

General chemistry

Unit - I

d - Block & f - Block elements

1.1. General characteristics of d - block elements

Comparative study of Zinc group elements, extractions

of Mo & Pt - Alloy of Copper, amalgams and

galvanization

Evidences for the existence of Hg_2^{2+} ions

1.2. General characteristics of f - block elements

Lanthanide contraction and its consequences Extraction

of Th

1.3. Arrhenius, Lowry - Bronsted and Lewis

concepts of acids and bases.

Unit - II

Chemistry of Organometallic Compounds

2.1. Introduction - preparations of organometallic

compounds - physical and chemical properties -

uses Organic compounds - General properties

preparations and uses.

2.2. Organolithium, organocopper, compounds - preparation

properties and uses.

2.3 .

Organolead , Organophosphorous and Organoboron
compounds - preparations properties and uses .

Unit - III

Chemistry of Alcohol , Phenols and Ethers .

- 3.1 . Nomenclature - industrial source of alcohols -
Preparations of alcohols ; Hydration of alkenes ,
oxymercuration , Hydroboration , Grignard additions
reduction - physical properties - chemical properties -
Uses - glycols , from dihydroxylation reductions ,
Substitution reaction and glycerols and their uses .
- 3.2 . Preparation of phenols including di- and
tri hydroxy phenols , physical and chemical
properties - Uses - aromatic electrophilic substitution
Mechanism - theory of orientation and reactivity
- 3.3 preparation of Ether ; dehydration of
alcohols , Williamson's synthesis - silyl ether
epoxides from peroxides - Sharpes's asymmetric
epoxidation reactions of epoxides - Uses -
Introduction to Crown ethers - structures -
applications

Thermodynamics - I.

4.1 Definitions - systems and surrounding
isolated, closed and open system - state of
the system - Intensive and extensive Variable
Thermodynamic processes - reversible and
irreversible isothermal and adiabatic process -
state path functions

4.2 work of expansion at constant pressure
and at constant volume. First law of
Thermodynamic - Statement - definition of internal
energy (E) Enthalpy (H) and Heat capacity,
Relationship between C_p and C_v .

4.3. Calculation of w, q, dE and dlt for
expansion of ideal and real gases under
isothermal and adiabatic conditions of
reversible and irreversible process.

4.4. Thermochemistry - relationship between
enthalpy of reactions at constant volume (q_v)
and at constant pressure (p) - temperature
dependence of heat of reaction - Kirchoff's
equation bond energy and its calculation from
Thermochemical data - integral and differential
Heats solution and dilution

Unit - V

Chemical Kinetics

5.1. Rate of reaction - rate equations, Order and molecularity of reaction - Rate laws - Rate constants and characteristics of Zero Order,

First order and second order reactions - derivation of time for half change $t_{1/2}$ with example.

5.2 Methods of determination of order of reactions - experimental methods - determination of rate constant of a reaction by Volumetry, colorimetry and polarimetry.

5.3 effect of temperature on reactions rate - concept of activation energy - energy barrier

Arrhenius equations. Theories of reactions rates

- collision theory - derivation of rate

constant of bimolecular reactions failure of

collision theory Lindemann's theory of Unimolecular reactions.

5.4. Theory of absolute reactions rates - derivation

significance of rate constant for a bimolecular reactions

significance of entropy and free energy of activation

Comparison of collision theory and absolute reaction rate theory (ARRT)

Unit - IV

Thermodynamics.

Thermodynamics definitions

Intensive Variable

Extensive Variable.

Extensive Variable:

Properties whose value depends on the amount of the material present in system are called extensive properties.

Ex. Volume, Mass, entropy, Heat capacity

Intensive Variable:

A properties whose value don't depend on the amount of material present in the system are called Intensive properties.

Ex. Boiling point, Freezing point, Molar

Volume, Viscosity

Types of System:

It classified three types

* Isolate System

* closed System

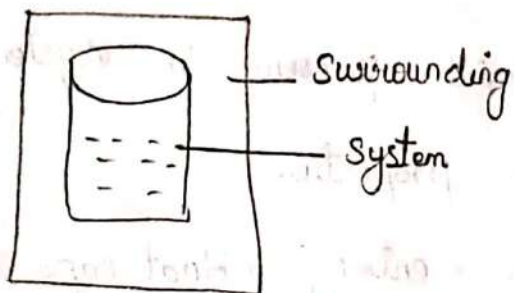
* open System

System

A system is defined as any particular part of the Universe about which we are interested.

The rest of the Universe is called Surroundings.

Isolated System :



The system which can exchange neither energy nor matter with its surrounding is called an Isolated System.

EX : To take an example consider a closed vessel containing water which is in contact with vapour. The vessel is closed. No matter can leave or enter the vessel.

closed System :

A system which can exchange energy but not matter with its surroundings is called a closed system.

open System :

A system which can exchange both matter and energy with its surroundings is called an open system.

Thermodynamic process

* Cyclic process

* Reversible process

* Irreversible process.

Cyclic process :-

When a system after completing a series of changes, returns to its original state it is said to have completed a cycle. Such a process is known as a cyclic process.

Reversible process

A thermodynamically reversible process is a process which is carried out infinitesimally slowly such that the driving force is only infinitesimally greater than the opposing force.

Irreversible Process .

On irreversible process is a process which doesn't take infinitesimally.

Difference between Reversible and Irreversible :

Reversible	Irreversible .
It is slow process Driving Force of a reaction only infinitesimally greater than the opposing force It proceeds in both direction Work done is greater can be brought back to its initial state	It is measurable process Driving Force is usually consider larger than the opposing force . It proceeds only one direction Work done is less can't be brought back to its initial state.

Isothermal process :

A process said to be isothermal the temperature of the system remains constant during each step of process .

Suppose, a process by a chemical reaction is carried out vessels which is not insulated the system in thermal equilibrium, with the surrounding if the process exothermic, heat is evolved in the process. The heat is given out the surroundings instantaneously therefore the temperature of the system remains unchanged.

On other hand the reaction is endothermic, the heat observed instantaneously from the surroundings the given again the temperature of the system, remains unchanged. Such a system is called isothermal process.

Adiabatic process.

A process is said to be adiabatic if no heat enters or leaves the system during any step of the process. Suppose a process by a chemical reaction is carried out in an isolated vessels.

In this case, No Heat can leave or enter the vessels, from the surroundings. If the process is exothermic a heat evolved remain the system therefore the temperature of the system rises.

In other hand the process is endothermic the heat is observed from the system, therefore the temperature of the system falls, such a system is called adiabatic system and process is called adiabatic process.

State and path function :

A state function are variables (P, V, T) which are determined only by the initial and final state of the system and not by the path followed during the change initial to final state.

First law of Thermodynamic ::

Difference forms of energy

* Kinetic energy

* Potential energy.

* Chemical energy.

* Nuclear energy.

* Electrical energy.

* Mechanical energy.

First Law

Although the energy may be converted from one form to another. It can't be created or destroyed.

$$\Delta E = q - W$$

ΔE - Internal energy change

q - Heat observed the System

W - Work done of the System

Other state 1st law

The energy may change from one to another, the total amount of it in an isolated system always remains unchanged

Internal Energy:

i) Every substance is associated with a certain amount of energy is known as internal energy.

ii) It is denoted by E .

iii) Internal energy of a substance is due to its molecular constitution and the motion of the molecules.

iv) The contributed of the states factors are internal potential energy and internal kinetic energy.

Internal Energy = Internal potential

Energy + Internal kinetic energy

v) Internal energy of a system where is varies with the temperature, volume, pressure, chemical composition

vi) The absolute value of the internal energy of the system can't be determined.

vii) But, the change ⁱⁿ of the internal energy of the system (ΔE)

viii) It can be measured (changes in Pressure, temperature, Volume)

$$\Delta E = E_2 - E_1$$

E_1, E_2 = Internal Energy of a System initial and Final States
 ΔE - change in Internal Energy.

Internal Energy changes of the System depends upon the initial and Final State of the System.

It is independent of path.

Enthalpy [H]

In Chemistry generally the operations are carried out in open vessels at constant pressure.

$$\Delta E = Q - P$$

According to 1st law.

$$\Delta E = Q - W$$

$$\Delta E = Q - P\Delta V$$

$$E_2 - E_1 = Q - P\Delta V \quad \therefore \Delta V = V_2 - V_1$$

$$= Q - P(V_2 - V_1)$$

$$= Q - PV_2 + PV_1$$

$$Q = E_2 - E_1 + PV_2 - PV_1$$

$$Q = (E_2 + PV_2) - (E_1 + PV_1)$$

The quantity on the right hand side of the above equation are state function of the system. So New State function is called Enthalpy is defined as follows.

$$H = E + PV$$

$$Q = H_2 - H_1$$

$$Q = \Delta H$$

$$= \Delta H_p$$

The change in enthalpy at constant pressure (ΔH_p) is equal to Heat observed by a system in a process at constant pressure.

The varies with P, V, T and constant depends upon concentration of the solution.

It is not possible to determine the absolute value of enthalpy of the system.

The change in any variables of the system can be measured.

Relation between ΔH & ΔE .

$$\Delta H = \Delta E + p\Delta V$$

at constant pressure.

$$dH = dE + p dv.$$

$$\Delta H = Q - p\Delta v$$

$$\Delta V = 0 \text{ (constant Volume)}$$

$$\Delta E_V = Q_V$$

Max Heat Capacity of a gas: at constant pressure: (C_p)

Consider enthalpy of the system as a function of pressure and temperature. For a small change in the system, change in enthalpy is given by the complete differential equation

$$dH = \left(\frac{\partial H}{\partial p}\right)_T dp + \left(\frac{\partial H}{\partial T}\right)_p dT$$

In a constant pressure process, $dp = 0$

$$\therefore dH = \left(\frac{\partial H}{\partial T}\right)_p dT \quad \text{--- (1)}$$

and

Heat capacity

$$dH = q_p \quad ; \quad q_p = \left(\frac{\partial H}{\partial T}\right)_p dT$$

$$\frac{q_p}{dT} = \left(\frac{\partial H}{\partial T}\right)_p, \quad dT = C_p$$

C_p is the Molar Heat Capacity of a gas at constant pressure

Definition:

$$C_p = \frac{q_p}{dT}$$

The Molar Heat Capacity of a gas at constant pressure is defined as the amount of heat required to raise the temperature of one mole of the gas at constant pressure through one degree

Thermodynamic definition

$$C_p = \left(\frac{dH}{dT} \right)_p$$

H - enthalpy

The Molar Heat Capacity of a gas at constant pressure is thermodynamically defined as the rate of change of enthalpy with temperature at constant pressure.

Relationship between ΔH and C_p

Consider enthalpy of the system as a function of pressure and temperature

Relationship between ΔH and C_p .

$$\text{From definition } \left(\frac{dH}{dT}\right)_P = C_p \quad \text{--- (3)}$$

At constant pressure $dH = C_p dT$

This is for a small change

$$\text{For a finite change } \Delta H = C_p (T_2 - T_1) \quad \text{--- (4)}$$

Molar Heat capacity of a gas at constant volume - C_v

Consider internal energy of a system as a function of volume and temperature

$$E = f(V, T)$$

When there is a change in state of system, internal energy change is given by the following complete differential equation

$$dE = \left(\frac{\partial E}{\partial V}\right)_T dV + \left(\frac{\partial E}{\partial T}\right)_V dT \quad \text{--- (5)}$$

According to first law

$$dE = q - w$$

$$q - w = dE \quad \text{--- (6)}$$

Substituting (6) in (5)

$$q - w = \left(\frac{\partial E}{\partial V}\right)_T dV + \left(\frac{\partial E}{\partial T}\right)_V dT$$

At constant Volume $dv=0$, $w=0$

$$\therefore q_v = \left(\frac{dE}{dT} \right)_v dT$$

$$\frac{q_v}{dT} = \left(\frac{dE}{dT} \right)_v = C_v \quad \text{--- (7)}$$

Here C_v is the Molar heat Capacity of a gas at constant Volume

Definition

$$C_v = \frac{q_v}{dT}$$

The Molar Heat Capacity of a gas at constant Volume is defined as Heat required to raise the temperature at constant Volume

Relationship between ΔE and C_v

From definition $\left(\frac{dE}{dT} \right)_v = C_v$

$$\therefore \text{At constant Volume } dE = C_v dT \quad \text{--- (8)}$$

This is for a small change. For a finite change

$$\Delta E = C_v (T_2 - T_1) \quad \text{--- (9)}$$

Relationship between C_p and C_v

Molar Heat Capacity of a gas depends upon pressure and temperature. Molar Heat Capacity at constant pressure is denoted as C_p and at constant volume as C_v . The relation between C_p and C_v is obtained as follows

$$E = f(v, T)$$

$$dE = \left(\frac{\partial E}{\partial T}\right)_v dT + \left(\frac{\partial E}{\partial v}\right)_T dv$$

$$dE = C_v dT + \left(\frac{\partial E}{\partial v}\right)_T dv \quad \text{--- (i)}$$

According to first law $dE = q - P_{op} dv$

$$q = dE + P_{op} dv \quad \text{--- (ii)}$$

Substituting (i) in (ii)

$$q = C_v dT + \left(\frac{\partial E}{\partial v}\right)_T dv + P_{op} dv \quad \text{--- (iii)}$$

If $P_{op} = P$ for constant pressure process

$$q_p = C_v (dT)_p + \left(\frac{\partial E}{\partial v}\right)_T (dv)_p + P (dv)_p$$

dividing by $(dT)_p$

$$\left(\frac{q}{dT}\right)_p = C_v + \left(\frac{\partial E}{\partial v}\right)_T \left(\frac{dv}{dT}\right)_p + P \left(\frac{dv}{dT}\right)_p$$

$$C_p = C_v + \left(\frac{\partial E}{\partial V} \right)_T \left(\frac{\partial V}{\partial T} \right)_P + P \left(\frac{\partial V}{\partial T} \right)_P$$

$$C_p - C_v = \left[P + \left(\frac{\partial E}{\partial V} \right)_T \right] \left(\frac{\partial V}{\partial T} \right)_P \quad \text{--- (12)}$$

This is a general Expression. For an ideal gas

$$\left(\frac{\partial E}{\partial V} \right)_T = 0 \quad \text{--- (13)}$$

and

$$PV = RT$$

$$\frac{V}{T} = \frac{R}{P} \quad \text{--- (14)}$$

differentiating at constant P

$$\left(\frac{\partial V}{\partial T} \right)_P = \frac{R}{P}$$

Substituting (13) and (14) in (12)

$$C_p - C_v = R$$

This is the relation between C_p and C_v

The difference between C_p and C_v is equal to the gas constant.

calculation of $w, q, dE (du)$ and dH for the expansion of ideal and real gases - Under isothermal and adiabatic conditions for reversible process.

Work done during isothermal changes for ideal gases.

According to First law of Thermodynamics

$$\Delta E = Q - W$$

For an isothermal process $\Delta E = 0$

$$\therefore Q = W$$

i.e., For an isothermal process

Heat absorbed = Work done

The magnitude of w or q depends on the manner in which the process is carried out. i.e., whether it is carried out reversibly or irreversibly

Work done during isothermal reversible (process) expansion of an ideal gas.

$$\text{Expressions : } W = 2.303 nRT \log \frac{V_2}{V_1}$$

or

$$W = 2.303 nRT \log \frac{P_1}{P_2}$$

For one mole of an ideal gas

$$W = 2.303 RT \log \frac{V_2}{V_1}$$

or

$$W = 2.303 RT \log \frac{P_1}{P_2}$$

Derivation

When the isothermal expansion is carried out reversibly, work done can be obtained as follows

$$W = P_{op} dv$$

For reversible expansion

$$P_{op} = P$$

$$W = P dv$$

If n mole of ideal gas is taken P is $\frac{nRT}{V}$

Substituting the value of P

$$W = \frac{nRT}{V} dv$$

Integration of the equation gives the definite quantity of work done in a reversible isothermal expansion of an ideal gas

$$W = nRT \int_{V_1}^{V_2} \frac{dv}{V} = nRT \ln \frac{V_2}{V_1}$$

$$W = 2.303 nRT \log \frac{V_2}{V_1}$$

Replacing V with $\frac{RT}{P}$ we get the following Expression of the work done in a reversible isothermal Expansion of an ideal gas

$$W = 2.303 nRT \log \frac{P_1}{P_2}$$

Work done during adiabatic changes for ideal gases

Since in an adiabatic process no Heat is absorbed or evolved $Q = 0$

From first law of thermodynamics

$$\Delta E = Q - W$$

$$Q = 0$$

$$\Delta E = -W$$

$$W = -\Delta E$$

$$\Delta E = C_V \Delta T$$

$$W = -\Delta E = -C_V \Delta T$$

From the above equations, it is clear that in an adiabatic change, ΔE , ΔH and W depends on the Magnitude of ΔT . ΔT depends on the Final Temperature of the process. Final Temperature depends on the Manner in which the process is carried out. i.e. whether it is carried out reversibly or irreversibly. Thus the Magnitude of ΔE , ΔH and W vary with the nature of the process.

Workdone during adiabatic reversible Expansion

(*) of an ideal gas

First law

$$dq = dE + dw$$

$$q = dE + w$$

$$E = f(T, v)$$

$$dE = \left(\frac{dE}{dT}\right)_v dT + \left(\frac{dE}{dv}\right)_T dv$$

$$q = \left(\frac{dE}{dT}\right)_v dT + \left(\frac{dE}{dv}\right)_T dv$$

$$w = pdv$$

$$q = \left(\frac{dE}{dT}\right)_v dT + \left(\frac{dE}{dv}\right)_T dv + pdv \quad \text{--- (1)}$$

Adiabatic changes $q = 0$

$$\text{ideal gas } \left(\frac{dE}{dv}\right)_T = 0$$

$$\left(\frac{dE}{dT}\right)_v = C_v$$

sub (1)

$$0 = C_v dT + 0 + pdv$$

$$pdv = -C_v dT$$

Workdone in an adiabatic Expansion pdv

i.e

$$w = \int pdv$$

$$= - \int_{T_1}^{T_2} c_v dT$$

$$= -c_v [T]_{T_1}^{T_2}$$

$$= -c_v [T_2 - T_1]$$

$$W = c_v [T_1 - T_2]$$

Difference between Reversible and irreversible
Workdone Expansion of ideal gas.

Reversible	Irreversible
i) Work obtainable will be maximum	i) Will not be maximum
ii) It proceeds Very slow	ii) It proceeds in a measurable rate

Difference between Isothermal and adiabatic process.

Property	Isothermal process	adiabatic process.
Temperature	Constant	Changes.
Heat change	$Q = W$, Varies with the Nature of process	$Q = 0$, Varies with the nature of the process.
ΔE	$\Delta E = 0$, Doesn't Varies with the Nature of the process	$\Delta E = -W$, i.e. $= c_v \Delta T$ Varies with the Nature of the process

ΔH	$\Delta H = 0$. Does not Varies with the Nature of the Process	$\Delta H = c_p \Delta T$ Varies with the Nature of the process
Final pressure	More	less
Final Volume	More	less
Work done	More	less

Work done during isothermal and Adiabatic changes for a Real gas.

We know that only ideal gases obey the equation of a state $PV = nRT$. Real gas do not obey this equation at High pressure and low temperature. For real gases, we use van der Waals equation viz.

$$\left(P + \frac{an^2}{V^2} \right) (V - nb) = nRT$$

In this equation the term $\frac{an^2}{V^2}$ is called the internal pressure term. This accounts for the attractive forces between molecules.

Work done in isothermal changes for a real

gas:

We know work done W is given by

$$W = \int p dv$$

from Vander Waal's equation

$$\left(p + \frac{an^2}{v^2} \right) (v - nb) = nRT$$

i.e.

$$p + \frac{an^2}{v^2} = \frac{nRT}{v - nb}$$

or

$$p = \frac{nRT}{v - nb} - \frac{an^2}{v^2}$$

Multiplying by dv

$$p dv = \left(\frac{nRT}{v - nb} dv \right) - \frac{an^2}{v^2} dv$$

i.e.

$$W = \int_{v_1}^{v_2} p dv$$
$$= \int_{v_1}^{v_2} \frac{nRT}{v - nb} dv - an^2 \int_{v_1}^{v_2} \frac{dv}{v^2}$$

$$W = nRT \ln \left(\frac{v_2 - nb}{v_1 - nb} \right) + an^2 \left(\frac{1}{v_2} - \frac{1}{v_1} \right)$$

The above expression gives the work done in isothermal changes for real gases.

Workdone in adiabatic changes for a real gas :-

In an Adiabatic changes the System is thermally insulated so $Q=0$ and Hence $\Delta E = -W$

We know,

$$dE = \left(\frac{\partial E}{\partial T} \right)_V dT + \left(\frac{\partial E}{\partial V} \right)_T dV$$

Substituting

$$\left(\frac{\partial E}{\partial T} \right)_V = nC_V$$

and

$$\left(\frac{\partial E}{\partial V} \right)_T = -\frac{an^2}{V^2}$$

In the above Equation

$$dE = nC_V dT + \frac{an^2}{V^2} dV$$

$$\int_{E_1}^{E_2} dE = nC_V \int_{T_1}^{T_2} dT + an^2 \int_{V_1}^{V_2} \frac{dV}{V^2}$$

$$E_2 - E_1 = \Delta E = nC_V (T_2 - T_1) - an^2 \left(\frac{1}{V_1} - \frac{1}{V_2} \right)$$

$$W = -\Delta E = -nC_V (T_2 - T_1) + an^2 \left(\frac{1}{V_1} - \frac{1}{V_2} \right)$$

The above Expression gives the work done in Adiabatic changes for real gases.

Joule's law:

The energy of the gas is a function of temperature only, it is independent of Volume.

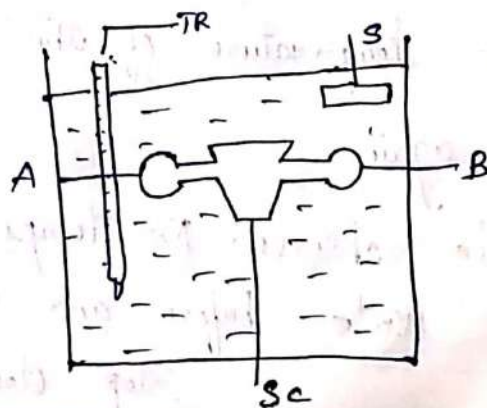
The law may be represented mathematically as $\left(\frac{dE}{dV}\right)_T = 0$

Measurement of $\left(\frac{dE}{dV}\right)_T$ (or) Joule's Experiment:

The Determination of $\left(\frac{dE}{dV}\right)_T$ with readily measurable quantities is not easy.

For gases it can be measured in the principle of Experiment by Joule.

The Apparatus used for the purpose of Measurement.



Two Containers A and B connected through a Stop clock.

A is filled with a gas. At a pressure. B. while B is evacuated (empty)

The Apparatus is immersed in large water dup and is allowed to equilibrate with water at the temperature T

which is read on the thermo meter T_R .

The water is stirred, vigorously (fastly)

After the water equilibrium attained. The stop clock is opened and the gas expands to fill the containers A and B uniformly.

The System is allowed to thermal come to thermal equilibrium with the water dup.

The temperature of the water is read again.

Joule observed no temperature difference in water before and after opening stop clock.

Interpretation of the Experiment

The gas in a container A expands against (zero) opposing pressure. So

No work is produced $w=0$

This called free expansion of gas.

According to the first law

$$dE = q - w$$

$$dE = q - 0$$

$$dE = q$$

We know that.

$$dE = \left(\frac{\partial E}{\partial T}\right)_V dT + \left(\frac{\partial E}{\partial V}\right)_T dV$$

$$dV = 0 ; dV \neq 0$$

$$dE = \left(\frac{\partial E}{\partial T}\right)_V ; dE = \left(\frac{\partial E}{\partial V}\right)_T$$

Limitation,

* The Joule Thomson Experiment is not correct real gas

* The Joule's apparatus the large Heat capacity at the dup.

* The ideal gas obey Joule's law

Temperature dependence of ΔH - Kirchhoff's equation
thermodynamic derivation:

Heat of reaction at constant pressure can be expressed in terms of molar enthalpies of reactants and products.

$$\Delta H_P = H_P - H_R$$

Differentiating this equation with respect to temperature

$$\frac{d\Delta H}{dT} = \frac{dH_P}{dT} - \frac{dH_R}{dT} \quad \text{--- (1)}$$

We know that,

$$\frac{dH_P}{dT} = (C_P)_P$$

$$\frac{dH_R}{dT} = (C_P)_R$$

Substituting these above values in (1)

$$\frac{d\Delta H}{dT} = (C_P)_P - (C_P)_R$$

$$\frac{d\Delta H}{dT} = \Delta C_P$$

Equation 2 is the Mathematical Expression of Kirchhoff's equation. Rearrangement Kirchhoff's equation

$$d\Delta H = \Delta c_p dt$$

Ed Integrating between two temperature

$$\int_{H_1}^{H_2} d\Delta H = \int_{T_1}^{T_2} \Delta c_p dt$$

$$\Delta H_2 - \Delta H_1 = \int_{T_1}^{T_2} \Delta c_p dt$$

For a small temperature difference, Δc_p may be taken as a constant

$$\therefore \Delta H_2 - \Delta H_1 = \Delta c_p (T_2 - T_1)$$

$$\Delta H_2 = \Delta H_1 + \Delta c_p (T_2 - T_1) \quad - (3)$$

Equation 3 is the integrated form of Kirchhoff's equation. This is another mathematical expression of Kirchhoff's equation.

Unit - III

Chemistry of alcohols, phenols, and Ether.

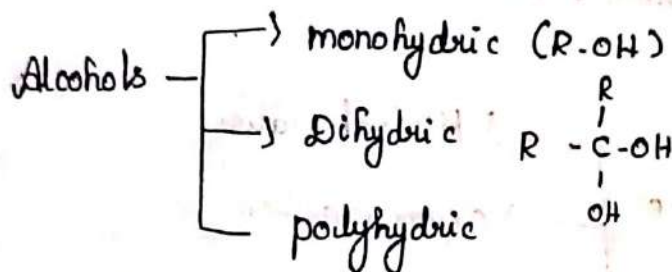
Alcohols:

Compounds which contains hydroxyl group as a functional groups. (R-OH)

↓
(alkyl, aryl)

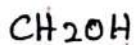


methanol, ethanol, n-propanol.

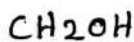


Dihydric

pol



|



(Glycol)

Nomenclature of alcohols.

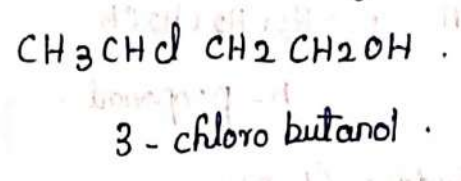
Select the largest carbon chain containing hydroxyl group

Give Number to the compound, carrying OH - group lowest possible numbers.

