- **Ideal combustion**^[3] corresponds to the reaction

$$CH_4 + O_2 \longrightarrow CO_2 + H_2O$$

- Real-world combustion is incomplete; you make

$$CH_4 + air \longrightarrow CO_2 + H_2O + NO_2 + CO$$

- When a technician comes to your home, they analyze the flue gas (i.e., your furnace exhaust).
 - Their analysis could determine that our combustion has too much O_2 , which is called "air rich." This is inefficient and doesn't yield enough heat.
 - They could also determine that you have too much CO₂ and CO, which is called "fuel rich." This yields too much soot and CO. CO can be dangerous and lead to carbon monoxide poisoning, which makes you sleepy before it kills you.
- To measure this flue gas, though, they have a little handheld elemental analysis device!
- Note that there is a relation between ideal/real-world combustion and the CuO oxidant in Figure 1.2: The CuO ensures that when we combust our EA sample, all the carbon is fully oxidized to CO₂! Without it, some CO would be formed, and our stoichiometry would be thrown off.

1.2 Mass Spectrometry

- 9/6: Lecture 1 recap.
 - Elemental analysis (EA).

$$SM + O_2 \xrightarrow{\Delta} CO_2 + H_2O$$

- SM means "starting material."
- SM's we will focus on: Compounds of the form $C_xH_yO_z$.
- Empirical formula vs. molecular formula (see Table 1.1).
- Today: Mass spectrometry (MS).
 - Purpose: Convert empirical formulas to molecular formulas (and more!).
 - Reading: Clayden et al. (2012), Chapter 3.
- Lecture outline.
 - Mass spectrometer schematic.
 - Mass spectrum elements.
 - Fragmentation, and common types.
 - Isotope effects in MS.
 - Ionization methods.
- Mass spectrometry: A structure determination technique that tells us the exact mass of molecules and their "fragments." Also known as MS, "mass spec."
- Overview.

[M]
$$\stackrel{e^{-}}{\longrightarrow} \stackrel{2e^{-}}{\longrightarrow} [M]^{+} \stackrel{[M-a]^{+}}{\longrightarrow} \stackrel{[a]^{\cdot}}{\longrightarrow} [M-b]^{+} + [b]^{\cdot}$$
[M] $\stackrel{[M-b]^{+}}{\longrightarrow} \stackrel{[a]^{\cdot}}{\longrightarrow} [M-c]^{+} + [c]^{\cdot}$

³You can learn more about in a chemical engineering/ChemE course.

- You have a sample denoted by [M] that you bombard with electrons (e[−]). When an electron hits a molecule of your sample, it knocks off one of the molecule's electrons (and flies off itself). This ionizes your molecule to a radical cation, denoted by [M]⁺; and called the molecular ion.
- This radical cation is unstable and fragments into a proper cation and a proper radical. The radical is usually not detected, but any cationic fragment produced the $[M-a]^+$, $[M-b]^+$, and $[M-c]^+$ above usually is detected.
- A (stepwise) schematic of a mass spectrometer.

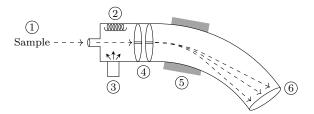


Figure 1.3: Mass spectrometer schematic.

- 1. The sample is injected into a curved tube.
- 2. A heater vaporizes the sample.
- 3. An electron source (also known as an electron gun) shoots electrons at the vaporized sample, ionizing it. The ionized sample starts fragmenting.
- 4. The fragments encounter a series of negatively charged plates with slits in the middle. These negatively charged plates accelerate the positively charged cations.
- 5. A magnet deflects the accelerated, positively charged ions. The magnet deflects them based on their mass-to-charge ratio. Because of physics, the lightest ions are deflected the most, and the heaviest ions are deflected the least.
- 6. A detector records where the ions hit. This data is converted into a mass-to-charge ratio for each ion. This yields a spectrum of all the fragments' masses.
- Mass-to-charge ratio (of a cation): The cation's mass divided by its net charge. Denoted by m/z.
 - For the purposes of this class, z = 1.
- Example mass spectrum: Acetone ($\mathring{\downarrow}$).

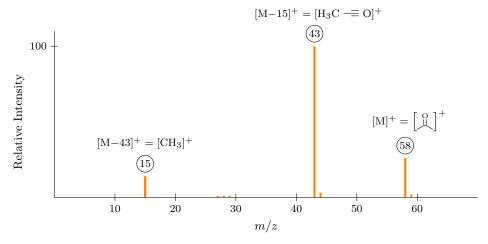


Figure 1.4: Mass spectrum of acetone.

