

# Laser Heating Dynamics of Poly(methyl methacrylate) Films Doped with Aromatic Molecules as Revealed by Analysis of Diffusion of Triplet States

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(Received October 15, 2002)

The 248 nm laser heating dynamics of poly(methyl methacrylate) (PMMA) doped with biphenyl or *p*-terphenyl was studied quantitatively by the analysis of temperature-dependent  $T_1$ - $T_1$  annihilation, which is a result of the thermally-activated diffusion of the dopants. The values of the second-order rate constant  $k_2$  ( $M^{-1} s^{-1}$ ) for the annihilation were obtained at several temperatures (293–363 K) under weak laser excitation ( $2\text{--}4 \text{ mJ cm}^{-2}$ ). Arrhenius plots of  $k_2$  for both films resulted in straight lines that were used to estimate the rate constant at higher temperatures for the simulation of  $T_1$ - $T_1$  annihilation. Under intense excitation ( $100\text{--}190 \text{ mJ cm}^{-2}$ ), the  $T_1$  decays of both films occurred faster with increased laser fluence. The comparison between these observed  $T_1$  decays and the simulated ones revealed the following: (1) most of the absorbed photon energy, at least 70%, is used to increase the temperature of the polymer, (2) the cooling of the polymer, mainly due to heat transfer into the quartz substrate, slows down the diffusion of the dopants and, accordingly, the  $T_1$ - $T_1$  annihilation, and (3) the temperature at the polymer-quartz interface after laser excitation remains almost constant up to at least a few microseconds.

In recent years, we have studied a novel and interesting phenomenon: a dopant in a polymer can absorb several UV or vis photons during nanosecond laser excitation.<sup>1–7</sup> The existence of such multiphoton absorption was first suggested by a time-of-flight mass spectroscopic experiment on a 351 nm ablation of anthracene-doped poly(methyl methacrylate) (PMMA).<sup>1</sup> Later, the multiphoton absorption was confirmed for PMMA doped with biphenyl or pyrene by directly monitoring the transmitted excitation laser pulse.<sup>3,5</sup>

In the near-IR region (1064 nm), prior to our work, Dlott et al. had confirmed that a near-IR dye, IR-165, in PMMA can absorb several tens of photons even with a 25-ps pulse.<sup>8–11</sup> They attributed the multiphoton absorption to the absorption and quite efficient internal conversion between  $S_0$  and  $S_1$  states.<sup>8</sup> In general (especially with UV or vis excitation), large energy gap between both states results in inefficient  $S_1 \rightarrow S_0$  internal conversion, and thus it is quite difficult to expect this type of multiphoton absorption for other molecules, except for a few exceptional cases (e.g. azulene).<sup>12</sup>

On the other hand, we have found multiphoton absorption for the following dopants: anthracenes,<sup>1,2</sup> biphenyl,<sup>3</sup> pyrene,<sup>3,5</sup> 5-diazo Meldrum's acid,<sup>4</sup> porphyrins,<sup>6</sup> and *N,N,N',N'*-tetramethyl-*p*-phenylenediamine (TMPD).<sup>7</sup> To explain this finding we have proposed the "cyclic multiphotonic absorption" mechanism (Fig. 1), where dopant transients work as repetitive absorbers of laser photons.<sup>1,2</sup> Intense excitation of a dopant,

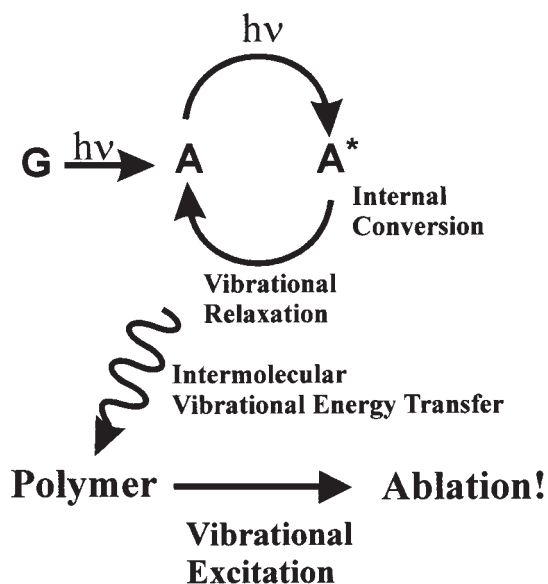


Fig. 1. Schematic representation of the cyclic multiphotonic absorption mechanism. The symbol G represents the ground state of a dopant. The symbols A and A\* represent transient states of a dopant and their excited states respectively.

which is initially in the ground state (G), should result in the dense formation of transient states (A), such as the lowest excited singlet ( $S_1$ ) and triplet ( $T_1$ ) states, cations, and anions.

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The higher excited states ( $A^*$ , e.g.  $S_n$ ,  $T_n$ , and excited states of ions), which are produced by the successive absorption of excitation photons, generally have a lifetime much shorter than the duration of a nanosecond laser pulse. The rapid relaxation of those states to the original transient states allows for the cyclic absorption of excitation photons. This mechanism can apply to molecules whose transient states have substantial absorption coefficients at the excitation wavelength.

The relaxation  $A^* \rightarrow A$  should consist of the internal conversion in the dopant and the subsequent intermolecular vibrational energy transfer from the dopant to the surrounding matrix polymer. As a result, the matrix polymer should be heated up repeatedly during the multiphoton absorption. When the laser fluence is high enough, the matrix polymer should thermally decompose rapidly, resulting in ablation.<sup>1-7</sup> The expected temperature increase of the matrix polymer has been confirmed qualitatively on the basis of the broadening of the dopant fluorescence spectra.<sup>5,6</sup> However, there has been no quantitative discussion about the thermal dynamics of the matrix polymer including its rapid temperature increase, mainly because there has been much difficulty in the temperature measurement on a nanosecond time-scale. Dlott et al. has reported an approach to estimate the rapid temperature elevation of PMMA doped with IR-165 under picosecond or nanosecond laser excitation.<sup>8-11</sup> Unfortunately, their estimation technique can not be applied to our present study for the following reasons: First, their excitation wavelength is 1064 nm, far from UV. Second, their temperature estimation is based on the specific temperature dependence of the photoabsorption by IR-165 at 532 or 633 nm.

The purpose of this work, therefore, is to investigate the thermal dynamics quantitatively by using an original method based on the diffusion of a dopant in the  $T_1$  state. The main focus is to make use of the temperature-dependent  $T_1$ - $T_1$  annihilation. El-Sayed et al. indicated, after examining the phosphorescence decays of several aromatic molecules in PMMA, that a temperature increase from 77 K to about 300 K results in the appearance of effective  $T_1$ - $T_1$  annihilation due to increased diffusion of the solute aromatics.<sup>13</sup> They also indicated that the Arrhenius plots of the obtained second-order rate constants ( $k_2$ ) for the annihilation are well fitted to straight lines. We applied their finding to the temperature estimation at higher temperatures. We used similar Arrhenius plots to estimate the  $k_2$  values at high temperatures after intense laser excitation. We developed a computer simulation of the temperature change caused by laser excitation and the resulting temperature-dependent  $T_1$  decay with the estimated  $k_2$  values. The comparison of the  $T_1$  decays observed by transient absorption spectroscopy with those calculated by the simulation revealed the thermal dynamics of the doped-polymer after intense laser excitation.

For the present purpose, the chosen dopants are biphenyl and *p*-terphenyl, mainly because the experimental data of both dopants has been well accumulated, including our previous ablation studies.<sup>3,14-16</sup>

### Experimental

**Samples.** PMMA (polymerization degree  $\approx 1000$ , supplied by Kuraray Co. Ltd.) was purified by reprecipitating it from benzene

solution with methanol repeatedly. Biphenyl (zone refined, Tokyo Kasei) was used as received. *p*-Terphenyl (Scintillation grade, Tokyo Kasei) was purified by a homemade zone-refiner. Chlorobenzene (99%, Wako) was purified by shaking repeatedly with portions of sulfuric acid. It was then washed with water, followed by dilute sodium hydroxide solution, dried with anhydrous calcium chloride, and fractionally distilled. Sample films, biphenyl-doped PMMA (BP/PMMA) and *p*-terphenyl-doped PMMA (PT/PMMA), were prepared by spin-coating on a quartz plate from the solution of PMMA and dopant (biphenyl or *p*-terphenyl) in chlorobenzene. The films were dried under vacuum at room temperature for several hours. The dopant concentration and absorption coefficient of BP/PMMA were 0.093 M and  $0.41 \mu\text{m}^{-1}$ , respectively, and those of PT/PMMA were 0.14 M and  $0.26 \mu\text{m}^{-1}$ , respectively. The film thickness of both BP/PMMA and PT/PMMA was 2  $\mu\text{m}$ , except that it was 1  $\mu\text{m}$  for the  $T_1$  absorption decay measurement under intense excitation.