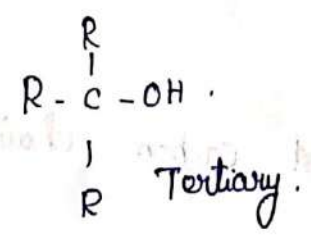
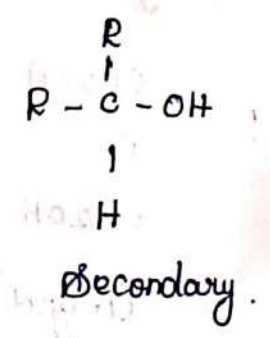
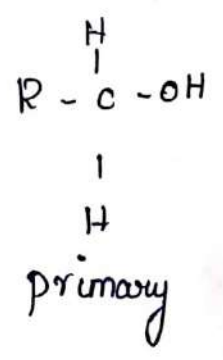
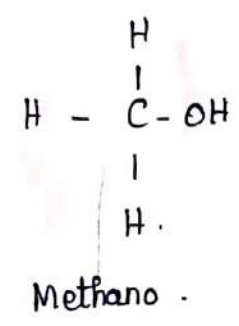
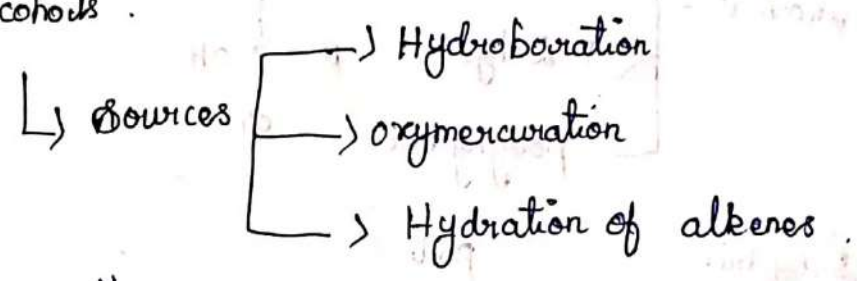
change the corresponding alkane into alcohol. eg: methane \rightarrow +ol.

Give the Numbers for position of Hydroxyl group.

Give Numbering for other Substituents

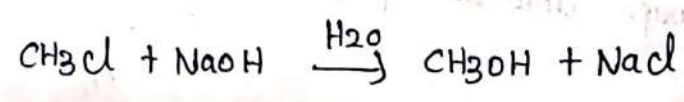
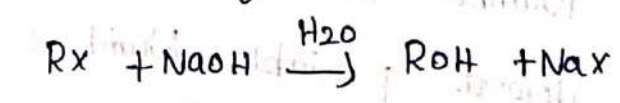


Alcohols.

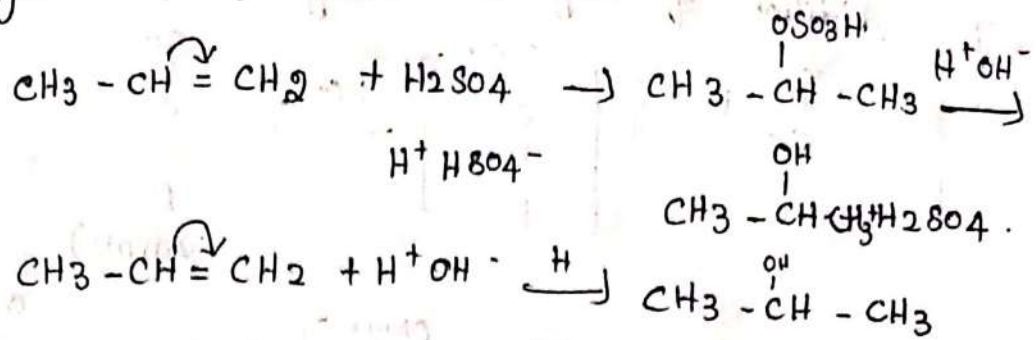


Preparations

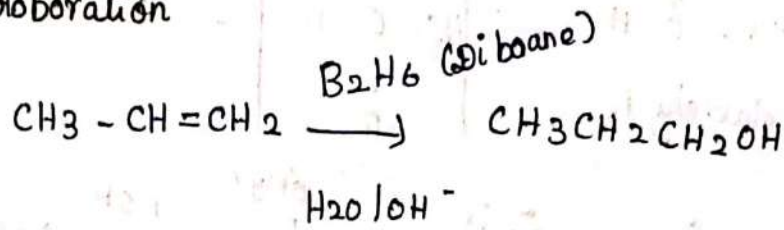
(1) Alkaline Hydrolysis (RX)



2. Hydration of alkenes :-



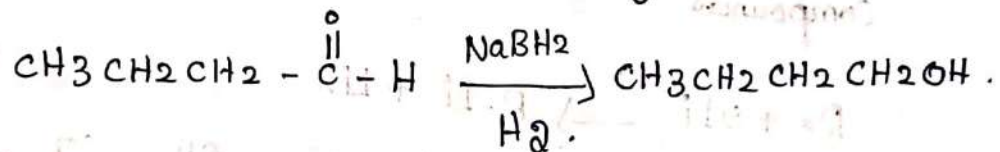
3. Hydroboration



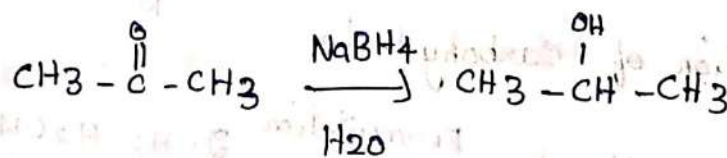
4. Hydrolysis of ester



5. Catalytic hydrogenation of aldehydes



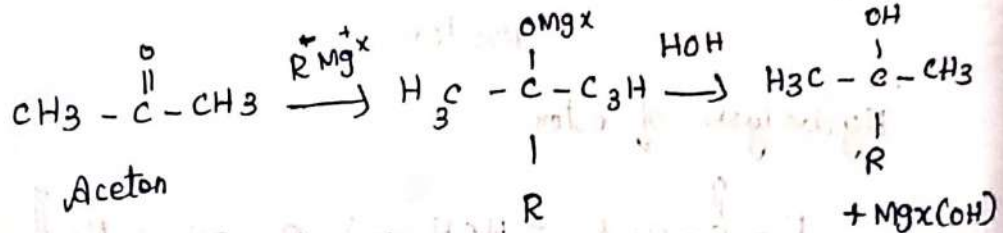
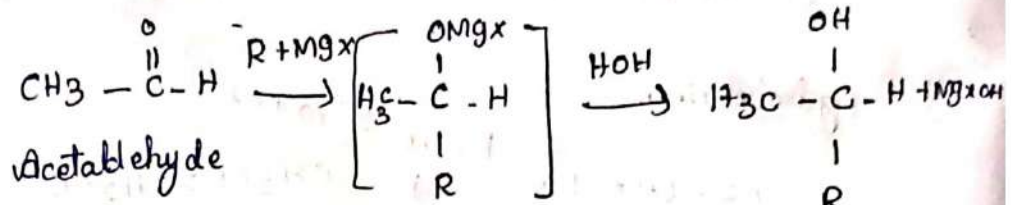
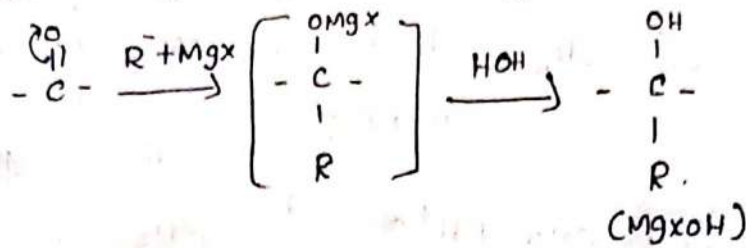
6. Reduction of aldehydes and ketones with metal hydrides



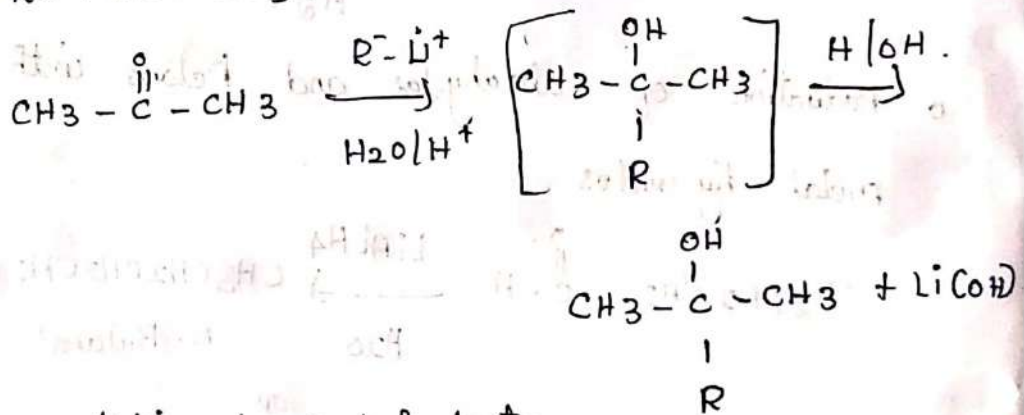
7. Hydrolysis of acid halides and anhydrides



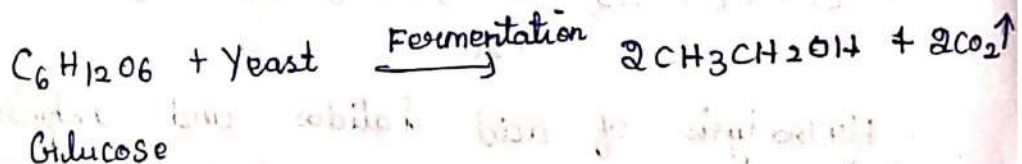
7. Addition of $RMgX$ to carbonyl compounds



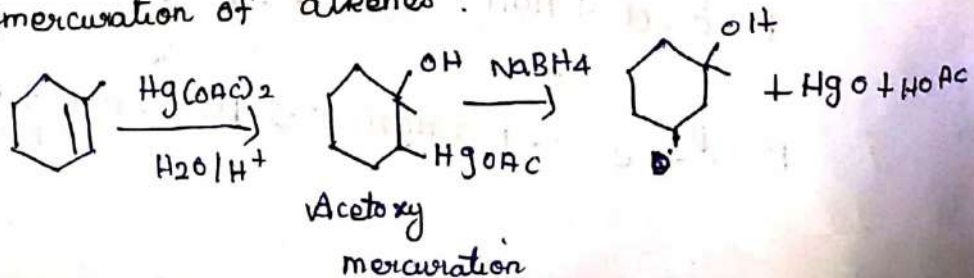
8. Reaction of lithium compounds with carbonyl compounds



9. Fermentation of carbohydrate



10. oxymercuration of alkenes:



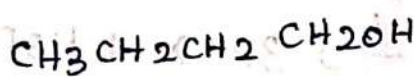
Physical properties:-

* lower alcohols are colourless toxic liquids.

* They have characteristic smell

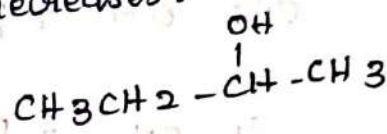
* Boiling point increases with increasing molecular weight.

* Among isomeric alcohol branching increases boiling point decreases.



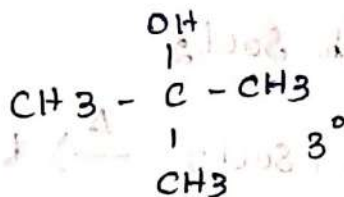
1-butanol 1°

B.P. -118°C



2-butanol

98°C



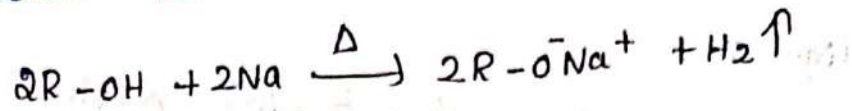
* Boiling point of alcohols are higher than the corresponding alkanes. due to the hydrogen bonding

* lower alcohols are soluble in water.

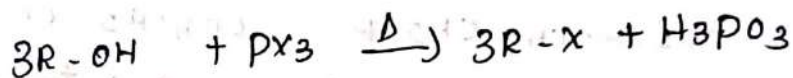
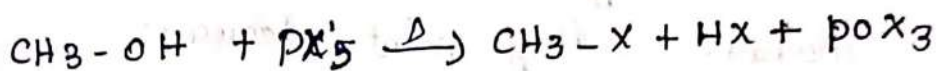
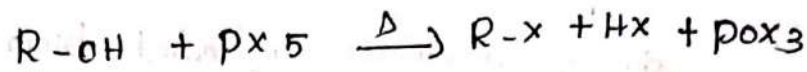
As we go higher alcohols are not soluble in water.

Chemical properties:-

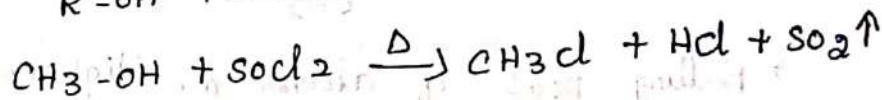
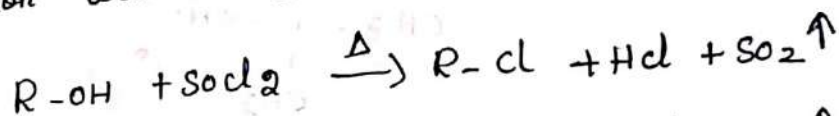
1. Reaction with Active Metals (Na or K)



2. Ald Reaction with PX_5 and PX_3



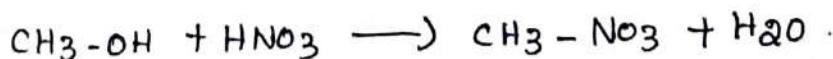
3. Reaction with $SOCl_2$



4. Reaction with HX



5. Reaction with HNO_3

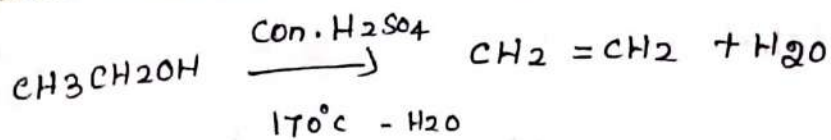


Alkyl nitrates

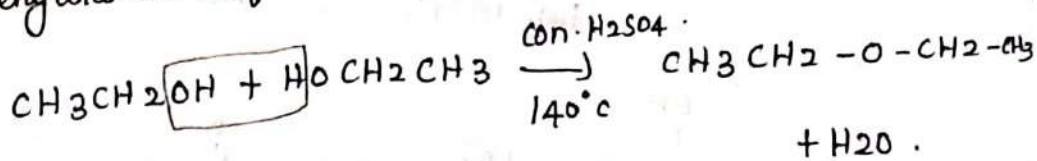
6. Reaction with H_2SO_4



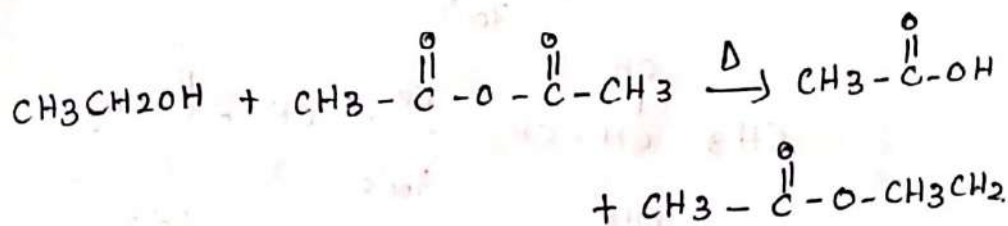
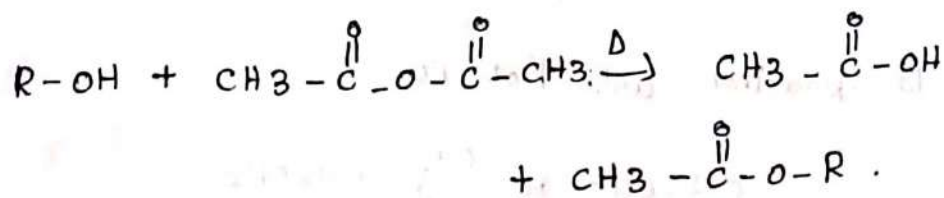
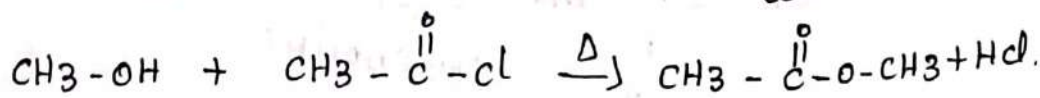
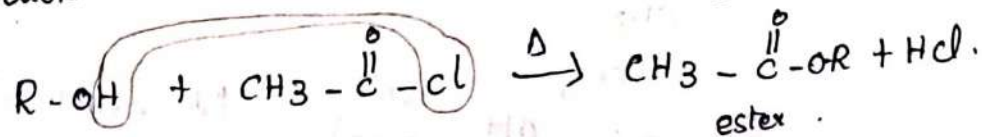
Alkyl hydrogen Sulphate



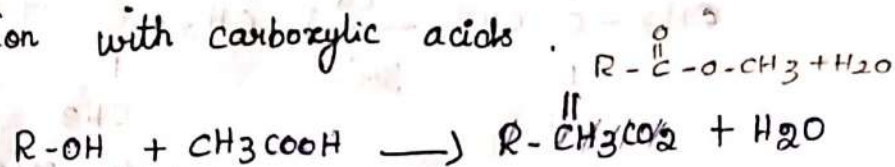
7. Dehydration of alcohols to ethers .



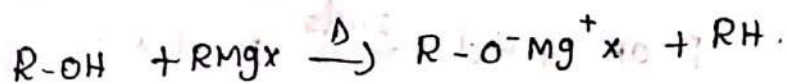
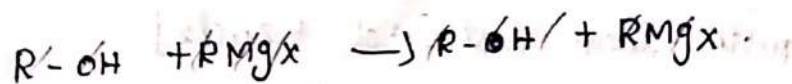
8. Reaction with acid chloride and Anhydride .



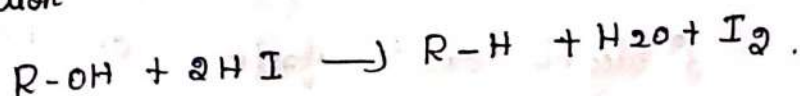
9. Reaction with carboxylic acids .



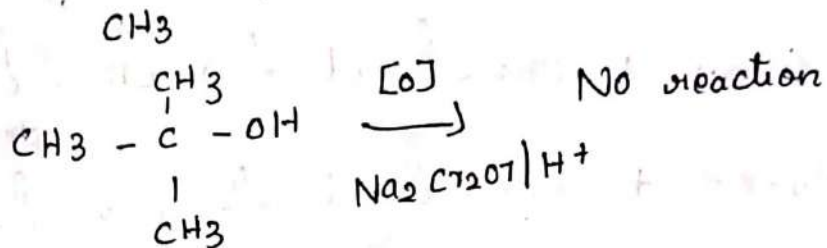
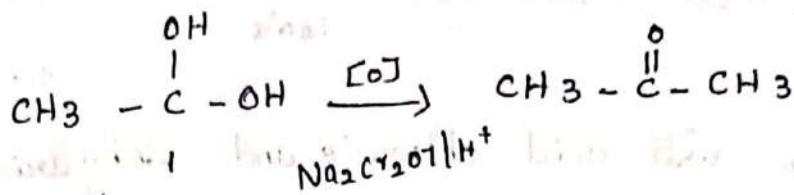
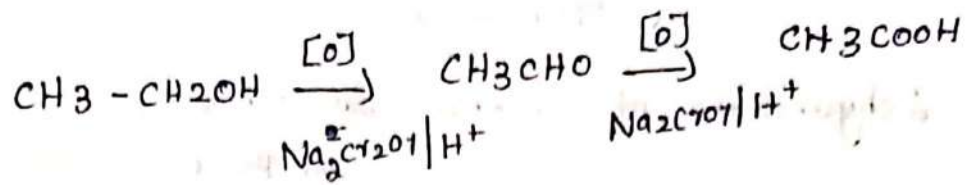
10. Reaction with grignard reagents .



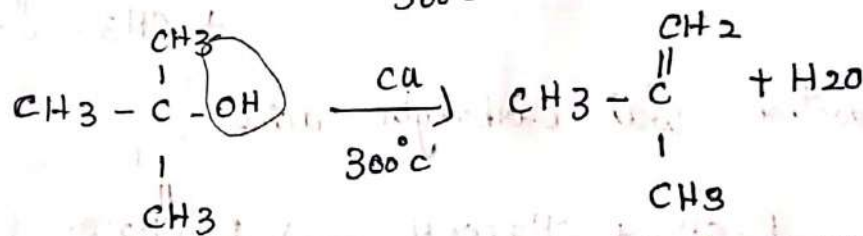
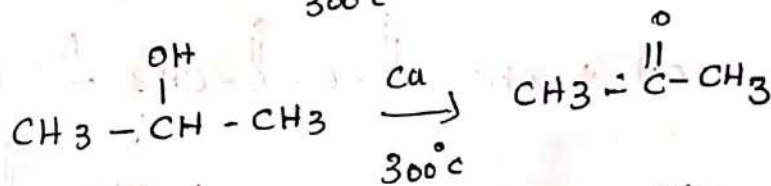
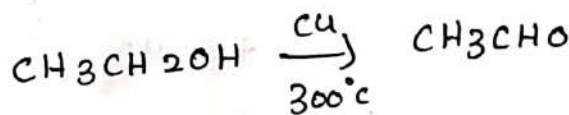
11. Reduction



12. Oxidation :



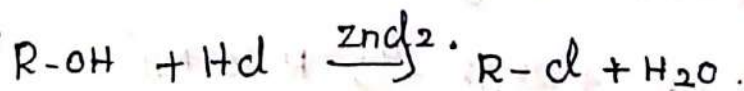
13. Reaction with Hot Cu



2-methyl propene

Distinction of 1°, 2°, 3° alcohols

i) with Lucas test $[\text{HCl} + \text{ZnCl}_2]$



↓

(cloudiness)

3° alcohols reacts faster with Lucas

reagent cloudiness appears immediately.

2° alcohols reacts slower than 3° alcohols
with Lucas reagent cloudiness appears after 5 min
 1° alcohols reacts slower than 2°
alcohols at room temperature with Lucas
reagent. No cloudiness appears.

Uses of alcohols :-

Methanol (uses)

1. It is used as a solvent for paints & varnishes
It is used as an antifreeze for automobile

Radiators

To denature ethyl alcohols
Used for the manufacture of formaldehyde
Used as a fuel.

Ethanol (uses)

It is used as a solvents and varnishes,
Industrial solvent.

It is used as an antifreeze for automobile
Radiators.

It is used to prepare alcoholic beverages.

It is used to prepare drugs and
Perfumes.

It is used as an antiseptic in Hospitals

It is used as a preservative for Biological Specimens.

It is used to prepare acetaldehyde, ethyl acetate, acetic acid.

Absolute alcohol (100% alcohol).

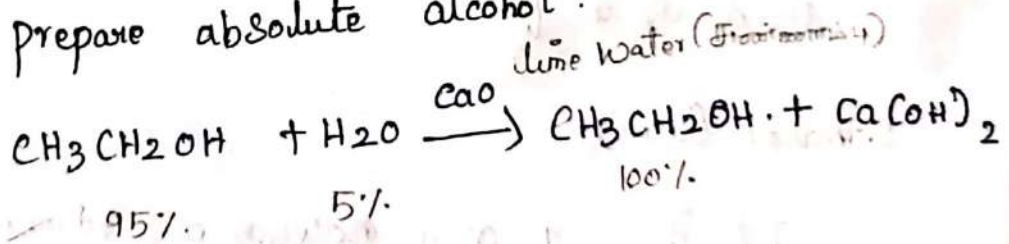
It is 100% pure alcohol. is called Absolute alcohol.

100% ethyl alcohol.

Rectified alcohol

95% ethyl alcohol + 5% H₂O.

To prepare absolute alcohol.



Denatured alcohols:

It is a commercial ethyl alcohol in which small amounts of poisonous substances have been added to the alcohol.

Methyl or Methanol (or) pyridine

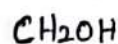
Diols

Compound which contains two hydroxyl group are called Diols.

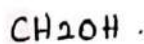
A compounds which contains two hydroxyl group on adjacent carbon are called

Glycols (1,2, diols)

Ethylene glycol or Ethane diol



|

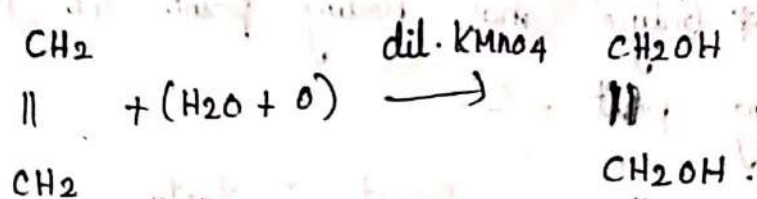


Ethane diol is an example for

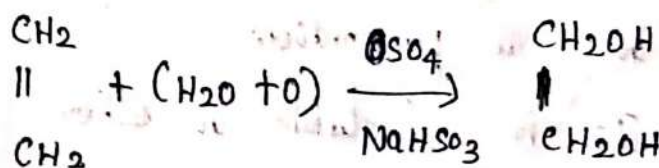
dihydric alcohols.

preparation

1. Oxidation of ethylene with dil. KMnO₄

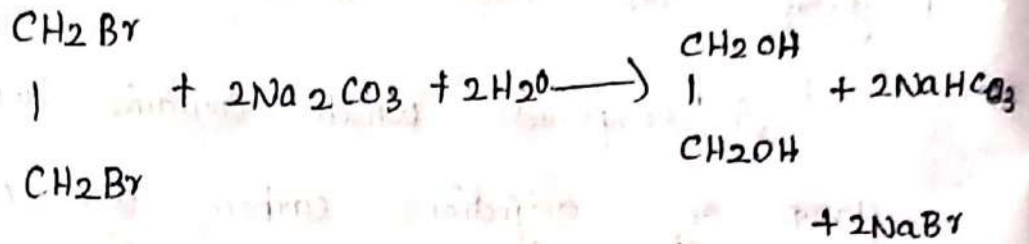


2. Oxidation of ethylene with OsO₄ in the presence of NaHSO₃ (Sodium Hydrogen Sulphide) or Osmium (highest oxidation state)

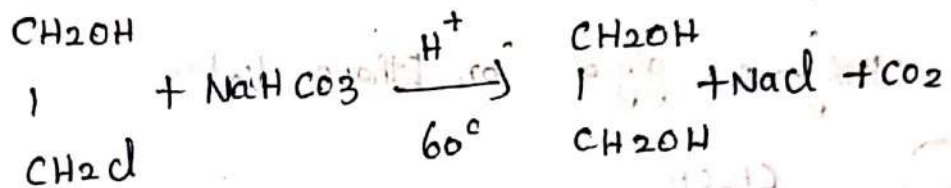


3. Hydrolysis of 1,2-dibromo ethane presence

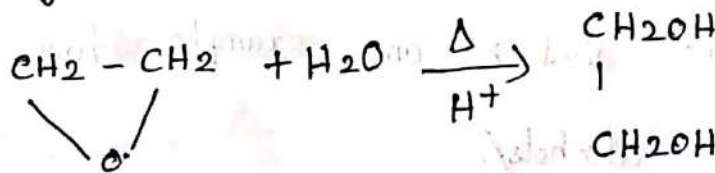
Sodium Carbonate :



4. Reaction of chlorohydrin with NaHCO_3



5. Hydrolysis of ethylene oxide :



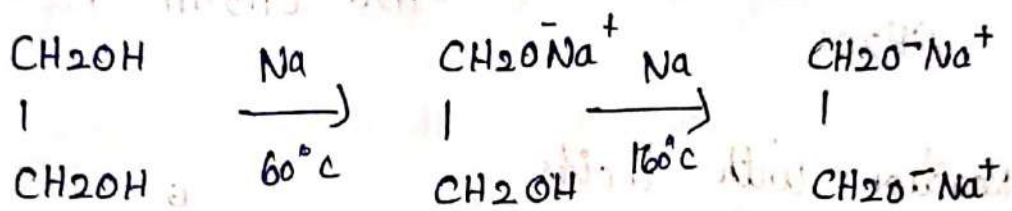
Physical properties :-

- * Glycol is a colorless viscous liquid
- * Glycol has boiling point at 197°C
- Melting point -13°C
- * It is sweet in taste
- * It is hygroscopic in nature It absorbs water easily.
- * It is miscible with water and Methanol in all proportions.
- * It is insoluble in ether.

chemical properties .

