

frequency of Intra molecular Hydrogen Bonding do not get change and occurs at higher frequency than Intermolecular Hydrogen Bonding molecules.

5. Kinetics of a Reaction :- The progress of a reaction can be analysed by IR Spectroscopy

Nuclear Magnetic Resonance Spectroscopy

NMR is the study of transitions of a nucleus from one spin state to another on the absorption of Radio frequency waves when placed under magnetic field.

Principle of NMR Spectroscopy

Nuclear spin quantum number :- (I)

Nucleus = Protons + Neutrons

Spin of Proton and Neutron $\pm \frac{1}{2}$

Range of Radiofrequency =

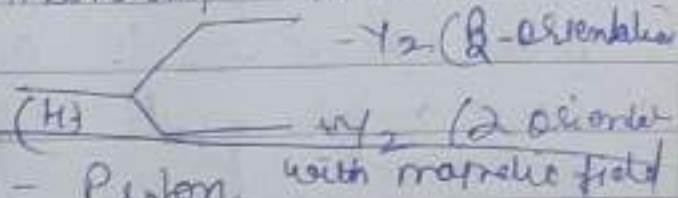
$$4 - 90 \text{ MHz}$$

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If spin of both is clockwise $\left[\left(+\frac{1}{2} \right) \text{ spin} \right]$

If spin of both is Anticlockwise then

Spin is $\left(-\frac{1}{2} \right)$



For exp 2D
1

1 = Proton

1 = Neutron

→ If spin of Proton and Neutron is parallel then $I = \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2} = 1$

→ If spin of Proton and Neutron is Antiparallel then $I = \frac{1}{2} - \frac{1}{2} = 0$

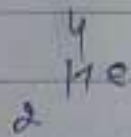
(I) Spin Quantum Number is the fixed property of a nucleus

It can be found using the Rules

① If atomic number and mass number are even

$$I = 0$$

exp



$$12$$



② If atomic number is odd and mass number is even $I = 1, 2, 3, \dots$

^{13}C , ^1H , ^{19}F , ^{14}N , ^{17}O , ^{31}P gives NMR
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Exp $^{14}_7\text{N}$ $^{10}_5\text{B}$

③ When atomic number is odd or even and mass number is odd then $I = \frac{1}{2}, \frac{3}{2}, \frac{5}{2}$

Exp ^1_1H , $^{19}_9\text{F}$, $^{23}_{11}\text{Na}$

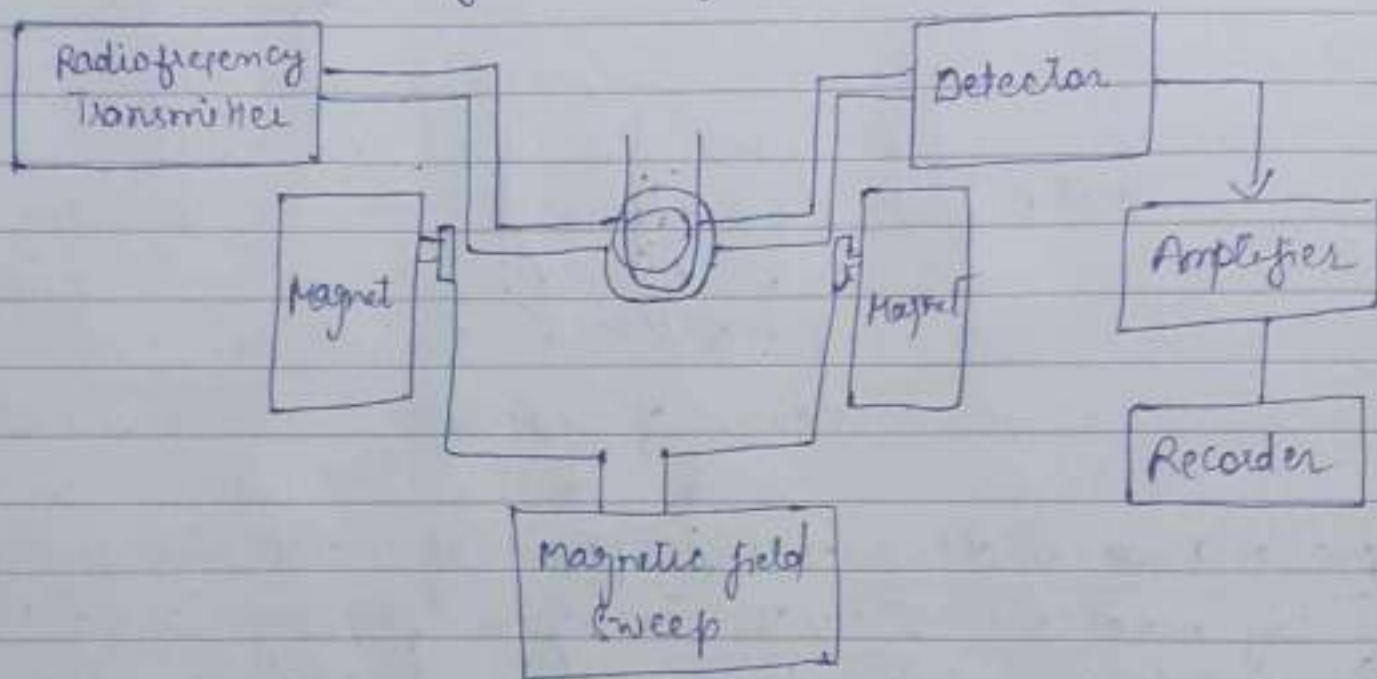
NMR Active Molecules - when $I \neq 0$
Inactive - when $I = 0$

