$$\begin{array}{c} \text{H}_{3}\text{C}-\text{CH}_{2} & \text{C}-\text{CH}_{2} & \text{C}-\text{H} \\ 3-\text{Oxopentanal} & \text{CH}_{3} & \text{CH}_{3} & \text{CH}_{3} \\ \text{CH}_{3}-\text{CH}-\text{C}-\text{CH}-\text{CH}_{3} \\ \text{2,4-Dimethylpentan-3-one} \\ \\ \hline \\ \text{OHC-CH}_{2}-\text{CH}-\text{CH}_{2}-\text{CHO} \\ \\ \text{CHO} \\ \\ \text{NO}_{2} & \text{Propane-1,2,3-tricarbaldehyde} \\ \\ \text{4-Nitrobenzenecarbaldehyde} & \text{Note: To give identical treatment to all aldehydic groups, the compound is named as shown above.} \\ \hline \end{array}$$

The common and IUPAC names of some aldehydes and ketones are given in Table 12.1.

Table 12.1: Common and IUPAC Names of Some Aldehydes and Ketones

Structure	Соттоп пате	IUPAC name
Aldehydes HCHO	Formaldehyde	Methanal
CH₃CHO (CH₃)₂CHCHO	Acetaldehyde Isobutyraldehyde	Ethanal 2-Methylpropanal
H ₃ C CHO	γ-Methylcyclohexanecarbaldehyde	3-Methylcyclohexanecarbaldehyde
CH ₃ CH(OCH ₃)CHO	α-Methoxypropionaldehyde	2-Methoxypropanal
CH ₃ CH ₂ CH ₂ CH ₂ CHO	Valeraldehyde	Pentanal
CH ₂ =CHCHO	Acrolein	Prop-2-enal
СНО	Phthaldehyde	Benzene-1,2-dicarbaldehyde
CHO	$\emph{m} ext{-} ext{Bromobenzaldehyde}$	3-Bromobenzenecarbaldehyde or 3-Bromobenzaldehyde
Ketones		
CH ₃ COCH ₂ CH ₂ CH ₃	Methyl <i>n</i> -propyl ketone	Pentan-2-one
(CH ₃) ₂ CHCOCH(CH ₃) ₂	Diisopropyl ketone	2,4-Dimethylpentan-3-one
CH_3	α-Methylcyclohexanone	2-Methylcyclohexanone
(CH ₃) ₂ C=CHCOCH ₃	Mesityl oxide	4-Methylpent-3-en-2-one

12.1.2 Structure of the Carbonyl Group

The carbonyl carbon atom is sp^2 -hybridised and forms three sigma (σ) bonds. The fourth valence electron of carbon remains in its p-orbital and forms a π -bond with oxygen by overlap with p-orbital of an oxygen. In addition, the oxygen atom also has two non bonding electron pairs. Thus, the carbonyl carbon and the three atoms attached to it lie in the same plane and the π -electron cloud is above and below this plane. The bond angles are approximately 120° as expected of a trigonal coplanar structure (Figure 12.1).

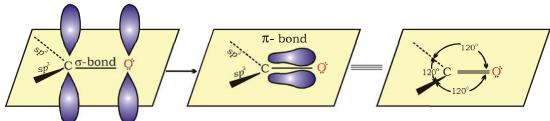
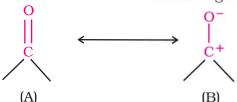


Fig.12.1 Orbital diagram for the formation of carbonyl group

The carbon-oxygen double bond is polarised due to higher electronegativity of oxygen relative to carbon. Hence, the carbonyl



carbon is an electrophilic (Lewis acid), and carbonyl oxygen, a nucleophilic (Lewis base) centre. Carbonyl compounds have substantial dipole moments and are polar than ethers. The high polarity of the carbonyl group is explained on the basis of resonance involving a neutral (A) and a dipolar (B) structures as shown.

Intext Questions

- **12.1** Write the structures of the following compounds.
 - (i) α-Methoxypropionaldehyde
 - (iii) 2-Hydroxycyclopentane carbaldehyde
 - (v) Di-sec. butyl ketone
- (ii) 3-Hydroxybutanal (iv) 4-Oxopentanal
- (vi) 4-Fluoroacetophenone
- 12.2 Preparation of Aldehydes Some important methods for the preparation of aldehydes and ketones are as follows: and Ketones
- 12.2.1 Preparation of Aldehydes and **Ketones**

1. By oxidation of alcohols

Aldehydes and ketones are generally prepared by oxidation of primary and secondary alcohols, respectively (Unit 11, Class XII).

2. By dehydrogenation of alcohols

This method is suitable for volatile alcohols and is of industrial application. In this method alcohol vapours are passed over heavy metal catalysts (Ag or Cu). Primary and secondary alcohols give aldehydes and ketones, respectively (Unit 11, Class XII).

3. From hydrocarbons

(i) By ozonolysis of alkenes: As we know, ozonolysis of alkenes followed by reaction with zinc dust and water gives aldehydes,

ketones or a mixture of both depending on the substitution pattern of the alkene (Unit 13, Class XI).

(ii) By hydration of alkynes: Addition of water to ethyne in the presence of H_2SO_4 and $HgSO_4$ gives acetaldehyde. All other alkynes give ketones in this reaction (Unit 13, Class XI).

12.2.2 Preparation of Aldehydes

1. From acyl chloride (acid chloride)

Acyl chloride (acid chloride) is hydrogenated over catalyst, palladium on barium sulphate. This reaction is called **Rosenmund reduction**.

$$CI \xrightarrow{H_2} CHO$$

$$Pd - BaSO_4$$

Benzoyl chloride

Benzaldehyde

2. From nitriles and esters

Nitriles are reduced to corresponding imine with stannous chloride in the presence of hydrochloric acid, which on hydrolysis give corresponding aldehyde.

$$RCN + SnCl_2 + HCl \longrightarrow RCH = NH \xrightarrow{H_3O} RCHO$$

This reaction is called Stephen reaction.

