# **Topic 2 - Index of slides on IR**

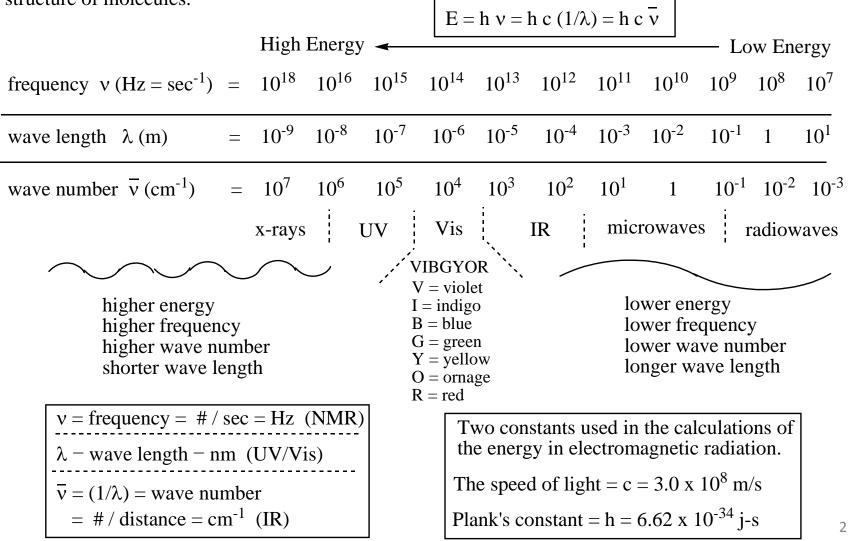
(link to copies of slides: http://www.cpp.edu/~psbeauchamp/pdf\_videos/lecture\_2\_IR.pdf)

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- 3. Different ways of measuring light energy
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- 5. Excitation and Emission
- 6. IR vibrations, coupling to eletromagnetic radiation
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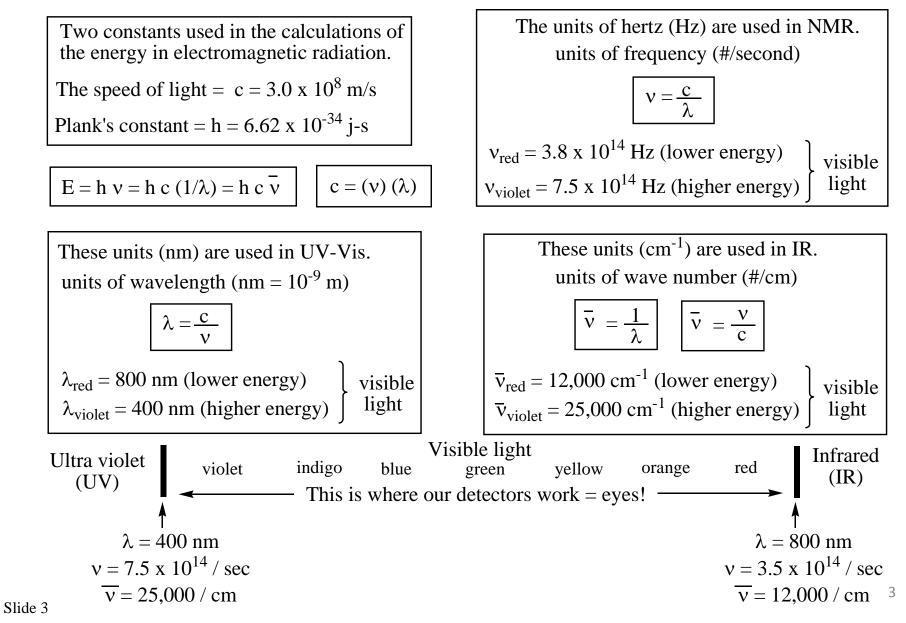
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- 25. Example how to use IR with molecular formula
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- 30. Example IR FGs: mono aromatic, ortho aromatic, meta aromatic
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- 33. Example IR FGs: ketone, unsaturated ketone, mono aromatic ketone
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- 36. Example IR FGs: 1° amide, 2° amide, 3° amide
- 37. Example IR FGs: simple nitrile, para aromatic nitrile, acid chloride
- 38. Example IR FGs: anhydride, thiol, sulfide
- 39. Example IR FGs: simple nitro, mono aromatic nitro

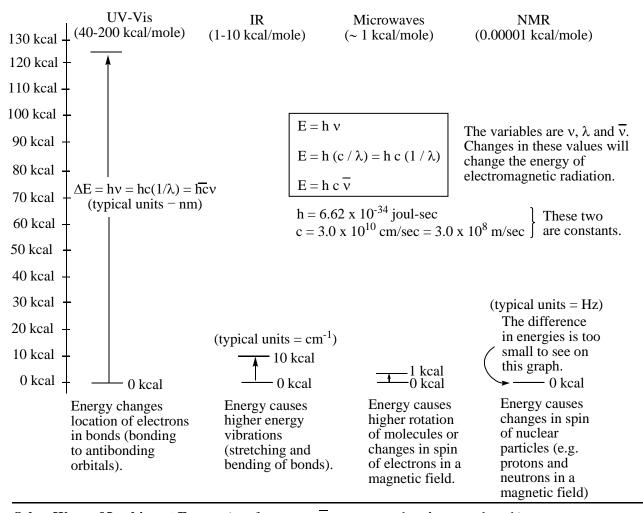
## **Common Features of Electromagnetic Radiation**

All of the spectroscopic techniques in this workbook, except mass spectrometry, involve the interaction of electromagnetic radiation with matter. The responses of matter to electromagnetic radiation allow us to probe beyond our senses into the world of molecules and atoms. The following figure illustrates the usual spectroscopic divisions of the electromagnetic spectrum. Even though every designated region is a term in common everyday usage, you may be unfamiliar with these terms as methods to study the structure of molecules.



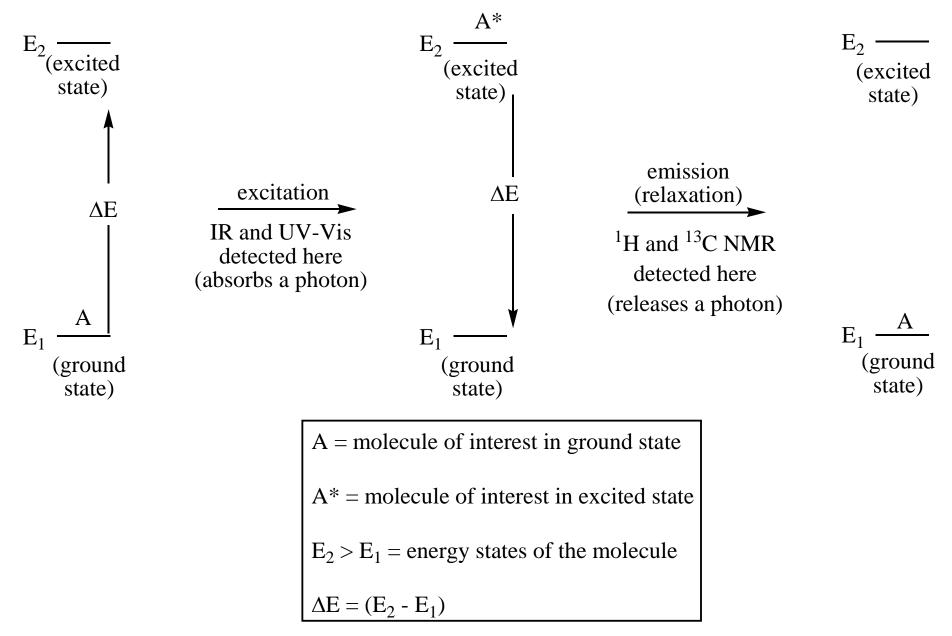
Light is a form of energy that can produce changes in molecules, which can provide clues about how the atoms are connected together (their structure). Three common ways of viewing this energy are by frequency (v, Hz, NMR), wave length ( $\lambda$ , nm, UV-Vis) and wave number ( $\overline{v}$ , cm<sup>-1</sup>, IR).