Instrumentation of NMR

Instrument used is NMR spectrometer
Components are

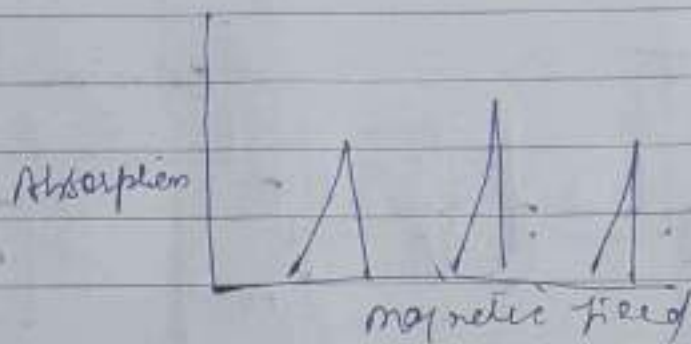
- 1) Radio frequency Transmitter
- 2) Sample holder
- 3) Magnets and magnetic field sweep
- 4) Detector
- 5) Amplifier
- 6) Recorder

Block Diagram of NMR Spectrometer



Sample is kept in to sample holder which is kept under the influence of magnets whose magnetic field is controlled from magnetic field sweep. Radiowaves are absorbed by the sample and signals are converted into electrons by the detector and then clarification is done by amplifier which then sent to recorder to record NMR spectra.

The absorption energy $(\nu) = \frac{g \mu_N B}{h}$



Signal of NMR

Relaxation Process → Absorption of Radio frequency by nucleus results in spin flipping and

- ① undergoes transition which increases the population of nuclei in the excited state. A state shows where no of nuclei is equal in both states which represents nuclei is relaxing and no absorption occurs. But in actual case the nuclei in the excited state lose energy and return to ground state by different processes called Relaxation process which are of two types.

1) Spin-Spin Relaxation \rightarrow When transfer of (from the excited state) energy occurs to the neighbouring nuclei. Spin-Spin Relaxation occurs. It do not produce any change in the population of nuclei from ground to excited state.

2) Spin-lattice Relaxation :- It is the transfer of energy by a nucleus from the upper state to surrounding in the form of translational, rotational and vibrational energy.

Proton Magnetic Resonance Spectroscopy :-
or ^1H NMR Spectroscopy

It refers to the NMR of nucleus of Hydrogen. Nucleus of Hydrogen contains only one proton. It is mostly useful in the study of structure of unknown compounds. It is also known as Proton NMR Spectroscopy.

