

Appendix F

Measurement of the Absolute Populations of Excited Atoms by Classical Spectroscopy Techniques

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In plasma spectroscopy, the populations of excited atoms are frequently measured by the classical (other than laser) light emission and absorption methods. At the foreground in that case is the problem of adequate illumination of the spectral instrument and the correct calculation of the luminous flux that in the final analysis reaches the detector. The specificity here is that plasma sources are, as a rule, extensive and volumetric. The luminous flux from volumetric plasma sources is compared with that from standard sources, frequently in the form of flat tungsten-ribbon photometric lamps. The radiation of such a standard source can be characterized by the surface brightness b_λ [$\text{Wcm}^{-2} \cdot \text{\AA} \cdot \text{sr}$] – the power emitted by a unit surface area into a unit solid angle within a unit wavelength interval in a direction normal to the area – or by the radiance r_λ [$\text{Wcm}^{-2} \cdot \text{\AA} \cdot \text{sr}$] – the emission of a unit surface area into a solid angle of 2π . The relation between brightness and radiance for cosine radiators is well known to be $r_\lambda = \pi b_\lambda$. By comparing between the luminous fluxes from plasma and the standard source, which have been made to travel one and the same optical path by means of a tilting mirror, one can deduce the absolute spectral line intensity $I_{i,k}$ [Wcm^{-3}] or the continuum intensity I_λ [$\text{Wcm}^{-3} \cdot \text{\AA}$], that is, the power emitted by a unit volume of plasma into a solid angle of 4π , either integrally, in the spectral line, or within a unit wavelength interval in the continuum. The population N_i [cm^{-3}] of the emitting level is then found from the absolute spectral line intensity by the relation $I_{i,k} = N_i A_{i,k} h\nu_{i,k}$, where $A_{i,k}[\text{s}^{-1}]$ is the transition probability and $h\nu_{i,k}$ is the quantum energy. The traditional scheme of the experiment is shown in Figure F.1.

When taking measurements with a high spatial resolution, one should use a good objective lens, corrected for various kinds of aberrations, to project a reduced real image of the volumetric plasma source onto the entrance slit of the spectral instrument. In the plane of the slit is formed a sufficiently sharp real image of the source, because the image reduction in the longitudinal direction is squared that in the transverse direction.

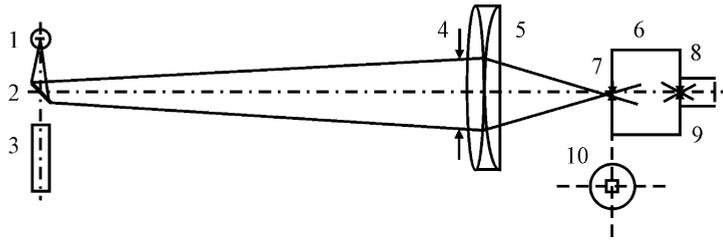


Figure F.1 Schematic of absolute line intensity measurements: 1 – standard source (a photometric lamp); 2 – tilting mirror; 3 – plasma source (e.g. a discharge tube); 4 – objective lens diaphragm; 5 – objective lens; 6 – spectral instrument; 7 and 8 – entrance and exit slit, respectively; 9 – radiation detector; 10 – image (scaled up) of the plasma object in the slit plane.

Indeed, if one uses the thin lens formula and differentiates,

$$\frac{1}{x} + \frac{1}{x'} = \frac{1}{f}; \quad \frac{\Delta x}{\Delta x'} = -\frac{x^2}{x'^2},$$

