



ELSEVIER

Available online at www.sciencedirect.com

SCIENCE @ DIRECT®

Optics and Lasers in Engineering 43 (2005) 251–262

OPTICS and LASERS
in
ENGINEERING

LiCaAlF₆ and LiSrAlF₆: tunable solid state laser host materials

Till A. Samtleben, Jürg Hulliger*

Department of Chemistry and Biochemistry, University of Berne, Freiestrasse 3, CH-3012 Berne, Switzerland

Received 5 January 2004; received in revised form 13 February 2004; accepted 27 February 2004

Available online 24 August 2004

Abstract

Tunable all-solid-state lasers find more and more applications in different fields. Chromium-doped ternary colquiriites, LiCaAlF₆ (LiCAF) and LiSrAlF₆ (LiSAF), show a tunable laser activity in the region of 720–840 nm and 780–1010 nm, respectively. Other interesting properties enable them to be used as scintillators and window materials. Single crystals of LiCAF and LiSAF have been grown by various methods, including the Czochralski, Bridgeman, zone melting and top-seeded solution growth techniques. Vertical gradient freezing (VGF) is proposed for producing high optical quality crystals.

© 2004 Elsevier Ltd. All rights reserved.

Keywords: Tunable solid-state lasers; LiSAF; LiCAF; Colquiriites; Crystal growth; Vertical gradient freezing technique

1. Introduction

Due to a certain range of emission wavelengths, tunable solid-state lasers have opened a wide field for scientific and real-world applications: In medicine and life science, fiber optic catheters allow in situ and on-site diagnostic investigations [1]. In telecommunication, tunable lasers are used to characterize the transmission,

*Corresponding author. Tel.: +41-31-631-4241; fax: +41-31-631-3993.

E-mail address: juerg.hulliger@iac.unibe.ch (J. Hulliger).

reflection and further optical characteristics of networks [2]. Furthermore, remote sensing and environmental monitoring with the LIDAR-technology [3] is a promising field of application [4].

First tunable lasers were systems using organic dye molecules in solutions [5]. Although these lasers are still operated today, this technology is e.g. not suited to build up small-sized integrated optical systems. One of the first tunable solid-state gain media was the alexandrite host (BeAl_2O_4) doped by Cr^{3+} , providing an emission range of 701–818 nm [6]. However, today's most frequently applied tunable solid-state laser is Ti-sapphire ($\alpha\text{-Al}_2\text{O}_3$) offering emission between 670 and 1100 nm, where the maximum intensity is obtained at about 800 nm. In Ti^{3+} the wide bands are due to a vibronical broadening of the ${}^2\text{T}_2 \rightarrow {}^2\text{E}$ absorption [7]. Although a Ti-sapphire system shows many advantages, pumping with e.g. flash lamps is not efficient because of a relatively short lifetime of $\sim 3 \mu\text{s}$ of the upper laser level. Therefore, pumping is commonly performed by a frequency doubled Nd:YAG ($\text{Nd}^{3+}:\text{Al}_3\text{Y}_5\text{O}_{12}$) laser. Again, in this configuration systems become rather large and are not preferably suited for integration.

A laser media family which gives a similar tuning range as Ti-sapphire including the possibility for diode pumping are Cr^{3+} -doped ternary colquiriites, e.g. LiCaAlF_6 (LiCAF) and LiSrAlF_6 (LiSAF) [8,9]. Colquiriite is derived from the name of a tin deposit in Bolivia, where such a mineral was found originally [10].

Along this short review we report on basics and on progress in the crystal growth of LiCAF and LiSAF. Ongoing research in this field is performed in our laboratory.

2. Crystal structure and synthesis of LiCAF and LiSAF

LiCaAlF_6 and LiSrAlF_6 are isomorphous and crystallize in a trigonale structure with the space group $\text{P}\bar{3}1c$ ($\bar{3}m$). This structure is found a member of ternary fluorides of the LiM(II)M(III)F_6 type [11,12]. Here (Fig. 1), $[\text{Ca}(\text{Sr})\text{F}_6]^{4-}$ groups are isolated but connected via the corners of $[\text{LiF}_6]^{5-}$ or $[\text{AlF}_6]^{3-}$ octahedrons. $[\text{LiF}_6]^{5-}$ and $[\text{AlF}_6]^{3-}$ units are connected via edges. Because of a similar ionic radius (CN: 6), Cr^{3+} can replace the Al^{3+} site [13]. Crystals of the composition $\text{LiSr}_x\text{Ca}_{1-x}\text{AlF}_6$ were also reported [14].

Given the point group $\bar{3}m$, LiCAF and LiSAF are optically uniaxial crystals. A major problem for the growth of bulk crystals is the anisotropic thermal expansion coefficient: Both materials show a higher thermal expansion in the lateral than in the axial direction (Table 1). In the case of LiSAF the axial value is even negative. This leads to the conclusion that growing LiSAF in crucibles by e.g. the vertical gradient freezing (VGF) method is preferably done along the c direction.

