EMT 509: STRUCTURAL ELUCIDATION OF ORGANIC POLLUTANTS (3 UNITS)

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SYNOPSIS

Structural elucidation or organic pollutant, basic instrumentation and techniques. Application of *uv*, *ir*, *nmr* and *ms* in chemical analysis and structural elucidation of organic pollutants.

LECTURE CONTENT

ELECTROMAGNETIC SPECTRUM

The electromagnetic spectrum covers a wide range of wavelength. The spectrum consists of the following x-ray, ultraviolet, visible, infra-red, microwaves and radio-waves as shown in the table below.

These waves are usually described by 3 methods;

- 1. In terms of
- 2.
- 3.
- 4. wavelength λ which is the distance between the peaks of waves (in cm)
- 5. In terms of wave number this is the number of waves within a distance of 1cm and is abbreviated as V, measured in cm⁻¹
- 6. In terms of frequency this is the number of waves per second and the unit is referred to as hertz (Hz), A relationship exist between the 3 representations such that

$$1/\lambda = V = V/_{C}$$

Units - ^oA angstrom unit 10^{-10} m = 10^{-8} cm 1nm = $10A = 10^{-7}$ cm = 10^{-9} m 1μ m = $10^{4}A = 10^{-4}$ cm = 10^{-6} m C = 3×10^{8} m/s = 3×10^{10} cm/s

Calculate for sodium D-line with a wavelength of 589nm, its wave number and frequency $V = 1/\lambda = 1/589 \times 10^{-7}$ cm V = 16977.9 cm⁻¹

 λ = wavelength = 589nm

Taking a look at the diagram above we observe that the region to which the human eye is visible is very small and that radiation such as x-ray or radio waves differ from visible light only in terms of frequency and hence energy. Methods used in determining the structures of organic compounds include UV, IR, NMR and mass spectroscopy. All these four methods in order to be used for successful determination of organic compounds, electromagnetic radiation must be applied to the organic compound and as such energy transition must occur.

Spec method	Energy transition
UV	Electronic
IR	Vibration
NMR	Nuclear spin
Mass spec.	Low energy transition but fragmentation

INFRA-RED SPECTROSCOPY

In the IR region, we have interval of 4000 cm⁻¹ to 500 cm⁻¹ Initial unit of wavelength is cm⁻¹ and this unit is also expressed as wave number but however in recent times when wavelength is used, the unit is referred to as μ and as such the corresponding region of IR is 2.5 μ to 1.5 μ and so we have far and near IR regions (1/ μ x 10⁴) stands for conversion from μ to cm⁻¹

Instrumentation – the instrument is the IR spectrometer, it consist basically of

1. The source – this emit the IR radiation and is usually in the form of Nerst filament or Globar. Both are heated at high temperature of about 1000 to 1800^oC. The radiation produced is split in two so that one goes through the sample and the other beam passes through the monochromator

2. Detector – This detects any radiation by measuring its light energy in the form of radiant energy. A thermocouple detector is usually used. The radiant energy from the thermocouple is further amplified. The amplifier is coupled to an alternator drive; the alternator drive gives a null effect by balancing the wave which doesn't pass through the sample as well as that which comes out of the sample.

BASIC SCHEMATIC DIAGRAM OF IR SPECTROMETER

Source Sample Detector

Monochromator

IR that does not pass through the sample

Recorder Alternator drive Amplifier

Representation of infra-red spectrum

Sample Handling a sample holder is usually used. A sample can be in the form of (1) Gas:- gas is transferred into a cylindrical sample holder usually of path-length of about 10cm through which IR radiation passes

2. Liquid:- for a pure liquid a film of the liquid is enclosed between two transparent sodium bromide disc (note that glass disc is not used because it absorbs in this region).

3. Solid:- a sample of about 50mg is dissolved in a suitable solvent usually carbon tetrachloride CCl₄, CHCl₃, CS₂ or liquid paraffin (Nujol). The solution is then introduced into a disc of sodium bromide. Also solids can be run by making pellets of solid samples and introducing directly into the spectrophotometer. For example if a solid sample is not soluble in any solvent it is ground with a small amount of potassium bromide, it is then placed on a piece of paper and with hydraulic press to get a transparent film of the solid, this is referred to as KBR pellet process.

PRINCIPLES OF IR

For a molecule to absorb light it must have a degree of freedom when it is at rest which is 3 (3n degree of freedom).

For a non-linear molecule there are 3 degrees of freedom rotational, transitional & vibrational and as such a non-linear molecule has 3n - 6 vibrational degree of freedom while for a linear molecule it has 3n - 5 degree of freedom

APPLICATION OF IR SPECTROSCOPY

In IR the various functional groups and bonds within, an organic compound have specific wave length at which it absorbs. The whole stretch of IR absorption can be divided into four.

- 4000 cm⁻¹ -2300cm⁻¹ (a) OH, NH, CH
- 1980cm⁻¹ (b) $C \equiv C, C \equiv N,$
- 4000 cm⁻¹ -1900cm⁻¹ -1450cm⁻¹ C = C, C = O C = N N = O(c)
- Stretching, bending and combination bands. 1450cm⁻¹ _ 500cm⁻¹ (d) (also known as finger print region)

CHARACTERISTICS OF GROUP FREQUENCY OF ORGANIC MOLECULES - This actually indicate at what point these molecules absorb.

Alkanes

С

$CH_3 CH_2 CH_2$

C – H Vibration – This occur as stretching and bending vibration.

Stretching: - A stretching vibration can be either symmetrical or asymmetrical the C – H symmetrical stretching vibration occurs at 2872cm⁻¹

CH₃	Н			Н	
Н	С	н	Н	С	Н
	Н			Н	
Symet 2872 (trical cm ⁻¹		asyme 2962	etrial cm ⁻¹	

These two vibrational appear in all cases of hydrocarbons containing methyl group

CH₂ (methylene)

Н	С	Н		Н	С	Н
Symm	netrical			asy	metrical	
2853c	m ⁻¹			292	26cm⁻¹	

CH absorptions are usually at 2890 cm⁻¹ and usually very weak and as such of no use in identification purposes.