**Laser Irradiation.** A KrF excimer laser (248 nm, Lambda Physik, EMG201MSC) was used for the irradiation of the films. The laser pulse width was about 30 ns. The laser pulse was trimmed through an aperture and focused normally (except for the temperature-controlled experiment described below) onto a film surface by using a quartz lens. The laser fluence was adjusted by placing partially transmitting laser mirrors in front of the laser output. In the case of intense excitation (a laser fluence higher than  $10 \text{ mJ}/\text{cm}^2$ ), we irradiated a fresh film surface to avoid complexities arising from the interactions between the irradiated surface and the successive laser pulses. To monitor the laser absorption by the sample films, we observed the incident and transmitted excitation laser pulses with two photodiodes.

**Transient Absorption Measurement at Various Temperatures.** Figure 2 shows the experimental set-up for transient absorption measurement at controlled temperatures. The sample film was placed in a vacuum photolysis chamber equipped with quartz windows. The pressure inside the chamber was about  $1 \times$

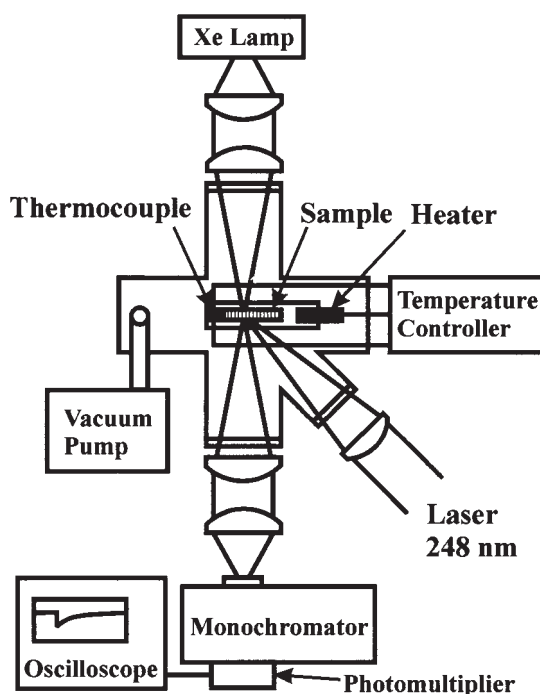


Fig. 2. Experimental set-up for transient absorption measurement at controlled temperatures.

$10^{-3}$  Torr. The film was interposed between two copper plates attached to a ceramic heater. A thermocouple was also attached to the sample quartz plate. Both heater and thermocouple were electrically controlled by a temperature controller to achieve and keep a desired temperature ( $\sim 363$  K). The sample film was irradiated with a  $2\text{--}4\text{ mJ cm}^{-2}$  pulse whose fluence was low enough to neglect the temperature elevation by laser excitation. A pulsed 150 W xenon lamp (Wakom, KXL-150F or Hamamatsu, L2274) was used as a monitoring light source. The monitoring light was incident vertically to the film while the excitation laser was incident at  $45^\circ$  to the film. The transmitted monitoring light was passed through a monochromator and detected by a photomultiplier (RCA, 1P28). The photocurrent signal ran into a  $1\text{--}50\text{ k}\Omega$  terminator and the resulting voltage signal was monitored and recorded on a digital oscilloscope (Hewlett-Packard, HP54510A). The transient absorption decay was calculated on a personal computer from the time profiles of the signals with and without excitation.

**Transient Absorption Measurement under Intense Excitation.** The details of the transient absorption measurement under intense excitation were described elsewhere,<sup>4,16</sup> and we only summarize them here. A pulsed 150 or 300 W xenon lamp (Wakom, KXL-150F or KXL300F) was used as a monitoring light source. The monitoring light was incident at  $45^\circ$  to the film, while the excitation laser was incident vertically to the film.<sup>17</sup> The transmitted monitoring light was detected and recorded by using a combination of a polychromator (Jovin Yvon, HR-320) and a streak camera system (Hamamatsu, C2830 and C3140). The streak images with and without laser excitation were averaged over more than 10 measurements, from which the rise-and-decay curves were obtained. The origin of the time axis, 0 ns, is defined as the time when the intensity of the excitation laser pulse at the film surface became maximum. The measurements were done in air at room temperature.

## Results and Discussion

### Confirmation of the Cyclic Multiphotonic Absorption.

A preliminary experiment confirmed that the ablation thresholds of BP/PMMA and PT/PMMA are  $330\text{ mJ cm}^{-2}$  and  $280\text{ mJ cm}^{-2}$ , respectively. In the present study, we irradiated the sample films below the ablation thresholds to eliminate complexities arising from morphological changes, such as scattering of the monitoring lights. From the observation of the incident and transmitted excitation laser pulses, we calculated the effective absorbance at the excitation wavelength of 248 nm (Fig. 3a). With an increase in the excitation fluence, the absorbance of both films decreases up to about  $100\text{ mJ cm}^{-2}$ , and then reaches almost steady values. This is undoubtedly because intense laser excitation produces appreciable amounts of transient states that have absorption coefficients different from that of the ground state. To specify the transient states contributing to the absorbance change is an interesting but quite difficult subject,<sup>5</sup> and here we only concentrate on the energy absorption and dissipation of the sample films.

From the effective absorbance, the dopant concentration, the film thickness, and the fluence, we can calculate the number of photons absorbed per dopant molecule averaged over the film (Fig. 3b). This calculation clearly shows that the numbers increase with an increase in the laser fluence, and that both do-

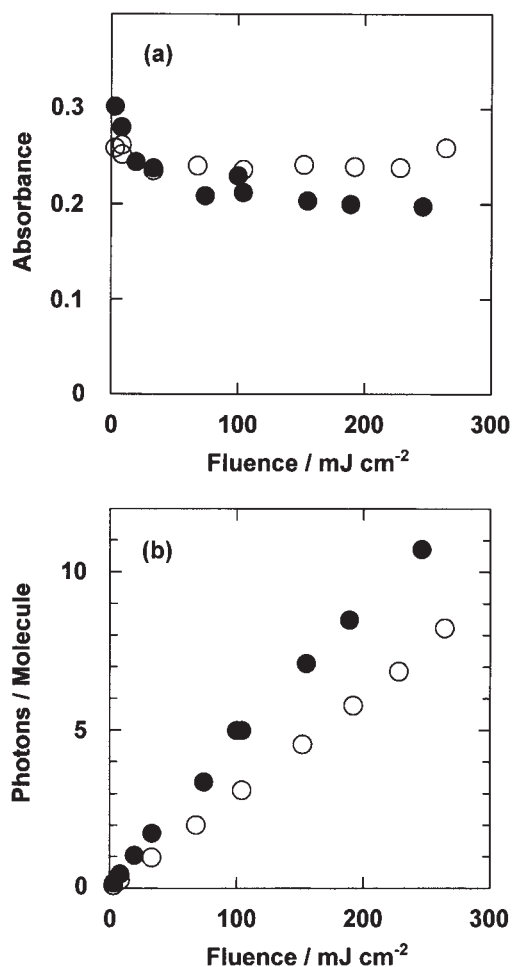


Fig. 3. Quantitative analysis of the fluence dependent photoabsorption by the sample films. (a) Fluence dependence of the effective absorbance at the excitation laser wavelength of 248 nm. (b) Fluence dependence of the absorbed photon number per dopant. Closed circles show the data for biphenyl-doped poly(methyl methacrylate), while open circles show those for *p*-terphenyl-doped poly(methyl methacrylate).

