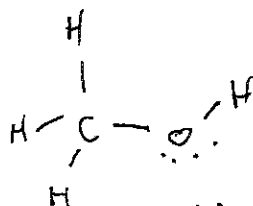
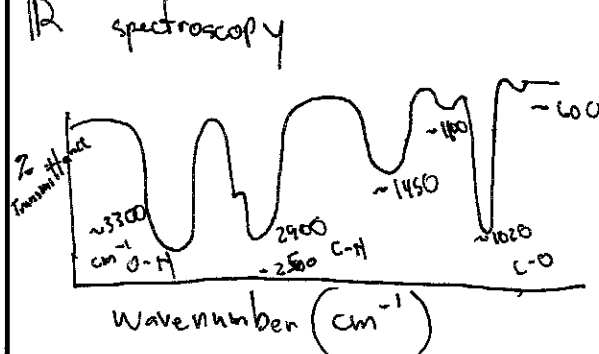


Course Chem 345Lecturer GellmanDay FridayDate 1/23/15Notes Taken By C. WeatherlyTotal # of Pages 5

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Guest Lecture by. Chari Barta

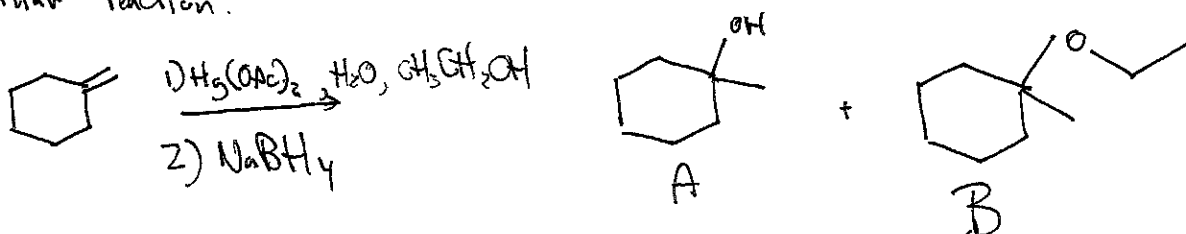
IR spectroscopy

Sketch of  $\text{CH}_3\text{OH}$  spectrum.

\* Why IR?

- 1) evidence for or against specific types of bonds / functional groups
- 2) allows us to determine between alternative hypotheses for structure of a given molecule

A familiar reaction:

R-O-H  $\rightarrow$  expect strong IR absorption ( $3200 - 3400 \text{ cm}^{-1}$ )\* Sample w/ abs.  $3200 - 3400 \text{ cm}^{-1} \Rightarrow \text{A}$ \* Sample w/o " " " "  $\Rightarrow \text{B}$ 

Qualities that make IR useful:

- ① strong signal (prominent in spectrum) (polar molecules tend to give stronger signal)
- ② peaks in uncrowded region of IR spectrum

Course Chem 345Lecturer GellmanDay FridayDate 1/23/15Notes Taken By C. WeatherlyTotal # of Pages 5

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- organic chemists focus on:  $3600 - 1500 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  - uncrowded region  
[ $\leq 1500 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  - peaks are nearly unassignable]  
( $1000 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  acc. to some)

③ Bond type that isn't too plentiful

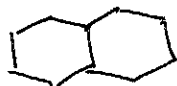
Ex.  $\text{sp}^3 \text{ C-H}$  stretches:  $2850 - 2950 \text{ cm}^{-1}$

$\text{sp}^2 \text{ C-H}$  " :  $3000 - 3100 \text{ cm}^{-1}$

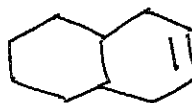
$\text{sp C-H}$  " :  $3300 \text{ cm}^{-1}$

- since ~~virtually all~~ <sup>most</sup> organic molecules contain  $\text{sp}^3 \text{ C-H}$  bonds, little information available in  $2850 - 2950 \text{ cm}^{-1}$

Ex.



vs.



X

Y

which is which?

