

About this part of the module: *Topics to be covered.*

1. ^1H –Nuclear Magnetic Resonance (NMR) and ^{13}C -NMR spectroscopy;
2. Introduction, the nature of NMR absorption, chemical shifts and factors affecting them, information obtained from NMR spectra, more complex spin-spin splitting patterns, application of ^1H -NMR spectroscopy;
3. ^{13}C -NMR spectroscopy: introduction and characteristics, DEPT ^{13}C - NMR spectroscopy.

Lecture Contents:

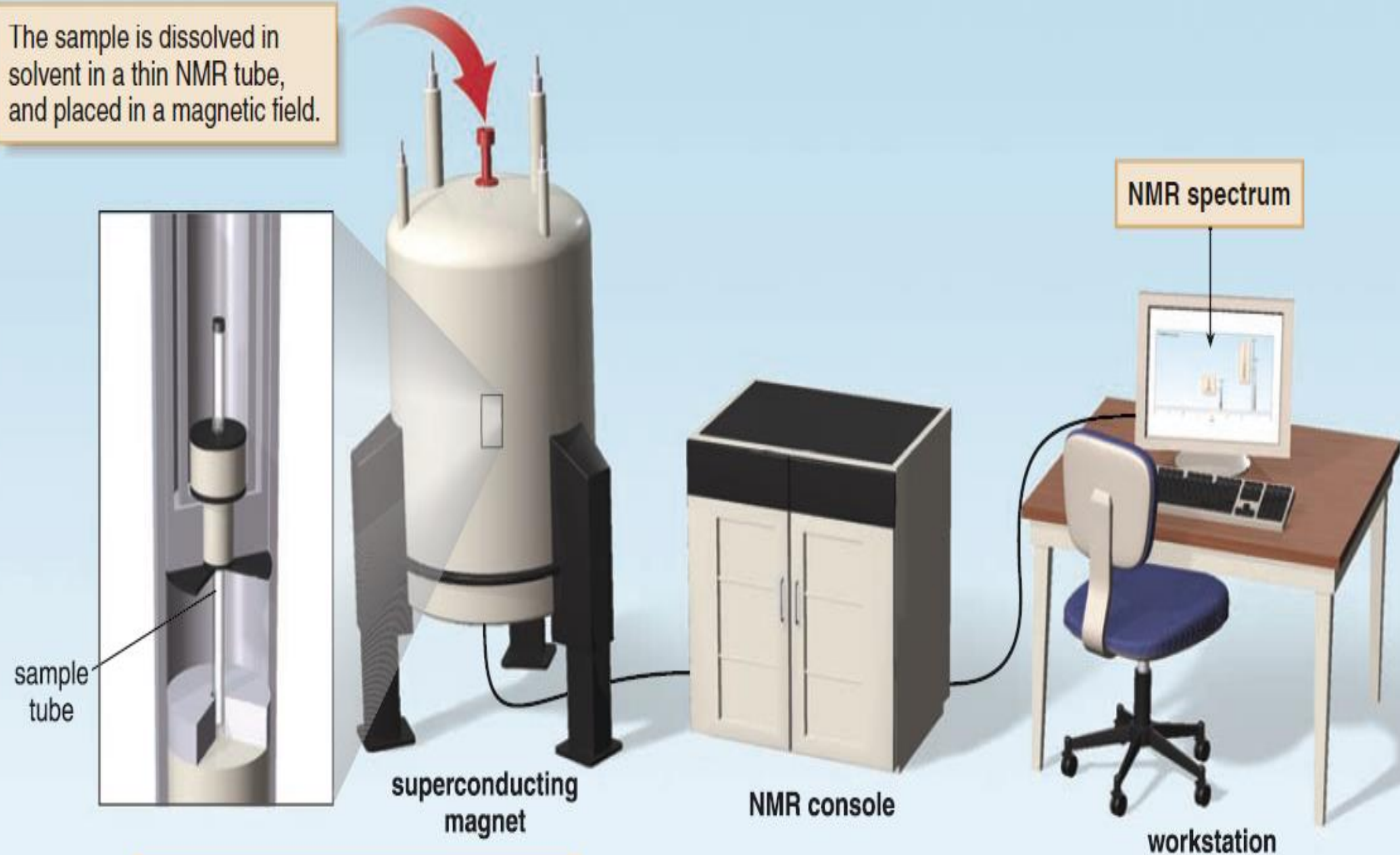
- 1. Introduction to NMR,**
- 2. The nature of NMR absorption,**
- 3. Chemical shifts and factors affecting them,**
- 4. Information obtained from NMR spectra,**
- 5. More complex spin-spin splitting patterns,**
- 6. Application of ^1H -NMR spectroscopy;**
- 7. Solving selected problems.**
- 8. introduction to ^{13}C -NMR spectroscopy.**
- 9. Characteristics of ^{13}C - NMR spectroscopy.**
- 10. DEPT (45, 90, and 135) ^{13}C - NMR spectroscopy.**