Bending (CH₃)

Н				Н		
С				С		(out of plana)
Н	Н	(inplane)	Н		Н	(out of plane)
Symmetrica 1375 cm ⁻¹	I					Asymmetrical 1450 cm ⁻¹

Bending vibrations are normally very prominent. For CH_2 , the bending vibrations are of several types and are not prominent as stretching vibration

Н	С	Н	Н	С	Н	0	0	0
Scisso 1650			Rock 1100			Twis b/w		600 cm ⁻¹

O O + here indicates that the vibration is perpendicular to the plane

O Wag 1430-1250cm⁻¹

<u>Alkenes</u> C = C C = C CH_2 CH

- (a) The CH stretching vibration is very weak and observed around 3000cm⁻¹
- (b) A C = C stretching vibration is the most important spectra in alkenes. C = Cstr. 1660 1640 cm⁻¹ which is either strong or weak

It is usually weak for symmetrical compound e.g Ar - C = C - Ar having identical substituents at both sides of carbon atoms.

It is usually strong if the substituents are different i.e asymmetrical and this absorption is diagnostic of double bonds. This absorption is also the type found in aromatic compounds or in benzenoids and also very strong.

Bending vibration for Alkene – there are two types of bending vibration for alkenes

- (a) In plane between 1430 cm^{-1} -1000 cm⁻¹
- (b) Out of plane 1000-650cm⁻¹ and these are usually very strong.

For the C = C bound there is no bending vibration however the bending vibration for benzene ring is very important and is used to determine whether a compound is aromatic or not and found in the region btw 850- 650 cm⁻¹

No of adjacent H	v	Types of substituents
6	675 cm ⁻¹	None
5	721, 694	one
4	742	Di
3	767,709	Tri
2	804	Tetra
1	810	Penta

The table above represents the CH bending in aromatic compounds which are usually strong and prominent and are usually useful in determining substituent around benzene ring.

ALCOHOLS AND PHENOLS (R –OH and Ar – OH)

The absorptions recognized are 3 types

- 1. OH stretching at 3700cm⁻¹ 3600cm⁻¹. The absorption is very strong and diagnostic and it is only the free OH that absorbs at this wavelength
- 2. OH bending at 1470cm⁻¹ 1300cm⁻¹. These are usually broad absorption and not particularly useful
- 3. C-O stretching. This is very important and its absorption is around 1260 cm⁻¹ 1000cm⁻¹ the OH stretching vibration sometimes vary due to the formation of hydrogen bonding and as such we have absorption range of 3400cm⁻¹

CARBONYL

For Carbonyl there are four classes

Aldehyde RCHO, ketone RCOR, carboxylic acid RCOOH and ethers The strong absorption is due to double bond C = O stretch and it is found in the region of 1870 – 1540 cm⁻¹, no other group of compound absorb in this region Around 1150 cm⁻¹ is observed for C-O(Stretch) and it is usually very strong

Aldehyde	Ketone
Straight chain – 1740 – 1720cm ⁻¹	Straight chain 1725 – 1705cm ⁻¹
Aryl - 1710 – 1615cm ⁻¹	Aryl – 1700 – 1680 cm ⁻¹

Acid anhydride RCOX X = (Cl) 18 15 - 1790 cm⁻¹

1850 – 1800cm⁻¹

Amines - It has two prominent absorptions

- 1. N.H Stretching $1^{\circ} = 3500 \text{ cm}^{-1}$ RNH₂ $2^{\circ} = 3330 \text{ cm}^{-1}$ RNHR₁ $3^{\circ} = \text{ there is no absorption because there is no hydrogen (RNR₂)$
- 2. C N Stretching $1^{O} = 1340 - 1250 \text{ cm}^{-1}$ $2^{O} = 1350 - 1280 \text{ cm}^{-1}$ $3^{O} = 1360 - 1310 \text{ cm}^{-1}$

If the amine is 3° the diagnostic absorption is the C – N stretching. Hydrogen bonding also affect N – H stretching as in alcohol, shifting the absorption to $3300 - 3000 \text{ cm}^{-1}$. For $1^{\circ} \& 2^{\circ}$ amine respectively. The N – H bending are usually broad but not useful, the prominent N – H in amide is referred to a Amide I band at 3000 cm^{-1} while the second at 1600 cm^{-1} is referred to a amide 2 band.

Alkynes – has

- 1. C H stretching at 3300 cm⁻¹
- 2. C = C stretching at 2140 2100cm⁻¹

APPLICATION OF IR SPECTROSCOPY

When an infrared light is passed through a sample of an organic compound, some of the frequencies are absorbed while other frequencies are transmitted through the sample without being absorbed. If we plot the % A or % T against frequency, the result is an infrared spectrum.

To identify an unknown compound, it is necessary to compare its IR spectrum with a set of standard spectra recorded under identical conditions. Substances that give the same IR spectra are identical. The following are guidelines for interpreting unknown compounds.

1. Look for an evidence of alkane, alkene, alkyne and aromatic residues using C-Hstr and deformations

- 2. Look for a carbonyl stretch. The absence of this shows no carbonyl.
- 3. Check for O-H and N-H str
- 4. The absence of Xteristic bands indicates the absence of such groups and makes the interpretation easier
- 5. A functional grp that gives rise to many characteristic absorptions are more easily identified than one that gives rise to only one characteristic absorption
- 6. Multifunctional compounds will show the separate absorptions of individual grps unless they interact

USES OF IR

- 1. To carry out qualitative analysis of known & unknown compounds (it can also be used for quantitative analysis).
- 2. Identification of the functional grps of an unknown compound. (The functional grp is a measure of the reactivity of a compound
- 3. Detection of contamination of a known compound (as in quality control).

FOURIER TRANSFORM IR SPECTROSCOPY

Conventional IR spec has some disadvantages in terms of sensitivity, specificity and accuracy of wavelength. Consequently it cannot be applied to very fast processes such as recording of IR spectrum of component or peaks being eluted from a GC. FTIR is frequency based in which an entire spectrum can be recorded, computerized and transformed in a few seconds with a repetition every two seconds, for example 400 spectra can be accumulated in 13 minutes.

CLASS ASSIGNMENTS

Figure 2.1

Infrared spectrum of a mixture of long-chain alkanes (liquid paraffin or Nujol) showing that absorption bands appear in the regions around 3000cm⁻¹ and 1400cm⁻¹ CHstr. CHbend.

