

## Short Summary of $^1\text{H}$ -NMR Interpretation

For fuller explanation, see: <http://www.mnstate.edu/jasperse/Chem355/H-NMR.doc.pdf>

### I. Number of Signal Sets

### II. Integration

These must be simple whole-number ratios (2:1, 3:1, 3:2, etc..)

### III. "Chemical Shifts" of the Signal Sets

9's (9.0-10.0)	<u>Aldehyde</u> $\text{sp}^2$ hybridized C-H's
7's (6.5-8.4)	<u>Aromatic</u> $\text{sp}^2$ hybridized C-H's
5's (4.8-6.8)	<u>Alkene</u> $\text{sp}^2$ hybridized C-H's
3's (2.8-4.5)	<u>Oxygenated</u> or <u>Halogenated</u> $\text{sp}^3$ hybridized C-H's (halogenated and nitrogenated alkyl C-H's will also come in this window, although no candidates for today's lab). Oxygenated $\text{sp}^3$ -carbons are routinely present for the following functional groups that contain oxygen single bonds: a. <u>alcohols</u> , b. <u>ethers</u> , or c. <u>esters</u>
2's (1.8-2.8)	<u>Allylic</u> $\text{sp}^3$ hybridized C-H's ( $\text{sp}^3$ hybridized C-H's that has a double bond attached to the $\text{sp}^3$ hybridized C). Allylic signals routinely appear when one of the following double-bonded functional groups is present: d. <u>carbonyls</u> , (ketones, esters, aldehydes, acids, amides) e. <u>alkenes</u> , or f. <u>aromatics</u>
1's (0.7-2.0)	$\text{sp}^3$ hybridized C-H's, with <u>no attached Functional Groups</u> g. <u>Note:</u> Many molecules with non-functional alkyl portions will give a lot of signal in this area.
0-12 (anywhere!)	<u>Alcohol/Acid</u> O-H hydrogens (N-H hydrogens likewise) h. <u>alcohols</u> , i. <u>carboxylic acids</u>

1. Recognize OH's..
2. Check each of the zones. Each one gives you a yes or no answer about the presence of absence of the featured group.
3. End-Check: Check that the functional groups indicated by your chemical shift information match with the structure you believe you actually have! If not, structure needs correction!
4. The regions are somewhat approximate, and have some spillover.
5. For multi-functional complex molecules, there are more complex ways for a C-H to come in some of the above window. For example, an  $\text{sp}^3$ -hybridized C-H with two attached oxygens can come in the 5's, or an  $\text{sp}^3$ -hybridized C-H that is doubly allylic can come in the 3's. In other words, the impact of functional groups is roughly additive.

### IV. Splitting

- **N-1 Rule:** N lines  $\nrightarrow$  N-1 neighbor H's (H's directly attached to carbons attached to the C-H group causing the signal)
  - The N-1 Rule is useful when working from spectrum to actual structure
- **N+1 Rule:** N neighbor H's  $\nrightarrow$  N+1 lines
  - The N+1 Rule is useful when working from structure to actual spectrum

Note: OH hydrogens don't participate in splitting (normally)

## Short Summary of $^{13}\text{C}$ -NMR Interpretation

For fuller explanation, see: <http://www.mnstate.edu/jasperse/Chem355/C-13%20NMR.doc.pdf>

- Count how many lines** you have. **This will tell you how many types of carbons** you have. (Symmetry equivalent carbons can at times cause the number of lines to be less than the number of carbons in your structure.)
  - Each “unique” carbon gives a separate line.
  - Symmetry duplicates give the same line.
  - If there are more carbons in your formula than there are lines in your spectrum, it means you have symmetry.
- Check diagnostic frequency windows** (“chemical shift windows”) of the lines **to provide yes-or-no answers regarding the presence or absence of key functional groups** in your molecule.
 

220-160	C=O carbonyl carbons, $sp^2$ hybridized
160-100	C alkene or aromatic carbons, $sp^2$ hybridized
100-50	C-O oxygen-bearing carbons, single bonds only, $sp^3$ hybridized
50-0	C alkyl carbons, no oxygens attached, $sp^3$ hybridized
- Check Splitting.** C13 NMR's are often acquired as “decoupled” spectra, in which each carbon signal appears as a singlet. This is the way our laboratory C13 NMR's come out. However, at the cost of extra time it is also possible to get “coupled” C13 NMR's with splitting. These splitting values are very useful, and follow the N+1/N-1 rules (the number of lines is one greater than the number of attached H's).
 

Quartet (q)	CH <sub>3</sub>
Triplet (t)	CH <sub>2</sub>
Doublet (d)	CH
Singlet (s)	C (no attached hydrogens).
- Signal Height/Size**
  - Carbons without any attached H's are short. This is common for carbonyls (aldehydes are the only carbonyl carbons that have hydrogens attached) and for substituted carbons in a benzene ring.
  - Symmetry duplication multiplies signal height (if you have two copies of a carbon, the line will probably be taller than normal!)
- Aromatics, Symmetry, and C-13 Signals.** Most aromatics have symmetry, and both the number of aromatic lines and the splitting of the aromatic lines can be indicative of the substitution pattern on a benzene. Mono- and para-disubstituted benzenes have symmetry.
 

4 lines s, d, d, d	Monosubstituted benzene. (Has symmetry).
4 lines s, s, d, d	Para-disubstituted benzene. (Has symmetry).
6 lines s, s, d, d, d, d	Ortho- or meta-disubstituted benzene. (Has no symmetry).

