of polar substituents, arenes are typical of hydrocarbons: low melting and boiling points, low solubility in polar solvents.

Structure (Molecular Orbital Aspects)



All 12 atoms in benzene, C_6H_6 , lie in the same plane.

Benzene has a planar, cyclic, conjugated structure.

If one draws benzene as alternating $C=C$ and $C-C$ then the two different Kekulé structures are obtained.

These are two equally valid resonance contributors.

Alternatively, these two forms can be combined in the resonance hybrid and the conjugated system represented by a circle as in the Robinson structure.

Note that all of the CC bonds are $1.4 \text{ \AA}$ (between typical $C=C$ and $C-C$ distances).

Which representation is best?

In benzene all the CC bonds are known to be of equal length (above) so there are no $C=C$ and $C-C$. This is best represented by the resonance hybrid in the Robinson form.

However, since the key to organic chemistry is being able to understand mechanisms and drawing curved arrows to account for the positions of the electrons, the Kekule structures give a more precise description of the electron positions that can avoid confusion. Therefore, it is a good idea to use a Kekule representation.

Q18. Write down molecular orbital structure of Benzene (Modern structures of Benzene).

Answer

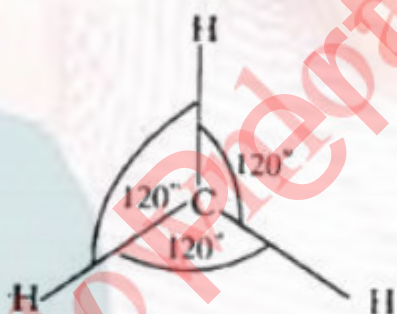
Kekule's structure failed to explain as to why

- 1) Benzene is less reactive
- 2) It shows dual character, i.e., it shows addition as well as substitute reaction.
- 3) It has less heat of formation, and
- 4) It has equal C-C bonds.

Spectroscopic studies and X-rays analysis have shown that benzene is a regular, flat planar hexagon. All six hydrogen atoms are co-planar with six carbon atoms. The bond angles are:

- 1) $\text{C}-\text{C}-\text{C}=120^\circ$, and (ii) $\text{C}-\text{C}-\text{H}=120^\circ$

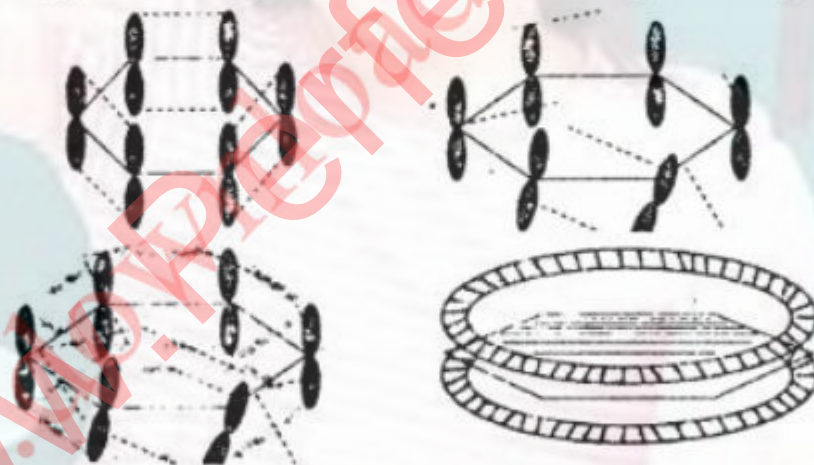
Thus each C-atom is in a state of sp^2 -hybridization because each C-atom is attached to three atoms.



Combination of such six structures and overlap of six hydrogen atoms (1s) produces the following sigma frame work of benzene.



Six atomic p-orbitals one on each c-atom, are present perpendicular to this sigma bonding. Each p-orbital is in a position to overlap in parallel manners with neighbouring p-orbitals to give a continuous sheath of negative charges as:



It results in extensive delocalized pi-bonding which spreads over all the carbon nuclei of benzene. Delocalization of p-orbitals over the entire ring produces a structure which is more stable than the structure of benzene and decreases the energy of molecule. Consequently, the molecule becomes more stable and less reactive.

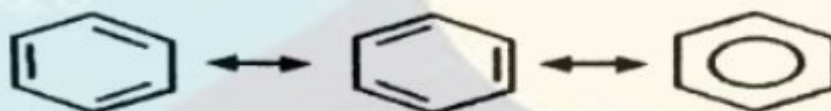
According to this molecular orbital picture each carbon-carbon bond in benzene consists of one full sigma-bond and half a pi-bond. Because of this reason, the carbon-carbon bond length is equal and benzene shows substitution as well as addition reactions.

MODERN REPRESENTATION OF BENZENE

With the help of molecular orbital behaviour we conclude that benzene has

A regular hexagonal structure with an inscribed circle.

A hexagon with alternate double and single bonds.



16.8.4. Resonance, Resonance Energy and Stabilization

I) Resonance:

"The possibility of different pairing schemes of valence electrons of atom is called resonance" and the different structures thus arranged are called "Resonance Structures".

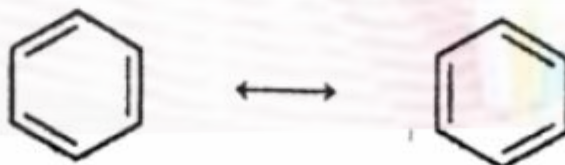
Explanation:

The resonance is represented by a double-headed arrow e.g. the following different pairing schemes of the fourth valence (the p-electrons) of carbon atoms are possible in benzene. This gives the following resonating structures of benzene:



(a), (b) were proposed by Kekule and c, d, e were proposed by Dewar. The stability of a molecule increases with increase in the number of its resonance structures. Thus molecule of benzene is chemically quite stable.

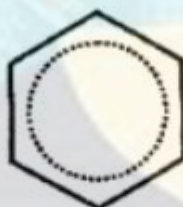
In fact the structure of benzene is a resonance hybrid of all five structures, (a), (b), (c), (d), and (e) in which the Kekule's structure (a) and (b) have the larger contribution and Dewar's structures contribute a little. Therefore, benzene molecule can be represented by either of the two Kekule's structure.



The three alternate single and double bonds in the above structure are called conjugate bonds of resonating bonds.

Since the structure of benzene is a resonance hybrid, therefore all the C-C bond lengths are equal but different from those in alkanes, alkenes and alkynes. It is intermediate

between those in alkanes and alkenes. The resonating single and double bonds in benzene can better be represented as follows.

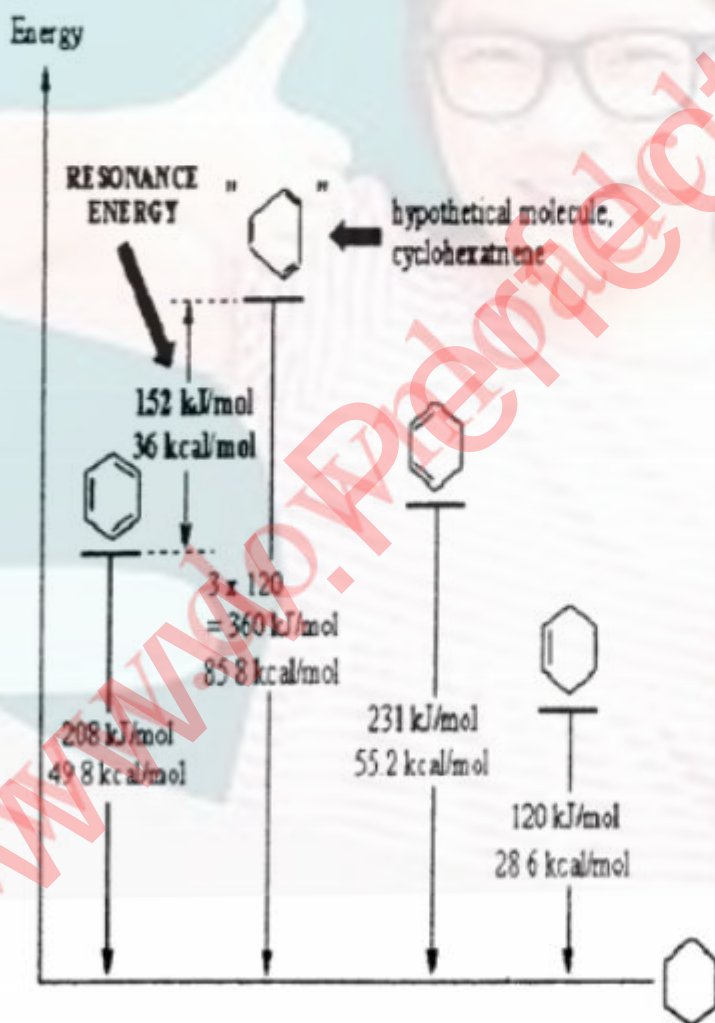


Benzene

Q19. What is resonance energy? Explain wrt Benzene.

Answer

The *resonance energy* of a compound is a measure of the extra stability of the conjugated system compared to the corresponding number of isolated double bonds. This can be calculated from experimental measurements.



The diagram shows the experimental heats of hydrogenation, ΔH_h , for three molecules, benzene, 1,3-cyclohexadiene and cyclohexene. These are related in that under appropriate conditions they can all be reduced to the same product, cyclohexane.

The ΔH_h for "cyclohexatriene", a hypothetical molecule in which the double bonds are assumed to be isolated from each other, is calculated to be 3 times the value for cyclohexene. This value reflects the energy we could expect to be released from 3 isolated $C=C$.

By comparing this value with the experimental value for benzene, we can conclude that benzene is 152 kJ or 36 kcal / mol *more stable* than the hypothetical system. This is the resonance energy for benzene.

Reactivity and Reactions



The image shows the electrostatic potential for benzene.

The more red an area is, the higher the electron density and the more blue an area is, the lower the electron density. Note the nucleophilic character of the aromatic π system.

The reactivity issues can be separated into two types of reactions:

- reactions of electrophiles directly on the aromatic ring, and
- reactions of the substituents (since the neighboring aromatic group influences its reactivity).

For reactions directly on the aromatic ring:

The cyclic array of π -bonds is a region of high electron density so arenes are typically nucleophiles (like alkenes and alkynes).

Unlike alkenes and alkynes (which undergo addition reactions), arenes typically undergo substitution reactions in which a group (usually $-H$) is replaced and the aromatic system is retained.

The stability of the aromatic system favours substitution over addition which would destroy the aromatic system.

ADDITION REACTIONS of Benzene

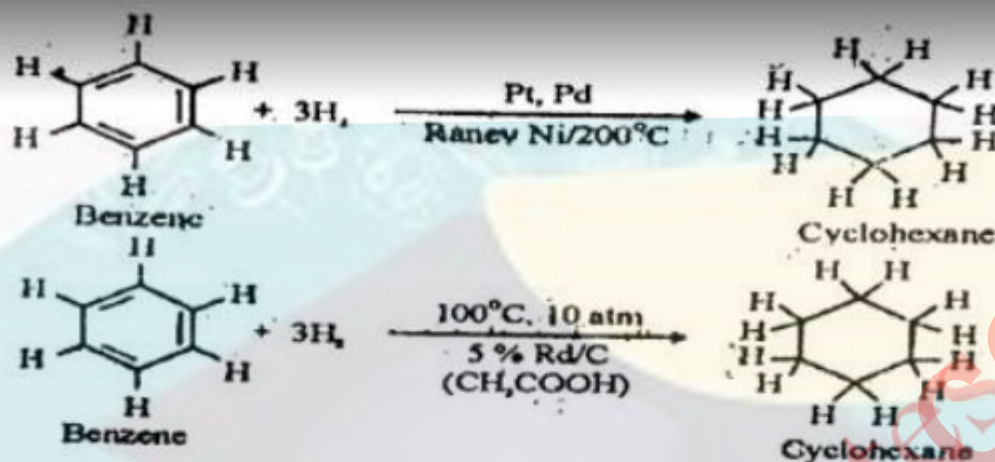
Benzene is highly unsaturated compound. It has three double bonds in it. But it does not undergo addition reaction happily. The reason is that it shows resonance. The delocalization of six π -electrons makes it extra stable.

So for addition reaction benzene requires more vigorous condition than that of alkenes and alkynes.