Proton = Hydrogen

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Information obtained from NMR

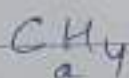
1) Number of signals → No. of signals indicates the no. of protons present in the compound. There are two kinds of proton present in a molecule.

1) Equivalent proton → which is having same env. or lie in same plane.

2) Non Equivalent proton → which is having different env. or lie in different plane.

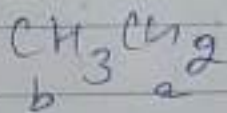
Exp

Equivalent
Proton



all four hydrogen lie in same plane and env.

Non Equivalent
Proton



2 different protons means 2 signals.

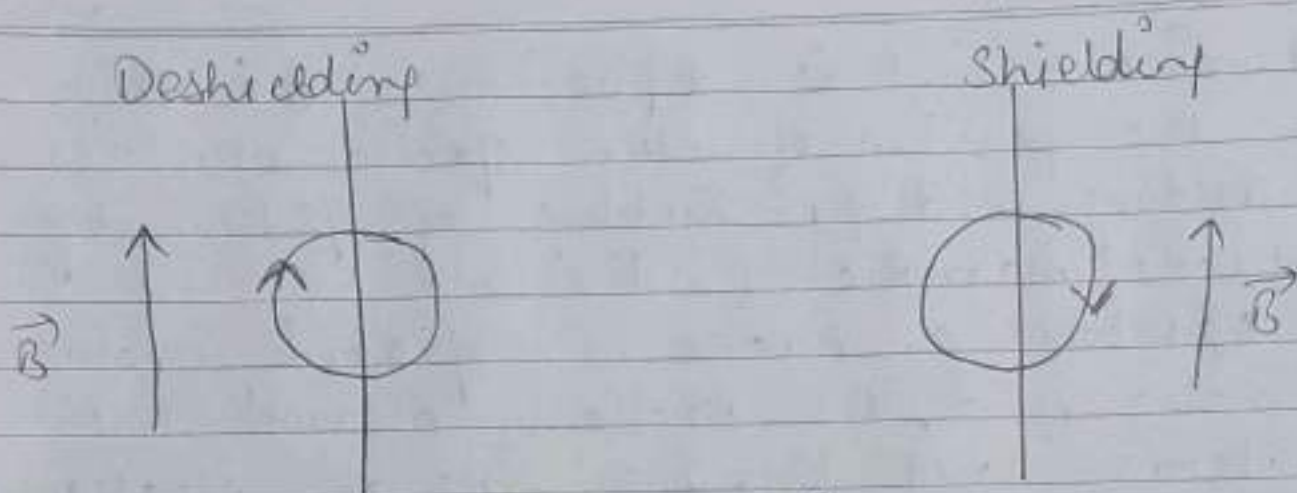
2.) Position of signals :- Equivalent proton gives NMR signal at same position and non equivalent proton give NMR signal at different positions. Position of a signal is determined on the basis of Chemical Shift.

"Chemical shift is defined as the shift in the position of NMR spectra due to shielding and deshielding of protons by 'induced magnetic field'."

→ When a nucleus is placed under magnetic field, the electrons around the nucleus start behaving like an electron bar magnet and produces an induced (\vec{B}_i) magnetic field. The direction of induced magnetic field either opposes or reinforces the Applied Magnetic field (\vec{B}). Two possibilities are there

→ If the direction of induced magnetic field is opposite to the direction of Applied magnetic field then the field felt by the proton get decreased. It is called "Shielding".

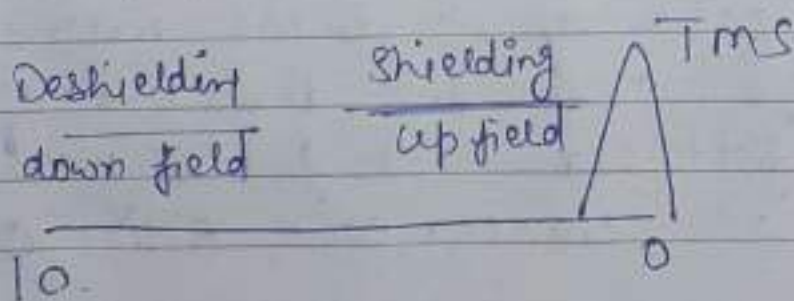
→ If the direction of induced magnetic field is along the direction of (\vec{B}) then field felt by proton increases. It is called "Deshielding".