### Summary of IR (Infrared) Interpretation

- Check for Diagnostic Signals**

3500-3200	OH or NH
1800-1640	C=O
3500-2500 + 1800-1640	CO <sub>2</sub> H
- Further Information in the “Carbonyl Zone”**

<1700	Unsaturated C=O
>1700	Saturated C=O
1720-1700	Saturated ketones, aldehydes, acids
1750-1735	Saturated ester

**I. Introduction to Spectroscopy (12.5)** Spectroscopy involves gaining information from the absorption, emission, or reflection of light from a sample. Familiar real-life examples:

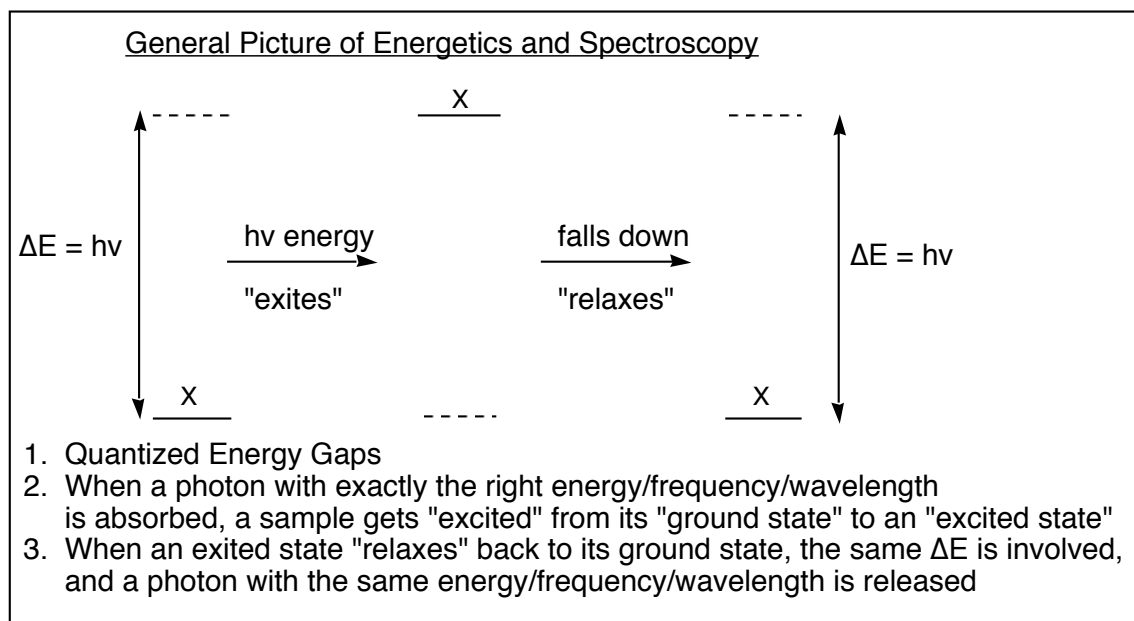
1. X-rays. Dense bone absorbs x-ray radiation.
2. Grocery store scanners. A monochromatic laser is either absorbed (black bar) or reflected (white bar).
  - binary code.
3. Stop lights.
  - lens is adjusted at timed intervals to enable emission of green, red, or yellow light.

Main Organic Spectroscopies:

1. "NMR" ("Nuclear Magnetic Resonance" spectroscopy).
  - a. identify the structure of an unknown
  - b. assess the purity of a product
  - c. determine ratios of isomers.
  - d. Magnetic Resonance Image ("MRI") is an important hospital application of NMR.
2. "IR" (InfraRed)
  - a. check for presence of major functional groups (OH, C=O)
  - b. fingerprint for molecular identification
3. Mass Spectrometry
  - a. Molecular mass
4. UltraViolet
  - a. Certain functional groups

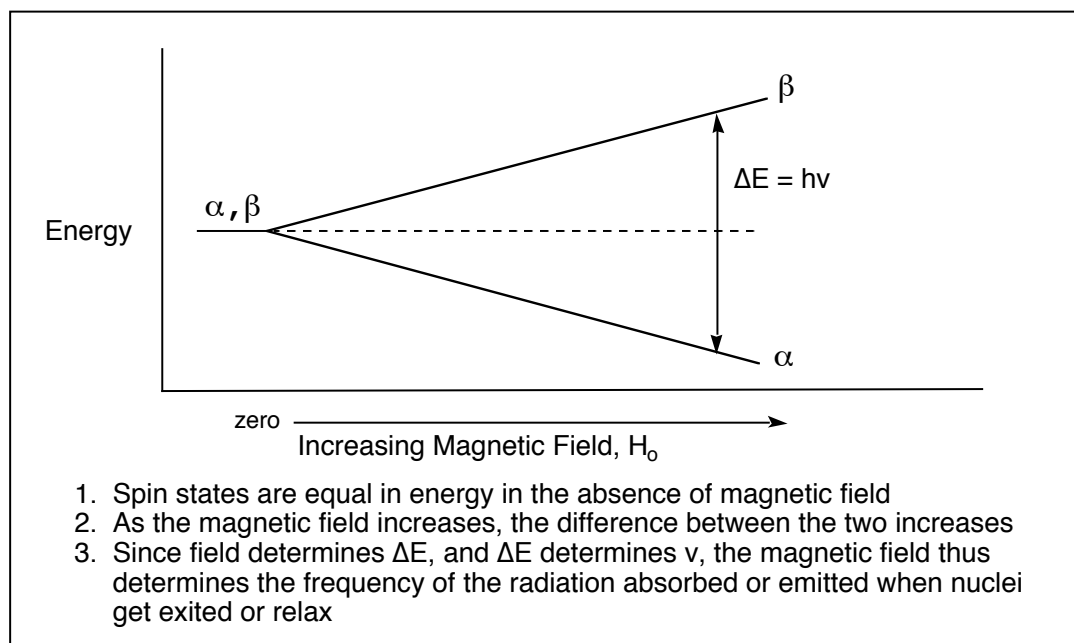
**II. General Aspects of Spectroscopy Physics**

1. quantized energy levels.
2. photon of precise energy
3. excitation (energy absorbed)/relaxation (energy released) of quantized photons and quantized  $\Delta E$   
quantity of photons can tell us about how much material is absorbing or emitting.
4. Interpretation: The chemist must then be able to interpret what the frequencies of the photons mean in terms of chemical structure.



**III. NMR Physics** (13.1-3)

1. Certain nuclei (not all) have quantized “nuclear spins”. (spin up or spin down)
  - Analogy: quantized electron spin states
  - Spinning charge  $\rightarrow$  magnetic. Just as electrons have quantized spin states (spin up or spin down),  
**Some NMR-active nuclei:** H-1, C-13, N-15, F-19, P-31, Si-29, Se-79, Sn-119  
**Some NMR-inactive nuclei:** C-12, N-14, O-16
2. In an applied magnetic field, nuclear magnets align with or against the magnetic field.
3. The energy gap between spin states depends on the strength of the magnetic field.
  - Since magnetic field strength determines  $\Delta E$ , and  $\Delta E$  determines  $\nu$ , the magnetic field thus determines the frequency of the radiation absorbed or emitted.