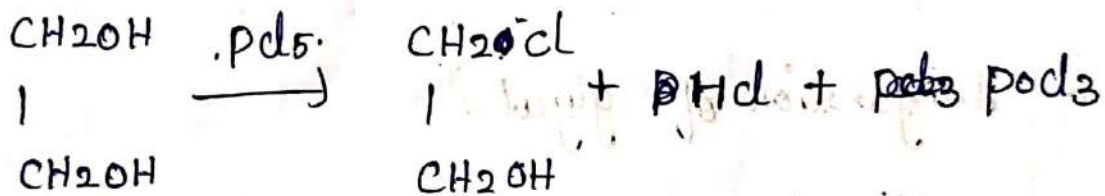
chemical properties of diol is more similar like that of monohydric alcohols but only one OH - group is reacted at a time

1. Reaction with Na

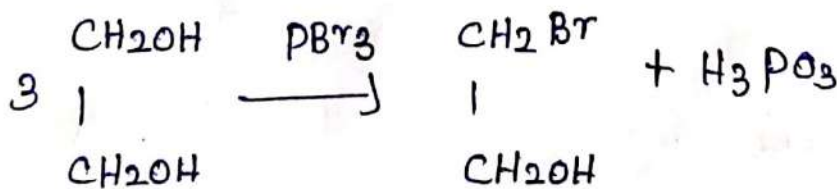


Sodium alfonoxide

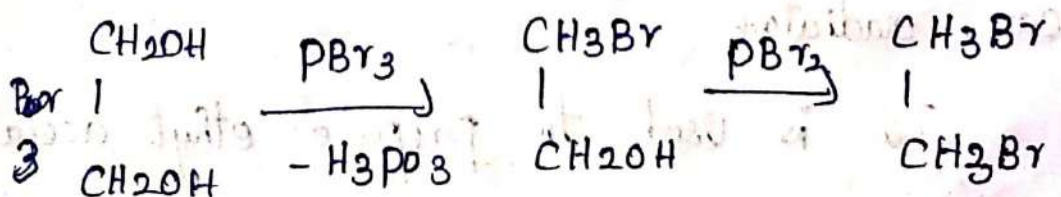
2. Reaction with PCl5



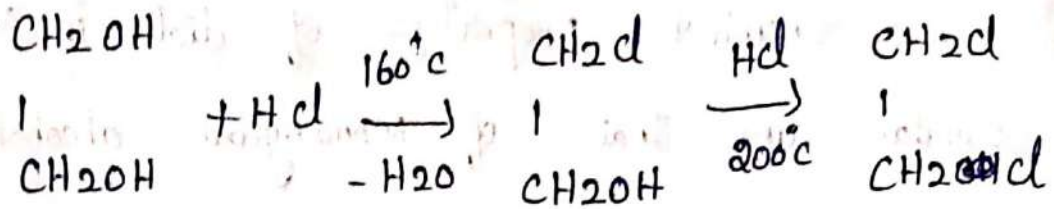
3. Reaction with PBr3



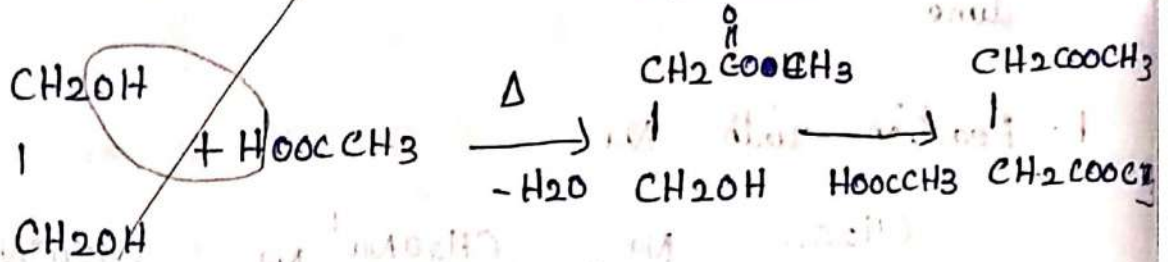
(01)



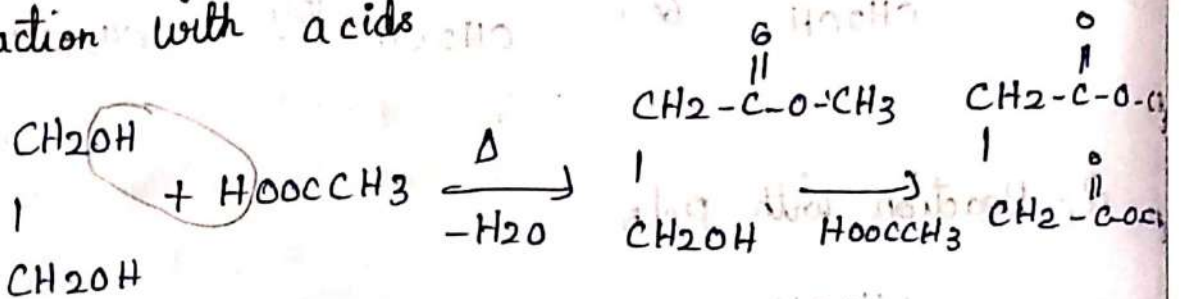
4. Reaction with HCl (HX)



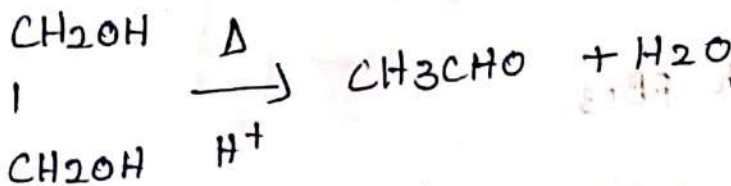
5. Reaction with acids acidic acid weak acid



5. Reaction with acids



6. Dehydration of glycol.

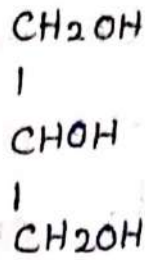


Uses

Glycol is used as an antifreeze for car radiators

It is used to prepare ethyl acetate, ethyl chloride, dichloro ethane and epoxide

Glycerol :- (1, 2, 3 - Propanetriol)



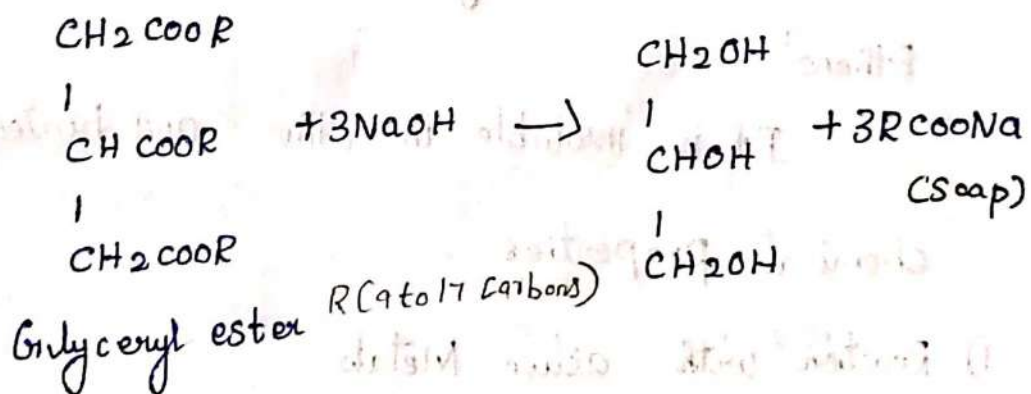
Glycerol is an example for trihydric alcohol

It was formerly known as Glycerine

Glycerol is most found in Natural oils and fats as Glyceryl esters of long chain carboxylic acids. (Palmitic acid, stearic acid, oleic acid)

Preparation

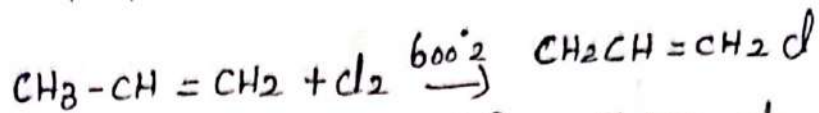
i) From Natural oils and fats :-



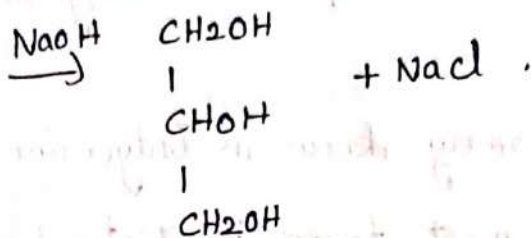
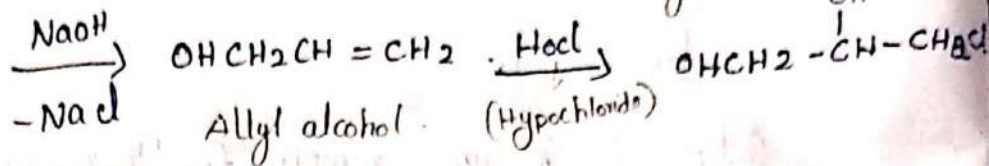
Alkaline Hydrolysis of Glyceryl ester

gives Glycerol.

2. From propene



-HCl . allylchloride



Properties

Physical Properties

Glycerol is a colourless odourless and sweet tasting syrupy liquid

It has Melting at 29°C

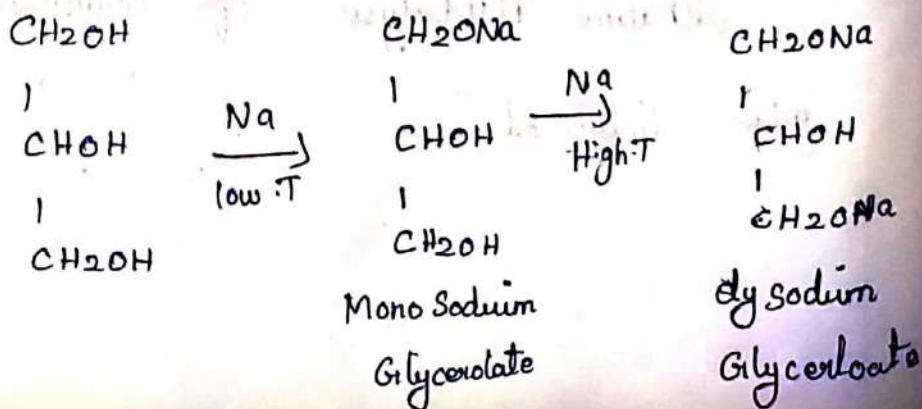
It is readily soluble in Ester and

Ethanol.

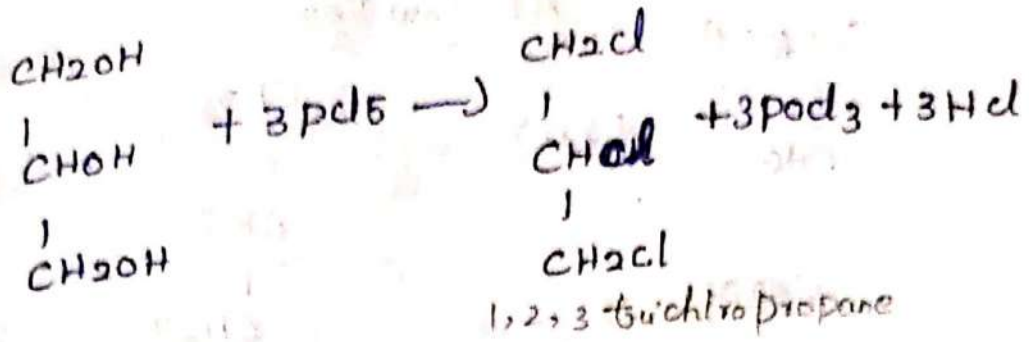
It is insoluble in ether and benzene.

Chemical Properties:

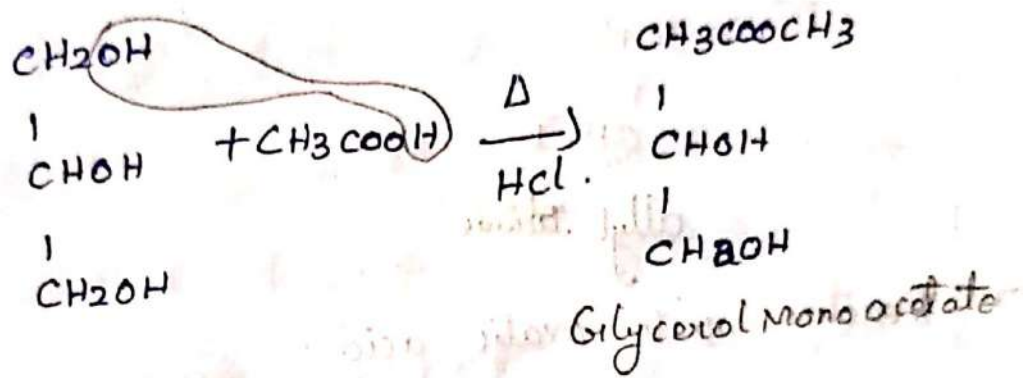
i) Reaction with active Metals:



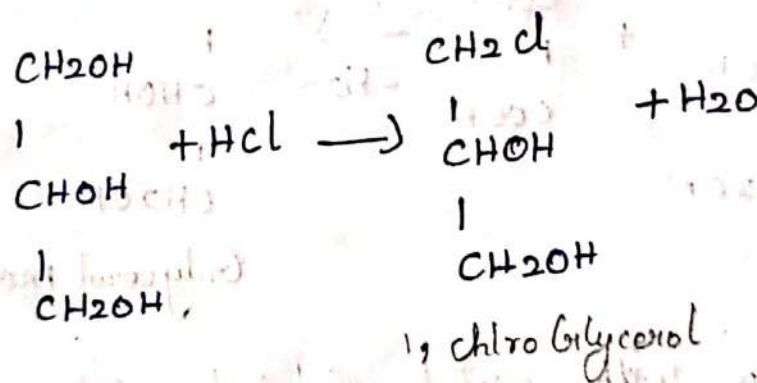
2. Reaction with PCl_5 .



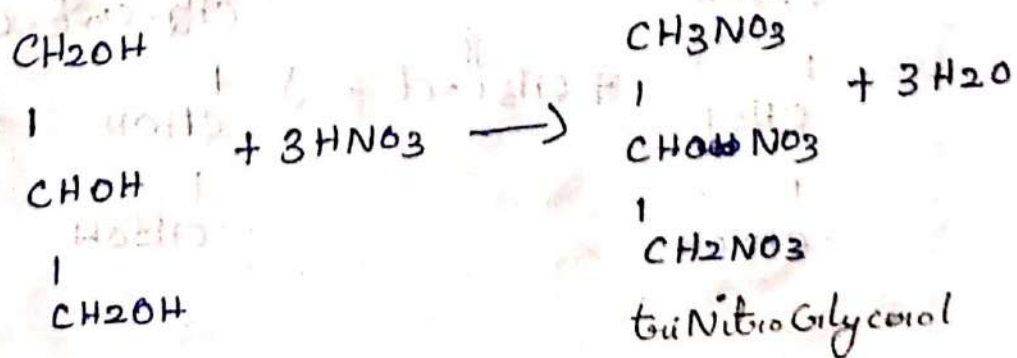
3. Reaction with carboxylic acids.



4. Reaction with HCl .

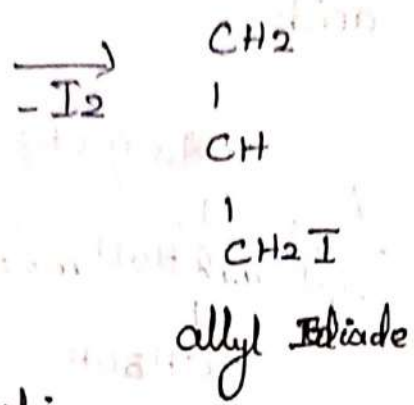
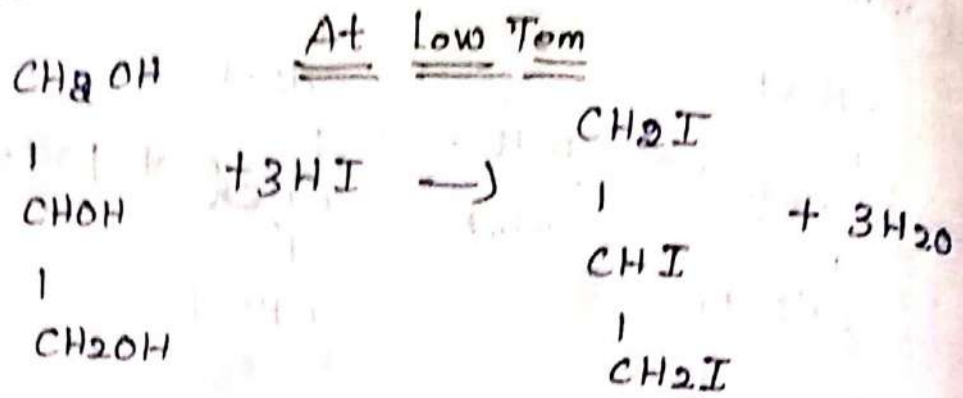


5. Reaction with Nitric acid.

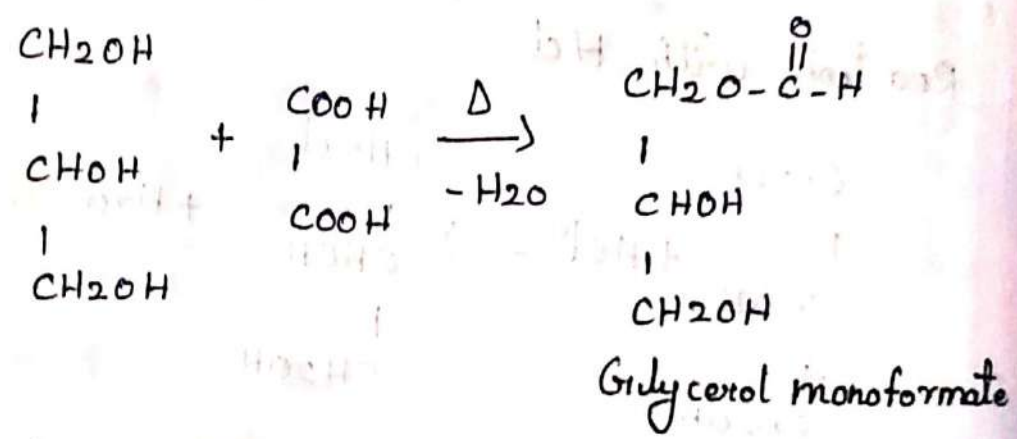


Explosive - வெளிப்படும்.

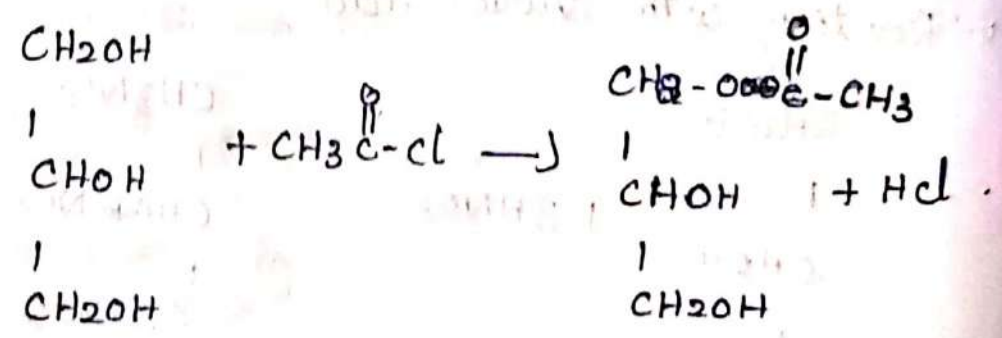
6. Reaction with HI



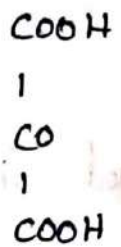
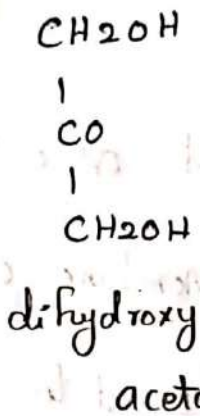
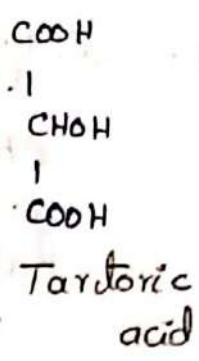
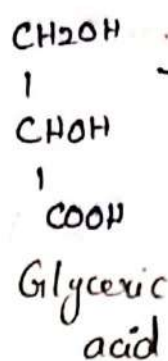
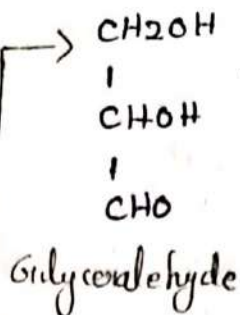
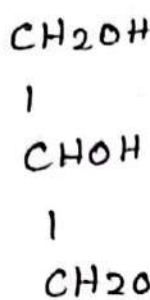
7. Reaction with oxalic acid.



8. Reaction with acetyl chloride.



9. oxidation



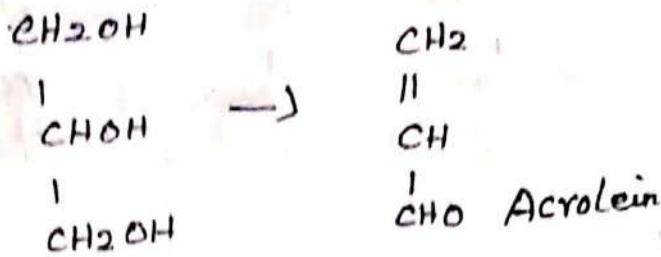
Glycerol on oxidation with dil. HNO_3 to form a Glyceric acid and Tartaric acid.

Glycerol on oxidation with con. HNO_3 to form a Glyceric acid.

Glycerol oxidation with Bismuth Nitrate to give Meso oxalic acid.

Glycerol on oxidation with Fenton Reagent ($\text{FeSO}_4 + \text{H}_2\text{O}_2$) to give a Glyceraldehyde and dihydroxy acetone.

10. Dehydration



Uses

Glycerol is used as a Humectant agent (Retaining - Moisture capacity)

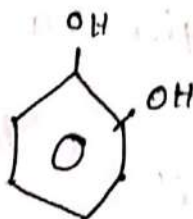
Glycerol is used to prepare bakery products. (Hand lotions, Shaving Creams.)

It is used to prepare Synthetic Polymers, plastics and in some drugs.

Phenols :-

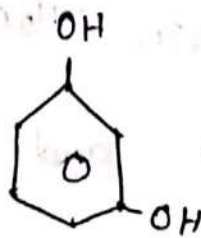
The compound in which -OH is directly attached to aromatic ring is called

Phenols



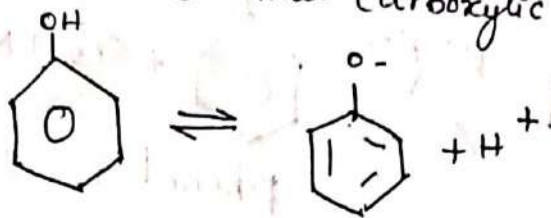
Ortho-Cresol

Catechol

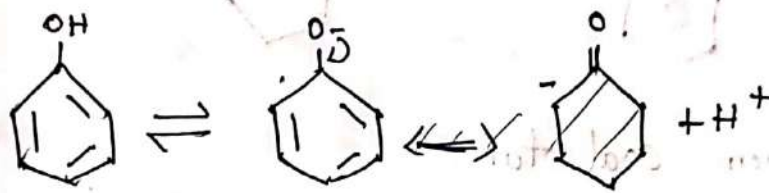


Meta-Cresol.

Phenol is more acidic than alcohol and less acidic than (carboxylic acid why)

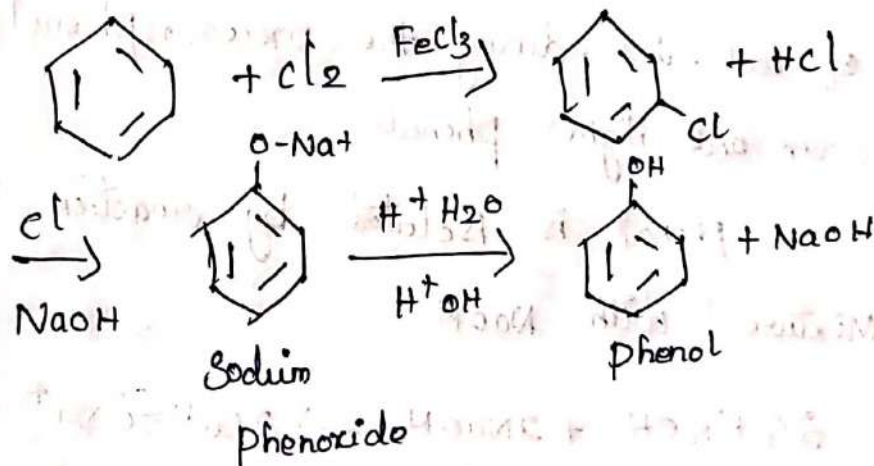


Phenol is acidic due to the formation of stable phenoxide ion in aqueous solution. (Due to the resonance)

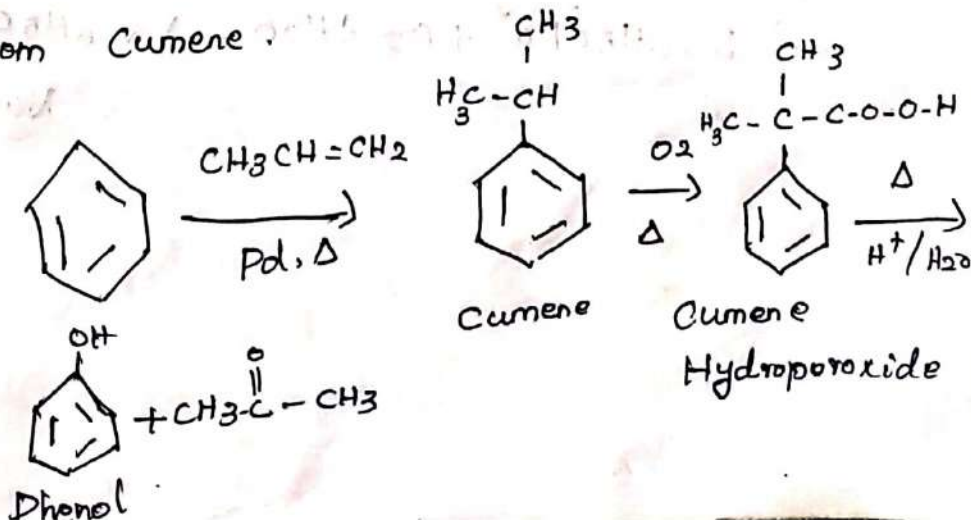


Preparation of Phenol.