Position of signal = chemical shift

→ But to know where shielding and deshielding occur we must have a Reference Compound

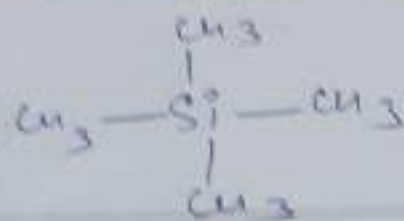
TMS is standard onto which there is shielding (besides) and deshielding (far)



TMS = Tetramethyl silane

Why is it used as Reference?

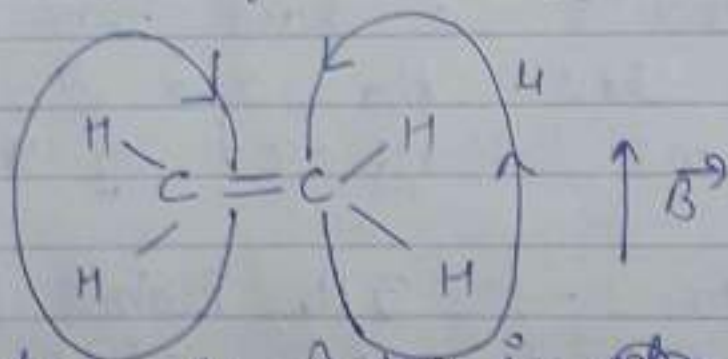
Ans There are some reasons behind this



- 1.) All the 12 H are on the same plane so only one signal is there
- 2.) Due to low electronegativity of Silicon \bar{e} density increases around (CH_3) group. It results in shielding so it gives signal at upfield (Shielding) $\delta = 0$
- 3.) It is chemically inert
- 4.) Having low boiling point so removed easily after NMR

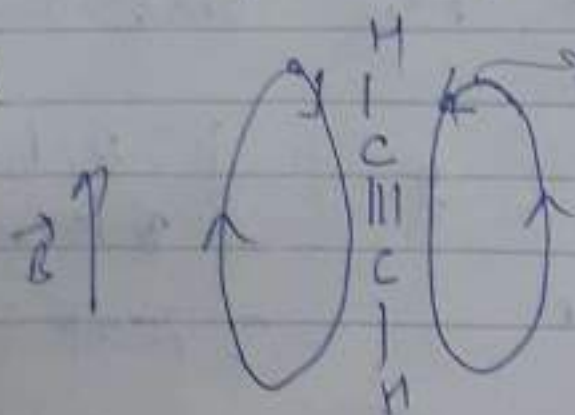
Chemical shift of some functional groups

1) Alkene



Direction along the proton is ~~also~~ reinforcing the applied magnetic field

2) Ethylene

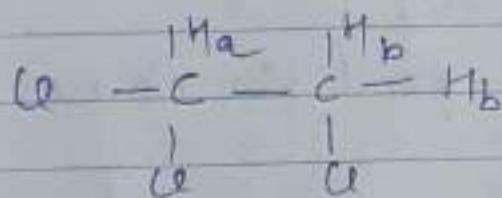


Direction along proton opposite the direction of \vec{B}_0

Splitting of signals

→ No of signals further splits in to no of peaks.
 Formula = $(n+1)$ peaks
 where n = no. of Proton (adjacent)

For Example



$\text{H}_a = n = 2$ $\text{H}_a = (2+1) = 3 \text{ peaks}$ $\text{H}_b = (1+1) = 2 \text{ peaks}$ $\text{H}_b \quad (n=1)$
--

In this molecule we have two kinds of proton are there H_a and H_b
 Spin of one is affected by the other

For H_a Proton → 2 H_b protons (adjacent)

→ The spin of both H_b is along or against the applied magnetic field.