The ternary phase diagram $\text{LiF-CaF}_2\text{-AlF}_3$ is not yet sufficiently investigated, also it is not clear, whether LiCAF is melting congruently or not. Incongruent melting was reported assuming a deficiency of CaF_2 [25]. Contrary, LiSAF showed congruent melting. However, there are other reports claiming that both, LiSAF and LiCAF are congruently melting [22], even though there are some remaining questions [26].

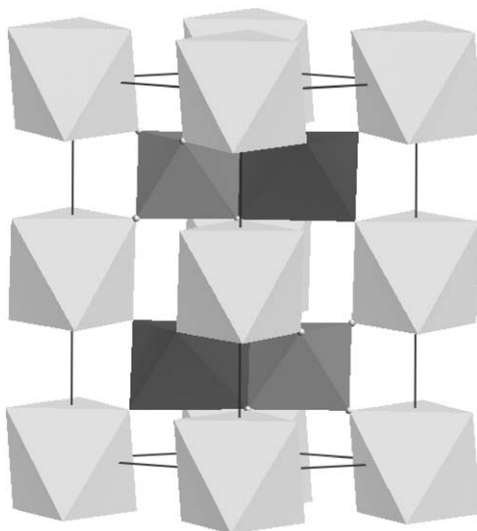
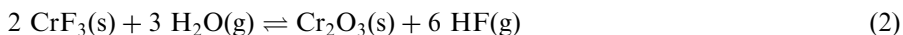
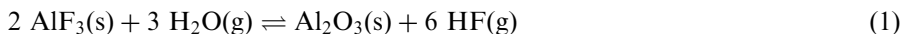


Fig. 1. Crystal structure of LiCAF showing the $[\text{CaF}_6]^{4-}$ (gray), $[\text{LiF}_6]^{5-}$ (white) and $[\text{AlF}_6]^{3-}$ (black) octahedrons [11].

In Fig. 2, a reconstructed phase diagram is shown, taking into account known experimental work on different sub-systems. Besides $\text{LiCa}(\text{Sr})\text{AlF}_6$, there are two known compounds in the $\text{CaF}_2\text{--AlF}_3$ system, CaAlF_5 and Ca_2AlF_5 [27] and one (Li_3AlF_6) in the LiF--AlF_3 system [28]. LiAlF_4 is reported to only exist in the gas phase [29]. The ternary system $\text{LiF--Li}_3\text{AlF}_6\text{--CaF}_2$ was investigated experimentally [30–32] and as well as by theoretical means [33].

The commonly used starting materials for growing LiCAF and LiSAF show an affinity towards water, especially AlF_3 . The most frequent doping material CrF_3 is similarly air and moisture sensitive. On heating only a part of the moisture evaporates and remaining water can lead to hydrolysis:



For the temperature range of crystal growth (800°C) it was shown [24], that for atmospheric conditions the hydrolysis of CrF_3 is nearly complete. The resulting oxyfluoride inclusions lead to scattering centers, which are not compatible with optical use.

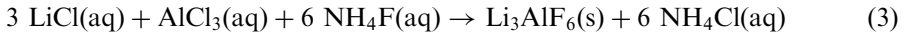
Usually precursors are purified via sublimation or hot hydrofluorination. In our laboratory we have developed a combined procedure towards high purity starting materials: In a first step the materials are synthesized in an aqueous medium, using a so-called wet-chemical approach. Afterwards the dried products are treated with gaseous HF at 600°C .

This was approved first for the preparation of LiYF_4 [34] and is now being applied for LiCAF and LiSAF by a two step reaction, starting from chlorides, using NH_4F

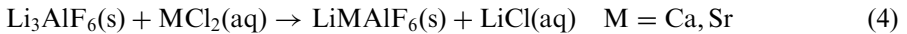
Table 1
Properties of LiSAF and LiCAF

	LiCAF	LiSAF	Refs.
<i>Laser characteristics</i>			
Tuning range (nm)			
Cr ³⁺	720–840	780–1010	[15,16]
Ce ³⁺	280–316	280–316	[17]
Peak lasing wavelength (nm)			
Cr ³⁺	780	825	[15,16]
Ce ³⁺	290	290	[17]
Pump wavelength (nm)			
Cr ³⁺	670		[16]
Ce ³⁺	266 (4 ω -Nd:YAG)		[18]
Exited state lifetime (μ s) (300 K)			
Cr ³⁺	170	67	[19,20]
<i>Crystallographic and physical data</i>			
Space group lattice constants	P $\bar{3}1c$	P $\bar{3}1c$	[11,12]
a (\AA)	4.996	5.071	[11,12]
c (\AA)	9.636	10.189	[11,12]
Density (g/cm^3)	2.983	3.45	[21]
Melting point (K)	1083	1063	[22]
Thermal conductivity			
κ_{11} ($\text{WK}^{-1} \text{m}^{-1}$)	4.58	—	[23]
κ_{22} ($\text{WK}^{-1} \text{m}^{-1}$)	5.14	3.09	[23]
Thermal expansion			
α_{11} (10^{-6}K^{-1})	22.0	18.8	[24]
α_{33} (10^{-6}K^{-1})	3.6	−10	[24]
Fracture toughness			
K_{IC} (MPa m)	0.18–0.37	0.40	[23]
Refraction indices			
ε	1.3852	1.384	[21]
ω	1.3882	1.380	[21]

as fluoride source:



In a second step, LiAlF₆ is suspended in an aqueous solution of MCl₂ (M = Ca, Sr) and heated in an ultrasonic bath.



