# <sup>1</sup>H/<sup>13</sup>C NMR SPECTROSCOPY

Dr. NAIMA BENCHIKHA

# <sup>1</sup>H NMR SPECTROSCOPY

Introduction to NMR Spectroscopy

- Nuclear magnetic resonance spectroscopy is a powerful analytical technique used to characterize organic molecules by identifying carbon-hydrogen frameworks within molecules.
- Two common types of NMR spectroscopy are used to characterize organic structure: <sup>1</sup>H NMR is used to determine the type and number of H atoms in a molecule; <sup>13</sup>C NMR is used to determine the type of carbon atoms in the molecule.
- The source of energy in NMR is radio waves which have long wavelengths, and thus low energy and frequency.
- When low-energy radio waves interact with a molecule, they can change the nuclear spins of some elements, including <sup>1</sup>H and <sup>13</sup>C.

# Introduction to NMR Spectroscopy

- When a charged particle such as a proton spins on its axis, it creates a magnetic field. Thus, the nucleus can be considered to be a tiny bar magnet.
- Normally, these tiny bar magnets are randomly oriented in space. However, in the presence of a magnetic field  $B_0$ , they are oriented with or against this applied field. More nuclei are oriented with the applied field because this arrangement is lower in energy.
- The energy difference between these two states is very small (<0.1 cal).



# Nuclear Magnetic Resonance

Nuclear spin

 $\mu=\gamma \ I \ h$ 

- $\mu$  magnetic moment
- $\gamma$  gyromagnetic ratio
- I spin quantum number
- h Planck's constant







# Apply an external magnetic field

(i.e., put your sample in the magnet)



$$\omega = \gamma B_o = \nu/2\pi$$

- o resonance frequency in radians per second, also called Larmor frequency
- v resonance frequency in cycles per second, Hz
- γ gyromagnetic ratio
- B<sub>o</sub> external magnetic field (the magnet)

Spin 1/2 nuclei will have two orientations in a magnetic field +1/2 and -1/2.

# Net magnetic moment



# **Ensemble of Nuclear Spins**



# The net magnetization vector



# Allowed Energy States for a Spin 1/2 System



Therefore, the nuclei will absorb light with energy  $\Delta E$  resulting in a change of the spin states.

#### Introduction to NMR Spectroscopy

- In a magnetic field, there are now two energy states for a proton: a lower energy state with the nucleus aligned in the same direction as B<sub>0</sub>, and a higher energy state in which the nucleus aligned against B<sub>0</sub>.
- When an external energy source ( $h_v$ ) that matches the energy difference ( $\Delta E$ ) between these two states is applied, energy is absorbed, causing the nucleus to "spin flip" from one orientation to another.
- The energy difference between these two nuclear spin states corresponds to the low frequency RF region of the electromagnetic spectrum.

#### Introduction to NMR Spectroscopy

• Thus, two variables characterize NMR: an applied magnetic field  $B_0$ , the strength of which is measured in tesla (T), and the frequency v of radiation used for resonance, measured in hertz (Hz), or megahertz (MHz)—(1 MHz = 10<sup>6</sup> Hz).



• A nucleus is in *resonance* when it absorbs RF radiation and "spin flips" to a higher energy state.

Introduction to NMR Spectroscopy

- The frequency needed for resonance and the applied magnetic field strength are proportionally related.
- NMR spectrometers are referred to as 300 MHz instruments, 500 MHz instruments, and so forth, depending on the frequency of the RF radiation used for resonance.
- These spectrometers use very powerful magnets to create a small but measurable energy difference between two possible spin states.

# Nuclear Magnetic Resonance Spectroscopy Introduction to NMR Spectroscopy

Schematic of an NMR spectrometer



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

### Introduction to NMR Spectroscopy

- Protons in different environments absorb at slightly different frequencies, so they are distinguishable by NMR.
- The frequency at which a particular proton absorbs is determined by its electronic environment.
- The size of the magnetic field generated by the electrons around a proton determines where it absorbs.
- Modern NMR spectrometers use a constant magnetic field strength  $B_0$ , and then a narrow range of frequencies is applied to achieve the resonance of all protons.
- Only nuclei that contain odd mass numbers (such as <sup>1</sup>H, <sup>13</sup>C, <sup>19</sup>F and <sup>31</sup>P) or odd atomic numbers (such as <sup>2</sup>H and <sup>14</sup>N) give rise to NMR signals.

# <sup>1</sup>H NMR—The Spectrum

• An NMR spectrum is a plot of the intensity of a peak against its chemical shift, measured in parts per million (ppm).



# <sup>1</sup>H NMR—The Spectrum

- NMR absorptions generally appear as sharp peaks.
- Increasing chemical shift is plotted from right to left.
- Most protons absorb between 0-10 ppm.
- The terms "upfield" and "downfield" describe the relative location of peaks. Upfield means to the right. Downfield means to the left.
- NMR absorptions are measured relative to the position of a reference peak at 0 ppm on the  $\delta$  scale due to tetramethylsilane (TMS). TMS is a volatile inert compound that gives a single peak upfield from typical NMR absorptions.