Introduction

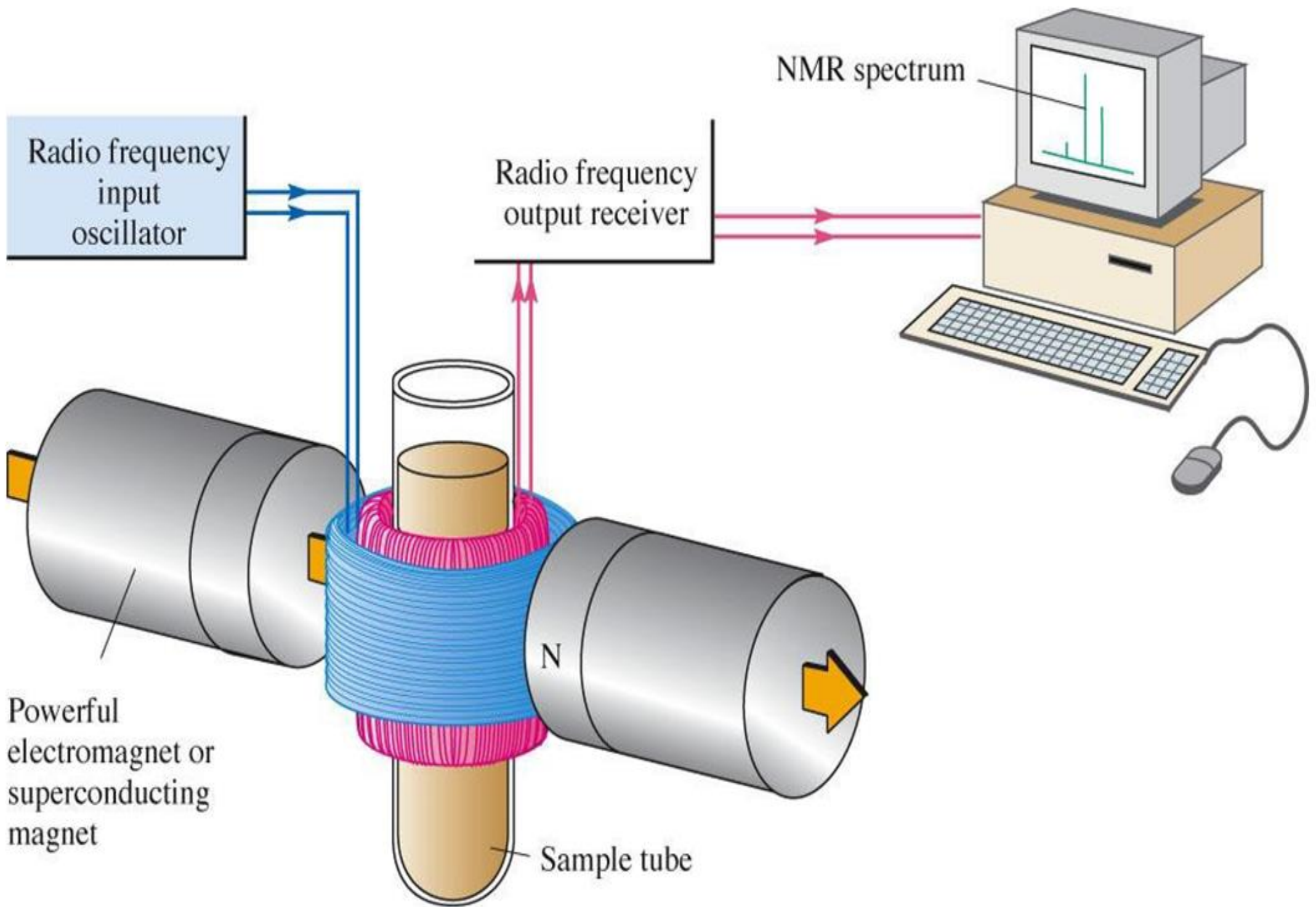
Nuclear magnetic resonance spectroscopy is a powerful analytical technique used to characterize organic molecules by identifying carbon-hydrogen frameworks within molecules.



The sample is dissolved in solvent in a thin NMR tube, and placed in a magnetic field.



