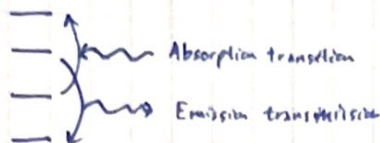


# SPECTROSCOPY



$E = h\nu = h c \tilde{\nu} = h \frac{c}{\lambda} = h \tilde{\nu} c$ , where  $\tilde{\nu} = \frac{1}{\lambda}$  (in  $\text{cm}^{-1}$ ), how many wavelengths fall in one centimeter.

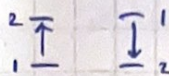
Describing spectroscopic techniques using Q.M.

Recall that the most general form of Schrödinger's Equation:

$$i\hbar \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial t} = \hat{H} \psi = E \psi$$

For a wave transition b/w 2 states:

$$\psi_1 \rightarrow \psi_2$$



For  $\psi_1$ :  $i\hbar \frac{\partial \psi_1}{\partial t} = \hat{H} \psi_1$ ,  $\psi_1(t) = \psi_1(0) e^{-\frac{i}{\hbar} E_1 t}$   
 For  $\psi_2$ :  $i\hbar \frac{\partial \psi_2}{\partial t} = \hat{H} \psi_2$ ,  $\psi_2(t) = \psi_2(0) e^{-\frac{i}{\hbar} E_2 t}$

How can we force the transition  $\psi_1 \rightarrow \psi_2$ ?  
 → Change Hamiltonian.

"Unperturbed Hamiltonian" - before any force is applied to system.

Changing the Hamiltonian involves applying some force, such that at  $\Delta t \leq 0$ ,  $\hat{H}_0 = \hat{H}$

and at  $\Delta t > 0$ ,  $\hat{H}_0 + \hat{H}_{int}(t) = \hat{H}$  (Hamiltonian)

$$\hat{H}_0 = \hat{K} + \hat{U}_0 = \hat{H}, \text{ and } \hat{H}_0 + \hat{H}_{int}(t) = \hat{H}$$

It follows that

$$-i\hbar \frac{\partial \psi_1}{\partial t} = \hat{H}_0 \psi_1 \text{ and } -i\hbar \frac{\partial \psi_2}{\partial t} = \hat{H}_0 \psi_2$$

The terms may be written as as a linear combination:

$$\psi = b_1(t) \psi_1(t) + b_2(t) \psi_2(t) + \dots$$

$$\psi_1: b_1(t) = 1, b_2(t) = 0, b_3(t) = 0, \dots$$

$$\psi_2: b_2(t) = 1, b_1(t) = 0, b_3(t) = 0, \dots$$

Since the coefficients are representation of the probabilities. We need to find a way to make  $b_2$  nonzero and  $b_1 = 0$  for  $\psi_1 \rightarrow \psi_2$  after a perturbation.

$$\psi = b_1 \psi_1(t) + b_2 \psi_2(t) + \dots \rightarrow \text{TDSE:}$$

$$i\hbar \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial t} = \hat{H} \psi \text{ where } \hat{H} = \hat{H}_0 + \hat{H}_{int}$$

$$\psi = b_1(t) \psi_1(t) + b_2(t) \psi_2(t)$$

(Ignore all terms except  $b_1 \psi_1$  &  $b_2 \psi_2$ )

$$\begin{aligned} &= i\hbar \left( \frac{db_1}{dt} \psi_1(t) + b_1(t) \frac{d\psi_1}{dt} + \frac{db_2}{dt} \psi_2(t) + b_2(t) \frac{d\psi_2}{dt} \right) \\ &= \underbrace{b_1 \hat{H}_0 \psi_1 + b_2 \hat{H}_0 \psi_2}_{\text{Unperturbed}} + \underbrace{b_1 \hat{H}_{int} \psi_1 + b_2 \hat{H}_{int} \psi_2}_{\text{Perturbed}} \end{aligned}$$

Since  $b_1(t) \frac{\partial \psi_1}{\partial t} = b_1 \hat{H}_0 \psi_1$  and  $b_2(t) \frac{\partial \psi_2}{\partial t} = b_2 \hat{H}_0 \psi_2$ , then we can state

$$i\hbar \psi_1 \frac{db_1}{dt} + i\hbar \psi_2 \frac{db_2}{dt} = b_1 \hat{H}_{int} \psi_1 + b_2 \hat{H}_{int} \psi_2$$

