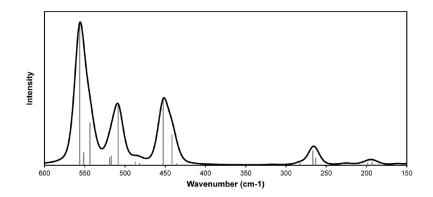
Lecture 8:

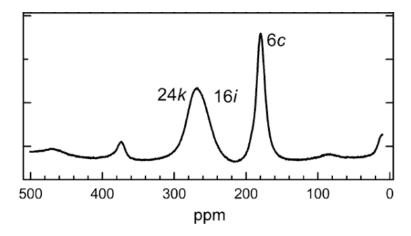
Spectroscopies and thermal analysis

- Spectroscopic methods
 - Infrared and Raman spectroscopy
 - Solid-state NMR spectroscopy
 - X-Ray spectroscopies (XRF, XANES, etc.)
 - Electron spectroscopies (XPS, etc.)



- Thermogravimetry (TG)
- Differential thermal analysis (DTA)
- Differential scanning calorimetry (DSC)
- The final three slides summarize the most important characterization methods discussed on the course





Figures: AJK

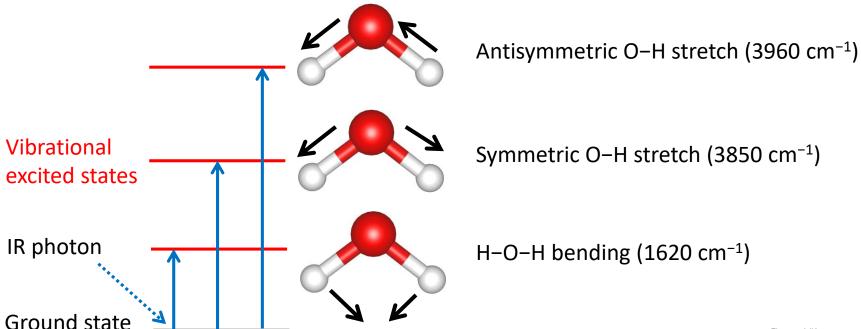
Spectroscopies

- Information on **local** structure. Some spectroscopies can be used for fingerprinting.
- Investigate bonding and defects / impurities
- Structural characterization when structure cannot be (fully) solved by XRD
 - Solid solutions, amorphous materials, thin films, complex hybrid materials

Freq. (Hz)	Energy (kJ/mol)	Radiation	Spectroscopies	What is probed
10 ¹⁸	400 000	X-rays	X-ray spectroscopies	Inner shell electrons
10 ¹⁷	40 000			
10 ¹⁶	4 000	Ultraviolet		Valence shell electrons
10 ¹⁵	400	Vicible	UV-Vis	
1014	40	Visible		
10 ¹³	4	Infrared	IR, Raman	Molecular vibrations
1012	0.4	illitateu		
1011				
10 ¹⁰		Microwaves	ESR	Electron spin
10 ⁹				
108		Radio waves	NMR	Nuclear spin

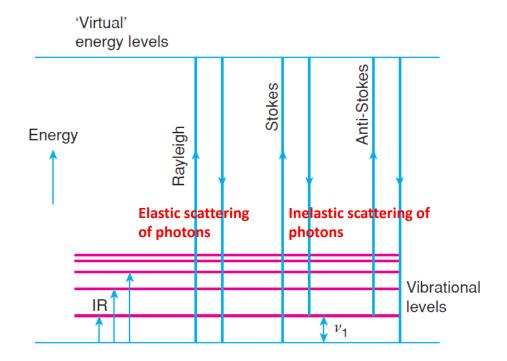
Infrared spectroscopy (IR)

- Materials have vibrational energy levels that can be excited with IR radiation
- IR spectrometer measures how much the material absorbs IR radiation
 - One can also measure the inverse quantity, transmission
- Typical energy range: 40–4000 cm⁻¹ (1–100 THz)
 - The IR wavenumbers below have been calculated for a gas-phase water molecule (at DFT-PBE0/TZVP level of theory)
 - Jmol can visualize vibrational modes (MyCourses -> Software -> Jmol docs)



