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Nomenclature, Symbols, Units, and their Usage in Spectrochemical Analysis - XVIII

LASER-BASED MOLECULAR SPECTROSCOPY FOR
CHEMICAL ANALYSIS: RAMAN SCATTERING
PROCESSES

(IUPAC Recommendations 1997)

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SYNOPSIS: This report is 18th in a series on Spectrochemical Methods of Analysis issued by IUPAC Commission V.4. It is concerned with Raman scattering processes, usually induced by lasers, covering the UV, visible, and near infrared spectral regions. Raman scattering can be divided into linear and non-linear processes. Due to their importance for chemical analysis, mainly the linear Raman effects are treated.

CONTENTS:

1 INTRODUCTION
   1.1 Preceding documents
   1.2 Basic Raman scattering terms

2 MOLECULAR VIBRATIONS

3 METHODS OF OBSERVING MOLECULAR VIBRATIONS
   3.1 Infrared absorption
   3.2 Raman scattering
   3.3 Fluorescence

4 THE RAMAN SPECTRUM
   4.1 Raman frequencies
   4.2 Anharmonicity
   4.3 Raman intensities

5 NON-CLASSICAL RAMAN EFFECTS
   5.1 Resonance Raman effect
   5.2 Surface-enhanced Raman effect
   5.3 Non-linear Raman effects

6 RECORDING OF RAMAN SPECTRA
   6.1 Raman spectrometers
   6.2 The radiant power of Raman scattered radiation
   6.3 Influence of the optical properties of the sample
       6.3.1 Liquid samples
       6.3.2 Powder samples
   6.4 Influence of thermal emission
   6.5 Influence of fluorescence and phosphorescence
   6.6 Special sample arrangements
       6.6.1 Non-absorbing powders
       6.6.2 Absorbing samples
   6.7 Presentation of Raman spectra

7 INDEX OF TERMS

8 REFERENCES

Table XVIII.1
1 INTRODUCTION

1.1 Preceding documents

A series of documents dealing with nomenclature, symbols and units used in spectrochemical analysis has been issued by IUPAC:

Part I [Pure Appl. Chem., 30, 653-679 (1972)] is concerned mainly with general recommendations in the field of emission spectrochemical analysis.


Part III [Pure Appl. Chem. 45, 105-123 (1976), ] deals extensively with the nomenclature of analytical flame (atomic emission and absorption) spectroscopy and associated procedures.

Part IV [Pure Appl. Chem. 52, 2541-2552 (1980)] concerns X-ray emission (and fluorescence) spectroscopy.

Part V [Pure Appl. Chem. 57, 1453-1490 (1985)] deals with the classification and description of radiation sources.


Part VII [Pure Appl. Chem. 60, 1449-1460 (1988)] is concerned with molecular absorption spectroscopy (UV/VIS).


Part X [Pure Appl. Chem. 60, 1461-1472 (1988)] deals with sample preparation for analytical atomic spectroscopy and other related techniques.

Part XI [Pure Appl. Chem. 67, 1745-1760 (19945)] deals with the detection of radiation.

Part XII [Pure Appl. Chem. 64, 253-259, 1992] deals with terms related to electrothermal atomization.


Part XV [Pure Appl. Chem. 67, 1913-1928 (1995)] deals with the fundamental properties of lasers used in laser-based molecular spectroscopy for chemical analysis.

Part XVI [Pure Appl. Chem. 69; 1435-1449 (1997)] deals with laser-based molecular luminescence techniques for chemical analysis.


Many of the terms discussed in this document are related to previous documents, namely the general symbols defined in Parts I, VI, VII, IX, XI, and especially XV, XVI and XVII. Parts I - XIII and their index are also available electronically via http://chem.rsc.org/rsc/iupac/iupacv4/specanhp.htm.

1.2 Basic Raman scattering terms

A scattering process is an interaction of a primary light quantum with atoms, molecules, or their aggregates as crystals, by which a secondary light quantum is produced, with a different phase and polarization and maybe another energy when compared to that of the primary light quantum. The scattering process occurs with an extremely short time delay.
An elastic scattering process produces radiation with the same energy as that of the primary light. Depending on the size of a scattering particle and its refractive index relative to that of the surrounding medium, the processes are called Rayleigh, Mie or Tyndall scattering. Specular reflection can occur from large particles. Further, for collections of particles, processes of multiple reflection, refraction, and diffraction of powders may cause diffuse reflection or diffuse scattering.

An inelastic scattering process produces secondary light quanta with different energy. One such process is the Raman effect. During the interaction of the primary light quantum with a molecule or crystal, the energy of vibrational and/or rotational states may be exchanged and a secondary light quantum of lower or higher energy is emitted. The energy difference is equal to the vibrational energy $E_{\text{vib}}$ of a molecule or crystal and/or the rotational energy $E_{\text{rot}}$ of a molecule. It may be recorded, if monochromatic radiation is used for the primary excitation, as a vibrational, rotational or rotation-vibration Raman spectrum. The inelastic interaction of a primary light quantum with a molecule or crystal in its rotational or vibrational ground state produces the Stokes Raman spectrum, a red-shifted spectrum. Due to thermal excitation according to the Boltzmann equation, some molecules are in their vibrational (or rotational) excited states. The interaction of the primary light with these molecules may produce a blue-shifted Raman spectrum, the anti-Stokes Raman spectrum. The relative intensity of the Raman lines in the Stokes and anti-Stokes Raman spectra may be employed using the Boltzmann equation for the determination of the vibrational (or rotational) temperature.

In addition to the Raman effect, Brillouin scattering produces secondary light quanta by interaction with acoustic waves in crystals or liquids. Also, the Doppler effect due to the interaction with moving particles in a gas or liquid may produce light quanta with different energy as used in laser Doppler anemometry.

There are also other processes that produce secondary light quanta with different energies, but they occur with a time delay (longer than the phase relaxation time, see [XVI]) and are not scattering processes. An example is photoluminescence, by which a primary light quantum is absorbed and the excited state of the molecule or aggregate of molecules (including liquids; see below) emits, after some delay, a secondary light quantum as fluorescence, delayed fluorescence, or phosphorescence (see [VI]). These processes occur with a larger quantum yield, which may be about 10 orders of magnitude larger than that of a Raman scattering process, and therefore they can interfere with the detection of the Raman signal (see Sec. 6.5).

