

Organic Chemistry  
Semester-4, CBCS  
Course: CEMG CC-4/GE-4

Course taught by: Kaushik Basu, Department of Chemistry, SPCMC, Kolkata

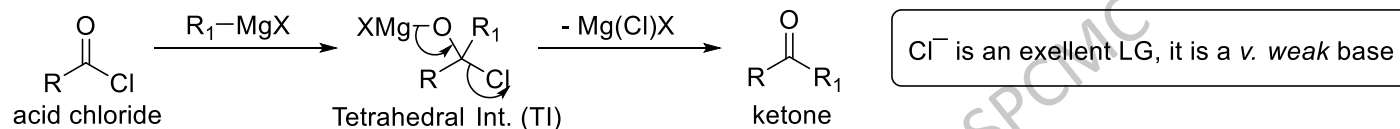
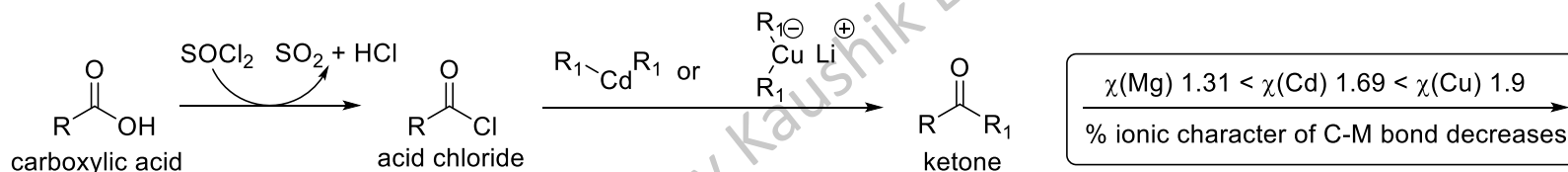
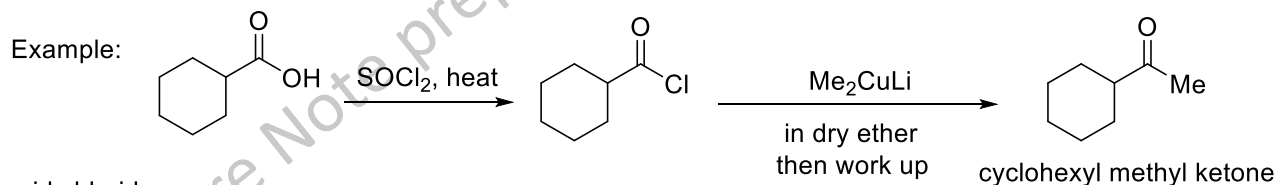
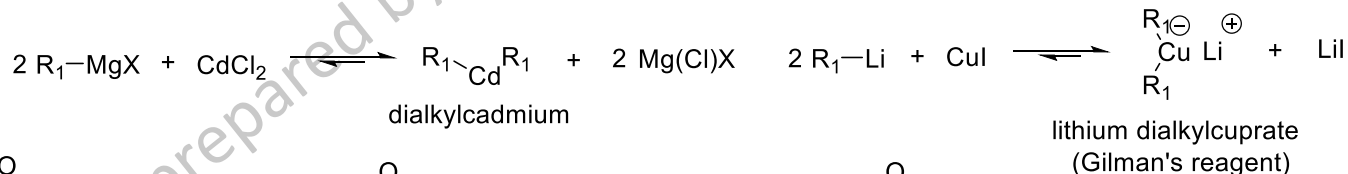
email: [chiralkaushik@gmail.com](mailto:chiralkaushik@gmail.com)

Lecture Note prepared by Kaushik Basu, SPCMC

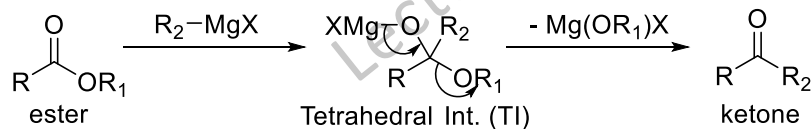
Preparation:

A) Using Organometallics and a carboxylic acid derivative:

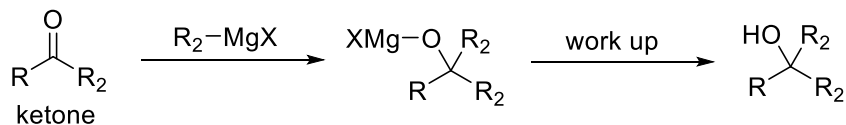
A carboxylic acid derivative that carries a good LG can react with a GR and affords a ketone. An acid chloride seems to be an ideal choice as it is more reactive than the ketone which is necessary to stop the reaction at ketone stage.


 However, GR is extremely reactive, and less selective. So it has a tendency to react with the ketone generated *in situ*, leading to tertiary alcohol formation. Thus we need a less reactive and more selective organometallic reagent to synthesise ketone from acid chlorides. Organocoppers and organocadmiums are good choice in this regard. These are less ionic in nature and less reactive than GRs.

 These reagents are prepared from the corresponding GRs or organolithiums by *transmetallation* reaction.


Using ester in place of acid chlorides:



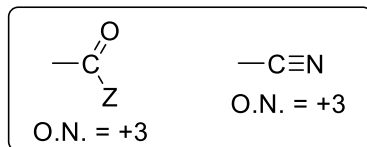
However, ketone is more electrophilic than ester, thus, the ketone reacts with GR to produce a tertiary alcohol.


 It is very difficult to stop the reaction at ketone stage. For this to happen, GR must never be present in excess during the reaction. This can be done by adding the GR drop wise into the ester taken in ether solvent (the **inverse addition**). The reverse addition must not be done, ever.