So we have four combinations

$$\uparrow \uparrow = 1$$

$$\uparrow \downarrow \text{ or } \downarrow \uparrow = 2$$

$$\downarrow \downarrow = 1$$

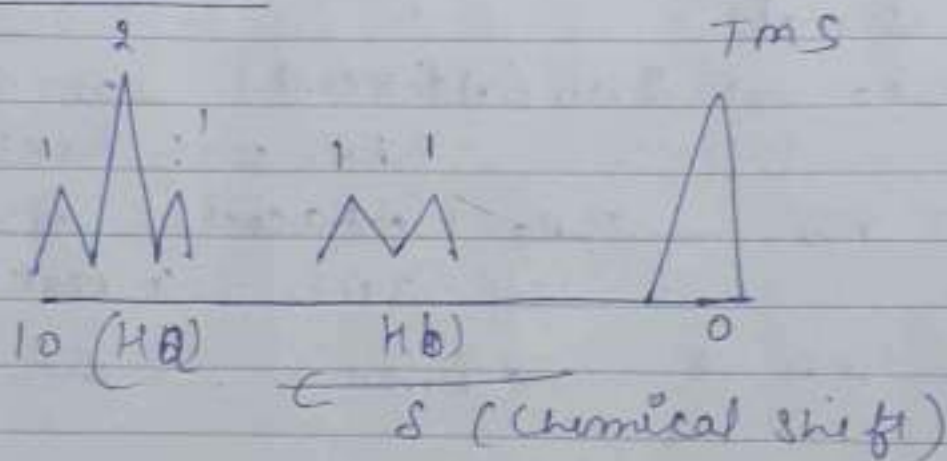
1 : 2 : 1
 intensity

3 peaks

↑
 B

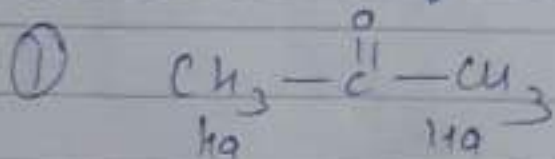
For H_b proton = 1 H_a proton which is either along or opposite to two peaks are there (↑↓ or ↑↑) Intensity 1:1

Representation

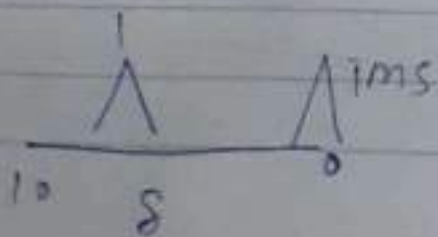


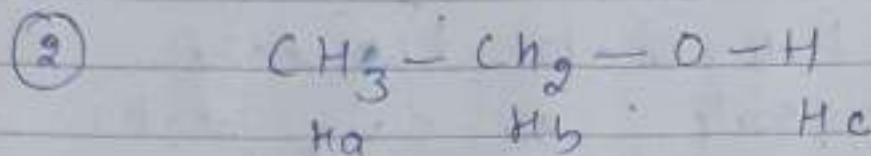
For H_a signal occurs at shielded region due to two Cl groups (electronegativity)

Interpretation of Some Compounds



- Ⓐ only one kind of proton
- Ⓑ only one signal
- Ⓒ only one peak





① only three protons are there

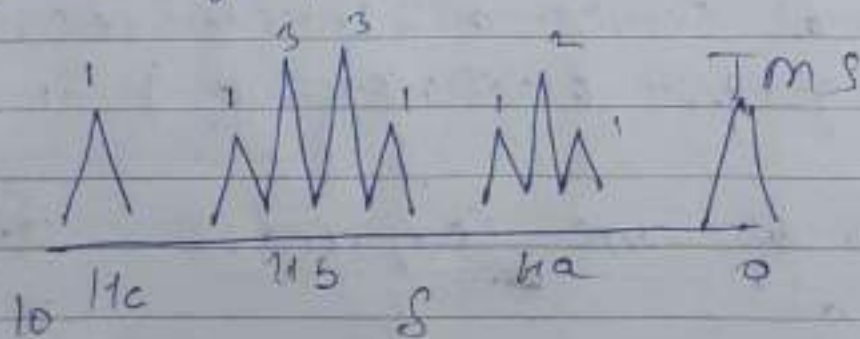
② Three signals

③ for $\text{H}_a \rightarrow 2 \text{H}_b$ (Adjacent) $n=2$
 $(2+1) = 3$ peaks

for $\text{H}_b \rightarrow 3 \text{H}_a$ (Adjacent) $n=3$
 $(3+1) = 4$ peaks

for $\text{H}_c \rightarrow$ no proton \rightarrow one peak

④ Position of signals



Surface Characterisation Techniques

Surface Characterisation means the characteristics of a material associated with the properties of its surface

