

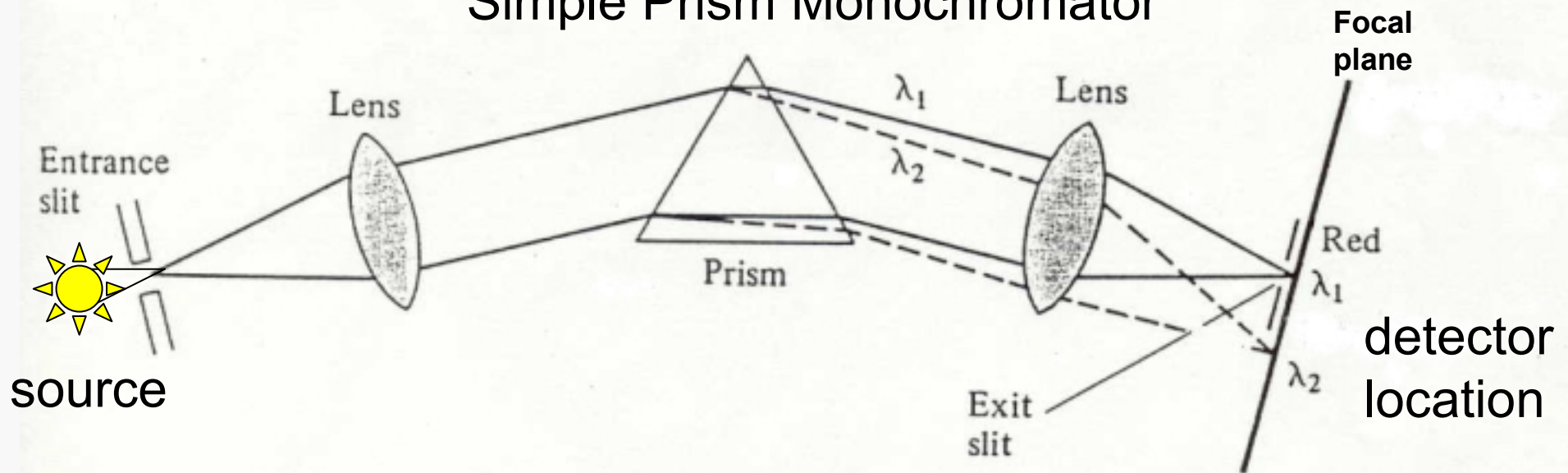
# Skoog – Chapter 7

## Components of Optical Instruments

- General Design of Optical Instruments
- Sources of Radiation
- **Wavelength Selectors (Filters, Monochromators, Interferometers)**
- Sample Containers
- Radiation Transducers (Detectors)
- Signal Processors and Readouts
- Fiber Optics

## II) MONOCHROMATORS

### Simple Prism Monochromator



**Entrance slit** allows source radiation to illuminate the first lens which collimates the light spreading it across the face of the **prism**. Prism disperses radiation into component wavelengths and the second lens focuses the spectrum at the **focal plane**. An **exit slit** selects the band of radiation to reach the detector. Dispersing element can be a **prism** or a **diffraction grating**. Focusing elements can be **lenses** or **mirrors**.

- Optical Materials – need optically transparent materials for lenses, prisms & sample cells
- In visible region – can use glass down to 350 nm
- In the UV region – quartz is material of choice
- In the IR region – NaCl, KBr, etc. The heavier the atoms of the salt, the farther into the IR region (i.e., longer  $\lambda$ ) before significant absorption occurs

Problem – sensitivity to moisture

**Resolution** – ability to distinguish as separate, nearly identical frequencies; measured in terms of closest frequencies  $\Delta\nu$  in a spectrum that are distinguishable

$$R = \frac{\nu}{\Delta\nu} \quad \text{or} \quad \frac{\lambda}{\Delta\lambda} \quad (\text{both dimensionless})$$

**Dispersion** – spread of wavelengths in space

Angular Dispersion – angular range  $d\theta$  over

which waveband  $d\lambda$  is spread  $\rightarrow \frac{d\theta}{d\lambda}$  in  $\frac{\text{rad}}{\text{nm}}$

**Linear Dispersion** – distance  $dx$  over which a waveband  $d\lambda$  is spread in the focal plane of a monochromator  $\rightarrow$

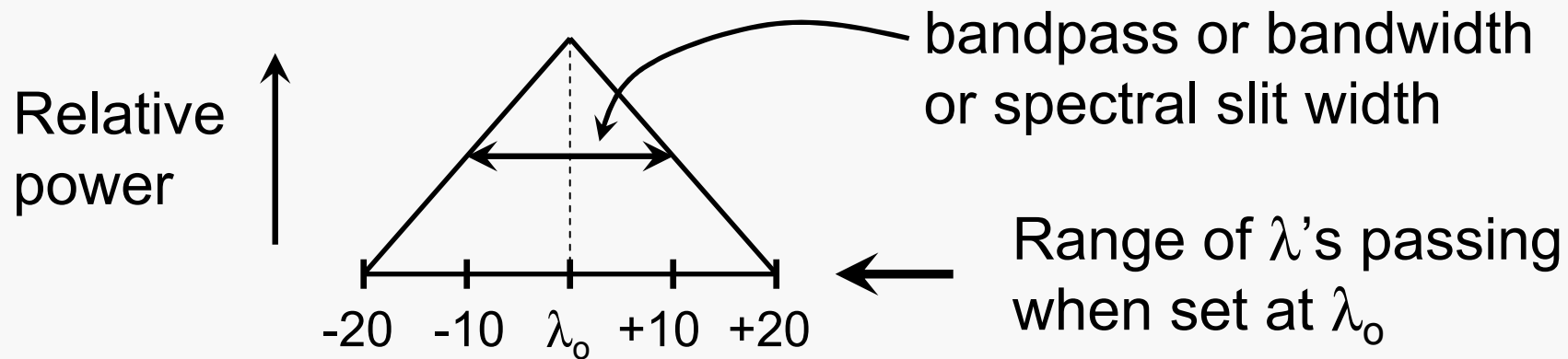
$$\frac{dx}{d\lambda} \quad \text{in} \quad \frac{\text{mm}}{\text{nm}}$$

**Linear Reciprocal Dispersion** – range of  $\lambda$ 's spread over a unit distance in the plane of a monochromator  $\rightarrow$

$$\frac{d\lambda}{dx} \quad \text{in} \quad \frac{\text{nm}}{\text{mm}}$$

Related terms **spectral slit width** or **bandwidth** or **bandpass** = range of  $\lambda$ 's included in a beam of radiation measured at half max intensity

Light exiting a monochromator exit slit has a triangular distribution



**Optical Efficiency** = throughput x resolution

Good criterion for comparing optical systems

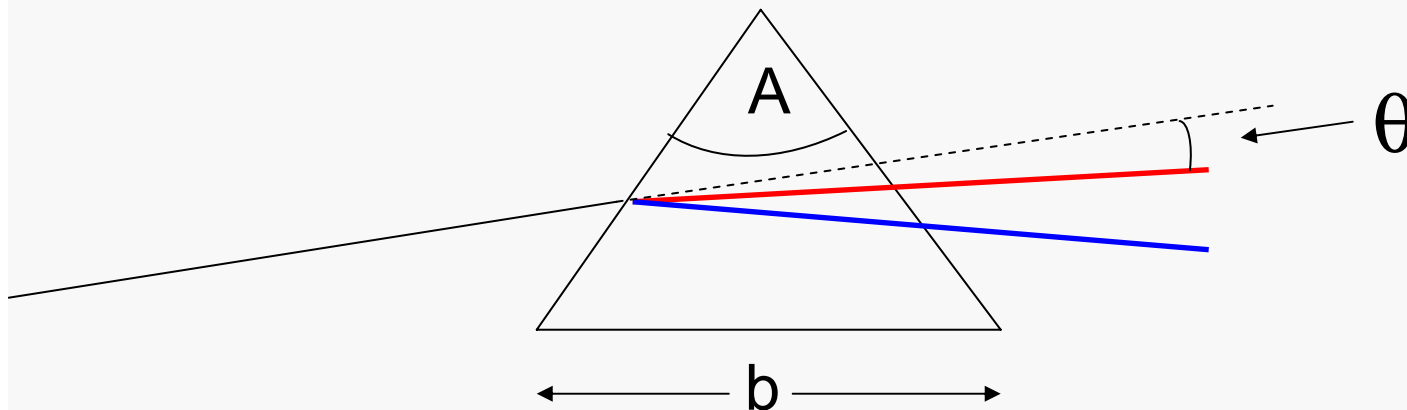
Prism Monochromator < Grating Monochromator < Interferometer

