

LIGHT EMISSION

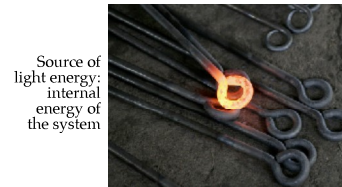
THERMAL RADIATION,
LUMINESCENCE
LASER

MIKLÓS KELLERMAYER

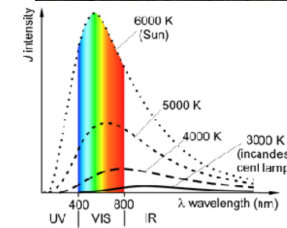
SOURCES OF LIGHT EMISSION

1. Thermal (black body) radiation

Mechanism: thermal motion of atoms, molecules



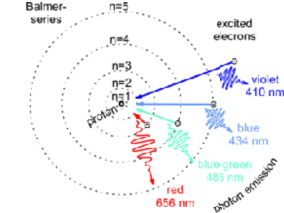
Source of light energy: internal energy of the system



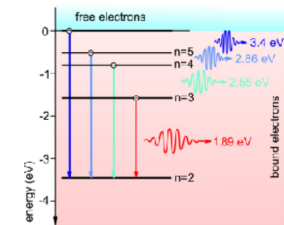
... what is a "black body" ...?

2. Luminescence

Mechanism: emission of excited-state energy



Source of light energy: energy of excited state



A black body absorbs all the light falling on it

Objects not only emit radiation but absorb it as well.

Ratio of spectral emissive power (M) and absorptivity (α) is constant (Kirchoff's law):



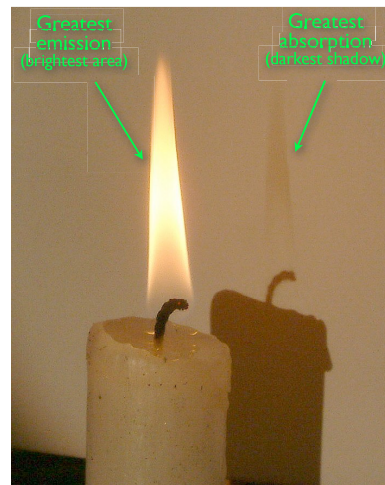
Gustav Robert Kirchhoff (1824-1887)

$$\frac{M_{\lambda i}}{\alpha_{\lambda i}} = \frac{M_{\lambda j}}{\alpha_{\lambda j}}$$

For a black body (BB):

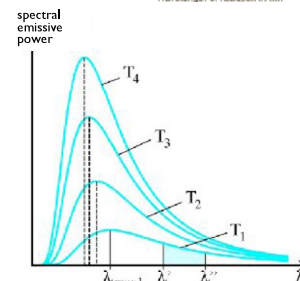
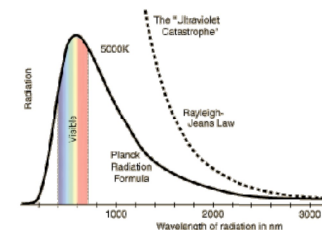
$$\alpha_{\lambda BB} = 1$$

- That is, the black body absorbs all light that it is exposed to (nothing is reflected).
- The black body is an ideal object for investigating temperature-dependent emission.



Black-body radiation

Properties and inferences



Stefan-Boltzmann law:

$$M_{BB}(T) = \sigma T^4$$

M_{BB} = emissive power, area under emission spectrum.

Wien's displacement law:

$$\lambda_{\max} T = \text{const}$$

Planck's law of radiation:

$$E = hf$$

h = Planck's constant (6.626×10^{-34} Js).

Meaning: energy is absorbed and emitted in discrete packets (*quanta*).



Jozef Stefan (1835-1893)



Ludwig Eduard Boltzmann (1844-1906)



Wilhelm Wien (1864-1928)



Max Karl Ernst Ludwig Planck (1858-1947)

APPLICATIONS OF THERMAL RADIATION

Thermography, infradiagnostics

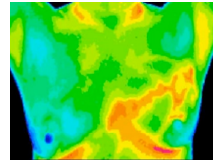
"Seeing through" a non-absorbing layer



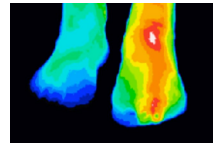
Airport thermography



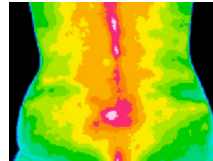
Detection of febrile condition,
prevention of epidemics



Breast carcinoma



Inflammation



Chronic
musculoskeletal
stress (pain)