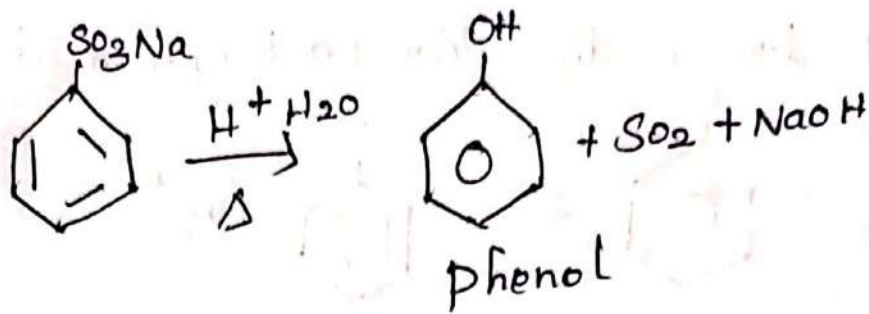
1) From Chlorobenzene (Dow process)



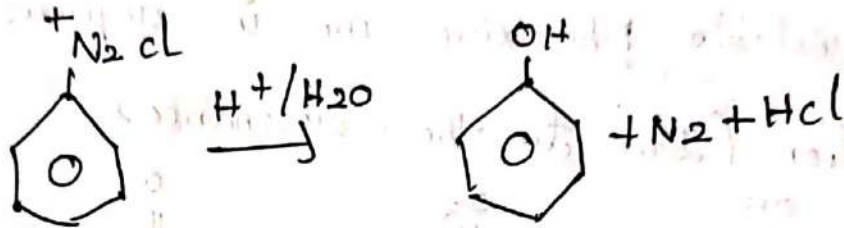
2) From Cumene.



3) From benzene Sodium Sulphonate



4) From benzene diazonium chloride:

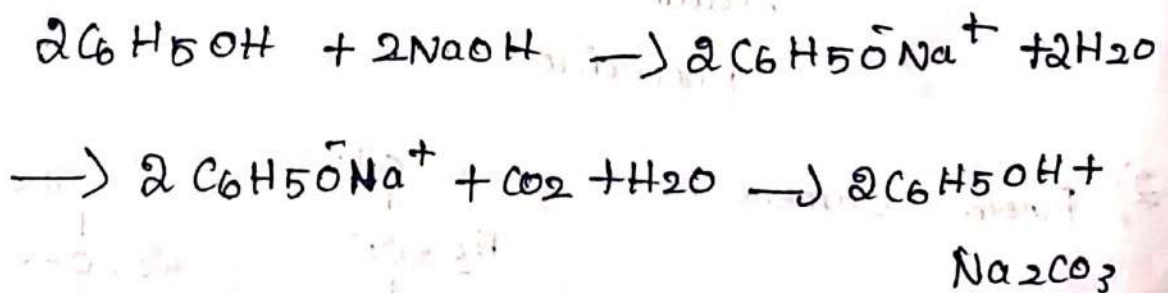


5. From coal-tar :-

Coal-tar produced about 10% of Phenol

It is obtained by middle oil fraction of coal-tar, during the process, phenols, cresols and higher phenols.

Phenol is isolated by reaction the mixture with NaOH.



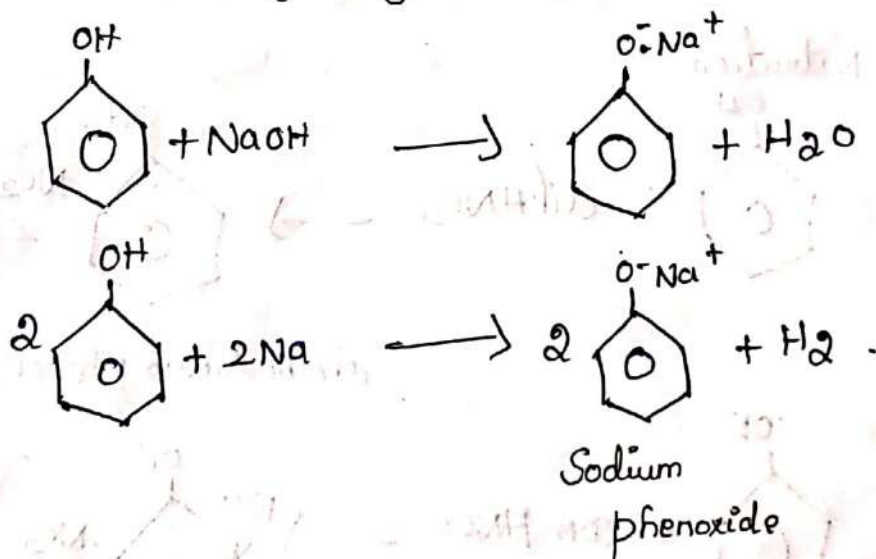
Physical properties :-

- * Phenol is a colourless Crystalline Solid
- * It has Melting point at 42°C , Boiling point at 182°C
- * It is Hygroscopic in Nature
- * It is insoluble in water, Soluble in ethanol and ether
- * It gives blue fluorescent colour in Benzene

* It is Highly toxic, when contact with skin it gives painful blisters.

Chemical properties.

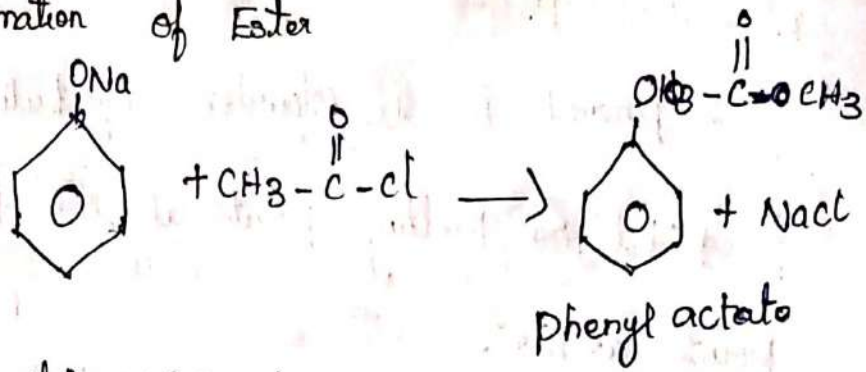
1. Reaction on Hydroxy group :



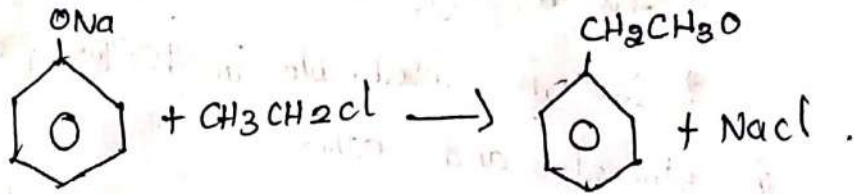
2

Phenol react with neutral Ferric chloride to give a Violet colour Solution.

3. Formation of Ester

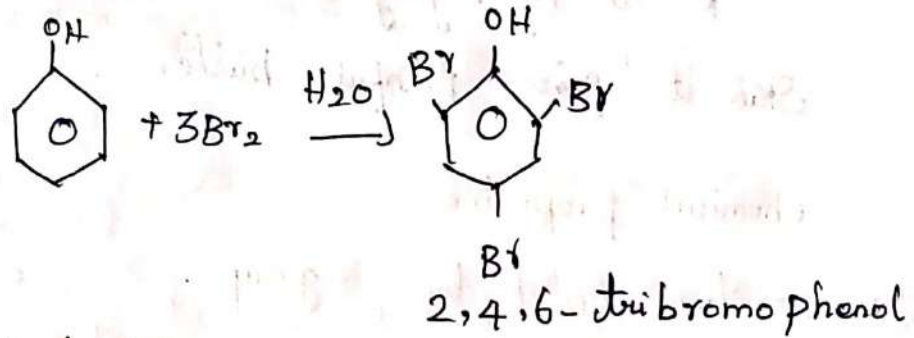


4. Formation of ester

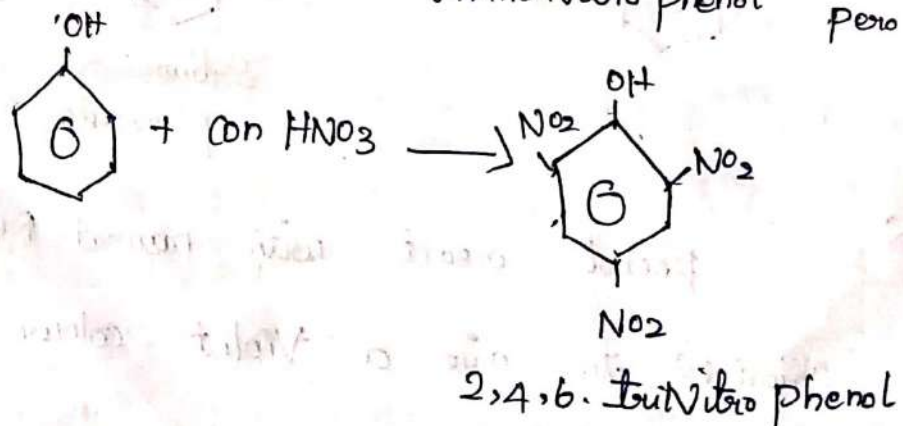
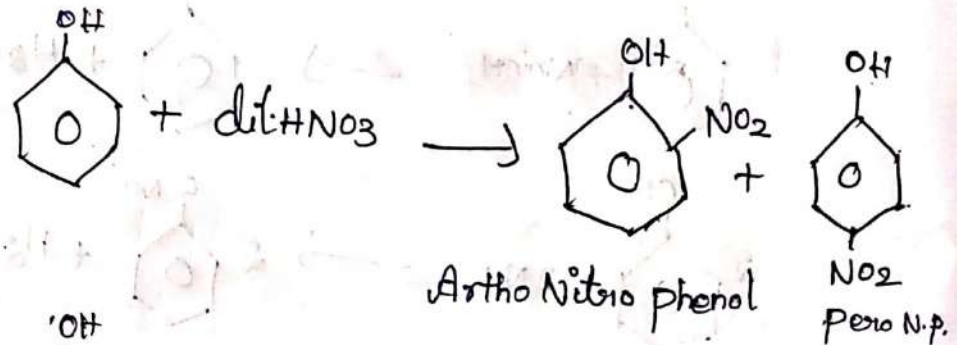


on Benzene ring.

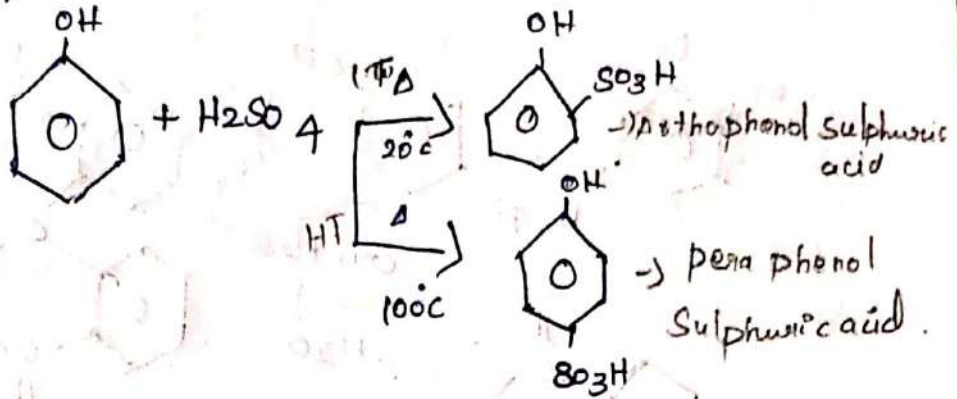
1. Bromination



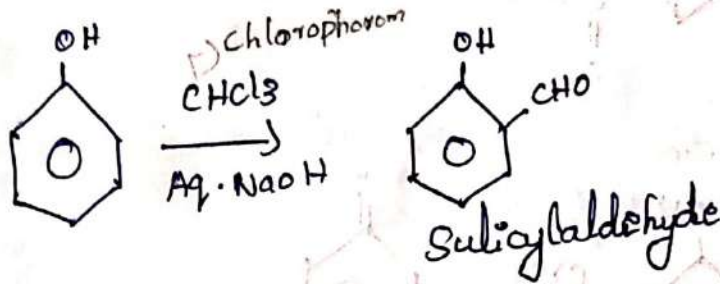
2. Nitration



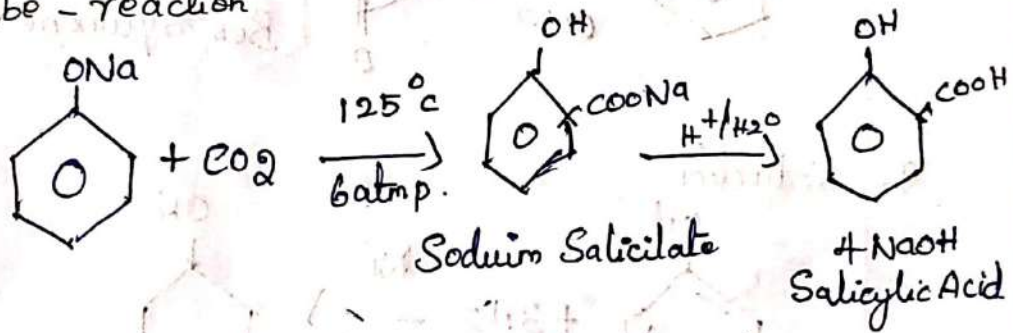
3. Sulphonation



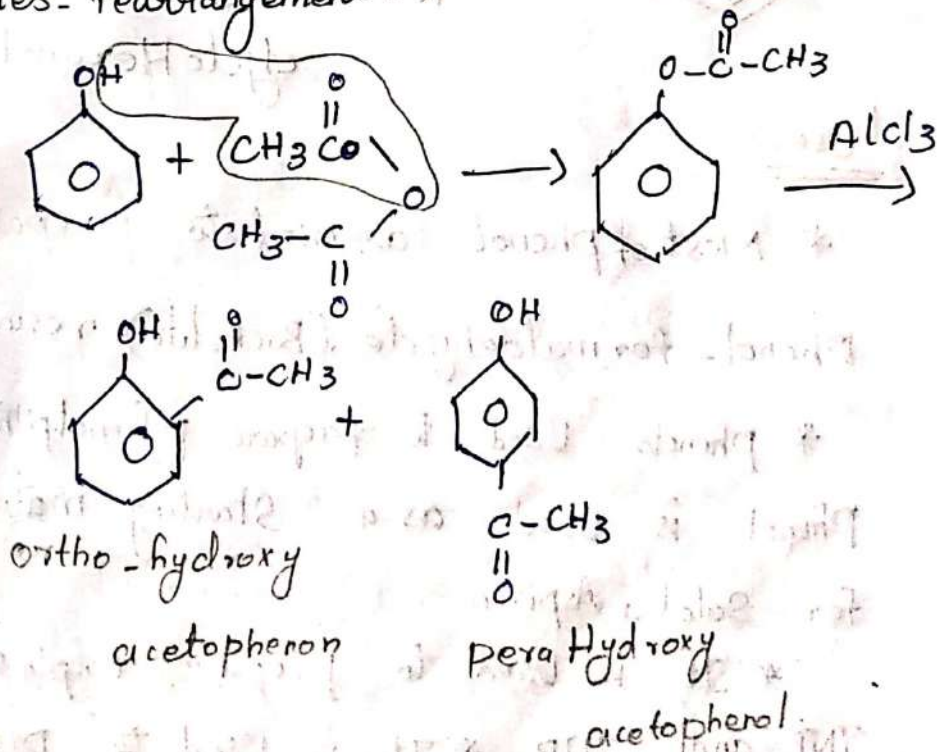
4. Reimer-Tiemann reaction (CHO)



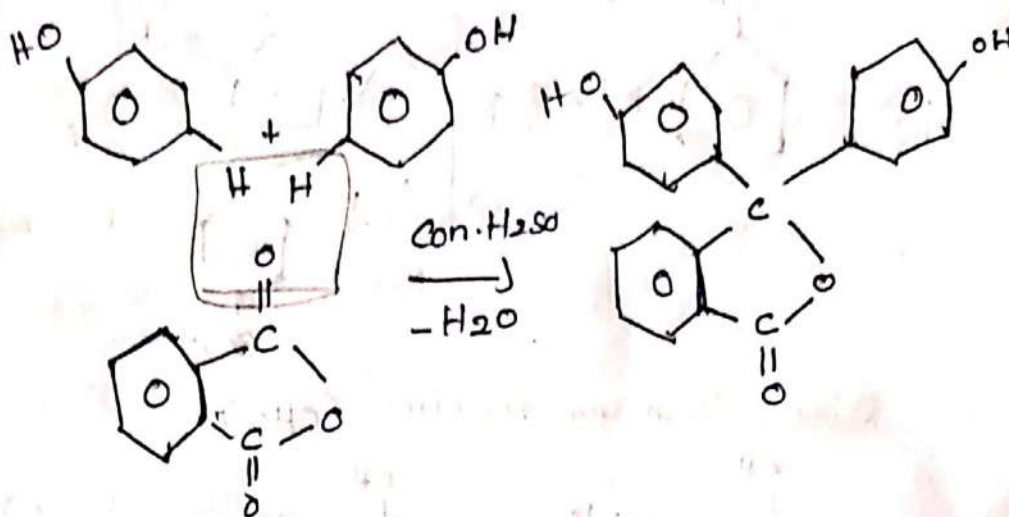
5. Kolbe - reaction



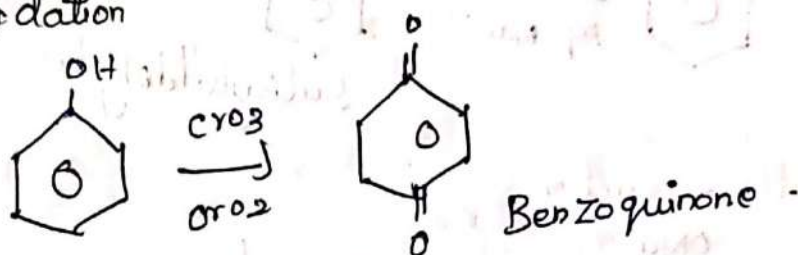
6. Fries - rearrangement



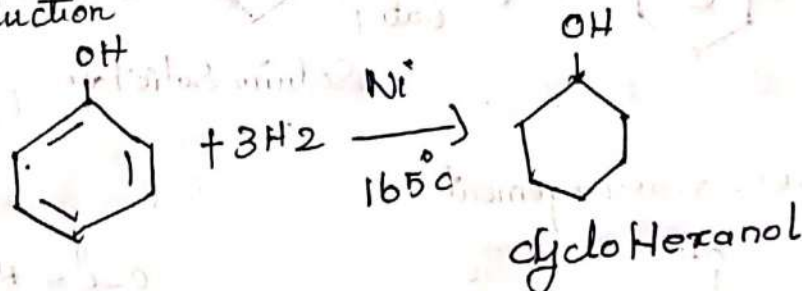
7. Reaction with Phthalic Anhydride



8 Oxidation



9. Reduction

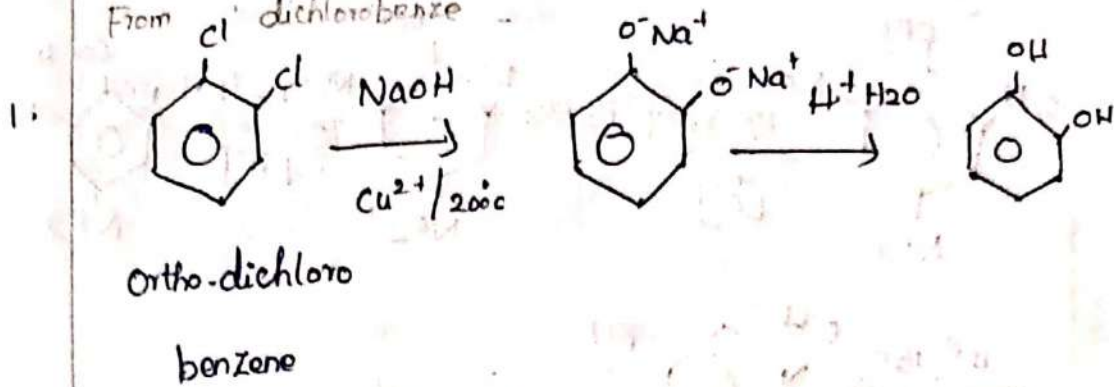


Uses

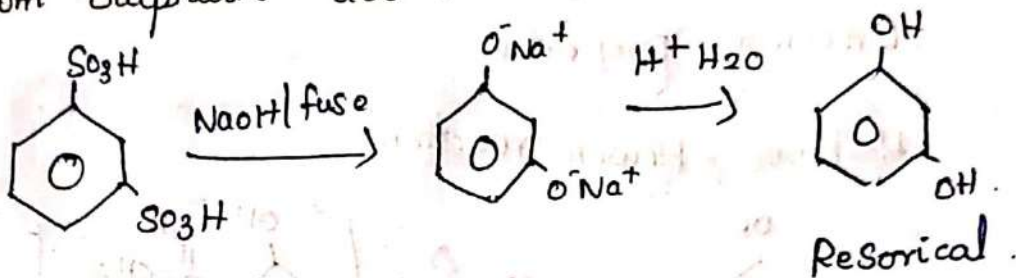
- * Most of phenol are used to prepare phenol-formaldehyde (Bakelite) resins.
- * Phenols used to prepare phenolphthalein.
- Phenol is used as a starting material for Salol, Aspirin.
- * It is used to prepare explosives like TNT and TNP.
- * It is used to prepare Antiseptic.

Preparation of dihydric phenols:

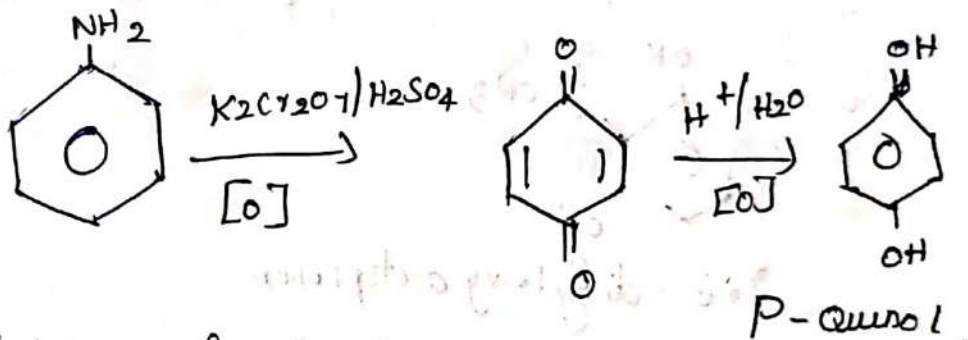
From Cl dichlorobenzene



2. From Sulphuric acid.

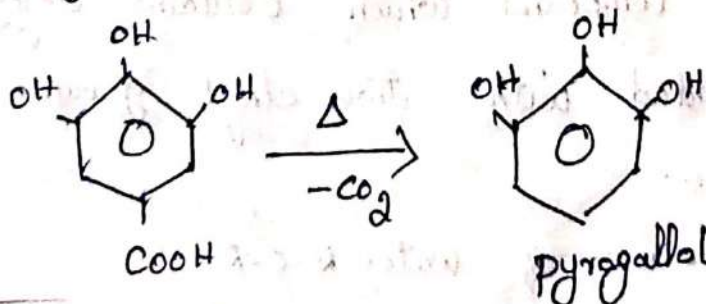


3.



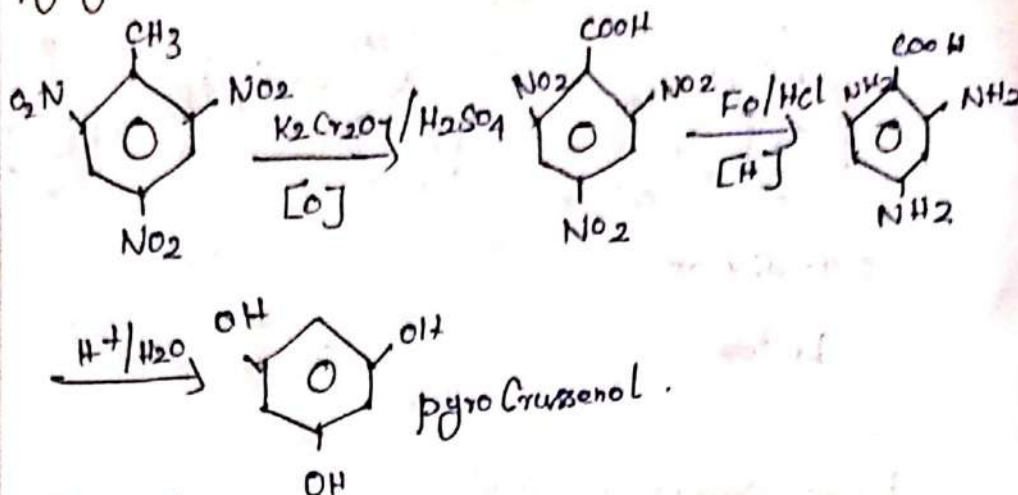
Trihydric acid phenols

1. Pyrogallol from Gallic acid



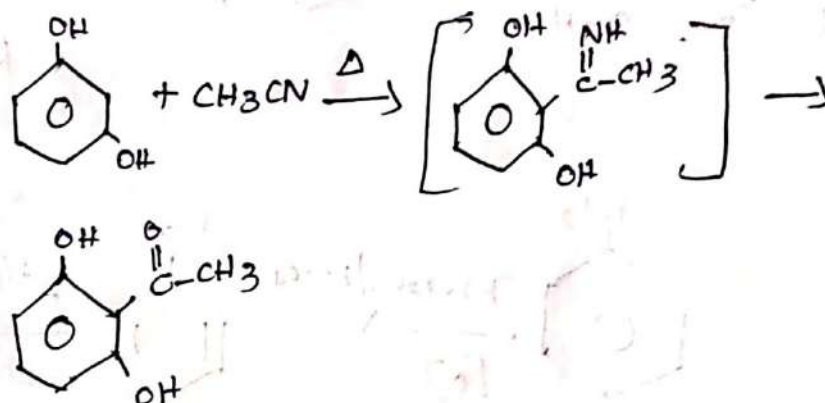
* It is used as a starting material for dextol

2. pyrogallol from Tri Nitro Toluene



Chemical properties :-

Haubmen - Housch reaction :-



2,6 - dihydroxy acetophenon.

