

Topic #1: Using Spectroscopy to Identify Molecules: Infrared Spectroscopy (IR) Fall 2018 Dr. Susan Findlay

Thanks to Prof. Peter Dibble for many of the diagrams and spectra.

Spectroscopy and Organic Chemistry

- Spectroscopy has a variety of different applications in organic chemistry, but most of them boil down to the same two questions:
 - Did my reaction work? or
 - What is this molecule I just found/made?
- Different kinds of spectroscopy give different types of information about organic samples:
 - Infrared spectroscopy (IR) can identify many functional groups.
 - Ultraviolet/visible spectroscopy (UV-VIS) measures concentrations of known substances. It may also suggest the presence of conjugated pi systems.
 - Mass spectrometry (MS, often coupled with gas chromatography as GCMS) indicates the molar mass of molecules in a sample and, depending on the type, may also indicate the exact molecular formula (high resolution MS) or what fragments the molecule can break down into (GCMS or similar). It's also very good at indicating which (if any) halogens are present.
 - Nuclear magnetic resonance spectroscopy (NMR) indicates how many types* of atoms of a particular element are in each molecule and what their environment is like (how many other atoms are nearby, how electronegative those atoms are, is the atom in or near a pi bond or extended pi system, etc.)
 *e.g. There are three types of H in pentane (CH₃CH₂CH₂CH₂CH₃).

Spectroscopy and Organic Chemistry

- In CHEM 2600, we'll focus on NMR (as it's by far the most useful kind of spectroscopy for most organic chemists) but first we'll look briefly at IR. You'll find that many of the spectroscopy problems we give you to solve will involve using information from multiple sources to solve a single problem. These will frequently include:
 - NMR (both carbon and hydrogen)
 - IR
 - Elemental analysis (% by mass of each element from which you can calculate empirical formula)
 - Molar mass (obtained by MS)
- As you work through the problems, you'll want to develop a strategy of picking the most obvious information from each source first then going back and looking at each in more detail. Solving spectroscopy problems is a lot like solving jigsaw puzzles or crosswords. If the answer is right, <u>EVERYTHING MUST FIT</u>. If even one piece of information does not match your answer, there is probably a better answer.

IR from a Physical Chemist's Perspective

Molecules are always moving!



(For any vibration to appear on an IR spectrum, it must change the molecule's net dipole. Otherwise, it would appear on a Raman spectrum instead.)

4

IR from a Physical Chemist's Perspective

In CHEM 2000, you saw that the potential energy curves for different bonds have the same general shape, but look a little different. Which of the two images below corresponds to a shorter, more rigid bond?



- The blue lines represent vibrational energy levels (or vibration states). To be excited from one vibrational state into a higher energy one, a molecule must absorb light in the infrared range.
- Shorter/stronger/more rigid bonds require higher energy light for this type of transition, so measuring the wavelengths absorbed by a molecule tells us about the bonds in it.

 The convention for IR is not to report the ABSORBANCE but the TRANSMITTANCE. Transmittance is the light that passes through the sample unabsorbed. So, an IR spectrum looks something like this:



• The y-axis shows %transmittance (100% transmittance = no light absorbed) while the x-axis shows wavenumber ($\overline{v} = 1/\lambda$) which is usually reported in units of cm⁻¹.

- Wavenumber is directly proportional to energy, so "peaks" with larger wavenumbers correspond to absorbance of higher energy light. The shortest and most rigid bonds in any organic molecule all involve the same element, ______. Look for bonds involving ______ to appear on the left side of an IR spectrum typically at wavenumbers higher than 2700 cm⁻¹.
- For bonds involving the other elements, bond order tells us where to look on an IR spectrum. ______ bonds (~2000-2500 cm⁻¹) tend to be shorter/stronger/more rigid than ______ bonds (~1500-2000 cm⁻¹) which are, in turn, shorter/stronger/more rigid than ______ bonds (usually <1500 cm⁻¹ but buried in the "fingerprint region").

■ When we compare C=C to C=C to C-C, we get the order we'd expect:

- As you might expect, bonds with fractional bond order will behave accordingly.
 - e.g. benzene

K is the force constant.

IR from an Organic Chemist's Perspective

• Lastly, it's worth noting that size (or at least mass) does matter in IR:

$$\overline{\mathbf{v}} = \frac{1}{2\pi c} \sqrt{\frac{\mathbf{K}}{\mu}} \qquad \mu = \frac{\mathbf{m}_1 \mathbf{m}_2}{\mathbf{m}_1 + \mathbf{m}_2}$$
The masses of the atoms

The influence of mass is most obvious when comparing H to larger atoms, but can be seen in other cases to a lesser degree:

C-H C-D C-C just below 3000 cm⁻¹ ~2200 cm⁻¹ ~1200 cm⁻¹

 Note that, except for bonds to H, the effect of mass rarely trumps the effect of bond strength. C=O absorbs higher energy light than C=C. Why?

Getting the most out of an IR in 30 seconds.



*Try to avoid making negative conclusions based on an IR; sometimes, the peak is just too small to see (or symmetry makes there be no peak). So, it's usually better to just say "probably no C=C" until/unless something else backs up your suspicion.*¹⁰

If you find any C=O stretches, try to find the exact wavenumber:



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...and that's pretty much it for IR.

What can we infer from the IR below?





What can we infer from the IR below?



What can we infer from the IR below?

8Б

