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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

The mass of the hydrogen isotope in micrometer-sized aqueous droplets introduced into an ICP has been found to affect the degree of resulting plasma perturbation. Studied plasma perturbations include local plasma cooling, plasma shrinkage due to thermal pinching, and changes in plasma impedance. The local cooling effect caused by a vaporizing aerosol droplet was found to be similar between H_2O and D_2O . This finding is likely a result of the similar heat capacities and vaporization rates of H_2O and D_2O droplets and of the comparable thermal conductivities and dissociation kinetics of H_2O and D₂O vapor. In contrast, a clear isotope effect was observed for plasma shrinkage and impedance change, with H_2O causing a considerably stronger effect. Plasma shrinkage, gauged by the reduction in Ar emission at the edge of the plasma, was detected at all observation heights within the load-coil region, with D₂O droplets causing as much as 30% less of an effect than H₂O. Likewise, D₂O droplets induce significantly less change in plasma impedance than H₂O droplets. Depending on experimental conditions and the probing method, changes in plasma impedance caused by monodisperse D₂O droplets were only 52%-80% that of H₂O. The lower influence on plasma shrinkage and impedance change for D₂O droplets is believed to be related to the much lower thermal conductivity of atomic deuterium, around 70% that of atomic hydrogen (protium). The time required for the plasma impedance to return to its original steady-state value was comparatively long (~10 ms) and similar for H₂O and D₂O droplets.

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

24 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 impedance when single aerosol droplets of 27 μ m (i.e., ~ 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 square root of its atomic mass (i.e., mass^{$-\frac{1}{2}$}) [26-28], a large difference would be expected 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 droplets in the form of H₂O and D₂O were measured and compared.

67 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].

77 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, Norderstedt, Germany) produced microdroplets with a nominal diameter of 50 µm (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 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 withouta 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 256×256 image [23]. Forty sequential ICCD images were taken, at each studied wavelength, at increasing delay times in steps of 100 µs, referenced to a droplet-introduction event. The gate widths for all ICCD images were held constant at 100 µs.

The trigger signal for the ICCD was supplied from a photomultiplier tube, with a narrow-bandpass interference filter selective for the H_{α} emission line (center $\lambda = 656.4$ nm, $\Delta\lambda = 1$ nm, 656FS02-25, Andover Corp., Salem, NH, USA) placed in front of the 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.

110 Two methods, both indirect, were used to gauge plasma impedance. The first was 111 through the voltage induced in a RF-probe coil placed inside the plasma-torch 112 compartment. The second means was through the signal from the phase detector of the 113 impedance-matching network of the ICP instrument. Signals from the RF-probe coil, the 114 phase detector, and the H $_{\alpha}$ -PMT (i.e., the trigger) were simultaneously measured and 115 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, 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 concentration of 2 mg/L Ba in each. For brevity, these two samples are referred to as H₂O and D₂O in this study.

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 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 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. Results and Discussion

131 3.1 The effect of hydrogen isotope on plasma impedance during single-droplet 132 introduction

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-detector signals. However, D₂O droplets induced a clearly smaller change in plasma impedance than H₂O. Quantitatively, the peak height in the change of the RF-probe coil signal for D₂O droplets was about 64% of that for H₂O. Likewise, the dip in the phase detector signal for D₂O was about 80% of that for H₂O.

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 for smaller droplets. Accordingly, it is important to confirm that the D₂O and H₂O droplets are the same size when they reach the base of the plasma. For this evaluation, it is tempting to use the H $_{\alpha}$ -PMT signal as a measure of droplet size; indeed, a quantitative relationship between the two was assumed in our previous study [21]. However, this proportionality might not hold for a comparison of H₂O and D₂O droplets because of a difference in transmission efficiency of the interference filter employed in the H_{α} -PMT detection channel. First, the spectral bandpass of the H_{α} interference filter is 1 nm, and the isotopic shift between the H_{α} (656.283 nm [33]) and D_{α} (656.093 nm [33]) lines is 0.19 nm. Although the half width of the heavily Stark-broadened H_{α} line is still only around 0.1 to 0.2 nm [34], it is likely that not all of the H_{α} spectral profile can pass through the H_{α} filter and also that the filter has dissimilar efficiencies for transmitting the 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 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 plasma emission was only partially collimated by passing it through a ~ 20 cm black-painted glass tube with an internal diameter of 3 mm. As a result, it is plausible that our H_{α} 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 substantial difference in reduced mass of the radiator (H or D)-perturber (presumably Ar⁺) 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 observed stronger PMT signals from the D_2O samples, we are reluctant to interpret the H_{α} and D_{α} signals quantitatively.

