CONTENT

Energy - The Electromagnetic Spectrum and the Absorption Spectrum

Two Dimensional Correlated Spectroscopy (2D - COSY)

Mass Spectrometry

AUTHOR'S INTRODUCTION



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- 'H NMR

Ultra Violate (UV) and

Visible Spectroscopy

nfrared Spectroscopy (IR)

Proton Nuclear Magnetic

Resonance Spectroscopy

Spectroscopic Solutions

of Structural Problems

Dr. Ranjan C. Khunt



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ORGANIC SPECTROSCOPY

DR. RANJAN C. KHUNT

Preface

Today spectroscopy is the most important tools for the structure elucidation of unknown compounds. This book "Organic spectroscopy" is primarily written for those students who like to have a basic and effective knowledge of spectroscopy as an important subject at the undergraduate as well as postgraduate level. It will help them venture into the weird but fascinating, field of advanced spectroscopy in future.

The content of this book is such that students can gradually understood comprehensive knowledge of techniques. The book has a large number of illustrative diagram including spectrum as well as instrument diagram related to the techniques. Each chapter contains individually solved problems. The last chapter of this book contains combine application of all the spectroscopic techniques related solved problems.

The author had to seek permission from the relevant source for reproducing data and spectra of compounds.

I express my heartfelt thanks to Saurashtra university for giving me the opportunity to publish this book for providing financial Grant. I am particularly thankful to Prof. Pratapsinh Chauhan, Hon. Vice Chancellor of Saurashtra University, Prof. Girishbhai Bhimani, Director, IQAC of Saurashtra University, Prof. Alok Chakrwal, Co-coordinator, IQAC, Saurashtra University and other committee members of 50th year celebration of Saurashtra university in the successful publication of this book.

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Chapter 1 Electromagnetic Spectrum

Introduction

Spectroscopy is a branch of physical science which deals with the study of the interaction between the molecule and electromagnetic radiation. For determination of energy difference between the molecular energy level as well as energy emitted or absorbed by atoms or molecule are studied under the title of "spectroscopy". The instrumental device used for this type of specific study is known as "spectrophotometer".

The result of the above process obtain from the "spectrophotometer" is represented as a "continuous graph of electrical transmittance (or absorption) of the function of wavelength or wave number" which is known as "spectrum".

Electro-Magnetic Radiation

Electromagnetic radiation is a form of energy that is transmitted through space. Electromagnetic radiation is a mixture of the electrical and magnetic component which are perpendicular To each other and also perpendicular to propagation line as a shown in the figure.



During irradiation of "EMR" on the molecule, which component of "EMR" interacts with it, is an important study in spectroscopy.

Unit of EMR

1) **Wavelength:** The paint 'xy' on wave represent the wavelength.

"The distance between two crests or valley is known as wavelength". It symbolised by ' λ '. It is measured in μ , Å, mm, cm, m etc.

$$1\mu = 10^{-4}$$
 cm $= 10^{-6}$ m
 $1\text{\AA} = 10^{-8}$ cm $= 10^{-10}$ m

2) Wave number: The total no. of complete waves present in the unique box is known as wave number. It can be symbolised by \overline{v} & It is measured in cm⁻¹.

$$\bar{\vartheta} = \frac{1}{\lambda} \,\mathrm{cm}^{-1}$$
. or "K" (Kaysers) (1)

(i.e. reciprocal of wavelength is called wave number)

3) **Frequency:** the number of waves passing through at a given point a unique time is known as frequency.

Frequency is symbolised by "v" & their units are μ , Å, nm, cm, m etc.

$$v \propto \frac{1}{\lambda}$$
 (2)

$$v = \frac{1}{\lambda}$$
 c = velocity of light (3)

$$v = c\bar{\vartheta} \tag{4}$$

Theory of EMR

According to the quantum theory, light has a dual nature i.e. wave and particle. The consist of a stream of energy bunch is also important.

This concept was confirmed by physicist Max-plank means the concept of 'Light quanta packet'.

Particles are considered as an energy bundle called 'photons' According to Einstein- Plank relation.

E= hv where h=6.63 × 10^{-27} erg.sec & h= plank constant (5)

 \therefore energy depends on frequency but not on the intensity of radiation.

$$\therefore E = \frac{hc}{\lambda} \qquad \text{but } \nu = \frac{c}{\lambda} \text{ and } \bar{\nu} = \frac{1}{\lambda}$$
(6)
$$\therefore E = hc\bar{\nu} \qquad (7)$$

Equation 5, 6, 7 told us about the relation of energy with frequency, wavelength and wave numbers.

Energy has a direct relation with frequency and wave number but the reciprocal relation with 'wavelength'.

Different component of EMR & spectroscopy:

Molecule absorbs the radiation, it is energy is increase as per the photon relation with energy(eq. 5,6,7)



Energy absorb by molecule is not continuous absorption throughout the whole range but absorb only those frequency which is enough for a particular physical change thus, when molecule interact with EMR, it may change their energy from E_1 to E_2 by absorption of radiation frequency ν

$$\therefore E_2 - E_1 = nh\nu \qquad \text{n is integer} \qquad (8)$$

After absorption of radiation energy is utilised for the internal energy of a molecule is raising, the study of above reaction is known as "absorption spectroscopy" or after absorption, the excited species come back to the ground state by emitting this energy as a radiation with a different frequency is known as "emission spectroscopy".

Type of molecular Energy [Energy distribution in molecule]:

Apart from translation energy, the internal energy of molecule may be regarded as the sum of rotational, vibrational and electronic energies.

$$E_{\text{Internal}} = E_{\text{vib.}} + E_{\text{elec.}} + E_{\text{rot.}}$$
(9)

(i) Translational energy:

As per the Brownian of the atom, the kinetic component of energy is called translation energy which passes three degrees of freedom.

$$E_{translation} = \frac{3}{2}KT \text{ or } \frac{3}{2}RT \qquad (10)$$

R= NK = 1.987 cal/mole
N= avagadro number
T= room temperature
K= Boltzmann constant=1.38×10⁻¹⁶ erg/deg.

(ii) Rotational energy:

The energy which is associated with the rotational motion of the whole molecule is known as rotational energy.

$$E = \frac{1}{2}Iw^2$$
 I= moment of Inertia,

w= Angular velocity

(11)

(iii) Vibrational energy:

It is associated with vibration of the constituent atom of the molecule. It is expressed as a sum of each vibrational level

$$E_{vib} = hv_0 \left(v + \frac{1}{2} \right) \quad \text{for } v = 0, 1, 2, 3.... \quad (12)$$

(iv) Electronic Energy:

This type of energy has a relation with the motion of the electron. By increasing the electronic energy the kinetic and potential energy of electronic are increased. During the position of the nucleus is an unaltered.

Chapter 2 Ultraviolet Spectroscopy

Introduction:

Ultraviolet and visible spectroscopy is also known as electronic spectroscopy. Generally, it can be used to determine the degree of unsaturation within the molecules.

***** Theory of Ultra-Violet absorption:

Ultra-violet absorption associated with the measurement of energy by electrons is promoted to the excited level. When a continuous radiation passes through a transparent material some of the portion of the radiation absorbed by a molecule and the residual passes through the prism, yields a spectrum with gaps of absorption region, which is known as an absorption spectrum.

The intensity of absorption depends on the nature of molecule as well as the wavelength of light. In the case of ultraviolet and visible spectroscopy, the transition that the result of absorption of EMR transition between electronic energy level.

The most favourable transition of an electron from higher occupied molecular orbital (HOMO) to the lowest unoccupied molecular orbital (LUMO).

Most of the molecule; highest occupied with the formation of 6- band. The π -orbitals lie at somewhat higher as compare to 6- orbitals. The possible electronic transition is illustrated in fig.(2)



Electronic energy levels and electronic transitions

***** The ultraviolet spectrum:

Generally, an electronic transition occurs due to the absorption of EMR in the range of 10 nm to 780 nm. So this region is known as a ultra-violet visible region which is further divided into the following region.

(1) Far (vacuum) ultraviolet region(10-200 nm)

The absorption below 200 nm (atomic absorption) appeared in this region. To study the specific system in this region, a vacuum is necessary, so this region is known as 'vacuum- UV' region.

(2) Near UV region (200-380):

The atmosphere is transparent in this region. The absorption due to p & d electronic transition appears in the range of the ultraviolet spectrum.

(3) Visible region (380-780):

If enough no. of π bond in conjugation, absorption takes place in this region.

***** Type of transition:

The important transition occur in ultraviolet absorption spectrum are classified below

(A) Transition between bonding and anti-bonding orbitals.

The transition between bonding to antibonding orbitals are illustrated in fig.(2) they are of two types:

- (i) $\sigma \rightarrow \sigma^*$ (bonding σ to anti-bonding σ^*)
- (ii) $\pi \rightarrow \pi^*$ (bonding π to anti-bonding π^*)

(i) $\sigma \rightarrow \sigma^*$ transition (120-200 nm)

- → The transition of bonding σ orbital to anti-bonding σ^* requires large energies corresponding to absorption in the far ultraviolet region (120-200 nm).
- \rightarrow This transition is possible in a saturated hydrocarbon containing just σ bonds remain transparent in near ultraviolet region.

Example: CH₄, CH₃CH₂CH₃, C₆H₁₂ etc.



(ii) $\pi \rightarrow \pi^*$ transition (180-250 nm)

- \rightarrow This type of transition occurs in compound contain the double bond.
- \rightarrow Transition from bonding to anti-bonding p_i to antibonding p_1 is called $\pi \rightarrow \pi^*$ transition.
- → This type of transition occurs with a compound containing double or triple bond, aromatic ring, a carbonyl group and diazo group etc.
- → The molar absorptivity of $\pi \rightarrow \pi^*$ is very high because the $\pi \& \pi^*$ orbitals are situated in the same plane, so probability of the jump of the electron is high.

- \rightarrow This band designated as "1/k band" with ε value > 10,000.
- → The benzenoid band also appears due to $\pi \rightarrow \pi^*$ transition at 180 nm with $\varepsilon_{max} > 2000$.
- \rightarrow Ethylenic band also appears due to $\pi \rightarrow \pi^*$ transition at 200 nm.

(B) Transition between non-bonding atomic orbitals and anti-bonding orbitals.

This type of transition also illustrated in fig.(2) which is further classified in two groups

- (1) $n \rightarrow \pi^*$ (non-bonding atomic orbital to anti bonding π^*)
- (2) $n \rightarrow \sigma^*$ (non-bonding atomic orbitals to anti bonding σ^*)
- (1) $\mathbf{n} \rightarrow \pi^*$
- \rightarrow This type of transition occurs on those compound which possesses double bond with a hetero atom.
- \rightarrow Non-bonding electrons are held more loosely than σ bonding electrons and consequently undergo transition at higher wavelength
- → This type of transition is An important characteristic of aldehyde and ketone and also sensitive toward chromophoric substitution.
- \rightarrow This transition designated as "R-Band".
- (2) $n \rightarrow \sigma^*$
 - → The excitation of a unsaired electron on oxygen, Nitrogen or any hetero Atom to an anti-bonding σ orbital is called n→ π^* transition.

→ This transition requires less energy as compared to σ→σ*, so absorption takes place at higher wavelength & shows less value of molar absorptivity.



(b) $n \rightarrow \sigma^*$ Transition

***** The absorption laws and measurement of absorption intensity.

The absorption of light by matter (molecule) is explained by the following laws:

(a) Beer's law: This law state that absorption of light is proportional to the number of absorbing molecules in the light path and will increase with respect to concentration.

(13)

K∝c

K=∈c

 \in molar absorptivity constant, c= concentration

(b) Lambert's law: It states the absorption of incident light by the homogeneous medium is independent of the intensity of incident light but decreasing rate depends on the thickness of absorbing medium.

$$-\frac{dI}{dt} = KI \qquad \text{I= Intensity of incident light}$$
(14)
t = thickness of medium

from the eq.(13)

$$\int_{t_0}^{t} -\frac{dI}{I} = K. dt$$

$$In \frac{I}{I_0} = -Kt$$

$$\log \frac{I}{I_0} = e^{-Kt}$$
(15)

From the eq. $K = \in c$

$$\log_{10}\left(\frac{l}{l_0}\right) = -\epsilon \ ct$$

$$\log_{10}\left(\frac{l_0}{l}\right) = \epsilon \ ct \tag{16}$$

This eq. (16) is known as Lambert-Beer's law.

From this equation state that "The absorbance of a molecule depends on concentration and thickness of the medium".

Limitation:

- \rightarrow This is only applicable for a dilute solution.
- \rightarrow It fails to explain the effect at temperature, nature of solvent and wavelength.

Importance terminology and concept in ultraviolet spectroscopy:

Chromophore and Auxochrome:

(i) Chromophores: It is defined as an isolated functional group present in the molecule which is capable of absorbing the radiation in the range of 200-800 nm.

The typical examples are C=C, C=C, C=N, C=N, C=O, N=N etc. chromophore compound is self-colour compound.

For example, Carotine which possesses large no. of conjugated double bonds as a result $\pi \rightarrow \pi^*$ transition is possible at a higher wavelength (440 nm).

(ii) Auxochrome: It is defined as an auxiliary functional group which interacts with chromophore leading to the absorption at a higher wavelength. Such as presence of -OH, -NO₂, -NH₂, etc. interaction with chromophore causing the shift at a higher wavelength.

Types of shift:

In the presence of other substance or polar and no polar solvent; deviation occurs from the standard absorption position is known as chemical shift. There are two different types of shift appeared in ultraviolet spectra.

(A) Shift related to wavelength(B) Shift related to molar absorptivity

(A) Shift related to wavelength:

According to the increasing or decreasing the value of wavelength, it can be further divided into two groups:

(1) Bathochromic shift:

The shift occurs towards the longer wavelength is called bathochromic shift. Ultraviolet absorption shift towards visible range, so It is also known as 'red shift'. In presence of polar solvent the absorption band of C=O group. The shift toward longer wavelength which is known as bathochromic shift.

(2) Hypsochromic shift:

The shift occurs towards the shorter wavelength is called Hypsochromic shift. Ultraviolet absorption shift towards far UV region, so it is also known as blue-shift.

 $n \rightarrow \pi^*$ absorption band of C=O group shift towards shorter wavelength in presence of non-polar solvent is an example of the Hypsochromic shift.

(B) Shift related to molar absorptivity

If the intensity of absorption band increases or decrease; the molar absorptivity of the molecule is an increase or decrease is further divided into two groups:

(1) Hyperchromic effect (2) Hypochromic effect

(1)**Hyperchromic effect:** It is the effect leading to increased absorption intensity.

<u>Example:</u> In the ionic solution of phenol, primary And secondary bands shows this effect.

(2)**Hypochromic effect:** The shift which leading to decrease absorption intensity is known as a Hypochromic effect.

The ionic solution of Benzilic acid; the intensity of primary and secondary band shows this effect.



Effects of substituents on the position and intensity of an absorption band.

Ultraviolet- visible spectrometer:

The essential components of an automatic recording ultraviolet- visible spectrometer are as under:

- 1) Source of radiation
- 2) Sample and reference cell
- 3) Monochromator
- 4) Detector(photocell or photomultiplier tube)
- 5) Amplifier and Recorder



1) Source of Radiation: To emit ultraviolet radiation in the range of 200-400 nm.

 \rightarrow It must generate a beam of radiation with sufficient power.

 \rightarrow Its output should be stable.

Generally following three types of source radiation are available for the ultraviolet spectrophotometer.

a) Tungsten filament lamp(Xenon discharge lamp)

In this lamp, Xenon gas is filled under pressure in the range of 10-30 atm. The Xenon lamp possesses two tungsten electrode separated by 8mm distance.

The intensity of the UV radiation produced by Xenon discharge lamp is much greater than hydrogen lamp.

b) Hydrogen Discharge lamp

In this lamp; Hydrogen gas is filled under relatively high pressure. When electric current possesses through the lamp. An excited molecule of hydrogen will be produced which emits the UV radiation.

c) **Deuterium lamp:**

Deuterium lamp is used in place of hydrogen. The intensity of radiation is 3 to 5 times more effective than hydrogen lamp.

2) Sample and Reference cell:

For recording the absorption spectra, Identical cells made up of Quartz or silica.

The monochromatic beam is split into two equal intensity beam is split into two equal intensity beam by means of mirror reference cell which contain only pure solvent other through the solution.

3) Monochromator

To disperse the polychromatic light into monochromatic light according to wavelength.

Monochromator device divide in three different components.

- (i) Entrance slit: It sharply defined the incoming beam of radiation.
- (ii) Dispersing device: To resolve the incoming radiation dispersing device used. Following are used dispersing device. (a) Filter (b) Prism (c) Different gravity
- (a) Filter: It will be absorbed the unwanted radiation. Generally, glass which is coloured by pigment used as a filter.
- (b) **Prism:** It is made up of quartz or fused silica. Fused silica prisms are little transparent in short wavelength region than quartz prism.
- (c) **Different grating:** It consists of a large number of parallel lines ruled at the close interval on the polished surface of Aluminium or glass. Each part scattering light radiation approximately 5000-6000 line per are drawn.
- (iii) Exit slit: It allowed passing the radiation of required wavelength.
- 4) Detector:

It is must respond to all the light radiation. The response should be rapid.

Generally, photocell or photomultiplier tube are used as a detector in the ultraviolet spectrometer.

(a) **Photocell:** The device consists of a light sensitive cathode in the form of half of metal which contained in an evacuated tube. The anode is also a presence in the

tube which is fixed more or less along the axis of the tube.



The current is created between cathode and anode is regarded as a measure of radiation falling on a detector.

(b) Photomultiplier tube: photomultiplier tube is a combination of photodiode and electron multiplying amplifier. A photomultiplier tube consists of an evacuated tube which contains one photocathode and 9-15 electrode known as dynods.



5) Amplifier and Recorder.

Amplifier, amplify the signal and recorder is record the plot of wavelength versus absorption.

***** Factor affecting the position of absorption bands

1. Conjugation:

A conjugation system contains alternate double bond require lower energy for the $\pi \rightarrow \pi^*$ transition than an unconjugated system.

If π electron distributes is delocalised over a whole system, hence decreasing $\pi \rightarrow \pi^*$ transition energy resulting wavelength is increased with absorption.

2. **Steric hindrance**

The ultraviolet spectroscopy is very sensitive to distortion of chromophore intensity toward steric repulsion which opposes the coplanarity of conjugated π bonds.

For example : Azo Benzene



3. Solvent effect:

- \rightarrow The intensity and position of absorption band greatly affected by the polarity of the solvent.
- \rightarrow It happens due to the solvate capability of the solvent.
- → Conjugated dienes and aromatic hydrocarbons exhibit very little solvent shift.
- $\rightarrow \alpha$, β unsaturated carbonyl compounds display two different types of shift.
 - (1) $\pi \rightarrow \pi^*$ band shows Bathochromic shift in presence of polar solvent.

(2) $n \rightarrow \pi^*$ band shows Hypsochromic shift in presence of polar solvent.

This effect may be due to the effect of solvation on the relative energies of n, $\pi \& \pi^*$ orbitals.

 π^* & n orbitals are more stabilise as compare to π orbital in presence of polar solvents.



Factor affecting to the C=O group absorption



The absolute result of solvation is that energy of $\pi \rightarrow \pi^*$ transition becomes less while $n \rightarrow \pi^*$ transition become increase.

The following factor is affecting to the absorption of C=O compounds.

(1) Size of ring

The size of the ring is inversely proportional to the ring strains. By increasing the size of the ring, ring stain is decreased resulting in the energy difference between $n \rightarrow \pi^*$ value increase. So λ_{max} gradually decrease.



(2) Neighbouring group effect (Inductive effect)

If the neighbouring group shows positive inductive effect(+I); donate the electron to carbonyl carbon; $n \rightarrow \pi^*$ transition decrease and for withdrawing the electron. $n \rightarrow \pi^*$ transition energy decrease so hypsochromic and bathochromic shift appeared respectively.



(3) Steric hindrance

If the size of the surrounding group is an increase, decrease the energy of $n \rightarrow \pi^*$ transition resulting in the bathochromic shift.



Frank Condon principle

The relative intensity of electronic spectra may be interpreted in terms of 'Frank-Condon principle'. It is stated that 'monovalent of nuclei is negligible during the time of electronic transition.'

The time requires for electronic transition is so small that the atom in a molecule does not get a chance, their internuclear distance.

During absorption, a molecule is being transformed into different energy level represented by a different potential curve.

There is no section rule to restrict vibration transition accompanying the electronic transition. The transition occurs between those levels where vibration wave functions are maximum.

Selection rule for electronic transition:

The selection rule is useful for the interrelation of the relative intensity of absorption band.

If there is a change in the number of unpaired electron in the ground state and excited state which is known as forbidden transition. During the electronic transition; if redistribution of electron takes place within their original orbital (i.e. $d\rightarrow d$ or $p\rightarrow p$) is known as forbidden transition i.e. molecule must have a centre of symmetry.

If during the electric transition; there is no change in their azimuthal number but may change their dipole moment is known as allowed transition.

Requirement of Frank-Condon Principle:

- \rightarrow An electronic in which nuclei do not move can be presented by a verticle line.
- → The most move favourable transition will occur from the most probable orbital i.e. HOMO
- \rightarrow At room temperature, all molecule are likely to present in vibrational ground level i.e. v=0
- \rightarrow The final state of vibrational transition depends on relative position.

