

# Chapter 16-17

## *An Introduction and Application to Infrared Spectrometry*

The infrared region of the spectrum encompasses radiation with wavenumbers ranging from about 12,800 to 10  $\text{cm}^{-1}$  or wavelengths from 0.78 to 1000  $\mu\text{m}$ . The infrared spectrum is divided into **near-**, **mid-**, and **far-**infrared radiation.

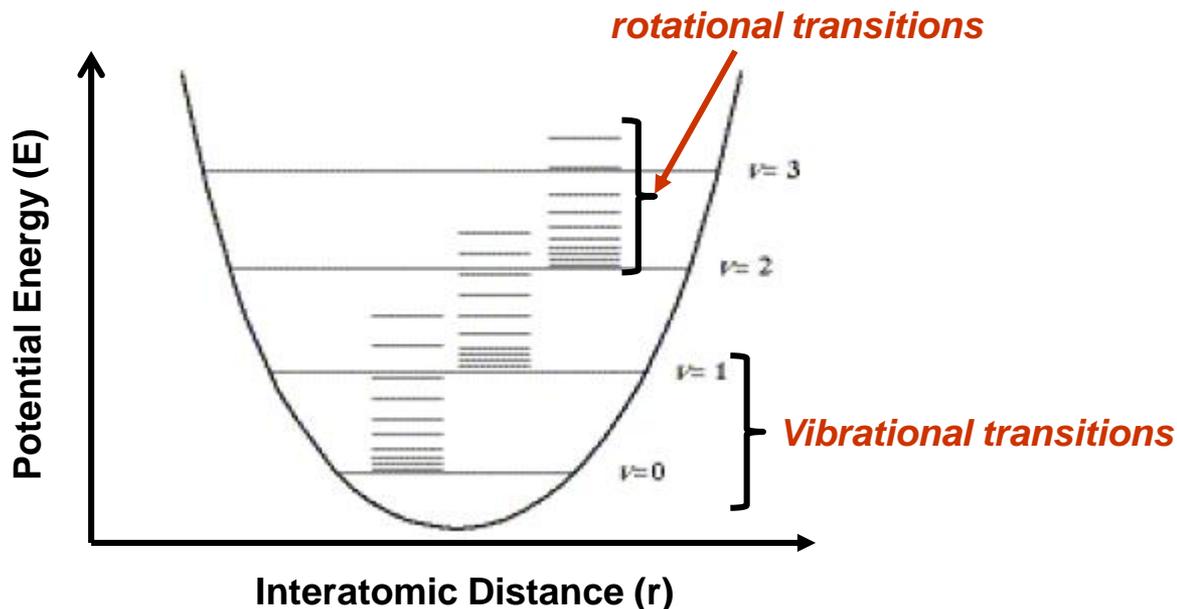
**TABLE 16-1** IR Spectral Regions

Region	Wavelengths ( $\lambda$ ), $\mu\text{m}$	Wavenumbers ( $\bar{\nu}$ ), $\text{cm}^{-1}$	Frequencies ( $\nu$ ), Hz
Near	0.78 to 2.5	12800 to 4000	$3.8 \times 10^{14}$ to $1.2 \times 10^{14}$
Middle	2.5 to 50	4000 to 200	$1.2 \times 10^{14}$ to $6.0 \times 10^{12}$
Far	50 to 1000	200 to 10	$6.0 \times 10^{12}$ to $3.0 \times 10^{11}$
Most used	2.5 to 15	4000 to 670	$1.2 \times 10^{14}$ to $2.0 \times 10^{13}$

# Infrared Spectroscopy

## A) Introduction

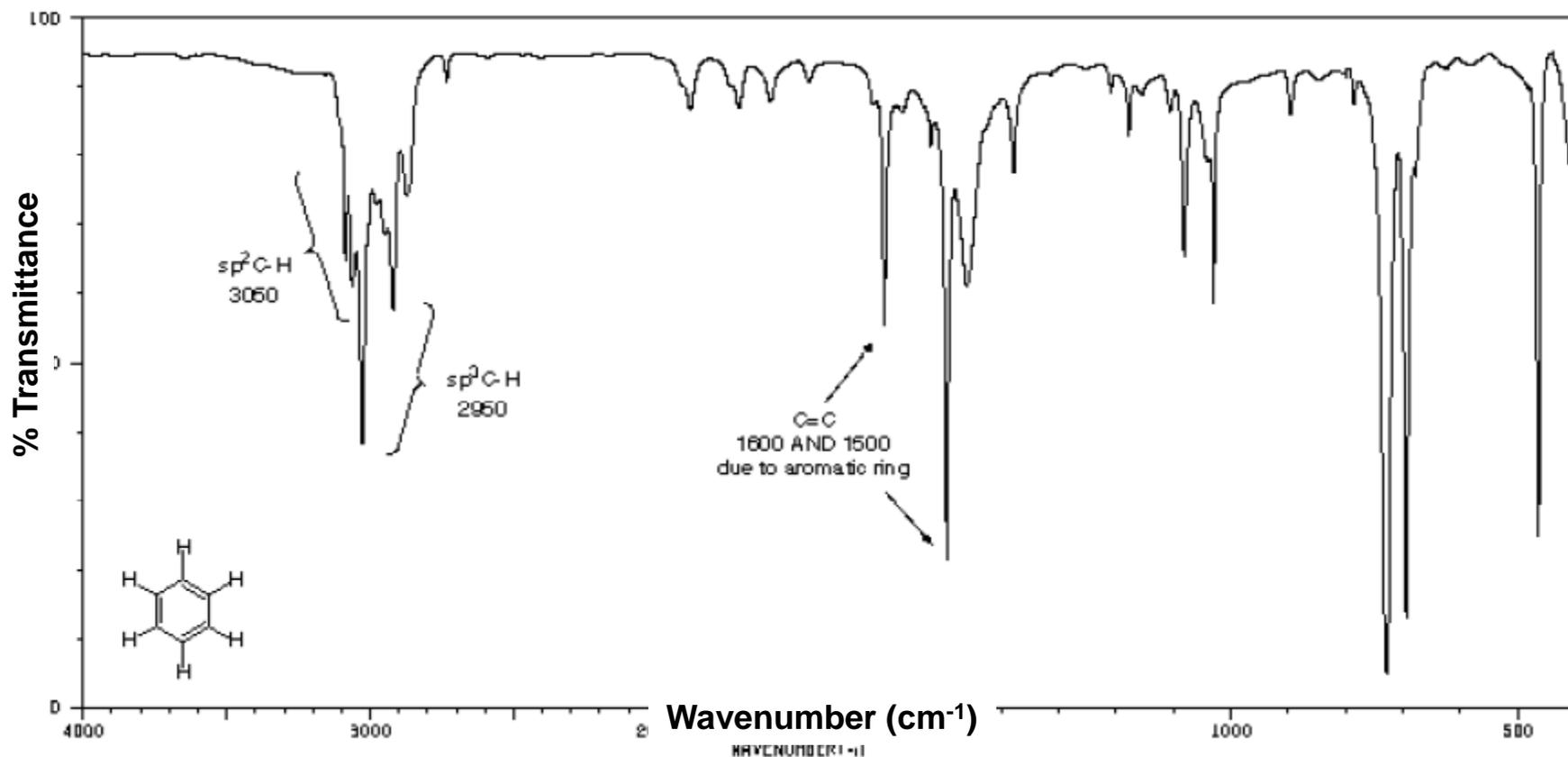
- A) 1.) Infrared (IR) spectroscopy: based on IR absorption by molecules as undergo vibrational and rotational transitions. Absorption of radiation in this region by a typical organic molecule results in the excitation of vibrational, rotational and bending modes, while the molecule itself remains in its electronic ground state.



*Potential energy resembles classic Harmonic Oscillator*

- 2.) IR radiation is in the range of  $12,800 - 10 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  or  $\lambda = 0.78 - 1000 \text{ }\mu\text{m}$
- rotational transitions have small energy differences
    - $\leq 100 \text{ cm}^{-1}$ ,  $\lambda > 100 \text{ }\mu\text{m}$
  - vibrational transitions occur at higher energies
  - rotational and vibrational transitions often occur together

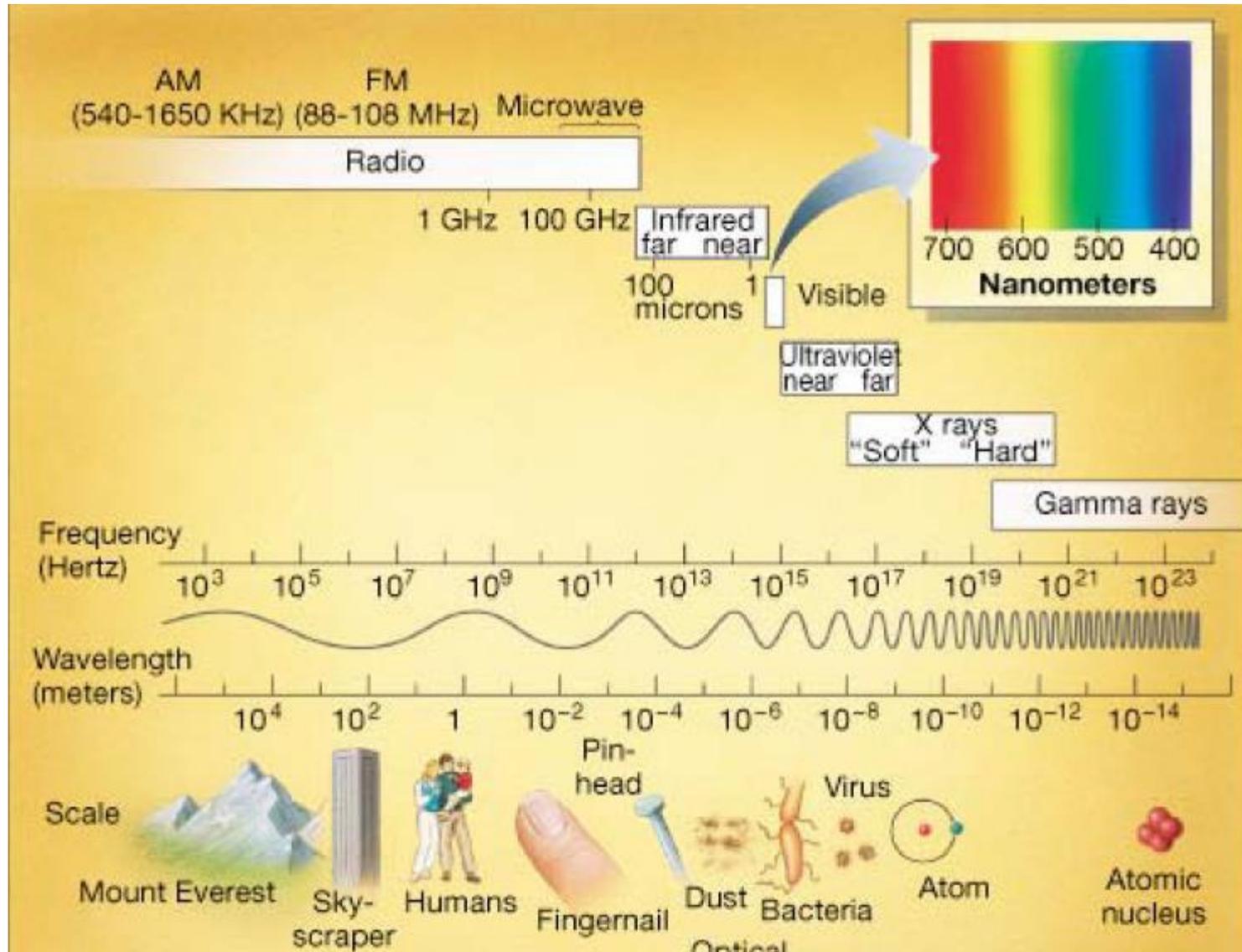
3.) Typical IR spectrum for Organic Molecule