1) Catalytic Hydrogenation

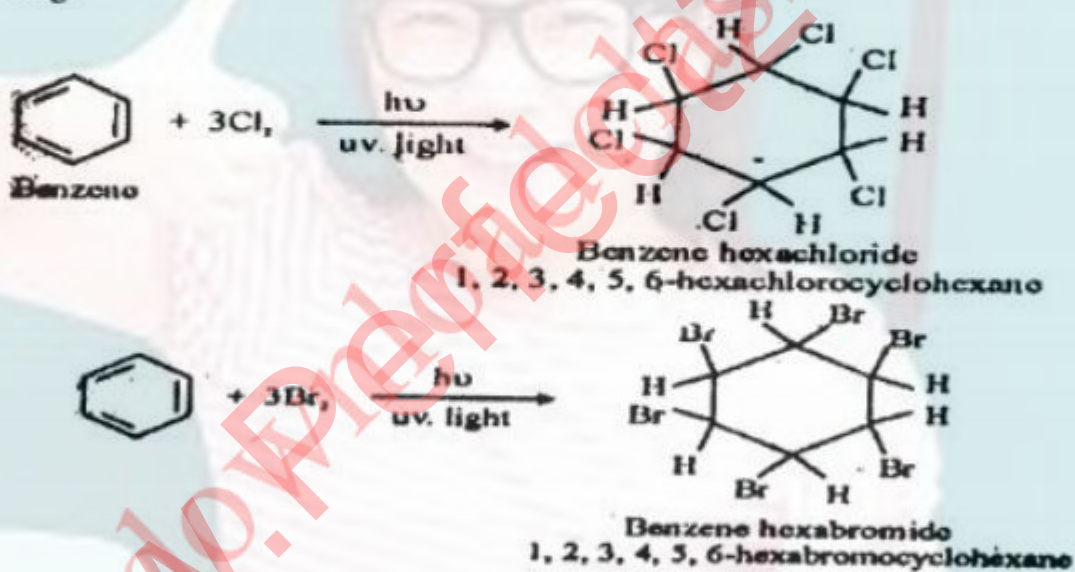
Benzene can be hydrogenated in the presence of a catalyst as Pt, Pd, or Raney Ni only at higher temperature and pressures.

If we use the metals like Ru, Rh, supported at carbon then hydrogenation becomes easier



2) Addition of Halogens

Benzene can add three molecules of chlorine or bromine under the influence of light. The benzene ring becomes saturated, and we get benzene hexachloride and benzenehexabromide. This reaction shows that benzene has three double bonds in the ring.



Reaction of F_2 and I_2 :

The reaction of F_2 with benzene is very vigorous, while with I_2 it is very slow.

Conclusion:

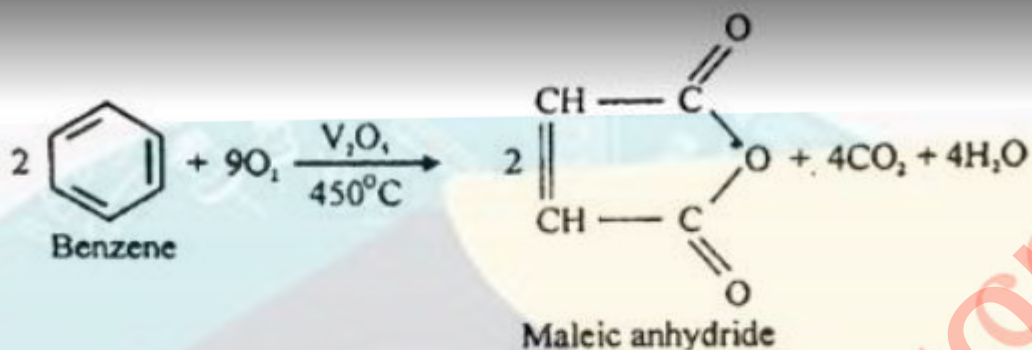
The addition reaction of hydrogen and chlorine show that benzene is unsaturated hydrocarbon and has three double bonds in it.

3) Oxidation Reactions

Benzene is stable towards general oxidizing agents. However, it can be oxidized under certain conditions:

i) Catalytic Oxidation

When benzene is oxidized with air in the presence of V_2O_5 at 450°C , then we get maleic anhydride



This is commercial method for the preparation of maleic anhydride. Benzene is not oxidized by KMnO_4 or $\text{K}_2\text{Cr}_2\text{O}_7$.

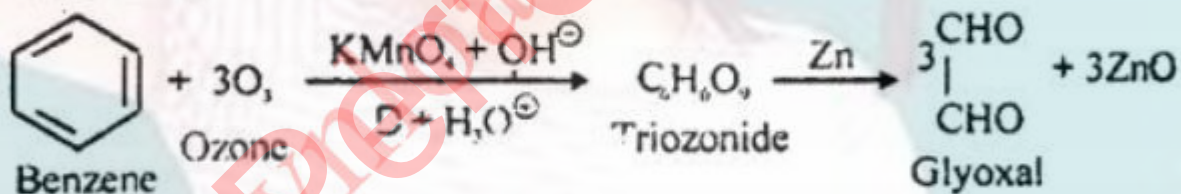
ii) **Combustion:**

When benzene is burnt in the presence of air or oxygen, CO_2 and H_2O are produced, just like other aliphatic hydrocarbons



iii) **Ozonolysis:**

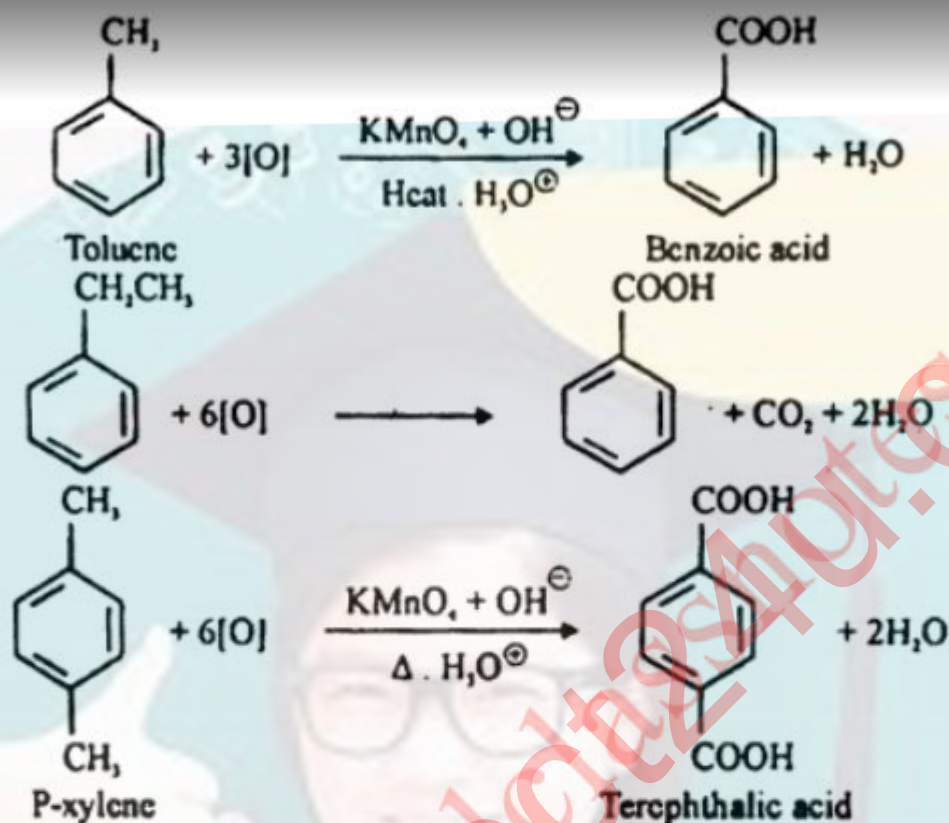
Benzene reacts with ozone and gives glyoxal. First of all triozonide is produced as an intermediate



iv) **Oxidation of side chain:**

Alkyl groups present in the benzene ring are oxidized into carboxylic groups. The oxidizing agents are:

- 1) $\text{KMnO}_4 + \text{H}_2\text{SO}_4$
- 2) $\text{K}_2\text{Cr}_2\text{O}_7 + \text{H}_2\text{SO}_4$
- 3) Dil. HNO_3



Conclusion:

When both methyl groups are oxidized and benzene ring remains unaffected, then it means that benzene ring is stable towards oxidizing agents.

Q20. Give electrophilic aromatic substitution reactions of benzene.

Answer

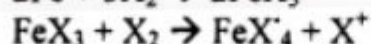
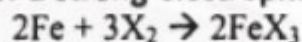
General Introduction

The pi-electrons of benzene are highly stabilized due to resonance. They are not readily available for the electrophilic attack like the electros of alkenes. They do not assist in the attack of weak electrophiles. Hence more powerful electrophiles are required for a successful attack to penetrate and break the continuous sheath of electron cloud in benzene.

Explanation and Example:

Substitution of halogen in benzene requires iron or corresponding ferric halide as catalyst. It reacts with halogen molecule to produce a powerful electrophile:

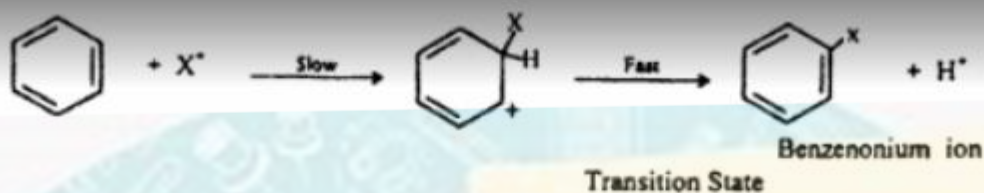
1) Formation of a strong electrophile (X^+)



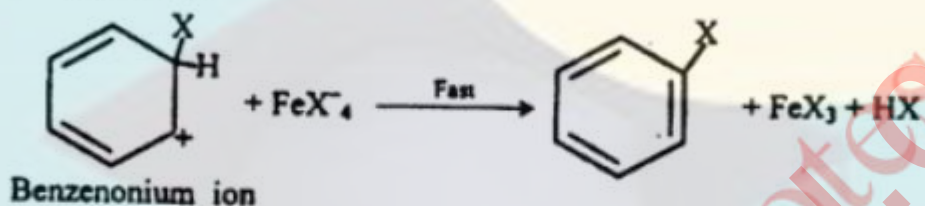
Tetra haloferrate ion (III) Halogenoium ion

2) Attack of electrophile at pi-bond:

The halogenation ion thus produced attacks as a powerful electrophile on the electrons of benzene ring.

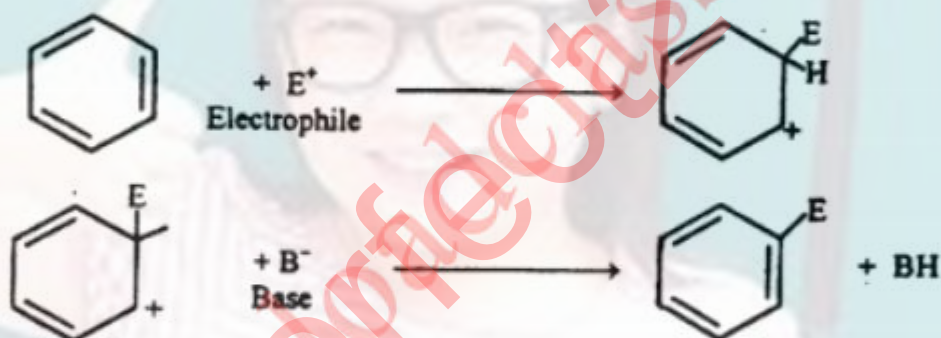


It had benzene unstable. The stability is retained by the removal of H-atom to give substitution product.

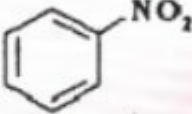
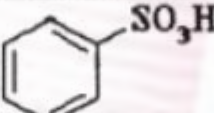
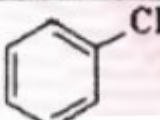
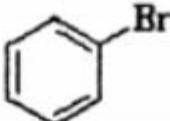


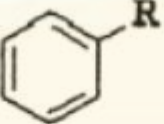
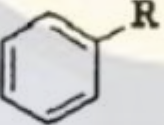
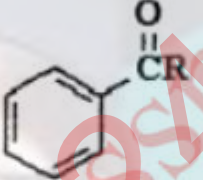
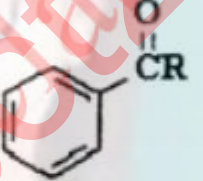
General Pattern of Substitution

The general pattern of the chemical reactivity of benzene towards electrophiles can be shown as follows.

