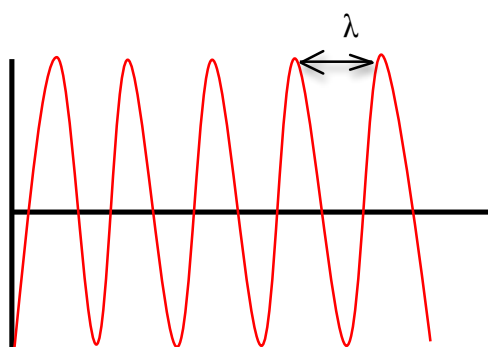


## Nuclear Magnetic Resonance (NMR) Spectroscopy

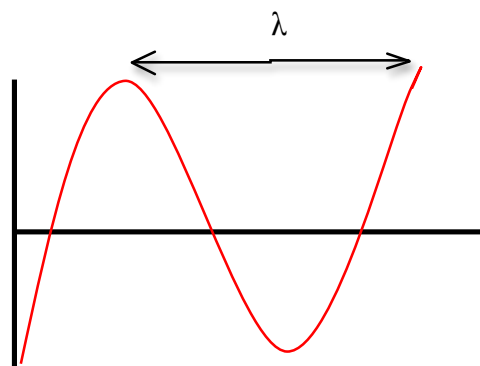
### Light and Energy

$$E = h\nu = hc / \lambda$$

Where:  $E$  = energy  
 $\nu$  = frequency  
 $c$  = speed of light =  $3 \times 10^8$  meter/second  
 $h$  = Planck's constant =  $6.6 \times 10^{-34}$  Joule•second  
 $\lambda$  = wavelength

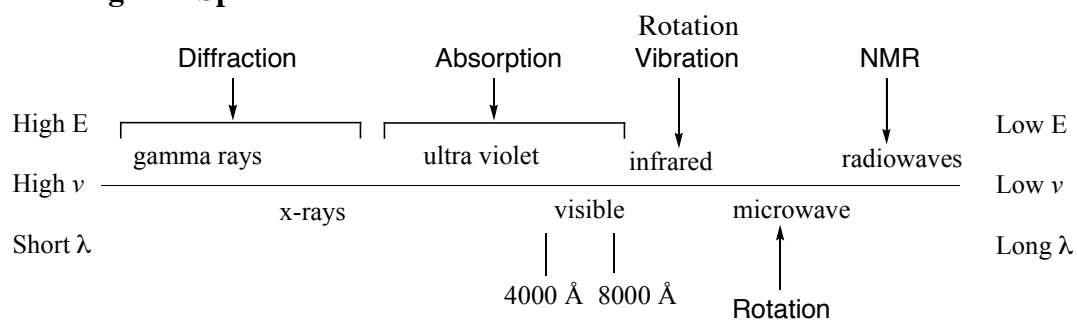


Short Wavelength, High Energy, High Frequency



Long Wavelength, Low Energy, Low Frequency

### Electromagnetic Spectrum



## Nuclear Magnetic Resonance (NMR)

If an atom has an odd number of protons and/or an odd number of neutrons, there is a nuclear magnetic moment (aka **nuclear spin**).

Examples:

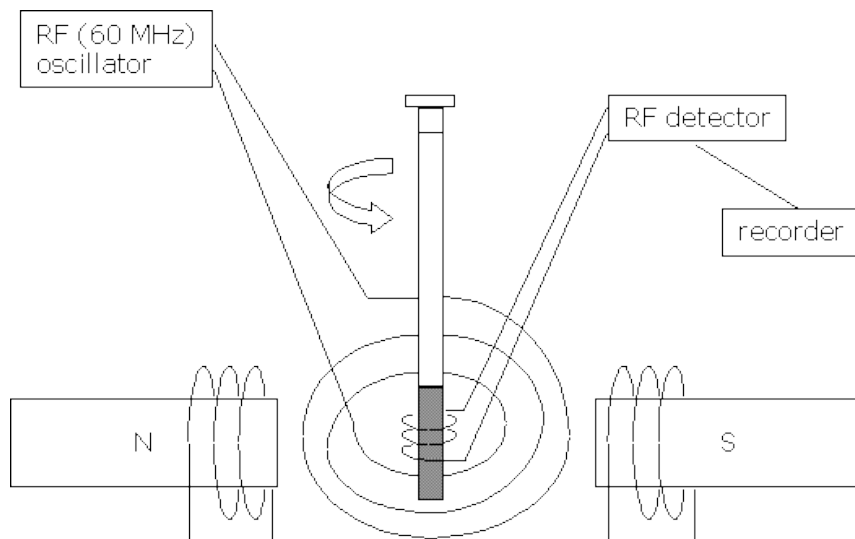
- $^1\text{H}$  has atomic number 1 (therefore 1 proton), no neutrons, and nuclear spin  $\frac{1}{2}$ ; can be detected by NMR
- $^2\text{H}$  (deuterium) has atomic number 1, number of neutrons 1, and nuclear spin 1
- $^3\text{H}$  (tritium) has atomic number 1, number of neutrons 2, and nuclear spin  $\frac{1}{2}$
- $^{12}\text{C}$  has atomic number 6 (6 protons), number of neutrons 6, and no nuclear spin
- $^{13}\text{C}$  (only 1% of all carbon) has atomic number 6, number of neutrons 7, and a nuclear spin of  $\frac{1}{2}$  (and can be detected by NMR)
- $^{14}\text{C}$  has atomic number 6, number of neutrons 8, no nuclear spin, radioactive and used for “carbon dating”

MRI (Magnetic Resonance Imaging): Based on the principles of NMR and developed by Paul Lauterbur

### NMR Continued (focusing on $^1\text{H}$ NMR)

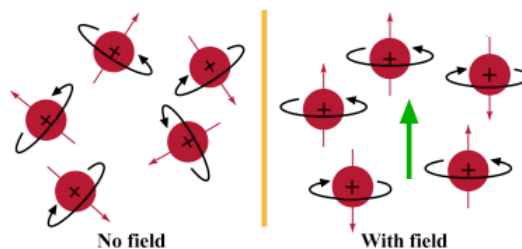
An NMR experiment requires a magnet (e.g. 14 Tesla), and a radio frequency transmitter. A tube containing the sample is placed inside the magnet – Below is a crude drawing of the setup.

(<http://www.chemistry.ccsu.edu/glagovich/teaching/316/nmr/instrumentation.html>)

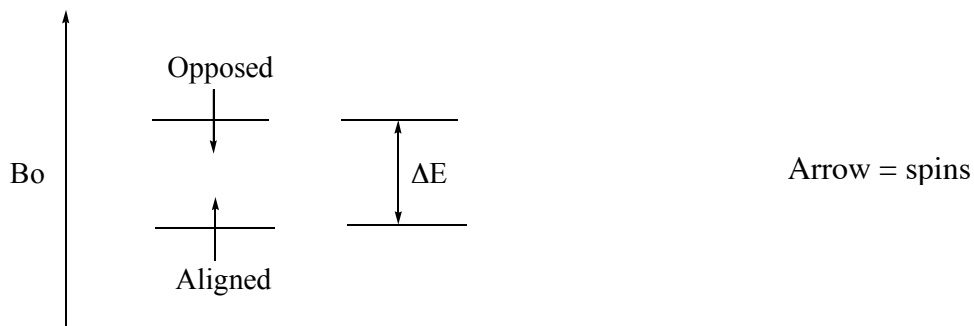


When no magnetic field is present, there is no net orientation to the nuclei.

If you apply a magnetic field ( $B_0$ ) to an isolated  $^1\text{H}$  nucleus, there are two possible energy states: one with the nuclear spin **aligned** with the field and the other with it **opposed**.