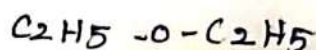
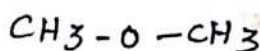
Ethers (R-O-R)

The compound which contains oxygen atom bonded with two alkyl groups are called Ethers

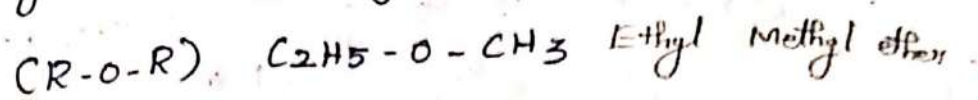
Derivatives of water R-O-R

Derivatives of alcohol R-O-R

Symmetric \rightarrow both alkyl groups are same



Unsymmetrical - Alkyl



Nomenclature :

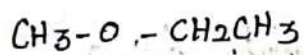
1. Common System :

The two alkyl groups are named in alphabetical order followed by a word

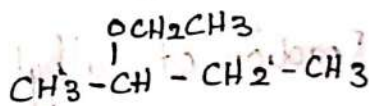
ether.

If both R - groups are same prefix -di is used .

Ethers are named as alkoxyalkanes



1-ethoxy ethane



2-ethoxy butane

General preparation

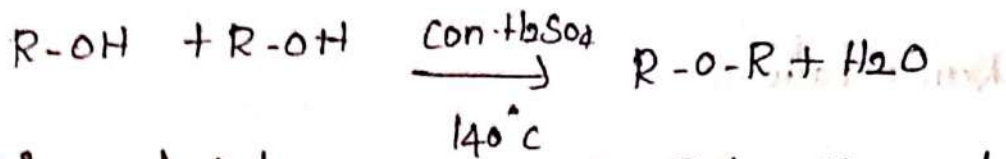
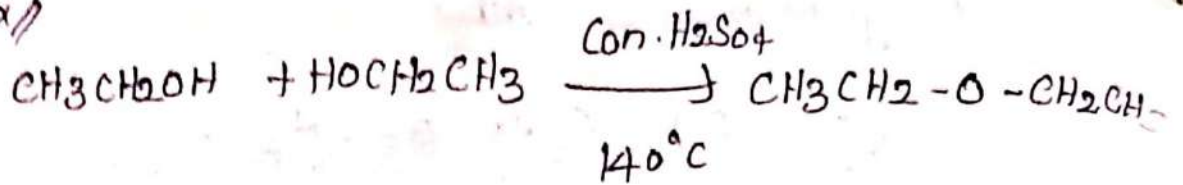
1. Dehydration of alcohol :

This method used to prepare symmetrical ethers

Alcohols reacts with concentrated Sulphuric acid at $140^\circ C$ to give symmetrical ethers by the removal of water molecule

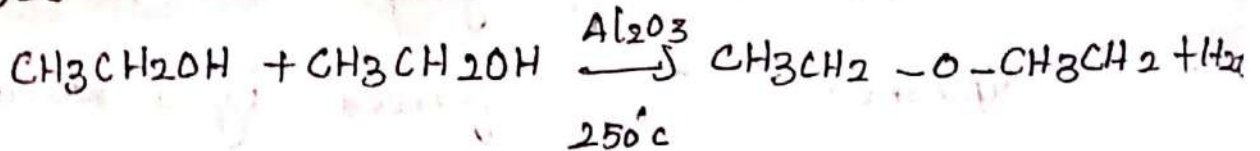
The Alcohol used in the reacts in must be primary and the temperature must be kept at $140^\circ C$

Ex //

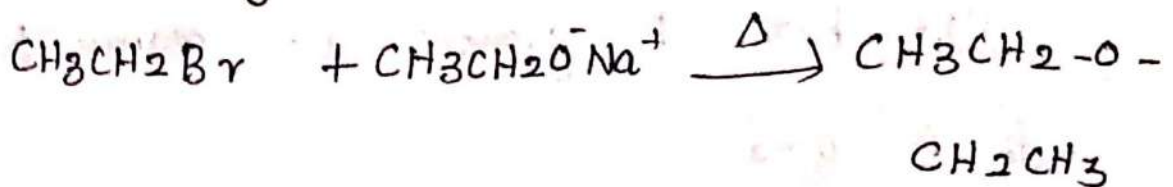


2. passing alcohol vapour into hot Al_2O_3 tube at

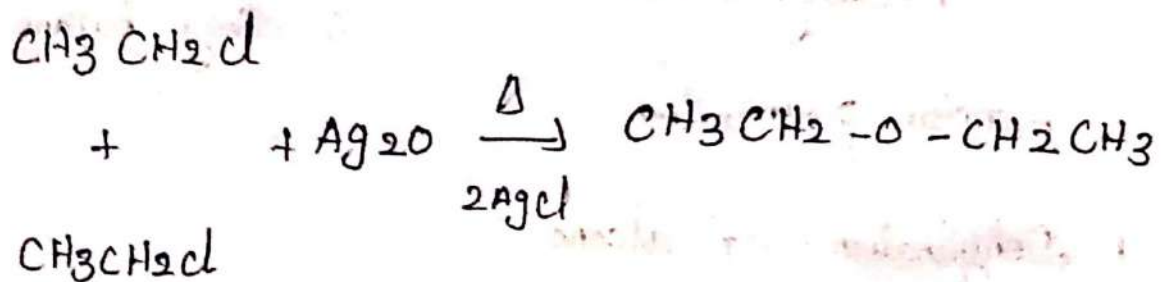
250°C



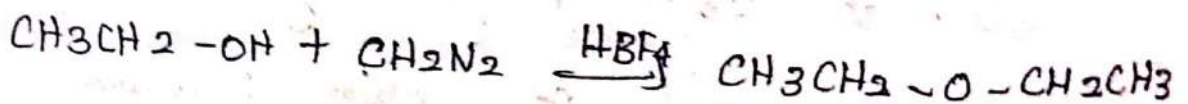
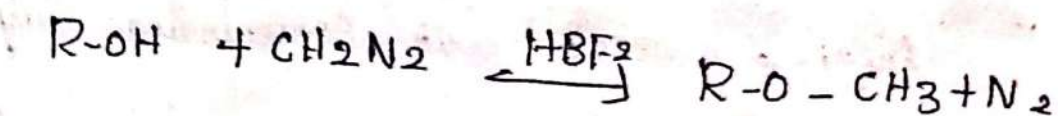
3. Williamson Synthesis:



4. Reaction of alkyl halide with Ag_2O :-



5. Reaction of alcohol with diazomethane:



Physical properties:

* dimethyl ether and ethylmethyl ether are gases. Other ethers are colourless liquids

* They have pleasant odour.

* Lower ethers are highly volatile and highly inflammable.

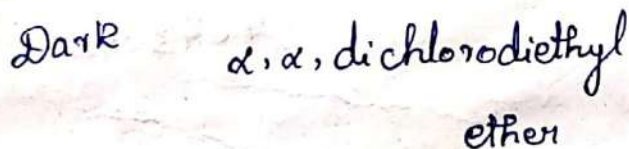
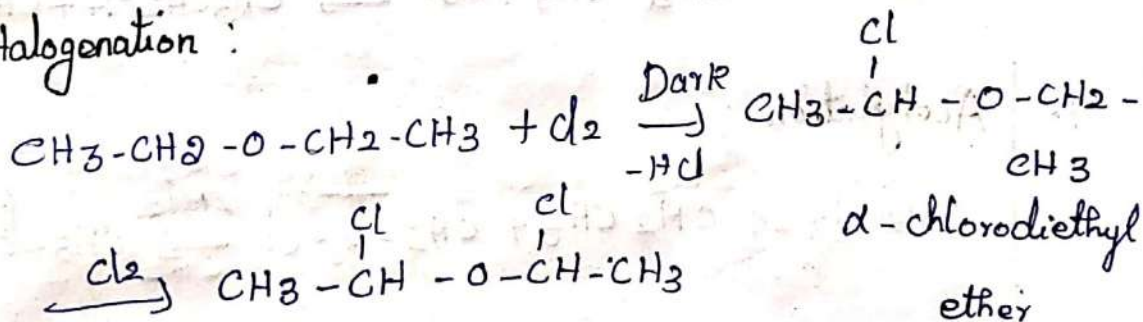
* ethers have lower boiling than isomeric alcohol

* They are insoluble in water. Soluble in organic solvents such as ethanol, chloroform, etc.

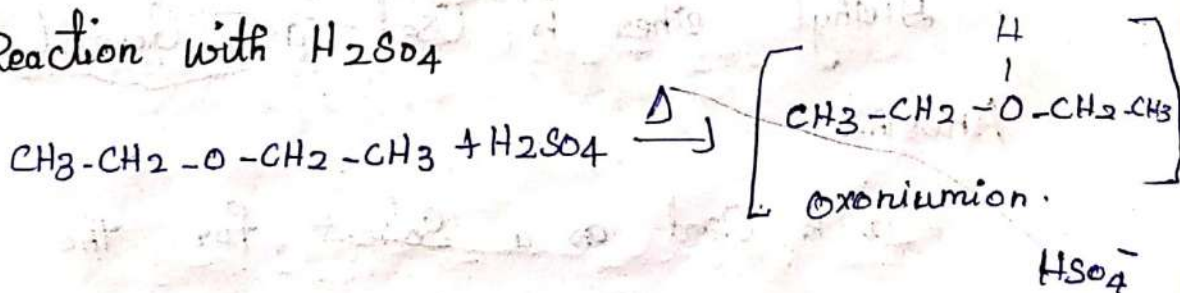
Chemical properties of ether:

1. Reaction at alkyl group:-

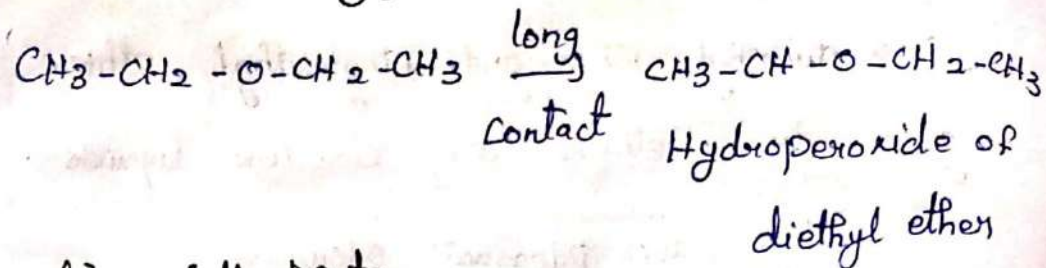
Halogenation:



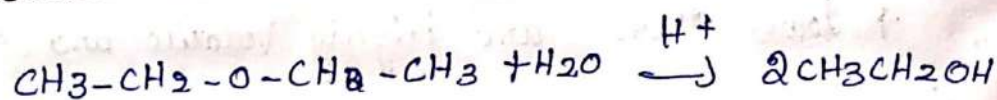
2. Reaction with H₂SO₄



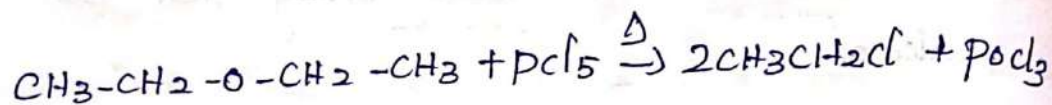
3. Reaction with oxygen O_2 : $(O-O)$



4. Reaction with water



5. Reaction with PCl_5 :

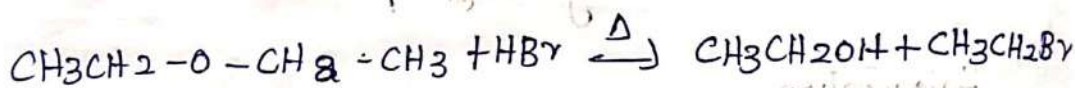
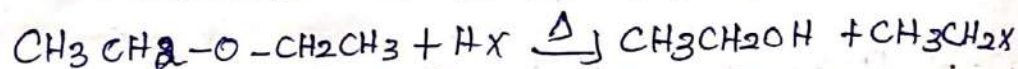


diethyl ether

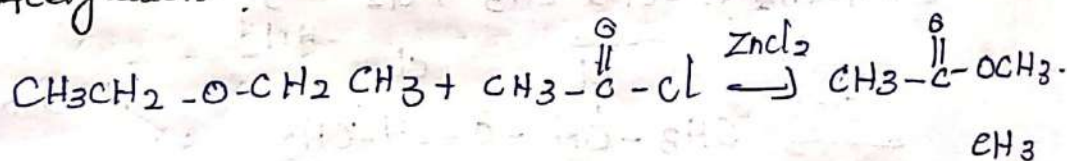
2-mole of phosphorus

chloride

6. Reaction with HX :



7. Acetylation:



CH_3

+ CH_3CH_2Cl

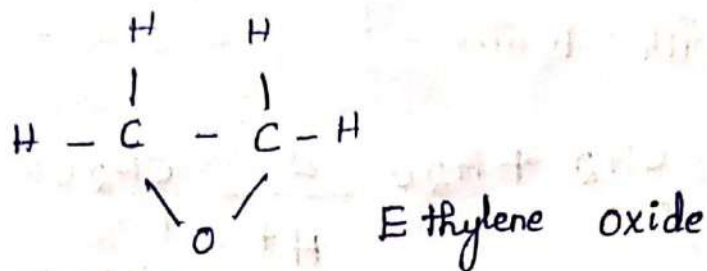
Uses

Diethyl ether is used as a general

Anesthetic

It is used as a solvent for the preparation of Grignard reagent.

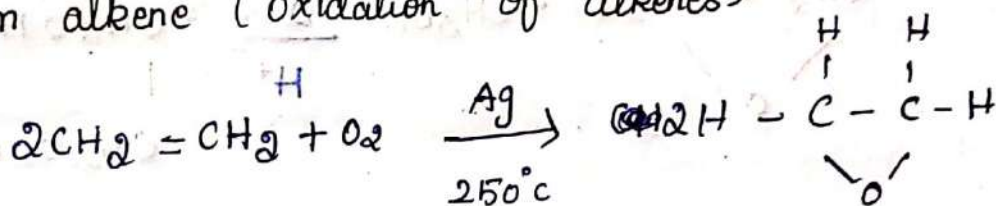
Epoxide (Oxirane)



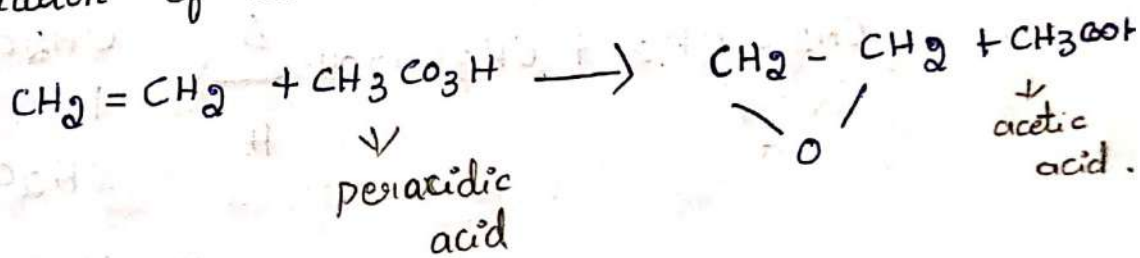
It is cyclic ether.

Preparation:

1. From alkene (Oxidation of alkenes)



2) Oxidation of alkenes



Physical properties:

* Ethylene oxide is a toxic substance

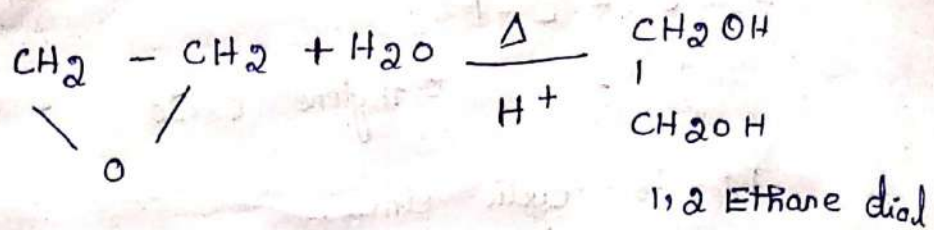
* It is highly inflammable boiling point at 4°C

* It is highly reactive

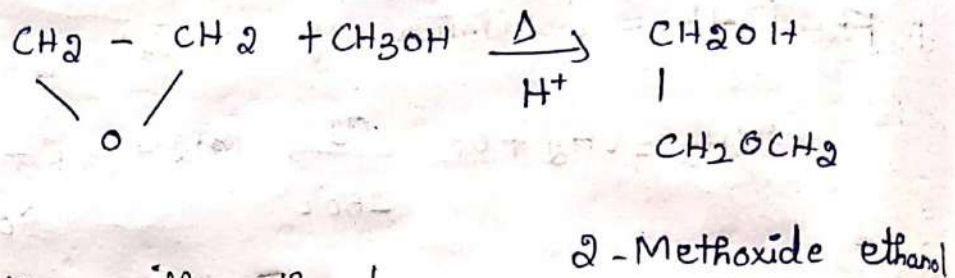
* It undergoes ring opening reaction

Chemical properties :

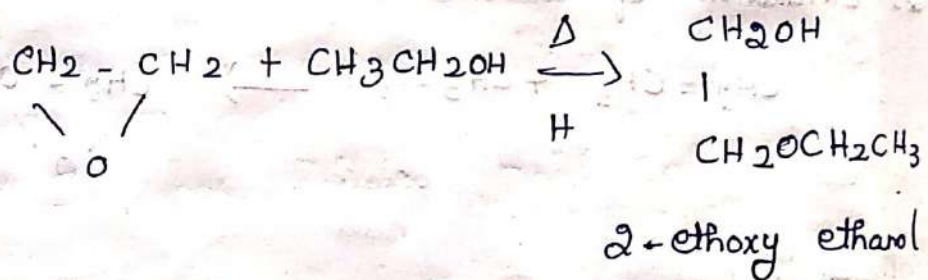
1. Reaction with Water :



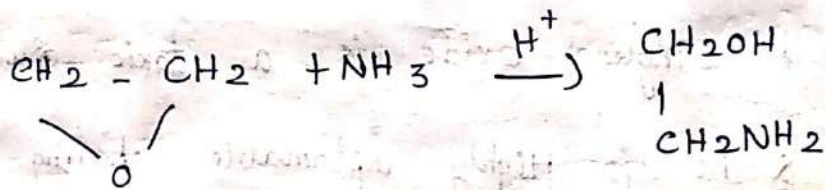
2. Reaction with Methanol .



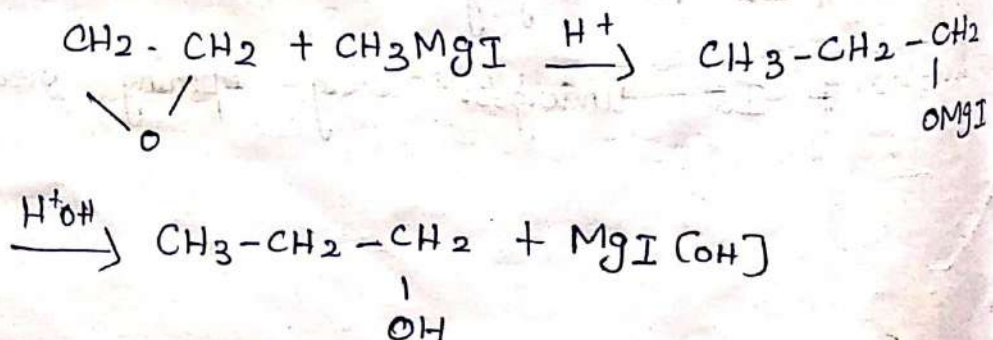
3. Reaction with ethanol



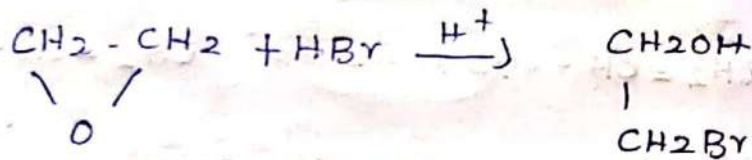
4. Reaction with NH_3



5. Reaction with Grignard Hydrogen Bromide addition Rxn.



6. Reaction with Hydrogen Bromide:



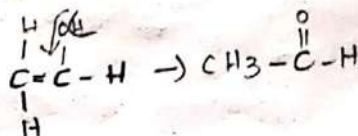
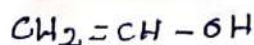
Uses:

- * It is used to prepare non-ionic detergents
- * It is used to manufacture of dacion
- * It is used in the preparation of Glycerol
- * It is used to prepare 2-ethoxy ethanol
- * It is used in perfumes, pharmaceutical food-flavours.

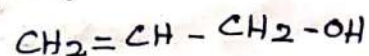
Unsaturated alcohols:

The compound which contain Hydroxylic group $\text{C}=\text{C}$ alcohols

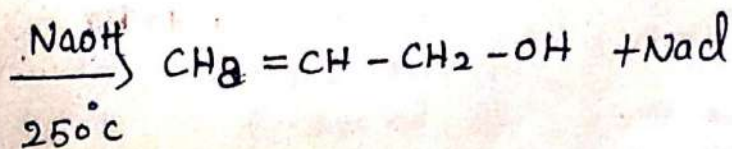
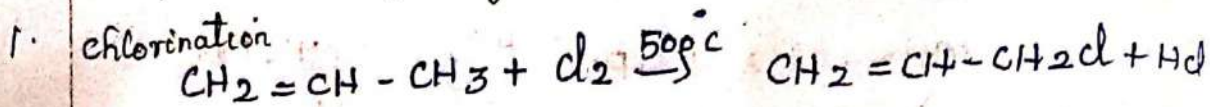
Vinyl alcohol



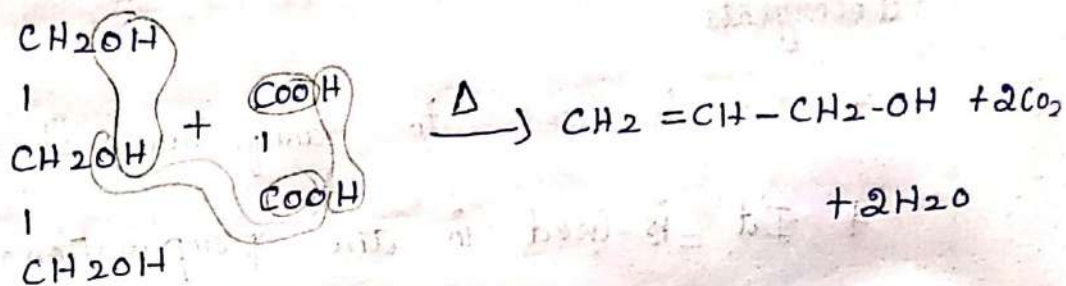
Allyl alcohol



Preparation of allyl alcohol:



2. From oxalic acid.



3. Physical properties:

* It is a colorless liquid

* It has boiling point at 97°C

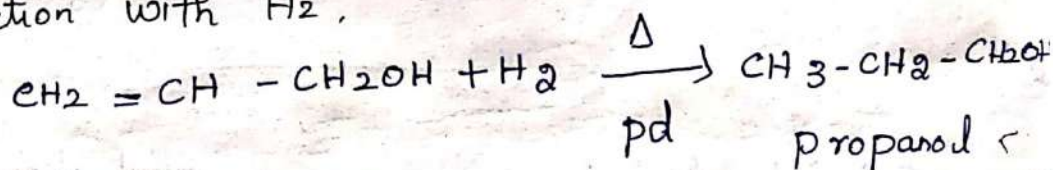
* It has characteristic (pungent) smell

* It is completely miscible

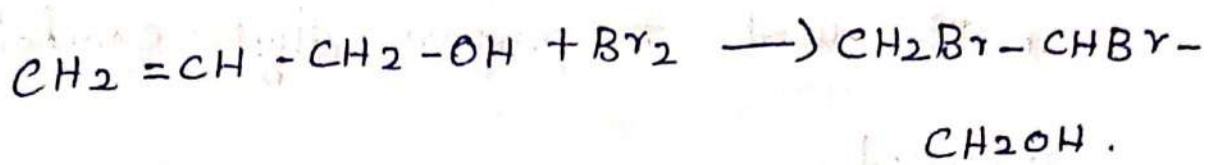
with water.

Chemical properties

1. Reaction with H_2 ,

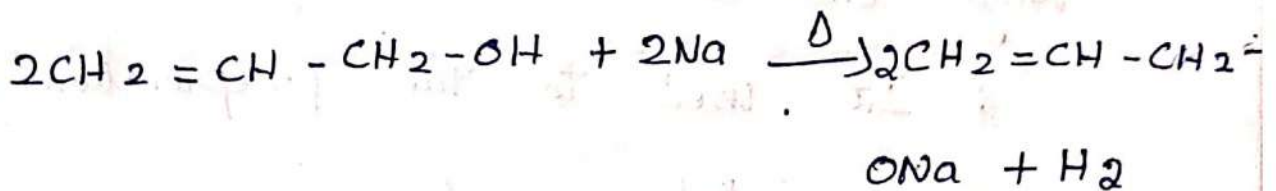


2. Reaction with Bromide .

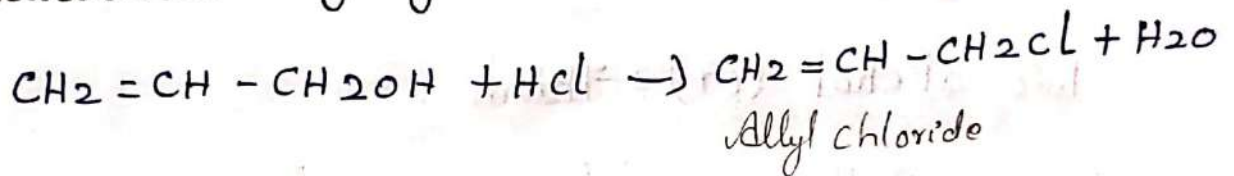


1, 2 - dibromo

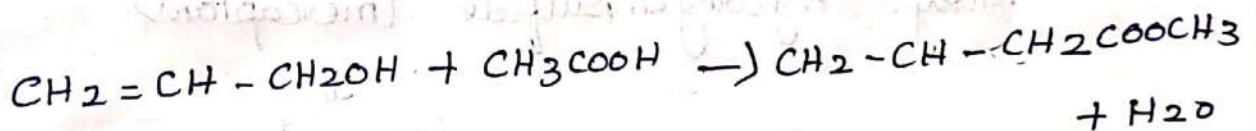
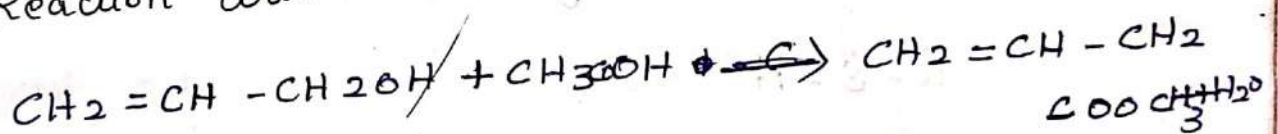
3. Reaction with Bromide - Sodium - Propenol



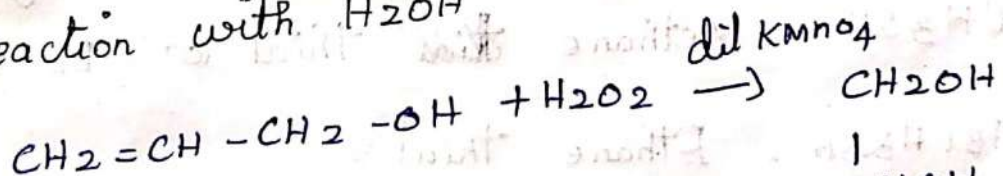
4. Reaction with Hydrogen chloride .