A setup as shown in Fig. 3 is suitable for a hot hydrofluorination. As a source for the hydrogen fluoride, KHF₂ is heated to lose HF(g) [35]. To avoid a shift of the melting temperature as the fraction of KF increases, an excess of KF is added, making the vapor pressure only a function of the temperature. The HF is carried from the auxiliary furnace by a nitrogen stream into the horizontal main reaction furnace, where it passes over the charge placed in vitreous carbon boats. The water, which is contained in the initial charge, evaporates upon heating and the hydrogen

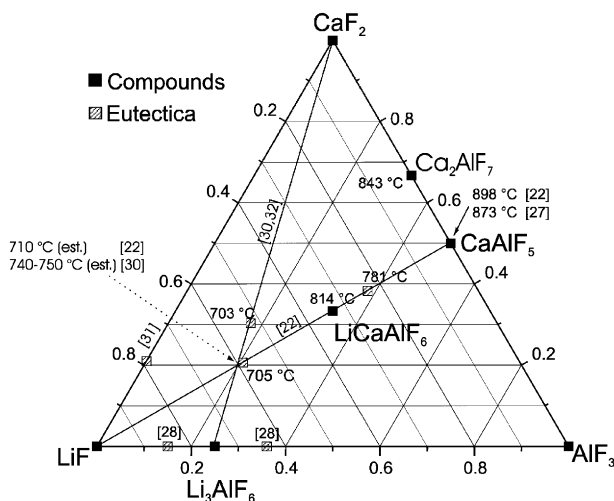


Fig. 2. Phase diagram of the ternary system $\text{LiF–AlF}_3\text{–CaF}_2$, constructed from cited work.

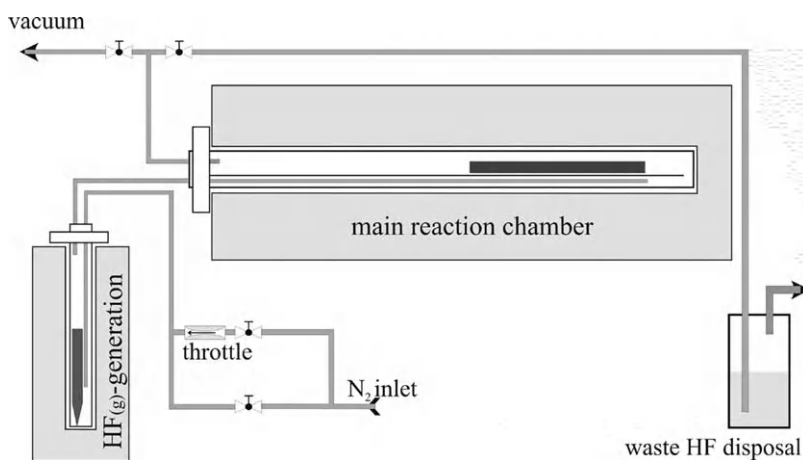


Fig. 3. Setup for the hot hydrofluorination. In the small vertical furnace HF is produced, whereas the reactions are performed in the horizontal main furnace [34].

fluoride converts the residual anionic impurities into fluorides. The leaving gas is carried through an aqueous solution of NaOH to remove remaining hydrofluoride.

3. Crystal growth of *LiCAF* and *LiSAF*

In recent years, many attempts were made to obtain optical quality crystals of *LiCAF* and *LiSAF*. Preferably, the Czochralski pulling technique [23–24,36,39] was applied. Other efforts have used the Bridgman [40], the zone melting [41] or the top-

seeded solution growth method [42]. An overview on the conditions of growth by different approaches is given in Table 2.

Crystals with a diameter up to 18 mm have been grown quite easily by Czochalski pulling. Higher diameters were more difficult to obtain, because the already mentioned thermal expansion anisotropy, as this effect may lead to a cracking of crystals [24]. Nevertheless, crystals up to a diameter of 3 in have been already achieved, this by carefully controlling the pulling rate, rotation and by application of a slow rate of cooling down to room temperature. In the Czochralski growth the quality of the crystals was found to depend on diameter fluctuations. Therefore, considerable efforts had to be spent to control the diameter by means of a weight feedback system [43,44].

In this respect, the use of the *vertical gradient freeze technique* (VGF) would allow a more simple approach for the growth of LiSAF and LiCAF:

Here, starting materials are melted in a vertical (for example glassy carbon) and closed crucible. After a couple of hours set to homogenize the melt, the temperature is reduced slowly by less than 1 K/h. Due to the temperature slope in the oven the melt starts to crystallize at the bottom of the crucible, where a seed may be placed. The growth front is moving upwards as the melt is slowly being cooled down.