Emission by luminescence: everywhere

Photoluminescence

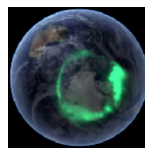


Luminescence everywhere

Radioluminescence



Display lights



Aurora borealis

Luminescence everywhere

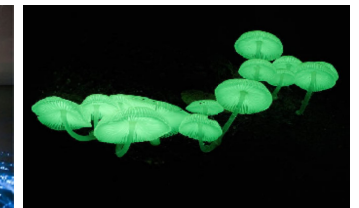
Bioluminescence



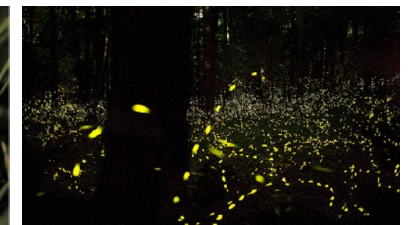
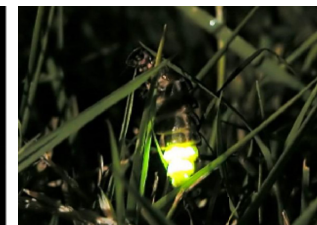
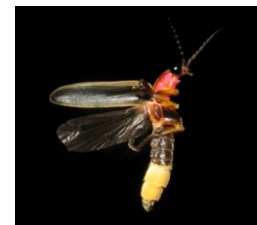
Jellyfish



Phytoplankton



Fungi



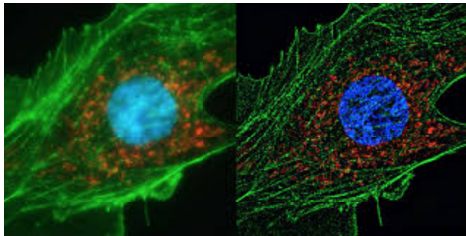
Firefly (luciferin-luciferase reaction)

Luminescence everywhere

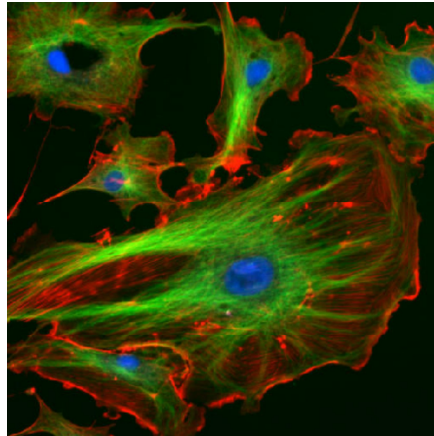
Fluorescence



GFP-mouse (green nude mouse)



Superresolution microscopy (Nobel-prize 2014)



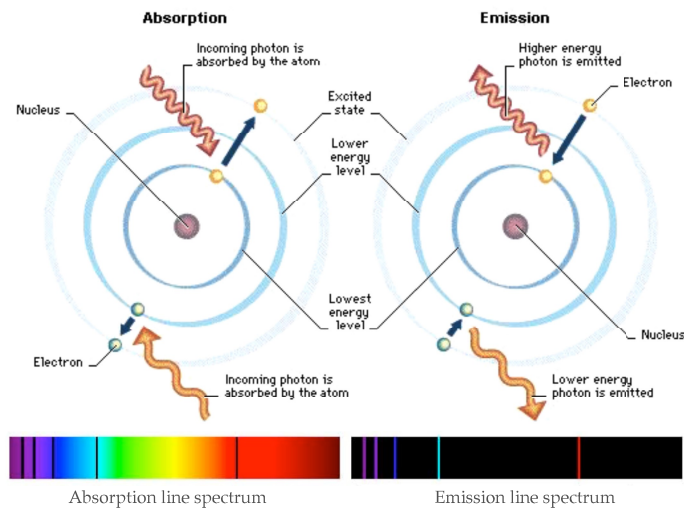
Epifluorescence microscopy (cytoskeletal system)

Types of luminescence

(a) Excitation Mode	Luminescence Type
absorption of radiation (UV/VIS)	photoluminescence
chemical reaction	chemiluminescence, bioluminescence
thermally activated ion recombination	thermoluminescence
injection of charge	electroluminescence
high energy particles or radiation	radioluminescence
friction	triboluminescence
sound waves	sonoluminescence

(b) Excited State (Assuming Singlet State)	Luminescence Type
first excited singlet state	fluorescence, delayed fluorescence
lowest triplet state	phosphorescence

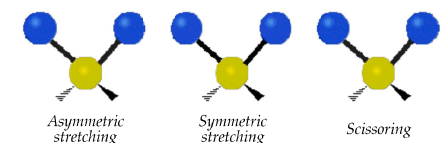
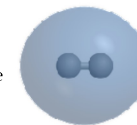
EMISSION BY AN EXCITED ATOM



EMISSION BY AN EXCITED MOLECULE IS MORE COMPLEX...