General application of UV-Visible spectra:

(1) Determination of structure

Identification of degree of unsaturation

- 220-250 nm (λ_{max}) (∈ =1000) only two double bonds in conjugation.
- 260-300 nm (λ_{max})(∈ =200-100) benzene
- 270-300 nm (λ_{max})(∈ <1000) carbonyl compound

(2) Geometrical isomerism:

Ultraviolet spectroscopy can be easily distinguished geometrical isomer.

Trans isomer appeared at higher λ_{max} with greater \in value as compared to cis-isomer.



(3) Tautomerism:

Ultraviolet spectroscopy has been extended for the study of tautomers in solution phase.

Example: ethyl acetoacetate



(4) Hydrogen bond:

Hydrogen bonding involves electron-cloud transfer from the hydrogen atom to the neighbouring electronegative atom and it is positive between proton donor and acceptor group.

The hydrogen bond formation takes place between the molecule as well as within the molecule.

Due to the formation of H-bond; $n \rightarrow \pi^*$ transition energy increases while $\pi \rightarrow \pi^*$ energy decreases, as a result, blue shift and a red shift occurs respectively.

(5) **Steric Hindrance**

Intramolecular H-bond





 $\lambda_{max} = 271 \text{ nm}$

 $\lambda_{max}=262 \text{ nm}$

The steric effect can be realised by the study of ultraviolet spectroscopy (example: Biphenyl and o,o - Dimethyldiphenyl)

Simple Biphenyl has a free rotation around C-C single bond is coplanar and coaxial but the introduction of Methyl group at oposition disturb coplanarity as a result absorption band shift towards shorter wavelength.



- (6) Ultraviolet spectroscopy is useful for the study Quantitative analysis as well as for the detection of impurities.
- (7) Ultraviolet spectroscopy has great extend for quantitative analysis on the basis of Lambert beer law.
- (8) It is also useful for the study of charge-transfer complexes.
- (9) It is also applicable for the study of chemical reaction
- (10) Ultraviolet spectroscopy is useful for the study of stereo isomerism (configuration).

Ultraviolet absorption of some organic compounds. (I) Extension of conjugation:

Ultraviolet spectra of alkenes are determined by the π electron which is excited at lower energy than the σ electrons.

Ethylene exhibit two peaks of unequal intensity, both are due to $\pi \rightarrow \pi^*$ transition: 165 nm & 210 nm.

Alkyl substitution of the parent compound shifts the absorption at longer wavelength i.e. bathochromic shift which is increase with increasing the number of the ethylinic units.

Conjugation system attack the ultraviolet absorption. If this π electron distributes is delocalised over a whole system. Hence it decreasing the $\pi \rightarrow \pi^*$ transition energy resulting in the absorption at a longer wavelength.

<u>Example:</u> β - carotene.



β- Carotene possess eleven ethylinic double bond with conjugation due to localization of π=electrons over a whole molecule system require very low energy for $\pi \rightarrow \pi^*$ resulting in the shift in visible range i.e. $\lambda_{max} = 451$ nm.

(II) Polynuclear compound:

In polynuclear aromatic compounds, by increasing the number of rings, π bond conjugated system becomes extended. As a result of this resulting the energy difference between $\pi \rightarrow \pi^*$ is decrease which shifts the absorption band towards longer λ_{max} .



 λ_{max} increase

(III) Comparative studies of the two compounds:

(a) Benzene and Nitrobenzene

Benzene is simple containing three double bonds with conjugation in the ring. It absorbs the ultraviolet radiation due to the ethylinic double bond with extra double bond, so it is colourless.

The increase of Nitrobenzene $-NO_2$ group present as a chromophore which extends the conjugation as well as $n \rightarrow \pi^*$ transition resulting the absorbance appeared in the visible range. Thus it is coloured.


(b) Aniline and o/m/p Nitro Aniline

In the case of aniline; there is no any chromophore group present on a benzene ring but only $-NH_2$ group present as an auxochrome but it does not show an effect in colourless.

While in the case of NO₂ aniline, NO₂ group act as a chromophore which extent the λ_{max} as well as \in_{max} also due to the presence of $-NH_2$ group as an auxochrome so not only colour but the intensity of the colour is also increased.



 λ_{\max} and \in_{\max}

VItraviolet absorption of Aniline and Aniline cation

Aniline, which possesses $-NH_2$ group (auxochrome) present on the benzene ring. Nitrogen of $-NH_2$ contains loan pair of electron. So two types of transition are possible (i) $n \rightarrow \pi^*$ (ii) $\pi \rightarrow \pi^*$

But in the case of anilinium cation loan pair of electrons utilises for the salt formation. i.e. These electrons are not available for the interaction with π electron of the ring. So obtained spectrum is almost identical with that of the benzene ring.



		E_2 band	B band
Aniline	λ_{max}	230(1800)	280(1430)
Anilinium	λ_{max}	203(7500)	254(160)
Benzene	λ_{max}	204(7900)	254(200)

→Acyclic and heted →Homoannular →Addition substituent R=alkyl -OR -Cl, -Br -OCOR -Extra doub -Exocyclic -Ring residu -Cis bond	oannular die diene for e le bond double bond ae β α	ene ach d	$\pi \rightarrow \pi^* \text{ tr}$ 214 nm 253 nm 5 nm 6 nm 5 nm 0 nm 30 nm 5 nm 5 nm 30 nm 5 nm	ransition
(1) Rules for Enor	ne (—c=c	;;c)		
Acyclic six member Acyclic five memb -C=C-CHC -C=C-C(O) Homodiene Increment for	ered ring ered ring))-OR/H		215 nm 202 nm 210 nm 197 nm 39 nm	
	α(nm)	β(nm)	γ(nm)	δ(nm)
R=alkyl group	10	12	18	18
OR	35	30	17	31
OH	35	30	30	50
-SR	-	80	-	-
-Cl	15	12	12	12
-Br	25	30	25	25
-COR	6	6	6	6
-NH ₂ , -NHR, - NR ₂	-	95	-	-
Exocyclic double bond		10	nm	

Example: Woodward & Fisher Rules for Diene system

(2) Rules for Arone system



G= alkyl group	246 nm		
= H	250 nm		
=OH/OR	230 nm		
	Ortho(nm)	Meta(nm)	Para(nm)
Alkyl	3	3	10
-OH, -OMe, -OR	7	7	25
0-	11	20	78
Cl	0	0	10
Br	2	2	15
NH_2	13	13	58
NHAc	20	20	45
NHMe	-	-	73
NMe ₂	20	20	85
ulation of)			

Calculation of λ_{max} :

(1) To decide the parent system.

Parent system identification by following:





(2) Add the value of extra double bond. Ex.



(3) Add the value of Cis Double bond:



(4) Add the value of exocyclic double bond:



(5) Add the value of ring residue:



(6) Substitution value:



Calculate the λ_{max} for folloeing compounds. 1)



Base	value	214 nm
(hetero)		
Extra double	bond	00 nm
Cis bond		00 nm
Ring residue	3×5	15 nm
Exocyclic D	В	05 nm

Total

234 nm

2)



Base value (hetero)	214 nm
Extra double bond	00 nm
Cis bond	00 nm
Ring residue 3×5	15 nm
Exocyclic db	05 nm
-OR	06 nm
Total	240 nm

		•	CH ₃
	сна		-С Н`СН₃
\langle	\downarrow	\checkmark	
Ĺ	\checkmark		
H ₃ C	соон		

Base value (homo diene)	253 nm
Extra double bond	00 nm
Cis bond	00 nm
Ring residue 3×5	15 nm
Exocyclic db	05 nm
substitution alkyl	05 nm
Total	278 nm

4)



Base	value	(six	member	215 nm
Enone	e)			
Extra	double	bond		30 nm
Cis bo	ond			39 nm
Ring	residue	3×5		18 nm
Total				
				302 nm

5)



Acyclic Enone	
Base value	215 nm
Substitution a	10 nm
$\beta(2 \text{ CH}_3 \times 12)$	<u>24 nm</u>
Total	249 nm

6)



Five	mem	ber	
Enone			
Base v	alue		202 nm
Ring	residue	β	24 nm
positic	on: 2×12		
Exocy	clic db		<u>05 nm</u>
Total			231 nm



Arone z= Alkyl group	
Base value	246 nm
Ring residue(ortho)	03 nm
(meta-	02 nm
Br)	
Total	251 nm

8)





Arone G= -OH	
Base value	230 nm
Substitution	14 nm
m= 2×-OH	
p= -OH	25 nm
Total	269 nm

Acyclic diene	214 nm
Extra db	00 nm
Cis bond	00 nm
Ring Residue 4×5	20 nm
Exocyclic db 2×5	<u>10 nm</u>
Total	244 nm

10)



6-memebered				
Enone				
Base value	215 nm			
Ring Residue α	10 nm			
β	24 nm			
2×12				
Exocyclic db 2×5	10 nm			
Total	259 nm			

Example for Practice:







 $\lambda_{max}=227 \ nm$

 $\lambda_{max}=252 \text{ nm}$

 λ_{max} =244 & 227 nm

 $\lambda_{max}=256 \text{ nm}$

Chapter 3 Infrared Spectroscopy

Introduction:

Infrared spectroscopy is an important tool for the organic chemist. It is one of the most widely used tools the detection of functional group in the pure compound as well as in mixture for the comparison purpose.

Infrared refers to that part of the electromagnetic spectrum between the visible and microwave region. In a molecule; atoms join by covalent bonds are not fixed at one position but continual vibration with each other. The energy associated with these motion correspond to frequencies in the region of infrared waves, which stretches from 4000-400 cm⁻¹.



Range of infrared:

Infrared rays lie between ultra-violet visible and microwave radiation in electromagnetic radiation.

Infrared radiation further divided into three different parts



The near IR radiation passes 10-37 K.Cal energy per mole while middle IR and far IR radiation passes 1-10 K.Cal and 0.1-1 K.Cal energy per mole.

Middle Infrared region i.e. from 4000-400 cm-1 region is more useful for the organic chemist.

Theory of IR:

The molecule absorbs the radiation in the range of infrared and organic molecule converted it into the vibrational and rotational spectrum is obtained.

According to classical harmonic motion; the displacement of an atom is directly proportional to the applied force.

F∝a	(ii)
F∝-a	(iii)
F= -ka	(iv)

k is proportionality constant which measures the 'stiffness' at the bond, hence also known as " force constant" for the relevant bond.

Frequency of vibration of diatomic molecules:

Consider a diatomic molecule "AB" of masses m1 and m2 separated by an equilibrium bond length re.



Consider either the bond is elongated and compressed on "X" axis.



According to simple harmonic motion; Restorment force

$$f_1 = k(X_2 - X_1)$$
 and(v)
 $f_2 = -k(X_2 - X_1)$ (vi)

According to Newton's second law

f = ma

.....(vii)

Here, m= mass and a = acceleration due to motion, This can be defined as $\frac{d^2x}{dt}$. From the equation (vii) & (v) and (vii) & (vi)

$$\begin{split} f_1 = m_1 a_1 = k (X_2 - X_1) \text{ or } \\ = m_1 \frac{d^2 x_1}{dt^2} = k(X_2 - X_1) \text{ or } \\ = m_2 a_2 = -k(X_2 - X_1) \text{ or } \\ = m_2 \frac{d^2 x_2}{dt^2} = -k(X_2 - X_1) \text{(ix)} \\ & Eq. (viii) \& (ix) \text{ can be solved by} \\ X_1 = A_1 \cos(2\pi\vartheta_t + \emptyset) \text{(x)} \\ X_2 = A_2 \cos(2\pi\vartheta_t + \emptyset) \text{(x)} \\ Where v = \text{linear frequency} \\ \emptyset = \text{phase of the vibration} \\ From the second order different of x1 and x2 eq. (x) \& (xi) \\ (\frac{d^2 x_1}{dt^2}) = -4\pi^2 V^2 A_1 \cos(2\pi\vartheta_t + \emptyset) \text{(xii)} \\ (\frac{d^2 x_2}{dt^2}) = -4\pi^2 V^2 A_2 \cos(2\pi\vartheta_t + \emptyset) \text{(xiii)} \\ Solving one of the eq. (viii) by putting the value of $\frac{d^2 x_1}{dt^2} \\ -4\pi^2 V^2 A_1 \cos(2\pi\vartheta_t + \emptyset) = k(A_2 - A_1)\cos(2\pi\vartheta_t + \emptyset) \text{(xiv)} \\ \therefore (k - 4\pi^2 V^2 m_1)A_1 = kA_2 \text{(xv)} \\ \therefore kA_1 = (k - 4\pi^2 V^2 m_2)A_2 \text{(xvi)} \\ k^2 + 16\pi^2 V^4 m_1 m_2 - 4\pi^2 V^2 k(m_1 + m_2) = k^2 \text{(xvii)} \\ \therefore v = \frac{1}{2\pi} \sqrt{\frac{k}{r}} \text{ Where } r = \frac{m_1 m_2}{m_1 m_2} \text{ which is known} \\ as reducing mass \\ \end{split}$$$

Since $c = v\lambda$ or $\frac{v}{c} = \frac{1}{\lambda}$ (xxi) Where λ is measured in cm and wavenumber in cm⁻¹, \therefore modify eq. (xxi)

$$v = \frac{1}{2\pi} \sqrt{\frac{k}{r}}$$

This equation is used for the calculation of "k" force constant.

Modes of fundamental vibration:

A molecule has as many degrees of freedom as the total degree of freedom of its individual atoms. Each atom has 3 degrees of freedom corresponding to the Cartesian coordinates(x, y, z) necessary to explain their relative position. A molecule possesses n atoms, therefore, has a 3n degree of freedom. For nonlinear molecules, three degrees of freedom for rotation and three degrees of freedom for translation (vibration) to avoid duplication for non-linear molecule, while linear molecule, only two degrees of freedom are two;

 \therefore linear molecule

Degree of freedom= 3n-5 & non-linear molecule; Degree of freedom= 3n-6.

In this type of vibration, there is no change in the centre of gravity of the molecule.

There are two types of molecular vibrations: (i) stretching and (ii) bending.

Stretching Vibration:

A stretching vibration is movement of atoms along the bond axis such that inter-atomic distance is increasing or decreasing

According to the direction of stretching, it can be further divided into two parts.

(a) Symmetrical stretching

In diatomic molecules both atoms of the bond are coming near to central paint (gravity centre) at the same time and go far from the centre paint at the same time is known as " symmetrical stretching" vibration.

These vibrations are generally IR inactive because it does not bring change in dipole moment.

(b) Asymmetrical stretching

In diatomic molecules out of the two atoms, when one atom comes near to central paint while other goes away from the central point is known as "asymmetrical stretching" vibration.

These vibrations required higher energy as compare to stretching vibration, and absorption occurs at a higher frequency.

Bending vibration:

A bending vibration is correlated to change in bond angles between bonds with a common atom or the movement of a group of atoms with respect to one another.According to presence of atom in plane; bending vibration divided into two groups

- (i) In-plane bending
- (ii) Out of plane bending

(i) In-plane bending:

During vibration, the position of atom changes in the same plane, then it is known as In-plane bending vibration.

On the basis of the motion of atoms, it can be further classified into two groups:

- a) Scissoring
- b) Rocking
- a) Scissoring: If atoms of the molecule come near to each other or far from each other without a change in bond length as well as plane, then it is known as scissoring vibration.
- b) Rocking: Whole molecules can vibrate just like rock i.e. structural units swing back and forth within the plane.
- (ii) Out of plane bending:

During the vibration, the atom changes their plane is known as out of plane bending vibration. i. e. the atoms swing up & down of the plane of the paper.

According to the motion of the atom, further, it can be divided into two classes.

- a) Wagging: The atoms associated with bond come forth and back in the plane is known as wagging deformation.
- b) Twisting: The atom associated with bond play like twisting of rope i.e. atom come forth and back alternate in opposite direction is known as twisting deformation.







Symmetrical Vibration

Asymmetrical Vibration

Inplane





Scissoring

Rocking

Out of Plane





Twisting

Wagging

Infrared Activity:

There is a variety of ways in which number of molecular vibration takes place and corresponds to a total of 3N-6 or 3N-5 vibration with respect to the non-linear and linear molecules.

According to the classical theory, the condition for infrared activity is that at least one dipole moment of the component must change with respect to the normal coordinate and it is only possible when incident frequency match with the fundamental frequency. i.e. $\left(\frac{d\mu_i}{dQ}\right)_0 \neq 0$ where μ = dipole moment , Q= normal coordinate

Force constant:

In diatomic molecule, force constant can be represented as

$$K = 4\pi^2 c^2(\vartheta)^2 r$$

K is primary function of the bond type and it will be the order of $(1-25) \times 10^5$ dyne/cm.

Force constant for the stretching and bending must have the same units. Force necessary for deformation of angle is less than stretching of the bond.

∴ Force constant in some simple molecule.

Table: 1

Molecule	ν(cm ⁻¹)	K.dyne/cm
HF	2907	9.7×10^{5}
HCl	2886	4.8×10^{5}
HBr	2559	4.1×10^{5}
HI	2230	3.2×10^{5}
CO	2143	18.4×10^{5}
NO	1904	16.0×10^{5}

The force constant value of double bonds lies between those of single and triple bonds(Exception: HF molecule). It can be concluded that

Single bond $< 7 \times 10^5$

Double bond 7-15 $\times 10^5$ &

Triple bond 15×10^5 dyne/cm.

Coupling of rotational and vibrations.

When substantial interaction takes place between rotations and vibration; the Born. Oppenheimer approximation is said to break-down. For the evaluation of nature and magnitude of interaction; few main interactions can be identified which may effect on absorption.

- (a) Average bond length increase with increasing vibrational energy which effects on inertia as a result rotational energy depends on vibrational energy level.
- (b) As the molecule goes to higher energy level, which is distracted by centrifugal force thereby perturbing the energy.
- (c) In the case of the bath at higher and lower vibrational or rotational level. Molecule behaves an intermediate of the good oscillator and rigid rotor.

A consequence of all this it may be effective on the coupling of rotation & vibration; as a result on the non-constancy of rotational band spacing. Therefore it is necessary of a cross-term in the energy expression which can be represented as

$$\bar{\mathbf{E}}_{v_j} = \left(v + \frac{1}{2}\right)\bar{\mathbf{v}} + \overline{B_{v_j}}(J+1)$$

Where $\overline{B_{v_j}} = \text{ implies that}$

of

rotation constant is a functional of vibrational quantum number and

$$\overline{B_v} = \overline{B_e} - \alpha_e \left(v + \frac{1}{2} \right)$$

 $\overline{B_e}$ = rotational equilibrium band length A = + small constant

$$\overline{E_{0,J}} = \frac{1}{2}\overline{\upsilon} + \overline{B_o}j(J+1)$$
$$\overline{E_{1J}} = \frac{1}{2}\overline{\upsilon} + \overline{B_1}j(J+1)$$

$$\hat{w} = \bar{v} + [\bar{B}_{1}(J^{1})(J^{1} + 1) - \bar{B}_{0}J(J + 1)]$$
(i)
$$\Delta J = +1. \text{ i.e. } J \rightarrow J + 1 \text{ (R branch)}$$

$$\hat{w} \text{ we can express as } J' = J + 1$$

$$\hat{w} = \bar{v} + (\bar{B}_{1}(J + 1)(J + 2) - \bar{B}_{0}J(J + 1))$$

$$= \bar{v} + 2\bar{B}_{1} + (3\bar{B}_{1} - \bar{B}_{0})J + (\bar{B}_{1} - \bar{B}_{0})J^{2}$$

$$\text{ Where } J = 0,1,2,3,.....$$

(ii)
$$\Delta J = -1$$
 i.e. $J \rightarrow J - 1$ or $J' = J - 1$ (P- Branch)
 $\overline{w}_p = \overline{v} + (\overline{B}_1(J-1)J - \overline{B}_0J(J+1))$
 $= \overline{v} + (\overline{B}_1 + \overline{B}_0)J + (\overline{B}_1 - \overline{B}_0)J^2$
Where $J = 1, 2, 3,$

Since the higher energy vibrational state has a greater vibrational amplitude. thus the co-efficient of J^2 terms in the expression for P and R branches are negative

 \therefore for the rotational-vibrational spectra

$$E = E_{rotational} + E_{vibrational}$$

$$E_{vb} = hc\overline{v_0} \quad \text{And} \quad E_{rot} = \frac{h^2}{8\pi^2 I} (J^1 (J^1 + 1) - J(J + 1))$$

$$J(J + 1))$$

$$E_{IR} = hc\overline{v_0} + \frac{h^2}{8\pi^2 I} (J^1 (J^1 + 1) - J(J + 1))$$

$$E_{IR} = hc\overline{v_0} + \frac{h^2}{8\pi^2 I} (J^1 J - J(J + 1))$$

$$E_{IR} = hc\overline{v_0} + \frac{h^2}{8\pi^2 I} J(J^1 - J - 1)$$

$$\therefore J^{1-}J = 1$$

$$E_{IR} = hc\overline{v_0} + \frac{h^2}{8\pi^2 I} J(-1 - 1)$$

For R- branch
$$\Delta J = +1$$
 $\therefore J^{1}-J = +1$
 $E_{IR} = hc\overline{v_0} + \frac{h^2}{8\pi^2 I} (J^1(J^1 + 1) - J(J^1))$
 $E_{IR} = hc\overline{v_0} + \frac{h^2}{8\pi^2 I} (J^1(J^1 + 1 - J))$
Here $J^1 = J + 1$
 $E_{IR} = hc\overline{v_0} + \frac{h^2}{8\pi^2 I} (J^1 * 2)$
 $E_{IR} = hc\overline{v_0} + \frac{h^2}{4\pi^2 I} J^1$
 $hc\overline{v} = hc\overline{v_0} + \frac{h^2}{4\pi^2 I} J^1$
 $\overline{v} = \overline{v_0} + \frac{h}{4\pi^2 I} c J^1$

For Q- Branch

$$\Delta J = 0 \quad \therefore J^{1} - J = 0 \qquad \therefore J^{1} = J$$

$$E_{IR} = hc\overline{v_{0}} + \frac{h^{2}}{8\pi^{2}I} \left(J^{1}(J^{1} + 1) - J(J^{1})\right)$$

$$E_{IR} = hc\overline{v_{0}} + \frac{h^{2}}{8\pi^{2}I}(0)$$

$$E_{IR} = hc\overline{v_{0}}$$

$$hc\overline{v} = hc\overline{v_{0}}$$

$$\overline{v} = \overline{v_{0}}$$

Selection rule for Infrared

a) When subject irradiated with infrared rays, it is necessary to know that whether the interaction is allowed or not. An extended use of Schrodinger wave equation give rise to quantum selection rule as

 $\Delta v = \pm 1 \qquad \dots \dots \dots \dots (i)$

The eq. (i); selection rule-1 obey to restrict transition; if $\Delta \vartheta = \pm 1$ it represents absorption while $\Delta \vartheta = -1$ emission of radiation by the molecule.