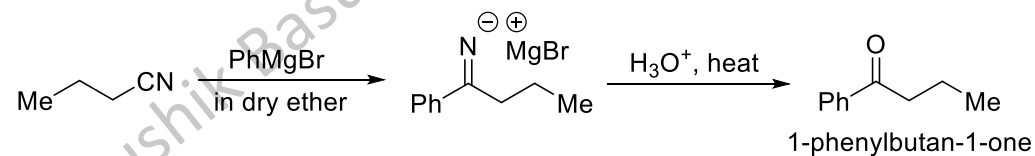
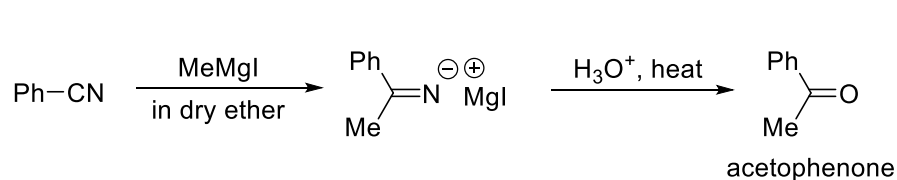
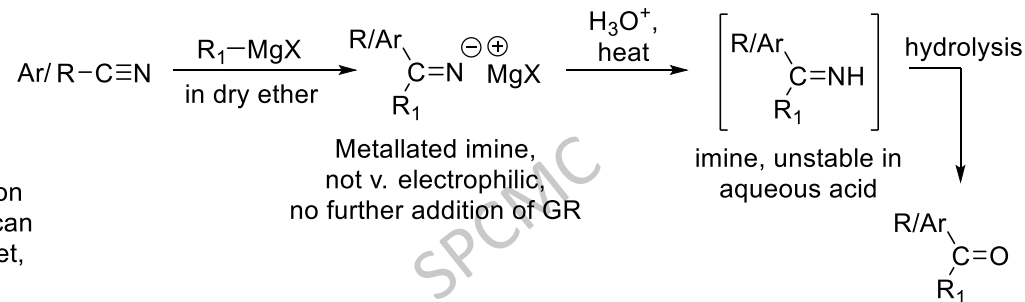
## Chemistry of Carbonyl Compounds

Preparation:

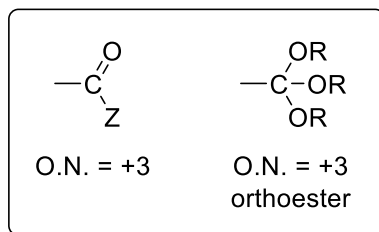
B] Using Organometallics and an organocyanide:



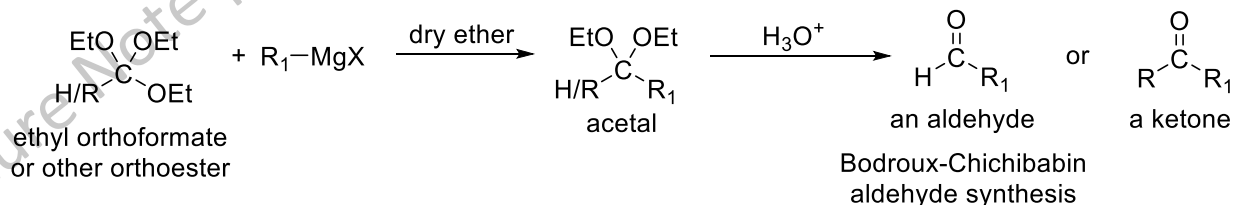
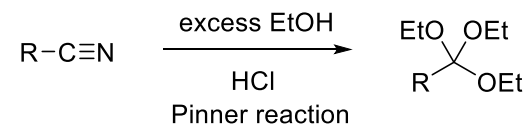
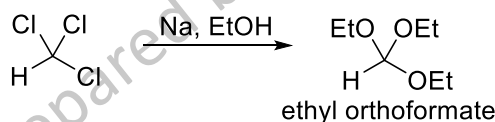
Same O.N. but no LG at all - ideal situation for organomagnesium addition. Nothing can leave, so the first addition is all that we get, in general.



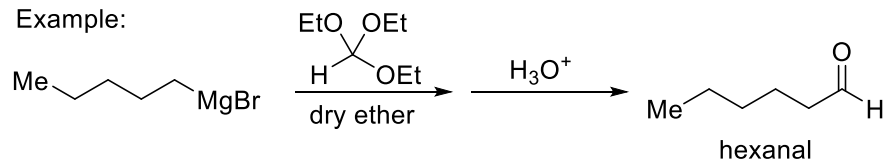
C] Using Organometallics and an orthoester:



Preparation of orthoesters:

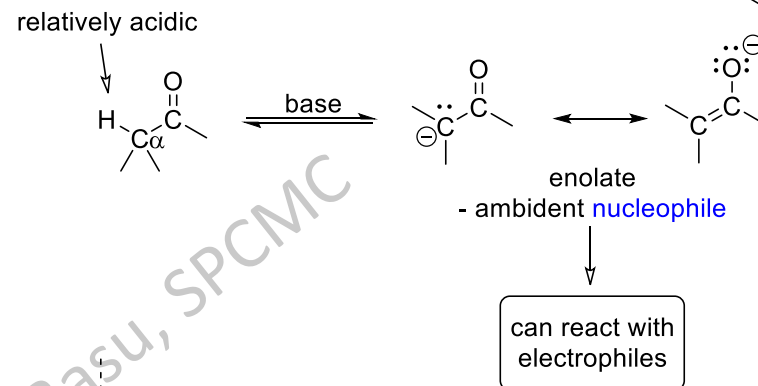
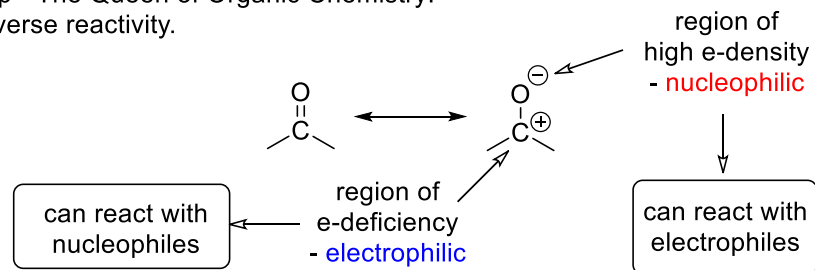