...BECAUSE ITS **ENERGY LEVELS** ARE COMPLEX.

Molecule: atoms connected by covalent bonds
Simplest case: diatomic molecule (e.g., hydrogen)



Molecules **vibrate** and **rotate**:

Vibration: periodic motion **along** the axis of the covalent bond
Rotation: periodic motion **around** the axis of the covalent bond

Energy of a molecule: Born-Oppenheimer - approximation:

$$E_{total} = E_e + E_v + E_r$$

- Types of energies are independent (not coupled)
- Energy states are non-continuous (discrete)
- Transition between states involves packets (quanta) of energy
- Scale of transition energies between different states are different

Scaling of transition energies:

$$E_e \sim 100\times > E_v \sim 100\times > E_r$$

$$\sim 3 \times 10^{-19} \text{ J } (\sim 2 \text{ eV}) > \sim 3 \times 10^{-21} \text{ J} > \sim 3 \times 10^{-23} \text{ J}$$

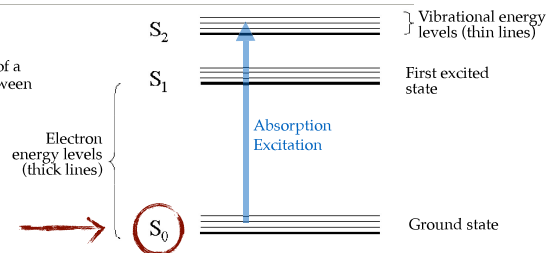
(Rule of thumb: ultraviolet > visible > infrared)

REPRESENTATION OF ENERGY STATES



Alexander Jabłoński
(1898-1980)

Jabłoński diagram:
illustrates the electronic states of a molecule and the transitions between them (with arrows)



What is this "S" (singlet) state?

Spin states - Pauli's principle

Wolfgang Pauli
(1900-1958)



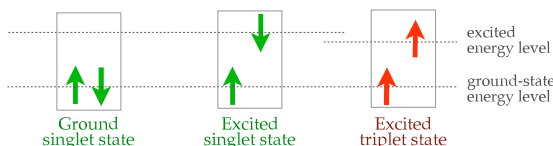
- Each quantum state can be occupied by a single electron.
- Within an atom there cannot be two electrons for which all four quantum numbers are identical.

fully occupied subshell:
spin pairing (opposite-spin electrons pair)

Singlet and triplet states: number of orientations of magnetic moment associated with net spin state (in magnetic field) = $2S+1 = 1$ (singlet) or 3 (triplet). (S = net spin, e.g., in fully occupied subshell $(+1/2)+(-1/2) = 0$)

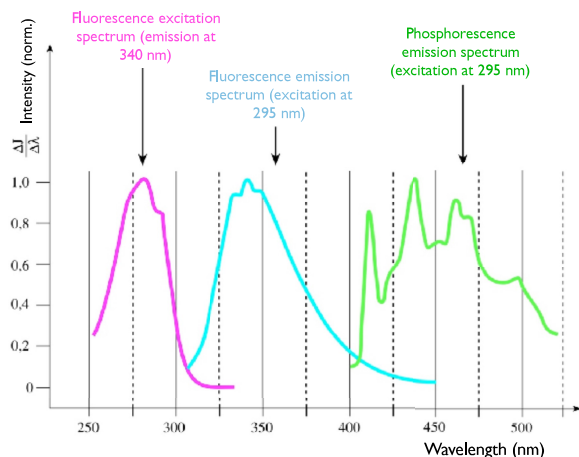
S: singlet state: paired electrons with opposite spins, net spin (S) = 0, number of orientations ($2S+1$) = 1.

T: triplet state: there are identical spin-state electrons in the molecule, net spin = 1 (e.g., $(+1/2)+(+1/2) = 1$), number of orientations ($2S+1 = 2+1$) = 3.