Because it is experimentally difficult to measure the size of droplets immediately before they enter the plasma, we offer two arguments that D_2O 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 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 volumetric ratio of D₂O to H₂O at the exit of our droplet dispenser can be estimated from the corresponding ratio of the viscosities. The viscosities of D₂O and H₂O are 1.247 [41] and 1.002 [42] mPas at 20°C (i.e., a ratio of 1.24) and are 0.972 [41] and 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 H_2O droplets. This difference is opposite from what would be necessary for the observed effect on plasma impedance.

Even if the D_2O and H_2O droplets are initially of identical size, they might evaporate at dissimilar rates. Only if the evaporation rate of D_2O is not higher than that of H_2O can we persuasively argue that D_2O droplets are *not* smaller than those of H_2O when they enter the plasma. The boiling point of D_2O is 101.4°C, slightly higher than that of H_2O . From room temperature to their boiling points, the vapor pressure of H₂O is always slightly higher than D₂O, 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 D_2O droplets evaporate faster than H₂O droplets during their journey from the dispenser to the 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 H_2O and D_2O droplets with diameters of 12 to 15 μ m at temperatures between 3.6°C and 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 difference less than the exposure time of a single ICCD image frame (i.e., 100 µs). Furthermore, through doping the droplets with Ba, it was found that the time for the first appearance of Ba emission as well as the integrated Ba emission for H₂O and D₂O droplets was indistinguishable. In all cases, the measured difference is not significant compared to experimental uncertainties. If anything, evaporation of D₂O droplets is marginally slower than H₂O droplets, suggesting that the D₂O droplets might be marginally larger in size than those of H₂O.

Figure 2a shows the net (i.e., after background correction with an image taken at steady state) monochromatic images, with a time stamp of 1.55 ms after the H_{α}-PMT trigger, during single-droplet introduction into the plasma at H_{α} 656.3 nm and D_{α} 656.1 nm. The exposure time of the ICCD was 100 µs, 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, counting from the bottom. A comparison of the two images reveals that the localized D_{α} emission is stronger than that of H_{α} , suggesting that it took slightly longer for the D₂O 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. 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 the H_{α} trigger during H₂O and D₂O droplet introduction. This is the first frame in which 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. 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 D_2O was likely less than 100 µs, since the first appearance of analyte emission was at 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 100 µs 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].

From the vertical time-dependent centroid of the H_{α} and D_{α} emission clouds, one can 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 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 additional insight into the relative sizes of the H_2O and D_2O droplets. To a first 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 times. The small dip at ~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 plasma continuum emission. The dip at ~ 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 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 D_2O droplets could be slightly larger, but definitely *not* smaller than their H_2O counterparts. This finding is critical, because as will be shown, plasma perturbations 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 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 D_2O . 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. In addition, H₂O and D₂O 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) 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 induceoptical distortion in the collected plasma image, especially along the two sides [23].

Although the net change in Ar emission for H₂O and D₂O 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 similar for H_2O and D_2O whereas H_2O was found to induce a noticeably stronger plasma pinching effect than D₂O; the percentage reduction in Ar emission, in particular on the 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

In this section, the temporo-spatial change in relative argon emission upon H₂O and D₂O 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. 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 D_2O 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 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 the plasma, the hydrogen isotope effect again is apparent, with the influence of D_2O droplets significantly weaker than that of the H_2O droplets. The maximum decrease in Ar emission at the edge is $\sim 16\%$, larger than the $\sim 12\%$ 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 at other heights, the decline in Ar emission is similar for H₂O and D₂O 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 372 could unambiguously be detected, suggesting rapid diffusion of the effect throughout the 373 plasma. Generally speaking, whenever plasma shrinkage is clearly detected, the effect 374 induced by H_2O droplets is larger than that by D_2O droplets, although the difference was 375 smaller compared to the behavior in lower regions of the load coil (cf. Figures 7a and 7b).

3.5 R

5 Rate of change of plasma impedance

Sections 3.1 and 3.4 compared changes in plasma impedance and plasma shrinkage that resulted when monodisperse H₂O and D₂O 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 plasma-impedance signals) as a function of time upon H₂O and D₂O droplet introduction. Because the absolute changes in plasma impedance signals are smaller for D₂O droplets, the rate of change for D₂O is also lower. In addition, slight delays were observed 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 (i.e., when derivatives equal zero) at 1.61 ms for H_2O and 1.75 ms for D_2O . 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.

393 The bandwidths of the RF-probe coil and phase-detector circuits were previously 394 determined to be 1,300 and 15,000 Hz, respectively [21].