Alternatively, nitriles are selectively reduced by disobutylaluminium hydride, (DIBAL-H) to imines followed by hydrolysis to aldehydes:

$$\begin{array}{c} \text{RCN} \xrightarrow{\text{1. AlH(i-Bu)}_2} \text{R-CHO} \\ \\ \text{CH}_3 - \text{CH=CH-CH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{-CN} \xrightarrow{\text{1. AlH(i-Bu)}_2} \text{CH}_3 - \text{CH=CH-CH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{-CHO} \\ \\ \end{array}$$

Similarly, esters are also reduced to aldehydes with DIBAL-H.

$$CH_3(CH_2)_9 - C - OC_2H_5 \xrightarrow{1. DIBAL-H} CH_3(CH_2)_9 - C - H$$

3. From hydrocarbons

Aromatic aldehydes (benzaldehyde and its derivatives) are prepared from aromatic hydrocarbons by the following methods:

(i) By oxidation of methylbenzene

Strong oxidising agents oxidise toluene and its derivatives to benzoic acids. However, it is possible to stop the oxidation at the aldehyde stage with suitable reagents that convert the methyl group to an intermediate that is difficult to oxidise further. The following methods are used for this purpose.

(a) Use of chromyl chloride (CrO₂Cl₂): Chromyl chloride oxidises methyl group to a chromium complex, which on hydrolysis gives corresponding benzaldehyde.

This reaction is called **Etard reaction**.

(b) Use of chromic oxide (CrO₃): Toluene or substituted toluene is converted to benzylidene diacetate on treating with chromic oxide in acetic anhydride. The benzylidene diacetate can be hydrolysed to corresponding benzaldehyde with aqueous acid.

(ii) By side chain chlorination followed by hydrolysis

Side chain chlorination of toluene gives benzal chloride, which on hydrolysis gives benzaldehyde. This is a commercial method of manufacture of benzaldehyde.

Benzaldehyde

$$CH_3$$
 Cl_2/hv $CHCl_2$ H_2O CHO

Toluene Benzal chloride Benzaldehyde

(iii) By Gatterman - Koch reaction

When benzene or its derivative is treated with carbon monoxide and hydrogen chloride in the presence of anhydrous aluminium chloride or cuprous chloride, it gives benzaldehyde or substituted benzaldehyde.

This reaction is known as **Gatterman-Koch** reaction.

12.2.3 Preparation 1. From acyl chlorides of Ketones Treatment of earlichle

Treatment of acyl chlorides with dialkylcadmium, prepared by the reaction of cadmium chloride with Grignard reagent, gives ketones.

$$2 R - Mg - X + CdCl2 \longrightarrow R2Cd + 2Mg(X)Cl$$

$$2 R' - C - Cl + R2Cd \longrightarrow 2 R' - C - R + CdCl2$$

2. From nitriles

Treating a nitrile with Grignard reagent followed by hydrolysis yields a ketone.

$$\mathrm{CH_{3}-CH_{2}-C} = \mathrm{N} + \mathrm{C_{6}H_{5}MgBr} \xrightarrow{\mathrm{ether}} \mathrm{CH_{3}CH_{2}-C} \xrightarrow{\mathrm{NMgBr}} \xrightarrow{\mathrm{H_{3}O^{^{+}}}} \mathrm{C_{2}H_{5}-C} \xrightarrow{\mathrm{C}_{6}\mathrm{H_{5}}}$$

Propiophenone (1-Phenylpropanone)

3. From benzene or substituted benzenes

When benzene or substituted benzene is treated with acid chloride in the presence of anhydrous aluminium chloride, it affords the corresponding ketone. This reaction is known as **Friedel-Crafts acylation reaction**.

Example 12.1

Give names of the reagents to bring about the following transformations:

- (i) Hexan-1-ol to hexanal
- (ii) Cyclohexanol to cyclohexanone
- (iii) *p*-Fluorotoluene to *p*-fluorobenzaldehyde
- (iv) Ethanenitrile to ethanal
- (v) Allyl alcohol to propenal
- (vi) But-2-ene to ethanal

Solution

- (i) C₅H₅NH⁺CrO₃Cl⁻(PCC)
- (ii) Anhydrous CrO₃
- (iii) CrO₃ in the presence of acetic anhydride/ 1. CrO₂Cl₂ 2. HOH
- (iv) (Diisobutyl)aluminium hydride (DIBAL-H)

(v) PCC

(vi) O₃/H₂O-Zn dust

Intext Question

12.2 Write the structures of products of the following reactions;

(i)
$$C$$
 + C_2H_5 C1 C Anhyd. AlCl₃ C CS₂

(ii)
$$(C_6H_5CH_2)_2Cd + 2CH_3COCl \rightarrow$$

(iii)
$$H_3C-C\equiv C-H$$
 Hg^{2+} , H_2SO_4

(iv)
$$\begin{array}{c} CH_3 \\ \hline 1.CrO_2Cl_2 \\ \hline 2.H_3O^+ \end{array}$$

Intext Question

12.3 Arrange the following compounds in increasing order of their boiling points.

CH₂CHO, CH₂CH₂OH, CH₃OCH₃, CH₃CH₂CH₃

12.4 Chemical Reactions

Since aldehydes and ketones both possess the carbonyl functional group, they undergo similar chemical reactions.

1. Nucleophilic addition reactions

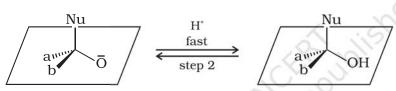
Contrary to electrophilic addition reactions observed in alkenes (refer Unit 13, Class XI), the aldehydes and ketones undergo nucleophilic addition reactions.