Example:



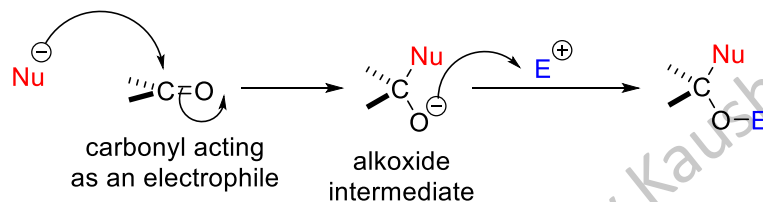
## Chemistry of Carbonyls: Addition Reactions: Nucleophilic addition

Carbonyl group - The Queen of Organic Chemistry:  
A source of diverse reactivity.



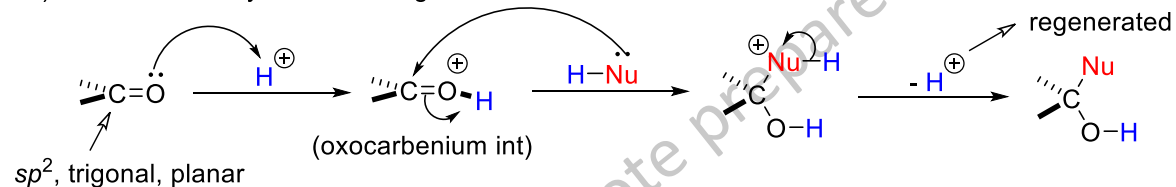
Nucleophilic addition to **polar** C=O

a) Strong nucleophiles:

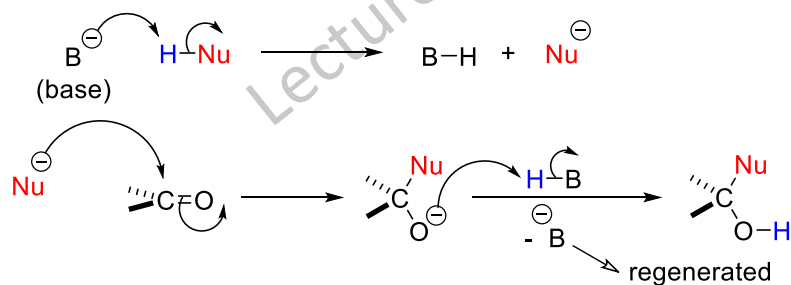


b) Weak nucleophiles:

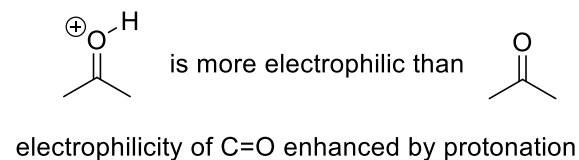
i) under acid catalysis - activating the C=O:



ii) under base catalysis - activating the nucleophile



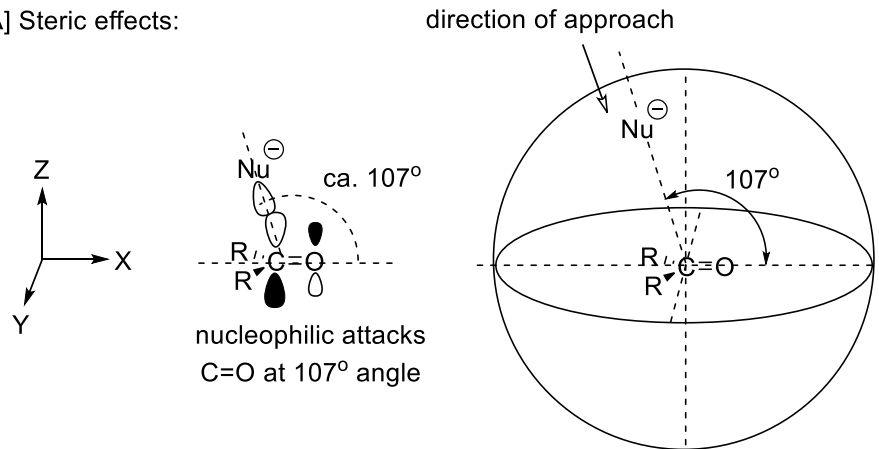
Carbonyl compounds offer opportunity to form new C-C bonds



Nu<sup>-</sup> is more nucleophilic than H-Nu  
nucleophilicity of H-Nu enhanced by deprotonation

Relative reactivity towards nucleophiles: The RDS is the attack of the nucleophile to the carbonyl carbon -

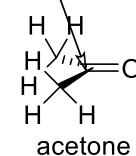
A) Steric effects:



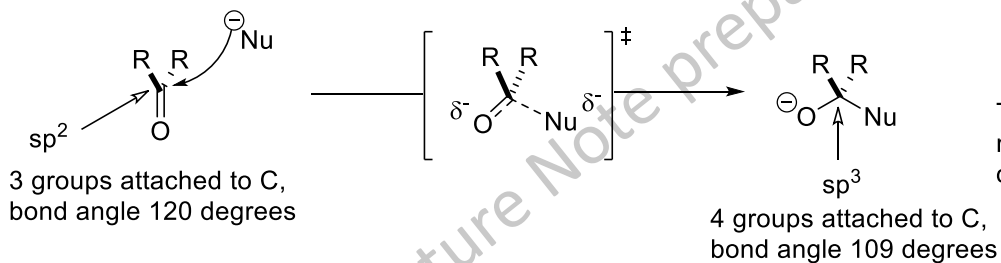
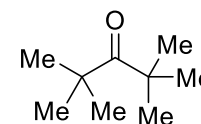
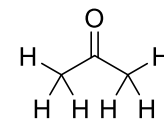
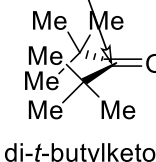
Any other components of the molecule that get in the way of (i.e., that cause steric hindrance to the) incoming nucleophile will significantly diminish the rate of addition.