## Wide Range of Types of Electromagnetic Radiation in nature.

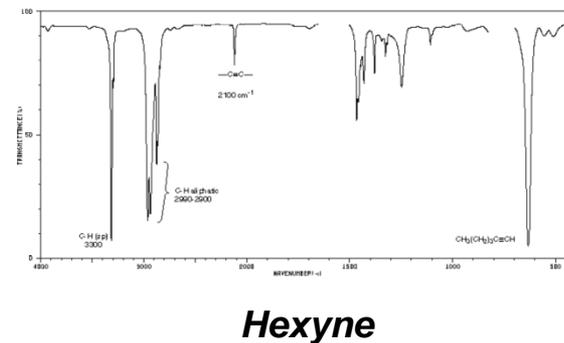
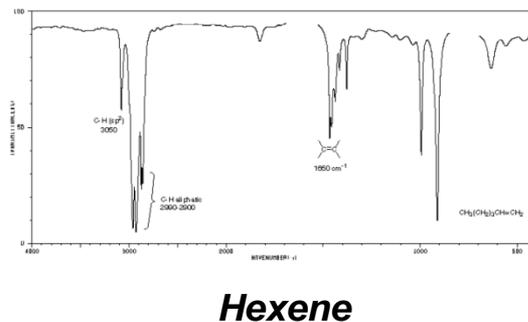
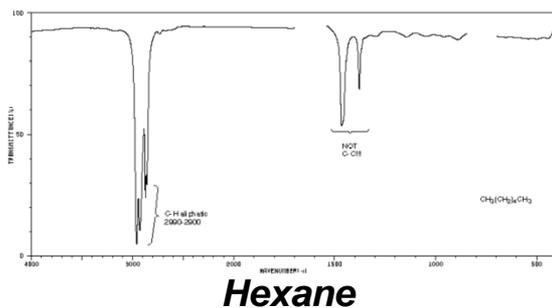
1. Only a small fraction (350-780 nm is visible light).
2. The complete variety of electromagnetic radiation is used throughout spectroscopy.
3. Different energies allow monitoring of different types of interactions with matter.

$$E=hf = hc/\lambda$$



### 3.) Typical IR spectrum for Organic Molecule

- many more bands than in UV-vis, fluorescence or phosphorescence
- bands are also much sharper
- pattern is distinct for given molecule
  - except for optical isomers
- good qualitative tool
  - can be used for compound identification
  - group analysis
- also quantitative tool
  - intensity of bands related to amount of compound present
- spectra usually shown as percent transmittance (instead of absorbance) vs. wavenumber (instead of  $\lambda$ ) for convenience

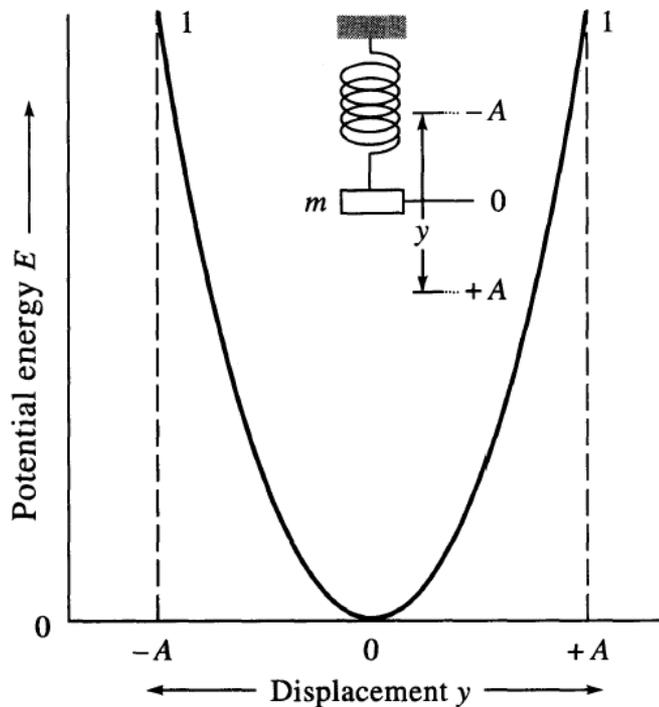


## B) Theory of IR Absorption

### 1.) Molecular Vibrations

#### i.) Harmonic Oscillator Model:

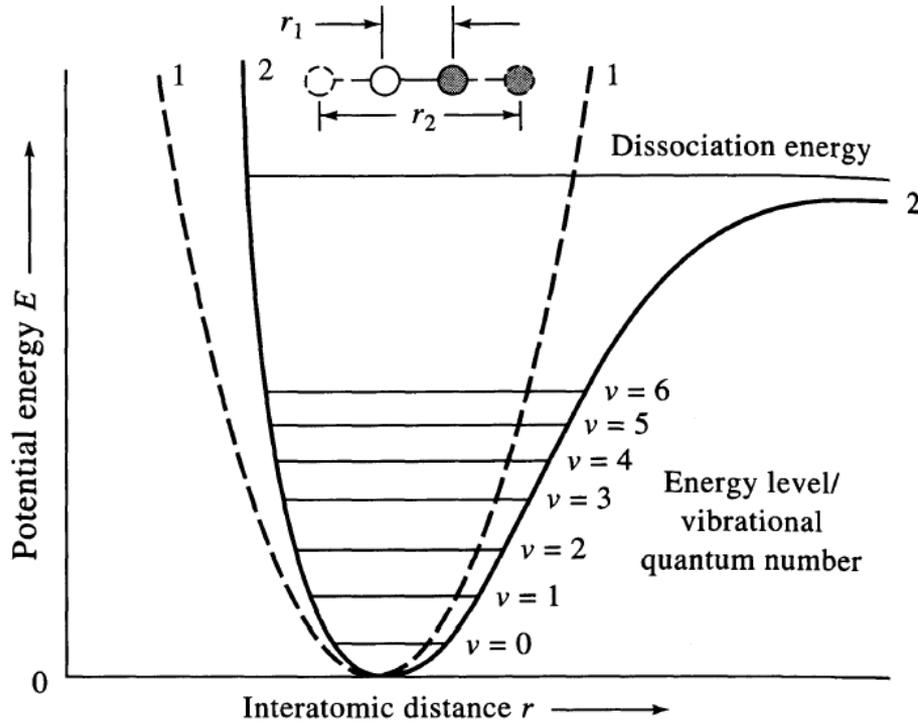
- approximate representation of atomic stretching
- two masses attached by a spring



$$E = \frac{1}{2} ky^2$$

where:

$y$  is spring displacement  
 $k$  is spring constant



Vibrational frequency given by:

$$\nu = 1 / 2\pi \sqrt{k / m}$$

where:

$\nu$  : frequency

$k$ : force constant (measure of bond stiffness)

$\mu$ : reduced mass –  $m_1 m_2 / m_1 + m_2$

If know  $\nu$  and atoms in bond, can get  $k$ :

Single bonds:

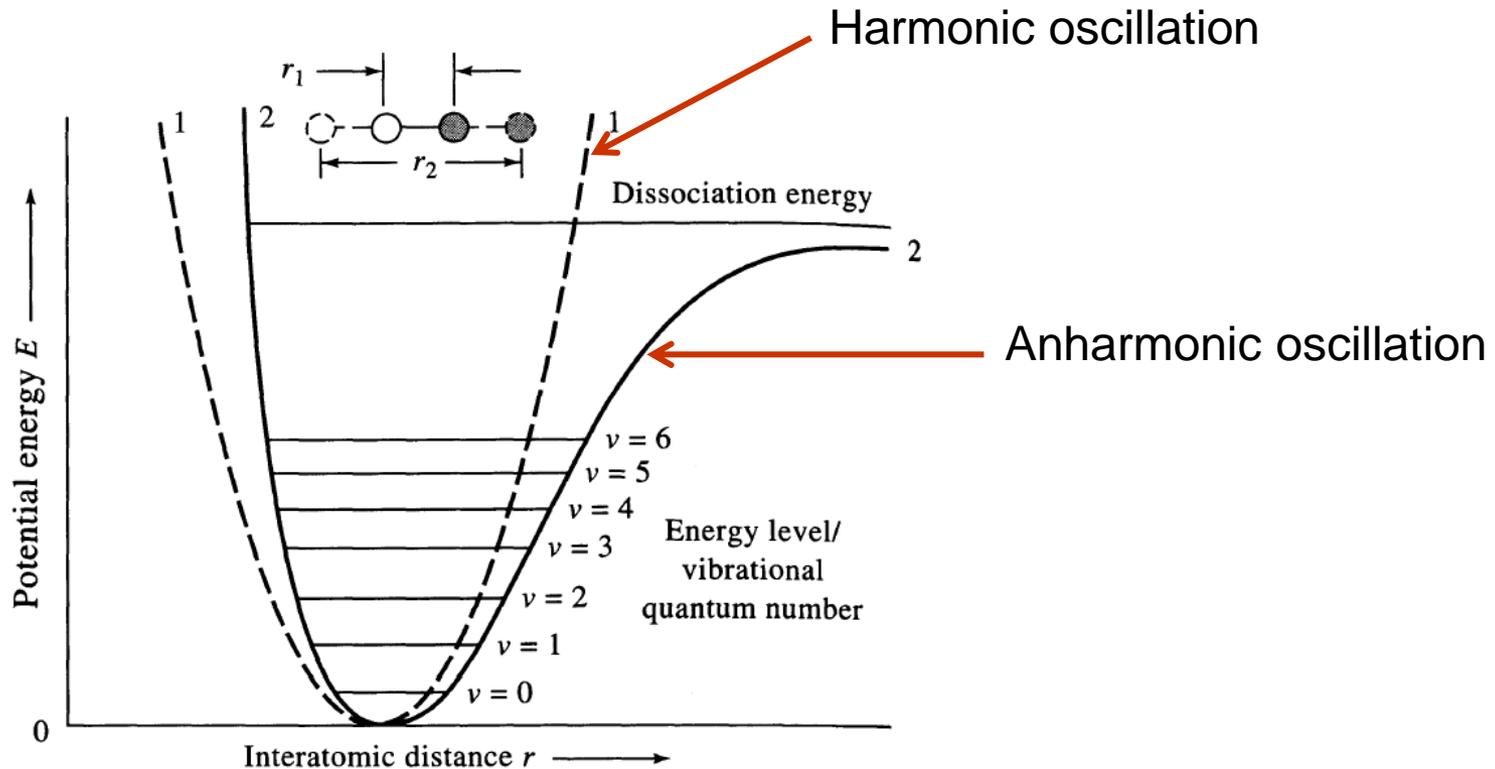
$k \sim 3 \times 10^2$  to  $8 \times 10^2$  N/m (Avg  $\sim 5 \times 10^2$ )