- The x-axis is the mass-to-charge ratio, and the y-axis is the "relative intensity" of each peak.
 - If a certain fragment gets produced more than another (and hence recorded more than it), we say it has a "higher relative intensity."
- We identify two special types of peaks in a mass spectrum: The parent peak and the base peak. In the case of acetone...
 - The parent peak lies at 58;
 - The base peak lies at 43.
- The peak at 15 also has a relatively large magnitude, and from the fact that the mass of a methyl cation is approximately 15, we can infer that this peak corresponds to the methyl cation fragment.
 - Notice that its intensity is significantly lower than the intensity of the base peak because we may recall from Orgo I that the methyl cation is a far less stable cation than the resonance-stabilized, secondary acylium ion at 43.
- There are a number of smaller peaks, too, but they give less information.
- Note that the major peaks may be appropriately referred to by any of the three nomenclature methods in Figure 1.4: By exact mass, by $[M-a]^+$, and/or by structure.
- Parent peak: The peak in a mass spectrum corresponding to the molecular ion.
 - The parent peak is always the rightmost peak in the spectrum.^[4] This is because it is created by the heaviest ion, and you can't have more mass than your initial molecule!
 - It is typically *not* the tallest peak in the spectrum.
 - Useful information: It gives the molecular weight of the molecule.
- Base peak: The tallest peak in a mass spectrum.
 - The base peak corresponds to the fragment that the molecule forms most preferentially, which is usually also the most stable fragment.
- Fragmentation peak: Any peak to the left of the parent peak.
- Maxim: Molecules fragment in predictable ways to form stable cations.
- At this point, let's formally define **fragmentation**.
- Fragmentation: The formation of stable(-ish) cations.
 - Recall from Orgo I (review your notes on cation stability!!) that stable cations tend to be more substituted, delocalized, atom-stabilized (e.g., close to a heteroatom), etc.
- Let's now discuss some common species that we analyze via MS and how they fragment.
- Alkane fragmentation: Preferentially break bonds to get more substituted (e.g., 2° & 3°) carbocations.
- Example: 2-methylbutane (\(\)_.

$$m/z = 72 \qquad m/z = 57 \qquad m/z = 43 \qquad m/z = 29 \qquad m/z = 15$$
parent (minor) (major) (major) (minor)

Figure 1.5: Fragmentation of alkanes.

- All these peaks will appear, but the tallest will correspond to the species labeled "major" above.

 $^{^4}$ Excepting isotope effects; discussed later in this lecture.

- Alcohol fragmentation.
 - Dehydration: Yields an [M−18]⁺ peak, corresponding to the loss of water.
 - α -cleavage: Leads to a resonance-stabilized product.
- Example: Pentan-3-ol $(\stackrel{\text{OH}}{\smile})$.

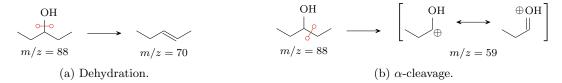


Figure 1.6: Fragmentation of alcohols.

- Ketone fragmentation.
 - $-\alpha$ -cleavage: Leads to a resonance-stabilized product, once again.
 - McLafferty rearrangement: Only happens for ketones with a γ -proton.
 - We select for this type of ketone because in this case, we can form a six-membered transition state. Recall that six-membered transition states are super stable in organic chemistry!
 - This fragmentation leads to a charged enol (that we see in the spectrum) and an uncharged olefin (that we don't see in the spectrum).
- Example: Hexanones.

$$m/z = 100$$

$$m/z = 71$$

$$m/z = 57$$
(a) α -cleavage.

$$m/z = 100$$

$$m/z = 100$$

$$m/z = 58$$
(b) McLafferty rearrangement.

Figure 1.7: Fragmentation of ketones.

- Isotope effects.
- Principle: Mass spectrometry weighs individual molecules, so molecules containing a heavier (or lighter) isotope will appear separate from other molecules in the mass spectrum.
- Atoms with notable isotope effects.

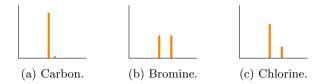


Figure 1.8: Isotope effects in MS.

- Carbon: The 12 C: 13 C ratio is 99:1.
 - Implication: For every $[M]^+$, we see 1% $[M+1]^+$.
 - This is why we see tiny "shadow" peaks to the right of the parent peak and base peak in Figure 1.4!
 - ➤ Note that the "shadow" of the parent peak is 3% its height (not 1%) because there are three carbons in the acetone molecular ion.
 - \succ Similarly, the "shadow" of the base peak is 2% its height because there are *two* carbons in the acylium ion.
- Bromine: The 79 Br : 81 Br ratio is 1 : 1.
 - Implication: The [M]⁺ and [M+2]⁺ peaks exist in a 1 : 1 ratio, i.e., have the same height/relative intensity.
 - The splitting of the molecular ion peak into two such peaks is a super recognizable, distinct, and useful fingerprint of bromine-containing compounds!
- Chlorine: The 35 Cl : 37 Cl ratio is 3:1.
 - Implication: The $[M]^{+}$ and $[M+2]^{+}$ peaks exist in a 3:1 ratio.
 - Similar to bromine, this peak splitting is a fingerprint of chlorine-containing compounds.
- Combining everything we've learned up to this point, let's do another example.
- Example: Benzyl chloride ().