A main concern for successfully growing crystals by the VGF method is to achieve a constant lowering of the temperature without major fluctuations. For this, a setup may use a controller, allowing the input of two thermocouples: One to control the temperature of the heating element, a second for observing the temperature below

Table 2
Overview on recent work in crystal growth of LiSAF and LiCAF

	Method	Diameter/size (mm)	Dopant/concentration	Atmosphere	Refs.
LiSAF	Czochralski	18	Ce ³⁺	CF ₄	[36]
		18			[24]
		15	Ce ³⁺		
		30	2 mol%		[39]
	Zone melting		Cr ³⁺		[23]
			4–6.5 mol%		[41]
LiCAF	Czochalski	76	—	CF ₄	[37]
		18		CF ₄	[36]
		20			[38]
		15	Ce ³⁺		
		18	2 mol%		[39]
		30		N ₂	[24]
	Top-seeded solution growth	18	Cr ³⁺	N ₂	[23]
				HF	[42]
Bridgeman	10*120				
	20*80	Cr ³⁺		[40]	

the crucible. To achieve a high temperature stability, a cascade control loop can be installed. In our setup, the secondary control loop could reduce fluctuations down to about 0.1 K (Fig. 4.)

Bulk crystals of pure LiYF_4 and doped (Er^{3+} , Nd^{3+}) were grown successfully by the VGF approach [34], as described here.

The VGF technique combined with a wet chemical synthesis of starting materials is now being adopted to the growth of bulk LiSAF and LiCAF crystals. Preliminary results show that optical quality crystals can be obtained. Samples of the first attempts were grown upon spontaneous nucleation and showed cracks. However, these crystals are now being used to prepare seeds for further growth.

4. Some details on LiCAF and LiSAF lasers and other optical applications

At the end of the 1980s, Payne et al. first examined the laser performance of chromium doped LiCAF [15] and LiSAF [45]. Trivalent chromium is a long known activator ion, as lasing was realized first for $\text{Cr}^{3+}:\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$ [46] (ruby laser). In the colquirites the laser oscillation is based (similar to alexandrite) on the vibronically broadened ${}^4\text{T}_2 \rightarrow {}^4\text{A}_2$ transition [47]. In case of LiCAF the peak lasing wavelength is at 780 nm with a tuning range from 720 to 840 nm [15]. LiSAF has an even wider tuning range, covering 780–1010 nm. Here, the peak lasing wavelength is at 825 nm [16]. A broad absorption band around 670 nm allows pumping by laser diodes. Although the first results on laser activity were achieved with Kr laser pumping [16],

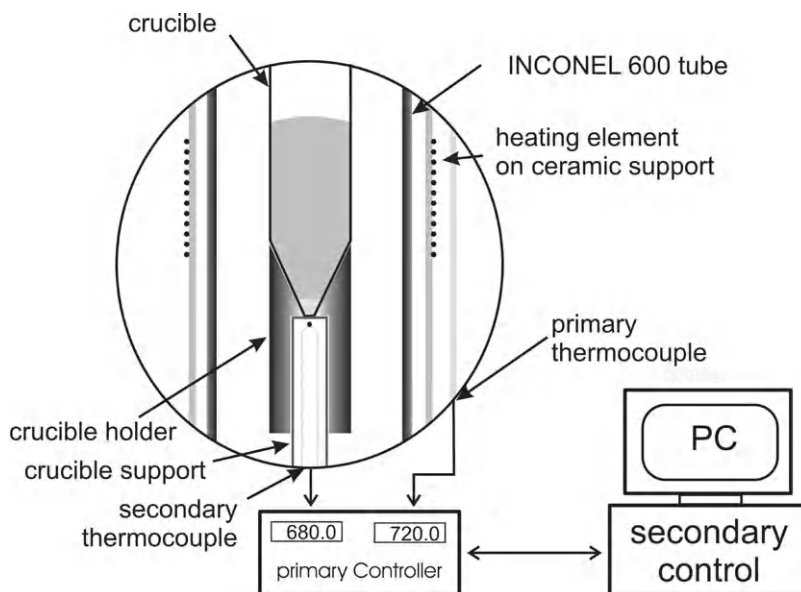


Fig. 4. Temperature controlling system used for the growth of bulk crystals by the vertical gradient freeze method [34].

the widest tuning range can be obtained by flash lamp activation [48]. Diode pumping was first reported to be limited to a range of 100 nm [49], but improving the spectral resolution of the coupling cavity, finally a tuning range of 148 nm was achieved [50]. In the case of Cr:LiCAF, a slope efficiency of 67% was reached [15]. For LiSAF, at first, a rather low slope efficiency of 36% was reported [16]. However, recently a high power Cr:LiSAF laser with an output power of 0.55 W and a slope efficiency of 51% could be demonstrated, this by using a doping level of only 1.5% (for reducing thermal quenching) [51].

In the colquiriites the excited state life time is rather long: 67 μs for LiSAF and 170 μs for LiCAF [19,20] at room temperature. These values (especially for LiSAF) are strongly temperature dependent. The lifetime decreases with the temperature, being half already at 69 °C (Cr:LiSAF). Cr:LiCAF shows improved properties with the halfvalue at 528 K [52], showing no significant loss up to 400 K [53].