double and triple bonds  $\sim 2x$  and  $3x$   $k$  for single bond.

$\nu \propto \sqrt{k}$  So, vibration  $\nu$  occur in order:  
single < double < triple

## ii.) Anharmonic oscillation:

- harmonic oscillation model good at low energy levels ( $v_0, v_1, v_2, \dots$ )
- not good at high energy levels due to atomic repulsion & attraction
  - as atoms approach, coulombic repulsion force adds to the bond force making energy increase greater than harmonic
  - as atoms separate, approach dissociation energy and the harmonic function rises quicker

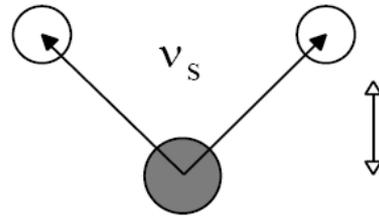


*Because of anharmonics: at low  $\Delta E$ ,  $\Delta v = \pm 2, \pm 3$  are observed which cause the appearance of overtone lines at frequencies at  $\sim 2-3$  times the fundamental frequency. Normally  $\Delta v = \pm 1$*

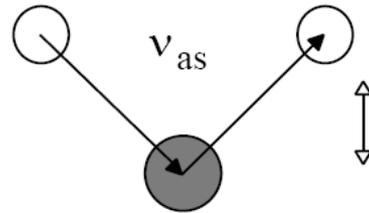
### iii.) Types of Molecular Vibrations

#### Bond Stretching

*symmetric*

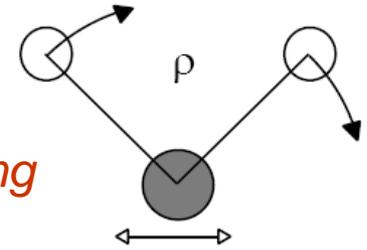


*asymmetric*

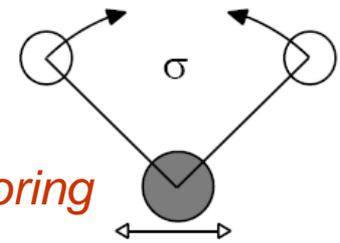


#### Bond Bending

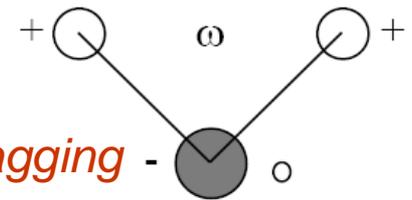
*In-plane rocking*



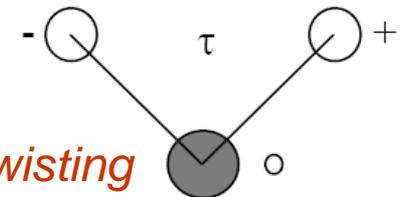
*In-plane scissoring*

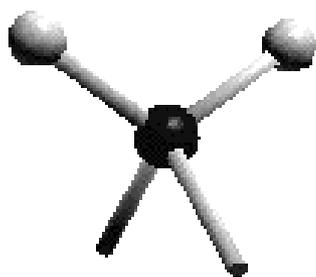


*Out-of-plane wagging*



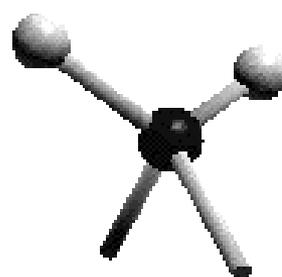
*Out-of-plane twisting*





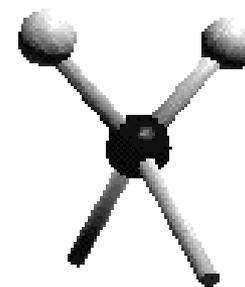
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*symmetric*



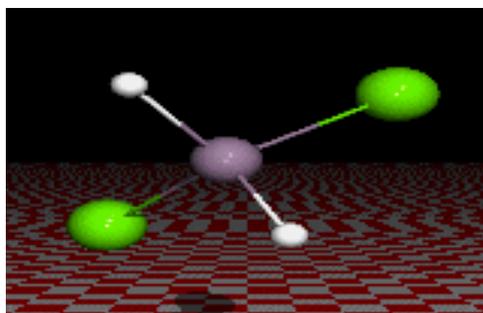
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*asymmetric*

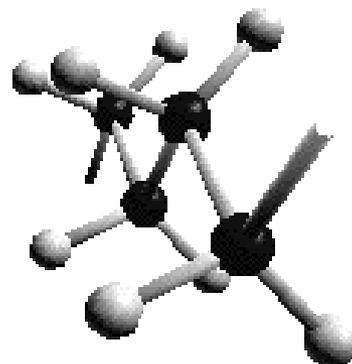


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*In-plane scissoring*

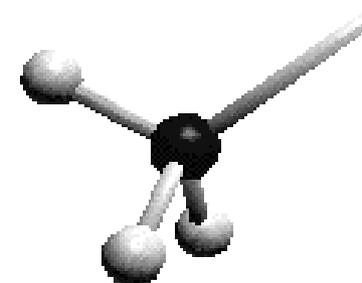


*Out-of-plane twisting*



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*In-plane rocking*



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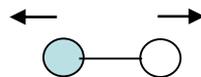
*Out-of-plane wagging*

#### iv.) Number of Vibrational Modes:

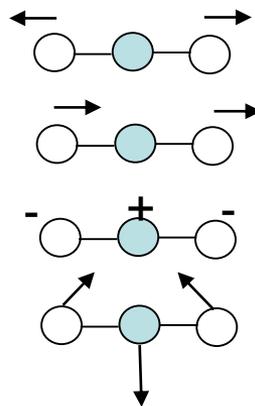
- for non-linear molecules, number of types of vibrations:  $3N-6$
- for linear molecules, number of types of vibrations:  $3N-5$
- why so many peaks in IR spectra
- observed vibration can be less than predicted because
  - symmetry ( no change in dipole)
  - energies of vibration are identical
  - absorption intensity too low
  - frequency beyond range of instrument

#### Examples:

1) HCl:  $3(2)-5 = 1$  mode



2) CO<sub>2</sub>:  $3(3)-5 = 4$  modes



*moving in-out of plane*

See web site for 3D animations of vibrational modes for a variety of molecules

<http://www.chem.purdue.edu/gchelp/vibs/co2.html>

## v.) IR Active Vibrations:

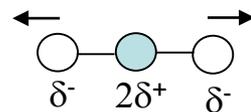
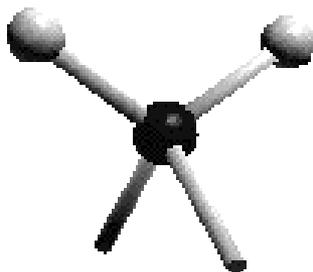
- In order for molecule to absorb IR radiation:

- vibration at same frequency as in light
- but also, must have a change in its *net dipole moment* as a result of the vibration

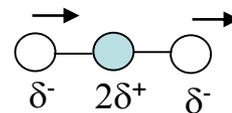
### Examples:

1) CO<sub>2</sub>:  $3(3)-5 = 4$  modes

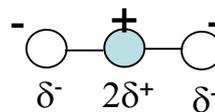
*degenerate – identical energy single IR peak*



