

Molecular spectroscopy

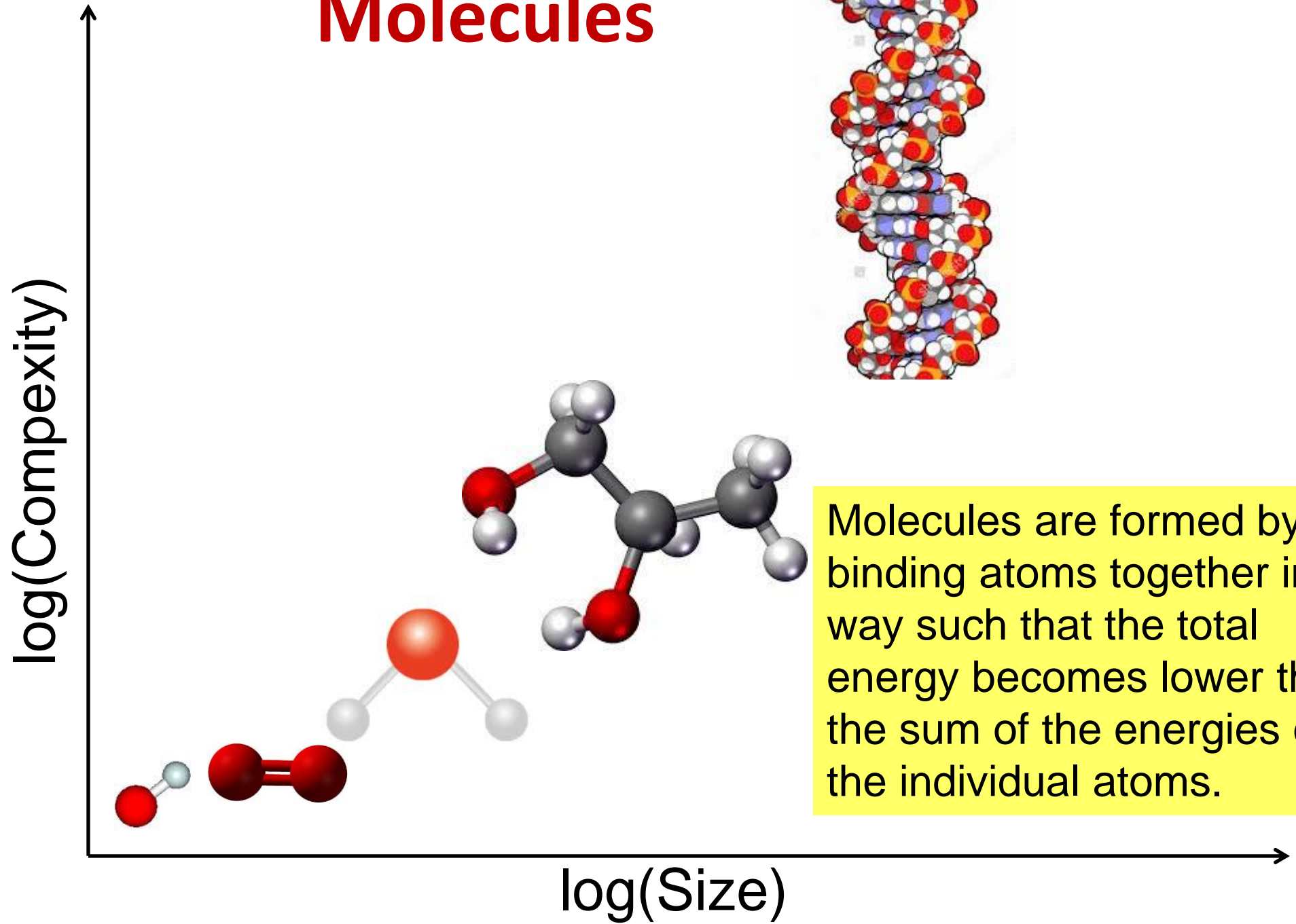
**Multispectral imaging (FAFF 020, FYST29)
fall 2017**

Lecture prepared by Joakim Bood
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Outline

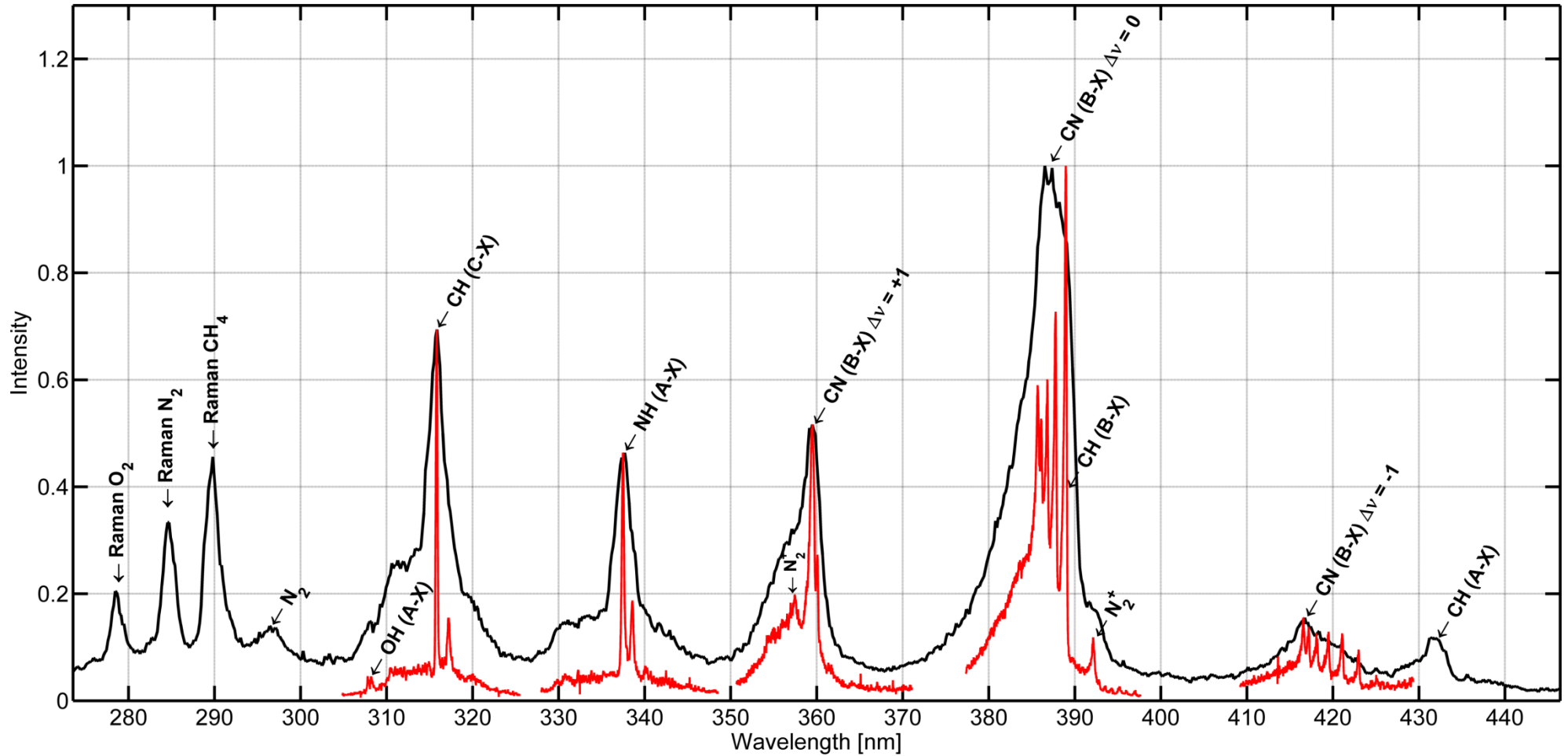
- **Molecular structure**
 - Electronic structure
 - Rotational structure
 - Vibrational structure
- **Molecular transitions**
 - Rotational transitions (pure rotational)
 - Rovibrational transitions (rotation + vibration)
 - Rovibronic transitions (rotation + vibration + electronic)
- **Population distributions**

Molecules

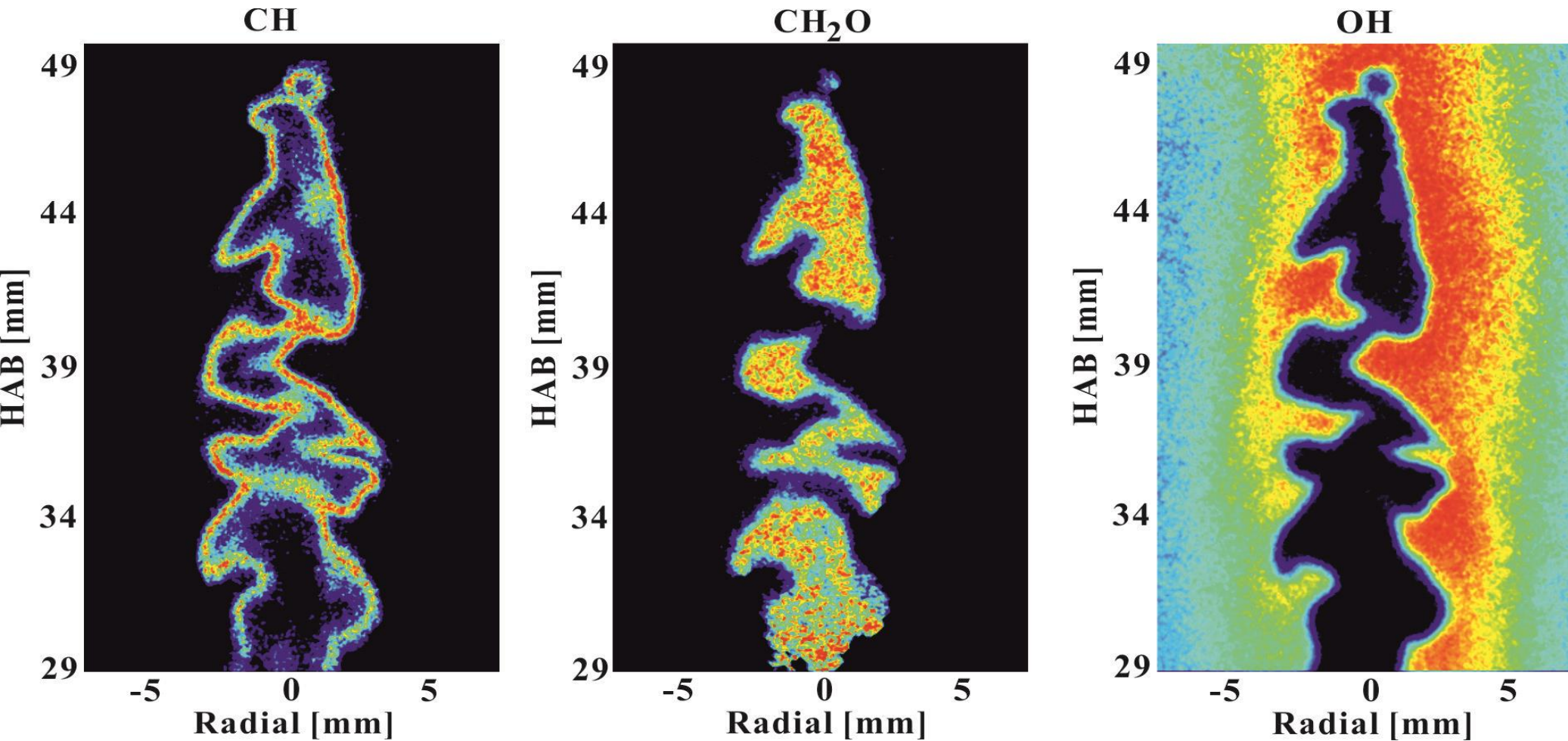


Molecules are formed by binding atoms together in a way such that the total energy becomes lower than the sum of the energies of the individual atoms.

Example of a molecular spectrum



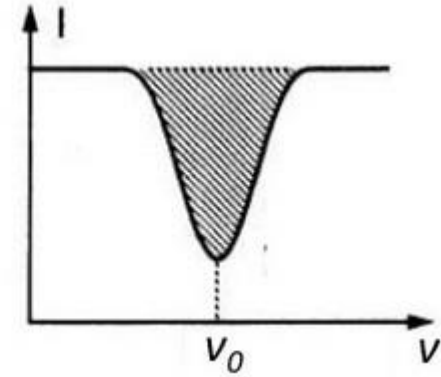
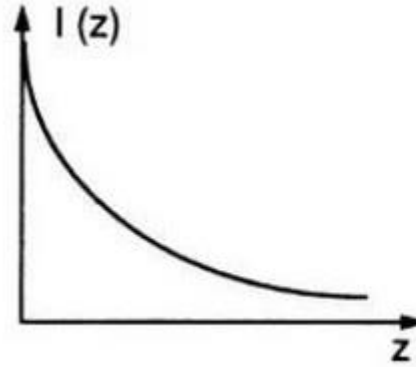
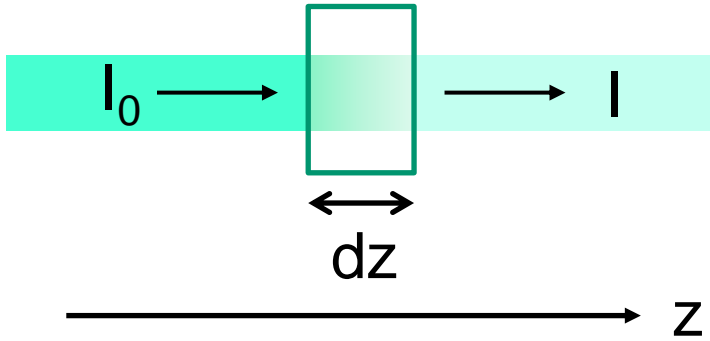
Multispectral imaging of species distributions in turbulent flames