(i) Mechanism of nucleophilic addition reactions

A nucleophile attacks the electrophilic carbon atom of the polar carbonyl group from a direction approximately perpendicular to the plane of sp^2 hybridised orbitals of carbonyl carbon (Fig. 12.2). The hybridisation of carbon changes from sp^2 to sp^3 in this process, and a tetrahedral alkoxide intermediate is produced. This

 δ δ Planar slow step 1

Nu



Tetrahedral intermediate Addition product

intermediate captures a proton from the reaction medium to give electrically neutral product. The net result is addition of Nu and H across the carbon oxygen double bond as shown in Fig. 12.2.

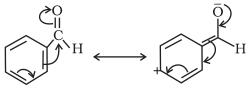
Fig.12.2: Nucleophilic attack on carbonyl carbon

(ii) Reactivity

Aldehydes are generally more reactive than ketones in nucleophilic addition reactions due to steric and electronic reasons. Sterically, the presence of two relatively large substituents in ketones hinders the approach of nucleophile to carbonyl carbon than in aldehydes having only one such substituent. Electronically, aldehydes are more reactive than ketones because two alkyl groups reduce the electrophilicity of the carbonyl carbon more effectively than in former.

Example 12.3 Would you expect benzaldehyde to be more reactive or less reactive in nucleophilic addition reactions than propanal? Explain your answer.

Solution The carbon atom of the carbonyl group of benzaldehyde is less electrophilic than carbon atom of the carbonyl group present in



propanal. The polarity of the carbonyl group is reduced in benzaldehyde due to resonance as shown below and hence it is less reactive than propanal.

(iii) Some important examples of nucleophilic addition and nucleophilic addition-elimination reactions:

(a) Addition of hydrogen cyanide (HCN): Aldehydes and ketones react with hydrogen cyanide (HCN) to yield cyanohydrins. This reaction occurs very slowly with pure HCN. Therefore, it is catalysed by a base and the generated cyanide ion (CN) being a stronger nucleophile readily adds to carbonyl compounds to yield corresponding cyanohydrin.

Cyanohydrins are useful synthetic intermediates.

(b) Addition of sodium hydrogensulphite: Sodium hydrogensulphite adds to aldehydes and ketones to form the addition products.

Bisulphite addition compound (crystalline)

The position of the equilibrium lies largely to the right hand side for most aldehydes and to the left for most

ketones due to steric reasons. The hydrogensulphite addition compound is water soluble and can be converted back to the original carbonyl compound by treating it with dilute mineral acid or alkali. Therefore, these are useful for separation and purification of aldehydes.

- (c) Addition of Grignard reagents: (refer Unit 11, Class XII).
- (d) Addition of alcohols: Aldehydes react with one equivalent of monohydric alcohol in the presence of dry hydrogen chloride to yield alkoxyalcohol intermediate, known as hemiacetals, which further react with one more molecule of alcohol to

$$R-CHO \xrightarrow{R'OH} \begin{bmatrix} R'OH \\ HCl gas \\ R-CH \\ OH \end{bmatrix} \xrightarrow{R'OH} R-CH \\ Hemiacetal Acetal$$
 Acetal

give a gem-dialkoxy compound known as acetal as shown in the reaction.

Ketones react with ethylene glycol under similar conditions to form cyclic products known as ethylene glycol ketals.

Dry hydrogen chloride protonates the oxygen of the carbonyl compounds and therefore, increases the electrophilicity of the carbonyl carbon facilitating

R C=O +
$$CH_2OH$$
 HCl gas R C O - CH_2 + H_2O Ethylene glycol ketal

the nucleophilic attack of ethylene glycol. Acetals and ketals are hydrolysed with aqueous mineral acids to yield corresponding aldehydes and ketones respectively.

(e) Addition of ammonia and its derivatives: Nucleophiles, such as ammonia and its derivatives H₂N-Z add to the carbonyl group of aldehydes and ketones. The reaction is reversible

and catalysed by acid. The equilibrium favours the product intermediate to form >C=N-Z.

Z = Alkyl, aryl, OH, NH_2 , C_6H_5NH , $NHCONH_2$, etc.

Table 12.2: Some N-Substituted Derivatives of Aldehydes and Ketones (>C=N-Z)

Z	Reagent name	Carbonyl derivative	Product name
-Н	Ammonia	C=NH	Imine
-R	Amine	>C=NR	Substituted imine (Schiff's base)
—ОН	Hydroxylamine	C=N-OH	Oxime
—NH ₂	Hydrazine	C=N-NH ₂	Hydrazone
—HN—	Phenylhydrazine	C=N-NH	Phenylhydrazone
O ₂ N —NO ₂	2,4-Dinitrophenyl- hydrazine	O_2N $C=N-NH$ NO_2	2,4 Dinitrophenyl- hydrazone
O II —NH—C—NH ₂	Semicarbazide	$C=N-NH-C-NH_2$	Semicarbazone

^{* 2,4-}DNP-derivatives are yellow, orange or red solids, useful for characterisation of aldehydes and ketones.

2. Reduction

- (i) Reduction to alcohols: Aldehydes and ketones are reduced to primary and secondary alcohols respectively by sodium borohydride (NaBH₄) or lithium aluminium hydride (LiAlH₄) as well as by catalytic hydrogenation (Unit 11, Class XII).
- (ii) Reduction to hydrocarbons: The carbonyl group of aldehydes and ketones is reduced to CH2 group on treatment with zincamalgam and concentrated hydrochloric acid [Clemmensen

reduction] or with hydrazine followed by heating with sodium or potassium hydroxide in high boiling solvent such as ethylene glycol (Wolff-Kishner reduction).