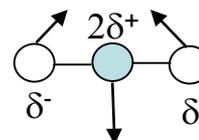
$\mu = 0$ ; IR inactive



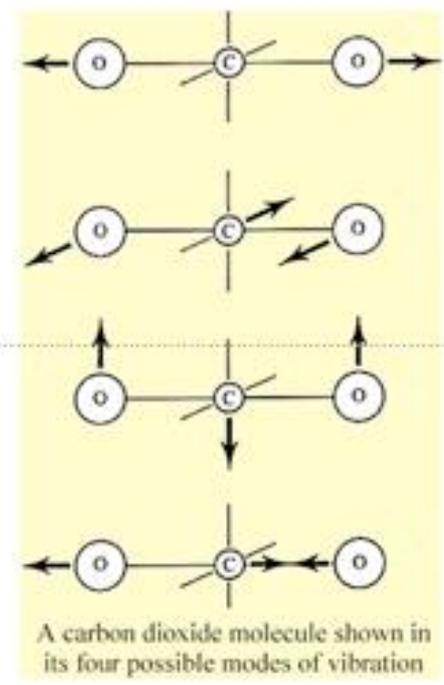
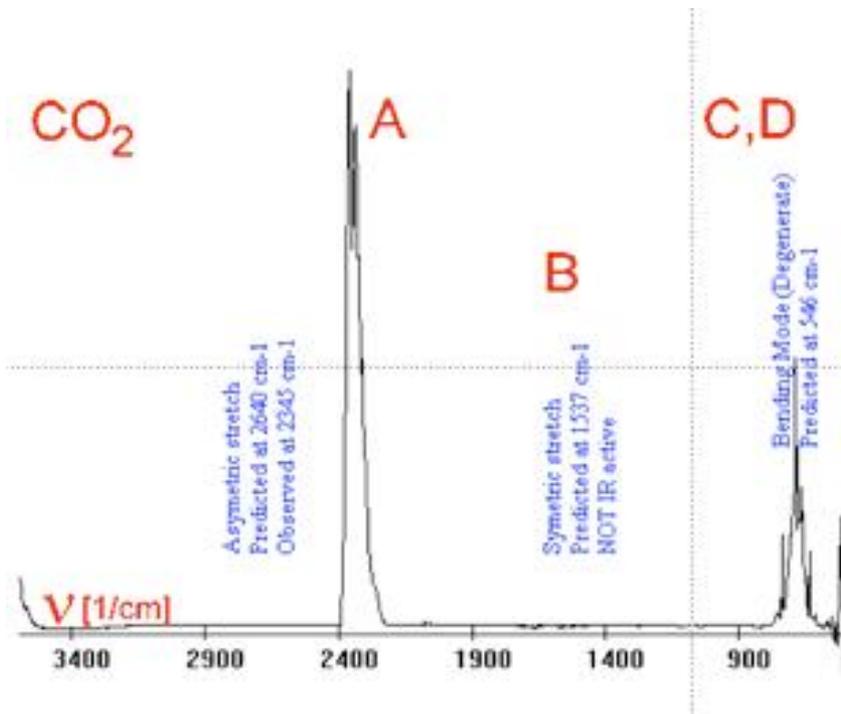
$\mu > 0$ ; IR active



$\mu > 0$ ; IR active



$\mu > 0$ ; IR active

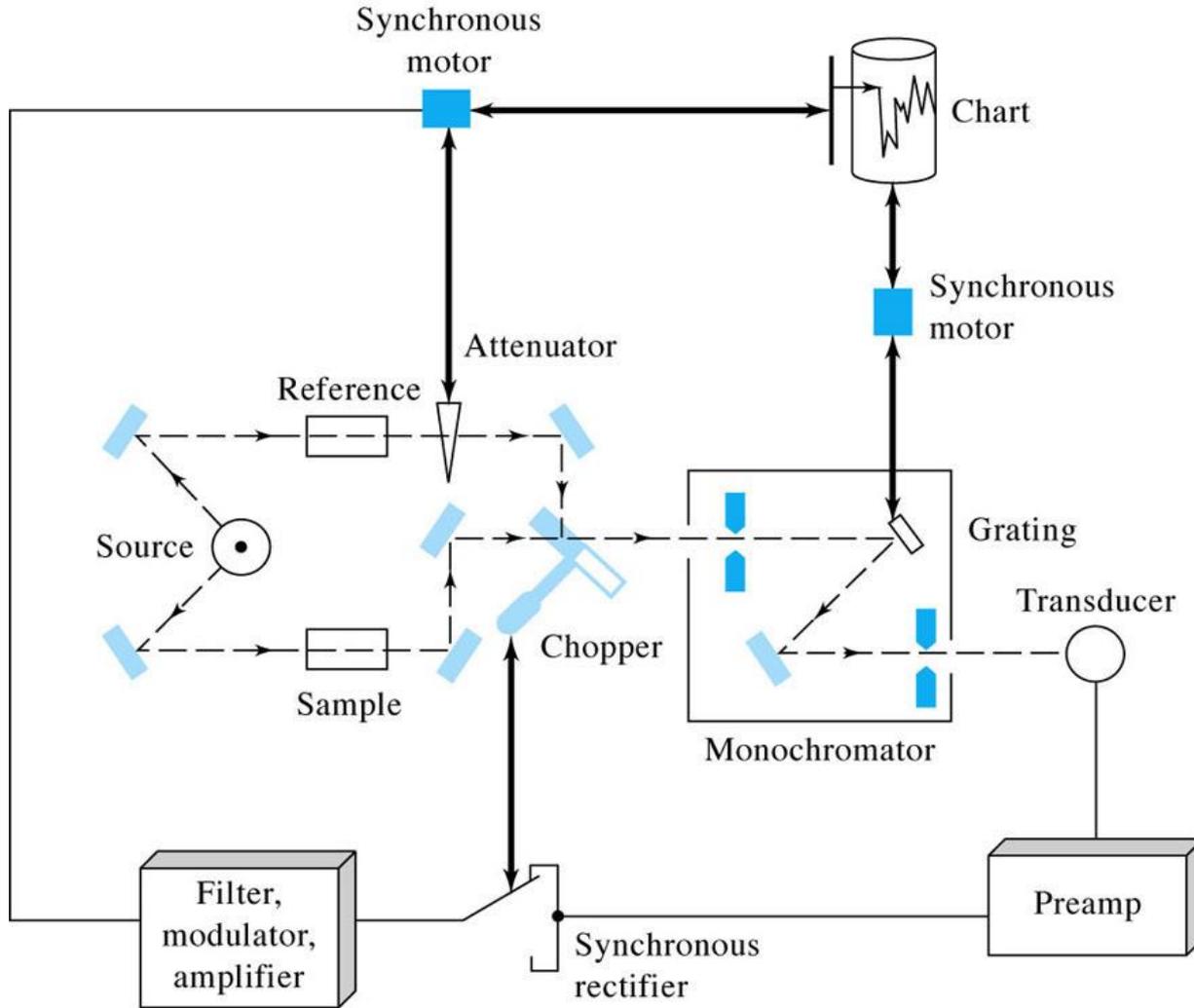


**Example 8:** Calculate the absorption frequency for the C-H stretch with a force constant of  $k = 5.0 \times 10^2$  N/m.

## C) Instrumentation

### 1.) Basic Design

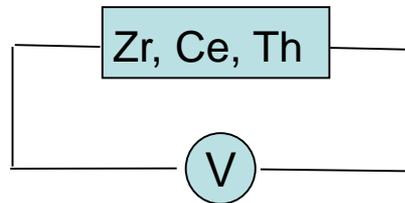
- normal IR instrument similar to UV-vis
- main differences are light source & detector



### i.) Light Source:

- must produce IR radiation
- can't use glass since absorbs IR radiation
- several possible types

#### a) Nernst Glower



- rare earth metal oxides (Zr, Ce, Th) heated electrically
- apply current to cylinder, has resistance to current flow generates heat (1200° – 2200° C).
- causes light production similar to blackbody radiation
- range of use ~ 670 – 10,000cm<sup>-1</sup>
- need good current control or overheats and damaged

#### b) Globar

- similar to Nernst Glower but uses silicon carbide rod instead of rare earth oxides
- similar usable range

### c) Incandescent Wire Source

- tightly wound nichrome or rodium wire that is electrically heated
- same principal as Nernst Glower
- lower intensity then Nernst Glower or Globar, but longer lifetime

### d) CO<sub>2</sub> Laser

- CO<sub>2</sub> laser gas mixture consists of 70% He, 15% CO<sub>2</sub>, and 15% N<sub>2</sub>
- a voltage is placed across the gas, exciting N<sub>2</sub> to lowest vibrational levels.
- the excited N<sub>2</sub> populate the asymmetric vibrational states in the CO<sub>2</sub> through collisions.
- infrared output of the laser is the result of transitions between rotational states of the CO<sub>2</sub> molecule of the first asymmetric vibrational mode to rotational states of both the first symmetric stretch mode and the second bending mode
- gives off band of ~ 100 cm<sup>-1</sup>'s in range of 900-1100 cm<sup>-1</sup>
- small range but can choose which band used & many compounds have IR absorbance in this region
- much more intense than Blackbody sources

### e) Others

- mercury arc ( $\lambda > 50 \mu\text{m}$ ) (far IR)
- tungsten lamp (4000 -12,800cm<sup>-1</sup>) (near IR)

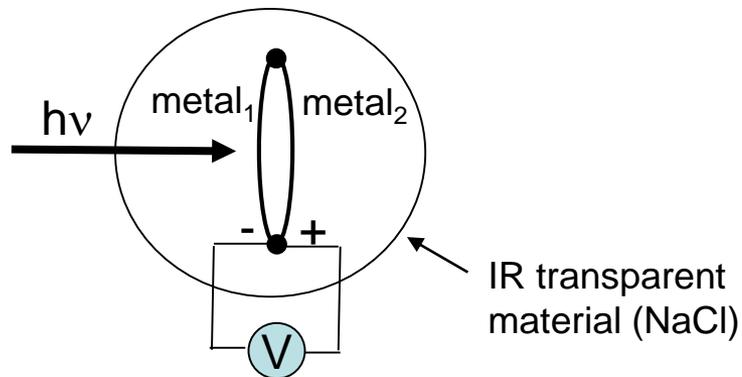
## ii.) Detectors:

- two main types in common IR instruments

### a) Thermal Detectors

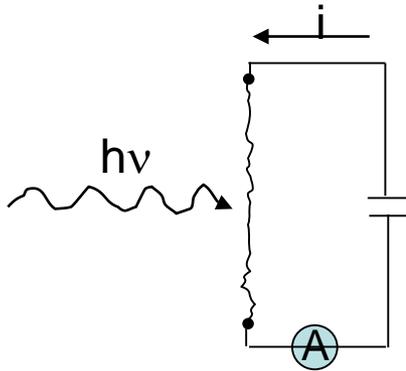
#### 1.) *Thermocouple*

- two pieces of dissimilar metals fused together at the ends
- when heated, metals heat at different rates
- potential difference is created between two metals that varies with their difference in temperature
- usually made with blackened surface (to improve heat absorption)
- placed in evacuated tube with window transparent to IR (not glass or quartz)
- IR “hits” and heats one of the two wires.
- can use several thermocouples to increase sensitivity.