In the NMR probe, the sample is rotated in a magnetic field and irradiated with a short pulse of RF radiation.



An NMR spectrometer:

- ✓ The sample is dissolved in a solvent, usually CDCl_3 (deuteriochloroform), and placed in a magnetic field.
- ✓ A radiofrequency generator then irradiates the sample with a short pulse of radiation, causing resonance.
- ✓ When the nuclei fall back to their lower energy state, the detector measures the energy released, and a spectrum is recorded.
- ✓ The superconducting magnets in modern NMR spectrometers have coils that are cooled in liquid helium and conduct electricity with essentially no resistance.

An Introduction to NMR Spectroscopy

Two common types of NMR spectroscopy are used to characterize organic structure:

1. ^1H NMR is used to determine the type and number of H atoms in a molecule;
2. ^{13}C NMR is used to determine the type of carbon atoms in the molecule.

Natural Abundance:

- ^1H 99.9%
- ^{13}C 1.1%
- ^{12}C 98.9% (not NMR active)

Only nuclei that contain odd mass numbers (such as ^1H , ^{13}C , ^{19}F and ^{31}P) or odd atomic numbers (such as ^2H and ^{14}N) give rise to NMR signals.

The source of energy in NMR is radio waves which have long wavelengths, and thus low energy and frequency.

When low-energy radio waves interact with a molecule, they can change the nuclear spins of some elements, including ^1H and ^{13}C .

Theory of NMR phenomena

When a charged particle such as a proton spins on its axis, it creates a magnetic field. Thus, the nucleus can be considered to be a tiny bar magnet.

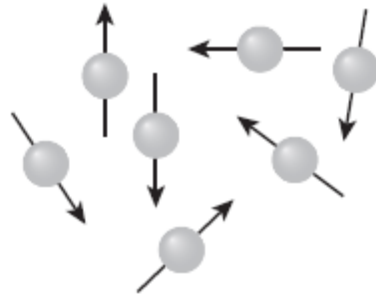
(a) Normally the nuclear magnetic fields are randomly oriented

(b) When placed in an external magnetic field (B_0), the nuclear magnetic field can either be aligned with the external magnetic or oppose the external magnetic field:

A spinning proton
creates a magnetic field.

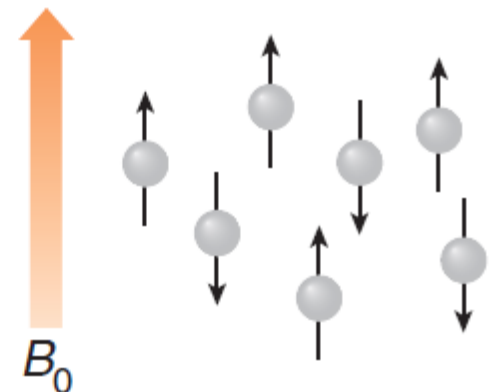


With no external magnetic field...



The nuclear magnets are
randomly oriented.

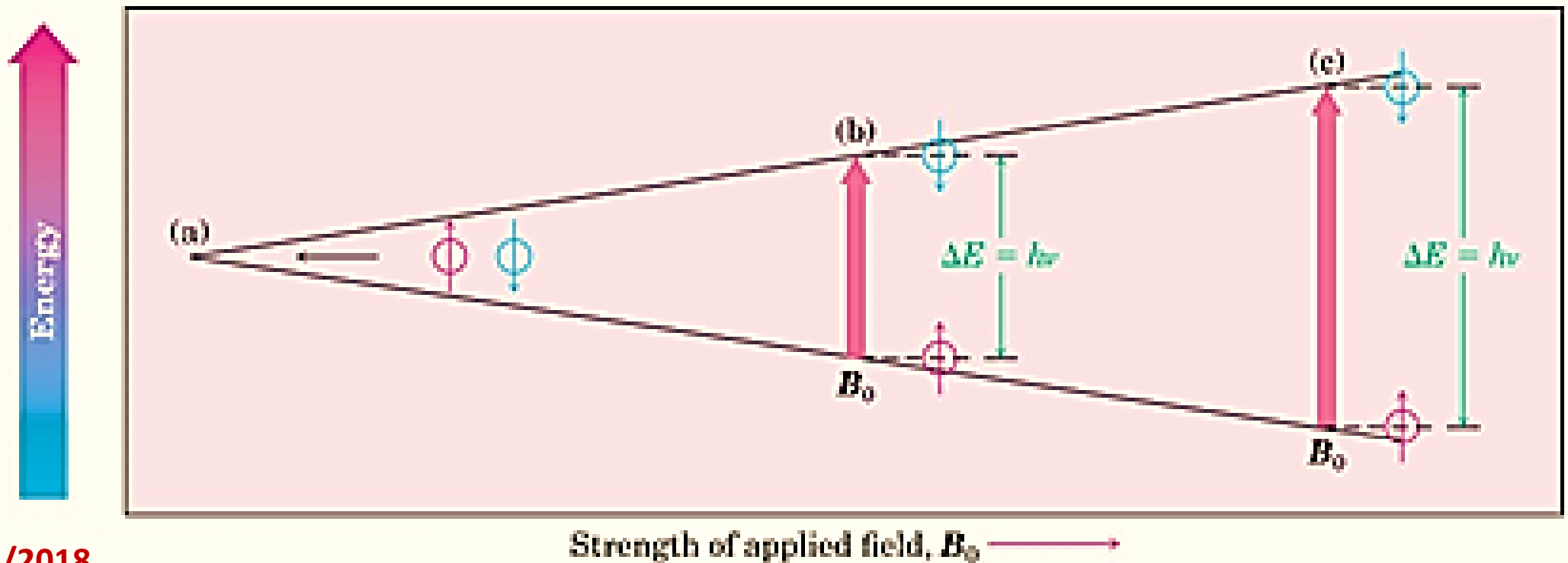
In a magnetic field...