C=O
$$\xrightarrow{\text{Zn-Hg}}$$
 CH₂ + H₂O (Clemmensen reduction)

C=O $\xrightarrow{\text{NH}_2\text{NH}_2}$ C=NNH₂ $\xrightarrow{\text{KOH/ethylene glycol}}$ CH₂ + N₂ (Wolff-Kishner rduction)

3. Oxidation

Bernhard Tollens (1841-1918) was a Professor of Chemistry at the University of Gottingen, Germany. Aldehydes differ from ketones in their oxidation reactions. Aldehydes are easily oxidised to carboxylic acids on treatment with common oxidising agents like nitric acid, potassium permanganate, potassium dichromate, etc. Even mild oxidising agents, mainly Tollens' reagent and Fehlings' reagent also oxidise aldehydes.

$$R-CHO \xrightarrow{[O]} R-COOH$$

Ketones are generally oxidised under vigorous conditions, i.e., strong oxidising agents and at elevated temperatures. Their oxidation involves carbon-carbon bond cleavage to afford a mixture of carboxylic acids having lesser number of carbon atoms than the parent ketone.

$$R \xrightarrow{CH_2} \xrightarrow{C} \xrightarrow{C} \xrightarrow{CH_2-R'} \xrightarrow{[O]} R \xrightarrow{COOH} + R' - CH_2 \xrightarrow{COOH}$$

$$(By cleavage of C_1 - C_2 bond)$$

$$+$$

$$R - CH_2 \xrightarrow{COOH} + R' - COOH$$

$$(By cleavage of C_2 - C_3 bond)$$

The mild oxidising agents given below are used to distinguish aldehydes from ketones:

(i) Tollens' test: On warming an aldehyde with freshly prepared ammoniacal silver nitrate solution (Tollens' reagent), a bright silver mirror is produced due to the formation of silver metal. The aldehydes are oxidised to corresponding carboxylate anion. The reaction occurs in alkaline medium.

(ii) Fehling's test: Fehling reagent comprises of two solutions, Fehling solution A and Fehling solution B. Fehling solution A is aqueous copper sulphate and Fehling solution B is alkaline sodium potassium tartarate (Rochelle salt). These two solutions are mixed in equal amounts before test. On heating an aldehyde with Fehling's reagent, a reddish brown precipitate is obtained. Aldehydes are oxidised to corresponding carboxylate anion. Aromatic aldehydes do not respond to this test.

R-CHO +
$$2Cu^{2+}$$
 + $5\overline{O}H \longrightarrow RCO\overline{O}$ + Cu_2O + $3H_2O$
Red-brown ppt

(iii) Oxidation of methyl ketones by haloform reaction: Aldehydes and ketones having at least one methyl group linked to the carbonyl carbon atom (methyl ketones) are oxidised by sodium hypohalite to sodium salts of

$$R \xrightarrow{C} CH_3 \xrightarrow{NaOX} R \xrightarrow{C} ONa + CHX_3 \quad (X=Cl, Br, l)$$

$$H \xrightarrow{C} CH_3 \xrightarrow{NaOCl} H_3C \xrightarrow{NaOCl} ONa + CHCl_3$$

corresponding carboxylic acids having one carbon atom less than that of carbonyl compound. The methyl group is converted to haloform. This oxidation does not affect a carbon-carbon double bond, if present in the molecule.

Iodoform reaction with sodium hypoiodite is also used for detection of CH₃CO group or CH₃CH(OH) group which produces CH₃CO group on oxidation.

Example 12.4

An organic compound (A) with molecular formula C_8H_8O forms an orange-red precipitate with 2,4-DNP reagent and gives yellow precipitate on heating with iodine in the presence of sodium hydroxide. It neither reduces Tollens' or Fehlings' reagent, nor does it decolourise bromine water or Baeyer's reagent. On drastic oxidation with chromic acid, it gives a carboxylic acid (B) having molecular formula $C_7H_6O_2$. Identify the compounds (A) and (B) and explain the reactions involved.

Solution

(A) forms 2,4-DNP derivative. Therefore, it is an aldehyde or a ketone. Since it does not reduce Tollens' or Fehling reagent, (A) must be a ketone. (A) responds to iodoform test. Therefore, it should be a methyl ketone. The molecular formula of (A) indicates high degree of unsaturation, yet it does not decolourise bromine water or Baeyer's reagent. This indicates the presence of unsaturation due to an aromatic ring.

Compound (B), being an oxidation product of a ketone should be a carboxylic acid. The molecular formula of (B) indicates that it should be benzoic acid and compound (A) should, therefore, be a monosubstituted aromatic methyl ketone. The molecular formula of (A) indicates that it should be phenyl methyl ketone (acetophenone). Reactions are as follows:

(B)
$$C_{7}H_{6}O_{2}$$

$$(A)$$

$$COOH$$

$$H_{2}CrO_{4}$$

$$C_{2}$$

$$C_{3}$$

$$I_{2}$$

$$C_{4}$$

$$I_{2}$$

$$I_{2}$$

$$I_{2}$$

$$I_{3}$$

4. Reactions due to a-hydrogen

Acidity of α -hydrogens of aldehydes and ketones: The aldehydes and ketones undergo a number of reactions due to the acidic nature of α -hydrogen.

The acidity of α -hydrogen atoms of carbonyl compounds is due to the strong electron withdrawing effect of the carbonyl group and resonance stabilisation of the conjugate base.