# Nuclear Magnetic Resonance Spectroscopy <sup>1</sup>H NMR—The Spectrum

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



- By reporting the NMR absorption as a fraction of the NMR operating frequency, we get units, ppm, that are independent of the spectrometer.
- Four different features of a <sup>1</sup>H NMR spectrum provide information about a compound's structure:
  - a. Number of signals
  - b. Position of signals
  - c. Intensity of signals.
  - d. Spin-spin splitting of signals.

# <sup>1</sup>H NMR—Number of Signals

- The number of NMR signals equals the number of different types of protons in a compound.
- Protons in different environments give different NMR signals.
- Equivalent protons give the same NMR signal.



 To determine equivalent protons in cycloalkanes and alkenes, always draw all bonds to hydrogen.



# <sup>1</sup>H NMR—Number of Signals

#### The number of <sup>1</sup>H NMR signals of some representative organic compounds



#### number of signals?



one



one



CH<sub>3</sub> CH<sub>3</sub>

one







one

two

CH<sub>3</sub>CH<sub>2</sub>CH<sub>2</sub>-Br

three

CH<sub>3</sub>CHCH<sub>3</sub> CI

two

# $\begin{array}{c} \mathsf{CH}_3\mathsf{CHCH}_2\mathsf{CH}_3\\ \overset{{}_{\mathsf{B}}}{\mathsf{Br}}\end{array}$

#### $CI-CH_2CH_2CH_2-CI$

four

two



three

### <sup>1</sup>H NMR—Number of Signals

 In comparing two H atoms on a ring or double bond, two protons are equivalent only if they are cis (or trans) to the same groups.



# <sup>1</sup>H NMR—Number of Signals

• Proton equivalency in cycloalkanes can be determined similarly.



### <sup>1</sup>H NMR—Enantiotopic Protons.



 When substitution of two H atoms by Z forms enantiomers, the two H atoms are equivalent and give a single NMR signal. These two H atoms are called *enantiotopic* protons.

#### <sup>1</sup>H NMR— Diastereotopic Protons.



 When substitution of two H atoms by Z forms diastereomers, the two H atoms are not equivalent, and give two NMR signals. These two H atoms are called *diastereotopic* protons.

# Nuclear Magnetic Resonance Spectroscopy <sup>1</sup>H NMR—Position of Signals

- In the vicinity of the nucleus, the magnetic field generated by the circulating electron decreases the external magnetic field that the proton "feels".
- Since the electron experiences a lower magnetic field strength, it needs a lower frequency to achieve resonance. Lower frequency is to the right in an NMR spectrum, toward a lower chemical shift, so shielding shifts the absorption upfield.



### <sup>1</sup>H NMR—Position of Signals

- The less shielded the nucleus becomes, the more of the applied magnetic field (B<sub>0</sub>) it feels.
- This deshielded nucleus experiences a higher magnetic field strength, to it needs a higher frequency to achieve resonance.
- Higher frequency is to the left in an NMR spectrum, toward higher chemical shift—so deshielding shifts an absorption downfield.
- Protons near electronegative atoms are deshielded, so they absorb downfield.

# <sup>1</sup>H NMR—Position of Signals

 $CH_{3}CH_{2}CI$   $H_{a}$   $H_{b}$   $BrCH_{2}CH_{2}F$   $H_{a}$   $H_{b}$   $CICH_{2}CHCI_{2}$   $H_{a}$   $H_{b}$ 

- The  $H_b$  protons are **deshielded** because they are closer to the electronegative Cl atom, so they absorb **downfield** from  $H_a$ .
- Because F is more electronegative than Br, the H<sub>b</sub> protons are more **deshielded** than the H<sub>a</sub> protons and absorb farther **downfield**.
- The larger number of electronegative Cl atoms (two versus one) **deshields** H<sub>b</sub> more than H<sub>a</sub>, so it absorbs **downfield** from H<sub>a</sub>.

# <sup>1</sup>H NMR—Chemical Shift Values

 Protons in a given environment absorb in a predictable region in an NMR spectrum.



#### <sup>1</sup>H NMR—Chemical Shift Values

• The chemical shift of a C—H bond increases with increasing alkyl substitution.



# <sup>1</sup>H NMR—Chemical Shift Values

- In a magnetic field, the six  $\pi$  electrons in benzene circulate around the ring creating a ring current.
- The magnetic field induced by these moving electrons reinforces the applied magnetic field in the vicinity of the protons.
- The protons thus feel a stronger magnetic field and a higher frequency is needed for resonance. Thus they are deshielded and absorb downfield.



# <sup>1</sup>H NMR—Chemical Shift Values

- In a magnetic field, the loosely held  $\pi$  electrons of the double bond create a magnetic field that reinforces the applied field in the vicinity of the protons.
- The protons now feel a stronger magnetic field, and require a higher frequency for resonance. Thus the protons are deshielded and the absorption is downfield.