From the selection rule -1; ie is clear that each allowed transition given rise to the same spectral frequency. i.e. vibrational level are equally different from each other

$$E_{0\rightarrow 1}=E_{1\rightarrow 2}=E_{2\rightarrow 3}....=h\nu$$

b) The second selection rule is based on the physical nature of the molecules. During vibration, if dipole moment of the molecule is changed i.e. electrical vector of EMR interact with dipole moment vector of molecule resulting in resonance, molecule absorb the IR-radiation. **Type of IR-band.**

i. **Overtone**

The harmonic oscillator only allowed vibration up to ± 1 level. But harmonic oscillation possible to one or two level. But real molecules do not obey the law of simple harmonic motion. At higher amplitudes of vibration; gradually increase the distance between two level, the band loses their elasticity gradually and decrease of force constantly.



If Vibration of the molecule is completely harmonic then only fundamental band occurs. But in the real molecule; it is not possible so due to anharmonic vibration overtone occur.

Example: fundamental frequency of $>^{c}=^{\circ}$ is appeared at 1700 cm⁻¹ then the first overtone of $>^{c}=^{\circ}$ the group appeared at 3400 cm⁻¹.

At lower quantum number the vibrational energy are evenly spread and transition only allowed ± 1 . But at the higher quantum number, it is gradually decreasing. So overtone frequency is not exactly twice and transition is also partially allowed, as a resulting intensity of overtone is 1/10 of fundamental band.

Combination band:

The combination band arise from the unharmonicities of vibration which lead to an interaction of two fundamental bands in polyatomic molecule.

It is weak compared to fundamental and overtone **Fermi Resonance:**

As we have observed in our discussion of interaction coupling can also occur between fundamental vibration and overtone or combination tone vibration. During these type of coupling, energy sharing take place between overtone and fundamental or c combinational tone and fundamental is known as "Fermi-resonance". As a result of this interaction, the intensity of 'overtone' is increasing while the intensity of fundamental band is decreasing.

The most common example of Fermi resonance is absorption pattern of CO_2 molecule.

In the case of CO_2 molecule, stretching band appear at 1340 cm⁻¹ in Raman spectra. While bending deformation appears at 660 cm⁻¹. Due to the coupling of these two fundamental of the C=O bending result in giving two new absorption band 1286 & 1388.5cm⁻¹ having an intensity ratio of 1:09.



Fermi resonance is also appeared in aldehyde molecule C-H bending vibration is appeared at 1390 cm⁻¹ and its first overtone occur at 2750 cm⁻¹, while C-H stretching seen absorption at 2872 cm⁻¹. So coupling takes place between fundamental band and overtone, asymmetrical double is observed at 2830 & 2695 cm⁻¹. i.e. overtone extent their intensity while fundamental loses their intensity.

Finger Print region:

The region from the right 4000-1600 cm⁻¹ to the left has a great impact on the study of the fundamental group. The absorption occurs in that region is due to stretching vibrations.

The region to the right of 1600 cm⁻¹ to 600 cm⁻¹ to the left is usually complex due to the both stretching and bending modes give rise to absorption here. However, each organic compound has its own identical absorption in this region. This region of infrared therefore known as 'finger-print' region. Although the region of higher frequency may appear the same for similar molecule but the pattern display in fingerprint region seen a complete super impossibility of infrared spectra.

It is necessary to mention here that aromatic compound often displays numerous bands in fingerprint region as compared to their aliphatic parts.

The patterns of fingerprint region are identical and sensitive even minor chemical difference or stereochemical changes. The fingerprint region is a unique for comparison purpose. **Example:** epimeric stereochemistry study at androsterone and epiandrosterone. Both are C_3 epimers. The –OH stretching frequency in a higher region, while C-O absorption band in 1260-1000 cm⁻¹ make differentiate to each other in fingerprint region.



Instrumentation:

- 1) The conventional IR spectrophotometer The important components of conventional IR spectrophotometer are as under
 - I. Source of radiation
 - II. Monochromator
 - III. Sample handling
 - IV. Detector
 - V. Recorder

The Morden double beam infrared spectrophotometer is shown in the figure.



I. Source of Radiation:

IR radiation is produced by electrical heating of Nernst Filament or Globar at 1000-1800°C. the Nernst filament is made up of zirconium, thorium and cerium oxide. While Globar is a small rod of silicon carbide.

II. Monochromator:

It will disperse or resolve polychromatic light into monochromatic light.

It consists of following parts:

- (a) Entrance slit: it will sharply define the incoming beam of radiation.
- (b) Disperse device: It will disperse the radiation. When a sharp beam of light is allowed to pass through the filter.

Prism or grating type disperse device are employed in infrared work. Generally, a prism made of alkyl halide is favoured because of their whole range IR inactive and simplicity. Prism made up from potassium bromide oftenly used in IR spectrophotometer. The grating device contains series of a number of parallel equal distance lines drawn on a plane surface. Approximately 10,000 to 15,000 line/inch is drowned on the highly polished surface of the glass. Each groove acts as a scattering centre.

2) Fourier Transform (F.T.) Infrared spectrometer

A beam containing the entire infrared wavelength passes through a sample at once in FT-IR. The result getting after absorption also passes all wavelengths in one beam. The information contains in resulting beam is converted into frequency dominated spectra by a microprocessor.

The FTIR uses an interferometer causes two beams of IR radiation to interfere with one another, out of this two beam, one is variable. After reflection to their relative mirrors back to the beam splitter and recombine.



Advantages:

- Speed and sensitivity are better due to the scanning of all frequency at once.
- It requires less time as compared to the dispersive method.
- Resolution and accuracy are also improved.

Sample handling system:

The method used for sample preparation depends upon the nature of the sample.

- 1) **Gaseous Sample:** the scanning of gases or low boiling liquids by the expansion of the sample into an evacuated cell. Gas cells are available in length of few centimetres to 40 meters in coil form.
- 2) Liquid sample: Liquid may be scanned between two salt plates without a spacer. Pressing a liquid sample between flat plates produces a film of 0.01mm 0r less in thickness.
- **3)** Solid sample: the solid sample is usually examined by using mull technique, thin film, pressed disc or powder method.

Mulls are pre[pared by thoroughly grinding 2-5 mg of solid with Nujol. The mixture is examined between two salt plates.

In a thin film, the method makes a solution of the sample in volatile solvent and press between two salt plates then after heat it to remove the solvent and make a thin film on salt plates. In press disc method, Grind 1 mg sample with 99 mg KBr and make it fine powder then insert into "die" and press for 5 to 10 min. with 1000- 1500 psi. so powder converts into a transparent disc which can be examined.

Factor affecting IR absorption:

The variation in absorption frequency depends on the following factors:

- (1) **Bond strength:** Force constant is the primary function of frequency. As a result, increasing the bond strength absorption occurs at the higher region.
- (2) **Atomic weight:** A mass of the molecule is inversely proportional to the frequency. Therefore wavenumber is decreased with increasing atomic mass.
- (3) **Inductive effect:** Electron donating effect of any functional group produce +ve induction which increases the electron density on "C" atom and make bond weaker as a result force constant is decreased and also decrease the frequency of absorption.

An electron withdrawing effect of any group produce –Ve induction which decreases the electron density on "C" therefore bond is more polar which increase the absorption frequency.

(4) **Hydrogen bonding:** Due to the formation of hydrogen bond; the electron density on oxygen is decreased which makes O-H band less polar as a resulting frequency is decreased.

By increasing the ring size, (5) Ring size: decrease the ring strain which makes the ring the $\rightarrow =$ bond less polar due to the delocalization of electron, so frequency also decrease.



Frequency of C=O increase

- If $\geq = 0$ the group is in the (6) **Resonance**: conjugation of \geq the group; make its resonance as a resulting stability is increase and force strength decrease. Therefore IR absorption shift towards lower frequency.
- The strength of the valent (7) S-character: bond depends on the participation of "S" alkene and alkynes.

Hybrid	lization	S- character	Stretching frequency
sp ³		25%	2900 cm ⁻¹ (C-H)
sp ²		33%	3100 cm ⁻¹ (C-H)
5	sp	50%	3300 cm ⁻¹ (C-H)

S character increase \rightarrow Frequency increase
Application:

Infrared spectroscopy is useful for the identification of functional group. Following are some application of Infrared spectroscopy:

• Study of hydrogen bond:

It is possible to explain the hydrogen bond with the help of IR- spectroscopy.

Two types of hydrogen bond is possible

- 1) Within the molecule(Intramolecular Hbond)
- Between the molecule(Intermolecular Hband)

Hydrogen bond formation takes place between the H of polar bond and electro-negative atom which possesses loan pair of electron.

Due to the formation of the hydrogen bond, force constant of the original bond decreases and stretching frequency of those bands also decrease.

Example:



Intramolecular H-bond

Stretching frequency of O-H and C=O decrease.

• Study of tautomerism:

For the study of tautomerism between two fundamental group ketone and enol;

Example:



Compound A is passed two carbonyl group so -C=0 stretching of ketone at 1710 cm⁻¹and C=0 stretching of ester appeared at 1745.cm⁻¹.

While compound (B) passes one C=0 group with conjugation so -C=0 stretching appeared at 1690 cm⁻¹ and -OH stretching appeared at 3575 cm⁻¹ as a broadband due to Intramolecular H-bond.

• Geometrical isomer:

For the identification of geometrical isomer; IR spectroscopy is useful.



Examination of IR spectrum:

- Examine the IR spectrum from high-frequency end.
- > IR –spectrum the band intensity is designated as

St- strong	w-wea	ak	m- me	dium	sh-
sharp br-bro	oad				
Stretching	ν	Bendin	ıg	δ	
Scissoring	σ	Rockin	g	ς	
Wagging	ω	Twisti	ng	τ	

Assignment of band region: Triple bond 1450 Double to bond 950 Hydrogen Overtone region Finger print 4000 3600 2600 2200 1900 1600 cm⁻¹ cm⁻¹ cm⁻¹ cm⁻¹ cm⁻¹ cm⁻¹



Out

Plane

region

650

cm⁻¹

of

950

cm⁻¹

(2)

*

2250	2150	1950	1850	1785	1750	1745
C≡N	C≡C	S-H	CO (anhy.)	Acid chloride	CO anhy 1	Ester
1735	1725	1710	1680	1645	1630	1600
Acid	Aldehy de	Ketone	Amide	C=N	C=C	C=C

1450	1375	1275	1250	1150	850	750- 650
-CH ₂	-CH ₃	C-0	C-N	C-S	NO_2	C-X
Banding	Bending	Bending	Bending			

Out of plane

.

Ortho	Meta	Para
780	700	830
750	730	

Hydrocarbon:	Alkane			
	Stretching	Bending		
Asymmetric	2962 cm ⁻¹	1450 cm ⁻¹		
Symmetric	2872 cm ⁻¹	1375 cm-1		

 \therefore If more than four $-CH_2$ group are there; then sharp band at 720 $\rm cm^{-1}$ twisting and wagging at 1250 $\rm cm^{-1}$

Alkene:

	Stretching	Ben	ding	
C-H	3100	951 (00]	Otrans p)	isomer
C=C	1630			
C-C	1100	730 (00]	730cis isomer (oop)	
Alkyn	e:			
C-H st	retching	3300		
C≡C s	tretching	2150-2200)	
Arom	atic:			
	Stretching	Be	nding	
C-H	3030	700-750	Mono	sub.
	1600	780-750	Ortho	sub.
C=C	1500	700-780	Meta s	sub.
	1450	820	Para s	ub.
C=0	frequency			
•	Acid $-OH = C = C = C = 0$ -0-H	stretching 3600 D stretching 173 bending 1250 c	-2500 cm 35 cm ⁻¹ m ⁻¹	1 ⁻¹

•	Ester	C=0 stretching 1745 cm ⁻¹ C-0-C stretching 1250 & 1075 cm ⁻¹
•	Anhydride:	C=0 1850 &1750 cm ⁻¹ C-O-C stretching 1250 &1075 cm ⁻¹
•	Acid Chlori	e: $C=0$ stretching 1765 cm ⁻¹
•	Ketone:	c=0 1715 cm ⁻¹
•	Aldehyde:	C=0 stretching 1725 cm ⁻¹
		C-H stretching 2750, 2850 cm ⁻¹
•	Amide:	-NH ₂ 3400-3200(br)
		3400(st)
		C=0 1680
		-N-H bending 1250 cm ⁻¹
•	Phenol:	-OH 3600(sh)→free 3600-3400(br) →bonded

0-Н	C-0		
3640	1050	Primary	
3630	1100	Secondary	
3620	1150	Tertiary	







(3) Ethyl Acetoacetate



Example:

(1) Calculate of vibration frequency; calculate the approximate frequency of the C-h stretching vibration from the given data: $K=500 \text{ Nm}^{-1}=$ $5.0 \times 10^5 \text{ gs}^{-2}$, $M_c=$ mass of carbon atom= $20 \times 10^{-24} \text{ gm}$, $M_H =$ mass of Hydrogen = $1.6 \times 10^{-24} \text{ gm}$.

$$\bar{\vartheta} = \frac{1}{2\pi c} \sqrt{\frac{\kappa}{\mu}} \quad \mu = \frac{m_c m_H}{m_c + m_H}$$

$$= \frac{1 \times 7}{2 \times 22 \times 3 \times 10^{10}} \sqrt{\frac{5 \times 10^5}{(20 \times 10^{-24})(1.6 \times 10^{-24})}/(20 + 1.6)10^{-24}}$$

$$= 3.1 \times 10^5 \text{ m}^{-1}$$

$$= 3100 \text{ cm}^{-1}$$

(2) H-Cl str. Appeared at 2950 cm⁻¹; calculate force constant K? $C=3 \times 10^{10}$ cm N= 6.023 × 10²³

$$Molecular mass = \frac{\mu}{N}$$

$$\therefore K = 4\pi^2 c^2 \bar{\vartheta}^2 \frac{\mu}{N}$$

$$\therefore K = 4\pi^2 c^2 \bar{\vartheta}^2 \frac{m_1 m_2}{N(m_1 + m_2)}$$

$$\therefore K = \frac{4(3.14)^2 (3 \times 10^{10})^2 (2950)^2 \times 1 \times 35.5}{(1 + 35.5) \times 6.023 \times 10^{23}}$$

$$\therefore K = 4.98 \times 10^5.$$

(3) Calculate the Theoretical number of vibrational degree of freedom in NH₃, p- dichlorobenzene, HCN, CO₂ and Benzene.

For non-linear molecule Vibrational degree of freedom = 3n-6 \therefore for NH₃ = $3 \times 4-6$ = 12-6= 6 ∴p-dichloro benzene: C₆H₄Cl₂ =3n-6 $=3 \times 12 - 6$ =36-6 =30 For Benzene: C₆H₆ =3n-6 $=3 \times 12 - 6$ =36-6 =30

For linear molecule: vibrational degree of freedom=3n-5

For HCN	=3n-5
	=3×3-5
	=9-5
	=4
For CO ₂	=3n-5
	=3×3-5
	=9-5
	=4
C ₆ H ₁₀ : Cycl	o hexene

(4)

 3030 cm^{-1} :=C-H str. 2940 cm⁻¹: C-H str. In -CH₂ 1640 cm^{-1} : C=C str. 1435 cm⁻¹: C-H def in –CH₂ 721 cm⁻¹: =CH def (Cis isomer) Toluene: C₆H₆-CH₃



3030 cm⁻¹ 2960-2850 cm⁻¹ 1600, 1580, 1460 cm⁻¹ :C=C str. In ring 730,770 cm⁻¹ mono substituted in ring

:Ar-H str. :C-H str in CH₃ : C-H bending for

Benzyl alcohol: C7H10O



3400(be) cm⁻¹: bonded O-H str.(Intermolecular H bond) 3000 cm⁻¹:C-H of aromatic ring 2980-2840 cm⁻¹: C-H str. Of alkane 1497-1450 cm⁻¹ : C=C str. In-ring 1200 cm⁻¹: O-H bending 1017 cm⁻¹ :C-O str. Of primary ring.

Phenol: C₆H₅-OH



3330(br) cm⁻¹ OH (intermolecular) : O-H str. of bonded -

:	aromatic	С-Н
: C=	=C str. In ring	
: 0-	H bending	
: C-	0 stretching	
: C-	H bending (oc	p)
	: : C= : O- : C- : C-	: aromatic : C=C str. In ring : O-H bending : C-O stretching : C-H bending (oc

2- Pentanone: C₅H₁₀O

$$H_3C - C - CH_2 - CH_2 - CH_3$$

2970 cm⁻¹: Asymmetric C –H str in –Ch₃group 2930 cm⁻¹: symmetric C-H str in –CH₃ group 2865 cm⁻¹: symmetric C-H str in –CH₃ group 1725 cm⁻¹: C=O str in saturated ketone 1432 cm⁻¹: CH bending of –CH₂ 1370 cm⁻¹: CH bending of –CH₃ 1170 cm⁻¹: C-O stretching

4- Nitro-3-phenyl-prop-2-yn-1oic acid



3100 cm ⁻¹	: C-H str of aromatic
3200-2400 cm ⁻¹	: O-H str of acid
2225 cm ⁻¹	: C≡C str
1690 cm ⁻¹	:]
1605 cm ⁻¹	: $\int C = C \operatorname{str} \operatorname{in} \operatorname{ring}$
1520, 1350 cm ⁻¹	: NO ₂ str.
950-650 cm ⁻¹	: p-di substituted

Benzoyl Chloride



3080 cm⁻¹: C-H str of aromatic 1790 cm⁻¹: C=O str (raised due to +I effect) 1600 cm⁻¹: 1580 cm⁻¹ : 1450 cm⁻¹: 750 cm⁻¹: C-H bending in OOP 690 cm⁻¹: C-Cl str

n-Butyric anhydride (CH₃CH₂CH₂)O

2980 cm⁻¹: C-H str of alkane 2890 cm⁻¹: C-H str of alkane 1820 cm⁻¹ : 1748 cm⁻¹ : 1460,1406 cm⁻¹:C-H def in methyl group 1035 cm⁻¹: C-O str in acyclic anhydride Aniline



3450 cm⁻¹: N-H str in primary amine 3390 cm⁻¹: N-H str in primary amine 3030 cm⁻¹: C-H str of Aromatic ring 1620, 1602; C=C str in ring , 1499 cm⁻¹ 3450 cm⁻¹ C-N str in primary amine ,1275 754,696cm⁻¹: Mono-Substituted Benzene

Methyl cyanide [CH₃-C \equiv N]

3002 cm⁻¹: C-H str in $-CH_3$ 2940 cm⁻¹: C-H str in $-CH_3$ 2256 cm⁻¹: C \equiv N in Alkyl cyanide 1440 cm⁻¹: C-H def in $-CH_3$ 1370 cm⁻¹: C-H deformation

 Ethyl Acetate
 CH_3 -C(=0)-O- CH_2 - CH_3

 3002 cm⁻¹: C-H str of alkane

 1742 cm⁻¹: C=0 str of alkane

 1450, 1370 cm⁻¹

 1240 cm⁻¹: C-0 str in ester

 3100 cm⁻¹

 2960-2900 cm⁻¹:C-H str.(saturated)

 Distinguish the following compound By IR spectra.

(1)

Maleic AcidFumaric acidH-C-COOHH-C-COOH||||H-C-COOHHOOC-C-HSimilar peak 3030 cm^{-1} : C-H str. Of vinyl groupDistinguish peak 1650 cm^{-1} : C=C str. 1600 cm^{-1}

1650 Cm ⁻¹	: L=L str.	1600 cm ⁻¹	:L=L str
1702 cm ⁻¹	: C=0 str	1680 cm ⁻¹	: C=0 str
750 cm ⁻¹	: cis isomer	950 cm ⁻¹	:trans isomer

(2)

C₆H₅CH₂NH₂ 3100-3040 cm⁻¹:C-H str 1600-1500,1460cm⁻¹:C=C str 3500-3250 cm⁻¹ :N-H str (3) Propanal CH₃CH₂CHO 2720,2850 cm⁻¹:C-H str of Aldehyde 1740-1720 cm⁻¹:C=O str 1400-1000 cm⁻¹:C-C str

CH₃-CO-N(CH₃)₂ 3300 cm⁻¹ :C-H str 1675 cm⁻¹ :C=0 str

3-propane 1- alcohol

H₃C=CH-CH₂ 3300 cm⁻¹:C-H str of vinyl 3600-3300 cm⁻¹:O-H str 1650 cm⁻¹:C=C str

(4)

o- Hydroxybenzoic acid 3400-3200 cm⁻¹: O-H str (lowering) Intramolecular H-bond 735-770 cm⁻¹: ortho sub.

m-Hydroxybenzoic acid

3600-3400 cm⁻¹: O-H str. (lowering) Intermolecular H bond 710-690 and 770-730 cm⁻¹: meta sub.