Selectivity from excitation and emission wavelengths

Major types of molecular spectroscopy

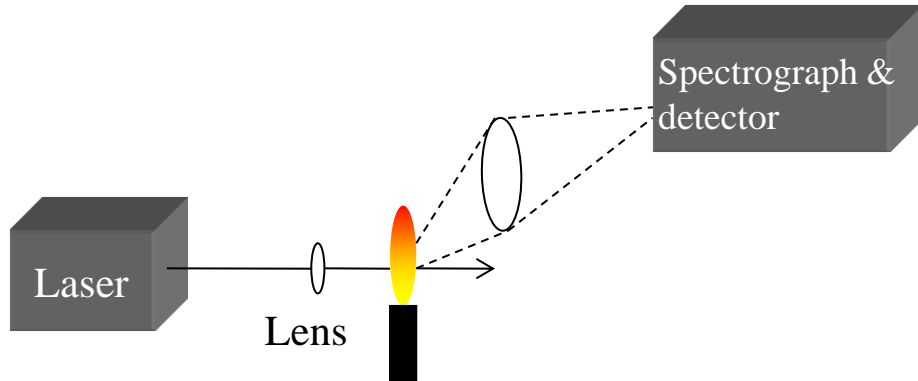
Absorption



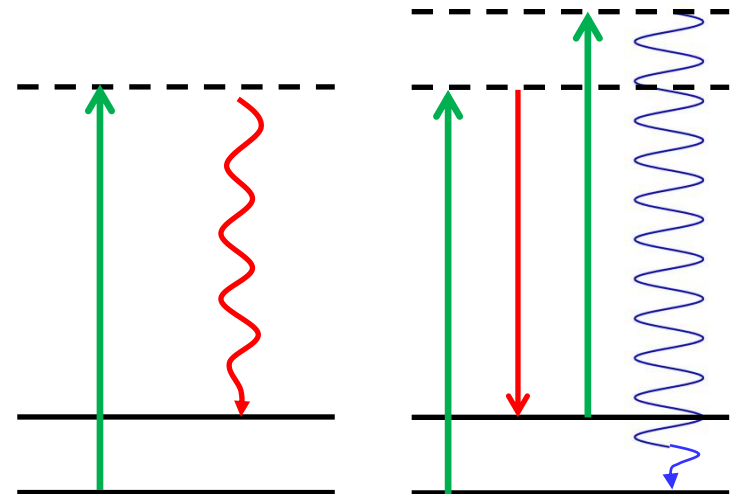
$$I(z, \nu) = I_0 e^{-\sigma(\nu)Nz}$$

(Beer-Lambert law)

Emission (e.g. fluorescence)

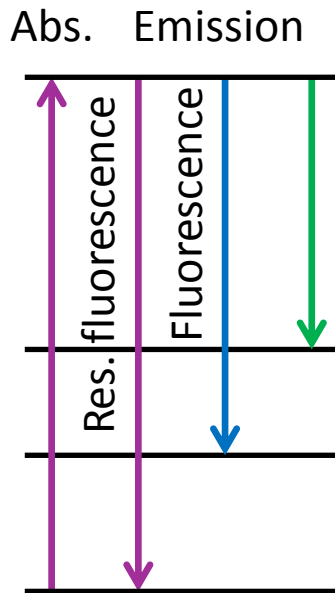


Scattering

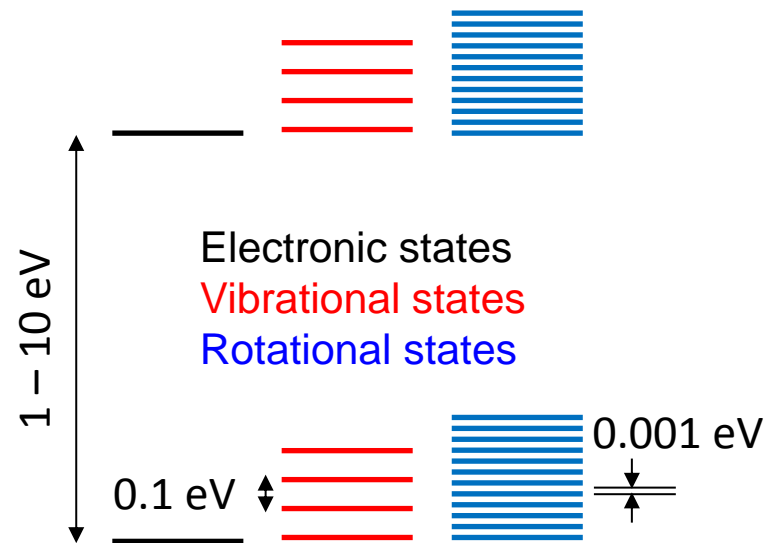


Liquid and solid phase → broad energy bands

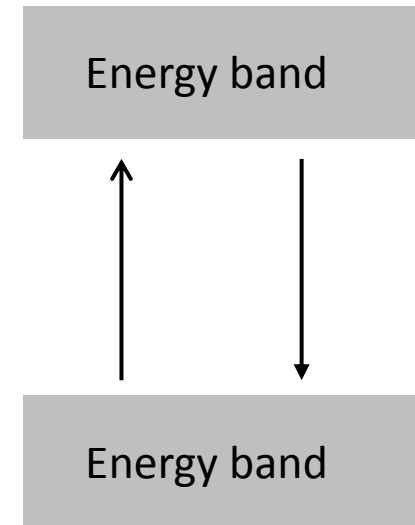
Free atoms



Free molecules

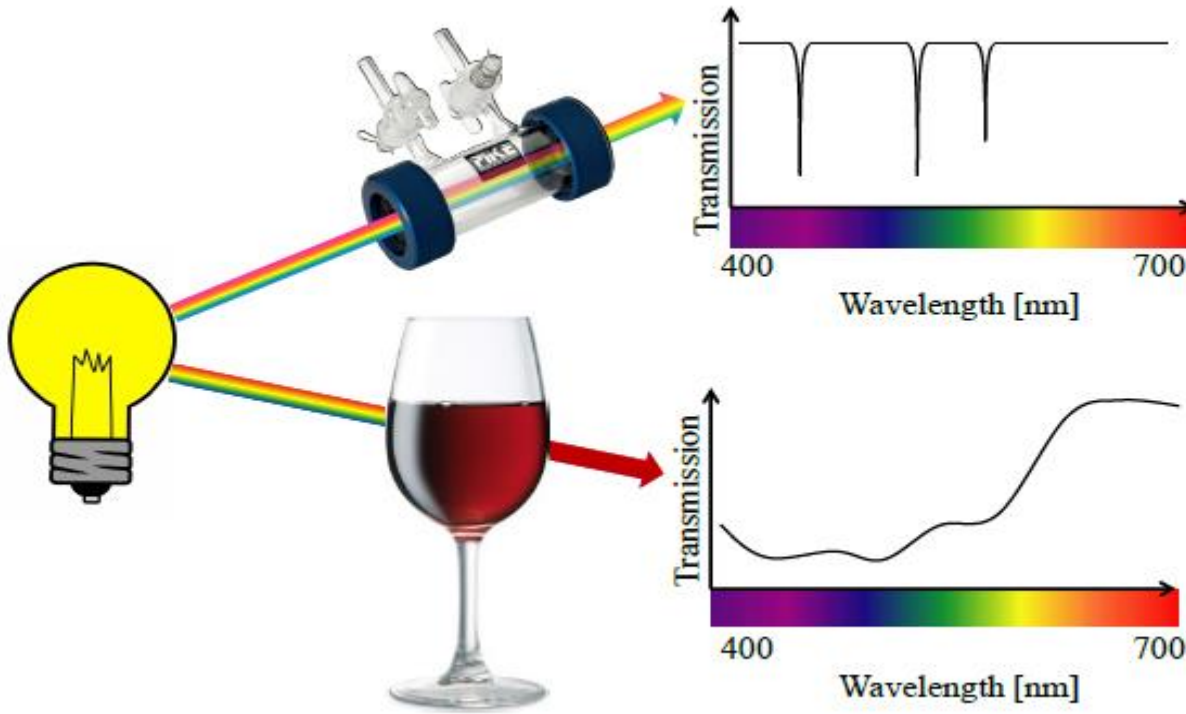


Condensed matter



Human tissue contains a lot of water, lipids and proteins → broad energy bands instead of the sharp energy levels of free atoms and molecules.

Light absorption in gases, liquids, and solids



Gas absorption

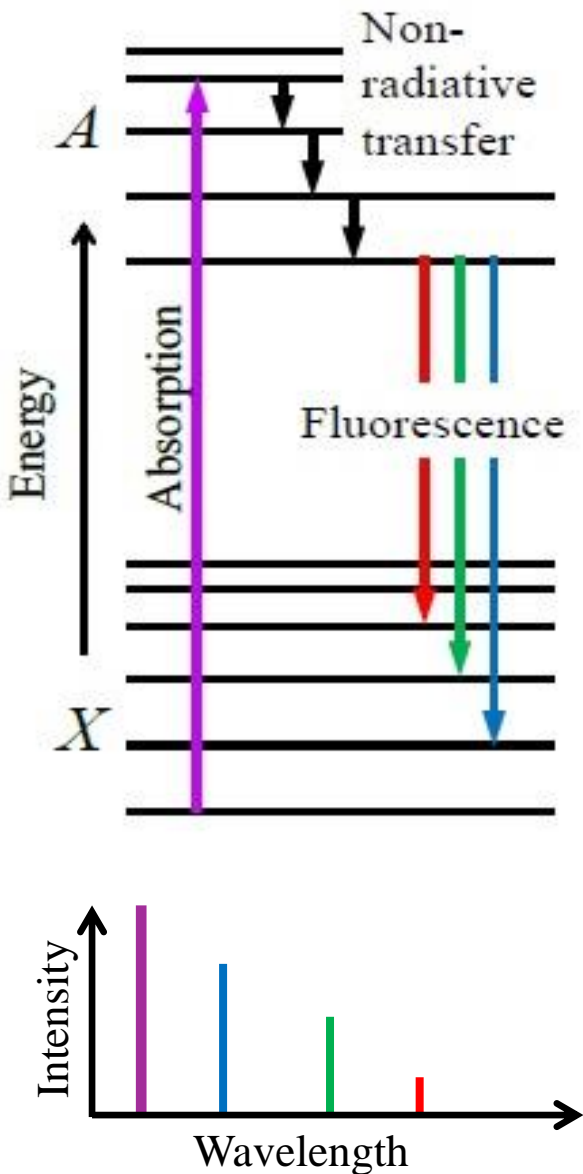
Gives rise to sharp spectral lines. Most light is transmitted.

Absorption in liquids and solids

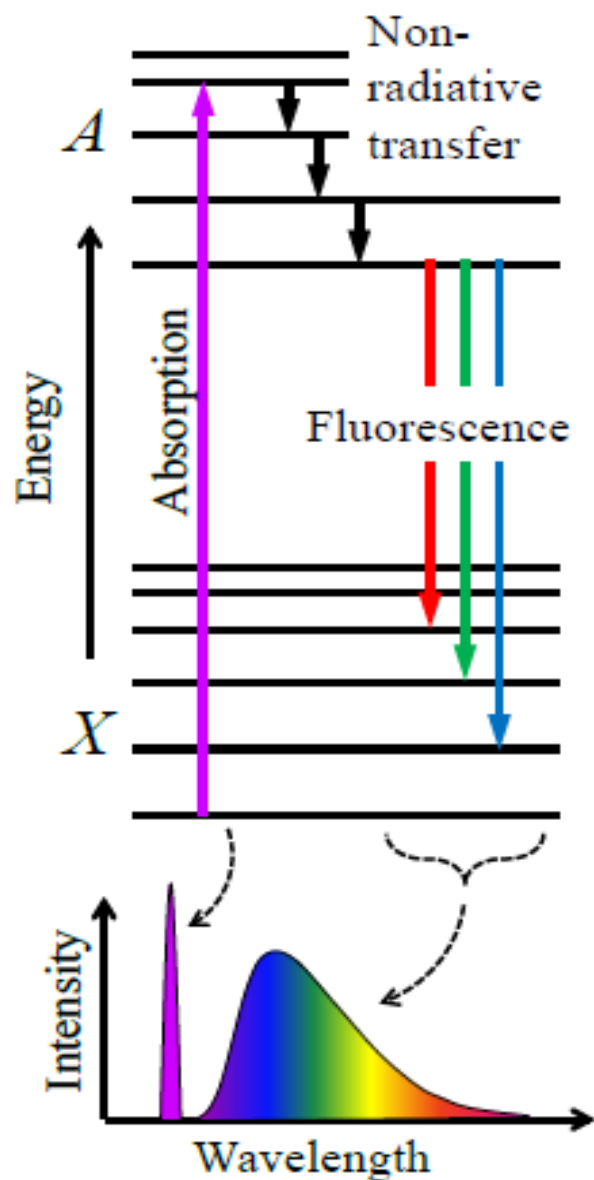
Gives rise to broad spectral features. The transmitted light from wine is red, while blue, green, and yellow light is absorbed.

Fluorescence in gases, liquids, and solids

Gases



Liquids and solids



The electromagnetic spectrum

Nuclear state changes

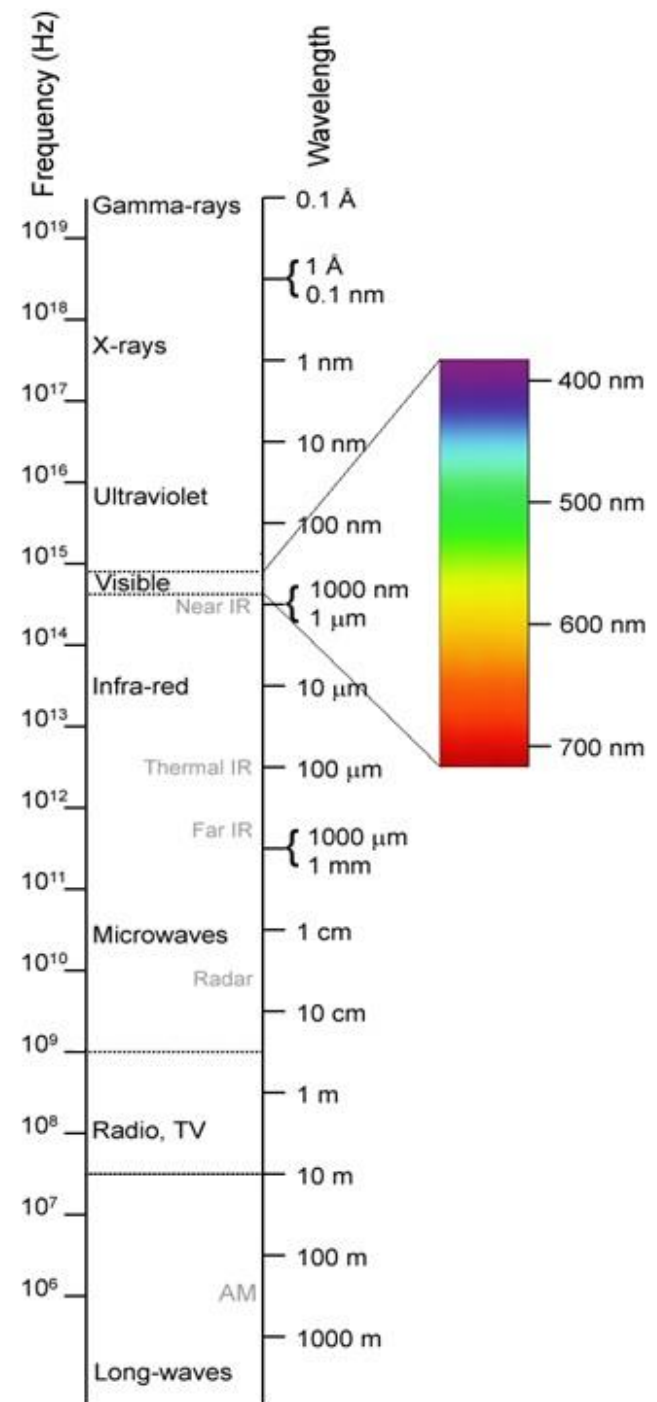
Inner electron transitions

Outer electron transitions

Vibrational state changes

Rotational state changes

Spin state changes, NMR



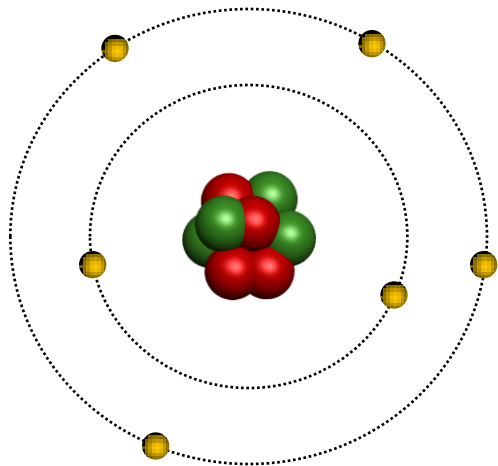
Spectral quantities and units

Quantity	Formula	SI unit	Comment
Frequency	$\nu = c/\lambda$	Hz or s^{-1}	
Wavelength	$\lambda = c/\nu$	m	often nm or Å
Wavenumber	$\tilde{\nu} = 1/\lambda$	m^{-1}	Sometimes σ instead of $\tilde{\nu}$ (often cm^{-1})
Energy	$E = h\nu = hc/\lambda$ $= hc\tilde{\nu}$	J	

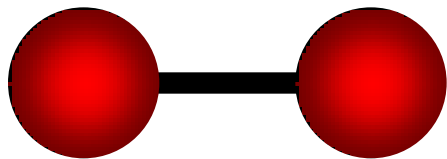
The formulas above are only strictly valid for $n = 1$

In spectroscopy, and in particular Raman spectroscopy, it is very common to work with wavenumbers in cm^{-1} . It is convenient as it is directly proportional to energy.