# <sup>1</sup>H NMR—Chemical Shift Values

- In a magnetic field, the  $\pi$  electrons of a carbon-carbon triple bond are induced to circulate, but in this case the induced magnetic field opposes the applied magnetic field (B<sub>0</sub>).
- Thus, the proton feels a weaker magnetic field, so a lower frequency is needed for resonance. The nucleus is shielded and the absorption is upfield.



# <sup>1</sup>H NMR—Chemical Shift Values

Effect of  $\pi$  Electrons on Chemical Shift Values

Proton type	Effect	Chemical shift (ppm)
H	highly deshielded	6.5–8
C=C H	deshielded	4.5–6
—C≡C— <mark>H</mark>	shielded	~2.5
	1	

Т
### <sup>1</sup>H NMR—Chemical Shift Values)

### Regions in the<sup>1</sup>H NMR spectrum



- Shielded protons absorb at lower chemical shift (to the right).
- Deshielded protons absorb at higher chemical shift (to the left).

### <sup>1</sup>H NMR—Intensity of Signals

- The area under an NMR signal is proportional to the number of absorbing protons.
- An NMR spectrometer automatically integrates the area under the peaks, and prints out a stepped curve (integral) on the spectrum.
- The height of each step is proportional to the area under the peak, which in turn is proportional to the number of absorbing protons.
- Modern NMR spectrometers automatically calculate and plot the value of each integral in arbitrary units.
- The ratio of integrals to one another gives the ratio of absorbing protons in a spectrum. Note that this gives a ratio, and not the absolute number, of absorbing protons.

### <sup>1</sup>H NMR—Intensity of Signals



#### *How To* Determine the Number of Protons Giving Rise to an NMR Signal

Example A compound of molecular formula  $C_9H_{10}O_2$  gives the following integrated <sup>1</sup>H NMR spectrum. How many protons give rise to each signal?



- Step [1] Determine the number of integration units per proton by dividing the total number of integration units by the total number of protons.
  - Total number of integration units: 54 + 23 + 33 = 110 units
  - Total number of protons = 10
  - Divide: 110 units/10 protons = 11 units per proton
- Step [2] Determine the number of protons giving rise to each signal.
  - To determine the number of H atoms giving rise to each signal, divide each integration value by the answer of Step [1] and round to the nearest whole number.

Signal [A]:
 Signal [B]:
 Signal [C]:

 Answer:
 
$$\frac{54}{11}$$
 =
 4.9
  $\approx$ 
 $5$  H
  $\frac{23}{11}$ 
 =
  $2$  H
  $\frac{33}{11}$ 
 =
  $3$  H

### <sup>1</sup>H NMR—Spin-Spin Splitting

• Consider the spectrum below:



### <sup>1</sup>H NMR—Spin-Spin Splitting

• Spin-spin splitting occurs only between nonequivalent protons on the same carbon or adjacent carbons.

Let us consider how the doublet due to the CH<sub>2</sub> group on BrCH<sub>2</sub>CHBr<sub>2</sub> occurs:

- When placed in an applied electric field,  $(B_0)$ , the adjacent proton (CHBr<sub>2</sub>) can be aligned with ( $\uparrow$ ) or against ( $\downarrow$ ) B<sub>0</sub>.
- Thus, the absorbing  $CH_2$  protons feel two slightly different magnetic fields—one slightly larger than  $B_0$ , and one slightly smaller than  $B_0$ .
- Since the absorbing protons feel two different magnetic fields, they absorb at two different frequencies in the NMR spectrum, thus splitting a single absorption into a doublet.

### <sup>1</sup>H NMR—Spin-Spin Splitting

The frequency difference, measured in Hz between two peaks of the doublet is called the coupling constant, *J*.



One adjacent proton splits an NMR signal into a doublet.

### <sup>1</sup>H NMR—Spin-Spin Splitting

Let us now consider how a triplet arises:



- When placed in an applied magnetic field (B<sub>0</sub>), the adjacent protons H<sub>a</sub> and H<sub>b</sub> can each be aligned with ( $\uparrow$ ) or against ( $\downarrow$ ) B<sub>0</sub>.
- Thus, the absorbing proton feels three slightly different magnetic fields—one slightly larger than B<sub>0</sub>, one slightly smaller than B<sub>0</sub>, and one the same strength as B<sub>0</sub>.

### <sup>1</sup>H NMR—Spin-Spin Splitting

- Because the absorbing proton feels three different magnetic fields, it absorbs at three different frequencies in the NMR spectrum, thus splitting a single absorption into a triplet.
- Because there are two different ways to align one proton with B<sub>0</sub>, and one proton against B<sub>0</sub>—that is,  $\uparrow_a\downarrow_b$  and  $\downarrow_a\uparrow_b$ —the middle peak of the triplet is twice as intense as the two outer peaks, making the ratio of the areas under the three peaks 1:2:1.
- Two adjacent protons split an NMR signal into a triplet.
- When two protons split each other, they are <u>said to be</u>
   <u>coupled</u>.
- The spacing between peaks in a split NMR signal, measured by the *J* value, is equal for coupled protons.