5. Reaction with Acetic acid .



6. Reaction with H_2O



1

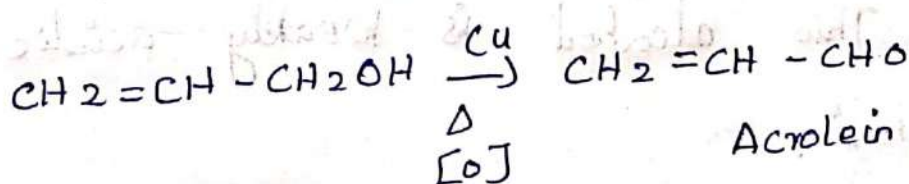
CHOH

1

CH₂OH

Glycerol

7)



Acrolein .

Uses :

* It is used to prepare Allyl alcohol, Glycerol.

* It is used to manufacture of Allyl chloride.

* It is used to the preparation of Allyl halide, and perfume and drugs.

This alcohol (or) Thiols.

Sulfur analogues of alcohol.

R-S-H

Alkyl Hydrogen sulfide (mercaptan)

↓
To catch mercury.

CH₃SH - Methane thiol (or) Methyl mercaptan

CH₃CH₂SH - Ethane thiol

CH₃CH₂CH₂SH - Propane thiol.

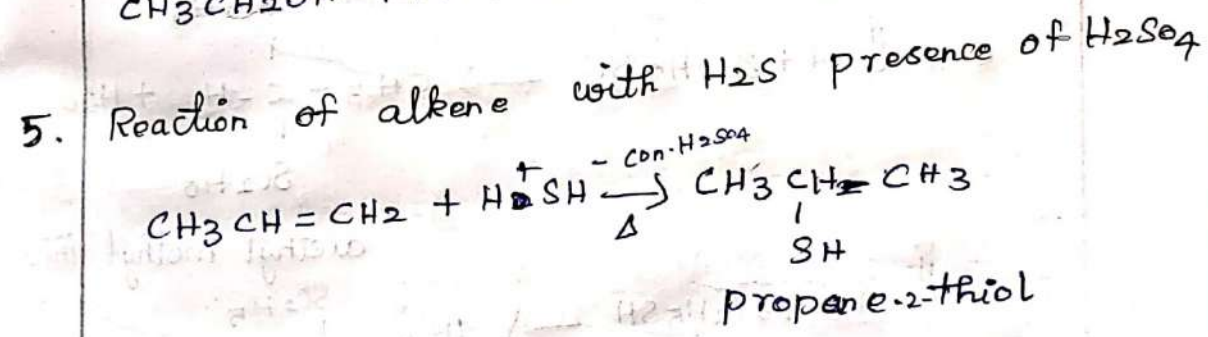
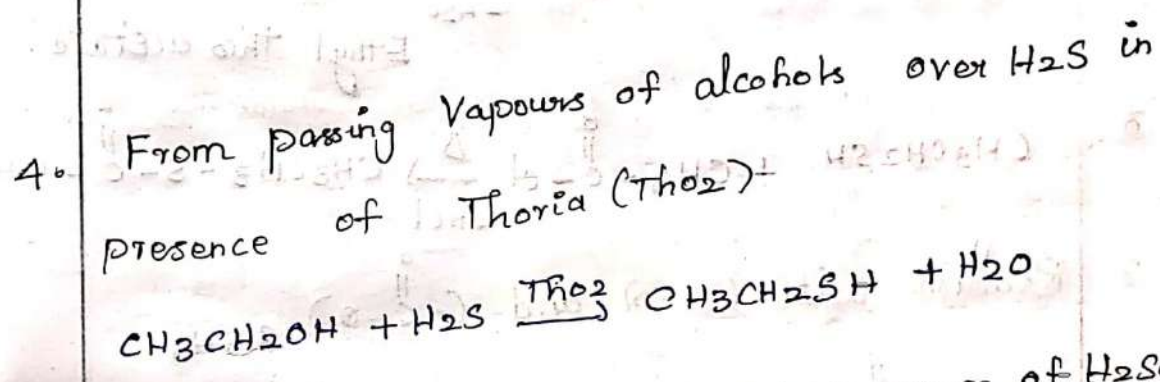
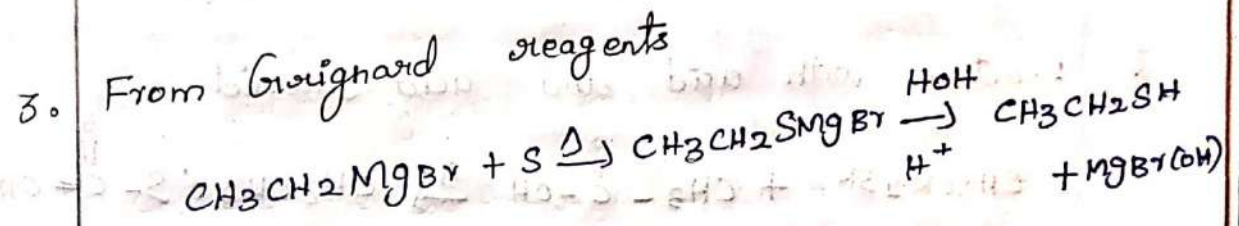
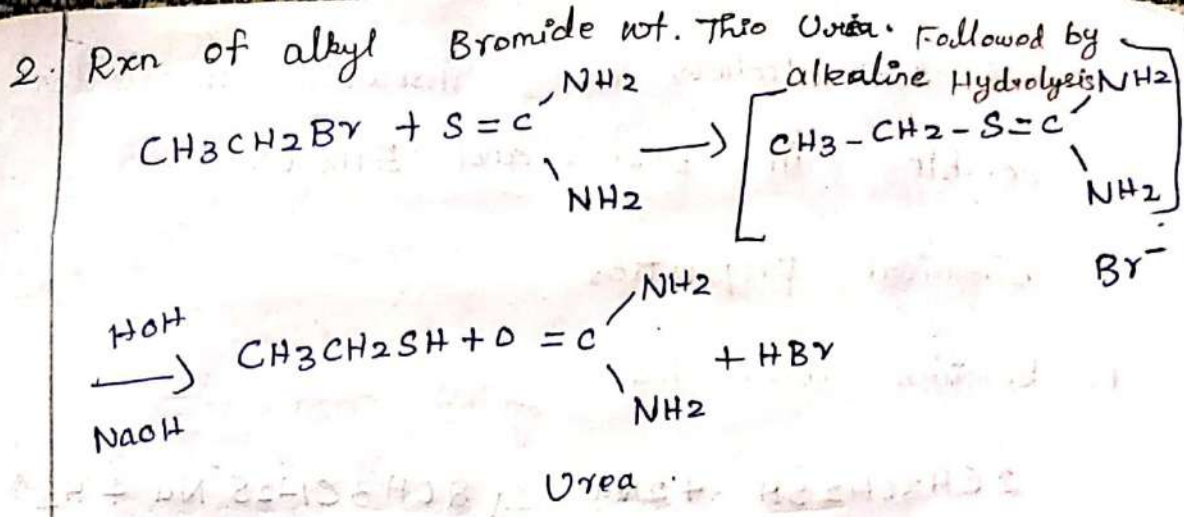
This alcohol is weakly acidic than alcohol.

Preparation :

1. From Potassium Hydrogen Sulphide.



Ethane thiol.



Physical properties :

- * Methane thiol is a colourless gas.
- * Ethane thiol and Higher thiol are colourless Volatile liquid
- * Lower thiols have characteristic Smell
- * Boiling point of thiols are lesser than corresponding alcohol

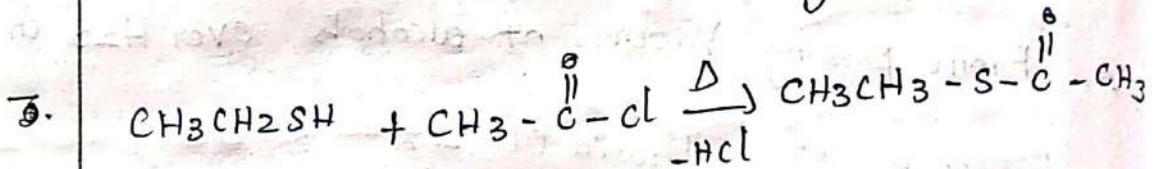
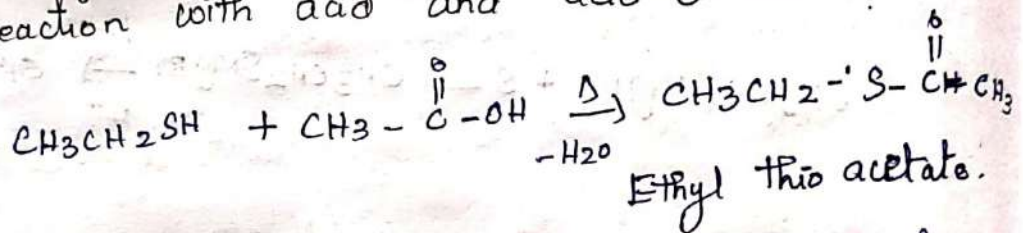
* Thio alcohols are insoluble in water
Soluble in EtOH, and Ether.

Chemical properties

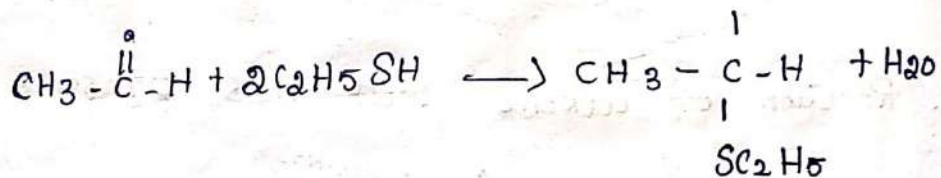
1. Reaction with Na -



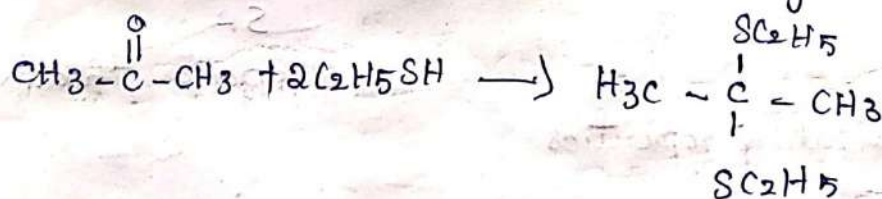
2. Reaction with acid and acid chloride:



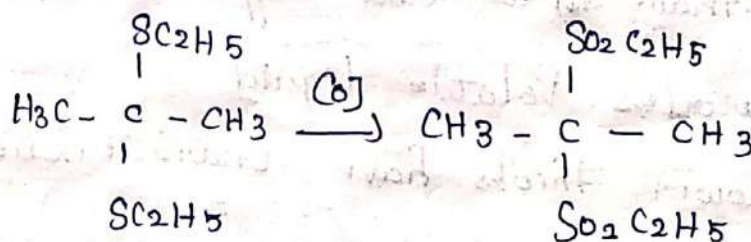
3. Reaction with (-CHO) and (-C(=O)-) SC₂H₅:



diethyl methyl thio

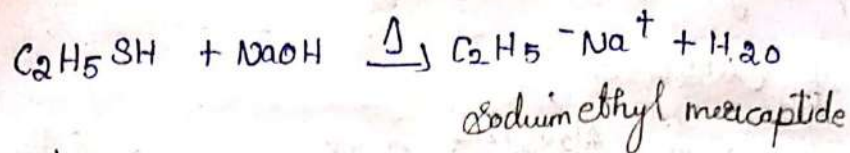


diethyl dimethyl thio



(Sulfonal)

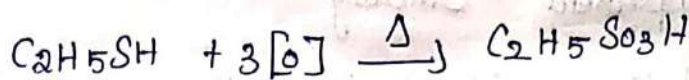
Reaction with base.



Hydrolysis



Oxidation

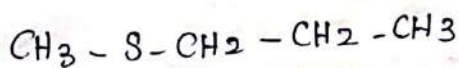


Thio Ether

Ether - R-O-R

Thio Ether - R-S-R

The ether are Sulfur analogues of ether.

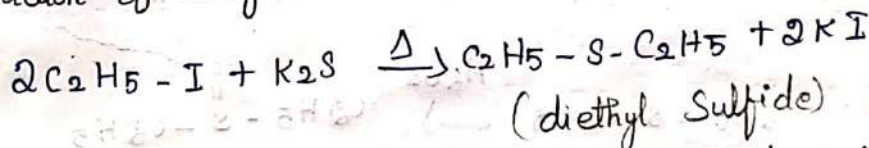


(Alkyl thio Alkane)

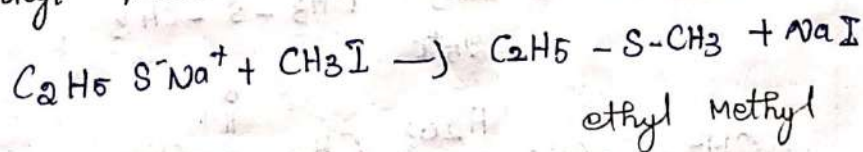
(Methyl thio propane)

Preparation

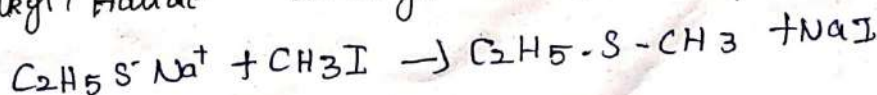
1. Reaction of alkyl halide with K_2S



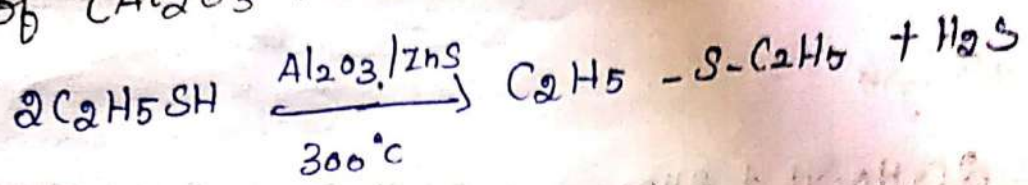
2. Reaction of Sodium Salt of ethane thiol with Alkyl halide



3. Reaction of Sodium Salt of ethane thiol with Alkyl Halide diethyl ether wt P_2S_5



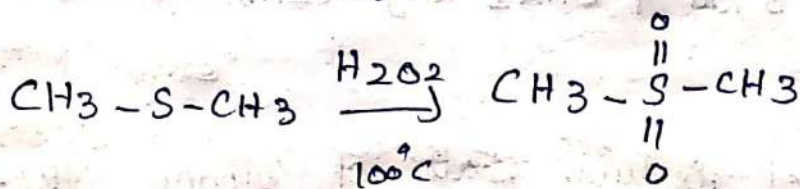
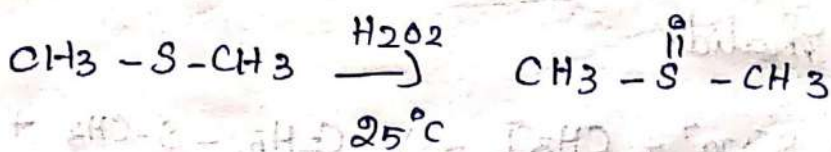
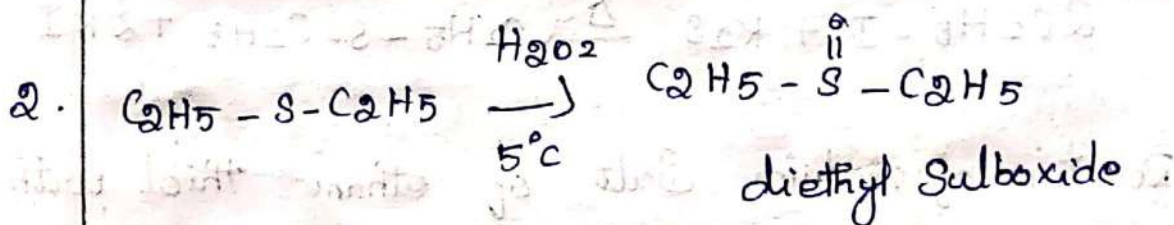
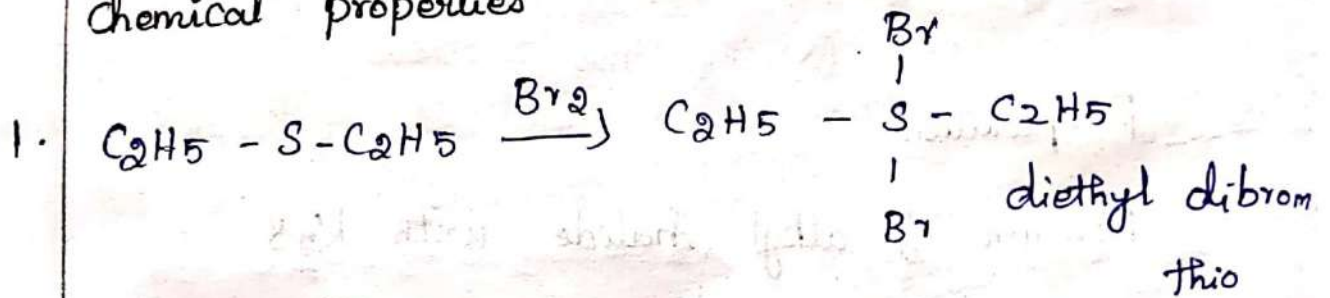
4. Passing Vapours of this alcohol in presence of $(Al_2O_3 + ZnS)$



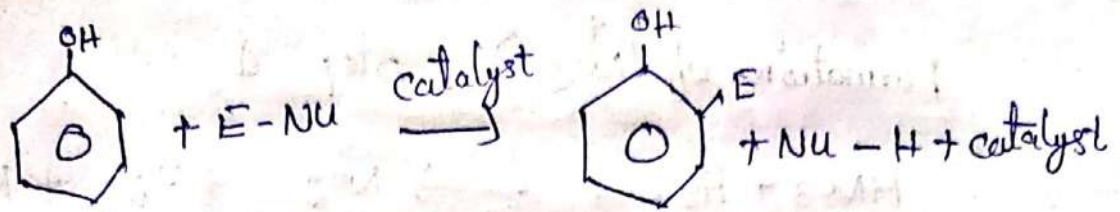
Physical properties .

- * Unpleasant Smelling
- * boiling point of this ether of higher than the corresponding ether
- * this ether are insoluble in water
- * this ether are soluble in organic solvent (ethanol)

Chemical properties



Electrophilic Substitution Reaction in phenol

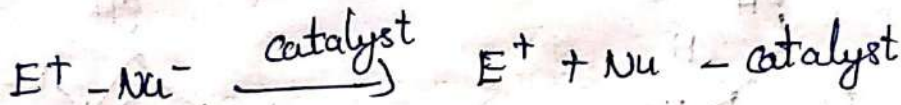


Hydrogen atom in phenol is replaced by electrophile is known as electrophilic substitution reaction

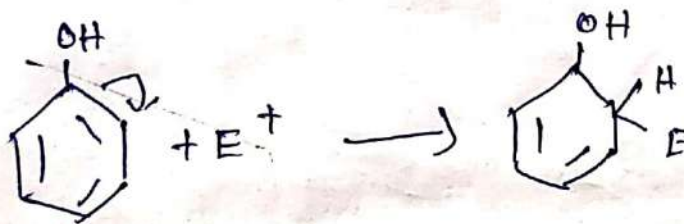
Mechanism

Step 1

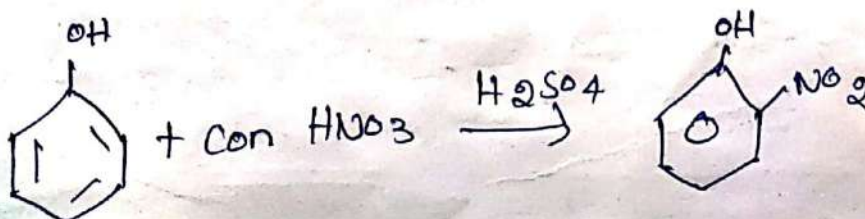
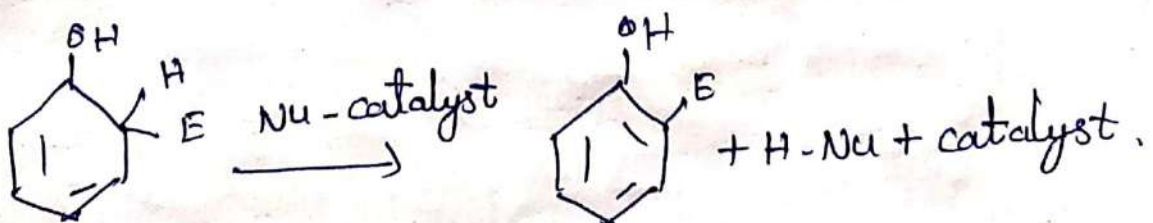
Formation of E^+ Step 1



Step 2

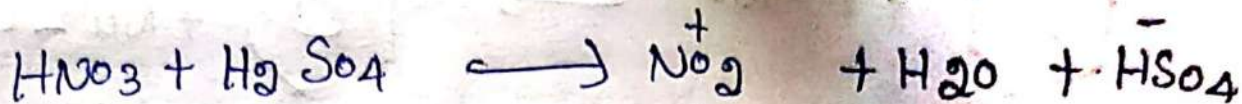


Step 3: loss of proton



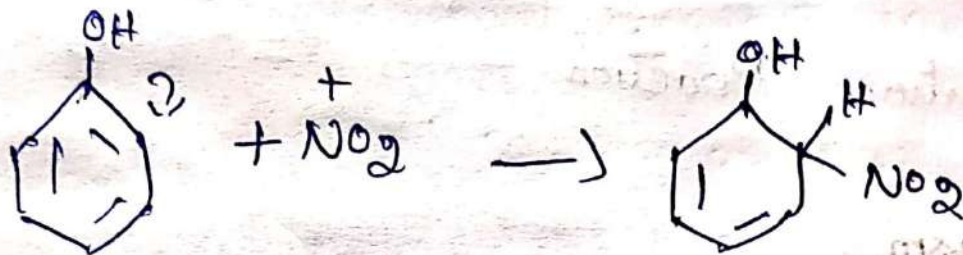
Step - 1

Formation of $(\text{NO}_2)^+$ Step - 1



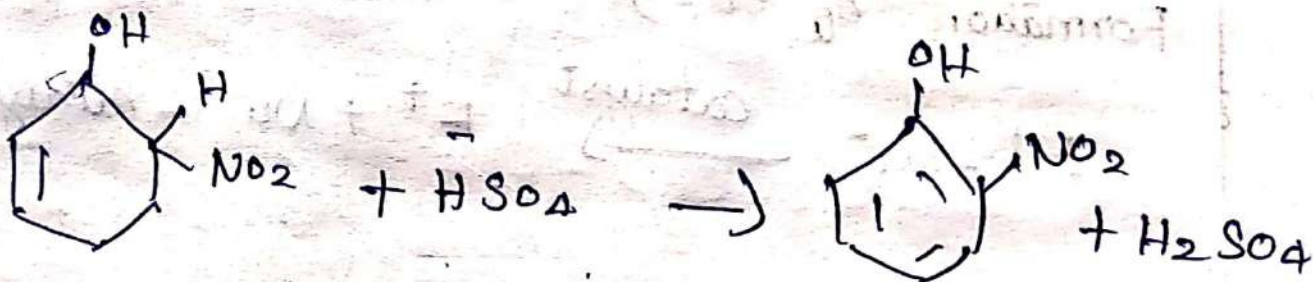
Step - 2

Attack of electrophile $(\text{NO}_2)^+$



Step - 3

loss of proton



2. Organometallic Compounds

Organometallic Compounds .

An organic compound in which a metal is directly attached to carbon atom is known as organometallic compounds .

Organic + Metal \rightarrow Organometallic

Organic, Inorganic, Hybrid Compounds .

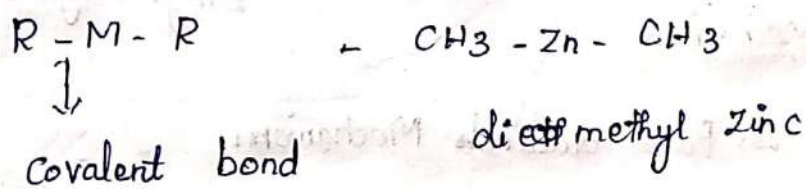
Versatile reagents in Organic Synthesis

Classification of organometallic compound .

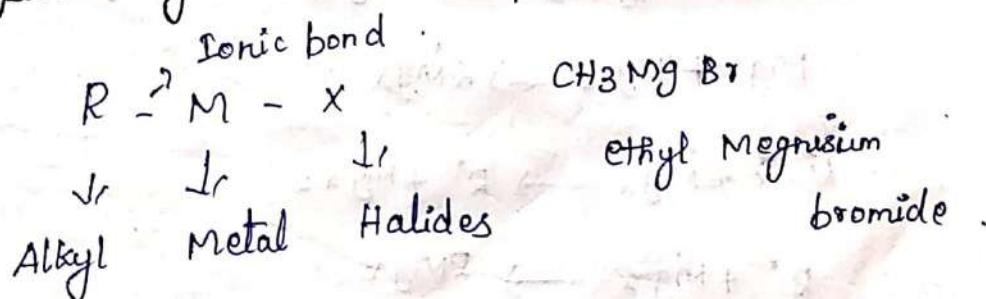
* Simple Organometallic Compound

* Complex Organometallic Compound .

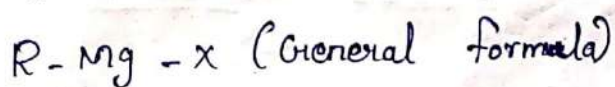
Simple organometallic compound .



Complex organometallic compound .



Organomagnesium compound .