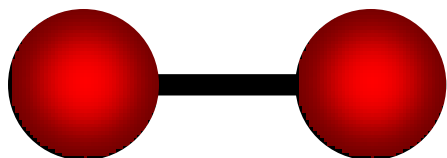
Molecular energy structure



Electronic energy

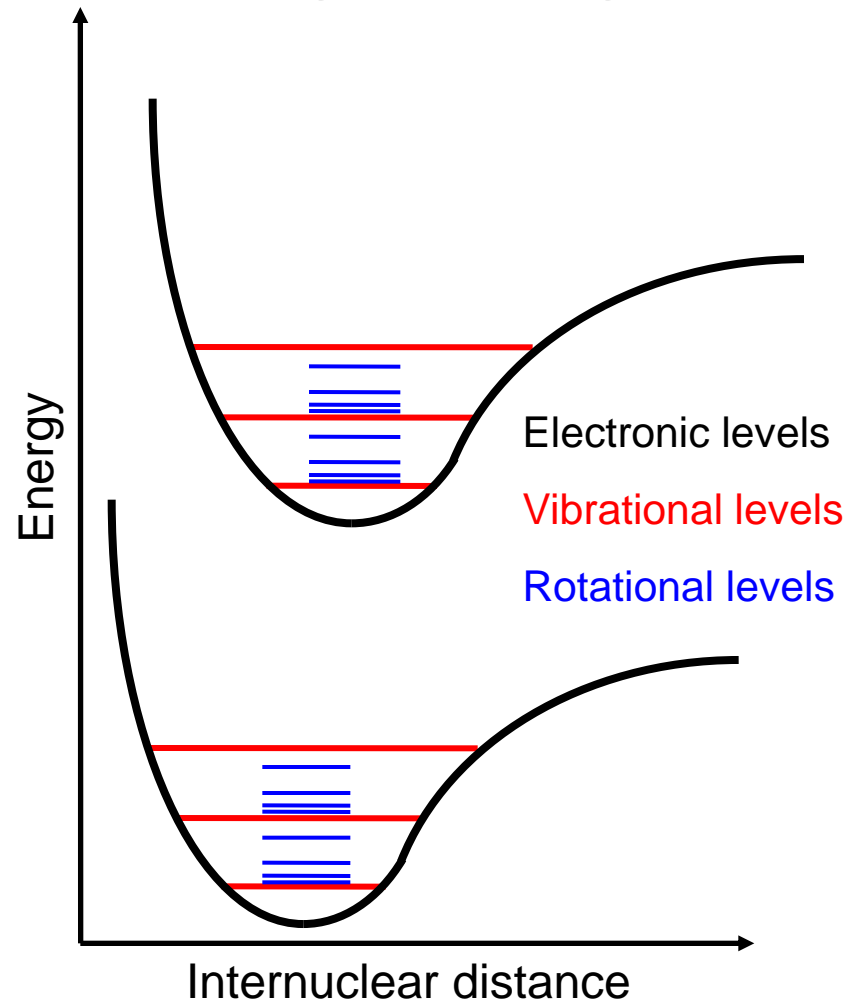


Vibrational energy



Rotational energy

Energy level diagram



Quantum mechanics - Molecules

The Schrödinger equation:

$$-\frac{\hbar^2}{2m}\nabla^2\psi_n(\vec{r})+V(\vec{r})\psi_n(\vec{r})=E_n\psi_n(\vec{r})\Leftrightarrow\mathbf{H}\psi_n(\vec{r})=E_n\psi_n$$

- Born-Oppenheimer approximation

$$\Psi_{\text{tot}} = \Psi_{\text{el}}\Psi_{\text{vib}}\Psi_{\text{rot}}$$

- Vibrational motion is much faster than rotational motion

\Rightarrow

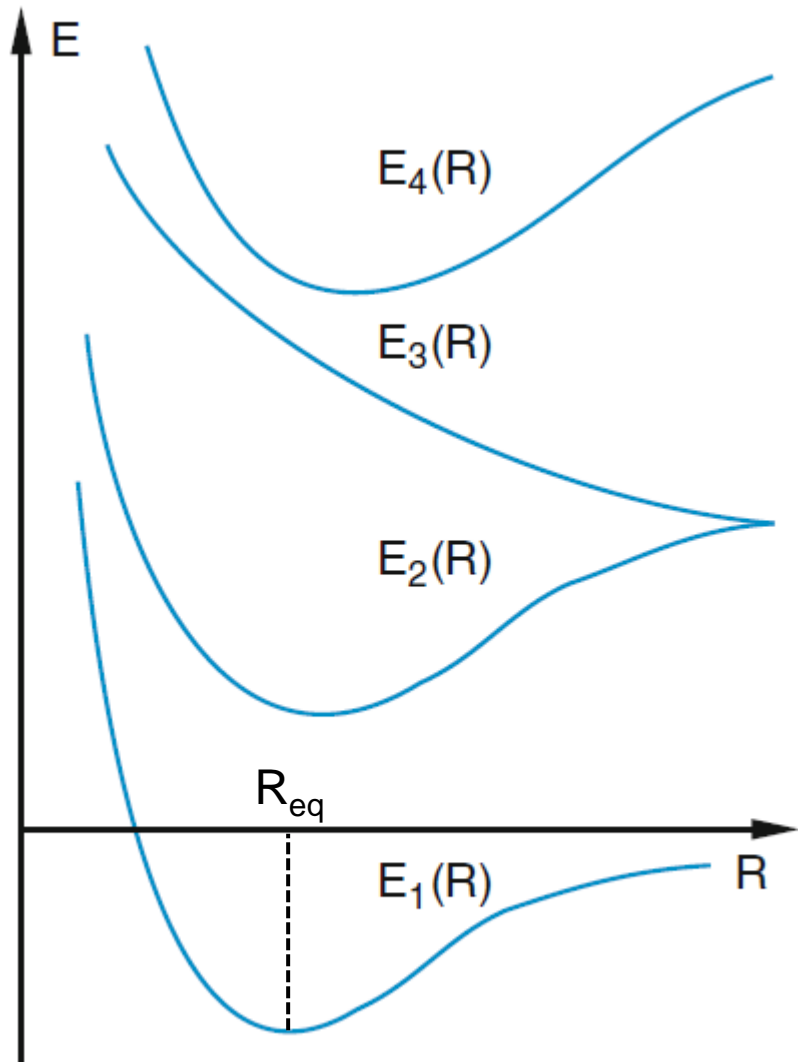
$$E_{\text{tot}} = E_{\text{el}} + E_{\text{vib}} + E_{\text{rot}}$$

$$E_{\text{tot}} = T_e + G(v) + F(J)$$

Electronic structure

Svanberg: 3.1

Potential energy curves (PECs)



$E_1(R)$, $E_2(R)$, and $E_4(R)$ are bound (stable) states

$E_3(R)$ is an unbound (unstable/repulsive) state

B-O approx. $\Rightarrow E_{\text{molecule}} = E_{e^-} + E_{\text{nuclei}}$

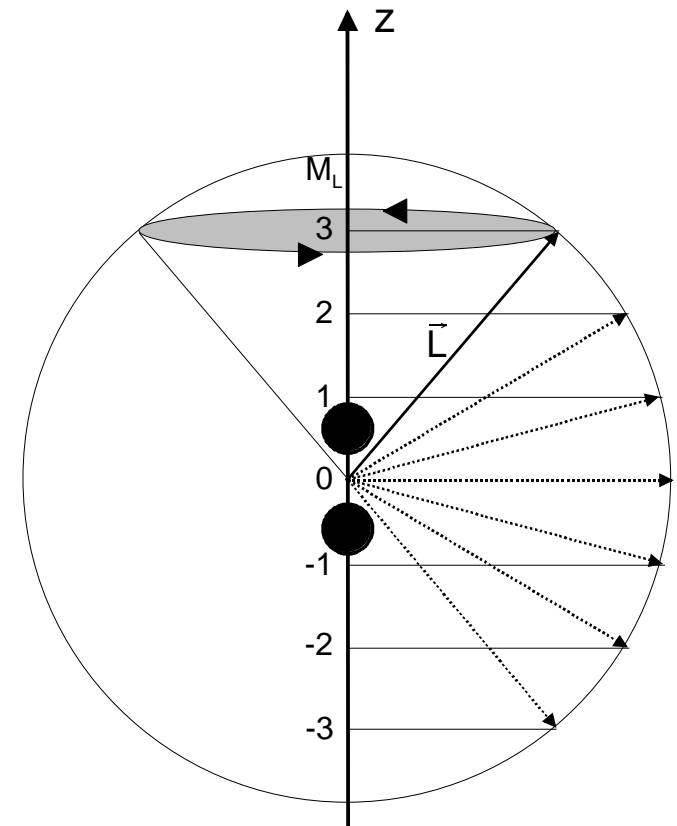
It also means $\psi_{\text{molecule}} = \psi_{e^-} \cdot \psi_{\text{nuclei}}$

Going beyond the approximation of clamped nuclei, the PECs describe the potentials in which the nuclei can vibrate (more about this later).

B-O approximation: $m_p \sim 2000 m_e \Rightarrow$ The electrons are moving much faster than the nuclei \Rightarrow The electronic states are at any moment essentially the same as if the nuclei were fixed. Thus, in the B-O approximation **R is fixed**.

The electronic orbital angular momentum

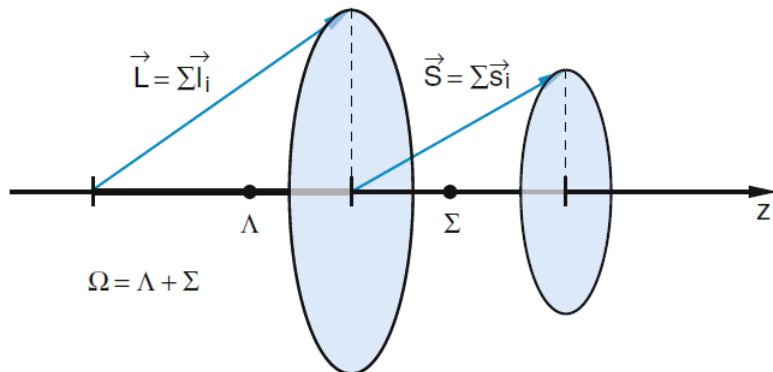
- Electron orbital angular momentum, L , of molecules is quantized
- Only the component along the internuclear axis, L_z , is a constant of motion \Rightarrow quantum numbers: $M_L=L, L-1, \dots, -L$
- Quantum number Λ introduced: $\Lambda=|M_L|$, $\Lambda=0,1,2,\dots,L$
 $\Lambda=0,1,2,\dots$
 $\Lambda=0$ means a Σ -state
 $\Lambda=1$ means a Π -state
 $\Lambda=2$ means a Δ -state



Svanberg: 3.1 and Fig. 3.2

Electronic spin

- Molecules also have spin angular momentum. S precesses around the internuclear axis
- S can have $2S+1$ different projections, Σ , on the internuclear axis
- $2S+1 =$ multiplicity of the state
- Total angular momentum: $\Omega = \Lambda + \Sigma$



Projections on the z-axis:

$$S_z = \Sigma \cdot \hbar \quad \Sigma = S, S-1, \dots, -S$$

$$L_z = \Lambda \cdot \hbar \quad \Lambda = 0, 1, 2, \dots$$

$$\Omega = \Lambda + \Sigma \quad \Sigma, \Pi, \Delta, \dots$$

Term symbols for diatomic molecules

For an atom: $^{2S+1}L_J$ For a diatomic: $^{2S+1}\Lambda_\Omega$

$\vec{\Lambda}$: Projection of orbital angular momentum onto the internuclear axis.

Magnitude: $|\vec{\Lambda}| = \Lambda \cdot \hbar$

Symbols:

Λ	0	1	2
Symbol	Σ	Π	Δ

Atoms:

L	0	1	2
Symbol	S	P	D

\vec{S} : Total electronic spin (sum of spins in unfilled shells).

Magnitude: $|\vec{S}| = S \cdot \hbar$

$\vec{\Sigma}$: Projection of \vec{S} onto the internuclear axis (only defined when $\Lambda \neq 0$)

Magnitude: $|\vec{\Sigma}| = \Sigma \cdot \hbar$

Allowed values: $\Sigma = S, S-1, \dots, -S$ ($2S+1$ values)

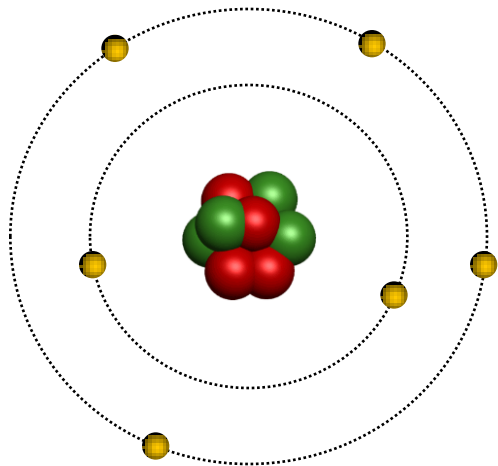
$\vec{\Omega}$: Sum of projections along the internuclear axis of electron spin and orbital angular momentum. $\vec{\Omega} = \vec{\Lambda} + \vec{\Sigma}$

$\Omega = \Lambda + \Sigma, \Lambda + \Sigma - 1, \dots, |\Lambda - \Sigma|$ ($2S+1$ values for $\Lambda \geq S$)

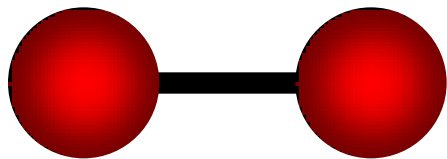
Rotation and vibration of molecules

Svanberg: 3.2 - 3.4

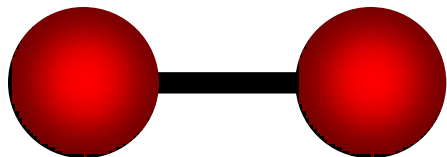
Molecular energy structure



Electronic energy

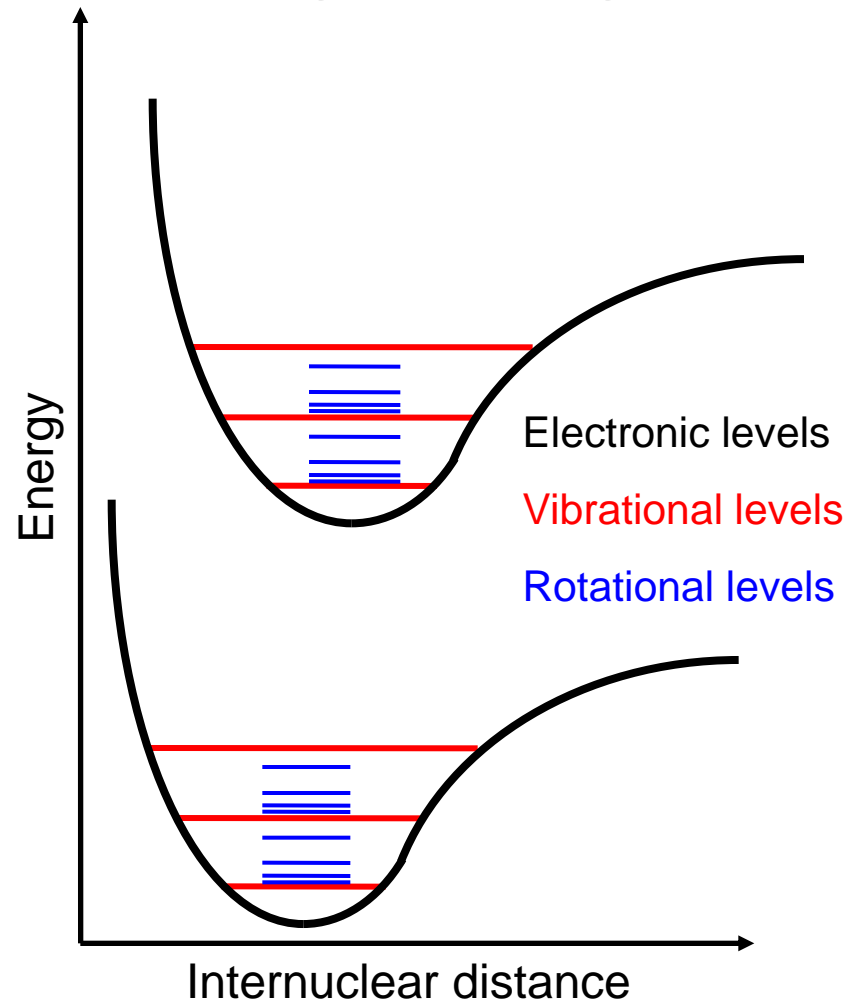


Vibrational energy



Rotational energy

Energy level diagram



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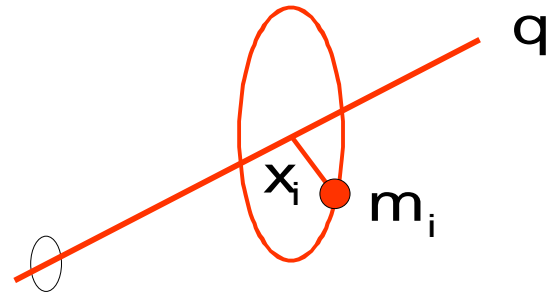
$$E_{\text{tot}} = E_{\text{el}} + E_{\text{vib}} + E_{\text{rot}}$$

Molecular rotation

Classical picture

Moment of inertia:

$$I_{qq} = \sum_i m_i x_i^2(q)$$



Reduced mass (diatomic molecule):

$$\frac{1}{\mu} = \frac{1}{m_A} + \frac{1}{m_B} \Leftrightarrow \mu = \frac{m_A m_B}{m_A + m_B} \Rightarrow I = \mu R^2$$

where R is the equilibrium bond length (internuclear distance) of the molecule

Molecular rotation

Quantum mechanical picture

Classical mechanics:

$$T = \frac{1}{2} \sum_q I_{qq} \omega_q^2 = \sum_q \frac{J_q^2}{2I_{qq}} \quad \text{where} \quad J_{qq} = I_{qq} \omega_q$$

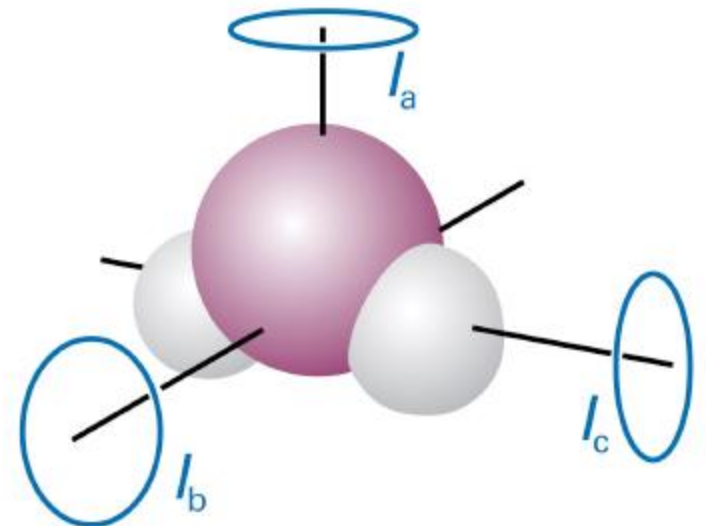
Quantum mechanics: (J_q is an operator of the angular momentum)

$$\Rightarrow \mathbf{H} = \frac{\mathbf{J}_x^2}{2I_{xx}} + \frac{\mathbf{J}_y^2}{2I_{yy}} + \frac{\mathbf{J}_z^2}{2I_{zz}}$$

There is no potential energy associated with pure rotational motion

Four types of rigid rotors

- **Linear rotors**
 - One moment of inertia is zero (e.g. CO_2 , HCl)
- **Symmetric rotors**
 - Two equal moments of inertia, one different (e.g. NH_3)
- **Spherical rotors**
 - Three equal moments of inertia (e.g. CH_4)
- **Asymmetric rotors**
 - Three different moments of inertia (e.g. H_2O)



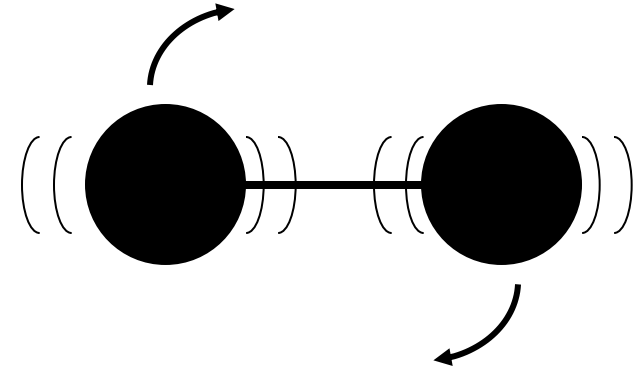
Diatomic molecules - Basics

A diatomic molecule has a total wave function consisting of an electronic wave function, and a nuclear wave function.

The nuclear wave function can be separated into a rotational wave function and a vibrational wave function.

In the Born-Oppenheimer approximation these are initially treated separately:

$$E_{\text{tot}} = E_{\text{el}} + E_{\text{vib}} + E_{\text{rot}}$$



Time scales

Electronic interaction: $\sim 10^{-15}$ s

Vibrations: $\sim 10^{-14}$ s

Rotations: $\sim 10^{-13}$ - 10^{-12} s

Diatomic molecules

$$\mathbf{H} = \frac{\mathbf{J}^2}{2I} \Rightarrow \text{eigenvalues: } E(J, M_J) = \frac{J(J+1)\hbar^2}{2I}$$

Eigenfunctions: $Y_{J, M_J}(\theta, \phi)$ (Spherical harmonics, known from the atomic structure)

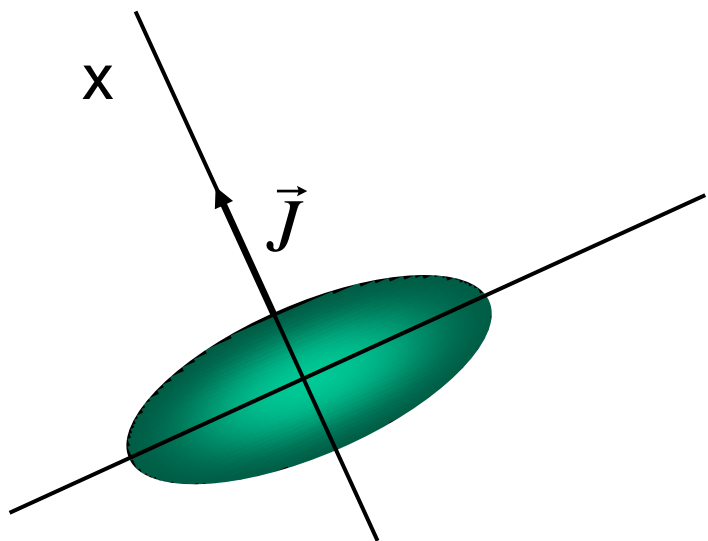
$$\mathbf{J}^2 = \mathbf{J}_x^2 + \mathbf{J}_y^2 + \mathbf{J}_z^2 \quad (J = 0, 1, 2, \dots \quad M_J = J, J-1, \dots, -J)$$

$2J+1$ possible M_J values for each rotational level
 \Rightarrow **$2J+1$ -fold degenerate.**

The rotational constant, B :

$$B[\text{Joule}] = \frac{\hbar^2}{2I} \quad B[\text{cm}^{-1}] = B = \frac{\hbar}{4\pi c I}$$

$$F(J) = BJ(J+1) \quad (\text{cm}^{-1})$$



Rotational energy levels for a diatomic molecule

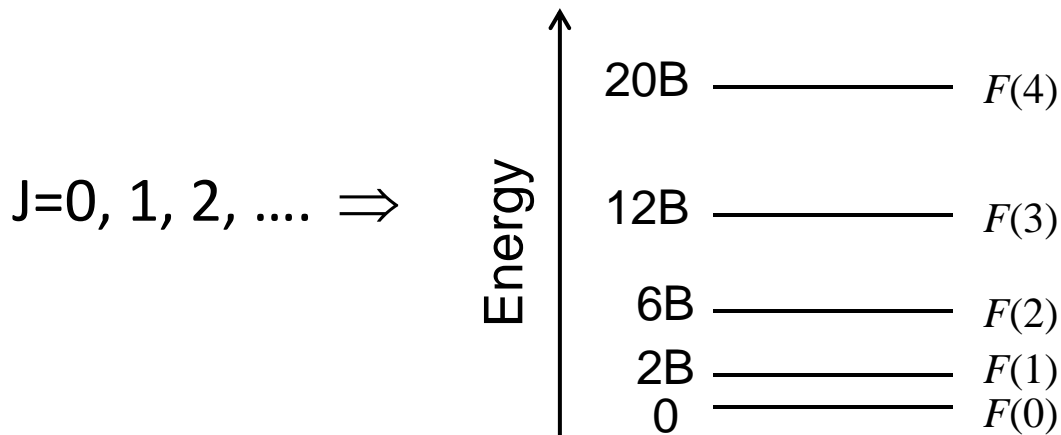
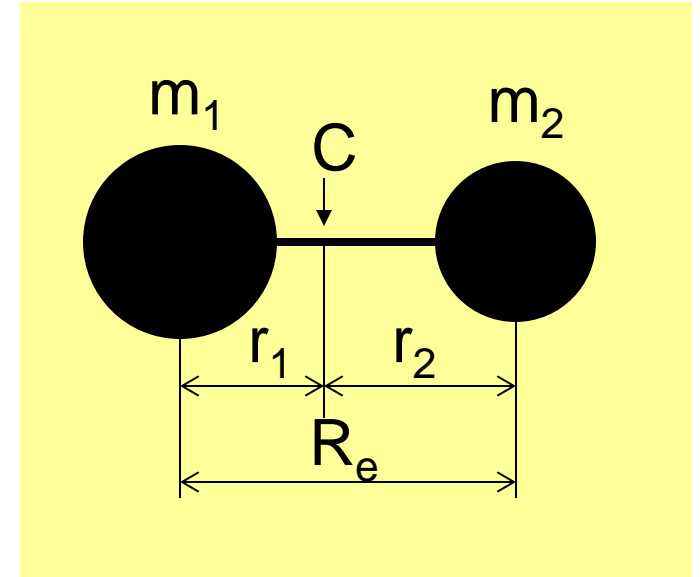
Solutions to the Schrödinger equation:

$$E_J = \frac{h^2}{8\pi^2 I} J(J+1)$$

$$I = \mu R_e^2$$

$$\mu = \frac{m_1 m_2}{m_1 + m_2}$$

$$F(J) = \frac{E_J}{hc} = \frac{h}{8\pi^2 c I} J(J+1) = BJ(J+1) \quad [cm^{-1}]$$



The energy separation increases with increasing J

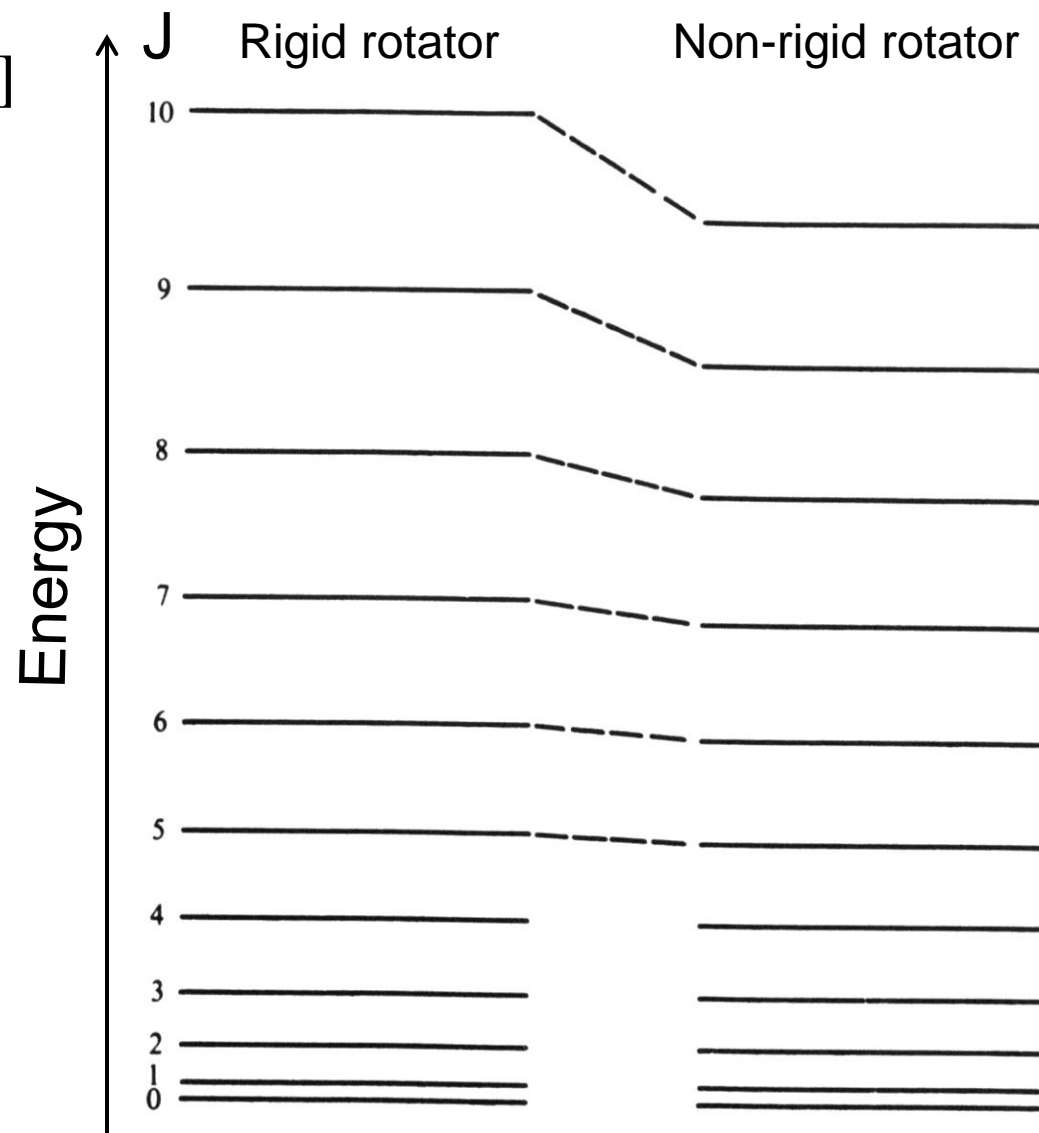
Energy levels for non-rigid rotator

$$F(J) = BJ(J+1) - DJ^2(J+1)^2 [cm^{-1}]$$

D centrifugal distortion constant

$F(18) = 683,40 \text{ cm}^{-1}$ for N_2
without D-correction

$F(18) = 682,72 \text{ cm}^{-1}$ for N_2
with D-correction



Vibrational energy levels

Solutions to Schrödinger equation for harmonic oscillator:

$$G(v) = \omega_e \left(v + \frac{1}{2} \right) \quad (\text{cm}^{-1})$$

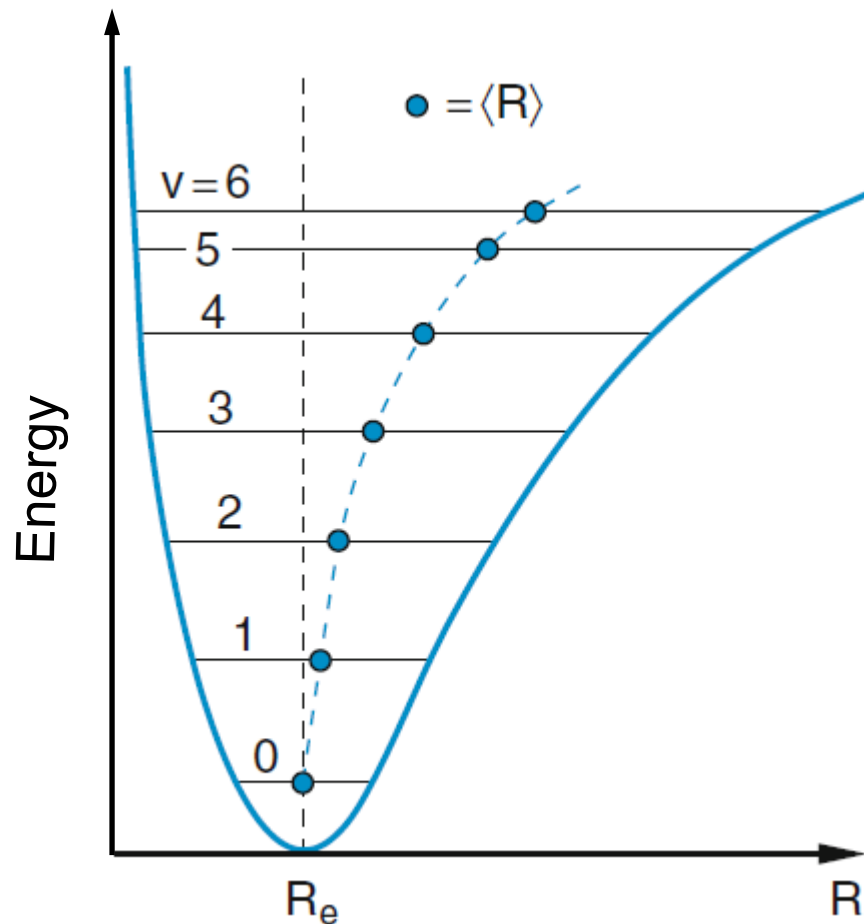
$$G(0) = 0.5\omega_e, G(1) = 1.5\omega_e, G(2) = 2.5\omega_e$$

A better description of the potential is given by the Morse function:

$$E = D_{eq} [1 - \exp \{ a(r_{eq} - r) \}]^2$$

where a is a constant for a particular molecule. Energy corrections can now be introduced.

$$G(v) = \omega_e \left(v + \frac{1}{2} \right) - \omega_e x_e \left(v + \frac{1}{2} \right)^2 \quad (\text{cm}^{-1})$$



Interaction between rotation and vibration

The vibrational and rotational energies can not be treated quite independent. A molecule can vibrate 100-1000 times during a rotation.

The rotational constant B_v in a vibrational state v , can be expressed as

$$B_v = B_e - \alpha_e(v + 1/2) \quad [cm^{-1}]$$

The centrifugal distortion constant D_v in a vibrational state v , can be expressed as

$$D_v = D_e + \beta_e(v + 1/2) \quad [cm^{-1}]$$

Molecular constants

State	T_e	ω_e	$\omega_e X_e$	B_e	α_e	D_e	r_e (Å)	Observed Transitions		References
								Design.	ν_{00}	
$^{14}\text{N}_2$ (continued)										
B' $^3\Sigma_u^-$	66272.4 ₇	1516.88	Z 12.18 ₁ ^a	1.473 ₃ ^b	0.0166 ₆ ^c	(5.56)	1.278 ₄	B' → B, R	6545.5 (Z)	(32)(36) (182)
								"Y" bands, ^d		
								B' ↔ X, ^e R	65852.35 Z	(30)* (35) (66)* (149)
W $^3\Delta_u$	59808	1501.4	(Z) 11.6					Ogawa-Tanaka-Wilkinson b.		(155)
								W ↔ B, R, ^v	73	(102)(124)
								Wu-Benesch b.		(131)(157)
								W ← X, ^f R	59380	(123)* (155)
B $^3\Pi_g$	59619.3 ₅ ^g	1733.39	Z 14.122 ^h	1.6374 ₅ ⁱ	0.0179 ₁ ^j	[5.9]	1.2126 ₀	Saum-Benesch b.		
								B ^k ↔ A, ^l V	9552.0 ₃ Z	(29)(196)
								1st pos. gr.		
								B ← X, ^m R	59306.81 Z	(40)
A $^3\Sigma_u^+$	50203.6 ₃	1460.64	Z 13.87 ₂ ⁿ	1.4546 ^o	0.0180 ^p	[6.1 ₅]	1.2866	Wilkinson b.		
								A ^q ↔ X, ^m R	49754.78 Z	(29)(70)(85)
								Vegard-Kaplan b.		
X $^1\Sigma_g^+$	0	2358.57	Z 14.324 ^r	1.99824 ₁ ^s	0.017318 ^s	[5.76]	1.09768 ₅	Rot.-vibr. ^t and rot. sp. :		
								- pressure induced		(14)(59)(63) (86)(135) (141)(181)
								- el. field induced		(185)
								Raman spectra ^u		(20)(134) (167)
								Mol. beam magn. reson. ^v		

From Huber and Herzberg: "Constants of diatomic molecules"

Molecular constants are available at: <http://webbook.nist.gov/chemistry/form-ser.html>

Molecular transitions

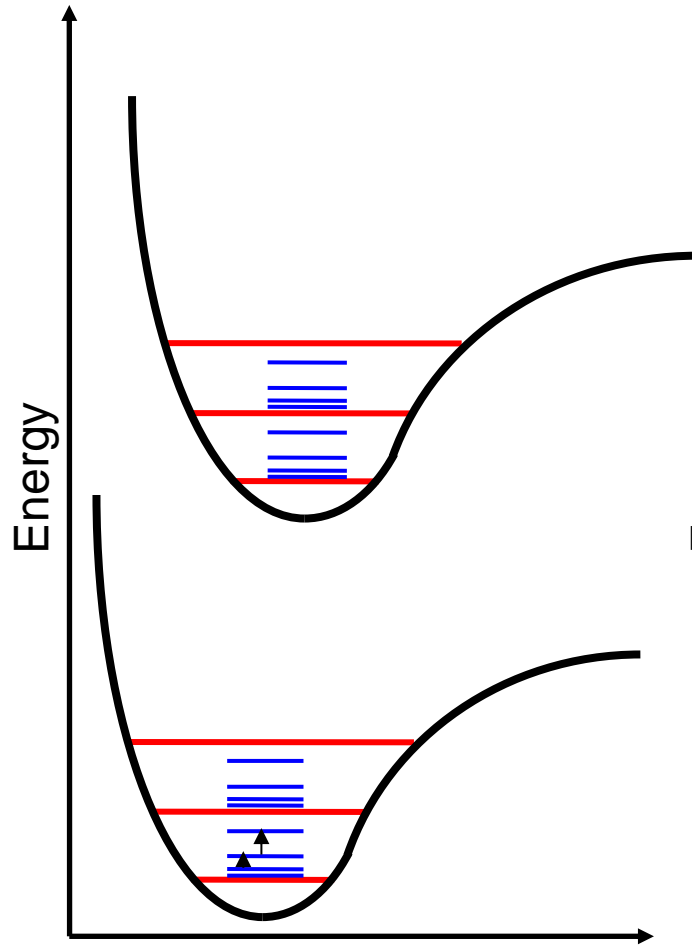
Svanberg: 4.2.2

Molecular transitions

Rotational transitions

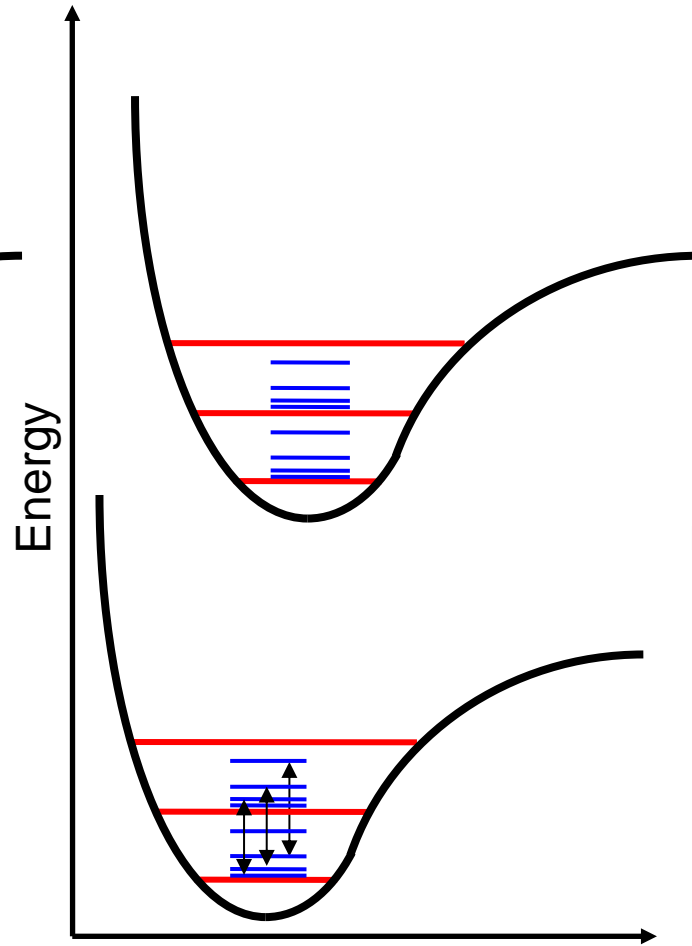
Rovibrational transitions

Rovibronic transitions



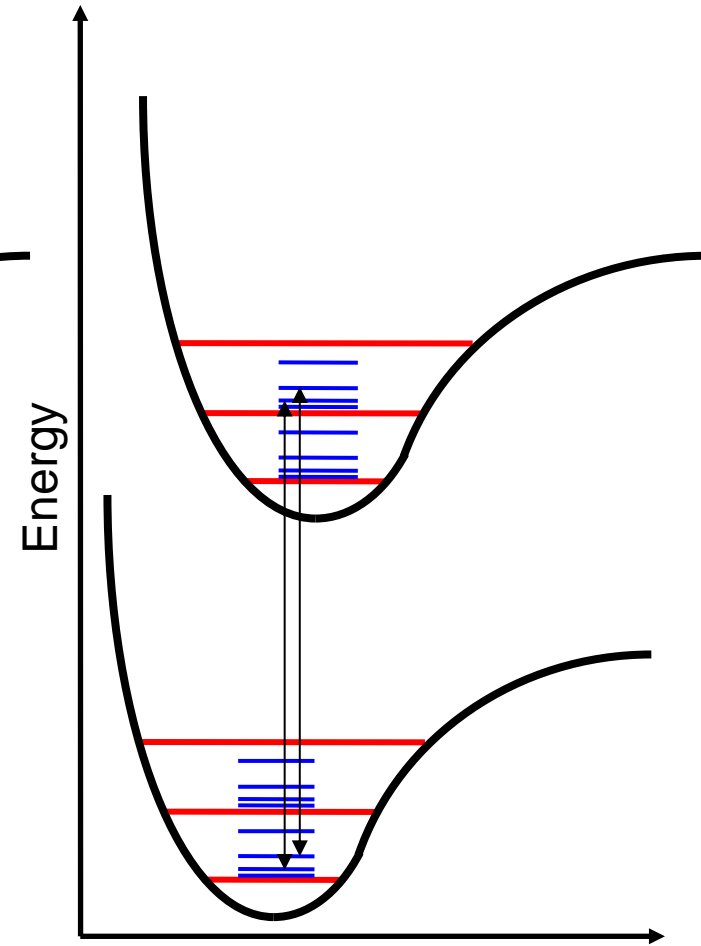
Internuclear distance

microwaves



Internuclear distance

infrared (IR)

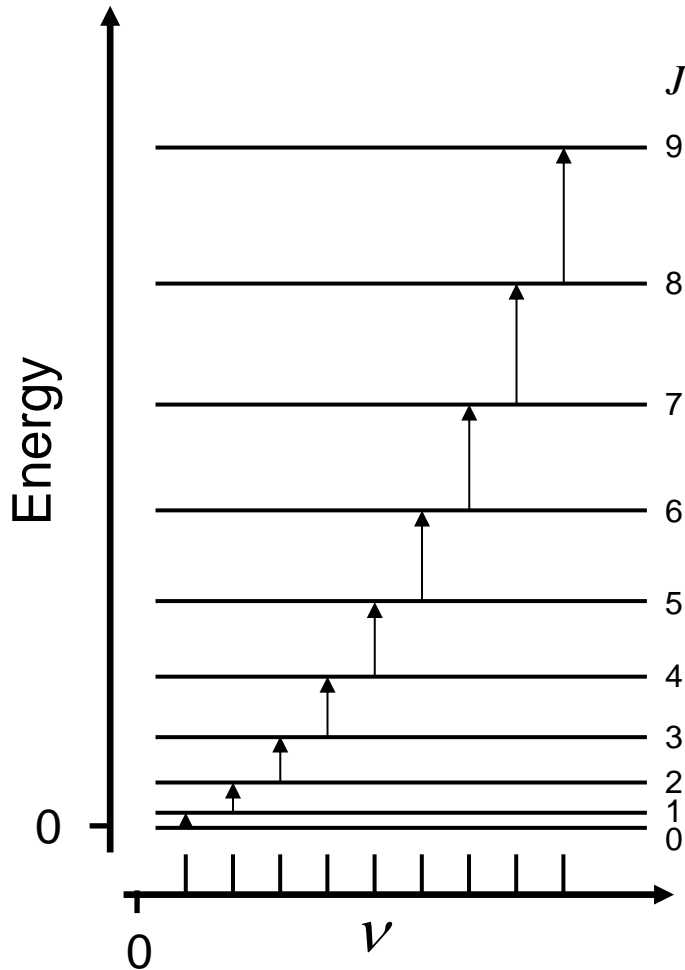


Internuclear distance

vis – ultraviolet (UV)

Pure rotational transitions

A heteronuclear diatomic molecule possesses a permanent dipole moment and therefore emits radiation when the rotation is changed. Selection rule: $\Delta J = \pm 1$



Rigid molecule: $F(J) = BJ(J + 1)$

Transitions at the following wavenumbers:

$$\nu(J + 1 \leftrightarrow J) = 2B(J + 1) \quad J = 0, 1, 2, \dots$$

Elastic molecule:

$$F(J) = BJ(J + 1) - DJ^2(J + 1)^2$$

Transitions:

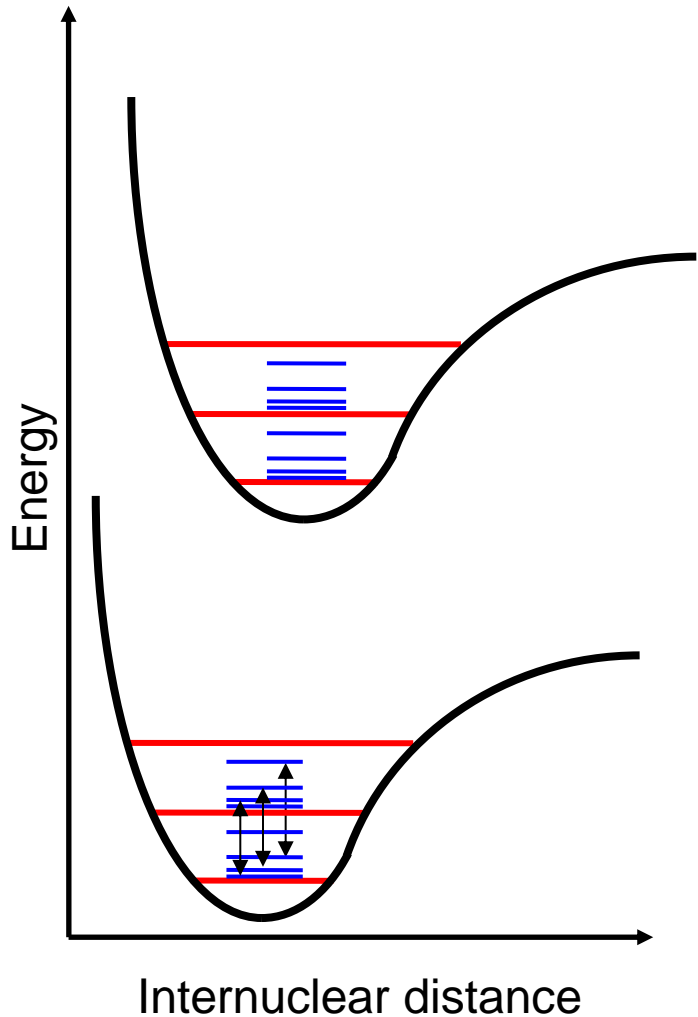
$$\nu(J + 1 \leftrightarrow J) = 2B(J + 1) - 4D(J + 1)^3 \quad J = 0, 1, 2, \dots$$

Rovibrational transitions (IR transitions)

A vibration is **IR-active** only if it involves a **change in the dipole moment**. For diatomic molecules, therefore only heteronuclear molecules are IR-active. Thus, rovibrational transitions are not possible in homonuclear diatomics (since they are symmetric).

$\Delta v = \pm 1$ are by far strongest

$\Delta J = \pm 1$ (same as for pure rot. trans.)



Rovibrational transitions

Total energy: $E(v, J) = G(v) + F(J)$

Upper state energy: $E' = G(v') + B'J'(J' + 1)$

Lower state energy: $E'' = G(v'') + B''J''(J'' + 1)$

Expression for P-branch transitions:

$$P(J) = G(v') - G(v'') - (B' + B'')J + (B' - B'')J^2$$

$$\tilde{\nu}_{v'v''} = G(v') - G(v'') \quad (\text{band origin})$$

$$P(J) = \tilde{\nu}_{v'v''} - (B' + B'')J + (B' - B'')J^2$$

$$R(J) = \tilde{\nu}_{v'v''} + (B' + B'')(J + 1) + (B' - B'')(J + 1)^2$$

Both branches in a single formula:

$$\tilde{\nu} = \tilde{\nu}_{v'v''} + am + bm^2$$

$$m = -J \quad \text{for P-branch transitions}$$

$$m = J + 1 \quad \text{for R-branch transitions}$$

$$\text{where } a = B' + B'' \text{ and } b = B' - B''$$

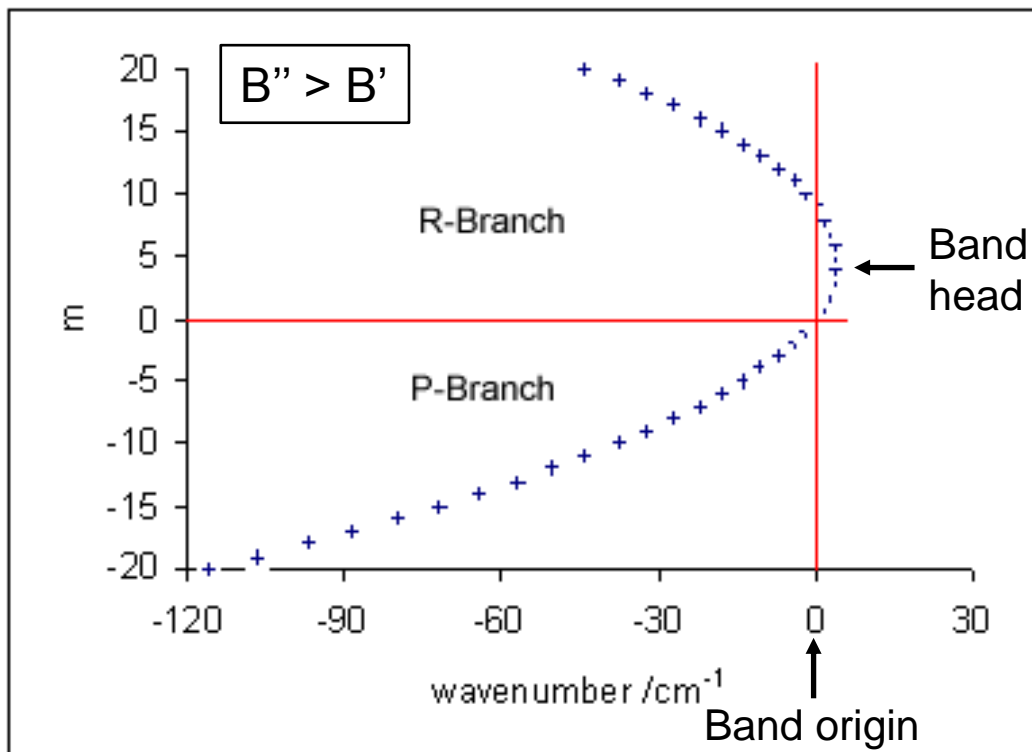
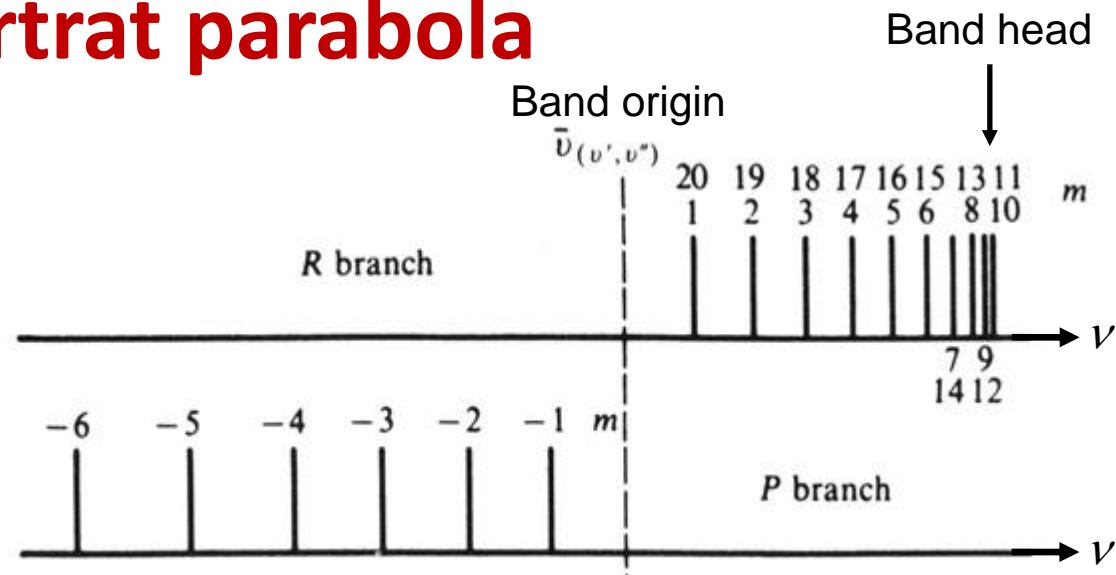
The Fortrat parabola

$$\tilde{\nu} = \tilde{\nu}_{v'v''} + am + bm^2$$

$m = -1, -2, -3, \dots$ for P-branch

$m = 1, 2, 3, \dots$ for R-branch

where $a = B' + B''$ and $b = B' - B''$



Plotting the result of the expression in a diagram with m vs $\tilde{\nu}$ results in a so-called **Fortrat diagram**.

When $B'' > B'$ there is a **bandhead in the R-branch** and the band is said to be **degraded towards red** because the parabola has its vertex towards higher frequencies (like in this example)

When $B'' < B'$ there is a **bandhead in the P-branch** and the band is **degraded towards violet**.

Svanberg: Fig. 4.13

Rovibronic transitions

Selection rules (diatomics):

Electronic:
(major) $\Delta\Lambda = 0, \pm 1$

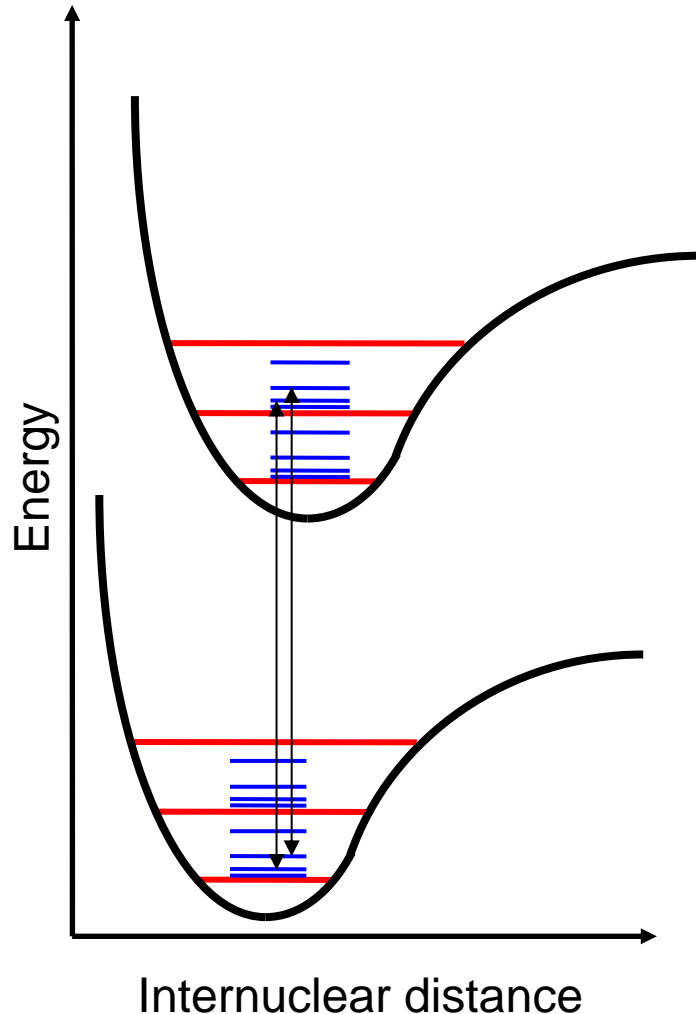
$$\Delta S = 0$$

$$\Delta\Sigma = 0$$

$$\Delta\Omega = 0$$

Vibrational: No strict rule, dependent on Franck-Condon overlap (more about this later)

Rotational: $\Delta J = -1, 0, \text{ or } +1$ (P, Q, R branch)
(not $J = 0$ to $J = 0$)



Rovibronic transitions

Total energy: $E(T_e, v, J) = T_e + G(v) + F(J)$

Upper state energy: $E' = T_e' + G(v') + B'J'(J' + 1)$

Lower state energy: $E'' = T_e'' + G(v'') + B''J''(J'' + 1)$

$$P(J) = \underbrace{(T_e' - T_e'' + G(v') - G(v''))}_{\tilde{\nu}_{v'v''} \text{ (band origin)}} - (B' + B'')J + (B' - B'')J^2$$

$$P(J) = \tilde{\nu}_{v'v''} - (B' + B'')J + (B' - B'')J^2$$

$$R(J) = \tilde{\nu}_{v'v''} + (B' + B'')(J + 1) + (B' - B'')(J + 1)^2$$

$$Q(J) = \tilde{\nu}_{v'v''} + (B' - B'')J + (B' - B'')J^2 \quad \text{Q-branch is possible for electronic trans.}$$

P and R branches: $\tilde{\nu} = \tilde{\nu}_{00} + am + bm^2$

Q branch: $\tilde{\nu} = \tilde{\nu}_{00} + bm + bm^2$

where $a = B' + B''$ and $b = B' - B''$

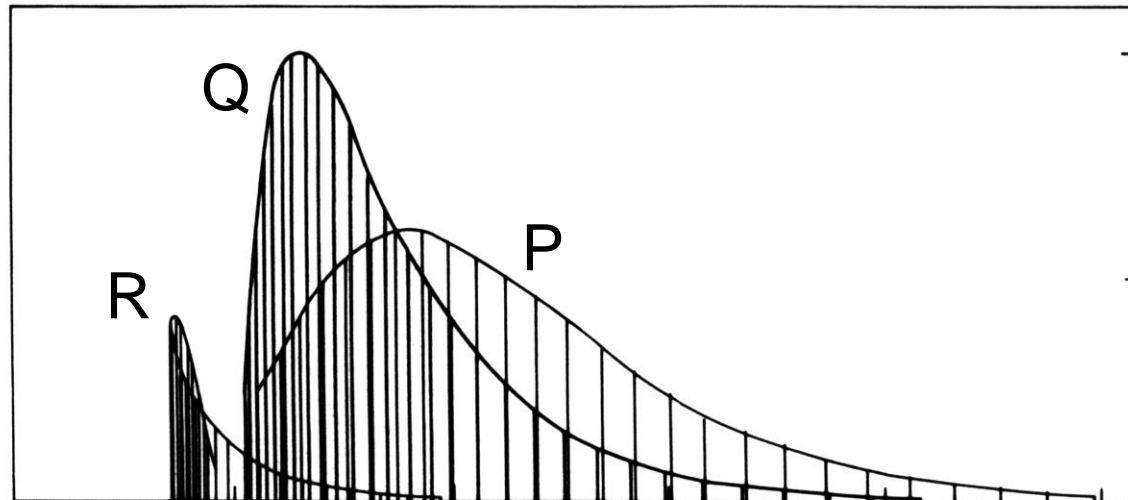
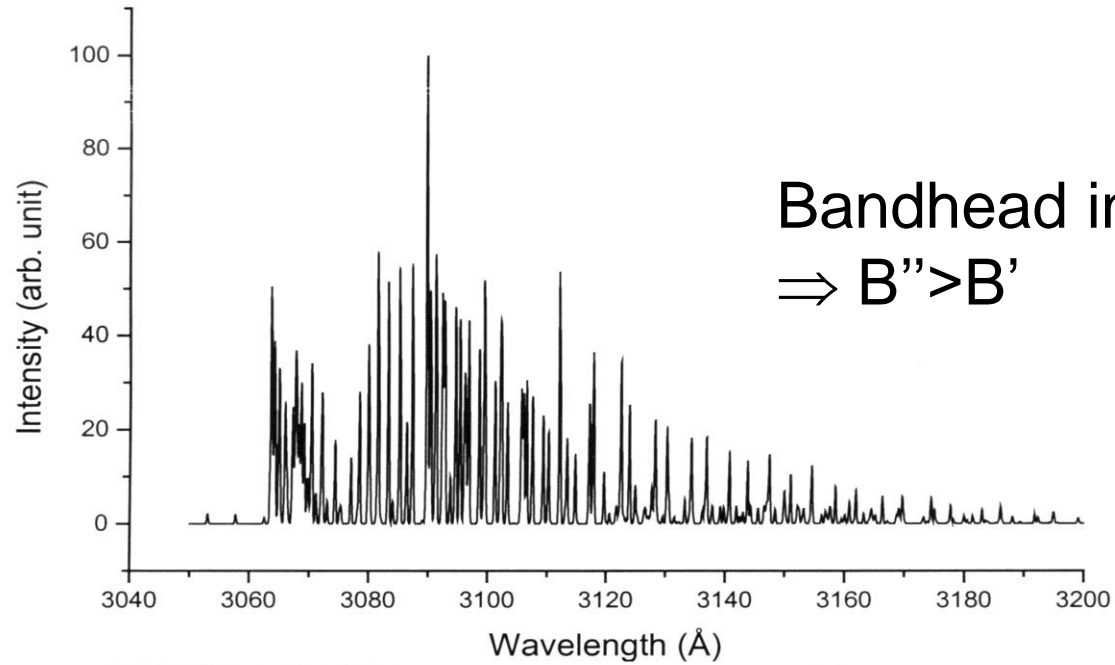
$m = -J$ for P-branch transitions

$m = J + 1$ for R-branch transitions

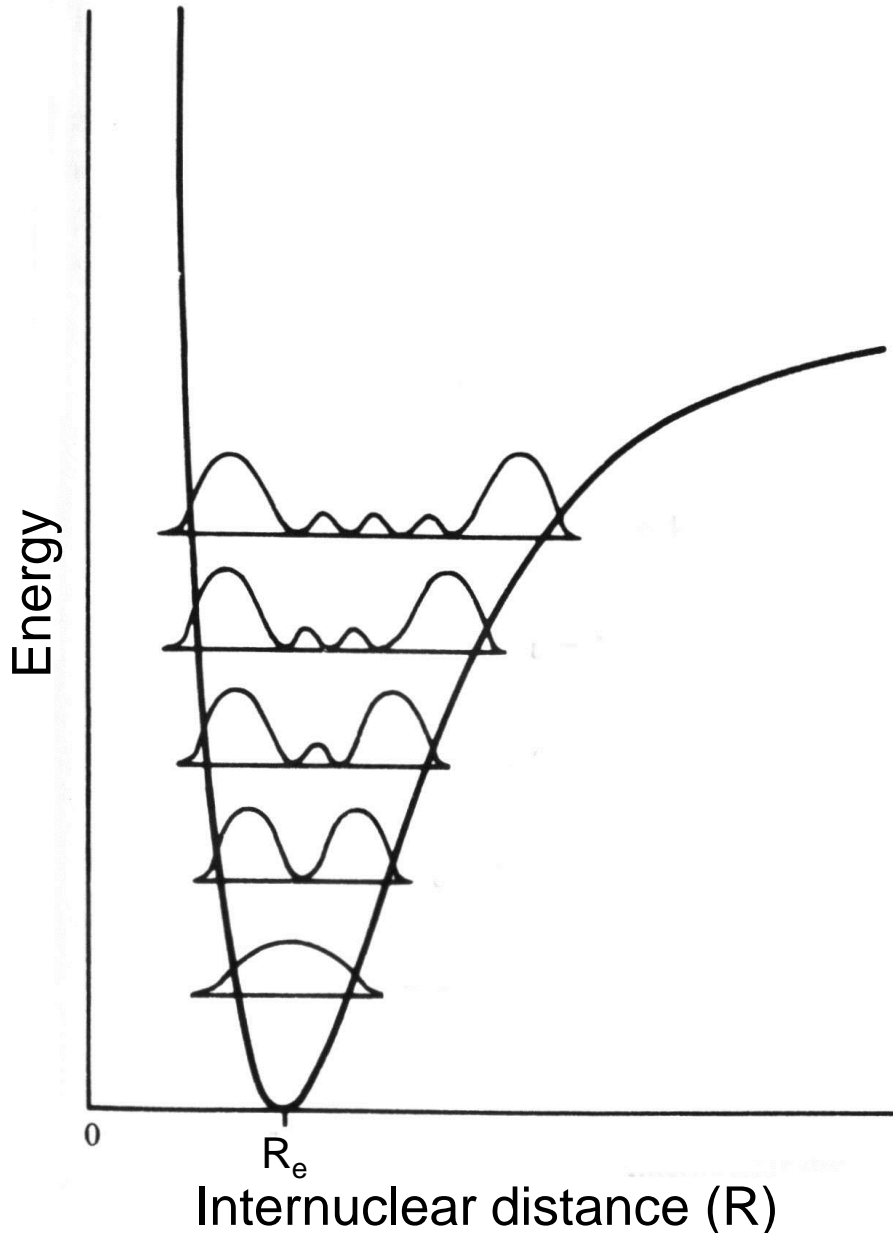
$m = J$ for Q-branch transitions

→ Fortrat diagrams

Absorption spectrum of OH



Probability distributions for vibrational states



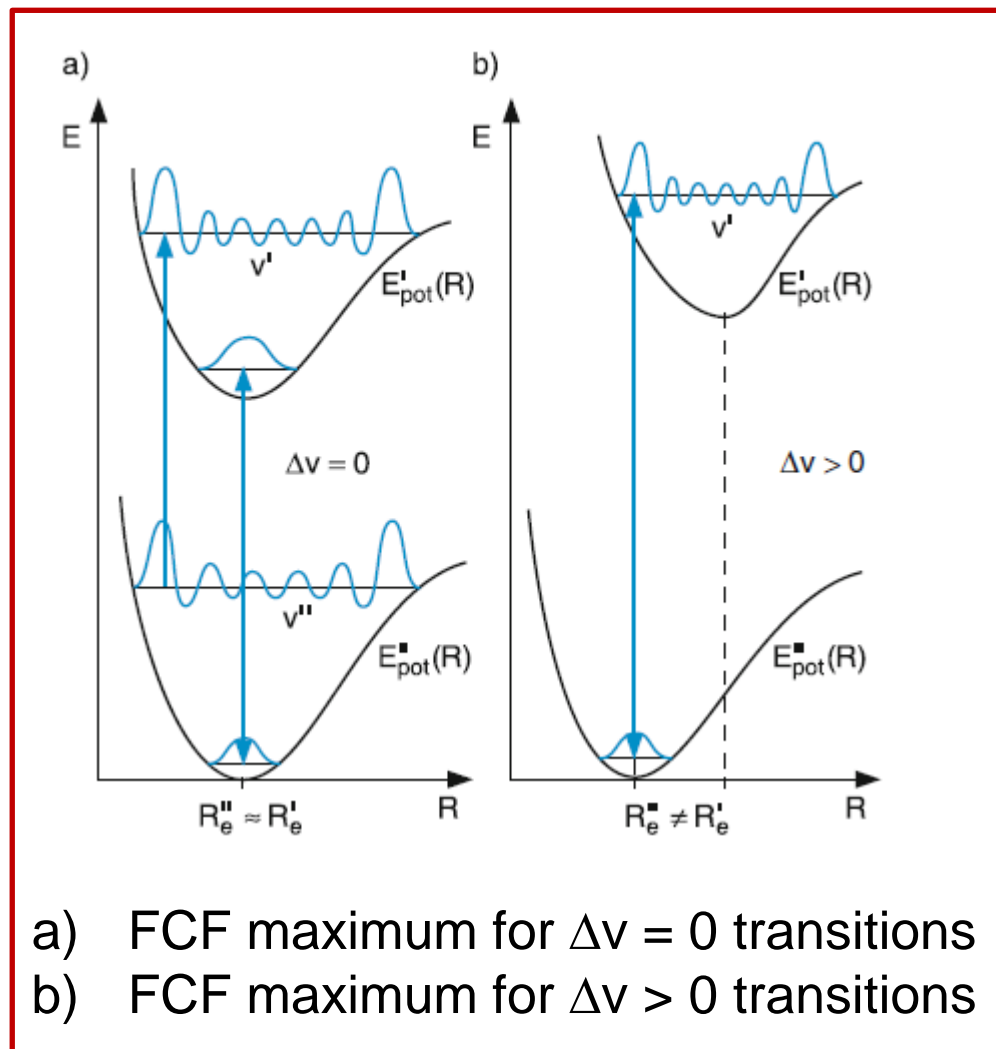
It is more probable to find a molecule at the end positions than at the equilibrium position for excited vibrational states!

Strength of rovibronic transitions

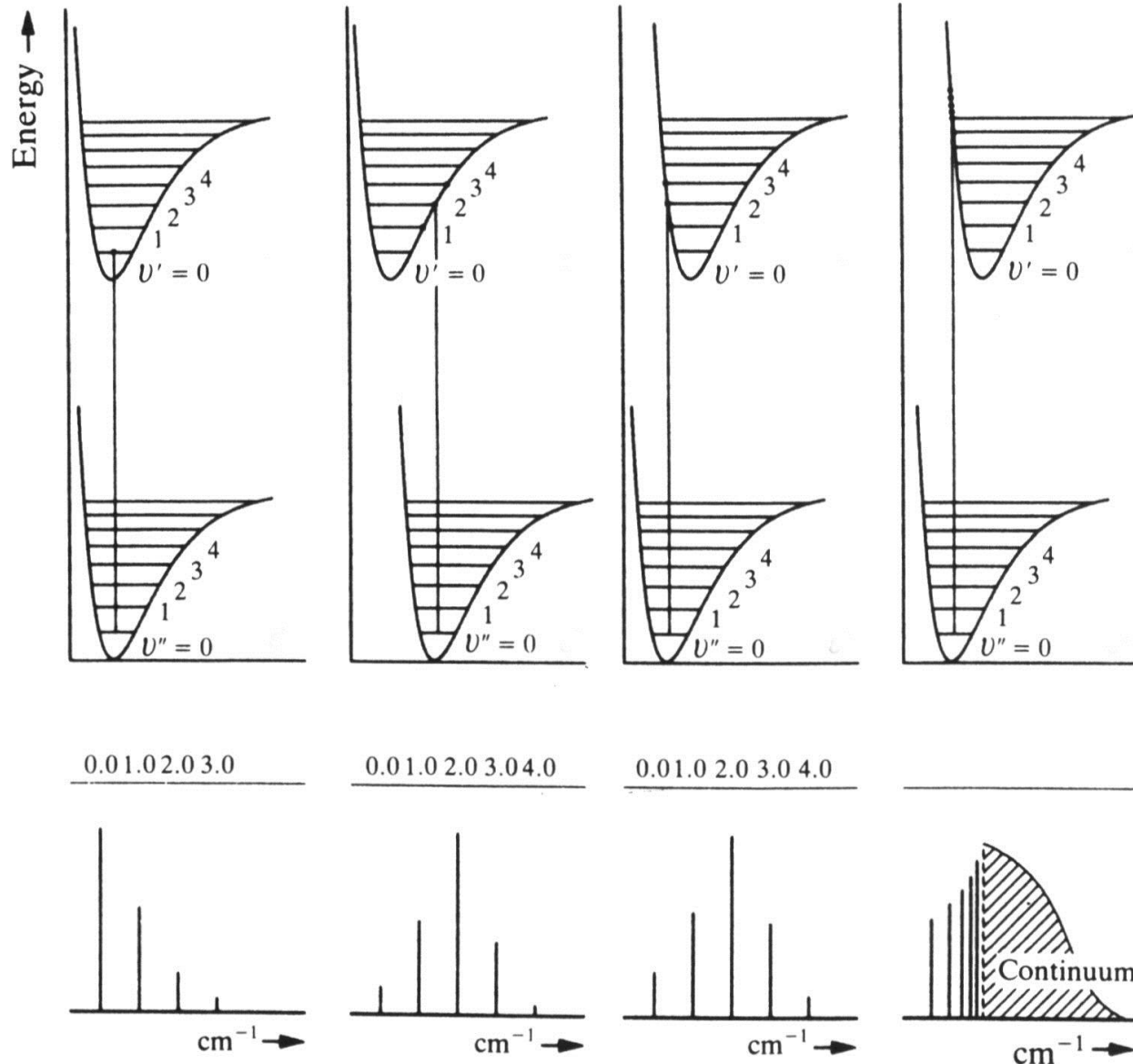
The strength of a vibrational transition depends on the overlap between the vibrational wave functions in the two states (Franck-Condon Factor, FCF).

Franck-Condon principle:

An electronic transition takes place so rapidly that a vibrating molecule does not change its internuclear distance appreciable during the transition. This means that **the transitions can be represented by vertical arrows**.



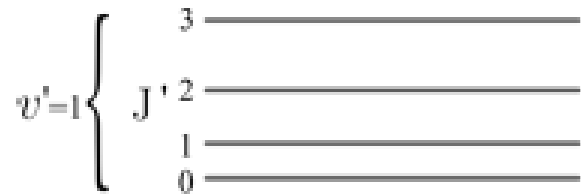
Vibrational band structure



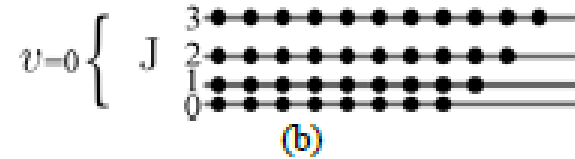
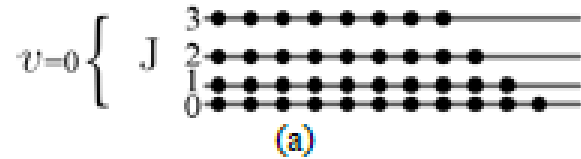
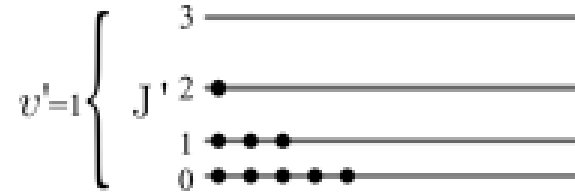
There is essentially no selection rule for vibrational states when undergoing electronic transitions.

Population distributions

T ~ 300 K



T > 1000 K



Vibrational population distributions

The population distribution may generally be written

$$\frac{N_j}{N} = \frac{g_j e^{-\varepsilon_j/kT}}{\sum_j g_j e^{-\varepsilon_j/kT}}$$

(ε_j is the energy of a state j)

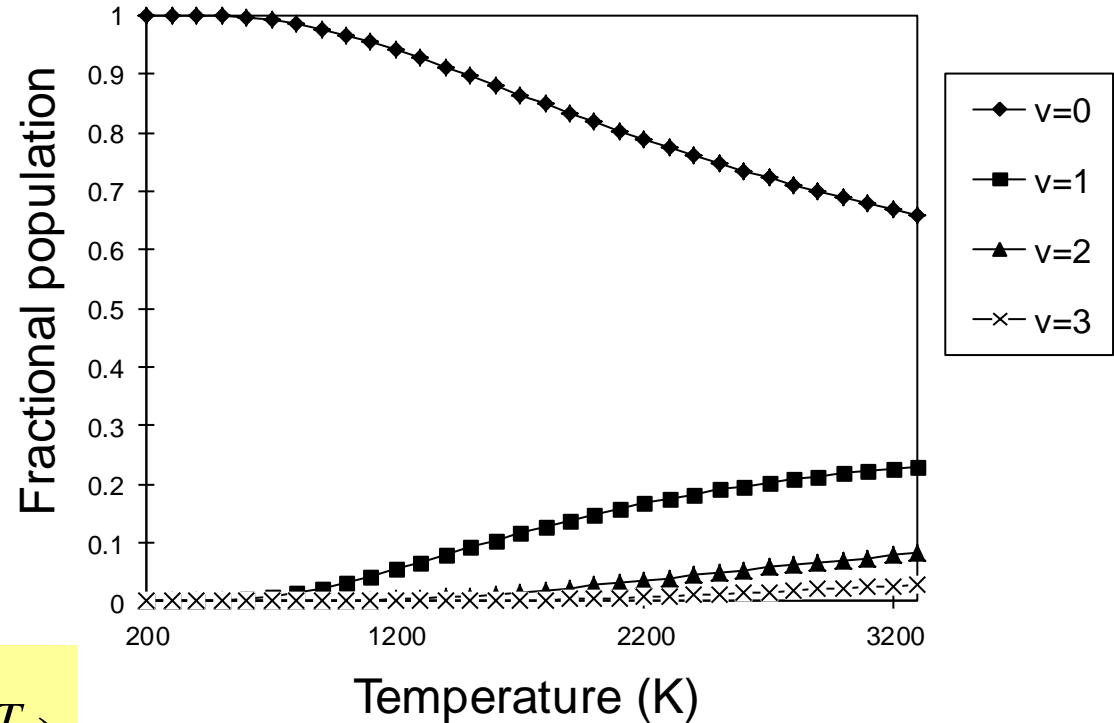
The vibrational population distribution can be written:

$$\frac{N_v}{N} = e^{-vhc\omega_e/kT} (1 - e^{-hc\omega_e/kT})$$

N_v : Population in state v

N: Total population

Population distribution of N₂

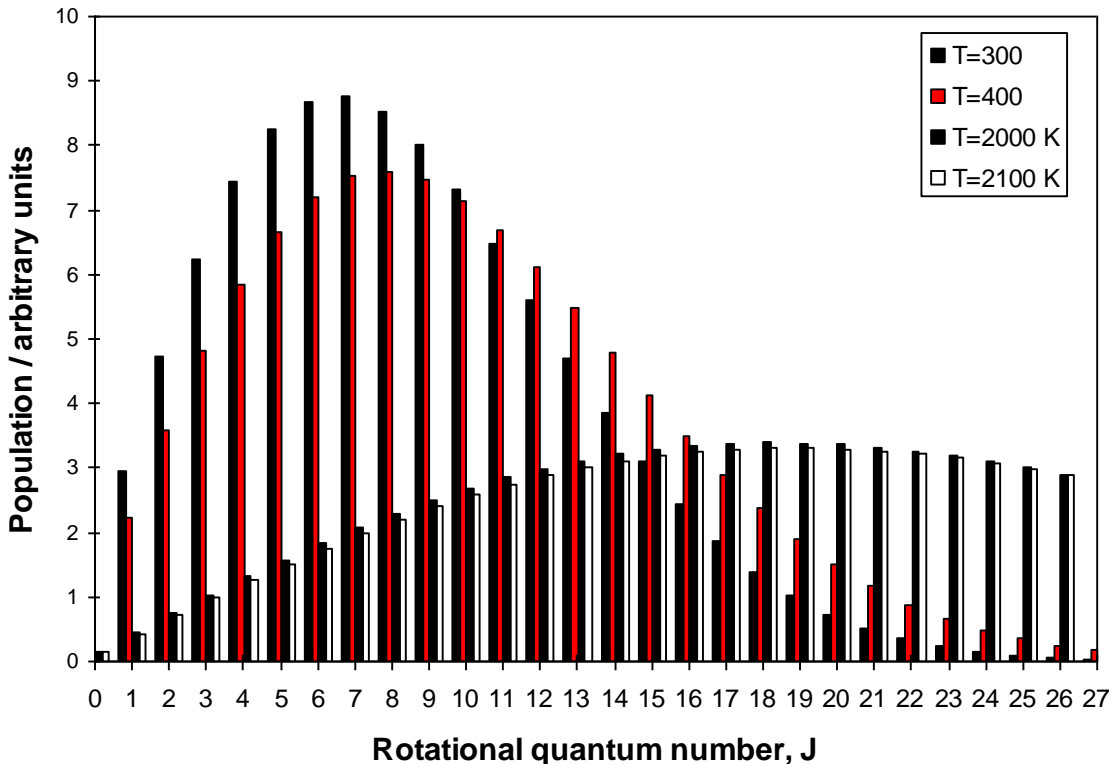


Rotational population distributions

The rotational pop. distribution can be written:

$$\frac{N_J}{N} = \frac{1}{Q_{rot}} (2J + 1) e^{-BJ(J+1)hc/kT}$$

$$Q_{rot} \approx \frac{kT}{hcB}$$



Where is max. population?

$$f(J) = (2J + 1) e^{-BJ(J+1)hc/kT}$$

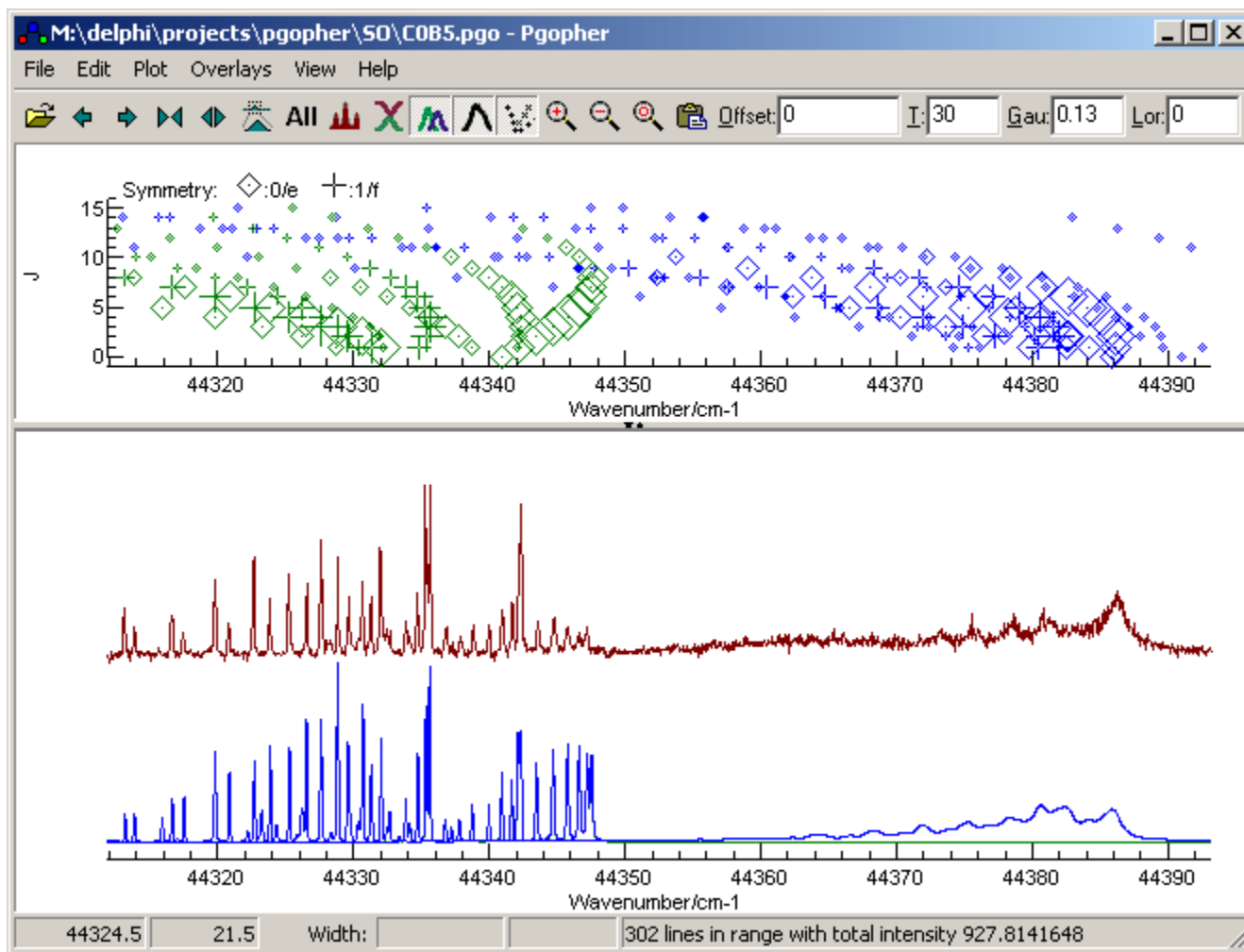
$$\frac{\partial f(J)}{\partial J} = 0 \Rightarrow$$

$$J_{max} = \sqrt{\frac{kT}{2Bhc}} - \frac{1}{2}$$

Data bases and simulation tools

HITRAN/HITEMP: <http://hitran.org/>

PGOPHER: <http://pgopher.chm.bris.ac.uk/>



PGOPHER, a program for rotational, vibrational and electronic spectra.

The End