4. Different nuclei (H-1 versus C-13) have very different  $\Delta E$ .
5. In different chemical environments, the same nucleus will have different  $\Delta E$ .
  - a. key to  $^{13}\text{C}$  and  $^1\text{H}$  NMR.
  - b. Although the external magnetic field (applied by the spectrometer) may be the same, different hydrogens in a molecule experience different magnetic fields, and thus absorb/emit different photons.
  - c. Why:
    - moving electrons function as “electron magnets”
    - moving nuclei function as “nuclear magnets”
  - d. The magnetic influence of local electrons and nuclei can reinforce or partially counteract the external field, so that every different hydrogen “feels” a different  $M_{\text{actual}}$ . ( $M$  = magnetic field)

$$M_{\text{actual}} = M_{\text{applied}} + M_{\text{electrons}} + M_{\text{nuclei}}$$

$$M_{\text{actual}} \propto \Delta E_{\text{actual}} \propto \nu_{\text{actual}}$$

**The four facets of  $^1\text{H}$  NMR spectroscopy:**

1. The number of signal sets (Section 13.3,8)
  - The number of signal sets tells how many types of symmetry-unique hydrogen are present
  - Symmetry-duplicate hydrogens give the same signal sets
2. The chemical shifts (where the signals appear) (Section 13.9) (Most complex facet)
  - The chemical shifts reflect the chemical environment of each type of hydrogen
    - a. Whether attached to an  $\text{sp}^3$  or and  $\text{sp}^2$  carbon
    - b. What kind of functional groups might be attached to the carbon on which the hydrogen is attached.
    - c. Whether attached to carbon versus to oxygen or nitrogen
3. The integration (size/area) of each signal set (Section 13.10) (Simplest facet, once you know how)
  - The integrated area for each signal set reflects how many hydrogens are responsible.
    - a.  $3\text{H} \rightarrow \text{CH}_3$  group (or  $2\text{H}$  and  $1\text{H}$  groups superimposed)
    - b.  $2\text{H} \rightarrow \text{CH}_2$  group (or two nonequivalent  $1\text{H}$  groups superimposed)
    - c.  $1\text{H} \rightarrow \text{CH}$  or  $\text{OH}$  group
4. The splitting (number of lines) in each signal set (Section 13.11)
  - The splitting provides information about what is connected to a given carbon
    - a.  $N$  lines  $\rightarrow N-1$  "neighbor"  $\text{H}$ 's (when working from spectrum to structure)
    - b.  $N$  neighbors  $\rightarrow N+1$  lines (when predicting spectrum from structure)

**Summary of Steps in Beginner  $^1\text{H}$  NMR Interpretation:**

1. If provided with a chemical formula, calculate how many elements of unsaturation are present
  - This helps to put you on the alert for the presence of double bonds, rings, or aromatics
2. **Count how many signal sets** you have.
  - **This will tell you how many types of hydrogen-bearing carbons** you have.
  - Hydrogens attached to symmetry-equivalent carbons will give equivalent signals)
  - Clean  $\text{CH}_3$  or  $\text{CH}_2$  signal sets will normally have reasonable shape symmetry
  - If you have asymmetric looking signals, there is a good chance that two or more different signal sets may be overlapping
3. Check the **integration** of each signal set.
  - $3\text{H} \rightarrow \text{CH}_3$  group     $2\text{H} \rightarrow \text{CH}_2$  group     $1\text{H} \rightarrow \text{CH}$  or  $\text{OH}$  group
  - The above are true if there isn't any accidental overlapping
  - Clean  $\text{CH}_3$  or  $\text{CH}_2$  signal sets will normally have reasonable shape symmetry
    - a. So, for example, if you have a nice symmetric  $3\text{H}$  signal, conclude you have a  $\text{CH}_3$
    - b. But if you have a complex, unsymmetric  $3\text{H}$ , do not assume it's really a  $\text{CH}_3$ .
  - Effective recognition and integration of signal sets can help you know how many  $\text{CH}_3$ 's and  $\text{CH}_2$ 's you have in your molecule
4. **Check diagnostic "chemical shift" windows** of the lines
  - Use yes-or-no checklist regarding the presence of key functional groups
  - Things can get more complicated if two or more functional groups are both affecting a common signal set.
  - Chemical shift information can quickly tell you whether hydrogens are attached to arenes or alkenes, and tell whether a  $\text{CH}_2$  or  $\text{CH}_3$  or  $\text{CH}$  signal set is attached to a single-bond oxygens or a carbonyl or an aromatic.

5. Check the **splitting** of each signal set.
  - A signal set with N lines means that there are N-1 hydrogens attached to carbons directly connected to the carbon that holds the signal set hydrogens
  - The splitting tells you nothing about the signal set itself (for example, whether it is a CH<sub>3</sub> or a CH<sub>2</sub> group). But it can tell you for example whether a CH<sub>3</sub> group (for example) is connected to a CH<sub>2</sub> group or a CH group, or perhaps to an oxygen or a carbonyl carbon that doesn't have any directly attached hydrogens.
  - Etc.
6. Try to find any sure things that you can as soon as you can.
7. Try to use integration to find any clean 3H signals that indicate CH<sub>3</sub> groups. Then use splitting and/or chemical shifts to track down what the CH<sub>3</sub> group is connected to, etc..