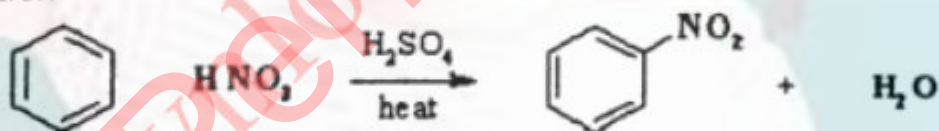


Substitution is preferred over addition in order to preserve the stable aromatic character

Reaction	Reagents	Electrophile	Product	Comments
<u>Nitration</u>	HNO ₃ / H ₂ SO ₄	NO ₂ ⁺		E ⁺ formed by loss of water from nitric acid
<u>Sulfonation</u>	H ₂ SO ₄ or SO ₃ / H ₂ SO ₄	SO ₃		Reversible
<u>Halogenation</u>	Cl ₂ / Fe or FeCl ₃	Cl ⁺		E ⁺ formed by Lewis acid removing Cl ⁻
	Br ₂ / Fe or FeBr ₃	Br ⁺		E ⁺ formed by Lewis acid removing Br ⁻

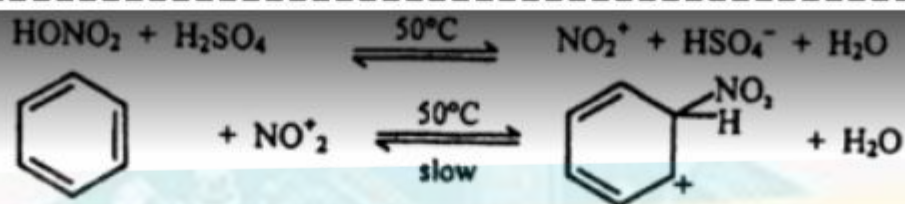
<u>Alkylation</u>	R-Cl / AlCl ₃	R ⁺		E ⁺ formed by Lewis acid removing Cl ⁻
	R-OH / H ⁺	R ⁺		E ⁺ formed by loss of water from alcohol
	C=C / H ⁺	R ⁺		E ⁺ formed by protonation of alkene
<u>Acylation</u>	RCOCl / AlCl ₃	RCO ⁺		E ⁺ formed by Lewis acid removing Cl ⁻
	RCO ₂ COR / AlCl ₃	RCO ⁺		E ⁺ formed by Lewis acid removing RCO ₂ ⁻

Nitration

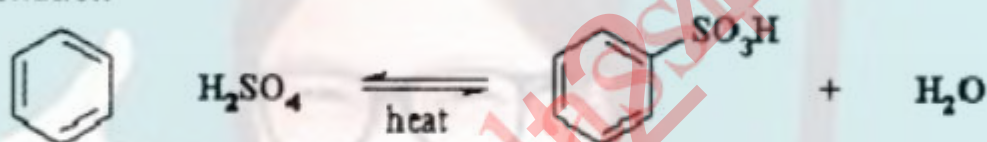


Mechanism

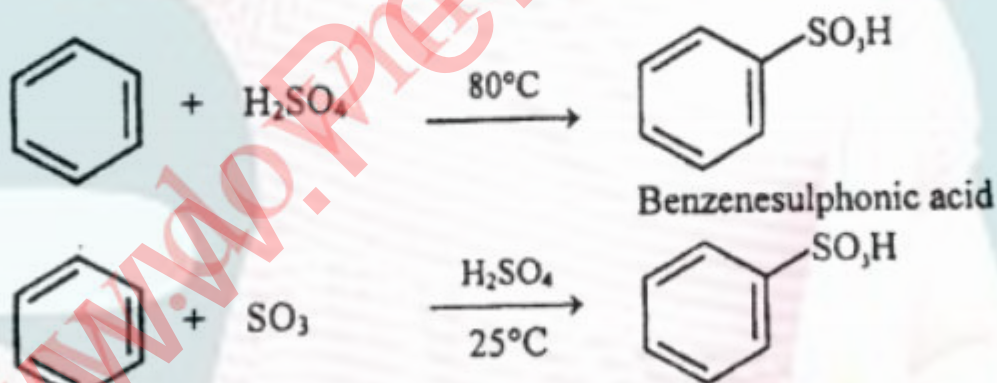
Sulphuric acid reacts with nitric acid to generate nitronium ion.



3) Sulfonation

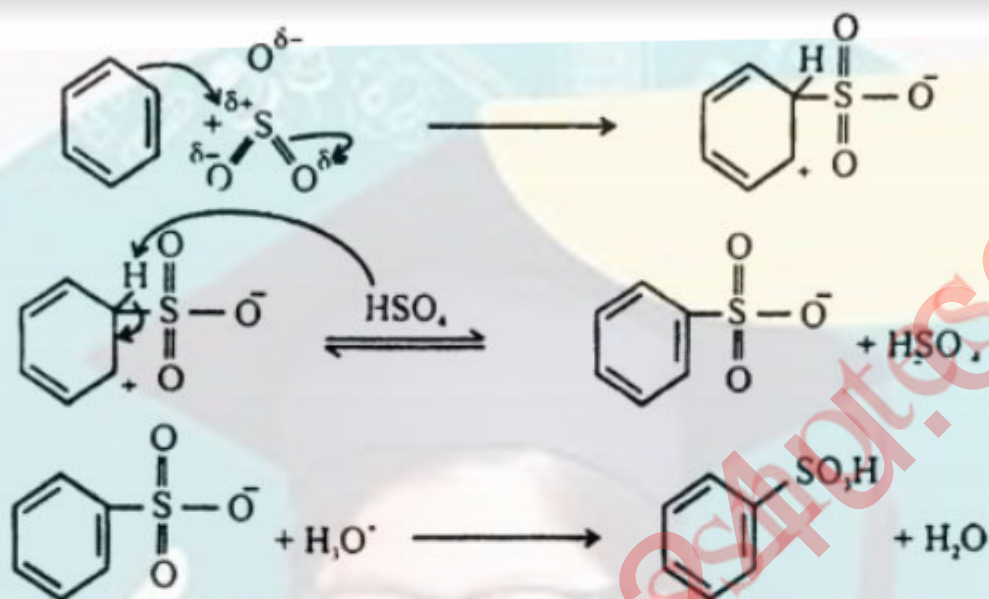


The introduction of sulphonic acid group in benzene ring is called Sulphonation. When benzene is heated with fuming H_2SO_4 or concentrated H_2SO_4 it yields benzene sulphonic acid. Fuming H_2SO_4 has free sulphur trioxide which is electron deficient (electrophile) and causes substitution.

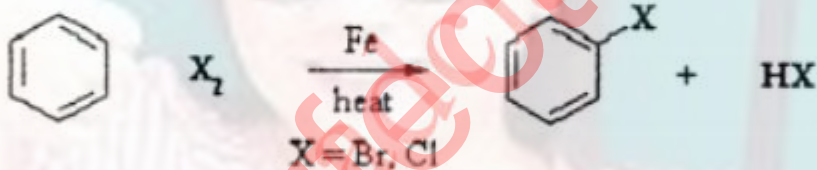


Mechanism:

When sulphuric acid alone is used, the actual electrophile in this reaction is SO_3



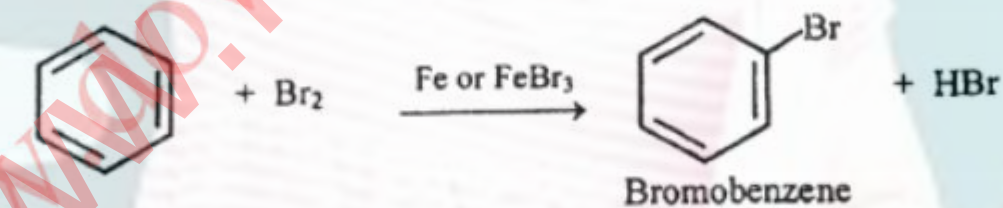
4) Halogenation



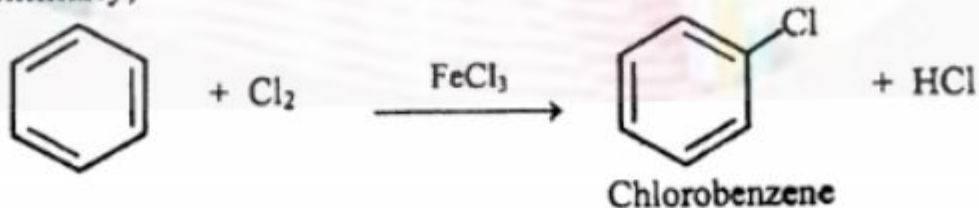
The introduction of halogen in benzene ring is called halogenation.

Explanation and Example:

Halogenation of benzene occurs with halogens (X) in the presence of a catalyst FeX_3 or Fe. Chlorination and bromination are normal reaction but fluorination is too vigorous to control. Iodination gives poor yield.



Similarly,

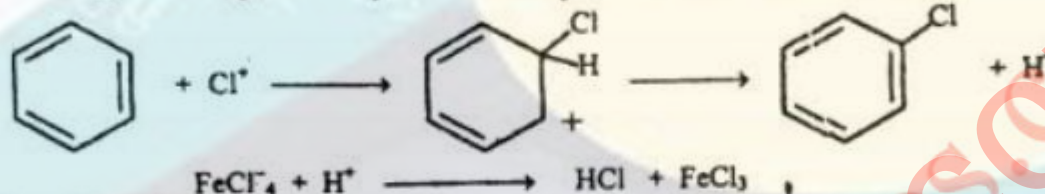


Mechanism:

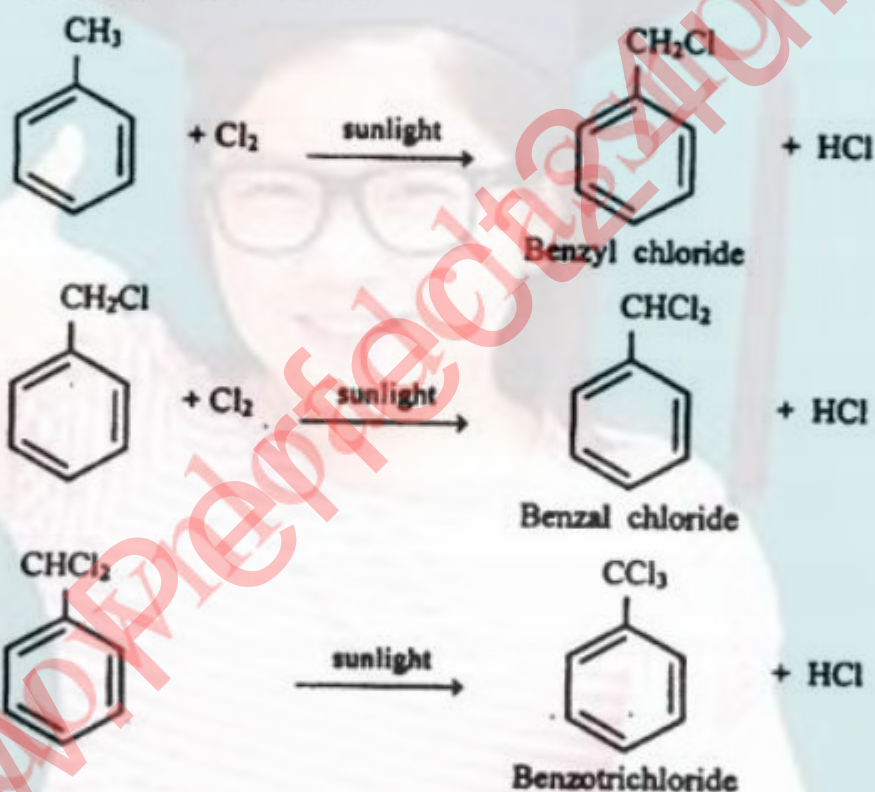
The actual halogenation agent is X^+ that is formed by the following mechanism



Cl^+ being a strong electrophile is ready for successful attack on benzene.

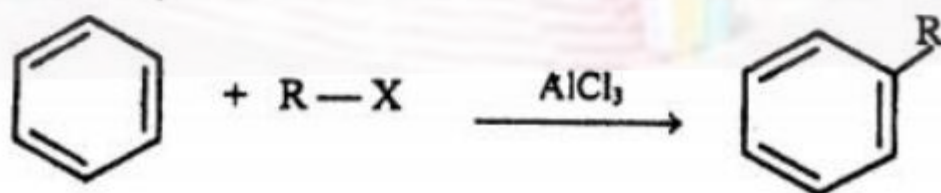


When alkyl benzenes are treated with chlorine or bromination the presence of sunlight, only the alkyl groups are substituted.

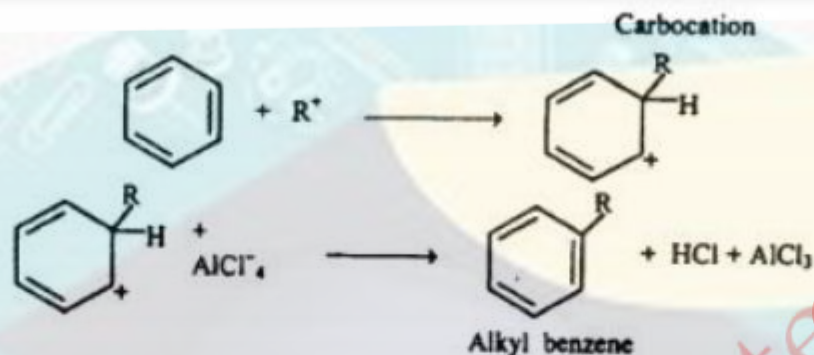


5) Friedel-Crafts Alkylation

The introduction of an alkyl group in the benzene ring in the presence of an alkyl halide and a catalyst $AlCl_3$ is called Friedel Crafts alkylation or Alkylation.