Intracavity frequency doubling techniques, using KNbO_3 [54] and LiB_3O_5 [55] for the generation of the second harmonic, allowed to set up tunable blue laser light sources.

Besides the tunability of Cr:LiSAF and Cr:LiCAF lasers, it was also demonstrated that it is possible to build femtosecond lasers. The availability of this type of lasers, offering high output power during a short time, opened a wide field of new applications for the analysis of fast processes (e.g. chemical reactions) and in production techniques [56]. Pulses in the 10 fs regime could be realized using mode-locked setups either for LiSAF [57] or LiCAF [58,59]. With KNbO_3 for frequency doubling, a portable Cr:LiSAF setup, emitting blue light pulses in the femtosecond regime (~ 540 fs) was demonstrated recently [60].

Cr^{3+} :colquiriite dioded pumped laser gain media are nowadays commercially available solid state lasers: *Mellesgriot* [61] offers frequency doubled Cr:LiSAF at fixed wavelengths of 430 and 442 nm, e.g. as a replacement for helium–cadmium lasers. *High-Q-Lasers* [62] has offered a femtosecond Cr:LiSAF laser, but as the pumping diodes have not yet shown the requested reliability, the availability of a small sized frequency doubled Nd:YAG laser source for pumping has replaced LiSAF by a Ti:sapphire system of similar size. Most recently, a commercial tunable CW Cr:LiSAF-laser was presented by *Rainbow Photonics* [63], a spin-off of the Nonlinear Optics Laboratory at the Swiss Federal Institute of Technology (ETH), delivering a power of 100 mW over a tuning range of 820–970 nm.

Not only chromium-doped crystals showed laser performance: Cerium(III)-doped LiCAF is an active medium for tunable solid state lasers in the UV region [17], representing a new opportunity for solid state lasers [18]. Laser activity of Ce^{3+} -doped material is based on the $5d \rightarrow 4f$ transition. In the case of LiSAF and LiCAF, the transitions are broadened showing therefore tunability in the range of 280–316 nm [64]. Pumping is achieved by the fourth harmonic of a Nd-YAG laser [18].

The tuning range make Ce:LiSAF or Ce:LiCAF interesting materials for LIDAR applications in atmospheric remote sensing [65]. Important pollutants like O_3 and SO_2 exhibit absorptions bands in their tuning range [66,67]. Similarly, Cr:LiSAF was proposed for LIDAR applications [68].

In recent years, scientist have opened further fields for an application for LiSAF and LiCAF, making them interesting materials in optics: Cerium-doped LiCAF does not only show lasing properties, it can also be used as a scintillator material [69,70]. Furthermore, the utilization of LiCAF as a windows material for the 157 nm photolithography, representing the next step on the roadmap for semiconductors [71], has gained interest. Problems with radiation damage, which are typical for many fluoride crystals, could be solved by co-doping with trivalent rare earth ions [72,73] or Mg^{2+}/Ba^{2+} [74,75].

5. Conclusions

In essence, both LiCAF and LiSAF are interesting optical materials in respect to many existing or oncoming optical applications. The more important are therefore all aspects of synthesis and crystal growth including waveguide formation. In case of LiSAF and LiCAF, there is just little work reported up to now [76,77]: First waveguides were obtained by ion beam implantation. An alternative technique would be liquid-phase epitaxy in combination with chemical wet etching. This was successfully elaborated in our laboratory in case of $LiYF_4$ [78–80], allowing to demonstrate the first 1-D waveguide for a fluoride laser material [81].

References

- [1] Cassis LA, Yates J, Symons WC, Lodder RA. Cardiovascular near-infrared imaging. *J Near Infrared Spectrosc* 1998;6:A21–5.
- [2] <http://www.eetimes.com/story/OEG20010925S0070>.
- [3] Felix F, Keenlside W, Kent G, Sandford MCW. Laser radar observations of atmospheric potassium. *Nature* 1973;246:345–6.
- [4] Pryor B, Frost R. Tunable alexandrite lasers find ultraviolet applications. *Laser Focus World* 1999;35:73–6.
- [5] Schaefer FP, Schmidt W, Volze J. Organic dye solution laser. *App Phys Lett* 1966;9:306–9.
- [6] Walling JC, Peterson OG, Jensen HP, Morris RC, O'Dell EW. Tunable CW alexandrite laser. *IEEE J Quantum Electron* 1980;16:120–1.
- [7] Moulton PF. Spectroscopic and laser characteristics of $Ti:Al_2O_3$. *J Opt Soc Am B* 1986;3:125–33.
- [8] Payne SA, Chase LL, Wilke GD. Optical spectroscopy of the new laser materials $LiSrAlF_6:Cr^{3+}$ and $LiCaAlF_6:Cr^{3+}$. *J Luminesc* 1989;44:167–76.
- [9] Payne SA, Chase LL, Smith LK, Kway WL, Newkirk HW. Laser performance of $LiSrAlF_6:Cr^{3+}$. *J Appl Phys* 1989;66:1051–6.
- [10] Walenta K, Lehmann B, Zwiener M. Colquiriit, ein neues Fluoridmineral aus der Zinnlagerstätte Colquiri in Bolivien. *Tschermaks Min Petr Mitt* 1980;27:275–81.
- [11] Viebahn W. Untersuchung an quaternären Fluoriden $LiMe^{II}Me^{III}F_6$ Die Struktur von $LiCaAlF_6$. *Z Anorg Allg Chem* 1971;386:335–9.
- [12] Schaffers KI, Keszler DA. Structure of $LiSrAlF_6$. *Acta Crystallogr* 1991;C47:18–20.
- [13] Rupp B, Kway WL, Wong J. Chromium site specific chemistry and crystal structure of $LiCaCrF_6$ and related chromium doped laser materials. *J Solid State Chem* 1993;107:471–9.
- [14] Castillo VK, Quarles GJ, Chang RSF. Material and laser characterisation of intermediate compositions of $Ce:LiSr_xCa_{1-x}AlF_6$. *J Cryst Growth* 2001;225:445–8.