(i) Aldol condensation: Aldehydes and ketones having at least one α -hydrogen undergo a reaction in the presence of dilute alkali as catalyst to form β -hydroxy aldehydes (aldol) or β -hydroxy ketones (ketol), respectively. This is known as **Aldol reaction**.

$$2 \text{ CH}_{3}\text{-CHO} \stackrel{\text{dil. NaOH}}{\longleftarrow} \text{CH}_{3}\text{-CH-CH}_{2}\text{-CHO} \stackrel{\Delta}{\longrightarrow} \text{CH}_{3}\text{-CH=CH-CHO}$$
Ethanal
$$0 \text{H} \qquad \text{But-2-enal}$$

$$3 \text{-Hydroxybutanal} \qquad \text{(Aldol condensation product)}$$

$$2 \text{CH}_{3}\text{-CO-CH}_{3} \stackrel{\text{Ba(OH)}_{2}}{\longrightarrow} \text{CH}_{3}\text{-C-CH}_{2}\text{-CO-CH}_{3} \stackrel{\Delta}{\longrightarrow} \text{CH}_{3}\text{-C=CH-CO-CH}_{3}$$
Propanone
$$0 \text{H} \qquad 4 \text{-Methylpent-3-en-2-one} \qquad \text{(Ketol)} \qquad \text{(Aldol condensation product)}$$

The name aldol is derived from the names of the two functional groups, aldehyde and alcohol, present in the products. The aldol and ketol readily lose water to give α,β -unsaturated carbonyl compounds which are aldol condensation products and the reaction is called **Aldol condensation.** Though ketones give ketols (compounds containing a keto and alcohol groups), the general name aldol condensation still applies to the reactions of ketones due to their similarity with aldehydes.

(ii) Cross aldol condensation: When aldol condensation is carried out between two different aldehydes and / or ketones, it is called **cross aldol condensation**. If both of them contain α -hydrogen atoms, it gives a mixture of four products. This is illustrated below by aldol reaction of a mixture of ethanal and propanal.

Ketones can also be used as one component in the cross aldol reactions.

1, 3-Diphenylprop-2-en-1-one (Benzalacetophenone) (Major product)

5. Other reactions

(i) Cannizzaro reaction: Aldehydes which do not have an α -hydrogen atom, undergo self oxidation and reduction (disproportionation) reaction on heating with concentrated alkali. In this reaction, one molecule of the aldehyde is reduced to alcohol while another is oxidised to carboxylic acid salt.

H
C=O + Conc. KOH
$$\stackrel{\Delta}{\longrightarrow}$$
 H
C=O + Conc. KOH
 $\stackrel{A}{\longrightarrow}$ H
C=OH + H
C
OK

Formaldehyde

Methanol Potassium formate

2 CHO + Conc. NaOH
 $\stackrel{\Delta}{\longrightarrow}$ CH₂OH + COONa

Benzaldehyde

Benzyl alcohol Sodium benzoate

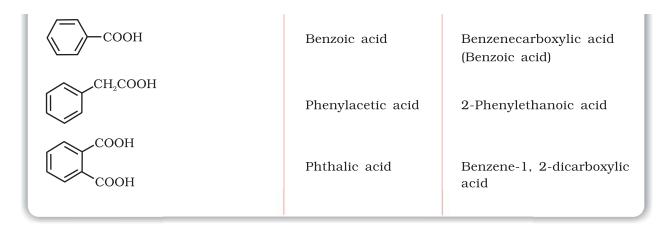
(ii) Electrophilic substitution reaction: Aromatic aldehydes and ketones undergo electrophilic substitution at the ring in which the carbonyl group acts as a deactivating and *meta*-directing group.

Intext Questions

- **12.4** Arrange the following compounds in increasing order of their reactivity in nucleophilic addition reactions.
 - (i) Ethanal, Propanal, Propanone, Butanone.
 - (ii) Benzaldehyde, *p*-Tolualdehyde, *p*-Nitrobenzaldehyde, Acetophenone. *Hint:* Consider steric effect and electronic effect.
- **12.5** Predict the products of the following reactions:

12.5 Uses of Aldehydes and Ketones

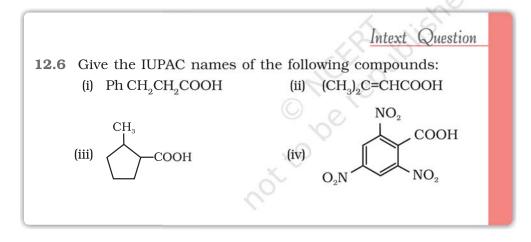
In chemical industry aldehydes and ketones are used as solvents, starting materials and reagents for the synthesis of other products. Formaldehyde is well known as formalin (40%) solution used to preserve biological specimens and to prepare bakelite (a phenol-formaldehyde resin), urea-formaldehyde glues and other polymeric products. Acetaldehyde is used primarily as a starting material in the manufacture of acetic acid, ethyl acetate, vinyl acetate, polymers and drugs. Benzaldehyde is used in perfumery and in dye industries. Acetone and ethyl methyl ketone are common industrial solvents. Many aldehydes and ketones, e.g., butyraldehyde, vanillin, acetophenone, camphor, etc. are well known for their odours and flavours.



12.6.2 Structure of Carboxyl Group

In carboxylic acids, the bonds to the carboxyl carbon lie in one plane and are separated by about 120°. The carboxylic carbon is less electrophilic than carbonyl carbon because of the possible resonance structure shown below:

$$-\overset{\circ}{C}_{\bullet}^{\bullet} \longleftrightarrow -\overset{\circ}{C}_{\bullet}^{+} \longleftrightarrow -\overset{\circ}{C}_{\bullet}^{\bullet} \overset{\circ}{\ominus}^{-H}$$



12.7 Methods of Preparation of Carboxylic Acids

Some important methods of preparation of carboxylic acids are as follows.

1. From primary alcohols and aldehydes

Primary alcohols are readily oxidised to carboxylic acids with common oxidising agents such as potassium permanganate (KMnO $_4$) in neutral, acidic or alkaline media or by potassium dichromate (K $_2$ Cr $_2$ O $_7$) and chromium trioxide (CrO $_3$) in acidic media (Jones reagent).

$$\begin{array}{c} \text{RCH}_2\text{OH} \xrightarrow{\text{1. alkaline KMnO}_4} \text{RCOOH} \\ \hline \text{2. H}_3\overset{+}{\text{O}} & \xrightarrow{\text{CrO}_3\text{-H}_2\text{SO}_4} \\ \text{1-Decanol} & \xrightarrow{\text{Jones reagent}} & \text{CH}_3\text{(CH}_2)_8\text{COOH} \\ \hline \text{Decanoic acid} \end{array}$$

Carboxylic acids are also prepared from aldehydes by the use of mild oxidising agents (Section 12.4).