Assign the structure to a compound from following IR results.

(1) M. F.: C_9H_8 IR:3310(m),3020(m),2960,2140,1605,1580,1510,1450, 4030,755 and 710 cm⁻¹

First find out double bond equivalent from following equation.

 $DBE = \frac{(2a+2)-(b-d)}{2}$ a= No. of carbon

b= no. of monovalent ion

c= no of trivalent atom

$$DBE = \frac{(2 \times 9 + 2) - (8 - 0)}{2}$$
$$DBE = \frac{20 - 8}{2} = \frac{12}{2}$$
$$DBE = 6$$

3310 cm⁻¹: C-H str of -C≡CH vibration

3020 cm⁻¹: C-H str of aromatic vibration

2960 cm⁻¹: C-H str of alkane vibration

2140 cm⁻¹: C \equiv C str of alkyne vibration

1605 cm⁻¹:ן

1580 cm⁻¹: C=C str of aromatic vibration

1450 cm⁻¹: C-H bending of alkane

1030 cm⁻¹: C-H bending of aromatic

0755 cm⁻¹:]

0710 cm⁻¹: C-H bending of aromatic (monosubstituted) From the above information

- \rightarrow 6 double bond present
- \rightarrow -C=C group present
- \rightarrow Aromatic ring present
- \rightarrow CH₂/CH₂ group present

: From formula: C₉H₈

Phenyl ring: $\begin{array}{c} C_{6}H_{5} \\ \hline C_{3}H_{4} \\ C \equiv C-H \\ \hline C_{2}H \\ \hline CH_{2} \end{array}$

 \therefore Structure of molecule is:



(2) The compound having molecular formula $C_{11}H_{12}$ & IR absorption at 3310, 3045, 2925,2130, 1605, 1500,1430,1380,1360,1230,1080,840 cm⁻¹; derive the structure of unknown compound.

$$DBE = \frac{(2a+2)-(b-d)}{2}$$

$$DBE = \frac{(2 \times 11 + 2) - (12 - 0)}{2}$$

$$DBE = \frac{24 - 12}{2}$$

$$DBE = \frac{12}{2} = 6$$

$$3310 \text{ cm}^{-1} \text{: C-H str of -C=C-H}$$

$$3045 \text{ cm}^{-1} \text{:C-H str of aromatic ring}$$

$$2925 \text{ cm}^{-1} \text{:C-H str of alkane}$$

$$2130 \text{ cm}^{-1} \text{:C-H str of -C=C-H}$$

$$1605 \text{ cm}^{-1}$$

$$1500 \text{ cm}^{-1}$$

$$1380 \text{ cm}^{-1}$$

$$1380 \text{ cm}^{-1}$$

$$1360 \text{ cm}^{-1}$$

$$C=C \text{ str of aromatic ring}$$

$$1360 \text{ cm}^{-1}$$

$$C-H \text{ bending of } -C_{H}^{CH_{3}}$$

$$group$$

$$1230 \text{ cm}^{-1} \text{:C-H in plane bending}$$

$$1080 \text{ cm}^{-1} \text{:p- di substituted}$$
From the above information
$$\Rightarrow 6 \text{ double bond present}$$

$$\Rightarrow p-di-substituted phenyl ring$$

 \rightarrow C=C-H group present

$$\rightarrow \begin{array}{c} -C_{H}^{CH_{3}} \\ \rightarrow \\ \begin{array}{c} -C_{H}^{CH_{3}} \\ CH_{3} \\ \text{group present} \\ \end{array} \\ \begin{array}{c} C_{11}H_{12} \\ C_{5}H_{8} \\ -C_{5}H_{8} \\ -C_{5}H_{8} \\ -C_{1} \\ C_{5}H_{8} \\ -C_{1} \\ C_{5}H_{3} \\ -C_{2}H \\ \end{array} \end{array}$$

 \therefore Structure of unknown compound is



(3) Assign the structure of the following compound with $M.F.C_4H_8O_2$ to absorb the IR radiation at 2989-2880(m), 1740(s), 1240(s) & 1045 (s) cm⁻¹.

$$DBE = \frac{(2a+2)-(b-d)}{2}$$
$$DBE = \frac{(2 \times 4 + 2) - (8 - 0)}{2}$$
$$DBE = \frac{10 - 8}{2}$$
$$DBE = \frac{2}{2} = 1$$

2989-2880 cm⁻¹: C-H str of alkane
1740 cm⁻¹: C=O str
1240 cm⁻¹]
1045 cm⁻¹: C-O-C linkage

From the above information

- \rightarrow One double bond present
- \rightarrow C=0 group present
- \rightarrow Ester group present

$$\begin{array}{c} & \underline{C_{4}H_{8}O_{2}} \\ & \underline{CO_{2}} \\ = & \underline{C_{3}H_{8}} \\ \\ \text{So.} \\ \\ H_{3}C - \underline{C}^{-} - \underline{C}^{-} - CH_{3} & OR & H_{3}C - \underline{C}^{-} - \underline{C}^{-} - CH_{3} \\ \\ & \bigcup_{i=1}^{N} O_{i} - CH_{3} & OR & H_{3}C - \underline{C}^{-} - CH_{3} \\ \\ & \bigcup_{i=1}^{N} O_{i} - CH_{3} & OR & H_{3}C - \underline{C}^{-} - CH_{3} \\ \\ & \bigcup_{i=1}^{N} O_{i} - CH_{3} & OR & H_{3}C - \underline{C}^{-} - CH_{3} \\ \\ & \bigcup_{i=1}^{N} O_{i} - CH_{3} & OR & H_{3}C - \underline{C}^{-} - CH_{3} \\ \\ & \bigcup_{i=1}^{N} O_{i} - CH_{3} & OR & H_{3}C - \underline{C}^{-} - CH_{3} \\ \\ & \bigcup_{i=1}^{N} O_{i} - CH_{3} & OR & H_{3}C - \underline{C}^{-} - CH_{3} \\ \\ & \bigcup_{i=1}^{N} O_{i} - CH_{3} & OR & H_{3}C - \underline{C}^{-} - CH_{3} \\ \\ & \bigcup_{i=1}^{N} O_{i} - CH_{3} & OR & H_{3}C - \underline{C}^{-} - CH_{3} \\ \\ & \bigcup_{i=1}^{N} O_{i} - CH_{3} & OR & H_{3}C - \underline{C}^{-} - CH_{3} \\ \\ & \bigcup_{i=1}^{N} O_{i} - CH_{3} & OR & H_{3}C - \underline{C}^{-} - CH_{3} \\ \\ & \bigcup_{i=1}^{N} O_{i} - CH_{3} & OR & H_{3}C - \underline{C}^{-} - CH_{3} \\ \\ & \bigcup_{i=1}^{N} O_{i} - CH_{3} & OR & H_{3}C - \underline{C}^{-} - CH_{3} \\ \\ & \bigcup_{i=1}^{N} O_{i} - CH_{3} & OR & H_{3}C - \underline{C}^{-} - CH_{3} \\ \\ & \bigcup_{i=1}^{N} O_{i} - CH_{3} & OR & H_{3}C - \underline{C}^{-} - CH_{3} \\ \\ & \bigcup_{i=1}^{N} O_{i} - CH_{3} & OR & H_{3}C - \underline{C}^{-} - CH_{3} \\ \\ & \bigcup_{i=1}^{N} O_{i} - CH_{3} & OR & H_{3}C - \underline{C}^{-} - CH_{3} \\ \\ & \bigcup_{i=1}^{N} O_{i} - CH_{3} & OR & H_{3}C - \underline{C}^{-} - CH_{3} \\ \\ & \bigcup_{i=1}^{N} O_{i} - CH_{3} & OR & H_{3}C - CH_{3} \\ \\ & \bigcup_{i=1}^{N} O_{i} - CH_{3} & OH_{3} \\ \\ & \bigcup_{i=1}^{N} O_{i} - CH_{3} & OH_{3} \\ \\ & \bigcup_{i=1}^{N} O_{i} - CH_{3} & OH_{3} \\ \\ & \bigcup_{i=1}^{N} O_{i} - CH_{3} & OH_{3} \\ \\ & \bigcup_{i=1}^{N} O_{i} - CH_{3} & OH_{3} \\ \\ & \bigcup_{i=1}^{N} O_{i} - CH_{3} & OH_{3} \\ \\ & \bigcup_{i=1}^{N} O_{i} - CH_{3} & OH_{3} \\ \\ & \bigcup_{i=1}^{N} O_{i} - CH_{3} & OH_{3} \\ \\ & \bigcup_{i=1}^{N} O_{i} - CH_{3} & OH_{3} \\ \\ & \bigcup_{i=1}^{N} O_{i} - CH_{3} & OH_{3} \\ \\ & \bigcup_{i=1}^{N} O_{i} - CH_{3} & OH_{3} \\ \\ & \bigcup_{i=1}^{N} O_{i} - CH_{3} & OH_{3} \\ \\ & \bigcup_{i=1}^{N} O_{i} - CH_{3} & OH_{3} \\ \\ & \bigcup_{i=1}^{N} O_{i} - CH_{3} & OH_{3} \\ \\ & \bigcup_{i=1}^{N} O_{i} - CH_{3} & OH_{3} \\ \\ & \bigcup_{i=1}^{N} O_{i} - CH_{3} & OH_{3} \\ \\ & \bigcup_{i=1}^{N}$$

 (4) Find out structure of the compound contain M.F. C₁₄H₁₂ & shows IR absorption at 3100-3000(m),1620-1590(s),1500-1400(s), 990, 770, 690 cm⁻¹

$$DBE = \frac{(2a+2)-(b-d)}{2}$$

$$DBE = \frac{(2 \times 14 + 2) - (12 - 0)}{2}$$

$$DBE = \frac{(28 + 2) - 12}{2}$$

$$DBE = \frac{30 - 12}{2} = \frac{18}{2}$$

$$DBE = 9$$
3100-3000 cm⁻¹ : C-H str of aromatic
1620-1590 cm⁻¹ : C=C str of aromatic
990 cm⁻¹ : C-H bending (trans isomer)
770 cm⁻¹
690 cm⁻¹] C-H bending out of plane

From the above information

- \rightarrow Nine double bond present
- \rightarrow Phenyl ring present
- \rightarrow Trans isomer present
- \rightarrow Monosubstituted phenyl ring

$$\begin{array}{c} C_{14}H_{12} \\ \hline C_{6}H_{5} \\ = \hline C_{8}H_{7} \\ \hline C_{2}H_{2} \\ = \hline C_{6}H_{5} \end{array}$$

:.

 \therefore Final structure of compound:



Chapter 4
NMR
Spectroscopy

NMR SPECTROSCOPY

Introduction:

NMR spectroscopy has become must important tool without any question for the organic chemist. It is a different type of absorption spectroscopy as compare to IR and UV-spectroscopy. Some of the nuclei absorb the electromagnetic radiation in the range of radio-frequency in presence of external magnetic field and governed by the characteristic of the compound.

The Jelix-Bloch and Edward Purcell have first discovered the phenomenon of nuclear magnetic resonance in 1964.

The elements which possess gyromagnetic ratio i.e. their nuclei behave like tiny bar magnets are responsible for nuclear magnetic resonance.

The nuclear magnetic resonance can be compelled to:

- 1. Reveal their presence
- 2. Self-identification
- 3. Environment

The principle of NMR spectroscopy:

We will try to explain the principle of NMR spectroscopy with the help of magnetic and electrical properties of some nuclei.

All nuclei carry a charge due to the presence of proton. In some nuclei, this charge deposited on their axis which resulted in spinning the nuclei and this circulation of charge (spinning of nuclei) will generate on their magnetic field (behaviour of nuclei as a bar magnet). Considering spinning nuclei as a top, it performs a slower motion like a top on X-axis which is known as precessional motion.

The precessional arises downward to the earth due to the effect of gravitational force, which is known as "gyroscopic-motion".

When these spinning nuclei are under applied (external) magnetic field, it feels

ω: Angular precession velocity

H₀: strength of applied magnetic field.

γ: Gyromagnetic ratio

r: magnetic moment of spinning nuclei

h: Plank's constant



The relation between electromagnetic frequencies with magnetic field strength is duplicated as under

$$v = \frac{\gamma H_0}{2\pi}$$
 or $\gamma H_0 = v * 2\pi$(2)

But from eq. (1) $\gamma = \frac{w}{H_0}$ put in eq.(2)

$$\frac{w}{H_0} \cdot H_0 = 2\pi v$$

$$w = 2\pi v$$

 \therefore Processional frequency is nothing but "the number of resolution per second made by the magnetic vector of the spinning nuclei in presence of external magnetic field [H₀]".

Magnetic and non-magnetic nuclei:

Nucleolus namely proton(+Ve), neutron (0charge) which are present in a nucleus of an atom. Due to this positively charged particles, nucleus possesses spin just like an electron. The circulation of this positive charge, generate a dipole moment along with the spinning axis, Which can be explained by "spin quantum number". Individual proton has spin quantum number +1/2 and -1/2 only.

Three broad principles of spin quantum number:

The total of spin quantum number (\pm) is the characteristic of a number of nuclei present in nucleus i.e. Mass number.

The element of the periodic table can be classified into two different classes on the basis of their Mass number.

Periodic table Elements:



Chemical shift:

The chemical shift can be defined as a position of the signal with reference to the signal position of standard (reference material) in NMR spectrum.

According to the principle of NMR, all the protons give a signal at the same position but practically it is not true because Larmor frequency of a nuclear spin relates to its chemical environment.

The chemical environment surrounding the nuclei is differing due to the electron present in a molecule. This type of valence electron generates on their magnetic field in presence of external magnetic field, which is resulting in "shielding and deshielding" effect.

If the generating magnetic field favours the external magnetic field, protons are deshielding and if it opposes the applied magnetic field: protons are "shielded".

In a molecule, the chemical environment is varied proton to proton. i.e. Electronic atmosphere differs from one proton to other hence the induced magnetic field generating by the electron is also differ which is also known as "local magnetic current".

This local magnetic current is responsible for making a different signal for the protons which have a different chemical environment.

On the basis of the fundamental equation of NMR, the position of the signal depends on the strength of applied magnetic field is changed; the absorption frequency is also changed. i.e. position of the signal is also change, which creates a problem to identify the characteristic of nuclei.

To avoid this problem, the scientist derived one standard scale for NMR spectrum.

 $\frac{Chemical Shift(\delta) =}{Frequency \ absorb \ by \ sample \ in \ Hz-Frequency \ absorb \ by \ standard \ in \ Hz}{Frequency \ of \ spectrophotometer \ Hz}}$

 $\delta = \frac{v_s - v_{std}}{v \, of \, spectrophotomater} \qquad \text{ppm}$

The unit of chemical shift is ppm i.e. parts per million of applied magnetic frequency.

The relation between τ and δ is



Organic chemistry is the chemistry of carbon and their covalent compound in which highest hybridization of "carbon" atom is sp^3 (four vacancies).

According to this we compare "Carbon" with "Silicon", silicon also has SP^3 hybridization and it is more electropositive than carbon. i.e. it makes co-ordinate bond with "Carbon".

TMS (Tetramethylsilane), when put under the external magnetic field, it absorbs the frequency in upfield as compare to another covalent compound of "Carbon". i.e. universally it is accepted the position of TMS is 0 ppm in δ -scale.

The advantage of TMS as an internal reference standard.



- \rightarrow It possesses maximum (12) number of equivalent protons.
- \rightarrow It is chemically inert and magnetically isotropic.
- \rightarrow It is low volatile compounds.
- \rightarrow Being four methyl group, miscible with most of the organic solvents.
- → Silicon is more electron positive as compared to "C" make all the proton shielded and absorb the frequency in up field.

Shielding and deshielding of protons:

The circulation of the electron; surround the nuclei can be compared to current in the wire as a physics mechanism. The strength of this current directly proposals to the density of the electron which are responsible for generating induced a magnetic field. Without the effect of any induced magnetic field, all the protons are shielded in presence of external magnetic fields. Induced magnetic field oppose the applied magnetics fields but their strength depends on the density of electrons. i.e., which make the proton deshielded (pressice the lower frequency)

Following factors are responsible for shielding and deshielding of protons:

(1) Effect of electronegative atom:

If any electron negative atom directly attaches with carbon to which interested protons are attached; these protons are deshielded.

Multiple substituents strengthen the effect as compare to the single substituent For eg.

 $R-CH_3: 0.7 \text{ to } 1.3 \text{ and}$

 $R\text{-}CH_2\text{-}R: 1.2 \text{ to } 1.4 \ \delta \text{ ppm}$

If any electron withdrawing group; attach to the carbon to which interested proton is attached make the proton deshielded; due to the decreasing the electron density on carbon:

О || R----СН₃

2.1 to 2.7 δ ppm

CH ₃ F	CH ₃ OH	CH ₃ Cl	CH ₃ Br	CH ₃ I	CH ₄
4.26	3.40	3.05	2.68	2.16	0.23

Substitution effect

CHCl ₃	CH ₂ Cl ₂	CH ₃ Cl
7.27	5.30	3.05

(2) S-character:

S-character is second important fact at which H- atom is attached.

All the hydrogen attached to the tetrahedral carbon atoms have absorbed the frequency in the range of 0-2 ppm if it is not nearby any electronegative atom or π resonance. For Example,

> 0 ----- 1 ----- 2 δ ppm CH₄ CH₂ -CH

When 'S' characters are an increase, S orbital bulls their electron toward nuclei which increase the deshielding.

In a vinyl proton; There is a p-bond which circulate the electrons and generate a p-current as a result generate the induced magnetic field. E = which is known as Magnetic anisotropy. These resulting the proton deshielding and absorb in the down field.



In an acetylene S character is an increase but S=due to 2 π -bond it also generates π current which

has a greater shielding effect. i.e. Greater Magnetic anatiotropy.



In an aromatic proton attached which sp2 carbon atom but in aromaticity ring when placed under the influenced of external magnetic field, due to the circulation of π - electron generates the ring current which is responsible for the generation of induced magnetic field.



Due to this type of magnetic anisotropy; Benzene protons are deshielded and show the absorption in down field.

(3) Effect of H-bond donor:

Generally, the proton which is attached with heteroatom has a characteristic of hydrogen bond donor which exhibit variable absorption all over the range. However, the absorption depends on the concentrations, temperature and solvent used for the scanning.

For Example;

Acid	о R—С—ОН	10.5- 12.00
Phenols	Ar —— OH	4-7
Alcohol s	ROH	0.5-5.0
Amines	RNH ₂	0.5-5.0
Amide	RCNH ₂	5.0-8.0
Enols	——нс==с н	·0肖 5-15

Spin-Spin interaction:

During the absorption proton will interact with adjacent atom proton; the relating of spin between these protons is known as spin-spin will split into more than one line, this phenomenon is known as spin-spin splitting. It will happen only between non-equivalent protons.

Generally, the splitting depends on the number of proton present on adjacent nuclei. i.e., it follows (n+1) rule. For example 1-Bromo 2,2 – Dichloro ethane





Splitting of a pattern of Multiplate:

Due to the interaction of spin- spin between the hydrogen present on adjacent atom; resulting in the splitting of the signals.

The multiplicity of the signal depends on the number of hydrogen present on the adjacent atom but the pattern depends on the spin- spin matching between the interactions of spin (direction of spin).

If interaction takes between two hydrogens than the possibility of the direction are (1) parallel and (2) antiparallel, so the possibility is 50-50 %, as a result, the signal obtained as a doublet with equal intensity.





The interaction ratio are same i.e, $H_A \rightarrow H_B$, $H_A \leftarrow H_B$ Splitting Pattern of Ethyl Group:



- \rightarrow Splitting of the signal follows the (n+1) rule.
- \rightarrow Splitting patterns will be observed according to Pascal's triangle.



Coupling constant (J):

Coupling constant is nothing but the measurement of relation between two interacted group or proton, which can be defined as under;

"Coupling constant is the distance between two lines of Multiplate."

The relation (value) depends on the dihedral angle between two coupling protons. It can be theoretically calculated using Karplus equation.

 $3JHH' = A + B \cos \phi + C \cos 2\phi$(1)

Practically it can be calculated using following equation.

J_HAB

= Chemical shift of first line of doublet

- chemical shift of second line of doublet

 \times operating frequency"

For example



= 1.31 - 1.21 * 60Hz = 0.10 * 60 Hz = 6 H

Spectrum of ethyl group
Table of coupling constant for standard group

Type	\mathbf{I} , (\mathbf{H}_{7})	I. Tynical
Ethyl	0-30	12-15
Vinyl		
(1) Geminal	0-3	0-2
(2) Vicinal	6-12	10
Ortho	6-10	9
Meta	1-3	3
Para	0-1	~0
Cis	6-12	10
Trans	12-18	17

Nomenclature of spin system: AMX, A₂B

The spin system can be designed on the basis of types of proton on which interaction is possible and also the distance between signals of these interacted protons as well as a number of protons.