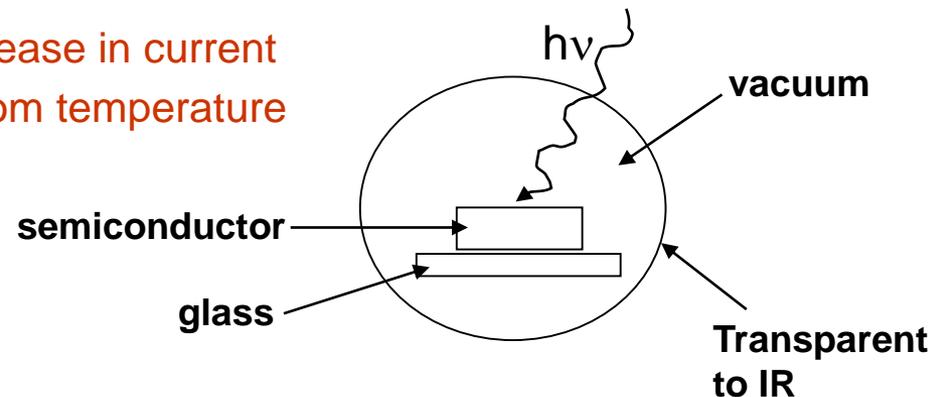
## 2.) Bolometer

- strips of metal (Pt, Ni) or semiconductor that has a large change in resistance to current with temperature.
- as light is absorbed by blackened surface, resistance increases and current decreases
- very sensitive



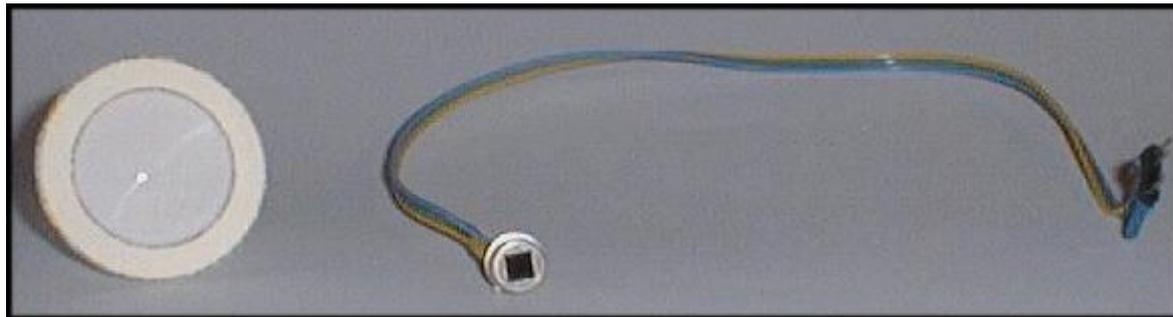
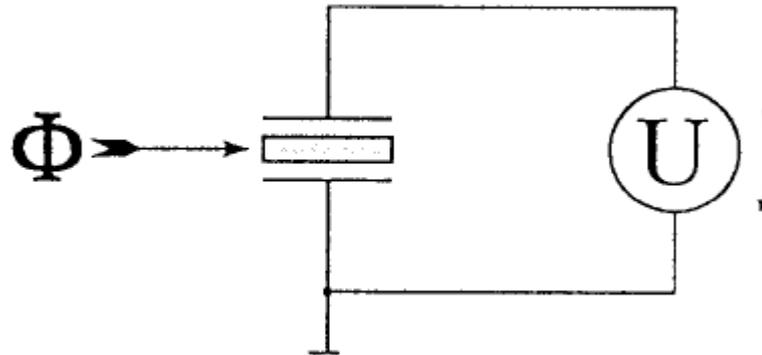
## b) Photoconducting Detectors

- thin film of semiconductor (ex. PbS) on a nonconducting glass surface and sealed in a vacuum.
- absorption of light by semiconductor moves from non-conducting to conducting state
- decrease in resistance  $\rightarrow$  increase in current
- range:  $10,000 - 333 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  at room temperature



### c) Pyroelectric Detectors

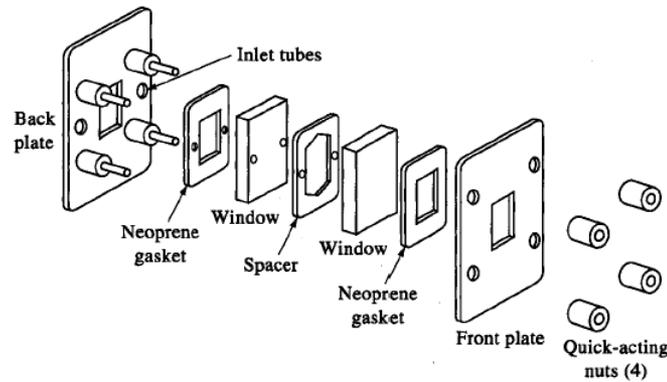
- pyroelectric (ceramic, lithium tantalate) material get polarized (separation of (+) and (-) charges) in presence of electric field.
- temperature dependent polarization
- measure degree of polarization related to temperature of crystal
- fast response, good for FTIR



### iii.) Other Components

#### a.) *Sample Cell*

- must be made of IR transparent material (KBr pellets or NaCl)



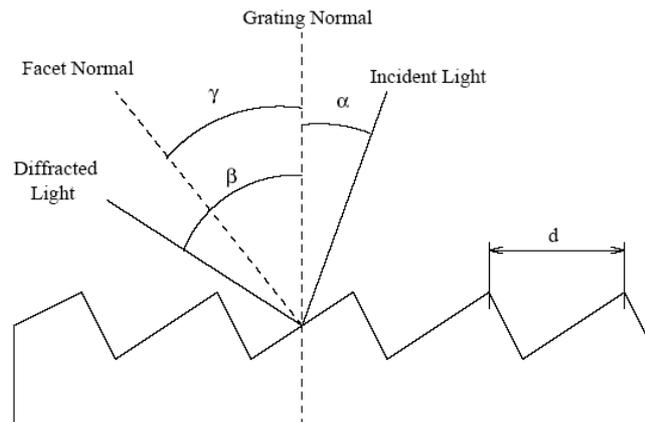
Liquid Sample Holder



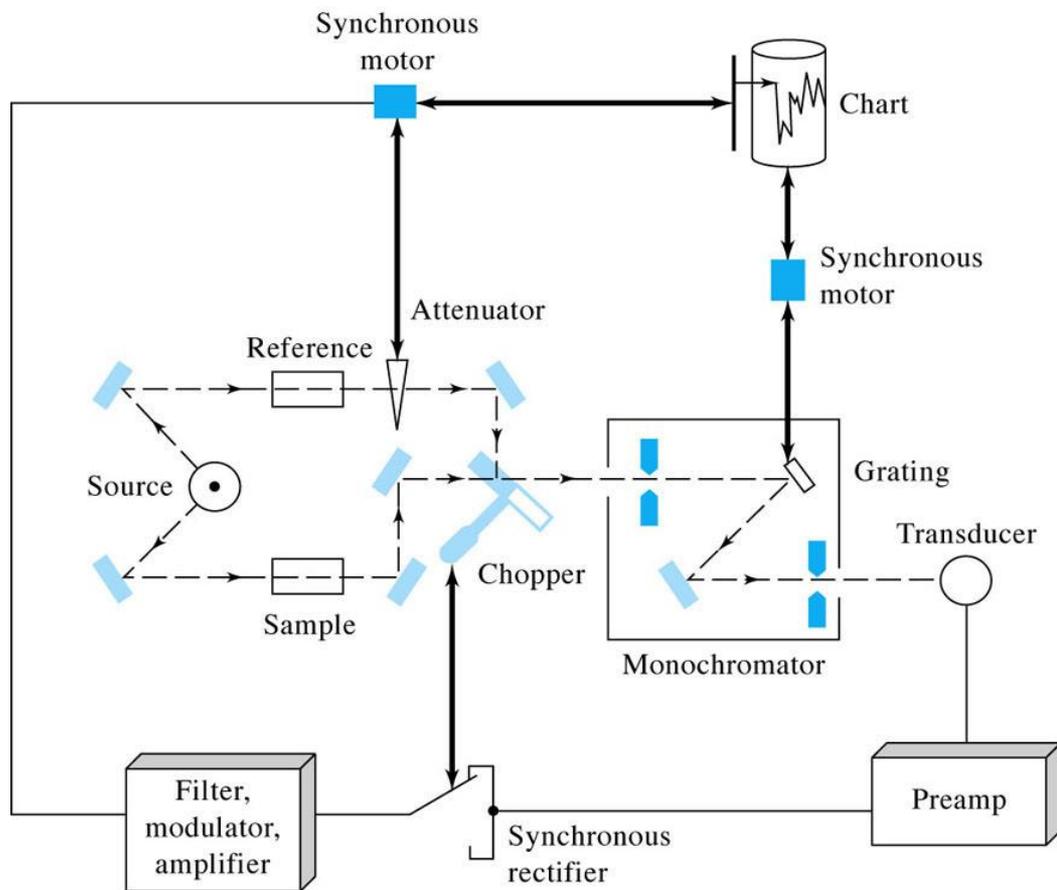
NaCl plates

#### b.) *monochromator*

- reflective grating is common  
- can't use glass prism, since absorbs IR



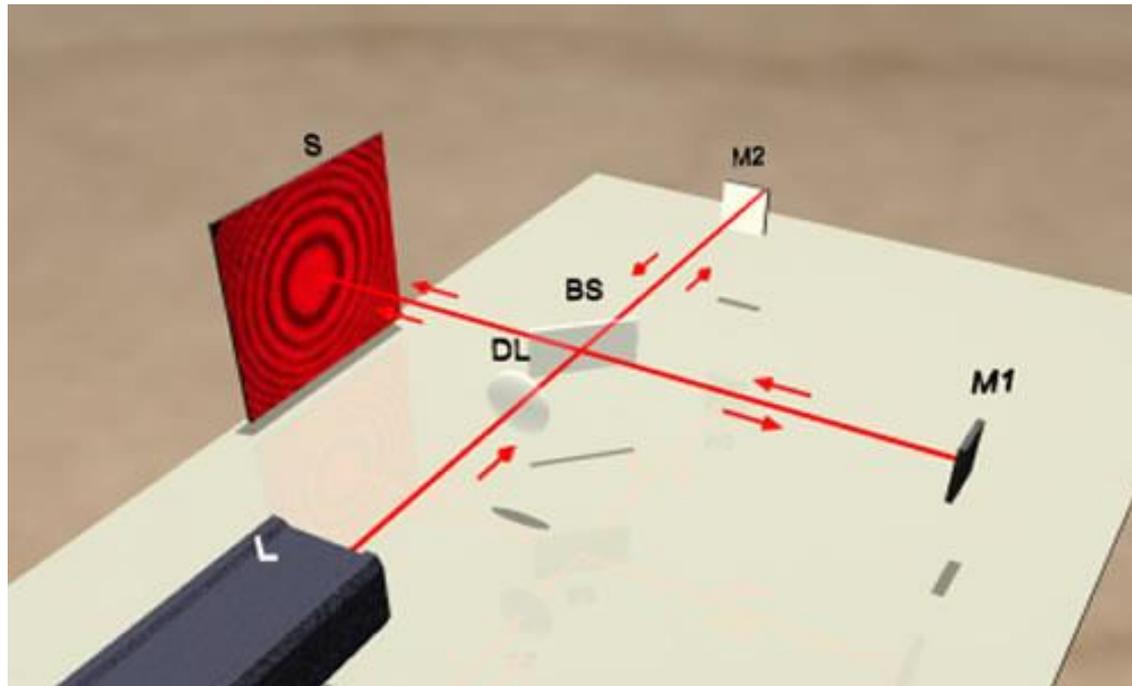
#### iv.) Overall Instrument Design



- Need chopper to discriminate source light from background IR radiation
- Monochromator after sample cell
  - Not done in UV-Vis since letting in all  $h\nu$  to sample may cause photodegradation (too much energy)
  - IR lower energy
  - Advantage that allows monochromator to be used to screen out more background IR light
- Problems:
  - Source weak , need long scans
  - Detector response slow – rounded peaks