pants absorb several 248 nm photons slightly below the ablation thresholds. Figure 4 shows the absorption spectra of the sample films, which were measured on a conventional spectrophotometer, before and after laser irradiation ( $220\text{ mJ cm}^{-2}$  for BP/PMMA and  $190\text{ mJ cm}^{-2}$  for PT/PMMA). The characteristics of the absorption spectra after the irradiation are the same for both samples. Namely, the spectra after the irradiation became slightly broader, and the absorbance around the peak slightly decreased, while the absorbance in the tails slightly increased. However, in spite of the characteristics of the changes mentioned here, we can safely conclude from Fig. 4 that almost all the dopants in PMMA survive after the intense irradiation. Note that about 10 photons are absorbed per dopant for BP/PMMA at  $220\text{ mJ cm}^{-2}$  and that about 6 photons are absorbed per dopant for PT/PMMA at  $190\text{ mJ cm}^{-2}$ . The survival of the dopants after the absorption of several UV photons indicates a quite efficient transfer of the absorbed photon energy from the dopants to the matrix polymer, which is in good agreement with the cyclic multiphotonic

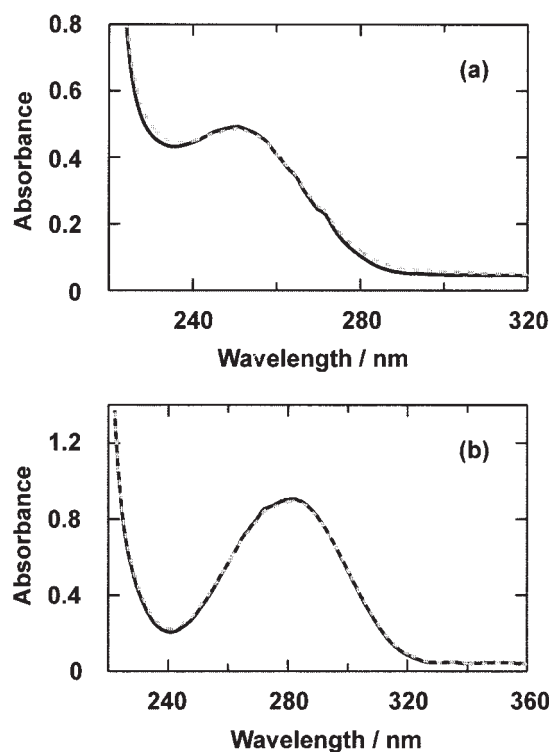


Fig. 4. Absorption spectral changes of poly(methyl methacrylate) doped with (a) biphenyl and with (b) *p*-terphenyl. The black solid and gray dashed lines represent the spectra before and after laser irradiation; the laser fluences were  $220 \text{ mJ cm}^{-2}$  for biphenyl-doped poly(methyl methacrylate) and  $190 \text{ mJ cm}^{-2}$  for *p*-terphenyl-doped poly(methyl methacrylate), respectively.

absorption mechanism.

Quite similar results regarding both multiphoton absorption and dopant survival have been reported for pyrene-doped PMMA previously.<sup>5</sup> Furthermore, experimental results of aromatic molecules in several organic solvents suggested that cyclic multiphotonic absorption also occurs in liquid matrices.<sup>18–20</sup> Therefore, our proposed mechanism should be generally true for light-absorbing molecules in condensed matrices under intense excitation. In addition to the pure photophysical interests described above, cyclic multiphotonic absorption has also become important in practical applications. Recent papers reported that cyclic multiphotonic absorption should occur in the following novel micro-fabrication processes: (i) laser molecular implantation into polymer films;<sup>21–24</sup> (ii) etching of fused silica in contact with acetone doped with pyrene.<sup>19,20</sup>

**Temperature Dependence of  $T_1$ - $T_1$  Annihilation.** We investigated the decay profiles of the  $T_n \leftarrow T_1$  absorption for both BP/PMMA (370 nm) and PT/PMMA (455 nm) at every 10 K from 293 K (20 °C) to 363 K (90 °C); Figure 5 shows the decay profiles at 313 K and 353 K. For both films the decay became rapid with an increase in the temperature, which is well interpreted in terms of diffusion-controlled  $T_1$ - $T_1$  annihilation.<sup>5,13</sup> This annihilation occurs when a certain pair of  $T_1$  states collides with each other through diffusion in a ma-

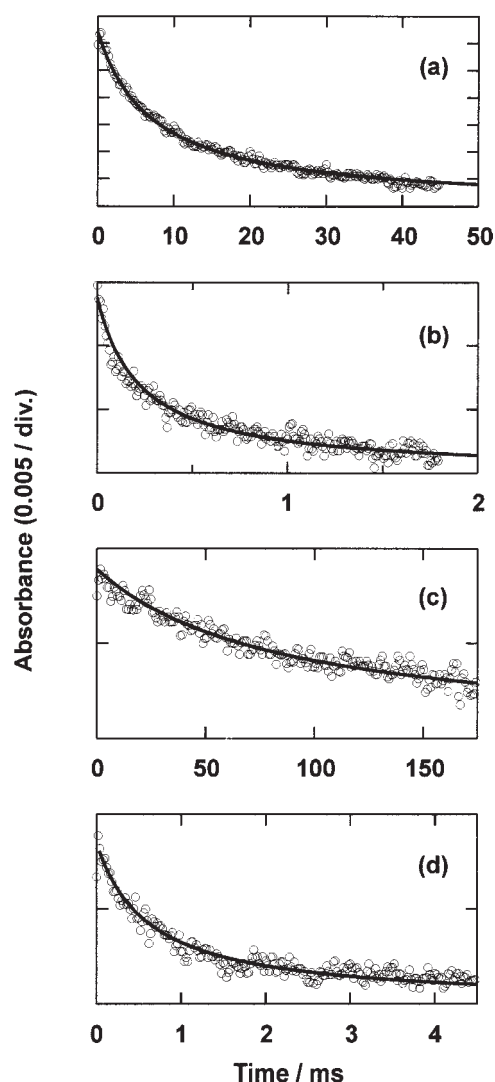


Fig. 5. Temperature dependence of the  $T_n \leftarrow T_1$  absorption decay. Open circles show the decay of 370 nm absorption of biphenyl-doped poly(methyl methacrylate) at (a) 313 K and (b) 353 K and the decay of 455 nm absorption of *p*-terphenyl-doped poly(methyl methacrylate) at (c) 313 K and (d) 353 K. The solid lines show the least-squares fits to the circles based on the model of the second-order annihilation process described in the text.

trix polymer, and thus can be treated as a bimolecular reaction. The decay kinetics of the  $T_1$  state are expressed by

$$\frac{d[T_1]}{dt} = -k_1[T_1] - k_2[T_1]^2 \quad (1)$$

where  $k_1 \text{ (s}^{-1}\text{)}$  is a first-order rate constant and  $k_2 \text{ (M}^{-1} \text{s}^{-1}\text{)}$  is a second-order rate constant corresponding to the  $T_1$ - $T_1$  annihilation. If  $k_2[T_1] \gg k_1$ , the right side of Eq. 1 can be simplified to  $-k_2[T_1]^2$ . In the present experiment, this simplified form is a good approximation even at room temperature; all the decay profiles were well analyzed only in terms of the  $T_1$ - $T_1$  annihilation. We integrated the simplified Eq. 1 and obtained:



$$A_{T_1,t} = \frac{1}{\frac{1}{A_{T_1,t=0}} + \frac{k_2}{\varepsilon_{T_1} d} t} \quad (2)$$

where  $A_{T_1,t}$  is the absorbance observed at time  $t$ ,  $\varepsilon_{T_1}$  is the molar absorption coefficient ( $27100 \text{ M}^{-1} \text{ cm}^{-1}$  for biphenyl and  $90000 \text{ M}^{-1} \text{ cm}^{-1}$  for *p*-terphenyl),<sup>25</sup> and  $d$  is the film thickness in cm. We applied Eq. 2 to the least squares fitting of the decay profiles, and obtained the values of  $k_2$  at every temperature for both BP/PMMA and PT/PMMA.