Bending vibrations are referred to as deformations so that C - H deformation bands can be labeled as C - H def

Fig 2.2		
Alkyne	$C \equiv C \text{ str at } 2150 \text{ cm}^{-1}$	CH str 2950cm ⁻¹

 \equiv C – H str at 3320cm⁻¹

Fig 2.3	benzaldehyde	
-	$C = O str 1700 cm^{-1}$	C H str 2800cm ⁻¹
Fig 2.4	$C = O str 1700 cm^{-1}$	
-	CH str is absent in ace	tophenone

Fig 2.6

The dotted line insert around 3500cm^{-1} was recorded in dilute solution (about 1 percent in CCl₄) at low conc. a sharp band appears at 3650cm^{-1} in addition to the broad band at 3350cm^{-1} .

The sharp band is O-H str is free alcohol molecules, the broad band is O-H str in hydrogen bonded alcohol molecules. Alcohols and phenols in condensed phases are strongly hydrogen bonded, usually in the form of a dynamic polymeric association dimers, trimers and tetramers also exist and this leads to a wide envelope of absorptions and hence to broadening of the absorption band. In dilute solution, in inert soln (or in the vapor phase) the proportion of free molecules increases and these give rise to the 3650cm⁻¹ band.

Fig 2.7

Broad band at 2500 - 3500 cm⁻¹ is hydrogen bonded O – H str O – H str bend for the carboxylic acid dimer structure. In condensed phases, all carboxylic acids exist in this stable demerit association in which the H bonds are particularly strong.

UV – SPECTROSCOPY

There are two types of EMR (electromagnetic spectrum) in this region viz; visible and ultraviolet lying between 190 – 800nm. The UV is between 190–400 and visible is between 400 – 800. UV is also referred to as electronic spectroscopy because a spectrum is produced which is as a result of electronic transition. A molecule normally exists in two states, the ground and the excited states, with the ground state having a lower energ

The energy supplied that will cause the promotion from ground to excited state comes from electromagnetic radiation of the UV – visible type

Types of Energy Levels & Transition

In an organic molecule, there are essentially two types of bonds

- (a) Single covalent bond (σ) sigma
- (b) Double covalent bond (Π)

There is non-bonding orbital referred to as n so that we can the following types of energy level with the following transitions

σ*	σ	σ*
п*	σ	п*
n	п	п*
П	n	п*
σ	n	σ*
	П	σ*

Compounds in which these types of bonds exist can therefore show UV absorption as in for example:-

Carbonyl compounds, Alkenes and Alkynes

Carbonyl strongly absorbs in UV due to these transitions

Strong $\sigma- \pi^*$ Weak $\pi - \pi^*$ Strong $n - \pi^*$

PRINCIPLE OF ELECTRONIC ABSORPTION SPECTROSCOPY

UV spectroscopy is also guided by the Beer lamberts law where log Io/I = CCIWhere Io = Intensity of light incident upon sample cell, I = intensity of light leaving the sample cell (Transmitted light)

C = molar concn of solute in mol/L

L = length of sample cell (cm)

 \in = molar absorptivity

Log Io/I = Absorbance (A) or optical density

 ε is a property of a molecule undergoing electronic transition and it is not dependent on how the sample was prepared i.e It is a constant. The value is between O – 10⁶. Values exceeding 10⁴ are high intensity absorption and below 10³ are low intensity absorptions.

 $\ensuremath{\varepsilon}$ is also controlled by the size of the absorbent system and electronic transition taking $\ensuremath{\mathsf{place}}$

E changes as wavelength changes

Presentation of UV – spectra

SOLVENTS

Are very important in UV – spec since the choice of solvent is crucial to:

(1) the type of spectrum obtained. A good solvent should not absorb in the same region as the solute.

(2) A solvent should not contain conjugated systems or carbonyl entity as this interferes with the UV absorption of the solute. Some useful solvents and their useful absorption spectra are given below.

Water – 190nm, Normal hexame – 201nm, ethanol – 205 nm, acetonitrite – 190nm, 1, 4 dioxane – 215nm, methanol – 205nm, iso – octane – 195nm.

The first three are the most important solvents.

DEFINITON OF TERMS

Chromophore- This is xteristic energy of a transition and the wavelength of the radiation absorbed are properties of a grp of atoms rather than electrons. The grp of atoms producing such an absorption is called a chromosphore.

Types of chromophore include alkenes and functionalized alkenes. Also the position of intensity of absorption can be modified by attachment of a subsistuent grp, this change of position is referred to as shifts. This makes the λ max to be shifted to a new value

- (a) Bathochromic shift (red shift) This is a shift to lower frequency or longer wavelength
- (b) Hypsochromic shift (Blue shift) This is a shift to a higher frequency or shorter wavelength
- (c) Hyper chromic effect This is an increase in intensity
- (d) Hypochromic effect This is a decrease in intensity

Isosbestic point – This is a point where the UV-spectrum of a particular substance determined at various pH values meet i.e it is a point common to all curves produced in a spectrum of a compound taken at several pH values.

Auxochrome – is a substituent on a chromophore which leads to a red shift, for example in – C = C – N. The lone pair of the electrons on N interact with the electron of the double bond - C = C – H 190nm

$$- C = C - N 230nm$$

In this case the Nitrogen Substituent is the auxochrome, therefore an auxochrome extends a chromophore to give a new chromophore.

Some simple organic chromophore and the approximate wavelength at which they absorb are shown in the table below

Chromphore	λnm	Intensity Emax
-C = C-	175	14,000
-C = C -	170, 195, 223	10,000, 21,000, 150

C = O	160, 180, 280	18,000, 900, 15
RNO_2	200, 274	500, 15
-C = C - C =	= C (diene) 217	20,000
-C = C - C =	= O (ketone) 220, 315	10,000
	184, 204,	225 10,000, 7400, 204

The one with the highest intensity is the best representation of the absorption spectrum (λ)

Application of UV – Spectroscopy

Conjugated diene

Conjugated tetradiene

Homoannular

Conjugated triene

Heteroannular Exocyclic (bond touching tips of 2 rings unconjugated triene

It is sometimes useful to carry out theoretical calculation of the absorption of these compounds as such it's quite easy to correlate the point at which they absorb along with the substrate in the compound. Wood -ward has put forward a set of rules that is used for this theoretical expression.