- [15] Payne SA, Chase LL, Newkirk HW, Smith LK, Krupke WF. LiCaAlF₆:Cr³⁺: a promising new solid-state laser material. *IEEE J Quantum Electron* 1988;24:2243–52.
- [16] Payne SA, Chase LL, Smith LK, Kway WL, Newkirk HW. Laser performance of LiSrAlF₆:Cr³⁺. *J Appl Phys* 1989;66:1051–6.
- [17] Dubinskii MA, Semashko VV, Naumov AK, Abdulsabirov RY, Korableva SL. Spectroscopy of a new active medium of a solid-state UV laser with broadband single-pass gain. *Laser Phys* 1993;3:216–7.
- [18] Dubinskii MA, Semashko VV, Naumov AK, Abdulsabirov RY, Korableva SL. Ce³⁺-doped colquiriire: a new concept of all-solid-state tunable ultraviolet laser. *J Mod Opt* 1993;40:1–5.
- [19] Balembois F, Druon F, Falcoz F, Georges P, Brun A. Comparison between Cr:LiSAF and Cr:LiSGAF for cw diode-pumped Q-Switch operation. *OSA TOPS Adv Solid State Lasers* 1997;10:170–3.
- [20] Smith LK, Payne SA, Kway WL, Chase LL, Chai BHT. Investigation of laser properties of Cr³⁺:LiSrGaF₆. *IEEE J Quantum Electron* 1992;28:2612–8.
- [21] Weber MJ, editor. *CRC handbook of laser science and technology*. Supplement 2, Boca Raton, Ann Arbor, London, Tokyo: CRC; 1995.
- [22] Chen HB, Fan S, Xia H, Fei Y. Phase equilibria in the pseudo-binary systems LiF–CaAlF₅ and LiF–SrAlF₅. *J Cryst Growth* 2002;235:596–602.
- [23] Klimm D, Lacayo G, Reiche P. Growth of Cr:LiCaAlF₆ and Cr:LiSrAlF₆ by the czochralski method. *J Cryst Growth* 2000;210:683–93.
- [24] Klimm D, Reiche P. Ternary colquiriite type fluorides as laser hosts. *Cryst Res Technol* 1999;34:145–52.
- [25] Klimm D, Reiche P. Nonstoichiometry of the new laser host LiCaAlF₆. *Cryst Res Technol* 1998;33:409–16.
- [26] Klimm D, Reiche P. Comments on “Phase equilibria in the pseudo-binary systems LiF–CaAlF₅ and LiF–SrAlF₅” [*J Cryst Growth* 2002;235:596]. *J Cryst Growth* 2003;249:388–390.
- [27] Craig DF, Brown JJ. Phase Equilibria in the system CaF₂–AlF₃. *J Am Ceram Soc* 1977;60:396–8.
- [28] Fedotieff PP, Timofeeff K. Schmelzdiagramme der Systeme KF–AlF₃ und LiF–AlF₃. *Z anorg Chem* 1932;206:263–6.
- [29] Garton G, Wanklyn BM. Polymorphism in Li₃AlF₆. *J Inorg Nucl Chem* 1965;27:2466–9.
- [30] Malinovský M, Vrbenská J. Phasendiagramm des Systems Li₃AlF₆–CaF₂. *Chem Zvesti* 1967;21:806–17.
- [31] Vrbenská J, Malinovský M. Phasendiagramm des Systems Li₃AlF₆–LiF–CaF₂. *Chem Zvesti* 1967;21:818–25.
- [32] Kostenská I, Vrbenská J, Malinovský M. The liquidus curves of the lithium cryolite in the Li₃AlF₆–CaF₂, Li₃AlF₆–SrF₂ and Li₃AlF₆–BaF₂ systems and their thermodynamic analysis. *Chem Zvesti* 1973;27:296–300.
- [33] Vrbenská J, Kostenská I. Calculation of isotherm in the phase diagram of the system Li₃AlF₆–LiF–CaF₂. *Chem Pap* 1986;40:167–76.
- [34] Rogin P, Hulliger J. Growth of LiYF₄ by the seeded vertical gradient freezing technique. *J Cryst Growth* 1997;172:200–8.
- [35] Cady GH. Freezing points and vapour pressures of the system potassiumfluoride–hydrogenfluoride. *J Am Chem Soc* 1934;56:1431–4.
- [36] Shimamura K, Baldochi SL, Mujilat N, Nakano K, Liu Z, Sarukura N, Fukuda T. Growth of Ce-doped LiCaAlF₆ and LiSrAlF₆ single crystals by czochralski technique under CF₄ atmosphere. *J Cryst Growth* 2000;211:302–7.
- [37] Shimamura K, Sato H, Bensalah A, Machida H, Sarukura N, Fukuda T. Growth of LiCaAlF₆ single crystals with an extended diameter and their optical characterization. *J Alloys Compd* 2002;343:204–10.
- [38] Shimamura K, Mujilat N, Nakano K, Baldochi SL, Liu Z, Ohtake H, Sarukura N, Fukuda T. Growth and characterisation of Ce-doped LiCaAlF₆ single crystals. *J Cryst Growth* 1999;197:896–900.