Mechanism:

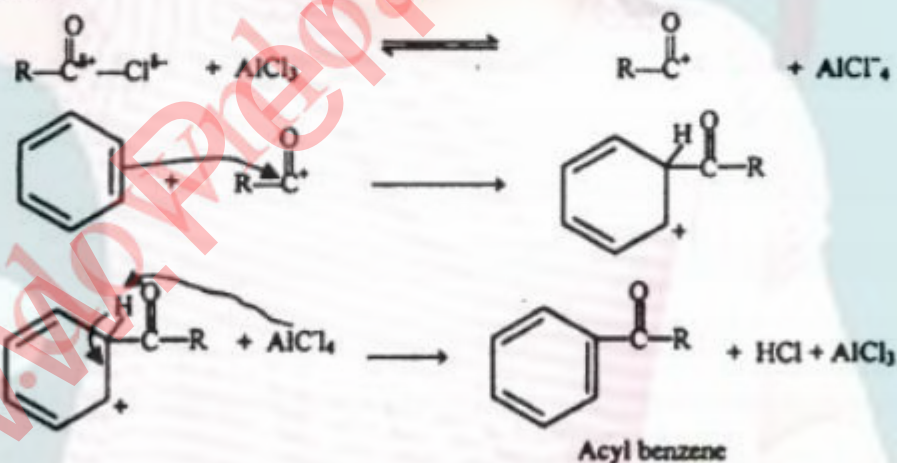


Specific Examples:

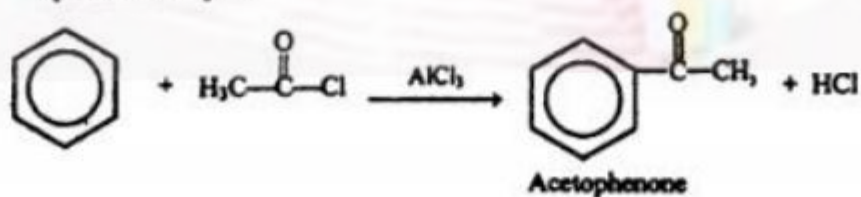


6) Friedel-Crafts Acylation

The introduction of an acyl group $R-C(=O)-$ in the benzene ring in the presence of an acyl halide and a catalyst $AlCl_3$ is called Friedel Crafts Acylation or Acylation.

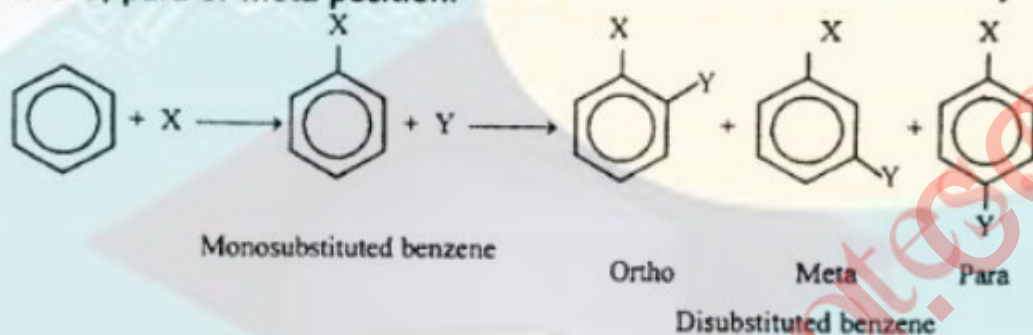


Specific Example:

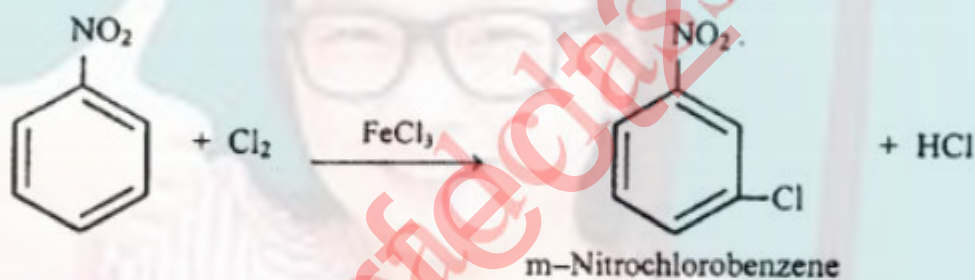


7) Substituent Effects - (Table of Substituent Effects) and Making Poly-substituted Benzenes

When an electrophilic substitution reaction takes place on benzene ring, we get only one monosubstituted benzene because all the six positions in the ring are equivalent. However, the position of a second group into the ring depends on the nature of the first group. The second substituted any enter in ortho, para or meta position.



On chance basis 40% ortho, 40% meta and 20% para disubstituted products are expected. However, the results do not agree with chance substitution ratio, e.g. m-nitrochlorobenzene is the main product of the following halogenation reaction.



On the other hand, a mixture of o-nitrochloro-benzene and p-nitrochloro-benzene is obtained from the nitration of chlorobenzene.



It means that the groups already present in the benzene ring directs the second entrant and thus determines the position, which may be taken up by it. There are two types of groups:

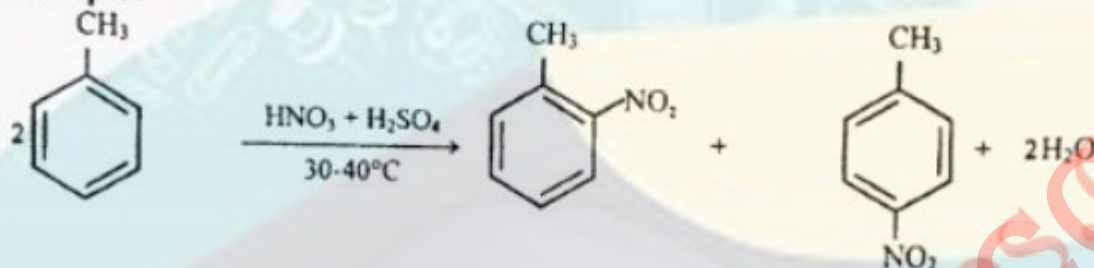
- a) Ortho- and para- directing groups
- b) Meta- directing groups

1) Ortho and para directing groups

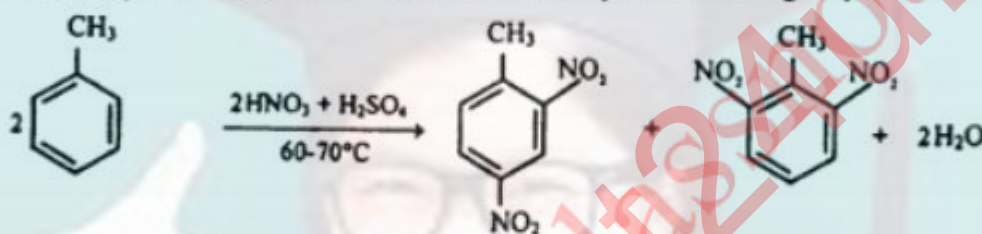
These groups release electrons towards the benzene ring, at ortho and para positions.

Because these position are richer in electron for attack of an electrophile. The second group is substituted at ortho and para positions. They also enhance the reactivity of benzene ring.

Example:



The electron releasing effect of methyl groups is significant and it makes the ring a good nucleophile. Due to this increased reactivity, more nitro groups can enter the ring.

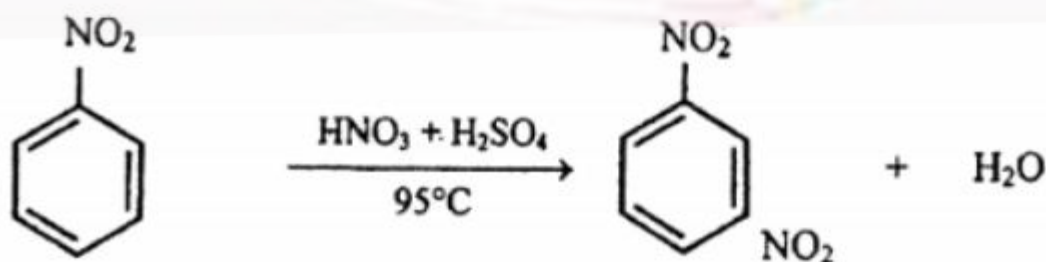


Other examples of ortho and para directing groups are:-

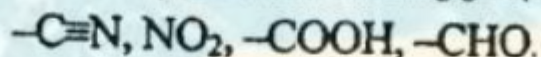
-N(CH₃)₂, -NH₂, -OH, -OCH₃, -Cl, -Br, -I

2) Meta-Directing Groups

These groups withdraw the electrons of the benzene ring from ortho and para positions. Due to the electro withdrawing effect of such substituents, the ortho and para position are more electrons deficient than the meta position. Thus the incoming electrophile will prefer to attack on meta position rather than ortho and para positions. These groups are called meta-directing groups. These groups decrease the chemical reactivity of benzene.



The substitution of third nitro groups is not possible because nitro group has deactivated the ring, other examples of meta directing groups are



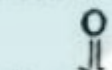
Rule:

If the electronegativity of the atom of the group attached to the benzene ring is greater than any atom of the group, the whole group will act as electron repelling, will increase the reactivity of benzene all direct the new entrant to ortho, para positions. On the other hand

If the electronegativity of such atom is less, it will be under constraint and it turn withdraw electron form the ring making it less reactive and directing the new entrant to meta position

e.g. (i) $-\text{NH}_2$ Nitrogen with greater electronegativity from hydrogen.

ii) $-\text{Cl}$ has no other atom hence will have no danger of pulling electrons. Thus it is electron repelling and O, P directing group. Hence O, P, directing



i) Nitrogen with less E.N from O. Hence meta directing.

ii) In $-\text{SO}_3\text{H}$ E.N of oxygen is greater then that of S. hence oxygen disturbs sulphur, which in turn withdraws electrons from benzene ring hence m-directing.

Making Polysubstituted Benzenes

Since the position of electrophilic attack on a substituted benzene ring is controlled by the substituent already present rather than the approaching electrophile, the order of events in the synthesis of polysubstituted benzenes need careful planning to ensure success.

The two factors that need to be monitored are:

- 1) regiochemistry
- 2) reactivity (for example Friedel-Crafts reactions are limited to halobenzenes and activated benzenes)

Uses of Hydrocarbons

- 1) Butane is used as a fuel in lighter.
- 2) Butane is also used in same camping stoves
- 3) Crude petroleum is lighter than water.
- 4) Coal is used for the manufacturing of synthetic petrol
- 5) Ethylene is the hormone that causes tomatoes and apples to ripen
- 6) Oxyacetylene torch is used for cutting of metals
- 7) Methane is used to manufacture urea fertilizer
- 8) Kekule was the scientist who draw the structure of benzene

EXERCISE

Q1: Select the right answer from the choices given with each question.

- 1) The major portion of natural gas is:
a) Ethane b) Propane c) Butane d) Methane
- 2) In organic compounds carbon atoms form;
a) Ionic bond b) Metallic bond c) Covalent bond d) None of these
- 3) Which of the following is an aromatic compound:
a) Propanol b) Cyclohexane c) Acetone d) Benzene
- 4) There are few homologous series of compounds. The existence of homologous series is due to;
a) Functional group b) Cracking
c) Isomerism d) Polymerization
- 5) Which of the following compound is heterocyclic?
a) Pyridine b) Pyrrole c) Thiophene d) All of the above
- 6) Select from the following the one, which is alcohol;
a) $\text{CH}_3 - \text{CH}_2 - \text{OH}$ b) $\text{CH}_3 - \text{O} - \text{CH}_3$
c) $\text{CH}_3 \text{COOH}$ d) $\text{CH}_3 - \text{CH}_2 - \text{Br}$
- 7) Lassaignes' solution is prepared in the detection of elements of organic compound. Which metal is used for the reaction with organic compound?
a) Aluminium b) Sodium c) Iron d) Copper
- 8) When AgNO_3 is added to the Lassaignes' solution which colour is formed for Iodine:
a) Blue b) Violet c) Green d) Deep yellow
- 9) When water vapours are passed over white anhydrous copper sulphate, which colour is formed?
a) White b) Deep blue c) Yellow d) Brown
- 10) The Simplest molecule of Bucky Ball contain carbon atoms;
a) 20 b) 8 c) 60 d) 100
- 11) If a molecule contains more than one functional group it is known as:
a) Derivative b) Poly functional
c) Heterocyclic d) Isomer

Answers

1)	a	2)	c	3)	d	4)	a	5)	d
6)	a	7)	b	8)	d	9)	b	10)	c
11)	b								

Q2: Give brief answers for the following questions.

Q1: What is functional group?

Answer

Please see Answer of Q17 of Chapter Notes.

Q2: What is the Difference between partial and total synthesis of organic compounds?

Answer

Total Synthesis

In an organic chemistry a total synthesis is in principle, the complete chemical synthesis of complex organic molecules from simpler pieces, usually without the aid of biological processes. In practice these simpler pieces are commercially available in bulk and semi – bulk quantities and are often petrochemicals precursors.

Sometimes bulk natural products (e.g sugar) are used as starting materials and it assumed that these have been or can be synthesised from constituent elements. The target molecules can be natural products, medicinally important active ingredients or organic compounds of the interest in chemistry or biology. A new route for synthesis is developed in the course of the investigation, and the route may be the first one to developed for the substance.

Examples:

Cholesterol, cortisone, strychnine, lysergic acid, chlorophyll, vitamin B and quinine etc.