For example:

- → If the signal obtained near to each other i.e. ΔV/J < 8, and it possesses three types of protons that it can be designed as ABC system.</p>
- → If system possess three types of the proton but two signals are near to each other i.e. $\Delta V/J < 8$ and one of them far from remaining two i.e. $\Delta V/J > 8$; then the system can be designed as an ABX system.
- → The system contains only two types of protons and has large chemical shift difference i.e. $\Delta V/J > 8$; it can be designed as AX system while the small difference of chemical shift i.e. $\Delta V/J < 8$ then it can be depicted as AB system.
- → If system contains three types of proton out of them one show of the absorption in upper field, second one at middle part and third one at lower field than it

can be reported as AMX system, but out of these three protons they absorbed at upper field while remaining one at down field then it can be designed as A_2X system.

On the basis of above discussion following spin system is possible.

Two types of system	Three system	types	of
AB	A ₂ B		
XY	AB_2		
AX	AMX		
A_2	XYZ		
-	X_2Y		
	ABX		

Order of the spectrum and shape of the signals:

- → The ratio of the chemical shift towards the coupling constant gives the information regarding the order of the spectrum.
- → If the $\Delta V/J > 10$, the order of the spectrum is a firstorder i.e. well-resolved spectrum and the shape of the multiplate follow the Pascale triangle.
- → If the $\Delta V/J < 10$, the spectrum can be considered as a 'Non-first order' spectrum i.e. poor resolution and the shape of the multiplate is destroyed.

System	Line Shape	$\Delta V/J$
AX		$\Delta V/J > 15$
		$\Delta V/J > 6$
		> 3

AB	Mu	1.5
AB	 	0.5
A2		0

Method for the conversion of Non-first order to first – order spectrum:

In many compounds, due to the similar chemical environment, the absorption occurs in the nearby region as well as no. of protons present on the adjacent atom; shows the higher multiplicity, as a result, overlapping of signals, spectrum convert into non-first order spectrum.

To remove the complexity of the spectrum following techniques are available:

- (1) Chemical techniques
- (2) Instrumental techniques

(1) Chemical techniques:

In chemical technique by using the chemicals either by labelling the protons or derivatisation of a particular group; the complex pattern of the spectrum can be removed. For example:



iii. Lanthanide shift reagent:

Lanthanide atom have a greater tendency to form a complex by accepting the electron into their vacant d- orbitals as a resulting density of electrons or proton of ligand is decreased and it becomes shielded (i.e. shifting of the signals), which resulted in converting non-first order spectrum to first order spectrum.



(2) Instrumental techniques:

Either increasing the strength of the magnetic field or by introducing the particular group frequency; complex spectrum can be converted into a simple spectrum.

Nomenclature for magnetic nonequivalent protons:

If the system possess chemically equivalent but magnetically nonequivalent protons than it absorb the frequency very close to each other but interaction takes places between them; as a result splitting of the signal is possible, which can be designated by putting the prime." For example:



So the spinning system can be depicted as AA'BB' system.

Identification of spin (protons):

The identification of spin in terms of the proton can be possible by symmetry elements. The equivalency of proton can be checked by the plane of the symmetry or by rotational axis. If it is same than a proton is chemically equivalent and viceversa.



Therefore both methyl group chemically equivalent and shows only one signal as a singlet. For magnetically equivalent.

Magnetically non-equivalent, generally observed in unsaturated compound i.e. single bond rotation is not possible.

For example,



The H_A and $H_{A'}$ are enantiomers but if we measure the distance of H_B to $H_{A'}$ and $H_{B'}$ to $H_{A'}$ are not same. i.e.(bond concentricity) $H_B \rightarrow H_A'$: 5 [Long range coupling]

 $H_B' \rightarrow H_A'$:3 [ortho coupling]

Same for H_A to H_B : 3 & H_A to H_B ' : 5

So H_A and H_A ' are magnetically not equivalent.

From the above discussion, it is concluded that,

 \rightarrow Chemically non-equivalent \rightarrow Magnetically non-equivalent

 \rightarrow Magnetically non-equivalent \rightarrow May be chemically equivalent.

Interpretation of ¹H NMR:

- → Calculate the No. of peaks (signals) observed in the spectrum. It gives types of protons present in molecules.
- \rightarrow Intensity of the peaks(Signals)

It represents no. of protons present in individual peaks.(Area under curve).

 \rightarrow Multiplicity of the signals:

It gives the information regarding the no. of proton present on the adjacent atom.

 \rightarrow Position of signals:

It gives the information about the chemical atmosphere surrounding the protons.

For example

1) Propyl bromide





Instrumentation:

Two type of NMR spectrophotometer is available:

- (1) Continuous wave spectrophotometer (permanent magnet)
- (2) Fourier Transfer NMR Spectrophotometer

Nowadays for higher magnetic fields, strength; Fourier transform NMR is applicable while for the batch top model is available with continuous wave spectrophotometer.

\rightarrow Continuous wave spectrophotometer

Continuous wave spectrophotometer is working either field sweep (variant magnet) or frequency sweep. Generally, frequency is constant is more suitable than magnet.



The important component of the spectrophotometer 7 their functions are as under:

1. Powerful Magnet:

Certain metal has a characteristic to produce strong magnetic fields by their superconductivity properties when it kept extremely low temperature.

It provides homogeneous continuous magnetic field up to 2.5 tesla.

2. Sample Probe:

It is typically designed devices where sample should be held between two poles of a strong magnet.

It contains transmission coil from where RF frequency waves pass through the sample.

It contains receiver coil at a right angle to the transmittance coil which receives output from the sample.

It is connected with turbo air jet which spin the sample tube.

3. Radiofrequency Oscillators:

It generates the RF for whole the range by electronic multiplication of natural frequency of a quartz crystal. This was held in a thermostatic block. The directions of the RF coil is perpendicular to the magnet.

4. **Detector:**

The detector is nothing but the receiver coil. The position of the receiver coil is perpendicular to the RF coil and magnet also.

It receives the transmit frequency from the sample & amplitude it & sends to the recorder.

5. Recorder & Integrator:

It records the spectrum in the form of resonance peak on Y-axis against the strength of the magnetic field on X- axis.

Fourier Transform NMR (FT-NMR)

In Fourier transform technique, The RF frequency of interested nuclei with reference to their Larmor frequency is applied at a time. As a result, the diagram magnetisation creates in the sample. Once the excitation stops, the nucleolus will be released spontaneously by spin-spin relaxation process which is responsible for providing homogeneous field and all the nuclei showed free induction decay (FID) if it is signal spin and for multipins compound shows interferogram. This FID or interferogram converted into frequency dominant spectrum with the help of a computer.



List of solvent used for the NMR Scanning:

Generally, the Deuterated solvent is used for the study of NMR in the liquid phase.

Sr. No.	Name of Solvent	Chemical Shift	
		Residual peak	Peak of residual
		(δ ppm)	water (δ ppm)
1	CCl ₄	No Peak	-
2	CDCl ₃	7.26	1.6
3	DMDO- d ₆	2.50	3.3
4	CD ₃ OD	4.87, 3.31	4.87
5	D ₂ O	4.8	4.8
6	C_6D_6	7.16	0.4
7	CD ₃ COOD	11.65,2.04	-
8	$(CD_3)_2CO$	2.05	2.8
	(Acetone)		

General application oh ¹H NMR:

(1) Structure Determination:



This ketone & enol form is possible in ethyl acetoacetate: After scanning for NMR:

For Structure (A) $CH_3 - Singlet$ $CH_3 - Triplet$ $CH_2 - Quartet$ $CH_2 - Signet$

For different signals with peak area three &

three proton as well as two-two protons.

- For Structure (B) CH_3 Singlet CH_3 – Triplet CH_2 – Quartet CH – Singlet -OH – Singlet broad
- (2) Identification of Geometrical Isomer:





(4) Quantification of Molecular weight:

By using the reference standard and comparing integrated intensity with an unknown recognisable peak for the solution of unknown contain the known weight of each reference standard Of unknown compound.

$$M = \frac{H_0 M_0 n. w}{H n_0 w_0}$$

Here, M = Molecular weight of Unknown compound

 M_0 = Molecular weight of Ref. Standard

H = Height (In terms of intensity of Ref. standard)

 H_0 = Height (In terms of intensity of unknown comp)

w = weight of ref. standard

 w_0 = weight of unknown compound

n= no. of peaks of unknown protons

 $n_0 = no.$ of peaks of Ref. std.

(5) For the conformational Analysis:



²D NMR Technique:

²D NMR techniques are also known as multiple plus programme. According to the mechanism of Fourier transformer NMR techniques magnetisation vector M_o staying on Z- axis which can be related to xy plane by $\pi/2$ pulses of RT. During their relaxation time, if came back to the time T₁. Now after some time interval, it can be further irradiated with different frequency pulse, So two variant with the time acquisition T₂. So it is known as ²D NMR technique. [i.e. Two different frequency used with time interval T₁].



²D NMR technique is also known as coherence spectroscopy. Nowadays a number of techniques are available as under:

(1) Correlation spectroscopy (COSY)

In this techniques, Two $\pi/2$ pulses are differentiated by required evaluation time T₁.If same nuclei are used for the study then it is known as Homonuclear correlation spectroscopy (HOMO-COSY). i.e. ¹H - ¹H COSY. Two different nuclei are used for the study that the technique is known as 'HETERO Nuclei Correlation Spectroscopy'. i.e. HETCOR.

Interpretation:

The aim of this technique is to assign all proton resonance in the spectrum.

- \rightarrow The Matching of diagonal peak to the equivalent resonance in the ¹D spectrum.
- \rightarrow Same practices do for all subsequent resonance peaks.
- → Coupled spin are then correlated with stepwise movement via starting and finishing at diagonal line peak as an intermediate cross peak.





(2) Total Correlation spectroscopy (TOCSY)

In the ¹D spectrum of a proton; provides the information regarding coupling up to Geminal & vicinal proton within a molecule. TOCSY is able to establish a correlation between protons that present in the same spin system. i.e , provides continuous chain of spin-spin coupled protons.



(3) INADEQUATE:

Incredible Natural Abundance Double Quantum Transfer Experiment is useful for the correlating. The experiment is useful for the correlating nuclides, which possess relatively low natural abundance ratio in between 1-20 %. Generally 1D INADEQUATE use to measure carboncarbon coupling. The complete carbon skeleton of the molecule can be traced directly in the molecule. 2D INADEQUATE is double filter INADEQUATE technique which suppresses the noise of homonuclied.



Heteronuclear Multiple Quantum Correlation (HMQC):

This technique is useful to detect proton signal bond relation. This ²D spectrum provides a simple connectivity in which a cross peak correlates two attached nuclei.

The three most significant features illustrate are as under:

- \rightarrow Known proton assignment
- → Dispersion of proton peak according to heteronuclear peak.
- \rightarrow To identify dia-stereotropic Geminal proton.



Heteronuclear Single Quantum Correlation (HSQC)

HSQC is the same experiment as an HMBC only different is magnetisation is transferred to the heteronuclear atom by attaching proton via polarisation during t_1 .

The disadvantages of HSQC over an HMBC is the greater number of pulses is utilise. As with HMBC suppression of parent resonance is required.



Resolved Spectroscopy (ROSY)

This technique is associated with simplification of crowded proton spectrum.

Following types of Resolved spectroscopy have been depicted in literature.

- [1]. Heteronuclear J- resolved: It is a technique to separate heteronuclear coupling from the chemical shift. It is applicable for the measurement of the heteronuclear coupling constant.
- [2]. Homonuclear J-resolved: it is a technique to separate homonuclear coupling by chemical shift. It is useful for the direct measurement of homonuclear coupling for overlapping spectrum.
- [3]. Indirect Homonuclear J- resolve: It is a technique to separate the proton homonuclear coupling with respect to the chemical shift of attached heteroatom. It is applicable for the measurement of long-range coupling.



The Nuclear Overhauser Effect:

The NOE may be defined on the increasing or decreasing in the intensity of resonance when the spin transition of one of them are somehow perturbed from their equivalent population, The magnitude is represented as a relative intensity change between the equilibrium intensity. I_0 & that in the presence of NOE I such as

$$n_1\{S\} = \frac{I - I_0}{I_0} x \ 100$$

 $n_1{S} = NOE$ observed for a spin I at the time S(spin) perturbed.

The relaxation of excited spin is possible by the transfer of energy via spin-spin relaxation or lattice relaxation. The spin-spin relaxation is directly related to the distance between these spin. The spin relaxation via space is only possible if the distance is generally less than 2-4 Å. This increases the intensity



Following techniques are reported for NOE.

[1]. **NOEs:** It is established for spatial proximity between protons. It is applicable for small molecule [m.w.<<1000].

- [2]. **NOESY:** It is the same technique as NOEs but it is applicable for small molecule [Mw<1000] as well as large molecules [MW>2000]. It is applicable for the measurement of intermolecular separation.
- [3]. **HOESY:** It is a technique for the heteronuclear NOEs through space. ¹H-¹³C can provide useful Stereochemical information in case of homonuclear is doubtful for insufficient.
- [4]. **EXSY:** It is a programme to determine qualitative exchange pathway in a dynamic system with exchange rate is slow can't be differentiated by chemical shift.

¹³C NMR Spectroscopy:

As per the three broad principles of NMR spectroscopy; ¹²C possess spin quantum number I=0, so it is NMR inactive but their isotope ¹³C possess I=1/2 same as ¹H, so it is NMR active and shows the signal in NMR spectrum. Only the difference of ¹³C & ¹H NMR is the abundance ratio of ¹³C is 1.1% while in the case of ¹H is 99% so sensitivity is only 1.16% that of the ¹H overall sensitivity of ¹³C compared to ¹H is 1/5700.

Key feature of ¹³C NMR spectroscopy:

- → The chemical shift value for ¹³C NMR spectroscopy is $\delta = 0.200$ ppm with respect to the internal reference standard.
- → Due to low chance ratio ${}^{13}C {}^{13}C$ coupling is negligible; so proton decouple spectrum shows singlet for each non-equivalent carbon.
- \rightarrow The peak high of the signal is related to the relaxation time to the equivalent carbon.
- \rightarrow The chemical shift of carbon affected by magnetic anisotropy and electronegativity same as ¹H NMR.

- → The proton couple spectrum; The signal of each carbon split as a per (n+1) rule; where n= no. of protons attached to the same carbon.
- → The compares to 13 C gyromagnetic ratio with 1 H is one-fourth; so operation frequency for 13 C NMR is 25.2 MHz while for proton is 100MHz.

Proton Decoupled spectra:

In the technique, the coupling of the proton is completely removed with carbon atom by increasing the rate of excitation of the proton with a band of radio frequency. This resulting each proton rapidly change their spin between two spin levels in short time i.e, Proton has no sufficient time to interact with carbon nuclei. So it's population difference between two level is zero i.e, coupling result with carbon atom is zero & each carbon peak appeared as a singlet. The no. of carbon peak appeared as a symmetry of the molecule.



OFF Resonance Decoupling:

This technique is also known as proton-coupled spectrum. In short in this technique; Proton couple with a carbon atom, where it has been directly bonded.

The splitting of the carbon signal occurs as a per (n=1) rule; where n= proton directly attached to the carbon atoms.

The disadvantage of this technique is that intensity of the signals is low due to 1.1 % abundance ratio and hetero-coupling value is high so get a broad spectrum.

Distortionless Enhancement by Polarisation Transfer (DEPT)

In a recent advance in proton decoupled spectrum is series of proton pulse set at 45° , 90° and 135° as three separate experiments. The signal intensity for each practical depends on the proton attached with particular carbon atoms.

In DEPT experiment three separate spectra are obtained.

- 1. One is normal proton decoupled spectrum.
- **2.** Second is run at 90° pulses which show only methine proton signals.
- **3.** Third one is run at 135⁰ pulse which shows methine and Methylene signal as normal while methylene signal appears as a negative peak.



Calculation for chemical shift on ¹³C NMR

Alkane: It can be affected up to δ effect



3,3-dimethylpentane

Calculation for C1: It has one α , one β , three γ and one δ carbon.

δc1	= -2.5 + (9.1 * 1)+(9.4*1)+(-2.5*3)+(.3+1) = -2.5+9.1+9.4-7.5+0.3 =8.8
δ c2	= -2.5 + (9.1 * 2) + (9.4*3) + (-2.5*1) + (.3+1) = -2.5+18.2+28.2-2.5 =41.4

$$\delta c3 = -2.5 + (9.1 * 4) + (9.4 * 2)$$

= -2.5+36.4+18.8
= 52.7

$$\delta c6 = -2.5 + (9.1 * 1) + (9.4 * 3) + (-2.5 * 2)$$

=-2.5+9.1+28.2-5.0
=29.8

Branched Alkane:



pentane-3,3-diol

$$C\delta = -2.5 + (9.1^{*}2) + (9.4^{*}2) + (41^{*}2)$$
$$= -2.5 + 18.2 + 18.4 + 82$$
$$= 116.1$$

$$C\beta = -2.5 + (9.1^{*}2) + (9.4^{*}2) + (-2.5^{*}1) + 8$$

=-2.5+18.2+9.4 -2.5+6
= 38.6

$$C\gamma = -2.5 + (9.1*1) + (9.4*1) + (-2.5*1) + (0.3) - 10$$

= -2.5+9.1+9.4-2.5+0.3-10
= 3.8



For Terminal Carbon compound



$$\begin{array}{ll} C_1 & = 128.5 + 2.9 = 131.4 \\ C_2 & = 128.5 + 1.3 = 129.8 \\ C_3 & = 128.5 + 0.4 = 128.9 \\ C_4 & = 128.5 + 4.3 = 132.6 \end{array}$$







 $\begin{array}{lll} C_1 & = 128.5 + 2.9 - 9.5 = 121.9 \\ C_2 & = 128.5 + 1.3 + 1.3 = 131.1 \\ C_3 & = 128.5 + 0.4 - 12.4 = 116.5 \\ C_4 & = 128.5 + 4.3 + 19.2 = 152.0 \end{array}$

¹H NMR example

(1) Assign the structure to a compound from following NMR results.

 $M.F. = C_7H_5OCl_3$ Multiplicity Coupling Chemical No. of shift in δ protons constant ppm 3.9 S 3H 6.7 1H 9.0 Hz d 7.25 d 1H 9.0 Hz

(i) First find out double bond equivalent by using following equation

$$DBE = \frac{(2a+2)-(b-d)}{2} \quad a= \text{No. of carbon,}$$
$$DBE = \frac{(2*7+2)-(8-0)}{2} \quad b= \text{No. of Monovalent}$$
ion
$$DBE = \frac{16-8}{2} \qquad d= \text{No. of trivalent ion}$$

$$DBE = \frac{8}{2}$$
$$DBE = 4$$

(ii) Derive the conclusion from DBE

4= Four double bond present or

- = Three double bond + one Cycle
- = two double bond + two cycle
- = One double bond + three cycle
- (iii) From the given chemical shift value it is found that
 - \rightarrow One alkyl group containing three equivalent proton attach with electronegative atom may be present

 \therefore -OCH₃ may be present.

 \rightarrow 6.7 δ ppm one signal appeared as a double with coupling constant 9.0 Hz and second signal appeared at 7.25 with same coupling constant value

It means these two protons are aromatic in nature and couples with each other by ortho coupling

- : From the above discussion
- One $-OCH_3$ group present
- ✤ Aromatic present with two proton as an ortho coupling



H_a proton is shielded as compare to H_b means: H_a proton at ortho position of –OCH₃ group & H_b at ortho position of –Cl atom.

So, Structure of the compound is as below.



(2) C₄H₇BrO₂

Chemical shift in oppm	Multiplicity	No. of proton	Coupling constant
1.08	Triplet	3Н	-
2.07	Quintet	2H	-
4.23	Triplet	1H	
10.97	Singlet	1H	

$$DBE = \frac{(2a+2)-(b-d)}{2}$$
$$DBE = \frac{(2*4+2)-(8-0)}{2}$$
$$DBE = \frac{10-8}{2}$$
$$DBE = 1$$

1.08	Triplet	3H	∴-CH ₃ group with neighbour 2H
2.07	Quintet	2H	- CH_2 group with 3H as a neighbour
4.23	Triplet	1H	- CH group attach with electronegative

			group & 2H as a neighbouring
			proton
10.97	Singlet	1H	- COOH group



(3) C₁₀H₁₀O

Chemical	Multiplicity	No. of	Coupling
shift in τ		proton	constant
ppm			
7.75	Singlet	3H	-
3.40	Doublet	1H	16.5
2.60	Doublet	1H	16.5
2.8 to 2.4	Multiplate	5H	-

$$DBE = \frac{(2a+2)-(b-d)}{2}$$
$$DBE = \frac{(2*10+2)-(10-0)}{2}$$
$$DBE = \frac{22-10}{2}$$
$$DBE = 6$$

→ 7.75 τ singlet 3H -CH₃ group attach with electron withdrawing group \therefore -COCH₃

 $\rightarrow 3.40$ doublet 1H 16.5 Hz and 2.60 16.5 Hz Doublet 1H that SO both proton appeared in downfield & coupled with each other i.e, sp^2

protons : -CH=CH

 \therefore Out of two , one appeared downfield as compare to other

 \therefore One attach with electron withdrawing group; in downfield while other with electron donating group at upfield.

 \rightarrow 2.8 to 2.9 Multiplate 5H Aromatic ring as a mono substitution.



