

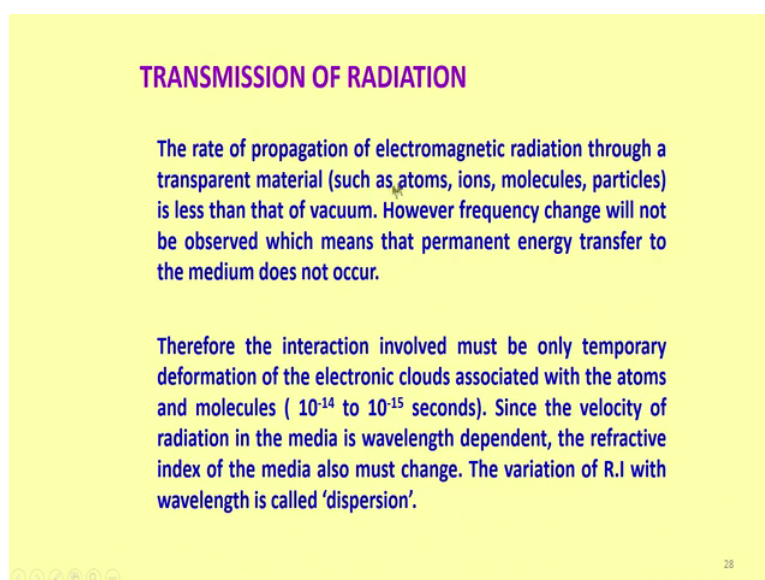
Inductively Coupled Plasma Atomic Emission Spectrometry (ICP-AES) for Pollution Monitoring

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Lecture – 08 **Interaction of EM radiation with matter-I**

So, so far, we have been discussing about the nature of Electromagnetic Radiation. Now, we will study about the typical properties of the electromagnetic radiation that is transmission, diffraction, refraction etcetera.

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TRANSMISSION OF RADIATION

The rate of propagation of electromagnetic radiation through a transparent material (such as atoms, ions, molecules, particles) is less than that of vacuum. However frequency change will not be observed which means that permanent energy transfer to the medium does not occur.

Therefore the interaction involved must be only temporary deformation of the electronic clouds associated with the atoms and molecules (10^{-14} to 10^{-15} seconds). Since the velocity of radiation in the media is wavelength dependent, the refractive index of the media also must change. The variation of R.I with wavelength is called 'dispersion'.

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All these things are important as far as the instrumentation is concerned. That is why I spend lot of time in all my courses to teach about the electromagnetic radiation. So that, whenever any instrument will never be stand alone without reflection, refraction, mirrors concave mirrors and then diffraction, grating and prisms etcetera. So, it is important for us to understand a little bit about the Transmission of the Radiation. So, what we will do is the, spend a little time regarding the different properties of the transmission of the electromagnetic radiation. So, the rate of propagation of the electromagnetic radiation through a transparent material, it can be atoms, ions, molecules, gases, particles etcetera. ok.

So, the rate of propagation is less than that of the vacuum. Why? because in vacuum there is nothing to stop whereas, any group of any type of matter that is atoms, ions, molecules they offer some kind of resistance for the flow of the electromagnetic radiation. So, there will be some type of interaction also. So, there will not be any change in the frequency, but the permanent energy transferred to the medium does not occur. So, this is a very important concept again.

So, whenever I pass the electromagnetic radiation through these things, there will not be any permanent energy transferred to the matter. Therefore, the interaction involved must be only temporary deformation of the electronic cloud associated with the atoms and molecules. So, the time frame during which such interactions occur is of the order of about 10^{-14} to 10^{-15} seconds. Since the velocity of the radiation in the media is wavelength dependent, the refractive index also must change. So, the variation of refractive index with wavelength, we call it 'dispersion' ok.

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Dispersion is a complex phenomena. Dispersion curves usually show two regions. Normal dispersion in which there is a gradual increase in refractive index with increasing frequency. Anomalous dispersion occurs at frequencies in which sharp changes occur coinciding with natural harmonic frequency of some part of a molecule, atom or ion leading to the absorption of the beam.

In spectroscopy, dispersion curves are important for optical components such as lenses. Most suitable components for the manufacture of lenses are those in which refractive index should be high and constant. This results in reduced chromatic aberrations.

For the fabrication of prisms refractive index should be large but also highly frequency dependent.

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So, what is a Dispersion? Dispersion is basically a very complex phenomenon. It occurs usually show 2 reasons. One is in which the normal dispersion that is there is a gradual increase in the refractive index of the material as the electromagnetic radiation passes through the matter, another is anomalous dispersion, that is it occurs at frequency at which sharp changes occur coinciding with the natural

harmonic frequency of some sort part of a molecule or atom or ion a leading to the absorption of electromagnetic beam.

So in spectroscopy, dispersion curves are important again. For optical components such as lenses, most suitable components for the manufacture of lenses are those in which the refractive index should be high and constant. This results in reduced chromatic aberrations. So, you please look up what is a chromatic aberration. Again it is the second year physics portions. So, for the fabrication of prisms, refractive index should be large and it also should be high frequency dependent. So if I want to make prisms refractive, I must choose a material whose refractive index is large, but it must also be highly frequency dependent. What are the materials through which we make prisms? One is glass, quartz, sodium chloride, crystals, etcetera.

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REFLECTION OF RADIATION

Mirrors reflect the radiation falling on them without any loss of the incident radiant power. Hence they are used as optical components of a spectrometer. Concave mirrors reflect the radiation as well as concentrate the reflected radiation at its focal point.

When radiation crosses an interface between media differing in refractive index reflection always occurs. For a beam entering an interface at right angles the fraction reflected is given by,

$$\frac{I_r}{I_o} = \frac{(n_2 - n_1)^2}{(n_2 + n_1)^2}$$

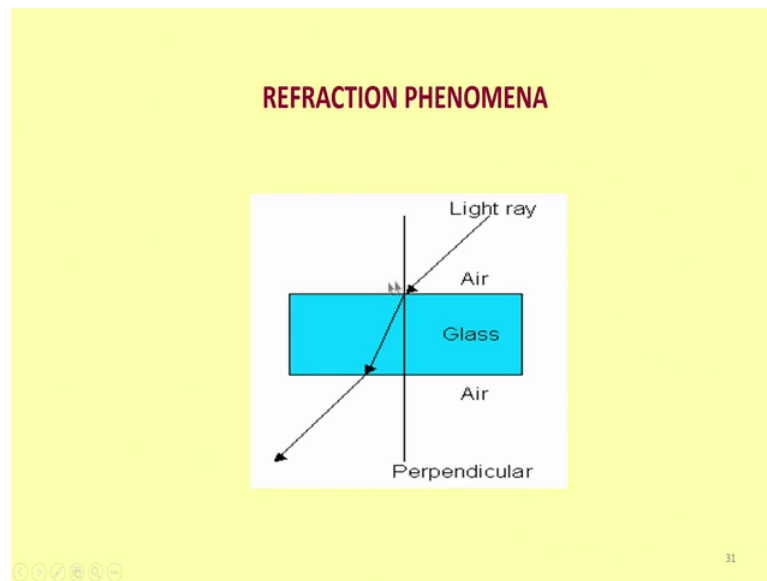
where I_o is intensity of the incident beam and
 I_r is the reflected intensity and
 n_1 & n_2 are the refractive indexes of the two media.