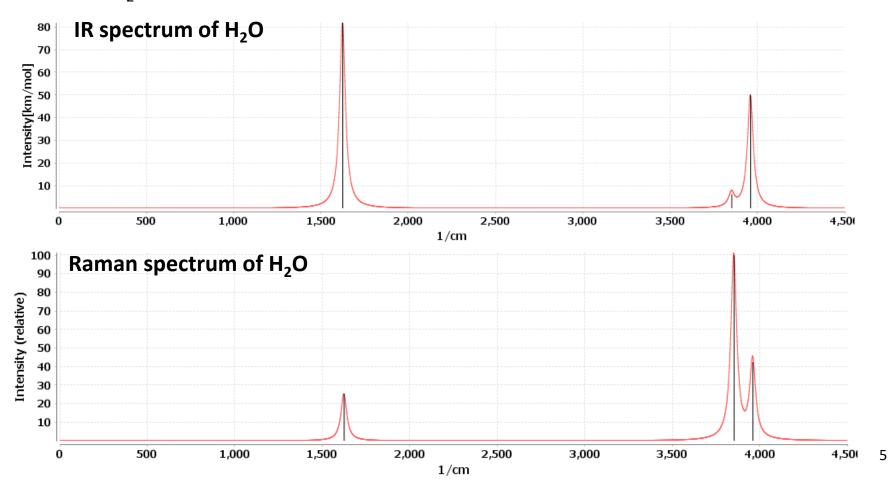
Vibrational spectroscopy: Raman

- In Raman spectroscopy, the material is excited by laser
- Most of the emitted photons have the same energy as the original photons (elastic scattering)
- Some of the emitted photons are shifted with respect to the laser wavelength due to coupling with vibrational levels -> Raman scattering
 - Raman spectrometer measures the shift of the emitted photons
- The studied vibrational excited states are similar as in IR spectroscopy



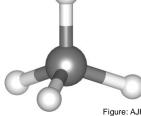
Selection rules (1)

- IR and Raman spectra of a material can be rather different
 - The two techniques are governed by different selection rules
 - Only those vibrational modes that are IR or Raman active can be observed
- In H₂O, all three modes are IR and Raman active, but the intensities differ



Selection rules (2)

- A vibrational mode is **IR active** if the dipole moment of the system changes
 - Consequently, centrosymmetric vibrational modes are IR inactive
 - For example, symmetric C−H stretching of methane (CH₄) is not IR active
 - The larger the change of the dipole moment, the higher the intensity
- A vibrational mode is **Raman active** if the polarizability of the system changes
 - Polarizability = the ability to form instantaneous dipoles
 - The symmetric C H stretching of methane CH₄ is Raman active
 - The larger the change of polarizability, the higher the intensity



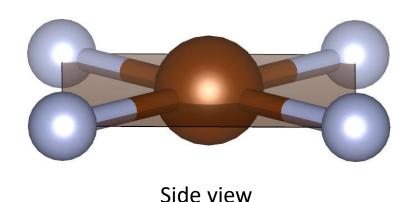
- For selection rules of point groups, see http://symmetry.jacobs-university.de/
 - IR active representations possess a linear function (x/y/z)
 - Raman active representations possess a quadratic function
- Interpretation of solid-state IR/Raman spectra is not as easy as for molecules
 - Nowadays facilitated by quantum chemical calculations

Interpretation of Raman and IR spectra: Ba(BrF₄)₂

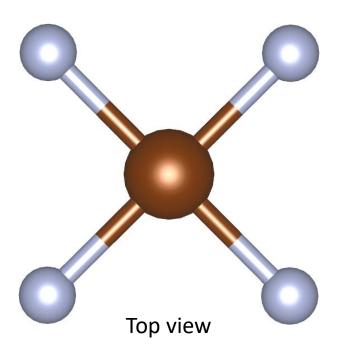
Synthesis and Characterization of Barium Tetrafluoridobromate(III) Ba(BrF₄)₂

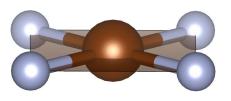
Sergey Ivlev, [a] Vasily Sobolev, [a] Markus Hoelzel, [b] Antti J. Karttunen, [c] Thomas Müller, [d] Ivan Gerin, [a] Roman Ostvald,*[a] and Florian Kraus*[d]

Eur. J. Inorg. Chem. 2014, 6261-6267

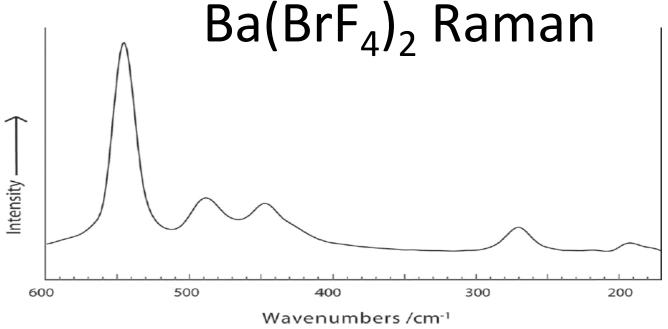


 BrF_4^- (D_{4h})

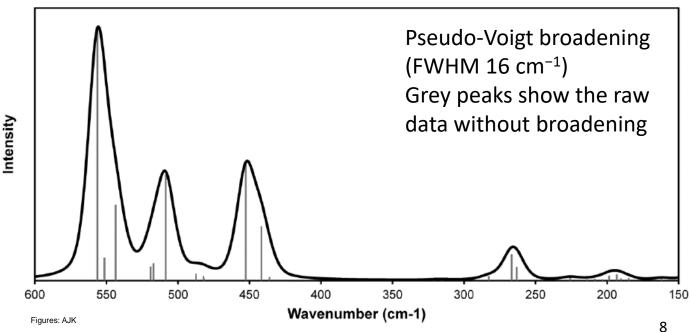




Experiment



Theory (DFT-PBE0/SVP)



Ba(BrF₄)₂ Raman and IR interpretation

Table 3. Assignment of IR and Raman bands of $Ba(BrF_4)_2$. The interpretation of the bands is straightforward and agrees well with the calculated Raman and IR intensities. The only thing "missing" in the experimental spectrum is the Br–F out-of-plane mode at about $300-320 \text{ cm}^{-1}$ (the calculated intensity of this mode is about 50% of the mode at 546 cm^{-1}).