The diffusion of the  $T_1$  state can occur two ways: The real diffusion of the dopants, and excitation transfer. In the present case, the only possible path of the latter is the  $T_1 \rightarrow S_0$  excitation transfer, because no transient state other than the  $T_1$  state was detected spectroscopically after the laser pulse. The  $T_1 \rightarrow S_0$  excitation transfer occurs through the short range interaction of electron exchange.<sup>26</sup> Accordingly, its occurrence also needs the formation of an encounter pair of both states through diffusion. Furthermore, this excitation transfer only results in the exchange of both states in the pair. Therefore the  $T_1 \rightarrow S_0$  excitation transfer has quite a minor effect on the diffusion of the  $T_1$  state; in other words,  $T_1$  diffusion occurs primarily by the molecular diffusion of the dopants. From this, the second-order rate constant  $k_2$  can be related to the diffusion coefficient  $D$  ( $\text{cm}^2 \text{ s}^{-1}$ ) by

$$k_2 = 16 \times 10^{-10} \pi p R N D \quad (3)$$

where  $N$  is Avogadro's number,  $R$  is the molecular radius in nm,<sup>13</sup> and  $p$  ( $\leq 2$ ) is defined as the average number of the annihilated  $T_1$  states in each collision. We assume here that the present annihilation is in the diffusion limit ( $p = 2$ ); Fang et al. confirmed, in the case of benzophenone in benzene solution, that the second-order rate constant of  $T_1$ - $T_1$  annihilation is very near the diffusion limit.<sup>27</sup> At room temperature (293 K) Eq. 3, with the experimentally obtained values of  $k_2$ , gives the following values of the diffusion coefficients in PMMA,  $D = 4 \times 10^{-13} \text{ cm}^2 \text{ s}^{-1}$  for biphenyl and  $D = 7 \times 10^{-13} \text{ cm}^2 \text{ s}^{-1}$  for *p*-terphenyl; we assumed  $R = 0.7 \text{ nm}$  for biphenyl and  $R = 1.1 \text{ nm}$  for *p*-terphenyl on the basis of typical values of chemical bond lengths. The obtained values are the lowest limits using  $p \leq 2$ , and thus in good agreement with the previous suggestion of  $D \approx 10^{-12} \text{ cm}^2 \text{ s}^{-1}$  for several hydrocarbons (naphthalene, fluorene, perfluorobiphenyl, triphenylene, and coronene).<sup>13</sup>

The diffusion of aromatic molecules in a polymer should be a thermally activated process involving small-scale translational motions in the molecule or segment motion in the polymeric medium, and thus the diffusion coefficient can be expressed in Arrhenius form:

$$D = D_A \exp\left(-\frac{E_d}{RT}\right) \quad (4)$$

where  $D_A$  and  $E_d$  are the preexponential factor and the activation energy of diffusion, respectively.<sup>28</sup> On the basis of Eqs. 3 and 4, we made Arrhenius plots of  $k_2$  (Fig. 6). Both plots were well fitted with straight lines, and then gave:

$$k_2 = 1.74 \times 10^{21} \exp(-1.22 \times 10^4/T) \quad \text{for BP/PMMA} \quad (5)$$

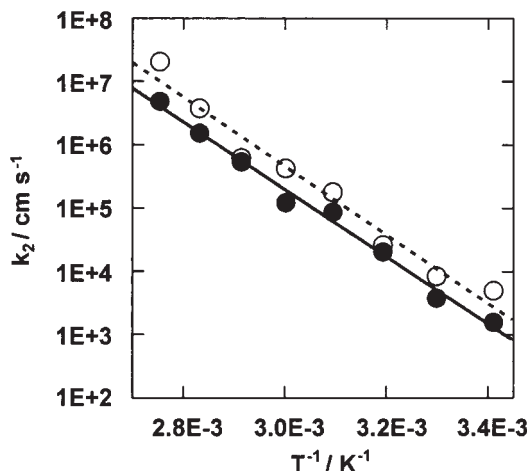


Fig. 6. Arrhenius plots of the second-order rate constant of the  $T_1$  state for biphenyl-doped poly(methyl methacrylate) (closed circles) and *p*-terphenyl-doped poly(methyl methacrylate) (open circles). The solid and dashed lines are linear least-squares fits to the circles for biphenyl-doped poly(methyl methacrylate) and *p*-terphenyl-doped poly(methyl methacrylate), respectively.

$$k_2 = 9.11 \times 10^{21} \exp(-1.25 \times 10^4/T) \quad \text{for PT/PMMA} \quad (6)$$

where  $T$  is the film temperature. The activation energy was calculated to be  $102 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1}$  for BP/PMMA and  $104 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1}$  for PT/PMMA. These values are in good agreement with the previously reported values (ca.  $50$ – $100 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1}$ ) for the diffusion of the hydrocarbons mentioned above in PMMA at around room temperature.<sup>13</sup>

To simulate the  $T_1$  absorption decay under intense excitation, we used Eqs. 5 and 6 to estimate the temperature dependent values of  $k_2$ . However, both equations are based on the decay analysis below the glass transition temperature,  $T_g$ , of PMMA (ca.  $378 \text{ K}$ ),<sup>29</sup> and thus their validity above  $T_g$  should be discussed before any calculation. It is believed that the translational motion of small molecules in the polymer matrix is assisted by the formation of thermally activated packets of free volume.<sup>28</sup> In solid polymers above  $T_g$ , large-scale segmental motions occur and impart relatively large amounts of free volume. This may allow much more efficient diffusion above  $T_g$  with high activation energy of the segmental motions. In this case, the Arrhenius plot of the diffusion coefficient strongly changes its slope above  $T_g$  and accordingly the use of Eqs. 5 and 6 above  $T_g$  is quite inappropriate. On the basis of the experiments involving laser molecular implantation, however, the activation energy for the diffusion of anthracene in PMMA in the temperature range of ca.  $500$ – $800 \text{ K}$ , well above  $T_g$ , was estimated to be  $71 \pm 10 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1}$ .<sup>21,22</sup> This value is similar to those obtained for biphenyl and *p*-terphenyl below  $T_g$  in the present study. This result for anthracene, whose size is similar to that of the dopants used here, indicates that the application of Eqs. 5 and 6 above  $T_g$  is a good approximation.

This conclusion is well supported by the results of laser-induced holographic grating relaxation experiments.<sup>30,31</sup> Wang et al. applied this technique to the study of the diffusion of thy-

moquinone in poly( $\alpha$ -methyl styrene) and diacetyl in PMMA, and found the following points: (1) at the low dopant concentration limit, the diffusion coefficient rapidly decreases as the temperature is decreased below  $T_g$ , and the activation energy of the diffusion coefficient above  $T_g$  is much higher than that below  $T_g$ ; (2) at higher dopant concentrations, the diffusion coefficient shows Arrhenius temperature dependence with no obvious change in the activation energy as  $T_g$  is traversed. The former case 1 corresponds to typical temperature dependence in the solid polymers described above. On the other hand, the latter case 2 is better explained by the plasticizing effect of a dopant.<sup>31</sup> Plasticizers induce the mobility of the polymer chains, hence increasing the local free volume fluctuation, which results in a higher diffusion coefficient. With the increase in local free volume, the chain motion somewhat loses its cooperativity as the glass transition temperature is approached. Thus, the diffusion coefficient is not expected to experience strong temperature dependence in the vicinity of  $T_g$ . In the present work, the similarity of the activation energy above and below  $T_g$  suggests that case 2 holds. This is supported by further analysis of the experimental results by Wang et al. In the case of 0.9 wt% diacetyl in PMMA, a temperature decrease of about 10 °C from 117 to 107.7 °C ( $T_g = 115$  °C) resulted in a diffusion coefficient decrease of more than 3 orders of magnitude from  $8.5 \times 10^{-11}$  to  $3.43 \times 10^{-14}$  cm<sup>2</sup> s<sup>-1</sup>.<sup>29</sup> Below 107.7 °C, the diffusion coefficient changed slowly with temperature. If this temperature dependence, clearly similar to case 1, applied to the present work, the diffusion coefficients of both biphenyl and *p*-terphenyl at room temperature should be on the order of, or smaller than,  $10^{-14}$  cm<sup>2</sup> s<sup>-1</sup> when we consider the sizes of the three dopants. The estimated values of  $D \approx 10^{-12}$  cm<sup>2</sup> s<sup>-1</sup> for both dopants, much higher than  $10^{-14}$  cm<sup>2</sup> s<sup>-1</sup>, should be the result of an increase in the local free volume fluctuation as a result of the plasticizing effect. Therefore, case 2 applies to both biphenyl and *p*-terphenyl in PMMA in the present experimental conditions, which ensures the application of Eqs. 5 and 6 above  $T_g$ .