### 2 MOLECULAR VIBRATIONS

All motions of the nuclei in a molecule relative to other nuclei in the same molecule can be considered to be a superposition of normal vibrations $k$ for which all nuclei are vibrating with the same normal frequency $\nu_k$ and normal coordinate $q_k$. Polyatomic molecules, having $n$ atoms, possesses $3n-6$ normal vibrations ($3n-5$ when linear). The fundamental frequencies of the normal vibrations are dependent on the masses of the nuclei, their geometrical arrangement and the strength of the chemical bonds. In molecular aggregates, the vibrations of the individual components are coupled.

### 3 METHODS OF OBSERVING MOLECULAR VIBRATIONS

#### 3.1 Infrared absorption

According to quantum mechanics a molecule can take up an amount of energy, the vibrational energy $E_{\text{vib}} = h\nu_k$, to reach higher vibrationally excited states. Light quanta in the infrared region have wavelengths $\lambda$ of 2.5 to 1000 µm (wavenumbers 4000 to 10 cm$^{-1}$). Molecules may absorb light quanta of these wavelengths, exciting the molecular vibrations and producing an infrared absorption spectrum. (see Fig. 1a)

#### 3.2 Raman scattering

The molecules can also be irradiated using monochromatic radiation, the exciting radiation, [VI 3.1] from an excitation source (usually a laser) in the ultraviolet (UV), visible (VIS), or near-infrared (NIR)
region of the spectrum, whose quanta have the energy \( h\nu_0 \). During the inelastic scattering process, vibrational energy \( h\nu_k \) can be exchanged, whereby light quanta are scattered which have a scattered energy \( h\nu_R = h\nu_0 \pm h\nu_k \), giving rise to the Raman lines (see Fig. 1b). At the same time, other exciting light quanta are elastically scattered, producing the Rayleigh line (of frequency \( \nu_0 \)) with the same energy as the exciting line. The intensity of the Rayleigh line is normally several orders of magnitude larger than the Raman lines.

In Raman spectroscopy, exciting radiation from the visible part of the spectrum is usually employed. Using radiation with a frequency close to that of an electronic absorption, the resonance Raman effect may be observed (see Sec. 5.1). To mitigate interfering fluorescence processes, Raman spectra may be excited in the near-IR region (see Sec. 6.5).

Infrared and Raman spectroscopy are complementary tools for obtaining vibrational spectra. Depending on the nature of the vibration, which is determined by the symmetry of the molecule, vibrations may be active or forbidden in the infrared or Raman spectrum. **Infrared active** are all vibrations which modulate the molecular dipole moment. **Raman active** are vibrations which modulate the molecular polarizability. Vibrations which are forbidden in both spectra are called **silent**. Vibrations of molecules with a center of symmetry which are infrared active cannot be Raman active and vice versa, which is the **rule of mutual exclusion**.

![Fig. 1. a.) Infrared absorption; b.) Raman scattering; c.) fluorescence](image)

3.3 Fluorescence

Fluorescence spectroscopy, especially of gases, may also be employed to observe molecular vibrations. (see Fig. 1c and [XVI])

4 THE RAMAN SPECTRUM

When a molecule is exposed to an electric field, electrons and nuclei are forced to move in opposite directions. A dipole moment is induced which is proportional to the electric field strength and to the **molecular polarizability** \( \alpha \). A molecular vibration described by the normal coordinate \( q_k \) can be observed in the Raman spectrum only if it modulates to first order the molecular polarizability [Note 1]:

---

1 Note: According to the classical treatment. The quantum mechanical treatment is discussed in Ref. 1.
\[
\left( \frac{\partial \alpha}{\partial q} \right) \neq 0
\]

(1)

If the symmetry of the molecule is such that this condition is fulfilled, then the transition is said to be allowed or Raman active; if it is not fulfilled, it is said to be forbidden or Raman inactive.

4.1 Raman frequencies

A normal vibration is described by the normal coordinate \( q_k \) and the normal frequency \( \nu_k \):

\[
q_k = q_k^0 \cos(2\pi \nu_k t)
\]

(2)

The normal frequencies are dependent on the masses of the atoms, the elastic forces between them, the force constants, and the geometry of the atomic positions and may be calculated by the method of normal coordinate analysis (see Ref. 2). This method can be used to elucidate molecular structures by adjustment of molecular parameters to minimize the difference between calculated and observed frequencies.

If a molecule is put into an alternating electric field of frequency \( \nu_0 \) a dipole moment \( p \) with alternating polarity at the frequency \( \nu_0 \) is induced. The components of the vector of the electric field according to a molecular fixed Cartesian coordinate system are described by \( E_x, E_y \) and \( E_z \). The induced dipole moment \( p_i \) can be described by its components:

\[
\begin{align*}
  p_x &= \alpha_{xx} E_x + \alpha_{xy} E_y + \alpha_{xz} E_z \\
  p_y &= \alpha_{yx} E_x + \alpha_{yy} E_y + \alpha_{yz} E_z \\
  p_z &= \alpha_{zx} E_x + \alpha_{zy} E_y + \alpha_{zz} E_z
\end{align*}
\]

(3)

where \( \alpha_{ij} \) are components of the polarizability tensor \( \alpha \):

\[
\alpha = \begin{bmatrix}
  \alpha_{xx} & \alpha_{xy} & \alpha_{xz} \\
  \alpha_{yx} & \alpha_{yy} & \alpha_{yz} \\
  \alpha_{zx} & \alpha_{zy} & \alpha_{zz}
\end{bmatrix}
\]

which projects the electric field vector \( \vec{E} \) to produce the induced dipole moment vector \( \vec{p} \). This can be written in matrix notation as:

\[
\vec{p} = \alpha \vec{E}
\]

Equations 3 and 4 can be combined to give:

\[
p_k = \alpha_0 E_0 \cos(2\pi \nu_k t) + \frac{1}{2} \left( \frac{\partial \alpha}{\partial q_k} \right)_0 q_k^0 E_0 \left[ \cos(2\pi (\nu_0 - \nu_k) t) + \cos(2\pi (\nu_0 + \nu_k) t) \right]
\]

(4)

This oscillating Hertzian dipole \( |\vec{p}_k| \) produces electromagnetic radiation. The first term in Eq. 5 describes Rayleigh scattering, the second term Stokes Raman scattering, and the third anti-Stokes Raman scattering. This classical equation, however, does not show the individual intensities of Stokes and anti-Stokes Raman lines.
4.2 Anharmonicity

As the molecular potential is anharmonic, the higher-order terms of the potential energy of the molecules are not negligible. This mechanical anharmonicity gives rise to combination frequencies. They are also produced by the higher terms of the polarizability, i.e. the electrical anharmonicity (see Eq. 4). Thus, combinations of two or more normal vibrations, i.e. overtones, sum or difference frequencies, are produced. These appear as bands in the spectra, but usually only with small intensity. Interactions of the combination frequencies with fundamentals also occur; the interaction of an overtone or combination with a fundamental of the same symmetry and nearly the same frequency is called Fermi resonance, which enhances the intensity of the overtone or combination at the expense of the fundamental, leading in this extreme case to two lines of nearly equal intensity.