2. From alkylbenzenes

Aromatic carboxylic acids can be prepared by vigorous oxidation of alkyl benzenes with chromic acid or acidic or alkaline potassium permanganate. The entire side chain is oxidised to the carboxyl group irrespective of length of the side chain. Primary and secondary alkyl groups are oxidised in this manner while tertiary group is not affected. Suitably substituted alkenes are also oxidised to carboxylic acids with these oxidising reagents (refer Unit 13, Class XI).

3. From nitriles and amides

Nitriles are hydrolysed to amides and then to acids in the presence of H^+ or OH as catalyst. Mild reaction conditions are used to stop the reaction at the amide stage.

$$R-CN \xrightarrow{\overset{+}{H} \text{ or } \overline{O}H} R \xrightarrow{\overset{+}{C}} RCOOH$$

$$CH_{3}CONH_{2} \xrightarrow{\overset{+}{\Delta}} CH_{3}COOH + NH_{3}$$

$$Ethanamide \xrightarrow{CONH_{2}} \xrightarrow{\overset{+}{\Delta}} CH_{3}COOH + NH_{3}$$

$$Ethanoic acid + NH_{3}O$$

$$Benzamide \xrightarrow{Benzoic acid}$$

4. From Grignard reagents

Grignard reagents react with carbon dioxide (dry ice) to form salts of carboxylic acids which in turn give corresponding carboxylic acids after acidification with mineral acid.

R-Mg-X + O=C=O
$$\xrightarrow{\text{Dry ether}}$$
 R - $\xrightarrow{\text{O}}$ $\xrightarrow{\text{H}_3\text{O}^+}$ RCOOH

As we know, the Grignard reagents and nitriles can be prepared from alkyl halides (refer Unit 10, Class XII). The above methods

(3 and 4) are useful for converting alkyl halides into corresponding carboxylic acids having one carbon atom more than that present in alkyl halides (ascending the series).

5. From acyl halides and anhydrides

Acid chlorides when hydrolysed with water give carboxylic acids or more readily hydrolysed with aqueous base to give carboxylate ions which on acidification provide corresponding carboxylic acids. Anhydrides on the other hand are hydrolysed to corresponding acid(s) with water.

$$\begin{array}{c} H_2O \\ \hline RCOCl \\ \hline \hline OH/H_2O \\ \hline \hline OH/H_2O \\ \hline \end{array} \\ \begin{array}{c} RCOOH \\ \hline \\ \hline \\ RCOOT \\ \hline \end{array} \\ + \\ \begin{array}{c} \overline{Cl} \\ \hline \\ H_3O^+ \\ \hline \\ RCOOH \\ \hline \\ Renzoic anhydride \\ \hline \\ RCOOH \\ \hline \\ Renzoic acid \\ \hline \\ RCOOH \\ \hline \\ Renzoic acid \\ \hline \\ Renzoic acid \\ \hline \\ RCOOH \\ \hline \\ RCOOH \\ \hline \\ RCOOH \\ \hline \\ Renzoic acid \\ \hline \\ Renzoic acid \\ \hline \\ RCOOH \\ \hline \\ Renzoic acid \\ \\ Renzoic acid \\ \hline \\ \\ Renzoic acid \\ \hline \\ Re$$

6. From esters

Acidic hydrolysis of esters gives directly carboxylic acids while basic hydrolysis gives carboxylates, which on acidification give corresponding carboxylic acids.

Write chemical reactions to affect the following transformations: Example 12.5

- (i) Butan-1-ol to butanoic acid
- (ii) Benzyl alcohol to phenylethanoic acid
- (iii) 3-Nitrobromobenzene to 3-nitrobenzoic acid
- (iv) 4-Methylacetophenone to benzene-1,4-dicarboxylic acid
- (v) Cyclohexene to hexane-1,6-dioic acid
- (vi) Butanal to butanoic acid.

12.8 Physical Properties

Aliphatic carboxylic acids upto nine carbon atoms are colourless liquids at room temperature with unpleasant odours. The higher

$$R - C$$
 $O-H----O$
 $C - R$
 C
 C

In vapour state or in

Hydrogen bonding of RCOOH with H₂O

acids are wax like solids and are practically odourless due to their low volatility. Carboxylic acids are higher boiling liquids than aldehydes, ketones and even alcohols of comparable molecular masses. This is due to more extensive association of carboxylic acid molecules through intermolecular hydrogen bonding. The hydrogen bonds are not broken completely even in the vapour phase. In fact, most carboxylic acids exist as dimer in the vapour phase or in the aprotic solvents.

Simple aliphatic carboxylic acids having upto four carbon atoms are miscible in water due to the formation of hydrogen bonds with water. The solubility decreases with increasing number of carbon atoms. Higher carboxylic acids are practically insoluble in water due to the increased hydrophobic interaction of hydrocarbon part. Benzoic acid, the simplest aromatic carboxylic acid is nearly insoluble in cold water. Carboxylic acids are also soluble in less polar organic solvents like benzene, ether, alcohol, chloroform, etc.