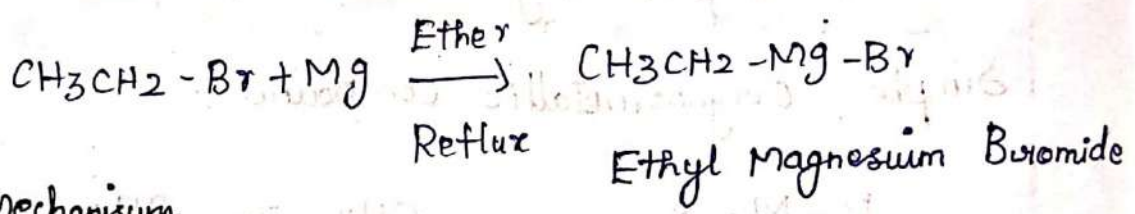
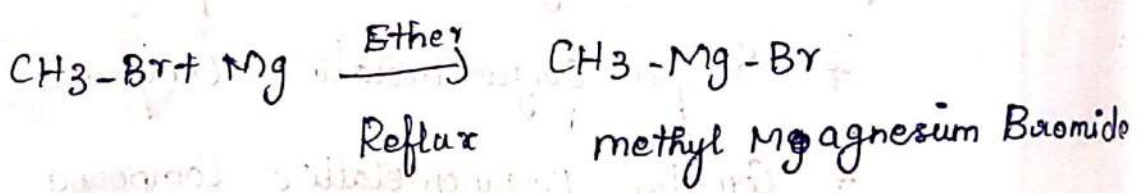
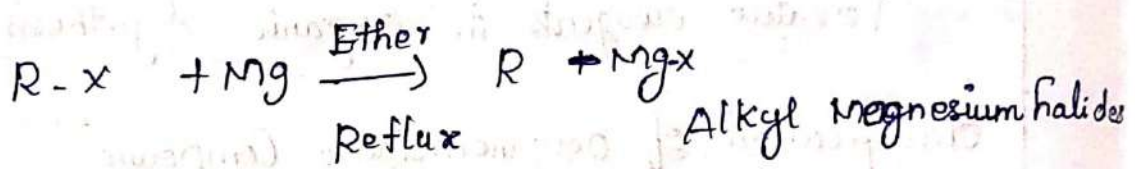


It is polar in nature

Grignard reagents

In 1912 He got awarded nobel prize for them tremendous applications of organomagnesium compound in Organic Synthesis.

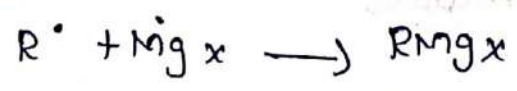
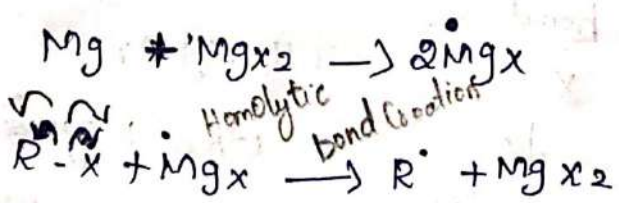
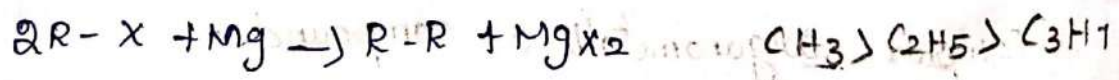
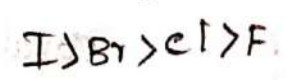
Preparations of Grignard reagent (or) organomagnesium compound.



Mechanism

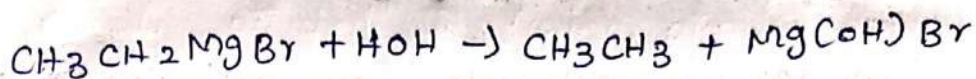
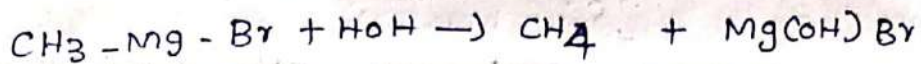
1) Free radicals Mechanism

Reactivity

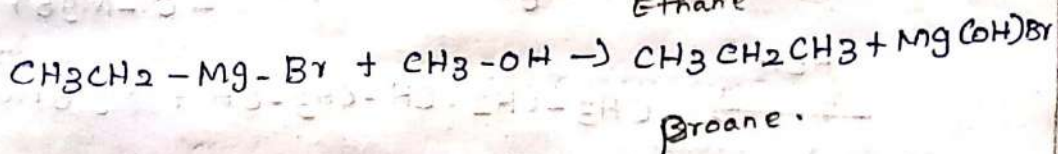
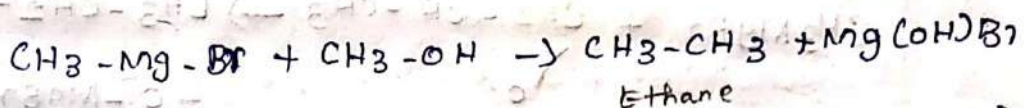
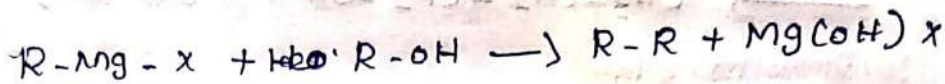


Reaction of organometallic compounds :-

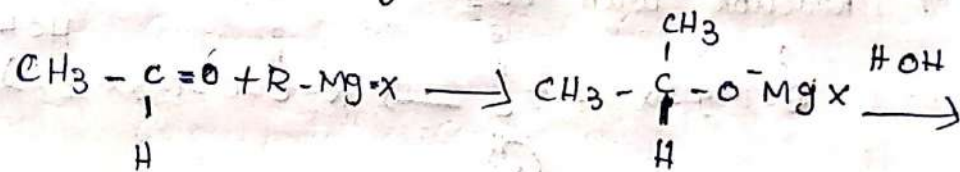
1. Reaction with compounds containing active Hydrogen.



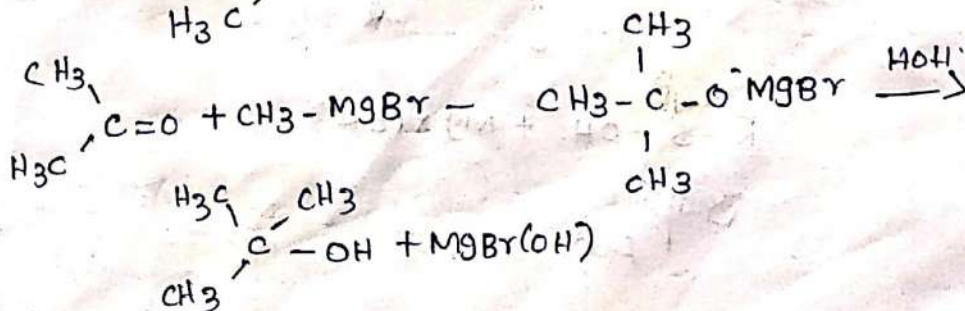
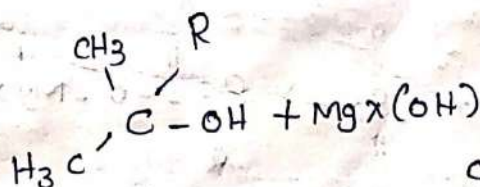
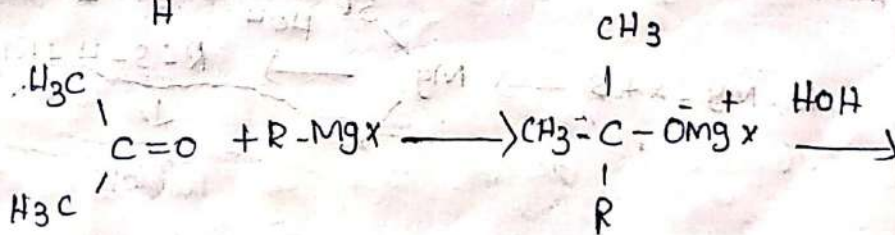
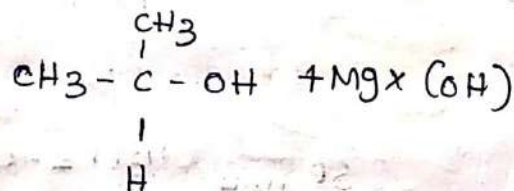
2. Reaction with alcohols:-



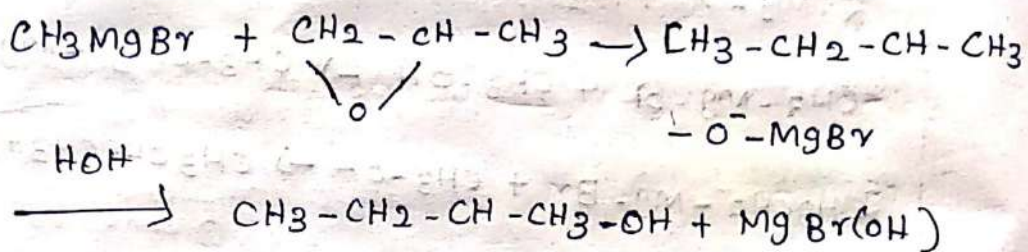
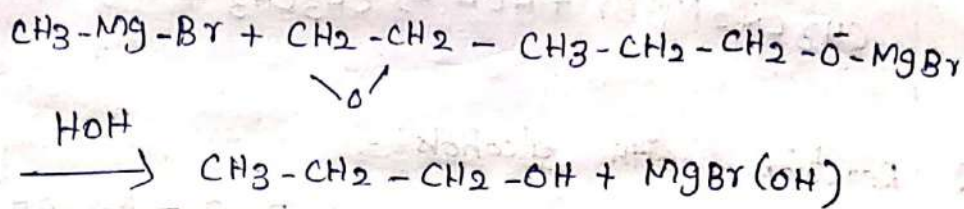
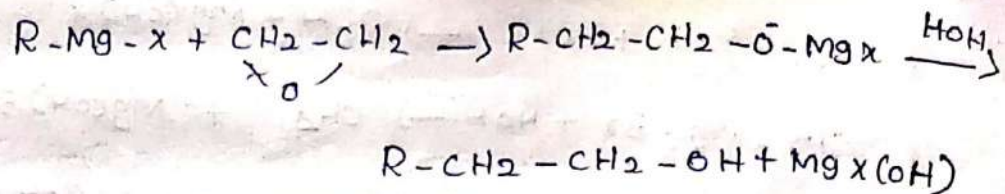
3. Reaction with Carbonyl Compound. (C=O)



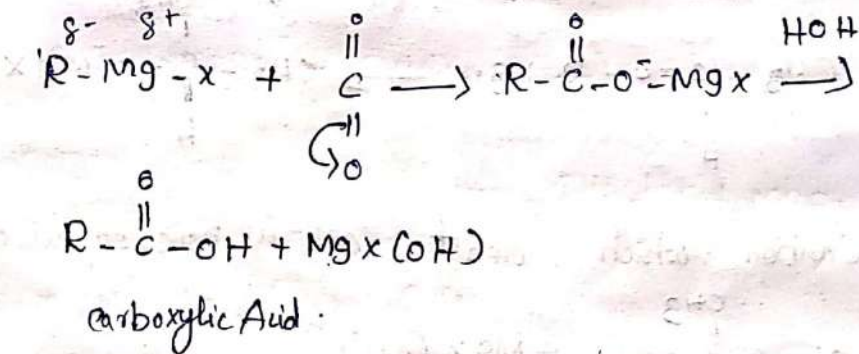
Carbon which react as a nucleophilic



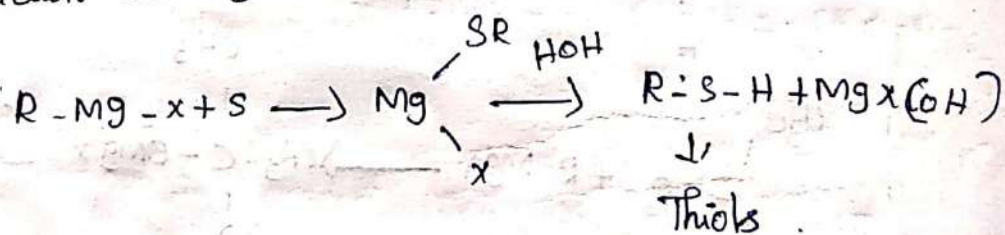
③ Reaction with epoxides



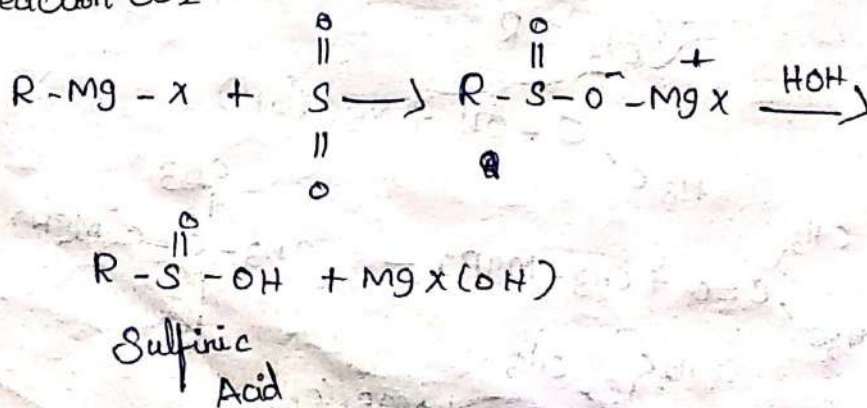
4. Reaction with CO_2

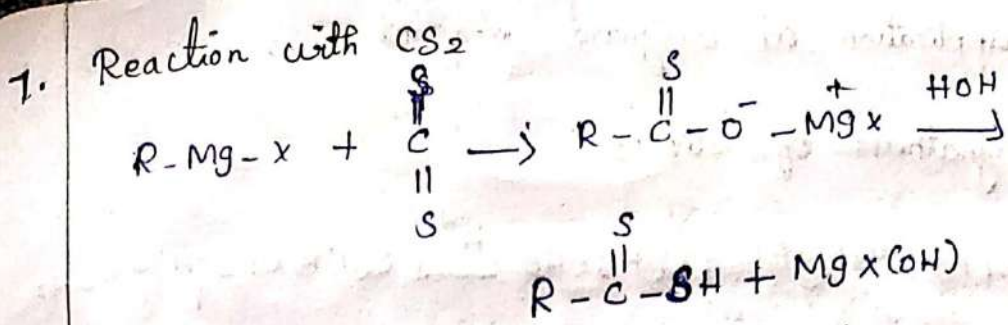


5. Reaction with S

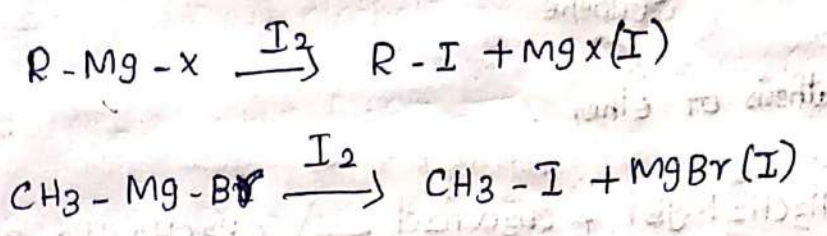


6. Reaction SO_2

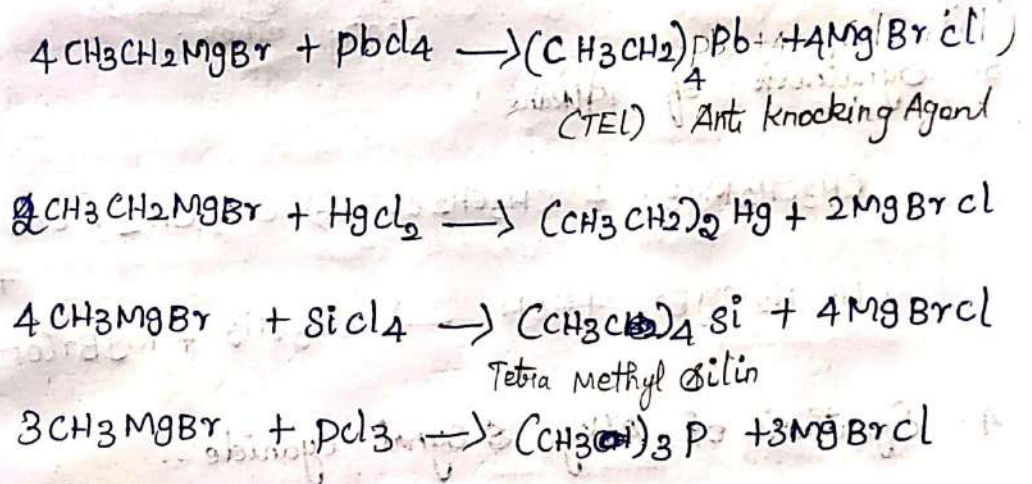




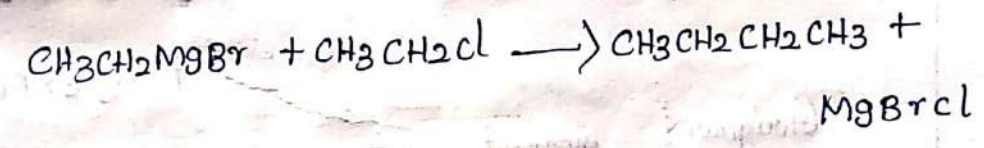
8. Reaction with I Dithio Acid



9. Reaction with Metal halides



10. Reaction with Alkyl Halide:

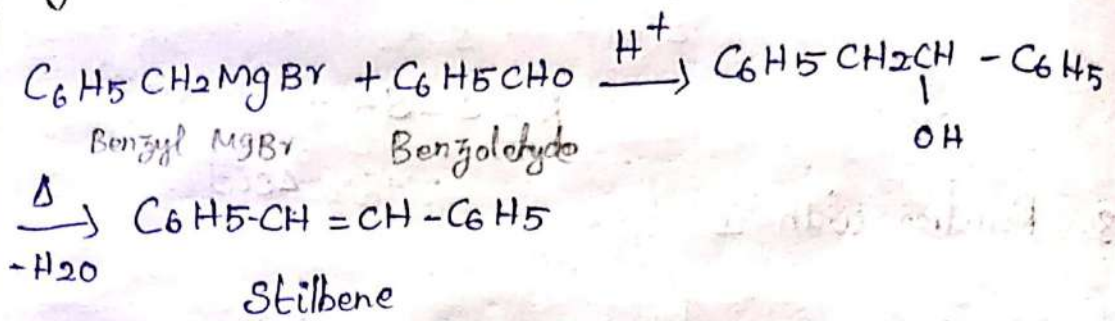


Physical properties

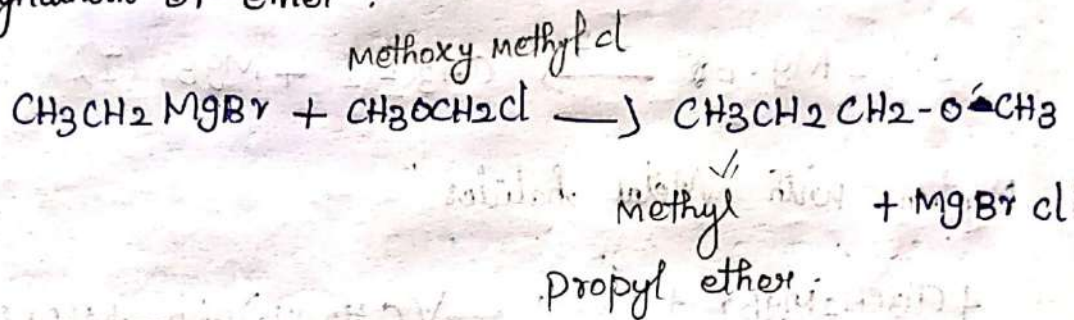
- * Grignard reagent act as a strong Alkalies
- * Grignard reagent act as a nucleophile
- * It should be kept in dry environment
- * If it is conducted with water Grignard reagent destroyed

Application of Grignard reagent

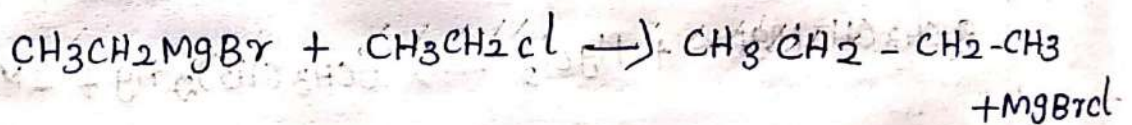
1). Synthesis of stilbene :



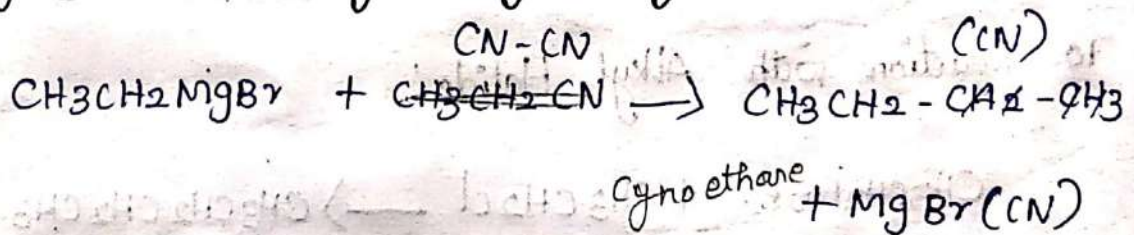
2. Synthesis of ether .



3. Synthesis of Alkane :



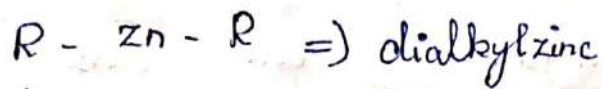
4. Synthesis of Alkyl & Cyano Cyanide :



Grignard reagent act as nucleophile to

Synthesis Many Organic Compounds

Organozinc Compounds (R_2Zn)



↓

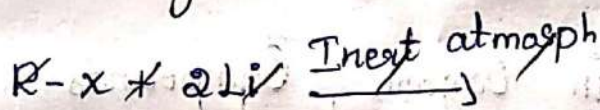
Alkyl (or) Aryl

* First Synthesized Organometallic Compounds

* It is Very important in Organic Synthesis.

Preparation

1. From alkyl halide:



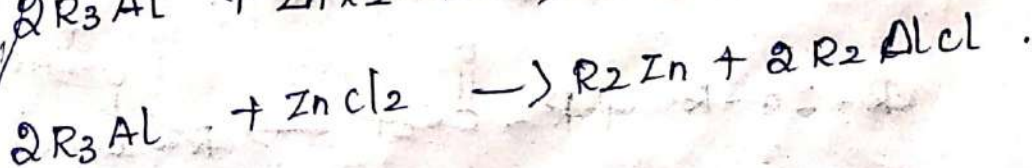
Alkyl Halide react with Zinc And

Gives Alkyl or Aryl zinc

Alkyl Zinc Iodide react together to

form Organozinc Compound.

2. From Trialkyl aluminium.



Physical properties

Organic Compounds are less polar than Grignard reagent.

It is low Boiling liquids are low Melting Boils.

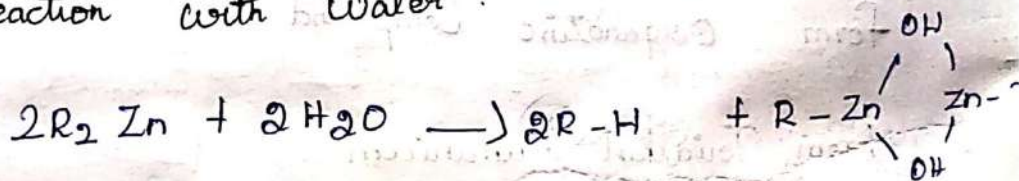
It is Highly inflammable in air

It is insoluble in Water. It is Soluble in Organic Compounds.

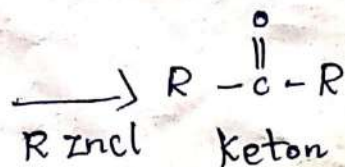
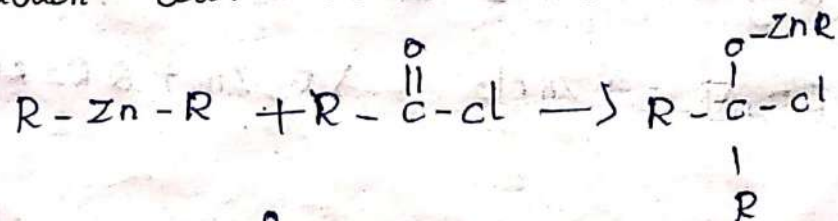
~~Re~~* Reactivity of organozinc Compounds are Much less than Organomagnesium Compounds.

Chemical properties

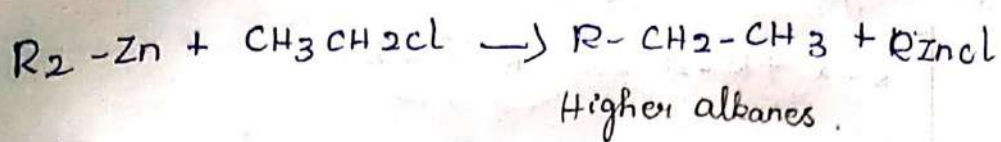
1) Reaction with Water



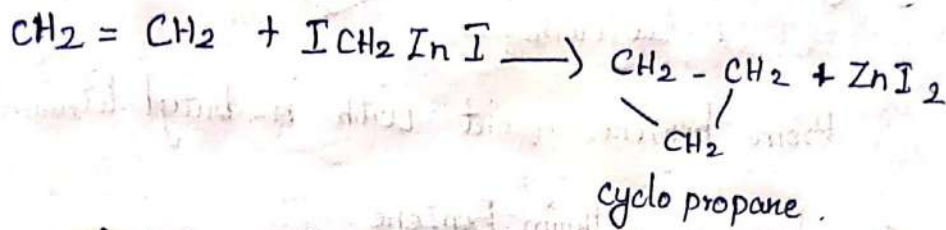
2) Reaction with acid chloride :-



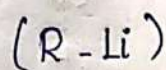
3. Reaction with alkyl halide.



4. Reaction with iso metal Zinc Chloride

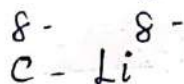


Organolithium Compounds



The lithium is directly attached with carbon.

Characterised by carbon-Li bond.



Nucleophile

* Act as a powerful nucleophiles

* It is also act as a base

* It is Highly Reactive than Grignard reagent.

* It is Used as a important source in

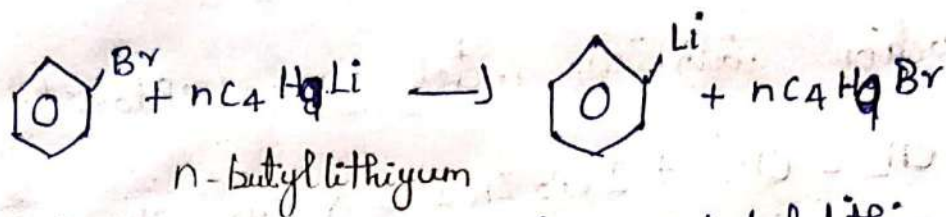
Organic Synthesis.

Preparation.