v.) Fourier Transfer IR (FTIR) – *alternative to Normal IR*

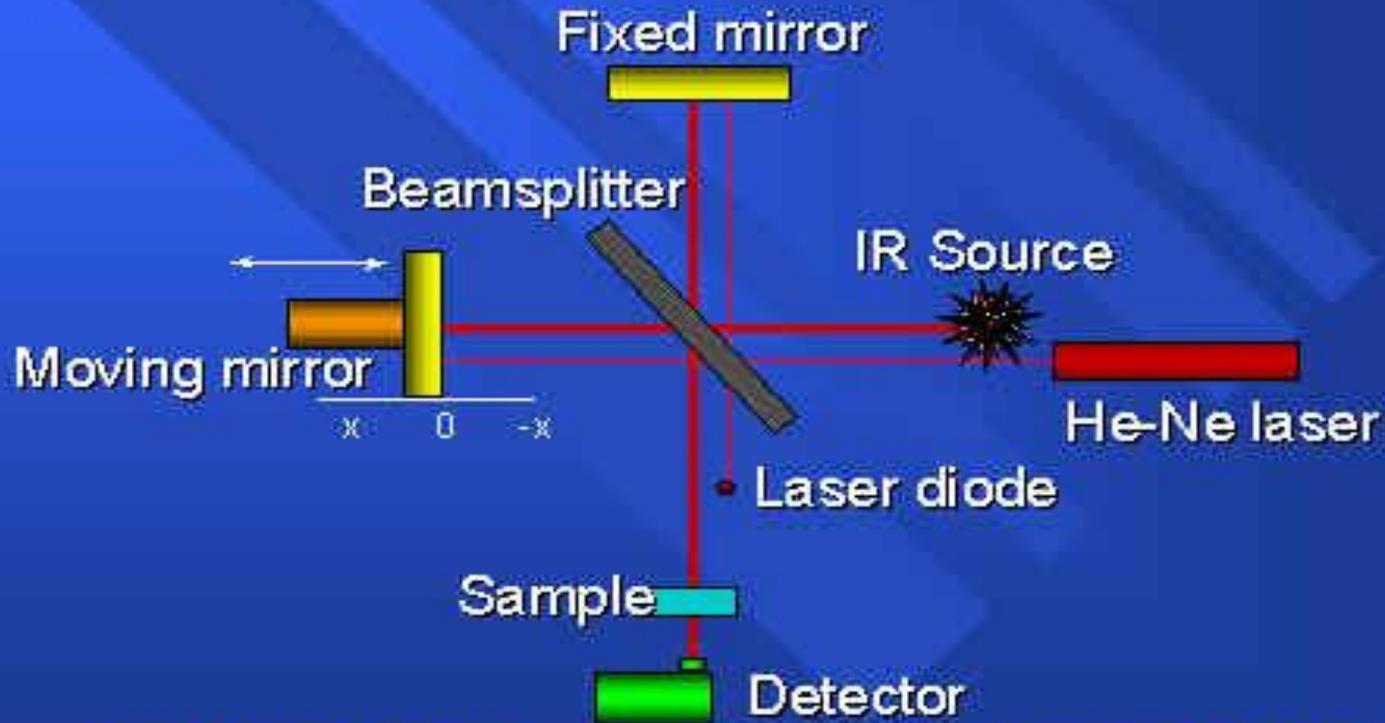
- Based on Michelson Interferometer



Principal:

- 1) light from source is split by central mirror into 2 beams of equal intensity
- 2) beams go to two other mirrors, reflected by central mirror, recombine and pass through sample to detector
- 3) two side mirrors. One fixed and other movable
  - a) move second mirror, light in two-paths travel different distances before recombined
  - b) constructive & destructive interference
  - c) as mirror is moved, get a change in signal

# FT-IR Spectrometer



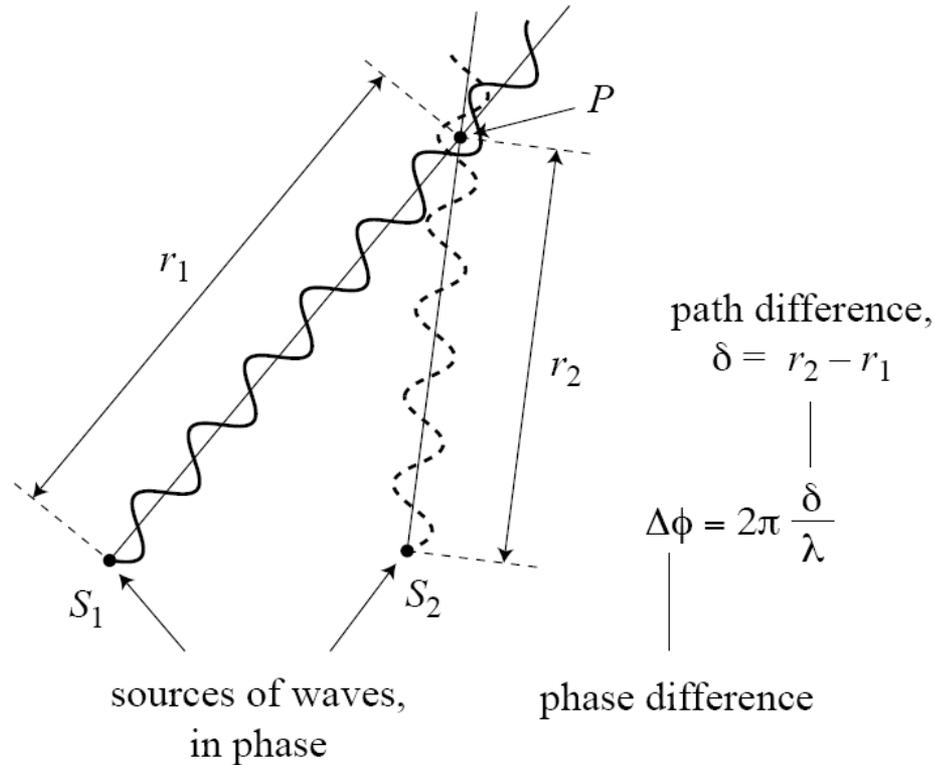
Nicolet Instrument Corporation

Spectroscopic Solutions '98

- Light enters the spectrometer and is split by the beam splitter. The figure above shows what is referred to as the Michelson interferometer

# Remember

*Destructive Interference* can be created when two waves from the same source travel different paths to get to a point.



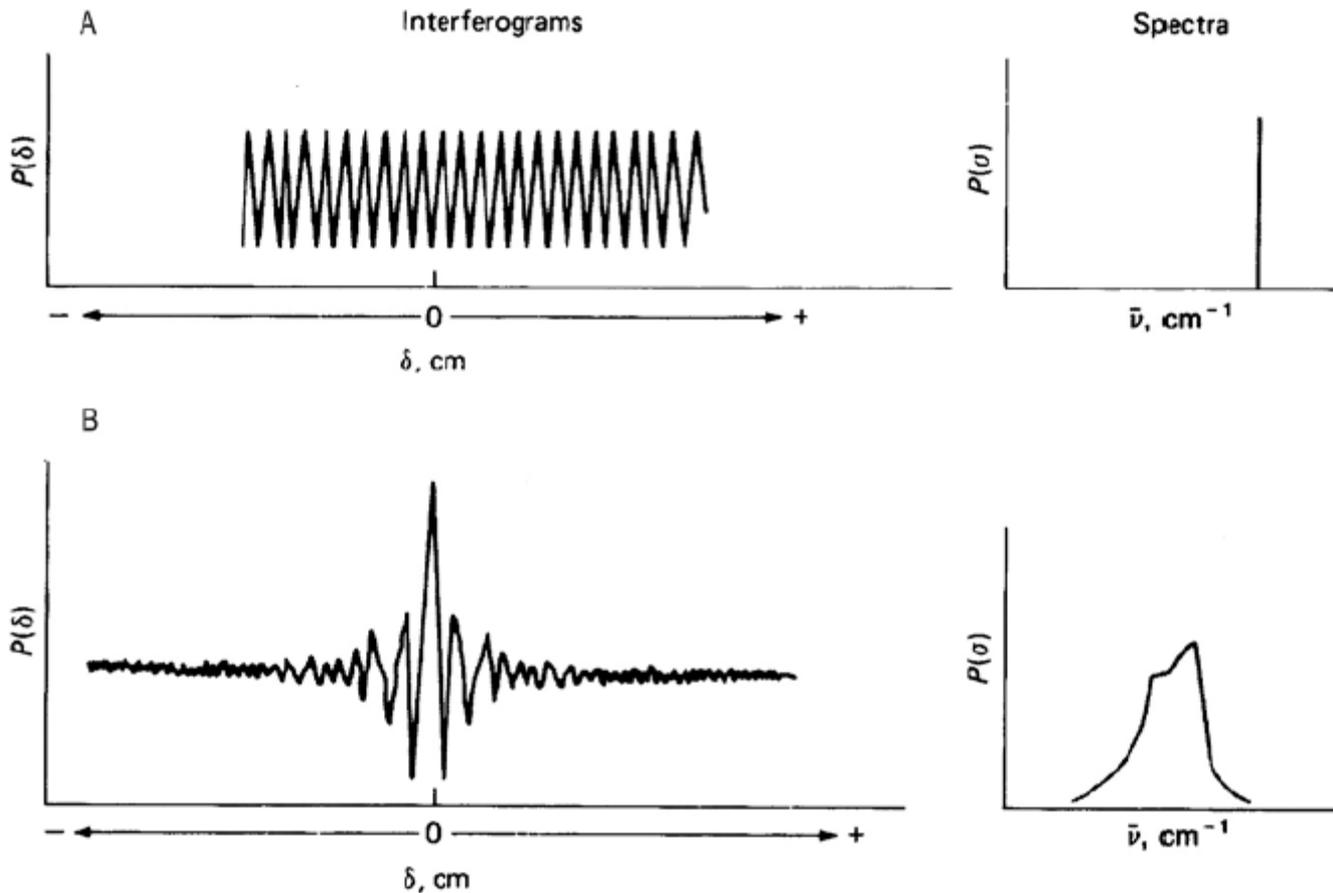
*This may cause a difference in the phase between the two waves.*

- If the paths differ by an integer multiple of a wavelength, the waves will also be in phase.
- If the waves differ by an odd multiple of half a wave then the waves will be 180 degrees out of phase and cancel out.