4.3 Raman intensities

Placzek’s theory (1934) describes the Raman effect quantitatively on the condition that the exciting frequency differs considerably from the frequencies of electronic as well as of vibrational transitions.

In order to describe the intensity of the Raman lines of liquids or gases the parameters \( \alpha_k \) and \( \gamma_k \) are used. They stand for the isotropic and the anisotropic parts of the polarizability change during a normal vibration \( n \), respectively, and are given by (in order to simplify these equations, the subscript \( k \) has been omitted):

\[
\alpha' = \frac{1}{3} \left[ \alpha'_{xx} + \alpha'_{yy} + \alpha'_{zz} \right] \quad (6)
\]

\[
\gamma^2 = \frac{1}{2} \left[ \left( \alpha'_{xx} - \alpha'_{yy} \right)^2 + \left( \alpha'_{yy} - \alpha'_{zz} \right)^2 + \left( \alpha'_{zz} - \alpha'_{xx} \right)^2 + 6 \left( \alpha'_{xy}^2 + \alpha'_{xz}^2 + \alpha'_{zy}^2 \right) \right] \quad (7)
\]

The terms \( \alpha'_{ij} = \left[ \frac{\partial \alpha_{ij}}{\partial q} \right]_0 \) are the components of the tensor of the polarizability change resulting from a normal vibration \( q \).

The polarizability has the dimension J\(^{-1}\) C\(^2\) m\(^2\). In the old literature the polarizability has been described as a volume, in analogy to the molecular volume \( (1 \text{ Å}^3 = 10^{-24} \text{ cm}^3) \). The polarizability volume results when the polarizability given in SI units is divided by 4 \( \pi \varepsilon_0 \) (in J\(^{-1}\) C\(^2\) m\(^{-1}\)). The normal coordinates are mass weighted and have the dimension cm g\(^{1/2}\).

When the Raman spectrum of a liquid or a gas is measured by irradiating along the \( c \) axis with linearly polarized radiation whose electric vector is oriented in the \( a \) direction and the Raman spectrum is observed along the \( b \) axis (Fig. 2), then the \( c \) and \( b \) axis define the plane of observation.

The integral Raman scattering coefficient (the absolute differential Raman scattering cross section \( d\sigma/d\Omega \) in cm\(^2\) sr\(^{-1}\)) of the Stokes line (shifted to lower energies) of the \( k \)th Raman-active vibration of wavenumber \( \tilde{\nu}_k \), with the electric vector of the exciting radiation oriented perpendicular to the plane of observation, is given by [Ref. 4]:

\[
\left( \frac{d\sigma}{d\Omega} \right)_{k,l} = \frac{\pi^2}{45 \varepsilon_0^2} \cdot \frac{b_k^2 (\tilde{\nu}_0 - \tilde{\nu}_k)^4}{1 - \exp(-\frac{h\nu_k}{kT})} \cdot g_k \left( 45 \alpha'_{k}^2 + 7 \gamma'_{k}^2 \right) \quad (8)
\]

where \( \sigma \) is the scattering cross section, \( \Omega \) is the solid angle, and \( g_k \) is the degeneracy of this vibration. The expression

\[
g_k \left( 45 \alpha'_{k}^2 + 7 \gamma'_{k}^2 \right) \quad (9)
\]
is known as the scattering activity, and

\[ b_k^2 = \frac{\hbar}{8 \pi^2 c} \tilde{v}_k \]

is the square of the zero point amplitude of the vibration. Eq. 8 may be simplified:

\[
\left( \frac{\text{d} \sigma}{\text{d} \Omega} \right)_{k \perp} = \frac{\hbar}{2^3 c \varepsilon_0^2} \frac{\left( \tilde{v}_0 - \tilde{v}_k \right)^4}{\tilde{v}_k \left[ 1 - \exp \left( -\frac{\hbar c \tilde{v}_k}{kT} \right) \right]} g_k \left( \alpha_k^2 + \frac{7}{45} \gamma_k^2 \right) 
\]

(11)

This equation is valid for observation without a polarization analyzer. In order to eliminate the usual different transmission of spectrometers for radiation of different polarization orientation, an arrangement is used which allows the polarization of the exciting radiation to be switched between the \( a \) direction (perpendicular, \( \perp \)) and the \( b \) direction (parallel, \( || \)) while only allowing scattered radiation with its electric vector oriented in the \( a \) direction (\( \perp \) to the plane of observation) to enter the spectrometer. In this case, for exciting radiation with its electric vector oriented in the \( a \) direction (\( \perp \) to the plane of observation), the scattering coefficient is given by:

\[
\left( \frac{\text{d} \sigma}{\text{d} \Omega} \right)_{k \perp} = \frac{\hbar}{2^3 c \varepsilon_0^2} \frac{\left( \tilde{v}_0 - \tilde{v}_k \right)^4}{\tilde{v}_k \left[ 1 - \exp \left( -\frac{\hbar c \tilde{v}_k}{kT} \right) \right]} g_k \left( \alpha_k^2 + \frac{4}{45} \gamma_k^2 \right) 
\]

(12)

and conversely, if the electric vector of the exciting radiation is oriented in the \( b \) direction (\( || \) to the plane of observation), then the scattering coefficient is given by:

\[
\left( \frac{\text{d} \sigma}{\text{d} \Omega} \right)_{k ||} = \frac{\hbar}{2^3 c \varepsilon_0^2} \frac{\left( \tilde{v}_0 - \tilde{v}_k \right)^4}{\tilde{v}_k \left[ 1 - \exp \left( -\frac{\hbar c \tilde{v}_k}{kT} \right) \right]} g_k \left( \frac{3}{45} \gamma_k^2 \right) 
\]

(13)

In the case of anti-Stokes Raman scattering (superscript \( + \)) with the electric vector of the exciting radiation oriented in the \( a \) direction (\( \perp \) to the plane of observation), the scattering coefficient is:
The ratio of the coefficients of the Stokes and anti-Stokes Raman lines, the *Stokes/anti-Stokes intensity ratio* is given by:

\[
\frac{\left(\frac{d\sigma}{d\Omega}\right)_k^+}{\left(\frac{d\sigma}{d\Omega}\right)_k^-} = \left(\frac{\tilde{\nu}_0 - \tilde{\nu}_k}{\tilde{\nu}_0 + \tilde{\nu}_k}\right)^4 \cdot \exp\left(\frac{hc}{\tilde{\nu}_k} / kT\right)
\]

(15)

This equation allows contact-free determination of sample temperature.