1) From Alkyl or Aryl halides.



2. Halogen exchanged methode.

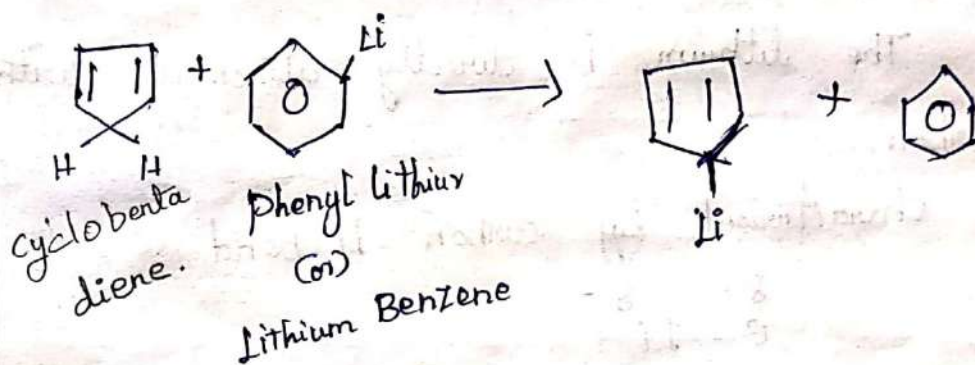


Bromo benzene react with n-butyl lithium

to form a lithium Benzene.



3. Metalation



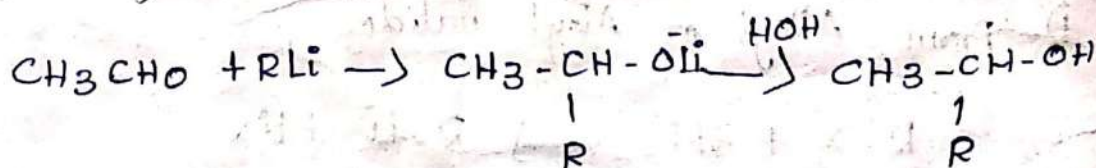
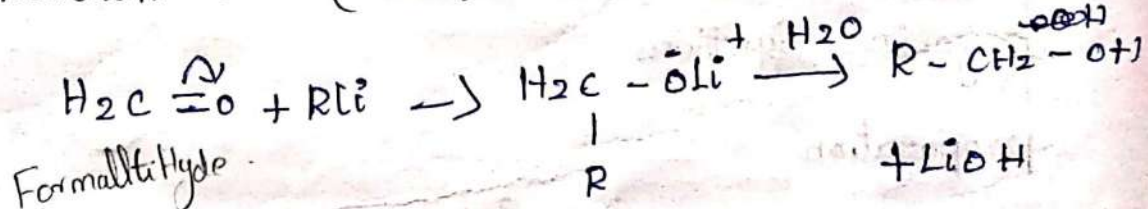
Chemical properties

1. Reaction with H₂O

Alkane



2. Reaction with $(-\overset{\text{O}}{\parallel}-)$



Chemical Kinetics. Unit V

Factors affecting the rate / velocity of a reaction

1. Concentration

The rate of reactions are directly proportional to the concentrations of the reacting species.

2. Temperature

The rates of a reactions are very much affected by temperature a rise of 10 degrees in temperature usually doubles the reaction rate.

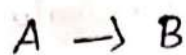
3. Catalyst :

Positive catalyst increase the rate and negative catalyst decrease the rate of reaction

The study of reaction rate makes us understand the detailed steps by which the reactants are transformed to the products

Rate laws

Let us consider a reaction



If $-dc$ is the decrease in the concentration of A in a time dt and if the molecular concentration of A is c , then,

$$\frac{-dc}{dt} \propto c \text{ i.e., } = \frac{-dc}{dt} = kc \quad \text{--- (1)}$$

When k is a constant called velocity constant or specific reaction rate

For a reaction $2A \rightarrow \text{products}$

$$\frac{-dc}{dt} = kc^2 \quad \text{--- (2)}$$

and for a reaction $A+B \rightarrow \text{products}$

$$\frac{-dc}{dt} = k_{CA} \cdot c_B \quad \text{--- (3)}$$

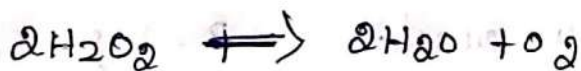
An equation which relates the rate of reaction to the concentration of the reactant is called the rate law or rate equation. Equation (1) (2) and (3) are some of the rate equations or the rate laws.

Rate constant

The rate constant of k of a reactant is defined as the change in concentration of reactants or product per unit time in a reaction in which all the reactants are at unit concentration.

Order of reactions

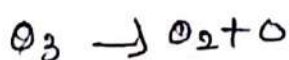
The minimum number of molecules or atoms of reactants whose concentration determine the velocity of a reaction is called the order of the reaction. It is also defined as the sum of the powers of the concentration terms that occur in the rate equation.



Molecularity of reaction

Definition

The molecularity of a reaction is defined as the minimum number of molecules or atoms of the reactants necessary for the reaction to take place.



Zero Order reactions

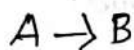
Zero Order reaction is one in which the rate of the chemical reaction is entirely independent of the concentration of the reactant

Differential form of rate equation : $\frac{dx}{dt} = k$

Integral form of rate equation : $k = x/t$

Derivation

Let us consider the Reaction



Let 'a' be the initial concentration of A and x be the amount reacted in a time t.

now the reaction

$$\frac{dx}{dt} = k ; dx = k dt$$

on integration : $\int dx = \int k dt$

$$x = kt + c \quad \text{--- (4)}$$

where c is the integration constant. The

Value of c is evaluated as follows: At

the beginning of the reaction $t = 0, x = 0$

$$\text{So } 0 = kx_0 - c \text{ or } c = 0$$

Substituting the value of c in equation (4)

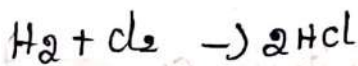
$$\text{we get } x = kt \text{ (or) } k = x/t \text{ --- (5)}$$

This equation (5) is known as the zero order rate equation, k is the rate constant

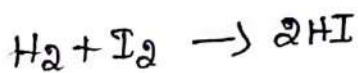
$$\begin{aligned} \text{Unit } k: k &= x/t = \frac{\text{mole/liter}}{\text{sec}} \\ &= \text{mole/litre}^{-1} \text{sec}^{-1} \end{aligned}$$

ex

Photochemical reaction between Hydrogen and chloride to form hydrogen chloride



Thermal decomposition of HI on a gold surface



Some enzyme catalysed reactions

Characteristics :

The rate of the reaction does not depend on any concentration term. i.e., the concentration of the reactants do not change with time

The sum of the powers of the concentration terms that occur in the rate equation is zero

First order reactions

First order reaction is one which rate of the chemical reaction depends on one concentration term only. In other words a first order reaction is one in which the reaction is proportional to the concentration of the reactant

Differential form of rate equation

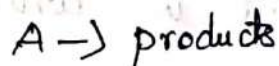
$$dx/dt = k(a-x)$$

Integral form of rate equation

$$k = [2.303/t] \{ \log [a/(a-x)] \}$$

Derivation

Let us consider a reaction



The rate of the reactions $\frac{-d[A]}{dt} = k[A]$

Let the initial concentration of A be 'a' moles per litre. If after time 't' 'x' moles per litre of A have decomposed, the remaining concentration of A is (a-x) moles per litre

$$\text{Now } \frac{-d(a-x)}{dt} = k(a-x)$$

$$\frac{dx}{dt} = \int k(a-x) \quad \text{Since } \left[\frac{-d(a-x)}{dt} = \frac{dx}{dt} \right]$$

$$\frac{dx}{(a-x)} = k dt$$

Integrate the above equation

$$\int \frac{dx}{(a-x)} = \int k dt$$

where C is the integration constant

The value of C is evaluated as follows; At the beginning of reaction $t=0$ and the amount of the substance reacted $x=0$, substituting the values of x and t in equation (6) we get

$$-\ln(a-0) = k \times 0 + C \quad C = -\ln a$$

The value of the rate constant does not depend upon the unit in which concentration is expressed.

$$-\ln(a-x) = kt - \ln a \quad ; \quad kt - \ln a = -\ln(a-x)$$

$$kt = \ln a - \ln(a-x) = \ln \frac{a}{a-x}$$

$$k = \frac{1}{t} \ln \frac{a}{(a-x)}$$

$$k = \frac{2.303}{t} \log \frac{a}{a-x}$$

The equation (7) is shown as the first order rate equation. k is the rate constant

$$\text{Unit for } k : k = \frac{2.303}{t} \log \frac{a}{a-x}$$

$$= \frac{1}{\text{Sec}} \frac{\text{mole / litre}}{\text{mole / litre}} = \text{sec}^{-1}$$

The Value of the rate Constant does not depend upon the Unit in which Concentration is expressed.

Example

Hydrolysis of methyl acetate in presence of acids.

Inversion of cane Sugar in presence of acids.

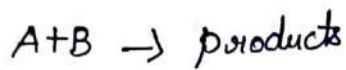
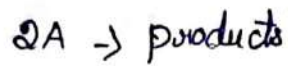
Characteristics

The rate of the reaction depends of one Concentration term only

The rate of the reaction is proportional to the Concentration of the reactant.

Second order reaction

Second order reaction is depends on two concentration terms. The second order reaction is the rate of two reaction is proportional to square of the concentration of one substance to the products of the concentration of two substance



Differential form of rate equation for two reactants of equimolar concentration.

$$\frac{dx}{dt} = k(a-x)^2$$

Integral form of rate equation for two reactant of equimolar concentration

$$k = \frac{1}{t} = \frac{x}{a(a-x)}$$

Derivation



Let us start with equimolar concentration of A and B say "a" moles per litre. Let 'x' moles per litre of A and 'x' moles per litre of B react in a time t. Now the concentration of A will be (a-x) and that of B also will be (a-x)

$$\frac{dx}{dt} = k(a-x)(a-x) = k(a-x)^2$$

$$\frac{dx}{(a-x)^2} = k dt$$

on integration

$$\int \frac{dx}{(a-x)^2} = \int k dt$$

$$\text{i.e., } \frac{1}{a-x} = kt + c$$

where c is integration constant

The value of c is evaluated as follows. At the beginning of the reaction. The time $t=0$ and the amount of the substance reacted $x=0$.

Substituting values of x and t in above equation we get

$$\frac{1}{(a-0)} = k \times 0 + c$$

$$c = \frac{1}{a}$$

$$\frac{1}{(a-x)} = kt + \frac{1}{a}$$

$$kt + \frac{1}{a} = \frac{1}{(a-x)}$$

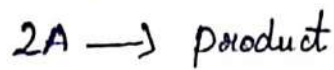
$$kt = \frac{1}{(a-x)} - \frac{1}{a} = \frac{a - (a-x)}{a(a-x)}$$

So,

$$k = \frac{1}{t} \frac{x}{a(a-x)} \quad \text{--- (10)}$$

The equation (10) is known as the second order rate equation k is the rate constant

ii) Let us consider a reaction



Let the concentration of A be a mole per litre

Let x moles per litre react in a time t .

Now the concentration of A will be $(a-x)$

So

$$\frac{dx}{dt} = k(a-x)^2$$

Rest of the derivation is the same as in a(i) above

$$\text{Unit for } k : k = \frac{1}{t} \frac{x}{a(a-x)}$$

$$= \frac{1}{\text{sec}} \frac{\text{Mole/litre}}{(\text{mole/litre})^2}$$

$$\boxed{k = \text{litre mole}^{-1} \text{sec}^{-1}}$$

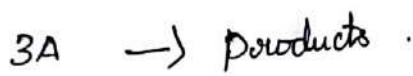
The value of rate constant depends upon the unit in which the concentration is expressed

$$\frac{dx}{dt} = k(a-x)(b-x) \quad (\text{Differential form of rate equation})$$

$$k = \frac{2.303}{t(a-b)} \log \frac{b(a-x)}{a(b-x)} \quad (\text{Integral form of rate equation})$$

Third Order reaction:

Third order reaction is depends on the three concentration terms. The third order reaction is the rate of the reaction is proportional to the cube of the concentration of one substance.



The integral form of rate equations for the three reactants of the same concentration

$$k = \frac{1}{2t} \left\{ \frac{1}{(a-x)^2} - \frac{1}{a^2} \right\}$$

This equation is called Third order equation

$$k - \text{Rate Constants} \quad (a-b)^2 = a^2 - 2ab + b^2$$

This equation simplification

$$k = \frac{1}{2t} \frac{x(2a-x)}{a^2(a-x)^2}$$

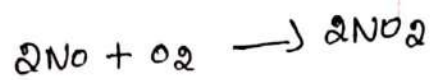
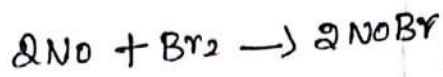
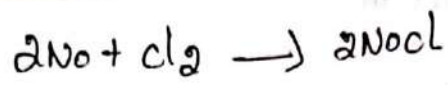
$$\text{Unit} = \frac{1}{\text{Sec}} \frac{\text{mole/litre} \text{ mole/litre}}{(\text{mole/litre})^2 (\text{mole/litre})^2}$$

$$= \frac{1}{\text{Sec}} \text{mole/litre} \text{ mole/litre}$$

$$= \frac{1}{\text{Sec}} \text{ mole}^{-2} \text{ litre}^{-2}$$

$$k = \text{Sec}^{-1} \text{ mole}^{-2} \text{ litre}^{-2}$$

Examples



Expression of half life period of 1st order, 2nd order and Zero order reaction

It is denoted $t_{1/2}$

$$x = \frac{a}{2}$$

Sub. first order reaction

$$k = \left[\frac{2.303}{t} \log \frac{a}{a-x} \right]$$

we get

$$k = \frac{2.303}{t} \log \frac{a}{\left[a - \frac{a}{2} \right]}$$

$$t_{1/2} = \frac{2.303}{k} \log \frac{a}{a - \frac{a}{2}}$$

$$\log \frac{a}{a/2} = \log \frac{2}{1}$$

$$= \frac{2.303}{k} \log 2$$

$$= \frac{2.303}{k} \times 0.3010$$

$$t_{1/2} = \frac{0.693}{k}$$

The Half period of the first order reaction is constant

Expression for Half life period of Second order

Reaction

$$t_{1/2}; x = a/2$$

Sub 2nd order reaction

$$k = \left[\frac{1}{t} \frac{x}{a(a-x)} \right]$$

We get

$$k = \frac{1}{t_{1/2}} \frac{a/2}{a - (a - a/2)}$$

$$t_{1/2} = \frac{1}{k} \frac{a/2}{a - a/2}$$

$$= \frac{1}{ka}$$

$$t_{1/2} \propto \frac{1}{a}$$

The half life period of the second order reaction is inversely proportional to the concentration of the reactant.

Expression for the Half period of third order reactions

$$t_{1/2}; x = a/2$$

Sub 3rd order Rnx

$$k = \frac{1}{2t} \left[\frac{1}{(a-x)^2} - \frac{1}{a^2} \right]$$

$$k = \frac{1}{2t_{1/2}} \left[\frac{1}{(a - a/2)^2} - \frac{1}{a^2} \right]$$

$$k = \frac{1}{2t_{1/2}} \left[\frac{1}{\left(\frac{a}{2}\right)^2} - \frac{1}{a^2} \right]$$

$$t_{1/2} = \frac{1}{2k} \left[\frac{4-1}{a^2} \right]$$

$$t_{1/2} = \frac{3}{2ka^2}$$

$$\frac{3}{2k} = \text{Constant}$$

$$\boxed{t_{1/2} \propto \frac{1}{a^2}}$$

The half life period of the third order reaction is inversely proportional to the concentration of the reactant.

Expression for the half life period of Zero Order Reaction

$$t_{1/2} \quad ; \quad x = a/2$$

Sub Zero order rate Equation

$$k = \frac{x}{t}$$

$$= \frac{a/2}{t_{1/2}}$$

$$t_{1/2} = a/2k$$

$$\frac{1}{2}k = \text{Constant}$$

$$t_{1/2} \propto a$$

The half life period the zero order reaction is directly proportional to initial concentration

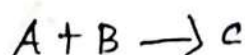
(X)

Pseudo First Order reaction

The reaction whose molecularly is two But order is one is called pseudo first order reaction

Explanation

Consider the reactions



The above reactions take place one molecule of A and one

Molecule B are essential & it is
molecularity is two

Let us double the concentration of A keeping
B constant. So the rate of the reaction
is doubled. So the reaction is bimolecular
and second order.

The molecularity of a reaction is two
But order is only one. So the reaction
is known as pseudo first order reaction

Example

Hydrolysis of ethyl acetate in water



Methods for determination of order of reaction

Method 1:

1. Integration Method [Mid and trial Method]

* Using characteristic equation

In this method the initial
concentration of all the reactants taking part
of determined.

The concentration of the reacting substance
at different intervals of time are also
determined

The Different Values of x are determined.

These Values are substituted in the different rate equation.

The equation which gives the most constant Values of Volacity constant for a Series of interval of time will give order of the reaction

Limitations :

* This method can't be Use Complex reactions

* In this method should be studied time interval of the reactions.

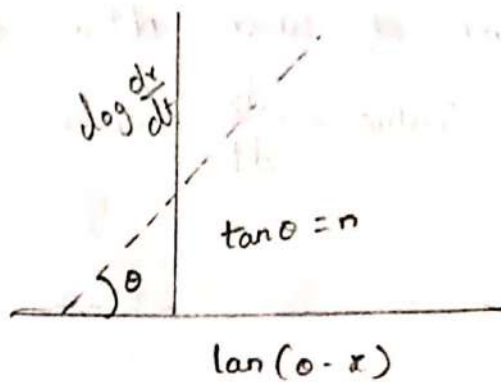
2. Differential Method.

$$\text{We know that } \frac{dx}{dt} = k(a-x)^n$$

Taking log on both sides

$$\log\left(\frac{dx}{dt}\right) = \log k + n \log(a-x)$$

A graph drawn $\log\left(\frac{dx}{dt}\right)$ vs $\log(a-x)$



The slope of the curve is found the slope gives the order of the reactions

3. Graphical Method.

First order reactions

$$\frac{dx}{dt} = k(a-x)^1$$

Second order reaction

$$\frac{dx}{dt} = k(a-x)^2$$

Third order reactions

$$\frac{dx}{dt} = k(a-x)^3$$

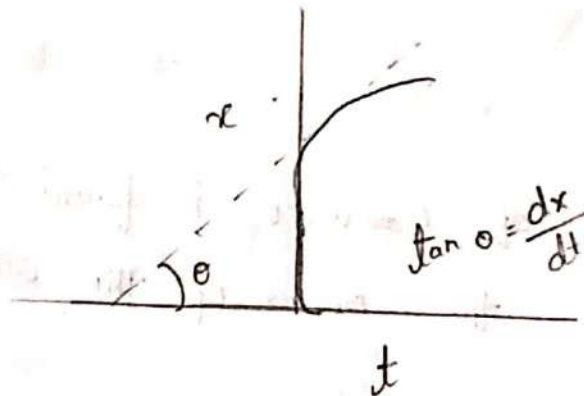
nth order reactions

$$\frac{dx}{dt} = k(a-x)^n$$

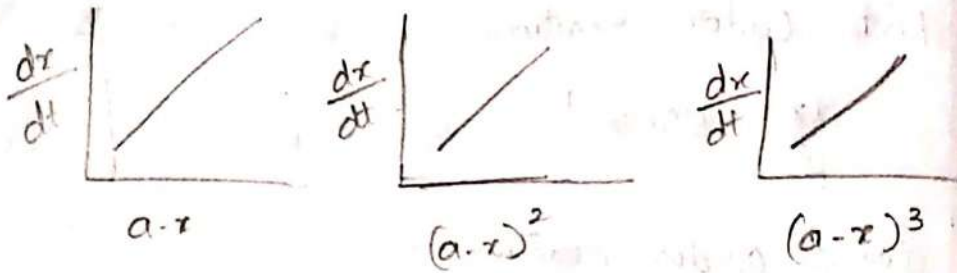
To find $\frac{dx}{dt}$

The values of dx/dt at a different intervals of time can be determined by plotting a curve between x and time t .

The Nature of curve obtain the figure
 the Slope Value = $\frac{dx}{dt}$



The Slope is nothing that $\tan \theta$ Value



4. Half life method :

we have already ~~dx~~ half life reactions is independent of concentration for a first order Reaction

It is inversely proportional to the Concentration
 Second Order Reaction

It is inversely proportional to the Square of the Concentration for a third order Reaction

The half life change in any order is inversely proportional to the initial concentration raised to the power of the reaction order.

$$t_{1/2} = \frac{k}{a^{n-1}}$$

where,

n - Order of Reaction

t_1, t_2 - The time intervals for half change

of particular Reaction

$$t_1/t_2 = \left[\frac{a_2}{a_1} \right]^{n-1}$$

a_2, a_1 = Initial Concentration

The order of the Reaction can be calculated above Equation

Ostwald's isolation

The reacting substance is taken in large excess, its concentration does not change

It can be taken as constant

All, Reaction is except one are taken in large excess and the order of Reaction is determined by this method. The process of the Reaction. Some, the of the all the total of order of Reaction.

Advantage

* Each Component can be differentiated Separately

* This are the Method of Order of Reaction

Principle are techniques of Kinetic Reaction

Principle :

The change in some properties of Reaction or products are measured at various intervals of time, and from the Rate Constant cannot be calculated

Technique Techniques

Volumetry :

In the techniques, the change in Volume of Reactants and products

Kinetics of decomposition of H_2O_2 :

This can be studied by the techniques in the presence of platinum block.

H_2O_2 decomposes into water and oxygen

The reaction can be followed in two water by cooling the oxygen, gas evolved during the decomposition and measuring its volume at definite intervals of time

Let V_t - Volume of oxygen, evolved at time t

$$t = V\alpha$$

The amount reacted after the time

$$t = x = V_t$$

Concentration be the volume at the end of the reaction, then the initial concentration after time $t = (a - x) = V\alpha - V_t$

$$k = \frac{2.303}{t} \log \frac{V_0}{V\alpha - V_t}$$

The equal portion of H_2O_2 are titrated

Comparison between CT and ARRT:

In the Collision theory of Reaction Rates the Frequency Factor A is found to be related to the number of collisions taking place per Unit Volume per second. In the Activated Complex theory the Frequency Factor is found to be related to the Entropy of Activation.

In the case of a Reaction Involving Simple Molecules, that is Molecules which can be taken as Rigid Spheres, the two theories agree. That is, the value of A calculated from Equation (14) has been found to be same as the value of Z .

In the case of Reactions Involving Complex Molecules, the Collision theory fails, but still the absolute Reaction Rate theory holds good because the Experimental value agrees with the calculated values from Equation. Therefore the absolute Reaction Rate theory is superior to the collision theory.

Reason for the failure of collision theory:

When we consider complex molecules, they contain large number of atoms. When they form activated complex, there is a large decrease in the entropy. From equation we know that

$$A = \frac{kT}{h} e^{\Delta S^\ddagger / R}$$

The value kT/h is always constant. So when there is decrease in the value of entropy, the value of A decreases considerably. Therefore for complex reactions, the value of the frequency factor is less when compared to simple molecules for which it is equal to 1. Therefore it becomes necessary to introduce a probability factor p in the equation for the collision theory of reaction rates. A is related to pZ .

principle and techniques of kinetic reaction:

principle:

The change in some properties of reaction or products are measured at various intervals of time, and from the slope constant cannot be calculated.

Techniques:

volumetry:

In the techniques, the change in volume of reactants and products.

kinetics of decomposition of H_2O_2 :

This can be studied by the decrease in the presence of platinum black.

H_2O_2 decomposes into water and oxygen:

The reaction can be followed in two ways by cooling the oxygen, gas evolved, during the decomposition and measuring its volume at definite intervals of time.

The relationship between the various factors is given by the following equation.

$$[\alpha]_D^t = \frac{\alpha}{lc}$$

where $[\alpha]_D^t$ is the specific rotation for sodium D line at $t^\circ\text{C}$, α = optical rotation; l = length of the cell in dm and c = concentration of the solution in g/cc.

The specific rotation is measured by an instrument called polarimeter. study of reactions using a polarimeter is called polarimetry.



When ordinary, non-polarised light is passed through a Nicol prism it becomes plane polarised i.e., the electric and magnetic vectors vibrate in only one direction

When this polarised light is passed through some substances, the plane of the plane polarised light is turned either to the left or right. Such substances are called optically active. The phenomenon is called optical activity

The optical rotation arising because of optical activity of substances can be used to follow the kinetics of reactions.

The optical rotation depends on.

- i) The wavelength of the light, λ .
- ii) Temperature, T
- iii) The cell length, l and
- iv) The concentration of the solution, c

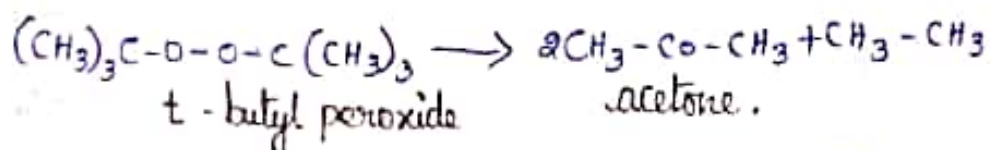
Manometry:

principle:

using a manometer the pressure of a reaction mixture can be measured at different intervals of time. From the pressures measured at different intervals of time the rate constant can be calculated. This technique can be applied only if both the reactants and products are gases.

Experiments:

Tertiary butyl peroxide decomposes to give acetone and ethane.



The above reaction is conducted in vapour state. The initial pressure of the reactant is measured as P_0 . One mole of t-butyl peroxide decomposes to give two mole of acetone and one mole of ethane. That is the pressure is increased three times. The final pressure of the product is $3P_0$. That is $3P_0 - P_0 = 2P_0$. The value of $2P_0$ is directly proportional to the initial concentration of the peroxide.

Let V_t = Volume of oxygen, evolved at time t

$$t = V_\infty$$

The amount reacted after the time

$$t = x = V_t$$

concentration be the volume at the end of the reaction, then the initial concentration after

$$\text{time } t = (a-x) = V_\infty - V_t$$

$$k = \frac{2.303}{t} \log \frac{V_0}{V_\infty - V_t}$$

The equal portion of H_2O_2 are titrated against standard $KMnO_4$ solution at regular intervals.

The titrated value gives amount of H_2O_2 and decomposed.

This method is more convenient

The experimental result shows that decomposition of H_2O_2 follows first order kinetics.

Calculation:

The volume of KMnO_4 required by a particular volume of hydrogen peroxide (H_2O_2)

The beginning of experiment equal to V_1

The initial concentration of $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2 = a$.

The volume of KMnO_4 required by some volume of H_2O_2 after a time interval $t = t_2$

The concentration of H_2O_2 remaining at the time $t = a - x$.

The values of 'a' and 'a-x' are substituted first order rate equation.

$$k = \frac{2.303}{t} \log \frac{a}{a-x}$$

$$k = \frac{2.303}{t} \log \frac{V_1}{V_2}$$

This value k is found to be constant showing that decomposition of H_2O_2 follows 'first order reaction'