# Dispersion Devices

## 1) Prisms

A = apical angle

b = base length



Light bends due to  $\eta$        $\eta = f(\lambda)$

function of  
prism design  
(i.e. angle A)

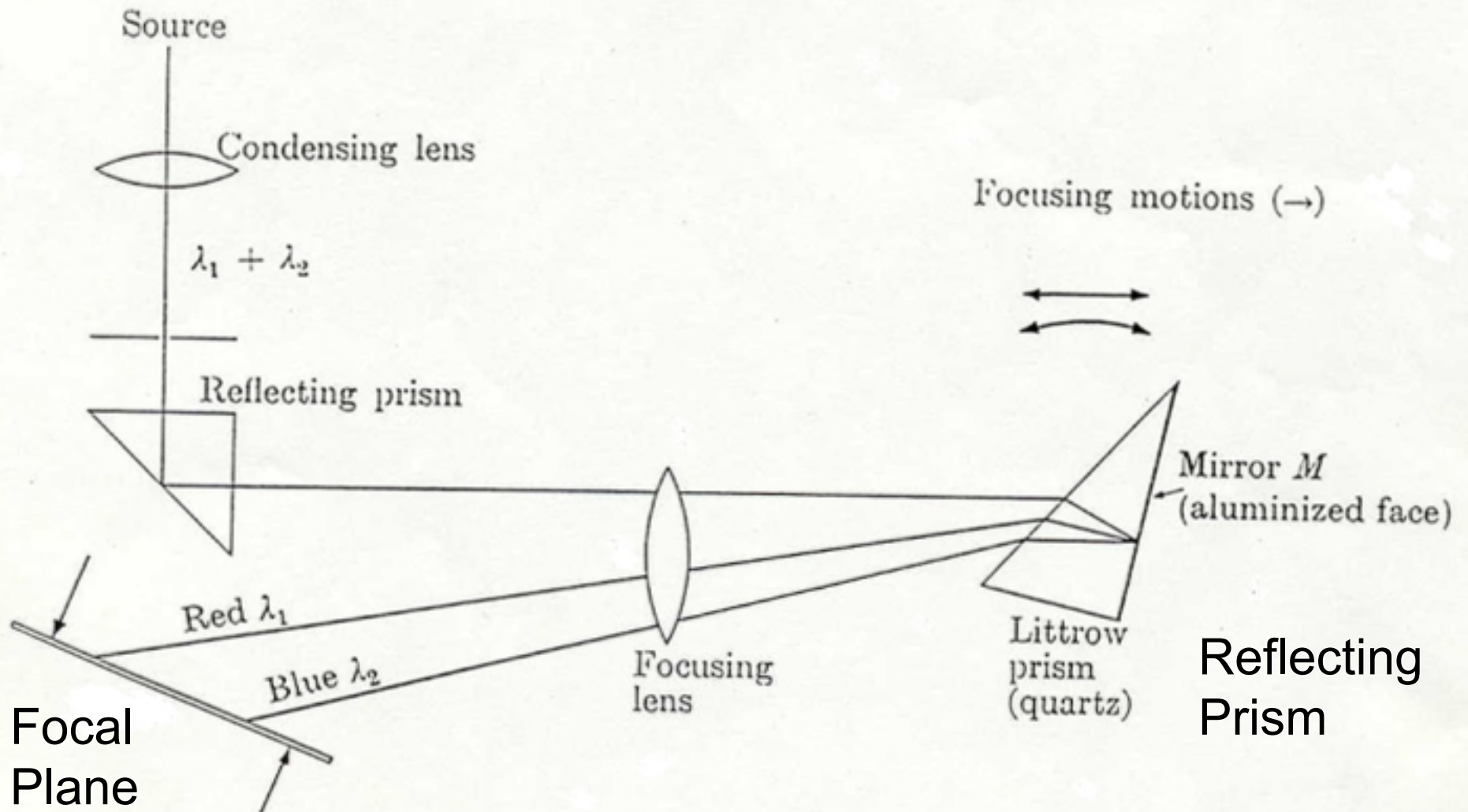
Angular Dispersion =  $\frac{d\theta}{d\lambda} = \frac{d\theta}{d\eta} \times \frac{d\eta}{d\lambda}$