- [39] Castillo VK, Quarles GJ. Progress in the crystal growth of Ce: colquiriites. *J Cryst Growth* 1997;174:337–41.
- [40] Wang Y, Huang C, Chen L, Fang Z. Crystal growth of $\text{Cr}^{3+}:\text{LiCaAlF}_6$ by Bridgman technique. *J Cryst Growth* 1996;167:176–9.
- [41] Ruiz MCHM, Barbosa EA, Maldonado EP, Morato SP, Wetter NU, Vieira ND, Baldochi SL. Zone melting growth of $\text{LiSrAlF}_6:\text{Cr}$ crystals for diode laser pumping. *J Cryst Growth* 2002;241:177–82.
- [42] Belt RF, Uhrin R. Top seeded solution growth of $\text{Cr}^{3+}:\text{LiCaAlF}_6$ in HF atmosphere. *J Cryst Growth* 1991;109:340–4.
- [43] Wilke KT. *Kristallzüchtung*. Berlin: VEB Deutscher Verlag der Wissenschaften; 1988.
- [44] Mateika D, Flisikowski P, Kohler H, Kilian R. Automatisierte Kristallziehenanlage für das Czochralski-Verfahren. *J Cryst Growth* 1977;41:262–74.
- [45] Payne SA, Smith LK, Beach RJ, Chai BHT, Tassano JH, Deloach LD, Kway WL, Solarz RW, Krupke WF. Properties of $\text{Cr}:\text{LiSrAlF}_6$ crystals for laser operation. *Appl Opt* 1994;33:5526–36.
- [46] Maiman TH. Stimulated optical radiation in ruby. *Nature* 1960;187:493–4.
- [47] Lee HWH, Payne SA, Chase LL. Exited-state adsorption of Cr^{3+} in LiCaAlF_6 : effects of asymmetric distortions and intensity selection rules. *Phys Rev B* 1989;39:8907–14.
- [48] Stalder M, Chai BHT, Bass M. Flashlamp pumped $\text{Cr}:\text{LiSrAlF}_6$ laser. *Appl Phys Lett* 1991;58:216–8.
- [49] Zhang Q, Dixon GJ, Chai BHT, Kean PN. Electronically tuned diode pumped $\text{Cr}:\text{LiSrAlF}_6$. *Opt Lett* 1992;17:43–5.
- [50] Ihara M, Tsunekane M, Taguchi N, Inaba H. Widely tunable, single-longitudinal-mode, diode pumped CW $\text{Cr}:\text{LiSAF}$ laser. *Electron Lett* 1995;3:888–9.
- [51] Isemann A, Fallnich C. High-power Colquiriite lasers with high slope efficiencies pumped by broad-area laser diodes. *Opt Express* 2003;3:259–64.
- [52] Stalder M, Bass M, Chai BHT. Thermal quenching of fluorescence in chromium-doped fluoride laser crystals. *J Opt Soc Am B* 1992;9:2271–3.
- [53] Paus H. Lakrimat: Neue laseraktive kristalline Materialien; Teilprojekt: Züchtung und Grundlagenuntersuchung von Fluorid-Laserkristallen. Abschlussbericht 1999;32–38.
- [54] Falcoz F, Balembois F, Georges P, Brun A. All solid-state CW tunable blue light source by intracavity doubling of a diode-pumped $\text{Cr}:\text{LiSAF}$ laser. In: Chai BHT, Payne SA, editors. *OSA Proceedings of advances on solid-state lasers*, vol. 24; 1995. p. 68–70.
- [55] Makio S, Matsumoto H, Miyamoto A, Sato M, Sasaki T. Low-noise blue light generation of intracavity frequency-doubled LD-pumped $\text{Cr}:\text{LiSAF}$ laser by single-mode method. *Electron Eng Jpn* 2002;138:910–5.
- [56] Wintner E, Sorokina E, Sorokina IT. Recent developments in diode-pumped ultrashort pulse solid-state lasers. *Laser Phys* 2001;11:1193–200.
- [57] Uemura S, Torizuka K. Generation of 12-fs pulses from a diode-pumped Kerr-lens mode-locked $\text{Cr}:\text{LiSAF}$ laser. *Opt Lett* 1999;24:780–2.
- [58] Gäbel KM, Rußbüldt P, Lebert R, Valster A. Diode pumped $\text{Cr}^{3+}:\text{LiCAF}$ fs-laser. *Opt Comm* 1998;157:327–34.
- [59] Wagenblast P, Ell R, Morgner U. Diode pumped 10-fs $\text{Cr}^{3+}:\text{LiCAF}$ laser. *Opt Lett* 2003;28:1713–5.
- [60] Agate B, Kemp AJ, Brown CTA, Sibbett W. Efficient, high repetition-rate femtosecond blue source using a compact $\text{Cr}:\text{LiSAF}$ laser. *Opt Express* 2002;10:824–31.
- [61] www.mellesgriot.com.
- [62] www.highqlaser.com.
- [63] www.rainbowphotonics.com.
- [64] Marshall CD, Speth JA, Payne SA, Krupke WF, Quarles GJ, Castillo V, Chai BHT. Ultraviolet laser emission properties of Ce^{3+} -doped LiSrAlF_6 and LiCaAlF_6 . *J Opt Soc Am B* 1994;11:2054–65.
- [65] Rambaldi P, Douard M, Wolf JP. New UV-tunable solid-state lasers for lidar applications. *Appl Phys B* 1995;61:117–20.
- [66] Baulch DL, Cox RA, Crutzen PJ, Hampson RF, Kerr JA, Troe J, Watson RT. Evaluated kinetic and photochemical data for atmospheric chemistry. *J Phys Chem Ref Data* 1982;11:327–496.
- [67] Brassington DJ. Sulfur-dioxide absorption cross-section measurements from 290-nm to 317-nm. *Appl Opt* 1981;20:3774–9.