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So, another type of material is Reflection of the Radiation. So, normally mirrors reflect the radiation falling on them without any loss of the incident radiation power. You take a beam of radiation, pass it through a mirror, mirror will just reflect the light. So, they are used as optical components of a spectrometer. Concave mirrors reflect the radiation as well as concentrate the reflected radiation at its focal point. I think most of you must be familiar with the car, side mirror of a car which are supposed to be sort of concave mirrors.

So, apart from such uses, concave mirrors are also used in spectroscopic instruments. So, when radiations cross an interface between the media differing in refractive index of reflection, it always occurs for a beam entering an interface at right angles. The reflected light is given by I_r by I_0 , that is $n_2^2 - n_1^2$ whole square divided by $n_2^2 + n_1^2$ whole square where I_0 and I_r are the reflected intensity of the incident beam and reflected beam and n_1 and n_2 are the refractive index of the 2 media.

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I think the picture becomes clear instead of me showing you the slide; if I show you this picture.

So, here the light beam is coming falling, light beam is falling, there is a glass here, there is air above the light above the glass and there is air below the glass. So what I am doing is, taking a light ray passing through the glass and then in the glass there will be refraction of the electromagnetic beam. Again this is second year p u physics syllabus.

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When radiation passes at an angle through the interface between two media having differing densities, owing to the changes in the velocity of the radiation in the two media an abrupt change in its direction occurs. This is called refraction.

The extent of refraction is given by Snell's law :

$$\frac{\sin \theta_1}{\sin \theta_2} = \frac{n_2}{n_1} = \frac{V_2}{V_1}$$

Where θ_1 and θ_2 are the angles of incidence and refraction,
 n_1 and n_2 are refractive indices and
 V_1 and V_2 are the velocities of light in 1st and 2nd media ,respectively.

Refractive indices of materials are measured with air as one medium and they are available in data bases.

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So, when radiation passes at an angle through the interface between the 2 media having different densities, owing to changes in each velocity of the radiation in the 2 media an abrupt change in the direction occurs. This is known as refraction. This is a definition of refraction. So, the extent of refraction is given by Snell's law; again second year p u subject; $\sin \theta_1$ by $\sin \theta_2$ would be equal to the ratio of the refractive index n_1 and n_2 and v_1 and v_2 are the velocities of the light in the first and second media. That is in the previous case it was air and glass.

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In vacuum $V_1 = c$ and n_1 is unity. Hence

$$(n_2)_{vac} = \frac{(\sin \theta_1)_{vac}}{\sin \theta_2}$$

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So, in vacuum v_1 is equal to c and n_1 is unity. So, we can write instead of n_2 by $n_1 n$, n_1 is unity. So, n_2 by n_1 is 1, you will be nothing but $\sin \theta_1$ in the vacuum divided by $\sin \theta_2$.

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SCATTERING OF RADIATION

Momentary absorption of radiant energy by atoms, ions or molecules followed by reemission of the radiation in all directions is known as scattering. Particles having comparable dimensions to that of the incident radiation removes most of the reemitted radiation by destructive interference except those traveling in the original direction. A very small fraction of the radiation is transmitted at all angles from the original path and its intensity increases with particle size.

Scattering by molecules or aggregates having smaller dimensions than the incident radiation is called Rayleigh scattering.

Larger molecules scatter radiations in different quantities in different directions. This is called as Mie Scattering.

When the scattered radiation is quantized like those occurring in vibrational energy level transitions in molecules as a consequence of polarization process, it is called as Raman Scattering.

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So, now we come to the another property of the electromagnetic radiation that is with matter. So, whenever I take electromagnetic radiation and pass it through the matter atoms, molecules, ions, gases whatever it is so, momentary absorption of radiation radiant energy by atoms, ions, molecules followed by any emission of the radiation in all direction is known as scattering. You take the material, take the radiation make it fall on the matter; it will scatter all over. So, it is identified or un defined moment of the photons. So, particles having comparable dimensions to that of the incident radiation, removes most of the emitted radiation by destructive interference except those traveling in the original direction. So, a very small portion of the radiation is transmitted at all angles from the original path and the it is intensity increase with particle size.

So, scattering by molecules or a aggregates having smaller dimensions than the incident radiation is known as Rayleigh scattering. There are couple of definitions here that is scattering by molecules having smaller dimension than the incident radiation you can see. You can imagine the radiation having certain magnitude, wavelength. So, wavelength is the photon, you can call it roughly the size of the photon.

So, the particles having a smaller than that wavelength, they scatter the radiation that is known as Rayleigh scattering. Sometimes the molecules scatter a larger molecules scatter radiation in different quantities in different directions; this is called as Mie scattering. So, when the scatter radiation is quantized like those occurring in vibrational energy level length and rotational energy levels transitions in molecules. As a consequence of the polarization process it is known as Raman scattering. So, as you know professor Raman is a Nobel orate.

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POLARIZATION OF RADIATION

Ordinary radiation consists of a bundle of electromagnetic waves in which vibrations are equally distributed among a huge number of planes centered along the path of the beam.

Viewed end on it looks like an infinite set of electric vectors fluctuating from zero to a maximum amplitude A .

The vector in any one plane say XY can be resolved into two mutually perpendicular components. Removal of one of the two resolved planes of vibration produces a plane polarized beam. It occupies a single plane. Radio waves emanating from an antenna and micro waves produced by a Klystron tube are plane polarized.

Polarized ultraviolet and visible radiation is produced by passing the e.m beam through a media that selectively absorbs, reflects or refracts that vibrates in only one plane.