### <sup>1</sup>H NMR—Spin-Spin Splitting



three different magnetic fields

### <sup>1</sup>H NMR—Spin-Spin Splitting

Three general rules describe the splitting patterns commonly seen in the <sup>1</sup>H NMR spectra of organic compounds.

- 1. Equivalent protons do not split each other's signals.
- 2. A set of n nonequivalent protons splits the signal of a nearby proton into n + 1 peaks.
- 3. Splitting is observed for nonequivalent protons on the same carbon or adjacent carbons.

If H<sub>a</sub> and H<sub>b</sub> are not equivalent, splitting is observed when:



H<sub>a</sub> and H<sub>b</sub> are on the same carbon.



H<sub>a</sub> and H<sub>b</sub> are on **adjacent** carbons.

### <sup>1</sup>H NMR—Spin-Spin Splitting

Splitting is not generally observed between protons separated by more than three  $\sigma$  bonds.

 $\begin{array}{c} & O \\ & \sigma \\ CH_2 \\ & CHCH_3 \\ & \sigma_1 \\ & H_a \\ & H_b \\ & 2-butanone \end{array}$ 

 $H_a$  and  $H_b$  are separated by four  $\sigma$  bonds.

no splitting between H<sub>a</sub> and H<sub>b</sub>

 $\begin{array}{c} CH_2 \stackrel{\sigma}{=} O \stackrel{\sigma}{=} CHCH_3 \\ I \\ H_a \\ H_b \\ ethyl methyl ether \\ H_a \\ H_b \end{array}$ 

 ${\rm H}_{\rm a}$  and  ${\rm H}_{\rm b}$  are separated by four  $\sigma$  bonds.

no splitting between  ${\rm H}_{a}$  and  ${\rm H}_{b}$ 

### Names for a Given Number of Peaks in an NMR Signal

Number of pe	aks Name	Number of peaks	Name
1	singlet	5	quintet
2	doublet	6	sextet
3	triplet	7	septet
4	quartet	> 7	multiplet

#### Common Splitting Patterns Observed in <sup>1</sup>H NMR



\*The relative area under the peaks of a quartet is 1:3:3:1.

# Nuclear Magnetic Resonance Spectroscopy <sup>1</sup>H NMR—Spin-Spin Splitting

Whenever two (or three) different sets of adjacent protons are equivalent to each other, use the n + 1 rule to determine the splitting pattern.

<u>The 1H NMR spectrum of</u> <u>2-bromopropane, [(CH<sub>3</sub>)<sub>2</sub>CHBr]</u>



### Nuclear Magnetic Resonance Spectroscopy <sup>1</sup>H NMR—Spin-Spin Splitting

Now consider the spectrum of 1-bromopropane. Since  $H_a$  and  $H_c$  are not equivalent to each other, we cannot merely add them together and use the n + 1 rule.



- $H_a$  and  $H_c$  are both triplets.
- H<sub>b</sub> is split into 12 peaks, labeled as a multiplet. Fewer peaks are seen because some peaks overlap.

### <sup>1</sup>H NMR—Spin-Spin Splitting

When two sets of adjacent protons are different from each other (n protons on one adjacent carbon and m protons on the other), the number of peaks in an NMR signal = (n + 1)(m + 1).



 The H<sub>b</sub> signal is split into 12 peaks, a quartet of triplets. The number of peaks actually seen for the signal depends on the relative size of the coupling constants, J<sub>ab</sub> and J<sub>bc</sub>. When J<sub>ab</sub> >> J<sub>bc</sub>, as drawn in this diagram, all 12 lines of the pattern are visible. When J<sub>ab</sub> and J<sub>bc</sub> are similar in magnitude, peaks overlap and fewer lines are observed.

### <sup>1</sup>H NMR—Spin-Spin Splitting

- Protons on carbon-carbon double bonds often give characteristic splitting patterns.
- A disubstituted double bond can have two geminal protons, two cis protons, or two trans protons.
- When these protons are different, each proton splits the NMR signal of the other so that each proton appears as a doublet.
- The magnitude of the coupling constant J for these doublets depends on the arrangement of hydrogen atoms.



# Nuclear Magnetic Resonance Spectroscopy <sup>1</sup>H NMR—Spin-Spin Splitting

<sup>1</sup>H NMR spectra for the alkenyl protons of (*E*)- and (*Z*)-3-chloropropenoic acid



 Although both (*E*)- and (*Z*)-3-chloropropenoic acid show two doublets in their <sup>1</sup>H NMR spectra for their alkenyl protons, *J*<sub>trans</sub> > *J*<sub>cis</sub>.

### <sup>1</sup>H NMR—Spin-Spin Splitting

The <sup>1</sup>H NMR spectrum of vinyl acetate (CH<sub>2</sub>=CHOCOCH<sub>3</sub>)



### <sup>1</sup>H NMR—Spin-Spin Splitting

Splitting diagrams for the alkenyl protons in vinyl acetate are shown below. Note that each pattern is different in appearance because the magnitude of the coupling constants forming them is different.