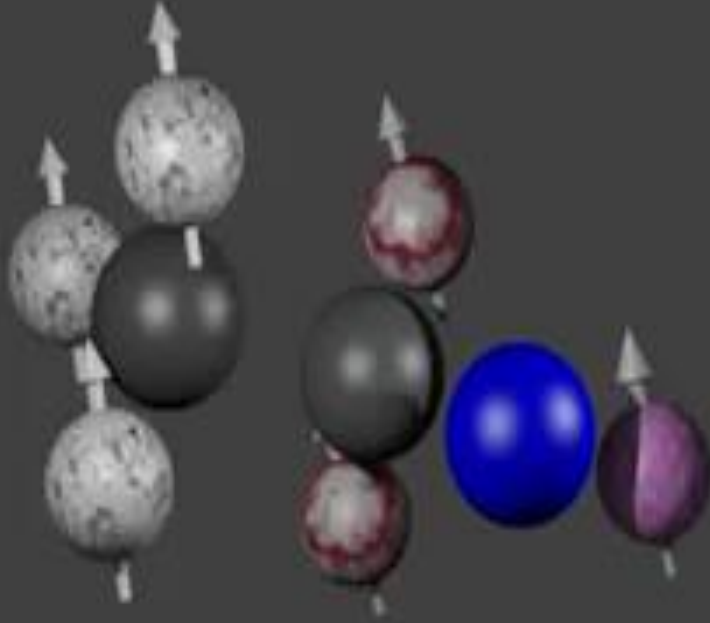
The nuclear magnets are
oriented **with or against** B_0 .

More nuclei are oriented with the applied field because this arrangement is lower in energy.

The energy difference between these two states is very small (<0.1 cal). Energy difference between aligned and opposed to the external magnetic field (B_0) is generally small and is dependent upon B_0 . Applied EM radiation (radio waves) causes the nuclei to absorb energy and thus the spin flips and the nuclei are said to be in *resonance* with B_0 .