The equation above is valid for instruments which measure intensities of the radiation. If, however, instruments use photon counting devices, then the Stokes/anti-Stokes ratio given in Eq. 15 changes into:

\[
r = \frac{n^-}{n^+} = \left(\frac{\tilde{\nu}_0 - \tilde{\nu}_k}{\tilde{\nu}_0 + \tilde{\nu}_k}\right)^3 \cdot \exp\left(\frac{hc}{\tilde{\nu}_k} / kT\right)
\]

(16)

where for photon counting \( I \propto P = n(\nu_0 \pm \nu_1) \), and \( n \) = the count rate [Ref. 4].

Very useful information can be derived from the intensities in spectra that are obtained as in equations 12 and 13 (i.e. with a polarization analyzer oriented along the *a* direction and excitation with polarization parallel and perpendicular to the plane of observation). The ratio of the two scattering coefficients is known as the *depolarization ratio* \( \rho \):

\[
\rho_k = \frac{\left(\frac{d\sigma}{d\Omega}\right)_k^-}{\left(\frac{d\sigma}{d\Omega}\right)_k^+} = \frac{3 \gamma_k^2}{45 \alpha_k^2 + 4 \gamma_k^2}
\]

(17)

The depolarization ratio may be used to determine the symmetry of the vibrations of molecules in the liquid or gaseous state. The *depolarization ratio for totally symmetric vibrations* lies between 0 and 3/4. For cubic point groups, the depolarization ratio for totally symmetric vibrations is 0. All other vibrations have a depolarization ratio of 3/4 [Ref. 3].

Single crystals give, when their crystal axes are oriented in the direction of the axes of the instrument, up to 6 different Raman spectra, showing the activity with respect to the different symmetry species of the vibrations of the unit cell. Their orientation is described by the *Porto notation* [Ref. 4], \( a(bc)d \), where *a* is the direction of the exciting radiation with electric vector oriented in the *b* direction and, with an analyzer transmitting radiation with an electric vector parallel to the *c* direction, the radiation emerging in the *d* direction is measured.

### 5 Non-Classical Raman Effects

#### 5.1 Resonance Raman effect

*Resonance Raman spectroscopy* (RRS) makes use of an excitation source with frequency close to a molecular electronic absorption frequency. Under these conditions a resonance occurs which may enhance the intensities of the Raman lines by several orders of magnitude, especially those connected with totally symmetric vibrations of the chromophore. (Fig. 3)
5.2 Surface-enhanced Raman effect

The influence of small metal (silver, gold, copper) particles such as colloids or roughened surfaces on the elementary process of Raman scattering can enhance the intensity of the Raman effect by several orders of magnitude. This effect is used in surface-enhanced Raman spectroscopy (SERS).

Resonance and surface-enhanced Raman effects may be combined to produce surface-enhanced resonance Raman spectroscopy (SERRS).

\[ V \]

Fig. 3. a.) Raman scattering; b.) near-resonance Raman; c.) resonance Raman

RRS, SERS, and SERRS can be recorded with the same spectrometers as classical Raman spectra, although different conditions of the excitation and special sample techniques are used. They are important techniques for trace chemical analyses.

5.3 Non-linear Raman effects

If the exciting radiation has a very high intensity, then the higher terms of the polarizability expansion have to be considered:

\[ p = \alpha \tilde{E}_i + \frac{1}{2} \beta \tilde{E}_i \tilde{E}_j + \frac{1}{6} \gamma \tilde{E}_i \tilde{E}_j \tilde{E}_k + \ldots \]  

where $\beta$ is the 1st molecular hyperpolarizability, and $\gamma$ is the 2nd molecular hyperpolarizability, leading to non-linear Raman effects.

Hyper-Raman scattering is produced by very high intensity pulses. Two photons of the exciting radiation produce the Raman spectrum.

With two or three laser beams of different frequency, different coherent Raman effects may be observed. Fig. 4 describes the most important of these effects: coherent Stokes Raman spectroscopy, CSRS; coherent anti-Stokes Raman spectroscopy, CARS; stimulated Raman gain spectroscopy, SRGS;
inverse Raman spectroscopy, IRS or stimulated Raman loss spectroscopy, SRLS [Note]; and photoacoustic Raman spectroscopy, PARS.

\[ n_k = n_L - n_S \]

\[ I_{S(2v_S - v_L)} \quad \text{CSRS} \]
\[ +\Delta I_S(v_S) \quad \text{SRGS} \]
\[ -\Delta I_S(v_L) \quad \text{SRLS} \]
\[ I_{S(2v_L - v_S)} \quad \text{CARS} \]
\[ \text{Sample} \]

Fig. 4. The most analytically useful coherent Raman effects (after Kiefer in Ref. 3, p.168)

6. RECORDING OF RAMAN SPECTRA

6.1 Raman spectrometers

The radiant flux through a spectrometer is (see [I, appendix B]):

\[ \Phi = L \tilde{\nu} G \tilde{\nu} (\Delta \tilde{\nu})^2 \tau \]

(19)

with \( L \tilde{\nu} \), the spectral radiance and \( G \tilde{\nu} \) the spectral optical conductance, \( \Delta \tilde{\nu} \) the spectral bandwidth [XVI 2.1], and \( \tau \) the transmission factor of the instrument [IX 4.2]. The spectral optical conductance of a grating spectrometer [IX 7.3.4] is approximately:

\[ G_G \approx \frac{h A_G}{f \tilde{\nu}} \]

(20)

where \( A_G \) is the beam area at the grating of the spectrometer, \( h \) is the slit length of the grating spectrometer and \( f \) is the collimator focal length [IX 4.1]. The spectral optical conductance of a Michelson interferometer is given by:

\[ G_I \approx \frac{2 \pi A_I}{\tilde{\nu}} \]

(21)

where \( A_I \) is the beam area at the beamsplitter of the interferometer. The ratio of both equations is:

\[ \frac{G_I}{G_G} = \frac{2 \pi f A_I}{h A_G} \]

(22)

When \( A_I = A_G \), this ratio is called the Jacquinot advantage. As the slit height of a grating spectrometer is usually about 1/50 of the focal length, this ratio is about 300. This means that interferometers may transport a considerably larger radiation flux to the detector than grating spectrometers.