Splitting diagram for the alkenyl protons in vinyl acetate Copyright @ The McGraw-Hill Companies, Inc. Permission required for reproduction or display.  $(CH_2 = CHOCHOCH_3)$ Hd Hb  $H_c$ One nearby H splits the  $J_{\rm bd}$  $J_{\rm bd}$ signal into a doublet. Jbc Jbc Jbc The second nearby proton  $J_{cd}$ splits the doublet into a Jod  $J_{\rm bc} = 1.2$  Hz (geminal) doublet of doublets.  $J_{cd} = 6.5 \text{ Hz} (cis)$  $J_{\rm bd} = 14$  Hz (trans) doublet of doublets doublet of doublets doublet of doublets due to H<sub>d</sub> due to H<sub>h</sub> due to H<sub>c</sub>

### <sup>1</sup>H NMR—OH Protons

- Under usual conditions, an OH proton does not split the NMR signal of adjacent protons.
- The signal due to an OH proton is not split by adjacent protons.



### <sup>1</sup>H NMR—OH Protons

- Ethanol ( $CH_3CH_2OH$ ) has three different types of protons, so there are three signals in its NMR spectrum.
- The  $H_a$  signal is split by the two  $H_b$  protons into three peaks (a triplet).
- The  $H_b$  signal is split only by the three  $H_a$  protons into four peaks, a quartet. The adjacent OH proton does not split the signal due to  $H_b$ .
- $\cdot$   $\rm H_{c}$  is a singlet because OH protons are not split by adjacent protons.
- Protons on electronegative atoms rapidly exchange between molecules in the presence of trace amounts of acid or base. Thus, the  $CH_2$  group of ethanol never "feels" the presence of the OH proton, because the OH proton is rapidly moving from one molecule to another.
- This phenomenon usually occurs with NH and OH protons.

### <sup>1</sup>H NMR—Cyclohexane Conformers

- Recall that cyclohexane conformers interconvert by ring flipping.
- Because the ring flipping is very rapid at room temperature, an NMR spectrum records an average of all conformers that interconvert.
- Thus, even though each cyclohexane carbon has two different types of hydrogens—one axial and one equatorial—the two chair forms of cyclohexane rapidly interconvert them, and an NMR spectrum shows a single signal for the average environment that it "sees".



Axial and equatorial H's rapidly interconvert. NMR sees an average environment and shows one signal.

### <sup>1</sup>H NMR—Protons on Benzene Rings

- Benzene has six equivalent deshielded protons and exhibits a single peak in its <sup>1</sup>H NMR spectrum at 7.27 ppm.
- Monosubstituted benzenes contain five deshielded protons that are no longer equivalent, and the appearance of these signals is highly variable, depending on the identity of Z.



• The appearance of the signals in the 6.5–8 ppm region of the <sup>1</sup>H NMR spectrum depends on the identity of Z in  $C_6H_5Z$ .

### **Examples**
































 $C_{11}H_{16}$ 



 $C_4H_8Br_2$ 



C<sub>7</sub>H<sub>8</sub>O



C<sub>4</sub>H<sub>9</sub>Br

- a doublet 1.04 ppm 6H
- b complex 1.95 ppm 1H
- c doublet 3.33 ppm 2H

a = two equivalent CH<sub>3</sub>'s with one neighboring H (b?)
c = CH<sub>2</sub> with one neighbor H (also b)



- a 6H doublet
  - b 1H complex
- c 2H doublet

# $C_{10}H_{13}Cl$

- a singlet 1.57 ppm 6H
- b singlet 3.07 ppm 2H
- c singlet 7.27 ppm 5H
- a = two-equilalent CH<sub>3</sub>'s with no neighbors c = monosubstituted benzene ring
- $\mathbf{b} = \mathbf{CH}_2$



# <sup>1</sup>H NMR—Structure Determination

#### *How To* Use <sup>1</sup>H NMR Data to Determine a Structure

Example Using its <sup>1</sup>H NMR spectrum, determine the structure of an unknown compound X that has molecular formula  $C_4H_8O_2$  and contains a C=O absorption in its IR spectrum.



#### Step [1] Determine the number of different kinds of protons.

- The number of NMR signals equals the number of different types of protons.
- This molecule has three NMR signals ([A], [B], and [C]) and therefore three types of protons (H<sub>a</sub>, H<sub>b</sub>, and H<sub>c</sub>).

# <sup>1</sup>H NMR—Structure Determination

#### How To, continued . . .

Step [2] Use the integration data to determine the number of H atoms giving rise to each signal (Section 14.5).

- Total number of integration units: 14 + 11 + 15 = 40 units
- Total number of protons = 8
- Divide: 40 units/8 protons = 5 units per proton
- Then, divide each integration value by this answer (5 units per proton) and round to the nearest whole number.



# <sup>1</sup>H NMR—Structure Determination

#### How To, continued . . .

- Step [3] Use individual splitting patterns to determine what carbon atoms are bonded to each other.
  - Start with the singlets. Signal [C] is due to a CH<sub>3</sub> group with no adjacent nonequivalent H atoms. Possible structures include:

$$CH_3O-$$
 or  $CH_3O-$  or  $CH_3-C-$ 

- Because signal [A] is a triplet, there must be 2 H's (CH<sub>2</sub> group) on the adjacent carbon.
- Because signal [B] is a quartet, there must be 3 H's (CH<sub>3</sub> group) on the adjacent carbon.
- This information suggests that X has an ethyl group ---→ CH<sub>3</sub>CH<sub>2</sub>-.



To summarize, **X** contains  $CH_3-$ ,  $CH_3CH_2-$ , and C=O (from the IR). Comparing these atoms with the molecular formula shows that one O atom is missing. Because O atoms do not absorb in a <sup>1</sup>H NMR spectrum, their presence can only be inferred by examining the chemical shift of protons near them. O atoms are more electronegative than C, thus deshielding nearby protons, and shifting their absorption downfield.

# <sup>1</sup>H NMR—Structure Determination

#### How To, continued . . .

- Step [4] Use chemical shift data to complete the structure.
  - Put the structure together in a manner that preserves the splitting data and is consistent with the reported chemical shifts.
  - In this example, two isomeric structures (A and B) are possible for X considering the splitting data only:



- Chemical shift information distinguishes the two possibilities. The electronegative O atom deshields adjacent H's, shifting them downfield between 3 and 4 ppm. If A is the correct structure, the singlet due to the CH<sub>3</sub> group (H<sub>c</sub>) should occur downfield, whereas if B is the correct structure, the quartet due to the CH<sub>2</sub> group (H<sub>b</sub>) should occur downfield.
- Because the NMR of X has a singlet (not a quartet) at 3.7, A is the correct structure.

# <sup>13</sup>C NUCLEAR MAGNETIC RESONANCE

✓ <sup>13</sup>C occurs naturally as 1.11% of total C and the NMR signal is weaker than <sup>1</sup>H.

Therefore, acquisition of a spectrum usually <u>takes much longer</u> <u>than in <sup>1</sup>H NMR</u>. Fourier Transform NMR is used to collect a spectrum.

✓ The magnetogyric ratio of the <sup>13</sup>C nucleus is about 1/4 that of the <sup>1</sup>H nucleus. Therefore, the <u>resonance frequency in <sup>13</sup>C</u> NMR:

is much lower than in <sup>1</sup>H NMR.

(75 MHz for <sup>13</sup>C as opposed to 300 MHz for <sup>1</sup>H in a 7.04 Tesla field).

✓ At these lower frequencies, the excess population of nuclei in the lower spin state is reduced, which, in turn, reduces the sensitivity of NMR detection.

✓ <sup>13</sup>C resonances occur: from <u>0 to 200</u> ppm ( $\delta$ ) so there is <u>little interference</u> with <sup>1</sup>H  $\delta$  values.

- Unlike <sup>1</sup>H NMR, the area of a peak is <u>not</u> proportional to the number of carbons giving rise to the signal. Therefore, integrations are usually not done.
- ✓ Each <u>unique carbon</u> in a molecule gives rise to <u>a <sup>13</sup>C</u> <u>NMR signal</u>. Therefore, if there are <u>fewer signals</u> in the spectrum than <u>carbon atoms</u> in the compound, the molecule must <u>possess symmetry</u>.
- ✓ <sup>13</sup>C peaks are :
   <u>split by the attached hydrogens</u>.

#### ✓ When running a spectrum: The *protons are usually decoupled*

The *protons are usually decoupled from their respective carbons* to give a singlet for each carbon atom. This is called a *proton-decoupled spectrum*.

✓ **Broadband decoupling:** 

eliminates splitting of C by Hs attached to that C.

## ✓ Off-resonance decoupling:

eliminates interactions of hydrogens on adjacent carbons.

# ✓ Peaks in a <sup>13</sup>C NMR spectrum are: <u>typically singlets</u>

✓ <sup>13</sup>C—<sup>13</sup>C splitting is not seen:

because the probability of two <sup>13</sup>C nuclei being in the

<u>same molecule</u> is <u>very small</u>.

✓ <sup>13</sup>C—<sup>1</sup>H splitting is not seen:

because spectrum is measured under conditions that suppress this splitting (*broadband decoupling*).

## **Carbon-13 Proton-Coupled Patterns**





Typical coupling constants for <sup>13</sup>C-<sup>1</sup>H one-bond couplings are between *100 to 250 Hz*.