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). Notice that decay of the droplet-induced effect on plasma impedance is similar for H_2O and D_2O and that it takes a comparatively long time (~10 ms) for the plasma impedance 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

415 work, the droplet did not undergo complete evaporation in the load-coil region and we 416 observed localized H atomic and OH molecular emission continuously travelling upward 417 from -15 mm to +1 mm in height (referenced to the top of the load coil) in the captured 418 monochromatic images [23]. In contrast, in the present study, complete solvent 419 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, 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 for H_2O and D_2O 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 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 change in plasma impedance and plasma shrinkage induced by H₂O and D₂O 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 437 aerosol droplet. The first transition points were around 0.63 and 0.73 ms for H₂O and 438 D₂O droplets, respectively (cf. Figure 8b). The first transition point was previously found 439 [23] to correspond to the moment when the thermal pinch and plasma shrinkage became 440 established in the load-coil region of the plasma. Figure 7c supports this observation; 441 argon emission clearly drops at the edge of the plasma (i.e., thermal pinch and plasma 442 shrinkage) at ~0.7 ms. Therefore, the same conclusion applies in the present case in 443 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 occurred at 1.61 and 1.75 ms for H₂O and D₂O 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, and before it begins to return to the baseline [23]. For H₂O and D₂O 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 transition. In the present study, this transition occurred around 4.8 ms for both H_2O and D₂O droplets. Although no monochromatic image was taken after 4 ms in the present study, the H_{α} -PMT signal sheds some light on this transition point. Comparing Figures 1 and 8b, one can see that the fourth transition point coincides with the time when the H_{α} -PMT signal approaches a horizontal line. Although it had not been explicitly pointed out, a similar correlation between the final transition points of the phase-detector and H_{α} -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

In our experiments, changing between H₂O and D₂O involves removing and re-installing the monodisperse droplet generator from the base of the plasma torch. As a result, it was 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 the solution from H₂O to D₂O 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 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. Regardless, the key feature in Figures 9a and 9b is that the several traces for either H₂O or D₂O are more similar to each other than to the traces from the other sample type. Clearly, H_2O 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 RF-probe and phase-detector signals for D₂O to those for H₂O samples. Clearly, D₂O induces a significantly and consistently smaller change in plasma impedance than H_2O . 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 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 D_2O droplets than H_2O 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 H_2O droplets is considerably larger than that from D_2O . 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 readily compared since they vary as mass^{$-\frac{1}{2}$} [26-28]. This means that thermal conductivity of atomic deuterium is about 71% of that of atomic protium, which agrees 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.

The first possibility to be considered is the thermal conductivity of H_2O and D_2O molecules. After all, the thermal conductivities of gaseous H₂O and D₂O are also higher than that of argon. For example, the thermal conductivities of gaseous D₂O and Ar at 2500 K are, respectively, 0.31 [57] and 0.08 [58] W m⁻¹ K⁻¹. However, the thermal conductivity ratios of D₂O to H₂O 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 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]. Because the difference in thermal conductivities between H₂O and D₂O is only a few percent, it is unlikely that thermal conductivity of the intact molecules would cause achange in plasma impedance as large as observed.

Another possible alternative explanation is a difference in the decomposition kinetics of H_2O and D_2O . 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 H_2O and D_2O 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 H_2O and D_2O 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 H_2O and D_2O 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 arguments and experimental inference, H_2O and D_2O droplets produced by a piezoelectric-based on-demand monodisperse droplet generator are very similar in size; the D_2O droplets might be marginally larger, but definitely are *not* smaller than those of H_2O . 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. Quantitatively, changes in plasma-impedance signals caused by D_2O droplet introduction ranged from 52% to 80% of those generated by their H_2O 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 similar for H₂O and D₂O and it takes a comparatively long time (\sim 10 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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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.

14 15 16 17 18 19 20 21		Area [†] of RF-probe signal	Peak height of RF-probe signal	Area [†] of phase- detector signal	Peak height of phase- detector signal	
22 23 24 25 26 27 28 29 30 31 32 33 34 35 36 37 38 39 40 41 42 43 44 45 46	Sample change [*] between individual measurements; droplet evaporation was incomplete in the load-coil region (conditions very similar to our previous work [23]); temporal profiles are shown in Figures 9a and 9b; $n = 4$	0.56±0.07	0.52±0.07	0.63±0.12	0.65±0.09	
	Sample change [*] between individual measurements; droplet evaporation was likely complete near the top of the load-coil region; $n = 4$	0.59±0.11	0.58±0.09	0.71±0.09	0.72±0.05	
	No sample change [*] between individual measurements; complete droplet evaporation was midway in the load-coil region; temporal profiles are shown in Figure 1; $n = 5$	0.63±0.15	0.64±0.07	0.80±0.09	0.80±0.06	
47 48 49 50 51 52 53 54 55 56 57 58 59 60	[†] Area is defined as the baseline-corrected integrated signal from 0 ms to end of the captured temporal profile, typically at ~8.5 ms. [*] "Sample change" is defined as the sequence of micropump removal, sample change of H ₂ O–D ₂ O, and micropump re-installation.					
61 62 63 64					34	