→ Measurements of surface area, surface roughness, pore size constitute surface characteristics.

→ Information on surface characteristics is very important for the applications of surfaces as semiconductors, heterogeneous catalysts and also in biological research.

Techniques Used in Surface Characterisation

- ① X-ray Photoelectron Spectroscopy
- ② Auger Electron Spectroscopy
- ③ Electron microscopy
 - a) Scanning Electron Microscope
 - b) Atomic Force microscope
 - c) Transmission Electron microscope
 - d) ~~Auger~~ ~~SEM~~

Q - Diffraction

→ It refers to various phenomena that occur in which there is slight bending of light as it passes around the edge of an object. The amount of the bending of light depends on the size of wavelength of light to the size of the object.

X-ray Diffraction :- It is the most important technique used for the

$$\text{Bending of Incident light} = \frac{\text{Size of wavelength}}{\text{Size of object}}$$

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Identification of a crystalline material, their spacing and wavelength of the incident x-ray by using Bragg's law.

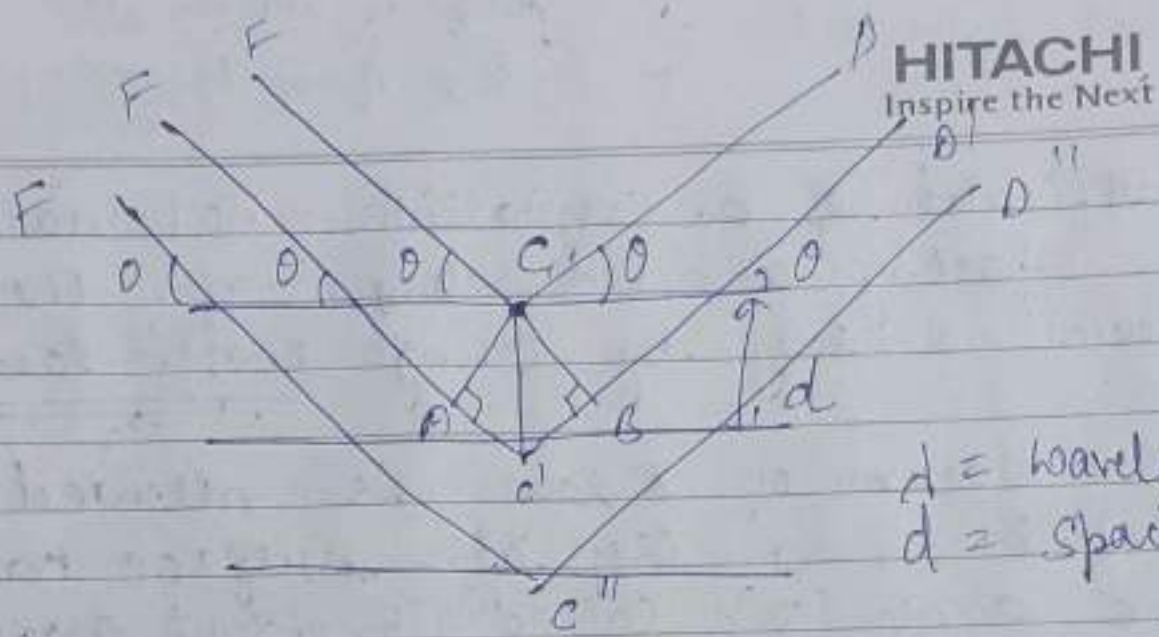
When a beam of x-ray is allowed to fall on a crystal surface at some angle (θ) called incident angle and spacing b/w the crystal (d) act as a source of scattered radiation.