### **Proton-Decoupled <sup>13</sup>C NMR of 2-Butanol**



## **Proton-Coupled <sup>13</sup>C NMR of 2-Butanol**



# <sup>13</sup>C Off-resonance decoupled spectrum



# <sup>1</sup>H & <sup>13</sup>C NMR: 1,1,2-trichloropropane



# <sup>13</sup>C Off-resonance & Broadband decoupled spectra



# <sup>13</sup>C Broadband decoupled spectrum



# <sup>13</sup>C NMR – n-Hexane



# <sup>13</sup>C NMR – Acetone



### <sup>1</sup>H & <sup>13</sup>C NMR: 2-methyl-2-butene





### <sup>1</sup>H & <sup>13</sup>C NMR: 2-methyl-1-butene





# Symmetry in <sup>13</sup>C NMR

 ✓ If there are <u>fewer signals in the spectrum than carbon atoms</u> in the compound, the molecule <u>must possess symmetry</u>.

**Examples:** 







# Enantiotopic vs Diastereotopic CH<sub>3</sub>'s









# <sup>13</sup>C NMR and Peak Intensities



# <sup>1</sup>H and <sup>13</sup>C NMR compared

- ✓ Both give us information about the number of chemically nonequivalent nuclei (*nonequivalent hydrogens or nonequivalent carbons*)
- ✓ Both give us information about the environment of the nuclei:
  - **Ex:**(hybridization state, attached atoms, etc.)
- ✓ <sup>13</sup>C signals are spread over a much wider range than <sup>1</sup>H signals making it easier to identify and count individual nuclei

# <sup>13</sup>C Chemical Shifts

are measured in ppm ( $\delta$ ) *from the carbons of TMS* 

# <sup>13</sup>C NMR

C environment			δppm	C environm e	n t	δррт
Saturated carbons			0-55	Acetylenic	-C≡C-	60-90
	primary	$R-CH_3$	4-30			
	secondary	$R_2$ - <b>C</b> $H_2$	12-50	Benzenoid		120-140
	tertiary	R <sub>3</sub> - <b>C</b> H	22-54			
	quaternary	R <sub>4</sub> - <b>C</b>	29-47	Carbonyl	C=O	150-220
				amie	des & imides	150-180
Olefinic carbons			100-165	este	ers & anhydride	155-185
		$R_2C=CH_2$	100-110		acids	170-190
		$R-CH=CH_2$	110-120		ketones	185-220
		R-CH= <b>C</b> H-R	125-150		aldehydes	190-210
		CH <sub>2</sub> = <b>C</b> H-R	130-154			
		$CH_2 = CR_2$	140-165	Nitriles	R- <b>C≡</b> N	115-125
Allenes				Azomethine	R <sub>2</sub> <b>C</b> =N-R	145-165
		C=C=C	70-95			
		C= <b>C</b> =C	200-215			


<sup>13</sup>C Chemical Shifts are most affected by:

✓ <u>hybridization state</u> of carbon

*electronegativity of groups* attached to the carbon:
 *electronegativity* has an even: *greater effect on <sup>13</sup>C chemical shifts than it does on 1H chemical shifts*





## Hybridization Effects



 $\checkmark$  <u>sp</u><sup>3</sup> hybridized carbon is <u>more shielded</u> than <u>sp</u><sup>2</sup>.

$$\begin{array}{c} H - C \equiv C - CH_2 - CH_2 - CH_3 \\ 68 \quad 84 \quad 22 \quad 20 \quad 13 \end{array}$$

*sp* hybridized carbon is more shielded than <u>*sp*</u><sup>2</sup>, but <u>less shielded</u> than <u>*sp*</u><sup>3</sup>.

## Electronegativity Effect



*an electronegative atom* deshields the carbon to which it is attached.

## Types of Carbons

	Classification	Chemical shift, &	
		<sup>1</sup> H	<sup>13</sup> C
CH <sub>4</sub>		0.2	2
CH <sub>3</sub> CH <sub>3</sub>	primary	0.9	8
CH <sub>3</sub> CH <sub>2</sub> CH <sub>3</sub>	secondary	1.3	16
(CH <sub>3</sub> ) <sub>3</sub> CH	tertiary	1.7	25
(CH <sub>3</sub> ) <sub>4</sub> C	quaternary		28

Replacing H with C (more electronegative) <u>deshields</u> <u>C to which it is attached</u>.

## Electronegativity Effects on CH<sub>3</sub>

	Chemical shift, $\delta$ (ppm)			
	<sup>1</sup> H	<sup>13</sup> C		
CH <sub>4</sub>	0.2	2		
CH <sub>3</sub> NH <sub>2</sub>	2.5	27		
CH <sub>3</sub> OH	3.4	50		
CH <sub>3</sub> F	4.3	75		

#### Electronegativity Effects and Chain Length

# $\frac{\text{CI}}{\text{CH}} - \text{CH}_2 - \text{CH}_2 - \text{CH}_2 - \text{CH}_2 - \text{CH}_3$ $\delta \text{ (ppm)} \qquad \frac{45}{2} \qquad 33 \qquad 29 \qquad 22 \qquad \underline{14}$

 Deshielding effect of CI <u>decreases</u> as <u>number of bonds</u> between <u>CI and C increases</u>. <u>Carbonyl Carbons</u> are Especially <u>Deshielded</u>



