# $\frac{\textbf{Reflection}}{\textbf{two media differing in } \eta \text{ and bounces back}}$



Specular reflection = situation where angle of incidence ( $\theta_i$ ) equals angle of reflection ( $\theta_r$ )

Reflectance = R = 
$$\frac{I_r}{I_i}$$
 =  $\frac{(\eta_2 - \eta_1)^2}{(\eta_2 + \eta_1)^2}$ 

Where  $I_i$  and  $I_r$  = incident & reflected intensity

For radiation going from air ( $\eta = 1.00$ ) to glass ( $\eta = 1.50$ ) as shown in previous slide

$$R = 0.04 = 4\%$$

Many surfaces at 4 % each (i.e., many lenses) can cause serious light losses in a spectrometer. This generates <u>stray radiation</u> or <u>stray light</u>.

#### Reflectance varies with the angle of incidence



### EM going from glass ( $\eta = 1.50$ ) to air ( $\eta = 1.00$ )









## Polarization

EM is said to be unpolarized if its electric vectors and magnetic vectors occur with equal amplitude in all direction



Linearly polarized light oscillates in one plane only as it moves through space



## Linearly polarized light oscillates in one plane only as it moves through space



<u>Circularly polarized</u> light rotates in either a left handed or right handed spiral as it moves through space



Combining equal beams where one is right circularly polarized and the other left, results in linearly polarized radiation

Polarization is particularly important for studying optically active materials using

- Optical Rotatory Dispersion (ORD)
- Circular Dichroism (CD)
- Fluorescence Polarization

## **Absorption and Emission**

- Two most interesting and most useful processes when EM interacts with matter
- Atoms and molecules can exist in many possible energy states

Consider two states





 $\Delta E = E_2 - E_1 = hv$ 

Where  $E_1 \& E_2$  are energies of states & h is Planck's constant v is the frequency Have to consider particle nature of EM for absorption – consider EM to be a bundle of photons with energy hv

The rate of absorption or emission depends on:

- 1) Number of atoms/molecules in initial state
- 2) Probability that is characteristic of the particular transition
- 3) Radiation density



2) Spontaneous Emission – goes back down



3) Stimulated Emission - photon strikes state 2 causing it to emit

$$\frac{dN}{dt} = N_2 B_{21} \rho(v)$$

Relationship between probability coefficients

Absorption 
$$B_{12} = B_{21}$$
 Stimulated Emission  
 $A_{21} = 8 \pi h \sigma^3 B_{12}$ 

Boltzmann Distribution – relative population of states 1 & 2 is dependent on energy difference and temperature at equilibrium

$$\frac{N_1}{N_2} = \frac{e^{-E_1/kT}}{e^{-E_2/kT}}$$

K = Boltzmann's constant (8.62 x 10<sup>-5</sup> eV/°K)

T = absolute temperature (298 °K = 25 °C)

An additional term is add to the right side of the equation if there is more than one state with the same energy = degeneracy

#### **Energy Separation and Relative Population of States**

Type of				Population
Transition	Energy of Transition			Ratio N <sub>2</sub> /N <sub>1</sub>
	cm⁻¹	eV	kJ/mol	at 25 °C
Electronic	20,000	2.6	240	10-41
Vibrational	1,000	0.12	12	10-2
Rotational	10	1.2 x 10 <sup>-3</sup>	0.12	0.95
Electron Spin	0.1	1.2 x 10 <sup>-5</sup>	1.2 x 10 <sup>-3</sup>	0.9995
Nuclear Spin	1 x 10 <sup>-3</sup>	1.2 x 10 <sup>-7</sup>	1.2 x 10 <sup>-5</sup>	0.999995



Quantitative Aspects of Absoption Beer-Lambert Law (or Beer's Law) molar absorptivity Absorbance  $A = \log \frac{I_o}{I_o} = \epsilon b C \leftarrow \text{concentration}$ path length Transmittance = -----I<sub>o</sub>  $\%T = T \times 100$ 

 $I_{o}$  = measured source intensity

I = measured intensity after absorption

Intensity change does not change absorbance

Effects other than absorption that reduce source intensity (i.e., scattering, reflection) may also be measured as absorbance and must be accounted for when measuring I & I<sub>o</sub>



- Absorbance & Transmittance are unitless
- If C is mol/L & b is in cm then  $\epsilon$  is L/mol-cm
- To minimize the effect of light loses from reflection the procedure followed in UV-vis spectrophotometry is to measure I<sub>o</sub> with a reference blank of pure solvent in the light path & then measure I under the same conditions – cuvettes should be optically matched if using 2 & clean, free of scratches, lint, fingerprints, etc.

Beer's Law applies to all absorption processes

Assumptions made in deriving Beer's Law:

 Only interaction between radiation (light) and the absorber (sample) is absorption. This breaks down if reflection and scattering are not compensated for. Also breaks down if the absorbed radiation is reemitted as fluorescence (not normally a problem) or if stray light in the instrument reaches detector Assumptions made in deriving Beer's Law:

2) Monochromatic radiation – in reality this condition is only approximated, instrument measures a narrow band of radiation

 $\epsilon$  varies with  $\lambda$  so the best place to measure A is at 1 where A is nearly constant with  $\lambda$ 

Measurements at 2 suffer from the variation in  $\varepsilon$  over the bandwidth



Assumptions made in deriving Beer's Law:

 Pathlength is the same over the volume being measured – this becomes a problem with round cells

 λ varies across the bandwidth so some wavelengths pass through more solution than others (b varies)

The consequence is the same as for polychromatic radiation = curved response



Different components of the incident beam are absorbent with different efficiencies  The nature of the absorber does not change with concentration – a variety of effects can cause this assumption to break down, e.g. dimerization, acid-base or complexation equilibria



All of the above mentioned deviations from Beer's Law (or instrumental deviations) are really only deviations in the sense that the experimental conditions deviate from the conditions that have been assumed in deriving Beer's Law

Beer's Law always holds