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TECHNIQUES OF GAS LASER CONSTRUCTION AND PROCESSING

JAMES D. EVANS, 1st LT, USAF
WILLIAM C. EPPERS, JR.

TECHNICAL REPORT AFAL-TR-71-109

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FOREWORD

The material contained in this technical report was presented on 24 September 1970 at the IEEE 1970 Conference on Electron Device Techniques by James D. Evans, 1st Lt, USAF, of the Laser Technology Branch, Electronic Technology Division, Air Force Avionics Laboratory. Work was accomplished under Project 5237.

This report was submitted by the authors 9 April 1971.

This technical report has been reviewed and is approved for publication.

BERNARD H. LIST
Chief Scientist
Air Force Avionics Laboratory
ABSTRACT

The information presented here covers various aspects of gas laser construction and processing, in particular, the most common gas lasers; He-Ne, Noble gas-ion, CO$_2$, and He-Cd. In addition, some background information is given involving the theory of operation as well as the role that some of the gases play in the lasing process. An in-depth discussion of cold cathodes for the He-Ne lasers, the anodic bore ion lasers, and the CO$_2$ laser is included.

The material presented here is by no means all that can be reported concerning gas laser construction and processing; on the contrary, the intent here is to merely familiarize the reader with some of the problems encountered in gas laser construction and processing.
TABLE OF CONTENTS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SECTION</th>
<th>PAGE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I INTRODUCTION</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>II PLASMA TUBES</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>III METAL VAPOR LASERS</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IV CATHODES</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>V COLD CATHODES FOR He-Ne GAS LASERS</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VI He-Ne GAS LASERS</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VII ARGON ION LASERS</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VIII HIGH POWER SINGLE MODE CO\textsubscript{2} LASER</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IX CONCLUSION</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>REFERENCES</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
SECTION I
INTRODUCTION

The processing methods used in constructing individual laser components determine the final operating characteristics of the laser. When processing plasma tubes, the cleaning and baking techniques are of the utmost importance. The difference between a carefully processed cathode and a hastily processed one may mean 10,000 hours in total cathode lifetime. This technical report should furnish the reader with some basic information concerning the processing and construction of gas lasers.
SECTION II
PLASMA TUBES

Figure 1 depicts a typical DC excited gas-ion laser tube (Reference 1). This tube is constructed of fused silica and is water-cooled. The bore and water jacket are usually constructed as a unit and can be used for either the induction ring discharge or the DC arc tube.

It should be pointed out that the anode and cathode are not directly on the bore axis; placing these electrodes on the bore axis tends to contaminate the window through evaporation or sputtering processes.

![Diagram of a typical DC excited gas-ion laser tube]

Figure 1. Typical DC-Excited Gas-Ion Laser Tube (Reproduced from Reference 1).

Figure 2 shows the radio-frequency excited CW gas-ion laser plasma tube (Reference 1). Again, this plasma tube is constructed of fused silica and is water-cooled. With the exception of graded seals and the absence of a cathode and an anode, this RF-excited ion laser tube is identical to DC arc laser tubes. The absence of metal electrodes makes the tube very tolerant of impurities and capable of CW laser action with reactive gases such as chlorine.
AFAL-TR-71-109

Figure 2. RF Excited CW Gas-Ion Laser Plasma Tube (Reproduced from Reference 1).

Figure 3 depicts a hollow-cathode mercury-ion laser tube (Reference 1). This tube is constructed of thin-walled metal-Kovar tubing and Kovar sealing glass. The ends of the metal tubing are flared slightly to ensure a full aperture after the glassing. In general, the most important aspect of plasma-tube assembly is to develop a procedure which will yield minimum contamination of the Brewster Windows.

Figure 3. Hollow Cathode Mercury-Ion Laser Tube (Reproduced from Reference 1).
SECTION III
METAL VAPOR LASERS

Figure 4 shows a He-Cd laser configuration (Reference 2) which operates on the principle of cataphoresis. Since cataphoresis is proportional to ion current and back diffusion is proportional to tube diameter, one may choose a diameter small enough such that the cataphoresis effect will be dominant. Then the cataphoresis process resulting from heating the cadmium near the anode end of the tube will cause a cadmium concentration gradient sufficient for lasing. Finally, the cadmium will condense on the cold glass near the cathode.

![Figure 4. He-Cd Laser (Reproduced from Reference 2).](image)

The transverse-discharge slotted hollow-cathode He-Cd laser is shown in Figure 5 (Reference 3). The slotted hollow-cathode configuration, designed by Schuebel of the Air Force Avionics Laboratory, has two main functions: it provides a discharge path that is transverse to the anode-cathode axis; and it permits metal vapors to diffuse from the space between the electrodes, into the slot in the hollow cathode. By introducing He and Cd into the laser tube at temperatures of 240°C and 360°C, six new laser lines in the region from 5337 Å to 7284 Å were found.
Figure 5. Transverse-discharge slotted hollow-cathode He-Cd laser (Reproduced from Reference 3).
SECTION IV
CATHODES

Figure 6 illustrates a typical multifold cathode structure which is similar in design to the first of the large area cathodes (Reference 4). This cathode is made of nickel screen, 60 x 60 mesh, of "active" #220 nickel wire, 5 mm wide and 11 cm long. It was degreased and bombarded with dry diatomic hydrogen for 30 minutes at 1000°C. The screen was then sprayed with a standard barium strontium carbonate (BaSrCO₃) mixture in nitrocellulose binder and formed into a multifold shape as shown. The binder was removed by air firing and the cathode mounted in a quartz tube having the dimensions of one type of argon laser as shown in Figure 7. This tube has a 2 mm bore and is 40 cm long. On the pumps, the tube was slowly heated to 250°C by tape heaters. After bakeout, the cathode was heated to 900°C in 45 minutes.

The pressure in the system did not exceed 5 x 10⁻⁵ torr during this time. The temperature was held at 900°C for 15 minutes at a pressure of 3 x 10⁻⁶ torr. The temperature was increased to 950°C for 5 minutes and then lowered to 850°C at an argon pressure of 1.0 torr for the initial emission tests. With a 100-ohm ballast resistor in the circuit, the discharge (started with the aid of a Tesla coil) was sustained at 1 ampere with a 320 volt drop for about 5 minutes. The tube was pumped and filled four times - each time drawing a higher current until the fill gas became contaminated. After five refills, the data shown in Figure 8 were obtained. The coated area of this cathode was about 10 cm², so the current density at 330 volts is about 1.0 A/cm²; at 850°C this density is fair but not unusual for an oxide cathode. Following this complicated baking process, the multifold cathode was able to withstand 80 hours of operation at 10 amperes.
Figure 6. Multifold Cathode Structure (Reproduced from Reference 4).

Figure 7. Cathode Tester (Reproduced from Reference 4).
Figure 8. Current Voltage Characteristics BaSrO on Ni Screen (Reproduced from Reference 4).

Figure 9 is a diagram of a molded cathode (Reference 4). The shape of this molded cathode is just one of the many that can exist; cups, concave disks, and many other shapes can also be formed. This cathode is formed by mixing nickel powder, activators, and carbonates together, pressing this mixture into a steel die, and sintering at 1000°C.

A molded cathode such as this has several advantages, such as it suffers less from ion bombardment, and is less susceptible to poisons generated within the tube structure. Because of its low susceptibility to ion bombardment, it would be ideal for use in ion lasers such as the argon ion laser.
Figure 9. Molded Cathode (Reproduced from Reference 4).
Lifetimes of 18,000 hours have been reported by Hochuli (Reference 5) for He-Ne lasers each operating with aluminum cold cathodes at a current of 5 mA, an initial pressure of about 3 torr, and a gas volume of 42 cm³. Properly constructed aluminum cold cathodes are responsible for this enhanced lifetime for He-Ne lasers. Cathodes made of aluminum alloy 2024 T 351 were machined in distilled water and encased in Pyrex envelopes. Outgassing and the formation of an oxide layer were achieved by ion bombardment in air or oxygen at a pressure of about 2 torr with a current density of 5 - 10 mA/cm² of active cathode surface.

In some cases, the pressure $P$ (at optimum output power) vs. time curve can be approximated by the equation:

$$\frac{P}{P_0} = (1 - \frac{t}{\tau})^{1/X} \quad 0 \leq t \leq \tau$$

where $P_0$ is the initial pressure yielding optimum power output, and $\tau$ is the total lifetime of the gas discharge tube (Figure 10). If the pressure is adjusted to a new initial value $P_0^2$, the new lifetime follows the relationship:

$$\frac{\tau_2}{\tau_1} = \left( \frac{P_0^2}{P_0^1} \right)^X$$

The quantities $X$ and $\tau$ are experimentally determined constants that depend on many variables, (current density, manufacturing process used, etc.) The lifetime $\tau$ depends on pressure, gas volume, current density, and the particular gas used.
Figure 10. Pressure vs Time Curve (Reproduced from Reference 5).
SECTION VI
He-Ne GAS LASERS

Figure 11 is a cross sectional view of a space-qualified He-Ne laser proposed by Hughes Aircraft Company (Reference 6). The outstanding features of this design are:

a. Rugged all-metal-ceramic construction, allowing high-temperature bakeout and precision manufacture.

b. Long-life cold-cathode discharge, permitting highest operating efficiency and minimum heat generation.

c. Internal mirrors, reducing optical cavity losses and simplifying dust-sealing requirements while maintaining a polarized output.

d. Optimized optical cavity support structure, using materials and geometry to minimize the effects of thermal gradients, vibration, and external mechanical stresses.

e. Integrated tube and power supply package sealed with a helium atmosphere minimizing altitude-induced stresses on the optical cavity support structure, promoting cooling, and minimizing corona problems.

f. All solid-state dual power supply with precision current regulation and space-proven circuitry.

Figure 11. Space-Qualified He-Ne Laser (Reproduced from Reference 6).
Figure 12 illustrates the results obtained from experiments carried out by Suzukei (Reference 7). This graph reveals that the generation of noise depends strongly upon the discharge current and the capillary length. In general, noise is not generated at relatively small discharge currents. As the discharge current is increased slightly, an oscillation noise is generated. When the discharge current is further increased, a random noise takes the place of the oscillation noise. The critical current at which the noise appears decreases with capillary length; and the amplitude of the noise increases with capillary length. The discharge current and the capillary length must be above certain values for the noise to be generated.

The graph shows that noise problems may arise even with short length He-Ne lasers.

Figure 12. Criterion of the Noise Generation (Reproduced from Reference 7).
SECTION VII
ARGON ION LASERS

Figure 13 shows the electrical components of an anodic bore plasma tube (Reference 8). The primary discharge current is sustained by the plasma in contact with the conventional anode and cathode. The solenoid, which has a function similar to that in a conventional ion laser, acts to confine the plasma.

The secondary anode of the anodic bore plasma tube has a finite resistance and when the potential is applied at the anode end of the secondary anode (AESA), a modified plasma sheath is formed where the secondary anode comes into contact with the plasma. The modified plasma sheath has a potential fall of about 10 volts and acts to repel positive ions from the walls. The anodic bore plasma tube is constructed with a fused silica vacuum jacket of a conventional type. The precision bore tube contains the secondary anode, which is made from pyrolytic graphite with a metal electrode on each end.

AESA - Anode end of Secondary Anode
CESA - Cathode end of Secondary Anode

Figure 13. Electrical Components of Anodic Bore Plasma Tube (Reproduced from Reference 8).
Figure 14 is a cross sectional photograph of a piece of the actual anodic bore material (Reference 8). It was found that as the discharge current flowed from cathode to anode, positive argon ions would flow the reverse direction and would push the argon ions to one end of the bore, thus giving rise to a pressure gradient. The 4 outer bores permit the argon gas to recycle itself through the anodic bore, which eliminates the pressure gradient. The graphite cylinder is less than one inch in length and has an internal diameter of roughly 4 mm.

In the past, optical degradation of the Brewster Windows has caused power limitations of high-power argon lasers. Sinclair has pointed out key problems associated with Brewster Window gas lasers, as quoted below (from Reference 14):

"The three important practical sources of optical loss in Brewster Windows are scattering, stress induced birefringence, and absorption."

The primary cause of scattering loss in Brewster Windows is poor optical polish or scratches due to mishandling of the optically polished surfaces.
Surface films deposited on Brewster Windows exposed to the atmosphere usually increase scattering loss, but the primary effect of such films is usually absorptive loss.

Improper mounting of the Brewster Window can produce stresses which give rise to birefringence. Unless the principal axes of both windows are in the plane defined by the normals to the windows, stress-induced birefringence will cause the light in the laser cavity to become elliptically polarized. Elliptically polarized light is partially reflected by a Brewster Window; thus, stress-induced birefringence will create an optical loss in the laser cavity.

In practical laser systems, the loss caused by stress-induced birefringence can be appreciable. It tends to be particularly severe when windows are sealed to plasma tubes by direct fusion, although it has also been observed when "hard" epoxies are used to seal the windows. Loss due to stress-induced birefringence is usually very dependent on the temperature of the windows, since the forces required to create noticeable birefringence are small.

Absorptive loss can be caused either by bulk absorption in the window material or by absorption of surface films which form on the windows. The origin of surface films which cause absorptive loss (and scatter) is not always apparent. Residual films will remain on Brewster Windows if they are not adequately cleaned prior to assembly of the plasma tube; windows which are exposed to open air will, in the course of time, develop films from normal atmospheric contaminants. Films are often created by the outgassing of organic materials in the vicinity of the window; some epoxies give rise to such outgassing. Sometimes films are formed on the inside of Brewster Windows due to vapors formed by the decomposition of electrodes or the erosion of the plasma tube by the discharge.

Thermal focusing effects occur in Brewster Windows because of the temperature sensitivity of the refractive index of the window material.
When power is absorbed from the intracavity beam by the window, a refractive index gradient builds up which causes the window to display lens effects.

Figure 15 shows the setup used by Horrigan, de-Mars, and Seiden (Reference 9) to study the problem. Interferograms were made by reflecting a He-Ne laser beam directly off the Brewster Window of the high-power argon ion laser, before and during operation of the argon laser. The interferograms obtained show the thermal deformation of the Brewster Window.

![Figure 15. Setup for Obtaining Shearing Interferograms (Reproduced from Reference 9).](image)

The three interferograms in Figure 16 were formed by the reflected light from both sides of the Brewster Window. The interferogram in (a) was made with the laser turned off and indicates no thermal deformation. The interferograms in (b) and (c) show the thermal distortion of the Brewster Window after 4 minutes of operation and 35 minutes of operation, respectively. Because a Brewster Window in direct contact with the plasma begins to absorb in the laser discharge region (due to a film buildup caused by discharge erosion of electrodes), thermal deformation takes place. This deformation degrades mode quality due to a lensing effect and significantly reduces output power.

The degrading of quality of the Brewster Windows has been the biggest cause of power limitation thus far in high-power argon ion lasers.
The rate of window degradation increases at higher currents and higher power densities, and increased degradation decreases power, shrinks beam diameter, and changes mode configuration. The Brewster Window is degraded on the side in contact with the discharge and the degradation is confined to the laser discharge region.

Figure 16. Interferograms Showing Optical Deformations (Reproduced from Reference 9).
SECTION VIII
HIGH POWER SINGLE MODE CO₂ LASER

Figure 17 is a diagram of a sealed-off high-power single-mode CO₂ laser that is water-cooled and has platinum electrodes (Reference 10). Electron collision and heating causes the CO₂ to dissociate into CO and O₂, which causes the concentration of CO₂ to drop and thus the power to decrease. Nitrogen is vibrationally excited at the cathode by electron impact or heating. This vibrationally excited nitrogen collides with CO₂ molecules, which produces vibrationally excited CO₂. He acts as a coolant and carries heat to the walls. The He reduces the population of the lower laser levels due to collisions.

Lifetimes of sealed-off CO₂ lasers have been short without the addition of water. Adding water improves the lifetime because when electrons impact the water, it dissociates into OH plus H. The OH then chemically combines with CO to regenerate CO₂.

In the CO₂ laser, Ni and Pt have been found to act as catalysts in regenerating CO₂. Carbone (References 11,12) has investigated the use of Ni electrodes and shown that the dominant effect is absorption of CO₂, CO, and O₂ at the Ni cathode. Another catalytic reaction was investigated by Taylor, et al (Reference 13), who observed the effects of a heated Pt wire (850°C estimated) on the output power of CO₂-He and CO₂-N₂-He mixture. Their data shows that the rate of 2CO + O₂ → 2CO₂ was increased by the presence of hot Pt.

Figure 17. High Power Single Mode CO₂ Laser (Reproduced from Reference 10).
SECTION IX  
CONCLUSIONS

We have indicated some of the aspects which must be considered when designing, processing, and constructing gaseous lasers. The considerations for increasing power and lifetimes include temperature of operation, cathode processing, bore design, and Brewster Window material. The He-Cd laser must operate at a high temperature, which limits the overall efficiency to a low value; operation at a low temperature is unlikely. Improved cathode processing methods are vital to improve the lifetimes of sealed gas lasers. CO₂ sealed laser lifetimes have been significantly enhanced by using platinum and nickel electrodes; these materials act as catalysts and inhibit sputtering, thereby yielding minimal tube contamination. In argon gas ion lasers, erosion of the bore has been significantly reduced by using the anodic bore; lifetimes of sealed laser tubes have been increased by a factor of ten over those for conventional plasma tubes without the anodic bore material. Brewster Windows for high-power gaseous lasers continue to present an optical problem due to physical changes in the window material; these lasers are power-limited by materials presently available for Brewster Windows. Consequently, improvements in Brewster Window materials, cathode materials and processing techniques, and bore materials and design will significantly enhance the state of the art in gas laser technology.
REFERENCES


**TECHNIQUES of GAS LASER CONSTRUCTION AND PROCESSING**

The information presented here covers various aspects of gas laser construction and processing, in particular, the most common gas lasers; He-Ne, Noble gas-ion CO₂, and He-Cd. In addition, some background information is given involving the theory of operation as well as the role that some of the gases play in the lasing process. An in-depth discussion of cold cathodes for the He-Ne lasers, the anodic bore ion lasers, and the CO₂ laser is included.

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<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>KEY WORDS</th>
<th>LINK A</th>
<th>LINK B</th>
<th>LINK C</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Lasers</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>He-Cd Lasers</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>He-Ne Lasers</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Argon-Ion Lasers</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cathodes</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CO₂ Lasers</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cold Cathodes</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cathode Processing</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Metal Vapor Lasers</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Plasma Tubes</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Brewster Windows</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Thermal Degradation</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cataphoresis</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Slotted Hollow Cathodes</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Noise Characteristics</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Space-Qualified He-Ne Lasers</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Anodic Bores</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Optical Degradation</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Shearing Interferograms</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Catalytic Reactions</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>