Partial Synthesis

Partial synthesis is a type of chemical synthesis that uses compounds isolated from natural sources (e.g plant material or bacterial or cell cultures) as a starting material. These natural biomolecules are usually large and complex molecules.

This is opposed to a total synthesis where large molecules are synthesised from a stepwise combination of small and cheap (Usually petrochemicals) building blocks.

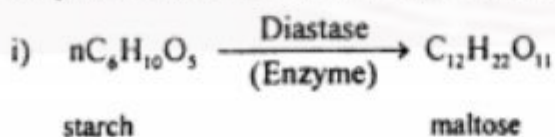
Partial synthesis is usually used when precursor molecule is too structurally complex. For Example artemether.

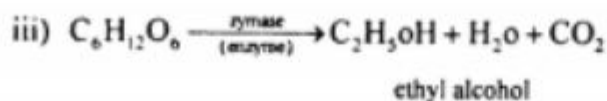
Q3: How organic compounds are derived by fermentation process?

Answer

In fermentation process some enzymes are used to decompose naturally occurring substances into some other useful substances.

For example to get ethyl alcohol there are added diastase, invertase and zymase enzymes in starch. Reactions involving process of fermentation of starch are as follows





Q4: What is coal? How is coal used as a source of organic compound?

Answer

Please see Answer of Q9 of Chapter Notes.

Q5: What is the name of new allotropic form of carbon? Give its definition?

Answer

Please see Answer of Q14 of Chapter Notes.

Q6: What is Homologous series?

Answer

Please see Answer of Q15 of Chapter Notes.

Q7: How metals can be detected in organic compounds?

Answer

The substance in a crucible preferably of platinum, till all reaction ceases. An incombustible residue indicated the presence of a metal in a substance. The residue is extracted with dilute acid and the solution is test for the presence of metallic radical by the usual scheme employed for inorganic salts.

Q3. Give detailed Answers for the following questions.

Q1. What are the main sources of organic compounds? Also give the fractions of petroleum.

Answer

Please see Answer of Q1 and Q2 of Chapter Notes.

Q2: Write down the characteristics of organic compounds from inorganic compounds.

Answer

Please see Answer of Q10 of Chapter Notes.

Q3: How organic compounds are used in our daily life?

Answer

Food, vitamins, clothes etc are all organic compounds.

Q4: Write down any ten functional groups of organic compounds? Give reasons for the importance of organic chemistry.

Answer

Please see Answer of Q17 of Chapter Notes.

Q5: Give the chemical tests for the detection of elements in organic compounds?

Answer

Please see Answer of Q20 of Chapter Notes.

=====

Short Questions & Answers

Q1: What are organic compounds? Give there examples.

Answer

The compounds in which basic skeleton is made up of carbon atom and their is C – C chain are called organic: Compounds.

For example, ethyl alcohol, glucose, sugar starch.

Q2: What is difference between saturated and unsaturated hydrocarbons?

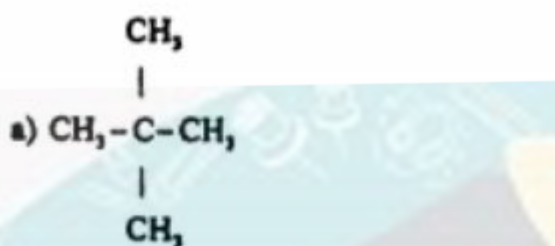
Answer

Saturated Hydrocarbons	Unsaturated Hydrocarbons
These are the hydrocarbons in which carbon atoms are attach with each other trthrough single bonds. Each carbon atom is Sp^3 hybridized. Alkanes have straight or branched chain. For Example: Pentane (n – chain) $CH_3 - CH_2 - CH_2 - CH_2 - CH_3$ Pentane (iso – chain) $CH_2_3 - CH - CH_2 - CH_3$ CH_3	These are the hydrocarbons in which at least two carbon atoms are attached through double or triple bonds, and sp^2 or sp hybridized. For example alkenes and alkynes. i) Alkenes or Olefins: These are the unsaturated hydrocarbons in which at least two carbon atoms are sp^2 hybridized, which cause to form a double bond between these carbon atoms. E.g. $CH_2 = CH_2$ ethane ii) Alkynes These are unsaturated hydrocarbons in which at least two carbon atoms are sp -hybridized which

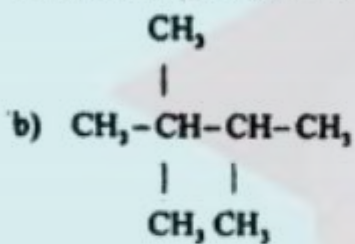
Q3: Indicate what is wring with each of the following names. Give the correct IUPAC names if possible.

- 2 – Dimethyl Propane
- 2,2,3 – Methyl Butane
- 3, 3 – Dimethyl –5,5 – Dimethyl Heplane
- 2, 3 – Di ethyl –4, 4-Dimethyl Pentane
- 2, 4 – Diethyl Pentane
- 3 – Etnyl – 4- Methyl Pentane

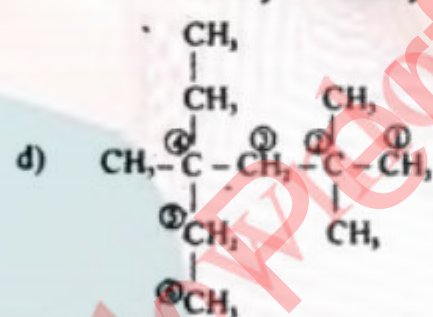
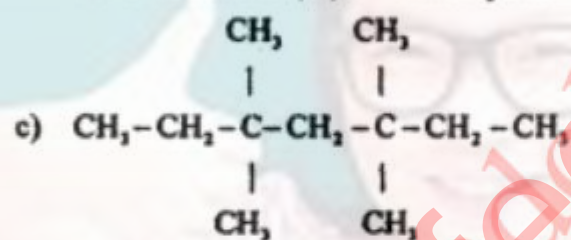
Answer



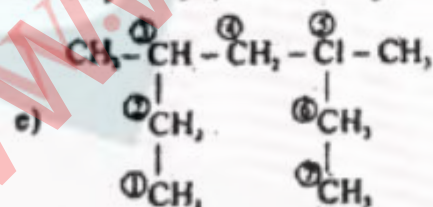
Correct Name is 2, 2 - dim ethyl propane



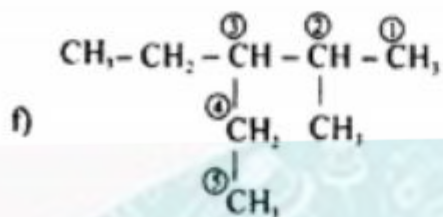
Correct name is 2, 2, 3 - trimethylbutane



Correct Name is
4 - ethyl - 2, 2, 4 - trimethyl hexane



Correct name is
3, 5 - dimethyl heptanes



Correct name is,

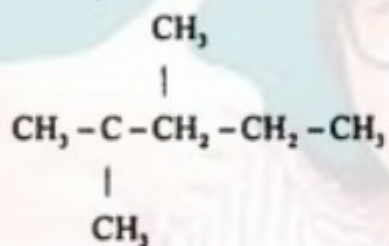
3 - ethyl - 2 - methyl pentane

Q4: Write the structures of the following compounds.

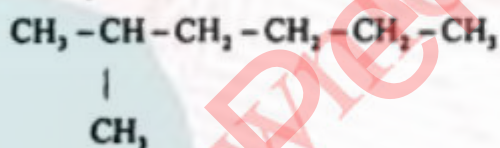
- Neo heptane
- Iso heptane
- Trimethyl Ethyl Methane
- Dimethyl Ethyl Isopropyl Methane
- Dimethyl Propyl Ethyl Methane
- 3 - Ethyl Hexane

Answer

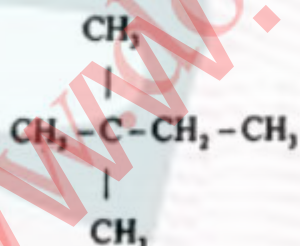
- a) Neo heptanes



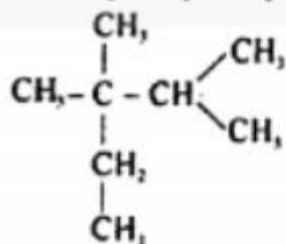
- b) Iso heptane



- c) Trimethyl methane



- d) Dimethyl ethyl iso-propyl methane



e) Dimethyl prophy ethyl methane

ANSWERS OF QUICK QUIZ (Q5: TO Q9)

Q5: What are polar, non-polar and weekly polar compounds?

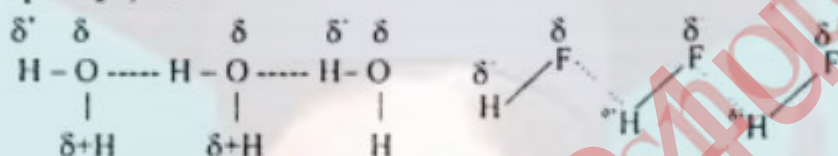
Answer

a) Polar Compounds

The molecules having high partial positive charge and partial negative charge at different parts of a molecule are called strongly polar or polar compounds.

Such molecules have high boiling. Point due to strong intermolecular forces of attractions.

For example H_2O , HF



b) Non-Polar Compounds

The compounds in which arrangement of atoms in such a way that they cancel the effect of each other and no charges are created at different parts of molecule.

As a result molecule remains neutral. Such molecules have vander walls force among there molecules and have low boiling points.

For example:

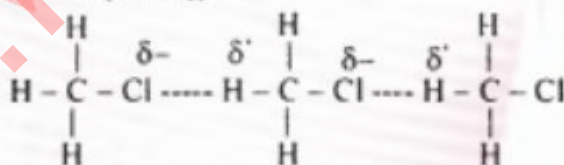
Carbontetrachloride (CCl_4),

Carbondisulphide (CS_2)

c) Weekly Polar Compounds

There are some molecules in which there are low charges at different parts of molecule. Such molecules are volatile and have low boiling points.

For example: Chloroform (CHCl_3)



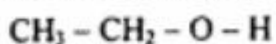
Q6: What are isomers?

Answer

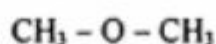
Compounds having same molecular formulas but different structural formulas are called isomers.

For example

$\text{C}_2\text{H}_6\text{O}$ has following isomers



Ethyl alcohol



Dimethyl ether

Q7: What are inert compounds?

Answer

There are some compounds which don't react easily such compounds are often called inert compounds.

These compounds are often non-polar in nature.

For Example: Carbon tetrachloride (CCl_4),

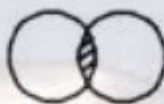
Benzene (C_6H_6)

Q8: What is sigma bond?

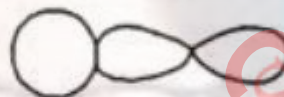
Answer

Any first bond formed between two atoms is a sigma bond it is formed by the overlap of following orbitals:

$s + s$



$s + p$



$p + p$

(head to head overlap)



A sigma bond is of very low energy and least reactive.

Q9: What are intramolecular and intermolecular forces?

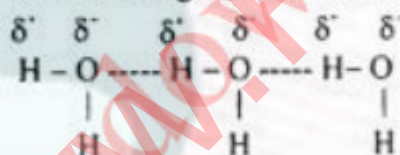
Answer

Intermolecular Forces

The forces of attractions among the different molecules of a compound are called intermolecular forces. Liquids having strong intermolecular forces have high boiling points.

For Example:

Forces among H_2O molecules



Intramolecular Forces

The forces of attractions among the atoms of a molecule are called intramolecular forces.

Molecules having intramolecular forces often have low boiling points.

For example: Ortho-nitrophenol

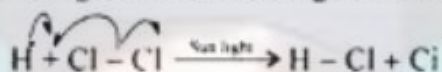


Q10: What are Radical Substitution Reactions?

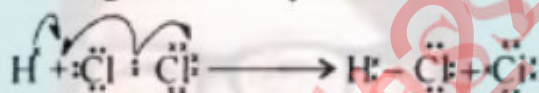
Answer

The reactions in which one radical displace an atom with one electron from a molecule are called radical substitution reactions.

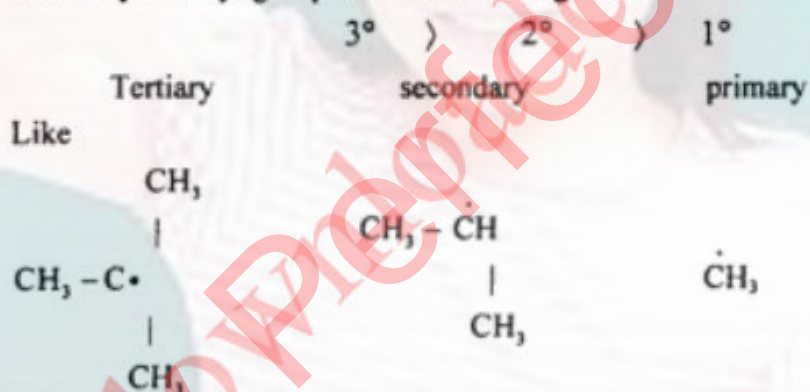
Such reactions are shown using half arrow or single head curly arrow:



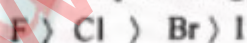
Such reactions with bonding electrons may also be shown as follows:



Such reactions take place in the presence of heat or sunlight. In case of alkyl halides the reactivity of alkyl group is in the following order.