CHARACTERIZATION OF LUMINESCENCE

Luminescence spectra



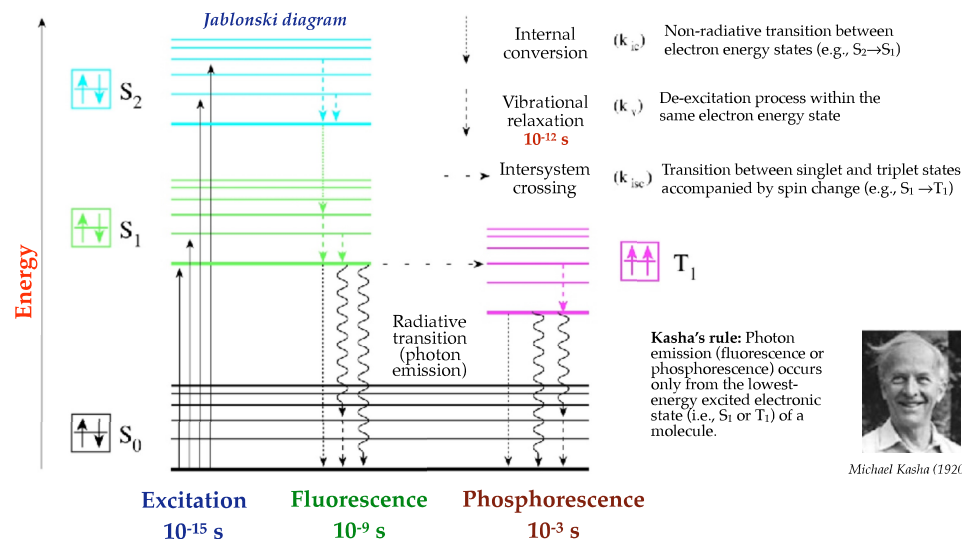
- Band spectra
- Fluorescence excitation and emission spectra are symmetric
- Stokes shift



George Stokes
(1819-1903)

Fluorescent dyes: "fluorophores"
By the specific attachment fluorophores, non-fluorescent molecules may also be studied (fluorescent labeling)

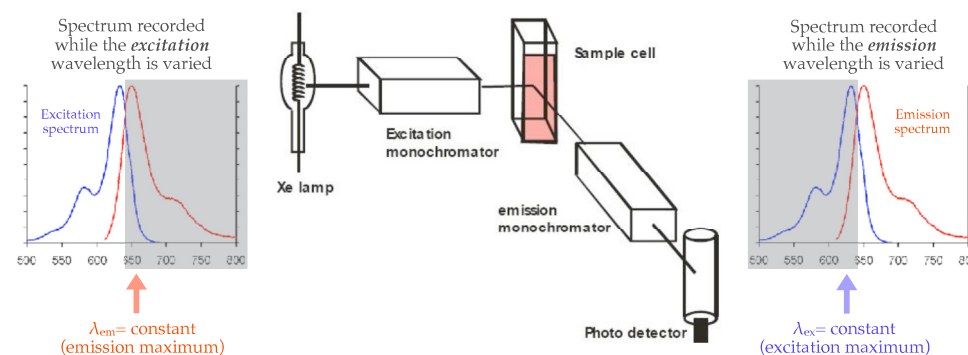
PROCESSES AND TIMESCALES OF LUMINESCENCE



Michael Kasha (1920-)

MEASUREMENT OF LUMINESCENCE

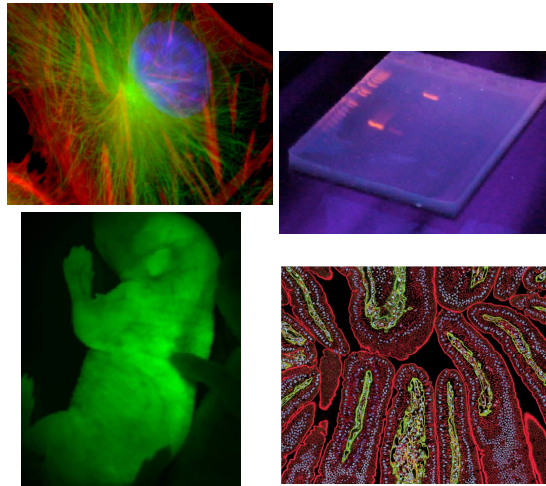
Luminescence spectrometer ("Steady-state" spectrofluorometer)



Biomedical applications of fluorescence

A few examples:

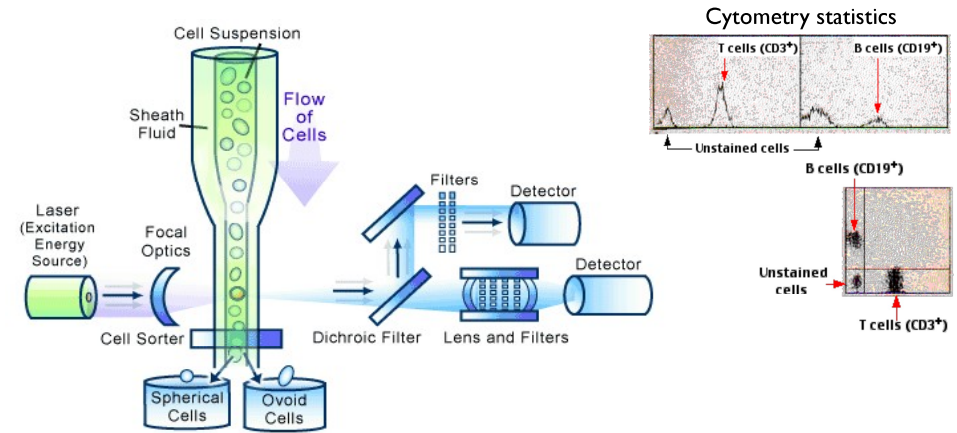
- DNA sequencing (chain termination method)
- DNA detection (EtBr)
- DNA microarray
- Immunofluorescence
- Förster resonance energy transfer (FRET)
- Fluorescence recovery after photobleaching (FRAP)
- Fluorescent protein conjugation technologies
- Quantum dots
- **Fluorescence-activated cell sorting (FACS)**
- **Fluorescence microscopy**
- etc...