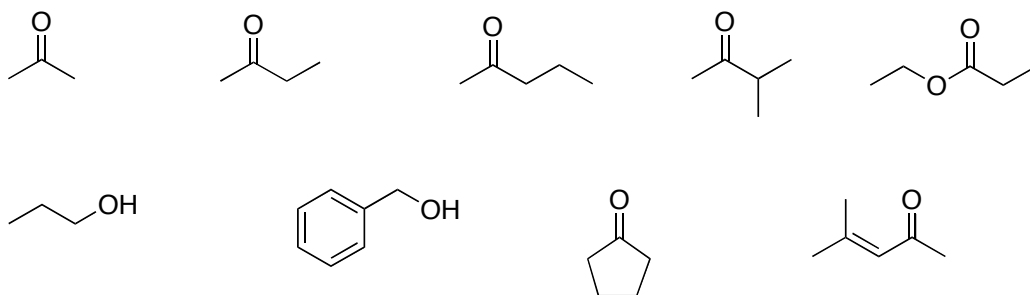
#### Other Practical Tips

1. Try to recognize any easy and obvious sure-thing components, for example:
  - a. Aryl groups (chemical shift in the 7's, a 4H or 5H integral depending on whether di- or mono-substituted)
  - b. CH<sub>3</sub> methyl groups (based on clean 3H integration)
  - c. Isopropyl groups (6H doublet)
  - d. Alcohol OH: integrates for only 1H, and normally doesn't have the splitting that a CH hydrogen does
2. Try to work from end(s) toward the middle
  - If you know you have a CH<sub>3</sub> group, you can write it down for sure, and then try to figure out via splitting and/or chemical shifts what it's connected to, etc.
3. Recognizing "end groups" can give you an idea whether you have a straight chain or have branching
  - CH<sub>3</sub>
  - Cl, Br
  - OH
  - C<sub>6</sub>H<sub>5</sub>

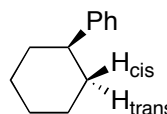
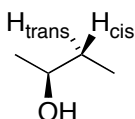
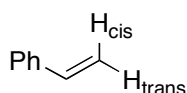
#### The Number of Signal Sets (Section 13-8)

1. Nonequivalent H's have different chemical environments and give different signals
2. Symmetry-equivalent H's have the same chemical environment and give the same signal
  - Thus the number of signal sets tells you how many different types of hydrogens are present
3. On an **achiral** molecule (alkenes and rings excepted), hydrogens on a common carbon will be equivalent.
  - all three H's on a CH<sub>3</sub> group will be equivalent
  - both H's on a CH<sub>2</sub> group will be equivalent.

Example: How many H-NMR Signal Sets Would each of the following produce?



4. For chiral molecules, substituted rings, and alkenes, cis-trans relationships can often make the two hydrogens in a CH<sub>2</sub> group non-equivalent

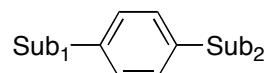
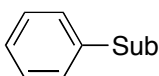
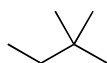
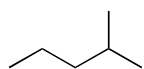


5. **Beware of overlaps!**

- Often two signal sets will show at about the same place. If you think you have a CH<sub>3</sub> group when in fact it's overlapping CH<sub>2</sub> and CH signals, you can get very confused...
- Overlaps normally don't have the clean symmetry that a clean signal set has

6. **Beware of Symmetry Duplication**

- Isopropyl groups are most common, and t-butyl groups on occasion
  - Integrations of 6H or 9H can help recognize these



**Integration** (Section 13.10)

1. All hydrogens give an equal amount of signal
  - The area produced is measured or "integrated" by the spectrometer
  - The measured area is normally referred to as the "integral"
2. When there is symmetry duplication of a hydrogen, the resulting signal will be multiplied accordingly!
  - Since all three H's on a CH<sub>3</sub> group are equivalent, they will sum to provide a signal set that integrates for 3H
3. Technical notes:
  - a. The key is not the signal height, but rather the signal **area**.
  - b. The signal **area** is measured by "integration lines". Make sure to differentiate integration marks, and what they mean, from signal lines themselves.

**4. The relative areas of the signal-set integrals directly correlates the ratios of H's**

- The integrals **must be simple whole-number ratios** (2:1, 3:1, 3:2, etc..)
  - You can't have half a hydrogen or one-third of a hydrogen atom!
5. Clean sets involving equivalent H's give clean, symmetric signal sets:

- a.  $1\text{H} \rightarrow \text{CH or OH}$
  - b.  $2\text{H} \rightarrow \text{CH}_2$
  - c.  $3\text{H} \rightarrow \text{CH}_3$
  - d.  $6\text{H} \rightarrow 2 \text{ equivalent } \text{CH}_3 \text{ groups}$
  - e.  $5\text{H}$  in aryl region  $\rightarrow$  monosubstituted benzene (even if not clean set)
  - f.  $4\text{H}$  in aryl region  $\rightarrow$  disubstituted benzene (even if not clean set)
6. Unsymmetrical messy sets involving overlapping signal sets: (these will routinely not look nice and symmetric...)
- a.  $3\text{H} \rightarrow \text{CH}_2$  overlapping an OH or CH
  - b.  $4\text{H} \rightarrow$  two overlapping but not exactly equivalent  $\text{CH}_2$  groups; or a  $\text{CH}_3$  overlapping an OH or CH
  - c.  $5\text{H} \rightarrow$  common in the 7's, for 5 overlapping arene H's; also common in the 1's, when a  $\text{CH}_3$  and  $\text{CH}_2$  overlap
7. Recognizing  $3\text{H} \rightarrow$  methyl groups, or  $6\text{H} \rightarrow$  isopropyl groups is really helpful

Ways to Determine the Integration (Focus on the types of spectra that you'll see for test)

- Identify the integration line as opposed to the actual spectrum itself
1. Measure the raw areas for each signal set
    - a. For class/test problems, use the grid lines
    - b. For lab, the spectrometer will often measure an integral number for you
    - c. For class or lab, if you prefer to use a ruler to measure, that's common to
  2. Convert the raw areas into relative area ratios (Example, Handout problem 1)

Raw areas:

Three Ways to do this:

1. Divide any raw area by the smallest raw area

<u>Ratio</u>	<u>Means</u>	<u>Ratio</u>	<u>Means</u>	<u>Ratio</u>	<u>Means</u>	<u>Ratio</u>	<u>Means</u>
1		1.5		2		3	

2. Since all of our class/test NMR's will have 10 gridlines, you can take 10 gridlines/actual number of hydrogens (if formula is provided) to figure out the gridlines-per-hydrogen ratio
  - You can then use this to convert your raw integrals into actual Hydrogen counts

Ex:  $10 \text{ grids} / 7 \text{ H's} = 1.4 \text{ grids} / 1 \text{ H}$

3. Since all of our class/test NMR's will have 10 gridlines, you can set up a ratio to solve for actual H's in a given signal set:

Ex:  $\frac{2.9 \text{ grids}}{10 \text{ grids}} = \frac{x \text{ H's}}{7 \text{ H's}}$



**Splitting (Section 13.11, 12)**

- The number of lines in a signal set tell us nothing about the C-H's themselves that cause the signal (whether it's a CH<sub>3</sub> or CH<sub>2</sub> group, whether it's an sp<sup>3</sup> or sp<sup>2</sup> carbon, whether it's allylic or oxygenated...).
- But the splitting tells us something else that is really useful: what kind of CH groups are attached to the group of interest! Splitting tells us nothing about the group itself, but it does provide great information about neighbor groups.

