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Spectroscopy: Types, Principles and Clinical Uses

lbtihaj H. Ali[1], Huda Oudah Saheb[2], Laith S. Alhiti[3], Ali A. Al-fahham[4]

[1] Ministry of Education, General Directorate for Education in Al- Qadisiyah, Iraq
[2] College of Science, University of Sumer, Iraq
[3] Medical Physics Department, College of Applied Science - Heet, University of Anbar, Iraq,
[4] Faculty of Nursing, University of Kufa, Iraq,

ABSTRACT: Spectroscopic techniques can be classified based on the types of ray, reaction between the material and the energy, the form of material used and the usages for which the assay is utilized. Several types of spectroscopies have been developed, but the most frequently-used spectrometer utilized for biochemical analyses include nuclear magnetic resonance (NMR), Raman spectroscopy, infrared spectroscopy, ultraviolet and visible spectroscopy, and atomic spectroscopy. This review highlights the main types of spectroscopies and their principle of action and other technical issue. Spectroscopic chemical analysis now plays a vital role in pharmaceutical manufacturing. It is used for medication identification and quality assessment, as well as detecting metal elements and compounds present in solid or water materials — not forgetting its significant value in medical diagnostics.

1. INTRODUCTION

Chemical materials can be evaluated in terms of both quality and quantity using different analytical techniques, with spectroscopy taking a lead. Spectroscopy is the study that involves investigating interactions between electromagnetic radiation and matter which can result from electronic excitations due to energy absorption, molecular vibrations as a result of infrared radiation, or changes in the orientation spin of nuclear spin active isotopes after absorbing energy. Chemical analysis through spectroscopic methods has found wide applications including the use of pharmaceutical analysis for identification medication plus determination quality also forensic applications for metallic members and compounds in solid and water samples; medical diagnosis is among other fields that heavily rely on this form of analysis (Chan et al., 2016).

Spectroscopy is the study of how matter interacts with light or electromagnetic radiation. It usually involves using a machine called a spectrometer which measures the different types of light a material absorbs. This helps determine what the material is made up of, as every substance has its own unique spectral signature based on its composition and structure, like a fingerprint (Abushaheen et al., 2020).

Biochemical data derived from spectroscopy typically does not have straightforward medical corollaries. Instead, impedance spectroscopy is employed as an alternative technique to evaluate electrical properties. This involves conducting AC impedance measurements over diverse frequencies and distinct material areas, categorizing them based on their electrical relaxation durations or time constants. It is portrayed as a method that is easy and can be tailored to address a broad array of materials and situations. The latest developments in automated equipment facilitate the performance of comprehensive frequency range sweeps all in one measurement, using this convenient technique (Mourant et al., 2006).

An efficient method, Raman spectroscopy. It unravels the composition of organic and inorganic materials— be it solids or liquids, polymers or vapors, aggregated powders or industrial lab samples. No additional heating or cooling required; just analyze samples at room temperature with the device. It offers various temperature accessories and setups for material study but remember: when performing Raman spectroscopy on large samples, the model's appearance doesn't matter. Just casually expose small powders and polymer films to the beam (Sivaji et al., 2022).

A spectrometer is an instrument that is used in science to measure differences or deviations of different properties of an object within a certain range. The specific characteristic detected varies with the type of spectrometer used. A nuclear magnetic resonance (NMR) spectrometer quantifies alterations in nuclear resonance frequencies, a mass spectrometer analyses disparities in the mass-to-charge ratio, and an optical spectrometer checks fluctuations in electromagnetic radiation. By quantifying these fluctuations, various characteristics of particles can be examined and detected (Pavia, 2001).

Techniques that use spectroscopy can be classified according to the type of radiation that is used, the interaction that occurs between energy and material, the substance that is being studied, and the applications that are being performed using the technique.

Spectroscopy: Types, Principles and Clinical Uses

The most frequently employed spectroscopies for chemical analysis are nuclear magnetic resonance (NMR), Raman spectroscopy, infrared spectroscopy, ultraviolet and visible spectroscopy, and atomic spectroscopy. Additionally, there are numerous other forms of spectroscopies. Absorption, emission, resonance, elastic scattering, and inelastic scattering are all examples of different classification methods that are based on the nature of the interaction between energy and material. The type of spectroscopy is also determined by the type of material, which may include atoms, molecules, nuclei, or crystals (Isabella et al., 2023).