Wood ward rules for dienes and trienes

		λmax
Acyclic & Heteroannular dienes	214nn	n
Homoannular dienes		253nm
Acyclic diene	245nn	n
Addition for each substituent		
R – alkyl (including part of a carbon/ring	g)	5nm
OR	6nm	
SR	30nm	
Cl, Br	5nm	
CH = CH additional conjugation	30nm	

Double bond exocyclic to ring	5nm
- OCOR	0

Wood ward rules for α - β unsaturated carbonyls

a - β unsaturated carbonyls - C = C - C = C - C = O δ γ β a

delta gamma beta alpha

The wood – ward rules also operate for these types of compounds
(a) Ketones, a - β acyclic or 6 member ring 215nm, or 5 –member ring 202nm

(b)		Aldehyde 207
	- C = C - C	0
		Н

(c)	Acid and esters			
	-C = C - C O	C = C - C	0	
	ОН			OR

Additional conjugation is 30 while second bond homoannular to the first ring is 39

	а	β	Ŷ	δ		
R-akyl	10	12	17	17		
-OR	35	30	17	31		
-OH	35	30	30	50		
-SR	0	80	0	0		
-CI	15	12	12	12		
-Br	25	30	25	25		
-OCOR 6	6	6	6			
$NHR_{1}-NR_{2} NH_{2}$	0	95	0	0		
Double bound exocyclic to a ring is 5						

In case of a - β unsaturated carbonyl, there is solvent shift effect particularly if the solvent is specific

Solvent	shifts
Water	+8nm
Methanol, ethanol	0
Chloroform	-1
Dioxane	-5
Diethylether	-7
Hexane	-11
Cyclohexame	-11

Note – if the question says that the compound is run in a certain solvent you either add or subtract the above number from the table values.

NUCLEAR MAGNETIC RESONANCE (NMR)

This is the absorption of EMR (electromagnetic radiation in the radio frequency region in the spectrum, resulting in changes of orientation of spinning nuclei in a magnetic field. The magnetic properties of nuclei can be explained by the assumption that nuclei charge is spinning around an axis. Such nucleus, possesses what is referred to as ANGULAR MOMENTUM, represented in terms of spin number I and it is assigned $\frac{1}{2}$ integral values such that we can have a range of 0, $\frac{1}{2}$, 1, 3/2, 2 etc i.e etc i.e depending on a particular nucleus. For nuclei having odd proton or odd number of neutrons (i.e. both the proton and neutrons are not odd at the same time). Such nuclei exhibit $\frac{1}{2}$ integral spin quantum number e.g.

¹ ₁ H	¹¹ ₅ B	¹⁹ ₉ F
P1	5	9
NO	6	10

 $I = \frac{1}{2}$ (both the neutron and proton are not odd at the same five)

If both neutrons and protons are odd, I = 1.

2'H	'7N	'7 H
P1	7	9
N1	7	10

When both protons and neutrons are even numbers, such nuclei have no angular momentum i.e. I = 0 and therefore exhibit no magnetic property i.e. they are magnetically inert and are not detected in NMR experiment.

Р	' 2C 6	''O 8	3 2S 16	⁴ ℃Ca 20
	6	8	16	20
Ν	6	8	16	20

NMR PROCESS

Proton NMR

The magnetic nuclei $(I = \frac{1}{2})$ interact with an external magnetic field by assuming discrete orientation with corresponding energy levels. The numbers of quantized energy levels depend on I and it is given by I, I-1, I-2-----I-I.

For protons where $I = \frac{1}{2}$, there are only 2 orientations corresponding to alignment with applied field (lower energy) or alignment against the applied field (higher energy).

This shows that absorption frequency, μ is in proportion to the strength of the applied magnetic field. Practically, absorption of energy may be detected by subjecting the sample to radiation of varying λ at a fixed value of the applied field or vice versa until the condition requested by the equation is met. At this point, the system is in resonance and both upward and downward transition occur and a net absorption of energy is observed because of the small excess of nuclei from the lower level.

NMR INSTRUMENTATION

The NMR spectrometer contains six major parts;

- 1. A magnet with a strong, stable and homogenous field.
- A sweep generator, which supplies a variable direct current to a secondary magnetic field so that the total applied magnetic field can be varied (swept) over a limited range.
- 3. A radio frequency oscillator (transmitter) connected to a coil which transmits energy to the sample in a direction perpendicular to the magnetic field.
- 4. A radio frequency receiver connected to a coil encircling the sample. The two coils are perpendicular to each other and to the magnetic field.
- 5. A read out system consisting of the amplifier and a recorder.
- 6. A sample container, usually a glass tube spun by an air driven turbine to average the magnetic field over the sample direction.

SCHEMATIC DIAGRAM OF NMR SPECTROMETER

HANDLING OF SAMPLES

A dilute solution of the sample of about 2-10% concentration is used. It is also very important that the solvent used must not contain any additional proton which will interfere with the sample determination. Therefore, solvents such as CCl_4 or Deuterated solvents of chloroform (CDCl₃) and Benzene (C₆D₆) are used. Other common solvents used are: CS_2 , (CD₃)₂SO (Hexa-deuterio dimethyl sulfoxide), (CD₃)₂CO (Hexa-

deuterioacetone) and $(CCI_3)_2CO$ (Hexa chloro acetone) and D_2O (Heary water/deuterium oxide).

 D_2O is used for samples that are soluble in aqueous solution. A 5mm outer diameter (OD) glass serves as a sample container. It is held by a propeller arrangement so that it can be spun by a jet of compressed air.