IR frequency [cm ⁻¹]	Raman exp. frequency [cm ⁻¹] (rel. intensity)	Raman calcd. frequency [cm ⁻¹] (rel. intensity)	Mode symmetry for point group D_{4h}	Assignment of the vibrational mode
546 s 485 vs 416 s	549 (10.0) 491 (2.3) 450 (2.0) 273 (1.6) 195 (0.3)	555 (10) 509 (4.3) 452 (4.7) 266 (1.3) 196 (0.4)	$egin{array}{c} A_{1g} \ E_u \ B_{2g} \ B_{1g} \ B_{1u} \end{array}$	symmetric BrF ₄ stretch antisymmetric BrF ₄ stretch antisymmetric BrF ₄ stretch F scissoring F rocking (+ twisting)

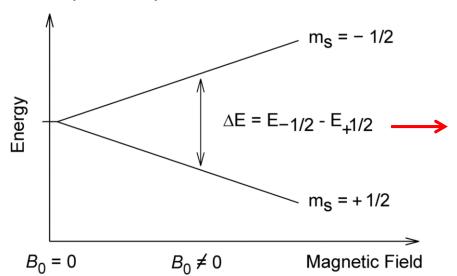
Complete assignment of the spectrum enabled by quantum chemistry!

Table S2. Interpretation of the theoretical Raman data. The assignment of the peaks was carried out by visual inspection of the normal modes (Jmol program package^[7]). The wavenumbers have been scaled by a factor of 0.95 (see the caption of Figure S4 for details). The intensities have been scaled so that the largest intensity is 1000. While the ideal point group symmetry of the BrF₄⁻ anion is D_{4h} , the point group symmetry is reduced to the subgroup S_4 in the space group I–4. Every D_{4h} vibrational mode is split into a set of three modes in S_4 (A, B, and E; the doubly degenerate E_u modes in D_{4h} split into two sets of A, B, E modes). All irreducible representations of the S_4 point group are Raman active, B and E are IR active. The red and blue shading are used to visually clarify the grouping of the raw frequencies. The vibrational modes of molecular BrF₄⁻ were inspected with the help of the TURBOMOLE and TmoleX program packages. [6]

Fitted Raman peak	Raw frequencies (cm ⁻¹)	Intensity	IR intensity (arb. units)	Irrep in S ₄	Irrep in D _{4h} (Raman/IR active)	Assignment
(cm ⁻¹)		(arb. units)				
	556	1000.0	0.0	A		
555	551	88.5	78.6	В	A _{lg} (Raman active)	Symmetric BrF4 stretch
	544	300.4	420.0	E	(Raman active)	9

Solid-state NMR spectroscopy (1)

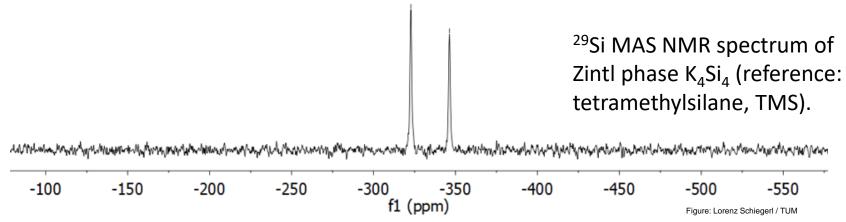
- Nuclear Magnetic Resonance (NMR) is an extremely important specroscopic tool for the determination of molecular structure
 - Bonding, coordination numbers, next nearest neighbors, etc.
- NMR utilizes the magnetic spin energy of atomic nuclei
 - The magnetic energy levels split into two groups, depending on whether the nuclear spins are aligned parallel or antiparallel to applied magnetic field
 - The energy difference between the parallel and antiparallel spin states is in the radiofrequency region of the electromagnetic spectrum
 - The magnitude of the energy change and the associated frequency of absorption depends on the element and its chemical environment



- 1. Nuclear spins are aligned with an external magnetic field
- 2. The spins are excited by radiofrequencies
- 3. The energy difference ΔE is measured

Solid-state NMR spectroscopy (2)