- [68] Early JW, Lester CS, Quick CR, Ttee JJ, Shimada T, Cockroft NJ. Continuously tunable, narrow-linewidth, q-switched Cr:LiSAF laser for Lidar Applications. In: Chai BHT, Payne SA, editors. OSA Proceedings of Advances on Solid-State Lasers, vol. 24; 1995. p. 9–12.
- [69] Nikl M, Solovieva N, Mihokova E, Dusek M, Vedda A, Martini M, Shimamura K, Fukuda T. Scintillation decay of LiCaAlF₆:Ce³⁺ single crystals. *Phys Status solidi (a)* 2001;187:R1–3.
- [70] Gektin A, Shiran N, Neicheva S, Gavriilyuk V, Bensalah A, Fukuda T, Shimamura K. LiCaAlF₆:Ce crystal: a new scintillator. *Nucl Instrum Methods Phys Res A* 2002;486:274–7.
- [71] European Semiconductor Industry Association, Japan Electronics and Information Technology Industry Association, Korea Semiconductor Industry Association, Taiwan Semiconductor Industry Association, Semiconductor Industry Association, editors. International technology roadmap for semiconductors. San Jose: Semiconductor Industry Association; 2003.
- [72] Sarantopoulou E, Kollia Z, Cefalas AC. LiCaAlF₆Nd³⁺ crystals as optical material for 157 nm photolithography. *Opt Commun* 2000;17:377–82.
- [73] Sarantopoulou E, Kollia Z, Cefalas AC. Wide band gap fluoride dielectric crystals doped with trivalent rare earth ions as optical materials for 157 nm photolithography. *Micro Eng* 2000;53:105–8.
- [74] Sato H, Bensalah A, Yoshikawa A, Nikl M, Machida H, Fukuda T. Improvement in the quality of LiCaAlF₆ single crystals as window material. *Opt Mater* 2003;24:123–7.
- [75] Sato H, Machida H. Color centers in LiCaAlF₆ single crystals and their suppression by doping. *J App Phys* 2002;91:5666–70.
- [76] Chandler PF, Huang X, Townsend PD, Hamelin N, Chow YT. Cr:LiSrAlF₆ optical waveguides defined by ion beam implantation. *Nucl Instrum Methods in Phys Res B* 1997;127/128:528–32.
- [77] Chai BHT. Recent development of new laser crystals. International conference on crystal growth. San Diego: 1992 (unpublished results).
- [78] Rogin P, Huber G, Hulliger J. LiYF₄ liquid-phase epitaxy using an inverted slider geometry. *J Cryst Growth* 1999;198/199:564–7.
- [79] Burkhalter R, Rogin P, Hulliger J. Growing and structuring waveguides for laser applications of fluoride materials. *Recent Res Dev Cryst Growth Res* 1999;1:319–51.
- [80] Burkhalter R, Rogin P, Eckau A, Buchal C, Hulliger J. Structuring of LiYF₄ for 1-D waveguide laser investigations by chemical wet etching techniques. *J Cryst Growth* 1999;206:187–96.
- [81] Rogin P, Hulliger J. Epitaxial Nd:YLF linear waveguide laser. *Opt Lett* 1997;22:1701–3.