RF Verici 60MHz

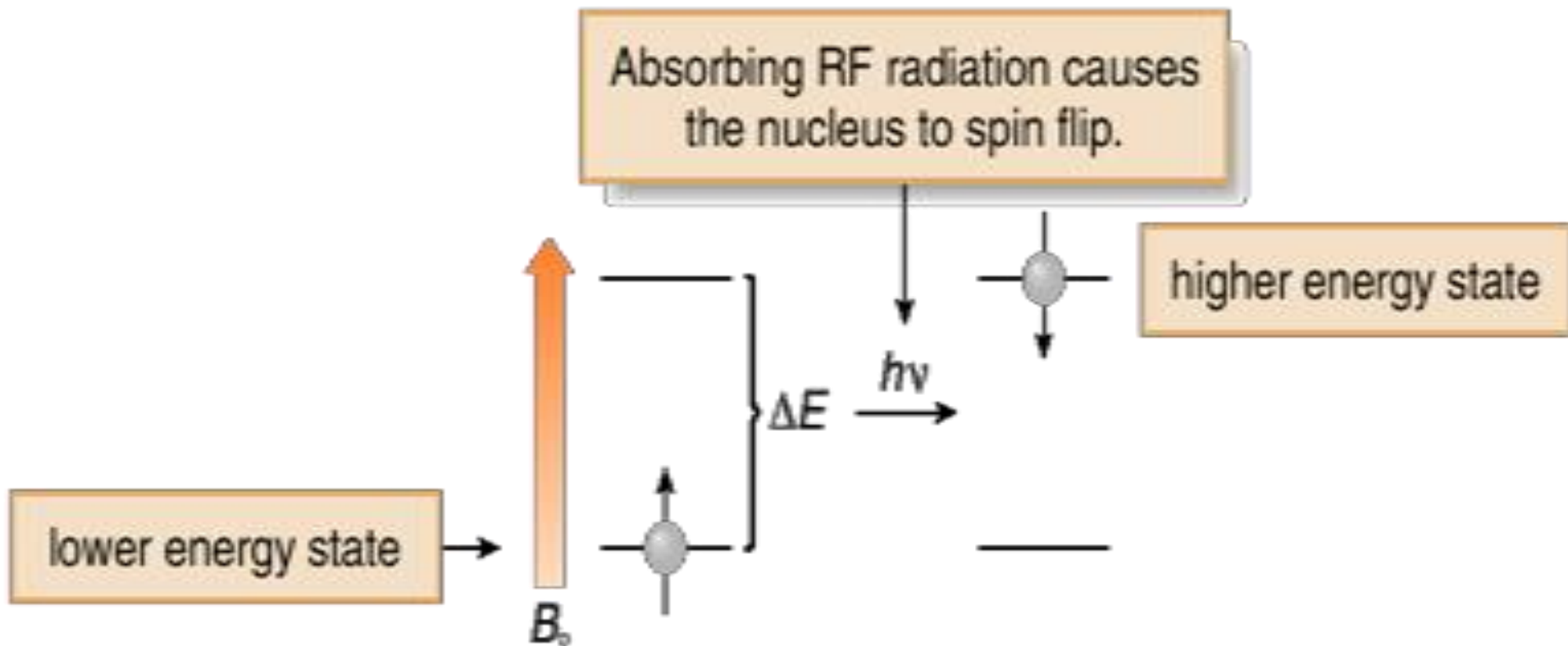


RF ALICI



NMR Spektrum

resonance, measured in hertz (Hz), or megahertz (MHz)—(1 MHz = 10^6 Hz).



$$\Delta E = h\nu$$

The frequency needed for resonance and the applied magnetic field strength are proportionally related:

$$V \propto B_0$$

The stronger the magnetic field, the larger the energy difference between the two nuclear spin states, and the higher the ν needed for resonance.

Difference in energy between the two states is given by:

$$\Delta E = \gamma \hbar B_0 / 2\pi, \quad \Delta E = h\nu \quad \textit{Therefore, } \nu = \gamma B_0 / 2\pi$$

where:

B_0 = external magnetic field

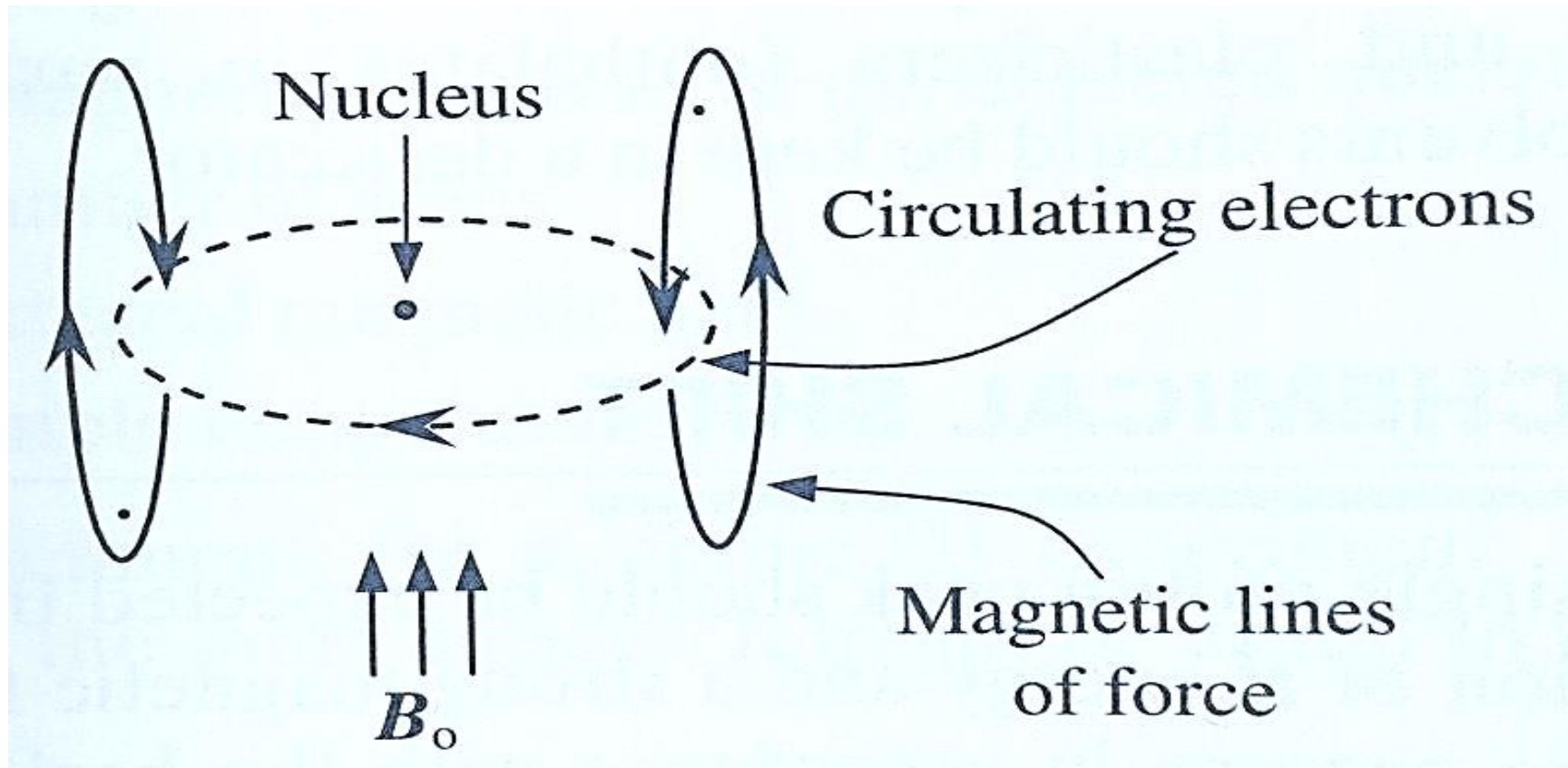
h = Planck's constant

γ = gyromagnetic ratio

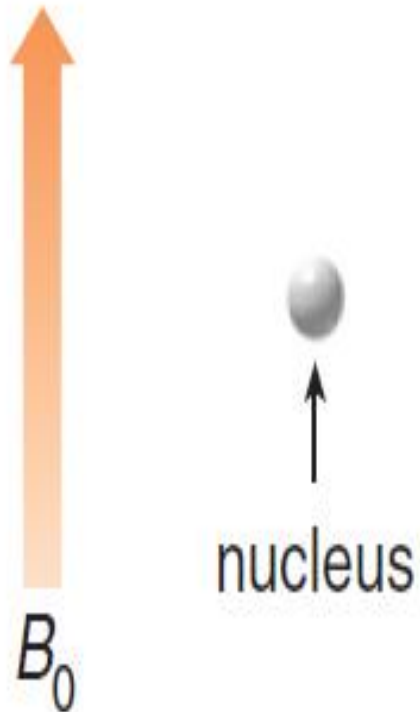
Protons in different environments absorb at slightly different frequencies, so they are distinguishable by NMR.

The frequency at which a particular proton absorbs is determined by its *electronic environment*.

The size of the magnetic field generated by the electrons around a proton determines where it absorbs.