In case of reactivity of halogens the reactivity order is as follows:



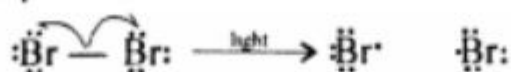
Q11: Give the radical chain mechanism for reaction of methane and Br₂.

Answer

This reaction involves three steps.

Step 1 (Initiation)

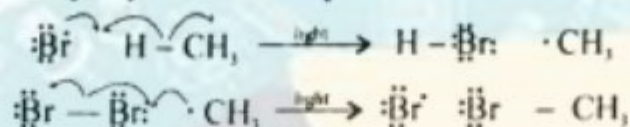
Heat or UV light causes Br₂ to undergo homolytic cleavage to generate two bromine radicals and start the chain process



Step 2 (Propagation)

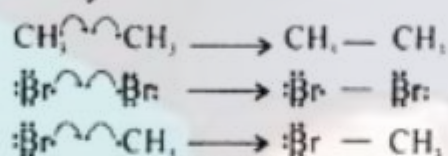
(a) A bromine radical abstracts a hydrogen to form HBr and a methyl radical, then (b)

the methyl radical abstracts a bromine atom from another molecule of Br₂ to form the methyl bromide product and another bromine radical, which can then itself undergo reaction 2 (b) creating a cycle that can repeat.



Step 3 (Termination)

Various reactions between the possible pairs of radicals allow for the formation of ethane, Br₂ or the product, methyl bromide. These reactions remove radicals and do not perpetuate the cycle.



Q12: What is difference between oxidation and reduction in organic compounds?

Answer

Oxidation		Reduction	
i.	More C – O bonds (or other atoms are more electronegative than C)	i.	Less C – O bonds (or the atoms are more electronegative than C)
ii.	Less C – H bonds.	ii.	More C – H bonds.
iii.	Loss of electrons.	iii.	Gain of electrons.
iv.	Increased oxidation state, like +1 to +4.	vi.	Decreased oxidation state, like +1 to -1.
e.g. $\text{CO} + \frac{1}{2} \text{O}_2 \rightarrow \text{CO}_2$		e.g. $\text{CH}_2 = \text{CH}_2 + \text{H}_2 \rightarrow \text{CH}_3 - \text{CH}_3$	

SOLUTION OF ACTIVITY (Q13: TO Q15)

Q13: Name the following olefins by the IUPAC system.

Answer

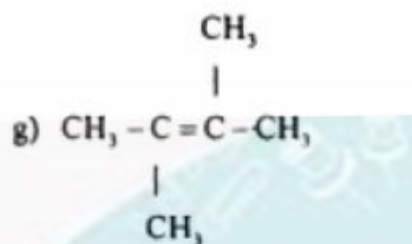
a) $\text{CH}_2 = \text{CH}_2$ Ethene

b) $\text{CH}_3 - \text{CH} = \text{CH}_2$ Propene

c) $\text{CH}_3 - \text{CH}_2 - \text{CH} = \text{CH} - \text{CH}_2 - \text{CH}_3$ 3 – hexene

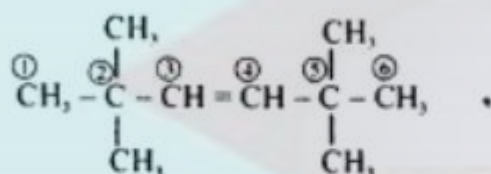
d) $\begin{array}{c} \text{CH}_3 \\ | \\ \text{CH}_3 - \text{C} = \text{CH}_2 \end{array}$ 2 – methyl propene

e) $\overset{\textcircled{1}}{\text{CH}_2} = \overset{\textcircled{2}}{\text{CH}} - \overset{\textcircled{3}}{\text{CH}} = \overset{\textcircled{4}}{\text{CH}} - \overset{\textcircled{5}}{\text{CH}_2}$
1, 2, 3, – hexatriene



2, 3, dimethyl - 2 - butene

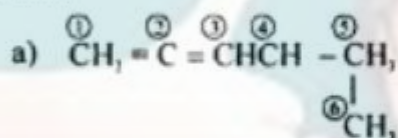
h)



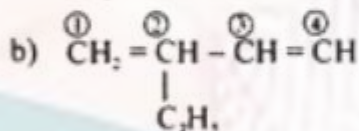
2,2,5,5 - tetramethyl - 3 hexene

Q14: Name the compounds by IUPAC system.

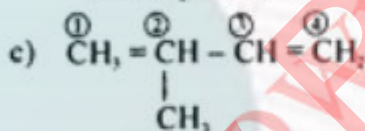
Answer



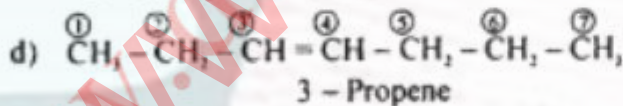
1, 2 - hexadiene



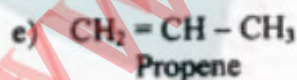
2 - ethyl - 1, 3 - butadiene



3 - methyl - 1 - butene



3 - Propene



Propene

Q15: Write structural formulas for the following compounds and discuss the geometric isomerism in each case.

a) 1,3 - Buta diene

b) 1, 2 - penta diene

c) 2, 4 - Hexa diene

d) 2 - Methyl -1, 3 -Butadiene

e) 3 - Methyl -1, 3 - Pentadiene.

Answer

- a) $\text{CH}_2 = \text{CH} - \text{CH} = \text{CH}_2$
 b) $\text{CH}_2 = \text{C} = \text{CH} - \text{CH}_2 - \text{CH}_3$
 c) $\text{CH}_3 - \text{CH} = \text{CH} - \text{CH} = \text{CH} - \text{CH}_3$
 $\text{H}_2\text{C} = \text{C} - \text{CH} = \text{CH}_2$
 d) $\begin{array}{c} | \\ \text{CH}_3 \\ \text{CH}_2 = \text{CH} - \text{C} = \text{CH} - \text{CH}_3 \end{array}$
 e) $\begin{array}{c} | \\ \text{CH}_3 \end{array}$

Q16: Give preparation of alkanes from:

- a) Primar alcohol b) Secondary alcohol c) Tertiary alcohol

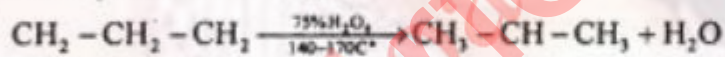
Also give the order of dehydration.

Answer

Alcoholas are dehyolrated in following order tertiary alcohol > secondary alcohol > primary alcohol

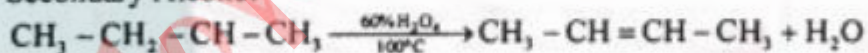
Examples:

- a) Primary Alcohol:



Primary Alcohol

- b) Secondary Alcohol



Secondary Alcohol



- c) $\text{CH}_3 - \text{C} - \text{OH} \xrightarrow[85^\circ\text{C}]{20\% \text{H}_2\text{O}_4} \text{CH}_3 - \text{C} = \text{CH}_2 + \text{H}_2\text{O}$



Tertiary alcohol

Q17:What is Raney Nickle give its role in hydrogenation of alkanes.

Answer

$$\text{Ni} = \text{Al} + \text{Na}(\text{OH} + \text{H}_2\text{O}) \rightarrow \text{Ni} + \text{Ni}_2\text{AlO}_5 + \text{H}_2$$


For Example:

$$\text{H}_2\text{C}=\text{CH}-\text{CH}=\text{CH}-\text{CH}=\text{CH}_2 \quad \text{No.} \quad \text{H}_2\text{C}=\text{CH}-\text{CH}=\text{CH}-\text{CH}=\text{CH}-\text{CH}=\text{CH}_2$$


Answer

Pt as catalyst:

i). pt is used as platinum oxide (Pt-O_2)

- $$\text{CH}_3 - \text{CH} = \text{CH} - \text{H} \quad \text{and} \quad \text{CH}_3 - \text{CH} = \text{CH} - \text{H}$$

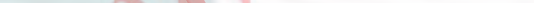


i) Pd is used as Pd dust adsorbed on charcoal and pieces of such charcoal are used as

- ii) and also functions at room temperature for example

Answer

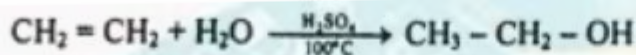
According to this rule, "in the addition of an unsymmetrical reagent to an



Answer

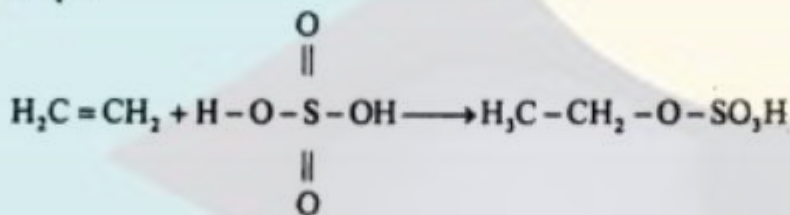
Addition of water to an alkene is called hydration of alkenes.

For example

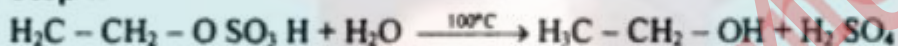


Mechanism

Step I:



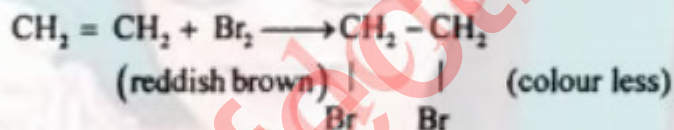
Step II



Q21: Give Bromination of ethane with mechanism. (A test to check alkenes).

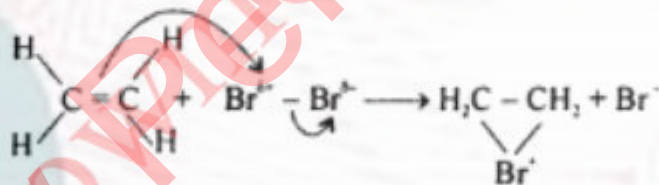
Answer

Alkenes decolourize a reddish colour of bromine water as per reaction.

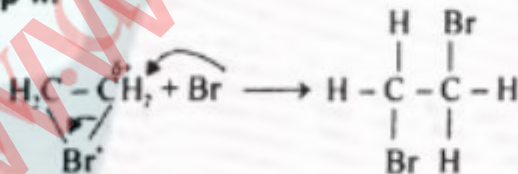


Mechanism of Reaction:

Step I:



Step II:

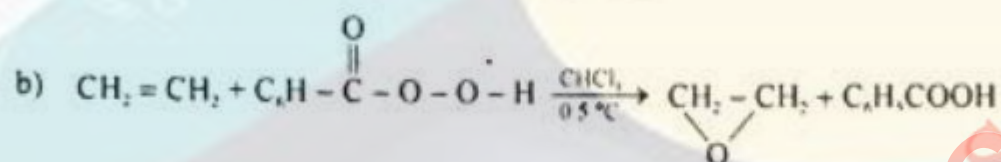
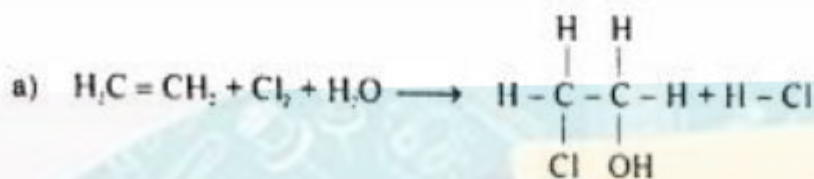


Q22: How can you prepare from ethane.

a) ethylene chlorhydrilin

b) 1, 2 - epoxy ethane.

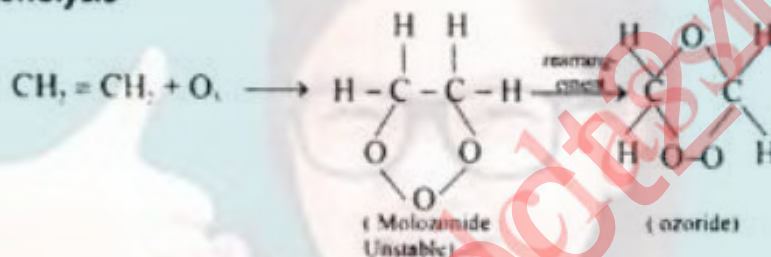
Answer



Q23: Give reaction of ozone (O₃) with ethane (ozonolysis). Also give the reduction of ozonide with zinc.

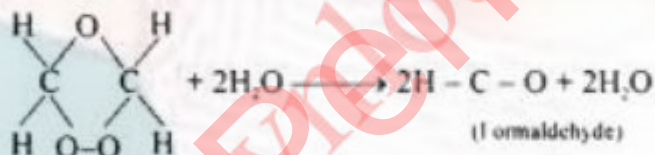
Answer

a) Ozonolysis



b) Reduction of Ozonide

i)



Q24: Write a note on conjugation. Also explain isolated "p" system and extended 'p' system.