For the initial state,  $b_1 = 1, b_2 = 0$ .

$$\therefore b_2 \int \psi_2^* \hat{H}_{int} \psi_2 dx = 0$$

Therefore,  $i\hbar \frac{db_2}{dt} = \int \psi_2^* \hat{H}_{int} \psi_1 dx$ ,

$$\frac{db_2}{dt} = \frac{1}{i\hbar} \int \psi_2^* \hat{H}_{int} \psi_1 dx$$

$$b_2(t) = \frac{1}{i\hbar} \int dt \int \psi_2^* \hat{H}_{int} \psi_1 dx, \quad \hat{H}_{int}(t) = \hat{U}_{int} \cdot \cos \omega t$$

$$\therefore b_2(t) = \frac{1}{i\hbar} \int \int \psi_2^* \hat{H}_{int} \psi_1 dx dt$$

$$b_2(t) = \underbrace{\frac{1}{i\hbar} \int \psi_2^*(0) \hat{U}_{int} \psi_1(0) dx}_{\text{Time independent terms: does not depend on operator}} \cdot \underbrace{\int_0^t e^{i \frac{E_2}{\hbar} t} e^{-i \frac{E_1}{\hbar} t} \cos \omega t dt}_{\text{Time dependent terms: depend on operator.}}$$

In order for  $b_2(t) \neq 0$ , both the time dependent and the time independent terms must not = 0.



Focusing on  $\int_0^t e^{i\frac{E_2}{\hbar}t} e^{-i\frac{E_1}{\hbar}t} \cos at \, dt$ , how can we make this term  $\neq 0$ ?

$$AE = E_2 - E_1, \text{ so } \int_0^t e^{i\frac{E_2}{\hbar}t} e^{-i\frac{E_1}{\hbar}t} \cos at \, dt = \frac{1}{2} \int_0^t e^{i(\frac{\Delta E + \hbar\omega}{\hbar})t} + e^{i(\frac{\Delta E - \hbar\omega}{\hbar})t} dt$$

$$= \int_0^t e^{i(\frac{\Delta E - \hbar\omega}{\hbar})t} dt = \frac{e^{i(\frac{\Delta E - \hbar\omega}{\hbar})t} - 1}{i(\frac{\Delta E - \hbar\omega}{\hbar})} = \frac{e^{iat} - 1}{ia}, \text{ where } a = \frac{\Delta E - \hbar\omega}{\hbar}.$$

$$e^{\frac{iat}{2}} \cdot \frac{e^{\frac{ia}{2}t} - e^{-\frac{ia}{2}t}}{2ia/2} = 2e^{i\frac{\beta}{2}t} \left( \frac{\sin(\frac{\beta}{2}t)}{\frac{\beta}{2}} \right). \text{ Relating back to } |k_2|^2, \text{ we find that}$$

$$|k_2|^2 = \frac{1}{\hbar^2} \left| \int \psi_2^* \hat{U}_{int} \psi_1 \, dx \right|^2 \cdot \frac{1}{4} \left( \frac{\sin\left(\frac{\Delta E - \hbar\omega}{2\hbar} t\right)}{\frac{\Delta E - \hbar\omega}{2\hbar}} \right)^2, \text{ let } \beta = \frac{\Delta E - \hbar\omega}{2\hbar}, \text{ so } \frac{\sin\beta t}{\beta} \text{ may}$$

be estimated using l'Hôpital's:

- As  $\beta$  increases, frequency of oscillation increases but the amplitude decreases  $\rightarrow$  lower probability (not useful)
- As  $\beta$  decreases, frequency of oscillation decreases, the amplitude increases.