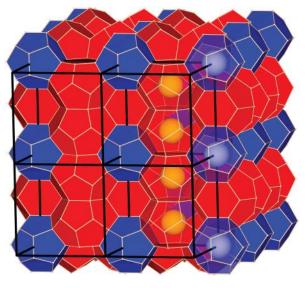
- Solid-state NMR is not as routine as solution-state NMR
 - In solution there is thermal motion of molecules and atoms, resulting in averaged NMR spectra that are rather straightforward to interpret
 - In solid state, the averaging effect of thermal motion is much smaller
- Solid-state NMR is enabled by Magic Angle Spinning (MAS)
 - The sample is rotated at a high velocity at a critical angle of 54.74° to the applied magnetic field
 - Chemical shifts are averaged so that interpretation becomes possible
 - First applications were on silicates (29Si, J. Am. Chem. Soc., 1980, 102, 4889)

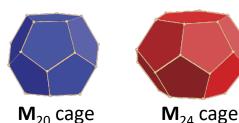


Solid-state NMR for $A_8Al_8Si_{38}$ (A=K, Rb, Cs)

A Combined Metal-Halide/Metal Flux Synthetic Route towards Type-I Clathrates: Crystal Structures and Thermoelectric Properties of $A_8Al_8Si_{38}$ (A = K, Rb, and Cs)

Volodymyr Baran, [a] Anatoliy Senyshyn, [b] Antti J. Karttunen, [c] Andreas Fischer, [d] Wolfgang Scherer, [d] Gabriele Raudaschl-Sieber, [a] and Thomas F. Fässler*[a] *Chem. Eur. J.* **2014**, *20*, 15077–15088





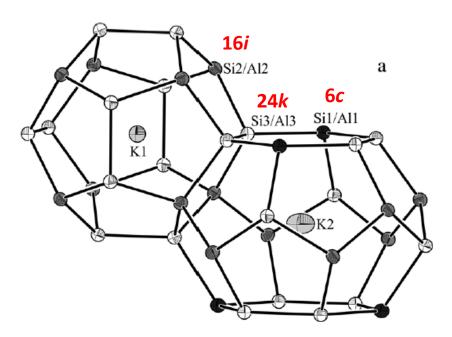
(**M** = Si, Ge, Sn)

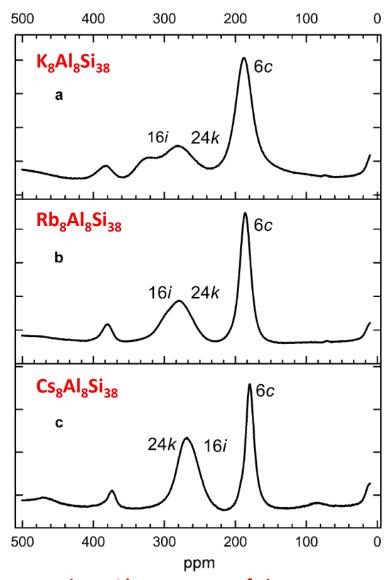
8 Al atoms distributed in 46 framework sites

Clathrate I (Pm-3n)

²⁷Al MAS NMR spectra

- Si and Al cannot be distinguished by XRD due to similar X-Ray scattering (neighboring elements, 13/14 electrons)
- Combination of neutron diffraction, MAS NMR, and computational solid-state NMR (DFT-PBE) enables the complete structural characterization of the Si/Al occupancy

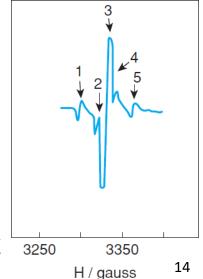




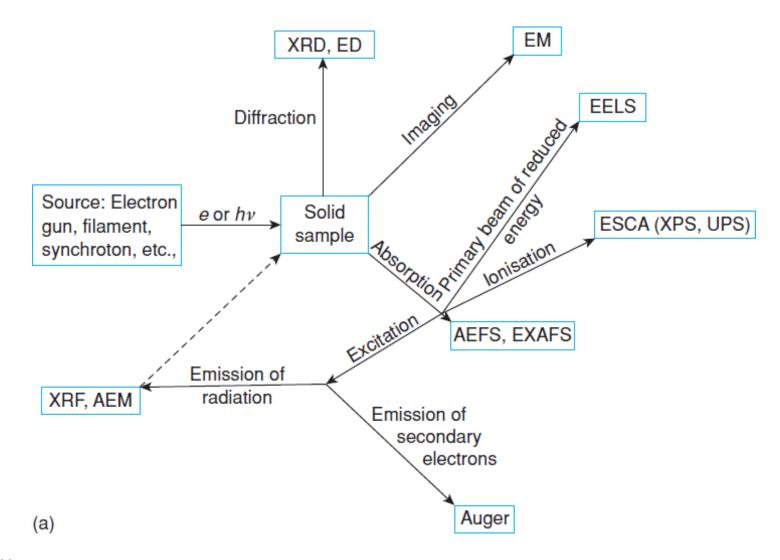
Electron spin resonance spectroscopy (ESR)