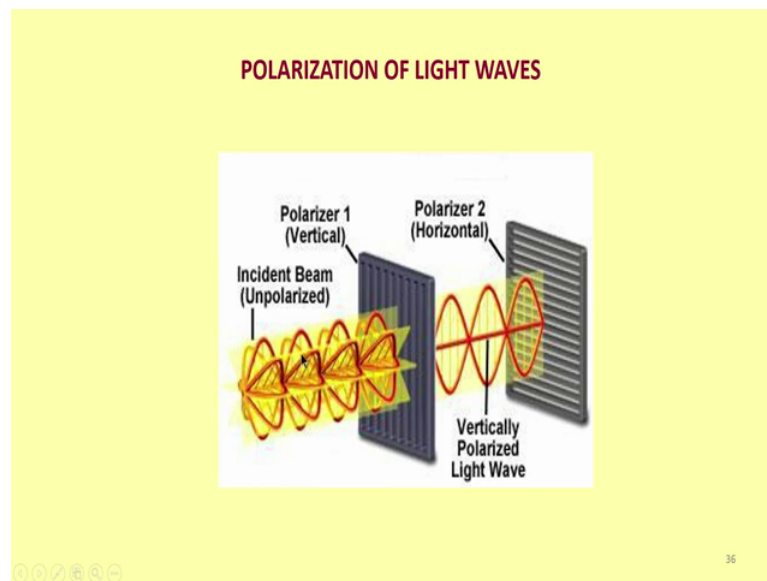
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And Raman scattering is a very famous techniques, spectroscopic technique. So, now we talk about polarization of the radiation, ordinary radiation consists of a bundle of electromagnetic radiation in which vibrations are equally distributed among a huge number of planes centered along the path.

So, viewed end on it looks like an infinite set of electric vectors fluctuating from 0 to maximum amplitude. It is a fairly complex structure. If you want to take a look at the non-polarized radiation, you will be surprised to see how a the electromagnetic radiation looks so chaotic. So, the vector in any of one plane say $x y$ can be resolved into 2 mutually perpendicular components that we know already, electric field and magnetic field. So, the removal of one of the 2 resolved planes of vibration produces a plane polarized beam.

So, this occupies a single plane. Radio waves emanating from a ninety 9 microwave produced by Klystron tube or plane polarized. So, polarized ultra violet and visible radiation is produced by passing the electromagnetic radiation through a media that selectively absorbs reflects or refracts that vibrates in only 1 plane. That is how we produce a the a plane polarized lights.

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So, you can see here, in this figure I have electromagnetic radiation going like this through this from left to right and incident beam; this is unpolarized.

You can see that it is a very complex structure containing both electric and magnetic fields. Here I have put a polarizer that is, a material that removes a electric field or magnetic field. So, I can put one is vertical another is horizontal. So, this removes vertical polarizer, vertical components and I can the output would be like this. I can even put a horizontal polarizer. So, I can get another type of polarized light.

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DISPERSION OF E.M RADIATION

Dispersion is a complex phenomena. Dispersion curves usually show two regions:

Normal dispersion is one in which there is a gradual increase in refractive index with increasing frequency.

Anomalous dispersion occurs coinciding with natural harmonic frequency of some part of a molecule, atom or ion leading to the absorption of the beam.

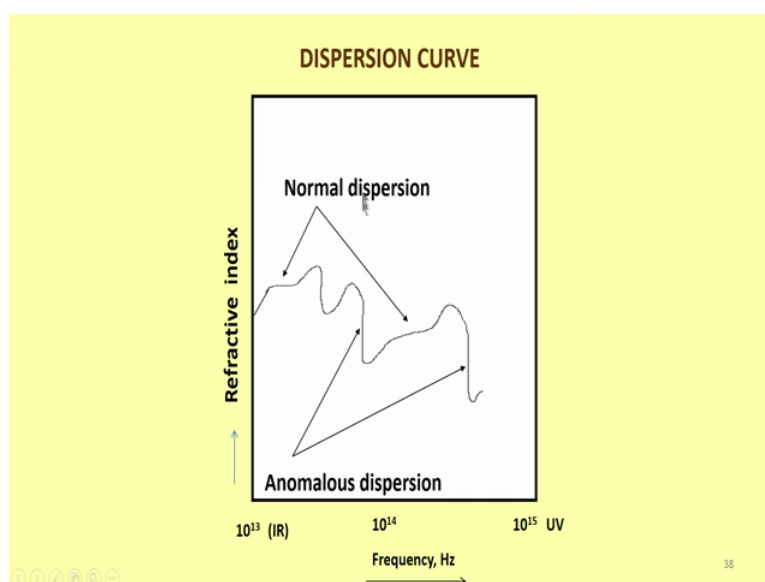
In spectroscopy, dispersion curves are important for optical components such as lenses. Most suitable components for the manufacture of lenses are those in which refractive index should be high and constant. This results in reduced chromatic aberrations.

For the fabrication of prisms refractive index should be large but also highly frequency dependent.

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Again the polarization is a concept which is very important with respect to spectroscopy. So, regarding dispersion, I just wanted to show you that the normal dispersion, as I told you that it increase the refractive index.

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So, that it keeps on increasing like this, but you can see that it keeps on increasing but at some stage Anomalous dispersion, here in this range it keeps on falling. So, this is Anomalous dispersion. So, just to refresh your memory with respect to this, because these are important concepts of optical components of a spectroscope.

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DIFFRACTION OF RADIATION

Diffraction refers to the bending of a parallel beam of electromagnetic radiation as it passes through a sharp barrier or a narrow opening. It is a consequence of interference which can be easily demonstrated in the laboratory.

When a parallel beam of light is allowed to pass through a pin hole, two closely spaced pin holes are seen on a screen placed across it.

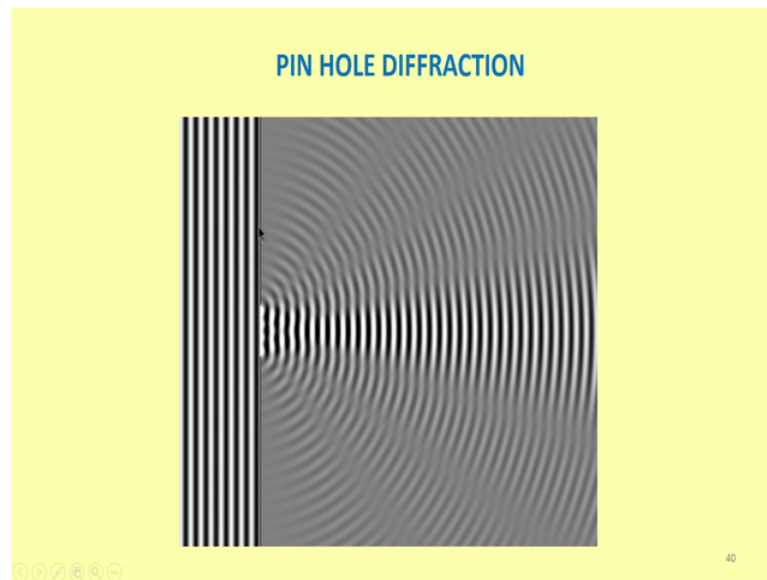
If the radiation is monochromatic a series of dark and light images appear perpendicular to the plane of the radiation.

