Techniques Spectroscopiques

Applications à l'étude des biomolécules et de leurs assemblages

C. Sanchez

- 1. Nature de la matière et des interactions (Introduction)
- 2. Méthodes de diffusion de la lumière
- 3. Spectroscopie d'absorption moléculaire

Méthodes spectroscopiques :

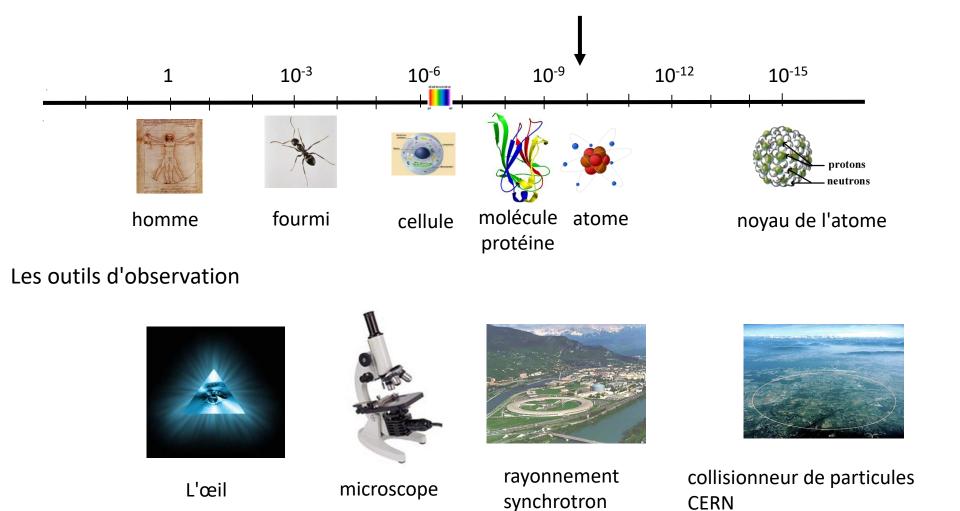
Etude des interactions lumière – matière

Voir le visible et l'invisible Voir le mouvement



Claude Monet (Coquelicots, 1873)

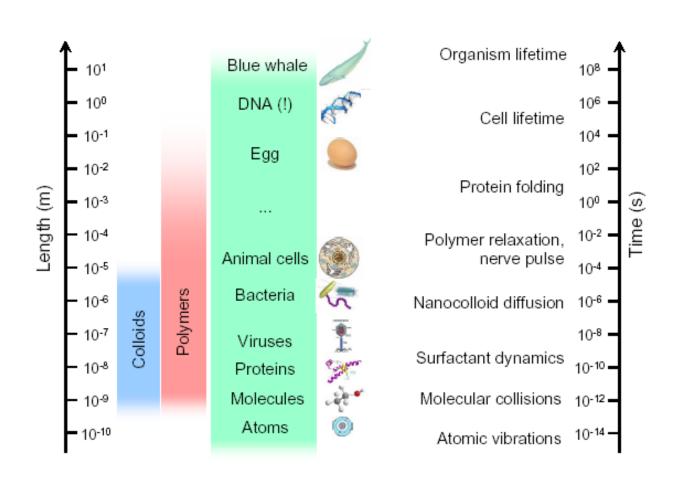
La structure : une question d'échelle



Plus on veut voir petit, plus l'instrument est grand

rayons X

Exemples d'échelles de longueur et de temps



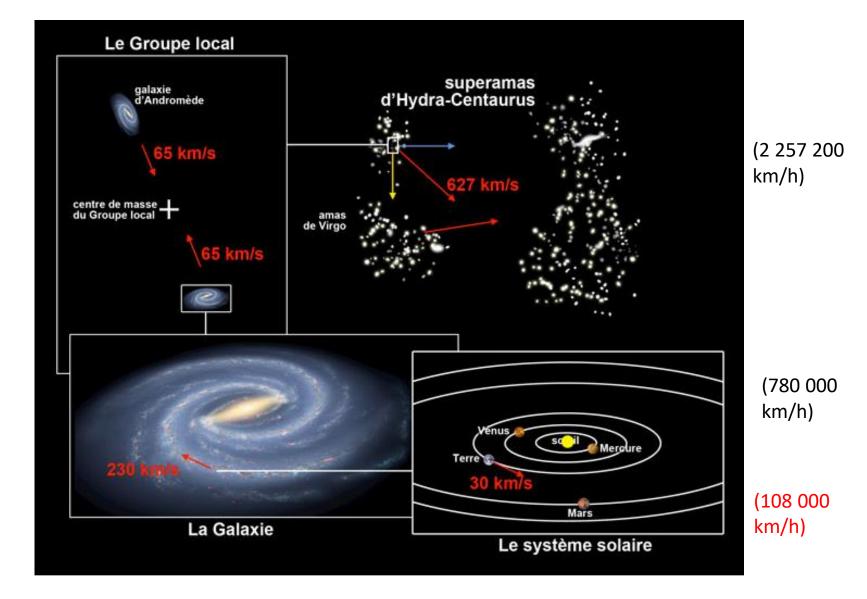
« Dans le vide infini s'agite la matière »

(Lucrèce, De Rerum Natura, -100 bc)

« Le mouvement est le mode d'existence de la matière »

(F. Engels, Dialectique de la Nature, 1883)

Velocity of cosmic bodies (ex.)



(828 000 km/h)

(234 000

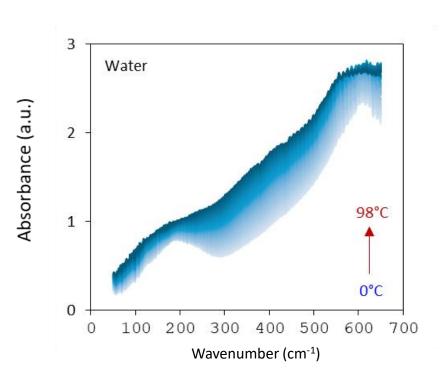
km/h)

Spectres infrarouge de l'eau en fonction de la température

IR moyen

Blue shift 0.16 0.14 IR absorbance (a.u.) 0.12 0.10 0.08 0.06 0.04 0.02 IR moyen 0.00 3500 3400 3300 3200 3700 3600 3100 3000 Wavenumber (cm⁻¹)

IR lointain (THZ)

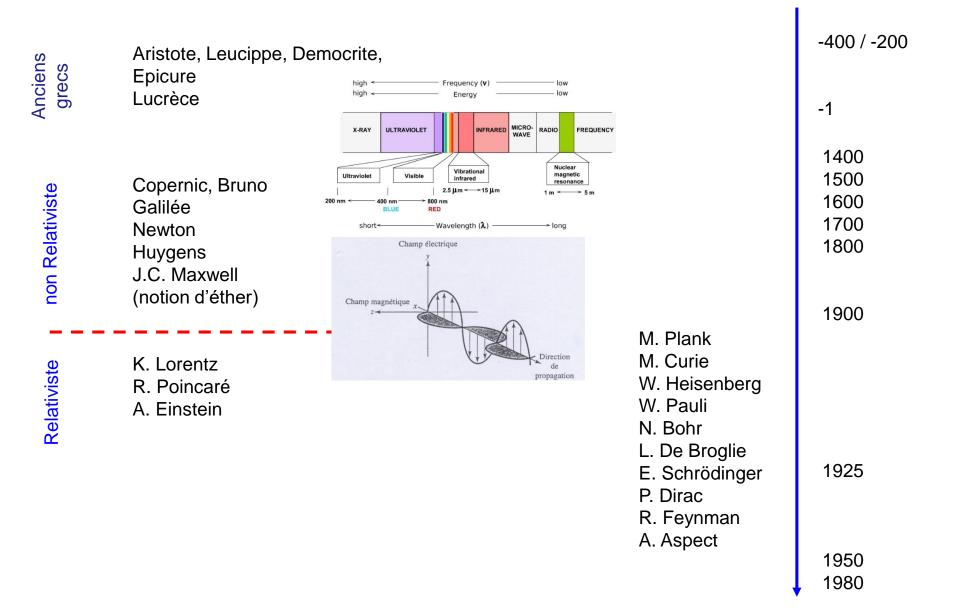


$$\Delta E_{Hb} = -0.00060264 \times v_{OH}^2 + 0.34809 \times v_{OH} + 463.92.$$

T. Shimoaka, T. Hasegawa, K. Ohno, Y. Katsumoto, Correlation between the local OH stretching vibration wavenumber and the hydrogen bonding pattern in a condensed phase: Quantum chemical approach to analyze the borad OH band, J. Mol. Struct. 1029, 2012, 209-216.

Physique classique

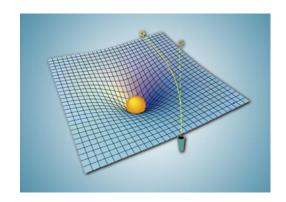
Physique quantique



What is matter?

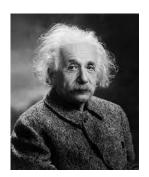
Newtonian Mechanics

General Relativity Theory



$$G_{\mu\nu} + \Lambda g_{\mu\nu} = \kappa T_{\mu\nu}$$

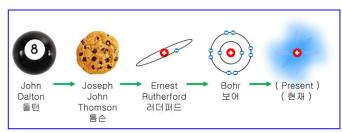
Einstein Field Equations



Gravity
Strong Nuclear Interaction
Weak Nuclear Interaction
Electromagnetic Interaction



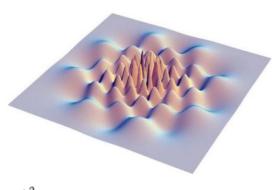
Sir I. Newton





L. de Broglie

Quantum Mechanics

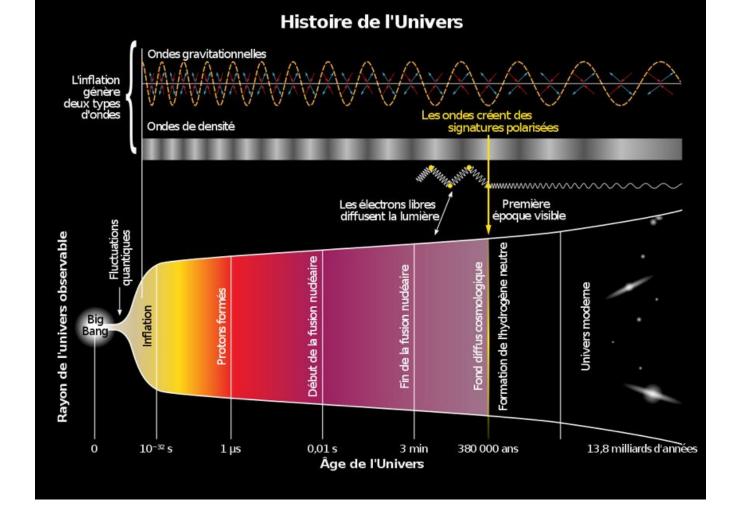


$$rac{\hat{ec{\mathbf{p}}}^2}{2m}|\Psi(t)
angle + V\Big(\hat{ec{\mathbf{r}}},t\Big)|\Psi(t)
angle = i\hbarrac{\partial}{\partial t}|\Psi(t)
angle$$

Schrödinger Equation



E. Schrödinger



10⁻⁴⁴ s : Fluctuations quantiques (mousse)

10⁻⁴³ s : Echelle de Planck

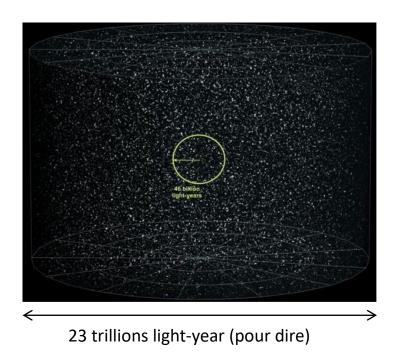
10⁻³⁸ s: Inflation

Taux d'expansion de l'Univers : $x10^{50} - 10^{10^{12}}$?

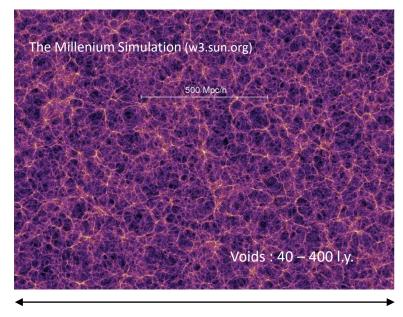
A la fin de l'inflation (10⁻³² s)

10⁹⁴ kg/m³ 10²⁶ – 10²⁸ K

The Universe: An unthinkable volume



Supertructures of Universe



6,7 milliards d'années-lumière

 $10^{40} \, \text{km}$

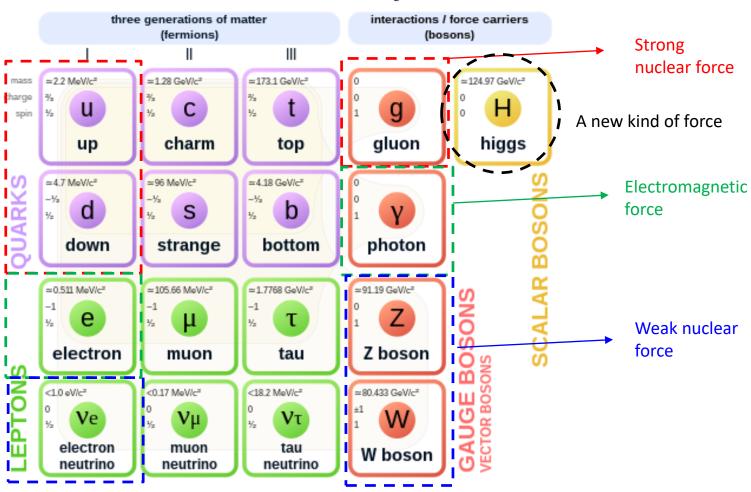
L'univers n'est pas dans un espace, il contient la matière et c'est au voisinage de la matière que l'espace existe. L'espace absolu et le temps absolu indépendamment de la matière n'existent pas.



