Simultaneous measurement of mass and rotation of trapped absorbing particles in air

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We trap absorbing micro-particles in air by photophoretic forces generated using a single loosely focused Gaussian trapping beam. We measure a component of the radial Brownian motion of a trapped particle cluster and determine the power spectral density, mean squared displacement, and normalized position and velocity autocorrelation functions in order to characterize the photophoretic body force in a quantitative fashion for the first time. The trapped particles also undergo spontaneous rotation due to the action of this force. This is evident from the spectral density that displays clear peaks at the rotation and the particles’ inertial resonance frequencies. We fit the spectral density to the well-known analytical function derived from the Langevin equation, measure the resonance and rotation frequencies and determine values for particle mass that we verify at different trapping laser powers with reasonable accuracy.

Photophoretic forces [1] have provided an alternate route for trapping absorbing mesoscopic particles in air, as these forces, having a thermal origin, are almost four orders of magnitude higher than optical radiation pressure or dipole forces [2], when acting on particles of the same size. Such forces can therefore balance gravity, and recently, extensive use has been made of them to trap [3, 4], controllably manipulate [5, 6], or even rotate [7] particles in air using rather simple experimental configurations and without the use of tight focusing objective lenses typically warranted in optical gradient force trapping. However, there has been very little attempt to quantify the effects of these forces and observe their manifestations in the Brownian motion of trapped particles in comparison to the extensively studied problem of trapping using optical gradient forces.

In this paper, we address this issue, and study the motion of Brownian particles trapped under the influence of photophoretic forces. The particles are absorbing in nature and trapped in a very simple experimental set-up by a single Gaussian beam that is focused by a low magnification microscope objective. As shown in Fig. 1(a), we trap the particles in a vertical configuration, i.e. with the particles falling under gravity (-z direction) while the laser beam travels in the +z direction. In this scenario, the particle is axially in equilibrium when gravity is balanced by the action of the radiation pressure and photophoretic forces, i.e. \( F_{\Delta T} + F_R + F_{\Delta \alpha L} = F_G \), where \( F_G \) is the force due to gravity, \( F_R \) is the radiation pressure force, \( F_{\Delta T} \) is the photophoretic \( \Delta T \) force arising due to difference of temperature on two opposite surfaces of the particle \( (T_{hot} - T_{cold}) \), while \( F_{\Delta \alpha L} \) is the longitudinal component of the photophoretic body force \( F_{\Delta \alpha} \) that is generated due to the variation of the accommodation coefficient \( \alpha \) across the surface of the trapped particle \( (\alpha_1 \text{ and } \alpha_2, \text{ with } \alpha_1 > \alpha_2) \). The direction of this force is from \( \alpha_1 \text{ to } \alpha_2 \) [1]. At atmospheric pressures, \( F_{\Delta \alpha} \) dominates over \( F_{\Delta T} \) [9], and is therefore the dominant force balancing gravity. Due to the action of these competing forces, the particle is not necessarily trapped at the focus of the Gaussian beam, but at an axial distance \( z_0 \) from the beam center where the net force is zero [7, 8]. The radial trapping is solely achieved by the transverse component of the body force \( F_{\Delta \alpha T} \) which is similar to optical gradient forces in our experimental configuration since it is purely restoring in nature, there being no other balancing forces. It is also understandable that since \( F_{\Delta \alpha} \) is a body-fixed force, its direction with respect to the gravity leads to generation of a torque on the particle about the axis of \( F_G \), that leads to rotation of the trapped particle in the transverse direction [10]. In fact, it is this rotation that provides the restoring force as the direction of \( F_{\Delta \alpha} \) reverses from points A to B in the rotation path shown in Fig. 1(b). Evidence of such rotation was recently demonstrated in Ref. [8], where the authors measured the rotation frequency in the time domain using simple detectors. However, other than rotation, the trapped particle also undergoes Brownian motion, which may be difficult to detect in the time domain due to the presence of the strong intensity modulation of the scattered light due to rotation of the particle. To resolve this issue, we use a position-sensitive detection system, and measure the Brownian motion of a trapped particle cluster from the scattered light intensity. This allows us to perform both time and frequency domain analyses to obtain interesting results which include estimates of the mass of the trapped particles.

The experimental schematic is shown in Fig. 1(c). For the experiment, we coat commercial \( SiO_2 \) spheres (Sigma Aldrich, mean diameter between 9-13 \( \mu \text{m} \), density 1100 kg/m\(^3\)) with \( PbS \) by sonicating them in a sulfate salt solution followed by heat exposure in a furnace. A SEM image of the coated beads is shown in Fig. 1(d). The coating is not uniform, but in patches, and for determining mass of the particles, we consider an average thickness of around 100 nm which we determine by the total area covered by coated material compared to the area of the \( SiO_2 \) particles. The trapping laser is a diode laser at 671 nm with maximum power 300 mW which

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we couple into a 10X objective (MO1) using appropriate beam- shaping lenses L1 and L2 (Fig. 1(c)). The trapping chamber (GC) is a rectangular glass cuvette placed on a microscope glass slide affixed above the output pupil of MO1. The coated particles are taken on a glass cover slip that is attached on top of the sample chamber using sticky tape, so that the particles being on the inner surface fall down under gravity as the cover slip is perturbed mechanically. The focus of the objective is about 10 mm from the lower surface of GC. Imaging of trapped particles is performed on a CCD camera by a second 10X objective MO2 in a direction perpendicular to the trapping beam. The scaling of the images is performed by placing a known microscope calibration length standard (graduations at 10 µm intervals) at the focal plane of MO2. Particles are typically trapped about 1 mm above the focal point (Fig. 1(e)) so that the imaging as well as the detected beam is recorded in a computer using Labview. We record the Brownian motion of the trapped particle cluster at laser powers of 50, 100, and 200 mW before MO1. Note that as the laser power is increased, the axial trapping position is modified slightly towards higher values of \( z_0 \) as shown in Fig. 1(a), so that the imaging as well as the detection systems have to be realigned to obtain maximum signal. A trapped Brownian particle under the influence of a linear restoring force obeys a second order Langevin equation given by

\[
\ddot{x} + \Gamma \dot{x} + \Omega^2 x = \Lambda \zeta(t),
\]

where \( \Gamma = \frac{\gamma}{m} \), \( \gamma = 6\pi \eta a \), \( \eta \) being the viscosity of air, \( a \) the radius of a particle assuming it is a sphere, and \( m \) the mass. \( \Omega \) is the natural frequency given by \( \Omega^2 = \frac{k}{m} \),

FIG. 1. (a). Schematic diagram of the forces acting on a trapped particle in our trapping configuration. The accommodation coefficients \( \alpha_1 \) and \( \alpha_2 \) are shown in (b) Demonstration of how the torque induced by \( F_{\Delta \alpha T} \) on the particle causing it to rotate also results in a restoring force in the radial direction. The rotation causes the particle to flip which subsequently flips the direction of \( F_{\Delta \alpha \lambda} \) between points A and B. (c) Schematic of the experiment. M1 and M2: plane mirrors, L1, L2, L3, L4 and L5: plano-convex lenses, MO1 and MO2: 10X objective lenses, EM: Edge mirror, PD1 and PD2: Photodiodes, GC: glass cuvette, C: Camera. (d) SEM image of a single coated silicon oxide sphere, the diameter being around 8 µm. (e) Image of a trapped cluster of spheres using scattering from the laser. (f) Zoomed in image of (e).

FIG. 2. (a) Nature of position probability distribution of \( x \) component of Brownian motion fit to a Gaussian (solid line). (b) Nature of trapping potential determined from (a), fit to \( y = cx^2 \), where \( c \) is a constant. (c) Log-log plot of MSD vs time. (d) \( N\Delta P\Delta C\Delta F \) at a laser power of 200 mW. (e) \( N\Delta V\Delta A \) at a laser power of 50 mW.

FIG. 3. PSD of trapped cluster at trapping powers of (a) 50 mW, (b) 100 mW, (c) 200 mW. Data fit to Eq. 4.
where $\Omega_1 = \sqrt{\Omega^2 - \Gamma^2}$, $x$ and $v$ denote position and velocity, respectively. We determine the $NPACF$ and $NVACF$ for all values of the trapping laser powers used by directly computing the autocorrelations from the Brownian motion data. For representation, we demonstrate the $NPACF$ at 200 mW (Figs. 2(d)), and the $NVACF$ at 50 mW (Figs. 2(e)) laser power. The calculated autocorrelations are each fit to the RHS of Eqs. 2 and 3 for the position and velocity, respectively. We determine the fit parameters $\Omega$ and $\Gamma$ (the errors in the fit values are also shown at the 1$\sigma$ level), from both the autocorrelation functions at all laser powers and the values come within 10% of each other at each power. However, the fits are not particularly good, and this may be due to the fact that the time series data is a convolution of the Brownian motion and the rotation due to the body force, which the fit functions fail to account for. This is why we resort to the frequency domain to obtain clear signatures of the inertia and the rotation, and use these values to calculate the mass of the trapped particle cluster. We do compare the fit values of $\Omega$ and $\Gamma$ obtained by the time domain analysis to those obtained by the frequency domain analysis and observe agreement at the $2-3\sigma$ level, as we show later. We now analyze the data in the frequency domain by determining the PSD of the Brownian motion for the laser powers mentioned earlier. The sampling frequency is 6.5 kHz, and we average 25 individual spectra to generate each final spectrum. These are shown in Figs. 3(a)-(c). The PSD is given by

$$S(\omega) = \beta^2 \frac{2k_BT}{k} \frac{\Omega^2 \Gamma}{(\Omega^2 - \omega^2)^2 + \omega^2 \Gamma^2}. \tag{4}$$

Here, $\beta^2$ is the conversion factor of the detector from voltage to actual displacement. We do not determine $\beta^2$ in the present case since it is not required in the measurements we report. We fit Eq. 4 to the data shown in Figs. 3(a)-(c). Now, the data show clear peaks at the natural frequency and the rotation. The fit function does not fit the rotation peak as expected, and we separately fit Lorentzian functions to determine the centers of the rotation peaks ($\omega_{rot}$). The fit parameters are shown in Table 1. It is clear that as the laser power is increased, the values of $\Omega$, $\Gamma$, and $\omega_{rot}$ increase. However, while $\omega_{rot}$ increases linearly with $3\sigma$, the rates of increase of $\Omega$ and $\Gamma$ are different with $\Omega = \sqrt{\frac{k}{m}}$.

Increasing by a factor of around $\sqrt{2}$ as the laser power is doubled, while the increase in $\Gamma$ is proportional to the value of $\eta$ in air as a function of temperature. The increase in $\Gamma$, and accordingly the viscous damping as the laser power is increased is evident in Fig 3(a)-(c) from the gradual broadening of the resonance peak. From the fit values of $\Gamma$, we determine $m$ by using $m = \frac{\eta}{\Gamma}$, where the values of $\eta$ for calculating $\gamma$ are evaluated from standard tables assuming particular temperature values at different laser powers. We infer the temperature of the
### Table I. Fitted values of the parameters $\Gamma/m$ and $\Omega$ from PSD of the trapped particle at three different trapping laser powers. Values of the coefficient of viscosity ($\eta$) are taken from standard tables with the corresponding air-temperature values considered for each laser power given in parenthesis. $m_{fit}$ and $k$ are calculated in each case.

| Radius of particle ($a$) | Density $\rho$ (kg/m$^3$) | Mass $m_D$ (kg) | Laser power (mW) | Fitted $\Gamma = \frac{\gamma}{m}$ from PSD | Fitted $\Omega$ from PSD | Mass from fit($m_{fit}$) (kg) | Average $m_{fit}$ (kg) | Calculated $k$ (N/m) |
|--------------------------|-----------------------------|-----------------|------------------|------------------------------------------|-------------------------|----------------------------|---------------------|----------------------|
| 26                       | 1300                        | 9.55e-11        | 50               | 88(2)                                    | 112(2)                  | 1.09(2)e-10                | 9.68(1.24)e-11      | 1.37(6)e-6           |
|                          |                             |                 | 100              | 112(2)                                   | 160(1)                  | 9.72(18)e-11               | 9.68(1.24)e-11      | 2.49(11)e-6          |
|                          |                             |                 | 200              | 150(2)                                   | 239(3)                  | 8.42(12)e-11               | 9.68(1.24)e-11      | 4.81(17)e-6          |

.. air in the following manner: we calculate the mass $(m_D)$ of the particle cluster from the measured diameter and the density which we estimate to be 1300 kg/m$^3$ from the average thickness of the PbS coating (100 nm) and its density (7600 kg/m$^3$) compared to the average diameter and density of the SiO$_2$ particles. For the lowest laser power of 50 mW measured near MO1, we consult the viscosity tables and select that value of viscosity using which the value of mass $(m_{fit})$ from the fit value of $\Gamma$ is reasonably close to $m_D$. This occurs at around 325K, which implies that the laser heating of the particle has led to an increase of the air temperature in its vicinity by around 25K from room temperature, which is not very unreasonable. With this value of $\eta$, $m_{fit} = 1.09(2)e-11$ kg - the 1$\sigma$ error in parenthesis being due to the error in the fit for $\Gamma$. This is within 15% of $m_D$. For consistency check, we use the two other laser power values (100 and 200 mW), and assuming a linear dependence of air temperature increase with laser power, we find (Table 1) that the values of $m_{fit}$ are within 10% of $m_D$. Note here, that even if we assume a constant value of $\eta$ for the different laser power values, the value of $m_{fit}$ differs only by 33% from $m_D$, which implies that our error estimates are not unreasonable. The average value of $m_{fit}$ is $9.68 \pm 1.24 \; e-11$ which is indeed very close to $m_D$, albeit with a 1$\sigma$ error of around 15%. We now calculate the stiffness $k$ at the different laser powers and observe from Table 1 that as expected, it increases linearly within the 1$\sigma$ error values. In addition, the amplitude of the power spectra, $A = \beta^2 \frac{2kBT}{k}$, decreases linearly as $k$ increases, which again acts as a consistency check to the data. Finally, we observe that the values of $\Gamma$ and $\Omega$ obtained from the $N PACF$ and $NVACF$ shown in Fig. 2(d) and (e) agree with that from the PSD at the same laser powers at the $2 - 3\sigma$ level.

In conclusion, we develop a very simple optical trapping set-up for confining absorbing particles in air with a single loosely focused Gaussian laser beam. We characterize the radial component of the photophoretic body force $F_{\Delta\alpha T}$ and show its equivalence to the optical intensity gradient force commonly used in optical tweezers. For this, we detect the radial $(x)$ Brownian motion and analyse it both in the time and frequency domain. The latter seems the most reliable technique to study the motion of trapped particles, as it clearly separates out the inertial resonance from the rotation induced by $F_{\Delta\alpha T}$. We find out the changes in both frequencies due to increase in laser power, and are also able to extract an estimate of the particle mass with around 15% accuracy by fitting the power spectral density to the analytical expression derived from the Langevin equation - a procedure we intend to improve in the future by employing Bayesian statistics. Ours is the first direct characterization of particle motion induced by photophoretic forces using a very simple experimental set-up, and may set the path for more precise experiments that could help develop crucial understanding about photophoretic forces that have deep connotations in diverse natural phenomena ranging from planet formation [13] to stratification in the atmosphere [10].

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