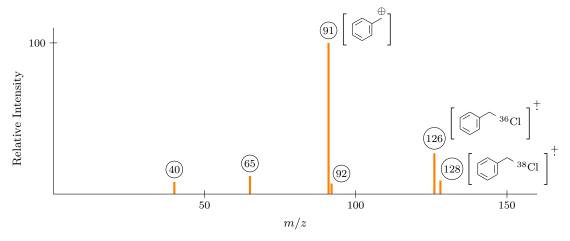


Figure 1.9: Mass spectrum of benzyl chloride.

- The parent peak will lie at 126, and the corresponding chlorine isotope peak will lie at 128 and be one-third the height.
- The base peak will lie at 91, and the corresponding carbon isotope peak will lie at 92 and be 7% the height (to account for the 7 carbons in the benzylic cation that may be heavy).
 - It will correspond to the most stable fragment, which in this case is the benzylic cation.
 - The benzylic cation is super stable because its positive charge can be resonance delocalized to four different atoms!
 - A large peak at m/z = 91 strongly suggests the presence of an aromatic system.
- This example focused on predicting the peaks in a mass spectrum based on reasonable fragmentation patterns. But what if we are given the mass spectrum? What data can we pull out then?
- To answer this question, here are some guidelines for the interpretation of mass spectra.

- Guidelines for interpretation.
 - The parent peak provides the molecular weight of the molecule.
 - This allows you to convert an empirical formula obtained from EA to the molecular formula.
 - The parent peak also reveals key atoms via distinct isotopic fingerprints.
 - Examples include bromine and chlorine.
 - An additional one is the **nitrogen rule**.
 - Fragmentation patterns can identify substructures.
 - Recall from Lecture 1 (9/4) that identifying substructures is part of the second step of the structure determination workflow!
 - Common fragments:
 - ightharpoonup Loss of a methyl group is -15.
 - ightharpoonup Loss of an OH group is -17.
 - ightharpoonup Loss of H₂O is -18.
 - ightharpoonup Loss of CO₂ is -44.
 - ightharpoonup Loss of a ^tBu group is -57.
 - Look at the m/z of the fragments and the difference in m/z between certain fragments.
 - Example: Maybe a certain fragment is formed by losing both a methyl group and water.
 - Important note: These guidelines are just a guide; we will need multiple forms of evidence to support an assignment.
- **Nitrogen rule**: If you have an odd number of nitrogen in a molecule, you will get an odd molecular weight.
 - The basis for this rule lies in the fact that nitrogen is trivalent but has an even mass.
 - This means that nitrogen tends to bond an odd number of groups (specifically, 3), making the overall mass odd.
 - Examples: Ammonia has an odd mass of 17 = 14 + 1 + 1 + 1 and methylamine has an odd mass of 31 = (14+1+1) + (12+1+1+1), while methane has an even mass of 16 = 12+1+1+1+1 and ethane has an even mass of 30 = (12+1+1+1) + (12+1+1+1).
 - You can read more about the nitrogen rule here.
 - Implication: If you see an odd molecular weight, you might have a nitrogen present!
- Types of ionization.
- Electron ionization: A beam of electrons. Denoted by EI. Also known as hard ionization.
 - This is the method we are using in this class.
- Electrospray ionization: Forms charged droplets. Denoted by ESI. Also known as soft ionization.
 - ESI causes less fragmentation.
 - One implication of this is that you observe a larger parent peak.
 - Another consequence is that ESI can analyze a broader range of compounds via mass spectrometry than EI can, since some sensitive compounds (like proteins) would never survive an electron beam.
 - Nobel Prize in Chemistry (2002) for this application of MS to biology!
- High resolution mass spectrometry. Denoted by HRMS.
 - In "normal" low-resolution mass spectrometry (LRMS), both N_2 and C_2H_4 have m/z=28.
 - In HRMS, N₂ has m/z = 28.0061 and C₂H₄ has m/z = 28.0314.

- HRMS leads nicely into our application for today!
- \bullet Application of MS to real-world chemistry: Isotopic signatures.
 - Today, you learned that the ${}^{12}C: {}^{13}C$ ratio is 99:1.
 - In reality, this is an *average* value.
 - The actual ratio of isotopes is globally uneven, and we as humans have mapped it.
 - Indeed, isotope abundances vary by time and location due to air patterns, etc.
 - For example, Montana is home to 2% more $^{13}\mathrm{C}$ than Florida!
 - Implication: We can tell if a narcotic is made in the US (and where) or another country based on the isotopic abundance in it.
 - We can also track where a person, drug, or uranium sample is from.
 - Naturally, the government is very interested in this technology:)
 - You can also tell if a person eats corn or rice because this leads to different ratios of nitrogen isotopes in our bodies.