FACTORS AFFECTING NMR

CHEMICAL SHIFT

Normally, at a given frequency, all protons will absorb energy at the same value of the magnetic field (Ho). However, the field experienced by a particular nuclei differs in magnitude from that of the applied field because of shielding effect by neighbouring electrons. It is because of varied degree of shielding that protons in different chemical environment absorb at different values of the applied field. Differences between such absorptions are referred to as "Chemical shift" e.g. The chemical shift values for methyl protons attached to groups of varied electronegativity are given below:

- CH_3
- CH₃ Si CH₃₂ Si (CH₃)₄ O CH₃
 CH₃I 2.16
 CH₃Br 2.65 2.65
- 4. CH₃Cl 3.10
- 5. CH₃F 4.26

As the electronegativity of a functional group is increased, the CH_3 protons come to resonance at higher σ values. This is due to the e- density around the H nuclei. H nuclei are surrounded by electronic charge which to some extent shields the nucleus from the influence of the applied field and in order to bring a proton to resonance, the magnetic flux must overcome this shielding effect.

In a magnetic field, the e- around the protons are induced to circulate and in so doing; they generate a small 2^0 magnetic field that acts in opposition (i.e. diamagnetically) to the applied field. The greater the e- density circulating around the proton, the greater the induced diamagnetic effect and the greater the external field required to overcome the shielding effect. Electro-ve groups like fluorine in CH₃F withdraws e- density from the CH₃ group (-inductive effect), resulting in de-shielding meaning that a lower value of an applied magnetic filed is needed to bring the methyl proton to resonance. Since fluorine is more electro-ve than CI, then the proton in CH₃F will appear at a higher δ values than those in CH₃CI.

Mathematically, the nucleus finds itself in an effective field which is somewhat smaller than the applied field i.e. $He_{ff} = H_o - \delta H_o$.

Where δ represents the shielding parameters. The value of δ depends on e- density around the proton. For instance, comparing the shielding parameters in methanol (CH₃OH), the shielding parameter δ CH₃ is less than δ OH. Therefore, at any given applied field Ho, He_{ff} for CH₃ protons would be lower than the Heff of the OH proton.

For example, the relative absorption for protons attached to Carbon, Silicon, Nitrogen and Oxygen shows that the trend of shielding is such that Si>C>N>O which depends on the e- density around each of the atoms.

Measurement of chemical shift.

Quantitative chemical shift are measured in frequency (Hertz) relative to a standard, Tetra methyl silane (TMS).

TMS has twelve (12) highly shielded protons with identical chemical and magnetic environment thereby producing a single sharp resonance peak at a higher field than most organic proton. It is usually chemically invert soluble in organic solvent and boils at inert; soluble in organic solvent and boils at 27°C. For aqeous samples, Sodium 2,2 dimethyl 2-silapentane-5 Sulphate is used.

(CH₃)₂ SiCH₂CH₂CH₂SO₃Na DSS

(CH₃)₄ Si TMS

Chemical shifts are expressed in dimensionless units δ which is obtained by dividing the operating frequency of the sample minus that of the standard divided by that of the instrument.

 $\delta = \frac{\delta \text{ Sample} - \delta \text{ TMS}}{\delta \text{ Instrument}}$

Alternatively, the tau (J) scale in which the TMS peak is assigned in values of 10 is used such that J = 10- δ Diagramatically shielding can be represented on a δ scale for the following compounds.

2. MAGNETIC ANISOTROPY (ANISOTROPIC EFFECT)

The chemical shift positions for protons attached to C=C in alkenes is higher than that can be accounted for by electronegative effect alone. The same is true of aldehydric protons and aromatic protons. For example alkene and aromatic protons appear at high σ values while alkyne C=C protons appear at a relatively low δ value.

H Aldelydriv - C O Alkene - C=C - 5.0 - 6.0Aroamtic 0 H 7.0 - 8.0 It would have been expected that acetylinic proton being more acidic would have experienced less magnetic shielding (i.e. δ would be very high). This and other anomalous effects in any unsaturated molecules is explained in terms of shielding and deshielding zones in space caused by the circulation of π electrons.

INDUCED ANISOTROPIC MAGNETIC FIELD AROUND AN ALKENE GROUP

When an alkene group is so orientated such that the plane of the double bond is at 90[°] (perpendiculr) to the direction of the applied field, the induced circulation of the π e-generates a 2[°] magnetic field which is diamagnetic around the carbon atoms but paramagnetic in the region of the alkene group. Where the direction of the induced magnetic field is parallel to the applied field, the net field is greater than the applied field. Protons in this zone would therefore require a lower value of applied field to come to resonance and will appear at a lower field (higher δ value) than expected. Any group held above/below the plane of the double bond will experience a shielding effect since in these areas; the induced field opposes the applied field. In summary, the space around the double bond can be divided into two in which (i) Deshielding occurs in the cone-shaped zone and the δ values will tend to be higher than expected. and (ii) Shieldng is indicated by the positive Sign and protons in this zone would have lower δ values.

CARBONYL COMPOUNDS

A similar situation arises in which π e- also circulates around the double bond between carbon and oxygen. However, shielding and deshielding zones differ slightly from the alkene pattern

In this case, two cone shaped volumes centred on the oxygen atom lie parallel to the axis of the C = O bond. Protons within this zone experience deshielding so that

aldehydric protons and formal protons appear at high δ values. Protons held above or below these cones will come to resonance at lower δ values. Anisotropic shielding of a proton in an alkyne group

Whereas alkenes and aldehydric protons appear at high δ values, alkyne protons appear around 1.5-3.5 δ value. Electron circulation around the triple bond occur in such a way that the protons experience a diamagnetic shielding effect. From the diagram, when the axis of an alkyne group lies parallel to the direction of applied field the cylindrical sheath of π e- is induced to circulate around the axis and the resultant annulus-shaped magnetic field acts in a direction that opposes the applied field in the vicinity of the protons and as such, higher applied field values are needed to bring the protons to resonance. Therefore acetylenic protons appear at low δ value in the spectrum.

AROMATIC COMPOUNDS

In the case of a benzene ring, the circulating π e- setup a ring current with the e- cloud below and above the molecule. This therefore makes the protons to be deshielded such that the protons of benzene resonate at a high δ value between 7-8 in contrast to a value of between 2 and 4 that would have been expected in the absence of the anisotropic effect.

Appearance of NMR spectrum (Spectra)

1. Spin- Spin coupling (splitting)

Absorption bands arising from adjacent protons are split into multiplet peaks by mutual interactions of the spins. The effect is due to the small variations in the effective field experienced by a proton when neighboring nuclei can occupy two or more energy levels / spin states. This effect is transmitted through the intervening bonds by a tendency for electrons and nuclear spins to be paired.