Answer

The word "conjugation" is derived from Latin word that means "to link together". In organic chemistry it is used to describe the situation which is present in a molecule in which p-orbitals are present on atleast 3 adjacent carbon atoms. In a conjugated system there is a continuous array of p-orbitals that can align to produce a bonding overlap along the whole system (whole molecule).



e.g. Benzene

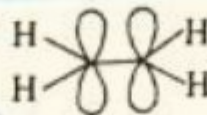
For Example:



Isolated "P" system

An isolated "p" system is a system which exists only between a pair of adjacent atoms.

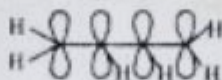
For example $C = C$ i.e. $H_2C = CH_2$.



Extended "p" system

An extended "p" system is the system which exists over a longer series of atoms.

For example. $C = C - C = C$ or $C = - C = O$.



An extended "p" system results in an extension of the chemical reactivity.

Answers of quick quiz (Q25: to Q37)

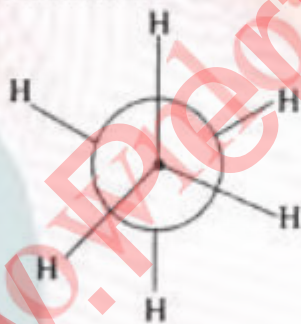
Q25: What is stereochemistry?

Answer

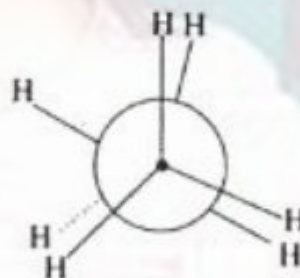
The branch of chemistry in which we study the different conformation of a molecule i.e. arrangement of an atom in a molecule in a space in which we can arise by rotation of one group on another group or an atom on another atom about a single bond is called stereochemistry.

For Example

$C - C$ rotation in ethane



Trans on staggered form



cis or Eclipsed form

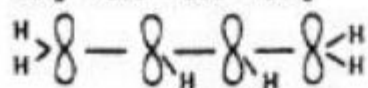
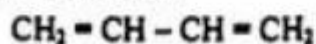
Q26: What are conjugated alkenes?

Answer

The alkenes in which there are arrays of p-orbitals that can align the whole molecule are called conjugated alkenes.

For example

1, 3, - butadiene

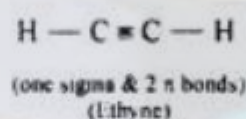
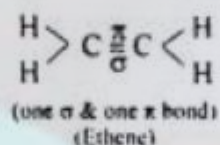


Q27: What is a pi-bond?

Answer

- The bond form by the parallel overlap of two p-orbitals present at adjacent atoms.
- A pi-bond depends upon sigma bond i.e. in a molecule first sigma bond is form ϕ then pi-bond is form.
- It is high energy exposed bond and reacts fast.
- It is present in double and triple bond only.

e.g.



Q28: What are s and p orbitals?

Answer

s – orbital

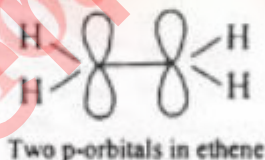
It is spherically symmetrical orbital present around a single nucleus in every shell in every atom.

For example 1s, 2s, 3s

p – orbital

It is dumb bell shaped

Orbital present in every shell except first shell. These are of three types i.e. p_x , p_y , p_z .



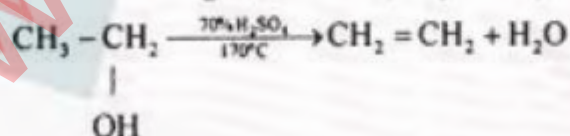
Q29: What is dehydration?

Answer

Removal of water from a substance is called dehydration.

For example

Alcohols on heating lose water (dehydrated) and are converted into alkenes.



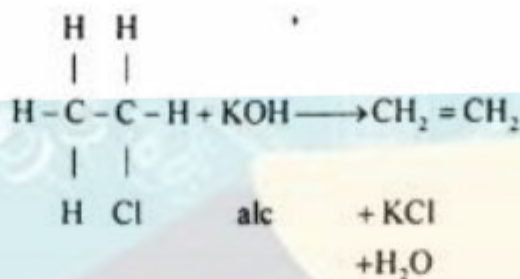
Q30: What is dehydrohalogenation?

Answer

Removal of hydrogen and halogens from an alkyl halide is called dehydrohalogenation

e.g. Reacting Ethyl with alcoholic

e.g



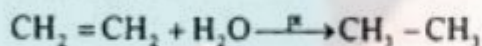
Q31: What is hydrogenation?

Answer

Addition of hydrogen to a substance is called hydrogenation.

When hydrogenation is done in the presence of a catalysts it is called catalytic hydrogenation.

For example



Q32: What is carbocation?

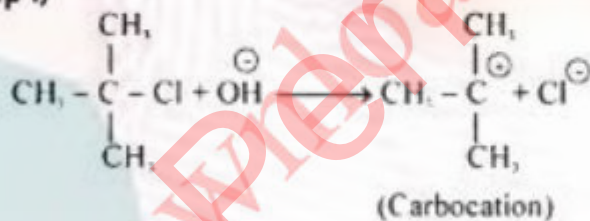
Answer

An ion in which there is positive charge on carbon atom is called carbocation.

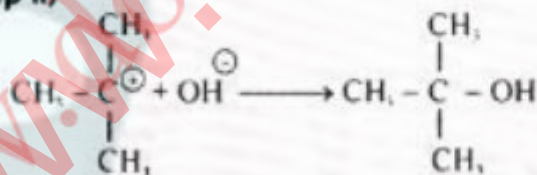
For Example

Reaction of tertiary butylchloride with OH^- ions.

Step i)



Step ii)



Q33: What is Markowinkov's rule?

Answer

Please see answer of Q19 of chapter notes.

Q34: What is electrophilic reagent?

Answer

The substance having positive charge on it or partial positive charge at any part of molecule may act as electrophile, therefore is called electrophilic reagent.

For example CH_3^+Cl , $\text{C}_2\text{H}_5^+\text{Br}$

Q35: What is nucleophilic reagent?

Answer

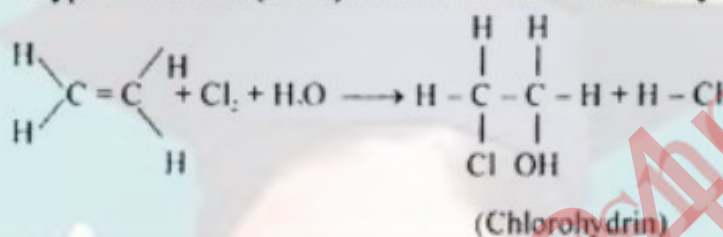
A substance having lone pair on it, negative charge on it or $C = C =$ is called nucleophile or nucleophilic reagent.

For example: $\ddot{N}H_3$, $\ddot{P}H_3$ (phosphine), $CH_2 = CH_2$

Q36: What is halohydrin?

Answer

Addition of hypohalous acid (HOX) to an alkene is called halohydrin.



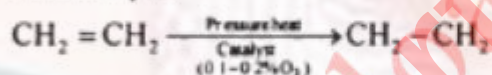
Q37: What is polymerization?

Answer

(Poly = more than one Meros = pieces)

Addition of two or more than two molecules to give a long chain is called polymerization.

For example:



Poly these used to make shopping bags

Q38: What is isomerism? Give its different types.

Answer

Compounds having same molecular formulas but different structural formulas are called isomers.

There are two main types of isomerism.

- | | |
|-------------------------|---------------------|
| a) Structural isomerism | b) Stereo isomerism |
|-------------------------|---------------------|

Structural isomerism are again 6/5 types .

- i) Chain Isomerism
- ii) Position Isomerism
- iii) Functional Isomerism
- iv) Mesomerism
- v) Tautomerism

Q39: Explain the following terms.

- | | |
|---------------------------|------------------------|
| i) Chain Isomerism | ii) Position Isomerism |
| iii) Functional Isomerism | iv) Metamerism |

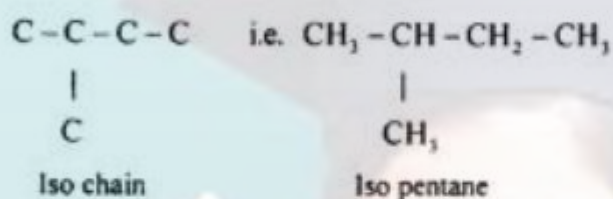
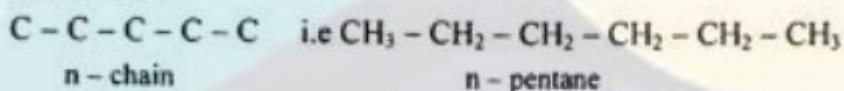
v) Tautomerism

Answer

i) Chain Isomerism

The isomerism in which there comes a change in carbon chain is called chain isomerism.

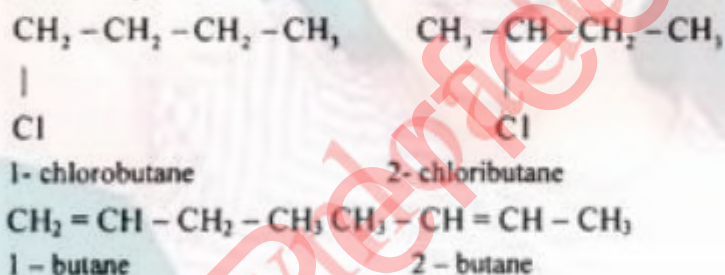
For example



ii) Position Isomerism

The isomerism in which there comes a change in position of group on a carbon chain or position of double or triple bond on a carbon chain is called position isomerism

For example



iii) Functional Isomerism

The isomerism in which there comes a change in functional group of a compound is called functional group isomerism.

For Example

$\text{C}_2\text{H}_6\text{O}$ has following isomers



iv) Metamerism

The change in position of attachment of alkyl group around a center is called a metamerism.

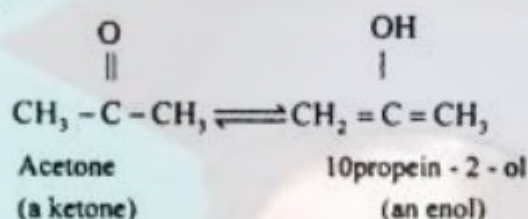
For Example



v) Tautomerism

The isomerism in which there comes a change in position of one hydrogen atom only is called tautomerism

For Example



Q40: What is chiral and achiral molecule?

Answer

Chiral Molecule

The molecule in which four different groups are attached to a central carbon is called chiral molecule. And its central carbon is called chiral carbon or chiral center. The mirror image of such a molecule is not super imposable on the object. Such molecules are optically active.

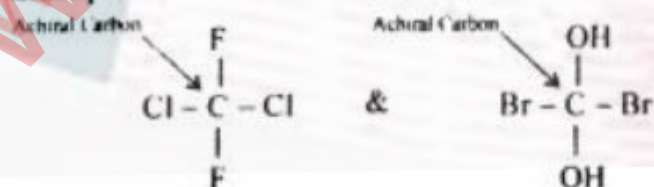
For Example



Achiral Molecule

When similar groups are attached to a central carbon of a molecule and mirror image of such a molecule is super imposable on the object the molecule is called achiral molecule. Such molecules are optically inactive.

For Example



Q41: Define the following terms?

- i) Plane Polarized Light.
- ii) Optical Activity
- iii) Dextrorotatory Compounds

iv) Laevorotatory Compounds

Answer

i) Plane Polarized Light

A light obtained from ordinary electric lamp is composed of waves vibrating in many different planes. When it is passed through Nicol prism (made of calcite, CaCO_3) or Polaroid lens, light is found to vibrate in only one plane and is said to be simply polarized or plane-polarized light.

ii) Optical Activity

The compounds which rotate the plane of a polarized light are called optical active compound and this property of a compound is called optically activity.

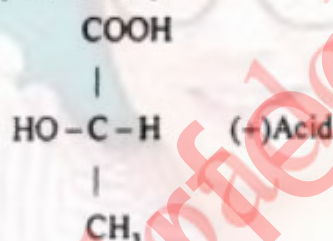
The mirror image of an optical active compound is not superimposable on its object. The optical activity of a compound is detected and measure by means of a polarimeter.

iii) Dextrorotary Compounds

The compounds which rotate the plane of polarized light forwards right side (in clock wise direction) is known as dextrorotary or (+) isomer.

For Example

d-lactic acid or (+) lactic acid)



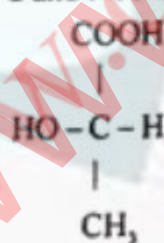
iv) Levorotatory Compounds

The compounds which rotate the plane of polarized light towards left side (in anti-clock wise direction) is known as levorotatory.

For Example

l - lactic acid or (-) Laetic acid

d and l isomers are mirror images of each other.