function of prism material

Angle changes with  $\lambda \rightarrow$  the larger the better

# Kinds of Prisms

## Littrow Prism & Mounting – compact design

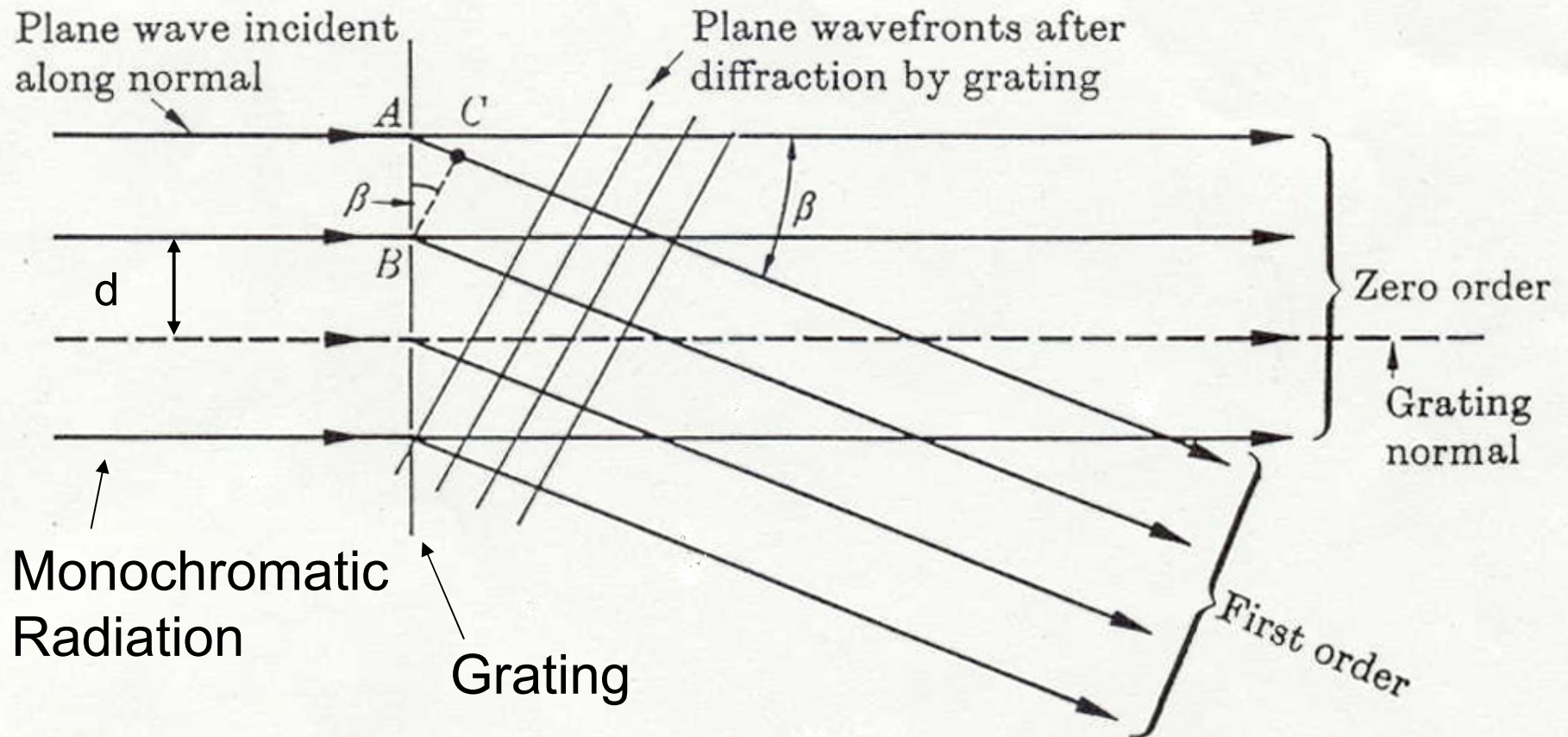




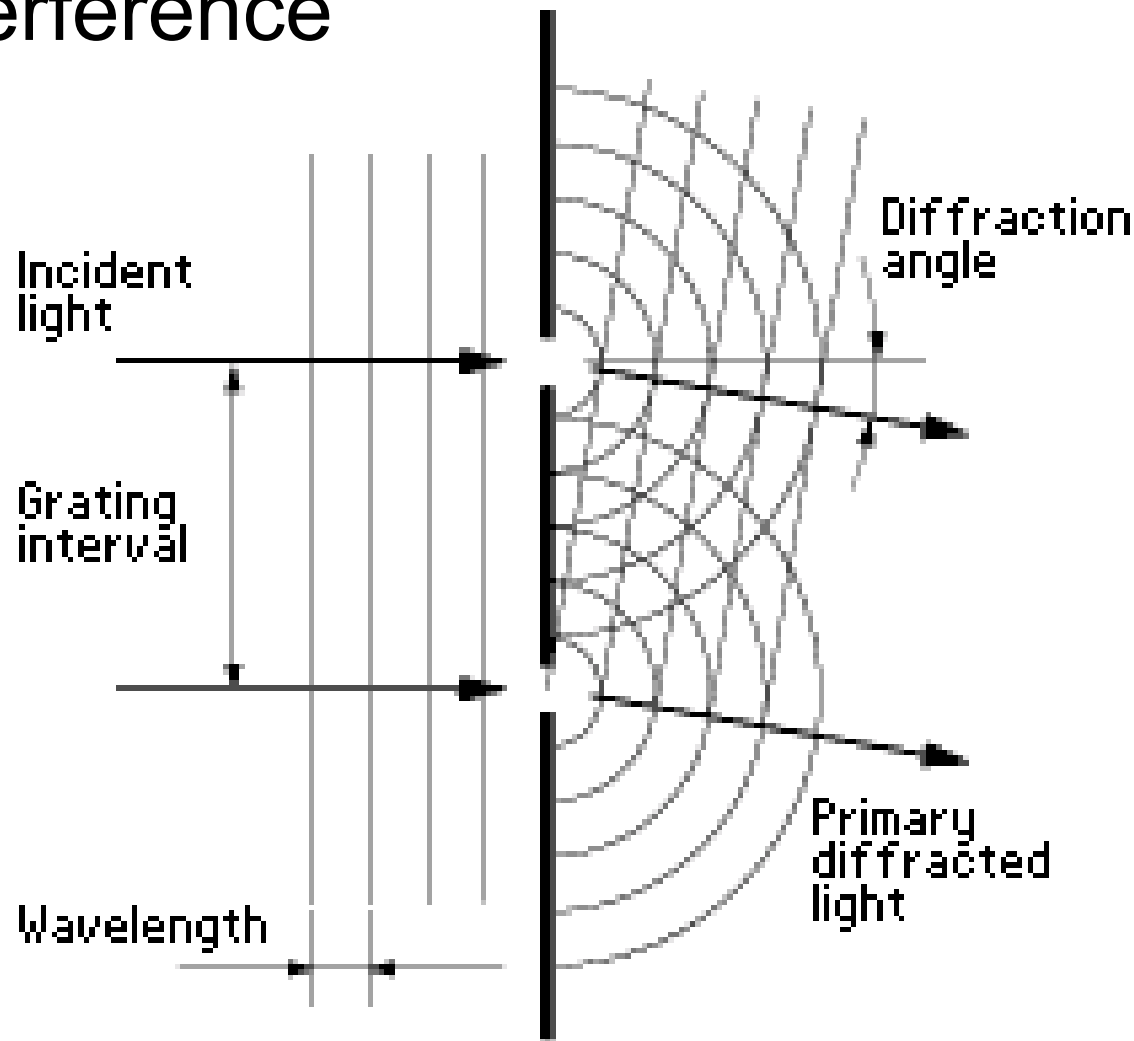
# Gratings – based on diffraction & interference

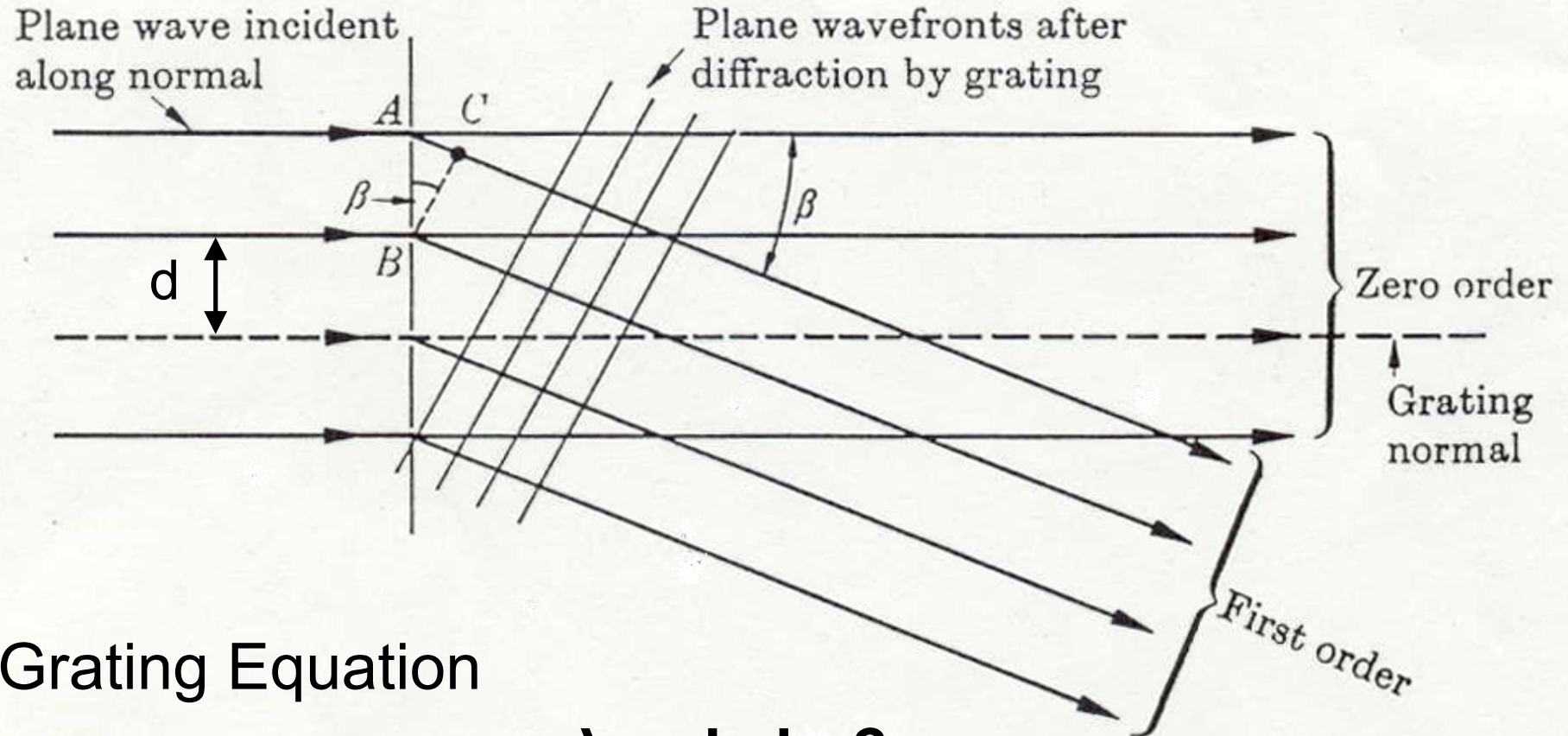
## Transmission Gratings & Reflection Gratings

consist of a series of grooves in glass or quartz or a mirror (usual kind)



# Gratings work on the principles of diffraction & interference





Grating Equation

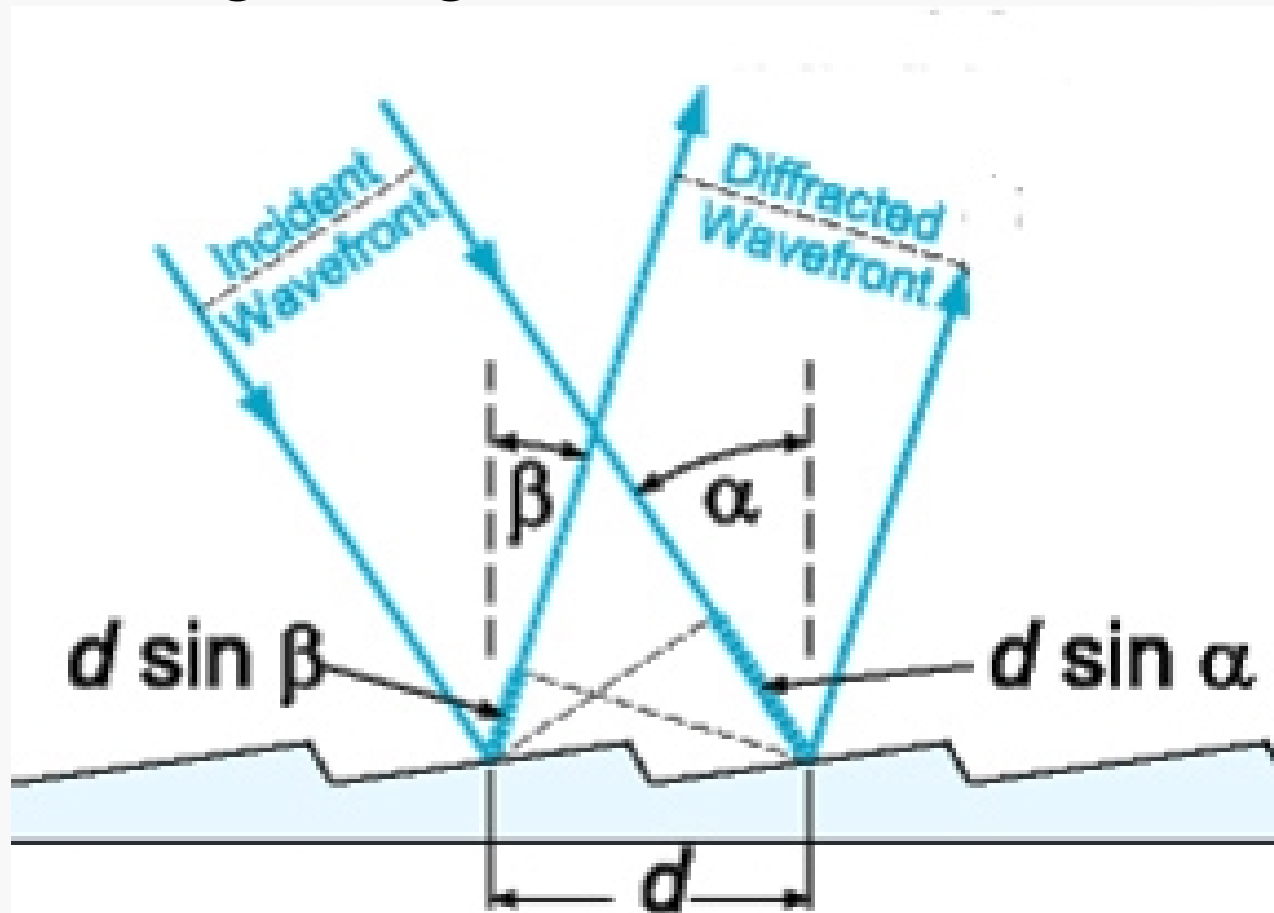
$$m \lambda = d \sin \beta$$

Condition for constructive interference

$AC = \text{extra distance light travels for first order} = d \sin \beta$

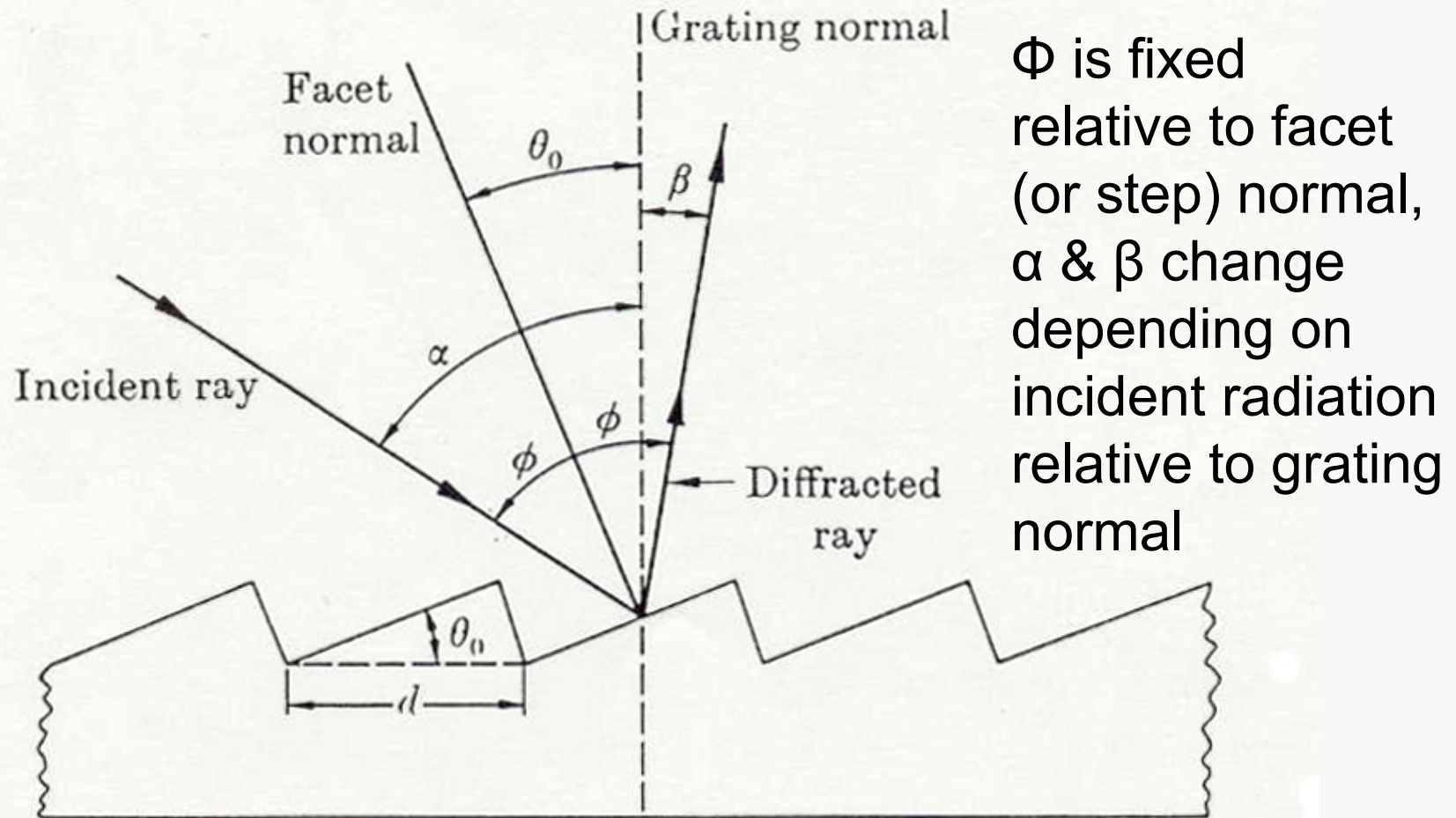
For higher orders the distance gets longer

# Reflection grating with non-normal incidence



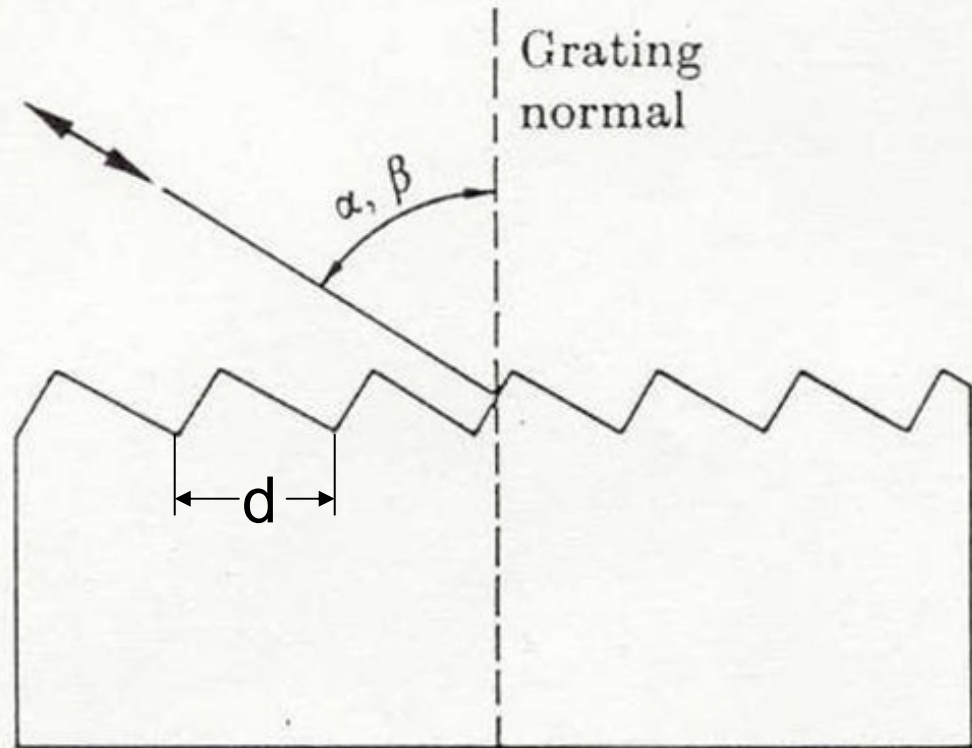
$$m\lambda = d (\sin \alpha \pm \sin \beta)$$