$\lim_{\beta \rightarrow 0} \frac{\sin\beta t}{\beta} \rightarrow t$ . For energy transition, the energy must be conserved in  $\Delta E = \hbar\omega$

$\rightarrow$  Therefore for any meaningful term in probability,  $\beta = 0$   $\sin\left(\frac{\Delta E - \hbar\omega}{2\hbar} t\right) = 0$

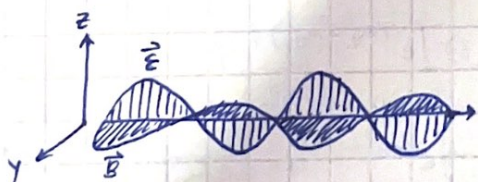
"Fermi Golden Rule" - Finding the transition ~~and~~ energy per unit time, is:

$$W = \frac{2\pi}{\hbar} \rho(\Delta E) \cdot \left| \int \psi_2^* \hat{U}_{int} \psi_1 \, dx \right|^2$$

$\hookrightarrow$  (Probability density)  $\hookrightarrow$  if  $\hat{U}_{int} \psi_1 = \lambda \psi_1$ , then  $\int \psi_2^* \lambda \psi_1 \, dx = 0$ .

Therefore, the value of  $\hat{U}_{int} \psi_1$  should NOT result in an eigenfunction of  $\psi_1$ . Specifically,  $\hat{U}_{int} \psi_1 = \psi_1$ ,  $b_1 \psi_1 + b_2 \psi_2 + \dots$ , since  $\hat{U}_{int} \psi_1 = \lambda \psi_1$  would result in  $\left| \int \psi_2^* \hat{U}_{int} \psi_1 \, dx \right|^2 = 0$ . How can we make sure that this is not the case?

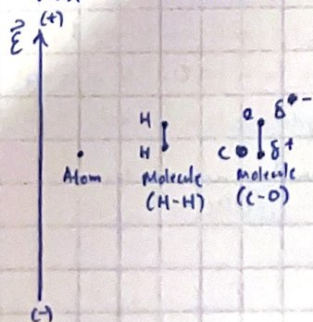
(An aside - introduction to different types of spectroscopy):



$\vec{E}$  = electric field  
 $\vec{B}$  = magnetic field

What happens when we place an atom in an electric field?

What about a molecule?

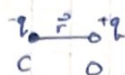


- Depends on the molecule:  
 a molecule with a net dipole, such as H-H, will not react. However, C-O will begin to orient. The dipole moment between C and O should be considered.

Physics of Interaction	Designation	$\lambda$
Electronic Transition	UV/Vis Spectroscopy	UV: $\lambda < 400\text{nm}$ Vis: $400\text{nm} < \lambda < 750\text{nm}$
Vibrational States	Infrared Spectroscopy	IR: $\lambda < 1\mu\text{m}$
Rotational States	Microwave Spectroscopy	$1\text{cm} < \lambda < 10\text{cm}$
Electron spin (Electron orbitals) (EPR, ESR) Resonance	Microwave Spectroscopy	"
Nuclear magnetic Resonance	Radio Frequencies	$\lambda > 10\text{cm}$



The dipole moment of a molecule, defined as  $\vec{\mu}$ , is related to the charge of the particles and the distance between the particles:



$$\vec{\mu} = q\vec{r}$$

The potential is related to the electric field:

$$U = -\vec{E} \cdot \vec{\mu}$$

Rotations and vibrations are caused by a molecule's interaction with  $\vec{E}$ . These interactions cause a dipole moment which may then be measured through spectroscopy. Let us consider both of these interactions for spectroscopy:

→ Rotations - energy associated with rotational motion is quantized, where

$$E_r = \frac{\hbar^2}{2I} l(l+1), \text{ where } l = 0, 1, 2, \dots \text{ and } I = \mu r^2.$$

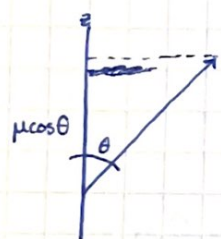
In spectroscopy,  $l$  is synonymous with  $J$  (Just to make things confusing lol) we can modify the equation:

$$E_J = hc \frac{\hbar^2}{2Ihc} J(J+1), \text{ where } \frac{\hbar^2}{2Ihc} = B, \text{ the rotational constant. Then}$$

$$E_J = hcB J(J+1), \psi_{J, m_J}(\theta, \phi) = T_{J, m_J}(\theta) \underbrace{e^{-im_J\phi}}_{\text{Normalization coefficient}}$$

If we consider that  $|\int \psi_2^* \hat{U}_{int} \psi_1 dx|^2$ , then for this case

$$\int \psi_2^* \vec{\mu} \psi_1 dx = \vec{E} \cdot \vec{\mu}_{2,1}. \text{ If } U = -\vec{E} \cdot \vec{\mu}, \text{ then } U = -[E_z \mu_z + E_x \mu_x + E_y \mu_y]$$