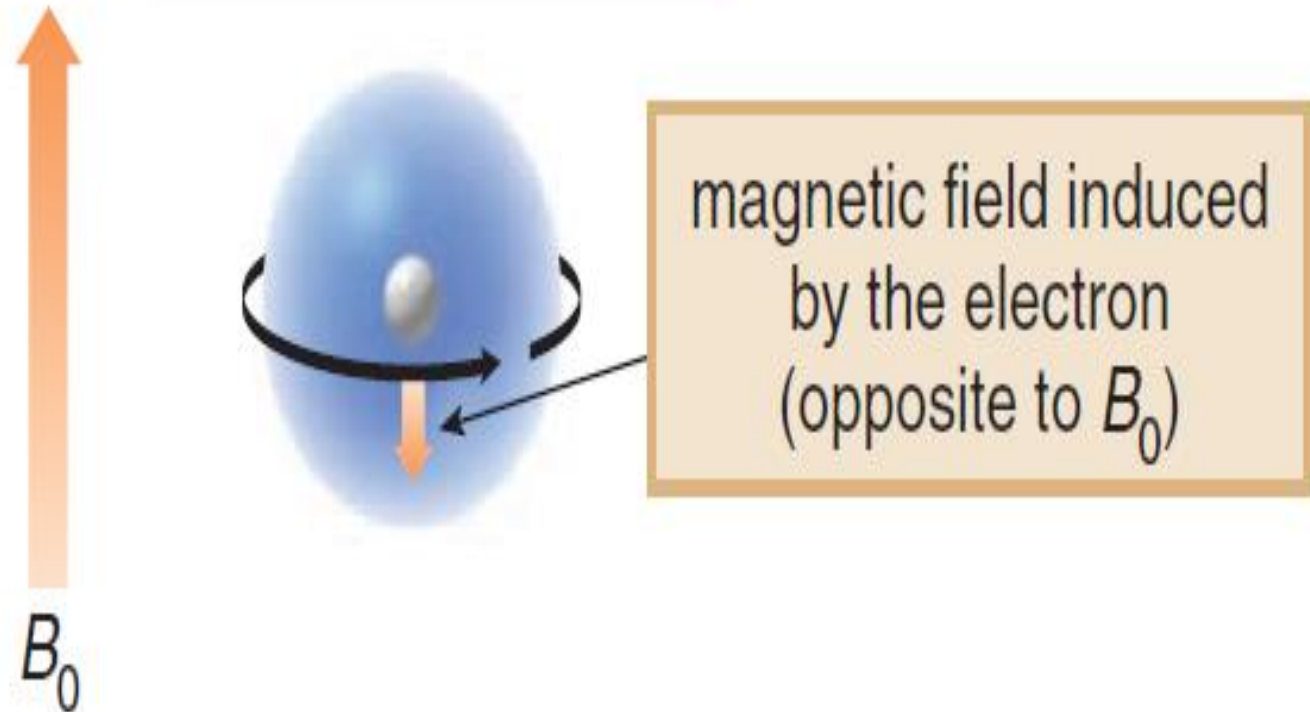


An isolated proton



The nucleus "feels" B_0 only.

A proton surrounded by electron density



The induced field *decreases* the strength of the magnetic field "felt" by the nucleus.

This nucleus is shielded.

A proton in a molecule is *shielded* to a very small extent by its electron cloud, the density of which varies with the chemical environment.

The variation gives rise to differences in *chemical shift* positions; this ability to discriminate among the individual absorptions describes high resolution NMR spectrometry.

The *chemical shift* of the x axis gives the position of an NMR signal, measured in **ppm**, according to the following equation:

$$\text{chemical shift (in ppm on the } \delta \text{ scale)} = \frac{\text{observed chemical shift (in Hz) downfield from TMS}}{\nu \text{ of the NMR spectrometer (in MHz)}}$$

For instance, the proposed chemical shift of particular proton is 4ppm then the observed chemical shift (in Hz) downfield from TMS in 300MHz and 600MHz NMR spectrometry will be 1200Hz and 2400Hz respectively. *(Hint: utilize the previous formula)*

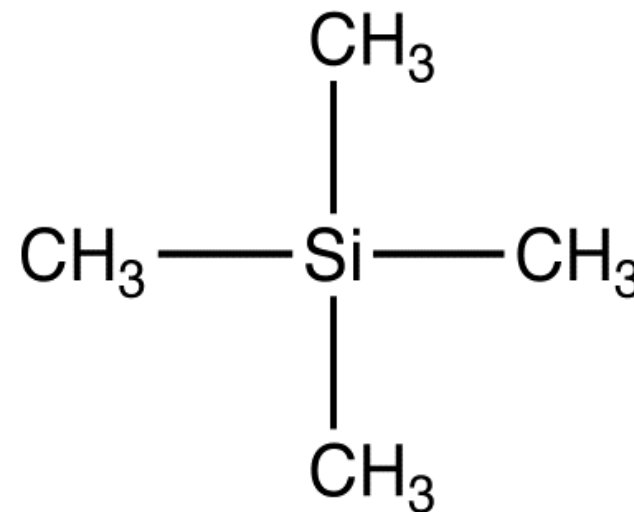
Modern NMR spectrometers use a constant magnetic field strength B_0 , and then a narrow range of frequencies is applied to achieve the resonance of all protons.

The difference in absorption position of particular proton from absorption position of reference proton is called the chemical shift of a particular proton.

The most generally useful reference compound is tetramethylsilane (TMS).

Advantages of TMS:

1. *Chemically inert.*
2. *Symmetrical.*
3. *Volatile.*
4. *Soluble in most organic solvents.*
5. *Gives single, intense, and sharp peak.*
6. *Its protons are more **shielded** than almost all organic protons.*



H.W:

How can you explain the shielding attribute of the TMS protons?

