# The Ultraviolet-Visible Spectroscopy

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# **UV-Vis spectroscopy**

### **Electronic absorption spectroscopy**









## **Outline of Presentation**

- Introduction
- The absorption laws
- Principle: Electronic transitions
- Chromophore and Auxochrome
- Absorption and intensity shifts
- Types of absorption bands
- Effect of solvent
- Effect of conjugation
- Instrumentation
- Woodward-Fieser Rule
- Applications

# Introduction

- This is the earliest method of molecular spectroscopy.
- A phenomenon of interaction of molecules with ultraviolet and visible lights.
- Absorption of photon results in electronic transition of a molecule, and electrons are promoted from ground state (HOMO) to higher electronic states (LUMO).
- Ultraviolet radiation stimulates molecular vibrations and electronic transitions.
- Absorption spectroscopy from 160 nm to 780 nm
- Measurement absorption or transmittance
- Identification of inorganic and organic species

## **The Electromagnetic Spectrum**



#### **The Spectroscopic Process**

- 1. In UV spectroscopy, the sample is irradiated with the broad spectrum of the UV radiation
- 2. If a particular electronic transition matches the energy of a certain band of UV, it will be absorbed
- 3. The remaining UV light passes through the sample and is observed
- 4. From this residual radiation a spectrum is obtained with "gaps" at these discrete energies this is called an absorption spectrum



### **UV-Visible Spectroscopy**

- Electronic transitions occur when the molecule absorbs energy
- Electrons in a molecule:  $\sigma$ ,  $\pi$  and  $\eta$  electrons
- The difference in energy between molecular bonding, non-bonding and anti-bonding orbitals ranges from 125-650 kJ/mole
- This energy corresponds to EM radiation in the ultraviolet (UV) region, 100-350 nm, and visible (VIS) regions 350-700 nm of the spectrum

# **Electronic transitions**

### • Molecular Orbital Theory



#### electronic transitions

- The lowest energy transition (and most often obs. by UV) is typically that of an electron in the Highest Occupied Molecular Orbital (HOMO) to the Lowest Unoccupied Molecular Orbital (LUMO)
- For any bond (pair of electrons) in a molecule, the molecular orbitals are a mixture of the two contributing atomic orbitals; for every bonding orbital "created" from this mixing (s, p), there is a corresponding antibonding orbital of symmetrically higher energy (s<sup>\*</sup>, p<sup>\*</sup>)
- The lowest energy occupied orbitals are typically the s; likewise, the corresponding anti-bonding s<sup>\*</sup> orbital is of the highest energy
- p-orbitals are of somewhat higher energy, and their complementary antibonding orbital somewhat lower in energy than s\*.
- Unshared pairs lie at the energy of the original atomic orbital, most often ٠ this energy is higher than p or s (since no bond is formed, there is no benefit in energy)



### **Types of Electronic Transitions**



- Although the UV spectrum extends below 100 nm (high energy), oxygen in the atmosphere is not transparent below 200 nm
- Special equipment to study vacuum or far UV is required
- Routine organic UV spectra are typically collected from 200-700 nm
- This limits the transitions that can be observed:



### Examples of Transitions and resulting λmax



# **Selection Rules**

- Not all transitions that are possible are observed
- For an electron to transition, certain quantum mechanical constraints apply these are called "selection rules"
- For example, an electron cannot change its spin quantum number during a transition – these are "forbidden"
- Other examples include:
  - the number of electrons that can be excited at one time
  - symmetry properties of the molecule
  - symmetry of the electronic states
- To further complicate matters, "forbidden" transitions are sometimes observed (albeit at low intensity) due to other factors

# The Chromophore

A **chromophore** (literally color-bearing) group is a functional group, not conjugated with another group, which exhibits a characteristic absorption spectrum in the ultraviolet or visible region. Some of the more important chromophoric groups are:



If any of the simple chromophores is conjugated with another (of the same type or different type) a multiple chromophore is formed having a new absorption band which is more intense and at a longer wavelength that the strong bands of the simple chromophores.

This displacement of an absorption maximum towards a longer wavelength (i.e. from blue to red) is termed a **bathochromic shift**. The displacement of an absorption maximum from the red to ultraviolet is termed a **hypsochromic shift**.

# Auxochromes

- The color of a molecule may be intensified by groups called **auxochromes** which generally do not absorb significantly in the 200-800nm region, but will affect the spectrum of the chromophore to which it is attached. The most important auxochromic groups are OH, NH<sub>2</sub>, CH<sub>3</sub> and NO<sub>2</sub> and their properties are acidic (phenolic) or basic.
- The actual effect of an auxochrome on a chromophore depends on the polarity of the auxochrome, e.g. groups like CH<sub>3</sub>-, CH<sub>3</sub>CH<sub>2</sub>- and Cl- have very little effect, usually a small red shift of 5-10nm.
- Other groups such as -NH2 and -NO2 are very popular and completely alter the spectra of chromophores such as: BENZENE

# **Absorption and Intensity Shifts**

Substituents may have any of four effects on a chromophore

- Bathochromic shift (red shift) a shift to longer l; lower energy
- Hypsochromic shift (blue shift) shift to shorter l; higher energy
- Hyperchromic effect an increase in intensity
- Hypochromic effect a decrease in intensity