- observe a plot of Intensity vs. Distance (interferograms)
- convert to plot of Intensity vs. Frequency by doing a Fourier Transform

$$I(x) = \int_0^{\infty} B(\nu)(1 + \cos 2\pi\nu x) d\nu$$

- resolution  $\Delta\nu = 1/\Delta\delta$  (interval of distance traveled by mirror)



**Fourier transform pairs for (A) a monochromatic source and (B) a broadband source.**

Advantages of FTIR compared to Normal IR:

- 1) much faster, seconds vs. minutes
- 2) use signal averaging to increase signal-to-noise (S/N)

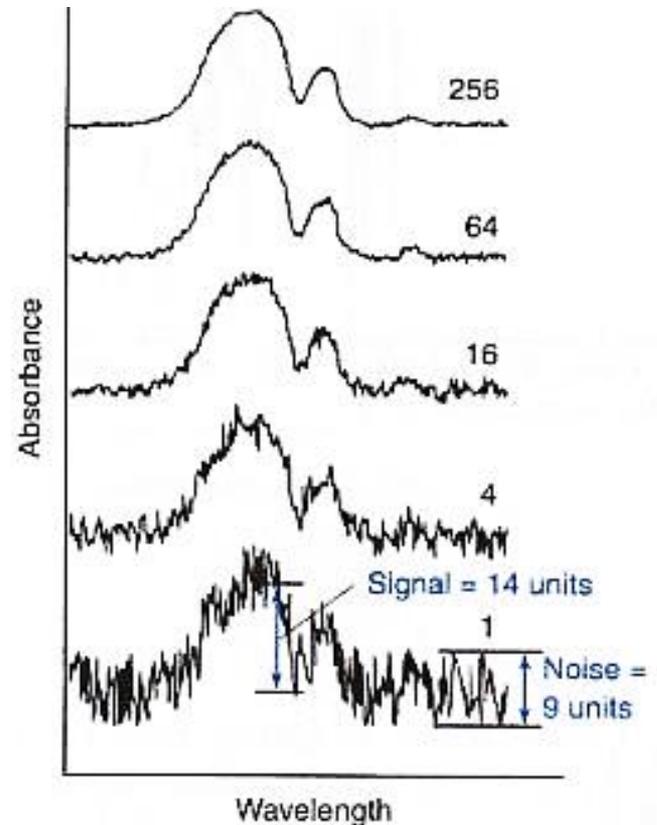
$$\text{increase } S / N \propto \sqrt{\text{number scans}}$$

- 3) higher inherent S/N – no slits, less optical equipment, higher light intensity
- 4) high resolution ( $<0.1 \text{ cm}^{-1}$ )

Disadvantages of FTIR compared to Normal IR:

- 1) single-beam, requires collecting blank
- 2) can't use thermal detectors – too slow

*In normal IR, scan through frequency range. In FTIR collect all frequencies at once.*



Advantages of FTIR:

Enhanced signal-to-noise

Rapid scanning

High resolution ( $<0.1 \text{ cm}^{-1}$ )

Accurate and reproducible frequency determinations

Larger energy throughput

Free from problems of stray radiation

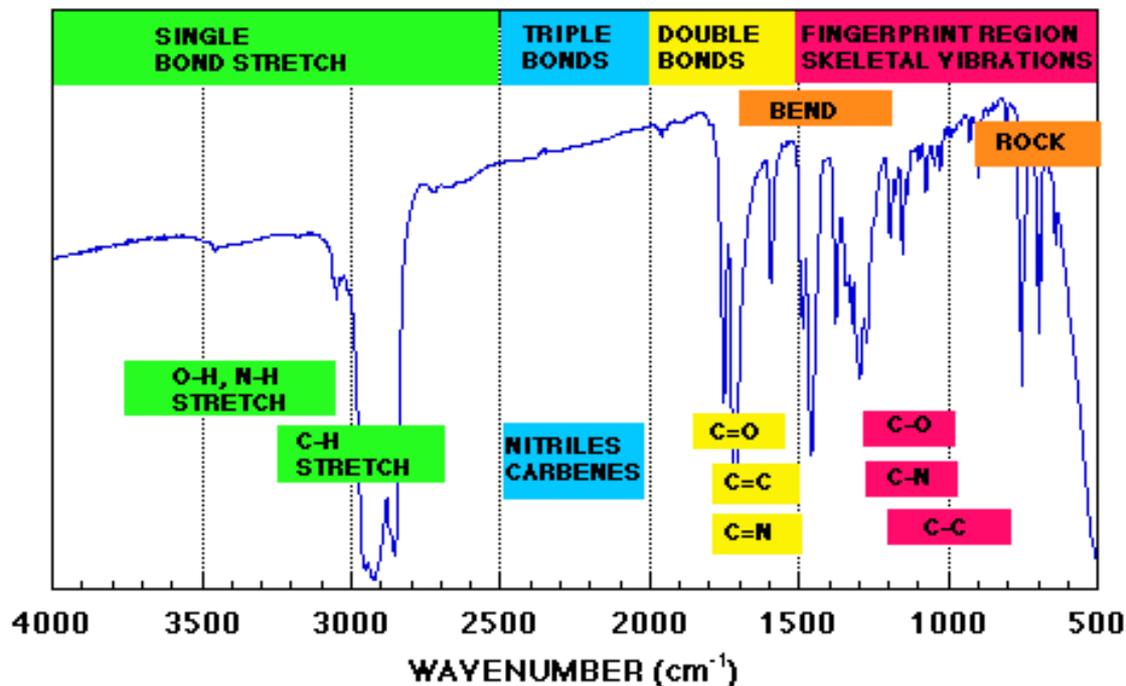
## D) Application of IR

### 1.) Qualitative Analysis (Compound Identification)

- main application
- Use of IR, with NMR and MS, in late 1950's revolutionized organic chemistry
  - ▶ decreased the time to confirm compound identification 10-1000 fold

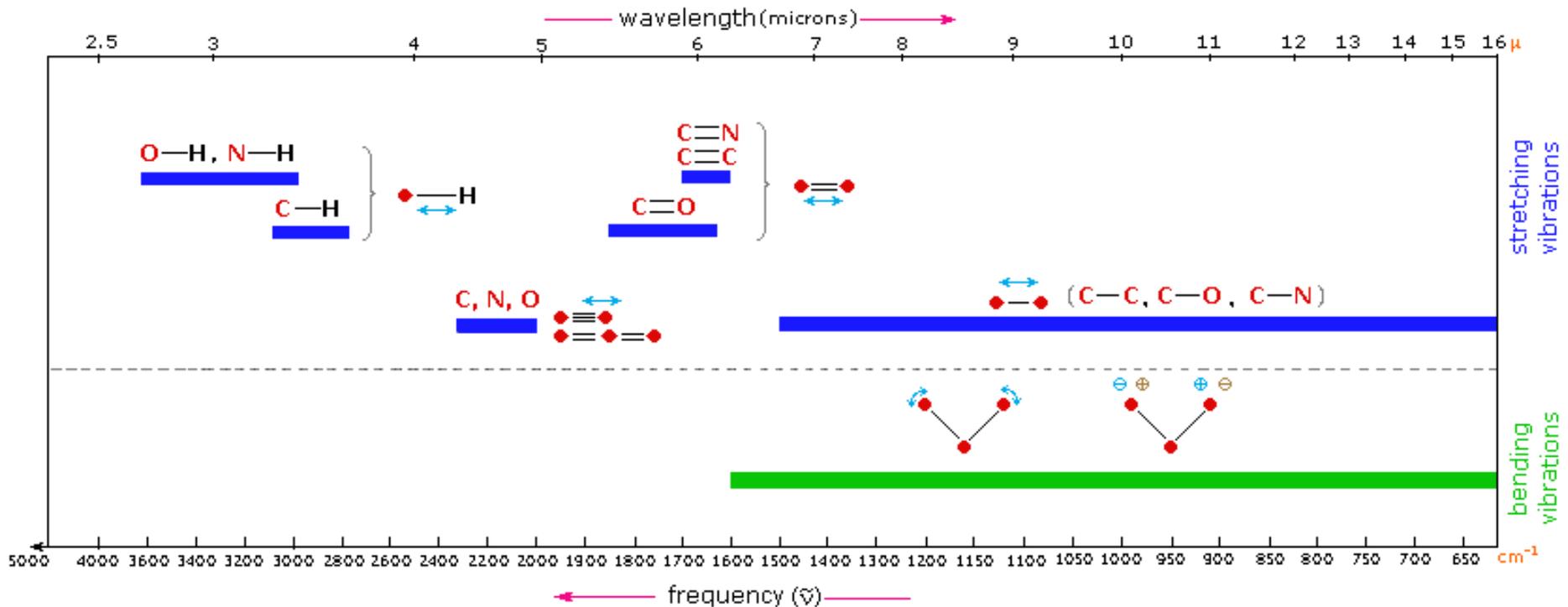
#### i.) General Scheme

- 1) examine what functional groups are present by looking at group frequency region
  - $3600\text{ cm}^{-1}$  to  $1200\text{ cm}^{-1}$

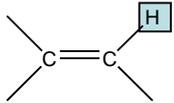


## ii.) Group Frequency Region

- approximate frequency of many functional groups (C=O, C=C, C-H, O-H) can be calculated from atomic masses & force constants
- positions changes a little with neighboring atoms, *but* often in same general region
- serves as a good initial guide to compound identity, but not positive proof.