Hint: use the electronegativity features of atoms.

<http://www.ptable.com/#Property/Electronegativity> (shown in the next slide)

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18		
1	1 H 2.20	Atomic Sym Pauling												2 He						
2	3 Li 0.98	4 Be 1.57	<div style="display: flex; justify-content: space-between;"> <div style="width: 45%;"> <p>14 Si Silicon 28.085</p> <p>[Ne] 3s² 3p²</p> </div> <div style="width: 45%;"> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <input type="radio"/> Series..... Carbon <input type="radio"/> State at 273 K... Solid <input type="radio"/> Melting Point..... 1687 K <input type="radio"/> Boiling Point..... 3173 K <input checked="" type="radio"/> Electronegativity... 1.90 <input type="radio"/> Electron Affinity... 133.6 kJ/mol <input type="radio"/> Valence..... 4 <input type="radio"/> Ionization..... 786.5 kJ/mol <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <input type="radio"/> Radius..... 111 pm <input type="radio"/> Hardness.... Unknown <input type="radio"/> Modulus..... 100 GPa <input type="radio"/> Density..... 2330 kg/m³ <input type="radio"/> Conductivity... 150 W/mK <input type="radio"/> Heat..... 710 J/kgK <input type="radio"/> Abundance... 0.070% <input type="radio"/> Discovered... 1824 </div> </div>												5 B 2.04	6 C 2.55	7 N 3.04	8 O 3.44	9 F 3.98	10 Ne
3	11 Na 0.93	12 Mg 1.31													13 Al 1.61	14 Si 1.90	15 P 2.19	16 S 2.58	17 Cl 3.16	18 Ar
4	19 K 0.82	20 Ca 1.0													21 Sc 1.36	22 Ti 1.54	23 V 1.63	24 Cr 1.66	25 Mn 1.55	26 Fe 1.83
5	37 Rb 0.82	38 Sr 0.95	39 Y 1.22	40 Zr 1.33	41 Nb 1.6	42 Mo 2.16	43 Tc 1.9	44 Ru 2.2	45 Rh 2.28	46 Pd 2.20	47 Ag 1.93	48 Cd 1.69	49 In 1.78	50 Sn 1.96	51 Sb 2.05	52 Te 2.1	53 I 2.66	54 Xe 2.6		
6	55 Cs 0.79	56 Ba 0.89	57-71	72 Hf 1.3	73 Ta 1.5	74 W 2.36	75 Re 1.9	76 Os 2.2	77 Ir 2.20	78 Pt 2.28	79 Au 2.54	80 Hg 2.0	81 Tl 1.62	82 Pb 2.33	83 Bi 2.02	84 Po 2.0	85 At 2.2	86 Rn		
7	87 Fr	88 Ra	89-103	104 Rf	105 Db	106 Sg	107 Bh	108 Hs	109 Mt ¹⁹	110 Ds	111 Rg	112 Cn	113 Uut	114 Fl	115 Uup	116 Lv	117 Uus	118 Uuo		

Thus, the protons in different chemical environments have different chemical shifts.

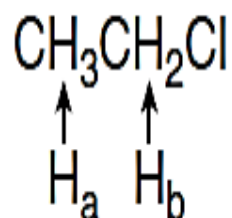
Conversely, the protons in the same chemical environments have the same chemical shifts.

H.W:

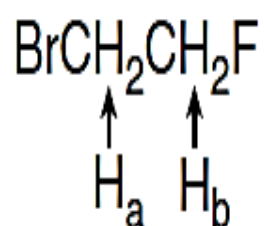
Do the following methylene groups have the same or different chemical environments?

1. $\text{ClCH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{OH}$
2. $\text{ClCH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{Cl}$
3. $\text{CH}_3\text{CH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{OH}$
4. $\text{CH}_3\text{CH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{CH}_3$

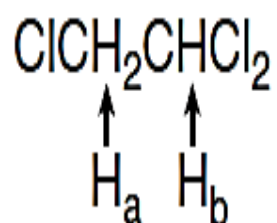
Examples of shielding and de-shielding



- The H_b protons are **deshielded** because they are closer to the electronegative Cl atom, so they absorb **downfield** from H_a.



- Because F is more electronegative than Br, the H_b protons are more **deshielded** than the H_a protons and absorb farther **downfield**.



- The larger number of electronegative Cl atoms (two versus one) **deshields** H_b more than H_a, so it absorbs **downfield** from H_a.