- The **ESR** technique, also known as electron paramagnetic resonance (**EPR**), is closely related to NMR
- Detects changes in **electron** spin configuration
- ESR depends on the presence of permanent magnetic dipoles (for example, unpaired electrons in many transition metal ions)
- The reversal of spin of the unpaired electrons in a magnetic field is recorded
- From ESR spectra, one can obtain information on the paramagnetic ion and its immediate environment in the host structure
 - The oxidation state, electronic configuration and coordination number of the paramagnetic ion
 - Structural distortions such as Jahn–Teller
 - The extent of any covalency in bonds between the paramagnetic ion and its surrounding anions or ligands

The ESR spectrum of CrO_a^{3-} in Ca_2PO_aCl at 77 K



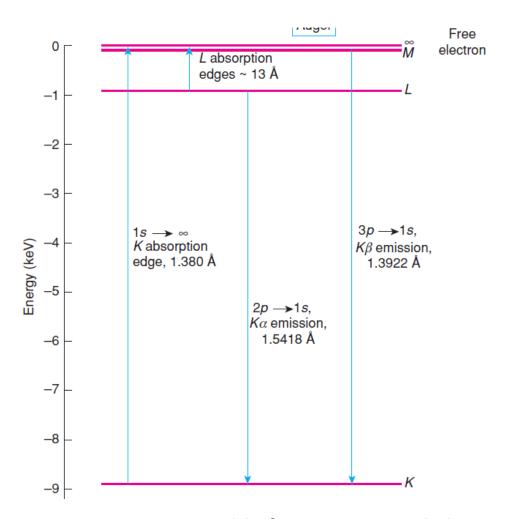
X-Ray and electron spectroscopies



X-Ray spectroscopies (1)

- The X-ray region of the electromagnetic spectrum is extremely useful for structural studies, analysis and characterisation of solids
- **Emission**: Utilize the characteristic X-ray emission spectra of elements generated by bombardment with high-energy X-Rays or electrons.
 - The spectra are mainly used for chemical analysis
 - They also have some uses in determination of local structure and coordination
- Absorption: measure the absorption of X-rays by samples, especially at energies in the region of absorption edges.
 - Powerful techniques for studying local structure but usually require a highenergy X-ray source such as a synchrotron

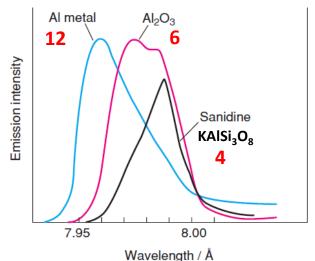
X-Ray spectroscopies (2)



Electronic transitions responsible for emission and absorption X-ray spectra. Wavelength values are for Cu.

X-Ray emission spectroscopies

- X-ray fluorescence spectroscopy (XRF, see <u>Solid State Chemistry Wiki</u>)
 - A solid sample is bombarded with high-energy X-Rays
 - The resulting emission spectrum is recorded
 - From the spectral peak positions, the elements present can be identified
 - From their intensities, a quantitative analysis can be made
- Peak positions vary slightly with local environment
 - Determination of local structure such as coordination numbers, bond distances
- XRF is a **bulk** technique, while and micron- or submicron-sized particles can be analyzed with Analytical Electron Microscopy, AEM (EPMA / EDAX / EDS)
 - In conjunction with SEM / TEM measurement, utilizing emitted X-Rays



Al Kβ emission spectra of three Alcontaining materials

Al coordination number in red

X-Ray absorption spectroscopies (1)

- Atoms give characteristic X-ray absorption spectra in addition to characteristic emission spectra
- X-ray Absorption Near Edge Structure (XANES)
 - (Absorption edge fine structure, AEFS)
 - The exact peak positions depend on details of oxidation state, site symmetry, surrounding ligands and the nature of the bonding

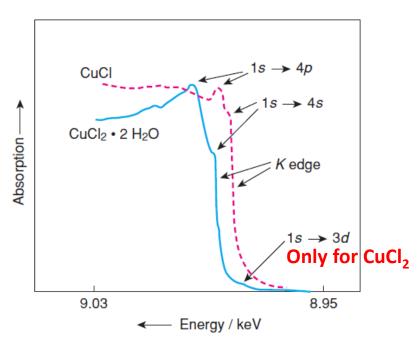
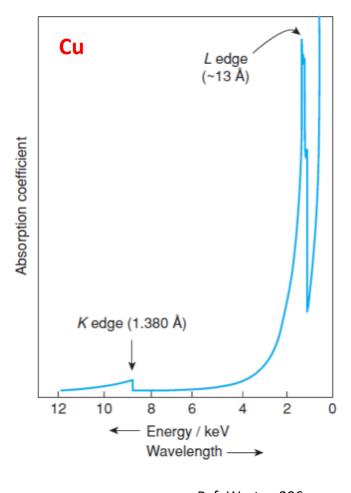


Figure 6.31 AEFS spectra of CuCl and CuCl₂·2H₂O.