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So, Diffraction! Now we will discuss about the Diffraction. A Diffraction refers to the bending of a parallel beam of a electro magnetic radiation as it passes through a sharp barrier or a narrow opening. As it passes through a sharp barrier or an narrow opening, it is a consequence of the interface which can be easily demonstrated in the laboratory. When a parallel beam of light is allowed to pass through a pin hole, 2 closely space pin holes are seen on a screen across the screen placed across that. So, if the radiation is monochromatic radiation that is having a single wavelength, a series of dark and light images appear perpendicular to the plane of the radiation.

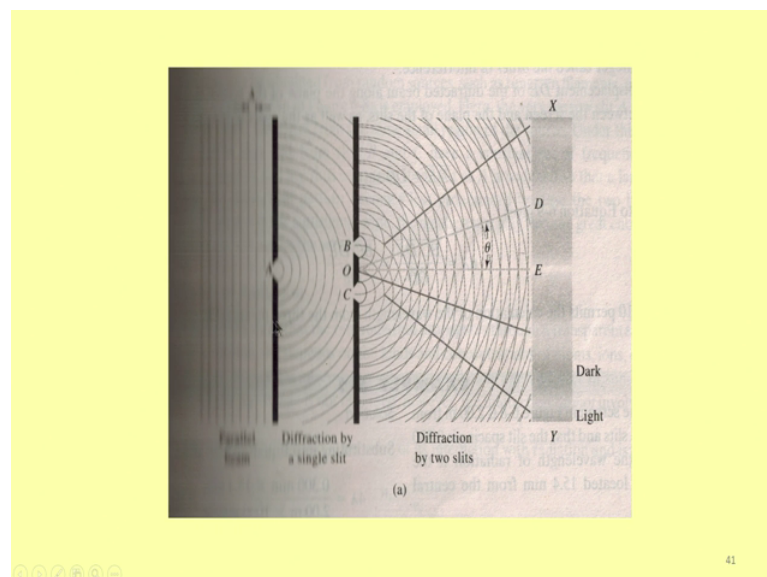
Now, instead of explain to you in theory, I prefer to show you this figure now.

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See here, I have this is known as a Pin Hole. So, radiation is coming like this and I have a Pin Hole here. And whatever rays are bending, I can see you can see that there is constructive interface as well as destructive interface; dark and white patches. This is known as pin hole diffraction. So, if I have 2 pin holes, again there will be much more complicated pictures.

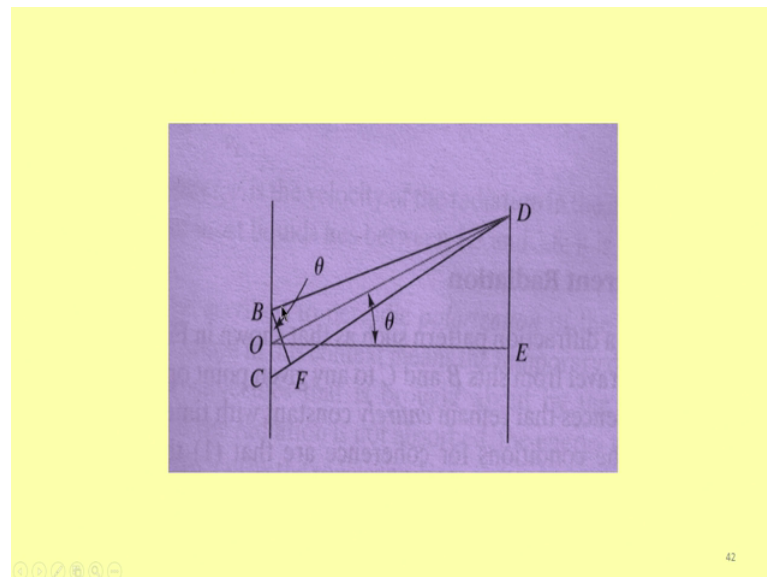
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So, this is how diffraction by single slit, this is one single slit, this are double slits, 2 small slits.

So, there will be you can, this figure is fairly simple. Only thing is you have to spend the little time to understand. So, this is the angle theta and this is D, E, O, B, C, etcetera. Now I am going to do a little derivation with respect to this. The same thing what I did here I am going to draw the figures O, B, C, D, E, etcetera.

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When I do that, I have a angle through which this electromagnetic radiation falls and then OBC, etcetera.

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In the above figure it can be shown that

$$\overline{CF} = \overline{BC} \sin \theta$$

For two beams to be in phase at D, it is necessary that $\overline{CF}$ should correspond to the wavelength of the radiation. Hence

$$\lambda = \overline{CF} = \overline{BC} \sin \theta$$

Reinforcement also occur at 2λ , 3λ etc. Hence,

$$n\lambda = \overline{BC} \sin \theta$$

where n is an integer called the order of the interference.

In this figure CF, this is CF. CF is nothing but BC into sin theta. That is BC multiplied by sin theta whereas theta is the angle of deflection.

So, for 2 beams to be in face at the, it is necessary that should correspond CF should correspond to the wavelength of the radiation. So, lambda is nothing but CF that is wavelength and that is nothing but BC into sin theta, reinforcement also occurs at 2 lambda, 3 lambda, etcetera; hence n lambda is equal to BC sin theta. We can say instead of 2, 3 etcetera, we write n lambda where n is the integer called as the order of interference ok.

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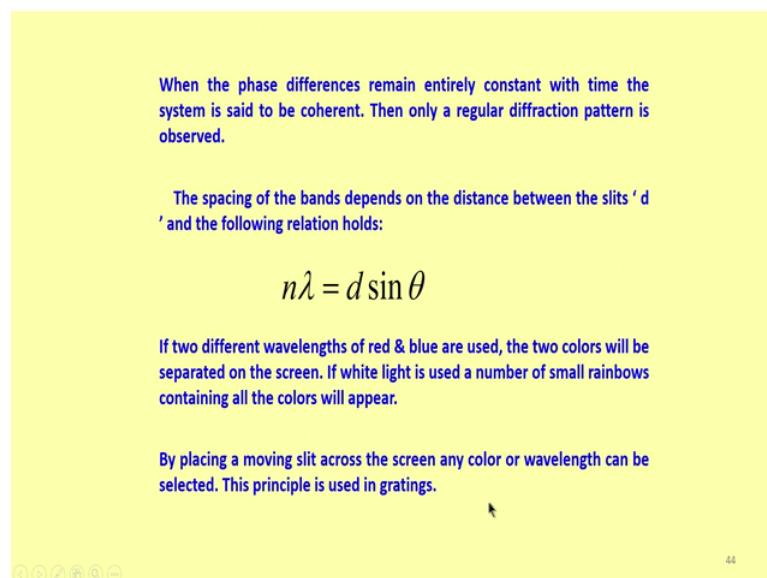
When the phase differences remain entirely constant with time the system is said to be coherent. Then only a regular diffraction pattern is observed.