(4) $C_5H_9BrO_2$

Chemical	Multiplicity	No. of	Coupling
shift in δ		proton	constant
ppm			
1.3	Triplet	3H	7 Hz
1.8	Doublet	3H	7 Hz
4.2	Quartet	2H	7 Hz
4.3	Quartet	1H	7 Hz

$$DBE = \frac{(2a+2)-(b-d)}{2}$$
$$DBE = \frac{(2*5+2)-(10-0)}{2}$$
$$DBE = \frac{12-10}{2} = \frac{2}{2}$$
$$DBE = 1$$

1.3 -CH₃ group with 2H as a 3H Triplet neighbouring protons 1.8 3H Doublet -CH₃ group near to the carbon attached with 1 proton & electronegative atom 4.2 2HQuartet -CH₂ group with 3H as a neighbouring protons & attach electron withdrawing with group. 4.3 Quartet -CH group with 3H as a 1Hneighbouring proton attach

with electronegative atom

From the above discussion

 → One CH₃-CH₂ & second CH₃-CH group present, so C₄H₉
But given Molecular Formulla is C₅H₉BrO₂
<u>- C₄H₉</u>
= CBrO₂

 \therefore COO group also present which is reflected in chemical shift of -CH₂ & -CH group



(5) Draw the different isomer corresponding to C₄H₉I show the important difference in their NMR spectra & which of the isomer has the NMR shown below data:

1.02	Triplet	J=7 & 12 Hz
1.72	Quintet	7 Hz
1.92	Doublet	7 Hz
4.17	Sextet	-

Structure of Isomer I

Structure of Isomer II



Given data match with this isomer

Structure of Isomer III

Shown only one signal for a proton

Coupling constant value of ¹J_{CH}

Compound	J (Hz)
sp ³	
CH ₃ CH ₃	124.9
CH ₃ CH ₂ CH ₃	119.2
$(CH_3)_3CH$	114.2
CH ₃ NH ₂	133.0
CH ₃ OH	141.0
CH ₃ Cl	150.0
CH_2Cl_2	178.0
CHCl ₃	209.0
\checkmark	
	123.0
Н	128.0
Ц	134.0
Д	161.0
H	205.0

sp ²	
CH ₂ =CH ₂	156.2
$CH_3CH=C(CH_3)_2$	148.4
CH <u>3C</u> H=O	172.4
NH ₂ CH=O	188.3
C_6H_6	159.0
~	
Sp	
CH≡CH	249.0
$C_6H_5C\equiv CH$	251.0
HC≡N	269.0

Some ${}^{2}J_{CH}$ Value

Compound	J (Hz)
sp ³	
$C\underline{H}_3\underline{C}H_3$	-4.5
$C\underline{H}_3\underline{C}Cl_3$	5.9
$\underline{C}H_3C\underline{H}=O$	26.7
sp^2	
$C\underline{H}_2 = \underline{C}H_2$	-2.4
$(C\underline{H}_3)_3\underline{C}=O$	5.5
$CH_2 = \underline{C}HC\underline{H} = O$	26.9
$^{*}C_{6}H_{6}$	1.0
sp	
C <u>H</u> ≡ <u>C</u> H	49.3
$C_6H_5OC \equiv CH$	61.0
$^{*2}J = 7.6 (> ^{2}J)$	

The ¹³C shift parameter in some Linear and Branched Hydrocarbons

¹³ C Atoms	Shift (ppm) (A)
α	+9.1
β	+9.4
γ	-2.5
δ	+0.3
3	+0.1
$1^{0} (3^{0})^{a}$	-1.1
$1^{0} (4^{0})^{a}$	-3.4
$2^{0} (3^{0})^{a}$	-2.5
$2^{0}(4^{0})$	-7.2
$3^{0}(2^{0})$	-3.7
$3^{0}(3^{0})$	-9.5
$4^{0}(1^{0})$	-1.5
$4^{0}(2^{0})$	-8.4

^a The notations 1^{0} (3^{0}) and 1^{0} (4^{0}) denote a CH₃ group bound to a R₂CH group and to a R₃C group, respectively. The notation 2^{0} (3^{0}) denote a RCH₂ group bound to a R₂Ch group, and so on.

The ¹³C shift for some Linear and Branched-chain Alkanes (ppm from TMS)

Compound	C-1	C-2	C-3	C-4	C-5
Methane	-2.3				
Ethane	5.7				
Propane	15.8	16.3	15.8		
Butane	13.4	25.2	25.2		
Pentane	13.9	22.8	34.7	22.8	13.9
Hexane	14.1	23.1	32.2	32.2	23.1
Heptane	14.1	23.2	32.6	29.7	32.6
Octane	14.2	23.2	32.6	29.9	29.9
Nonane	14.2	23.3	32.6	30.0	30.3
Decane	14.2	23.2	32.6	31.1	30.5
Isobutane	24.5	25.4			
Isopentane	22.2	31.1	32.0	11.7	
Isohexane	22.7	28.0	42.0	20.9	14.3
Neopentane	31.7	28.1			

2,2-	29.1	30.6	36.9	8.9
Dimethylbutane				
3-	11.5	29.5	36.9	(18.8,
Dimethylpentane				3-
				CH ₃)
2,3-	19.5	34.3		
Dimethybutane				
2,2,3-	27.4	33.1	38.3	16.1
Trimethylbutane				
2,3-	7.0	25.3	36.3	(14.6,
Dimethylpentane				3-
_				CH ₃)

Incremental Substituent Effect(ppm) on replacement of H by Y in alkanes. Y is Terminal or internal^a (+ left, - right)

β γ γ γ γ γ γ					
	Terminal		Interna	al e	
Y	α		Ê	γ	
	Terminal	Internal	Terminal	Internal	
CH ₃	+9	+6	+10	+8	-2
CH=CH ₂	+20		+6		-0.5
C≡CH	+4.5		+5.5		-3.5
COOH	+21	+16	+3	+2	-2
C00 ⁻	+25	+20	+5	+3	-2
COOR	+20	+17	+3	+2	-2
COCl	+33	+28		02	
CONH ₂	+22		+2.5		-0.5
COR	+30	+24	+1	+1	-2
CHO	+31		0		-2
Phenyl	+23	+17	+9	+7	-2
OH	+48	+41	+10	+8	-5
OR	+58	+51	+8	+5	-4
OCOR	+51	+45	+6	+5	-3
NH ₂	+29	+24	+11	+10	-5
NH_3^+	+26	+24	+8	+6	-5
NHR	+37	+31	+8	+6	-4
-----------------	-----	-----	-----	-----	----
NR ₂	+42		+6		-3
NR_3^+	+31		+5		-7
NO ₂	+63	+57	+4	+4	
CN	+4	+1	+3	+30	-3
SH	+11	+11	+12	+11	-4
SR	+20		+7		-3
F	+68	+63	+9	+6	-4
Cl	+31	+32	+11	+10	-4
Br	+20	+25	+11	+10	-3
Ι	-6	+4	+11	+12	-1

Chemical shift of Cycloalkanes (ppm from TMS)

C ₃ H ₆	-2.9	C ₇ H ₁₄	28.4
C_4H_8	22.4	C ₈ H ₁₆	26.9
C ₅ H ₁₀	25.6	$C_{9}H_{18}$	26.1
C ₆ H ₁₂	26.9	$C_{10}H_{20}$	25.3

Chemical Shift for saturated Heterocycles (ppm from TMS)





Alkene and Cycloalkene Chemical Shifts (ppm from TMS)Alkyne Chemical Shifts (ppm)

Compound	C-1	C-2	C-3	C-4	C-5	C-6
1-Butyne	67.0	84.7				
2-Butyne		73.6				
1-Hexyne	68.1	84.5	18.1	30.7	21.9	13.5
2-Hexyne	2.7	73.7	76.9	19.6	21.6	12.1
3-Hexyne	15.4	130	80.9			

Incremental Shifts of the Aromatic carbon Atoms of Mono substituent Benzenes (ppm from Benzene at 128.5 ppm, + to the left, - to the right). Carbon Atom of Substituents in parts per million from TMS^a

Substituent	C-1 (Attachment)	C-2	C-3	C-4	C of substituent (ppm from TMS)
Н	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	
CH ₃	+9.3	+0.7	-0.1	-2.9	21.3
CH ₂ CH ₃	+15.6	-0.5	0.0	-2.6	29.2(CH ₂), 15.8 (CH ₃)
CH(CH ₃) ₂	+20.1	-2.0	0.0	-2.5	34.4 (CH), 24.1 (CH ₃)
C(CH ₃) ₃	+22.2	-3.4	-0.4	-3.1	34.5 (C), 31.4 (CH ₃)
CH==CH ₂	+9.1	-2.4	+0.2	-0.5	137.1 (CH), 113.3 (CH ₂)
C≡CH	-5.8	+6.9	+0.1	+0.4	84.0 (C), 77.8 (CH)
C ₆ H ₅	+12.1	-1.8	-0.1	-1.6	
CH ₂ OH	+13.3	-0.8	-0.6	-0.4	64.5
H₂C O C CH₃ ║ O	+7.7	~0.0	~0.0	~0.0	20.7 (CH ₃),66.1 (CH ₂), 170.5

					(C-O)
OH	+26.6	-127	+1.6	-7.3	(0=0)
OCH ₂	+31.4	-14.4	+1.0	-7.7	54.1
OC ₄ H ₅	+29.0	-9.4	+1.6	-5.3	0
	+22.4	-7.1	- 0.4	-3.2	22.0 (CH)
					$23.9(CH_3),$
0					169.7
					(C=O)
-CH	+8.2	+1.2	+0.6	+5.8	192.0
0	+7.8	-0.4	-0.4	+2.8	24.6 (CH ₃).
Ĭ					195.7
C CH₃					(C=O)
0	+9.1	+1.5	-0.2	+3.8	196.4
Ёс ₆ н ₅					(C=O)
0	-5.6	+1.8	+0.7	+6.7	
ĊCF₃					
0 I	+2.9	+1.3	+ 0.4	+4.3	168.0
Сон					
0	+2.0	+1.2	-0.1	+4.8	51.0 (CH ₃),
					166.8
					(C=O),
	1.6	2.0	0.6	7.0	168.5
0	+4.6	+2.9	+0.6	+7.0	
ссі					
0 0	+5.0	-1.2	0.0	+3.4	
CNH₂					
C≡N	-16.0	+3.6	+0.6	+4.3	119.5
NH ₂	+19.2	-12.4	+1.3	-9.5	
N(CH₃)₂	+22.4	-15.7	+0.8	-11.8	40.3
0	+11.1	-9.9	+0.2	-5.6	
Ĭ					
HN∙C∙CH ₃					
NO ₂	+19.6	-5.3	+0.9	+6.0	
N=C=O	+5.7	-3.6	+1.2	-2.8	129.5
F	+35.1	-14.3	+0.9	-4.5	
CI	+6.4	+0.2	+1.0	-2.0	
Br	-5.4	+3.4	+2.2	-1.0	
1	-32.2	+9.9	+2.6	-7.3	
CF ₃	+2.6	-3.1	+0.4	+3.4	
SH	+2.3	+0.6	+0.2	-3.3	
SCH ₃	+10.2	-1.8	+0.4	-3.6	15.9
SO ₂ NH ₂	+15.3	-2.9	+0.4	+3.3	
Si(CH ₃) ₃	+13.4	+4.4	-1.1	-1.1	

Shifts for Carbon atoms of Heteroaromatics (neat, ppm from TMS)

Compound	C-2	C-3	C-4	C-5	C-6	Subst ituent
Furan	142.7	109.6				
2- Methyl furan	152.2	106.2	110.9	141.2		13.4
Furan-2-	153.3	121.7	112.9	148.5		178.2
Carboxaldeh yde						
Methy 2-	144.8	117.9	111.9	146.4		159.1
Furoate						(C=O
),
						51.8 (CH)
Pyrrole	118.4	108.0				(СП3)
2.	127.2	105.0	108.1	1167		12.4
2- Methvlpvrro	127.2	105.9	100.1	110.7		12.4
le						
Pyrrole-2-	134.0	123.0	112.0	129.0		178.9
Carbozaldeh						
yde						
Thiophene	124.4	126.2				
2-Methyl	139.0	124.7	126.4	122.6		14.8
thiophene						
Thiophene- 2-	143.3	136.4	128.1	134.6		182.8
carboxaldeh						
yde						
Thiazole	152.2		142.4	118.5		
Imidazole	136.2		122.3	122.3		
Pyridine	150.2	123.9	135.9			
Pyrimidine	159.5		157.4	122.1	157.4	
Pyrazine	145.6					
2-	154.0	141.8 ^a	143.8 ^a	144.7^{a}		21.6
Methylpyraz ine						

^aAssignment not certain

Shifts Position for Alkyl Halide (neat, ppm from TMS)

Compound	C-1	C-2	C-3
CH ₄	-2.3		
CH ₃ F	75.4		
CH ₃ Cl	24.9		
CH ₂ Cl ₂	54.0		

CHCl ₃	77.5		
CCl ₄	96.5		
CH ₃ Br	10.0		
CH ₂ Br ₂	21.4		
CHBr ₃	12.1		
CBr ₄	-28.5		
CH ₃ I	-220.7		
CH ₂ I ₂	-54.0		
CHI ₃	-129.9		
CI ₄	-292.5		
CH ₃ CH ₂ F	79.3	14.6	
CH ₃ CH ₂ Cl	39.9	18.7	
CH ₃ CH ₂ Br	28.3	20.3	
CH ₃ CH ₂ I	-0.2	21.6	
CH ₃ CH ₂ CH ₂ Cl	46.7	26.5	11.5
CH ₃ CH ₂ CH ₂ Br	35.7	26.8	13.2
CH ₃ CH ₂ CH ₂ I	10.0	27.6	16.2

Shift Position of Acyclic and Alicyclic Amines (neat, ppm from TMS)

Compound	C-1	C-2	C-3	C-4
CH ₃ NH ₂	26.9			
CH ₃ CH ₂ NH ₂	35.9	17.7		
CH ₃ CH ₂ CH ₂ NH ₂	44.9	27.3	11.2	
CH ₃ CH ₂ CH ₂ CH ₂ NH ₂	42.3	36.7	20.4	14.0
(CH ₃) ₃ N	47.5			
$CH_3CH_2N(CH_3)_2$	58.2	13.8		
Cyclohexylamine	50.4	36.7	25.7	25.1
N-Methylcyclohexylamine	58.6	33.3	25.1	26.3 (N-
				CH ₃ 33.5)

Shift Positions of Thiols, Sulfides and Disulfides (ppm from TMS)

Compound	C-1	C-2	C-3
CH ₃ SH	6.5		
CH ₃ CH ₂ SH	19.8	17.3	
CH ₂ CH ₂ CH ₂ SH	264	27.6	12.6

CH ₃ CH ₂ CH ₂ CH ₂ SH	23.7	35.7	21.0
$(CH_3)_2S$	19.3		
$(CH3CH_2)_2S$	25.5	14.8	
(CH3CH2CH ₂) ₂ S	34.3	23.2	13.7
$(CH_3CH_2CH_2CH_2)_2S$	34.1	31.4	22.0
CH ₃ SSCH ₃	22.0		
CH ₃ CH ₂ SSCH ₂ CH ₃	32.8	14.5	
$(CH3CH2CH_2)_2S$ $(CH_3CH_2CH_2CH_2)_2S$ $(CH_3CH_2CH_2CH_2)_2S$ CH_3SSCH_3 $CH_3CH_2SSCH_2CH_3$	34.3 34.1 22.0 32.8	14.3 23.2 31.4 14.5	13.7 22.0

Chapter 5 Mass spectrometry

INTRODUCTION

Generally in case of spectroscopy one phenomenon is common "There is an interaction between electromagnetic radiation and matter (sample)." While in case of Mass spectrometry this phenomenon is not occurring. So some people are not agree that Mass spectrometry is not a spectroscopic technique.

In case of UV, IR, and NMR sample absorb the light (electromagnetic radiation), so these are absorption spectroscopy. While Mass is differ from them.

First requirement for Mass spectroscopy is organic sample either in gaseous or vapor state.

Principle:

When organic molecule in the gaseous or vapor state at a very low pressure are subjected to 70 ev. it loses the electrons and forms a positively charged cation. This this can be accelerated and deflected by magnetic and electrical fields is depends on its mass, charge, velocity and deflecting force. In these four variable charge is negligible, velocity and deflected force are constant, so the deflection depends only on mass. If mass is high, deflection is low, and if mass is low, deflection is higher. i.e. deflection is higher for light particle and lower for heavy particle.

So when organic molecule is gaseous or vapor state, bombarded at 70 ev at reduce pressure, it loses the electron and forms a positively charged ion. This ion can be accelerated and deflecting by magnets depends on charge, velocity, mass and deflecting force but charge is negligible, velocity and deflecting force are constant so deflection only depends on mass, it is higher for light particle and lower for heavy particle.

$$\frac{m}{z} = \frac{H^2 R^2}{2V}$$

Where,

H= applied magnetic field

R= radius of arc of deflection

V= applied accelerating voltage

 $\frac{H^2R^2}{2}$ = deflection force

$$M + e^{-} (70 \text{ ev}) \longrightarrow M^{+} + 2e^{-}$$

radical
cation

The fragmentation pattern of compounds depends on the characteristic of sample and it provide detail information about molecular structure can be obtained.

Instrumentation:

Schematic diagram of a mass spectrometer.



- 1. The inlet system
- 2. The ion source (ionization chamber)
- 3. The electrostatic accelerating system
- 4. The ion separator
- 5. Ion collector/ read out
- 6. Vacuum system

Vacuum is necessary, so it can be in isolated type of situation. It will be necessary to minimize the no. of collision between ions and non-ionized molecule.

Requirement of the instrument:

- 1. To vaporize compounds of varying volatility
- 2. To produce cation
- 3. To separate ions
- 4. To detected and record them.

According to above fig. mass spectrometer possess following parts

- 1. Sample inlet system
- 2. Ionization chamber
- 3. Accelerating region
- 4. Analyzer tube
- 5. Detector
- 6. Recorder

The mass spectrometer is used for the investigation of any compound may vary in their types but generally contain following part.

1. Sample inlet system:

Function: To vaporize the sample and uniformly introduce into ionization chamber.

For successful ionization, all samples must be converted in to gaseous or vaporized state, to achieve this sample must be heated at 400 °C, so temperature of inlet system is above 400 °C.

The rate of introducing sample in ionization chamber is remain constant, for this it consist special device of micrometer for determining the amount of sample is introduce.

Another important point is the introduction of sample vapor at low pressure $(10^{-5}-10^{-6} \text{ torr})$ is necessary to minimize the number of collision between ions and non- ionized molecule.

Sample size is 1mg to μ g.

2. Ionization chamber/ ion source : **Function:** to produce positively chara

Function: to produce positively charged ion and other different with m/e value.

For the production of positively charged ion, ionization of sample is necessary.

To ionize the sample different techniques are available:

a) **EI** (Electron impact ionization): In electron impact system, when sample in gaseous state bombarded at electron vault and low pressure at 10^{-5} - 10^{-6} at high energy provide a molecule to emitted electron from filament and forms a positively charged ion.

Means an electron from electron beam knocks an electron from parent molecule to give parent ion.

$$M + e^- \longrightarrow M^{+} + 2e^-$$

But for this high electron vault and low pressure is require.

- Due to this pyrolysis of molecule may take place
- M⁺ ion absent
- Complex spectrum is available

So this technique is harsh technique.

b) Field ionization: In this technique, very high local electric field $(2x10^8 \text{ v/cm})$ on tip of metal wire pulls off e⁻ for large molecule.

Means by creating vacuum in $2x10^8$ v/cm for small area and large molecule, so maximum electron attack on this molecule, it knocks the electron from parent molecule and forms parent ion.

c) **Chemical ionization:** This ionization carried out on the bases of molecular reaction.

In this technique as a reactant gas generally CH₄, isobutene and ammonia is used.

The reactant gases are stored at low pressure 10^{-4} and in this tank introduce the sample.

So at low pressure reactant gas ionized and forms ion, which on interact with neutral molecule and forms chemically reactive species, which interact with sample and forms positively charged ion.

 $CH_{2}^{\bullet+} + CH_{4} \longrightarrow C_{2}H_{5}^{+} + CH_{3}^{\bullet}$ $CH_{3}^{\bullet+} + CH_{3} \longrightarrow C_{2}H_{5}^{+} + H_{2}$

$$C_2H_5^+ + CH_4 \longrightarrow CH_5^+ + CH_4$$

$$CH_5^+ M \longrightarrow M+1 + CH_4$$

Advantage: M+ present, simple spectrum is obtain

This technique is used for polar and high molecular weight species at 10.000g

d) **FAB (Fast atom bombardment source):** In this technique, by using highly energetic chemical species, bombarded with sample.



This technique is used for polar and high molecular weight species of 10,000 g.

Advantage:

- Ionization due to transition
- Minimum energy reaction, so minimize the destructive
- No deviation

3. Ion accelerating region:

Function: to accelerate the ion in a uniform velocity and produce ionic beam.

It contain: 1) Repleter plate 2) Ion accelerating slit 3) Ion focusing slit.

High electrostatic field about 1000 to 2000 v is applied between two accelerating slits so when ion pass through this region repleting plate replete to each other to form uniform way, after this when pass through between accelerating tube to form narrow beam due to high voltage moving ion is formed. The ion focusing plate focuses it. So, uniform beam of ion is obtained.

Suppose mass of ion is M, charge e⁻, initial kinetic energy is negligible.

So, ion is accelerated velocity V.

So, kinetic energy must equal to electrostatic energy.

Electrostatic = ev

Repellers = which direct the ion to the accelerating plate

Accelerating = accelerate the ion

Ion focusing = which directs the ion into uniform beam

4. Analyzer tube :

Function: to disperse the ionic beam in to different frequency according to their m/e value, an analyzer must possess following characteristic:

- i) It should have a high resolution power.
- ii) It should have a high rate of transmission of ions.