**Simulation of the Temperature and  $T_1$  Decay.** On the basis of the results described above, we made a computer simulation describing the temperature change caused by the laser excitation and the resulting temperature-dependent  $T_1$  decay.

**(i) General Features of the Simulation:** The system in the simulation has three components of the air (85  $\mu$ m in thickness), PMMA with biphenyl or *p*-terphenyl (1  $\mu$ m in thickness), and quartz (15  $\mu$ m in thickness), from left to right, in this order. These components are split into 190 (air), 60 (PMMA), and 200 (quartz) thin layers, numbered from 1 (left-hand side of the air) to 450 (right-hand side of the quartz), as a control layer for the simulation of the following three phenomena: absorption of photon energy by the doped-polymer; temperature change by the thermal conduction through the air, polymer, and quartz; temperature-dependent  $T_1$ - $T_1$  annihilation. To simplify the calculation, we only consider one dimensional heat flow along the axis ( $x$  axis) vertical to both air-polymer and polymer-quartz interfaces. This treatment is a good approximation in the present case, where the purpose of the simulation is to compare calculated results with

the experimentally observed  $T_1$  decays. In particular, we paid special attention to keep the experimental condition that the irradiation area of the monitoring light is smaller than, and within that, of the excitation laser pulse. Therefore, the monitored region may be regarded as being surrounded by a bath of similar temperature, and the lateral thermal diffusion may safely be neglected.

The cross section of each control layer is set to be 1 cm<sup>2</sup> for the convenience of the calculation. The simulation contains only one parameter,  $r$  (0 ~ 1), the ratio of the energy used to increase the polymer temperature to the photon energy absorbed by the polymer. For example,  $r = 1$  means that all the absorbed energy is used to increase the temperature. By changing the value of  $r$  in the simulation, we found the most plausible value that gives the best reproduction of the observed  $T_1$  absorption decay.

**(ii) Absorption of Photon Energy:** On the basis of the monitoring of the photoabsorption by the sample films (Fig. 3), we obtained empirical equations of the irradiated fluence  $F$  (J cm<sup>-2</sup>) and absorbed fluence  $AF$  (J cm<sup>-2</sup>) as follows:

$$AF = 0.607 + 0.390F - 1.49 \times 10^{-4}F^2 \quad \text{for BP/PMMA} \quad (7)$$

$$AF = 0.391 + 0.389F + 1.41 \times 10^{-4}F^2 \quad \text{for PT/PMMA} \quad (8)$$

The laser pulse, whose time profile was obtained experimentally, as shown in Figs. 7 and 8, is split into a sequential pulse train of short rectangular pulses whose pulse width is 0.03 ns. This pulse width is used as the time step of the simulation ( $\Delta t$ ). For each arrival and passage of a rectangular pulse, the distribution of the absorbed energy among the 60 thin layers of the polymer is calculated on the assumption that each layer has the same absorption coefficient  $\alpha$  (cm<sup>-1</sup>) expressed by

$$\alpha = \ln\{F/(F - AF)\}/d \quad (9)$$

This assumption is appropriate in the present case because, as mentioned later, our simulation was done only for fluences in the range of 100–190 mJ cm<sup>-2</sup> where the effective absorbance gives steady values, as shown in Fig. 3a.

**(iii) Temperature Change:** The initial temperature of each control layer is set to room temperature, 293 K. The simulation of the thermal conduction is based on Fourier's law:

$$q = -\lambda \frac{\partial T}{\partial x} \quad (10)$$

where  $q$  is the heat flux in the  $x$  direction and  $\lambda$  is the thermal conductivity of the material through which the heat flows. By applying a finite difference scheme to Eq. 10, the heat flux from  $i - 1$  th to  $i$  th control layer,  $q_{i,i-1}$  (W cm<sup>-2</sup>), can be written as:

$$q_{i,i-1} = -\frac{T_i - T_{i-1}}{(d_i/2)/\lambda_i + (d_{i-1}/2)/\lambda_{i-1}} \quad (11)$$

where  $T_i$  (K),  $d_i$  (cm), and  $\lambda_i$  (W cm<sup>-1</sup> K<sup>-1</sup>) denote the temperature, thickness, and thermal conductivity of the  $i$ th layer at time  $t$ , respectively.<sup>32</sup> Note that Eq. 11 can calculate the heat flux between the control layers with different thermal conductivities. This is quite important in this simulation, be-

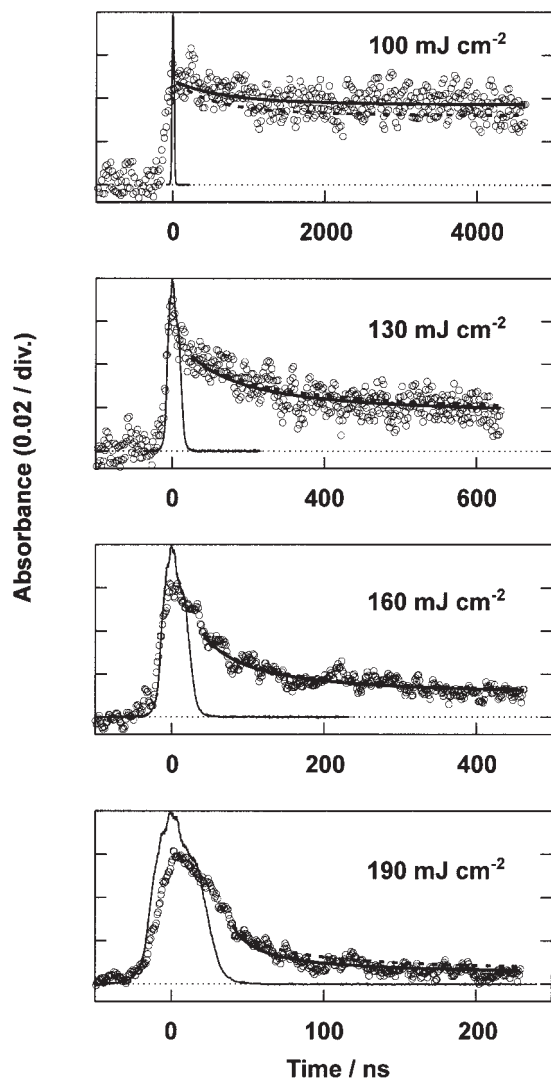


Fig. 7. Fluence dependence of the rise-and-decay profiles of the absorption at 370 nm of biphenyl-doped poly(methyl methacrylate). The open circles show the experimentally obtained profiles and the thin solid lines show the time profiles of the laser pulse. The thick lines show the simulated decay profiles based on the temperature-dependent second-order annihilation process and the cooling process of the matrix polymer where the parameter  $r$  is the ratio of the energy used to increase the polymer temperature to the photon energy absorbed by the polymer: the thick solid lines show the best-fits to the experimental profiles at  $100 \text{ mJ cm}^{-2}$  ( $r = 0.73$ ),  $130 \text{ mJ cm}^{-2}$  ( $r = 0.83$ ),  $160 \text{ mJ cm}^{-2}$  ( $r = 0.82$ ), and  $190 \text{ mJ cm}^{-2}$  ( $r = 0.87$ ); the thick dashed lines show the simulated profiles with the mean value of  $r = 0.81$ .

cause (i) there are two interfaces between the different materials (air-polymer and polymer-quartz) where a difference in the thermal conductivity apparently exists, and (ii) thermal conductivity depends on the temperature, and each layer has a different temperature. The temperature change ( $\Delta T_i$ ) of the  $i$ th control layer after a time step  $\Delta t$  is expressed by:

$$\Delta T_i = \{(q_{i,i-1} - q_{i+1,i})\Delta t + rE_i\}/(\rho_i C_i d_i) \quad (12)$$

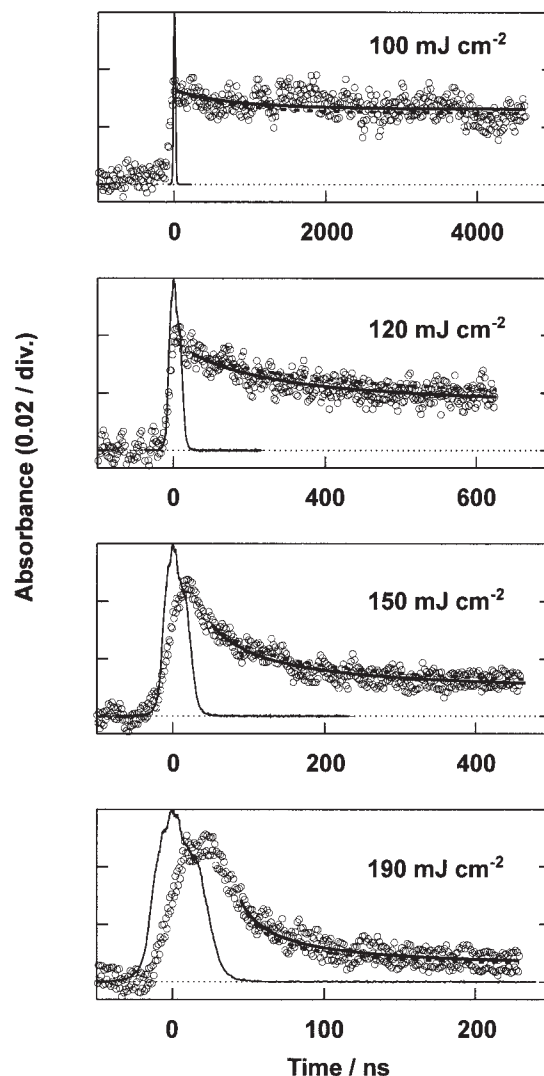


Fig. 8. Fluence dependence of the rise-and-decay profiles of the absorption at 455 nm of *p*-terphenyl-doped poly(methyl methacrylate). The open circles show the experimentally obtained profiles and the thin solid lines show the time profiles of the laser pulse. The thick lines show the simulated decay profiles based on the temperature-dependent second-order annihilation process and the cooling process of the matrix polymer where the parameter  $r$  is the ratio of the energy used to increase the polymer temperature to the photon energy absorbed by the polymer: the thick solid lines show the best-fits to the experimental profiles at  $100 \text{ mJ cm}^{-2}$  ( $r = 0.83$ ),  $120 \text{ mJ cm}^{-2}$  ( $r = 0.92$ ),  $150 \text{ mJ cm}^{-2}$  ( $r = 0.90$ ), and  $190 \text{ mJ cm}^{-2}$  ( $r = 0.84$ ); the thick dashed lines show the simulated profiles with the mean value of  $r = 0.87$ .

where  $\rho_i$  ( $\text{g cm}^{-3}$ ) and  $C_i$  ( $\text{J g}^{-1} \text{K}^{-1}$ ) are the density and heat capacity of the  $i$ th control layer, respectively, and  $E_i$  is the photon energy absorbed by the  $i$ th control layer. The term  $rE_i$  represents the amount of energy that contributes to the temperature increase. It is apparent from the definition of  $E_i$  that  $E_i$  becomes zero after the laser pulse, and thus the term  $rE_i$ , as well as the parameter  $r$ , are valid only within the laser pulse. As the boundary condition, we adopted the adiabatic approxi-

mation of  $q_{0,1} = q_{450,451} = 0$ , and accordingly set the widths of the air and quartz (85 and 15  $\mu\text{m}$ ) large enough to neglect the thermal diffusion at the air and quartz ends. After the simulation, we took care to confirm that the temperatures of both layers 1 and 450 remained unchanged.

In the simulation of the temperature change, as shown in Eqs. 11 and 12, we need the values of the density ( $\rho_{\text{air}}$ ,  $\rho_{\text{PMMA}}$ ,  $\rho_{\text{quartz}}$ ), heat capacity ( $C_{\text{air}}$ ,  $C_{\text{PMMA}}$ ,  $C_{\text{quartz}}$ ), and thermal conductivity ( $\lambda_{\text{air}}$ ,  $\lambda_{\text{PMMA}}$ ,  $\lambda_{\text{quartz}}$ ). We consulted Ref. 29 for PMMA and Ref. 33 for air and quartz. In case there existed values at several appropriate temperatures between 293 and 600 K, we made empirical equations for the physical constants that reproduce the temperature dependence. Otherwise, we adopted the values at certain temperatures. Finally, for density, we used the following values:  $\rho_{\text{air}} = 1.161 \times 10^{-3} \text{ g cm}^{-3}$  (at 300 K),  $\rho_{\text{PMMA}} = 1.188 \text{ g cm}^{-3}$  (at 298 K), and  $\rho_{\text{quartz}} = 2.2 \text{ g cm}^{-3}$ .<sup>34</sup> For heat capacity, we used  $C_{\text{air}} = 1.0 \text{ J g}^{-1} \text{ K}^{-1}$  (at 300 K) and the following equations:

$$C_{\text{PMMA}} = -1.78 + 0.0142T - 1.18 \times 10^{-5}T^2 \quad \text{J g}^{-1} \text{ K}^{-1} \quad (13)$$

$$C_{\text{quartz}} = 0.0407 + 0.00295T - 2.07 \times 10^{-6}T^2 \quad \text{J g}^{-1} \text{ K}^{-1} \quad (14)$$

For thermal conductivity, we used  $\lambda_{\text{PMMA}} = 1.9 \times 10^{-3} \text{ W cm}^{-1} \text{ K}^{-1}$  (273–323 K) and the following equations:

$$\lambda_{\text{air}} = 1 \times 10^{-5} + 9.79 \times 10^{-7}T - 3.68 \times 10^{-10}T^2 \quad \text{W cm}^{-1} \text{ K}^{-1} \quad (15)$$

$$\lambda_{\text{quartz}} = 4.96 \times 10^{-3} + 4.25 \times 10^{-5}T - 3.45 \times 10^{-8}T^2 \quad \text{W cm}^{-1} \text{ K}^{-1} \quad (16)$$

**(iv)  $T_1$ - $T_1$  Annihilation:** The  $T_1$  absorption of a certain doped-polymer control layer, ( $A_{T_1,i}$ ), is calculated according to the following finite difference equation:

$$\Delta A_{T_1,i} = -\frac{k_2}{\varepsilon_{T_1} d_i} A_{T_1,i}^2 \Delta t \quad (17)$$

which is based on Eq. 1 with the approximation of  $k_1[T_1] = 0$ . The summation of  $A_{T_1,i}$  over the 60 layers gives  $A_{T_1}$ , which is the  $T_1$  absorption of the whole film.<sup>35</sup> The constant  $k_2$  is temperature dependent and calculated by Eq. 5 (BP/PMMA) or 6 (PT/PMMA). During laser excitation, there are many complicated processes, such as photoabsorption by the  $T_1$  state, and thus the starting point of the absorption simulation is set to be just after the laser pulse. The initial value of  $A_{T_1}$  of the simulation is determined from the experimental data, and then the initial value of each  $A_{T_1,i}$  is determined according to the distribution of the absorbed photon energy. We assumed that the  $T_1$  concentration in a certain layer is proportional to the energy absorbed by the layer.

**Decay Dynamics of the  $T_1$  States under Intense Excitation.** Open circles in Figs. 7 and 8 show the fluence dependence of the absorption decay of the  $T_1$  state for BP/PMMA and PT/PMMA respectively. For both films, the decay became rapid with an increase in the laser fluence. This characteristic fluence dependence has already been reported for

pyrene,<sup>5</sup> TMPD,<sup>7</sup> *p*-terphenyl,<sup>14,15</sup> biphenyl-doped PMMA,<sup>16</sup> and is ascribed to the thermally facilitated  $T_1$ - $T_1$  annihilation. As mentioned previously, repetitive simulations changing the value of the parameter  $r$  gave best fits (solid lines in Figs. 7 and 8) to the experimentally obtained  $T_1$  decay profiles at 100–190  $\text{mJ cm}^{-2}$ , where the decay dynamics dramatically change with an increase in the fluence. Note that above 190  $\text{mJ cm}^{-2}$  the  $T_1$  absorption decays out within the laser pulse and thus the fitting by the simulation is invalid. The values of  $r$  range from 0.73 to 0.87 for BP/PMMA and from 0.83 to 0.92 for PT/PMMA. For reference, the simulation results with the mean value of  $r$  (0.81 for BP/PMMA and 0.87 for PT/PMMA) are also shown in Figs. 7 and 8 as dashed lines. At present, we can hardly conclude whether the observed slight scatter of  $r$  arises from some substantial photophysics or just an experimental error. We can safely conclude, however, that most of the absorbed photon energy, at least 70% of it, is used to increase the temperature of the polymer. This conclusion supports the viewpoint that aromatic molecules in a polymer can work as a good “molecular heater” under intense laser excitation.<sup>8–11</sup>