The spacing of the bands depends on the distance between the slits 'd' and the following relation holds:

$$n\lambda = d \sin \theta$$

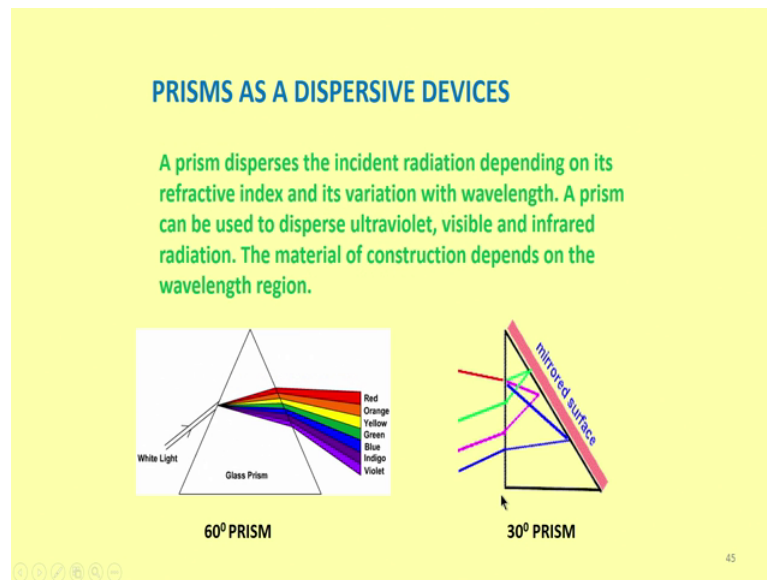
If two different wavelengths of red & blue are used, the two colors will be separated on the screen. If white light is used a number of small rainbows containing all the colors will appear.

By placing a moving slit across the screen any color or wavelength can be selected. This principle is used in gratings.



So, when the phase difference is remain entirely constant with time, the system is set to be coherent. Then only a small regular diffraction pattern is observed. The spacing of the bands depends on the distance between the slits d and the following relation holds, n lambda is equal to d sin theta. So, if 2 different wavelengths of red and blue are used the 2 colors will be separated on the screen. If white light is used, a number of small rainbow that containing all the colors will appear. So, by placing a moving slit across the screen, any color or wavelength, color means wavelength it can be selected.

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This principle is used in the gratings. Most of the spectroscopic techniques contain used gratings.

So, I want to spend some time with you regarding the gratings also. Now apart from gratings, we also use prisms. So, what is a prism do? A prism resolves the incoming radiation into its components. So, what happens here, look at this figure; a prism disperses the incident radiation depending on its refractive index and its variation with wavelength. A prism can be used to disperse ultraviolet, visible and infrared radiation; all the three. That means, even in ICP, we will be using prisms as well as gratings. The material of construction again depends upon the wavelength region.

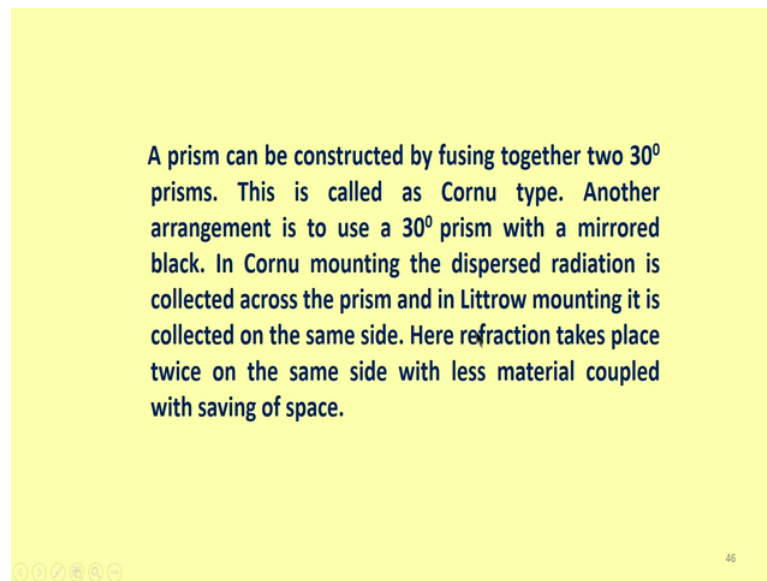
So, here I am showing you a prism, glass prism; white light is coming it is getting resolved into different colors and it comes out like this. Now if I put a small slit somewhere orange, I will get only orange remaining things will be blocked. Similarly, if I want green color I have to move the slit to bring green and I will get only green light. So, similarly, there are different ways of doing this that is I can use a 60 degree prism or I can use a 30 degree prism.

So, what is 30 degree prism? 30 degree prism is what you see here that is, in this slide the one portion I have cut this into half the glass prism, exactly half and I have put a mirror on the diagonal. So, this has got a 30 degree angle whereas this has got a 60 degree angle. This is known as a Littrow and this is known as Cornu mounting. So, the

advantage is, the radiation comes through this, goes inside, hits the mirror, comes back and comes out. So, the distance travelled inside the prism, if I mirror return half of the side is almost same as a 60 degree prism. So, the material is saved if I use a Cornio mountain and the instrument can become smaller because I will be collecting the radiation on the same side.