There are two types of analyzer:

1. Ion- trapped mass analyzer

2. Time of flight analyzer

1. Ion- trapped mass analyzer:

Ion- trapped mass analyzer working two way for trapping ions.

- a) Three dimensional ion trap e.g. Quadrupole mass analyzer
- b) Ion- cyclotron resonance

Both analyzer trap the ions by using combine effect of DC and RF

a) Quadrupole mass analyzer:

Principle: combination of DC and radio frequency on the four parallel opposite charge rods can be set to pass only a selected mass to charge ratio. Remaining ions do not flight through this quadrupole analyzer and will collide with these rods. As a result never complete the path up to detector.



Advantages:

- Classical mass spectrum obtained
- Relatively cheaper system
- Reproducibility of the result is possible

Limitations:

- Resolution is good for limited range
- Peak height is variable as a function of mass
- It is not suitable for pulsed ionization method

The selection of mass analyzer depends on resolution. Generally at low resolution quadrupole and lop trap working very good. Time of light and sector instruments(magnet) work better than other analyzer. Ion cyclotron resonance was performed best at ultra-high resolution.

b) Ion- cyclotron resonance:

Ion moves in a circular path under the effect of external magnetic field. The cyclotron frequency of the ions depends on their mass, by using following equation, one can measure the mass of ions.

$$\frac{mv^2}{r} = evB$$

But angular frequency $w = \frac{v}{r}$
$$w = \frac{v}{r} = \frac{eB}{m}$$

Advantages:

- The best resolution as compare to the other analyzer
- Well compatible for pulsed ionization as well as MALDI
- Non-destructive ion detection

Limitations:

- Limited dynamic range
- Strictly low pressure required
- Ion- molecule reaction is possible

2. Time of flight (TOF):

Principle: a time of flight mass analyzer determine the mass dependent time; it takes ions with various masses to flight from the ion source to the detector. The necessity of this analyzer is sharp starting time.

Ion leaving the ion source is

The ion velocity(v) is the length of flight path L divided by the time

Put the value of V in kinetic energy equation..1)

$$T = \frac{m}{e} = \frac{2vt^2}{L^2}$$

$$t = L \sqrt{\frac{m}{e} \frac{1}{2}v}$$

Advantage:

- It is compatible with pulsed ionization or fast ionization technique.
- Resolution is better than quadruple.

5. Detector and Recorder :

its function is to detect the ionic beam and produce a mass spectrum expressed as a bar graph in which relative abundance on ordinate is plated against m/z ratio.

Ionization technique:

Several methods are available for the ionization of sample, the most common being electron impact technique to produce ion.

1) EI (Electron ionization): vaporized sample is introduced under low pressure operate at pressure of 10^{-5} - 10^{-6} in to a tube called 'ion source'.

The entering molecule of sample is bombarded with electron emitted from a hot tungsten or Rh wire and then accelerated to an anode.

Limitation:

- 1) As the sample should be in vapor state, possibility of pyrolysis of less volatile substance or sample increase.
- 2) It produce molecular ion with excess internal energy, which leads to various fragmentation process. Fragmentation is drastic, complex fragmentation pattern is obtained.
- 70 ev often destroys the molecular ion, hence the absence of very weak molecular ion peak does not allow the detection of molecular weight and empirical formula.

2) Field ionization:

Field ionization is achieved by applying a very high local electrical field of order $2x10^8$ v/cm.

When the sample is subjected to a very strong electric field, it pulls off an electron forming a positive ion. It is a particular technique for the study of large molecules that do not show a parent ion.

3) Chemical ionization:

This technique based on ion-molecule reaction.

In it, reaction gas like methane, isobutane, and ammonia is introduced at high pressure (1-torr) with the sample (10^{-4} torr) to be analysed by the mass spectrometer in the ionization chamber.

When a beam of electron passes the ionization chamber. The reaction gas undergoes ionization to produce ion, which reacts with the neutral molecule to form a product. To the product so formed are chemical reactive species and can interact with the sample and forms a positive ion.

Thus methane from $CH_4^{\bullet+} + CH_3^+$ initially which react with a neutral molecule.

$$CH_4^+ + CH_4 \longrightarrow CH_5^+ + CH_3^+$$

Secondary ion
with a samll excss
of initial energy
 $CH_3^+ + CH_4 \longrightarrow C_2H_5^+ + H_2$

The CH_5^+ is strong proton donor and thus reacts with analyte molecule to form (M+1) ions.

$$M + CH_5^+ \longrightarrow (M+1)^+ + CH_4$$

Advantage:

- 1) It produces molecular ion peak.
- 2) As the fragmentation is reduced, it produces a spectrum which one quite simple.

4) FAB (fast atom bombardment):

Chemical ionization technique still requires molecules that are moderately volatile and thermally stable. This excludes many compounds of biological interest and importance such as peptides and carbohydrates. The most reset technique FAB overcomes. These problems polar molecules like peptide with molecular weight 10,000 can be analyzed. In this method, Xe or Ar atoms of high translational energy are produced by the following sequence.

 Xe atoms are ionised by bombardment of e- beam it to form Xe cation radical.

$$Xe_{atom} + e^- \longrightarrow Xe^+ + 2e^-$$

II) They are accelerated to 6-10 K.ev. to give radical cation of high translational energy Xe⁺

$$Xe^{+} \xrightarrow{\text{accelerate}} Xe^{+}$$

III) Xenon radical cation is then allowed to interact with neutral xenon atoms due to which xenon radical cation passes its energy to neutral atoms hence fast moving Xe atoms are produced.

$$Xe^{+\bullet} + Xe \longrightarrow Xe^{+\bullet} + Xe^{+\bullet}$$

IV) The resultant fast atoms are directed onto the sample held in a liquid matrix on a metal target. The liquid matrix is commonly glycerol.

Advantage:

 Ionization is caused by the transition of energy; it minimizes destruction of molecular ion which can alert for 20-30 min.

- This method is most effective for a relatively polar substance which is Non-volatile or thermally unstable.
- 3) Derivatization not required.

The positive ions produced by the interaction of the molecular ion with e^{-} beam are forced through the first accelerating slit by a weak electrostatic field.

So the main components of ion accelerating region are:

- 1) Ion repellers
- 2) Ion accelerating plate
- 3) Ion focusing plate

A potential of 1000-2000v is used to accelerate the ions through a slit system. This produces a narrow beam of the fast moving ion. Mass of ion is M, the charge is e⁻ initial kinetic energy is negligible. Now ions are accelerated to a velocity (v), hence their kinetic energy must be equal to their electrostatic energy, accelerated in passing through the applied volt (v).

Function of mass analyzer:

Its function to disperse the ionic beam according to their m/e value.

The ion produced may separately according to their mass to charge ratio(m/e) using the magnetic and electrostatic field.

The fast moving ions enter the analyzer tube. The analyzer tube is an evacuated $(10^{-7} \text{ to } 10^{-8} \text{ torr})$ curved metal tube through which ion beam passes from source.

In the analyzer tube, the ions are subjected to a uniform magnetic field(H), which is generated by an electromagnet and perpendicular to the direction of the ionic beam.

In the magnetic field, the ions are deflected along a circular path of radius (r).

i.e.
$$r = mv/eh$$

 $r^2 = \frac{m^2 v^2}{e^2 H^2}$ Or
 $v^2 = \frac{r^2 e^2 H^2}{m^2}$ (2)
 $\frac{2ev}{m} = \frac{r^2 e^2 H^2}{m^2}$
 $\frac{m}{e} = \frac{H^2 r^2}{2v}$

This relationship reveals that in the case of an ion with a given mass to charge ratio (m/e).

The radius of deflection can be increased by decreasing magnetic field (H) allow only ions of certain suitable m/e values to pass through the collector slit and enter into the collector.

Detection of the presence of the isotopes of the elements and the recognition of molecular ion peak:

Mass spectra often contain peak of significant intensity that is attributed to the presence of isotopes. Two of these are called the M+1 and M+2 peaks,

where M is the mass of the parent ion and 1 or 2 represent mass increases due to heavier isotopes of the ¹/₂ mass unit. most elements occur naturally as several isotopes and generally, the lighter of these predominates while the heavier one occurs to a lesser extent.

The isotopic compositions of some common elements are as shown under.

Element	\mathbf{M}^+	M+1	M+2
Hydrogen ¹ H	99.98%	² H 0.016	
Carbon ¹² C	98.42%	¹³ H 1.08	
Nitrogen ¹⁴ N	99.62%	$^{15}C 0.38$	
Oxygen ¹⁶ O	99.76%	¹⁷ O 0.04	^{18}O 0-
			2
Sulphur ³² S	94.825	33 S 0.74	34 S 4-
			40
Chlorine	67.5%	³⁶ Cl -	37 S 32-
³⁵ Cl			5
Bromine	50.5%	-	⁸¹ Br 49-
⁷⁹ Br			5
Iodine ¹²⁷ I	100%	-	-

Isotopic composition of element is constant:

150 (M)	100%
151 (M+1)	10.2%
152 (M+2)	0.88%
$C_7 H_{10} N_4$	9.25-0.38
$C_8H_8NO_2$	9.23-0.78
$C_8H_{10}N_2O$	9.61-0.61
$C_8H_{12}N_2$	9.98-0.45
$C_9H_{10}O_2$	9.96-0.82
$C_9H_{12}NO$	10.34-0.68
$C_9H_{14}N_2$	10.71-0.5

Fragmentation value of the compound shows according to Nitrogen as well as Ring rule.

1. Nitrogen rule:

Nitrogen rule states that the compound containing an even no.of nitrogen atoms (including O) will give a molecular ion with an even mass number,

For e.g. the following ion gives their molecular ion at given mass number.

CH ₄	16
CH ₃ OH	32
CClF ₃	104
C ₆ H ₅ OH	94
NH ₂ -NH ₂	32
$C_5H_5N_2$	94

An odd number of nitrogen atoms causes the molecular ion to be at odd mass number. e.g. $NH_3 m/z = 17$ and $C_2H_5NH_2 = 45$

It is important to note that the relationship applies to all ions and not only to the molecular ions.

2. Ring rule:

Elemental composition of any fragmentation peak can be established by using the following formula.

$$RPDB = \lambda - \frac{1}{2}Y + \frac{1}{2}Z + 1$$

Where X= No. of carbon
Y= Monovalent ion
Z= Trivalent ion

For example C₅H₅N⁺

$$RPDB = 5 - \frac{1}{2}5 + \frac{1}{2}1 + 1$$
$$= 5 - 2.5 + 0.5 + 1$$
$$= 6 - 3$$
$$= 3$$

Value odd: ∴RPDB

For example C₇H₅O⁺

$$RPDB = 7 - \frac{1}{2}5 + \frac{1}{2}0 + 1$$

= 7 - 2.5 + 0+ 1
= 8 - 2.5
= 6.5
 $\therefore + \frac{1}{2}$ RPDB

Types of Fragmentation:

The ions undergo various types of decomposition like heterolytic or homolytic cleavage of the bond, rearrangement chain branching elimination of molecule etc. leading to the formation of fragments of longer life, such formation patterns can be grouped into the following types.







This is a saturated hydrocarbon cleavage of C-C bond.



Fragmentation adjacent to branching points.

e.g.

1.





A hydrocarbon exhibits a peak at mass C_nH_{2n+1} with maximum intensity at 3, 4, and 5.

Type –A₂:

This is the cleavage of C-C single bond with the the elimination of neutral molecules. Small stable molecule like H_2O , CO_2 , CO, C_2H_4 can be lost from a molecule ion e.g.





Type $-A_3$: β – Cleavage to double bond



This is the cleavage of the single bond is to C=C. it gives allylium ion. This cleavage produces intense peak with mass C_nH_{2n-1} .

e.g.



Type $-A_4$: β – Cleavage to Aryl double bond This is similar to A_3 type except that C=C is replaced by an aryl group.



Type – B: α- Cleavage to hetero atom



This is observed in alcohols, esters, sulphides and halogens.

The mass spectra are characterised by intense peaks due to cleavage of C-C bond next to heteroatom.



Type - C: Cleavages in carbonyl compounds

The molecular ions are prominent; the major fragmentation involves the fission of the C-C bond adjacent to the oxygen atom. The loss of larger alkyl group occurs predominantly and the base peak in ketones is often as result of this loss.



The more abundant acylion ion is generally, produced by loss of the largest alkyl group.



Type –D:



It is characterised by the cleavage of two bonds of a cyclic system with function of two unsaturated compounds. This fragmentation has the elimination of neutral molecule like olefin by cleavage of more than one sigma bonds.

Type -E: loss of hydrogen halide

Alkyl halide may lose a molecule of HX as under.

 $R - CH_2 - CH_2 - X_1 \xrightarrow{\bullet+} [R - HC = CH_2] \xrightarrow{\bullet+} HX = F,CI$

Or



Type -F: Rearrangement followed by α – cleavage to hetero atom





Type –G: by α – cleavage followed by rearrangement



Type – H: McClafferty rearrangement

This type of rearrangement is archived by acids, aldehydes, olefins, alkyl benzenes, amides and nitriles.

This type of rearrangement is shown by the compound passes hydrogen atom at a γ - position of the carbonyl group.

This type of compounds invariably shows a relative intense peak with an even m/z value.

The rearrangement fragmentation is accompanied by a loss of a neutral molecule.

This is an intra- molecular elimination in which positive charge is retained by treatment containing oxygen.



The fragmentation of a monoalkene occurs to afford two often alkene fragments, provided a membered cyclic transition state, involving x- hydrogen is positive.

The positive charge can appear either fragment.

The monoalkenes can, therefore, be identified by the presence of peaks $C_nH_{2n-1}(28, 41,55)$ and peaks at $C_nH_{2n}(28, 42, 56)$.



Loss of water together with the elimination of olefins from alcohols with more than four carbon atom in a chain
(McClafferty type rearrangement) accounts for the peak at M-(olefin+ H_2O).

E.g. peak at M- 46, M-74, M-102

$$\begin{array}{c} & & & \\ H_2C \\ H_2C \\ H_2C \\ H_2 \end{array} \xrightarrow{CH}_R \\ H_2O + \\ H_2O + \\ H_2O + \\ H_2H_2 \\ H_2 + \\ H_2H_2 \\$$

Nitriles:



Certain alkyl benzenes where the C=B bond is not carbonyl compound as above but the C_6H_6 ring, here also the same mechanism is operated.





Mass spectral characteristics:

(1) As the carbon skeleton becomes highly branched the intensity of molecular ion peak decrease.

e.g.

1.

Butane \longrightarrow isobutane \longrightarrow 2,2,4-Trimethyl pentane

- 2. Octane \longrightarrow 2,2,4-Trimethyl pentane
- (2) Straight chain hydrocarbons undergo fragmentation by breaking C-C bonds resulting in a homologues series of fragmentation products.

E.g. in octane fragment peak due to hexyl ion (85), pentyl ion (71), butyl (57), propyl (43) and ethyl (29) are observed.

The peaks are most intense in C_2 - C_5 range.

- (3) They rarely eliminate $-CH_3$ group due to 17-15 are absent.
- (4) The peaks at 43 and 57 are usually the base peaks due to the stability of propyl and butyl ions.
- (5) In branched alkanes, there is a tendency for the bonds to capture at the branches resulting in the formation of relatively stable secondary and tertiary carbonium ion.

E.g. straight chain alkanes:

$$H_{3}C - CH_{2} - CH_{2} - CH_{2} - CH_{2} - CH_{3} - CH_{3} + H_{3}C - CH_{2} - CH_{2} - CH_{2} - CH_{3} - M/z = 57$$

$$H_{3}C - CH_{2} -$$



Differentiate octane and Iso-octane:

Octane	Iso-octane
H ₃ C(CH ₂) ₆ CH ₃	$\begin{array}{c} CH_{3} \\ H_{3}C \overset{C}{{}{{}{}{}{{}{}{}{}{{}{}{}{}{}{}{{}{}{}{}{}{}{{}{}{}{}{{}{$
M^+ ion peak at 114, small	M ⁺ ion peak is not obtained
peaks of low intensity	-
Undergoes fragmentation by Cleavage of the C-C bonds	
breaking C-C bonds resulting	iso-octane at branched C atom
in homologues series of	is always favoured leading to
fragmentation products i.e.	the formation of secondary and
29 Nropyl	tertiary C atoms as they are more stable hence
43	fragmentation is favoured it
57 🔪	forms + butyl carbonium ion
71	57.
85 – Hexyl	

The intensity of each peak	No effect of molecular		
decreases with increase in	weight on intensity		
fragment at higher molecule			
Base peak is observed at 43.	Base peak at 57. i.e. tertbutyl		
i.e. propyl ion	ion		
Several C fragments which	Other peaks at 29,43 are		
should appear at 99 can not	observed remaining are		
be observed as their ions are	weak.		
rather stable.			
Other fragments within each	No, any special effect.		
cluster correspond to			
additional losses of one or			
two H ₂ atoms.			

Aromatic hydrocarbons:

- 1. They show much stronger molecular ion peaks than those exhibited by alkanes of comparable molecular weight.
- 2. M•+ion peak is always stronger peak in benzene.
- 3. In alkyl benzene, the most probable cleavage is at the bond β to the ring. This gives rise to a base peak at m/e = 91 due to the formation of tropylium ion, if substituents are present on α carbon atom, the base peak will have masses higher than 91 by an increment of 19.

E.g. substituted tropylium ion.





Aldehyde:

1. Aliphatic and aromatic aldehyde display molecular ion peaks. It is also prominent in aromatic aldehyde due to the resonance stabilisation of the molecular ions. In aliphatic aldehydes, its intensity decreases in compounds containing more than 4-carbon atom.

2. M-1 peak is usually as intense as the M^+ peak, it results from the loss of H_2 through cleavage.

$$R \xrightarrow{C} = O \operatorname{\mathsf{T}}^{+} \xrightarrow{R} R \xrightarrow{C} = \operatorname{\mathsf{O}}^{+} + H^{\operatorname{\mathsf{T}}^{+}}$$

3. Strong absorption peak at m/e = 29 due to α -cleavage.

$$R \xrightarrow{C} C \xrightarrow{H} O \rceil^{\bullet +} \xrightarrow{R} R \xrightarrow{C} C \xrightarrow{H} O + R^{\bullet}$$

m/e = 29
Base peak

4. It will also give M-29 peak. Sometimes it can be the base peak.

$$R \xrightarrow{C}_{H} O]^{\bullet +} \longrightarrow R^{\bullet} + HC \underset{M-29}{\longrightarrow} D^{\bullet}$$

5. Rearrangement occurs if aldehyde contains a γ - H₂ atom to a carbonyl group. This gives rise to a base peak.



Rearrangement peaks always occur at even m/e value.

Hydroxyl compounds:

1. Molecular ion peak for primary and secondary alcohol is quite small and for tertiary alcohol is undetectable.

2. Cleavage of the C-C bond next to the oxygen atom is of general occurrence. This α -cleavage leads to the formation of stable oxonium ions.

Secondary alcohols cleavage to give prominent peak due to

R-C=OH
H
$$(m/e = 45, 59, 73)$$

And tertiary alcohol gives

$$R = 0^{+}H$$

R (m/e = 45, 73, 83)



This is a peak for primary alcohol. These peaks are the identification of alcohols.

A distinct and sometimes prominent peak is founded at M-18 from loss of water through a cyclic mechanism.

This peak is noticeable in primary alcohols and intensity decrease in secondary and tertiary alcohol.



Longer chain primary alcohols often suffer double elimination.

i.e. they lose one molecule of water and one of ethylene simultaneously through a six-membered cyclic mechanism, thus display (M- CH₂O and CH₂=CH₂).

Peak i.e. M-46 peak

This peak is with very small intensity in secondary and tertiary alcohol.



In isomeric pentanols M-[H₂O and

 $CH_2=CH_2$] peak is obtained at 92, is not in 1-pentanol. It is the most intense peak while in 2-pentanol and 2-butanol peak intensity is very less.

Distinguish Primary, Secondary and Tertiary alcohols:

1-Pentanol	2-Pentanol	2-Methyl-2- butanol
CH ₃ (CH ₂) ₃ - CH ₂ OH	CH ₃ - (CH ₂) ₂ CHOH-CH ₃	СH ₂ CH ₃ H ₃ C — С — СН ₃ ОН
M ⁺ peak very weak	Very weak	Not detectable
Oxonium CH ₂ ==OH 31	с=он 45	с=он 59

M-[H ₂ O and CH ₂ =CH ₂]	Very weak at 42	Very weak at 42
$M-[H_2O+CH_3]$	55- medium	55- medium
55- intense peak		
M-H ₂ O	Weak at 70	Weak at 70
Medium at 70		
M-CH ₃	Weak at 73	Intense peak at
-		73

Ketones: It is very similar to aldehyde

- 1. The M+ peak is of significant intensity.
- 2. α -cleavage produce $R C \equiv O$ ion.





Meclafferty rearrangement is common



Detection of molecular formula:

1. Molecules do not occur in isotopically pure form. All atoms except F_2 , P, I_2 have heavier isotopes.

1H	2 H	0.016		
	$^{13}\mathrm{C}$	1.08		
	¹⁵ N	0.38		
	17 O	0.04	¹⁸ O	0.2
	³³ S	0.78	³⁴ S	4.40
			³⁷ Cl	32.5
			⁸¹ Br	49

2. Isotopic composition of elements is constant.

Suppose that a compound contains 4 carbon atom, then for every 100ml contain ^{12}C atom about 1.08 molecule contain a ^{13}C atom they will produce 1.08% M+1 peak. ^{2}H atom will make a small contribution to M+1 peak.