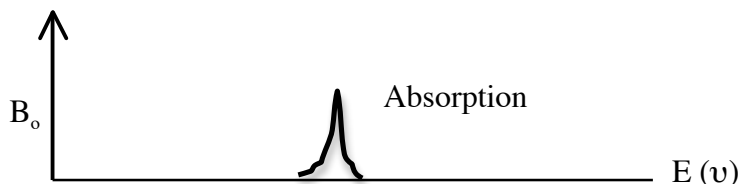


<http://www.chem.ucalgary.ca/courses/351/Carey5th/Ch13/ch13-nmr-1.html>



Note:  $\Delta E = h\nu$  ( $\nu$  is in the radio frequency range)  
 $= hc/\lambda$  ( $c$  is  $3.0 \times 10^8 \text{ m/s}$ )

Absorption from the lower energy state to the higher one becomes possible, which allows a spectrum to be observed:

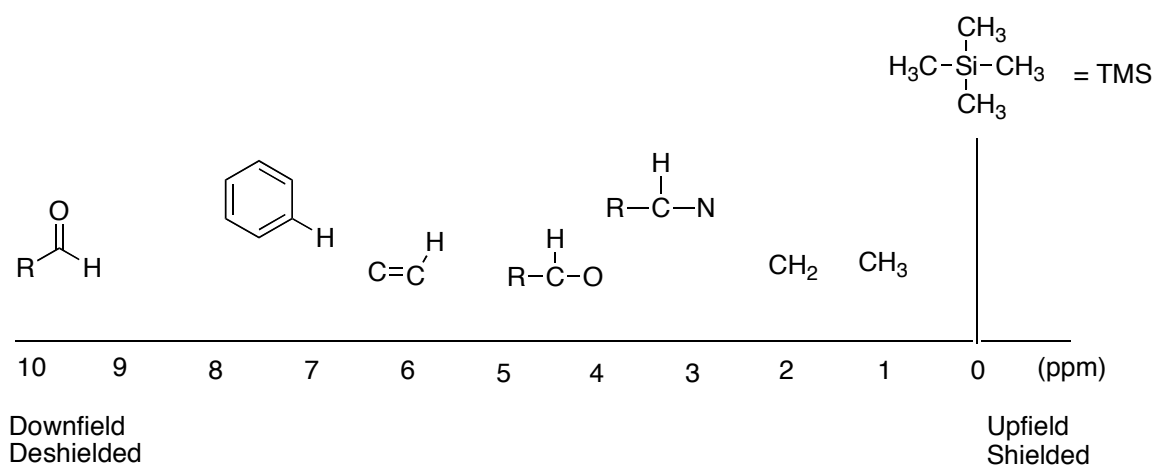


## Chemical Shift

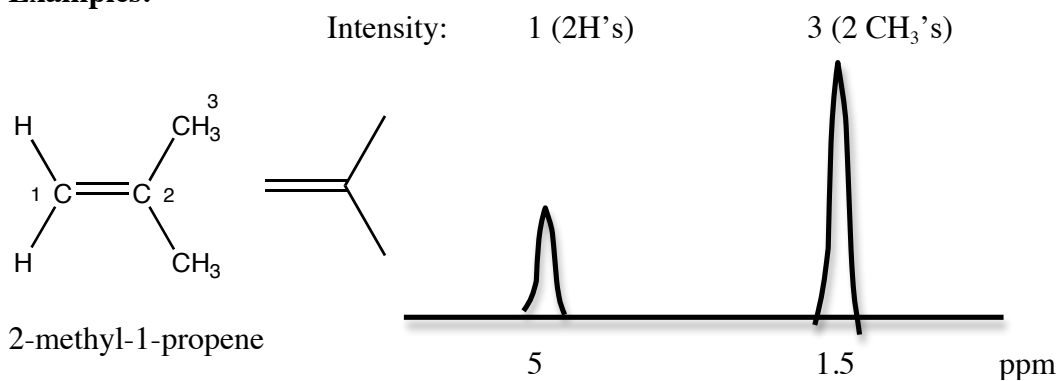
Chemical shift measures the change in the frequency of absorption. The chemical shift is typically shown in units of parts per million (ppm), and is compared to a reference. For  $^1\text{H}$  NMR, this reference is usually tetramethylsilane (TMS).

The hydrogen atoms in TMS are highly shielded, and the signal for TMS is set at 0 ppm.