X-Ray absorption spectroscopies (2)

- Extended X-ray Absorption Fine Structure (EXAFS) examines the variation of absorption with energy over a much wider range compared to XANES
 - From the absorption edge to higher energies by up to \sim 1 keV
 - See Solid State Chemistry Wiki
- The absorption usually shows a ripple, known also as the Kronig fine structure, from which information on local structure and bond distances may be obtained
- Often used to determine interatomic distances in amorphous materials

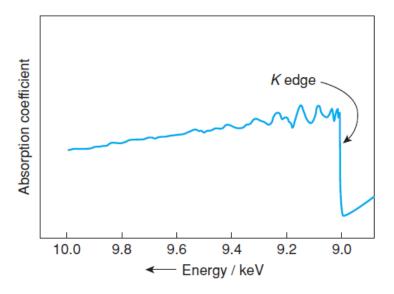


Figure 6.32 EXAFS spectrum of Cu. Reproduced with permission from E. A. Stern 'The Analysis of Materials by X-Ray Absorption' Scientific American, 234(4):96 © 1976 Scientific American, a division of Nature America, Inc.

Electron spectroscopies (1)

- Based on the kinetic energy of electrons that are emitted from matter as a consequence of bombarding it with ionizing radiation or high-energy particles
- Electron Spectroscopy for Chemical Analysis (ESCA)
 - X-Rays as ionizing radiation -> XPS (X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy)
 - UV-light as ionizing radiation -> UPS (ultraviolet photoelectron spectroscopy)
 - Auger electron spectroscopy (AES)
 - Electron energy loss spectroscopy (EELS, particularly useful for light atoms)

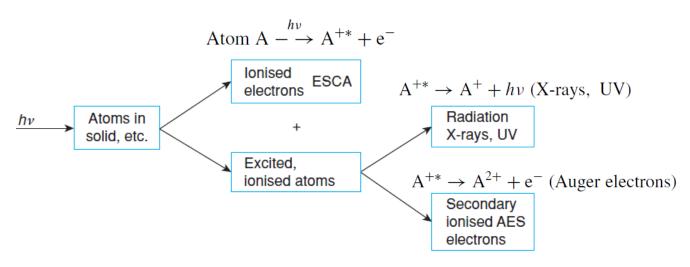


Figure 6.34 Origins of ESCA and Auger spectra.

Electron spectroscopies (2)

- XPS can be used to probe the local structure of solids (see <u>Solid State Chemistry Wiki</u>)
- This is possible because the binding energies of electrons may vary depending on the immediate environment of the particular atom and its charge or oxidation state
- In sodium thiosulfate, $Na_2S_2O_3$, the two types of S atom may be distinguished.
- Peaks are of equal height, indicating equal numbers of each. Assignment of the peaks of higher kinetic energy to the terminal S atom is made on the basis that this atom carries more negative charge than the central atom and is, therefore, easier to ionize

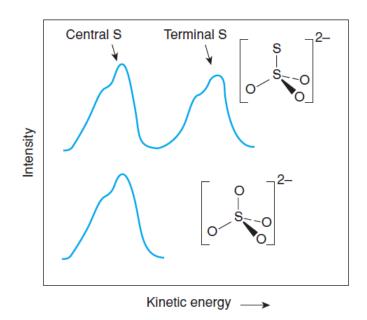


Figure 6.36 Schematic XPS 2p spectra of $Na_2S_2O_3$ and Na_2SO_4 . Each peak is a doublet because of the two spin-orbit states, 1/2 and 3/2, of the 2p electron.

Electron spectroscopies (3)

- KCr₃O₈ is a mixed valence compound better written as KCr^{III}(Cr^{VI}O₄)₂. Its XPS spectrum shows doublets for Cr 3s and 3p electrons.
- The intensities are in the ratio 2:1 and the peaks are assigned to the oxidation states Cr^{VI} and Cr^{III}.
- This fits with the formula and with the expectation that ionization potential is greater for Cr^{VI} than for Cr^{III} (the latter is easier to ionize, emitted e⁻ more energetic)

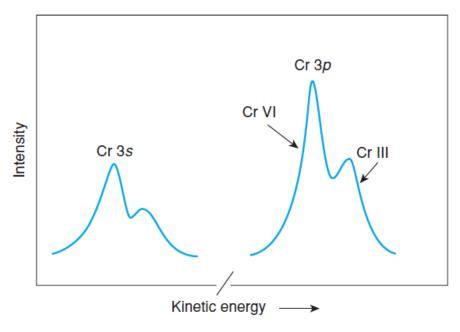


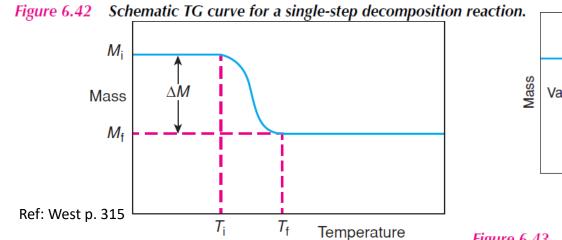
Figure 6.37 XPS spectrum of Cr 3s, 3p electrons in KCr_3O_8 .