When a grating spectrometer is used with an array detector, a manifold of exit slits are in principle acting simultaneously. This is the basis of the multichannel advantage of such instruments. Interferometers use one detector element to measure the intensities of many spectral channels

\(^2\) Note: Stimulated Raman loss spectroscopy is the recommended term.
simultaneously. If the detector is the main source of noise, then the signal to noise ratio $r_{SN}$ (XI Table 1) is increased relative to a single channel instrument proportionally to the square root of the number of spectral channels - the multiplex advantage.

6.2 The radiant power of Raman scattered radiation

The differential Raman scattering cross section is proportional to the fourth power of the emitted frequency, the $v^4$ factor. Dividing Eq. 8 by $(\tilde{\nu}_{ref} - \tilde{\nu}_k)^4$, gives the absolute normalized Raman scattering cross section (Eq. 23) of a Raman line with frequency shift $\nu_k$. [Ref. 3]

$$\left( \frac{d\sigma}{d\Omega} \right)_k \cdot (\tilde{\nu}_{ref} - \tilde{\nu}_k)^{-4} = \frac{h}{2^3 c^2 e^2_0} \cdot \frac{g_k}{\tilde{\nu}_k \left[ -\exp\left( -hc\tilde{\nu}_k/kT \right) \right]} \left( \alpha_k^2 + \frac{7}{45} \gamma_k^2 \right)$$

(23)

where $\tilde{\nu}_{ref}$ is the reference excitation wavenumber (see Ref. 5). The right-hand side of Eq. 23 represents the microscopic parameters of the sample and has been tabulated for a number of gases and liquids and for several $\tilde{\nu}_{ref}$ in Ref. 5. According to Placzkâ's theory, this expression should be independent of the frequency of the exciting radiation in the absence of a resonance or near-resonance Raman effect. The term on the left-hand side normalizes the observed Raman intensity by including the $v^4$ factor.

The radiant power of the observed radiation is proportional to the absolute normalized Raman scattering cross section, i.e. to the $v^4$ factor and to the number of molecules per unit volume $N$. The Raman scattering coefficient $s_R$ of this line is thus:

$$s_R = \left( \frac{d\sigma}{d\Omega} \right)_k \cdot (\tilde{\nu}_{ref} - \tilde{\nu}_k)^{-4} \cdot (\tilde{\nu}_0 - \tilde{\nu}_k)^4 \cdot N \cdot L_n$$

(24)

where $L_n$ is the internal field factor:

$$L_n = \left( \frac{n_R}{n_0} \right) \left( \frac{n_R^2 + 2}{n_0^2 + 2} \right) \frac{3^4}{2^3 c^2 e^2_0}$$

(25)

and $n_0$ and $n_R$ are the refractive indices of the scattering medium at the wavelength of the exciting and the Raman radiation, respectively, which takes into account the increase of the incident and scattered electric field due to the dielectric nature of the scattering medium.

The radiance of a Raman line $L_R$ (scattered power per unit solid angle per unit area of sample integrated over the Raman line in question) is proportional to the radiant power of the exciting radiation divided by the cross sectional beam area $r^2 \pi$ and multiplied by the Raman scattering coefficient:

$$L_R = \Phi_0 \frac{d}{r^2 \pi} \cdot s_R$$

(26)

where $d$ is the sample thickness of the observed sample, and $r$ is the beam radius [XV].

6.3 Influence of the optical properties of the sample

For chemical analysis, a sample arrangement should make it possible to record Raman spectra within a short time period with a high signal to noise ratio $r_{SN}$ [XI Table 1] using a small amount of substance (small sample). To optimize the sample arrangement one must enhance the measured intensity of the Raman radiation produced by a given radiant power of the laser radiation. It is of the utmost importance to take into account and make proper use of the optical properties of the sample.

The Kubelka-Munk theory can be extended to describe the Raman scattering of crystal powders, liquids, and transparent solids (Ref. 6). This theory considers one surface of a layer with thickness $d$
irradiated homogeneously with radiant intensity $I_0$. $I$ and $J$ are the radiation intensities emerging from the surfaces with the subscripts P and R representing, respectively, unshifted (primary) and Raman radiation. A parameter $k$ is introduced:

$$k^2 = 2ra + \alpha^2$$  \hspace{1cm} (27)

where $\alpha$ is the linear Napierian absorption coefficient and $r$ is the linear Napierian scattering coefficient. [Ref. 7]

For chemical analysis it is particularly important to know the transmitted Raman-to-unshifted intensity ratio (i.e. in the $0_\nu$ arrangement): [Refs. 3, 6]

$$\frac{I_R}{I_P} = \frac{s k^2 d - r + (\alpha + r)kd \coth kd}{\alpha + r + k \coth kd}$$  \hspace{1cm} (28)

and back-scattered Raman-to-unshifted intensity ratio (i.e. in the $180_\nu$ arrangement):

$$\frac{J_R}{J_P} = \frac{s k \sinh kd + (\alpha + r) \cosh kd - kr d}{r \alpha (\alpha + r) \sinh kd + k \cosh kd}$$  \hspace{1cm} (29)

where $s$ is the linear Napierian Raman scattering coefficient, and $I$ and $J$ are the forward and back-scattered intensities of the unshifted (subscript P) and Raman (subscript R) radiation at the frequencies $\nu_0$ and $\nu_k$, respectively, see Fig. 5.

In classical Raman spectroscopy, Raman spectra are recorded from colorless samples with exciting radiation in the visible range of the spectrum. In this case, $\alpha$ is of the order of $10^{-3}$ to $10^{-5}$ cm$^{-1}$. However, in the near infrared (NIR) range, $\alpha$ may be of the order $10^{-1}$ to $10^2$ cm$^{-1}$ because of the overtones and combinations of the X-H stretching vibrations (where X may be any element).

The scattering coefficient for crystal powders is approximately inversely proportional to the diameter of the particles. For coarse, medium and fine powders, $r$ is approximately 10, 100, and 1000 cm$^{-1}$, respectively. In the case of pure liquids, solutions, fibers, and single crystals, $r$ is approximately 0.