753		Figure Captions
754	Figure 1	Averaged ($n = 5 \times 1280$) oscilloscope traces of the signals from the H _a -
755		PMT, the RF-probe coil and the phase detector during repetitive H_2O and
756		D ₂ O single-droplet introduction into the ICP. The RF-probe and phase-
757		detector signals were measured in ac- and dc-coupling modes, respectively.
758		The error bars represent the standard deviations from the five
759		measurements. Because the temporal traces contain 2500 data points, for
760		clarity of the figure, error bars are shown only for every 75 data points.
761	Figure 2	Net monochromatic images (i.e., after subtraction of steady-state plasma
762		emission) of the ICP load-coil region at H I 656.3 nm for H_2O and D I
763		656.1 nm for D_2O (as marked), during repetitive introduction of
764		monodisperse microdroplets into the ICP. The vertical and horizontal
765		scales marked on the four edges of the images are in units of millimeters.
766		Time stamps: (a) 1.55 ms, and (b) 1.65 ms after the H_{α} -PMT trigger.
767	Figure 3	Net monochromatic images (i.e., after subtraction of steady-state plasma
768		emission) of the ICP load-coil region at Ba II 455.4 nm during repetitive
769		introduction of monodisperse H_2O and D_2O (as marked) microdroplets
770		into the ICP. The vertical and horizontal scales marked on the four edges
771		of the images are in units of millimeters. Time stamp: 1.65 ms after the
772		H_{α} -PMT trigger.
773	Figure 4	Vertical positions of the H_2O and D_2O droplets in the ICP as a function of
774		time. The data are fitted with a quadratic function. The three regions
775		denoted by dotted lines represent the three selected vertical heights at

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.

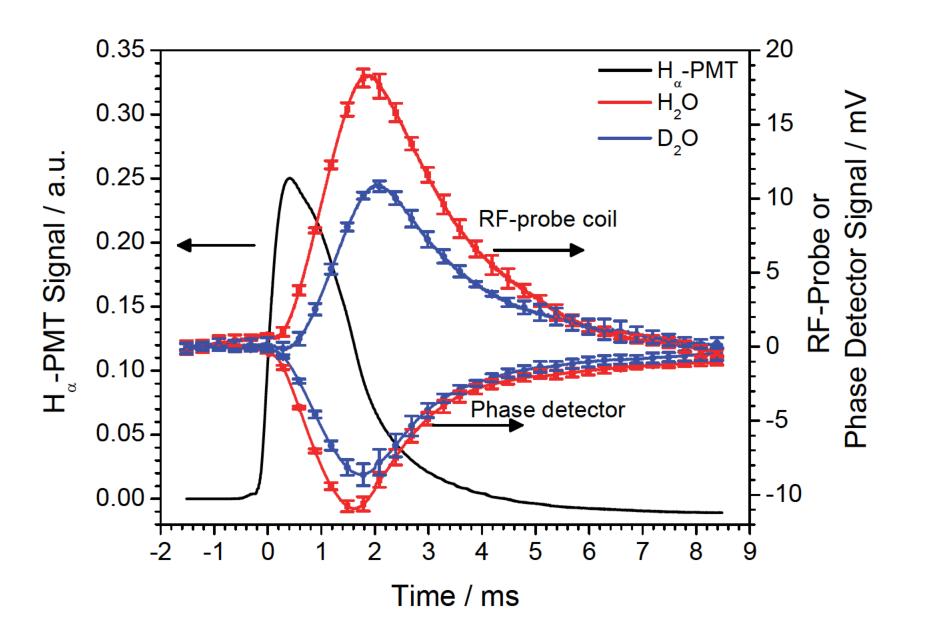
Figure 5 Temporal profile of spatially integrated Ba II emission over all vertical
locations and between ±2 mm of the plasma center. The dip at ~1.9 ms
was caused by obstruction of part of the Ba emission cloud by the load
coil.