12.9 Chemical Reactions The reaction of carboxylic acids are classified as follows:

12.9.1 Reactions Involving Cleavage of O-H Bond

Acidity

Reactions with metals and alkalies

The carboxylic acids like alcohols evolve hydrogen with electropositive metals and form salts with alkalies similar to phenols. However, unlike phenols they react with weaker bases such as carbonates and hydrogenearbonates to evolve carbon dioxide. This reaction is used to detect the presence of carboxyl group in an organic compound.

$$2R\text{-COOM} + 2Na \longrightarrow 2R\text{-COONa}^{+} + H_{2}$$

$$Sodium carboxylate$$

$$R\text{-COOH} + NaOH \longrightarrow R\text{-COONa}^{+} + H_{2}O$$

$$R\text{-COOH} + NaHCO_{3} \longrightarrow R\text{-COONa}^{+} + H_{2}O + CO_{2}$$

Carboxylic acids dissociate in water to give resonance stabilised carboxylate anions and hydronium ion.

$$R - \stackrel{\bullet}{C} + H_2O \Longrightarrow H_3O^+ + \begin{bmatrix} & & & & & & \\ & & & & \\ & & & & \\ & & & & \\ & & & & \\ & & & & \\ & & & & \\ & & & & \\ & & & & \\ & & &$$

For the above reaction:

$$K_{eq} = \frac{[\text{H}_3\overset{\dagger}{\text{O}}] [\text{RCOO}]}{[\text{H}_2\text{O}] [\text{RCOOH}]}$$
 $K_a = K_{eq} [\text{H}_2\text{O}] = \frac{[\text{H}_3\overset{\dagger}{\text{O}}] [\text{RCOO}]}{[\text{RCOOH}]}$

where K_{eq} , is equilibrium constant and K_a is the acid dissociation constant.

For convenience, the strength of an acid is generally indicated by its pK_a value rather than its K_a value.

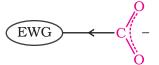
$$pK_a = -\log K_a$$

The p K_a of hydrochloric acid is -7.0, where as p K_a of trifluoroacetic acid (the strongest carboxylic acid), benzoic acid and acetic acid are 0.23, 4.19 and 4.76, respectively.

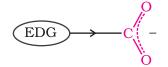
Smaller the pK_a , the stronger the acid (the better it is as a proton donor). Strong acids have pK_a values < 1, the acids with pK_a values between 1 and 5 are considered to be moderately strong acids, weak acids have pK_a values between 5 and 15, and extremely weak acids have pK_a values >15.

Carboxylic acids are weaker than mineral acids, but they are stronger acids than alcohols and many simple phenols (p K_a is ~16 for ethanol and 10 for phenol). In fact, carboxylic acids are amongst the most acidic organic compounds you have studied so far. You already know why phenols are more acidic than alcohols. The higher acidity of carboxylic acids as compared to phenols can be understood similarly. The conjugate base of carboxylic acid, a carboxylate ion, is stabilised by two equivalent resonance structures in which the negative charge is at the more electronegative oxygen atom. The conjugate base of phenol, a phenoxide ion, has non-equivalent resonance structures in which the negative charge is at the less electronegative carbon atom. Therefore, resonance in phenoxide ion is not as important as it is in carboxylate ion. Further, the negative charge is delocalised over two electronegative oxygen atoms in carboxylate ion whereas it is less effectively delocalised over one oxygen atom and less electronegative carbon atoms in phenoxide ion (Unit 11, Class XII). Thus, the carboxylate ion is more stabilised than phenoxide ion, so carboxylic acids are more acidic than phenols.

Effect of substituents on the acidity of carboxylic acids: Substituents may affect the stability of the conjugate base and thus, also affect the acidity of the carboxylic acids. Electron withdrawing groups increase the acidity of carboxylic acids by stabilising the conjugate base through delocalisation of the negative charge by inductive and/or resonance effects. Conversely, electron donating groups decrease the acidity by destabilising the conjugate base.



Electron withdrawing group (EWG) stabilises the carboxylate anion and strengthens the acid



Electron donating group (EDG) destabilises the carboxylate anion and weakens the acid

The effect of the following groups in increasing acidity order is $Ph < I < Br < Cl < F < CN < NO_2 < CF_3$

Thus, the following acids are arranged in order of increasing acidity (based on pK_a values):

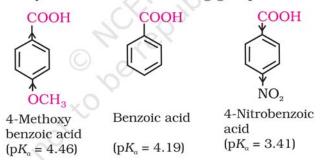
 $CF_3COOH > CCl_3COOH > CHCl_2COOH > NO_2CH_2COOH > NC-CH_2COOH > NC-CH$

FCH₂COOH > ClCH₂COOH > BrCH₂COOH > HCOOH > ClCH₂CH₂COOH > (continue)

$$C_6H_5COOH > C_6H_5CH_2COOH > CH_3COOH > CH_3CH_2COOH$$
(continue)

Direct attachment of groups such as phenyl or vinyl to the carboxylic acid, increases the acidity of corresponding carboxylic acid, contrary to the decrease expected due to resonance effect shown below:

This is because of greater electronegativity of sp^2 hybridised carbon to which carboxyl carbon is attached. The presence of electron withdrawing group on the phenyl of aromatic carboxylic acid increases their acidity while electron donating groups decrease their acidity.



12.9.2 Reactions Involving Cleavage of C-OH Bond

1. Formation of anhydride

Carboxylic acids on heating with mineral acids such as H_2SO_4 or with P_2O_5 give corresponding anhydride.

2. Esterification

Carboxylic acids are esterified with alcohols or phenols in the presence of a mineral acid such as concentrated H_2SO_4 or HCl gas as a catalyst.

RCOOH + R'OH
$$\stackrel{\text{H}^+}{=}$$
 RCOOR' + H_2O

Mechanism of esterification of carboxylic acids: The esterification of carboxylic acids with alcohols is a kind of nucleophilic acyl substitution. Protonation of the carbonyl oxygen activates the carbonyl group towards nucleophilic addition of the alcohol. Proton transfer in the tetrahedral intermediate converts the hydroxyl group into $-^{\dagger}$ OH₂ group, which, being a better leaving group, is eliminated as neutral water molecule. The protonated ester so formed finally loses a proton to give the ester.

3. Reactions with PCl₅, PCl₃ and SOCl₂

The hydroxyl group of carboxylic acids, behaves like that of alcohols and is easily replaced by chlorine atom on treating with PCl_5 , PCl_3 or $SOCl_2$. Thionyl chloride ($SOCl_2$) is preferred because the other two products are gaseous and escape the reaction mixture making the purification of the products easier.