**Rules of "Splitting"**

- N-1 Rule: N lines → N-1 neighbor H's** (H's directly attached to carbons attached to the C-H group causing the signal)
  - The N-1 Rule is useful when working from spectrum to actual structure
- N+1 Rule: N neighbor H's → N+1 lines**
  - The N+1 Rule is useful when predicting a spectrum for a structure

N+1 Rule (Given structure, how many lines a spectrum should give)

Neighbors	2	3+2	2	0	Neighbors	0	-	2	2+3	2
Lines	3	6	3	1	Lines	1	-	3	6	3




(Notice: OH doesn't split...)

N-1 Rule (Given spectrum, how many neighbors a structure should have)

	Lines	1 (s)inglet		Lines	2 (d)oublet
	Neighbors	0		Neighbors	1
	Lines	3 (t)riplet		Lines	4 (q)uartet
	Neighbors	2		Neighbors	3 etc.

1. Physics Origin: hydrogens are quantized little magnets. Having neighbor hydrogens is equivalent to having local magnets that can either reinforce the external field (spin up) or counteract the external magnetic field (spin down).

- The number of lines and the relative intensity of the lines reflects simple statistical possibilities in terms of neighbor hydrogen magnets being spin up or spin down.
  - With one neighbor magnet, the probability of spin up vs spin down is comparable → 1:1 doublet
  - With two neighbor magnets, they can be spin up/down in three different arrangements of 1:2:1 probability → 1:2:1 triplet
  - Etc.

Lines Neighbors	2 (d)oublet 1 neighbor	3 (t)riplet 2 neighbors	4 (q)uartet 3 neighbors
			
Neighbor Hydrogen Spin States	↑    ↓	↑↑   ↓↑   ↓↓ ↑↓	↑↑↑   ↓↑↑   ↓↓↑   ↓↓↓ ↑↑↓   ↓↓↑ ↑↑↓   ↓↓↑

2. Neighbor C-H hydrogens participate in splitting (always)

3. Neighbor OH hydrogens usually don't participate in splitting (~75% of the time). But sometimes they do (about 25% of the time).

- They can have widely varying and rapidly changing hydrogen-bonding arrangements

4. Splitting from H's further distant than neighbor carbons sometimes occurs, but usually the amount of splitting is too small to worry about

5. Splitting nicknames:

- 1 line = singlet (s)    2 lines = doublet (d)    3 lines = triplet (t)
- 4 lines = quartet (q)    5 lines = pentet (p)    >5 lines = multiplet (m)

6. Limitation to the N-1/N+1 rules: it is only reliable if all of the neighbor hydrogens are equivalent. However, the rules actually are accurate only if the neighbor H's are equivalent.

- The rule can break down when some of the neighbor H's differ significantly from each other

- The more nonequivalent the neighbor hydrogens, the less the N-1/N+1 rules apply
  - Neighbor hydrogens on acyclic and  $sp^3$  carbons tend to be pretty similar
  - Alkenes or aldehyde hydrogens (on  $sp^2$  carbons) tend to split rather differently than hydrogens on  $sp^3$  carbons
  - Splitting involving cis versus trans hydrogens on rings or alkenes tend to split rather differently from each other and from hydrogens on acyclic  $sp^3$  systems.
  - Chiral centers can mess up the splitting even on acyclic systems

**“Chemical Shifts” of the Signal Sets (Section 13.9)**

- The following apply when only one functional group is impacting
- If two or more are impacting, then signal sets can appear outside of these windows

1's (0.7-2.0)	<p><math>sp^3</math> hybridized C-H's, with <b><u>no attached Functional Groups</u></b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• <b><u>Note:</u></b> Many molecules with non-functional alkyl portions will give a lot of signal in this area.</li> <li>• <b><u>This is the default place for <math>sp^3</math> C-H's, when no functional group is shifting them to higher number</u></b></li> </ul>
2's (1.8-3.1)	<p><b><u>Allylic</u></b> <math>sp^3</math> hybridized C-H's (<math>sp^3</math> hybridized C-H's that has a double bond attached to the <math>sp^3</math> hybridized C). Allylic signals routinely appear when one of the following double-bonded functional groups is present:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• +1 Adjustment factor</li> <li>• <b><u>carbonyls</u></b>, (ketones, esters, aldehydes, acids, amides)</li> <li>• <b><u>alkenes</u></b>, or</li> <li>• <b><u>aromatics</u></b></li> </ul>
3's (2.8-4.5)	<p><b><u>Oxygenated</u></b> <math>sp^3</math> hybridized C-H's (halogenated and nitrogenated alkyl C-H's will also come in this window, although no candidates for today's lab). Oxygenated <math>sp^3</math>-carbons are routinely present for the following functional groups that contain oxygen single bonds:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• +2 Adjustment factor</li> <li>• <b><u>alcohols</u></b>,</li> <li>• <b><u>ethers</u></b>, or</li> <li>• <b><u>esters</u></b></li> </ul>
5's (4.8-6.8)	<b><u>Alkene</u></b> $sp^2$ hybridized C-H's
7's (6.5-8.4)	<b><u>Aromatic</u></b> $sp^2$ hybridized C-H's
9's (9.0-10.0)	<b><u>Aldehyde</u></b> $sp^2$ hybridized C-H's
0-12 (anywhere!)	<p><b><u>Alcohol/Acid</u></b> O-H hydrogens (N-H hydrogens likewise)</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• <b><u>alcohols</u></b>, (normally 1.5-3.0)</li> <li>• <b><u>carboxylic acids</u></b></li> </ul>

- Replacement of H by more electronegative atom/group “deshields” a proton and moves it “downfield”, to a higher number
  - “methine” (CH) > “methylene” (CH<sub>2</sub>) > “methyl” (CH<sub>3</sub>)
  - sequential replacement of hydrogens by more electronegative carbons
  - See the electronegativity pattern as you go from: H (0.9) – C (1.2) – N (2.6) – I (3.2) – Br (3.3) – Cl (3.4) to O (3.5)
  - See the electronegativity pattern between amine (2.7) versus amide (3.2), alcohol/ether oxygen (3.5) versus ester oxygen (4.1)

0.90	1.20	1.55	2.00	2.45	2.55	
2.65	3.20	3.15	3.35	3.40	3.53	4.08

7. The allylic factor has basically the same basis:  $sp^2$  carbons are more electronegative than  $sp^3$  carbons, so replacing an  $sp^3$  with an  $sp^2$  "deshields"

1.20	2.00	2.45

8. A carbonyl on a heteroatom makes it more electronegative. So ester versus ether and amide versus amine has the same electronegativity basis.