Thus M+1, M+2 peaks are obtained in the mass spectrum. Thus as isotopic composition of the elements is the constant relative intensity of the peaks of the ions can be used to determine the molecular formula.

Types of ions:

- 1. Molecular ion or Parent ion peak: when a beam of electrons are bombarded on the molecules, it loses a single electron and forms M^+ ions, it is stable for 10^{-6} seconds and give a curve in the mass spectrum which is known as the parent peak.
- 2. **Base peak**: when a substance is bombarded with a beam of 70 ev. The molecules lose a single electron and produce M+ ions which give a strong peak in the mass spectrum known as the base peak.

- 3. **Negative peak**: in addition to positive ions, negative ions may be formed during the bombardment of 70 ev on the sample, but the formation of negative ion is very rare.
- 4. **Metastable ion**: when a fragment passing through an accelerating region it suffers from further fragmentation is called a metastable ion.
- 5. **Cation radical**: A part of a positive ion having an odd electron is known as a cation radical.
- 6. **Fragment ion**: lighter cations formed on fragmentation of molecular ions.

Molecular formula determination:

The molecular formula of an unknown compound can be determined only with the help of mass spectrometry i.e. without elemental analysis.

There are two methods for the determination of molecular formula as follow:

1. Accurate molecular weight method:

- Determine the probable molecular formula on the basis of accurate mass.(Number of formula are possible)
- Calculate the exact mass of molecular formula derived on the basis of accurate mass.
- Put both values in the following equation and find out the error limit.
- If the value is less than 5ppm, consider this formula correct one.

Example: Derive the molecular formula for molecular weight obtained by unit mass is 28

Possible formula related to the unit mass 28 are CO, N₂, CH₂N and C₂H₄ Exact mass of atoms which involved in probable formula are as follow; ${}^{12}C: 12.0000$; ${}^{16}O: 15.9949$; ${}^{14}N: 28.0062$

So exact mass for CO:27.9949; N₂: 28.0062; CH₂N: 28.0187 and C₂H₄: 28.0312

Calculation for Error limit:

Error limit for CO = $\frac{Mcalculated - Mobserved}{Mobserved}$ x 10⁶ = $\frac{27.9949 - 28.0}{28}$ x 10⁶ = -182.142 < 5 ppm

Same calculation for other derived formula are as follow

 $N_2 = 221.428$, $CH_2N = 667.857$ and $C_2H_4 = 1114.2827$ all shows higher value

From the above calculation, The correct formula is CO.

Example: Derive the molecular formula for 100.0637 mass

The possible formula are

Types of atom		Number of atoms	Formula
Carbon	&	-	C ₈ H ₁₄ , C ₇ H ₁₆
Hydrogen			

Carbon Hydrogen	No of Oxygen one	$C_7O_1C_4H_{12}O_2$
& Oxygen	No of Oxygen:	$C_{7}H_{0}O_{2}$
& Oxygen	Тио. от Охуден.	$C_{3}H_{8}O_{2}$
	1w0	$C_4\Pi_4O_3$
	No. of Oxygen:	C_3O_4
	Three	
	No. of Oxygen:	
	Four	
Carbon, Hydrogen	No. of Nitrogen	$C_6N_2, C_5H_{12}N_2$
and Nitrogen	atom: Two	$C_3H_8N_4$
	No. of Nitrogen	CH ₄ N ₆
	atom: Four	
	No of Nitrogen	
	atom: Six	
Carbon,	No of Nitrogen	$C_4H_8ON_2$,
Hydrogen,	atom: Two	$C_3H_4O_2N_2$
Oxygen and	No of Nitrogen	$C_2O_5N_2$
Nitrogen	atom: Four	$C_2H_4ON_4$,
-		CO_2N_4

By the application of Nitrogen rule to find out the correct formula from all above-derived formula.

As per the Nitrogen rule, an odd number of molecular weight contain an odd number of nitrogen and even number of molecular weight contain odd valency element or no nitrogen atom.

From the above discussion the correct formula with accurate mass are as under:

Formula	Accurate	Formula	Accurate
	Mass		Mass
C_8H_4	11.03130	C_6N_2	100.006148
C ₇ H ₁₆	11.12510	$C_5H_{12}N_2$	100.100048
C_3O	99.99494	$C_3H_8N_4$	100.07489
$C_6H_{12}O$	100.0887	$C_4H_8ON_2$	100.0637

$C_5H_8O_2$	100.05222	$C_3H_4O_2N_2$	100.07331
$C_4H_4O_3$	100.01612	$C_2O_3N_2$	99.99097
C_3O_4	99.97976	C ₂ H ₄ ON ₄	100.03848
		CO_2N_4	100.002112

Calculation for finding exact formula

Calculation for Error limit:

Error limit for CO = $\frac{Mcalculated - Mobserved}{Mobserved}$ x 10⁶ = $\frac{100.0637 - 100.0635}{100.0637}$ x 10⁶ = 1.9987 < 5 ppm

From the above calculation, correct formula is $C_4H_8O_2$

A simple method to determine the molecular formula:

Assume that C_PH_QN_RO_T

Observed molecular weight + 100.0635

$$Q = \frac{Non integral Mass + (0.0051 X T) - (0.0031 X R)}{0.0078}$$

Non integral mass from weight = 0.0635

Assume T and R = 1

$$Q = \frac{0.0635 + 0.0051 - 0.0031}{0.0078}$$

= 8.3974 which is not valid

Assume R= 2 and T =1

$$Q = \frac{0.0635 + 0.0051 - 0.0062}{0.0078}$$

= 8
Formula C_PH_QN_RO_T
Weight = Weight = 12p + 8 + 28 + 16 = 100
12P = 100 - 52
= 48
P = 4

 \therefore Formula is C₄H₈N₂O

(2) Isotope abundance method:

Generally, abundance ratio is constant for the elements which are available in nature and it is always obtained as a mixture. We can classify the elements in three group.

Group elements: H, F, P I (Abundance 99.9 %)

A + 1 group elements : C, N, Si A + 2 group elements: O, S, Cl, Br For group (A + 1) 13C abundance is only 1.08 % So, *Maximum no. of Carbon* = $\frac{(M+1\%)}{1.1}$ For A+2 group elements Si, S, Cl, Br (Except Oxygen) are easier to identify from the intensity ratio peak.

The relative height of M, M+2, M+4 give the idea about a number of (A+2) elements. Such as Bromine atom present in the molecule so it shows the M: M+2 ratio is 51:49(\approx 1:1), the presence of more than one bromine atoms still change the intensity ratio of peak areas follow:

No. of Bromine	M: M+2: M+4: M+6
atom	
1	1:1
2	1:2:1
3	1:3:3:1
4	1:4:6:4:1

For the calculation of Oxygen atom contribution of all other (A+2) group elements and substrate this value from observed value and divided by 0.2.

The A group element such as F, P, I contribute to the M peak and hence the intensity of the M+1 and M+2 peak will be lower than M^+ peak.

Example: Derive the molecular formula from the given mass spectral data:

m/z = 142, 143 Abundance =100, 1.14

From the obtained data, It indicates that 142 is M^+ peak and 143 is M^{+1} peak.

The maximum no of carbon(c) = 1.14/1.1

= 1, i.e 12 mass unit.

 \therefore 142-12=130 which represents the hydrogen and other elements of A group.

130 = A group elements + Hydrogen

= I + Hydrogen

= 127 + Hydrogen

3 = Hydrogen so molecular formula is CH₃I

Example: Derive the molecular formula from the given mass data:

 $\begin{array}{ll} m/z &= 69 & 70 & 71 \\ Abundance &= 100 & 1.1 & - \\ Therefore & M+ = 69, & M+1 = 70, & M+2 = \\ 71 \\ Maximum no of Carbon(C) = 1.1/1.1 = 1 = 12 mass unit \end{array}$

Therefore 69-12 = 57 which is represents the number of Hydrogen and other elements of A group.

But in A group atomic weight of I = 127 which higher than the value, so it is not possible and for phosphorus two higher value as well as for one phosphorus and other atom is a number of hydrogen is not possible.

From the above interpretation, Fluorine atom fitted very well; 3F=57

Molecular formula is CF3⁺

General equation to calculate % of (M+1) and (M+2) for given molecular weight:

Assume the molecular formula is $C_P H_Q N_R O_T S_U$

%(M + 1) = 1.09P + 0.015Q + 0.037R + 0.8U + 0.037T

$$\%(M+2) = 0.0069P(P-1) + 0.0002PQ + 0.20T + 0.004PR + 4.9U$$

Example: Determine the molecular formula for the given mass data:

m/z	94	95	96	97
Relative abundance	100	6.1	96	1.1

Solution: M^+ peak :94; M+1:95 : M+2 :96 so on Relative abundance for M: M+2 = 100;96(\approx 1:1) which indicates the presence of Bromine,

 \therefore 94-79 =15 which is related to Carbon and hydrogen.

So the molecular formula is CH₃Br; M+1 peak intensity is high due to the contribution of fragment CH₂-Br i.e ${}^{13}C^{1}H_{3}Br = 97$, means it is the M+2 peak of the CH₂-Br fragment and M+3 =97 which are only contribution of ${}^{13}C$.

Hyphenated technique related to Mass spectrometry.

The combination of Chromatograph with Mass spectrometer i.e. GC-MS/LC-MS is a powerful analytical technique that combines the resolving power of chromatography with the detection specificity of mass spectrometry. It is a hyphenated technique in which Chromatograph attached with mass spectrometer by creating interface between this two instrument to resolve the problem arise due to the combination of these instruments which results in maximum optimisation of instruments utility.

Chromatography – Mass spectrometry combination (GC-MS/LC-MS):

GC-MS/LC-MS is a powerful analytical technique that combines the resolving power of chromatography with the detection specificity of mass spectrometry. It is a hyphenated technique in which chromatography instrument attached with mass spectrometer by creating an interface between these two instruments, which results in maximum optimisation of instrument utility.

Schematic diagram of GC-MS:



Schematic diagram of LC-MS:



^{Chapter-6} Numerical

Spectroscopic Numerical

All spectroscopic techniques have been own their significant to determine the structure of unknown compounds.

This chapter deals with the use of different spectroscopic data; we shall determine the structure of unknown compounds. Some important point to determine the structure of unknown compounds.

1. Determination of Double bond equivalent

From the given molecular Formulla of any organic compound; we are able to determine the degree of unsaturation.

 $DBE = \frac{(2a+2)-(b-d)}{2} \quad a= \text{No. of carbon,}$ b= No. of monovalent ion

d = No. of Trivalent ion

For Example: C₉H₇N

$$DBE = \frac{(2a+2)-(b-d)}{2}$$
$$DBE = \frac{(2*9+2)-(7-1)}{2}$$
$$DBE = \frac{20-6}{2} = \frac{14}{2}$$
$$DBE = 7$$

No. of	Remarks
DBE	
0	Saturated compound
1	One double bond or one cycle
2	Two double bond or Two cycle
	One double bond & one cycle
	Two cycle
	One triple one

3	Three double bond or three cycle
	Two double bond & one cycle
	One double bond & two cycle
	One Triple bond & one cycle

One double bond is equivalent to one double bond.

2. UV spectral data: UV spectral Data always give the information regarding the degree of unsaturation.

From the λ max and ϵ max indicates that the number of π bon d and types of transitions.

- > $\lambda \max > 215$: Absence of conjugated π bond.
- \triangleright εmax>1000:π→ π*
- \blacktriangleright εmax < 1000:n→π*
- \triangleright
- 3. Mass spectral data: In mass spectrometry;
 - M⁺ ion give the information regarding Molecular weight
 - Fragment Pattern give the information regarding the structure.

➢ Nitrogen rule: Even number of molecular weight ⇒ Even number of nitrogen or absence of Nitrogen

• : Odd number of molecular weight \Rightarrow Odd no of Nitrogen.

Pattern of the ion peak give the idea regarding abundance ratio:

Example Br^{79} and Br^{81} : Ion peak obtained as M^+ and M^{+2} with intensity 49:51

4. IR spectral Information:

The position of the band, band intensity and type of band, pattern of overtone are important to determine the functional group and exact position of functional group in aromatic nucleus.

5. NMR spectral information:

In ¹HNMR position of signal, Multiplicity of signal and coupling constant value are important to assign the structure.

¹³CNMR data are important to determine the hybridization as well as chemical environment of Carbon structure.

Solved example

(1) C₃H₆O:

UV : No maxima above 210 nm IR: 2941, 2847,1458,1100 cm⁻¹

NMR(δppm): 4.74(Triplet,29.4 square),2.75(quintet,14.6 square)

Solution: Calculation for DBEDBE = $\frac{(2a+2)(b-d)}{2}$

$$= (2 x 3 + 2) - \frac{6 - 0}{2}$$
$$= \frac{8 - 6}{2}$$
$$= 1$$

DBE= 1 Means one double bond or one cycle present.

UV: No maxima above 210 nm, Hence compound is saturated.

IR: interpretation

2941: Asymmetrical stretching of alkane.

2847: Symmetrical stretching of alkane

1458: banding of alkane.

110:C-O-C Stretching

From the UV, IR and DBE it is concluded that compound may be cyclic ether.

NMR Interpretation:

In the given information, the signal intensity given in the form of square,

First to find out no of equivalent proton related to each signal:

Total no of square = Total no of proton

29.4 + 14.6 = 06 proton

44= 06 proton

So 29.4 =? So, 44/6 = 7.39 square i.e 1 proton = 7.39 square

For signal one 29.4/7.39= 3.978 = 4proton

For signal two 14.6/7.39=1.975 = 2 proton

Signal one at 4.75 as a triplet indicates that two equivalent – CH_2 group with 2H as a neighboring protons attached with electronegative atom;

i.e. -CH₂-O-CH₂

Signal -2 at 2.75 indicates that $-CH_2$ group with 4H as a neighboring group

i.e. -CH₂-CH₂-CH₂-

From the all above discussion, the structure of the compounds is as below:



(2) C_4H_8O

IR: 2975, 1715, 1470 & 1380 cm⁻¹ NMR: 2.4 (2H, Quatret); 2.09 (3H, Singlet), 1.04 (3H Triplet)

Answer:

Calculation for
$$DBE = \frac{(2a+2)(b-d)}{2}$$

= $(2x 4 + 2) - \frac{8 - 0}{2}$
= $\frac{10 - 8}{2}$
= 1

Hence compound may be cyclic or containing one double bond

IR 2975: C-H str of alkane $1715: >= \circ \text{ str}$ 1470: -CH₂ banding of alkane 1380: -CH₃ banding of alkane

NMR: 1.04 (3H, Quatret) and 2.4 (2H,quartet) are indicates the presence of –CH₂CH₃ group.

 $$2.09\ (3H,\ Singlet)$ indicates that the presence of -COCH_3 group.$

From the above solution; the structure of the given data is



butan-2-one

$(3) C_{14} H_{10} O_2$

IR: 3050, 1680, 1600, 1580, 1450, 700-749 cm⁻¹ NMR: 7.5 to 7.9 5H Multiplate Mass: 210 (M⁺) [105] b.p: 77 **Answer:**

Calculation for
$$DBE = \frac{(2a+2)(b-d)}{2}$$

= $(2 x 14 + 2) - \frac{10 - 0}{2}$
= $\frac{30 - 10}{2}$
= 10

Hence Two aromatic ring may be present.

IR:

3050: C-H str. of aromatic ring

1680: Carbonyl stretching with conjugation

1600:

1580: C=C ring skeleton of aromatic ring

1450:

700-749: C-H str. of o.o.p. for monosubstituted phenyl ring.

NMR: 7.5 to 7.5 5H Multiplate indicates that monosubstituted phenyl ring as a dimmer group.

From the above interpretation; structure of the compound is



This is supported by Mass spectral data: $210(M^+)$ indicate molecular weight



(4) $C_9H_{10}O$

IR: 3030, 2985, 1720, 1500, 1400, 1320, 1380, 1150, 1020

Chemical	Multiplicity	No.	of
shift		Proton	
2.10	Singlet	3H	
3.6	Singlet	2H	
7.0-7.4	Multiplate	5H	

Answer:

Calculation for

$$DBE = \frac{(2a+2)(b-d)}{2}$$

$$= (2x9+2) - \frac{10-0}{2}$$

$$= \frac{20-10}{2}$$

$$= 5$$

DBE = 5 indicates that compound possess aromatic ring with one extra double bond.

IR

3030: C-H str of aromatic ring

2985: C-H str of alkane

1720: Carbonyl str. of carbonyl group

1500:]

1400: $\int C=C$ str. of Aromatic ring

ן:1380

1320: $\int C-H \text{ of alkakne}$

1150:] 1020:] C-O str. of carbonyl group

NMR:

- 2.10, Singlet of 3H indicates that methyl group attached with electron withdrawing group:
- 3.6, Singlet of 2H indicates that -CH₂ group shows mesomeric effect of electron donating & electron withdrawing group
- 7.0-7.4 Multiplate of 5H indicates the mono substituted aromatic ring.

From the above information the structure of the unknown compound is:



(5) C₈H₈O

UV:

251 λ_{max} ε = 15,000 258 λ_{max} ε = 12,500

IR: 3035, 2850, 2750, 2800, 1700, 145, 1390, 1310, 1215, 815 cm⁻¹

NMR:

Chemical	Multiplicity	No. of	Coupling
Shift in δ		Proton	constant
ppm			
2.25	Singlet	3H	-
6.2-7.2	Doublet	2H	8.24 Hz
7.55 - 7.2	Doublet	2H	8.24 Hz
9.0	Singlet	1H	-

UV: 251
$$λ_{max} ε = 15,000$$

258 $λ_{max} ε = 12,500$

UV data indicates that compound is an aromatic nature with highly conjugation.

Calculation for

$$DBE = \frac{(2a+2)(b-d)}{2}$$

$$= (2 x 8 + 2) - \frac{8 - 0}{2}$$

$$= \frac{18 - 8}{2}$$

$$= 5$$

It means compound contain one phenyl ring along with one extra double bond.

IR:

30325: C-H str. of aromatic

2850,2750: C-H str. of aldehyde

2800: C-H str. of alkane

1700: Certain Str. of aldehyde

1450; C=C str. of aromatic

1390: C-H banding of alkane

1310: C-H banding of alkane

1215: C-O str. of carbonyl group

815: oop of C-H str. of aromatic (p- substitution)

NMR:

- 2.25 δ ppm singlet for three protons indicates that $-CH_3$ group attached with $\geq = \circ$ group.
- 6.2 to 7.2 2H doublet with 8.24 Hz indicates that aromatic ring with ortho coupling.
- 7.55 to 7.65 2H doublet with 8.24 Hz indicates that aromatic proton with ortho coupling formyl gp as an adjacent carbon atom.

From the above interpretation the structure of the unknown compound as fellow:



Solve the example:

(1) C₉H₁₁NO

UV: 235,336 $\rightarrow \lambda_{max}$, 8650,28300 (ε) IR: 3020, 2960, 2820, 2740, 1600, 1567, 1528, 1695, 820 NMR: 2.98 (6H, Singlet); 6.65 (2H doublet), 7.7 (2H,doublet) 9.72 (1H, Singlet)



(2) C₁₁H₁₃NO

IR: 3010, 2960, 2820, 2740, 1600, 1567, 1528, 1695, 820

NMR: 3.1 (singlet,6H); 6.6 (doublet, 1H), 6.8(dd,1H), 7.2-7.6(4H, Multiplate),9.7 (1H,doublet)



(3) $C_6H_{10}O_3$

UV: 270 IR: 2985, 2950, 1460, 1380, 1820, 1750, 1050 NMR: 1.1 (3H,Triplet,7 Hz);2.4 (2H, Quatret, 7 Hz) Mass: 29,37(B.P.) 74, 73, 150 (M⁺) Answer:



(4) $C_9H_{11}NO_2$

UV: $248(\lambda_{max})$, (ϵ =25,800) IR: 3500-2400, 1690, 1585, 1475, 1420, 1400 NMR: 7.3 (M, 1H); 6.6 (M, 1H), 7.8(M, 1H), 10.5 (s, 1H) Mass: 18, 37, 38, 39, 55, 99, 112, 113, 114 **Answer:**



(5) C₉H₁₁NO₂

IR:3010, 2965, 2872, 1620, 1500, 1600, 1375, 1050, 1740 NMR(δppm):1.22(3H,Triplet,7Hz),3.25(2H,Singlet),4.1(2H, quartet,7Hz),6.92-.75(3H,multiplate),8.48(1H,Doublet,5Hz)



(6) C₆H₇NO₂

IR:2240, 1730 NMR(δppm):2.7(4H,Singlet), 3.8(3H,Singlet)



$(7) C_5H_7NO_2$

IR: 3000, 2280,1700 NMR(δppm):4.2(2H,Quatret), 3.55(2H,Singlet),1.2(3H, Triplet)

(8) C₉H₁₁NO

IR: 3010,1680,2975
NMR(δppm):2.8(3H,Singlet),
2.9(3H,Singlet),
6.7-7.7(4H,Multiplate),
9.7(1H,Singlet)



$(9) C_{10}H_{14}O_4S$

IR: 3090,1750,1650,1150,949,878 NMR(τppm):2.78(1H, Multiplate, 7Hz, 14Hz), 5.19(1H, Multiplate, 7Hz, 2Hz), 7.3(4H, Multiplate)



(10) $C_{10}H_{12}O_4$ IR: 3020, 2956, 1745, 1690, 1650,1575, 1250, 1050, 938, NMR(τ ppm):4.13(1H, Singlet), 7.63(3H, Singlet), 5.70(2H, quartet),8.64(3H,Triplet)



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