Nuclear spin and the splitting of energy levels in a magnetic field

Energy levels for a nucleus with spin quantum number 1/2

Top 3 list for 13C NMR Interpretation

- 1. Symmetry
- 2. Chemical Shifts
- 3. Multiplicity

¹³C NMR of CH₃CH₂OH

13C NMR of 1-Propanol

1H NMR of 1-Propanol

1H NMR of 2-Propanol

DEPT C-NMR Spectra

Normal 13C spectra are broadband decoupled. With the development of more modern spectroscopic methods it has become possible to use a programed sequences of radio frequency pulses to determine other structural features.

One of these techniques is known as **DEPT** (*distortionless enhancement of polarization transfer*) which can be used to give the number of attached H. DEPT is an NMR technique for distinguishing among 13 C signals for CH₃, CH₂, CH, and quaternary carbons.

In a DEPT experiment, a sequence of pulses with various delay times are used to create the DEPT spectra where $-CH₃$ and CH peaks appear as normal and $-CH_{2}$ - peaks appear inverted. Quaternary C are not usually seen. This way the number of H attached to C can usually be deduced. An example of a DEPT is shown below for 2-butanol (notice how the peak for the $-CH_{2}$ - points down) with the corresponding broadband decoupled spectra.

The DEPT method

The DEPT methods uses a complex series of pulses in both the 1 H and 13C ranges: a 45° pulse, a 90° pulse and a 135° pulse

- **quaternary carbons give no signal**
- **45° pulse: all H-bearing peaks are positive**
- **90° pulse: only CH carbons are seen**
- **135° pulse: carbon signals show different phases**
- **DEPT** signals for CH₃ and CH carbons give positive signals
- **DEPT signals for CH2 carbons give negative signals**
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13C NMR spectrum for Ethylbenzene

Ethylbenzene: DEPT 90°

Ethylbenzene: DEPT 135°

Top 5 list for 1H NMR Interpretation

- 1.Symmetry
- 2.Chemical Shifts
- 3.Multiplicity (spin spin coupling)
- 4.Integration of peak area
- 5.Protons that exchange with deuterium

The Chemical Shift (Also Called δ) Scale

Here's how it works. We decide on a sample we'll use to standardize our instruments. We take an NMR of that standard and measure its absorbance frequency. We then measure the frequency of our sample and subtract its frequency from that of the standard. We then divide by the frequency of the standard. This gives a number called the "chemical shift,", which does not depend on the magnetic field strength. Why not? Let's look at examples.

Imagine that we have a magnet where our standard absorbs at 300,000,000 Hz (300 megahertz), and our sample absorbs at 300,000,300 Hz. The difference is 300 Hz, so we take $300/300,000,000 = 1/1,000,000$ and call that 1 part per million (or 1 PPM). Now lets examine the same sample in a stronger magnetic field where the reference comes at 500,000,000 Hz, or 500 megahertz. The frequency of our sample will increase proportionally, and will come at 500,000,500 Hz. The difference is now 500 Hz, but we divide by 500,000,000 (500/500,000,000 = 1/1,000,000, = 1 PPM).

The Chemical Shift of Different Protons

 \mathcal{C} H

What makes the ¹H NMR useful is that different protons usually appear at different chemical shifts. So, we can distinguish one kind of proton from another. Why do different protons appear at different δ ? There are several reasons, one of which is shielding. The electrons in a bond shield the nuclei from the magnetic field. So, if there is more electron density around a proton, it sees a slightly lower magnetic field, less electron density means it sees a higher magnetic field:

> **^Z** This represents the electron density of a C-H bond. How much electron density is on the proton depends on what else is attached to the carbon. If Z is an elelctronegative atom, the carbon becomes electron deficient and pulls some of the electron density away from the H. if Z is an electron donating group, more electron density ends up on the H.

The Part we are responsible- Interpreting Spectra

The spectrum of ethyl acetate is shown below. For ¹H NMR, there are three kinds each of which we will consider each of these separately:

- 1. Chemical shift data tells us what kinds of protons we have.
- 2. Integrals tells us the ratio of each kind of proton in our sample.
- 3. ¹H ¹H coupling tells us about protons that are near other protons.

IV. Chemical Shift of Protons on sp2 and sp Hybridized Carbons

Circulating π **electrons** affect the chemical shifts of H's bound to multiply bonded carbons.

A. Protons on Benzene Rings

- **Circulating π electrons** create a ring current.
- **Induced magnetic field** reinforces **B**⁰ in vicinity of aromatic protons.
- Aromatic protons are **deshielded** and absorb **downfield** at 7.3 ppm.

B. Protons on Carbon-Carbon Double Bonds

• Vinyl protons are **deshielded** and absorb **downfield** at 4.5 – 6 ppm.