The high conversion efficiency shown by both dopants is quite interesting when we consider their conventional fluorescence quantum yields (0.15 for biphenyl and 0.77 for *p*-terphenyl).<sup>25</sup> It suggests that intense excitation opens novel radiationless pathways which are common for aromatic molecules and independent of conventional radiative pathways. Actually, a similar suggestion based on the fluorescence decay of anthracenes gave rise to the assertion of the cyclic multiphotonic absorption mechanism, where cyclic photoabsorption ( $A \rightarrow A^* \rightarrow A$ ) corresponds to such a pathway.<sup>2</sup>

The cyclic photoabsorption mechanism also explains the efficient conversion of the absorbed photon energy into thermal energy. We have to consider, however, another process in the excited state interactions because of the high dopant concentrations ( $\approx 0.1 \text{ M}$ ) chosen here. Actually, we have experimentally confirmed the substantial production of both  $S_1$  and  $T_1$  states within the laser pulse for both BP/PMMA and PT/PMMA.<sup>15,16</sup> Therefore, excited state interactions, such as  $S_1$ - $S_1$  and  $T_1$ - $T_1$  annihilation, should occur during the laser excitation. This should result in the efficient deactivation of the electronic excitation energy, and thus also contribute to the energy conversion. At the present stage, both mechanisms seem quite possible and there is little information about the extent of the contribution of each mechanism. To obtain such information, a reduction of the dopant concentration should be informative because the cyclic multiphotonic absorption may apply to the diluted condition in contrast to the excited state interactions, which require a high concentration.

With respect to the energy dissipation pathways, other than thermal ones, we can make some qualitative discussions. One definite pathway is the  $S_1 \rightarrow S_0$  radiative transition (fluorescence) of the dopant, which was experimentally detected for both films.<sup>15,16</sup> Another possible pathway is the thermally induced bond breaking of the polymer. Previous experiments have confirmed that degradation of a polymer occurs to some extent even below the ablation threshold.<sup>4,36</sup>

Not only does the temperature increase via laser excitation affect the dynamics of the  $T_1$  state but also the cooling of



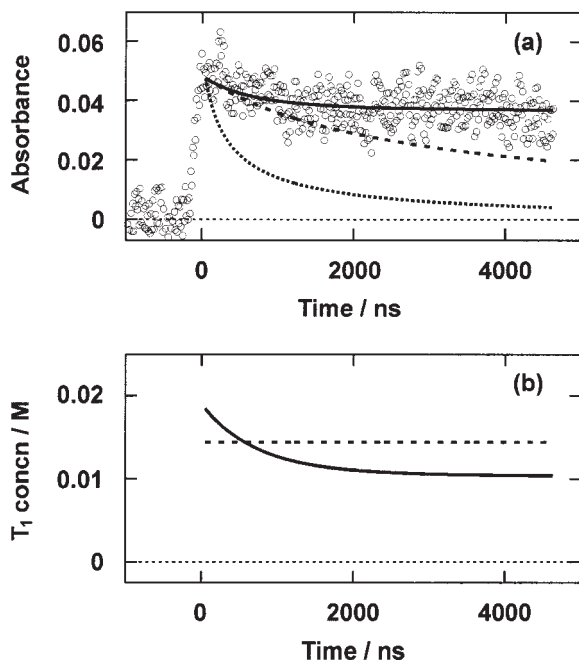


Fig. 9. Influence of the heat transfer to the quartz plate on the  $T_1$  state dynamics of biphenyl-doped poly(methyl methacrylate) at  $100 \text{ mJ cm}^{-2}$  excitation. (a) The open circles show the experimentally obtained absorption rise-and-decay profile at 370 nm, while the solid line shows the simulated decay profile with  $r = 0.73$ ; they are the same as those shown in Fig. 7. The dashed and dotted lines show the simulated profiles in the case of no thermal conduction with  $r = 0.73$  and  $r = 1$ , respectively. (b) The comparison of the decays of the  $T_1$  state simulated at the surface (solid line) and bottom (dashed line) of the film; the simulation condition is the same as that for the solid line ( $r = 0.73$ ) in (a).

the polymer, a typical example of which is shown in Fig. 9 for BP/PMMA at  $100 \text{ mJ cm}^{-2}$ . Note that the open circles and solid line in Fig. 9a are the same as those in Fig. 7. In Fig. 9a, the simulated absorption decay profile in the case of no thermal conduction with  $r = 1$  (the dotted line) is totally different from the experimentally obtained one. The change of the parameter value to  $r = 0.73$  gave a profile (the dashed line) still different from the experimental one. The simulation can reproduce the decay profile (the solid line) only with the additional consideration of thermal conduction. We confirmed that only changing the value of  $r$  does not give a good reproduction of the profile. Thus, the difference between the solid and dashed lines in Fig. 9a shows the influence of the thermal conduction on the  $T_1$  decay. The cooling of the polymer film slows down the diffusion of the dopant, and, accordingly, the  $T_1$ - $T_1$  annihilation. Another result of the cooling effect is shown in Fig. 9b. At the surface of BP/PMMA (air side) the  $T_1$  state decays, apparently by annihilation, but shows no decay at the bottom (quartz side) due to the efficient cooling by the heat transfer to the quartz. This will be discussed in the next subsection. It is necessary to consider the heat transfer to the substrate for discussions about laser heating effects in doped polymers including the  $T_1$  state dynamics.

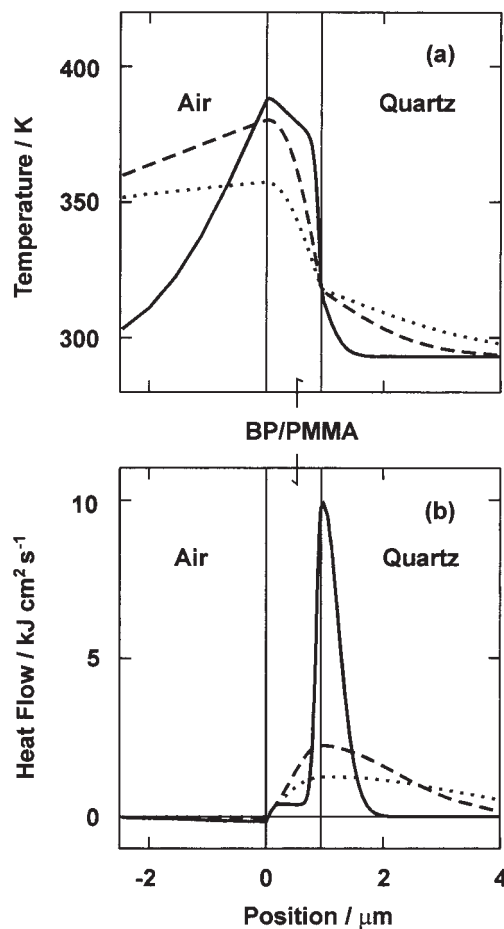


Fig. 10. Thermal dynamics of the air, biphenyl-doped poly(methyl methacrylate), and quartz at  $100 \text{ mJ cm}^{-2}$  excitation; all the shown profiles are derived from the best fit ( $r = 0.73$ ) to the observed  $T_1$  decay ( $100 \text{ mJ cm}^{-2}$ ) in Fig. 7. The position of the air-polymer interface is defined as  $0 \text{ } \mu\text{m}$ . (a) The solid, dashed, and dotted lines show the transient temperature distributions at 50 ns, 1  $\mu\text{s}$ , and 3  $\mu\text{s}$  respectively. (b) The solid, dashed, and dotted lines show the heat flow distributions at 50 ns, 1  $\mu\text{s}$ , and 3  $\mu\text{s}$  respectively; positive values refer to the heat flow from left to right.