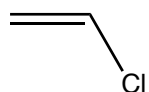
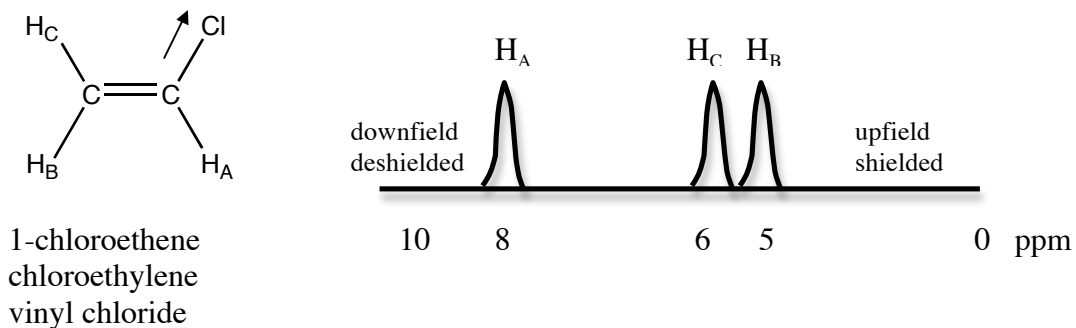
**Deshielding** occurs when electrons are pulled away from a hydrogen atom, which can be caused by the presence of an electron-withdrawing group (e.g. a carbonyl). When the electrons are pulled away, the nucleus is more exposed to the magnetic field, resulting in a **downfield** chemical shift.



### Examples:

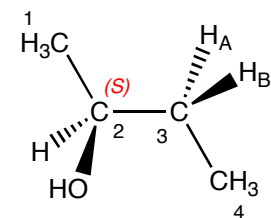


The intensity (area under the peak) depends on the number of hydrogen atoms, in this case 2:6 which is the same as 1:3



$\text{H}_\text{A}$  is deshielded by the electron-withdrawing Cl.  
 $\text{H}_\text{B}$  and  $\text{H}_\text{C}$  are different due to the distance from the Cl.  
 $\text{H}_\text{B}$  is trans to the Cl, while  $\text{H}_\text{C}$  is cis.  
 $\text{H}_\text{C}$  is more deshielded than  $\text{H}_\text{B}$  because it is closer to Cl.

## Diastereotopic Hydrogens



(S)-2-butanol  
butan-2-ol

What kinds of H does it have?

O-H  
H at C<sub>2</sub>  
CH<sub>3</sub> at C<sub>1</sub>  
CH<sub>3</sub> at C<sub>4</sub>  
H<sub>A</sub> (Pro-R)  
H<sub>B</sub> (Pro-S)

The methyl group shows only one signal because the C-C bond can freely rotate and NMR cannot distinguish between the Hs on that carbon. The barrier to bond rotation is only a few kilocalories per mole (1-3 kcal/mole) and about 15 to 20 kilocalories per mole of energy are available at room temperature. Hence rotation is very rapid and the methyl hydrogens are all in the same chemical environment.

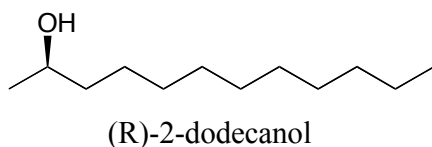
C-2 is a stereogenic centre, and there is no plane of symmetry in the molecule. H<sub>A</sub> and H<sub>B</sub> are in different chemical environments and have different chemical shifts, therefore they are **diastereotopic**.

If you substitute H<sub>A</sub> or H<sub>B</sub> with deuterium (labeled as D (<sup>2</sup>H; an isotope of hydrogen with one proton and one neutron)) you get diastereomers. These two hydrogens are called diastereotopic hydrogens.

Note: The chemical shifts of two diastereotopic protons may not always be very different.



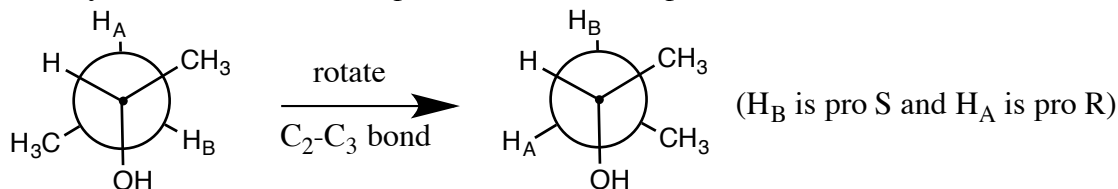
Example:



Every CH<sub>2</sub> group in this molecule has two diastereotopic protons.

## Newman Projections

The round circle in the structure below is the back carbon (C-3 of 2-butanol) – carbon 2 is directly attached to it and is represented as the dot (point) where the bonds meet in front.



anti or staggered conformation

gauche conformation

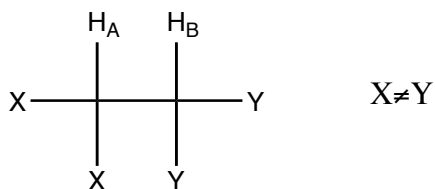
Pro R - precursor to an R stereogenic center

(If you substitute it with deuterium, you will form an R stereogenic center)

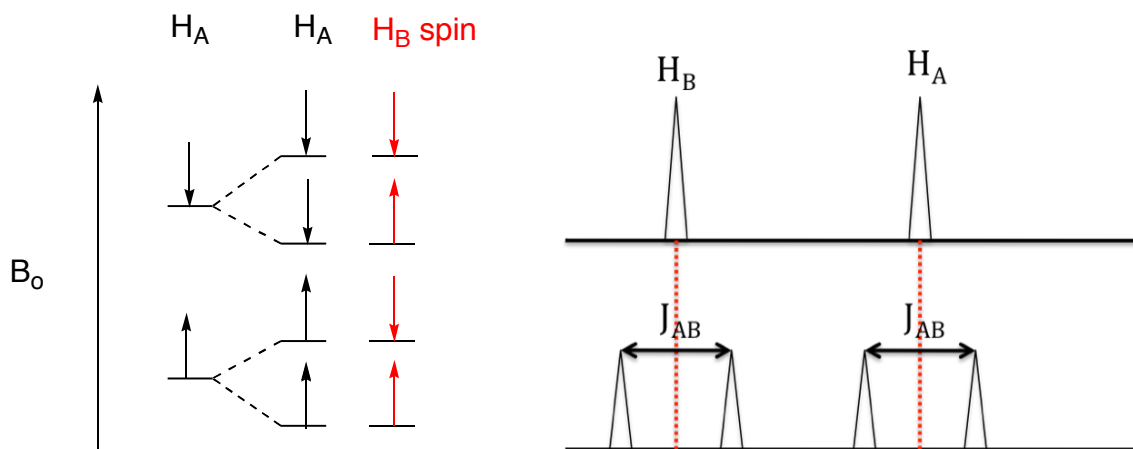
Pro S - precursor to an S stereogenic center

When there is a stereogenic center present, the two hydrogens,  $H_A$  and  $H_B$ , of the methylene ( $CH_2$ ) group cannot be brought into the same chemical environment. Bond rotation can bring  $H_B$  to the position where  $H_A$  was before, as represented by the above Newman projections of the two conformations, but the  $CH_3$  groups are occupying different positions and therefore the two methylene H's are not in the same chemical environment.

## Spin-Spin Splitting (Coupling)



$H_A$  is not a singlet due to the influence of  $H_B$  on its spin, and vice versa. This diagram below shows the energy for  $H_A$ , and the spins for  $H_B$  are shown (in red) only to show the effect on  $H_A$ .



$J_{AB}$  = **Coupling constant** between atoms A and B, measured in Hertz (Hz)

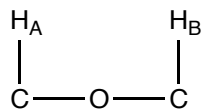
The  $H_A$  coupling constant corresponds to the energy differences caused by the  $H_B$  proton in alignment with and in opposition to the field. This energy difference is equal to the effect that the  $H_A$  proton has on  $H_B$ , so both of these coupling constants are equal.

The coupled signal is centered around the same chemical shift value that the signal would have if there were no coupling.

### Limitations of Coupling

1. 2 to 3 bonds separating nuclei (coupling is typically not seen between nuclei that are further apart than 3 bonds)
2. Usually no coupling across O, N, S, C=O

Example: In the following structure,  $H_A$  and  $H_B$  would not couple due to being 4 bonds apart (too far) and oxygen is in between



Note: There are exceptions to these rules