Standard Model of Particle Physics: Quantum Field Theory

(i.e. + Classical Field theory + Special Relativity + Quantum mechanics)

Standard Model of Elementary Particles



The matter we believe to understand

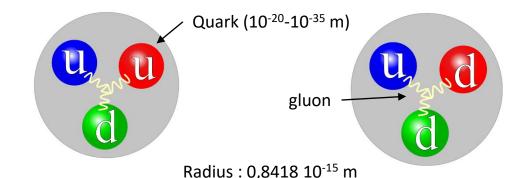
Baryonic matter: Protons, neutrons, the components of the nuclei (nucleons)

Nobel Prize 2004

Gross, Politzer, Wilczek

quark masses make up only 2% of the mass of the proton or neutron

Mass would be an emerging property !!!



Free proton representation (lifetime mini: 2.1×10^{29} years)

Proton mass : $(1,672 62 \times 10^{-27} \text{ kg})$

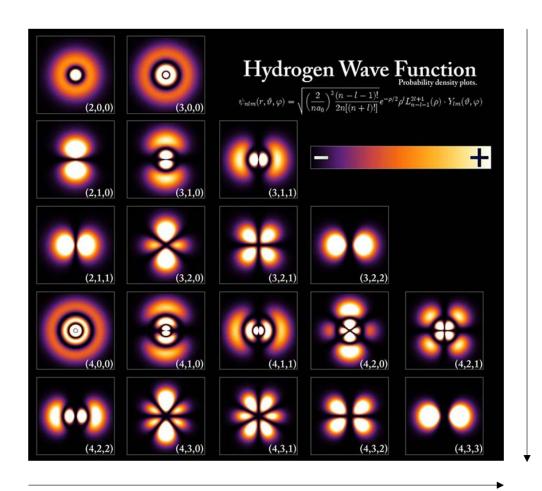
Representation of a free Neutron (lifetime< 15 min)

Neutron mass: 1,675 \times 10⁻²⁷ kg

Atoms, in the sense of modern physics and chemistry, are a convenient point of departure. An atom consists of its nucleus, wherein is concentrated all the positive electric charge and overwhelmingly most of the mass (> 99.9%, in all cases), surrounded by a cloud of much lighter electrons. So the first order of business is to understand the origin of the mass of atomic nuclei.

F. Wilczek. Origins of mass (2012).

Premières orbitales électroniques de l'atome d'hydrogène



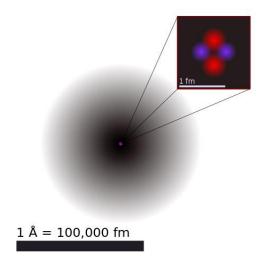
n = nombre quantique principal (niveau d'énergie de l'électron)

> + m (n.q. tertiaire ou magnétique, orientation des orbitales

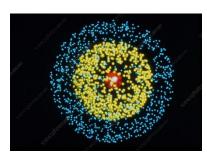
+ s (n.q. de spin, moment cinétique intrinsèque de l'électron)

l = s, p, d, f,
 g, h, i, k, (moment angulaire)

Crédit image : GNU Free Documentation License.



Increasing electron density →
c d



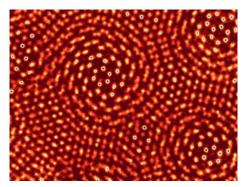
Computed electronic structure of Lithium

Quantum picture of the Helium atom

First « picture » of the hydrogen atom

R: 25×10^{-12} m M: 1.67×10^{-24} kg

Stodolna et al. (2013). Hydrogen mtoms under Magnification: Direct observation of the nodal structure of Stark state. PRL 110, 213001.

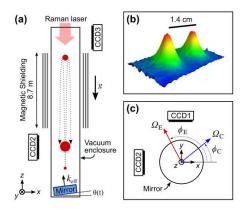


Molybdenum or sulfur atoms (each dot is an atom)

DAVID MULLER/CORNELL UNIVERSITY



Photograph of Single Strontium Atom Wins National Science Photography Competition 2018 D. Nadlinger)



Atom interferometry.

S.M. Dickerson, J.M. Hogan, A. Sugarbaker, D..S. Johnson, and M.A. Kasevich. Multiaxis Inertial Sensing with Long-Time Point Source Atom Interferometry. PRL 111, 083001 (2013).

Atoms are produced upon interactions of quantum fields

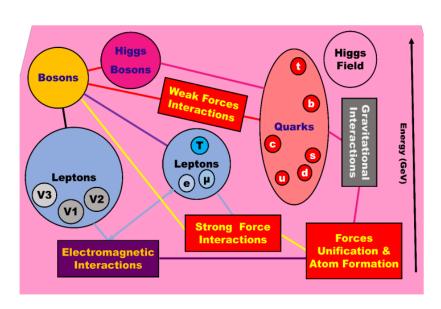


Figure 5. Elemental mass formation and forces interaction unification.

A. Hussain, M.M. Abbas. A Review of Elemental Mass Origin and Fundamental Forces Unification for Nuclear and Aerospace Industries. J Mod Nanotechnol 1, 2021, 2

G. Voisin, F. Mottez, S. Bonazzola. Electron-positron pair production by gamma rays in an anisotropic flux of soft photons, and application to pulsar polar caps. Monthly Notices of the Royal Astronomical Society, 474, 2018, 1436–1452.

An example of pair production : the Electron – Positron pair

If the photon is near an atomic nucleus, the energy of a photon can be converted into an electron—positron pair:

$$(Z+)\gamma \rightarrow e^- + e^+$$

The photon's energy is converted to particle mass in accordance with Einstein's equation, $E = m \cdot c2$. The photon must have higher energy than the sum of the rest mass energies of an electron and positron (2 · 511 keV = 1.022 MeV, resulting in a photon-wavelength of 1.2132 picometer) for the production to occur. (Wikipedia)

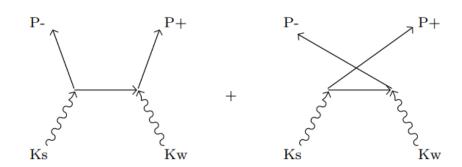


Figure 1. Reaction of electron-positron pair creation from a pair of photons represented to first order by Feynman diagrams. Photons have 4-momenta K_s and K_w while electron and positron have respectively P_- and P_+ .

To describe electromagnetic interactions

(Dynamics of energy and momentum, mass is a consequence)

Electrodynamics

(from Maxwell's Field Equations; Electromagnetic theory of light)

$$\nabla \cdot \mathbf{E} = \frac{\rho_{v}}{\varepsilon} \qquad (Gauss' Law)$$

$$\nabla \cdot \mathbf{H} = 0$$
 (Gauss' Law for Magnetism)

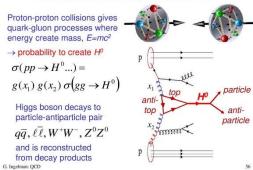
$$\nabla \times \mathbf{E} = -\mu \frac{\partial \mathbf{H}}{\partial t}$$
 (Faraday's Law)

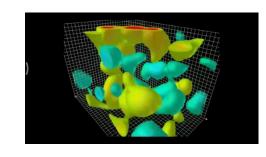
$$\nabla \times \mathbf{H} = \mathbf{J} + \varepsilon \frac{\partial \mathbf{E}}{\partial t}$$
 (Ampere's Law)

Quantum Chromodynamics

Quantum fluctuations of vacuum







Simulation box: some fm side (D. Leinweberg) Fluctuations of energy density of quantum field

Quantum Electrodynamics

$$S_{
m QED} = \int d^4x \, \left[-rac{1}{4} F^{\mu
u} F_{\mu
u} + ar{\psi} \left(i \gamma^\mu D_\mu - m
ight) \psi
ight]$$

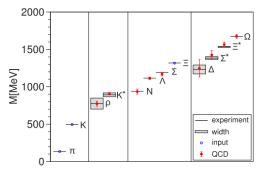
All fundamental properties of matter are predicted by QCD

Running couplings: QED vs QCD

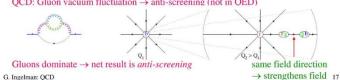
QED: Quantum fluctuations polarise vacuum and screen electron charge at large dist. OCD: Ouark vacuum fluctuation → screening (as in QED)

 $F = mc^2$ confirmed experimentally Fig. 3. The light hadron spectrum of QCD. Horizontal lines and bands are the experimental values with their decay widths. Our results are shown by solid circles. Vertical error bars represent our combined statistical (SEM) and systematic error estimates. π , K, and Ξ have no error bars, because they are used to set the light quark mass, the strange quark mass and the overall

scale, respectively.



QCD: Gluon vacuum fluctuation → anti-screening (not in QED)



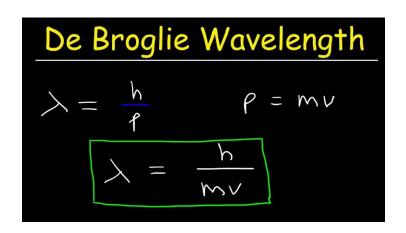
S. Dürr, Z. Fodor, J. Frison, C. Hoelbling, R. Hoffmann, D. Katz, S. Krieg, T. Kurth, L. Lellouch, T. Lippert, K. K. Szabo, G. Vulvert. Ab Initio Determination of Light Hadron Masses. Science 322, 2008, 1224-1227.

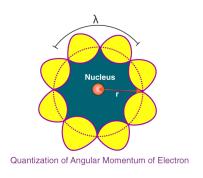


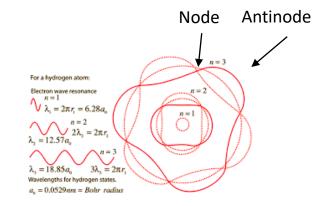
Monsieur le Duc (Louis Victor) de Broglie

Matter is Particle AND Wave

« À toute particule matérielle de masse m et de vitesse v doit être associée une onde réelle »





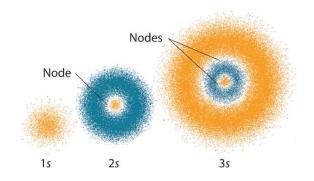


Orbitals

The quantum theory of Electron

The quantum de Broglie – Bohm pilot wave theory

The thermodynamic pilot wave theory



What is the origin of the wave?

« On peut donc concevoir que par suite d'une **grande loi de la Nature**, à chaque morceau d'énergie de masse propre m, soit lié un phénomène périodique de fréquence v_0 telle que l'on ait $hv_0 = mc^2$, <u>étant mesurée dans le système lié au morceau d'énergie</u>. Cette hypothèse est la base de notre système : elle vaut, comme toutes les hypothèses, ce que valent les conséquences qu'on en peut déduire. »

« Ce qui caractérise l'électron comme atome d'énergie, ce n'est pas la petite place qu'il occupe dans l'espace, **je répète qu'il l'occupe tout entier**, c'est le fait qu'il est insécable, non subdivisible, qu'il forme une unité »

$$E = mc^2 = hv = k_BT$$

A Law of Nature

One of the consequences of the revised SI is that the conversion factors among the energy units J, kg, m⁻¹, Hz, K, and eV are now exact based on $E = mc^2 = \hbar c/\lambda = h\nu = kT$. The conversion factor between

rejudeing inequality w mee 1211	·1100	J.207 011 700 2300 (01) /\ 10	114	1,2 // 10
Boltzmann constant	\boldsymbol{k}	1.380649×10^{-23}	$\rm JK^{-1}$	exact
Avogadro constant	$N_{ m A}$	6.02214076×10^{23}	mol^{-1}	exact
molar gas constant NAk	R	8.314 4 <u>6</u> 2 <u>6</u> 18	J mol ⁻¹ K ⁻¹	e <u>x</u> act
Faraday constant $N_{ m A}e$	F	96 485.332 12	$C \text{mol}^{-1}$	exact
Stefan-Boltzmann constant $(\pi^2/60)k^4/\hbar^3c^2$	σ	5.670 374 419 × 10 ⁻⁸	₩ m ⁻² K ⁻⁴	exact
	Non-SI	units accepted for use with the SI		
electron volt (e/C) J	eV	$1.602176634 \times 10^{-19}$	J	exact

E. Tiesinga, P.J. Mohr, D.B. Newell, B.N. Taylor. CODATA Recommended Values of the Fundamental Physical Constants: 2018. J. Phys. Chem. Ref. Data 50, 033105 (2021)

Since the 2019 redefinition of SI base units,[1] which took effect on 20 May 2019, the Faraday constant has the exactly defined value given by the product of the elementary charge e and Avogadro constant NA:

$$F \equiv e \times N_A = 1.602179934 \times 10^{-19} C \times 6.02214076 \times 10^{23} mol^{-1}$$

$$= 9.64853321233100184 \times 10^4 \ C.mol^{-1}$$
 Wikipedia

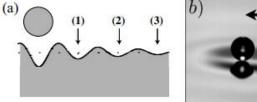
One Faraday is the amount of electric charges carried by one mole of particles

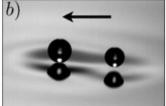
i.e. $9.64853321233100184 \times 10^4 * 6,24150907446076E + 18$ point charges per Coulomb = $6.02214076 \times 10^{23}$

The particle – wave duality of matter : The walking droplets

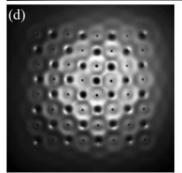
1.2. GOUTTES REBONDISSANTES











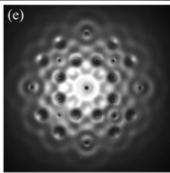


Figure 1.6 – (a) Positions d'équilibre pour une goutte placée dans le champ d'ondes créé par une autre goutte. (b) Duo asymétrique se déplaçant spontanément à la surface du bain. D'après [31]. (c) Vue de côté d'un réseau triangulaire de gouttes. (d) Vue de dessus d'un réseau carré. (e) Vue de dessus d'un réseau formé de carrés et d'octogones. D'après [29].

A. Eddi. Marcheurs, dualité onde-particule et Mémoire de chemin. Dynamique des Fluides. [physics.flu-dyn]. Université Paris-Diderot - Paris VII, 2011.

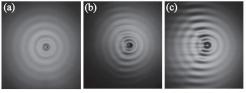
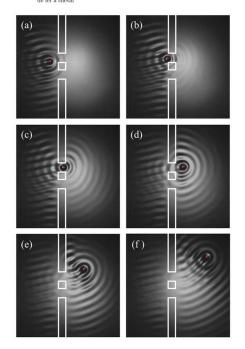


FIGURE 4.1 – Photographies des ondes générées par un marcheur de diamètre $D=760~\mu \mathrm{m}$ dans de l'huile de viscosité $\mu=20~10^{-9}$ Pa.s. (a) L'écart au seuil $\Gamma=17\%$ est important, le marcheur est lent et les ondes quasiment axisymétriques. (b) Pour $\Gamma=7\%$, le champ d'ondes est distordu et un sillage se met en place à l'arrière du marcheur. (c) Pour $\Gamma=1.8\%$, le sillage est très développé et présente une forme de fer à cheval.



The walking droplet double-slit experiment

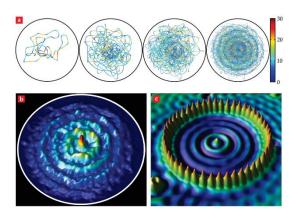
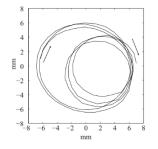


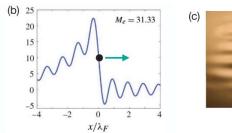
Fig. 2. A walker in a circular corral. The highmemory trajectories of increasing length depicted in (a) are color coded according to droplet speed in millimeters per second. (b) The histogram of the walker's position corresponds roughly to the amplitude of the corral's most unstable Faraday mode. The emerging statistics of the confined walker are reminiscent of (c) the statistics of electrons in a quantum corral. Figure adapted with permission from Harris et al. (2013). Copyright 2013, AIP Publishing LLC.

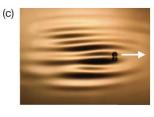


Trajectoire du marcheur lors d'une transition entre les plateaux n = 1 et n = 0. La goutte passe instantanément d'un plateau à l'autre, sans décrire d'orbites de rayon intermédiaire.

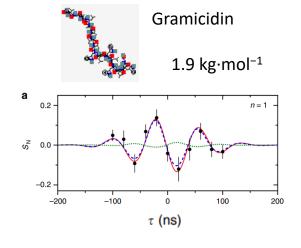
The particle – wave duality of matter : A Law of Nature

Hydrodynamic quantum pilot wave theory

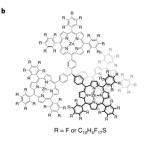


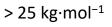


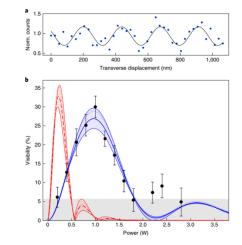
Y. Dagan, J.W.M. Bush. Hydrodynamic quantum field theory: the free particle. Comptes Rendus Mécanique, 348, 2020, 555-571.



A. Shayeghi, P. Rieser, G. Richter, U. Sezer, J.H. Rodewald, P. Geyer, T.J. Martinez, M. Arndt. Matter-wave interference of a native polypeptide. Nature Com., 11, 2020, 1447.

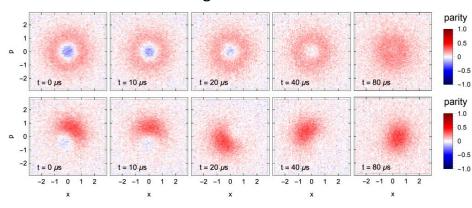






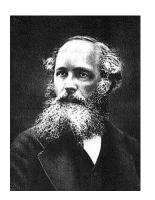
Y.Y. Fein, P. Geyer, P. Zwick, F. Kiałka, S. Pedalino, M. Mayor, S. Gerlich, M. Arndt. Quantum superposition of molecules beyond 25 kDa. Nature Physics, 15, 2019, 1242–1245.

Wigner Functions



μg amount

B. Schrinski, Y. Yang, U. von Lupke, M. Bild, Y. Chu, K. Hornberger, S. Nimmrichter, M. Fadel. Macroscopic quantum test with bulk acoustic wave resonators, arXiv:2209.06635v1 [quant-ph] 14 Sep 2022.



Another Law of Nature Law of Conservation of Total Current

From Maxwell's Equations and de Broglie – Bohm quantum pilot wave theory

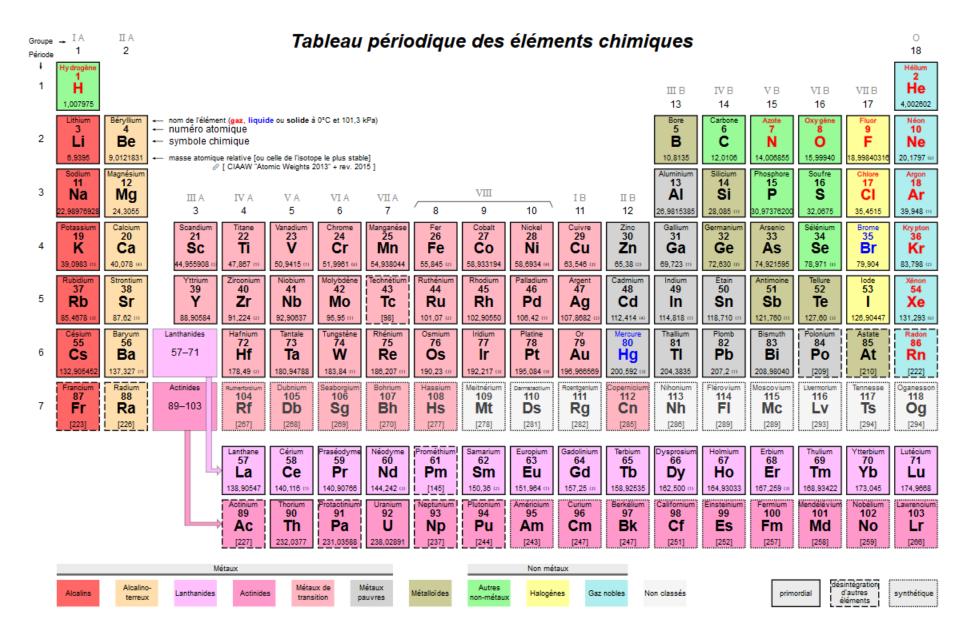
$$\frac{\partial}{\partial t}(\varepsilon_0 \nabla \cdot \boldsymbol{e}) + \nabla \cdot \boldsymbol{j}_Q = \nabla \cdot \left(\varepsilon_0 \frac{\partial \boldsymbol{e}}{\partial t} + \boldsymbol{j}_Q\right) = 0$$

$$\nabla \cdot (\mathbf{J}_{total}) = \mathbf{0} \qquad \nabla \cdot \left(\mathbf{J}_{Q} + \varepsilon_{0} \frac{\partial \mathbf{E}}{\partial t} \right) = 0$$
Property
of matter
of space

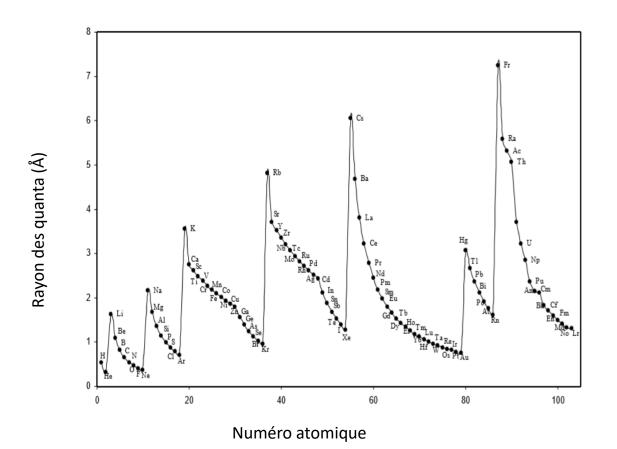
$$\nabla \cdot \mathbf{J}_Q = -\frac{\partial}{\partial t} \rho_Q$$



B. Eisenberg, X. Oriols, and D. Ferry. Dynamics of Current, Charge and Mass. Mol. Based Math. Biol. 5, 2017, 78–115.



Size of atoms



Orbital Exponent	Atomic Radii . (Å)
1	0.5292
1.7	0.3113
0.65	1.6282
0.975	1.0855
1.3	0.8141
1.625	0.6513
1.95	0.5427
2.275	0.4652
	1 1.7 0.65 0.975 1.3 1.625 1.95

(rayon de Bohr)

Van der Waals radius of atoms

Table 1. Crystallographic van der Waals radii of nonmetals

Author, year	R, Å								
Author, year	Н	F	C1	Br	I	0	S	N	С
Pauling, 1939	1.2	1.35	1.80	1.95	2.15	1.40	1.85	1.5	1.70
Bondi, 1964	1.20	1.47	1.75	1.85	1.98	1.52	1.80	1.55	1.70
Zefirov, 1974	1.16	1.40	1.90	1.97	2.14	1.29	1.84	1.50	1.71
Gavezzotti, 1983-1999	1.17	1.35	1.80	1.95	2.10	1.40	1.85	1.50	1.70
Batsanov, 1995			1.80	1.90	2.10	1.51	1.80		1.68
Wieberg, 1995		1.5	1.8	1.9	2.1	1.5	1.8	1.6	1.7
Rowland, 1996	1.10	1.46	1.76	1.87	2.03	1.58	1.81	1.64	1.77

(It takes into account attractive/repulsive forces Relation with atom polarizability)

Electronegativity increases

1 2
Group Group
1A 2A

Li Be
1.0 1.5

Na Mg
0.9 1.2

K Ca
0.8 1.0

Rb Sr
0.8 1.0

Cs 0.7 Ba 0.9

Electronegativity decreases

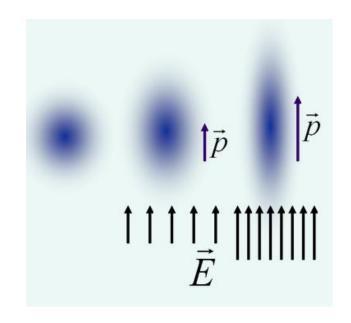
1 2	H .1				18 Group 8A
13 Group 3A	14 Group 4A	15 Group 5A	16 Group 6A	17 Group 7A	OA
B 2.0	C 2.5	N 3.0	O 3.5	F 4.0	
AI 1.5	Si 1.8	P 2.1	S 2.5	CI 3.0	
Ga 1.6	Ge 1.8	As 2.0	Se 2.4	Br 2.8	
In 1.7	Sn 1.8	Sb 1.9	Te 2.1	1 2.5	
TI 1.8	Pb 1.9	Bi 1.9	Po 2.0	At 2.1	

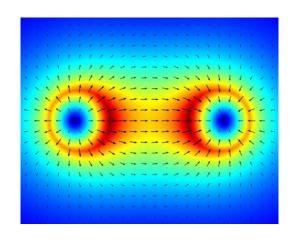
Polarizability of atoms

Microscopic property (atom, molecule, matter in general)

$$\overrightarrow{p} = \overrightarrow{\alpha} \overrightarrow{E}$$

Deformability of electron cloud in response to an electric fled





A dipole in an electric field (positive charge (left) Negative charge (right)

The Clausius-Mosetti or Lorentz-Lorenz equation

Clausius-Mosetti equation

$$R_M = \frac{4\pi\rho_N\alpha_{el}}{3} = \frac{\epsilon_\infty - 1}{\epsilon_\infty + 2}$$

Molar Refractivity

 ρ_N Number density (nber/m³) (N_a/V_m)

 α_{el} Static average electronic polarizability (m³)

 ϵ_{∞} High frequency static permittivity ($\approx n^2$)

$$\alpha_{el}(\mathring{A}^3) = \frac{10^{30}}{4\pi\varepsilon_0} \alpha(C.m^2.V^{-1}) = \frac{fe^2}{m\omega_e^2}$$

with f the number of oscillating electrons and ω_e the electron vibration frequency

and Ionization energy $(kJ. mol^{-1}) = IE = h\omega_e$

Dielectric permittivity

Macroscopic collective property

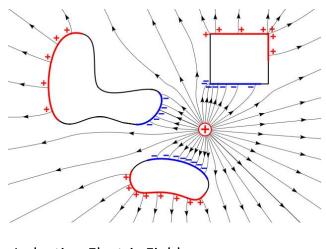
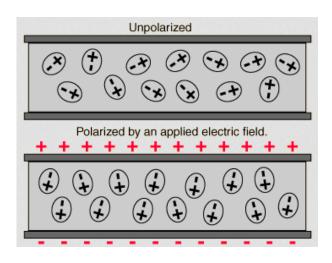


Figure: Distribution of electronic charges induced in Conducting bodies the electric field of a close Positive charge, due to electrostatic induction

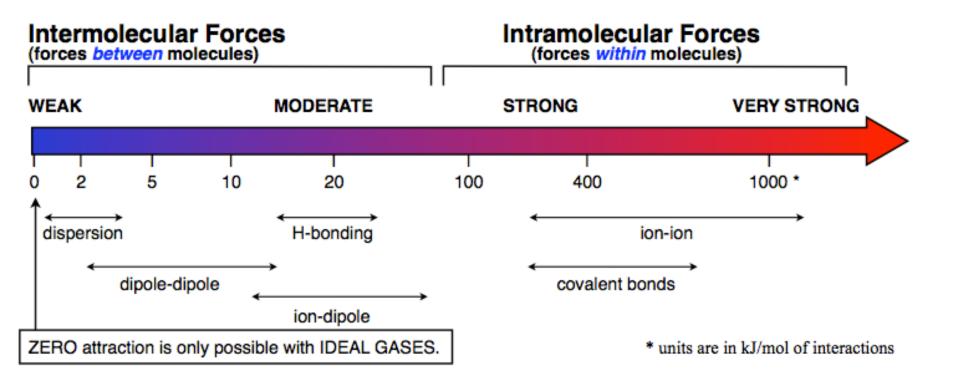
$$\overrightarrow{D} = \varepsilon \overrightarrow{E}$$

$$\varepsilon_r = \frac{\varepsilon}{\varepsilon_0}$$



Material	Complex Permittivity
Water	78
Methanol	25
DMSO	46
Quartz sand	2.5
Granular Paraffin	1.7
Milk powder	2

Electromagnetic interaction energy



Total interaction energy

$$E_{T} = E_{repulsive} + E_{attractive}$$

$$= E_{rep} + E_{el} + E_{vdW}$$

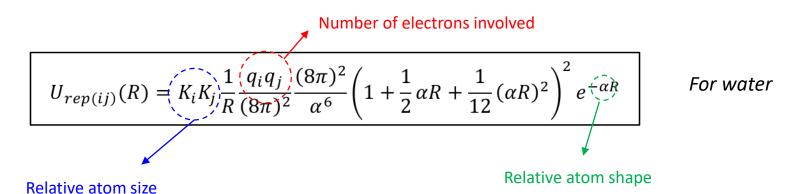
$$= E_{rep} + E_{el} + E_{Keesom} + E_{Debye} + E_{London}$$

 $\mathcal{L} = \frac{1}{4g^2} \mathcal{G}_{\mu\nu} \mathcal{G}_{\mu\nu} + \sum_{j} \overline{g}_{j} (i \partial^{\mu} D_{\mu} + m_{j}) q_{j}$ where $\mathcal{G}_{\mu\nu} = \partial_{\mu} \mathcal{H}_{\nu}^{a} - \partial_{\nu} \mathcal{H}_{\mu}^{a} + i \mathcal{G}_{bc}^{a} \mathcal{H}_{\mu}^{b} \mathcal{H}_{\nu}^{c}$ and $D_{\mu} = \partial_{\mu} + i t^{a} \mathcal{H}_{a}^{a}$ That's it!

We keep the E_{el} term to comply with textbooks

F. Wilczek. QCD made simple. Physics Today, august 2000, 22-28.

Born multipole repulsion energy



where R is the internuclear distance, i, j refers to hydrogen and oxygen atoms, K is the relative atom size, α describes the width of the electron density (a kind of index of the atom shape) and q is the maximum number of electrons that are involved in overlap for a particular atom.

THE GENERAL THEORY OF MOLECULAR FORCES.

By F. London (Paris).

Received 31st July, 1936.

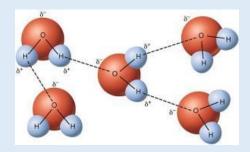
F. London. The general theory of molecular forces. Trans. Faraday Soc., 1937,33, 8-26

On the nature of intermolecular forces

Van der Waals, a firm advocate of the molecular theory, ascribed critical phenomena to the attraction between molecules, but never speculated on the nature of intermolecular interactions. In the early 20th century, two young Dutch physicists, Willem Hendrik Keesom (1876–1956)^[30] and Peter Debye (1884–1966)^[31] suggested that molecules might behave as electrical dipoles and that cohesive forces could have therefore an electrostatic nature.

Keesom forces

Permanent dipole – permanent dipole



Water: hydrogen-bond interaction

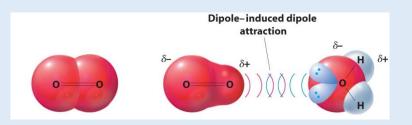
The Keesom force can be attractive (dipole antiparallel) or repulsive (dipole parallel), but vanishes as temperature increases, because thermally induced motions of the permanent dipoles disorder their mutual alignment.

Very important :

The three forces have different characteristic time (from fs for London dispersion forces to ps for Keesom forces)

Debye forces

Permanent dipole – induced dipole

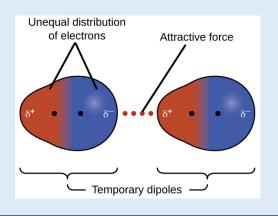


The Debye force does not disappear at high temperature (*it increases*) and is always attractive.

London forces

(purely quantum effect; predicted by QED)

Induced dipole – induced dipole



The London force is stronger at low temperature and may be attractive or repulsive (always attractive for similar molecules)

The only force that is retarded at long distance

van der Waals interaction energy (microscopic theory)

$$E_{\text{vdW}} = E_{\text{Keesom}} + E_{\text{Debye}} + E_{\text{Iondon}} (+E_{\text{casimir-Polder}})$$

Orientational

Induction

Dispersion

$$E_{vdw} = -\frac{C_{vdw}}{r^6} = \frac{C_{orient} + C_{induct} + C_{disp}}{r^6}$$

(non-retarded)

with C_{vdW} the C6 parameter of the Lennard-Jones potential

Similar molecules in vacuo

$$C_{orient} = \frac{u^4}{3k_B T (4\pi\varepsilon_0)^2}$$

$$C_{ind} = \frac{2u^2\alpha_{el}}{(4\pi\varepsilon_0)^2}$$

$$C_{disp} = \frac{3\alpha_{el}^{2}h\nu_{IE}}{(4\pi\varepsilon_{0})^{2}}$$

where u and $\alpha_{\rm el}$ are, respectively, the dipole moment (Debye unit) and the electronic polarizability, ϵ_0 the vacuum permittivity, $h\nu_{\rm e}$ the ionization energy and ν_e is the main electronic absorption frequency (UV region), Please note the $(1/'\pi\epsilon_0)$ ratio is the Coulomb constant $k_{\rm e}$.

Israelachvili, J. (2011). Intermolecular & Surface forces, Ch. 4-6, Third Edition, Academic Press, London, p. 71-130.

Parsegian, V. A. (2006). Van der waals forces, Cambridge University Press, New York, p. 77.

Leite, F.L., Bueno, C.C., Da Róz, A.L., Ziemath, E.C. and Oliveira Jr., O.N. (2012). Theoretical models for surface forces and adhesion and their measurement using Atomic Force Microscopy. Int. J. Mol. Sci. 13, 12773-12856.

Mohebifar, M. and Rowley, C. N. (2020). An efficient and accurate model for water with an improved non-bonded potential, J. Chem. Phys. 153, 134105.

Similar Molecules							Total VDW Energy C _{VDW}		<u>.</u>
Interacting Molecules	Electronic Polarizability $\frac{\alpha_0}{4\pi\varepsilon_0} (10^{-30} \text{m}^3)$	Permanent Dipole Moment u (D) ^a	lonization Potential $I = hv_1$ (eV)	$rac{C_{ind}}{\left(4\piarepsilon_0 ight)^2}$	$\frac{C_{\text{orient}}}{u^4} \frac{u^4}{3kT(4\pi\varepsilon_0)^2}$	$\frac{C_{disp}}{3\alpha_0^2 h \nu_l} \frac{3\alpha_0^2 h \nu_l}{4 (4\pi \varepsilon_0)^2}$	Theoretical Eq. (6.17)	From Gas Law Eq. (6.14)	Dispersion Energy Contribution to Total (Theoretical) (%)
Ne-Ne	0.39	0	21.6	0	0	4	4	4	100
CH ₄ —CH ₄	2.60	0	12.6	0	0	102	102	101	100
HCI-HCI	2.63	1.08	12.7	6	11	106	123	157	86
HBr—HBr	3.61	0.78	11.6	4	3	182	189	207	96
HI—HI	5.44	0.38	10.4	2	0.2	370	372	350	99
CH₃Cl–CH₃Cl	4.56	1.87	11.3	32	101	282	415	509	68
NH ₃ -NH ₃	2.26	1.47	10.2	10	38	63	111	162	57
H_2O-H_2O	1.48	1.85	12.6	10	96	33	139	175	24

Dissimilar Molecules	$\frac{u_{1}^{2}\alpha_{02}+u_{2}^{2}\alpha_{01}}{\left(4\pi\varepsilon_{0}\right)^{2}}$	$\frac{u_1^2u_2^2}{3kT(4\pi\varepsilon_0)^2}$	$\frac{3\alpha_{01}\alpha_{02}h\nu_{1}\nu_{2}}{2{(4\pi\epsilon_{0})}^{2}(\nu_{1}+\nu_{2})}$			
Ne-CH ₄	0	0	19	19 ^c	_	100
HCI—HI	7	1	197	205	_	96
H ₂ O-Ne	1	0	11	12	_	92
H ₂ O-CH ₄	9	0	58	67	_	87

 $^{^{}a}1 D = 3.336 \times 10^{-30} Cm$.

Israelachvili, J. (2011). Intermolecular & Surface forces, Ch. 4-6, Third Edition, Academic Press, London, p. 71-130.

Van der Waals Energy Coefficients C (10⁻⁷⁹ J m⁶)

 $^{^{}b}1 \text{ eV} = 1.602 \times 10^{-19} \text{ J}.$

^cThis approximate value may be compared with the ab initio calculation by Fowler et al., (1989) that gives 23×10^{-79} J m⁶.

McLachlan's generalized theory for van der Waals forces

For similar molecules in condensed phase
$$E_{vdw} = C_{v=0} + C_{v>0} = -\left[3k_BT\left(\frac{\varepsilon_1-1}{\varepsilon_1+2}\right)^2 + \frac{\sqrt{3}hv_e}{4}(n_1^2-1)^2\right]\frac{a_1^6}{r^6} - \frac{C8}{r^8}...$$
 Keesom-Debye London

where ε_1 and n_1 are, respectively, the static permittivity of body and refractive index in the visible range, k_B and T are the Boltzman constant and the temperature, respectively, h is the Planck constant, ν_e is the main electronic absorption frequency (UV region), depends on ionization energy, a_1 is the molecule radius and r is the distance between interacting bodies. C8 is the octupole-octupole interaction term. Higher terms may be required. (for similar molecules and r>>a1)

NB: This equation is in theory only applicable with hydrophobic molecules because it does not consider local dipole – dipole interactions (no scaling in R^3). However, using for a_1 rhe molecular radius instead of the hard sphere radius and taking into account anisotropy allow to find reasonable values for TOTAL interaction energy for water.

van der Waals interaction energy (macroscopic theory)

Dzyaloshinskii-Lifshitz-Pitaevskii (DLP) theory

Non retarded and retarded

$$A_{\nu=0} = \frac{3k_b T}{4} \frac{(\varepsilon_1 - \varepsilon_m)(\varepsilon_2 - \varepsilon_m)}{(\varepsilon_1 + \varepsilon_m)(\varepsilon_2 + \varepsilon_m)} = \frac{3k_b T}{4} \frac{(\varepsilon_1 - 1)^2}{(\varepsilon_1 + 1)^2}$$

$$A_{\nu>0}(r) = \frac{3\hbar c}{32\sqrt{2}n_m r} \left(\frac{n_1^2 - n_m^2}{n_1^2 + n_m^2} \frac{n_2^2 - n_m^2}{n_2^2 + n_m^2}\right) \left[\left(2 + \frac{3}{2}\nu_T r\right)e^{-\nu_T r} - (2 + \nu_\infty r)e^{-\nu_\infty r}\right]$$

$$u_T = \frac{4\pi k_b T n_m}{c\hbar} \text{ and } \nu_\infty = 4n_m \frac{\left(n_1^2 + n_m^2\right)^{1/2} \left(n_2^2 + n_m^2\right)^{1/2}}{\left(n_1^2 + n_m^2\right)^{1/2} + \left(n_2^2 + n_m^2\right)^{1/2}} \frac{\nu_e}{c}$$

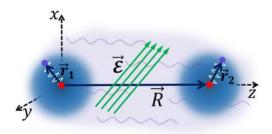
McDowell, L.C. (2019). Surface van der Waals forces in a nutshell. J. Chem. Phys. 150, 081101.

van der Waals interaction potential

$$U_{vdW} = -\frac{A(r)}{12\pi r^2}$$

Takes into account Keesom-Debye

A(r): Hamaker constant



Quantum electrodynamics of van der Waals interactions

Two coupled Quantum Drude Oscillators

Figure 1. Two interacting quantum Drude oscillators under the influence of both the fluctuating vacuum electromagnetic field and an applied uniform static electric field $\mathcal{E} = (\mathcal{E}_x, \mathcal{E}_y, \mathcal{E}_z)$.

$$\Delta \mathcal{U}(R) = -\frac{3\alpha_{1}\alpha_{2}\hbar\omega_{1}\omega_{2}}{2(4\pi\epsilon_{0})^{2}(\omega_{1} + \omega_{2})R^{6}} + \frac{\alpha_{1}\alpha_{2}(\mathcal{E}_{x}^{2} + \mathcal{E}_{y}^{2} - 2\mathcal{E}_{z}^{2})}{4\pi\epsilon_{0}R^{3}} - \frac{\alpha_{1}\alpha_{2}(\alpha_{1} + \alpha_{2})(\mathcal{E}_{x}^{2} + \mathcal{E}_{y}^{2} + 4\mathcal{E}_{z}^{2})}{2(4\pi\epsilon_{0})^{2}R^{6}}$$

 $\Delta \mathcal{U}_{1}^{(4)}(R) = \begin{cases} -\frac{3\alpha_{1}\alpha_{2}\omega_{1}\omega_{2}\hbar}{2(4\pi\epsilon_{0})^{2}(\omega_{1}+\omega_{2})R^{6}} & R \ll c/\omega \\ -\frac{23\hbar c\alpha_{1}\alpha_{2}}{4\pi(4\pi\epsilon_{0})^{2}R^{7}} & R \gg c/\omega \end{cases}$

London

Casimir – Polder (London counterpart for the retarded regime)

When both atoms couple to the vacuum field via their fluctuating dipoles, the treatment of eq 17 as in refs 36 and 37 delivers⁶⁵ the known London and Casimir-Polder dispersion energies

which is the same as the second term of eq 9. Considering the QDO states in $|I\rangle$, this interaction energy corresponds to the situation when both QDOs couple to the vacuum field via their static field-induced dipoles and exchange one virtual photon, indicating the electrostatic nature of this interaction term. Taking into account the R^{-3} scaling, this term corresponds to a field-induced (dipole-dipole) electrostatic interaction.

Keesom

effectively "sees" another one as a static object. Finally, when one of the species couples to the vacuum field via its static dipole moment and the other one by its fluctuating dipole, the resulting interaction energy is

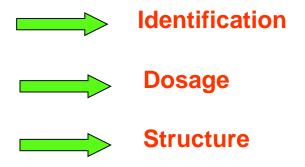
unaffected by retardation. These features allow us to identify the term of eq 19 as the field-induced polarization energy.