# Reflection grating with non-normal incidence (another view)

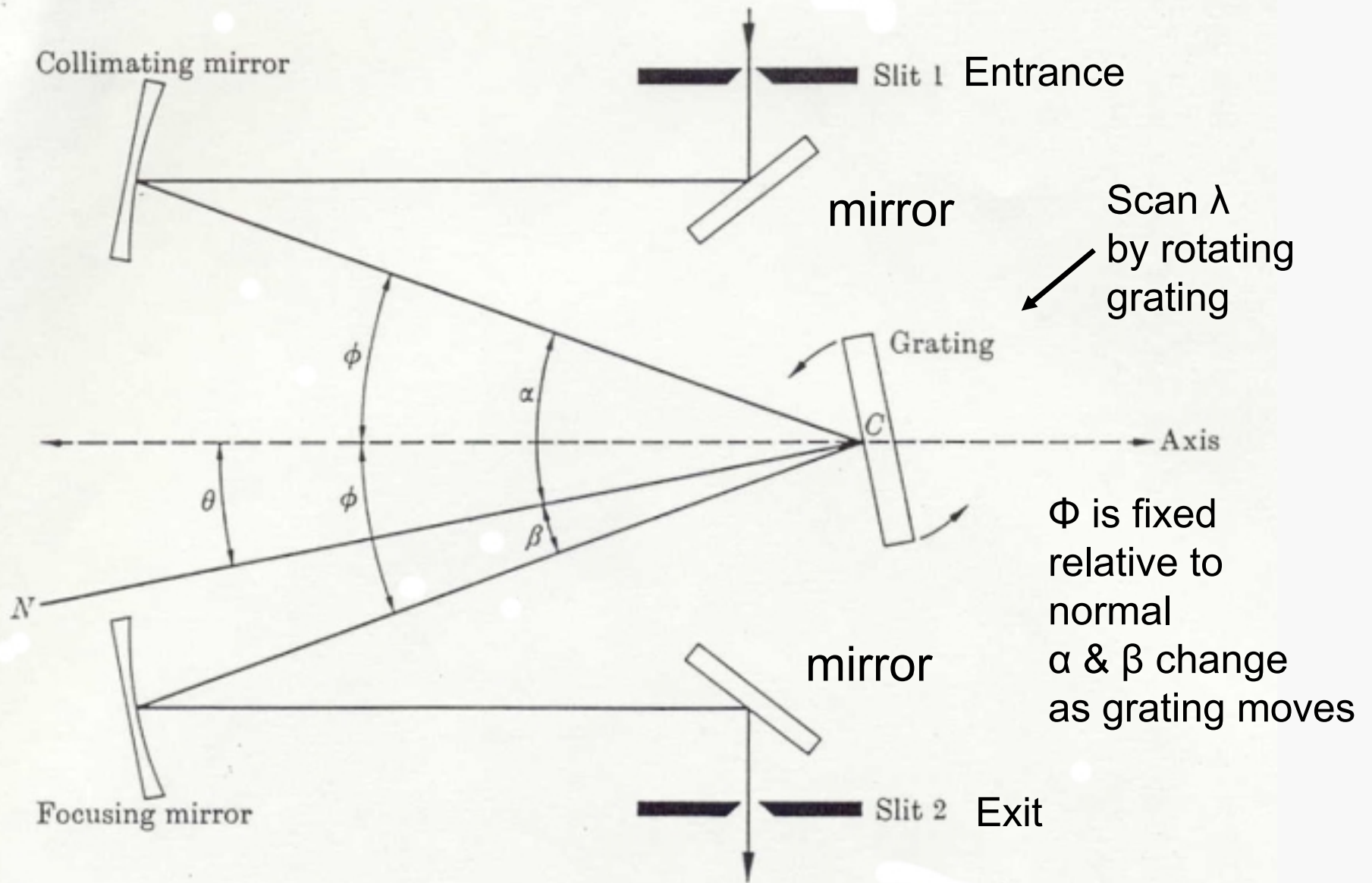


Efficiency is maximum for situation where diffracted ray & specularly reflected ray coincide = blaze wavelength =  $\lambda_B = \lambda$  of maximum efficiency

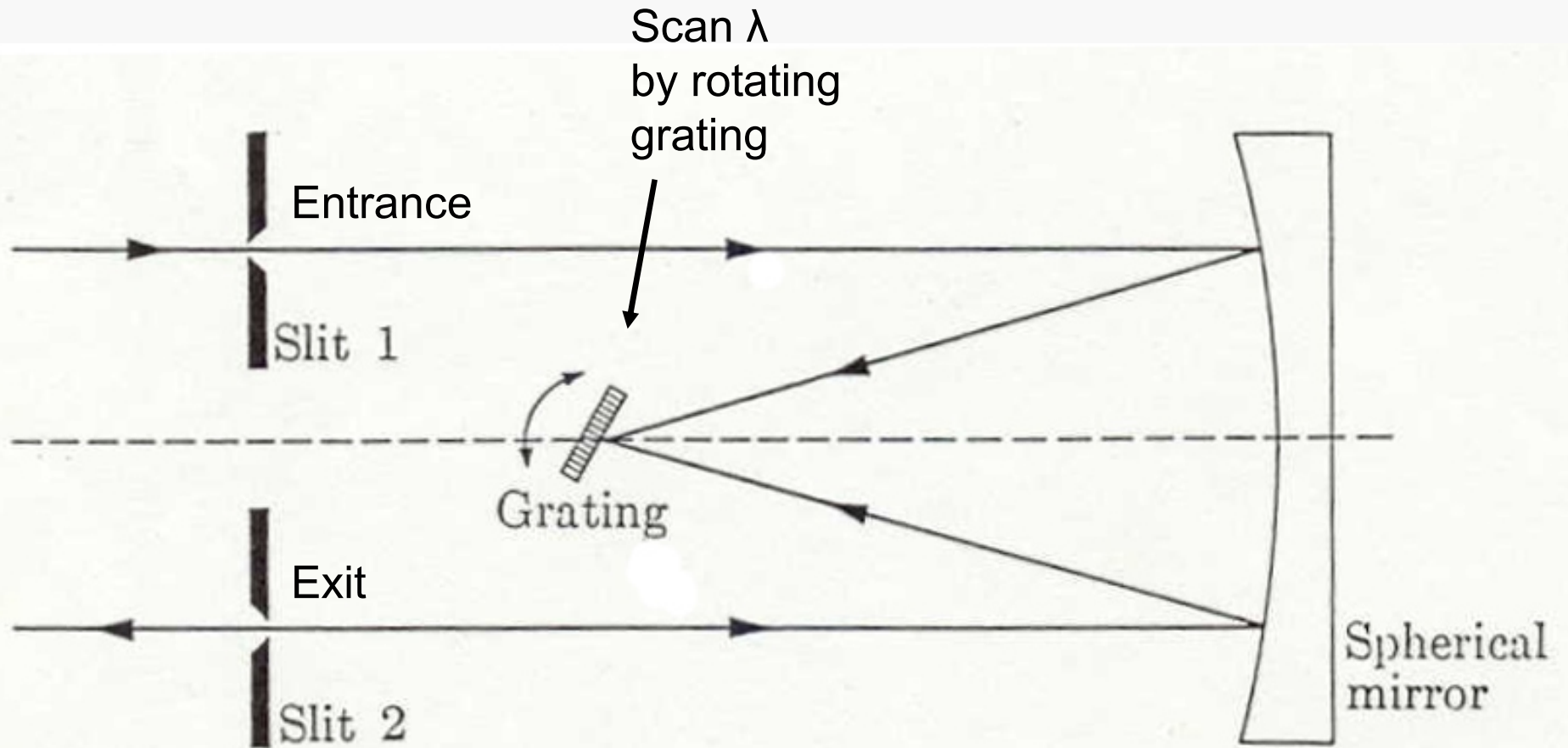
An Echelle type reflection grating has a coarse ruling (i.e. large  $d$ ) and produces good spectral efficiency in higher orders making very high resolution possible



# Mountings for Gratings – Czerny-Turner



# Mountings for Gratings – Ebert Mounting





Littrow mounting is the same as for prism  
except use grating in place of prism

Grating Characteristics – Resolution &  
Dispersion are very high for a long, finely  
ruled grating