Thermal analysis (TA)

- Measurement of certain physical and chemical properties as a function of T
 - Mainly enthalpy, heat capacity, mass, and coefficient of thermal expansion
- In solid state chemistry, thermal analysis can be used for the study of:
 - Solid state reactions
 - Thermal decompositions
 - Phase transitions
 - Determination of phase diagrams.
- The main thermal analysis techniques are:
 - Thermogravimetry (TG), which records the mass of a sample as a function of temperature or time.
 - Differential thermal analysis (DTA), which measures the difference in temperature between a sample and an inert reference material as a function of temperature (-> detects changes in heat content).
 - Differential scanning calorimetry (**DSC**) is a technique closely related to DTA. In DSC, the equipment is designed for a quantitative measurement of the enthalpy changes that occur.

Thermogravimetry (1)

- TG measures the change in mass of a substance as a function of T or time
- The results appear as a continuous record as shown in Figure below
- The sample is heated at constant rate and has a constant mass M_i , until it begins to decompose at temperature T_i .
- Under conditions of dynamic heating, decomposition usually takes place over a range of temperatures, T_i to T_f , and a second constant-mass plateau is observed above T_f , which corresponds to the mass of the residue M_f .
- The masses Mi and Mf and the difference ΔM are fundamental properties of the sample and can be used for quantitative calculations of compositional changes, etc.
- By contrast, the temperatures T_i and T_f depend on variables such as heating rate, nature of the solid (e.g. its particle size) and **atmosphere** above the sample



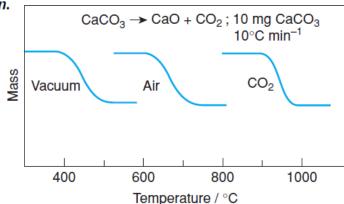


Figure 6.43 Decomposition of $CaCO_3$ in different atmospheres.

Thermogravimetry (2)

- In multistage decomposition processes, TG, either alone or in conjunction with DTA, may be used to separate and determine the individual steps
- Figure below illustrates the decomposition of calcium oxalate monohydrate
- Decomposition occurs in three stages giving, as intermediates, anhydrous calcium oxalate and calcium carbonate

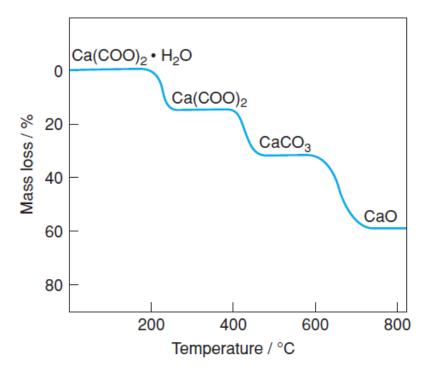
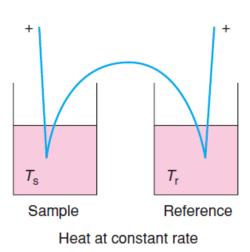


Figure 6.49 Schematic, stepwise decomposition of calcium oxalate hydrate by TG.

Differential thermal analysis (DTA)

- In DTA, the temperature of a sample is compared with that of an inert reference material during a programmed change of temperature
- The temperatures should be the same until some thermal event, such as melting, decomposition, or change in crystal structure, occurs
- In this case, the sample temperature either:
 - Lags behind the reference temperature (if the change is endothermic) or
 - Leads the reference temperature (if the change is exothermic)



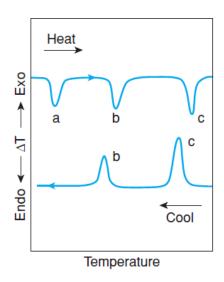


Figure 6.46 Some schematic reversible and irreversible changes: (a) dehydration, (b) polymorphic transition and (c) melting/solidification.

Strategy to identify, analyze, and characterize unknown solids

- The next two slides summarize how various characteriation methods can be applied to find out the composition and structure of an unknown solid
- The table does not include any property measurement techniques and their uses for the characterization of solids, for example:
 - Magnetic properties such as magnetic moment give information on the unpaired spins (-> electronic structure)
 - Electrical properties such as conductivity give information on the electronic structure, oxidation states, and the effect of dopants or defects
 - Optical property measurements can also give information on oxidation states and d / f electron configurations
- Numerous physical property measurement techniques are not discussed here. Just to list a few examples:
 - Mechanical/elastic properties (elastic moduli, hardness, ...)
 - Permittivities, refractive indices
 - Thermo-, piezo-, pyro-, and ferroelectric properties
 - Thermal conductivity, thermal expansion, heat capacity

Table 6.1 Strategy and overview for identification, analysis and structure determination of solids