Consider two protons A and B on neighbouring carbon atoms. The effective field at A is either decreased or enhanced by the local field generated by B, depending on whether

B is orientated with or against the applied field. A proton with n equivalent protons on the neighbouring carbon atom will be split by the n protons into (n+1) lines multiplet with relative sub area given by the coefficient of the binomial expression $(n+1)^n$ where n is equal to the number of protons on the neighbouring carbon atoms. E.g.

- (1). $\begin{array}{cccc} H & H \\ 1 & 1 \\ C & \\ C \\ B & \\ C \\ A \end{array}$ (2). $\begin{array}{cccc} B & A \\ C \\ H & - \\ C \\ H_2 \end{array}$ (3). $\begin{array}{cccc} C \\ C \\ H_2 \\ B \\ - \\ C \\ H_3 \end{array}$ (4). $\begin{array}{cccc} C \\ C \\ B \\ B \\ - \\ C \\ H_3 \end{array}$
- (5). $\begin{array}{ccc} CH_3 & CH_3 \\ B & A \end{array}$

Ethanol. (CH₃CH₂OH).

Identify the splitting patterns.

TABLE OF NMR

Values for the protons CH3, CH2 and CH groups attached to groups nX, where R = alkyl and Ar = aryl.

	Х	CH_3X	R^1CH_2X	R ¹ R ¹¹ CHX	d values for the protions	
					OH, NH and SH and	Benzene
-R		0.9	1.3	1.5	ROH	0.5- 4.0

-COOR	2.0	2.1		2.2		Ar OH	4.5(Raised	
-COOAr		2.0	2.1		2.2		by H-	bonding
-CN		2.0	2.5		2.7		to 9.0)
-CONH ₂ , -COI	NR_2	2.0	2.0		2.1		RCOOH	10 -13.0
-COOH		2.1	2.3		2.6		RNH ₂ , RNHR ¹	5.0- 8.0
-COR		2.1	2.4		2.5		ArNH ₂ , ArNHR ¹	3.5- 6.0
-SH, - SR		2.1	2.4		2.5		RCONH ₂ , RCONHR	5.0 8.5
$-NH_2$, NR_2		2.1	2.5		2.9		RCONHCOR ¹	9 –12.0
-1		2.2	3.1		4.2		RSH	1.0 –2.0
-CHO		2.2	2.2		2.4		ArSH	3.0- 4.0
-Ph		2.3	2.6		2.9		= NOH	10.0-
12.0								
-Br		2.6	3.3		4.1			
-NHCOR, - NF	RCOR	2.9	3.3		4.1			7.2-8.0
-CI		3.0	3.4		4.0			
-OR		3.3	3.3		3.8			
-Nr ₃		3.3	3.4		3.5			X – 8.5
-OH		3.4	3.6		3.8			B – 7.0
-OCOR	3.6	4.1		5.0			X – 7	.4
-OAr		3.7	3.9		4.0		C = C-H	5.3
-OCOAr		3.9	4.2		5.1		$C \equiv C - H$	1.8
-NO ₂		4.3	4.4		4.6			

INTERPRETATION OF NMR SPECTRA

The basic information gathered from NMR spectra are: -

- 1. Chemical shift: This identifies the type of proton based on their electronic environment.
- 2. Spin-Spin splitting patterns: This identifies neighbouring protons.
- 3. Peak Area: This is proportional to the number of protons giving a particular resonance line.

Other identification parameters of note are.

- The observation of a triplet and a quartet spin state confirming usually the presence of an ethyl group (CH₃CH₂).
- The observation of δ values between 7.2-8.0 indicates that the structure contains a benzene ring (benzyl proton)

INTEGRATION OF PEAK AREAS

The NMR signal is directly proportional to the number of H nuclei that are responsible for the resonance i.e. the spectrometer counts. Most recorders are equipped with automatic integrator, which gives peak area directly. The integrator trace is superimposed on the spectrum and the height of a step on the integrator trace represents the area in arbitrary units. The number of hydrogen atoms in each peak can be determined by two methods as shown below by using the spectral of ethanol (C_2H_5OH) as example

1). RATIO METHOD

The steps corresponding to each peak is measured and arranged from the smallest to the highest and calculated as a simple ratio to each of them (dividing by the smallest).

6 : 12.4 :17.8 1 : 2 :3 Meaning 1 Proton, 2 Protons, 3 Protons.

s(2). METHOD TWO

This assumes the knowledge of the total number of protons in the ccompound and the ratio of each of the height to the total height is found as a ratio of the total number of protons.

 $6 + 12.4 + 17.8 \rightarrow 36.2$ $6 \times 6, \qquad 12.4 \times 6, \qquad 17.8 \times 6$

36.2	36.2	32.2
1,	2,	3.

Double Bond Equivalent

In the interpretation of spectroscopic data, the best place to begin is with the molecular ion in the mass spectrum from which a molecular formula may be deduced. In the absence of a molecular ion, a combustion analysis can also give this information (i.e C = 70%, H = 11%, N = 9.5% 0 = 9.5%).

To therefore get an idea of the complexity in the structure it is best to work out the number of double bonds and rigs in the structure. This is done by inspecting the molecular formula. If the molecule contains only C, H, and O, then the number of double bonds and rings (double bond equivalents, DBE) is given by Eq. 5.1.

$$C_aH_bO_c$$
 DBE = $(2a + 2) - b$

The (2a + 2) term is the number of hydrogens in a saturated hydrocarbon having *a* carbon atoms. Since every ring or double bond means two fewer hydrogen atoms (cyclohexane is C₆H₁₂ and ethylene, C₂H₄), subtracting *b*, the actual number of hydrogen atoms present, from (2a + 2) and dividing by two gives the total number of double bonds and rings in the molecule. It is useful to remember that a benzene ring has a total of four double bond equivalents: three 'double bonds' and one ring. The number of divalent atoms (O, S, etc.) present makes no difference to this sum, but mono- and trivalent atoms do. Count mono-valent atoms (CL, Br, etc.) as hydrogens and add them to b. When trivalent atoms (N, trivalent P, etc.) are present, use Eg. 5.2, i.e. subtract one from b for each trivalent atom present.

$$C_aH_bO_cN_d$$
 DBE = $(2a + 2) - (b - d)$

Thus the formula $C_5H_{11}N$ has one double bond equivalent (often written: F1); it might be the I-propylimine of acetaldehyde (one double bond) or cyclopentylamine (one ring).