### Instrumentation and Spectra



### Instrumentation

- Two **sources** are required to scan the entire UV-VIS band:
  - Deuterium lamp covers the UV 200-330
  - Tungsten lamp covers 330-700
- As with the dispersive IR, the lamps illuminate the entire band of UV or visible light; the **monochromator** (grating or prism) gradually changes the small bands of radiation sent to the beam splitter
- The **beam splitter** sends a separate band to a cell containing the sample solution and a reference solution
- The **detector** measures the difference between the transmitted light through the sample (I) vs. the incident light (I<sub>o</sub>) and sends this information to the recorder

- A recent improvement is the diode-array spectrophotometer here a prism (dispersion device) breaks apart the full spectrum transmitted through the sample
- Each individual band of UV is detected by a individual diodes on a silicon wafer simultaneously the obvious limitation is the size of the diode, so some loss of resolution over traditional instruments is observed



### Instrumentation – Sample Handling

- Virtually all UV spectra are recorded solution-phase
- Cells can be made of plastic, glass or quartz
- Only quartz is transparent in the full 200-700 nm range; plastic and glass are only suitable for visible spectra
- Concentration (we will cover shortly) is empirically determined

A typical sample cell (commonly called a cuvette):



### Instrumentation – Sample Handling

- Solvents must be transparent in the region to be observed; the wavelength where a solvent is no longer transparent is referred to as the cutoff
- Since spectra are only obtained up to 200 nm, solvents typically only need to lack conjugated p systems or carbonyls

Common solvents and cutoffs:

acetonitrile	190
chloroform	240
cyclohexane	195
1,4-dioxane	215
95% ethanol	205
n-hexane	201
methanol	205
isooctane	195
water	190

#### Instrumentation - Sample Handling

- Additionally solvents must preserve the fine structure (where it is actually observed in UV!) where possible
- H-bonding further complicates the effect of vibrational and rotational energy levels on electronic transitions, dipole-dipole interacts less so
- The more non-polar the solvent, the better (this is not always possible)



#### UV Spectroscopy

- II. Instrumentation and Spectra
  - C. The Spectrum
    - 1. The x-axis of the spectrum is in wavelength; 200-350 nm for UV, 200-700 for UV-VIS determinations
    - 2. Due to the lack of any fine structure, spectra are rarely shown in their raw form, rather, the peak maxima are simply reported as a numerical list of "lamba max" values or  $\lambda_{max}$



#### UV Spectroscopy

- II. Instrumentation and Spectra
  - C. The Spectrum
    - 1. The y-axis of the spectrum is in absorbance, A
    - 2. From the spectrometers point of view, absorbance is the inverse of transmittance:  $A = \log_{10} (I_0/I)$
    - 3. From an experimental point of view, three other considerations must be made:
      - i. a longer path length, I through the sample will cause more UV light to be absorbed linear effect
      - ii. the greater the concentration, c of the sample, the more UV light will be absorbed linear effect
      - iii. some electronic transitions are more effective at the absorption of photon than others molar absorptivity,  $\epsilon$  this may vary by orders of magnitude...

#### UV Spectroscopy

- II. Instrumentation and Spectra
  - C. The Spectrum
    - 4. These effects are combined into the Beer-Lambert Law:  $A = \varepsilon c I$ 
      - i. for most UV spectrometers, I would remain constant (standard cells are typically 1 cm in path length)
      - ii. concentration is typically varied depending on the strength of absorption observed or expected typically dilute sub .001 M
      - iii. molar absorptivities vary by orders of magnitude:
        - values of 10<sup>4</sup>-10<sup>6</sup> 10<sup>4</sup>-10<sup>6</sup> are termed high intensity absorptions
        - values of 10<sup>3</sup>-10<sup>4</sup> are termed low intensity absorptions
        - values of 0 to 10<sup>3</sup> are the absorptions of forbidden transitions

A is unitless, so the units for  $\epsilon$  are cm<sup>-1</sup> · M<sup>-1</sup> and are rarely expressed

5. Since path length and concentration effects can be easily factored out, absorbance simply becomes proportional to  $\epsilon$ , and the y-axis is expressed as  $\epsilon$  directly or as the logarithm of  $\epsilon$ 

### **Practical application of UV spectroscopy**

- 1. UV was the first organic spectral method, however, it is rarely used as a primary method for structure determination
- 2. It is most useful in combination with NMR and IR data to elucidate unique electronic features that may be ambiguous in those methods
- 3. It can be used to assay (via l<sub>max</sub> and molar absorptivity) the proper irradiation wavelengths for photochemical experiments, or the design of UV resistant paints and coatings
- 4. The most ubiquitous use of UV is as a detection device for HPLC; since UV is utilized for solution phase samples vs. a reference solvent this is easily incorporated into LC design

UV is to HPLC what mass spectrometry (MS) will be to GC

### **UV-Visible Spectroscopy**

• THE BEER-LAMBERT LAW

- For a light absorbing medium, the light intensity falls exponentially with sample depth.
- For a light absorbing medium, the light intensity falls exponentially with increasing sample concentration.



### **UV-Visible Spectroscopy**

- Beer-Lambert Law limitations
  - Polychromatic Light
  - Equilibrium shift
  - Solvent
  - pH



## **Spectrometers**



Single Beam



Double Beam

### **UV-Visible Instrumentation**

- Light source
  - Deuterium and hydrogen lamps
  - W filament lamp
  - Xe arc lamps
- Sample containers
  - Cuvettes
    - Plastic
    - Glass
    - Quartz