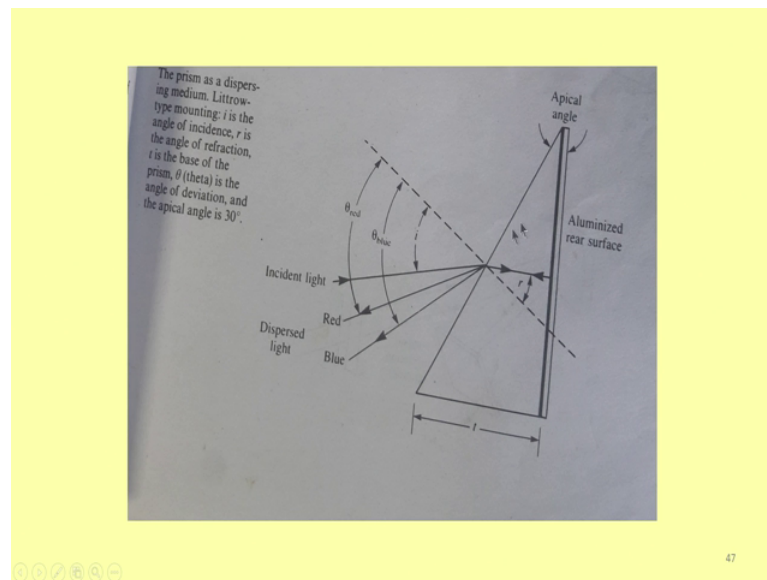
So, this is important concept with respect to prisms.

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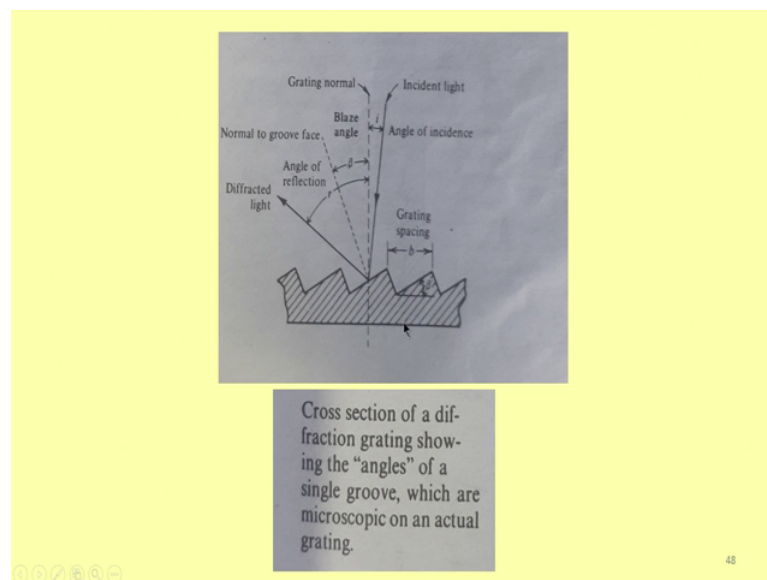
So, a prism can be constructed by fusing together two 30 degree prisms. This is called as Cornio that is 60 degrees. Another arrangements you use to use is a 30 degree prism with a mirrored black in Cornio mounting the dispersed radiation is collected across the prism and in electro mounting it is collected on the same side. Here the reflection takes place twice on the same side with less material coupled with saving of space.

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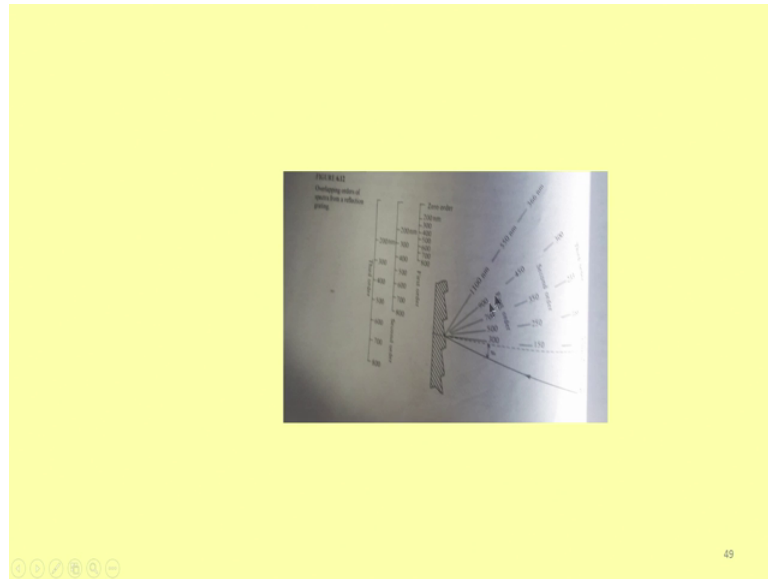
So, this is litrow mounting. You can take this is taken from Milarmeritendy, which I have given it has reference.

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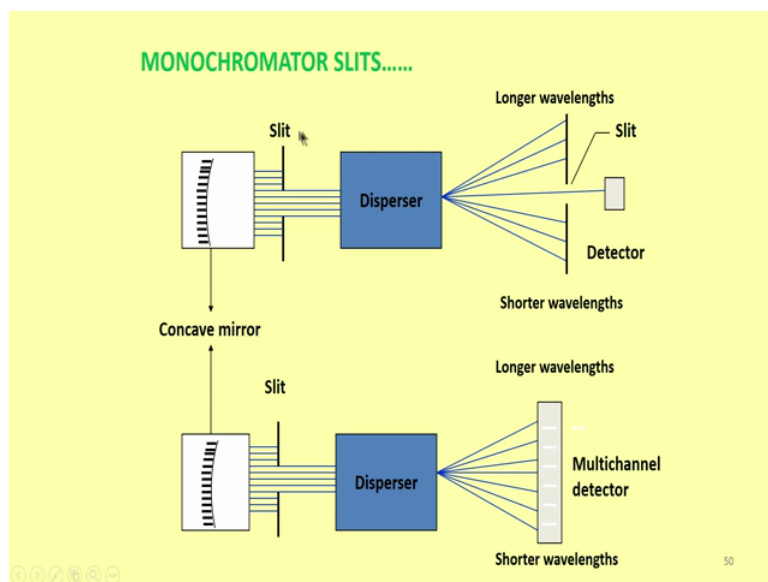
So, this is a grating. A grating contains a number of rulings and these rulings each ruling acts as a prism. So, there will be constructive interference as well as destructive interference.

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Different wavelengths are collected for each this thing that is known as order. The each one acts as a prism and constructive and destructive interference takes place. So, we will study more about diffraction later.

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So, what is a Monochromatic Slit that is another important concept in the handling of electromagnetic radiation?

So basically, what we do is we have a light source and then I put a concave mirror. So, that gives parallel radiation and then I put a mechanical plate with a small hole in it and

that gives me a parallel beam of light and then I can put a prism or any disperser and I can collect the if I put this slit here, I can collect the radiation from this, if I put a slit here, I can collect the radiation from here. So, mechanical slits are most important concept in most of these spectroscopic techniques. So, here I get shorter wavelengths and here I get longer wavelengths.

Because if I put a disperser, I get longer wavelengths but anywhere from one end to the other, there will be shorter wavelength to longer wavelength; full range we will be getting.