<i>Type of carbon</i>	Chemical shift (δ), ppm	Type of carbon	Chemical shift (δ), ppm
RCH <sub>3</sub>	0-35	RC≡CR	65-90
$R_2 CH_2$	15-40		<u>2</u> 100-150
R₃ <mark>C</mark> H	25-50		
R <sub>4</sub> C	30-40		110-175

Type of carbon C	<sup>c</sup> hemical shift (δ), ppm	Type of carbon	Chemical shift (δ), ppm
RCH₂Br	20-40	RC=N O	110-125
RCH <sub>2</sub> CI	25-50	RCOR	160-185
RCH <sub>2</sub> NH <sub>2</sub>	35-50	o	
RCH <sub>2</sub> OH	50-65	RCR	190-220
RCH <sub>2</sub> OR	50-65		

#### Approximate Values of Chemical Shifts for <sup>13</sup>C NMR

Type of carbon	Approximate chemical shift (ppm)	Type of carbon	Approximate chemical shift (ppm)
(CH <sub>3</sub> ) <sub>4</sub> Si	0	C—I	0–40
R— <mark>C</mark> H <sub>3</sub>	8–35	C-Br	25–65
R— <mark>C</mark> H <sub>2</sub> —R	15–50	C—Cl C—N C—O	35–80 40–60 50–80
R R R R R R R R	20–60		165–175
R R— <mark>C</mark> —R R	30–40	R RO	165–175
≡ <mark>C</mark>	65–85	R HO	175–185
= <mark>C</mark>	100–150	R H C=O	190–200
C	110–170	R R	205–220

#### Measuring a <sup>13</sup>C NMR spectrum involves

1- Equilibration of the nuclei between the lower and higher spin states under the influence of a magnetic field.

2- Application of a radiofrequency pulse to give an excess of nuclei in the higher spin state.

3- Acquisition of free-induction decay data during the time interval in which the equilibrium distribution of nuclear spins is restore

4- Mathematical manipulation (Fourier transform) of the data to plot a spectrum

5- Steps 2 and 3 can be repeated hundreds of times to enhance the signal-noise ratio

#### Alkane: 2-methylpentane

#### Example 1:





Alcohol: 2-hexanol



#### **Alkyl Halide: 3-bromopentane**

## Example 3:





Alkene: 1-hexene

-





#### **Aromatic Ring: eugenol**



#### **Example 6: Carboxylic Acid**: pentanoic acid





#### **Ester**: ethyl valerate



#### Example 8:

#### **<u>Amide</u>**: pentanamide



## **Example 9:** Ketone: 3-methyl-2-pentanone



## **Example 10:** Aldehyde: 2-methylpentanal



## DEPT<sup>13</sup>C NMR Spectra

- DISTORTIONLESS ENHANCEMENT BY POLARIZATION TRANSFER (DEPT) <sup>13</sup>C NMR provides information the <u>number of hydrogen atoms attached to each</u> <u>carbon</u>.
  - ✓ Some <sup>13</sup>C signals *stay the same*
  - ✓ Some <sup>13</sup>C signals <u>*disappear*</u>
  - ✓ Some <sup>13</sup>C signals *are inverted*
- Full decoupled <sup>13</sup>C spectrum shows all carbon peaks.
- In a **DEPT-90**, only **CH** signals appear.
- In a DEPT-135, CH<sub>3</sub> and CH give (+) signals, and CH<sub>2</sub> give
  (-) signals.

## **DEPT Spectra**

	CH <sub>3</sub>	CH <sub>2</sub>	CH	С
Broadband-decoupled	L	L	L	L
DEPT-90	_		T	
DEPT-135	Ţ	Υ	Ţ	_





	С	Ή	$CH_2$	$CH_3$
С	normal C-13 spectrum			

#### **Quaternary carbons (C)** do <u>not</u> show up in DEPT.

#### Simulated DEPT Spectra of Ethyl Phenylacetate



## **DEPT Spectra of Ipsenol**



## <sup>13</sup>C NMR – 6-methyl-5-hepten-2-ol

## Broadband All carbons as singlets



## <sup>13</sup>C NMR – 6-methyl-5-hepten-2-ol

## DEPT 90 Only CH carbons



# references

- -Robert Milton Silverstein, G. Clayton Bassler, Terence C. Morill 1998 Science 432 pages
- http://rmn2d.univ-lille1.fr/index1.htm
- http://www.chem.queensu.ca/facilities/NMR/nmr/webcourse/inept.htm
- www.cheneliere.info/.../05\_Spectroscopie\_par\_resonance\_magnetique\_nucleaire\_(RMN\_13C).pdf
- -Proton NMR spectroscopy /prof: Chaafai Ahmed Mahmoud Jad
- -Spectrometric identification of organic compounds, 7edition, Robert M.S., Francis .X.W., and David J.K., State university of New york
- •
- <u>www.rmn.uhp-nancy.fr/Mutzenhardt/RMNSV2CM4.pdf</u>