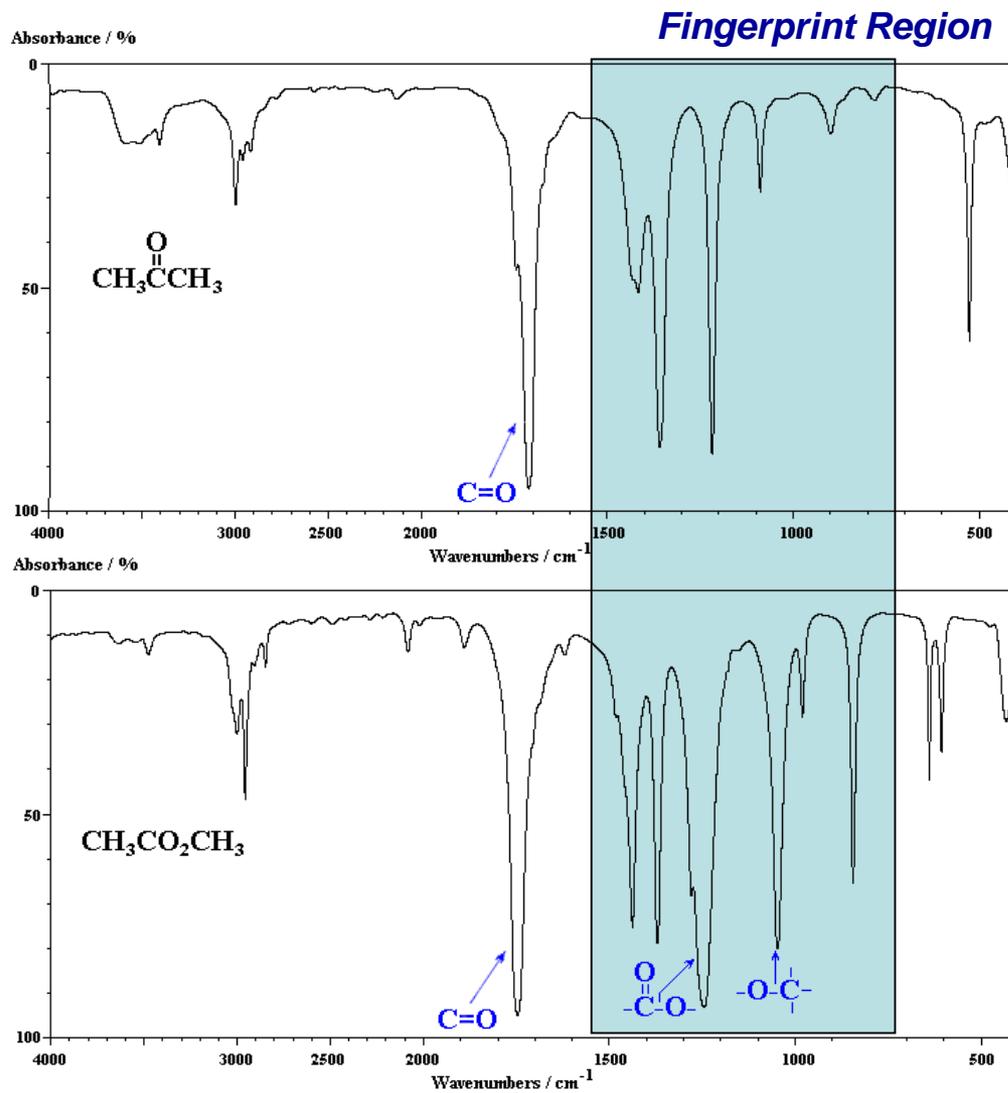


## Abbreviated Table of Group Frequencies for Organic Groups

Bond	Type of Compound	Frequency Range, cm <sup>-1</sup>	Intensity
C-H	Alkanes	2850-2970	Strong
C-H	Alkenes 	3010-3095 675-995	Medium strong
C-H	Alkynes 	3300	Strong
C-H	Aromatic rings	3010-3100 690-900	Medium strong
O-H	Monomeric alcohols, phenols Hydrogen-bonded alcohols, phenols Monomeric carboxylic acids Hydrogen-bonded carboxylic acids	3590-3650 3200-3600 3500-3650 2500-2700	Variable Variable, sometimes broad Medium broad
N-H	Amines, amides	3300-3500	medium
C=C	Alkenes	1610-1680	Variable
C=C	Aromatic rings	1500-1600	Variable
C≡C	Alkynes	2100-2260	Variable
C-N	Amines, amides	1180-1360	Strong
C≡N	Nitriles	2210-2280	Strong
C-O	Alcohols, ethers, carboxylic acids, esters	1050-1300	Strong
C=O	Aldehydes, ketones, carboxylic acids, esters	1690-1760	Strong
NO <sub>2</sub>	Nitro compounds	1500-1570 1300-1370	Strong

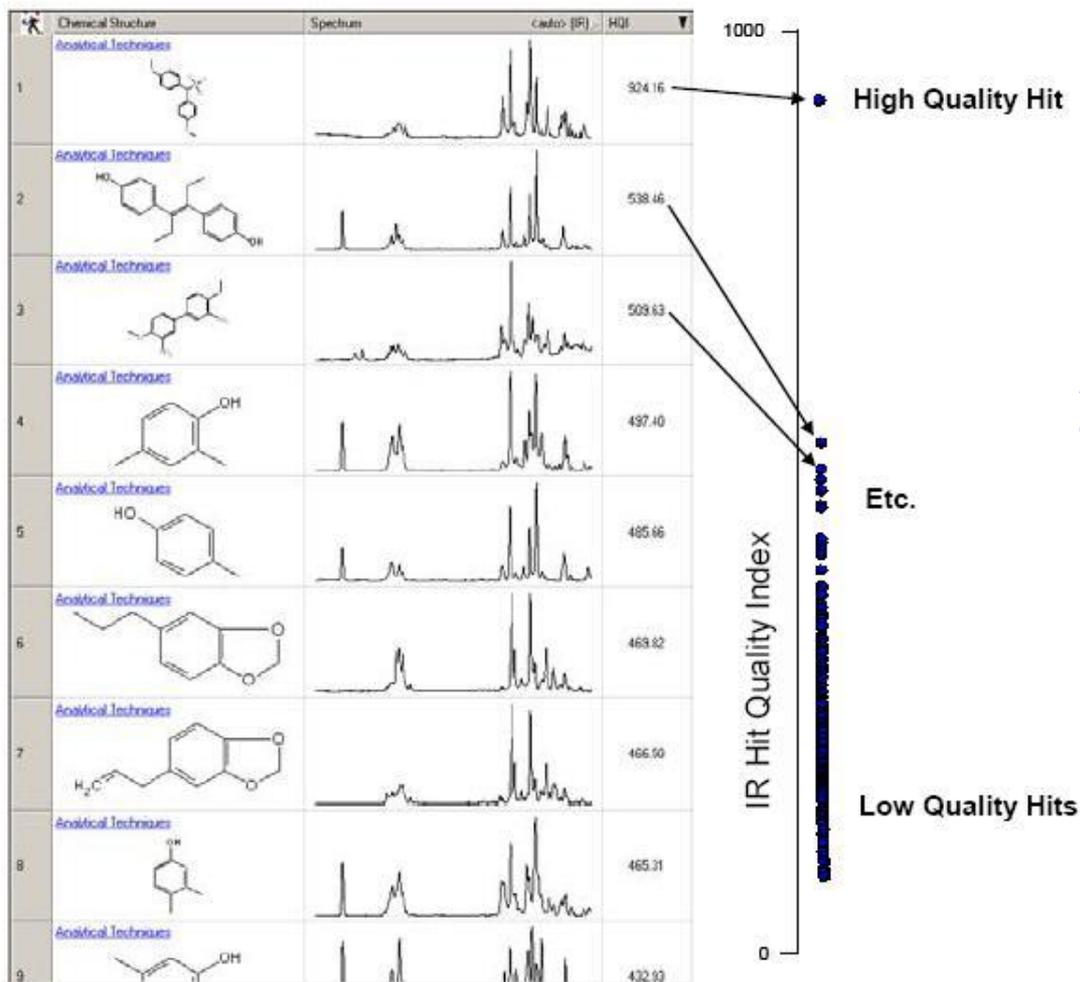
### iii.) Fingerprint Region (1200-700 $\text{cm}^{-1}$ )

- region of most single bond signals
- many have similar frequencies, so affect each other & give pattern characteristics of overall skeletal structure of a compound
- exact interpretation of this region of spectra seldom possible because of complexity
- complexity  $\rightarrow$  uniqueness



#### iv.) Computer Searches

- many modern instruments have reference IR spectra on file (~100,000 compounds)
- matches based on location of strongest band, then 2<sup>nd</sup> strongest band, etc  
overall skeletal structure of a compound
- exact interpretation of this region of spectra seldom possible because of complexity
- complexity → uniqueness



*Bio-Rad SearchIT database  
of ~200,000 IR spectra*

Etc.

Low Quality Hits

## 2.) Quantitative Analysis

- not as good as UV/Vis in terms of accuracy and precision
  - ▶ more complex spectra
  - ▶ narrower bands (Beer's Law deviation)
  - ▶ limitations of IR instruments (lower light throughput, weaker detectors)
  - ▶ high background IR
  - ▶ difficult to match reference and sample cells
  - ▶ changes in  $\varepsilon$  ( $A=\varepsilon bc$ ) common
- potential advantage is good selectivity, since so many compounds have different IR spectra
  - ▶ one common application is determination of air contaminants.

Contaminants	Concn, ppm	Found, ppm	Relative error, %
Carbon Monoxide	50	49.1	1.8
Methylethyl ketone	100	98.3	1.7
Methyl alcohol	100	99.0	1.0
Ethylene oxide	50	49.9	0.2
chloroform	100	99.5	0.5

**Example 9:** The spectrum is for a substance with an empirical formula of  $C_3H_5N$ . What is the compound?

