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Effect of hydrogen isotope on plasma impedance and thermal pinching induced by single aerosol droplets injected into an inductively coupled plasma

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Abstract

 Keywords: inductively coupled plasma; aerosol perturbation; monodisperse droplets; plasma pinch; plasma impedance; heavy water

1. Introduction

 Although the inductively coupled plasma (ICP) is now regarded as a common workhorse for elemental analysis and despite many outstanding mechanistic studies that have been reported for processes occurring inside the plasma [1-5], there are still unsettled questions [6, 7]. One such question involves the influence of an introduced aerosol on the properties and behavior of the ICP. In addition, the burgeoning application of the ICP to single-particle analysis [8, 9] requires a better understanding of the interplay among introduced aerosol droplets and solute particles, the various plasma species, as well as energy coupling and flow in the plasma. The introduction of monodisperse droplets into an analytical flame [10, 11] or ICP [12-20], has long been recognized as a powerful means for gaining new insights into fundamental signal-production processes but also provides a useful tool to investigate these questions.

 One particularly interesting question is what causes the observed change in plasma impedance and shrinkage of plasma size (thermal pinching) when a single micrometer- sized droplet is introduced into the ICP. We earlier reported a significant shift in plasma 39 impedance when single aerosol droplets of 27 μ m (i.e., \sim 10 pL in volume) are sent into the ICP [21]; others noted a shift in the radiofrequency delivered by a free-running generator upon injection of a single droplet into the plasma [22]. More recently, through the use of time-resolved two-dimensional monochromatic imaging, a sequence of plasma perturbations involving local cooling, plasma reheating and thermal pinching during single-droplet introduction was described [23]. The impedance change lasted a comparatively long time (~ 10 ms). Four transition points, based on the derivative (i.e.,

 rate of change) of the impedance-probe signal, were unambiguously identified and found to correlate qualitatively with particular stages of plasma perturbation [23]. Specifically, the first and last transition points were correlated with the moments when the plasma shrinkage became established and started to ease, respectively [23]. It was hypothesized that plasma shrinkage during droplet introduction was the result of a thermal pinch effect caused by hydrogen liberated from the decomposition of volatilized water. Because the thermal conductivity of atomic hydrogen is over one order of magnitude higher than that of argon [24, 25], the increased thermal conductivity of the bulk plasma accelerates heat loss at the plasma periphery. Consequently, the plasma shrinks in size in response to the increased heat loss.

 The objective of the present follow-up work is to test the aforementioned hypothesis and to verify the role of liberated hydrogen when a single aerosol droplet is introduced into the ICP. A straightforward way to address this question is to compare the effect of hydrogen (protium) with its isotope – deuterium. Because of the very large fractional difference between the atomic masses of hydrogen and deuterium and the well-known relationship between thermal conductivity of a monatomic gas and reciprocal of the 62 square root of its atomic mass (i.e., mass^{-1/2}) [26-28], a large difference would be expected 63 between H₂O and D₂O droplets if the hypothesis is correct that atomic hydrogen is the dominant cause of plasma shrinkage and plasma impedance change. Accordingly, changes in plasma impedance and thermal pinching during injection of single aerosol 66 droplets in the form of H_2O and D_2O were measured and compared.

2. Experimental

 The experimental setup (hardware) was identical to that previously described [23], with modifications in experimental conditions and procedures as noted below. The system consisted of an ICP generator, a set of entrance optics, a monochromatic imaging spectrometer equipped with an intensified and gated charged-coupled device (ICCD) detector, a commercial monodisperse microdroplet dispenser, an in-house-built trigger circuit to signal droplet introduction into the plasma, and two separate devices for measurement of any droplet-induced change in plasma impedance. A brief, yet self- contained account of the experimental setup is given below; more detail can be found in our previous publication [23].

2.1 Experimental setup

 The ICP system and its operating conditions were common for this type of work [21, 23, 29]. The ICP generator (HFP-2500F, Plasma-Therm, Kresson, NJ, USA) was crystal- controlled at 27.12 MHz and was operated at a forward power of 1200 W. The inner diameter of the torch injector was 1.5 mm, and the torch was vertically mounted. The commercial monodisperse microdroplet dispenser (MD-K-150-010, Microdrop GmbH, 83 Norderstedt, Germany) produced microdroplets with a nominal diameter of 50 μ m (i.e., 65 pL). The dispenser was mounted vertically and directly onto the base of the ICP torch *via* a glass ball-joint adaptor, and introduced monodisperse droplets into the ICP at a user-selectable rate set here at 33 Hz. The droplet stream was entrained by a flow of 87 argon and travelled vertically into the ICP. Three central-channel Ar flow rates of 0.155, 0.175 and 0.200 L/min were studied. These central-channel flows are much lower than

 those in typical solution nebulization but are common for microdroplet injection without a desolvator [30].

 A 1-m focal-length Czerny-Turner spectrometer was configured as a monochromatic imaging spectrometer [31, 32]. This arrangement provided two-dimensional monochromatic images of the ICP at selected wavelengths. The spectral bandpass was ~0.8 nm, adequate for the emission lines employed in this work. Each monochromatic image of the plasma was captured by a gated ICCD with its pixels binned in groups of 4×4 to give a final 256 \times 256 image [23]. Forty sequential ICCD images were taken, at 97 each studied wavelength, at increasing delay times in steps of $100 \mu s$, referenced to a droplet-introduction event. The gate widths for all ICCD images were held constant at 99 100 us.

 The trigger signal for the ICCD was supplied from a photomultiplier tube, with a narrow-101 bandpass interference filter selective for the H_α emission line (center $\lambda = 656.4$ nm, $102 \quad \Delta \lambda = 1$ nm, 656FS02-25, Andover Corp., Salem, NH, USA) placed in front of the 103 photocathode window. Because of its construction, this signal is termed H_{α} -PMT, independent of the emission from the actual hydrogen isotopes (i.e., H or D) that was measured. This emission was collected between the lowest and middle turns of the load coil. The trigger signal actually fires several hundred microseconds before the intact droplet enters into the plasma because solvent evaporation starts when the droplet leaves the capillary of the droplet dispenser, and water vapor accelerates faster thus reaches the plasma earlier than the droplet.

 Two methods, both indirect, were used to gauge plasma impedance. The first was through the voltage induced in a RF-probe coil placed inside the plasma-torch compartment. The second means was through the signal from the phase detector of the impedance-matching network of the ICP instrument. Signals from the RF-probe coil, the 114 phase detector, and the H_{α} -PMT (i.e., the trigger) were simultaneously measured and digitized by a multi-channel digital oscilloscope and saved for further processing.

2.2 Experimental procedures and data processing

 Two samples were used in this work – deionized water and heavy water (deuterium oxide, 99 atom %D, Sigma-Aldrich, St. Louis, Missouri, USA). A spike of barium standard, 119 from a stock solution at a concentration of 100 mg/L prepared in 2% HNO₃ (ordinary water), was doped into both the deionized and heavy-water samples to give a final 121 concentration of 2 mg/L Ba in each. For brevity, these two samples are referred to as H_2O and D_2O in this study.

123 In one experiment involving separate introduction of H_2O and D_2O droplets, a set of three images were obtained at wavelengths corresponding to emission of the Ba analyte (Ba II 125 at 455.4 nm), hydrogen (H I at 656.3 nm or D I at 656.1 nm), and argon (Ar I at 696.5 nm). The integrated exposure time for each ICCD image was 5 s (i.e., introduction of 165 single droplets). Steady-state plasma background emission was corrected by 128 subtraction of an ICCD image taken with the same settings, but at a delay time of 25 ms, well after any perturbation caused by a droplet event has dissipated.

3.1 The effect of hydrogen isotope on plasma impedance during single-droplet introduction

133 Figure 1 shows the temporal behavior of signals from the H_{α} -PMT, the RF-probe coil and the phase-detector during repetitive introduction of single droplets into the ICP. The displayed temporal profiles are the averages of five oscilloscope traces, each comprising the averaged responses from 1280 single-droplet introduction events. As in our previous studies [21, 23], the RF-probe coil and phase-detector signals were measured in ac- coupling and dc-coupling modes, respectively. For both isotopic forms of hydrogen – protium and deuterium – in the introduced droplets, large excursions in plasma impedance occurred, as reflected in the significant changes in RF-probe coil and phase-141 detector signals. However, D_2O droplets induced a clearly smaller change in plasma 142 impedance than H_2O . Quantitatively, the peak height in the change of the RF-probe coil 143 signal for D_2O droplets was about 64% of that for H_2O . Likewise, the dip in the phase 144 detector signal for D_2O was about 80% of that for H_2O .

 It is, of course, essential to determine that this difference is not due to an artifact. We earlier found [21] that both the RF-probe coil and phase-detector signal peaks are lower 147 for smaller droplets. Accordingly, it is important to confirm that the D_2O and H_2O droplets are the same size when they reach the base of the plasma. For this evaluation, it 149 is tempting to use the H_{α}-PMT signal as a measure of droplet size; indeed, a quantitative relationship between the two was assumed in our previous study [21]. However, this 151 proportionality might not hold for a comparison of H_2O and D_2O droplets because of a 152 difference in transmission efficiency of the interference filter employed in the H_{α} -PMT 153 detection channel. First, the spectral bandpass of the H_{α} interference filter is 1 nm, and 154 the isotopic shift between the H_{α} (656.283 nm [33]) and D_{α} (656.093 nm [33]) lines is 155 0.19 nm. Although the half width of the heavily Stark-broadened H_{α} line is still only 156 around 0.1 to 0.2 nm [34], it is likely that not all of the H_{α} spectral profile can pass 157 through the H_{α} filter and also that the filter has dissimilar efficiencies for transmitting the 158 H_{α} and D_{α} emission lines. Second, for an interference filter to function properly, the incoming beam needs to be collimated and to fall at normal incidence onto the filter surface. If the incoming beam impinges at an angle onto the filter (i.e., tilted), the central bandpass of the interference filter shifts to shorter wavelengths [35]. Because the original 162 intended purpose of the H_{α}-PMT signal was to generate a trigger signal, no collimating optics was used in light collection. Instead, as previously outlined [21, 29], the collected 164 plasma emission was only partially collimated by passing it through a \sim 20 cm black- painted glass tube with an internal diameter of 3 mm. As a result, it is plausible that our 166 H_a filter–PMT assembly favors the D_{α} line, which emits at a shorter wavelength [33]. Furthermore, the ion-dynamic effect is not the same for H and D because of the 168 substantial difference in reduced mass of the radiator (H or D)-perturber (presumably Ar^+) 169 system [36, 37]. As such, Stark profiles for H and D are also different. Compared to H_{α} , reductions in Stark width (and hence increases in peak height) between 10% and 15% for D_{α} have been experimentally reported [36, 38, 39] and calculated [36, 38, 40] for electron densities and temperatures typical of an analytical ICP. Thus, although we consistently 173 observed stronger PMT signals from the D_2O samples, we are reluctant to interpret the 174 H $_{\alpha}$ and D $_{\alpha}$ signals quantitatively.

 Because it is experimentally difficult to measure the size of droplets immediately before they enter the plasma, we offer two arguments that D2O droplets are *not* smaller than their H₂O counterparts. The first argument is based on literature results involving droplet production and evaporation, and the second is from acquired ICCD images to be presented in the next section. The outcome is that the observed smaller change in plasma 180 impedance for D₂O droplets is real and not due to smaller droplet sizes.

 In the literature, Lazar and Farnsworth [17] evaluated the influence of the physical properties of liquids on droplet production by a pizeoelectric-based micropump similar to the one used in the present study. Their (and our) micropump employs a glass tube with a restriction at the inlet and surrounded by a pizeoceramic sleeve [12, 17]. When the pizeoceramic is energized, a compression pulse squeezes the glass tube and expels a droplet [17]. The restriction at the tube inlet reduces the backflow of liquid and strengthens droplet ejection at the exit. The viscosity of the liquid governs the amount of backflow through the restriction during the compressive pulse [17]; the lower the viscosity, the greater the backflow, and the smaller the droplet size at the tip of the micropump [17]. Lazar and Farnsworth [17] found a linear correlation between the droplet volume and viscosity of water, methanol and xylene. Accordingly, the 192 volumetric ratio of D_2O to H_2O at the exit of our droplet dispenser can be estimated from 193 the corresponding ratio of the viscosities. The viscosities of D_2O and H_2O are 1.247 [41] 194 and 1.002 [42] mPa s at 20° C (i.e., a ratio of 1.24) and are 0.972 [41] and 195 0.797 [42] mPa s, respectively, at 30° C (i.e., a ratio of 1.22). Therefore, according to the viscosity argument, D2O droplets are expected to be about 20% *larger* in volume (or 7%

 larger in diameter) than H2O droplets. This difference is opposite from what would be necessary for the observed effect on plasma impedance.

199 Even if the D_2O and H_2O droplets are initially of identical size, they might evaporate at 200 dissimilar rates. Only if the evaporation rate of D_2O is not higher than that of H_2O can 201 we persuasively argue that D_2O droplets are *not* smaller than those of H_2O when they 202 enter the plasma. The boiling point of D_2O is 101.4°C, slightly higher than that of H_2O . 203 From room temperature to their boiling points, the vapor pressure of H_2O is always 204 slightly higher than D_2O , by an amount between 17% (at room temperature) and 6% (at the boiling point) [43]. From the viewpoint of vapor pressure, it is *not* expected that D2O 206 droplets evaporate faster than H_2O droplets during their journey from the dispenser to the 207 plasma; nor, therefore, are D_2O droplets likely to be smaller than those of H_2O .

 Of course, droplet evaporation inside the ICP injector is likely not in vaporization equilibrium, so evaporation kinetics need to be considered. The evaporation rates of 210 H₂O and D₂O droplets with diameters of 12 to 15 μ m at temperatures between 3.6^oC and 211 50.7°C injected into vacuum have been experimentally determined and were reported to be nearly identical [44]. This finding agrees with a theoretical model based on competing energetic and entropic effects [44]. Therefore, from arguments in the literature, we can be confident that D2O droplets are *not* smaller than those of H2O when they enter the plasma. An experimental inference is presented in the next section.

3.2 Monochromatic emission images of H and Ba showing height of complete droplet evaporation and initial solute-particle atomization

 Representative monochromatic emission images show that the heights of complete vaporization of droplets from H2O and D2O are essentially identical, with a temporal 220 difference less than the exposure time of a single ICCD image frame (i.e., 100 μ s). Furthermore, through doping the droplets with Ba, it was found that the time for the first 222 appearance of Ba emission as well as the integrated Ba emission for H_2O and D_2O droplets was indistinguishable. In all cases, the measured difference is not significant 224 compared to experimental uncertainties. If anything, evaporation of D_2O droplets is 225 marginally slower than H_2O droplets, suggesting that the D_2O droplets might be 226 marginally larger in size than those of H_2O .

 Figure 2a shows the net (i.e., after background correction with an image taken at steady 228 state) monochromatic images, with a time stamp of 1.55 ms after the H_{α} -PMT trigger, 229 during single-droplet introduction into the plasma at H_{α} 656.3 nm and D_{α} 656.1 nm. The 230 exposure time of the ICCD was 100 μ s, starting from 1.50 ms to 1.60 ms with respect to the trigger. The scales marked on the *x*- and *y*-axes of the images represent the physical size of the plasma. As detailed in several previous publications [23, 45, 46], because of an optical artifact in the monochromatic imaging spectrometer, the vertical and horizontal scales of the images are not identical but are correctable. Because a vaporizing droplet serves as a local reservoir supplying hydrogen or deuterium atoms, the localized emission in the image center (i.e., the red dot) pinpoints the location of the vaporizing droplet. Also, as has been reported previously [23, 30], atomic hydrogen quickly diffuses

 throughout the whole plasma. The positions of the hydrogen and deuterium atomic clouds were at similar locations in the plasma – just above the second turn of the load coil, 240 counting from the bottom. A comparison of the two images reveals that the localized D_{α} 241 emission is stronger than that of H_{α} , suggesting that it took slightly longer for the D₂O 242 droplet to complete its evaporation in the plasma. In fact, the displayed H_{α} image is the last one in the series in which a localized hydrogen emission cloud could be distinctly identified. In the subsequent ICCD image frame, with a time stamp of 1.65 ms (cf. 245 Figure 2b), no localized H_{α} emission could be seen although localized D_{α} emission was still present.

 Figure 3 displays net monochromatic images of Ba II 455.4 nm emission 1.65 ms after 248 the H_{α} trigger during H₂O and D₂O droplet introduction. This is the first frame in which 249 a distinct Ba emission cloud could be observed for either H₂O or D₂O; the images taken at 1.55 ms (i.e., same time stamp as in Figure 2a, not shown) revealed no Ba emission. 251 Thus, although the last identifiable H_{α} and D_{α} emission clouds appeared respectively at 1.55 and 1.65 ms, the time lag between complete droplet evaporation for the H2O and D₂O was likely less than 100 μ s, since the first appearance of analyte emission was at 254 1.65 ms in both cases. The fact that D_{α} emission (cf. Figure 2b) and Ba II emission clouds appeared simultaneously in the same ICCD frame with a gate width of only 256 100 us clearly argues that the processes of analyte atomization, ionization and excitation after complete solvent evaporation are very fast, in agreement with a previous report [14].

258 From the vertical time-dependent centroid of the H_{α} and D_{α} emission clouds, one can 259 readily follow the acceleration of the H₂O and D₂O droplets in the plasma (cf. Figure 4).

 This acceleration can be well represented by a quadratic function. The behavior in Figure 4 is phenomenologically similar to that found in a chemical flame. Russo and 262 Hieftje [47] introduced monodisperse droplets of 68 µm diameter side-on into a chemical flame and measured the vertical distance of the droplet in the flame as a function of its residence time. Although a model of higher order (fourth order polynomial) was used [47], the vertical height of the droplet in the flame can be adequately approximated with a quadratic function. The bands in Figure 4 designated by horizontal dotted lines from -1.2 to -2.2 mm, from -7.5 to -8.5 mm, and from -13.8 to -14.8 mm denote three vertical locations that will be discussed in detail in Section 3.4.

 Spatial integration of emission from the Ba ion cloud (cf. Figure 3) could provide 270 additional insight into the relative sizes of the H_2O and D_2O droplets. To a first 271 approximation, if one assumes that the excitation environment is identical between H_2O and D2O droplet injection, the Ba emission will be directly proportional to the analyte mass, which in turn is directly proportional to the initial droplet volume. Figure 5 displays the spatially integrated Ba emission with a window that runs laterally between -2 mm and +2 mm of the plasma center and vertically from -9.73 mm to +0.70 mm (i.e., all heights above the middle load coil, cf. Figure 3) at different delay 277 times. The small dip at \sim 1.4 ms before the appearance of the Ba emission spike is due to local plasma cooling from the vaporizing droplet, causing a momentary drop in the 279 plasma continuum emission. The dip at \sim 1.9 ms is caused by part of the Ba emission cloud being obscured by the load coil. Although the two Ba temporal profiles do not overlap exactly, they are very close in shape and amplitude. In fact, if one further integrates the temporal emission from 16 to 24 ms (i.e., from the time when Ba emission

 started to when the Ba ion cloud moved out of the captured-image range), the difference 284 in the Ba emission between H_2O and D_2O droplets is smaller than the baseline noise (i.e., statistically insignificant).

 Based on the experimental results discussed above, we are confident that the introduced H₂O and D₂O droplets are very similar in size, and if there is a marginal difference, the D2O droplets could be slightly larger, but definitely *not* smaller than their H2O counterparts. This finding is critical, because as will be shown, plasma perturbations 290 induced by D_2O droplets are decidedly smaller than those by H_2O droplets.

3.3 Monochromatic emission images of Ar showing plasma shrinkage

 Figure 6a shows the net absolute change in Ar I 696.5 nm emission during single-droplet 293 introduction. The time stamp for Figure 6a is 1.55 ms after the H_{α} -PMT trigger (same as in Figure 2a). In this case, the droplet-induced change in Ar emission appears similar for H_2O and D₂O. The most dramatic observation is the local cooling effect generated by the droplets, which causes a substantial drop in argon emission in the center of the images. 297 In addition, H_2O and D_2O droplets both produce a sharp decline in Ar emission along the two sides of the plasma. This plasma shrinkage is believed to be the result of thermal pinching [48] due to a difference in thermal conductivity between the plasma gas (argon) 300 and the introduced foreign gas (in this case, the H_2O and D_2O droplets and/or their dissociation products). The thermal pinching is not symmetrical, with a more prominent effect found on the left side of the plasma images. As noted in our previous report [23], the helical-shaped load coil likely causes the plasma asymmetry, especially within the

 load-coil region. In addition, the curvature of the plasma torch tubing could induce optical distortion in the collected plasma image, especially along the two sides [23].

306 Although the net change in Ar emission for H_2O and D_2O droplets appears similar in Figure 6a, a considerable difference can be noted if the change is expressed as a percentage (cf. Figure 6b). Here, percentage change in emission refers to the net change (i.e., after subtraction of steady-state emission) relative to the steady-state emission. The local cooling effect (i.e., the decrease in Ar emission close to the center of the image) is 311 similar for H₂O and D₂O whereas H₂O was found to induce a noticeably stronger plasma pinching effect than D2O; the percentage reduction in Ar emission, in particular on the 313 left edge of the plasma, is larger for H_2O . If one defines a threshold of 10% drop in Ar emission to assess the degree of plasma shrinkage, the estimated size reduction was 2.3 mm and 1.8 mm, respectively, on the left side of the plasma for the introduction of H₂O and D₂O droplets. The corresponding size decreases on the right side of the plasma were 1.5 mm and 1.1 mm for H2O and D2O, respectively.

3.4 Temporo-spatial change in Ar emission during single-droplet introduction

319 In this section, the temporo-spatial change in relative argon emission upon H_2O and D_2O droplet introduction will be compared. As already depicted in Figure 6b, two regions of the plasma, its center and edge, are particularly affected by the droplets. Accordingly, the average change in Ar emission within a radius of 0.9 mm of the plasma center and also in a region within 0.8 mm from the left-hand edge of the plasma was calculated at three vertical ±0.5 mm-high windows, centered at -14.3, -8.0, and -1.7 mm with reference to the top of the load coil.

 Figure 7a shows the droplet-induced fractional change in Ar emission close to the bottom of the load coil at a vertical height of -14.3 mm with reference to the top of the load coil. 328 In the center of the plasma, a similar change in Ar emission was observed for H_2O and D2O droplets, indicating that the local cooling effect caused by the droplet is independent of the identity of the hydrogen isotope. There was a slight delay between the time when the droplets were present within the observation volume and the moment when the greatest Ar depression occurred. As noted in Figure 4, the droplet velocity was comparatively low in the bottom part of the load coil and the droplet virtually stayed at this observation height from about 0.45 to 0.65 ms whereas the maximum dip in Ar emission occurred later, from 0.65 to 0.95 ms. At the left edge of the plasma, a more pronounced depression in Ar emission was found, induced by plasma shrinkage. The maximum percentage drop in Ar emission was ~12% at the edge, compared to ~7% in the plasma center. Furthermore, the plasma shrinkage, as reflected by the percentage drop in Ar emission at the edge, is sensitive to the isotopic form of hydrogen in the droplets. A lesser effect, roughly by a factor of one-third, was observed with the D₂O droplets. Moreover, the maximum plasma shrinkage happened around 1.0 to 1.5 ms, a time by which the droplet had already moved quite far above the observation height (cf. Figure 4). The cause for this significant delay was not determined, but could be due to the finite transport time of the species (presumably atomic hydrogen or deuterium) responsible for the plasma shrinkage, likely through recirculation, from the plasma center to its periphery.

 The percentage change in Ar emission in the middle of the load-coil region (-8.0 mm) is illustrated in Figure 7b. Similar to the case at -14.3 mm (cf. Figure 7a), H2O and D2O droplets induced the same extent of local cooling in the plasma center. In addition, the

 percentage drop in Ar emission in the plasma center is very comparable at the two heights (~7 to 8%), despite the fact that the droplet is certainly becoming smaller during its upward passage in the ICP. Similar unexpected observations have been reported 352 elsewhere [23]. It took roughly ~1.6 ms, with reference to the H α trigger (cf. Figure 4), for the droplets to reach this vertical region of the plasma, which coincides with the time of the maximum dip in Ar emission in the plasma center (cf. Figure 7b). At the edge of 355 the plasma, the hydrogen isotope effect again is apparent, with the influence of D_2O droplets significantly weaker than that of the H2O droplets. The maximum decrease in Ar emission at the edge is ~16%, larger than the ~12% decrease at -14.3 mm.

 Figure 7c shows the change in Ar emission even higher, in the upper part of the load-coil region at an observation height centered at -1.7 mm. In the center of the plasma, here as 360 at other heights, the decline in Ar emission is similar for H_2O and D_2O droplets. However, compared to lower positions (cf. Figures 7a and 7b) in which the drops in Ar emission are about 7 to 8%, the dips here are only about 5%. The reduced effect is likely because the droplets are completely vaporized at this vertical height (cf. Figure 4), so any cooling effect is no longer created locally but is carried from upstream locations (lower positions in the plasma) by the argon gas flow and is therefore diluted. The greatest dips were at 1.55 ms and 1.95 ms, respectively, for observations at -8.0 mm and -1.7 mm, giving an averaged velocity of about 16 m/s, which is about right for the linear gas velocity in the upper part of the load-coil region [49, 50]. As reflected by the change in Ar emission at the edge of the plasma, the plasma shrinkage effect continues to climb from the bottom to the top of the load coil. Even at 0.6 ms, when the droplets are still within the bottom part of the load coil (cf. Figure 4), plasma shrinkage at higher locations

 could unambiguously be detected, suggesting rapid diffusion of the effect throughout the plasma. Generally speaking, whenever plasma shrinkage is clearly detected, the effect 374 induced by H₂O droplets is larger than that by D_2O droplets, although the difference was smaller compared to the behavior in lower regions of the load coil (cf. Figures 7a and 7b).

3.5 Rate of change of plasma impedance

 Sections 3.1 and 3.4 compared changes in plasma impedance and plasma shrinkage that 378 resulted when monodisperse H_2O and D_2O droplets were introduced into the plasma. The present section examines the rate of change in plasma impedance, which better reflects the kinetics of whatever process causes the changes. Figure 8a displays the rate of change (first derivative) of the RF-probe and phase-detector signals (collectively termed 382 plasma-impedance signals) as a function of time upon H_2O and D_2O droplet introduction. Because the absolute changes in plasma impedance signals are smaller for D2O droplets, 384 the rate of change for D_2O is also lower. In addition, slight delays were observed 385 between the temporal profiles of H_2O and D_2O . For instance, the minimum in the first derivative for the phase-detector signal occurred at 0.63 and 0.83 ms, respectively, for H₂O and D₂O. Likewise, the phase-detector signals reached their respective minimum 388 (i.e., when derivatives equal zero) at 1.61 ms for H₂O and 1.75 ms for D₂O. The RF- probe signals exhibited slightly longer delays due to the slower circuit response [21, 23], but yielded the same conclusion. Because the phase-detector circuit offered wider bandwidth and hence better temporal accuracy and resolution, the phase-detector signal was used as the primary reference to pinpoint the temporal change in plasma impedance.

 The bandwidths of the RF-probe coil and phase-detector circuits were previously determined to be 1,300 and 15,000 Hz, respectively [21].

395 Apart from the slight delay between the responses for H_2O and D_2O (i.e., slight horizontal shift in the time axis), the overall shapes of the temporal profiles for the rate of change are similar, which is even more apparent if the temporal profiles of the plasma- impedance signals are normalized before their derivatives are taken (cf. Figure 8b). 399 Notice that decay of the droplet-induced effect on plasma impedance is similar for H_2O 400 and D_2O and that it takes a comparatively long time $(\sim 10 \text{ ms})$ for the plasma impedance 401 to return to its steady-state value for both. The similar restoration time for H₂O and D₂O supports our previous hypothesis [23] that to re-establish the energy-coupling equilibrium, not only must hydrogen (protium or deuterium) be completely flushed from the system but also the temperature distribution among plasma species needs to be restored. It is reasonable that complete flushing and replacement of protium or deuterium takes a similar length of time. Furthermore, slow thermal diffusion and ambipolar diffusion [51] constitute the rate-limiting step for temperature redistribution in the ICP. As a result, the time taken for the plasma impedance to return to its steady-state value is independent of the isotopic form of hydrogen in the introduced water droplets.

 In our previous study [23], we identified four important transitions in the droplet-induced plasma-impedance change, which were further found to correlate with distinct stages of plasma perturbation. The four transition points are evidenced by either a change of sign or slope in the rate of change of the phase-detector signals. The present experiment revealed one distinctly different condition from our previous report [23]. In that earlier

 work, the droplet did not undergo complete evaporation in the load-coil region and we observed localized H atomic and OH molecular emission continuously travelling upward from -15 mm to +1 mm in height (referenced to the top of the load coil) in the captured monochromatic images [23]. In contrast, in the present study, complete solvent evaporation was accomplished around midway within the load coil region.

 The use of conditions so that droplet vaporization was complete within the load coil region was intentional here for two reasons. First, if droplet evaporation is not complete, 422 it would be difficult to gauge the relative sizes of the H_2O and D_2O droplets. Only if the hydrogen emission cloud disappeared and the analyte cloud emerged at the same height 424 for H₂O and D₂O droplets, can one assess the relative sizes of the two aerosols. An added complication of incomplete evaporation is that it would then be difficult to gauge 426 the relative amount of protium and deuterium released in the load-coil region by the H_2O and D2O droplets, respectively. Consequently, it would be difficult to compare the 428 change in plasma impedance and plasma shrinkage induced by H_2O and D_2O droplet introduction, as it would have been impossible to rule out the possibility of different amounts of hydrogen being released in the load-coil region. Second, if complete evaporation occurs inside the load-coil region, one can validate the previously observed correlation between transition points and different stages of plasma perturbation and provide additional experimental basis to revise the correlation, if needed.

 The first transition point (arrow I in Figure 8) occurs when the phase-detector signal shows its maximum rate of change; this point occurs at the trough of the first derivative because the phase-detector signal moves negative when the plasma is perturbed by an aerosol droplet. The first transition points were around 0.63 and 0.73 ms for H2O and D2O droplets, respectively (cf. Figure 8b). The first transition point was previously found [23] to correspond to the moment when the thermal pinch and plasma shrinkage became established in the load-coil region of the plasma. Figure 7c supports this observation; argon emission clearly drops at the edge of the plasma (i.e., thermal pinch and plasma shrinkage) at ~0.7 ms. Therefore, the same conclusion applies in the present case in which droplet evaporation is complete within the load coil region.

 The second transition point (arrow II in Figure 8) is defined as the instant when the induced change in phase-detector signal is at its maximum (i.e., zero derivative), which 446 occurred at 1.61 and 1.75 ms for H_2O and D_2O droplets, respectively (cf. Figure 8b). This transition point corresponds to the time when the microdroplet was close to the center of the load-coil region (cf. Figure 4), in excellent agreement with previous findings [23].

 The third transition (arrow III in Figure 8) happens when the rate of change in phase- detector signal attains its maximum in the direction opposite to that of the first transition, 452 and before it begins to return to the baseline [23]. For H_2O and D_2O droplets, the third transition arose at ~2.0 and ~2.4 ms, respectively. In our previous work [23], this transition was found to correlate with the time when the droplet moved out of the load- coil region. Clearly, this interpretation needs to be revised here because the droplets were completely vaporized within the load coil. From Figure 7c, the reduced Ar emission in the plasma center exhibited sharp recoil from 2.0 to 2.4 ms. Therefore, it is reasonable to

 revise our interpretation of the third transition as the time when the localized cooling effect of a droplet in the plasma center moves out of the load-coil region.

 The fourth transition (arrow IV in Figure 8) arises when the rate of change in phase- detector signal begins to asymptotically approach its original, unperturbed level [23]. It was previously reported [23] that plasma shrinkage started to ease near the fourth 463 transition. In the present study, this transition occurred around 4.8 ms for both H₂O and D2O droplets. Although no monochromatic image was taken after 4 ms in the present 465 study, the H_{α}-PMT signal sheds some light on this transition point. Comparing Figures 1 466 and 8b, one can see that the fourth transition point coincides with the time when the $H_{\alpha-}$ PMT signal approaches a horizontal line. Although it had not been explicitly pointed out, 468 a similar correlation between the final transition points of the phase-detector and $H_{\alpha-}$ 469 PMT signals also existed in our previous work [23]. Therefore, the decay of the H_{α} -PMT signals should serve as an effective indicator for recovery of the plasma to its steady-state conditions. This hypothesis is reasonable if one assumes that the plasma shrinkage and change in impedance are caused by atomic hydrogen present in the plasma.

3.6 Repeatability of change in plasma impedance

474 In our experiments, changing between H_2O and D_2O involves removing and re-installing the monodisperse droplet generator from the base of the plasma torch. As a result, it was 476 always a concern whether an observed change in plasma impedance between H_2O and D2O might be an artifact caused by different mounting positions of the droplet generator. This concern arose because the Farnsworth group [17, 19] reported that in their

 experience with the MDMI (monodisperse dried microparticulate injector), which can be viewed as a monodisperse droplet generator coupled to a laminar-flow oven, the measurement results were very sensitive to the positioning of the micropump at the base of the oven. Specifically, removal and reinsertion of the pump could cause significant changes in the position of the droplet stream with respect to the plasma [19]. Our present experimental setup differed from the MDMI work in the way that the droplet dispenser (micropump) was directly mounted onto the base of the ICP torch and that no oven was involved. Our arrangement, without an oven, significantly reduces the travel distance for the droplet, and we did not observe a noteworthy change in signal response when the micropump was removed and reinstalled on the ICP torch. Nevertheless, an experiment was performed to evaluate the effect on our results of removing the micropump, changing 490 the solution from H_2O to D_2O and vice versa, and reinstalling the micropump.

 Figures 9a and 9b show the change in RF-probe and phase-detector signals, respectively, for four sample-switch cycles. Each temporal trace represents the average of 512 493 individual droplet-introduction events. For each sample $(H_2O$ or $D_2O)$, clear differences exist in the amplitude of the temporal profiles of plasma impedance, which could result from either an irreproducibility in the micropump position or a drift in plasma conditions. For reasons given in the next paragraph, the variation is more likely caused by drift. 497 Regardless, the key feature in Figures 9a and 9b is that the several traces for either H_2O or D_2O are more similar to each other than to the traces from the other sample type. 499 Clearly, H₂O droplets induce a larger change in plasma impedance than D_2O .

 Two experiments were performed with the sequence of micropump removal, sample change and micropump re-installation after each measurement; a third experiment did not involve any sample change and micropump removal during the five repetitive measurements of the plasma impedance signals. Table 1 compiles ratios of the change in 504 RF-probe and phase-detector signals for D_2O to those for H_2O samples. Clearly, D_2O induces a significantly and consistently smaller change in plasma impedance than H2O. Specifically, the range is about 0.52 to 0.80, depending on the experimental conditions and the probing method. The quoted uncertainties in Table 1 represent the standard deviations obtained through error propagation between the several measurements taken 509 with H_2O and D_2O samples. Because the measurement uncertainties were similar for all three experiments, it is likely that the observed irreproducibility was caused by drift in the plasma rather than by a change in micropump position during its removal and re- installation. Further, the three experiments whose results are presented in Table 1 were performed under slightly different conditions so that droplet evaporation was incomplete, complete near the top of the load coil, or complete midway in the load-coil region. Overall, the ratios are comparable, suggesting that the smaller plasma-impedance change induced by D2O droplets than H2O droplets is a general observation not related to the position of complete droplet evaporation.

3.7 Species responsible for plasma shrinkage and change in plasma impedance

 From the foregoing discussion, it is unambiguous that the impact from introduction of 520 H₂O droplets is considerably larger than that from D₂O. Such a difference is not surprising. Plasma shrinkage has been widely reported in situations when a foreign substance (e.g., organic solvent [48, 52] or molecular gas [25, 53-55]) is introduced into the plasma. Because such substances have a higher thermal conductivity than the plasma gas (argon), it is reasonable to link plasma shrinkage and impedance change observed here to the species that are known to have the highest thermal conductivity: atomic hydrogen [56], from decomposition of water. Conveniently, atomic hydrogen (protium or deuterium) is monatomic, so the thermal conductivity of the two isotopes can be 528 readily compared since they vary as mass^{$-1/2$} [26-28]. This means that thermal conductivity of atomic deuterium is about 71% of that of atomic protium, which agrees 530 well with the ratios of the change in plasma impedance induced by D_2O to H_2O droplets (cf. Table 1). Although this correlation is strong, the present experiment provides only indirect support that atomic hydrogen is the species mainly responsible for the strong thermal pinch and change in plasma impedance. Accordingly, we should consider and eliminate other possibilities as much as possible in order to establish greater confidence in assigning the role of atomic hydrogen.

536 The first possibility to be considered is the thermal conductivity of H_2O and D_2O 537 molecules. After all, the thermal conductivities of gaseous H_2O and D_2O are also higher than that of argon. For example, the thermal conductivities of gaseous D2O and Ar at 539 2500 K are, respectively, 0.31 [57] and 0.08 [58] W $m^{-1} K^{-1}$. However, the thermal 540 conductivity ratios of D_2O to H_2O are very close to unity and range only from 0.95 to 1.05, depending on temperature [57, 59]. For polyatomic molecules such as H2O and 542 D₂O, thermal conductivity can no longer can be approximated by the mass^{-1/2} relationship as the internal energy-storage modes of the molecule also play an important role [60]. 544 Because the difference in thermal conductivities between H_2O and D_2O is only a few

 percent, it is unlikely that thermal conductivity of the intact molecules would cause a change in plasma impedance as large as observed.

 Another possible alternative explanation is a difference in the decomposition kinetics of H₂O and D₂O. If the dissociation kinetics are very different, the dissimilar release rates of atomic H and D into the plasma would make data interpretation difficult. The decomposition kinetics of H2O and D2O were studied in an argon environment at a temperature of 5000 K and no difference was found within experimental error [61]. Therefore, it seems that the thermal pinching effect and the large difference in plasma response to H2O and D2O droplet introduction is most confidently attributable to atomic hydrogen released from decomposition of water.

4. Conclusion

 The introduction of a single micrometer-sized water droplet causes a significant perturbation in an ICP. By means of the isotope effect, specifically through the introduction of single H2O and D2O droplets, the role of hydrogen in plasma perturbations was clarified. Specific perturbations explored here include local plasma cooling, plasma shrinkage due to thermal pinching, and changes in plasma impedance.

 Several specific conclusions arise from the study. First, based on both theoretical 562 arguments and experimental inference, H_2O and D_2O droplets produced by a piezo- electric-based on-demand monodisperse droplet generator are very similar in size; the D2O droplets might be marginally larger, but definitely are *not* smaller than those of H2O. Second, a strong isotope effect was experimentally confirmed in governing the extent of plasma shrinkage and changes in plasma impedance. In all cases, D2O droplets induce significantly less plasma shrinkage and a smaller shift in plasma impedance. 568 Quantitatively, changes in plasma-impedance signals caused by D_2O droplet introduction ranged from 52% to 80% of those generated by their H2O counterparts. As the thermal conductivity of deuterium is only about 70% of that for atomic hydrogen (protium), atomic hydrogen is believed to play an important role in the thermal-pinch effect in the plasma. In marked contrast, no isotope effect was found in the local cooling caused by an evaporating droplet. Third, decay of the droplet-induced effect on plasma impedance was 574 similar for H₂O and D₂O and it takes a comparatively long time $(\sim 10 \text{ ms})$ for the plasma impedance to return to its steady-state value for both.

 As was reported in our earlier study [23], the droplet-induced change in plasma impedance correlates qualitatively with four specific stages of plasma perturbation. This correlation was confirmed in the present study even though, here, complete vaporization of the droplet occurred in the middle of the load coil.

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744 Table 1 Ratio of the change in RF-probe and phase-detector signals induced by D2O droplet introduction to change induced by H2O droplets. Listed uncertainties obtained through error propagations of the standard derivations of the individual measurements.

 which spatio-temporal responses were discussed in detail (see text for discussion). The measurement is limited by the size of the binned ICCD pixels, which contributed an uncertainty of 0.07 mm.

 Figure 5 Temporal profile of spatially integrated Ba II emission over all vertical 780 locations and between ± 2 mm of the plasma center. The dip at ~ 1.9 ms was caused by obstruction of part of the Ba emission cloud by the load coil.

 Figure 6 (a) Net absolute, and (b) percentage change in Ar I 696.5 nm emission, 784 relative to steady state, at 1.55 ms after the H_{α} -PMT trigger, caused by repetitive introduction of monodisperse H2O and D2O microdroplets into the ICP.

 Figure 7 Temporal profiles of the relative change in Ar I 696.5 nm emission at the left edge (within 0.8 mm) and center (±0.9 mm) of the plasma during repetitive introduction of monodisperse H2O and D2O microdroplets into the ICP. Vertical heights were (a) -14.3, (b) -8.0, and (c) -1.7 mm with reference to the top of the load coil. Note different vertical scales in plots for center and left edge of plasma.

 Figure 8 Rates of change (first derivatives) of (a) originally measured, and (b) 794 normalized H_{α} -PMT, RF-probe coil and phase-detector signals during 795 repetitive H₂O and D₂O single-droplet introduction into the ICP. Four notable transitions in the temporal profiles and their derivatives are marked as Arrows I, II, III and IV (see text for discussion). The error bars represent the standard deviations from the five measurements. Because

H₂O Droplet

D₂O Droplet

H₂O Droplet

D₂O Droplet

Figure 5

H₂O Droplet

D₂O Droplet

H₂O Droplet

D₂O Droplet

First Derivative of Normalized RF-Probe
or Phase Detector Signal / a.u. 1.0 $H₂$ O RF-Probe $0.8₀$ D₂O RF-Probe 0.6 H₂O Phase Detector 0.4 D₂O Phase Detector $0.2 0.0$ -0.2 -0.4 $-0.6 -0.8$ -1.0 III \mathbf{I} IV -1.2 8 -2 5 9 -1 $\overline{0}$ $\overline{2}$ 3 6 1 4 7 Time / ms