Technique	Information sought	Notes
	1. What is it (in general terms?)	
Optical microscopy	 Is it amorphous/glassy or crystalline? Are the particles at least micron-size or submicron/nano? 	An invaluable, quick, first-look technique. If the solid is crystalline, follow-up characterisation of crystal symmetry is possible: are all the particles similar or is there a phase mixture?; are the crystals twinned?; is the crystal quality good (sharp extinction)?. If particles are submicron size, move on to SEM
Powder X-ray diffraction	 Crystalline phase identification; phase purity 	The most important general technique for fingerprinting solids. Should tell what crystalline phase(s) is present, but not its chemical composition. Can identify individual phases in a mixture. Requires access to database and assumes that all possible phases are in the database
	2. What is its chemical composit	
Atomic absorption spectroscopy; inductively-coupled plasma mass spectrometry	 Bulk chemical analysis of dissolved sample 	Gives overall chemical composition but no information on phase identity or purity. Dissolution prior to analysis may be easy or may require fusion in e.g. Na ₂ CO ₃ or B ₂ O ₃ , followed by dissolution
X-ray fluorescence	 Bulk chemical analysis of solids 	A non-destructive technique although the sample may be embedded within a glass matrix. Also, only gives overall composition. Not suitable for light elements
C, H, N analysis	 Composition of organic solids or organic component of organometallic compounds 	Relevant to molecular organic-based materials. Linked to spectroscopic techniques (NMR, mass spectrometry, IR) for structure determination. Separate branch of chemistry; not considered further here
Electron probe microanalysis; energy-dispersive analysis of X-rays; high-angle, annular	 Elemental analysis of individual particles from micron to ångström-level 	For micron-sized particles, use EPMA for quantitative analysis (excluding H, Li). For semiquantitative analysis to nanometre level, use SEM-EDX/EDS. For
darkfield/Z-contrast imaging		atomic-level analysis, use Z-contrast STEM
	3. What is its structure?	
Single-crystal X-ray diffraction	 Crystal structure: atomic coordinates of unit cell contents 	The standard technique for structure determination. For molecular materials, gives both solid state packing arrangement and molecular configuration. Crystals as small as 1–10 µm can be studied with synchrotron XRD
Powder X-ray and neutron diffraction (ND)	 Crystal structure: atomic coordinates of unit cell contents 	An increasingly powerful technique using synchrotron XRD but one needs access to national facilities for this and for ND. Assumes either prior knowledge of unit cell and space group or determination of these during earlier stages of data processing; not always possible, therefore. ND also gives magnetic structure
Electron diffraction: selected area and convergent beam	 Unit cell and space group 	Invaluable aid to structure determination if unit cell cannot be determined ab initio by powder XRD/ND. Full structure determination and refinement not usually possible with ED as diffraction intensities are unreliable

High-resolution and Z-contrast electron microscopy	Lattice imaging	Under favourable circumstances, lattice planes can be imaged by HREM. Invaluable for shear structures, layered intergrowths and homologous series of phases. Z-contrast imaging gives 2D structural projections directly, without focusing problems, at atomic level. Crystallites need to be oriented correctly
X-ray spectroscopies	 Local structure information on bulk materials 	Diffraction techniques give crystal structure information averaged over many unit cells. This is complemented by local structure information given by a wide range of spectroscopic techniques including XANES (for oxidation states) and EXAFS (for coordination numbers of specific elements and bond lengths)
Mössbauer spectroscopy	 Coordination numbers and oxidation states of selected elements 	Very powerful local structure probe but limited to a few elements: Fe, Sn, I
Electron spectroscopies	 Local structure information especially at surfaces 	The shallow escape depth for low-energy electrons gives surface-specific information. XPS provides rapid overview data for solid samples. EELS and Auger are electron microscope-based. EELS gives atomic-level bonding information when used in conjunction with Z-contrast imaging. Auger is particularly useful for light elements which give simpler spectra
NMR spectroscopy	 Element-specific local structure information 	Provides bulk information using the solid state, MAS technique. Particularly useful for amorphous materials such as aluminosilicate and borosilicate glasses and for characterising intermediate-range structural features (such as next nearest neighbours)
ESR spectroscopy	 Element-specific local structure information 	Specific to paramagnetic species; very high sensitivity
IR and Raman spectroscopy	 Identification of functional groups 	For non-carbon-containing materials, IR is useful for identifying functional groups such as oxyanions and H-species. Raman has uses for phase fingerprinting of e.g. C polymorphs
	4. Is it stable to temperature/at	mosphere?
Thermogravimetry	Determine thermal stability, susceptibility to atmospheric attack	TG detects weight loss from specific compounds such as hydrates or carbonates or the effects of atmospheric attack, mainly by H ₂ O, CO ₂ . Link TG to MS for evolved gas analysis. Drying conditions for chemical reagents can be established. Avoid possible instrument damage and contamination by separate prior heating tests on samples to maximum TG temperature. Use of TG to determine oxygen stoichiometries by H-reduction TG
Differential thermal analysis and differential scanning calorimetry	 Determine melting points, phase transitions and their modification with dopants/impurities 	DSC/DTA detect thermal events on heat/cool cycles. Combine with TG to separate effects involving weight loss. Determine reversibility of changes on heat/cool cycles. 30