This implies that as the size of R increases, it becomes increasingly difficult for the nucleophile to approach the carbonyl carbon, rate of reaction decreases.

approach easier

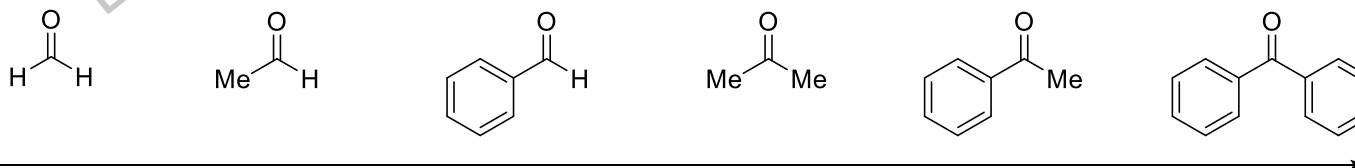


approach difficult



Therefore, as the nucleophile adds, the TS and the adduct becomes more crowded than the reactant. Thus, with bulky R groups, the rate of addition is lowered.

Considering this, we expect the following order of reactivity:

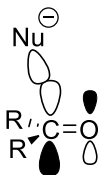


Crowding around the carbonyl carbon increases, reactivity towards nucleophile decreases

## Chemistry of Carbonyls: Addition Reactions

Relative reactivity towards nucleophiles: The RDS is the attack of the nucleophile to the carbonyl carbon -

B) Electronic effects:

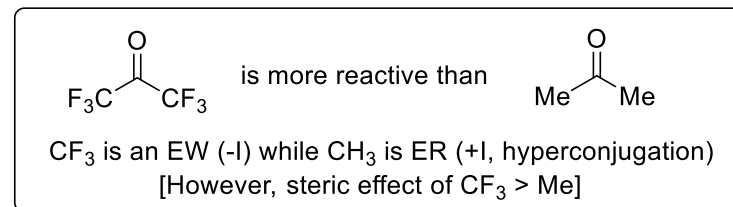
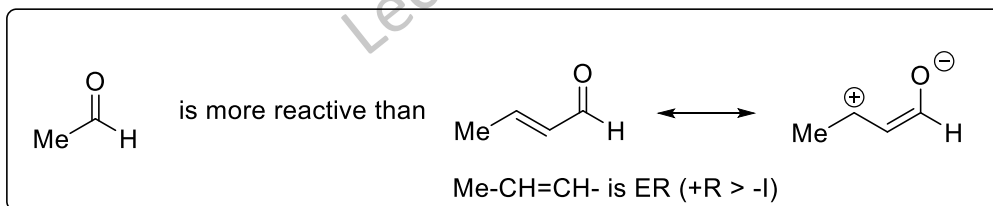
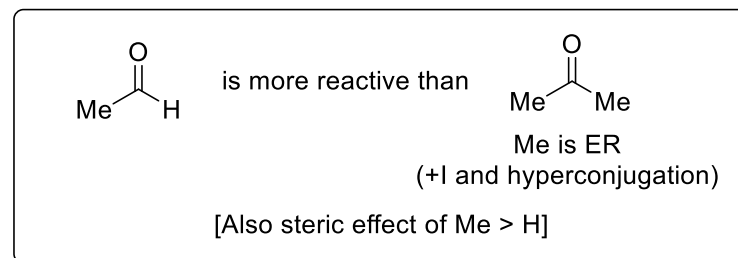
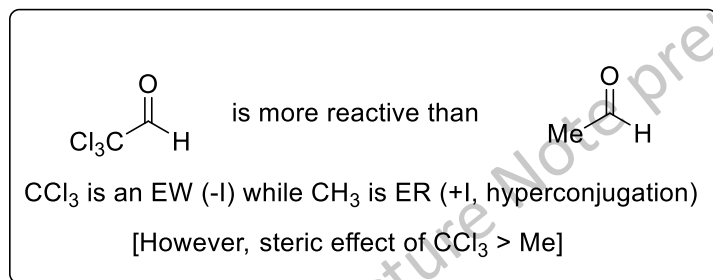
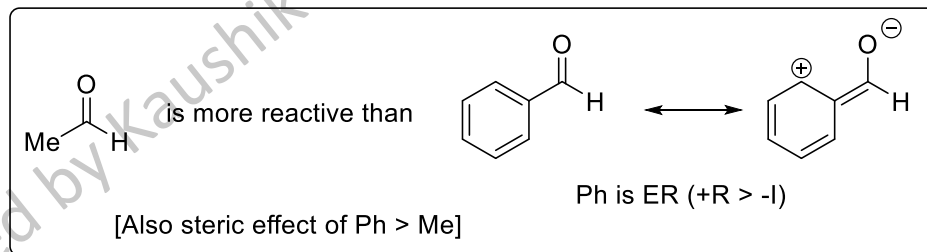
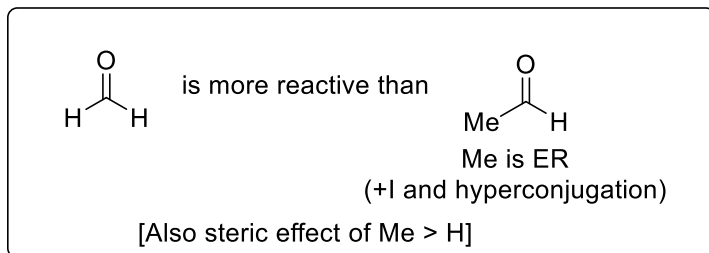


e-transfer from nucleophile to the carbonyl carbon  
- the more e-deficient the carbonyl carbon is, faster is the nucleophilic attack.

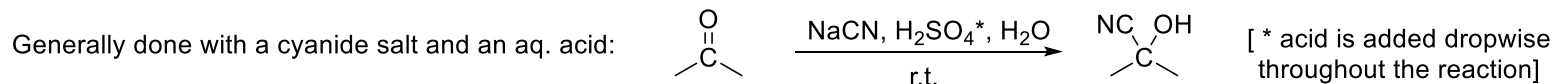
In presence of EW substituents on the carbonyl carbon - electrophilicity of carbonyl carbon increases  
- reactivity towards nucleophile increases.

In presence of ER substituents on the carbonyl carbon - electrophilicity of the carbonyl carbon decreases  
- reactivity towards nucleophile decreases.

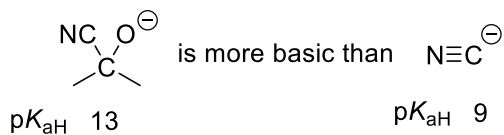
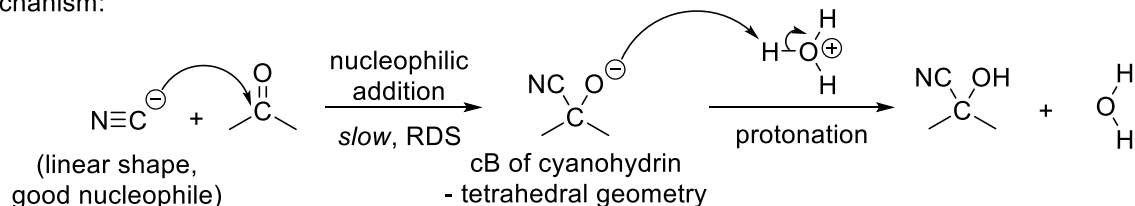
For the same nucleophile:



Addition of hydrogen cyanide: Formation of cyanohydrin:

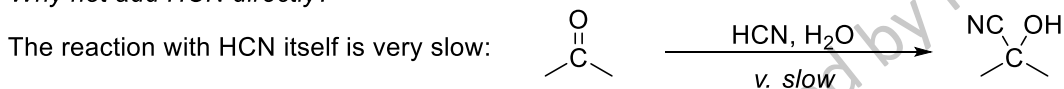


Mechanism:



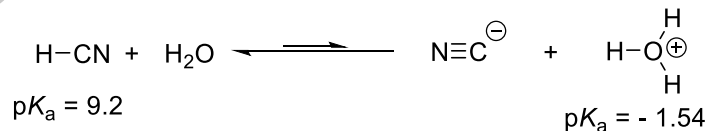
So the cB of cyanohydrin gets preferentially protonated as the acid is slowly added to the medium. We cannot add the acid completely at the beginning of the reaction, that would protonate the cyanide leading to loss of nucleophilicity and generation of deadly HCN.

Why not add HCN directly?

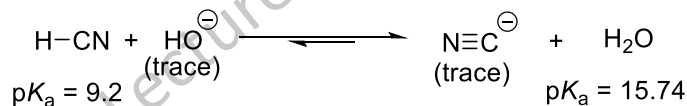
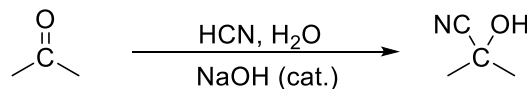


Why?

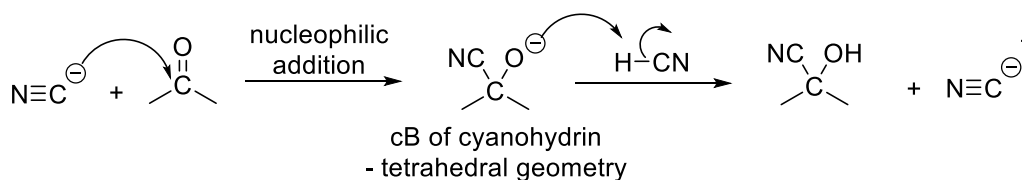
HCN is a weak acid, it does not dissociate enough generate cyanide in aq. med. for rapid reaction.



Adding a catalytic amount of alkali improves the rate dramatically:



goes on to attack the next C=O, steady supply of cyanide ensured

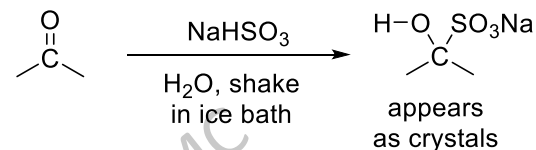


## Chemistry of Carbonyls: Addition Reactions

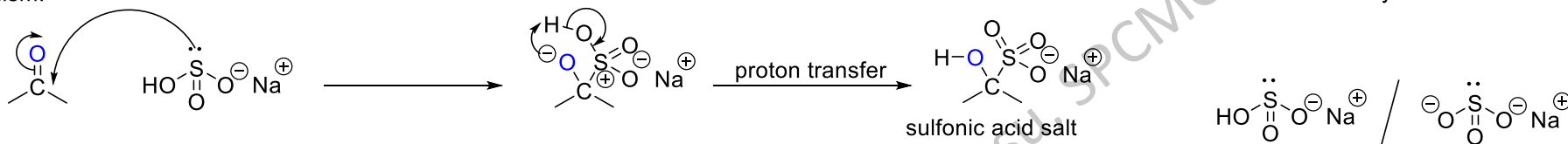
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### Addition of NaHSO<sub>3</sub>: Formation of bisulfite adducts

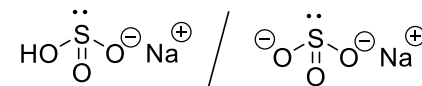
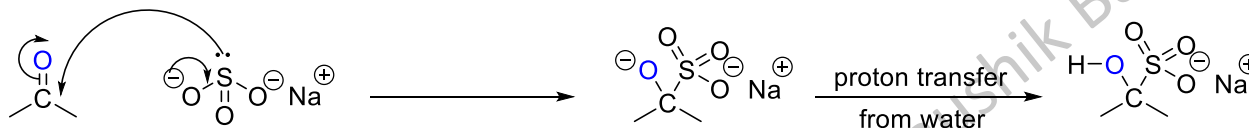
Sodium bisulfite (NaHSO<sub>3</sub>) adds to aldehydes and some ketones to give what is usually known as a bisulfite addition compound. Most aldehydes, methyl ketones, and unhindered cyclic ketones respond favourably when treated with a concentrated aq. solution of NaHSO<sub>3</sub>.



Mechanism:



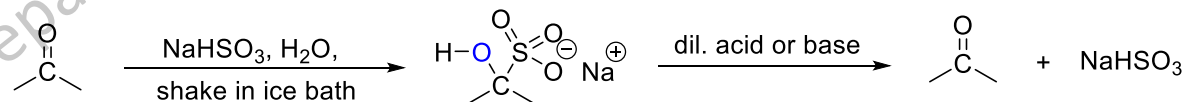
The nucleophile could very well be the sulfite ion, which is more nucleophilic than the bisulfite:



S-end more nucleophilic than the O<sup>-</sup>, the former is the more polarizable centre.

Sulfite / bisulfite ions are potent nucleophile that attack the carbonyl groups of most aldehydes and many unhindered ketones readily, and they are already present as anions in the medium - the addition reaction thus requires *no acid or base catalysis*.

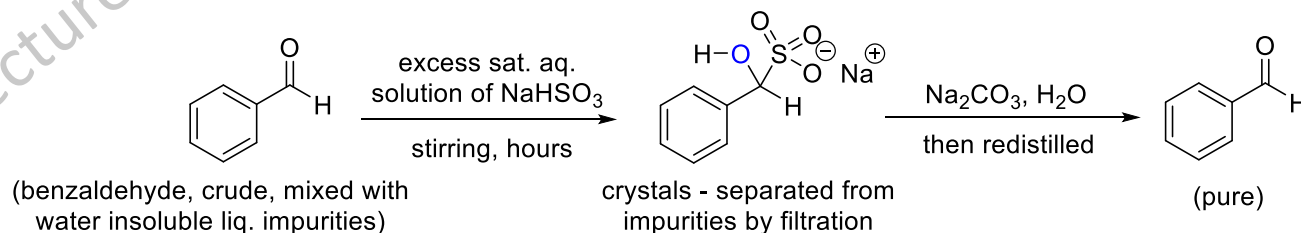
The addition reaction is reversible, the bisulfite adducts decompose to parent carbonyls when taken in dilute acid or base:



bisulfite adduct, salt - soluble in water, but on cooling appears as crystals

Using the reversibility:

1. Purification of liquid aldehydes/ketones:

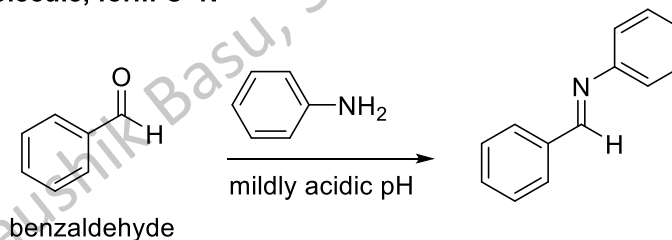
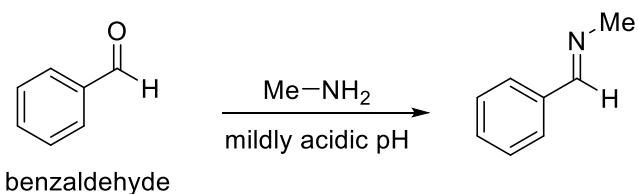
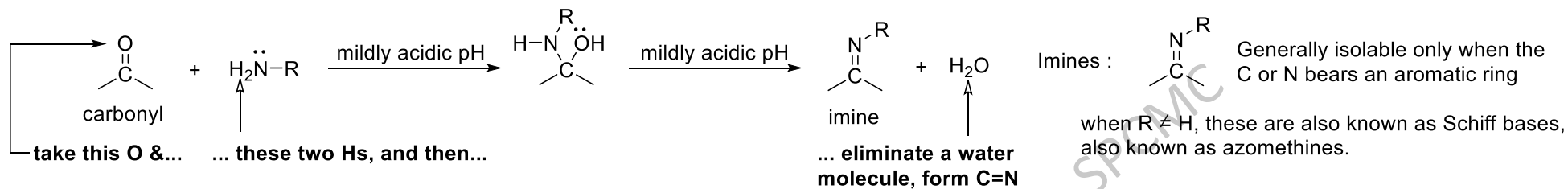




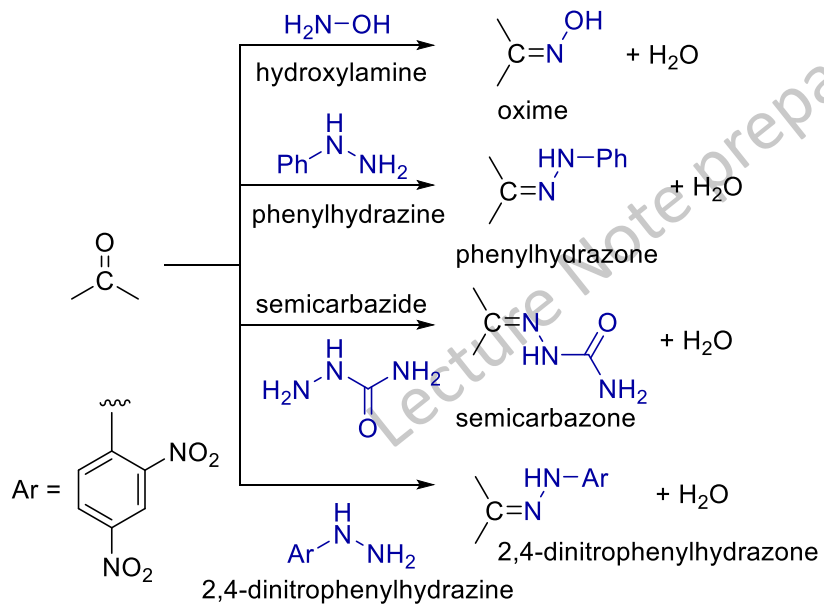
# Chemistry of Carbonyls: Nucleophilic substitution at carbonyl carbon with the loss of carbonyl O

Reaction of nitrogen nucleophiles:

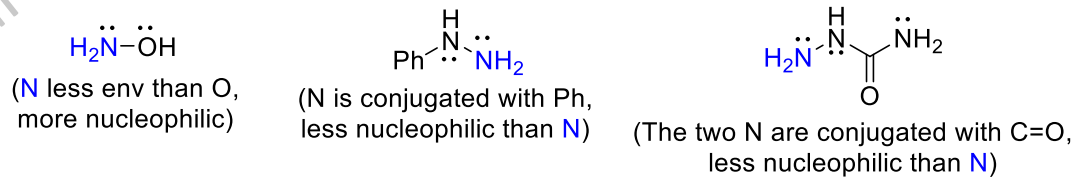
Primary amines react with carbonyl compound under acid-catalysed condition to produce imines (C=N bonds)



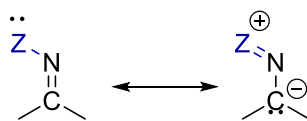
Reactions with derivatives of ammonia: Isolable imine derivatives



These ammonia derivatives are unusually nucleophilic:



Reason for stability:

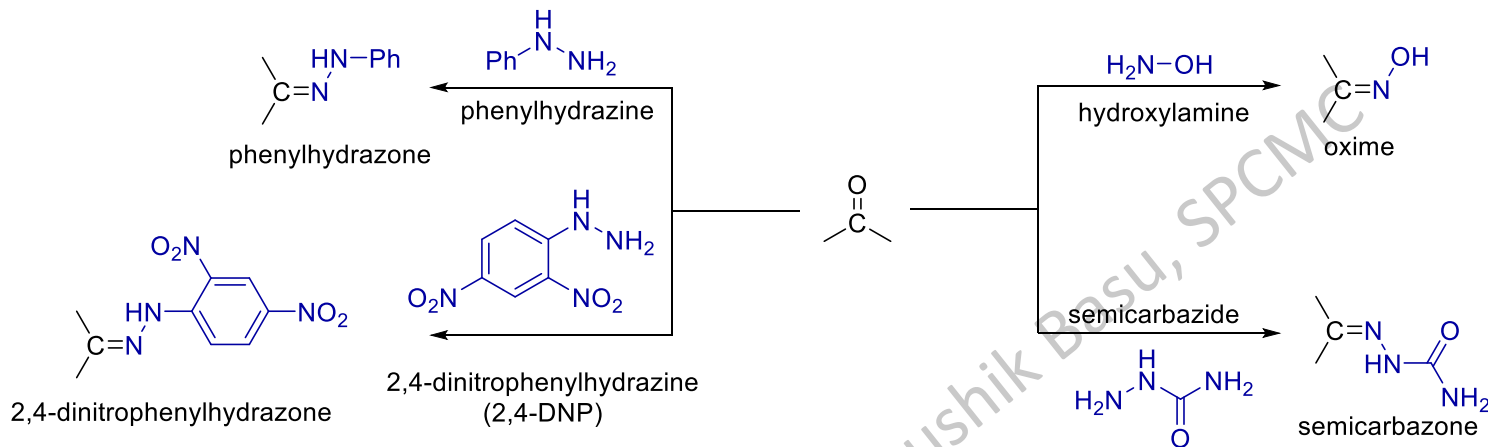


The addition product is resonance-stabilized

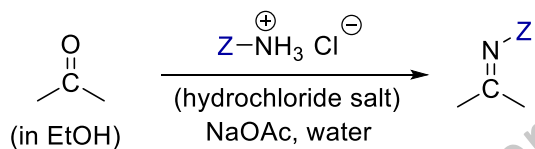
# Chemistry of Carbonyls: Nucleophilic substitution at carbonyl carbon with the loss of carbonyl O

Reaction of nitrogen nucleophiles:

Reactions with derivatives of ammonia: Isolable imine derivatives

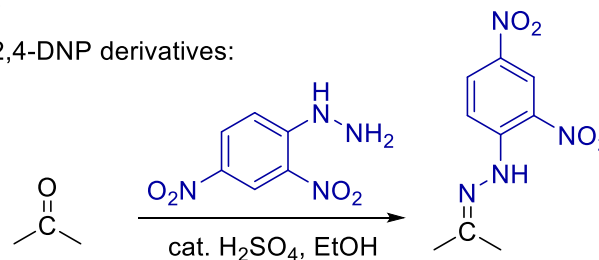


Method of preparation: oximes, semicarbazones and phenylhydrazones:



NaOAc is a salt of weak acid AcOH, and strong base NaOH, it liberates the ZNH<sub>2</sub> from its hydrochloride salt *in situ*

2,4-DNP derivatives:



These derivatives are generally crystalline with sharp m.p.s & can be used in identifying unknown organic samples:

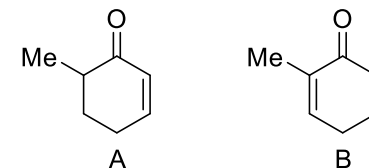
Suppose you have been given a liquid that could be either A or B, two isomeric enones.

How can you identify which is it?

The boiling points of these compounds are too similar for an unambiguous identification.

Yet the melting point of either a 2,4-DNP derivative or a semicarbazone of A and B are widely different.

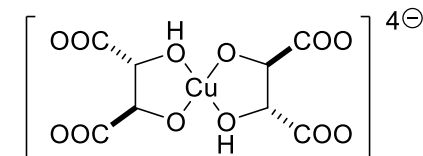
So you can simply prepare a 2,4-DNP derivative of the liquid sample, isolate it, and check the melting point to see with which 2,4-DNP derivative it tallies.



	A	B
B. P. (°C)	69-71	69-70
Semicarbazone, M. P. (°C)	177-178	207-208
2,4-DNP dev., M. P. (°C)	162-164	207-208

## Chemistry of Carbonyl: Fehling's Solution and Tollens' Reagent: Oxidation

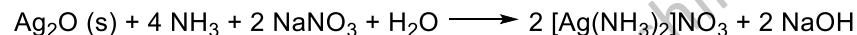
Fehling's solution is an alkaline solution containing cupric tartrate complex. Fehling's is always prepared fresh in the laboratory. It is made initially as two separate solutions, known as Fehling's A and Fehling's B. Fehling's A is a blue aqueous solution of copper(II) sulfate, while Fehling's B is a clear and colorless solution of aqueous potassium sodium tartrate (also known as Rochelle salt) and a strong alkali (commonly sodium hydroxide). Equal volumes of the two mixtures are mixed to get the final Fehling's Solution, which has a deep blue colour.



Tollens' Reagent is an alkaline solution containing  $\text{Ag}(\text{NH}_3)_2^+$ . This reagent must be freshly prepared in the laboratory. One common preparation involves two steps. First a few drops of dilute sodium hydroxide are added to some aqueous silver nitrate which cause a brown precipitate to appear, that of  $\text{Ag}_2\text{O}$ :



To this is added sufficient aqueous ammonia dissolve the brown solid. The resulting solution contains the  $[\text{Ag}(\text{NH}_3)_2]^+$  complexes in the mixture, which is the main component of Tollens' Reagent. Sodium hydroxide is reformed:



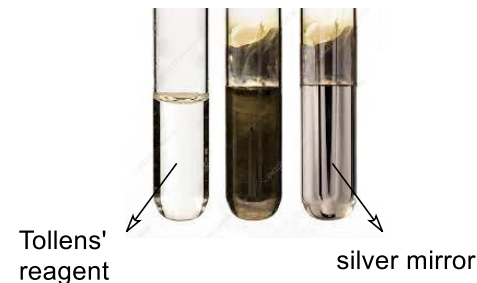
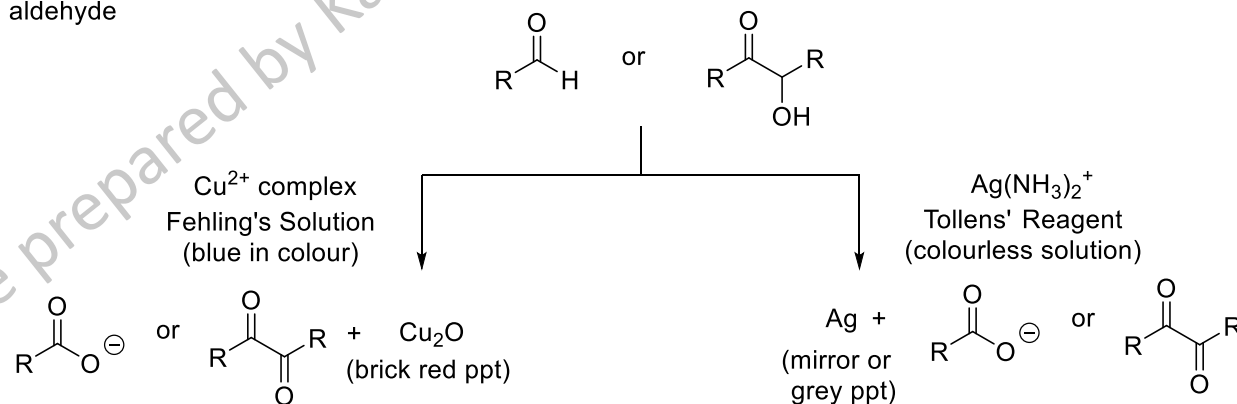
These reagents, Fehling's and Tollens', can oxidise an aldehyde or an  $\alpha$ -hydroxyketone

image taken from: <https://microbiologyinfo.com/>



Blue  $\text{Cu}(\text{II})$

colour change with addition of an increasing amount of aldehyde



In each case, the change is vivid. Thus these reagents are used for the qualitative detection of an aldehyde or  $\alpha$ -hydroxyketone.