Figs. 5 a.) and b.) show the relative intensities $J_R$ and $I_R$ of the Raman radiation of samples with different thicknesses in the back-scattering and the forward-scattering arrangement. Figs. 5 c.)and d.) show the reflectance $\rho$ and the transmittance $\tau$ of the exciting radiation, with $J_P/I_0 = \rho$ and $I_P/I_0 = \tau$. The Raman scattering coefficient is assumed to be equal for all samples. Only relative intensities of the Raman spectrum are discussed.

6.3.1 Liquid samples

Liquids can be assumed to be samples with an elastic scattering coefficient approaching 0. The diagrams for $r = 0$ show that in the back-scattering arrangement (Fig. 5 a), the intensities of the Raman lines increase with the sample thickness. Fig. 5 c.) demonstrates that under the same conditions the intensity of unshifted radiation is very low. In the forward scattering arrangement, however, the intensity of the Raman lines also increases with the thickness of the sample (Fig. 5 b), but the Raman radiation is mixed with a very large amount of unshifted radiation (Fig. 5 d). Thus, liquids are best investigated with a back-scattering arrangement with a large effective thickness.

6.3.2 Powder samples

Coarse, medium, and fine crystal powders have an elastic scattering coefficient of about 10, 100, or 1000 cm$^{-1}$, respectively. With the back-scattering arrangement (Fig. 5 a), the intensity of the Raman lines increases with the thickness of the sample. In the case of fine powders ($r = 1000$ cm$^{-1}$), this intensity reaches a small limiting value at a small thickness. For larger grains ($r = 10$ or 100 cm$^{-1}$), a higher limiting value is reached at a larger thickness. The same samples show a reflectance (Fig. 5 c) which approaches, for larger scattering coefficients, higher limiting values at smaller thicknesses. The limiting value for $r = 1000$ cm$^{-1}$ is $\rho = 98.6\%$; for $r = 100$ cm$^{-1}$, $\rho = 95.6\%$; and for $r = 10$ cm$^{-1}$, $\rho = 87.8\%$. 
Therefore, the low intensity of the Raman radiation can be considerably enhanced by utilizing multiple reflections of the exciting and the emerging Raman radiation both in the sample and using an external spherical mirror. Thus \textit{multiple reflection arrangements} may have a high efficiency which is nearly independent of the size of the grains!

Fig. 5 b.) shows the intensity of the Raman radiation using a forward-scattering arrangement. At an \textit{optimum sample thickness} $d_{\text{opt}}$, the Raman radiation has a maximum which increases as the elastic scattering coefficient decreases. The exciting radiation which emerges from the sample (Fig. 5 d) decreases in intensity with increasing elastic scattering coefficient.

\begin{figure}
\centering
\includegraphics[width=\textwidth]{figure5.png}
\caption{Plots of the forward ($I$) and backscattered ($J$), unshifted (P) and Raman (R) intensities versus sample thickness $d$ and at several values of $r$, for $\alpha = 0.1$ cm$^{-1}$. The incident intensity is $I_0$. Plot a.) is of $J_R$ the back-scattered Raman intensity; b.) is of $I_R$, the forward-scattered Raman intensity; c.) is of $\rho$, the reflectance of the Rayleigh radiation; and d.) is of $\tau$, the transmittance of the Rayleigh radiation.}
\end{figure}
Compared to back-scattering arrangements, forward-scattering arrangements produce lower absolute intensities of the Raman lines. However, the ratio of the Raman line intensity relative to the intensity of the exciting radiation emerging from the sample exceeds that of a back-scattering arrangement by one or two orders of magnitude. Thus, the optimum sample arrangement for Raman spectroscopy of crystal powders with a low absorption coefficient is a forward-scattering \((0^\circ)\) multiple reflection arrangement of coarse crystallites with an optimum sample thickness. In the case of relatively high absorption coefficients, as in NIR-excited Raman spectroscopy, coarse powders should be investigated with a back-scattering \((180^\circ)\) multiple reflection arrangement.

\[L_{\nu,T} = \frac{2hc\nu^3}{\exp\left(hc\nu/kT\right) - 1\left(1-10^{-\epsilon(\nu)Cd}\right)}\]  

where \(c\) is the speed of light in vacuum and \(C\) is the molar concentration of substance.

\section*{6.4 Influence of thermal emission}

Especially for Raman spectroscopy with excitation in the NIR range, thermal emission, due to due to heating of the sample for the laser radiation, may interfere with the detection of the Raman signals. The \textit{Planck-Kirchhoff law} determines the spectral radiance of a sample with a molar decadic absorption coefficient \(\epsilon\) at a wavenumber \(\nu\) and a temperature \(T\):

\[L_{\nu,T} = \frac{2hc\nu^3}{\exp\left(hc\nu/kT\right) - 1\left(1-10^{-\epsilon(\nu)Cd}\right)}\]  

Even small amounts of contaminant or nascent fluorescent species can produce fluorescence that masks the Raman spectrum of a sample because typical fluorescence cross sections are \(10^6\) times larger than Raman cross sections. Shifting the excitation frequency to lower energies, so that electronic excitation of sample or contaminants is avoided, is an appropriate method to reduce fluorescence interference. Excitation using Nd:YAG [see XV] radiation at 1064 nm has proven to be useful in this context. The strong dependence on the \(\nu^4\) factor causes a reduction of the Raman intensity compared to visible excitation. This disadvantage can be compensated using the Jacquinot and multiplex advantages of interferometers [see IX].
6.6 Special sample arrangements

6.6.1 Non-absorbing powders

For non-absorbing crystal powders, the forward-scattering multiple reflection arrangement is superior to other arrangements because it combines a high scattered intensity of the Raman radiation with the maximum transmitted Raman to excitation intensity ratio.

6.6.2 Absorbing samples

Absorbing samples – as in the case of NIR-excited Raman spectroscopy – should be measured using a 180° back-scattering multiple reflection arrangement. Often interferometers are employed, which have a circular entrance aperture, the Jacquinot stop, instead of an entrance slit as in a grating spectrometer. The 180° back-scattering arrangement is therefore recommended for three reasons: 1) the intensities observed under these conditions are the highest; 2) the exciting radiation irradiates a conical volume of the sample (the Raman radiation emerging from this volume irradiates optimally the beam splitter of the interferometer through the circular Jacquinot stop); and 3) a circular spot is more aberration-tolerant than a line of the same area and thus can be demagnified further. [Ref. 5]

Use of a spherical cuvette will improve the detected fraction of the Raman signal versus a rectangular cuvette. The foci are not blurred, the effective solid angle of the collected Raman radiation is equal to that of the sample optics, and the reflection losses are small and equal because for every ray \( \Theta = 0 \). The necessary amount of sample is about the size of the focal region of the exciting laser beam. The sample at the focus of the laser beam may be effectively cooled if the sphere is made from a material which has a high thermal conductance, such as sapphire.