Examples of DBE calculations

TUTORIAL QUESTIONS

- With a schematic diagram briefly describe the instrumentation of a typical nmr spectrometer. Explain the term spin-spin coupling using the carbon chains CH-CH, CH-CH₂, CH₂-CH₂, CH₂-CH₃ and CH₃CHCH₃ to illustrate your understanding.
- 2. Explain in details the term chemical shift.
- 3. Explain the term spin-spin coupling using the carbon chains CH-CH, CH-CH₂, CH₂-CH₂, CH₂-CH₃ and CH₃CHCH₃ to illustrate your understanding.
- 4. Explain the phenomenon of diamagnetic Anisotropic
- 5. Explain the pattern and intensifies of the isopropyl group in isopropyl iodide.
- 6. What arrangement of protons would give two triplets of equal area.
- 7. Predict the appearance of the H n.m.r spectrum of n-propyl bromide.
- 8. An organic compound has the following percentage composition C. 52.17, H. 13.05 and O.34.78 and a H n.m.r spectra as follows: 3H(t) •1.5, 2H(q) 3.0, 1H (s) ••6.0 from this information deduce the structure of the organic compound.
- 9. Deduce the structure of the following compounds from the n.m.r spectra. $C_9H_{10}O:- \cdot 1.2 (3H,t), \cdot 3.0 (2H,q), \cdot 7.4 - \cdot 8.0 (5H,m)$ $C_9H_{10}O_2:- \cdot 1.4 (3H,t), \cdot 4.0 (2H,q), \cdot 7.4 - \cdot 8.0 (5H,m)$ $C_9H_{10}O_3:- \cdot 1.4 (3H,t), \cdot 4.0 (2H,q), \cdot 7.4 - \cdot 8.0 (5H,m)$ $C_7H_6O_2:- \cdot 6.5 (1H,s) \text{ and } \cdot 7.4 - \cdot 8.0 (5H,m).$
- 10. An organic compound with the % composition C=50.85, H = 8.47 and O = 40.68 has a molecular weight of 118. Given that its n.m.r spectra is as follows 2H(q)
 ••4.0 and 3H(t) •1.4. deduce the structure of this compound.
- 11. An organic compound with the % composition C 48.65% H 8.1% and O 43.24% has a molar mass of 74 and a n.m.r spectra as follows 1H(s) 8.4, 2H(q) 4.2 and 3H (t) 1.2 from this information deduce its structure.
- 12. Predict the n.m.r spectra along with the intensities for the compounds.

- (g) 1,1,2 trichloro ethane (h) 2-Chloropropanoic acid (i) 1, Nitropropane
- 13. An organic compound has the following % composition C= 68.4, H = 7.772, N=7.2 O=16.50%C and its empirical formula tallies with its molecular formula. Deduce the structure of this compound if its nmr spectra is as follows $\cdot 4.0 (2H,q), \cdot 1.5 (3H,t), \cdot 7.4 (1H,d) \cdot 7.6 (1Hd), \cdot 2.2 (6H,s).$
- 14. An aromatic compound with a molecular mass of 164 gave on micro analysis 73.17%C, 7.31%H and 19.513%O. the Hnmr spectra revealed the following 3H(s, •2.1) 4H (d, 7.6-•8.0), 2H (q, •4.2) and 3H (t, 1.4)•max determined by application of woodward rules is 325nm. Compound also gave two strong IR absorption bands at 5.917 and 13.477, with this information deduce the structure of the compound.
- 15. An aromatic unsaurated ketone has the following % composition. 68.4%C, 7.772%H, 7.2%N. given that its empirical formula tailies with its molecular formula, deduce the structure of this compound from its Hnmr spectra below (fig 1)

17. An aromatic unsaturated diketone, compound A with the percentage composition C=72.48,

A = 6.04 was subjected to spectroscopic analysis as shown in figs 2 and 3. From this data deduce the structure of the compound.

MASS SPECTROMETRY

In mass spectrometry, electronic transition is not involved. Rather. Organic molecules are bombarded with any and converted to highly energetic tvely charged ions (molecular/parent ion), which can then break up into smaller ions (fragment/daughter ions). Loss of an any from a molecule leads to the formation of a radical cation represented as $\overline{M}^{+}M^{+}$. A molecular ion (m⁺) commonly decomposes to a pair of fragments which can either be a radical and an ion or a small.

 $M^+ = M_1^+ + M_2$ Molecule and a radical atom.

 $M^+ = M_1^+ + M_2$ Molecule ion fragment ions and fragment radical ions are separated by deflections in a variable magnetic field according to their mass and charge and generates a current (ion current) at the collector in proportion to their

Relative abundance. The representation of a mass spectrum is like a graph of relative abundance against mass to charge ratio. It is therefore, the analysis of these charged particles that give rise to mass spectroscopy and the equipment used for the analysis is referred to as mass spectrometer.

SCHEMATIC DIAGRAM OF A MASS SPECTROMETER

The ion collector analyses the ions with respect to their relative abundance and their mass to charge ratio (m/e)

 $M \stackrel{e}{\rightarrow} M^+ \longrightarrow M_1^+ + M_2^+ + M_3^+$

Molecular ion Fragment ion.

The molecular ion highly energetic and fragments into smaller units known as fragment ions. The fragment ions, which are now separated by deflection in the magnetic field are collected within the ion collector. For instance, consider a mass spectrum of 2-methyl pentane.

M/Z	RA
15	3
29	25
30	10
43	100 Most abundant ion $=$ base peac
44	8
57	13
71	42
86	15 Molecular ion
87	$0.5~\mbox{M}^{+1}$ ion is due to isotopic nature of C and H

The most abundant ion is called base peak and the mass to charge irrelative abundance (M/Z to RA) given as 86/15 represents the molecular ion which is always equivalent to the molecular mass of the compound e.g. 2 methyl pentane $C_6H_{14}=86$.