**Thermal Dynamics of the Doped-polymer Film.** The simulation with the determined value of  $r$  reveals additional detail about the thermal dynamics in the polymer, a typical example of which is shown in Fig. 10. This is the case of BP/PMMA at  $100 \text{ mJ cm}^{-2}$ , but quite similar characteristics are observed with different fluences and the other sample, PT/PMMA. At 50 ns, immediately after the excitation laser pulse, heat transfer from PMMA to both air and quartz is obvious from the temperature increase and distribution in both materials (Fig. 10a). There exists, however, different characteristics in the temperatures at the air-polymer interface ( $T_{A-P}$ ) and polymer-quartz interface ( $T_{P-Q}$ ). The value of  $T_{A-P} = 388 \text{ K}$  is close to that expected in the case of no thermal conduction (390 K), while the value of  $T_{P-Q} = 320 \text{ K}$  is well below that expected in the case of no thermal conduction (372 K). Furthermore, the time-dependent changes of  $T_{A-P}$  and  $T_{P-Q}$

Table 1. Comparison of the Thermal Properties of Air, Poly(methyl methacrylate) (PMMA), and Quartz<sup>a)</sup>

Material	$\rho C/\text{J cm}^{-3} \text{ K}^{-1}$	$a\left(=\frac{\lambda}{\rho C}\right)/\text{cm}^2 \text{ s}^{-1}$	$b(=\sqrt{\lambda \rho C})/\text{J s}^{-1/2} \text{ cm}^{-2} \text{ K}^{-1}$
Air	$1.2 \times 10^{-3}$	$2.5 \times 10^{-1}$	$5.8 \times 10^{-4}$
PMMA	1.9	$1.0 \times 10^{-3}$	$5.9 \times 10^{-2}$
Quartz	1.7	$8.6 \times 10^{-3}$	$1.6 \times 10^{-1}$

a) Estimated at 320 K.

are also different from each other.  $T_{\text{A-P}}$  gradually decreases to 357 K (3  $\mu\text{s}$ ), while  $T_{\text{P-Q}}$  remains almost constant at ca. 320 K (319 K at 3  $\mu\text{s}$ ).

These characteristic differences are understood by the thermal conduction theory of the sudden contact of two solids at different temperatures.<sup>37</sup> In the present case, instead of sudden contact, it is nanosecond laser excitation that suddenly increases the temperature of the polymer between the air and quartz. According to the theory, when two solids (1 and 2) at different temperatures,  $T_1$  and  $T_2$ , are brought into contact, the temperature at the point of contact changes instantly to  $T_0$  and remains at this temperature for some time. The constant temperature  $T_0$  is calculated as:

$$T_0 = \frac{b_1 T_1 + b_2 T_2}{b_1 + b_2} \quad (18)$$

where  $b_1$  and  $b_2$  are effusivities of solids 1 and 2, respectively. The effusivity  $b$ , defined as  $b = (\lambda \rho C)^{-1/2}$ , physically represents the capacity of a material to 'resist' an abrupt change in the temperature of its surroundings. A significant result of Eq. 18 is that the solid with the higher effusivity tends to impose its temperature, which is the case of  $T_{\text{A-P}}$  at 50 ns ( $b_{\text{PMMA}} \gg b_{\text{air}}$ , see Table 1). Eq. 18 gives  $T_0 \approx T_2$ , if  $b_2 \gg b_1$ . On the other hand, the substitution of  $b_{\text{PMMA}}$ ,  $b_{\text{quartz}}$  (Table 1), 372 K, and 293 K for  $b_1$ ,  $b_2$ ,  $T_1$ , and  $T_2$  in Eq. 18 gives  $T_{\text{P-Q}} (= T_0) = 314$  K which is in good agreement with that at 50 ns of the simulation.

The temperature changes in the later time region ( $\sim 3 \mu\text{s}$ ) are well understood with Fig. 10b of the heat flow distribution in the system. At 50 ns, in the air and the very thin surface layer of the polymer (up to 0.05  $\mu\text{m}$ ), the heat flows from right to left and its amount is quite small compared with that of the flow in the opposite direction at the interface of the polymer and the quartz. The ratio of the amount of the latter heat flow increases with time. Therefore, the temperature decrease of the polymer is mainly due to the heat transfer into the quartz plate. For example, we can easily calculate the total amount of the energy flowing out from the polymer to the air ( $E_{\text{P} \rightarrow \text{A}}$ ) and that to the quartz ( $E_{\text{P} \rightarrow \text{Q}}$ ); the ratio  $E_{\text{P} \rightarrow \text{Q}}/E_{\text{P} \rightarrow \text{A}}$  is 86 at 3  $\mu\text{s}$ . In spite of this ratio, the temperature of the air is much higher than that of the quartz, because air has a very small value of  $\rho C$  (see Table 1). On the contrary, air has a large thermal diffusivity,  $a = \lambda/(\rho C)$ , compared with PMMA and quartz (see Table 1). This results in the relatively rapid disappearance of the temperature gradient in the air. The remaining interesting topic here is the constant temperature at the polymer-quartz interface. As can be seen in Fig. 10b, the heat flow has its maximum value in the vicinity of the polymer-quartz interface up to 3  $\mu\text{s}$ . This results in a nearly zero

divergence of the heat flow at the interface, which provides the physical background of the constant temperature. The peak position of the heat flow starts to leave the interface at about 3  $\mu\text{s}$  and then gradually moves to the right, deeper inside the quartz (not shown in a Figure). As a result, the temperature  $T_{\text{P-Q}}$  is no longer constant, and gradually decreases. The quasi-constant temperature discussed here may be useful for some future industrial application of laser heating of materials in contact with substrates.<sup>19–24</sup>

From the simulation, we can also obtain the fluence dependence of the maximum temperature ( $T_{\text{M}}$ ) at the polymer surface (air side) reached by laser heating. With the mean values of  $r$  (0.81 for BP/PMMA and 0.87 for PT/PMMA), the temperature is estimated as follows: 400 K (100  $\text{mJ cm}^{-2}$ ), 420 K (130  $\text{mJ cm}^{-2}$ ), 440 K (160  $\text{mJ cm}^{-2}$ ), and 460 K (190  $\text{mJ cm}^{-2}$ ) for BP/PMMA; 400 K (100  $\text{mJ cm}^{-2}$ ), 420 K (120  $\text{mJ cm}^{-2}$ ), 440 K (150  $\text{mJ cm}^{-2}$ ), and 480 K (190  $\text{mJ cm}^{-2}$ ) for PT/PMMA.  $T_{\text{M}}$  increases with an increase in the fluence for both films, which reflects the efficient photoabsorption despite the intense excitation. These data are well fitted with straight lines, which corresponds to the fact that the effective absorbance is almost constant for both films in this fluence region (100–190  $\text{mJ cm}^{-2}$ ) as shown in Fig. 3a. Both lines are expressed by the following equations.

$$T_{\text{M}} = 0.67F + 330 \quad \text{for BP/PMMA} \quad (19)$$

$$T_{\text{M}} = 0.87F + 310 \quad \text{for PT/PMMA} \quad (20)$$

The intercepts of both lines, 330 K and 310 K, are higher than room temperature (293 K). This can also be explained by the fluence dependence of the absorbance shown in Fig. 3a. The absorbance in the low fluence region ( $< 100 \text{ mJ cm}^{-2}$ ) is higher than the quasi-constant absorbance corresponding to the slopes of both lines. Therefore,  $T_{\text{M}}$  increases more rapidly in the low fluence region, which is the reason for the disparity. On the other hand, if we assume Eqs. 19 and 20 are valid in the higher fluence region ( $> 190 \text{ mJ cm}^{-2}$ ), we can estimate the maximum temperature at the ablation threshold to be 550 K for both BP/PMMA (330  $\text{mJ cm}^{-2}$ ) and PT/PMMA (280  $\text{mJ cm}^{-2}$ ). The estimated value is in good agreement with that (530 K) of pyrene-doped PMMA at the ablation threshold.<sup>5</sup> It supports a reasonable hypothesis that there exists a specific temperature at which rapid thermal degradation of a polymer occurs leading to ablation.<sup>38–40</sup>

H. F. acknowledges the financial support of a Hiroshima City University Grant for Special Academic Research (General Studies) and of a Grant-in-Aid for Encouragement of Young Scientists (No. 09740440) from the Ministry of Education,

Science, Sports and Culture. We are grateful both to ANEL-VA Corp. for the use of the excimer laser and to Dr. M. Takagi of the Institute of Laser Engineering in Osaka University for the use of the depth profiler.

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