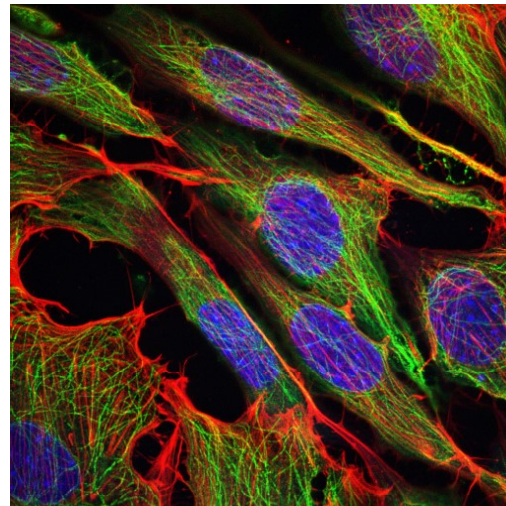
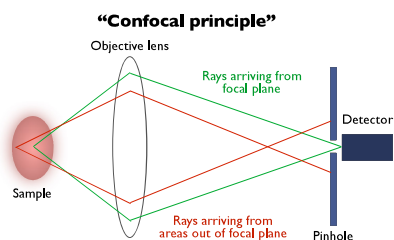
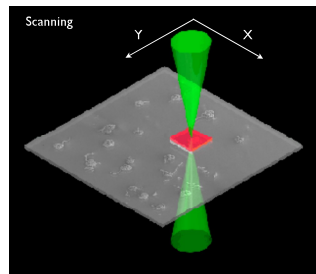
Fluorescence activated cell sorter (FACS)

Flow cytometry

- A cell suspension, fluorescently labeled by using specific antibodies, is analyzed cell by cell
- Numerous parameters are measured simultaneously (fluorescence intensity at several wavelengths, small- and large-angle scatter)
- Statistical analysis
- If needed, cells can be separated according to their fluorescence



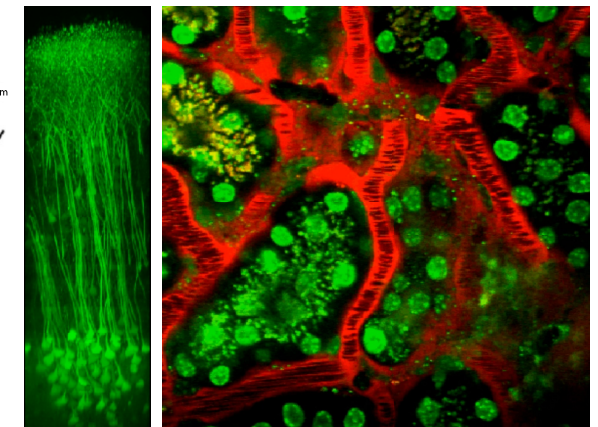
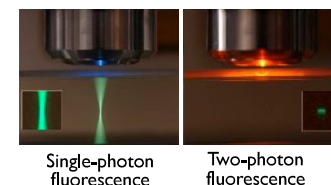
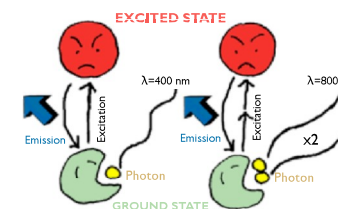
Laser scanning confocal microscopy



Green: microtubules; Red: actin; Blue: nuclei

Multiphoton microscopy

- Energy of two (or more) photons are added during excitation
- Excitation (hence emission) only in the focal point (limited photodamage)
- Excitation with long wavelength (near-IR), short (fs) light pulses
- Large (up to 2 mm) penetration due to long wavelength