6.7 Presentation of Raman spectra

It is recommended that Raman spectra be presented with a linear abscissa scale in wavenumbers (cm\(^{-1}\)) increasing from the right to the left. In this way, Raman spectra can be compared better to the complementary infrared spectra. However, the ordinate scale should be drawn linearly increasing from bottom to top with relative or preferably absolute intensity units.

7 INDEX OF TERMS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Term</th>
<th>Section</th>
<th>Term</th>
<th>Section</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>absolute differential Raman scattering</td>
<td>4.3</td>
<td>depolarization ratio ( \rho )</td>
<td>4.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cross section (( d\sigma/d\Omega ))</td>
<td></td>
<td>depolarization ratio for totally symmetric vibrations</td>
<td>4.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>absolute normalized Raman scattering</td>
<td>6.2</td>
<td>delayed fluorescence</td>
<td>1.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cross section</td>
<td></td>
<td>difference frequencies</td>
<td>4.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>anti-Stokes Raman lines</td>
<td>4.1</td>
<td>diffuse reflection</td>
<td>1.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>anti-Stokes Raman scattering</td>
<td>4.1</td>
<td>diffuse scattering</td>
<td>1.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>anti-Stokes Raman spectrum</td>
<td>1.1</td>
<td>Doppler effect</td>
<td>1.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>atomic mass ( m )</td>
<td>2.1</td>
<td>elastic scattering process</td>
<td>1.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>back-scattered Raman to excitation</td>
<td>6.3</td>
<td>electrical anharmonicity</td>
<td>4.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>intensity ratio ( J_R/J_P )</td>
<td></td>
<td>excitation source</td>
<td>3.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>back-scattering multiple reflection</td>
<td>6.6.2</td>
<td>exciting radiation</td>
<td>3.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>arrangement</td>
<td></td>
<td>Fermi resonance</td>
<td>4.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>beam area ( A )</td>
<td>6.1</td>
<td>fluorescence</td>
<td>1.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Brillouin scattering</td>
<td>1.2</td>
<td>force constants</td>
<td>4.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>coherent anti-Stokes Raman scattering</td>
<td>5.3</td>
<td>forward-scattering multiple reflection</td>
<td>6.3.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(CARS)</td>
<td></td>
<td>arrangement</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>coherent Stokes Raman scattering (CSRS)</td>
<td>5.3</td>
<td>Hertzian dipole</td>
<td>4.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>collimator focal length ( f )</td>
<td>6.1</td>
<td>hyper Raman scattering</td>
<td>5.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>combination frequencies</td>
<td>4.2</td>
<td>induced dipole moment ( \mu_i )</td>
<td>4.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>degeneracy ( g_k )</td>
<td>4.3</td>
<td>inelastic scattering process</td>
<td>1.2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
infrared absorption spectrum 3.1
infrared active vibrations 3.2
integral Raman scattering coefficient 4.3
internal field factor \( L_n \) 6.2
Jacquinot advantage 6.1
Kubelka-Munk theory 6.3
laser Doppler anemometry 1.2
mechanical anharmonicity 4.2
Mie scattering 1.2
molecular polarizability \( \alpha \) 4
1st molecular polarizability \( \beta \) 5.3
2nd molecular hyperpolarizability \( \gamma \) 5.3
multichannel advantage 6.1
multiple diffraction of powders 1.2
multiple reflection of powders 1.2
multiple refraction of powders 1.2
multiplex advantage 6.1
Napierian Raman scattering coefficient \( s \) 6.3
Napierian absorption coefficient \( \alpha \) 6.3
Napierian scattering coefficient \( r \) 6.3
NIR-excited Raman spectroscopy 6.6.2
non-linear Raman effects 5.3
normal coordinate \( q_k \) 2; 4.1
normal frequency \( v_k \) 2; 4.1
normal vibration \( k \) 2; 4.1
\( v^4 \) factor 6.2
optimum sample thickness \( d_{opt} \) 6.3.2
overtones 4.2
phosphorescence 1.2
photo-acoustic Raman spectroscopy (PARS) 5.3
photoluminescence 1.2
Placzek's theory 4.3
plane of observation 4.3
Planck-Kirchhoff law 6.4
polarizability volume 4.3
Porto notation 4.3
primary light quantum 1.2
radiance of a Raman line \( L_R \) 6.2
Raman active vibrations 3.2
Raman effect 1.2
Raman lines 3.2
Rayleigh line 3.2
Rayleigh scattering 1.2
reference excitation wavenumber \( \tilde{\nu}_{\text{ref}} \) 6.2
reflectance of the exciting radiation \( \rho \) 6.3
resonance Raman effect 3.2
resonance Raman spectroscopy (RRS) 5.1
rotation-vibration Raman spectrum 1.2
rotational Raman spectrum 1.2
rotational energy \( E_{\text{rot}} \) 1.2
rotational temperature 1.2
rule of mutual exclusion 3.2
sample thickness \( d \) 6.2
scattering activity 4.3
scattering process 1.2
secondary light quantum 1.2
signal to noise ratio \( r_{SN} \) 6.1
silent vibrations 3.2
slit length \( h \) 6.1
solid angle \( \Omega \) 6.1
spectral radiance \( L_{\tilde{\nu}} \) 6.1
spectral optical conductance \( G_{\tilde{\nu}} \) 6.1
spectral optical conductance of a grating spectrometer \( G_{\tilde{\nu}}^G \) 6.1
spectral optical conductance of a Michelson interferometer \( G_{\tilde{\nu}}^I \) 6.1
spherical cuvette 6.6.2
stimulated Raman gain spectroscopy (SRGS) 5.3
stimulated Raman loss spectroscopy (SRLS) 5.3
Stokes/anti-Stokes intensity ratio 4.3
Stokes Raman lines 4.1
Stokes Raman scattering 4.1
Stokes Raman spectrum 1.2
sum frequencies 4.2
surface-enhanced Raman spectroscopy (SERS) 5.3
surface-enhanced resonance Raman spectroscopy (SERRS) 5.3
tensor of the polarizability change 4.3
transmission factor \( \tau \) 6.1
transmittance of the exciting radiation \( \tau \) 6.3
transmitted Raman to excitation intensity ratio \( I_R/I_p \) 6.3
Tyndall scattering 1.2
vibrational energy \( E_{\text{vib}} \) 1.2
vibrational modulation of the polarizability 4.1
vibrational Raman spectrum 1.2
vibrational temperature 1.2
wavenumber 3.1
zero-point amplitude \( b_k \) 4.3