So when beam strikes, a photon is scattered by the layer of atom at surface and again beam get scattered by the next atom having spacing d . Bragg developed a relationship between x-ray and spacing.

Path length $FC'D'$ and $FC'D$

$FC'D'$ is larger than $FC'D$ by $AC'B$

$$n\lambda = 2AC = 2d \sin \theta$$



$d = \text{wavelength}$
 $d = \text{spacing}$

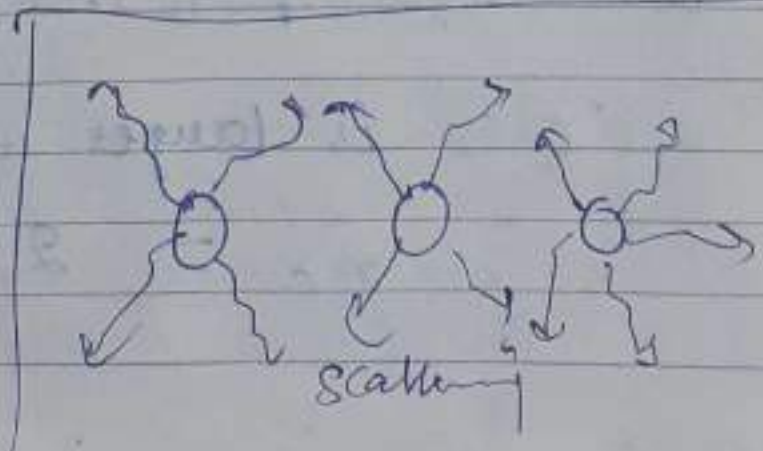
$n = \text{order of diffraction}$

Condition for diffraction

Diffacted beams are found to occur when reflections from plane of atoms interfere constructively.

Three X-ray diffraction methods are

- ① Laue
- ② Rotating Crystal
- ③ Powder



Scattering

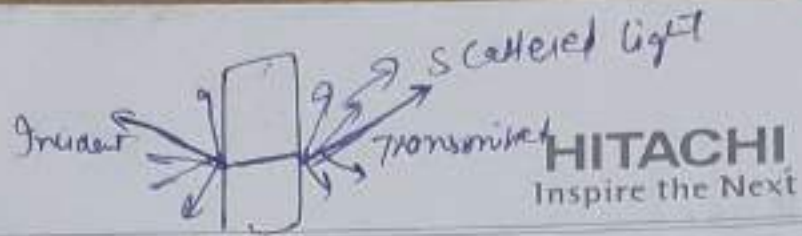
→ It is a physical process in which light get deviated from its path by one or more paths. Scattering may be due to collision between the molecules, atoms, electrons and other particles.

→ Most of the spectroscopic technologies deals with the absorption of light.

However Raman spectroscopy deals with scattering of light.

→ But it was Rayleigh who observed for the first time that on irradiation of a substance with monochromatic light, the scattered light is observed in a direction perpendicular to the incident light. This is called Rayleigh scattering.

→ But Raman observed that along with Rayleigh scattering there are some frequencies which are different than ~~Rayleigh~~ than incident light, these are known as Raman lines.

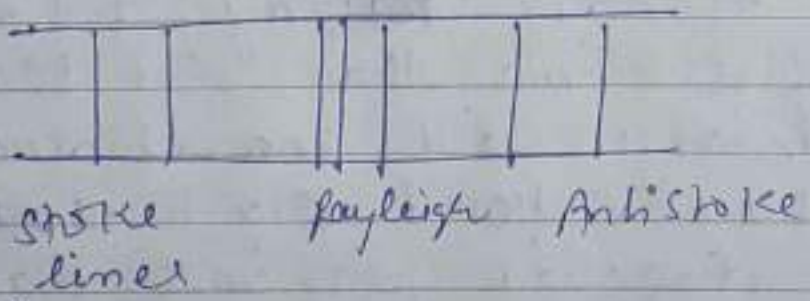


- ① Stoke lines → whose wavelength is greater than incident light
- ② Anti stoke lines - less than incident light