The tendency of cleavage for organic compounds is usually $3^0 > 2^0 > 1^0$. e.g. C-C-C-C.

Therefore, the most abundant ion is 43 because in breaking up of the molecule, there is M^+ peak of 43 on both sides of the cleavage. Other cleavages can be accounted for as follows.

The important peaks can be accounted for by looking at the fragmentation patterns. Over the years, by considering several thousands of organic molecules has led to Comprehensive/Semi-emperical rules about the preferred fragmentation modes for every kind of organic molecule. The molecular weight i.e. a molecular ion peak is normally determined by looking towards the end of the spectrum. A series of peaks can be seen and the last major ion peak represents the molecular ion and therefore, the molecular weight.

M/Z	Assignment
86	M^+
87	M ⁺ +1
87	M ⁺ +2

FRAGMENTATIONS ASSOCIATED WITH FUNCTIONAL GROUPS.

It is always easier to rationalize the mass spectrum of a known structure than to deduce the structure of an unknown compound from its mass spectrum. Other spectroscopic evidence for the presence of functional groups should ideally be available.

<u>ALKANES</u>

In general, for alkanes, the predominant peaks are the C_nH_{2n+1} peak. Associated with each of these C_nH_{2n+1} ions are lesser amounts of the corresponding alkenyl ions which is C_nH_{2n-1} , formed by loss of two hydrogen atoms. They therefore appear at m/e of 27,

41, 55, and 69. metastable ions of very low intensities can be detected for the fragmentation in which the alkyl ions extrude a smaller molecule, thus, $C_2H_5^+$ and $C_3H_7^+$ can extrude H₂ while $C_4H_9^+$ can extrude C_4H_1 , $C_5H_{11}^+$ and $C_6H_{13}^+$ extrude C_2H_4 and $C_7H_{15}^+$ extrude C_3H_6 .

Branched chain alkanes rupture predominantly at the branching point and the largest group attached to the branching point is often preferentially expelled as a radical. Preference is for the formation of 3[°] over 2[°] and 2[°] over 1[°] cations. For example,

ALKENES

The commonest fragmentation in alkene group involves rupture of the allylic bond (B to the double bond). Since the allylic radical is also stabilized, the fragmentation may give rise to peaks corresponding to charge retention by either of the fragments

A maclafferty's rearrangement may occur if the carbon atom (position of C atom to the double bond) has hydrogen atoms on it

<u>ALKYNES</u>

No single pattern emerges for the fragmentation of alkynes that can be applied to the complex molecules. Loss of alkyl radicals gives prominent peaks in many cases at M-15, M-29 and extrusion of alkenes may give M-28 and M-42 peaks.

AROMATIC HYDROCARBONS

Molecular ions of aromatic hydrocarbon are always abundant and the M^{+} is commonly the base peak while M^{+1} and M^{+2} M^{+}_{+2} are easily observed. Alkyl benzenes are the commonest HC's in this class. The dominant fragmentation in the group is at the benzylic bond.

The stable benzene cation (III) certainly explains the abundant m/e 91 peak observed in the mass spec of compound of this type.

Maclafferty's rearrangement is also observed in alkyl benzenes provided the side chain has H on the X C-atom giving rise to an ion a m/e of 92.

The phenyl cation $(C_6H_5^+)$ at m/e of 77 is produced by many aromatics by rupture of the bond X to the ring and this ion extrude C2H2 to give m/e of 51.

ALCOHOLS

The number of fragmentation for alcohols and their relative importance depend on 1° , 2° and 3° aliphatic or aromatic nature of the alcohol. The most importance fragmentation is rupture of the bond B to O₂. For 1° alcohols, M-18 peak is observed which corresponds to loss of water. Also, for alcohols with more than 4 C atoms is simultaneous loss of water and alkene to give M-18-C_nH_{2n}.

 2^{0} and 3^{0} alcohols fragment by loss of alkyl radicals. The case of elimination increasing with increased size and branching in the alcohol. Aromatic alcohols fragment so as to favour charge retention by the aryl group e.g. in 1-phenyl ethanol the base peak correspond to elimination of CH₃. Also, peak corresponding to A CO⁺ and Ar⁺ are also observed. The peak observed at m/e of 107 by these alcohols (base peak in the case of 1-phenyl ethanol) is best represented as hydroxyl tropylium ion loss of CO form this ion gives rise to m/e of 79 followed by loss of H giving rise to the phenyl cation at m/e 77 which then goes further to lose C₂H₂ giving rose to m/e of 51.

PHENOLS

Simple phenols give strong molecular ion peaks. The commonest fragmentation is loss of CO (M-28) and CHO (M-29). Those with alkyl side chains form the hydroxyl tropylium ion.

CARBONYL COMPOUNDS

For aryl carbonyl compounds, they have general this type of fragmentation.

There are three (3) types of cleavages for carbonyl compounds and these are:-

- 1. X Cleavage.
- 2. β Cleavage.
- 3. β Cleavage with maclaffertys rearrangement.

X CLEAVAGE

<u>β CLEAVAGE</u>

 $R-CH_2-CHO^+$ $R+CH_2CHO^+$

ß cleavage occurs with expulsion of alkyl ions from aliphatic aldehydes when the base peak is odd (e.g 43) it is most likely to have an X cleavage with maclafferty rearrangement (Note that that base peak usually contains a functional group).

β CLEAVAGE WITH MACLAFFERTY'S REARRANGEMENT

- When X = H aldehyde CI acyl chloride
 - R Ketone NH₂ amide

OH carboxylic acid OR ester

For simple unsubstituted aldehyde, when X = H and R = H, an ion, m/e 44 fragments. For the corresponding ketones in which X can be CH_3 , $C_2H_5^{(+14)}$ etc, peaks would be observed at 58, 72 etc ⁽⁺¹⁴⁾. For carboxylic acid where X = OH, the peak appears at a peak of 60. 1^{0} amines fragment by loss of H (M⁺-1) and loss of HCN (M⁺-27) e.g. aniline NH₃ gives rise to a peak 93-27. For 2^{0} and 3^{0} amines, base peak is given by CH₂ = NH₂⁺ m/e 30 and is formed by the expulsion of the radical from M⁺.