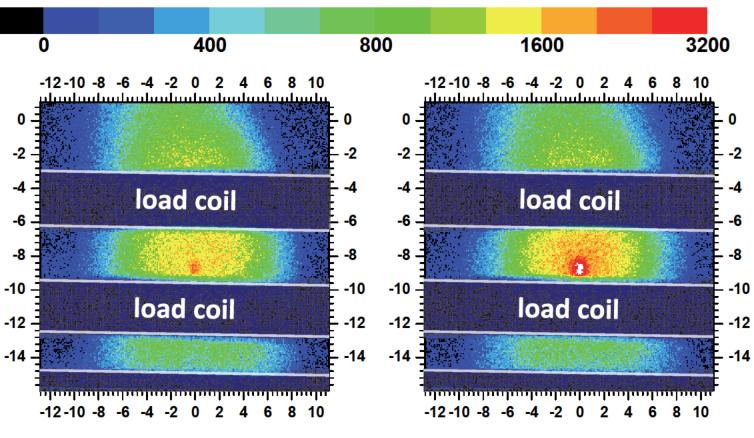
783Figure 6(a) Net absolute, and (b) percentage change in Ar I 696.5 nm emission,784relative to steady state, at 1.55 ms after the H_{α} -PMT trigger, caused by785repetitive introduction of monodisperse H_2O and D_2O microdroplets into786the ICP.

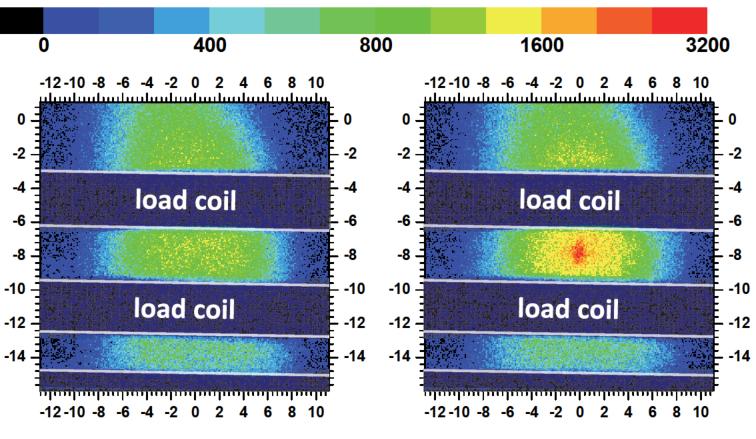
1787Figure 7Temporal profiles of the relative change in Ar I 696.5 nm emission at the3788left edge (within 0.8 mm) and center (\pm 0.9 mm) of the plasma during5789repetitive introduction of monodisperse H₂O and D₂O microdroplets into6790the ICP. Vertical heights were (a) -14.3, (b) -8.0, and (c) -1.7 mm with7791reference to the top of the load coil. Note different vertical scales in plots3792for center and left edge of plasma.

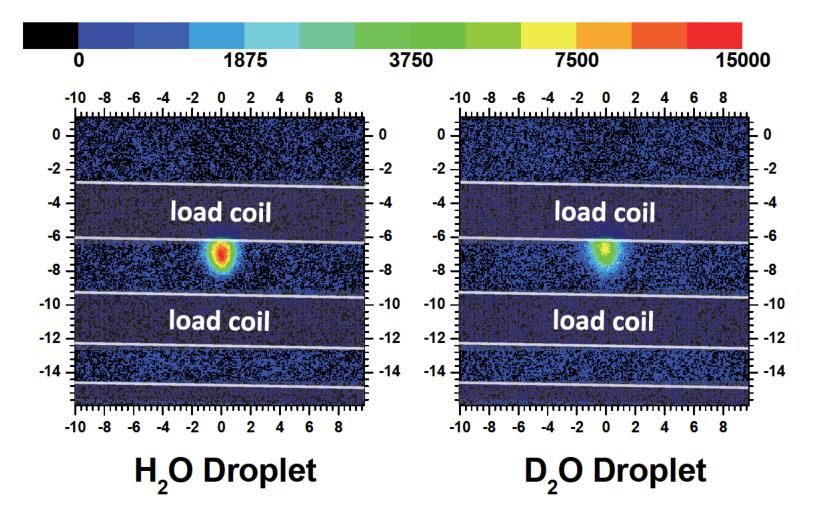
5793Figure 8Rates of change (first derivatives) of (a) originally measured, and (b)794normalized H_{α} -PMT, RF-probe coil and phase-detector signals during795repetitive H_2O and D_2O single-droplet introduction into the ICP. Four796notable transitions in the temporal profiles and their derivatives are797marked as Arrows I, II, III and IV (see text for discussion). The error bars798represent the standard deviations from the five measurements. Because

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3 4 5	799		the temporal traces for the derivatives contain 100 data points, for clari	ity
6 7 8 9 10	800		of the figure, error bars are shown only for every 3 data points.	
	801	Figure 9	Temporal profiles of (a) RF-probe, and (b) phase-detector signals durin	ng
11 12	802		repetitive H ₂ O and D ₂ O single-droplet introduction into the ICP. Fo	ur
13 14 15	803		individual measurement cycles between the H_2O and the D_2O sample	es
16 17	804		were acquired. The sequence of micropump removal, sample change	ge
18 19 20	805		between H_2O and D_2O , and micropump re-installation was performed	ed
21 22	806		between trials in each set of measurements.	
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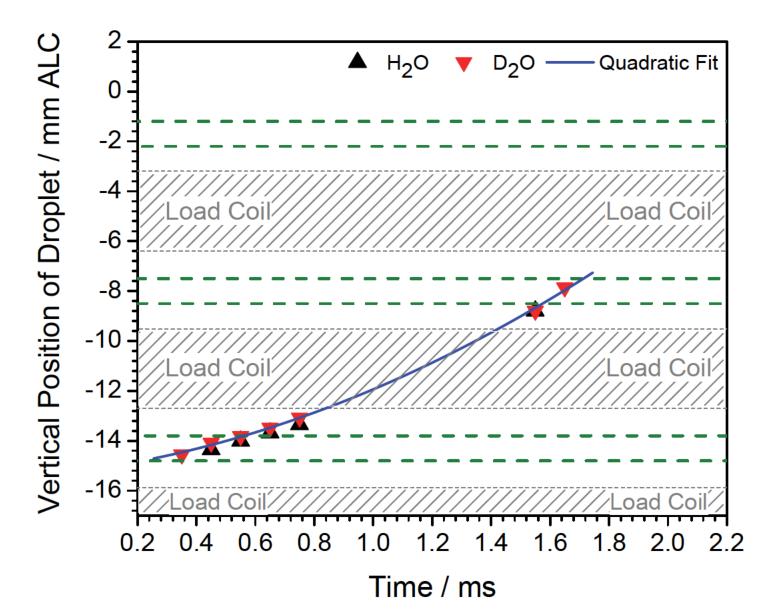
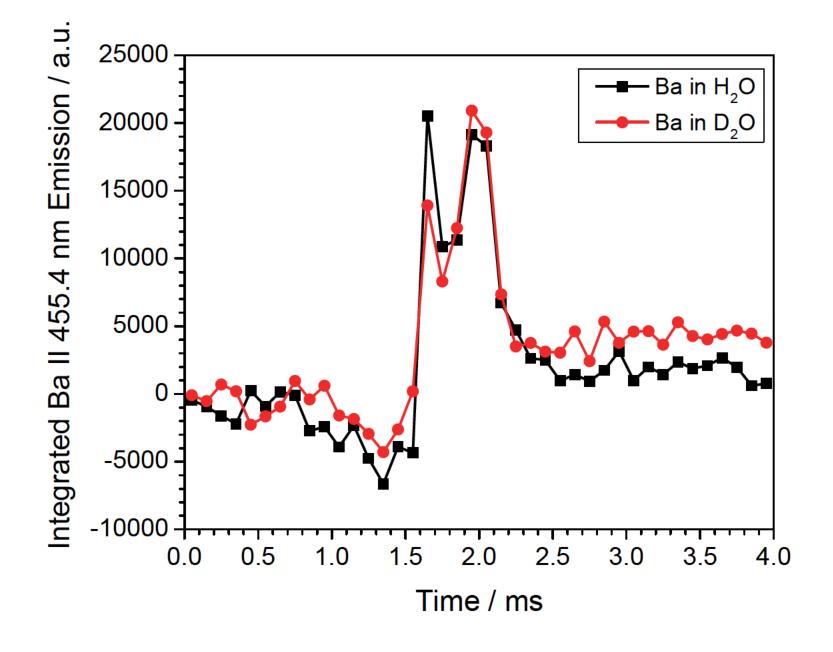
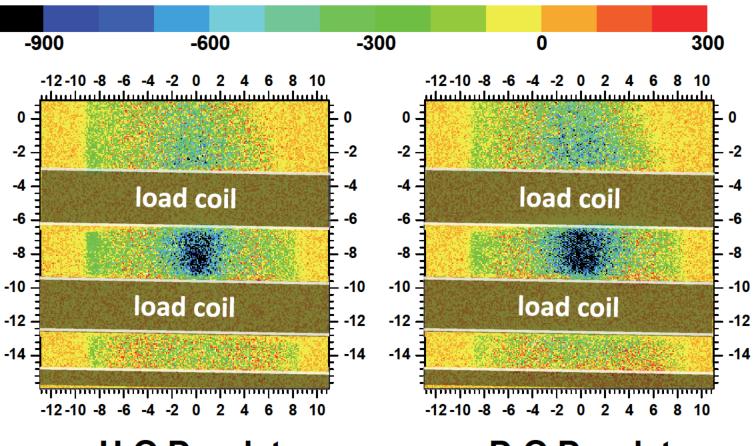
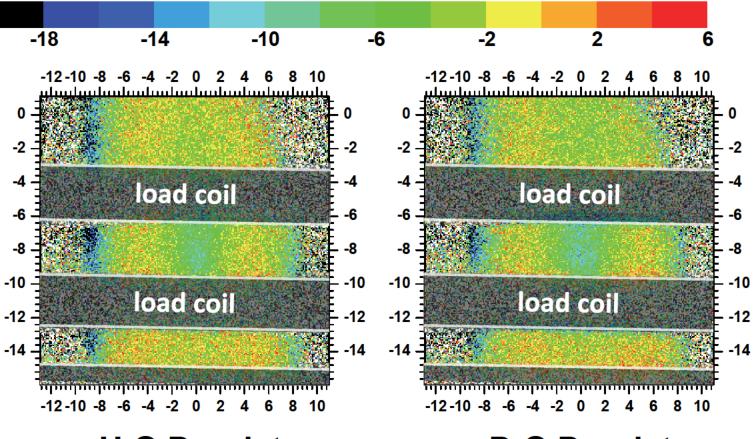
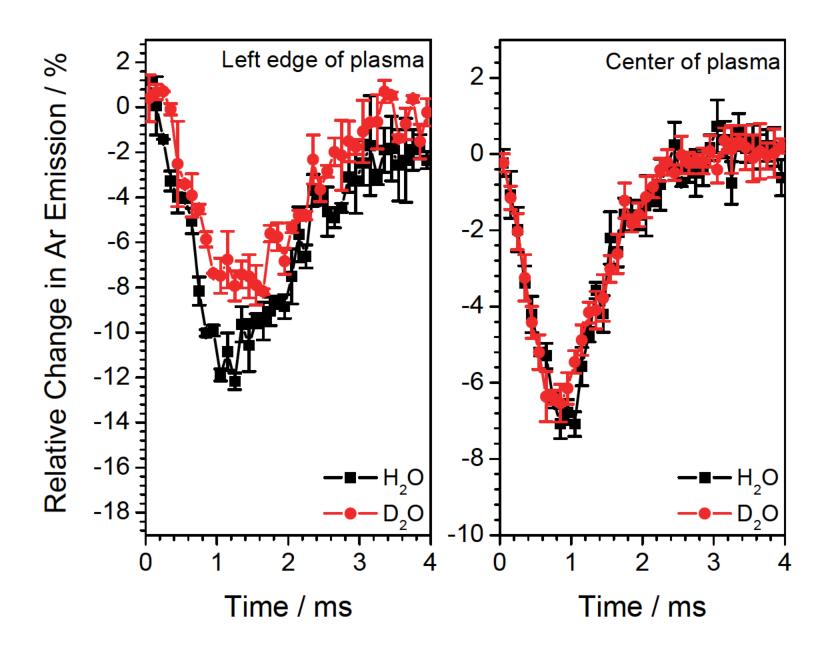