Resolution (theoretical)

$$R = m N$$

order  
↙

number of  
rulings  
illuminated  
↘

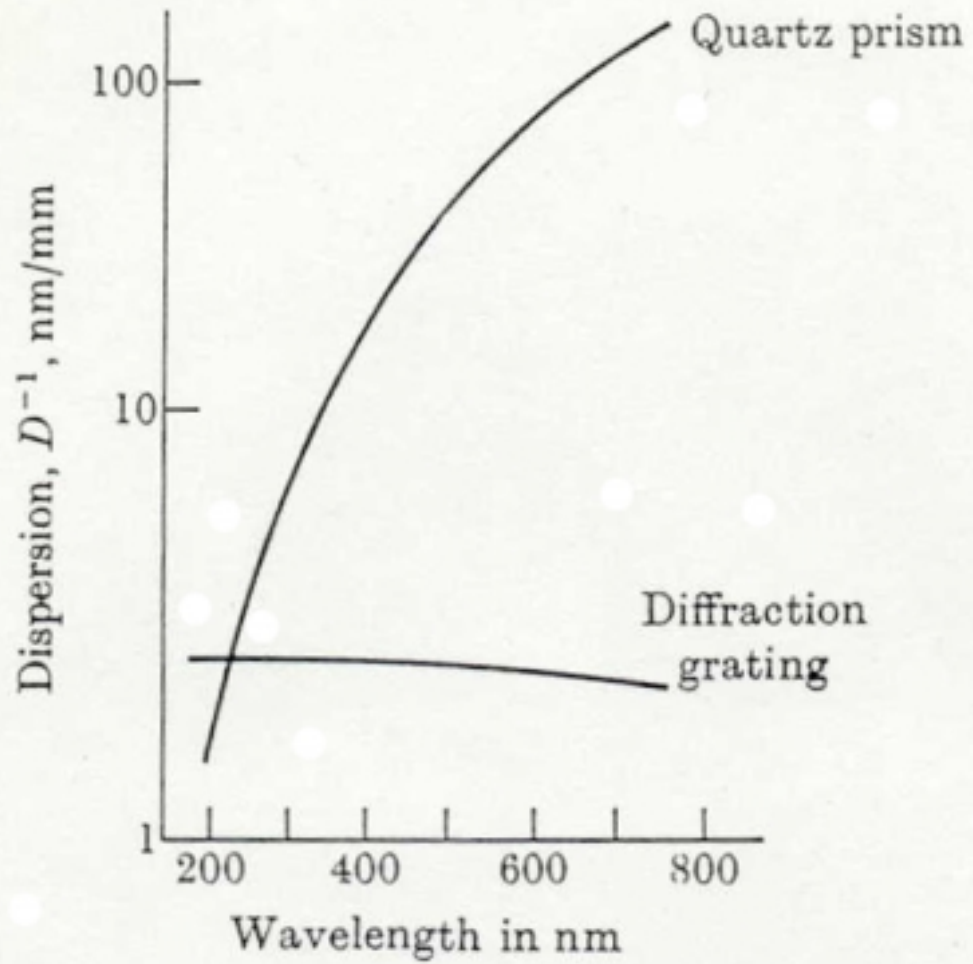
Combine with grating equation (given previously)

$$R = W (\sin \beta) / \lambda$$

where  $W$  (length of ruled area) =  $N d$

\*\*\*The length of ruled area is important\*\*\*

Dispersion - almost constant with wavelength for grating (an advantage over prisms)



Don't have to change slits to get constant bandpass across spectrum

## Disadvantages of gratings relative to prisms:

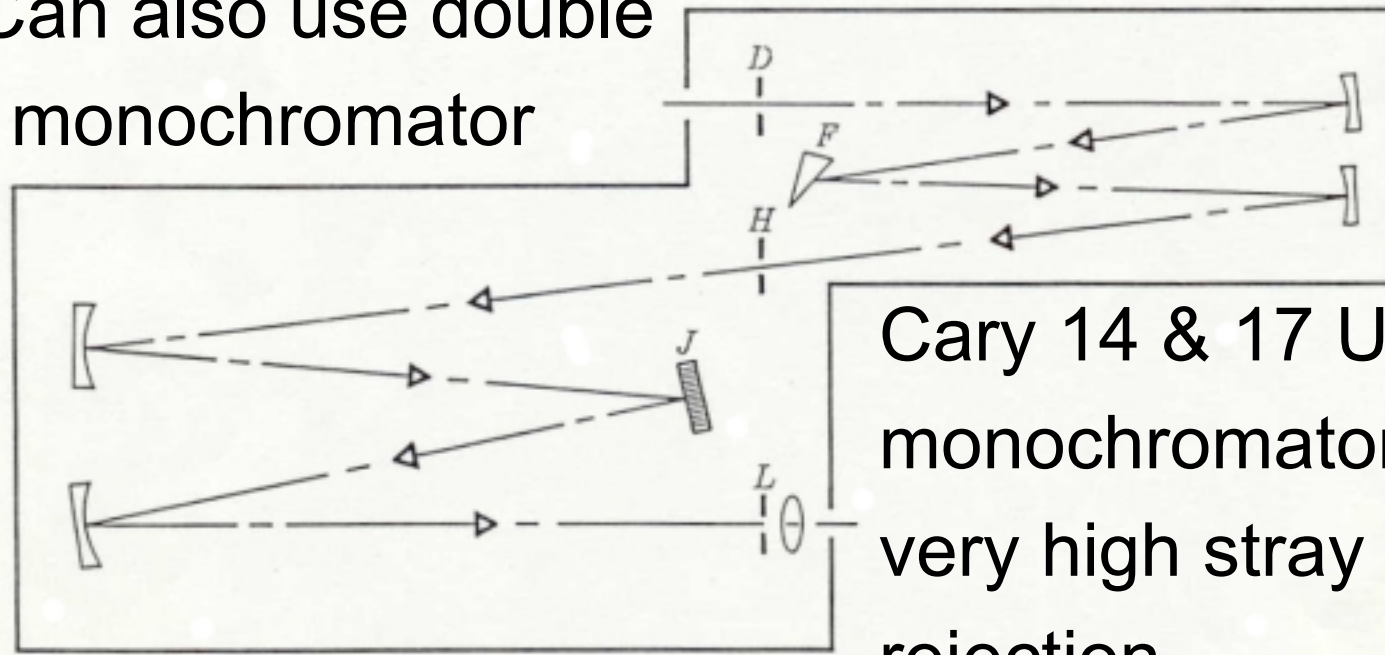
- 1) they are less rugged
- 2) they generate slightly more scattered light which is stray light → radiation present at unwanted orders
- 3) order overlap → multiples of  $\lambda$  present

## Stray Radiation sources:

- 1) Diffracted from grating at unwanted angle
- 2) Diffracted from slit edges
- 3) Reflected from interior surfaces of filters, lenses, prisms & other components of system
- 4) Scattered by imperfections in optical components

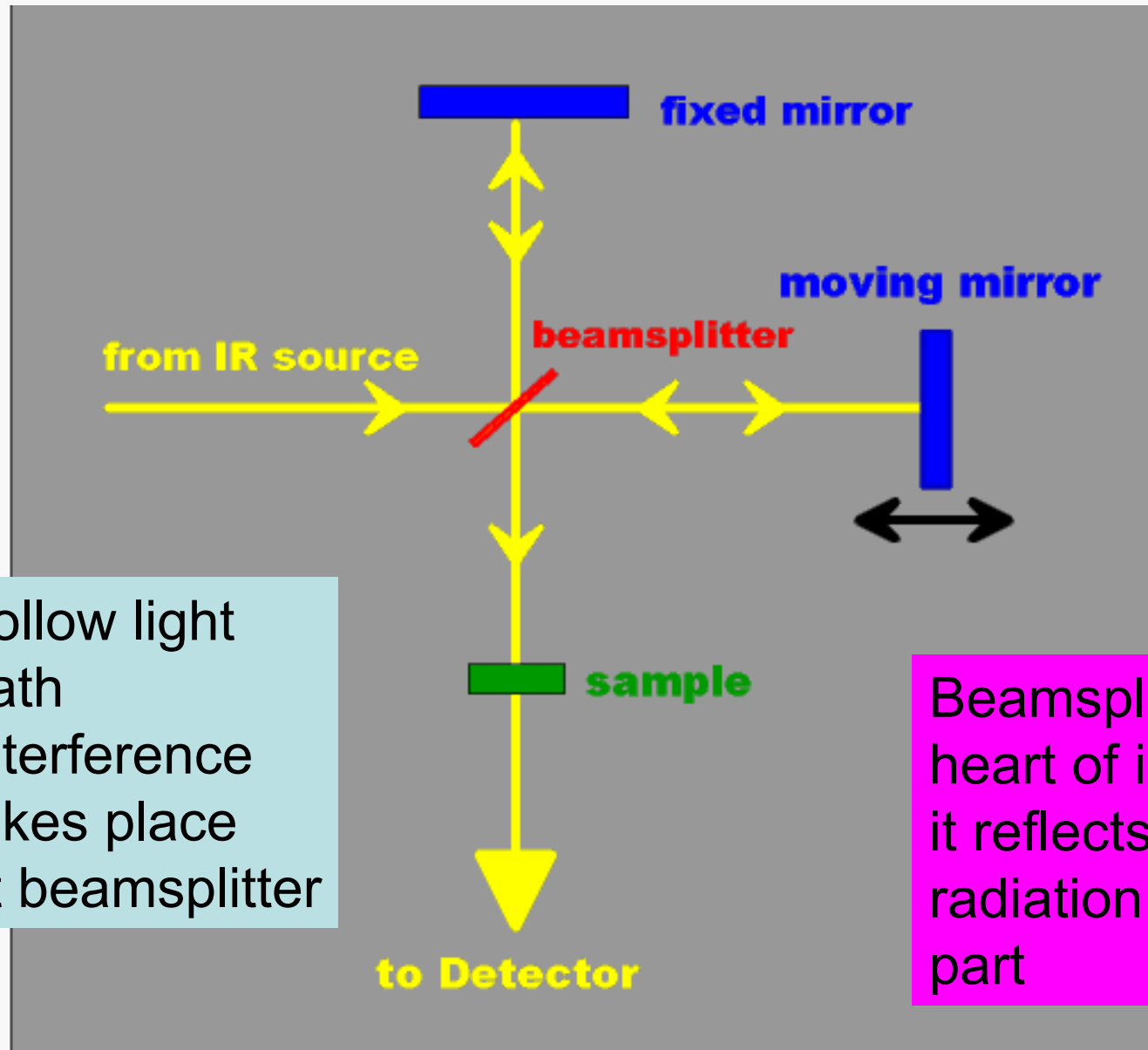
## Methods of reducing stray light:

- 1) Paint interior black
- 2) Use baffles to obstruct stray radiation
- 3) Use high quality components
- 4) Keep out dust and fumes
- 5) Can also use double



Cary 14 & 17 UV-vis  
monochromator with  
very high stray light  
rejection

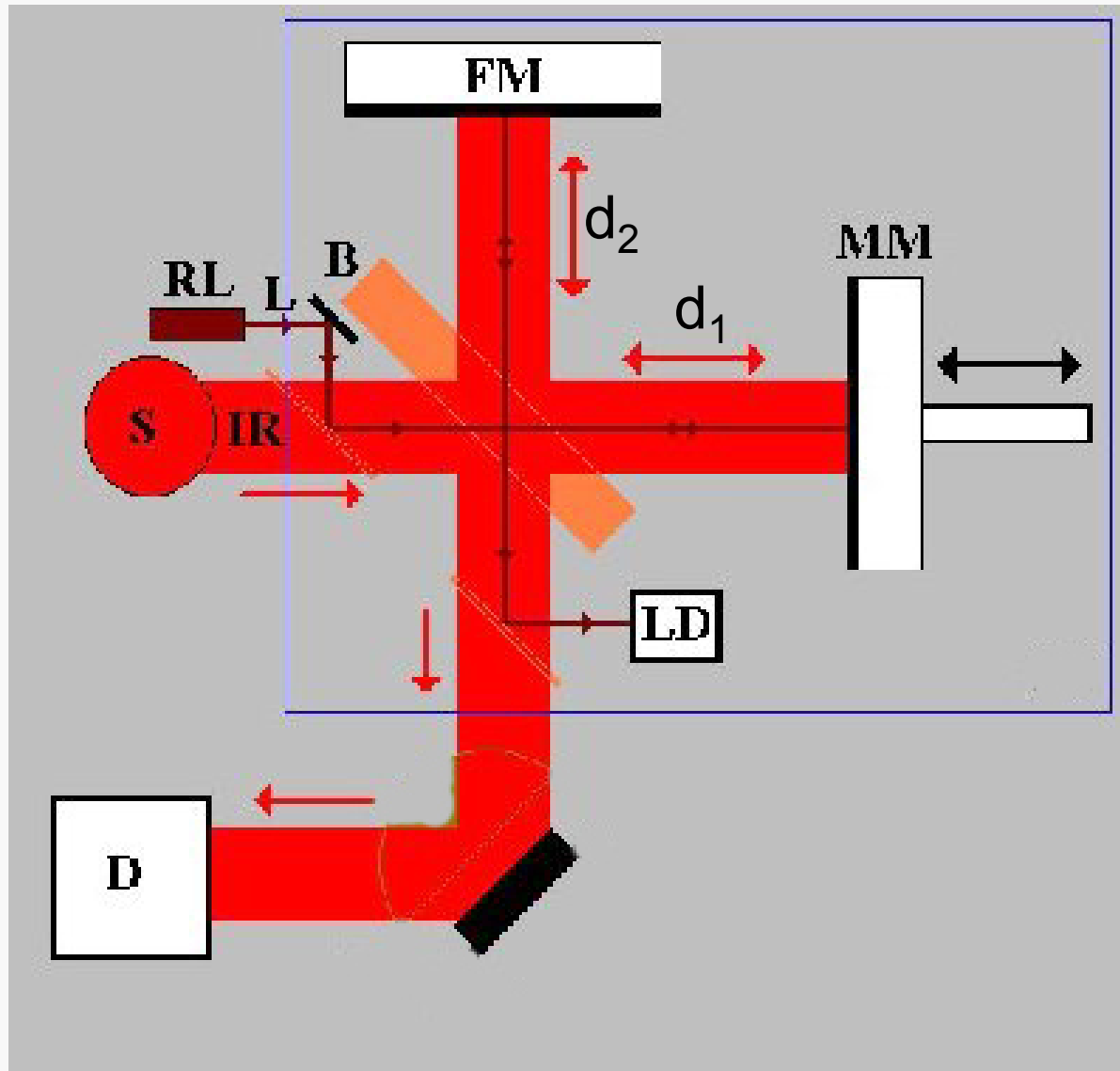
# Basic diagram of a Michelson Interferometer



Follow light path  
Interference takes place at beamsplitter

Beamsplitter is at the heart of interferometer, it reflects part of the radiation & transmits part

# Michaelson Interferometer as commonly used in an FTIR



Where:

S = IR source

IR = infrared beam

D = detector

B = beamsplitter

FM = fixed mirror

MM = moving mirror

RL = reference laser

L = laser beam

LD = laser detector

$d_1$  = distance to  
moving mirror

$d_2$  = distance to  
fixed mirror

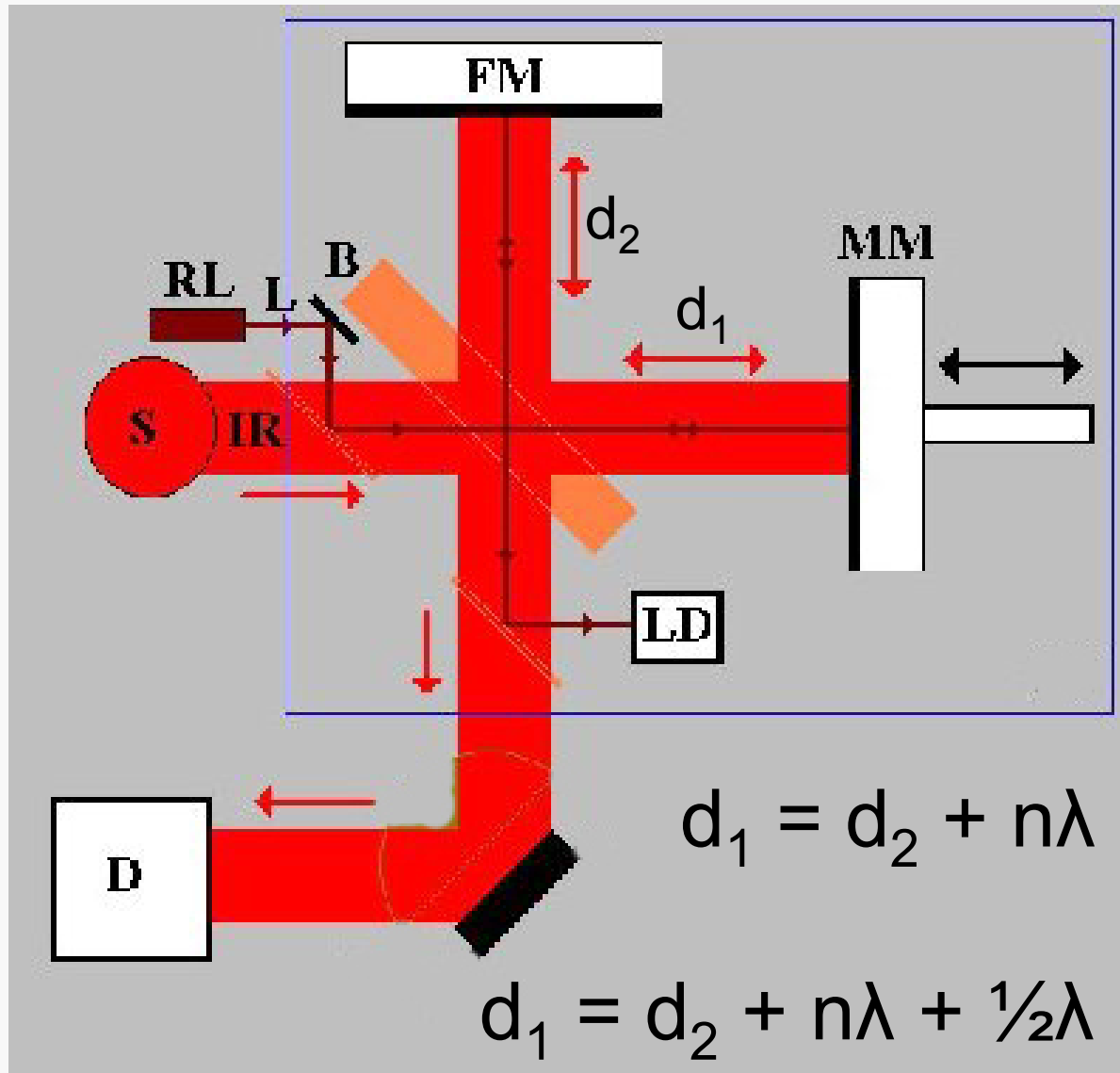
Interferometers have no slits so a wide beam of radiation can be used