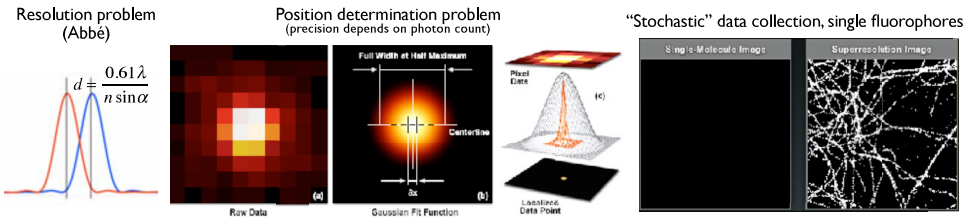
Cortical pyramidal cells

Green: proximal kidney tubules; Red: albumin (plasma)

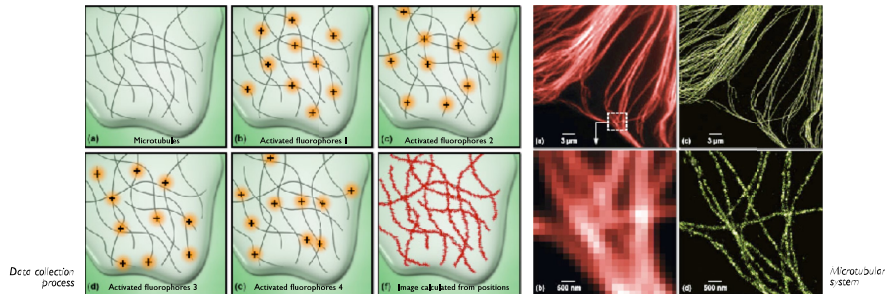
Super-resolution microscopy

Chemistry Nobel-prize, 2014

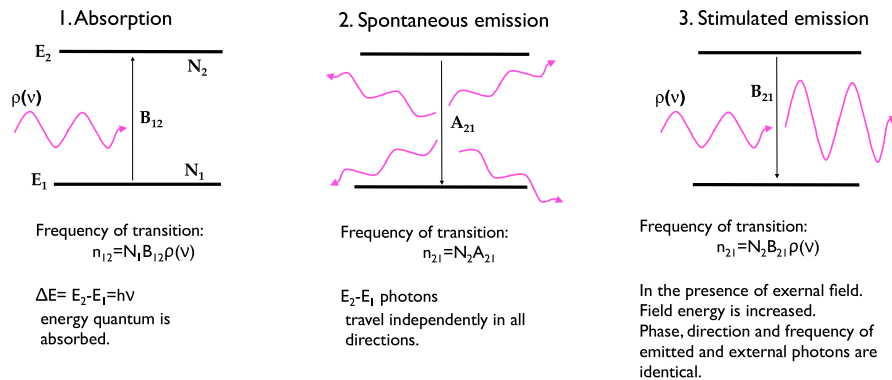
Resolution problem is converted into position-determination problem



STORM ("stochastic optical reconstruction microscopy"); PALM ("photoactivated localization microscopy")



Principles of laser I. Stimulated emission



Explanation: two-state atomic or molecular system.

E_1, E_2 : energy levels, $E_2 > E_1$

$\rho(\nu)$: spectral energy density of external field.

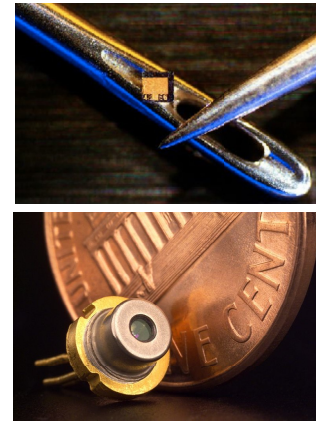
N_1, N_2 : number of atoms or molecules on the given energy level.

B_{12}, A_{21}, B_{21} : transition probabilities (Einstein coefficients), $B_{12} = B_{21}$

Laser:

"Light Amplification by Stimulated Emission of Radiation"

Luminescent light source based on light amplification.