ν_i = frequency of incident light
 ν_s = " of scattered radiation

$$\Delta\nu = \nu_i - \nu_s$$

$\Delta\nu = +ve$ (Stoke lines) $\nu_i > \nu_s$ $\nu_s > \nu_i$
 $\Delta\nu = -ve$ (Anti)



Applications

- ① Structure of Compounds
- ② Tonic equilibrium in solution
- ③ ~~study of spectroscopy of light~~
- ④ study of polymers
- ⑤ Both organic and inorganic samples are determined

Applications of X-ray Diffraction

- Structure of Crystals
- Characterisation of Polymers
- Nature of Complexes
- Organic Compounds can be converted into crystalline derivatives

Magnetic Resonance Imaging (MRI)

- It is a medical test that physicians use to diagnose medical conditions.
- It uses powerful magnetic field, radio waves and a computer to produce detailed pictures of the inside of your body.
- It is used in variety of conditions within the chest, ^{brain} abdomen to help to diagnose diseases like tumors of the chest, abdomen diseases of liver, such as cirrhosis heart problems and fetus in the womb of a pregnant woman.

Q How does the MRI equipment look like?

Ans is Traditional MRI is a large cylinder-shaped tube surrounded by a circular magnet. We have to lie on a movable table that slides in to the centre of the magnet.

Q How does it work?

Ans It uses Radiofrequency pulses which re-align the hydrogen atoms that naturally exists in our body ~~also~~ without any chemical change in the tissue. As the hydrogen atoms return to their original alignment, they emit different amount of energy according to the type of body tissue from which they come. MRI Scanner captures this energy and creates a picture on the computer. Magnetic field is produced by passing electric current through wire coils in most MRI. Patient do not come in contact with electric field.

Applications of Sodium ^{23}Na MRI used for analysis of blood

^{19}F for conc of F in various body parts
 P, F, Ni, O → less abundant

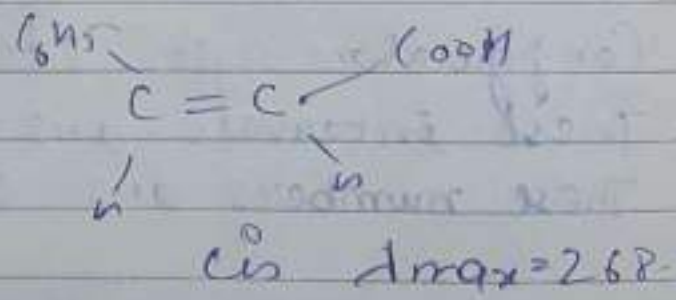
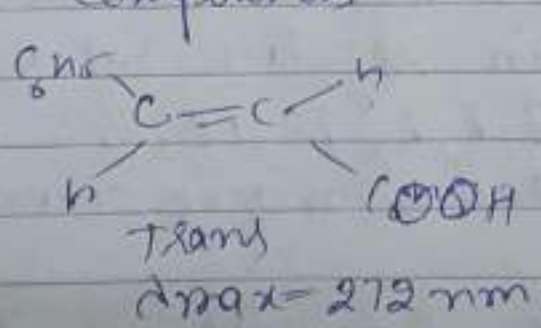


MRI exams generally include multiple runs; some of which may last several minutes

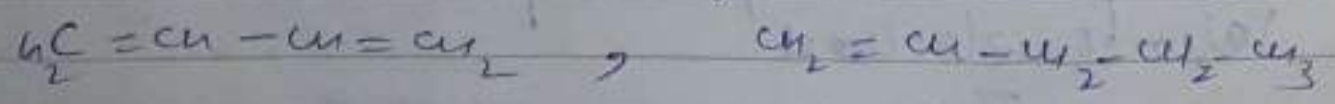
Entire process completes in 30-50 minutes

Applications of UV visible

- ① Identification of Functional Groups
- ② Determination of Unknown Compound
- ③ Distinguish b/w Cis and Trans Compounds



- ④ Distinguish b/w Conjugated and non conjugated



- ⑤ Determination of Extention of Conjugation
- ⑥ Quantitative analysis — unknown conc. can be find out.