one can then see that if the image reduction is defined by the ratio $-x'/x$, the ratio between the longitudinal dimensions of the image and the object is reduced squared number of times more (x, x' are conjugate points, f is the focal length of the objective lens). The minus signs mean that the image will be reversed and inverted (the near and far sections will change places). We can cite a typical example of measurements of the radiation intensity using the positive column of a discharge 20 mm in diameter and 40 cm long. Let the image of the discharge tube reduced by a factor of 7 be projected onto the slit of the spectral instrument by means of an objective lens 25 mm in focal length. The reality of measurements is that the flat tungsten ribbon of the standard source is projected onto the plane of the slit absolutely sharp (up to the aberrations of the lens), whereas different sections of the volumetric source prove to be out of focus in the plane of the slit, except for the section whose distance from the objective lens coincides with that of the tungsten ribbon. This section is assumed to be coincident with the center of the discharge tube and 200 cm distant from the objective lens, with the given focal length and 7-fold image reduction. Accordingly, the front and rear windows of the discharge tube will be 180 cm and 220 cm distant from the objective lens. In the image plane, they will be 28.2 cm and 29 cm distant from the lens, while the plane of the slit, 28.6 cm remote from it. The front window will be reduced by a factor of 6.38, whereas the rear one, 7.58 times. The image of the discharge tube will look like a conical layer of small thickness, a mere 8 mm, and will be perceived as a sharp image of an object in the form of a circle some 3 mm in diameter. It is expedient to place two

crossed slits at the entrance, which will make it possible to isolate from the image the region of interest with a high (no worse than 0.01 mm) accuracy. It will then be possible to isolate from this circle a small area, say 2 mm by 2 mm in size, and set the diaphragm of the objective to approximately 2 cm diameter, so as to match the angular dimensions to the relative aperture of the spectral instrument (1:10 in our example). In that case, the solid angle through which the light from the sources is collected turns out to be small enough. This scheme of illumination of the spectral instrument provides for a sufficiently good spatial resolution, which will be discussed later in the text.

The prime task facing the experimenter is to correctly calculate the differential luminous fluxes issuing from various elementary plasma volumes and integrate them over that plasma region, whose light passes through the slit of the spectral instrument. The next, simpler step is to calculate the luminous flux from the photometric lamp that has passed through the slit. Taking the ratio between these fluxes, which are proportional to the signals registered from plasma and from the standard source, one can determine the absolute intensity of the spectral line or continuum.

This problem can be solved by two equivalent methods. First of all, it is necessary to find the locus of points of the volumetric source, from which light enters the spectral instrument. Next, as already mentioned, it is necessary to calculate the luminous flux from an elementary plasma volume, with due regard for absorption in the source, and finally, integrate over the locus found, allowing for the possible spatial inhomogeneity.

The second method consists in calculating the illuminance in the plane of the slit produced by some section of the volumetric source (in the general case, the image will be out of focus), summing up the illuminances from all the sections of the source, and finally, integrating the total illuminance over the area of the slit. Naturally both these methods yield the same final results.

Let the reduced image of the volumetric source be projected into the slit plane P' as shown in Figure F.2. The coordinates are reckoned from the principal planes of the optical system. The plane P , conjugate to P' , is projected exactly into the slit plane with a reduction of a'/a . Let us isolate an elementary volume dV with the coordinates x, r within the limits of the source in the plane P_1 , which is projected into the point x', r' in the plane P'_1 , and find the luminous flux that passes from the elementary volume dV through the elementary area $d\sigma'$ of the slit on the optical axis of the system. The luminous flux is captured by the objective lens within the solid angle Ω and, propagating in the image space, forms a uniformly illuminated circle of radius ρ in the slit plane, the center of

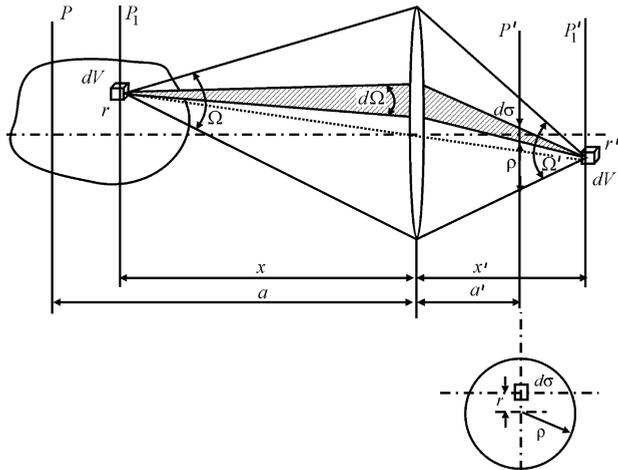


Figure F.2 To the calculation of the luminous flux entering the spectral instrument through the elementary area on the optical axis in the slit plane.