Assuming monochromatic radiation

$d_1 = d_2 + n\lambda \rightarrow$  for constructive interference

$d_1 = d_2 + n\lambda + \frac{1}{2}\lambda \rightarrow$  destructive interference

# Michaelson Interferometer as commonly used in an FTIR



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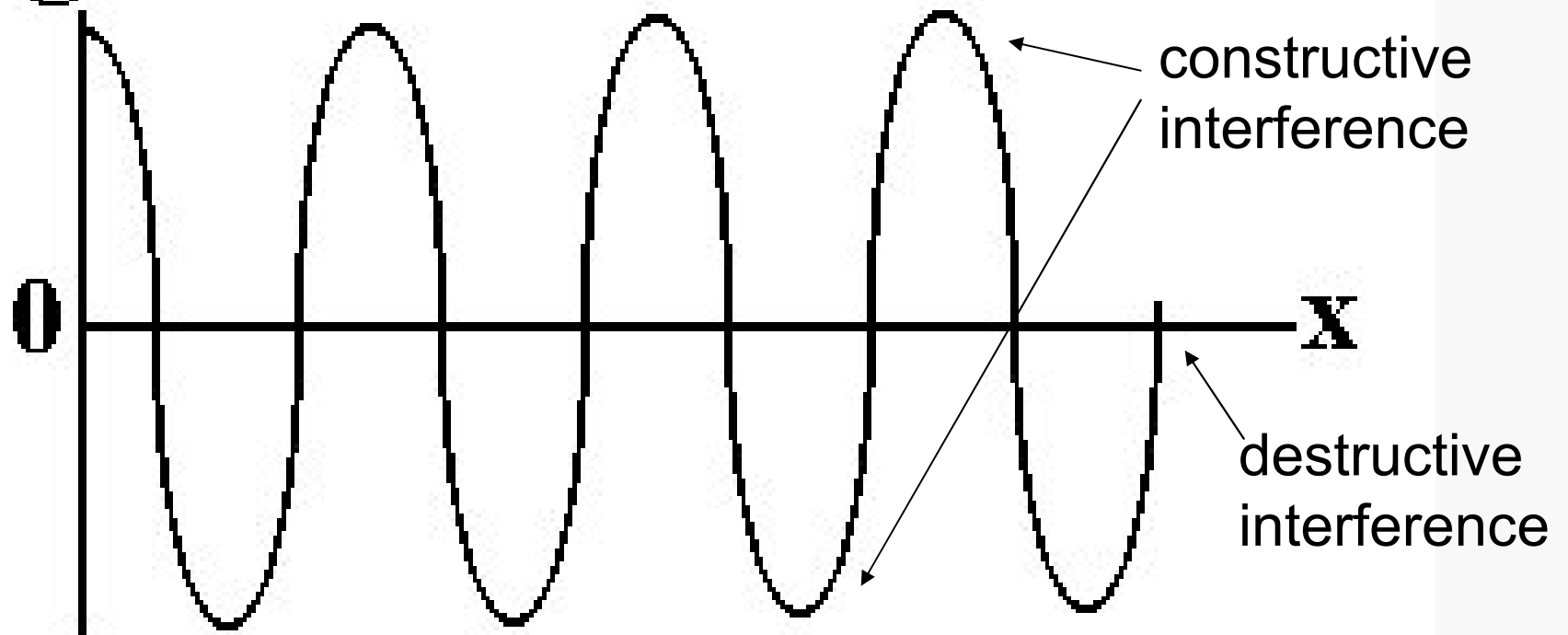
$d_1$  = distance to moving mirror

$d_2$  = distance to fixed mirror



# Reference laser signal as it passes through the interferometer

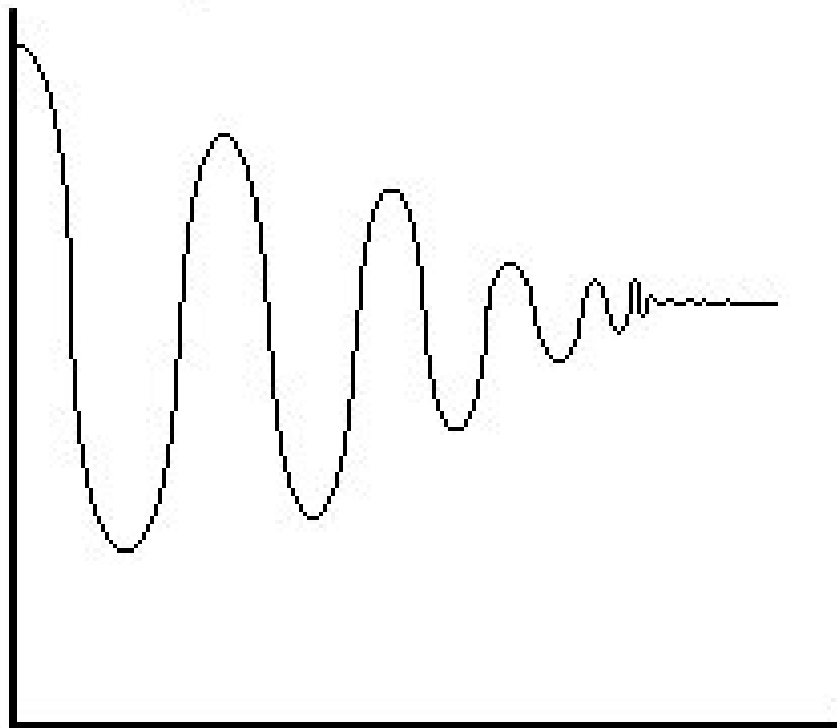
**Signal**



This allows the position of the moving mirror to be determined accurately

Interferogram is a plot of energy vs mirror displacement from zero (i.e.  $d_1 = d_2$ )

**Intensity**



**Retardation, x**

This is for  
polychromatic  
radiation

Mechanical specifications for mirror movement are very exacting → gets worse as  $\lambda$  gets shorter, therefore interferometers are used in the IR region but are not very feasible in the visible and UV regions

Extracting a conventional spectrum (i.e.  $I$  vs  $\lambda$ ) from interferogram involves the complex mathematics of the Fourier integral also known as Fourier Transform → need computer to do calculations

## Advantages of Interferometers:

- 1) Energy throughput is much greater than for monochromators → better signal to noise ratio because there are no slits – this is particularly important in IR where the sources are relatively weak
- 2) Multiplex Advantage – all signals are viewed simultaneously

Disadvantage: Mechanical tolerance for mirror movement is severe – can't do interferometry in the UV-vis region,  $\lambda$  too short

# DETECTORS

Important characteristics:

- 1) Wavelength response
- 2) Quantum response – how light is detected
- 3) Sensitivity
- 4) Frequency of response (response time)
- 5) Stability
- 6) Cost
- 7) convenience