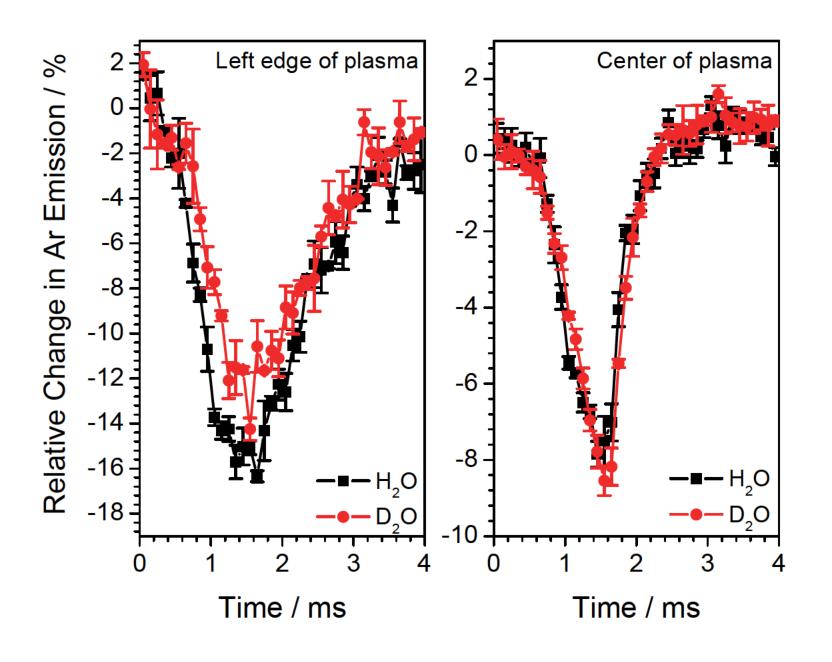
Figure 5

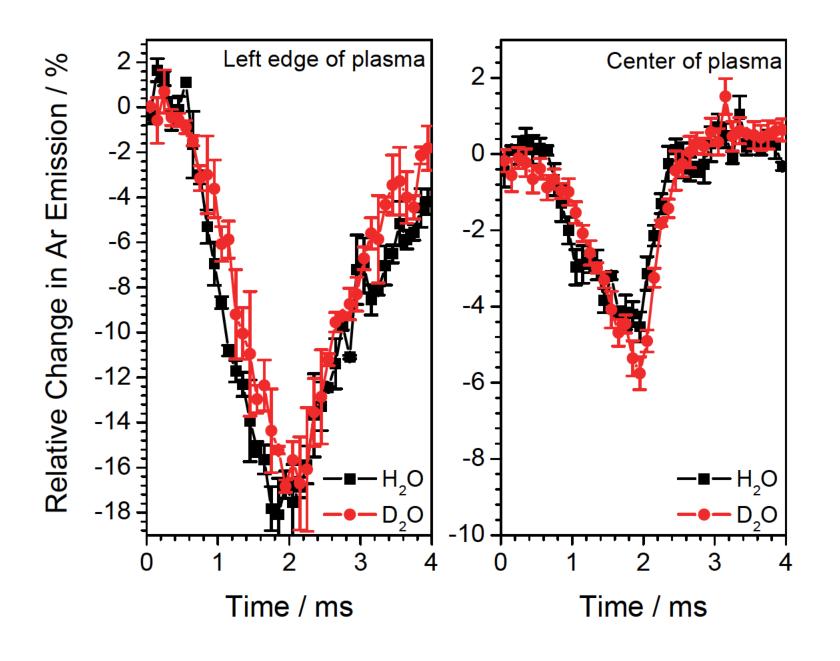


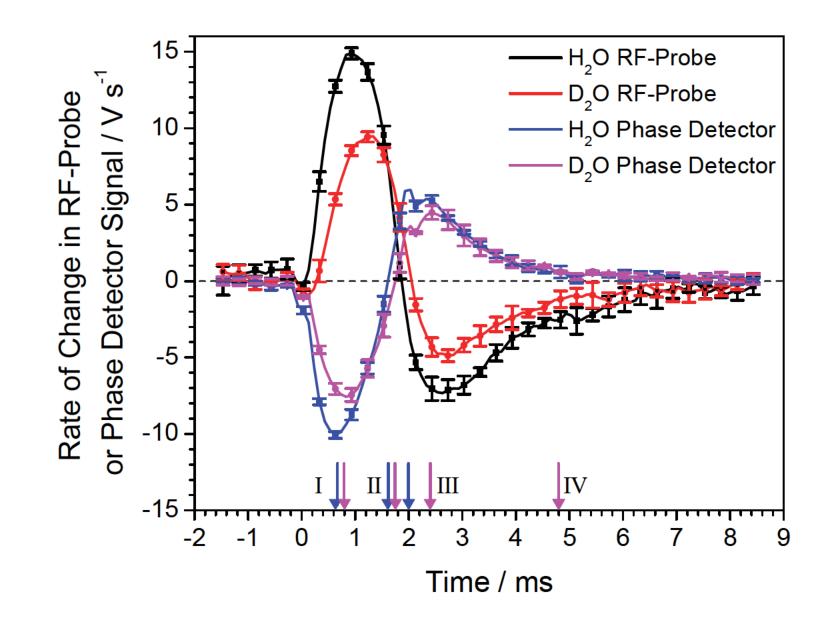












First Derivative of Normalized RF-Probe or Phase Detector Signal / a.u. 1.0 H₂O RF-Probe **0.8** D₂O RF-Probe 0.6 H₂O Phase Detector D₂O Phase Detector 0.4 0.2-0.0 -0.2 -0.4 -0.6 --0.8 -1.0 III Π IV -1.2 5 8 -2 9 -1 0 2 3 6 4 1 7

Time / ms

Figure 8b