Object (+) Acid d – rotator

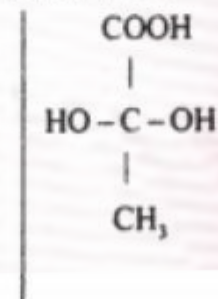


Image (-) Acid

l – rotator

mirror

Q42: What are Geomatic Isomers?

Answer

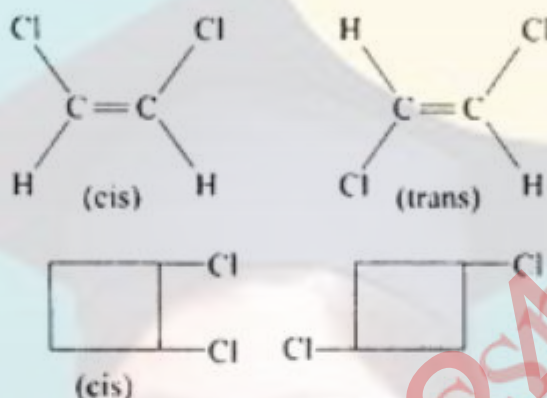
The isomers in which similar groups are attached at one side of a double bond or a cyclic ring or at opposite side of a double bond are called geometric isomers.

Geometric isomers are of 2 – types

i) Cis – isomers

ii) Trans – isomers

For Example



Q43: What are hydrocarbons?

Answer

Organic compounds which contain carbon and hydrogen only are called hydrocarbons.

Example: Alkenes and Alkynes.

Q44: What are open chain hydrocarbons?

Answer

The hydrocarbons in which carbon atoms attached with each other to form open chains are called open chain hydrocarbons.

Example: Alkanes.

Q45: What are saturated hydro-carbons? Gives example.

Answer

These are the hydrocarbons in which carbon atoms are attached with each other through single bonds.

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

Q46: What are unsaturated hydrocarbons? Gives example.

Answer

These are the hydrocarbons in which at least two carbon atoms are attached through double or triple bonds.

Example: $\text{CH} \equiv \text{CH}$, alkenes acetylene.

Q47: What are closed chain hydro-carbons? Give example.

Answer

These are the hydrocarbons in which carbon atoms attach with each other to form rings.

Example: cyclobutane, cyclopentane.

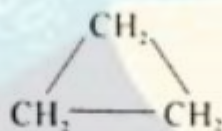
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Q48: What are Alicyclic hydrocarbons? Give example.

Answer

Non-benzoid cyclic hydrocarbons.

Example:



Q49: What are intermolecular forces?

Answer

The forces of attraction which are present between the atoms of two molecules are called intermolecular forces e.g induced dipole forces.

Q50: What are putramolecular forces?

Answer

The forces of attraction which are present between the atoms of the same molecule are called intramolecular forces e.g Hydrophobic intractions.

Q51: Why cycloalkanes have low melting & boiling points?

Answer

Because there are very weak induced depole-induced dipole forces between molecules that is why cycloalkanes have low melting and boiling points.

Q52: What does half-arrow show in the reaction mechanism? And which reactions it is used?

Answer

A half-arrow is used to show the movement of a single electron in reactions involving free radicles.

Q53: What do you mean by redox reactions?

Answer

Those reactions in which the oxidation and reduction are occurring simultaneously are called redox-reactions.

Example: $\text{CH}_4 + 2\text{O}_2 \longrightarrow \text{CO}_2 + 2\text{H}_2\text{O}$

Q54: What is Oxidation?

Answer

The loss of electrons, increase in oxidation state, less C-H bonds and more e-o bonds is called oxidation.

Example: $\text{CO}_2 + \frac{1}{2}\text{O}_2 \longrightarrow \text{CO}_2$

Q55: What do you mean by reduction?

Answer

The loss of C-O bonds, gain of electrons and decrease in the oxidation state of a substance is called reduction. Like +1 to -1.

=====



Q56: What is the heat of hydrogenation of alkene?

Answer

The heat of hydrogenation of most alkene is 120 KJmole.⁻¹.

Q57: What is Raney Nickel?

Answer

Raney Nickel is a catalyst which is obtained by treating Ni-Al alloy with caustic soda.

Q58: What is the benefit of catalytic hydrogenation?

Answer

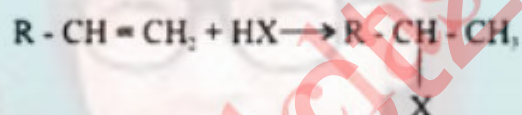
Catalytic hydrogenation of alkenes is used in industry for the manufacturing of vegetable ghee and vegetable oil.

Q59: What is hydrohalogenation? Give example.

Answer

The addition of hydrogen to halogens is called hydrohalogenation.

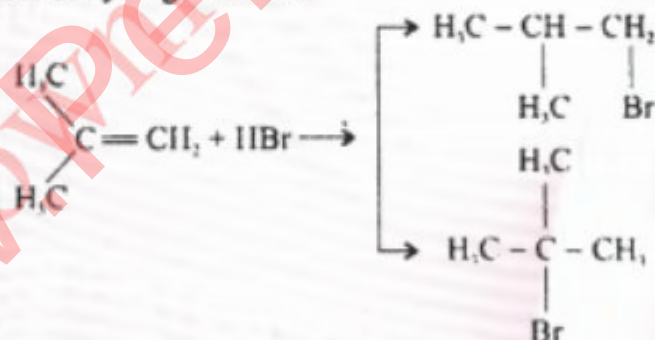
Example:



Q60: What is Markowinkov's rule?

Answer

It states that in the addition of an unsymmetrical reagent to an unsymmetrical alkene, the negative part of the adding reagent goes to that carbon which has double bond and have least number of hydrogen atoms.

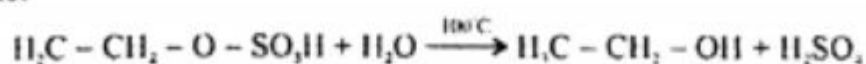


Q61: What is hydration? Give example.

Answer

Addition of water to a substance is called hydration.

Example:



Answer

An "isolated" p-system exists between a single pair of adjacent atoms

Example:



An "extended" p-system exist over a longer series atoms.

Example:



Q62: What is Isomerism? Name its type.

Answer

The phenomenon in which the substances have same molecular formula but different chemical structures is called isomerism.

Types:

- a — Chain isomerism
- b — Position isomerism
- c — Functional isomerism
- d — Metamerism
- e — Tautomerism

Q63: What do you mean by Chiral and Achiral objects?

Answer

Those objects which lack plane of symmetry are called chiral objects.

Those objects which are symmetrical are called Achiral objects.

Q64: What is Optical isomerism?

Answer

The phenomenon in which the optically active compounds exist in two isomeric forms rotate the plane polarized light in opposite directions is called optical isomerism.

Q65: What are dextrorotatory isomers?

Answer

Those isomers which rotate the plane polarized light in clockwise direction are called dextrorotatory isomers.

Example: Tartaric acid

Q66: What are Laevorotatory isomers?

Answer

The isomers which rotate the plane polarized light in anti-clockwise direction are called laevorotatory isomers.

Example: L-amino acids

Q67: Why alkynes are more stable than alkenes?

Answer

The alkynes are more stable than alkenes due to the presence of extra pi-bond.

Q68: What is resonance?

Answer

The possibility of different pairing schemes of valence electrons of atoms is called

=====

resonance.

Q69: Enlist some uses of hydrocarbons?

Answer

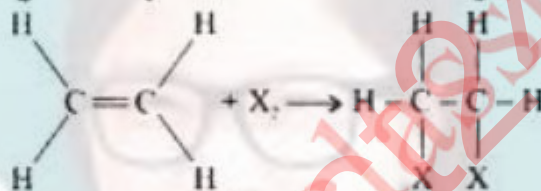
These are as follows:

- i — Butane is used as a fuel in lighter.
- ii — Butane is also used in some camping stores.
- iii — Crude petroleum's lighter than water.
- iv — Oxyacetylene torch is used for cutting of metals.
- v — Methane is used to manufacture urea fertilizer.

Q70: What is halogenation? Give Example

Answer

The addition of halogens to any substance is called halogenation

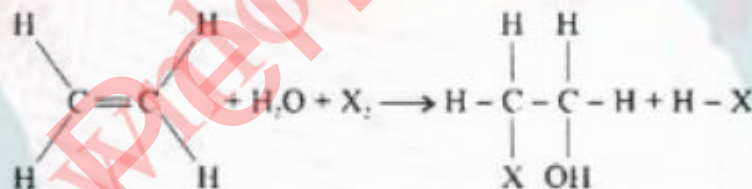


Q71: What is halohydration? Give example.

Answer

Addition of hypohalous acid (HOX) to a substance is called halohydration.

Example:

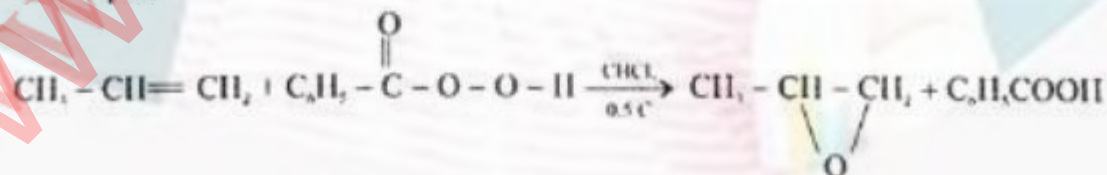


Q72: What is epoxidation? Give example.

Answer

Addition of epoxides to any substance is called epoxidation.

Example:

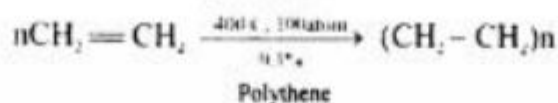


Q73: What is polymerization? Give example.

Answer

Polymerization is a process in which small organic molecules combine together to form large molecules.

Example:

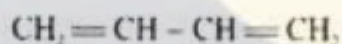


Q74: What is conjugation?

Answer

The linkage which established due to bonds is called conjugation.

Example:



Q75: What are isolated and extended P system?

Answer

Missing Answer

Q76: Name the factors which influence alkene stability?

Answer

There are three factors which influence alkene stability.

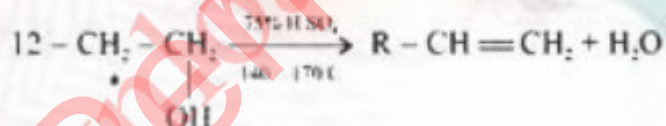
- Degree of substitution.
- Stereochemistry: trans > cis
- Conjugated alkenes are more stable than isolated alkenes.

Q77: What is dehydration?

Answer

Removal of water molecule from a substance is called dehydration.

Example:

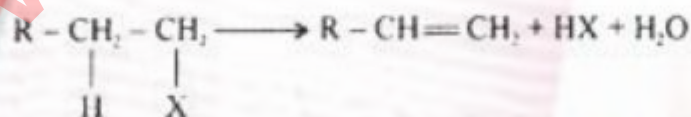


Q78: What is dehydrohalogenation?

Answer

Removal of hydrogen halide (HX) from alkyl halides is called dehydrohalogenation.

Example:

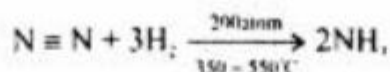


Q79: What is hydrogenation?

Answer

A process in which a molecule of hydrogen is added to an alkene, alkane, alkynes or any other substance is called hydrogenation.

Example:



Q80: What is catalytic hydrogenation?

Answer

Addition of hydrogen to any substance in the presence of catalyst and at 1 – 5 atm pressure is called catalytic hydrogenation.

Example: $\text{H}_2\text{C}=\text{CH}_2 + \text{H}_2 \xrightarrow{\text{Pt}} \text{H}_3\text{C}-\text{CH}_3$

Q81: What is heat of hydrogenation?

Answer

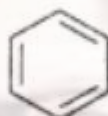
The amount of heat evolved when one mole of an alkene is hydrogenated is called heat of hydrogenation.

Q82: What are aromatic hydrocarbons? Give example.

Answer

Benzoid cyclic hydrocarbons are known as aromatic hydrocarbons.

Example:



Benzene

Q83: Why the alkanes are unreactive?

Answer

The alkanes are unreactive due to the two reasons:

- i Inertness of σ bond.
- ii None polar bond.

Q84: Names two reactions which alkanes give at high temperature or highly reactive radical observed through light?

Answer

These are:

- i Thermal and catalytic reactions.
- ii. Substitutional reactions.

Q85: What are cycloalkanes?

Answer

Those alkanes which contains sp^3 hybridized C and H atoms connected by σ bonds with a ring of 3 or more C atoms are called cycloalkanes.

Example: Cyclopropane, cyclobutane.

Q86: What are polar and non-polar compounds?

Answer

Those compounds which are soluble in water are called polar compounds eg NaOH, NaCl etc. Those compounds which are not soluble in water are called non-polar compounds. e.g Ether, Kerosine oil etc.

Q87: What are inert compounds?

Answer

Those compounds which are not readily reactive or those compounds which have completely filled their outermost orbital are called inert compounds e-g Xe, Ne etc..