8 REFERENCES


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**Table XVIII.1: Symbols, definitions and units for Raman spectroscopy**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Term</th>
<th>Symbol</th>
<th>Definition</th>
<th>SI unit</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>absolute differential Raman scattering cross section</td>
<td>( \left( \frac{d \sigma}{d \Omega} \right)_{k\perp} )</td>
<td>( = \frac{\pi^2}{45} \cdot \frac{b^2}{\varepsilon_0^2} \cdot \frac{(\tilde{\nu}_0 - \tilde{\nu}_k)^4}{1 - \exp(-hc \tilde{\nu}_k/kt)} \cdot g_k \left( 45 \alpha'_2 + 7 \gamma'_2 \right) )</td>
<td>m² sr⁻¹</td>
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<tr>
<td>absolute normalized Raman scattering cross section</td>
<td>( \left( \frac{d \sigma}{d \Omega} \right)<em>{k\perp} \cdot (\tilde{\nu}</em>\text{ref} - \tilde{\nu}_k)^4 )</td>
<td>( = \frac{h}{2^3 c \varepsilon_0^2} \cdot \frac{g_k}{\tilde{\nu}_k} \left[ 1 - \exp(-hc \tilde{\nu}_k/kt) \right] \left( \alpha'_2 + \frac{7}{45} \gamma'_2 \right) )</td>
<td>m² sr⁻¹</td>
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<td>back-scattered Raman-to-unshifted intensity ratio</td>
<td>( J_R / J_P )</td>
<td>( = \frac{s_k}{r \alpha} \frac{k \sinh kd + (\alpha + r) \cosh kd}{(\alpha + r) \sinh kd + k \cosh kd} )</td>
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<tr>
<td>1st molecular hyperpolarizability</td>
<td>( \beta )</td>
<td>C m³ V⁻²</td>
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<td>2nd molecular hyperpolarizability</td>
<td>( \gamma )</td>
<td>C m⁴ V⁻³</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>depolarization ratio</td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>fundamental frequencies</td>
<td>( \nu_k )</td>
<td>s⁻¹</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>induced dipole moment</td>
<td>( \mu_i )</td>
<td>C m</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>internal field factor</td>
<td>( L_n )</td>
<td>( = (n_R/n_0) \left( n_R^2 + 2 \right) \left( n_0^2 + 2 \right) / 3^4 )</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>molecular polarizability</td>
<td>( \alpha )</td>
<td>J⁻¹ C² m² or C m² V⁻¹</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Napierian absorption coefficient</td>
<td>( \alpha )</td>
<td>m⁻¹</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Napierian scattering coefficient</td>
<td>( r )</td>
<td>m⁻¹</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Napierian Raman scattering coefficient</td>
<td>( s )</td>
<td>m⁻¹</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
normal coordinate \( q_k \) m g \( ^{1/2} \)

normal frequency \( \nu_k \) s \(^{-1} \)

optical conductance \( G \) m \(^2\) sr

optimum sample thickness \( d_{opt} \) m

radiance of a Raman line \( L_R \) W sr \(^{-1}\) m \(^{-2} \)

Raman scattering coefficient \( s_R \) m \(^{-1}\) sr \(^{-1} \)

reflectance of the exciting radiation \( \rho \) = \( J_P/I_0 \) 1

scattering activity \( g_k \left( 45\alpha_k^2 + 7\gamma_k^2 \right) \) 1

Stokes/anti-Stokes

intensity ratio \( \left( \frac{d\sigma}{d\Omega} \right)_{\perp} / \left( \frac{d\sigma}{d\Omega} \right)_{\perp} = \left( \frac{\tilde{\nu} - \tilde{\nu}_k}{\tilde{\nu}_0 + \tilde{\nu}_k} \right)^4 \cdot \exp \left( h \gamma_k \tilde{\nu}_k / kT \right) \) 1

transmittance of the exciting radiation \( \tau \) = \( I_P/I_0 \) 1

transmitted Raman-to-unshifted intensity ratio \( I_R/I_P \) = \( \frac{s k^2 d - r + (\alpha + r)kd \coth kd}{\alpha + r + k \coth kd} \) 1

vibrational energy \( E_{\text{vib}} \) = \( h\nu_k \) J

wavenumber \( \tilde{\nu} \) = \( \nu/c \) m \(^{-1} \)

zero-point amplitude \( b_k \) = \( b_k^2 = h/8\pi^2 c \tilde{\nu}_k \) m
Processes involved in photothermal spectroscopy. Absorption of radiation form the excitation source followed by non-radiative excited state relaxation results changes in the sample temperature, pressure, and density. Energy can be transferred to the sample by optical absorption and inelastic scattering process such as Raman. Scattering is inefficient and the amount of energy lost to sample is usually small enough to be neglected. After absorption, the molecules are in an excited state. The majority of studies addressing the use of photothermal spectroscopy for chemical analysis have been based on refractive index measurements. The first photothermal spectroscopic method to be applied for sensitive chemical analysis was photothermal lens spectroscopy. Laser-based molecular spectroscopy for chemical analysis-laser fundamentals (IUPAC Recommendations 1995). SYNOPSIS. This report is 15th in a series on Spectrochemical Methods of Analysis issued by IUPAC Commission V.4. It is concerned with the fundamental properties of lasers as used in analytical molecular spectroscopy in the optical wavelength region. Laser-based molecular spectroscopy for chemical analysis. Output beam. Cleaved crystal end mirrors. Methods using non-linear optical processes such as coherent anti-Stokes Raman scattering and stimulated emission pumping have been developed. Index of terms. Term. Molecular Spectroscopy Workbench. Thin-Film Filters for Raman Spectroscopy. Recent advances in thin-film filter technology have enabled dramatic improvements in the performance of filters for laser-based analytical instrumentation. Turan Erdogan and Victor Mizrahi. Laser-blocking filters inserted between the sample and the spectrometer block the Rayleigh (elastic) scattered light at the laser wavelength, which typically is many orders of magnitude stronger than the desired Raman lines. Filters and their Functions. There are three basic types of filters for Raman spectroscopy systems: laser-line filters, edge filters, and notch filters (see Figure 2). Laser-line filters are ideal for use as laser-transmitting filters, and notch filters are the versatile choice for laser-blocking filters.