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MONOCHROMATOR SLITS

The slits of a monochromator play an important role in determining its performance characteristics and quality. Usually two slits are employed: one as the entrance slit which serves as the light source and another as the exit slit on which the image of the entrance slit is formed.

If the radiation source consists of a discrete wavelengths a series of rectangular images appears on the exit plane which appear as bright lines corresponding to differing wavelengths. Movement of the monochromator setting in one direction or the other produces a continuous decrease in emitted intensity when the entrance slit image has moved a distance equal to its full width.



So, the slit of a monochromator play an important role in determine it is performance. And there are 2 slits, one is for entrance another is for exit. So, both of them are important. If the entrance slit is good, I get a parallel beam. If the exit slit is good, I get the good quantitation. So, if the radiation source consists of a discrete wavelengths and a series of rectangular images occur on the exit plane which appear as bright lines corresponding to different wavelengths.

So, movement of the monochromator setting in one direction or the other produces the a continuous decreases in the emitted intensity when the entrance slit image has moved a distance equal to it is full width.

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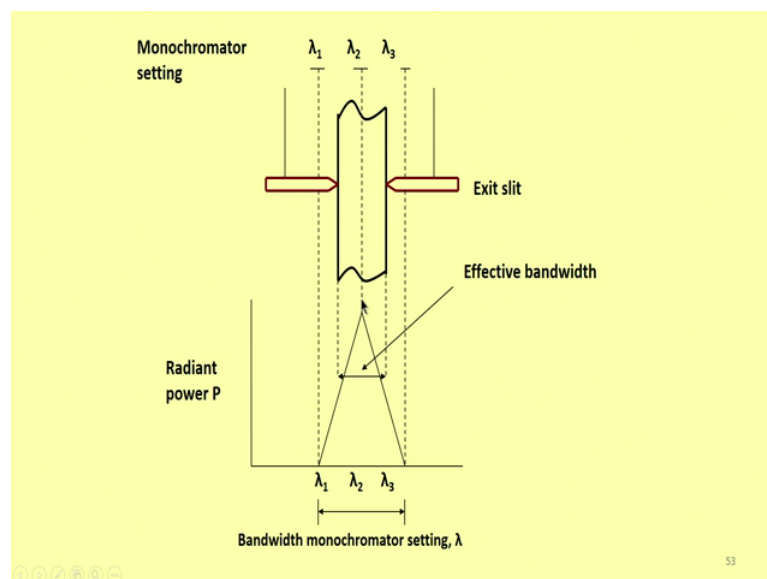
MONOCHROMATOR SLITS

Illumination of the exit slit with the desired wavelength is invariably associated with some unwanted radiation as shown here (λ_1 & λ_2). This is known as “bandwidth”.

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So, in what happens actually in the slit management. So, whenever there is elimination of the exit slit with the desired wavelength, it is invariably associated with some unwanted radiation as shown here. This is known as bandwidth.

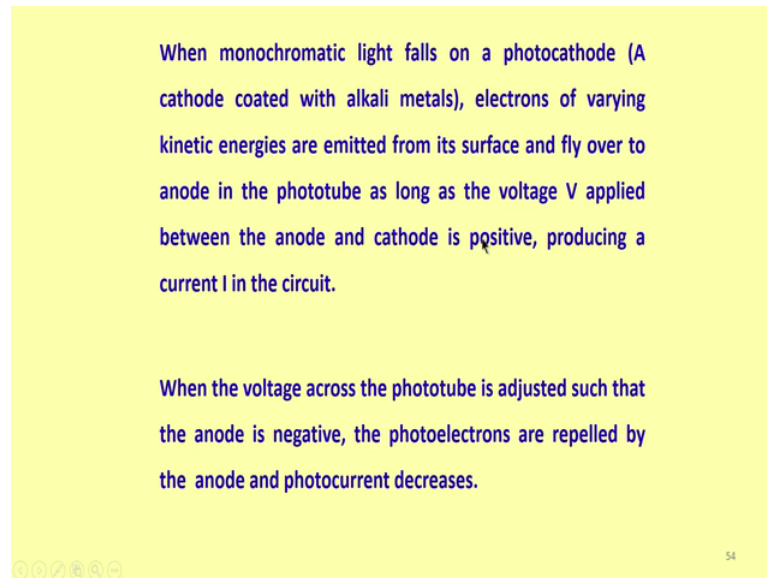
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So, this is the picture you should remember. So, what is happening. Here I have the monochromator radiation and then I have a slit here. So, according to this slit I am getting a waved electromagnetic radiation of a wavelengths corresponding to λ_1 , λ_2 , λ_3 , like that. But the maximum intensity of the radiation is λ_2 .

Small portion of the λ_1 is collected, small portion of λ_3 is also collected and it is end ever of the every instrument manufacturer to reduce this λ_1 and λ_3 because we want to choose only λ_2 . So, this is known as bandwidth of the monochromator setting and this is half, 50 percent of the intensity is known as effective bandwidth ok.

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When monochromatic light falls on a photocathode (A cathode coated with alkali metals), electrons of varying kinetic energies are emitted from its surface and fly over to anode in the phototube as long as the voltage V applied between the anode and cathode is positive, producing a current I in the circuit.

When the voltage across the phototube is adjusted such that the anode is negative, the photoelectrons are repelled by the anode and photocurrent decreases.

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So, this is the radiant power. So, when monochromatic light falls on a photocathode, that is a cathode coated with alkali metals, photocathode nothing great about it. Alkali metal means Cesium, Lithium, etcetera. So, the electrons of may be in kinetic energy they are emitted from the surface and fly over to anode in the photo tube. As long as the voltage v is applied between the anode and cathode is positive, it produces a current and the concept of current generated from the photon is the basis of all spectrophotometry all spectroscopic techniques.

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The photoelectric current measured as a function of the applied voltage V_0 at which photoelectric current reaches zero multiplied by the electronic charge (1.60×10^{-19} Coulombs) gives the kinetic energy of the most energetic electrons in joules.

When maximum kinetic energy for various coatings are plotted as a function of the radiation frequency, we get a straight line response with a slope of h (Planks constant = 6.6254×10^{-34} joule second) with an intercept w which is known as work function.

So, when the voltage across the photo tube is adjusted such that the anode is negative, the photo elate at which a photo electric current reaches 0, multiplied by the electron charge induced. So, we get, whenever we get maximum kinetic energy for various coatings, we plot it as a function of the radiation frequency. We get a straight slit response with a slope of h that is Planks constant with an intercept w which is known as work function.