RCOOH + PCl₅
$$\longrightarrow$$
 RCOCl + POCl₃ + HCl
3RCOOH + PCl₃ \longrightarrow 3RCOCl + H₃PO₃
RCOOH + SOCl₂ \longrightarrow RCOCl + SO₂ + HCl

4. Reaction with ammonia

Carboxylic acids react with ammonia to give ammonium salt which on further heating at high temperature give amides. For example:

$$CH_{3}COOH + NH_{3} \rightleftharpoons CH_{3}COONH_{4} \xrightarrow{\Delta} CH_{3}CONH_{2}$$

$$Ammonium acetate \xrightarrow{-} COONH_{4} \xrightarrow{\Delta} COONH_{2}$$

$$+ NH_{3} \rightleftharpoons COONH_{4} \xrightarrow{\Delta} COONH_{2}$$

$$Ammonium benzoate Benzamide$$

COOH
$$\begin{array}{c} \text{COOH} \\ \text{COONH}_4 \\ \text{COONH}_4 \\ \text{Ammonium phthalate} \end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{c} \Delta \\ \text{COONH}_2 \\ \text{COONH}_2 \\ \text{CONH}_2 \\ \text{Phthalamide} \\ \text{-NH}_3 & \text{Strong heating} \\ \text{NH} \\ \text{O} \\ \text{O} \\ \text{NH} \\ \text{O} \\$$

12.9.3 Reactions Involving -COOH Group

1. Reduction

Carboxylic acids are reduced to primary alcohols by lithium aluminium hydride or better with diborane. Diborane does not easily reduce functional groups such as ester, nitro, halo, etc. Sodium borohydride does not reduce the carboxyl group.

Phthalimide

R-COOH (i) LiAlH₄/ether or
$$B_2H_6$$
 \rightarrow R-CH₂OH

2. Decarboxylation

Carboxylic acids lose carbon dioxide to form hydrocarbons when their sodium salts are heated with sodalime (NaOH and CaO in the ratio of 3:1). The reaction is known as decarboxylation.

$$R-COONa \xrightarrow{NaOH \& CaO} R-H + Na_2CO_3$$

Alkali metal salts of carboxylic acids also undergo decarboxylation on electrolysis of their aqueous solutions and form hydrocarbons having twice the number of carbon atoms present in the alkyl group of the acid. The reaction is known as **Kolbe electrolysis** (Unit 13, Class XI).

12.9.4 Substitution Reactions in the Hydrocarbon Part

1. Halogenation

Carboxylic acids having an α -hydrogen are halogenated at the α -position on treatment with chlorine or bromine in the presence of small amount of red phosphorus to give α -halocarboxylic acids. The reaction is known as **Hell-Volhard-Zelinsky reaction.**

$$\begin{array}{c} \text{R-CH}_2\text{-COOH} & \xrightarrow{\text{(i) } X_2/\text{Red phosphorus}} & \text{R-CH-COOH} \\ & \downarrow & \downarrow \\ & X \\ & X = \text{Cl, Br} \\ & \alpha - \text{Halocarboxylic acid} \end{array}$$

2. Ring substitution

Aromatic carboxylic acids undergo electrophilic substitution reactions in which the carboxyl group acts as a deactivating and meta-directing group. They however, do not undergo **Friedel-Crafts reaction** (because the carboxyl group is deactivating and the catalyst aluminium chloride (Lewis acid) gets bonded to the carboxyl group).

COOH

Conc.
$$HNO_3 +$$

Conc. H_2SO_4

M-Bromobenzoic acid

Intext Question

12.8 Which acid of each pair shown here would you expect to be stronger?

(i) CH_3CO_2H or CH_2FCO_2H (ii) CH_2FCO_2H or CH_2CICO_2H (iii) $CH_3FCH_2CO_2H$ or $CH_3CHFCH_3CO_3H$

(iv)
$$F_3C$$
 COOH or H_3C COOH

12.10 Uses of Carboxylic Acids

Methanoic acid is used in rubber, textile, dyeing, leather and electroplating industries. Ethanoic acid is used as solvent and as vinegar in food industry. Hexanedioic acid is used in the manufacture of nylon-6, 6. Esters of benzoic acid are used in perfumery. Sodium benzoate is used as a food preservative. Higher fatty acids are used for the manufacture of soaps and detergents.

Summary

Aldehydes, ketones and carboxylic acids are some of the important classes of organic compounds containing carbonyl group. These are highly polar molecules. Therefore, they boil at higher temperatures than the hydrocarbons and weakly polar compounds such as ethers of comparable molecular masses. The lower members are more soluble in water because they form hydrogen bonds with water. The higher members, because of large size of hydrophobic chain of carbon atoms, are insoluble in water but soluble in common organic solvents. Aldehydes are prepared by dehydrogenation or controlled oxidation of primary alcohols and controlled or selective reduction of acyl halides. Aromatic aldehydes may also be prepared by oxidation of (i) methylbenzene with chromyl chloride or CrO₃ in the presence of acetic anhydride, (ii) formylation of arenes with carbon monoxide and hydrochloric acid in the presence of anhydrous aluminium chloride, and (iii) cuprous chloride or by hydrolysis of benzal chloride. Ketones are prepared by oxidation of secondary alcohols and hydration of alkynes. Ketones are also prepared by reaction of acyl chloride with dialkylcadmium. A good method for the preparation of aromatic ketones is the Friedel-Crafts acylation of aromatic hydrocarbons with acyl chlorides or anhydrides. Both aldehydes and ketones can be prepared by ozonolysis of alkenes. Aldehydes and ketones undergo nucleophilic addition reactions onto the carbonyl group with a number of nucleophiles such as, HCN, NaHSO₃, alcohols (or diols),