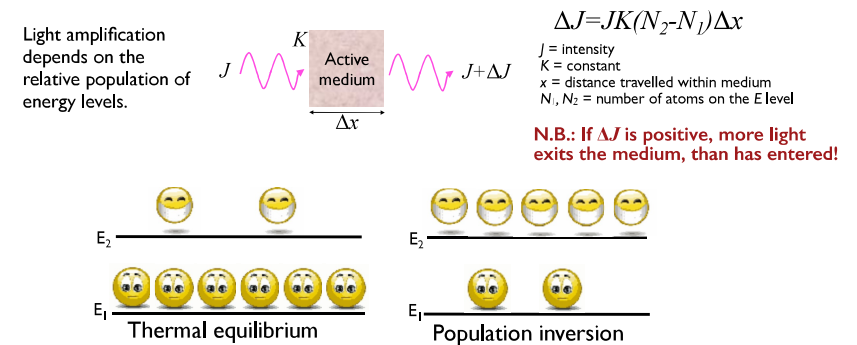


5 mW diode laser
few mms

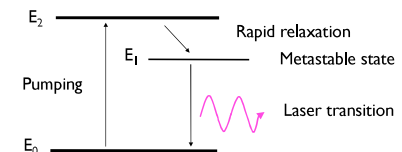


Terawatt NOVA laser - Lawrence Livermore Laboratories
Size of a football field

Principles of laser II. Population inversion

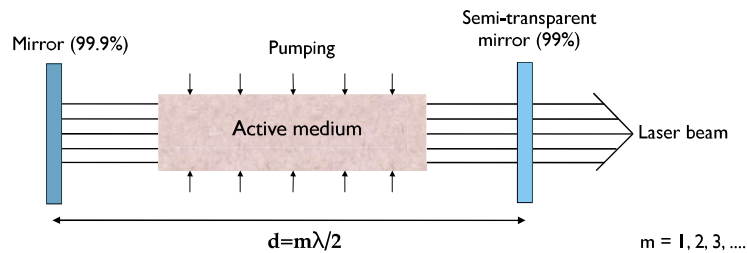


- Population inversion only in multiple-state systems!
- Pumping: electrical, optical, chemical energy



Principles of laser III.

Optical resonance



Resonator:

- two parallel (or concave) mirrors
- part of the exiting light is coupled back into the medium
- positive feedback \rightarrow self-excitation \rightarrow resonance

- Optical switch in the resonator: Q-switch, pulsed mode

Properties of laser light

1. Small divergence

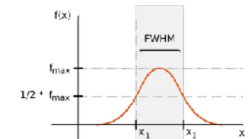
Parallel (collimated) beam

2. Large power

In continuous (CW) mode, tens, hundreds of W (e.g., CO₂ laser)
In Q-switched mode, momentary power is enormous (GW)
Because of small divergence, large spatial power density.

3. Small spectral bandwidth

"Monochromaticity"
Large spectral energy density



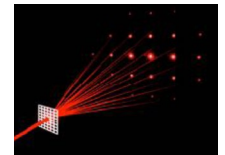
4. Often polarized

5. Possibility of extremely short pulses

ps, fs

6. Coherence

phase identity, interference tendency; temporal coherence (phase identity of photons emitted at different times); spatial coherence (phase identity across beam diameter). Application: holography, optical coherence tomography



Types of lasers

Based on active medium:

1. Solid state lasers

Metal doping in crystals or glasses; Ruby, Nd-YAG, Ti-sapphire
Red-infrared spectral range; CW, Q-switched mode, large power

2. Gas lasers

Best known: He-Ne laser (10 He/Ne). Small energy, wide use
CO₂ laser: CO₂-N₂-He mixture; $\lambda \sim 10 \mu\text{m}$; Huge power (100 W)

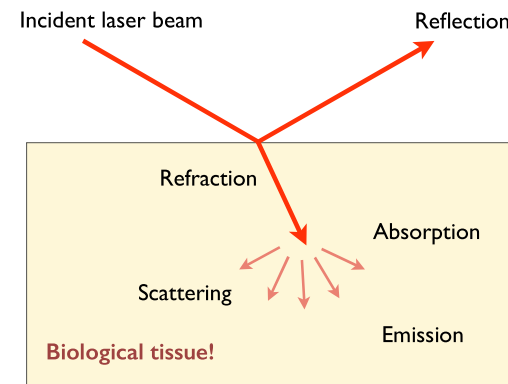
3. Dye lasers

Dilute solution of organic dyes (e.g., rhodamine, coumarine); Pumped by another laser.
Large power (Q-switched mode); Tunable

4. Semiconductor (diode) lasers

On the boundary of p- and n-type doped semiconductors.
No need for resonator mirrors (total internal reflection)
Red, IR spectral range. Huge CW power (up to 100W)
Beam characteristics are not very good. Wide use because of small size.

Biomedical applications of lasers



Laser properties to consider:

- Steerability (small divergence, surgeries)
- Power (surgical applications)
- Monochromaticity (tissue absorbance)
- Coherence (interference, image formation)

The effects depend not only on the properties of the laser, but also on those of the biological tissue: absorbance, transmittivity, light-induced reactions.

Today: laser lines (wavelengths) are available from X-rays to infrared light!

Biomedical applications of lasers

Surgical disciplines: “laser knife”, coagulation, blood-less surgery. Tumor removal, tattoo removal. CO₂ and Nd:YAG lasers, holmium laser lithotripsy (urology).

Dentistry: caries absorbs preferentially.

Photodynamic tumor therapy: laser activation of photosensitive chemicals preferentially taken up by the tumor.

Dermatology: wide-spread uses (tattoo removal, naevus removal, etc.)

Ophthalmology: Retina lesions, photocoagulation, glaucoma, photorefractive keratectomy (PRK).

Dermatological applications

Hair removal

Phototricholysis, photoepilation

Mechanism: selective photothermolysis, selective absorption by chromophores

Employed chromophores:

1. Carbon (exogenous, carbon or graphite-containing creams)
2. Hemoglobin (endogenous)
3. Melanin (endogenous)

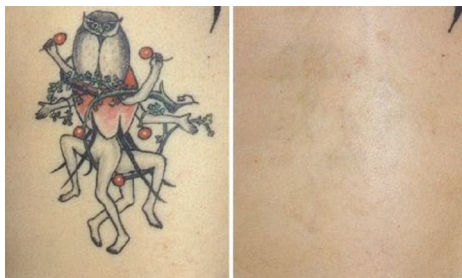


Before treatment

After treatment

Dermatological applications

Tattoo removal



Before treatment

After treatment

Naevus removal



Before treatment

After treatment

Dermatological applications

Removal of superficial blood vessels



Before treatment



After treatment

Resurfacing



Wrinkle removal

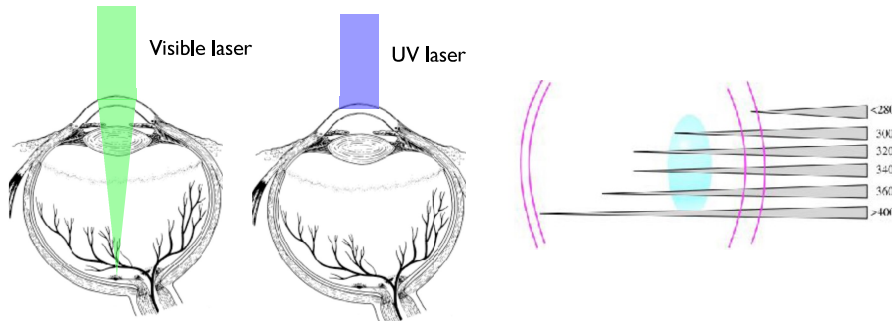


Rhinophyma (sebaceous gland hypertrophy, fibrosis)

Ophthalmologic applications:

Considerations

Transmittivity of optical media is wavelength-dependent

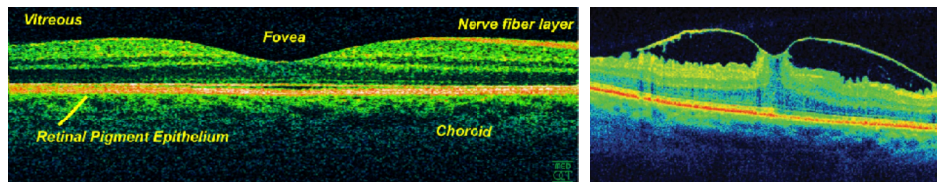
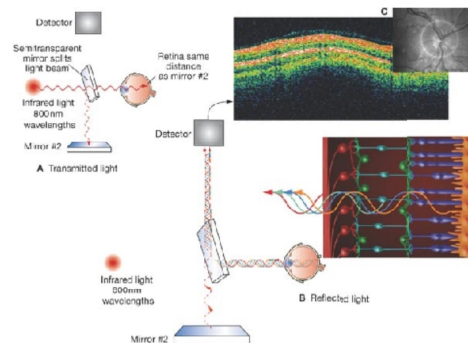


Ophthalmologic applications

Optical Coherence Tomography (OCT)

- Non-invasive
- Contrast-agent free
- Near microscopic resolution

Principles: light rays reflected in deeper tissue layers can be separated from scatter by using *interferometry*. The spatial position of the reflecting layers can be determined. The structure of the illuminated sample can be resolved within 1-2 mm depth.



Normal retina

Macula degeneration

Ophthalmologic applications

LASIK

“Laser-assisted In Situ Keratomileusis”

One type of refractive laser eye surgery

History:

Jose Barraquer, 1970: construction of a microkeratome, with which he was able to cut lines and lobes in the cornea with laser (keratomileusis).

Lucio Buratto (Italian) and Ioannis Pallikaris (Greek), 1990: combination of keratomileusis photorefractive keratectomy.

Thomas and Tobias Neuhann (Germany), 1991: automated microkeratome.

Steps:

1. Removal of contact lens (7-10 days prior to treatment)
2. Scanning the topography of the cornea with low-power laser.
3. Cutting and lifting a layer of the cornea with femtosecond laser.
4. Removal of material from the corneal stroma (few tens of microns). Excimer laser (193 nm).