- both has abs.  $2850 - 2950 \text{ cm}^{-1}$

- only Y has abs.  $3000 - 3100 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  ( $\text{sp}^2 \text{ C-H}$  stretch)

- Before development of IR, had to test for reactions

Course Chem 345 Lecturer Grellman  
Day Fri Date 1/23/15  
Notes Taken By C. Weatherly Total # of Pages 5

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## Chap. 13: Nuclear Magnetic Resonance (NMR) Spectroscopy

\* Most powerful analytical tool for most organic chemists!

Rec. problems: 3, 6-26, 30-46, 48, 49, 51-58

- Method focuses on atomic nuclei
- detects all nuclei of a given type in a molecule
- organic chemists: most common NMR spectroscopy  $\rightarrow$   $^1\text{H}$   
"proton - NMR"
  - $^{13}\text{C}$ -NMR is also useful
  - $^{31}\text{P}$ ,  $^{19}\text{F}$ , others are occasionally useful

$^1\text{H}$ -NMR - signal for each type of H in a molecule

- critical concept for  $^1\text{H}$ -NMR interpretation
- $\Rightarrow$  all equivalent H's contribute to a single NMR signal
- $\Rightarrow$  non-equivalent H's (or sets of non-eq. H's) give rise to different NMR signals.

— Re-read sec. 10, 8 in London text.

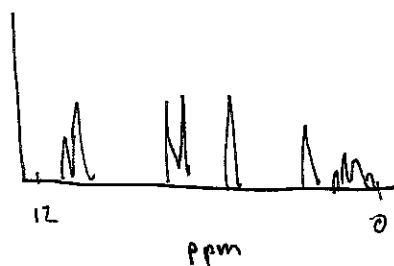
- \* homotopic: chemically equivalent groups
- \* enantiotopic: chemically non-eq. groups w/in a chiral environment.  $\rightarrow$  are chemically equivalent out of a chiral environment
- \* diastereotopic: chemically non-equivalent groups

Course Chem 345Lecturer GrellmanDay FridayDate 1/23/15Notes Taken By C. WeatherlyTotal # of Pages 5

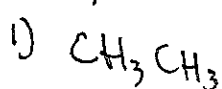
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Examples:

Sample NMR spectrum:

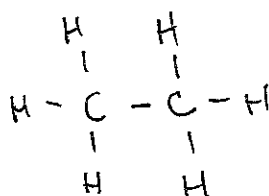


How many chemically distinct protons:



\* All equivalent

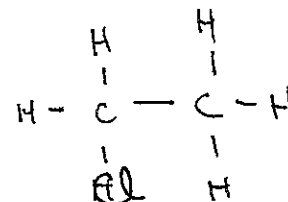
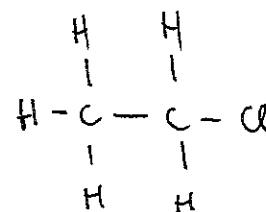
\* One NMR signal



To see, try a substitution test.

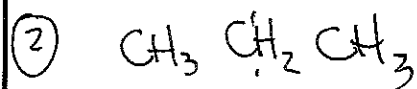
1) Replace a proton w/ another atom.

2) Replace another



The molecules are the same! So the H's are chemically equivalent.

- This test is an exercise on paper. No actual reactions need to be done.

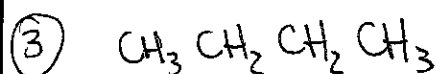
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plane of  
symmetry

\* 2  $^1\text{H}$ -NMR signals\* 2 kinds of H's ( $\text{CH}_3$  vs.  $\text{CH}_2$ )

- all 6 methyl H's are homotopic

- middle (methylene) H's are homotopic

-  $\text{CH}_3, \text{CH}_2 \Rightarrow$  constitutionally non-equivalent $\Rightarrow$  \* 2  $^1\text{H}$ -NMR signals\* 2 kinds of H's ( $\text{CH}_3$  vs.  $\text{CH}_2$ )

- all 6 methyl H's are homotopic

-  $\text{CH}_3, \text{CH}_2$  are different- H's on a  $\text{CH}_2$  are enantiotopic

Sub. test:

