

Conf-940556--:

LA-UR- 94-1859
Title:

Resonant Laser Ablation: Mechanisms & Applications

Author(s):

J. E. Anderson
R. Bodla
G. C. Eiden
N. S. Nogar
C. H. Smith

Submitted to:

Proceedings of the 2nd Nier Symposium, May 9-12,
1994, Durango, Colo 81301

DISCLAIMER

This report was prepared as an account of work sponsored by an agency of the United States Government. Neither the United States Government nor any agency thereof, nor any of their employees, makes any warranty, express or implied, or assumes any legal liability or responsibility for the accuracy, completeness, or usefulness of any information, apparatus, product, or process disclosed, or represents that its use would not infringe privately owned rights. Reference herein to any specific commercial product, process, or service by trade name, trademark, manufacturer, or otherwise does not necessarily constitute or imply its endorsement, recommendation, or favoring by the United States Government or any agency thereof. The views and opinions of authors expressed herein do not necessarily state or reflect those of the United States Government or any agency thereof.

Los Alamos
NATIONAL LABORATORY



Los Alamos National Laboratory, an affirmative action/equal opportunity employer, is operated by the University of California for the US Department of Energy under contract W-7405-ENG-36. By acceptance of this article, the publisher recognizes that the US Government retains a nonexclusive, royalty-free license to publish or reproduce the published form of this contribution, or to allow others to do so, for US Government purposes. The Los Alamos National Laboratory requests that the publisher identify this article as work performed under the auspices of the US Department of Energy.

MASTER

Form No. 536 R5
BT 2829 10/91

Resonant Laser Ablation: Mechanisms & Applications

J. E. Anderson, R. Bodla, G. C. Eiden, N. S. Nogar and C. H. Smith
Chemical Science and Technology Division, MS J565
Los Alamos National Laboratory
Los Alamos, New Mexico 87545

Introduction

Ever since the first report of laser action, it has been recognized that laser ablation (evaporation/volatilization) may provide a useful sampling mechanism for chemical analysis.^{1, 2} In particular, laser ablation is rapidly gaining popularity as a method of sample introduction for mass spectrometry.³⁻⁵ While most laser ablation/mass spectrometry has been performed with fixed frequency lasers operating at relatively high intensities/fluences ($\geq 10^8$ W/cm², ≥ 1 J/cm²), there has been some recent interest in the use of tunable lasers to enhance the ionization yield of selected components in an analytical sample. This process has been termed resonant laser ablation (RLA),⁶⁻¹² and typically relies on irradiation of a sample in a mass spectrometer with modest intensity laser pulses tuned to a one- or two-photon resonant transition in the analyte of interest. Potential advantages of RLA include: 1) simplification of the mass spectrum, by enhancement of signal from the analyte of interest; 2) improvement of the absolute detection limits by improving the ionization efficiency, and 3) improvement in relative sensitivity. The sensitivity enhancement results from reduction of spurious signal, and accompanying noise, in the detection channel. This spurious signal may be due to bleed through from adjacent mass channels, or from isobaric interferences. RLA tends to produce higher mass resolution because of minimal spatial spread in the ion source and small space charge effects. In this manuscript we present a survey of RLA attributes and applications.

Results and Discussion

Analysis

Much of the apparatus has been described previously.^{13, 14} The optical source consisted of an XeCl excimer laser-pumped dye laser. For most of the experiments described here, the output energy was a few mJ in the blue spectral region (≈ 450 nm), in ≈ 10 nsec pulses, at a repetition rate of 10 Hz to 50 Hz. The dye laser beam was split and attenuated prior to striking the sample, so that typical incident pulse energies were ≈ 10 -100 μ J. The ion detector was a channel electron multiplier whose output was amplified, sent to a boxcar averager or digital oscilloscope, and then transferred to a microcomputer. The beam was focused by a 20 cm lens and incident on the surface at an angle of 11° , producing a stripe on the surface that was 0.34 mm by 1.8 mm (0.006 cm²), measured at the $1/e$ intensity points of the beam.

Figure 1 shows typical mass spectra obtained from a high purity rhenium sample. Each spectrum corresponds to irradiation of the surface at a different wavelength, corresponding to a "2+1" (photons to resonance + photons to ionize) ionization process for the labeled element: iron, aluminum, copper or chromium. Several features are worth noting. First, signal was obtained with low pulse energies, typically 20 μ J (corresponding to a fluence ≈ 10 mJ/cm², or an intensity $< 10^6$ W/cm²). The observation of trace components at very low laser intensities is a significant virtue of this process; this sensitivity is due both to the resonant nature of the ionization process, and to the excellent overlap of the vaporized sample with the ionizing laser beam, as discussed below. Second, virtually no signal due to the bulk material (Re) was observed. In more careful

experiments, we have demonstrated selectivity, δ , in ionization of the target analyte vs. the bulk material of $\delta \geq 10^5:1$. In spite of this, a persistent signal due to sodium and potassium was observed in all of these spectra. These are impurities present in the sample and their presence was perhaps enhanced by excessive manual manipulation. These components are presumably observed because of their high volatility, low ionization potential and presence on the surface as ionic compounds. They are thus easily vaporized, and ionized, by low-order non-resonant multiphoton processes. In addition, we generally observed that the initial pulses of any irradiation sequence produced more signal than subsequent pulses,¹⁵ even though the thermal pulse should decay completely of the time scale of the interpulse interval.

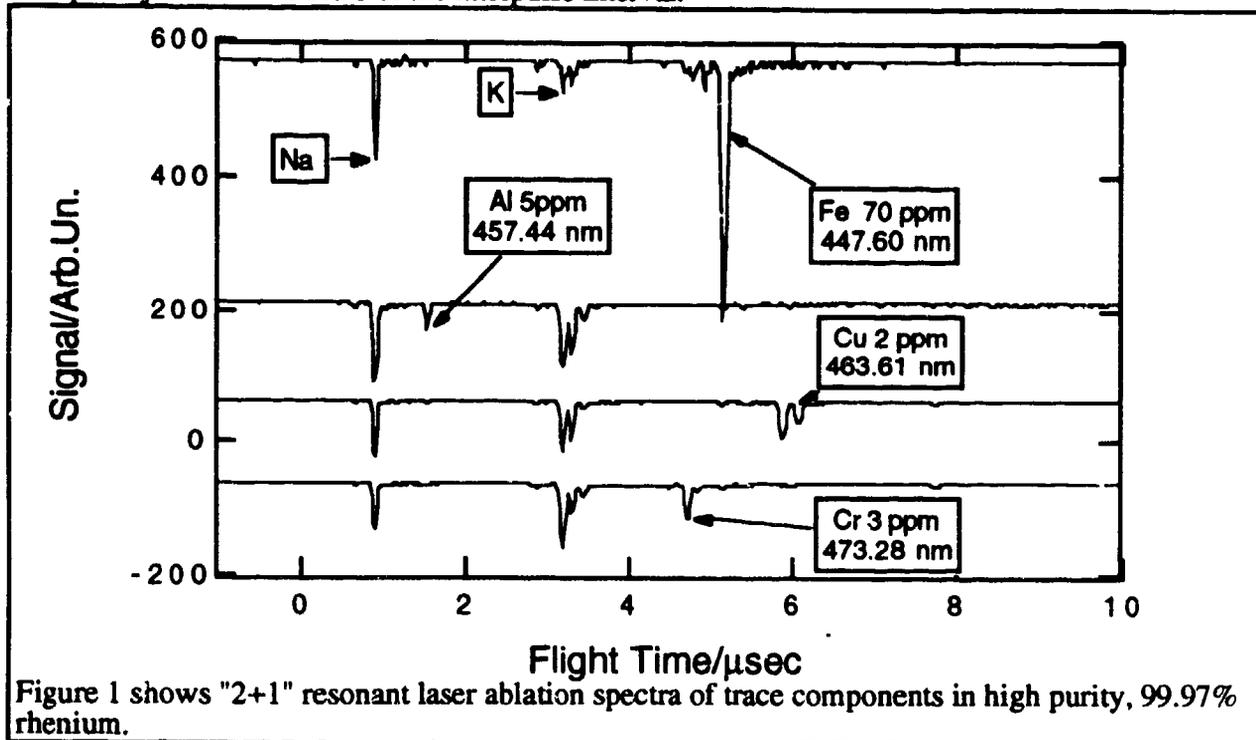
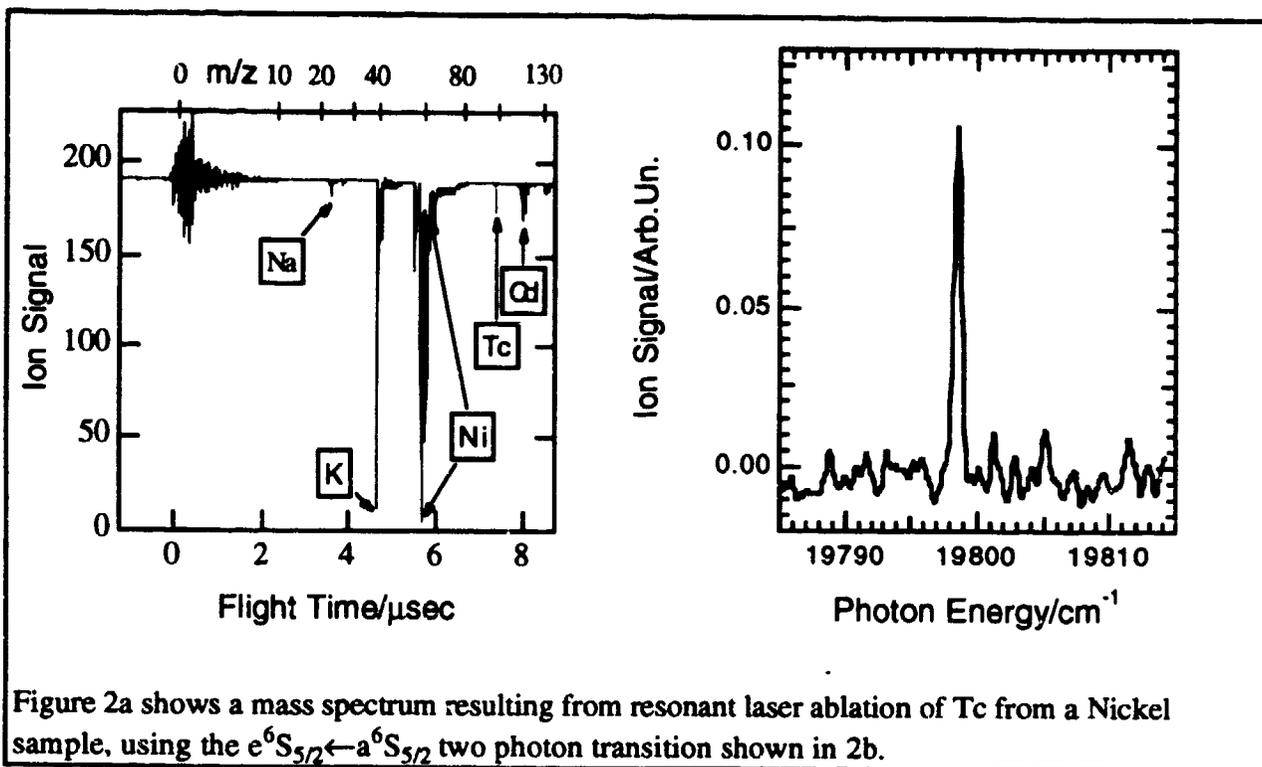


Figure 1 shows "2+1" resonant laser ablation spectra of trace components in high purity, 99.97% rhenium.

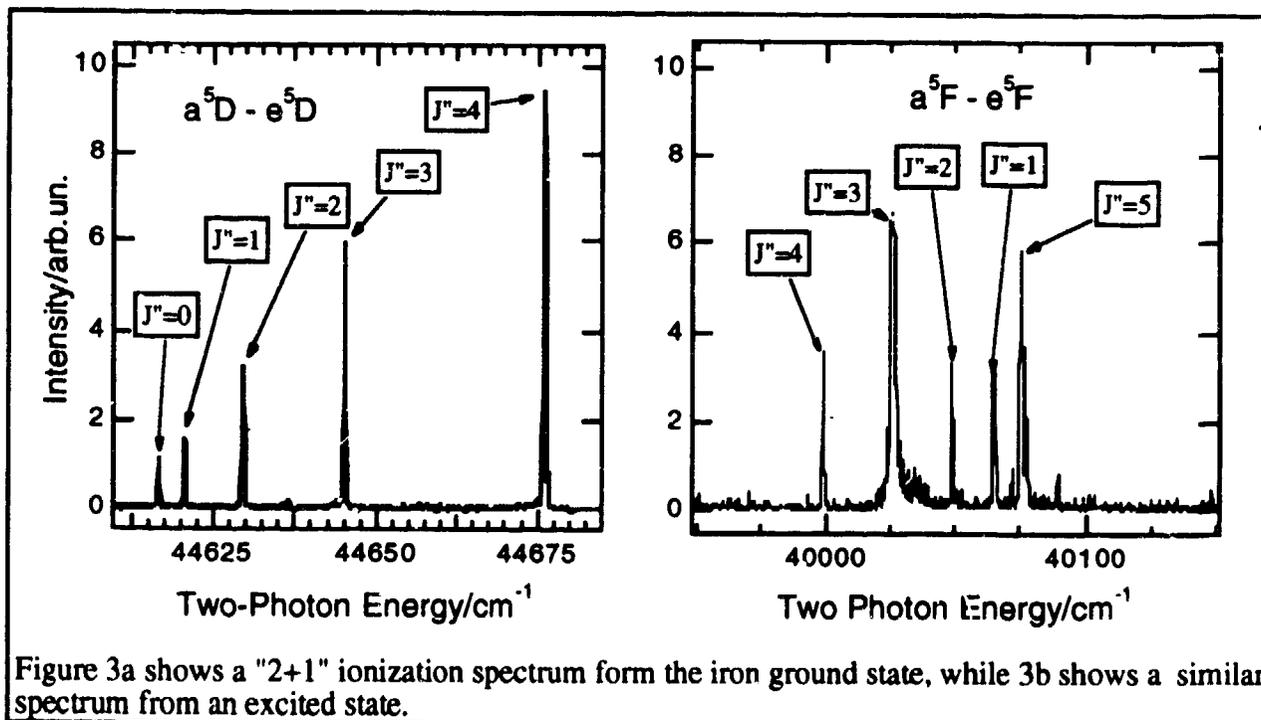
Several generalizations concerning quantitation can also be made. The results shown above were found to be semiquantitative. All mass spectral traces in Figure 1 were normalized so that the areas corresponding to the sodium signals were equal. Under this constraint, the signals can be seen to scale monotonically with the concentration of the minority species, as was noted previously.⁶ In addition, at the low fluences used in these experiments, removal rates were very small; in separate experiments, we estimated ≤ 0.01 monolayer per shot is removed from the sample. This provides the potential for depth profiling of layered or inhomogeneous samples using resonant laser ablation.

The potential of RLA for trace detection is shown in Figure 2a, which depicts a mass spectrum obtained from a nickel sample containing low levels (\leq ppb) of technetium. Technetium is an unstable element that does not occur in nature, and is difficult to detect by radiochemical means because of its low specific activity. In our analyses, the laser was tuned to a "2+1" resonant ionization transition for technetium; the optical spectrum is displayed in Figure 2b. While Fig. 2a clearly shows significant non-resonant ionization occurring, it should be noted that the nickel sample had a very rough morphology (the surface appeared black) and the Tc concentration was ≤ 1 ppb, illustrating the benefits of significant discrimination for the detection of extremely low levels of analytes.



Spectroscopy

We also show the utility of RLA for spectroscopy and surface studies. This work demonstrates the ease with which high quality atomic spectra can be obtained using RLA. Fig. 3 shows the 2+1 multiphoton ionization spectrum of ^{56}Fe detected by RLA of Re containing 70 ppm Fe.



We observe the two-photon $\Delta J=0$ transitions from the a^3D ground term to the e^5D excited term near 44640 cm^{-1} ; also observed is the $e^5F \leftarrow a^5F$ two-photon transition from the first excited term near $\sim 1\text{ eV}$. Each of these multiplets spans a wavelength range of $<1\text{ nm}$, yielding essentially constant dye laser power across the multiplet. The $J'=3 \leftarrow J''=3$ and $J'=5 \leftarrow J''=5$ transitions are much stronger than the other lines in the excited state multiplet due to near resonances with the z^5F^0 term (detunings of 182 cm^{-1} and 92 cm^{-1} , respectively).

Temperatures can be obtained from these spectra by comparing calculated intensities for a particular temperature with experimental intensities. The agreement between the experiment and calculation is surprisingly good. A fit of the experimental intensities to the calculated intensities yielded a straight line ($r^2=0.96$ to 0.99 for three data sets) for the four lowest lying spin-orbit states in Fe. The observed intensity of the $J''=0 \rightarrow J'=0$ transition is an order of magnitude larger than calculated, possibly due to quantum interferences. We obtain a temperature of $1100 \pm 200\text{ K}$ for Fe atoms ablated from Re at an intensity of $2 \pm 1 \times 10^6\text{ W/cm}^2$. This is in rough agreement with a recent measurement¹⁶ of the temperature of a laser desorbed plume several mm above the surface.

Conclusions.

We have shown that RLA is ideally suited for high sensitivity analyses of complex samples. It requires very modest performance from both laser and mass spectrometer, and is suited for detection of a wide variety of elements. We have also demonstrated that the 2+1 ionization transitions of Fe detected by RLA. Two-photon transition rates for Fe transitions were calculated perturbatively and found to agree semi-quantitatively with experimentally observed intensities.

References

1. L. Moenke-Blankenburg, *Laser Microanalysis*, Eds., John Wiley & Sons, New York, (1989) Pages
2. L. J. Radziemski, D. A. Cremers, *Laser-Induced Plasma and Applications*, Eds., Marcel Dekker, New York, (1989) Pages
3. G. Toelg, *Analyst* (London), **112**, 365 (1987).
4. U. Boesl, *J. Phys. Chem.*, **95**, 2949 (1991).
5. G. C. Eiden, M. E. Cisper, M. L. Alexander, P. H. Hemberger, N. S. Nogar, *J. Am. Soc. Mass Spec.*, **4**, 706 (1993).
6. I. S. Borthwick, K. W. D. Ledingham, R. P. Singhal, *Spectrochim. Acta*, **47B**, 1259 (1992).
7. G. Krier, F. Verdun, J. F. Muller, *Fresenius' Z. Anal. Chem.*, **322**, 379 (1985).
8. K. W. D. Ledingham, J. S. Borthwick, R. P. Singhal, *Surf. Interface Anal*, **18**, 576 (1992).
9. C. J. McLean, et al., *Int. J. Mass Spectrom. Ion Process*, **96**, R1 (1990).
10. F. R. Verdun, G. Krier, J. F. Muller, *Anal. Chem.*, **59**, 1383 (1987).
11. G. C. Eiden, J. E. Anderson, N. S. Nogar, *Microchemical Journal*, **in press**, (1994).
12. G. C. Eiden, N. S. Nogar, *Chem. Phys. Lett.*, **submitted**, (1994).
13. S. W. Downey, N. S. Nogar, C. M. Miller, *Int. J. Mass Spectrom. Ion Processes*, **61**, 337 (1984).
14. N. S. Nogar, R. C. Estler, B. L. Fearey, C. M. Miller, S. W. Downey, *Nucl. Instrum. Methods Phys. Res., Sect. B*, **44**, 459 (1990).
15. X. L. Mao, W. T. Chan, M. A. Shannon, R. E. Russo, *J. Appl. Phys.*, **74**, 4915 (1993).
16. T. Gilbert, B. Dubreuil, M. F. Barthe, J. L. Debrun, *J. Appl. Phys.*, **74**, 3506 (1993).