1. ATOMIC SPECTROSCOPY

The initial application of spectroscopy was atomic spectroscopy, which can be further divided into fluorescence spectroscopy, emission, and atomic absorption. Atomic spectroscopy is capable of both identifying and quantifying the composition of a sample due to the fact that different elements possess distinct spectra. There are three basic types of atomic spectroscopy: atomic absorption spectroscopy (also known as AAS), atomic emission spectroscopy (also known as AES), and atomic fluorescence spectroscopy (also known as AFS). Atoms transition to higher energy levels by absorbing ultraviolet or visible light in AAS. This method is frequently employed to identify metals by measuring the quantity of light that ground state atoms absorb in the gaseous state. Excitement in atoms of anti-emission solar cells is initiated by heat. Heat could come from a flame, plasma, arc, or spark; these excited atoms then emit light. The quantity of light is what gives the amount of a given element in a sample: this means that they employ AES techniques — include inductively coupled plasma atomic emission spectroscopy (ICP-AES), spark or arc atomic emission spectroscopy (SAAES), and flame emission spectroscopy (FAAS) (Bings et al., 2010).

The basis of AFS is to excite the analytes by a beam of light. In return, it produces a light emission from the analyte itself. The analysis of the emitted fluorescence can be done using a fluorometer which is commonly used for studying organic substances. AAS plays a dual role in both quantitative and qualitative analysis when checking metallic elements present in biological systems; it also detects metals as impurities in alloys or other mixtures. AAS has found wide application in environmental sample purification (water and soil) where metallic elements can be identified, thus aiding forensic investigations. Metals are also traced using AAS from medication sources that could have been toxic due to metal content— likewise petroleum derivatives, which might have come from areas containing high metal impurities and thereby damaging certain parts of vehicles into which they are used (Zacharioudaki et al., 2022).

2. ULTRAVIOLET AND VISIBLE SPECTROSCOPY

The analysis of compounds' interaction with electromagnetic radiation falls between 10 nm and 700 nm in UV and Vis spectroscopy. Its purpose is to infer chemical characteristics of the substances under study from the color, since numerous atoms are capable of absorbing or emitting visible light. When materials absorb visible or ultraviolet light as part of electromagnetic radiation due to electrons being promoted from low-energy ground states to high-energy excited states, the process primarily includes energy absorption by non-bonding n-electrons and π-electrons localized within molecular orbital regions (Ríos-Reina and Azcarate, 2023)

Each specific quantity of energy is linked with every individual wavelength of light and only light that carries this exact amount can induce transitions between energy levels for absorption. The larger discrepancies in energy levels demand more energy towards transitioning to the higher level, hence absorbing higher frequencies along with shorter wavelength (Kumirska et al., 2010).

By applying Beer-Lambert Law's principles which affirm that absorbance is directly proportional to substance concentration in solution and path length, ultraviolet and visible spectroscopic techniques can be employed for quantifying sample concentrations— facilitating sample analysis. Moreover, the utilization of UV and visible spectroscopy allows for identification of free electrons and double bonds present in a molecule while also enabling determination of sample concentration. In its individual capacity as an analytical method, UV/Vis spectrometer can play dual roles: not only as a standalone analytical technique but also as a detector in high-performance liquid chromatography setups (Oshina & Spigulis, 2021).

3. INFRARED SPECTROSCOPY

Infrared spectroscopy is used to analyze materials based on their behavior in different regions of the infrared spectrum — near-IR, mid-IR, and far-IR. Near-infrared has more energy and can penetrate more deeply than mid-infrared or far-infrared; however, it is less sensitive because of these properties. Infrared waves are less sensitive compared to UV and visible waves due to lower energy levels caused by vibrations in atoms rather than electronic transitions which have higher energies (Zhang et al., 2022).

IR spectroscopy works because molecules vibrate when they absorb IR light — they stretch and bend their bonds. This technique involves passing IR light through a sample; as molecules vibrate, their dipole moment changes because of the motion that has occurred due to absorption. We can detect this transition using IR radiation, which occurs only if the IR frequency matches the vibration frequency of chemical bonds present in the molecule, allowing us to obtain a spectrum (Ozaki, 2021).

Various functional groups exhibit distinct capabilities to absorb infrared radiation at particular frequencies, which are dictated by their unique chemical makeup. Consequently, a vibrational spectrum can accurately identify the specific functional groups in a sample based on these absorbing frequencies. When analyzing infrared (IR) data, analysts match the results with a frequency table to deduce the particular functional groups present in the sample; thus, through this technique, it is possible also to establish the molecular structure that these functional groups compose. (Skvaril et al., 2017).

4. RAMAN SPECTROSCOPY

Raman spectroscopy is similar to IR spectroscopy in that it uses vibrational techniques; however, it utilizes inelastic scattering. The spectrum of RS consists of Rayleigh line as well as Stokes and anti-Stokes lines, which are different from the absorbance lines typically seen in IR spectroscopy. This method probes the molecular vibrations and rotations via chemical bonds in a sample—providing valuable details on molecular structure, composition, and intermolecular interactions. For a transition to exhibit Raman activity, a molecule must change its ability to be polarized during vibration (resulting in displacement of electron cloud) (Ember et al., 2017).

Although Raman scattering signals are typically weak in strength, the technique is able to yield a molecular fingerprint of the chemical composition and structure of the sample under investigation. Sensitivity has been enhanced by approaches based on Raman spectroscopy. The phenomenon takes place as light interacts with molecular vibrations or rotations that result from a change in molecular polarizability along its path through space due to motion; this leads to light being scattered at an optical frequency either higher or lower than that of incident light. By studying the intensity pattern of light scattered inelastically at different frequencies from the incident laser beam, one can obtain specific spectral information related to a tissue sample such as cell morphology and function (Auner et al., 2018).

It is widely recognized because it does not require destruction and can offer detailed information at the molecular level. This method is easy to use because it does not need any preparation of samples, meaning that it can be used for in vivo purposes. The number of vibrational modes is measured by the Raman spectrum and this quantity is later used to deduce what the material consists of. By analyzing the Raman fingerprint, we can distinguish between benign and malignant tissues in many types of cancer: this helps us learn more about them without invasive procedures (Abramczyk et al., 2020).

Analysis of molecular sample compositions without destroying them can be done using Raman spectroscopy. This technique is label-free and non-invasive, using light from a laser beam to distinguish between different cell and tissue types— it shows promise for in vivo diagnostics. The use of Raman spectroscopy could mean less need or no need at all for biopsies: particularly, early disease diagnosis by chemical alterations before visible changes occur morphologically would be valuable information. This method can identify molecular changes associated with cellular differentiation as well as mitosis or apoptosis; hence it's helpful for post-transplant organ assessment and evaluating therapeutic treatment effectiveness (Kumamoto et al., 2028).

5. NUCLEAR MAGNETIC RESONANCE

The use of nuclear magnetic resonance (NMR) spectroscopic techniques relies on the analysis of chemicals through their nuclear spin states. This is an essential method in structural biology because NMR helps in revealing the structures of biological macromolecules. Throughout its history, NMR spectroscopy has been second only to X-ray crystallography as a source for new data added into the Protein Data Bank (PDB). Every nucleus possesses a nuclear spin which serves as a probe for local chemical environments as well as external magnetic fields: these unique resonant frequencies provide information about chemical shifts that arise due to differing electron shielding/deshielding effects within molecules where nuclei are located (Markley, 2018).

The technique plays a critical role in impurities and drug substances, as well as residual solvents in IPC samples which is often used for formulation characterization. Quantitative nuclear magnetic resonance (qNMR) is widely adopted as a standard practice in pharmaceutical industry for product quality assessment where both absolute and relative approaches can be applied to measure specific components of particular interest in process control samples and end products. (Khalil & Kashif, 2023).

When it comes to investigating metabolic processes, tissues can be seen as abnormal and normal: nuclear magnetic resonance spectroscopy is the perfect technique to use. This paper presents a brief overview of nuclear magnetic resonance — a reader-friendly introduction not only for those new to the field but also for those already experienced who might want some refreshing tips on how NMR spectra are obtained. The sources from which fundamental spectroscopic parameters such as chemical shifts, coupling constants, longitudinal and transverse relaxation durations, and line intensities can be found are the focus of this text. It also explores how these factors contribute to the interpretation of spectra. Furthermore, it addresses essential methodological principles of localised spectroscopy and spectroscopic imaging for the examination of tissue metabolism in living organisms (Mlynárik, 2017).

CONCLUSIONS

Techniques for spectroscopy can be categorised according to the sorts of rays, the reaction between the material and the energy, the form of the material that is utilised, and the applications for which the assay is utilised. Nuclear magnetic resonance, Raman spectroscopy, infrared spectroscopy, ultraviolet and visible spectroscopy, and atomic spectroscopy are the types of spectroscopies that are utilised for biochemical tests the most commonly. However, there are several other forms of spectroscopies that have been developed. In the manufacturing of pharmaceutical products, chemical analysis by spectroscopy has become a significant method for identifying the identification and quality of medications, as well as for determining metallic elements and compounds in solids and liquids. Additionally, it is of great significance for the purposes of medical diagnostics.

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