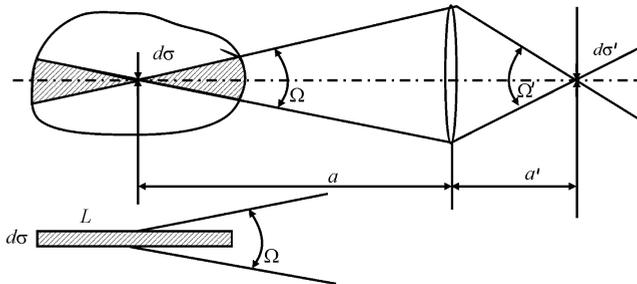


Figure F.3 Conical surface cutting out that volume in the plasma source, from which light enters the spectral instrument through the center of the slit (top). Cylindrical volume equivalent to the cone in calculating the luminous flux (bottom).

this circle lying at a distance of r'' from the optical axis (bottom part of Figure F.1). Obviously, light will pass through the elementary area $d\sigma'$ only if the condition $r'' \leq \rho$ is satisfied. This condition determines the locus of those points of the source, light from which enters the spectral instrument through the small area $d\sigma'$. In actual experiments, the solid angles Ω , Ω' are small enough, so that the paraxial optics approximation can be used. Using the similitude of triangles and expressing the primed coordinates in terms of the unprimed ones by the rules of geometrical optics, one can write down, accurate up to second-order, terms of the condition for the passage of light through the slit of the spectral

instrument in the form

$$r \leq R \left(1 - \frac{x}{a}\right).$$

This expression describes in the space of the object a conical surface with vertex at the point $x = a$, which rests on a circle of radius R on the surface of the objective lens as on a base (Figure F.3). Since it is only a fraction of the luminous flux, equal to the ratio $d\sigma' / \pi\rho^2$, that will pass through the elementary area $d\sigma'$ of the slit (which is equivalent to the capture of the luminous flux within a small solid angle $d\Omega$ shaded in Figure F.1), the luminous flux gathered from the elementary volume dV turns out to be

$$dF = \frac{I dV}{4\pi} \Omega(x) \frac{d\sigma'}{\pi\rho^2(x)}. \tag{F.1}$$

The total flux that has passed through $d\sigma'$ is obtained by integrating over the conical surface. For a homogeneous and nonabsorbing source, we have

$$F = \frac{I}{4\pi} \frac{d\sigma'}{\pi} \int_0^{2\pi} d\varphi \int_{a-L/2}^{a+L/2} \left(\frac{\Omega(x)}{\rho^2(x)} \int_0^{R(a-x)/a} r dr \right) dx. \tag{F.2}$$

Integration with respect to φ gives 2π . Considering that

$$\Omega(x) = \pi R^2 / x^2; \quad \rho = R \frac{f(a-x)}{x(a-f)},$$

we get an interesting corollary, namely, the integrand in x

$$2\pi \frac{\Omega(x)}{\pi\rho^2(x)} \frac{1}{2} r^2 \Big|_0^{R(a-x)/a} = \pi R^2 \left(\frac{a-f}{af} \right)^2 = \frac{\pi R^2}{a'^2} = \Omega' \tag{F.3}$$

is independent of the coordinate x and is equal to the solid angle Ω' at which the objective is viewed from the point $d\sigma'$. Integration with respect to x is in this case reduced to multiplication into the length L of the source, and finally it follows from formula (F.2) that

$$F = I d\sigma' L \frac{\Omega'}{4\pi} = I d\sigma L \frac{\Omega}{4\pi}, \tag{F.4}$$

where $d\sigma = d\sigma' (a/a')^2$ is the element of the area $d\sigma'$ scaled into the image space with a magnification of $(a/a')^2$ and $Ld\sigma$ is the volume of a cylinder of length L and base area $d\sigma$. This result shows that, subject to the assumptions made above, the luminous flux gathered from any section of the cone within the limits of the volumetric source is the same. Only small fractions of light, equal to $d\sigma' / \pi\rho^2$, pass from elementary

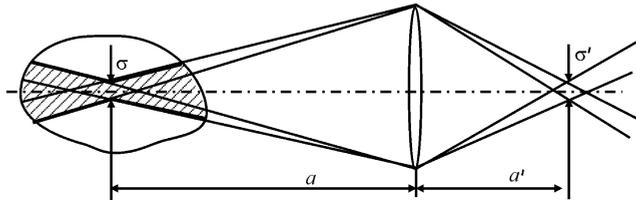


Figure F.4 Conical surface cutting out that region of the source, from which light enters the spectral instrument through a finite-size slit.

volumes in the unfocused image, but these volumes are sufficiently numerous for these two factors to be completely offset for any section of the volumetric source. Thus, for the illumination scheme under consideration, a cone inscribed in the volumetric source is totally equivalent to a cylinder of length L and base area $d\sigma$, the luminous flux from each element of the cylinder being gathered through a solid angle of $\Omega = \pi R^2 / a^2$ (shaded region in the bottom part of Figure F.3). The effective diaphragm radius R can be determined either by the diameter of the objective lens or by the relative aperture of the spectral instrument, for the angle Ω' can be limited by the collimator of a spectrograph.

Figure F.2 shows the region of the volumetric source, whose light passes through the elementary area $d\sigma'$ of the slit, which is located on the optical axis (the vertex of the cone coincides with $d\sigma'$, point slit approximation). If the slit is of finite size σ' , light passing through the other elementary areas of the slit will be gathered from the cones whose vertices coincide with the images of these areas in the space of the object. To calculate the luminous flux that has passed through the slit of finite size, it is necessary to swing the optical axis from one edge of the slit to the other. The region from which radiation enters the spectral instrument in the case of finite-size slit is shaded in Figure F.4. This region determines spatial resolution in absolute measurements. One can demonstrate that in this case, analogy also holds between the cone from Figure F.3 and a cylinder with a length of L and a cross-sectional area of σ equal to the total area σ' of the slit increased by a factor of $(a/a')^2$. In actual experimental conditions, spatial resolution is of the order of a millimeter and can be bettered to a few fractions of a millimeter, depending on the size of the slit and the effective diaphragm. As in any physical experiments, the improvement of spatial resolution worsens the signal-to-noise ratio at the output of the recording system, and so a reasonable trade-off decision is required in selecting the parameters of the optical system.

With the luminous flux calculation scheme suggested, one can easily introduce corrections for the axial inhomogeneity within the limits of the

source if one puts $I(x) = I_0\Psi(x/L)$, where I_0 is the maximum intensity and the function Ψ describes the relative axial radiation intensity distribution. Obviously the magnitude of the luminous flux is in this case given by

$$F = I_0 d\sigma L \frac{\Omega}{4\pi} \psi; \quad \psi = \frac{1}{L} \int_{a-L/2}^{a+L/2} \Psi(x/L) dx. \tag{F.5}$$

The radial inhomogeneity in the given illumination scheme can be disregarded at small angular apertures.

As applied to an axially symmetric source viewed across the axis (Figure F.5), expression (F.5) assumes the form

$$F(y) = I_0 d\sigma R_0 \frac{\Omega}{4\pi} \psi(y); \tag{F.6}$$

$$\psi(y) = 2 \int_0^{\sqrt{1-y^2}} \Psi(r) dx = 2 \int_y^1 \frac{\Psi(r) dr}{\sqrt{r^2 - y^2}}. \tag{F.6a}$$

The relative coordinates x, y, r range between 0 and 1, I_0 is the absolute radiation intensity at the center of the source, $\psi(y)$ is the measured relative transverse distribution normalized to unity at the center and $\Psi(r)$ is the relative radial intensity distribution. To convert from the measured transverse distribution $\psi(y)$ to the true radial distribution $\Psi(r)$, it is necessary to solve Abel's equation (F.6)a by any of the numerous methods developed for the purpose.

Spatial resolution can be improved with the aid of the instrument function that describes the broadening of a delta-shaped point source in the course of projection into the plane of the slit. Indeed, the aberrations of the projection optics and the finite sizes of the slits and effective diaphragms result in instrumental distortions as regards spatial measurements. The instrument function is rather difficult to calculate, but its form can be easily found by replacing the volumetric with by a point one and scanning its image in the actual experimental setup. The instrument function thus obtained should be normalized to unit surface area. In that case, the measured radial distribution $F'(r)$ will be related to the true distribution $F(r)$ by the convolution-type equation

$$F'(r) = \int F(\rho) A(r - \rho) d\rho.$$

To exclude instrumental distortions, use can be made of the well-developed methods for solving ill-posed problems. Allowing for instrumental distortions is especially important when measuring luminous fluxes across the axis in axially symmetric sources (Figure F.5). One

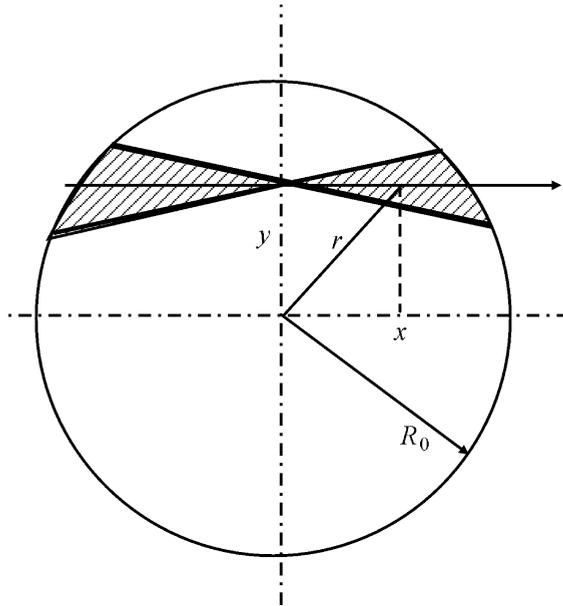


Figure F.5 Luminous flux gathered from an axially symmetric source viewed across the axis.

should first correct the observed transverse distribution for the spatial instrumental distortions and then take the Abelian transformation to get the true radial distribution. One has to deal here with the successive solution of two first-order integral equations, which is generally a complex enough problem. Figure F.6 presents some illustrative examples showing what instrumental distortions one can expect when measuring radial line intensity distributions along and across the axis of a discharge. For example, when studying the radial structure of a contracted discharge filament 3 mm in radius, the radial distribution measured along the axis is $F'(r)$ (Figure F.6a). The instrument function is approximated by a Gaussian curve with a half-width of 1 mm. Following correction for the instrumental distortions, one gets the curve $F(r)$ which at maximum differs by ca. 30% from the measured one. The transverse distribution measured across the axis (Figure F.6b) is $\psi(y)$, and the radial distribution recovered from it without correction made for the instrumental distortions is $\Psi_1(r)$, while that recovered with due regard for the distortions, $\Psi_2(r)$. Taking account of instrumental distortions is especially important where plasma glow is concentrated in peripheral regions, for example, in the case of skin effect. In that case, the effect of instrumental distortions in the analysis of the spatial structure of a plasma source can be appreciable.

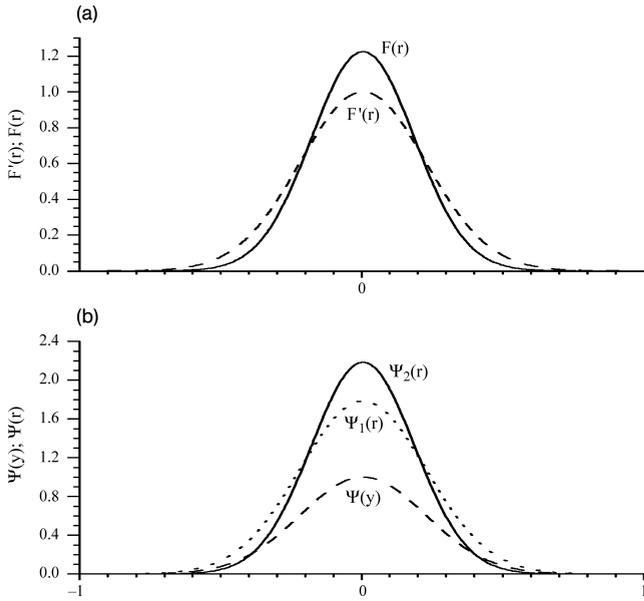


Figure F.6 Illustrating the effect of instrumental distortions when taking spatial luminous flux measurements for an axially symmetric source viewed (a) along and (b) across the axis. $F'(r)$ and $F(r)$ – observed and recovered radial distributions for the source viewed along the axis, $\psi(r)$ – observed transverse distribution, $\Psi_1(r)$ – radial distribution recovered without allowing for instrumental distortions, $\Psi_2(r)$ – radial distribution recovered with due regard for instrumental distortions.

This luminous flux calculation method makes it possible to easily take account of self-absorption within the limits of an axially homogeneous source. To this end, one should multiply expression (F.1) into the probability that quanta will cover the distance from the point with the coordinates x, r to the boundary of the source without being absorbed and then integrate it over the conical surface. The probability that the quanta emitted in a spectral line with an emission profile of ε_ν will cover the distance x without being absorbed is

$$w(x) = \int_0^\infty \varepsilon_\nu \exp(-k_\nu x) d\nu, \tag{F.7}$$

where k_ν is the absorption line profile, $\int_0^\infty \varepsilon_\nu d\nu = 1$.

It proves convenient to move the origin of coordinates to the point $x = a$. Multiplying expression (F.1) by (F.7) and integrating over the conical surface with due regard for property (F.3), we get

$$F = Id\sigma \frac{\Omega}{4\pi} \int_{-L/2}^{L/2} dx \int_0^\infty \varepsilon_\nu \exp\left(-k_\nu \left(\frac{L}{2} - x\right)\right) d\nu. \tag{F.8}$$

Changing the order of integration and integrating with respect to the coordinate, we have

$$F = Id\sigma L \frac{\Omega}{4\pi} \int_0^\infty \frac{\varepsilon_\nu}{k_\nu L} (1 - \exp(-k_\nu L)) d\nu \equiv Id\sigma L \frac{\Omega}{4\pi} S(k_0 L), \quad (\text{F.9})$$

where $S(k_0 L)$ is the Ladenburg function and k_0 is the absorption coefficient at the line center. Expression (F.9) gives in absolute measure the magnitude of the luminous flux that has passed through the slit of the spectral instrument from the volumetric plasma source in the given illumination scheme in the presence of reabsorption within the limits of the source.

The Ladenburg function shows how much the luminous flux emitted by the plasma column of fixed length is reduced as the absorption coefficient grows higher. The product of the column length and the Ladenburg function shows how the radiant flux increases with increasing column length at a fixed absorption coefficient. The integrand in expression (F.9) shows how the spectral line profile deforms outside of the source as the optical density is increased. Obviously expression (F.9) becomes (F.4) if one puts $k_\nu \rightarrow 0$ and expands the exponent in the integrand in (F.9) into a series. Passage to the limit of high absorption coefficient values is not so obvious. If one simply neglects the exponent in comparison with unity in expression (F.9), then, assuming similar emission and absorption line profiles, one obtains divergence on integrating with respect to frequency between infinite limits. The important point is that despite the great optical thickness near the line center, absorption in the far wings of the line becomes weak, the exponent approaches unity and cannot be omitted when taking the integral in expression (F.9). Actually this means that photons in the line wings can move large distances without being absorbed and leave the plasma volume. One can expunge the divergence if one formally cuts off the spectral line wings at some fixed frequencies. In this hypothetical case, integration over a finite spectral interval, with the exponent disregarded and the emission line profile normalization taken into account, yields

$$F = Id\sigma \frac{\Omega}{4\pi} \frac{1}{k_0},$$

and the luminous flux no longer depends on the length of the source. For real line profiles, the Ladenburg functions fail to reach saturation. Figure F.7 presents the luminous flux issuing from a plasma column as a function of the column length at a fixed absorption coefficient.

To confine the emission of spectral lines within the volume of plasma, it is necessary to introduce stimulated transitions along with the spontaneous ones and to take into account the broadening and overlapping

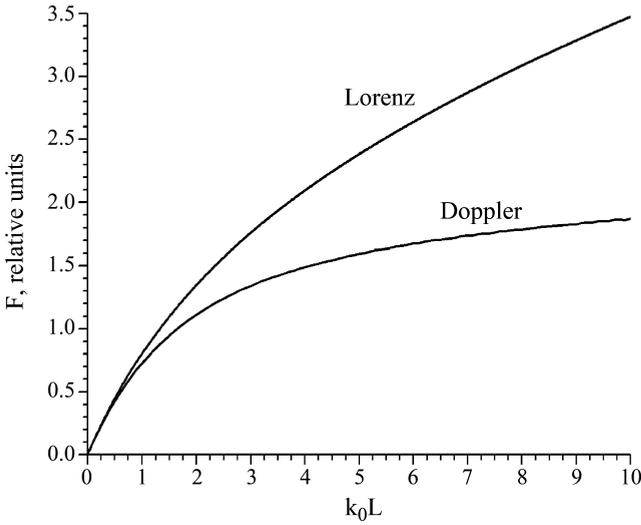


Figure F.7 Luminous flux as a function of the discharge column length at a fixed absorption coefficient for a Doppler and a Lorentz line profile.

of spectral lines. In this case the intensity in the line center will be equal to the Planck’s blackbody intensity value. Based on expression (F.9), one can construct classical methods for measuring the densities of emitting atoms, which was started by Ladenburg and co-workers and described in many books on plasma spectroscopy.

Formula (F.4) for an optically thin source and (F.9) for a source with self-absorption can be used to calculate the absolute intensities of spectral lines. To this end, it is necessary to calculate the luminous flux that has passed through the slit from a standard source to be located at a distance of a from the objective lens, which is attained by means of a tilting mirror. Let S be the surface area of the ribbon filament of the photometric lamp and $b = \int_0^\infty b_\lambda d\lambda$, the integral brightness determined from the ribbon temperature specified in the lamp certificate, depending on the filament current. The luminous flux that has been gathered by the objective lens and passed through the slit with a surface area of $d\sigma'$ is obviously

$$F_{st} = bS\Omega \frac{d\sigma'}{S'} = bd\sigma' \left(\frac{a}{a'}\right)^2 \Omega = bd\sigma\Omega.$$

This expression is tantamount to the statement that the image brightness is equal to the brightness of the object. The luminous flux issuing from

the spectral instrument's exit slit with a width of δl will be

$$F_{\text{st}} = b_{\lambda} \left(\frac{d\lambda}{dl} \right) \delta l d\sigma \Omega \sim u_{\text{st}} \quad (\text{F.10})$$

where $\left(\frac{d\lambda}{dl} \right)$ is the dispersion of the spectral instrument and u_{st} is the registering system signal proportional to the luminous flux from the standard source. If the width of the spectral line emitted by plasma is much smaller than the spectral width of the exit slit, the signal u_{pl} from the plasma source will be proportional to the luminous flux F that in its turn is determined by the integral line intensity I (formulas (F.4) and (F.9)). If we take the ratio between the luminous fluxes registered from the plasma and the standard source, we will have, on canceling out the geometrical factors identical in both cases, the following simple expressions for calculating the absolute intensities of spectral lines:

- for optically thin sources,

$$I = 4\pi b_{\lambda} \left(\frac{d\lambda}{dl} \right) \delta l \frac{1}{L} \frac{u_{\text{pl}}}{u_{\text{st}}}, \quad (\text{F.11})$$

- for sources with reabsorption,

$$I = 4\pi b_{\lambda} \left(\frac{d\lambda}{dl} \right) \delta l \frac{1}{L} S(k_{\nu} L) \frac{u_{\text{pl}}}{u_{\text{st}}}. \quad (\text{F.12})$$

When registering a continuous spectrum from an optically thin source, the luminous flux passing through the exit slit of small spectral width will be

$$F = I_{\lambda} \left(\frac{d\lambda}{dl} \right) \delta l d\sigma L \frac{\Omega}{4\pi}.$$

From the ratio between the luminous fluxes from plasma and the standard source we have the following expression for the absolute intensity of the continuum at a wavelength of λ :

$$I_{\lambda} = 4\pi b_{\lambda} \frac{1}{L} \frac{u_{\text{pl}}}{u_{\text{st}}}. \quad (\text{F.13})$$

Thus, formulas (F.11) through (F.13) enable one to calculate the absolute intensities of spectral lines and continua and determine the populations of emitting atoms, and expression (F.9) can help one to get the populations of absorbing atoms when using the classical absorption methods described in Chapters 3 to 5.

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