Debye

Propriétés du rayonnement électromagnétique :

étude de l'interaction d'une onde avec la matière

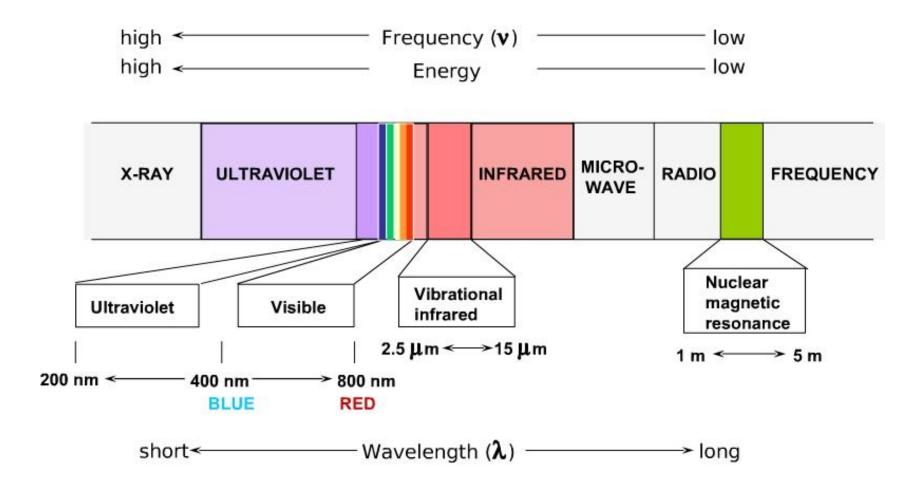
Les méthodes optiques ou spectrométriques regroupent toutes les méthodes relevant des phénomènes d'absorption, d'émission, de diffusion de radiations électomagnétiques par la matière que ce soit d'un point de vue atomique ou moléculaire.



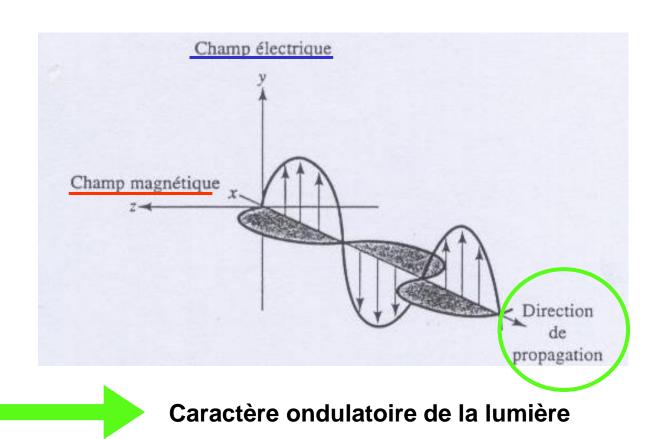
Nature et propriétés des ondes électromagnétiques (lumière)

Un <u>rayonnement électromagnétique</u> est un type d'énergie qui prend de nombreuses formes, les plus facilement reconnaissables étant la **lumière visible** et la **chaleur rayonnante** alors que les rayons g, X, UV, micro-ondes ou ondes radio en sont des manifestations moins évidentes.

Le spectre électromagnétique



Toute radiation lumineuse (lumière) est constituée de deux composantes : un vecteur champ magnétique et un vecteur champ électrique qui sont perpendiculaires et varient de façon sinusoïdale. La vibration lumineuse se propage dans une direction perpendiculaire aux deux vecteurs pour former une onde lumineuse



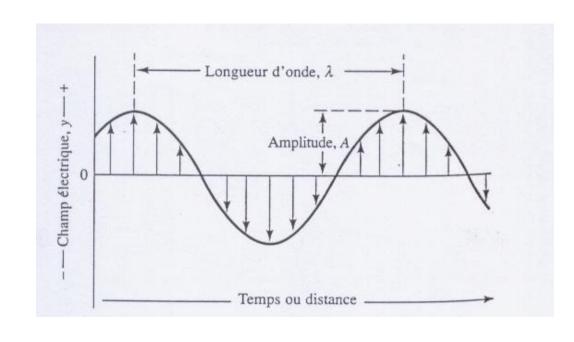
Les paramètres de l'onde

Sa <u>période p</u> : temps qui sépare le passage entre deux maxima ou deux minima successifs. Elle est exprimée en <u>seconde</u>.

Sa fréquence v : nombre d'oscillations du champ par seconde et vaut 1/p. Elle est exprimée en hertz ou s-1. Paramètre fixé par la source lumineuse.

Sa longueur d'onde λi : distance entre deux maxima ou deux minima successifs d'une onde. Elle est exprimée en nm (10⁻⁹ m) ou μm (10⁻⁶ m). L'indice i signale que la longueur d'onde dépend du milieu traversé.

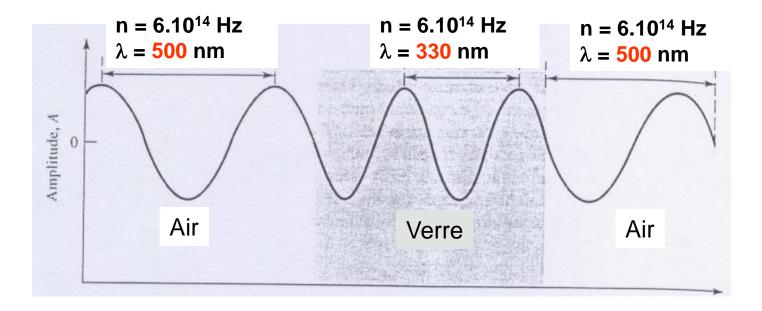
Son nombre d'onde vi.: nombre d'ondes contenues dans l'intervalle de 1 cm et vaut 1/λ. Il est exprimé en cm⁻¹ ou kayzer.



<u>Sa vitesse de propagation</u> (**célérité**) c_i : produit de la fréquence par la longueur d'onde. Elle est exprimée en m.s⁻¹ et dépend comme la longueur d'onde du milieu traversé. Dans le vide, elle vaut 2,998.10⁸ m.s⁻¹. Dans un milieu d'indice de réfraction n, la vitesse du rayonnement est v = c/n.

Air
$$n = 1,0003$$
; eau $n=1,333$; 50% saccharose $n = 1,420$

Dans tout milieu matériel, la propagation est ralentie par les interactions entre le champ électromagnétique du rayonnement et les électrons liés aux atomes ou molécules présentes. Comme la fréquence est constante, la λ diminue



<u>L'énergie d'un photon E</u> (en joules) dépend de la fréquence du rayonnement.

$$E = h.v$$
 (en J)

$$E = h. v = h.c/\lambda = h.c.\overline{v}$$

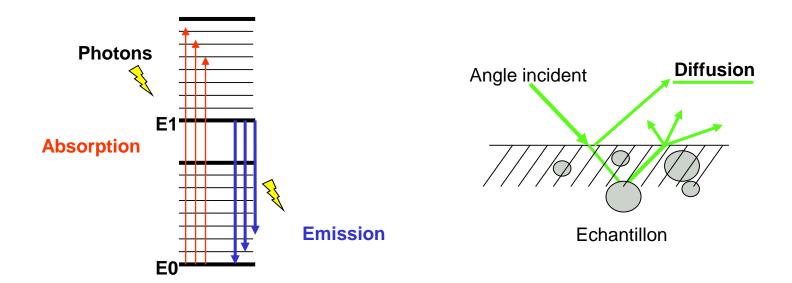
Avec $h = 6,62.10^{-34}$ (constante de Planck), n = fréquence cycle/s ou hertz, c = vitesse rayonnement = 3.10^8 m.s⁻¹

La fréquence ν et le nombre d'onde $\overline{\nu}$ sont tous les deux proportionnels à l'énergie du photon.

$$E = h \cdot v \cdot N$$
 (en J/mol)

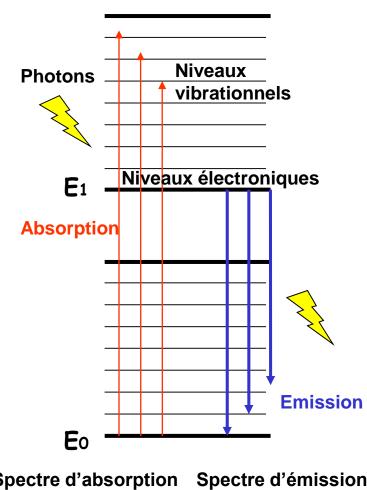
Avec $N = 6.023.10^{23}$ (nombre d'Avogadro)

Le modèle ondulatoire ne peut expliquer les propriétés optiques de la lumière, il faut aussi considérer cette radiation comme une **série discontinue de photons** ou **quanta d'énergie**. C'est le caractère **quantique de la lumière**. Les interactions entre la matière et la lumière correspondent à l'<u>absorption</u> ou l'<u>émission</u> ou encore la <u>diffusion</u> par la matière de l'un de ces quanta d'énergie.



L'absorption correspond à la capture de photons par les électrons des atomes, qui se trouvent ainsi portés à des niveaux excités ; ce qui peut se traduire, notamment, par l'échauffement d'une masse de matière ou par la production d'un courant électrique (effet photoélectrique). UV – VIS – IR

L'émission de lumière correspond à la libération de quanta d'énergie (sous forme de photons) par les électrons des atomes retournant à un niveau énergétique inférieur, après avoir été portés à un niveau supérieur par une action excitatrice fournissant l'énergie nécessaire ; suivant la nature de l'excitation, on observe les divers phénomènes d'incandescence ou de luminescence Fluorescence, phosphorescence.



Spectre d'absorption Spectre d'émission

$$\longrightarrow$$
 λ

Structure de la matière

L'énergie des molécules varie de façon discontinue et on considère qu'elle correspond à la somme de quatre termes

$$E_{totale} = En + Ee + Ev + Er$$

En = énergie nucléaire correspond à l'énergie du noyau constitutif des atomes

Ee = énergie électronique qui concerne les électrons périphériques, puis les électrons des couches internes (divers états énergétiques des différents électrons de valence)

Ev = énergie de vibration qui correspond à une modification des mouvements de vibration des atomes d'une molécule

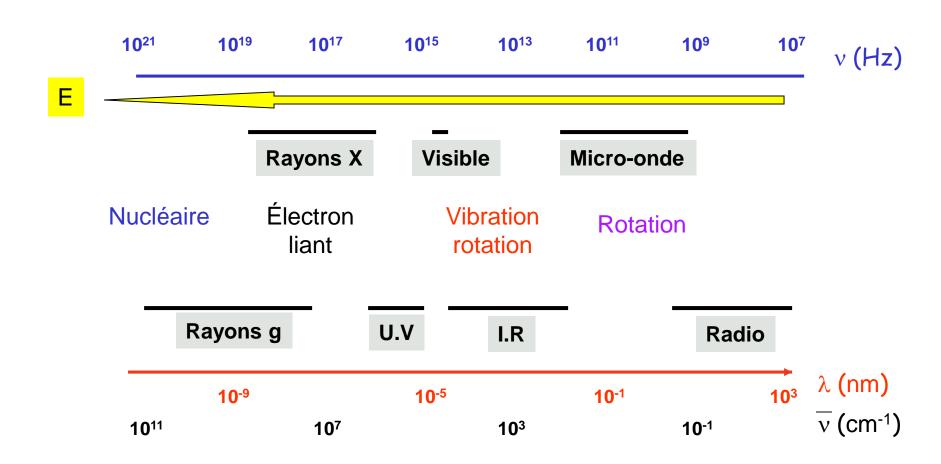
Er = énergie de rotation qui correspond à une modification du mouvement de rotation de la molécule (rotation de la molécule autour de son centre d'inertie)

Pour un environnement énergétique donné, une molécule (ou un atome) occupe le niveau énergétique le plus bas ou de plus faible énergie

= E fondamental

Le spectre électromagnétique

Le spectre électromagnétique couvre un domaine extrêmement étendu de longueur d'onde et de fréquences, et donc d'énergie. Pour chaque région du spectre, une méthode spectroscopique y est associée.

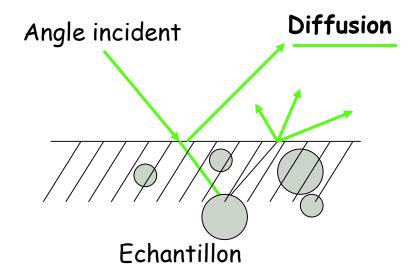


Spectre électromagnétique et type de spectroscopie

Pour chaque région du spectre, une méthode spectroscopique y est associée

Type de spectroscopie	Domaine usuel de longueur d'onde	Domaine usuel de nombre d'onde/cm ⁻¹	Type de transition quantique	
Émission de rayons γ	0,005-1,4 Å	_	nucléaire	
Absorption, émission, fluorescence et diffraction de rayons X	0,1–100 Å	_	électron interne	
Absorption d'ultraviolet lointain	10-180 nm	$1 \times 10^6 \text{ à } 5 \times 10^4$	électrons liants	
Absorption, émission et fluorescence dans l'ultraviolet et le visible	180–780 nm	$5 \times 10^4 \text{ à } 1,3 \times 10^4$	électrons liants	
Absorption d'infrarouge et diffusion Raman	0,78-300 μm	$1.3 \times 10^4 \text{ à } 3.3 \times 10^1$	vibration-rotation de molécules	
Absorption de micro-ondes	0,75-3,75 mm	13-2,7	rotation de molécules	
Résonance paramagnétique électronique [†]	3 cm	0,33	spin électronique dans un champ magnétique	
Résonance magnétique nucléaire‡	0,6–10 m	$2 \times 10^{-2} \text{ a } 1 \times 10^{-3}$	spin nucléaire dans un champ magnétique	
* 1 Å = 10^{-10} m = 10^{-8} cm 1 nm = 10^{-9} m = 10^{-7} cm 1 μ m = 10^{-6} m = 10^{-4} cm	†N.d.tr.: En anglais: Electron Spin Resonance (ESR). ‡N.d.tr.: En anglais: Nuclear Magnetic Resonance (NMR).			

Diffusion de rayonnement (IR, Lumière, Neutrons, R)



Diffusion : changement de direction de la lumière due à des interactions avec la matière

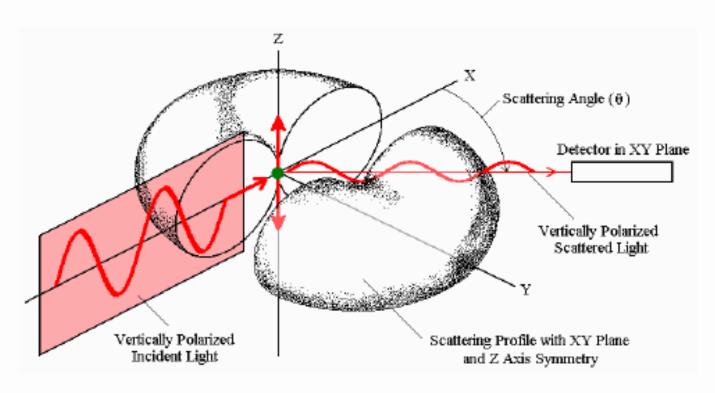
Elle peut se faire avec ou sans transfert d'énergie, avec ou sans changement de λ comparé au rayonnement incident

Méthodes de diffusion du rayonnement

Diffusion de la lumière (Light Scattering)

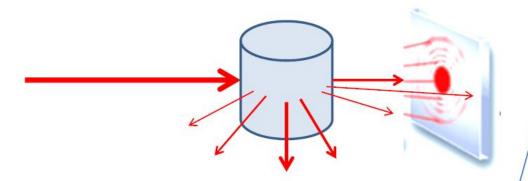
Light - Matter Interactions: Scattering

The incident photon induces an oscillating dipole in the electron cloud. As the dipole changes, energy is radiated or scattered in all directions.



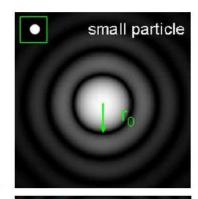
Le principe :

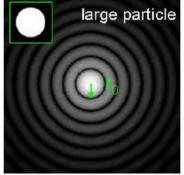
On envoi un faisceau de rayonnement sur un échantillon ...

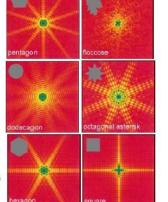


... et on regarde le profil de diffraction

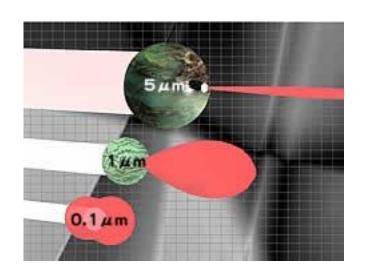
→ pour des échantillons dilués et parfaitement monodisperses, ca ressemble à ca ...

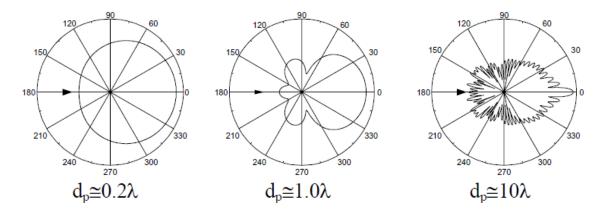




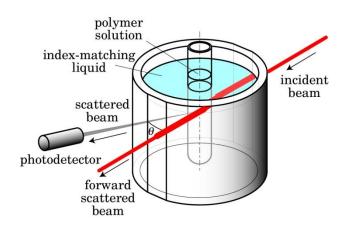


Diffusion angle and particle size

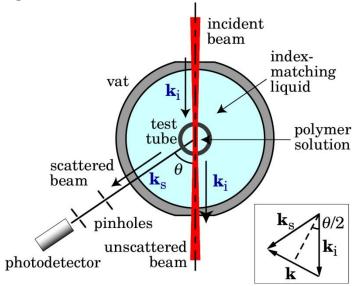




Scattering wavevector



top view



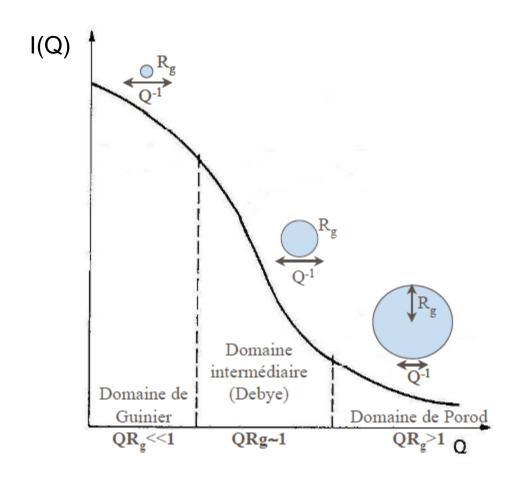
wavevector

$$|\mathbf{k}_{i}| = |\mathbf{k}_{s}| = \frac{2\pi}{\lambda}$$
 (in vacuum)
= $\frac{2\pi}{\lambda/n}$ (in solution)

scattering wavevector

$$k = |\mathbf{k}| = \frac{4\pi n}{\lambda} \sin \frac{\theta}{2}$$

Domaines du vecteur de diffusion (Lois d'échelle)



Solutions studied by light scattering

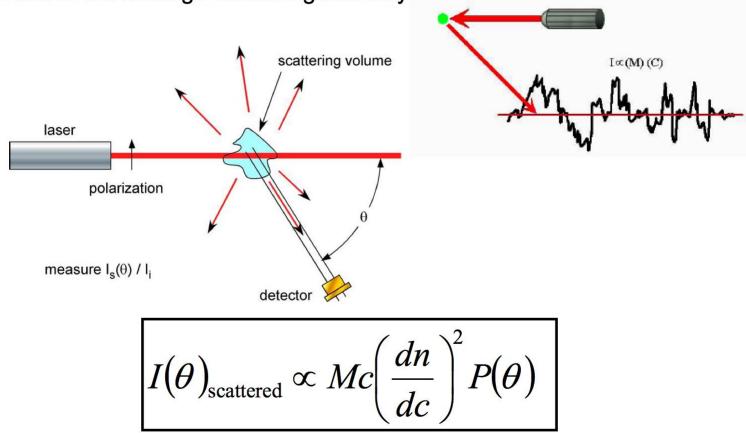
	X-rays	Neutrons	UV/Vis	
λ	~1.5 Å	~1-20 Å	~5000 Å	
Energy	~keV	~meV	~10eV	
Source	Synchrotron 10 ¹² to 10 ¹⁵ ph/cm ² /s	Reactor 10 ⁴ to 10 ⁸ n/cm ² /s	Laser 10 ²² ph/cm ² /s	
k	$2.10^{-4} - 3.10^{-2}$	2.10 ⁻² – 2	1.10 ⁻² – 4.10 ⁻¹	
	Structure	Structure Dynamiques	Structure (SLS) Dynamiques (DLS)	

The scattering signal may be analysed by several methods:

- Average signal strength: static, 'classic'
- ▶ Fluctuations of signal: dynamic, quasi-elastic
- ▶ Shift of the signal: electrophoretic

Static Light Scattering

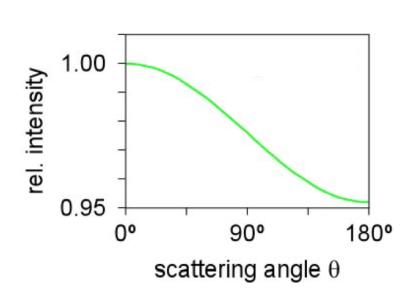
Measurement of the average scattering intensity



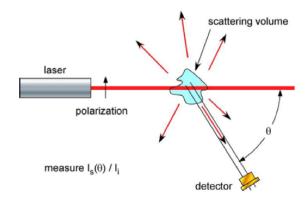
The intensity is a function of the particule's molecular weight, its concentration, shape (form factor) and of the refractive index increment of the solution.

Form factor

In general, the scattered intensity varies with Θ, the angle between the incident beam and the detector.



The form factor, which accounts for this dependence is also a function of the wavelenght and of the dimensions of the particule.



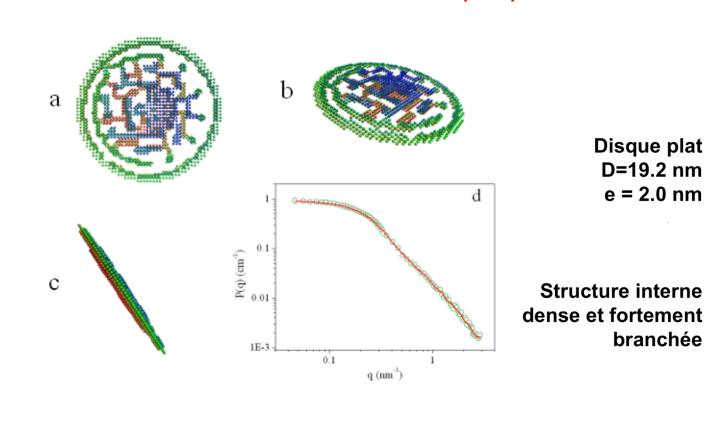
$$I(\theta)_{\text{scattered}} \propto Mc \left(\frac{dn}{dc}\right)^2 P(\theta)$$

$$P(\theta) = 1 - \frac{16\pi^2 n_0^2}{3\lambda_0^2} \sin^2\left(\frac{\theta}{2}\right) \langle r_g^2 \rangle + ...$$

Facteur de forme de protéoglycanes de gomme arabique

Structure de l'AG-peptide

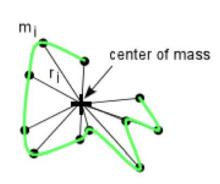
Differentes vues du modèle 3D le plus probable



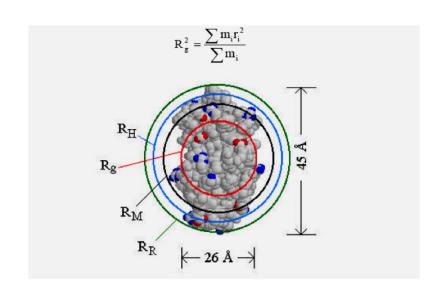
(Sanchez et al. 2008 Biophys. J)

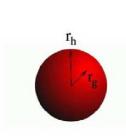
Rayons des particules

Rg est la moyenne des distances de chaque motif par rapport au centre de gravité G de la molécule. Plus la molécule est grande et plus le rayon de giration est élevé. Racine carrée de l'écart quadratique moyen des distances entre les atomes et le centre de gravité de la chaîne

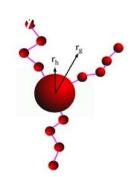


$$\left\langle r_g^2 \right\rangle = \frac{\sum r_i^2 m_i}{M}$$





$$\rho = \frac{r_g}{r_h} = 0.77$$



$$\rho = \frac{r_g}{r_h} = 0.77 \qquad \rho = \frac{r_g}{r_h} \approx 1.4$$

Equation de Rayleigh (Rayleigh-Debye-Zimm formalism)

$$\frac{KC}{R_{\theta}} = \left(\frac{1}{M} + 2A_2C\right) \frac{1}{P_{\theta}}$$

Facteur de Forme

$$K = \frac{2\pi^2}{\lambda_o^4 N_A} (n_o \frac{dn}{dc})^2$$

 λ_o = laser wavelength

N_A = Avogadros number

n_o = Solvent RI

dn/dc = differential RI increment

$$P\theta = 1 + \frac{16\pi^2 n_o^2 R_g^2}{3\lambda_o^2} \sin^2\left(\frac{\theta}{2}\right)$$

R_g = Radius of gyration θ = Measurement angle

Constante

$$R_{\theta} = \frac{I_A n_o^2}{I_T n_T^2} R_T$$

I_A = Intensity of analyte (sample I – solvent I)

n = Solvent RI

I_T = Intensity of standard (toluene)

 n_T = Standard (toluene) RI

R_⊤ = Rayleigh ratio of standard (toluene)

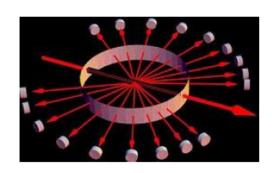
Rapport de Rayleigh

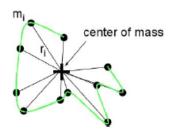
A₂ (mol.mL.g⁻²): 2nd coefficient du viriel (non idealité)

Objects smaller than the wavelength of light

The form factor does not dependent on Θ if $r_g \ll \lambda$ and diffusion is isotropic.

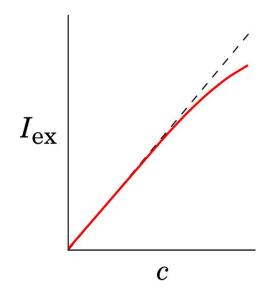
$$P(\theta) = 1 - \frac{16\pi^2 n_0^2}{3\lambda_0^2} \sin^2\left(\frac{\theta}{2}\right) \left\langle r_g^2 \right\rangle + \dots \approx 1$$

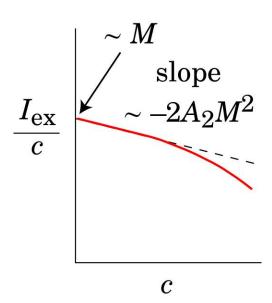


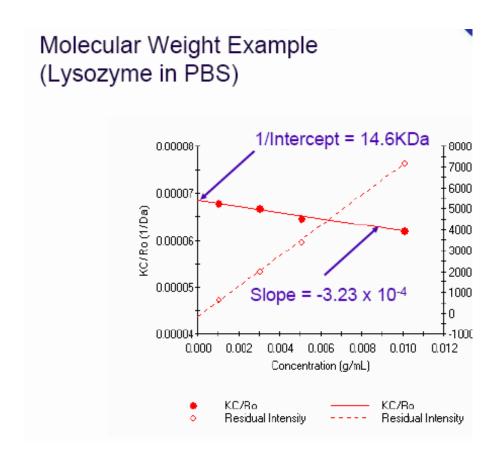


$$\frac{KC}{\Delta R_{\theta}} = \left(\frac{1}{M} + 2A_2C\right)P_{\theta} = \left(\frac{1}{M} + 2A_2C\right)$$

Debye plot

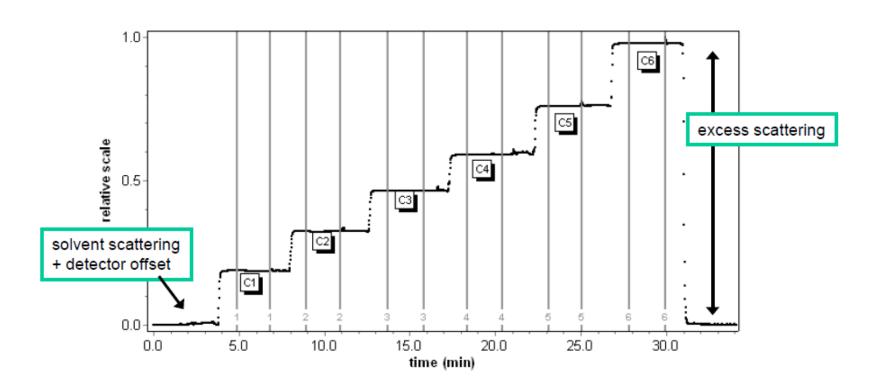






Zimm analysis

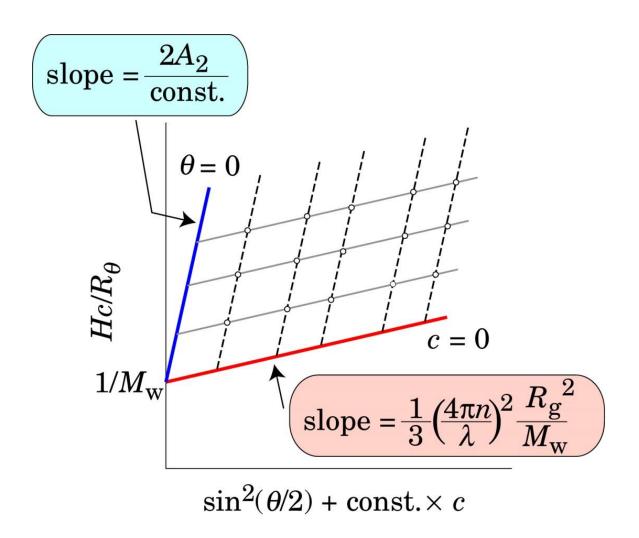
When R_g is large enough



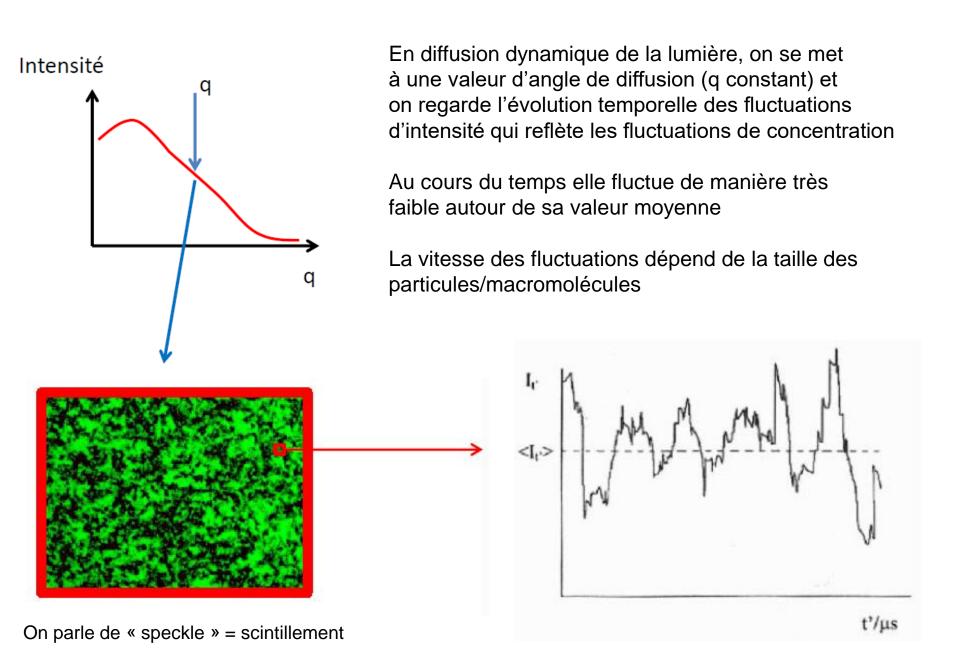
Record Rayleigh ratio varying

- angle (3 or 18 angles)
- concentration (multiple injections of known c).

Perform globat fil of data to light scattering equation to retrieve M, A_2 and R_g



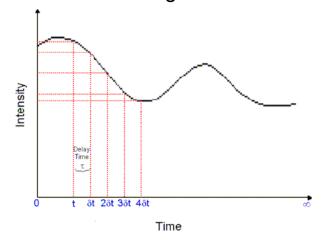
Dynamic light scattering



Notion de corrélation

<u>Corrélateur</u>: comparateur de signal. Conçu pour mesurer le degré de similarité entre deux signaux, ou un signal avec lui-même à différents intervalles de temps.

Si l'intensité d'un signal est comparé avec lui-même à un point particulier à un temps t et un temps δt plus tard, alors pour un signal fluctuant de manière aléatoire (ex: mouvement brownien) il apparait que les deux intensités ne sont pas reliées entre elles, i.e. il n'y a aucune corrélation entre les deux signaux.



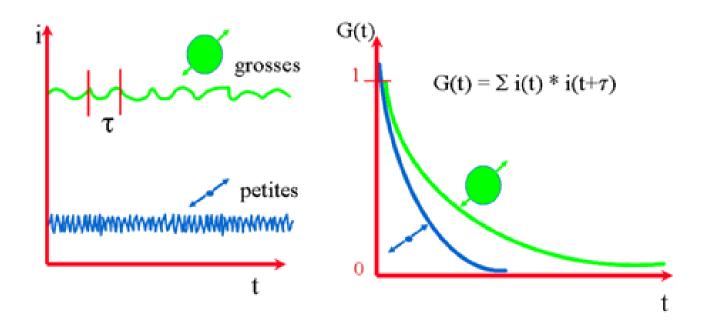
Cependant si l'intensité du signal au temps t est comparé à un temps $(t+\delta t)$ très court, Il y a dans ce cas une forte relation ou corrélation entre les deux signaux. La corrélation diminue aux temps $(t+2\delta t)$, $(t+3\delta t)$, $(t+4\delta t)$, etc.. jusqu'à disparaitre pour des temps longs.

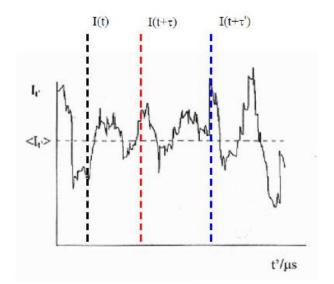
<u>Temps d'échantillonnage</u> (sample time): période de temps δt , de l'ordre de la nanoseconde ou microseconde. Un corrélateur possède une fenêtre de temps comprise entre 1 μs et 10 s (en général)

Fonction d'auto-corrélation (corrélogramme)

Fonction matérialisant la perte de corrélation du signal avec le temps.

Si les particules sont grandes, le signal change lentement et la corrélation persiste Longtemps. Si les particules sont petites et bougent rapidement, la corrélation est réduite plus rapidement.



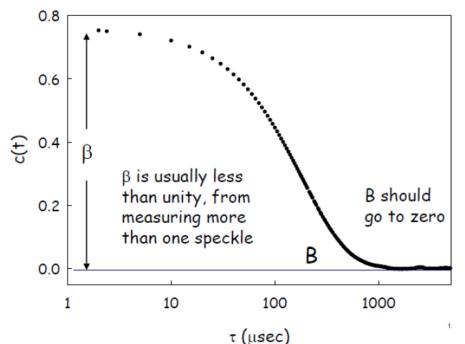


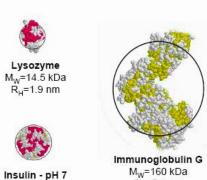
G₂ (τ): Fonction de corrélation d'intensité

$$G_2(\tau) = \frac{1}{T} \int_0^T I(t) I(t+\tau) d\tau$$

$$C(\tau) = \frac{G_2(\tau) - B}{B} = \beta e^{-2\Gamma \tau}$$

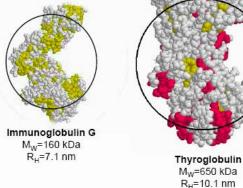
$$D = \frac{\Gamma}{q^2} \qquad \qquad r_{H} = \frac{kT}{6\pi\eta D}$$





Mw=34.2 kDa

 $R_H=2.7 \text{ nm}$



Laser granulometry

Lens -

giving beam

of constant

intensity

Fourier

Lens -

converges

beam

Particles -

suspended in water,

flow through the

sample cell in front

of the laser beam

Detector Array -

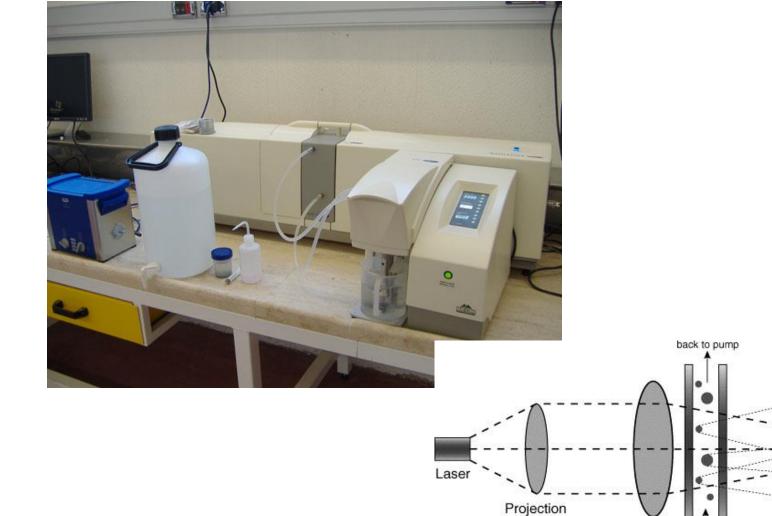
scattering of particles

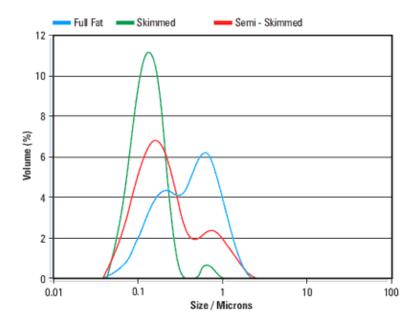
with the same size,

in the same plane of

scattering, is super-

imposed on the detector





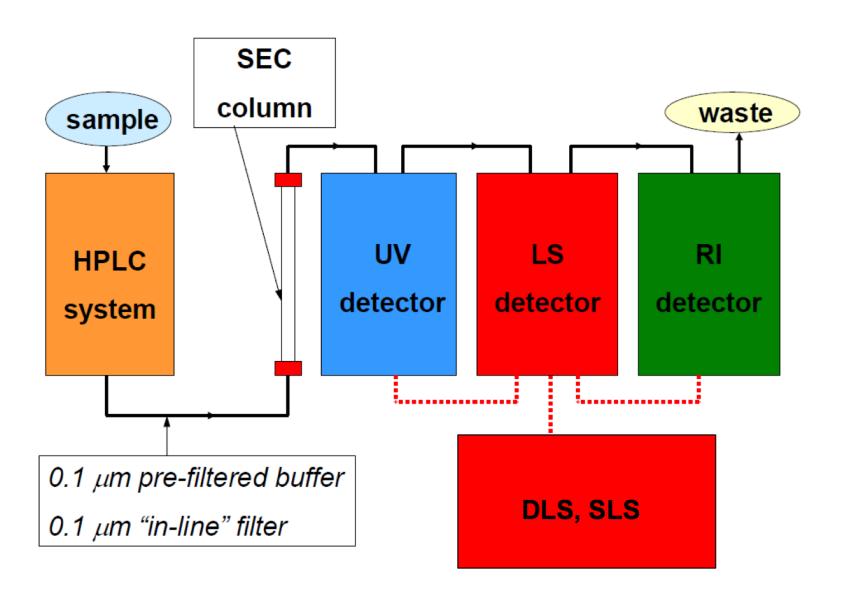
$$D[4,3] = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n} D^{4}_{i}v_{i}}{\sum_{i=1}^{n} D^{3}_{i}v_{i}}$$

$$D[3,2] = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n} D_{i}^{3} v_{i}}{\sum_{i=1}^{n} D_{i}^{2} v_{i}}$$

$$\overline{D}_{pq}^{\;\;(p ext{-}q)} = rac{\sum D_i^p}{\sum D_i^q}$$

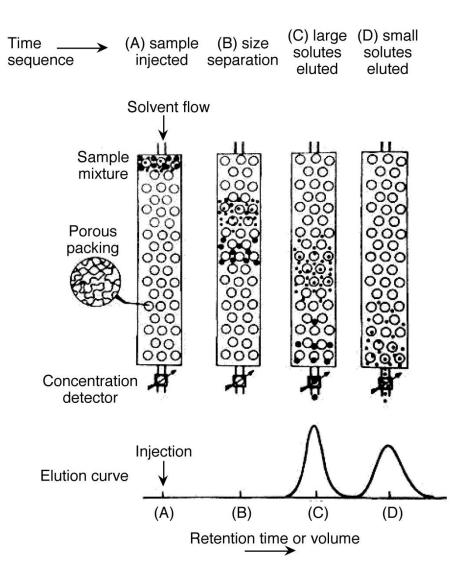
$$Span = \frac{D_{v0.9} - D_{v0.1}}{D_{v0.5}}$$

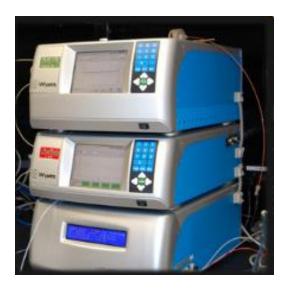
SEC-MALLS



SEC-MALLS

Size Exclusion Chromatography-Principle

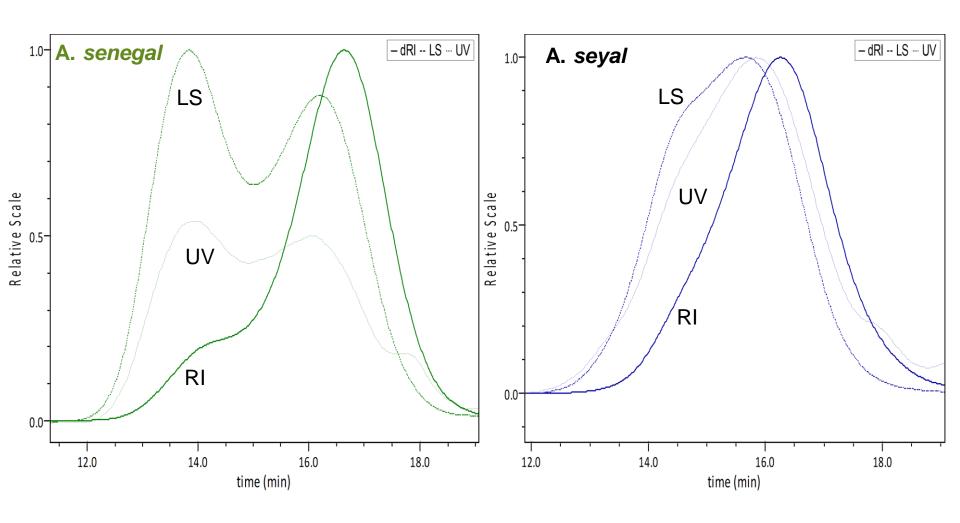




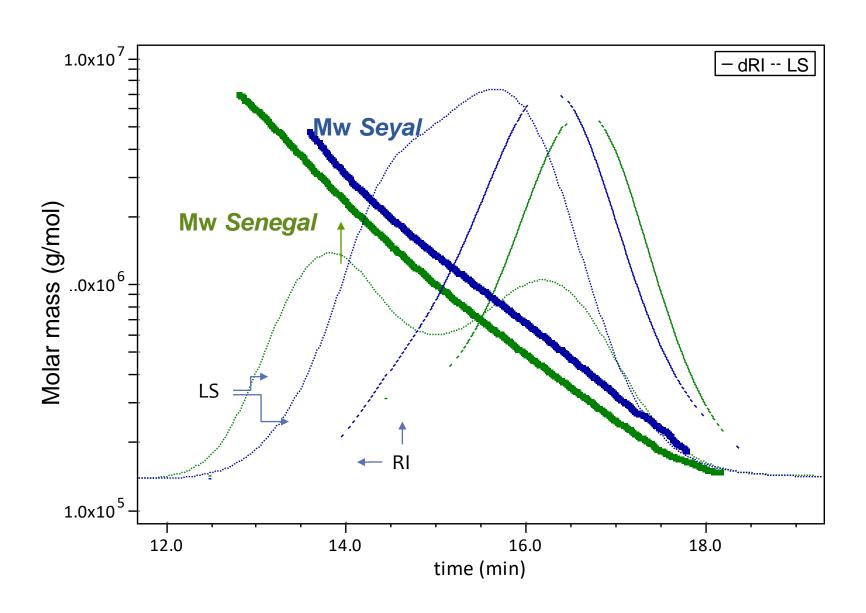
Quadruple détection

- UV
- RI
- Viscosimétrie capillaire
- Diffusion statique de la lumière multi-angles

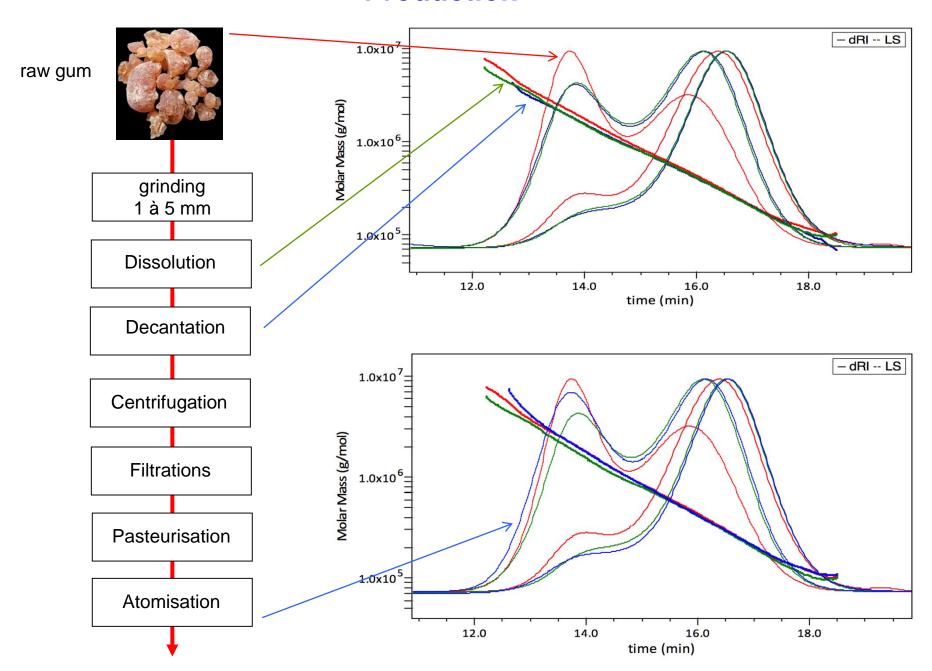
Exemple: Complexité des gommes arabiques



Mw distribution of Acacia gums

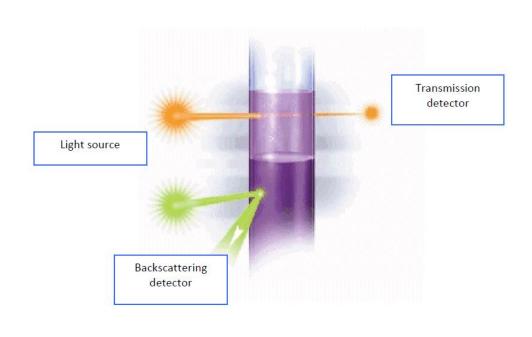


Production



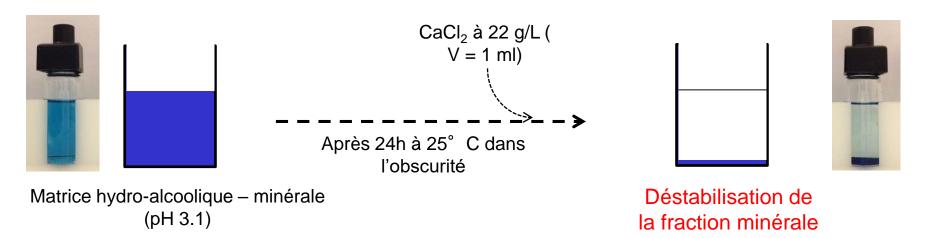
Turbiscan et stabilité des dispersions/suspensions colloïdales





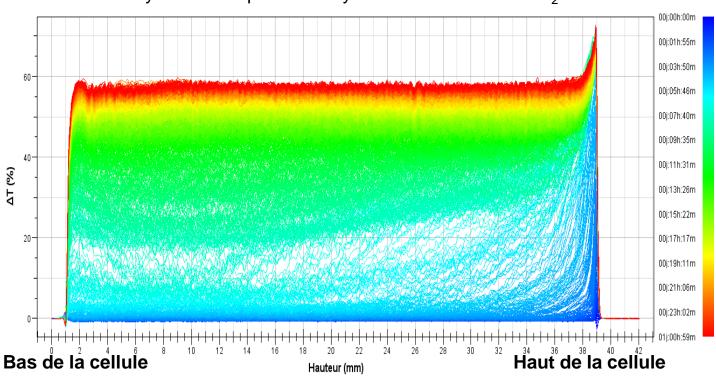
Test d'efficacité de la gomme d'Acacia

Détermination de la dose de gomme arabique nécessaire pour empêcher la floculation d'une solution colloïdale d'hexacyanoferrate(II) de fer(III) en milieu hydro-alcoolique par un sel de calcium



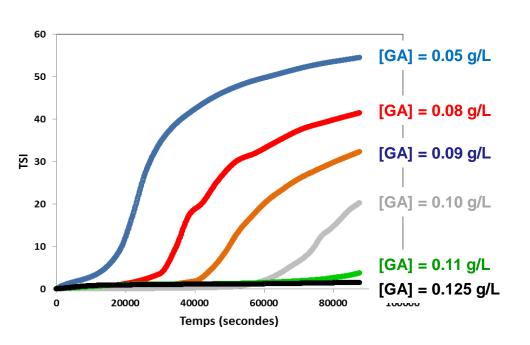
Cinétique de déstabilisation de la fraction minérale

Solution hydro-alcoolique + hexacyanoferrate de fer + CaCl₂

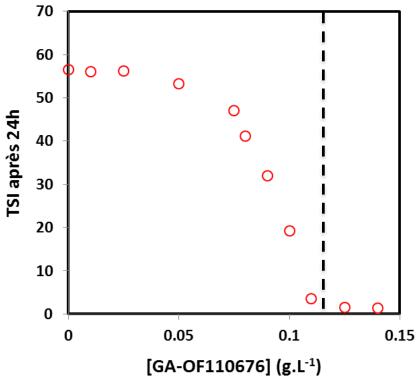


$$TSI = \sum_{i} \frac{\sum h \left| scan_{i}(h) - scan_{i-1}(h) \right|}{H}$$

Déstabilisation de la fraction minérale et concentration en gomme d'Acacia







Structure des fractions macromoléculaires de la gomme d'Acacia

Composition

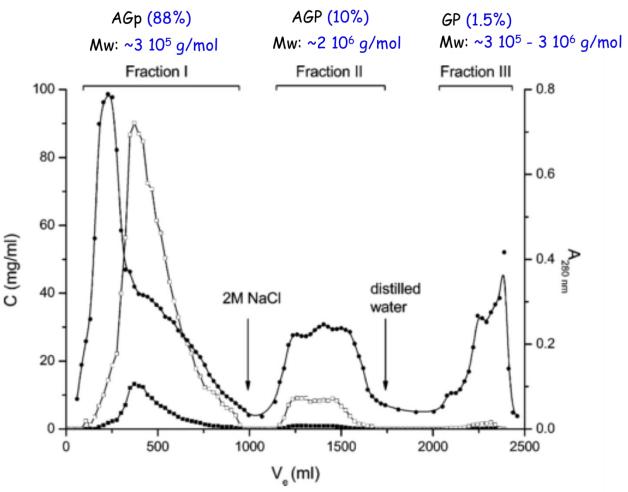
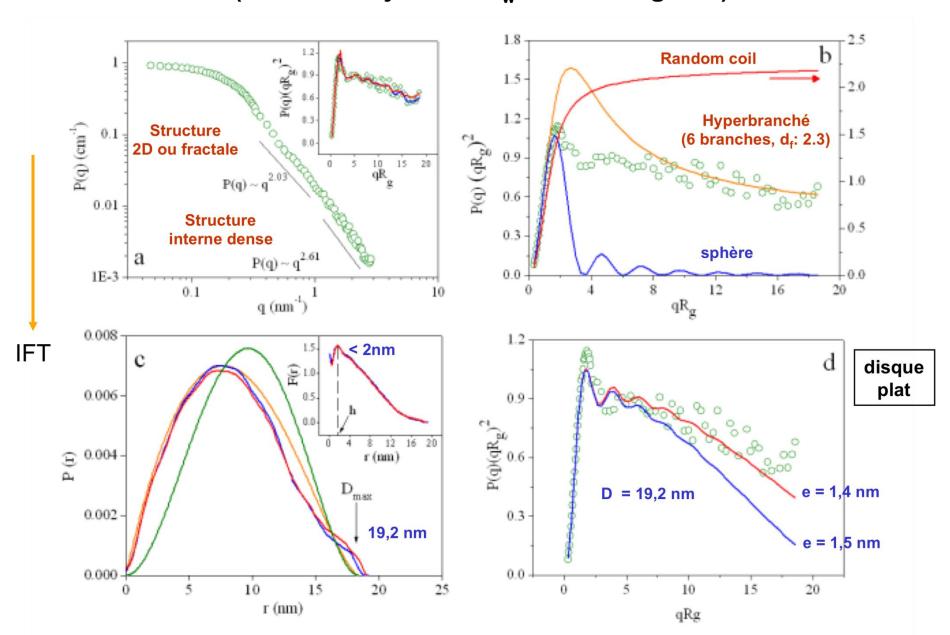


Figure 1. Elution curve of Acaciagum (25 g in 225 mL of 4.2 M NaCl) following fractionation by hydrophobic interaction chromatography on Phenyl-Sepharose CL-4B. Molecular fractions were eluted using 4.2 M NaCl (808 mL), 2 M NaCl (808 mL), and distilled water (1215 mL). Left traces: neutral sugars (□) and uronic acids (■) concentration *C* (mg/mL). Right trace: *A*_{280nm} (●).

(Renard et al., 2006, Biomacromolecules)

Structure 3D de l'arabinogalactan-peptide (fraction majeure – M_w ~ 300 000 g/mol)

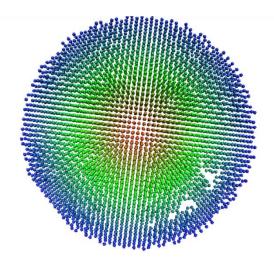


Structure de l'AG-peptide

Différents runs

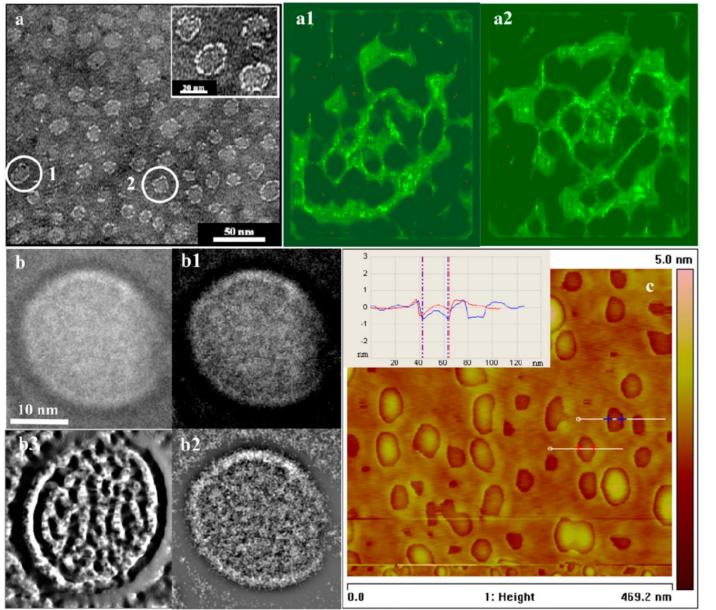


Modèle moyenné



Structure de l'AG-peptide

Comparaison modèle 3D model - microscopie



AFM

e = 1 nm

D = 20 nm

Pas de propriétés viscoélastiques

(Images de phase et Topologiques similaires)

Structure de l'AG-peptide

Comparaison modèle 3D model - microscopie