We are interested in the transition from  $J_1 \rightarrow J_2$ .

$$\text{The dipole moment, } \mu_{2,1} = \int T_{J_2, m_{J_2}}(\theta) \cos\theta T_{J_1, m_{J_1}}(\theta) \sin\theta d\theta \text{ since the wave functions are multiplicative.}$$

Assumes  $\vec{B}$  is along  $z$ . Jacobian

$\theta$  represents the angle between the bond of the molecule and the field.

Refining this statement to include  $\phi$ , we get:

$$\mu_{2,1} = \underbrace{\mu}_{\text{From the dipole moment}} \int T_{J_2, m_{J_2}}(\theta) \cos\theta T_{J_1, m_{J_1}}(\theta) \sin\theta d\theta \int e^{i(m_{J_1} - m_{J_2})\phi} d\phi$$

$\mu_{2,1} \neq 0$ . In order for this to be true:

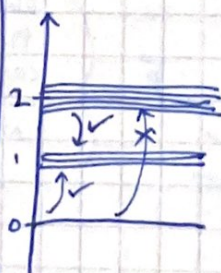
1)  $\mu \neq 0$ :

Molecules which do not have a net dipole cannot be measured: these are microwave inactive.

Ex:  $H_2, N_2, O_2$ , etc.

$$2) \int T_{J_2, m_{J_2}}(\theta) \cos\theta T_{J_1, m_{J_1}}(\theta) \sin\theta d\theta \neq 0$$

This can only be the case when  $J = J \pm 1$ , or  $\Delta J = \pm 1$ . This is to say, the transition  $J = 0 \rightarrow J = 2$  is impossible:



$$3) \int e^{i(m_{J_1} - m_{J_2})\phi} d\phi \neq 0$$

This is only the case when  $m_J = m_J$ :

$$\int e^{i(m_{J_1} - m_{J_2})\phi} d\phi = \frac{1}{i(m_{J_1} - m_{J_2})} (e^{i(m_{J_1} - m_{J_2})2\pi} - 1)$$

Since  $m_{J_1}$  and  $m_{J_2}$  are both integers,  $m_{J_1} - m_{J_2}$  must also be an integer. Then,  $e^{i2\pi n} = 1$ , where  $n = 1, 2, 3, \dots$  would result in  $= 0$ , which makes the entire term  $= 0$ . If  $m_J = m_J$ , however, l'Hôpital's rule is invoked,

$$\frac{e^0 - 1}{i(0)}, \text{ and a nonzero term results.}$$



So far, just  $E_z \mu_z$  has been considered. What about  $E_x \mu_x$ ?

$$E_x \mu_x = E_x \mu \sin \theta \cos \theta$$

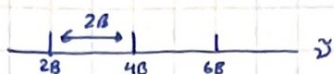
$$\frac{e^{i\phi_1} e^{-i\phi}}{2} \rightarrow e^{i(m_y - m_y' \pm 1)2\pi} \quad \text{In this case, } \Delta m_y = 0, \pm 1, \text{ and}$$

a transition between different rotational states of each  $J$  is possible:



For  $J \rightarrow J' = J+1$ ,

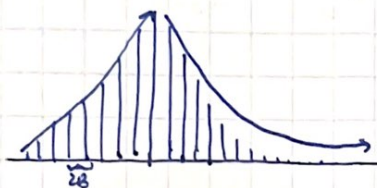
$$\Delta E = E_{J+1} - E_J = hcB[(J+1)(J+2) - J(J+1)] = 2hcB(J+1) = hc\tilde{\nu}, \text{ where } \tilde{\nu} = 2B(J+1)$$



If  $J=0$ , then  $\tilde{\nu} = 2B$ . The transition between  $J=0$  to  $J=1$  results in a peak at  $2B$ .

Given this relationship,  $\tilde{\nu} = 2B = \frac{2h^2}{2\mu r^2} \frac{1}{hc}$ , the bond length may be calculated if  $\mu$  is known.