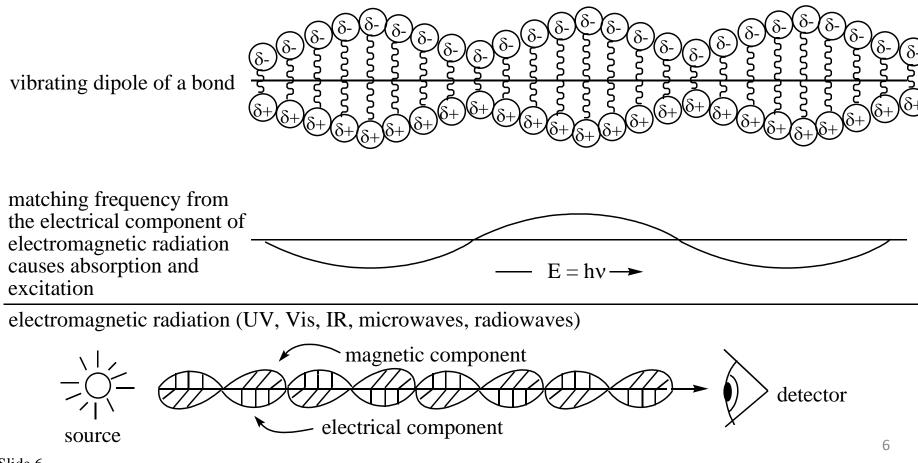
Parameter	X-rays	UV	Vis	IR	Microwave	Radiowaves
E (kcal/mole)	24,000	200	50	10	3x10 <sup>-3</sup>	6x10 <sup>-6</sup>
E (kj/mole)	100,000	800	200	40	$1.2 \times 10^{-2}$	$2x10^{-5}$
E (eV/photon)	1,200	8	2	0.4	1x10 <sup>-4</sup>	3x10 <sup>-7</sup>
v (Hz)	3x10 <sup>17</sup>	2x10 <sup>15</sup>	5x10 <sup>14</sup>	1x10 <sup>14</sup>	3x10 <sup>10</sup>	3x10 <sup>8</sup>
$\overline{v}$ (cm <sup>-1</sup> )	$1 x 10^{7}$	50,000	17,000	3,000	1	0.01
λ (nm)	1	200	600	3,000	$1 \times 10^{7}$	$1 \times 10^{9}$

Slide 4



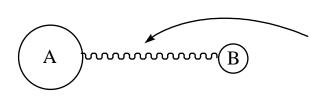
# **Infrared Spectroscopy**

Vibrational changes between atoms in molecules are excited when IR light is passed through a sample. When the electrical component of the oscillating frequency of electromagnetic radiation matches the electrical dipole oscillation of the vibrating atoms, efficient transfer of energy occurs from the photon to the vibrating bond. In effect, the bond receives a synchronous push from the light wave (think of you and a swing). The two frequencies are said to be coupled. Bonds without an electrical dipole moment cannot efficiently couple to the electrical vector of the oscillating photon. Symmetrically substituted bonds are said to be IR inactive and are either very weak or do not show an absorption band at all. Common inactive patterns include symmetrically substituted alkene and alkyne bonds.

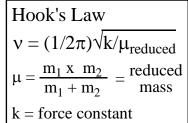


#### A Ball and Spring Model of a Bond

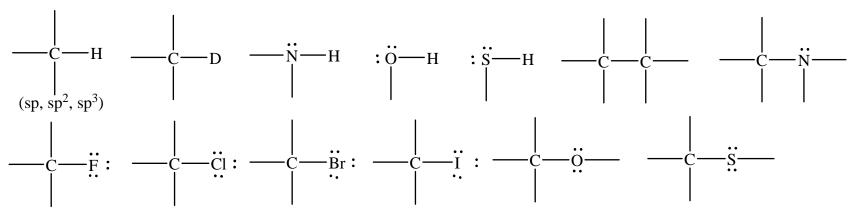
Atoms in molecules can be approximated as balls of various relative masses attached through bonds, roughly considered to be springs with relative force constants (Hook's Law).



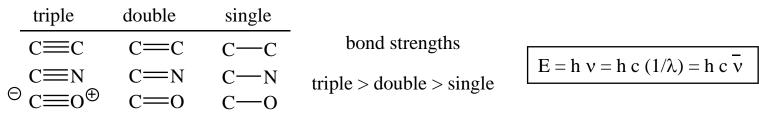
A bond is viewed as a spring and the atoms are viewed as balls. The vibrations between the two atoms can be estimated using Hook's law (depends on the masses and the force constant).



This means that different vibrations will occur depending on what atoms are connected together and how strong the bonds are connecting them. For example, organic atoms can be attached in single bonds in a variety of ways. Each bond has characteristic vibrational frequencies dependent on reduced masses and force constants present in the IR spectrum.

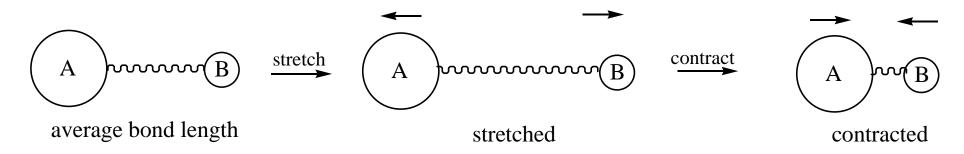


Additionally, even when the same type of atom is bonded to carbon, there can be variable strength bonds, i.e. single, double and triple bonds (changes the force constant).

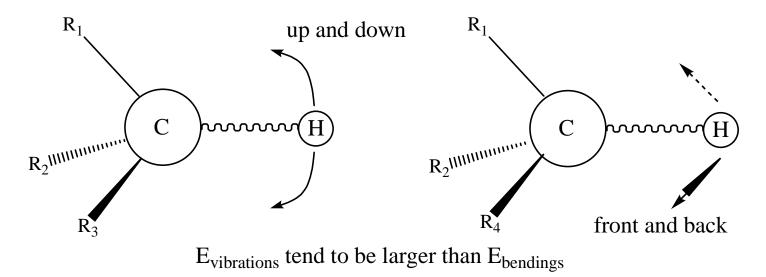


# Two Types of Vibrations are Common in IR Spectroscopy - Stretching and Bending of Bonds

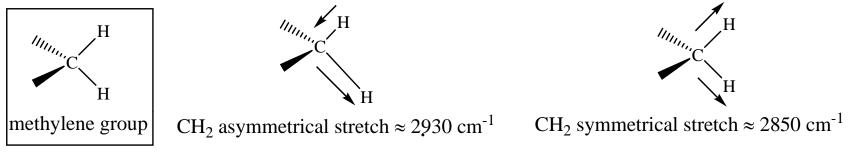
Two atoms present a very simple picture of vibration and bending. In a stretching vibration the two atoms stretch away from one another or contract towards one another.



Additionally, a two atom bond can also bend. If we arbitrarily fix a carbon atom, then the hydrogen atom can move up and down or front and back (relative to the rest of the molecule).

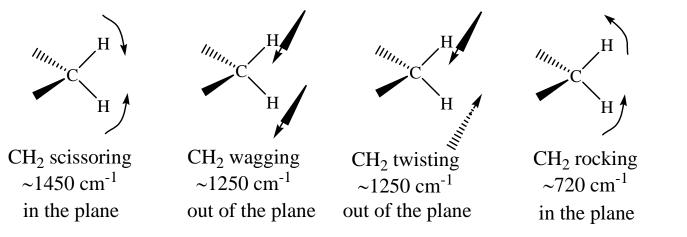


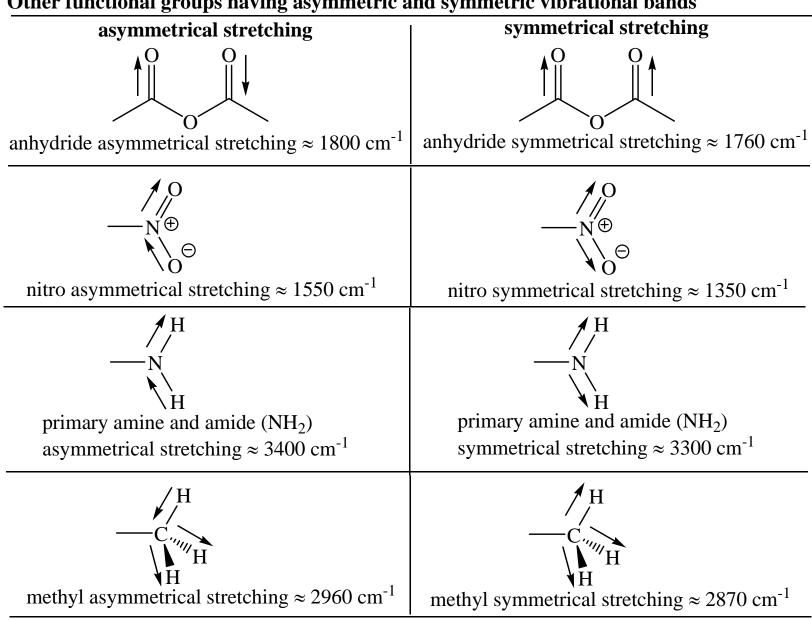
Nearby atoms and bonds tend to act as subgroups in concert with one another. By increasing our atom pattern from two vibrating atoms to three, we can gain an appreciation of the increased complexity. A simple methylene,  $CH_2$  subgroup illustrates some of the possibilities. Simultaneous stretching of the two hydrogen atoms away from and towards the carbon is a symmetric stretching vibration, which has a characteristic range of wave numbers. When one hydrogen stretches away and the other hydrogen moves toward the carbon an asymmetric stretch occurs. For each particular three atom system the asymmetric stretch is usually the higher energy vibration.



Usually the wave number of asymmetric stretch > symmetric stretch

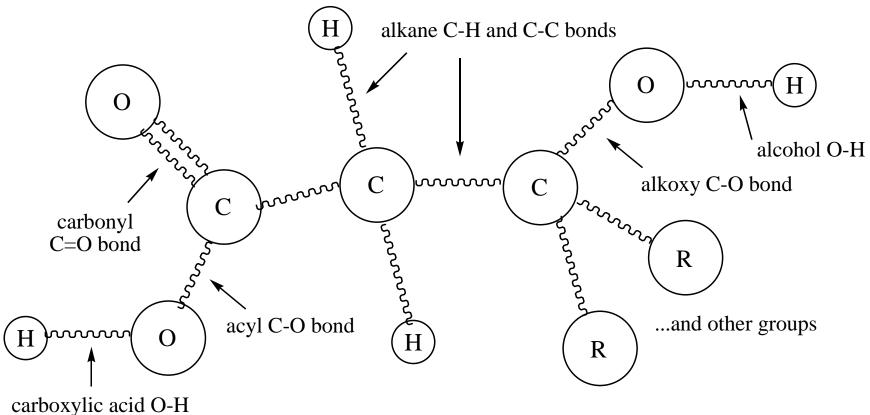
Several bending vibrations are also IR active in a methylene subunit. These bending modes are shown below along with their approximate resonant wavenumber. If you use your hands as the hydrogen atoms, your torso as the carbon atom and your arms as the bonds, you can mimic these same vibrations and bending modes, and you'll remember them a lot easier! The IR cheers!



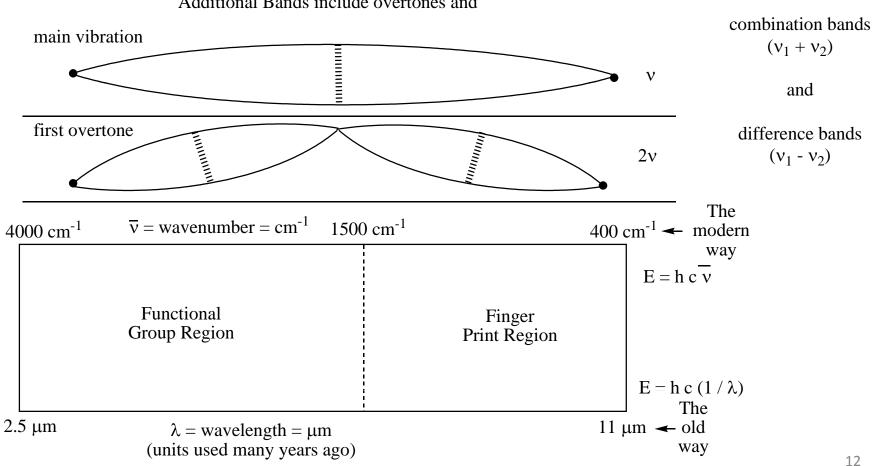


Other functional groups having asymmetric and symmetric vibrational bands

Real organic molecules are much more complicated than simple 2 or 3 atom groups. Many atoms are present and numerous bonds can approximate a whole collection of vibrating springs. Commonly encountered arrangements of atoms in organic and biochemistry are called functional groups, and produce reasonably predictable IR wavenumbers. These IR bands can be used to identify the presence of a functional group when detected in the IR spectrum. Functional group patterns are sometimes referred to as 'fundamental bands'.



Overtones, combination bands and difference bands can make an IR spectrum much more complicated than a simple consideration of the fundamental bands would lead us to believe. They can hide or confuse an otherwise straight forward analysis. On the other hand, the complicated patterns generated tend to be unique for each arrangement of atoms. The patterns of absorption bands generated can be used in much the same way as our fingerprints are for exact identification. The lower wavenumber region of an IR spectrum (1500-400 cm<sup>-1</sup>) is often called the finger print region for this reason. Many of the fundamental bands of functional groups appear above 1500 cm<sup>-1</sup> and are useful in identifying the functional groups present. Accordingly, this region is often called the functional group region ( $1500-4000 \text{ cm}^{-1}$ ).

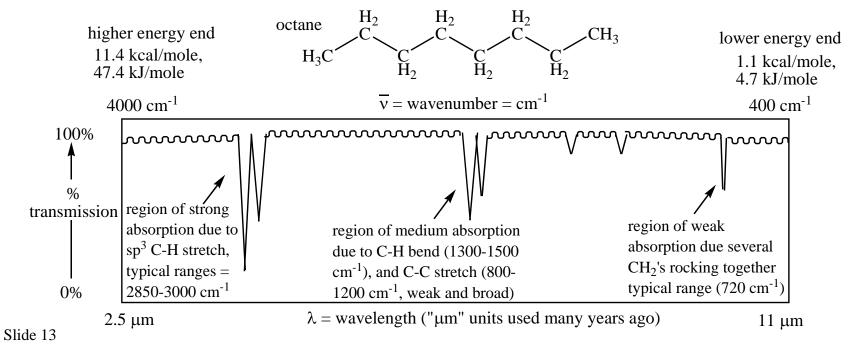


Additional Bands include overtones and

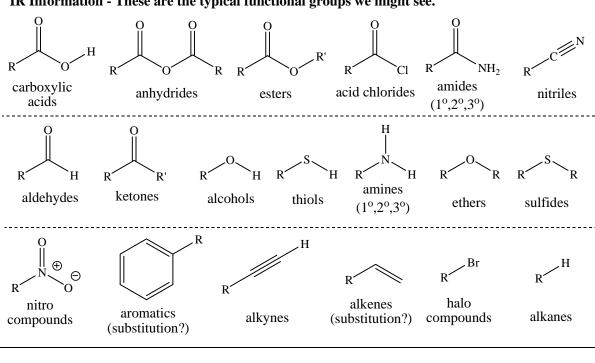
## **Data Presentation**

A typical IR spectrum is shown below. Current practice stresses the divisions of energy in wavenumbers  $(\overline{v} = cm^{-1})$ . Older usage utilized wavelength in micrometers (abbreviated as microns =  $\mu m = 10^{-6} m = \lambda$ ). Older spectrometers used chart paper with both scales plotted along the horizontal axis, one scale on the top and the other scale on the bottom. Recall that these two parameters are inversely related. Energy is directly proportional to wavenumber,  $\overline{v}$  (cm<sup>-1</sup>), and inversely proportional to wavelength,  $\lambda$  ( $\mu$ m).

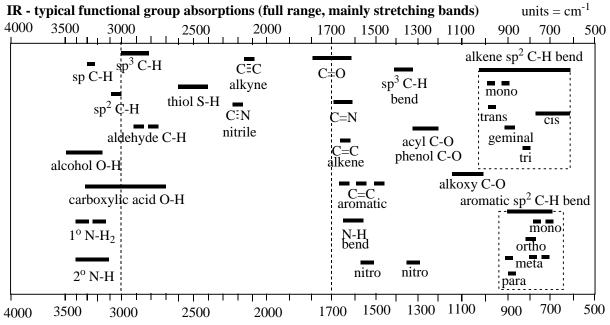
A typical spectrum shows the high energy end on the left side (4000 cm<sup>-1</sup>, 2.5  $\mu$ m, 11.4 kcal/mole, 47.4 kJ/mole) and the low energy end on the right side (400 cm<sup>-1</sup>, 11  $\mu$ m, 1.1 kcal/mole, 4.7 kJ/mole). The vertical axis generally shows percent transmission, (but can show absorbance). At wavenumbers where the sample absorbs IR radiation, the plot will deflect downward producing inverted peaks. Strong absorptions produce large deflections and weaker absorptions only minor deflections. The wavenumbers where the deflections occur often provide useful clues concerning the functional groups in the substance being scanned. The following is a simulated IR spectrum of a typical alkane.



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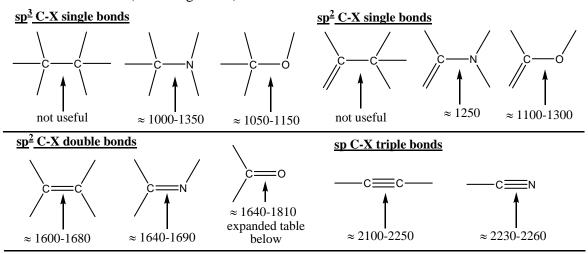






Slide 14

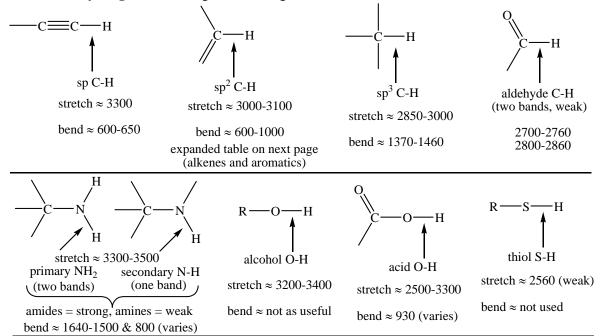
#### Infrared Tables (short summary of common absorption frequencies)

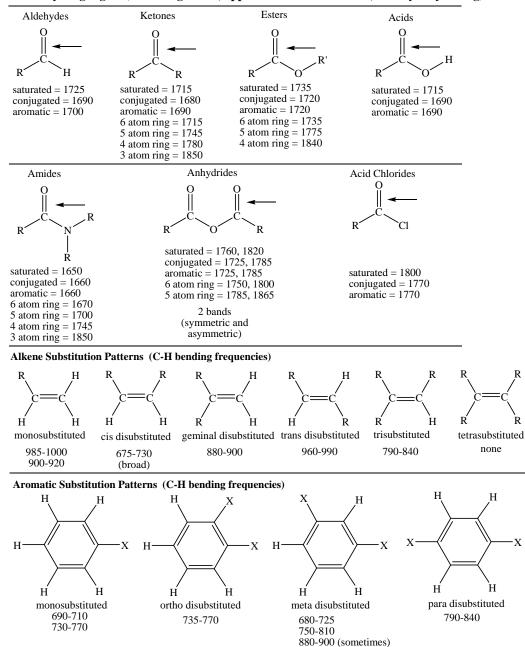


**Bonds to Carbon** (stretching bands)

Stronger dipoles produce more intense IR bands and weaker dipoles produce less intense IR bands. When a dipole completely disappears, the IR band may also disappear.

Bonds to Hydrogen (stretching and bending bands)

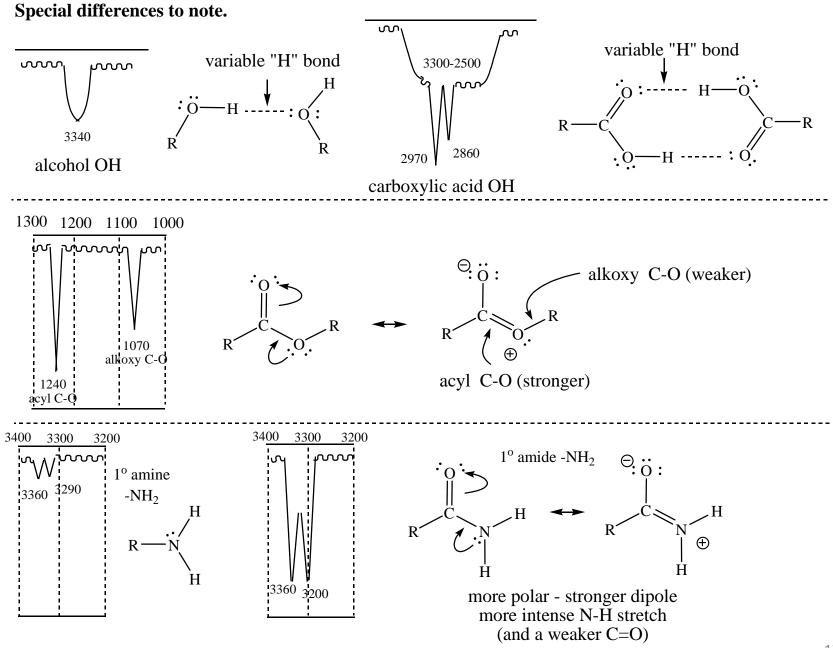


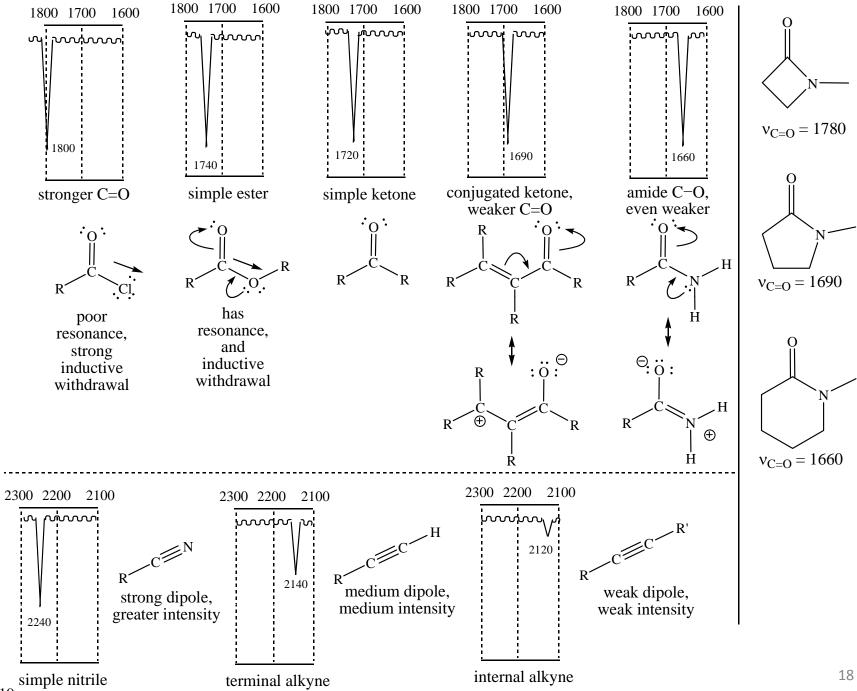




(Characteristic weak overtone patterns often show between 1650-2000, not used in this book)

Х

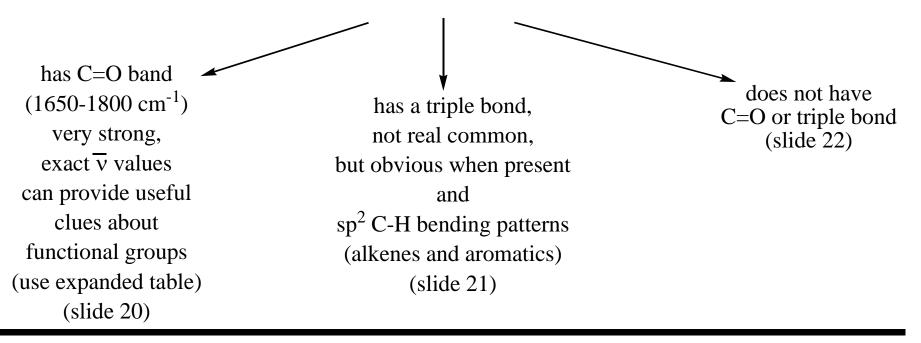




#### Slide 19

**IR Flowchart to Determine Functional Groups in a Compound (all values in cm**<sup>-1</sup>)

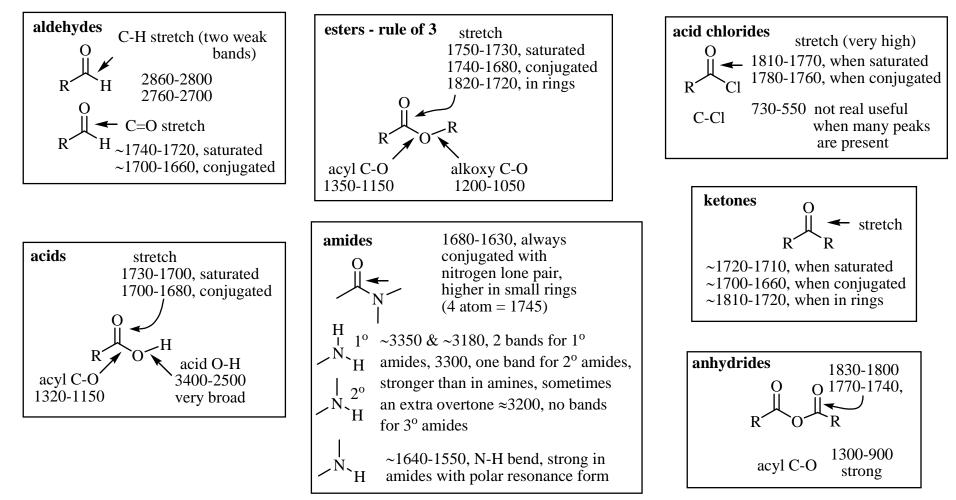
**IR Spectrum (all values are approximate, ±)** 



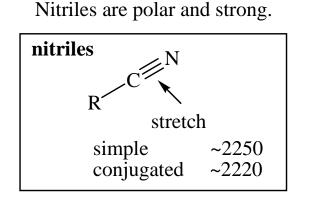
All IR values are approximate and have a range of possibilities depending on the molecular environment in which the functional group resides. Resonance often modifies a peak's position because of electron delocalization (conjugated C=O have lower  $\overline{v}$ , and acyl C-O > alkoxy C-O, etc.). IR peaks are not 100% reliable. Peaks tend to be stronger (more intense) when there is a large dipole associated with a vibration in the functional group and weaker in less polar bonds (to the point of disappearing in some completely symmetrical bonds). Also, IR shows generic functional group information, not specific connectivities of the atoms. We need NMR for that.

# C=O bonds (1650-1800 cm<sup>-1</sup>), have very strong IR absorptions

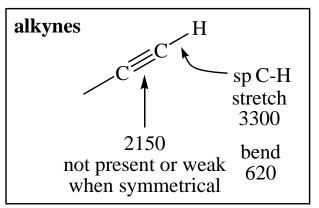
Factors to consider for each functional group having a C=O.



## Triple bond IR absorptions come where nothing else does.



Alkynes are less polar and weaker or even missing.



IR has characteristic alkene and aromatic sp<sup>2</sup> C-H bending vibration substitution patterns.

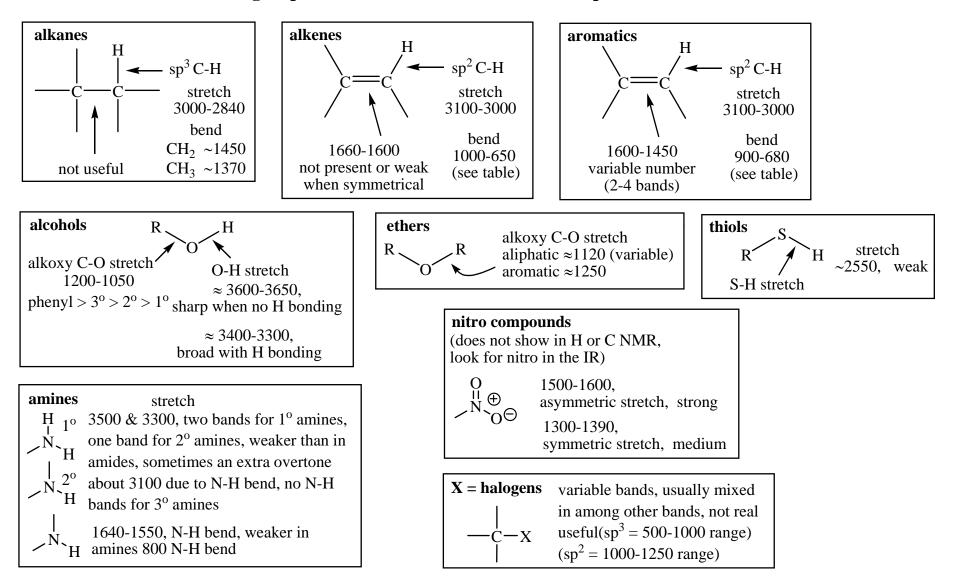
## Alkene sp<sup>2</sup> C-H bending patterns (cm<sup>-1</sup>)

```
monosubstituted alkene (985-1000, 900-920)
trans disubstituted (960-990)
cis disubstituted (670-730)
gem disubstituted (880-900)
trisubstituted (790-840)
tetrasubstituted (none, no sp<sup>2</sup> C-H)
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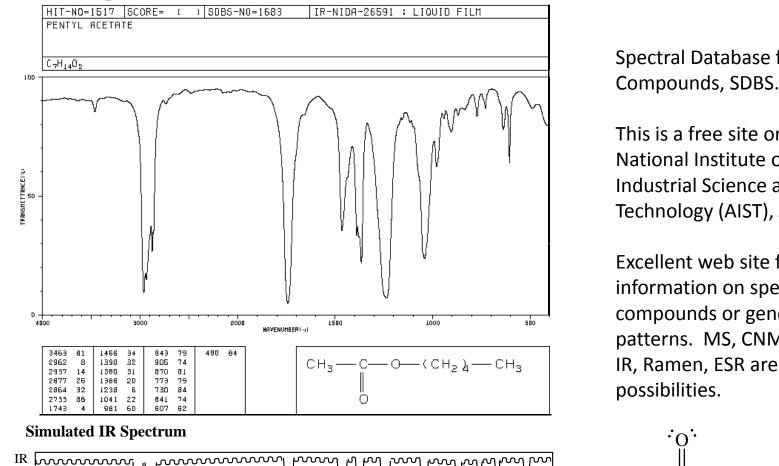
## Aromatic sp<sup>2</sup> C-H bending patterns (cm<sup>-1</sup>)

monosubstituted (730-770,690-710) ortho disubstituted (730-770) meta disubstituted (880-900, sometimes 750-810, 680-730) para disubstituted (790-840)

There are also weak overtone bands between 1660 and 2000, but are not shown here. You can consult pictures of typical patterns in other reference books. If there is a strong C=O band, they may be partially covered up.



#### IR functional groups that do not have C=O bonds or triple bonds



1470

1500

1740

2000

2960-2850

2500

3000

3500

1360

1240

1040

1000

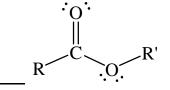
500

#### link: http://sdbs.db.aist.go.jp/sdbs/cgi-bin/cre\_index.cgi

**Spectral Database for Organic** 

This is a free site organized by National Institute of Advanced Industrial Science and Technology (AIST), Japan.

Excellent web site for information on specific compounds or generic patterns. MS, CNMR, HNMR, IR, Ramen, ESR are

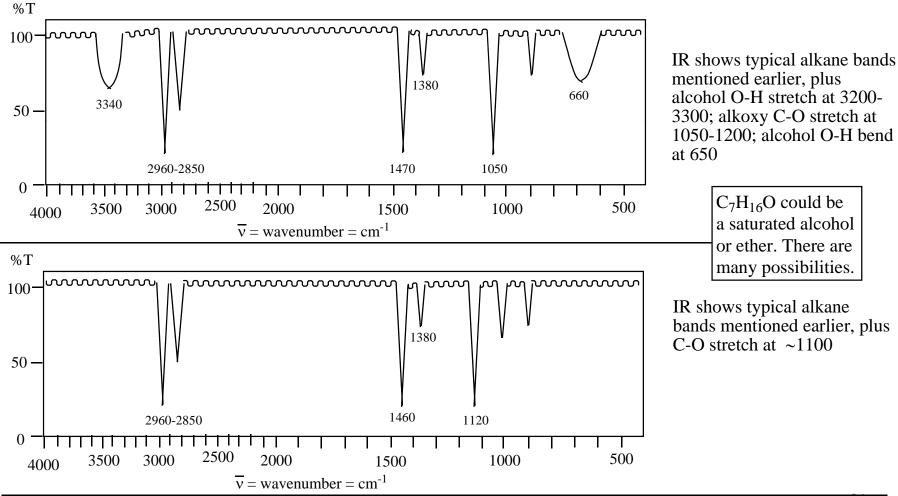


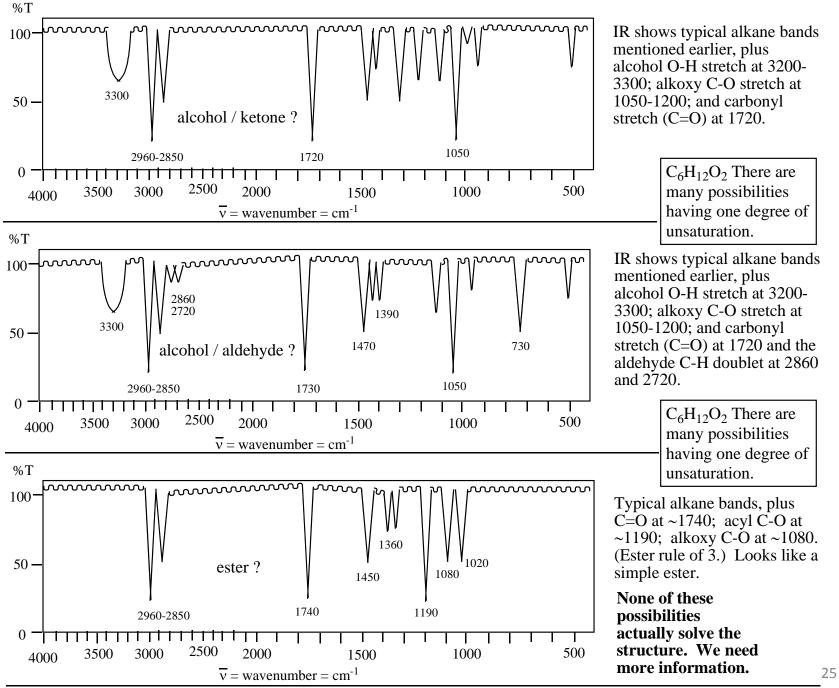
What does the IR tell us about this structure? It has C=O, acyl C-O, alkoxy C-O. It does not have...?

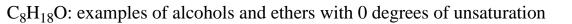
4000

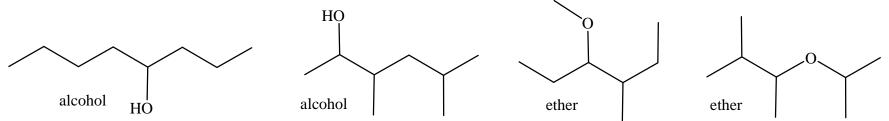
**Real IR Spectrum** 

Let's say we have an unknown compound with a molecular weight of 116 amu. If we divide 116 by 13 we get 8 with a remainder of 12. That would give us a formula of  $C_8H_{20}$ , which is not possible since we have more Hs than there are bonding locations (maximum saturation is 2x8+2 = 18). However, we could have one oxygen with a formula of  $C_7H_{16}O$ , which is completely saturated (has zero degrees of unsaturation). Two oxygen atoms would give us a formula of  $C_6H_{12}O_2$ , having one degree of unsaturation (1 pi bond or 1 ring). If we also had an IR spectrum we might be able to propose reasonable possible structures, but we cannot completely solve the structure. Propose possible structures using the given IR spectra below ( $C_7H_{16}O$ ) and on the next slide ( $C_6H_{12}O_2$ ).

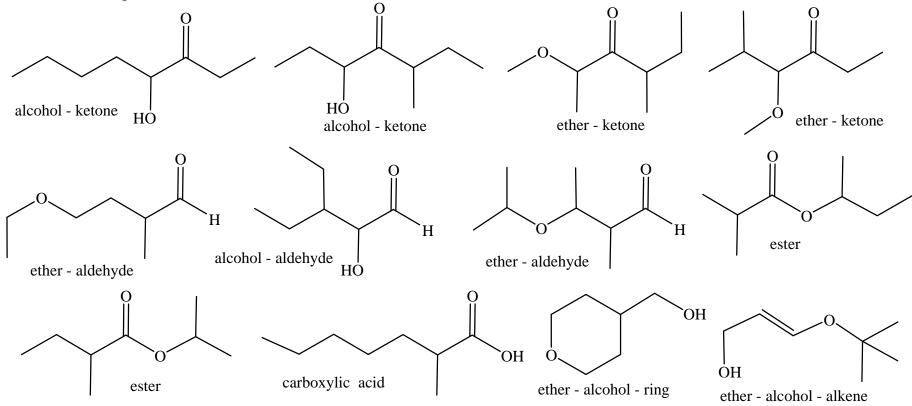




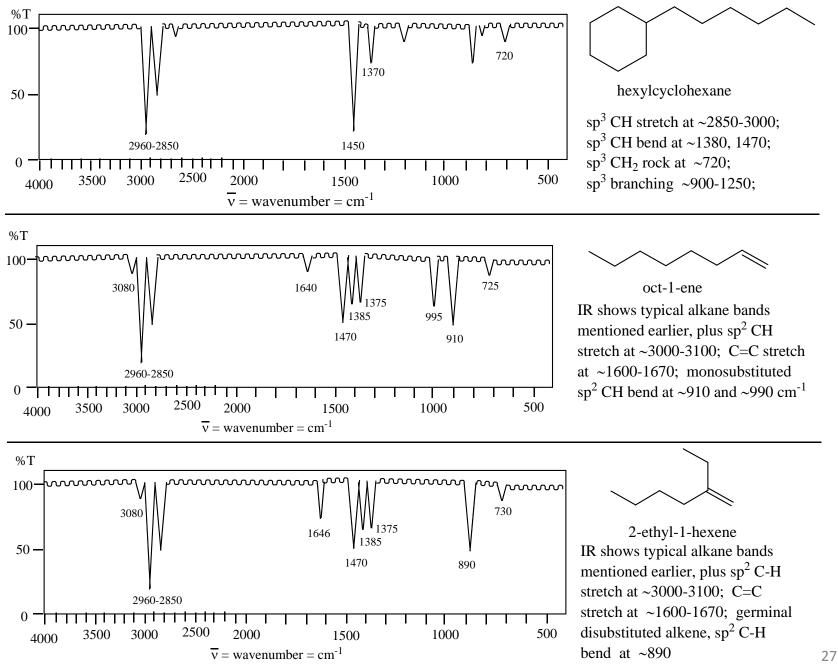




 $C_7H_{14}O_2$ : examples of hydroxyketones, hydroxyaldehydes, alkoxyketones, alkoxyaldehydes, esters and carboxylic acids with 1 degree of unsaturation

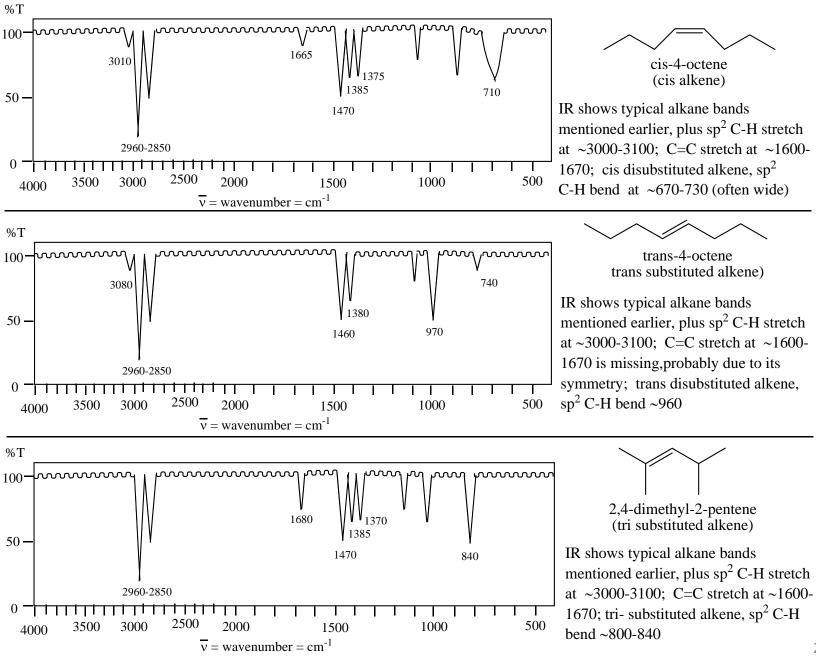


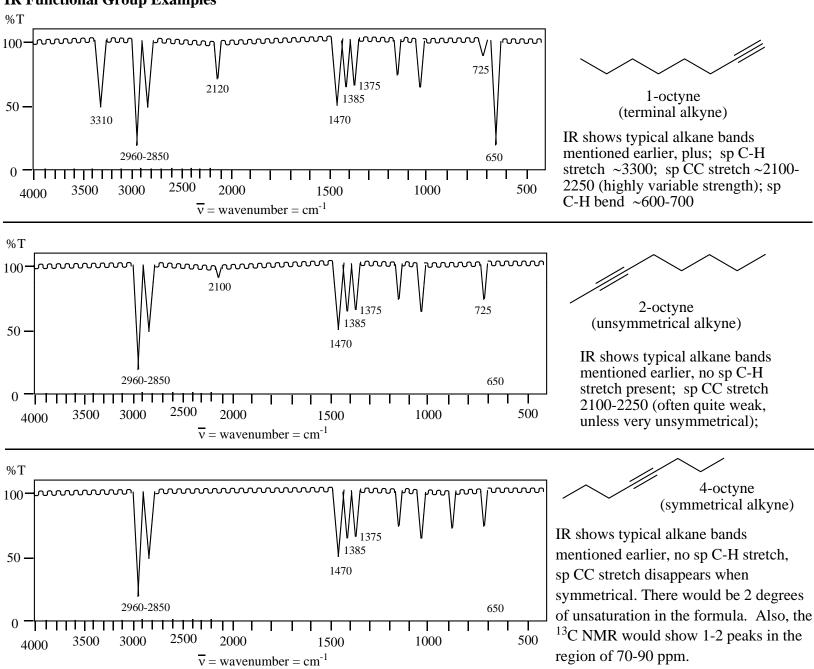
NMR can solve all of these structures!



IR Functional Group Examples (Single functional groups are easier to interpret than multiple functional groups.)

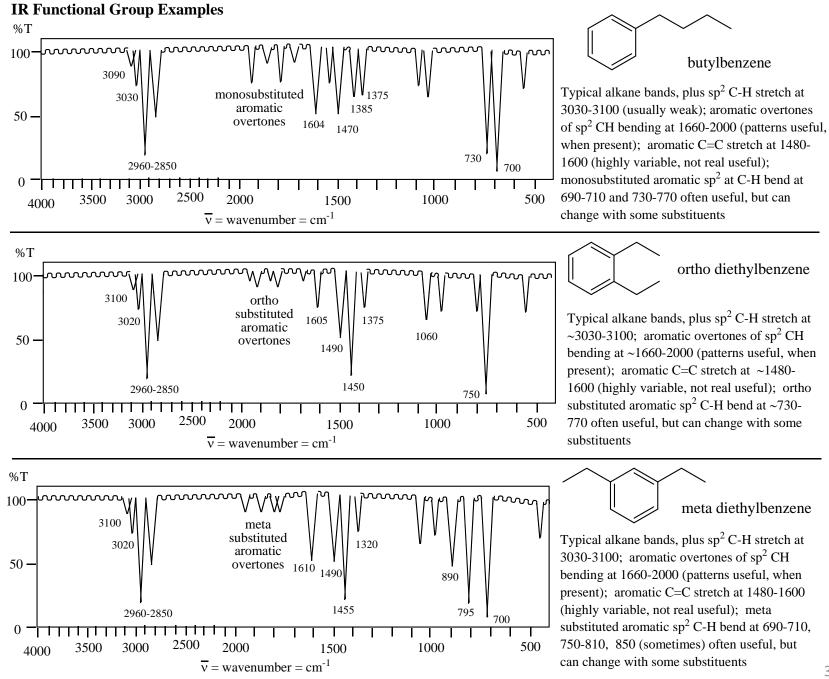
#### **IR Functional Group Examples**

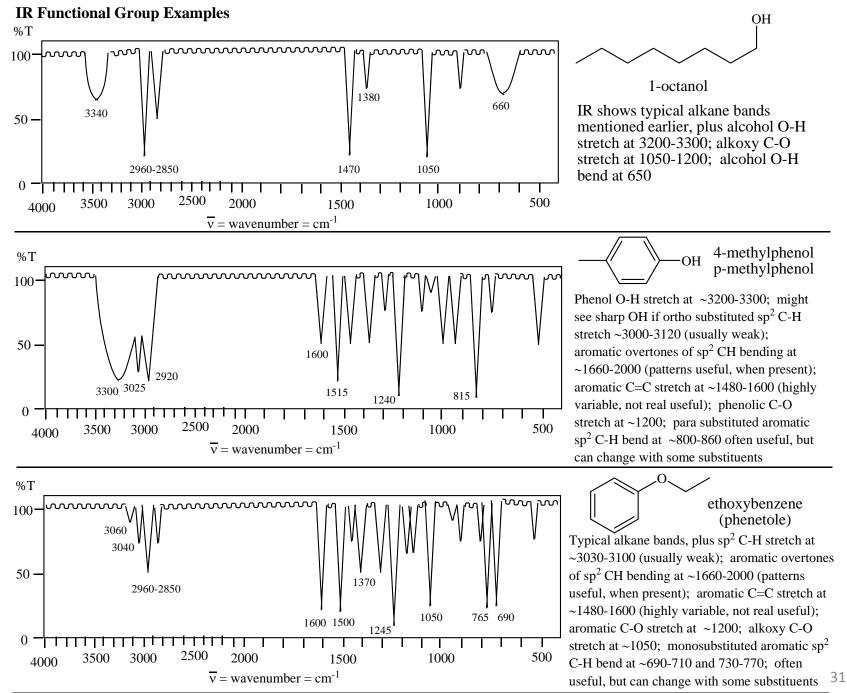


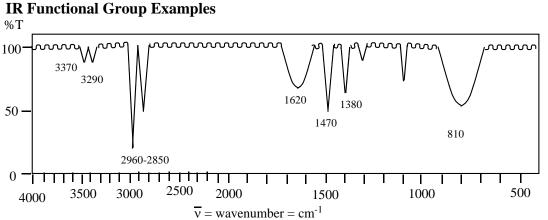


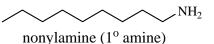
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### **IR Functional Group Examples**

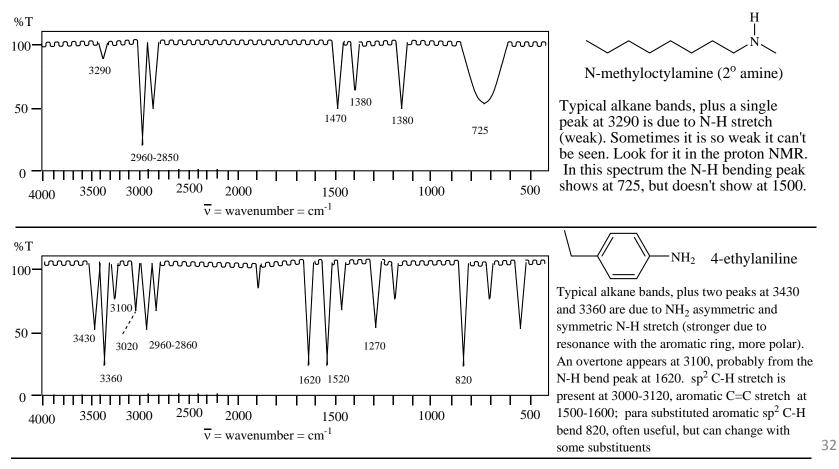


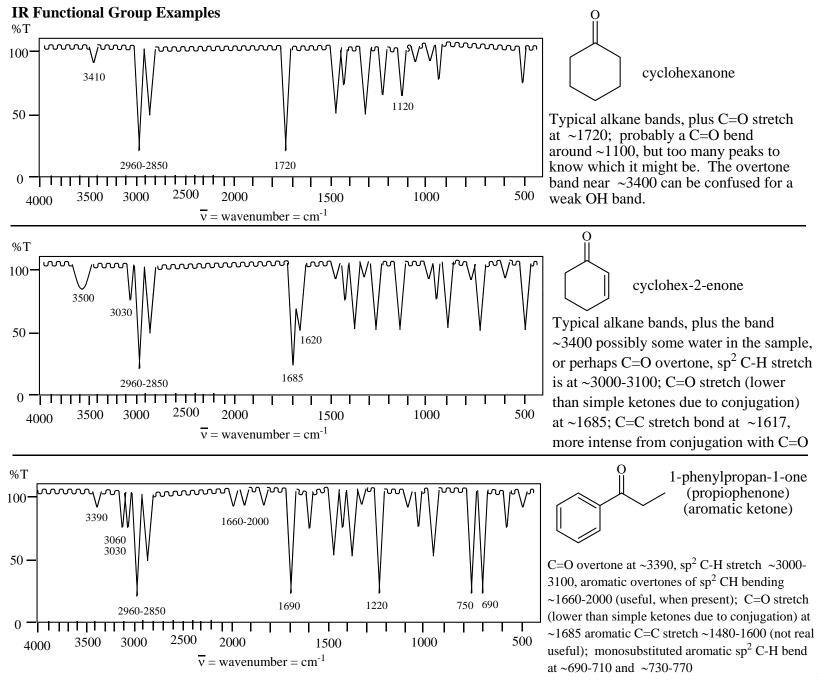


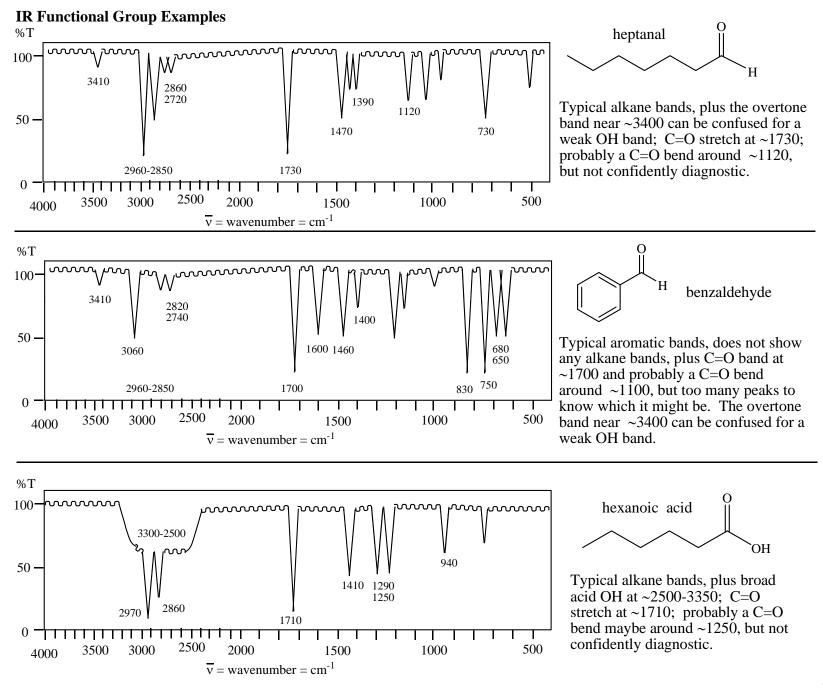


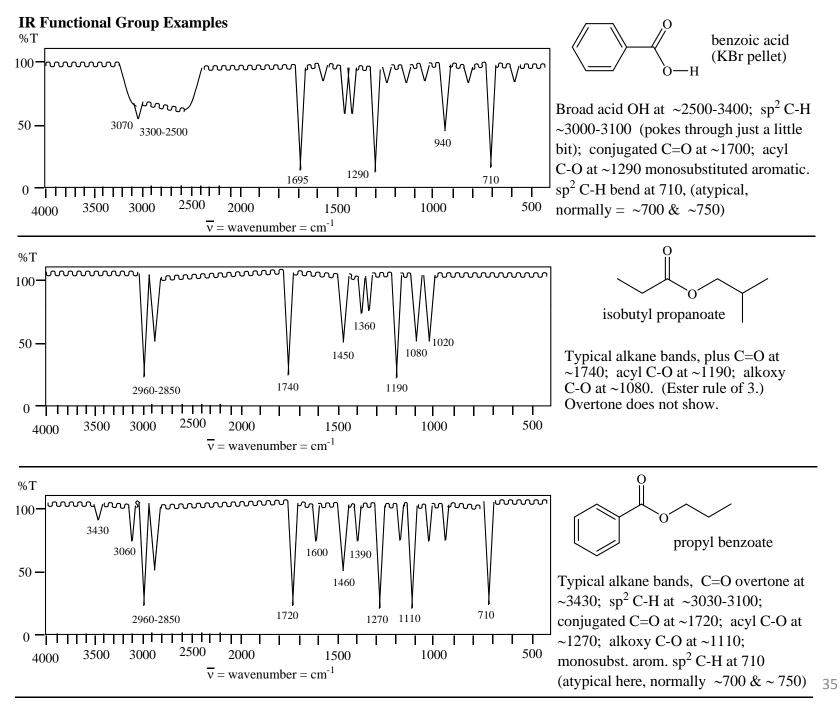


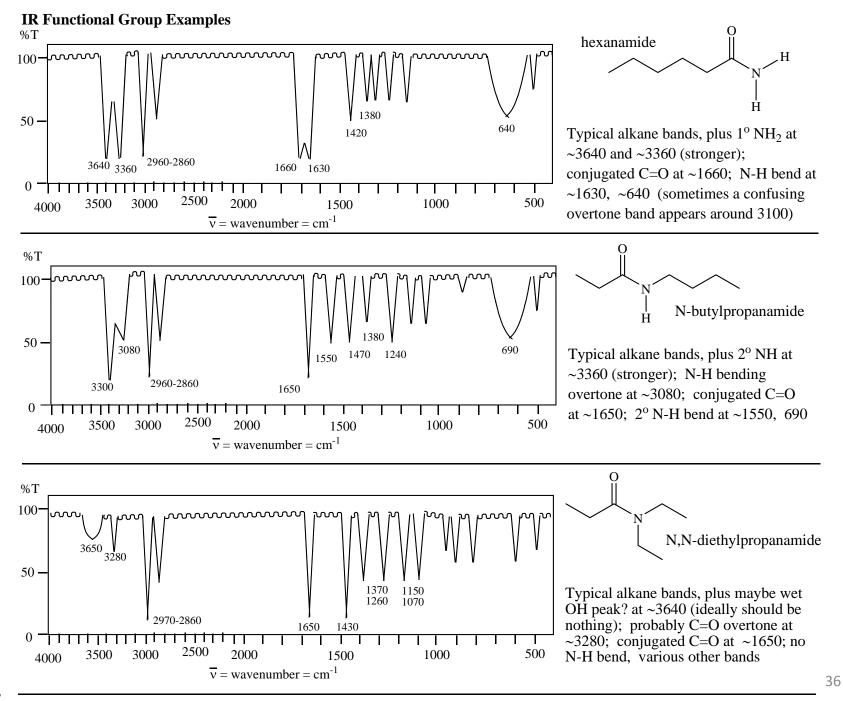
Typical alkane bands, plus two peaks at  $\sim$ 3370 and  $\sim$ 3290 due to NH<sub>2</sub> asymmetric and symmetric N-H stretch. Because of a weaker dipole moment the intensity of these peaks is much less than would show in a primary amide. N-H bending peaks are at  $\sim$ 1620 and  $\sim$ 810, In an uncrowded spectrum these might be helpful.

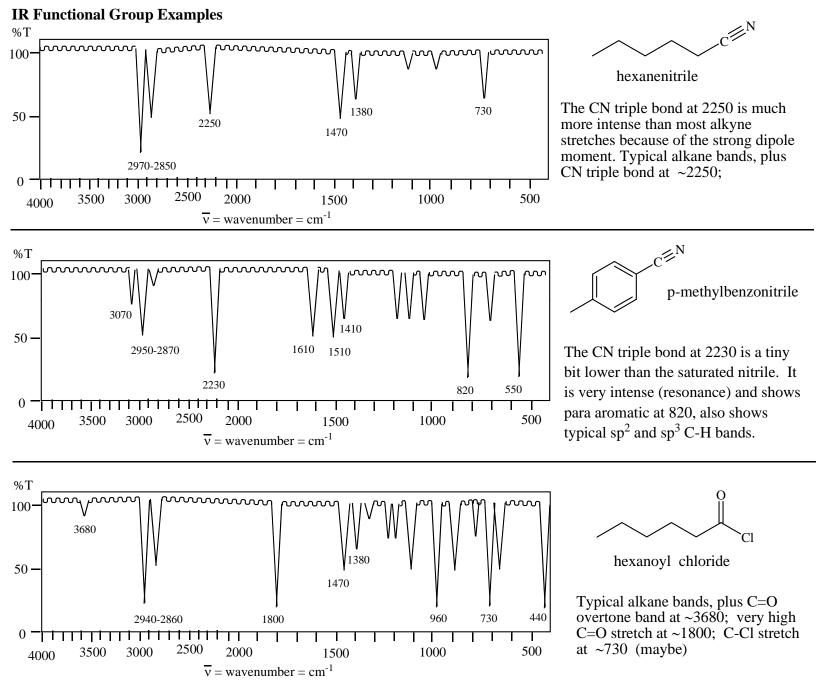


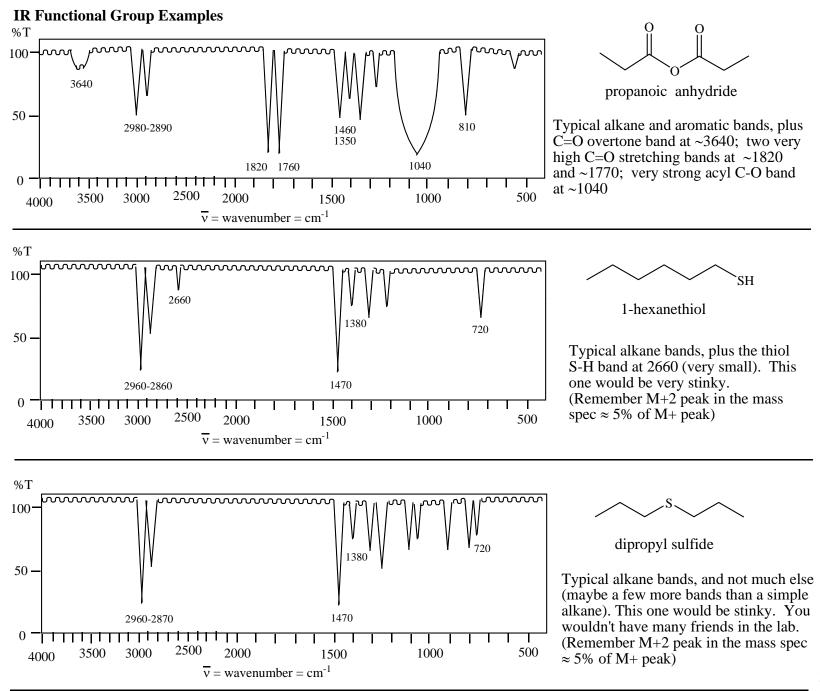


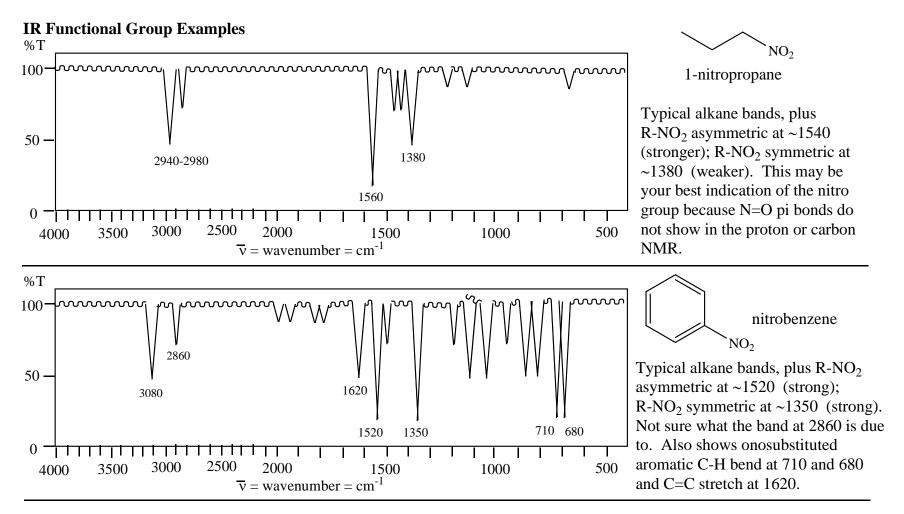












These examples all have only 1 functional group. IR spectra of molecules with multiple functional groups become more difficult to interpret. IR bands can overlap and hide one another, or even disappear. Functional groups can interact in unexpected ways having unexpected bands (overtones, combination and difference bands). IR won't solve our structures by itself, but can provide important functional group clues.

Our next lectures will cover NMR (H, C and 2D). This is a much larger and more useful topic for solving organic structures. We will need more than one lecture to get through all of that material.