C. Protons on Carbon-Carbon Triple Bonds

- **Induced magnetic field** opposes \mathbf{B}_0 in vicinity of alkynyl proton.
- Alkynyl protons are **shielded** and absorb **upfield** at \sim 2.5 ppm.

Different kinds of protons typically come at different chemical shifts. Shown below is a chart of where some common kinds of protons appear in the δ scale. Note that most protons appear between 0 and 10 ppm. The reference, tetramethylsilane (TMS) appears at 0 ppm, and aldehydes appear near 10 ppm.

Integrals tell us the ratio of each kind of proton. They are lines, the heights of which are proportional to the intensity of the signal. Consider ethyl acetate. There are three kinds of protons in this molecule, the $CH₃$ next to the carbonyl, the CH₂ next to the O and the CH₃ next to the CH₂. The ratio of the signals arising from each of these kinds of protons should be 3 to 2 to 3, respectively.

Integrals

1H - 1H Coupling

the signals don't appear as single lines, sometimes they appear as multiple lines. This is due to ¹H-¹H coupling (also called spin-spin splitting or Jcoupling). these protons are tiny little magnets, that can be oriented either with or against the magnetic field of the NMR machine. When the field created by HB reinforces the magnetic field of the NMR machine HA feels a slightly stronger field, but when the field created by HB opposes B_0 , H_A feels a slightly weaker field. So, we see two signals for H_A depending on the alignment of H_B . The same is true for H_B , it can feel either a slightly stronger or weaker field due to H_A 's presence. So, rather than see a single line for each of these protons, we see two lines for each.

More 1H - 1H Coupling

What happens when there is more than one proton splitting a neighboring proton? We get more lines. Consider the molecule below where we have two protons on one carbon and one proton on another.

Why are There Three Lines for H_B ?

 $H_{\rm B}$ feels the splitting of both $H_{\rm A}$ and $H_{\rm A}$ '. So, let's imagine starting with $H_{\rm B}$ as a single line, then let's "turn on" the coupling from H_A and H_A ' one at a time:

Because the two lines in the middle overlap, that line is twice as big as the lines on the outside. More neighboring protons leads to more lines as shown on the next slide.

If a proton has n neighboring protons *that are equivalent,* that proton will be split into n+1 lines. So, if we have four equivalent neighbors, we will have five lines, six equivalent neighbors… well, you can do the math. The lines will not be of equal intensity, rather their intensity will be given by **Pascal's triangle** as shown below.

Splitting Patterns with Multiple Neighboring Protons

Chemical Equivalency

All of the protons found in chemically identical environments within a molecule are **chemically equivalent**. They often exhibit the same chemical shift.

The **blue** protons all come at the same chemical shift and do not split each other

The red protons both come at the same chemical shift and do not split each other

When protons couple to each other, they do so with a certain intensity. This is called the "coupling constant." Coupling constants can vary from 0 Hz (which means that the protons are not coupled, even though they are neighbors) to 16 Hz.

Second Order Coupling ${\sf H}_{\sf A}$ If uncoupled, H_A would appear as a H_M H_A H_x singlet where the dashed line indicates 12 Hz Now, let's "turn on" $H_A - H_X$ coupling. This splits the single line into two lines that are 12 Hz appart Coupling constant H_A - H_X = 12 Coupling constant H_A - H_M = 6 6 Hz Now, let's "turn on" H_A - H_M coupling. This 6 Hz splits each of the two new lines into two lines that are 6 Hz appart for a total of four lines

If the protons are not equivalent, they can have different coupling constants and the resulting pattern will not be a triplet, but a "doublet of doublets." Sometimes, nonequivalent protons can be on the same carbon as described on the next slide.

The coupling of *trans* protons to each other is typically very large, around 16 Hz, while the coupling of *cis* protons, while still large, is a little smaller, around 12 Hz. This leads to the pattern shown below, and an example of a molecule with this splitting pattern is shown on the next slide.

A molecule with a nine line splitting pattern

Magnitude of some typical coupling constants

Application of Karplus equation

cis-4-tert-butyl-1-chlorocyclohexane

trans-4-tert-butyl-1-chlorocyclohexane

Nomenclature of proton spin system

1. Summary of Pople Notations

- Coupled two-spin systems: AX and AB patterns
- Analyzable three spin systems: AX_2 , AB_2 , AMX , ABX systems.

2. A popular classification system that assigns protons to one of three types:

- 1. homotopic
- 2. enantiotopic
- 3. diastereotopic.

Homotopic Hydrogens **Identical protons** $\mathbf C$ $H^{\mu\nu}$ H H

Enantiotopic Hydrogens

• Not Identical, but have the same chemical shift

Diastereotopic Hydrogens

 When the replacement procedure described above generates two compounds that are diastereomers, the two hydrogen atoms that were replaced are classified as diastereotopic. They have different chemical shifts.

For examples of diastereotopic protons, see Notre Dame problems 8 and 18.