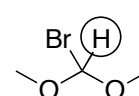
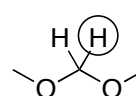
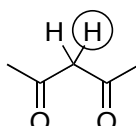
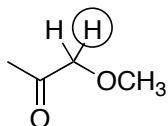
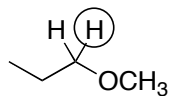
2.65	3.20	3.53	4.08

9. Additivity values can be used to predict chemical shifts when two or more functional groups are acting

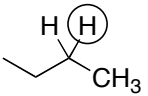
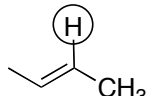
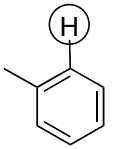
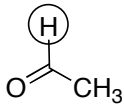
Vinyl	Carbonyl ("Acyl")	Aryl	Amino	Amido	Halo	Hydroxy/Alkoxy	Carbonyloxy
0.8	1.2	1.3	1.5	2	2.2	2.3	2.8

- Default reference points:  $CH_3$  0.90       $CH_2$  1.20       $CH$  1.50
- Memorize the following qualitative additivity values:
  - Double-bonded carbons (vinyl, acyl, aryl)  $\rightarrow +1$
  - Oxygen or Halogen  $\rightarrow +2$

Predict the chemical shifts for the circled hydrogens, using the specific chart additivity values and using the qualitative memorized ones:

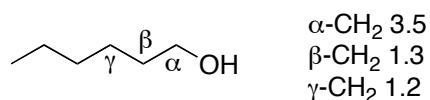


10. Strong hybridization effect: hydrogens on  $sp^2$  carbons routinely above 5, those on  $sp^3$  carbons normally come below 5.

			
1.20	5.4	7.1	9.7

11. Functional Groups further away have reduced impact.

- Direct “ $\alpha$ ” attached functional groups have a large impact
- When the functional group is “ $\beta$ ” it makes a difference, but not large
- When the functional group is “ $\gamma$ ” or further, it makes no difference
- Sometimes a couple of “ $\beta$ ” substituents can add up and push a signal set out of it’s normal window



Key: The impact of two or more functional groups can sometimes deceptively push a signal into a window that you assume means something else

- A signal in the 3’s normally implies an oxygenated (or halogenated) carbon. But it could also result from a double allylic carbon with two carbonyls attached.
- A signal in the 5’s is normally implies an alkene, but it might also result from an  $sp^3$ -hybridized carbon that has two oxygen attachments.
- Etc.

## 12. Recognize OH’s.

- An OH can come anywhere, and can easily cause you to make a mistaken conclusion about a feature group. For example, if you have an OH and it comes in the 2’s, and you conclude that you have an allylic C-H, that might send you down a bad blind alley. Or if you have an OH that appears in the 5’s, you might falsely deduce that you have an alkene, etc.. Thus it is really helpful to recognize OH’s when they appear so that they don’t confuse you.
- Three recognition factors for OH signals:
  - They always **integrate for 1H**, never for 2H or 3H
  - They often **appear as singlets, often somewhat broad**. C-H signals tend to be sharper, and any C-H signal set that integrates for 1H will have significant splitting. The only way to have a 1H that doesn’t split is for it to be an OH.
  - They come anywhere, but often in the 1.5-3.0 range
  - If you have an OH signal, of course you will also have some C-H signals in the 3.0-4.5 area.

## 13. Check each of the zones. Each one gives you a tentative yes or no answer about the presence of absence of the featured group.

- Do I have something in the 9’s? If yes → aldehyde
- Do I have something in the 7’s? (Other than a solvent singlet...)? If yes → aromatic
- Do I have something in the 5’s? If yes → alkene
- Do I have something in the 3’s? If yes → alcohol, ether, or ester (or OH)
- Do I have something in the 2’s? If yes → ketone, aromatic, or alkene (or OH)
- Do I have something in the 1’s? If yes → some nonfunctional alkyl carbons (or OH)

Caution: Mistaken conclusions can sometimes be drawn from two sources:

- An OH in the 2's or 3's or 5's, from which you falsely conclude that you be allylic or oxygenated or vinylic
- A signal that appears where it does because of the effect of two (or more) functional groups, rather than just one.

**Standard Summary Format and Predicting H-NMR's** There is a standard summary report format for H-NMR's which addresses chemical shift, integration, and splitting. Normally an interpretation/correlation with the actual structure is also included.

Ex:  $\text{CH}_3\text{OCH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{C}(\text{O})\text{CH}_3$  (I'll number the carbons from left to right...)

Standard report format (approximate chemical shift range, integration, splitting, and interpretation of which signal correlates to which group in the structure...)

3's, 3H, s ( $\text{CH}_3$ -1)

3's, 2H, t ( $\text{CH}_2$ -2)

1's, 2H, p ( $\text{CH}_2$ -3)

2's, 2H, t ( $\text{CH}_2$ -4)

2's, 3H, s ( $\text{CH}_3$ -6)

- Beware of Overlapping.** Overlapping is most routine in the benzene area (7's), and also in the alkyl area (1's), but happens elsewhere as well. OH signals also often overlap other signals.

### **Review + Summary**

- Use your formula to count elements of unsaturation
- Count **how many signal sets** you have.
- Check the **integration** of each signal set.
  - 3H  $\rightarrow$   $\text{CH}_3$  group      2H  $\rightarrow$   $\text{CH}_2$  group      1H  $\rightarrow$  CH or OH group
- Check the **splitting** of each signal set.
  - N lines  $\rightarrow$  N-1 neighbor hydrogens
- Check **"chemical shift" windows** of the lines to provide information regarding the **presence or absence of key functional groups** in your molecule.
  - ☐ Beware of misinterpreting overlapping signals
  - ☐ Beware of being confused by signal sets caused by OH's or caused by two or more functional groups impacting chemical shift
  - ☐ Steps 4 and 5 are definitely interchangeable
- Use **"tracking" to work from known components (normally  $\text{CH}_3$  end groups, or  $\text{C}_6\text{H}_5$  end group, or OH end groups) down the chain**
  - Integration can tell you whether it's a  $\text{CH}_3$ ,  $\text{CH}_2$ , or CH causing a particular signal set
  - Chemical shift and/or splitting can then tell you what else may be attached to that carbon
- End-Check:** Check that the structure you believe you actually have would give the number of signal sets you have, the chemical shifts you have, the integrations you have, and the splittings that you have. If not, your structure needs to be corrected!

$^{13}\text{C}$  NMR (Sections 13.4-6)

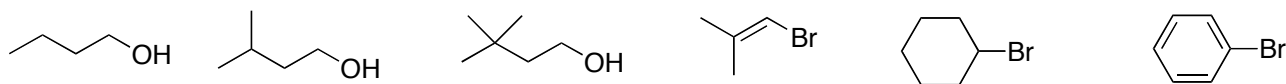
- $^{13}\text{C}$  is NMR active,  $^{12}\text{C}$  is not
- Signals are much weaker, C-13 spectra are harder to get
  - C-13 gives about  $1/10,000^{\text{th}}$  as strong a signal as H-NMR
  - Because the natural abundance is only 1%, and the inherent sensitivity is only 1%
- A result is that for C-13 NMR, one or more of the following is usually true:
  1. Take longer
  2. Not as clean a baseline
  3. Higher sample/solvent concentration used
  4. Data processing tricks used in order to shorten the process. These often result in:
    - Loss of splitting information (our C-13 NMR's in lab...)
    - Loss of integration information (our C-13 NMR's in lab...)

Summary of C-13 NMR Interpretation:

1. **Count how many lines** you have. **This will tell you how many types of carbons** you have. (Symmetry equivalent carbons can at times cause the number of lines to be less than the number of carbons in your structure.)
2. **Check diagnostic frequency windows** ("chemical shift windows") of the lines **to provide yes-or-no answers regarding the presence or absence of key functional groups** in your molecule.
3. If **splitting** information is provided, decide which carbons are  $\text{CH}_3$ ,  $\text{CH}_2$ ,  $\text{CH}$ , and no-H C's.

1. **Count how many lines** you have. **This will tell you how many types of carbons** you have.
  1. Each "unique" carbon gives a separate line.
  2. Symmetry duplicates give the same line.
  3. If there are more carbons in your formula than there are lines in your spectrum, it means you have some symmetry.

Q: How many lines would show in the C-13's for the following?



## 2. Chemical Shifts: Where do the Lines Come?

220-160 C=O carbonyl carbons,  $sp^2$  hybridized

160-180 → typically ester

- for formulas that have two oxygens, being able to recognize ester group helps a ton

180-220 → other carbonyls (ketone, aldehyde, carboxylic acid, amide)

160-100 C alkene or aromatic carbons,  $sp^2$  hybridized

- If a molecule has alkene or aromatic, it's usually easy to tell which it is based on chemical formula or on the number of lines in the 100-160 zone (2 for alkene, usually more for aromatics)

100-50 C-O oxygen-bearing carbons, single bonds only,  $sp^3$  hybridized

80-30 C-N nitrogen bearing carbons, single bonds only,  $sp^3$  hybridized

80-30 C-X halogen bearing carbons, single bonds only,  $sp^3$  hybridized

50-0 C alkyl carbons, no oxygens attached,  $sp^3$  hybridized

- This is the default zone for  $sp^3$  carbons with no attached heteroatoms
- Allylic carbons still fall into the 50-0 zone, unlike in H-NMR where allylic hydrogens are distinct

- Halogens or nitrogens complicate things a bit, because they can appear on either side of the 50-divider.
- But for formulas involving only C, H, and O, the 50-divider is very, very useful.

### Using the "Oxygen Zones" for Oxygenated Systems

			<u>220-160 Zone</u>	<u>100-50 Zone</u>
<u>One-Oxygen Formulas</u>	Ketone, Aldehyde	$\text{R}-\overset{\text{O}}{\parallel}\text{C}-\text{H}$ or $\text{R}-\overset{\text{O}}{\parallel}\text{C}-\text{R}$	180-220	
	Alcohol	$\text{R}-\text{C}-\text{OH}$		One
	Ether	$\text{R}-\text{C}-\text{O}-\text{C}-\text{R}$		Two
<u>Two-Oxygen Formulas</u>	Acid	$\text{R}-\overset{\text{O}}{\parallel}\text{C}-\text{OH}$	180-220	
	Ester	$\text{R}-\overset{\text{O}}{\parallel}\text{C}-\text{O}-\text{C}-\text{R}$	160-180	One
	Aldehyde/Ketone And Alcohol		180-220	One
	Aldehyde/Ketone And Ether		180-220	Two



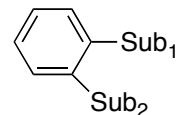
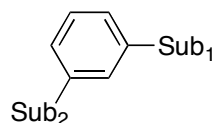
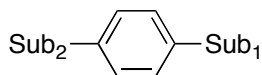
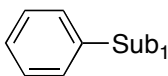
**3. Splitting.**

- C13 NMR's are often acquired as "decoupled" spectra, in which each carbon signal appears as a singlet. This is the way our laboratory C13 NMR's come out.
- However, at the cost of extra time it is also possible to get "coupled" C13 NMR's with splitting. The C-13 atoms are split by directly attached hydrogens.
- These splitting values are very useful, and follow the N+1/N-1 rules (the number of lines is one greater than the number of attached H's).
- "DEPT" C13 NMR's: another way to distinguish CH<sub>3</sub> vs CH<sub>2</sub> vs CH vs C (13.6)

Quartet (q)	CH <sub>3</sub>
Triplet (t)	CH <sub>2</sub>
Doublet (d)	CH
Singlet (s)	C (no attached hydrogens)

**Aromatics, Symmetry, Splitting.** Most aromatics have symmetry, and both the number of aromatic lines and the splitting of the aromatic lines can be indicative of the substitution pattern on a benzene. Mono- and para-disubstituted benzenes have symmetry.

4 lines	s, d, d, d	Monosubstituted benzene. (Has symmetry)
4 lines	s, s, d, d	Para-disubstituted benzene. (Has symmetry)
6 lines	s, s, d, d, d, d	Ortho- or meta-disubstituted benzene. (Has no symmetry)



4. **Signal Height/Size** Unlike <sup>1</sup>H-NMR, where integration is really important, signal size is not very important in C-13 NMR.
- Signal amplification tricks (to save time) compromise accurate integration
  - Even when lines have equal area, a narrower one looks much taller than a fatter one
  - Two patterns that can be somewhat helpful.
    - Carbons without any attached H's are short. Common in:
      - carbonyls (aldehydes are the only carbonyl carbons that have hydrogens attached)
      - substituted carbons in aromatic rings.
      - T-butyl carbons
    - Symmetry duplication multiplies signal height (if you have two copies of a carbon, the line will probably be taller than normal!)

**Problem Solving and C-13**

Alone	In Support with H-NMR
1. Calculate EU	<u>Look for obvious things</u>
2. Symmetry? Check lines versus formula	1. Carbonyls? (any, and if so ester or aldehyde?)
3. Look for Obvious Things	2. Oxygen zones?
• Oxygen zones, aryl zone...	3. Aromatic or alkene, and if so with what kind of substitution pattern?
4. Use Splitting	4. Symmetry?
5. Look for ends groups	5. CH <sub>3</sub> , CH <sub>2</sub> , CH count
• Methyl, phenyl, OH, halogen	

**Infrared Spectroscopy (Chapter 12.6-9)**

- Examples, Contrast to NMR
- Much more complex than NMR
  - In NMR, we expect to explain everything, and we can solve full structures
- In IR, two typical uses:
  - a. Functional Group Identification: focus on a few key zones (our use)
  - b. “Fingerprint” matchups of unknowns to knowns (we won’t do)

**Major overall zones:**

1600-3600 useful (stretching, useful for functional group ID)

1600-600 vibrations “fingerprint”, always busy, not very useful for function group ID

**Major Bands that are of some Functional Group Interest**

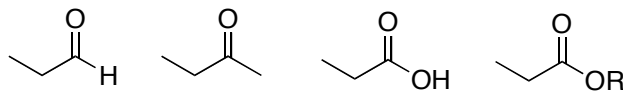
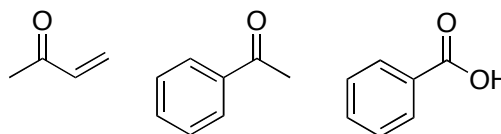
3500-2700	N-H, O-H, C-H single bonds
2300-2100	CN, CC triple bonds
1800-1580	C=O, C=N, C=C double bonds

**Practical Feature Groups**

1. O-H/N-H Zone (except when O-H is a carboxylic acid O-H): 3500-3200
  - **Alcohol Recognition**
  - Amines or amides
  - Signals are sometimes rather broad due to hydrogen-bonding
  - Note: when looking at an actual spectrum, focus in specifically on the 3500-3200 range, don’t just look generally around 3000
    - Because every organic molecule will have a big C-H signal around 2900-3000
    - That is **\*not\*** interesting or informative, and should **\*not\*** be mistaken for proof of alcohol
  - In contrast to alcohol O-H, carboxylic acid O-H signals are extremely broad, ranging somewhere within 3500-2200
2. Carbonyl Zone: Around  $1710 \pm 80$ 
  - Very strong signal
  - First thing to check

1700 rule

  - carbonyls  $>1700$  are “saturated”: no attached double-bonded carbons
  - carbonyls  $<1700$  are “unsaturated”: an  $sp^2$  attached carbon (i.e. alkene or aromatic)

**Saturated,  $>1700$** **Unsaturated,  $<1700$** **Esters versus Ketones/Aldehydes/Acids**

- Saturated esters 1735-1750
- Saturated ketones/aldehydes/acids: 1700-1720
- Very useful for recognizing when a two-oxygen formula contains an ester

Carboxyl Acids (versus hydroxy ketones)

- Acid has both a carbonyl in the ~1700 zone and a broad hydroxyl spread somewhere in the 3500-2200 zone
- A formula with two oxygens that has one as ketone and one as alcohol would give a carbonyl in the ~1700 zone but a tighter alcohol O-H in the 3500-3200 zone
- Very useful for quick recognition of carboxylic acids

**Using the “Oxygen Zones” for Oxygenated Systems**

			<u>Carbonyl Zone</u>	<u>Hydroxyl Zone</u>
<u>One-Oxygen Formulas</u>	Ketone, Aldehyde	$\text{R}-\overset{\text{O}}{\parallel}\text{C}-\text{H}$ or $\text{R}-\overset{\text{O}}{\parallel}\text{C}-\text{R}$	1700-1720 (if saturated, <1700 if not)	
	Alcohol	$\text{>C}-\text{OH}$		3500-3200
	Ether	$\text{>C}-\text{O}-\text{C}>$		
<u>Two-Oxygen Formulas</u>	Acid	$\text{R}-\overset{\text{O}}{\parallel}\text{C}-\text{OH}$	1700-1720 (if saturated, <1700 if not)	3500-3200 <b>(broad)</b>
	Ester	$\text{R}-\overset{\text{O}}{\parallel}\text{C}-\text{O}-\text{C}>$	1735-1750 (if saturated)	
	Aldehyde/Ketone And Alcohol		1700-1720 (if saturated, <1700 if not)	3500-3200 <b>(broad)</b>
	Aldehyde/Ketone And Ether		1700-1720 (if saturated, <1700 if not)	

Practical Use for IR: Fast recognition of key functional group information  
 -helpful support for an NMR solution, if you know what functionality is present.

**Summary of IR (Infrared) Interpretation****Check for Diagnostic Signals**

3500-3200 OH or NH  
 1800-1641 C=O  
 3500-2500 + 1800-1640 CO<sub>2</sub>H

**Further Information in the “Carbonyl Zone”**

<1700 Unsaturated C=O  
 >1700 Saturated C=O  
 1720-1701 Saturated ketones, aldehydes, acids  
 1750-1735 Saturated ester