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The plots can be described by the equation,

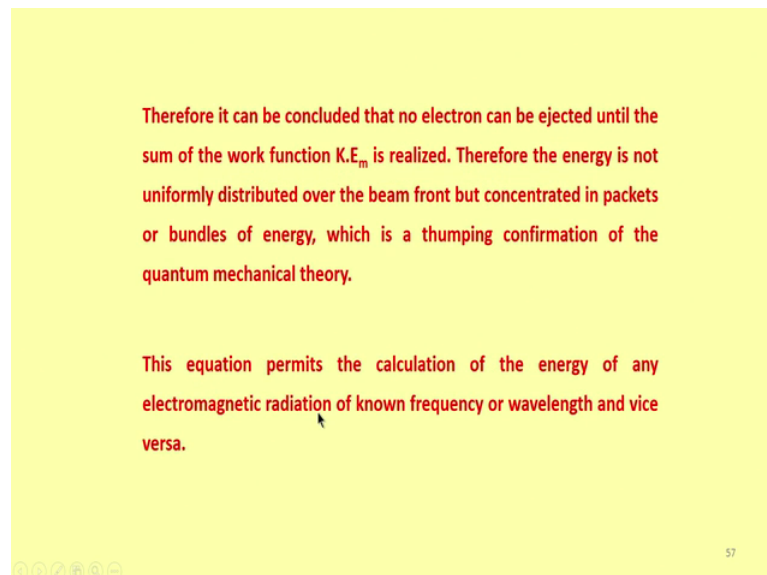
$$KE_m = h\nu - w \text{ or } E = KE_m + w = hc / \lambda$$

The work function $-w$ is characteristic of the surface material and represents the minimum energy of binding the electron to the metal atom. It is also equal to the energy of the electromagnetic radiation (photon energy) required to eject the photo electron from the irradiated surface.

So, work function is the, work function is the measure of how good is your detector system. Because after all, electromagnetic radiation has to interact with the alkali coated detectors to generate current that is a basis of all spectroscopic techniques.

So, the plots can be described by the equation that is KE_m is equal to $h\nu$ by minus w or e is equal to $h\nu - w$. So, the work function is a characteristic of the surface material and represents the maximum, represents the minimum energy of binding the electron to the metal atom. It is also equal to the energy of the electromagnetic radiation, I required to eject the photoelectron from the radiated surface.

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So, we can conclude that, no electron can be ejected until the some of the work function is realized. Therefore the energy is not uniformly distributed over the beam, but concentrated in packets of, bundles of energy which is the pink information of the quantum mechanical theory.

So, this equation permits the calculation of the energy of any electromagnetic radiation of known frequency or wavelength and vice versa.

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Example 1

Calculate the energy of the 5.5 Å⁰ X-ray photon.

Solution:

we write $E = h\nu = hc / \lambda$

Substituting the values we get,

$$E = \frac{(6.63 \times 10^{-34} \text{ J.s}) \times (3.00 \times 10^8 \text{ m/s})}{(5.5 \text{ Å}^0)(10^{-10} \text{ m/Å}^0)}$$

$$= 3.6163 \times 10^{-16} \times 6.24 \times 10^8 \text{ eV/J}$$

$$= 2.26 \times 10^3 \text{ eV}$$

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So, here I have small example for you. That is you have to calculate the energy of 5.5 Angstroms x ray photon. What we do is, we just write $E = hc / \lambda$, h is Planck's constant, c is speed of light, λ is wavelength. Substitute the values in Joules and then speed up the light, Angstroms and then what you get is 2.26 into 10 raise to 3 electron volts.

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Example 2

Calculate the energy of the 430nm photon of visible radiation

Solution:

$$E = \frac{(6.63 \times 10^{-34} \text{ J.s}) (3 \times 10^8 \text{ m/s})}{430 \text{ nm} \times 10^{-9} (\text{m/nm})}$$

$$= 4.6255 \times 10^{-19}$$

Energy of the radiation is usually expressed in KJ/mole

$$E = 4.6255 \times 10^{-19} \text{ J/photon} \times \frac{6.02 \times 10^{23} \text{ photons}}{\text{mol}} \times 10^{-3} \frac{\text{KJ}}{\text{J}}$$

$$= 278.4551 \text{ KJ/mol}$$

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So another example, 430 nanometer, that is visible range. Again you can apply the same principle and you will end up with about 278.4551 kilo joules per mole.

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Thus the quantum theory, originally proposed for black body radiation, was extended to explain the emission and absorption processes. The essential postulates of quantum theory are:

1. The ions, atoms and molecules exist only in certain discrete energy states. When it changes its state it absorbs or emits an amount of energy exactly equal to the energy difference between the states.
2. During transition from energy state to another, the frequency or the wavelength λ of the radiation emitted or absorbed is related to the energy difference between the states by the equation:

$$E_1 - E_2 = h\nu = hc / \lambda$$

where E_1 is the energy of the higher state and E_2 is the energy of the lower state.



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So, the quantum theory, originally proposed for black body radiation, was extended to explain the emission and absorption processes. The essential postulates are quantum theories are ions, atoms and molecules exist only in certain discrete energy states. When it changes its state, it absorbs or emits an amount of energy that is equal to the energy difference between the states. So, during the transition from energy state, from one energy state to another the frequency or the wavelength of the radiation is related to the energy difference between the states by the equation $E_1 - E_2 = h\nu$ that is understood. So, where E_1 is the energy of the higher state and E_2 is the energy of the lower state.

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For atoms or ions in the elemental state, the energy of any state arises from the movement of the electrons around the nucleus. Such energy levels are called electronic energy levels.

Molecules in addition to the electronic states exhibit quantized vibrational and rotational states arising from the rotation of molecules or functional groups of molecules around their centre of mass.

The lowest energy state of an atom or molecule exists at room temperature. It is called 'ground state'. Higher energy states are termed as excited states.

Detectors used in ICP AES work on the principle of photoelectric effect. These include photo multiplier tubes or diode array detectors.

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So, for atoms or ions in elemental state, the energy of any state arise from the moment of the electrons around the nucleus, such energy levels are called electronic energy levels. And lowest energy state of the atom or molecule is room temperature, this is called ground state. Detectors used in ICP, AES work on the principle of photo electric effect. These include photo multiplier tubes or diode array tubes.

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NATURE OF INTERACTION OF RADIATION AND MATTER

A sample can be subjected to a chemical stimuli in the form of heat, electrical energy or light, bombardment, or a chemical reaction.

The stimulus causes the analyte species to move from one energy state to another energy state. In the process energy is absorbed or emitted or scattered. Information about the analyte can be obtained by measuring the electromagnetic radiation.

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We will continue our discussion regarding the interaction of radiation and matter in the next class.

Thank you very much.