In actuality, however, the intensity is not the same:



- The number of transitions increases as  $(2J+1)3$ , where  $J$  is the base level.

$$J_0 \rightarrow J_1 = 3 \text{ transitions}$$

$$J_1 \rightarrow J_2 = 9 \text{ transitions}$$

The intensity of the peaks is determined by the number of interacting photons, and since this term is related as  $N e^{-\frac{k_B T}{kT}}$ , the intensity tapers down after reaching a peak.

Another note on microwave activity:

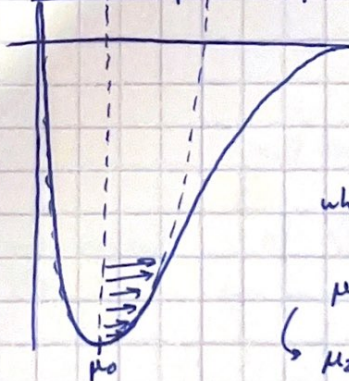
Molecules with  $>2$  atoms are generally microwave active, unless there is very specific symmetry in the molecule. For example,

$\text{CO}_2$   $\text{O}=\text{C}=\text{O}$  microwave inactive

$\text{CH}_4$   $\text{H}-\text{C}-\text{H}$  microwave inactive

$\text{H}_2\text{O}$   $\text{H}-\text{O}-\text{H}$  microwave ACTIVE

Vibrational Spectroscopy:



Recall that

$$E_{vib} = h\nu(n + \frac{1}{2})$$

$$\psi_n = A_n H_n(x\sqrt{a}) e^{-\frac{ax^2}{2}}$$

If we consider the transition from  $n \rightarrow n'$ , what happens to  $V = -E_z \mu_z = -E_z \mu_z \cos \theta$ ?

$$\mu_{z,1} = \mu \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \psi_{n'}(x) \cos \theta \psi_n(x) dx$$

$$\mu_{z,1} = \mu \cos \theta \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \psi_{n'}(x) \psi_n(x) dx$$

$= 0 \rightarrow$  Therefore, a permanent dipole is not sufficient for vibrational motion to be detected.

In an actual molecule, there is both rotational & vibrational motion:

$$E_z \cdot (\mu_0 + \underbrace{S\mu(x)}_{\text{Vibrational}}) \cos \theta$$

Rotational property



Property depending on  $x$ , estimated:

$$\mu = \mu_0 + \frac{d\mu}{dx} \bigg|_0 x + \frac{d^2\mu}{dx^2} \bigg|_0 x^2 + \dots$$

Estimation is linear, meaning  $\Delta n = \pm 1$ . Ignored terms

Remember that

$$\Psi = \underbrace{\psi_n(x)}_{\text{Vibrational}} \cdot \underbrace{Y_{l,m}(\theta, \phi)}_{\text{Rotational}}$$

If we represent the dipole moment with  $J$  and  $m_J$  considered, we get:

$$\mu_{J,m_J} = \int \psi^* \mu \psi d\tau \dots (\text{Rotational terms}) \quad \text{We can separate this integral to receive:}$$

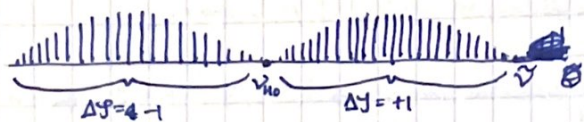


$$\int \psi^* \mu \psi d\tau \rightarrow \mu_0 \int \underbrace{\psi_{n,1}^* \psi_{n,0}}_{\Delta n=0} dx \underbrace{\int \psi^* \cos \theta \psi \sin \theta d\theta d\phi}_{\Delta J = \pm 1} + \underbrace{\int \psi_n^* \delta \mu(x) \psi_n dx}_{\Delta n = \pm 1} \underbrace{\int \cos \theta \sin \theta d\theta d\phi}_{\Delta J = 1}$$

(From)  $E_z = (\mu_0 + \delta \mu(x)) \cos \theta$

The result of this integration tells us that we cannot jump from, say  $n=0, J=0$  to  $n=1, J=0$ , as this kind of transition induces no change in  $J$  (i.e.  $\Delta J = 0$ ) which is physically impossible as seen from the equation.

Resultantly, the spectroscopy of this would appear as such:



Raman Spectroscopy - Detection of molecules such as  $N_2$  depends on scattering effects:

