

THE CHEMICAL ANALYSIS OF MODERN TATTOO INKS

by

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VOLUME I

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**This manuscript has been read and accepted for the Graduate Faculty in Criminal Justice
in satisfaction of the dissertation requirement for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy.**

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ABSTRACT**THE CHEMICAL ANALYSIS OF MODERN TATTOO INKS**

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The application of vibrational spectroscopic methods to the analysis of modern organic pigments found in tattoo inks is explored in this project. In the field of forensic science, the recognition and identification of both inorganic and organic pigments in human tissue can aid in the identification of charred, decomposed, mummified or otherwise unidentifiable remains in criminal investigations and mass disasters (natural, accidental and as a result of terrorism). In the field of art conservation and cultural heritage, the characterization and archiving of organic pigments in traditional tattoo inks can aid in future anthropological and archaeological studies of human culture and history. The criminal justice field has long studied the culture and impact of tattooing, especially in criminal behavior and incarcerated individuals. A more detailed knowledge of the composition of tattoo inks can assist in understanding criminal behavior and cultural practices of individuals in prison settings and among social groups. Furthermore, by detailing the visual, microscopic and spectroscopic analysis of tattoo inks along with describing the theories of vibrational spectroscopy and color chemistry, a thorough analytical method can be developed and validated to conform to current forensic laboratory accreditation standards and the satisfaction of legal standards such as Frye, Daubert and the Federal Rules of Evidence.

The aim of this research is to scientifically evaluate tattoo inks by documenting the physical properties of the inks both macroscopically and microscopically and by identifying the optical

and chemical properties of the pigments spectroscopically. This is done in an effort to qualitatively identify tattoo inks resulting in the ability to discriminate between different colors, within similar colors and between different brands of tattoo inks. The lack of an established method of analysis of tattoo inks for identification and comparison is an additional catalyst for this research. The primary means of characterization is based upon molecular structural determination using normal micro-Raman spectroscopy. This method will be supplemented by several other methods commonly employed in forensic science and art conservation laboratories, such as Surface Enhanced Raman Scattering (SERS), Fourier-transform Raman spectroscopy (FT-Raman), Fourier-transform infrared spectroscopy (FT-IR), x-ray fluorescence (XRF) and ultraviolet-visible spectroscopy (UV/Vis).

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TABLE OF CONTENTS**VOLUME I**

ABSTRACT.....	iv
ACKNOWLEDGMENTS.....	vi
LIST OF TABLES.....	x
LIST OF FIGURES.....	xi
CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION.....	1
CHAPTER 2: HISTORICAL PERSPECTIVES & REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE	
Tattoos and Forensic Applications.....	11
Tattoo Inks and Pigments.....	16
Raman Spectroscopy: Theory and Practice.....	30
Infrared Spectroscopy: Theory and Practice.....	49
Molecular Symmetry and Group Theory.....	55
Density Functional Theory (DFT).....	67
Instrument Calibration, Method Development & Standard Practices.....	71
Previous Studies Concerning the Analysis of Tattoo Inks.....	77
Organic Pigment Chemistry.....	88
CHAPTER 3: METHODS & MATERIALS	
Tattoo Inks and Analysis.....	97
Density Functional Theory (DFT) Calculations.....	123
Pigskin Study.....	126
Summary.....	129
CHAPTER 4: RESULTS & DISCUSSION.....	141
Pigments.....	143
Tattoo Inks.....	172
Pigskin.....	241
Density Functional Theory (DFT) Calculations.....	252
CHAPTER 5: CONCLUSIONS.....	266
Contribution to the Fields of Forensic Science & Criminal Justice.....	269
Future Studies.....	276

CHAPTER 6: APPENDICIES

A. Table of Raman and Infrared Bands.....	280
B. Correlation Charts.....	283
C. Character Tables.....	285
D. Results (Images & Spectra)- Tattoo Inks.....	292

VOLUME II

CHAPTER 6:APPENDICIES (CONTINUED)

D. Results (Images & Spectra)- Tattoo Inks (continued).....	413
E. Results (Spectra)- Tattoo Ink Extractions.....	573
F. Results (Spectra)- Pigment Standards.....	699
G. Results (Spectra)- Tattoo Inks in Pigskin.....	756
H. Reference Spectra- Calibration Standards.....	770
I. Reference Spectra- Pigment Standards.....	785
J. DFT Data & Spectra.....	813
CHAPTER 7: REFERENCES.....	819

LIST OF TABLES

Table 1: Study- Results of tattoo visualization through the stages of decomposition....	14
Table 2: Study- Results of microanalysis of tattoos.....	77
Table 3: Study-Pigments identified in a study of tattoo inks.....	78
Table 4: Study- Results of tattoo analysis by XRF.....	81
Table 5: Study- Results of tattoo ink composition interview study.....	82
Table 6: Study- Results of pigments in tattoo inks study.....	83
Table 7: Study-Results of tattoo analysis by absorption spectroscopy.....	85
Table 8: Ingredients of Skin Candy tattoo inks.....	99
Table 9: Pigment standards and chemical structures.....	111
Table 10: Absorption and transmission values of visible light.....	122
Table 11: Results-Iron Works Brasil tattoo inks.....	132
Table 12: Results-Skin Candy tattoo inks.....	133
Table 13: Results-Flying Tigers tattoo inks.....	134
Table 14: Results-Skin Candy tattoo inks pigment extractions.....	136
Table 15: Results-Flying Tigers tattoo inks pigment extractions.....	137
Table 16: Results-Known pigments.....	139
Table 17: Results-Pigskin.....	140
Table 18: Wavenumbers and band assignments for Raman spectra of human skin and nail excited at 632.8nm compared to the literature ($\lambda_0=1064\text{nm}$).....	249
Table 19: Excerpt of DFT calculation output demonstrating band locations and intensities.....	256
Table 20: DFT Data for Pigment Red 122.....	257
Table 21: DFT Data for Pigment Red 170.....	259
Table 22: DFT Data for Pigment Orange 16.....	262

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 1: Photograph and newspaper article- Homicide victim with tattoo.....	5
Figure 2: Assorted media reports demonstrating the use of tattoos in the identification of human remains.....	7
Figure 3: Photograph and newspaper article- Criminal case concerning the identification of tattoo inks.....	9
Figure 4: Cross section of skin and penetration depths of various wavelengths of light	13
Figure 5: Reaction of bile pigments to produce colored products in decomposition.....	15
Figure 6: Molecular structure of indigo.....	24
Figure 7: Molecular structure of hamamelitannin.....	25
Figure 8: Cross section of skin and penetration depth of tattoo ink pigment particles...	27
Figure 9: Decomposition products of red pigments.....	29
Figure 10: Energy level diagram of scattering processes.....	33
Figure 11: Mechanisms of light scattering processes.....	35
Figure 12: Laser sources used in Raman spectroscopy and corresponding depth profiles.....	36
Figure 13: Schematic of the Bruker Optics dispersive Raman microscope.....	38
Figure 14: Bruker Optics Senterra RamanScope.....	39
Figure 15: Collection geometry of Raman spectrometer coupled with an optical microscope.....	40
Figure 16: Schematic of an FT-Raman spectrometer.....	41
Figure 17: Bruker Optics Vertex 70 Ram II instrument.....	41
Figure 18: Thermo NXR FT-Raman instrument.....	42
Figure 19: Equation used to determine the resonance enhancement effects of SERS...	44
Figure 20: Resonances of the pyridine-silver nanoparticle system.....	45
Figure 21: Raman spectrum of colloid-citrate background.....	47

Figure 22: Schematic of an FT-IR ATR Durascope.....	53
Figure 23: Nicolet Magna IR 550FT Infrared Spectrometer with Durascope attachment.....	54
Figure 24: Energy level diagram of a diatomic molecule.....	56
Figure 25: Molecular motions.....	57
Figure 26: Potential energy curve for a diatomic molecule.....	58
Figure 27: Point group determination flow chart.....	61
Figure 28: Character table for the C_{2v} point group.....	62
Figure 29: Tautomerism of azo pigments.....	89
Figure 30: Assorted azo pigments.....	90
Figure 31: The phthalocyanines.....	92
Figure 32: Oxazine structures.....	93
Figure 33: Quinacridone structures.....	94
Figure 34: Iron Works Brasil tattoo inks.....	98
Figure 35: Skin Candy tattoo inks.....	98
Figure 36: Flying Tigers tattoo inks.....	100
Figure 37: Sanford Black Magic ink.....	102
Figure 38: Licensing logos of tattoo inks.....	103
Figure 39: Olympus microscopes.....	104
Figure 40: Bruker Artex and calibration standard.....	115
Figure 41: Shifts observed in UV/Vis Spectrophotometry.....	118
Figure 42: Shimadzu UV-2550 UV/Vis spectrophotometer.....	121
Figure 43: Tattooing of pigskin.....	127
Figure 44: Results- Raman Spectra-Pigment Red 146.....	145
Figure 45: Results- Raman Spectra-Pigment Red 170.....	146

Figure 46: Results- Raman Spectra-Pigment Red 255.....	147
Figure 47: Results- Raman Spectra-Pigment Orange 16 (2).....	149
Figure 48: Results- Raman Spectra-Pigment Orange 16.....	150
Figure 49: Results- Raman Spectra-Pigment Orange 34.....	151
Figure 50: Results- Raman Spectra-Pigment Orange 34.....	152
Figure 51: Results- Raman Spectra-Pigment Orange 62.....	153
Figure 52: Results- Raman Spectra-Pigment Yellow 3.....	154
Figure 53: Results- Raman Spectra-Pigment Yellow 83.....	157
Figure 54: Results- Raman Spectra-Pigment Yellow 151 (2).....	158
Figure 55: Results- Raman Spectra-Pigment Green 7 (3).....	160
Figure 56: Results- Raman Spectra-Pigment Blue 15 (4).....	162
Figure 57: Results- Raman Spectra-Pigment Blue 15.....	166
Figure 58: Results- Raman Spectra-Pigment Violet 23.....	167
Figure 59: Results- Raman Spectra-Pigment Violet 23 (2).....	168
Figure 60: Results- Raman Spectra-Pigment Violet 23.....	169
Figure 61: Results-UV/Vis- Pigment Violet 23.....	170
Figure 62: Pigment standards in cuvettes for UV/Vis analysis.....	171
Figure 63: Results- Raman Spectra-Candy Apple Red.....	173
Figure 64: Results- Raman Spectra- Candy Apple Red.....	174
Figure 65: Results- Raman Spectra- Candy Apple Red.....	174
Figure 66: Results- Raman Spectra- Candy Apple Red.....	175
Figure 67: Results- Raman Spectra- Candy Apple Red.....	175
Figure 68: Results- Raman Spectra- Candy Apple Red.....	176
Figure 69: Results- Raman Spectra- Red Hot.....	176
Figure 70: Results- Raman Spectra- Red Hot.....	177

Figure 71: Results- Raman Spectra- Red Hot.....	177
Figure 72: Results- Raman Spectra- Red Hot.....	178
Figure 73: Results- Raman Spectra- Red Hot.....	178
Figure 74: Results- Raman Spectra- Marz.....	179
Figure 75: Results- Raman Spectra- Marz.....	179
Figure 76: Results- Raman Spectra- Marz.....	180
Figure 77: Results- Raman Spectra- Marz.....	180
Figure 78: Results- Raman Spectra- Dolemite.....	181
Figure 79: Results- Raman Spectra- Dolemite.....	181
Figure 80: Results- Raman Spectra- Dolemite.....	182
Figure 81: Results- Raman Spectra- Dolemite.....	182
Figure 82: Pigment Yellow 74.....	183
Figure 83: Dolemite extraction.....	184
Figure 84: Results- Raman Spectra- Dolemite.....	185
Figure 85: Results- Infrared Spectra- Dolemite.....	185
Figure 86: Results- Raman Spectra- Blisterine.....	186
Figure 87: Results- Raman Spectra- Blisterine.....	186
Figure 88: Results- Raman Spectra- Blisterine.....	187
Figure 89: Results- Raman Spectra- Blisterine	187
Figure 90: Results- Raman Spectra- Blisterine.....	188
Figure 91: Results- Raman Spectra- Blisterine.....	188
Figure 92: Results- Raman Spectra- Blisterine.....	189
Figure 93: Results- Infrared Spectra- Blisterine.....	190
Figure 94: Results- Raman Spectra- Blisterine and Dolemite.....	191
Figure 95: Results- Infrared Spectra- Blisterine and Dolemite.....	191

Figure 96: Results- Raman Spectra- Sassygrass.....	192
Figure 97: Results- Raman Spectra- Sassygrass.....	192
Figure 98: Results- Raman Spectra- Sassygrass.....	193
Figure 99: Results- Raman Spectra- Sassygrass.....	193
Figure 100: Results- Raman Spectra- Sassygrass.....	194
Figure 101: Results- Raman Spectra- Sassygrass.....	194
Figure 102: Results-UV/Vis- Sassygrass.....	195
Figure 103: Pigment Green 36.....	195
Figure 104: Results- Raman Spectra- Tastywaves.....	196
Figure 105: Results- Raman Spectra- Tastywaves.....	196
Figure 106: Results- Raman Spectra- Tastywaves.....	197
Figure 107: Results- Raman Spectra- Tastywaves.....	197
Figure 108: Results- Raman Spectra- Bell Bottom Blue.....	198
Figure 109: Results- Raman Spectra- Bell Bottom Blue.....	198
Figure 110: Results- Raman Spectra- Bell Bottom Blue.....	199
Figure 111: Results- Raman Spectra- Bell Bottom Blue.....	199
Figure 112: Results- Raman Spectra- SRV Teal 2.....	200
Figure 113: Results- Raman Spectra- SRV Teal 2.....	200
Figure 114: Results- Raman Spectra- SRV Teal 2.....	201
Figure 115: Results- Raman Spectra- SRV Teal 2.....	201
Figure 116: Results- Raman Spectra- SRV Teal 2.....	202
Figure 117: Results- Raman Spectra- SRV Teal 2.....	202
Figure 118: Results- Raman Spectra- Muddy Water Blue.....	203
Figure 119: Results- Raman Spectra- Muddy Water Blue.....	203
Figure 120: Results- Raman Spectra- Muddy Water Blue.....	204

Figure 121: Results- Raman Spectra- Muddy Water Blue.....	204
Figure 122: Results- Raman Spectra- Ripple.....	205
Figure 123: Results- Raman Spectra- Ripple.....	205
Figure 124: Results- Raman Spectra- Ripple.....	206
Figure 125: Results- Raman Spectra- Ripple.....	206
Figure 126: Results- Raman Spectra- Ripple.....	207
Figure 127: Results- UV/Vis- Ripple.....	207
Figure 128: Results- Raman Spectra- Razberry Creem.....	208
Figure 129: Results- Raman Spectra- Razberry Creem.....	208
Figure 130: Results- Raman Spectra- Razberry Creem.....	209
Figure 131: Results- Raman Spectra- Razberry Creem.....	209
Figure 132: Results- Raman Spectra- Razberry Creem.....	210
Figure 133: Results- Raman Spectra- Razberry Creem.....	210
Figure 134: Roan Tattoo Ink- Photomicrograph.....	211
Figure 135: Results- Raman Spectra- Roan.....	211
Figure 136: Results- Raman Spectra- Roan.....	212
Figure 137: Results- Raman Spectra- San Brownadino.....	212
Figure 138: Results- Raman Spectra- San Brownadino.....	213
Figure 139: Results- Raman Spectra- San Brownadino.....	213
Figure 140: Results- Raman Spectra- San Brownadino.....	214
Figure 141: Results- Raman Spectra- Whitegirl.....	215
Figure 142: Results- Raman Spectra- Whitegirl.....	215
Figure 143: Results- Raman Spectra- Tokyo Pink.....	216
Figure 144: Results- Raman Spectra- Tokyo Pink.....	217
Figure 145: Tattoo inks in cuvettes for UV/Vis analysis.....	217

Figure 146: Vermelho Tattoo Ink- Photomicrograph.....	219
Figure 147: Results- Raman Spectra- Vermelho.....	220
Figure 148: Results- Raman Spectra- Vermelho.....	220
Figure 149: Results- Raman Spectra- Vermelho.....	221
Figure 150: Results- Raman Spectra- Pink.....	222
Figure 151: Results- Raman Spectra- Pink.....	222
Figure 152: Results- Raman Spectra- Citrus.....	223
Figure 153: Results- Raman Spectra- Citrus and Pink.....	223
Figure 154: Results- Raman Spectra- Amarelo Canario.....	224
Figure 155: Results- Raman Spectra- Amarelo Canario.....	224
Figure 156: Results- Raman Spectra- Amarelo Canario.....	225
Figure 157: Results- Raman Spectra- Amarelo Fluor.....	225
Figure 158: Results- Raman Spectra- Amarelo Fluor and Citrus.....	226
Figure 159: Results- Raman Spectra- Verde Claro.....	227
Figure 160: Verde Claro Tattoo Ink- Photomicrograph.....	228
Figure 161: Results- Raman Spectra- Magenta.....	229
Figure 162: Lilas Claro Tattoo Ink- Photomicrograph.....	230
Figure 163: Results- Raman Spectra- Lilas Claro.....	230
Figure 164: Results- Raman Spectra- Lilas Claro.....	231
Figure 165: Results- Raman Spectra- Salmon Pink.....	232
Figure 166: Results- Raman Spectra- Pink Red.....	233
Figure 167: Pink Red Tattoo Ink-Photomicrographs and XRF Results.....	233
Figure 168: Results- Raman Spectra- Rose Red and Mulberry.....	234
Figure 169: Results- Raman Spectra- Bright Red.....	235
Figure 170: Results- Raman Spectra- Orange Red and Orange (2).....	236

Figure 171: Results- Raman Spectra- Yellow, Mid-Yellow and Golden Yellow.....	237
Figure 172: Results- Raman Spectra- Purple.....	238
Figure 173: Results- Raman Spectra- Violet.....	239
Figure 174: Results- Raman Spectra- Light Chocolate and Dark Brown.....	239
Figure 175: Results- Raman Spectra- White.....	240
Figure 176: Tattoos in pigskin.....	241
Figure 177: Results (Pigskin)- Raman Spectra- White (2).....	242
Figure 178: Results (Pigskin)- Raman Spectra- Red.....	243
Figure 179: Results (Pigskin)- Raman Spectra- Orange (2).....	244
Figure 180: Results (Pigskin)- Raman Spectra- Yellow (2).....	245
Figure 181: Results (Pigskin)- Raman Spectra- Green.....	246
Figure 182: Results (Pigskin)- Raman Spectra- Blue.....	246
Figure 183: Results (Pigskin)- Raman Spectra- Purple (2).....	247
Figure 184: Characteristic amide bands and their locations in infrared spectra.....	254
Figure 185: Molecular structure of Pigment Red 122.....	255
Figure 186: Molecular structure of Pigment Red 170.....	258
Figure 187: Molecular structures of Pigment Red 170.....	258
Figure 188: Molecular structure of Pigment Orange 16.....	261
Figure 189: Molecular structures of Pigment Orange 16.....	261

Chapter 1: Introduction

In the field of forensic science, the recognition and identification of both inorganic and organic pigments in human tissue will aid in the identification of charred, decomposed, mummified or otherwise unidentifiable remains in a criminal investigations, mass disasters (natural, accidental and acts of terrorism) and unmarked and mass burial sites. In the field of art conservation and cultural heritage, the characterization and archiving of organic pigments in traditional tattoo inks will serve as a reference point for the study of mummified remains, and can thus aid in anthropological and archaeological studies of human culture and history. The criminal justice field has long studied the culture and impact of tattooing, especially in criminal culture and among incarcerated individuals. A more detailed scientific understanding of the composition of tattoo inks can assist in understanding criminal behavior and cultural practices of individuals in prison settings. Furthermore, by detailing the visual, microscopic and spectroscopic analysis of tattoo inks along with describing the theories of vibrational spectroscopy and color chemistry, a thorough analytical method will be developed and validated to conform to current forensic laboratory accreditation standards and the satisfaction of legal standards such as Frye, Daubert and the Federal Rules of Evidence.

The aim of this research is to scientifically evaluate tattoo inks by documenting the physical properties of the inks both macroscopically and microscopically and by identifying the optical and chemical properties of the pigments spectroscopically. This is done in an effort to qualitatively identify tattoo inks resulting in the ability to discriminate between different colors, within similar colors and between different brands of tattoo inks. The lack of an established method of analysis of tattoo inks for identification and comparison is an additional catalyst for this research, as well as the need for comprehensive instrumental databases for tattoo inks.

Raman spectroscopy has been employed in the areas of forensic science and art conservation for the analysis of several different types of materials, including natural and synthetic paints and fibers, pigments and inks, explosives and suspected drugs, as well as a variety of mineralogical samples such as gemstones, glass, calcified tissue, and ceramics (Bouchard and Smith, 2003; Burgio and Clark, 2001; Edwards and Chalmers, eds., 2005; Centeno, *et. al.*, 2006; Thomas, *et. al.*, 2005, *etc.*). The application of Raman spectroscopic methods to the analysis of modern organic pigments found in tattoo inks is explored in this project. The primary means of characterization is based upon molecular structural determination using normal micro-Raman spectroscopy. This method will be supplemented by several other methods commonly employed in forensic science and art conservation laboratories, such as Surface Enhanced Raman Scattering (SERS), Fourier-transform Raman spectroscopy (FT-Raman), Fourier-transform infrared spectroscopy (FT-IR), x-ray fluorescence (XRF) and ultraviolet-visible spectroscopy (UV/Vis).

Much has been written about tattoos and tattooing, particularly in anthropological, medical/dermatological and forensic literature. With regards to the latter, many historical documents focus on the criminals and the description of tattoos for identification, affiliation and prior criminal activity for the purposes of criminal investigation. In addition, much has been addressed with regard to the prevalence of tattoos within different cultures and societies, with emphasis on the anthropological and psychological motivations and stigma behind the tattoos. Of special note is the attention to tattoos by several individuals that play an important role in the history of forensic science, including Edmond Locard (forensic science), Alphonse Bertillon (forensic science), Hans Gross (forensic science), J. Mathurin Felix Hutin (forensic science), Johann Ludwig Casper (pathology and forensic medicine), A. Ambroise Tardieu (forensic

medicine and toxicology). Additional literature concerning tattoos and their role in criminal justice was presented by Francois Vidocq, Alexandre Lacassagne, Cesare Lombroso, and a variety of other scientists, psychologists and criminologists of the time. Even the well-known fictional detective Sherlock Holmes has commented on the topic of tattoos, “The fish which you have tattooed immediately above your right wrist could only have been done in China. I have made a small study of tattoo marks, and have even contributed to literature of the subject. That trick of staining the fishes’ scales of a delicate pink is quite peculiar to China” (1891, pp. 27). While some current scientific and medical literature has addressed tattoos and tattoo inks, forensic science literature has largely focused on forensic photography techniques with regard to the visualization of obscured tattoos on cadavers.

In the United States, laws concerning tattooing vary within different states and different jurisdictions. While the specifics of tattooing laws vary, it is generally accepted the tattooing of minors is illegal and socially immoral. This has not necessarily stopped adults from tattooing children, both in professional and private settings. A literature review of periodicals and news broadcasts demonstrates several instances in which adults and guardians were arrested for tattooing minors. Recent headlines have included “*Man tattoos gang symbol on 7 y(ear) o(ld) son*” (NBC News Broadcast), “*Dad charged with tattooing 3-year-old-son*” (Channel 2 News), “*Man arrested for tattooing toddler*” (Amy Hatch) and “*Parents arrested for home-tattooing 6 children*” (KTLA News). Additionally, tattooing or being in possession of tattooing equipment while incarcerated is also considered illegal. Several articles published in anthropological and medical and criminal justice journals have been focused on tattooing practices among the incarcerated. The potential of being able to identify the age of a tattoo by the location within the

layers of the skin along with identifying the type of ink used may assist in determining if a tattoo has been generated in a prison setting or while a minor was under the care of a particular adult.

Tattoos can also be used to identify charred, decomposed, mummified or otherwise unidentifiable remains. This is especially useful in death investigations, which can be non-criminally motivated (accident, suicide, natural) or the result of criminal activity (homicide). Tattoo recognition and identification is also used in instances of mass fatality and casualty incidents such as accidents and crashes (*i.e.* building collapse, plane or train crash), natural disasters (*i.e.* tsunami or hurricane), war, and terrorist attacks. An example demonstrating the effective use of a tattoo to aid in identification is apparent in the case of a female that was found burned and dumped in a remote region in New York in 2010. The woman's body was marked by a colorful rose tattoo and a name, which was used to aid in her identification and subsequently aid in the identification and arrest of the perpetrator (Figure 1). In many instances, when human remains are found, police agencies will release to the media physical characteristics and the types and locations of any tattoos in an attempt to identify the decedent and aid in the death investigation (Figure 2).

Man indicted in slaying, body dumping

Woman was found in Monsey; child abandoned in Del.

Joshua Burd
mycentraljersey.com



Keith Muccilli/Home News
Dwayne Jackson appeared in New Jersey state Superior Court on March 1.

of the slaying, police and prosecutors say.

Loi was charged March 9, but the charges were not previously announced by authorities.

Jim O'Neill, a spokesman for the Middlesex County Prosecutor's Office, said LOI is accused of going with Jackson as he left his young daughter in Delaware and disposed of Belzaira's body. He declined to comment further on her alleged involvement or her relationship to Jackson.

Hannah Jackson had been living with her mother in North Brunswick, authorities said. A Family Court judge in Delaware ruled March 3 that she would stay with a foster family in that state. It was not immediately clear if her situation had changed.

Jackson pleaded not guilty to the New Jersey charges in a March 1 hearing before Superior Court Justice Bradley Ferencz, sitting in New Brunswick. He remained in the Middlesex County Adult Correction Center in North Brunswick with bail set at \$2.75 million.

Jackson is a former Marine who worked as a security guard at Robert Wood Johnson University Hospital in New Brunswick. Belzaira worked as a patient monitor there but was not employed there at the time of her death, a friend said after the slaying.

NEW BRUNSWICK, N.J. — A grand jury has indicted a New Jersey man accused of abandoning his 21-month-old daughter at a Delaware gas station and killing the girl's mother, whose body was found burned and dumped in a Monsey park.

Dwayne Jackson, 27, of Edison was indicted on charges of murder, kidnapping, endangering the welfare of a child and hindering his own apprehension.

The indictment, handed up Tuesday, also charges 27-year-old Ritu Loi of New Brunswick with kidnapping, endangering the welfare of a child and hindering Jackson's apprehension. Prosecutors have described her as an acquaintance who accompanied Jackson as he traveled to Delaware and New York.

Jackson is accused of asphyxiating 25-year-old Patricia Belzaira on Feb. 21 in her one-bedroom unit in the Oakleaf Village apartments in North Brunswick. Authorities say her charred body was found a day later in Manny Welder park on W. Maple Avenue in Monsey.

The woman's body was found by two newspaper carriers. Police discovered the body's most distinguishing feature was a colorful tattoo with the name "Patricia" and a red rose atop a green stem.

Their daughter, Hannah Jackson, ended up locked and crying in the bathroom of a Shell service station in Newark, Del., after the father abandoned her there the day



Figure 1. (left) Photograph taken at autopsy of a tattoo found on the lower back of a homicide victim (Courtesy of Shivonne Hutson, Medicolegal Death Investigator, Rockland County Medical Examiner's Office) and (right) corresponding news article (J. Burd, The Journal News, 09/22/10). The suspect eventually pled guilty to the crime.

Locating a tattoo on a body and identifying its physical characteristics such as design and color serves as a rapid means of making a tentative identification and often provides enough investigatory information to guide the initial stages of a police investigation. In the case noted above, tentative identification was made by showing a photograph of the tattoo to the public in an effort to have someone recognize the tattoo, and thus the individual (which often follows with

the identification of possible suspects). This method is faster than fingerprint recovery followed by comparison and subsequent identification, dental recovery with comparison and subsequent identification, and DNA analysis. Furthermore, dentition and fingerprints may not be available, as in cases of decomposition, mummification, charring or dismemberment. When fingerprints, dentition and DNA are available, investigators are limited to the availability of standards for comparison, such as a fingerprint card on file with an employer or in an arrest record, dental records or a DNA profile on file (In addition, the investigators must have some idea of the identity of the decedent in order to begin the acquisition of medical records and related documents). In other words, even after finding a fingerprint or DNA sample of good enough quality for further comparison and identification, there may not be a 'hit' if fingerprint or DNA profile was never entered into a database. Generally, databases exist for fingerprints and DNA profiles, but the lack of a universal dental database further limits the ability of dental records to be useful in a tentative identification. In some regions of the world, lack of comprehensive medical records and databases prevents the use of such identification methods altogether. An example of this is demonstrated by Ambade *et. al.*, "Identification is one of the main concerns of investigating agencies (with regard to) decomposed or skeletonised bodies...Dental comparison is not practicable in India and hence not done...In India, police usually established the identity of a dead body, with the help of relatives and acquaintances. The clothes of the deceased and belongings help in the identity of the decomposed bodies along with *tattoos, scar and other peculiar features*" [emphasis in original] (2011, pp. 105).

Cops identify body of woman...

(J. Kemp, NY Daily News, published June 22, 2011)

"The remains of a Bronx woman found dead and set on fire in a Hudson Valley state park were identified...by a tattoo..."



Body of missing Bronx mom...found in woods; husband expected to turn himself in

(B. Kappstatter, et. al., NY Daily News, published March 16, 2011)

"The body of a missing Bronx mother of four...was found in a patch of woods in Westchester County on Wednesday night by teens riding four wheelers...Investigators identified the body of Tina Adovasio through photographs and a tattoo after she was discovered off the Taconic Parkway in Yorktown Heights, the sources said..."

The girl with the peach tattoo

(J. Gallucci, Long Island's Unidentified Murder Victims, L.I. Press, July 1, 2010)

"Her handless, headless, legless torso was found in Hempstead Lake State Park during the summer of 1997. She was wrapped in a black plastic garbage bag and stuffed into a dark-green Rubbermaid container with a floral pillow sham and frayed red towel. The only identifying mark on her body: a bitten heart-shaped peach tattoo on her left breast with two drops underneath..."



The girl with the angel tattoo

(J. Gallucci, Long Island's Unidentified Murder Victims, L.I. Press, July 1, 2010)

"In 2003, Jessica Taylor's dismembered body was found in Manorville in the Pine Barrens. Her Hands and head have never been found. She is one of four bodies found in the area in a three-year period. She is the only one who has been identified. Her angel tattoo was partially gouged out by her killer in an attempt to conceal her identity..."



Figure 2. Several media reports demonstrating the reliance of tattoos to help aid in identification of human remains.

Due to the deep penetration of the tattoo needles, along with the embedding, encapsulation and storage of the tattoo ink within the cellular material of the deeper layers of skin tissue, tattoos are likely to be preserved in instances of charring, mummification and decomposition. Retention and preservation of the inks and their pattern of distribution (design) within the tissue allows for visualization even when superficial layers of tissue have been burnt, desiccated or subject to various environmental and chemical factors. This identification of tattoos for investigatory purposes is also useful in searching for missing and kidnapped individuals or for the rapid identification individuals that may be involved in a structural or vehicular fire, or some other non-criminally motivated death.

Finally, tattoo equipment may be used to facilitate a criminal act. In particular, a tattoo machine and its needles may be used to generate puncture marks in the stabbing of skin or fabric. The use of a tattoo machine to assault or murder an individual is possible, as is the use of a tattoo machine to cut out a section of fabric from a garment. In a New York City case, a man claimed to have been sexually assaulted by a police officer, who used his retractable baton to perforate his underwear and penetrate his rectum. At trial, the shape of the damage to the boxer shorts of the individual became key forensic evidence in determining how the hole in the boxers could have been made and what could have made such damage (Figure 3). Additionally, microscopic examination of the damaged fibers at the periphery of the hole was shown to be useful in establishing the presence of ink. Once isolated, components consistent with ink were identified by spectroscopic analysis and subsequent comparison to a chemical database.



Experts for Defense in Police Brutality Case Say Evidence Is Not Consistent With Claims

By KAREEM FAHIM

Defense witnesses testifying in a police brutality trial said Tuesday that neither the hole in Michael Mineo's boxer shorts nor his injuries were consistent with his claim of being sodomized by a police officer's baton.

Such a baton would have cut an L-shaped hole, not a square one in the shorts, and Mr. Mineo would have suffered bruises or broken bones, forensic and medical experts testified.

"I don't believe it happened," Dr. Frank T. Sconzo said in State Supreme Court in Brooklyn.

In their continuing efforts to portray Mr. Mineo as a liar, defense lawyers called witnesses on Tuesday who scrutinized some of the evidence in the case — in particular, the victim's medical records as well as the torn boxer shorts.

Officer Richard Kern is accused of repeatedly ramming his retractable baton between the buttocks of Mr. Mineo, a 25-year-old body piercer who was smoking marijuana outside the Prospect Park subway station on Oct. 15, 2008. Officers Alex Cruz and Andrew Morales are charged with helping to cover up the attack.

The lead prosecutor, Charles Guria, parried a series of strong attacks by defense lawyers throughout the day, making it hard for either side to gain much momentum.

In the end, the day's proceedings may have set the stage for a bigger event: testimony by one or more of the officers the next day, although lawyers for the officers said they had not yet decided whether their clients would take the stand.

Dr. Sconzo, a colorectal expert who was the first witness of the day, dismissed the idea that Mr. Mineo's initial injuries, or an ensuing infection, stemmed from trauma. He noted that Mr. Mineo's blood, taken at Brookdale University Hospital and Medical Center shortly after the episode in the subway station, suggested he had an "ongoing infection," that had most likely developed at least 48 hours before he went to the hospital.

An abscess that Mr. Mineo developed later "was not caused by anything from the anus or the rectum," Dr. Sconzo said, noting that a culture of fluids drained from the abscess was "not consistent with the colon or rectal area."

A graphic photo of Mr. Mineo's buttocks, first shown to the jury on Tuesday, did little to clear up several mysteries. While Dr.

Sconzo noted that the photograph seemed to show evidence of an anal fissure — a crack or tear — he conceded that other areas where Mr. Mineo might have been injured were obscured by shadows or hair.

The defense lawyers also renewed their focus on Mr. Mineo's boxer shorts, which he has said were pierced by the baton.

Thomas A. Kubic, who teaches forensic science at John Jay College of Criminal Justice, declared that the baton "could not have made that square hole in the boxer shorts." And he testified that a black spot on the edge of the hole showed traces of organic compounds that can be found in tattoo ink.

(On several occasions, defense lawyers have suggested that Mr. Mineo, who worked in a tattoo parlor, cut the hole in his boxers himself.)

Trial testimony focuses on blood tests, medical records and a pair of boxer shorts.

When asked by Mr. Guria, the prosecutor, whether any of the compounds could also be found in everyday items, like skin lotions, hair products and perfume, Professor Kubic said that it could.

Mr. Guria also asked whether Professor Kubic had tested the baton, to see whether "carbon black" that he had found on the boxer shorts could have come from its rubbery handle.

"No, counselor," he answered. He also acknowledged, "I know very little about tattooing."

Defense lawyers have tried to show that Mr. Mineo has, over time, given conflicting accounts of what happened in the subway station. On Tuesday, they tried to zero in on his claim that medication may have made him forget when police investigators interviewed him in the hospital.

An internal affairs investigator Spt. David Gomes, testified that Mr. Mineo was "very coherent" and "very lucid" during their conversation at Brookdale. Mr. Mineo pulled off his underwear showing investigators the hole, Sergeant Gomes said.

But under questioning by Mr. Guria, Sergeant Gomes added that Mr. Mineo was also "agitated," and "animated" in his speech.

"He stated that there may be video in the subway station," Sergeant Gomes recalled. But, in fact, there was none.

Figure 3. (top) Photograph of victim (Mineo) testifying in court, holding clothing evidence with damage and (bottom) corresponding news article (K. Fahim, The New York Times, 12/10/10). Note: The circled portion reads, "On several occasions, defense lawyers have suggested that Mr. Mineo, who worked in a tattoo parlor, cut the hole in the boxers himself."

The current lack of comprehensive chemical classification methods of tattoo inks in addition to the lack of tattoo ink-specific spectroscopic databases serves as one impetus for the research in this project. The characterization of tattoo inks visually, microscopically and spectroscopically and the subsequent development of tattoo ink databases and analytical procedures will make it possible for forensic practitioners to recover, identify and analyze tattoo ink from a wound, a garment or any other substrate involved in a forensic investigation. This

research will also explore useful methods for detecting tattoo inks (and pigments) in tissue samples.

In art conservation and art history, the examination and analysis of tattoos found in ancient mummified remains has served to better understand the practices of different cultures over the course of time. From a cultural anthropology perspective, by examining the physical and chemical characteristics of tattoos on an individual or a group of related individuals, it is possible to understand religious beliefs, medical and therapeutic practices, travels and conquests, hierarchal ranking and social classes as well as daily life practices. The identification and collection of a tattoo ink database will serve to aid in art conservation in future endeavors to identify mummies and remains that correspond to periods where organic colored pigments were the main source of tattoo inks, which is the current trend in tattooing today.

The examination and analysis of tattoo inks can also serve other fields, such as medicine, where the interest lies in the human tissue allergic reaction to the chemical constituents of tattoo inks and, more recently, the ideal conditions for tattoo removal via laser methods.

Chapter 2: Historical Perspectives & Review of the Literature

Tattoos and Forensic Applications

The presence of a tattoo on a decedent has long served as an identifying characteristic in forensic medicine and pathology. If an individual is not able to be identified by facial recognition, death investigators may use confirmation of a tattoo to serve as a tentative means of identification, as it is faster than fingerprint, dental, x-ray and genetic methods of identification. The tentative identification serves as a tool that can be used to guide a death investigation. Tattoos can be characterized based on physical characteristics, such as design and color, as well as the location on the decedent's body. During a death investigation and subsequent autopsy, the tattoos are often described with regard to their physical characteristics and locations and documented photographically. These techniques of describing and photographically documenting tattoos are also done on living persons, typically criminals in a police precinct, jail or prison setting.

The human skin is described as having two major layers, the collagen-containing dermis, or inner layer, which is between 1mm and 4mm thick and the keratin-rich epidermis, or outer layer, which is typically ~40 μ m thick, but thicker in areas like the palms of the hands and soles of the feet (Caspers, 2003, pp. 572). The stratum corneum is the cornified layer of dead, flattened cells found at the skin's outermost surface of the epidermis with a thickness of 10-15 μ m on most areas of the body (*ibid.*). Tattoo pigment particles are embedded within the dermal layer of the human skin (Figure 4).

The use of reflected infrared photography to resolve tattoos in cadavers that are barely discernable is common and has been reported in forensic and applied photographic literature. Due to the longer wavelength of infrared radiation, infrared light penetrates deeper into the skin

than visible and ultraviolet radiation. Photography coupled with the use of filters and forensic alternate light sources has been used for quite some time in forensic work to successfully document latent, superficial bruising of the epidermal and upper dermal layers of human skin with ultraviolet radiation (shorter wavelengths, less penetration) and deeper-set tattoos with infrared radiation (longer wavelengths, deeper penetration). Schematics of relative penetration depths of incident radiation into skin are provided in Figure 4. De Donno *et.al.* (2008) report the success of infrared photography in resolving tattoos in tissues exposed to various conditions. They report three cases in which they resolved tattoos from a body immersed in water for 20-25 days, charred remains and a mummified, partially skeletonized body. In all instances, infrared photography of the cadavers and subsequent resolution of their tattoos through this technique led to identification of each of the individuals. McKechnie *et.al.* (2008) were able to photograph and detect tattoos that had been removed by laser tattoo removal procedures using reflected infrared photography, demonstrating that it is possible to detect tattoos that have been 'erased' by laser surgery. According to Wright and Golden (2010), the shorter wavelengths of light interact with the surface of the skin while the longer wavelengths of light (700-900nm) can penetrate the skin up to 3mm (pp. 60).

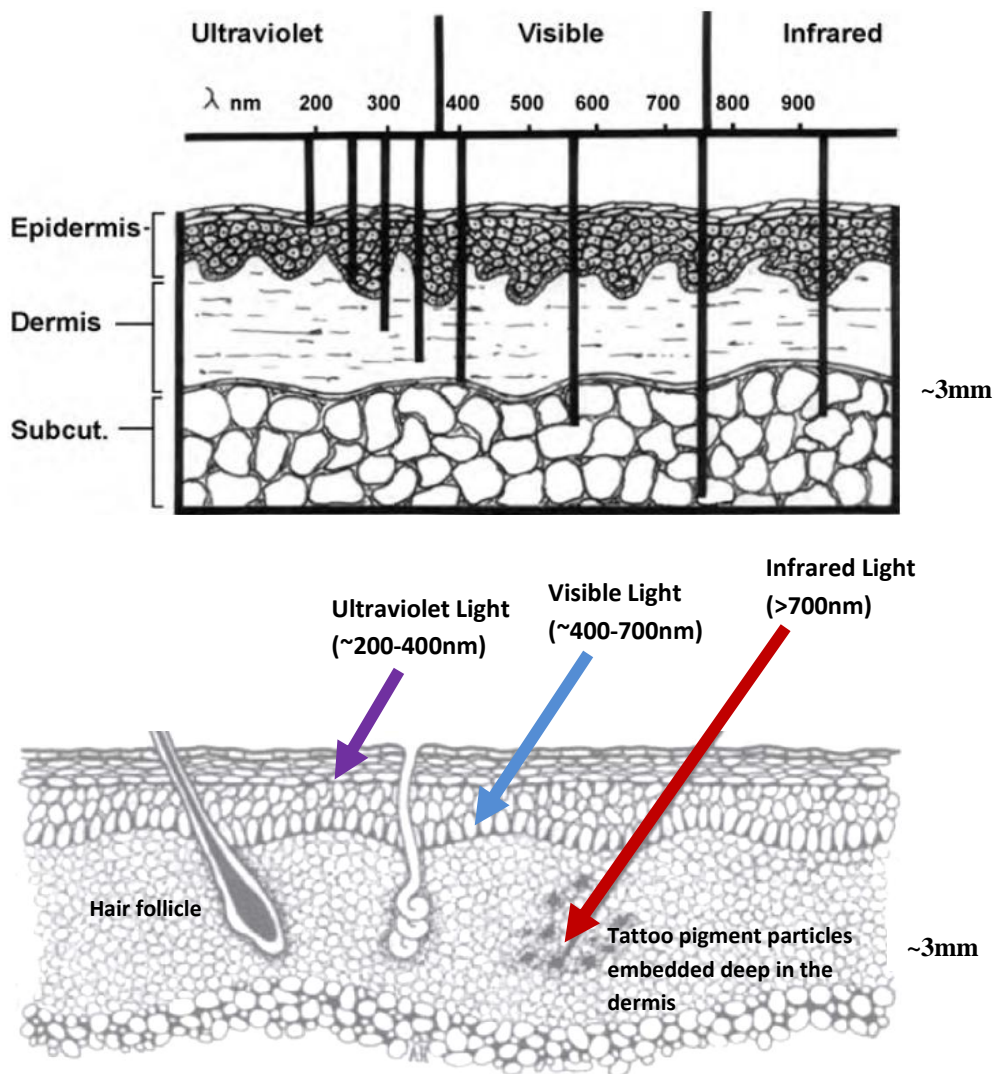


Figure 4. (top and bottom) Cross-section of skin, demonstrating the relative penetration depth of different wavelengths (Top image adapted from Wright and Golden, 2010; bottom image adapted from Morgan, 1974).

Tattoos may also be visualized with the assistance of an alternate light source (ALS). This technique has been reported by Bennett and Rockhold, specifically the use of a 450nm bandpass filter to produce fluorescence and an amber colored barrier filter to pass the emission as well as absorbance characteristics of inks to resolve the tattoo (1999). The authors studied tattoos in human cadavers as the tissue went through the various stages of decomposition and

they documented the visible characteristics of the tattooed area as these degenerative changes were taking place. The following table summarizes their observations:

Stage of Decomposition (proposed by Reed)	Marked Changes to Tissue	Appearance of tattoo
1 (“Fresh”)	None Reported	No Change
2 (“Bloating”)	Slight darkening of skin	
	Sloughage of epidermal layer followed by Formation of waxy layer	Enhanced tattoo visibility (brighter colors, defined lines) Decreased tattoo visibility
3 (“Decay”)	Increase in skin discoloration	Decreased tattoo visibility
	Dehydration (Leathering)	Leathery appearance, muted colors
	Increasing discoloration	Decreased tattoo visibility
4 (“Dry”)	Further decomposition	Continued obliteration of the tattoo design

Table 1. Resultant observations of tattoos through the stages of decomposition (Adapted from Bennett and Rockhold, 1999).

The authors add that in several instances, recognition during stage 4 of decomposition was only possible due to prior knowledge of tattoo location (*ibid.*)

Another method that has been reported as being useful for the visualization of tattoos is the use of hydrogen peroxide (H₂O₂). Haglund and Sperry reported that rubbing 3% H₂O₂ on tissue would resolve tattoos otherwise obscured by the stages of decomposition that result during the postmortem interval (PMI). According to the authors, “during decomposition... accumulated hydrogen sulfide (produced by bacteria) reacts with hemoglobin to produce sulfmethemoglobin and iron sulfide, which creates colors that vary from... dirty crimson or light green to dark green, brown or black” (1993, pp.147). The ferric iron is available to bind with many of the products of decomposition leading to the color production of greens, browns and blacks. The stages of

decomposition produce a variety of colors; for example, when the hemoglobin loses oxygen, deoxyhemoglobin forms resulting in a purple color. Bilirubin, a bile pigment produced by the breakdown of hemoglobin, and its byproducts produce shades of reds, and greens. All of these colors, along with other factors that occur during the PMI can obscure tattoos or contribute to the breakdown of the pigments in the skin. Haglund and Sperry hypothesize that the peroxide reduces the bonds within the chemical structures of the decomposition products causing the colors to fade and thus render the tattoo pigments visible against a light background. The sequence of decomposition products and corresponding color changes is described in the Figure 5.

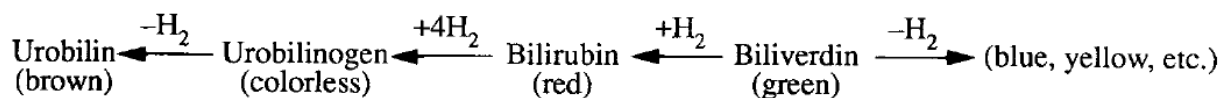


Figure 5. Bile pigments produced by oxidation and reduction reactions of biliverdin, the initial product of hemoglobin breakdown (Adapted from Gill-King in Haglund and Sorg, eds., 1996). These pigments are present in the later stages of decomposition and may mask tattoos.

Light scattering is the basis for skin color, which is based on the presence of melanins, the natural pigments in human skin which can be found in the epidermal layers of the skin. It is this concept of light interacting with skin that enables us to perceive a variety of skin colors and tattoos placed into the layers of skin. Considering that the purpose of the tattoo is to be ‘viewable’, the tattoo ink would have to be located at a depth such that visible radiation can penetrate and traverse the skin and reflect back in order for the viewer to perceive the colors of the design. By interacting with visible radiation, the pigments that make up the tattoo are able to be detected by the human eye.

Tattoo Inks and Pigments

Over the course of time, a variety of chemical substances have been used to impart color in and onto different substrates. As these chemical substances have changed, so has their use in art, architecture and automobiles. This change in chemical composition has also affected the changing chemistry of tattoo inks. The most basic definition of tattoo is to mark the skin with pigments. The pigments used in tattooing vary greatly and have changed throughout history. Generally, tattoo inks have transitioned from carbonaceous materials and natural organic and inorganic pigments originating from vegetable and mineral sources to synthetic organic pigments and colorants. The inorganic pigments are generally classified based on the various metallic elements of which they are composed while organic pigments can be classified in different manners, according to such characteristics as carbon content, functional groups, molecular structure and synthesis methods.

Modern tattoo types include amateur tattoos (also called street tattoos or prison tattoos), which are usually homemade inks that are tattooed by a non-professional. These tattoos are often described as lacking in artistic detail and usually monochromatic, uneven in color distribution and not deep within the layers of the skin. A wide variety of materials may be used to make the ink and the tattooing implements commonly used in amateur tattooing. In contrast, professional tattoos are generated using higher quality inks and pigments and are done with either a tattoo gun (modern) or using tattooing implements according to cultural traditions. Two additional tattoo types are medical tattoos and cosmetic tattoos, the latter used for permanent makeup, tattoo cover ups, and instances of plastic and reconstructive efforts. Medical and cosmetic tattoo inks are usually neutral and represent skin tones, typically ranging in shades of whites, beiges, pinks, browns and blacks. In instances of permanent makeup, cosmetic tattoo

colors include a wider range of options in order to be used for lip liner, lipstick, eyeliner and blush. A fifth type of tattoo is described as traumatic tattoos, pigmentation under the skin which generally results from the embedding of dirt and rocks, gunpowder, fireworks and explosives, or other debris beneath the skin. These types of tattooing are not typically characterized by the introduction and retention of colored pigments into the skin, and will not be discussed further in this document.

Commercial tattoo inks can vary in color and luminescence in addition to chemical composition. Non-permanent tattoo ink includes materials such as henna, while permanent tattoo ink includes pigments common to the visible spectrum, fluorescent and blacklight-active inks, and magnetite (Fe_3O_4). Due to the increasing tattoo removal market, there is also an ink that, while permanent, is designed to break down more efficiently when cosmetic laser removal is conducted (*i.e.* InfinitInk™).

The technique of tattooing has been traced back thousands of years, and conservators have made an effort to study and evaluate the methods and materials that were used in tattooing practices by studying recovered mummified remains. In addition, anthropologists and historians have documented the practices of various cultures in order to understand the meaning and mechanisms of tattooing over time. Ancient tattoos have been described as being carbonaceous in nature, describing carbon black as being developed from burnt bones, tar, pitch, and soot. Research and publications referencing tattooing have identified compositions and components such as India ink, China ink, lamp black, bone black and pine soot. In order to introduce color to ancient tattooing practices, pigments were extracted from mineral and plant sources (such as trees, flowering plants and roots). Interestingly, the resultant quality of the tattoos and their

ability to last and not fade over time is what likely drove the evolution of pigments used in tattooing practices.

It is reported in the literature that a French forensic scientist, Jean Mathurin Felix Hutin, described the process of tattooing based on a study conducted in the early 1850s. In his account of Hutin's resultant research, Dye writes, "Colored materials, apparently nearly always Indian or Chinese ink (lampblack mixed with animal glue, sold in solid rolls or cakes), laundry bluing, or vermilion (artificial cinnabar, *i.e.* alpha mercuric sulfide, ground with white wine and then mixed with white of egg), were prepared with a little water or saliva in small cups or shells" (1989, pp. 530). Laundry bluing is a process of adding a blue dye to laundry in order to counteract the yellowing of fabrics and make the fabric appear whiter. Laundry bluing is akin to adding fluorescent optical brighteners or bleach to laundry, both of which are commonly done today. Based on the time of Hutin's research, the materials that could have been used for laundry bluing (and thus tattooing) include ultramarine (in its natural form) and smalt ($K_2CoSi_4O_{10}$). Ultramarine is referred to as lapis lazuli and its principle blue mineral component, lazurite, while synthetic ultramarine is described as a three dimensional aluminosilicate lattice with sodalite structure containing entrapped sodium ions and ionic sulfur groups; $Na_7Al_6Si_6O_{24}S_3$ (The Pigment Compendium). The work of Hutin was also cited by Dr. Johann Ludwig Casper, who also studied tattoos in his capacity as a forensic pathologist. Dr. Casper lists "cinnabar or gunpowder...Indian ink, charcoal, ink or Prussian (washing) blue¹" as being the coloring-matter rubbed into patterned wounds to create tattoos in his Handbook of Forensic Medicine (1861, pp.105). Dr. Casper adds that Hutin mentioned the same coloring-matters, with "cinnabar being the general favourite" (*ibid.*).

¹ Iron (III) hexacyanoferrate (II)

Gross describes the importance of tattooing in criminal investigations and discusses instances in which tattoos may fade and even disappear based upon the inks used. He refers to the common tattooing materials of the time, including cinnabar, gunpowder, washing-blue, ink and chalk mixed with lampblack. With regard to microscopic examination of tissue sections of the lymph glands from a decedent, Gross adds, "... (the small colouring particles) can naturally be better seen through the microscope, but the cinnabar so often employed as colouring matter looks reddish when rays of light fall upon the gland and has a black aspect when they traverse it" (1924, pp. 113).

Discovered in 1991, Ötzi, the Tyrolean Iceman, was determined to be the oldest complete mummified body being approximately 5,200-5,300 years old. Upon examination of Ötzi, tattoos were found at different areas of his body. Pabst, *et. al.* prepared unstained histological sections of the tattooed skin and examined the prepared sections using optical microscopy, bright field transmission electron microscopy, energy dispersive x-ray spectroscopy, electron energy loss spectrometry, energy filtering transmission electron microscopy and electron diffraction in an effort to study the tattoos and their chemical and structural compositions. The authors identified black colored particles that consisted mainly of carbon; more specifically, they identified double bonded carbon atoms that are typically found in soot (2009, pp. 2336). They also identified ash particles that consisted of carbon, oxygen, nitrogen and calcium (*ibid.*). In their conclusions, Pabst, *et. al.* note that quartz and 'probable almandine²' crystals they identified between the soot particles in the tattooed regions of the skin may have come from stones in a fireplace from which the soot was taken (2009, pp. 2336).

² Fe⁺²₃Al₂Si₃O₁₂

Most of the historical literature pertaining to tattoos has focused on the tattooing methods and rituals, designs and semiotics, and the significance within a region or amongst a group of individuals. The specific details of tattoo ink composition and the ink-making process is often markedly absent or limited within the literature. A review of historical literature has resulted in the following timeline, which provides a suitable means to trace the composition and methodology of early tattoo inks within various cultures:

1888- Buckland indicates that while various colors were employed, indigo blue was the chief pigment utilized (pp. 322). She adds that the blue dye used by Maories was made from the soot obtained by burning the heart of certain trees. Buckland also mentions lamp black as a source of indelible markings and reports that different cultures would have tattoo marks of various colors, some using reds and blacks, others using blues, and some cultures containing marks that were “highly colored”.

1901- Roth provides different accounts of materials used to produce the pigments in tattoos, including charcoal from various sources, gunpowder and the soot of wood. In one account, “The pigment was a mixture of lampblack and either milk or fat. A dog starved for the purpose was fed upon this. His excreta were remixed and buried in (pumice stone) boxes until wanted” (pp. 43).

1909- Geare provides information regarding tattooing practices of different cultures, reporting burned candle-nut (*Aleurites triloba*) and coconut ashes (pp. 790), burned leaves from a plant called ‘ti’ moistened with the juice of the ‘poporo’ berry (pp. 794), burnt resin (pp. 795), vermilion (pp. 797), cinnabar and India ink (pp. 798), and burnt bark from the birch (pp. 798).

1928- It was reported that the pigment was made from “the soot of seal oil lamps which is taken from the bottom of tea kettles or similar containers used to boil meat and other food over an open flame. The soot is mixed with urine, often that of an older woman...” (Smith and Zimmerman, 1975, pp. 435).

1932- Clark describes an ink from the lamp black of sesame oil or kerosene with water added and continues that red ochre may be used in some instances (1932, pp. 67).

1937- After spending time studying tattooing in Iraq, Smeaton describes kohl, in which the chief ingredient is carbon in the form of lamp black, and indicates that other additives include indigo, bile from the gall bladder of an ox, fat, milk, water or kerosene (1937, pp. 59).

1947- Matthews describes the use of tree-gum soot as the tattooing medium and details the use of dyes, “These must be relatively insoluble, stable to light and unaffected by tissue reaction...I have used ochres (oxides of iron)...in shades of brown and red...I have also used cadmium selenides...in nine shades ranging from tangerine, through yellow and pink to brick red. I have not used mercuric sulphide (cinnabar)...although it has been recommended by tattooists for cosmetic purposes...” The dyes are then mixed with absolute ethanol to form a paste suitable for tattooing. He further adds, “... (early literature recommends) to obtain the requisite shade by mixing the dyes with a white base,” such as zinc oxide and barium sulphate (1947, pp. 19).

1958- Lake reports his experiences using different colors to administer tattoos for surgical and cosmetic purposes. He reports achieving a true black by mixing carbon with the dye golden umber, using red oxide R. 93A (iron oxide) and irgalite orange P to achieve long-lasting red hues, and he reports using iron oxide and golden umber for brown hues (1958, pp. 1085).

Additional literature cites ink made of gunpowder (black powder) and ox-gall. The liquid suspension varied from saliva to urine to various types of alcohols.

According to Lynnerup, most tattoos were made with a puncture/dot method, whereby a pricking pin containing the pigment is introduced into the skin depositing the pigment into the dermis of the skin. He also notes that facial tattoos in mummies were made by the technique of sewing, which produced long lines that went across the facial region. This method was done by drawing a soot blackened strong string through the skin, which deposited the pigment into the dermis (2007, pp. 178). These techniques of using a sharpened object to either puncture or sew the ink in are still employed in amateur tattooing practices. In some instances, a homemade rotary machine representing a rudimentary tattoo gun is used in lieu of a manually operated needle or sharp pointed object. Another method describes rubbing the ink on the skin first, followed by pricking the skin with a sharp object or needle to push the ink into the skin. One historical reference described a method of cutting a design deep into the skin and subsequently rubbing ink or pigment into the cuts such that the pigment would remain in the deep cuts upon healing of the tissue.

Traditional tattoo inks are described as containing pigments that were typically inorganic mineral pigments such as metallic oxides, hydroxides, sulphides and aluminates. The following color trends were observed:

Red: mercury sulphide (HgS, cinnabar) and cadmium selenide (CdSe)

Yellow: cadmium sulphide (CdS)

Green: chromic oxide (Cr₂O₃)

Blue: cobalt (CoO, Co₃O₄)

Indigo/Purple: manganese oxide (MnO)

White: lead carbonate (PbCO_3), zinc oxide (ZnO), titanium dioxide (TiO_2 , anatase/rutile)

Brown (inc. reds, yellows and blacks): iron oxides (FeO , Fe_2O_3 , Fe_3O_4 [magnetite])

With regard to tattoo inks, titanium dioxide white is a general term for various titanium dioxide pigments, specifically the anatase and rutile forms of titanium (IV) oxide. Black colors are generally carbon black and lamp black (80-95% carbon with traces of sulfur and organic material; produced from burning a variety of materials and collecting the resultant sooty residues), graphite (40-90% carbon with mineral ash) or an iron oxide. Lamp black is generally described as being an older pigment than carbon black, being used for thousands of years by ancient cultures such as the Chinese and the Egyptians. 'Carbon-based blacks' is the general class for those black and brown pigments that are composed primarily of carbon. General distinction is made by the manufacturing process, source material or method of preparation. Examples of sources for carbon-based pigments may include minerals, soots and smokes, vegetable materials and animal materials (for example, bone). Variations in color and particle size and degree of crystallinity, when viewed microscopically, can be used to distinguish the different types of black pigments.

In a 2008 research project by Poon, the tattoo pigments of interest were ancient and traditional pigments typically found in ancient mummified remains. The purpose of his research was to examine the chemical composition of pigments believed to be found in ancient tattoo inks and to design an experimental method for analyzing the pigments in mummified remains *in situ*. This was evaluated using an animal model to simulate mummification of tissues tattooed with ancient pigments as reported in early literature. The pigment standards that were the focus of this study included flame carbon/soot, bone black, vine charcoal, magnetite (Fe_3O_4), lapis lazuli

$(\text{Na,Ca})_8[\text{Al,Si}]_{12}\text{O}_{24}(\text{S,SO}_4)$; lazurite, the dominant constituent) and indigo (the molecular structure of which is depicted in figure 6).

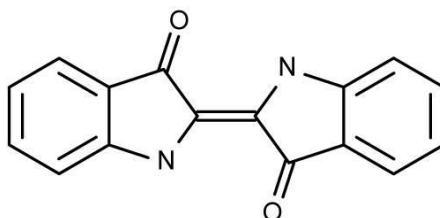


Figure 6. Molecular structure of indigo.

These pigments were evaluated using micro-Raman spectroscopy, scanning electron microscopy/energy dispersive spectroscopy (SEM-EDS), Fourier transform infrared spectroscopy (FT-IR), powder x-ray diffraction (XRD) and laser ablation inductively coupled plasma mass spectrometry (ICP-MS). With respect to the Raman portion, the author used a 632.8nm He/Ne laser at 1.8mW as his only means of excitation. According to Poon, despite the ability of Raman spectroscopy to provide positive identification of carbonaceous materials, the technique failed to discriminate between the particular forms, which made it necessary to use SEM-EDS for determination of morphology and elemental composition.

Modern tattoo inks are composed of pigment particles mixed with a solution to disperse them. The pigment portion is compromised of organic pigments such as azo dyes (reds, oranges, yellows), polycyclic amines, oxazines (magentas, purples, violets), phthalocyanines (greens, blues), quinacridones (reds) and arylides. The solution portion of tattoo inks can be composed of a variety of components, including a vehicle (to facilitate transfer of the pigment particles to the needle and the skin), additives (such as wetting agents, preservatives, stabilizers, thickeners and pH regulators) and solvents. Since there is no regulation of tattoo ink compositions, the variation is extensive and subject to change based upon material availability, manufacturer capabilities,

and fiscal considerations. Modern tattoo inks can also contain mineral pigments such as titanium dioxide (whites, lighteners) or iron oxide (reds, yellows, browns).

Water may function as a vehicle in the liquid portion of the tattoo ink; its function is to keep the pigment evenly distributed in the fluid matrix, carry the pigments from the bottle to the needle of the tattoo gun and into the dermis of the skin. Wetting agents can include glycerine, which affects the viscosity of the ink and acts as a thickener and alcohols such as ethanol or isopropanol, which thin out the ink. Barium sulfate may be added as a stabilizer and preservatives include witch hazel and benzoic acid. According to the packaging labels, the tattoo inks in this study include distilled water (dH₂O), isopropanol [isopropyl alcohol; CH₃CHOHCH₃], glycerine [CH₂OHCHOH CH₂OH], polyethylene glycol [HOCH₂(CH₂OCH₂)_nCH₂OH] and witch hazel (dried leaves of *Hamamelis virginiana*; using HPLC, Wang *et. al.* identified hamamelitannin, catechins and gallic acid in the leafy and woody portions of the *H.virginiana* plant, 2003). The molecular structure of hamamelitannin is depicted in figure 7. A review of updated Material Safety Data Sheets (MSDS) for the inks examined in this study demonstrates the presence of propylene glycol [OHCH₂CHOHCH₃] as an ingredient also.

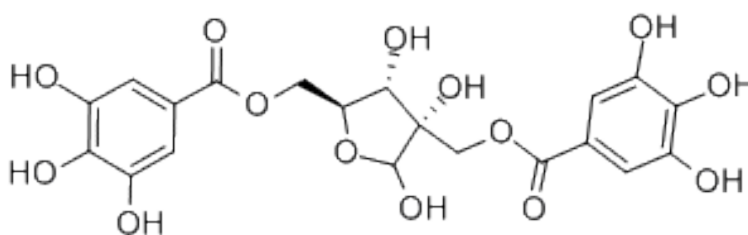


Figure 7. Molecular structure of hamamelitannin

With regard to most modern, professional tattoos, the tattooing process is conducted using a tattoo machine. Into the early 1900s, electromagnetic coil tattoo machines were manufactured based on a device initially developed by Thomas A. Edison in the late 1800s. This type of tattoo machine, with some minor modifications since its inception, is commonly used today by tattoo artists. The tattoo process involves dipping the tip of the needle, which is attached to the tattoo machine, into a small cup of ink and then moving the needle over a portion of the skin, depositing the ink into the region of skin being punctured by the needle. The process of dipping the needle into the ink is repeated as the ink is depleted from the needle surface. The types and brands of inks and pigments used by tattoo artists will vary, with some preferring pre mixed, liquid inks of a specific brand and others preferring dry, powder pigments to which they can add liquid carriers to create their own ink. Tattoo artists may also work with a small selection of ink colors, mixing these colors with whites or blacks to create different shades.

Home-made tattoo inks are those inks that are made in both residential and prison settings. Ingredients may include residue from burning an object such as paper, a StyrofoamTM cup, plastic cutlery, a toothbrush, a plastic chess piece or any plastic object that could be melted to generate black sooty material. Also reported was the use of ash from a cigarette. Ink from a writing implement such as a pen or Sharpie marker, shoe polish or shoe soles, or powdered pigment are also used. The solution, or liquid portion of the homemade ink, may be made up of a combination of water, saliva, shampoo, witch hazel, vodka, Listerine® mouthwash which, according to the MSDS sheet contains ethanol, eucalyptol, thymol, menthol, methyl salicylate, benzoic acid, sodium hydroxide, hydrochloric acid and water. Glycerin, propylene glycol(s), rubbing alcohol and nail polish remover (acetone) are also commonly employed in home-made

tattoo inks. The inks are typically introduced into the skin by crude methods such as glass, pins, razor blades, paper clips, staples, metal coils or light bulb filaments. The basic process is to burn the plastic/paper-based material and collect the smoke in or on a material held above it (such as a bottle cap or foil). The resultant sooty residue is collected and mixed with the suspending liquid (soap, water, alcohol, *etc.*) and then applied into the skin using the injection tool.

Sperry provides a detailed account of the tattooing process with regard to ink deposition and retention into the tissue (1992, pp. 7). The needle penetrates through the epidermis and just into the papillary and reticular dermis, but no deeper. He reports this depth to be between 1-2mm. Sperry notes that during the tattoo process, the pigment will be deposited along the length of the needle track throughout the epidermis and any superficial dermal layers, but only the pigment left within the dermis will permanently remain, making up the final tattoo (Figure 8).

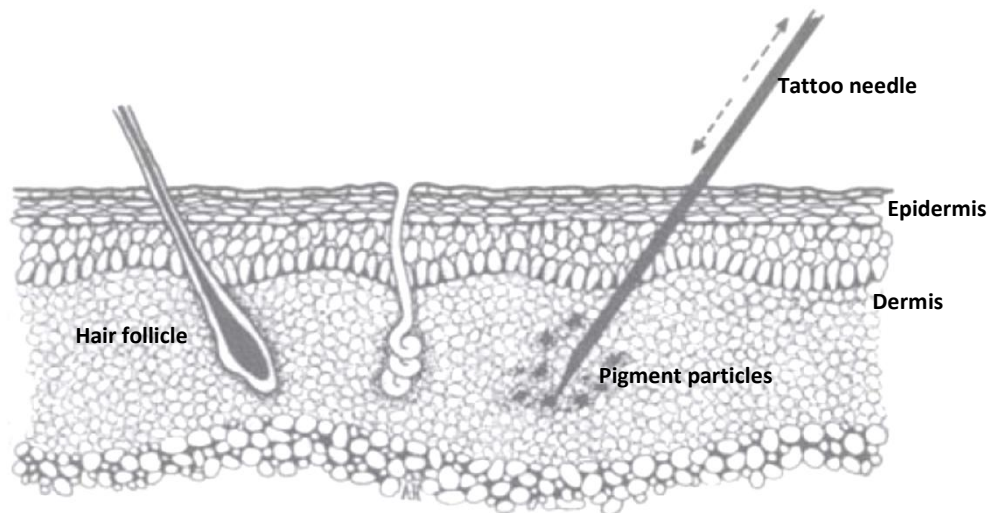


Figure 8. Cross-section of skin demonstrating the penetration of the tattoo needle and subsequent deposition of pigments into the dermis of the skin (Adapted from Morgan, 1974).

As the tissue heals, the superficial epidermal layers are peeled away leaving behind the deeper, regenerative basal epidermal layers. Eventually, sloughing off of cellular layers during

healing removes all of the pigmented layers of the epidermis with the exception of the dermis. Eventually, the epidermis regenerates and the epidermal layers grow back to their usual thickness over the pigmented dermal layer (1992, pp. 9). Over time, the body will react to the foreign pigment particles that have been introduced; "...the pigment particles are assimilated by dermal macrophages, which slowly carry them into the regional lymphatics and thus to the corresponding draining lymph nodes. The macrophages also engulf pigment granules and then migrate short distances within the dermis..." in which the majority of pigments will be assimilated by the macrophages, with unassimilated pigment granules remaining within dermal loose fibrous connective tissue between collagen bundles (*ibid.*). The effects of healing exhibited by the diffusion of light by the reformed epidermal layers and subsequent pigment migration result in a tattoo that appears smooth, diffuse, and hazy. An individual examining a tattoo that has healed and aged will often describe the tattoo as appearing faded.

Repeated exposure to ultraviolet light may affect the pigmentation of the tattoo, further degrading the overall tattoo pattern and the pigments themselves. Research concerning the photodecomposition of tattoo pigments in human tissue has become prevalent in medical forums, with dermatological complications being reported as a result of production of pigment breakdown by-products and their redistribution in tissue subsequent to ultraviolet or visible laser light exposure (Figure 9). References to such studies of the formation of pigment breakdown by-products include literature by Cui, *et.al.* (2004), Vasold, *et.al.* (2004), Engel, *et.al.* (2007) and Pfirrmann, *et.al.* (2007). Pfirrmann, *et.al.* provide a summary of the suitability of different lasers for breaking down the different tattoo colors (2007, pp. 892). In their paper, the authors demonstrate the usefulness of understanding pigment composition, morphology and histopathology in tattooing, particularly when removal is considered.

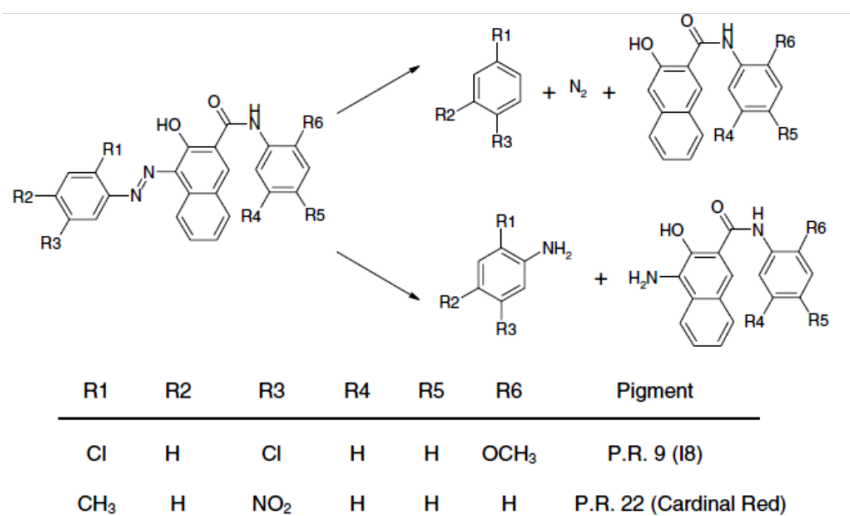


Figure 9. Decomposition products of red pigments as a result of solar or laser light exposure (as reported by Vasold, *et. al.*, 2004, pp. 186).

Raman Spectroscopy: Theory and Practice

When radiation interacts with matter, several processes can occur, including the absorption, emission, scattering, reflection and refraction of the incident radiation. The scattering of electromagnetic radiation forms the basis for Raman spectroscopy. The Raman effect is the scattering phenomenon that involves a net energy change between the scattered and incident beams of radiation. In contrast, a scattering process that involves no change in the energy of the scattered beam relative to the incident beam is defined as Rayleigh scattering. Elastic scattering occurs when the scattered radiation is the same frequency as the incident radiation (Rayleigh) and inelastic scattering occurs when the scattered radiation is of a different frequency (Raman). Raman scattering is caused by rotational and vibrational transitions in molecules, thereby allowing for structural determination of molecular species.

The Raman effect was observed by C.V. Raman in 1928 with the assistance of K.S. Krishnan. According to the literature, the phenomenon of inelastic light scattering was predicted five years earlier by A. Smekal (Haynes, *et.al*, 2005, pp. 339A) and “figured into the theory of dispersion due to Kramers and Heisenberg and in the papers of Schrödinger.” (Raman and Krishnan, 1928, pp. 24). Raman found that a small fraction of scattered radiation will differ in wavelength from that of the incident beam and that shifts in frequency depend upon the chemical structure of the molecules causing the scattering. Raman and Krishnan note that the incident quantum radiation is either scattered as a whole or absorbed in part by the molecules in the medium, where the part absorbed shifts the molecule to an energy level different from its initial state. According to the Raman theory, if an oscillating electric field is incident upon a sample, this field will interact with polarizable electron clouds of the sample molecules. A molecule can undergo a change in polarizability during one of its normal modes of vibration, and polarizability

is a measure of how efficiently a given incident frequency induces a dipole in a polyatomic molecule. The Raman effect results from the effect of the polarizability with the normal modes of vibration of the molecules. A molecule's polarizability will vary based upon bond distances and inter-nuclear separations of a molecule. A normal mode that involves a change in polarizability is described as a Raman active mode, whereas a normal mode that results in no change in polarizability is referred to as a Raman inactive mode.

In Raman spectroscopy, a dipole moment is induced by an external electric field of light. When a molecule is placed in such an electric field (ϵ), the induced dipole moment (μ_i) is given by

$$\mu_i = \epsilon \alpha$$

where α is the molecule's polarizability. Molecular dipoles are generally on the order of one Debye while α values are generally in units of cubic Ångströms. The magnitude of polarizability will vary with the frequency of the incident electric field and can be described as how easily a molecule's electronic configuration can be distorted by this field. If monochromatic light of frequency (ν_0) is incident upon a molecule, then light frequency of ν_0 and $\nu_0 \pm \nu$ is subsequently emitted from the molecule. In general, Raman scattering occurs when $\alpha \neq 0$.

From a quantum mechanical viewpoint, the Raman effect involves transitions between energy levels, where molecules in the ground vibrational state can interact with a photon of some energy and reemit a photon of energy at a lower frequency, or molecules in the lowest excited vibrational state can interact with a photon of energy and reemit a photon of energy and the higher frequency. An atomic or molecular system will scatter a photon if the energy of the photon equals the energy difference between two states of the molecular species. If scattering

occurs, the molecular species will occupy a higher energy level known as an excited virtual state. Smith and Dent (2005, pp. 72) describe the virtual state as a ‘complex’ between the incident radiation and the molecule; when the oscillating dipole interacts with the molecule, the electrons are polarized to a higher energy state. At the instant when the energy is transferred to the molecule, there is a complex that forms between the light energy and the molecule’s electrons in which the nuclei do not have time to move appreciably. The authors add that this virtual state ‘complex’ is unstable and the light is released immediately as scattered radiation. Over time, the excited state will give off energy and the scattering species will return to a lower energy state. With Raman scattering, the amount of energy lost between incident radiation and the resultant emitted photon equals the energy difference between two quantized vibrational energy levels of the molecules causing the scattering. These energy differences are generally characteristic of the molecular species. Note the equation,

$$E = h\nu = h(c/\lambda) = h\acute{\nu}$$

in which the energy (E) between the ground state and excited state is directly proportional to the frequency, ν , and inversely proportional to the wavelength, λ , of the absorbed light (where $\acute{\nu} = 1/\lambda$ in wavenumbers, cm^{-1}).

The intensity of Raman scattering is defined by the equation

$$I = Kl\alpha^2\omega^4$$

in which the intensity is the product of a series of constants (represented by K), the power of the incident laser radiation (l), the polarizability of the molecule and the frequency of the incident radiation (ω). This equation is important in demonstrating the contribution of the incident frequency on the overall Raman scattering intensity (ω^4); in that there is signal enhancement to the fourth power.

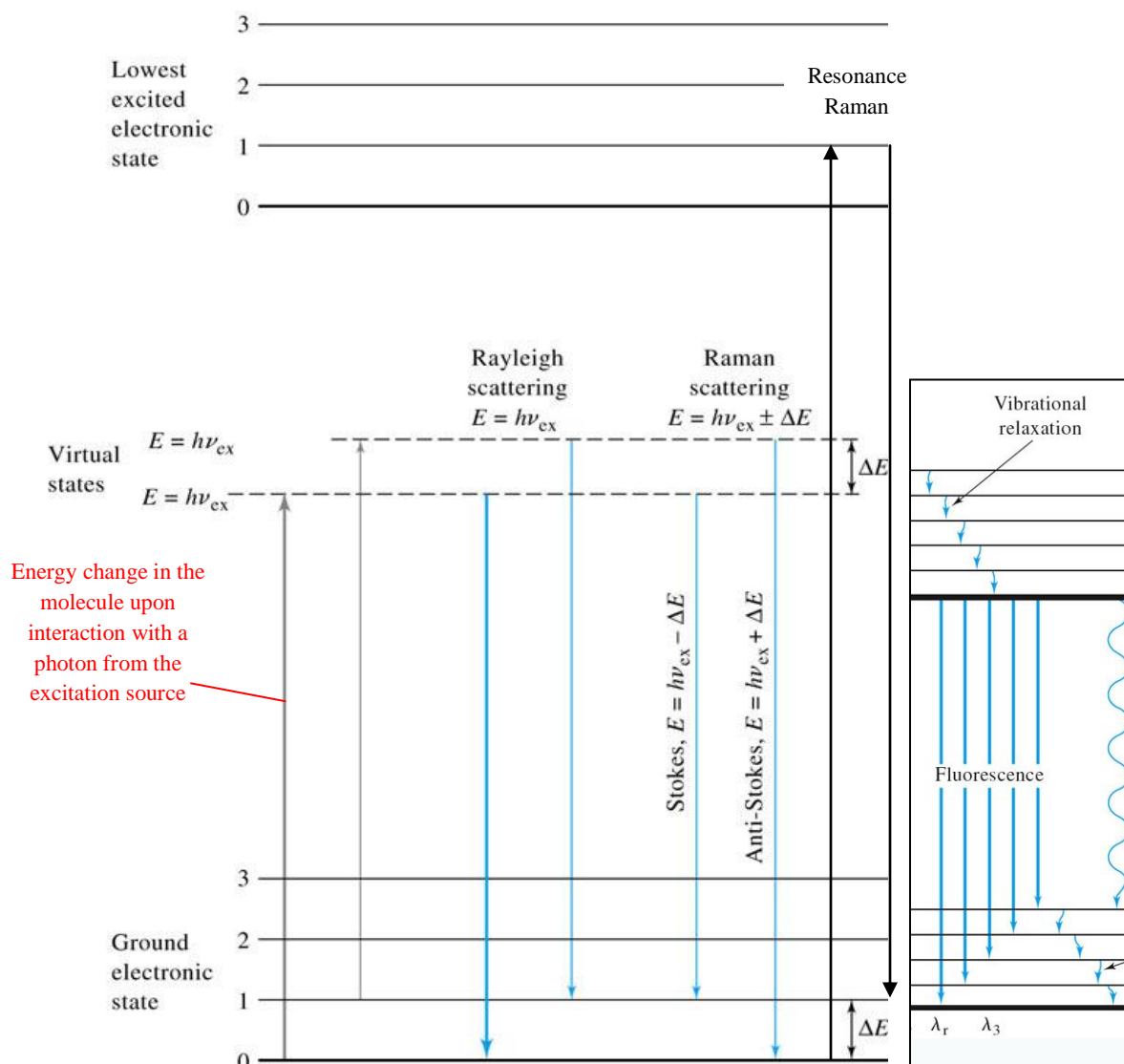


Figure 10. Energy level diagram outlining the scattering processes. The relative widths of the arrows indicate the probabilities of these processes occurring. Not that the numbered horizontal lines represent vibrational levels within the given electronic state (the spacing between them is exaggerated to show detail). In addition, Stokes emission is favored over Anti-Stokes (Adapted from Skoog, Holler and Nieman, 1998). Fluorescence is demonstrated in the inset.

Resonance Raman scattering is a phenomenon in which the Raman band intensities are enhanced when the excitation wavelength is near that of the electronic absorption band of the molecular species of a sample. This enhancement can be a factor of 10^2 - 10^6 , which increases the detection sensitivity by molecules present in a sample at low concentrations. The resonance enhancement effect is observed in those Raman bands associated with functional groups that

contain valence electrons with low excitation energies (chromophores). This is due to the presence of absorbing species containing π (bonding) and n (non bonding) electrons and their transitions to π anti-bonding electron energy levels. According to White, *et. al.*, “provided a molecule has a suitable chromophore and the laser excitation wavelength matches, or is very close to the absorbance maximum of the analyte, then under resonance conditions sensitivity can be increased by up to three to four orders of magnitude over traditional Raman spectroscopy” (1998, pp. 78). Determination of a sample’s wavelength absorbance maxima using a UV/Visible spectrophotometer can provide the approximate range of excitation wavelengths that are capable of producing the resonance Raman effect. In resonance Raman, an electron is promoted to an excited electronic state followed by instantaneous (10^{-12} - 10^{-14} s) relaxation to a vibrational level within the electronic ground state. In contrast, the relaxation by fluorescence is not instantaneous, but instead involves a relaxation to the lowest vibrational level of the excited electronic state (Figure 10, inset) prior to returning to the ground state. In fluorescence, the molecular species emits a new photon after absorption and subsequently returns to the ground state. The lifetime of the excited state is of the order of 10^{-6} - 10^{-8} s in fluorescence. Pre-resonance Raman spectra are those that are obtained when the excitation sources are set to a frequency slightly lower than that which would cause resonance Raman, thereby resulting in a lower degree of enhancement. The mechanisms of light scattering processes are compared in the energy level diagram below (Figure 11).

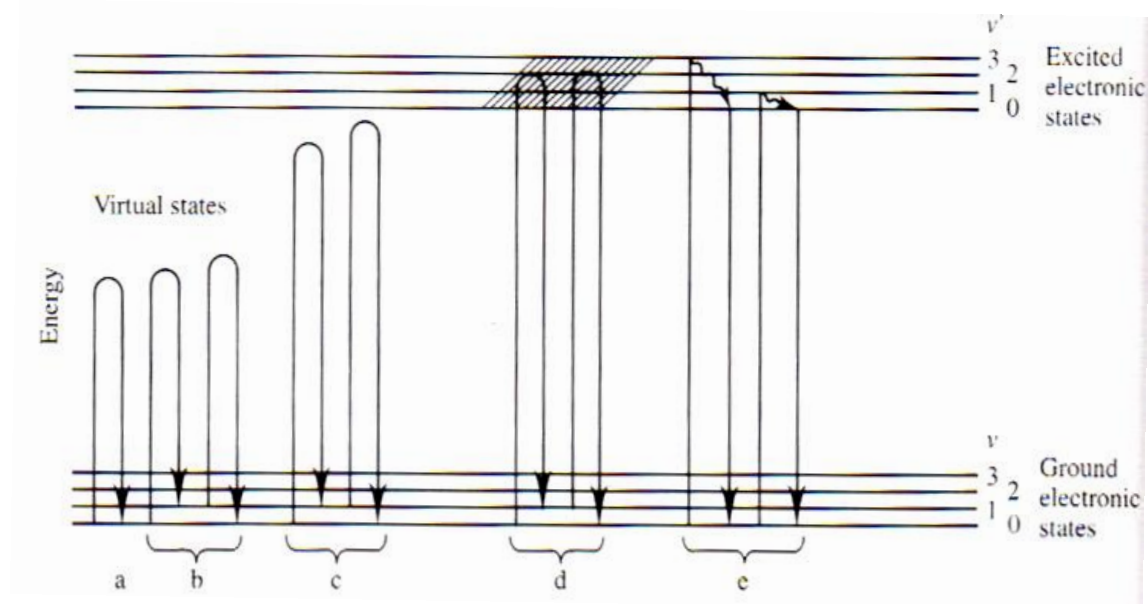


Figure 11. Mechanisms of light scattering processes. (a) Rayleigh, (b) non-resonance Raman (Stokes and Anti Stokes), (c) pre-resonance Raman, (d) resonance Raman and (e) resonance fluorescence (Reproduced with permission from Academic Press).

As with most spectroanalytical instrumentation, current Raman instrumentation contains a source, a sample holder, a wavelength selector or interferometer, a detector and a data processing/readout system. With dispersive Raman systems, the wavelength selector is a grating or series of gratings and with Fourier-Transform Raman systems, a Michelson interferometer is employed. Sources are almost always lasers coupled with filters, which provide bright, monochromatic radiation. A variety of laser sources are available and selection will vary based upon the instrument, the types of samples being analyzed and the needs of the analyst. Figure 12 (top) depicts some of the laser excitation wavelengths available for use with Raman spectrometers. In order to evaluate which monochromatic laser excitation wavelength and corresponding laser power (intensity) to apply to the sample being analyzed, it is necessary to consider fluorescence effects, absorption effects and possible photodecomposition of the sample. Selection of excitation wavelength will also be important when considering desired sample

penetration depth, as this may affect resultant spectra, especially in the cases of thin films or layered samples (Figure 12, bottom).

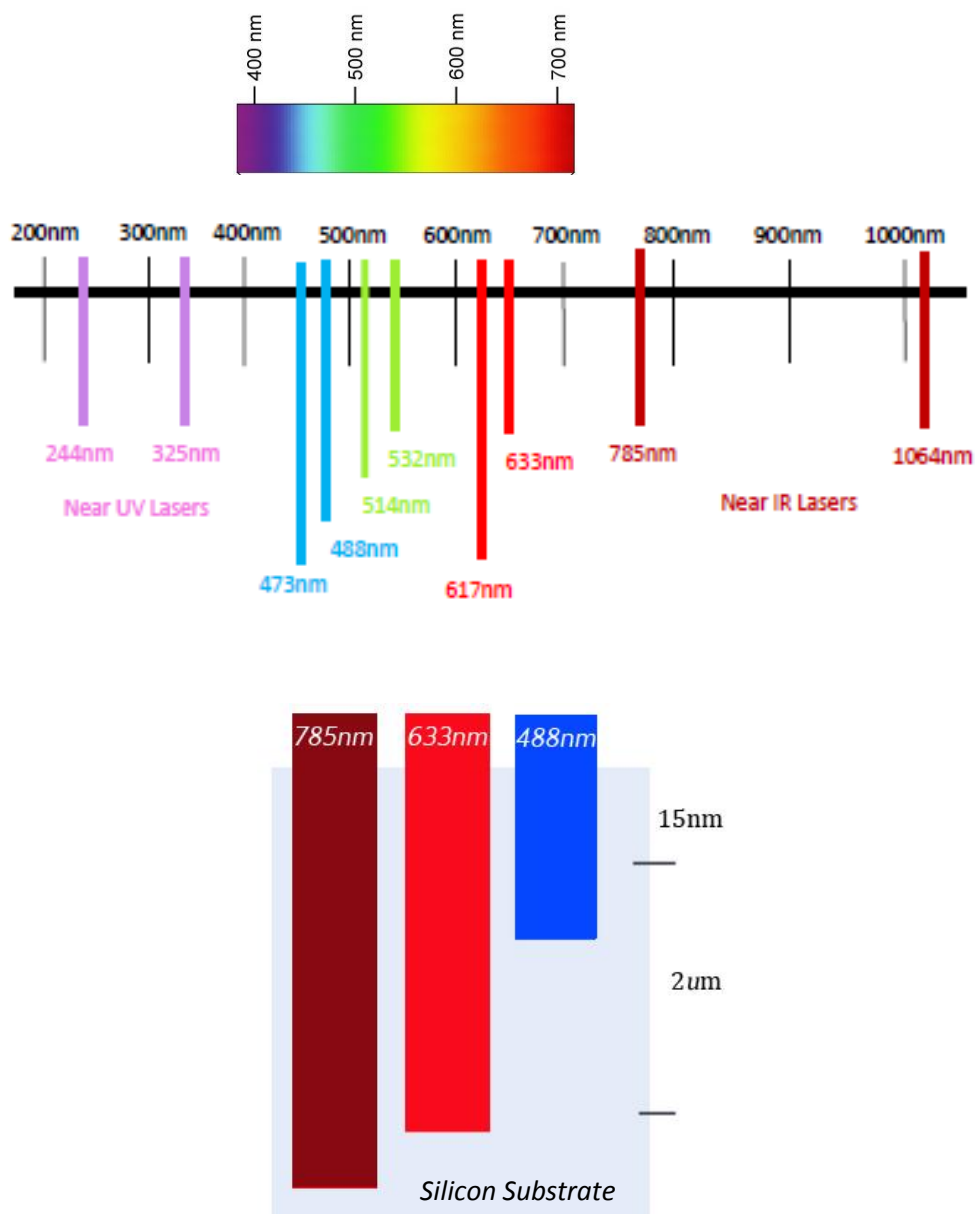


Figure 12. (top) Typical laser sources used in Raman spectroscopy and (bottom) some corresponding depth profiles. When considering the penetration depth of lasers of varying wavelength into Silicon, the depth of penetration will increase when moving from a shorter wavelength to a longer wavelength (Adapted from Horiba Scientific). This trend of penetration depth related to excitation wavelength is important when considering a pigment –containing tissue substrate (such as tattooed skin).

Raman systems may be stand-alone spectrometers or the Raman spectrometer can be coupled with an optical microscope for the analysis of smaller samples or samples composed of micro (10 μ g) amounts of molecular species. For stand-alone spectrometers, liquid and solid (for example, powder) samples may be placed in a capillary tube, sample cell or alternate sample holder and inserted into the path of the incident beam. For microscopic work, the solid or liquid sample is placed within a sample holder, mounted on a glass or aluminum-coated slide or placed directly on the microscope stage. It is important to note that obtaining Raman spectra is not limited by materials that affect infrared data collection, such as glass sample holders and optical components, aqueous solutions and some solvents. Many sample types require little to no sample preparation for Raman analysis, which is not always the case with classic infrared analysis techniques, with the exception of attenuated total reflection (ATR).

Current Raman instruments are typically of two types, Fourier transform instruments with low band gap semiconductor detectors such as Germanium (Ge) and indium gallium arsenide (InGaAs) or dispersive, multichannel instruments with charge coupled device (CCD) detectors. CCD detectors are not sensitive to the spectral area near the 1064nm Nd/YAG lasers, and as such, 1064nm lasers are typically used with a Germanium detector in Fourier Transform instruments. With dispersive systems, in order to observe the Raman spectrum, it is necessary to separate the collected Raman scattered light into individual wavelengths, which is accomplished with a grating or series of gratings. Since Raman scattering intensity depends on the fourth power of the frequency (referred to as the ω^4 or ν^4 rule), the high frequency lasers found in dispersive systems are ideal with respect to increased sensitivity. Conversely, the longer wavelength/shorter frequency of the 1064nm laser used in FT-Raman instrumentation decreases electron excitation and reduces the chance for fluorescence. Advantages of Fourier transform

instruments include the elimination of many fluorescence interferences and acquisition of the full spectrum which minimizes loss of spectral regions (no need to ‘stitch’ spectral regions together when switching between gratings in a dispersive system, and no need to switch gratings to change resolution since the moving mirror controls resolution in an FT system). Additionally, there is an increase of signal to noise ratio with concomitant enhanced sensitivity due to the multiple scan capability with signal averaging and the increased energy throughput of the interferometer.

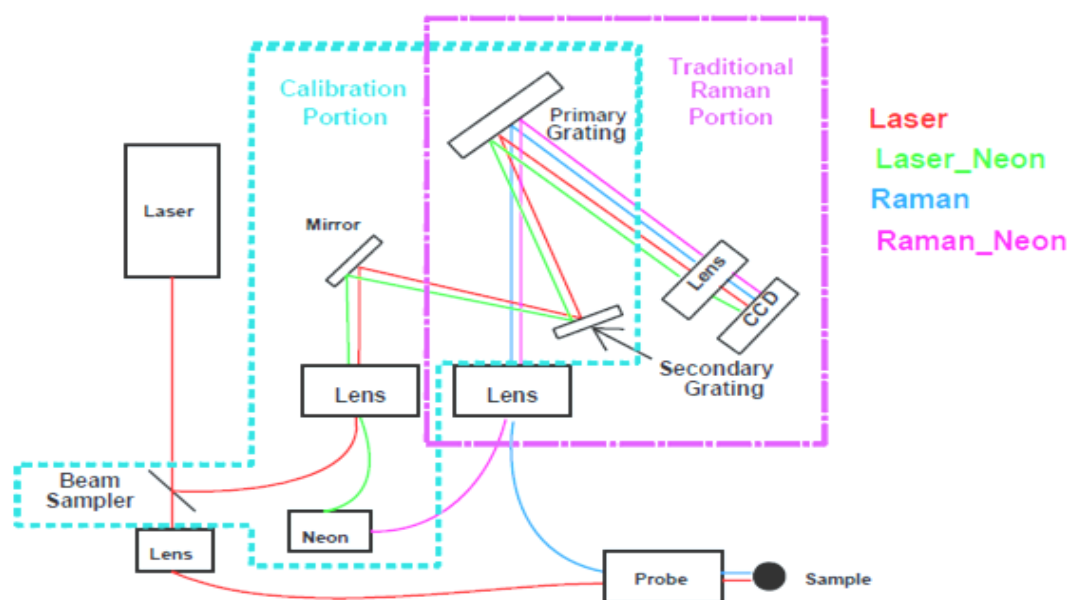


Figure 13. Schematic of the spectrograph of the Bruker Optics dispersive Raman microscope (Senterra). The ray diagrams correspond to Bruker Optics SureCal internal calibration system. SureCal (US Patent number 6,141,095) is an automatic calibration of the spectrometer without external standards and calibrates both frequency and intensity values by using an internal Neon line source (Source: Bruker Optics).

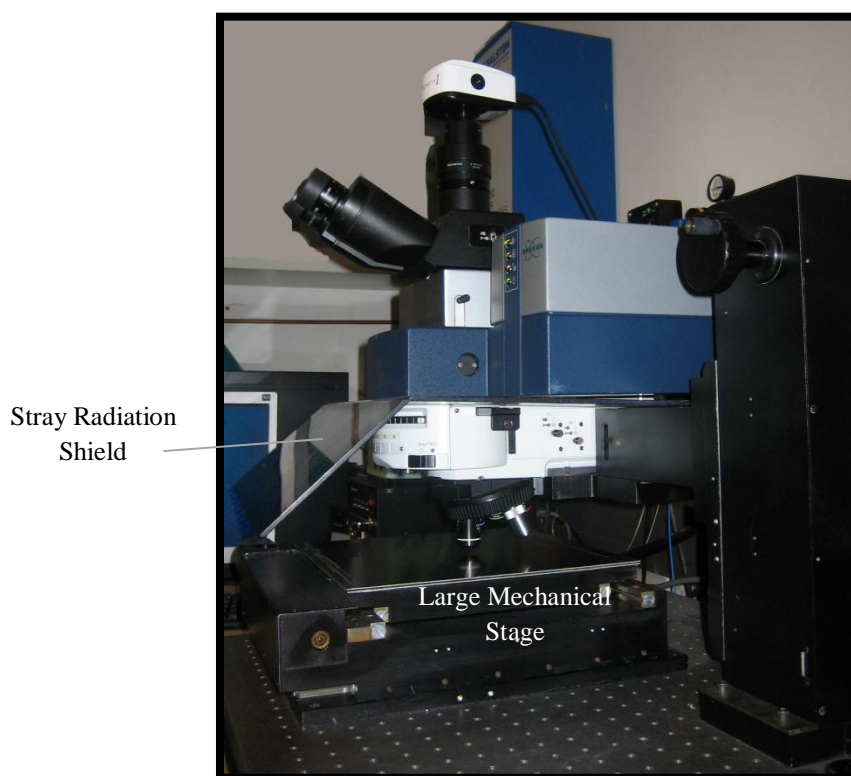
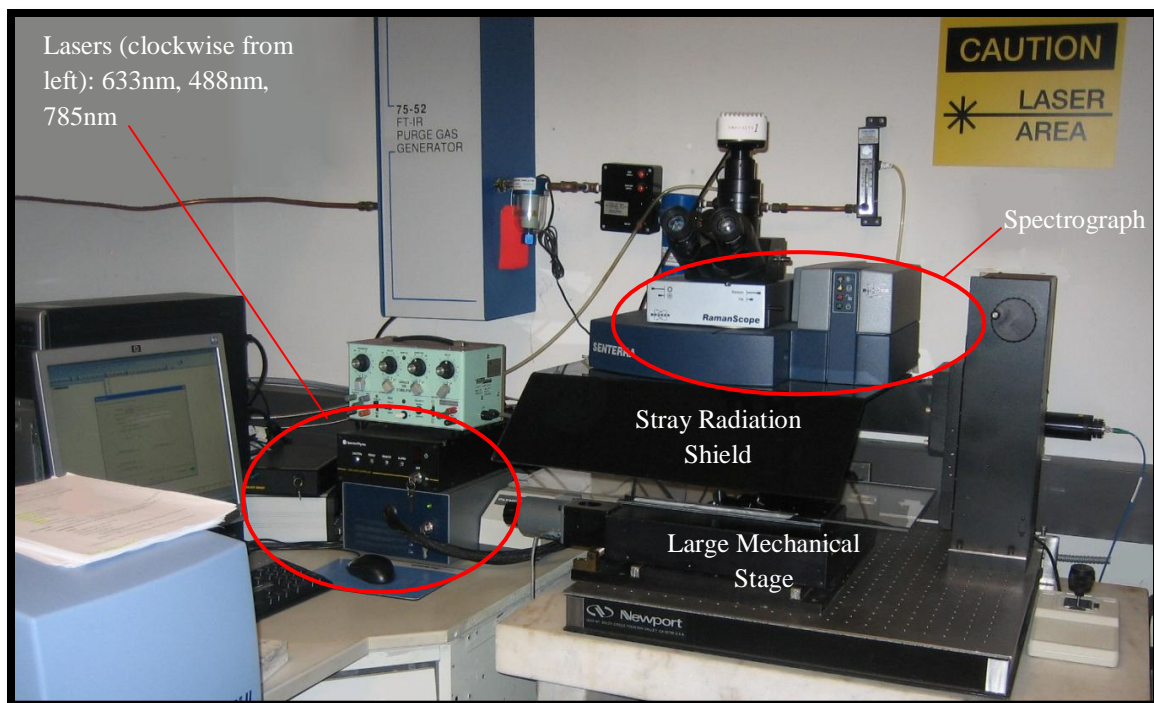


Figure 14. A Bruker Optics Senterra RamanScope (a spectrograph coupled with an Olympus BX51 microscope), (top) front view and (bottom) side view. The set-up has been modified to include a large mechanical stage for analyzing large works of art that would not fit on a normal microscope stage [The Metropolitan Museum of Art].

In a dispersive Raman microscope, the laser light travels through the objective, impacts the sample and scatters back through the objective. The Raman scattered light passes through the objective and travels to the spectrometer module (spectrograph). Narrow bandpass interference filters are in place to produce monochromatic incident laser lines and notch filters are in place to block any additional radiation (*i.e.* Rayleigh) such that only the Raman scattered radiation reaches the detector (Figure 15). The FT-Raman spectrometer uses an interferometer and series of filters to generate spectral data (Figure 16). The Fourier transform process is described in more detail in the *Infrared Spectroscopy: Theory and Practice* section of this paper.

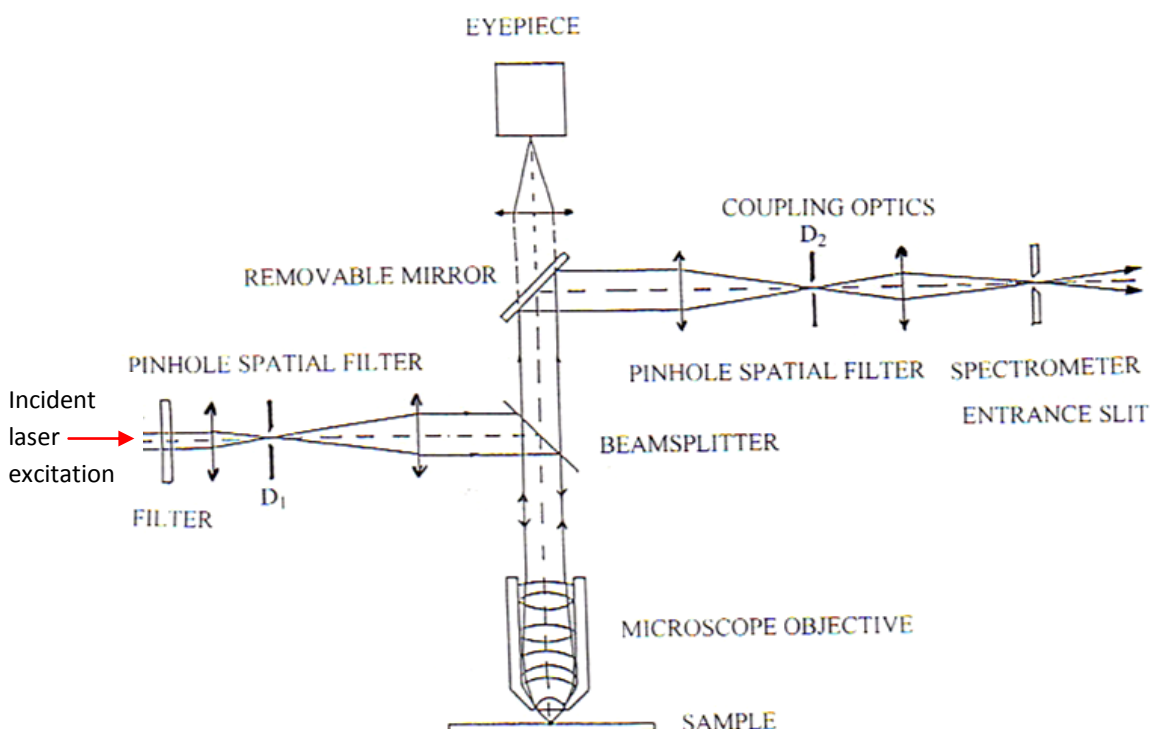


Figure 15. Collection geometry of some Raman spectrometers coupled with an optical microscope. The pinhole spatial filters (D_1 and D_2) are employed in confocal Raman systems. When confocal imaging is not being used, the pinhole filters are replaced with rectangular-shaped apertures (Reproduced with permission from Academic Press).

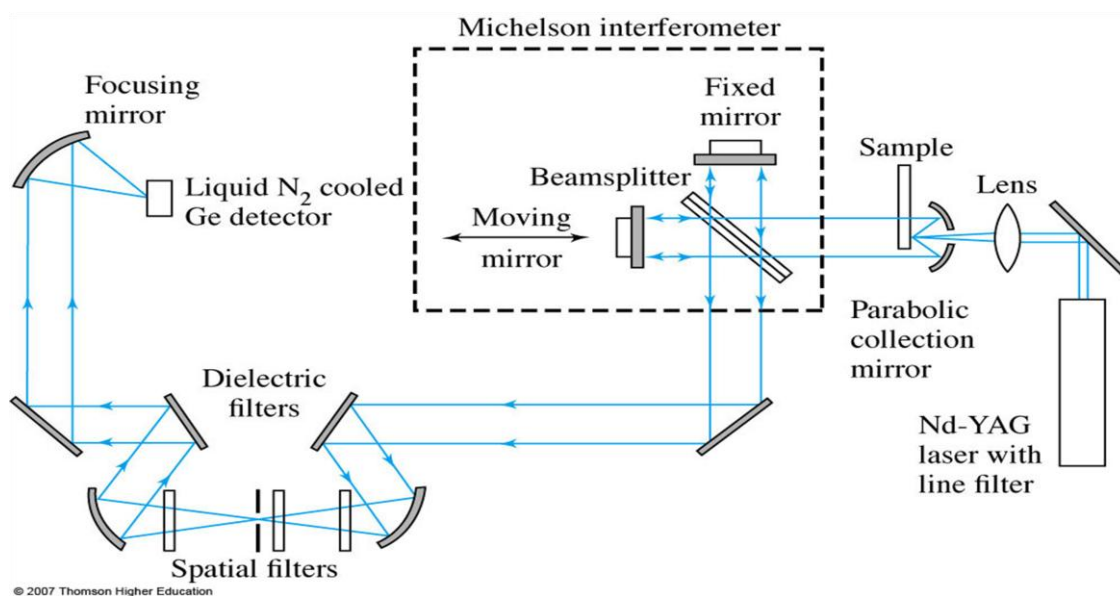


Figure 16. Schematic of a FT-Raman Spectrometer. Filters are inserted to remove radiation from the source and the stronger Rayleigh radiation so that only the Stokes scattering reaches the detector (Adapted from Skoog, Holler and Nieman, 1998).

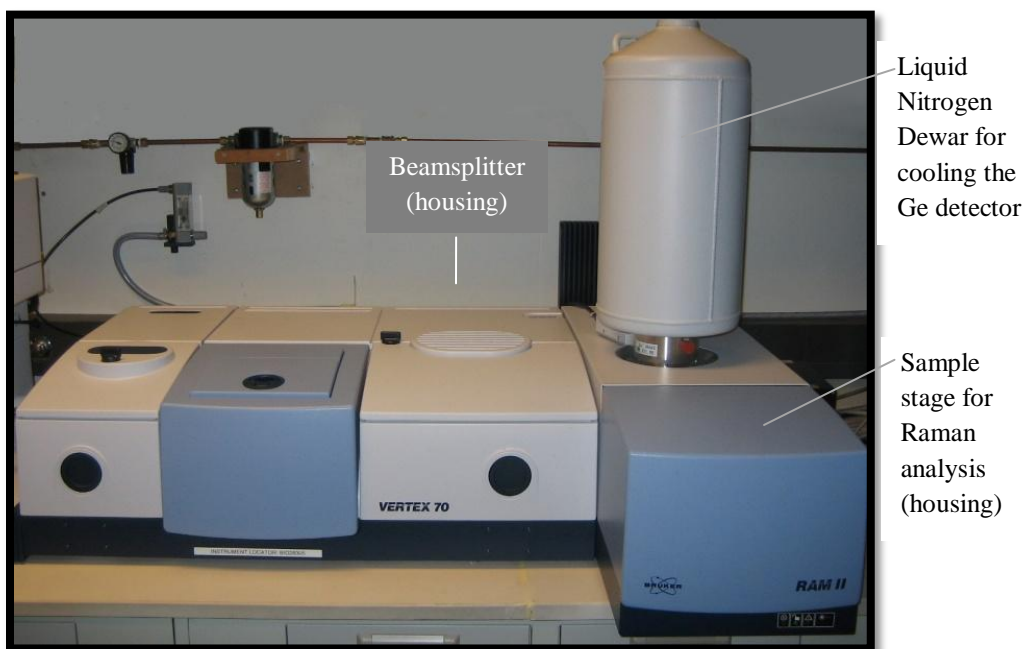


Figure 17. A Bruker Optics Vertex 70 Ram II Instrument (Ge detector), which can be used for both Fourier transform infrared spectroscopy and Raman spectroscopy. The instrument can also be coupled with a microscope for infrared microscopy using ATR and reflection optics on trace samples (not shown) [The Metropolitan Museum of Art].



Figure 18. A Thermo NXR FT-Raman Instrument (InGaAs detector), which can be used for both Fourier transform infrared spectroscopy (left) and Raman (right) spectroscopy [John Jay College of Criminal Justice, CUNY].

With Raman spectra, the abscissa (x axis) is the wavenumber shift (the difference in frequency between the observed radiation and the source). This value is usually labeled as units of reciprocal centimeters (cm^{-1}). The ordinate (y axis) is the Raman intensity and may be labeled as photons per second or arbitrary intensity units. The intensity of a Raman peak is affected by several factors, including but not limited to the molecule's polarizability, the concentration of the active molecular species within a sample, the intensity of the excitation source and the efficiency of the detector.

Raman spectroscopy can be impeded by sample degradation (thermal and photo degradation), inherently weak intensities, fluorescence interferences, and inefficient collection and subsequent detection of radiation. Current instrumentation has been able to overcome these factors, due to the availability of various laser excitation wavelengths, the introduction of interferometer-based instruments, improved detectors and electronics as well as enhancement

techniques such as surface enhanced Raman scattering (SERS) and resonance Raman spectroscopy.

Surface Enhanced Raman Scattering (SERS) is the technique employed to enhance the normal Raman signal by a factor of 10^6 or more by placing a molecular species on or near a metal substrate (for example, a metal nanoparticle or quantum dots), followed by analysis with standard Raman instrumentation. It has been found that there are three factors which contribute to this enhancement effect, molecular resonance (from the molecular species), surface plasmon resonance (from the conduction band of the metal nanoparticle) and charge transfer resonance (transfer of electrons between the molecule and the metal). In addition to the signal enhancement, there is also a resulting quenching of fluorescence. SERS benefits include the ability to generate high resolution spectra of molecular species in ultra trace concentrations and the ability to generate spectra in cases where fluorescence interference is otherwise overwhelming with normal Raman.

Much work has been done to establish the mechanism of the enhancement and to determine the relative effects of the contributing sources. According to Lombardi and Birke, the enhancements can be described by a single expression in which all three resonance effects contribute. Furthermore, these resonances (surface plasmon, charge transfer and molecular) contribute as multipliers rather than sums. The authors note that the three resonance effects contribute differently to the overall enhancement, depending on several factors. These factors include the nature of both the metal nanoparticle and the molecular species as well as the characteristics of the excitation wavelength. According to the equation that resulted from their research, the enhancement factor (R) can be determined based upon the contribution of the different resonance effects (2008, pp. 5609):

The diagram shows the equation for the enhancement factor $R_{IFK}(\omega)$ with various components labeled. The equation is:

$$R_{IFK}(\omega) = \frac{\mu_{KI} \mu_{FK} h_{IF} \langle i|Q_k|f \rangle}{((\epsilon_1(\omega) + 2\epsilon_0)^2 + \epsilon_2^2) (\omega_{FK}^2 - \omega^2 + \gamma_{FK}^2) (\omega_{IK}^2 - \omega^2 + \gamma_{IK}^2)}$$

Labels and their corresponding parts in the equation:

- Enhancement Factor**: Points to the entire equation $R_{IFK}(\omega)$.
- Electronic transition ($I \rightarrow K$)**: Points to the term μ_{KI} in the numerator.
- Transition electron dipole moment ($F \rightarrow K$)**: Points to the term μ_{FK} in the numerator.
- Hertzberg-Teller Coupling ($I \rightarrow F$ vibronic coupling)**: Points to the term $h_{IF} \langle i|Q_k|f \rangle$ in the numerator.
- Surface Plasmon Resonance**: Points to the term $(\epsilon_1(\omega) + 2\epsilon_0)^2 + \epsilon_2^2$ in the denominator.
- Imaginary Dielectric Constant**: Points to the term ϵ_2^2 in the denominator.
- Charge Transfer Resonance**: Points to the term $(\omega_{FK}^2 - \omega^2 + \gamma_{FK}^2)$ in the denominator.
- Damping Term**: Points to the term γ_{FK}^2 in the denominator.
- Molecular Resonance**: Points to the term $(\omega_{IK}^2 - \omega^2 + \gamma_{IK}^2)$ in the denominator.

Figure 19. Equation used to determine the resonance enhancement effects for SERS.

Lombardi and Birke determined that the resonances are represented in a single expression linked by coupling terms where the three resonances contribute as multipliers with regard to the overall enhancement. In the above equation the numerator represents the Raman signal, where I, F, and K represent the ground state (HOMO), a charge-transfer state (Fermi) and an excited molecular state (LUMO) of the molecule-metal system, respectively, and the denominator represents the product of the three resonances (surface plasmon, charge transfer and molecular, respectively). In the numerator, $h_{IF} \langle i|Q_k|f \rangle$ represents the B-term (non-totally symmetric modes) in the Hertzberg-Teller equation, which gives rise to normal Raman spectra. In the denominator, the values are all energies that are affected by the excitation wavelength. These resonance factors correspond to the surface plasmon resonance, the charge transfer resonance and electromagnetic resonance. According to the authors, the magnitude of the SERS enhancement, the contribution of each of the three resonance effects and the appearance of the resultant Raman spectra depend on several factors, including the excitation wavelength, the size and shape of the metal

nanoparticle, the strength of the oscillator, the energy of the nanoparticle and the bandwidth of the resonance. Several publications have been generated evaluating the contribution of resonance effects to different dye molecules, an example of which is seen in figure 20 below):

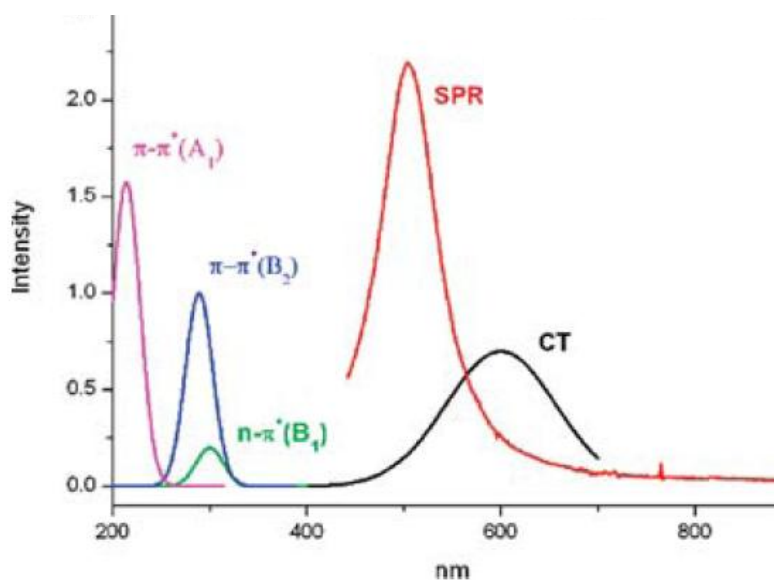


Figure 20. Resonances of Pyridine-Silver nanoparticle system (Adapted from Lombardi and Birke, 2009, pp. 734).

Of the metal substrates, copper, gold and silver are commonly employed for SERS work. Preparation of metal substrates has varied and has included surface roughening by a series of oxidation-reduction cycles, thin film depositions on different substrates by different methods of deposition (*i.e.* sputtering or evaporation), and the preparation of colloids. A study by Lee and Meisel (1982) attempted to detect SERS by examining dyes adsorbed on colloidal gold and silver by preparing a series of silver and gold sols using sodium citrate solution as a reducing agent. In addition to observing the surface enhancement phenomenon due to the molecular species (dyes) adsorbed on the surface of the colloids, the authors demonstrated the efficiency of adsorption of the dye molecules onto the colloids. Many researchers have employed the Lee and Meisel

method (or a slightly modified version) since its development to produce silver sols for their SERS work. While effective for SERS, the Lee and Meisel colloids had limited stability and reproducibility with regard to particle size, aggregation and absorption light maxima. As such, other support systems have been developed, such as roughened electrodes, Tollens mirrors (colloidal silver films on a glass substrate), silver nanoisland films and alternative metal colloids.

In order to improve the analytical performance of SERS in the analysis of microscopic samples, Leona (2009) developed a sensitive, stable silver colloid support that could be reproducibly prepared microwave activated reduction of silver sulfate with glucose and sodium citrate. By controlling the reaction and providing rapid, uniform heating, Leona developed a stable silver colloid of narrow particle size range absent of aggregates. Compared to the Lee and Meisel method, the microwave reduction method established by Leona produced a narrow absorption range, narrow particle size distribution and increased colloid stability over a longer period of time. Leona, *et.al.* (2006) also reported that the poly(L-lysine) used by Lee and Meisel to facilitate the adsorption of dyes onto the silver nanoparticles was not necessary. The authors report that superior results were obtained when using potassium nitrate (KNO_3) as the aggregant, or as an alternate, gently heating the microscope slide containing the dye solution-colloid. Sodium chloride (NaCl) has been proposed as a suitable aggregant by Bell, *et. al.*, where they reported “dramatic growth in the intensity” of the Raman bands resulting from its addition (2007, pp. 1064). The use of other aggregants has been reported (nitrates, chlorates, nitric acid, *etc.*) and aggregant selection may depend on the nature of the dye or sample being analyzed with regard to its functional groups and charges on the atoms. The presence of a background produced by the citrate-reduced silver colloid from the citrate ion and reduction reaction by-products has been noted by Teslova, *et. al.* (2007, pp. 807) and should be considered when interpreting SERS

spectra that incorporate this type of colloid (Figure 21). The procedure for the microwave synthesis of the silver colloid is outlined in the methods and materials section.

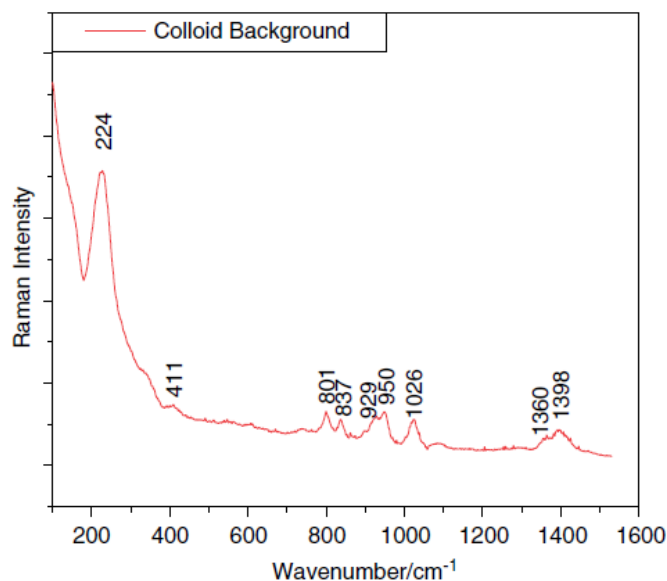


Figure 21. The colloid-citrate background. The silver-aggregant bond is typically observed in the region of $220\text{-}250\text{cm}^{-1}$. The additional, weaker bands are due to the citrate ions (Adapted from Teslova, *et.al.*, 2007, pp. 807).

Much has been published demonstrating the use of SERS to enhance signals and quench fluorescence. Istvan, *et.al.* reported the effect of adding silver sols to TLC spots, stating that the strongest Raman band was enhanced and many additional weak spectral features were then detectable above the noise level (2003, pp. 1717). SERS has been used in many fields of study, including art conservation and forensic science. SERS has been applied to the analysis of various natural, organic pigments and dyes, including rhodamine 6G, flavones and derivatives, flavonoids, berberine, alizarin, carminic acid, laccaic acid, photoberberine alkaloids, indanthrone and flavanthrone and many others. In the forensic science field, SERS has been used to analyze paints, pigments and inks, fibers and controlled substances such as morphine, codeine and hydrocodone, amphetamines and methamphetamines (Rana, *et.al.*, 2011 and Taplin, 2011)

Surface enhanced resonance Raman scattering (SERRS) is a technique that couples resonance Raman techniques with those of normal surface enhanced Raman scattering. According to Haynes, *et.al.*, SERRS occurs when the laser excitation wavelength overlaps with an electronic absorption band, thereby amplifying the Raman scattering intensities of the totally symmetric vibrational modes of the chromophore (2005, pp. 342A). White *et.al.* analyzed acidic, basic and neutral dyes using a silver colloid based upon a modified Lee and Meisel method with poly(L-lysine) as the aggregating agent. Using excitation wavelengths of 457.9nm, 514.5nm and 632.7nm, the authors analyzed an assortment of dyes. They found no difficulties with the analysis of basic dyes and concluded that SERRS analysis is useful for the analysis of dyes in a mixture and the technique demonstrates that it is not necessary to perform any chromatography or extraction on the dyes prior to conducting SERRS (1998, pp. 86). For acidic and neutral dyes, White *et.al.* found that when ascorbic acid was added to the colloid-aggregant complex, there was an improvement in detection of the dye (pp. 80). The authors report that they were able to distinguish the dyes tested, including geometric isomers and tautomers (pp. 78). SERRS has been applied to the analysis of several materials encountered in forensic science and art conservation, including colorants, lipsticks, inkjet dyes and organic pigments and glazes.

Infrared Spectroscopy: Theory and Practice

Infrared spectrometry is a branch of vibrational spectroscopy that also provides important information about a compound's chemical nature and molecular structure. For a molecule to absorb infrared radiation, it must undergo a change in dipole moment brought about by its vibrational or rotational motion. A molecule can be continuously rotating and vibrating in space, and infrared active moments are those movements in which the molecule has a change in dipole moment. A dipole moment occurs when atoms within a molecule are chemically different so as to result in an asymmetric distribution of electron density because of unequal electron sharing (separation of charge within a molecule). The magnitude of the moment is determined by the distance between the centers of charge of the atoms and the charge distribution between the atoms. If the frequency of incident infrared radiation is equivalent to the molecule's natural vibrational or rotational frequency, then a net transfer of energy occurs. This energy transfer causes a change in the amplitude of the molecular vibration or rate of rotation, resulting from absorption of the incident infrared radiation. Energy transfer occurs because there is an electronic transition from one vibrational or rotational energy level up to another. The incident infrared radiation will be composed of a continuum of various wavelengths, and thus various frequencies. The frequencies that meet the above criteria will be absorbed by the molecule, while the frequencies that do not will be transmitted. Vibrational modes which do not involve a change in dipole moment are said to be infrared inactive.

Fourier transform infrared instruments allow for working with weak signals that may be lost amongst instrumental noise. Due to the decrease in optical elements and types of detectors employed in FT-IR instruments, the power of the radiation that reaches the detector is larger than that in dispersive infrared instruments, and greater signal-to-noise ratios are observed. Fourier

transform also results in high resolving power and wavelength reproducibility. An important advantage of Fourier transform is that since all of the wavelengths of the source reach the detector at the same time, an entire spectrum can be obtained within seconds. Non-Fourier transform instruments have to examine each wavelength individually to generate the spectrum, which can take much longer for comparable resolutions. Fourier transform can be described as a mathematical algorithm that is applied to the data generated by the spectrometer. Because the interferometer modulates the infrared light in a very specific way, the Fourier transform algorithm enables the instrument to process all of the wavelengths of infrared light at once. This produces a high quality spectrum almost immediately.

Fourier transform spectroscopy incorporates an interferometer for the purpose of achieving useable frequency-domain spectroscopy from time-domain (changes in radiant power with time) data through a series of mathematical computations and signal modulations. The interferometer splits a beam of radiation into two beams of nearly equal power and then recombines them such that intensity variations of the combined beam can be measured as a function of differences in the path lengths of the two beams. After a signal called an interferogram is generated, the mathematical Fourier transform of this signal occurs and is plotted. These interference patterns undergo data processing to produce a 'readable' spectrum; the interferogram shifts from the faster light frequency to a slower audio frequency, which can be 'read' by the detector and subsequently plotted.

The common Michelson interferometer possesses both a fixed and a movable mirror. The movable mirror travels away from and toward the beamsplitter with a constant velocity allowing for its location to be determined by fluctuations in the power of the reference laser radiation incident on a detector. The difference in pathlength that the infrared light travels can

be determined at any point in time by reference to the interference pattern generated by the laser. The difference between this pathlength and the pathlength that the infrared light travels to the fixed mirror part of the interferometer is called the optical path difference (OPD). As the optical path difference changes as the moving mirror is moved, the power at the infrared radiation also changes due to the constructive and destructive interferences of the various wavelengths. An interferogram is the result, which is the plot of the infrared energy power (or detector signal) versus the time (a function of the OPD).

Although routine infrared spectroscopic analysis is done in absorbance mode, the technique employed in this research used internal reflection, an infrared reflection method. Internal reflection spectroscopy is based on total internal reflection of radiation within an internal reflection crystal. Reflection will occur when radiation moves from a more refractive to a less refractive media, or vice versa. In this method, the more refractive media is the internal reflection element (IRE) and the less refractive is the sample. If the radiation is applied at an angle greater than the critical angle, reflection is described as being complete and total internal reflection occurs. The electric field of the radiation penetrates some distance into the less refractive material and thus can interact with the less refractive material. This distance the field extends into the less refractive media is called the depth of penetration. This depth of penetration depends upon the refractive indices of the sample and IRE, the angle of the incident radiation, and the wavelength of the incident radiation. As the wavelength increases, the wave number decreases and the depth of penetration increases. The electric field that penetrates into the sample is called the evanescent wave. If this radiation is absorbed by the sample, the reflected radiation will be attenuated at the wavelengths corresponding to the sample's absorption bands. Thus, this technique is called attenuated total reflection (ATR). Using attenuated total reflection

spectroscopy, the sample is placed into direct contact with an internal reflection crystal. For ATR to occur efficiently, the sample must come into contact with an IRE (also called an ATR crystal), which has a higher refractive index than the sample. Typical IRE's are zinc selenide (ZnSe), which has a refractive index (RI) of 2.2, Germanium (Ge), which has a refractive index of 4 and a composite IRE in which diamond (RI of 2.4) comes into contact with the sample. Most samples have refractive indices between 1.0 and 1.5, so typical IREs are suitable for most sample analysis. ATR is ideal for homogeneous, strongly absorbing and thick samples and a variety of samples that may normally produce intense, saturated peaks difficult to interpret when measured in transmission mode.

For routine work, the region of interest is the mid-infrared region from 4000-200 reciprocal centimeters (cm^{-1}). Within this range, the commonly displayed infrared spectrum can be split into two major regions, the group frequency region from approximately 4000-1300 cm^{-1} and the fingerprint region from approximately 1300-400 cm^{-1} (and down to 200 cm^{-1}). Spectra are displayed as wavenumbers (cm^{-1}) on the x axis and absorbance, reflectance or percent transmittance on the y axis. When comparing ATR spectra to transmission spectra, the peak locations are very similar (with some small shifts occurring), but differ in intensities. One of the major differences between typical absorbance spectra and ATR spectra is the dependency on sample thickness; ATR spectra being generally independent of sample thickness as long as the sample is thicker than the depth of penetration. This is because the radiation penetrates a small distance into the sample, whereas absorption spectra require the incident radiation to traverse the entire sample prior to reaching the interferometer and ultimately the detector. When compared to transmission spectra for a given material, ATR spectra have less intense absorption bands at higher wavenumbers and more intense absorption bands at lower wavenumbers. An ATR

reflectance spectrum is a plot of the intensity of the internally reflected radiation as a function of wavelength (or wavenumber). When comparing sample preparation techniques of ATR and transmission, since ATR is based on the reflection of radiation from the surface of the sample, no special sample preparation is needed beyond making sure the sample is in intimate contact with the IRE (Figure 22).

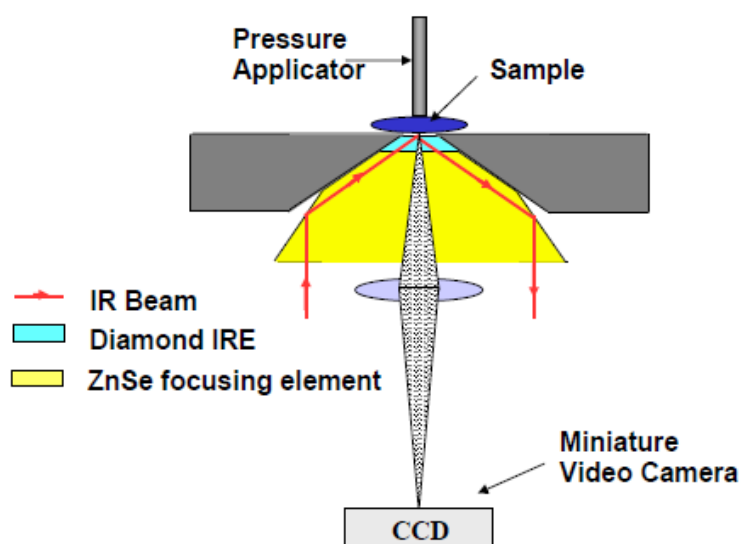


Figure 22. Schematic of FT-IR ATR Durascope™ instrumentation demonstrating sample orientation and contact with the IRE (Courtesy: John A. Reffner, Ph.D.).

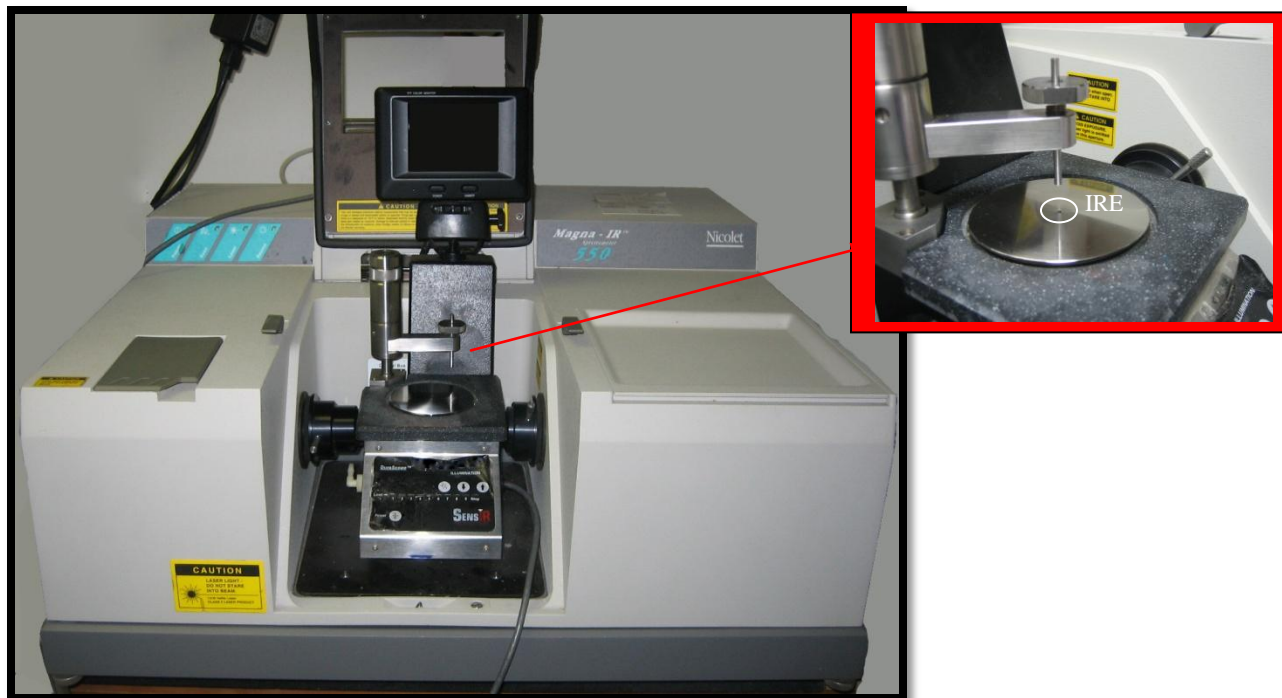


Figure 23. A Nicolet Magna IR 550 FT infrared spectrometer with a Durascope™ attachment for ATR. The insert shows the sample stage in order to provide a closer view of the internal reflection element (IRE) [Thomas A. Kubic and Associates, TAKA].

In order to routinely identify a compound and determine the molecular structure using infrared or Raman spectrometry, correlation charts are used to identify the functional groups in a molecule based upon the observed vibrational bands. After determination of the functional groups based upon the band locations, reference libraries and computer-based searches can be used to aid in the compound identification. For structural determination, calculations can be conducted to provide information about the expected infrared active modes wherein predictions are made about the structure and symmetry of a molecule. These calculations are based upon molecular symmetry and group theory considerations. By coupling infrared data with Raman spectrometry, interpretations for qualitative identification can be done with high confidence. A table of common Raman bands can be found in Appendix A. In addition, a comprehensive infrared Correlation Chart can be found in Appendix B.

Molecular Symmetry and Group Theory

Raman scattered radiation corresponds to vibrational energy levels, which are also characteristic of infrared spectroscopy. As previously stated, in order for Raman scattering to occur, there must be a change in polarizability (distortion of bond electrons) during the vibration resulting from the interaction of the incident field with the molecule. In contrast, infrared absorption requires a change in the dipole moment (overall charge distribution of the molecule) during the vibration resulting from the interaction of the incident field with the molecule. These concepts are described as the basic selection rules and are the basis for understanding resultant spectra based on molecular symmetry and group theory. Selection rules are rules for determining which transitions are allowed and which are forbidden. Raman and infrared are often described as complimentary techniques, on the basis that the vibrations that cause the largest changes in a molecule's polarizability are the symmetric vibrations, while the vibrations that cause the largest change in a molecule's dipole moment are the asymmetric stretches.

Molecules can undergo a variety of motions, including movement of the entire molecule in space (translational motion), rotational motion of the entire molecule, and movement of atoms in the molecule relative to other atoms in the molecule (individual vibrations). The transitions between the various energy levels (Figure 24) will be affected by the incident radiation that impinges on the sample resulting in molecular motions that affect the electronic cloud distribution about the molecule. It is these changes that generate a change in polarizability (Raman) and/or dipole moment (infrared) of the molecule.

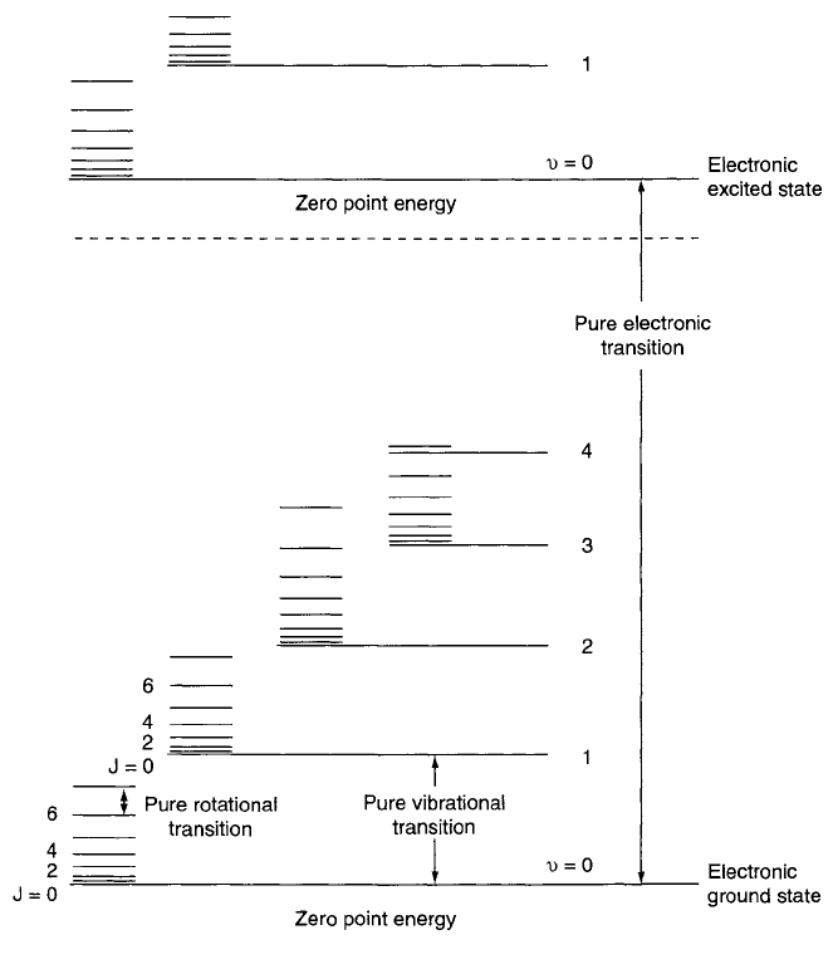


Figure 24. Energy levels of a diatomic molecule, including the relationships between the electronic, vibrational and rotational states. The space between electronic levels is actually much larger, which the space between rotational levels is substantially smaller (Ferraro, Nakamoto and Brown, 2003, pp. 7).

Motions that can potentially give way to either a change in polarizability or a dipole moment can include stretching, bending (scissoring), rocking, wagging, twisting or ring breathing. These normal modes are described as the overall vibrations of the atoms in a molecule and are broken into two classes, stretching vibrations which result in a change in bond length and bending vibrations, which result in a change in bond angle (Figure 25).

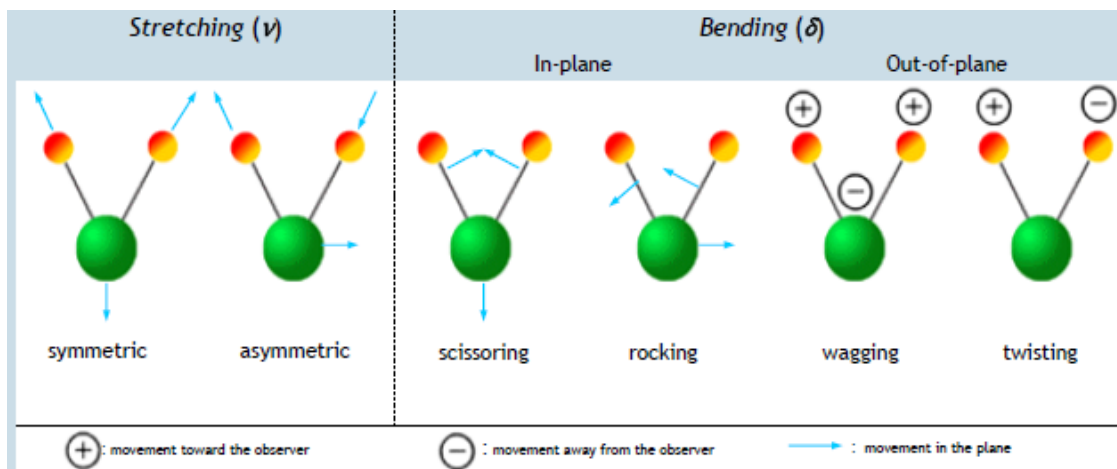


Figure 25. Molecular motions that can result in changes to either a molecule's dipole moment or polarizability. Some motions may not produce a change in dipole moment, but may produce a change in a molecule's polarizability and vice versa (Courtesy: Patrick Buzzini, Ph.D.).

For a harmonic oscillator, only the transitions involving $\Delta v = \pm 1$ are allowed. In anharmonic systems, transitions involving $\Delta v = \pm 2, \pm 3 \dots$ are allowed by the selection rules. These energy level transitions are often weak and classified as overtones. The fundamental transition from $v = 0 \leftrightarrow 1$ appears strongly in both Raman and infrared spectra. A potential energy curve for a diatomic molecule demonstrating the energy levels is provided in Figure 26. A harmonic system follows a quadratic equation whereas an anharmonic system moves away from the quadratic equation format, which causes a decline in linearity between the energy and intranuclear distance.

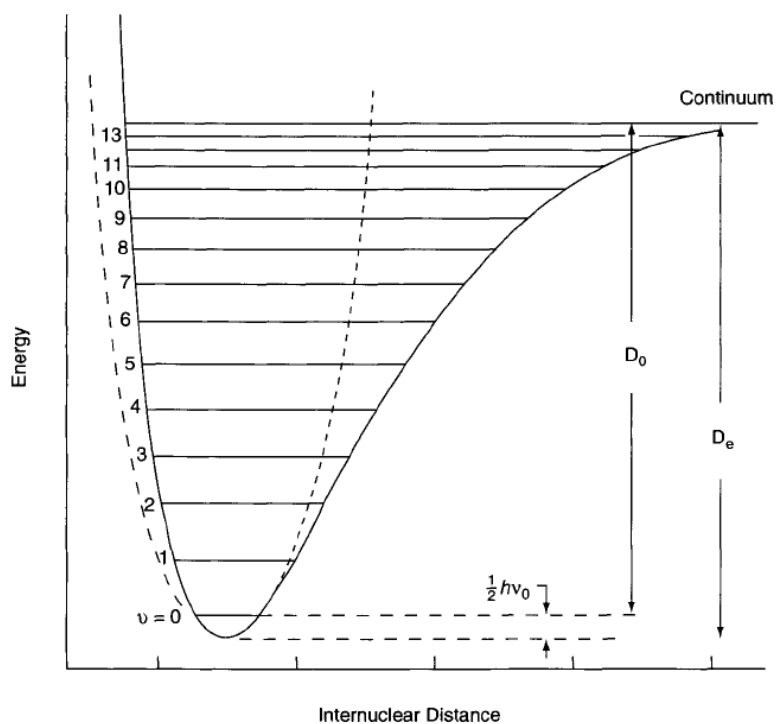


Figure 26. Potential energy curve for a diatomic molecule, where the solid line depicts an approximate potential (Morse potential) and the dashed line is the potential for a harmonic oscillator (Ferraro, Nakamoto and Brown, 2003, pp. 12).

The number of normal modes within a molecule is dictated by the number of atoms in the molecule and is represented as the net vibrational degrees of freedom, or $3N-6$ for nonlinear molecules and $3N-5$ for linear molecules, where the 3 comes from the three directions in which an atom can move (x, y and z), the 6 represents the six degrees of freedom originating from translational motions of the whole molecule about the three principle axes of rotation, which go through the center of gravity (Ferraro, Nakamoto and Brown, 2003, pp. 20), and the lack of rotation about the molecular axis results in the $3N-5$ equation. All of these movements taken together will produce unique infrared absorption and Raman spectra, since each vibration has its own characteristic frequency. Because the various changes in dipole moment occur within the molecule upon this interaction, absorption of a number of quantized frequencies will occur, and

an absorption band should appear for each vibration or rotation in which there is a change in the dipole moment.

The infrared spectrum of a polyatomic molecule can be quite complex due to the possible vibrational transitions (sometimes described as fundamental transitions). In addition, several factors exist that could affect the amount or characteristics of absorption bands (sometimes referred to as non-fundamental transitions). Factors that can affect the resultant infrared spectrum can include degeneracy, weak absorptions, unresolved or undetected peaks, vibrational coupling, the presence of overtones, combination bands and difference bands. These factors, coupled with the combinations of vibrational transitions in a given molecule, are what make the infrared spectrum for a molecule unique and allow for qualitative identification of a material. Additional factors can lend themselves to affecting the infrared spectrum, including a change in a molecule's bond strength and length (which can be brought about by changing an atom in the molecule), its mass or polarity. Raman spectra are similar to infrared spectra in that they provide specific bands that can be used to identify a molecular species, but are less complex since Raman spectra do not display overtones or combination bands.

Group theory enables the determination of the symmetry elements of a molecule in order to assign the molecule to a finite number of groups (while there are an infinite number of combinations, only a small fraction of combinations are relevant to molecules). By determining the symmetry elements in a molecule, it is possible to identify the vibrational and rotational modes in order to predict the resultant infrared and Raman spectra. In order to assign a molecule to a group, it is necessary to identify the symmetry elements of the molecule and, using character tables, assign the molecule to a point group. A flowchart used to assign a point group to a

molecular species is provided in Figure 27. Character tables have been generated for each point group; after determining the point group with the aid of the flowchart, referring to the point group's character table will provide information about the symmetry operations and irreducible representations that characterize that particular point group. Symmetry elements describe identity operations (which leave the molecule unchanged), reflections through mirror planes, rotations about defined axes and inversions through defined points, and some combinations of these operations. A sample character table with the major components labeled is provided in Figure 28. The complete series of the Character Tables can be found in Appendix C.

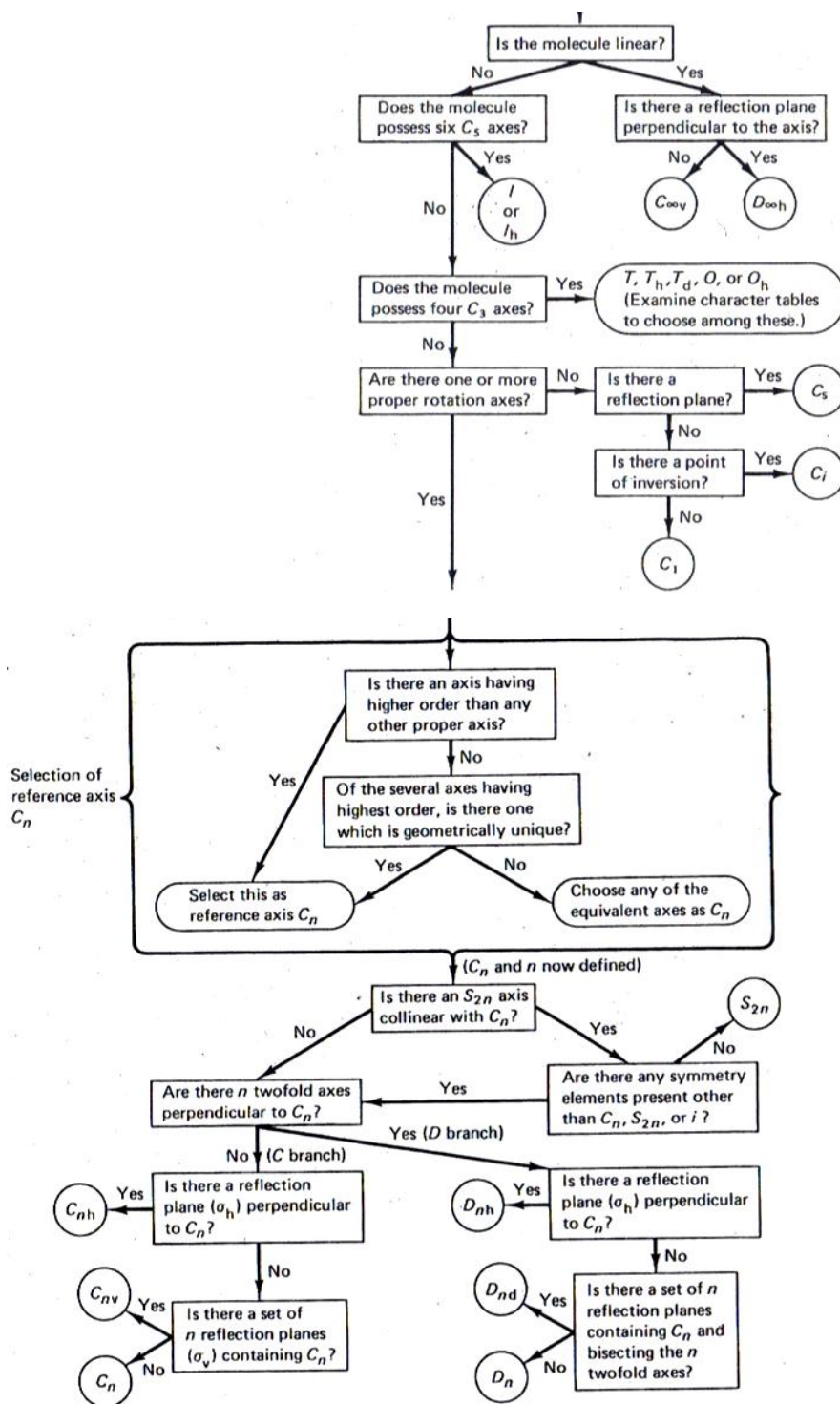


Figure 27. Flow chart outlining the procedure for determining the point group of a molecule based upon its observed symmetry elements (Adapted from Cotton, 1964). The point groups are located within the circles.

Symmetry Operations
order= total # of operations

Point Group	Symmetry Operations				Symmetry Functions	
	Identity Element	Proper Rotation	Planes of Symmetry		T, Dipole moment (IR active)	α , Polarizability (Raman active)
C_{2v}	E	$C_2(z)$	$\sigma_v(xz)$	$\sigma_v(yz)$	T_z	$\alpha_{xx}, \alpha_{yy}, \alpha_{zz}$
A_1	+1	+1	+1	+1	T_z	$\alpha_{xx}, \alpha_{yy}, \alpha_{zz}$
A_2	+1	+1	-1	-1	R_z	α_{xy}
B_1	+1	-1	+1	-1	T_x, R_y	α_{xz}
B_2	+1	-1	-1	+1	T_y, R_x	α_{yz}

Characters

Anti-Symmetric Symmetric

"A₁, B₁ and B₂ are IR active"
"A₁, A₂, B₁ and B₂ are Raman active"

Irreducible Representations
A₁- Totally Symmetric
A₂, B₁, B₂- Non-Totally Symmetric

Figure 28. Character table for the C_{2v} point group with labels describing regions of the table.

Once structural information and knowledge of a molecule's vibrational excitations are elucidated, symmetry selection rules can be applied to determine which transitions will actually be observed in the molecule. Using group theory, symmetry properties of the molecular states and the infrared and Raman selection rules, it is possible to determine whether a transition is forbidden or not in either infrared or Raman spectroscopy (in other words, which vibrational modes will be active). The irreducible representations include the genuine normal vibrations and non genuine motions of pure molecular rotations and translations. By calculating the totally symmetric vibrational irreducible representation, the vector components of the dipole moment, and the irreducible representation of the vibrational mode, it is possible to determine whether or not the fundamental transition is active or inactive with respect to Raman and IR.

For determining infrared and Raman activity, it is necessary to consider vibrational transitions that result from a change in polarizability (a non vanishing transition moment). In

order to do this, the reducible representations are determined using the character table of the molecule of interest. This step describes how bonds are affected by the symmetry elements in a point group and can be done by assigning x, y and z Cartesian coordinates to each atom in the molecular species, which represent the directions of motions of each atom. By evaluating each plane relative to the symmetry operation, it is possible to determine the total reducible representations of the molecule. From the total reducible representation value, one can determine the vibrational reducible representation (Γ_{vib}) using the following equations:

$$\Gamma_{\text{total}} = \Gamma_{\text{vib}} + \Gamma_{\text{trans}} + \Gamma_{\text{rot}}$$

$$\Gamma_{\text{trans}} = A_1 + B_1 + B_2$$

$$\Gamma_{\text{rot}} = A_2 + B_1 + B_2$$

where Γ_{trans} and Γ_{rot} are calculated using the character table for the molecular species of interest and Γ_{total} is calculated using the equation described above.

To calculate the irreducible representations for all of the normal vibrations (Γ_{vib}), the following equations are used:

$$\Gamma_{\text{vib}} = a_1\Gamma A_1 + a_2\Gamma A_2 + b_1\Gamma B_1 + b_2\Gamma B_2$$

$$a_1 = \frac{1}{4}(\Gamma_{\text{vib}} \cdot \Gamma A_1)$$

$$a_2 = \frac{1}{4}(\Gamma_{\text{vib}} \cdot \Gamma A_2)$$

$$b_1 = \frac{1}{4}(\Gamma_{\text{vib}} \cdot \Gamma B_1)$$

$$b_2 = \frac{1}{4}(\Gamma_{\text{vib}} \cdot \Gamma B_2)$$

In some molecules, a symmetric mode may produce no change in the dipole moment as two atoms move away from a central atom (or central portion of the molecule), but may cause a change in the polarizability with the movement. This would render the molecule's symmetric mode infrared inactive and Raman active. In the anti-symmetric mode, the two atoms around the

central atom may move in a manner to produce an uneven distribution of charge, causing a change in the dipole moment but no net change in the polarizability, rendering the anti-symmetric mode infrared active and Raman inactive.

More often, an individual will evaluate the bands in a spectrum based upon their location (frequency, cm^{-1}) and band shape in order to determine the functional groups in a unknown sample in an effort determine a sample's composition. Conversely, it is also possible to evaluate a known sample's molecular make-up and chemical structure in order to determine how the spectrum should appear based upon the behavior of the functional groups comprising the sample and their interaction with the incident radiation (and how these interactions may affect the molecule's rotational and vibrational states). In predicting the transitions that will occur (according to the different electronic and vibrational states diagrammed in an energy level diagram), it is also necessary to consider which transitions are allowed and which are forbidden according to the laws of quantum mechanics. By correlating the predicted transitions to the resultant spectra, is it possible to determine which transitions are forbidden (based upon their marked absence from the resultant spectrum).

In vibrational spectroscopic techniques (both Raman and infrared), there are transitions between vibrational states of a molecule, in either the electronic ground or excited states (refer to the energy level diagram in figure 10). Each vibrational state can be characterized in terms of a vibrational wave function (ψ) and can be described by quantum numbers (which refer to the absorbed quanta in the molecule's normal modes). In addition to the ground state transformation (the totally symmetric irreducible representation), there are electronic state transformations for the excited states above ground (fundamental vibrational levels, combination levels and overtone levels). Those transitions which connect ground and fundamental levels are called fundamental

transitions. It is these transitions that give rise to infrared and Raman bands and are more intense than other transitions. In addition to the molecular vibrations, infrared radiation will also excite molecular rotations (if the molecule is free to rotate). It is the combination, overtone and rotational bands that make infrared spectra more complicated when compared with Raman spectra.

Using the equation derived from their research concerning surface enhanced Raman scattering, Lombardi and Burke describe the Hertzberg-Teller selection rules governing SERS intensities in order to determine allowable transitions and in what contribution they will have to the overall spectrum. The authors note that the relative intensities of the SERS bands of a given symmetry will be proportional to the relative oscillator strengths of the observed optical transitions (2008, pp. 5608). This, along with other contributing factors, can allow for the prediction of relative band intensities in SERS spectra. By being aware of the selection rules and contributing electrochemical factors of both normal Raman spectra, SERS spectra and SERRS spectra, one is able to account for spectral differences when interpreting and comparing spectra of the same material generated using different Raman techniques. In other words, resonance effects and orientation effects may result in variation of band intensities and overall relative band intensities, causing a difference in the SERS spectrum and the normal Raman spectrum of the same molecular species. In addition, bands may be subjected to frequency shifts and broadening due to the different techniques employed (normal Raman, FT Raman or surface enhanced Raman), laser excitation wavelength and intensity, and matrix effects. Careful consideration of selection rules and resonance effects are crucial to interpreting these spectra, as failure to do so may result in false positives or false negatives with respect to identifications.

As a result of atomic composition, bonding and selection rules, functional groups will vary in their strength or weakness as a Raman scatterer or infrared radiation absorber. For example, water (H_2O) is a weak Raman scatterer due to the polar, weak vibrations exhibited in the O-H stretching, but because the water molecule exhibits a dipole moment, water is easily detectable in infrared spectra. Furthermore, when observing an infrared spectrum of water, the asymmetric and symmetric stretches of water can be observed in the region of $3000\text{-}3500\text{cm}^{-1}$ and the scissoring can be observed in the region of approximately 1600cm^{-1} . Highly polarized N-H stretches are also weak in Raman, while backbone C-C stretches can be readily resolved in Raman spectra. The C-N stretch (commonly found in dyes and pigments) can be resolved in both infrared and Raman spectra.

Density Functional Theory

Density functional theory calculations are an excellent way to observe the behavior of a molecule with regard to its normal modes and to correlate these normal modes to peaks in vibrational spectra. Several factors should be considered when employing computational methods to derive vibrational spectra, as there can and will be differences between actual and calculated spectra with regard to peak shifts (frequency changes), peak heights (relative intensities) and peak areas. Of primary concern is that the output is dependent upon the input, meaning that, in addition to setting the functional and basis set, the user can control such factors as the matrix, the amount of molecules in the system, and the actual point group of the molecule (for example- one pigment molecule in vacuum set at the default point group of C1). Koch and Holthausen note that the selection of the functional and basis set to describe the chemical system requires the software to make “a best approximation of the exact wave function that can be obtained for a particular subset... By restricting the search to a subset, the exact wave function itself cannot be identified (ground state wave function)...” (2001, pp. 8). In “real world” cases, experimental examination will be based upon a system that is a mixture, impure or in a solution. It should also be remembered that the Gaussian software is making a harmonic calculation of an anharmonic system (refer to figure 26). It should also be noted that three dimensional structures may exhibit intramolecular hydrogen bonding within the molecule. By analyzing many similar molecules in a matrix, inter and intra molecular bonds are always a possibility, which could result in changes in vibrational intensities. In the absence of data generated from techniques like single crystal x-ray diffraction, the actual molecular structure and orientation (for example, planarity, bond angles, *etc.*) cannot be known and thus assumptions must be made by the analyst and software regarding the molecular structure. By coupling the pigment data with x-ray

diffraction data, such as that described by Hunger (1999), it may be possible to accurately reconstruct the molecular structure to eliminate a subjective variable from the DFT calculations.

Density function theory calculations have been used in the analysis of organic pigments in art conservation and cultural heritage studies, and have recently been applied in forensic applications, specifically with the analysis of controlled substances. It is important to note that DFT calculations are a useful tool for correlating experimental and calculated data and should not be used as a substitute for going into the lab and examining the sample to obtain a true spectrum.

Density functional theory (DFT) is used for the computation of molecular structure and vibrational frequencies. Density functional theory can help answer questions such as: *Does a peak correspond to a normal mode of vibration in a molecule? Does a particular band have a corresponding vibration and intensity?* Computational chemistry couples theoretical chemistry computer programs in order to accurately and more efficiently calculate the structures and properties of molecular species. DFT can be used to solve the Schrodinger's equation, $H\Psi = E\Psi$, which can be rewritten as:

$$\hat{H}|\phi\rangle = E|\phi\rangle$$

where H is the Hamiltonian (or functional used to define M nuclei and N electrons), E is the energy and ϕ is the basis set, or set of functions that describe the chemical system. The right side of the equation represents the properties of a system as defined by the left side of the equation. By providing the values on the left side of the equation and setting parameters to define the molecule and its structure, the computational software is able to calculate the properties of the

molecular system, which includes vibrational frequencies and dipoles which thereby give rise to Raman and infrared spectra.

Specifically, the basis set uses atomic functions to express molecular orbitals as linear combinations of atomic orbitals and is used to describe the electron density of a chemical system. Selection of a basis set is often done in an effort to constrain the spin orbitals to the lowest energy (done largely in an effort to maximize output and minimize computational time). In the DFT software, the basis set notation is specific for a set of functions used to classify the orbitals in a system. DFT calculation software assumes harmonic frequencies, in which the change in dipole moment is linearly proportional to the nuclear displacement of the atoms in the system. In addition to selecting the functional and the basis set, the software allows for controlling several parameters such as the environment in which the molecule is calculated (*i.e.* vacuum) and the symmetry of the molecule.

Each functional is designed to accurately calculate the specific property to which it is tailored. For example, B3LYP is the functional for calculating vibrational frequencies. The B3 notation indicates the Becke 3-parameter exchange and the LYP notation indicates the Lee-Yang-Parr correlation.

The basis set is a set of functions that describe the chemical system; the basis set functions are designed to describe the electron density of a chemical system. The basis set defines the parameters of the Hartree-Fock calculation and is a set of atomic functions used to express molecular orbitals as linear combinations of atomic orbitals. The Hartree-Fock calculation approximates the wave function using the Slater determinant (the relationship between energy and spin orbitals), which constrains the spin orbitals in order to yield the lowest

energy of the molecule. An example of a basis set notation is 6-311G, which is a split valence basis set characterized by the general format N-MPG. The split valence basis set describes the inner shell electrons by a single Slater orbital and the valence shell electrons by a sum of Slater orbitals. The Slater orbitals are then expressed as Gaussian functions. The split valence basis set is designed to limit functions to valence orbitals and minimize chemically inert inner orbitals. Generally speaking, the use of the split valence basis set can be employed in Gaussian calculations to provide a compromise between efficiency and accuracy, meaning the results are reasonable and can be obtained in a reasonable period of calculation time. The general notation, N-MPG outlines the number of Gaussian functions used to describe the inner shell electrons. A breakdown of the notation follows:

N: number of Gaussian functions used to describe the inner shell orbitals

-: indicates split valence basis set

M: number of Gaussian functions used to express the smaller Slater orbital

P: number of Gaussian functions used to express the larger Slater orbital

G: indicates Gaussian functions

The notation may get more complex depending on the parameters that define the system, such as 6-311++G (d,p), which incorporates diffuse functions (++) and polarization functions (d,p).

Density functional theory calculations have been used in the analysis of organic pigments in art conservation and cultural heritage studies, and have recently been applied in forensic applications, specifically with the analysis of controlled substances.

Instrument Calibration, Method Development & Standard Practices

Current trends in the forensic field have been evolving towards increasing the use of and developing unified laboratory standards of analysis. A comprehensive publication addressing the current status of forensic science was recently published by the National Academy of Science (2009). Entitled *Strengthening Forensic Science in the United States: A Path Forward*, the panel of authors address the accreditation process and standards and guidelines for quality control within the forensic science community. In recent years, accreditation of forensic laboratories has begun shifting from meeting the standards set forth by the American Society of Crime Lab Directors/Laboratory Accreditation Board (ASCLD/LAB) to those established under the International Organization of Standardization (ISO) ISO/IEC 17025 guideline, which outlines the requirements for the competence of a laboratory to carry out testing and calibrations using standard methods, non-standard methods and laboratory-developed methods. Major aspects of any accreditation program are validating and documenting both administrative and technical procedures, developing and maintaining calibration procedures and using appropriate controls and standards.

Any instrumentation to be employed in an accredited forensic laboratory must undergo qualification and calibration, which is a documented process usually done upon instrument installation. In addition, the instrumentation must undergo routine performance monitoring to ensure that the instrument is maintaining a standard level of operation. The establishment of an instrument's acceptable performance is usually referred to as the instrument qualification.

Most forensic laboratories will define how frequently the instrument should be calibrated and what the accepted limits are to declare the instrument suitable for casework. The calibration serves as a check of wavelength accuracy and is usually done with a standard that has known,

reported peak assignments. The standard selected for instrument calibrations and subsequent function checks is selected based on its ability to provide reproducible results regardless of external conditions such as environment, instrument manufacturer, *etc.* For example, a polystyrene standard is employed in order to evaluate the wavelength accuracy of a Fourier-transform infrared spectrometer. Polystyrene has well established, reproducible peaks across the range of the infrared region, making it a suitable calibration standard for routine wavelength calibrations. These polystyrene peak values obtained from a laboratory's FT-IR spectrometer can be compared to known values that have been established in the literature and be recorded and retained. The laboratory will often define an acceptable deviation range for each peak or a number of 'major' peaks. Several other measures may be used to ensure good performance the FT-IR spectrometer before use, such as aligning the instrument optics, conducting a battery of tests to evaluate the robustness of the instrument by examining and evaluating the background and interferogram, and using the polystyrene for absorbance and resolution tests. These methods may be called the 'function check' and are often done prior to use of the instrument. By running a standard, a laboratory is able to evaluate instrument performance on a daily basis and determine whether or not there are problems with the instrument hardware, settings, alignment or software settings.

Several documents have been published and several standards have been developed concerning the calibration of Raman instrumentation, including standard guides and practices released by the American Society for Testing and Materials (ASTM) and standards developed by the National Institute of Standards and Technology (NIST). According to McCreery, there are a variety of standards that can be used to calibrate and evaluate the performance of different features of the Raman instrumentation (2000, pp. 251).

The *Standard Practice for Testing the Performance of Scanning Raman Spectrometers* (ASTM Designation E 1683-02) outlines a methodology for evaluating and testing a Raman spectrometer by describing the instrument components and what affects these components may have on overall instrument performance. The standard also outlines guidelines for obtaining and reporting Raman spectra and provides a short list of materials that can be used to evaluate instrument performance, including carbon tetrachloride and cyclohexane.

The *Standard Guide for Raman Shift Standards for Spectrometer Calibration* (ASTM Designation E 1840-96) lists Raman shift values for eight materials (both liquids and solids) that can be used for wavenumber calibration checks of Raman spectrometers. The standard materials include cyclohexane, polystyrene, sulfur, 4-acetamidophenol (the active ingredient in analgesics like Tylenol®) and 50/50 (v/v) toluene/acetonitrile mixture. The spectra reported in the literature were generated with a SPEX 1403 scanning double monochromator with a 12000 lines/mm grating, a photomultiplier tube (PMT) detector and an excitation source of 514.5nm. The *Standard Guide for Testing the Resolution of a Raman Spectrometer* (ASTM Designation E 2529-06) is concerned with using low pressure arc lamp emission lines (such as xenon, argon, krypton or neon; where neon was referenced in the document but was not evaluated) or calcite to assess the spectral resolution of Raman spectrometers.

The use of a neon lamp for the calibration of Raman instruments is well-established and literature providing a table of the neon lamp lines that can be found quite readily (for example, the article by Kim, *et. al.*, 1986). McCreery notes that examination of the full width at half max (FWHM) of an emission line from a neon bulb provides a good indication of instrumental linewidth (2002). The Bruker Optics dispersive Raman microscope (Senterra) employs a patented SureCal internal calibration system using a neon source. SureCal is an automatic

calibration of the spectrometer without external standards that calibrates both frequency and intensity values by using an internal neon line source, measuring and applying instrumentation correction to produce a standard spectrum (Allen, *et. al.*, 2000). The authors describe the apparatus as a fully automated system providing standard reference data capable of achieving superior precision and accuracy. The calibration system is designed to be independent of instrument components and effects and to eliminate instrument variability as having an effect on a Raman spectrum. The apparatus incorporates a frequency calibration standard which is known and stable, and can be used to monitor Raman beams and account for any instrument fluctuations, thereby resulting in high resolution Raman spectra.

A validation process known as qualification is used to confirm that the instrumentation employed for routine testing is suitable for intended use. This validation is done by running a set of experiments with a set of standards in order to establish the reliability of the instrument and the specific method that is to be used in routine casework. The accredited laboratory will establish a procedure for qualification of their instrument followed by establishing any methods that are to be used with the instrument. Instrument qualification is a portion of the validation process that verifies that the instrument itself meets required specifications as described by the manufacturer or client. Typically, the qualification of the instrument is conducted upon installation of the instrument; the manufacturing company technician will install and set-up the instrument and then run a series of tests to ensure that the instrument has been installed properly and meets the required factory specifications. The series of tests will be conducted in order to ensure that the accuracy, precision and performance characteristics are optimized as per manufacturer's specifications. After testing and calibrating the instrument, the instrument is considered qualified and the laboratory can proceed to method development for setting standard

operating procedures and quality assurance measures. Routine preventative maintenance by the manufacturer and any instrument service are usually stored in a file in order to monitor and support the instrument qualification status. Retention of these records is critical to accreditation and may be critical in legal proceedings, both civil and criminal.

Upon instrument installation, the instrument service technician will conduct one or more service tests to ensure that the instrument has been installed properly and is performing according to its specifications. The technician will often provide the laboratory with documents outlining the tests performed and any relevant results. These documents should be retained by the lab, and may often be useful in assisting the analysts with setting up quality assurance procedures to monitor instrument performance. For example, a series of tests were conducted by the technician upon installation of the Bruker Senterra Raman instrument. The documentation outlines the procedures used by the technician and demonstrates that the instrument was set-up according to its factory specifications. The series of tests includes a background test, a beam focusing alignment test (using a silicon wafer), a frequency accuracy test (using acetaminophen, a main ingredient in Tylenol®), a spectral resolution test (using a Neon lamp), a spectral cut-off test (using NIST glass or other fluorescent material), a throughput test (using polystyrene) and a confocal Raman test (using a silicon wafer). Additional information regarding the OPUS validation program for Raman spectrometers is provided in the OPUS Software Users Manual and the OPUS Reference Manual, provided by Bruker. The latter provides a detailed procedure for performance and operational qualifications of their instrument.

This current research included the use of sulfur, cyclohexane, 4-acetamidophenol, polystyrene, silicon and a 50/50 mixture of acetonitrile/toluene as standards for evaluating and monitoring instrument performance. Elemental sulfur is a strong Raman scatterer that has

several low-frequency Raman bands that enable the ability to observe low Raman shifts. Cyclohexane and 4-acetamidophenol are also strong Raman scatterers which have a wide frequency range that makes them useful as a standard for spectral resolution. Silicon provides a large, sharp peak at around 520cm^{-1} , which can make it a useful, rapid check of wavelength accuracy.

The peak shift values obtained were checked against several sources, including ASTM Designation E 1840-96 and the McCreery text (standard spectra can also be found online at the McCreery Group website: <http://www.chem.ualberta.ca/~mccreery/ramanmaterials.html>). A series of reference spectra for calibration and function check standards can be found in Appendix H.

Previous Studies Concerning the Analysis of Tattoo Inks

In 1984, Slater and Durrant conducted x-ray microanalysis on the tattoos of seventeen (17) patients in conjunction with light and transmission electron microscopy (TEM) examinations. The results of their study (tattoo color and corresponding elemental composition) are reported below in Table 2. Sowden *et.al.* examined histological sections of red tattoos in eighteen (18) patients and determined the chemical composition of the pigments using x-ray microanalysis (1991, pp. 578). The elements reported included iron, sulfur, titanium, phosphorous, aluminum, silicon, calcium, mercury and cadmium.

Colour	Metals
Red	Al, Cl
Blue/Green	Cu/Ti
Yellow	Fe
Brown	Fe
Red	ND
Red	Hg, Cl
Blue/Red	Cr/Hg
Yellow	Cd, Pb, P
Purple	Mn
Blue	Co
Red	Hg
Blue/Red	Cr/Hg
Yellow	ND
Green/Blue	Ti/Cu
Red	Hg
Green	Cr
Red/Green	Hg/Ti

Table 2. Results of study conducted by Slater and Durrant using x-ray microanalysis on tattoos. (Note: ND= no elements detected) (1984, pp. 168). There are several reasons why a ND result may be reported, such as the detection limits of the instrument, the window material used or physical characteristics of the sample.

In 2000, Bäumlér, *et. al.* analyzed forty-one (41) tattoo pigments (blues, greens, yellows, oranges, reds, violets) using visible absorption spectroscopy, FT-IR spectroscopy, x-ray diffraction (XRD), mass spectrometry (MS) and transmission electron microscopy (TEM). The

samples were taken from a variety of wholesalers from the US, the UK, the Netherlands and Germany. The authors identified the following pigments in the tattoo inks (pp. 16-17):

Reds: Pigment Reds 112 and 170, Pigment Red 5 (Carmine), Pigment Reds 9 and 22 (yellowish red), Pigment Red 122 (bluish red)

Orange: Pigment Orange 13 (yellowish orange)

Yellows: Pigment Yellow 14, Pigment Yellows 55, 83 and 87 (reddish yellow), Pigment Yellow 74 (greenish yellow)

Green: Pigment Green 7 (bluish green)

Blue: Pigment Blue 15

Violet: Pigment Violet 23 (bluish violet)

A table of the pigments with their corresponding chemical structures is provided in Table 3:

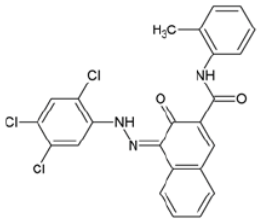
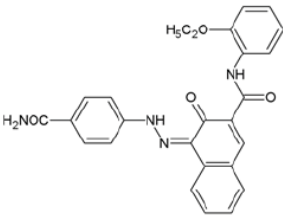
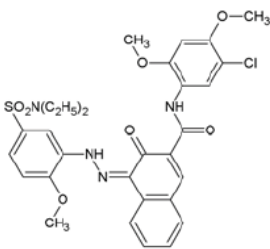
Pigments	Chemical Structure
Pigment Red 112	
Pigment Red 170	
Pigment Red 5	

Table 3, continued

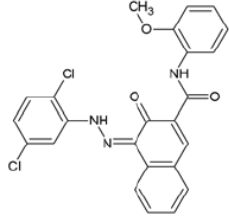
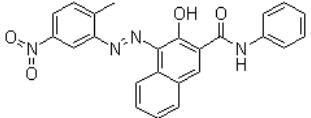
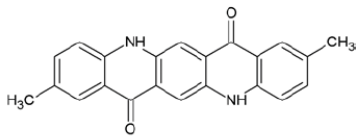
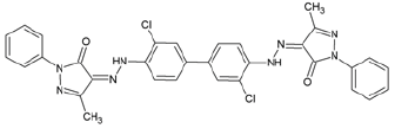
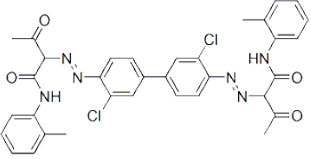
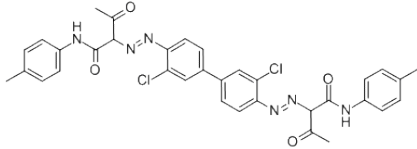
Pigment Red 9	
Pigment Red 22	
Pigment Red 122	
Pigment Orange 13	
Pigment Yellow 14	
Pigment Yellow 55	

Table 3, continued

Pigment Yellow 83	
Pigment Yellow 87	<p style="text-align: center;">Disazodiarylidene 1a - 1d OCH^3H OCH^3 OCH^3H OCH^3</p>
Pigment Yellow 74	
Pigment Green 7	
Pigment Blue 15	
Pigment Violet 23	

Table 3. Pigments identified in Bäumler, *et. al.* 2000 study of tattoo inks.

Timko, *et.al.* (2001) analyzed twenty-nine (29) tattoo inks (Huck Spaulding Enterprises, Inc., USA) and India ink using SEM/EDS (for all atomic numbers greater than 11) and compared

the resultant data to that reported on manufacturer MSDS sheets. The authors report, “The technique (quantitative electron x-ray microanalysis by EDS) reliably identifies all elements with the exception of those with $z < 11$...including H, He, Li, Be, B, C, N, O, F, Ne...H, He and Li are not recognized by EDS”...and ... “quantifying these elements by EDS remains problematic.” Timko, *et. al.* further note that they used a “standardless technique” (Timko, 2001). The authors then conclude that 73% of samples contain oxygen, 67% contain carbon, 87% contain aluminum and 67% contain titanium. Although they note the lower atomic numbers cannot be detected and that quantitative determinations are problematic, the authors report the results of x-ray diffraction on the samples in the following table:

Color	Element†										
	Titanium (22)	Aluminum (13)	Silica (14)	Copper (29)	Chromium (24)	Iron (26)	Chlorine (17)	Sulfur (16)	Carbon (6)	Oxygen (8)	Magnesium (12)
Black	...	0.25	85.95	...	0.29	...	13.51	...
White	98.55	1.45
Fire red	...	26.21	9.68	10.76	23.29	30.06	...
Flesh No.1 (tan)	74.27	1.75	23.98
Indian brown	41.98	0.76	57.26
Crimson red	17.2	49.36	22.25	11.19
Devil's red	27.65	2.6	0.53	51.67	17.55	...
Lotus (red)	40.17	3.2	17.71	38.92	...
Venetian brown	...	0.38	1.73	79.85	18.04	...
Florida orange	84.35	15.65	...
Lemon yellow	53.06	1.86	23.9	21.18	...
White	96.41	3.59
Black	87.98	12.02	...
Permanent green	...	0.89	...	13.32	51.55	...	34.24
Emerald green	5.45	0.49	72.66	...	4.15	17.25	...
Pine green	44.34	4.08	...	8.27	6.71	...	14.64	21.96	...
Parrot green	58.57	2.51	4.61	...	17.12	17.19	...
Sky blue	37.95	1.9	...	11.06	2.16	...	35.41	11.52	...
Blue green	...	1.14	...	14.46	52.24	...	32.16
Cerise (red)	51.51	2.18	15.34	9.81	21.16	...
Yukon white	94.98	5.02
Misty green	51.5	2.51	3.59	...	18.43	23.97	...
Misty blue	94.82	4.13	1.05
Tulip yellow	27.29	2.29	0.22	2.29	0.3	37.3	30.31	...
Peony (pink)	63.77	2.38	13.85	20	...
New blue	50.93	2.36	...	8.54	1.39	...	18.21	18.57	...
Blush (orange)	58.06	2.25	2.87	...	14.39	22.43	...
Wild violet	65.29	2.88	9.56	22.27	...
Tulip red	...	0.19	13.4	52.29	25.12	9
India ink	92.19	7.81	...

Table 4. Summary of results from Timko *et.al.*, 2001 demonstrating the percent elemental composition of tattoo pigments by x-ray diffraction.

In 2002, Lundsgaard presented the results of interviews with both ‘traditional’ tattooists and ‘cosmetic’ tattooists in addition to communication with pigment suppliers/manufacturers in

an effort to identify the pigments used in tattoo inks found on the Danish market. The author was able to identify a total of seventeen (17) pigments used in traditional (“general”) tattooing and eleven (11) pigments used in cosmetic tattooing (pp. 7). No chemical or instrumental tests were conducted to confirm the reports of the tattoo artists and suppliers/manufacturers. The following table summarizes Lundsgaard’s findings (pp. 15-16):

Pigments Used in General Tattoo Colors	Pigments Used in Cosmetic Tattoo Colors
Pigment Orange 36	Pigment White 6 (Titanium Dioxide)
Pigment Yellow 74	Pigment Brown 6 (Iron Oxide)
Pigment Red 170	Pigment Red 101 (Iron [III] Oxide)
Pigment Yellow 97	Jernoxid (Iron [II] Oxide)
Pigment Red 146	Pigment Yellow 42 (Ironhydroxidoxide)
Pigment Brown 25	Sudan Red
Pigment Red 266	Food Yellow 13
Pigment Violet 23	Mangan Violet
Pigment Red 122	Food Red 1
Pigment Yellow 1	Food Blue 2
Pigment Orange 43	Acid Red 87
Pigment Green 7	
Pigment White 6 (Titanium Dioxide)	
Pigment Red 101	
Pigment Blue 15	
Pigment Blue 15:3	
Pigment Black 7 (Carbon Black)	

Table 5. Resultant data from interview-based study conducted by Lundsgaard (2002)

Baeumler *et.al.* presented “Chemicals used in tattooing and permanent make up products” at a European Commission Workshop in 2003, which focused on the scientific analysis and regulation of tattoo and piercing practices. According to their report, the data obtained concerning pigments was obtained from the Council of Europe Committee of Experts on Cosmetics who have direct contact with “market players” in addition to some scientific articles and the presenter’s own contact with “market players” (pp. 22-23). Baeumler *et. al.* (2003) cite the following chemicals based on these various sources

- From a 1994 study (pp. 23):

Colour	Pigments Used in Cosmetic Tattoo Colors
Blue	Cobalt blue (<i>cobaltous aluminate</i>) and indigo
Green	Trivalent chromic oxide, hydrated chromium sesquioxide
Red	Mercury sulphide (cinnabar)
Yellow	Cadmium sulphide, ochre (<i>ferric oxide</i>), curcuma yellow (curcumine)
Purple	Manganese (<i>non-identifiable manganese salt</i>)

Table 6. From Baeumler's 2003 presentation on accumulated data concerning pigments in tattoo inks.

- From a report on colorants in permanent makeup (Norway, Denmark and Finland) (pp. 24-25):

Pigment Reds: 22, 23, 7, 170, 210, 57:1, 57:2, 181 (Vat Red 1), 122, 101 and 102

Pigment Orange: 16

Pigment Yellows: 74, 87, 42 and 43

Pigment Greens: 7, 36, 17

Pigment Blues: 15, 29 (Ultramarine Blue), 27 (Prussian Blue)

Pigment Violet: 16 (Manganese Violet)

Pigment Browns: 25, 6 and 7

Pigment Blacks: 6 and 7 (Graphite), 11

Pigment White: 6

Acid Red 18, 87, 51

Acid Yellow 9, 23, 3

Acid Blue 9

Basic Violet 10

Solvent Red 1

Food Red 17

Natural Red: 22/23

- From a report on colorants in tattoo and permanent makeup studios (Germany, 2001) (pp. 25-26):

Pigment Reds: 22, 23, 170, 146, 49, 181 (Vat Red 1), 122, 15, 101 and 102

Pigment Oranges: 13, 34, 16, 43

Pigment Yellows: 1, 74, 83, 42 and 43

Pigment Greens: 7, 17

Pigment Blue: 15

Pigment Violets: 19, 23

Pigment Browns: 25, 6 and 7

Pigment Blacks: 6 and 7 (Graphite), 11


Pigment Whites: 6, 4

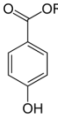
- From a report on colorants in inks used for traditional tattooing (Danish) (pp. 26-27):


Pigment Reds: 266, 170, 146, 101 and 102

Pigment Orange: 43
 Pigment Yellows: 1, 74, 97, 36
 Pigment Green: 7
 Pigment Blue: 15
 Pigment Violet: 19
 Pigment Browns: 25, 6 and 7
 Pigment Blacks: 6 and 7 (Graphite)
 Pigment White: 6

Baeumler *et.al.* (2003, pp. 29) also list auxiliary ingredients used in tattoo inks and permanent make up, including distilled water (dH₂O), ethanol (CH₃CH₂OH), isopropanol (CH₃CHOHCH₃), glycerol (OHCH₂CHOH CH₂OH), hydrochloric acid (HCl), sodium hydroxide

(NaOH), benzoic acid () , poloxamer 407 (HO[CH₂CH₂O]_x[C(CH₃)HCH₂O]_y[CH₂CH₂O]_zH, where x=98, y=67, z=98), rosa canina extract, aroma, barium sulfate (BaSO₄), aluminum hydroxide (Al[OH]₃), rosin, neodecanoic acid (C₁₀H₂₀O₂), butanamide, amorphous silica and kaolin (Al₂Si₂O₅[OH]₄), thickening powder, emulsifier (unspecified), resin (unspecified),

sodium hyalونات, methylparaben ( where R=CH₃), aqua rosae, dexpanthenol (C₉H₁₉NO₄),

urea (NH₂)₂CO, phenol(). The authors add that Listerine and vodka have been reported as being used as a means of thinning the tattoo ink prior to its use.

Beute *et.al.* (2008) measured the absorption spectra of twenty-eight (28) pigments and India ink, which were mixed in an agar medium prior to instrumental analysis. The samples used in their study were the same inks and pigments used from the earlier research of Timko *et.al.* (2001). The authors reported that black inks exhibited absorption over the entire spectrum with no true peak, white pigments increased in absorbance from 404nm to peak at 790nm, and flesh inks had no maximum absorption (pp. 510). The results are reported below (pp. 511):

Color	No.	Max Absorption (nm)	Spectrum	Lowest Absorption (nm)	Spectrum	Secondary Peak	Spectrum
Black	2	600-800	Orange, red and near IR				
India ink	1	600-800	Orange, red and near IR				
Browns	2	410-550	Violet, blue, green	730-740	Red		
Blue (misty, new blue)	2	590-770	Orange to red	460-490	Blue		
Blue green	1	656-808	Red and near IR	488	Blue, green	450	Blue, violet
Permanent green	1	570-800	Yellow, orange, red	492	Blue, green		
Emerald green	1	602-680	Red, orange	532	Green	470	Blue
Pine green	1	620-785	Red to near IR	512	Green		
Parrot green	1	420-480	Violet, blue	532	Green	620-740	Red
Misty green	1	440-480	Blue	532	Green	630-710	Red
Yellow (tulip and lemon)	2	470-485	Blue	580	Yellow	780-795	Near IR
Orange (Florida orange and blush)	2	420-540	Violet, blue, green	580-610	Yellow to orange		
Red (cerise, fire red, devil's red, crimson red, tulip red, lotus, wild violet and peony)	8	500-570	Green	615-654	Red		
Flesh	1	None	None	600 to 800	Red		
White	3	790	Near IR				

Table 7. Summary of results from Beute, *et.al.* demonstrating absorption spectra peaks by pigment color grouping (2008, pp. 511).

In 2008, a paper was published by Poon *et. al.* concerning the analysis of tattoo inks using Raman spectroscopy. This study, a portion of a larger research project by the primary author (concerning analysis of ancient pigments, which was described in an earlier section of this research), appears to be the only investigation of tattoo inks using micro-Raman instrumentation. The authors analyzed five inks from Millennium Colorworks, Inc. (U.S.A.), specifically a blue, yellow, red, green and black ink (pp. 1229). The analysis was conducted on a Raman microscope with a laser excitation of 632.8nm (1.8mW laser power) and a 600 line/mm grating (pp. 1231). Each ink was subjected to a solvent extraction method³ in order to separate the organic pigment from the solution portion and any inorganic extender/lightener (titanium dioxide). The authors identified the following pigments in the tattoo inks by comparison to known pigment standards:

³ The solvent extraction method employed by Poon, *et. al.* (2008, pp. 1229) is described in the methods and materials section of this document

Red: naphthol AS (Pigment Red 170), diarylide yellow (Pigment Yellow 14)

Yellow: diarylide yellow (PY14), titanium dioxide

Green: chlorinated copper phthalocyanine (Pigment Green 7), diarylide yellow (PY 14)

Blue: copper phthalocyanine (Pigment Blue 15:1)

Black: carbon black

In addition to direct analysis of the pigment extracted from the ink in the bottle, the authors also tattooed pig tissue and subsequently analyzed the tissue cross sections for the presence of the pigments, which were detected and compared to the known reference pigments. Upon preparation of histological sections, the researchers located pigment particles and analyzed them directly using the Raman microscope. According to the authors, even in situations where the tattoo ink is made of a mixture of pigments (as in the case of the green pigment), discrimination and subsequent identification is possible with the appropriate reference compounds and databases. With regard to sample preparation and based upon his larger research study of ancient pigments in mummified remains, Poon recommends preparing thin, histological sectioning of the tissue in the absence of embedding media and a process of flash, cryogenic freezing of the tissue samples. Both techniques are invasive, as they involve excision of a portion of tissue and both require extensive sample preparation methods.

More recently, in February of 2011, an article appeared in the New York Times reporting that a German study found “dangerous materials” in tattoo inks. The Chemischen und Veterinäruntersuchungsämter (CVUA) ter Freiburg & Karlsruhe examined a total of 38 red, orange and yellow tattoo inks in a 2010 study and evaluated the ingredients listed on the labels. The inks were found to contain “prohibited” pigments/dyes including materials that are not

regulated for tattooing or cosmetic use, and some ingredients are considered harmful and/or carcinogenic. The pigments listed include:

Pigment Reds: PR 170, PR 179, PR 210, PR 254, PR 266

Pigment Oranges: PO 13, PO 34

Pigment Yellows: PY 65, PY 74, PY 97, PY 138, PY 151

Other: Titanium Dioxide

The CVUA lists additional studies concerning tattoo inks and references a study by Regensburger, *et.al.* (2010) in which polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons (described as carcinogenic and mutagenic) were detected in black tattoo inks analyzed with HPLC-MS. In general, current research interests in tattoo inks, especially in European countries, are concerned with the medical risks of tattoo inks and an increased desire to move toward regulating tattoo inks such that only approved, 'safe' ingredients are utilized. An additional area of interest is in optimizing laser tattoo removal techniques and is prevalent in the fields of dermatological and cosmetic medicine.

Organic Pigment Chemistry

Colorants are generally classified as to whether they are organic or inorganic, natural or synthetic, and whether they are dyes or pigments. Further classification is done according to their method of application onto a substrate (such as textile dyes), according to the chemical class of the chromophore, or on the basis of their color. Dyes are coloring materials that are partially or completely soluble in a variety of liquids, and can be applied to a variety of substrates based on their affinity to a particular substrate. Pigments are small, dry particles that are virtually insoluble in liquids and the media in which they are applied. They often require a vehicle or substrate on which they can bind in order to color materials. Dyes and pigments are similar with respect to chemistry and structure and tend to differ in application and usage.

Organic pigments are carbon-based, polycyclic compounds that contain one or more characteristic functional groups called chromophores. The shades and physical properties of organic pigments depend on the nature and number of chromophores and salt forming groups within the molecular species and the relative disposition of these functional groups within the molecule. Chromophores are classified as either chromogens, which are color generating functional groups, or auxochromes, which are color augmenting functional groups. Color-displaying molecules vary in the amount and type of functional groups they contain, which will impact the color they exhibit. The production of color is related to the resonance by delocalization of the π electrons from the presence of conjugated unsaturated systems.

Common chromogens include: $C=C$ and $-C=C-C=C-$, $C=O$ (carbonyl), $C=S$ (thiol), $CH=N$ (azomethine), $N=N$ (azo), $N=N^+O^-$, $N=O$ (nitroso), NO_2 (nitro), and ringed structures. Common auxochromes include: $-OCH_3$, $-OH$, $-NH_2$, $NH-R$, NR_2 , $O-R$, halogens, salts, phenyls and naphthyls and other conjugated heterocyclic groups. The carbonyl and vinyl groups have

chromophoric properties only when they are present in the molecule in multiple conjugated order (Juster 1962, pp. 598).

Organic pigments include azo compounds, phthalocyanines, oxazines and quinacridones. Azo pigments are characterized by the presence of the chromophore azo group $-N=N-$. Lomax and Learner (2006, pp.110) further specify that most of the α -keto azo pigments exhibit tautomerism with a ketohydrazone form (see figure 29).

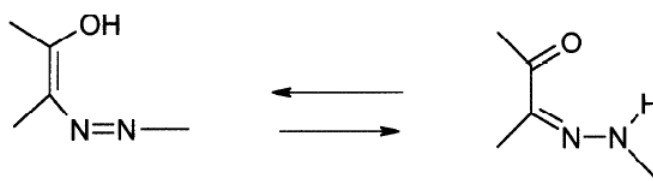
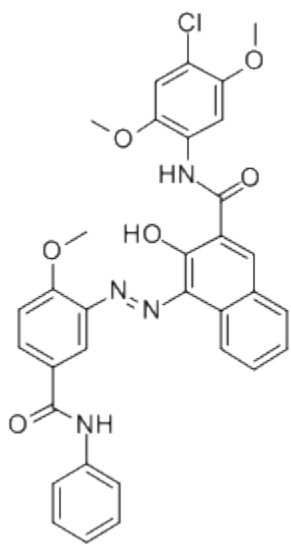
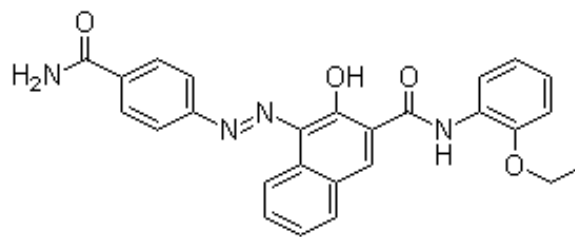


Figure 29. Hydroxyazo-ketohydrazone tautomerism in which the structure on the left represents the α -keto azo form and the structure on the right represents the ketohydrazone form (Lomax and Learner, 2006, pp.110).

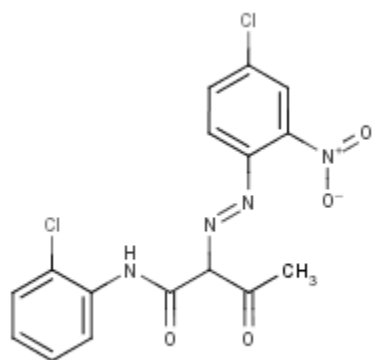
The azo pigments are described as the largest class of synthetic pigments and are subdivided into the following classes based upon their general formulae: monoazo (one azo group), disazo (two azo groups), trisazo (three azo groups), and additional polyazo (four or more azo groups) classes. Pigment red 146 (PR 146, 2-hydroxy-3-naphtharylide azo pigment), pigment red 170 (PR 170, 2-hydroxy-3-naphtharylide azo pigment), pigment yellow 3 (PY 3, Hansa Yellow 10G, acetoacetarylide azo pigment), pigment yellow 151 (PY151) are examples of monoazo pigments. Pigment orange 16 (PO 16, Dianisidine Orange), pigment orange 34 (PO 34) and pigment yellow 83 (PY 83, Permanent Yellow HR) are examples of a disazo pigments. PR 146 and PR 170 are further characterized as aromatic azo compounds, with the general formula $Ar-N=N-Ar'$ (Figure 30 a-g immediately below). Polymorphisms of PR 170 exist as α , β and γ polymorphs.



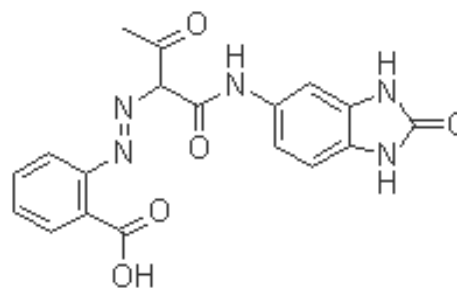
Pigment Red 146



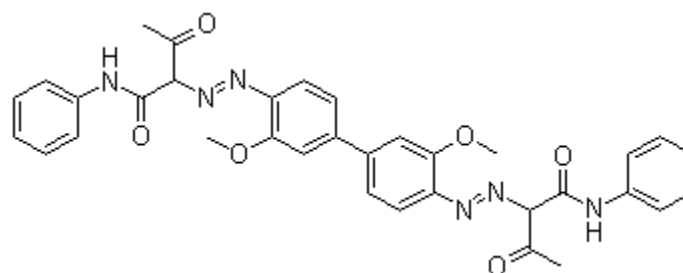
Pigment Red 170



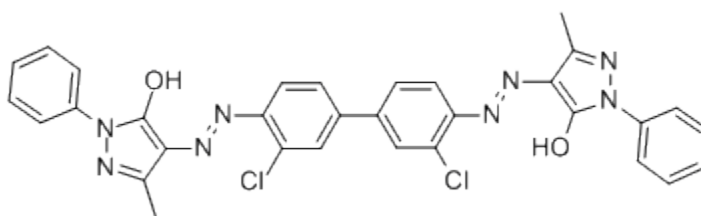
Pigment Yellow 3



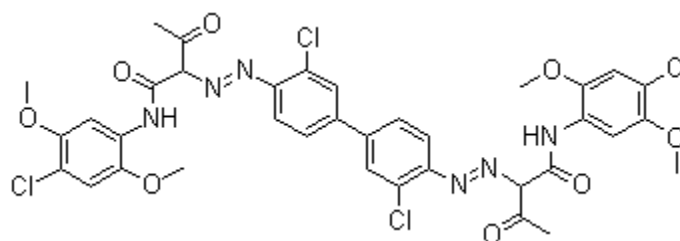
Pigment Yellow 151



Pigment Orange 16



Pigment Orange 34



Pigment Yellow 83

Figure 30a-g. Various azo pigments.

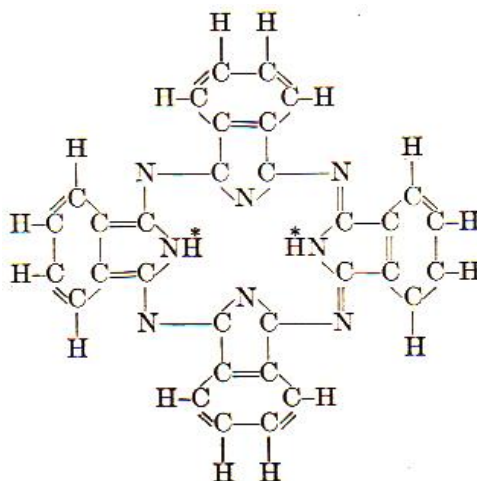
Phthalocyanines consist of dyes and pigments that contain the tetrabenzoporphyrine (TBP) nucleus (Figure 31 a). The principal metal ion is copper and peripheral substituents are chlorine and bromine. Pigment green 7 (PG 7, Phthalocyanine Green) and pigment blue 15 (PB 15, Phthalocyanine Blue) are examples of phthalocyanines (Figure 31b and c). Pigment blue is characterized by the copper centered within the TBP nucleus (Copper-tetrabenzotetraazoporphin), and pigment green is characterized by the chlorination of the benzene rings with the copper centered TBP nucleus (chlorinated Copper-tetrabenzotetraazoporphin). According to Thompson, the halogen bromine may also be incorporated along with the chlorine, where the more bromine used, the more yellow the shade (known as pigment green 36) (1977, pp. 447).

Phthalocyanines are subject to modifications through substitutions, and reports of α , β , γ , δ , ϵ , π , ρ , and R crystal forms of metal phthalocyanines have been described. Pigment blue 15 is the primary blue pigment in the phthalocyanines class, with nine forms of copper phthalocyanine

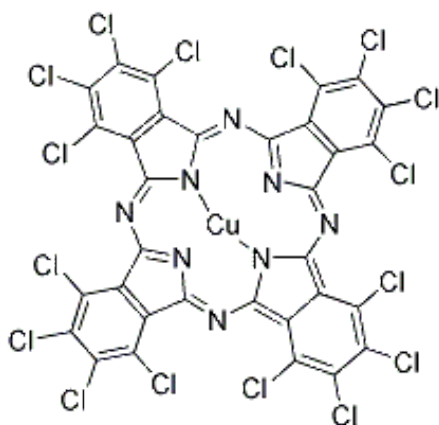
being reported, including four crystal forms of copper phthalocyanine. According to the Pigment Compendium (pp. 305),

PB 15 is an unstablized (against crystal modification), non-halogenated copper phthalocyanine with the α -crystal modification, 15:1 is the same but with 0.5-1 chlorine substitutions, 15:2 is a non-flocculating version of 15:1, 15:3 is an unsubstituted β -copper phthalocyanine, 15:4 is a non-flocculating version of 15:3, and 15:6 is a stabilized, unsubstituted ϵ -modification form. Pigment blue 16 designates a metal-free phthalocyanine and Pigment Blue 7 is a cobalt phthalocyanine. Pigment Green 7 describes a copper phthalocyanine with 14-15 chlorine substitutions and Pigment Green 36 is a copper phthalocyanine with 4-9 bromine and 8-2 chlorine substitutions.

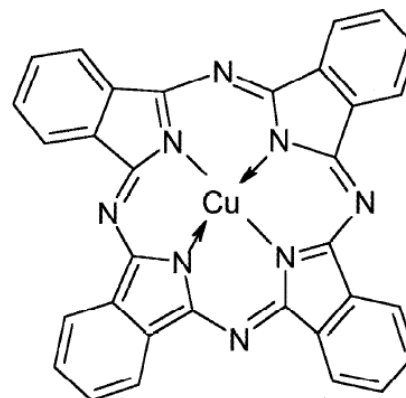
The color attributed to the phthalocyanines is due to both the inorganic metal ion of the central copper atom (described in the crystal field theory developed by Bethe and van Vleck) and the organic conjugated bond system of the annulated system.



Tetrabenzoporphyrzine nucleus



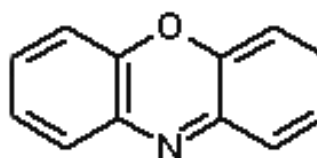
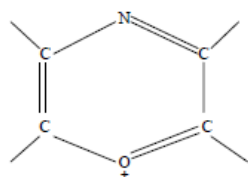
Pigment Green 7



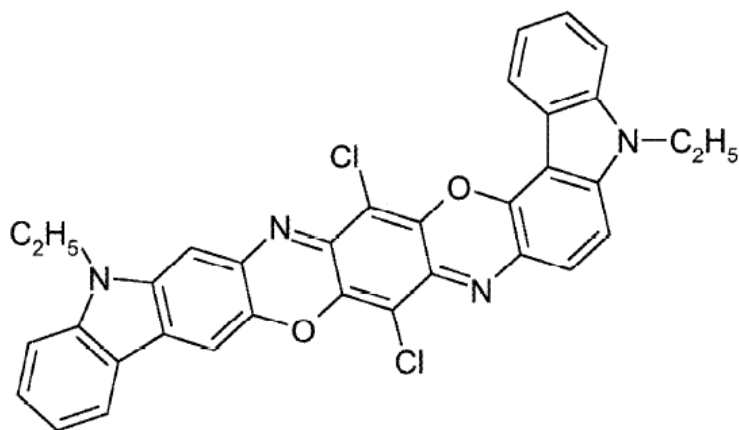
Pigment Blue 15

Figure 31 a-c. The phthalocyanines.

Oxazines are characterized by the presence of the chromophore oxazine ring, which forms the center of three condensed rings (Figure 32, top). Pigment violet 23 (PV 23) is an example of a dioxazine, a linear system of five anellated rings (Figure 32, bottom). According to The Pigment Compendium, PV 23 is used to shade phthalocyanine pigments, to counteract the yellowish cast of titanium dioxide whites and to shade carbon-based blacks that have a brownish cast (2008, pp. 309). Polymorphisms of PV 23 exist as α , and β polymorphs.

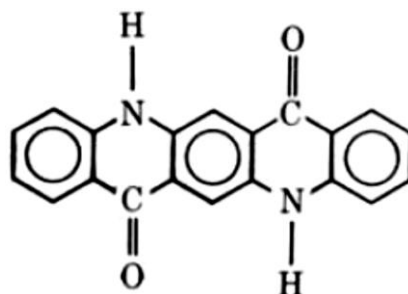


Oxazine ring, left, and bound into a three ringed structure, right

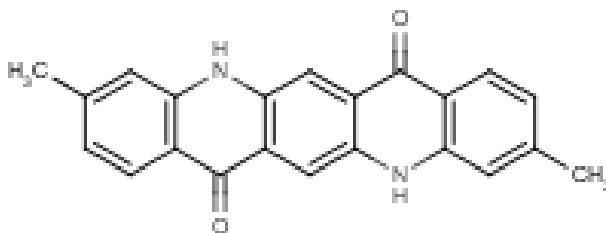


Pigment Violet 23

Quinacridones are a ring system with the following general structure (the linear, trans form is shown below in figure 33a).



Pigment red 122 (PR 122), 2,9-dimethyl-quinacridone, is an example of a quinacridone (figure 33b below). It is described as a linear cis-quinacridone and is reported to have α , β and γ forms.



An extensive amount of literature concerning the chemical analysis of pigments can be found within a vast array of scientific journals, with the focus of these articles addressing color science, forensic science and art conservation science. Scherrer, *et. al* (2009) appear to have the

most comprehensive spectral reference collection of synthetic organic pigments to date, which includes approximately 120 pigments (excitation wavelength varied). The pigments analyzed include (pp. 508-510):

Pigment Red: 2, 3, 4, 5, 7, 8, 9, 10, 11, 12, 16, 18, 48:3, 49, 49:1, 49:2, 53, 53:1, 57, 57:1, 68, 83:1, 112, 122, 144, 146, 149, 166, 170, 179, 185, 187, 188, 214, 242, 254, 255, 264

Pigment Orange: 5, 13, 34, 36, 43, 48, 49, 62, 73

Pigment Yellow: 1, 1:1, 2, 3, 5, 10, 16, 65, 73, 74, 81, 83, 93, 95, 97, 109, 111, 120, 129, 139, 150, 151, 154, 155, 175, 181, 194

Pigment Green: 7, 9, 36

Pigment Blue: 15, 15:1, 15:2, 15:3, 15:4, 15:6, 16, 60

Pigment Violet: 5, 19, 23, 32, 36, 37

Pigment Brown: 23, 25

A 2008 article by Shulte *et. al.* contains reference spectra of 23 pigments (excitation wavelength varied), including (pp. 1457):

Pigment Red: 2, 49, 83:1, 88, 122, 123, 146, 176, 179, 181

Pigment Orange: 13, 34, 43

Pigment Yellow: 3, 83, 109, 110

Pigment Green: 7

Pigment Blue: 15:3

Pigment Violet: 1, 2, 5:1, 19

A 2000 article by Vandenabeele *et.al.* contains reference spectra of 21 azo pigments. This database is limited to red and yellow pigments, and the excitation wavelength used was 780nm.

The pigments comprising the database include (pp. 510-511):

Pigment Red: 3, 8, 9, 17, 22, 23, 49:1, 52:1, 53:1, 57:1, 112, 170

Pigment Yellow: 1, 3, 12, 13, 14, 17, 83, 65, 74

A 2010 article by Colombini *et.al.* contains reference spectra of 23 orange and yellow organic pigments (in addition to fluorescent orange and yellow pigment samples), which were analyzed using 514nm and 785nm excitation wavelengths. The pigments comprising the database include (pp. 17):

Pigment Orange: 34, 36, 43, 48, 49, 59, 61, 65, 73

Pigment Yellow: 1,3, 16, 24, 74, 83, 109, 129, 138, 139, 151, 154, 173

Ropret, *et.al.* (2008, pp. 488-489) present a reference library of 21 yellow pigments, which were analyzed with an excitation wavelength of 785nm. The yellow pigments analyzed include PY 6, 73, 75, 97, 111, 213, 100, 55, 81, 16, 155, 95, 128, 151, 154, 129, 153, 109, 110, 173 and 139.

Several of these pigment reference spectra can be found in Appendix I.

Chapter 3: Methods & Materials

Tattoo Inks and Analysis

Selection of tattoo inks for this study was based on origin of manufacture (U.S.A., Brazil and China) and color variation (red, orange, yellow, green, blue, purple, white, brown, gray and black). Each tattoo ink was obtained in its original bottle and the details of each ink were recorded from the label (including name, ingredients, lot number and production date). An effort to locate any chemical information was attempted, for example, a search for MSDS sheets. MSDS sheets were located for the U.S. manufactured Skin Candy inks⁴ (these MSDS sheets were dated 2010 and thus may not correspond to those in this study in which production dates dated 2008 and 2009). MSDS sheets (or the equivalent) were not located for inks from Brazil and China.

The tattoo inks included in this study are detailed below:

Iron Works Brasil (Made In Brazil): Vermelho (Red), Pink, Citrus (Orange), Amarelo Canario (Canary Yellow), Amarelo Fluor (Fluorescent Yellow), Verde Claro (Green), Azul Royal (Royal Blue), Magenta, Lilas Claro (Lilac/Light Purple), Preto Escuro (Dark Black).

The contents listed on the packaging for all Iron Works Brasil inks include (translated from Spanish) “mineral/organic pigment, distilled water (dH₂O), surfactant, humectants, preservative.” No information is given regarding specific pigment contents.

⁴ <http://skincandytattoosupply.com/> (Important Links → MSDS Reports)



Figure 34. Iron Works Brasil Tattoo Inks used in this study

Skin Candy (Made in the United States of America): Candy Apple Red, Red Hot, Marz (Orange), Dolemite (Orange-Yellow), Blisterene (Yellow), Sassygrass (Green), Tastywaves (Blue), BellBottom Blue, S.R.V. Teal 2, Razberry Creem (Pink), Muddy Water Blue, Ripple (Purple), San Brownadino (Brown), Whitegirl, Tokyo Pink, Dark Cherry Roan 1, 2 and 3 (Neutral Brown hues).

The contents listed on the packaging for Skin Candy inks include “distilled water (dH_2O), polyethylene glycol, witch hazel and ‘proprietary’.” Information is given regarding specific pigment contents with the exception of Tokyo Pink, which lists no contents on its bottle.



Figure 35 a-c. Skin Candy Tattoo Inks used in this study (Note: the bottle of Whitegirl is not included in the series of photographs)

Information concerning the pigment compositions of the Skin Candy Tattoo Inks is provided below. A detailed review of the molecular structure and chemistry of each pigment is provided in the *Organic Pigment Chemistry* section of this document. Although the inks were dated 2008 and 2009 while the MSDS sheets were labeled 2010, there was agreement between the MSDS sheets and contents listed on the labels. This indicates that, according to the manufacturer's records, the chemical composition of these particular tattoo inks has not changed within the last couple of years.

Skin Candy Tattoo Inks	
(contents, from packaging label: distilled water, polyethylene glycol, witch hazel, "proprietary")	
Candy Apple Red	CI 12485 (PR 146)
Red Hot	CI 12475 (PR 170)
Marz	CI 21160 (PO 16)
Dolemite	CI 13980 (PY 151), CI 21108 (PY 83)
Blisterene	CI 11710 (PY 3), CI 21115 (PO 34), CI 77891 (TiO ₂)
Sassygrass	CI 74260 (PG 7), CI 11710 (PY 3), CI 21115 (PO 34)
Tastywaves	CI 77891 (TiO ₂), CI 74260 (PG 7)
Bell Bottom Blue	CI 74160 (PB 15), CI 77891 (TiO ₂)
S.R.V. Teal 2	CI 74160 (PB 15), CI 74260 (PG 7), CI 77891 (TiO ₂)
Razberry Creem	CI 73915 (PR 122), CI 77891 (TiO ₂)
Muddy Water Blue	CI 74160 (PB 15)
Ripple	CI 51319 (PV 23), CI 77891 (TiO ₂)
San Brownadino	CI 77491 (Fe ₂ O ₃)
Whitegirl	CI 77891 (TiO ₂)
Skin Candy Tattoo Inks	
(contents, from packaging label: distilled water, witch hazel, polyethylene glycol)	
Black Cherry Roan 1	CI 12485 (PR 146), CI 77266 (PBI 7- Carbon Black)
Black Cherry Roan 2	CI 12485 (PR 146), CI 77266 (PBI 7- Carbon Black)
Black Cherry Roan 3	CI 12485 (PR 146), CI 77266 (PBI 7- Carbon Black)

Table 8. Skin Candy Tattoo Inks listed ingredients (from bottle labels)

Flying Tigers (Made in China): Salmon Pink, Pink Red, Magenta, Chinese Red, Bright Red, Rose Red, Mulberry (Red), Dark Red, Orange Red, Orange, Bright Yellow, Mid-Yellow,

Yellow, Golden Yellow, Khaki, Grass Hopper (Green), Light Green, Verdancy (Green), Lawngreen, Dark Green, Blue Sky, Turquoise Blue, Cyan, Dark Cyan, Blue, Navy Blue, Dark Blue, Grape (Purple), Purple, Violet, Gray, Bright Black, Black, Eggplant Black, Black, Sayonara Suede (Gray), Dark Brown, Light Chocolate, Skin Tone, White.

The contents listed on the packaging for all Flying Tigers inks include “isopropanol, water, glycerin and ‘proprietary’.” No information is given regarding specific pigment contents.



Figure 36. Flying Tigers Tattoo Inks used in this study

A search of manufacturers and distributors was conducted in an attempt to assess the variation in tattoo ink manufacturing. It is apparent that some tattoo ink manufacturers will generate different brand names under their main company name. For example, Skin Candy Tattoo Inks list separate ink brands under the “Skin Candy” umbrella, including Skin Candy, Bloodline, Kabuki, Tribal One, Eternal, Dynamic, Panther and Roan Bloodline. Additional tattoo inks from other manufacturers include Intenze, Starbrite, Iron Butterfly, Alla Prima, Silverback, Black Buddha, Dynamic Color Co., Scream, Immortal, National, Fusion, Eternal, Dispersion,

Talons/Talens, Joker, Katana, Twilight MOMs Millennium and MOMs Nuclear (where MOM's is labeled as a distributor) and Chameleon (the latter two are newer, "Blacklight UV Reactive" inks), Sta-Glo and Cosmetic Colors (Huck Spaulding Distributors), Prizm, Ichiban Sumi, Forever Natural, Lightning, Flesh-Tone, EO One, Infinitink. It is difficult in many instances to ascertain common origin from distributors and may be possible by looking at the information on the bottle label (to correlate manufacturer name, location/address, *etc.*). Tattoo ink lines named after famous tattoo artists are also available, and generally are an 'artist series' of a particular manufacturer (*i.e.* Feldman's Inks). The primary Japanese manufactured tattoo ink is Kuro Sumi (a Kokkai Sumi ink was found at one distributor's website, likely a cheaper alternative to the well-known Kuro Sumi brand).

One supply company offered powder pigment for tattoo inks and recommended mixing their colors with witch hazel, their own dispersing solution (listed as "Made in the U.S.A.", but no additional information was made available), Listerine or alcohol⁵. Interestingly, the website lists (and provides an image of) Higgins black ink (Sanford). The Sanford logo is more commonly associated with clerical ink and inscription, and a subsequent search of this ink lists it as for use with technical pens, airbrushes, dip pens or brushes (not tattoo inks). In another instance, it was alleged that Pelikan ink (advertised as a drawing/fountain pen ink) was being used as a tattoo ink but was later removed from the market because its usage as a tattoo ink caused allergic reactions and led to legal ramifications.

⁵ <http://www.nationaltattoo.com/index.asp?PageAction=VIEWCATS&Category=3>

National Tattoo Supply

HIGGINS BLACK MAGIC INK
MADE IN THE U.S.A.

Email this to a friend

HBM

Figure 37. Sanford Black Magic Ink available on a tattoo ink website

One problem in attempting to understand the trends in manufacture and distribution of tattoo inks is the potential for counterfeit products; for example, a search of tattoo inks on popular online marketplaces offers brand-name tattoo inks at a fraction of the cost, and a careful examination of packaging (bottle type and shape, labels) demonstrates differences between the ‘originals’ and those offered at a discount through online marketplaces. It is possible that the determination of counterfeiting based on comparison of chemical composition of the real and counterfeited product (as well as chemical composition and physical characteristics of the packaging and associated labels) may further enhance the usefulness of tattoo ink databases and methods of analysis.



Figure 38. Some packaging and advertisements feature a licensed logo such as these, likely in a effort to demonstrate that they are selling the original products and not counterfeit inks

Sample Preparation

The tattoo ink samples were placed on a microscope slide and allowed to dry at room temperature for several days in order to allow for evaporation of any volatile solvents. Each prepared slide was examined with a stereomicroscope followed by examination on an Olympus BH metallurgical microscope with Neo objectives using both reflected brightfield and darkfield illumination to observe and document particle and color characteristics. Each tattoo ink was photographed under darkfield and brightfield conditions.

A sample of the ink was scraped off of the microscope slide and mounted in a Cargille oil with a Refractive Index (RI) of 1.5509 [$n^{25^{\circ}\text{C}}$ (+/- 0.0002) $D_{5893\text{\AA}}$] for examination with an Olympus BHSP Polarized Light Microscope with DPlan PO achromat objectives. The selection of refractive index oil was made in order to allow for the ability to conduct relative refractive index measurements on the particles, if necessary. The particles were examined under crossed polars and slightly uncrossed by approximately 5-10°. Photomicrographs were obtained for each tattoo ink under uncrossed and crossed polarizing filters.

Upon removal of some ink from the slide for microscopic examination, the consistency of the tattoo inks was markedly different from one another. Some samples scraped off with little

effort (pressure) and were very powdery and dry. Other tattoo inks were difficult to scrape off of the microscope slide several and had a ‘gummy’ consistency; as if the solvent had not completely evaporated. This was especially the case for the majority of Flying Tigers tattoo inks (China). In some instances, the samples were still ‘wet’, even a year after having been mounted on the slides, left to dry and stored in a microscope box.

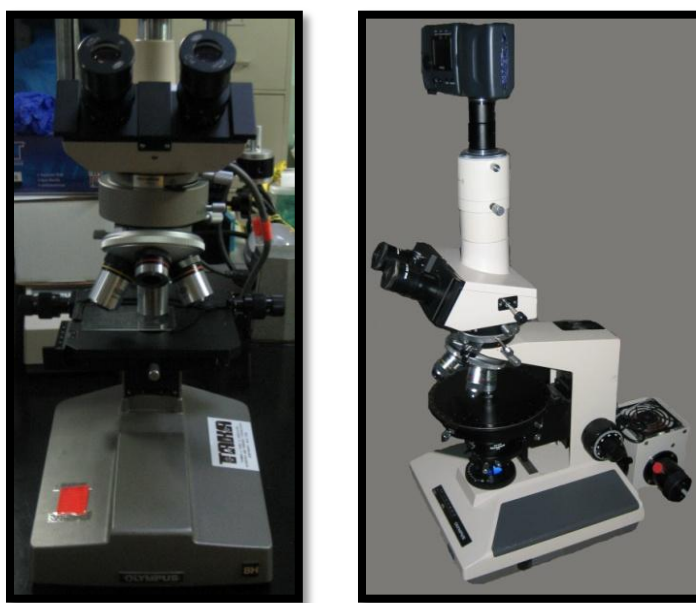


Figure 39. (left) Olympus BH metallurgical microscope and (right) Olympus BHSP Polarized Light Microscope (PLM) [Thomas A. Kubic and Associates, TAKA].

A table of resultant visual and microscopic examinations was prepared to facilitate examination and comparison of the optical characteristics of the pigments, including particle sizes, color, *etc.* Visual and microscopic observations were presented in this format in order to conduct comparisons across origin of manufacture and color. The table includes images based upon visual/stereoscopic examinations, brightfield and darkfield images generated with the metallurgical microscope, crossed and uncrossed polarizers with the polarized light microscope and images generated with the Raman microspectrometer. This information is in conjunction

with any information concerning the chemical composition as provided through product labels, MSDS sheets and any additional relevant information pertaining to the ink compositions.

Instrument Calibration and Set-up

Prior to the analysis of the tattoo inks using the Raman instrumentation, several samples recommended for calibration were analyzed in order to assess the calibration guidelines outlined in the literature. Samples include Silicon, Sulfur, acetaminophen (4-acetamidophenol), cyclohexane and polystyrene. In addition, the Bruker Optics dispersive Raman employs a patented Sure-Cal procedure, which calibrates internally based on a Neon lamp within the instrument housing. A standard Sulfur sample was run prior to sample analyses in order to ensure the instrument was performing properly. In addition, samples of black (K-O Tattoo Ink), blue (Buddha Blue, Kuro Sumi Tattoo Ink, Japan) and brown (Hibachi Brown, Kuro Sumi Tattoo Ink, Japan) tattoo inks were obtained and analyzed on the dispersive Raman microscope, changing power settings of each excitation wavelength and integration times in order to assess sample damage and quality of spectra. This was used to develop a preliminary guideline for sample analysis. It was determined that it is best to start with the lowest power setting in order to limit sample damage and to increase the integration time. If there was no improvement to the spectrum (in terms of signal to noise ratio), then the power was increased. Standards were employed to serve as a function check prior to the use of any instrument.

Instrumental Analysis-Raman

The normal Raman spectra of the tattoo inks were obtained with a dispersive Raman spectrometer, specifically a Bruker Optics Senterra Raman spectrometer coupled to an Olympus microscope employing Bruker OPUS 6.5 software (Figure 14). The objectives are Olympus 100x, 50x, and 20x LM Plan Fl with numerical apertures (NAs) of 0.80, 0.50 and 0.40 and

excitation spot sizes of approximately 1 micron, 2 microns, and 5 microns, respectively. The spectrometer utilizes holographic gratings with 1200 rulings per mm (low resolution/9-15 cm^{-1}) and 1800 rulings per mm (high resolution /3-5 cm^{-1}) and a Si charge coupled device (CCD) detector. The excitation sources are a blue 488nm Argon ion (Ar^+) laser (with six fixed power settings from 0-25mW), a red 632.8nm (633nm) Helium/Neon (He-Ne) laser (with six fixed power settings from 0-20mW), and a near-infrared 785nm diode laser (with six fixed power settings from 0-100mW). In order to obtain the best spectrum for each sample, the laser power settings and integration time are varied to maximize signal without causing photodecomposition of the sample while attempting to limit or eliminate any potential background noise or fluorescence. Using the high resolution grating, the spectral ranges are set to 70-3350 cm^{-1} for the 488nm laser, 70-2630 cm^{-1} for the 633nm laser and 70-2610 cm^{-1} for the 785nm laser. (Note: due to the use of longer spectral ranges, the movement of the gratings resulted in overlap in spectral regions, which would occasionally be apparent in the resultant spectrum. The regions of overlap are as follows: 488nm 1870-1880 cm^{-1} , 633nm: 1450-1520 cm^{-1} , 785nm 1500-1520 cm^{-1} . It is recommended that the user be aware of the spectral stitching features of their instrument and software, as it may produce spectral distortion in regions of the spectra). The dried tattoo ink samples that had been placed on the microscope slide were analyzed by placing the microscope slide directly on the sample stage for analysis. The majority of the spectra were cropped to include the spectral region from approximately 100-1800 cm^{-1} which is considered the region where pigments exhibit their characteristic bands.

The tattoo inks were also analyzed using Fourier-Transform Raman Spectroscopy. The instruments used include a Bruker Optics Vertex 70 (Ram II) Fourier-transform spectrometer with a liquid-Nitrogen (LN_2) cooled germanium (Ge) photodiode detector with a near-infrared

1064nm Neodymium-Yttrium Aluminum Garnet (Nd:YAG) laser excitation source employing Bruker OPUS software (Figure 17) and a Thermo NXR Fourier transform spectrometer with an indium gallium arsenide (InGaAs) detector with a 1064nm laser excitation source employing Thermo OMNIC software (Figure 18). Both instruments use a calcium fluoride (CaF₂) beamsplitter, which is manually installed into the light path prior to sample analysis. The instrument resolution was set to 4 cm⁻¹ and both the laser power setting and scan rate were varied to maximize signal without causing photodecomposition of the sample and to reduce or eliminate any potential background noise or fluorescence. For the Bruker instrument, the sample holder used is a 2mm disk with a central well for the sample material and for the Thermo instrument, the sample holder is either a glass microscope slide or a glass capillary tube. A portion of the ink on the microscope slide was scraped off and placed into the sample holder for analysis using FT Raman. A standard Sulfur sample was analyzed prior to sample analyses in order to ensure the instrument is performing properly. In instances of overwhelming fluorescence and the presence of highly absorbing species (blacks, browns, grays, and the darker purples, blues and greens), the pigment was ground with potassium bromide (KBr) and put in a glass capillary tube prior to analysis in the Thermo FT-Raman.

SERS was conducted on some of the tattoo ink pigment extracts as well as the powder pigment standards. The silver colloid was prepared using Leona's microwave digestion method (Leona, 2009). Spectra were obtained using the dispersive Raman instrument with an excitation wavelength of 488nm. The resultant spectra were compared to the normal Raman spectra at 488nm in an effort to evaluate whether or not there was any improvement in using SERS to generate spectral information, especially with samples that exhibited overwhelming fluorescence with normal Raman. The development of a SERS library of tattoo inks was also developed.

Calculations relative to Leona's preparation method were made to determine the amount of silver nitrate, sodium citrate and glucose needed to generate a substantial supply of silver colloid. The silver nitrate was converted to silver sulfate to remove any of the nitrate by formation of a silver sulfate precipitate. To generate the colloid, calculated amounts of the glucose, citrate and the silver were then combined in a microwave digestion vessel and subjected to the temperature and time controlled microwave digestion method using a CEM MDS-2100 microwave digestion system. The colloid was stored in a capped sample holder wrapped with aluminum foil and kept refrigerated. For analysis of the pigment standards, a small portion of pigment was placed on a microscope slide. An approximately 0.8 microliter drop of colloid was placed on the pigment and left for several minutes (approximately 5-10min). An approximately 0.1 microliter drop of potassium nitrate (KNO_3) was added and left for approximately 1-2 minutes. The sample was then viewed with the dispersive Raman, with the colloid-molecular species aggregate being located and analyzed with the 488nm laser (with the focus being varied as necessary). This technique was attempted with the tattoo inks, but was quite inefficient. An attempt was made to put the tattoo ink in solution using methanol, but this was limited due to solubility issues with many of the pigments. Instead of removing some of the tattoo ink from the slide, a drop of colloid (approximately 0.8 microliter) was placed directly on the tattoo ink smear and allowed to sit for several minutes (5-10min) followed by addition of the potassium nitrate and subsequent analysis with the instrument. This technique proved to be quite successful in generating interactions between the pigment and the colloid, which resulted in quality SERS spectra for several of the tattoo inks and pigments.

Examination and comparison of the Raman spectra (normal and Fourier transform) for a given pigment were conducted in order to determine whether there is band shifting and changes

in relative band intensities due to changing the excitation wavelength. While the band locations are relative for a given molecular species and most literature indicates that resultant Raman spectra of a sample are independent of the incident energy, it is anticipated that when changing from 488nm to 633nm to 785nm to 1064nm laser excitation wavelengths, there may be some shifting of bands and changes in band relative ratios. This evaluation was used to assert that the excitation wavelength is an important factor in the evaluation and comparison of questioned and known samples and should thus be noted in any Raman analysis, especially when reporting band locations in both tabular and spectral formats. Examination and comparison of the normal Raman spectra and SERS spectra were conducted to evaluate whether or not SERS was useful in enhancing weak signals and quenching fluorescence. In addition, any variation in band locations and relative band intensities is noted.

Instrumental Analysis-Infrared

The infrared spectra of the tattoo inks was obtained with a Nicolet FT-IR spectrometer employing Thermo OMNIC software with a Durascope™ (SensIR Technologies, Danbury, CT) attachment, used for micro-attenuated total reflection (ATR) infrared measurements (Figure 23). A portion of the ink on the microscope slide was scraped off and placed into the internal reflecting element for direct analysis without any additional sample preparation. A polystyrene spectrum was obtained in order to ensure the FT-IR instrument was calibrated prior to sample analysis.

Resultant Raman (normal, Fourier transform and SERS) spectra and infrared spectra from the tattoo inks were processed and displayed using Grams AI® software (Thermo-Fisher, Madison, WI). Spectral processing was minimal in an effort to minimize the amount of ‘spectral manipulation’ applied to the data. Peak identification was conducted in order to label and

classify the strongest bands (major) for comparison to pigment reference material and to determine the modes of vibration based on previously published correlation tables (Appendix A). All tattoo inks were evaluated to determine possible pigment compositions based upon band locations and comparison to pigment standards. Reference pigments were obtained and analyzed, where possible, in an effort to have a set of standard pigments that have been analyzed on the same instruments and under the same conditions as the tattoo inks and were used to compile known pigment databases for the various instrumental techniques employed. A list of known pigment standards obtained and analyzed in this study can be found in Table 9 below. The spectra from the reference pigments and tattoo inks were compared to data tables that are available in the literature, specifically articles by Vandenabeele *et. al.* (2000), Ropret *et. al.* (2007), Schulte *et. al.* (2008), and Scherrer *et. al.* (2009) and Colombini *et. al.* (2010). The data tables in the literature and available Raman pigment libraries within the software (Tate Pigments-Fogg Library and Metropolitan Museum of Art Pigments Library) were also used to aid in the identification of pigments in the tattoo samples.

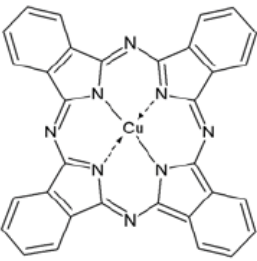
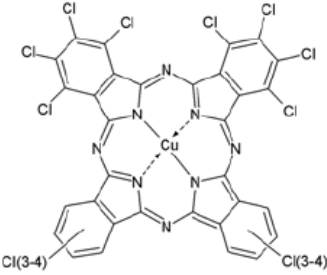
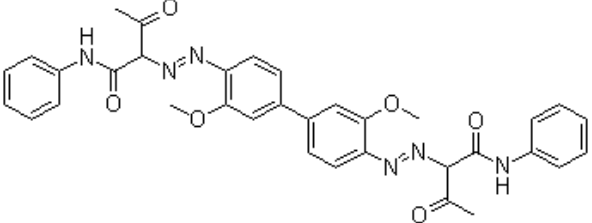
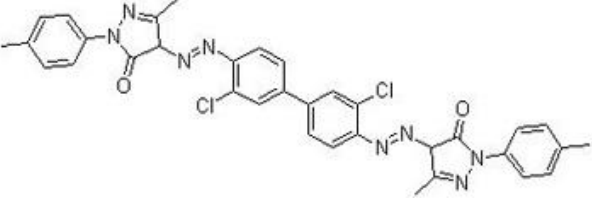
Reference Pigments	Chemical Structure
Pigment Blue 15	
Pigment Blue 15.1	
Pigment Blue 15.2	
Pigment Blue 15.3	
Pigment Green 7	
Pigment Orange 16	
Pigment Orange 34	

Table 9, continued

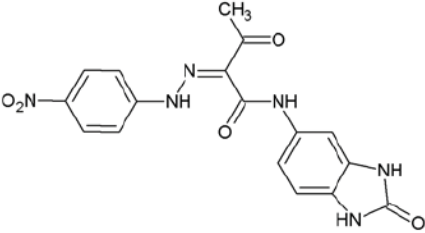
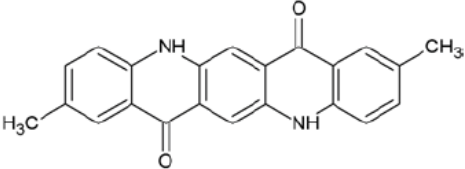
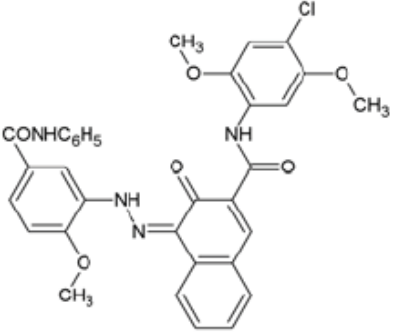
Pigment Orange 62	 <p>The chemical structure of Pigment Orange 62 consists of a central imine group (C=N) connecting two aromatic systems. On the left, a benzene ring is substituted with a nitro group (O₂N) at the para position. On the right, a benzimidazole ring system is attached to the imine nitrogen. The benzimidazole ring has a methyl ketone group (CH₃C=O) attached to the imine carbon and a carbonyl group (C=O) at the 2-position of the imidazole ring.</p>
Pigment Red 122	 <p>The chemical structure of Pigment Red 122 is a perylene derivative. It features a central perylene core with two carbonyl groups (C=O) at the 1 and 8 positions. The 4-position is substituted with a methyl group (CH₃), and the 10-position is substituted with another methyl group (H₃C).</p>
Pigment Red 146	 <p>The chemical structure of Pigment Red 146 is a quinacridone derivative. It features a central quinacridone core with a carbonyl group (C=O) at the 1-position. The 6-position is substituted with a benzamide group (CONHC₆H₅). The 8-position is substituted with a benzamide group (NH-C(=O)-C₆H₄-Cl) where the benzene ring is further substituted with two methoxy groups (OCH₃) and a chlorine atom (Cl). The 10-position is substituted with a methoxy group (OCH₃).</p>

Table 9, continued

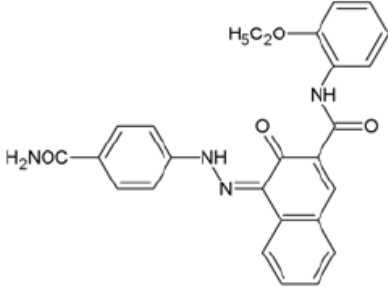
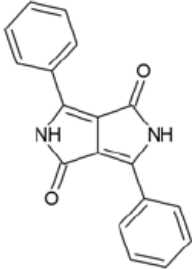
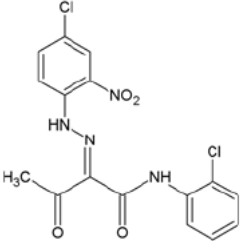
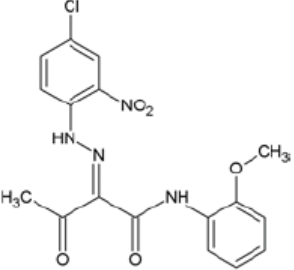
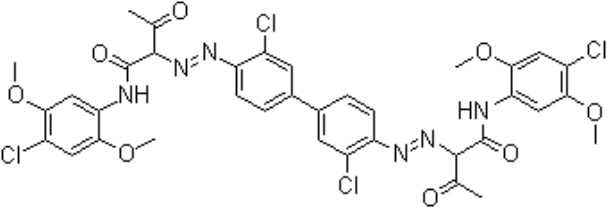
Pigment Red 170	
Pigment Red 255	
Pigment Yellow 3	
Pigment Yellow 73	
Pigment Yellow 83	

Table 9, continued

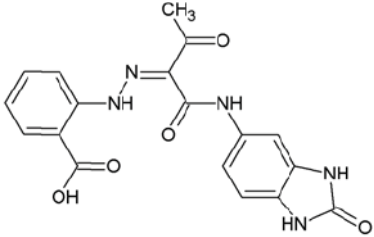
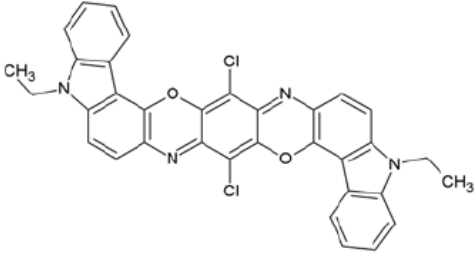
Pigment Yellow 151	 <p>The chemical structure of Pigment Yellow 151 is a quinacridone derivative. It features a central quinacridone core with a methyl ketone group (-C(=O)CH₃) at the 1-position, a phenyl ring at the 2-position, and a hydroxyl group (-OH) at the 3-position.</p>
Pigment Violet 23	 <p>The chemical structure of Pigment Violet 23 is a quinacridone derivative. It features a central quinacridone core with two ethyl groups (-CH₂CH₃) at the 1 and 8 positions, and two chlorine atoms (-Cl) at the 4 and 5 positions.</p>

Table 9. Standard pigments analyzed in the current research.

Instrumental Analysis-X-Ray Fluorescence

X-ray fluorescence (XRF) measurements were conducted using a Bruker Artax x-ray fluorescence spectrometer. The Artax VRF employed a Rhodium target and a SiLi detector. A 1.5mm aperture was attached to the collimator in order to conduct ‘bulk’ analysis of the tattoo inks. The samples were prepared by placing the inks on a thin polymer sample support (Chemplex Mylar® Polyester thin film; typical impurities (ppm): Ca, P, Sb, Fe, Zn), which was pulled taut in a plastic circular sample cup. Calibration of the instrument was conducted prior to tattoo ink analysis using a Tin-Bronze sample.

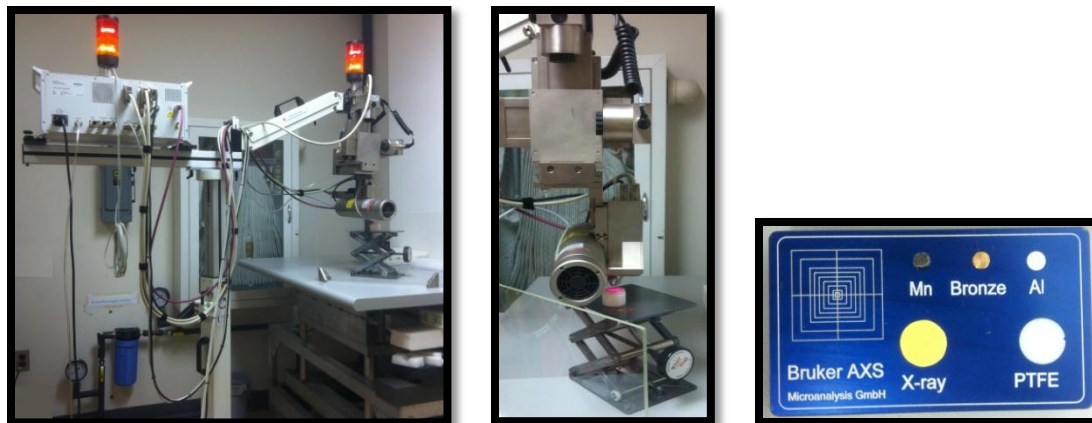


Figure 40. (left) Bruker Artex XRF, (middle), close up of sample mount and (right) mounted standards.

Instrumental Analysis-UV/Vis

The primary examination of the pigment samples was done without separating the pigment from the carrier solution, which means that there are potential matrix interferences inherent in all instrumental examinations. For example, a portion of the solution in which the pigment(s) is dispersed may produce fluorescence that inhibits the detection of the pigment. It is expected that the SERS technique will be the best way to reduce fluorescence and at the same time, enhance the signal of the pigment. Matrix effects may also render the pigment molecule unable to bind to the colloid. The solution may also present solubility issues that introduce problems in UV/Vis spectrometric measurements, which determine the absorption maxima (useful for resonance Raman). One method to minimize matrix effects is to conduct extractions of the tattoo inks in order to remove any residues from the solution and any inorganic materials (such as titanium dioxide).

As such, a solvent extraction similar to the procedure used by Poon, *et. al.* (2008) was conducted on a selection of tattoo inks to separate the pigment from the carrier solution and any inorganic substances. The extraction method was conducted and evaluated in order to provide an

accurate method for the extraction and recovery of the organic pigment portion of the tattoo ink. The extraction procedure was also able to elucidate whether or not an inorganic pigments such as titanium oxide was present in the tattoo ink. This extraction process would allow for recovery and subsequent instrumental analysis of the inorganic portion, for example, analysis of titanium dioxide in order to confirm its presence and identify its polymorph (of the three forms of titanium dioxide, only anatase and rutile have been reported as being found in tattoo inks).

A selection of extracted pigments were analyzed using both Raman (normal and FT-Raman) and infrared (ATR) techniques, and a comparison of spectral data between direct analysis of the tattoo ink and the extracted pigment(s) was conducted to elucidate any differences in data according to the state of the sample. In order to assess the resonance effects of the tattoo inks, some of the tattoo inks were analyzed using UV/Vis spectrometry. The region of absorption of the tattoo ink can provide additional insight into the best excitation wavelength necessary to get maximum signal and quality spectra due to resonance effects. The solubility of the pigments and additional wet chemistry methods may provide insight into chemical composition and general tattoo ink differentiation. It should be noted that there may be problems associated with extraction techniques, including contamination, incomplete or inefficient extraction of the pigment and possibility of changing the form of the chromophore or overall structure of the molecule. With regard to extractions, White *et.al.* (1998, pp. 82) report that it is important to control both the pH and solvent polarity during extraction to ensure there are no changes to the chemical structure of the dye, as this change may impact the resultant Raman spectrum and lead to problems in identification.

With regard to differentiation of organic and inorganic pigments, separation was conducted using solvent extraction methods. Generally, inorganic pigments are expected to be

heavier than the organic components, and it is expected that centrifugation coupled with solvent extraction will aid in the separation of organic and inorganic components. Due to its extensive use as a lightener, it is hypothesized that the majority of inorganic material recovered will consist of titanium dioxide. Caution must be taken during extraction, since some organic pigments, such as the phthalocyanines, may behave more like inorganics due to their composition and molecular structure, specifically the presence of the copper and chlorine atoms. According to the procedure in Poon *et. al.*, (2008, pp. 1229) separation and isolation of the pigments was done by transferring an aliquot of tattoo ink to an Eppendorf™ tube with water and centrifuged at 12,000 RPM for ten minutes. After discarding the supernatant, the water wash process was repeated for a total of three washes. After air drying for thirty minutes, carbon tetrachloride was added to the precipitate and again centrifuged at 12,000 RPM for ten minutes. The authors describe “a defined partition in the precipitate clearly observed between the organic pigment layer and the denser extender/lightener” (Poon, 2008, pp. 1234). It should be noted that the solvent extraction was conducted on a small number of samples with not all colors represented. Therefore, where this extraction method may have been suitable for the limited sample size, it may not be as efficient with a wider variety of samples. It is likely that solvent extraction with water or an organic solvent may not be suitable in all instances, and the extraction may require a solvent such as methylene chloride or chloroform in order to increase the extraction efficiency.

Spectrophotometric measurements made with the UV/Vis require consideration of pigment solubility; the pigments will need to be dissolved in an appropriate solvent (such as acetone [CH₃COCH₃], methanol [CH₃OH], cyclohexane [C₆H₆], methylene chloride [CH₂Cl₂] or a dilute (0.1M) or concentrated acid [for example sulfuric acid, H₂SO₄]). Due to the change in protonation with a change in pH, any wavelength shifts (bathochromic, shift toward longer

wavelengths [red shift], or hypsochromic, shift towards shorter wavelengths [blue shift]) in the UV/Vis spectra will be documented along with any potential pigment color changes, as these observations can aid in pigment identification and classification.

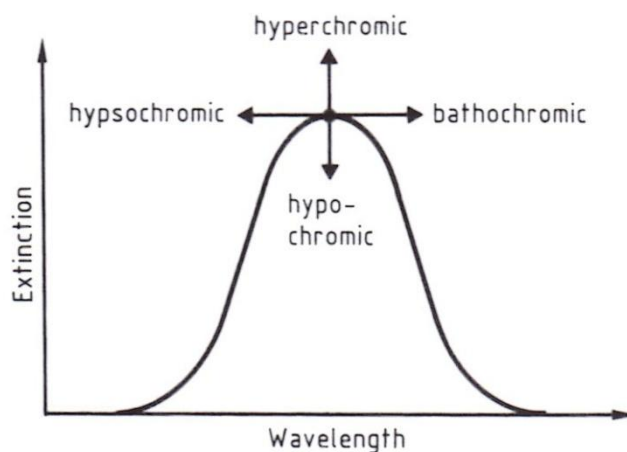


Figure 41. Shifts observed in UV/Vis Spectrophotometry (Adapted from Zollinger, 2003, pp. 18)

The UV/Vis spectrophotometer is an instrument in which a monochromatic light is passed through the sample (which is in a sample holder such as a cuvette made of quartz or silica and having a fixed pathlength), to the detector. Wavelength selection is done by either a filter or a monochromator. The technique is based upon the detection of electromagnetic radiation generally from the region of 160nm to 780nm (abscissa) in solution measurements wherein a solution's percent transmittance (%T) or absorbance (abs.) is plotted on the ordinate. The measurement is made against a reference, which typically consists of the solvent used to dissolve the pigment.

Billmeyer, *et.al.* (1981) describe a range of solvents useful for dissolving organic pigments for solution spectrophotometry. According to the authors, concentrated sulfuric acid (H_2SO_4) is the most powerful solvent for all organic pigments, having the ability to dissolve

virtually all pigments of this type. A series of solvents is listed according to their solubility parameter (defined as a measure of the cohesive energy which must be overcome in the solution process), in which the components of the solubility parameter include dispersion, dipole and hydrogen bonding. Useful solvents include pentane, cyclohexane, carbon tetrachloride, toluene, xylene, chloroform, methylene chloride, ethyl acetate, acetone, pyridine, ethanol, dimethyl formamide (DMF) and methanol. It is important to consider the effect the solvents will have on the absorption maxima; while these shifts may be useful for identification of the pigment using solution spectrometry, the shifts may provide misleading information pertaining to molecular resonances. This is especially the case with concentrated sulfuric acid, in which the authors note that there are often drastic shifts in absorption maxima and visible color changes when using this solvent (pp. 308). H_2SO_4 is not only a solvent, but also a sulfonation reagent and catalyst that can cause acid hydrolysis of amide bonds (Zollinger, 2003, pp. 414).

According to Billmeyer, *et.al.*, pigment yellow 3 will dissolve in all of the solvents tested but gave different spectra depending on solvent polarity, with a hypsochromic shift occurring with polar solvents and a bathochromic shift occurring with conc. H_2SO_4 (1981, pp. 308). Pigment reds 146 and 170 were found to be mostly soluble in all solvents tested with the exception of cyclohexane. Their behavior is reported as being similar to that of pigment yellow 3 (1981, pp. 309). Disazo pigments, such as pigment orange 16 and pigment yellow 83 are soluble in toluene, xylene, chloroform, DMF and conc. H_2SO_4 (1981, pp. 309). Pigment violet 23 was reported as being soluble in weakly polar solvents such as toluene, xylene and chloroform, insoluble in acetone and methanol, and soluble in DMF and H_2SO_4 . The authors add that in DMF and H_2SO_4 , the solutions are fluorescent (1981, pp. 309). Pigment red 122 is soluble in ethanol: NaOH (9:1), DMF and H_2SO_4 . These solutions also exhibit fluorescence (1981, pp.

309). The phthalocyanines (pigment blue 15 and pigment green 7) are reported as being only soluble in conc. H_2SO_4 . The authors add that the absorption maxima of these solutions are shifted from the visible region to the near infrared (between 800 and 900nm) (1981, pp. 309-310).

Of important note in their research, the authors assert that Beer's law holds for solutions of inorganic pigments in the solvents used, allowing for the possibility of quantitative analysis to be conducted in addition to the qualitative analysis presented. In addition, an analytical scheme is provided by the authors in order to facilitate the separation and identification of samples that may be composed of two or more pigments (Billmeyer, *et. al.*, 1981, pp. 311-312).

UV/Vis measurements were made with a Shimadzu UV-2550 UV/Vis spectrophotometer. Pigment standard samples and pigment extracts from the selected tattoo inks were dissolved in concentrated hydrochloric acid and placed in a 1mm path length fused silica cuvette. Concentrated sulfuric acid was used as the solvent in order to ensure complete dissolution of the pigment. Although this solvent can have a great effect on the molecular chemistry of the pigments, it is well-suited for the dissolution of the phthalocyanines and their metal complexes. Furthermore, for identification and comparison, it was important to maintain a single solvent system for all pigments. It is also important to note that the UV/Vis analysis and corresponding solution chemistry were intended for qualitative, not quantitative analysis (thus strict adherence Beer's Law was not factored into the spectroscopic analysis). The initial color change upon addition of the pigment particles into the concentrated sulfuric acid was recorded, and absorption measurements were extended beyond the visible region of the electromagnetic spectrum (approximately 400nm-700nm) into the near infrared region (to approximately 900nm) to account for any bathochromic and hypsochromic shifts due to the use of the conc. H_2SO_4 (as

reported by Billmeyer, *et. al.*, 1981). The samples were analyzed against a solvent blank of concentrated sulfuric acid. Holmium oxide and didymium glass reference spectra were obtained in order to ensure the UV/Vis instrument was calibrated prior to sample analysis. Instrument settings were set at the following:

Wavelength range (Absorbance, x axis): 200-1000nm

Scan speed: Medium

Sampling Interval: 0.5nm

Slit Width: 1nm



Figure 42. Shimadzu UV-2550 UV/Vis spectrophotometer [John Jay College of Criminal Justice, CUNY].

The color of the pigment before and after dissolution in concentrated H_2SO_4 was noted in an effort to make preliminary assessments about absorption and to determine whether or not a bathochromic or hypsochromic shift may have occurred upon dissolving in the concentrated acid. It has also been suggested that upon separation of pigment mixtures by thin layer chromatography (TLC), spraying the plate with concentrated H_2SO_4 can provide a useful color test to determine pigment class (Thomson, 1977, pp. 434).

λ Wavelength absorbed (\AA)	Color observed (transmitted)
4000 (violet)	greenish-yellow
4250 (dark blue)	yellow
4500 (blue)	orange
4900 (blue-green)	red
5100 (green)	purple
5300 (yellow-green)	violet
5500 (yellow)	dark blue
5900 (orange)	blue
6400 (red)	bluish-green
7300 (purple)	green

Table 10. Relationship between absorption and transmission (Adapted from Juster, 1962, pp. 596).

Method Development

A general scheme of analysis for tattoo inks includes microscopic examination (such as polarized light microscopy to determine optical properties in addition to particle dispersion and particle size), wet chemistry (solvent extractions and solubility testing) and instrumental analysis (UV/Vis, Raman spectroscopy, infrared spectroscopy). Additional analytical techniques to determine the inorganic composition of the tattoo inks should be conducted to include bulk x-ray fluorescence (XRF) or electron microprobe analysis using low vacuum SEM/EDS instrumentation (although care should be taken in interpretation due to the potential difference in results from a bulk technique and a more area specific technique such as SEM/EDS). Chromatography can also be used to identify ink composition, including thin layer chromatography (TLC), gas chromatography (GC) and high performance liquid chromatography (HPLC) All techniques employed should consider both the pigment portion and vehicle portion of the tattoo inks.

Density Functional Theory (DFT) Calculations

Of the tattoo ink samples obtained for this study, only the Skin Candy brand lists the pigments in the ingredients section of the label (and provides MSDS sheets). Three pigments from the Skin Candy Tattoo Inks were selected for DFT calculations, selection was made based on the following criteria: the pigment composition of the tattoo ink (only pigments with one pigment listed according to the ingredients list were considered to avoid any affects from pigment mixtures), the type of pigment (chemical class and structure) making up the ink, and the resultant spectra of the tattoo inks and pigment standards obtained from instrumental analysis using infrared and Raman spectroscopies. Pigment red 170 (monoazo), found in Red Hot tattoo ink, was selected because all of the normal Raman spectra of the tattoo ink were considered good quality (a substantial amount of bands were detected and the bands were well resolved). Pigment red 122 (quinacridone), found in Razberry Creem tattoo ink was selected because none of the normal Raman spectra of the tattoo ink would be considered good quality; all spectra exhibited fluorescence and little to no peaks were resolved. Pigment orange 16 (disazo; found in Marz tattoo ink) produced moderate quality Raman spectra, where the overall quality of the spectra were dependent upon the laser excitation wavelength.

Some of the known, listed pigments were evaluated via group theory (to determine the symmetry elements of the pigment molecule) followed by entering these selected pigment molecules into DFT calculation software in order to obtain the predicted Raman and infrared spectra. A comparison of the experimentally observed Raman (normal, Fourier transform and SERS) and infrared spectra for selected pigment molecules with the theoretical DFT (mathematically generated spectra) was conducted to evaluate the correlation between experimental and calculated vibrational spectra.

The molecules were generated using ChemDraw and imported in to GaussView5™ (Gaussian, Inc., Wallingford, CT) to build the molecule, followed by entering the molecule into the Gaussian03™ software (Gaussian, Inc., Wallingford, CT) to conduct the computational chemistry portion. GaussView5™ is a graphical interface that enables the building and defining of features of molecular structures for submission to Gaussian03™ and subsequent retrieval of calculations from Gaussian03™. Gaussian03™ is a software program that predicts molecular structures, molecular properties, energies and vibrational frequencies using fundamental quantum mechanics. After defining the molecule and setting up the desired parameters for analysis in GaussView5™, Gaussian03™ was used to predict vibrational Raman and infrared spectra, which was then compared to experimental spectra. The Gaussian03™ software assumes harmonic frequencies, in which the change in dipole moment is linearly proportional to nuclear displacement. As described previously, most molecules are more accurately characterized as anharmonic systems.

The pigment molecules were made planar initially with the exception of Pigment Red 170 where it was not possible to achieve planarity. In GaussView5™, the molecules were “cleaned” in order to correct for bond angles and bond lengths and any additional geometric oddities. This process is done to prevent errors in the DFT analysis, where errors such as closeness of adjacent or localized atoms could stop the DFT calculation. This assessment of the molecule is a subjective process in which the analyst and the Gaussian program re-orient the molecule so that it looks structurally sound. Although “cleaned” and restructured, the planarity of the molecules was maintained.

All molecules were subjected to an optimization process in Gaussian prior to running the DFT calculations, in which the Gaussian program attempts to orient the molecule in its lowest

energy structure in order to minimize the total energy of the ground state as a function of the molecule's electron density. The optimization was done using the STO3G (Slater-type orbital in which three Gaussian orbitals are fit) minimal basis set, which is used to make a preliminary determination of the geometry of an organic molecule.

After completion of the initial optimization, the resultant molecules were subjected to a second optimization and frequency calculation in order to generate vibrational spectra. The basis set used was 6-311G d,p with no diffuse functions applied. The frequency calculation method used was RB3LYP (described as density functional Becke's three parameter hybrid method which uses the LYP correlation function). Point groups were not assigned and the symmetry elements were not considered for the molecules.

After minimizing the energy of the molecule and optimizing the molecule's geometry, the Raman and infrared spectra were obtained with the Gaussian software. The frequencies of the spectra are obtained by determining the change in energy that results from the molecular displacements from the normal modes of vibration. Several differences are noted between the experimental and calculated spectra, including the matrix effects of the molecule. Gaussian assumes one pigment molecule in a vacuum, while the actual experimental techniques were done on pigments within a tattoo ink matrix (ingredients are described on each ink's bottle) and pigments extracted from this tattoo ink. These differences can account for the presence or absence of bands, band shifting, band heights and relative band intensities, since each individual vibration in a molecule is not isolated, but is coupled with and affected by other vibrations.

Pigskin Study

The initial portion of this research project was directed towards the evaluation and characterization of tattoo inks since, while there is an abundance of literature concerning organic pigments, there is a deficiency in the amount of comprehensive analytical information concerning tattoo ink composition and chemistry. Reference material, instrumental libraries or standard operating procedures need to be developed for the analysis and identification of tattoo inks. Upon completion of the analysis portion of the neat tattoo inks, a study of tattoo inks in tissue was conducted. Known tattoo ink was injected into pigskin using a tattoo gun and standard tattooing procedures and an attempt to analyze the inks in a minimally invasive fashion was conducted. The tattooed pigskin was preserved by freezing of tissues and storing the tissues in formalin (1:10 dilution, buffered-- formaldehyde, sodium phosphate, deionized water) in order to assess the effect of preservation on the tissue and tattoo ink. Formalin fixation preserves the tissue by preventing autolysis and stabilizing tissue structure and formalin fixation promotes the cross-linkage of amine groups in collagen (Huang, *et.al.*, 2003, pp. 649, 650)

An attempt to analyze the tissue sample directly was conducted first. If the ink was not detected by direct analysis then histological sectioning and affixing the tattooed tissue to slides in order to microscopically observe the pigment particles within the tissue and isolate the particles for spectral analysis would be considered. If it is not possible to detect the pigment particles in the tissues directly by either direct or sectioning methods, an attempt to extract the pigment from the tissues using hydroxyl gel techniques (as described by Leona, *et. al.*, 2011) was considered as an alternative. In addition, attempts to introduce silver nanoparticles on to the surface of the tissue or inject them into the tissue followed by SERS could serve as an alternative to detect the tattoo ink in the tissue.

A section of pigskin was obtained from a local butcher and stored in a refrigerator prior to tattooing. A tattoo artist was directed to tattoo two series of seven successive dots into the pigskin using the same Skin Candy tattoo inks analyzed in this research as follows:

White Girl, Red Hot, Marz, Blisterine, Tastywaves, Muddy Water Blue, Ripple

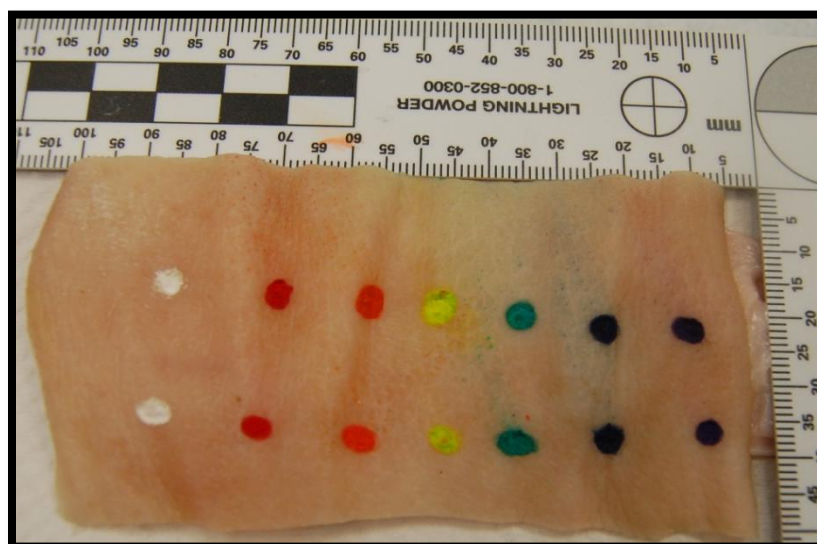


Figure 43. Tattooing of pigskin and resultant tattoos.

The skin was cut in between the two rows, with one set of colored dots being placed in formalin (1:10 dilution, buffered) and the other row being frozen. The tattooed skin samples

were then analyzed with the dispersive Raman using the three laser excitation wavelengths available (488nm, 633nm, 785nm).

A correlation to the resultant data with effects of the environmental conditions that produce post-mortem changes in tissue such as charring, decomposition and mummification are made. Consideration is also given to the possibility of detecting tattoo inks and pigments in instances where the tissue has healed and the pigment was able to migrate deeper into the skin. A proposed timed study analyzing a tattoo via Raman spectroscopy as the pigments migrate into the deeper layers of tissue and as the tissue heals is presented. The goal is to develop a method for detecting tattoo inks *in situ* with the most minimally invasive techniques, including conducting an analysis without the need to excise tissue from the body. Due to the current trends towards hand-held Raman spectrometers, this would be ideal and allow for more routine analysis of living and cadaveric tissue, and tissue in which removal of samples is undesired or nearly impossible, such as forensic specimens of limited size and historical samples in museums.

Summary

The Iron Works Brasil Tattoo Inks were examined and photographed microscopically and instrumentally analyzed with dispersive micro-Raman (488nm, 633nm, and 785nm excitation wavelengths), SERS (488nm), FT-Raman (1064nm), FT-IR (ATR) and XRF. The various Raman spectra of these inks were compared to evaluate that variation in techniques and laser excitation wavelength. A comparison of the dispersive Raman spectrum at 488nm was compared to the SERS spectrum obtained at 488nm for each ink in order to validate the use of SERS in routine analytical work. In addition, these inks were compared to pigment standards and libraries in an effort to determine the pigment composition of the tattoo inks.

The Flying Tigers Tattoo Inks were examined and photographed microscopically and instrumentally analyzed with dispersive micro-Raman (488nm, 633nm, and 785nm excitation wavelengths), FT-Raman (1064nm), FT-IR (ATR) and XRF. In addition, the Flying Tigers Tattoo Inks were subjected to the extraction method described earlier. The extracts were instrumentally analyzed with dispersive micro-Raman (488nm, 633nm, and 785nm excitation wavelengths). The various Raman spectra of these inks were compared to evaluate that variation in techniques and laser excitation wavelength. In addition, the dispersive micro-Raman spectra of the tattoo inks were compared to those of the pigment extractions to evaluate the usefulness of conducting extractions on tattoo inks. These inks were compared to pigment standards and libraries in an effort to determine the pigment composition of the tattoo inks.

The Skin Candy Tattoo Inks were examined and photographed microscopically and instrumentally analyzed with dispersive micro-Raman (488nm, 633nm, and 785nm excitation wavelengths), SERS (488nm), FT-Raman (1064nm), FT-IR (ATR) and XRF. In addition, the Skin Candy Tattoo Inks were subjected to the extraction method described earlier. The extracts

were instrumentally analyzed with dispersive micro-Raman (488nm, 633nm, and 785nm excitation wavelengths), FT- Raman (1064nm), FT-IR (ATR) and UV/Vis. The various Raman spectra of these inks were compared to evaluate that variation in techniques and laser excitation wavelength. A comparison of the dispersive Raman spectrum at 488nm was compared to the SERS spectrum obtained at 488nm for each ink in order to validate the use of SERS in routine analytical work. The Raman (normal and FT) and FT-IR spectra of the tattoo inks were compared to those of the pigment extractions to evaluate the usefulness of conducting extractions on tattoo inks. The resultant UV/Vis spectra were described and compared to that of known pigment standards. In addition, these inks were compared to pigment standards and libraries in an effort to determine the pigment composition of the tattoo inks.

The selection of known pigments were instrumentally analyzed with dispersive micro-Raman (488nm, 633nm, 785nm and 1064nm excitation wavelengths), SERS (488nm), FT-IR (ATR) and UV/Vis.

The pigments found in three of the Skin Candy Tattoo Inks (Red Hot-Pigment Red 170, Marz- Pigment Orange 16, and Razberry Creem- Pigment Red 122) were subjected to DFT calculations in order to compare the experimental spectral data (Raman and infrared) with the calculated spectral data. For the resultant spectra, the Raman bands were correlated to vibrational modes considering group theory and molecular symmetry. Assignment of vibrational modes to resultant bands was conducted.

A selection of Skin Candy Tattoo Inks (specifically White Girl, Red Hot, Marz, Blisterine, Tastywaves, Muddy Water Blue, Ripple) were used to tattoo pigskin. First, direct analysis using dispersive micro-Raman was conducted in an attempt to detect the inks. Other methods were considered as alternatives. Upon obtaining spectral data, the tattoo inks in pigskin

were compared to the original data obtained when the tattoo inks were analyzed directly on the microscope slides. Additional consideration was given to environmental factors that may affect the tissue in 'real world' cases and time-studies that result in the healing process and pigment migration.

All spectra played an integral part in establishing analytical methodology and searchable databases, both for tattoo inks in general and with regard to the specific instrumental techniques employed (namely dispersive Raman, FT-Raman, SERS and FT-IR/ATR). Furthermore, this research was able to validate SERS as a viable technique for use in conservation and forensic laboratories.

The following data tables summarize samples analyzed and techniques employed in analysis:

	Normal Raman (Dispersive)			SERS	FT Raman	FT-IR	XRF	Microscopy	(extraction)
	488nm	633nm	785nm						
IRON WORKS BRASIL- Tattoo Inks									
Vermelho	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	NA
Pink	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	NA
Citrus	x	x	x	ND	x	x	x	x	NA
Amarelo Canario	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	NA
Amarelo Fluor	x	x	x	ND	x	x	x	x	NA
Verde Claro	x	x	x	ND	x	x	x	x	NA
Azul Royal	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	NA
Magenta	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	NA
Lilas Claro	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	NA
Preto Escuro	x	x	x	NA	x	x	x	x	NA

LEGEND: x- analyzed; NA- not analyzed; ND- analyzed, no or poor data obtained; √-extracted; *-KBr (FT-Raman)

	Normal Raman (Dispersive)			SERS	FT Raman	FT-IR	XRF	Microscopy	(extraction)
	488nm	633nm	785nm	488nm	1064nm	Durascope			
SKIN CANDY- Tattoo Inks									
Candy Apple Red	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	√
Red Hot	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	√
Marz	x	x	x	ND	x	x	x	x	√
Dolemite	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	√
Blisterene	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	√
Sassygrass	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	√
Tastywaves	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	√
Bell Bottom Blue	x	x	x	ND	x	x	x	x	√
S.R.V. Teal 2	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	√
Razberry Creem	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	√
Muddy Water Blue	x	x	x	ND	x	x	x	x	√
Ripple	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	√
San Brownadino	x	x	x	x	ND	x	x	x	√
Black Cherry Roan 1	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	x	NA
Black Cherry Roan 2	x	x	x	NA	ND	x	NA	x	√
Black Cherry Roan 3	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	x	NA
Tokyo Pink	x	x	x	ND	x	x	x	x	√
White Girl	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	NA

LEGEND: x- analyzed; NA- not analyzed; ND- analyzed, no or poor data obtained; √-extracted; *-KBr (FT-Raman)

	Normal Raman (Dispersive)			SERS	FT Raman	FT-IR	XRF	Microscopy	(extraction)
	488nm	633nm	785nm						
FLYING TIGERS- Tattoo Inks									
Salmon Pink	x	x	x	NA	x	x	x	x	√
Pink Red	x	x	x	NA	ND*	x	x	x	√
Magenta	x	x	x	NA	x	x	x	x	√
Chinese Red	x	x	x	NA	x	x	x	x	√
Bright Red	x	x	x	NA	x	x	x	x	√
Rose Red	x	x	x	NA	x	x	x	x	√
Mulberry	x	x	x	NA	x	x	x	x	√
Dark Red	x	x	x	NA	x	x	x	x	√
Orange Red	x	x	x	NA	x	x	x	x	√
Orange	x	x	x	NA	x	x	x	x	√
Bright Yellow	x	x	x	NA	x	x	x	x	√
Mid-Yellow	x	x	x	NA	x	x	x	x	√
Yellow	x	x	x	NA	x	x	x	x	√
Golden Yellow	x	x	x	NA	x	x	x	x	√
Khaki	x	x	x	NA	x	x	x	x	√
Grass Hopper	x	x	x	NA	x	x	x	x	√
Light Green	x	x	x	NA	x	x	x	x	√
Verdancy	x	x	x	NA	x	x	x	x	√
Lawngreen	x	x	x	NA	x	x	x	x	√
Dark Green	x	x	x	NA	x	x	x	x	√
Blue Sky	x	x	x	NA	x	x	x	x	√
Turquoise Blue	x	x	x	NA	x	x	x	x	√

LEGEND: x- analyzed; NA- not analyzed; ND- analyzed, no or poor data obtained; √-extracted; *-KBr (FT-Raman)

Cyan	x	x	x	NA	x	x	x	x	√
Dark Cyan	x	x	x	NA	x	x	x	x	√
Blue	x	x	x	NA	x	x	x	x	√
Navy Blue	x	x	x	NA	x	x	x	x	√
Dark Blue	x	x	x	NA	x	x	x	x	√
Grape	x	x	x	NA	x	x	x	x	√
Purple	x	x	x	NA	x*	x	x	x	√
Violet	x	x	x	NA	x	x	x	x	√
Grey	x	x	x	NA	ND	x	x	x	√
Bright Black	x	x	x	NA	ND	x	x	x	√
Black	x	x	x	NA	ND	x	x	x	√
Eggplant Black	x	x	x	NA	ND	x	x	x	√
Dark Black	x	x	x	NA	ND	x	x	x	√
Sayonara Suede	x	x	x	NA	ND	x	x	x	√
Dark Brown	x	x	x	NA	ND	x	x	x	√
Light Chocolate	x	x	x	NA	ND	x	x	x	√
Skin Tone	x	x	x	NA	ND	x	x	x	√
White	x	x	x	NA	x	x	x	x	√

LEGEND: x- analyzed; NA- not analyzed; ND- analyzed, no or poor data obtained; √-extracted; *-KBr (FT-Raman)

	Normal Raman (Dispersive)			SERS	FT Raman	FT-IR	XRF	Microscopy	UV/Vis (extraction)
	488nm	633nm	785nm						
SKIN CANDY- Pigment Extracts									
Candy Apple Red	x	x	x	NA	x	x	NA	NA	x
Red Hot	x	x	x	NA	x	x	NA	NA	x
Marz	x	x	x	NA	x	x	NA	NA	x
Dolemite	x	x	x	NA	x	x	NA	NA	x
Blisterene	x	x	x	NA	x	x	NA	NA	x
Sassygrass	x	x	x	NA	x	x	NA	NA	x
Tastywaves	x	x	x	NA	x	x	NA	NA	x
Bell Bottom Blue	x	x	x	NA	x	x	NA	NA	x
S.R.V. Teal 2	x	x	x	NA	x	x	NA	NA	x
Razberry Creem	x	x	x	NA	x	x	NA	NA	x
Muddy Water Blue	x	x	x	NA	x	x	NA	NA	x
Ripple	x	x	x	NA	x*	x	NA	NA	x
San Brownadino	x	x	x	NA	x*	x	NA	NA	x
Black Cherry Roan 1	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA
Black Cherry Roan 2	x	x	x	NA	ND	x	NA	NA	x
Black Cherry Roan 3	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA
Tokyo Pink	x	x	x	NA	ND	x	NA	NA	x
White Girl	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	x	NA	NA	NA

LEGEND: x- analyzed; NA- not analyzed; ND- analyzed, no or poor data obtained; √-extracted; *-KBr (FT-Raman)

	Normal Raman (Dispersive)		
	488nm	633nm	785nm
FLYING TIGERS- Pigment Extracts			
Salmon Pink	x	x	x
Pink Red	x	x	x
Magenta	x	x	x
Chinese Red	x	x	x
Bright Red	x	x	x
Rose Red	x	x	x
Mulberry	x	x	x
Dark Red	x	x	x
Orange Red	x	x	x
Orange	x	x	x
Bright Yellow	x	x	x
Mid-Yellow	x	x	x
Yellow	x	x	x
Golden Yellow	x	x	x
Khaki	x	x	x
Grass Hopper	x	x	x
Light Green	x	x	x
Verdancy	x	x	x
Lawngreen	x	x	x

LEGEND: x- analyzed; NA- not analyzed; ND- analyzed, no or poor data obtained; √-extracted; *-KBr (FT-Raman)

Dark Green	x	x	x
Blue Sky	x	x	x
Turquoise Blue	x	x	x
Cyan	x	x	x
Dark Cyan	x	x	x
Blue	x	x	x
Navy Blue	x	x	x
Dark Blue	x	x	x
Grape	x	x	x
Purple	x	x	x
Violet	x	x	x
Grey	x	x	x
Bright Black	x	x	x
Black	x	x	x
Eggplant Black	x	x	x
Dark Black	x	x	x
Sayonara Suede	x	x	x
Dark Brown	x	x	x
Light Chocolate	x	x	x
Skin Tone	x	x	x
White	x	x	x

LEGEND: x- analyzed; NA- not analyzed; ND- analyzed, no or poor data obtained; √-extracted; *-KBr (FT-Raman)

	Normal Raman (Dispersive)			SERS	FT Raman	FT-IR	Microscopy	UV/Vis	DFT
	488nm	633nm	785nm						
KNOWN PIGMENTS									
Pigment Blue 15	x	x	x	x	NA	x	NA	x	NA
Pigment Blue 15.1	x	x	x	NA	NA	x	NA	NA	NA
Pigment Blue 15.2	x	x	x	NA	NA	x	NA	NA	NA
Pigment Blue 15.3	x	x	x	NA	NA	x	NA	NA	NA
Pigment Green 7	x	x	x	x	x	x	NA	x	NA
Pigment Orange 16	x	x	x	x	x	x	NA	x	x
Pigment Orange 34	x	x	x	x	x	x	NA	x	NA
Pigment Orange 62	x	x	x	x	NA	x	NA	x	NA
Pigment Red 122	x	x	x	x	ND	x	NA	x	x
Pigment Red 146	x	x	x	x	x	x	NA	x	NA
Pigment Red 170	x	x	x	x	x	x	NA	x	x
Pigment Red 255	x	x	x	x	NA	x	NA	x	NA
Pigment Yellow 3	x	x	x	x	NA	x	NA	x	NA
Pigment Yellow 73	x	x	x	x	NA	x	NA	x	NA
Pigment Yellow 83	x	x	x	x	NA	x	NA	x	NA
Pigment Yellow 151	x	x	x	x	NA	x	NA	x	NA
Pigment Violet 23 a	x	x	x	x	ND	x	NA	x	NA
Pigment Violet 23 b	x	x	x	x	x	x	NA	x	NA

LEGEND: x- analyzed; NA- not analyzed; ND- analyzed, no or poor data obtained; √-extracted; *-KBr (FT-Raman)

	Normal Raman (Dispersive)		
	488nm	633nm	785nm
PIGSKIN			
<i>7 SC Dots (Frozen)</i>	x	x	x
<i>7 SC Dots (Fixed)</i>	x	x	x

LEGEND: x- analyzed; NA- not analyzed; ND- analyzed, no or poor data obtained; √-extracted; *-KBr (FT-Raman)

Chapter 4: Results & Discussion

The Iron Works Brasil Tattoo Inks were examined and photographed microscopically and instrumentally analyzed with dispersive micro-Raman (488nm, 633nm, and 785nm excitation wavelengths), SERS (488nm excitation wavelength), FT-Raman (1064nm excitation wavelength), FT-IR (ATR) and XRF. The Flying Tigers Tattoo Inks were examined and photographed microscopically and instrumentally analyzed with dispersive micro-Raman (488nm, 633nm, and 785nm excitation wavelengths), FT-Raman (1064nm excitation wavelength), FT-IR (ATR) and XRF. In addition, the Flying Tigers Tattoo Inks were subjected to the extraction method described earlier. The extracts were instrumentally analyzed with dispersive micro-Raman (488nm, 633nm, and 785nm excitation wavelengths). The Skin Candy Tattoo Inks were examined and photographed microscopically and instrumentally analyzed with dispersive micro-Raman (488nm, 633nm, and 785nm excitation wavelengths), SERS (488nm excitation wavelength), FT-Raman (1064nm excitation wavelength), FT-IR (ATR) and XRF. In addition, the Skin Candy Tattoo Inks were subjected to the extraction method described earlier. The extracts were instrumentally analyzed with dispersive micro-Raman (488nm, 633nm, and 785nm excitation wavelengths), FT-Raman (1064nm excitation wavelength), FT-IR (ATR) and UV/Vis. Photographs and spectra for the tattoo inks can be found in Appendix D and photographs and spectra for the tattoo ink pigment extractions can be found in Appendix E.

The selection of known pigments were instrumentally analyzed with dispersive micro-Raman (488nm, 633nm, and 785nm excitation wavelengths), SERS (488nm excitation wavelength), FT-Raman (1064nm excitation wavelength), FT-IR (ATR) and UV/Vis. Spectra for these pigment standards can be found in Appendix F. A selection of pigment reference spectra reported in the literature is provided in Appendix I.

The pigments found in three of the Skin Candy Tattoo Inks (Pigment Red 170 [Red Hot], Pigment Orange 16 [Marz], and Pigment Red 122 [Razberry Creem]) were subjected to DFT calculations in order to compare the experimental vibrational spectra with the calculated vibrational spectra. DFT data and spectra for these pigments can be found in Appendix J. Any band assignments and interpretations of normal vibrational modes and associated molecular species were assisted with the use of the Table of Raman Bands (Appendix A), Correlation Charts (Appendix B) and Character Tables (Appendix C).

A selection of Skin Candy Tattoo Inks (specifically White Girl, Red Hot, Marz, Blisterine, Tastywaves, Muddy Water Blue, Ripple) were used to tattoo pigskin and analyzed directly with dispersive micro-Raman. Spectra for these tattoo inks can be found in Appendix G.

Prior to every sample analysis, a selection of reference standards were analyzed to ensure that each particular instrument was calibrated and to ensure that the instrument settings were correct. Reference spectra (both experimental and reference from the literature) pertaining to instrument calibration and validation procedures can be found in Appendix H.

NOTE: All Raman, infrared and UV/Vis band assignments were reported to five significant figures.

Results-Pigment Standards

The pigment standards were examined first to evaluate their band locations relative to those reported in the literature¹ and in order to assign characteristic vibrational modes to the primary functional groups of the pigment molecule. Comparison of normal Raman and SERS spectra were also conducted with the pigment standards. General observations followed by correlation of the experimental data to the literature of the resultant spectra for the pigments are summarized:

Pigment Red 122- With an increase in the excitation wavelength (λ_0) from 488nm to 785nm, there is a substantial decrease in signal observed. The best normal Raman spectrum was obtained with $\lambda_0=488$ nm. No spectrum was generated using the FT-Raman, even after mixing the pigment with KBr in order to minimize sample heating and reduce fluorescence. The spectrum obtained with SERS corresponds to the peaks observed with the normal Raman spectrum at $\lambda_0=488$ nm. There was not any apparent signal enhancement observed going from normal Raman to SERS at this excitation wavelength. The FT-IR/ATR spectrum generated a number of well-resolved peaks; the peaks characteristic of quinacridones apparent with the series of peaks in the region of 1630-1550 cm^{-1} , and the peaks located at 1472 cm^{-1} and 1335 cm^{-1} . With regard to UV/Vis, the absorbance maximum of Pigment Red 122 was 302.0nm, likely a bathochromic shift that resulted from the solvent system (conc. H_2SO_4). This is supported by the change in color observed (red to a bluish-red, or purple shade). Correlation can be made between the

¹ In the literature, the peaks are labeled very strong (vs), strong (s) and medium to strong (m-s), *etc.* by the authors (a subjective determination based on peak intensities of the resultant spectra). These ‘strong’ peaks were compared to the experimental data. Full spectra and peak assignments from the literature can be found in Appendix I. The experimental spectra used for comparison were selected based on which λ_0 for that particular pigment exhibited the highest number of peaks and best peak resolution. If there was more than one spectrum that fit the criteria, the spectrum with the λ_0 closely matching the λ_0 of the literature was selected.

experimental data and reported data for PR 122 (using Scherrer *et.al.*, 2009 and Schulte *et.al.*, 2008).

Scherrer *et.al.*: ($\lambda_0=514\text{nm}$) 1649s, 1597s, 1568vs, 1311s

Schulte *et. al.*: ($\lambda_0=476.5\text{nm}$) 1645s, 1565s, 1309s

Experimental: ($\lambda_0=488\text{nm}$): 1644.5, 1595.8, 1566.8, 1310.7 (note: no bands were resolved from $700\text{-}1200\text{cm}^{-1}$ limiting peak correlation to reported data).

A detailed explanation of the vibrational modes and band assignments for pigment red 122 (a quinacridone) can be found in the DFT portion of the Results & Discussion section.

Pigment Red 146-Raman bands were resolved with Raman spectra at $\lambda_0=488\text{nm}$, 785nm and 1064nm. Overwhelming fluorescence was observed with $\lambda_0=633\text{nm}$ and no useful data were obtained at this excitation wavelength. The spectrum obtained with SERS corresponds to the peaks observed with the normal Raman spectrum at $\lambda_0=488\text{nm}$. Signal enhancement was observed when going from normal Raman to SERS as well as resolution of peaks not observed in the normal Raman spectrum. The FT-IR/ATR spectrum generated a number of well-resolved peaks. With regard to UV/Vis, the absorbance maximum of Pigment Red 146 was 317.0nm, likely a bathochromic shift that resulted from the solvent system (conc. H_2SO_4). This is supported by the change in color observed (red to a bluish-red, or purple shade). Correlation can be made between the experimental data and reported data for PR 146 (using Scherrer *et.al.*, 2009 and Schulte *et.al.*, 2008).

Scherrer *et.al.*: ($\lambda_0=785\text{nm}$): 1582vs, 1508s, 1427s, 1363vs, 1316s, 1293s, 956s

Schulte *et.al.*: ($\lambda_0=1064\text{nm}$): 1582vs, 1508s, 1428s, 1363s

Experimental: ($\lambda_0=488\text{nm}$): 1581.9, 1508.3, 1426.7, 1363.7, 955.79

Pigment Red 146 exhibits bands characteristic of a monoazo. Specifically, the C-N symmetric stretch at 1157 cm^{-1} and the N=N stretching at 1426 and 1449 cm^{-1} . In addition, the characteristic bands associated with naphthalene can be found at 955 , 1363 , 1552 and 1581 cm^{-1} .

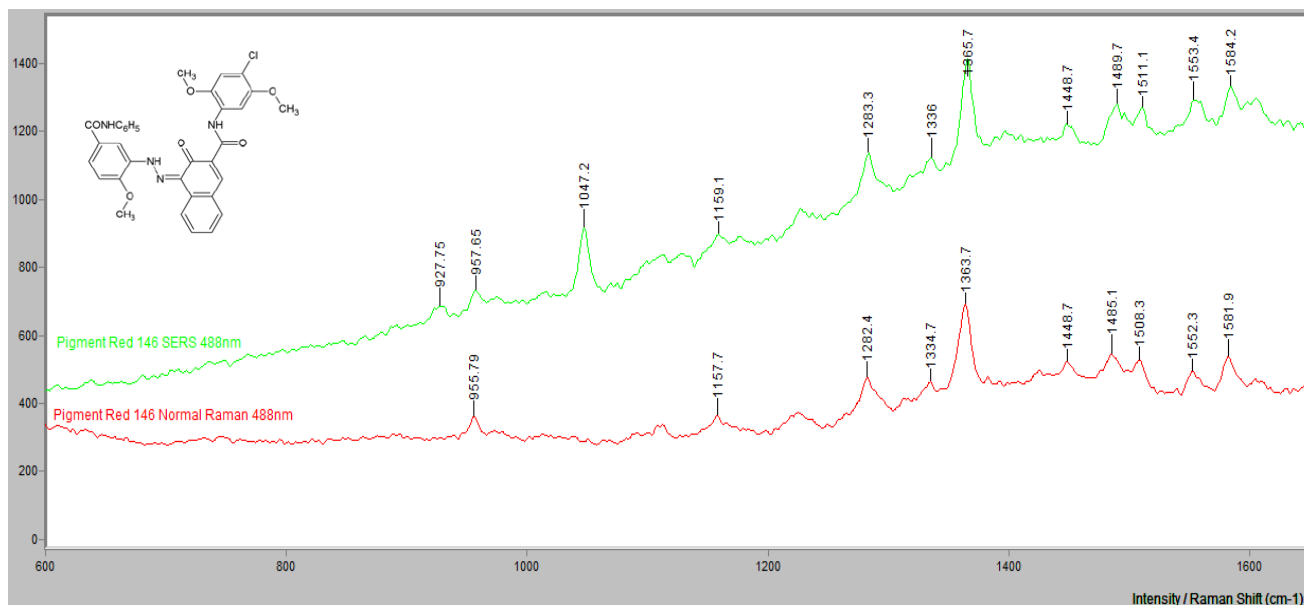


Figure 44. Comparison of Pigment Red 146 obtained with normal Raman (red) and SERS (green), $\lambda_0=488\text{ nm}$

Pigment Red 170- Bands were resolved with Raman spectra at all four excitation wavelengths. The best normal Raman spectrum was with $\lambda_0=633\text{ nm}$. The spectrum obtained with SERS corresponds to the bands observed with the normal Raman spectrum at $\lambda_0=488\text{ nm}$. Substantial signal enhancement was observed when going from normal Raman to SERS as well as resolution of bands not observed in the normal Raman spectrum. The FT-IR/ATR spectrum generated a number of well-resolved peaks. With regard to UV/Vis, the absorbance maximum of Pigment Red 170 was 312.50 nm , similar to that of Pigment Red 146. Correlation can be made between the experimental data and reported data for PR 170 (using Scherrer *et.al.*, 2009 and Vandenaabeele *et.al.*, 2000).

Scherrer *et.al.*: ($\lambda_0=785\text{ nm}$): $1606\text{ vs. }1513\text{ s, }1363\text{ vs. }1289\text{ s, }1164\text{ s}$

Vandenabeele *et.al.*: ($\lambda_0=780\text{nm}$): 1363vs, 1605m-s

Experimental: ($\lambda_0=633\text{nm}$): 1604.9, 1511.7, 1362.1, 1286.8, 1164

A detailed explanation of the vibrational modes and band assignments for pigment red 170 (a monoazo) can be found in the DFT portion of the Results & Discussion section. Characteristic bands of a monoazo and naphthalene were found.

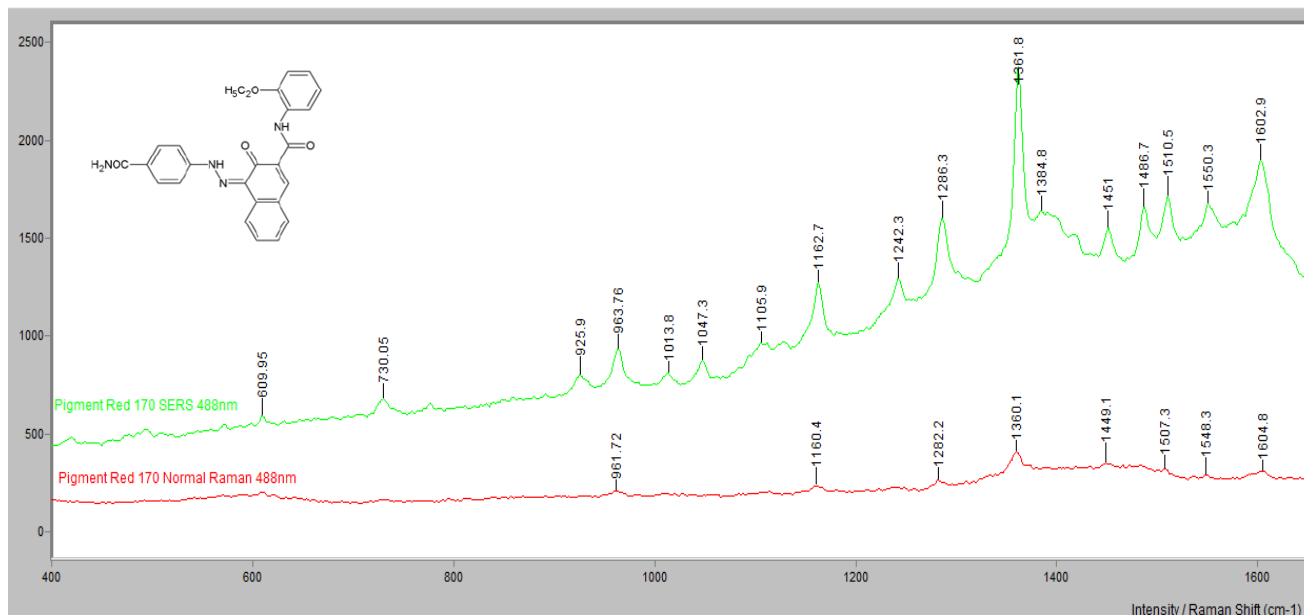


Figure 45. Comparison of Pigment Red 170 obtained with normal Raman (red) and SERS (green), $\lambda_0=488\text{nm}$

Pigment Red 255- Pigment Red 255 is classified as a polycyclic diketopyrrolo-pyrrole, and has a structure different from the azo pigments that characterize many of the red pigments. Bands were resolved with normal Raman spectra with all three excitation wavelengths. The best normal Raman spectrum was with $\lambda_0=785\text{nm}$. The spectrum obtained with SERS corresponds to the peaks observed with the normal Raman spectrum at $\lambda_0=488\text{nm}$. Signal enhancement was observed when going from normal Raman to SERS. The FT-IR/ATR spectrum generated a number of well-resolved peaks. With regard to UV/Vis, the absorbance maximum of Pigment Red 255 was 521.50nm. This absorbance shift to a longer wavelength is in contrast to the

apparent color change observations in which the red/orange color of Pigment Red 255 changes to a yellow color upon introduction of conc. H_2SO_4 . Correlation can be made between the experimental data and reported data for PR 255 (using Scherrer *et.al.*, 2009).

Scherrer *et.al.*: ($\lambda_0=785\text{nm}$): 1602vs, 1586s, 1562s, 1346vs, 1051s, 999s, 931s, 318s

Experimental: ($\lambda_0=785\text{nm}$): 1602.6, 1587.8, 1562.2, 1346.3, 1052.3, 999.57, 931.75, 319.34

Evaluation of the spectra of pigment red 255 exhibits bands characteristic of ring breathing (in the region of $930\text{-}1052\text{cm}^{-1}$), C=C stretching (in the region of $1560\text{-}1602\text{cm}^{-1}$) and amide III and I bands at 1309cm^{-1} and 1661cm^{-1} , respectively.

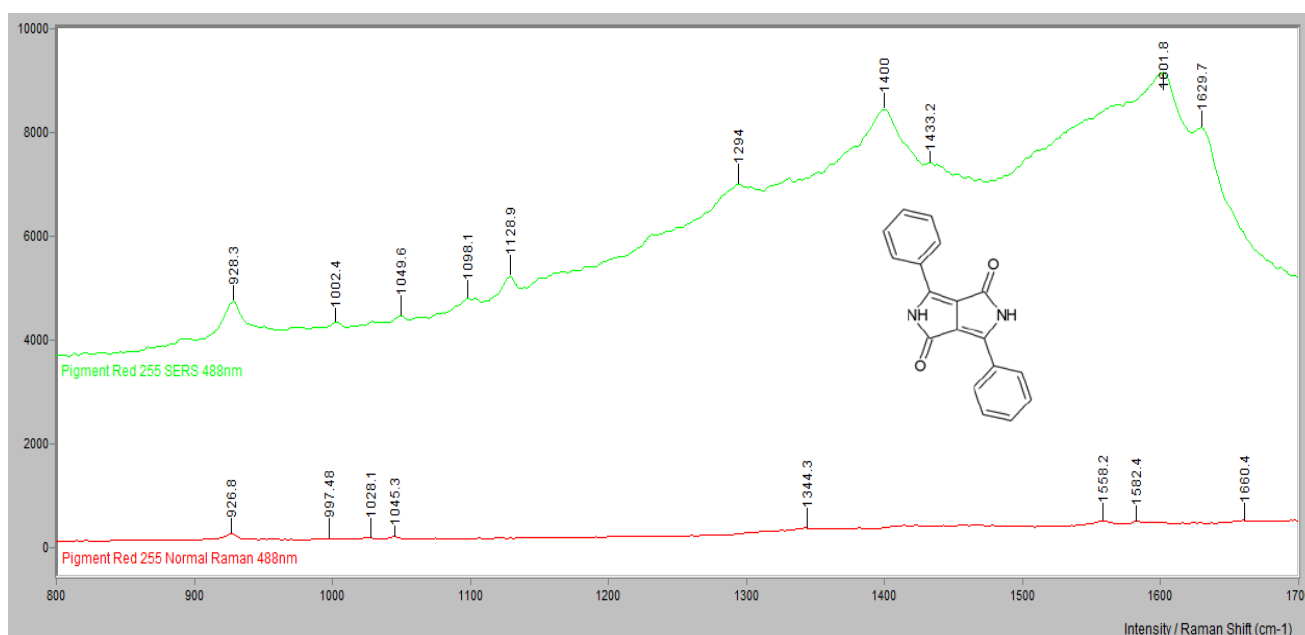


Figure 46. Comparison of Pigment Red 255 obtained with normal Raman (red) and SERS (green), $\lambda_0=488\text{nm}$

Pigment Orange 16- Raman bands were resolved with Raman spectra at $\lambda_0=633\text{nm}$, 785nm and 1064nm . Overwhelming fluorescence was observed with $\lambda_0=488\text{nm}$ and no useful data were obtained at this excitation wavelength. The spectrum obtained with SERS corresponds to the bands observed with the normal Raman spectrum at $\lambda_0=633\text{nm}$ and 785nm . Substantial

signal enhancement was observed when going from normal Raman to SERS with $\lambda_0=488\text{nm}$ since no bands were observed in the normal Raman spectrum. The FT-IR/ATR spectrum generated a number of well-resolved peaks. With regard to UV/Vis, the absorbance maximum of Pigment Orange 16 was 541.0nm, likely a bathochromic shift that resulted from the conc. H_2SO_4 . This is supported by the change in color observed (orange to a reddish pink shade). No reference Raman spectra could be found for Pigment Orange 16 in the literature. The following major peaks are reported (assigned very strong [vs] and strong [s] according to peak intensity) for the spectrum with $\lambda_0=785\text{nm}$: 1601.8vs, 1397.3s, 1323.5vs, 1259.6s, 1123.4s, 669.65s, 371.07s, 120.07s.

A detailed explanation of the vibrational modes and band assignments for Pigment Orange 16 (a disazo) can be found in the DFT portion of the Results & Discussion section.

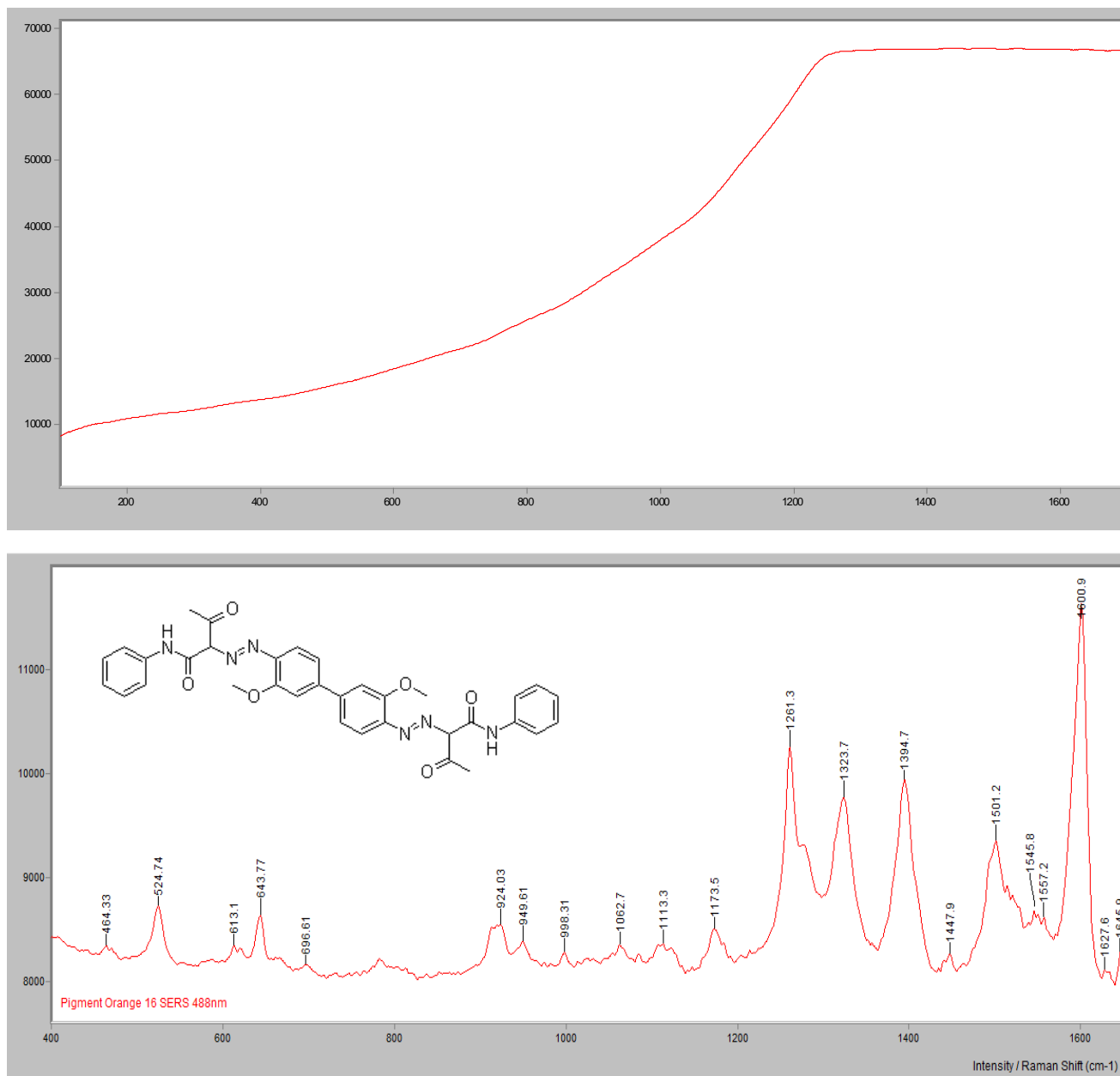


Figure 47. Comparison of Pigment Orange 16 obtained with normal Raman (top spectrum) and SERS (bottom spectrum), $\lambda_0=488\text{nm}$

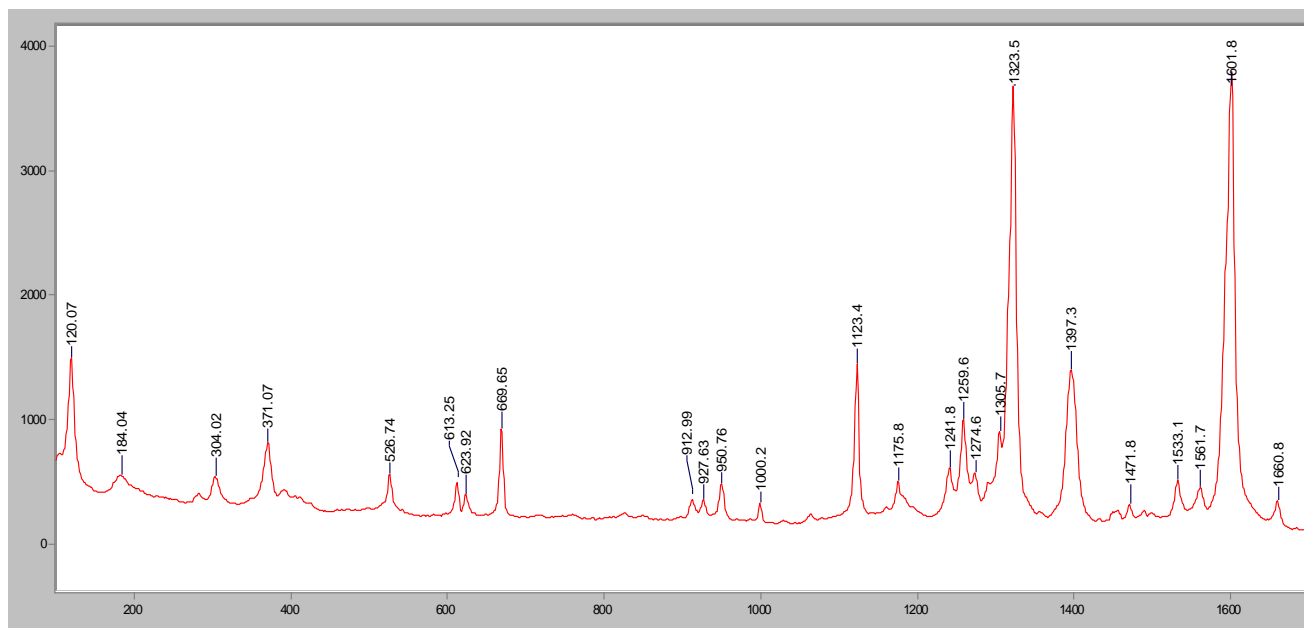


Figure 48. Pigment Orange 16, $\lambda_0=785\text{nm}$. (Intensity/Raman Shift [cm^{-1}])

Pigment Orange 34- Bands were resolved with Raman spectra with all four excitation wavelengths. The spectrum obtained with SERS corresponds to the bands observed with the normal Raman spectra. There was not any apparent signal enhancement observed when going from normal Raman to SERS. The FT-IR/ATR spectrum generated a number of well-resolved peaks. With regard to UV/Vis, the absorbance maximum of Pigment Orange 34 was 517.0nm, likely a bathochromic shift that resulted from the conc. H_2SO_4 . This is supported by the change in color observed (orange to a reddish pink shade). Correlation can be made between the experimental data and reported data for PO 34 (using Colombini, *et.al.*, 2010, Scherrer *et.al.*, 2009 and Schulte *et.al.*, 2008).

Colombini *et. al.*: ($\lambda_0=785\text{nm}$): 1600vs, 1275s

Scherrer *et.al.*: ($\lambda_0=785\text{nm}$): 1597vs, 1273s

Schulte *et. al.*: ($\lambda_0=1064\text{nm}$): 1597vs, 1273m

Experimental: ($\lambda_0=785\text{nm}$): 1596.7, 1272.7

Pigment Orange 34 differs from pigment orange 16 with the presence of two methyl groups, with each group found on the outer-most rings located *para* to the rest of the molecule. Pigment Orange 34 exhibits bands characteristic of a disazo. Specifically, the C-N symmetric stretch at 1159 cm^{-1} and the N=N stretching at 1420 cm^{-1} . A band at 1596 cm^{-1} is characteristic of the C=C (ring breathing) stretch.

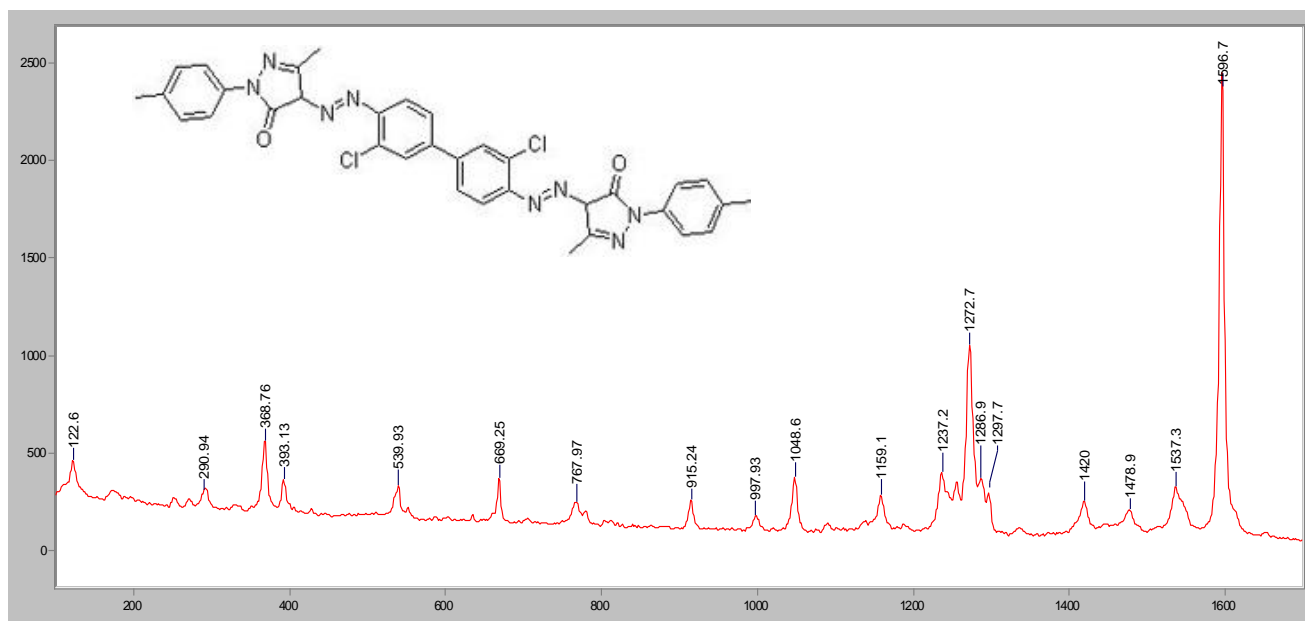


Figure 49. Pigment Orange 34, $\lambda_0=785\text{ nm}$. (Intensity/Raman Shift [cm^{-1}]). An interesting feature of the above Raman spectrum for PO 34 is the appearance of evenly spaced, relatively intense bands. This may be due to the high molecular symmetry or the fundamental and overtones of a vibration (Franck-Condon scattering).

Pigment Orange 34 exhibited well resolved peaks across all excitation wavelengths. When comparing the three normal Raman spectra, it is apparent that using the 633 nm (red) laser resulted in the most peaks being resolved and the highest intensity peaks followed by the 785 nm (red/near IR) laser.

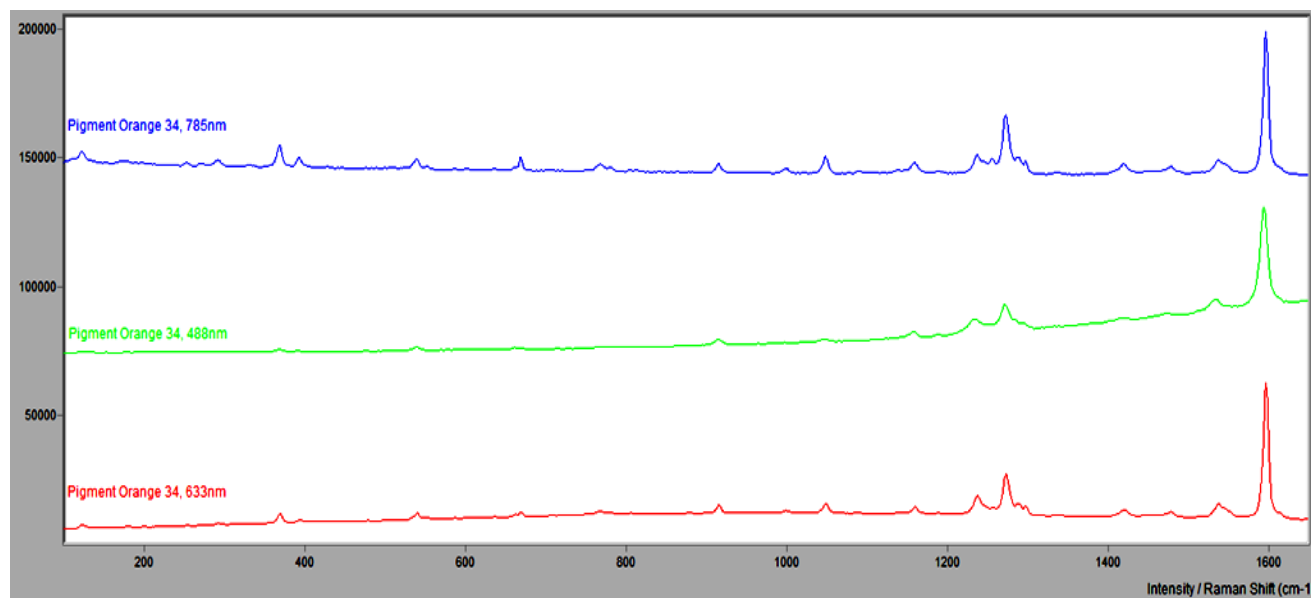


Figure 50. Comparison of Pigment orange 34 at different excitation wavelengths.

Pigment Orange 62- Bands were resolved with normal Raman spectra with all three excitation wavelengths. The spectrum obtained with SERS corresponds to the bands observed with the normal Raman spectra. There was not any apparent signal enhancement observed when going from normal Raman to SERS. The FT-IR/ATR spectrum generated a number of well-resolved peaks. With regard to UV/Vis, the absorbance maximum of Pigment Orange 62 was 401.5 nm, likely a hypsochromic shift that resulted from the conc. H_2SO_4 . This is supported by the change in color observed (orange to a yellowish shade). Correlation can be made between the experimental data and reported data for PO 62 (using Scherrer *et.al.*, 2009).

Scherrer *et.al.*: ($\lambda_0=785\text{nm}$): 1601s, 1338vs, 1115s

Experimental: ($\lambda_0=785\text{nm}$): 1600.4, 1336.8, 1113.8

Pigment Orange 62 exhibits bands characteristic of a monoazo. Specifically, the C-N symmetric stretch at 1164 cm^{-1} and the N=N stretching at 1403 cm^{-1} . In addition, bands likely associated with the double annulated structure can be found at 1336 and 1600 cm^{-1} . Pigment

Orange 62 exhibited well resolved peaks across all three excitation wavelengths. When comparing the three spectra, it is apparent that using the 633nm (red) laser resulted in the most peaks being resolved and the highest intensity peaks followed by the 785nm (red/near IR) laser.

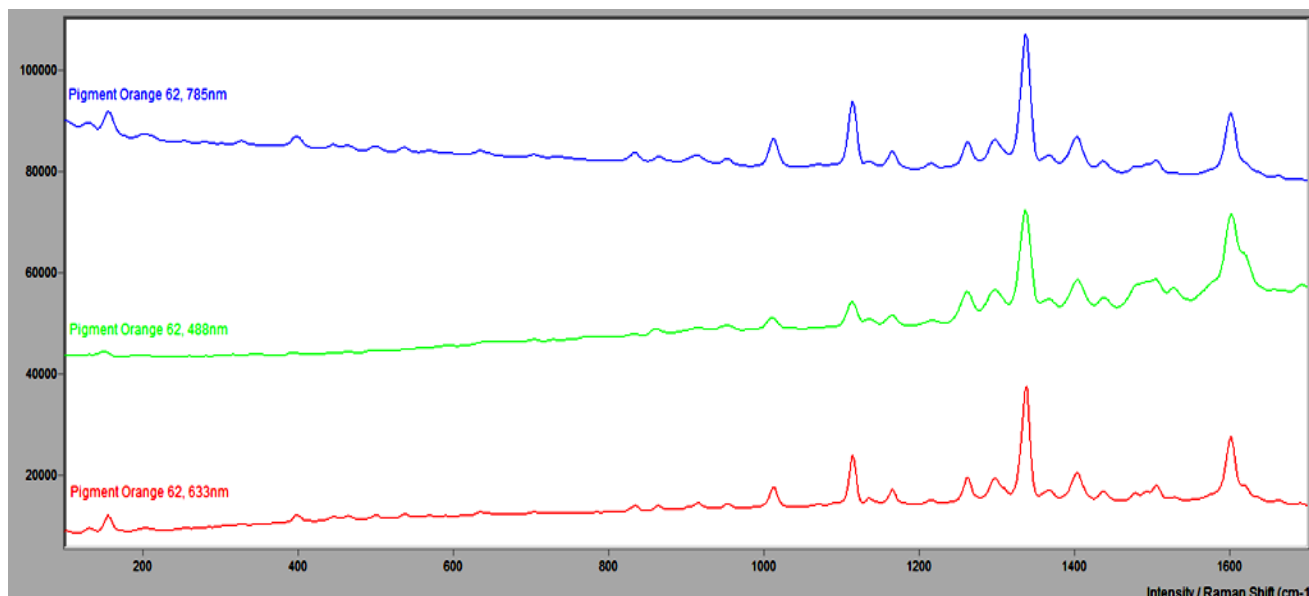


Figure 51. Comparison of Pigment Orange 62 at different excitation wavelengths.

Pigment Yellow 3- Bands were resolved with normal Raman spectra with all three excitation wavelengths. The spectrum obtained with SERS corresponds to the bands observed with the normal Raman spectra. There was not any apparent signal enhancement observed when going from normal Raman to SERS. The FT-IR/ATR spectrum generated a number of well-resolved peaks. With regard to UV/Vis, Pigment Yellow 3 dissolved in conc. H_2SO_4 produced a yellow color, with a corresponding absorbance maximum of 424.5nm. No major shifts were observed. Correlation can be made between the experimental data and reported data for PY 3 (using Colombini, *et.al.*, 2010, Scherrer *et.al.*, 2009 and Schulte *et.al.*, 2008 and Vandenabeele, *et.al.*, 2000).

Colombini, *et.al.*: ($\lambda_0=785\text{nm}$): 1614vs, 1596vs, 1496vs, 1388vs, 1311vs, 1246s, 1140vs, 988vs, 650m-s, 461m-s, 452m-s

Scherrer *et.al.*: ($\lambda_0=785\text{nm}$): 1613/1614vs, 1494/1495vs, 1387/1386s, 1337/1336vs, 1309/1310vs, 1139/1140vs, 650s

Schulte *et. al.*: ($\lambda_0=514.5\text{nm}$): 1609s, 1490s, 1386s, 1333s, 1305s, 1135vs

Vandenabeele, *et. al.*: ($\lambda_0=780\text{nm}$): 1336m-s, 1138vs

Experimental: ($\lambda_0=488\text{nm}$): 1613.3, 1495.1, 1387.7, 1336.4, 1309.4, 1140.6, 746.06, 650.23

Pigment Yellow 3 exhibits bands characteristic of a monoazo. Specifically, the C-N symmetric stretch at 1140 cm^{-1} , the C-N symmetric bend at 1170 and 1191 cm^{-1} and the N=N stretching at 1387 cm^{-1} . Nitro group stretching can be found at 825 , 1336 and 1566 cm^{-1} . Amide III and I bands can be found at 1244 cm^{-1} and 1675 cm^{-1} , respectively. The bands located at 650 cm^{-1} and 709 cm^{-1} are due to the C-Cl stretching vibrations. Pigment Yellow 3 exhibited well resolved peaks across all three excitation wavelengths. When comparing the three spectra, it is apparent that using the 488nm (green) laser resulted in the most peaks being resolved and the highest intensity peaks followed by the 633nm (red) laser.

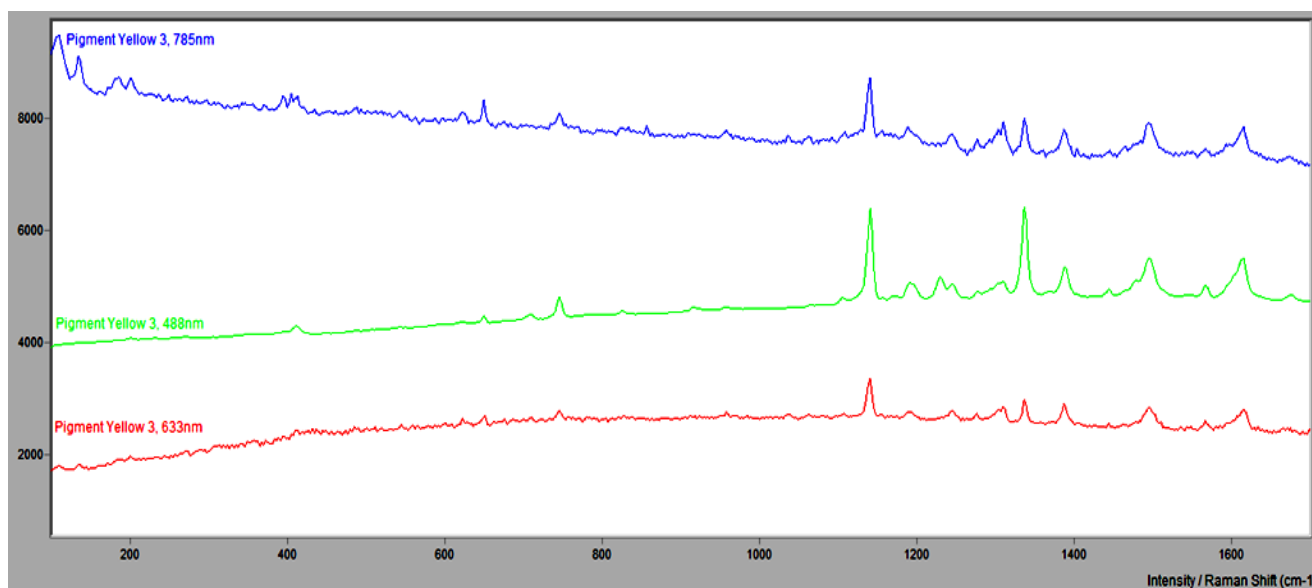


Figure 52. Comparison of Pigment Yellow 3 at different excitation wavelengths.

Pigment Yellow 73- Bands were resolved with normal Raman spectra with all three excitation wavelengths. The spectrum obtained with SERS corresponds to the bands observed with the normal Raman spectra. There was not any apparent signal enhancement observed when going from normal Raman to SERS. The FT-IR/ATR spectrum generated a number of well-resolved peaks. With regard to UV/Vis, Pigment Yellow 73 dissolved in conc. H₂SO₄ produced a yellow color, with a corresponding absorbance maximum of 428.0nm. No major shifts were observed. Correlation can be made between the experimental data and reported data for PY 73 (using Scherrer *et.al.*, 2009 and Ropret *et.al.*, 2007).

Scherrer *et.al.*: ($\lambda_0=785\text{nm}$): 1615s, 1598s, 1530s, 1480s, 1336vs, 1308s, 1137s

Ropret *et.al.*: ($\lambda_0=785\text{nm}$): 1616s-m, 1601s-m, 1532s-m, 1507s-m, 1481s-m, 1338vs, 1308s-m, 1138s

Experimental: ($\lambda_0=633\text{nm}$): 1613.2, 1599.8, 1529.1, 1504.8, 1479.4, 1332.8, 1306.5, 1250.8, 1138.8

Pigment Yellow 73 exhibits bands characteristic of a monoazo. Specifically, the C-N symmetric stretch at 1137cm^{-1} , the C-N symmetric bending at 1197cm^{-1} , and the N=N stretching at 1390cm^{-1} . Nitro group stretching can be found at 824, 1335 and 1565cm^{-1} . Amide III and I bands can be found at 1249cm^{-1} and 1676cm^{-1} , respectively.

Pigment Yellow 83- Bands were resolved with normal Raman spectra with all three excitation wavelengths. The spectrum obtained with SERS corresponds to the bands observed with the normal Raman spectra. Signal enhancement was observed when going from normal Raman to SERS as well as resolution of peaks not observed in the normal Raman spectrum. The FT-IR/ATR spectrum generated a number of well-resolved peaks; PY 83 contains a large band from about $1450\text{-}1500\text{cm}^{-1}$, which is due to the strong N=N azo vibrations. In addition, the series of peaks at around $1180\text{-}1310\text{cm}^{-1}$ indicates a disazo, as well as the three peaks located

around 850-980 cm^{-1} (refer to IR spectrum in Appendix F). With regard to UV/Vis, Pigment Yellow 83 dissolved in conc. H_2SO_4 produced an orange color, with an absorbance maximum of 487.0nm. This color shift observed is consistent with the bathochromic shift absorbed instrumentally. Correlation can be made between the experimental data and reported data for PY 83 (using Scherrer *et.al.*, 2009, Schulte *et.al.*, 2008 and Vandenabeele, *et.al.*, 2000).

*Colombini, *et.al.*: ($\lambda_0=785\text{nm}$): 1622s, 1486s, 1140s, 1000s, 988s, 952m-s, 787s

Scherrer *et.al.*: ($\lambda_0=633\text{nm}$): 1596vs, 1400s, 1254s

Schulte *et. al.*: ($\lambda_0=632.8\text{nm}$): 1593s, 1397s, 1255s

Vandenabeele, *et. al.*: ($\lambda_0=780\text{nm}$): 1595vs

Experimental: ($\lambda_0=785\text{nm}$): 1596.2, 1400.9, 1254.1

*Note: Initially, correlation was attempted using Colombini, *et al.*, but the peak list provided did not correspond to any of the reported data from the literature or the experimental data obtained in this study. In the text of the article, Colombini *et.al.* indicate that there is a band present at 1280cm^{-1} which corresponds to the two carbon bridge of the aromatic function. This band is *not* noted in their table of “Pigments and their relevant Raman shifts” (see Appendix I for a complete copy of this table). Upon examination of the experimental Raman (normal and SERS) and infrared spectra obtained in this study, there is a band at 1290cm^{-1} present, which likely corresponds to the band mentioned in the Colombini *et.al.* article.

Pigment Yellow 83 exhibits bands characteristic of a disazo. Specifically, the N=N stretching at 1400cm^{-1} . A band at 1596cm^{-1} is characteristic of the C=C (ring breathing) stretch. A band representing the C-Cl stretching is present at 662cm^{-1} and symmetric C-O-C stretching band is present at 920cm^{-1} .

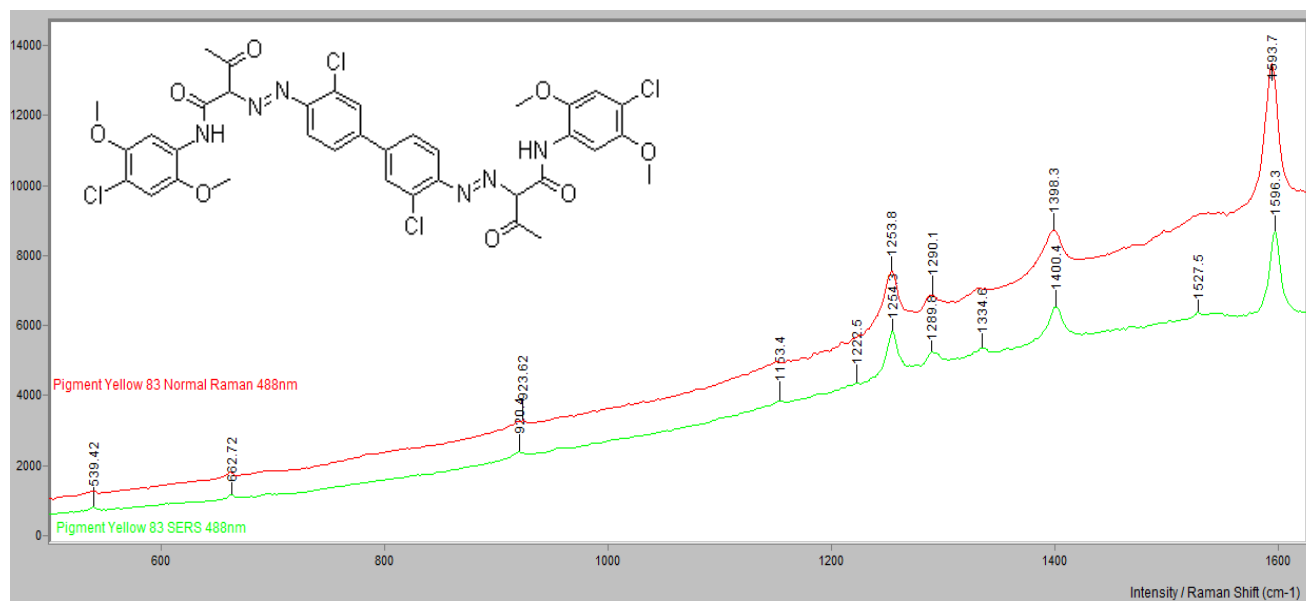


Figure 53. Comparison of Pigment Yellow 83 obtained with normal Raman (red) and SERS (green), $\lambda_0=488\text{nm}$

Pigment Yellow 151- Bands were resolved with normal Raman spectra with all three excitation wavelengths. The spectrum obtained with SERS corresponds to the bands observed with the normal Raman spectra. Signal enhancement was observed when going from normal Raman to SERS. The FT-IR/ATR spectrum generated a number of well-resolved peaks. With regard to UV/Vis, the absorbance maximum of Pigment Yellow 151 was 272.50nm, likely a hypsochromic shift that resulted from the conc. H_2SO_4 . Correlation can be made between the experimental data and reported data for PY 151 (using Colombini, *et.al.*, 2010, Scherrer *et.al.*, 2009 and Ropret *et.al.*, 2007).

Colombini, *et.al.*: ($\lambda_0=785\text{nm}$): 1582s, 1388s, 1145s

Scherrer *et.al.*: ($\lambda_0=785\text{nm}$): 1581vs, 1387s, 1248s, 1144s

Ropret *et.al.*: ($\lambda_0=785\text{nm}$): 1602s-m, 1581vs, 1388s, 1248s-m, 1144s-m

Experimental: ($\lambda_0=488\text{nm}$): 1651.8, 1579.4, 1492.7, 1453.3, 1386.2, 1247.3

Pigment Yellow 151 exhibits bands characteristic of a monoazo. Specifically, the C-N symmetric stretch at 1143 cm^{-1} (and 1600 cm^{-1}) and the N=N stretching at 1386cm^{-1} . In addition,

bands likely associated with the double annulated structure can be found at 1579 cm^{-1} and 1600 cm^{-1} . Amide III and I bands can be found at 1247 cm^{-1} and 1651 cm^{-1} , respectively.

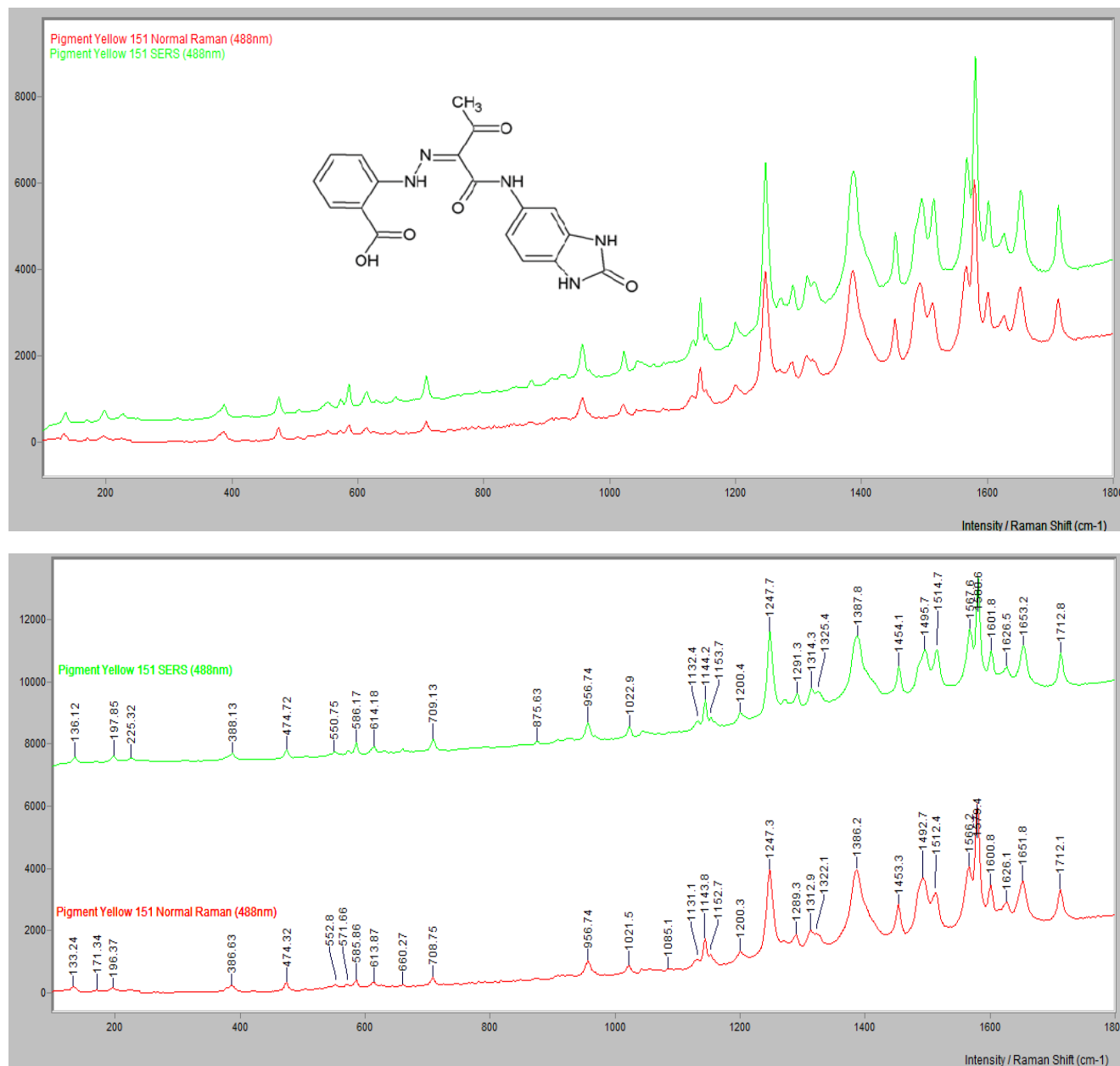


Figure 54 a and b. Comparison of Pigment Yellow 151 obtained with normal Raman (red) and SERS (green), $\lambda_0=488\text{ nm}$. The top window is displaying the spectra in ‘overlaid’ form to demonstrate increased signal from normal (red) to SERS (green) and the bottom window is displaying the spectra in ‘stacked’ form to demonstrate band location correlations.

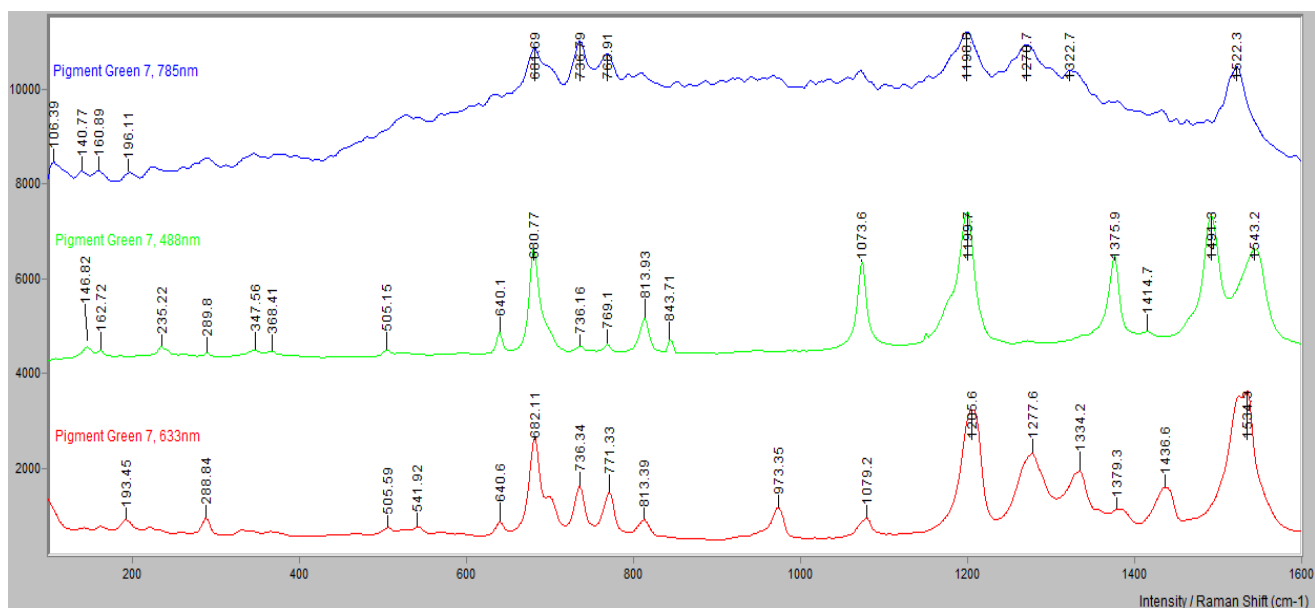
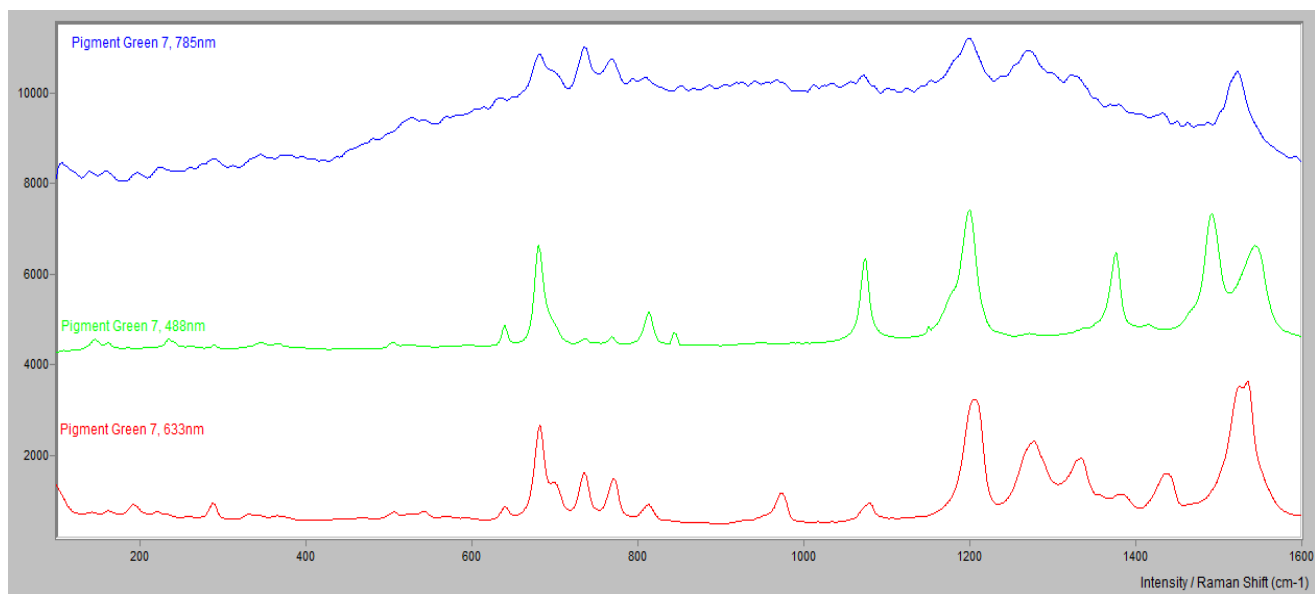
Pigment Green 7- Bands were resolved with Raman spectra at all four excitation wavelengths. There was not any apparent signal enhancement observed when going from normal Raman to SERS. The FT-IR/ATR spectrum generated a number of well-resolved peaks. With regard to UV/Vis, absorbance maxima for Pigment Green 7 dissolved in conc. H₂SO₄ were observed at 859.50nm and 815.0nm. This was an obvious absorbance shift (bathochromic) from the purple region to the near infrared region, which is consistent with that reported in the article by Billmeyer, *et.al.* (1981). Correlation can be made between the experimental data and reported data for PG 7 (using Scherrer *et.al.*, 2009 and Schulte *et.al.*, 2008).

Scherrer *et.al.*: ($\lambda_0=514\text{nm}$): 1563s, 1538s, 1506vs, 1389s, 1283s, 1082s, 685vs

Schulte *et.al.*: ($\lambda_0=487.9\text{nm}$): 1495vs, 1380s, 1200vs, 1074s, 681vs

Experimental: ($\lambda_0=488\text{nm}$): *see spectra below*. Pigment Green 7 exhibited well resolved bands across all three excitation wavelengths. Interestingly, the spectra were quite different with a change in excitation wavelength, which is due to the resonance effects resulting from the $\Delta \lambda_0$ on the molecular structure of the phthalocyanine. This is important in that it not only lends support to the assertion that all reported Raman spectra should have the corresponding λ_0 listed, but it indicates that comparisons between two or more spectra should be done where the same λ_0 was used to generate the spectra.

Bands characteristic of the breathing and deformations of the phthalocyanine TBP nucleus can be found at around 680 cm^{-1} and in the region from about 750 to 800 cm^{-1} . The band located at around $230\text{-}235\text{ cm}^{-1}$ corresponds to the N-Cu metal bond. As the excitation wavelength changes, the relative ratios of these bands associated with the TBP nucleus change also. In some instances, the bands may not even be resolved above the background. The band located around $1520\text{-}1535\text{ cm}^{-1}$ remains dominant in the spectra and can be attributed to the ring breathing of the molecule.



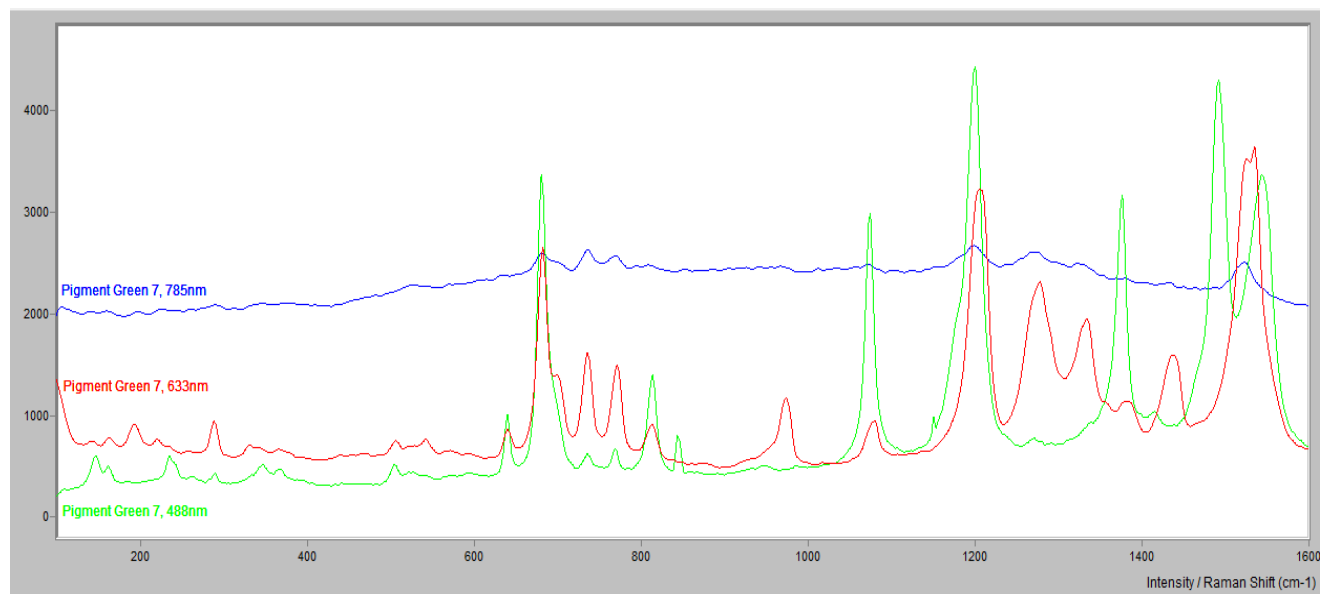
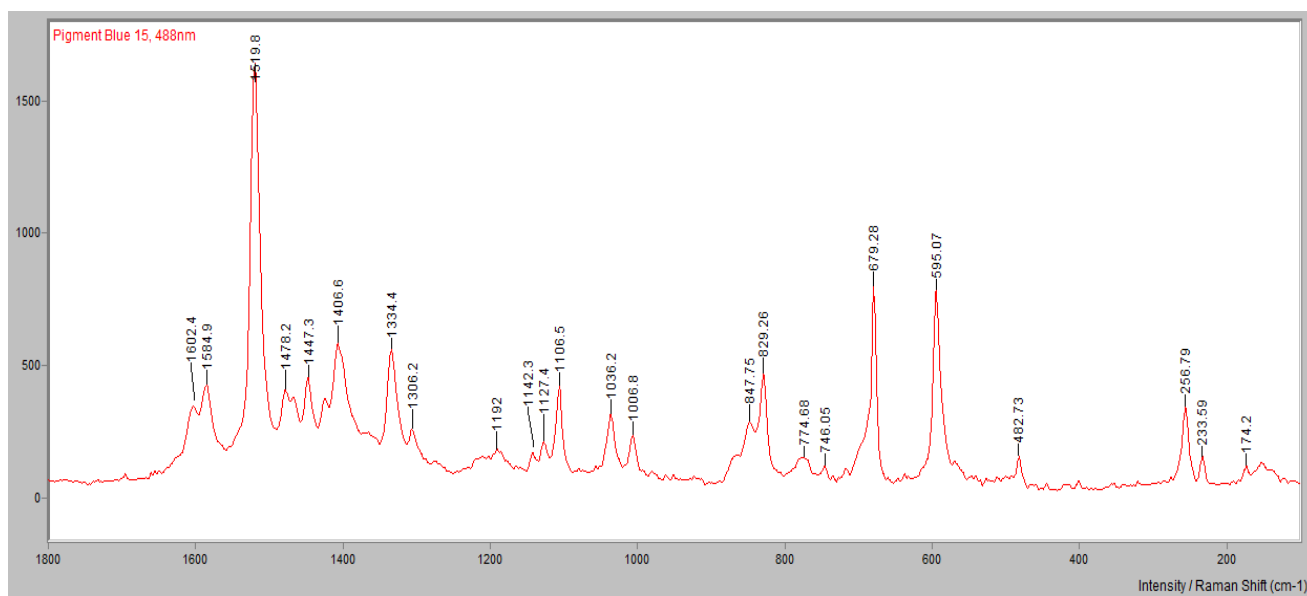
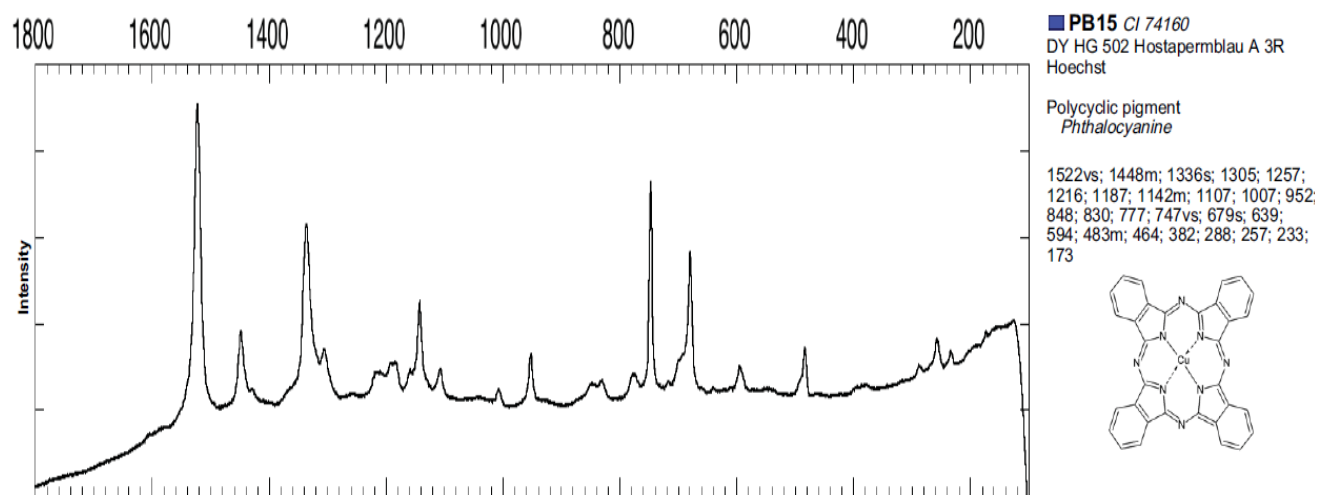


Figure 55 a, b and c. Comparison of Pigment Green 7 at different excitation wavelengths, stacked without band labels (top), stacked with labels (middle) and overlaid (bottom).

Pigment Blue 15, 15:1, 15:2, 15:3- Bands were resolved with normal Raman spectra with all three excitation wavelengths. Only Pigment Blue 15 was available for SERS. There was not any apparent signal enhancement observed when going from normal Raman to SERS. The FT-IR/ATR spectrum generated a number of well-resolved bands (Note: there was a very small amount of Pigment Blue 15 available for FT-IR/ATR. Spectral quality was not very high for Pigment Blue 15, but peaks were still resolved). With regard to UV/Vis, absorbance maxima for Pigment Blue 15 dissolved in conc. H_2SO_4 were observed at 791.0nm and 700.50nm. This was an obvious absorbance shift (bathochromic) from the orange region to the red/near infrared region, which is consistent with that reported in the article by Billmeyer, *et.al.* (1981). Correlation can be made between the experimental data and reported data for PB 15 (using Scherrer *et.al.*, 2009). Correlation between reported spectra and experimental spectra for the polymorphs of pigment blue were also made.

Scherrer *et.al.*: ($\lambda_0=785\text{nm}$): 1522vs, 1336s, 746/747vs, 679s

Experimental: ($\lambda_0=488\text{nm}$): *see spectra below*. In comparing experimental spectra with that in the literature, it became apparent that, while in most cases, band locations were relatively consistent with changing excitation wavelength (although variation in band presence/absence can be seen), the excitation wavelength used would affect the relative band intensities. This could be problematic in interpretation when comparing spectra of the same substance that were generated with different excitation wavelengths). When individuals report intensities in the literature (*e.g.* vs, s, s-m, *etc.*), an analyst should bear in mind that these values are subjective and will vary depending on the excitation wavelength. This can be seen with Pigment Blue 15, as correlation to the literature would vary based upon which excitation wavelength spectra was selected for comparison:



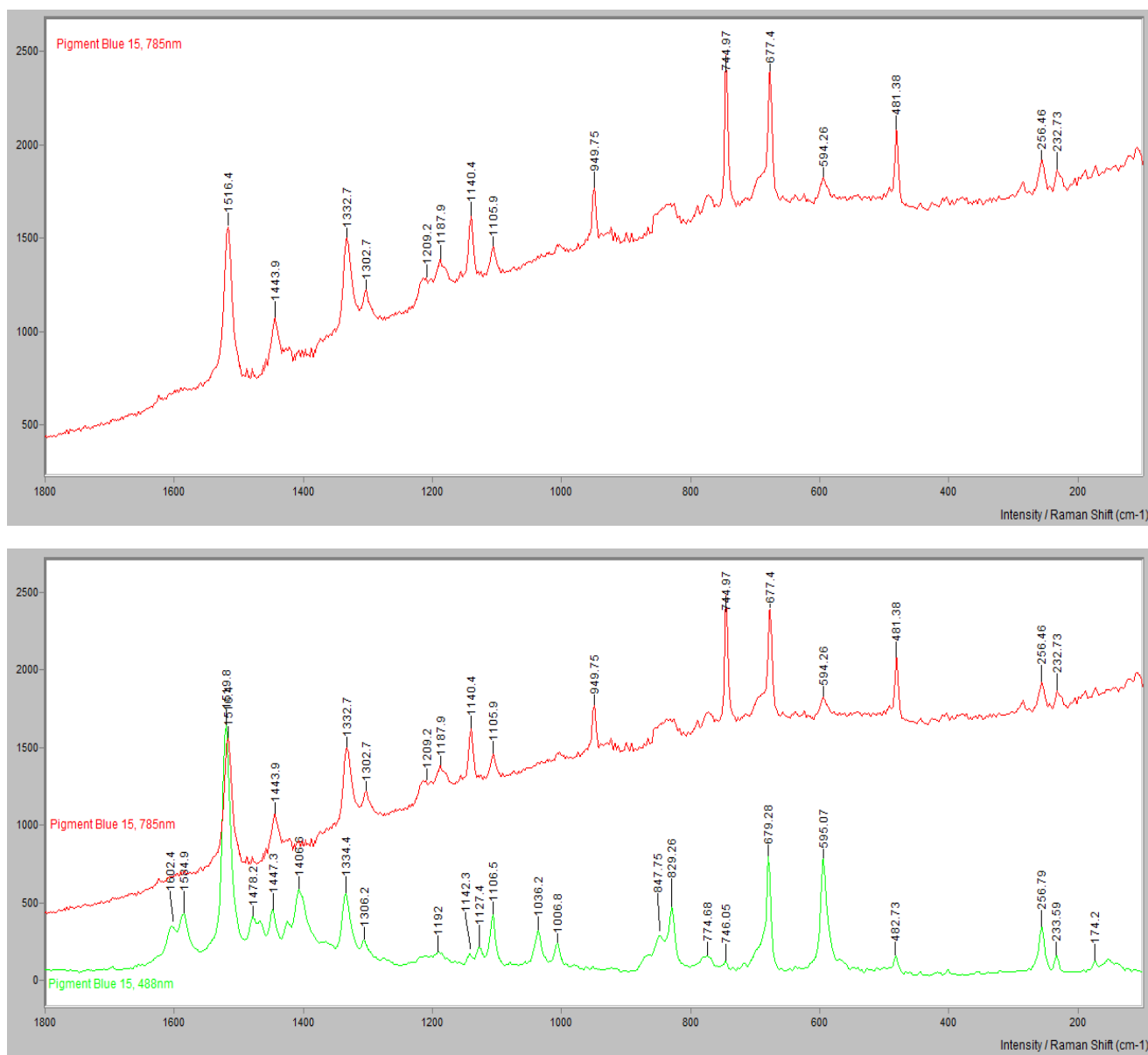


Figure 56 a-d. Pigment Blue 15 spectra from Scherrer, *et al.*, $\lambda_0=785\text{nm}$ (top), experimental, $\lambda_0=488\text{nm}$ (upper middle) and experimental $\lambda_0=785\text{nm}$ (lower middle) and an overlay of the two experimental spectra (bottom). Note the variation in band intensities in addition to the absence/presence of bands. (The series of spectra are provided with the x-axis in descending order to correspond to the Scherrer *et al.* spectrum).

This variation in Raman spectra with a change in excitation wavelength can be attributed to resonance effects, specifically selective enhancement from resonance with different electronic states. It is reported that phthalocyanine molecules have a B (or Soret) band in the blue region of the absorption spectrum and a Q (allowed $\pi \rightarrow \pi^*$ transition) band in the red region of the

absorption spectrum.. The B and Q bands are associated with vibronic bands and the use of visible excitation wavelengths in these regions (blue and red, respectively) (will give rise to resonance or pre-resonance enhancements (Bovill, 1986, pp. 569). The metal ion incorporated into the porphyrin ring system can also affect the resultant spectra and band locations. The band located around $1520\text{-}1530\text{cm}^{-1}$ remains dominant in the spectra and can be attributed to the ring breathing of the molecule (C-N). Bands characteristic of the breathing and deformations of the phthalocyanine TBP nucleus can be found at around 680 cm^{-1} (C-N-C, N-C, N-C-C) and in the region from about $750\text{ to }800\text{ cm}^{-1}$ (C-N-C, Cu-N). The band located at around $230\text{-}235\text{ cm}^{-1}$ corresponds to the N-Cu metal bond. As the excitation wavelength changes, the relative ratios of these bands associated with the TBP nucleus change also. In some instances, the bands may not even be resolved above the background.

Copper phthalocyanine is a planar molecule consisting of 57 atoms. It has 165 normal vibrations and is in the symmetry group D_{4h} . The following irreducible representations are reported (Basova and Kolesov, 2000, pp. 771):

$$\Gamma_{\text{vib}} = 14A_{1g} + 13A_{2g} + 14B_{1g} + 14B_{2g} + 13E_g + 6A_{1u} + 8A_{2u} + 7B_{1u} + 7B_{2u} + 28E_u$$

in which the A_{1g} , B_{1g} and B_{2g} modes are Raman active and the A_{2u} and E_u modes are infrared active (Li, *et.al.*, 2005, pp. 192). Experimental and calculated vibrational and absorption spectra of the phthalocyanines and their metal complexes has been reported in the literature along with detailed assignment of vibrational modes (Bovill, *et.al.*, 1985, Basova and Kolesov, 2000, Li, *et.al.*, 2005, Liu, *et.al.*, 2007) . Basova, *et.al.* report, "...some contradictory assumptions concerning the assignments of the bands in (various phthalocyanines) still exist. The agreement between the data of symmetry assignments of the bands in IR spectra of CuPc obtained by

different authors is good, while the assignments in the Raman spectra are often very different.” (2009, pp. 2081). The authors further add that the discrepancies in Raman band assignments are largely due to the lack of experimental support of the theoretical, calculated data. Evaluation of the data obtained by Baslova *et.al.*, 2009 correlates to the data reported by Bovill, *et.al.* in 1985 (concerning α copper phthalocyanine) and Li *et.al.* in 2005. It is important to note that with regard to experimental data, the authors of the various studies report the use of different excitation lasers (ranging in the blue, green and red regions), with some authors not specifically reporting the λ_0 used to generate their experimental data (they instead refer the reader to the literature in which the experimental data was acquired; see Li *et.al.*, 2005 and Liu, *et.al.*, 2007).

Copper phthalocyanine is described as ‘unusual’ in regard to the fact that there is an increase in observed fluorescence with an increase in excitation wavelength (contrary to the tendency of fluorescence to decrease as the source approaches near infrared wavelength status). This fluorescence displays itself in a characteristic manner, and can be a means for preliminary identification of the copper phthalocyanines (blues and greens). It is believed that this phenomenon is due to the presence of the copper transition metal.

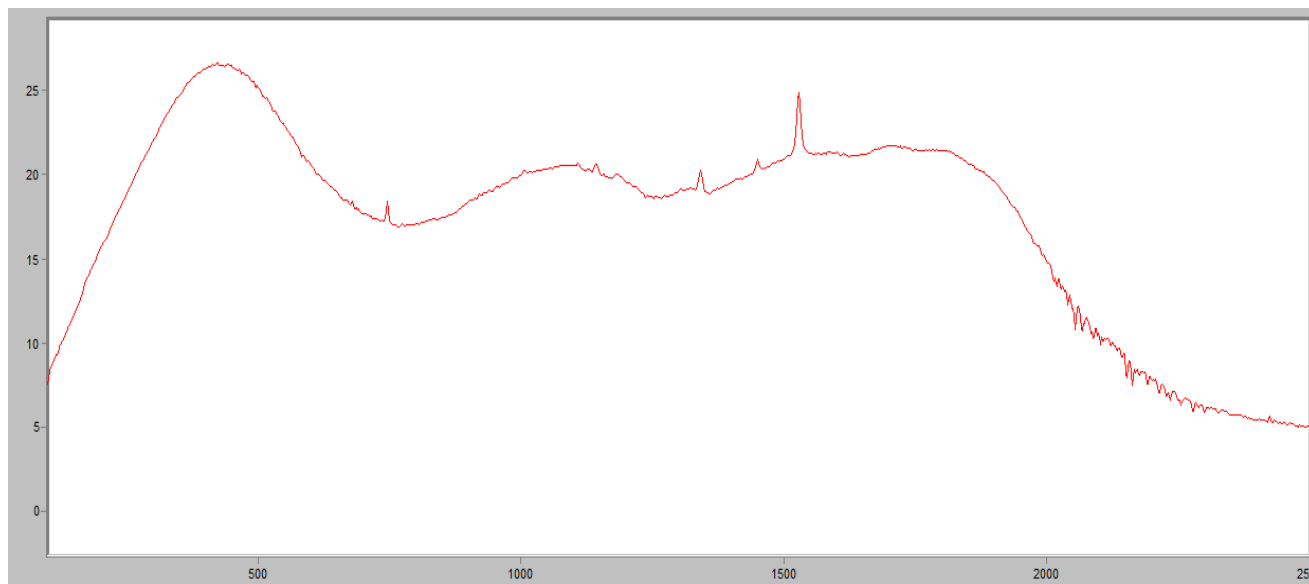


Figure 57. Characteristic fluorescence superimposed on a tattoo ink containing copper phthalocyanine (blue).

Pigment Violet 23 α - Bands were resolved with normal Raman spectra with $\lambda_0=488\text{nm}$. Overwhelming fluorescence was observed with $\lambda_0=633\text{nm}$ and 785nm , and no useful data were obtained at these excitation wavelengths. No spectrum was generated using the FT-Raman, even after mixing the pigment with KBr in an effort to minimize sample heating and reduce fluorescence. The spectrum obtained with SERS corresponds to the bands observed with the normal Raman spectrum at $\lambda_0=488\text{nm}$. Signal enhancement was observed when going from normal Raman to SERS as well as resolution of bands not observed in the normal Raman spectrum. The FT-IR/ATR spectrum generated a few broad peaks. With regard to UV/Vis, Pigment Violet 23 α underwent a hypsochromic shift when dissolved in conc. H_2SO_4 , the absorbance maximum being located at 317nm . The color exhibited upon mixing the powder with the conc. H_2SO_4 was a faint pinkish/red. No reference Raman spectra could be found for Pigment Violet 23 α in the literature. The following major bands are reported for the spectrum with $\lambda_0=488\text{nm}$: 1481.1, 1406.8, 1329.2, 1283.5, 1166.7.

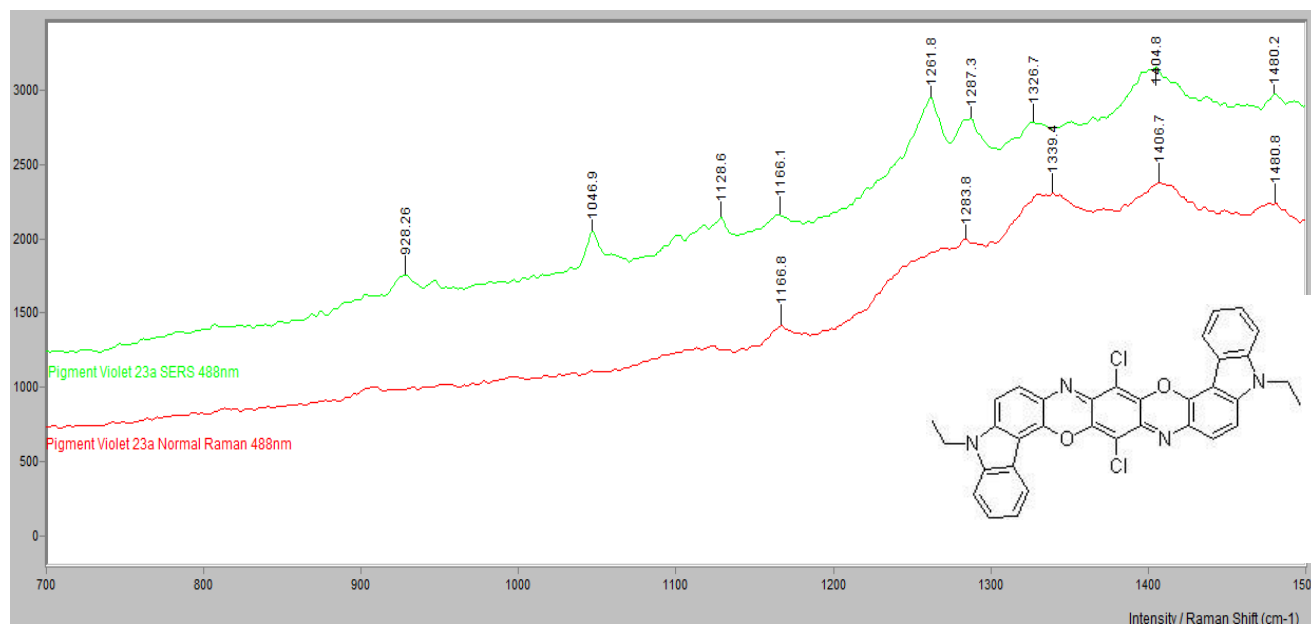


Figure 58. Comparison of Pigment Violet 23 α obtained with normal Raman (red) and SERS (green), $\lambda_0=488\text{nm}$

Pigment Violet 23 β - Bands were resolved with Raman spectra at all four excitation wavelengths. The spectrum obtained with SERS corresponds to the bands observed with the normal Raman spectra. Signal enhancement was observed when going from normal Raman to SERS. The FT-IR/ATR spectrum generated a number of well-resolved peaks. With regard to UV/Vis, Pigment Violet 23 β underwent a hypsochromic shift when dissolved in conc. H_2SO_4 , the absorbance maximum being located at 313nm. Correlation can be made between the experimental data and reported data for PV 23 β (using Scherrer *et.al.*, 2009).

Scherrer *et.al.*: ($\lambda_0=514\text{nm}$): 1391 vs

Experimental: ($\lambda_0=488\text{nm}$): 1427.4, 1388.6, 1343.4, 1204.6

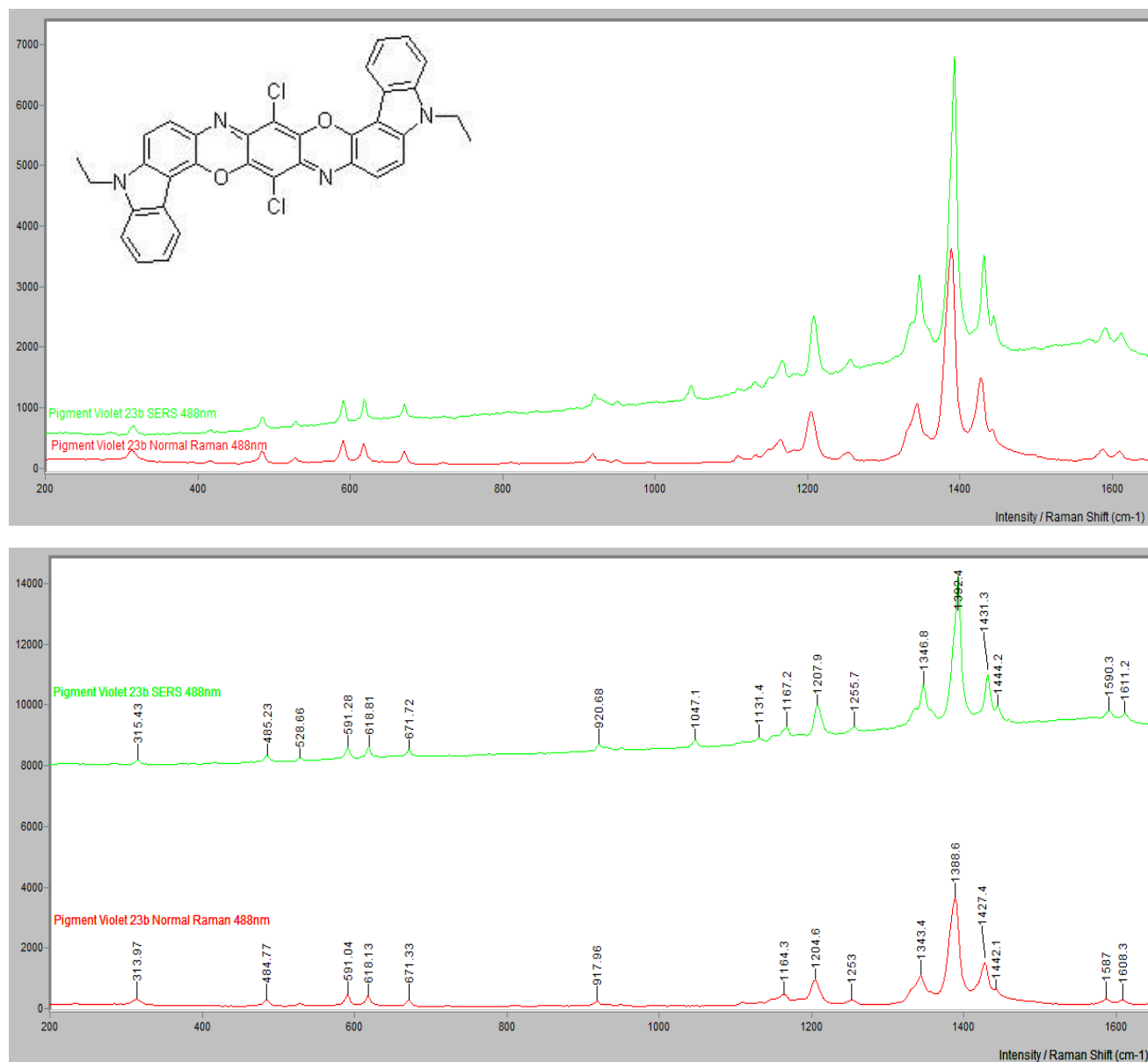


Figure 59 a and b. Comparison of Pigment Violet 23 β obtained with normal Raman (red) and SERS (green), $\lambda_0=488\text{nm}$. The top window is displaying the spectra in 'overlaid' form to demonstrate increased signal from normal (red) to SERS (green) and the bottom window is displaying the spectra in 'stacked' form to demonstrate band location correlations.

When comparing the Raman spectra of Pigment Violet 23 α and Pigment Violet 23 β , there are obvious differences. This indicates that it is possible to distinguish between the two polymorphs with Raman spectroscopy. It is interesting to note the difference between the α and β forms with regard to the normal Raman spectra, the SERS spectra, the infrared spectra and the

absorption spectra. These differences indicate that PV23 α and PV23 β likely differ in molecular structure or chemical constitution (for example, isomorphism) and not just in crystal form of the same molecule, making the ‘polymorph’ designation a misnomer. To test this hypotheses, crystal structure determination of the α and β forms can be carried out by x-ray diffraction. Additional evaluations of different molecular conformations (S-shape *vs.* linear, *cis vs. trans*) using DFT calculations may also enable the correlation of experimental spectral data with theoretical spectral data, allowing for the determination of correct molecular structure designation for PV23 α and PV23 β .

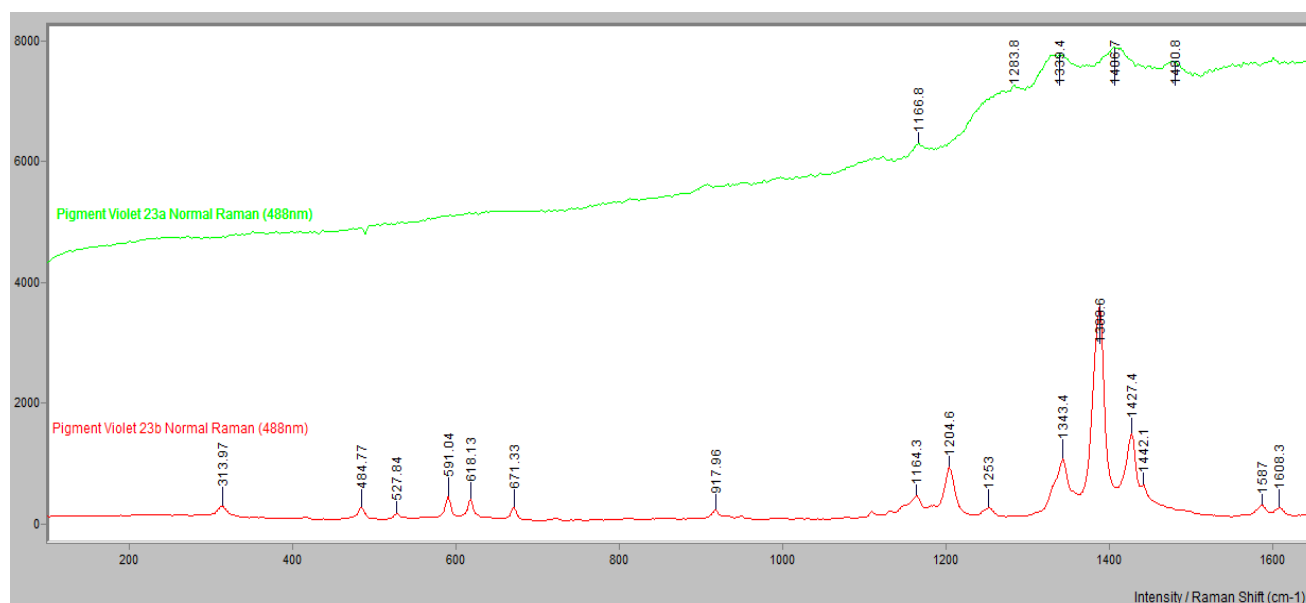


Figure 60. Comparison of the normal Raman spectra of Pigment Violet 23 α (green spectrum) and Pigment Violet 23 β (red spectrum) [$\lambda_0=488\text{nm}$].

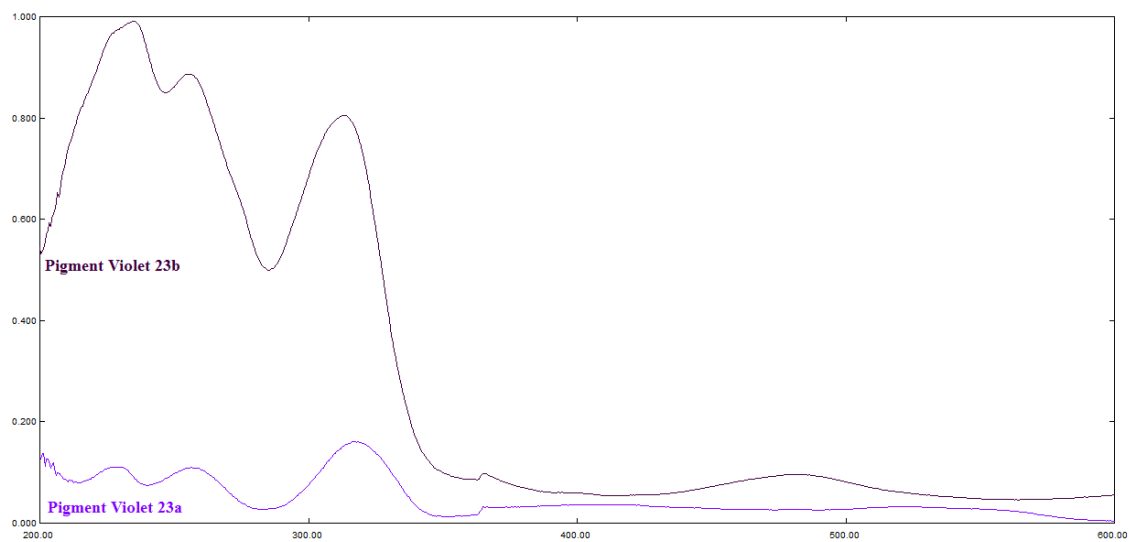


Figure 61. Comparison of Pigment Violet 23 α and β absorbance spectra. Note the additional peak at 482nm present in the β polymorph.

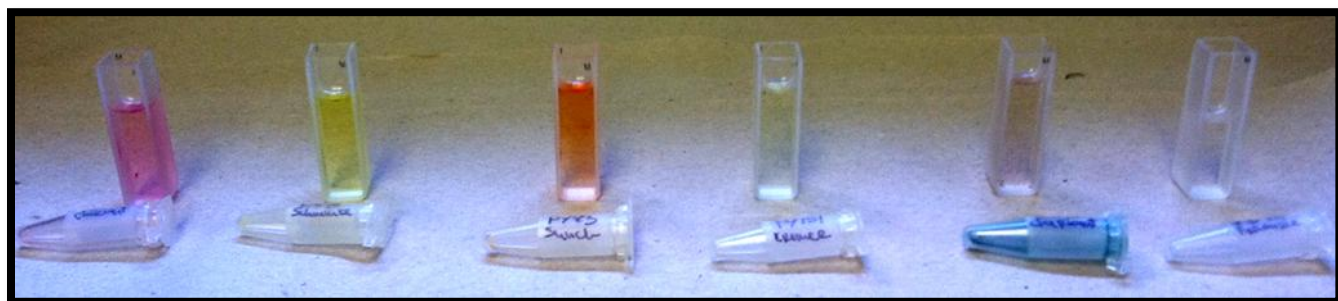


Figure 62 a, b and c. Pigment standards dissolved in conc. H_2SO_4 in fused silica cuvettes in preparation for UV/Vis analysis- (top) PR 122, PR 146, PR 170, PO 16, PV 23a, PV 23b; (middle) PO 34, PY 3, PY 83, PY 151, PG 7, PB 15; (bottom) PR 255, PO 62, PY 73.

Results- Tattoo Inks

Skin Candy

The Skin Candy Tattoo Ink set was analyzed extensively due largely to the fact that it was the only tattoo ink set that had available pigment composition data. This allowed for attainment of pigment standards that could be analyzed with similar instrumental parameters, facilitating spectral comparisons. Of the analyses conducted on the Skin Candy Tattoo Inks the following are considered:

- comparisons of the inks at different excitation wavelengths (Normal Raman-488nm, 633nm and 785nm and FT-Raman-1064nm) to evaluate the consistency of spectra with changing λ_0 ,
- comparison of the pigment extractions at the different excitation wavelengths (Normal Raman-488nm, 633nm and 785nm and FT-Raman-1064nm) to evaluate the consistency of spectra with changing λ_0 ,
- comparison of the tattoo ink to the pigment extraction to evaluate any spectra differences between direct analysis of the ink and the pigment extracted from the ink (using the procedure described in the Methods section),
- comparison of the tattoo ink to the pigment(s) listed on the bottle label to determine whether there is consistency with contents and ingredients listed on the label. In addition, this comparison may aid in determining whether or not there are other materials within the tattoo ink,
- comparison of the tattoo ink analyzed with normal Raman and SERS to further evaluate and validate the use of SERS,
- comparison of the SERS spectrum of the pigment extraction of the tattoo ink and the SERS spectrum of the pigment(s) listed on the bottle label also to further evaluate and validate the use of SERS,
- comparison of absorbance spectra of the tattoo ink pigment extraction and the corresponding pigment standard

In addition to the above, information pertaining to the visual and microscopic examinations, UV/Vis, FT-IR (ATR) and XRF spectra were collected and reported in order to characterize and develop a comprehensive tattoo ink database.

Overall, there were no substantial differences between the spectra of the tattoo inks and the pigment extractions. The extraction procedure was effective in separating the pigments and the titanium dioxide. In the case of the phthalocyanines (blue and green pigments), although

considered organic pigments, this class exhibited extraction characteristics consistent with inorganic pigments due to the metal complex, which made the extraction procedure less efficient when carbon tetrachloride was used as a solvent.

Candy Apple Red- Good correlation was found between Candy Apple Red and Pigment Red 146. Signal enhancement was observed when SERS was employed. XRF indicated the presence of titanium, chlorine and iron. It is probable that the titanium is due to the presence of titanium dioxide.

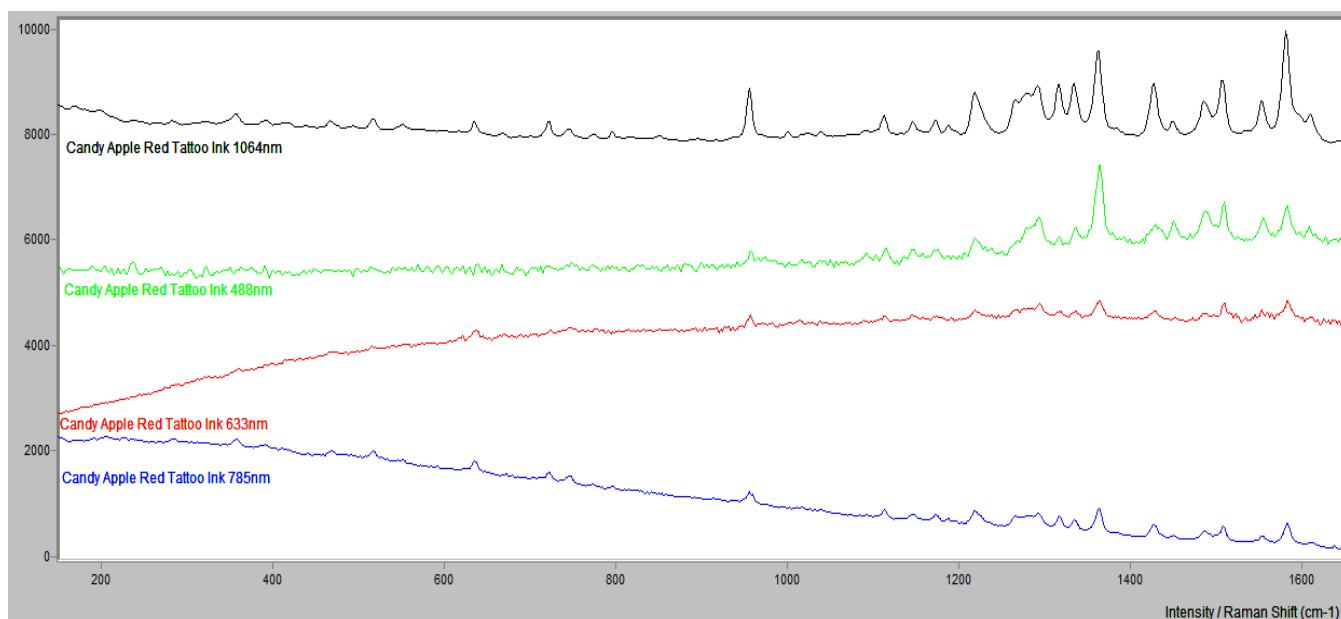


Figure 63. Raman spectra of Candy Apple Red ink at different excitation wavelengths.

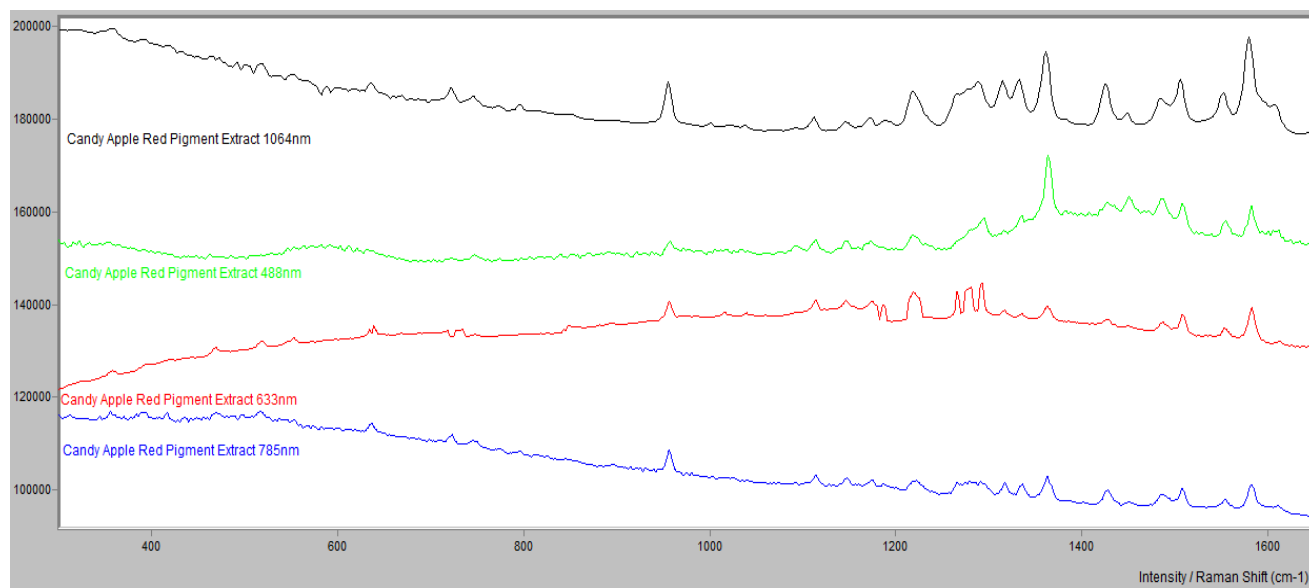


Figure 64. Raman spectra of Candy Apple Red pigment extraction at different excitation wavelengths.

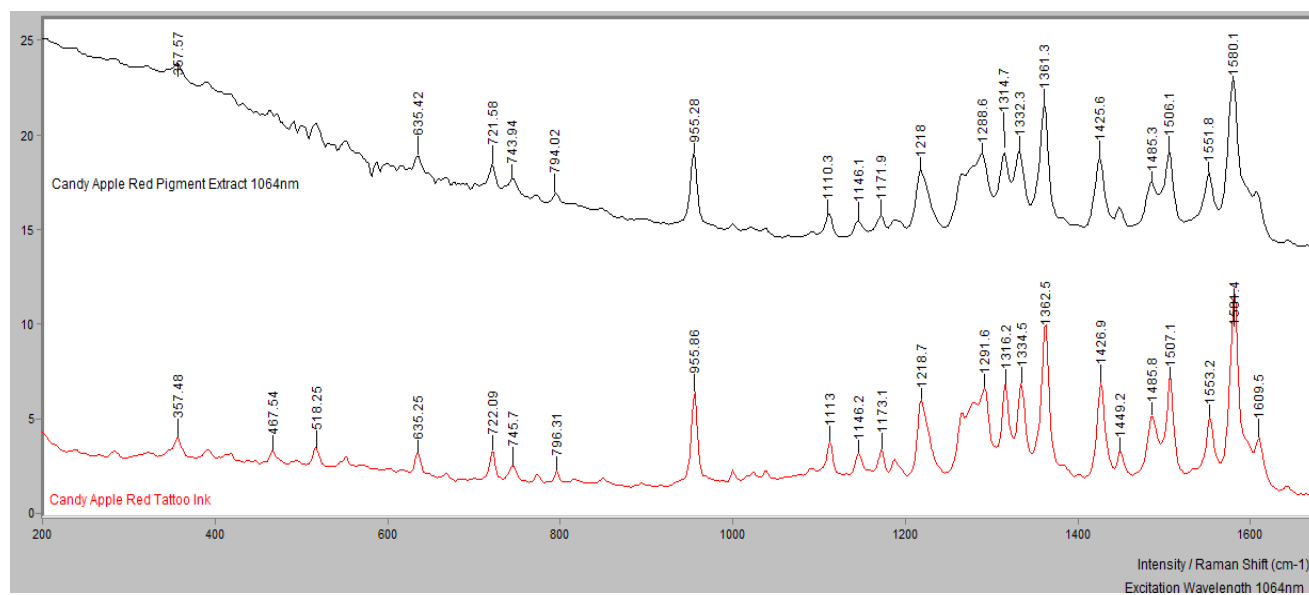


Figure 65. Comparison of Raman spectra of Candy Apple Red Tattoo ink and pigment extraction.

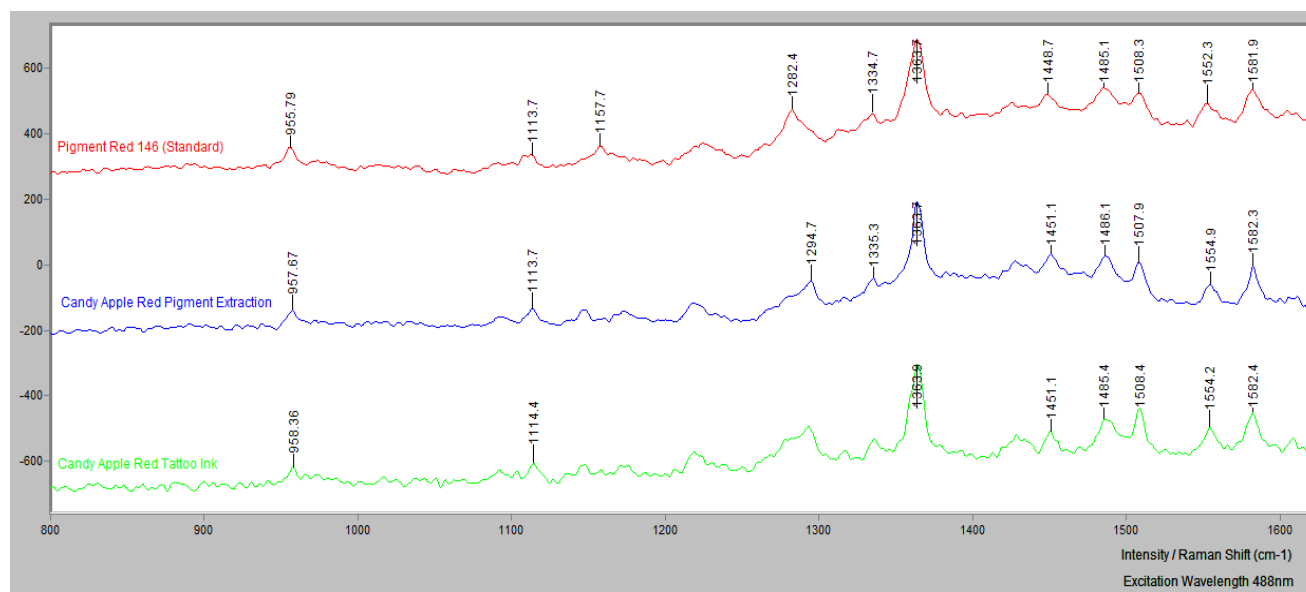


Figure 66. Normal Raman spectra of Candy Apple Red ink and pigment extraction compared to Pigment Red 146.

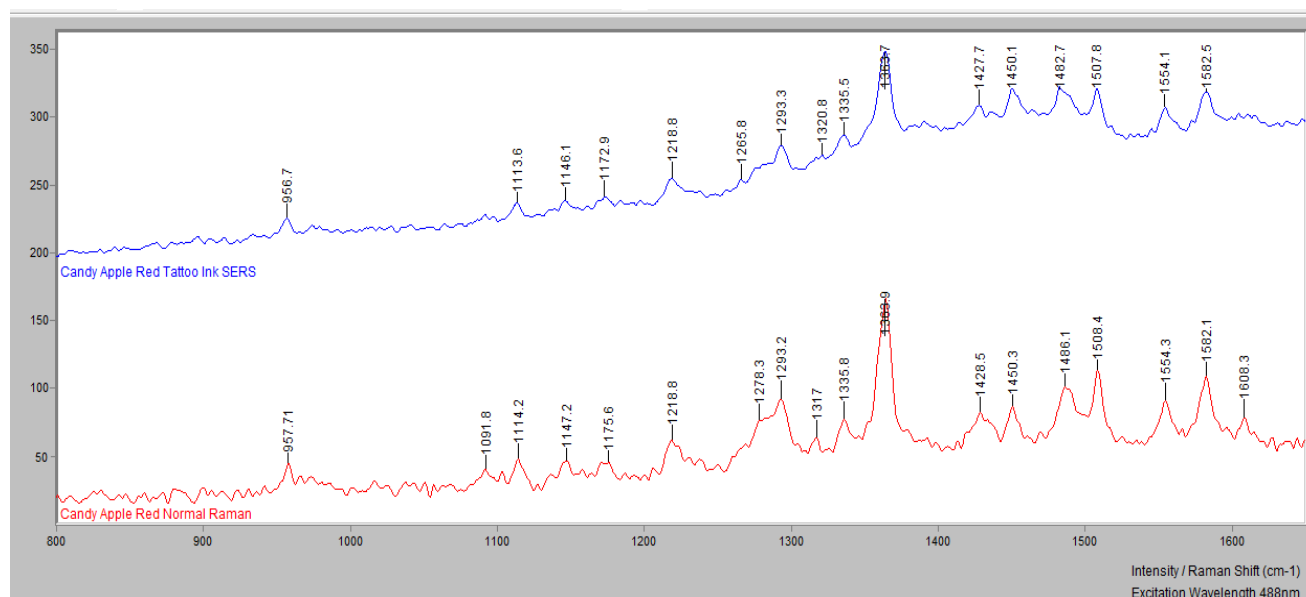


Figure 67. Normal Raman spectra of Candy Apple Red ink compared to SERS spectra of Candy Apple Red ink.

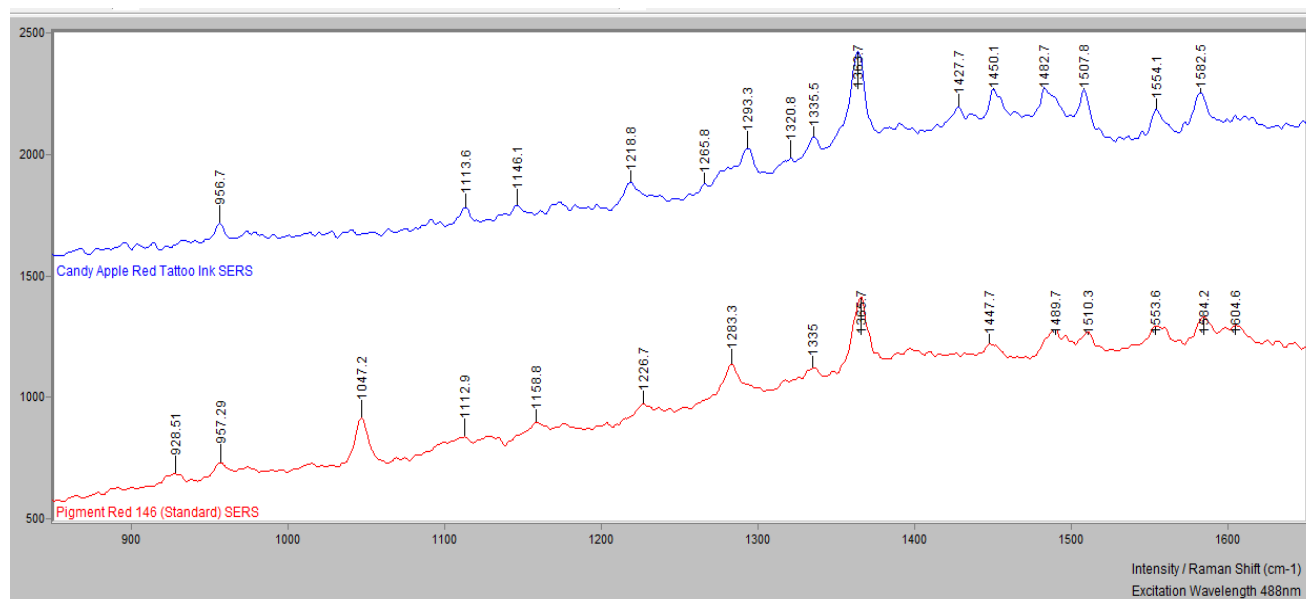


Figure 68. SERS spectra of Candy Apple Red ink compared to Pigment Red 146.

Red Hot- Good correlation was found between Red Hot and Pigment Red 170. Signal enhancement was observed when SERS was employed. XRF indicated the presence of chlorine and iron.

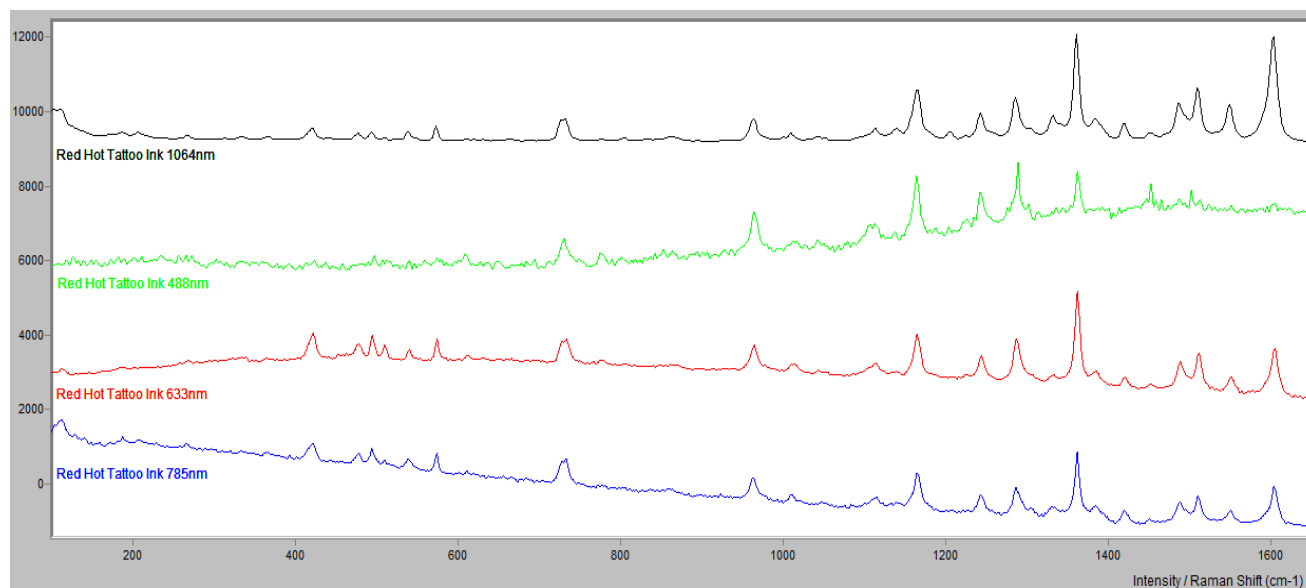


Figure 69. Raman spectra of Red Hot ink at different excitation wavelengths.

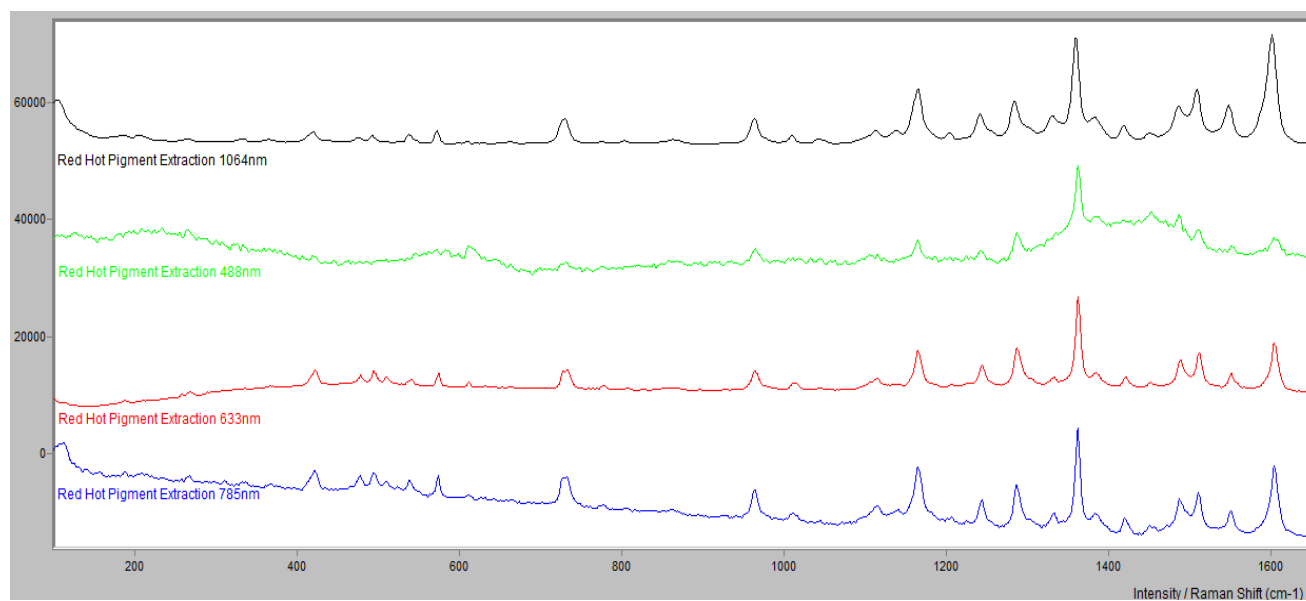


Figure 70. Raman spectra of Red Hot pigment extraction at different excitation wavelengths.

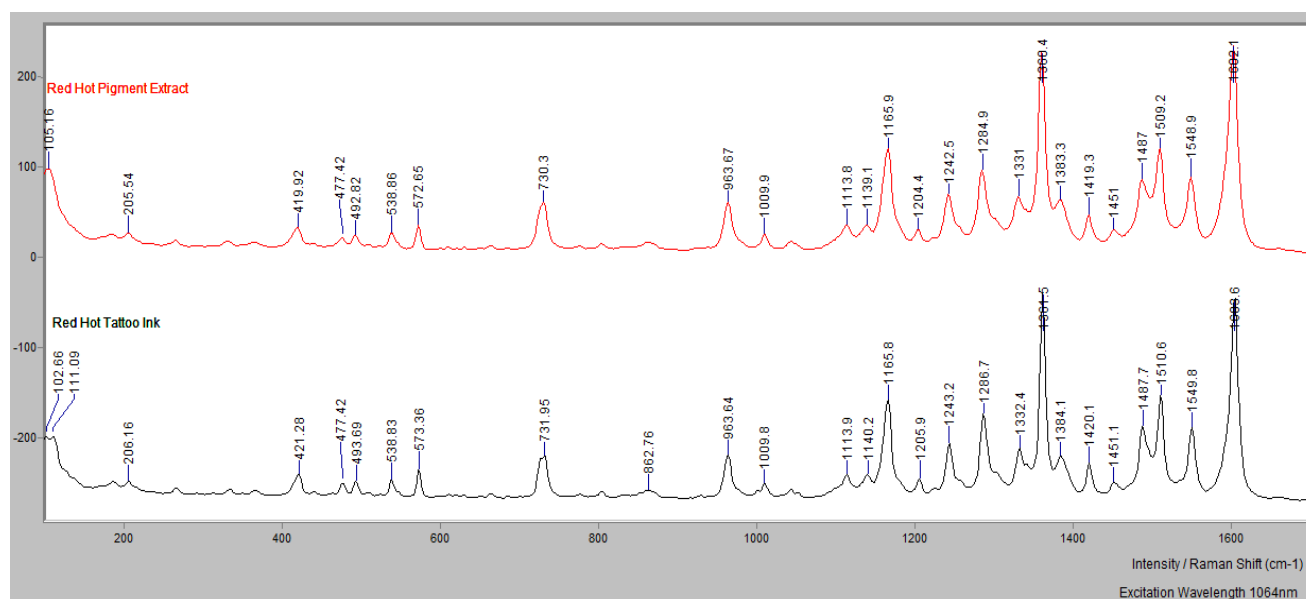


Figure 71. Comparison of Raman spectra of Red Hot ink and pigment extraction.

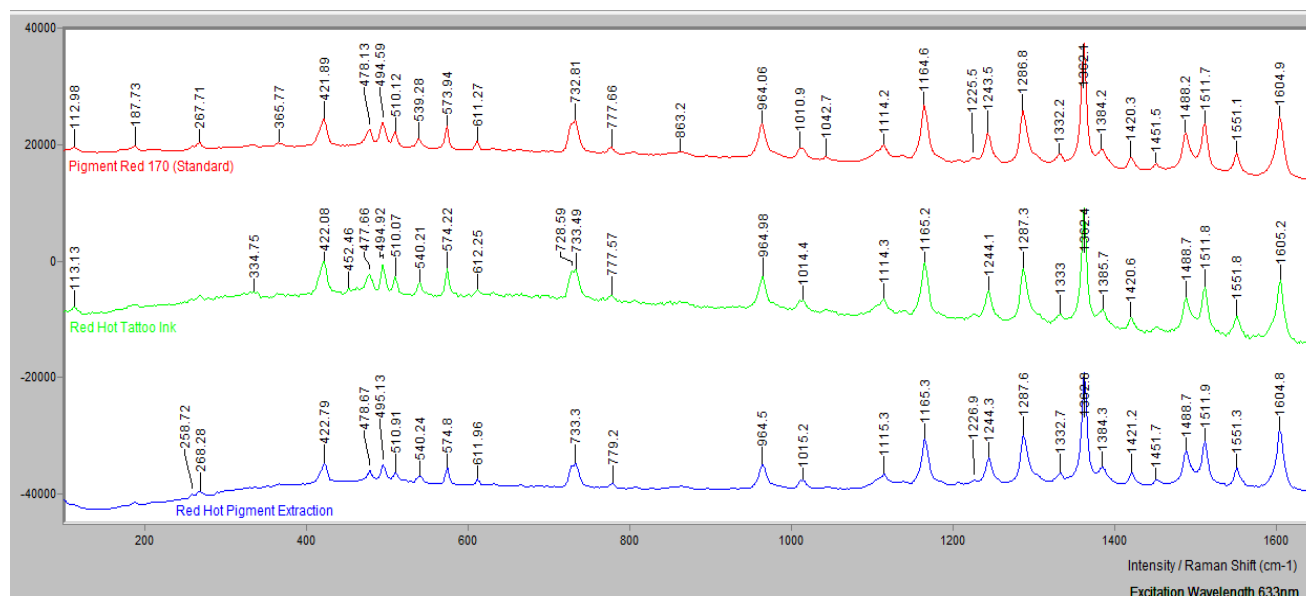


Figure 72. Normal Raman spectra of Red Hot ink and pigment extraction compared to Pigment Red 170.

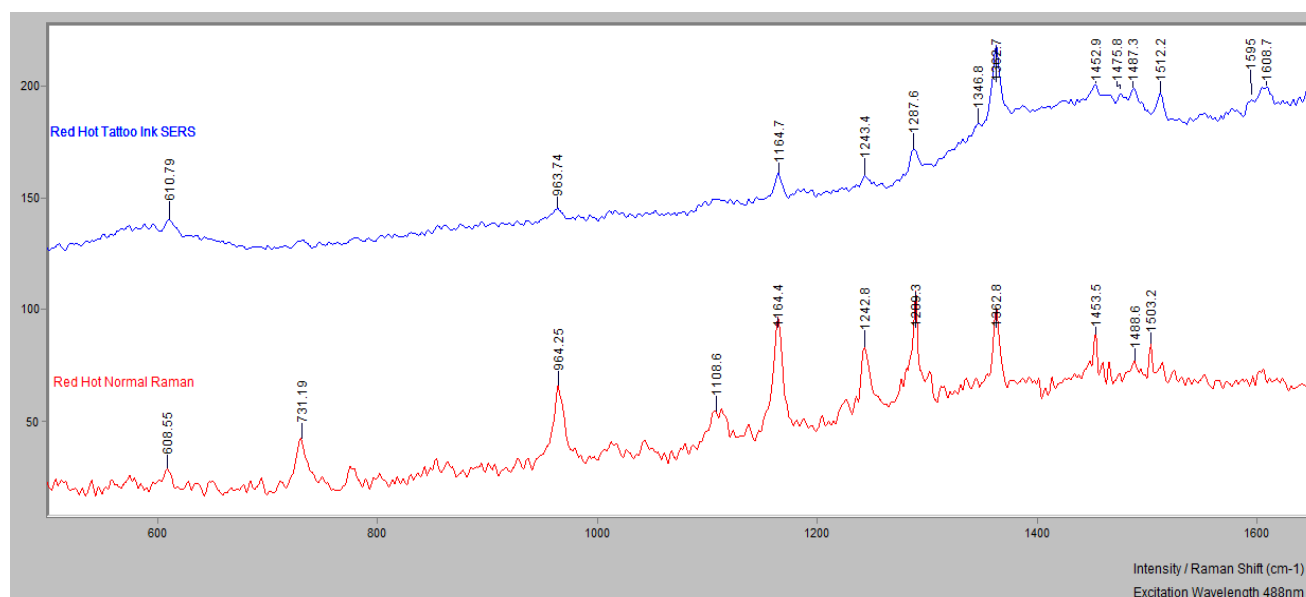


Figure 73. Normal Raman spectra of Red Hot ink compared to SERS spectra of Red Hot ink.

Marz- Good correlation was found between Marz and Pigment Orange 16. XRF indicated the presence of titanium, chlorine and iron. It is probable that the titanium is due to the presence of titanium dioxide.

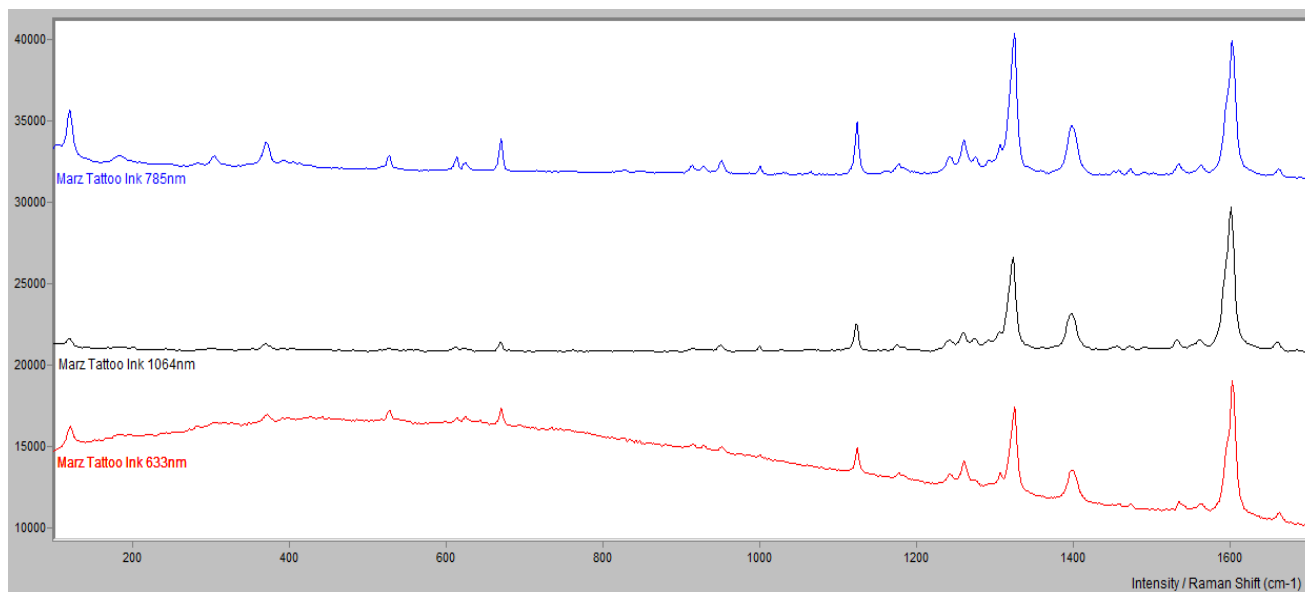


Figure 74. Raman spectra of Marz ink at different excitation wavelengths.

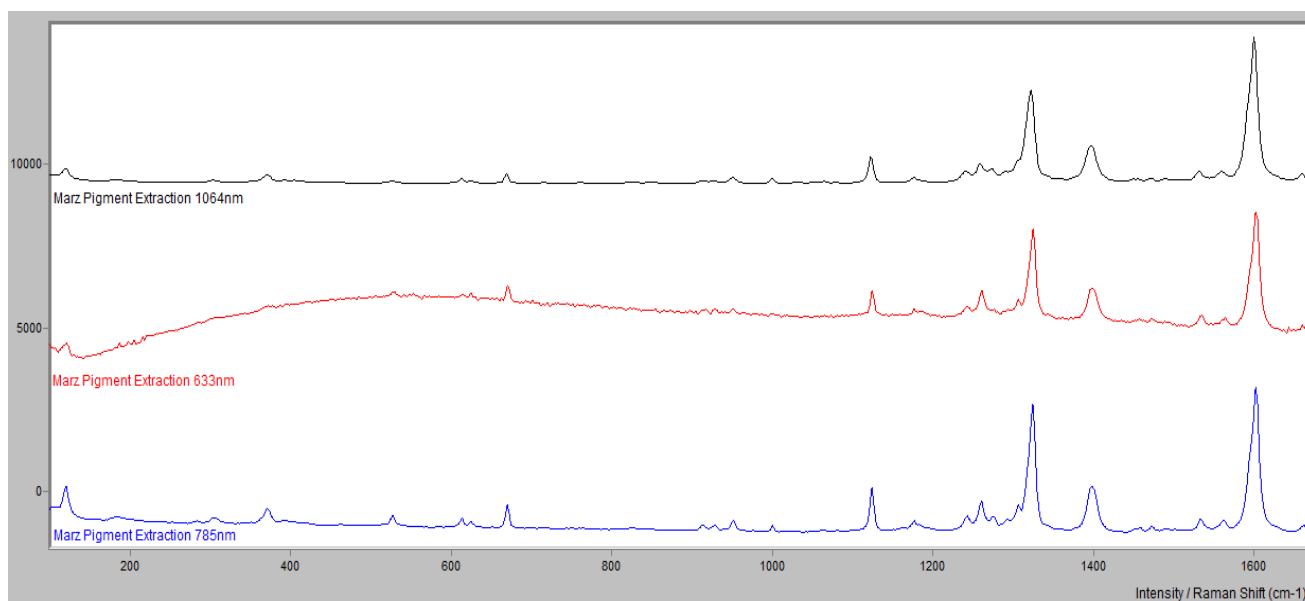


Figure 75. Raman spectra of Marz pigment extraction at different excitation wavelengths.

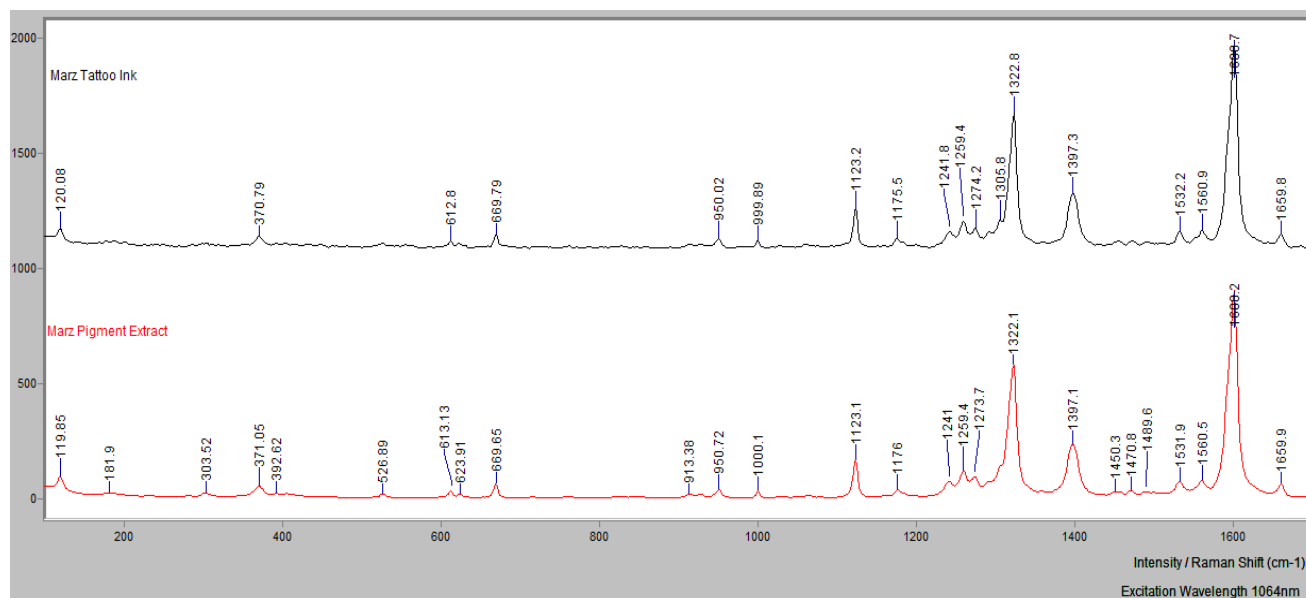


Figure 76. Comparison of Raman spectra of Marz ink and pigment extraction.

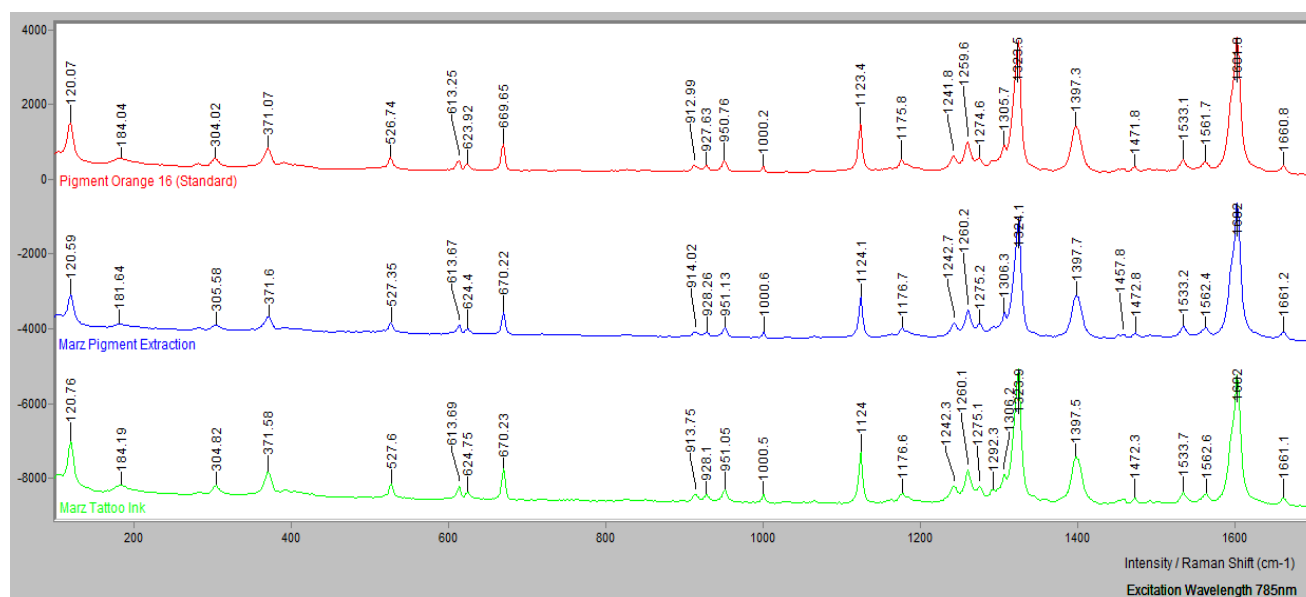


Figure 77. Normal Raman spectra of Marz ink and pigment extraction compared to Pigment Orange 16.

Dolemite- A comparison of Dolemite and the reported pigment composition is described below. XRF indicated the presence of titanium and iron. It is probable that the titanium is due to the presence of titanium dioxide.

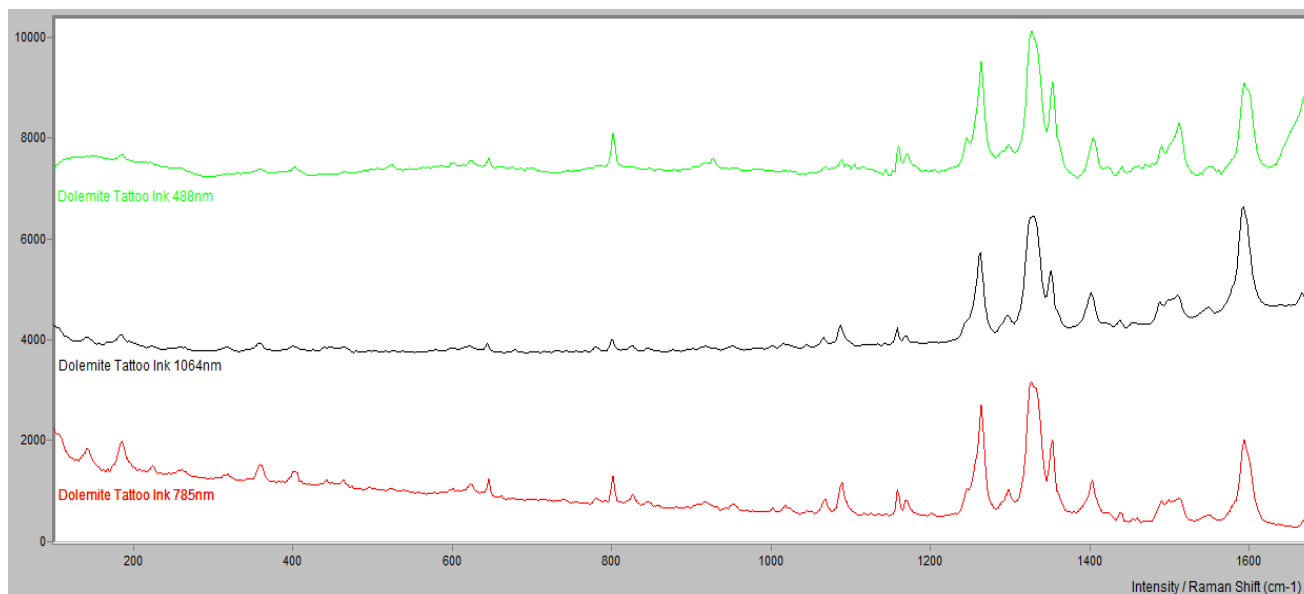


Figure 78. Raman spectra of Dolemite ink at different excitation wavelengths.

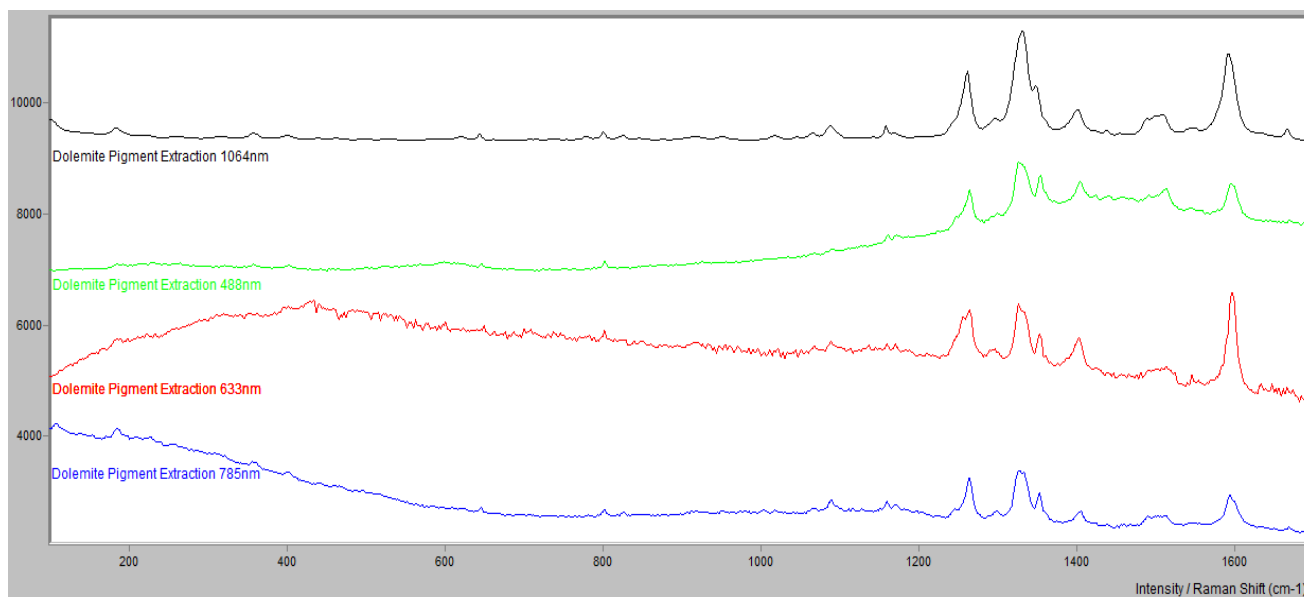


Figure 79. Raman spectra of Dolemite pigment extraction at different excitation wavelengths.

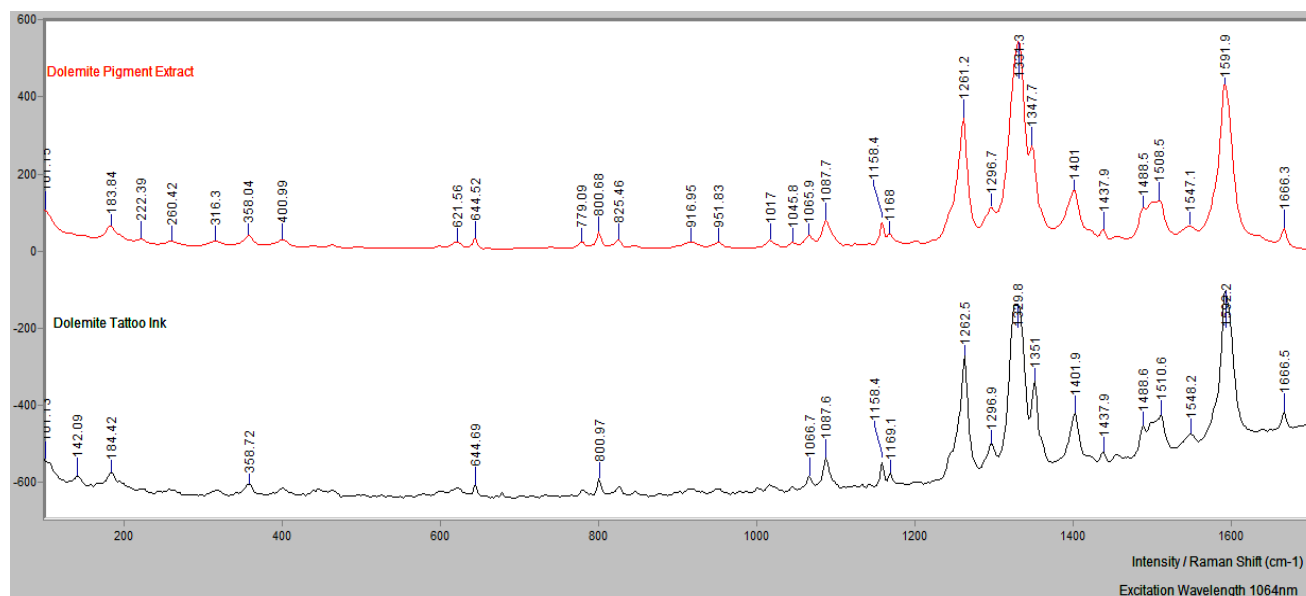


Figure 80. Comparison of Raman spectra of Dolemite ink and pigment extraction.

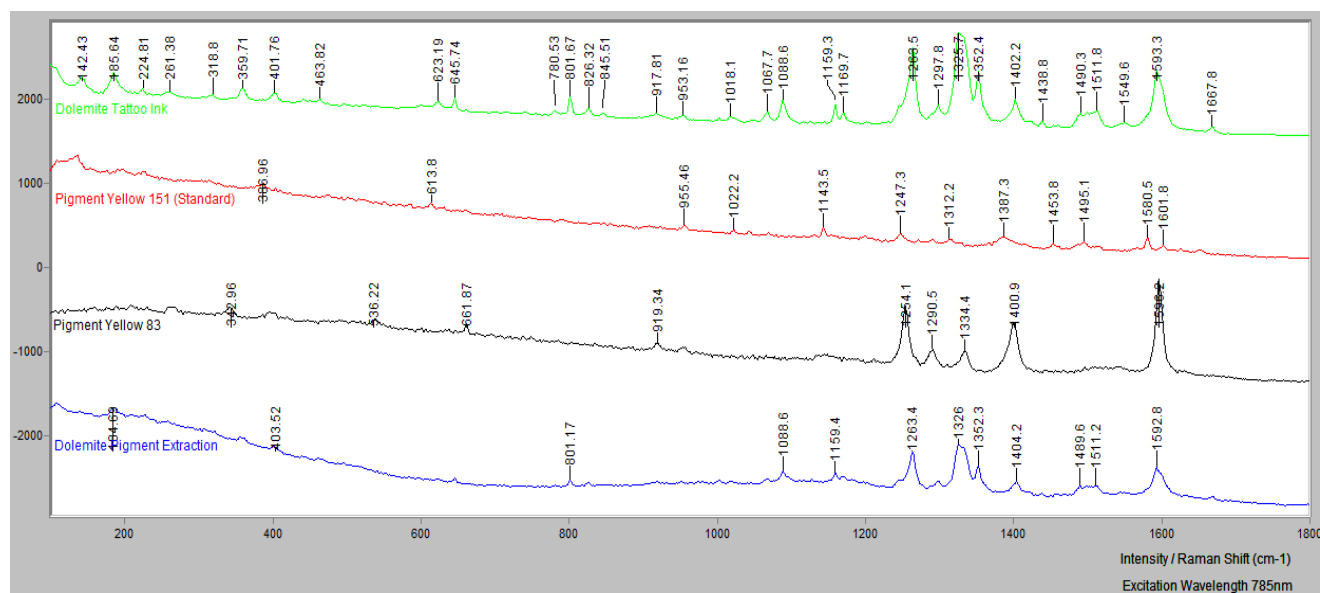


Figure 81. Normal Raman spectra of Dolemite ink and pigment extraction compared to Pigment Yellow 151 and Pigment Yellow 83.

According to the bottle label, Dolemite is supposed to contain Pigment Yellows 83 and 151. There is very little evidence to support the presence of PY 83, PY 151 or a mixture of the two. X-ray fluorescence did not disclose the presence of chlorine, which is found in PY83. Based on the literature, it appears that the bands present are more consistent with Pigment Yellow 74

(Note: No standard PY 74 was analyzed to directly correlate to the spectrum of Dolemite). The following bands are reported for PY 74 (using Colombini, *et.al.*, 2010, Scherrer *et.al.*, 2009 and Vandenabeele, *et. al.*, 2000).

Colombini, *et.al.*: ($\lambda_0=785\text{nm}$): 1596s, 1403ms, 1355s, 1330vs, 1266s

Scherrer *et.al.*: ($\lambda_0=785\text{nm}$): 1593s, 1352s, 1328vs, 1263s

Vandenabeele, *et. al.*: ($\lambda_0=780\text{nm}$): 1327vs, 1263s

Comparison between the spectrum reported in Scherrer *et.al.* with the experimental data demonstrates a correlation between thirty-eight (38) of the bands labeled in the spectrum of Dolemite (Figure below; the list of bands reported by Scherrer *et.al.* can be found in Appendix I).

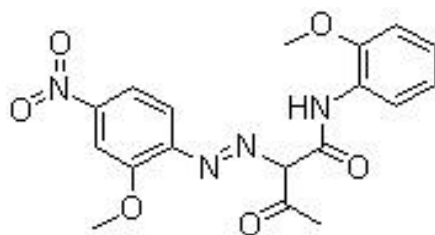


Figure 82. Pigment Yellow 74

The effect of mixtures cannot be ruled out as an important factor in evaluating spectral data. Extraction of the Dolemite tattoo ink resulted in the visualization of three components, a white portion which is likely to be titanium dioxide, a large yellow portion and a small orange portion. Based upon the disproportionate amount of yellow and orange pigment, two scenarios are possible: (1) the pigment detected for Dolemite was the yellow portion, with the small concentration of orange portion either being undetected or overwhelmed by the yellow or (2) the resultant spectra for Dolemite are a combination of the yellow and orange portions, with some spectral bands arising from the yellow portion and some spectral bands arising from the orange

portion. As such, it is recommended that an extraction or separation method be employed in order to determine the amount of pigments present and to isolate each pigment for subsequent qualitative spectroscopic analysis. In addition, the ratios of pigments (either relative ratios or more detailed quantitative analysis) may be a means to distinguish similar colors from different manufacturers or brands. Furthermore, Colombini *et.al.* state “PY83 is supposed to be containing some unknown percentage of PY1,” adding that this class of pigment is often used in mixtures, making them complex to study (2010, pp. 18).



Figure 83. Resultant extraction of Dolemite tattoo ink. Note the presence of three distinct color profiles- white (bottom), orange and yellow (top).

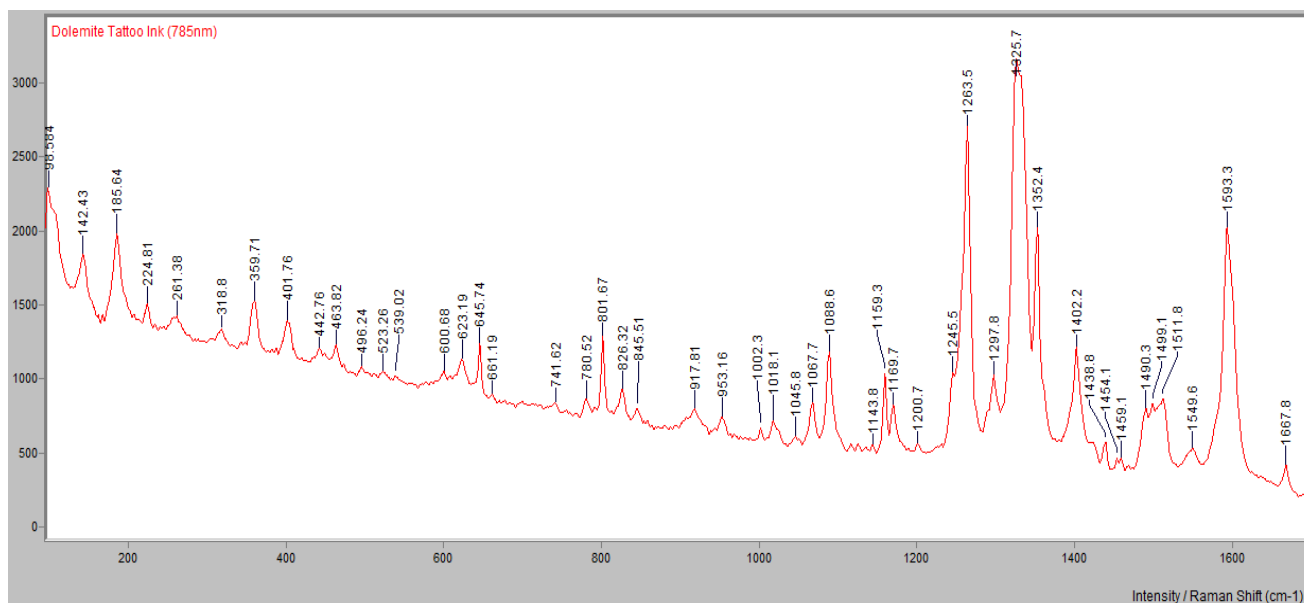


Figure 84. Dolemite Tattoo Ink showing band locations

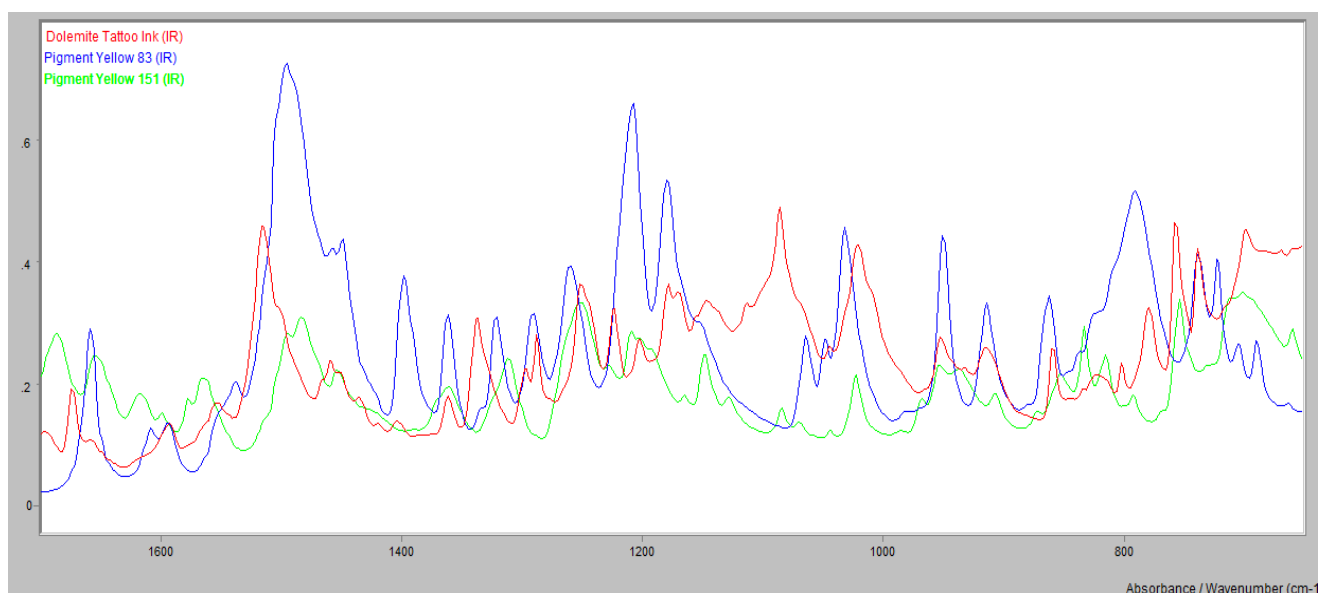


Figure 85. Infrared (ATR) spectra from the ‘fingerprint’ region of $1700\text{--}650\text{cm}^{-1}$ of Dolemite Tattoo Ink and Pigment Yellows 83 and 151. Note the lack of correlation of the pigment standards with the tattoo ink. Band assignments with infrared spectra similar to that done with Raman spectral data can be useful for providing information concerning the characteristic functional groups of the pigment molecules. For example, the disazo PY 83 (in blue) contains a large band from about $1450\text{--}1500\text{cm}^{-1}$, which is due to the strong $\text{N}=\text{N}$ azo vibrations. This band is also present, but much weaker, in monoazo PY 151 and Dolemite (which is thought to be consistent with the monoazo PY 74). In PY 83, the series of peaks at around $1180\text{--}1310\text{cm}^{-1}$ indicates a disazo, as well as the three peaks located around $850\text{--}980\text{cm}^{-1}$.

Blisterine- A comparison of Blisterine and the reported pigment composition is described below. XRF indicated the presence of titanium and iron. It is probable that the titanium is due to the presence of titanium dioxide.

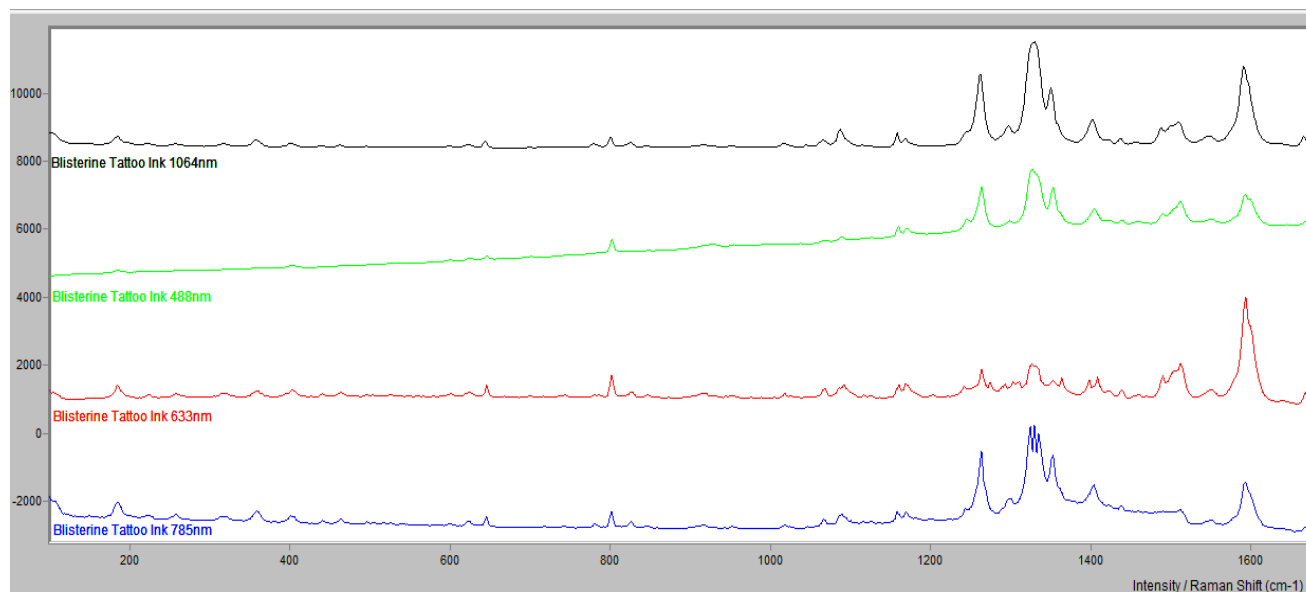


Figure 86. Raman spectra of Blisterine ink at different excitation wavelengths.

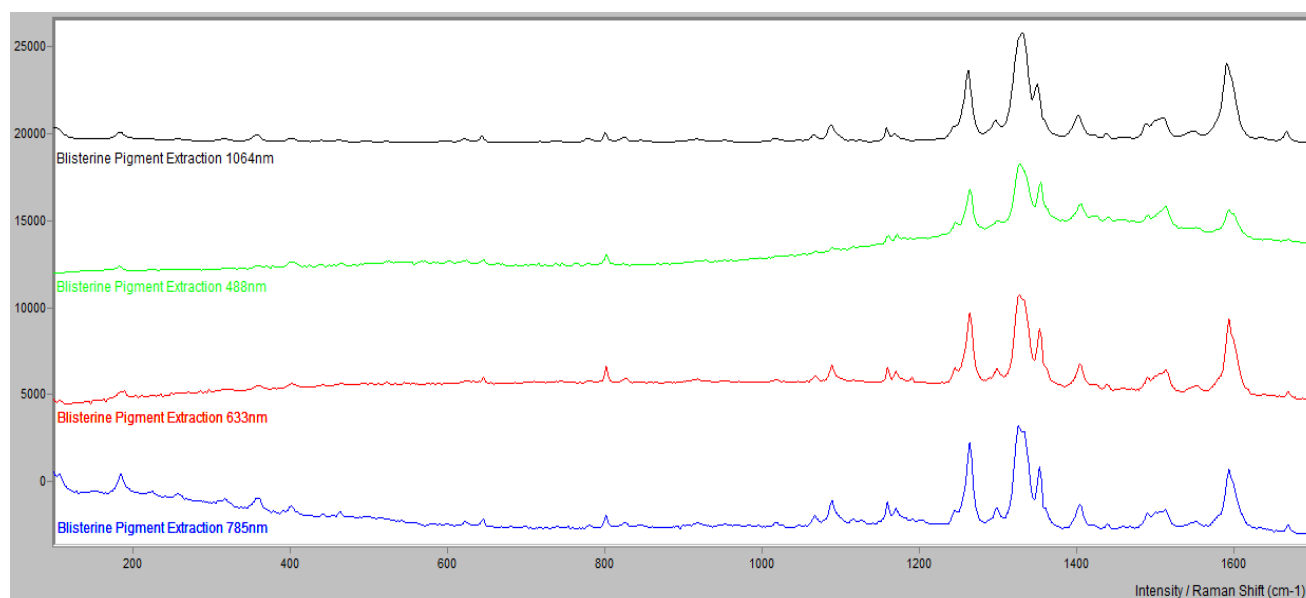


Figure 87. Raman spectra of Blisterine pigment extraction at different excitation wavelengths.

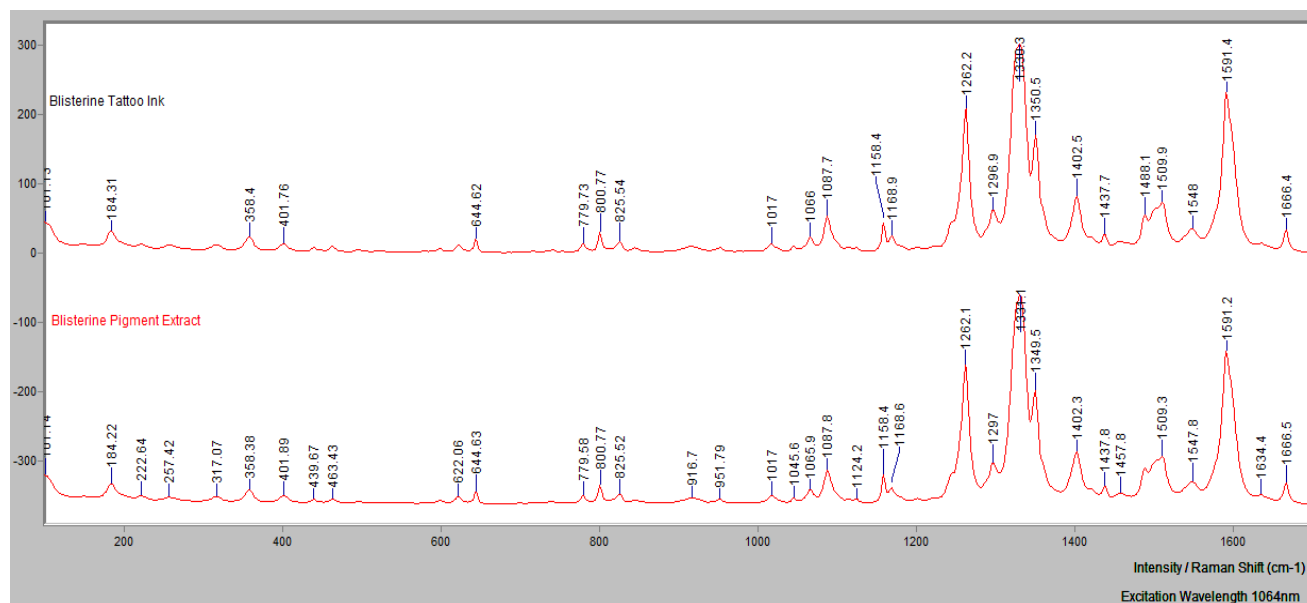


Figure 88. Comparison of Raman spectra of Blisterine ink and pigment extraction.

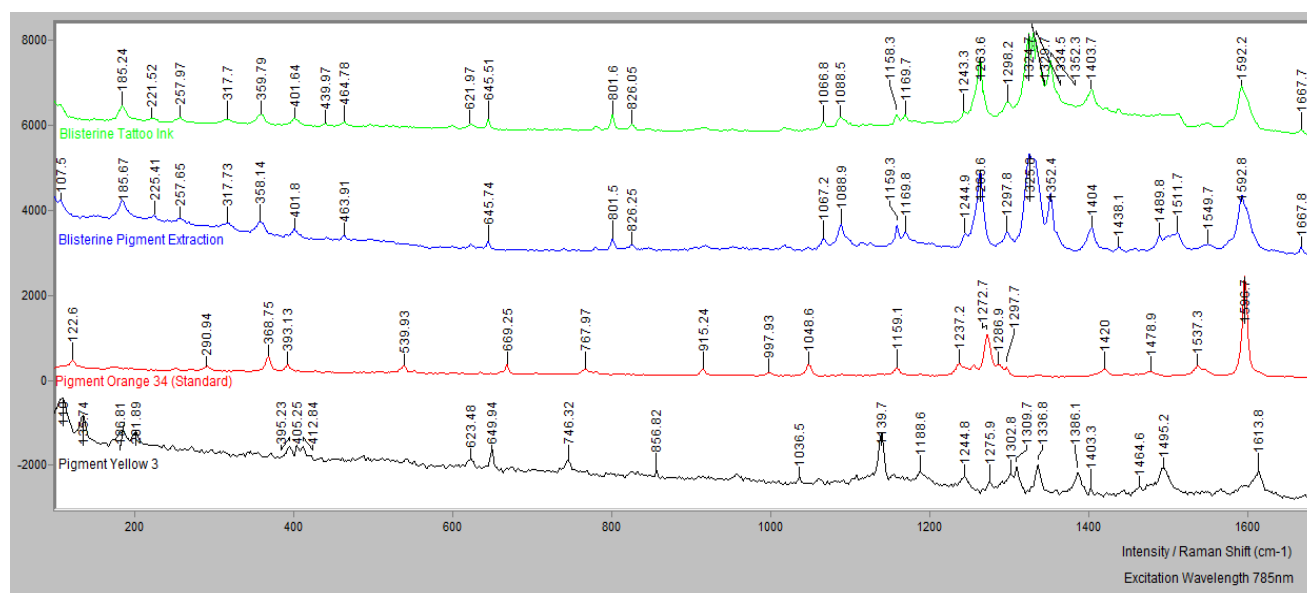


Figure 89. Normal Raman spectra of Blisterine ink and pigment extraction compared to Pigment Orange 34 and Pigment Yellow 3.

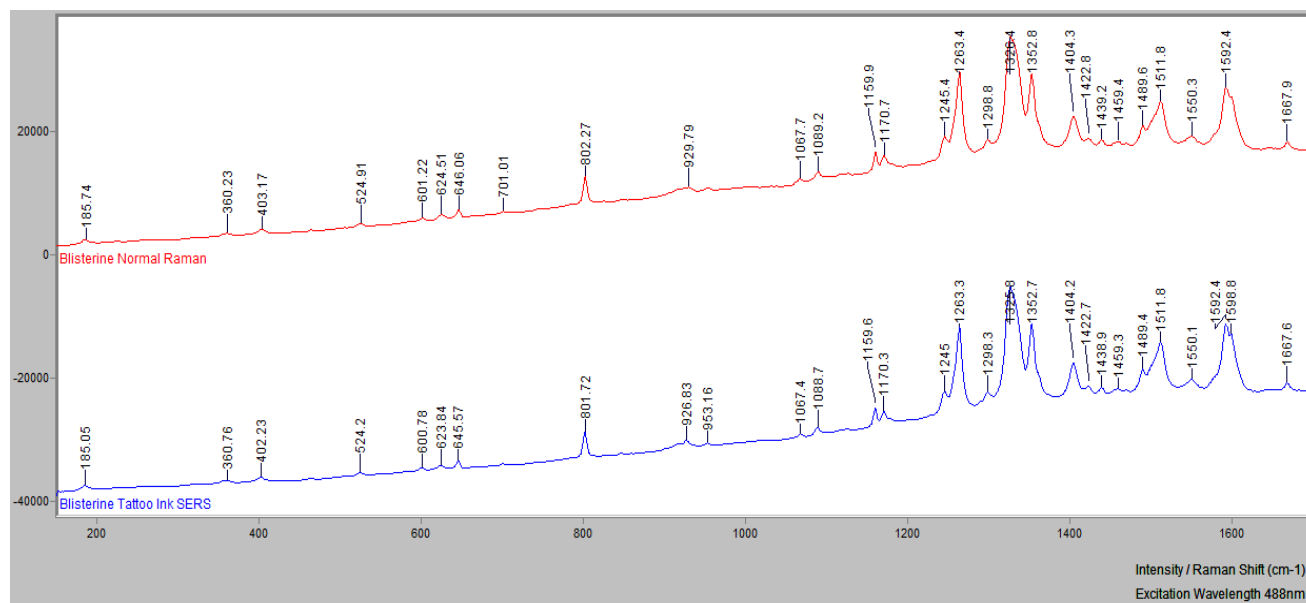


Figure 90. Normal Raman spectra of Blisterine ink compared to SERS spectra of Blisterine ink.

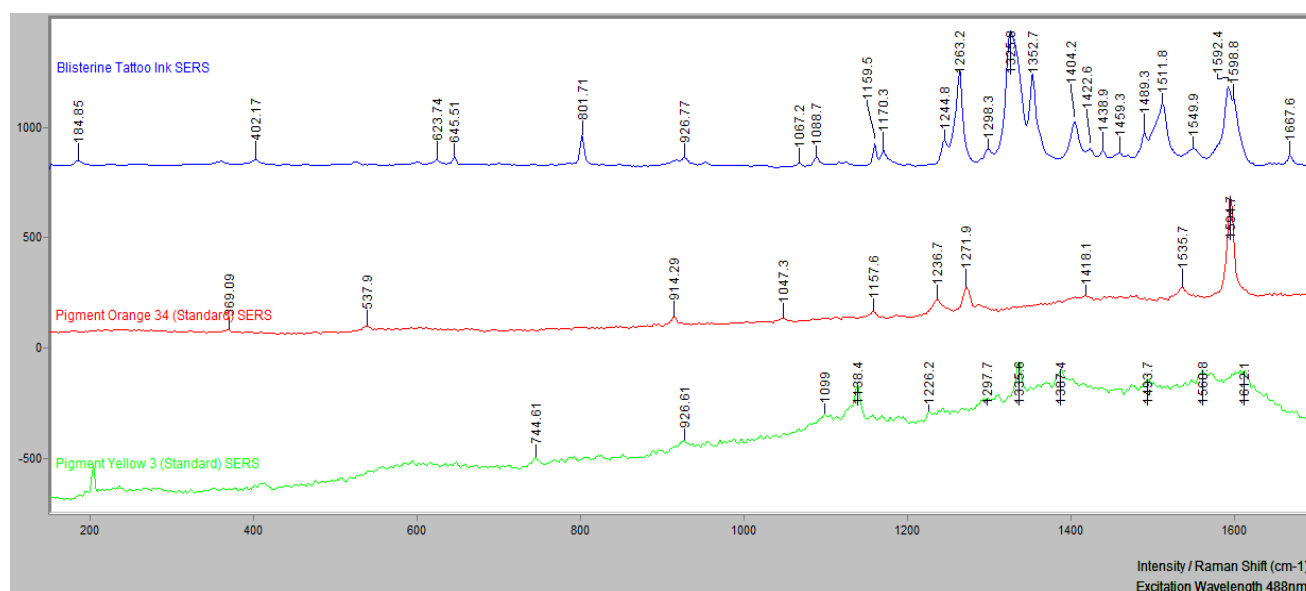


Figure 91. SERS spectra of Blisterine tattoo ink compared to Pigment Orange 34 and Pigment Yellow 3.

According to the bottle label, Blisterine is supposed to contain Pigment Yellow 3 and Pigment Orange 34. There is very little evidence to support the presence of PY 3 and PO 34. Based on the literature, it appears that the bands present are more consistent with Pigment

Yellow 74 as seen with the Dolemite Tattoo Ink. In addition, no chlorine was detected by x-ray fluorescence, which is found in both PY3 and PO34.

Comparison between the spectrum reported in Scherrer *et.al.* with the experimental data demonstrates a correlation between thirty-four (34) of the bands labeled in the spectrum of Blisterine (Figure below; the list of bands reported by Scherrer *et.al.* can be found in Appendix D). Due to the resultant Raman data and subsequent comparison to pigment standards, it is apparent that the labeling on the Blisterine packaging does not correspond to the actual ingredients.

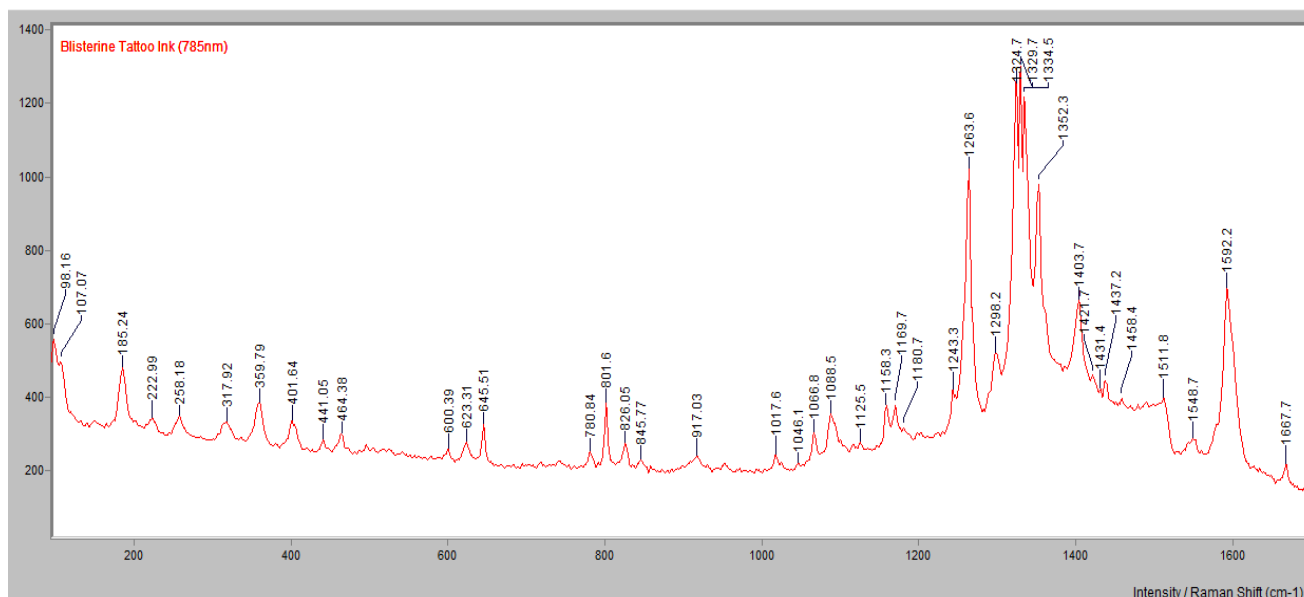


Figure 92. Blisterine Tattoo Ink showing band locations

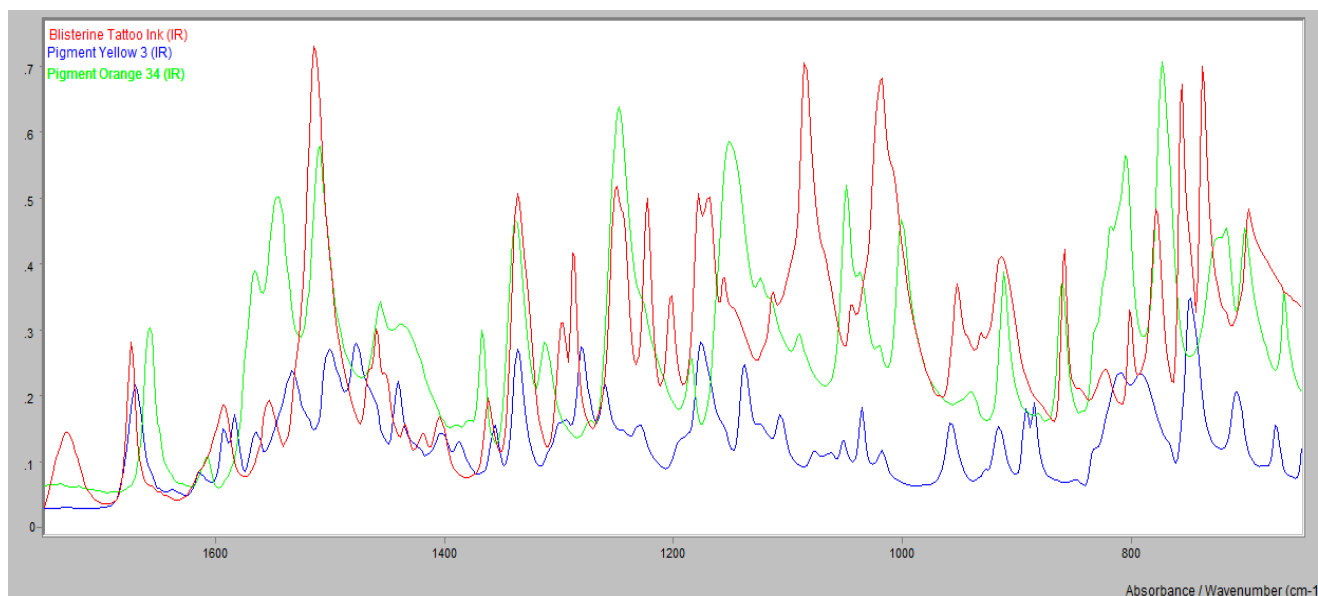
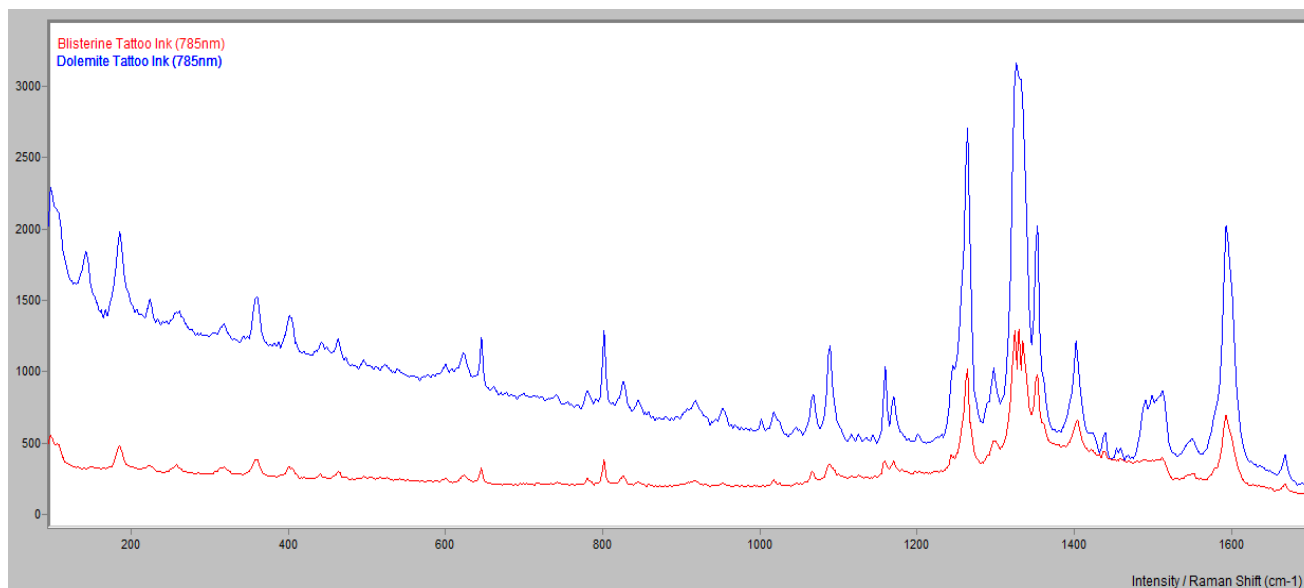
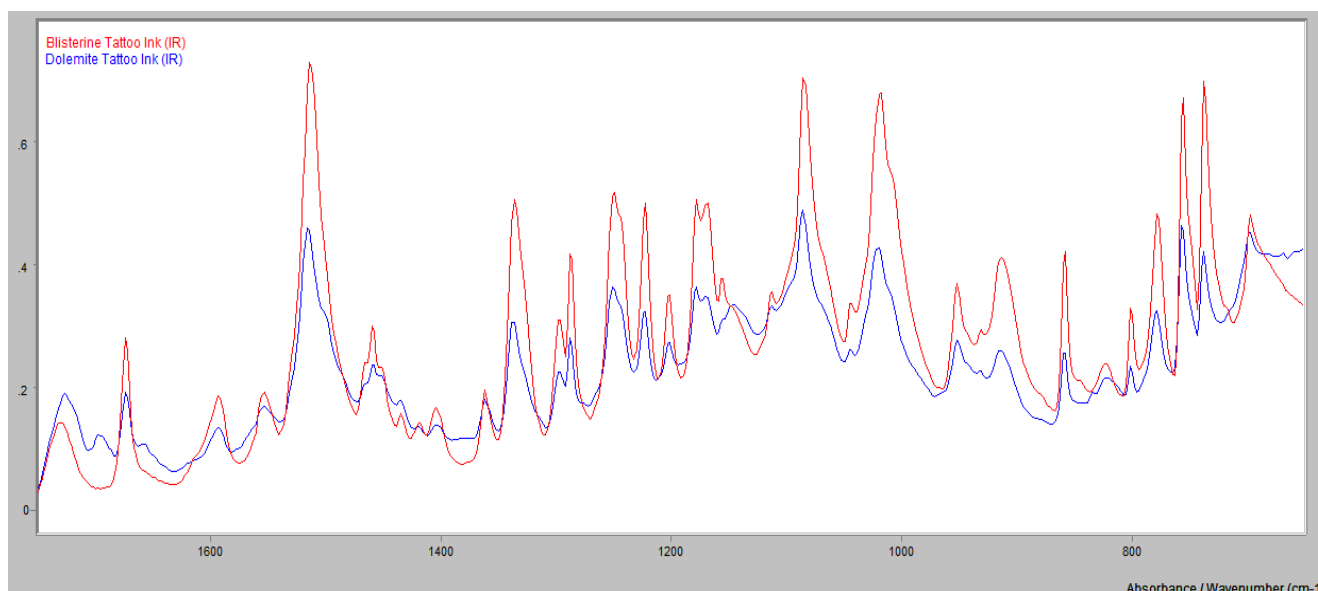


Figure 93. Infrared spectra from the region of 1750-650cm⁻¹ of Blisterine Tattoo Ink and Pigment Yellow 3 and Pigment Orange 34. Note the lack of correlation of the pigment standards with the tattoo ink.

An overlay of the Raman spectra for Dolemite and Blisterine demonstrates that they are similar in chemical composition (Figure 94 below),



in addition to an overlay of the infrared spectra (Figure 95, below).



Sassygrass- Additional bands were detected when using SERS. XRF indicated the presence of titanium, chlorine, iron and copper. It is probable that the titanium is due to the presence of titanium dioxide and the chlorine and copper are indicative of Pigment Green 7.

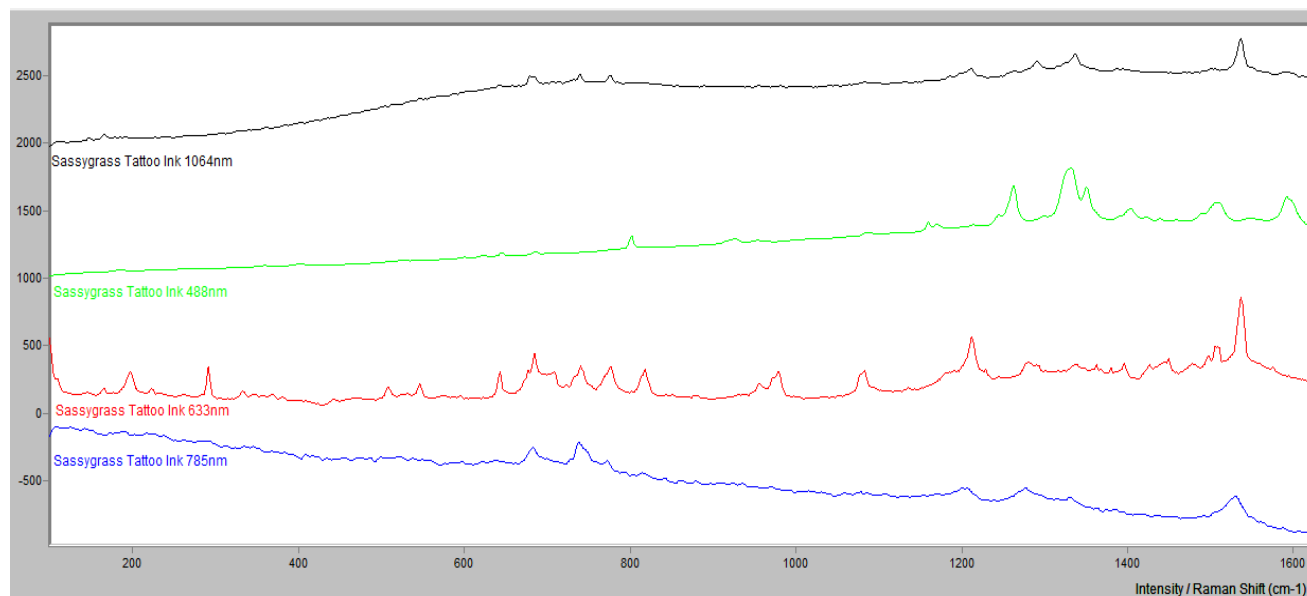


Figure 96. Raman spectra of Sassygrass ink at different excitation wavelengths.

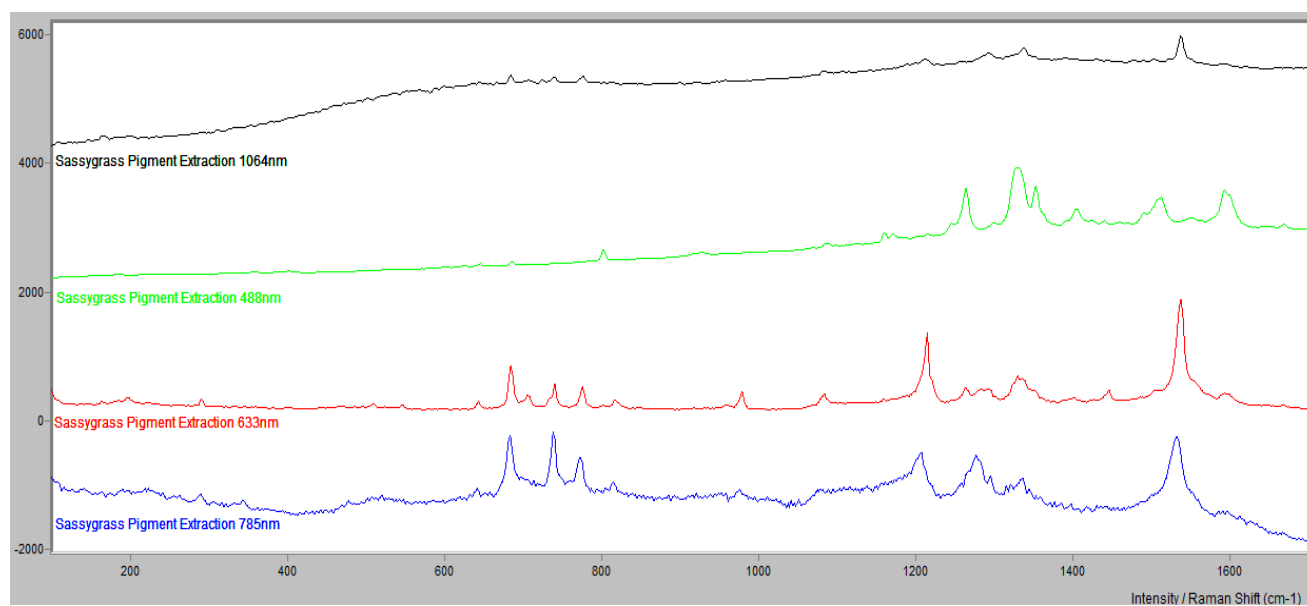


Figure 97. Raman spectra of Sassygrass pigment extraction at different excitation wavelengths.

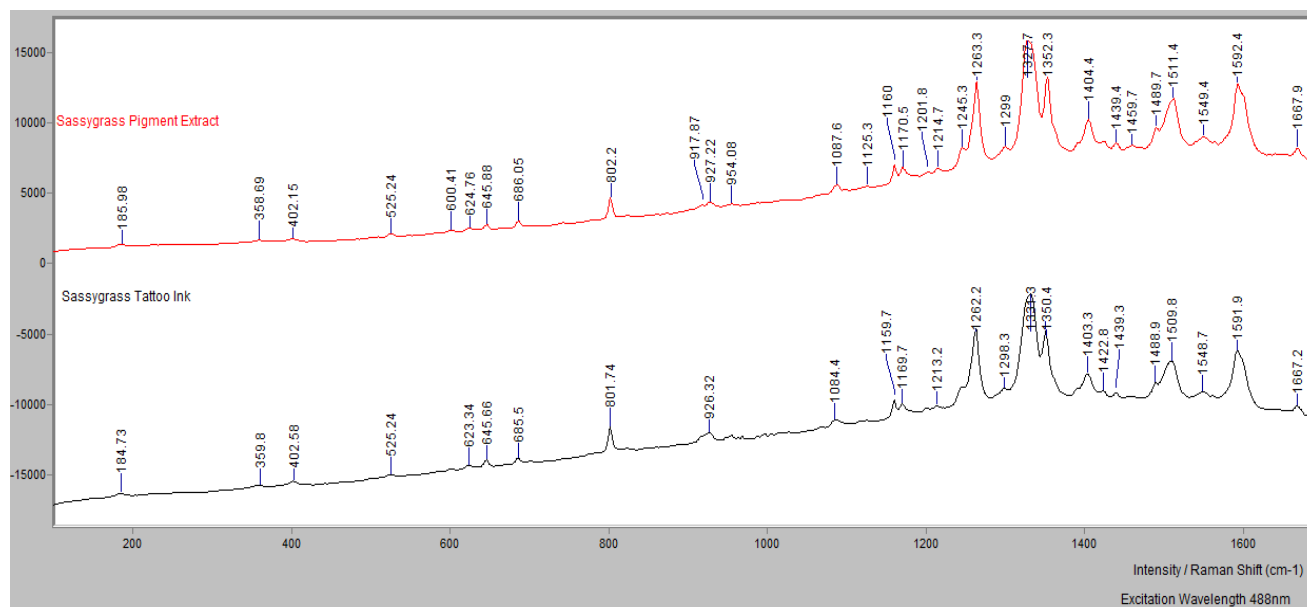


Figure 98. Comparison of Raman spectra of Sassygrass ink and pigment extraction.

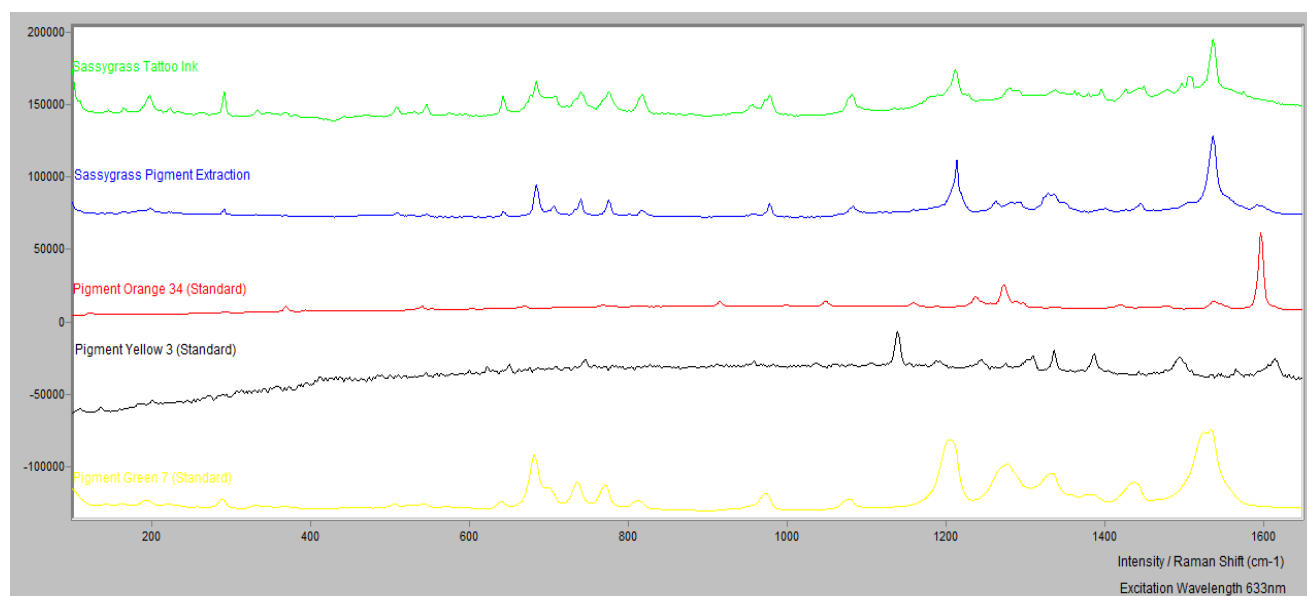


Figure 99. Normal Raman spectra of Sassygrass ink and pigment extraction compared to Pigment Orange and Pigment Yellow 3 and Pigment Green 7.

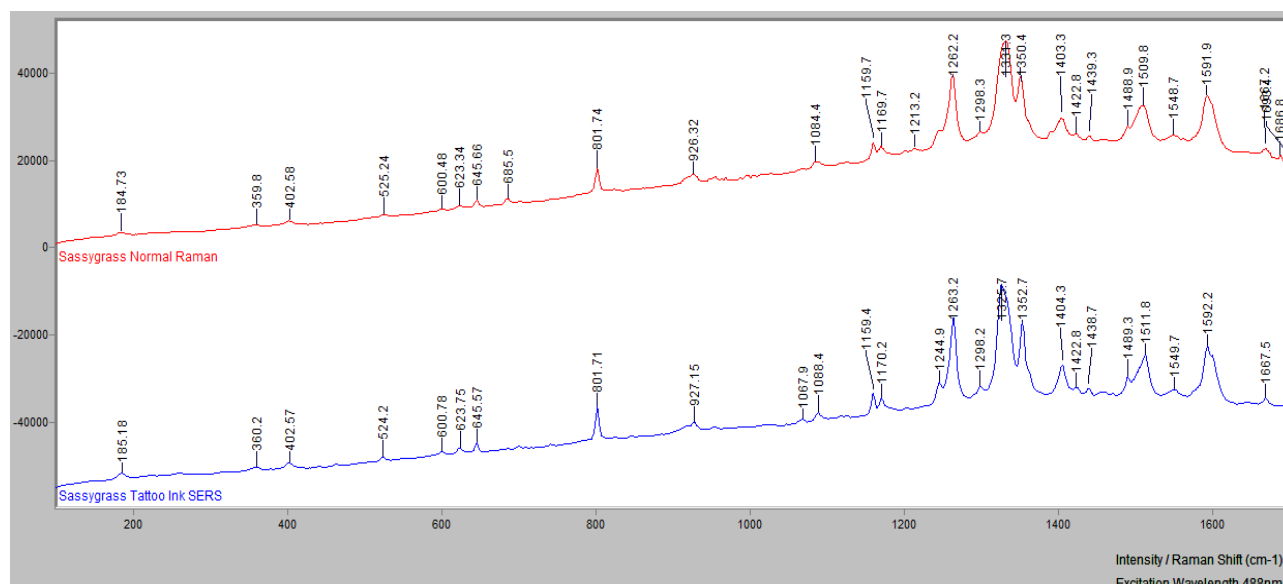


Figure 100. Normal Raman spectra of Sassygrass ink compared to SERS spectra of Sassygrass.

Many of the bands present in the Sassygrass tattoo ink correspond to the bands present in Pigment Green 7. Because Sassygrass is a green tattoo ink, it is probable that the majority of the pigment is green, thus rendering it difficult to detect any other pigments present in trace quantities, such as the Pigment Orange 34 and Pigment Yellow 3 that are supposed to be present according to the ingredients listed on the label.

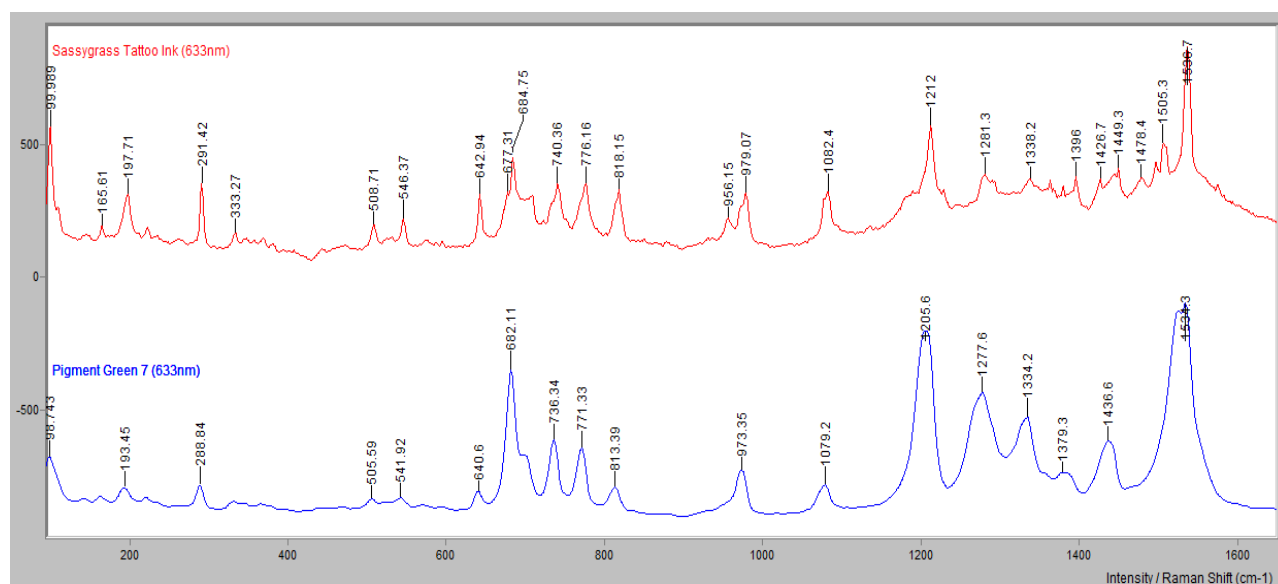


Figure 101. Sassygrass Tattoo Ink compared to PG 7 standard.

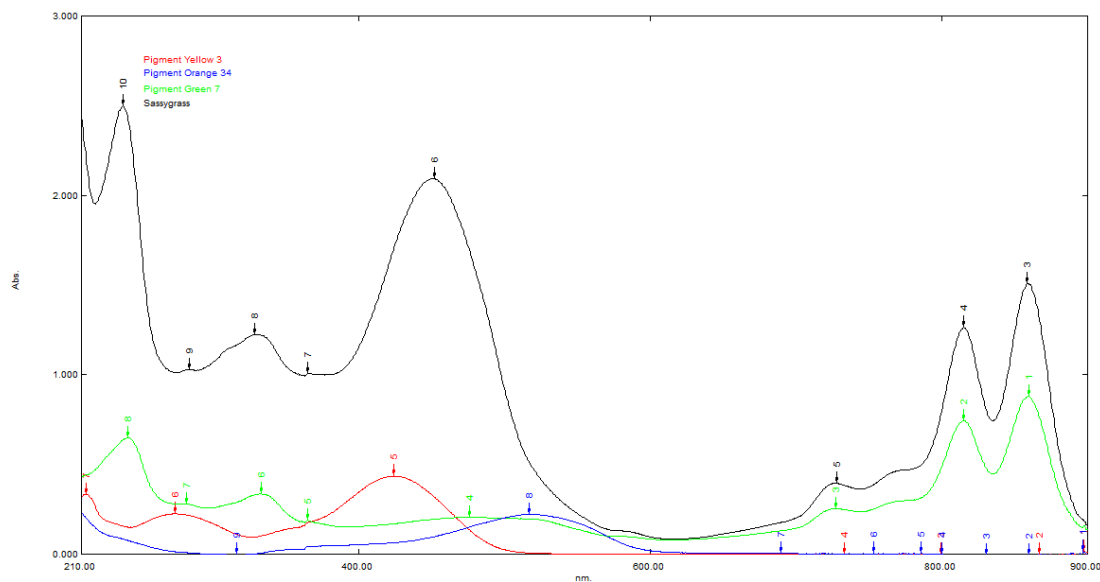


Figure 102. UV/Vis spectra of Sassygrass and corresponding pigments (according to manufacturer).

Tastywaves- XRF indicated the presence of titanium, chlorine, copper and bromine. It is probable that the titanium is due to the presence of titanium dioxide and the chlorine, copper and bromine are indicative of Pigment Green (Cu, Cl, Br). The presence of the bromine suggests the presence of Pigment Green 36, in which there is some of the chlorines are replaced with bromine.

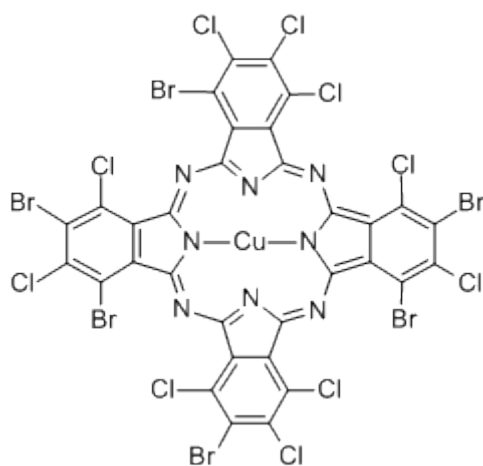


Figure 103. Pigment Green 36

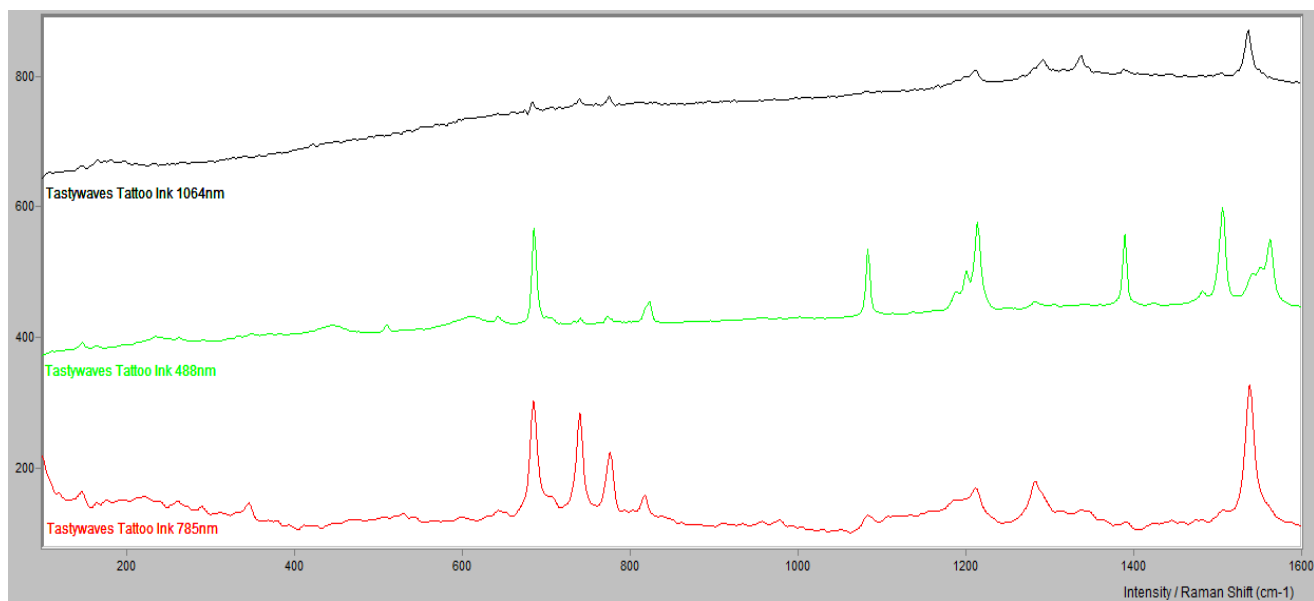


Figure 104. Raman spectra of Tastywaves ink at different excitation wavelengths.

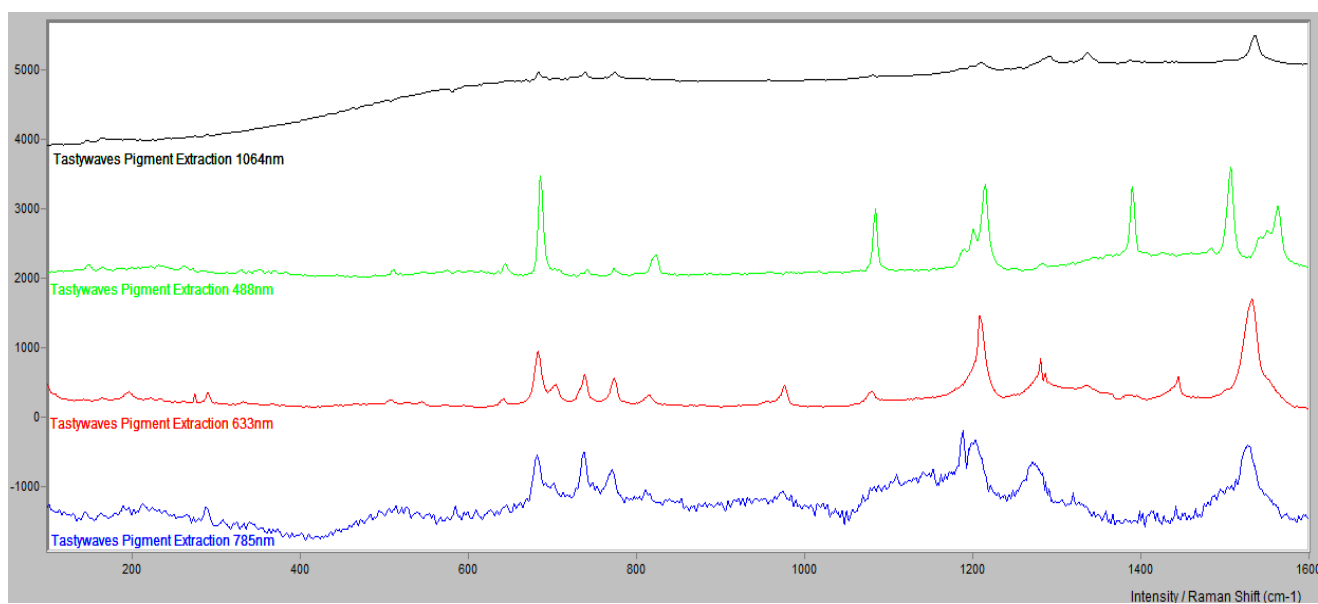


Figure 105. Raman spectra of Tastywaves pigment extraction at different excitation wavelengths.

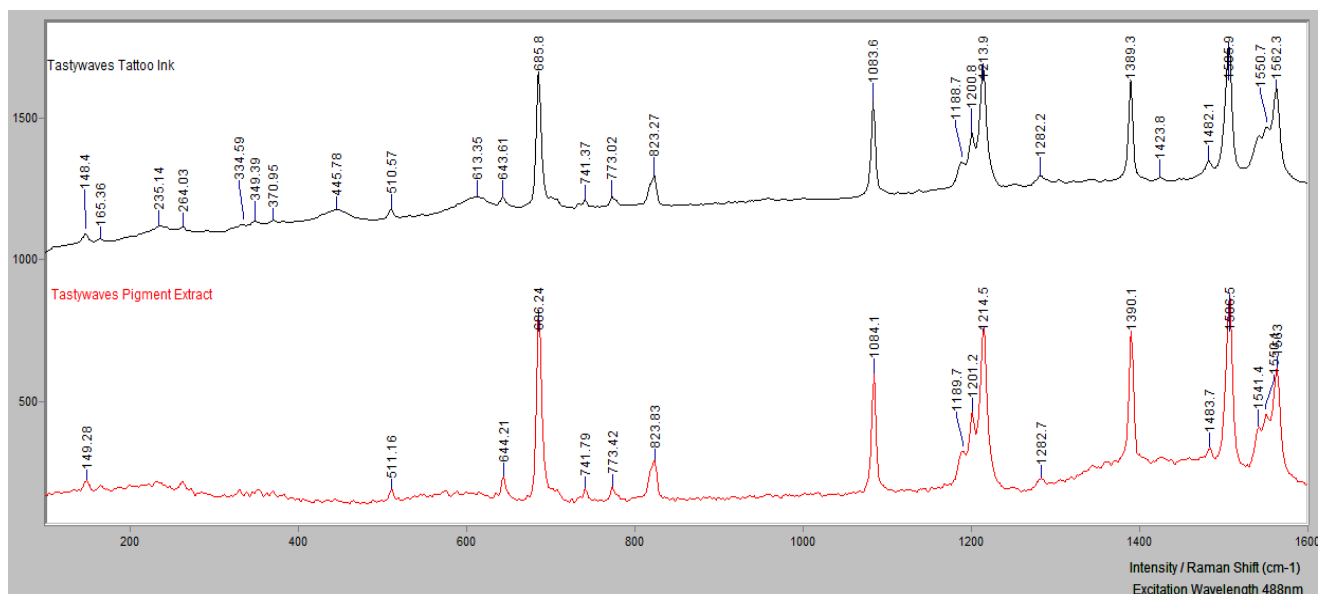


Figure 106. Comparison of Raman spectra of Tastywaves ink and pigment extraction.

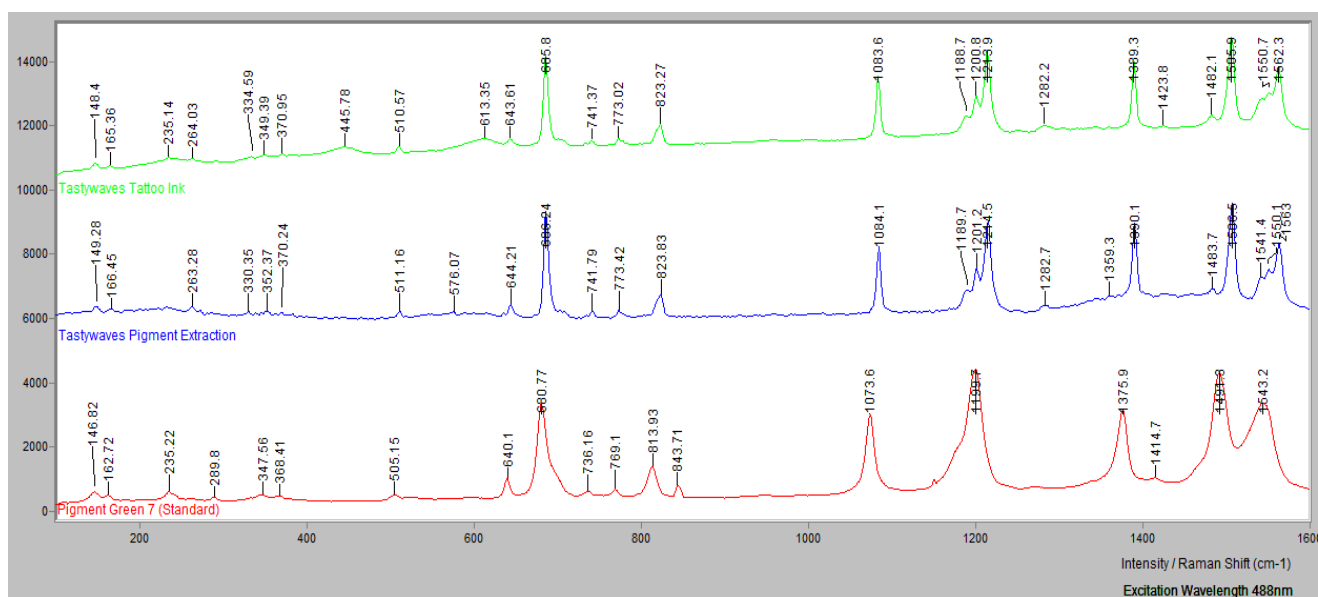


Figure 107. Normal Raman spectra of Tastywaves ink and pigment extraction compared to Pigment Green 7.

Bellbottom Blue- XRF indicated the presence of titanium and copper. It is probable that the titanium is due to the presence of titanium dioxide and the copper is indicative of Pigment Blue. UV/Vis data correlated to that of Pigment Blue 15.

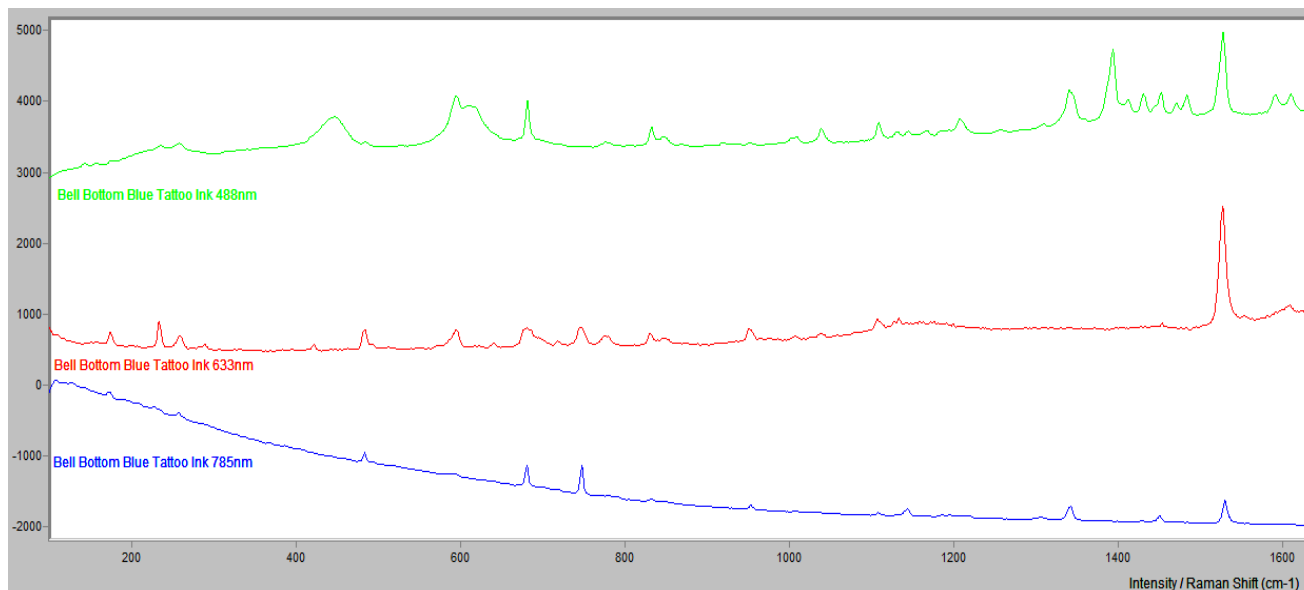


Figure 108. Raman spectra of Bell Bottom Blue ink at different excitation wavelengths.

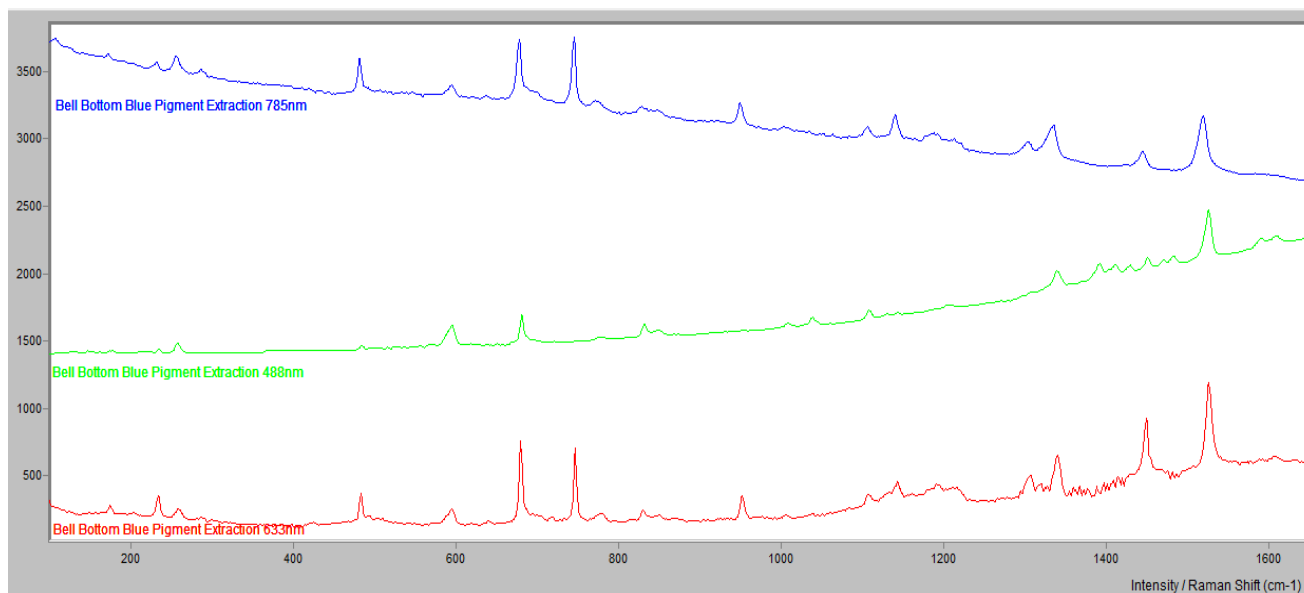


Figure 109. Raman spectra of Bell Bottom Blue pigment extraction at different excitation wavelengths.

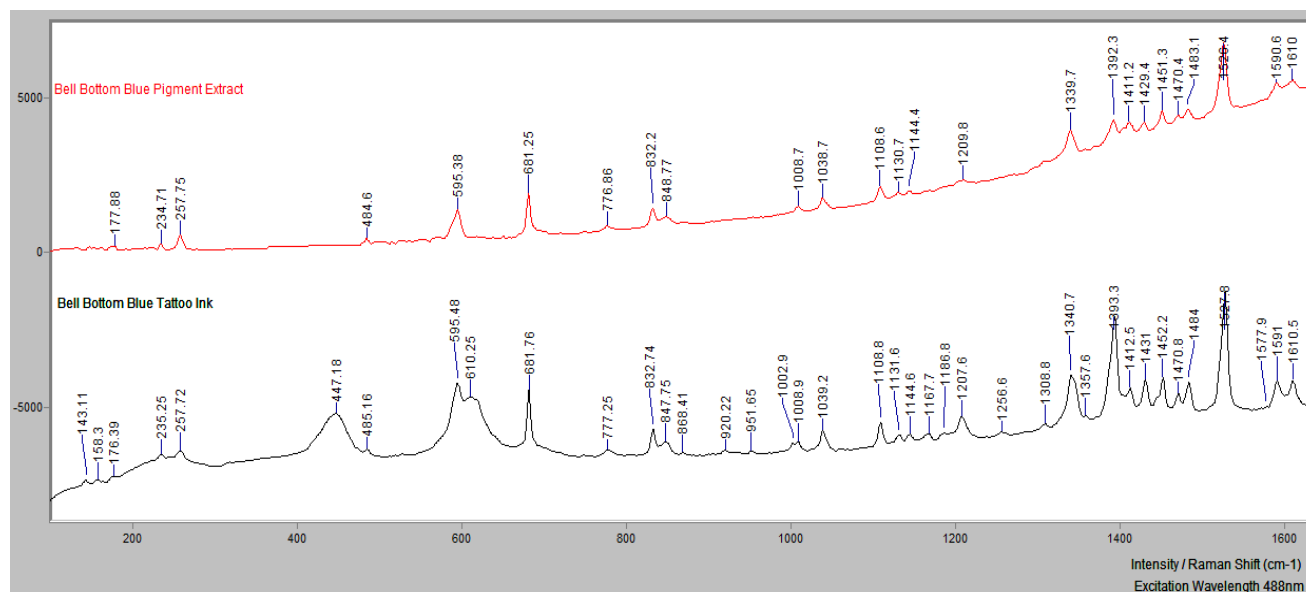


Figure 110. Comparison of Raman spectra of Bell Bottom Blue ink and pigment extraction.

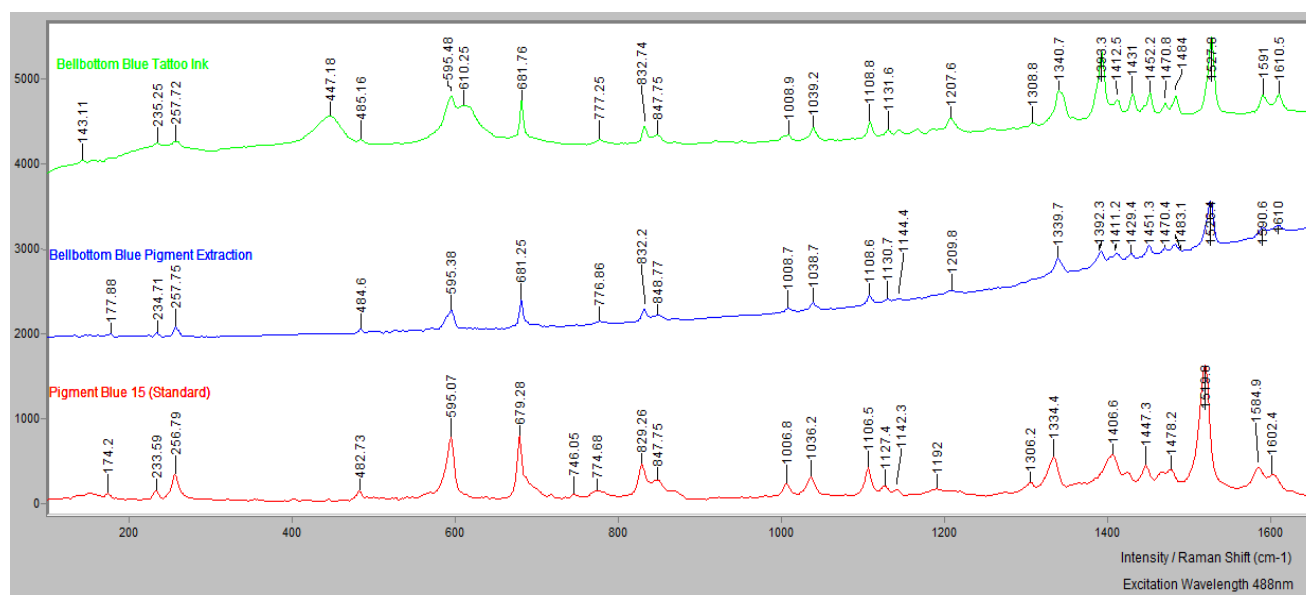


Figure 111. Normal Raman spectra of Bell Bottom Blue ink and pigment extraction compared to Pigment Blue 15.

SRV Teal 2- XRF indicated the presence of titanium, chlorine and copper. It is probable that the titanium is due to the presence of titanium dioxide and the chlorine and copper are indicative of Pigment Green (Cu, Cl) and Pigment Blue (Cu).

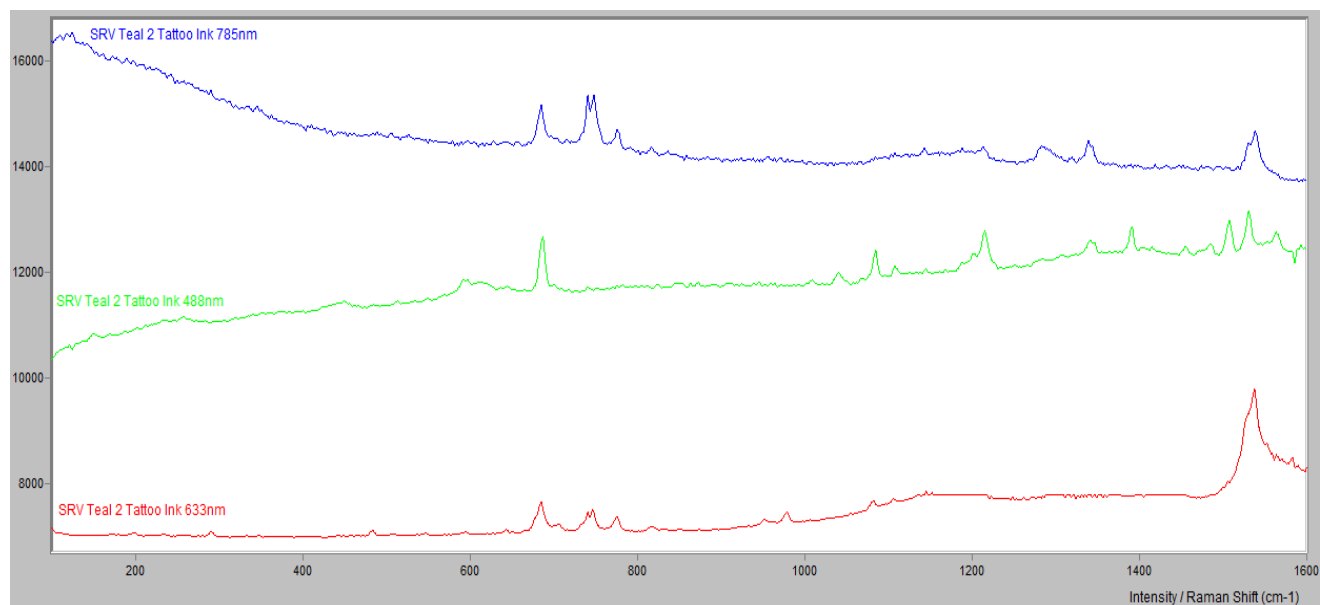


Figure 112. Raman spectra of SRV Teal 2 ink at different excitation wavelengths.

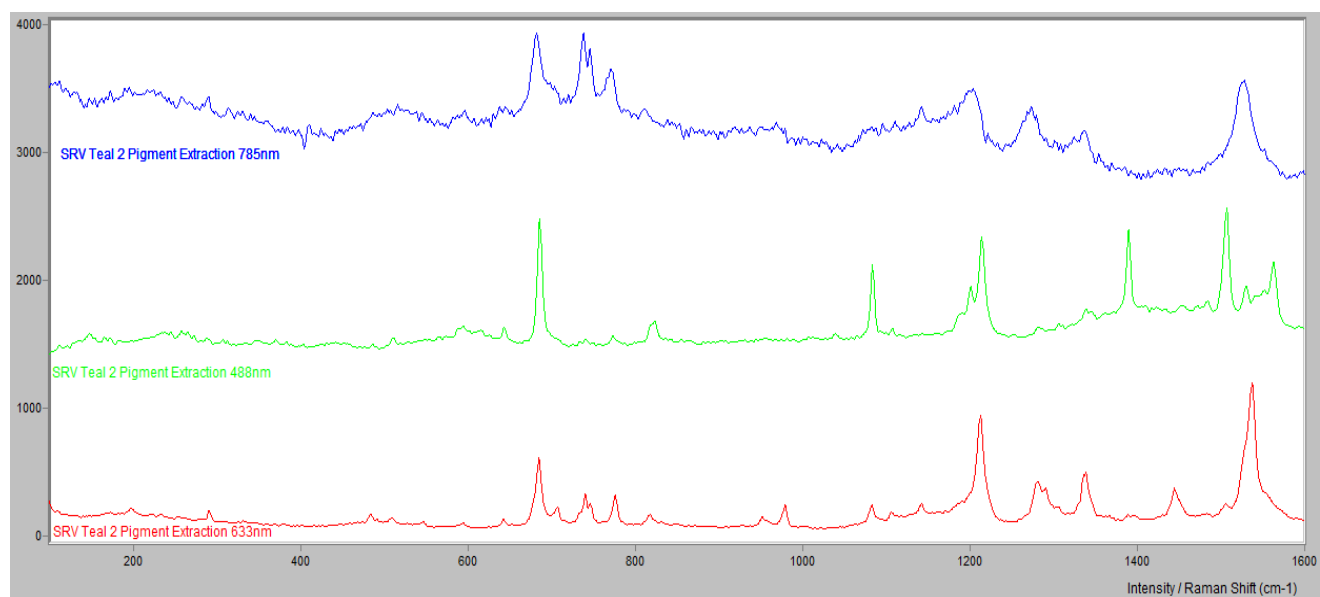


Figure 113. Raman spectra of SRV Teal 2 pigment extraction at different excitation wavelengths.

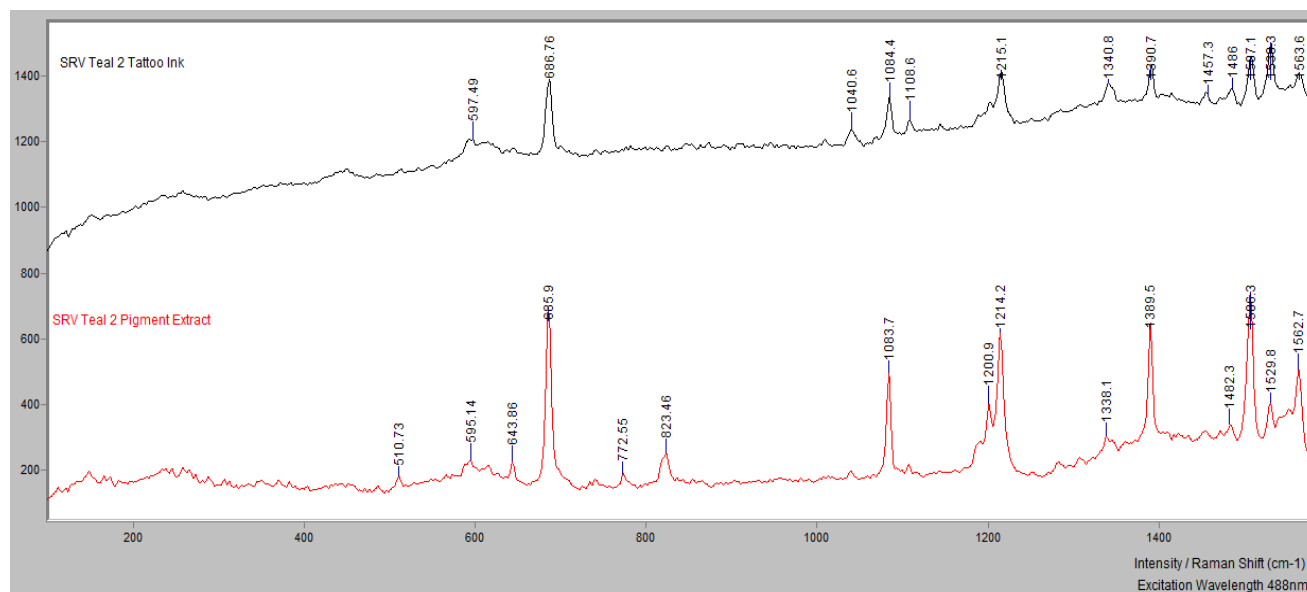


Figure 114. Comparison of Raman spectra of SRV Teal 2 ink and pigment extraction.

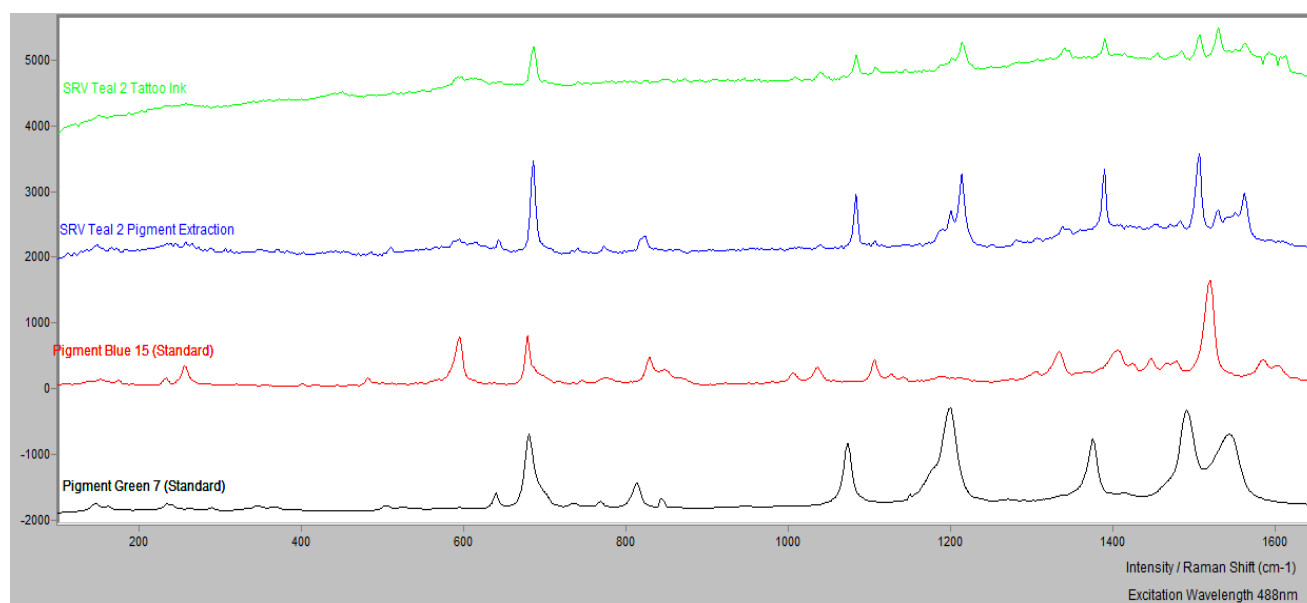


Figure 115. Normal Raman spectra of SRV Teal 2 ink and pigment extraction compared to Pigment Blue 15 and Pigment Green 7.

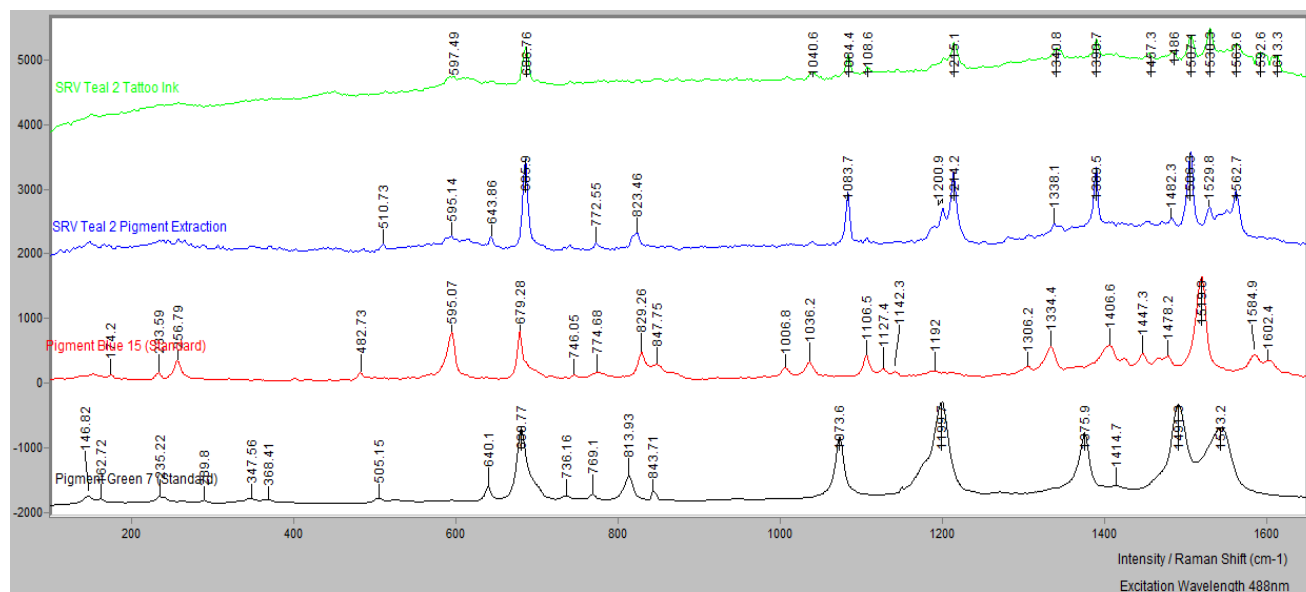


Figure 116. Normal Raman spectra of SRV Teal 2 ink and pigment extraction compared to Pigment Blue 15 and Pigment Green 7 (with peak labels).

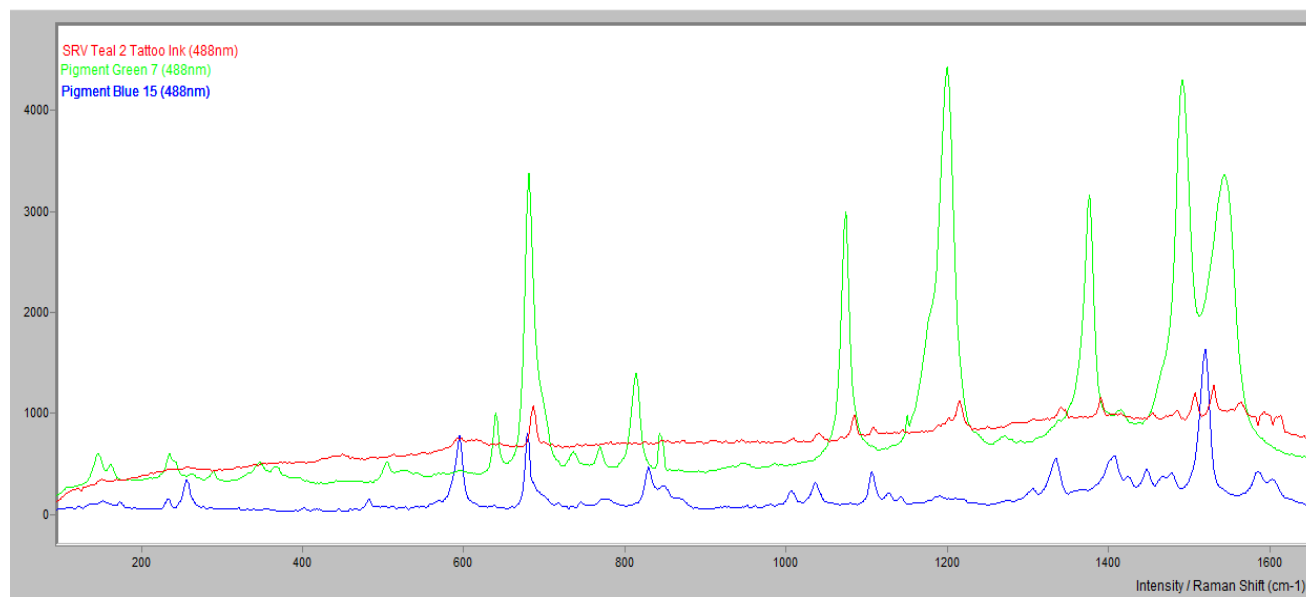


Figure 117. Overlaid Raman spectra of SRV Teal 2 with Pigment Green 7 and Pigment Blue 15. SRV Teal 2 does appear to exhibit bands present in both pigments.

Muddy Water Blue- XRF indicated the presence of copper. The copper is indicative of Pigment Blue. UV/Vis data correlated to that of Pigment Blue 15.

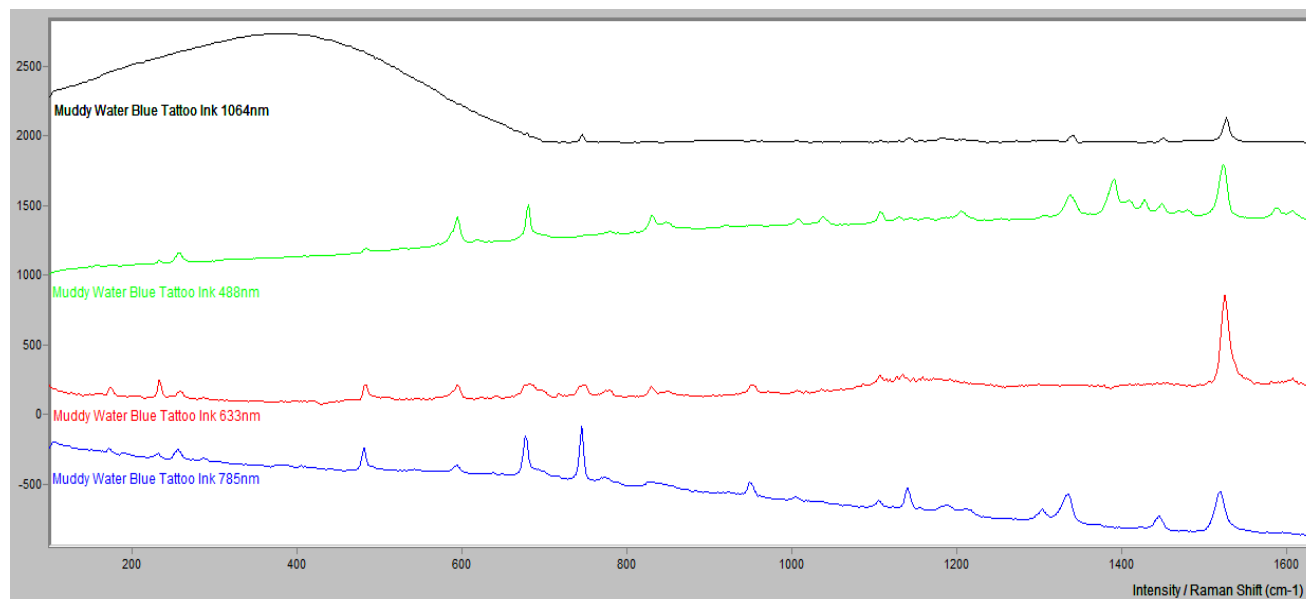


Figure 118. Raman spectra of Muddy Water Blue ink at different excitation wavelengths.

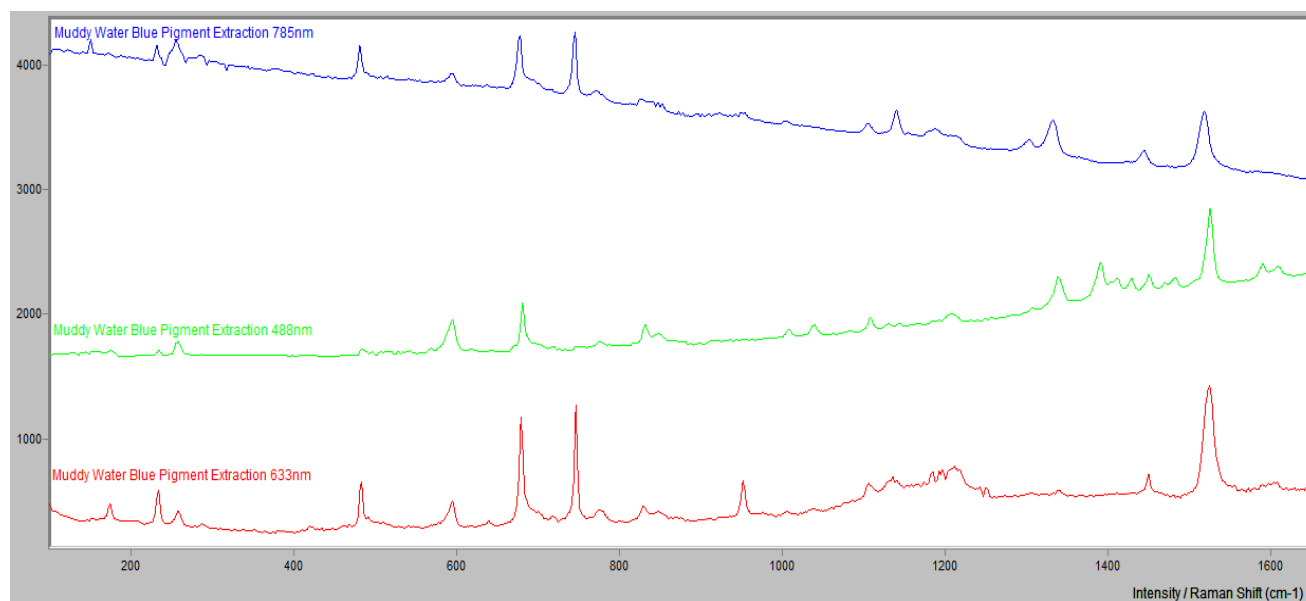


Figure 119. Raman spectra of Muddy Water Blue pigment extraction at different excitation wavelengths.

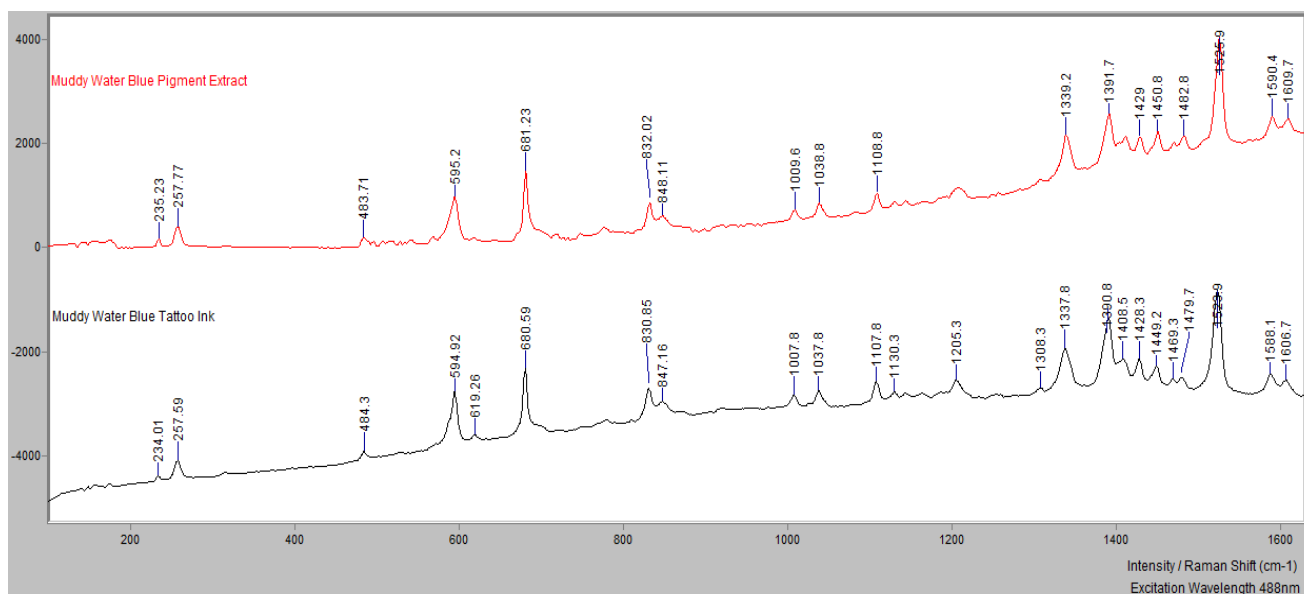


Figure 120. Comparison of Raman spectra of Muddy Water Blue ink and pigment extraction.

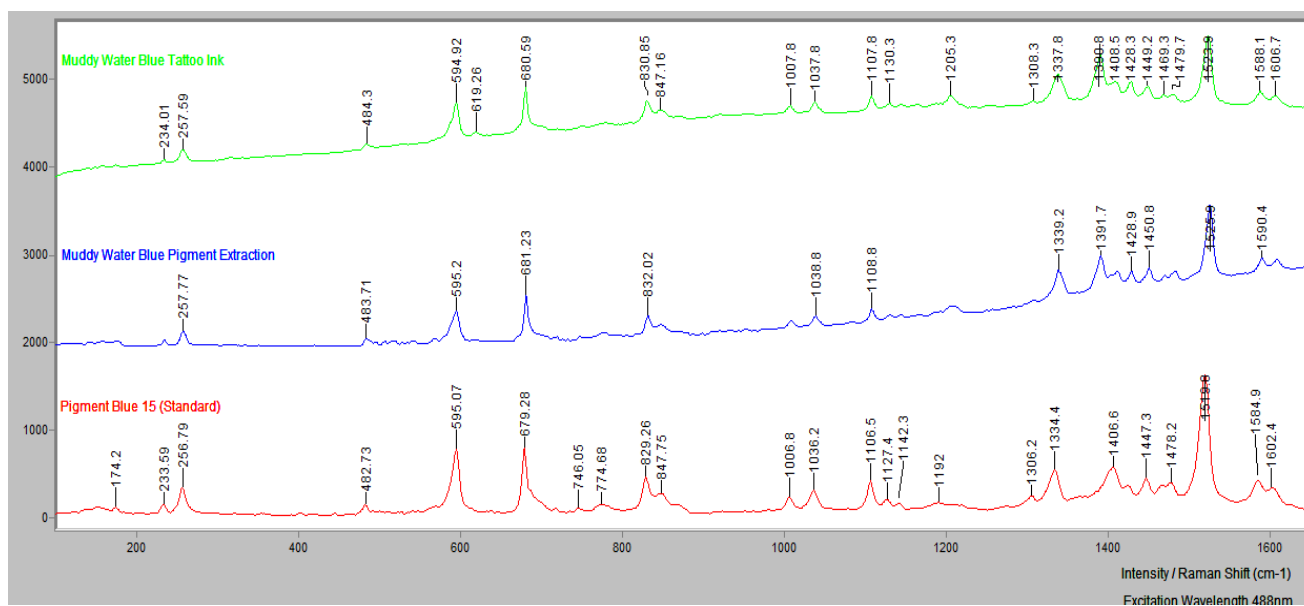


Figure 121. Normal Raman spectra of Muddy Water Blue ink and pigment extraction compared to Pigment Blue 15.

Ripple- XRF indicated the presence of titanium and chlorine. It is probable that the titanium is due to the presence of titanium dioxide.

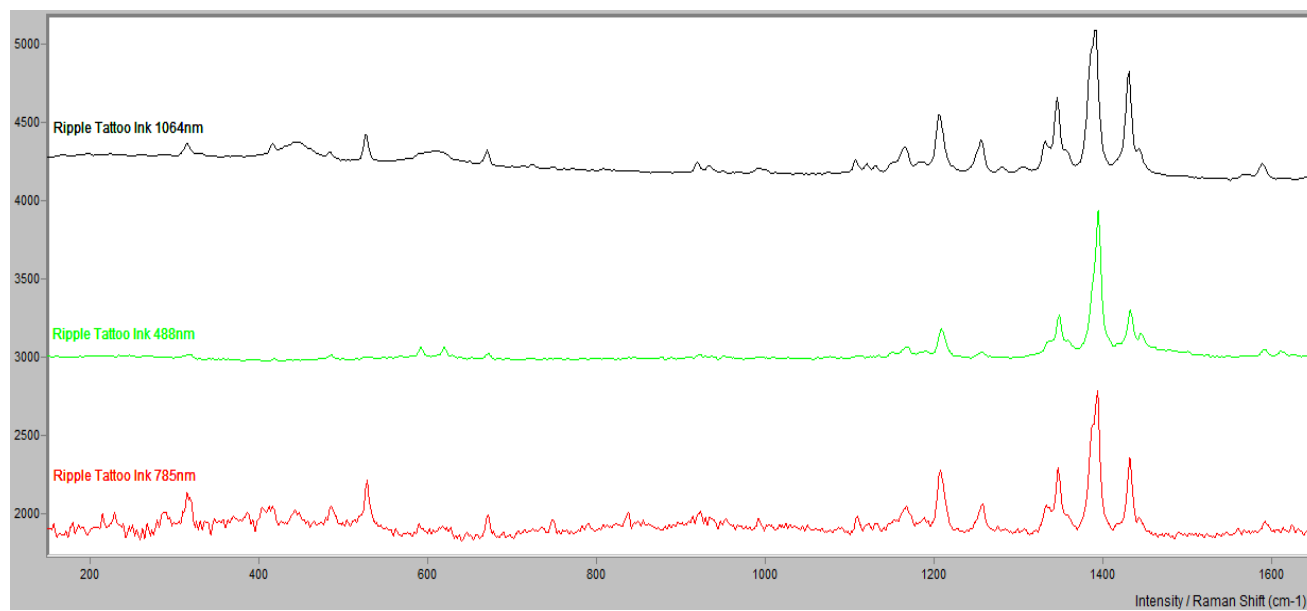


Figure 122. Raman spectra of Ripple ink at different excitation wavelengths.

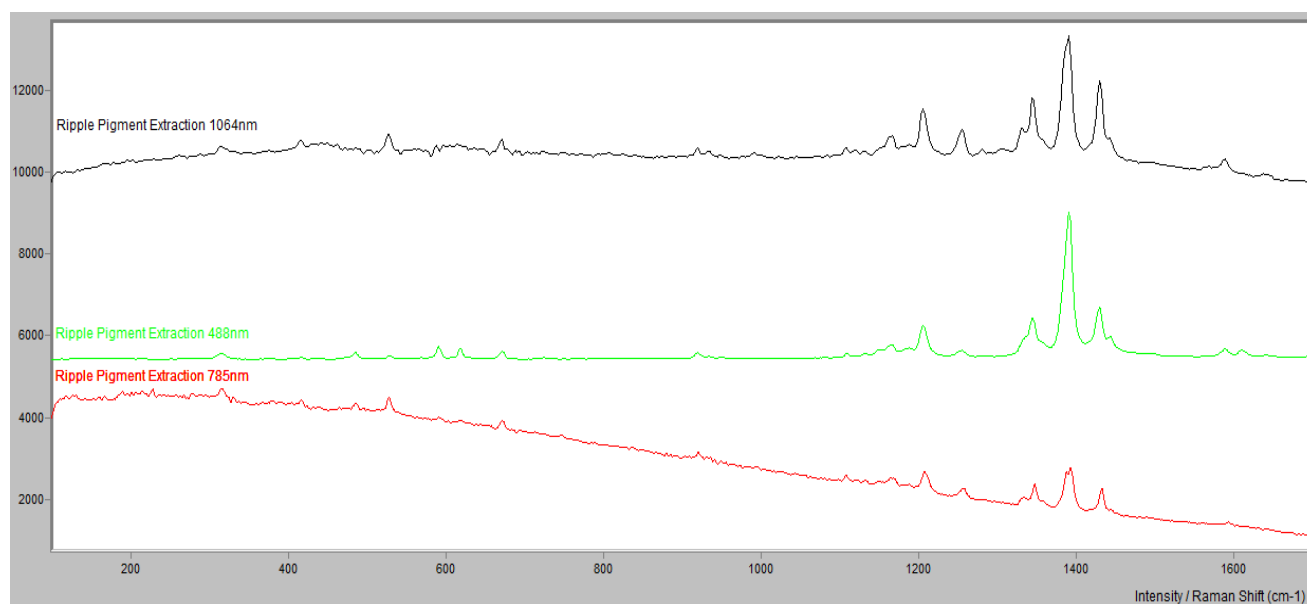


Figure 123. Raman spectra of Ripple pigment extraction at different excitation wavelengths.

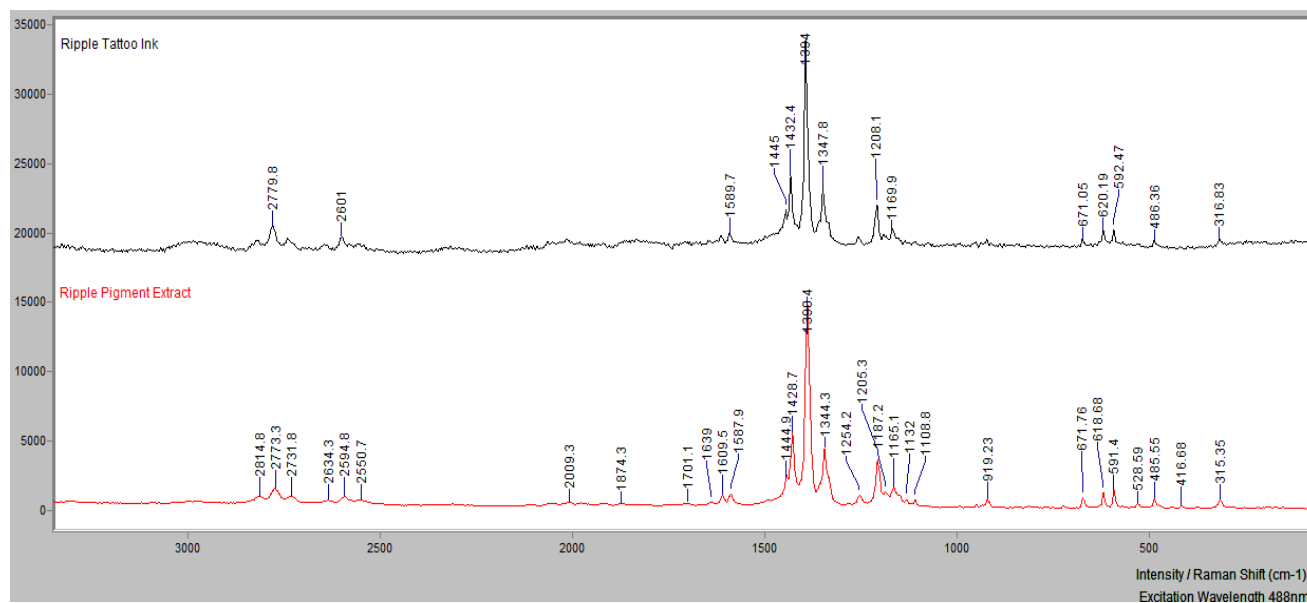


Figure 124. Comparison of Raman spectra of Ripple ink and pigment extraction.

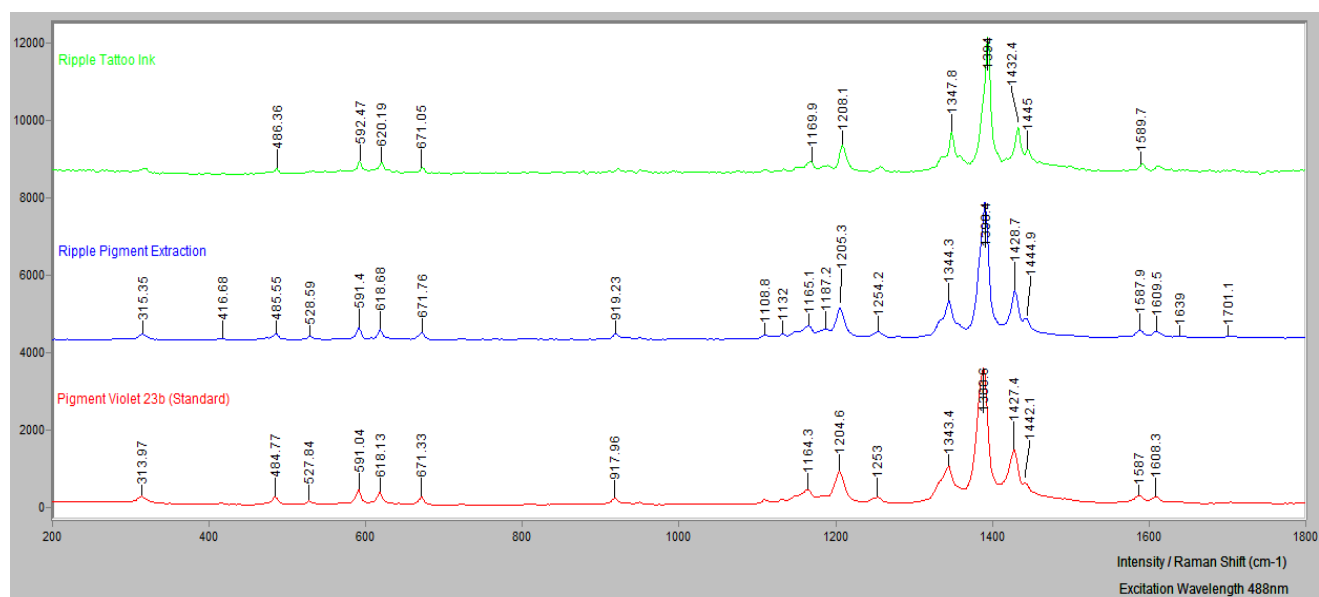


Figure 125. Normal Raman spectra of Ripple ink and pigment extraction compared to Pigment Violet 23β.

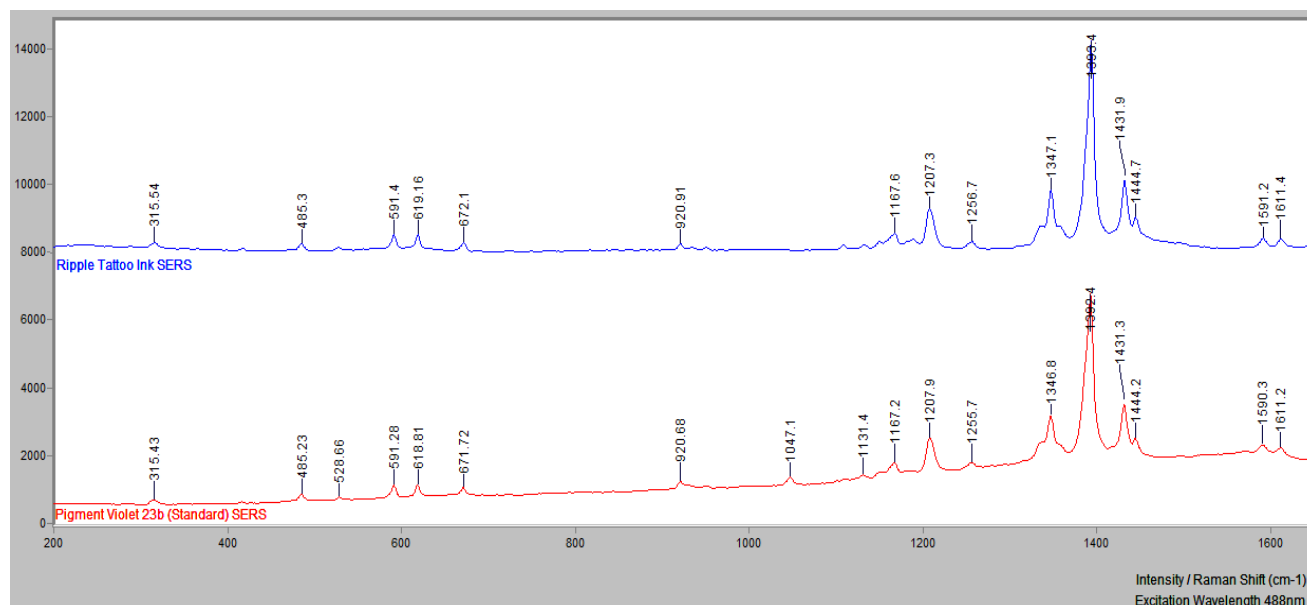


Figure 126. SERS spectra of Ripple ink compared to Pigment Violet 23 β .

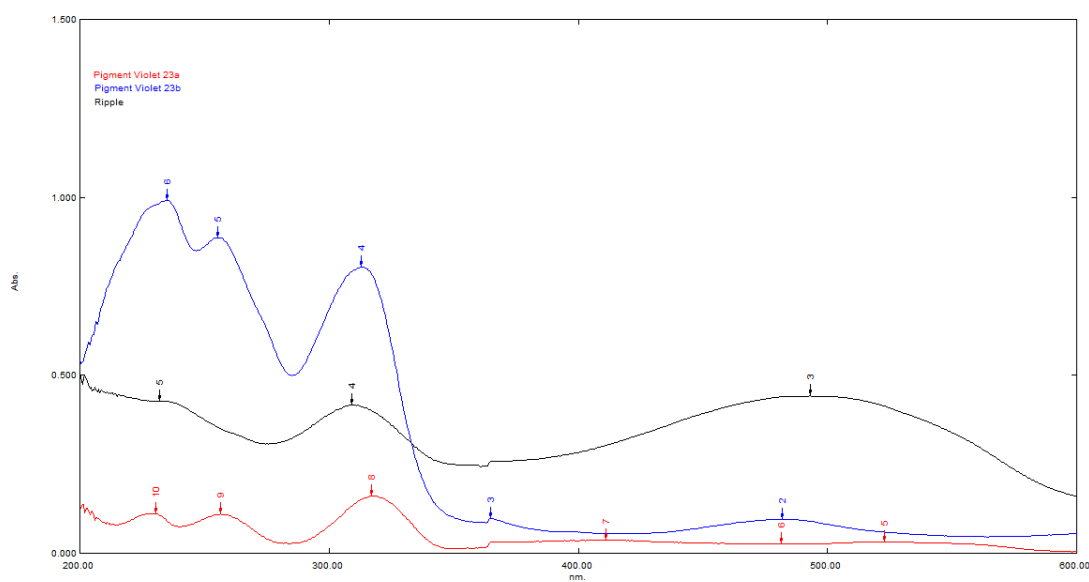


Figure 127. Comparison of Ripple Tattoo Ink and two polymorphs of PV23 (α and β).

Raspberry Creem- All normal Raman spectra exhibited overwhelming fluorescence. A few very subtle bands are observed with $\lambda_0=488\text{nm}$. XRF indicated the presence of titanium. It is probable that the titanium is due to the presence of titanium dioxide. UV/Vis data correlated to that of Pigment Red 122.

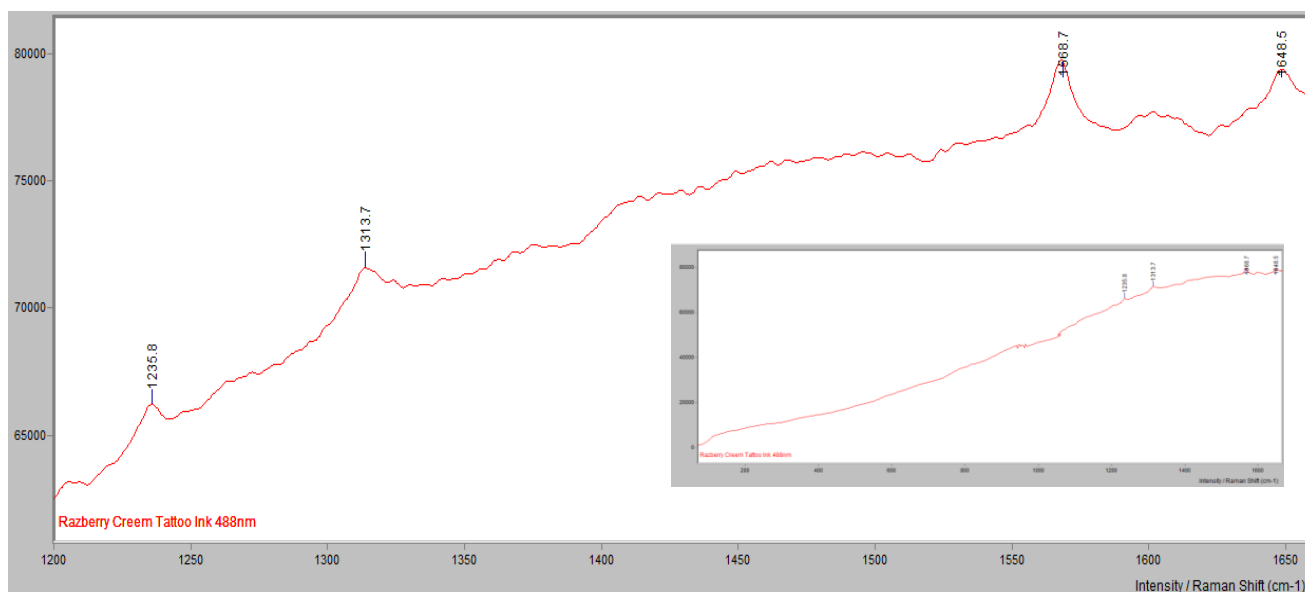


Figure 128. Normal Raman spectrum of Raspberry Creem tattoo ink from the region of 1200nm to 1660nm ($\lambda_0=488\text{nm}$). The overwhelming fluorescence can be seen in the region from 70nm to 1660nm (inset).

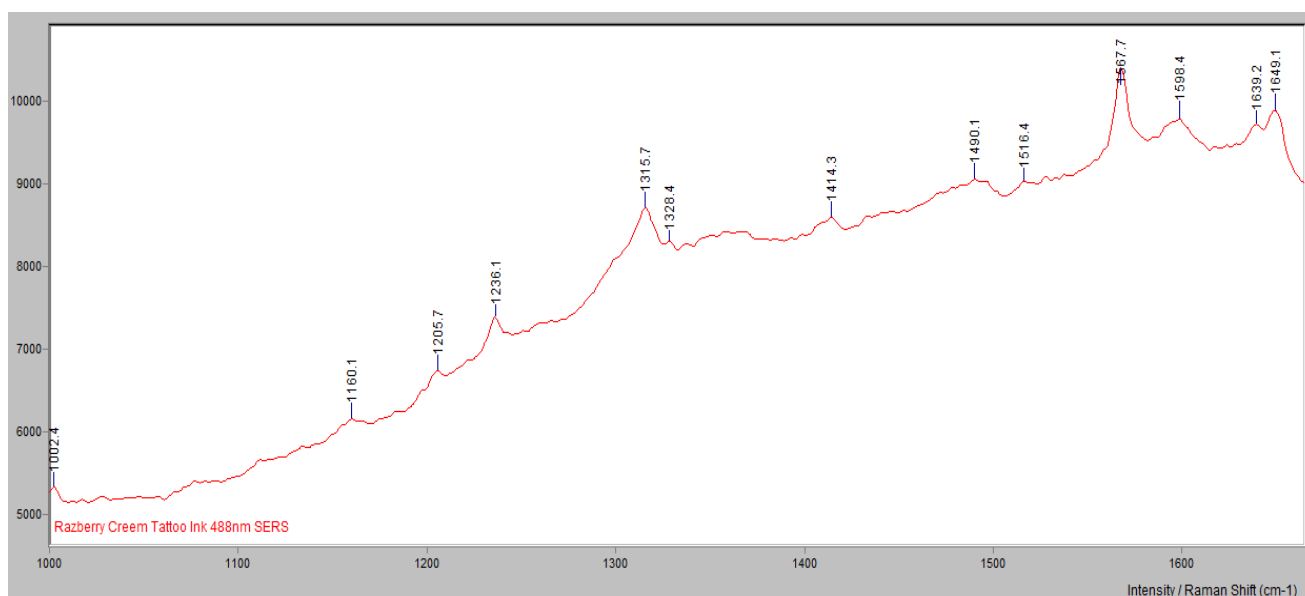


Figure 129. SERS spectrum of Raspberry Creem tattoo ink from the region of 1000nm to 1660nm ($\lambda_0=488\text{nm}$). Although fluorescence is still apparent, the use of SERS enabled the resolution of additional bands.

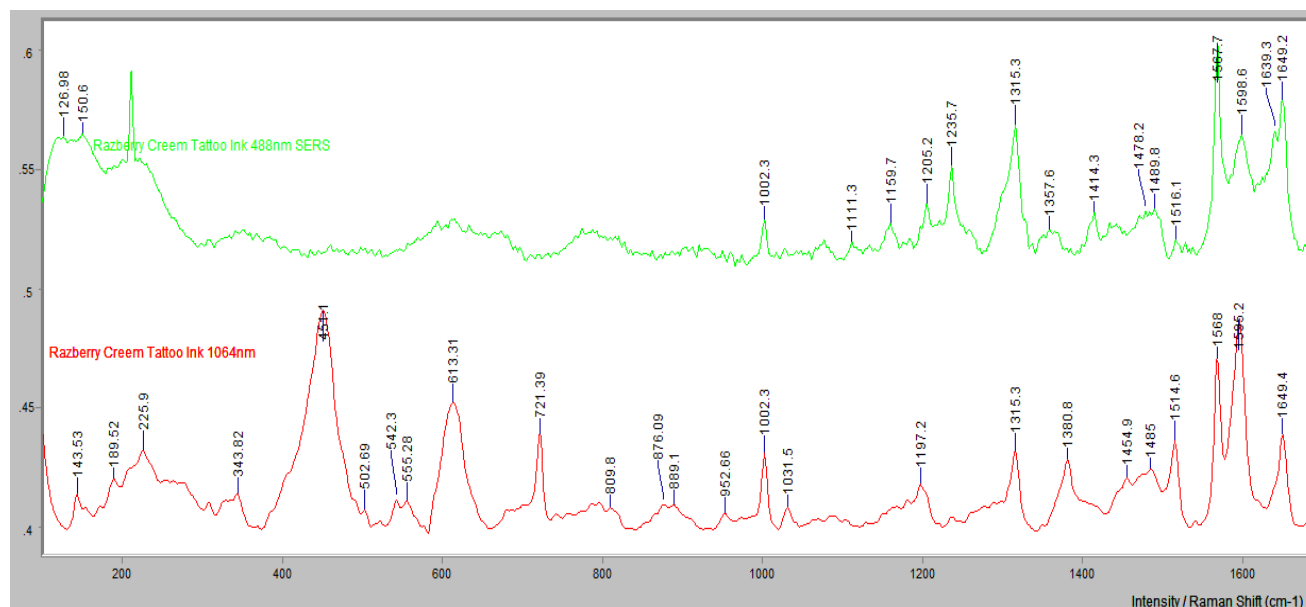


Figure 130. SERS spectrum and FT-Raman spectrum of Razberry Creem tattoo ink (baseline correction has been applied to both spectra).

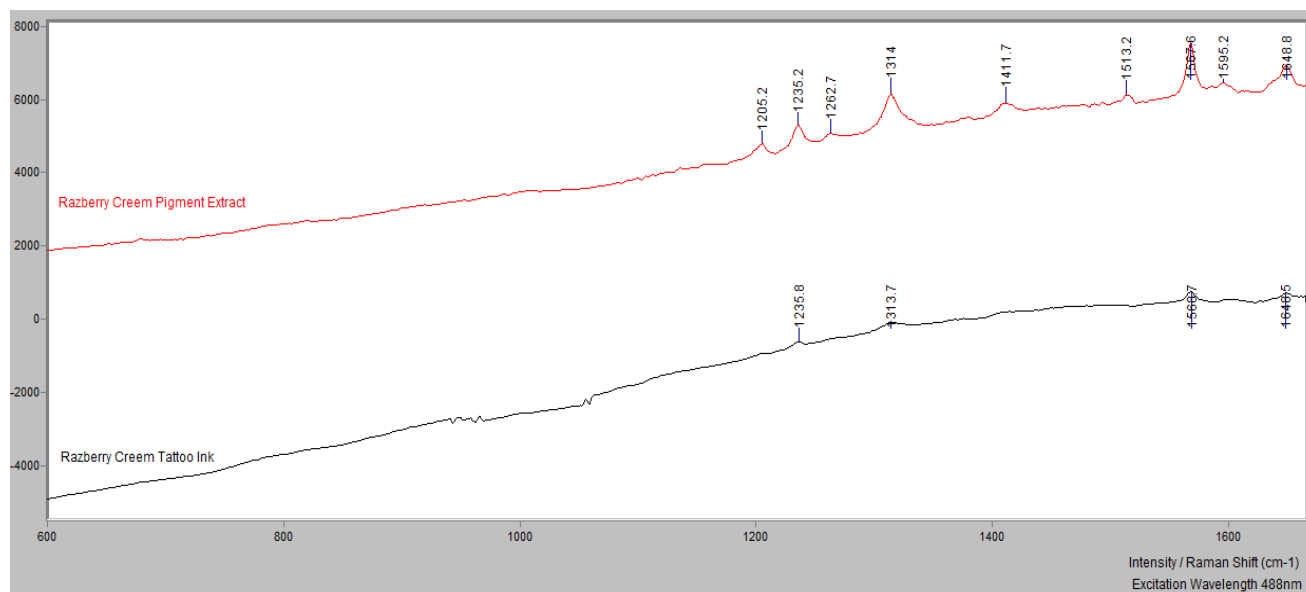


Figure 131. Comparison of Raman spectra of Razberry Creem ink and pigment extraction.

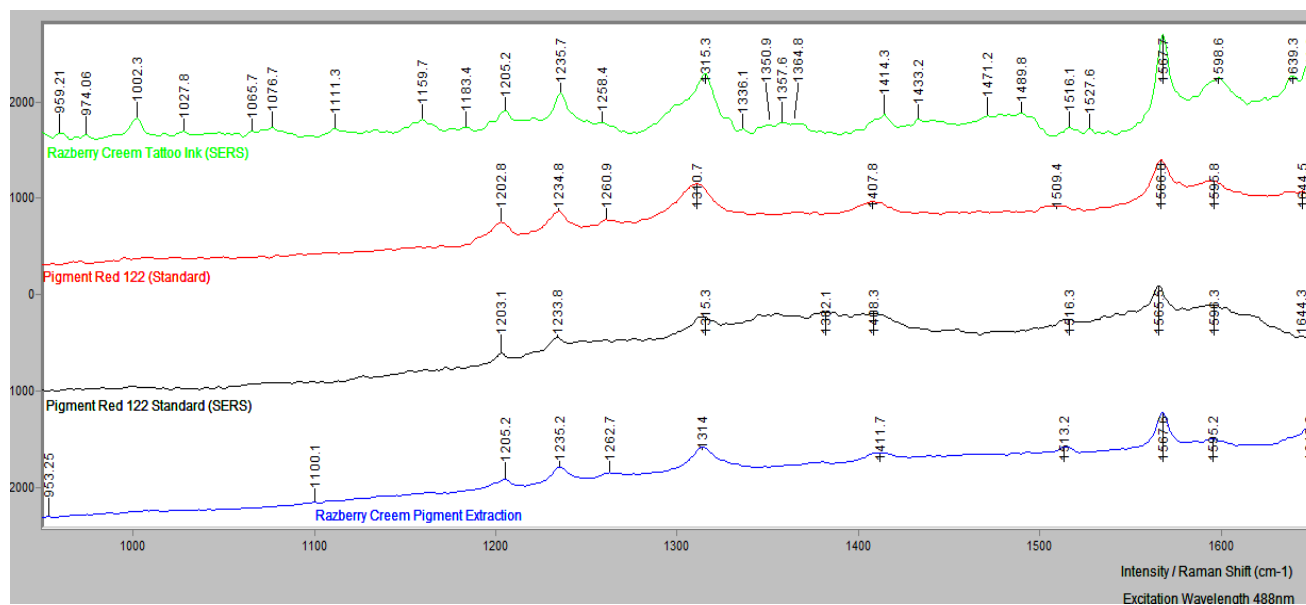


Figure 132. SERS spectrum of Raspberry Cream tattoo ink and normal Raman spectrum of Raspberry Cream pigment extraction compared to the normal Raman and SERS spectra of Pigment Red 122.

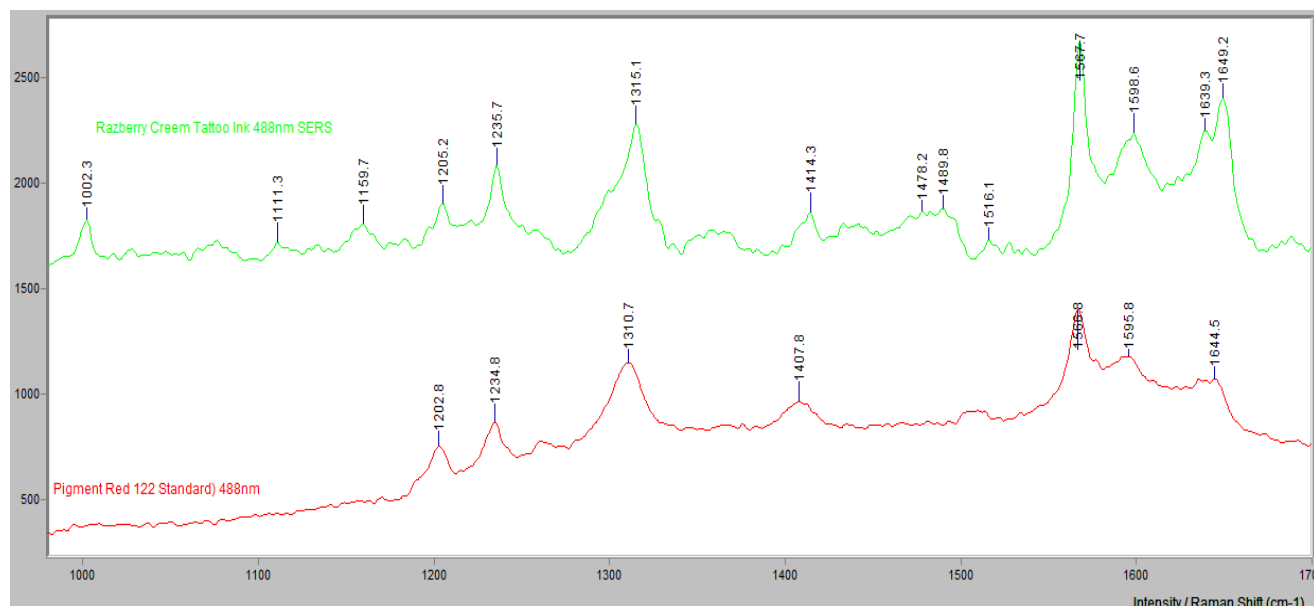


Figure 133. Comparison of SERS spectrum of Raspberry Cream Tattoo ink and Pigment Red 122.

Black Cherry Roan 2- The Roan color series is described as neutral brown hues that are meant to be used to produce sepia-toned tattoos, often used with portrait or memorial tattoos. Although these colors appear different shades of brown (with Roan 1 being the darkest brown, almost black and Roan 3 being the lightest brown of the set), microscopic examination disclosed

the presence of green and reddish-pink/purple pigments, which ratios varied depending on the numerical assignments of the Roan color. UV/Vis data correlated to that of Pigment Red 146.

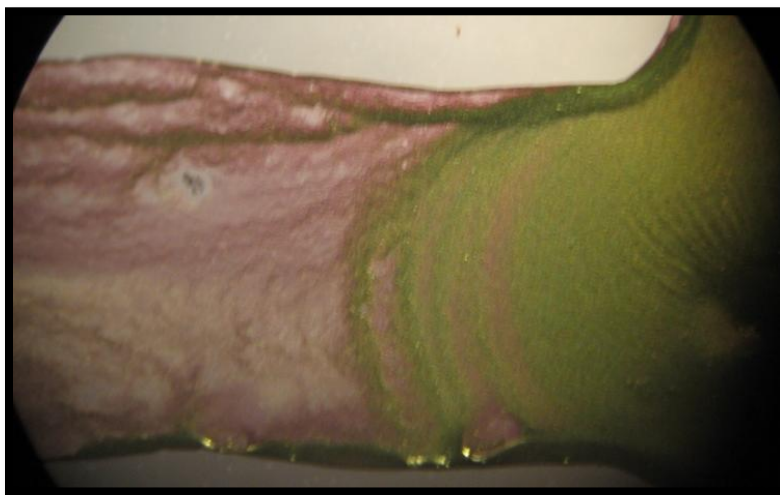


Figure 134. Photomicrograph of Roan tattoo ink (stereomicroscope, appx. 20x)

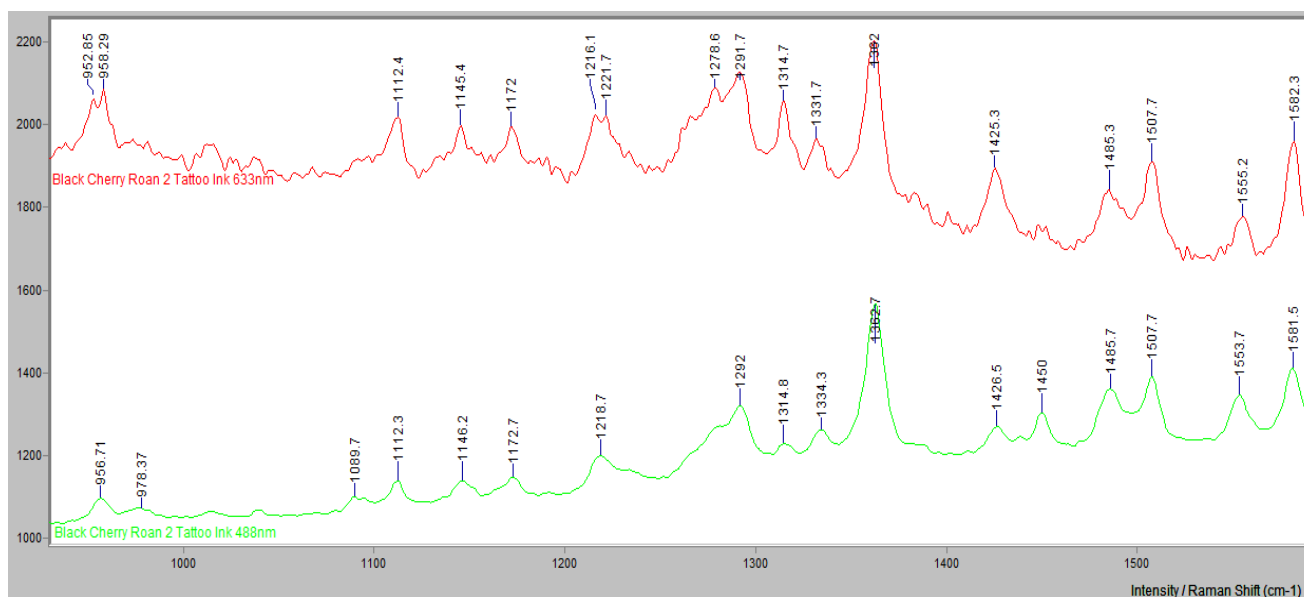


Figure 135. Comparison of Black Cherry Roan Tattoo ink at $\lambda_0=488\text{nm}$ (green) and 633nm (red).

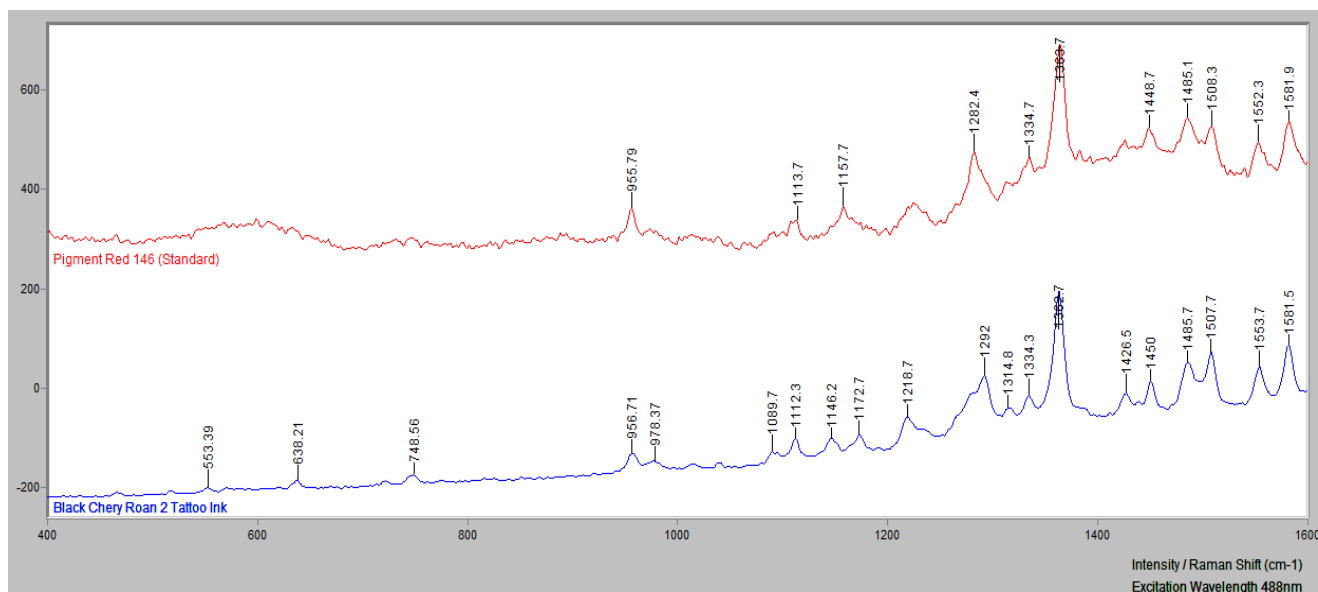


Figure 136. Comparison of Black Cherry Roan Tattoo ink (blue) and Pigment Red 146 pigment standard (red)

San Brownadino- The bands observed are consistent with iron oxide. According to Bell, *et al.*, 1997, synthetic iron (III) oxide, Fe_2O_3 , exhibits bands at 224vs, 291vs, 407m, 494w, 608m ($\lambda_0=632.8\text{nm}$). XRF indicated the presence of iron. The iron is indicative of iron oxide.

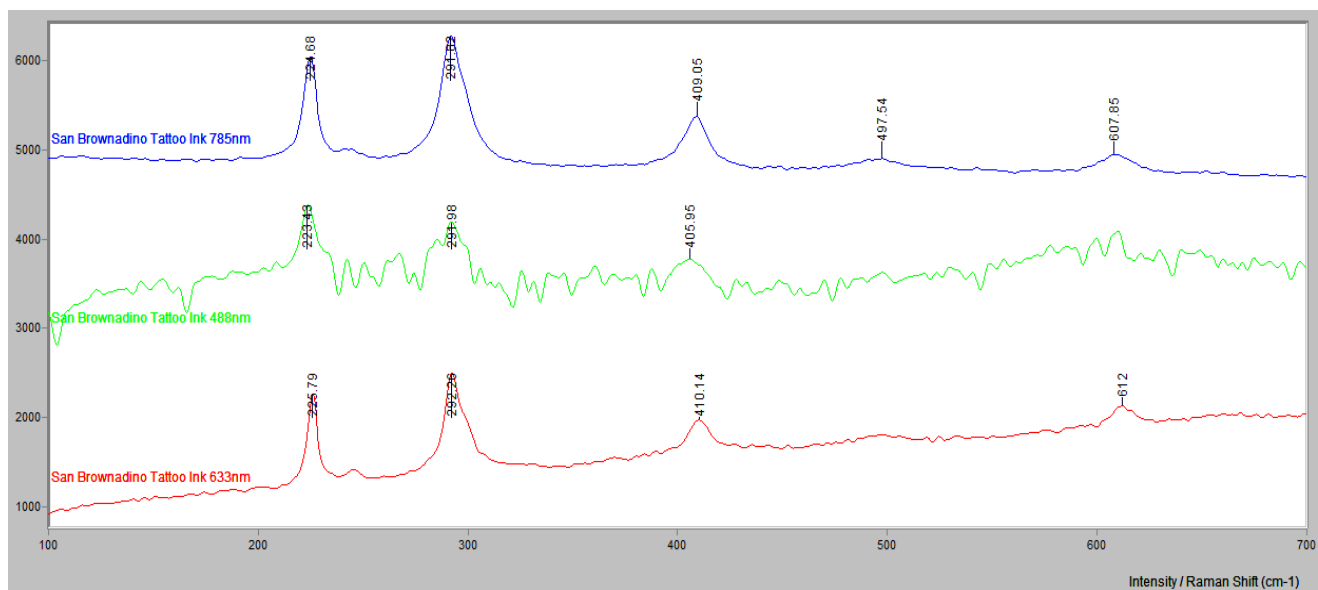


Figure 137. Raman spectra of San Brownadino ink at different excitation wavelengths.

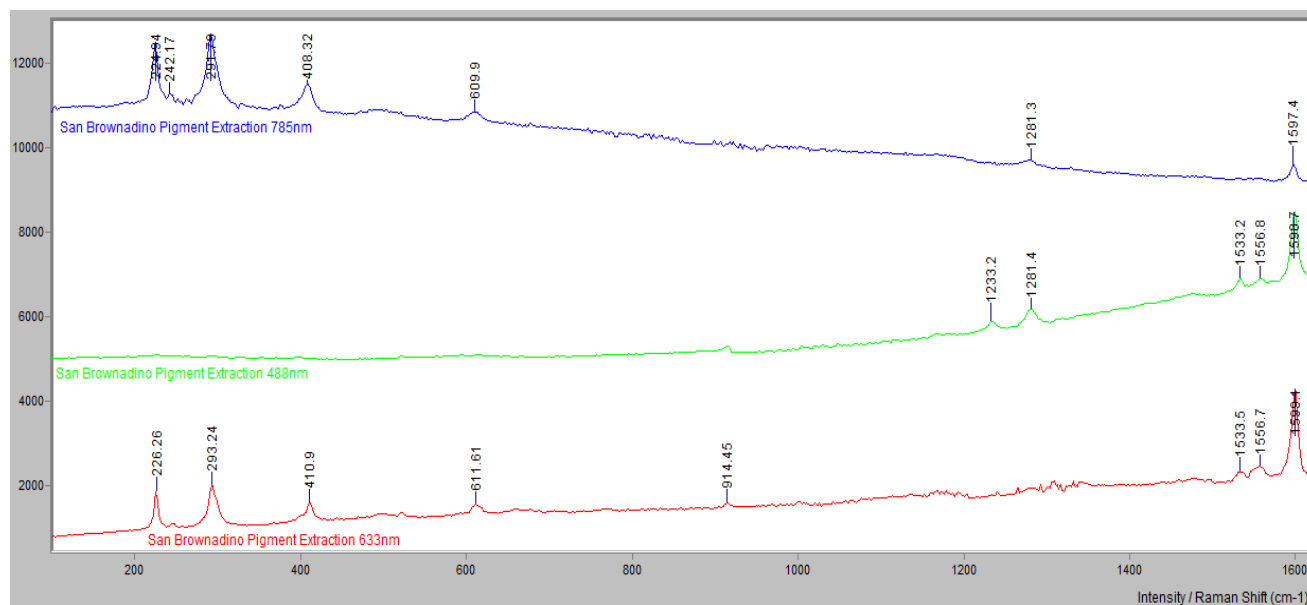


Figure 138. Raman spectra of San Brownadino pigment extraction at different excitation wavelengths.

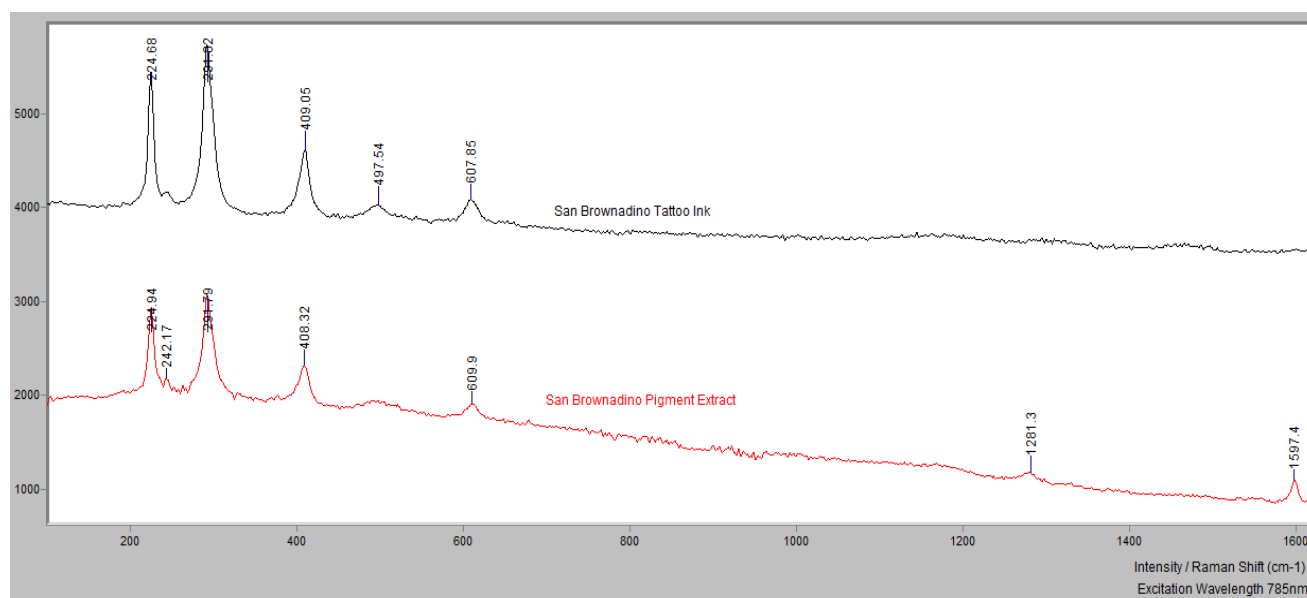


Figure 139. Comparison of Raman spectra of San Brownadino ink and pigment extraction.

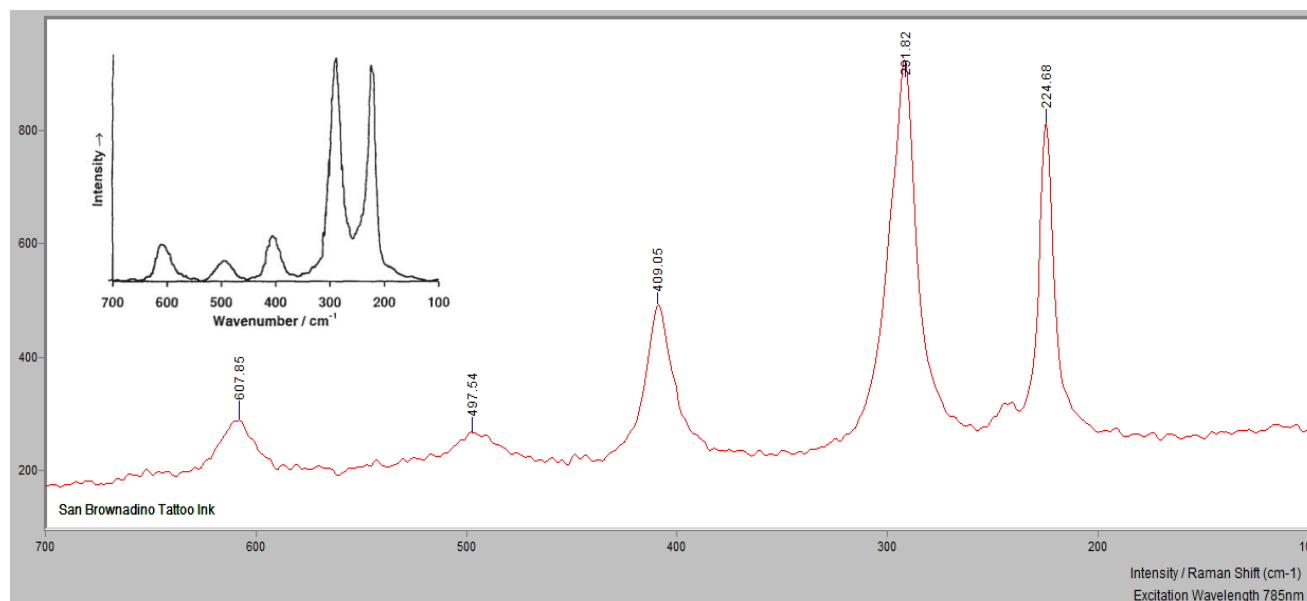


Figure 140. Normal Raman spectra of San Brownadino Tattoo Ink and synthetic iron (III) oxide (inset, from Bell, *et.al.*, 1997).

Whitegirl- The bands observed at the lower shifts are consistent with titanium dioxide, specifically rutile. According to Burgio, *et.al.*, 2001, the rutile form of titanium dioxide exhibits bands at 144(w), 232(m), 447(s) and 609(s) cm^{-1} ($\lambda_0=1064\text{nm}$). XRF indicated the presence of titanium, which is indicative of titanium dioxide. According to Ropret, *et.al.*, the anatase form of titanium dioxide is characterized by bands at 398, 515 and 639 cm^{-1} . Most literature reports anatase as having three major bands (395, 515 and 640 cm^{-1}) and rutile as having two major bands (450 and 610 cm^{-1}).

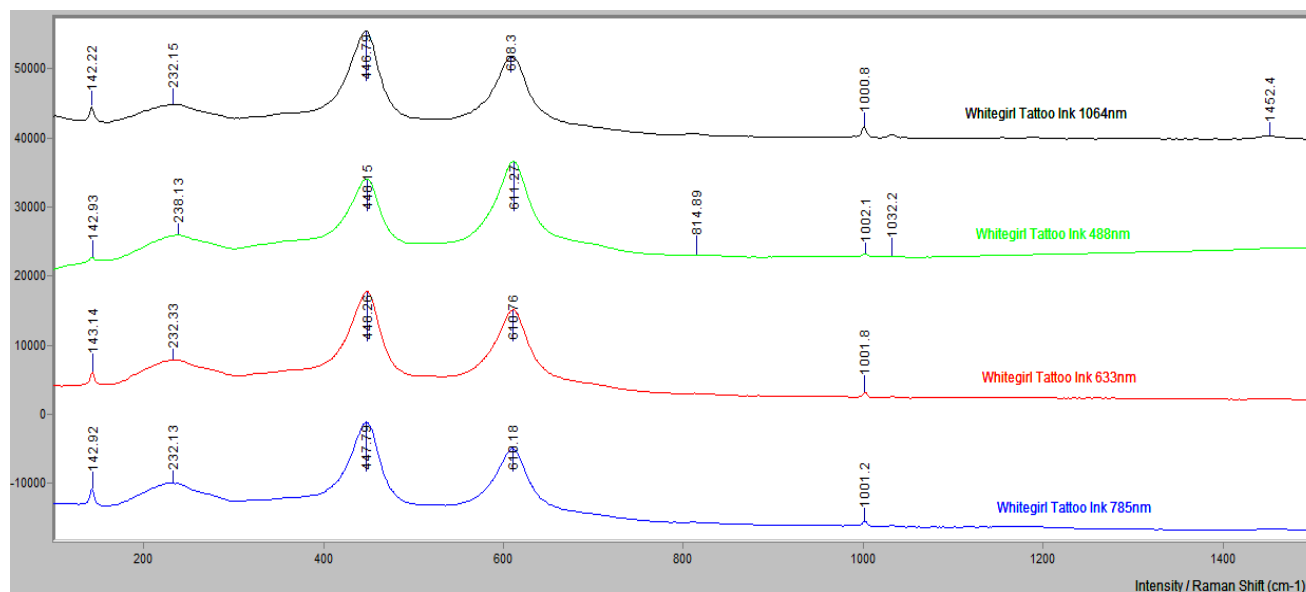


Figure 141. Raman spectra of Whitegirl ink at different excitation wavelengths.

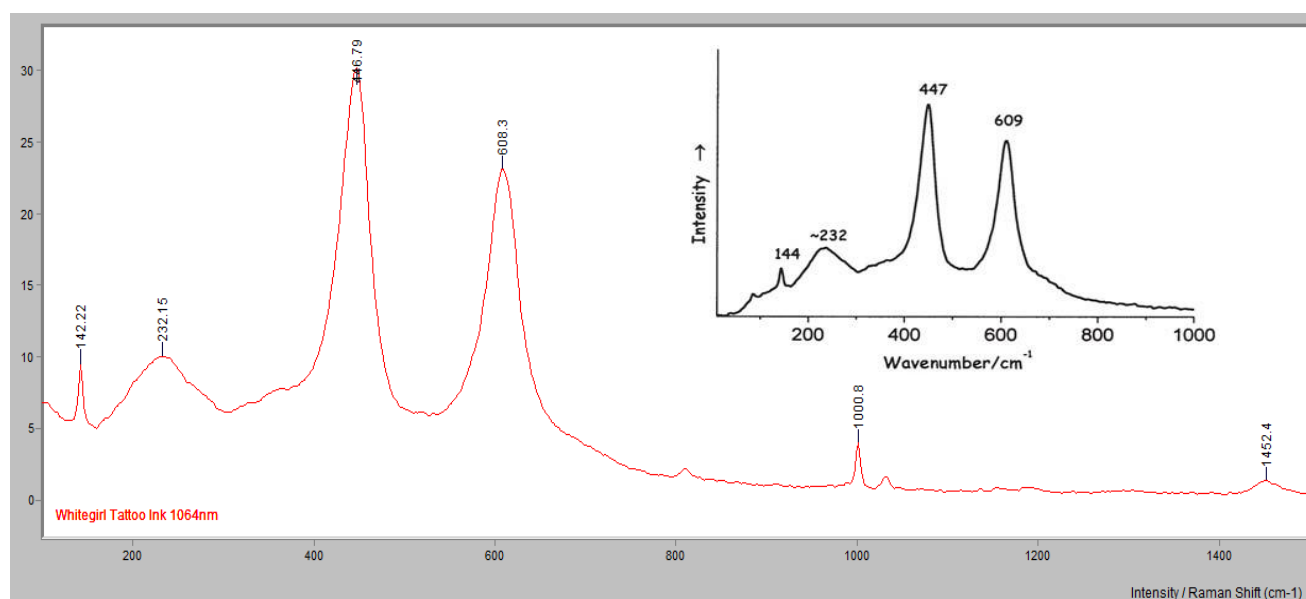


Figure 142. Normal Raman spectrum of Whitegirl Tattoo Ink and titanium dioxide (inset, from Burgio, *et.al.*, 2001).

Tokyo Pink- Tokyo Pink Tattoo Ink exhibited overwhelming fluorescence for normal Raman at all three excitation wavelengths. At $\lambda_0=785\text{nm}$, two faint bands were detected among the background. No information was obtained when attempting SERS on Tokyo Pink. FT-Raman was successful in producing a detailed spectrum. The two bands identified with normal Raman at

$\lambda_0=785\text{nm}$ were detected in the FT-Raman spectrum ($\lambda_0=1064\text{nm}$). The spectrum does not appear consistent with that of any pigment standards analyzed in this research. The strong band at 1601.7cm^{-1} is consistent with that observed with Pigment Orange 16 and 62, a disazo and monoazo pigment, respectively. The band at 1601.7cm^{-1} is due to the C=N stretching vibration, and the band at 1003cm^{-1} is due to ring breathing. XRF indicated the presence of titanium, chlorine and iron. It is probable that the titanium is due to the presence of titanium dioxide.

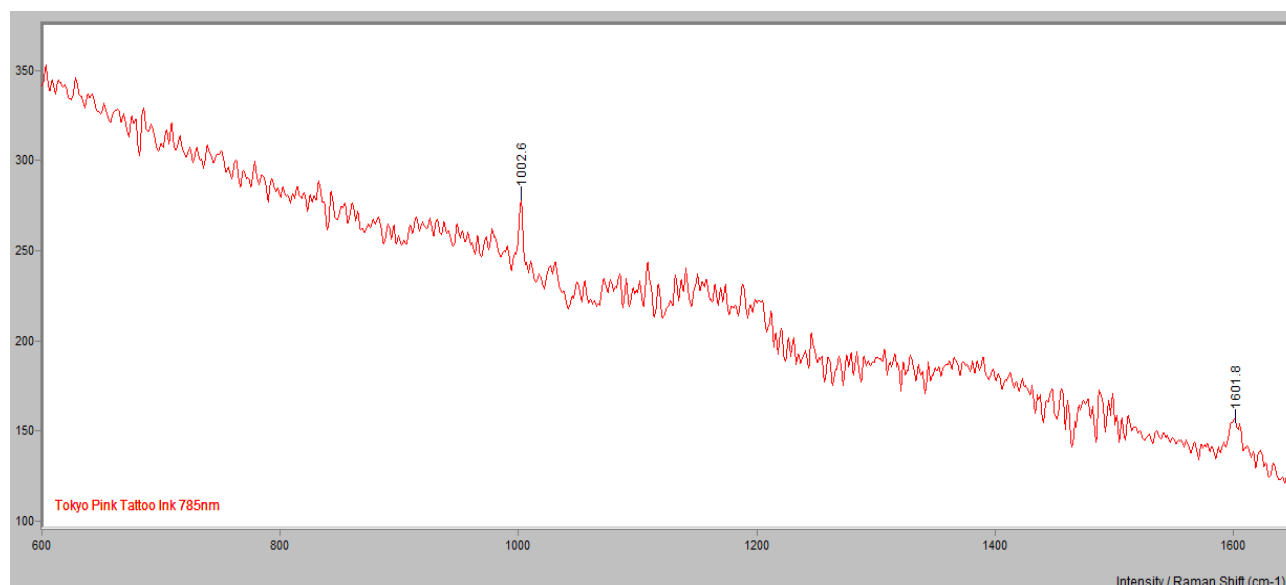


Figure 143. Normal Raman spectrum of Tokyo Pink ($\lambda_0=785\text{nm}$).

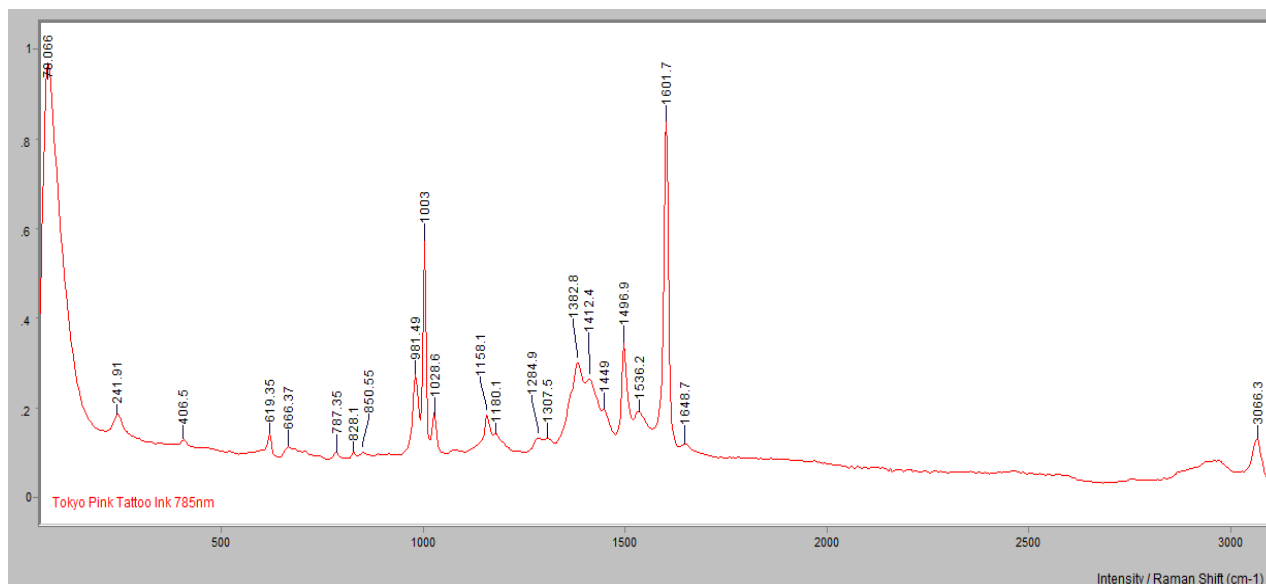


Figure 144. FT-Raman spectrum of Tokyo Pink ($\lambda_0=1064\text{nm}$).

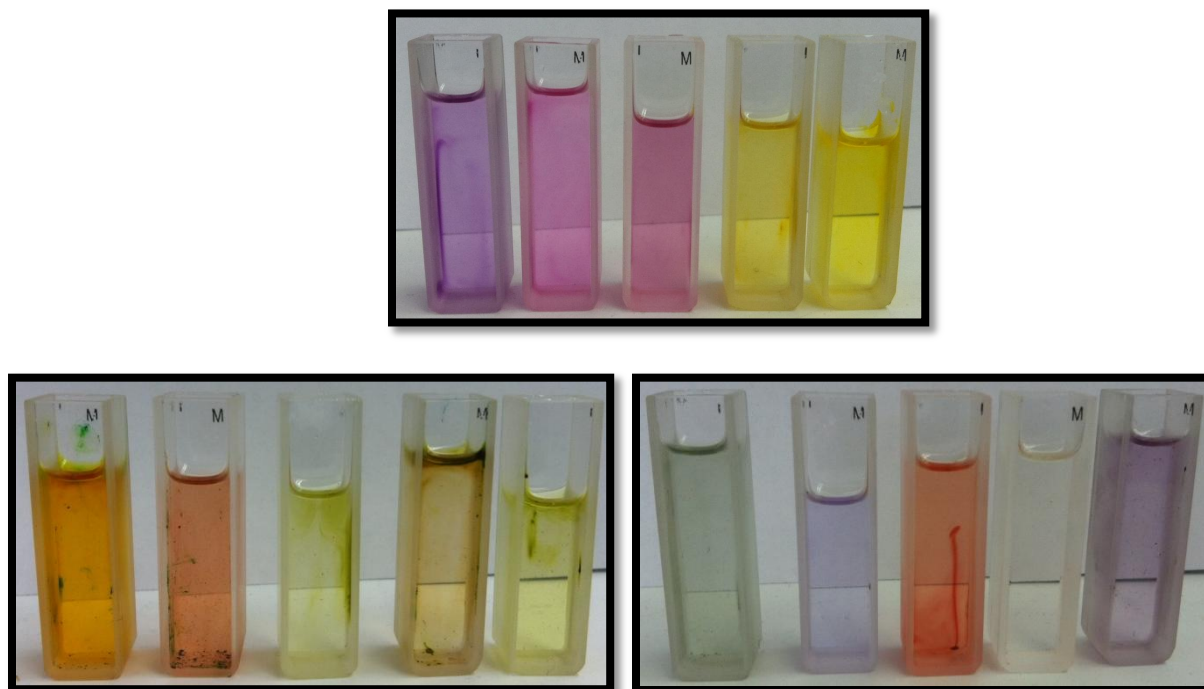


Figure 145 a, b and c. Tattoo ink pigment extractions dissolved in conc. H_2SO_4 in fused silica cuvettes in preparation for UV/Vis analysis (top) Candy Apple Red, Red Hot, Marz, Dolemente, Blisterine (bottom) Sassygrass, Tastywaves, Bellbottom Blue, SRV Teal 2, Muddy Water Blue, Ripple, Raspberry Creem, San Brownadino, Tokyo Pink, Black Cherry Roan 2

Visual color characteristics, UV/Vis spectrometry, and color changes of the pigment upon introduction of the conc. sulfuric acid solvent system were recorded in an effort to characterize the pigments (in addition to the Skin Candy Tattoo Ink pigment extractions, which are reported below). Although it is not possible to establish structural information of the pigment molecule from 'coloristics' and solution chemistry, it is possible to gain information regarding the color class, functional groups (specifically chromophores) and resonance wavelength (for Raman spectroscopy) based upon visual characteristics and absorption maxima. Since the tattoo inks contain an abundance of various additives, including the presence of more than one pigment, it is recommended that pigment extracting be conducted prior to UV/Vis and wet chemistry methods. A proposed alternative to the extraction method conducted in this research is the use of the separation method Thin Layer Chromatography (TLC). Separation by a TLC plate in an appropriate solvent system followed by removal of the zone from the plate, extraction with an appropriate solvent system, and any necessary filtration and evaporation methods would be another option for separating the inks and extracting out any pigments for spectroscopic analysis.

Iron Works Brasil

The Iron Works Brasil Tattoo Ink set were analyzed via normal Raman and SERS. This was done in an effort to identify the pigment compositions within the inks and evaluate the use of SERS.

Vermelho- High quality spectra were resolved with normal Raman at all three excitation wavelengths and with FT-Raman. The FT-IR (ATR) spectrum also displayed a number of well-resolved peaks. XRF indicated the presence of iron, zinc and titanium. It is probable that the titanium is due to the presence of titanium dioxide. Microscopic examination of the Vermelho slide preparation proved to be very interesting, and lent support to the importance of microscopically examining the samples prior to instrumental analysis. Microscopic examination displayed a large concentration of red pigment particles, but a small aggregate of blue pigment particles was discovered. The region was subsequently analyzed using normal Raman along with the red region.

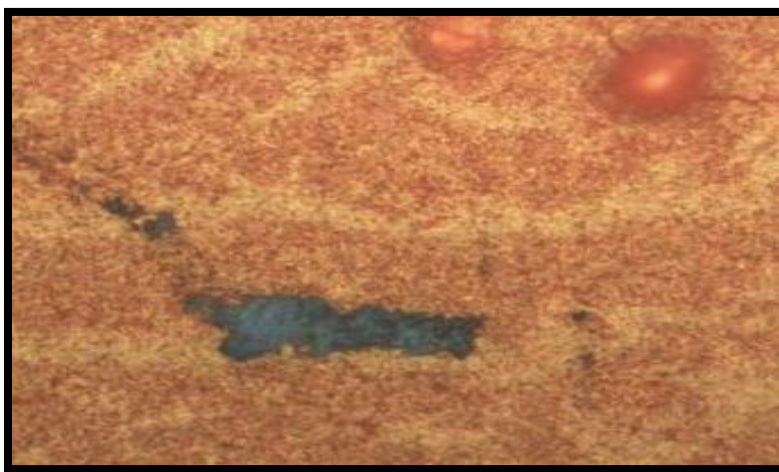


Figure 146. Image of region of Vermelho Tattoo Ink slide preparation through dispersive micro-Raman. Magnification is approximately 500x.

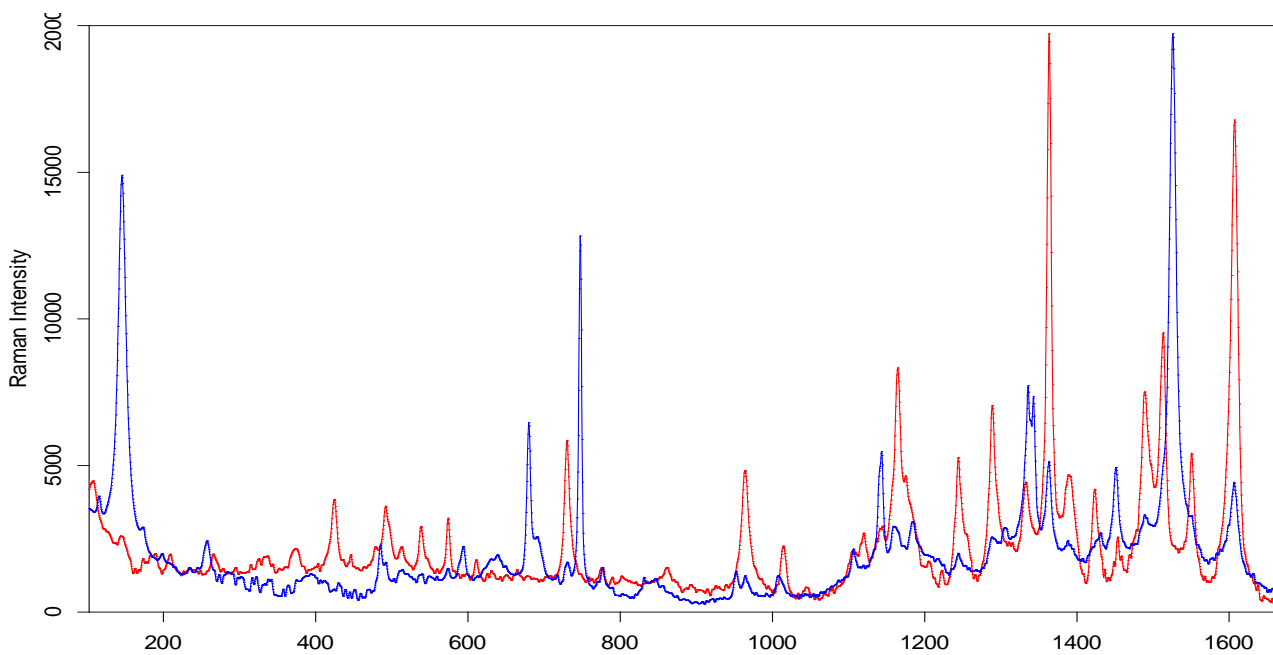


Figure 147. Overlay of red region (red) and blue aggregate (blue) from Vermelho sample ($\lambda_0=785\text{nm}$)

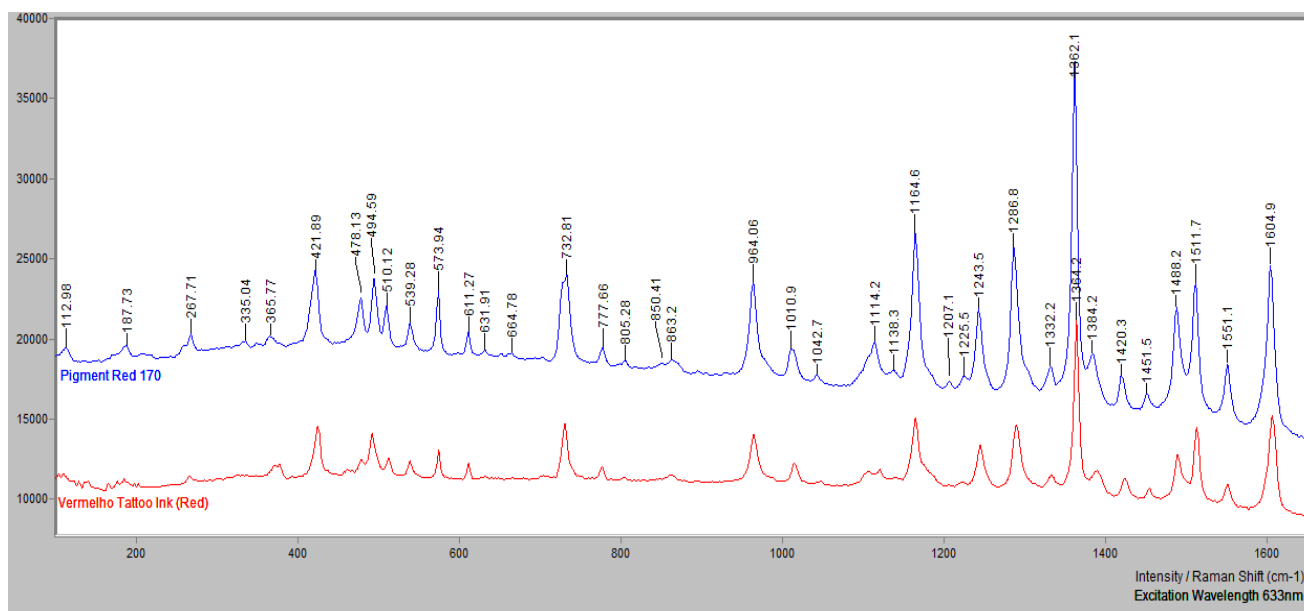


Figure 148. Red region of Vermelho and Pigment Red 170.

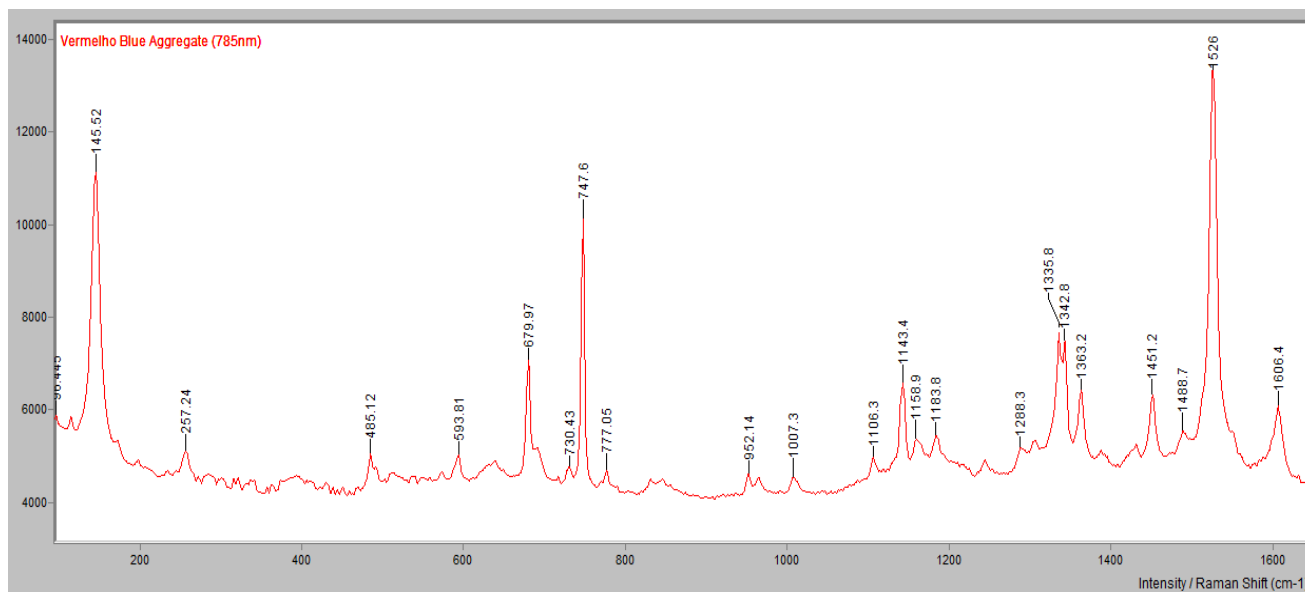


Figure 149. Blue aggregate of Vermelho. The region appears consistent with Pigment Blue 15 (no polymorph specified due to the lack of information and comprehensive comparison data).

Pink- Overwhelming fluorescence was observed with normal Raman at all three excitation wavelengths. A high quality spectrum was obtained with FT-Raman. SERS was useful in resolving Raman bands. The FT-IR (ATR) spectrum also displayed a number of well-resolved peaks. XRF indicated the presence of titanium. It is probable that the titanium is due to the presence of titanium dioxide. No pigment standard could be correlated to the resultant spectral data.

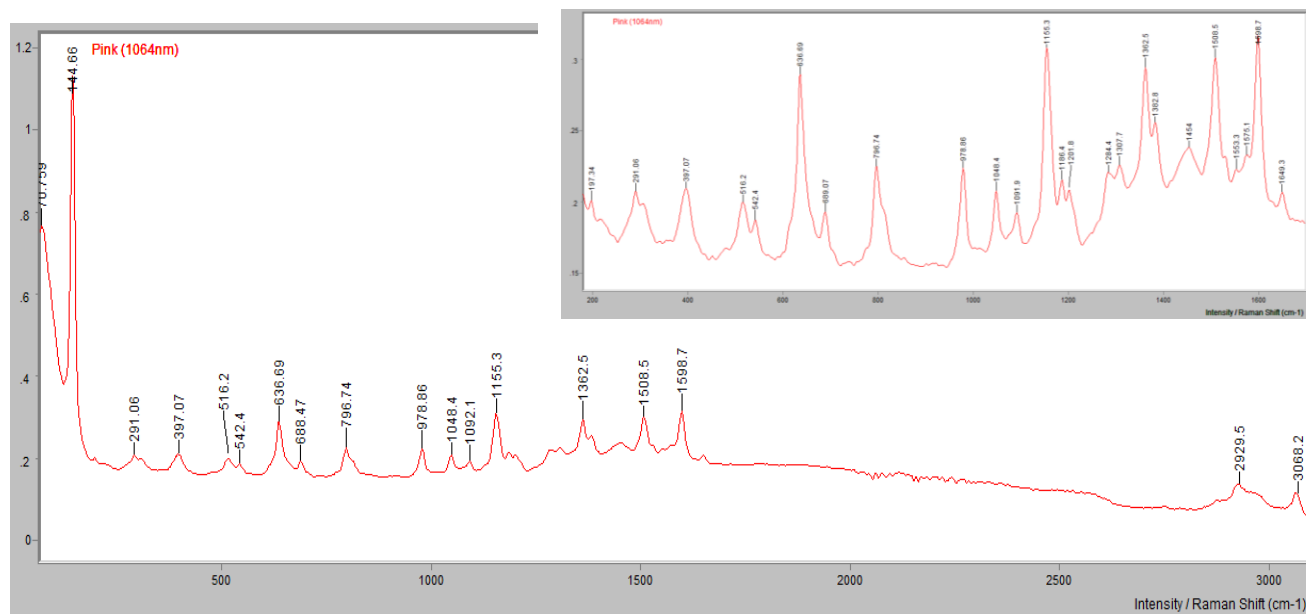


Figure 150. FT-Raman spectrum of Pink, with a close-up of the region from 170 to 1700cm⁻¹ (inset).

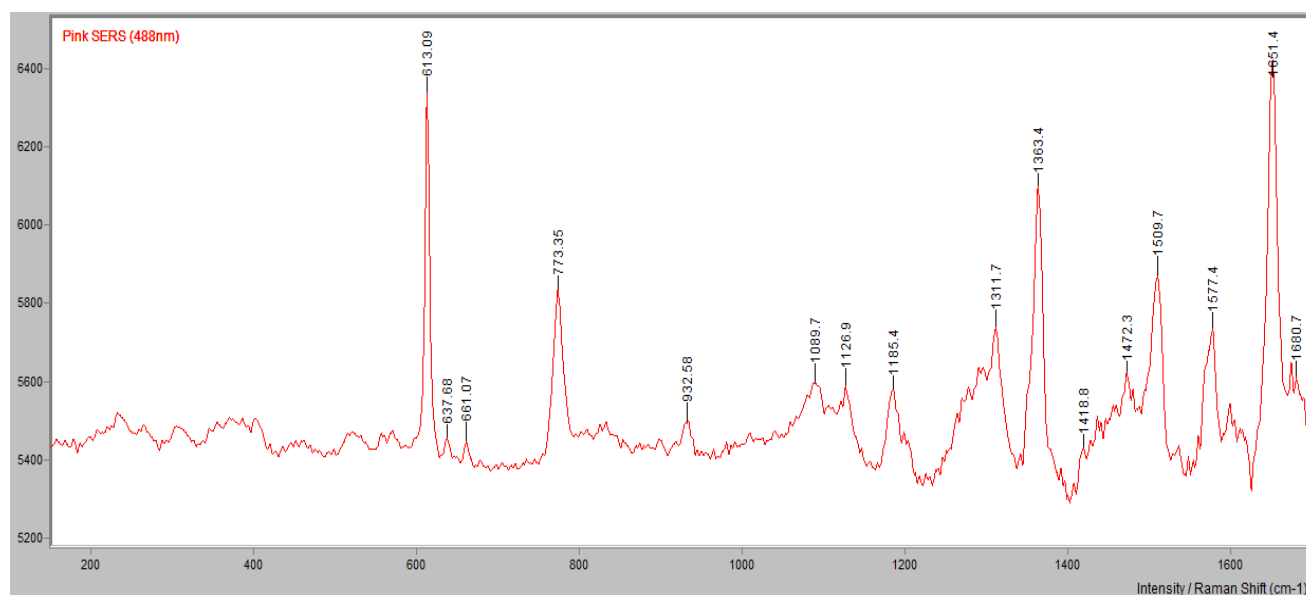


Figure 151. SERS spectrum of Pink (baseline corrected).

Citrus- Overwhelming fluorescence was observed with normal Raman at all three excitation wavelengths. A high quality spectrum was obtained with FT-Raman. The FT-IR (ATR) spectrum also displayed a number of well-resolved peaks. XRF indicated the presence of

titanium. It is probable that the titanium is due to the presence of titanium dioxide. No pigment standard could be correlated to the resultant spectral data.

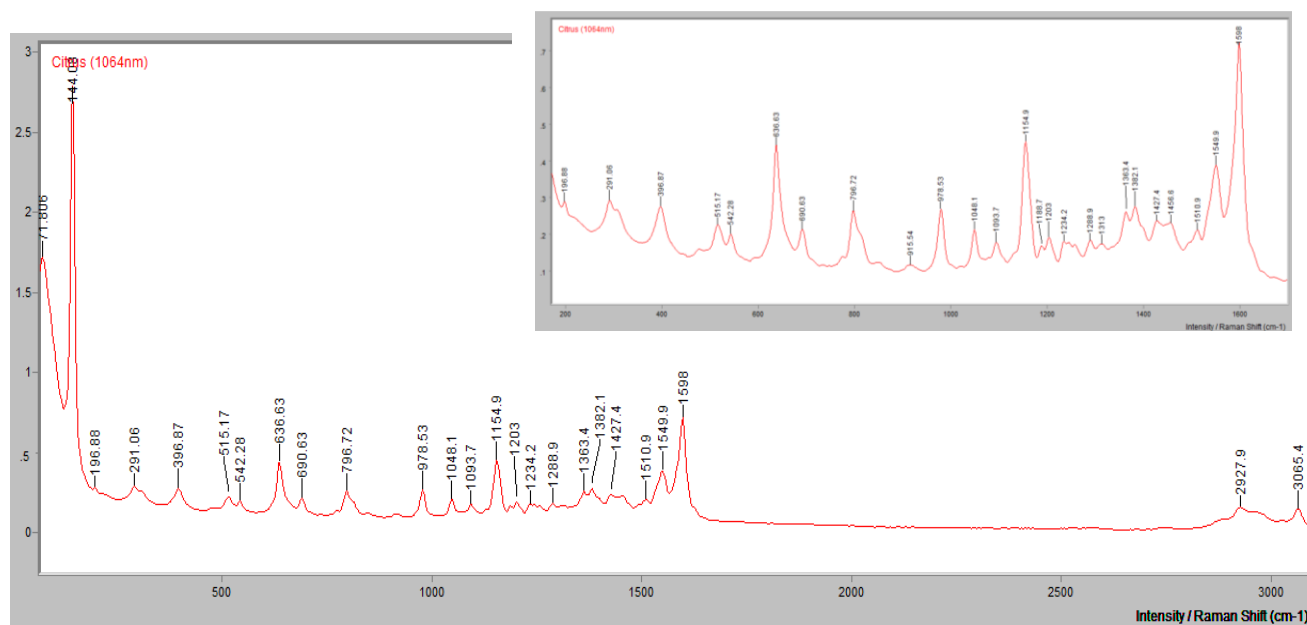


Figure 152. FT-Raman spectrum of Citrus, with a close-up of the region from 170 to 1700 cm^{-1} (inset).

Correlation exists between the FT-Raman spectra of Pink and Citrus, which is interesting and indicates that both pigments have similar, but obviously not identical, molecular structures.

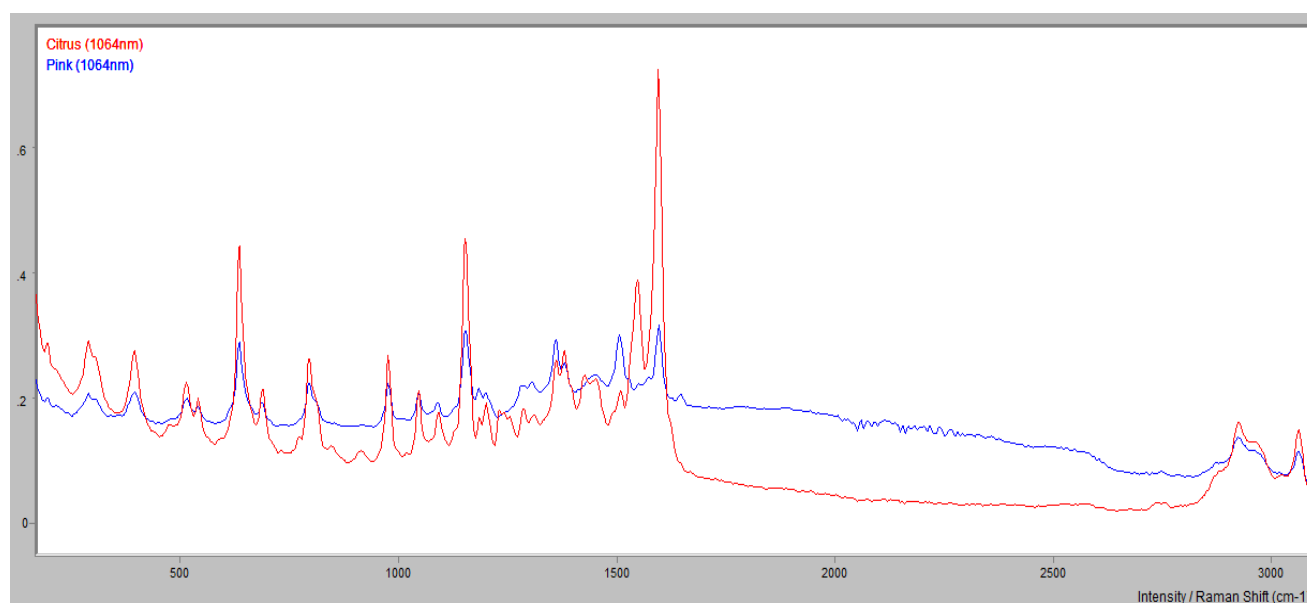


Figure 153. Spectral comparisons of IWB tattoo inks Citrus and Pink demonstrating the high degree of correlation between the two inks.

Amarelo Canario- Fluorescence was observed at $\lambda_0=488\text{nm}$, but some bands were present (1598, 1400.2, 1289.8 and 1247.8cm^{-1}). High quality spectra were obtained with $\lambda_0=633\text{nm}$, 785nm and 1064nm. SERS was useful in resolving Raman bands. The FT-IR (ATR) spectrum also displayed a number of well-resolved peaks. XRF indicated the presence of titanium. It is probable that the titanium is due to the presence of titanium dioxide.

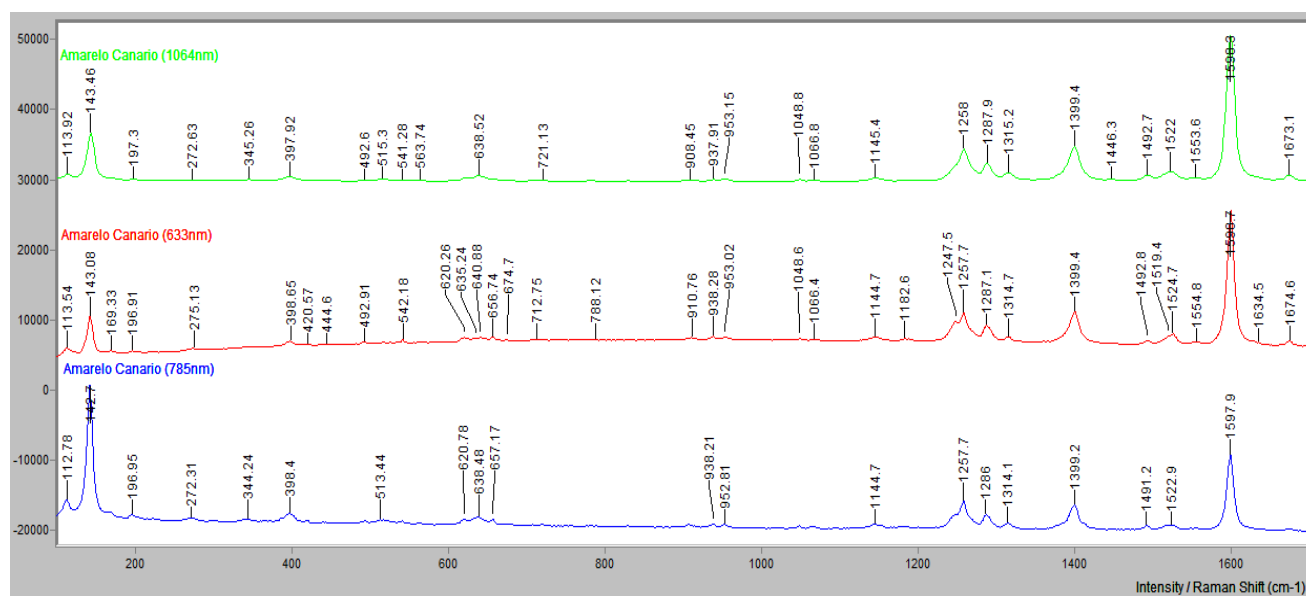


Figure 154. Comparison of Amarelo Canario and different excitation wavelengths.

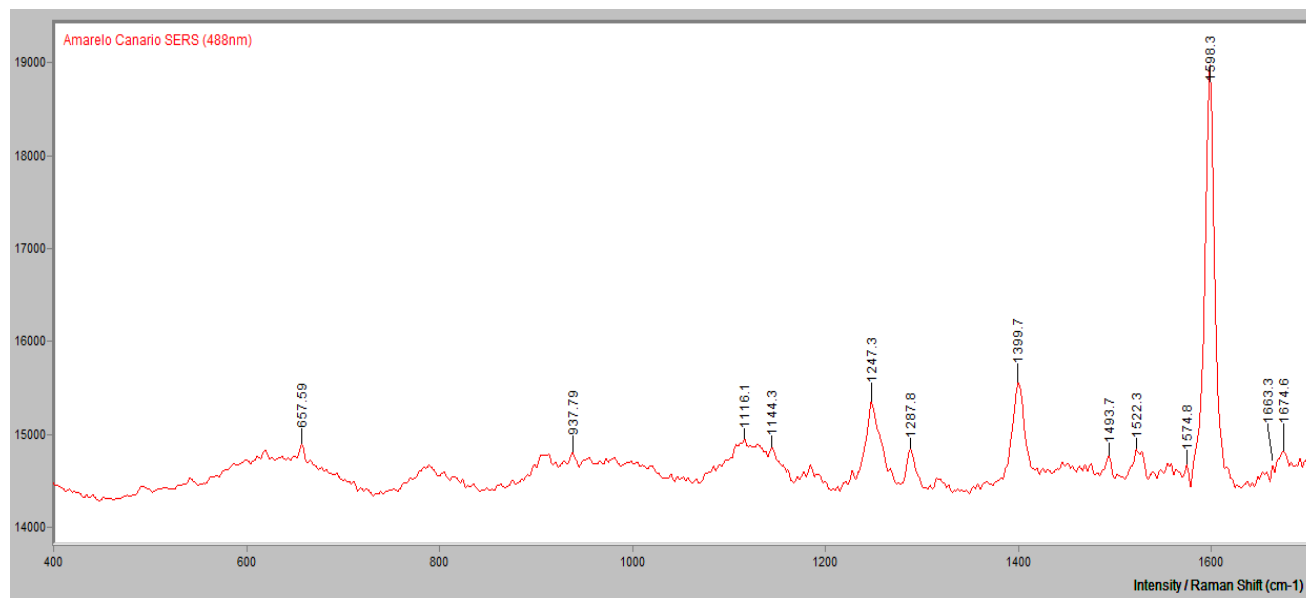


Figure 155. SERS spectrum of Amarelo Canario.

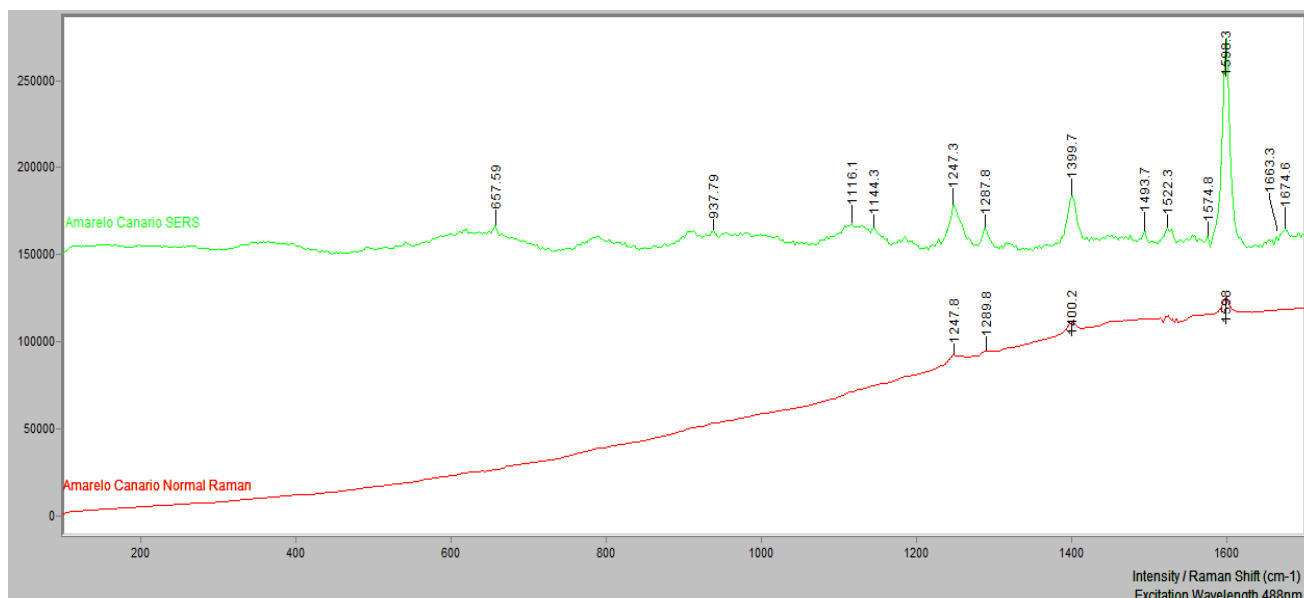


Figure 156. Comparison of normal Raman and SERS spectra of Amarelo Canario.

Amarelo Fluor- Overwhelming fluorescence was observed with normal Raman at $\lambda_0=$ 488 and 633nm. A spectrum was obtained at $\lambda_0=785$ and a high quality spectrum was obtained at 1064nm. The FT-IR (ATR) spectrum also displayed a number of well-resolved bands. XRF indicated the presence of titanium. It is probable that the titanium is due to the presence of titanium dioxide. No pigment standard could be correlated to the resultant spectral data.

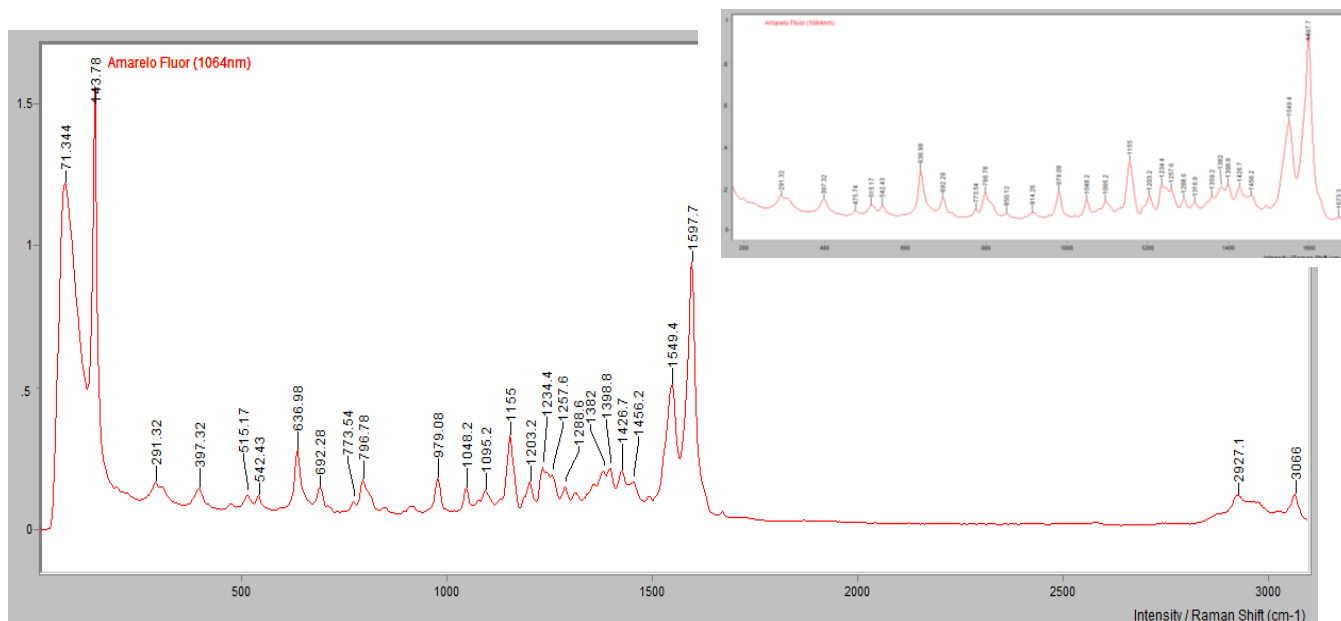


Figure 157. FT-Raman spectrum of Amarelo Fluor, with a close-up of the region from 170 to 1700cm⁻¹ (inset).

The FT-Raman spectra of Amarelo Fluor, and Citrus are very similar, with little differences between the spectra.

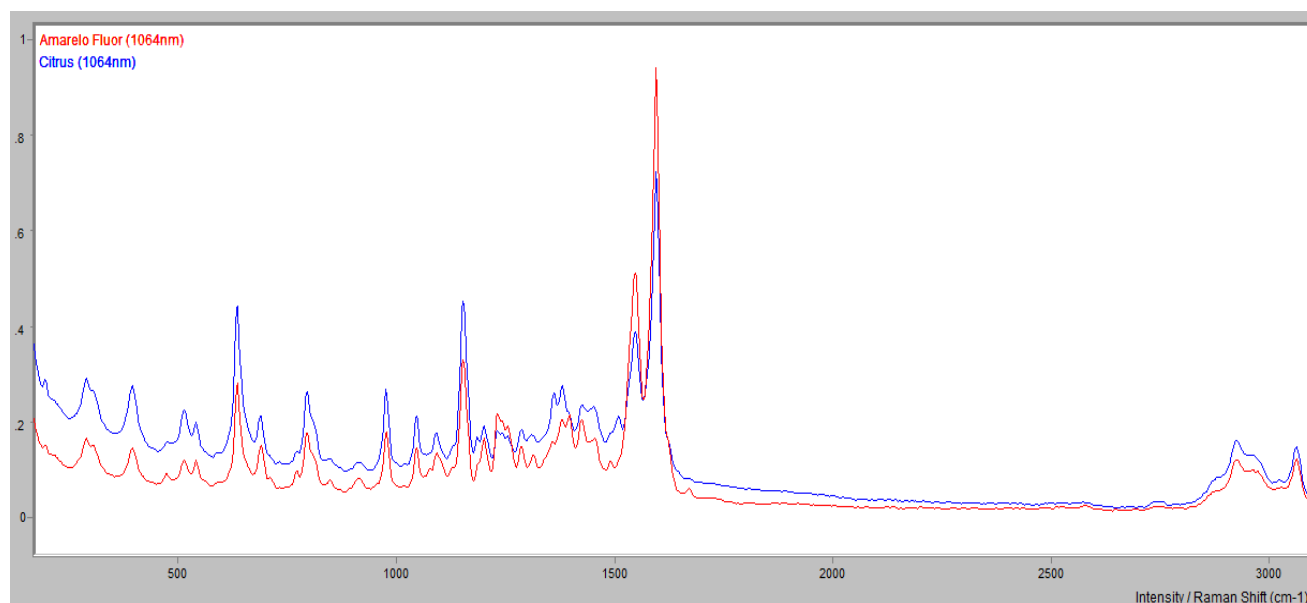


Figure 158. Spectral comparison of Amarelo Fluor and Citrus tattoo inks.

Verde Claro- Overwhelming fluorescence was observed at $\lambda_0=488\text{nm}$. A high quality spectrum was observed with $\lambda_0=633\text{nm}$ and spectra were observed with $\lambda_0=785\text{nm}$ and 1064nm (bands resolved at 146.84 and 1539.7cm^{-1}). The FT-IR (ATR) spectrum also displayed a number of well-resolved peaks. XRF indicated the presence of titanium, copper and bromine. It is probable that the titanium is due to the presence of titanium dioxide and the copper and bromine are indicative of Pigment Green. Verde Claro contains Pigment Green 7. The presence of bromine indicates that Verde Claro may also contain a trace amount of a bromine-containing pigment such as Pigment Green 36.

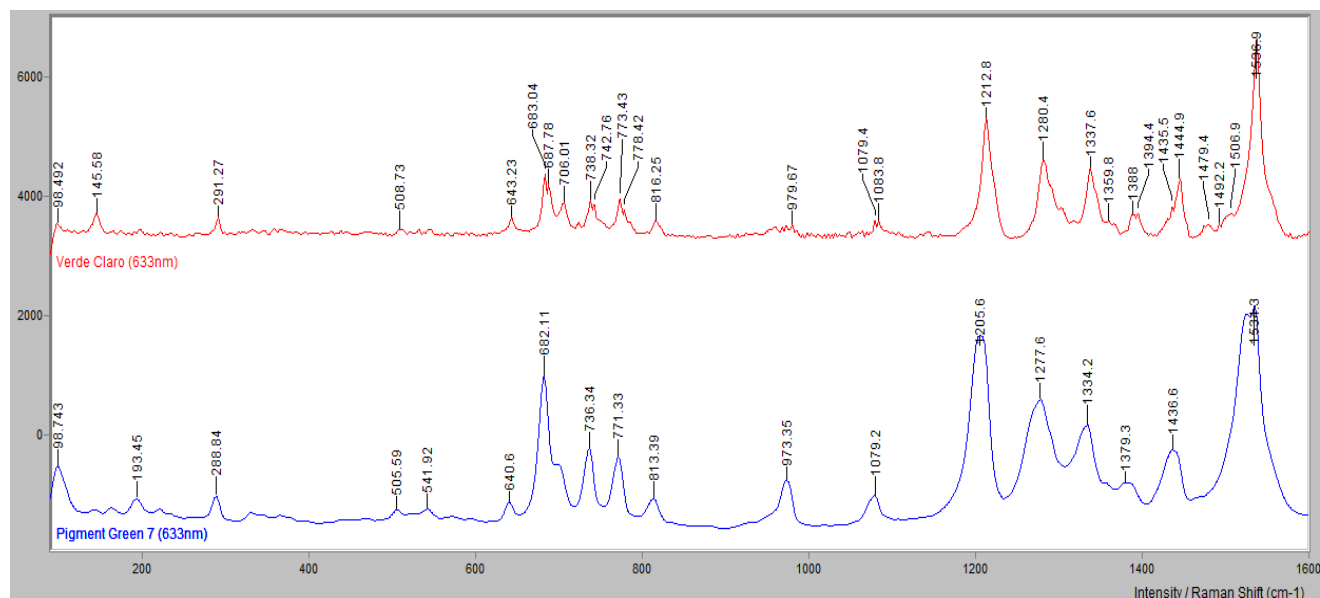


Figure 159. Comparison of Verde Claro with Pigment Green 7 standard.

Polarized light microscopy of verde claro disclosed the presence of colorless, green, yellow and blue pigment particles (Figure 160).

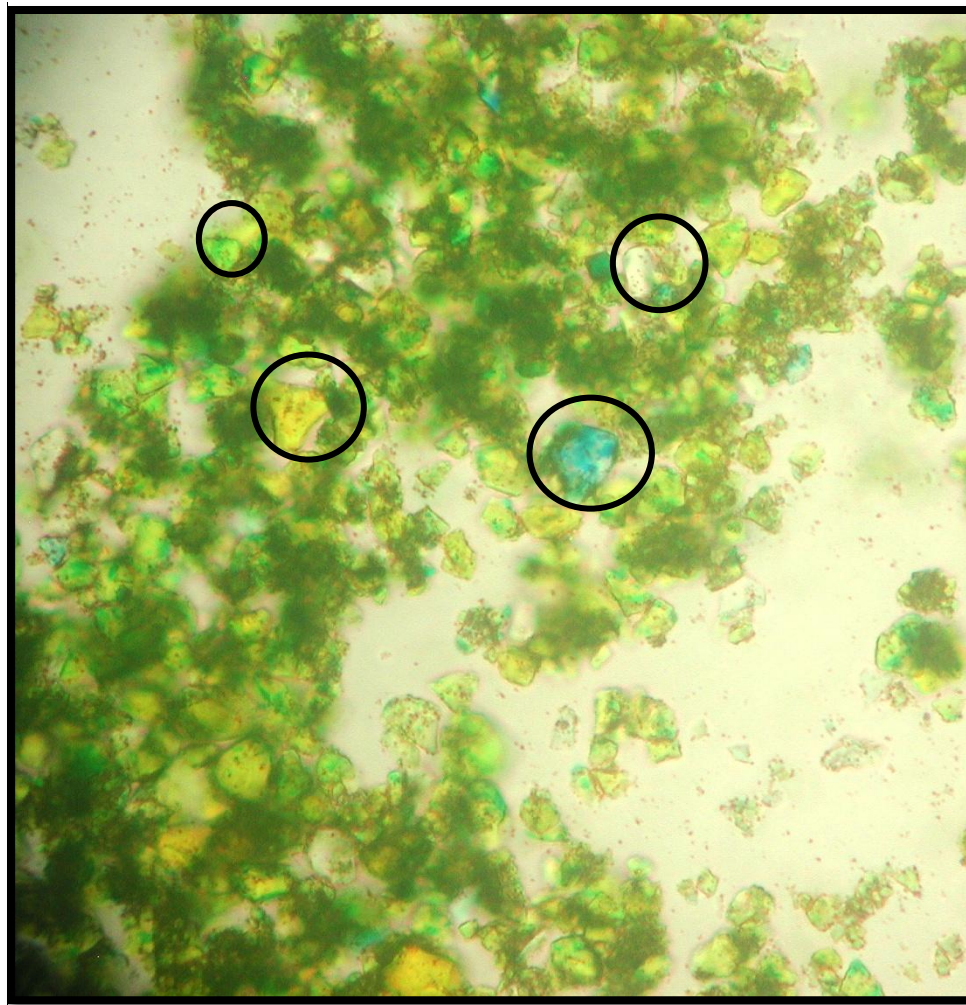


Figure 160. Photomicrograph of Verde Claro tattoo ink (Polarized light microscopy, 1.550 RI mounting media, 400x). Note the presence of colorless, green, yellow and blue pigment particles of varying particle size (circled).

Azul Royal- High quality spectra were resolved with normal Raman at all three excitation wavelengths and a spectrum was obtained with FT-Raman. The FT-IR (ATR) spectrum also displayed a number of well-resolved peaks. XRF indicated the presence of titanium and copper. It is probable that the titanium is due to the presence of titanium dioxide and the copper is indicative of Pigment Blue 15 or a related polymorph.

Magenta- Overwhelming fluorescence was observed at $\lambda_0=633\text{nm}$ and 785nm . Spectra were observed with $\lambda_0=488\text{nm}$ and 1064nm . SERS was useful in resolving Raman peaks. The

FT-IR (ATR) spectrum also displayed a number of well-resolved peaks. XRF indicated the presence of titanium. It is probable that the titanium is due to the presence of titanium dioxide. No pigment standard could be correlated to the resultant spectral data.

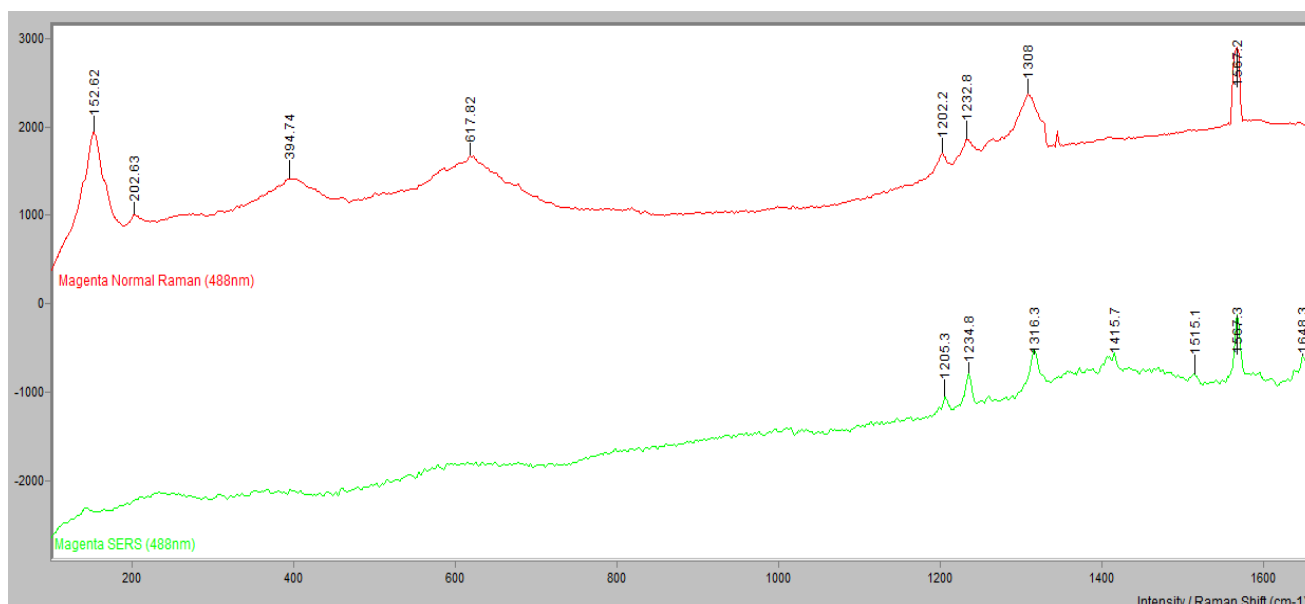


Figure 161. Comparison of normal Raman and SERS spectra of Magenta.

Lilas Claro- High quality spectra were obtained with all excitation wavelengths (both normal Raman and FT-Raman). Examination of the Raman spectra indicates the presence of titanium dioxide, anatase form ('light region') and Pigment Violet 23, specifically the β polymorph ('dark region'). The FT-IR spectrum resolved a few peaks and XRF indicated the presence of titanium. This titanium is due to the presence of titanium dioxide.

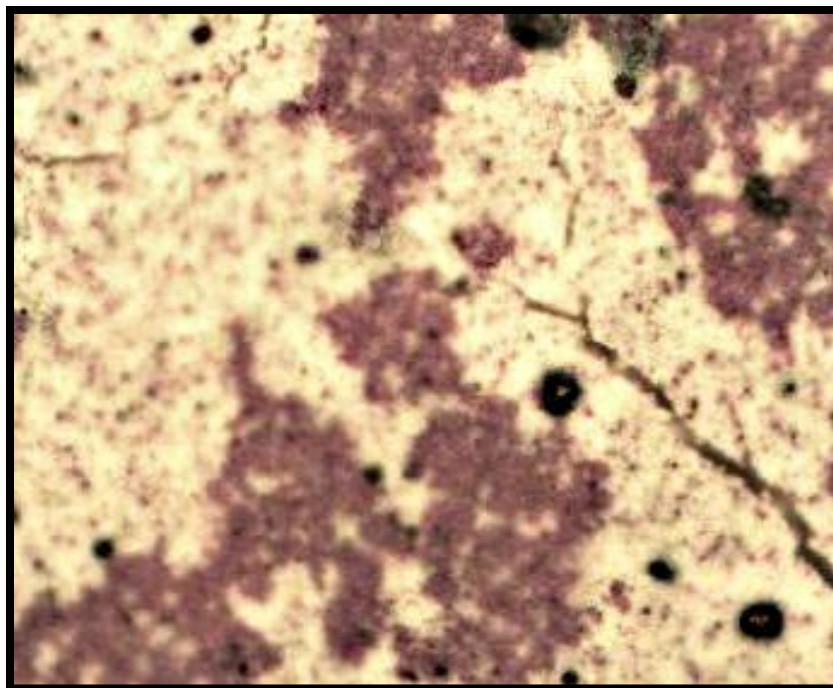


Figure 162. Image of region of Lilas Claro Tattoo Ink slide preparation through dispersive micro-Raman, demonstrating the dark and light regions. Magnification is approximately 2,000x.

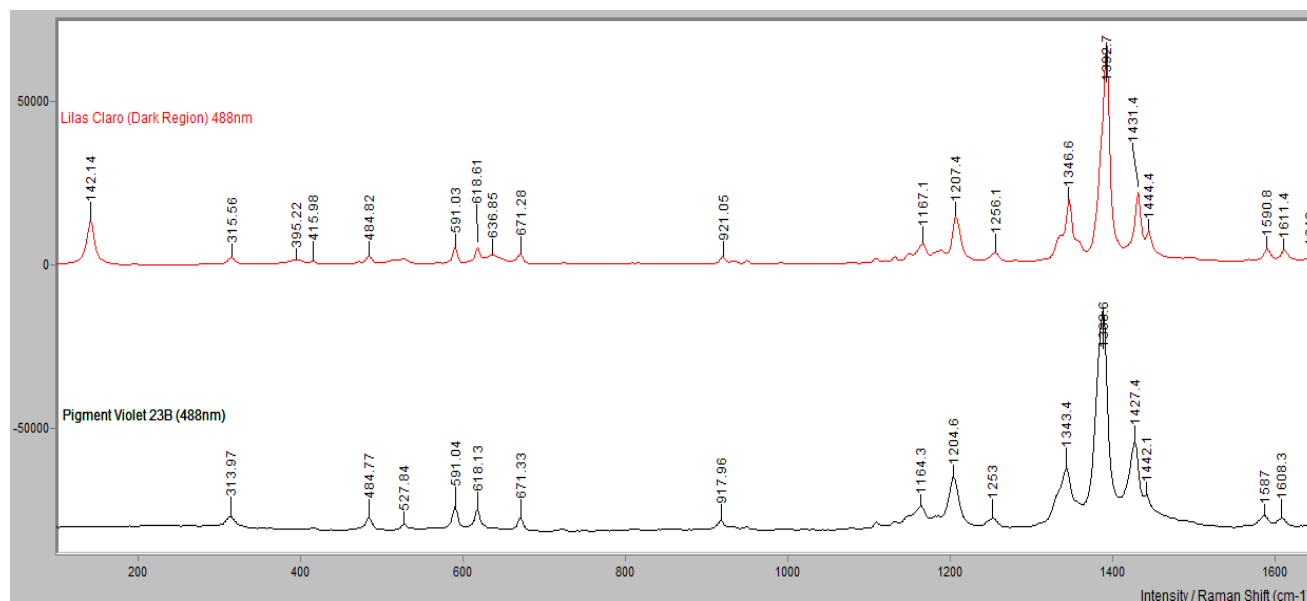


Figure 163. Normal Raman of Lilas Claro compared to Pigment Violet 23 β pigment standard.

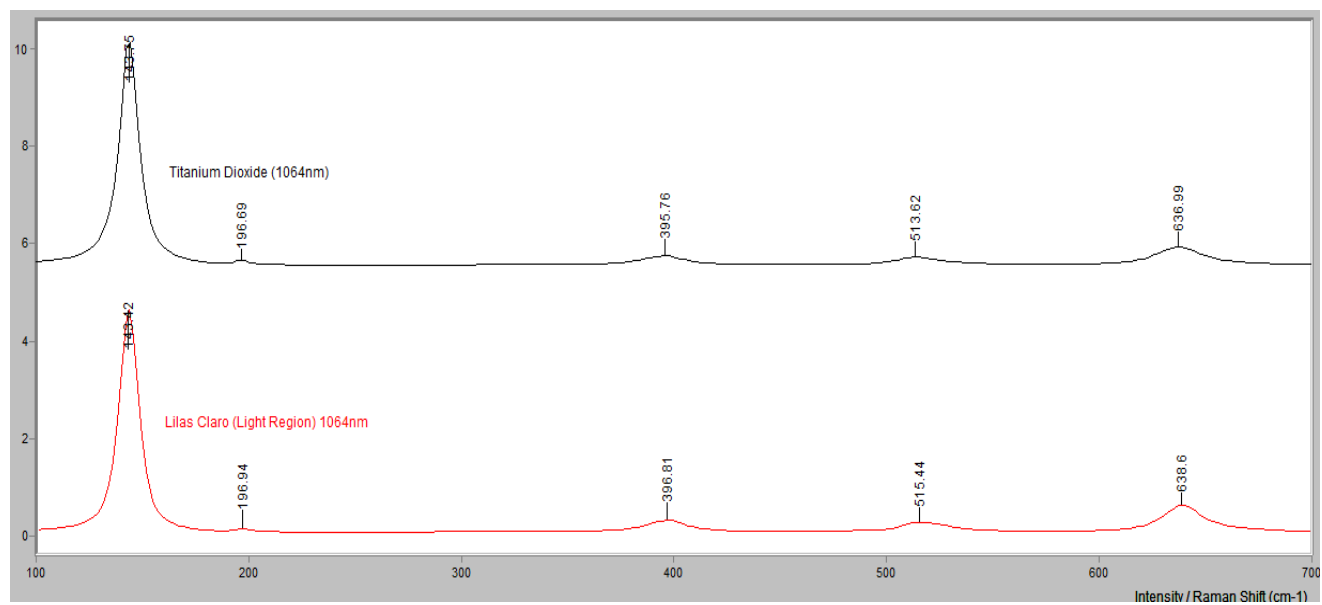


Figure 164. Normal Raman of Lilas Claro compared to titanium dioxide.

Flying Tigers

The Flying Tigers Tattoo Ink set was analyzed via normal Raman and subjected to pigment extraction. This was done in an effort to identify the pigment compositions. As expected, preliminary examinations indicate that the tattoo inks from China (and purchased inexpensively from an online auction site) exhibit a high degree of variation. A selection of inks is presented. More detailed information about each tattoo ink can be found in the corresponding Appendix.

Salmon Pink- Correlation was found between Salmon Pink and Pigment Orange 34.

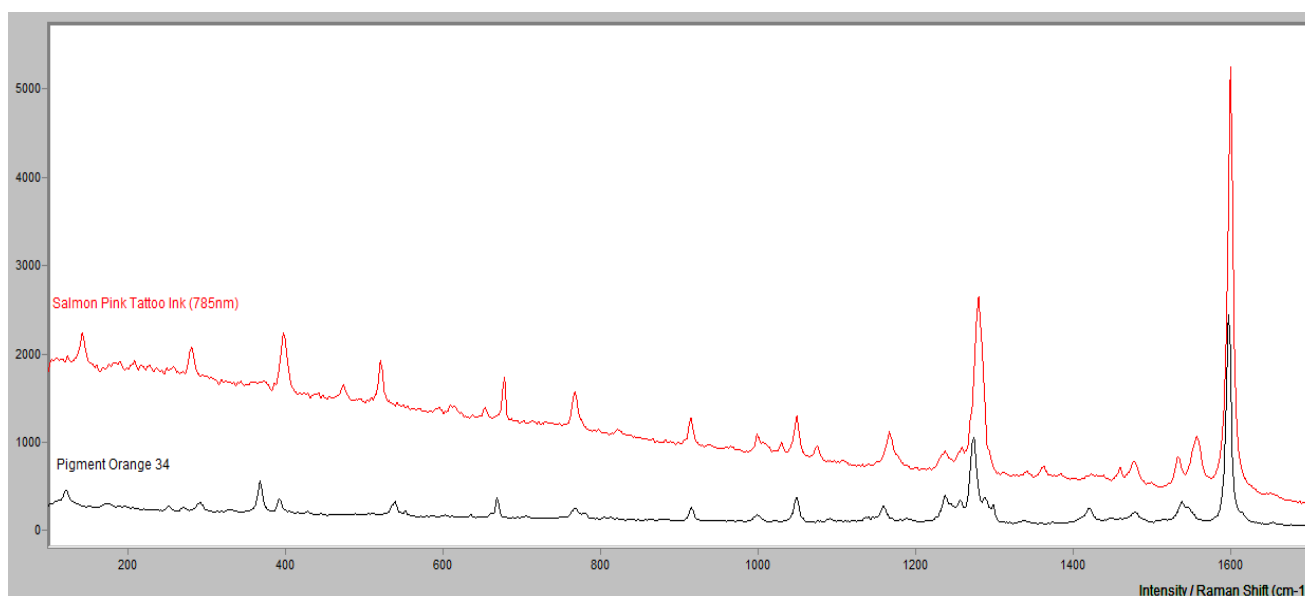


Figure 165. Comparison of Salmon Pink tattoo ink and PO 34 standard.

Pink Red- Comparison of the spectrum obtained at 488nm exhibited correlation with the SERS (488nm) spectrum of Pigment Red 170. The SERS spectrum was employed because there were more, better resolved peaks observed when compared to the normal Raman spectrum (488nm) of Pigment Red 170. Due to the detection of Zinc by XRF and the microscopic appearance of pink red, it is likely that zinc oxide (white) is present in the tattoo ink.

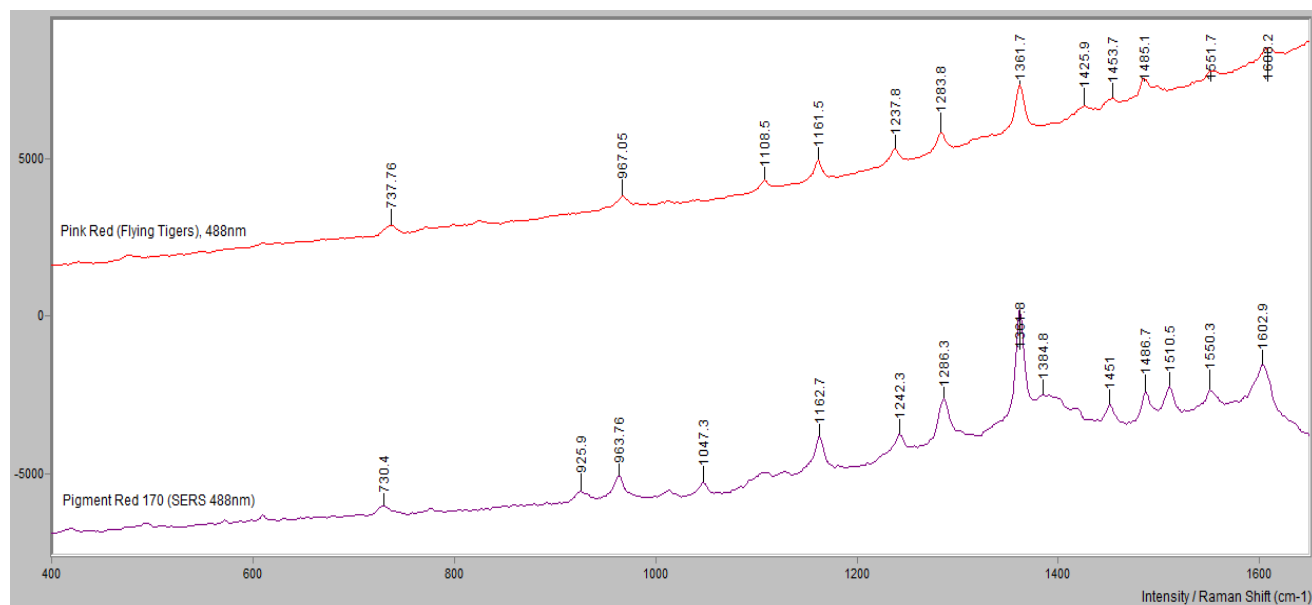


Figure 166. Comparison of Pink Red tattoo ink and PR 170 standard.

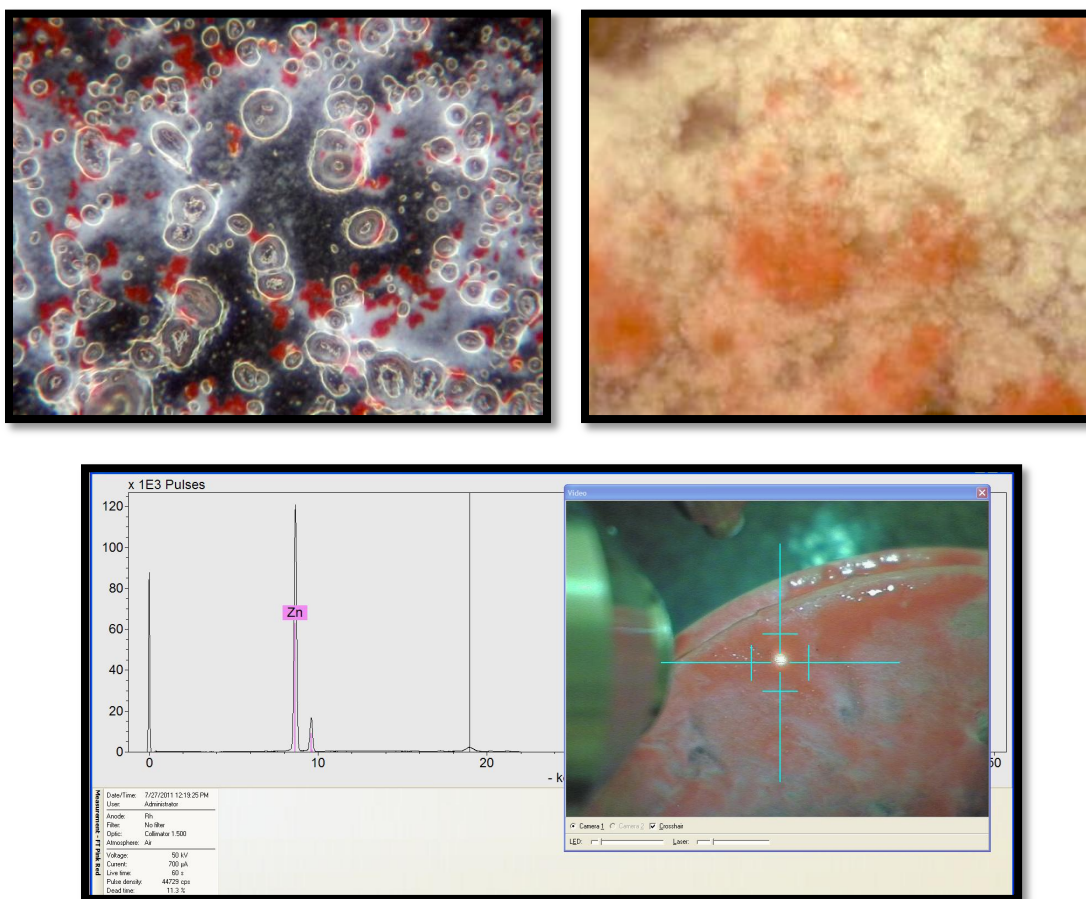


Figure 167 a, b and c. Flying Tigers Pink Red tattoo ink (darkfield microscopy 100x, left and Raman microscope, 1000x, right). Note the aggregates of pink/red particles and the aggregates of white particles. This can also be seen in the image from the XRF (bottom right), which detected Zinc.

Reds- Chinese Red: Correlation was found with Pigment Red 170, specifically with regard to the more intense bands at 1163 (C-N symmetrical bend), 1283, 1360 (naphthalene), 1424 (N=N stretch), 1484, 1548, 1609 cm^{-1} (benzene stretch). There are a large number of unassigned bands, indicating that this tattoo ink is an azo dye in the red class and possibly a mixture. Similar conclusions can be drawn about the **Rose Red** tattoo ink, which exhibited peaks at 1289, 1360, 1424, 1486, 1547 and 1607 cm^{-1} and the **Mulberry** tattoo ink, which exhibited peaks at 1160, 1285, 1360, 1424, 1485, 1549 and 1609 cm^{-1} . An additional band at 1580 cm^{-1} was found at 1580 cm^{-1} for Rose Red and Mulberry, which was not present in Pigment Red 170. The intensity of the band at 1580 cm^{-1} is similar to that of the band at 1609 cm^{-1} . Similar results were found with **Dark Red**. In summary, the selection of red tattoo inks exhibit characteristic Raman spectra consistent with azo dyes.

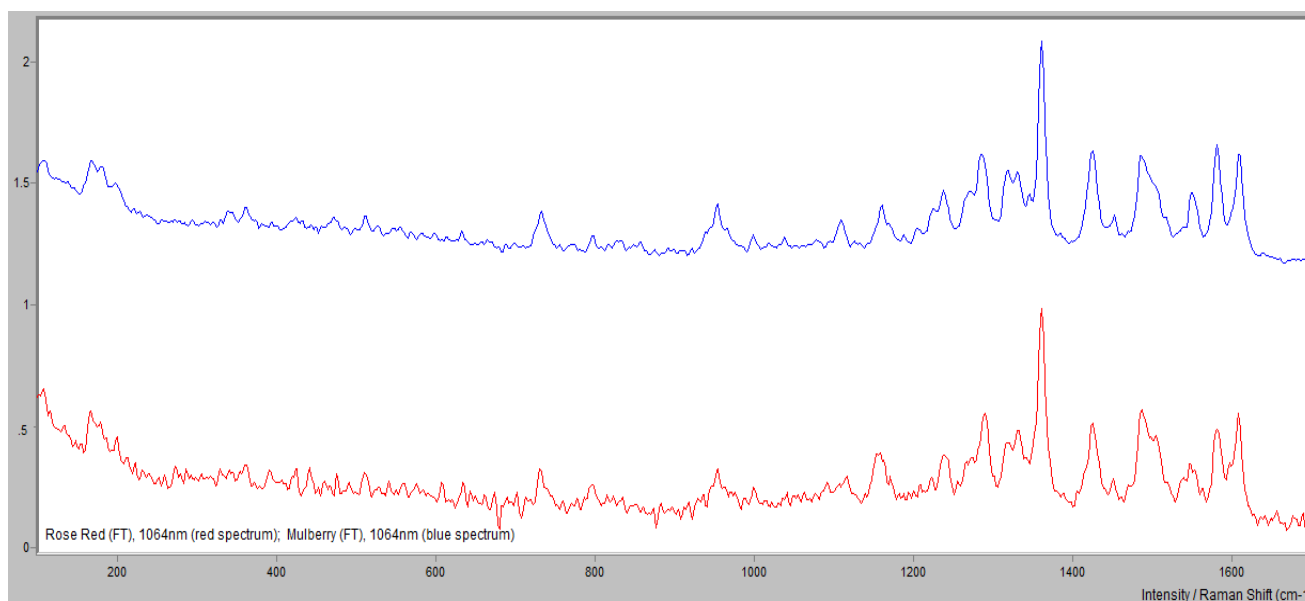


Figure 168. Comparison of Rose Red (red) and Mulberry (blue) spectra demonstrating correlation between the two inks.

Direct correlation was made between Pigment Red 170 and the **Bright Red** tattoo ink, with intense bands found at 1282, 1360, 1422, 1484, 1549 and 1609 cm^{-1} .

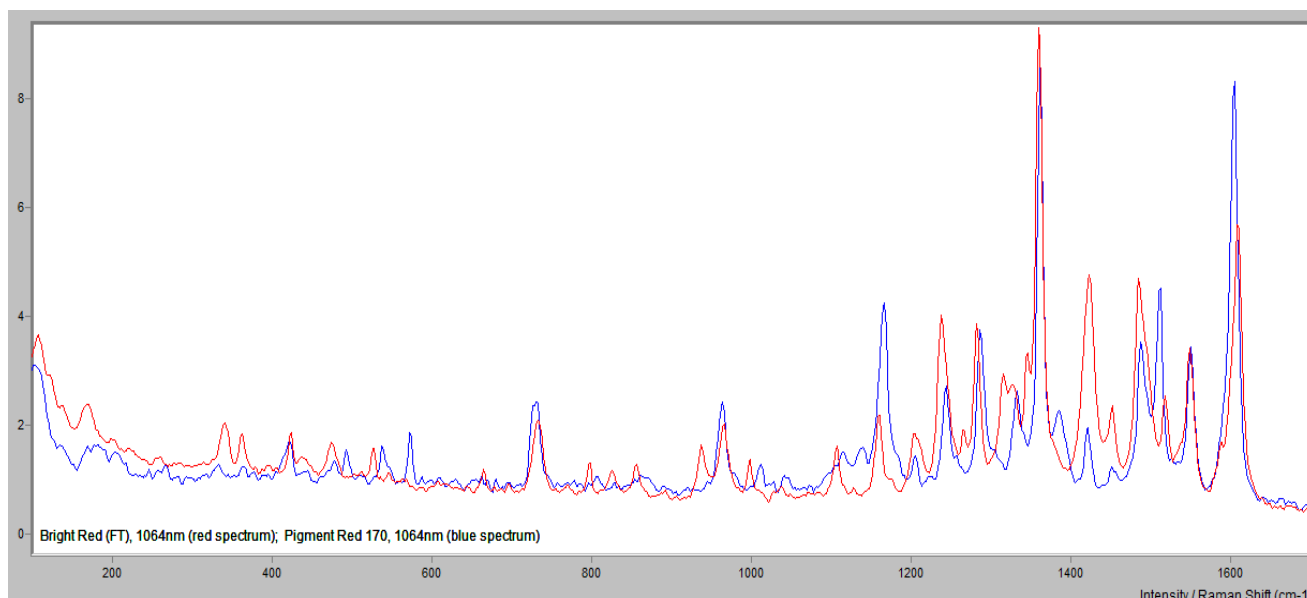


Figure 169. Comparison of Bright Red tattoo ink (red) and PR 170 pigment standard (blue).

Orange Red and Orange- Correlation was found between Orange Red, Orange and Pigment Orange 34. After closer inspection with the literature, better correlation was found between Orange Red, Orange and Pigment Orange 13 (Scherrer, *et.al.*, 2009), with the most intense peaks at 1280, 1555 and 1599 cm^{-1} . Pigment Orange 13 is structurally similar to Pigment Orange 34, the difference being the two methyl groups present of the outermost benzene rings (*para* orientation). The high degree of symmetry observed in the Raman spectrum of Pigment Orange 34 is apparent in that of Pigment Orange 13 (as reported in Scherrer, *et.al.*, 2009).

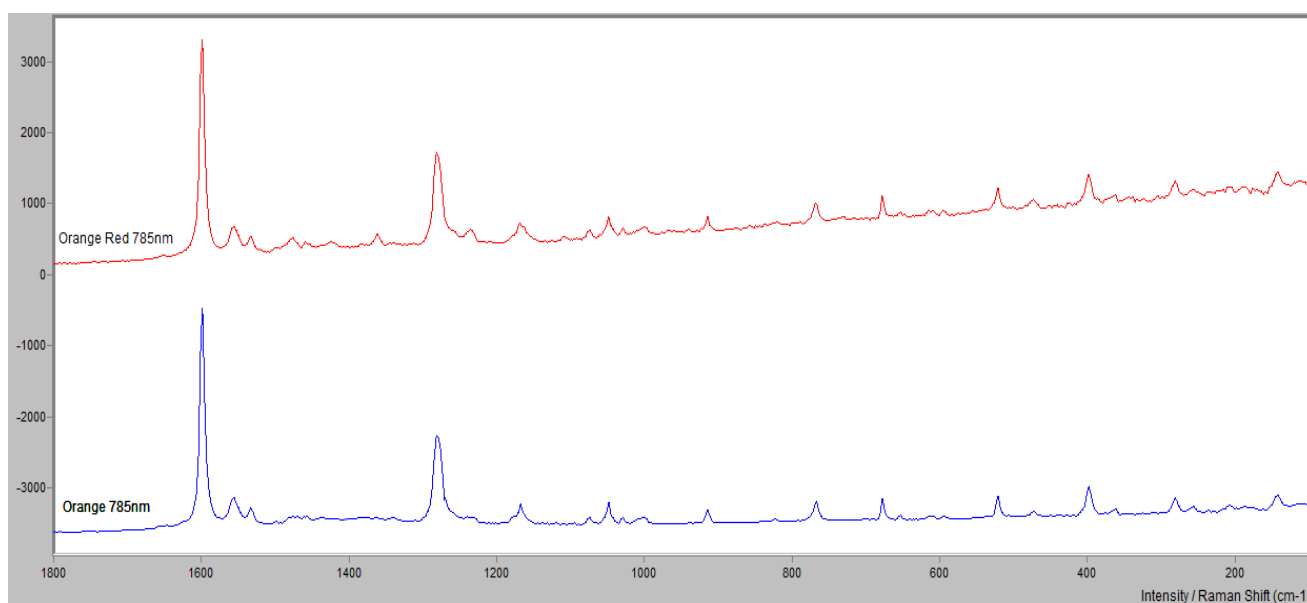
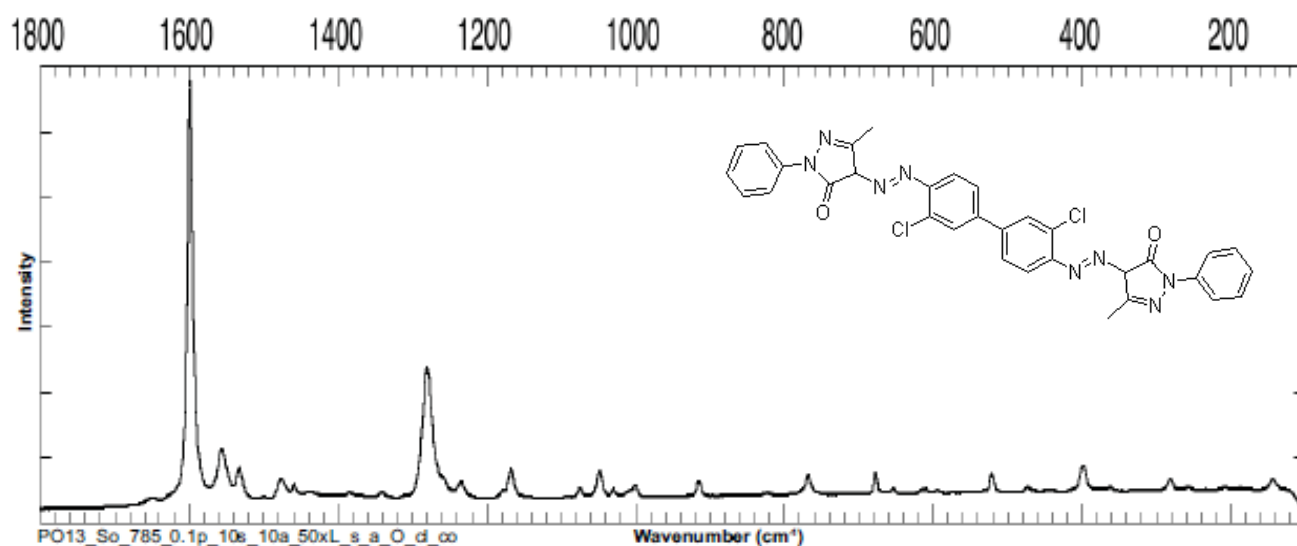


Figure 170 a and b. Pigment Orange 13 from the literature (top) and Orange Red (red spectrum) and Orange (blue spectrum) Flying Tigers Tattoo Inks (all spectra acquired with 785nm laser excitation).

Yellows- Mid-Yellow, Yellow and Golden Yellow Tattoo Inks have the same composition. The spectra exhibit major bands at 1596 cm^{-1} (aromatic ring vibrations), 1399 cm^{-1} (azo $\text{N}=\text{N}$ symmetric stretch), 1293 cm^{-1} (C-C stretching and CH bending vibrations, specifically the characteristic vibration between the C-C bridge between phenyl groups at the center of the molecule) and 1251 cm^{-1} (amide III band, with the amide I band around 1660 cm^{-1} and

benzylamide band at 950 cm^{-1}). The spectra clearly indicate a disazo pigment, specifically a diarylide (for example, Pigment Yellow 83). **Bright Yellow** has major bands at 1252, 1330, 1347, 1503, 1596 and 1404 cm^{-1} and **Khaki** has major bands at 1251, 1292, 1398 and 159.4 cm^{-1} , indicative of azo pigments.

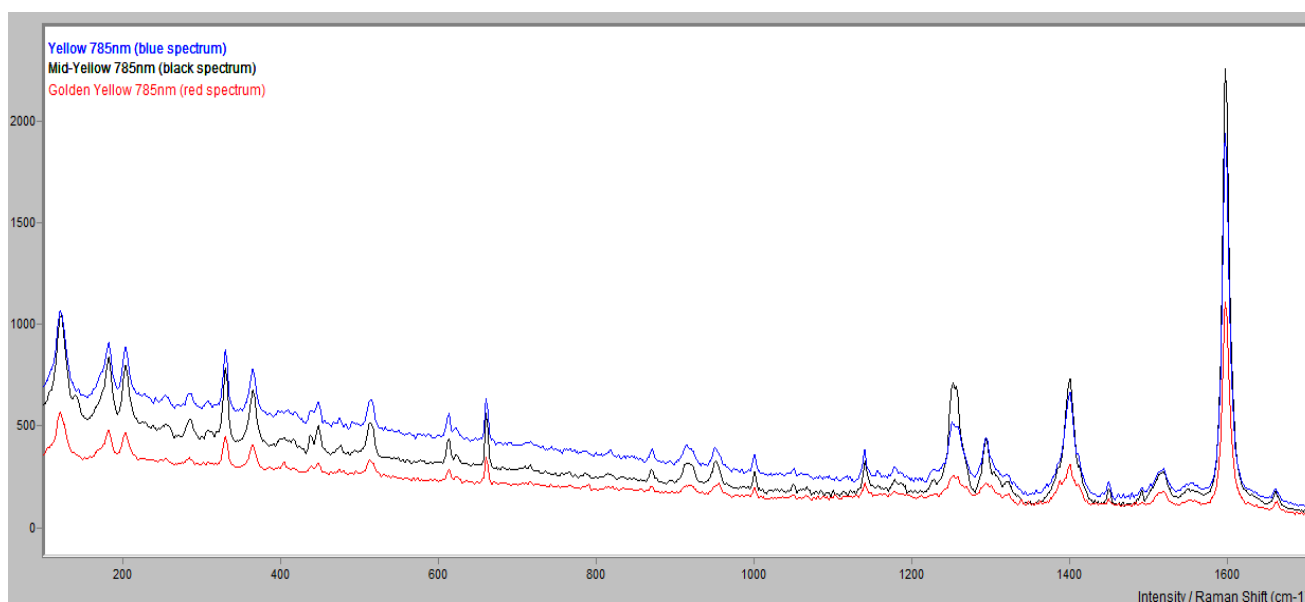


Figure 171. Comparison of yellow tattoo inks; Yellow (blue spectrum), Mid-Yellow (black spectrum) and Golden Yellow (red spectrum).

Greens- XRF disclosed the presence of Copper, Chlorine and Bromine in the **Grass Hopper**, **Light Green** and **Dark Green** Tattoo Inks, and Copper and Chlorine in the **Verdancy** and **Lawn Green** Tattoo Inks. All of the green pigments exhibited bands at around 685 and 740 cm^{-1} , which is indicative of the vibrations inherent in the TBP nucleus characteristic of phthalocyanines (see Organic Pigment Chemistry section for a description of the phthalocyanines and the tetrabenzoporphyrzine nucleus). These two bands, along with the XRF data, assert that all of the green tattoo inks contain phthalocyanines. The presence of bromine indicates PG36 and the lack of bromine indicates PG7.

Blues- XRF disclosed the presence of Copper in *Blue Sky, Turquoise Blue, Cyan, Dark Cyan, Blue, Navy Blue* and *Dark Blue*. *Cyan* and *Dark Cyan* also contained Chlorine, and *Navy Blue* contained Chlorine and Bromine in addition to the Copper. All of the blue pigments exhibited bands at around 680 and 740 cm^{-1} , which is indicative of the vibrations inherent in the TBP nucleus. These two bands, along with the XRF data, assert that all of the blue tattoo inks contain phthalocyanines. Although it has been addressed earlier in this document about the spectral differences with a change in the excitation wavelength, one important observation is worth adding. In the blue tattoo inks, examination of the normal Raman spectra at 488nm shows a strong band around 680 cm^{-1} with little to no band around 745 cm^{-1} . The absence of this band may lead an inexperienced analyst to conclude that the TBP nucleus (ring vibrations) characteristic of the phthalocyanines is absent. These bands are present and of equal intensity in the normal Raman spectra at 785nm.

Purple and Violet - Correlation was found between Purple, Violet and Pigment Violet 23 β .

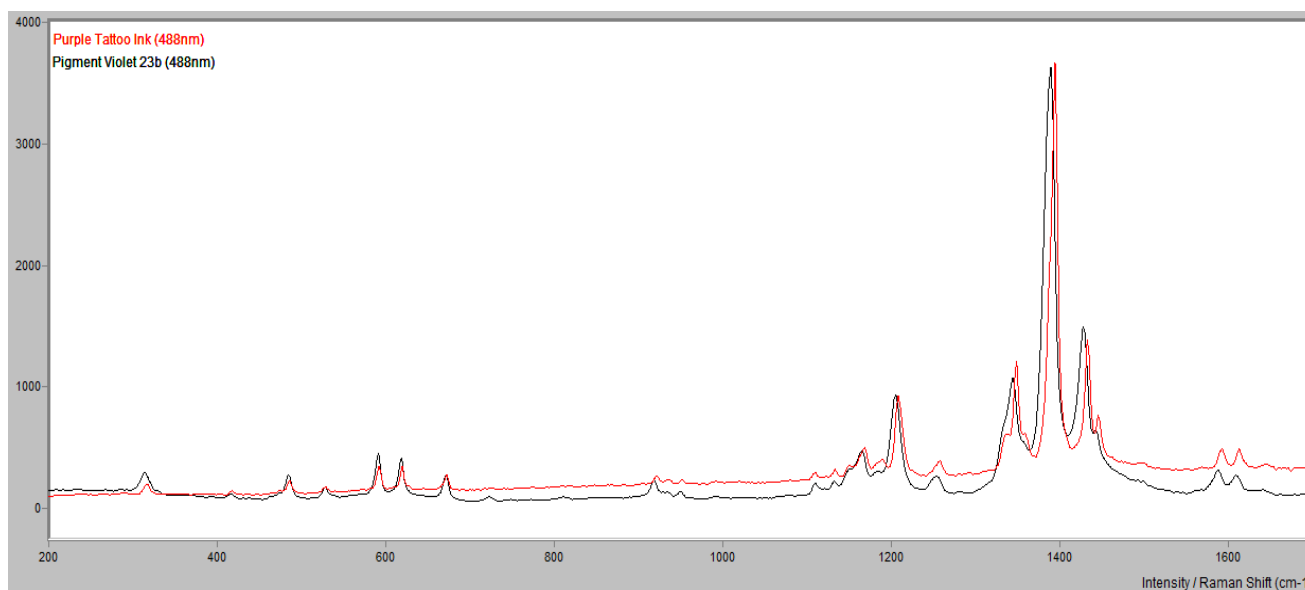


Figure 172. Comparison of Purple tattoo ink and PV 23 β pigment standard.

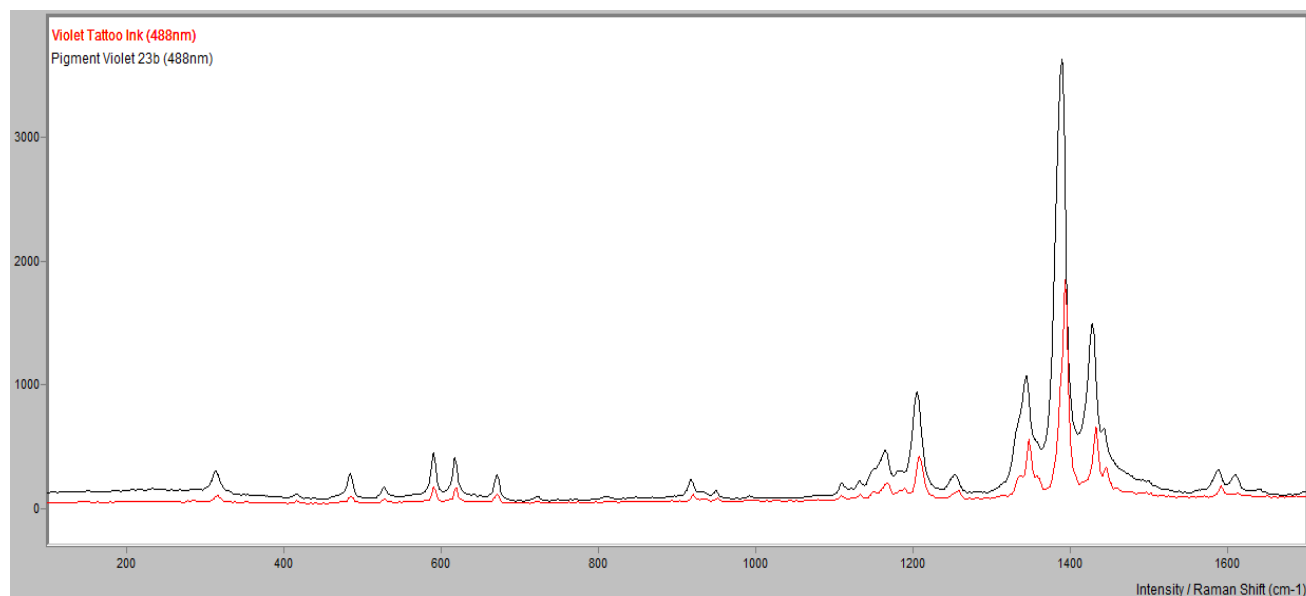


Figure 173. Comparison of Violet tattoo ink and PV 23 β pigment standard.

Dark Brown and Light Chocolate- XRF indicated the presence of chlorine, chromium, iron, copper and zinc in dark brown and the presence of chlorine, chromium, iron, nickel and zinc in light chocolate. Correlation was found between Dark Brown and Light Chocolate, another Flying Tigers tattoo ink.

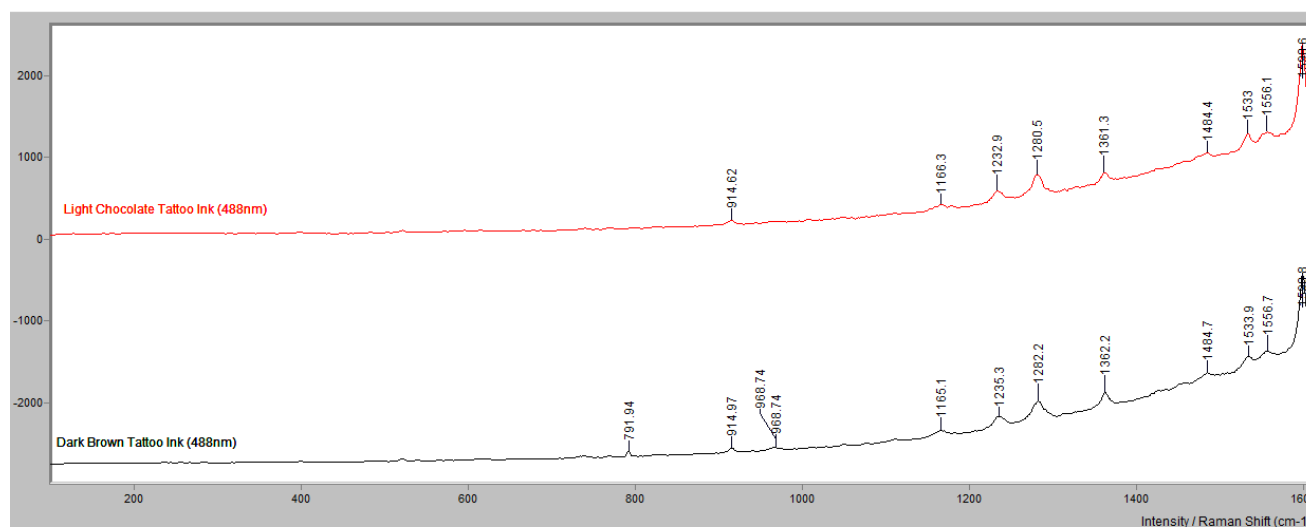


Figure 174. Comparison of Light Chocolate and Dark Brown tattoo inks demonstrating pigment composition correlation.

Skin Tone- No data with Raman, some peaks resolved with IR. XRF indicated the presence of zinc. This tattoo ink was still ‘wet’, even a year after being mounted on a glass slide and stored at room temperature in a microscope slide box.

White- XRF indicated the presence of titanium, which was consistent with the Raman spectrum corresponding to the titanium dioxide standard, specifically the anatase polymorph.

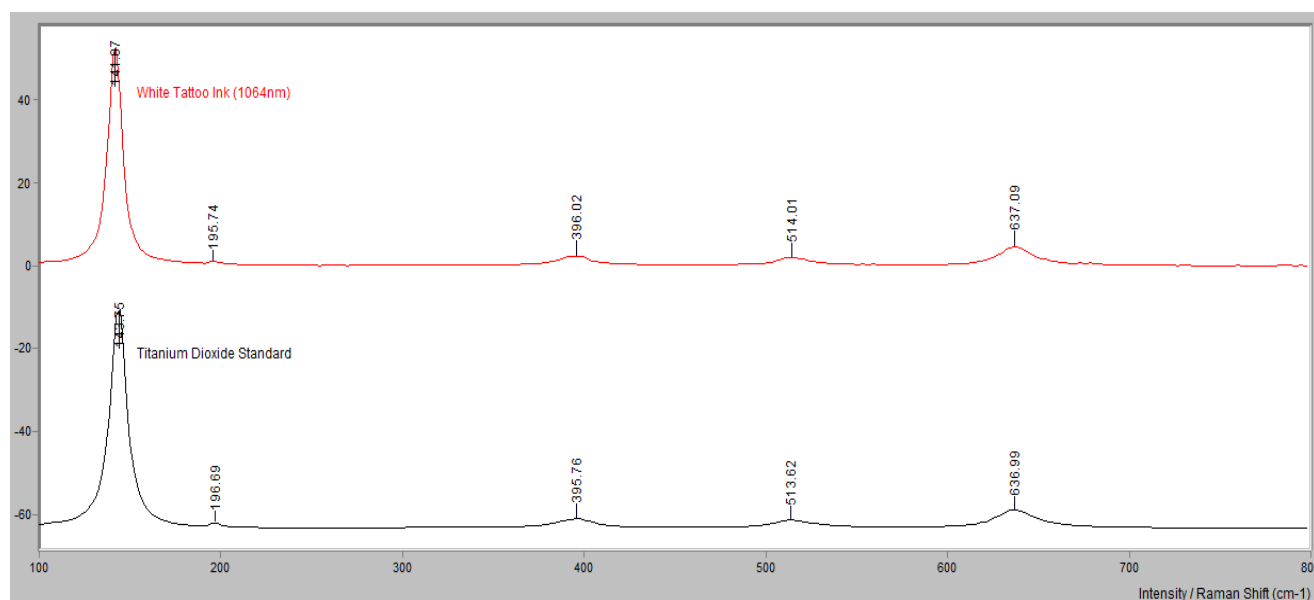


Figure 175. Comparison of White tattoo ink with titanium dioxide (anatase).

Results- Pigskin

A section of pigskin was obtained and two series of seven successive dots into the section of pigskin using the same Skin Candy tattoo inks analyzed in this research (refer to the Pigskin Study detailed in the Methods and Materials Section), one set of which was stored in formalin and one series was frozen. The tattoo inks used to tattoo were Whitegirl, Red Hot, Marz, Blisterine, Tastywaves, Muddy Water Blue, Ripple.

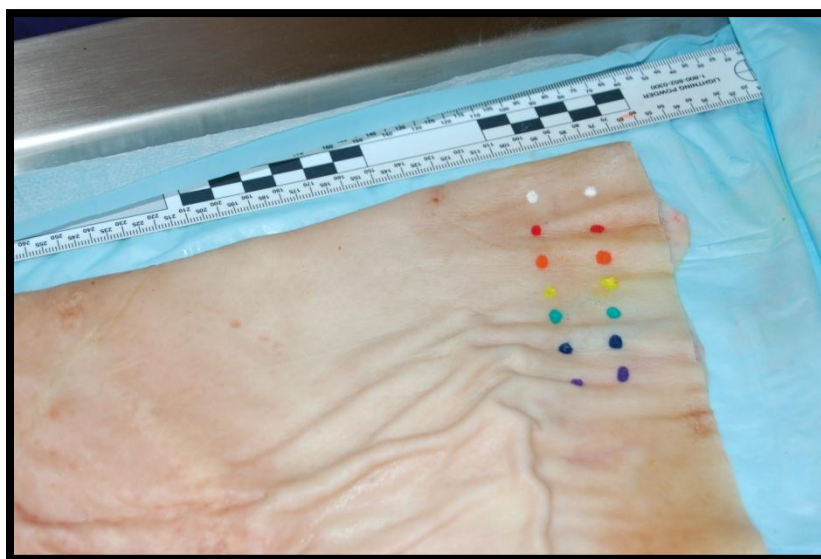


Figure 176. Section of pigskin with series of Skin Candy tattoo inks.

Preliminary examinations were used to compare the resultant spectra of the tattooed regions to the known pigments and to evaluate the effect of tissue preservation methods on the resultant spectra.

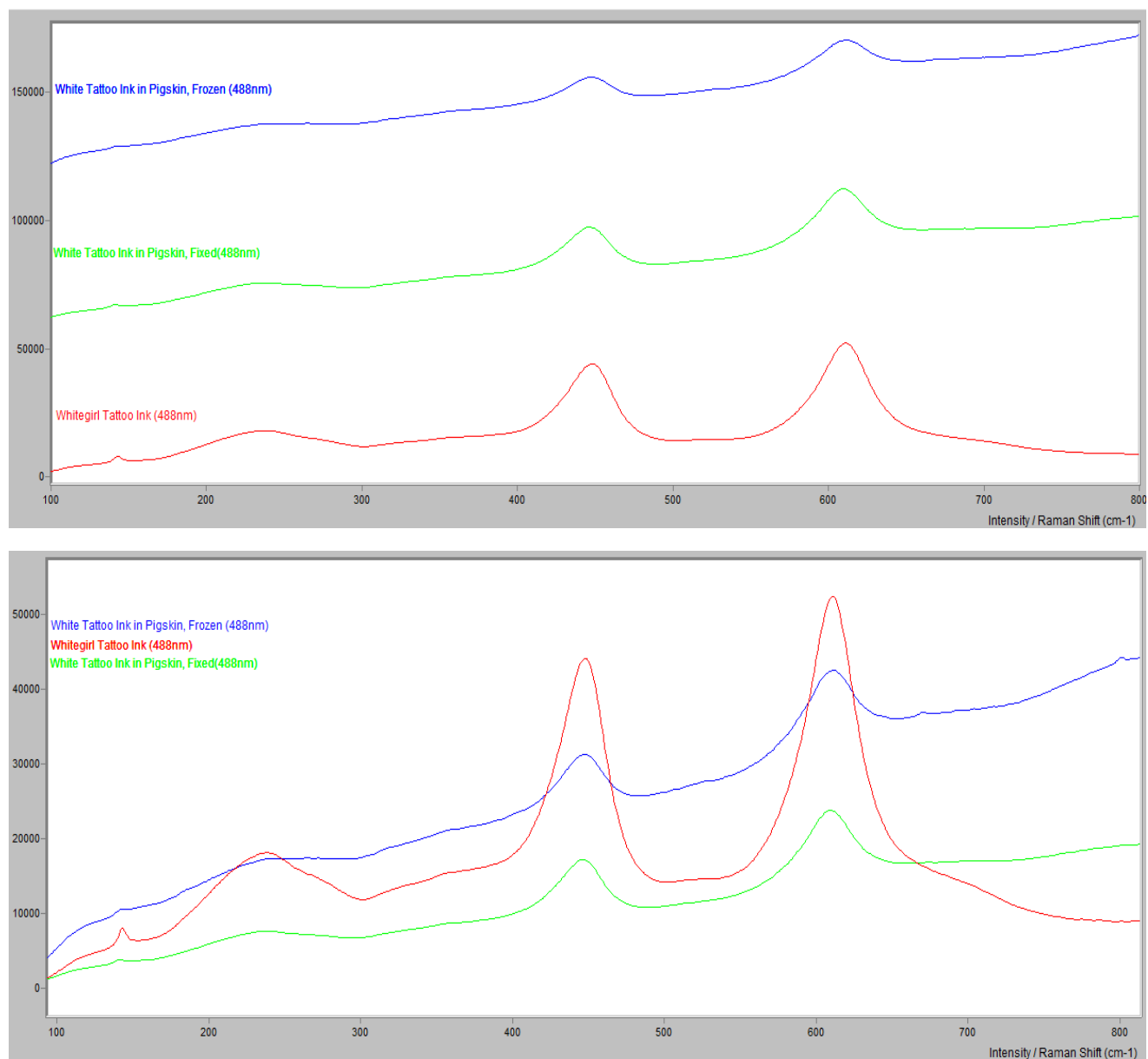


Figure 177 a and b. Comparison of white tattoo ink in pigskin (fixed and frozen) with Skin Candy Whitegirl tattoo ink [stacked (top) and overlay (bottom) formats].

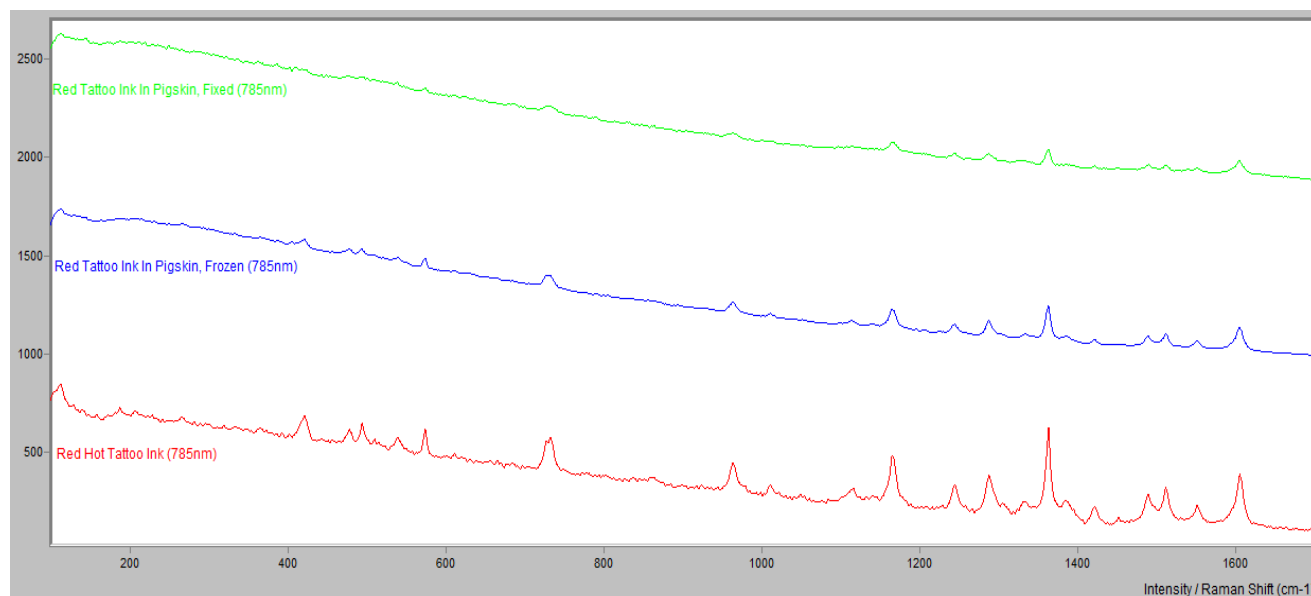


Figure 178. Comparison of red tattoo ink in pigskin (fixed and frozen) with Skin Candy Red Hot tattoo ink.

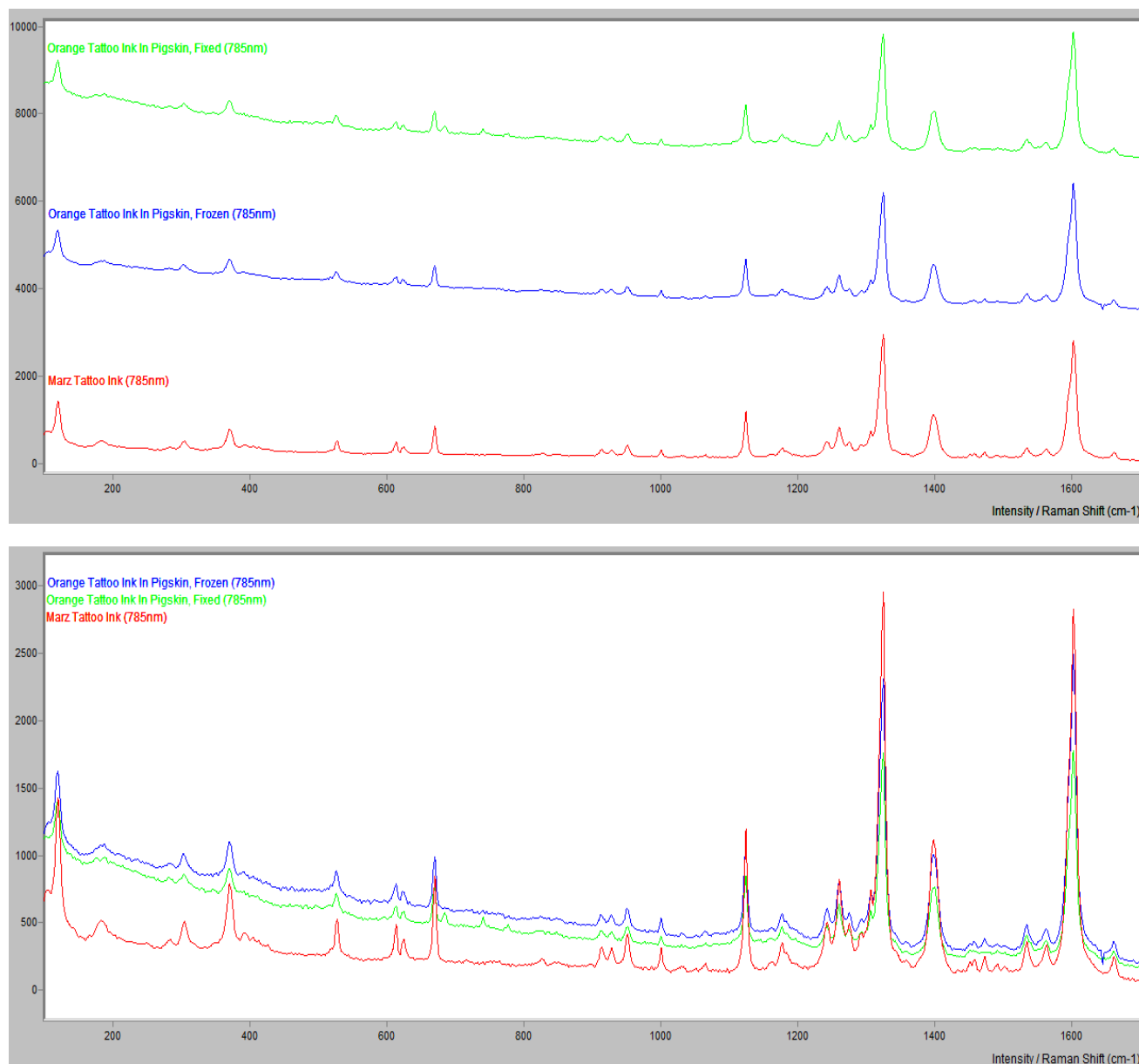


Figure 179 a and b. Comparison of orange tattoo ink in pigskin (fixed and frozen) with Skin Candy Marz tattoo ink [stacked (top) and overlay (bottom) formats].

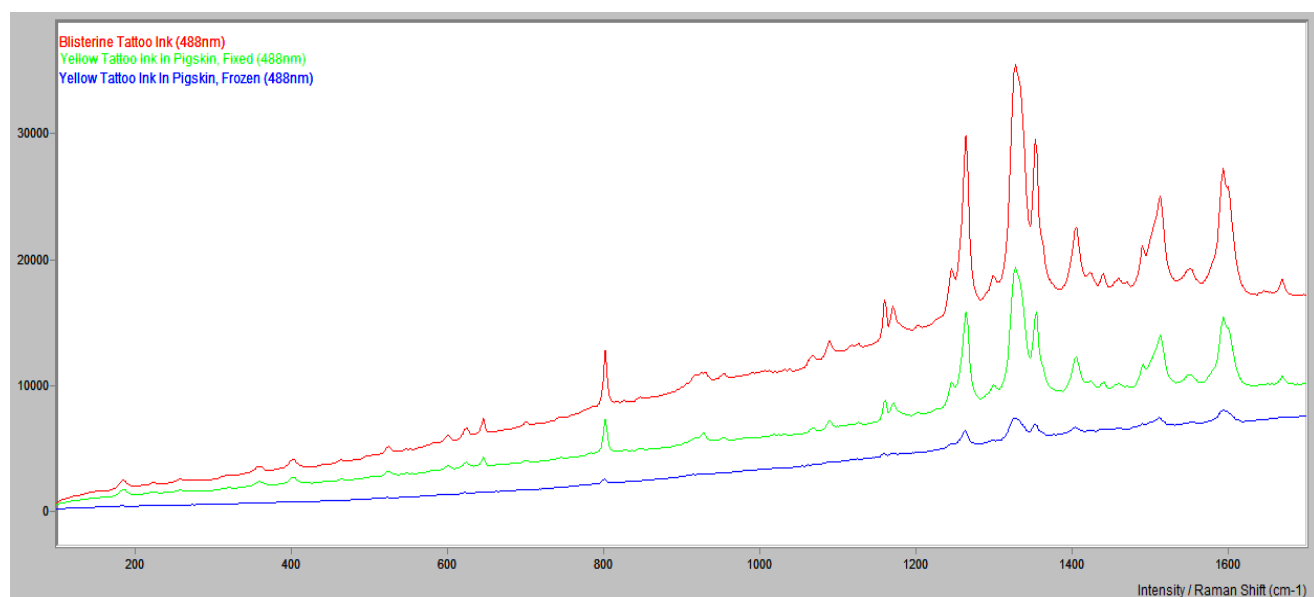
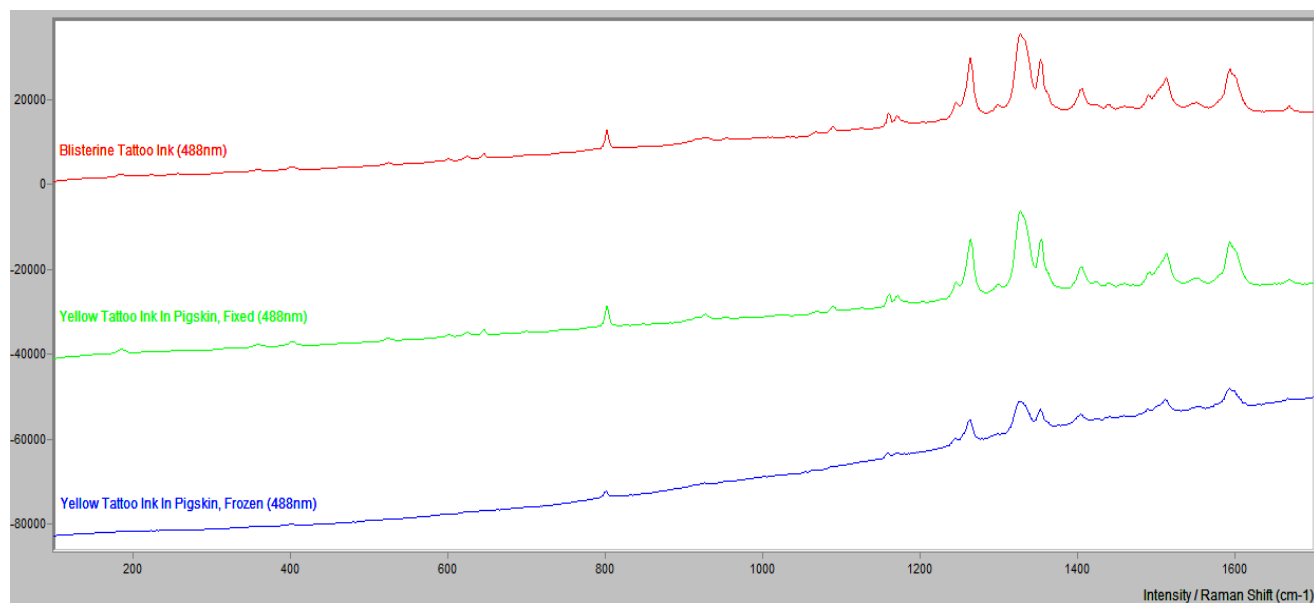


Figure 180 a and b. Comparison of yellow tattoo ink in pigskin (fixed and frozen) with Skin Candy Blisterine tattoo ink [stacked (top) and overlay (bottom) formats].

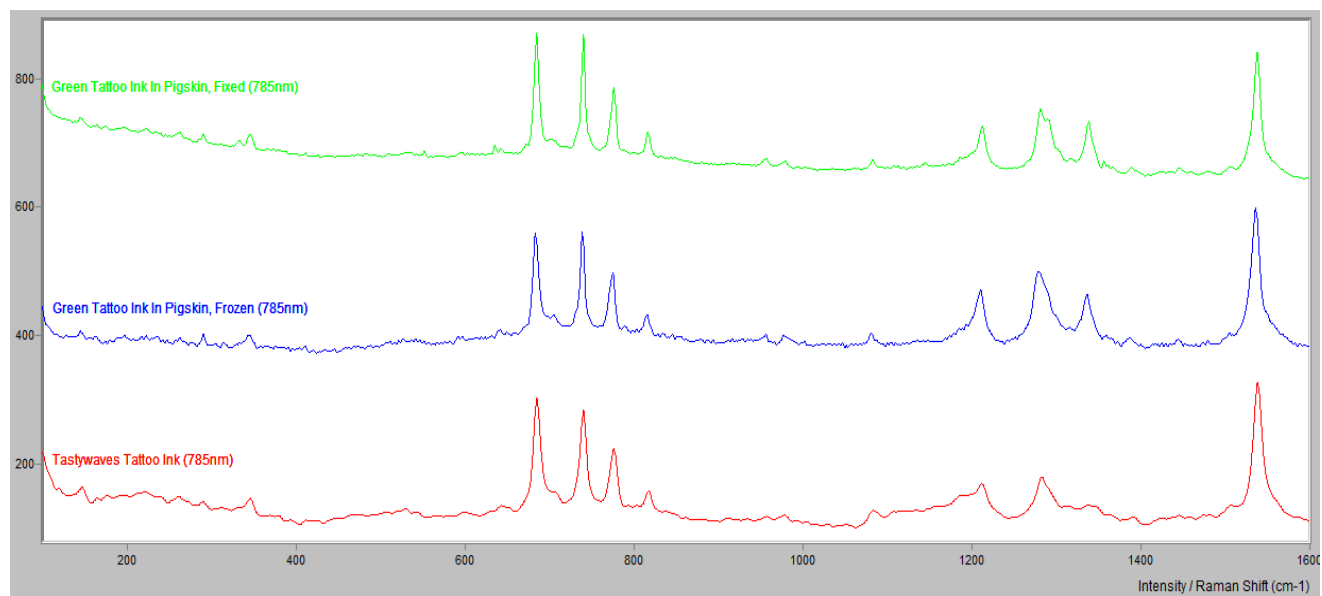


Figure 181. Comparison of green tattoo ink in pigskin (fixed and frozen) with Skin Candy Tastywaves tattoo ink.

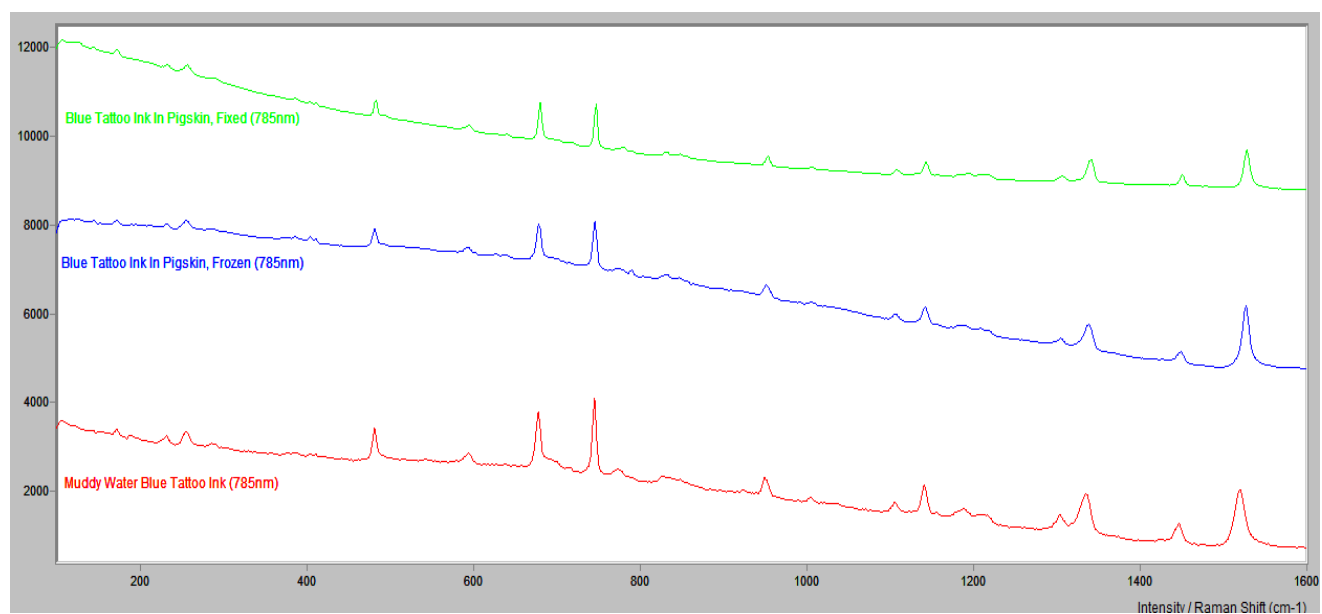


Figure 182. Comparison of blue tattoo ink in pigskin (fixed and frozen) with Skin Candy Muddy Water Blue tattoo ink.

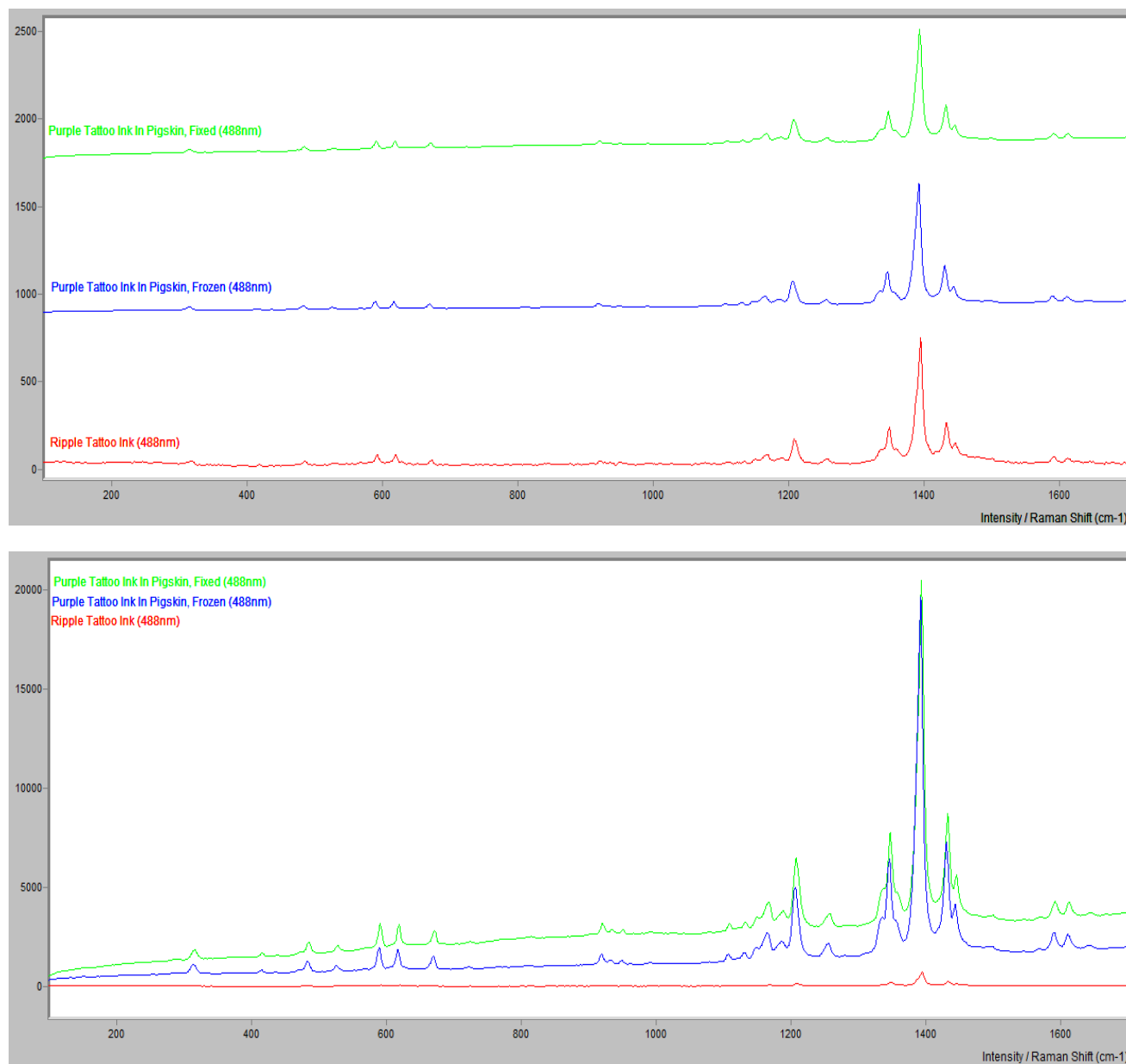


Figure 183 a and b. Comparison of purple tattoo ink in pigskin (fixed and frozen) with Skin Candy Ripple tattoo ink [stacked (top) and overlay (bottom) formats].

The first attempt, which was to directly analyze the tattooed regions, was successful, and no additional methodology needed to be used (*i.e.* thin sectioning, the addition of silver colloid or the use of the hydroxyl gel to extract the tattoo ink from the pigskin). For direct analysis, the sectioned tattooed pigskin was placed in a glass Petri dish and subsequently placed on the

sample stage of the Raman microscope. The sample was viewed under the microscope and focused on prior to Raman analysis. It is reasonable to conclude that direct analysis of unhealed, tattooed skin would easily disclose the presence of tattoo ink pigments due to both the absence of interfering layers of skin that would result from healing and due to the lack of migration of the pigments into deeper layers of skin also due to the healing process.

Although alternate methods were not employed, their use may become paramount in instances when the superficial, surface layers of tissue have healed and the pigment is embedded and stored in the deeper dermal layers. Direct analysis should be attempted first, with special attention paid to the excitation wavelength and its relative depth of penetration, as the source may be able to reach and therefore detect the pigments without intervention or destructive methodology. As described earlier, the longer wavelengths (such as 785nm for dispersive Raman and 1064nm for FT-Raman) penetrate deeper into the tissue and thus may be more useful in detecting the pigment particles that make up the tattoo (Refer to Figure 4).

Preliminary Investigation into the Analysis of Tattoo Inks in Healed, Human Tissue

Literature concerning the vibrational spectroscopic analysis of human tissue has been reported, with regard to biological implications with focus on dermatology and oncology (deFaria and Souza, 1999, Caspers, *et.al.*, 2003, Gniadecka, *et.al.*, 1998, and Huang, *et.al.*, 2003) and anthropological and archaeological implications with focus on mummified remains (Edwards, *et.al.*, 2002, Petersen, *et.al.*, 2003). These studies demonstrate the ability of Raman spectroscopic methods to generate spectra of human skin, both normal ('fresh') and mummified, as well as human tissues from biopsies.

deFaria and Souza evaluated human skin and nail using an excitation wavelength of 632.8nm and compare their resultant data to that reported in the literature (in which an excitation

wavelength of 1064nm was employed). The results of deFaria and Souza, which demonstrate good agreement between reported and experimental data, are presented in the table below:

Human skin		Human nail		Assignment
This work ($\tilde{\nu}/\text{cm}^{-1}$)	Literature ($\tilde{\nu}/\text{cm}^{-1}$)	This work ($\tilde{\nu}/\text{cm}^{-1}$)	Literature ($\tilde{\nu}/\text{cm}^{-1}$)	
1650 s	1652 s	1649 s	1654	Amide I $\nu(\text{C}=\text{O})$
1460 sh	—	1457 sh	—	Amide II
1444 s	1438 s	1443 s	1449	Amide II
1409 m	—	1416 sh	—	
1340 s	1336 m	1338 sh	1341	
1293 w	1296 ms	1290	—	$\rho(\text{CH}_2)$
1170 w	1172 w	1168 w	—	$\nu(\text{CC})$
1152 w	1155 w	1150 w	—	$\nu(\text{CC}); \delta(\text{COH})$
1125 w	1126 mw	1123 w	1127	$\nu(\text{CC})$ lipid esq.
1085 w	1082 mw	1074 w	1087	$\nu(\text{CC})$ lipid esq.
1058 w	1062 mw	1057 w	—	$\nu(\text{CC})$ lipid esq.
1028 w	1032 mw	1026 w	—	$\nu(\text{CC})$ queratin
1000 s	1002 m	1000 m	1003	$\nu(\text{CC})$ aromatic ring breathing
848 m	850 w	849 w	858	$\delta(\text{CCH})$ olefinic
640 w	644	638 w	643	$\nu(\text{C-S})$ and amide IV
619 w	623 w	616 w	622	$\nu(\text{C-S})$
540 w,sh	—	542 w	—	
528 w	526 mw,br	528 w	520	$\nu(\text{S-S})$

^a Intensities: s, strong; m, medium; w, weak; sh, shoulder; br, broad.

Table 18. Wavenumbers and band assignments for Raman spectra of human skin and nail excited at 632.8nm compared to the literature ($\lambda_0=1064\text{nm}$) (deFaria and Souza, 1999, pp. 170).

Gniadecka, *et.al.* employed FT-Raman spectroscopy to investigate the molecular conformation of proteins, lipids and water in human stratum corneum, whole skin, nail and hair (2001, pp. 394). The authors provide Raman spectral data of intact skin along with the band assignments and they add that skin spectra were highly reproducible, with only minor differences occurring in spectra with pigmented skin samples. These differences were increased background fluorescence as a result of increased pigmentation (*ibid.*).

With regard to mummified remains, research has been conducted on remains preserved by desiccation in various environments, including artificial mummification processes employed by ancient cultures. Overall, mummified skin exhibited bands characteristic of proteins and

lipids, and the remains tended to exhibit weaker hydroxyl (-OH) and amide (NH) bands due to the decrease in water content which results from the desiccation process (Petersen, *et.al.*, 2003, pp. 376). In the article by Edwards, *et.al.*, the authors provide a series of important observations that resulted from their comparisons of mummified and normal human skin, including the differences in Raman bands with regard to presence and absence, intensity variations, fluorescence and general features characteristic of the type of skin analyzed (2002, pp. 8-11). Generally, bands from tissue proteins (including collagen, phospholipids, *etc.*) are found in the regions of 1640-1680 cm^{-1} (amide I), 1220-1300 cm^{-1} (amide III) and in the regions associated with C-C vibrations, aromatic ring vibrations and assorted C-H vibrational modes. Differences may exist in band intensity, width and overall shape depending on the quality and moisture content of the tissue sample.

Huang *et.al.* addressed the effect of formalin fixation on Raman studies of human tissues. According to the authors, major Raman bands associated with formalin can be found in the ranges 980-1100 cm^{-1} and 1480-1650 cm^{-1} , with notable formalin peaks at 907 cm^{-1} , 1041 cm^{-1} and 1492 cm^{-1} (2003, pp. 651). Their results showed that formalin fixation caused minimal influence on the tissue Raman spectra (*ibid.*), but the authors note that the effect of formalin on overall Raman spectra may be tissue-specific (*i.e.* animal *vs.* human, epithelial *vs.* tumor, *etc.*). Notably, an increase in formalin fixation time will decrease the overall Raman intensity of the skin and related proteins due to the formalin dehydrating the tissue (Huang, 2003, pp. 654) and changing the molecular structure of the tissue proteins. It should be noted that this is a positive aspect of formalin fixation with regard to this research, as the prolonged exposure of formalin to the tattooed tissue will reduce, if not eliminate, potential band interferences from the tissue substrate (as well as reducing potential fluorescence that could result from the analysis of tissue).

This is clearly demonstrated in the pigskin study, as little to no evidence of the tissue substrate is present. Furthermore, there appears to be little effect of the formalin on the resultant Raman spectra, with little to no evidence of the characteristic formalin Raman bands present in the fixed pigskin samples. Even with the tissue substrate and the formalin fixative, it was still possible to identify the pigments present in the pigskin by comparing the determined spectra to the previously obtained spectra of the tattoo ink and pigment standards.

When analyzing tattooed human tissue (whether normal, mummified, charred or decomposed) using vibrational spectroscopic methods, it is essential that the analyst be aware of the potential bands that could result from the tissue substrate in order to ensure proper interpretation of the resultant data and correct assignment of bands to the pigments present. In addition, the analyst should be aware of any bands that may arise from the fixation method, such as formalin.

Preliminary research into the analysis of tattoo inks in human tissue has demonstrated the ability to locate and isolate the pigment layer within a cross section of excised, fixed tissue, and subsequently detect the pigments via Raman spectroscopic methods (Miranda, unpublished study).

Results- Density Functional Theory (DFT) Calculations

The pigments analyzed using density functional theory calculations were Pigment Red 170 (listed as the main component of the Skin Candy Tattoo Ink Red Hot), Pigment Red 122 (listed as the main component of the Skin Candy Tattoo Ink Razberry Creem), and Pigment Orange 16 (listed as the main component of the Skin Candy Tattoo Ink Marz).

Due to the presence of ringed structures (benzene derivatives) within the pigment molecular structures and the conjugate π electron systems inherent in these structures, Raman bands can be expected in the aromatic C-H stretching region ($3100\text{-}3000\text{cm}^{-1}$). In some instances, these bands are readily apparent in both the pigment standards and the tattoo inks. In addition, bands (doublet) located in the range of $1630\text{-}1550\text{cm}^{-1}$ may also be present due to the ring stretching of the benzene derivatives. The presence and features of the doublet will vary based upon the atoms or functional groups located on the ring. Most of the pigments have their distinct bands located in the region of 1000 and 1700 cm^{-1} . In this region, a large number of vibrational modes can be found, including C=C, N=N, C-N, C=O and amide bands. At vibrations below 1000 cm^{-1} , additional vibrations associated with annulations can be found, along with C-C skeletal vibrations. For ring vibrations and deformations, the Wilson notation is listed².

Characteristic vibration information is reported for some of the pigment standards, followed by a more detailed interpretation of the pigments subjected to DFT calculations.

²The following website (<http://boverhaus.dyndns.org/~wroth/gauss/varsanyi/molekuele/Bz/index.html>) shows the normal modes of benzene according to the Wilson notation (originally reported in 1934) and as depicted by Varsanyi (1974). The site provides animations of each of the modes in order to demonstrate displacement of the atoms. A detailed analysis of the vibrational spectrum of the benzene molecule can be found in Wilson, *et.al.*, 1955 (see References).

With regard to the phthalocyanines (PG 7, PB15, *et.al.*), the breathing and deformation of the TBP nucleus is exhibited in the band located at $\sim 680\text{ cm}^{-1}$ with additional bands appearing in the region from $\sim 750\text{-}800\text{ cm}^{-1}$. A band at $\sim 230\text{-}235\text{ cm}^{-1}$ can be attributed to the N-Cu bonding. A band at $\sim 1070\text{-}1085\text{ cm}^{-1}$ is indicative of the aromatic chlorine, which can be used to distinguish the blues from the greens.

In general, the monoazo and disazo pigments exhibited an intense band ranging from $\sim 1320\text{-}1401\text{ cm}^{-1}$, which is characteristic of the N=N stretching vibration. Bands in the region of $\sim 1100\text{-}1200$ represents the C-N symmetric stretching and bending motions, between ~ 1650 and 1550 cm^{-1} represents the ring vibrations (C=C stretch), the amide I band ($\sim 1600\text{-}1700\text{ cm}^{-1}$), which is characterized as the C=O stretching, and the amide III band ($\sim 1300\text{-}1250\text{ cm}^{-1}$). The amide II band falls between the two regions, demonstrating the N-H bending and C-N stretching. It should again be noted that band position shifting and band intensity changes can occur and will depend on several factors, including neighboring groups, conjugation, intermolecular bonding and the tautomerism effect described earlier. The monoazo pigments exhibit a band at around $1490\text{-}1510\text{ cm}^{-1}$, which can be attributed to the azobenzene ring vibration.

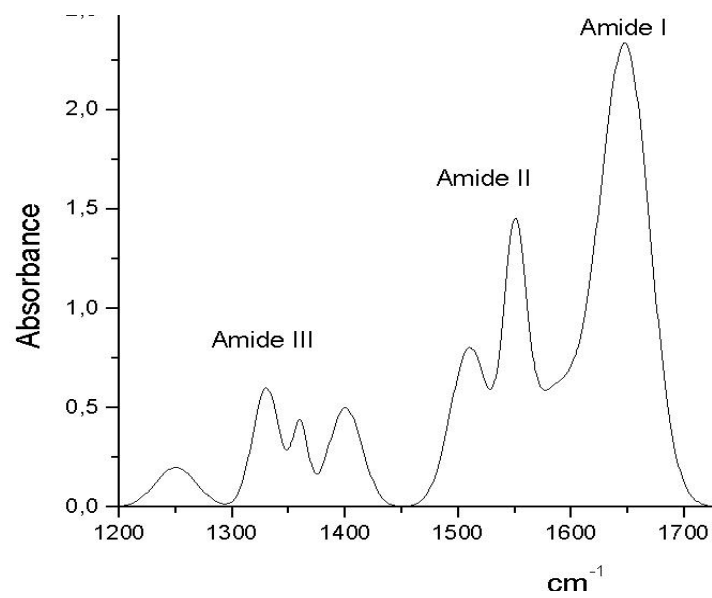


Figure 184. Characteristic amide bands and their locations in infrared spectra.

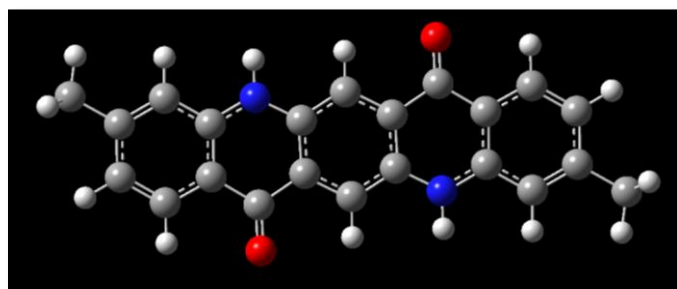
Pigment Red 122

Figure 185. Molecular structure of PR 122.

Pigment Red 122 consists of 42 atoms and hence has 120 fundamental vibrations. Pigment Red 122 exhibits a center of symmetry, which indicates that the mutual exclusion rule will exist between the infrared and Raman spectra. According to the mutual exclusion rule, no spectral lines will appear in common to both due to the fact that any vibration in a molecule containing a center of symmetry can be either Raman or infrared active, but not both (Smith and Dent, 2005, pp. 86). This was exhibited in the vibrational output from the DFT calculations; a frequency with a vibrational mode in Raman did not exhibit a corresponding mode in the infrared and vice versa (see figure). Correlation was found between the calculated spectrum (after a .97 scaling factor was added; Chang, *et.al.*, 2009 note that a scaling factor is commonly needed in DFT calculations of Raman spectra in order to correct for correlation effects incompletely accounted for in DFT), especially with regard to the most intense lines. The normal Raman spectra of Pigment Red 122 exhibited fluorescence, which may have masked the less intense peaks. Quinacridones, of which PR 122 is a member, are characterized by a coupled ring breathing appearing $\sim 1300\text{ cm}^{-1}$, aromatic C=C vibrations at $\sim 1580\text{ cm}^{-1}$, and C=O stretching vibrations at $\sim 1650\text{ cm}^{-1}$.

Mode # ▲	Freq	Infrared	Raman Activity
90	1488.90	0.0003	15.9644
91	1495.93	670.6039	0.0000
92	1498.72	53.4175	0.0001
93	1512.63	0.0001	124.3039
94	1527.94	51.4527	0.0000
95	1546.19	0.0001	114.6944
96	1581.15	589.6291	0.0001
97	1606.13	0.0000	40.6357
98	1613.17	0.0005	1340.9171
99	1617.03	66.2592	0.0066
100	1656.29	0.0194	233.0365
101	1660.43	760.3750	0.0050
102	1669.97	0.0010	49.6816
103	1701.36	549.1914	0.0007
104	1713.72	0.0006	722.5872
105	3026.54	63.8365	0.0106
106	3026.59	0.0007	987.2878
107	3076.23	7.1241	243.1736

Table 19. Excerpt of DFT calculation output. Note highlighted areas demonstrating the mutual exclusion rule.

Description	DFT (raw data)	DFT (.97 scaling factor)	Normal Raman ($\lambda_0=488\text{nm}$)	SERS ($\lambda_0=488\text{nm}$)
(Central) Ring stretch (Wilson 6a)	723.58 (w)	701.87	677.53	
			1202.8 (m)	1203.1 (m)
C-H rocking	1264.66 (w)	1226.72	1234.8 (m)	1233.8 (m)
C-H rocking	1313.65 (m)	1274.24		
(Central) Ring breathing (Wilson 1)	1331.97 (s)	1292.01	1310.7 (s)	1315.3 (s)
C=C stretch (Wilson 14)	1386.28 (m)	1344.69		
C-H wagging (methyl groups)	1414.44 (m)	1372.01		1382.1 (m)
			1407.8 (m)	1408.3 (m)
				1516.3 (m)
C-H rocking (methyl groups)	1512.63 (w)	1467.25		
C-H wagging	1546.19 (w)	1499.80		
C=C stretch (Wilson 8a)	1613.17 (vs)	1564.77	1566.8 (vs)	1565.5 (vs)
C=C stretch (Wilson 14), C=O stretch	1656.29 (m)	1606.60	1595.8 (m)	1596.3 (m)
C=O stretch, C=C stretch	1713.72 (s)	1662.31	1644.3 (m)	1644.3 (m)
C-H stretch (methyl groups)	3026.59 (s)	2935.79		
C-H rocking (methyl groups)	3076.23	2983.94		
C-H stretch (methyl group)	3107.67 (w)	3114.44		
C-H stretch	3168.65 (m)	3073.59		
C-H stretch (Central Ring)	3179.44 (w)	3084.06		
C-H stretch	3198.31(m)	3102.36		
N-H stretch	3625.63 (m)	3516.86		

Table 20. Wavenumbers (cm^{-1}) of DFT, normal Raman and SERS spectra of Pigment Red 122 (quinacridone); all of the reported vibrational modes were in the plane of the molecule.

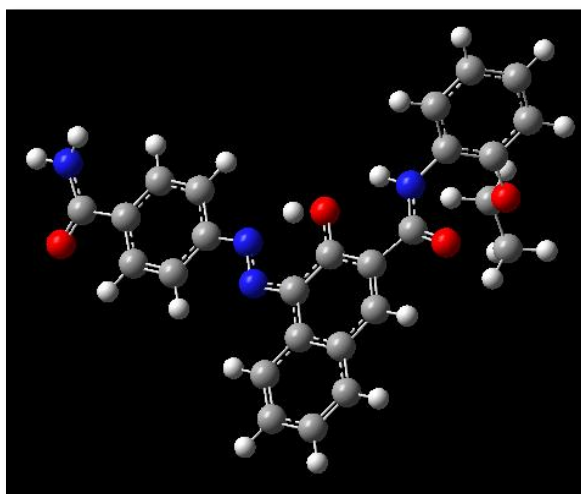
Pigment Red 170

Figure 186. Molecular structure of PR 170.

Pigment Red 170 consists of 56 atoms and hence has 162 fundamental vibrations.

Pigment Red 170 does not exhibit a large degree of symmetry. An extensive optimization phase was conducted prior to the DFT calculation, with the resultant molecule exhibiting planes almost perpendicular to one another (see figure).

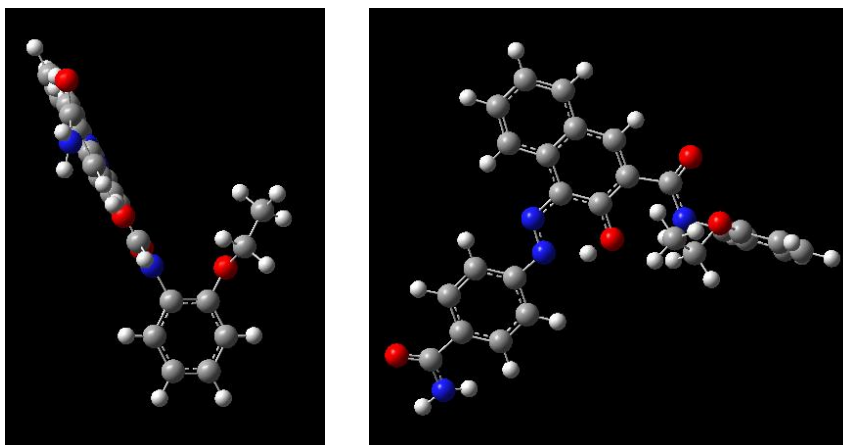


Figure 187 a and b. After rotating the Pigment Red 170 molecule around in space, it is apparent that the molecule is not completely linear.

Description	DFT (raw data)	DFT (.97 scaling factor)	Normal Raman ($\lambda_0=633\text{nm}$)	SERS ($\lambda_0=488\text{nm}$)
C=C Ring stretch (Wilson 6a)	728.37, 754.06	706.51, 731.44	732.81 (s)	730.05 (w)
Ring breathing (Wilson 1)	990.16	960.46	964.06 (s)	963.76 (m)
C-H wagging (Wilson 14, 15) Ring breathing (Wilson 1)	1172.60 (m)	1137.42	1138.3(w)	1128.4(w)
C-H wagging (Wilson 14, 15)	1187.92 (s)	1152.28		
Ring breathing (Wilson 1) C-H wagging (Wilson 14, 15)	1232.50 (s)	1195.53		
C ₆ H ₅ -C vibration, Ring breathing, C=N stretch, C=O stretch	1242.81 (s)	1205.53	1243.5(m) amide III	1242.3(m) amide III
C=C (ring) stretch (Wilson 8b), C-H wagging (Wilson 3)	1312.22 (s)	1272.85	1243.5 (s)	1242.3 (m)
C=C (ring) stretch (Wilson 8b), C-H wagging (Wilson 3)	1323.46 (m)	1283.76		
C=C stretch, C=N stretch, C-H wagging (Wilson 3)	1325.65 (m)	1285.88	1286.8 (s)	1286.3 (s)
C=C stretch (Wilson 12), C-H wagging (Wilson 14)	1353.68 (m)	1314.07		
C=C stretch (Wilson 8b), C-H wagging (Wilson 14)	1370.87 (s)	1329.74		
C=C (ring) stretch (Wilson 8b), C-H wagging (Wilson 14)	1427.78 (vs)	1384.95	1362.1 (vs)	1361.8 (vs)
N=N stretch , C=O stretch	1489.59 (vs)	1444.90	1420.3 (m)	1417.8 (m)
			1511.7(s)	1510.5 (m)
C=C stretch (Wilson 8b)	1642.97 (s)	1593.68	1551.1 (m)	1550.3 (m)
C=C stretch (Wilson 8b)	1652.07 (m)	1602.51	1604.9 (s)	1602.9 (s)
C=C stretch	1661.63 (w)	1611.78		
Aromatic C-H stretch	3192.05 (w)	3096.29		
Aromatic C-H stretch	3194.76 (w)	3098.92		

Table 21. Wavenumbers (cm⁻¹) of DFT, normal Raman and SERS spectra of Pigment Red 170 monoazo.

Using the spectrum of Pigment Red 170 acquired with an excitation wavelength of 633nm, the following assignments are made: 964cm^{-1} : benzylamide/naphthalene, 1114.2cm^{-1} : C-N symmetric stretch, 1164.6cm^{-1} : C-N symmetric bend, 1243.5cm^{-1} : amide III band, 1420.3cm^{-1} : N=N stretch and 1604.9cm^{-1} : benzene stretch. The band located in the 1360 range is due to the naphthalene.

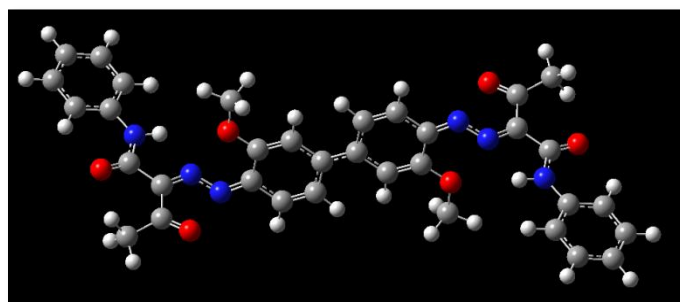
Pigment Orange 16

Figure 188. Molecular structure of PO 16.

Pigment Orange 16 consists of 76 atoms and hence has 222 fundamental vibrations. Pigment Orange 16 exhibits a center of inversion, which indicates that the mutual exclusion rule will exist between the infrared and Raman spectra. This was exhibited in the vibrational output from the DFT calculations; a frequency with a vibrational mode in Raman did not exhibit a corresponding mode in the infrared and vice versa. The resultant molecule exhibited planes almost perpendicular to one another (see figure).

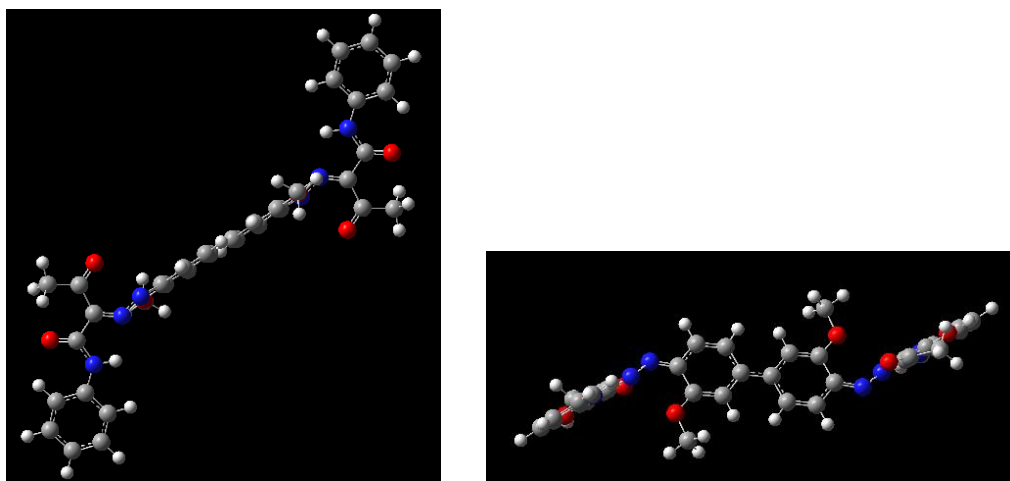


Figure 189 a and b. After rotating the Pigment Orange 16 molecule around in space, it is apparent that the molecule is not completely linear.

Description	DFT (raw data)	DFT (.97 scaling factor)	Normal Raman ($\lambda_0=785\text{nm}$)	SERS ($\lambda_0=488\text{nm}$)
Out-of-Plane C-C rocking	334.21 (m)	324.18		
Out-of-Plane C-C rocking	385.10 (m)	373.55	371.07 (m)	
Out-of-Plane C-C rocking	434.99 (m)	421.94		
Out-of-Plane C-C rocking	641.79 (m)	622.54	623.92 (w)	
C=C stretching (Wilson 6a)	670.86 (m)	650.73	669.65 (m)	643.86 (m)
Out-of-Plane rocking (C=C, C-H)	730.52 (m)	708.60		
Ring breathing (Wilson 1)	796.12 (m)	772.24		
C=C stretching, C=C rocking (Wilson 6a)	937.30 (m)	909.18	912.99 (w)	
C=N stretch, C=N and C-H rocking	1079.58 (m)	1047.19	1064.6 (w)	
C-H wagging	1181.81 (m)	1146.36		
C-H wagging	1183.30 (m-s)	1147.80	1123.4 (s)	1128.5 (w)
C=O and C-H rocking and wagging	1201.09 (m)	1165.06	1175.8 (m)	1175 (w)
C=C and C=O stretch, C-H rocking	1244.01 (s)	1206.69		
C=C (ring) stretching, C-H wagging	1256.20 (s)	1218.51		
C-H rocking	1273.37 (s)	1235.17	1259.6 (m)	1261.6 (m)
C=C stretching (outermost rings)(Wilson 14)	1339.07 (m)	1298.90		
C=C stretching (2 central rings)	1360.03 (s)	1319.23	1305.7 (m)	
C=C (ring) stretching (between 2 central rings),	1382.46 (vs)	1340.99	1323.5 (vs)	1325.4 (s)
C-H ₃ deformation, C-H wagging, C=C stretch	1468.43 (m)	1424.38	1397.3 (s)	1395.1 (s)
C-H ₃ deformation, C-H wagging, C=C stretch	1473.14 (m-s)	1428.95		
C-H ₃ deformation, C-H wagging, C=C stretch	1480.15 (s)	1435.75		
C-H ₃ deformation, C-H wagging, C=C stretch	1498.88 (vs)	1453.91		
C-H ₃ deformation, C-	1506.10 (m-s)	1460.92	1471.8 (m)	

H wagging				
C=N stretch, C=C stretch, N-H wagging	1553.85 (vs)	1507.23		1502.7 (m)
C=N stretch, N-H wagging C=C (ring) stretch	1566.62 (m)	1519.62		
C=N stretch, C=C stretch	1595.23 (vs)	1547.37	1533.1 (m)	
C=C stretch (Wilson 8b)	1633.38 (m)	1584.38		
C=C stretch (Wilson 8b)	1639.30 (m)	1590.12		
C=C stretch (Wilson 8b)	1646.11 (m)	1596.73	1601.8 (vs)	1601.4 (vs)
C=O stretch, (C=N-H wagging)	1734.68 (m)	1682.64	1660.8 (m)	
C=O stretch	1755.25 (m)	1702.59		
N-H stretch	3561.08 (m)	3454.25		

Table 22. Wavenumbers (cm^{-1}) of DFT, normal Raman and SERS spectra of Pigment Orange 16 (disazo).

It was possible to determine the pigments (both organic and inorganic) present in the tattoo inks examined in this study. In some instances, there was a lack of agreement between the pigments listed on the ink packaging and the experimental data. Several of the same pigments were found in the different brands of tattoo inks, making it difficult to determine tattoo origin based solely on pigment composition. For example, Pigment Blue 15, Pigment Green 7 and Pigment Violet 23 β were found in the blue, green and purple inks (respectively) from the United States, Brazil and China inks sets. Therefore, detecting a pigment in tissue or on evidence is not likely to be able to point towards a specific manufacturing source.

In addition to being able to determine pigment compositions based upon comparison to pigment standards, reported spectra in the literature and computer databases, it was also possible to make determinations about functional groups (*i.e.* N=N, annulated systems, *etc.*) in an effort to classify pigments (*i.e.* azo, phthalocyanine, *etc.*). By making these determinations, one is able to interpret vibrational modes in the molecule, determine allowed and forbidden transitions, and elucidate the functional group chemistry of the molecular species. Furthermore, by analyzing the pigments with Raman spectroscopy and infrared spectroscopy, it is also possible to determine molecular symmetry of the molecule (such as the determination that the molecule has a center of inversion due to mutual exclusion).

The need to consider different excitation wavelengths in determination of unknowns using Raman spectroscopy cannot be understated. This is largely due to some variation in resultant spectra with a change in excitation wavelength, for example, as seen with the phthalocyanines. Caution must be taken in interpreting and reporting spectra when only one excitation wavelength is employed. Furthermore, the use of additional chemical and instrumental techniques such as pigment extractions, the use of concentrated sulfuric acid coupled with

UV/Vis spectrophotometry, infrared spectroscopy and x-ray fluorescence are especially helpful to the determination of a unknown as well as assignments of molecular and atomic features, both organic and inorganic.

DFT calculations and comparisons to the experimental Raman spectra enabled normal mode assignments for the pigments evaluated. Good correspondence was found with regard to band assignments of the major functional groups when a 0.97 scaling factor was applied to the calculated wavenumbers. According to Rana *et.al.*, a drift of the deviation with increasing wavenumber is to be expected in DFT calculations because of the high errors in correlation corrections (2011, pp. 202). The authors add that DFT calculations typically predict many more bands than are usually observed in the spectra. Differences in the intensities as well as the frequencies of the bands can be caused by the assumptions made in the calculations (*ibid.*).

Preliminary examination of tattoo inks in pigskin demonstrated the ability to detect the pigments easily, with little sample preparation. In addition, expected interferences from fixation methods, tissue substrate and fluorescence were minimal. The results show great promise for analyzing tattoo inks in tissue using minimally invasive techniques and little sample manipulation.

Chapter 5: Conclusions

A detailed evaluation was conducted on a variety of tattoo inks, and it was demonstrated that it is entirely possible to determine the chemical composition of tattoo inks. This study was able to determine the pigment compositions of a variety of tattoo inks, which varied in terms of color and origin of manufacture. Databases of tattoo inks were created with regard to microscopic characteristics, normal Raman data at different wavelengths of excitation, FT-Raman data, surface enhanced Raman scattering, FT-infrared data via attenuated total reflection and x-ray fluorescence. Similar pigments were found in tattoo inks from different manufacturers, which did not allow for individualization of tattoo inks based upon country of origin (with the limitation being the samples set examined). A revised hypothesis might include a more detailed evaluation of the microscopic and optical properties of the pigment particles and qualitative analysis of pigments within each tattoo ink in addition to an evaluation of the liquid portion of the inks.

Microscopy was an extremely useful tool for evaluating the physical properties of the tattoo inks. By examining the tattoo inks using bright field and dark field microscopic techniques, information concerning the uniformity and pigment distribution within the inks was able to be ascertained. It is highly recommended that any examination concerning tattoo inks and pigments (even paints and inks in general) begin with a thorough microscopic examination, beginning with stereomicroscopy, followed by bright field and dark field microscopy methods and polarized light microscopy of the pigment particles. Further analysis using scanning transmission electron microscopy (TEM) may also be useful in disclosing characteristics of the particles. Examination of the pigment particles can disclose additional information including

particle size, crystal morphology (forms) and class, and optical data such as (relative) refractive indices, birefringence, extinction characteristics, *etc.*

While it did not necessary improve the resultant spectral data, extractions of the tattoo inks were useful in resolving and isolating the individual pigments and separating the organic pigments from the inorganic, mineral pigments (such as titanium dioxide). Extractions allow for a more thorough qualitative assessment of the pigment composition of the inks and may be useful for determining qualitative aspects of pigment composition by evaluating relative ratios.

In analyzing samples in a laboratory, it is essential to employ instrumentation that will provide information concerning both the organic and inorganic fractions of the samples. Both Raman spectroscopy and infrared spectroscopy/attenuated total reflection provide a great deal of information concerning the chemical structure of the pigments that make up the inks, and either one of these techniques can be used to obtain detailed information about a sample. There is great benefit to using Raman spectroscopy due to the ability to use different excitation wavelengths to generate a useable spectrum. In addition, the use of SERS as an analytical tool in Raman spectroscopy is paramount; surface enhanced Raman scattering is a simple, yet powerful technique that enables the analyst to obtain data in instances where optical and physical characteristics of the sample would normally preclude the resolution of Raman bands. The microwave synthesis technique described by Leona demonstrates the ease with which a suitable colloid can be prepared and used for SERS work. In addition, x-ray fluorescence provided a simple, rapid method for obtaining data concerning the inorganic, elemental composition of the tattoo inks.

This research demonstrated the ease with which an instrument can be calibrated prior to analysis. Literature providing standards and corresponding spectral data in order to ensure that the instrument is performing properly is readily available. The use of internal checks in Raman spectrometers, such as Bruker's SureCal, demonstrates the robustness and accuracy of current instrumentation. It is imperative that any instrument be checked prior to analysis in order to ensure that the instrument is operating according to its specifications, and laboratories should maintain records demonstrating that their instruments are working properly in order to meet any quality assurance standards set forth by the laboratory or any accrediting agency.

Contributions to the fields of Forensic Science & Criminal Justice

This research contributed to the fields of forensic science and criminal justice in several ways. Namely, it has been able to (1) establish criteria for the examination, identification and comparison of tattoo inks and pigments in order to meet the admissibility standards set forth in court cases Frye and Daubert, and in the Federal Rules of Evidence; (2) establish standard operating procedures and quality control measures for the analysis of tattoo inks and pigments in forensic laboratories to ensure that the quality assurance needed to meet required accreditation standards is met, thereby working towards the general goal of strengthening forensic science and establishing good practices; (3) present novel databases and comprehensive reference data of tattoo inks to assist in criminal investigations where tattoo ink may be evidence in a crime or may aid in a death investigation or identification of a decedent, and (4) develop a method for detecting tattoo inks and pigments in tissue which can aid in criminal investigations of illegal activities.

Forensic science is routinely defined as the application of natural science to matters of law. Several court cases have proved pivotal to determining the admissibility of evidence in legal proceedings. A summary of some of the main cases are provided below. The standards set forth in state courts vary by jurisdiction, with some states using the Daubert standard and some states using the Frye standard (for example, New York is a Frye state). Additionally, in some states, Daubert and Frye may be used under a different case name in which a standard was applied to a specific case within the state (for example, *People v. Kelly* is California's equivalent to the Frye case dealing with general acceptance rule).

In *Frye v. United States*, 293 F. 1013 (D.C. Cir. 1923) [*Frye*], the Court determined that the standard for admissibility is whether the evidence has been generally accepted in the relevant

scientific community. *Frye* is described as being a stringent standard that makes it difficult to get novel scientific evidence into Courts due to the difficulty in meeting the general acceptance standard. Under *Frye*, the expert has the burden of demonstrating general acceptance. The problems with *Frye* are the difficulties in defining what constitutes general acceptance and who constitutes the relevant scientific community. Although case law has evolved and new standards for admissibility have been presented, the *Frye* standard is still applied in some jurisdictions.

In *Daubert v. Merrell Dow Pharmaceuticals, Inc.*, 509 U.S. 579 (1993) [*Daubert I*], the Court determined that the Judge should act as a gatekeeper to determine if the evidence is reliable and relevant. In order to be relevant, the testimony must fit the facts of the case. The Court in *Daubert I* set forth a non-exclusive, non-inclusive checklist for Courts to consider when determining reliability. The list includes whether the methods/techniques are testable (falsifiable), whether the techniques and methods have been subject to peer review and publication, whether the method/ technique has an established error rate and standards/controls, and if the method has gained general acceptance.

With regard to general acceptance, the Court referenced *Frye* but put forth that the relevant scientific community could be a small minority as opposed to the more global implication in *Frye*. In *Daubert v. Merrell Dow Pharmaceuticals, Inc.*, 43 F.3d 1311 (9th Cir. 1995) [*Daubert II*], the Court clarified and applied the conclusions in *Daubert I*. In addition, they considered another factor for the “checklist”, that of whether the research/methods discussed in the testimony are litigation driven or a product of the witness’s normal course of business.

In *General Electric Co. v. Joiner*, 522 U.S. 136 (1997) [*Joiner*], the question of admissibility was concerned with whether his exposure to toxic chemicals during his employment with General Electric had caused *Joiner*’s lung cancer. *Joiner*’s argument rested on

several scientific studies, including epidemiological studies which were presented by well-credentialed individuals. This case clearly demonstrates the intent of *Daubert*- that just because the expert is well-qualified does not mean that the evidence will automatically be admitted into the Court. The Judge determined that there existed too great an analytical gap between the evidence presented (including in vitro studies on mice that developed different types of cancer, European and Asian studies that involved different chemicals and different effects) and the facts of the case. He determined that the gap between the facts presented and the issues being questioned was too great when considering each study presented. Furthermore, the fact finders should not be clouded by the *ipse dixit* (say so) of the expert just because they are an expert. The facts and methods, while reliable, must fit the task at hand. If not, the evidence is inadmissible.

In *Kumho Tire Co. v. Carmichael*, 526 U.S. 137, 1999 [*Kumho*], the Court evaluated tire testimony to determine that *Daubert* is not limited to scientific evidence, but reaches not strictly scientific, but technical testimony as well.

Federal Rule of Evidence 702 states “If specific knowledge is necessary to assist the fact finder in determining the issue at hand then an expert deemed so by education, training, knowledge and experience is may to render an opinion or information, so long as the testimony is supported by reliable facts and data, the methods are applied reliably and the testimony addresses the issue at hand” (Federal Rules of Evidence Rule 702, 1975-revised 2000) [FRE 702]. In a note on the revised FRE 702 the advisory committee adds that the FRE 702 is subject to the opinions and conclusions from *Daubert* (I and II), *Joiner* and *Kumho*. In addition, other factors are outlined in the FRE Note. One of the factors states that there are no set guidelines (limitations) to the role of the gatekeeper and his admissibility evaluations, and another factor

states that testimony not based upon the scientific method (such as opinion evidence or testimony based on experience) is not necessarily inadmissible.

One purpose of this research is to demonstrate the scientific validity of tattoo ink analysis with vibrational spectroscopic methods in order to assert its evidential reliability. By demonstrating reliable, objective scientific principles and methodology, it can be established that the analysis of tattoo inks by the methods and techniques employed in this research is a valid technique that can withstand admissibility concerns. Furthermore, establishing sound scientific procedure and methodology with regard to analysis of tattoo inks can be used to assert confidence in the resultant data and its subsequent interpretation.

According to Moenssens' 1993 article, problems with forensic science include expert witnesses that are actually technicians who do not understand the theory behind the work that they perform in a laboratory and quality assurance is often lacking (pp. 3). In addition, technological advances, novel scientific evidence and methods of analyses are not accurately depicted in court and are not necessarily subject to admissibility hearings. In addition to criticisms concerning the lack of fundamental theoretical scientific knowledge of forensic practitioners and the unbalanced and sometimes lacking quality assurance in laboratory systems, critics of current practices in the forensic field tend to target the subjective nature of some interpretations and conclusions. This criticism rests in the thought that subjective analyses are affected by inherent biases.

Another purpose of this research project is to address some of the criticisms of the forensic science discipline presented by Moenssens (and still considered criticisms almost ten years later!). Namely, this research is conducted in an effort to provide a scientific, theoretical

background for the instrumental techniques applied in a forensic lab (namely Raman spectroscopy and SERS) and specific analysis of tattoo inks and pigments. This is done in an effort to foster a thorough understanding of the analysis of the tattoo inks that would enable an analyst to be able to successfully present evidence in legal proceedings, including admissibility hearings. One statement by Moenssens regarding admissibility of validating of underlying data and theory is especially poignant, “The gloss begins to fade as the technology transfer from research laboratories to crime laboratories began, and expert witnesses (true research scientists) became somewhat less credentialed, and also began to change (sometimes shortcutting) operational procedures...” (1993, pp. 9). This issue is especially important, as research conducted and protocols described in an academic forum should be completely embraced and considered in a forensic laboratory in order to ensure proper training and establishment of analytical procedures.

Moenssens also touches on the negative effects of computer assisted determinations with database programs, including the analyst’s lack of understanding the database programs and how the program arrived at a result. He states, “In order to run an analysis, you do not need to be an expert anymore- you only need to be taught to run a sophisticated type of instrumentation that is hooked up to a computer, and then read off the result.” (1993, pp. 9). Furthermore, the analyst will often read the result that the computer program generates and report that result without questioning the reliability of the output or validating the resultant determination. His research demonstrates the need to examine the resultant data and interpret the spectral data by conducting band assignments and by analyzing standards under similar instrumental conditions to aid in identifications and comparisons. Furthermore, while the use of DFT calculations provided information concerning vibrational modes and band assignments, it is meant to supplement

actual experimental data. The use of databases is paramount in forensic and analytical laboratories, but it should be noted that all spectral data should be evaluated by the analyst so ensure the identifications and comparisons are scientifically sound. An effort to understand the functions of instrumental databases should also be conducted by laboratory personnel in order to understand the limitations of the computer identification programs.

The National Academy of Sciences Report released a report based upon an extensive study conducted by the Committee on Identifying the Needs of the Forensic Science Community in 2009. In general, the NAS report recommends improving methods, practices and overall performance within the forensic sciences. The recommendations include the need for research and scientific advancement, improved education, well-established standards for accreditation, improved interface between the forensic science and medical examiner communities and well-established scientific bases for validation of forensic methods.

The report notes that by advancing the recommendations, law enforcement investigations can be performed more reliably, wrongful convictions can be minimized and advances can be made with regard to homeland security. This research is conducted in an effort to establish the scientific basis and validity of the analysis of modern tattoo inks in order to work towards meeting these goals. The analysis of tattoo inks, as presented in this research, demonstrates an analytical scheme that is strongly rooted in science and supported by objective data analysis that has been strengthened by accepted, fundamental calibration and validation methods (an additional recommendation presented in the NAS report). This research also addresses a concern in the NAS report, namely, "...some forensic science disciplines are supported by little rigorous systematic research to validate the discipline's basic premises and techniques" (2009,

pp. S-16). Since there is limited research concerning the analysis of tattoo inks, this research serves to work towards ameliorating this criticism.

Another NAS Report recommendation addressed in this research is that of collaboration between the forensic science and medical examiner communities. The forensic lab, which would commonly conduct instrumental analysis on inks, pigments, dyes, *etc.* would be directly working with medical examiners in instances where human tissue containing tattoo inks would require analysis in an effort to identify human remains. The analysis of tattoo inks in human tissue directly addresses the development and advancement of technical methods, the interfacing of forensic science and medical examiner communities and basic sciences and the creation of “fertile ground for the discourse among the communities” 2009, (pp. S-16). The analysis of tattoo inks and pigments recovered from human remains will certainly facilitate the investigatory process conducted by law enforcement officials and medicolegal death investigators. Finally, the research presented here could be an asset in issues of homeland security in providing intelligence and identification in instances of mass disasters that result from terrorist acts.

Future Studies

The advancement of analytical techniques and instrumentation coupled with the paradigm shift to a more objective, analytical approach to forensic science provides fertile ground for research that can contribute to forensic science and criminal justice, art conservation and cultural heritage, as well as anthropology and art history. During the course of this research, it became apparent that there are many additional studies that could be done with tattoo inks or related materials. A summary of future projects is presented; the list is not intended to be exhaustive, as the evolution of tattoo inks and the needs of the forensic science community will surely guide the course of future research.

General instrumental techniques would be extremely useful for further classifying each ink, namely x-ray diffraction (XRD) on the tattoo inks in an effort to elucidate specific structural information. XRD data would be an added tool, especially in instances where computational chemistry, or DFT calculations are to be made. Molecular electronic fluorescence spectroscopy would prove useful in the analysis of the tattoo inks and pigments in solution. A vast undertaking to understand the solubility of the inks and pigments with a variety of solvents using wet chemistry coupled with UV/Vis spectrophotometry and fluorescence spectrometry may provide increased discriminating power between tattoo inks and pigments. Additional microchemistry and solution chemistry (including color and microcrystalline tests) could be conducted to enhance any analytical schemes developed for identification and comparison of tattoo inks and pigments. Density functional theory calculations should be conducted for all of the pigments represented in this study, with detailed vibrational modes being assigned to the calculated and experimental Raman and infrared bands. Additional SERS spectra should be obtained, with the

use of alternate excitation wavelengths and aggregants used in an effort to evaluate optimum sample preparation methods of the tattoo inks.

Quantitative analysis of the tattoo inks in an effort to determine relative pigment abundances is another approach that could be undertaken in the characterization and discrimination of tattoo inks. By determining concentrations of specific pigments, including titanium dioxide, and demonstrating batch consistency, it may be possible to statistically assign an unknown tattoo ink to a particular manufacturer (or country of origin) based upon the relative ratios of pigments.

Aside from the need to continue building up databases and libraries by analyzing more tattoo inks and powder pigments, there are other substances similar to tattoo inks (in usage and application) that should be studied and characterized, both on and off of the skin. These include: henna, non-permanent, 'fake' tattoos, and ink based stamp pads. Furthermore, a more detailed analysis of both the inorganic portions of the tattoo inks along with a thorough investigation of the liquid portion of the inks may prove useful in discriminating ink brands and origins of manufacture.

During the course of this research, it has become apparent that it is possible to distinguish polymorphs of a given pigment, as reported in the literature (for example, authors in Venkataraman's text report on distinguishing the different polymorphs of Pigment Blue 15 using infrared spectroscopy and comparative x-ray powder data, 1977, pp. 446 and 289, respectively) and based on the experimental data presented in this research (both IR and Raman). One future research project that could be applied to increasing the discrimination power of pigment blue 15 is through the use of chemometrics. Specifically, by using software for data analysis that

incorporates statistical computing and graphical display methodologies (such as The R Project for Statistical Computing, <http://www.r-project.org>). By inputting the spectral data (peak locations) for the various pigment blues into the computer program, it is possible to use a discrimination algorithm such as partial least squares (PLS) analysis to determine the relationships between and discrimination of the data within the set). This use of statistics could also be applied across tattoo inks and manufacturers. This is an excellent way to support the paradigm shift from subjective analysis and interpretation within forensic science to the desired objective, statistical support for interpretations and conclusions regarding inclusions and exclusions. Additionally, like Raman spectroscopy, x-ray powder diffraction is a useful tool for differentiating between the different polymorphs of a given pigment. XRD coupled with wet chemistry methods to facilitate crystal growth or isolation a crystal form is a viable project that could provide insight into the polymorphs of existing synthetic/organic pigments. Caution must be taken during sample preparation methods to prevent the chance of changing the crystal form upon the application of pressure or solvents (for example, according to Thompson, “The (infrared) spectrum (of the Pigment Blue polymorph) must be run in Nujol since the high pressures involved in the potassium bromide [KBr] disk techniques effect changes in crystal form and hence in the peak ratio” (1977, pp. 447).

Since similar pigment types were found across the three origins of manufacture (U.S.A, Brazil and China), further microscopic and spectroscopic studies should be conducted to attempt to distinguish the pigment manufacturers based on a more comprehensive study of the pigment polymorphs present in the tattoo inks. The crystal form of the pigment is a key factor in the physical properties of the resultant tattoo ink. According to Brostoff *et. al.*, slight variations in the manufacturing process [of artists’ pigments], including pH, drying processes and

corresponding temperatures and any milling methods can cause the transformation of polymorphs and affect the crystallinity and crystal quality of the pigment. An evaluation of the pigment manufacturing processes along with the manufacturing processes of the tattoo inks should be conducted and used to characterize tattoo inks originating from different sources. Since the physical and optical characteristics of the pigment particles are paramount in determining the color characteristics of a sample, more detailed evaluation of the particles in tattoo inks should be explored (although control over the drying, extraction and any additional isolation and preparation methods would be paramount to prevent modification of the crystals[(*i.e.* polymorph changes)]. Again, microscopy would prove to be an extremely powerful tool in evaluating the pigment distribution, particle size and particle shapes.

Finally, expanding or improving upon any work presented in this research would be beneficial, specifically with regard surface enhanced Raman scattering (SERS). This should be done in an order to further validate the use of SERS as a routine analytical tool to be used in the lab, whether it be a forensic lab, conservation lab, industrial lab or any other laboratory setting (cosmetic, pharmaceutical, color chemistry, *etc.*). The increased application of SERS in the forensic field will help meet the criteria set forth in courtroom admissibility guidelines, such as those in Daubert.

Appendix A: Table of Raman and Infrared Bands³

A Summary of Characteristic Raman and Infrared Frequencies

- A. Raman*
- B. Infrared†

A. A SUMMARY OF CHARACTERISTIC RAMAN FREQUENCIES

Frequency (cm ⁻¹)	Vibration	Compound
3400-3330	Bonded antisymmetric NH ₂ stretch	Primary amines
3380-3340	Bonded OH stretch	Aliphatic alcohols
3374	CH stretch	Acetylene (gas)
3355-3325	Bonded antisymmetric NH ₂ stretch	Primary amides
3350-3300	Bonded NH stretch	Secondary amines
3335-3300	≡CH stretch	Alkyl acetylenes
3300-3250	Bonded symmetric NH ₂ stretch	Primary amines
3310-3290	Bonded NH stretch	Secondary amides
3190-3145	Bonded symmetric NH ₂ stretch	Primary amides
3175-3154	Bonded NH stretch	Pyrazoles

*F. R. Dollish, W. G. Fateley, and F. F. Bentley, *Characteristic Raman Frequencies of Organic Compounds*, John Wiley & Sons Inc., New York, 1974, with permission.

†N. B. Colthup, L. H. Daly, and S. E. Wiberly, *Introduction to Infrared and Raman Spectroscopy*, Third Edition, Academic Press, Inc., 1990.

³ Adapted from Lin-Vein, Colthup & Grasselli, *The Handbook of Infrared and Raman Characteristic Frequencies of Organic Molecules*, Academic Press, 1991.

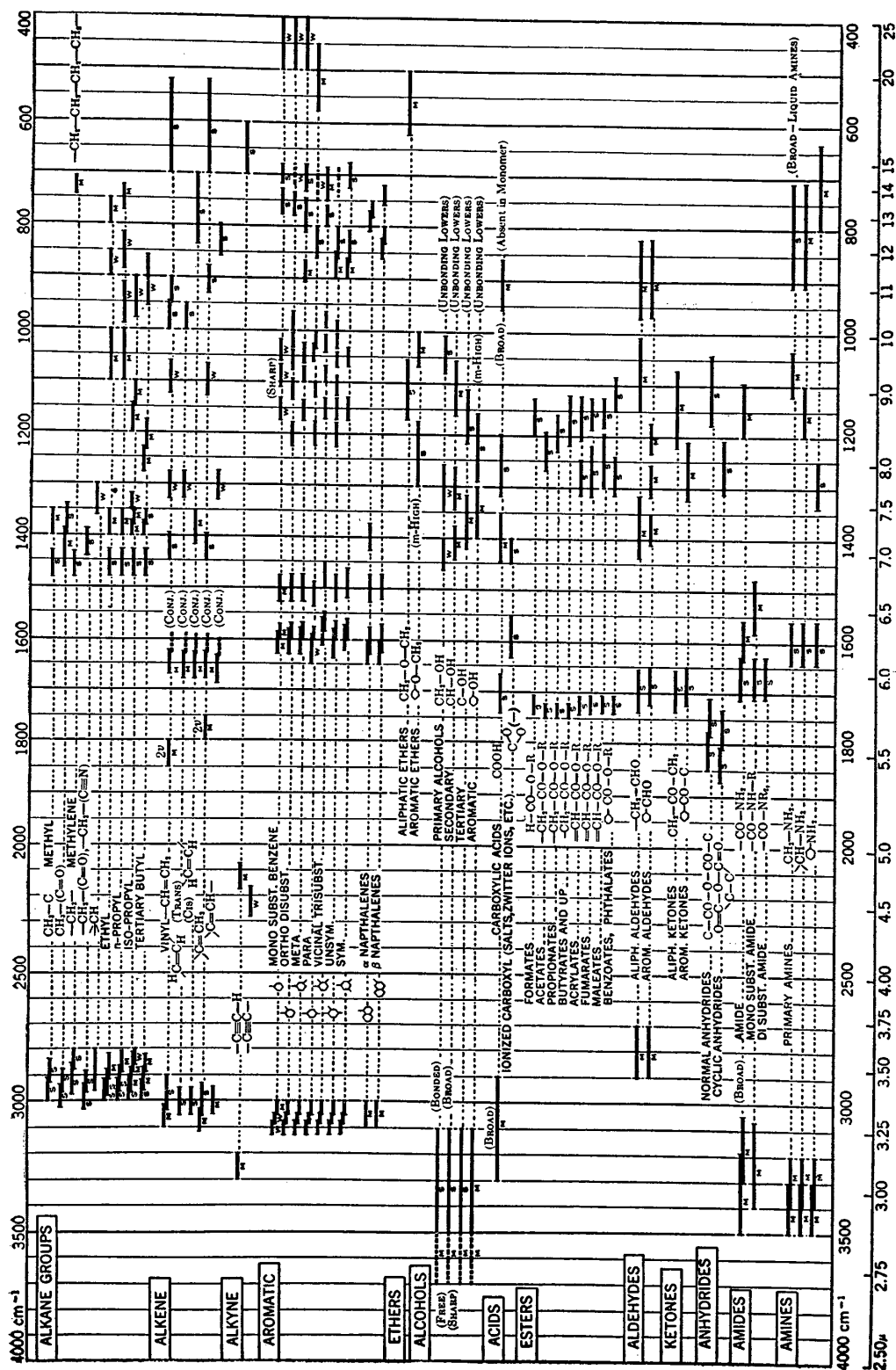
Frequency (cm ⁻¹)	Vibration	Compound
3103	Antisymmetric =CH ₂ stretch	Ethylene (gas)
3100-3020	CH ₂ stretches	Cyclopropane
3100-3000	Aromatic CH stretch	Benzene derivatives
3095-3070	Antisymmetric =CH ₂ stretch	C=CH ₂ derivatives
3062	CH stretch	Benzene
3057	Aromatic CH stretch	Alkyl benzenes
3040-3000	CH stretch	C=CHR derivatives
3026	Symmetric =CH ₂ stretch	Ethylene (gas)
2990-2980	Symmetric =CH ₂ stretch	C=CH ₂ derivatives
2986-2974	Symmetric NH ₃ ⁺ stretch	Alkyl ammonium chlorides (aqueous solution)
2969-2965	Antisymmetric CH ₃ stretch	<i>n</i> -Alkanes
2929-2912	Antisymmetric CH ₂ stretch	<i>n</i> -Alkanes
2884-2883	Symmetric CH ₃ stretch	<i>n</i> -Alkanes
2861-2849	Symmetric CH ₂ stretch	<i>n</i> -Alkanes
2850-2700	CHO group (2 bands)	Aliphatic aldehydes
2590-2560	SH stretch	Thiols
2316-2233	C=C stretch (2 bands)	R-C=C-CH ₃
2301-2231	C=C stretch (2 bands)	R-C=C-R'
2300-2250	Pseudoantisymmetric N=C=O stretch	Isocyanates
2264-2251	Symmetric C=C-C=C stretch	Alkyl diacetylenes
2259	C=N stretch	Cyanamide
2251-2232	C=N stretch	Aliphatic nitriles
2220-2100	Pseudoantisymmetric N=C=S stretch (2 bands)	Alkyl isothiocyanates
2220-2000	C=N stretch	Diakyl cyanamides
2172	Symmetric C=C-C=C stretch	Diacetylene
2161-2134	N=C stretch	Aliphatic isonitriles
2160-2100	C=C stretch	Alkyl acetylenes
2156-2140	C=N stretch	Alkyl thiocyanates
2104	Antisymmetric N=N stretch	CH ₂ N ₂
2094	C=N stretch	HCN
2049	Pseudoantisymmetric C=C=O stretch	Ketene
1974	C=C stretch	Acetylene (gas)
1964-1958	Antisymmetric C=C=C stretch	Allenes
1870-1840	Symmetric C=O stretch	Saturated 5-membered ring cyclic anhydrides
1820	Symmetric C=O stretch	Acetic anhydride
1810-1788	C=O stretch	Acid halides

Frequency (cm ⁻¹)	Vibration	Compound
1660-1610	C=N stretch	Hydrazones (solid)
1658-1644	C=C stretch	R ₂ C=CH ₂
1656	C=C stretch	Cyclohexene, cycloheptene
1654-1649	Symmetric C=O stretch (cyclic dimer)	Carboxylic acids
1652-1642	C=N stretch	Thiosemicarbazones (solid)
1650-1590	NH ₂ scissors	Primary amines
1649-1625	C=C stretch	Allyl derivatives
1648-1640	N=O stretch	Alkyl nitrites
1648-1638	C=C stretch	H ₂ C=CHR
1647	C=C stretch	Cyclopropene
1638	C=O stretch	Ethylene dithiocarbonate
1637	Symmetric C=C stretch	Isoprene
1634-1622	Antisymmetric NO ₂ stretch	Alkyl nitrates
1630-1550	Ring stretches (doublet)	Benzene derivatives
1623	C=C stretch	Ethylene (gas)
1620-1540	Three or more coupled C=C stretches	Polynes
1616-1571	C=C stretch	Chloroalkenes
1614	C=C stretch	Cyclopentene
1596-1547	C=C stretch	Bromoalkenes
1581-1465	C=C stretch	Iodoalkenes
1575	Symmetric C=C stretch	1,3-Cyclohexadiene
1573	N=N stretch	Azomethane (in solution)
1566	C=C stretch	Cyclobutene
1560-1550	Antisymmetric NO ₂ stretch	Primary nitroalkanes
1555-1550	Antisymmetric NO ₂ stretch	Secondary nitroalkanes
1548	N=N stretch	1-Pyrazoline
1545-1535	Antisymmetric NO ₂ stretch	Tertiary nitroalkanes
1515-1490	Ring stretch	2-Furfuryl group
1500	Symmetric C=C stretch	Cyclopentadiene
1480-1470	OCH ₃ , OCH ₂ deformations	Aliphatic ethers
1480-1460	Ring stretch	2 Furfurylidene or 2-furoyl group
1473-1446	CH ₃ , CH ₂ deformations	<i>n</i> -Alkanes
1466-1465	CH ₃ deformation	<i>n</i> -Alkanes
1450-1400	Pseudosymmetric N=C=O stretch	Isocyanates
1443-1398	Ring stretch	2-Substituted thiophenes
1442	N=N stretch	Azobenzene
1440-1340	Symmetric CO ₂ stretch	Carboxylate ions (aqueous solution)

Frequency (cm ⁻¹)	Vibration	Compound
1807	C=O stretch	Phosgene
1805-1799	Symmetric C=O stretch	Noncyclic anhydrides
1800	C=C stretch	F ₂ C=CF ₂ (gas)
1795	C=O stretch	Ethylene carbonate
1792	C=C stretch	F ₂ C=CFCH ₃
1782	C=O stretch	Cyclobutanone
1770-1730	C=O stretch	Halogenated aldehydes
1744	C=O stretch	Cyclopentanone
1743-1729	C=O stretch	Cationic α -amino acids (aqueous solution)
1741-1734	C=O stretch	O-Alkyl acetates
1740-1720	C=O stretch	Aliphatic aldehydes
1739-1714	C=C stretch	C=CF ₂ derivatives
1736	C=C stretch	Methylene cyclopropane
1734-1727	C=O stretch	O-Alkyl propionates
1725-1700	C=O stretch	Aliphatic ketones
1720-1715	C=O stretch	O-Alkyl formates
1712-1694	C=C stretch	RCF=CFR
1695	Nonconjugated C=O stretch	Uracil derivatives (aqueous solution)
1689-1644	C=C stretch	Monofluoroalkenes
1687-1651	C=C stretch	Alkylidene cyclopropanes
1686-1636	Amide I band	Primary amides (solids)
1680-1665	C=C stretch	Tetraalkyl ethylenes
1679	C=C stretch	Methylene cyclobutane
1678-1664	C=C stretch	Trialkyl ethylenes
1676-1665	C=C stretch	<i>trans</i> -Diakyl ethylenes
1675	Symmetric C=O stretch (cyclic dimer)	Acetic acid
1673-1666	C=N stretch	Aldimines
1672	Symmetric C=O stretch (cyclic dimer)	Formic acid (aqueous solution)
1670-1655	Conjugated C=O stretch	Uracil, cytosine, and guanine derivatives (aqueous solution)
1670-1630	Amide I band	Tertiary amides
1666-1652	C=N stretch	Ketoximes
1665-1650	C=N stretch	Semicarbazones (solid)
1663-1636	Symmetric C=N stretch	Aldazines, ketazines
1660-1654	C=C stretch	<i>cis</i> -Diakyl ethylenes
1660-1650	Amide I band	Secondary amides
1660-1649	C=N stretch	Aldoximes

Frequency (cm ⁻¹)	Vibration	Compound
1415-1400	Symmetric CO ₂ stretch	Dipolar and anionic α -amino acids (aqueous solution)
1415-1385	Ring stretch	Anthracenes
1395-1380	Symmetric NO ₂ stretch	Primary nitroalkanes
1390-1370	Ring stretch	Naphthalenes
1385-1368	CH ₃ symmetric deformation	<i>n</i> -Alkanes
1375-1360	Symmetric NO ₂ stretch	Secondary nitroalkanes
1355-1345	Symmetric NO ₂ stretch	Tertiary nitroalkanes
1350-1330	CH deformation	Isopropyl group
1320	Ring vibration	1,1-Diakyl cyclopropanes
1314-1290	In-plane CH deformation	<i>trans</i> -Diakyl ethylenes
1310-1250	Amide III band	Secondary amides
1310-1175	CH ₂ twist and rock	<i>n</i> -Alkanes
1305-1295	CH ₂ in-phase twist	<i>n</i> -Alkanes
1300-1280	CC bridge bond stretch	Biphenyls
1282-1275	Symmetric NO ₂ stretch	Alkyl nitrates
1280-1240	Ring stretch	Epoxy derivatives
1276	Symmetric N=N=N stretch	CH ₃ N ₃
1270-1251	In-plane CH deformation	<i>cis</i> -Diakyl ethylenes
1266	Ring "breathing"	Ethylene oxide (oxirane)
1230-1200	Ring vibration	Para-disubstituted benzenes
1220-1200	Ring vibration	Mono- and 1,2-dialkyl cyclopropanes
1212	Ring "breathing"	Ethylene imine (aziridine)
1205	C ₆ H ₅ -C vibration	Alkyl benzenes
1196-1188	Symmetric SO ₂ stretch	Alkyl sulfates
1188	Ring "breathing"	Cyclopropane
1172-1165	Symmetric SO ₂ stretch	Alkyl sulfonates
1150-950	CC stretches	<i>n</i> -Alkanes
1145-1125	Symmetric SO ₂ stretch	Dialkyl sulfones
1144	Ring "breathing"	Pyrrrole
1140	Ring "breathing"	Furan
1130-1100	Symmetric C=C=C stretch (2 bands)	Allenes
1130	Pseudosymmetric C=C=O stretch	Ketene
1112	Ring "breathing"	Ethylene sulfide
1111	NN stretch	Hydrazine
1070-1040	S=O stretch (1 or 2 bands)	Aliphatic sulfoxides

Frequency (cm ⁻¹)	Vibration	Compound	Frequency (cm ⁻¹)	Vibration	Compound
1065	C=S stretch	Ethylene trithiocarbonate	760-650	Symmetric skeletal stretch	<i>tert</i> -Butyl group
1060-1020	Ring vibration	Ortho-disubstituted benzenes	740-585	CS stretch (1 or more bands)	Alkyl sulfides
1040-990	Ring vibration	Pyrazoles	735-690	"C=S stretch"	Thioamides, thioureas (solid)
1030-1015	In-plane CH deformation	Monosubstituted benzenes	733	Ring "breathing"	Cycloheptane
1030-1010	Trigonal ring "breathing"	3-Substituted pyridines	730-720	CCl stretch, <i>P_C</i> conformation	Primary chloroalkanes
1030	Trigonal ring "breathing"	Pyridine	715-620	CS stretch (1 or more bands)	Dialkyl disulfides
1029	Ring "breathing"	Trimethylene oxide (oxetane)	709	CCl stretch	CH ₂ Cl
1026	Ring "breathing"	Trimethylene imine (azetidene)	703	Ring "breathing"	Cyclooctane
1010-990	Trigonal ring "breathing"	Mono-, meta-, and 1,3,5-substituted benzenes	703	Symmetric CCl ₂ stretch	CH ₂ Cl ₂
1001	Ring "breathing"	Cyclobutane	690-650	Pseudosymmetric N=C=S stretch	Alkyl isothiocyanates
1000-985	Trigonal ring "breathing"	2- and 4-Substituted pyridines	688	Ring "breathing"	Tetrahydrothiophene
992	Ring "breathing"	Benzene	668	Symmetric CCl ₃ stretch	CHCl ₃
992	Ring "breathing"	Pyridine	660-650	CCl stretch, <i>P_H</i> conformation	Primary chloroalkanes
939	Ring "breathing"	1,3-Dioxolane	659	Symmetric CSC stretch	Pentamethylene sulfide
933	Ring vibration	Alkyl cyclobutanes	655-640	CBr stretch, <i>P_C</i> conformation	Primary bromoalkanes
930-830	Symmetric COC stretch	Aliphatic ethers	630-615	Ring deformation	Monosubstituted benzenes
914	Ring "breathing"	Tetrahydrofuran	615-605	CCl stretch, <i>S_{HH}</i> conformation	Secondary chloroalkanes
906	ON stretch	Hydroxylamine	610-590	CI stretch, <i>P_C</i> conformation	Primary iodoalkanes
905-837	CC skeletal stretch	<i>n</i> -Alkanes	609	CBr stretch	CH ₂ Br
900-890	Ring vibration	Alkyl cyclopentanes	577	Symmetric CBr ₂ stretch	CH ₂ Br ₂
900-850	Symmetric CNC stretch	Secondary amines	570-560	CCl stretch, <i>T_{HHH}</i> conformation	Tertiary chloroalkanes
899	Ring "breathing"	Pyrrolidine	565-560	CBr stretch, <i>P_H</i> conformation	Primary bromoalkanes
866	Ring "breathing"	Cyclopentane	540-535	CBr stretch, <i>S_{HH}</i> conformation	Secondary bromoalkanes
877	OO stretch	Hydrogen peroxide	539	Symmetric CBr ₃ stretch	CHBr ₃
851-840	Pseudosymmetric CON stretch	<i>O</i> -Alkyl hydroxylamines	525-510	SS stretch	Dialkyl disulfides
836	Ring "breathing"	Piperazine	523	CI stretch	CH ₂ I
835-749	Skeletal stretch	Isopropyl group	520-510	CBr stretch, <i>T_{HHH}</i> conformation	Tertiary bromoalkanes
834	Ring "breathing"	1,4-Dioxane	510-500	CI stretch, <i>P_H</i> conformation	Primary iodoalkanes
832	Ring "breathing"	Thiophene	510-480	SS stretch	Dialkyl trisulfides
832	Ring "breathing"	Morpholine	495-485	CI stretch, <i>S_{HH}</i> conformation	Secondary iodoalkanes
830-720	Ring vibration	Para-disubstituted benzenes	495-485	CI stretch, <i>T_{HHH}</i> conformation	Tertiary iodoalkanes
825-820	C ₂ O skeletal stretch	Secondary alcohols	484-475	Skeletal deformation	Dialkyl diacetylenes
818	Ring "breathing"	Tetrahydropyran	483	Symmetric Cl ₂ stretch	CH ₂ I ₂
815	Ring "breathing"	Piperidine	459	Symmetric CCl ₄ stretch	CCl ₄
802	Ring "breathing"	Cyclohexane (chair form)	437	Symmetric Cl ₃ stretch	CHCl ₃ (in solution)
785-700	Ring vibration	Alkyl cyclohexanes	425-150	"Chain expansion"	<i>n</i> -Alkanes
760-730	C ₂ O skeletal stretch	Tertiary alcohols	355-335	Skeletal deformation	Monoalkyl acetylenes
			267	Symmetric CBr ₄ stretch	CBr ₄ (in solution)
			200-160	Skeletal deformation	Aliphatic nitriles
			178	Symmetric Cl ₄ stretch	Cl ₄ (solid)

Appendix B: Correlation Chart for the Infrared Region⁴⁴ Adapted from Colthup, 1950

Appendix C: Character Tables

C_s	E	$\sigma(xy)$		
A'	+1	+1	T_x, T_y, R_z	$\alpha_{xx}, \alpha_{yy}, \alpha_{zz}, \alpha_{xy}$
A''	+1	-1	T_z, R_x, R_y	α_{yz}, α_{xz}

C_2	E	$C_2(z)$		
A	+1	+1	T_z, R_z	$\alpha_{xx}, \alpha_{yy}, \alpha_{zz}, \alpha_{xy}$
B	+1	-1	T_x, T_y, R_x, R_y	α_{yz}, α_{xz}

C_i	E	i		
A_g	+1	+1	R_x, R_y, R_z	all components of α
A_u	+1	-1	T_x, T_y, T_z	

C_{2v}	E	$C_2(z)$	$\sigma_v(xz)$	$\sigma_v(yz)$		
A_1	+1	+1	+1	+1	T_z	$\alpha_{xx}, \alpha_{yy}, \alpha_{zz}$
A_2	+1	+1	-1	-1	R_z	α_{xy}
B_1	+1	-1	+1	-1	T_x, R_y	α_{xz}
B_2	+1	-1	-1	+1	T_y, R_x	α_{yz}

C_{3v}	E	$2C_3(z)$	$3\sigma_v$		
A_1	+1	+1	+1	T_z	$\alpha_{xx} + \alpha_{yy}, \alpha_{zz}$
A_2	+1	+1	-1	R_z	
E	+2	-1	0	$(T_x, T_y), (R_x, R_y)$	$(\alpha_{xx} - \alpha_{yy}, \alpha_{xy}), (\alpha_{yz}, \alpha_{xz})$

C_{4v}	E	$2C_4(z)$	$C_2^2 \equiv C_2$	$2\sigma_v$	$2\sigma_d$		
A_1	+1	+1	+1	+1	+1	T_z	$\alpha_{xx} + \alpha_{yy}, \alpha_{zz}$
A_2	+1	+1	+1	-1	-1	R_z	
B_1	+1	-1	+1	+1	-1		$\alpha_{xx} - \alpha_{yy}$
B_2	+1	-1	+1	-1	+1		α_{xy}
E	+2	0	-2	0	0	$(T_x, T_y), (R_x, R_y)$	$(\alpha_{yz}, \alpha_{xz})$

C_p^n (or S_p^n) denotes that the C_p (or S_p) operation is carried out successively n times.

$C_{\infty v}$	E	$2C_{\infty}^{\phi}$	$2C_{\infty}^{2\phi}$	$2C_{\infty}^{3\phi}$...	$\infty\sigma_v$		
Σ^+	+1	+1	+1	+1	...	+1	T_z	$\alpha_{xx} + \alpha_{yy}, \alpha_{zz}$
Σ^-	+1	+1	+1	+1	...	-1	R_z	
Π	+2	$2 \cos \phi$	$2 \cos 2\phi$	$2 \cos 3\phi$...	0	$(T_x, T_y), (R_x, R_y)$	$(\alpha_{yz}, \alpha_{xz})$
Δ	+2	$2 \cos 2\phi$	$2 \cos 2.2\phi$	$2 \cos 3.2\phi$...	0		$(\alpha_{xx} - \alpha_{yy}, \alpha_{xy})$
Φ	+2	$2 \cos 3\phi$	$2 \cos 2.3\phi$	$2 \cos 3.3\phi$...	0		
...		

C_{2h}	E	$C_2(z)$	$\sigma_h(xy)$	i		
A_g	+1	+1	+1	+1	R_z	$\alpha_{xx}, \alpha_{yy}, \alpha_{zz}, \alpha_{xy}$
A_u	+1	+1	-1	-1	T_z	
B_g	+1	-1	-1	+1	R_x, R_y	α_{yz}, α_{xz}
B_u	+1	-1	+1	-1	T_x, T_y	

D_3	E	$2C_3(z)$	$3C_2$		
A_1	+1	+1	+1		$\alpha_{xx} + \alpha_{yy}, \alpha_{zz}$
A_2	+1	+1	-1	T_z, R_z	
E	+2	-1	0	$(T_x, T_y), (R_x, R_y)$	$(\alpha_{xx} - \alpha_{yy}, \alpha_{xy}), (\alpha_{yz}, \alpha_{xz})$

$D_{2d} \equiv V_d$	E	$2S_4(z)$	$S_4^2 \equiv C_2''$	$2C_2$	$2\sigma_d$			
A_1	+1	+1	+1	+1	+1	R_z	$\alpha_{xx} + \alpha_{yy}, \alpha_{zz}$	
A_2	+1	+1	+1	-1	-1			
B_1	+1	-1	+1	+1	-1			$\alpha_{xx} - \alpha_{yy}$
B_2	+1	-1	+1	-1	+1		T_z	α_{xy}
E	+2	0	-2	0	0		$(T_x, T_y), (R_x, R_y)$	$(\alpha_{yz}, \alpha_{xz})$

D_{3d}	E	$2S_6(z)$	$2S_6^2 \equiv 2C_3$	$S_6^3 \equiv S_2 \equiv i$	$3C_2$	$3\sigma_d$			
A_{1g}	+1	+1	+1	+1	+1	+1	R_z	$\alpha_{xx} + \alpha_{yy}, \alpha_{zz}$	
A_{1u}	+1	-1	+1	-1	+1	-1			
A_{2g}	+1	+1	+1	+1	-1	-1		T_z	
A_{2u}	+1	-1	+1	-1	-1	+1		(R_x, R_y)	$(\alpha_{xx} - \alpha_{yy}, \alpha_{xy}), (\alpha_{yz}, \alpha_{xz})$
E_g	+2	-1	-1	+2	0	0		(T_x, T_y)	
E_u	+2	+1	-1	-2	0	0			

D_{4d}	E	$2S_8(z)$	$2S_8^2 \equiv 2C_4$	$2S_8^3$	$S_8^4 \equiv C_2''$	$4C_2$	$4\sigma_d$			
A_1	+1	+1	+1	+1	+1	+1	+1	R_z	$\alpha_{xx} + \alpha_{yy}, \alpha_{zz}$	
A_2	+1	+1	+1	+1	+1	-1	-1			
B_1	+1	-1	+1	-1	+1	+1	-1			
B_2	+1	-1	+1	-1	+1	-1	+1		T_z	
E_1	+2	$+\sqrt{2}$	0	$-\sqrt{2}$	-2	0	0		(T_x, T_y)	
E_2	+2	0	-2	0	+2	0	0		$(\alpha_{xx} - \alpha_{yy}, \alpha_{xy})$	
E_3	+2	$-\sqrt{2}$	0	$+\sqrt{2}$	-2	0	0	(R_x, R_y)	$(\alpha_{yz}, \alpha_{xz})$	

$D_{2h} \equiv V_h$	E	$\sigma(xy)$	$\sigma(xz)$	$\sigma(yz)$	i	$C_2(z)$	$C_2(y)$	$C_2(x)$			
A_g	+1	+1	+1	+1	+1	+1	+1	+1	R_z	$\alpha_{xx}, \alpha_{yy}, \alpha_{zz}$	
A_u	+1	-1	-1	-1	-1	+1	+1	+1			
B_{1g}	+1	+1	-1	-1	+1	+1	-1	-1			α_{xy}
B_{1u}	+1	-1	+1	+1	-1	+1	-1	-1		T_z	
B_{2g}	+1	-1	+1	-1	+1	-1	+1	-1		R_y	α_{xz}
B_{2u}	+1	+1	-1	+1	-1	-1	+1	-1		T_y	
B_{3g}	+1	-1	-1	+1	+1	-1	-1	+1		R_x	α_{yz}
B_{3u}	+1	+1	+1	-1	-1	-1	-1	+1		T_x	

D_{3h}	E	$2C_3(z)$	$3C_2$	σ_h	$2S_3$	$3\sigma_v$			
A'_1	+1	+1	+1	+1	+1	+1	R_z	$\alpha_{xx} + \alpha_{yy}, \alpha_{zz}$	
A''_1	+1	+1	+1	-1	-1	-1			
A'_2	+1	+1	-1	+1	+1	-1		T_z	
A''_2	+1	+1	-1	-1	-1	+1		(T_x, T_y)	$(\alpha_{xx} - \alpha_{yy}, \alpha_{xy})$
E'	+2	-1	0	+2	-1	0		(R_x, R_y)	$(\alpha_{yz}, \alpha_{xz})$
E''	+2	-1	0	-2	+1	0			

D_{4h}	E	$2C_4(z)$	$C_2^2 \equiv C_2''$	$2C_2$	$2C_2'$	σ_h	$2\sigma_v$	$2\sigma_d$	$2S_4$	$S_2 \equiv i$		
A_{1g}	+1	+1	+1	+1	+1	+1	+1	+1	+1	+1	R_z T_z	$\alpha_{xx} + \alpha_{yy}, \alpha_{zz}$
A_{1u}	+1	+1	+1	+1	+1	-1	-1	-1	-1	-1		
A_{2g}	+1	+1	+1	-1	-1	+1	-1	-1	+1	+1		
A_{2u}	+1	+1	+1	-1	-1	-1	+1	+1	-1	-1		
B_{1g}	+1	-1	+1	+1	-1	+1	+1	-1	-1	+1		$\alpha_{xx} - \alpha_{yy}$
B_{1u}	+1	-1	+1	+1	-1	-1	-1	+1	+1	-1		
B_{2g}	+1	-1	+1	-1	+1	+1	-1	+1	-1	+1		α_{xy}
B_{2u}	+1	-1	+1	-1	+1	-1	+1	-1	+1	-1		
E_g	+2	0	-2	0	0	-2	0	0	0	+2	(R_x, R_y)	$(\alpha_{yz}, \alpha_{xz})$
E_u	+2	0	-2	0	0	+2	0	0	0	-2	(T_x, T_y)	

D_{5h}	E	$2C_5(z)$	$2C_5^2$	σ_h	$5C_2$	$5\sigma_v$	$2S_5$	$2S_5^3$		
A_1'	+1	+1	+1	+1	+1	+1	+1	+1	R_z T_z	$\alpha_{xx} + \alpha_{yy}, \alpha_{zz}$
A_1''	+1	+1	+1	-1	+1	-1	-1	-1		
A_2'	+1	+1	+1	+1	-1	-1	+1	+1		
A_2''	+1	+1	+1	-1	-1	+1	-1	-1		
E_1'	+2	$2 \cos 72^\circ$	$2 \cos 144^\circ$	+2	0	0	$+2 \cos 72^\circ$	$+2 \cos 144^\circ$	(T_x, T_y)	
E_1''	+2	$2 \cos 72^\circ$	$2 \cos 144^\circ$	-2	0	0	$-2 \cos 72^\circ$	$-2 \cos 144^\circ$	(R_x, R_y)	$(\alpha_{yz}, \alpha_{xz})$
E_2'	+2	$2 \cos 144^\circ$	$2 \cos 72^\circ$	+2	0	0	$+2 \cos 144^\circ$	$+2 \cos 72^\circ$		$(\alpha_{xx} - \alpha_{yy}, \alpha_{xy})$
E_2''	+2	$2 \cos 144^\circ$	$2 \cos 72^\circ$	-2	0	0	$-2 \cos 144^\circ$	$-2 \cos 72^\circ$		

T_d	E	$8C_3$	$6\sigma_d$	$6S_4$	$3S_4^2 \equiv 3C_2$		
A_1	+1	+1	+1	+1	+1		$\alpha_{xx} + \alpha_{yy} + \alpha_{zz}$
A_2	+1	+1	-1	-1	+1		$(\alpha_{xx} + \alpha_{yy} - 2\alpha_{zz}, \alpha_{xx} - \alpha_{yy})$
E	+2	-1	0	0	+2		
F_1	+3	0	-1	+1	-1	(R_x, R_y, R_z)	
F_2	+3	0	+1	-1	-1	(T_x, T_y, T_z)	$(\alpha_{xy}, \alpha_{yz}, \alpha_{xz})$

O_h	E	$8C_3$	$6C_2$	$6C_4$	$3C_4^2 \equiv 3C_2'$	$S_2 \equiv i$	$6S_4$	$8S_6$	$3\sigma_h$	$6\sigma_d$		
A_{1g}	+1	+1	+1	+1	+1	+1	+1	+1	+1	+1		$\alpha_{xx} + \alpha_{yy} + \alpha_{zz}$
A_{1u}	+1	+1	+1	+1	+1	-1	-1	-1	-1	-1		
A_{2g}	+1	+1	-1	-1	+1	+1	-1	+1	+1	-1		
A_{2u}	+1	+1	-1	-1	+1	-1	+1	-1	-1	+1		
E_g	+2	-1	0	0	+2	+2	0	-1	+2	0		$(\alpha_{xx} + \alpha_{yy} - 2\alpha_{zz}, \alpha_{xx} - \alpha_{yy})$
E_u	+2	-1	0	0	+2	-2	0	+1	-2	0		
F_{1g}	+3	0	-1	+1	-1	+3	+1	0	-1	-1	(R_x, R_y, R_z)	
F_{1u}	+3	0	-1	+1	-1	-3	-1	0	+1	+1	(T_x, T_y, T_z)	
F_{2g}	+3	0	+1	-1	-1	+3	-1	0	-1	+1		$(\alpha_{xy}, \alpha_{yz}, \alpha_{xz})$
F_{2u}	+3	0	+1	-1	-1	-3	+1	0	+1	-1		

I_h	E	$12C_3$	$12C_3^2$	$20C_3$	$15C_2$	i	$12S_{10}$	$12S_{10}^3$	$20S_6$	15σ		
A_g	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	(R_x, R_y, R_z)	$\alpha_{xx} + \alpha_{yy} + \alpha_{zz}$
F_{1g}	3	$\frac{1}{2}(1 + \sqrt{5})$	$\frac{1}{2}(1 - \sqrt{5})$	0	-1	3	$\frac{1}{2}(1 - \sqrt{5})$	$\frac{1}{2}(1 + \sqrt{5})$	0	-1		
F_{2g}	3	$\frac{1}{2}(1 - \sqrt{5})$	$\frac{1}{2}(1 + \sqrt{5})$	0	-1	3	$\frac{1}{2}(1 + \sqrt{5})$	$\frac{1}{2}(1 - \sqrt{5})$	0	-1		
G_g	4	-1	-1	1	0	4	-1	-1	1	0		
H_g	5	0	0	-1	1	5	0	0	-1	1		$(2\alpha_{zz} - \alpha_{xx} - \alpha_{yy},$ $\alpha_{xx} - \alpha_{yy},$ $\alpha_{xy}, \alpha_{yz}, \alpha_{xz})$
A_u	1	1	1	1	1	-1	-1	-1	-1	-1	(T_x, T_y, T_z)	
F_{1u}	3	$\frac{1}{2}(1 + \sqrt{5})$	$\frac{1}{2}(1 - \sqrt{5})$	0	-1	-3	$-\frac{1}{2}(1 - \sqrt{5})$	$-\frac{1}{2}(1 + \sqrt{5})$	0	1		
F_{2u}	3	$\frac{1}{2}(1 - \sqrt{5})$	$\frac{1}{2}(1 + \sqrt{5})$	0	-1	-3	$-\frac{1}{2}(1 + \sqrt{5})$	$-\frac{1}{2}(1 - \sqrt{5})$	0	1		
G_u	4	-1	-1	1	0	-4	1	1	-1	0		
H_u	5	0	0	-1	1	-5	0	0	1	-1		

Appendix D: Tattoo Inks (Iron Works Brasil)

Vermelho



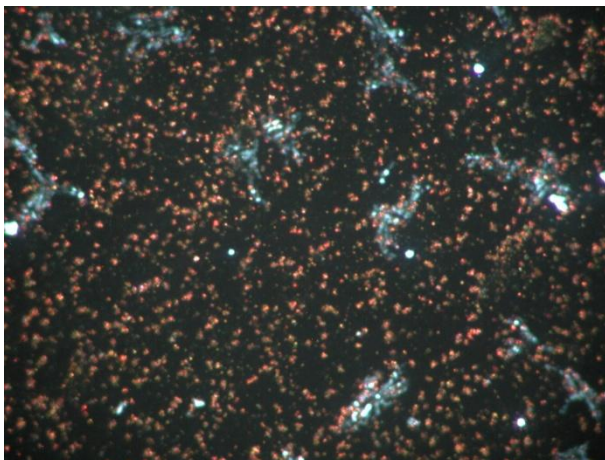
Bright Field, 100x



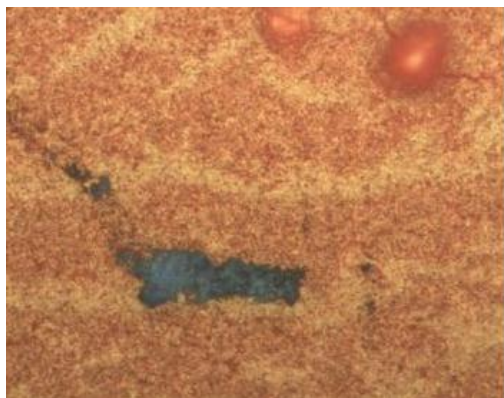
Dark Field, 100x



In RI 1.550, 400x

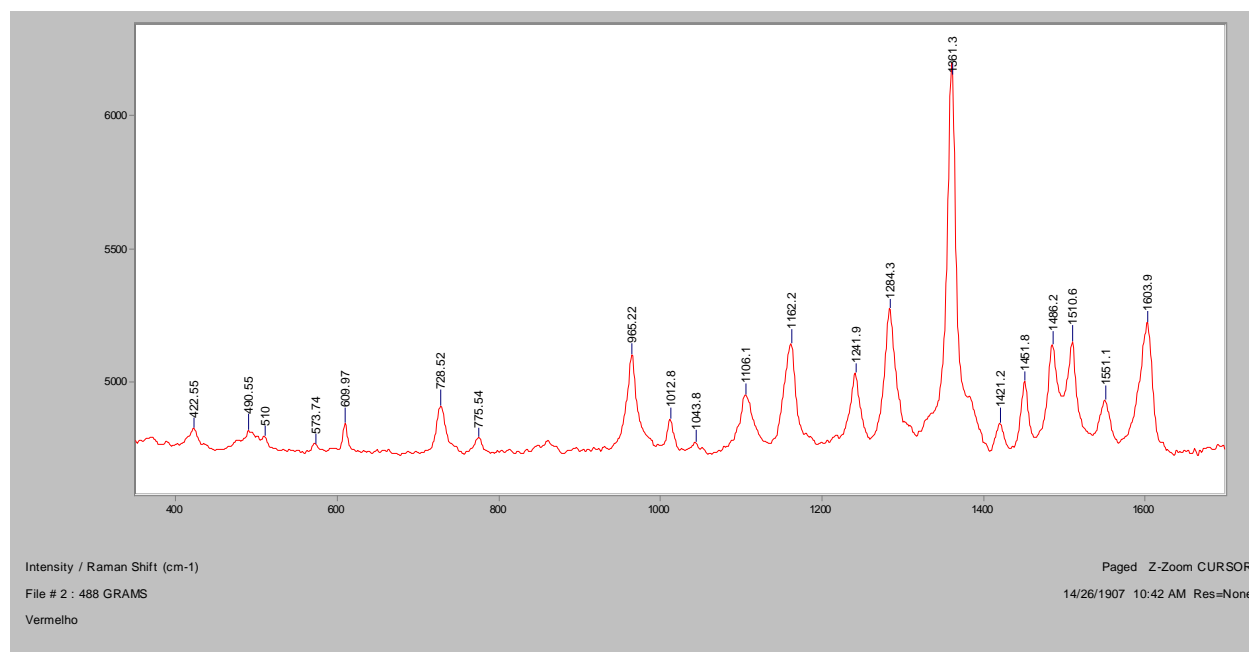


Crossed polars, In RI 1.550, 200x

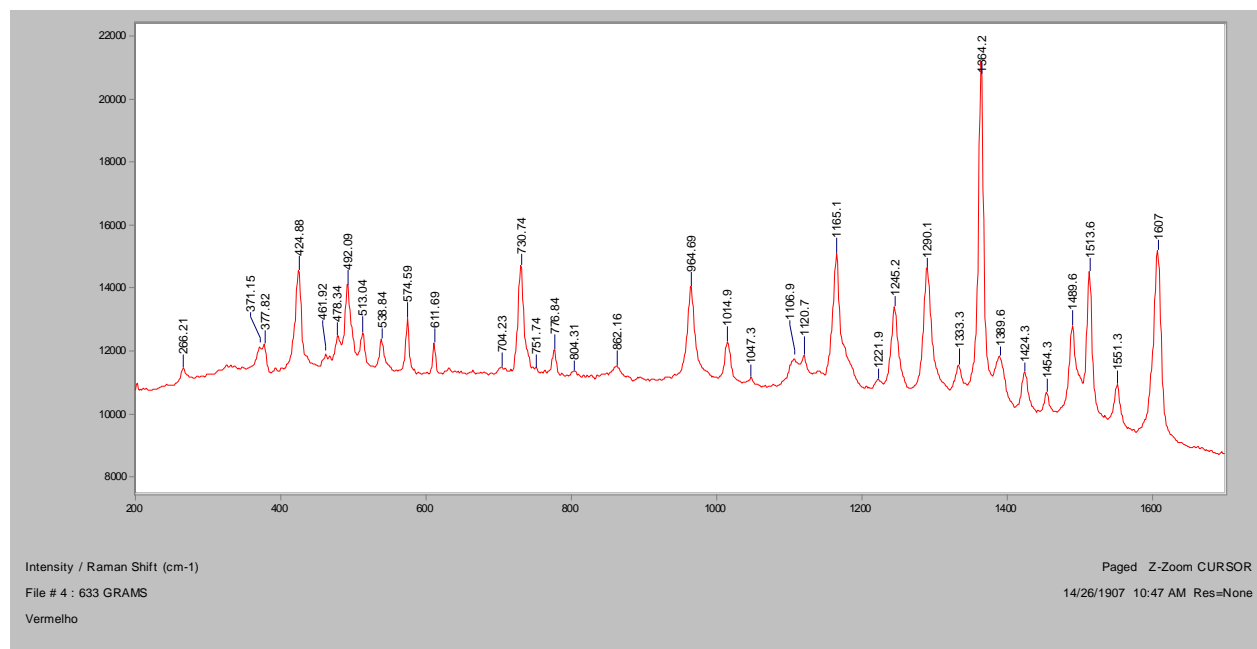


Raman microscope image, 200x

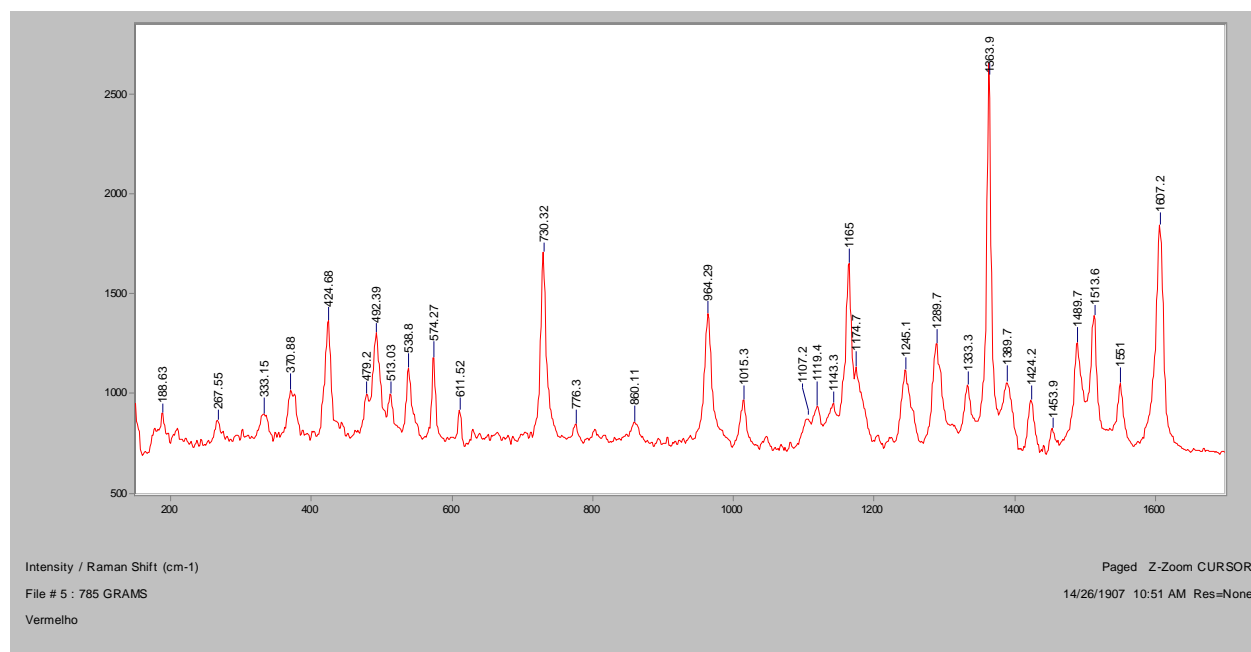
Normal Raman, 488nm



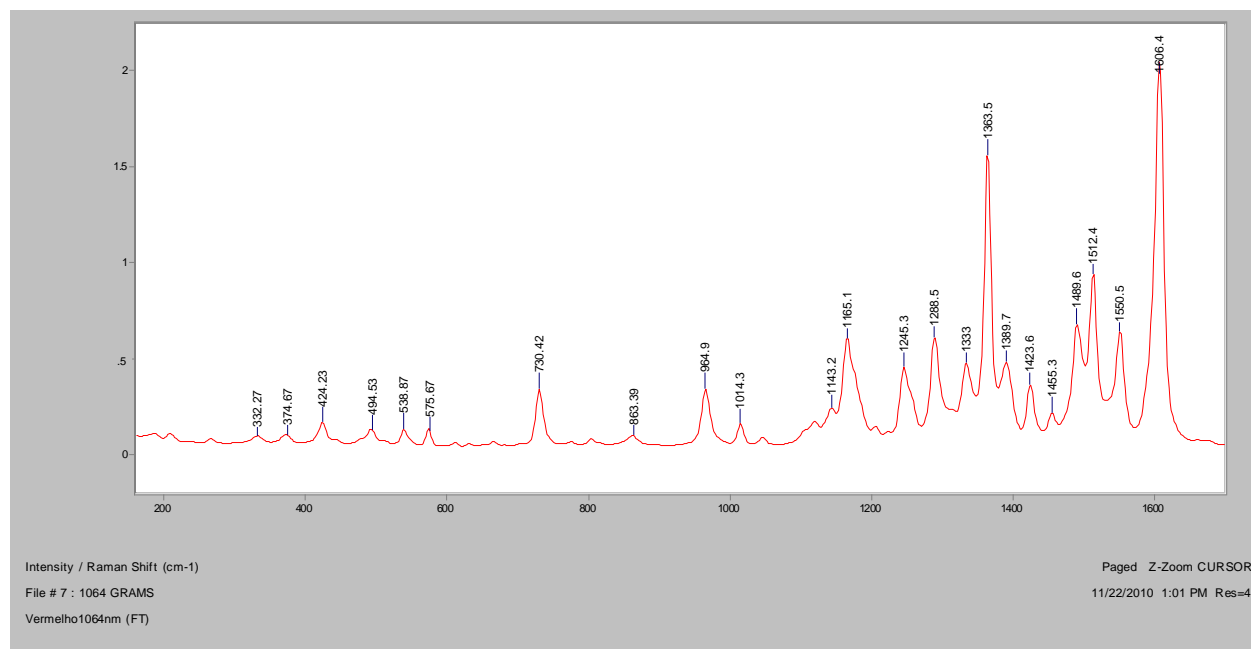
Normal Raman, 633nm



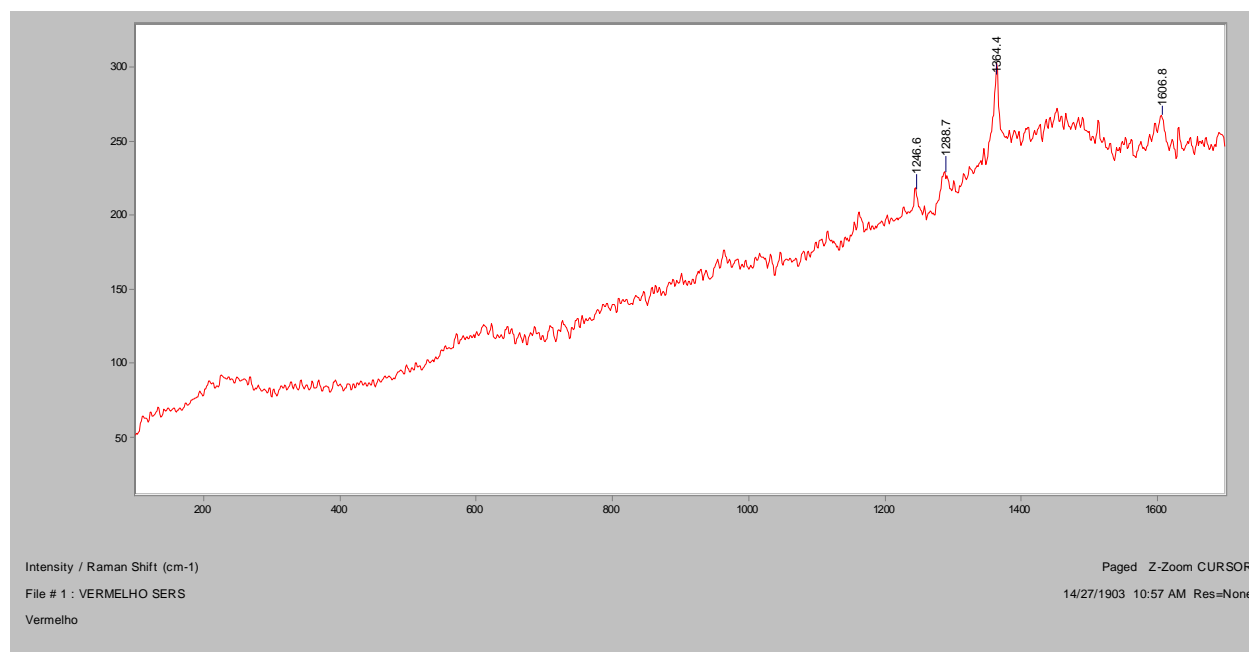
Normal Raman, 785nm



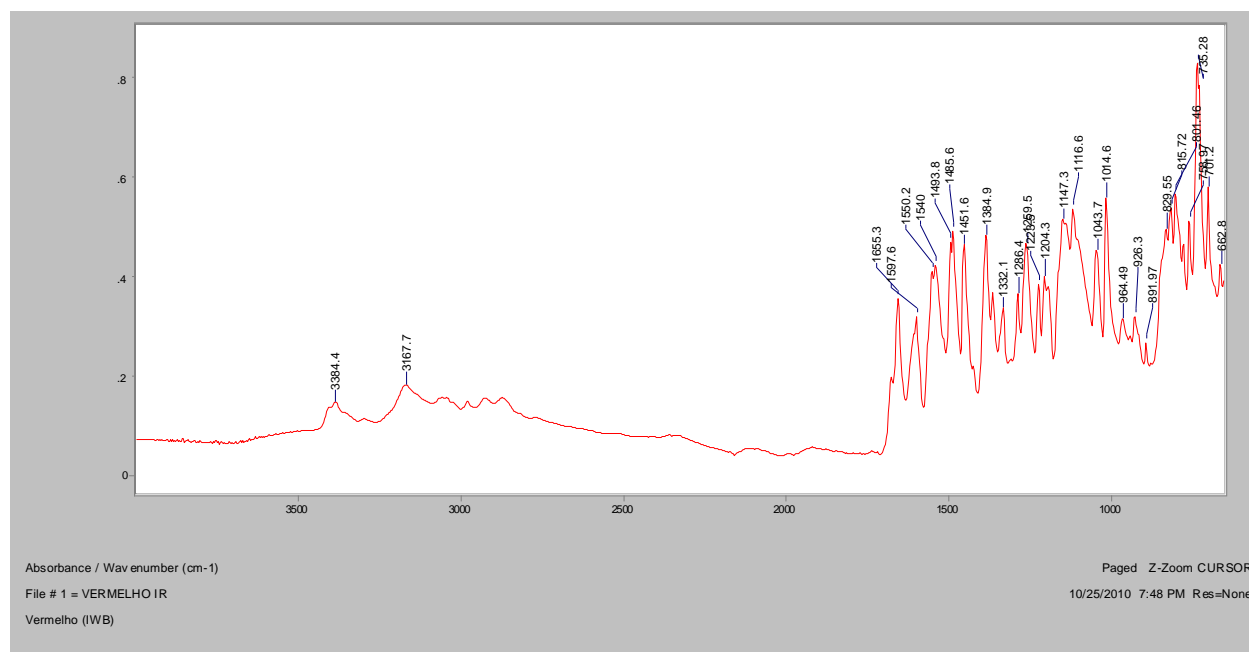
FT-Raman, 1064nm



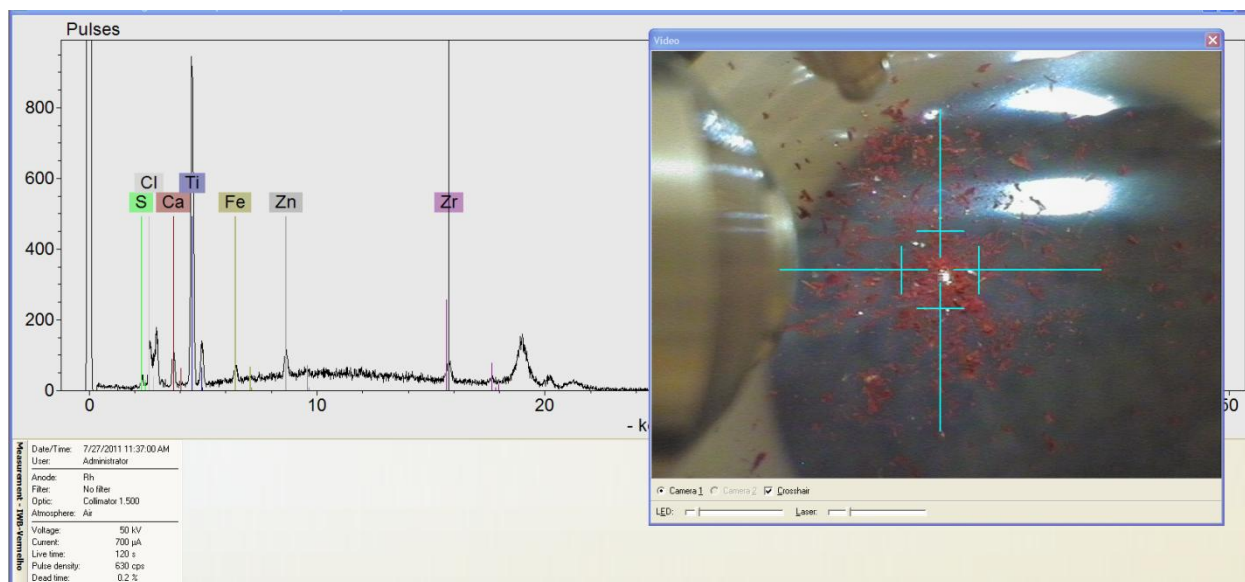
SERS, 488nm

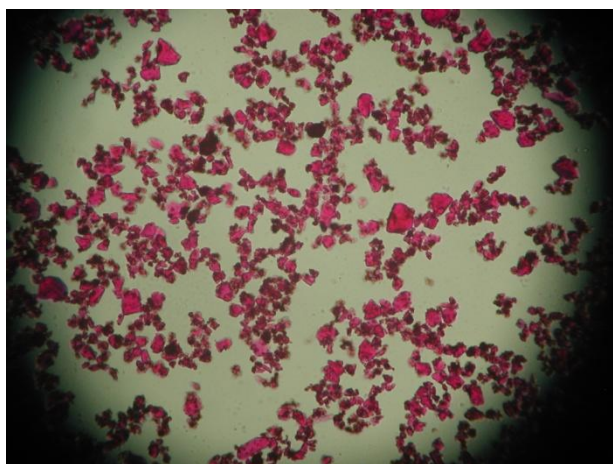
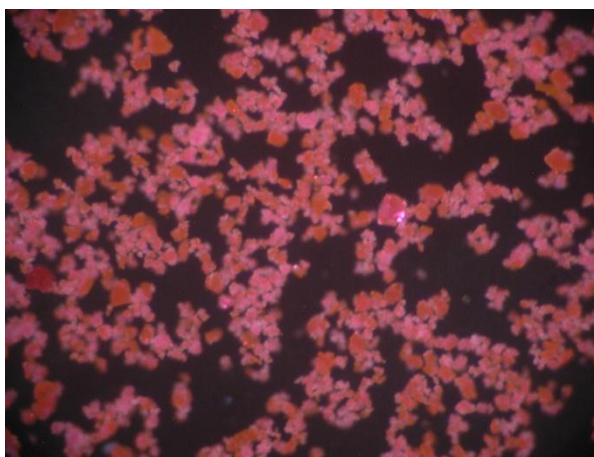


FT-IR (ATR)

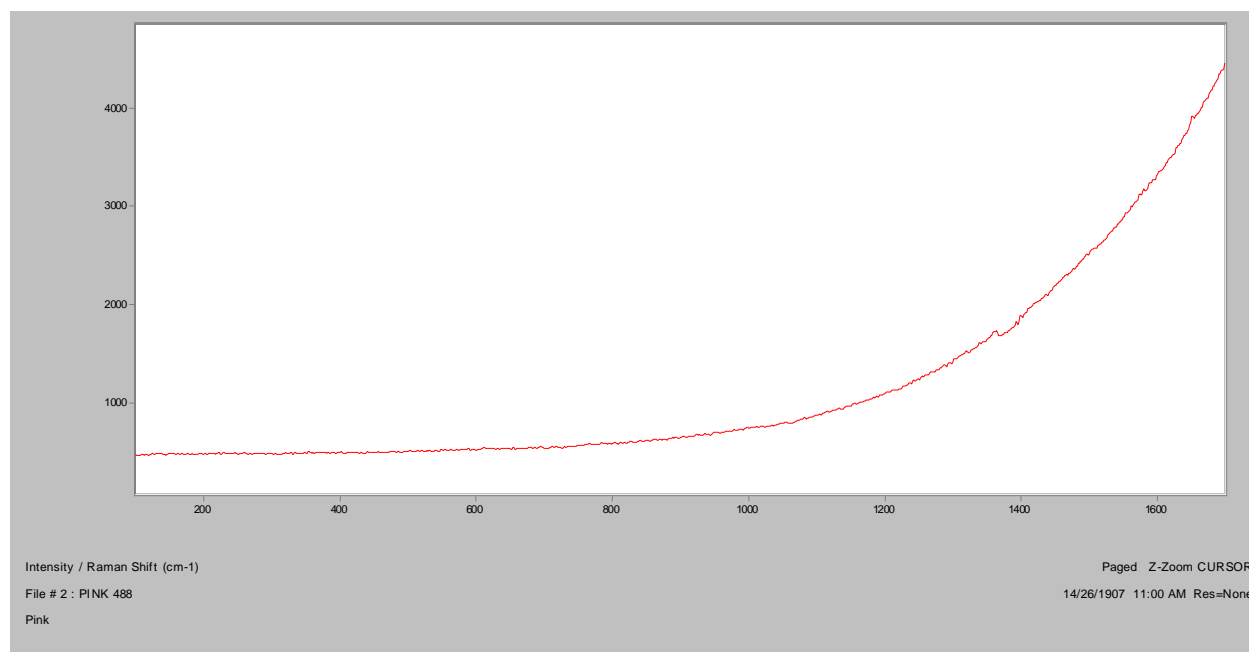


XRF

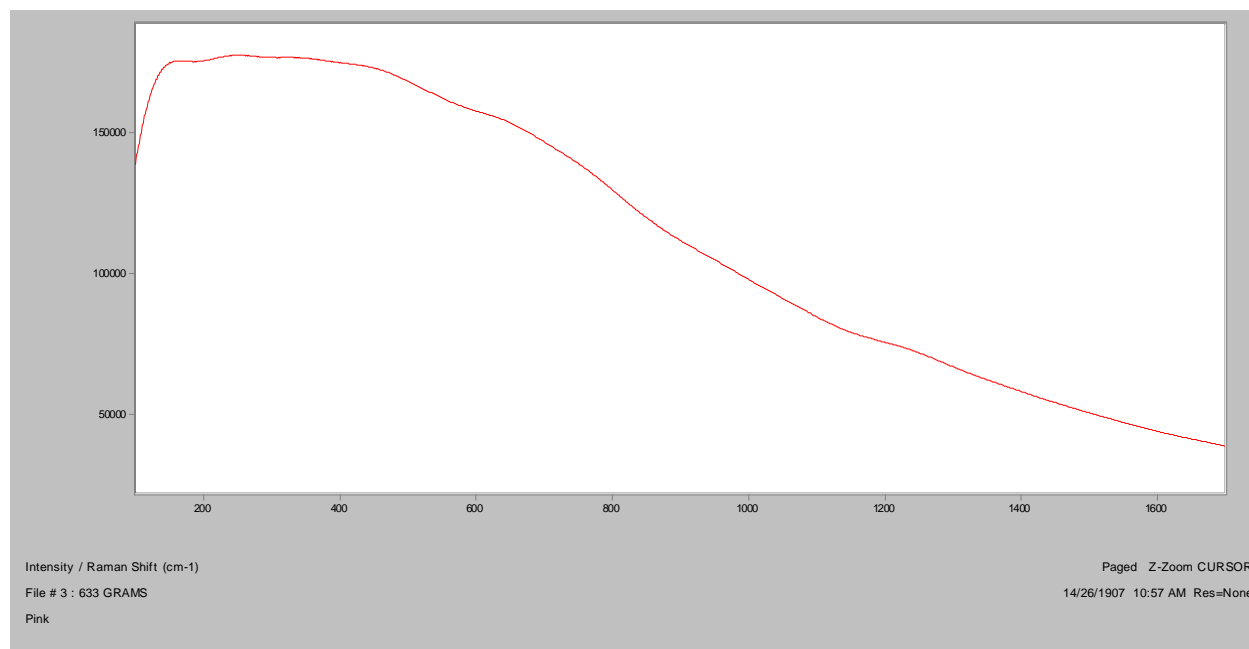


Pink**Bright Field, 100x****Dark Field, 100x****In RI 1.550, 200x****Crossed polars, In RI 1.550, 200x**

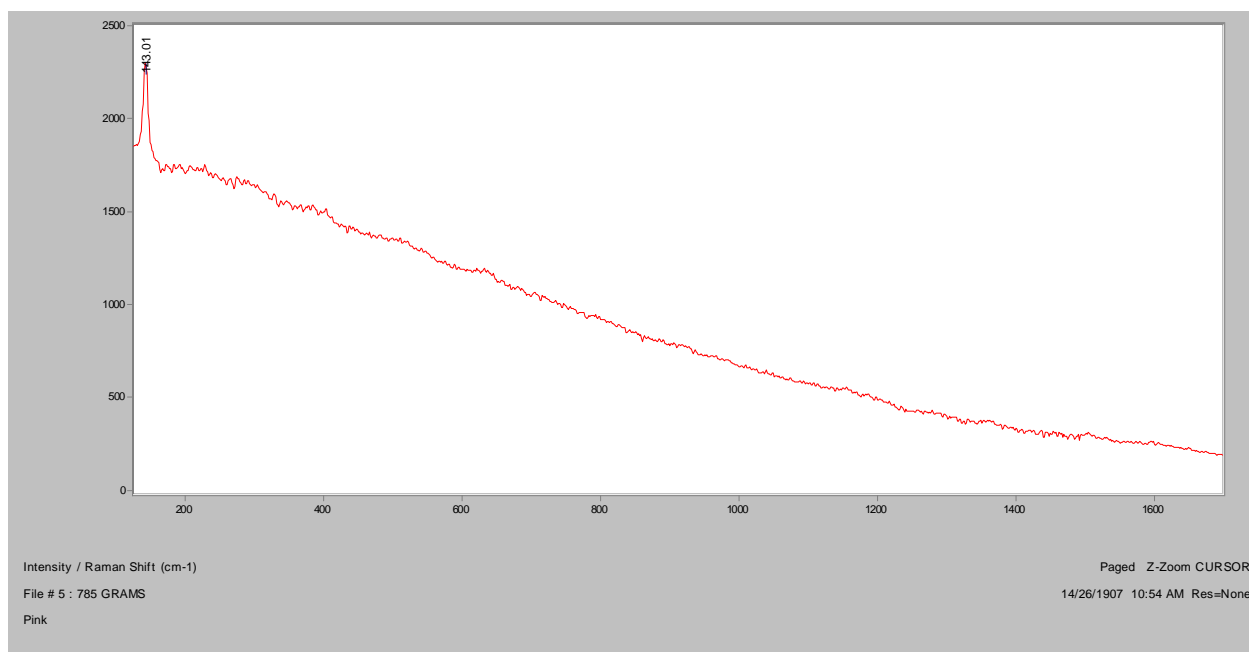
Normal Raman, 488nm



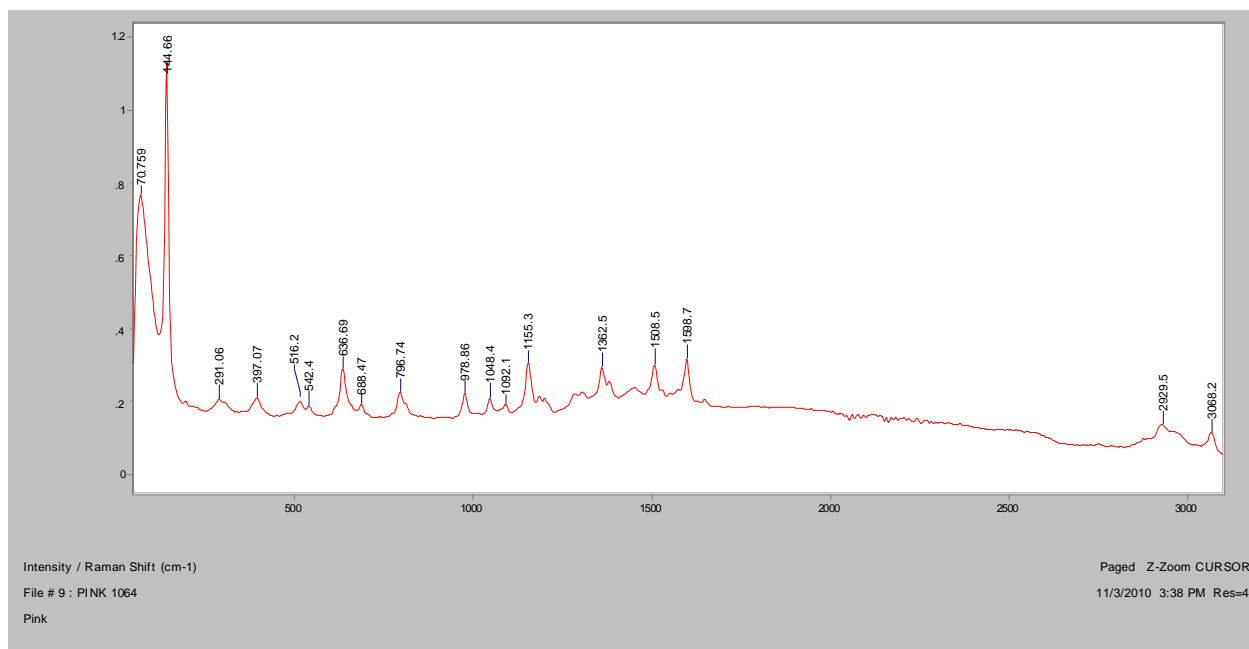
Normal Raman, 633nm

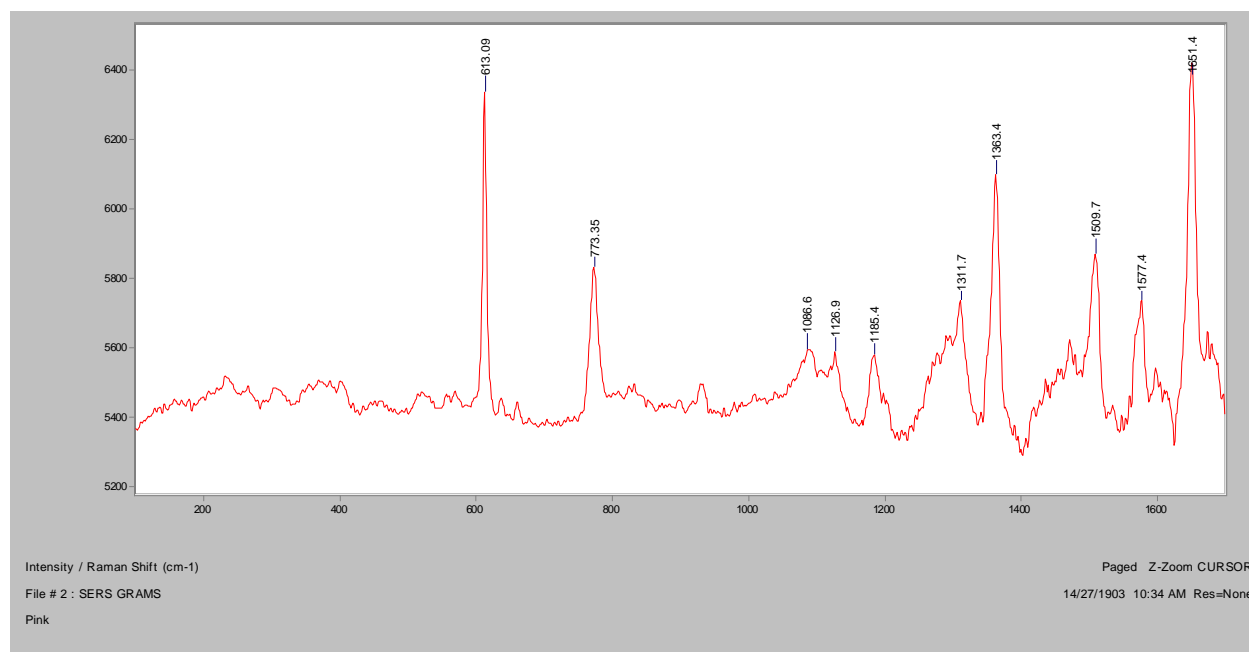
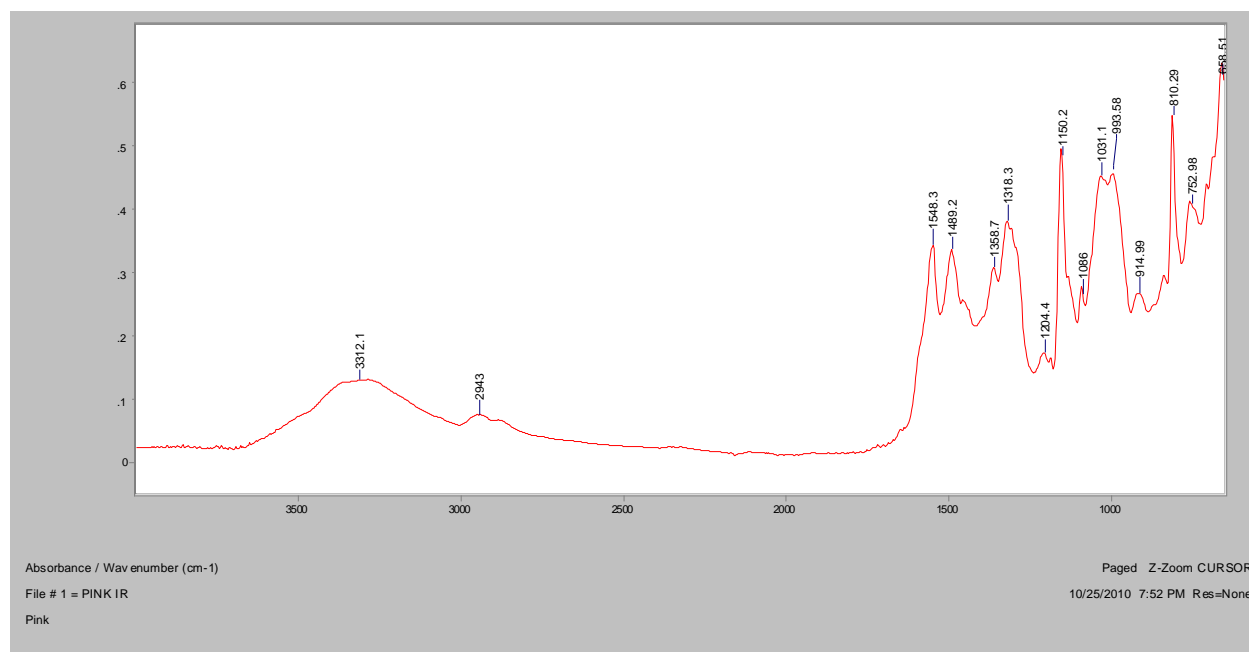


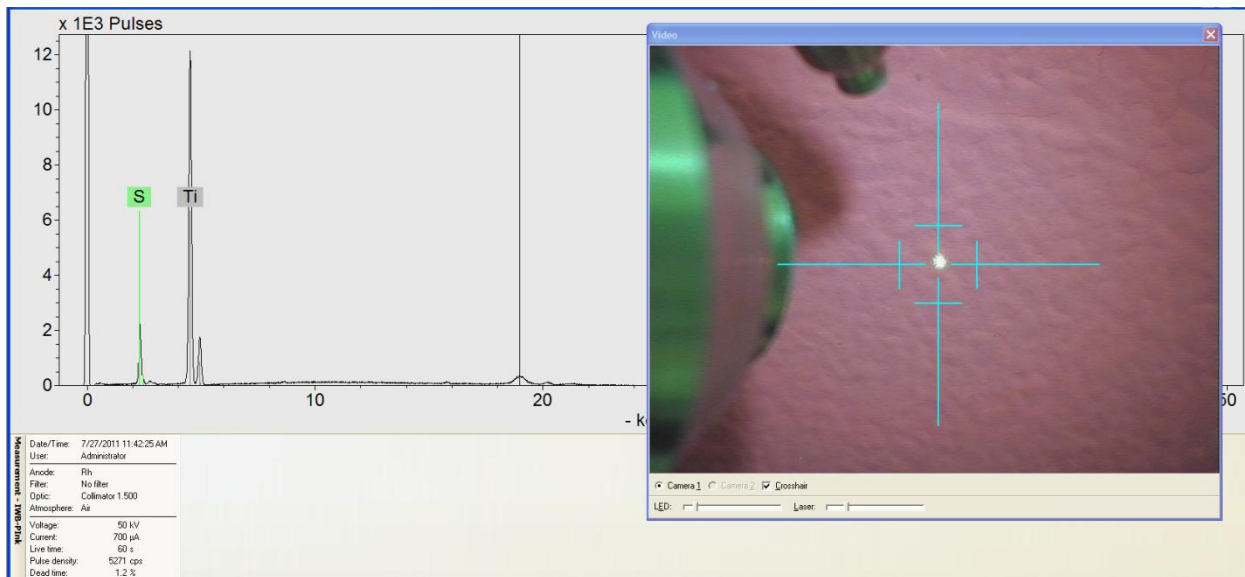
Normal Raman, 785nm

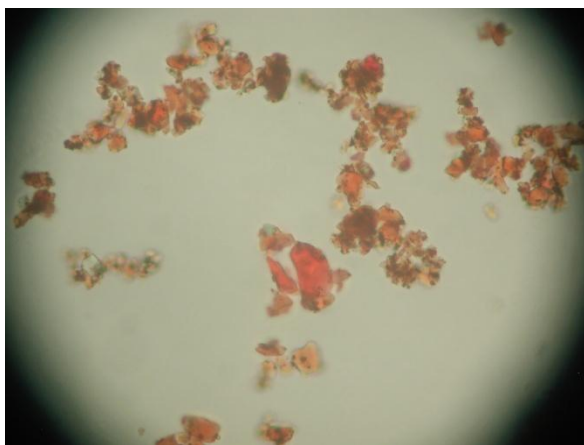
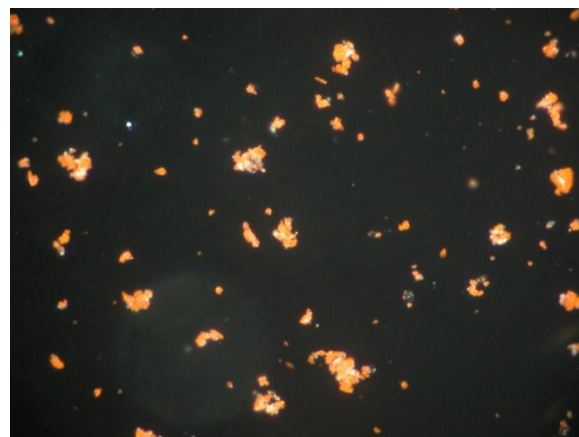


FT-Raman, 1064nm

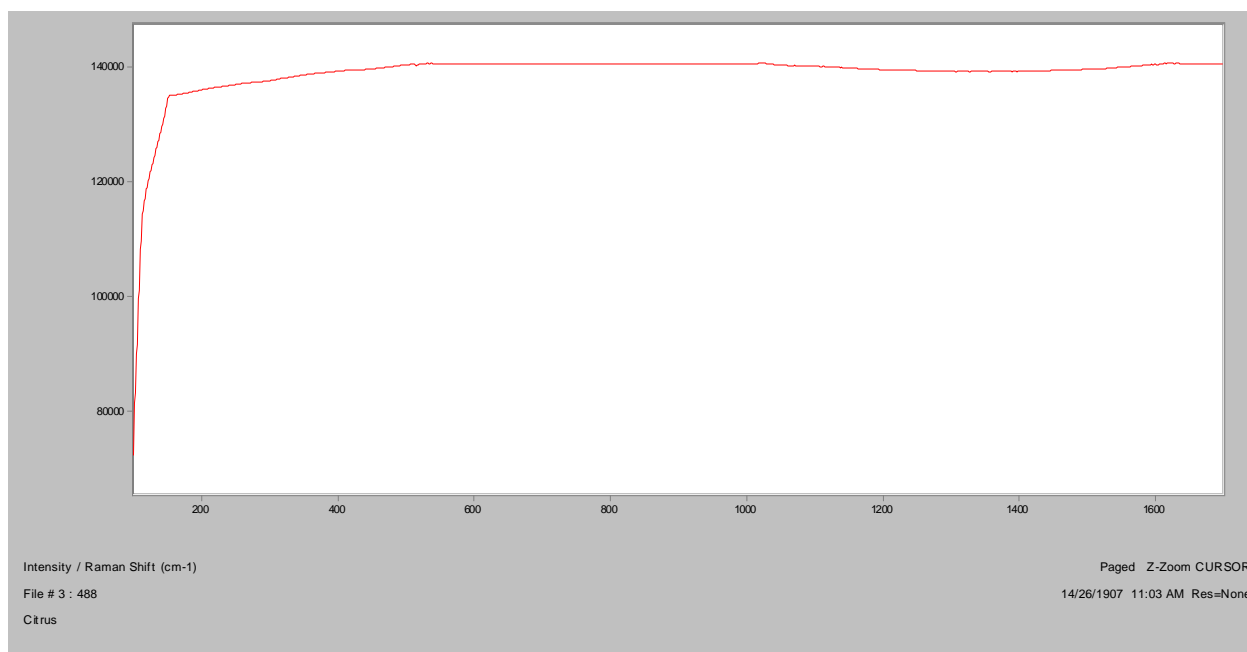


SERS, 488nm**FT-IR (ATR)**

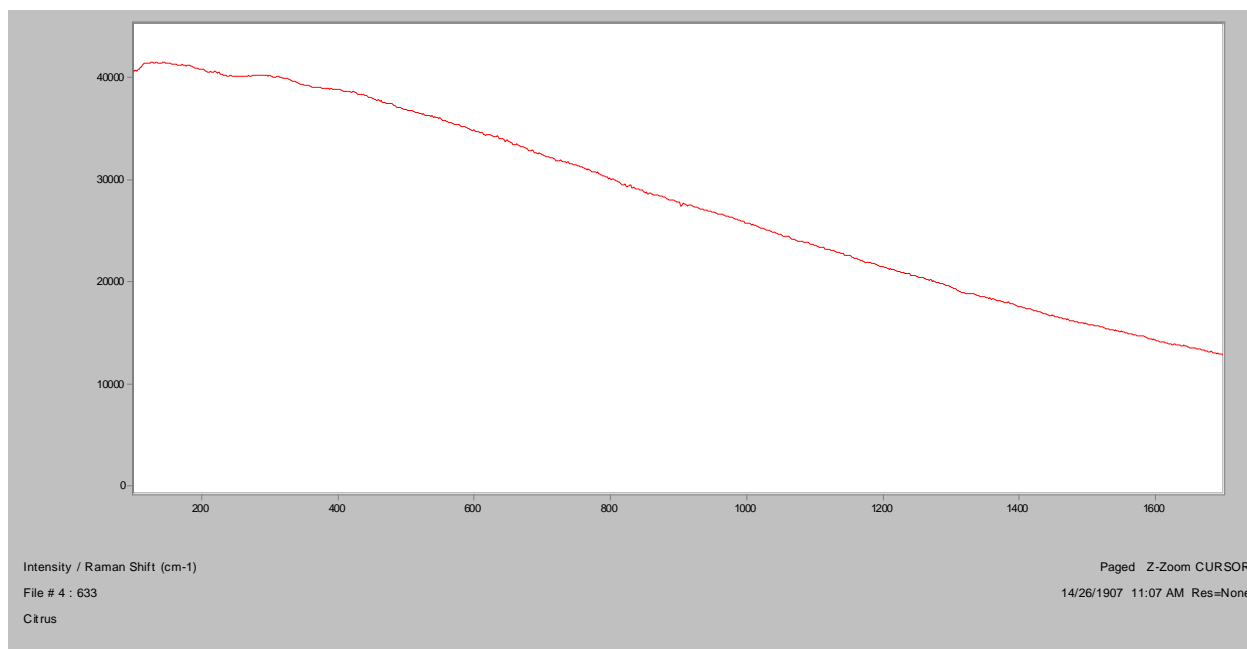
XRF

Citrus**Bright Field, 100x****Dark Field, 400x****In RI 1.550, 400x****Crossed polars, In RI 1.550, 200x**

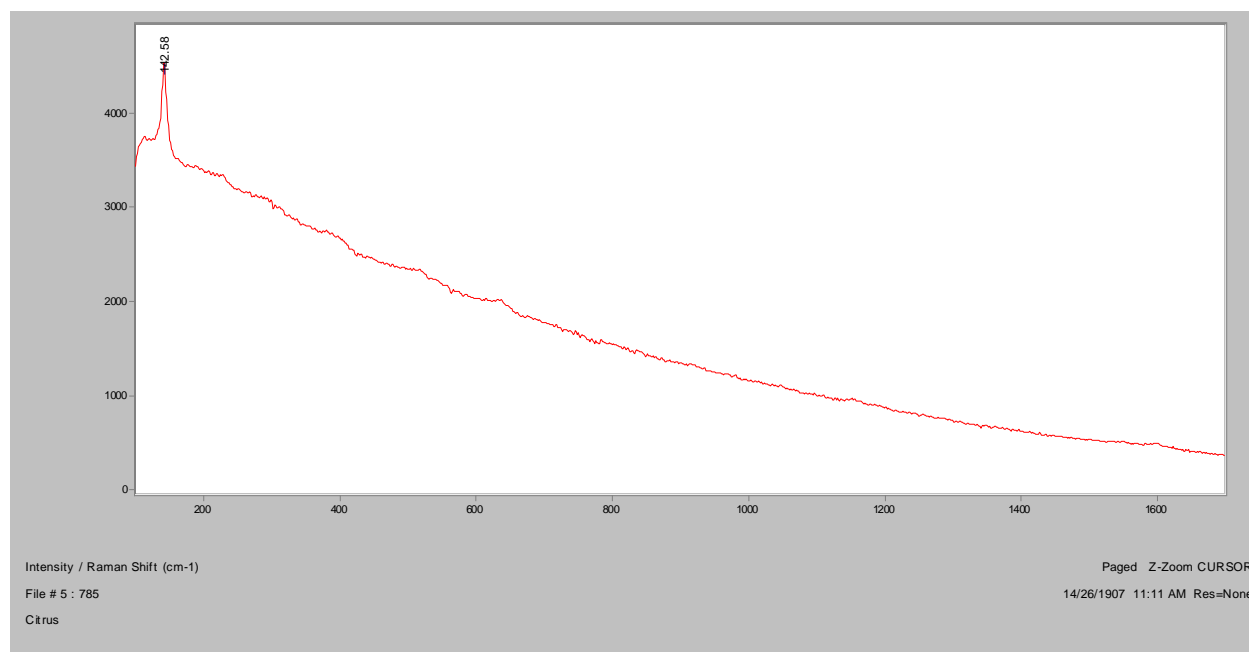
Normal Raman, 488nm



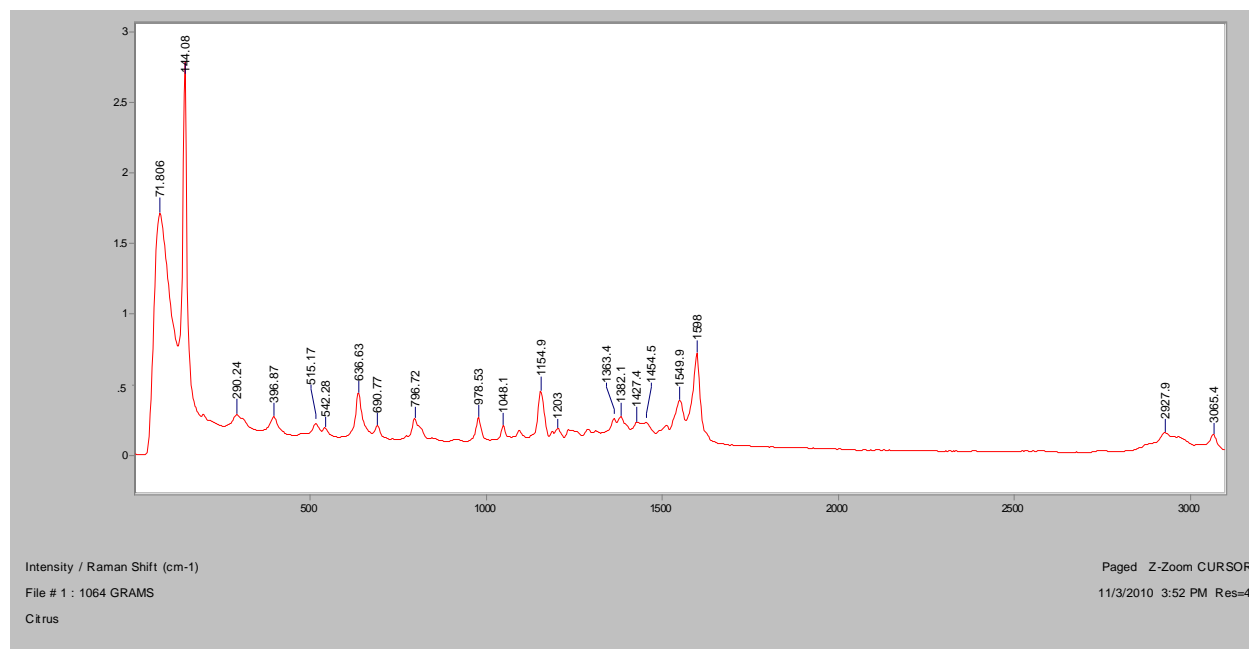
Normal Raman, 633nm



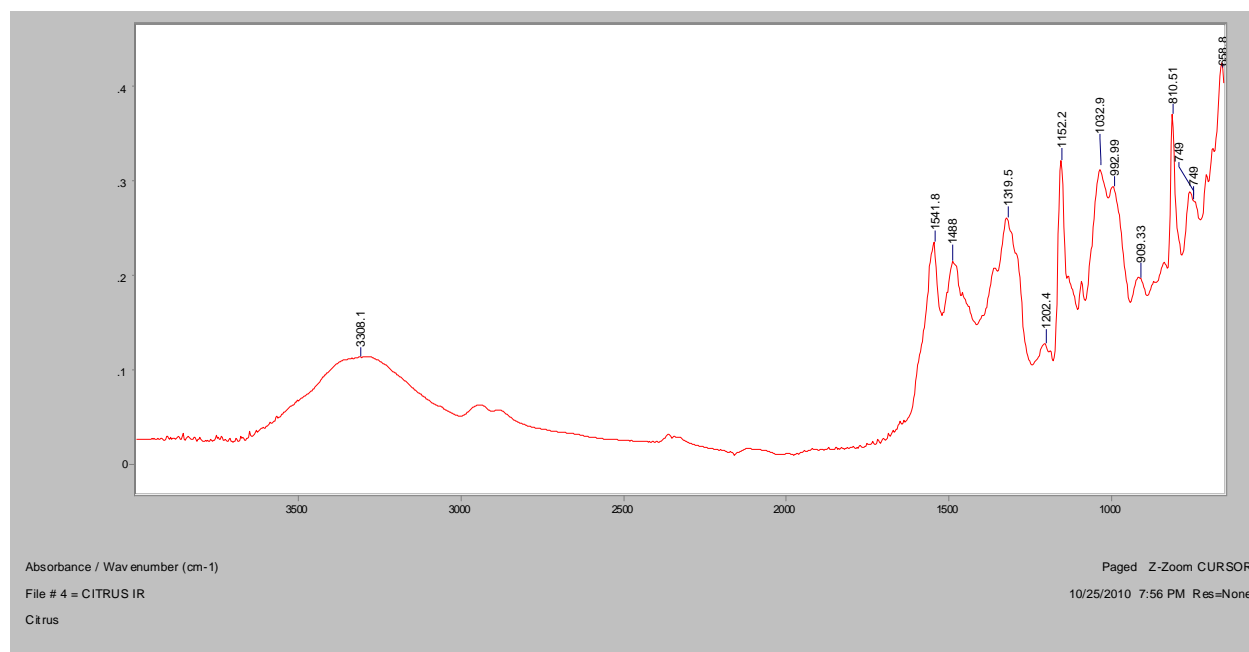
Normal Raman, 785nm



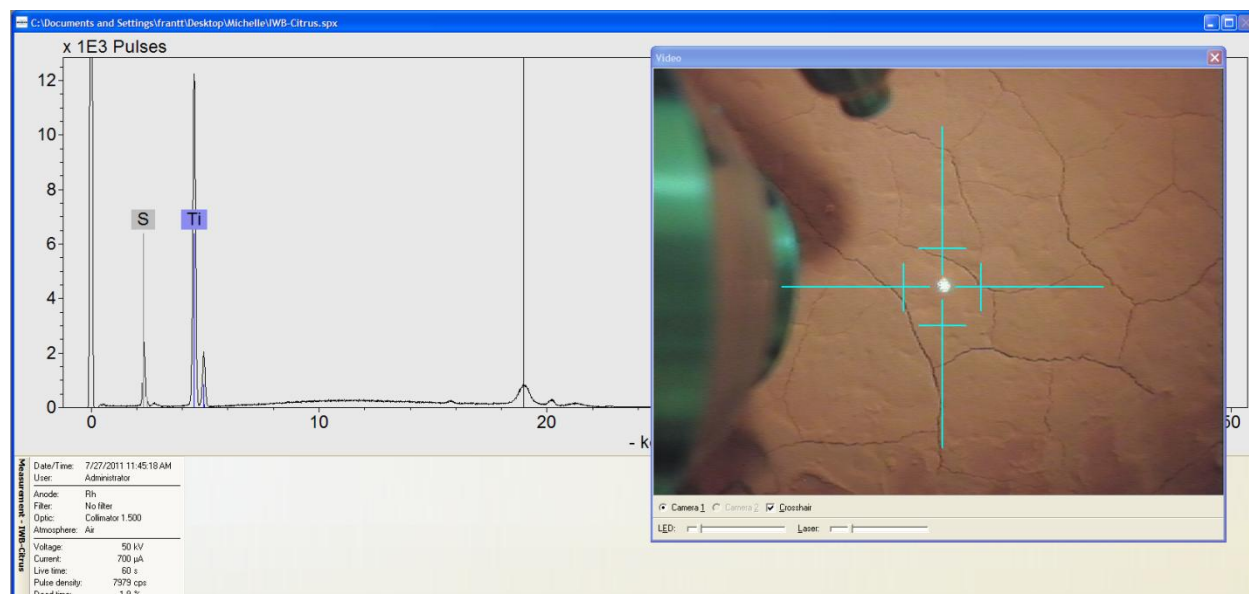
FT-Raman, 1064nm



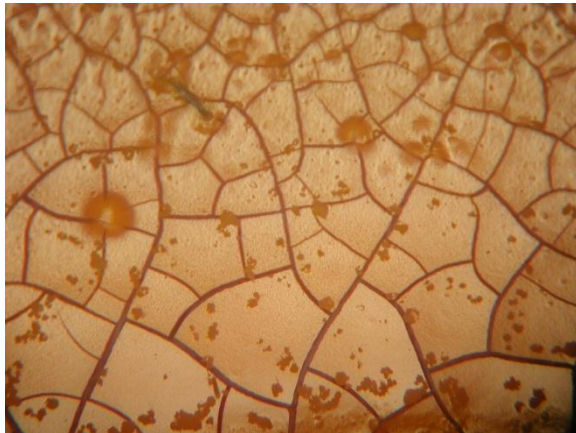
FT-IR (ATR)



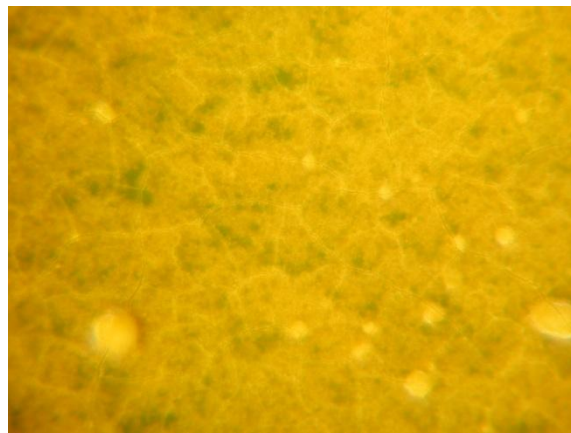
XRF



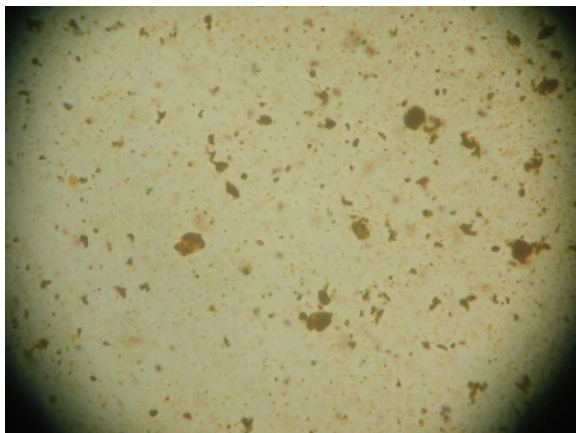
Amarelo Canario



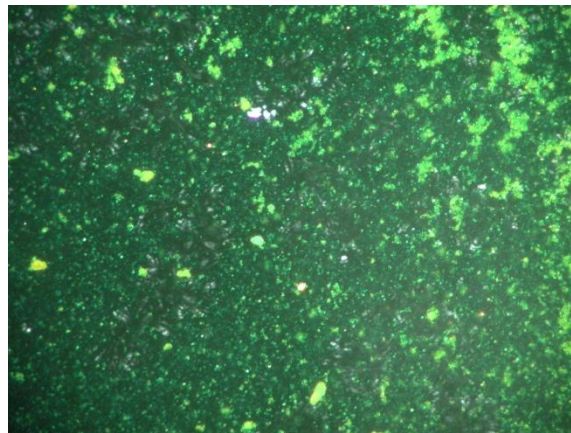
Bright Field, 100x



Dark Field, 400x

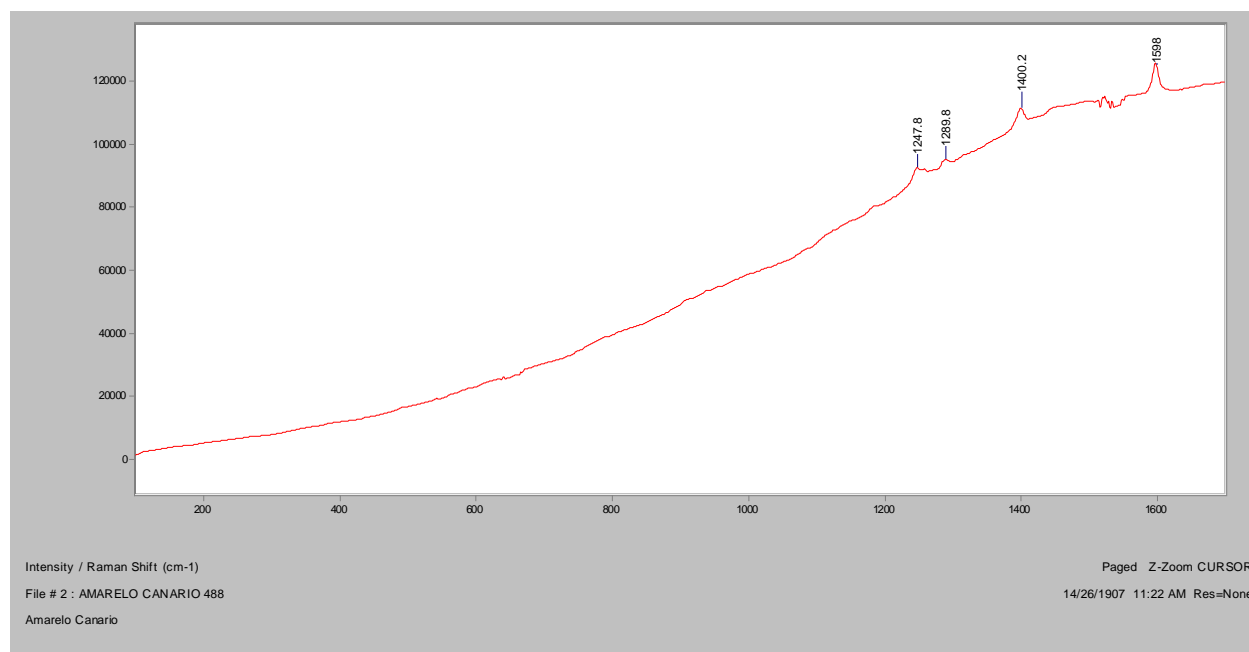


In RI 1.550, 400x

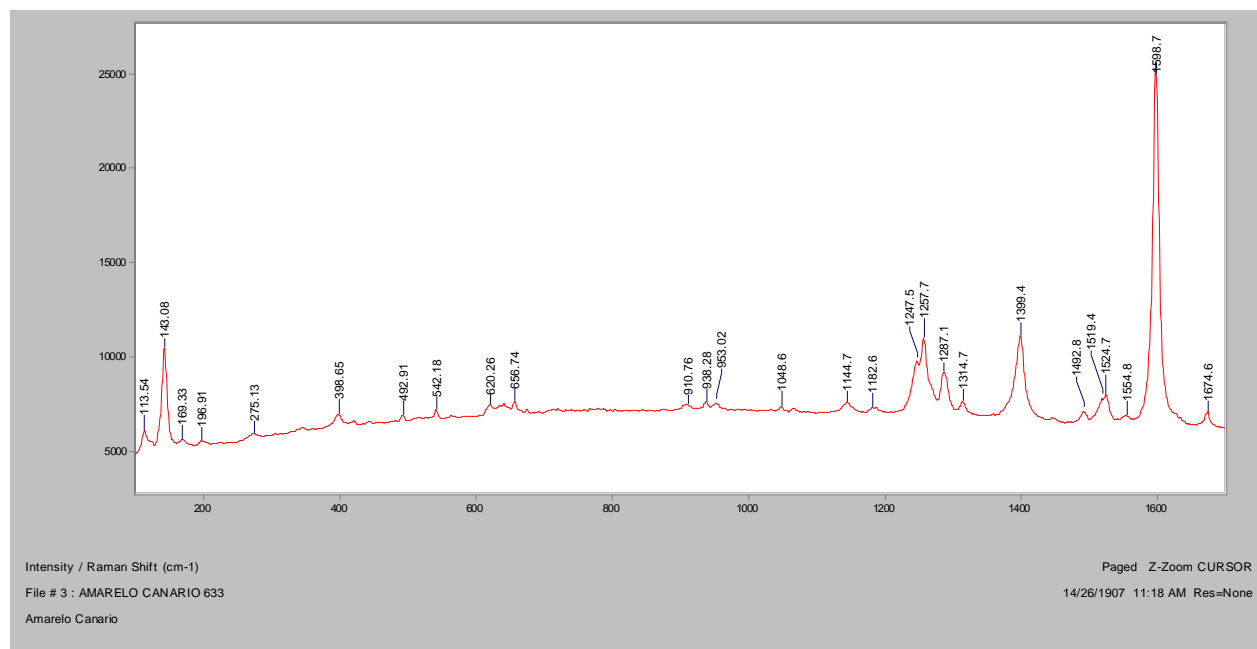


Crossed polars, In RI 1.550, 200x

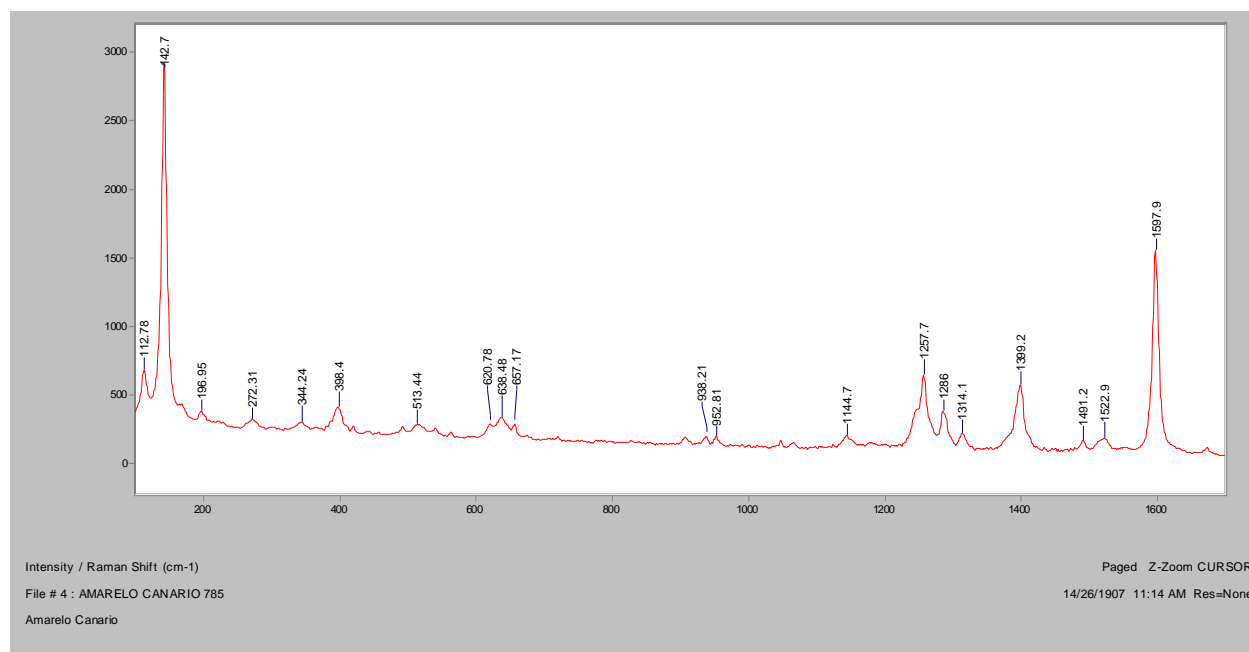
Normal Raman, 488nm



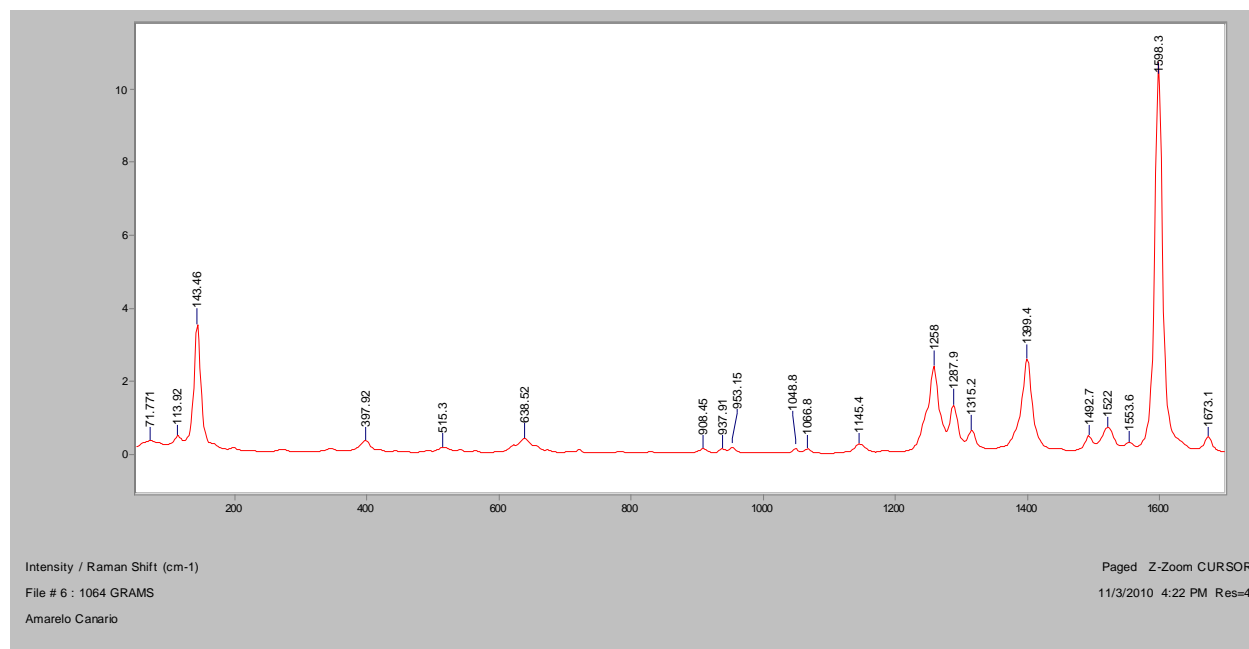
Normal Raman, 633nm

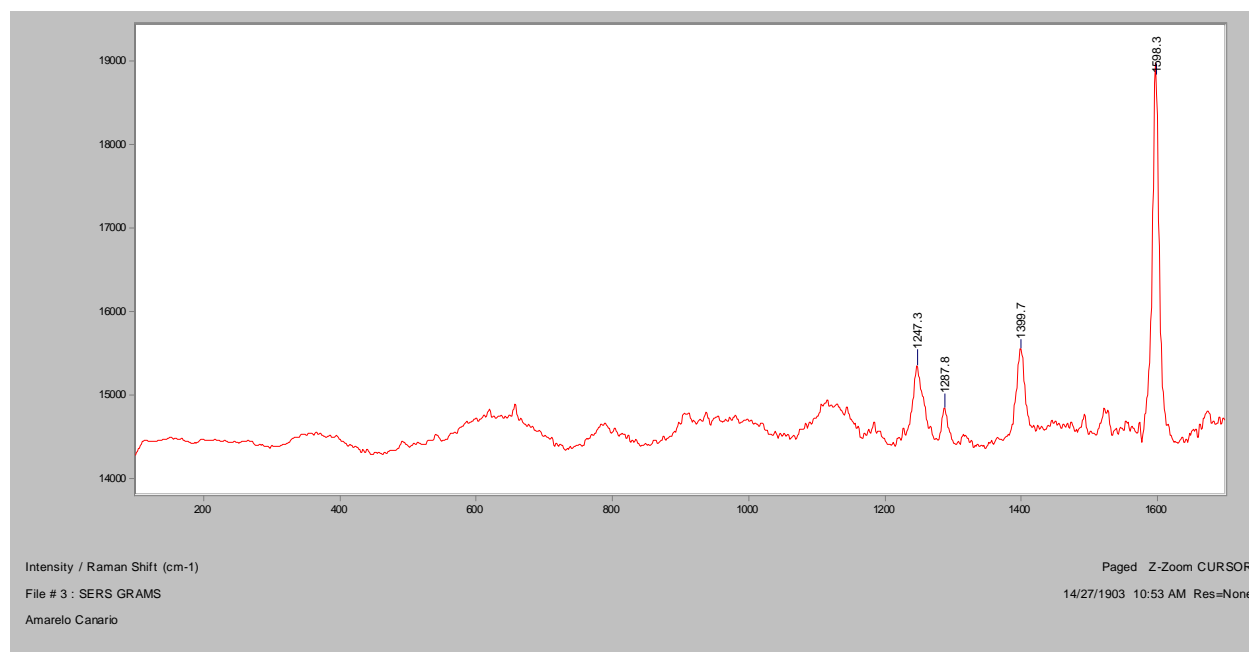
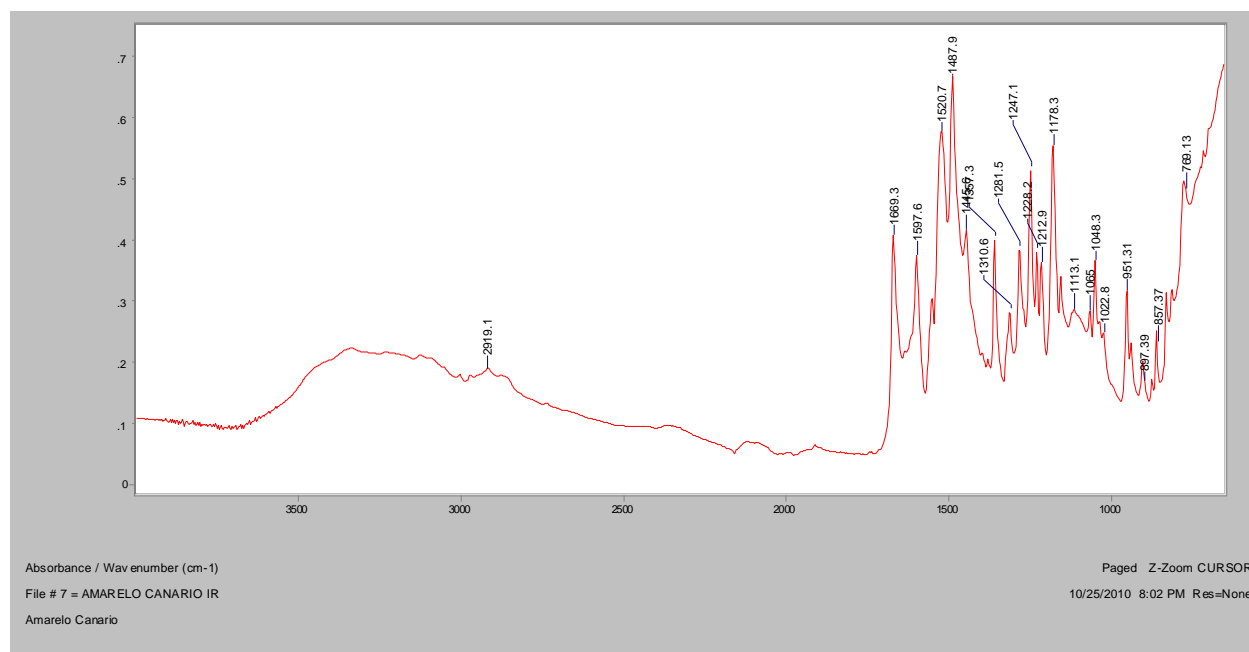


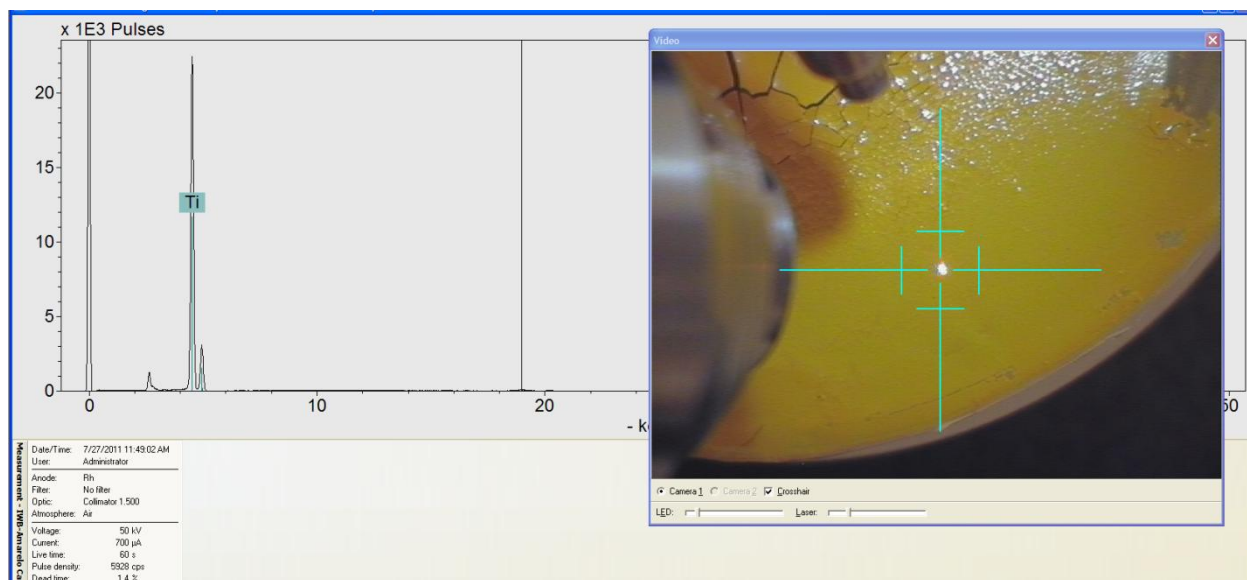
Normal Raman, 785nm

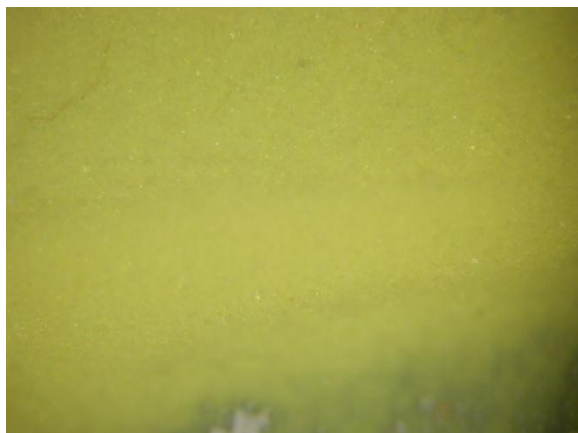
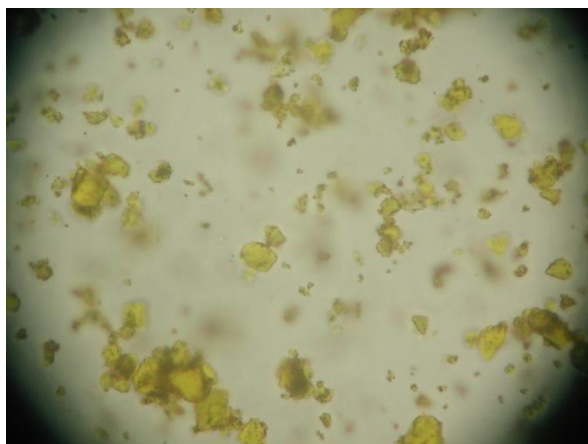
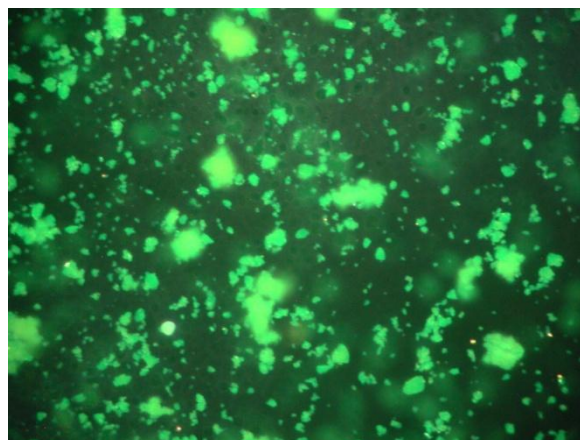


FT-Raman, 1064nm

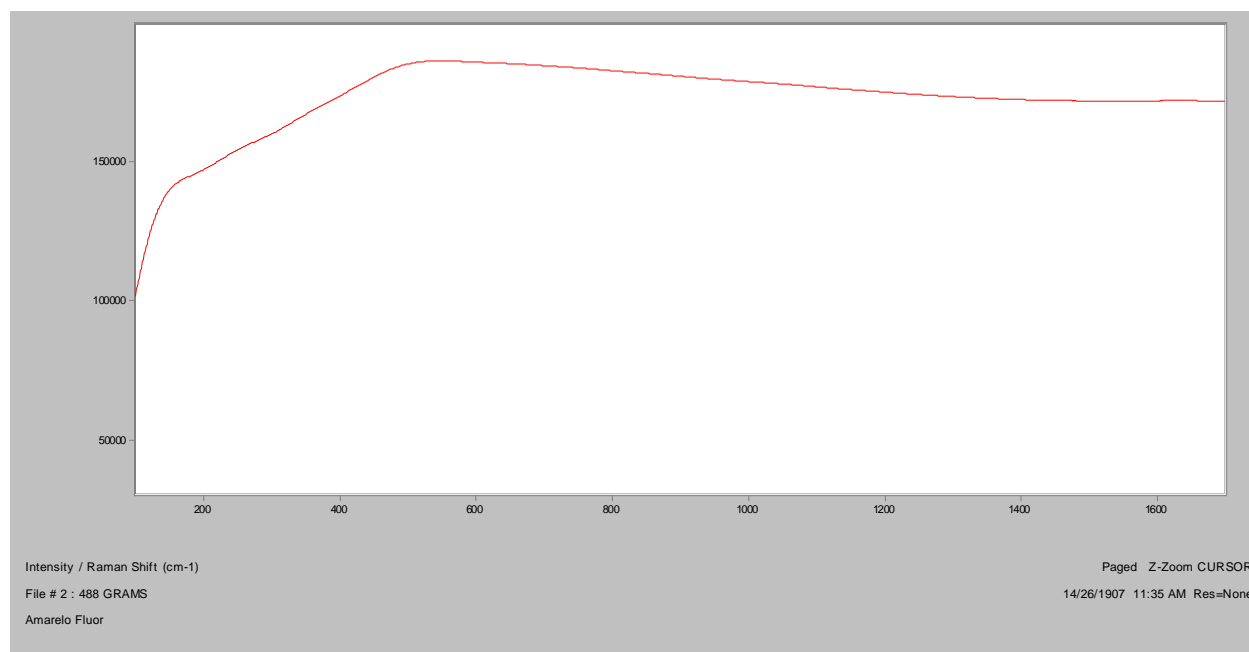


SERS, 488nm**FT-IR (ATR)**

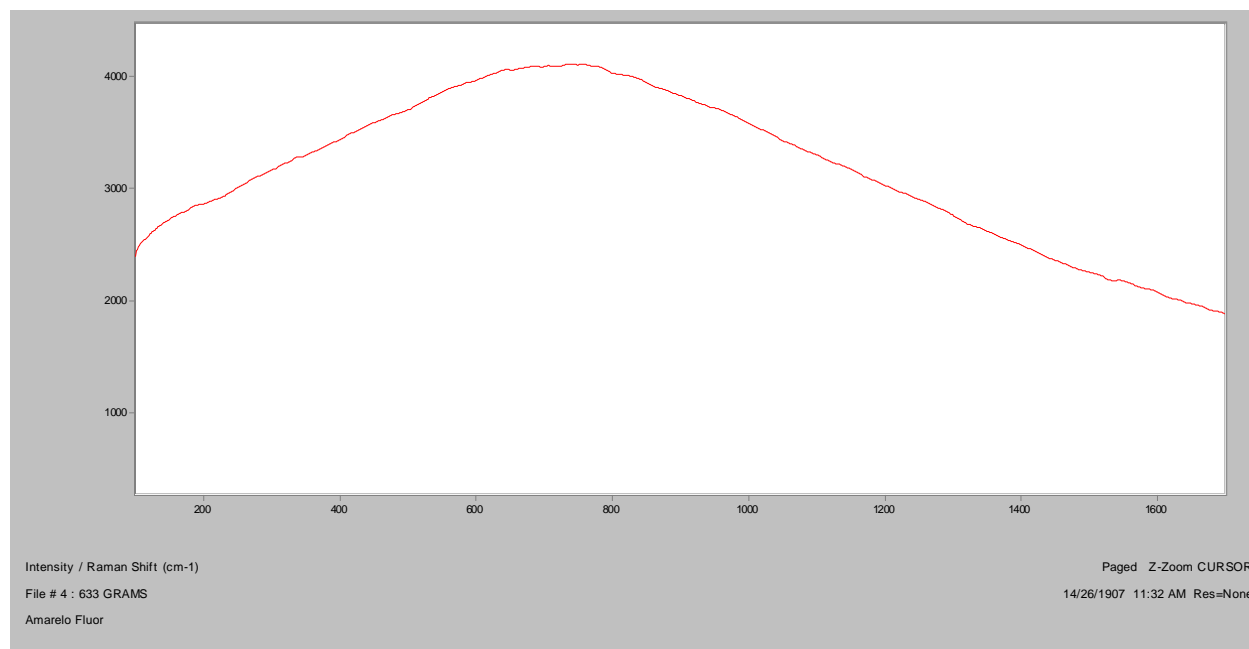
XRF

Amarelo Fluor**Bright Field, 100x****Dark Field, 100x****In RI 1.550, 400x****Crossed polars, In RI 1.550, 200x**

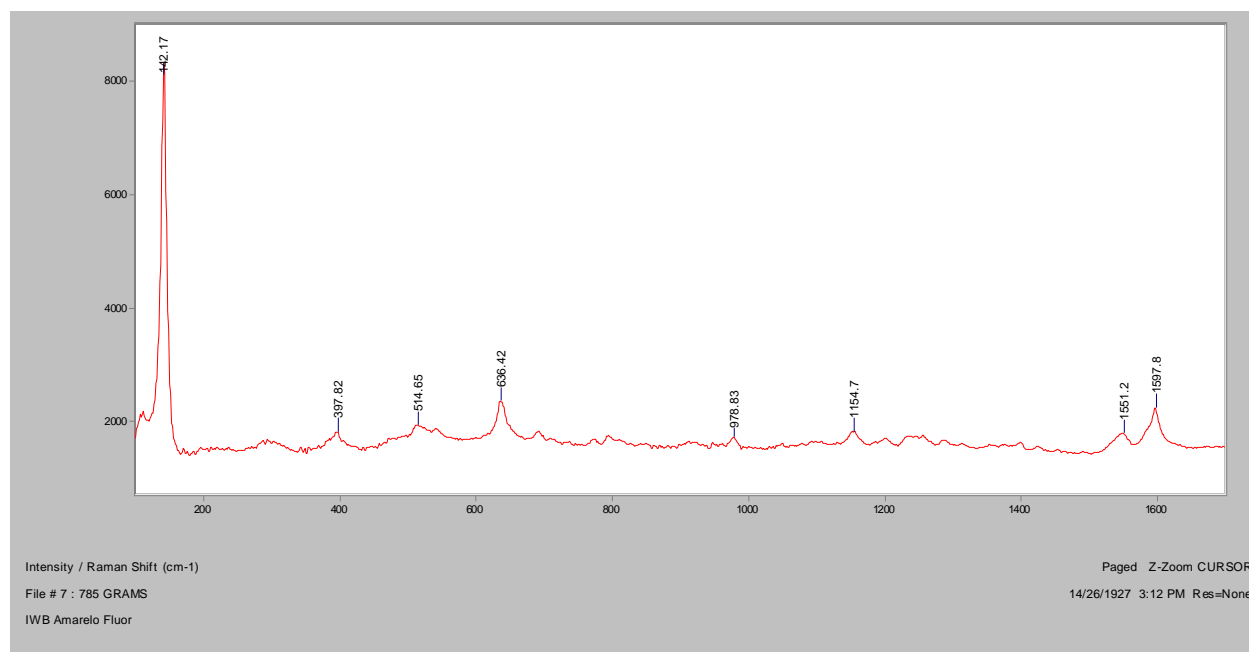
Normal Raman, 488nm



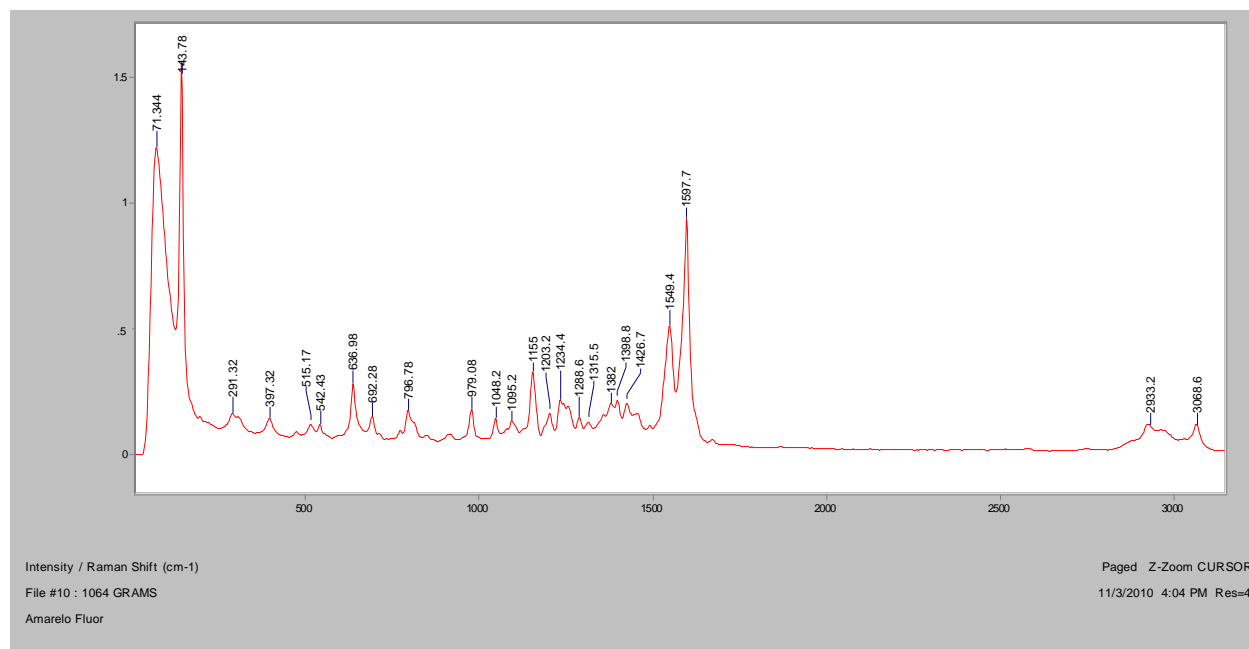
Normal Raman, 633nm



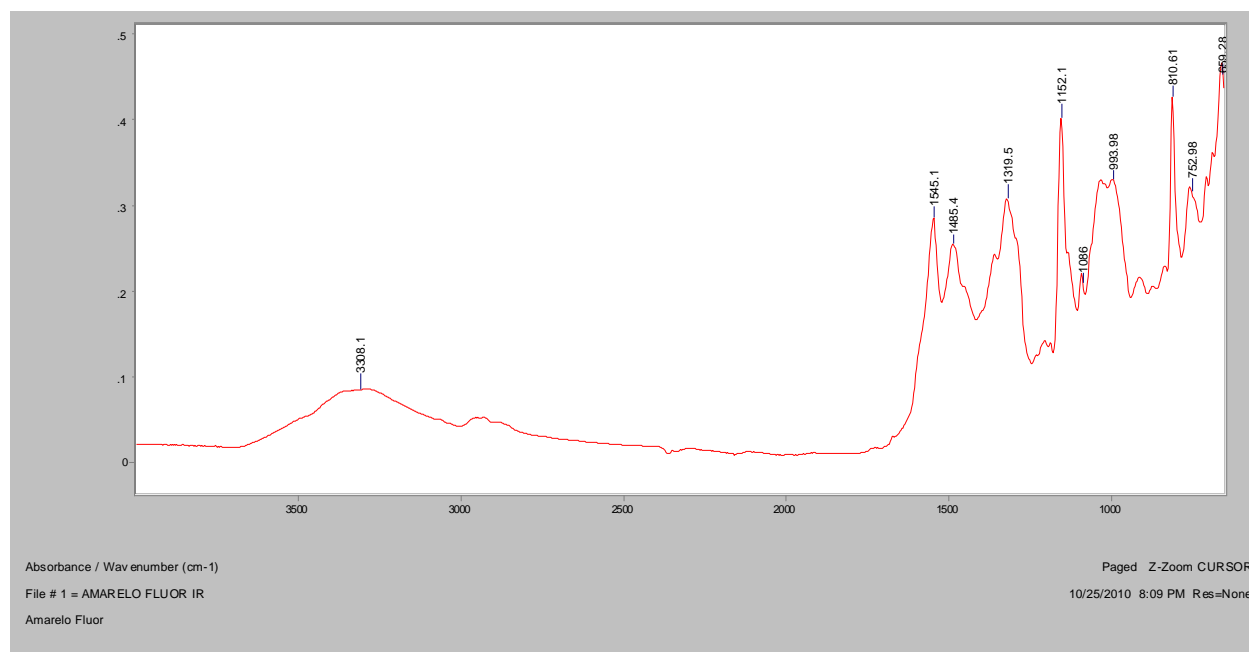
Normal Raman, 785nm



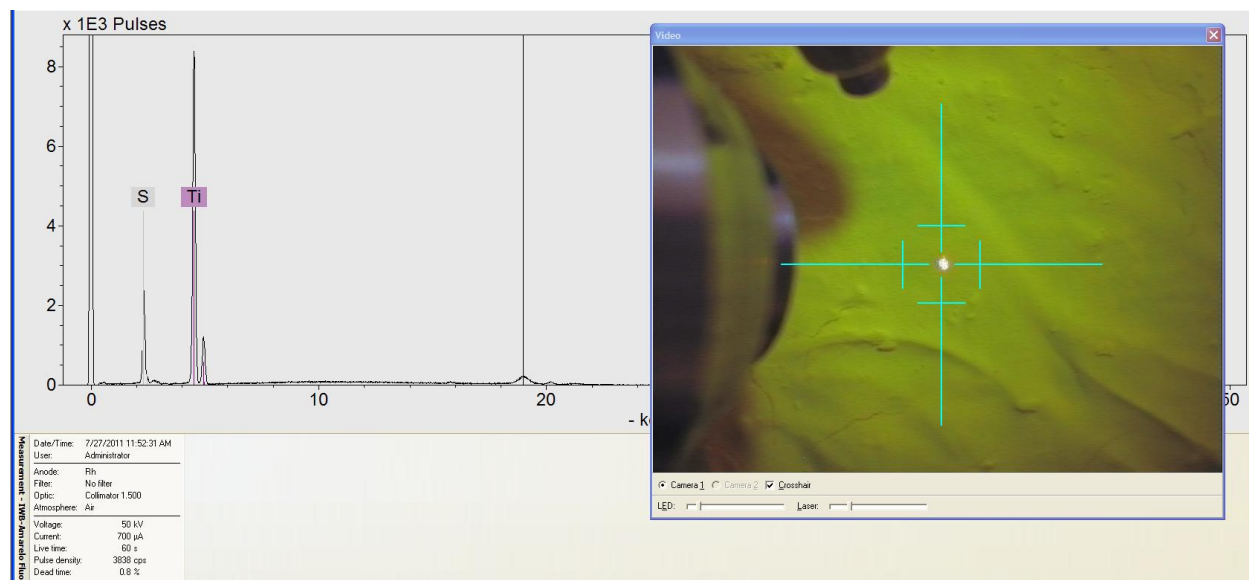
FT-Raman, 1064nm



FT-IR (ATR)



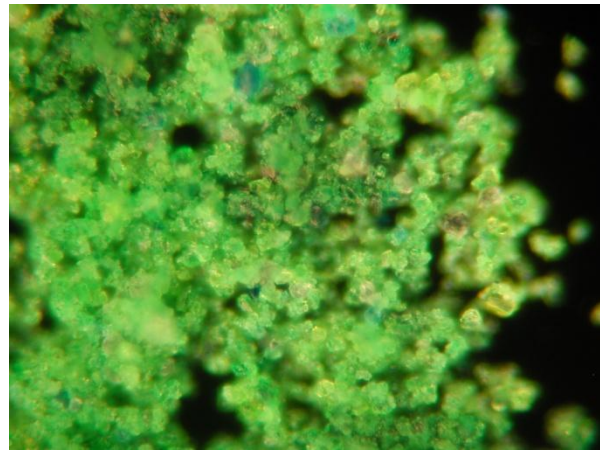
XRF



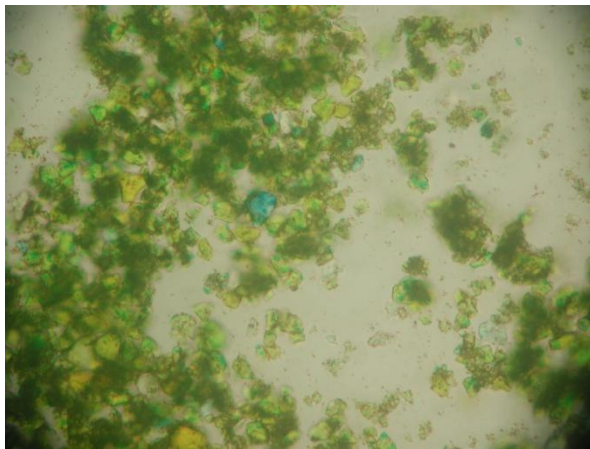
Verde Claro



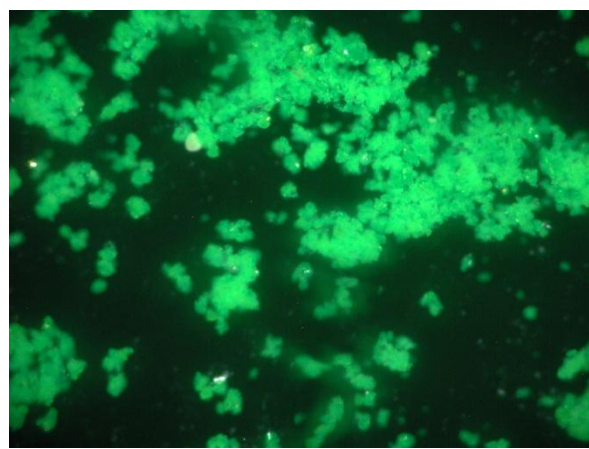
Bright Field, 400x



Dark Field, 400x

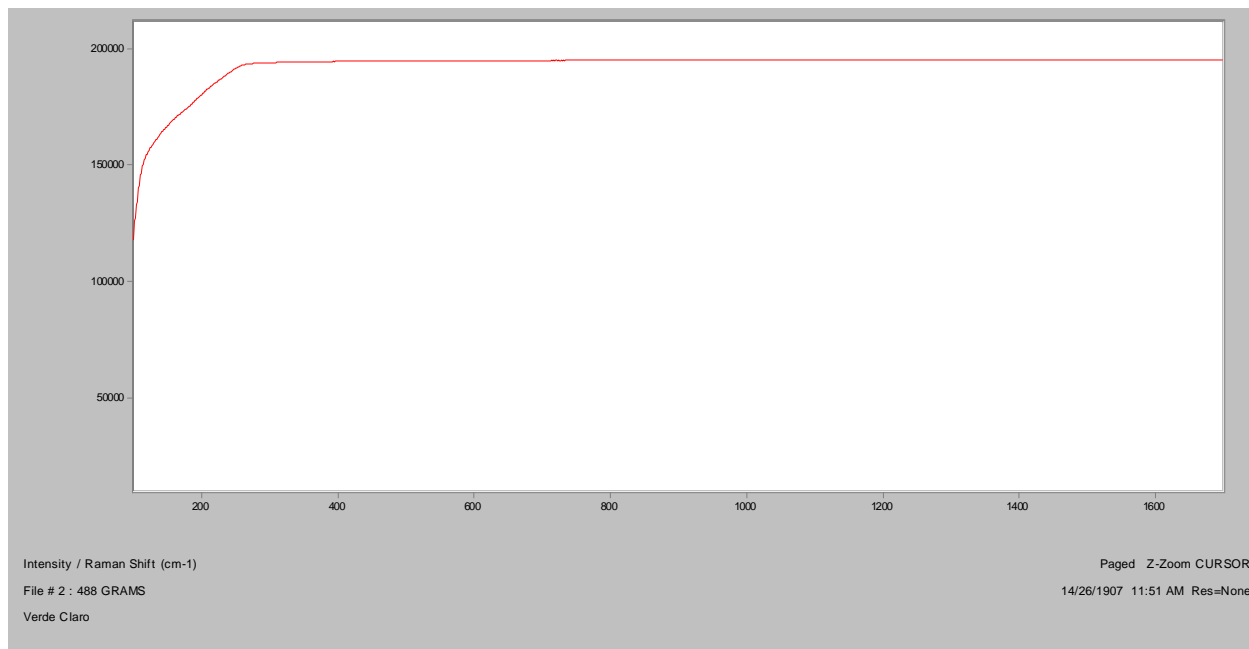


In RI 1.550, 400x

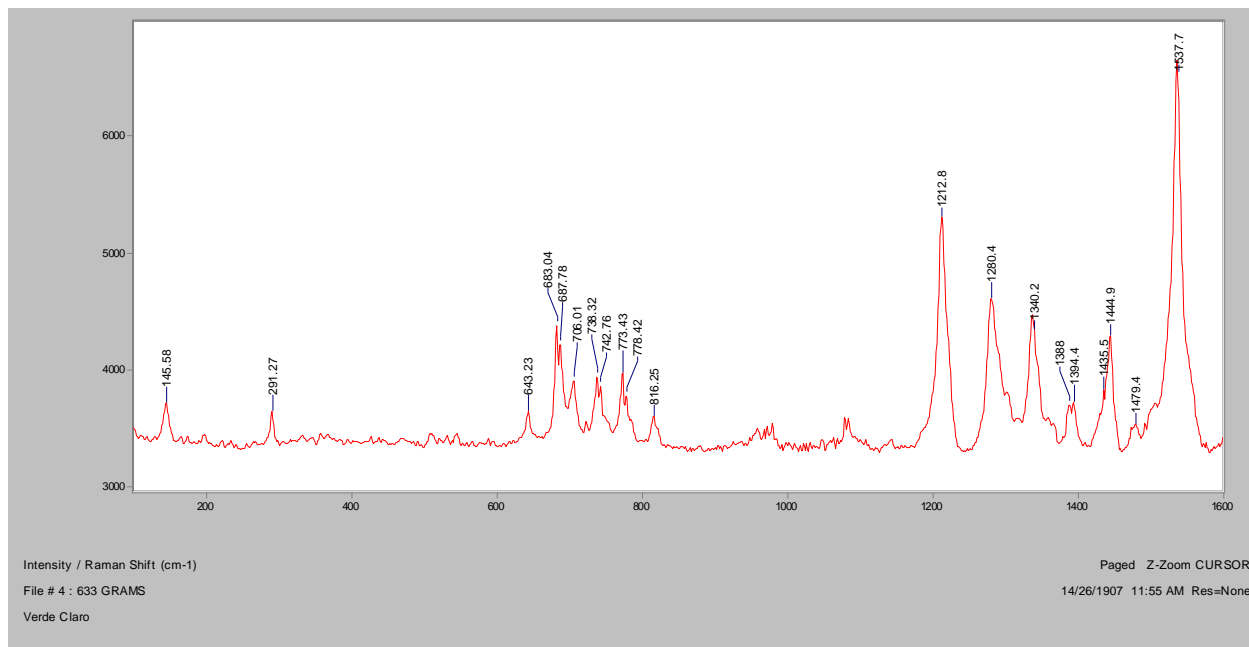


Crossed polars, In RI 1.550, 200x

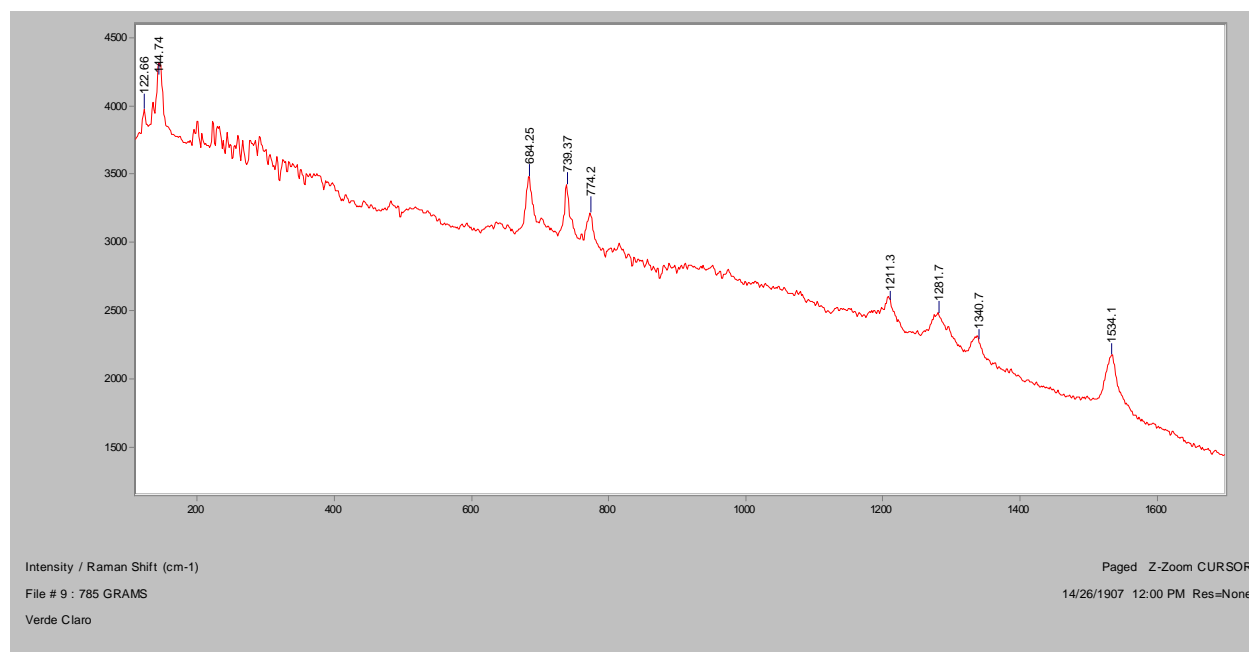
Normal Raman, 488nm



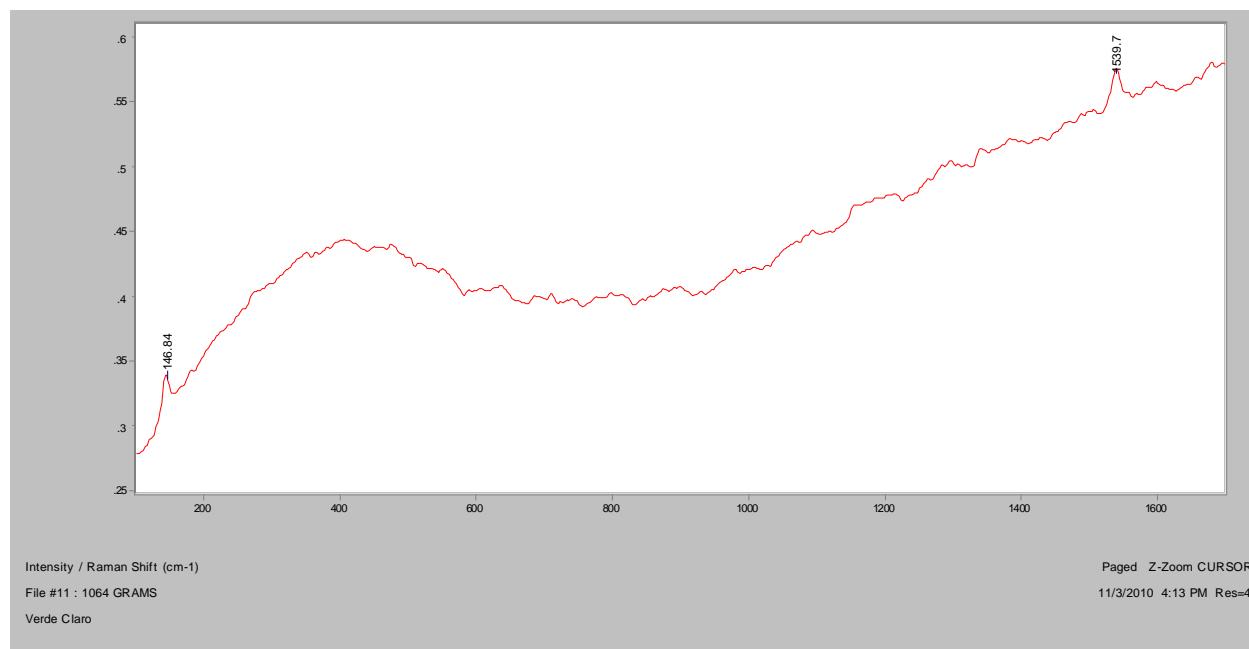
Normal Raman, 633nm



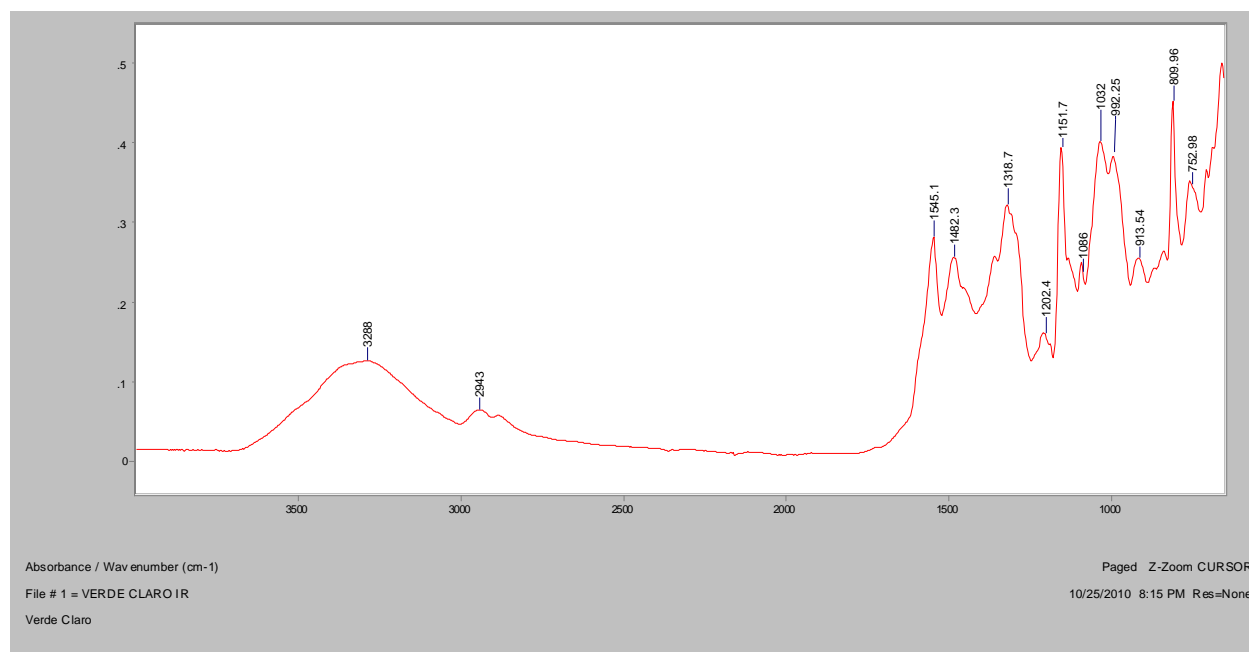
Normal Raman, 785nm



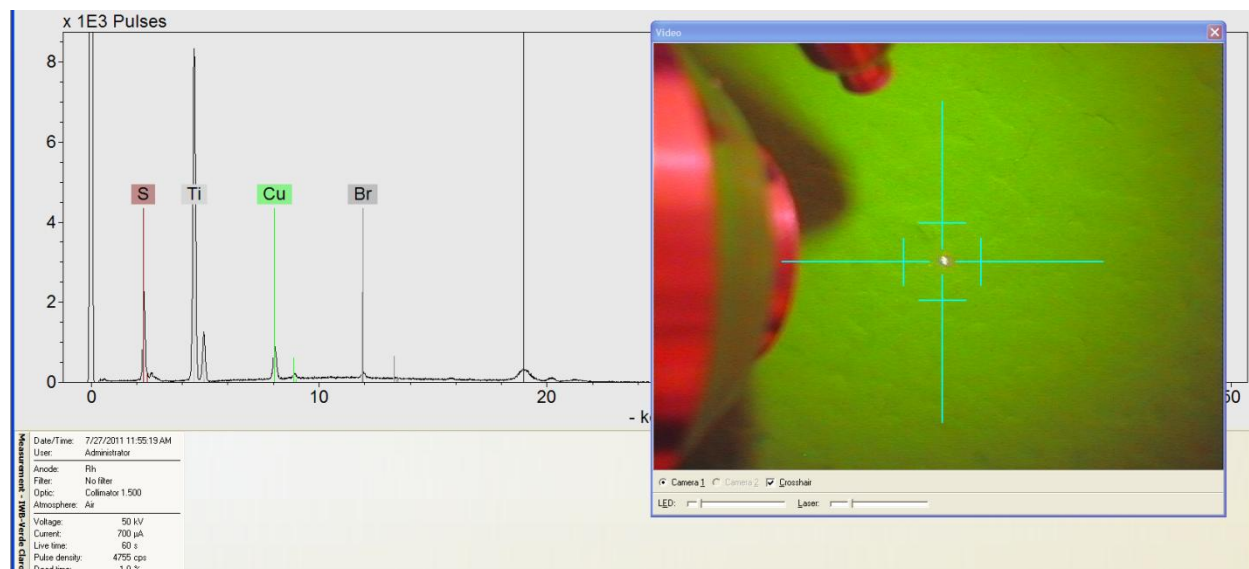
FT-Raman, 1064nm

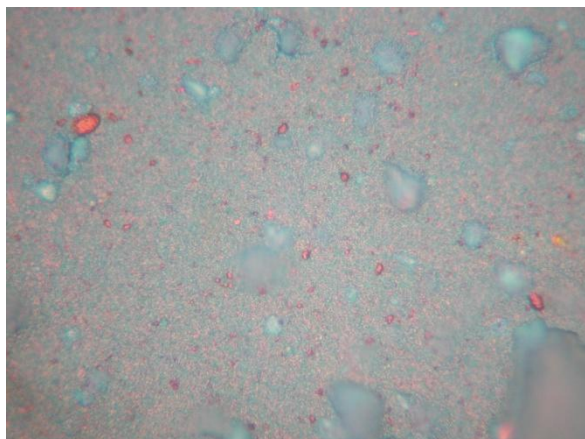
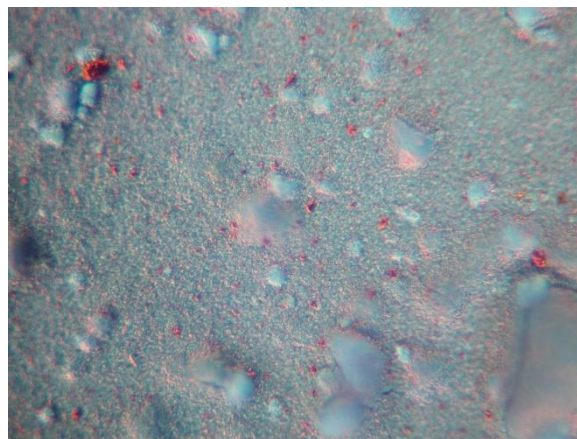
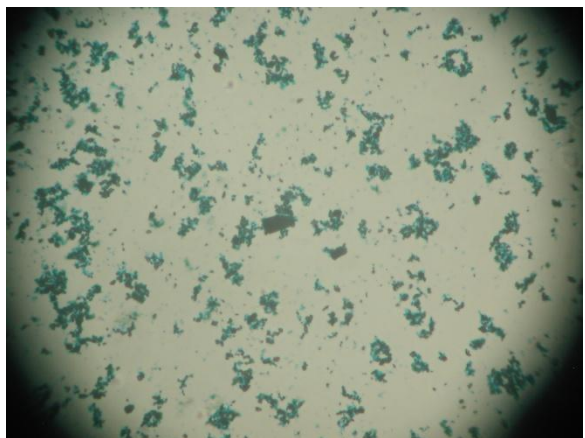
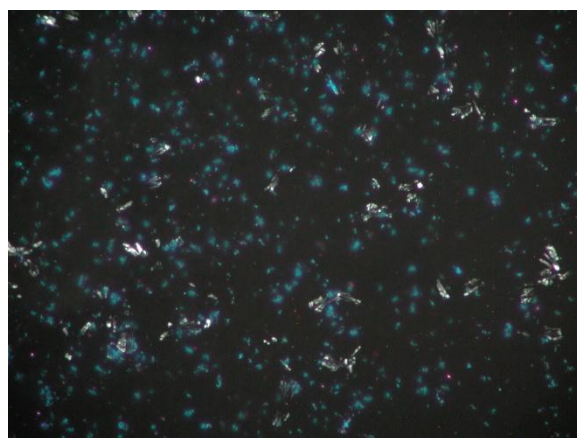
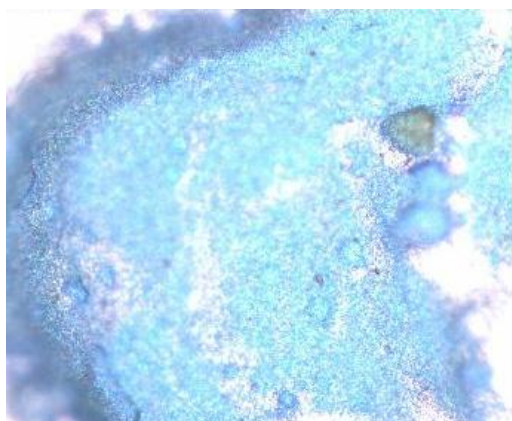


FT-IR (ATR)

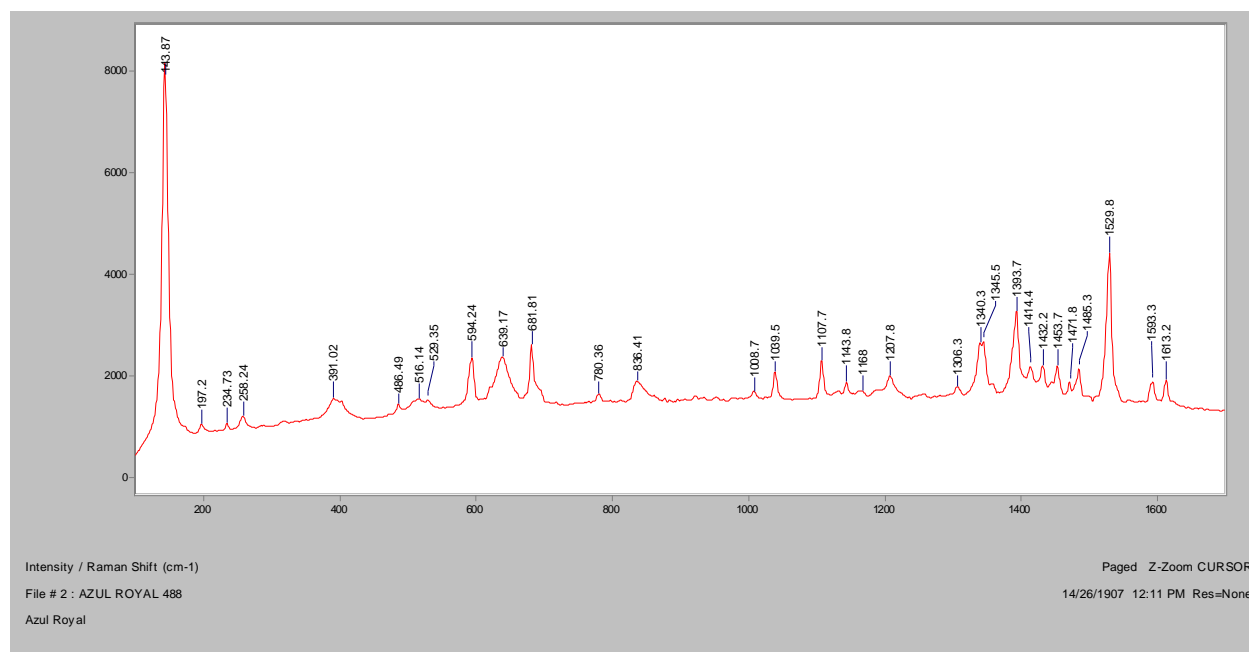


XRF

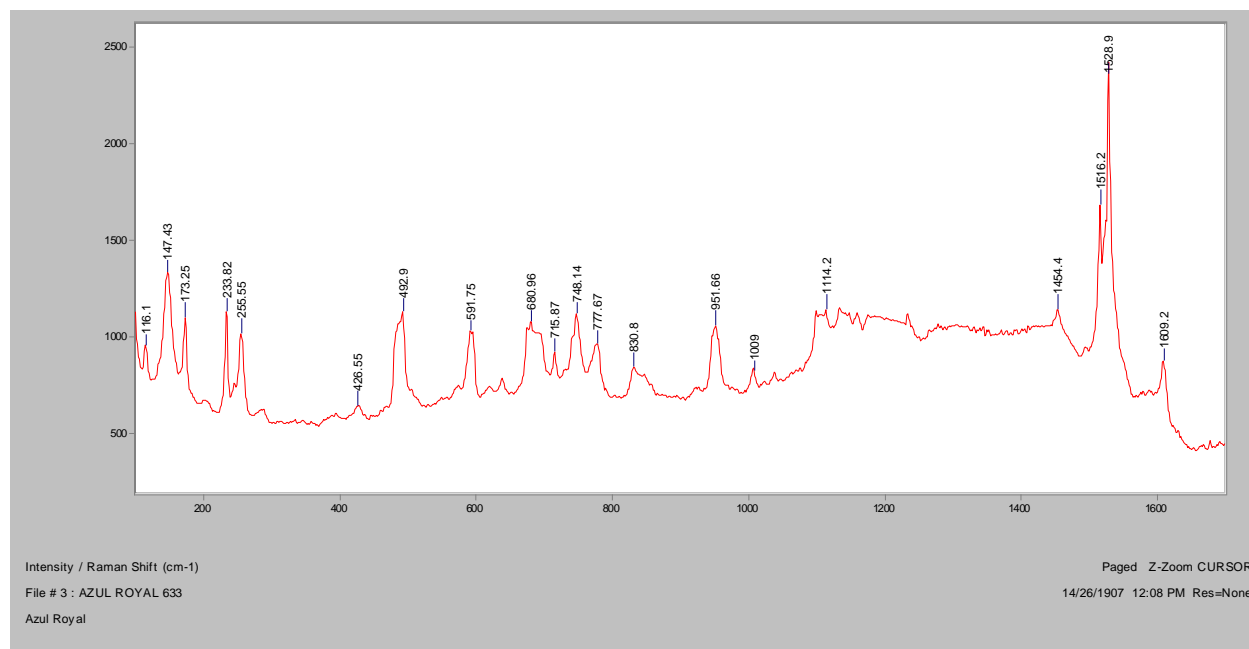


Azul Royal**Bright Field, 400x****Dark Field, 400x****In RI 1.550, 400x****Crossed polars, In RI 1.550, 200x****Raman microscope image, 200x**

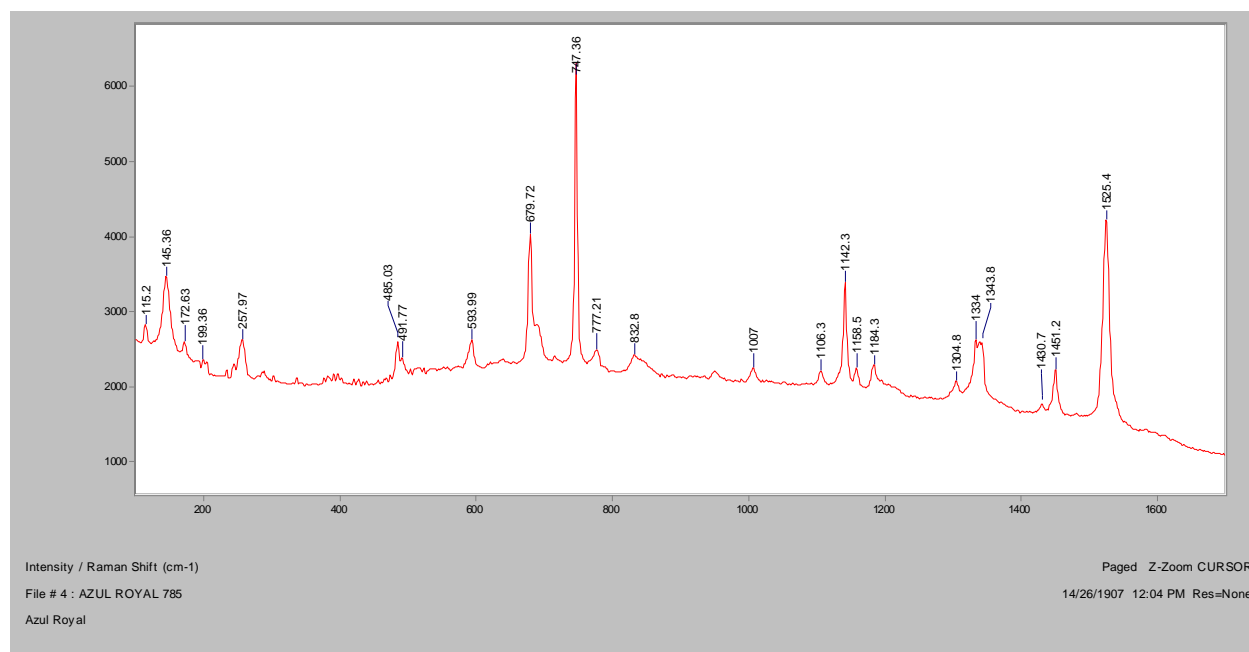
Normal Raman, 488nm



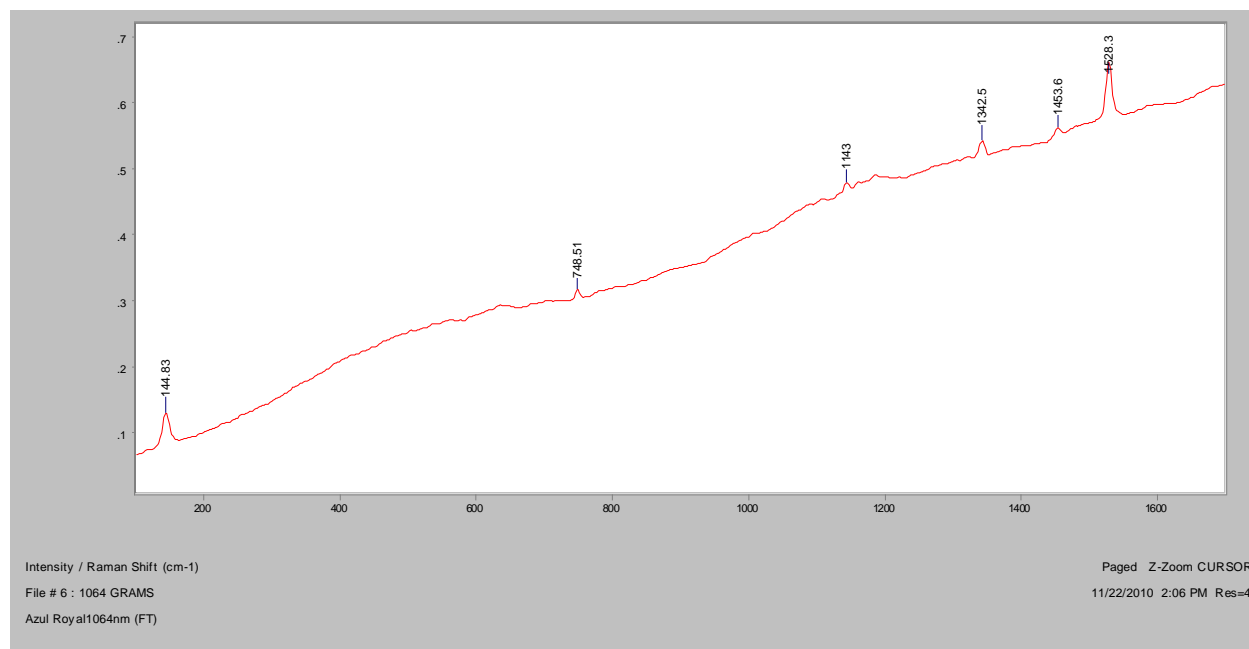
Normal Raman, 633nm



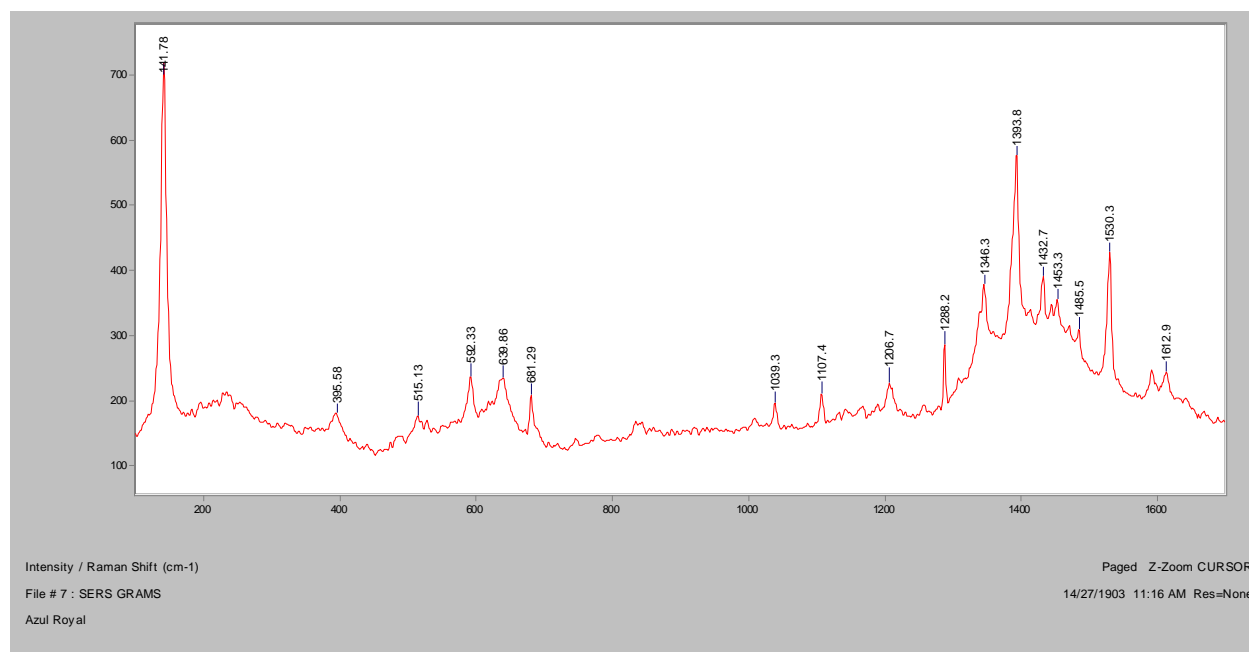
Normal Raman, 785nm



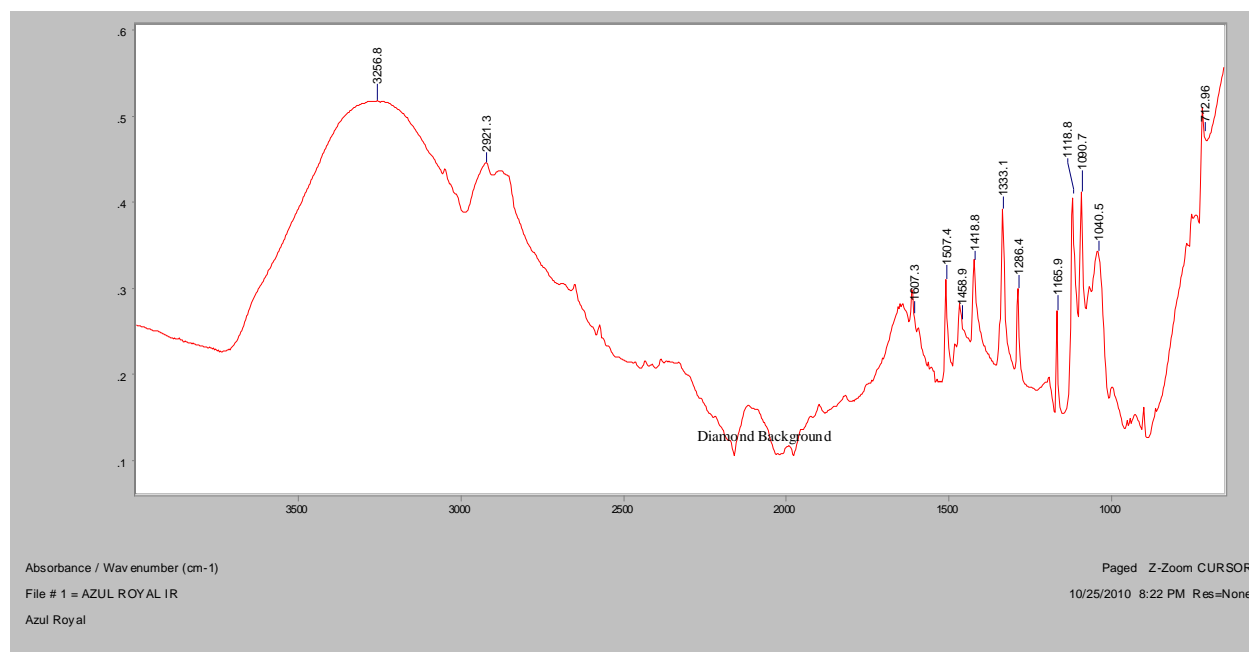
FT-Raman, 1064nm



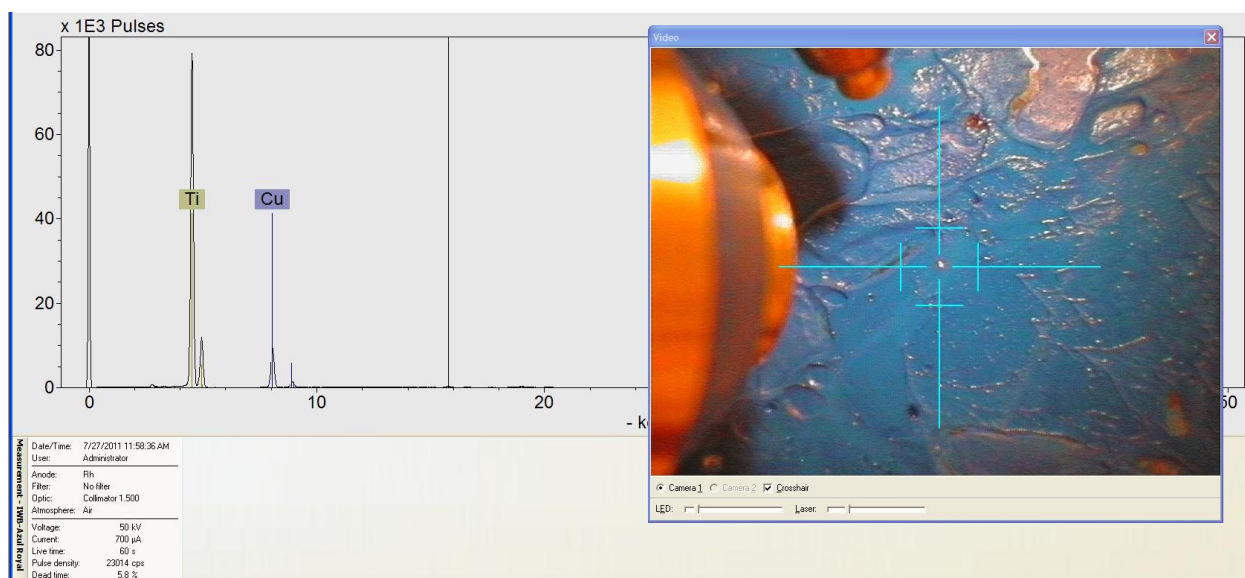
SERS, 488nm

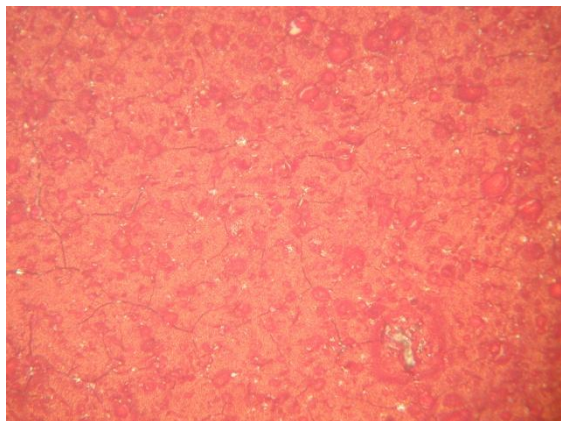
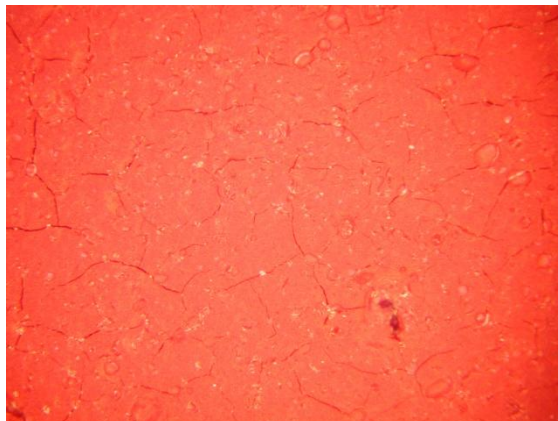
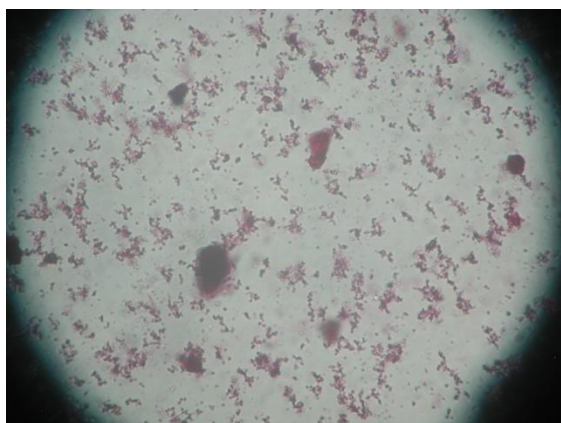
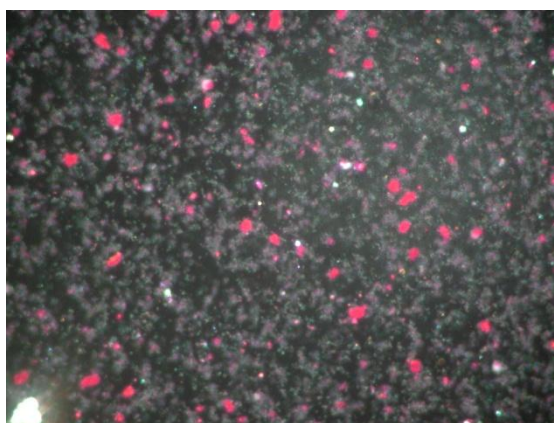


FT-IR (ATR)

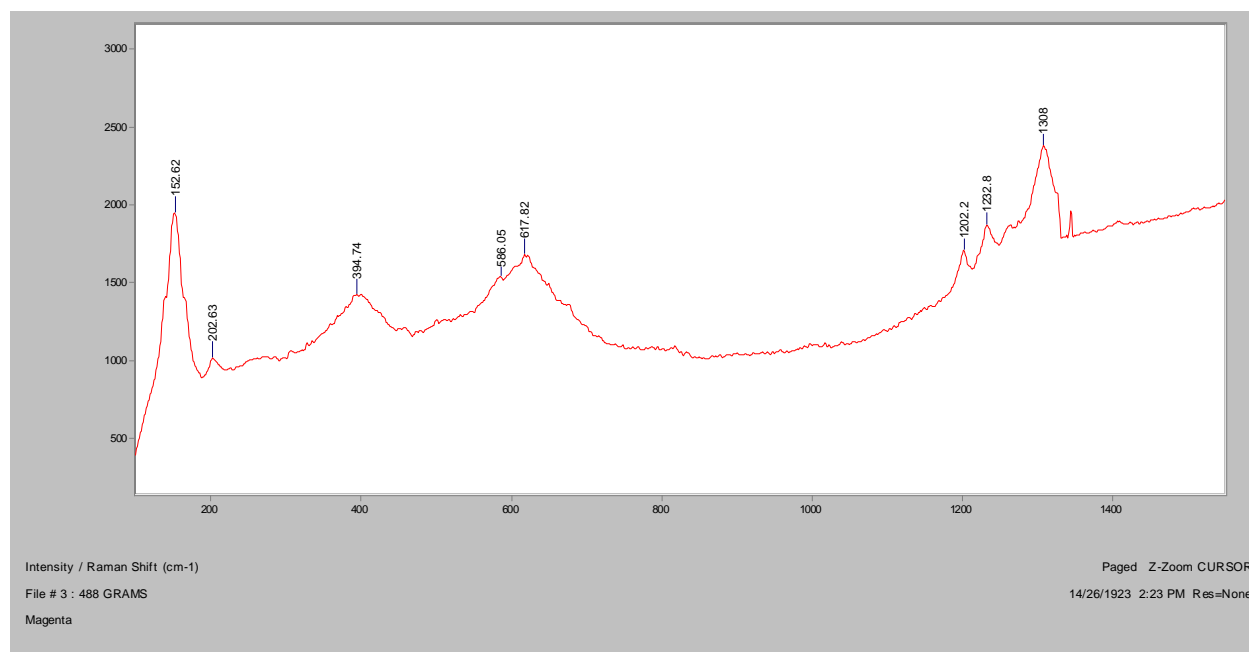


XRF

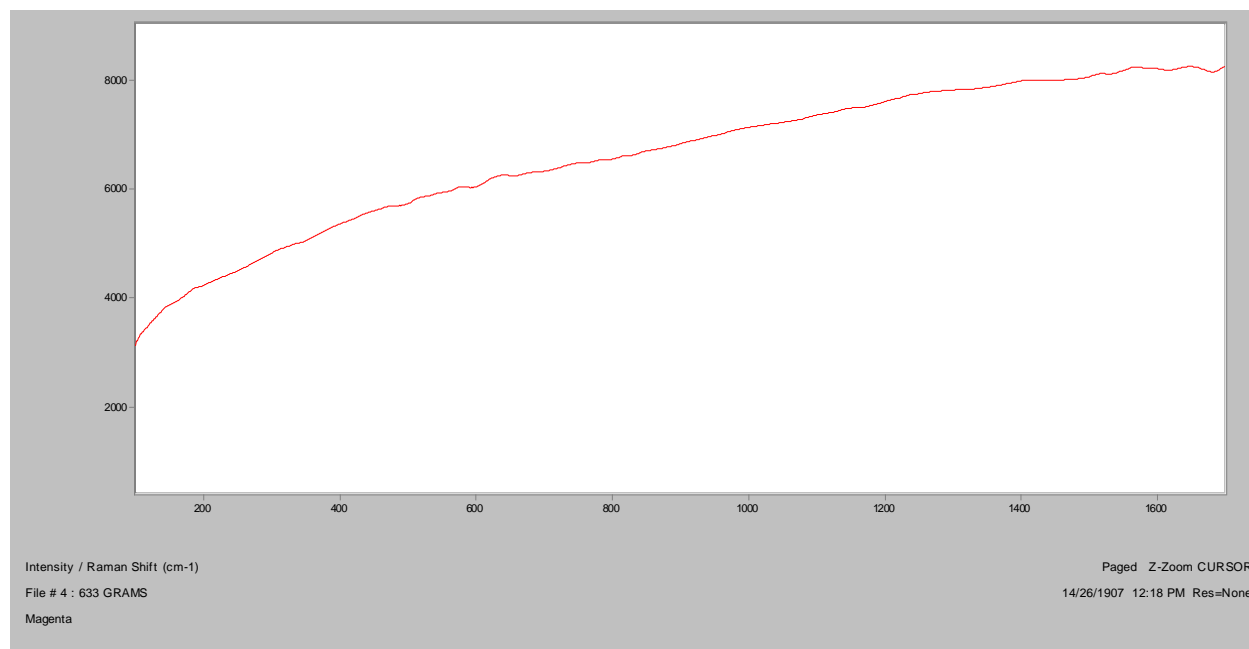


Magenta**Bright Field, 100x****Dark Field, 100x****In RI 1.550, 400x****Crossed polars, In RI 1.550, 200x**

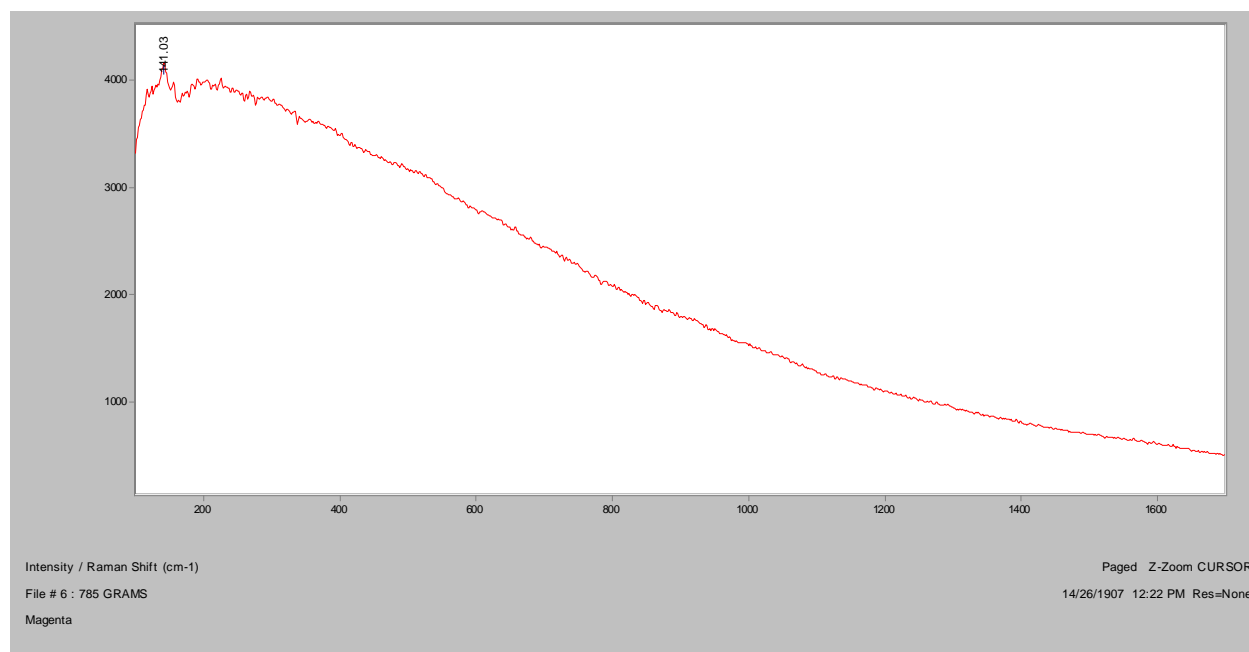
Normal Raman, 488nm



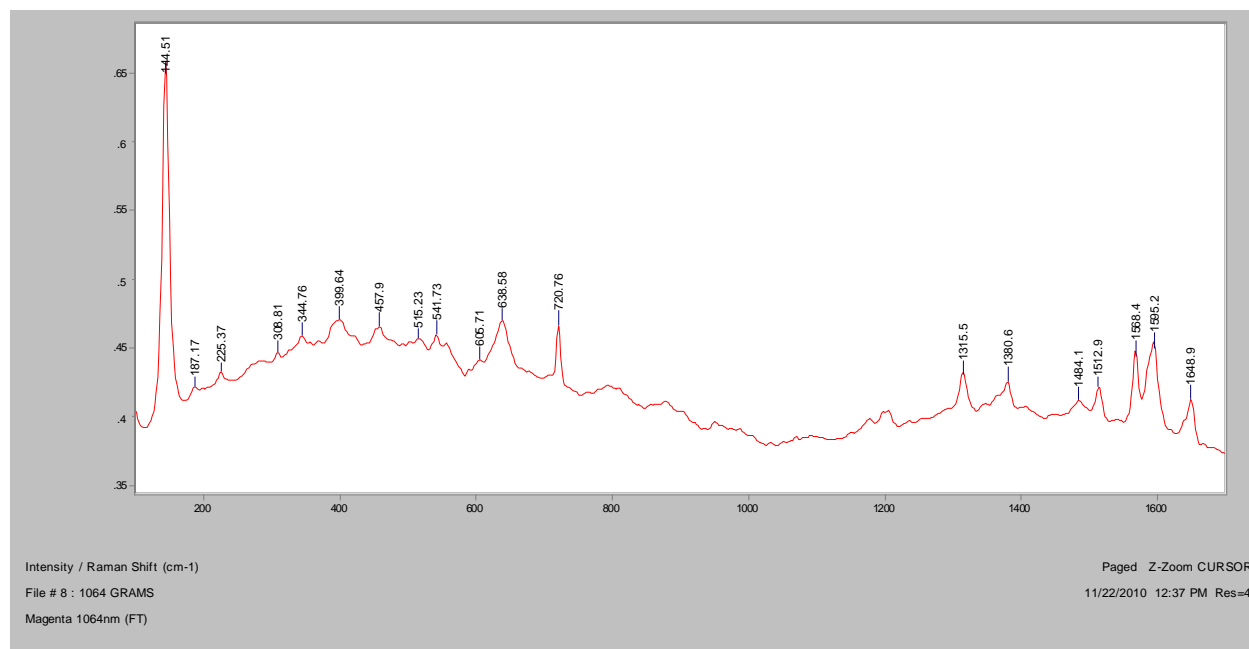
Normal Raman, 633nm

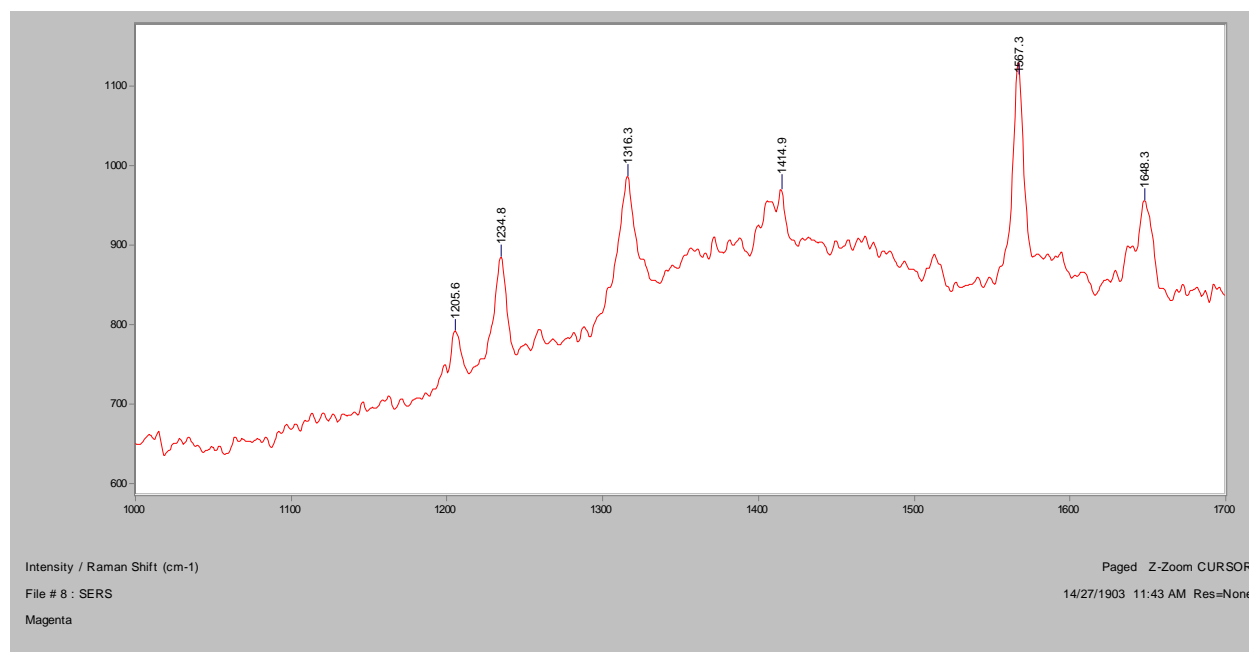
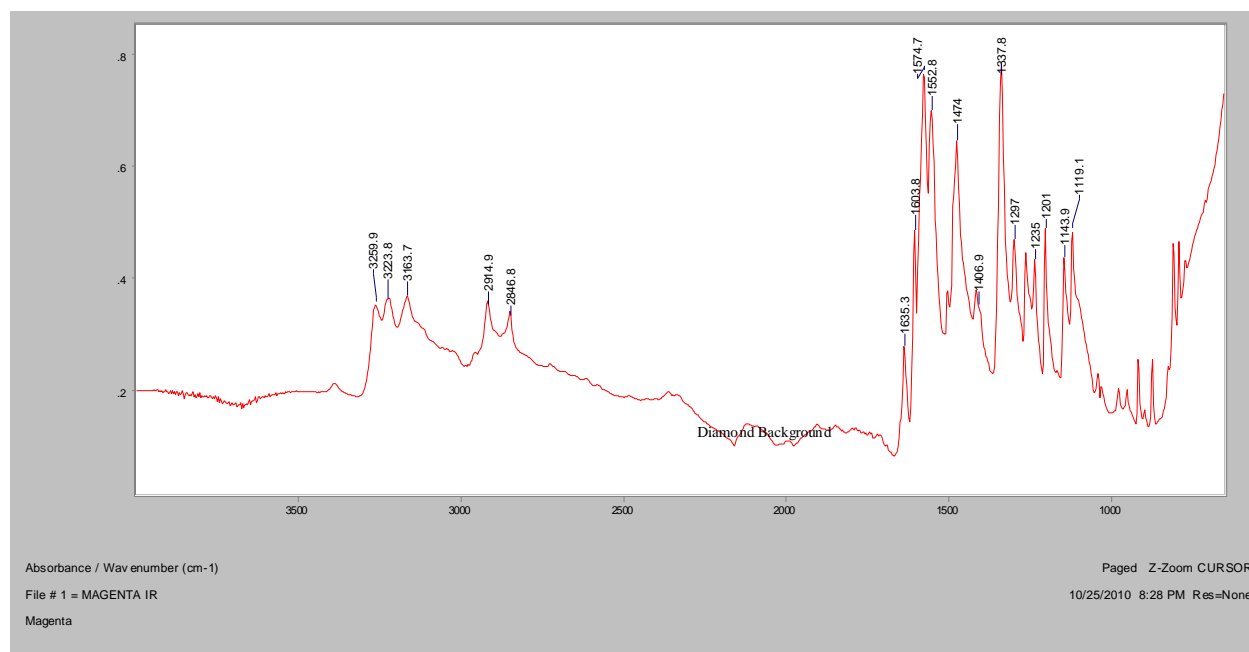


Normal Raman, 785nm

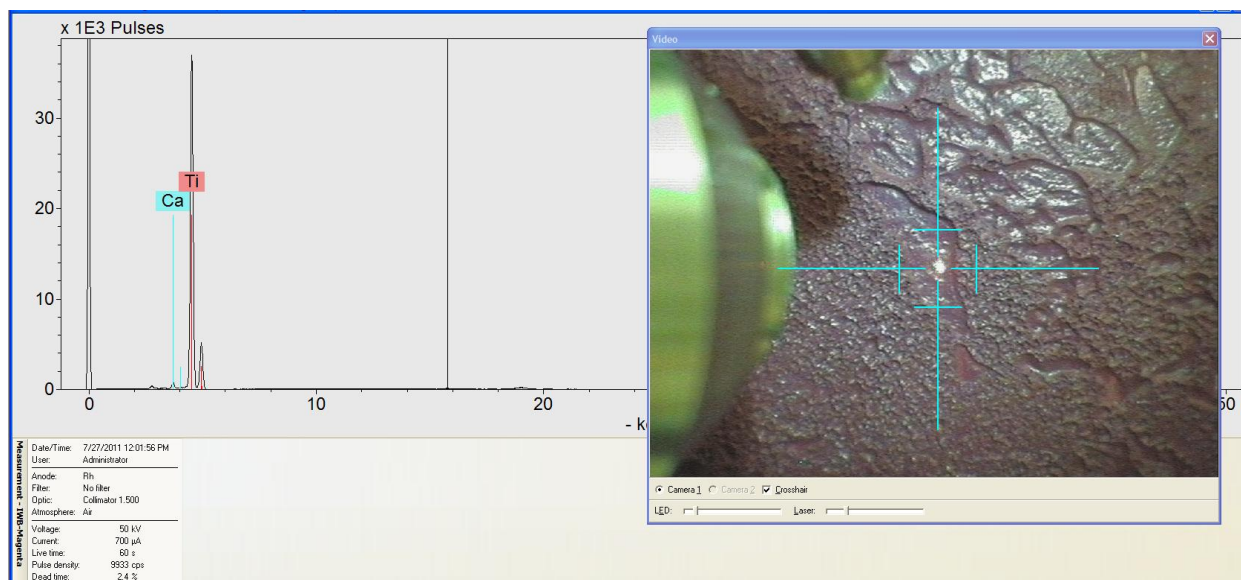


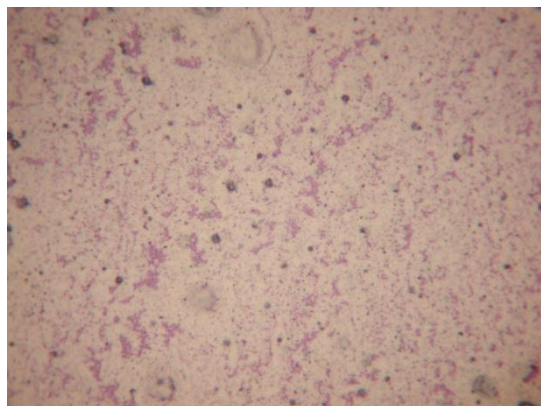
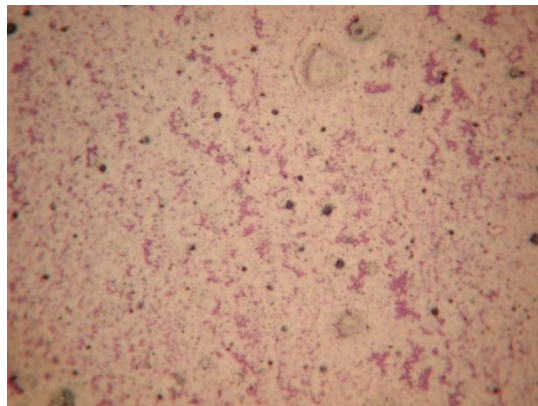
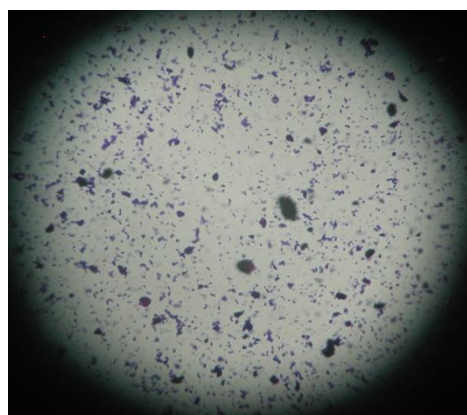
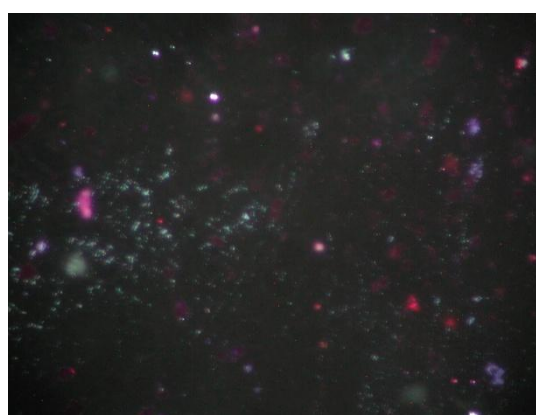
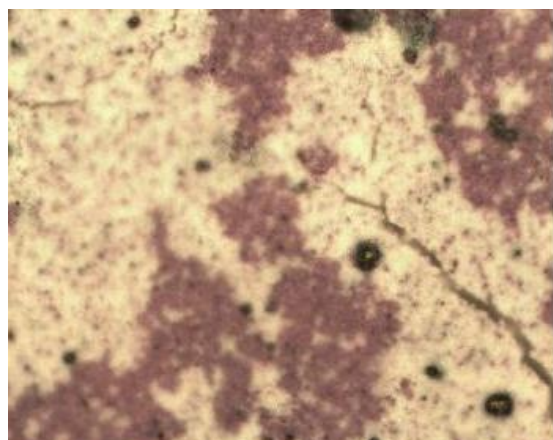
FT-Raman, 1064nm



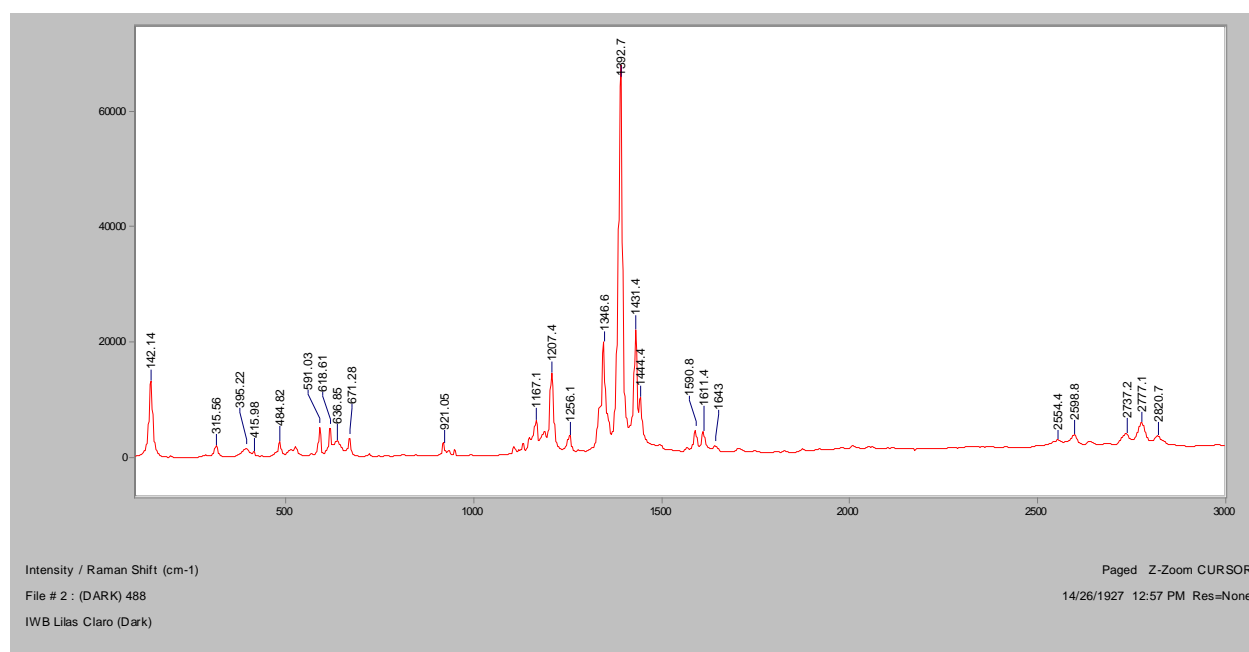
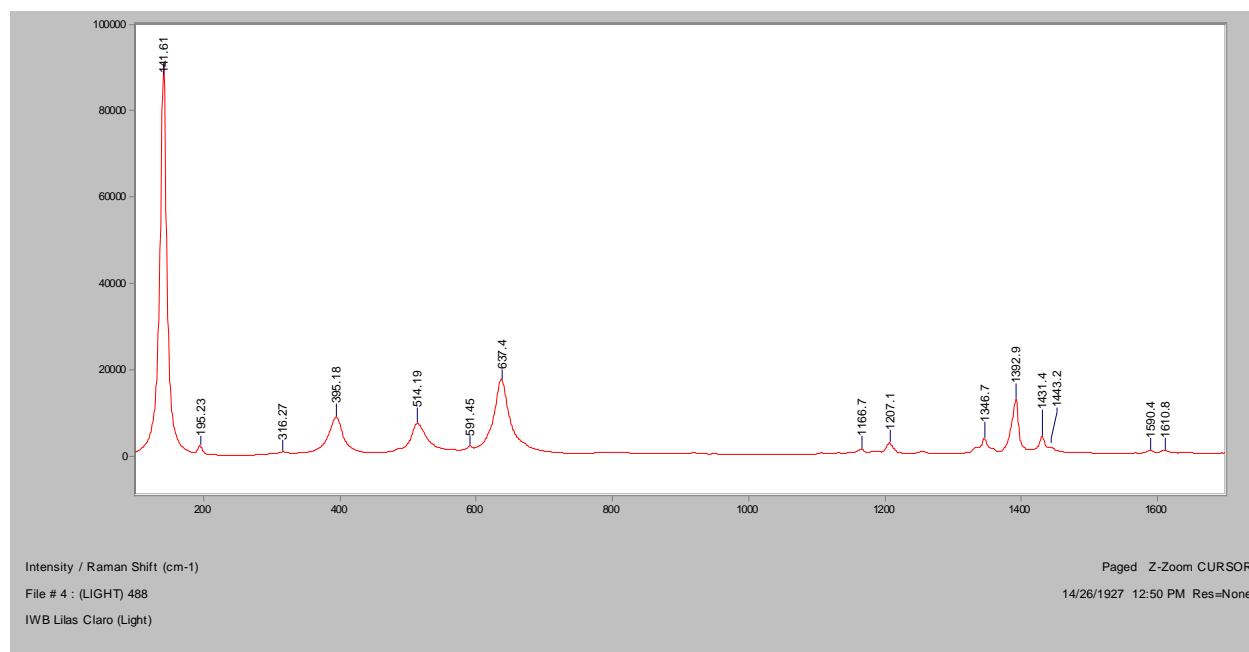
SERS, 488nm**FT-IR (ATR)**

XRF

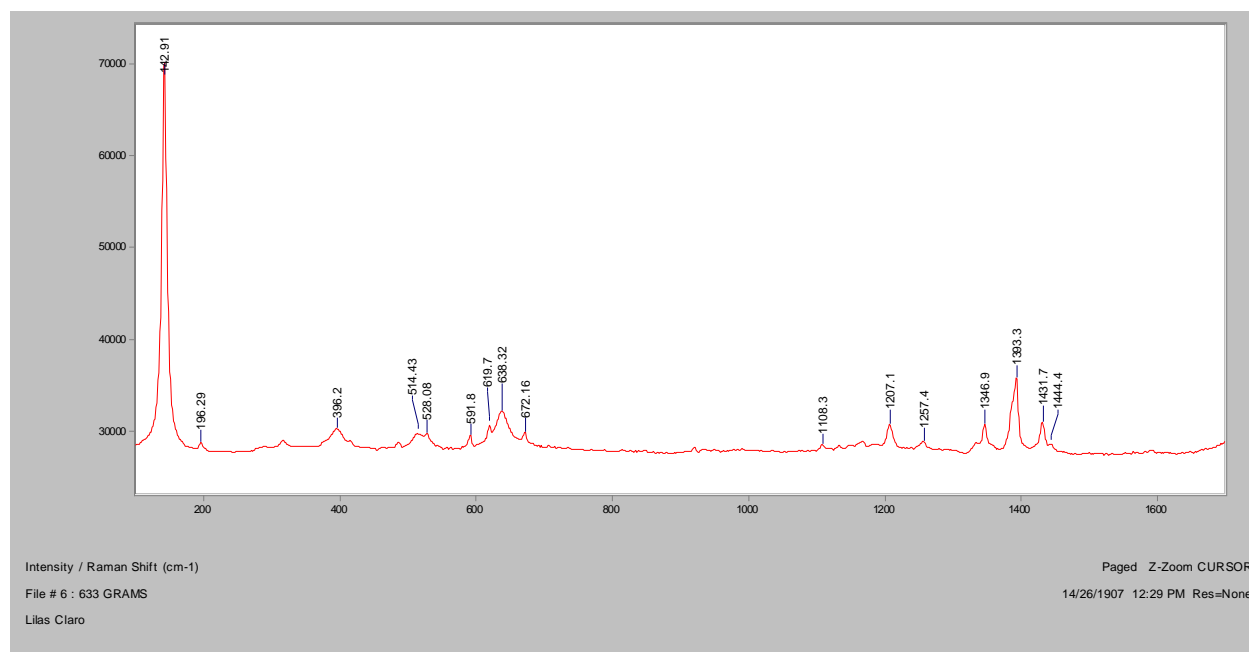


Lilas Claro**Bright Field, 100x****Dark Field, 100x****In RI 1.550, 400x****Crossed polars, In RI 1.550, 400x****Raman microscope image, 200x**

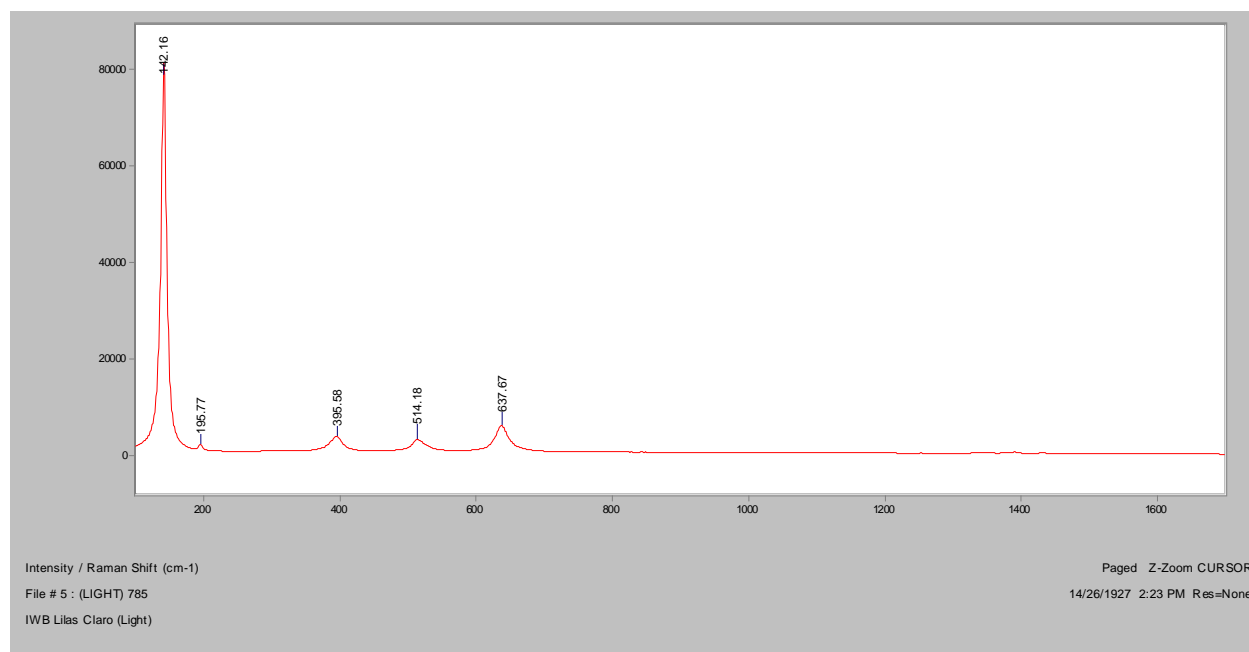
Normal Raman, 488nm

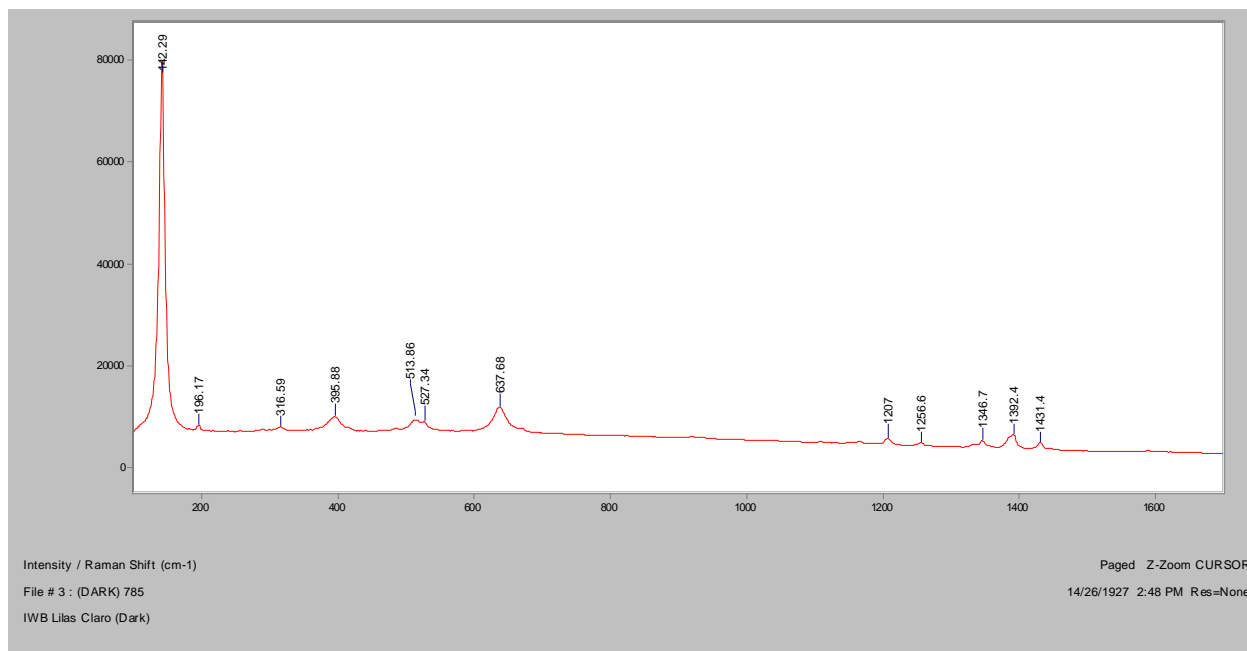


Normal Raman, 633nm

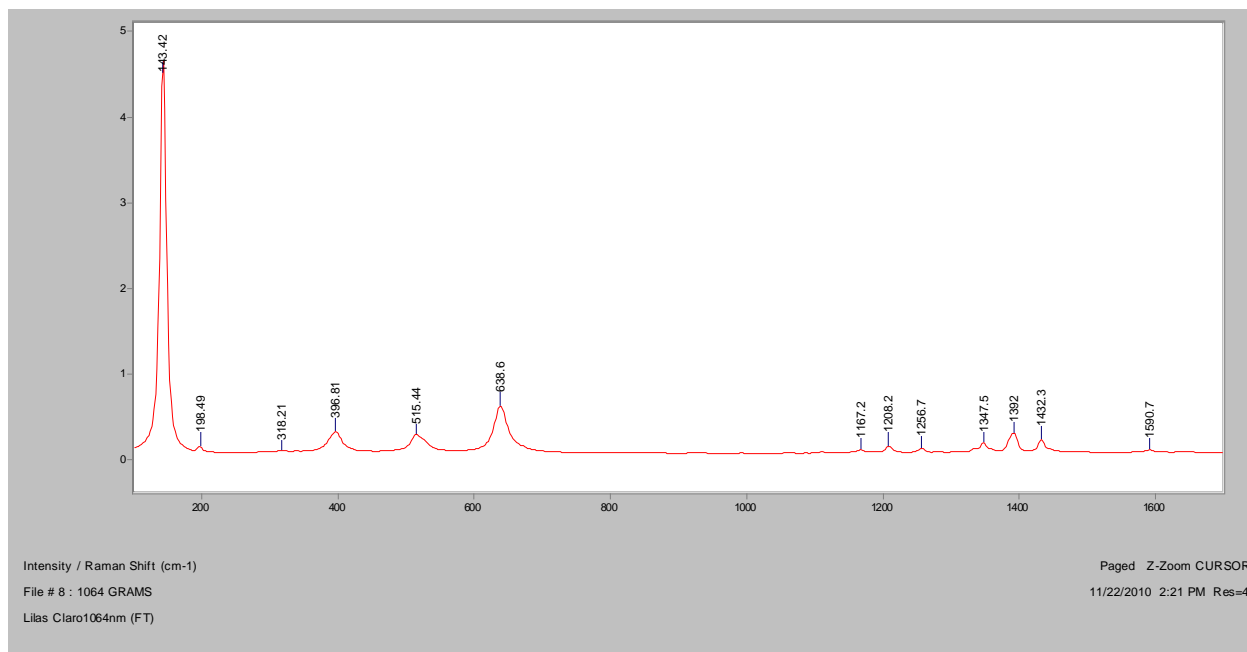


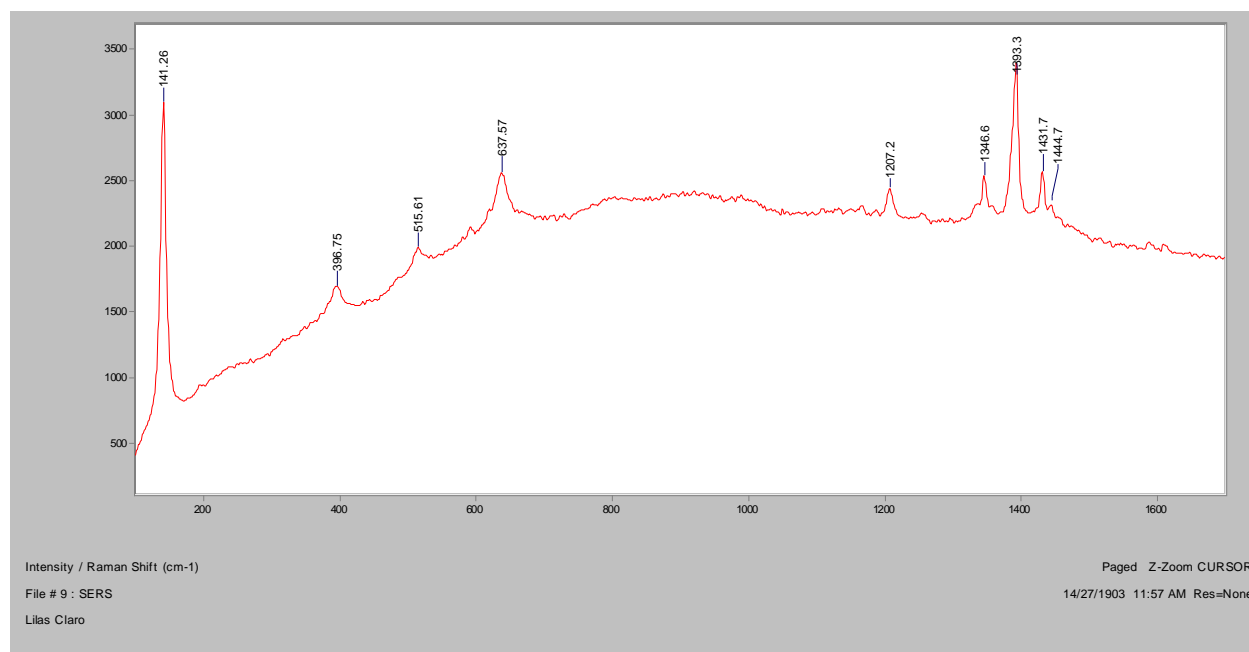
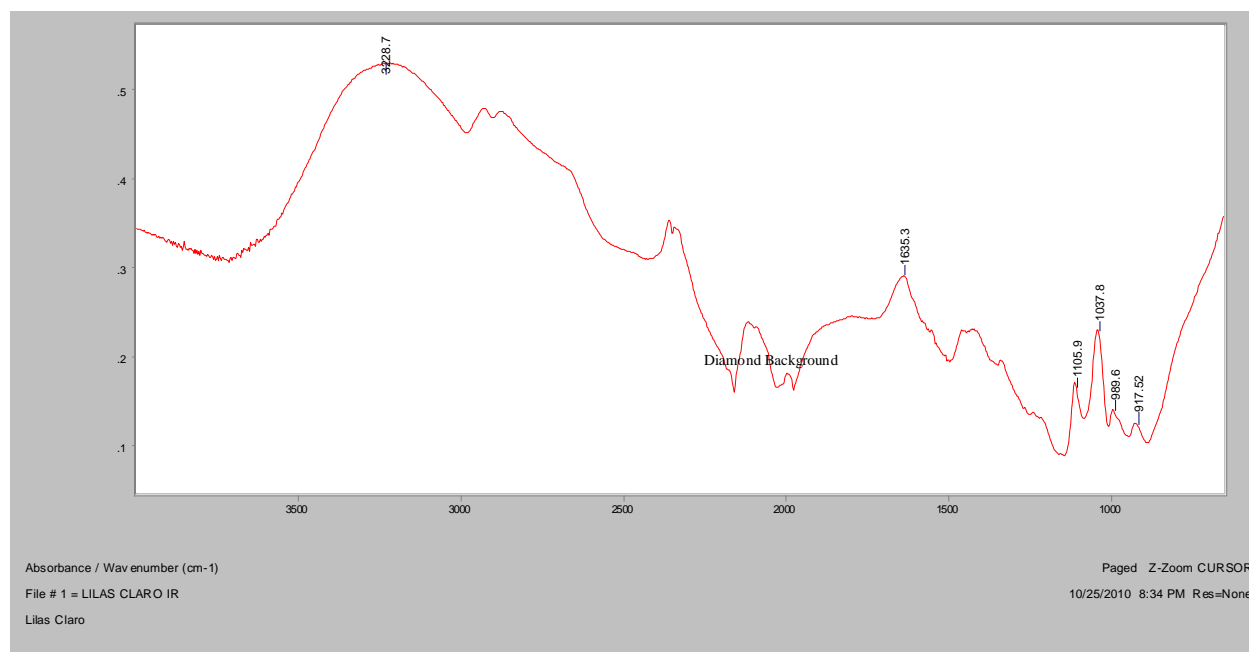
Normal Raman, 785nm



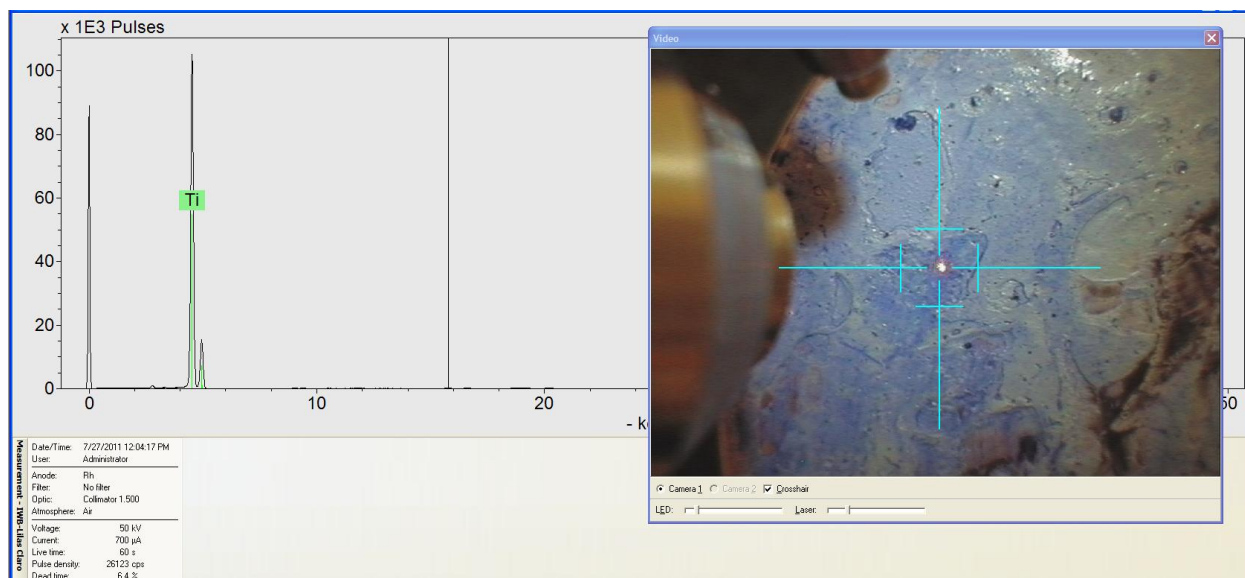


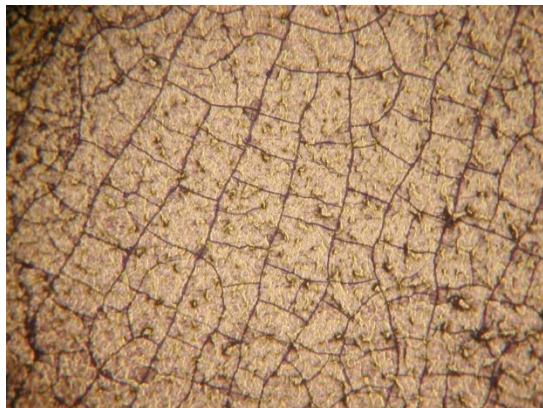
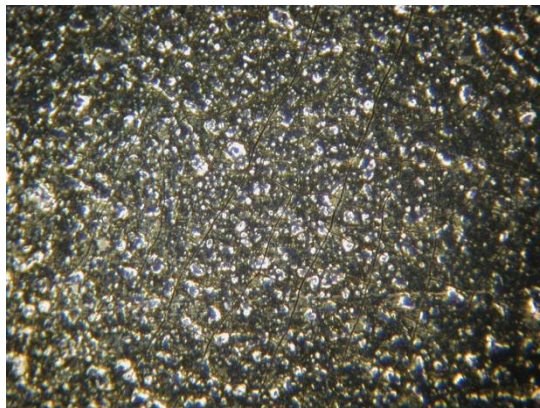
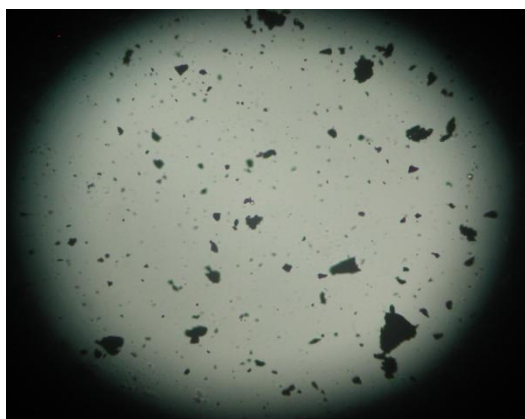
FT-Raman, 1064



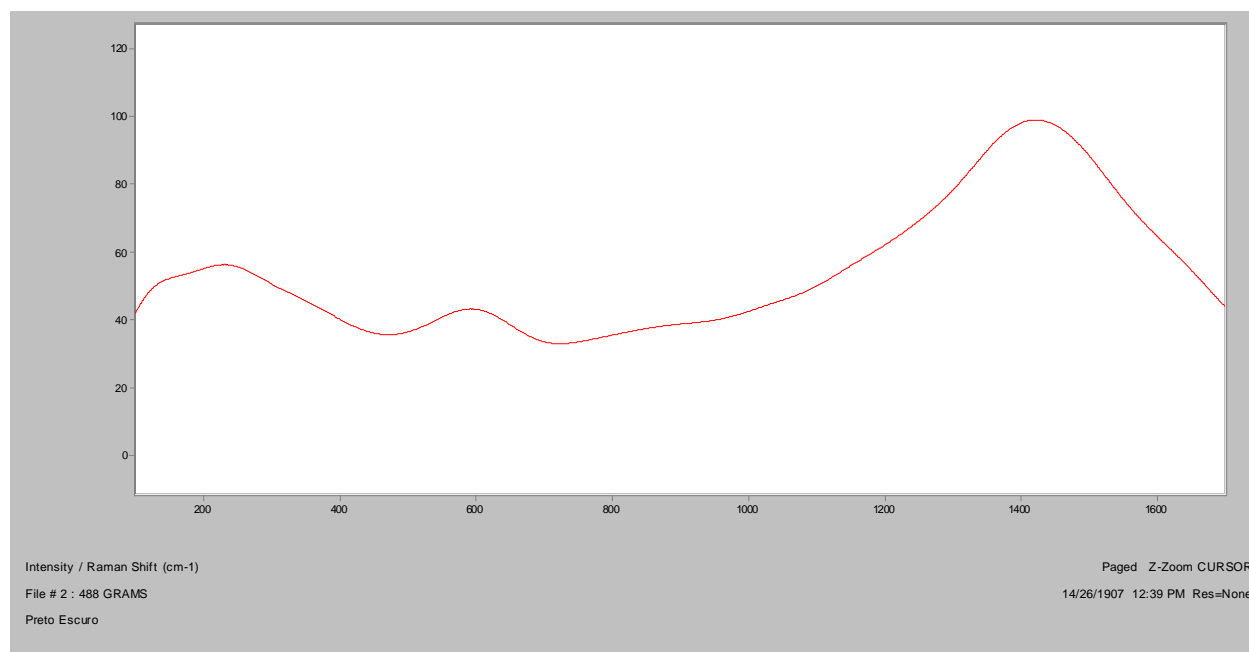
SERS**FT-IR (ATR)**

XRF

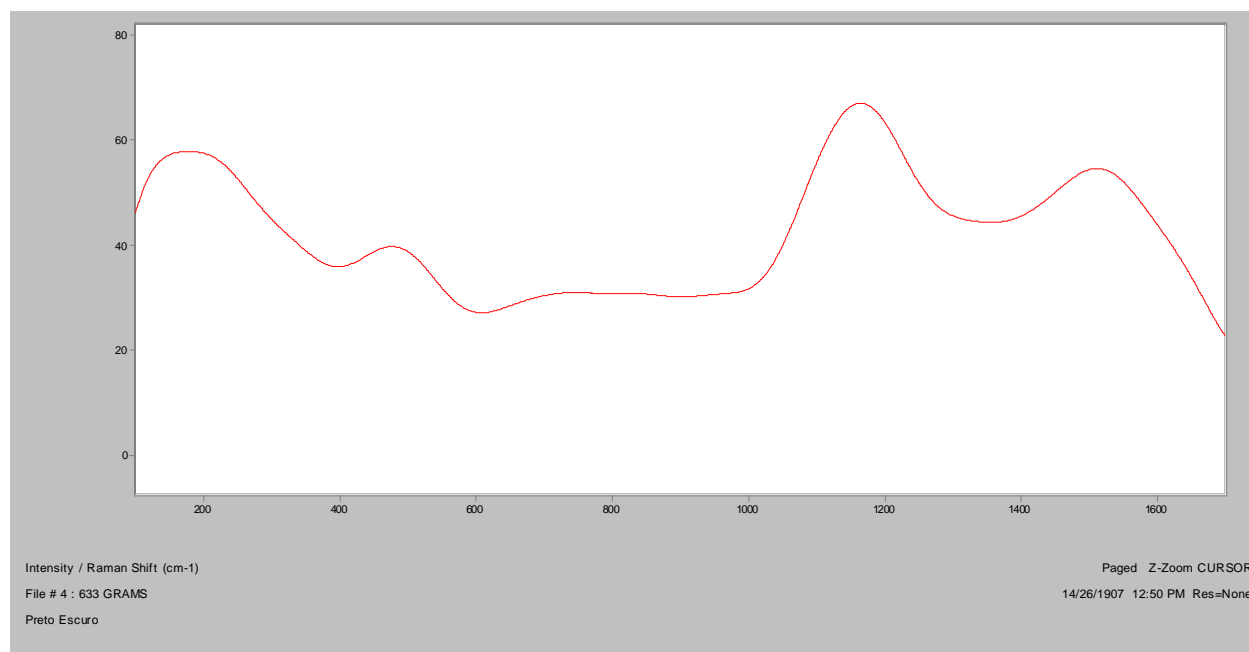


Preto Escuro**Bright Field, 100x****Dark Field, 100x****In RI 1.550, 400x**

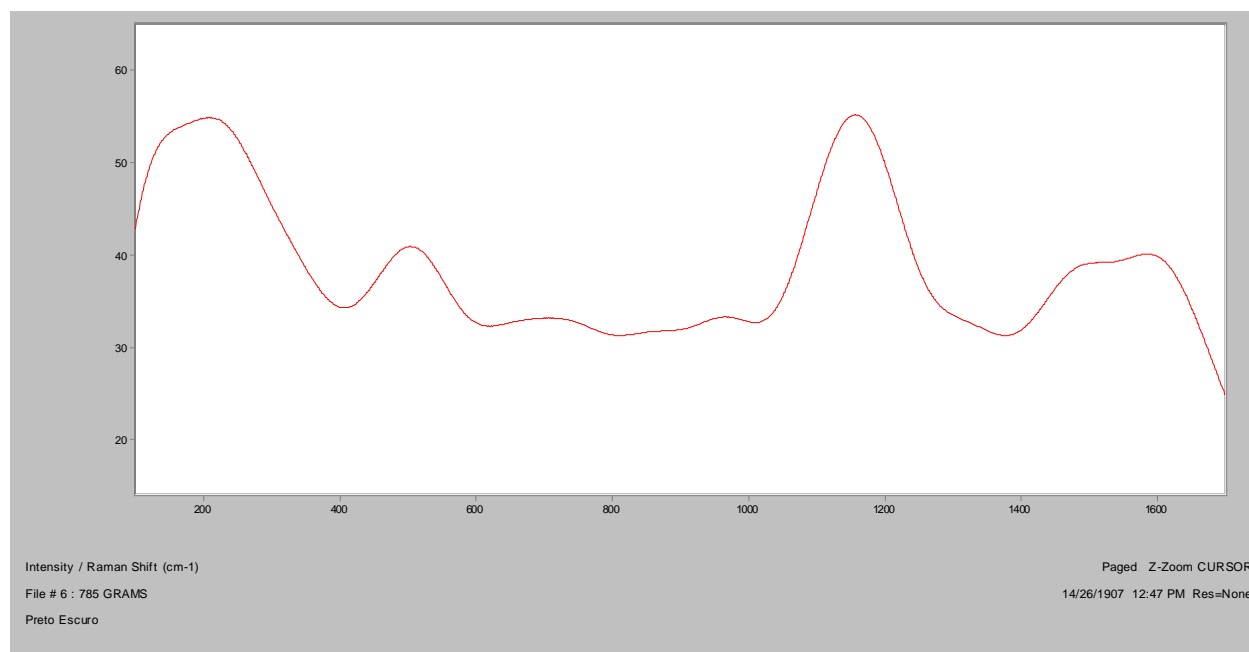
Normal Raman, 488nm



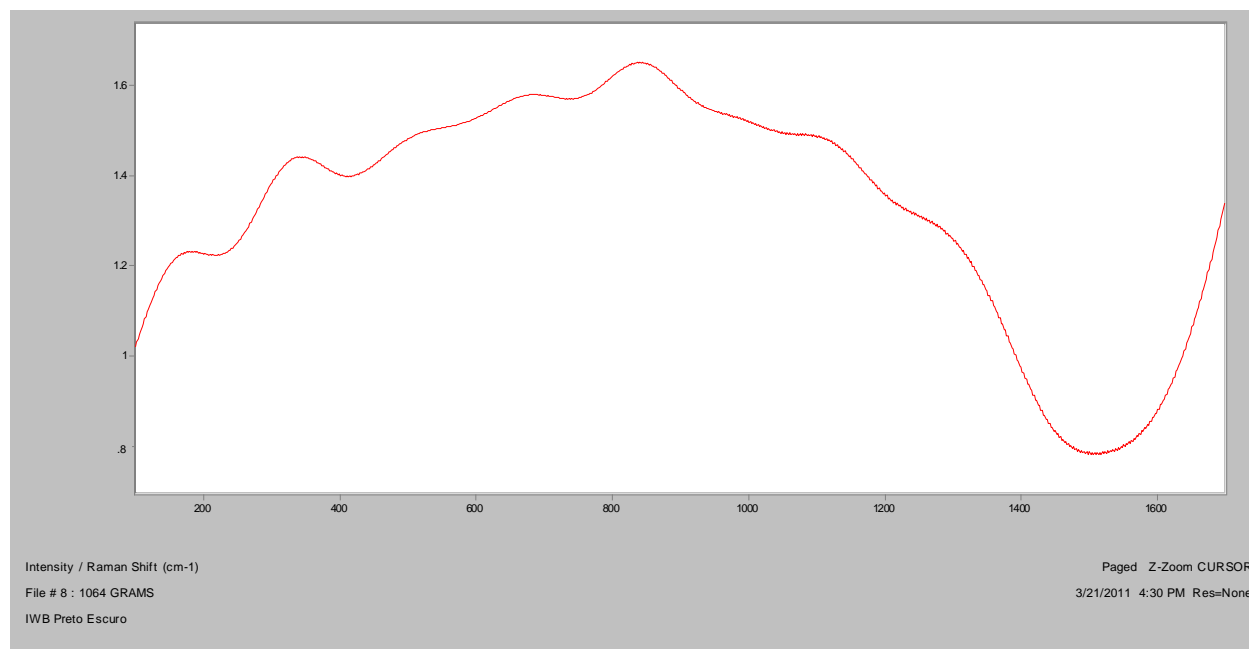
Normal Raman, 633nm



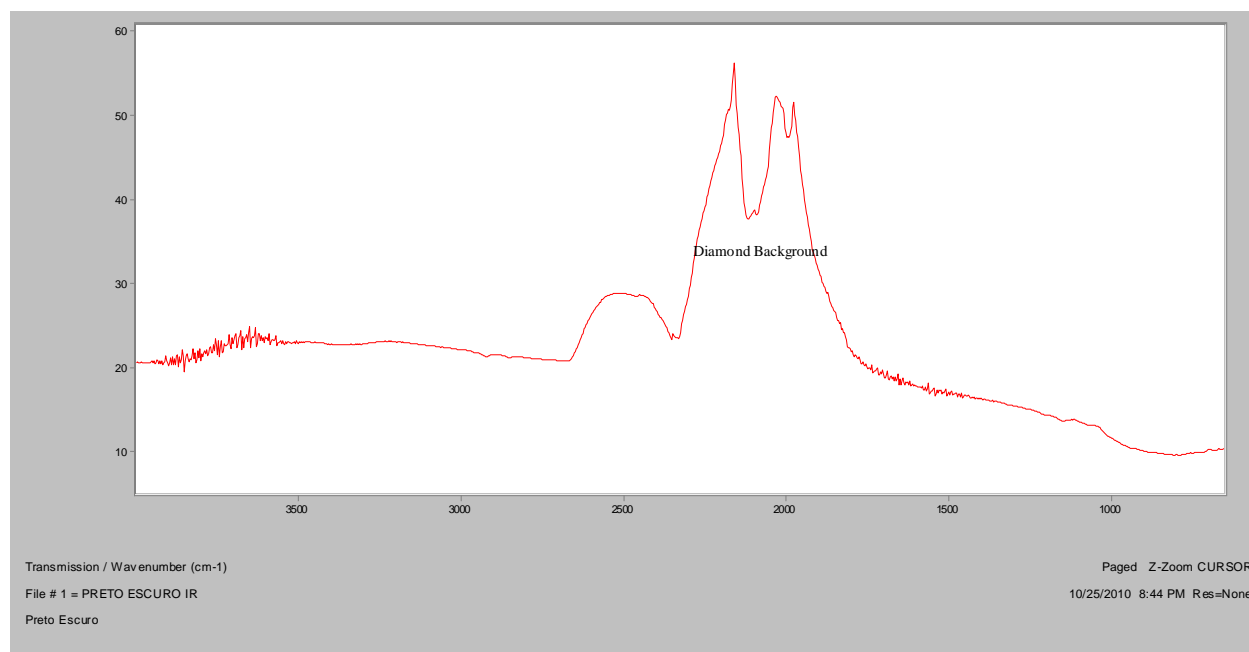
Normal Raman, 785nm



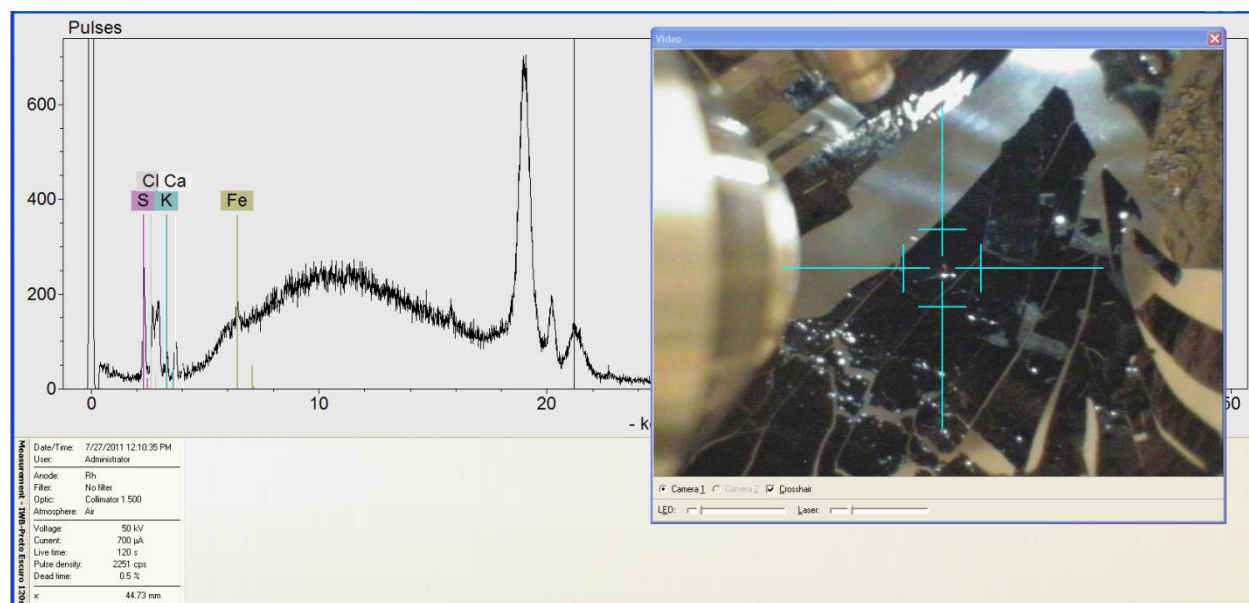
FT-Raman, 1064nm



FT-IR (ATR)



XRF



Appendix D: Tattoo Inks (Skin Candy)

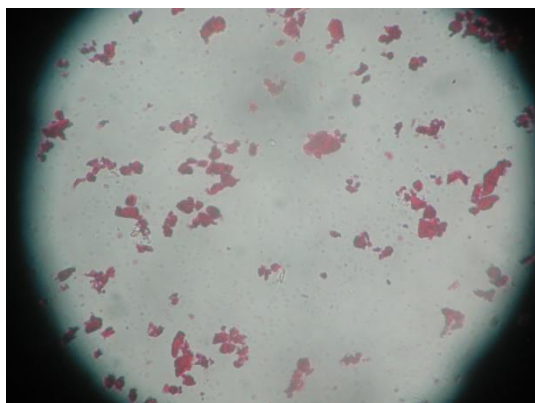
Candy Apple Red



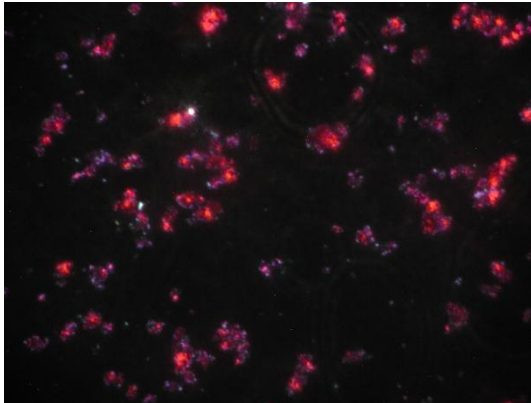
Bright Field, 400x



Dark Field, 100x



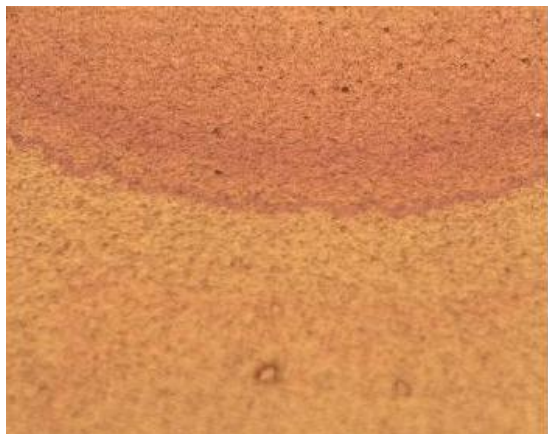
In RI 1.550, 400x



Crossed polars, In RI 1.550, 400x

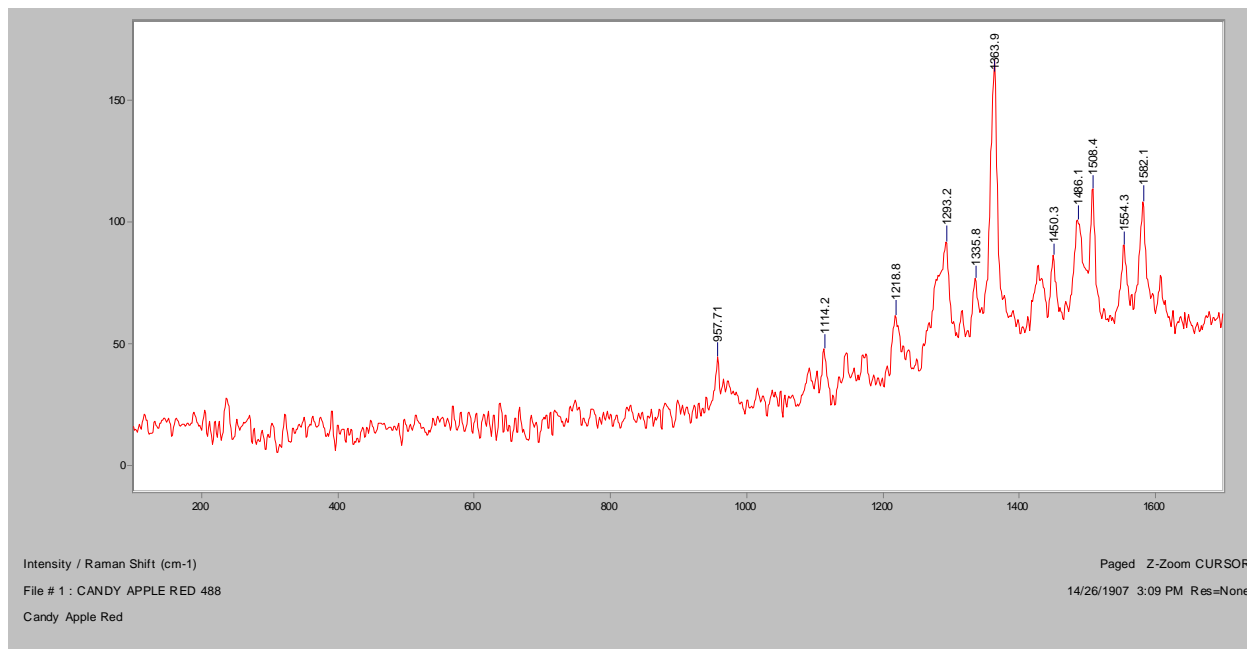


Smear on microscope slide after drying, ~20x

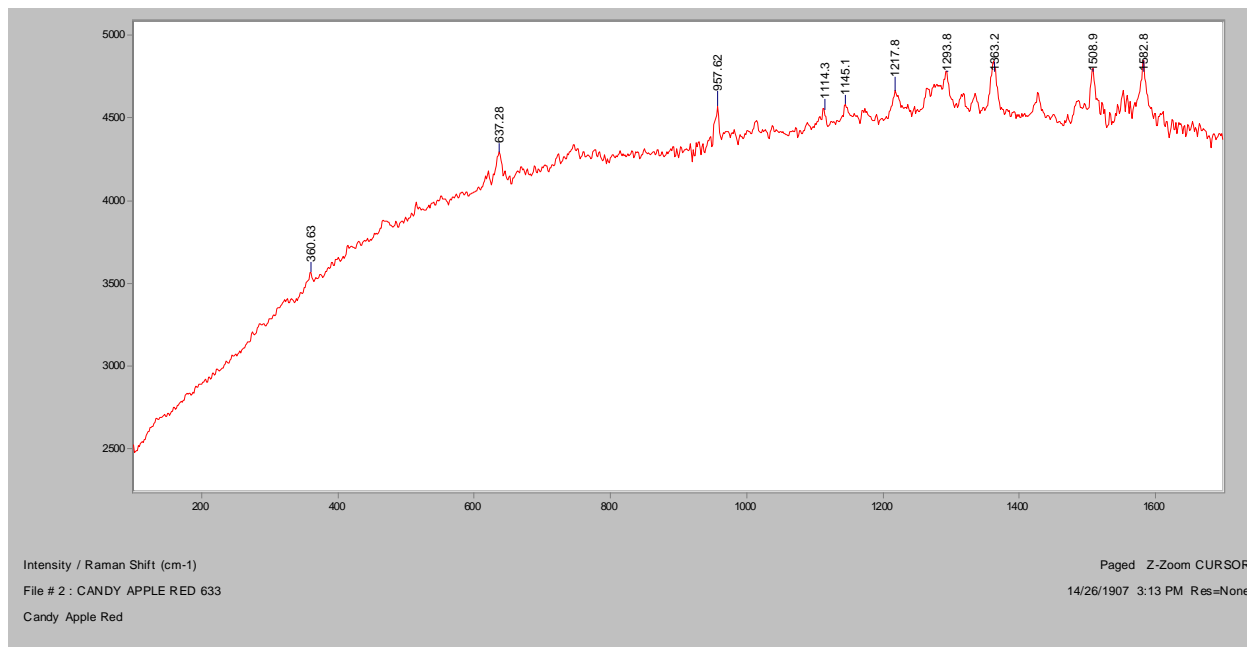


Raman microscope image, 200x

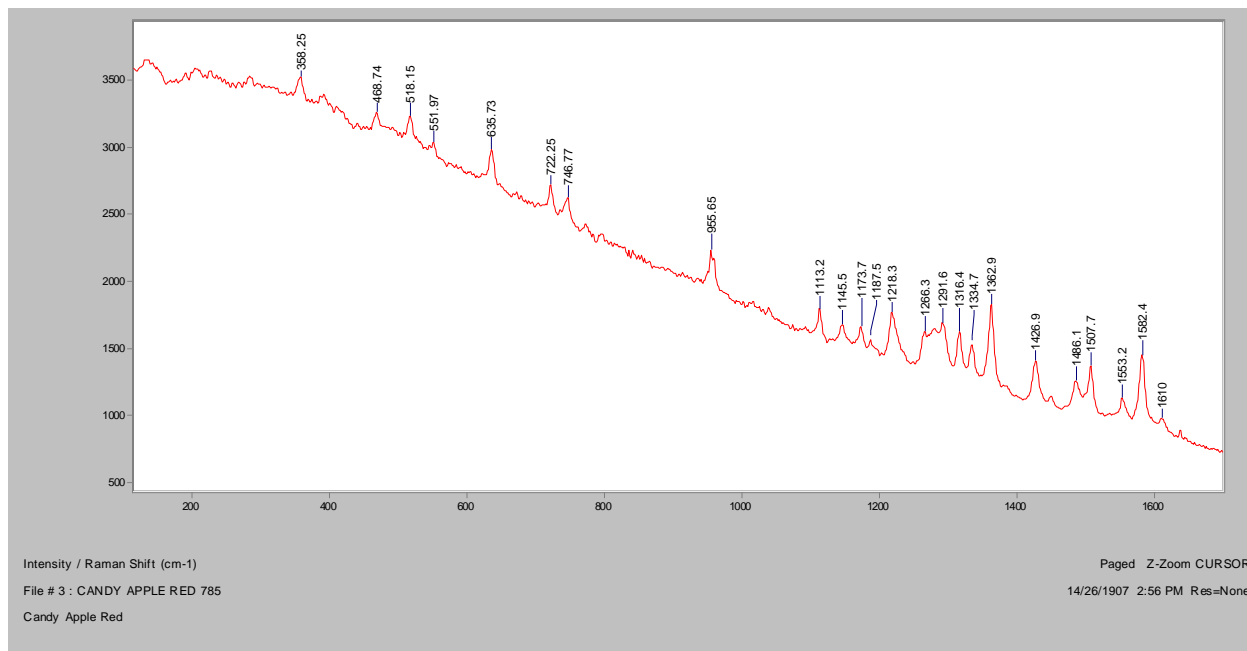
Normal Raman, 488nm



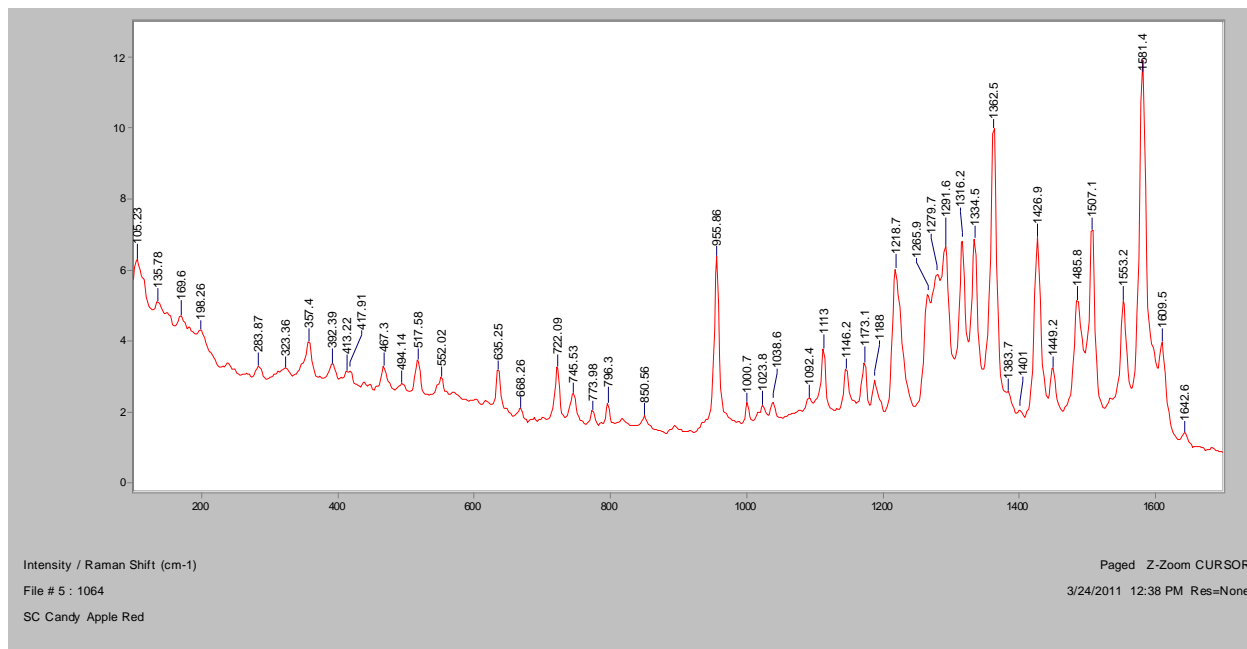
Normal Raman, 633nm



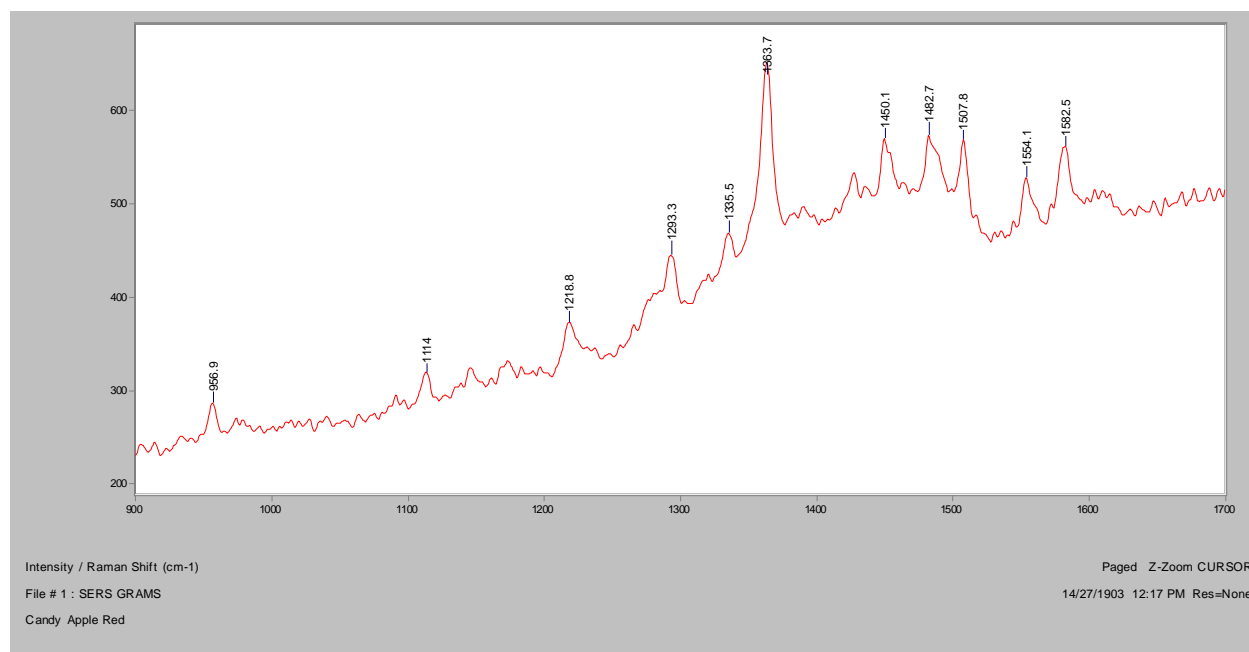
Normal Raman, 785nm



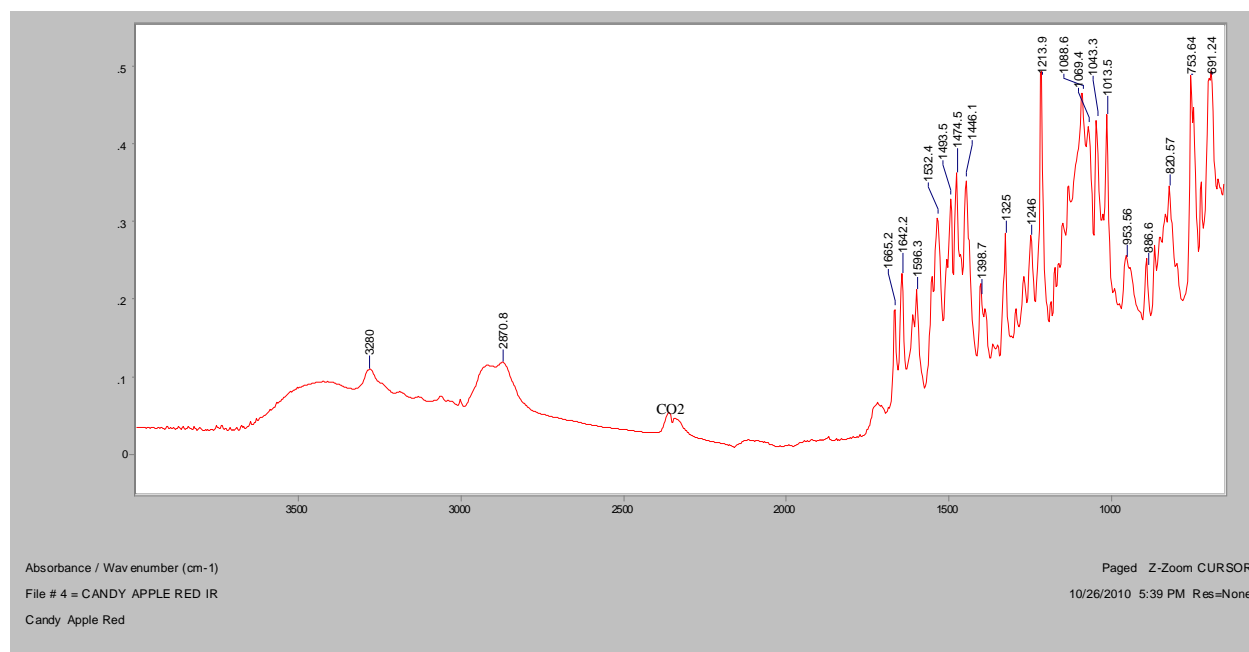
FT-Raman, 1064nm

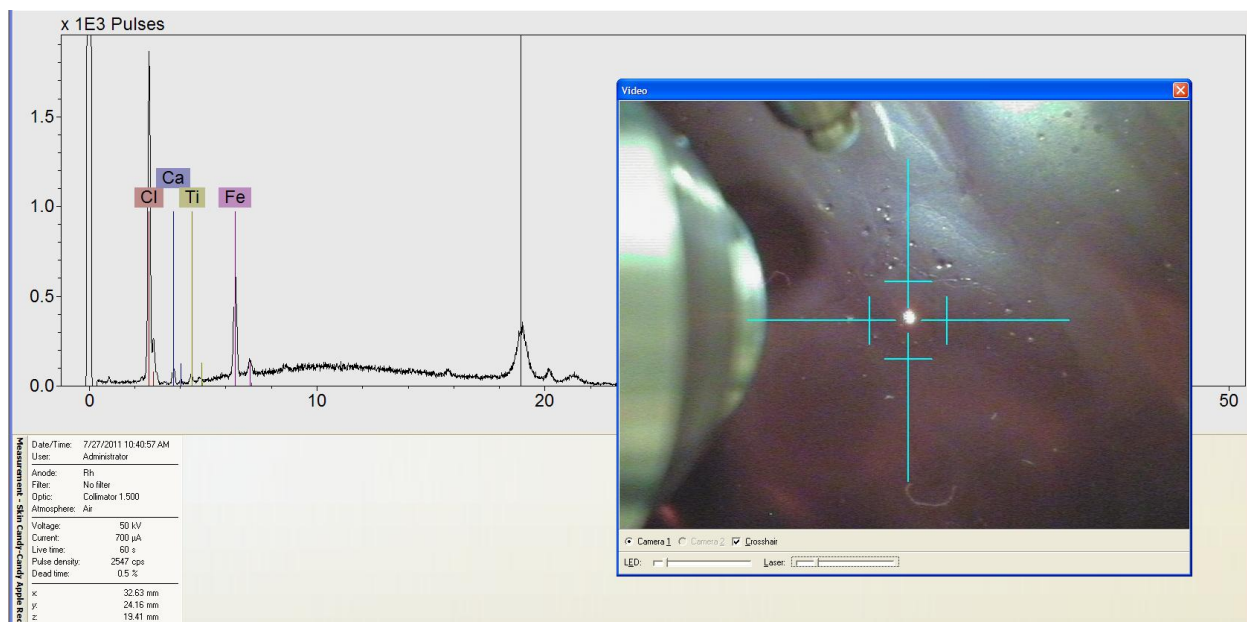


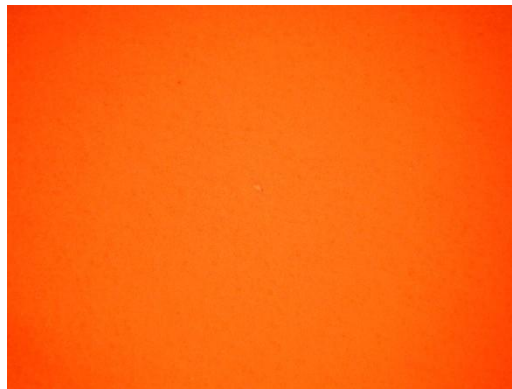
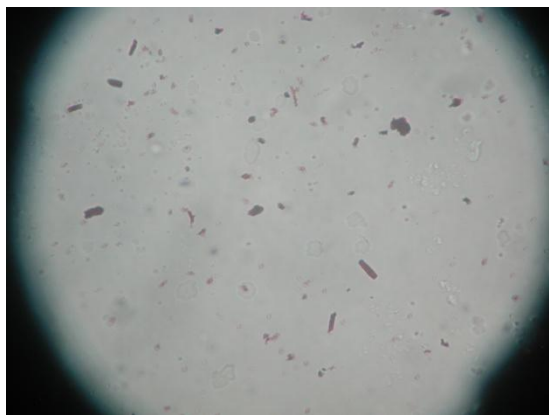
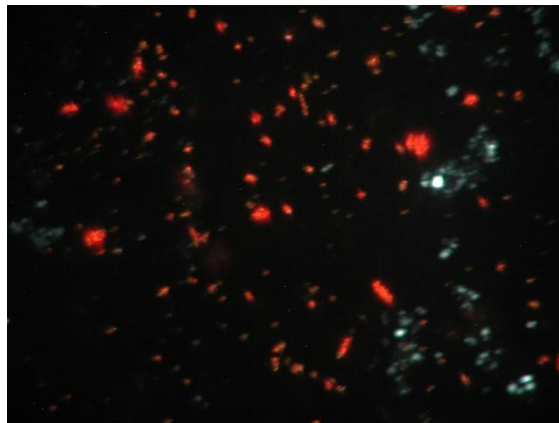
SERS, 488nm



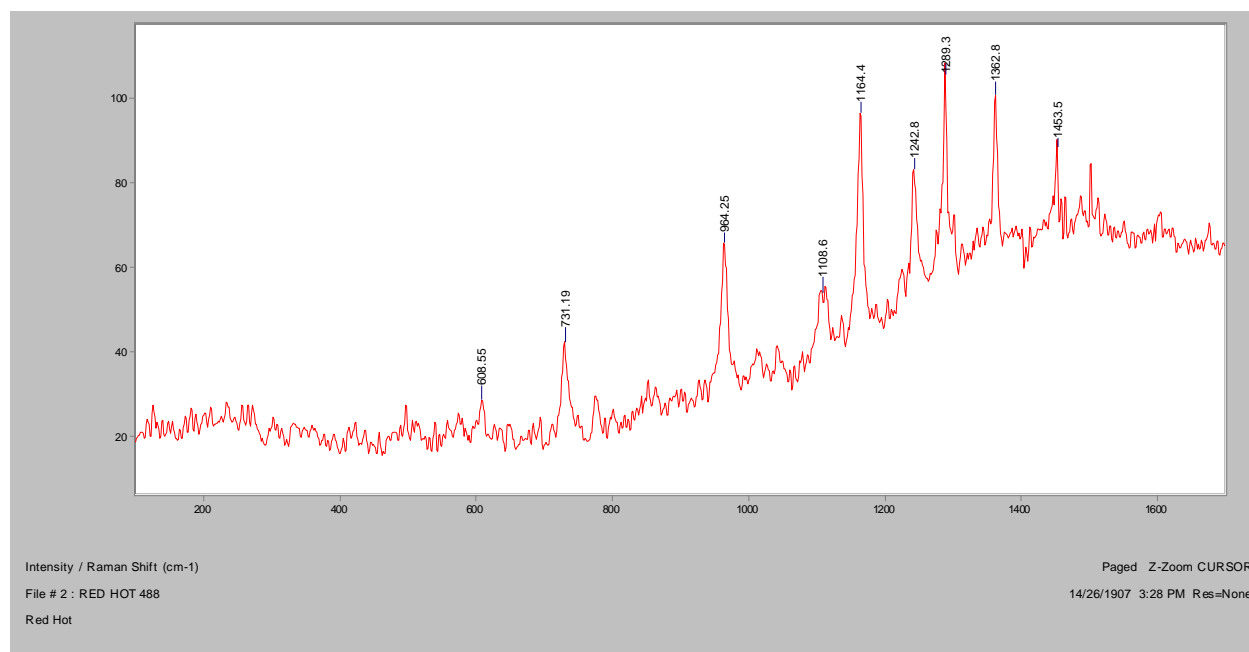
FT-IR (ATR)



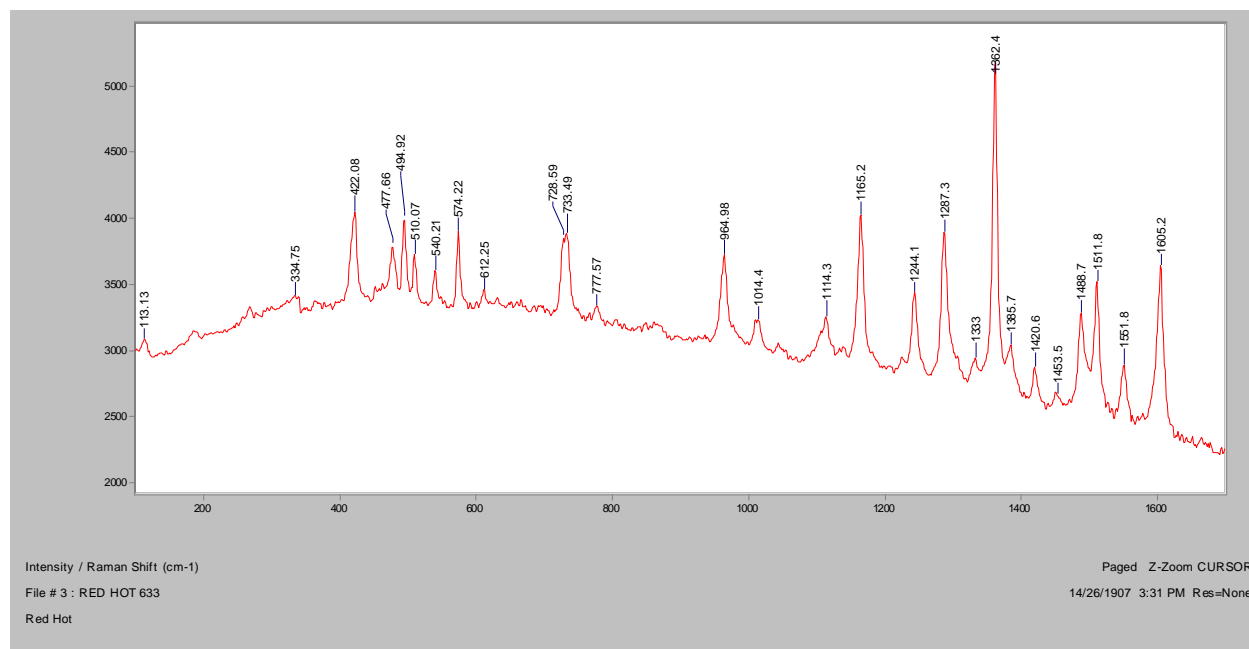
XRF

Red Hot**Bright Field, 100x****Dark Field, 100x****In RI 1.550, 400x****Crossed polars, In RI 1.550, 400x**

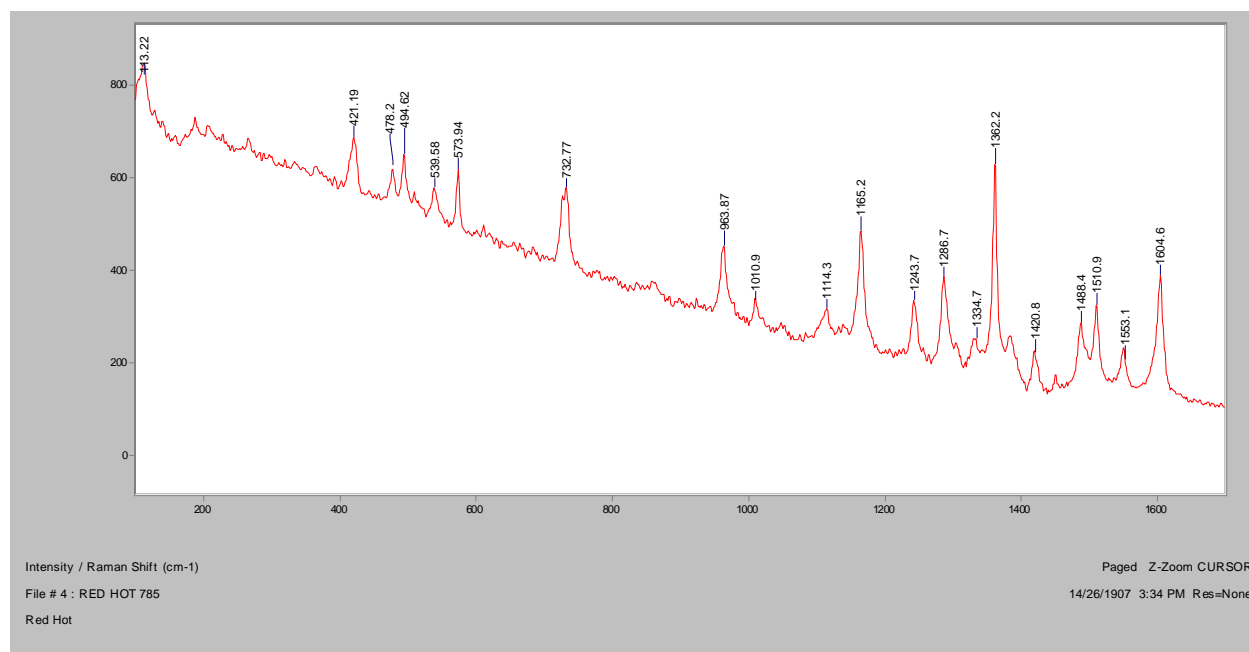
Normal Raman, 488nm



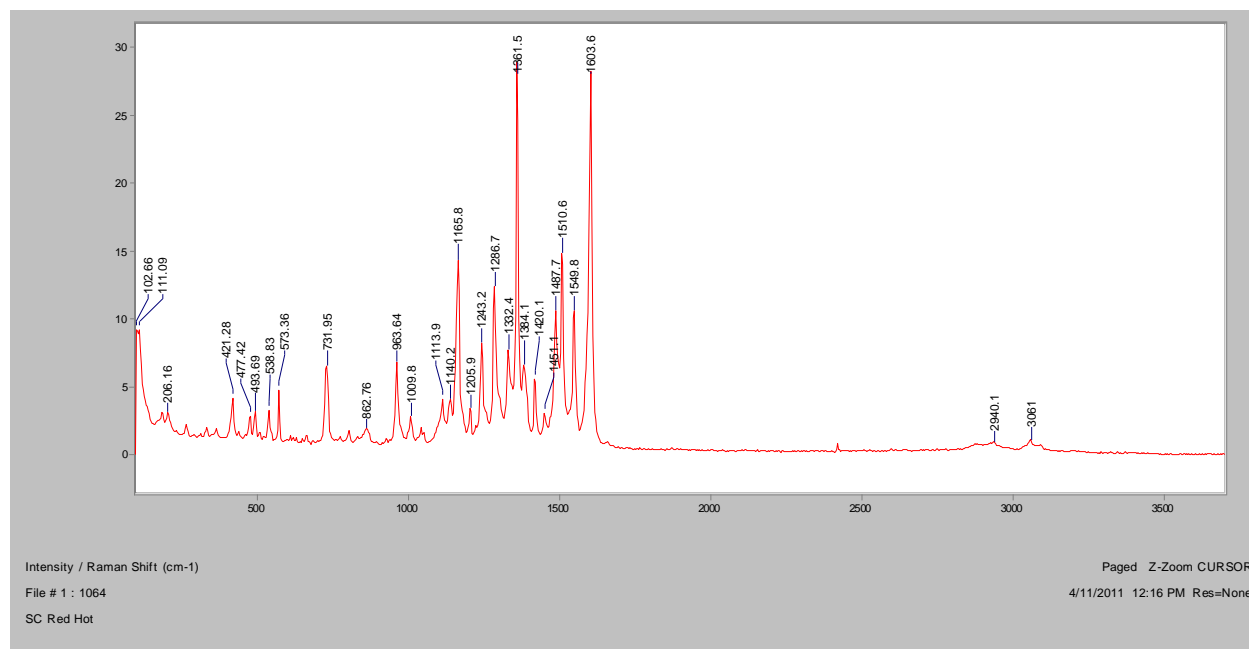
Normal Raman, 633nm

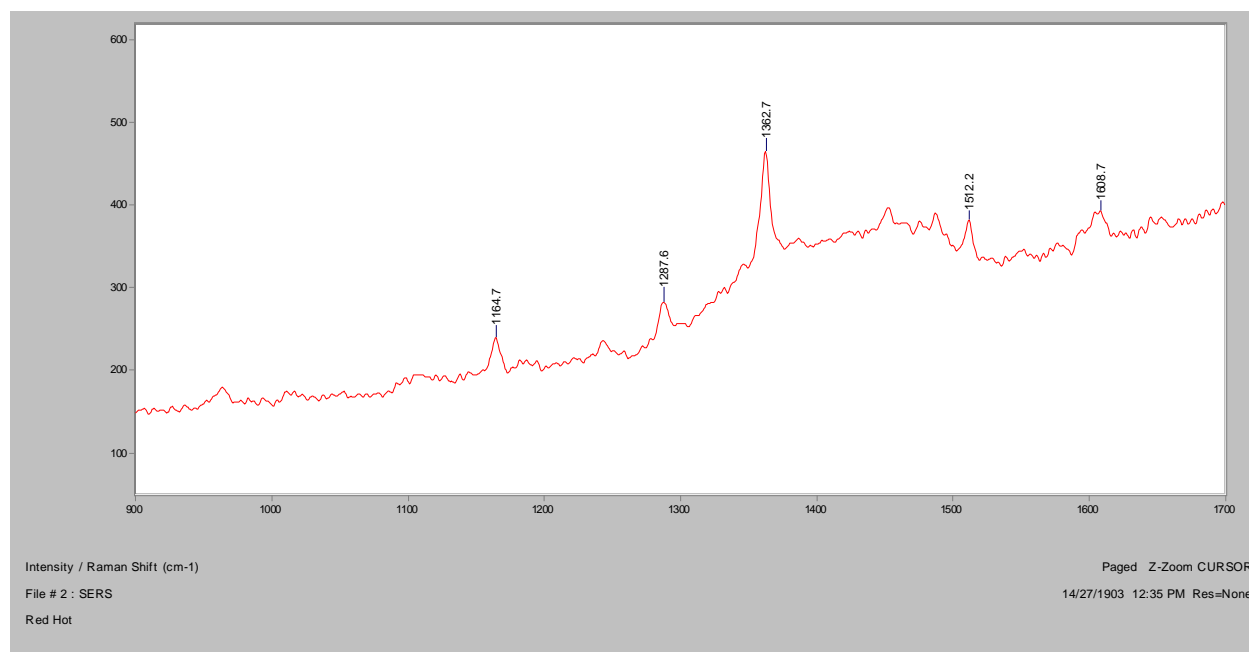
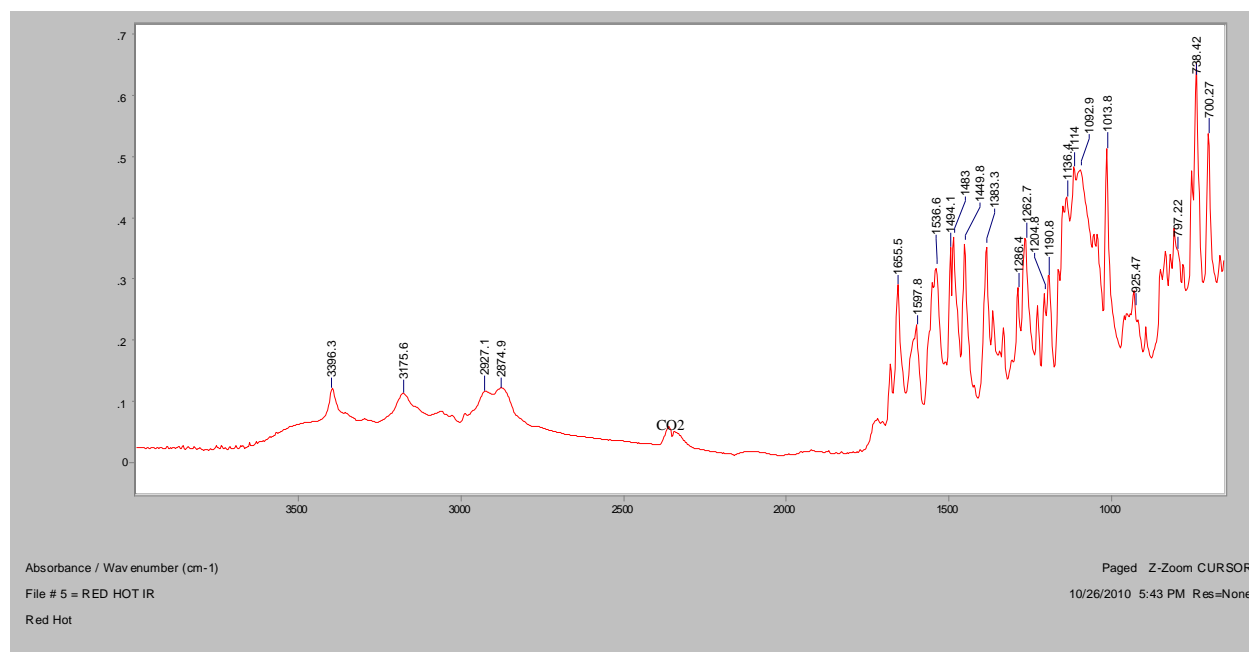


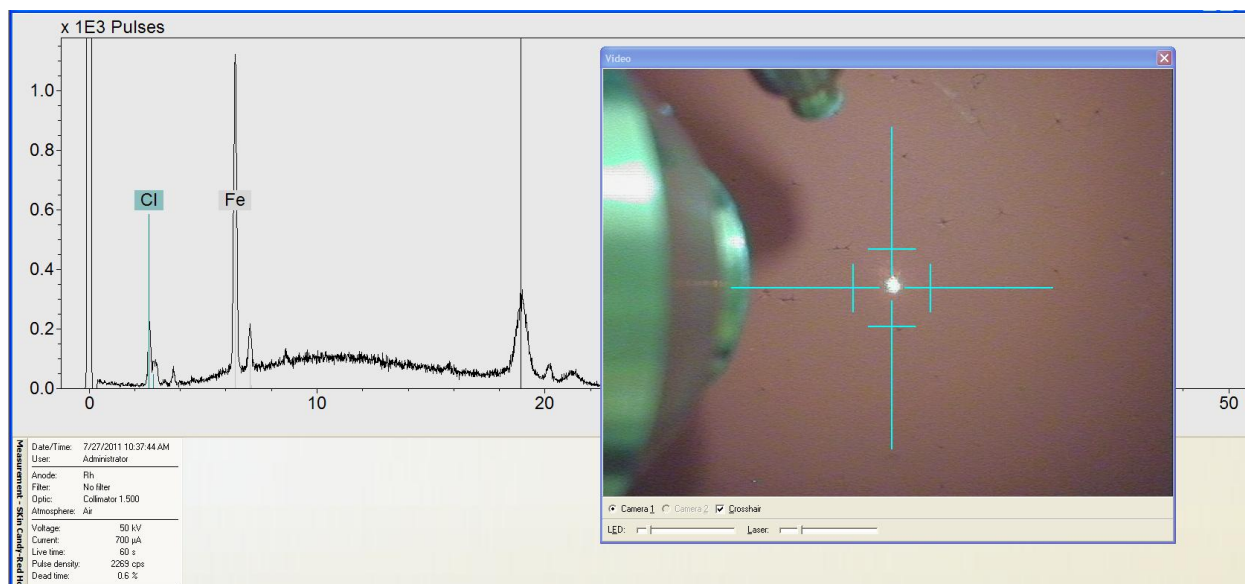
Normal Raman, 785nm

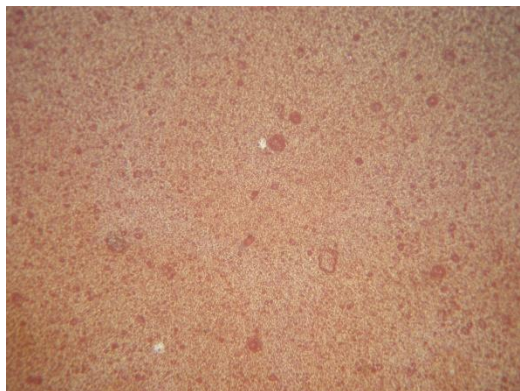
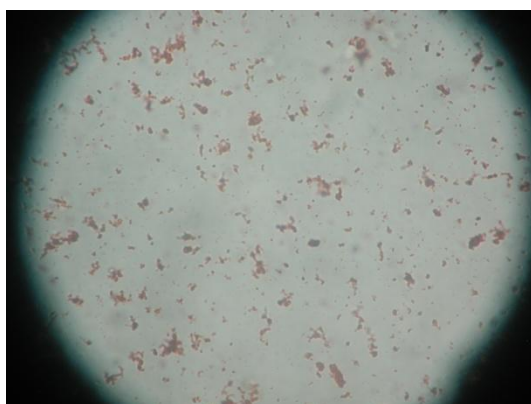
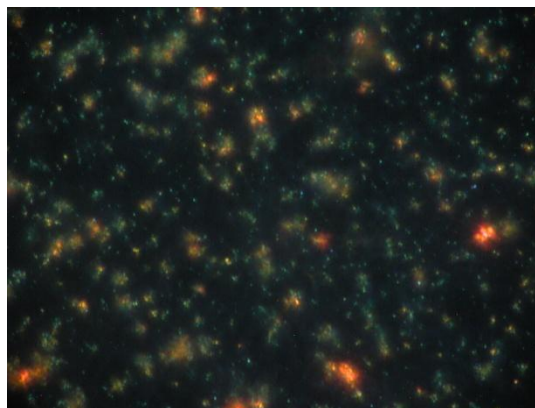
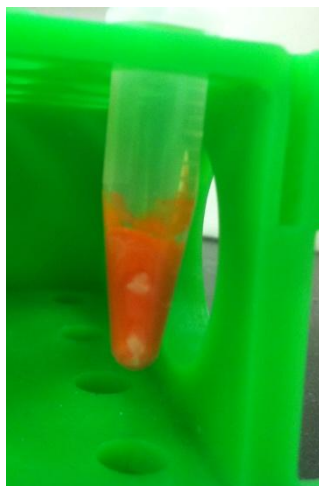


FT-Raman, 1064nm

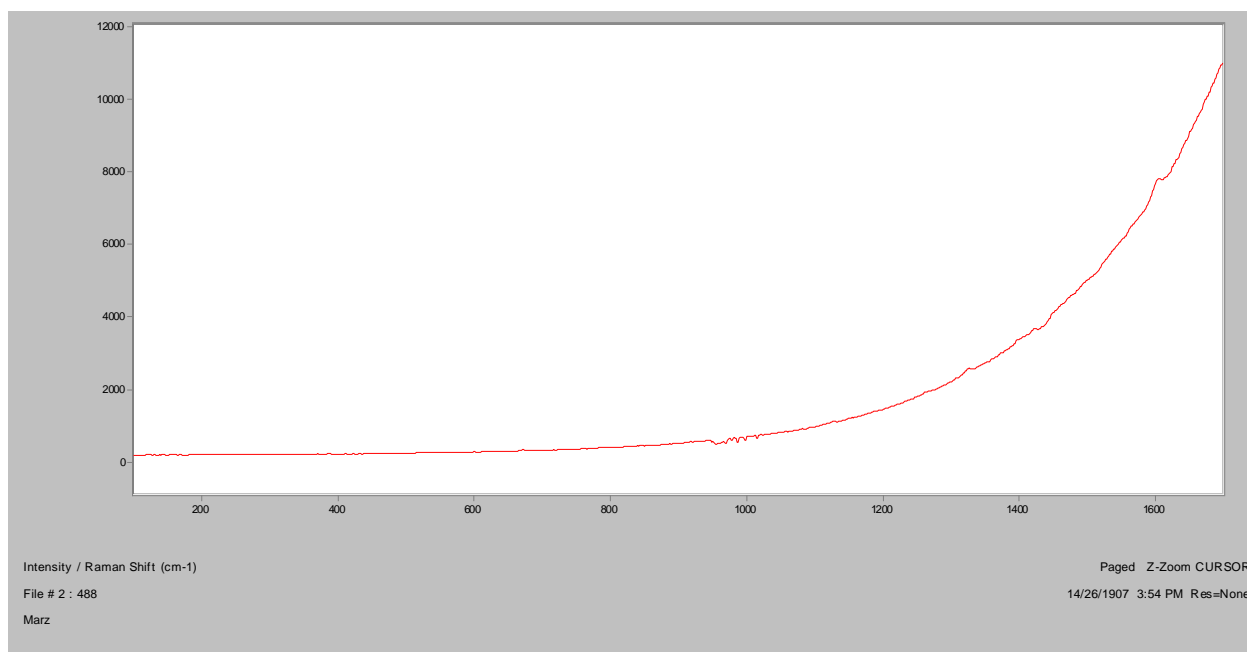


SERS, 488nm**FT-IR (ATR)**

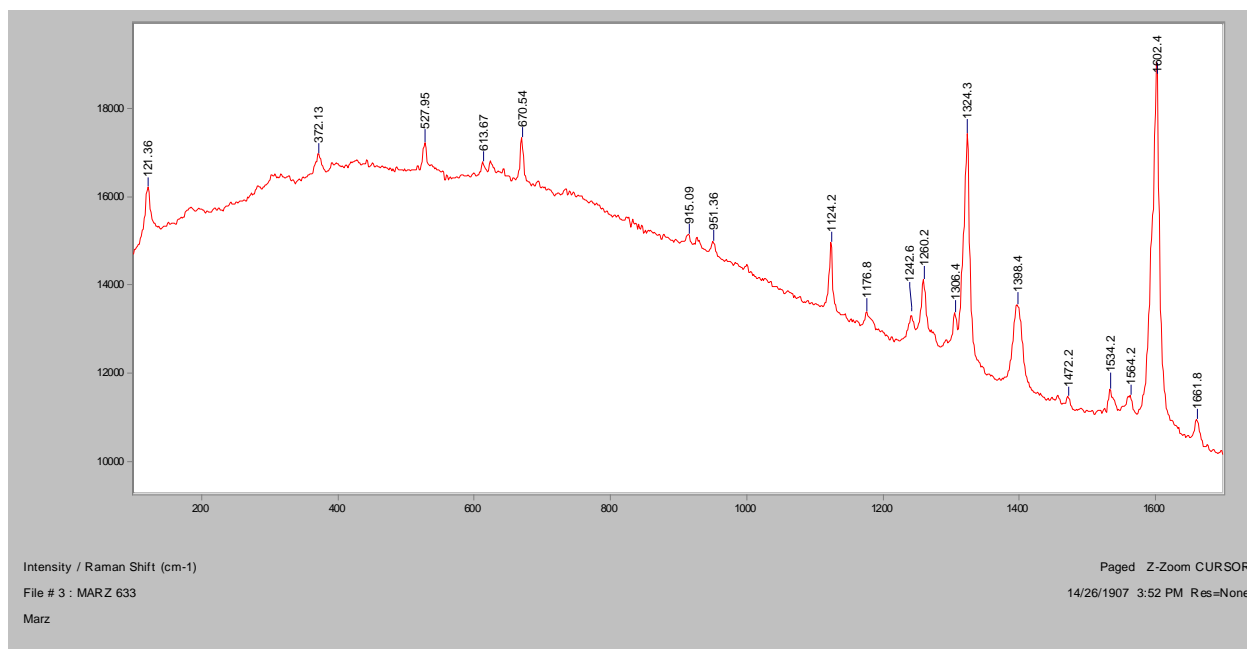
XRF

Marz**Bright Field, 100x****Dark Field, 100x****In RI 1.550, 400x****Crossed polars, In RI 1.550, 400x****Post-extraction**

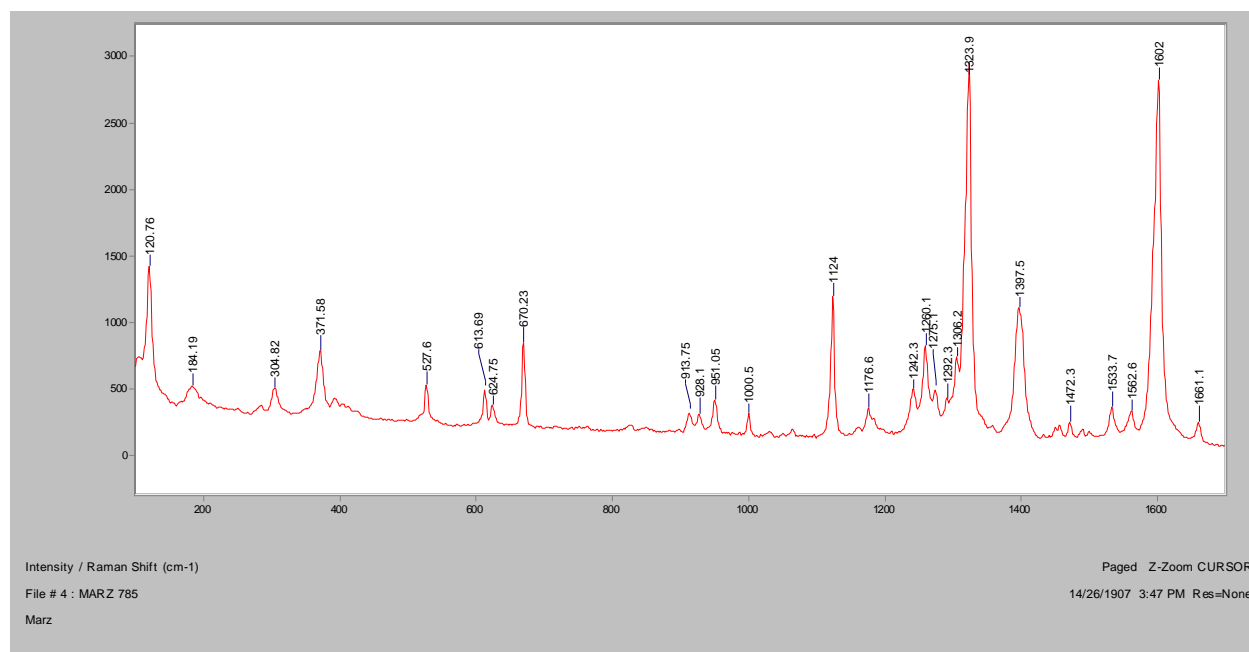
Normal Raman, 488nm



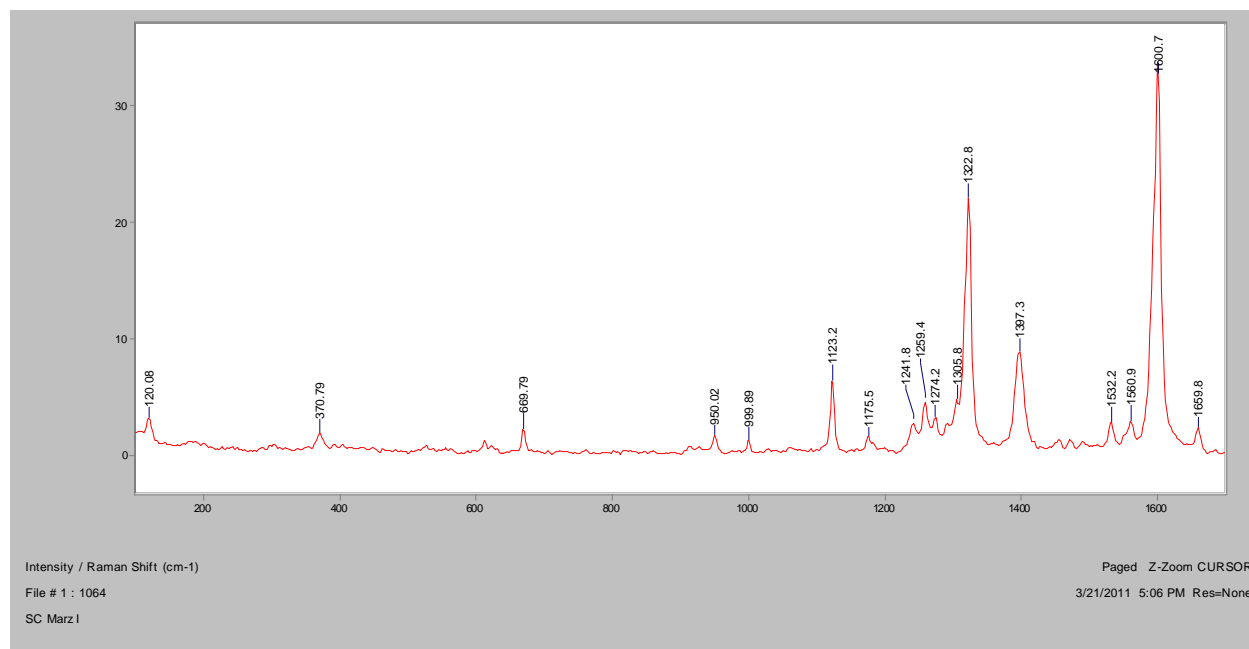
Normal Raman, 633nm



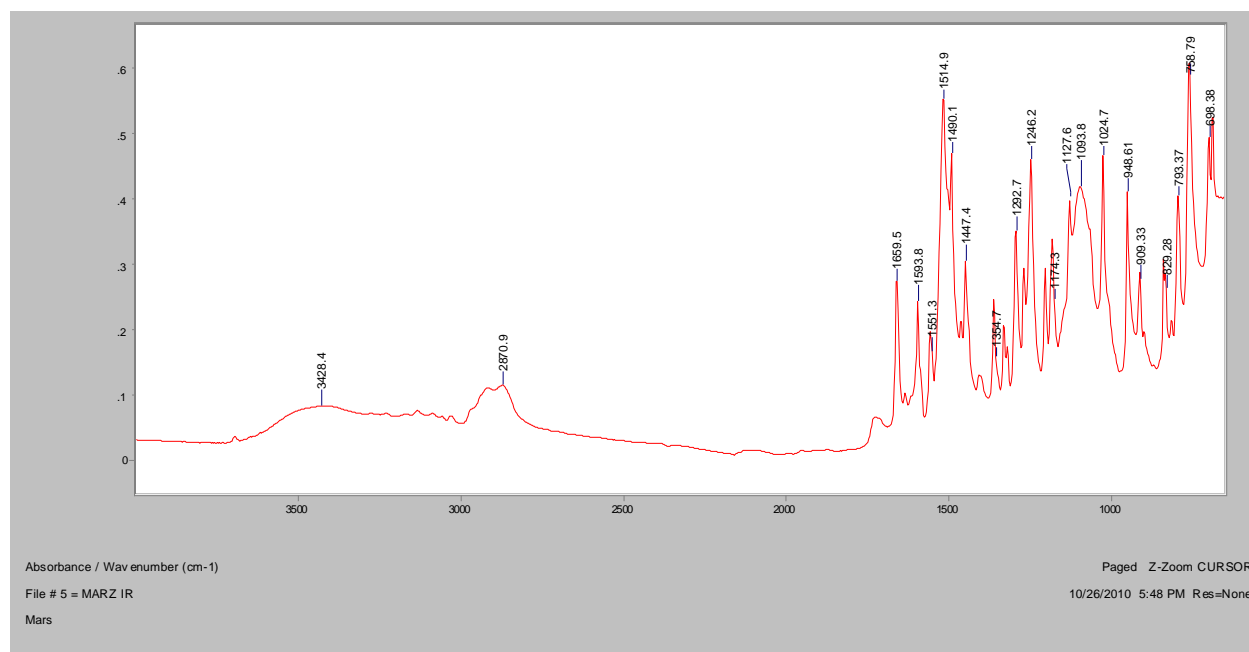
Normal Raman, 785nm



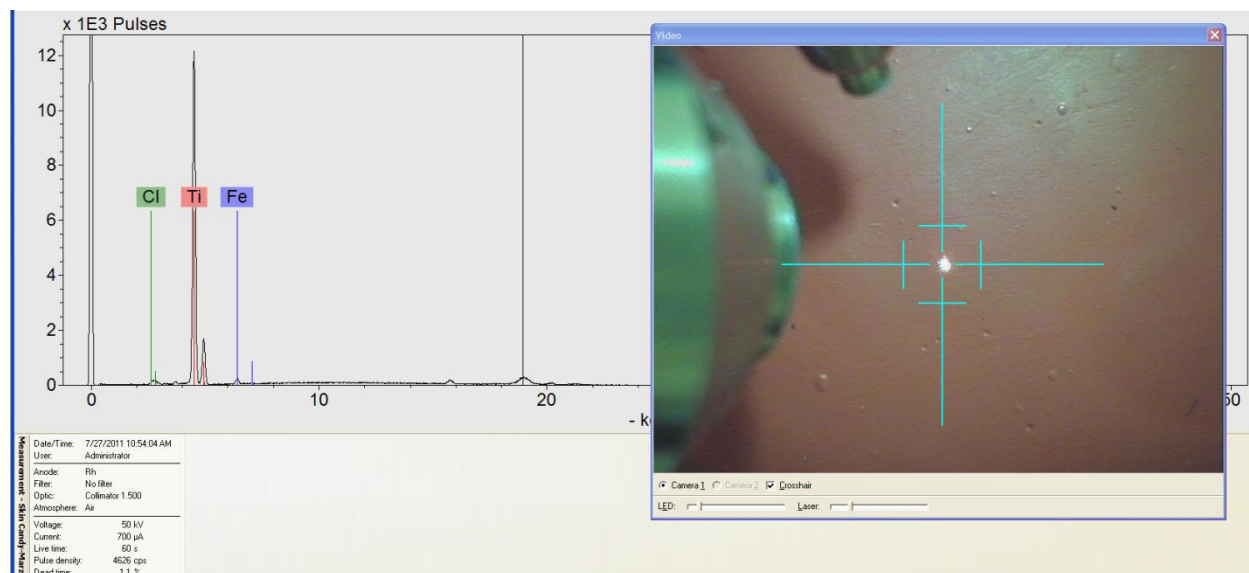
FT-Raman, 1064nm

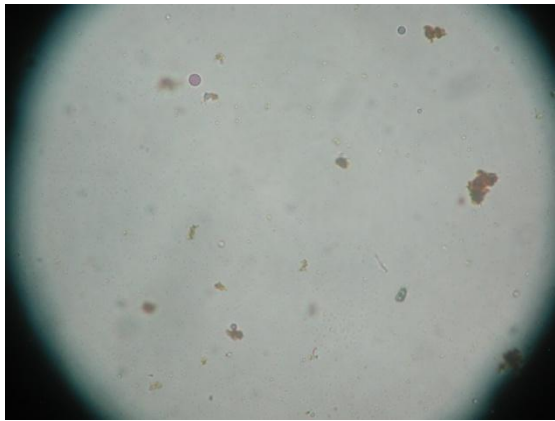
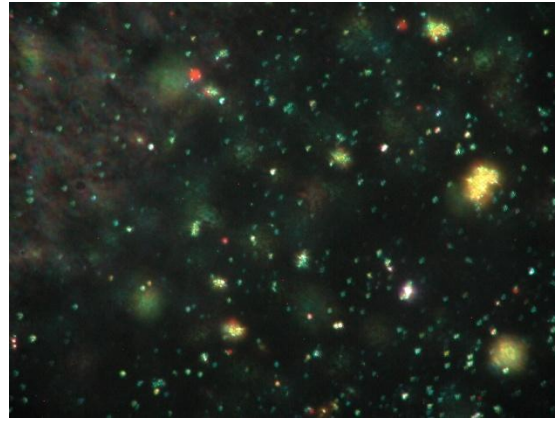
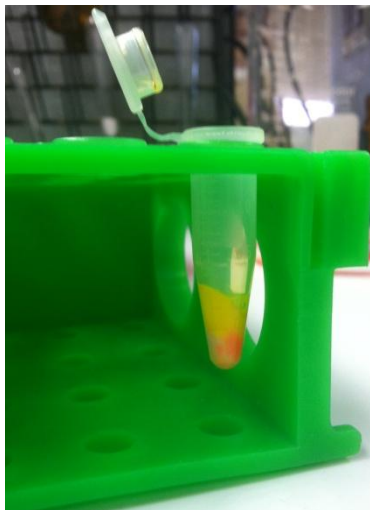


FT-IR (ATR)

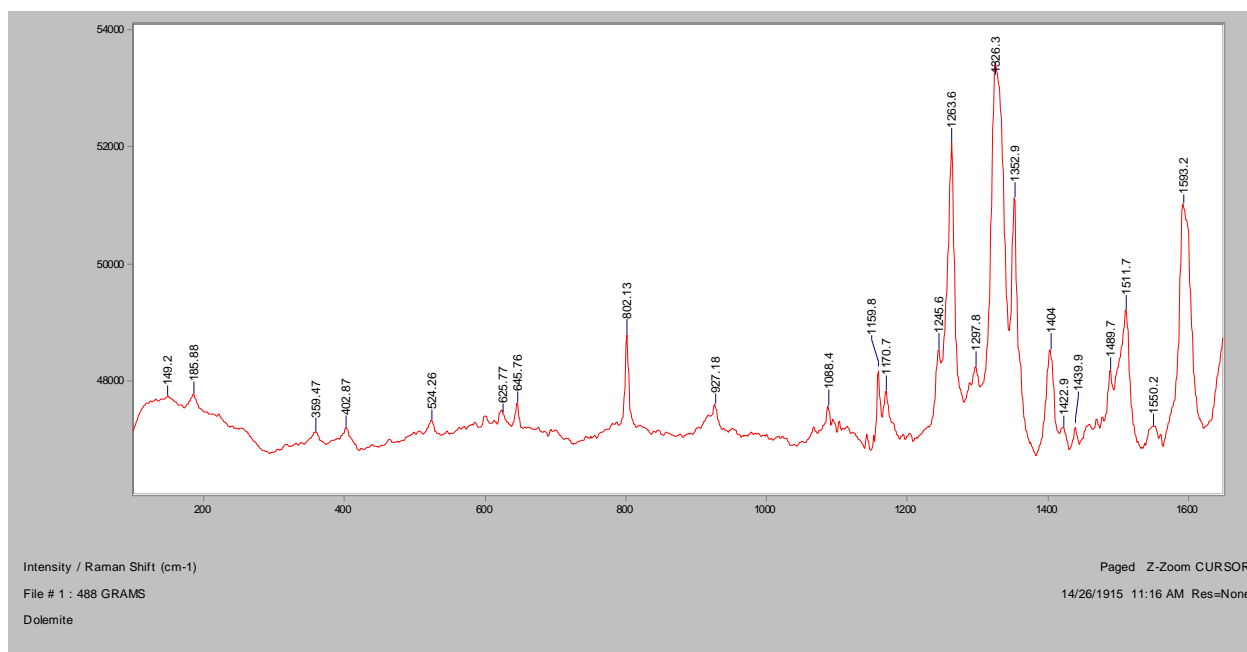


XRF

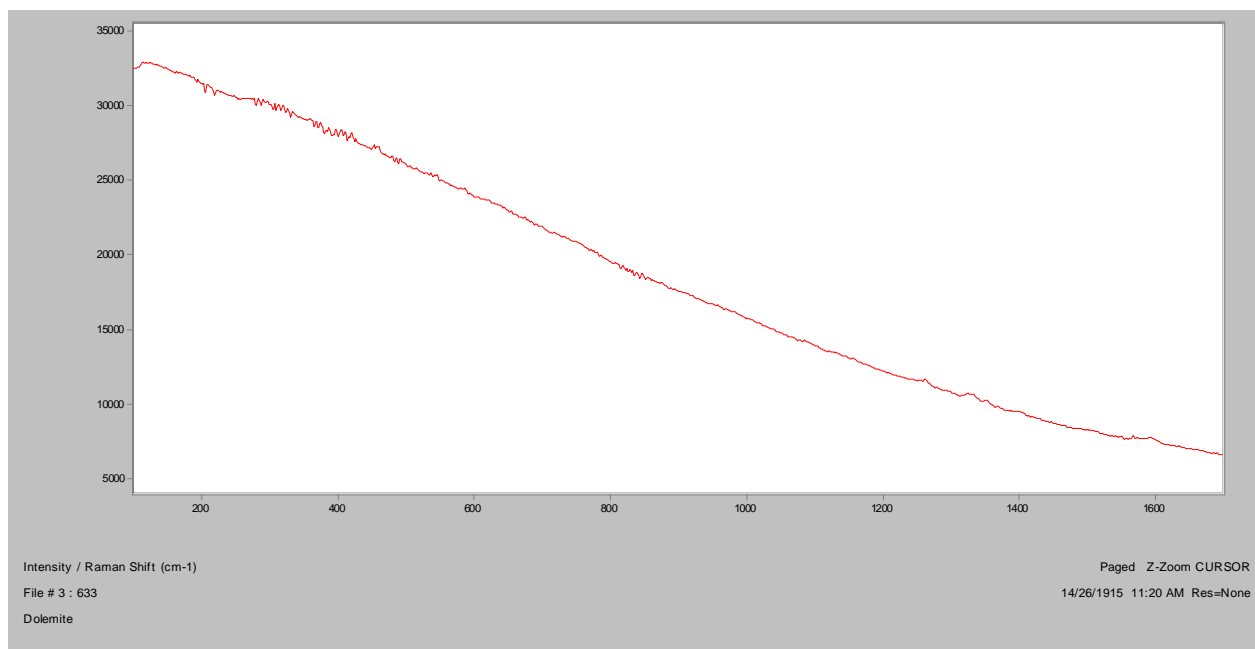


Dolemite**Bright Field, 400x****Dark Field, 100x****In RI 1.550, 400x****Crossed polars, In RI 1.550, 400x****Post-extraction**

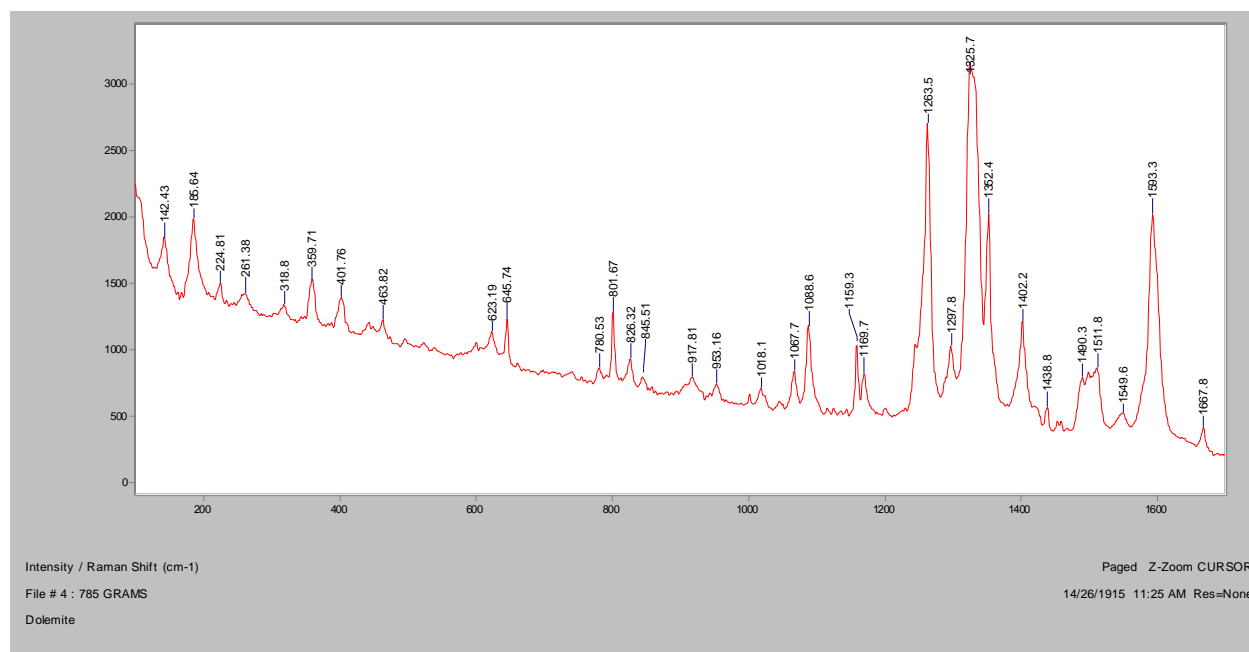
Normal Raman, 488nm



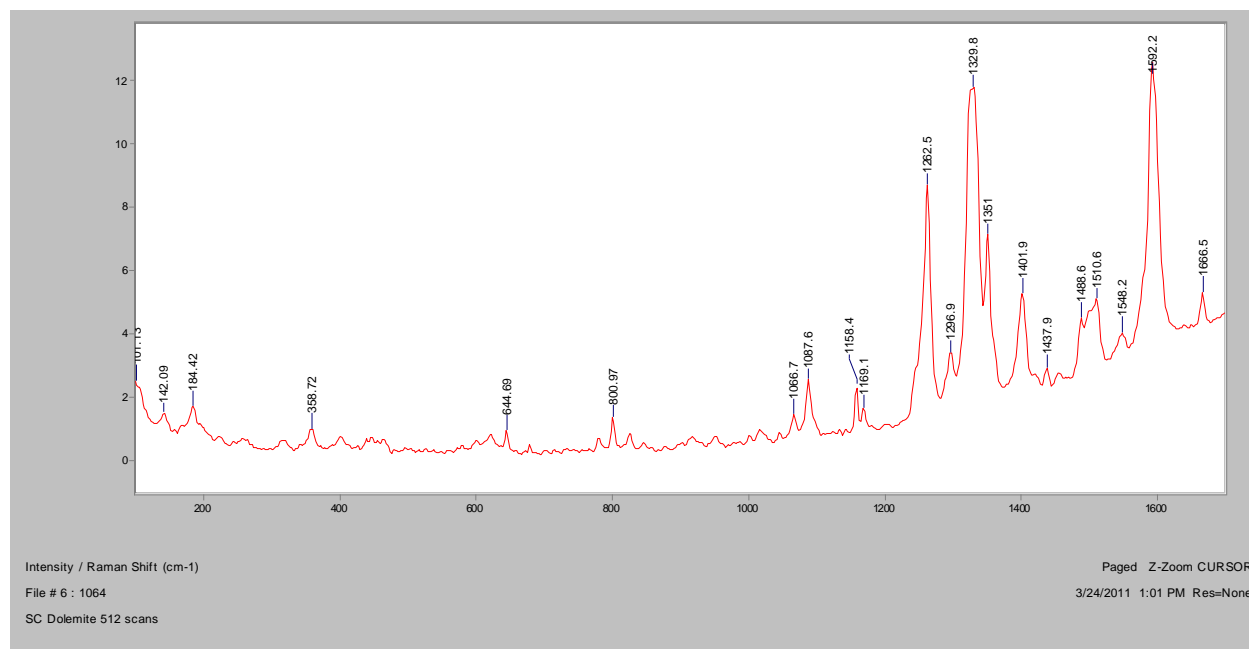
Normal Raman, 633nm



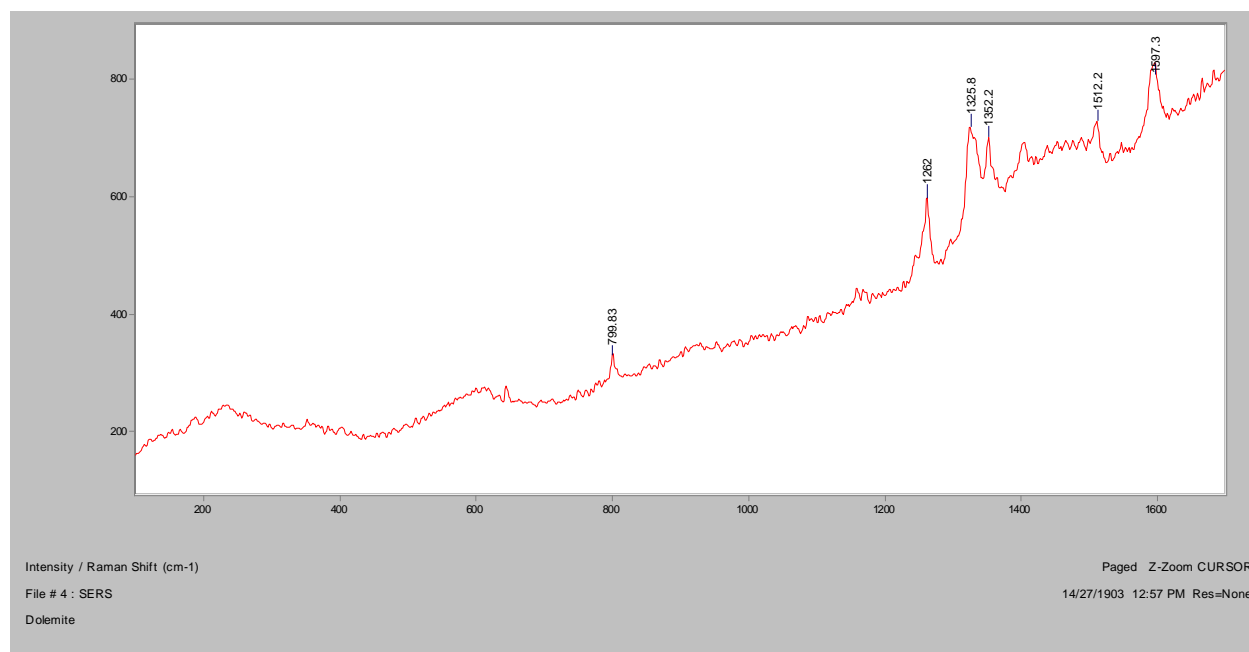
Normal Raman, 785nm



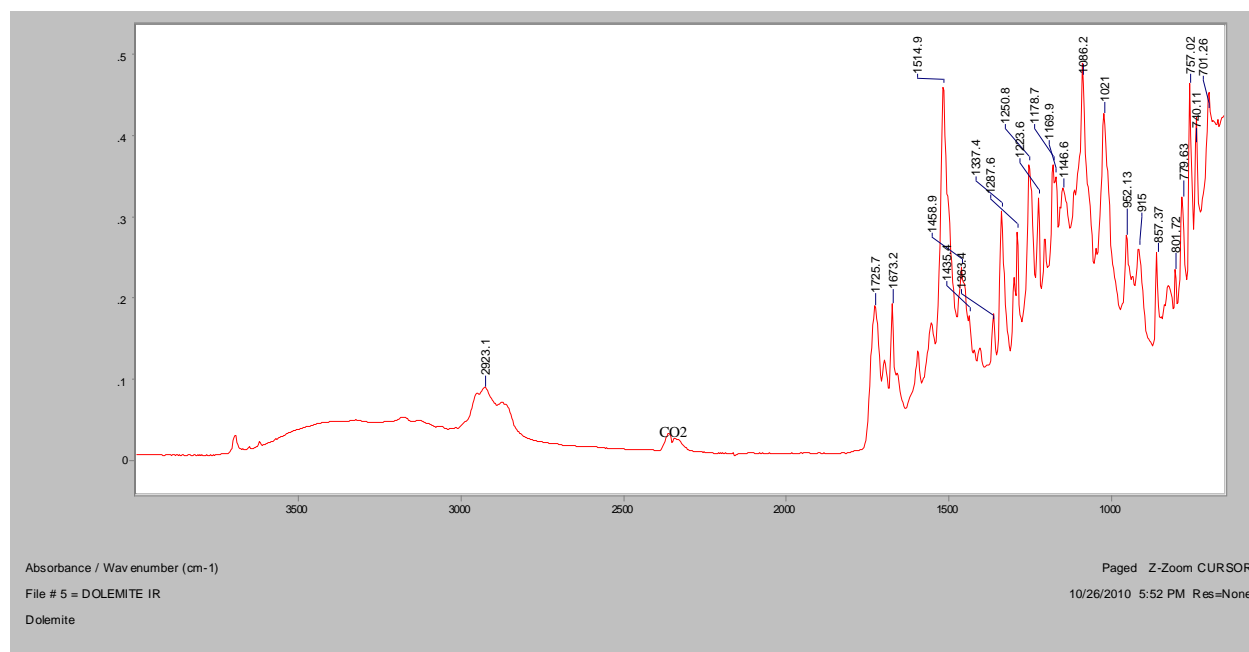
FT-Raman, 1064nm



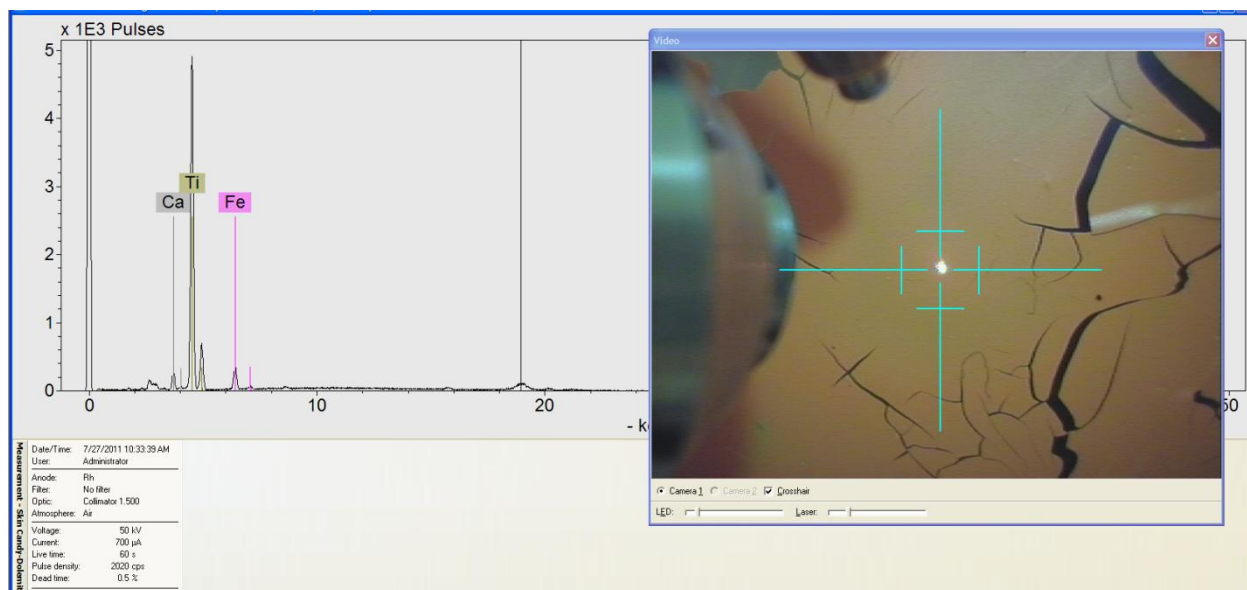
SERS, 488nm

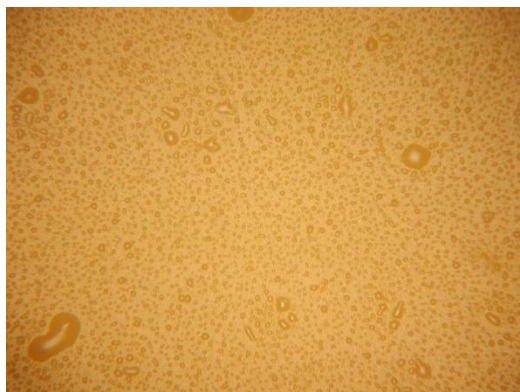
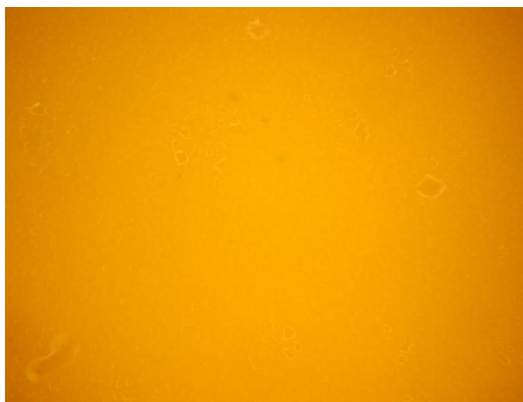
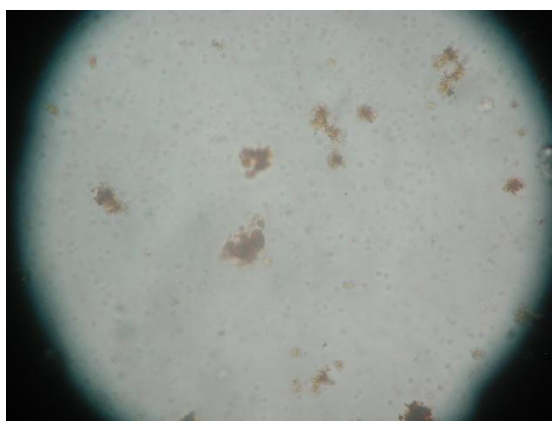
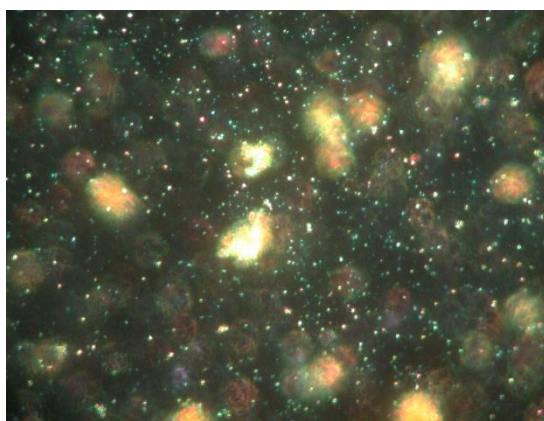


FT-IR (ATR)

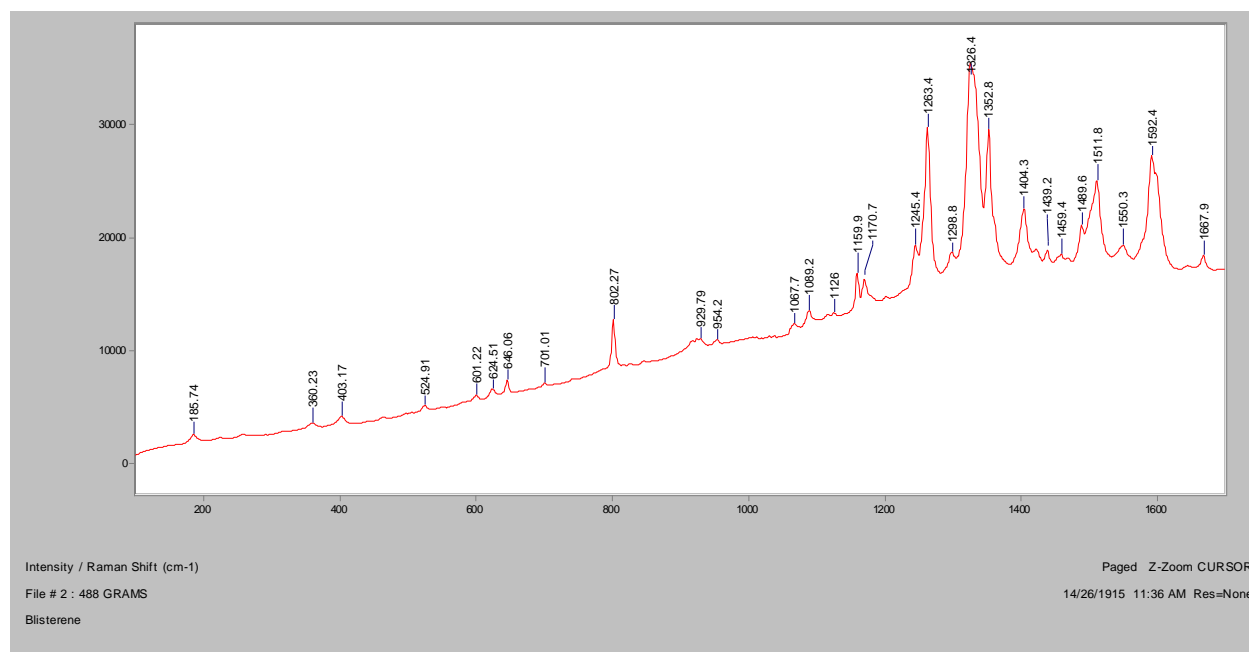


XRF

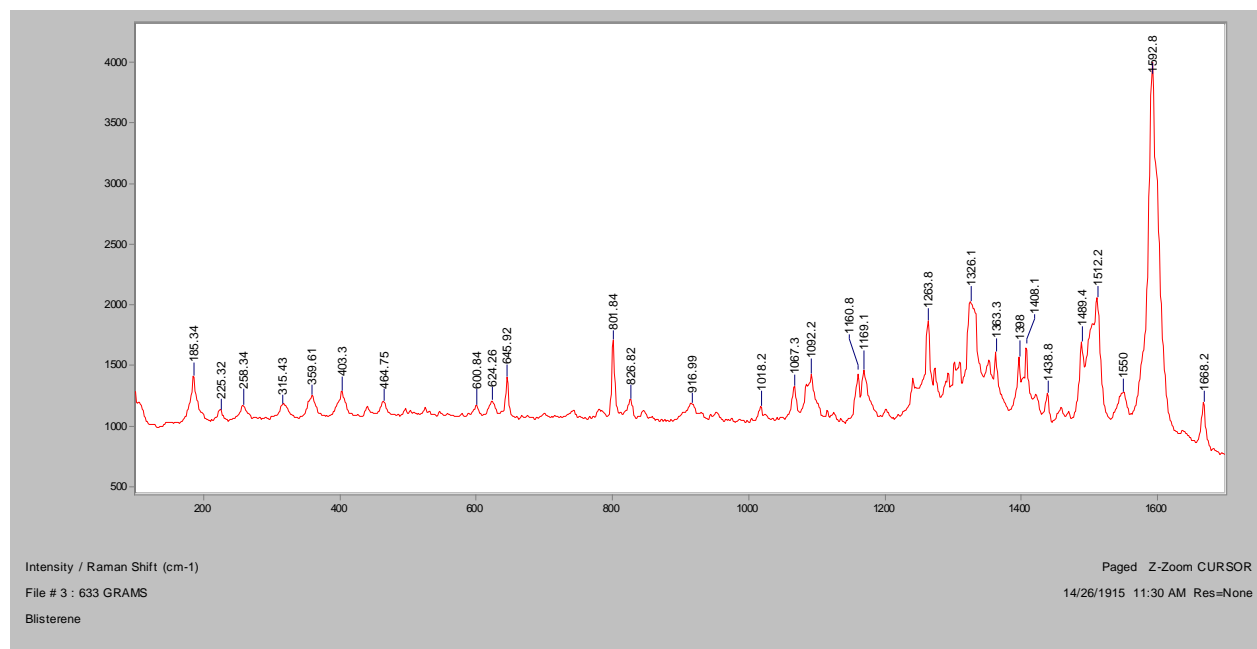


Blisterine**Bright Field, 100x****Dark Field, 100x****In RI 1.550, 400x****Crossed polars, In RI 1.550, 400x**

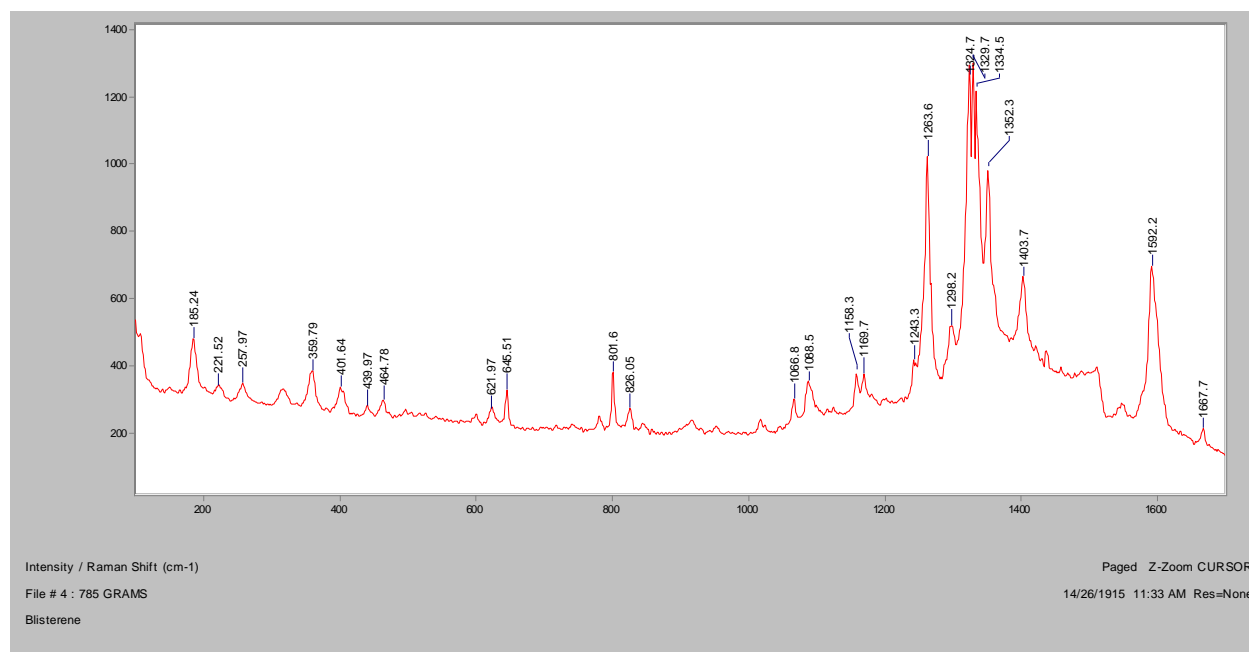
Normal Raman, 488nm



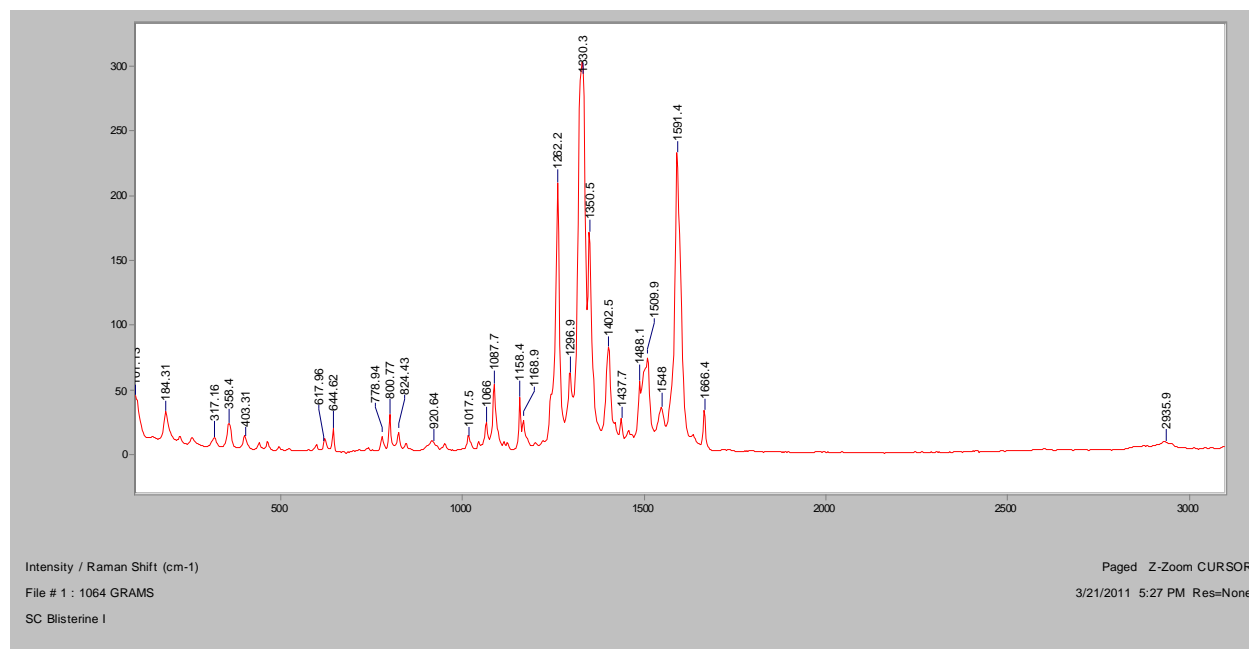
Normal Raman, 633nm



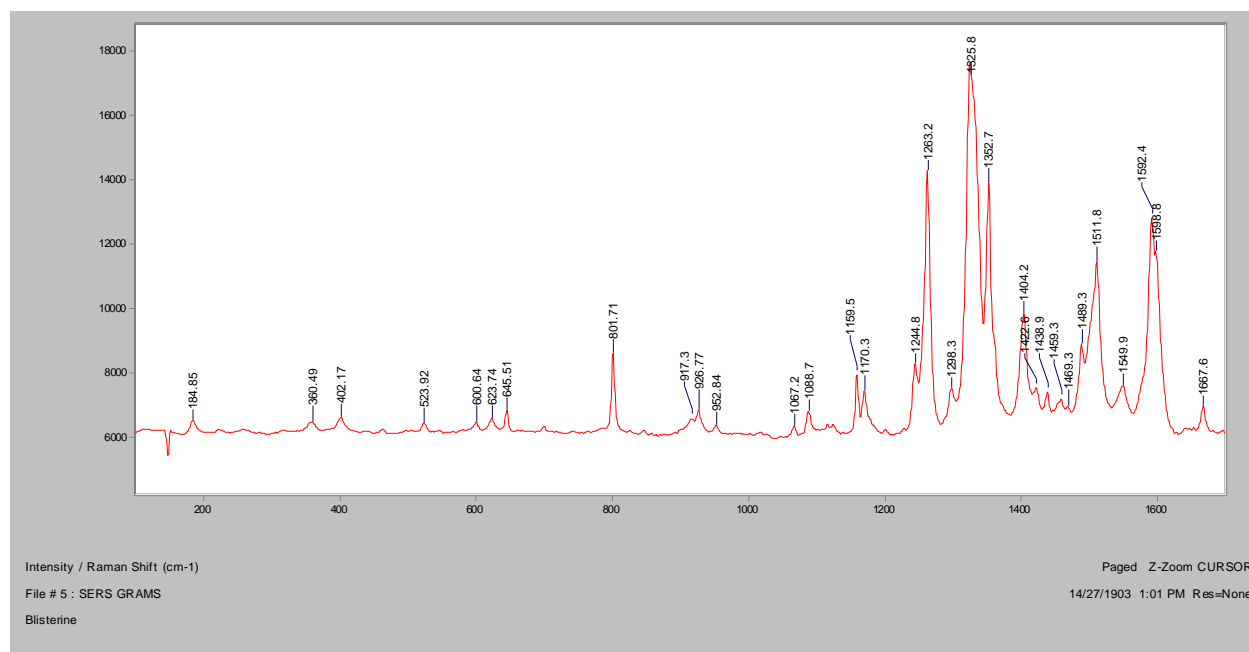
Normal Raman, 785nm



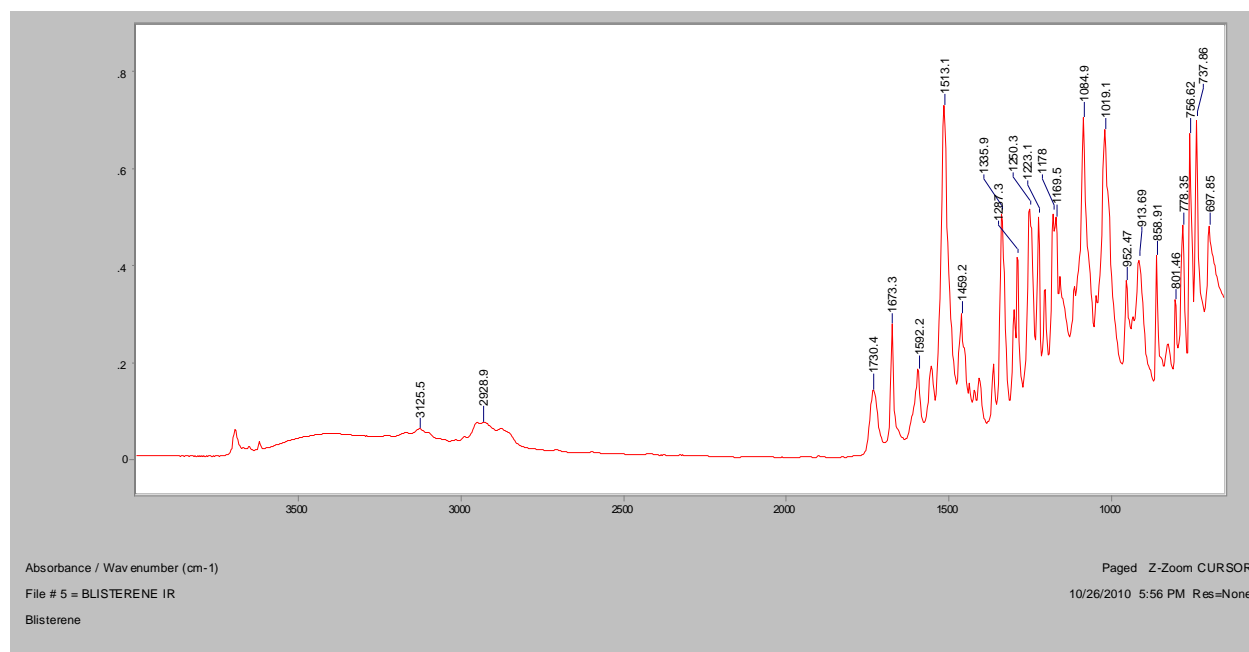
FT-Raman, 1064nm



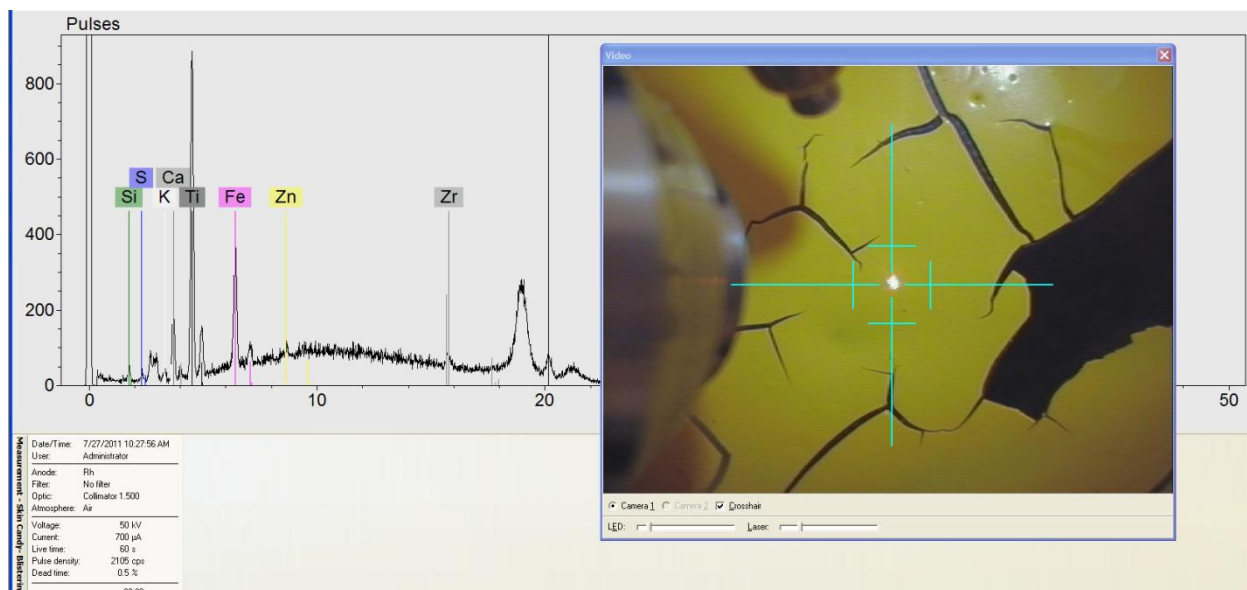
SERS, 488nm



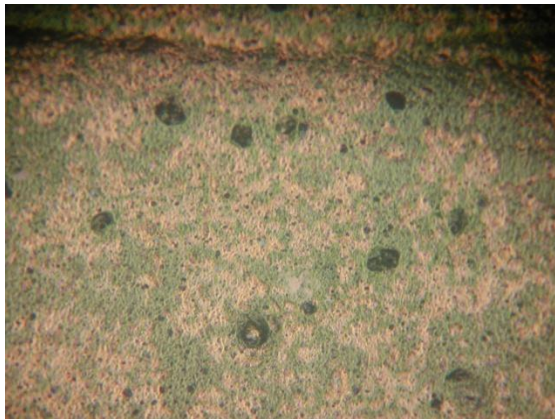
FT-IR (ATR)



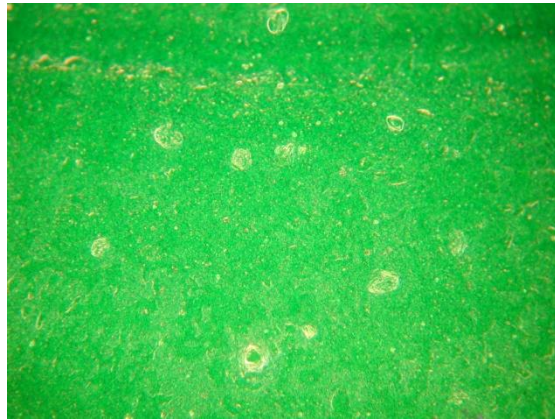
XRF



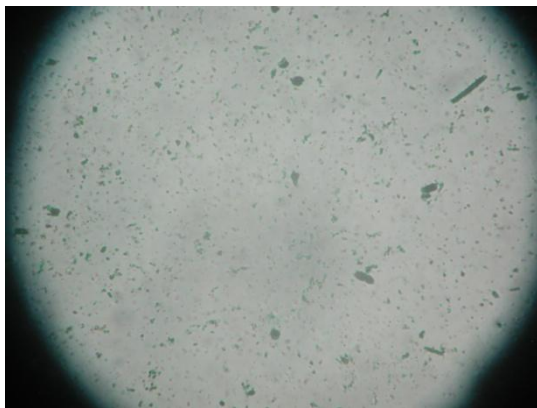
Sassygrass



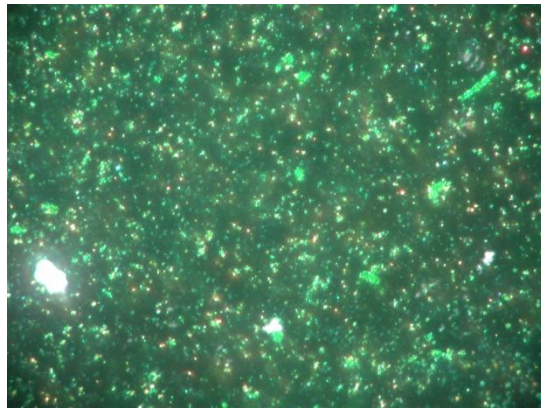
Bright Field, 100x



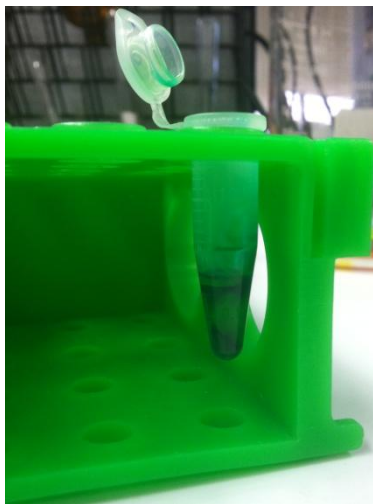
Dark Field, 100x



In RI 1.550, 400x

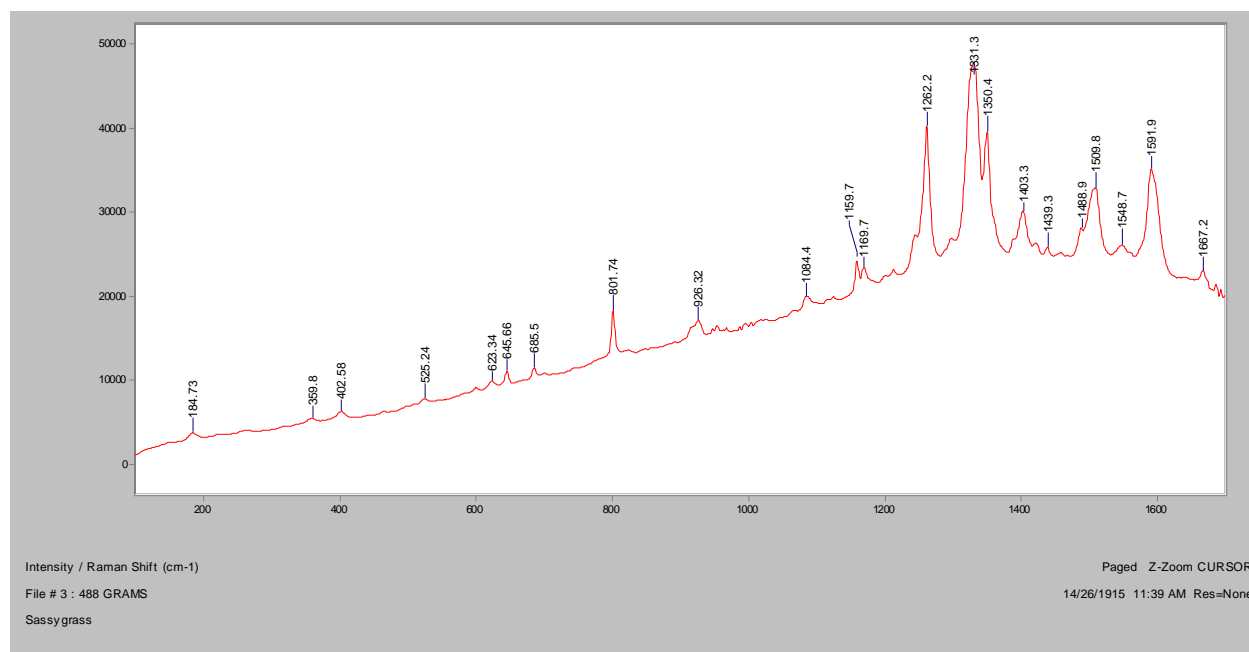


Crossed polars, In RI 1.550, 400x

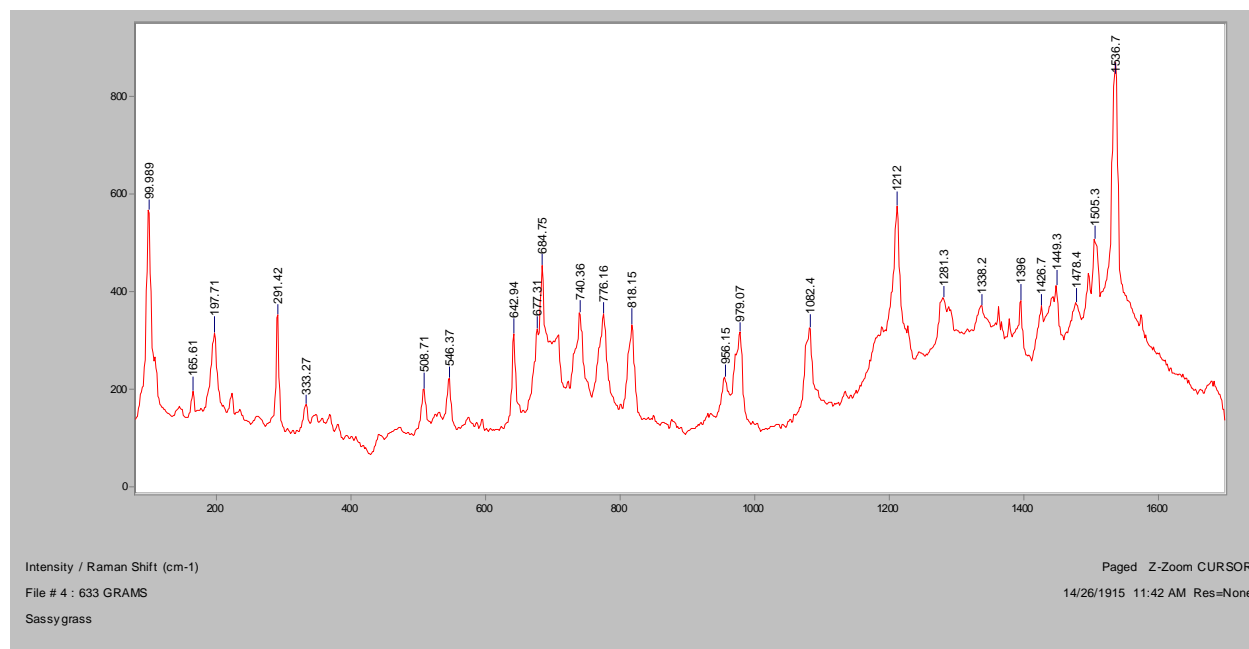


Post-extraction

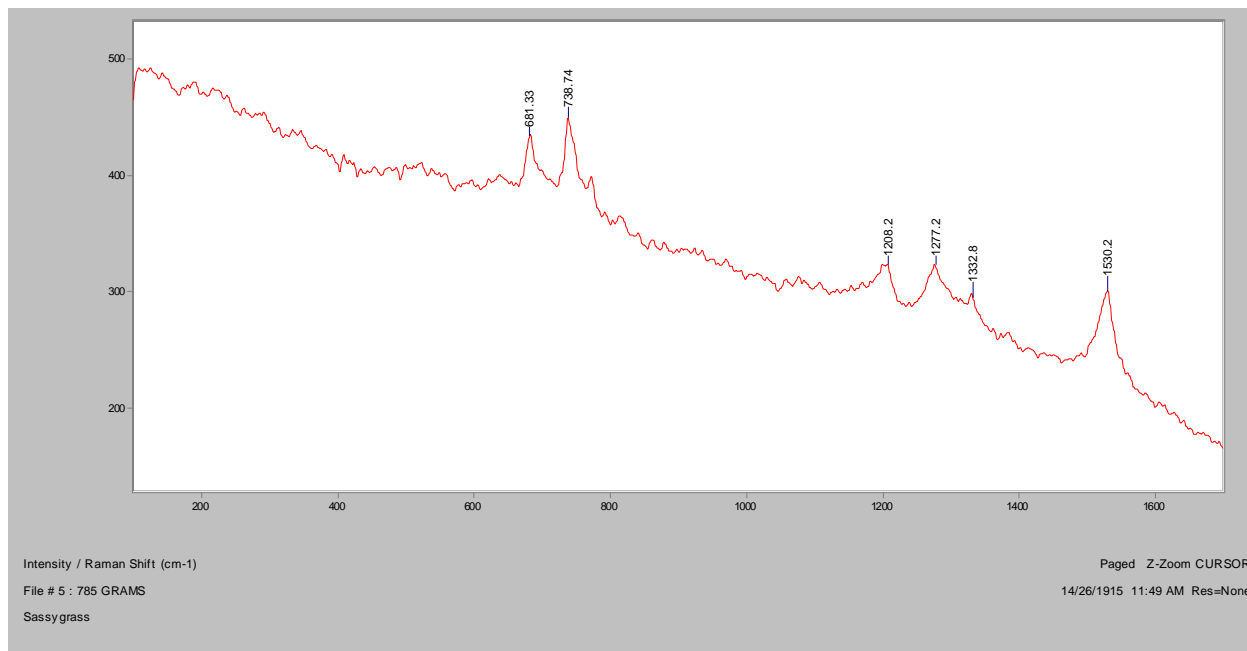
Normal Raman, 488nm



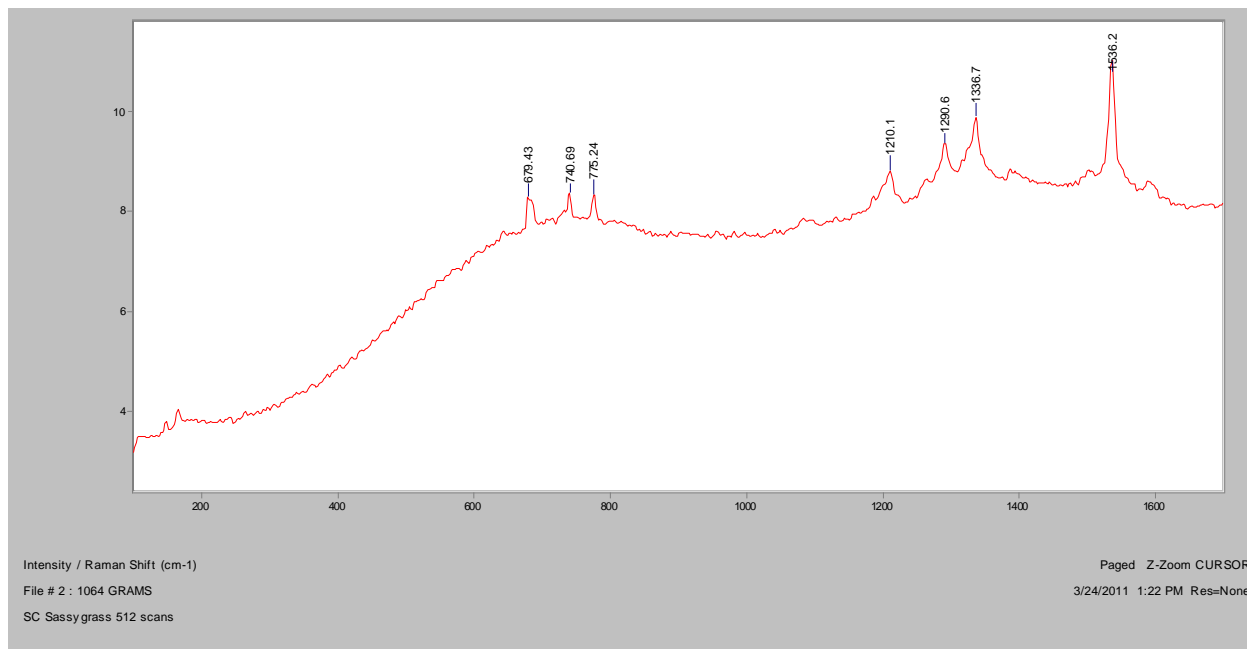
Normal Raman, 633nm



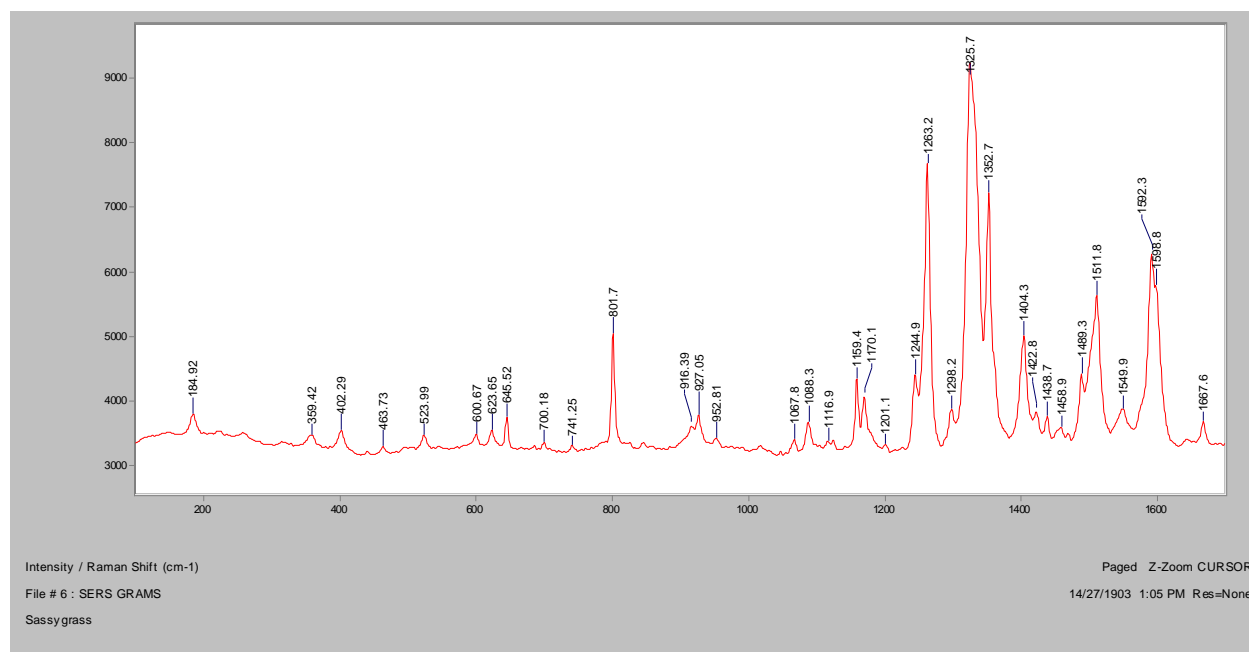
Normal Raman, 785nm



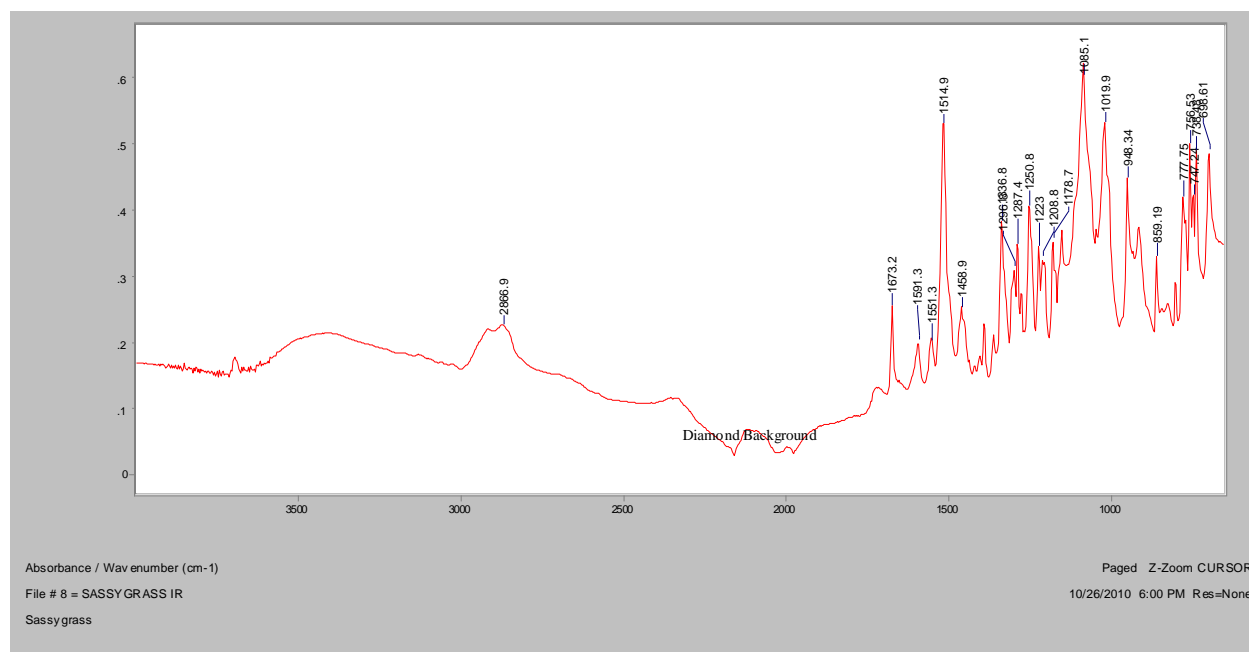
FT- Raman, 1064nm



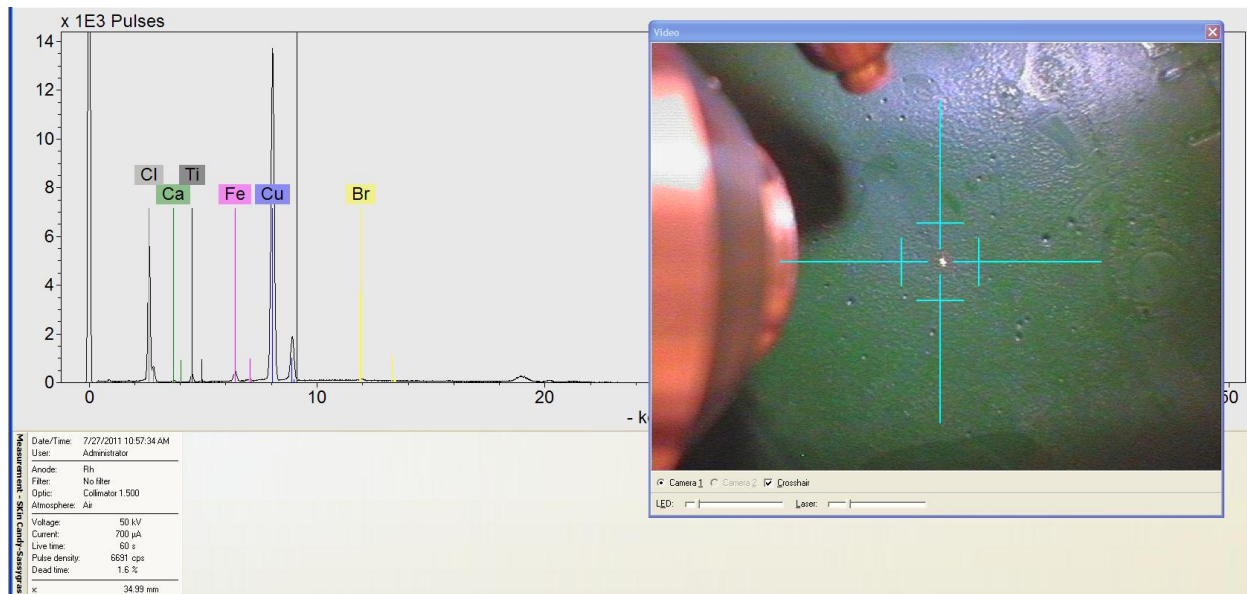
SERS, 488nm



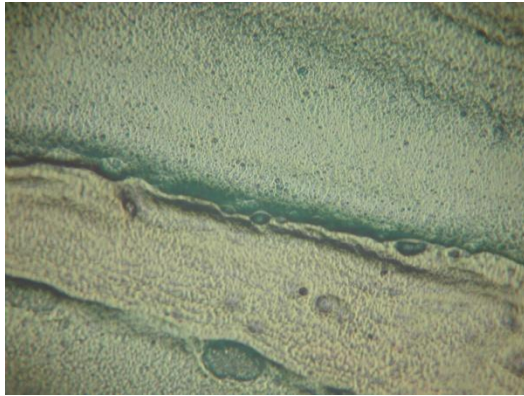
FT-IR (ATR)



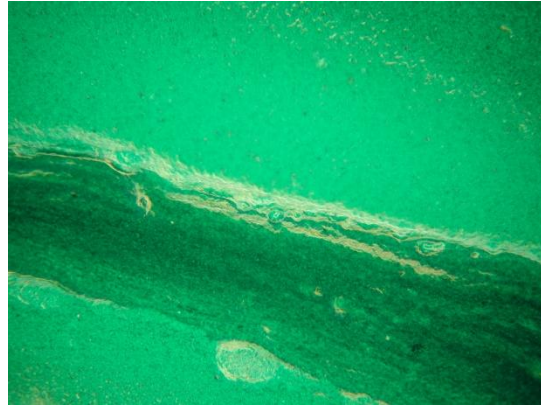
XRF



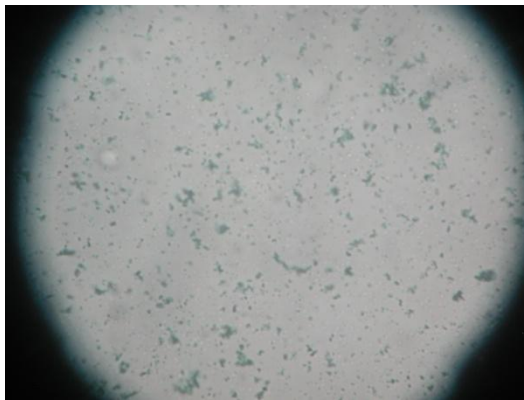
Tastywaves



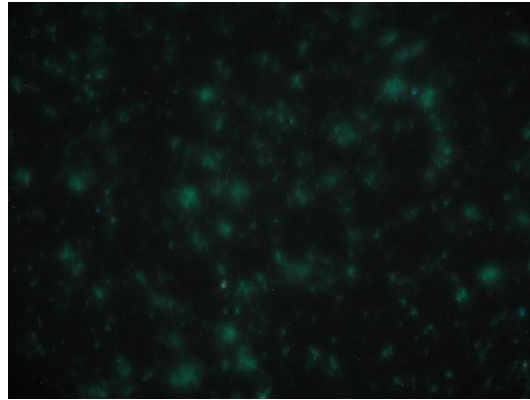
Bright Field, 100x



Dark Field, 100x

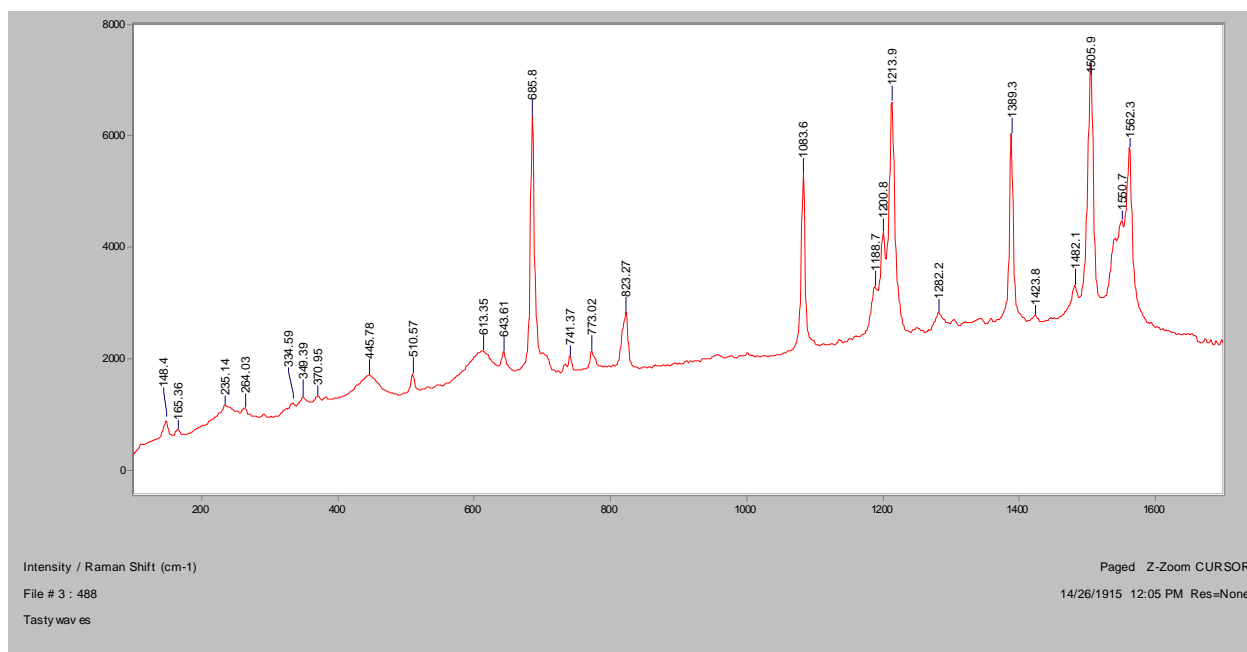


In RI 1.550, 400x

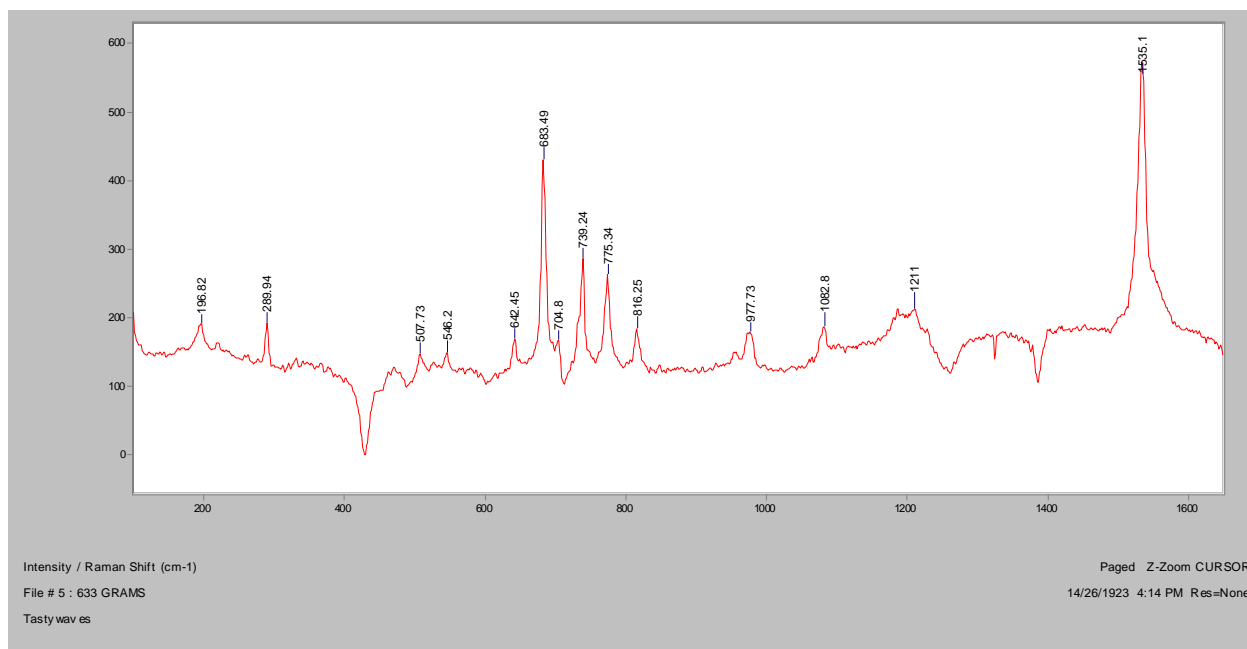


Crossed polars, In RI 1.550, 400x

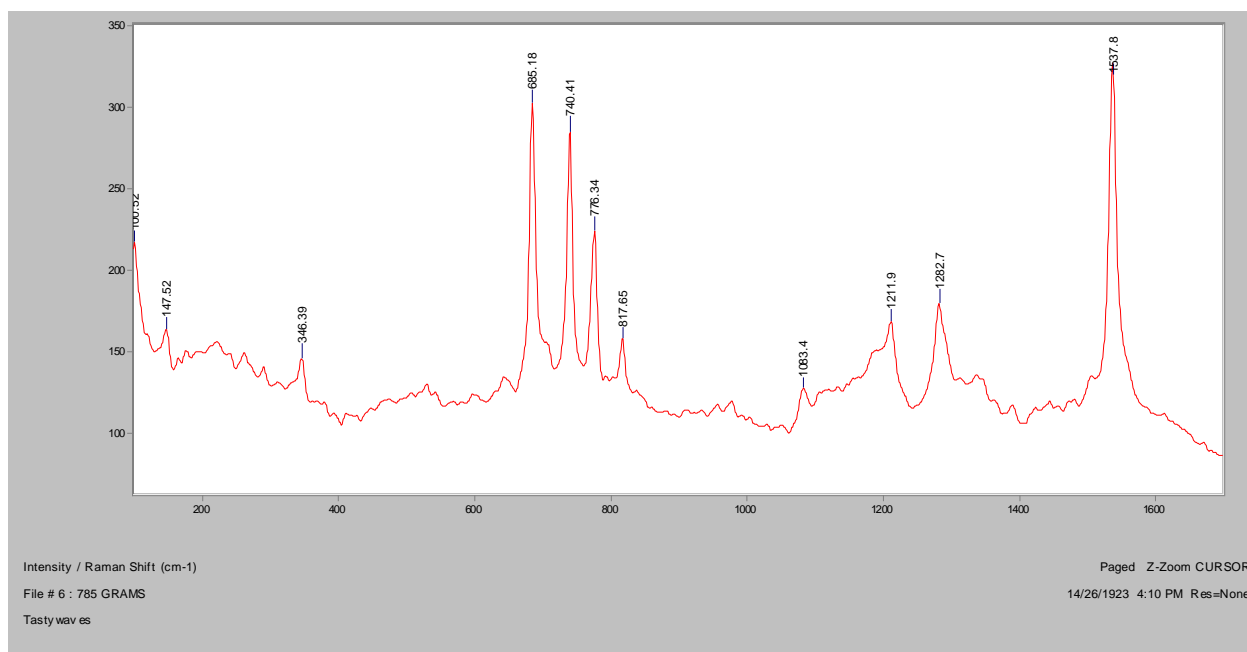
Normal Raman, 488nm



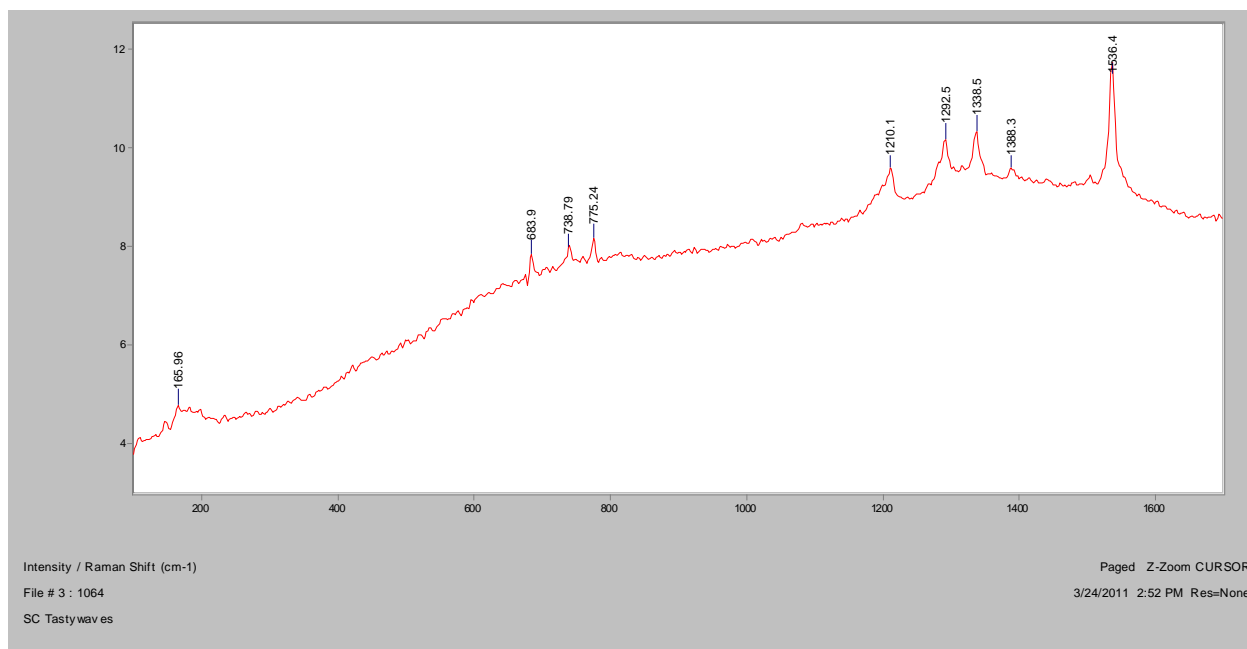
Normal Raman, 633nm

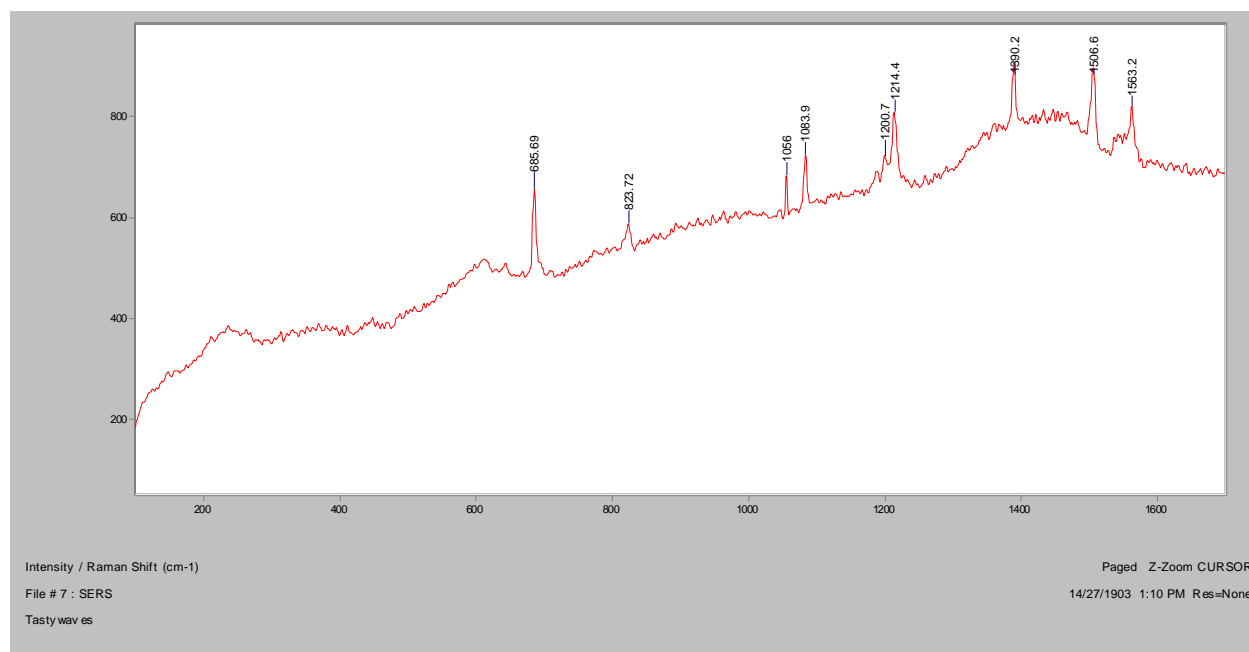
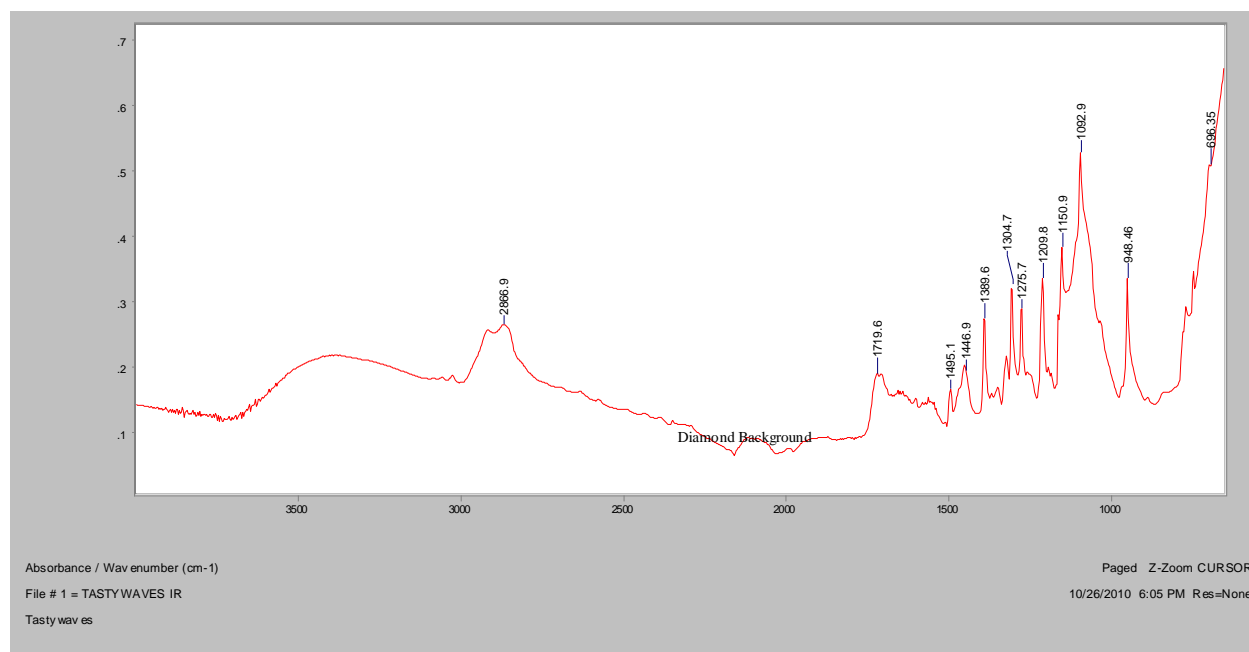


Normal Raman, 785nm

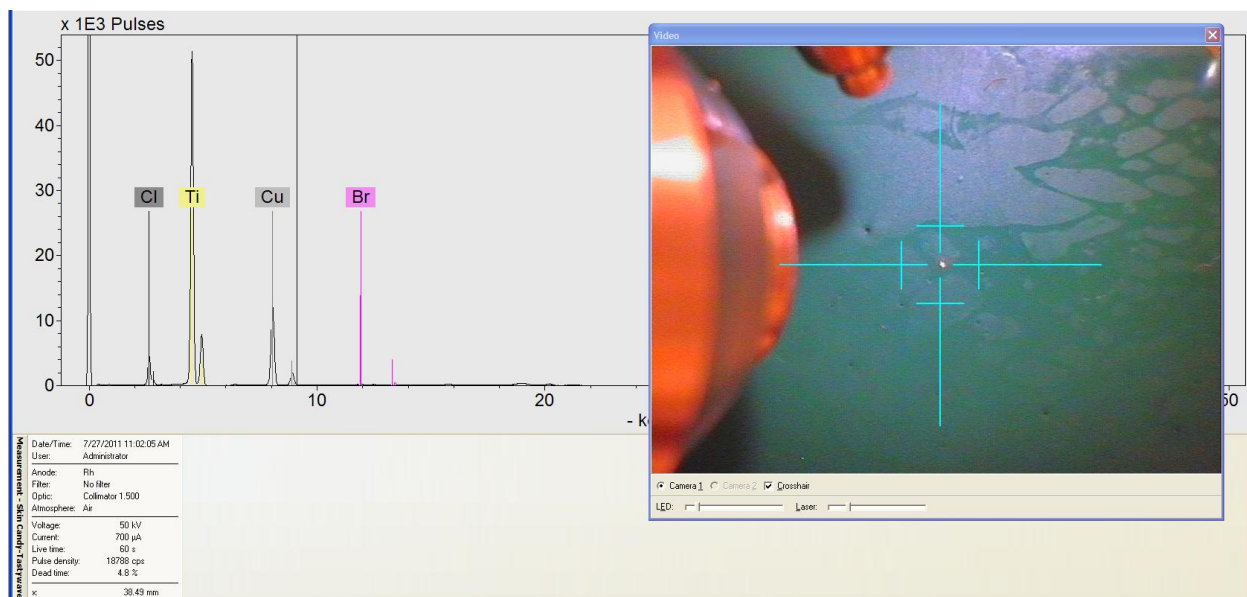


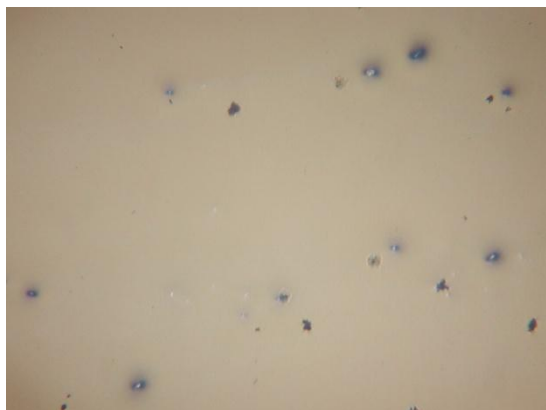
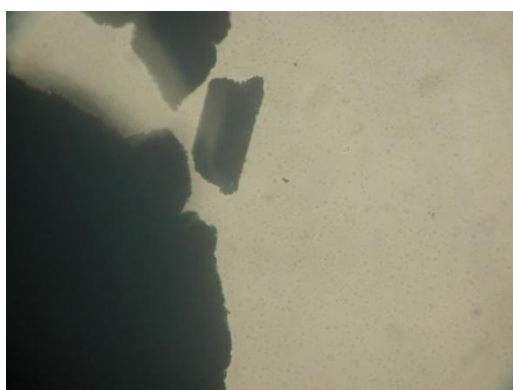
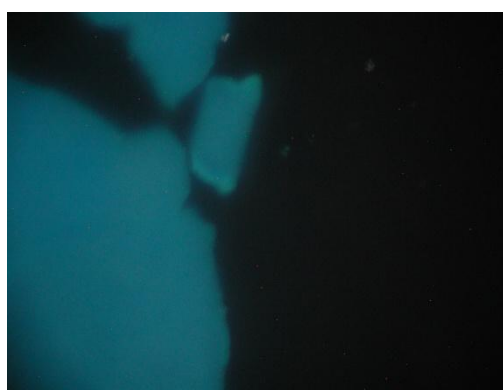
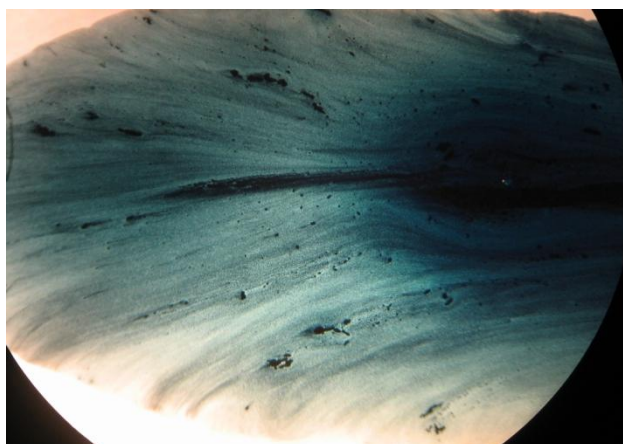
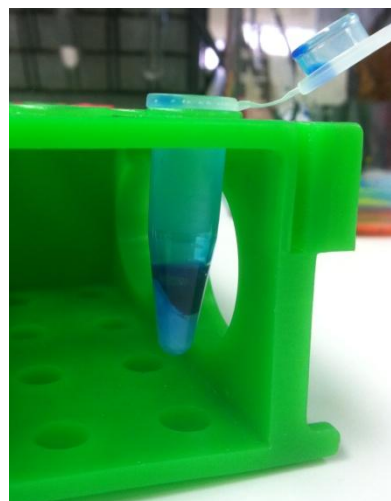
FT-Raman, 1064nm



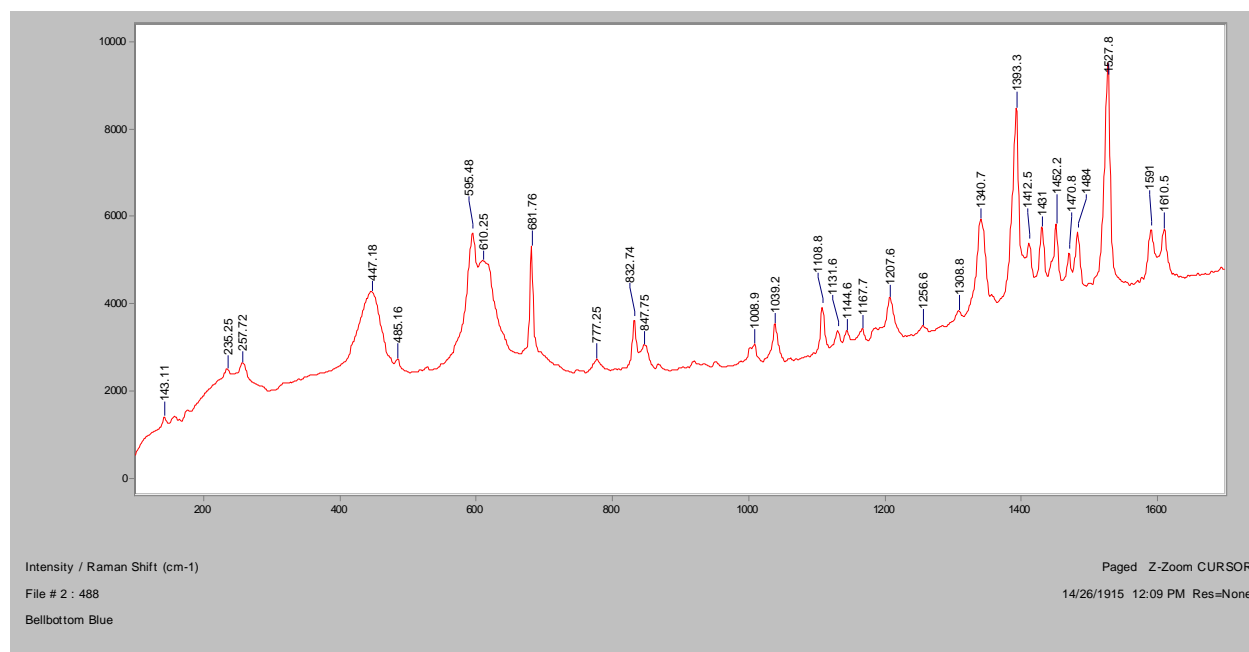
SERS, 488nm**FT-IR (ATR)**

XRF

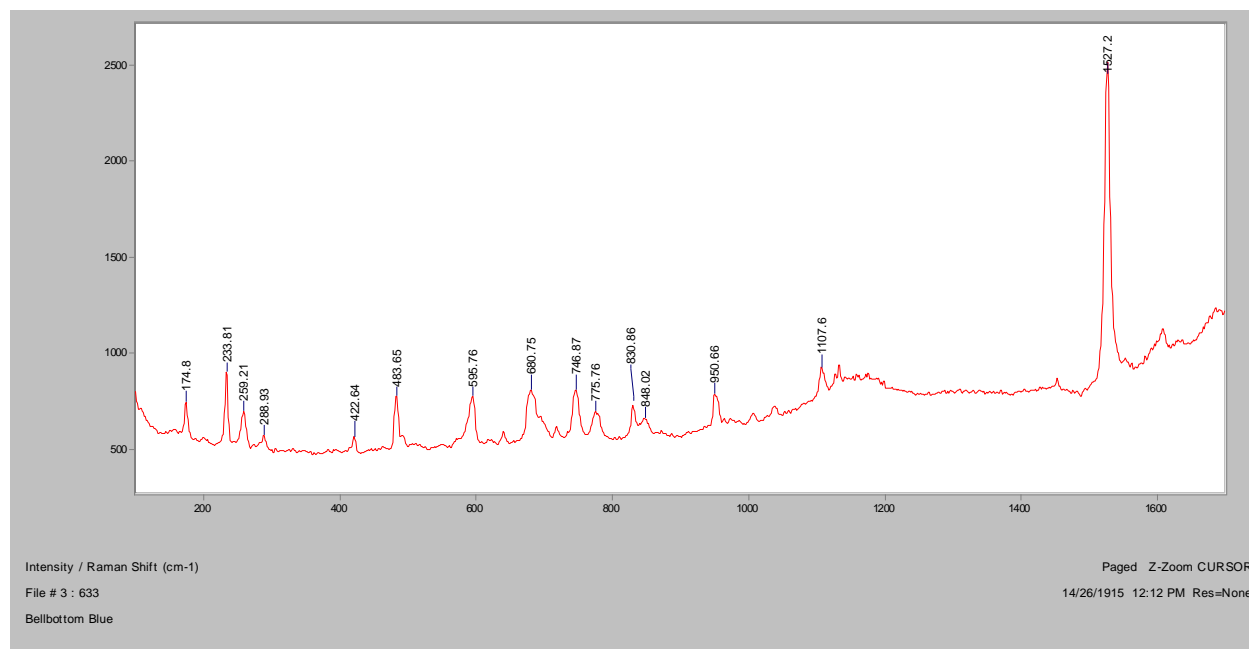


Bell Bottom Blue**Bright Field, 100x****Dark Field, 100x****In RI 1.550, 400x****Crossed polars, In RI 1.550, 400x****Smear on microscope slide after drying****Post- extraction**

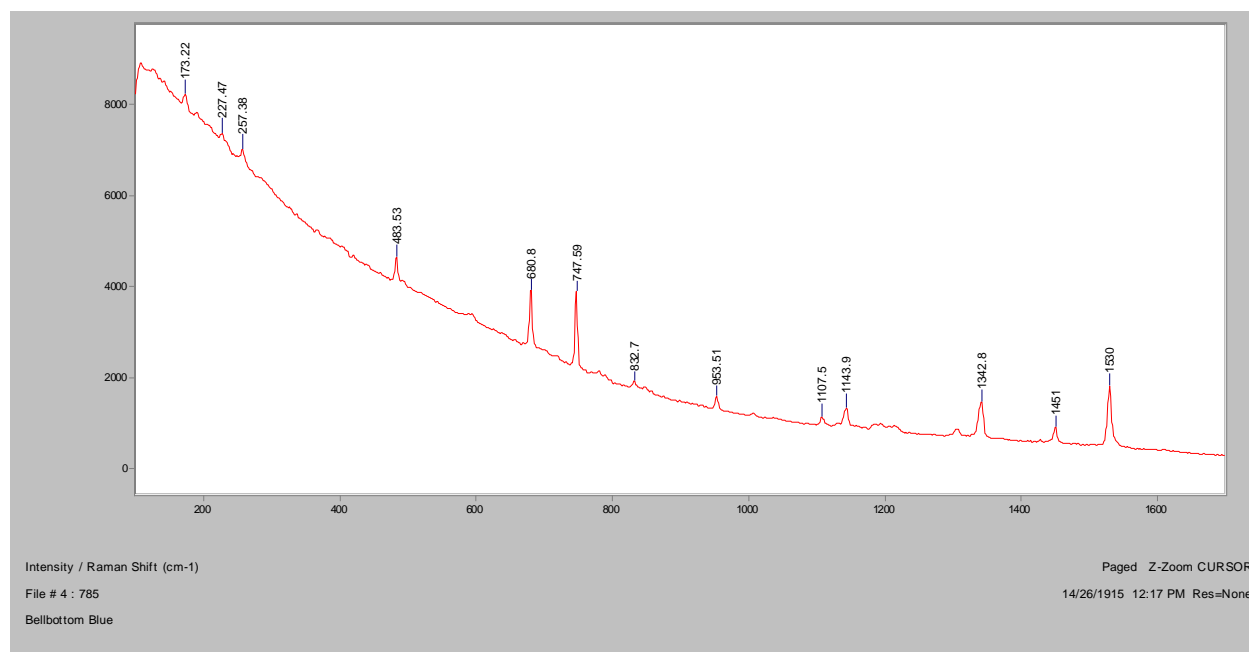
Normal Raman, 488nm



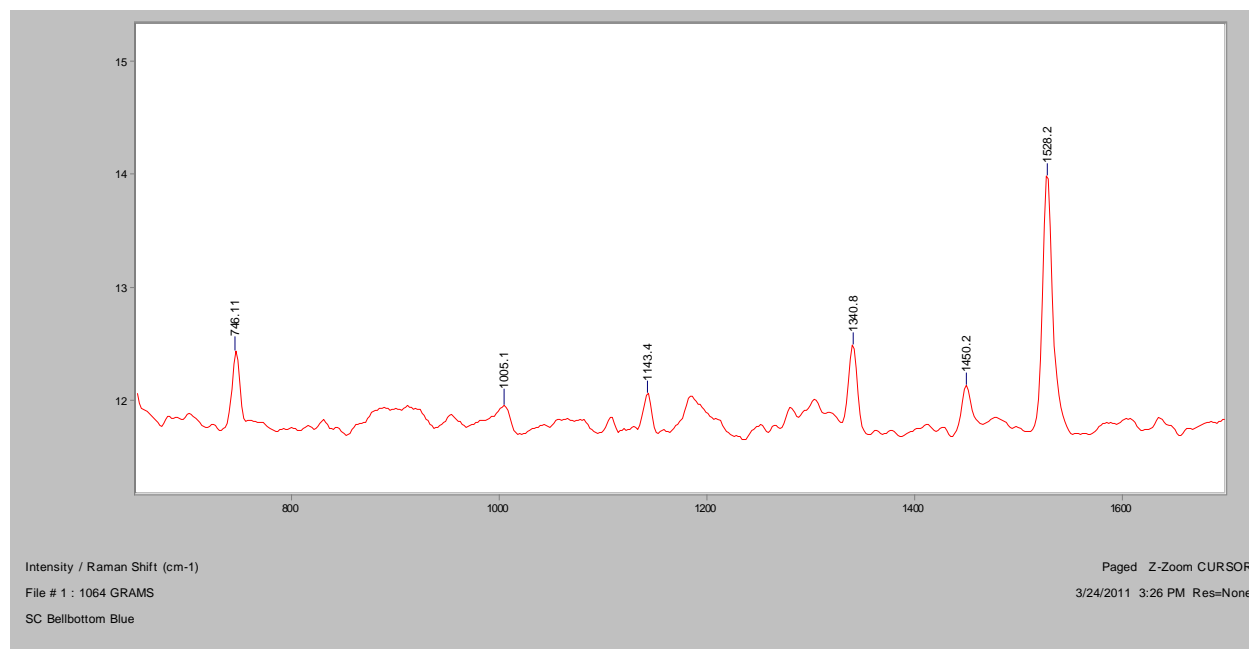
Normal Raman, 633nm



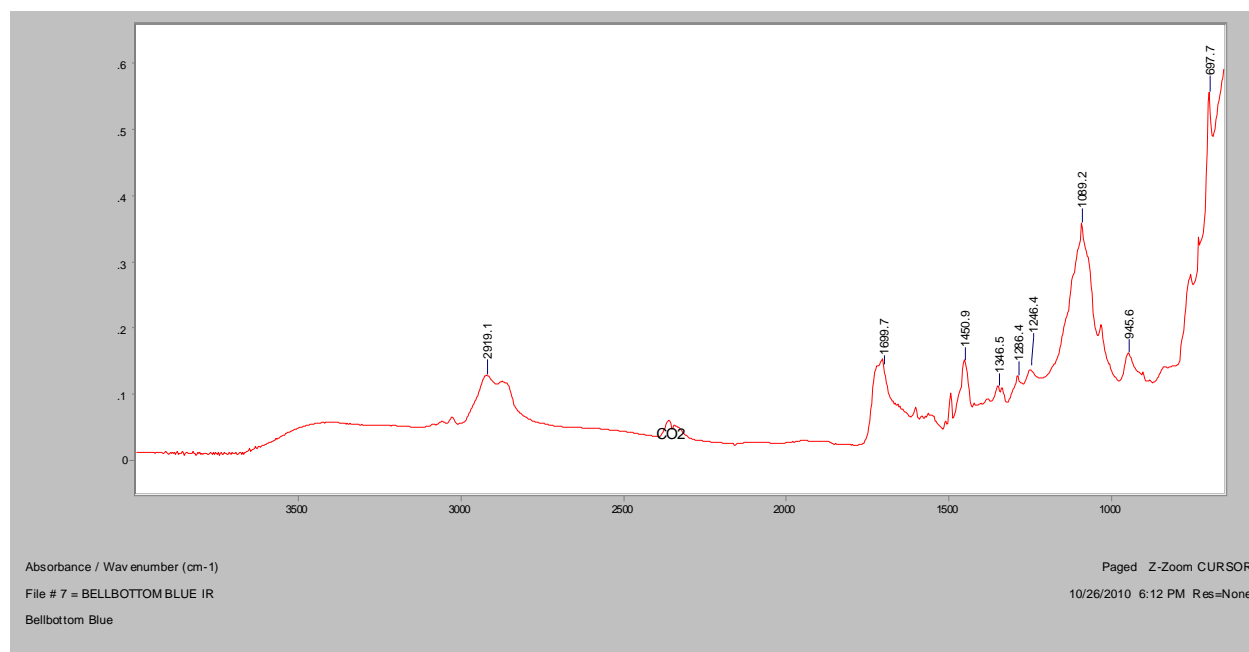
Normal Raman, 785nm



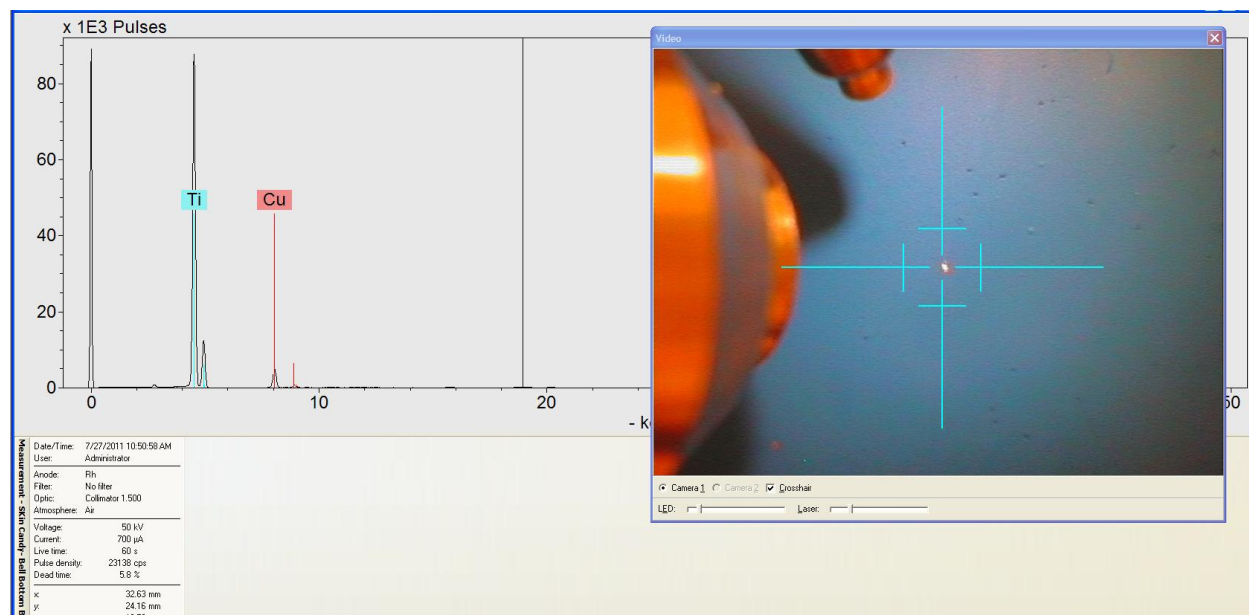
FT-Raman, 1064nm



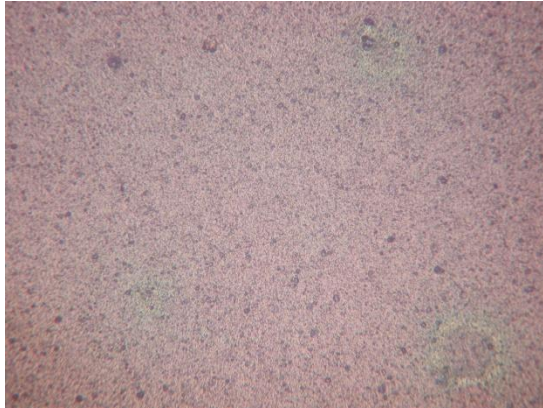
FT-IR (ATR)



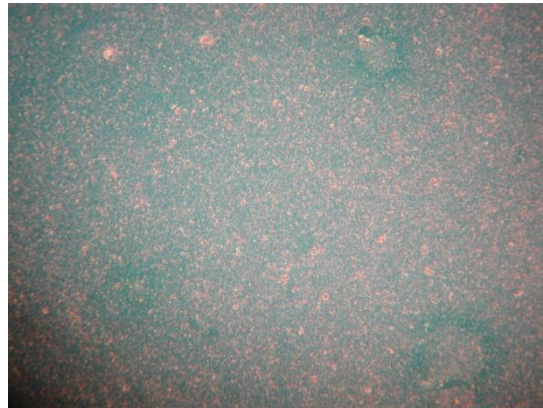
XRF



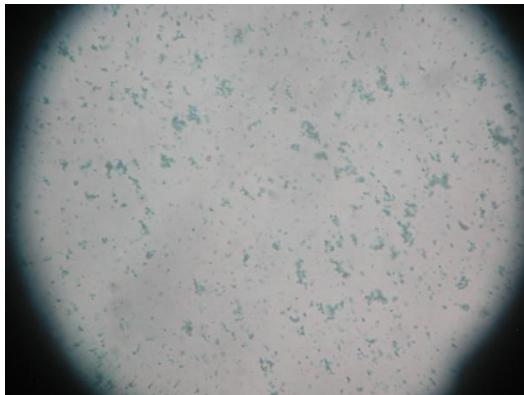
S.R.V. Teal 2



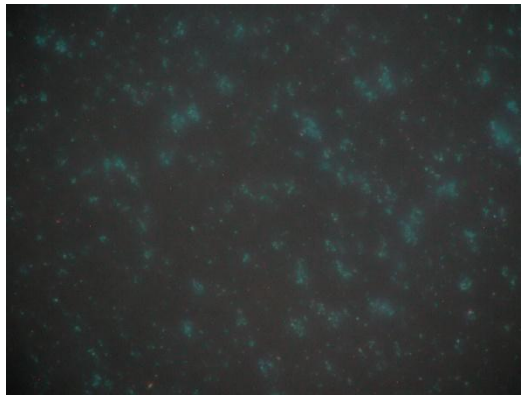
Bright Field, 100x



Dark Field, 100x

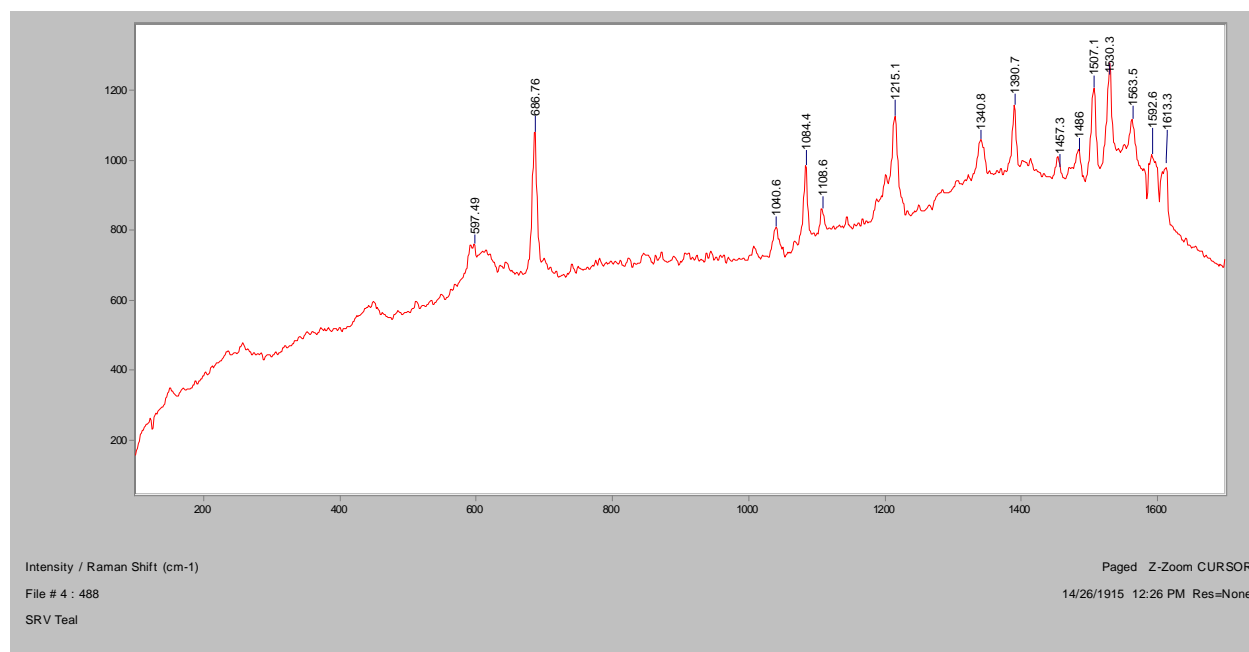


In RI 1.550, 400x

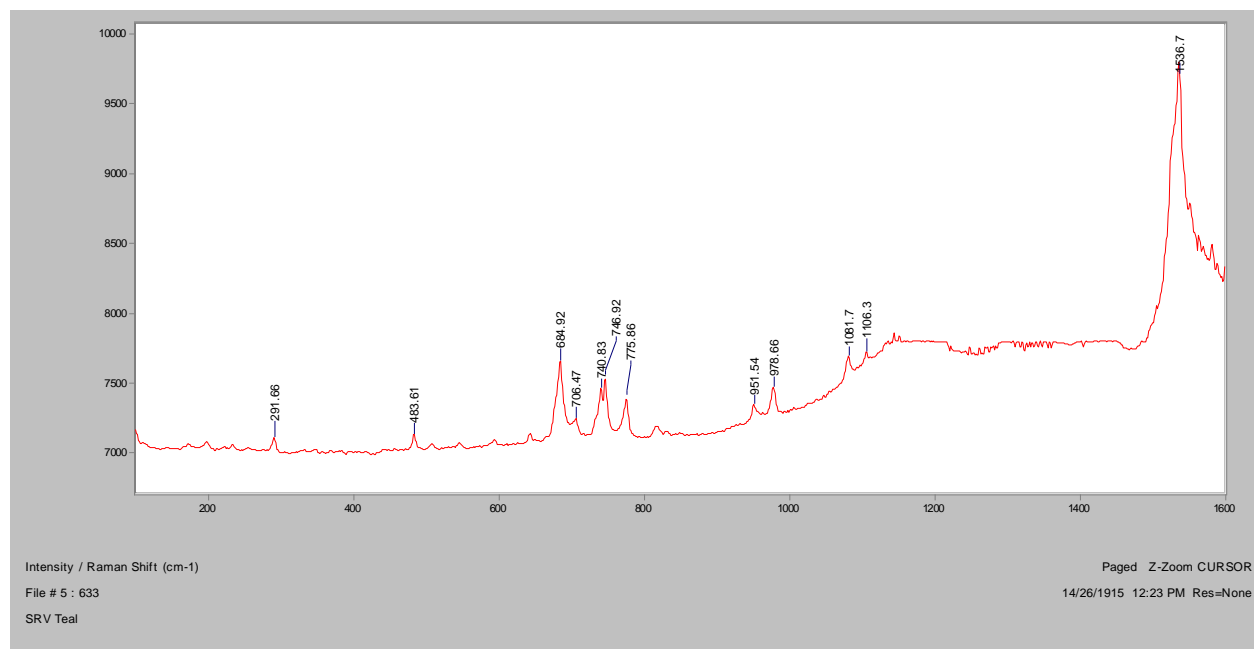


Crossed polars, In RI 1.550, 400x

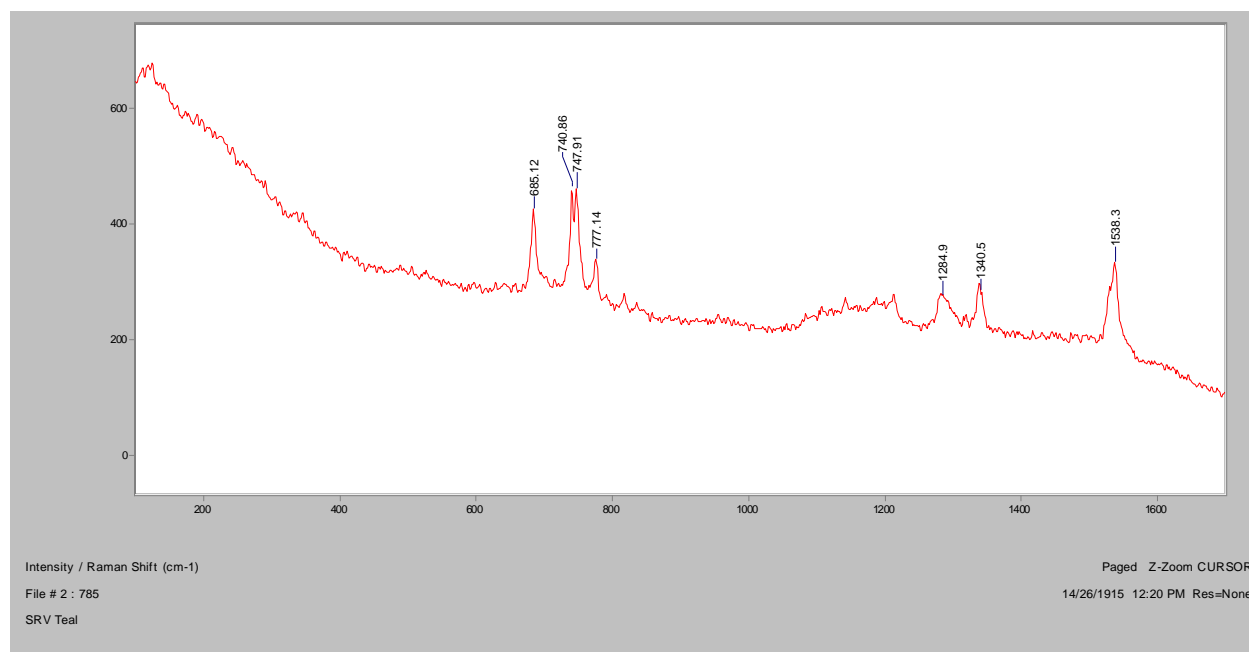
Normal Raman, 488nm



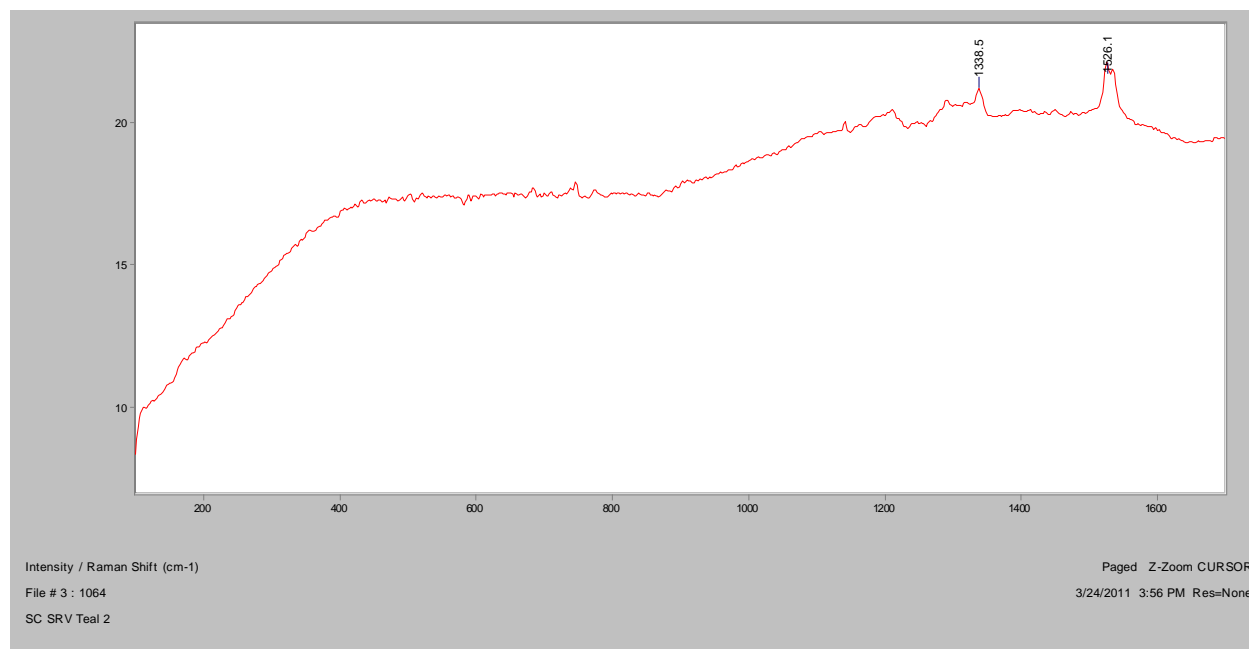
Normal Raman, 633nm

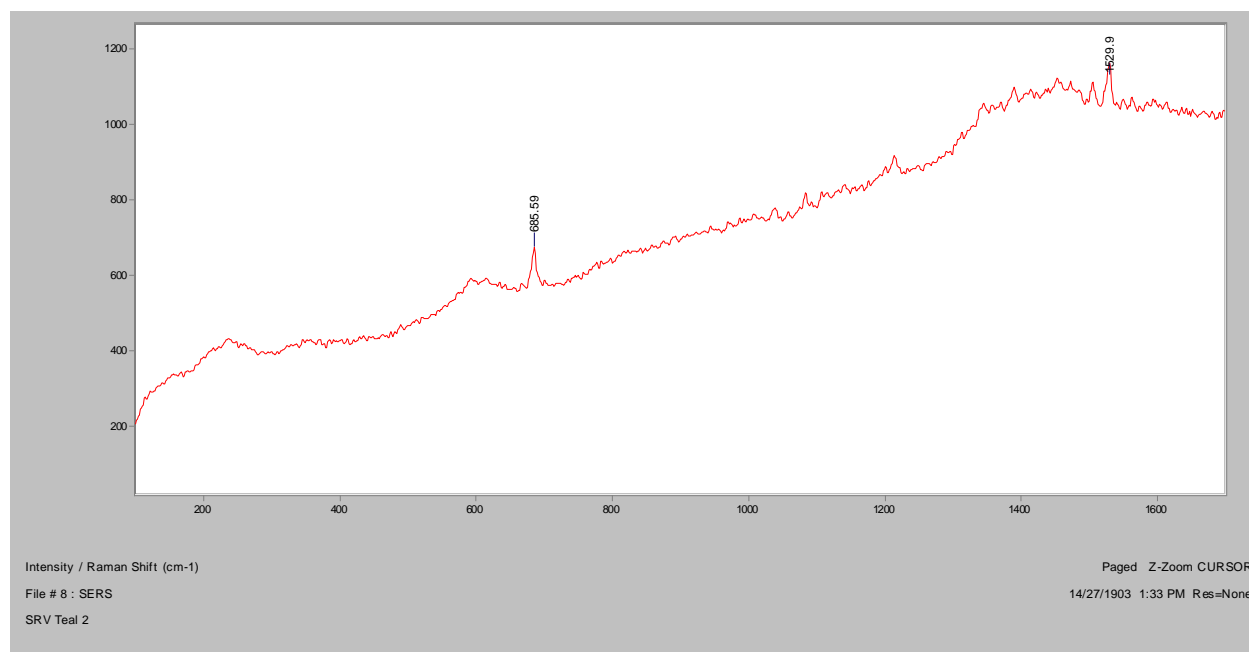
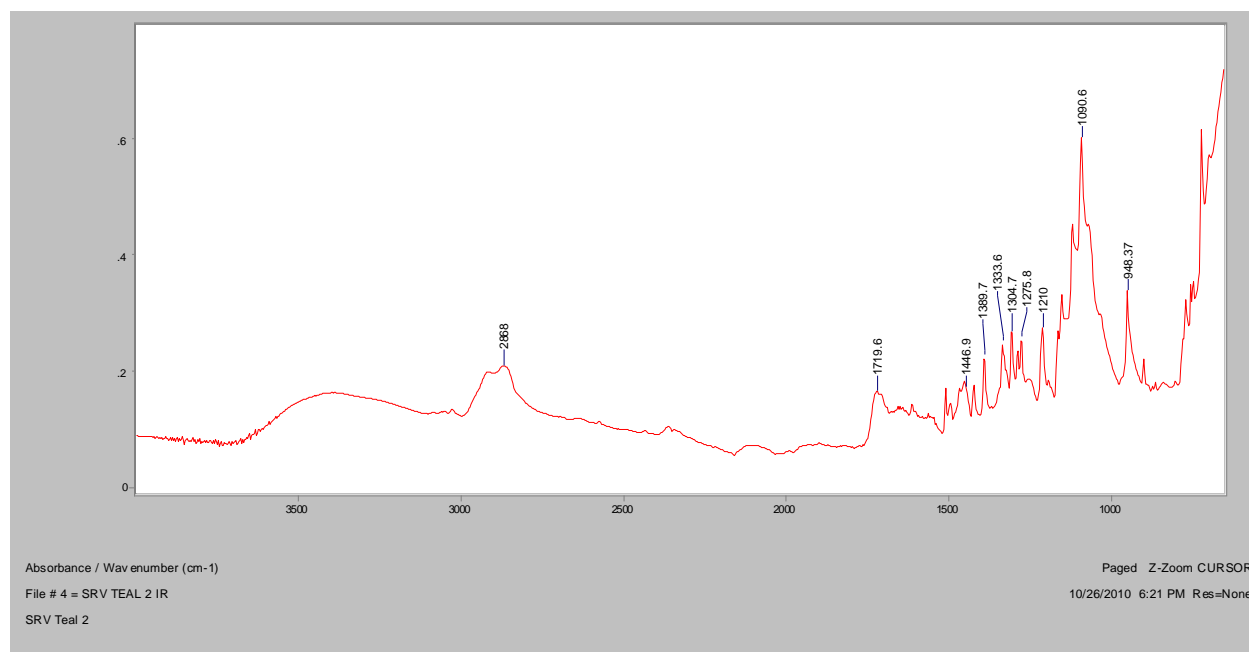


Normal Raman, 785nm

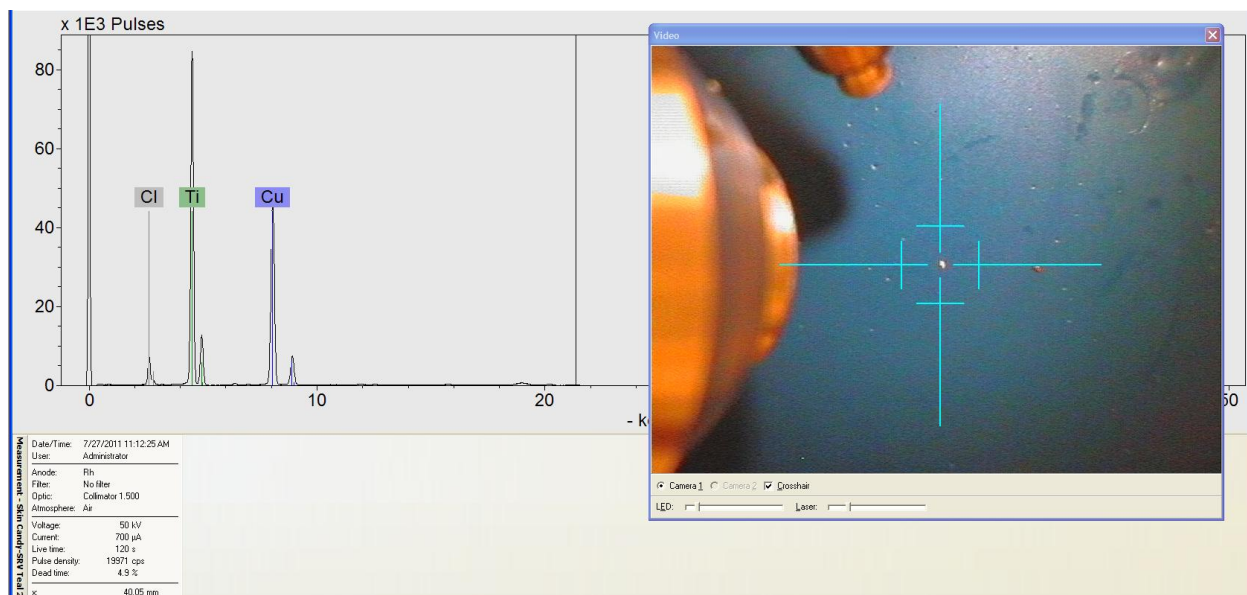


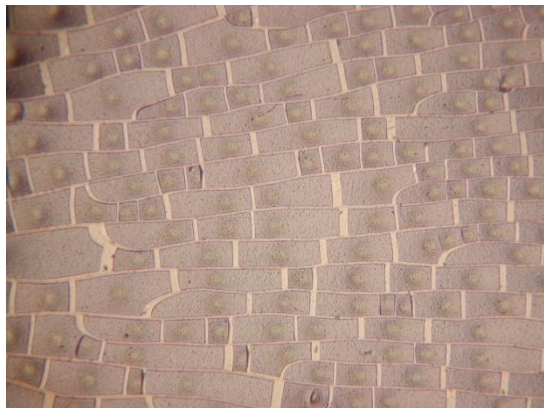
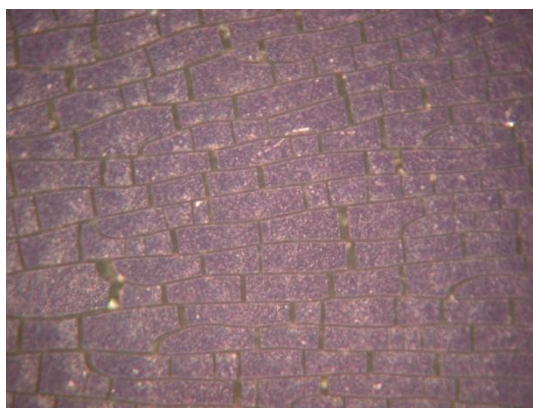
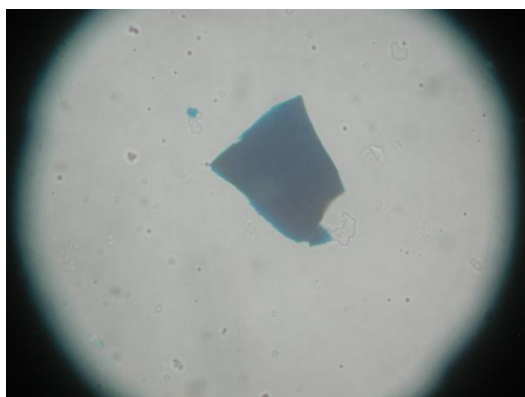
FT-Raman, 1064nm



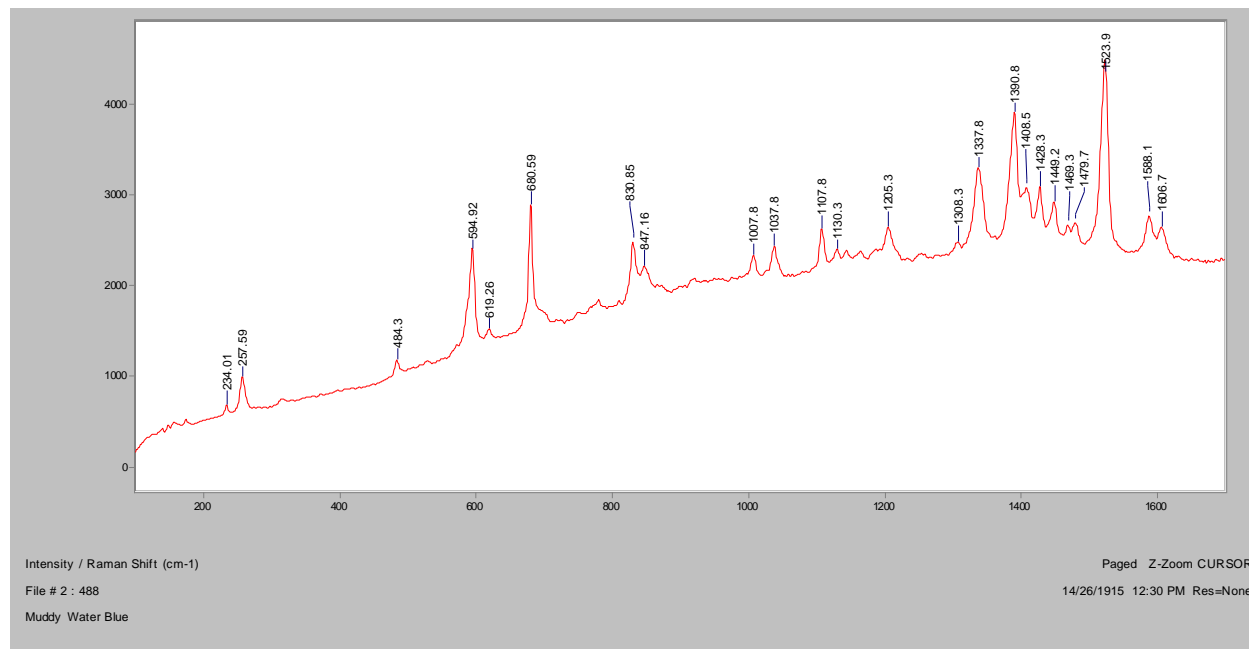
SERS, 488nm**FT-IR (ATR)**

XRF

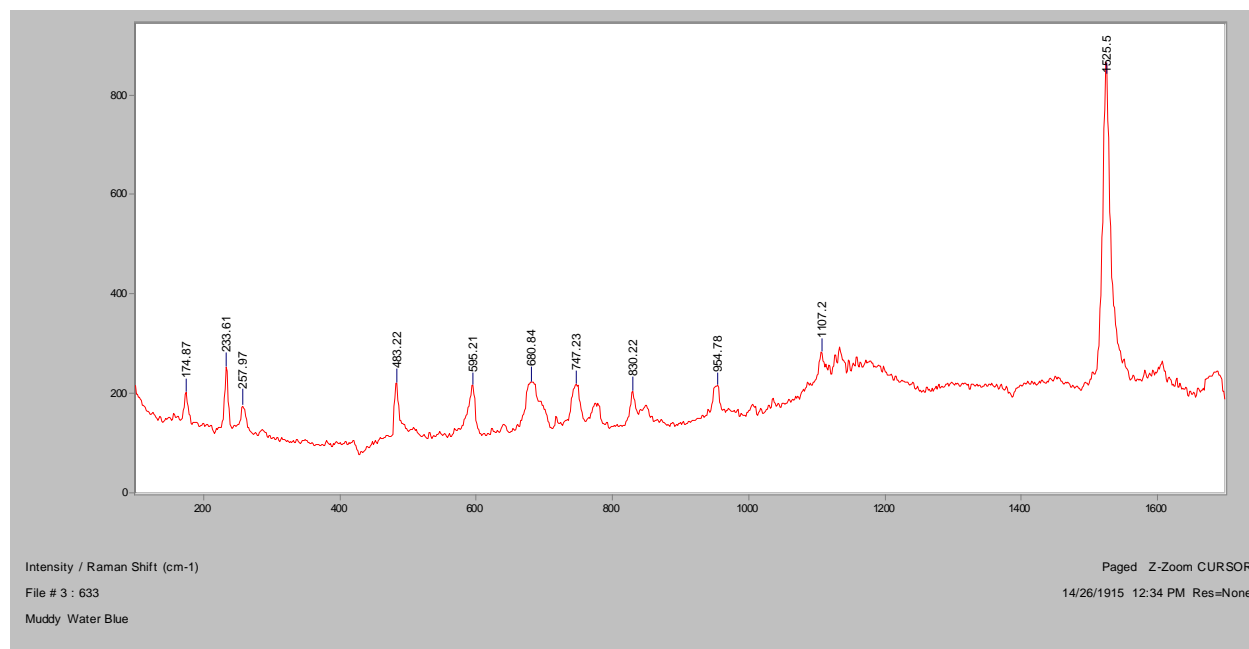


Muddy Water Blue**Bright Field, 100x****Dark Field, 100x****In RI 1.550, 400x****Crossed polars, In RI 1.550, 400x**

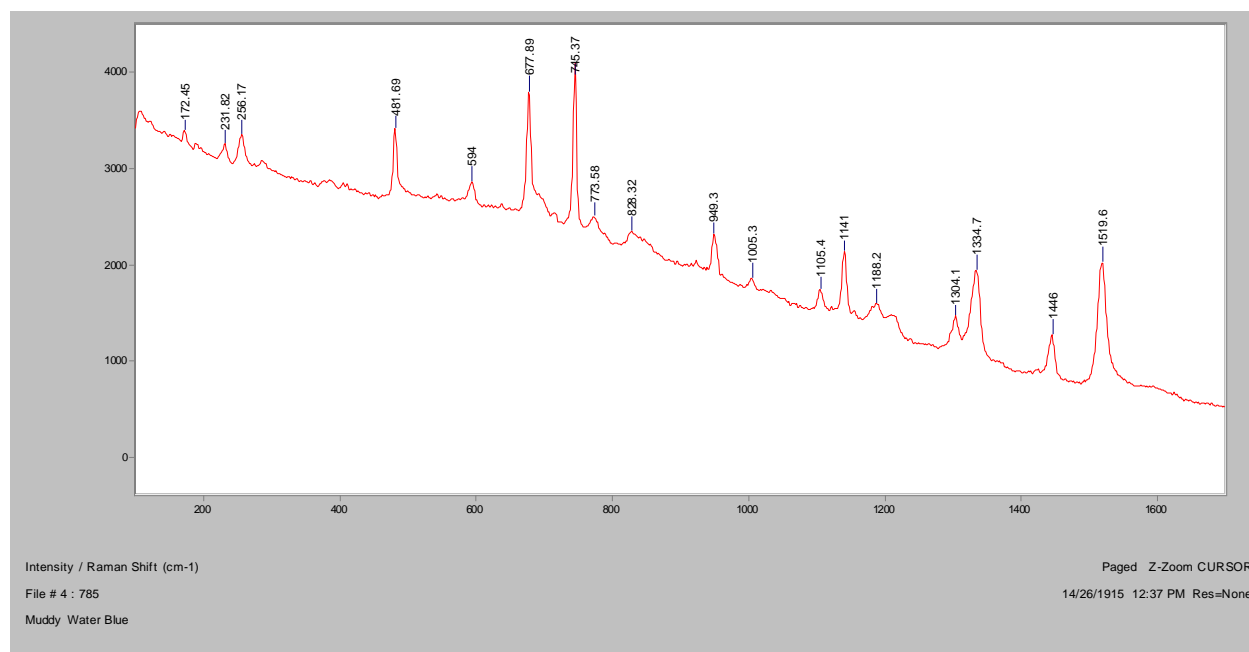
Normal Raman, 488nm



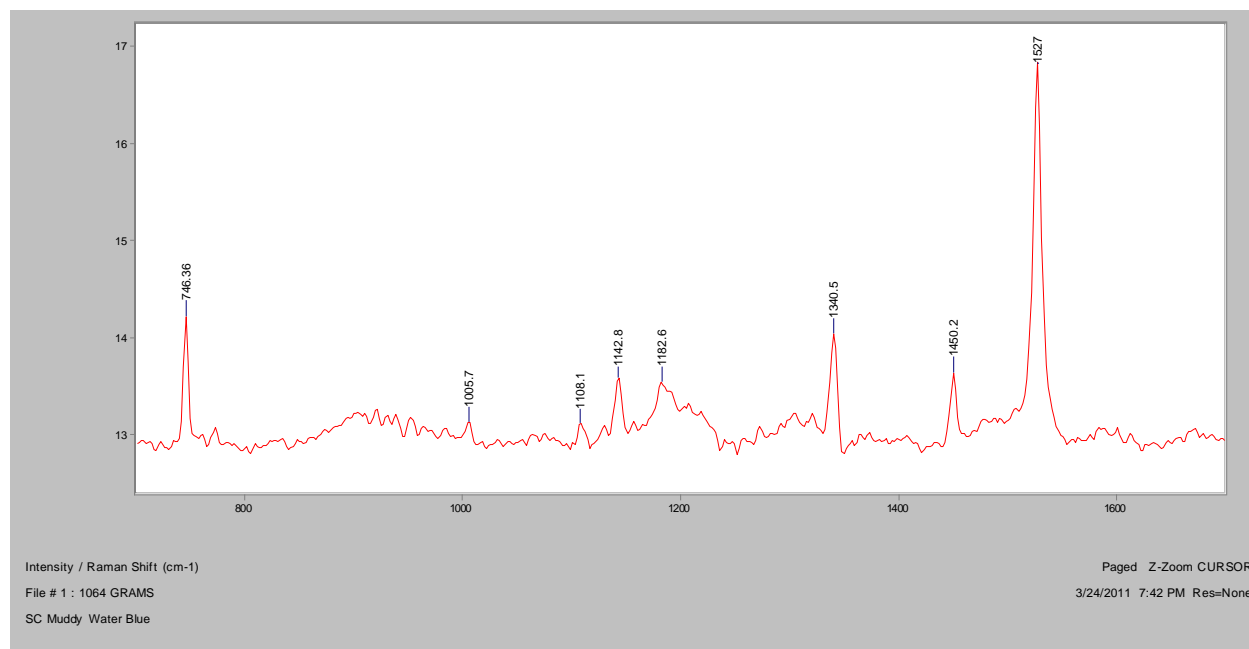
Normal Raman, 633nm



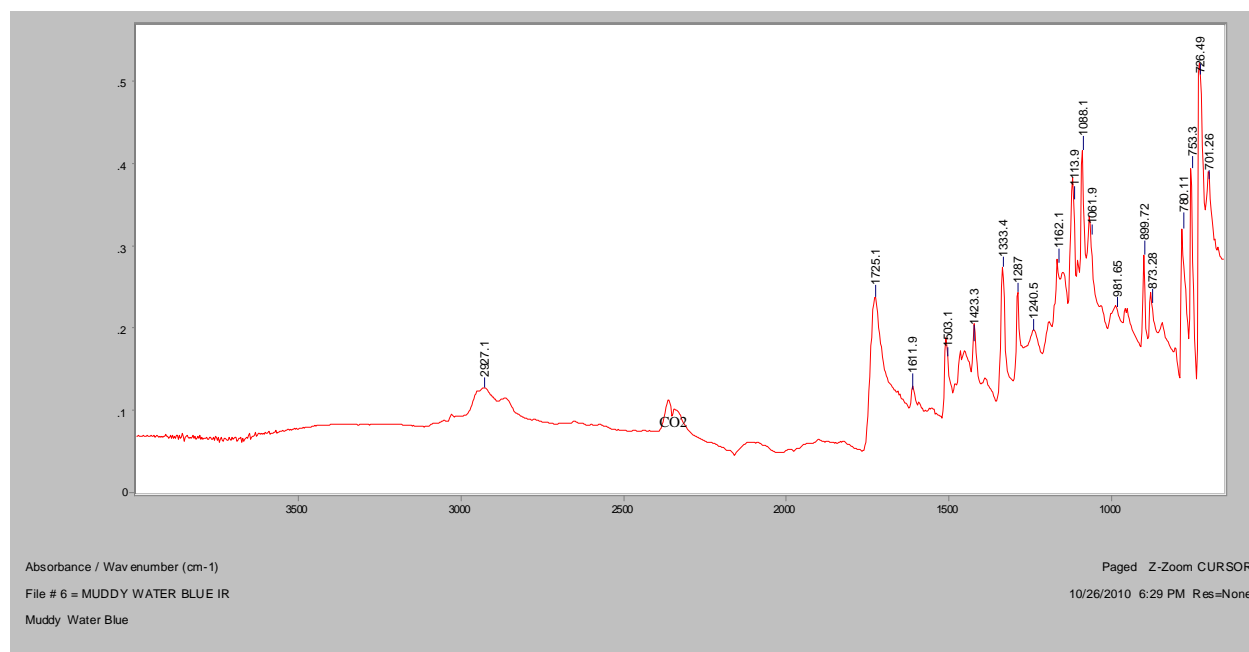
Normal Raman, 785nm



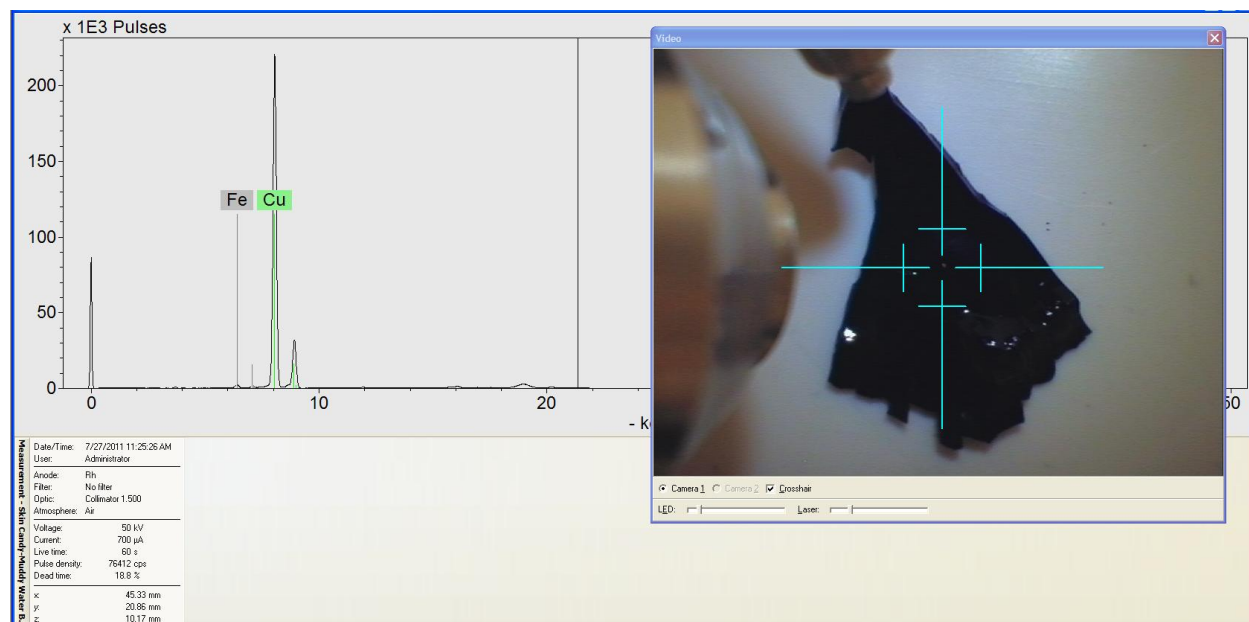
FT-Raman, 1064nm

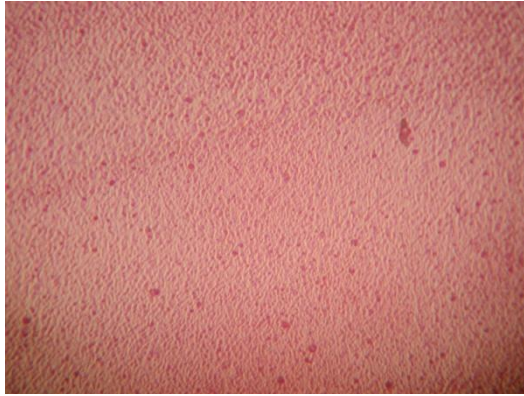
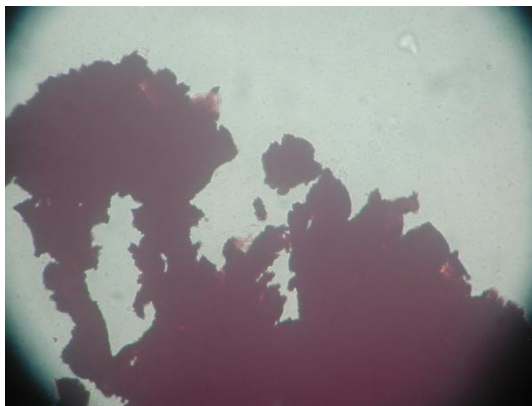
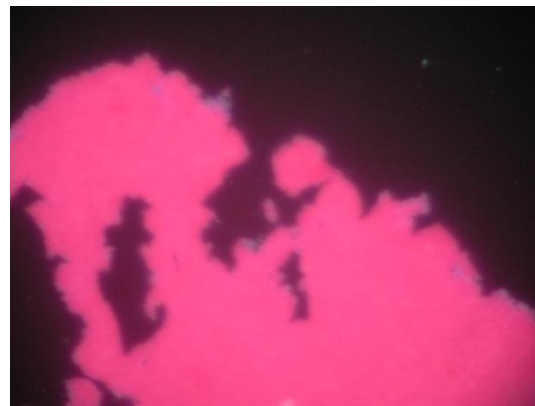
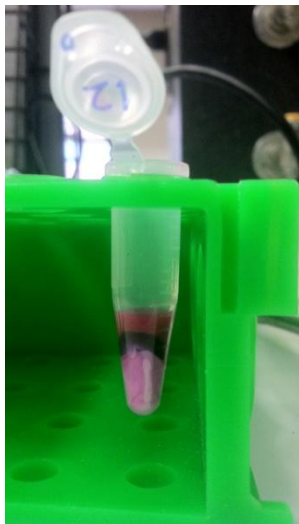


FT-IR (ATR)

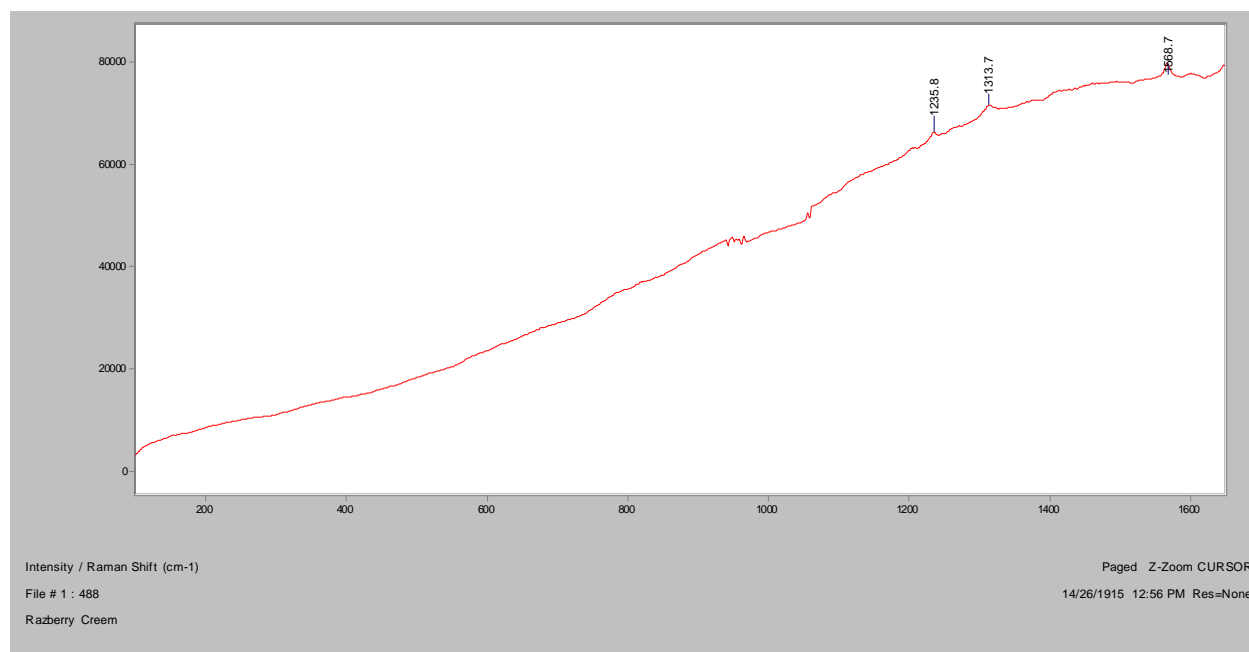


XRF

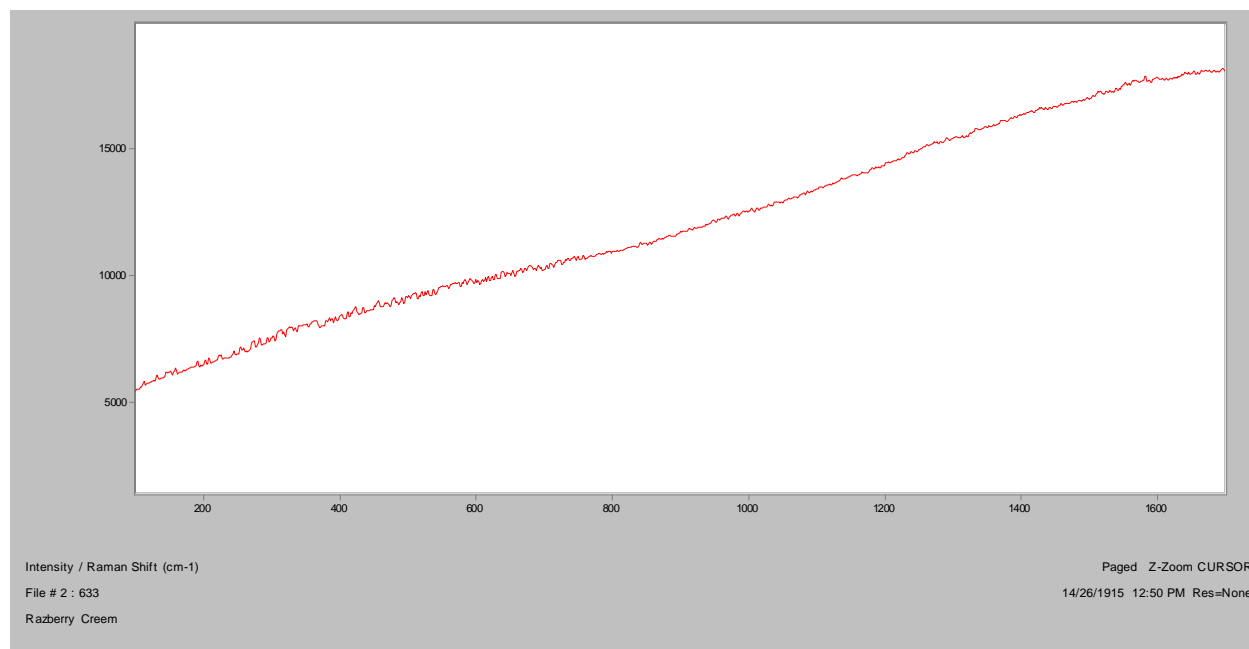


Razberry Creem**Bright Field, 100x****Dark Field, 100x****In RI 1.550, 400x****Crossed polars, In RI 1.550, 400x****Post-extraction**

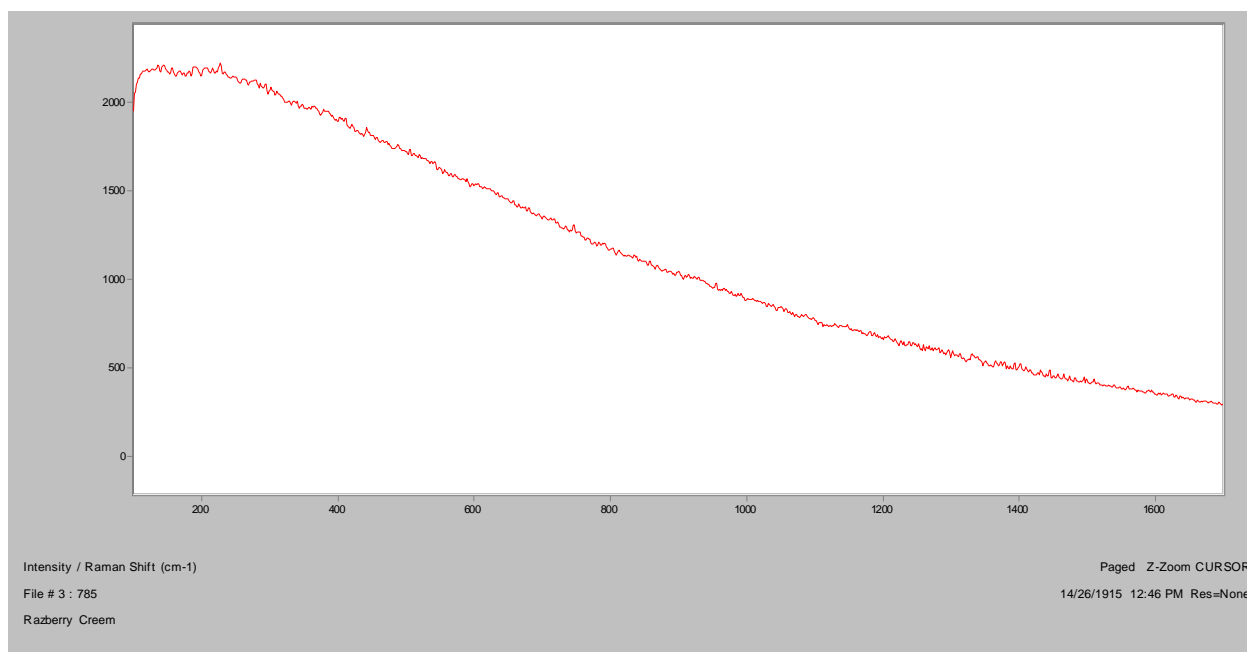
Normal Raman, 488nm



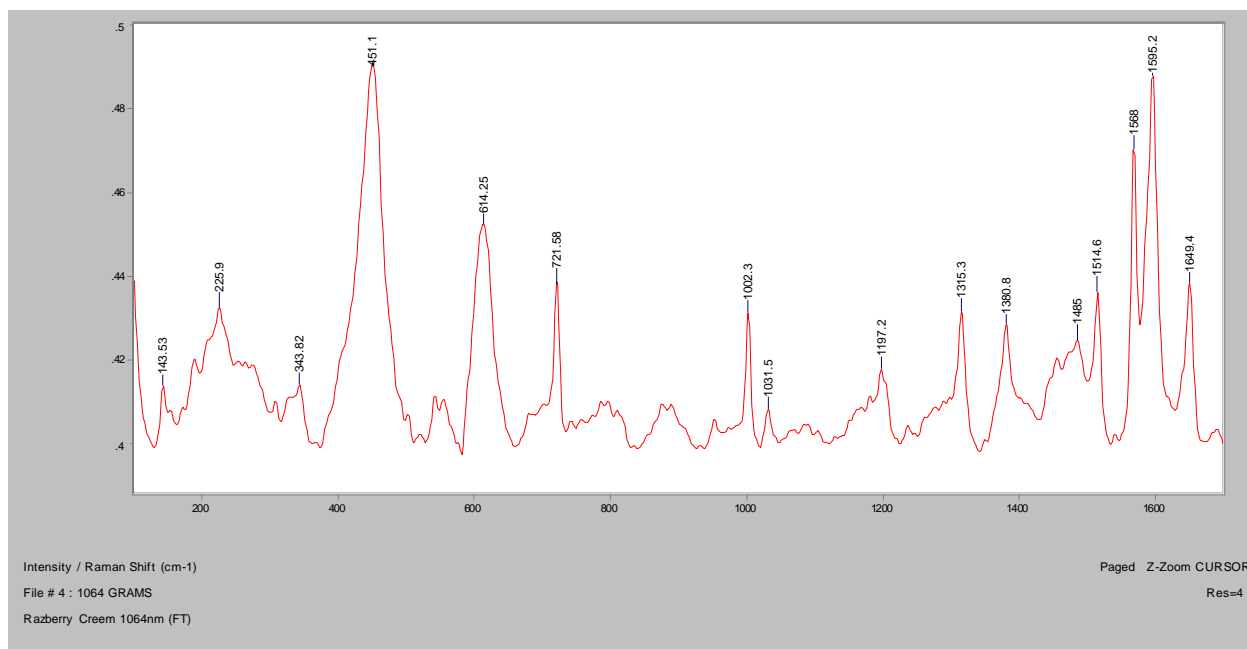
Normal Raman, 633nm



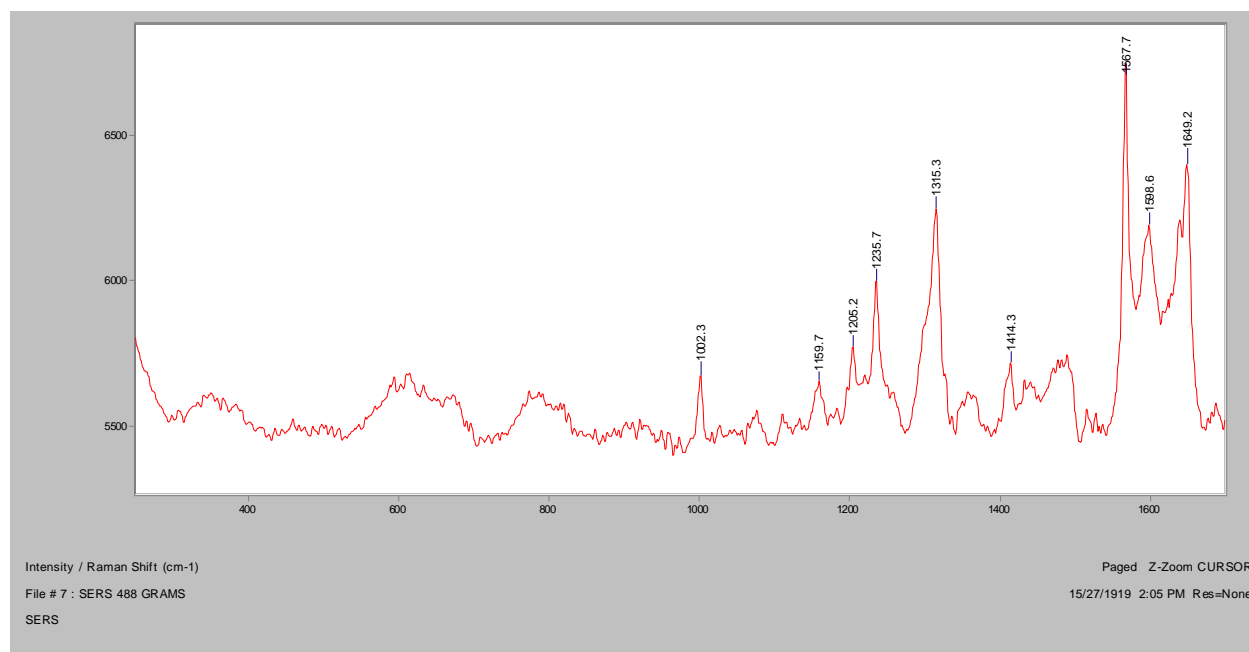
Normal Raman, 785nm



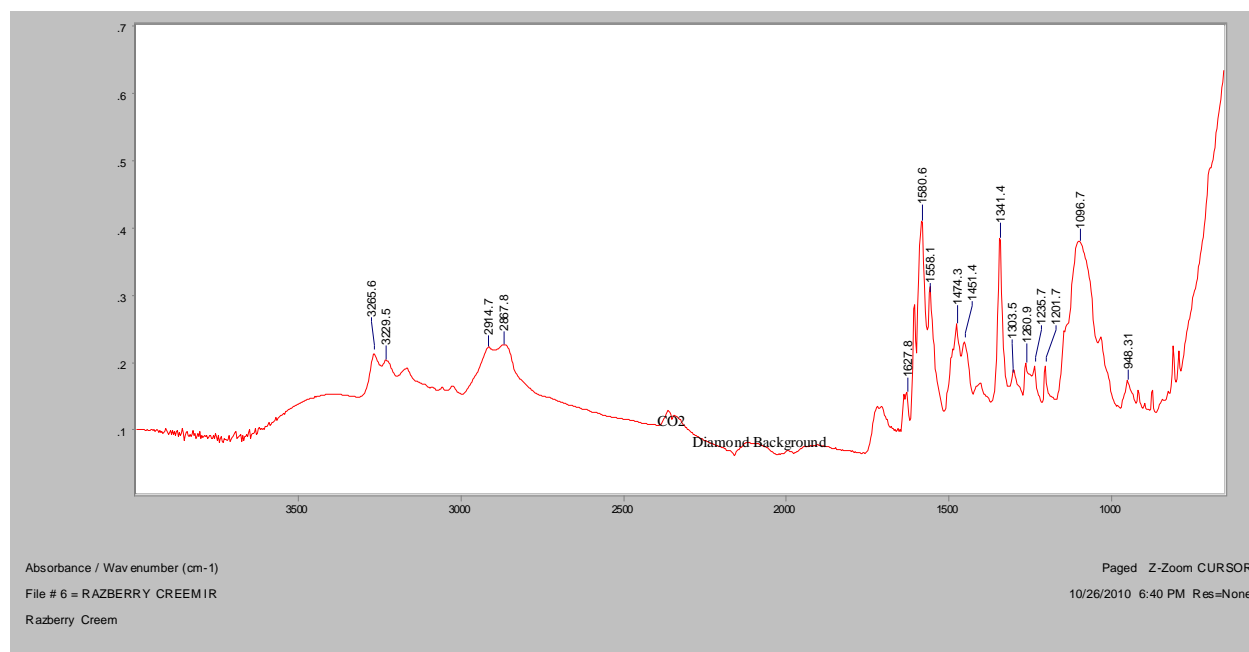
FT-Raman, 1064nm



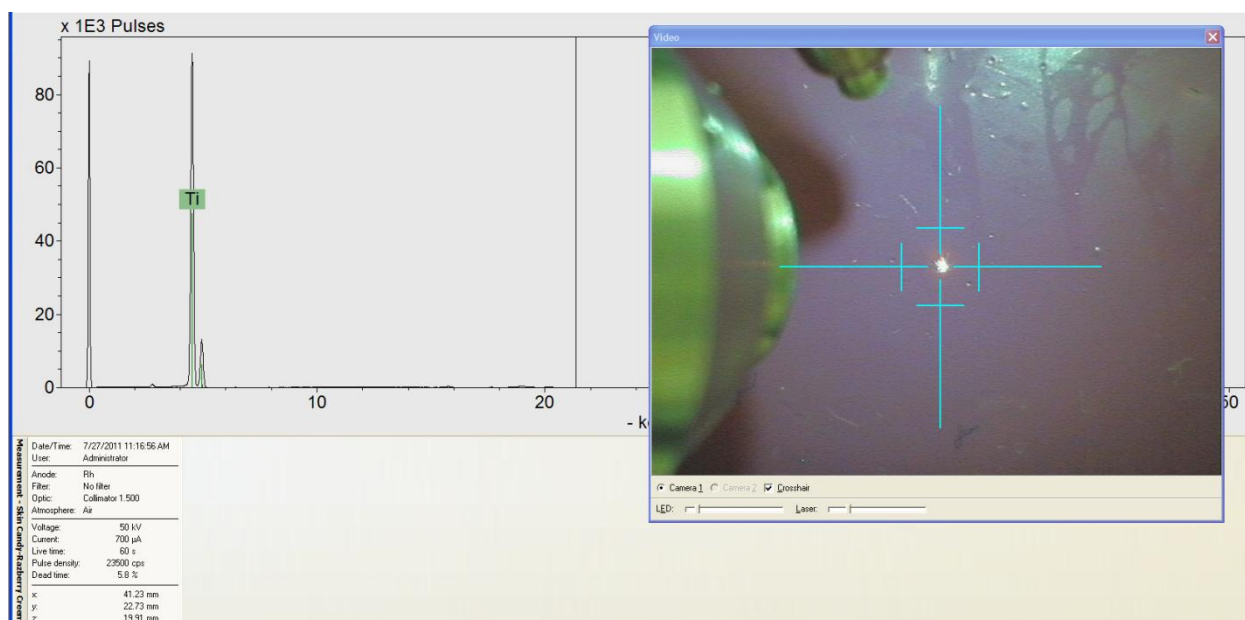
SERS, 488nm



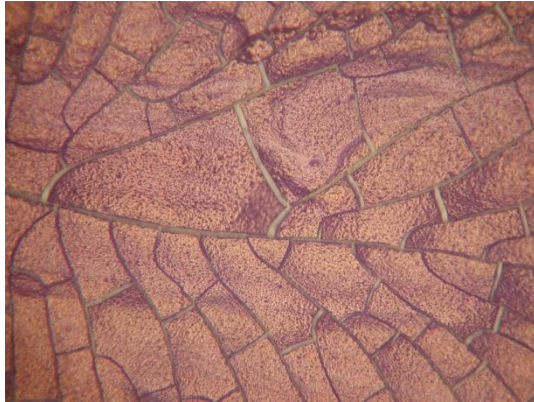
FT-IR (ATR)



XRF



Ripple



Bright Field, 100x



Dark Field, 100x



In RI 1.550, 400x

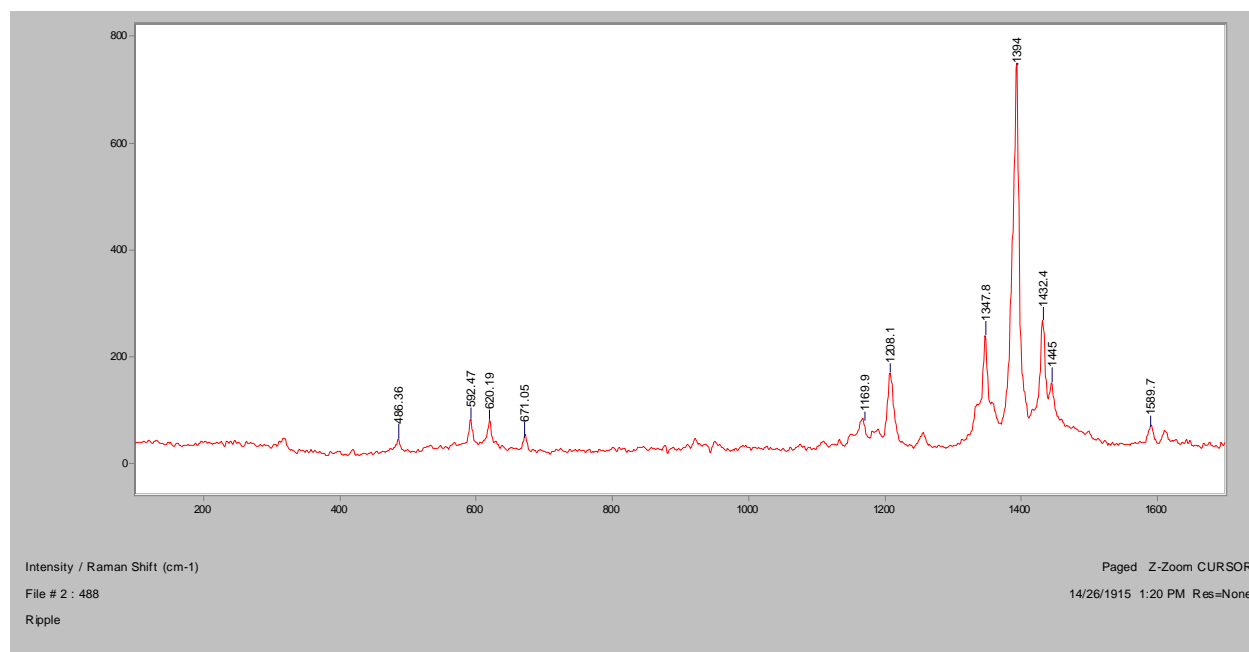


Crossed polars, In RI 1.550, 400x

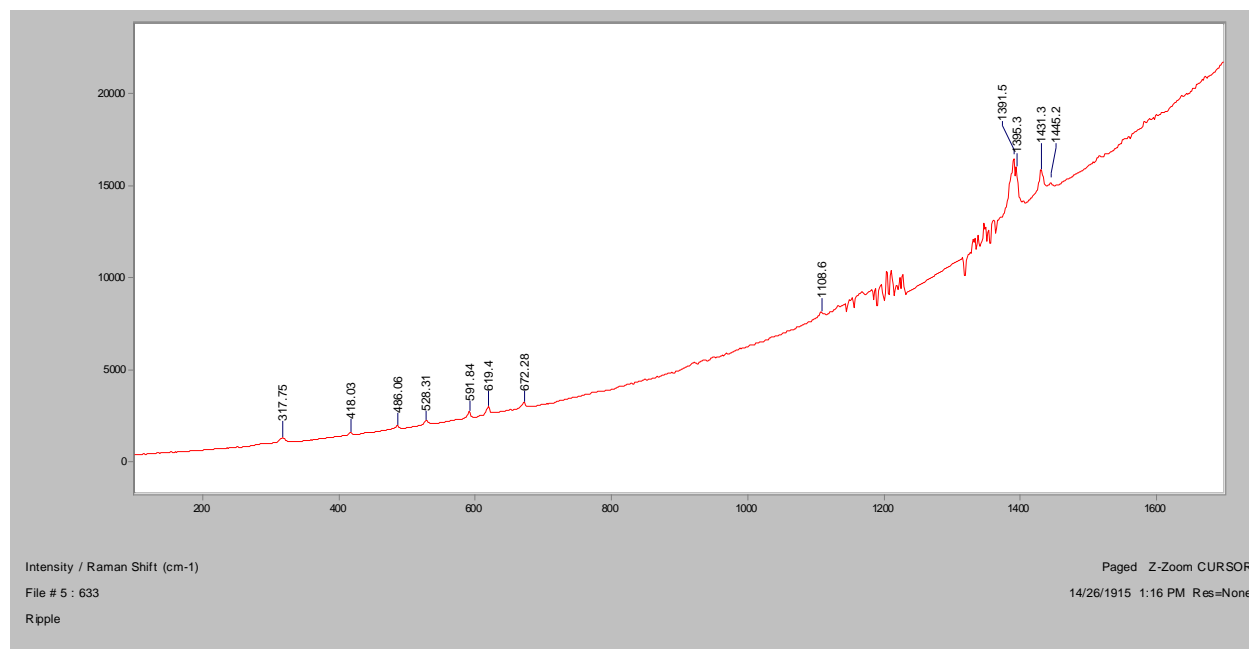


Smear on microscope slide after drying

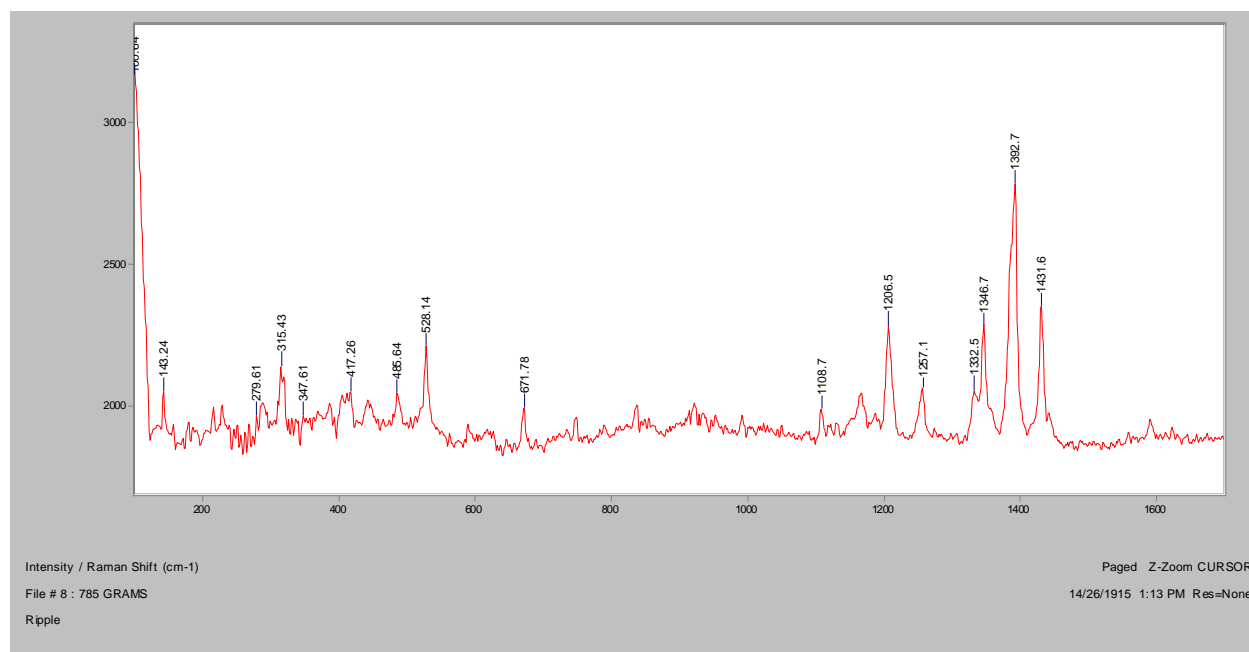
Normal Raman, 488nm



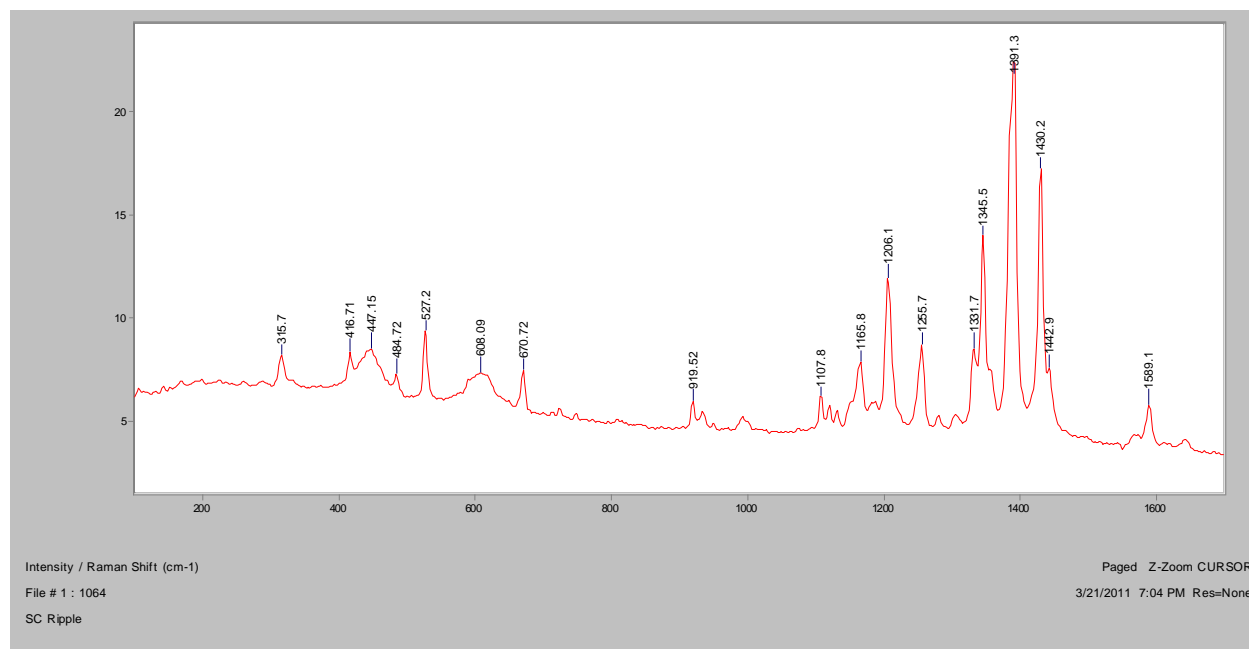
Normal Raman, 633nm

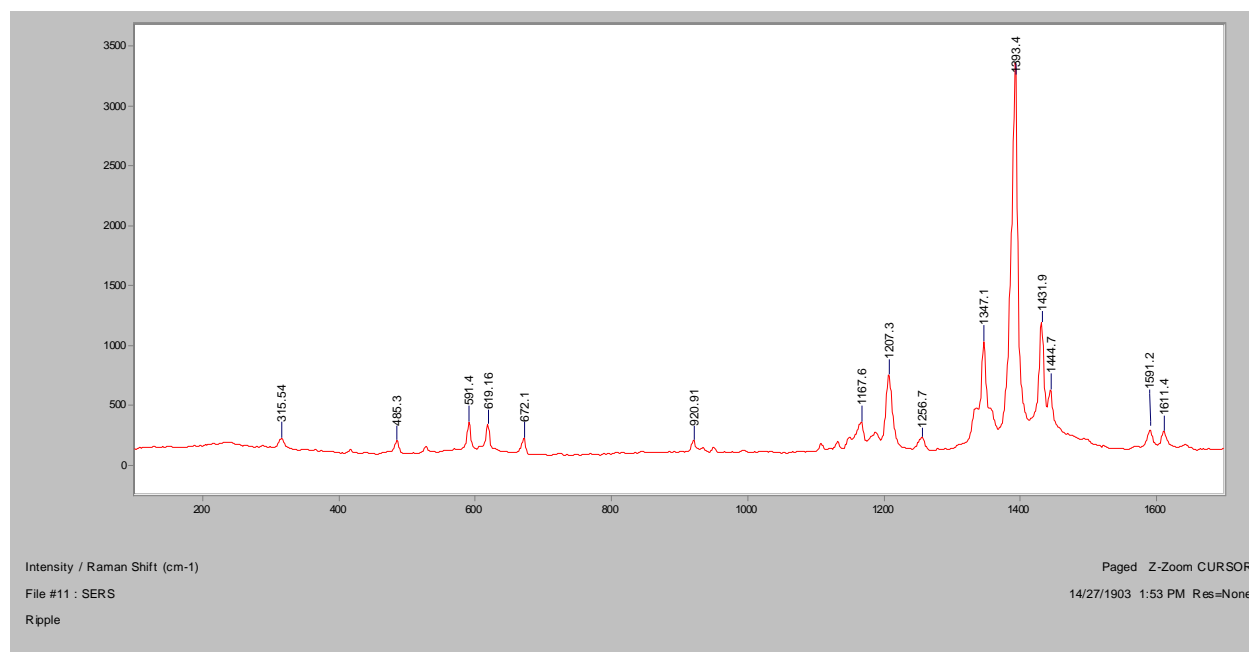
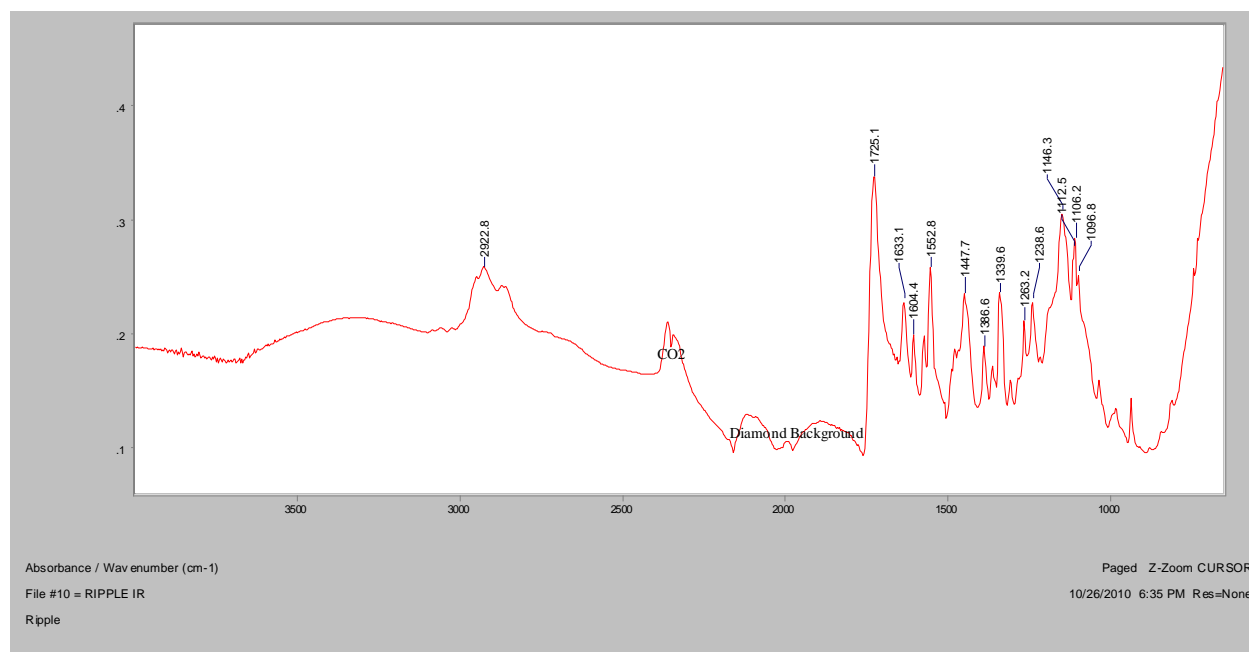


Normal Raman, 785nm

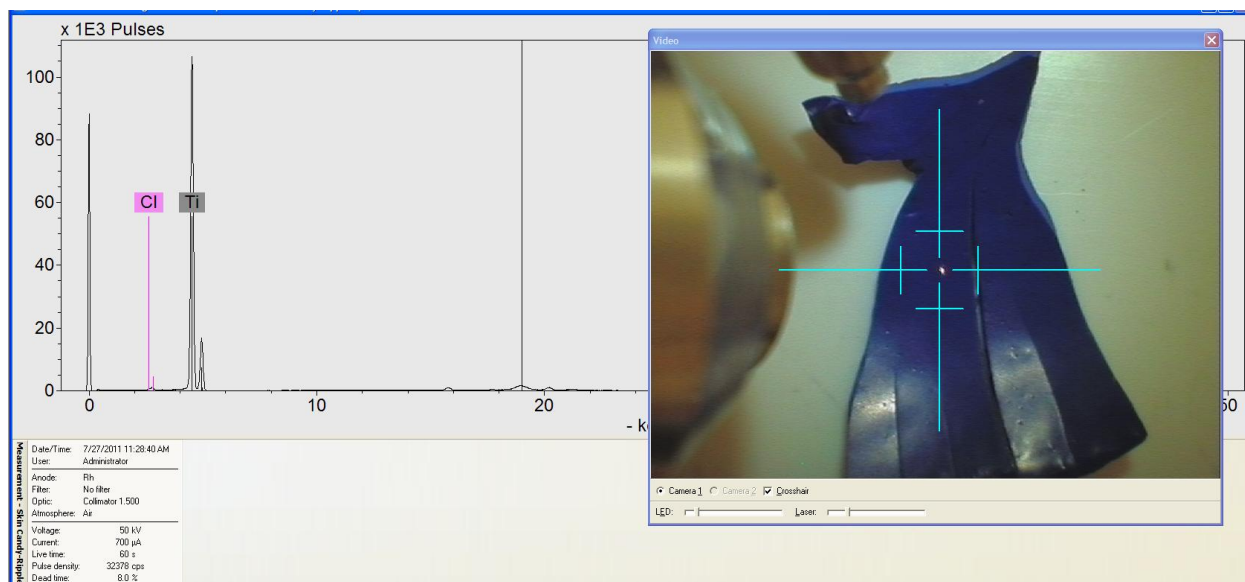


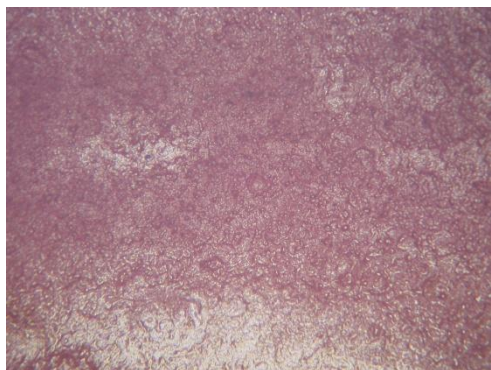
FT-Raman, 1064nm



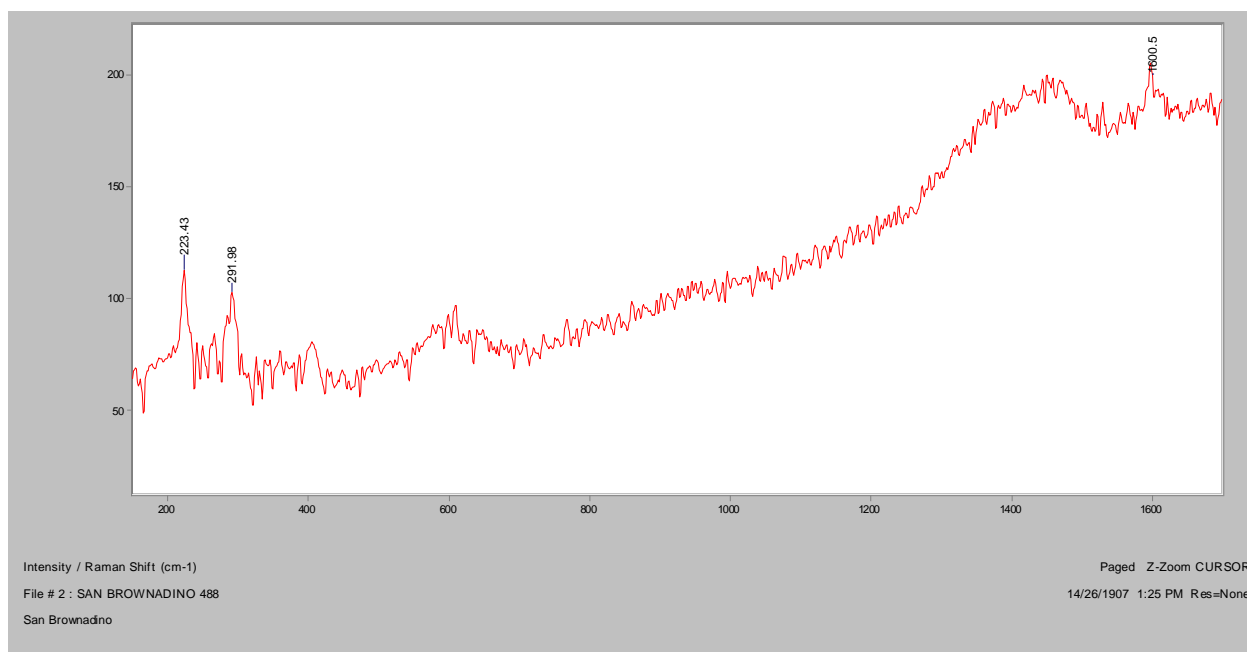
SERS, 488nm**FT-IR (ATR)**

XRF

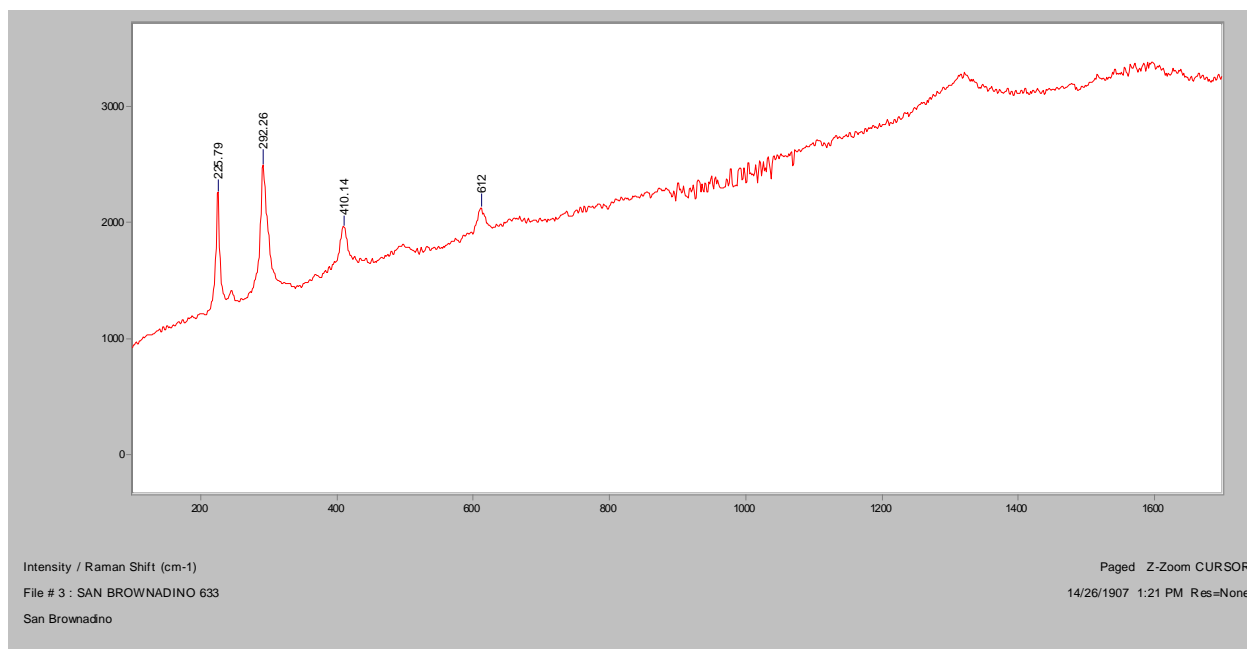


San Brownadino**Bright Field, 100x****Dark Field, 100x****In RI 1.550, 400x****Crossed polars, In RI 1.550, 400x**

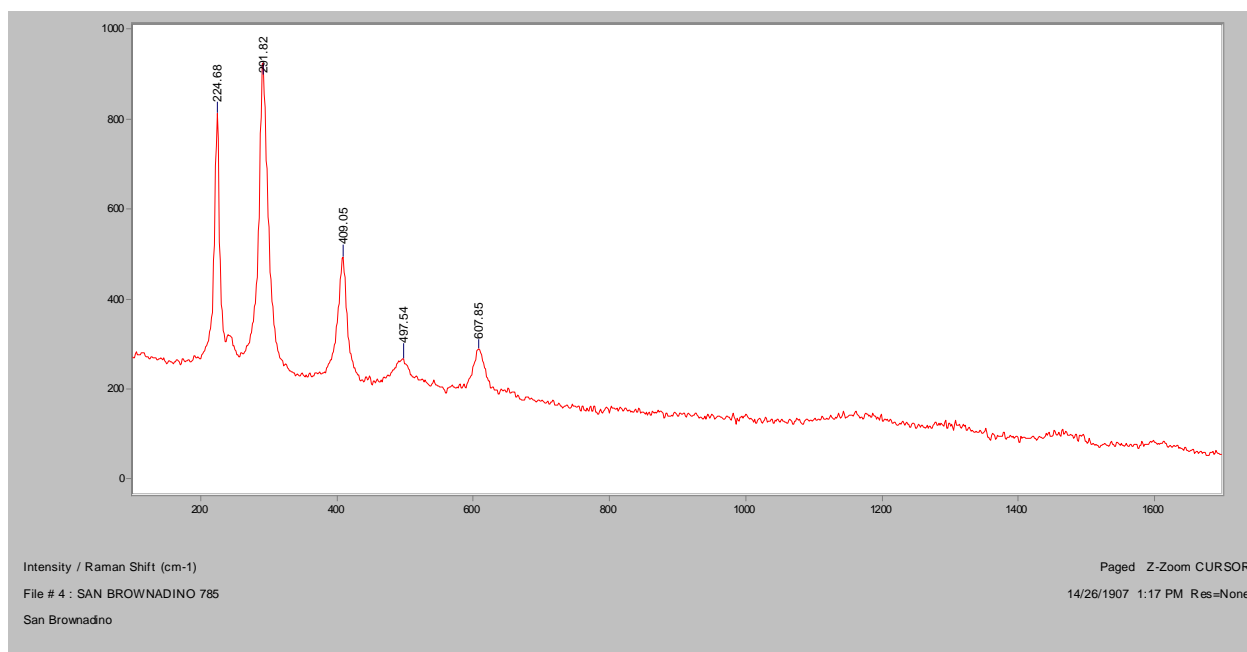
Normal Raman, 488nm



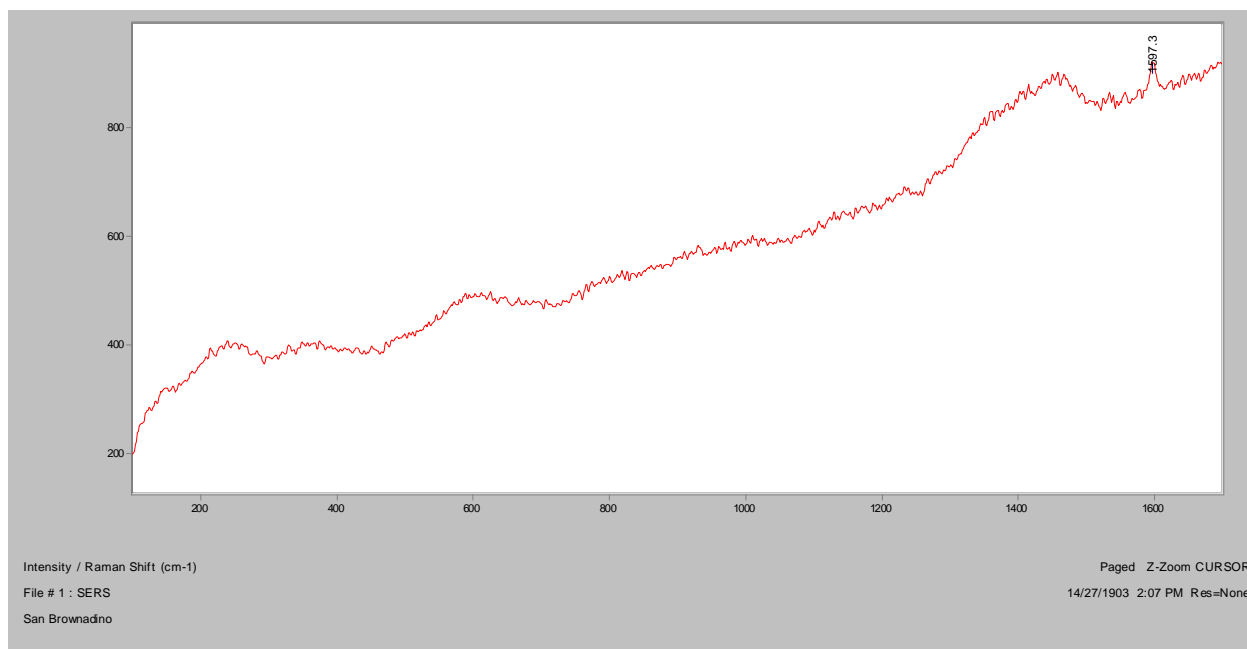
Normal Raman, 633nm

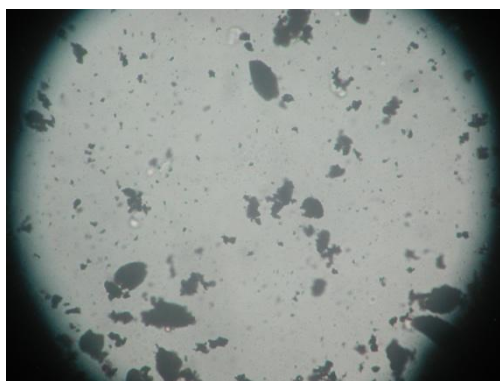
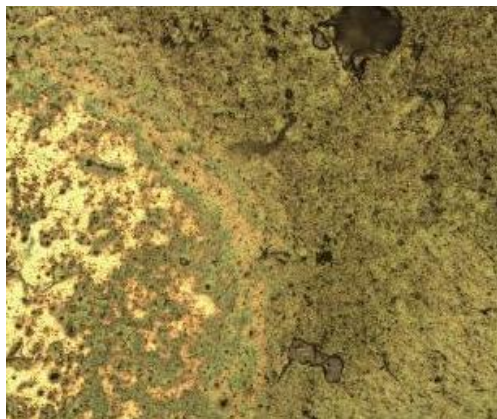
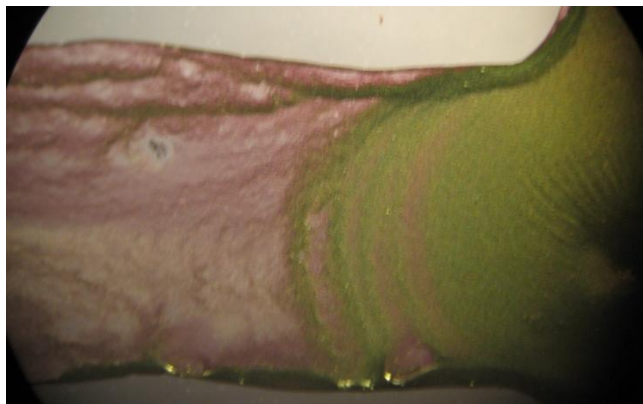


Normal Raman, 785nm

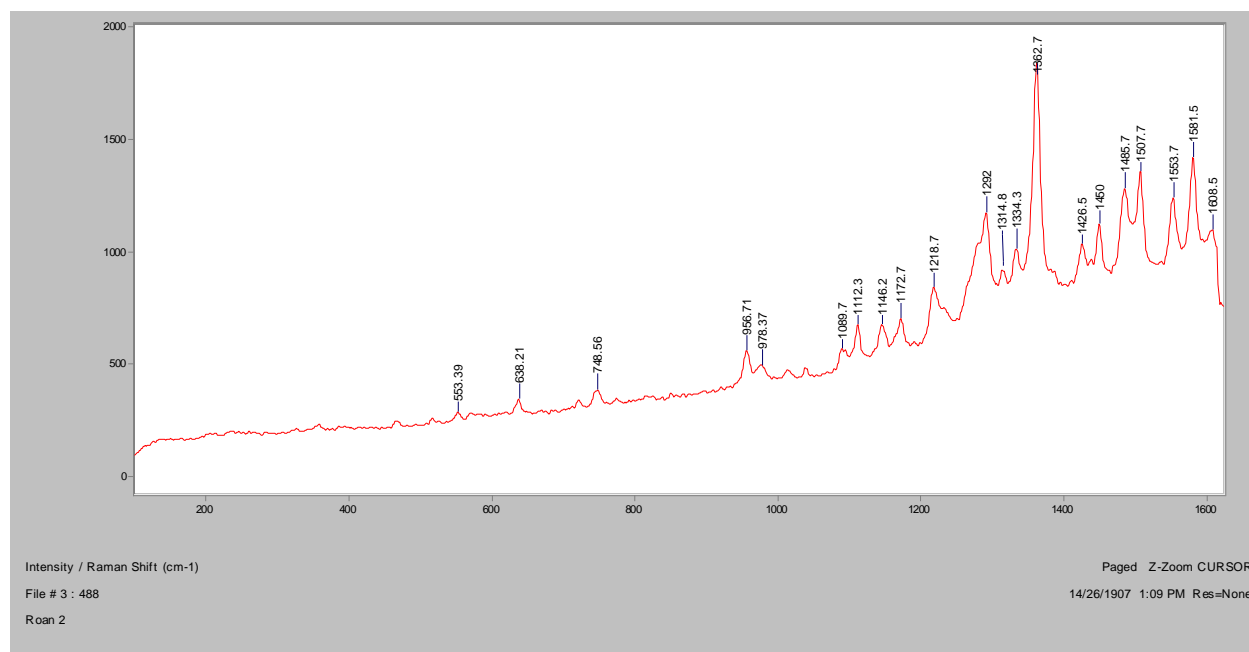


SERS, 488nm

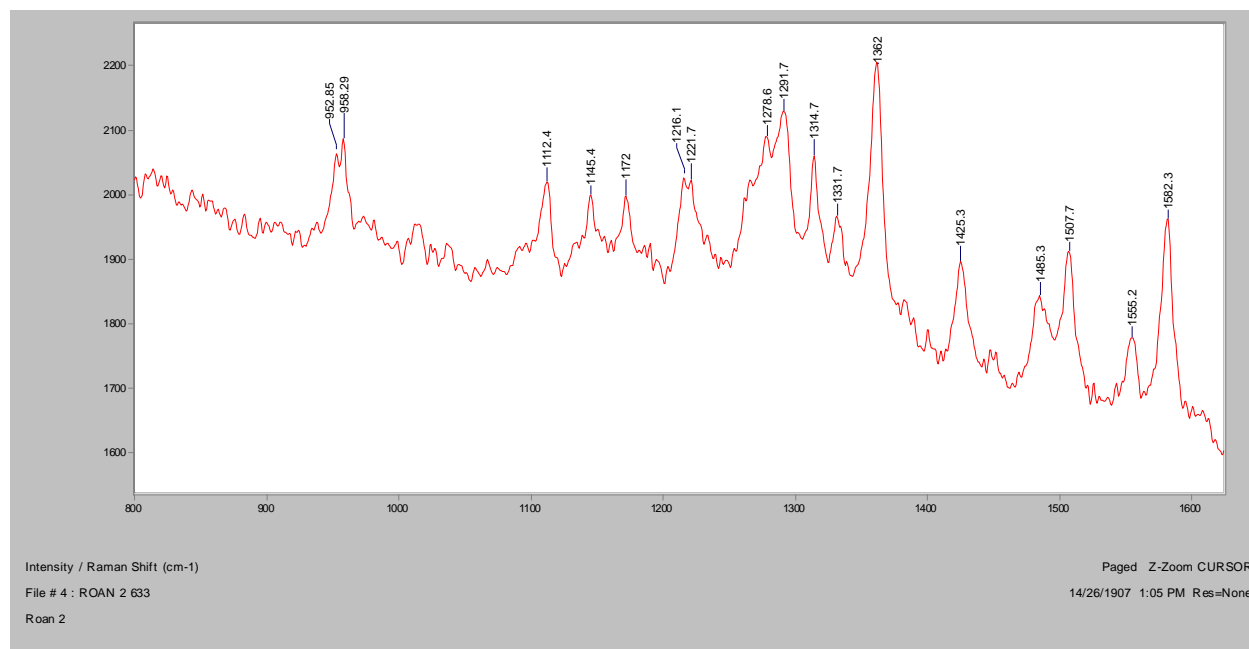


Black Cherry Roan 2**Bright Field, 100x****Dark Field, 100x****In RI 1.550, 400x****Crossed polars, In RI 1.550, 400x****Raman microscope image, 200x****Smear on Microscope slide after drying, ~20x**

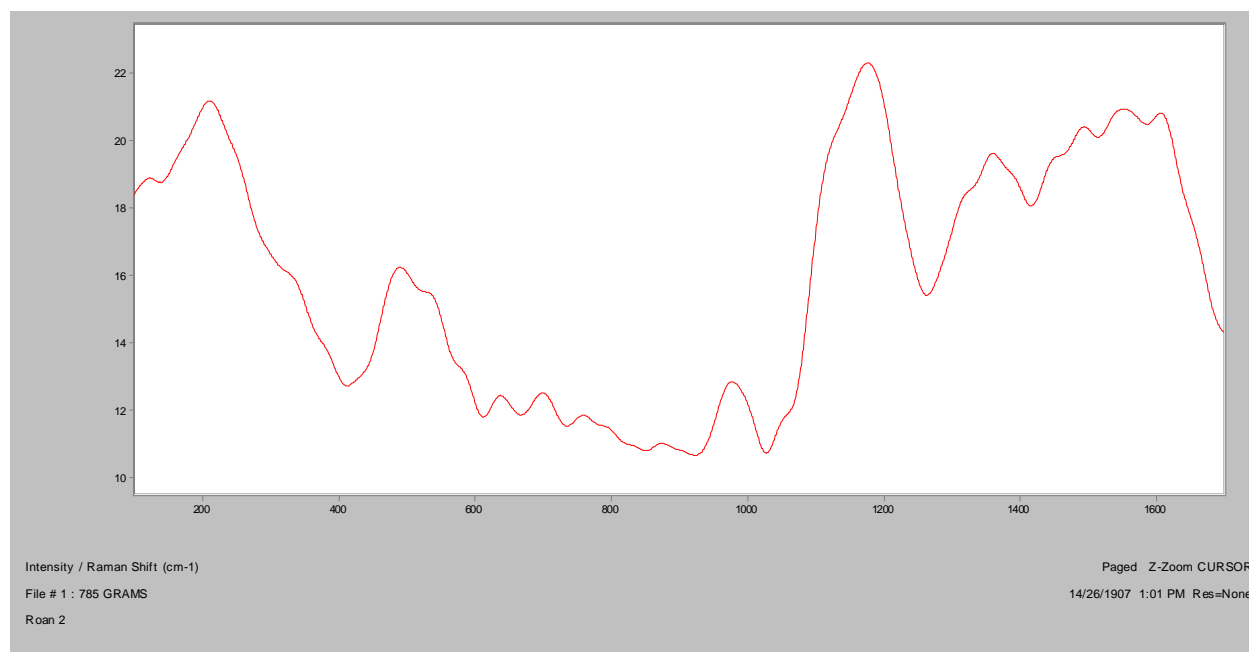
Normal Raman, 488nm



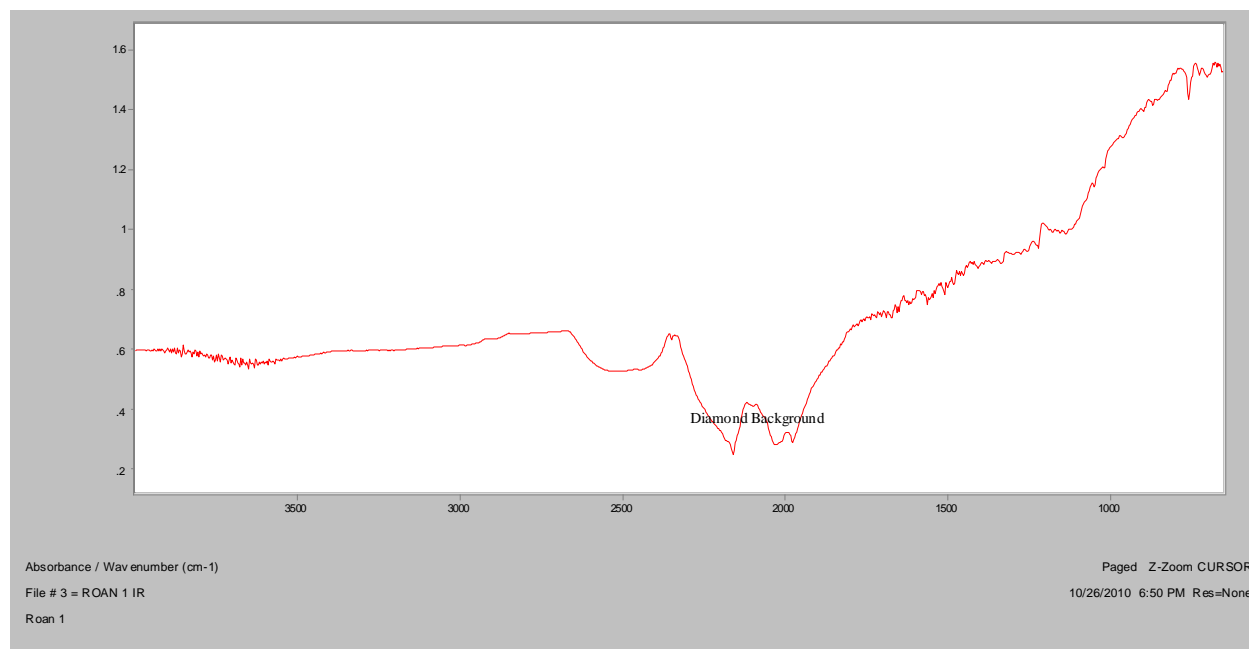
Normal Raman, 633nm



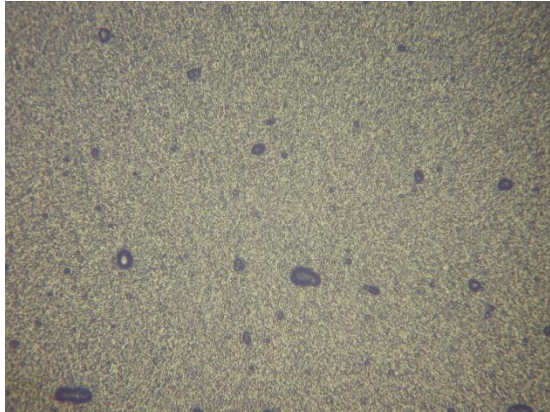
Normal Raman, 785nm



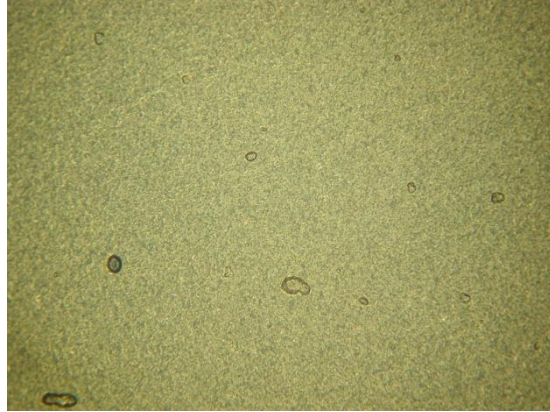
FT-IR (ATR)



Roan 1

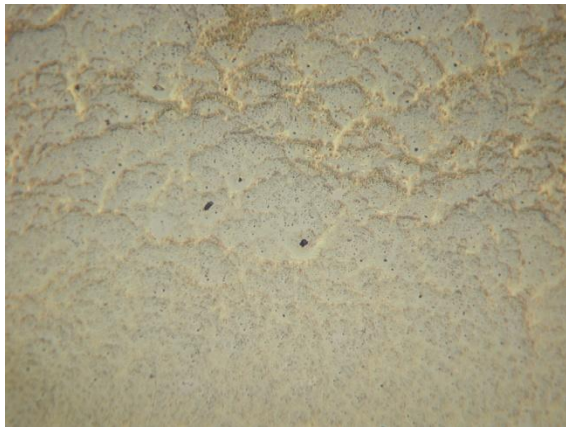


Bright Field, 100x

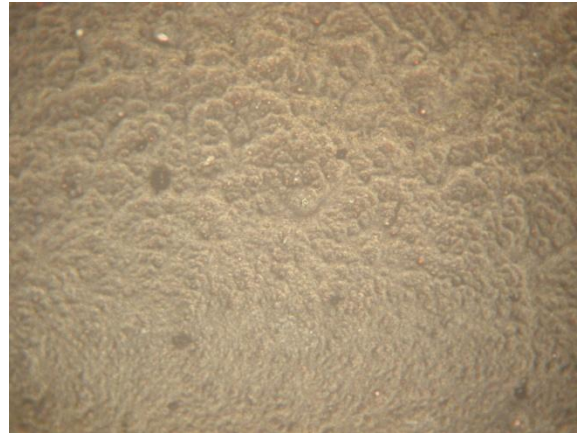


Dark Field, 100x

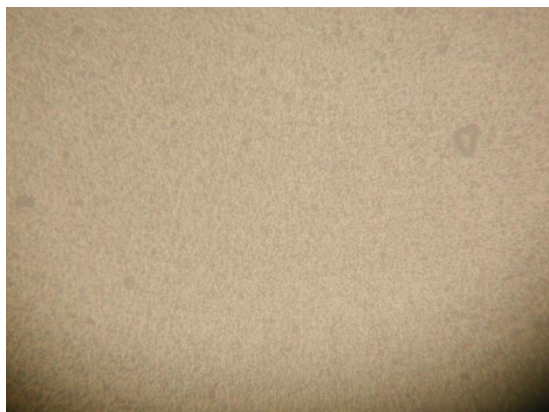
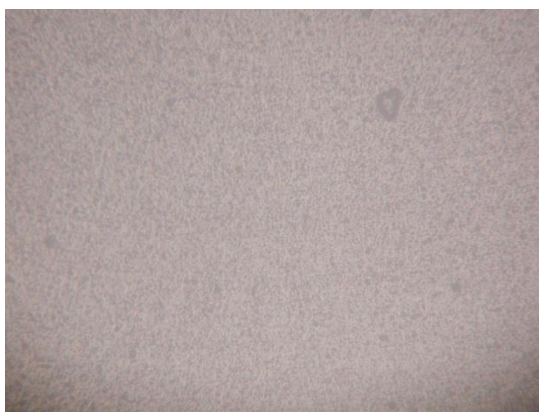
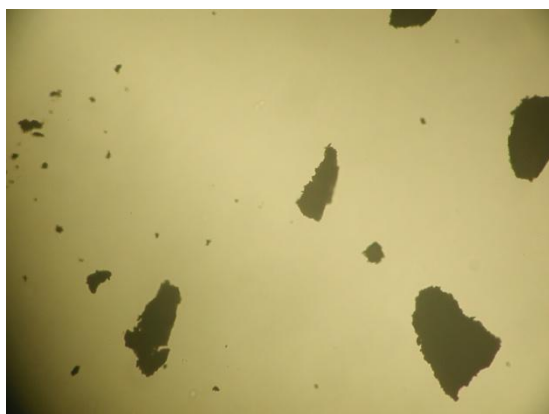
Roan 3



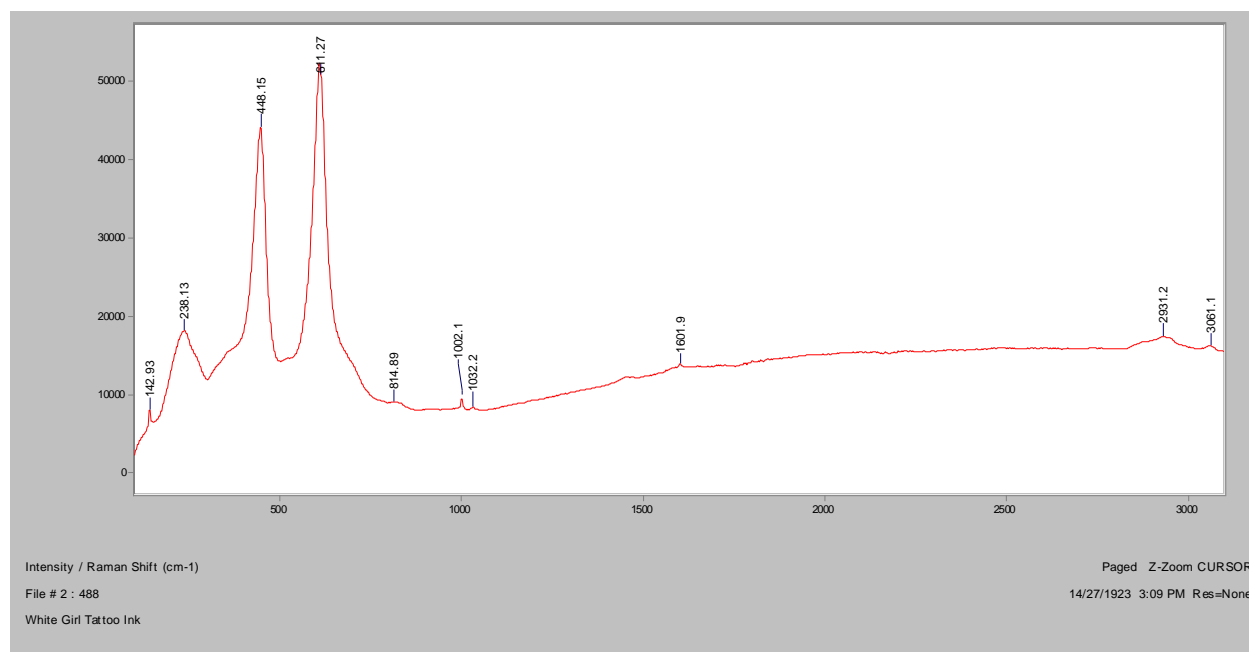
Bright Field, 100x



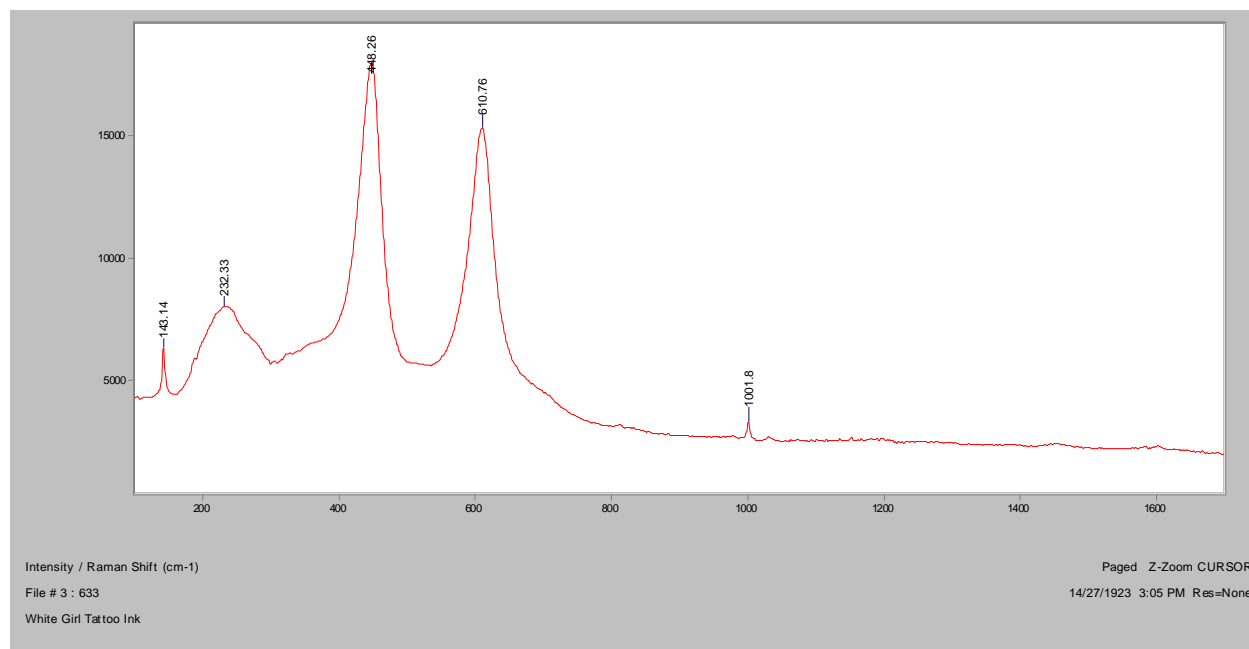
Dark Field, 100x

White Girl**Bright Field, 100x****Dark Field, 100x****In IR 1.550, 200x****Crossed polars, In IR 1.550, 200x**

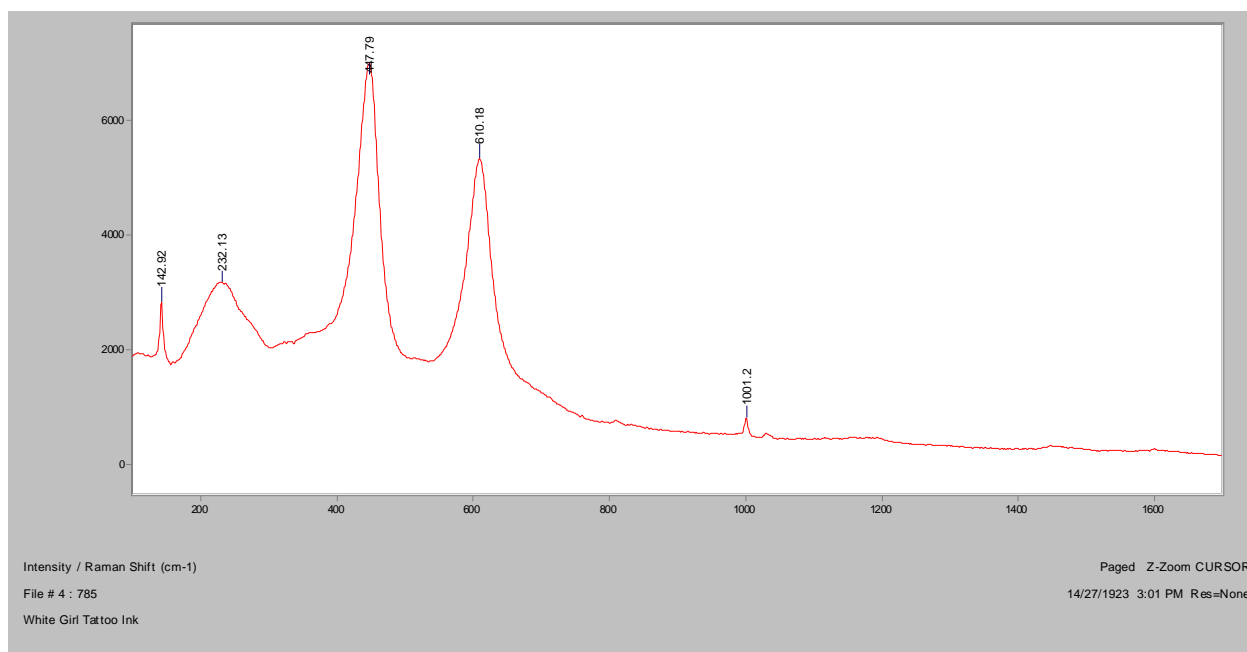
Normal Raman, 488nm



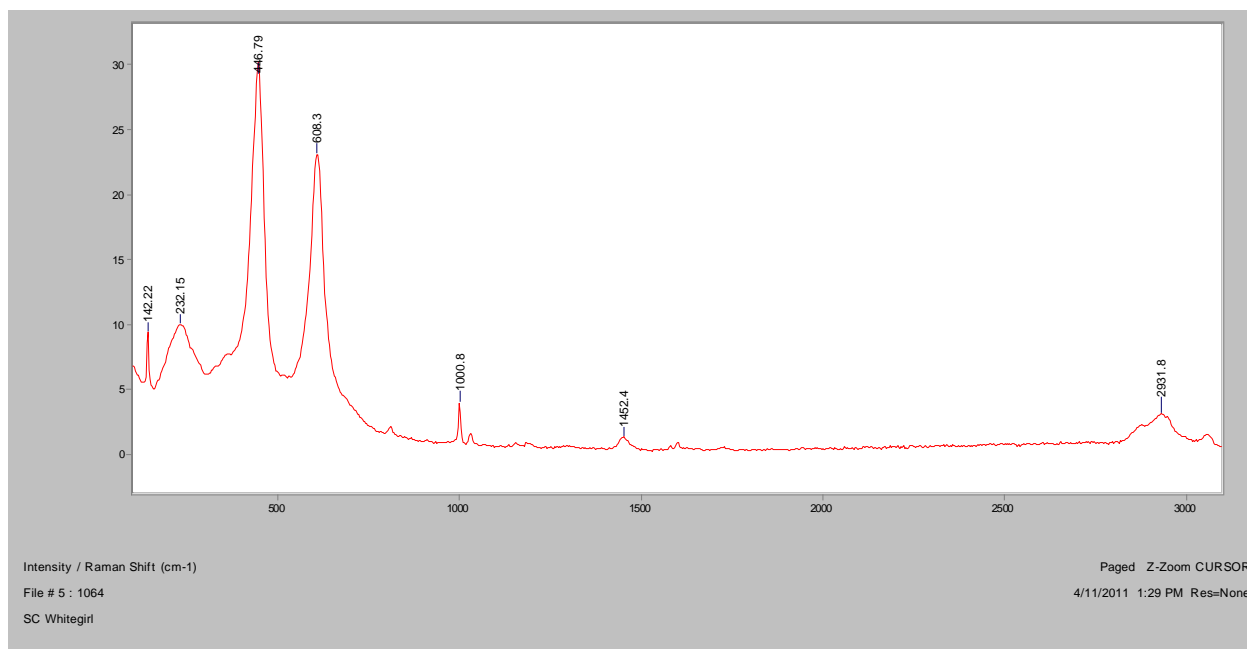
Normal Raman, 633nm



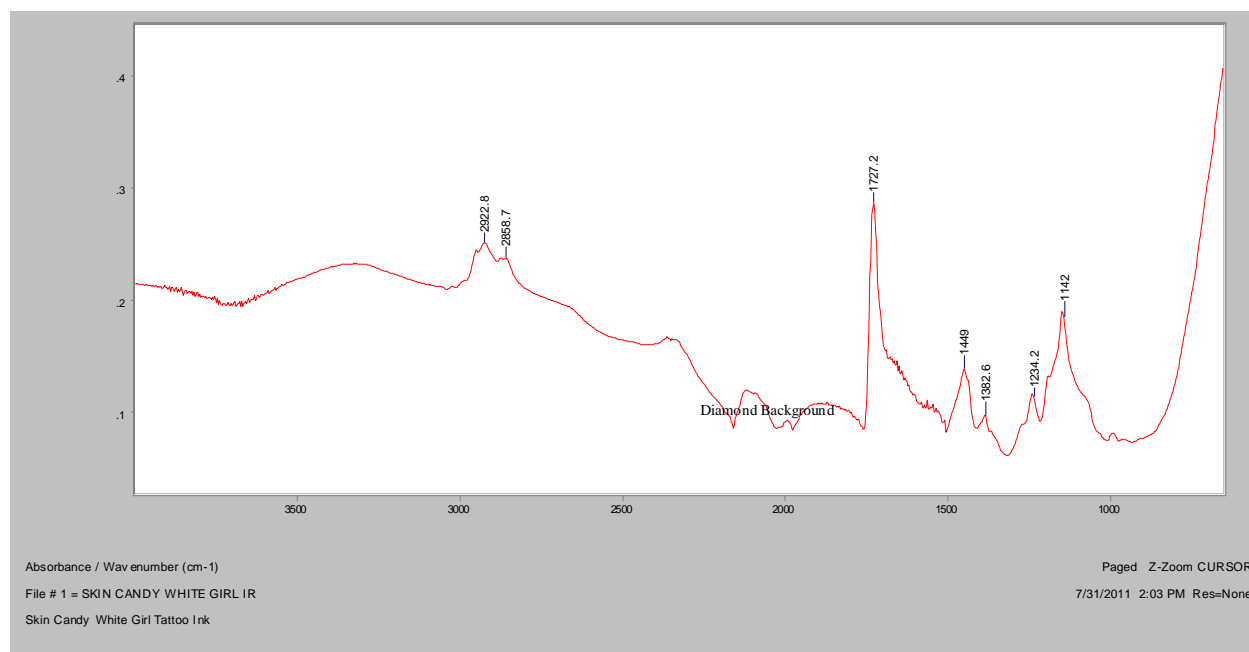
Normal Raman, 785nm



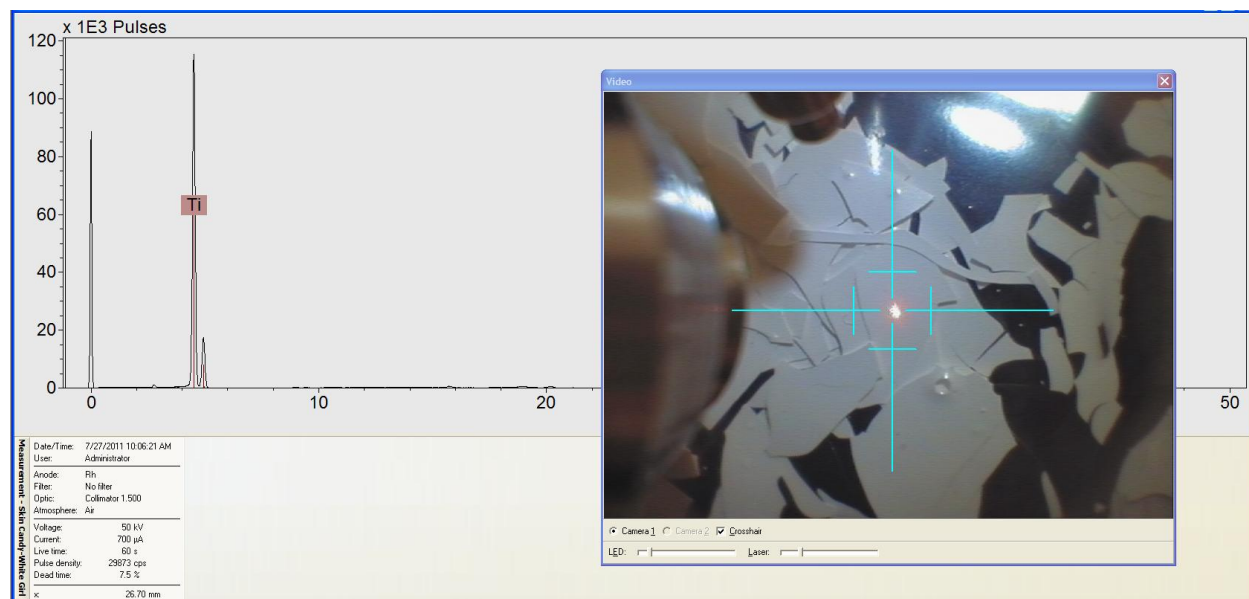
FT-Raman, 1064nm

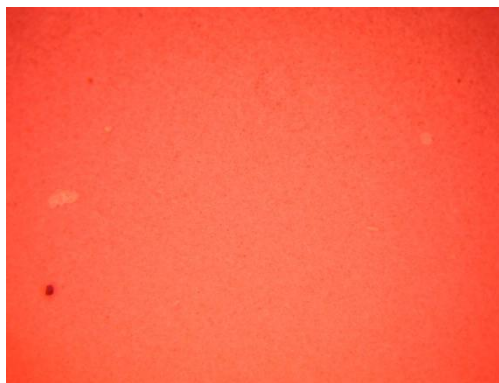
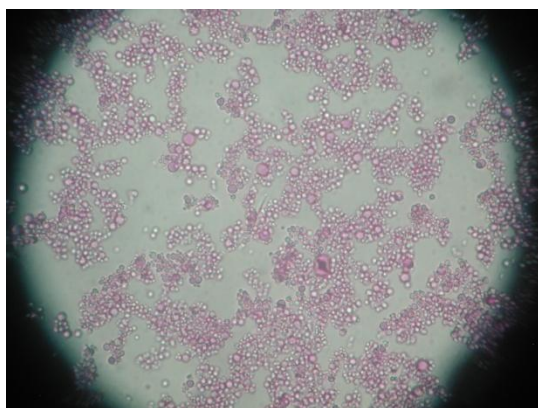
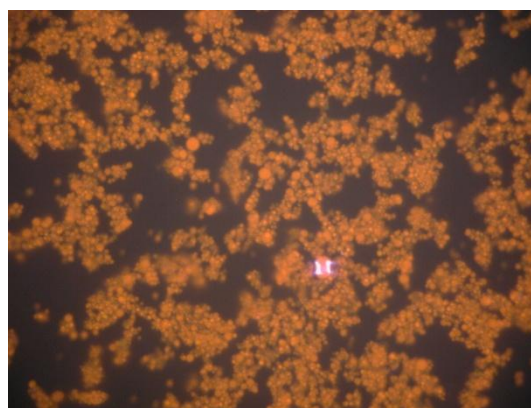
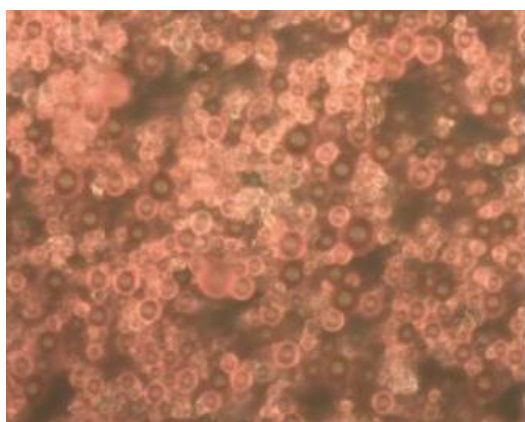


FT-IR (ATR)

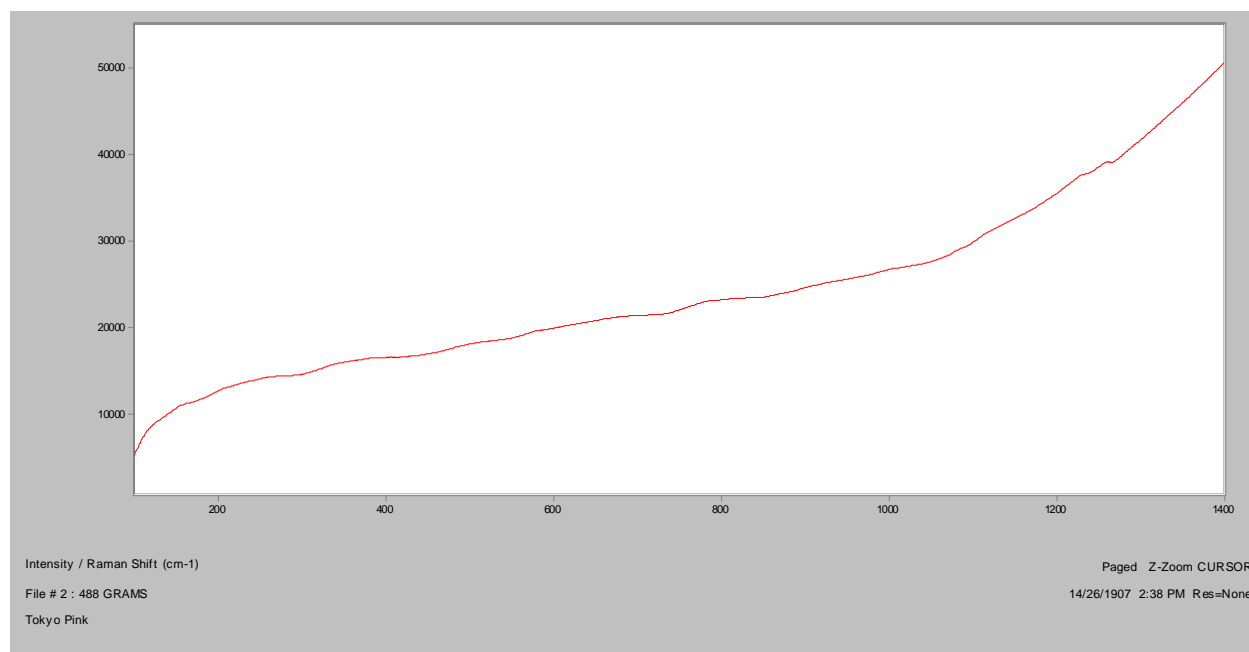


XRF

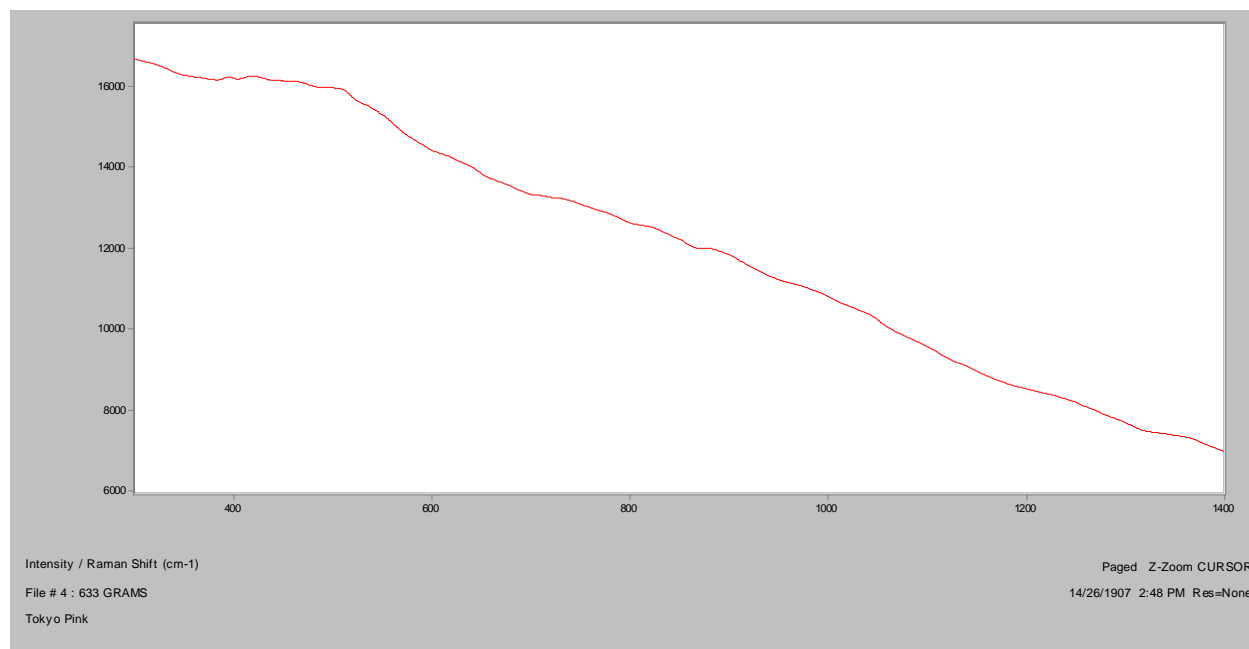


Tokyo Pink**Bright Field, 100x****Dark Field, 100x****In RI 1.550, 400x****Crossed polars, In RI 1.550, 400x****Raman microscope image, 1000x**

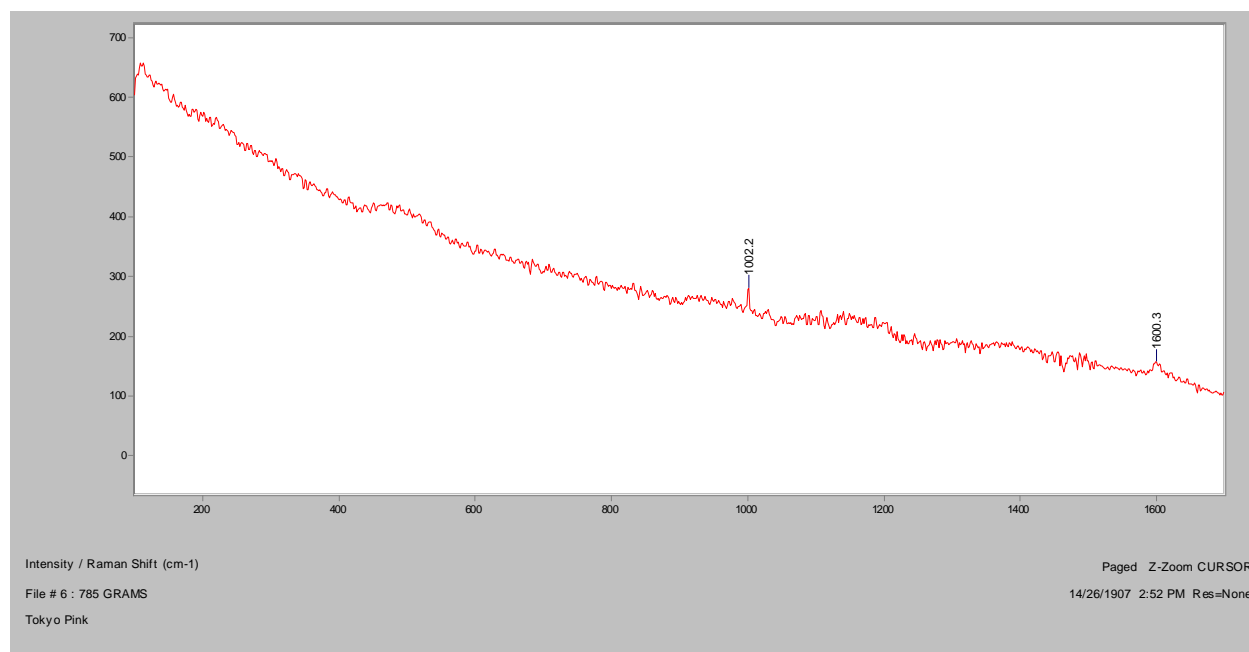
Normal Raman, 488nm



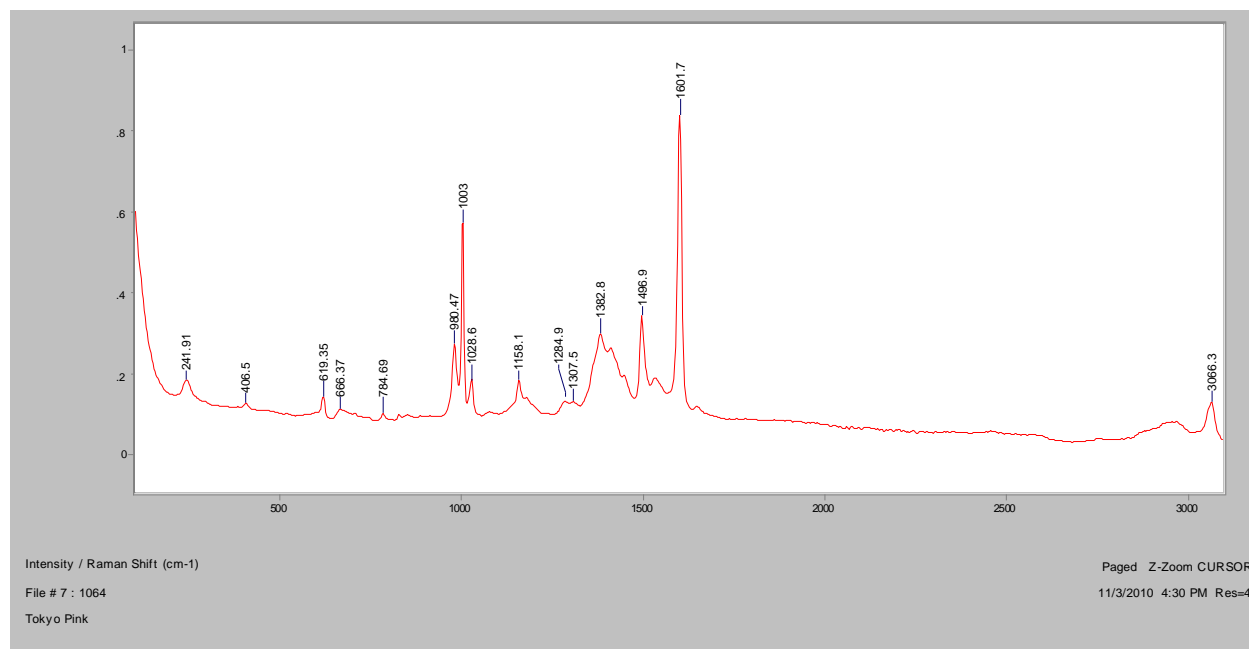
Normal Raman, 633nm



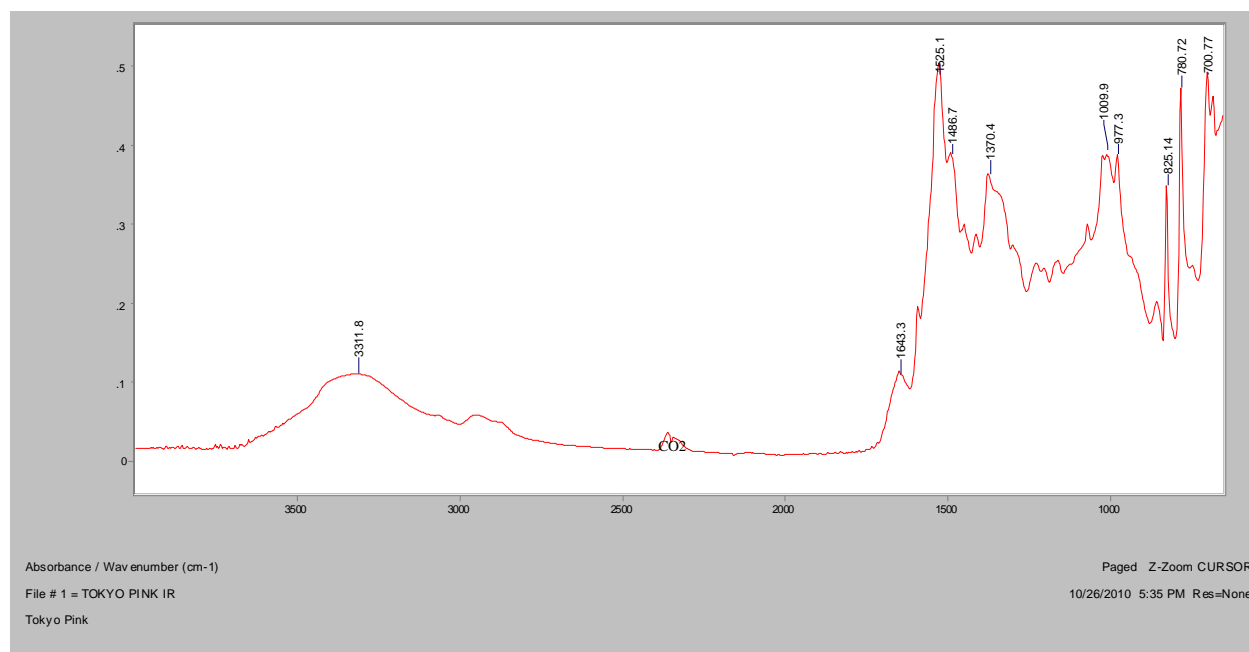
Normal Raman, 785nm



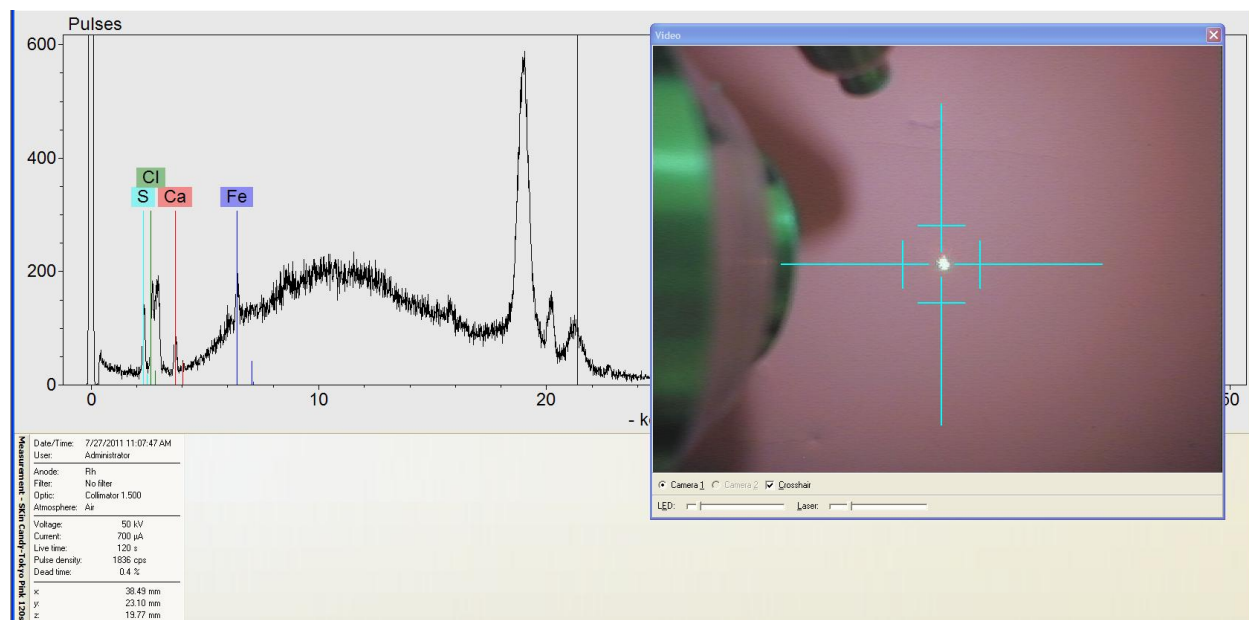
FT-Raman, 1064nm



FT-IR (ATR)

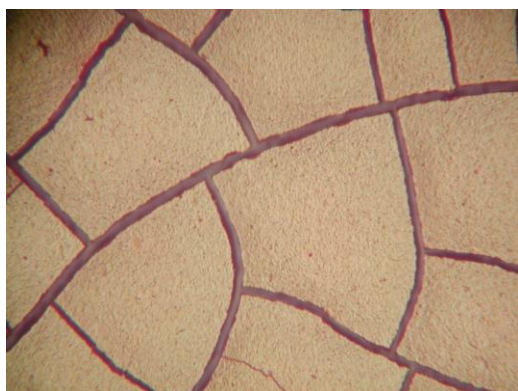


XRF

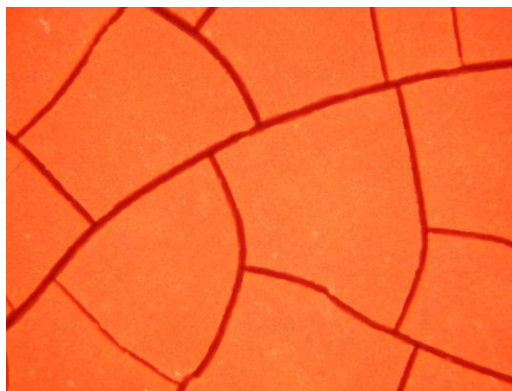


Appendix D: Tattoo Inks (Flying Tigers)

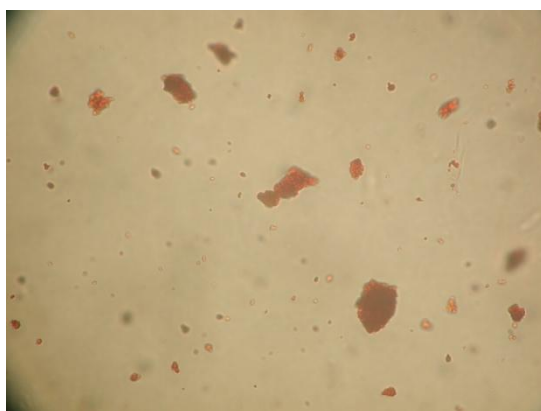
Salmon Pink



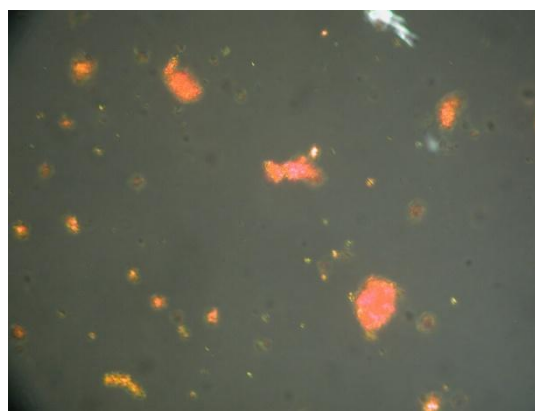
Bright Field, 100x



Dark Field, 100x

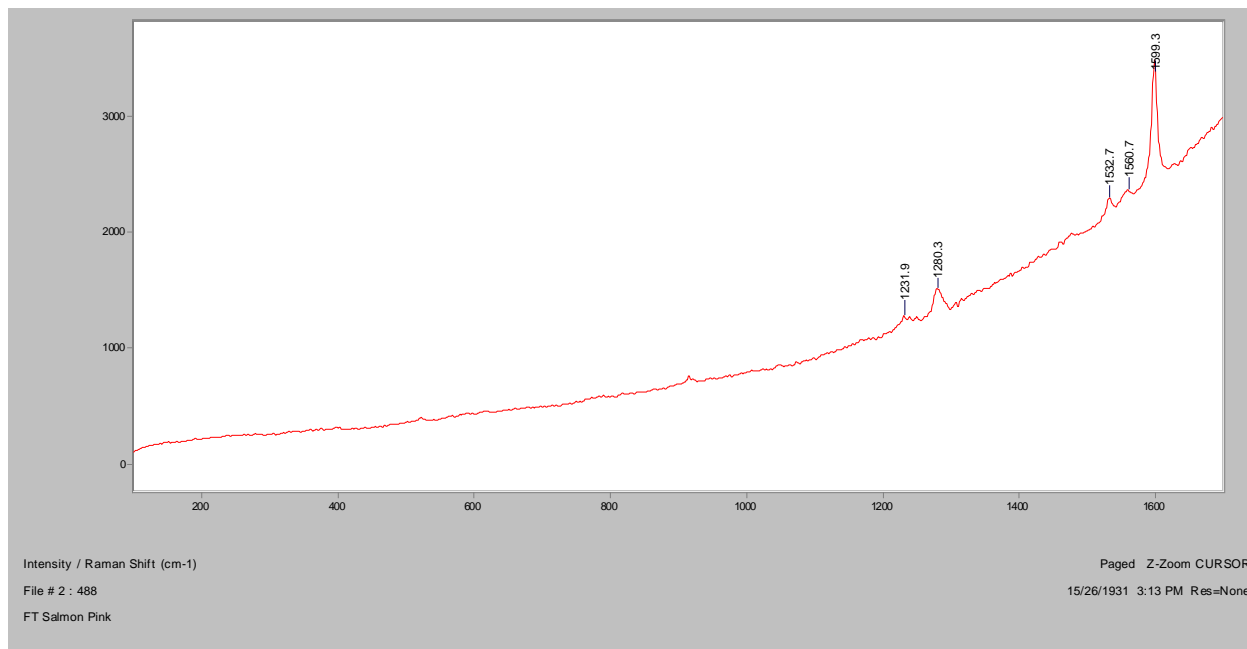


In RI 1.550, 400x

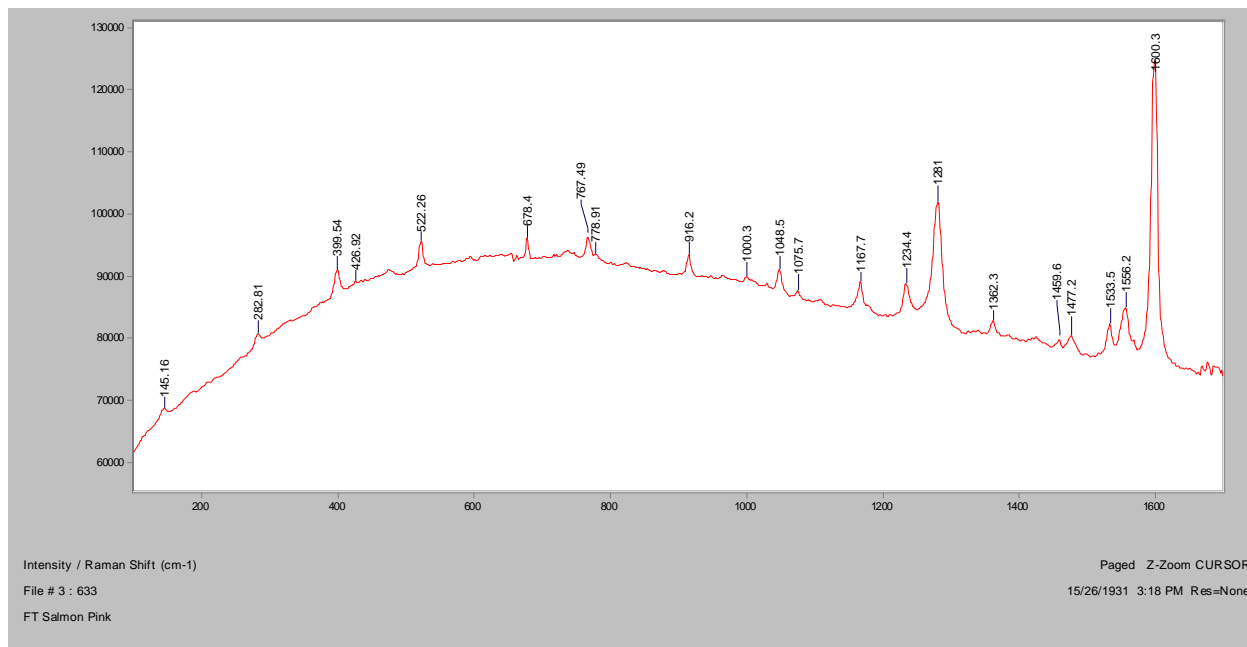


Crossed polars, In RI 1.550, 400x

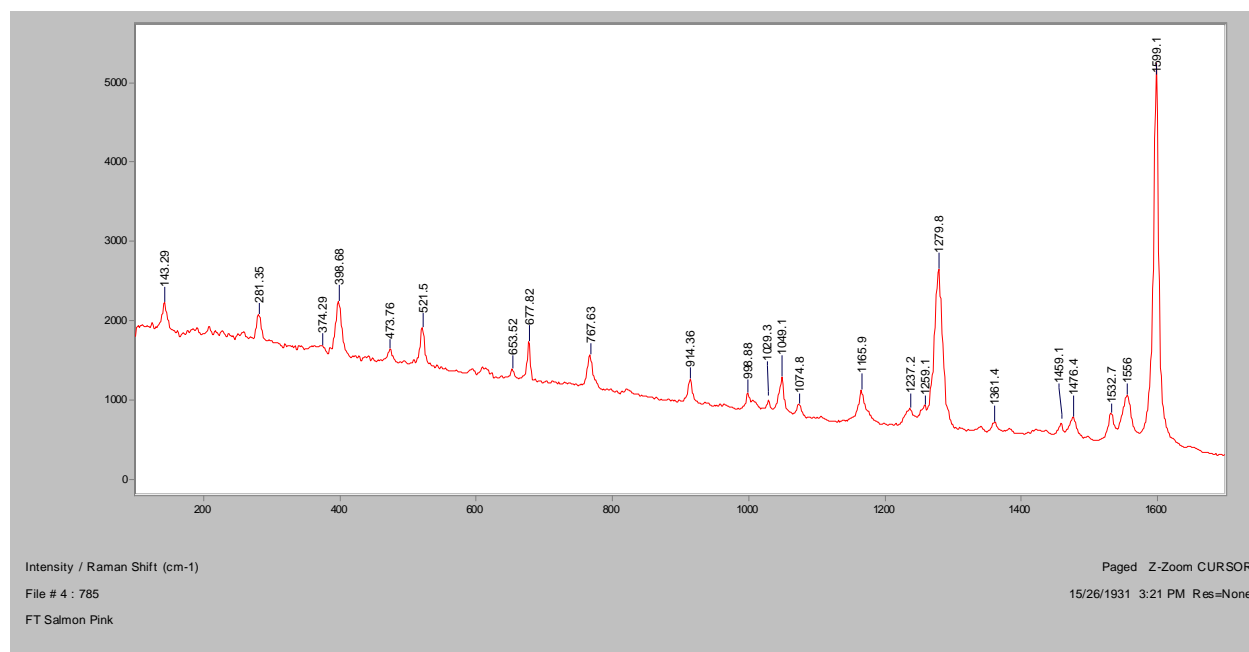
Normal Raman, 488nm



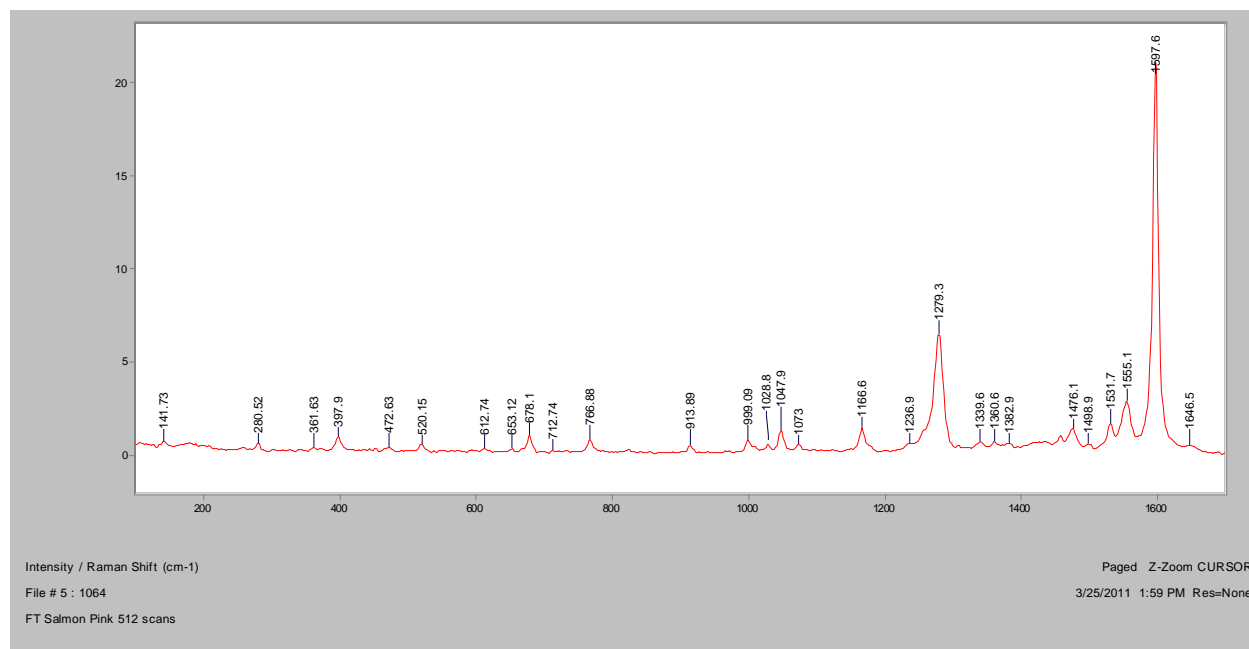
Normal Raman, 633nm



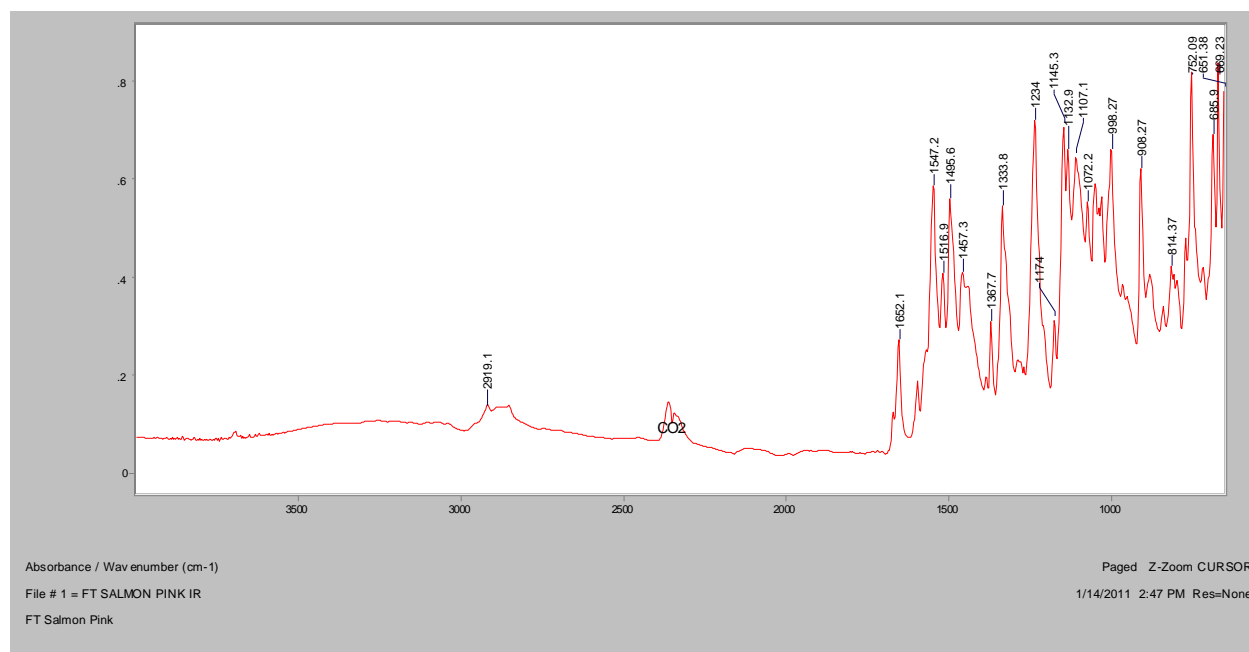
Normal Raman, 785nm



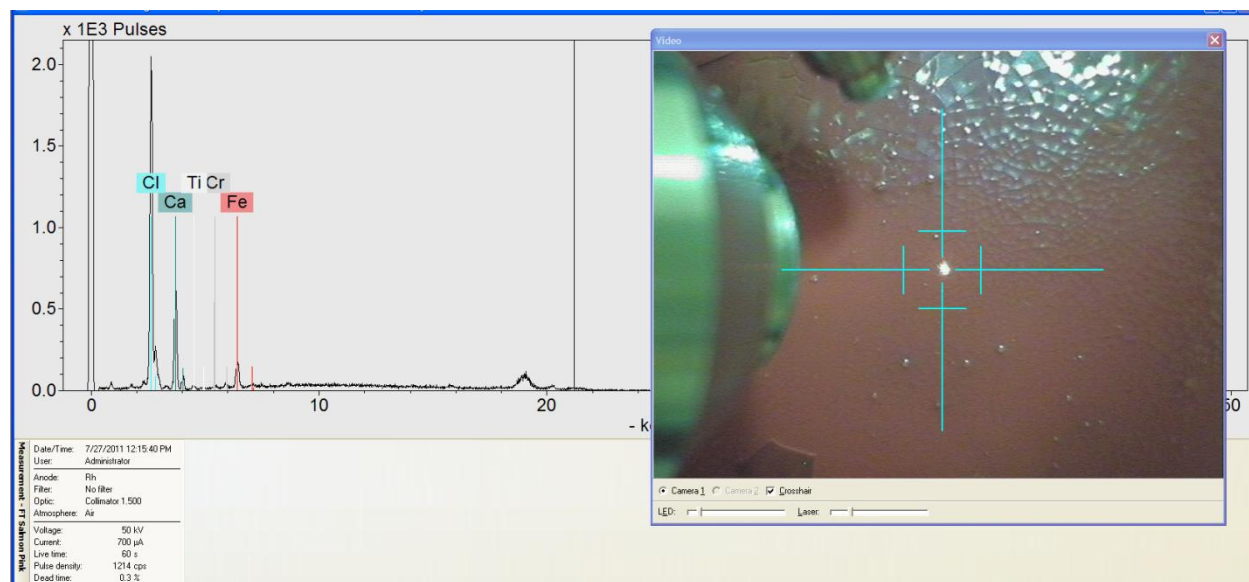
FT-Raman, 1064nm

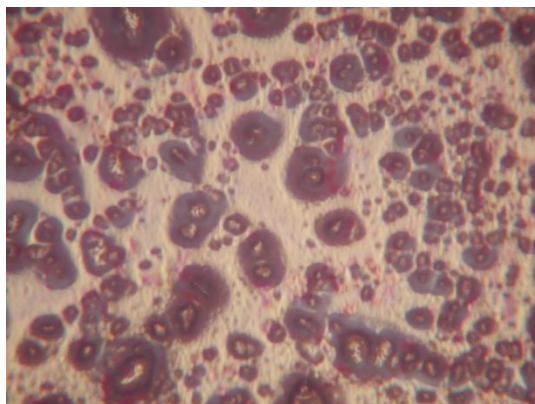
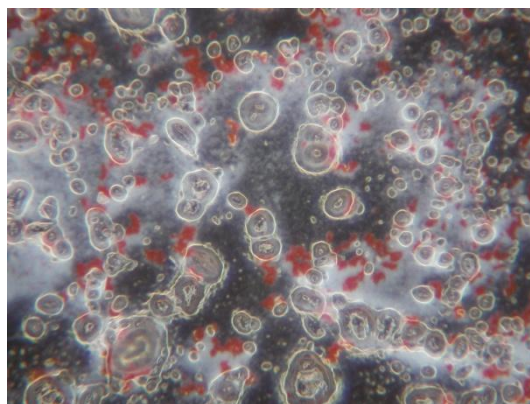


FT-IR (ATR)

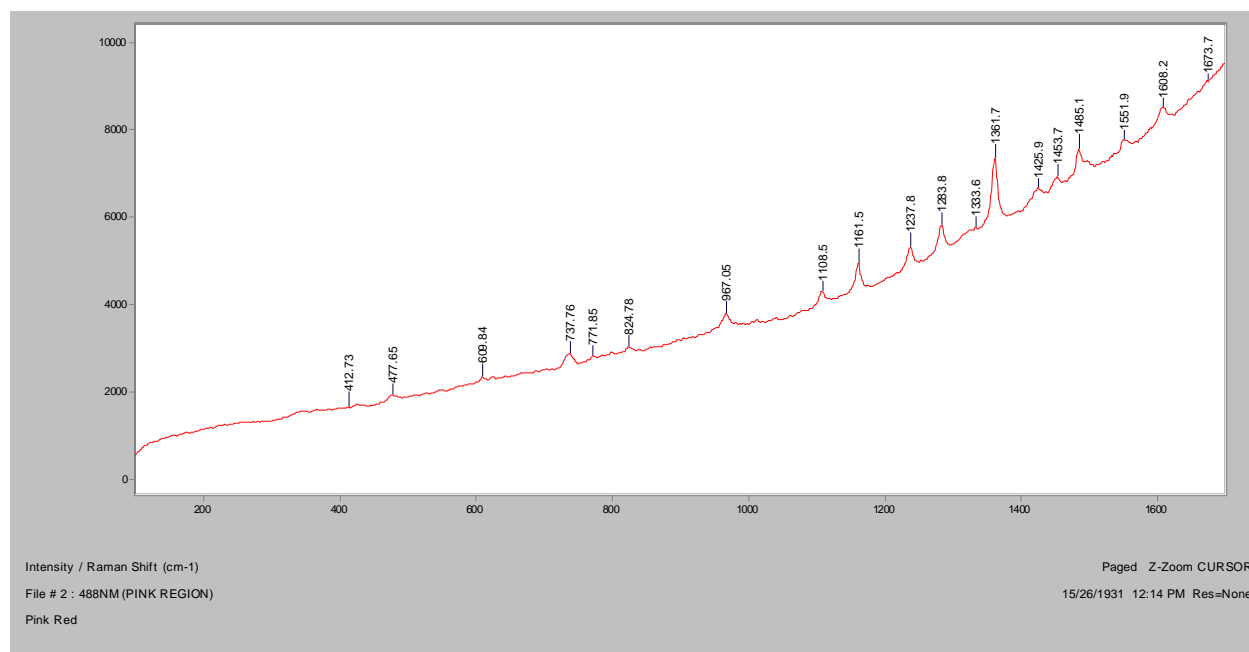


XRF

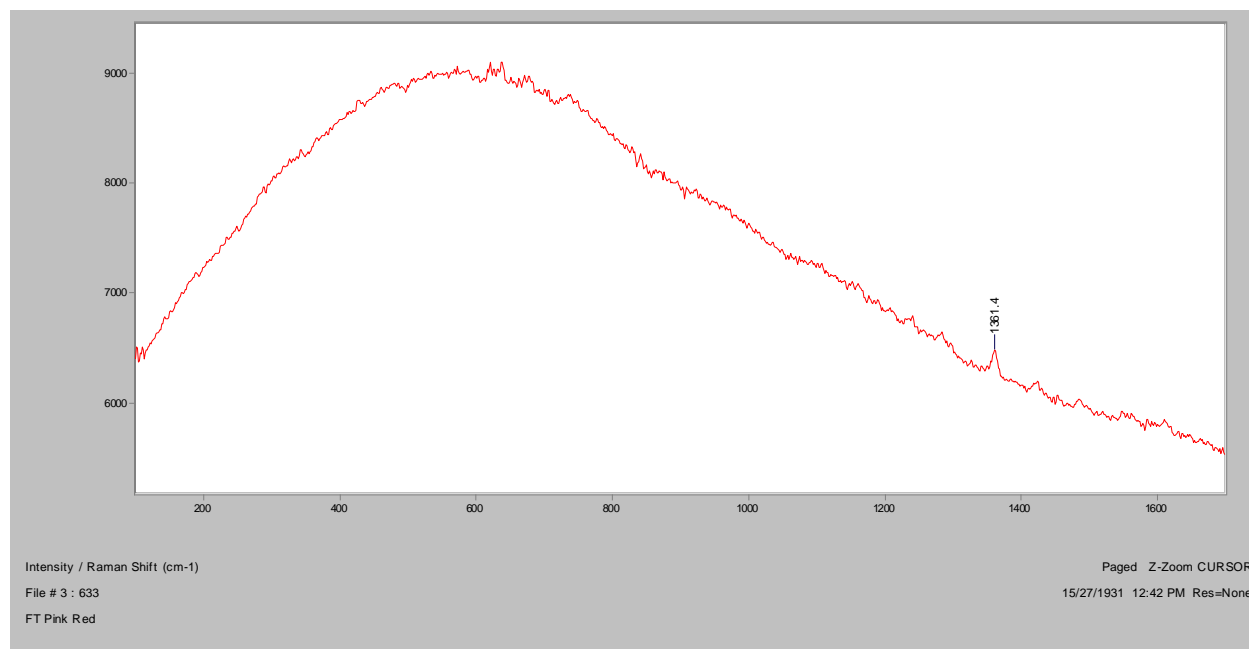


Pink Red**Bright Field, 100x****Dark Field, 100x****Raman microscope image, 1000x**

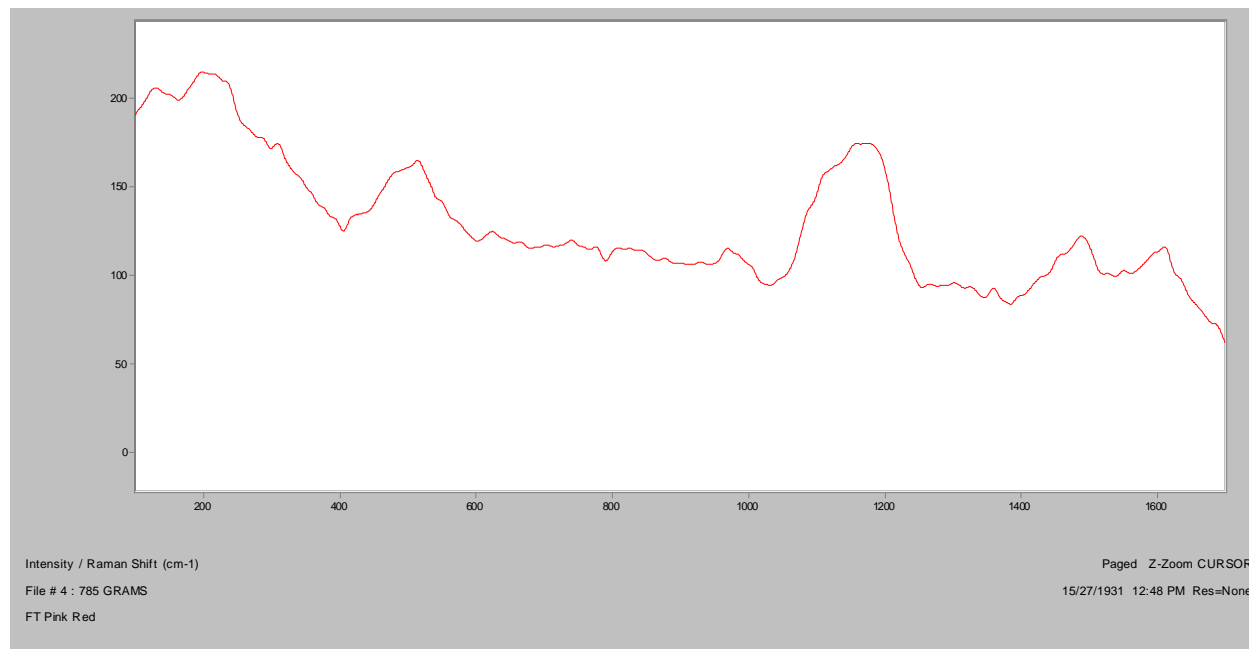
Normal Raman, 488nm



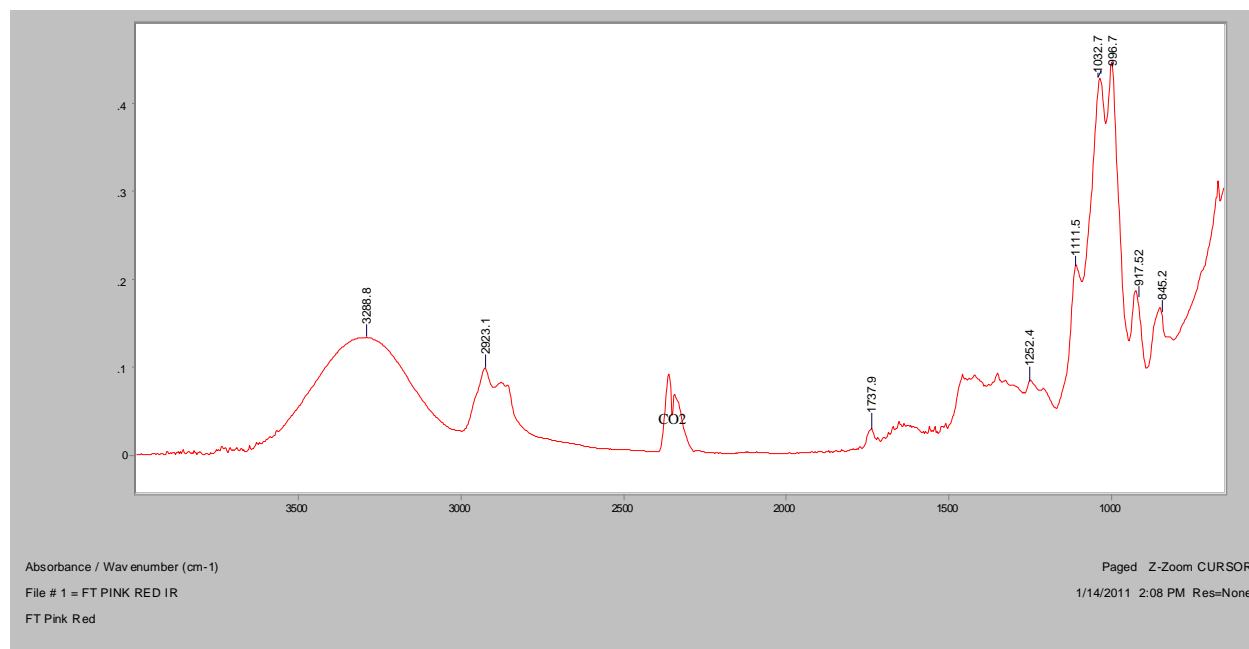
Normal Raman, 633nm



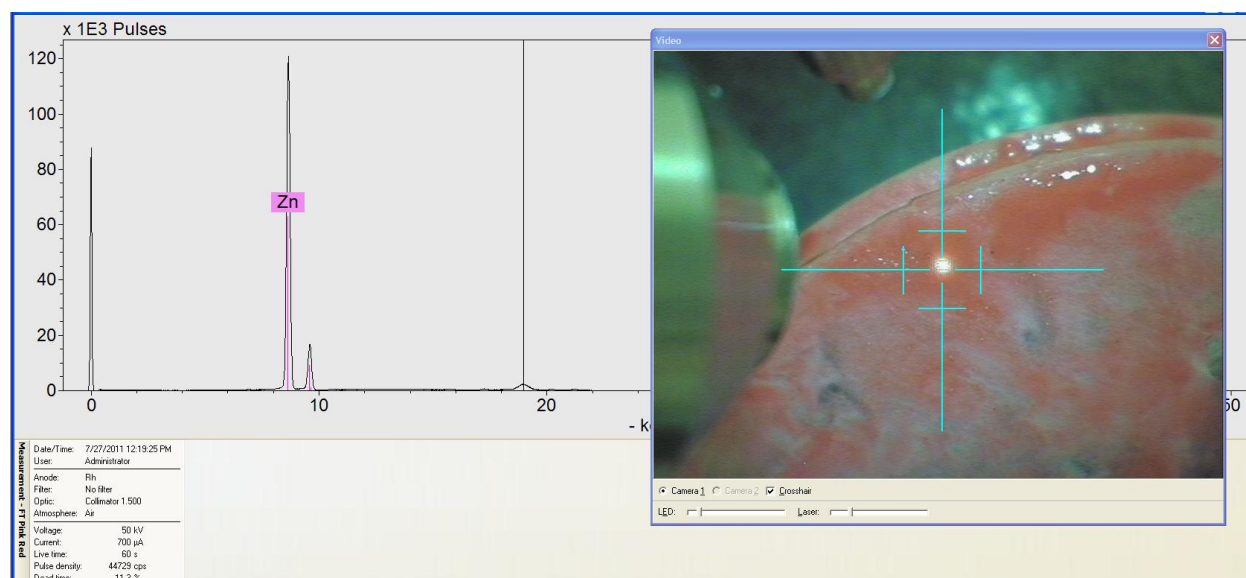
Normal Raman, 785nm



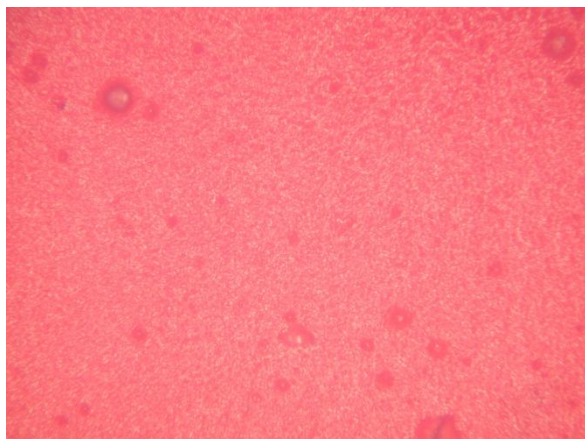
FT-IR (ATR)



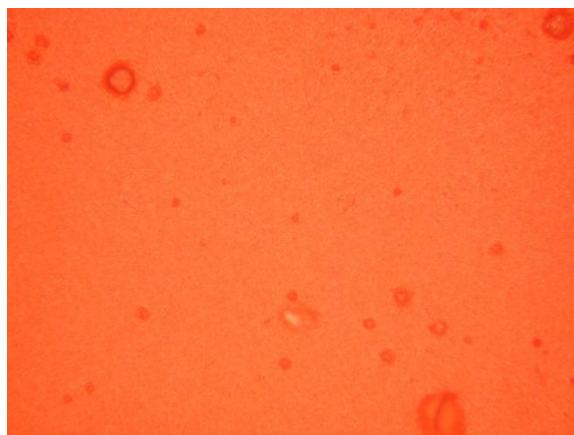
XRF



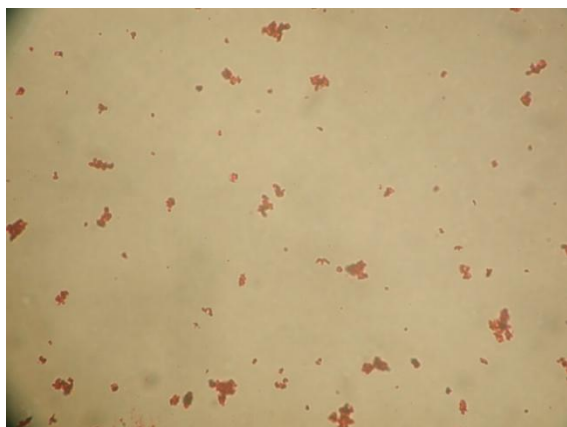
Magenta



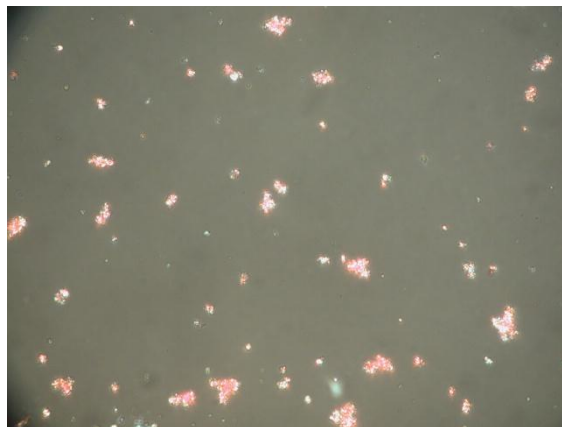
Bright Field, 100x



Dark Field, 100x

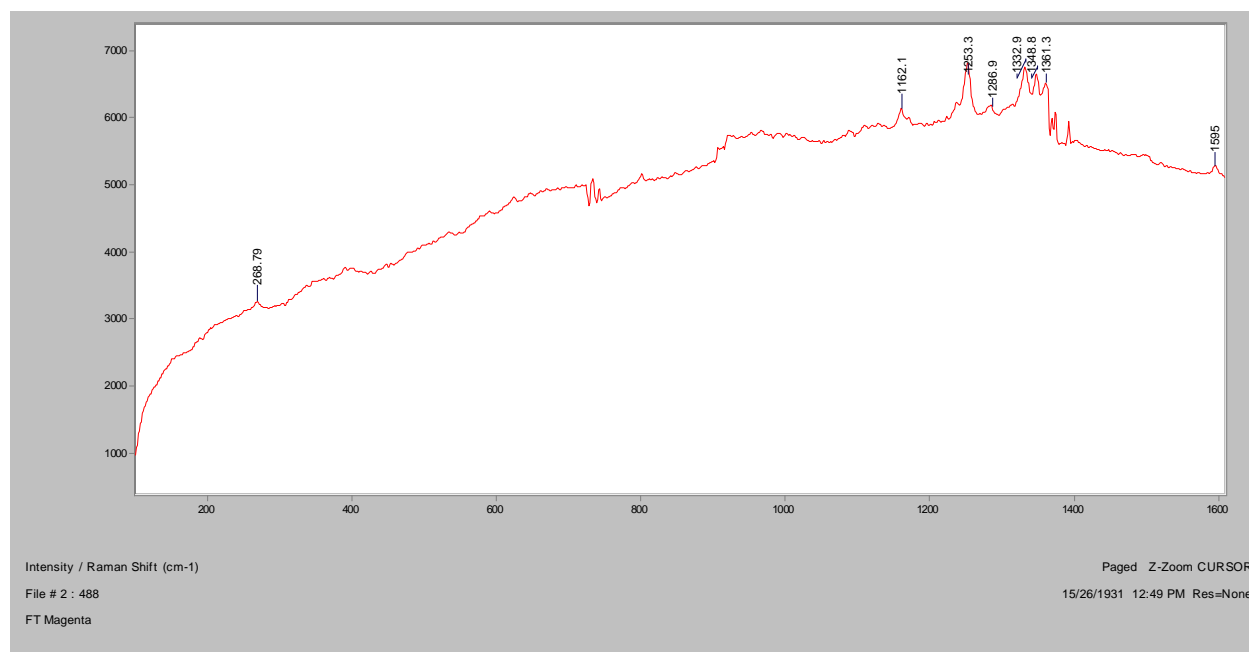


In RI, 1.550, 400x

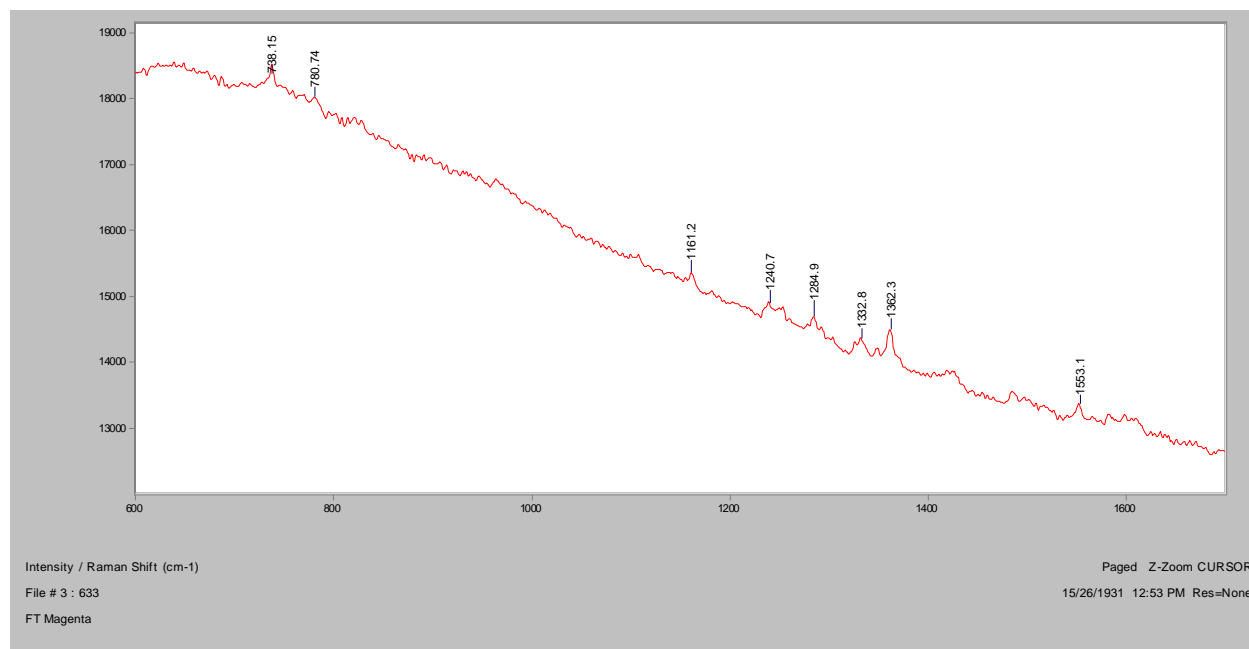


Crossed Polars, In RI 1.550, 400x

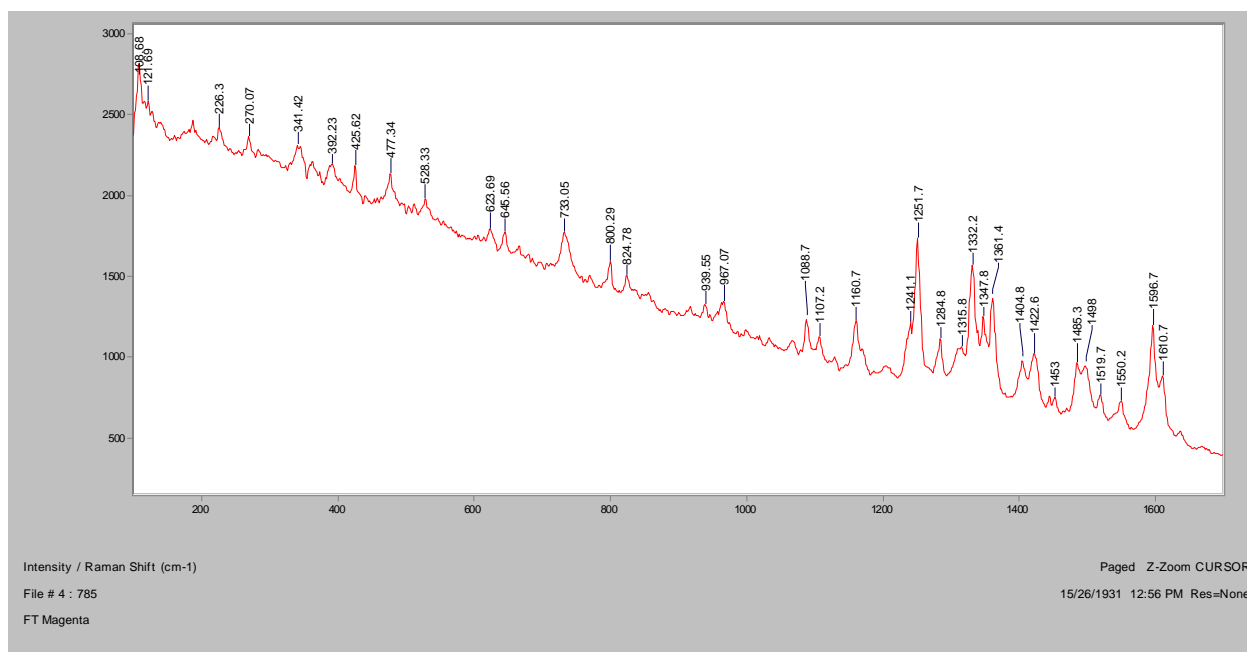
Normal Raman, 488nm



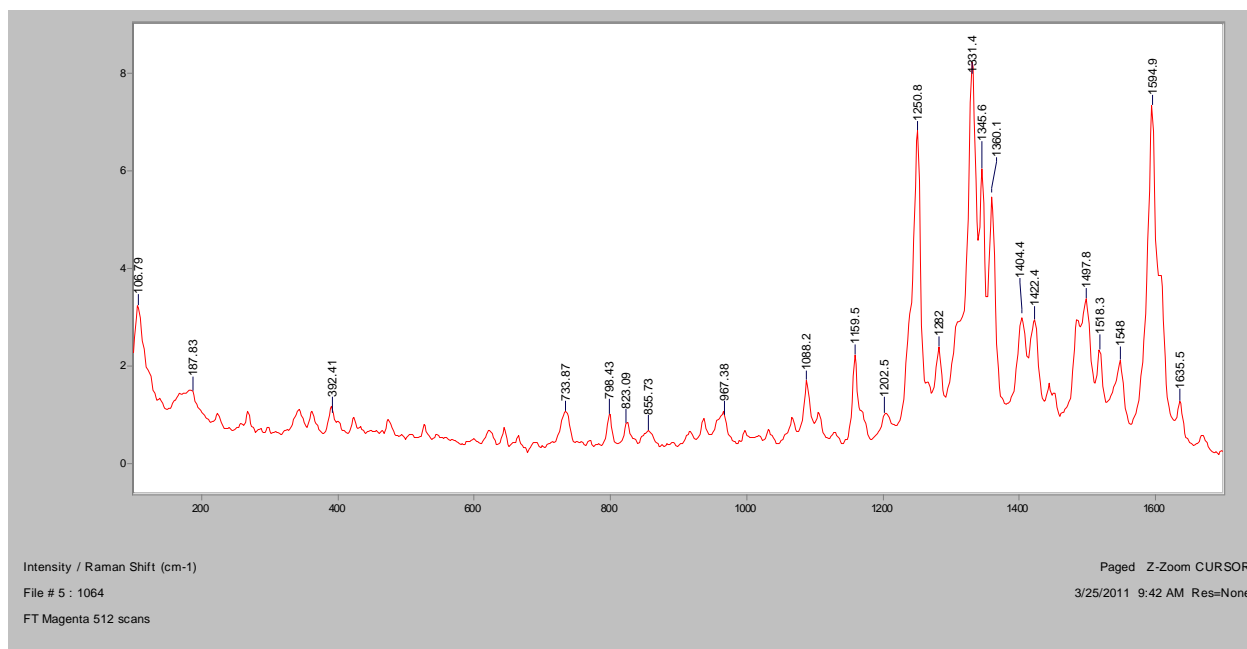
Normal Raman, 633nm



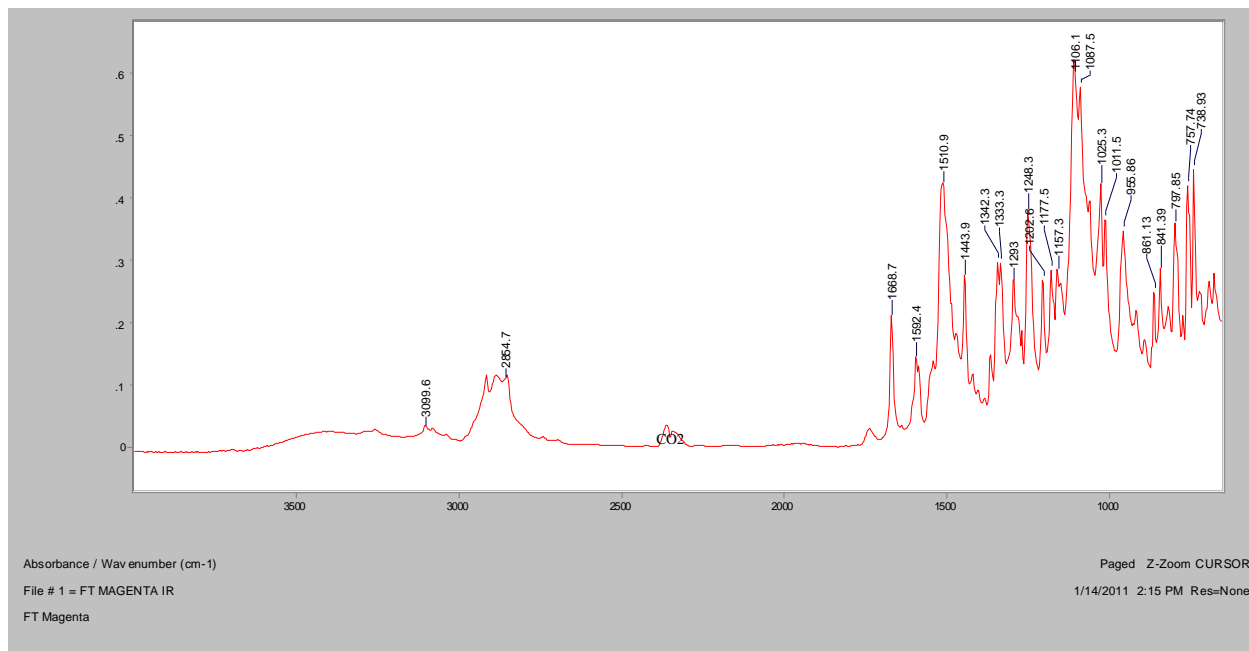
Normal Raman, 785nm



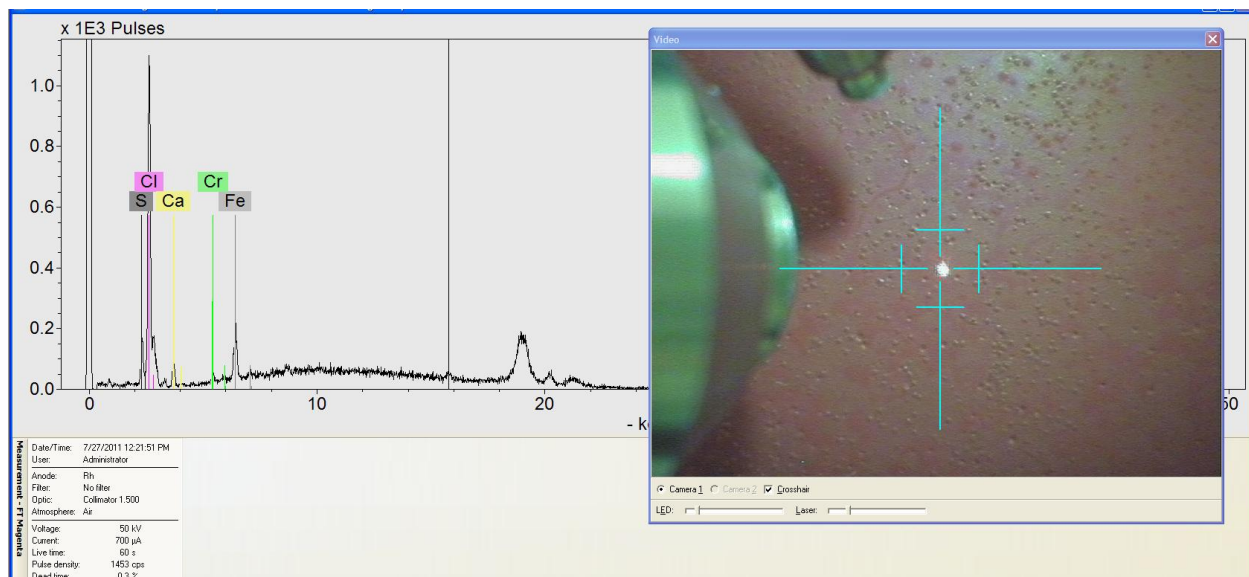
FT-Raman, 1064nm

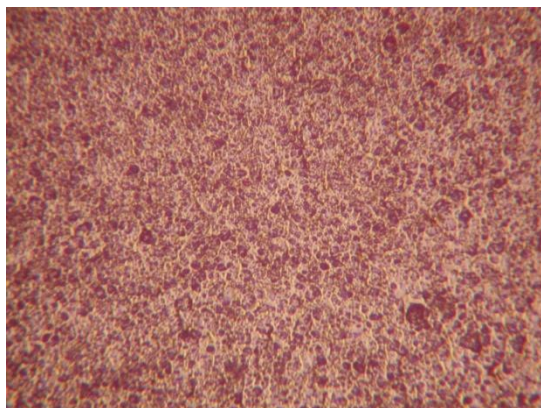
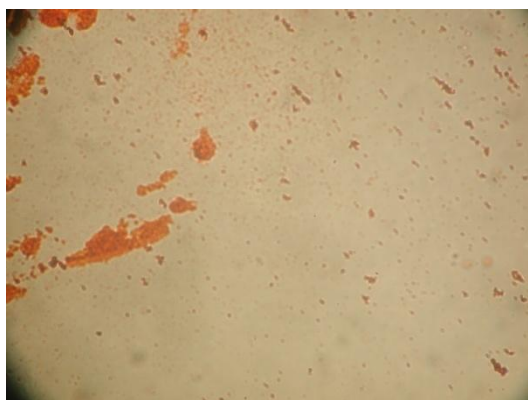
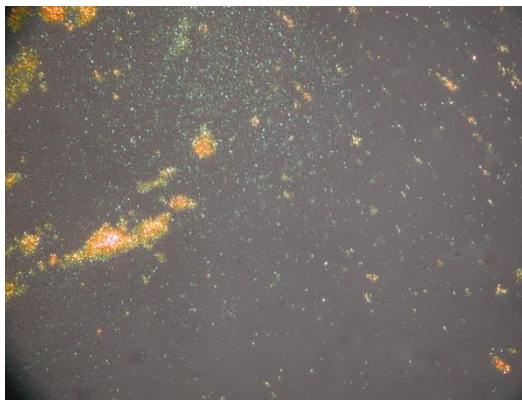


FT-IR (ATR)

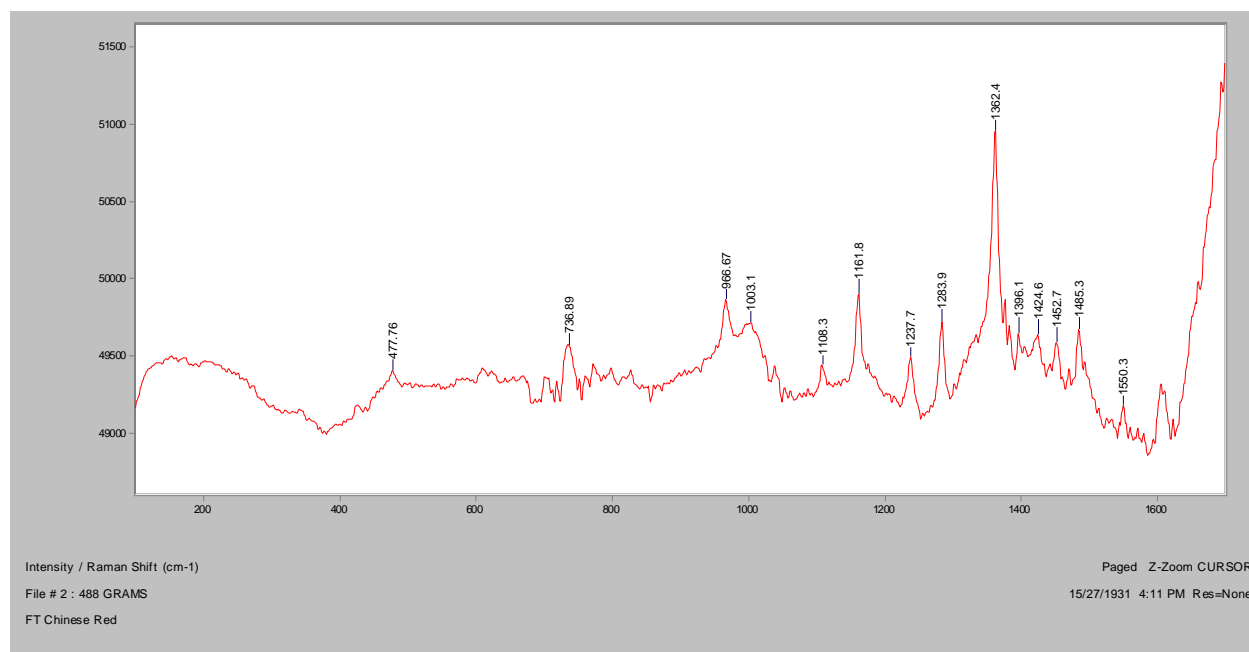


XRF

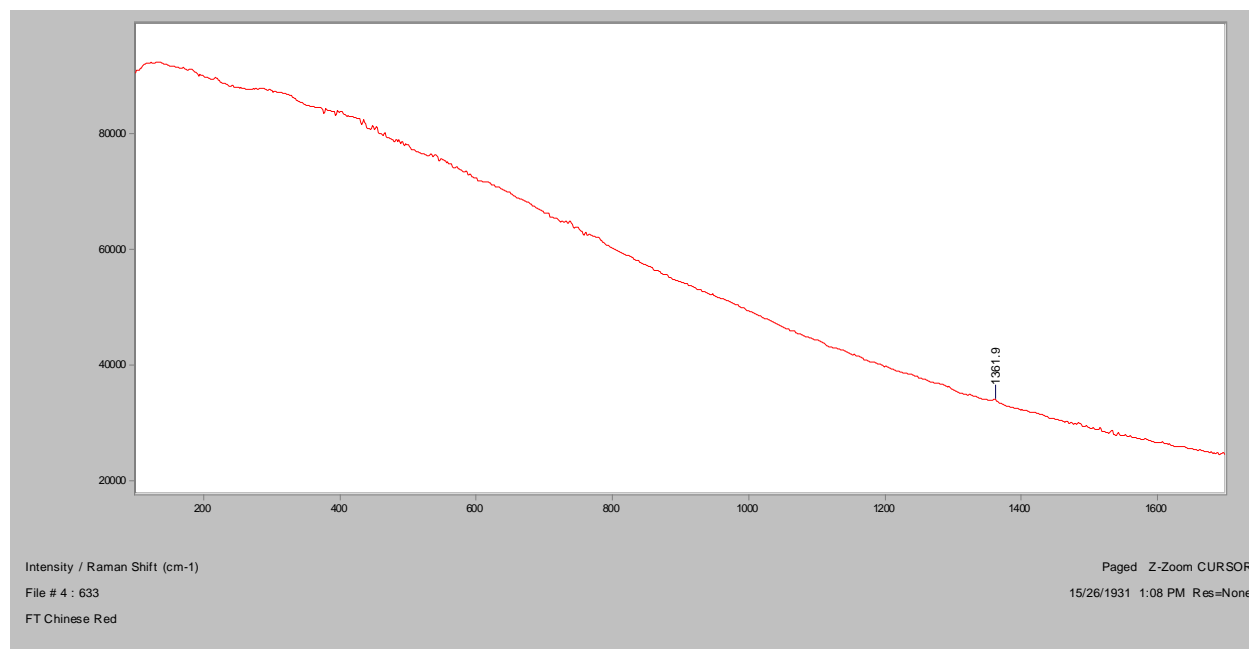


Chinese Red**Bright Field, 100x****Dark Field, 100x****In RI 1.550, 400x****Crossed polars, In RI 1.550, 400x**

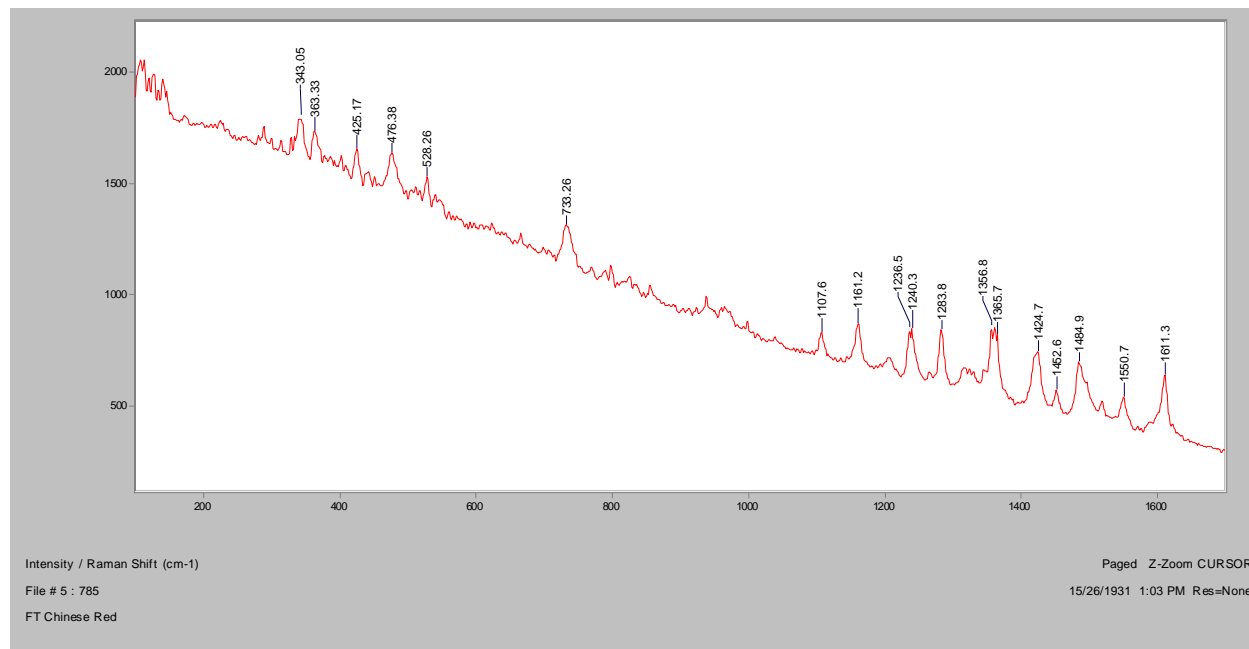
Normal Raman, 488nm



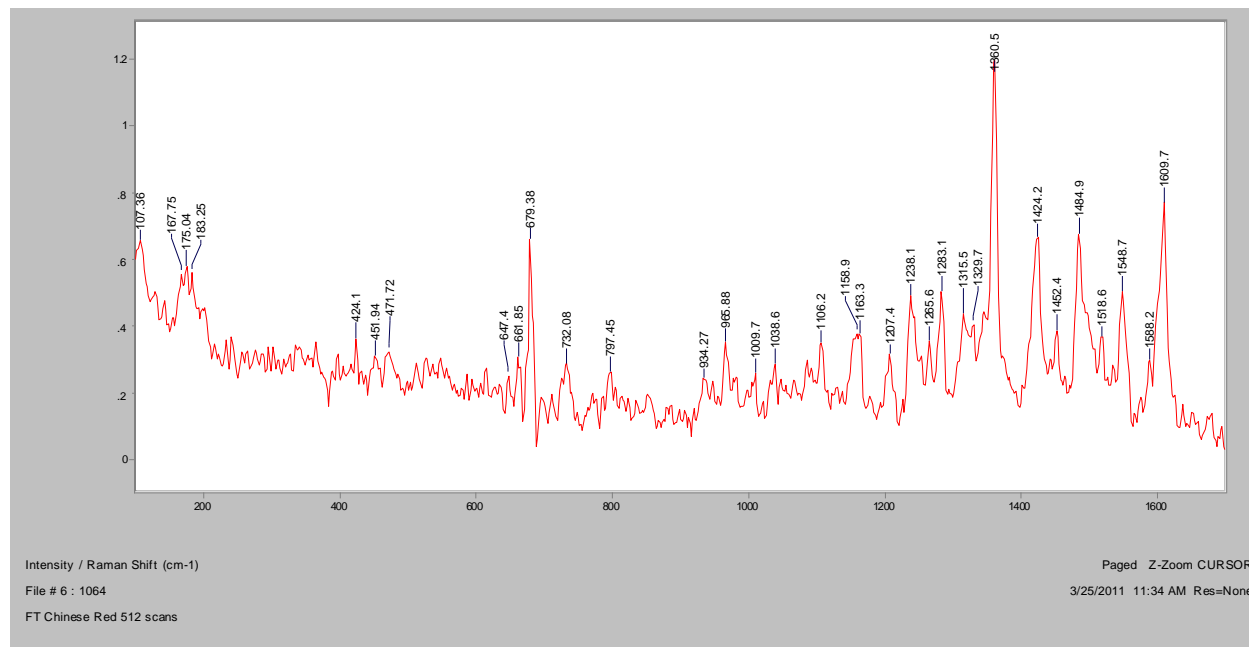
Normal Raman, 633nm



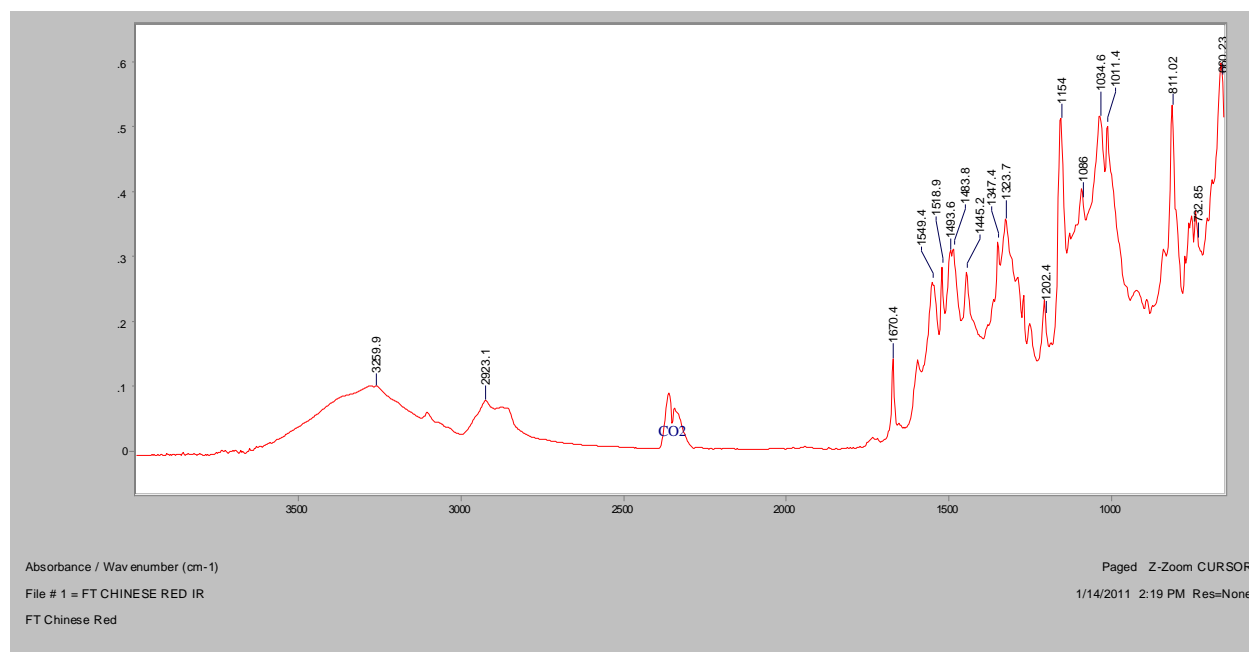
Normal Raman, 785nm



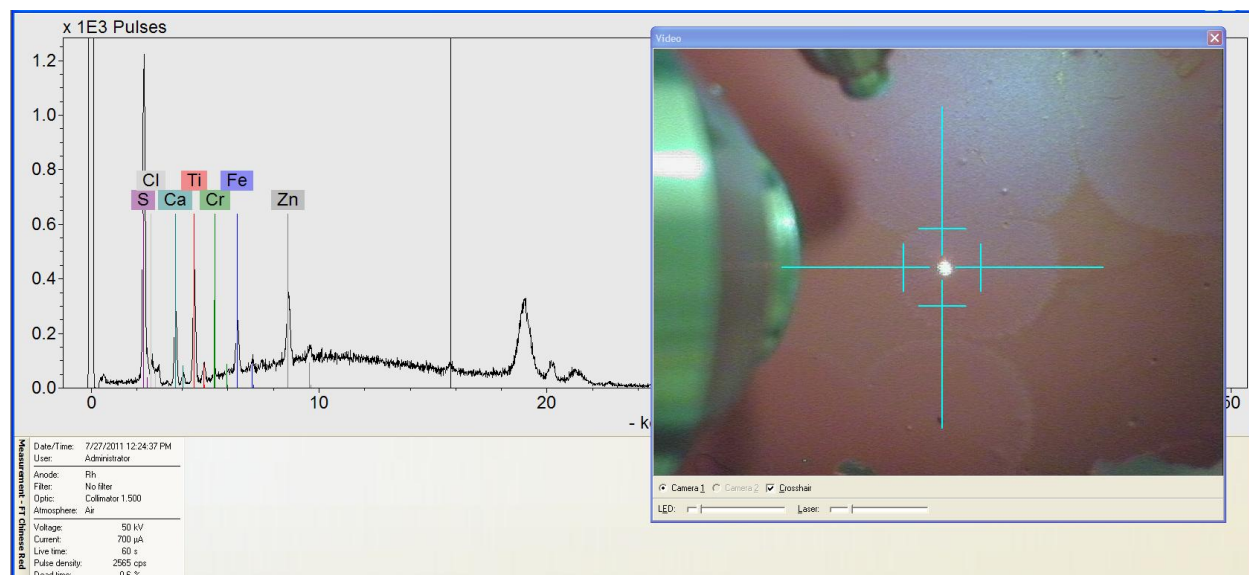
FT-Raman, 1064nm



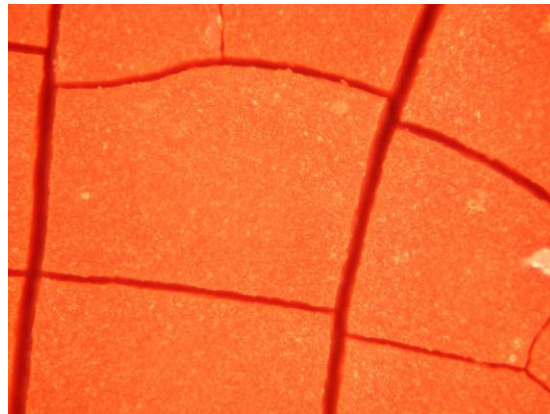
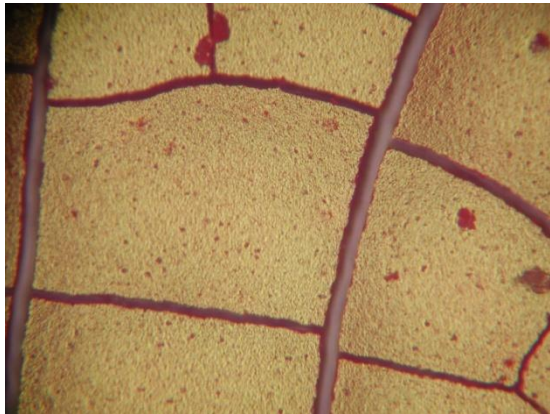
FT-IR (ATR)



XRF

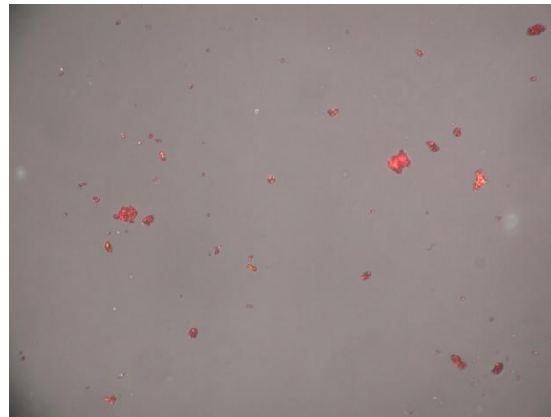


Bright Red



Bright Field, 100x

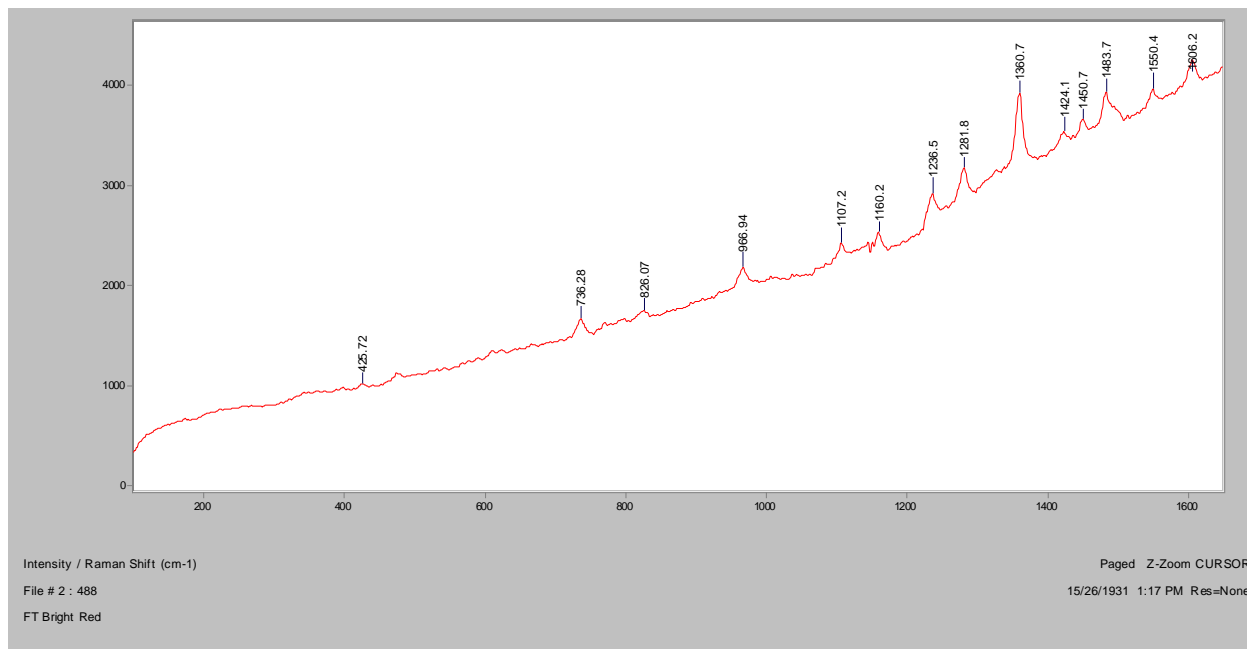
Dark Field, 100x



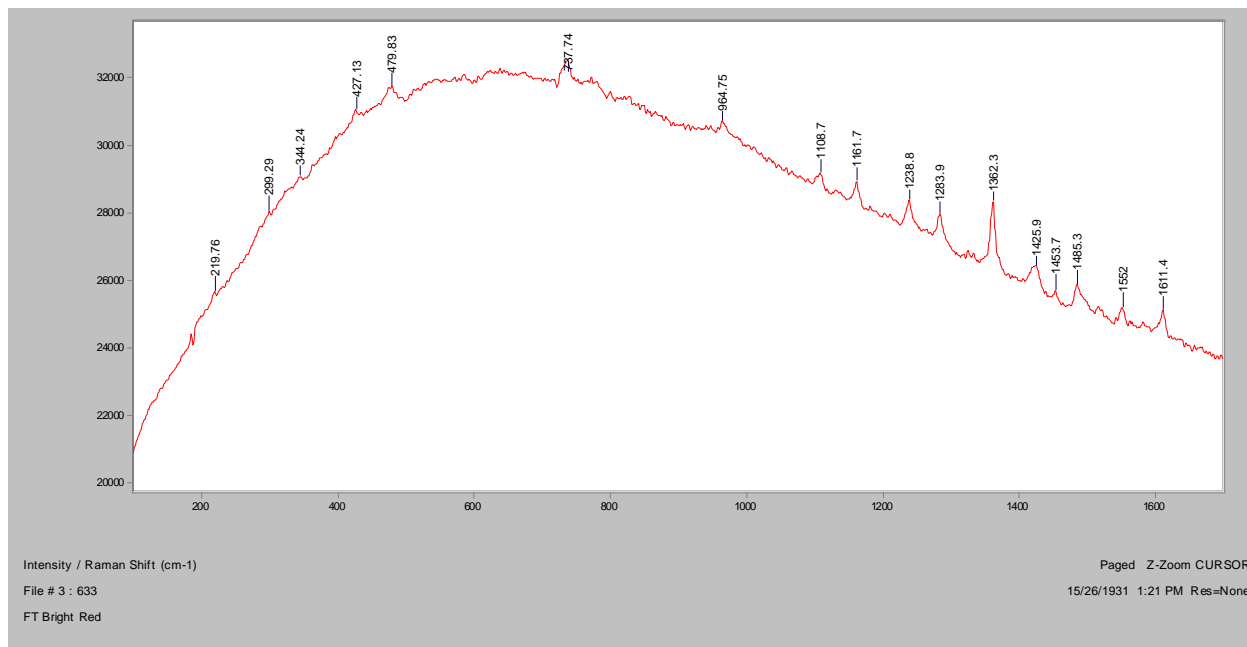
In RI 1.550, 400x

Crossed Polars, In RI 1.550, 400x

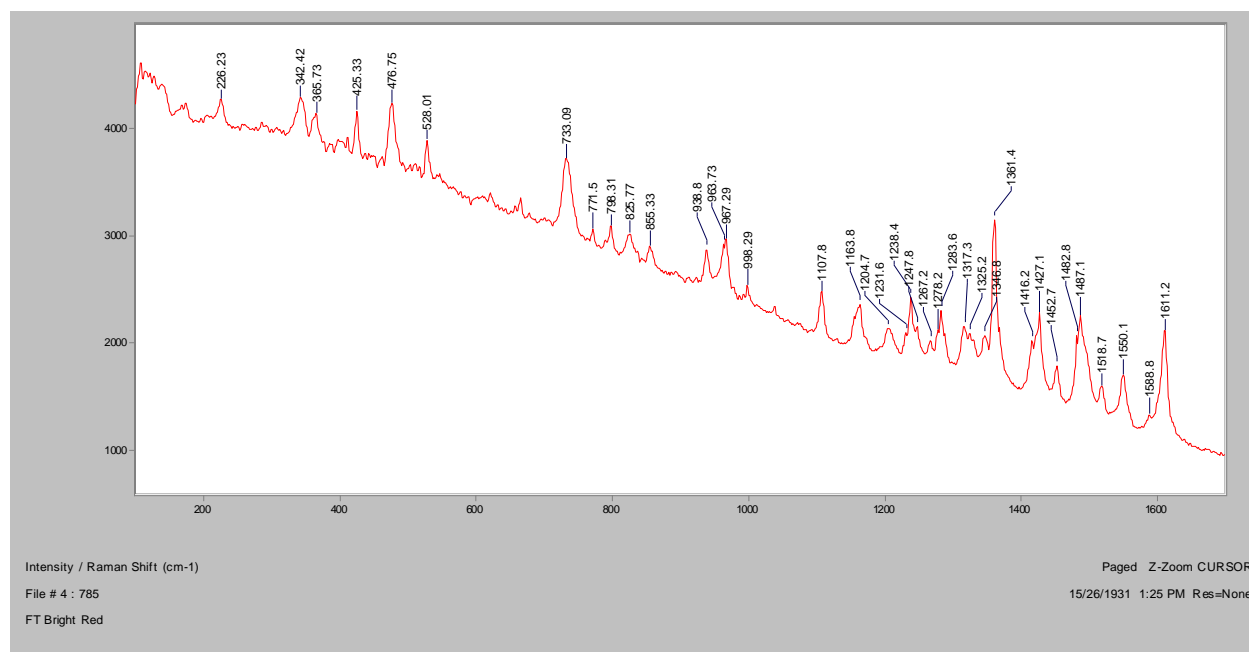
Normal Raman, 488nm



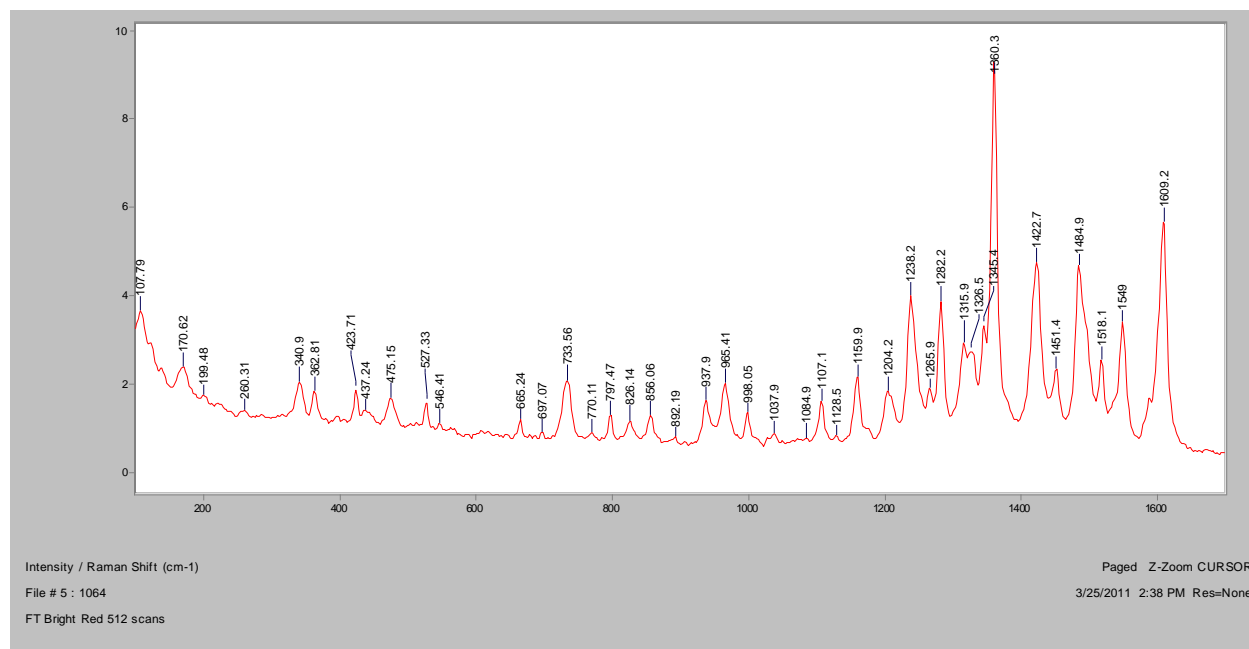
Normal Raman, 633nm



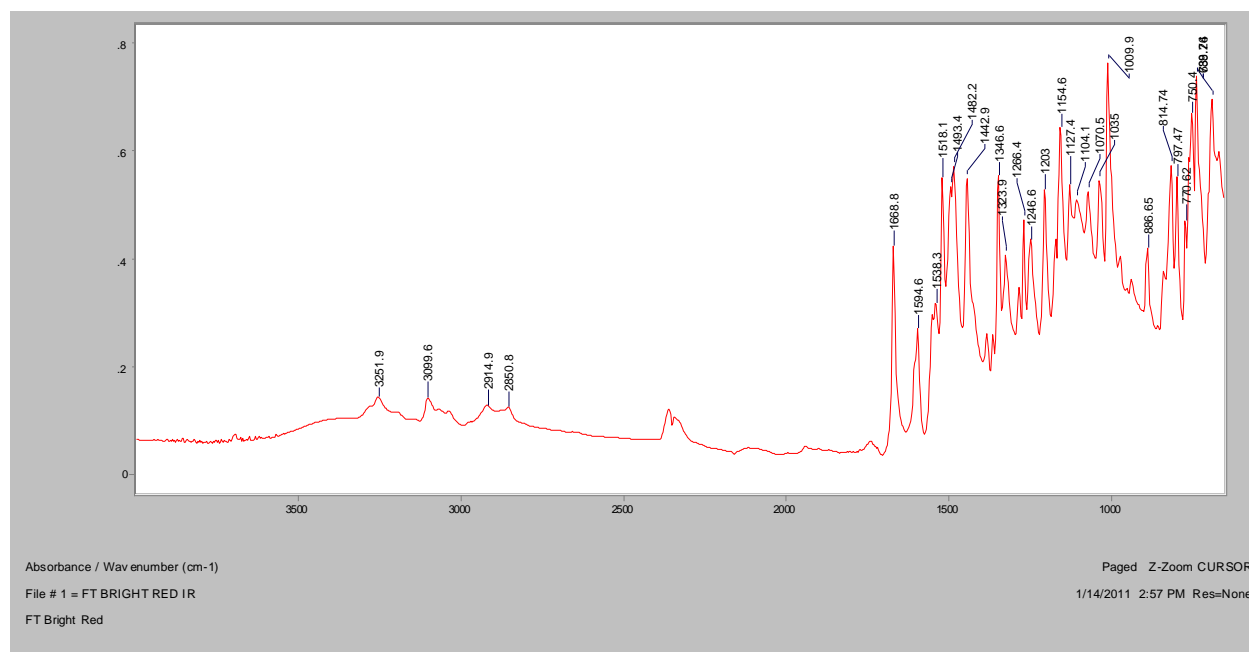
Normal Raman, 785nm



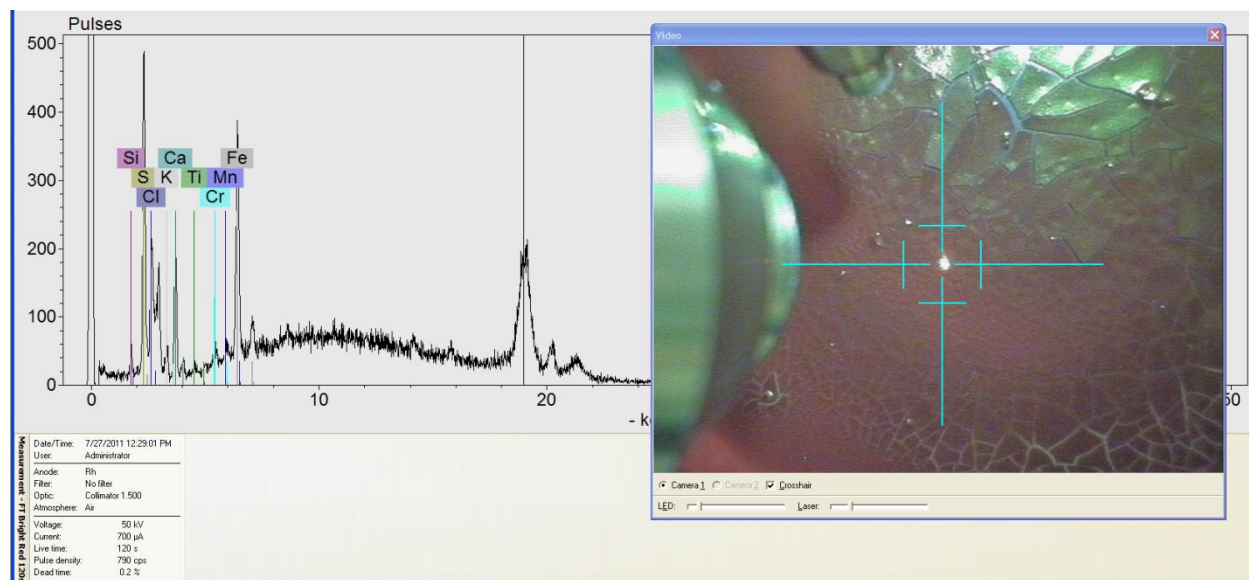
FT-Raman, 1064nm



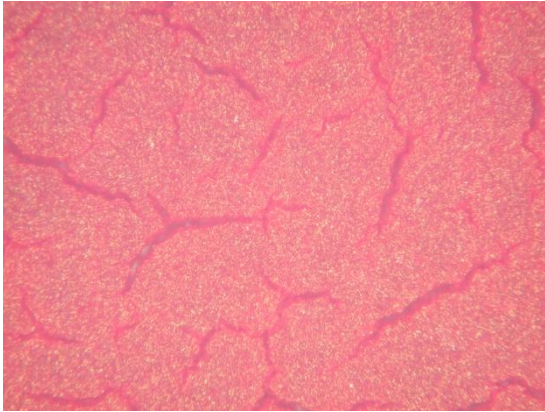
FT-IR (ATR)



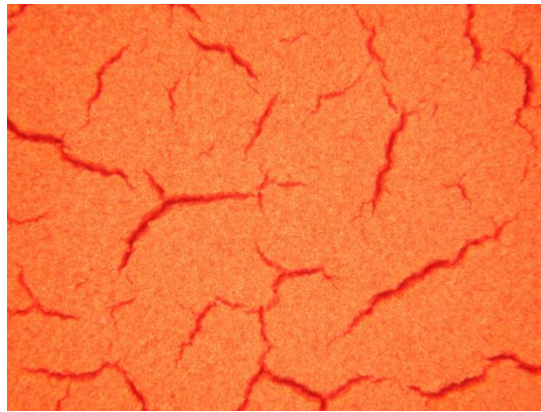
XRF



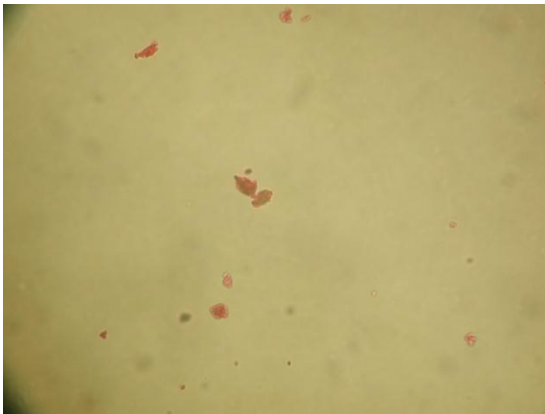
Rose Red



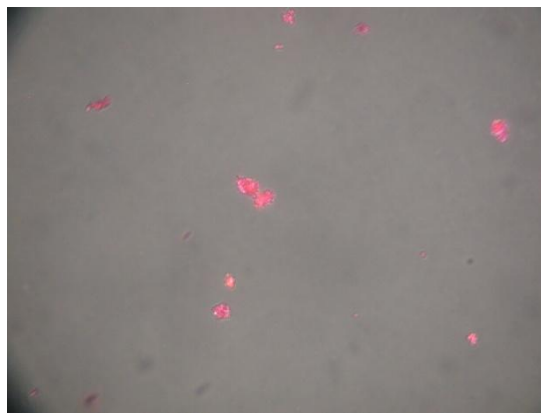
Bright Field, 100x



Dark Field, 100x

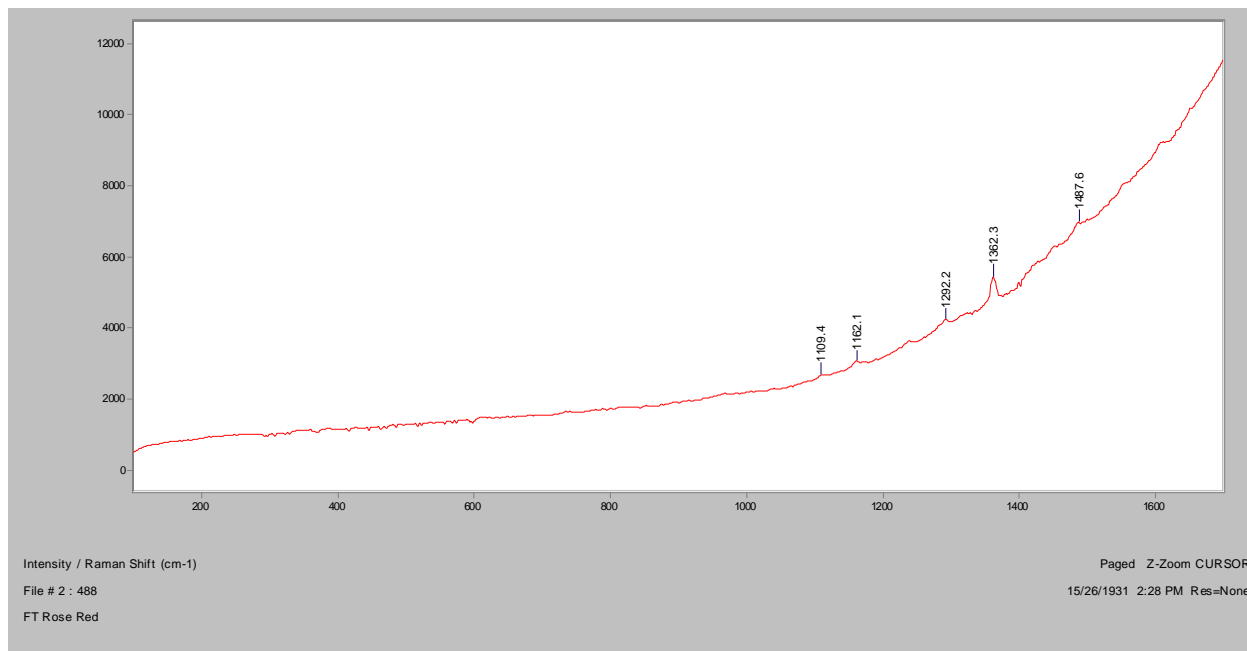


In RI 1.550, 400x

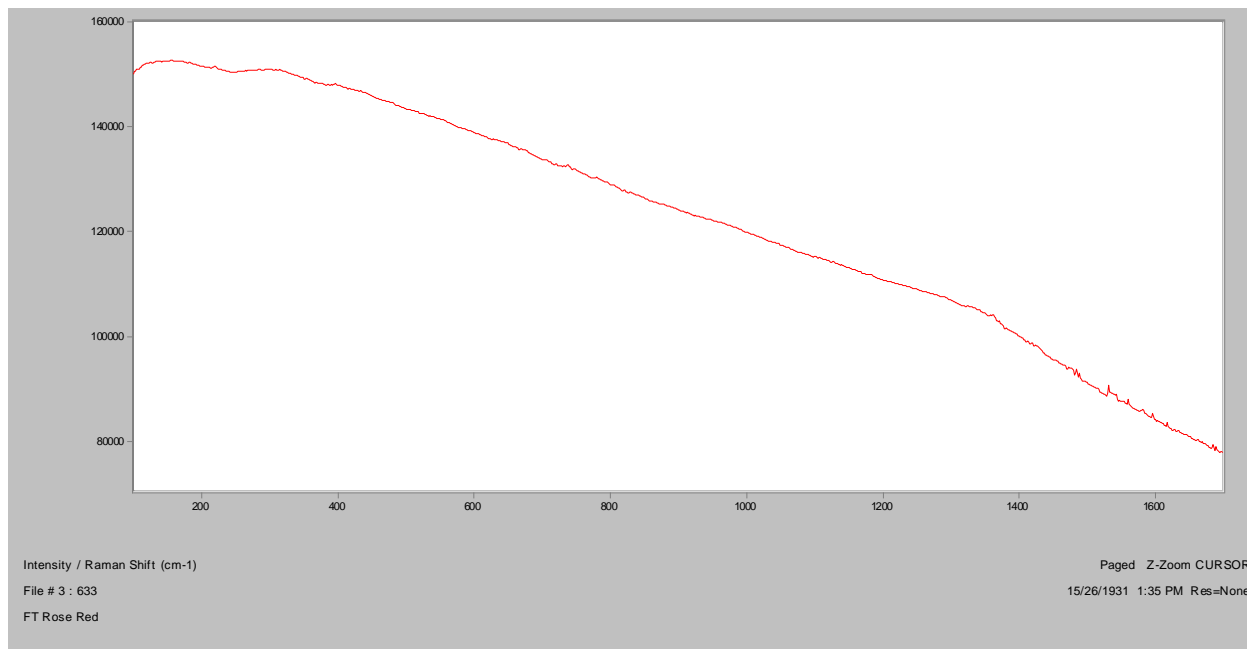


Crossed Polars, In RI 1.550, 400x

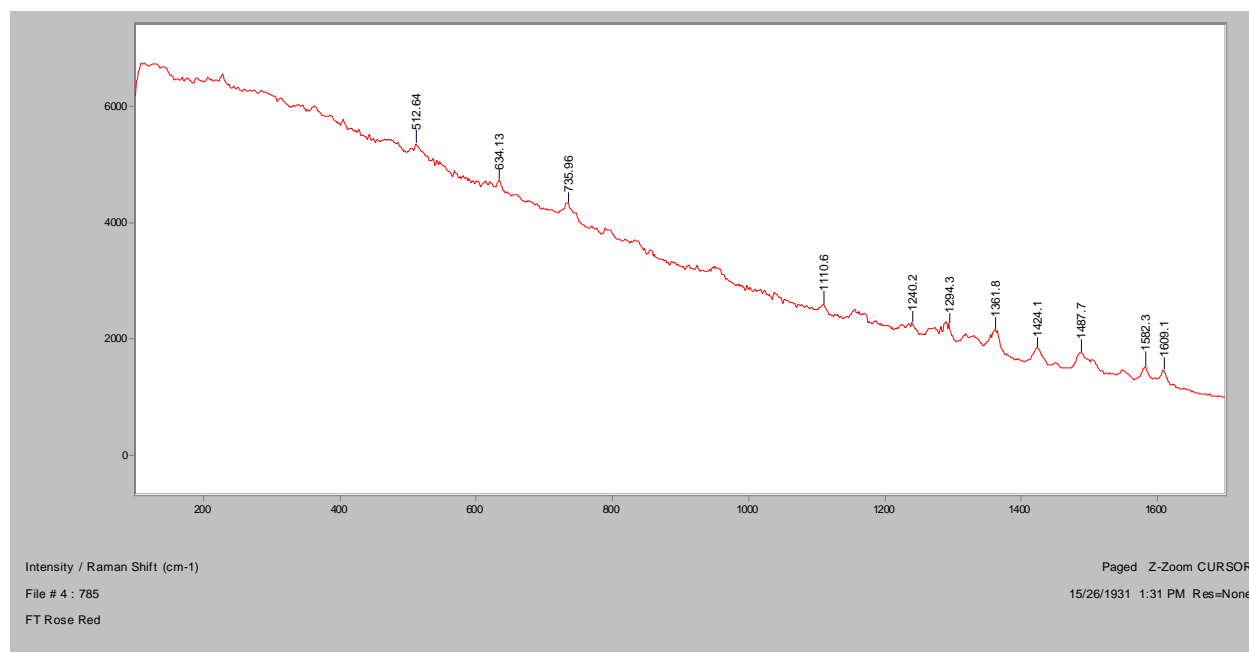
Normal Raman, 488nm



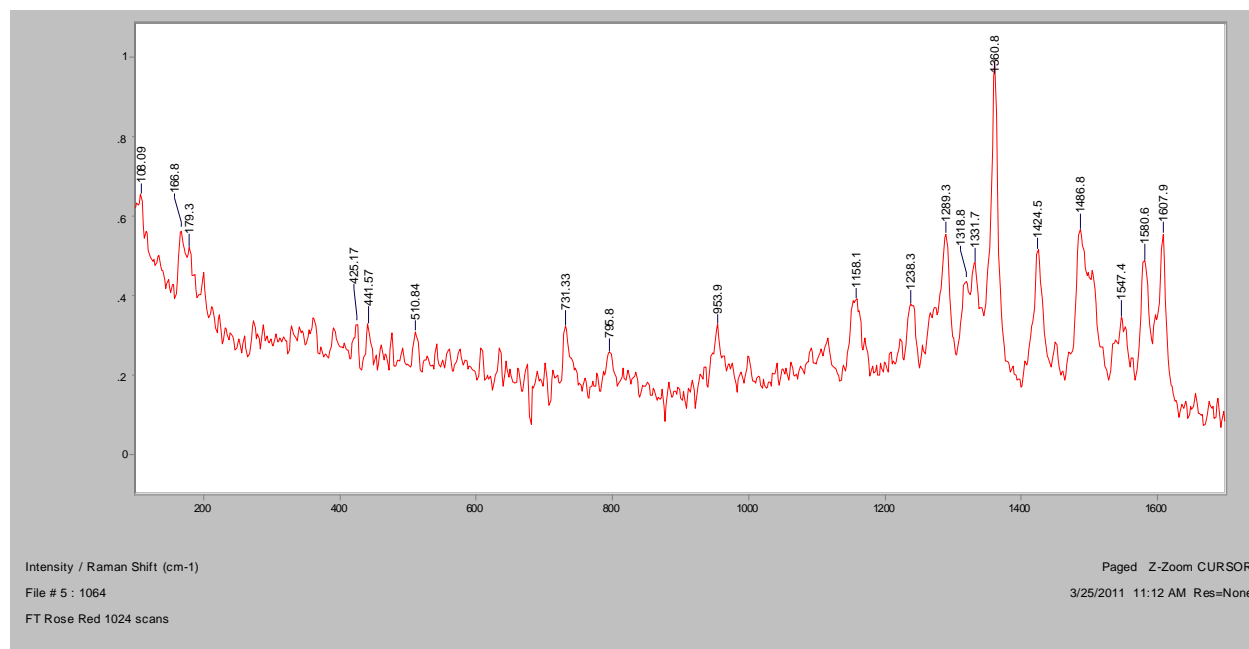
Normal Raman, 633nm



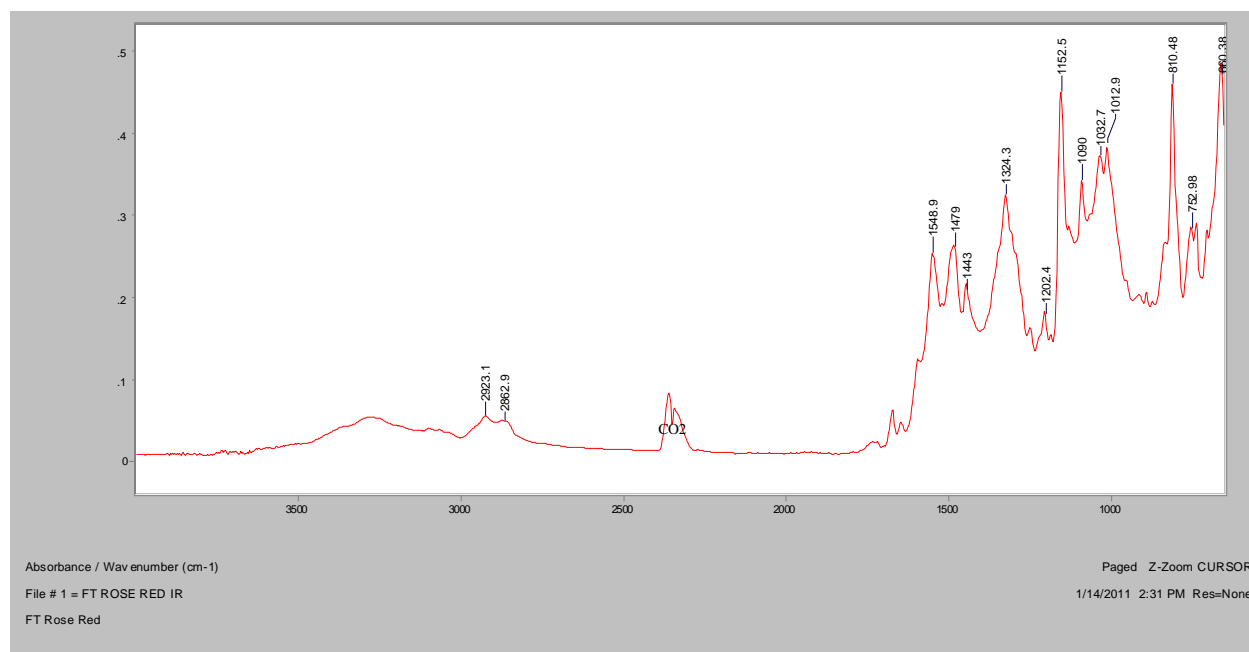
Normal Raman, 785nm



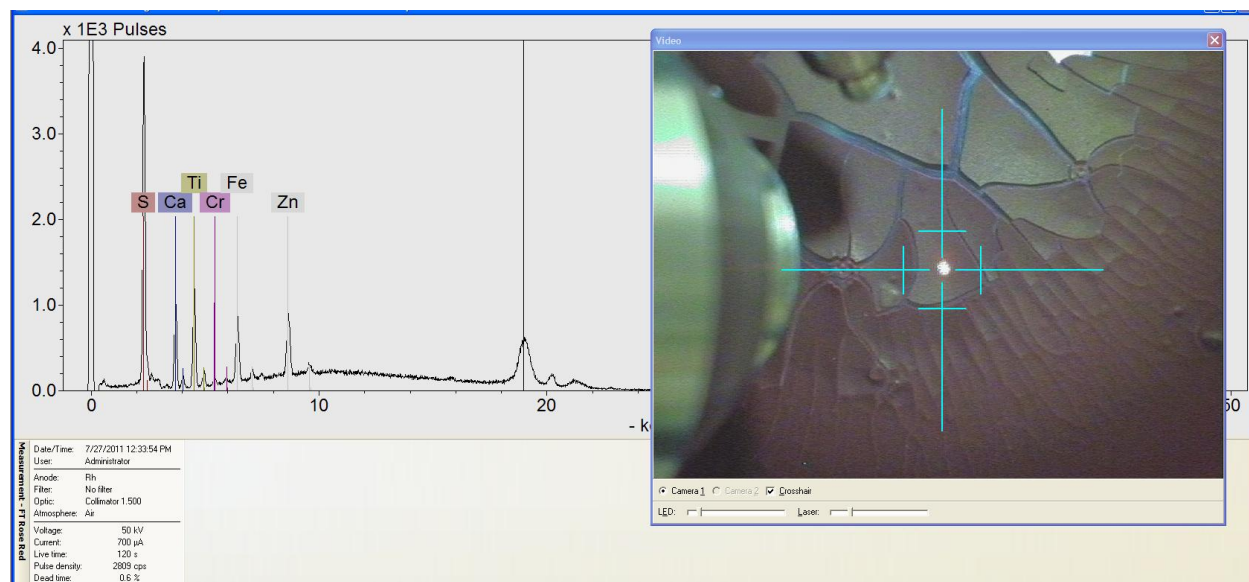
FT-Raman, 1064nm

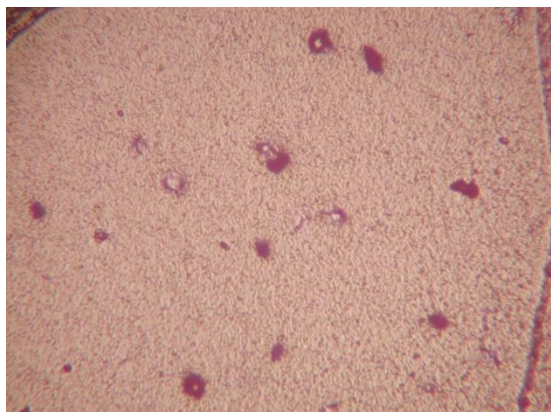
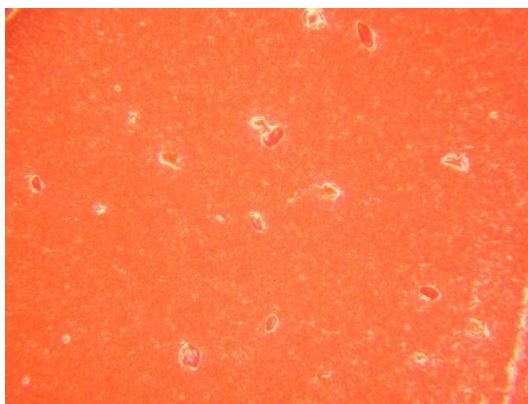
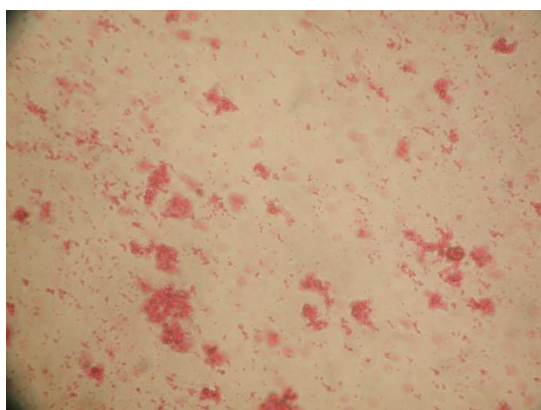
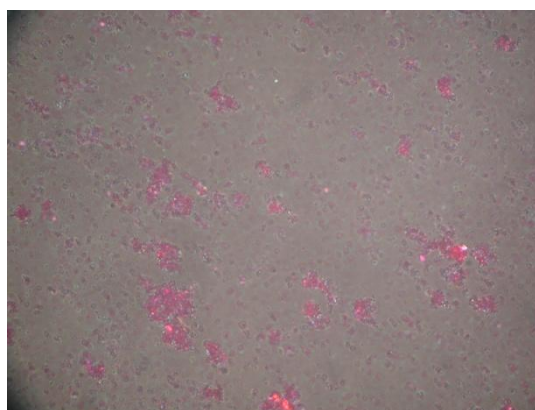


FT-IR (ATR)

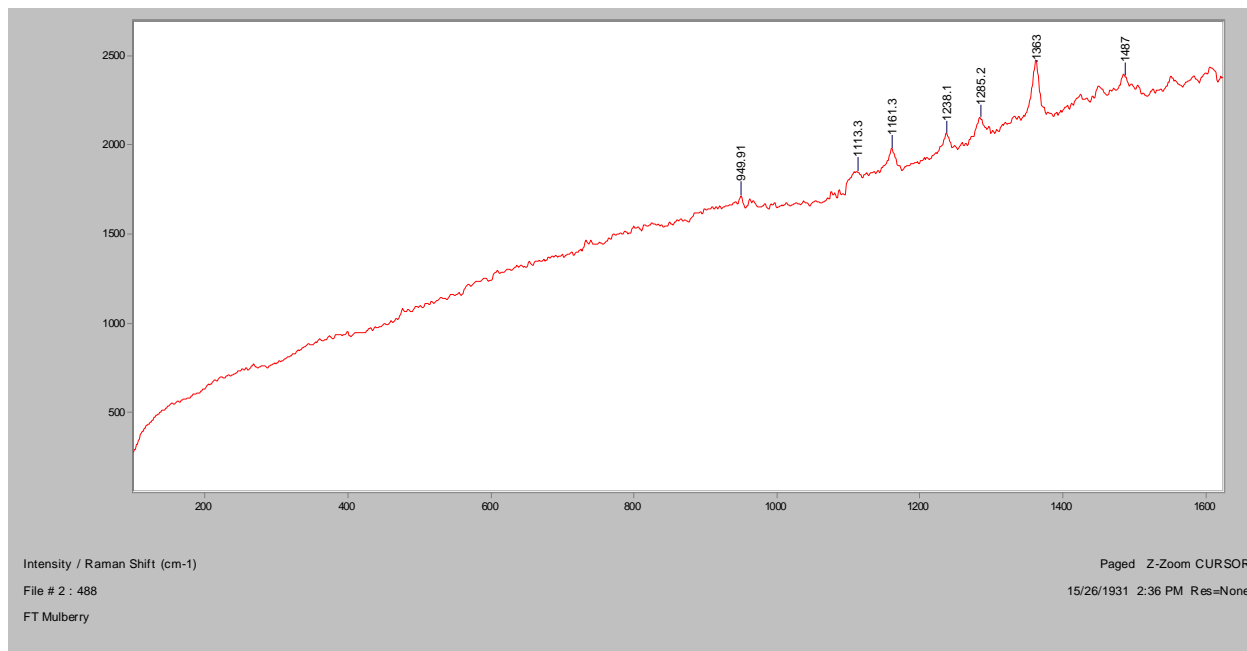


XRF

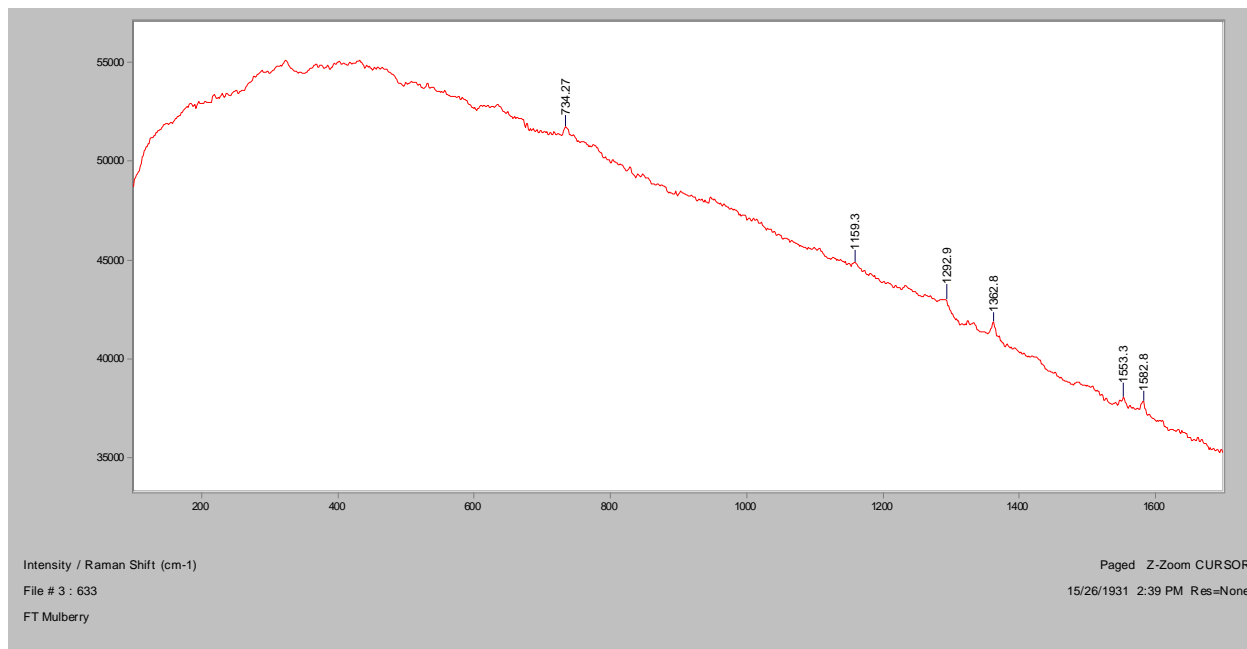


Mulberry**Bright Field, 100x****Dark Field, 100x****In RI 1.550, 400x****Crossed Polars, In RI 1.550, 400x****Raman microscope image, 500x**

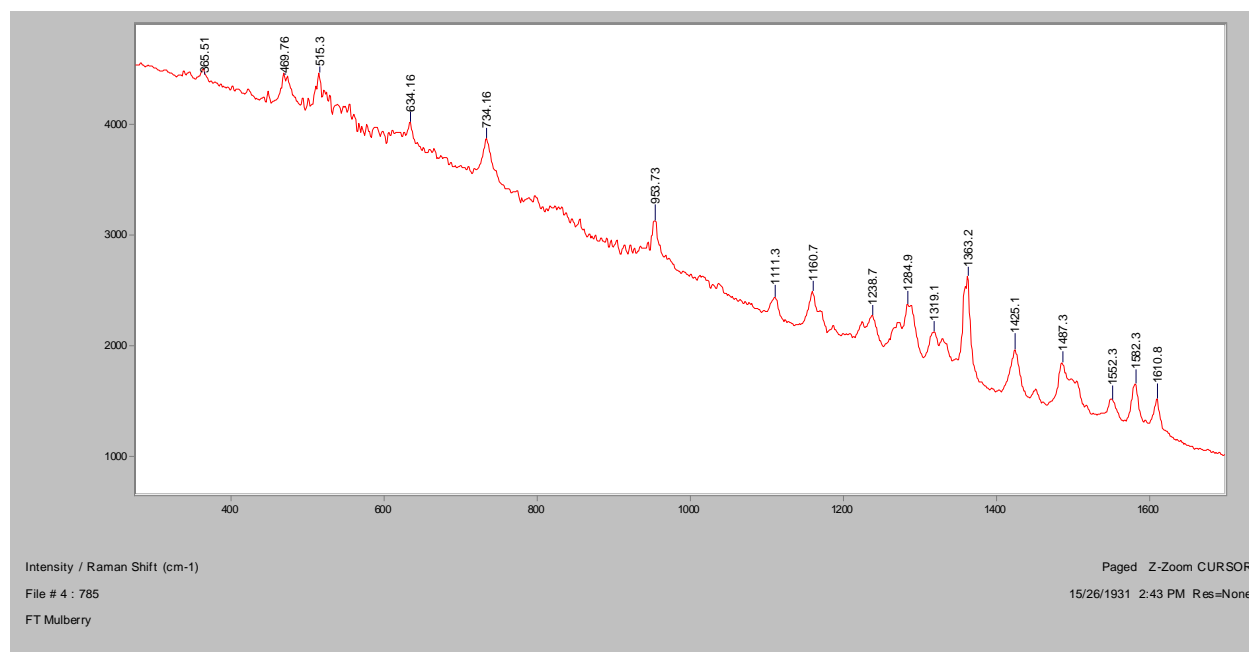
Normal Raman, 488nm



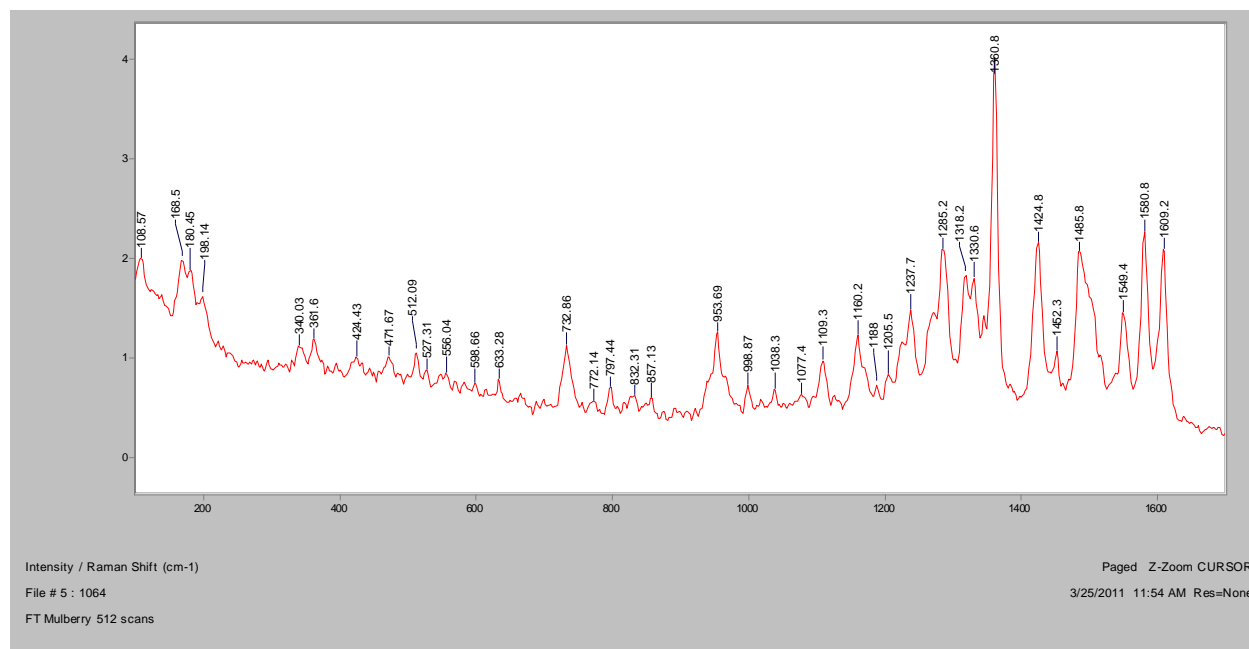
Normal Raman, 633nm



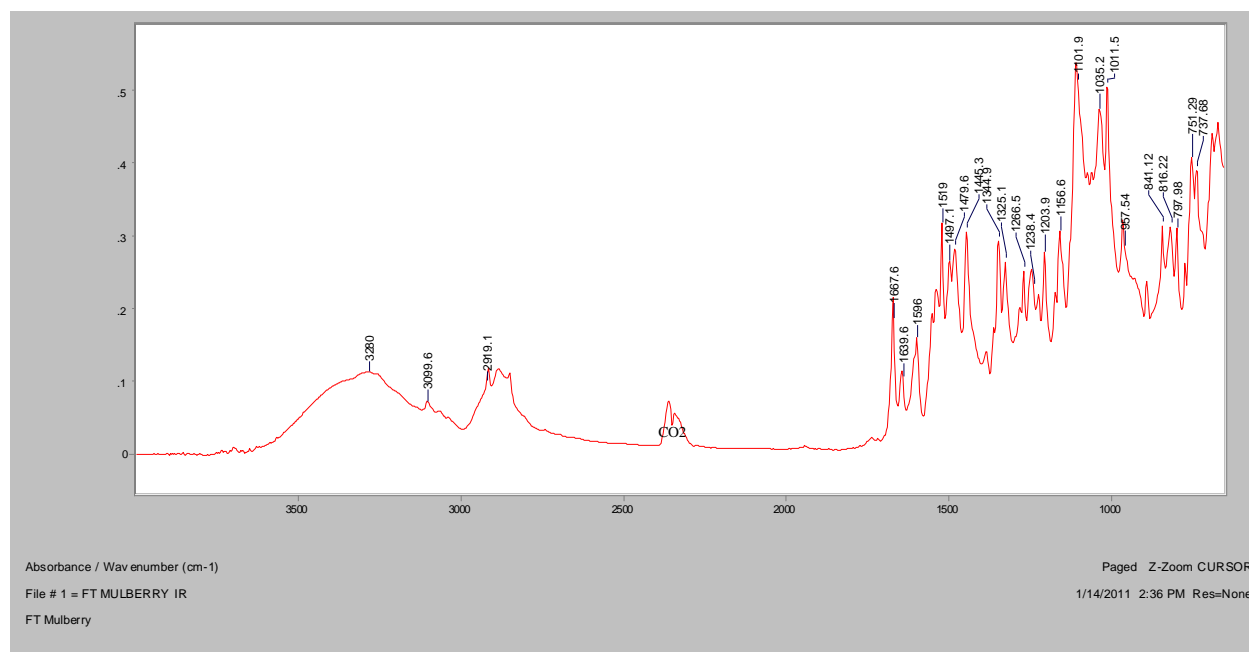
Normal Raman, 785nm



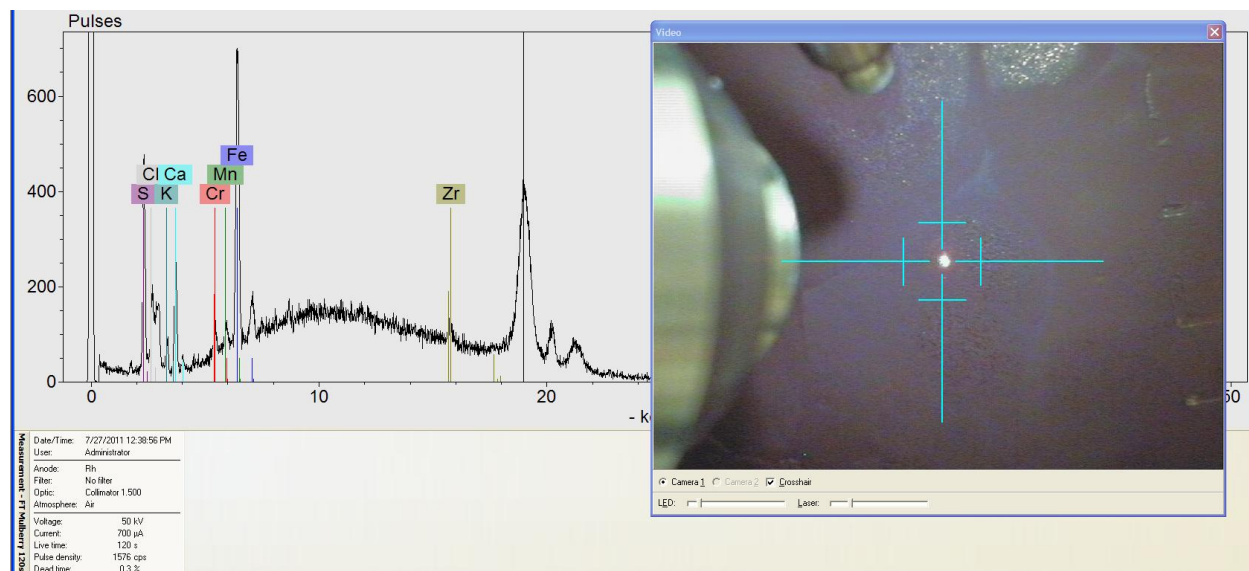
FT-Raman, 1064nm

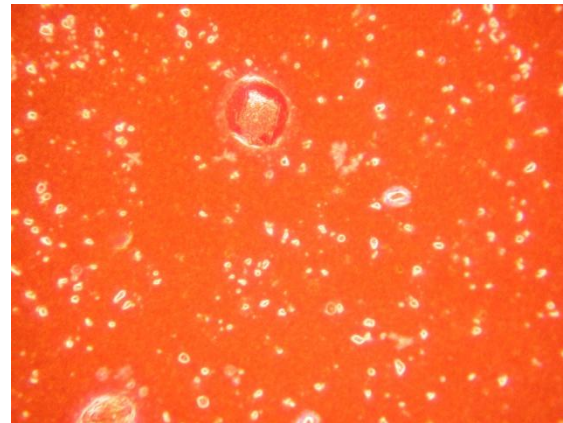
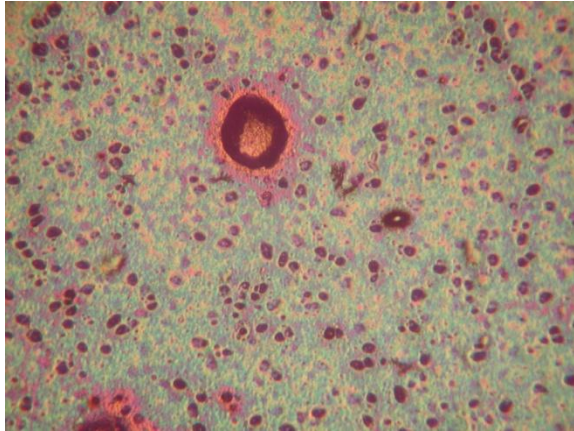
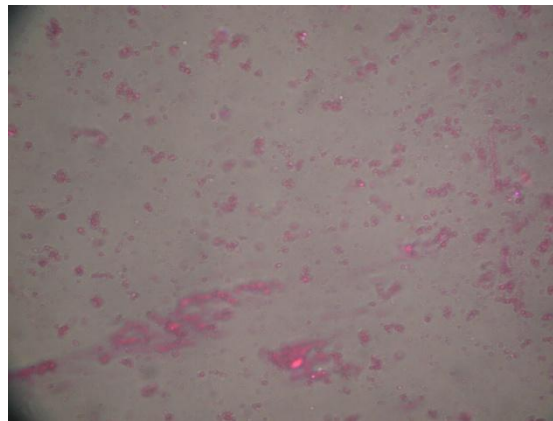
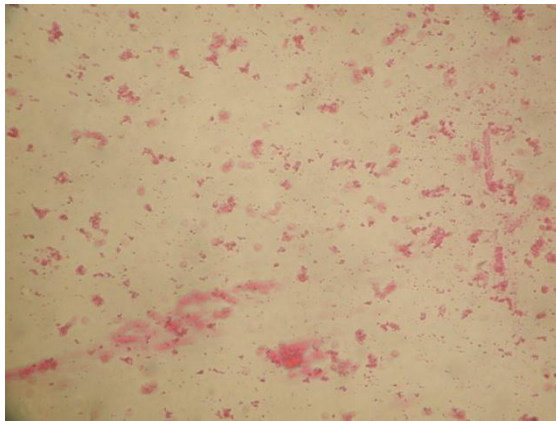


FT-IR (ATR)

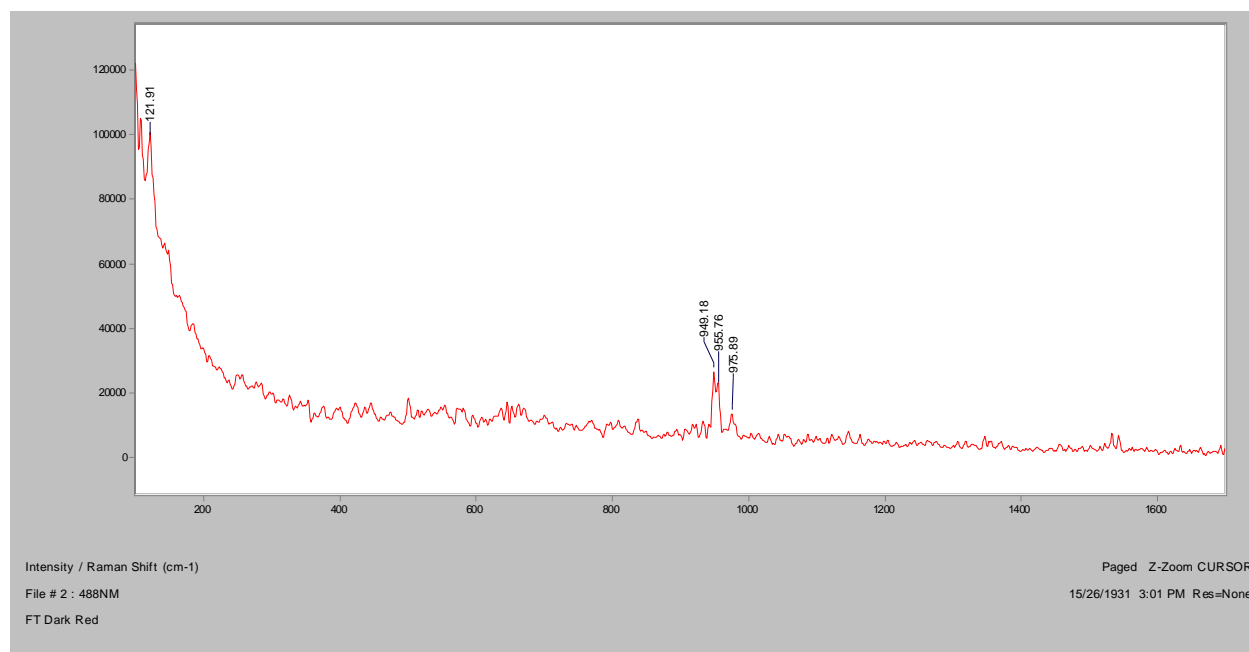


XRF

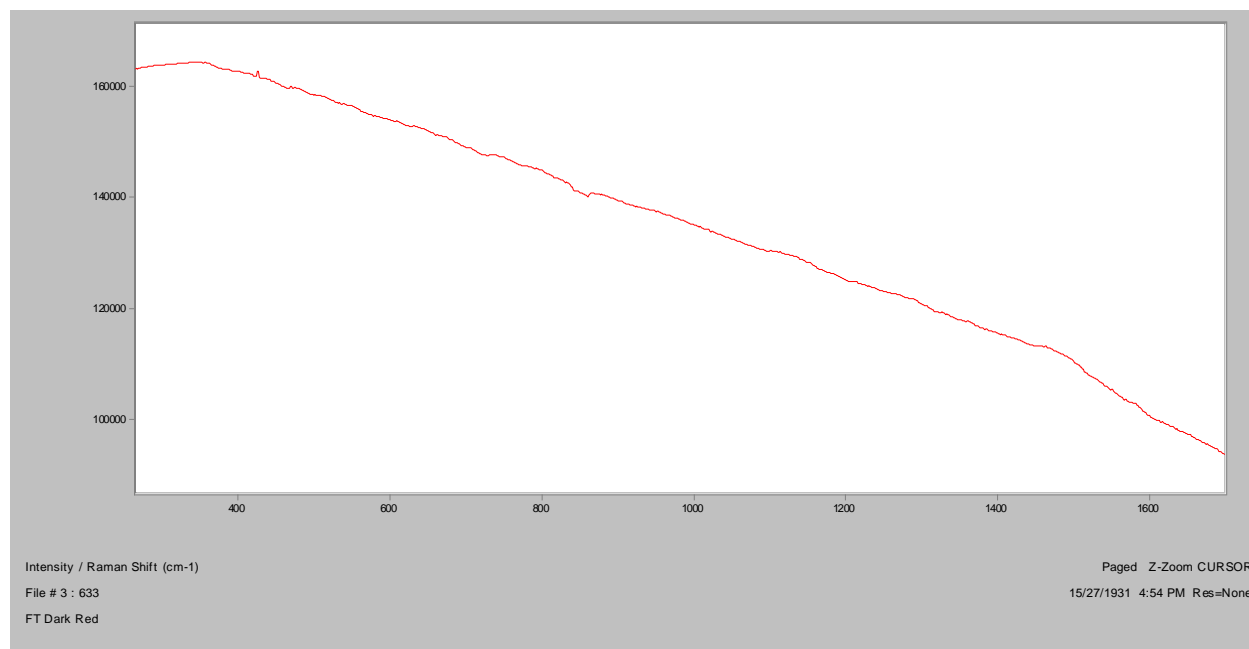


Dark Red**Bright Field, 100x****Dark Field, 100x****In RI 1.550, 400x****Crossed Polars, In RI 1.550, 400x**

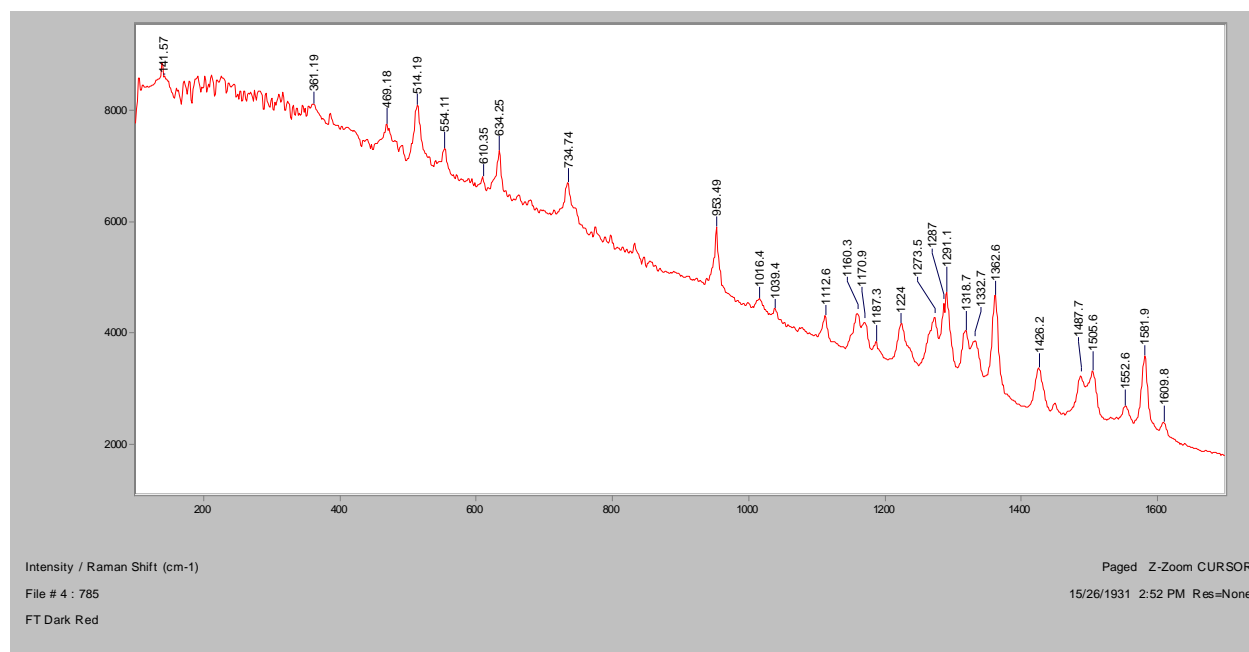
Normal Raman, 488nm



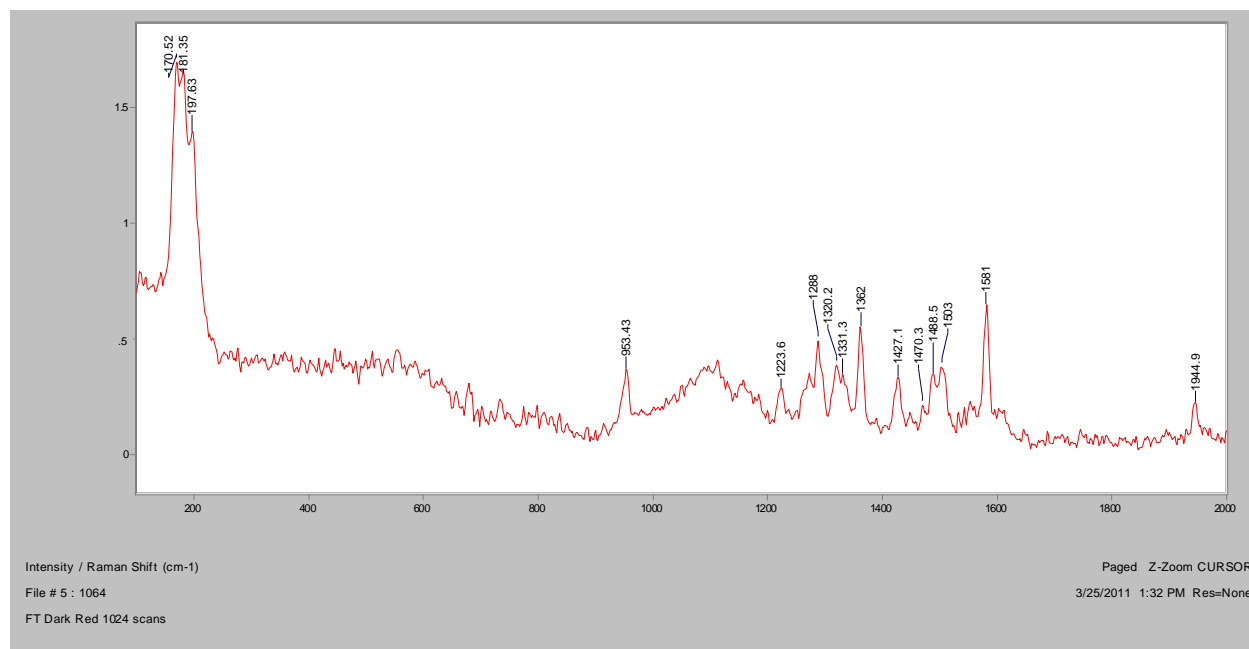
Normal Raman, 633nm



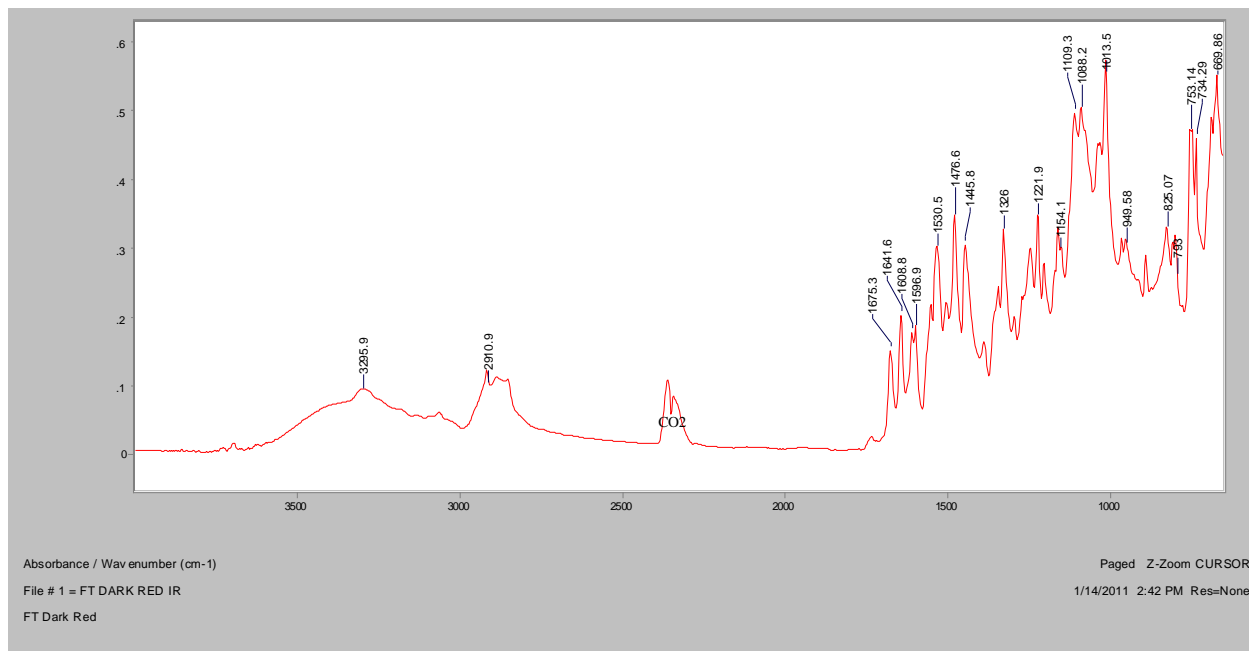
Normal Raman, 785nm



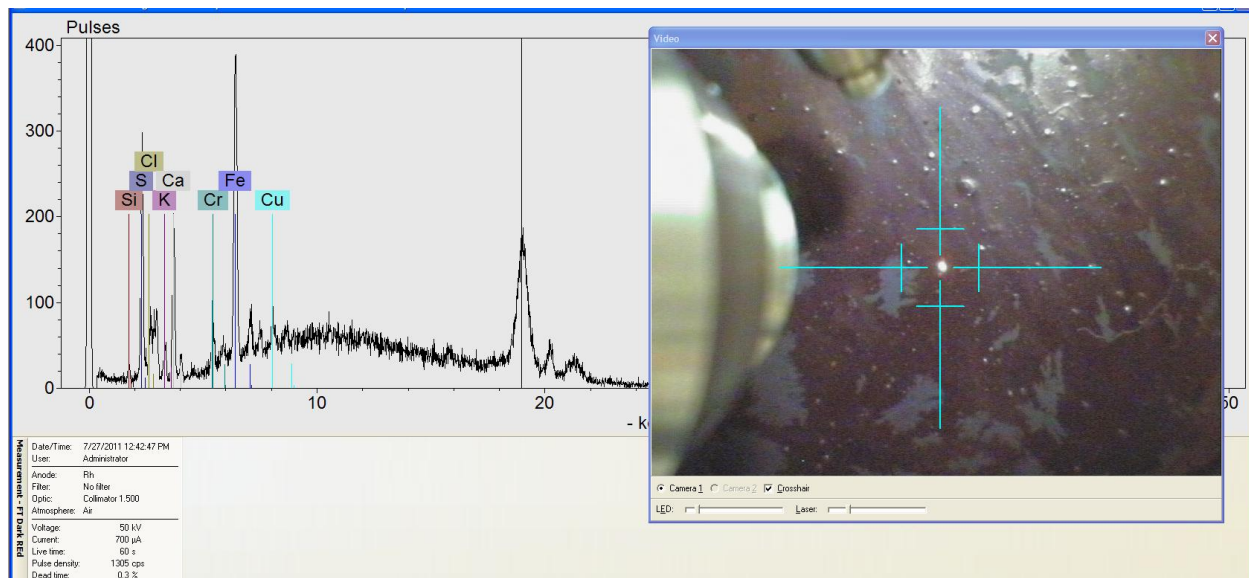
FT-Raman, 1064nm

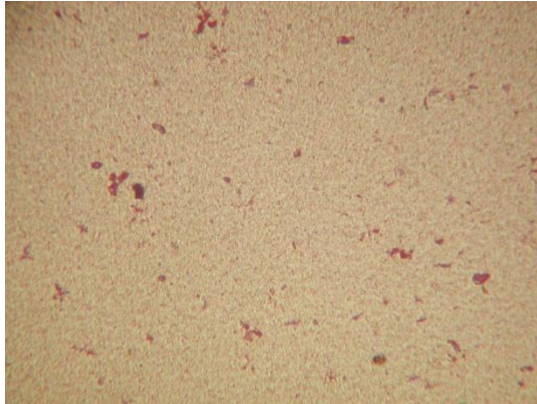
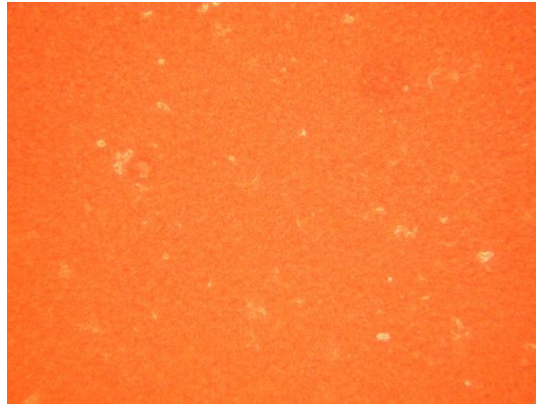
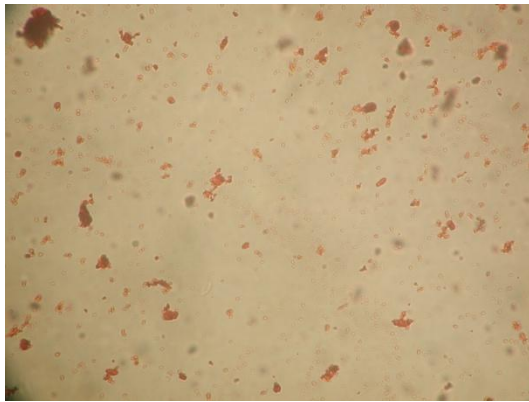
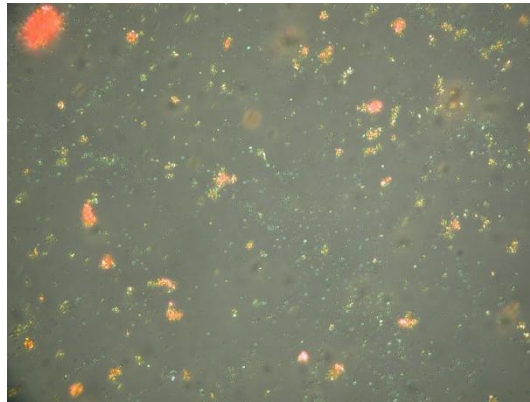


FT-IR (ATR)

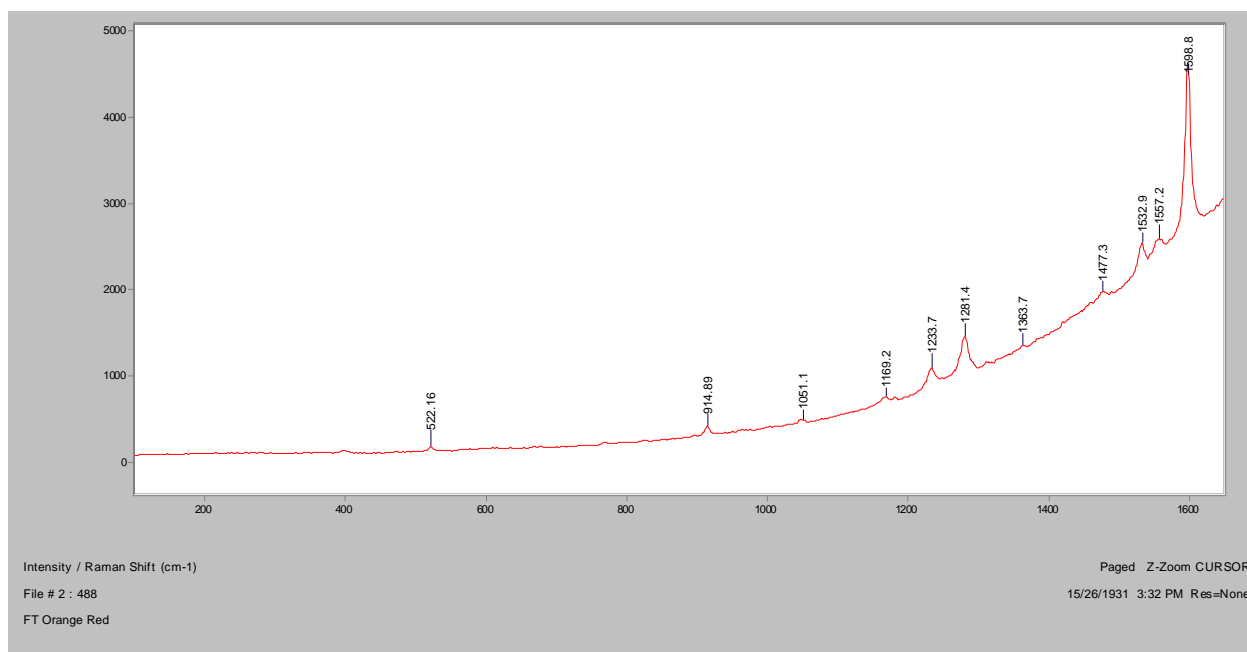


XRF

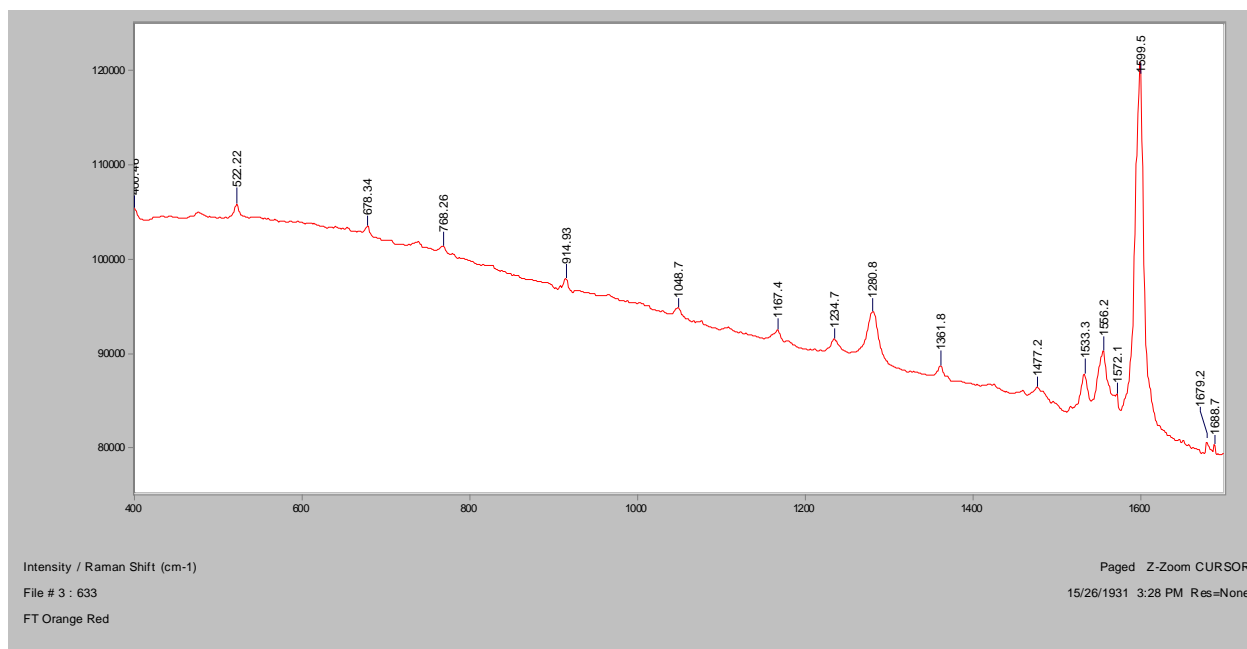


Orange Red**Bright Field, 100x****Dark Field, 100x****In RI 1.550, 400x****Crossed Polars, In RI 1.550, 400x**

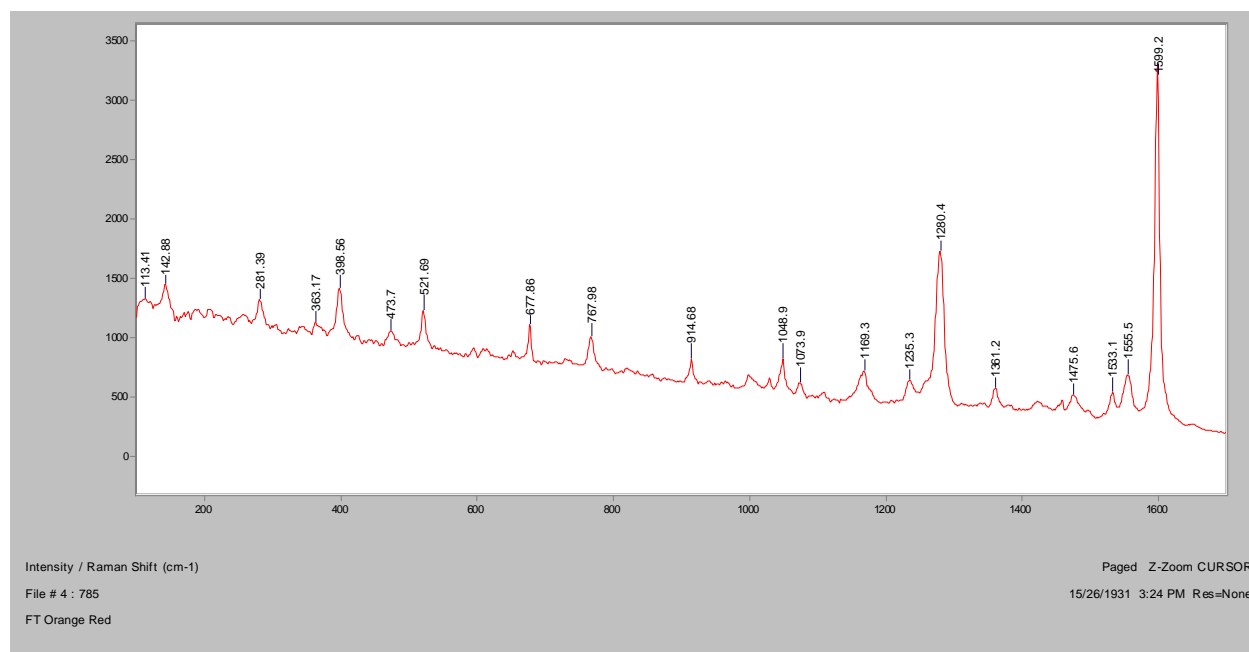
Normal Raman, 488nm



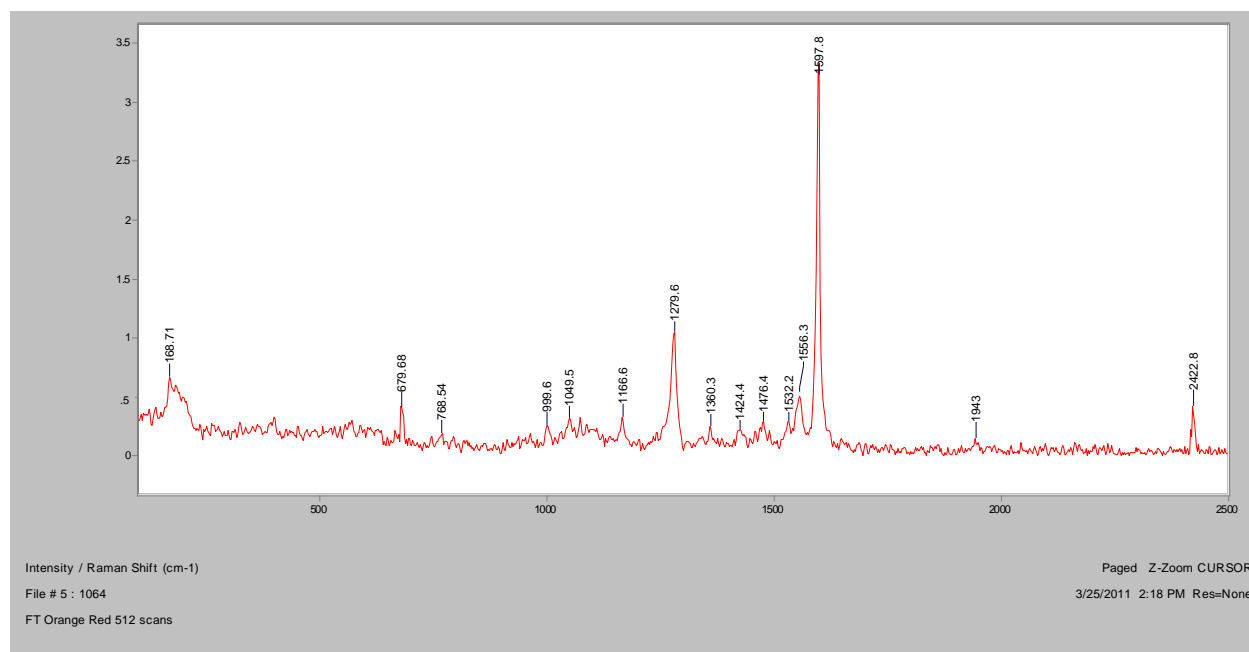
Normal Raman, 633nm



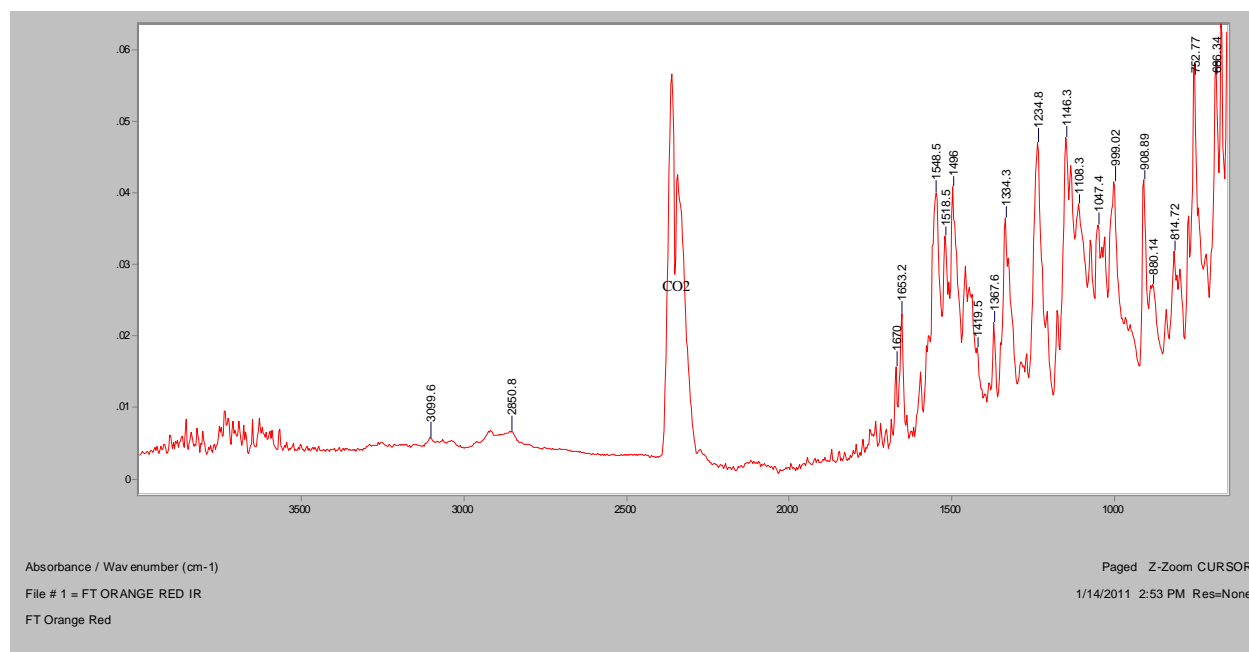
Normal Raman, 785nm



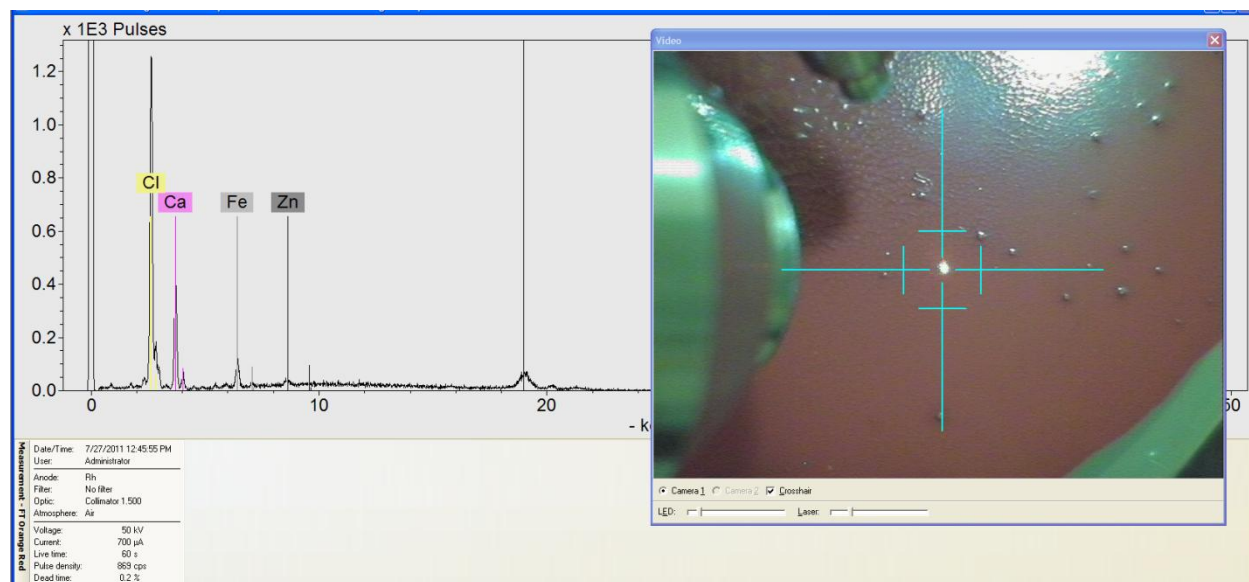
FT-Raman, 1064nm

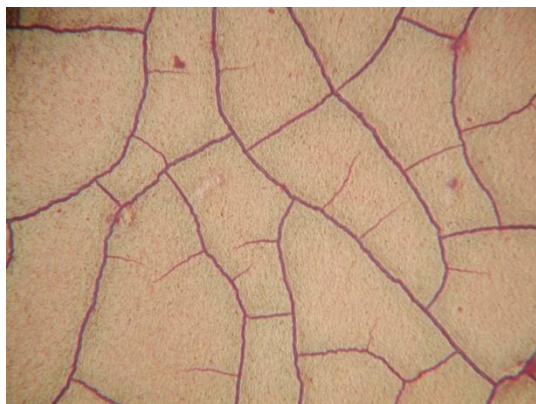
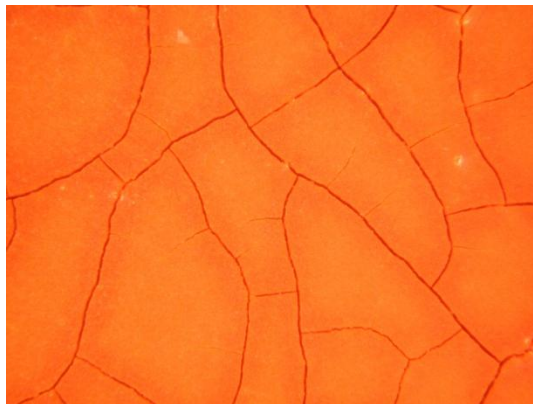
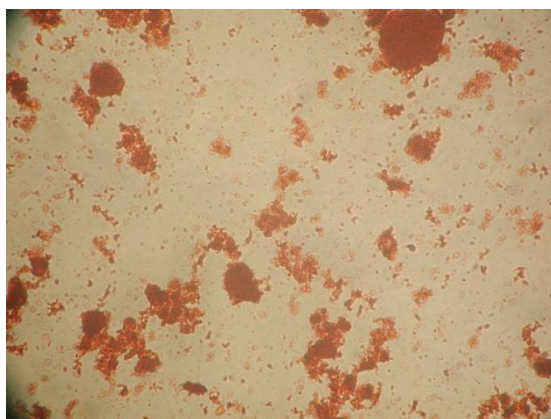
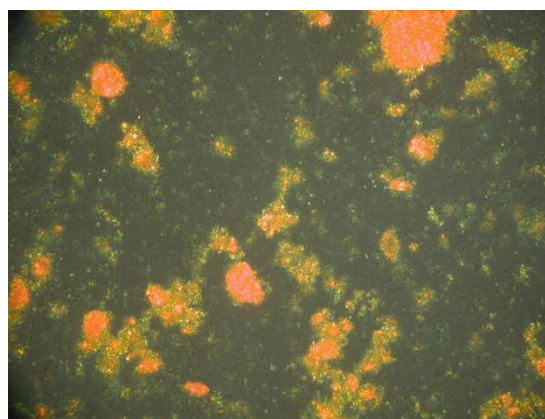
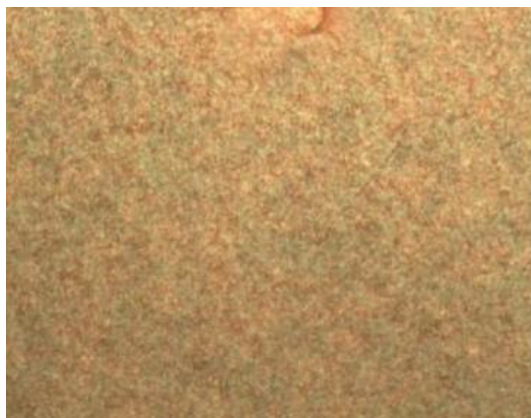


FT-IR (ATR)

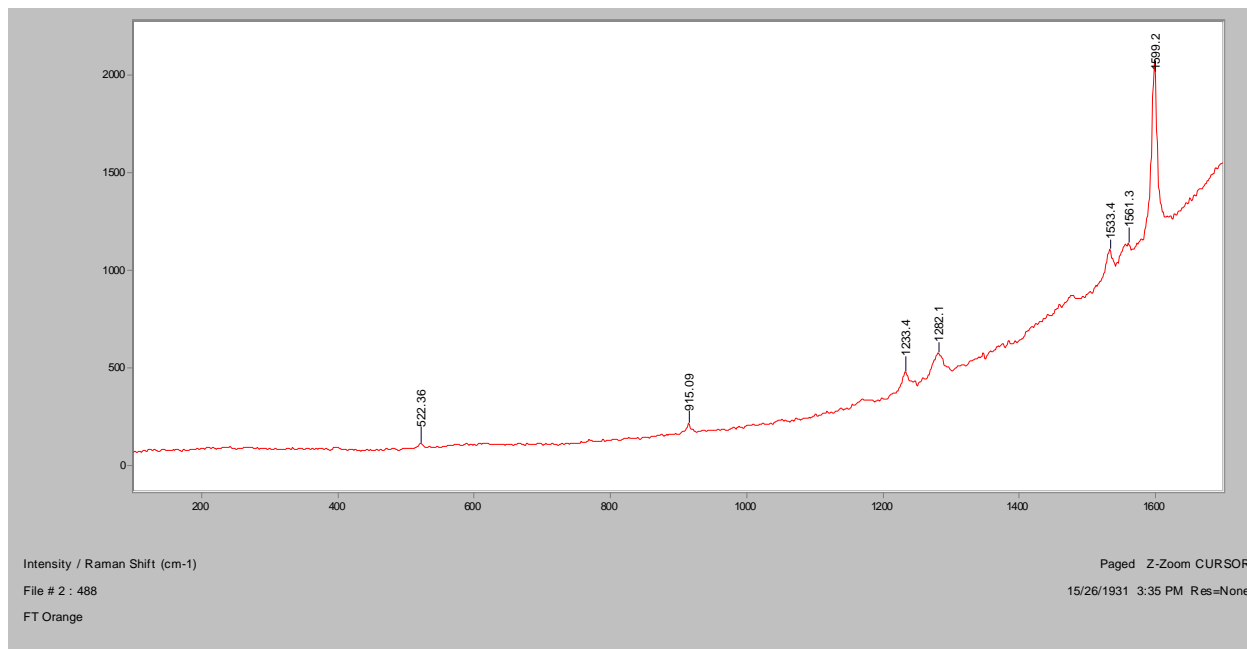


XRF

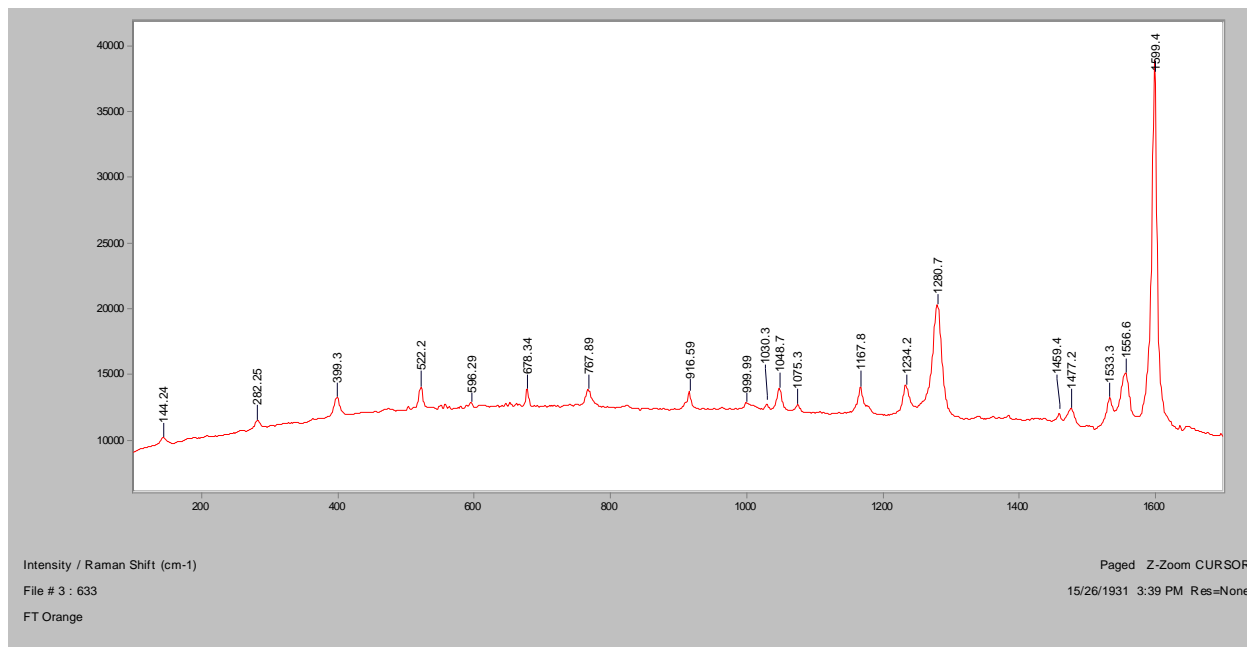


Orange**Bright Field, 100x****Dark Field, 100x****In RI 1.550, 400x****Crossed Polars, In RI 1.550, 400x****Raman microscope image, 1000x**

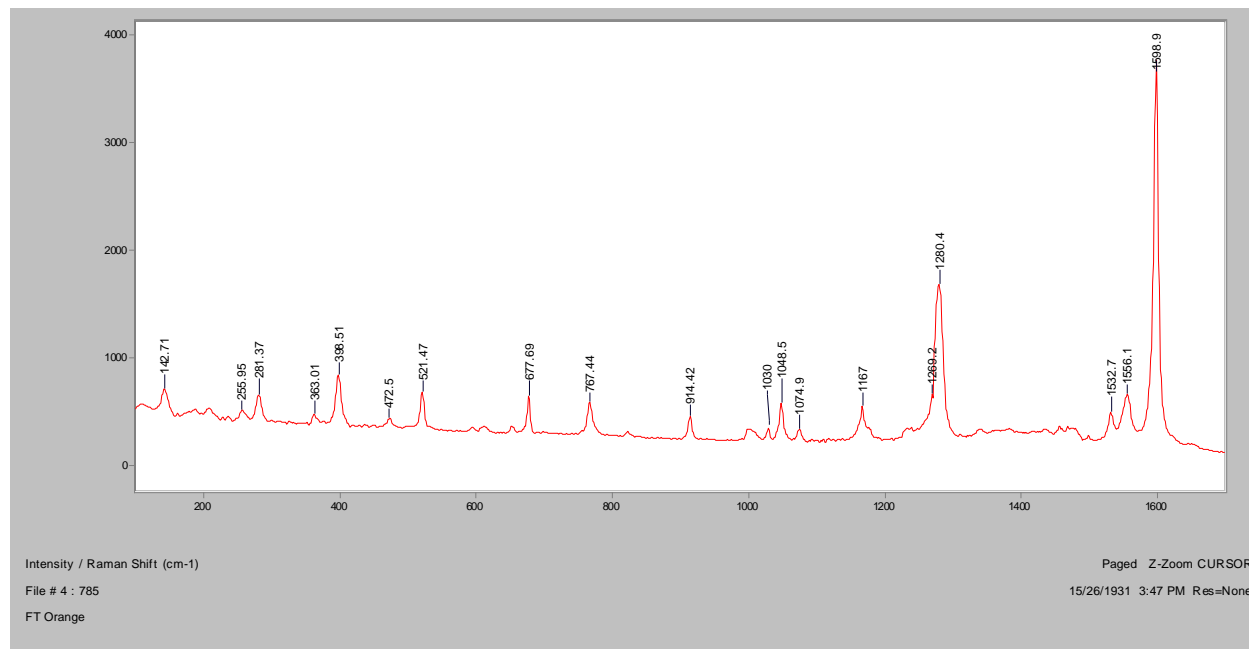
Normal Raman, 488nm



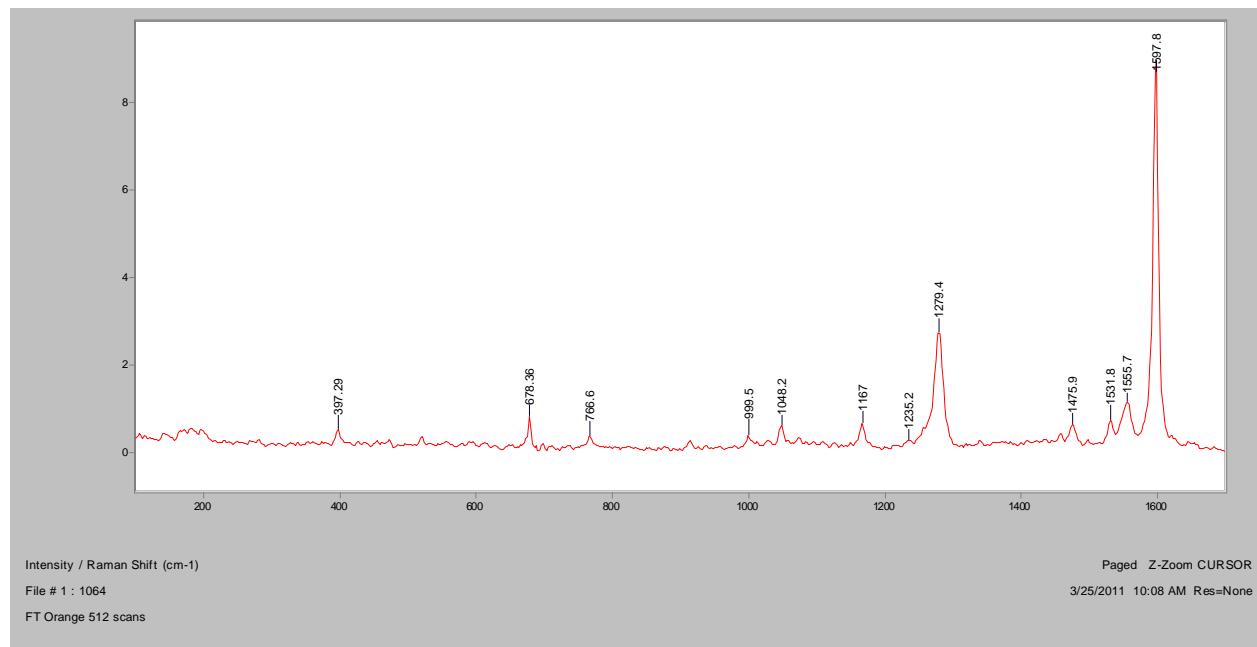
Normal Raman, 633nm



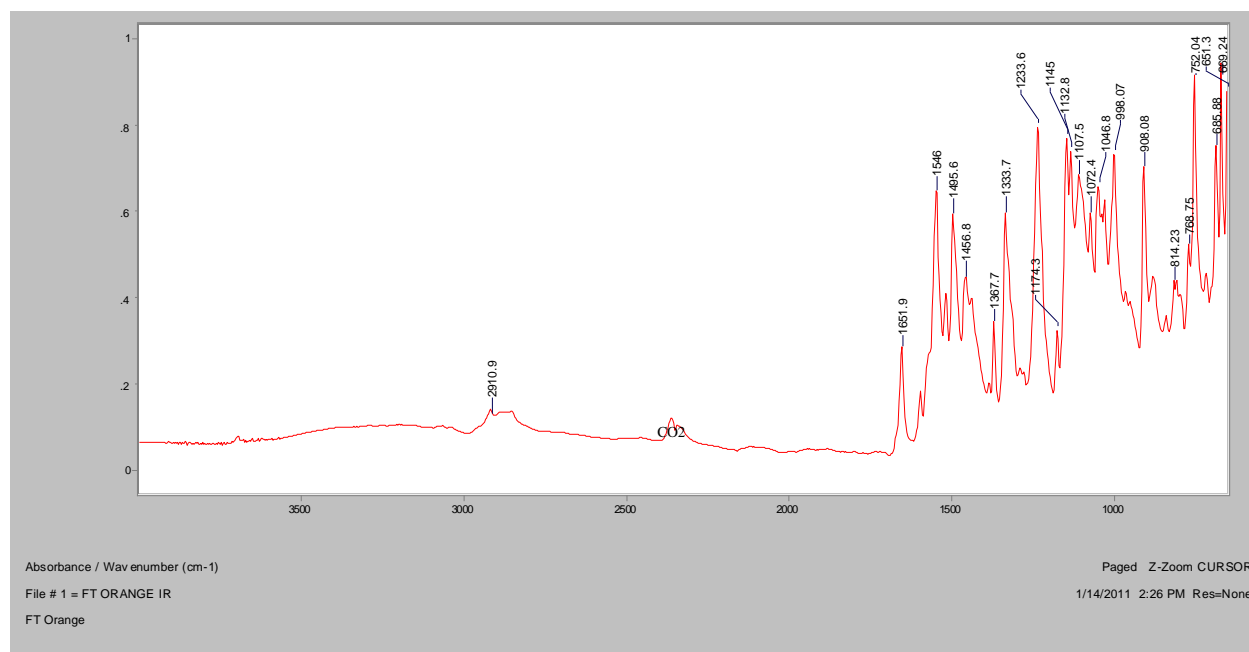
Normal Raman, 785nm



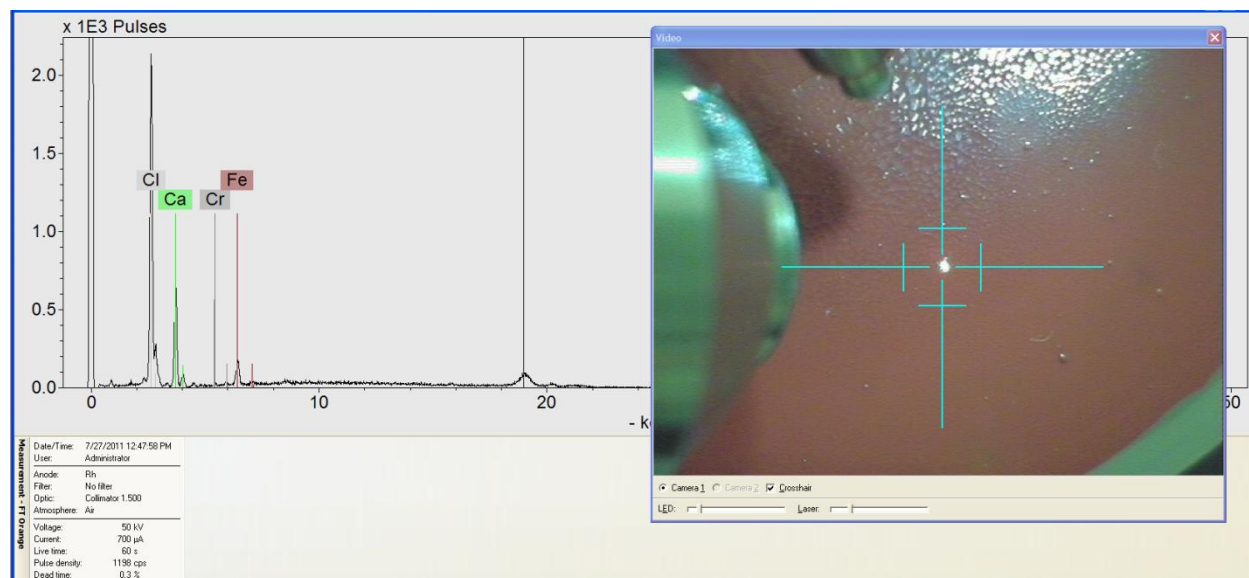
FT-Raman, 1064nm



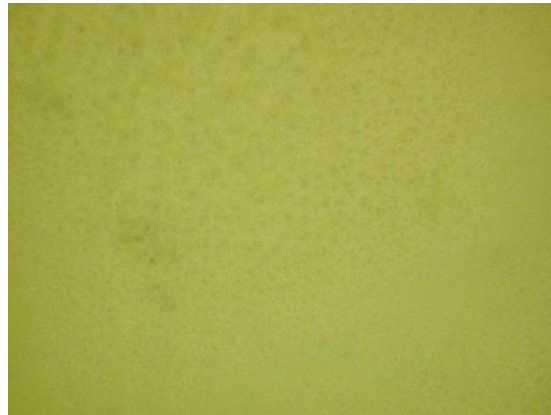
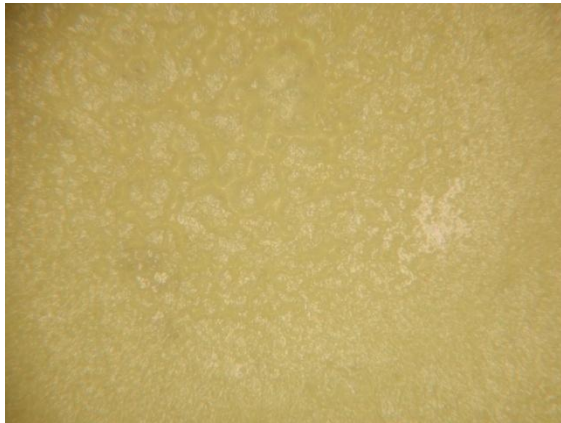
FT-IR (ATR)



XRF

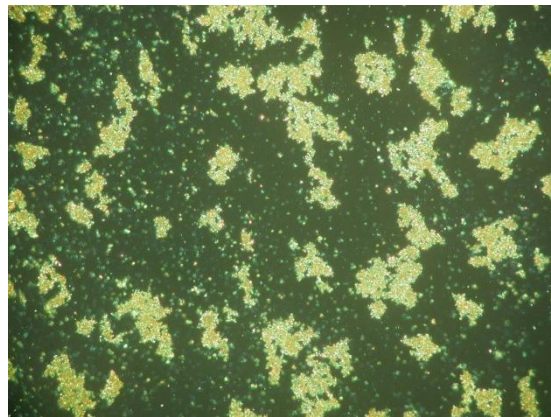
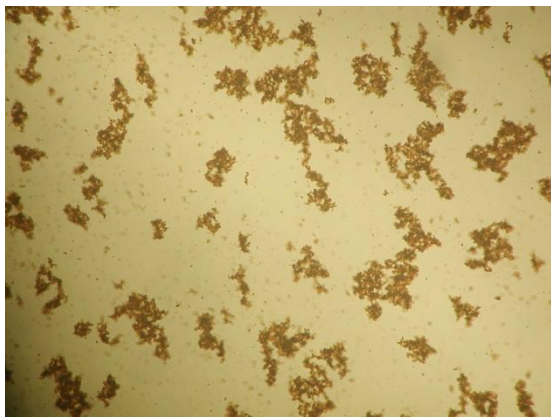


Bright Yellow



Bright Field, 100x

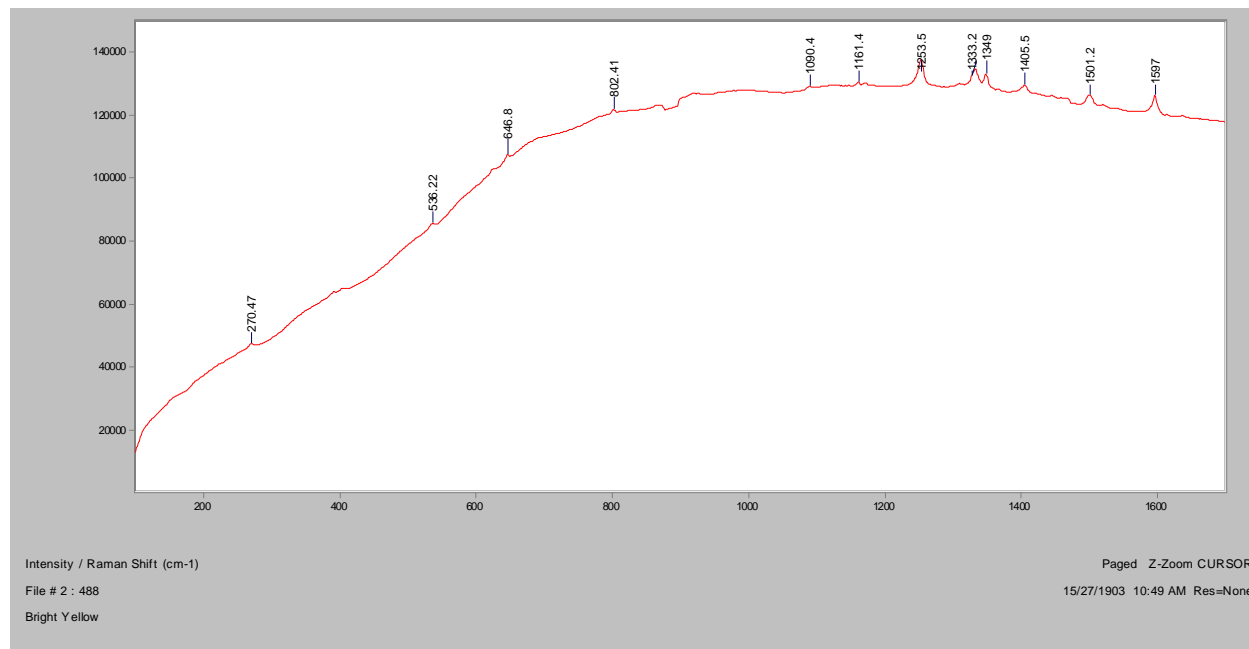
Dark Field, 100x



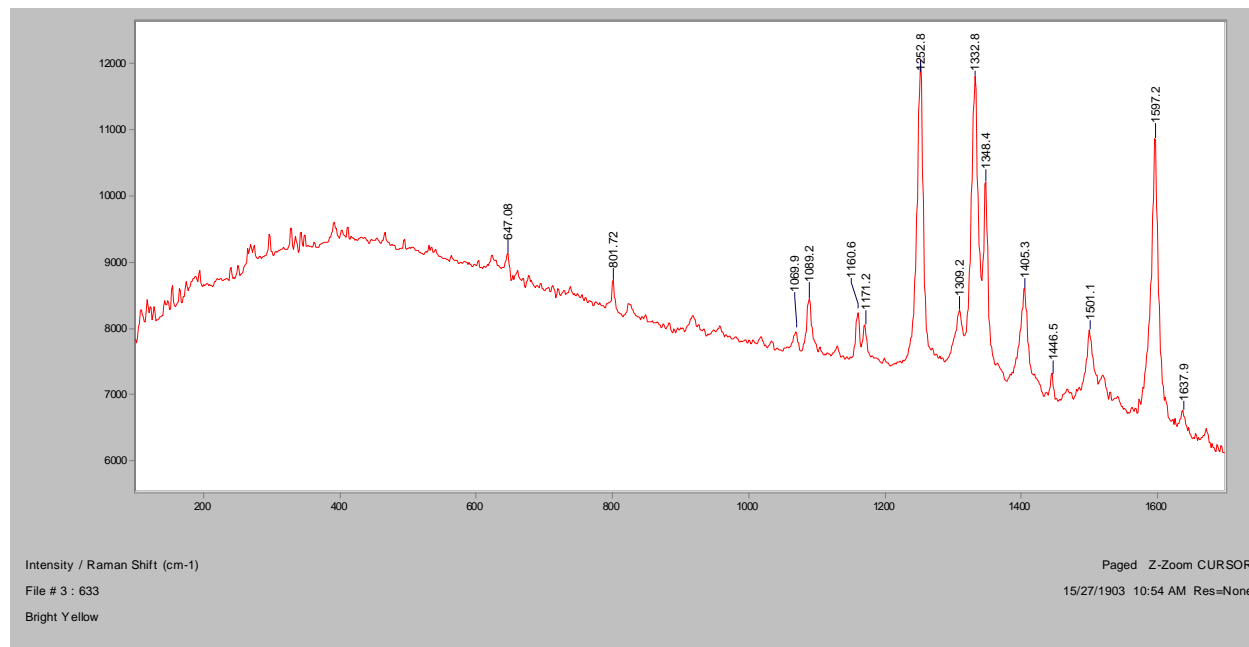
In RI 1.550, 200x

Crossed Polars, In RI 1.550, 200x

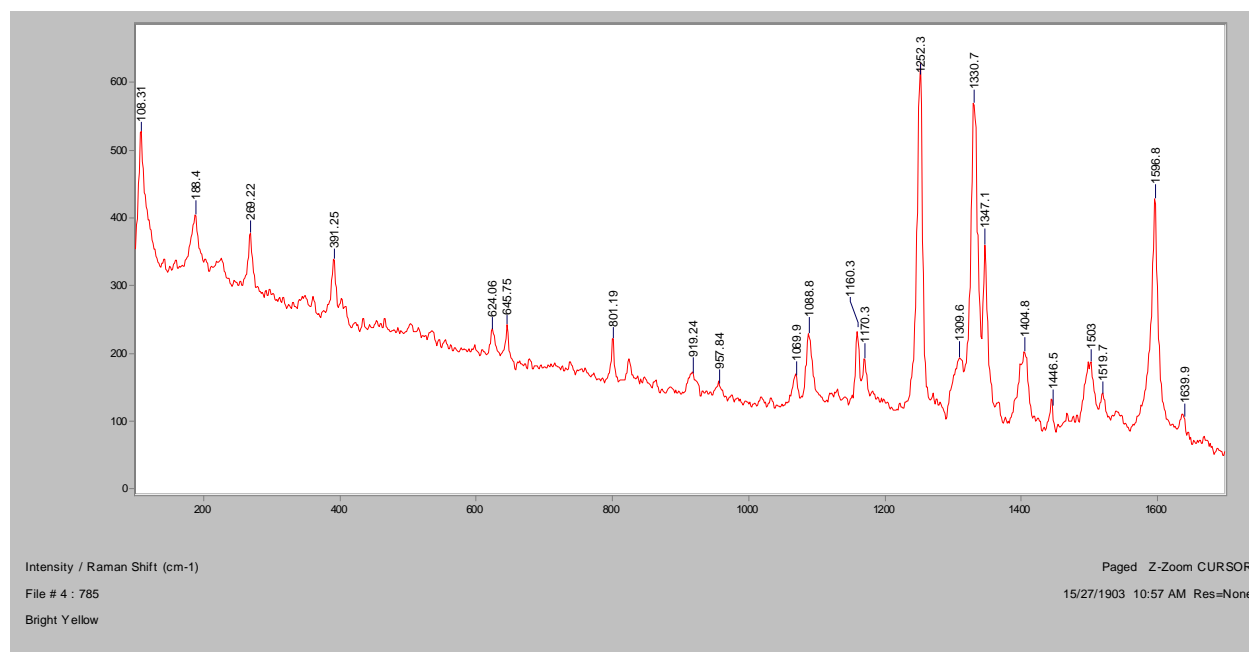
Normal Raman, 488nm



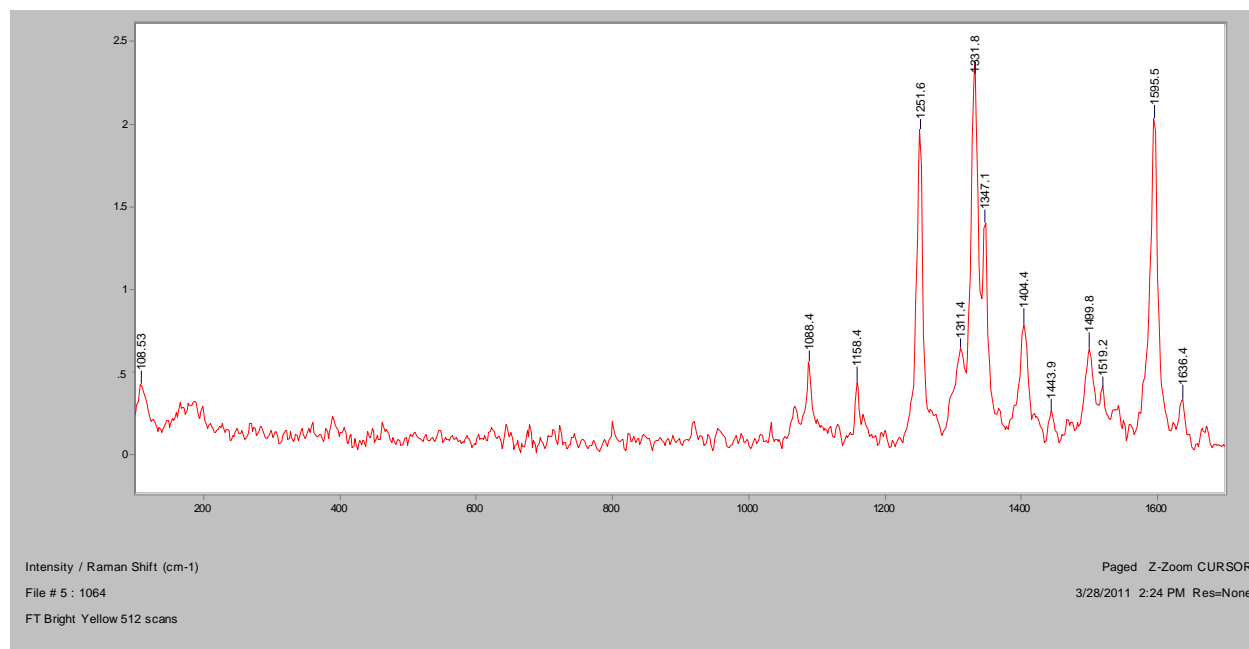
Normal Raman, 633nm



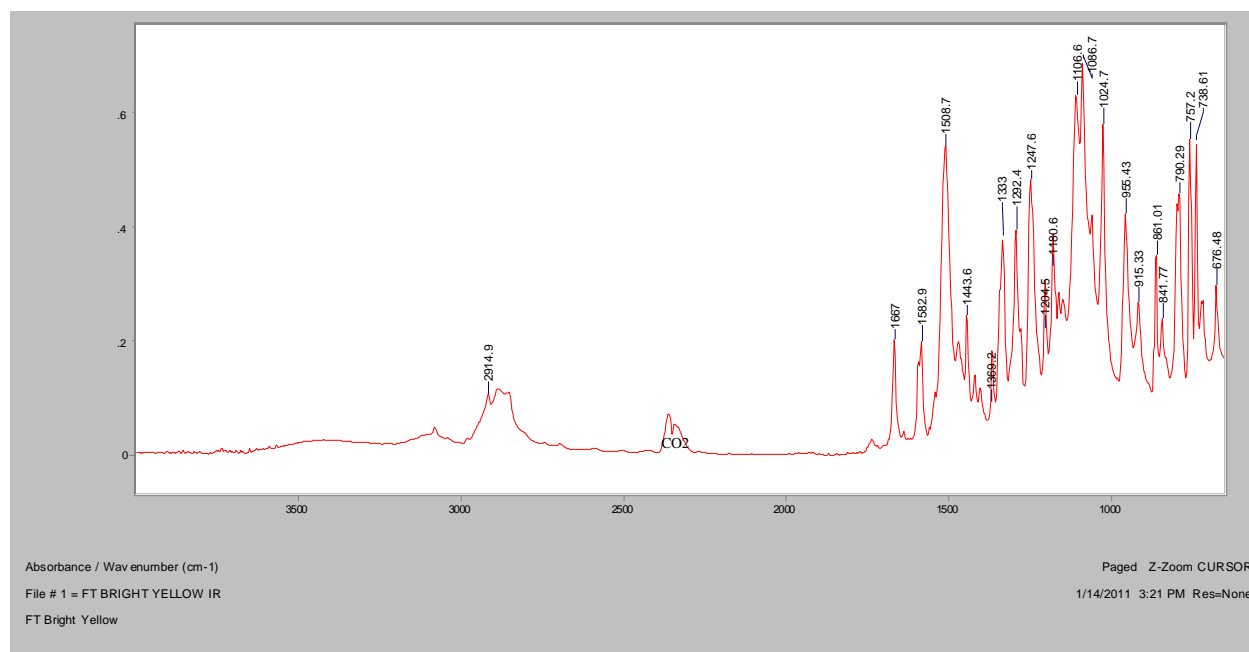
Normal Raman, 785nm



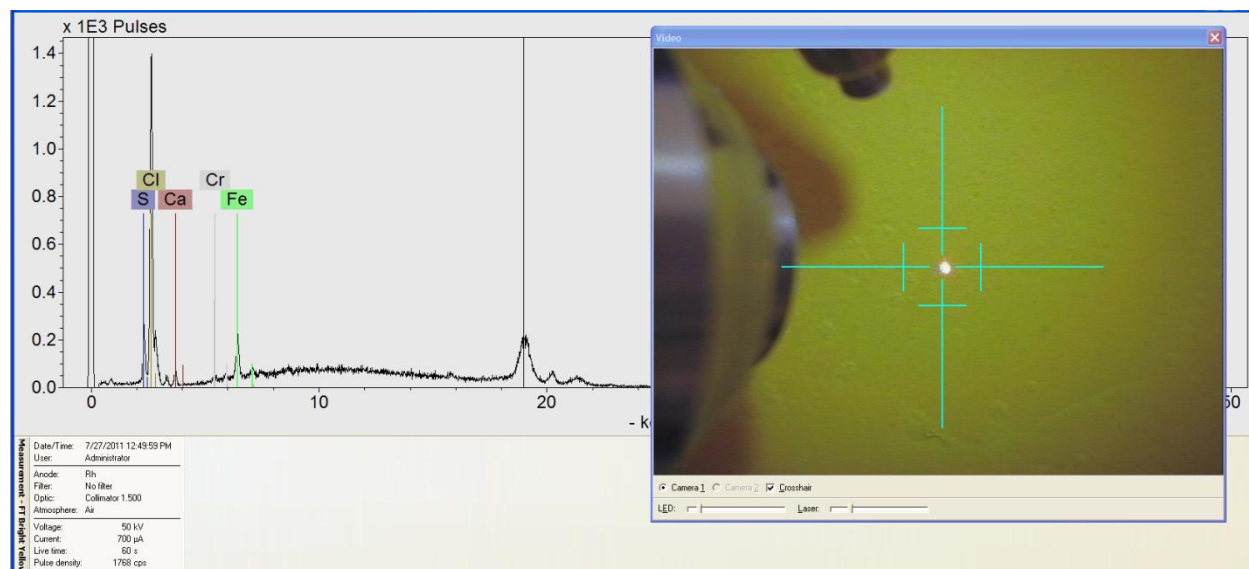
FT-Raman, 1064nm



FT-IR (ATR)



XRF



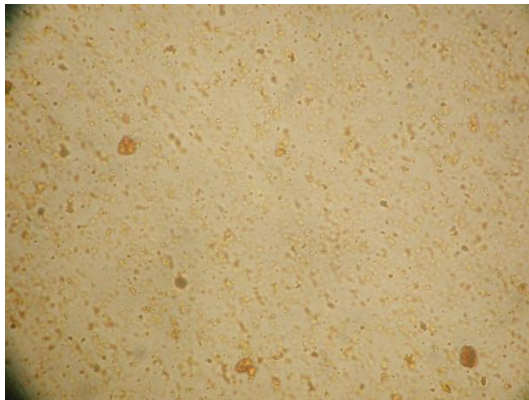
Mid-Yellow



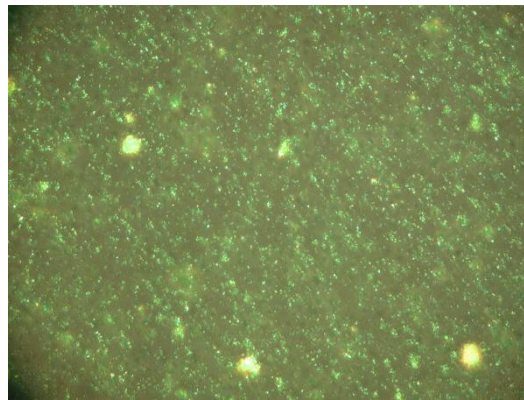
Bright Field, 100x



Dark Field, 100x

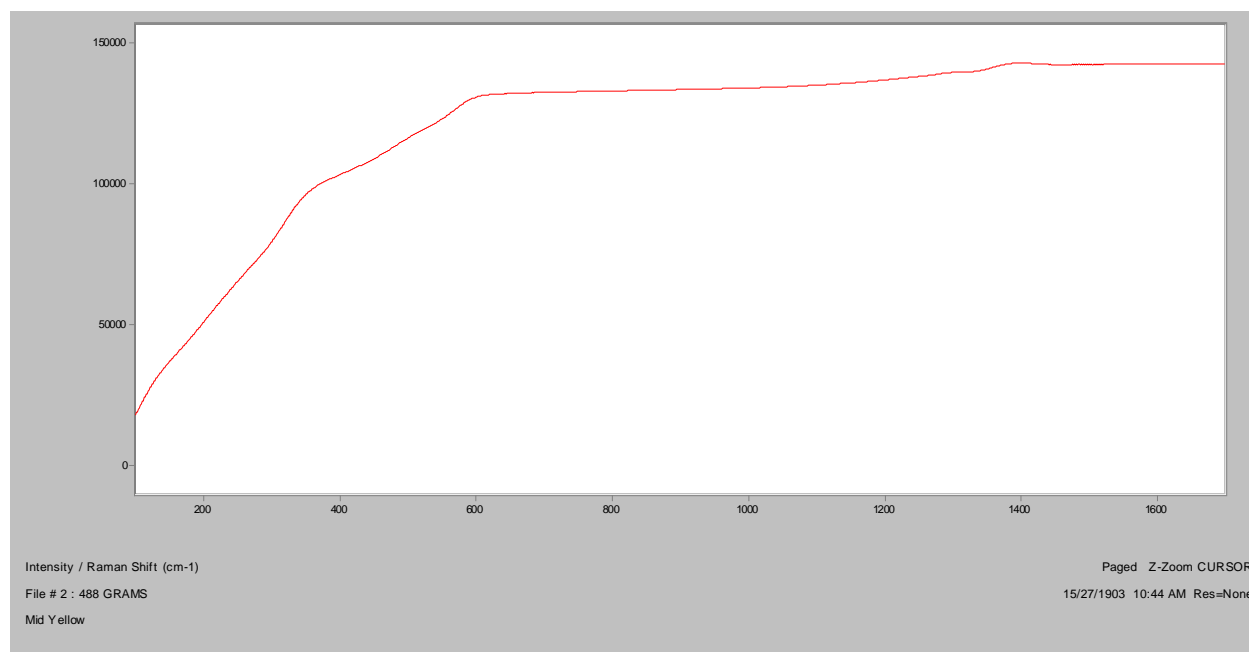


In RI 1.550, 400x

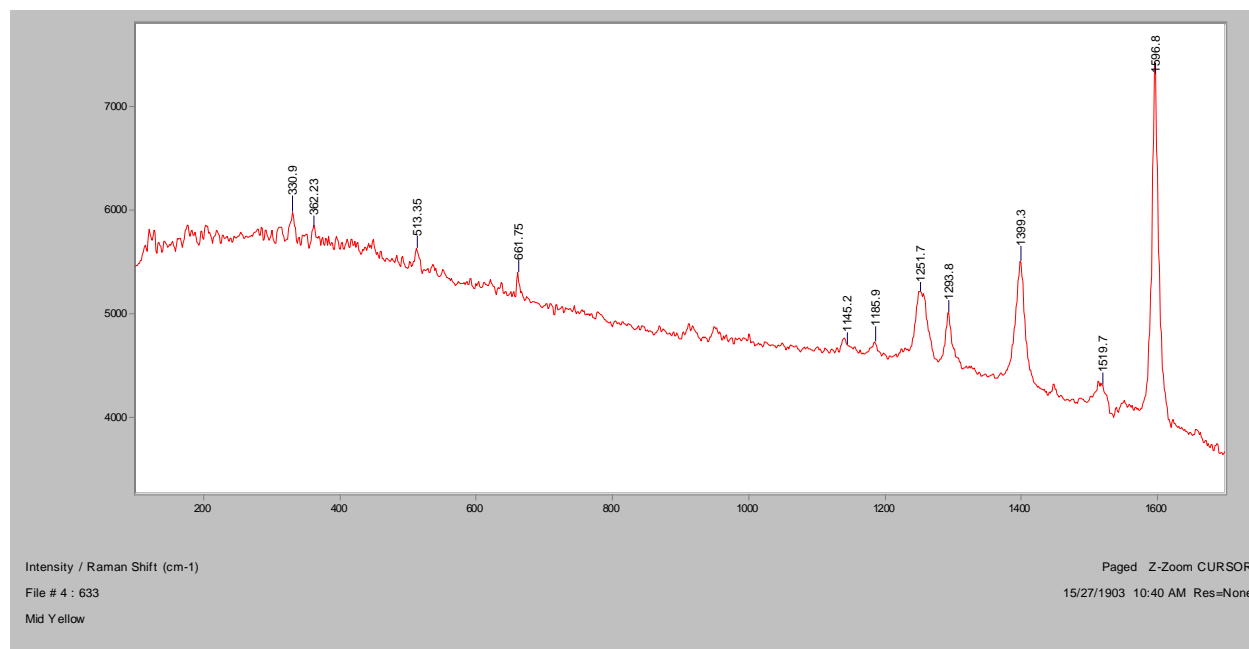


Crossed Polars, In RI 1.550, 400x

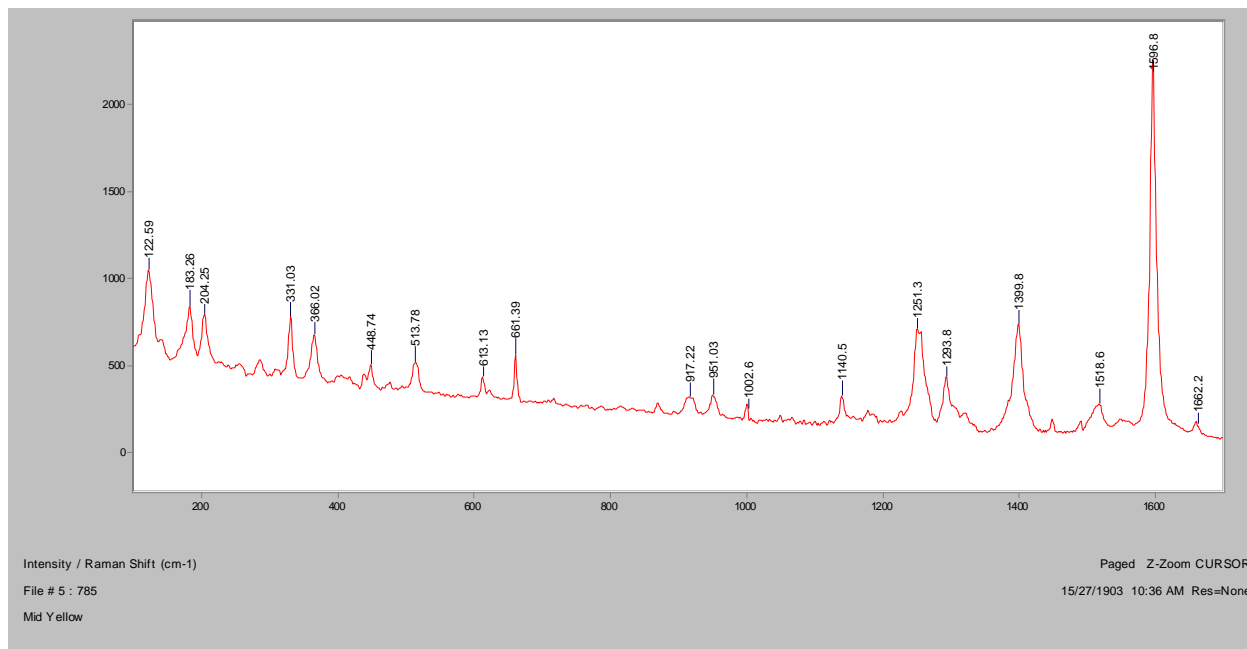
Normal Raman, 488nm



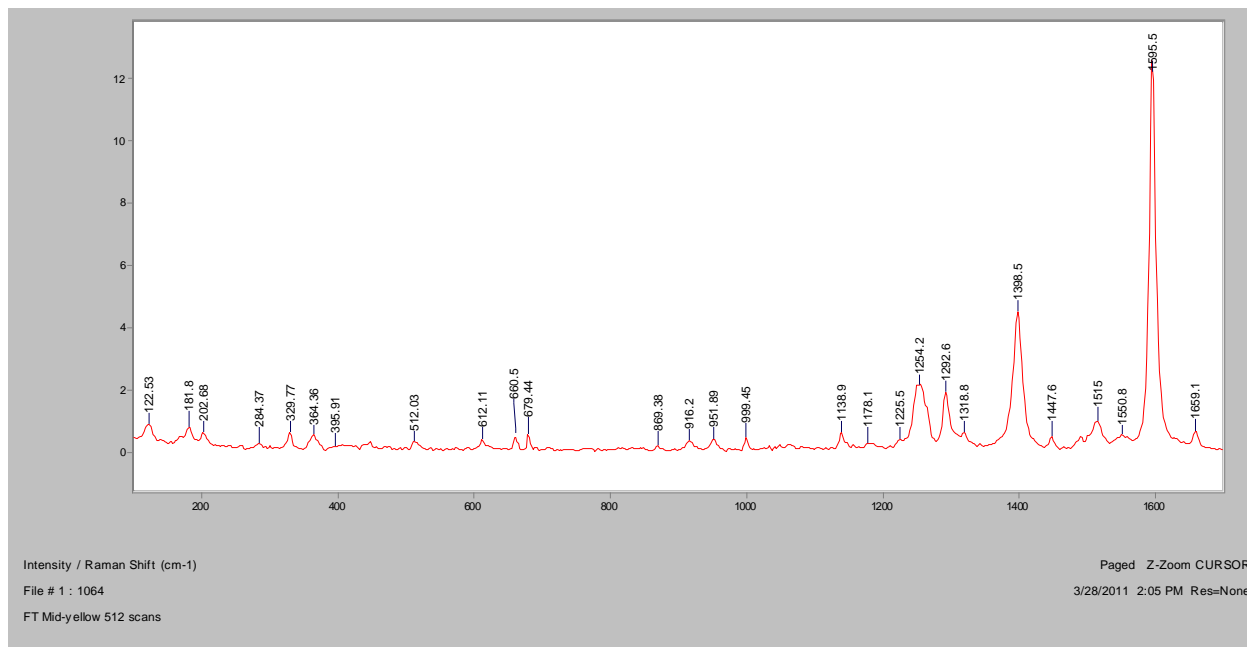
Normal Raman, 633nm



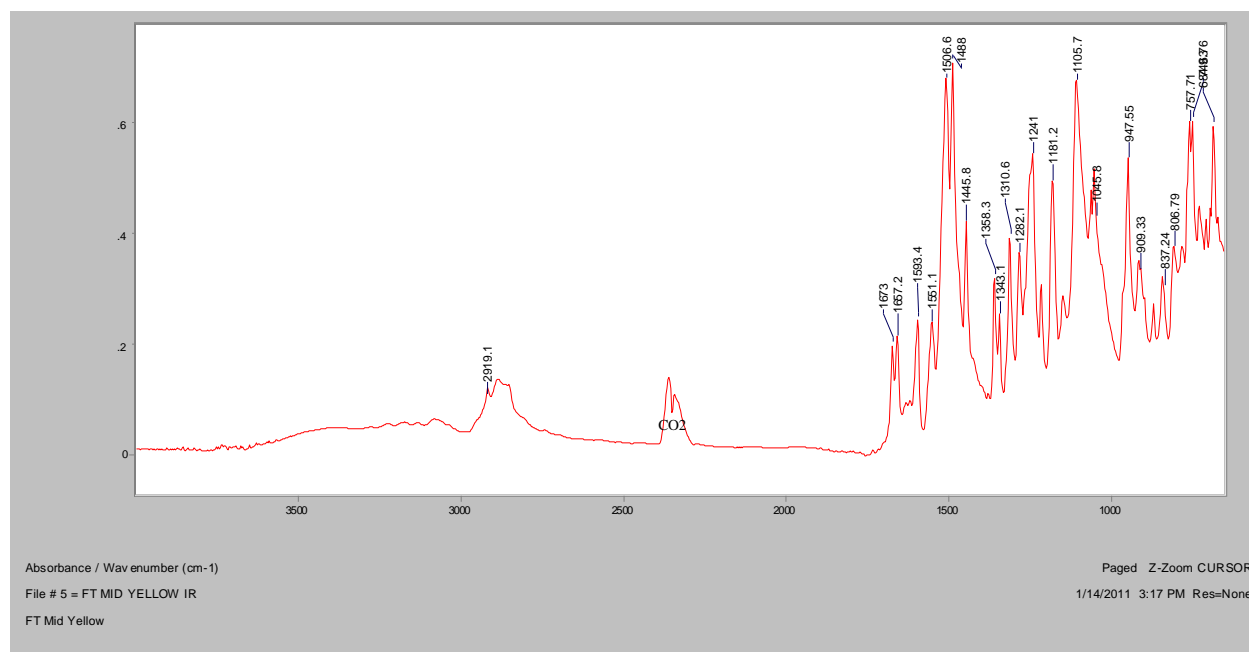
Normal Raman, 785nm



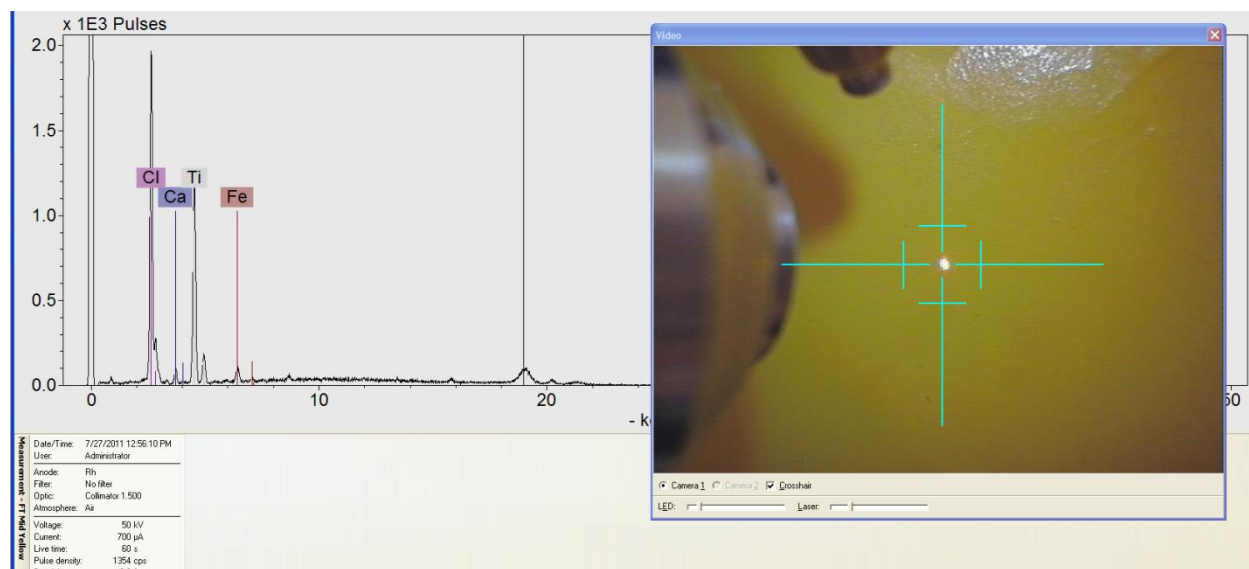
FT-Raman, 1064nm



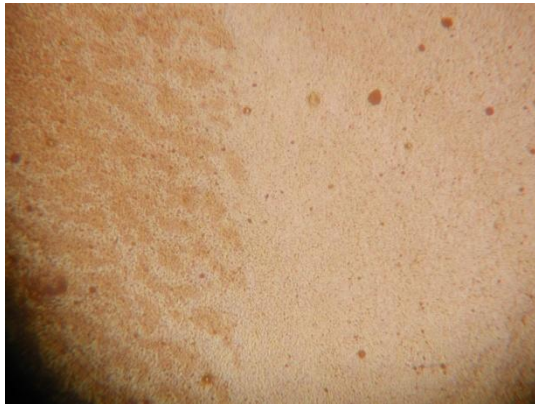
FT-IR (ATR)



XRF



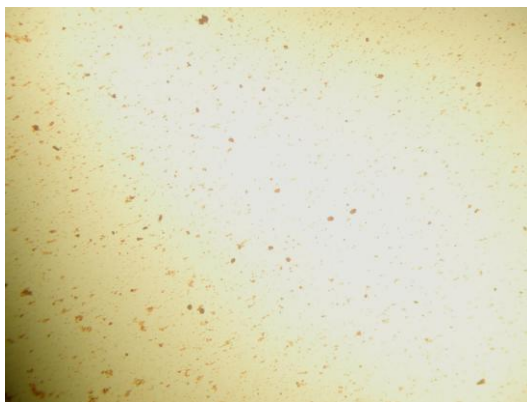
Yellow



Bright Field, 100x



Dark Field, 100x

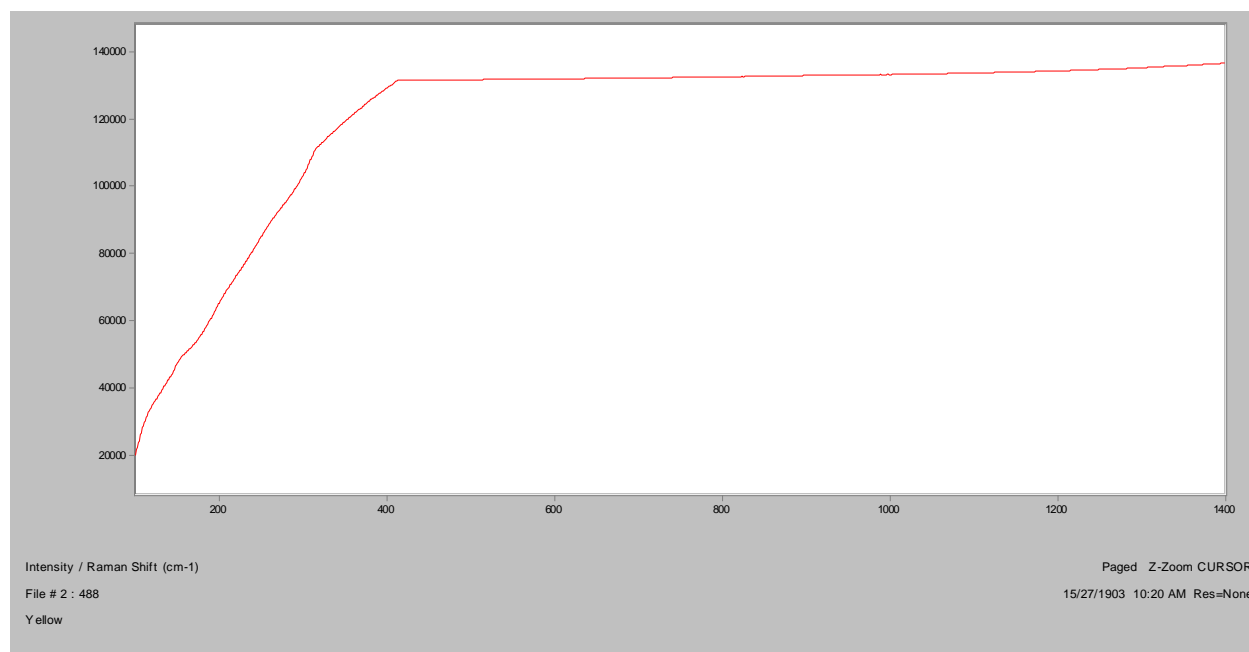


In RI 1.550, 400x

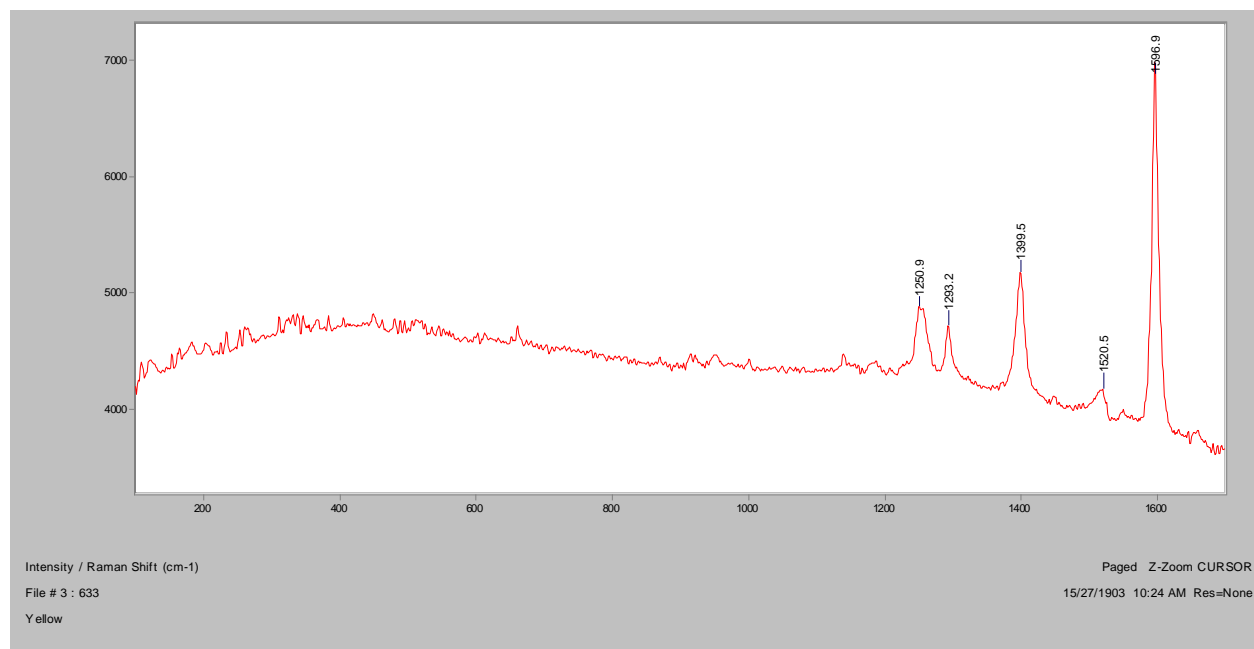


Crossed Polars, In RI 1.550, 400x

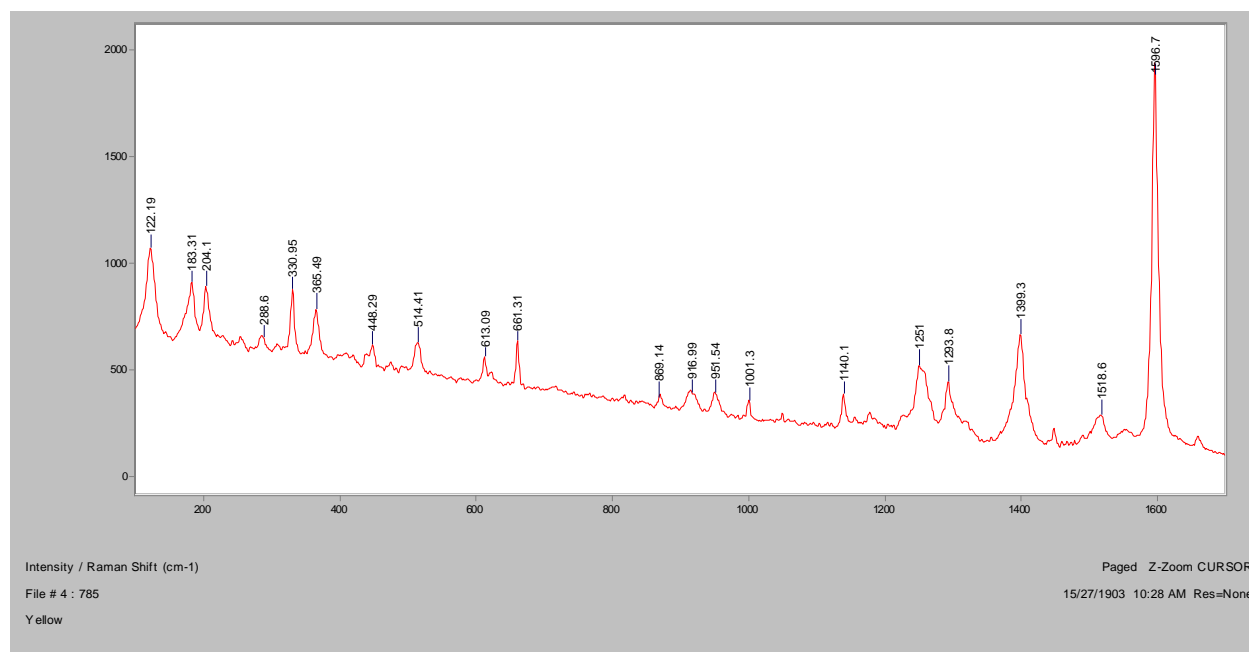
Normal Raman, 488nm



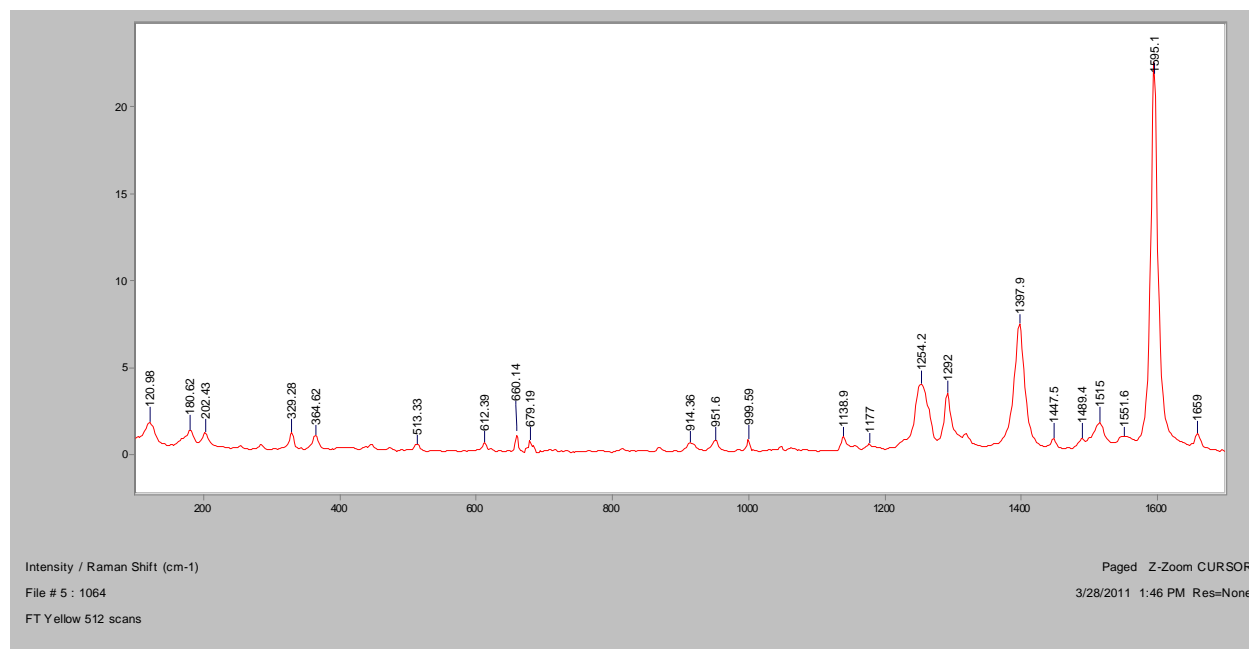
Normal Raman, 633nm



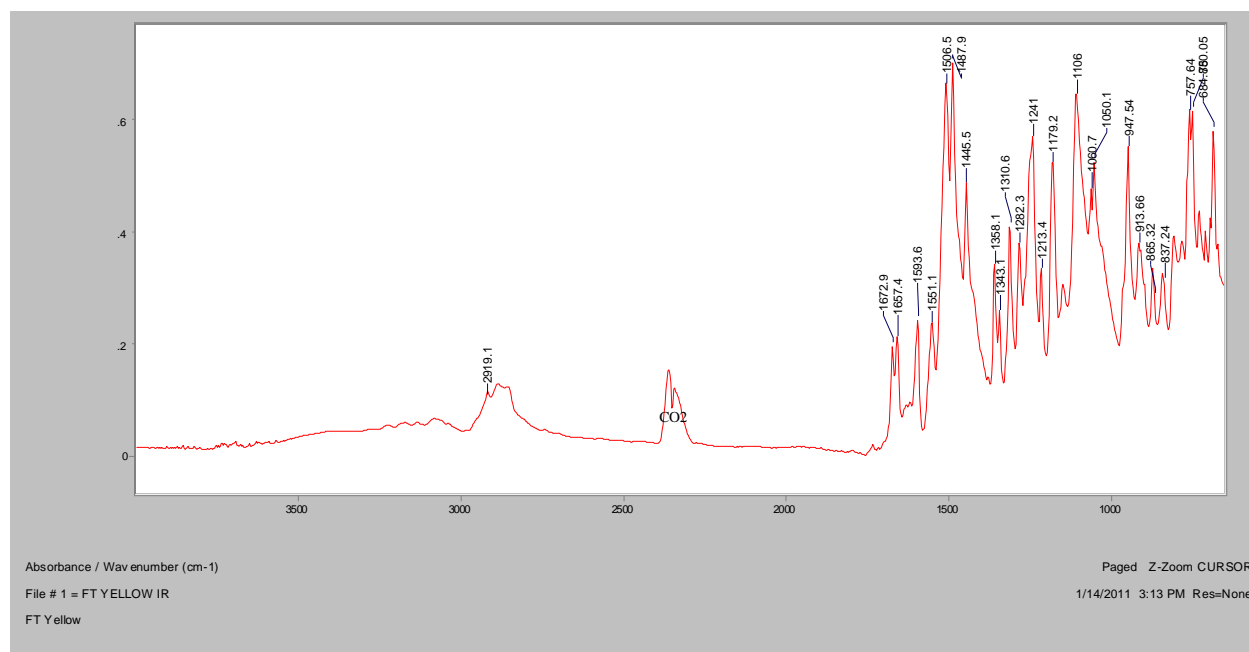
Normal Raman, 785nm



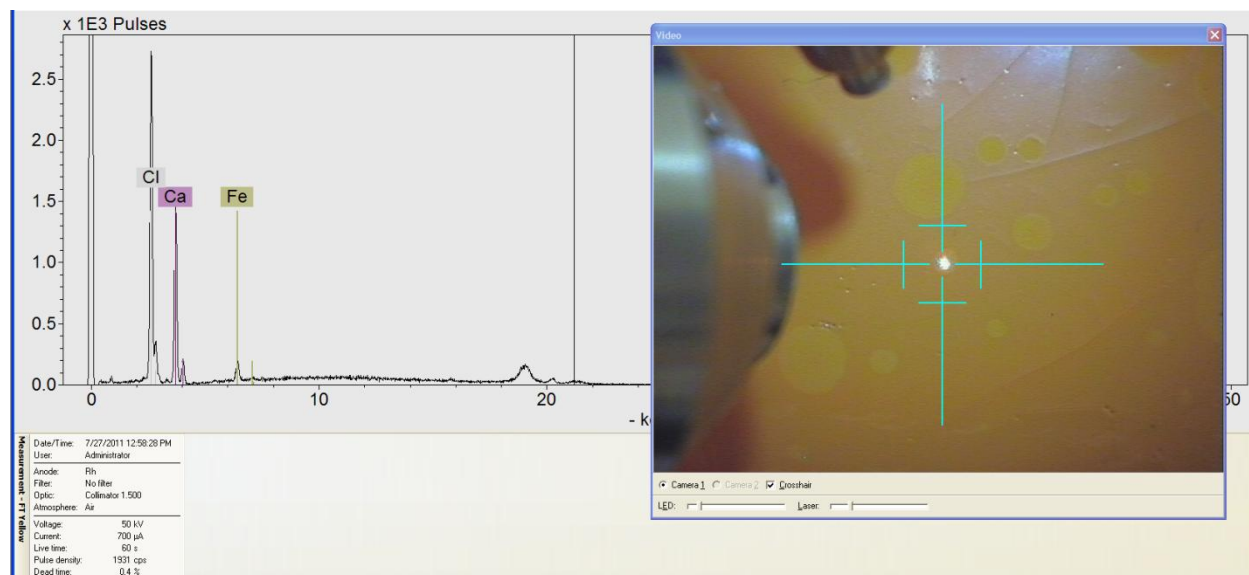
FT-Raman, 1064nm

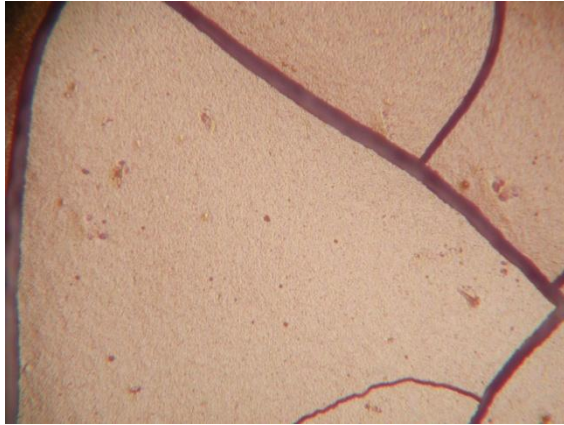
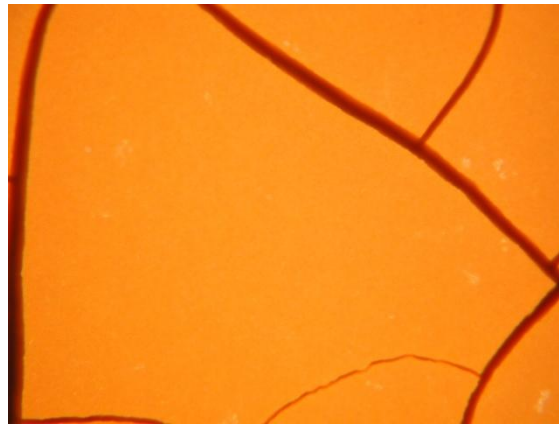
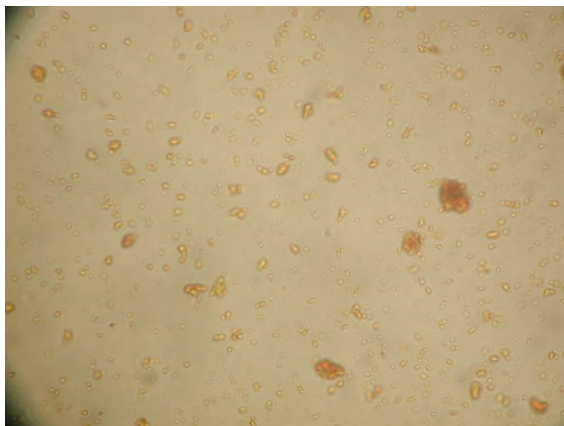
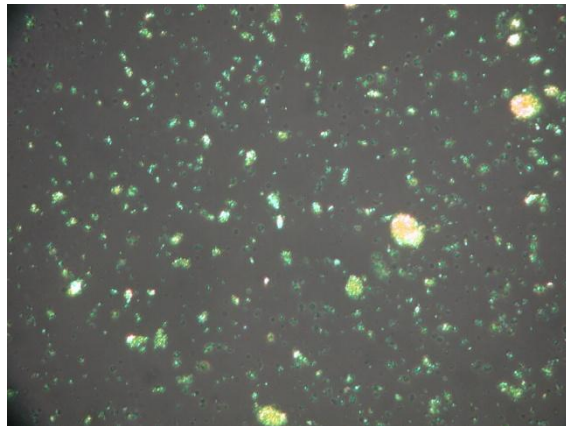


FT-IR (ATR)

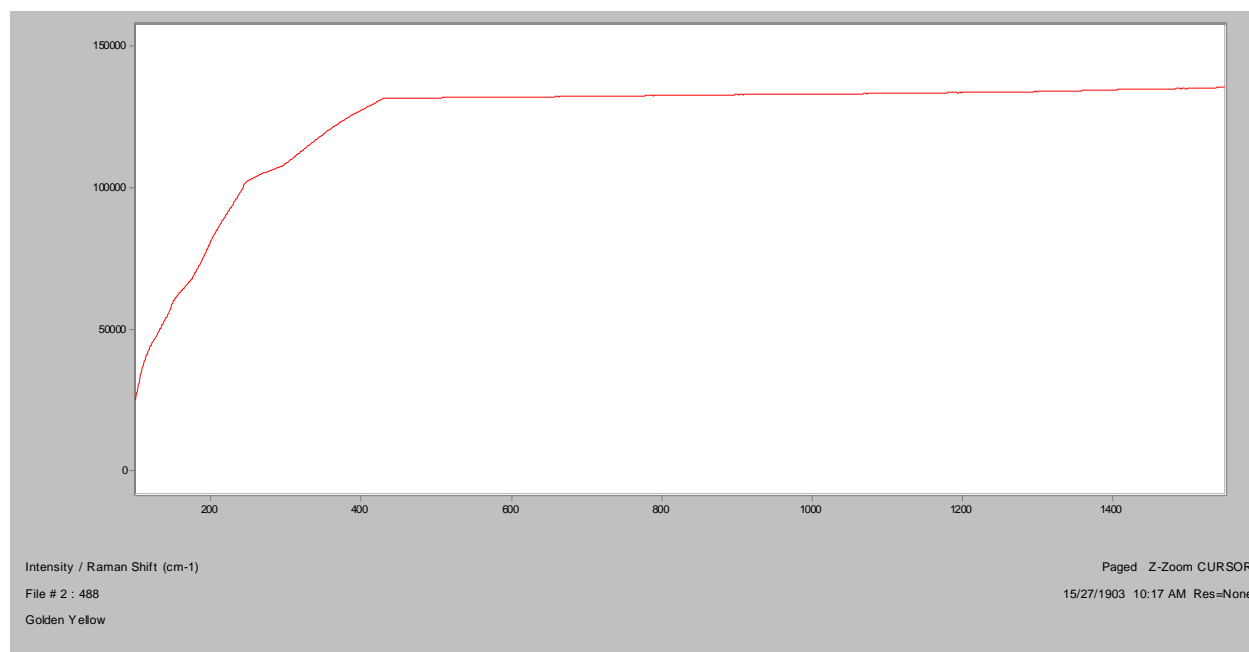


XRF

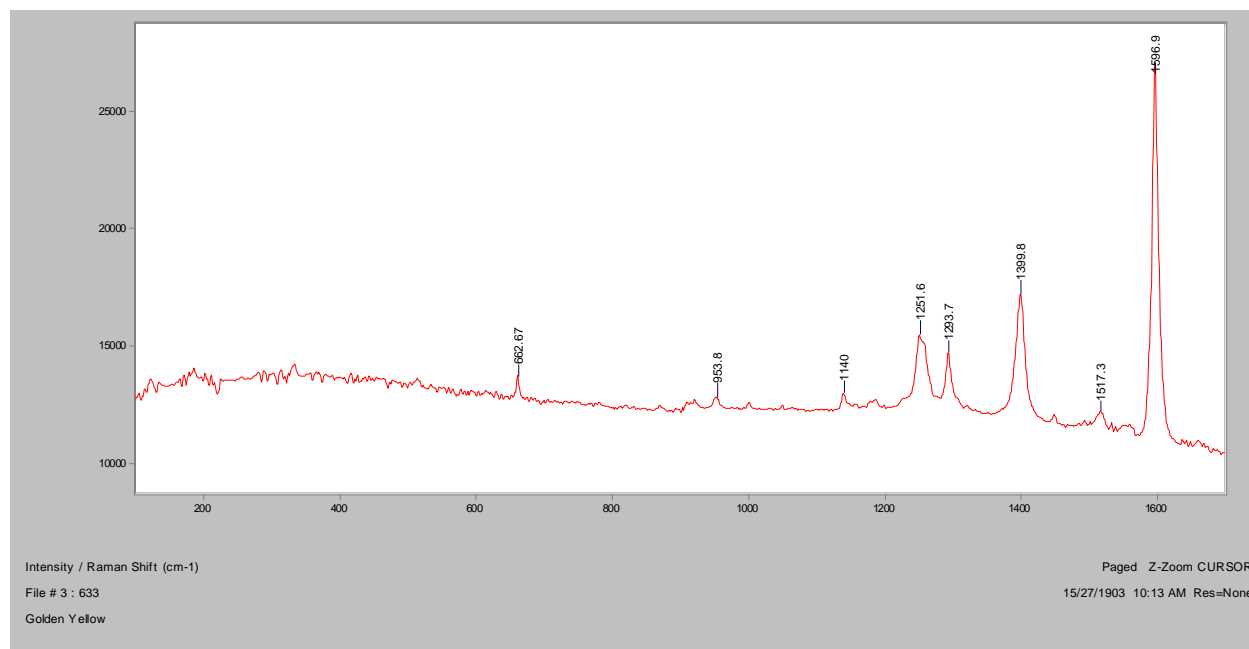


Golden Yellow**Bright Field, 100x****Dark Field, 100x****In RI 1.550, 400x****Crossed Polars, In RI 1.550, 400x**

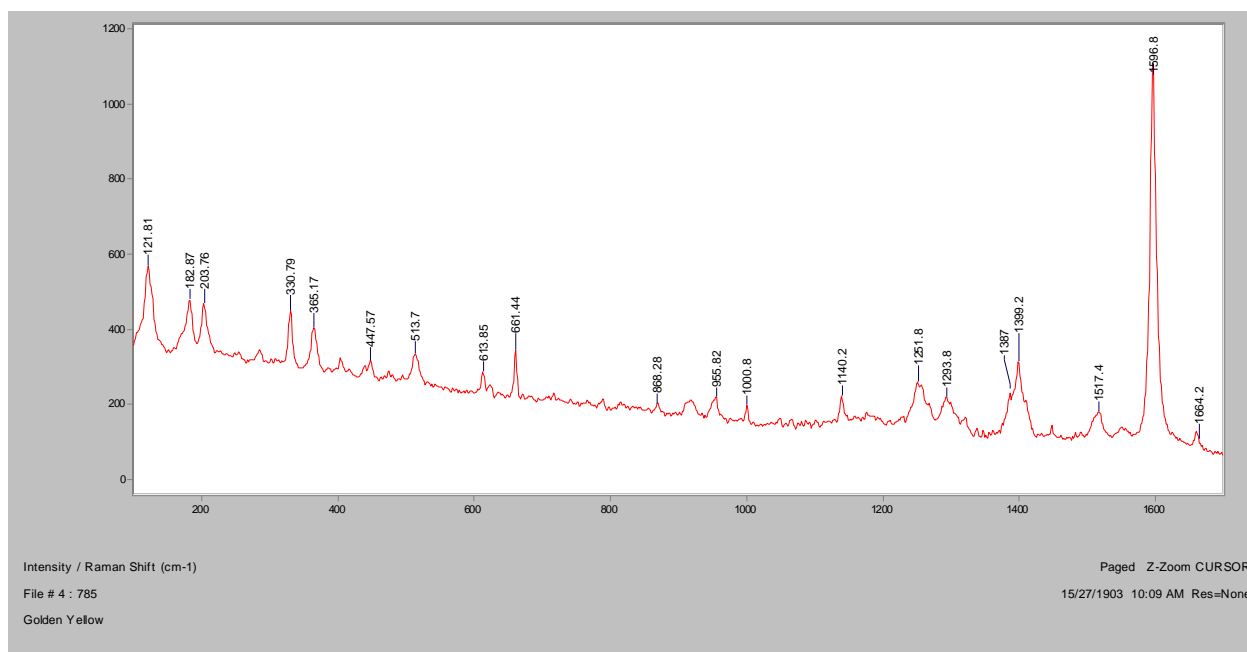
Normal Raman, 488nm



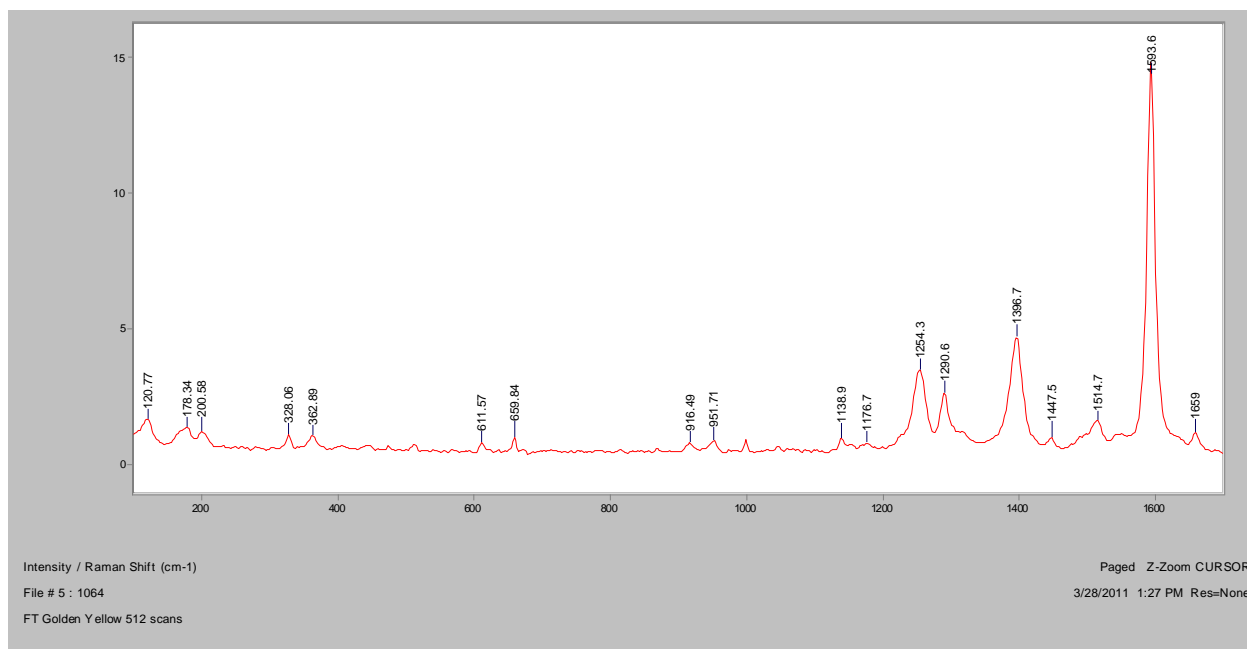
Normal Raman, 633nm



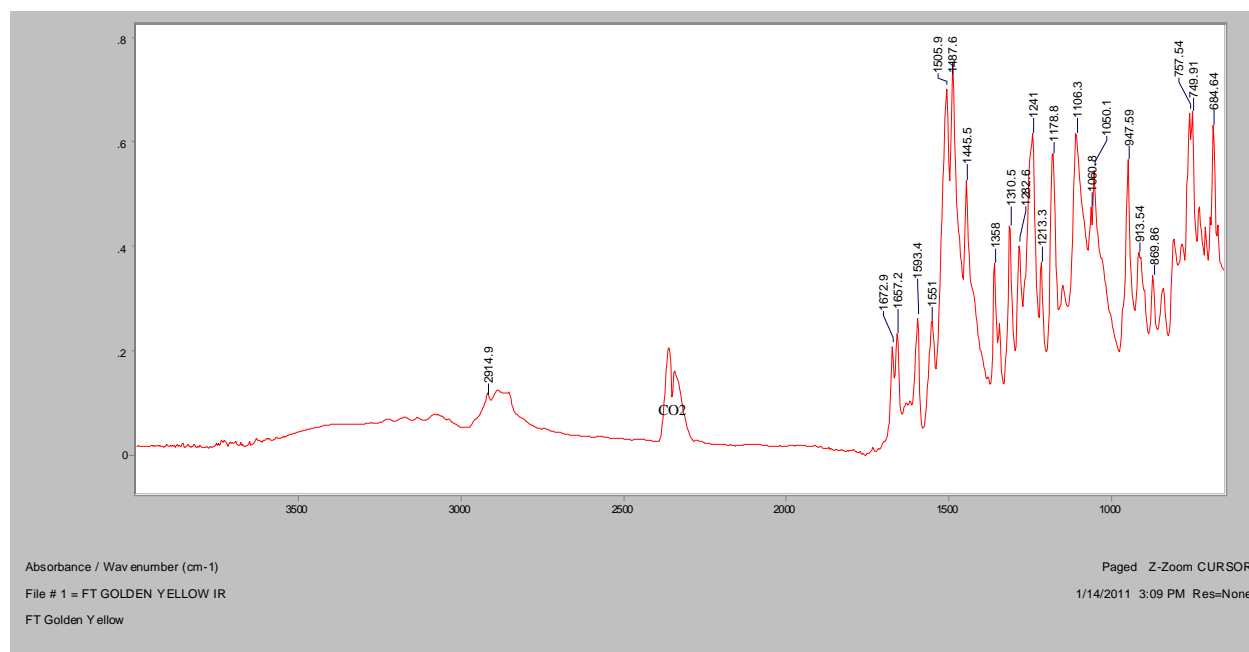
Normal Raman, 785nm



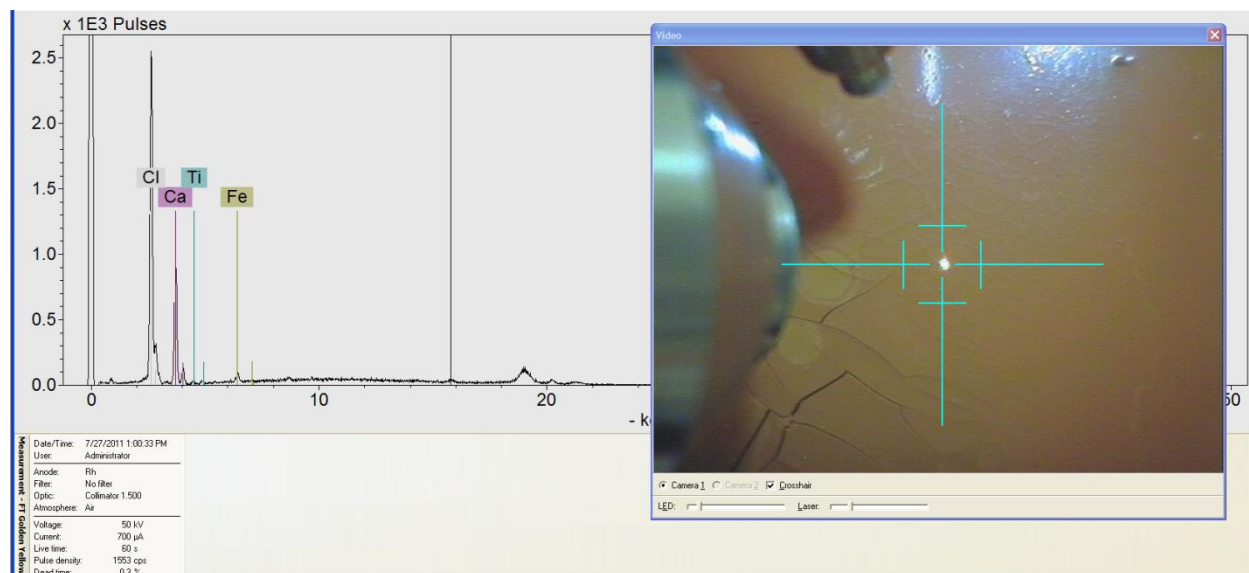
FT-Raman, 1064nm



FT-IR (ATR)



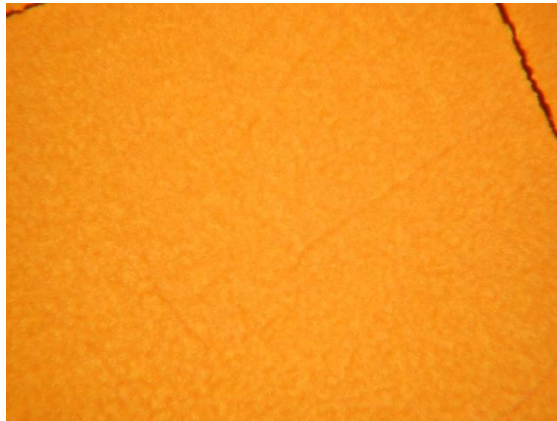
XRF



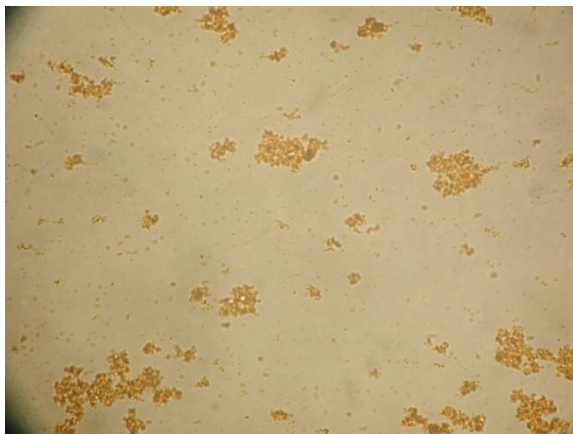
Khaki



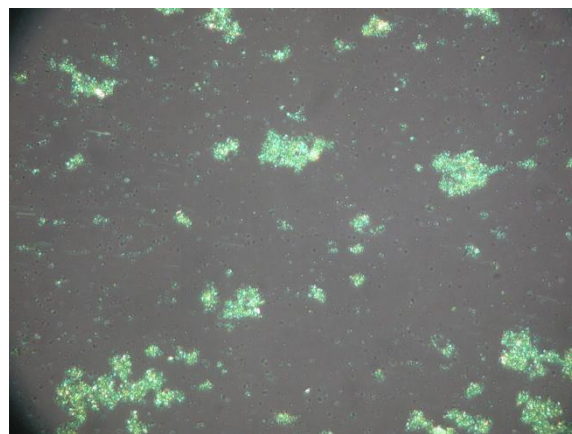
Bright Field, 100x



Dark Field, 100x

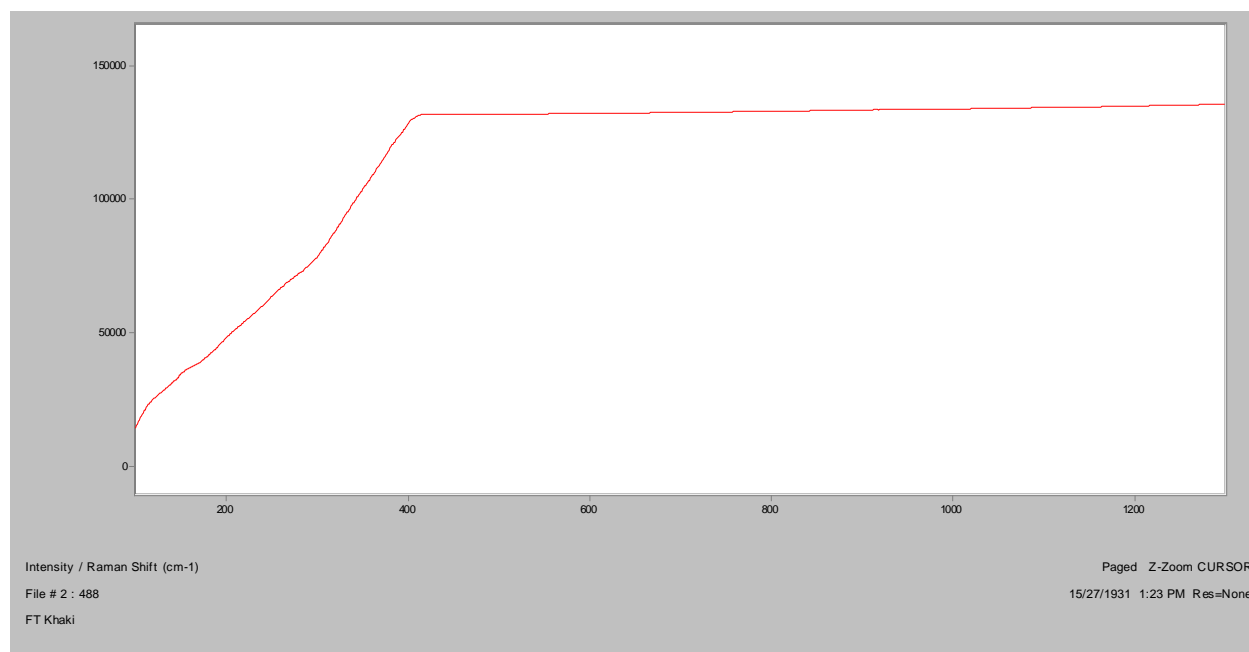


In RI 1.550, 400x

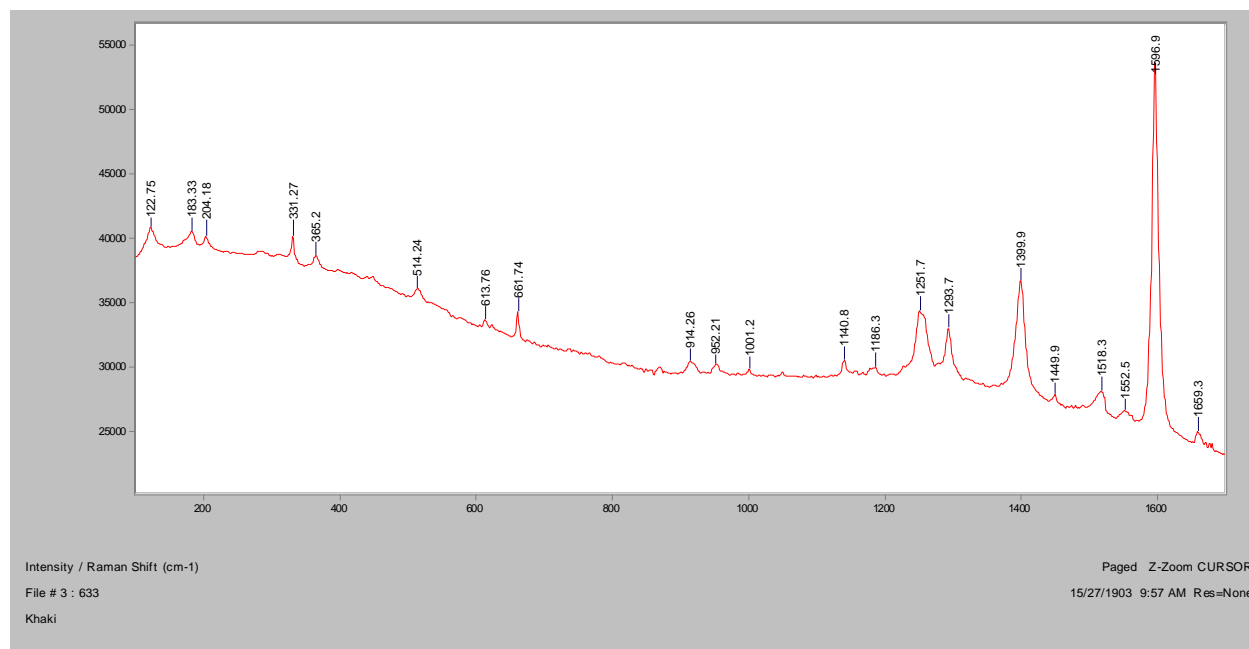


Crossed Polars, In RI 1.550, 400x

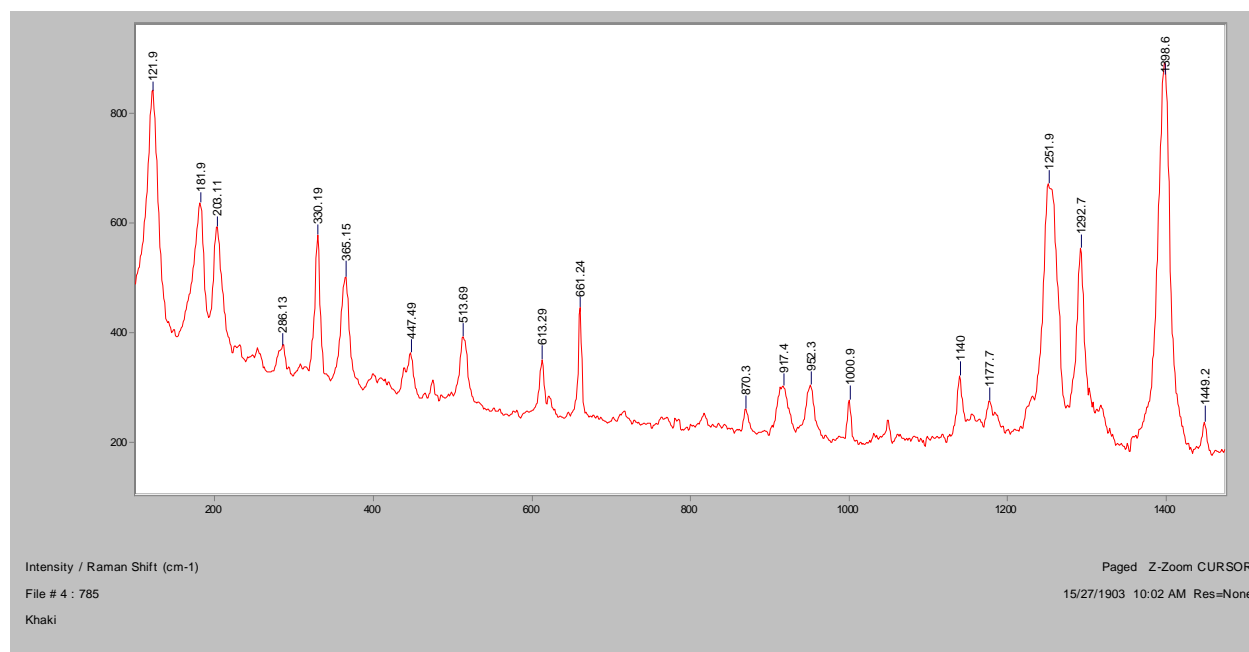
Normal Raman, 488nm



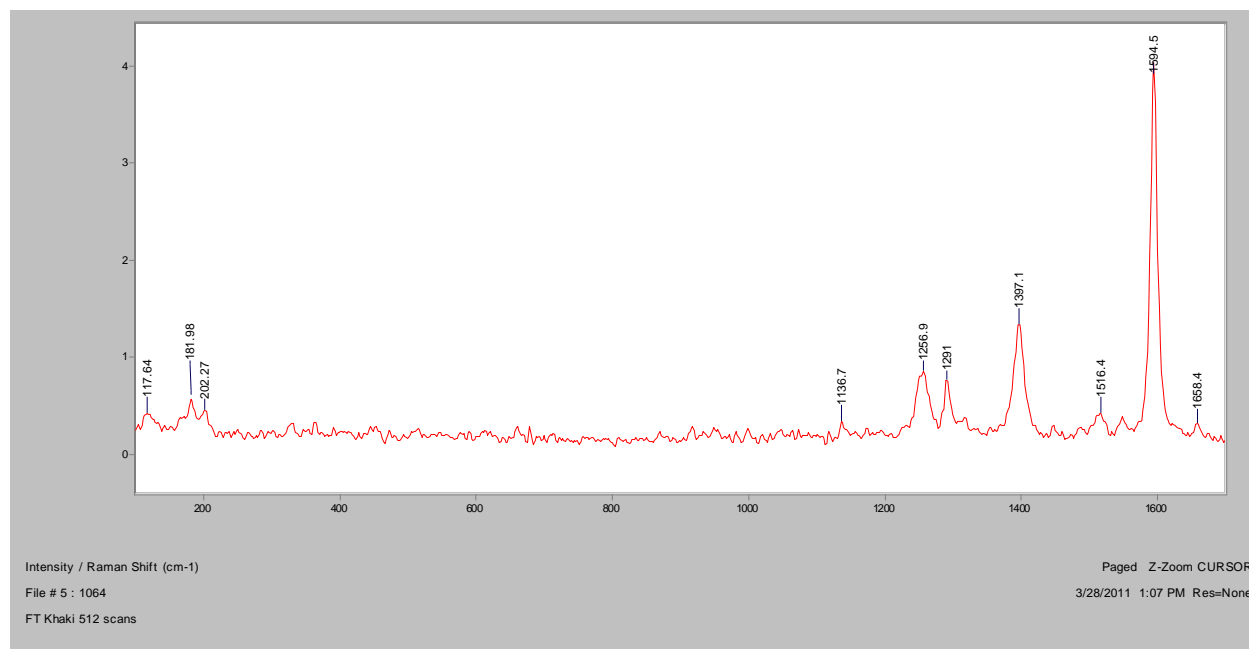
Normal Raman, 633nm



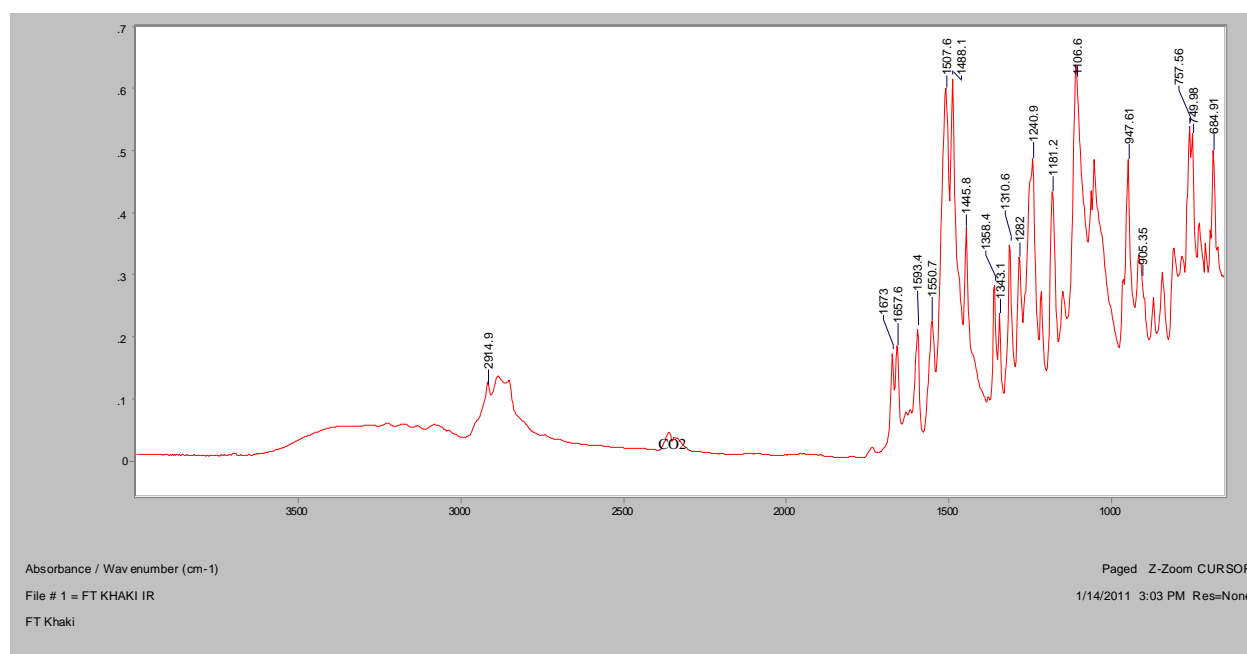
Normal Raman, 785nm



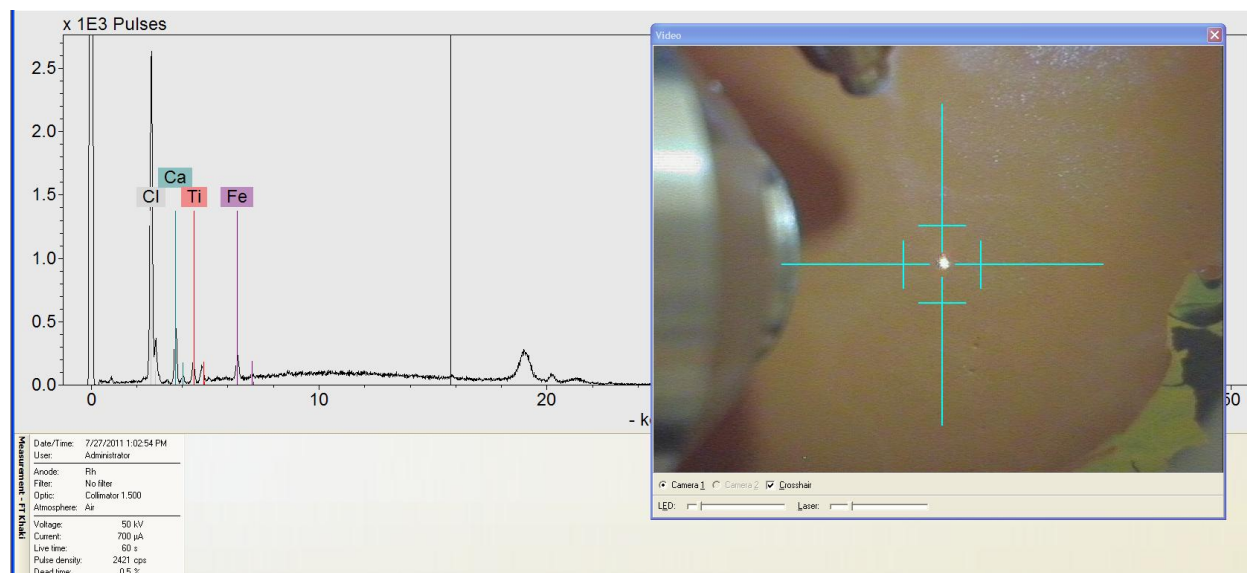
FT-Raman, 1064nm

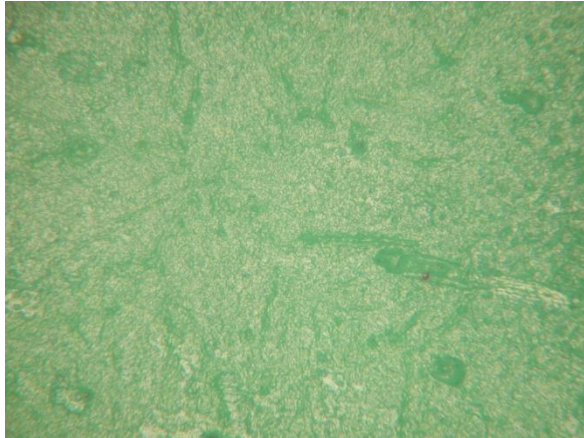
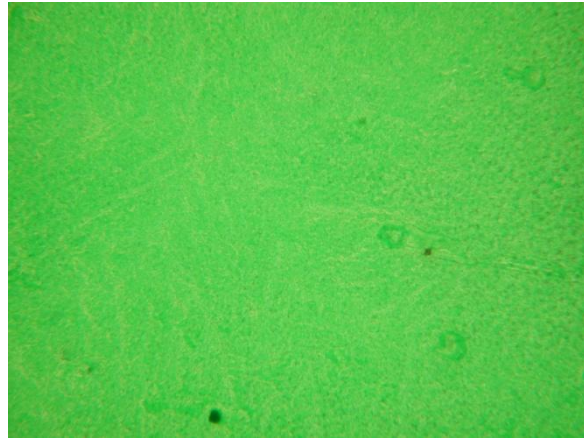
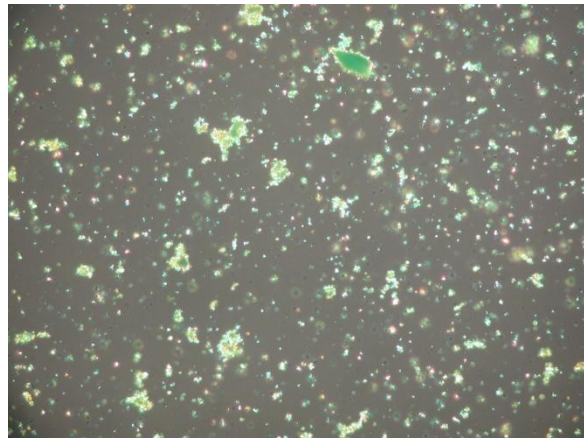


FT-IR (ATR)

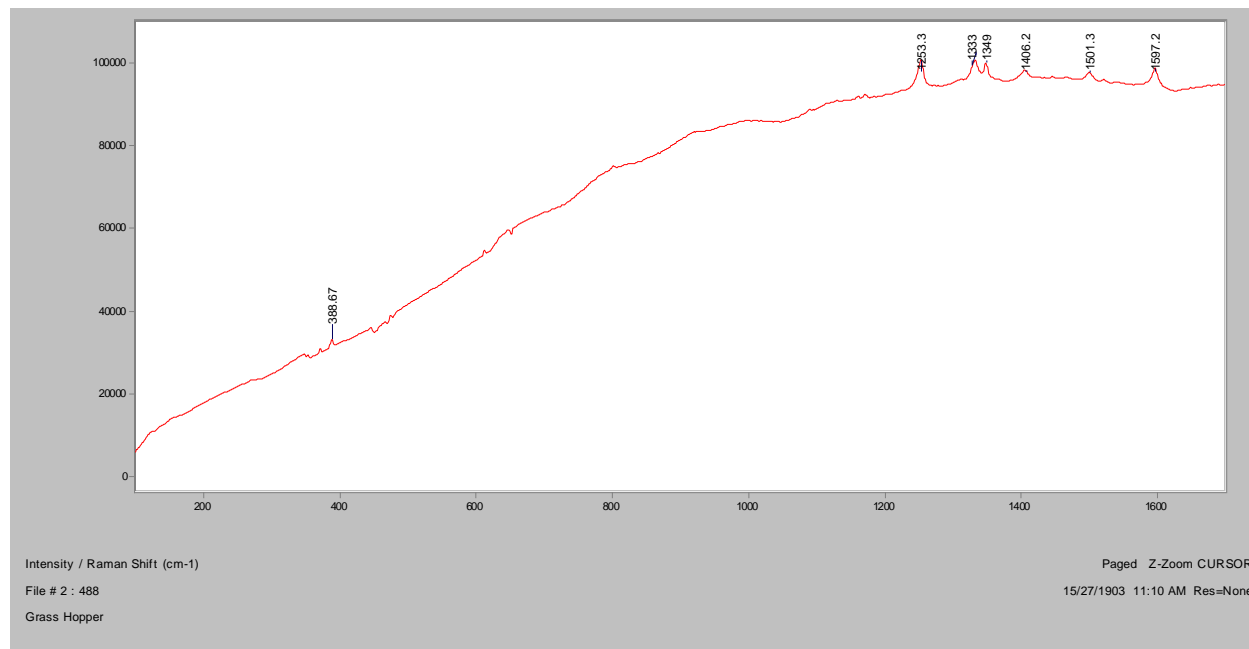


XRF

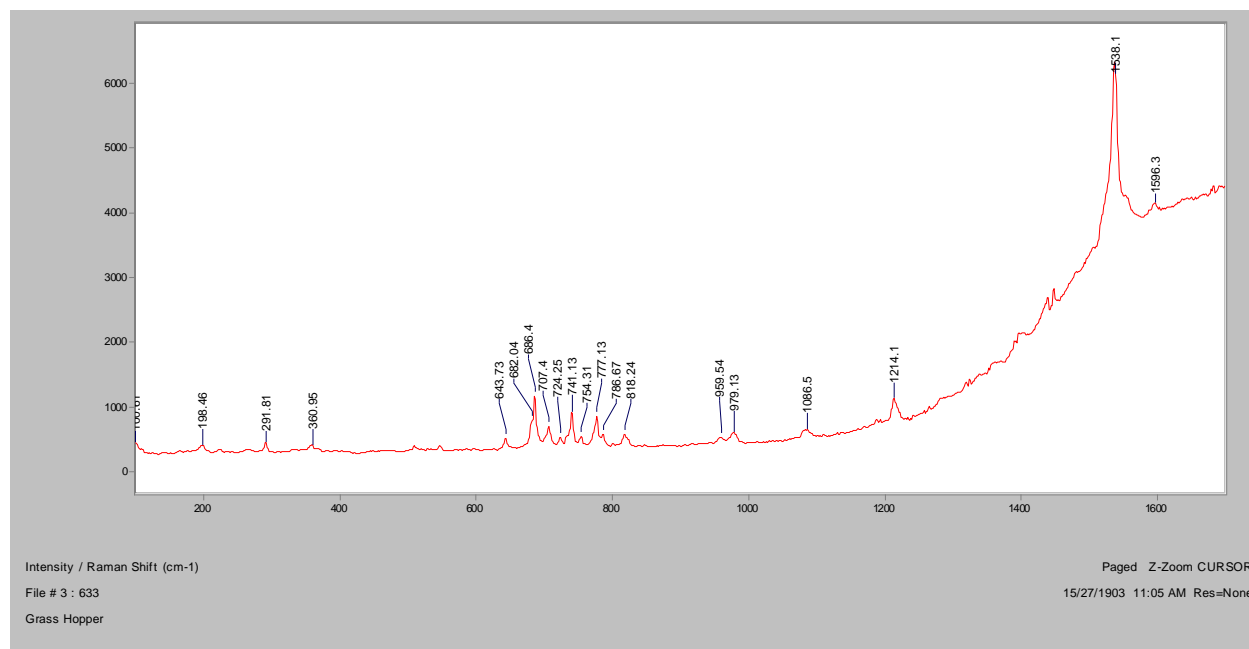


Grass Hopper**Bright Field, 100x****Dark Field, 100x****In RI 1.550, 200x****Crossed Polars, In RI 1.550, 200x**

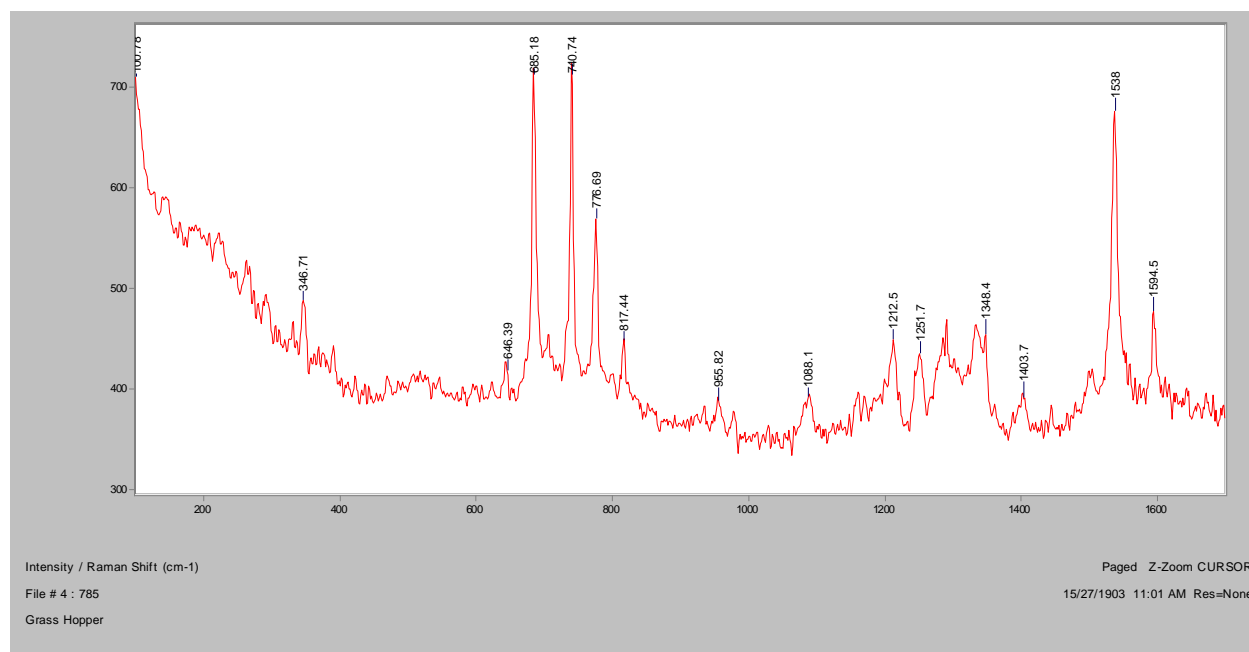
Normal Raman, 488nm



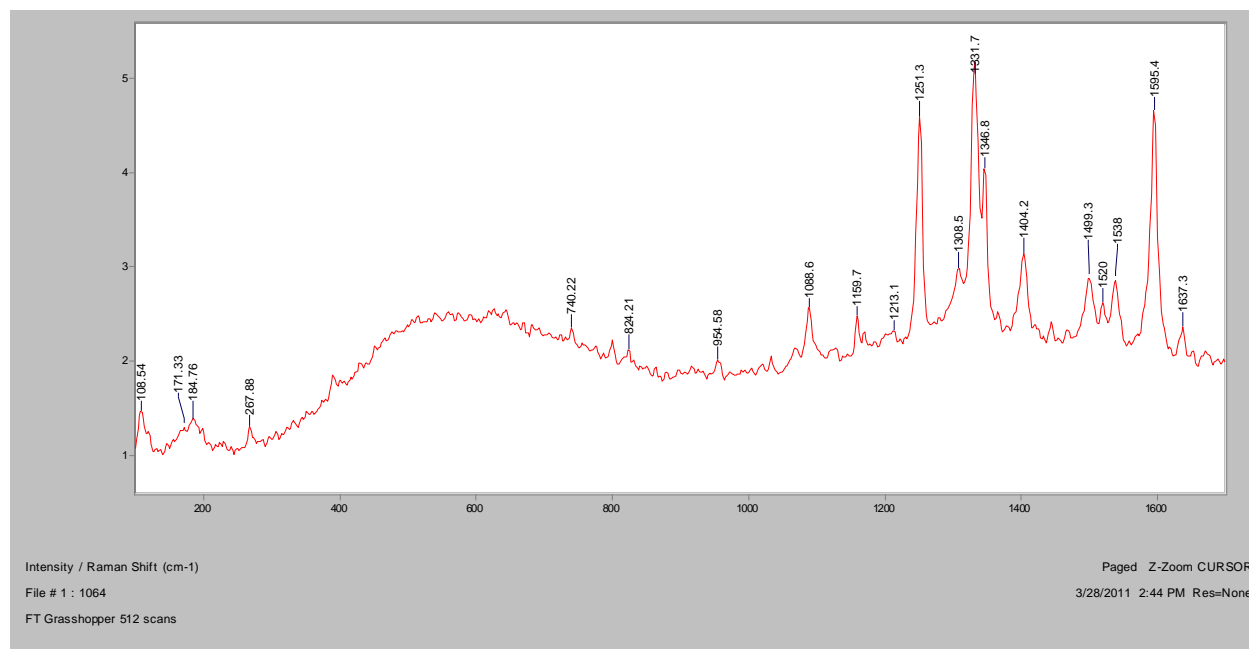
Normal Raman, 633nm



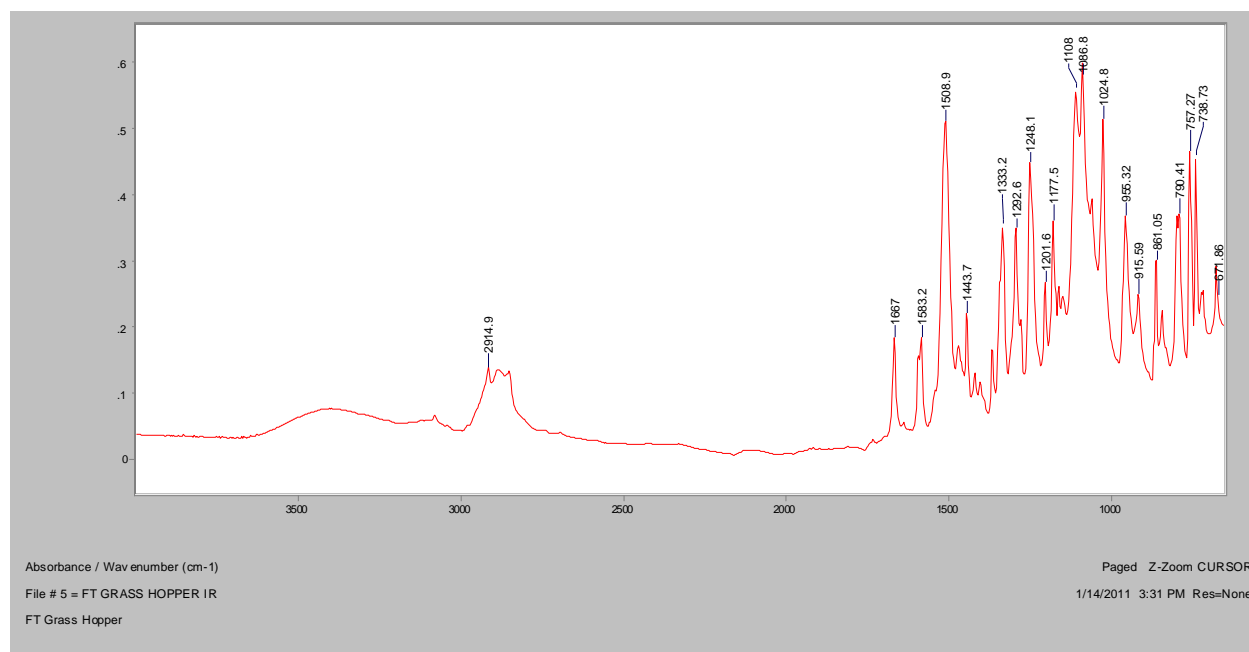
Normal Raman, 785nm



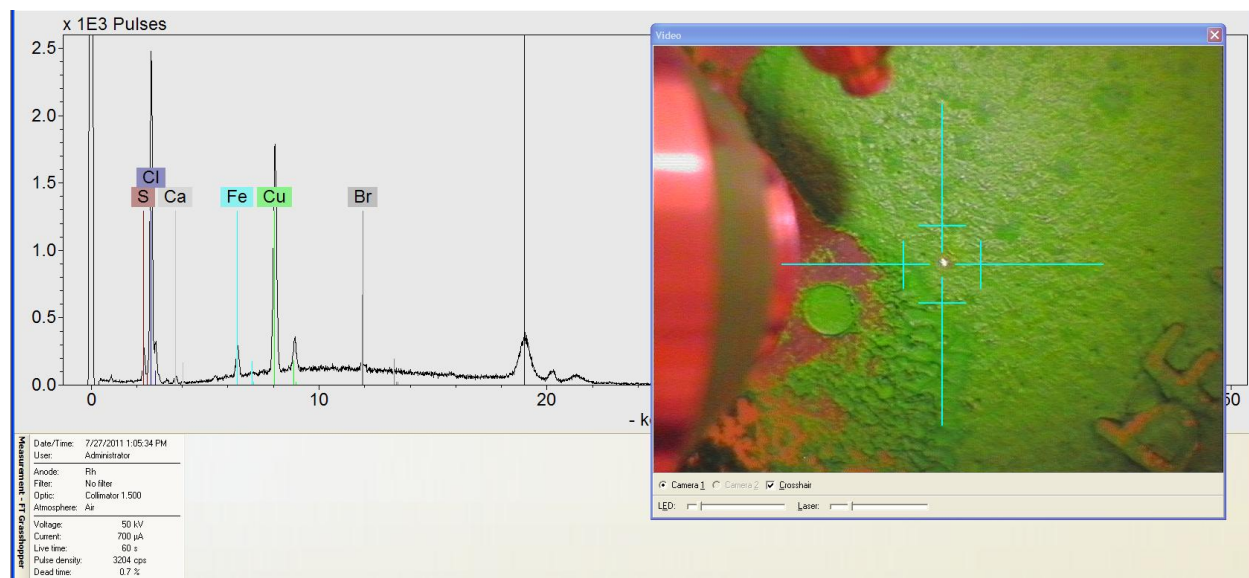
FT-Raman, 1064nm

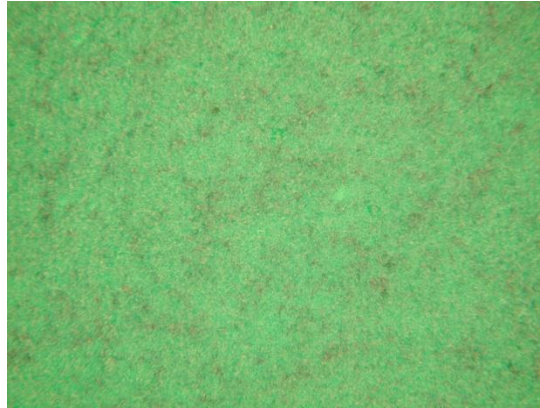
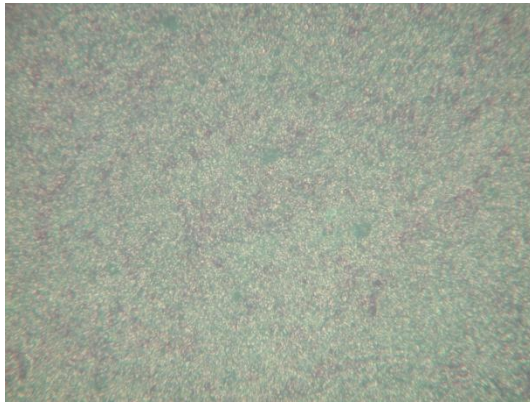
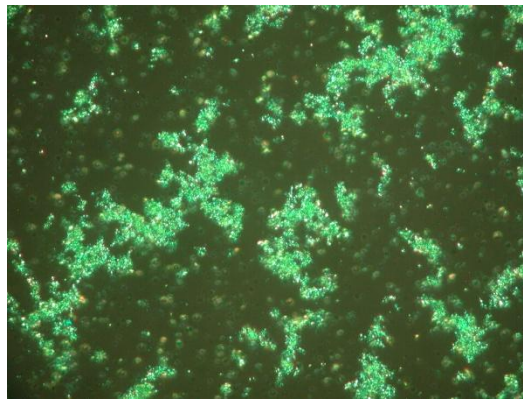
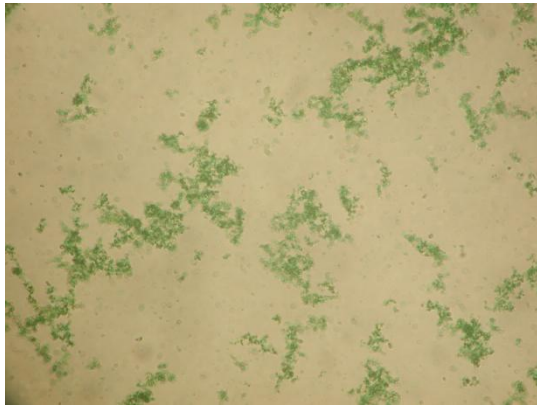


FT-IR (ATR)

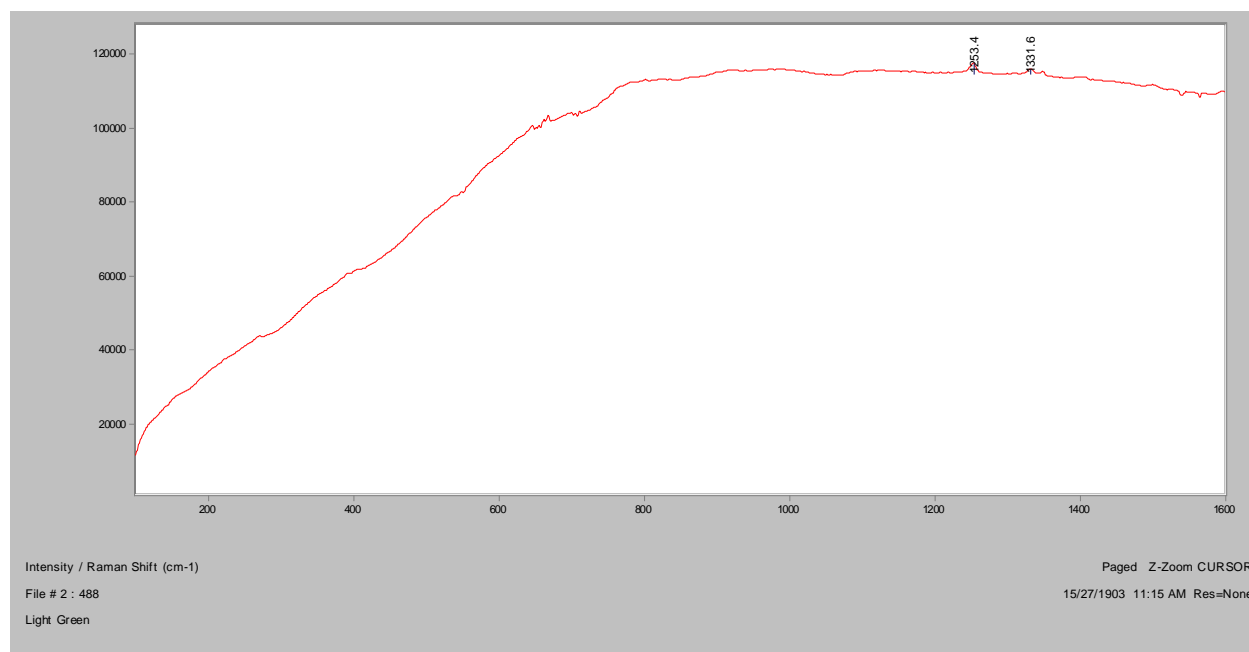


XRF

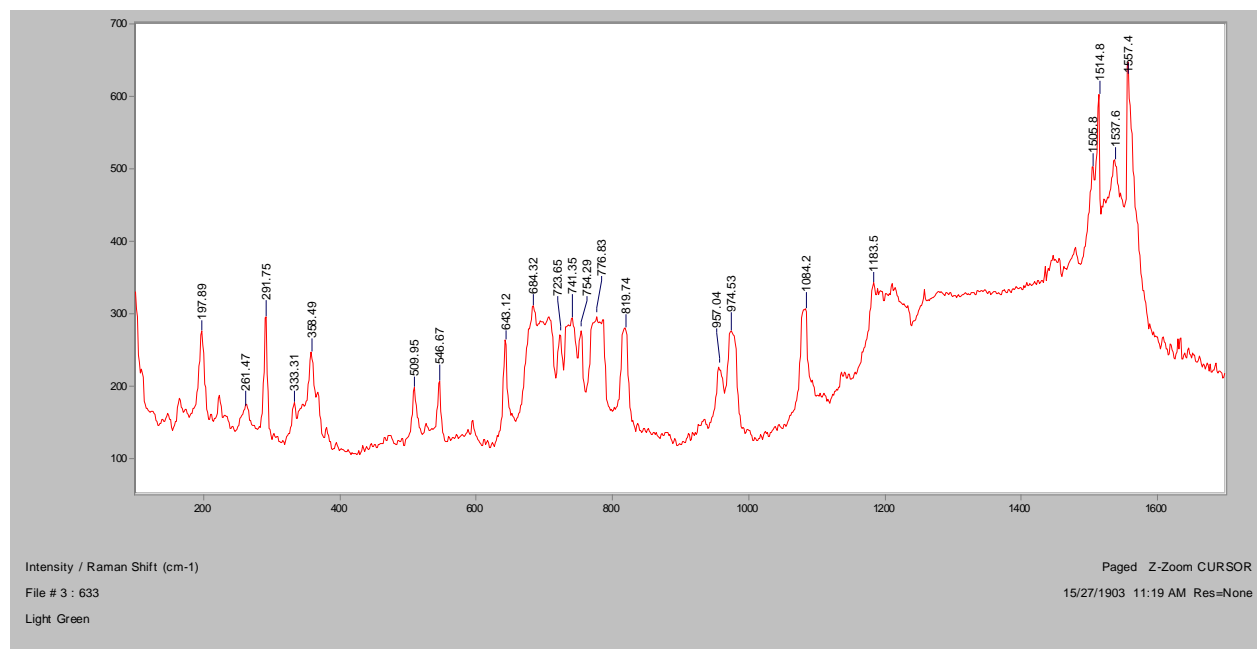


Light Green**Bright Field, 100x****Dark Field, 100x****In RI 1.550, 400x****Crossed Polars, In RI 1.550, 400x**

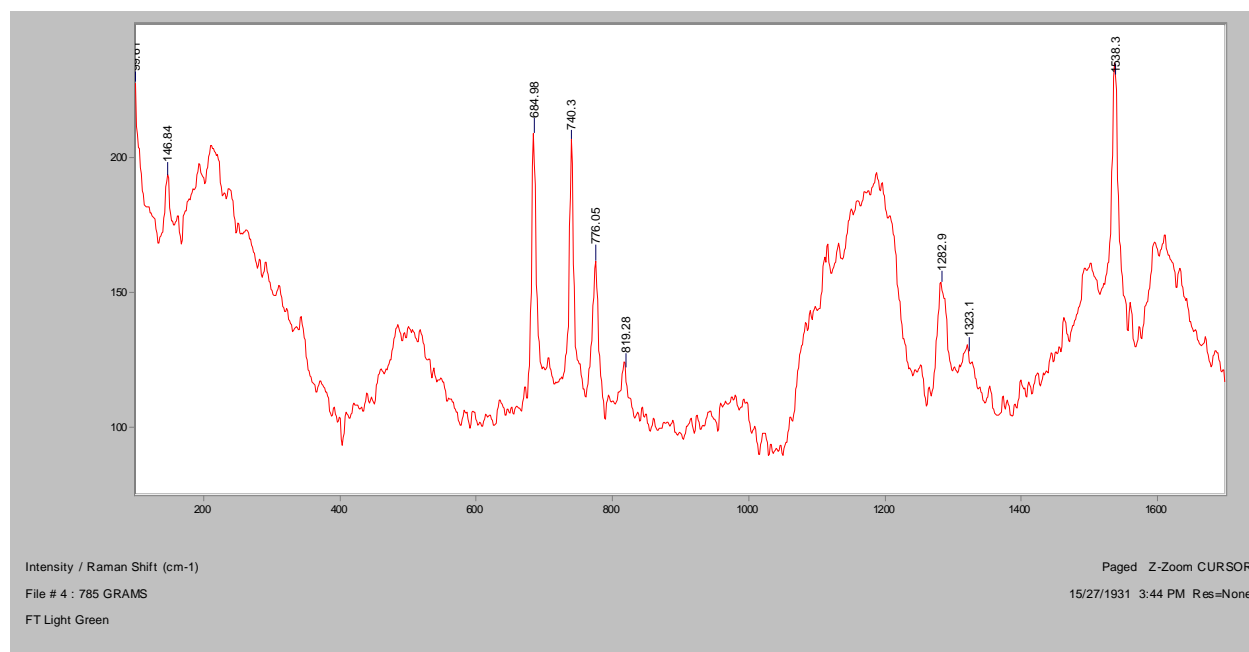
Normal Raman, 488nm



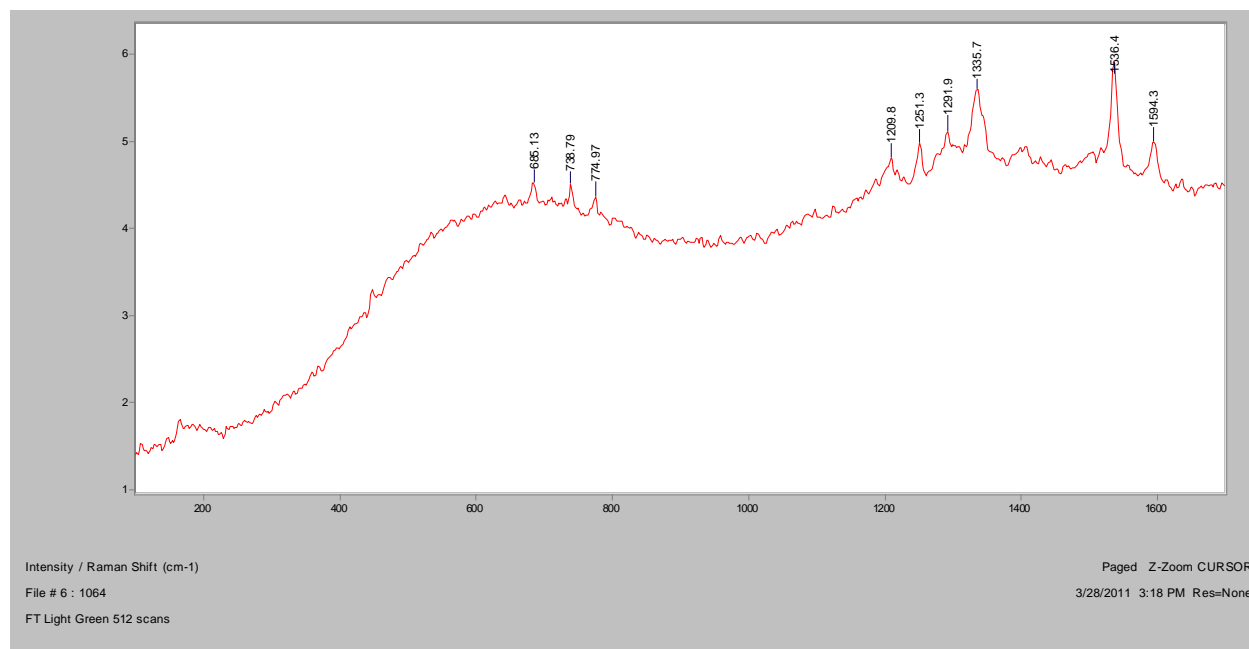
Normal Raman, 633nm



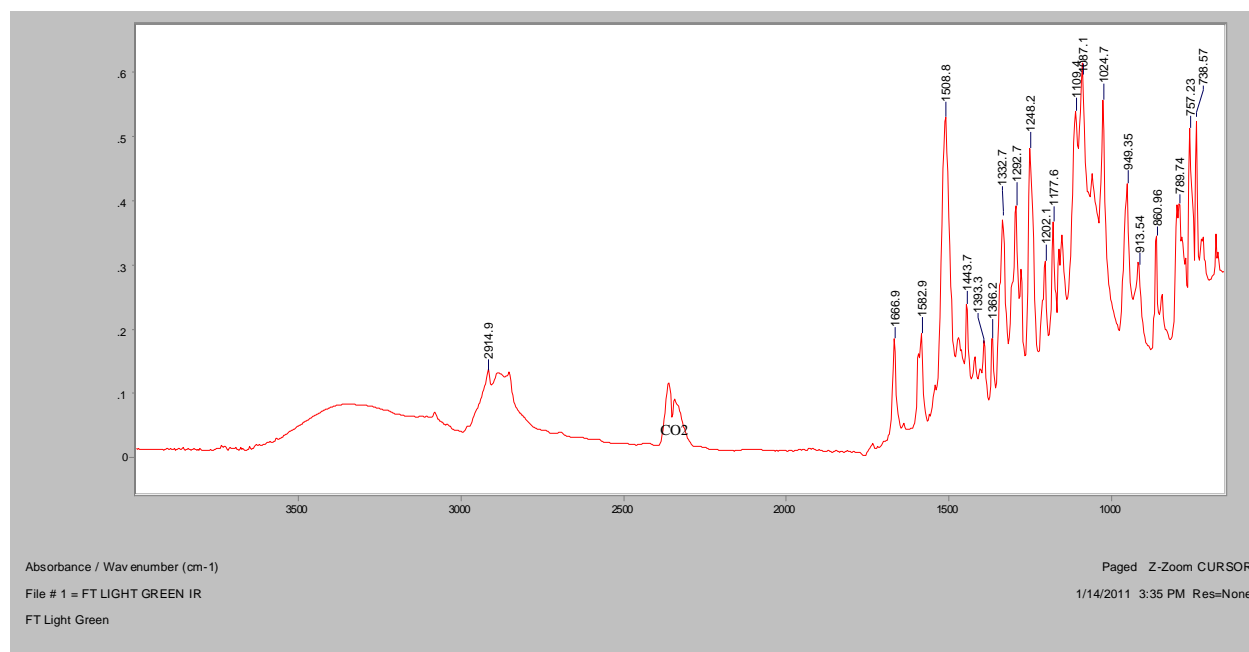
Normal Raman, 785nm



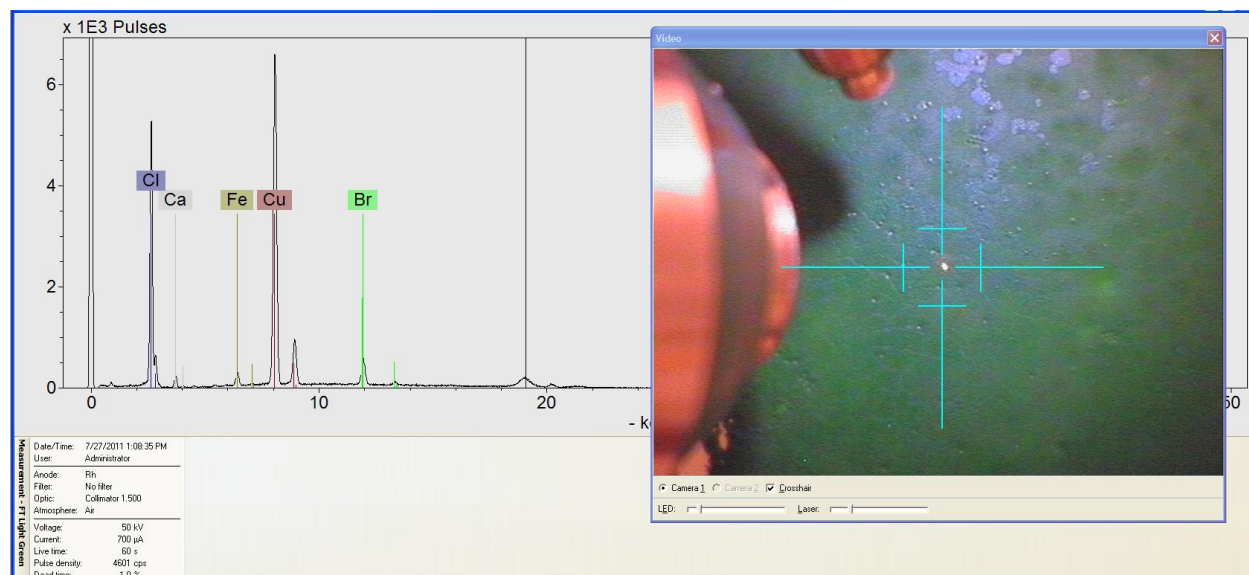
FT-Raman, 1064nm



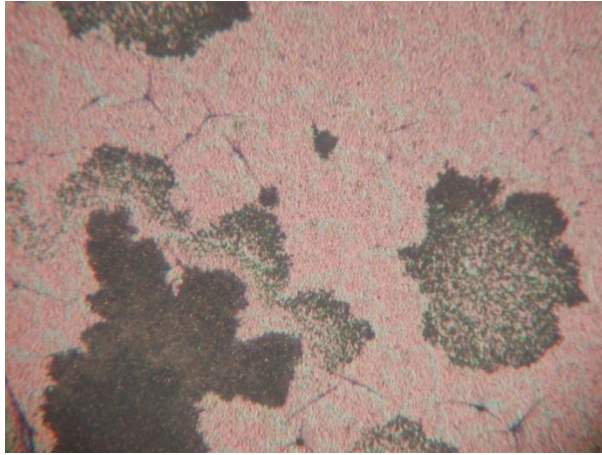
FT-IR (ATR)



XRF



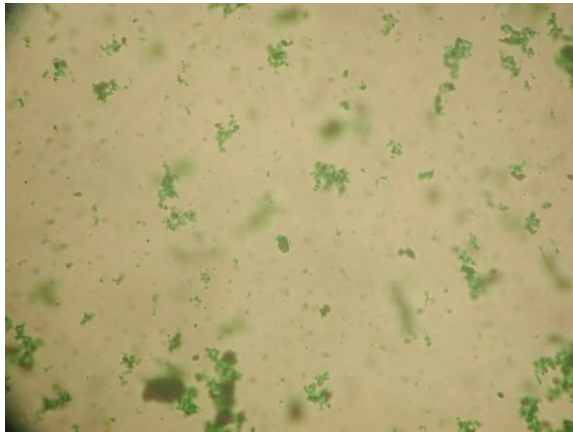
Verdancy



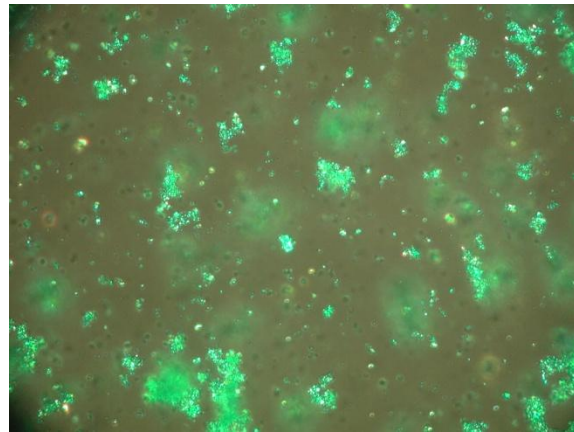
Bright Field, 100x



Dark Field, 100x

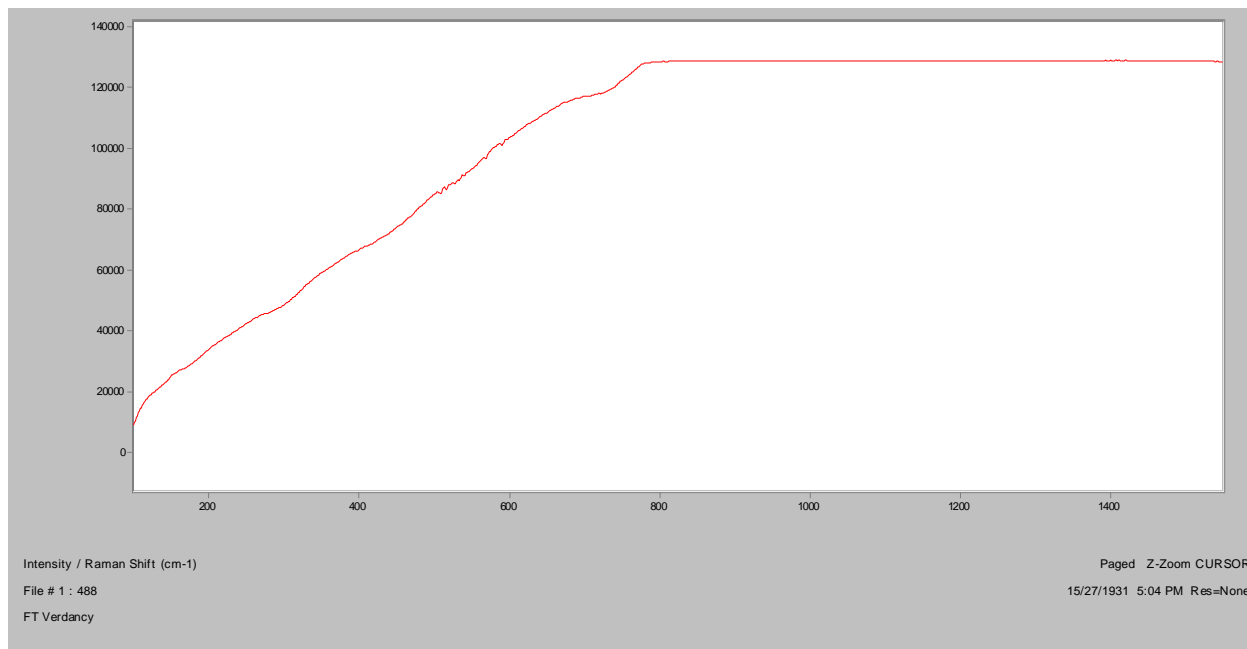


In RI 1.550, 400x

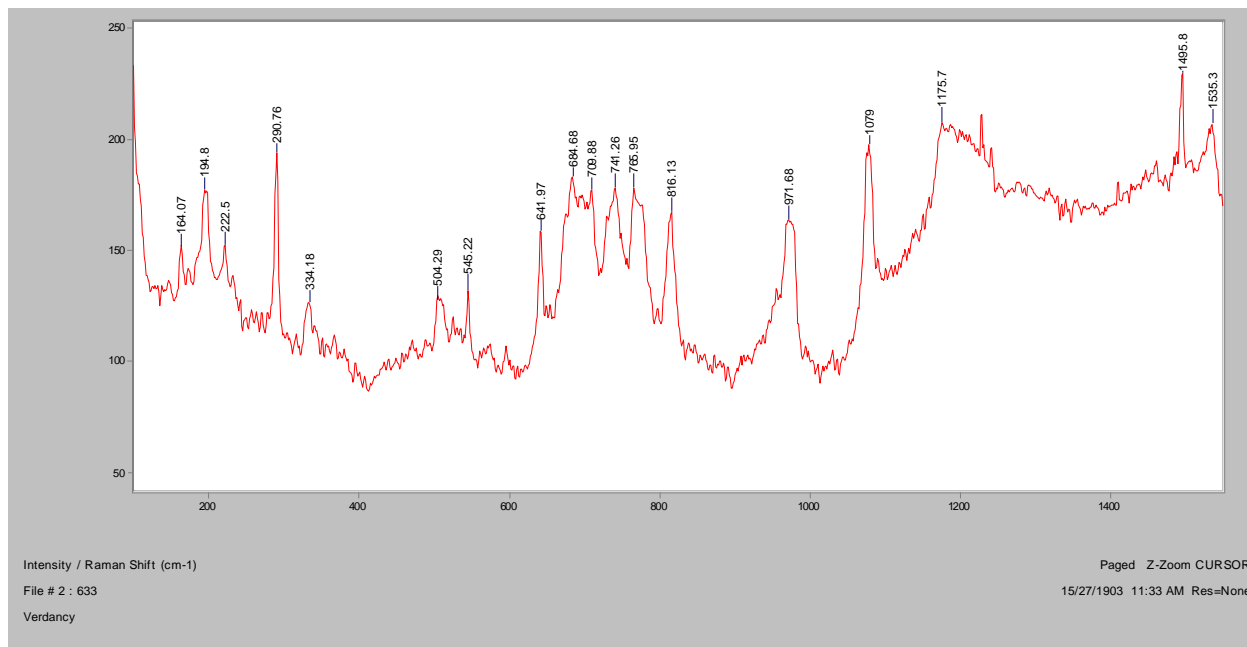


Crossed Polars, In RI 1.550, 400x

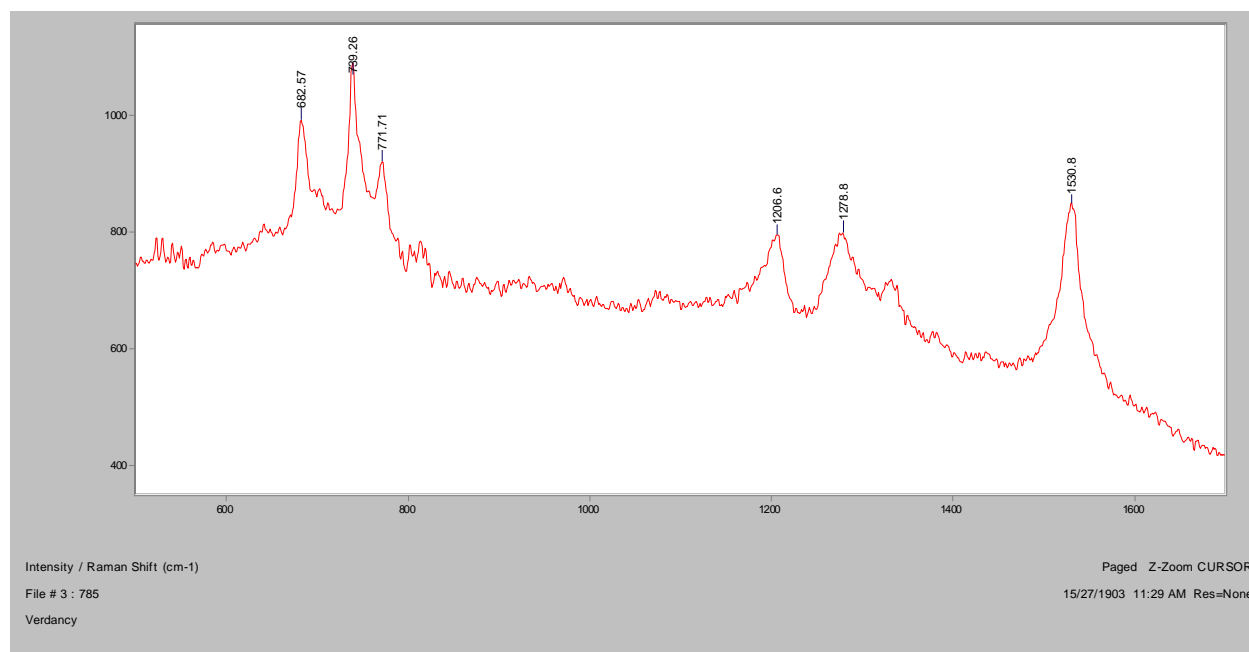
Normal Raman, 488nm



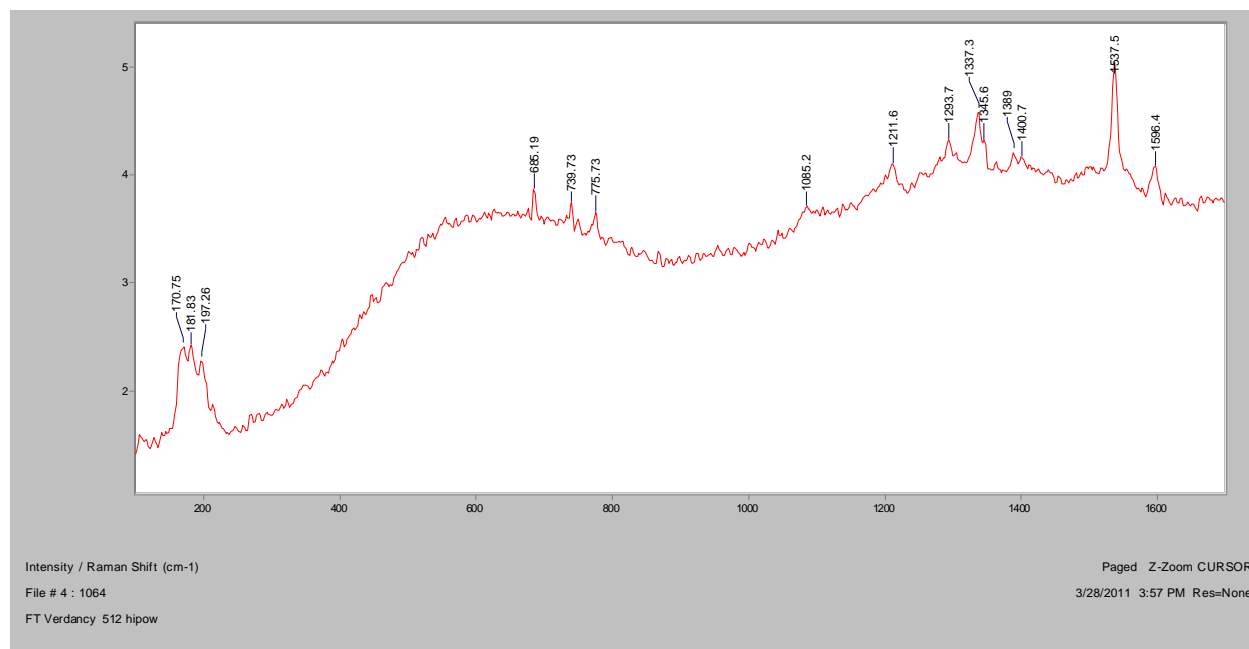
Normal Raman, 633nm



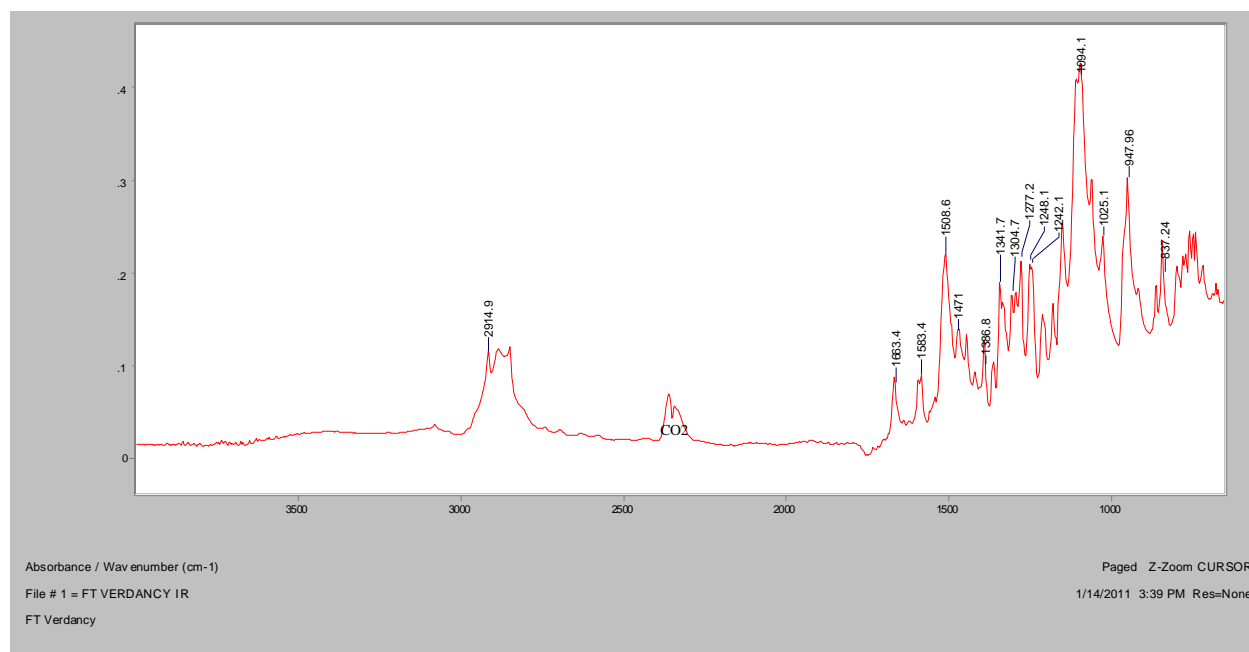
Normal Raman, 785nm



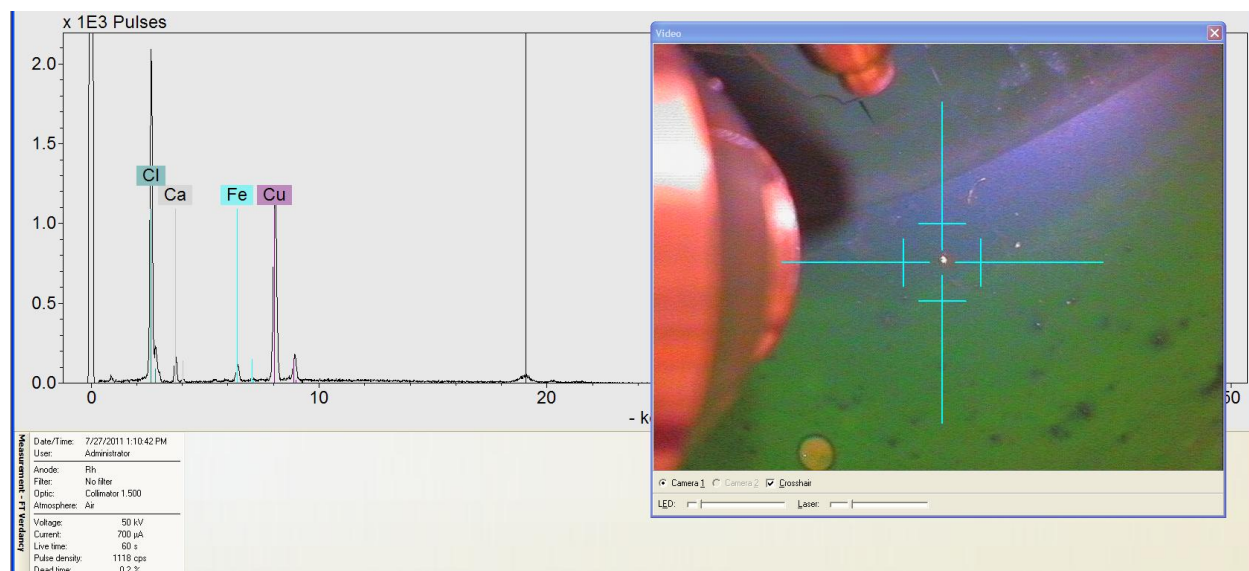
FT-Raman, 1064nm

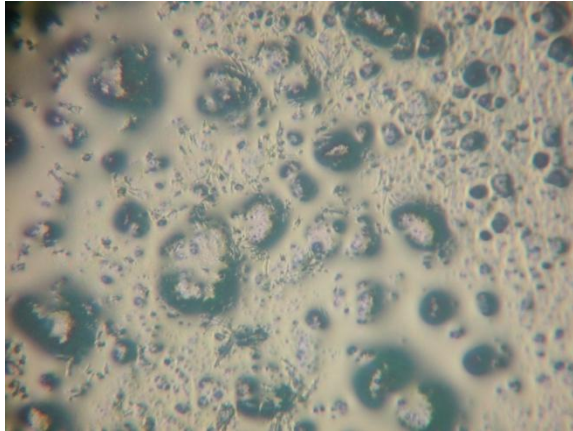
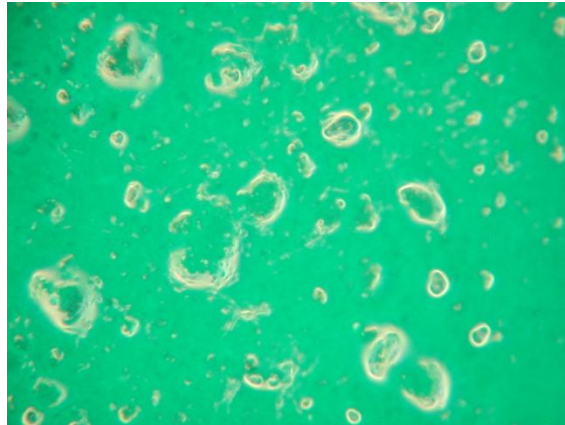
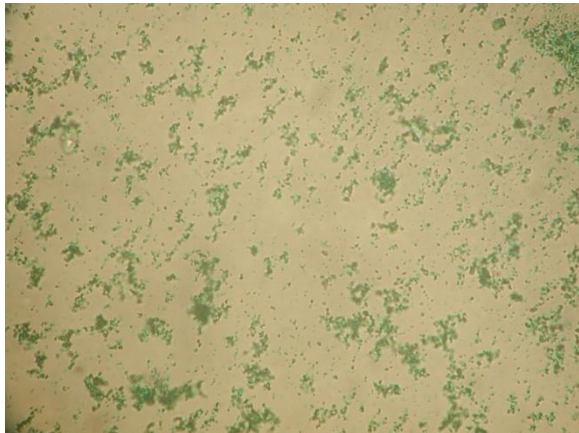
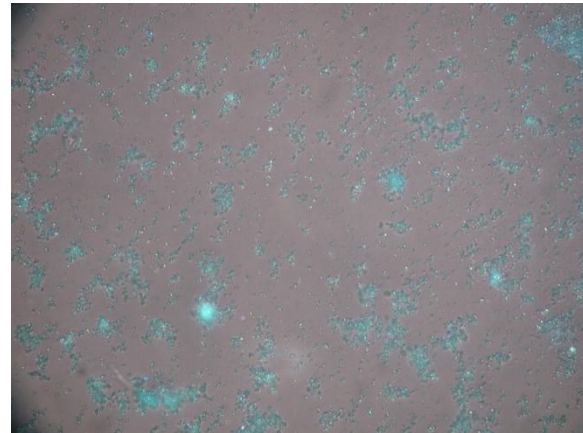


FT-IR (ATR)

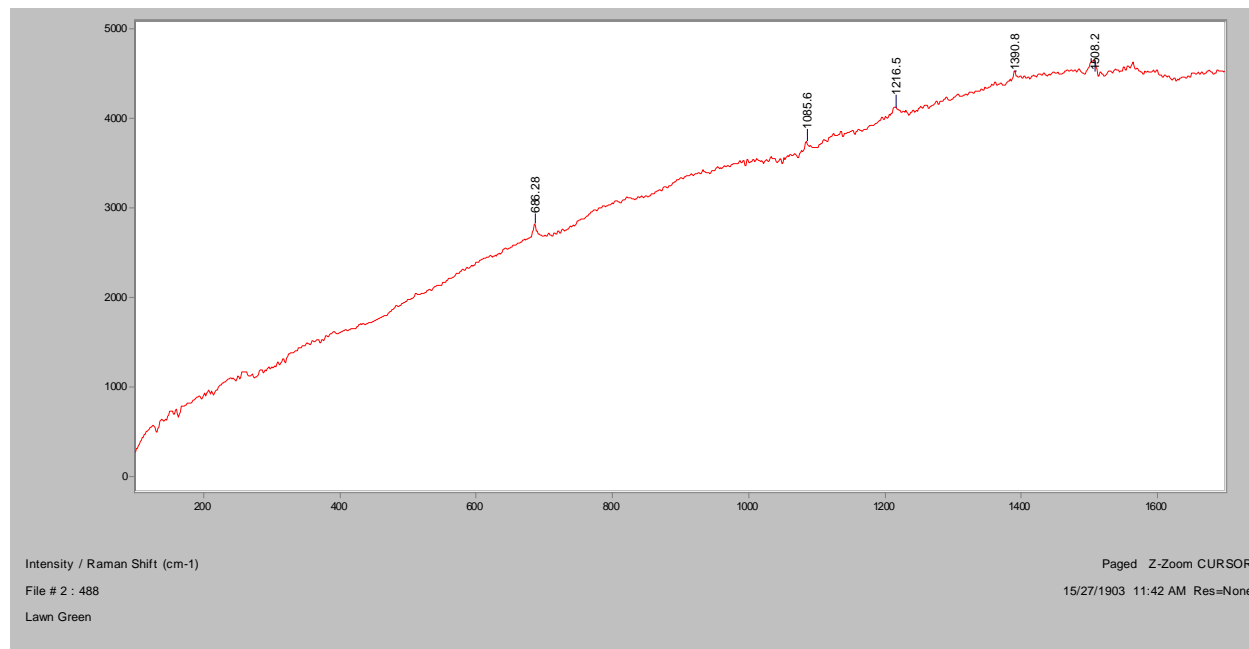


XRF

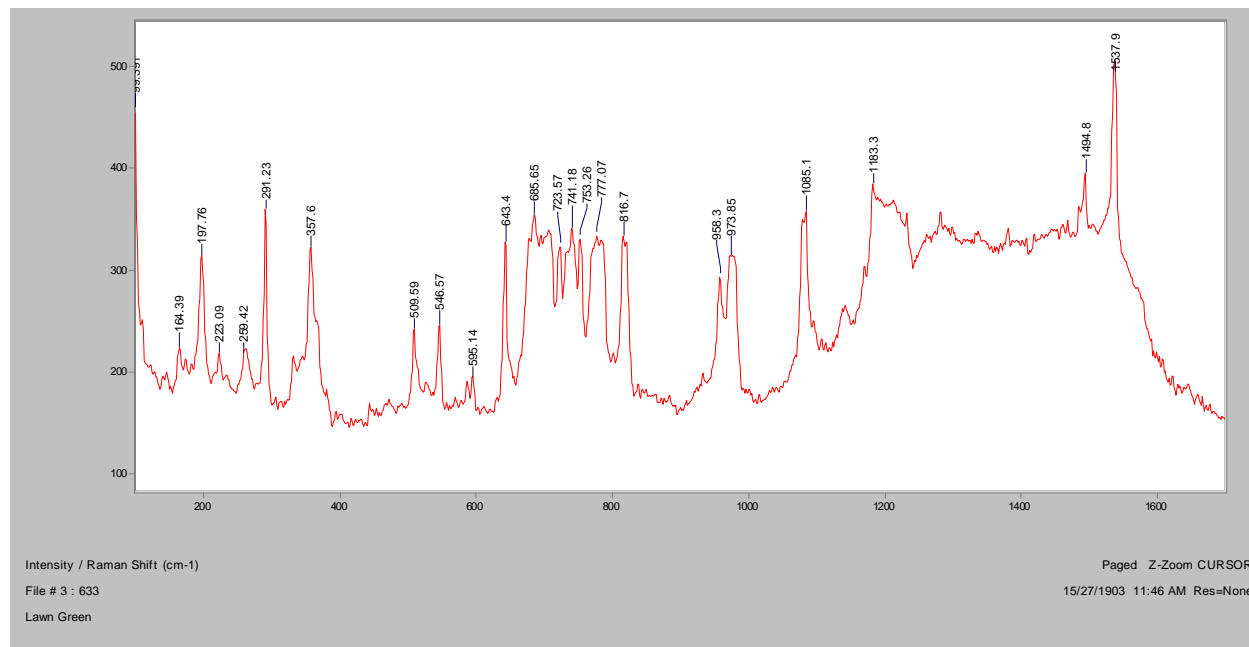


Lawn Green**Bright Field, 100x****Dark Field, 100x****In RI 1.550, 400x****Crossed Polars, In RI 1.550, 400x**

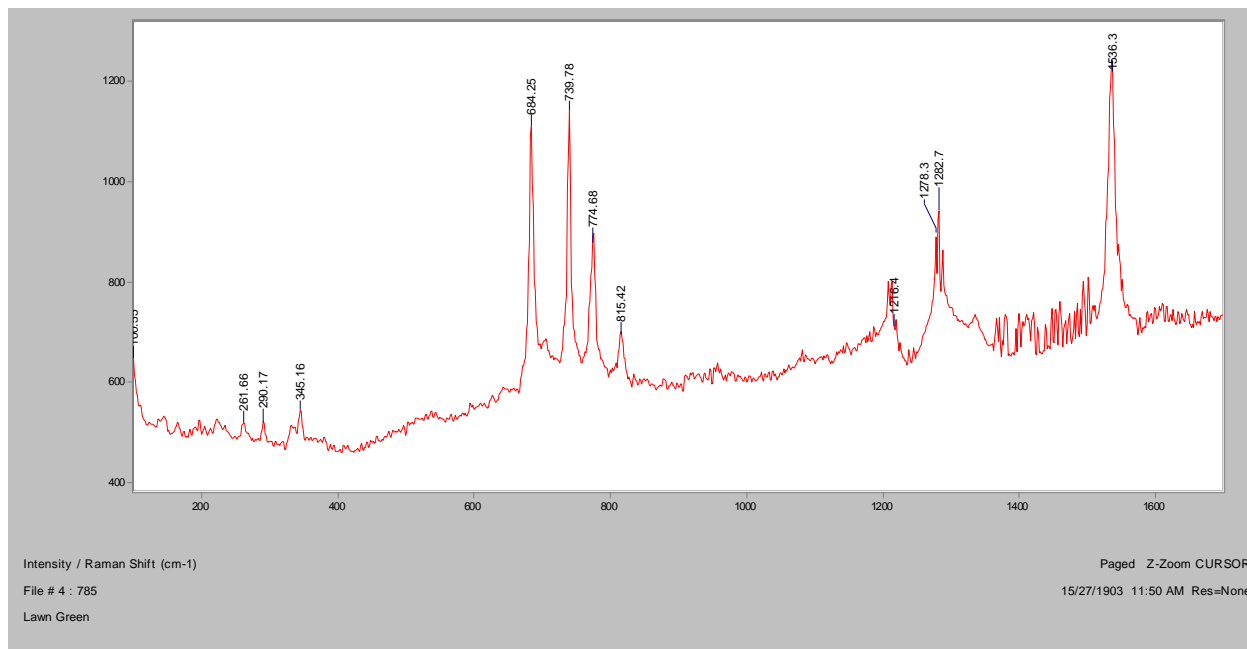
Normal Raman, 488nm



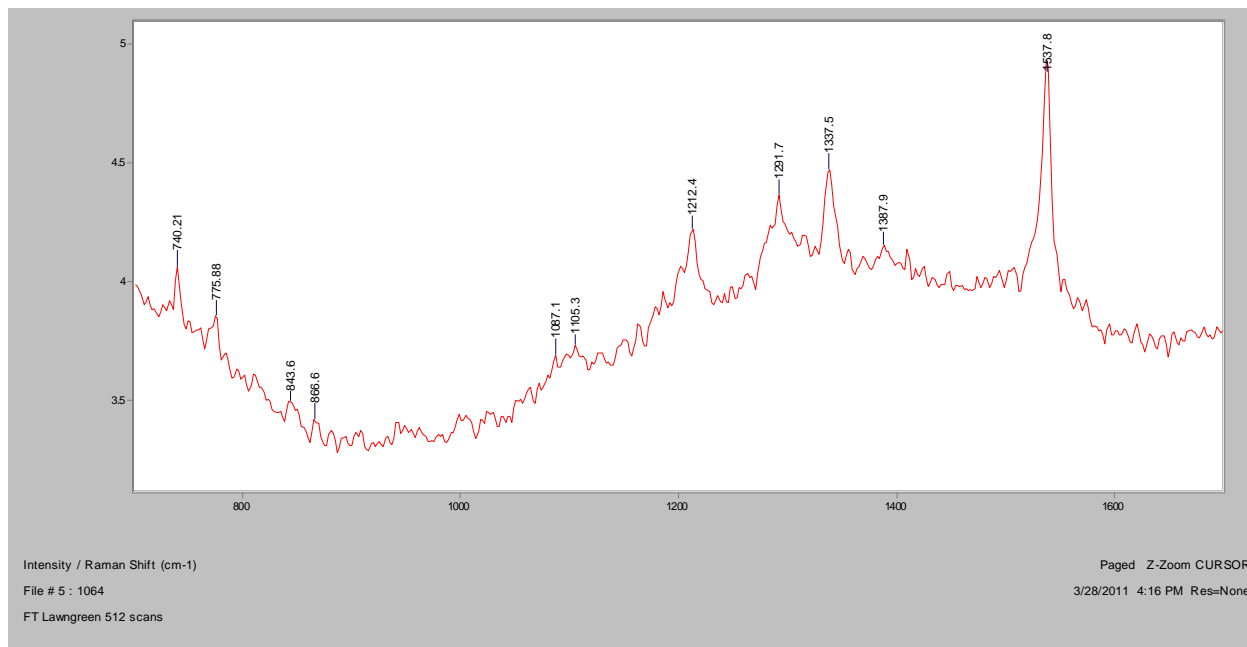
Normal Raman, 633nm



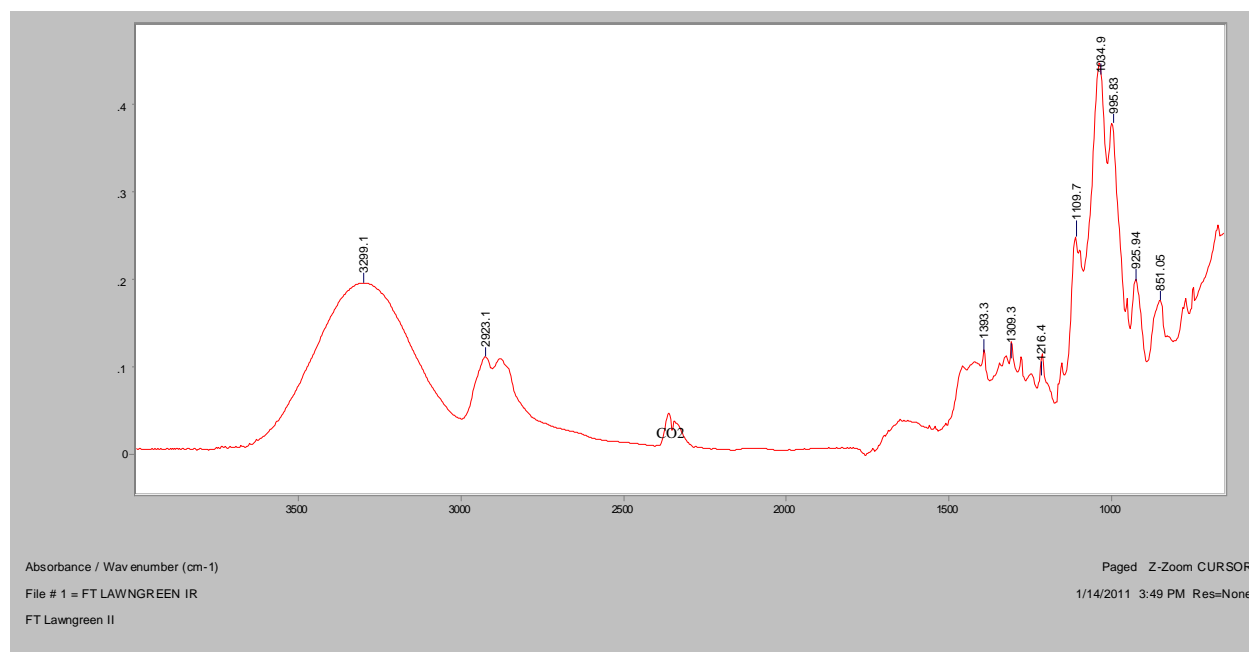
Normal Raman, 785nm



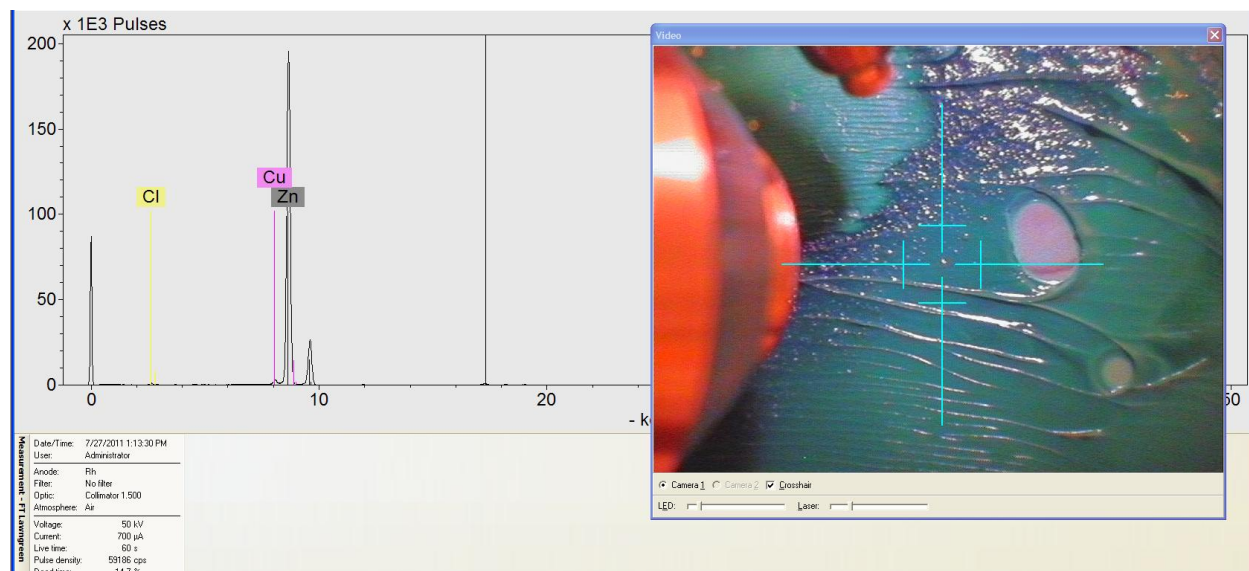
FT-Raman, 1064nm



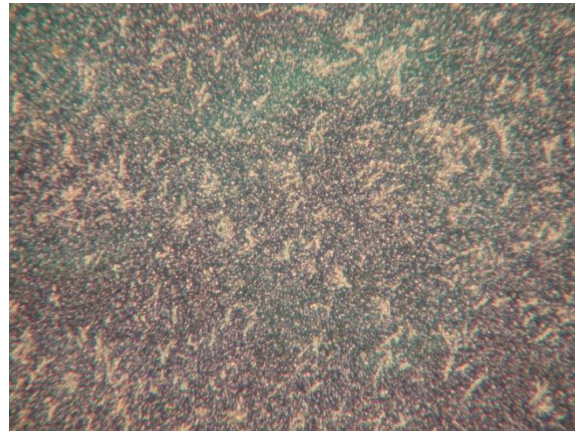
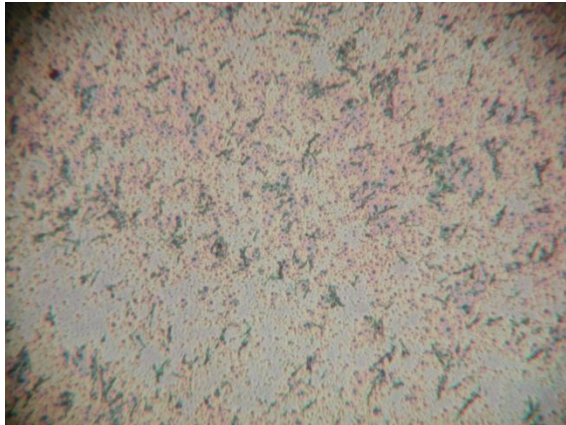
FT-IR (ATR)



XRF

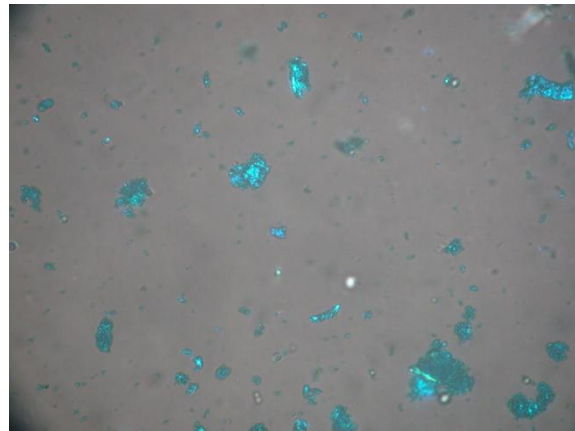
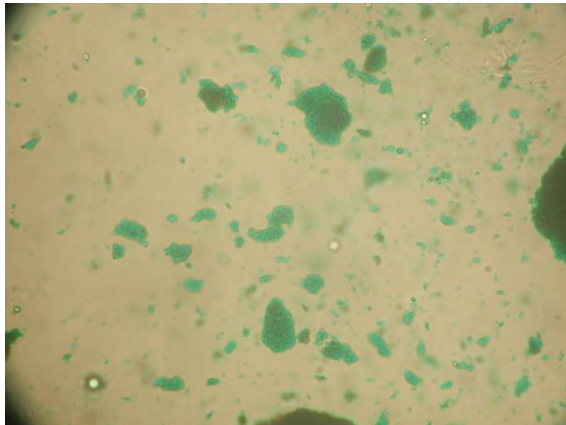


Dark Green



Bright Field, 100x

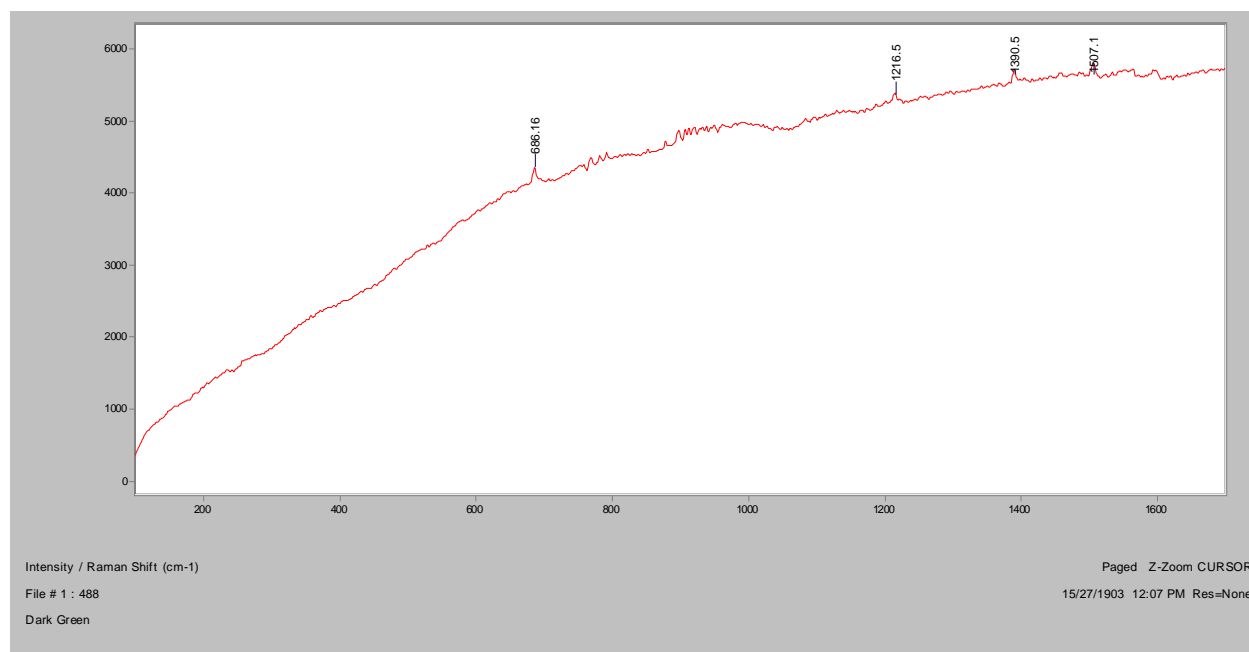
Dark Field, 100x



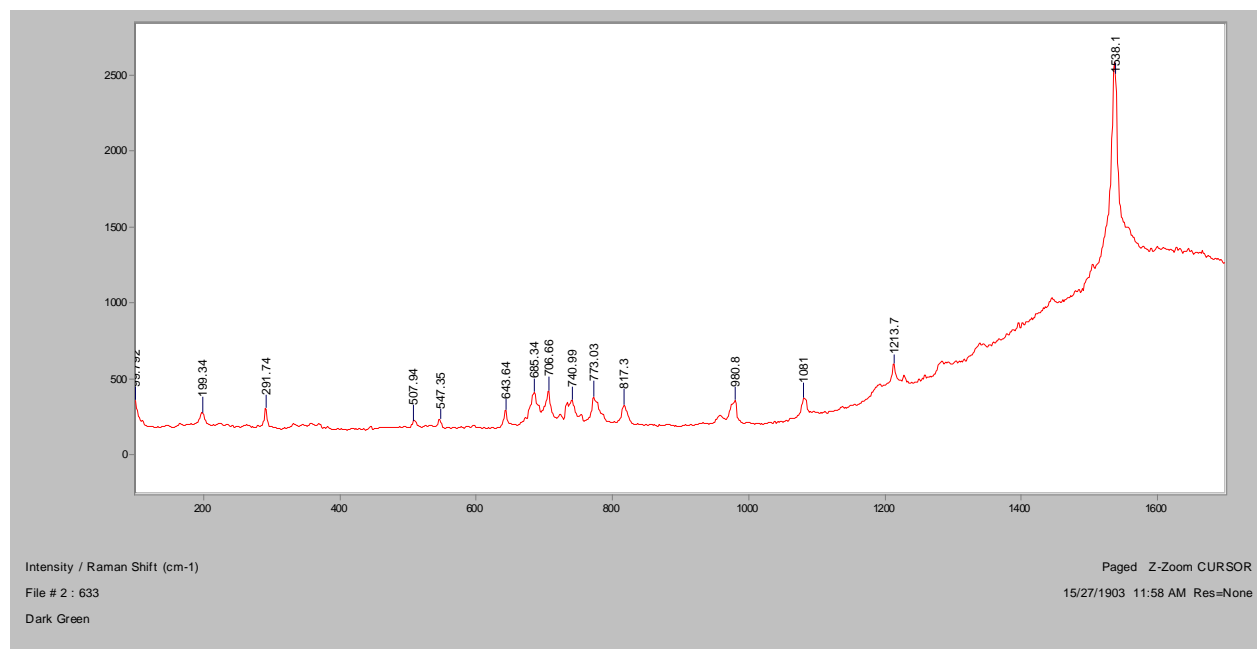
In RI 1.550, 400x

Crossed Polars, In RI 1.550, 400x

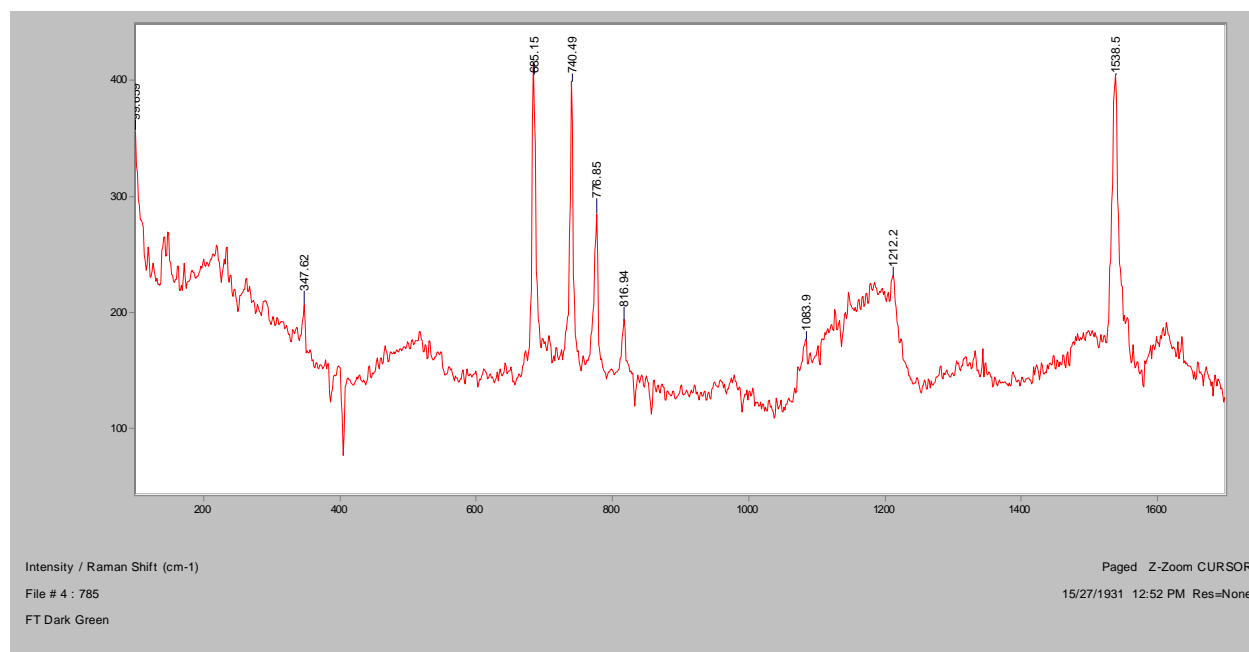
Normal Raman, 488nm



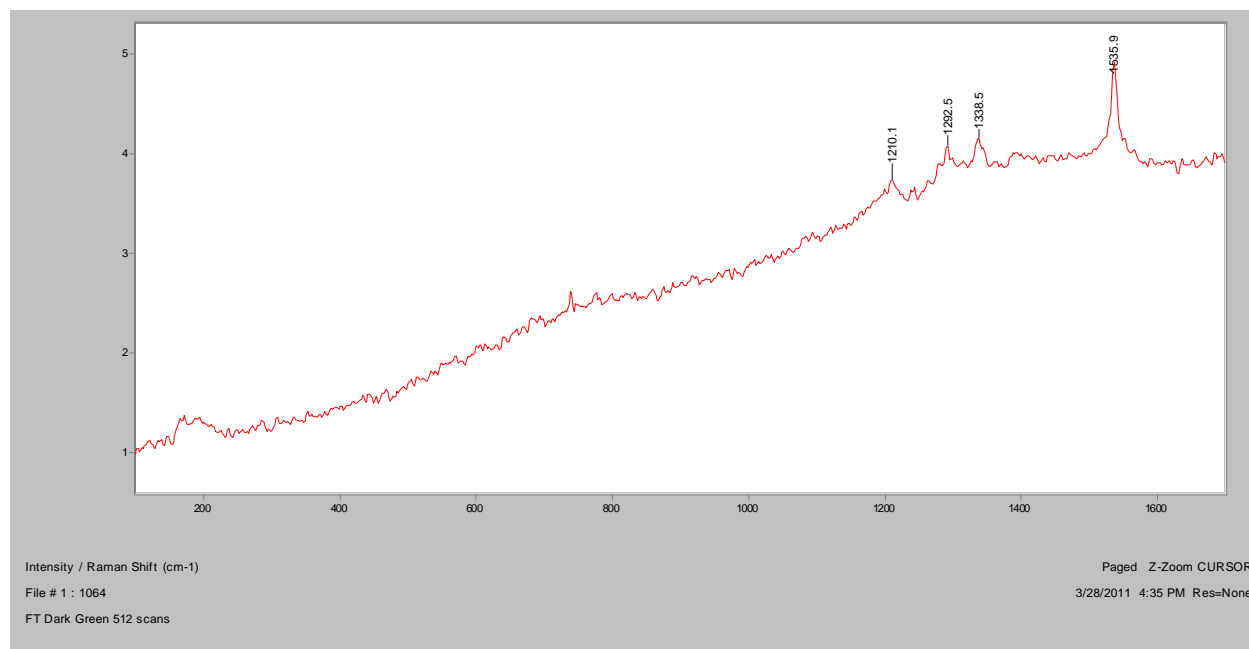
Normal Raman, 633nm



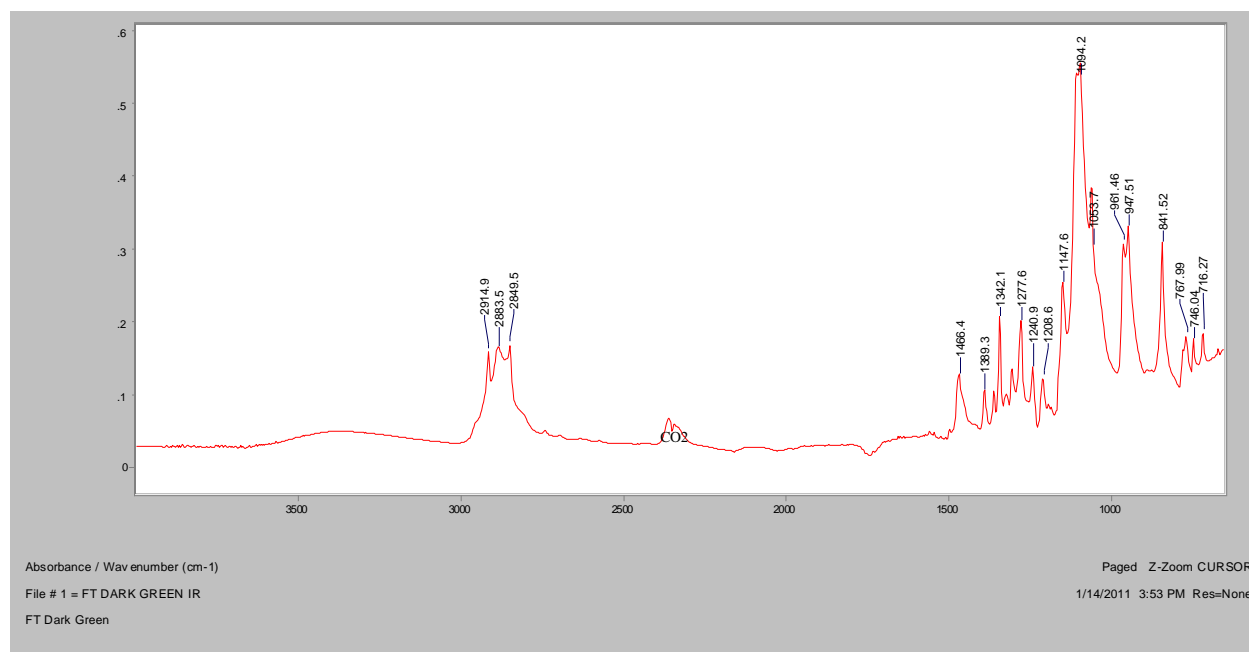
Normal Raman, 785nm



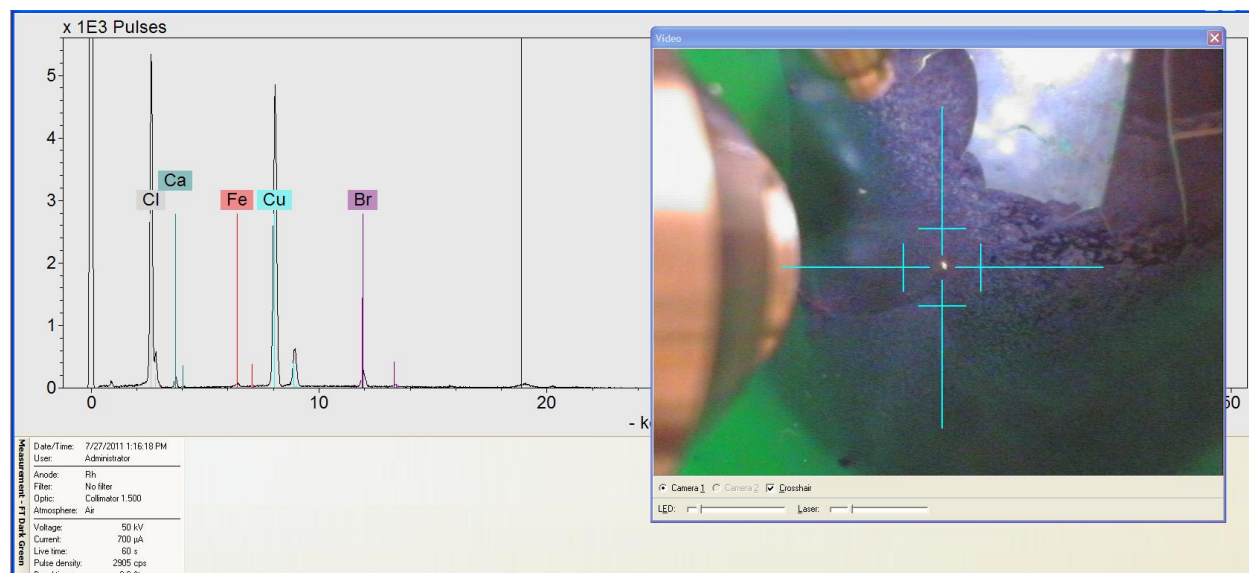
FT-Raman, 1064nm

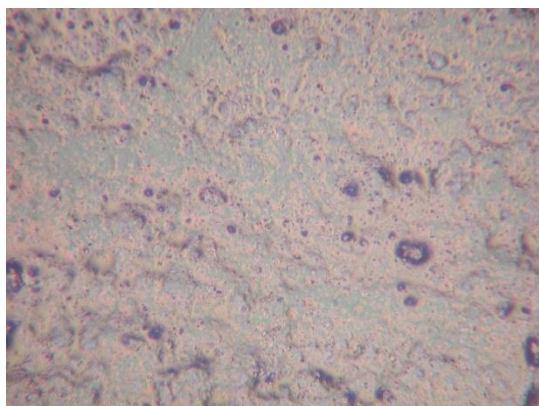
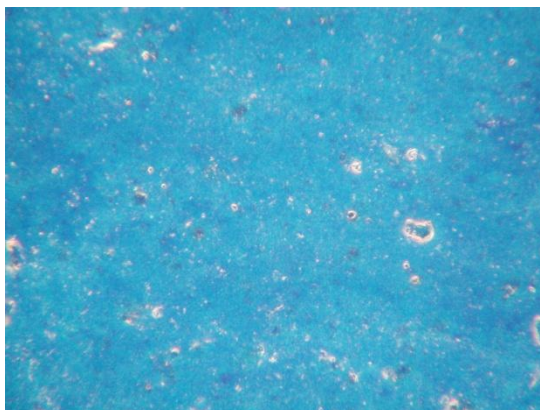
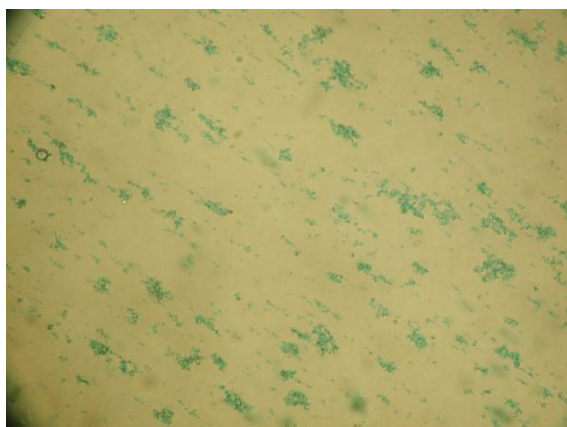
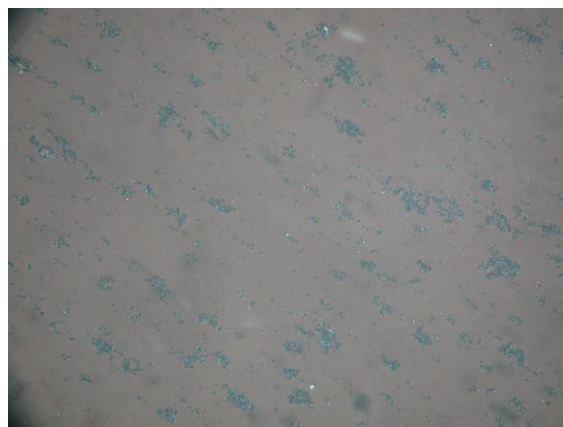


FT-IR (ATR)

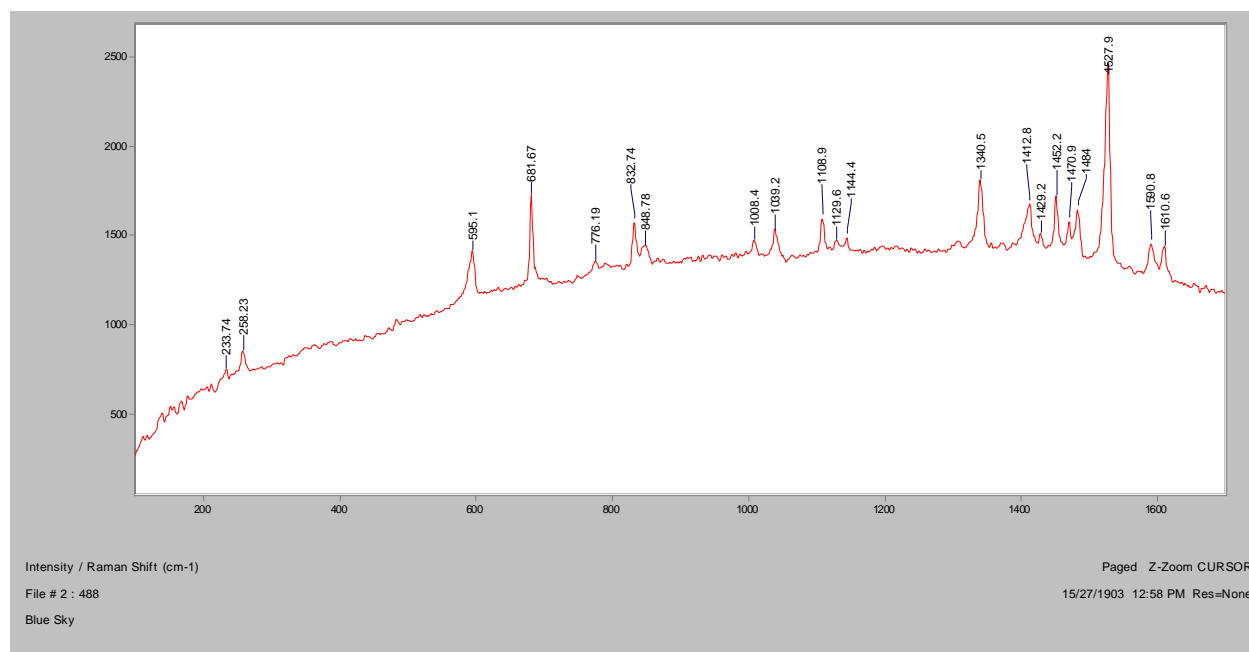


XRF

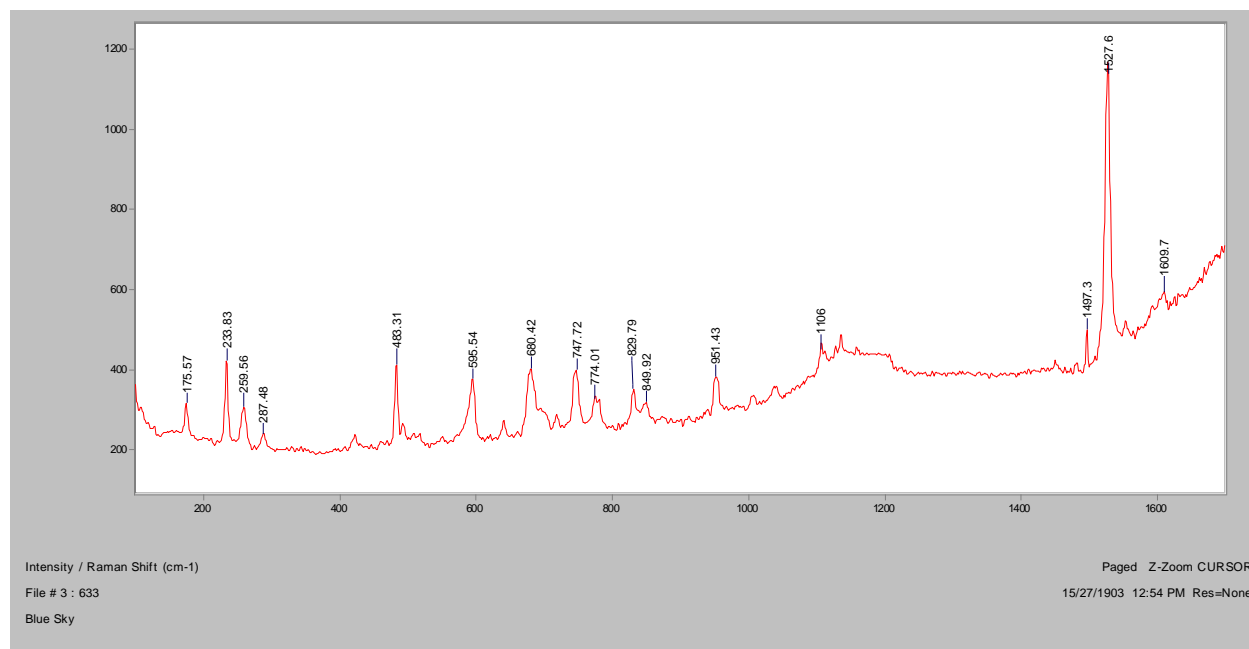


Blue Sky**Bright Field, 100x****Dark Field, 100x****In RI 1.550, 400x****Crossed Polars, In RI 1.550, 400x**

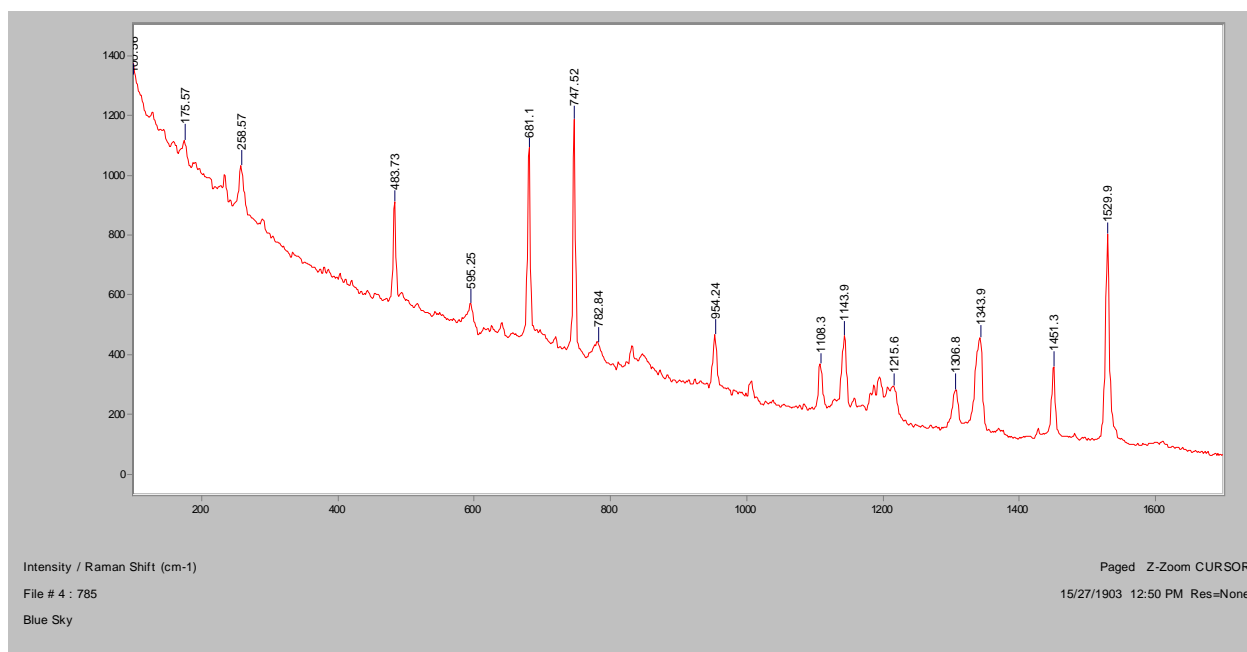
Normal Raman, 488nm



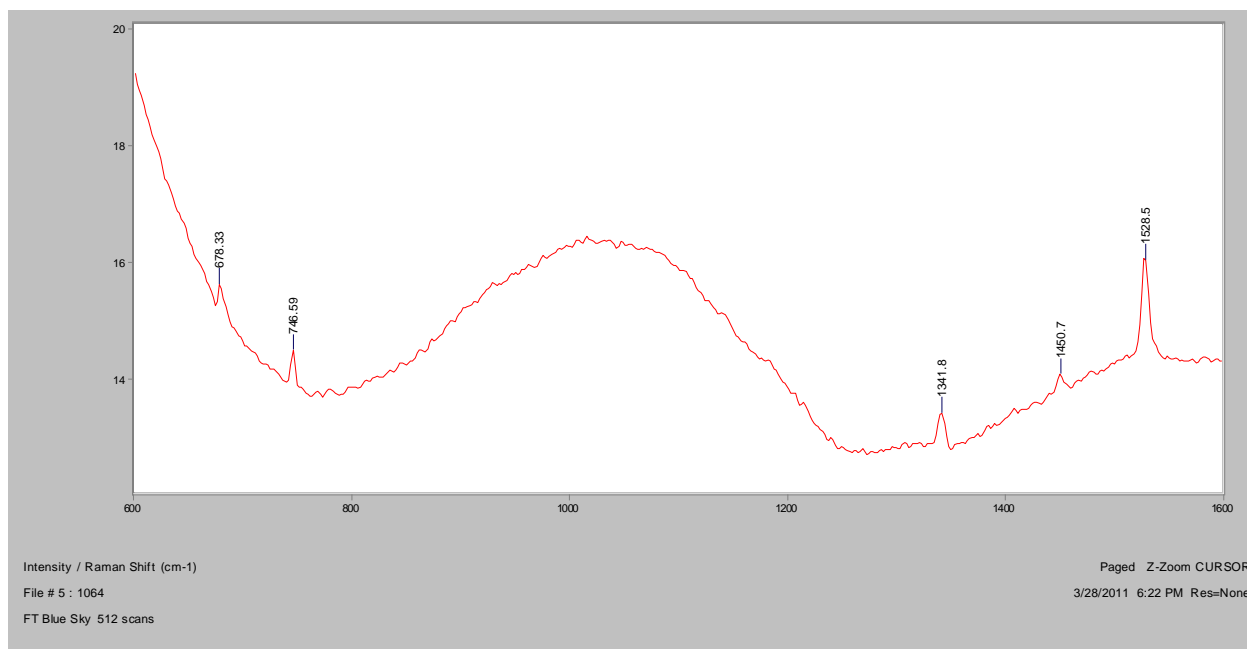
Normal Raman, 633nm



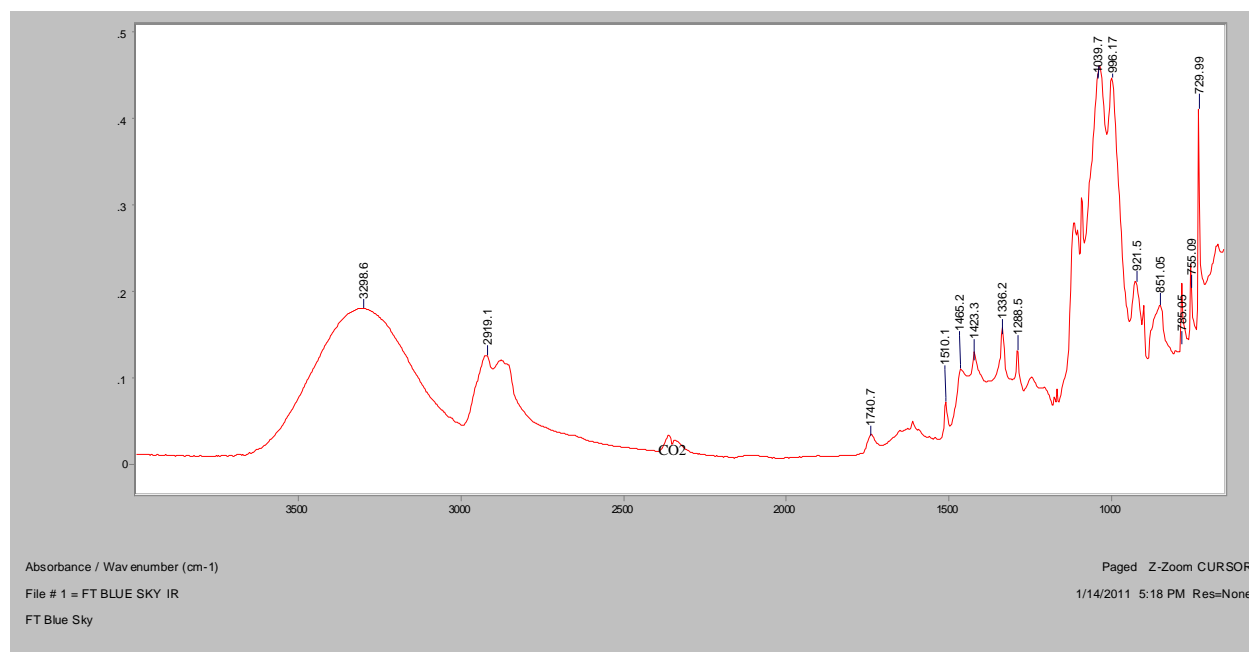
Normal Raman, 785nm



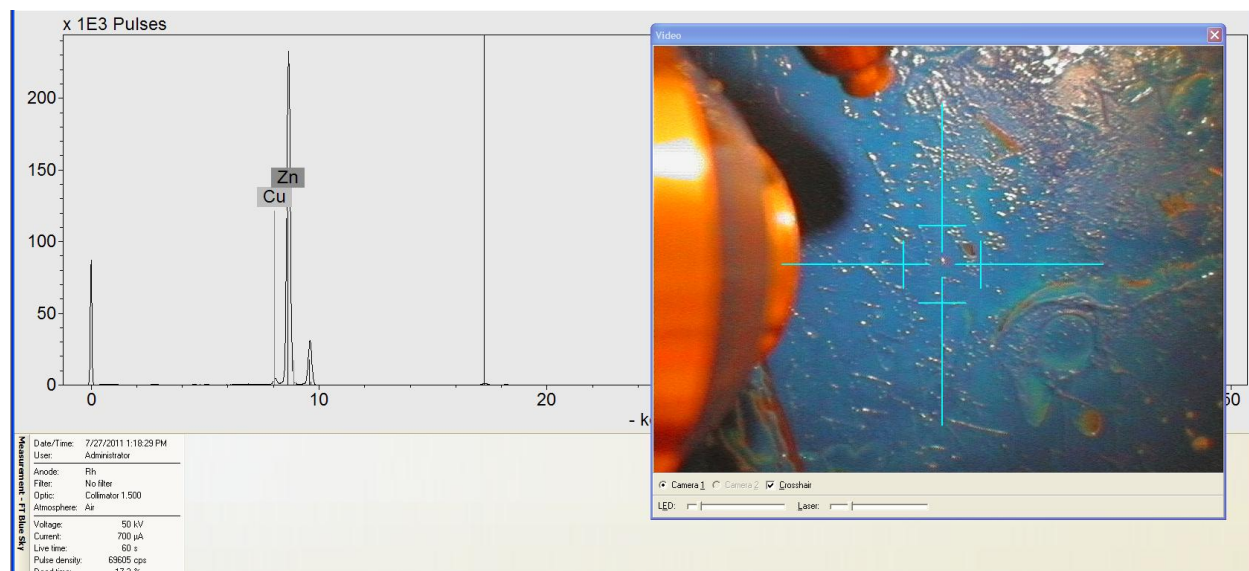
FT-Raman, 1064nm

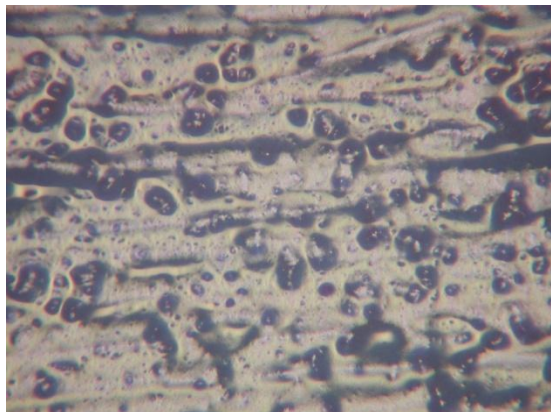
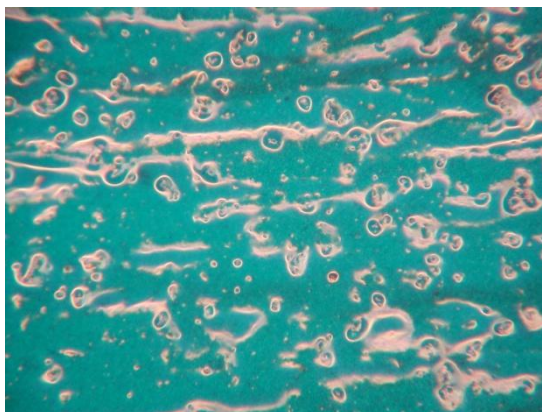
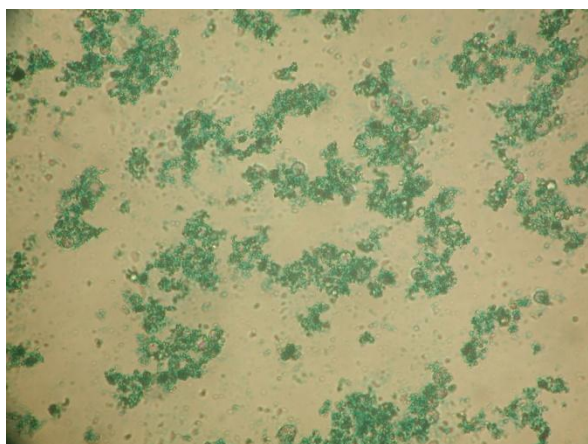
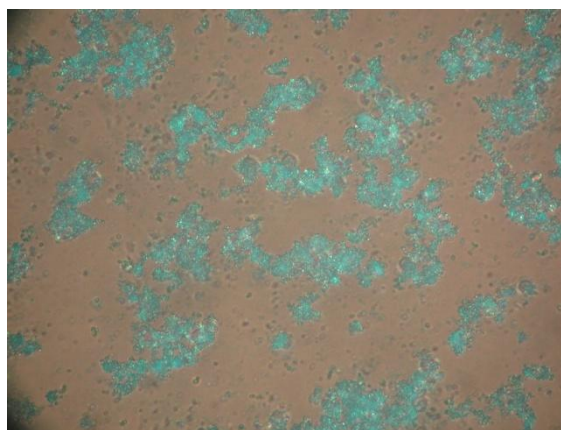


FT-IR (ATR)

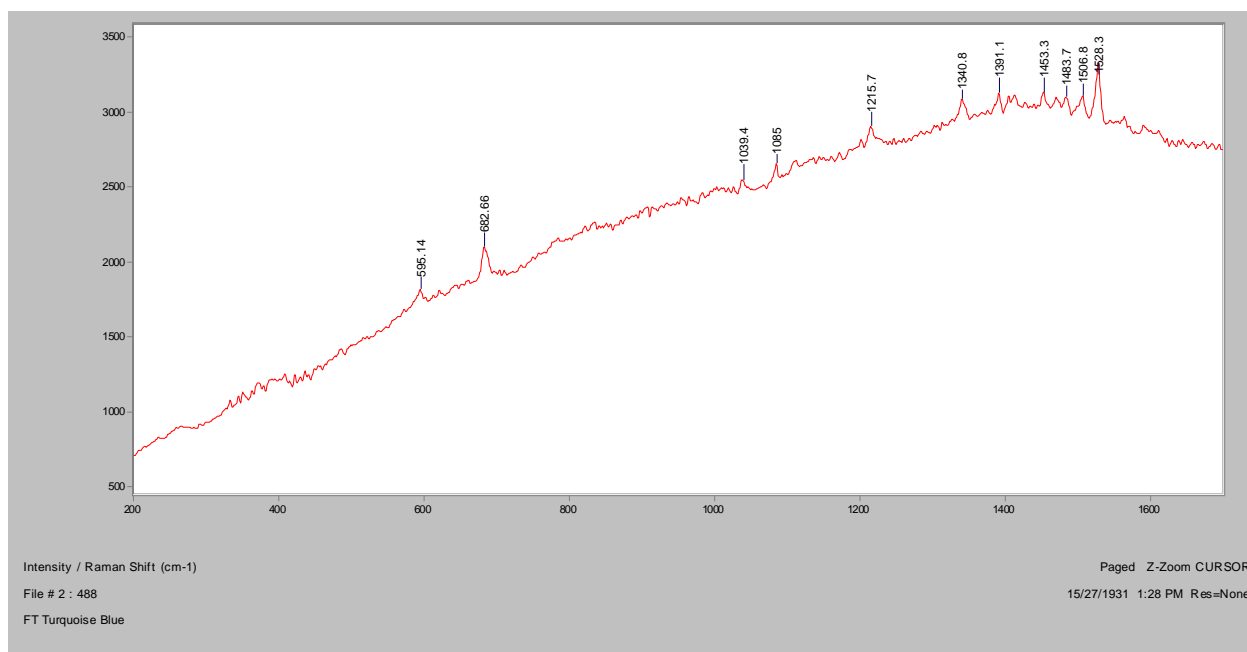


XRF

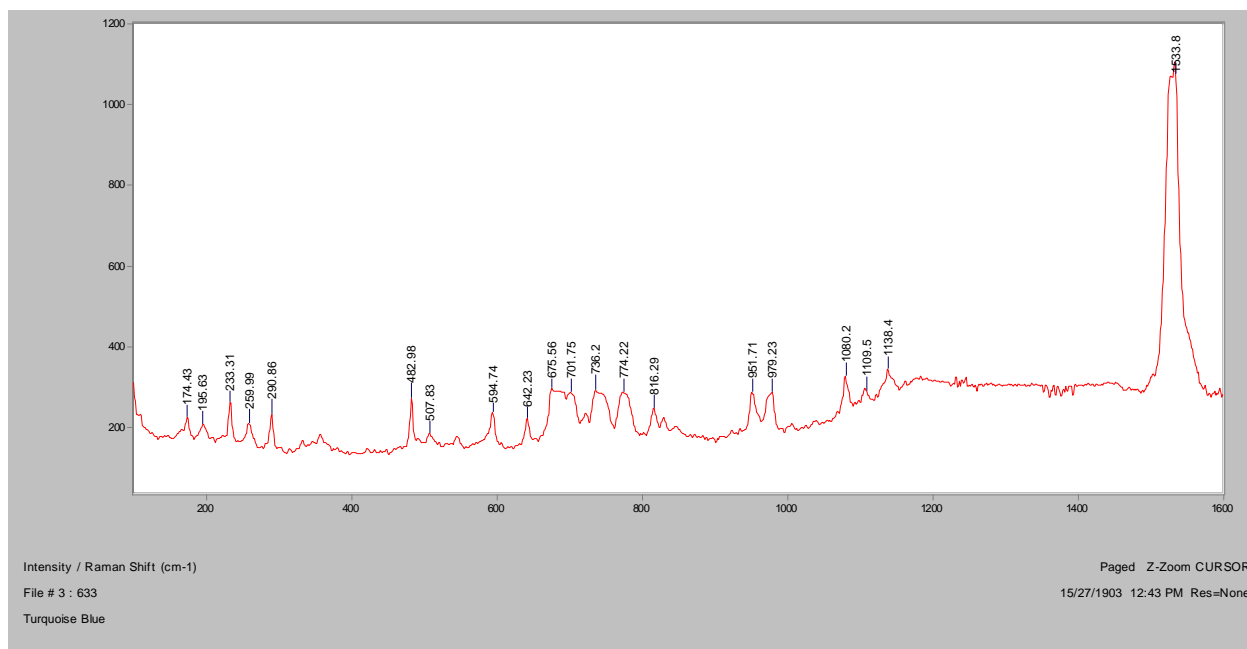


Turquoise Blue**Bright Field, 100x****Dark Field, 100x****In RI 1.550, 400x****Crossed Polars, In RI 1.550, 400x**

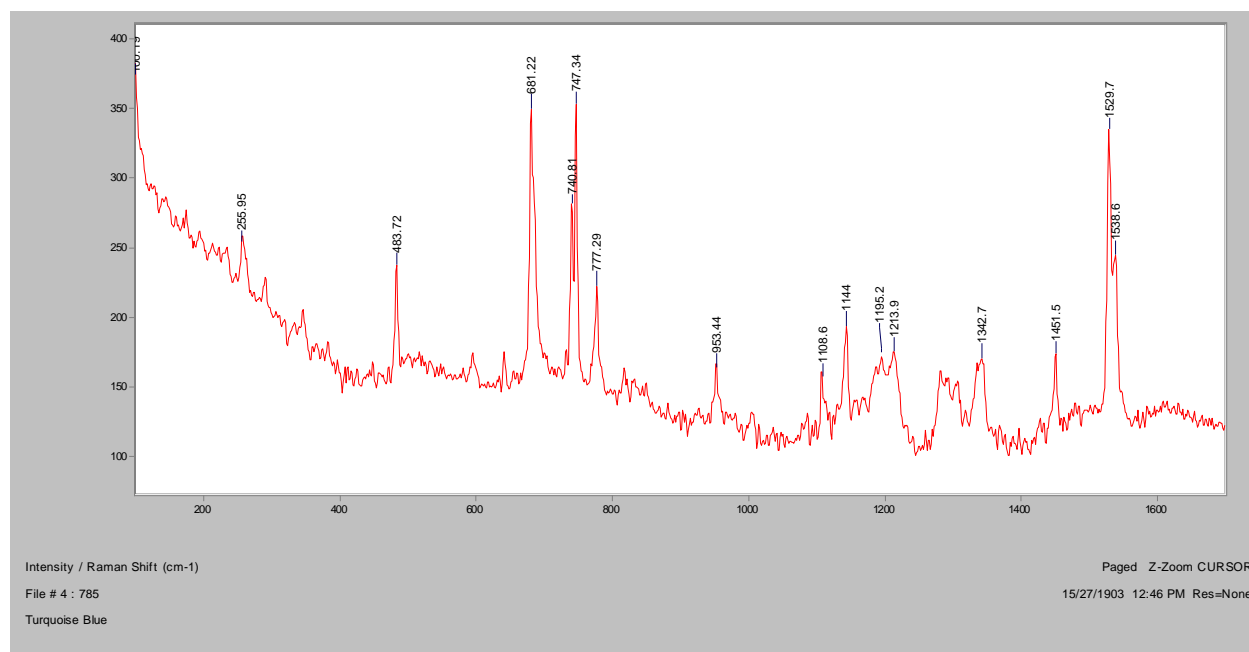
Normal Raman, 488nm



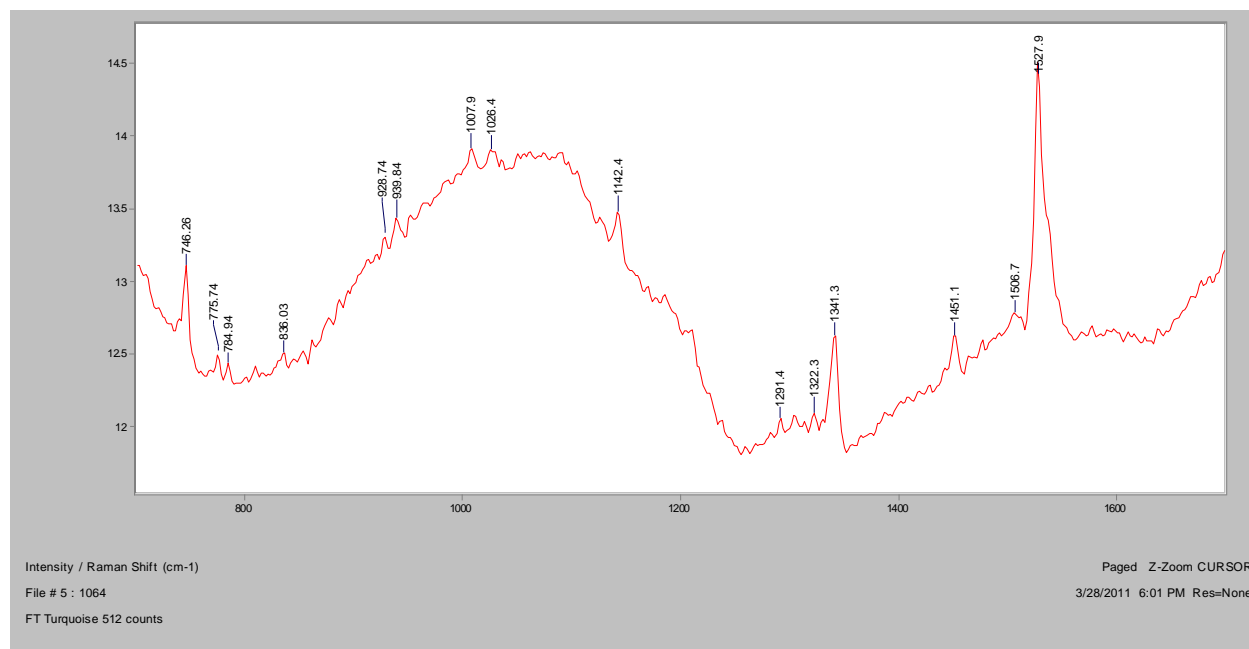
Normal Raman, 633nm



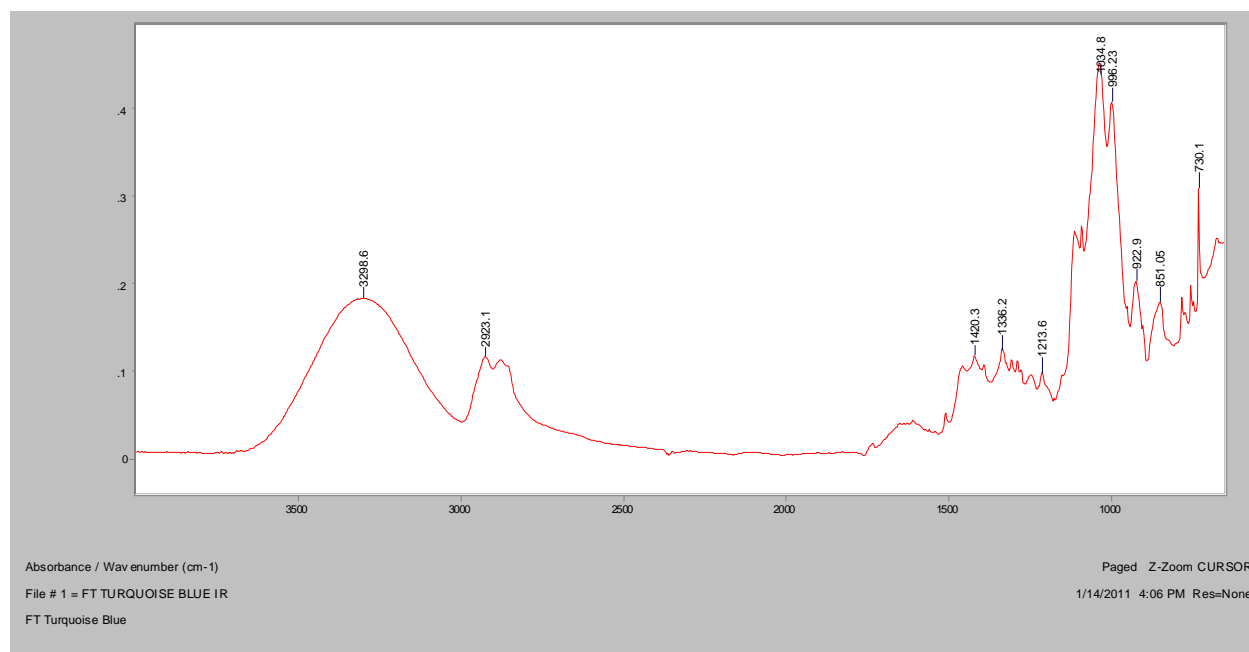
Normal Raman, 785nm



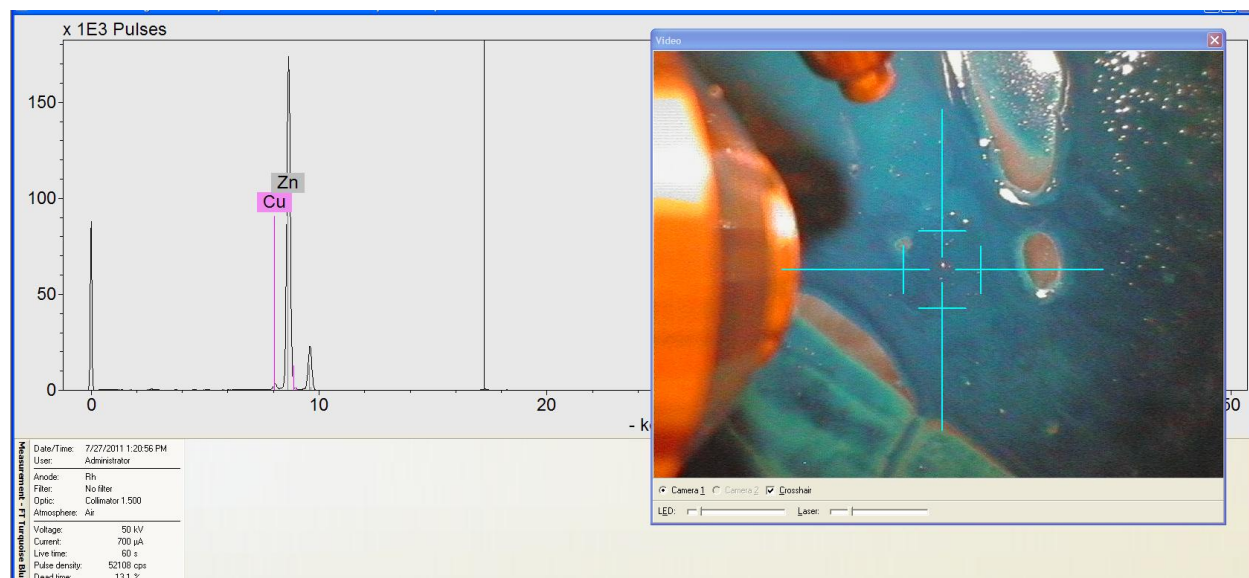
FT-Raman, 1064nm

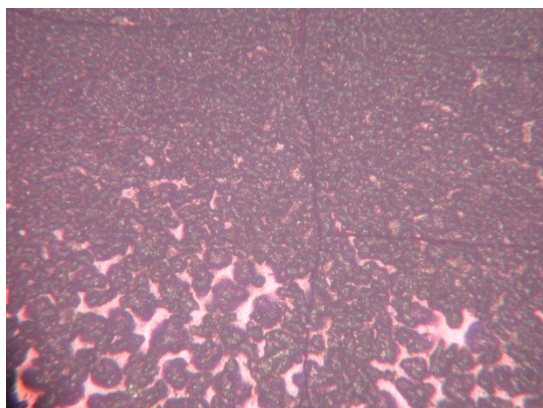
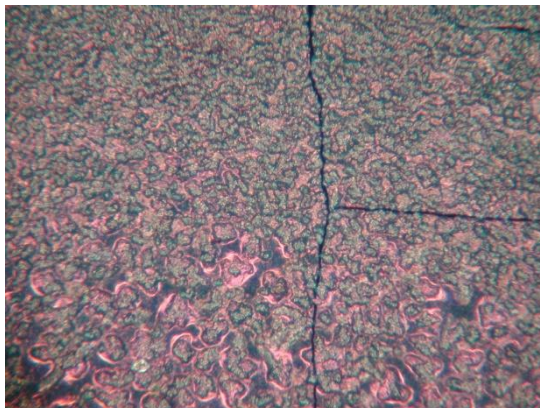
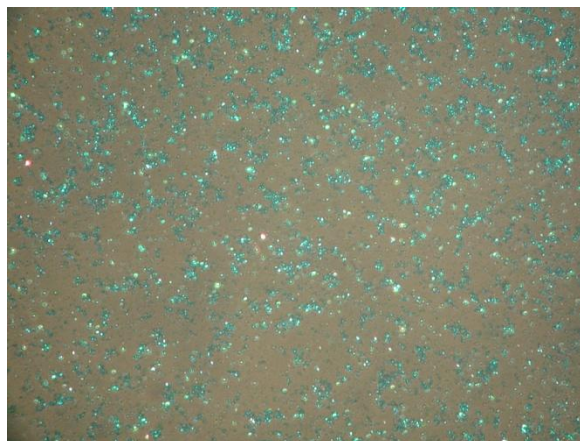


FT-IR (ATR)

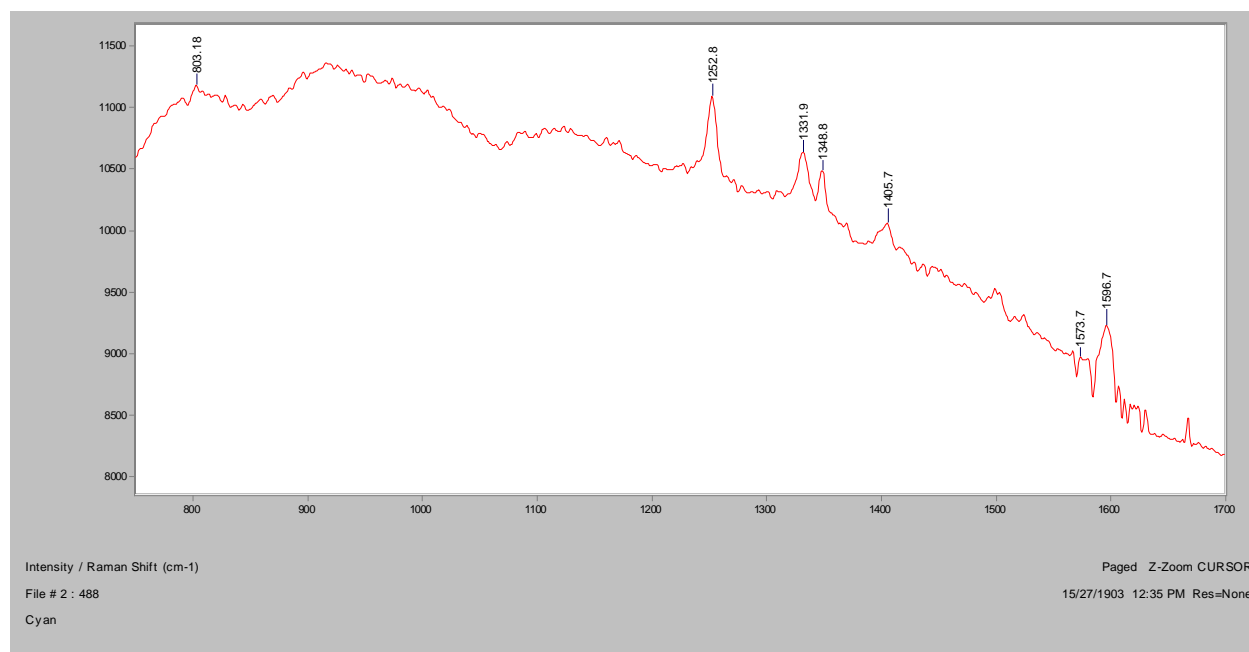


XRF

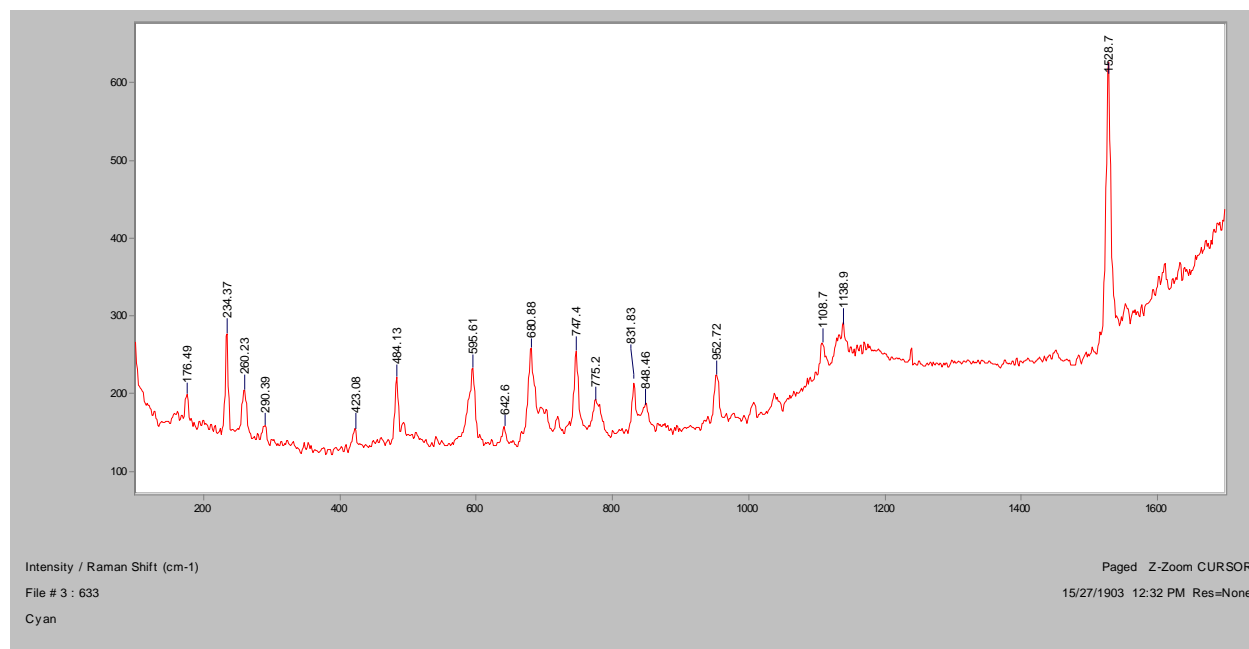


Cyan**Bright Field, 100x****Dark Field, 100x****In RI 1.550, 400x****Crossed Polars, In RI 1.550, 400x**

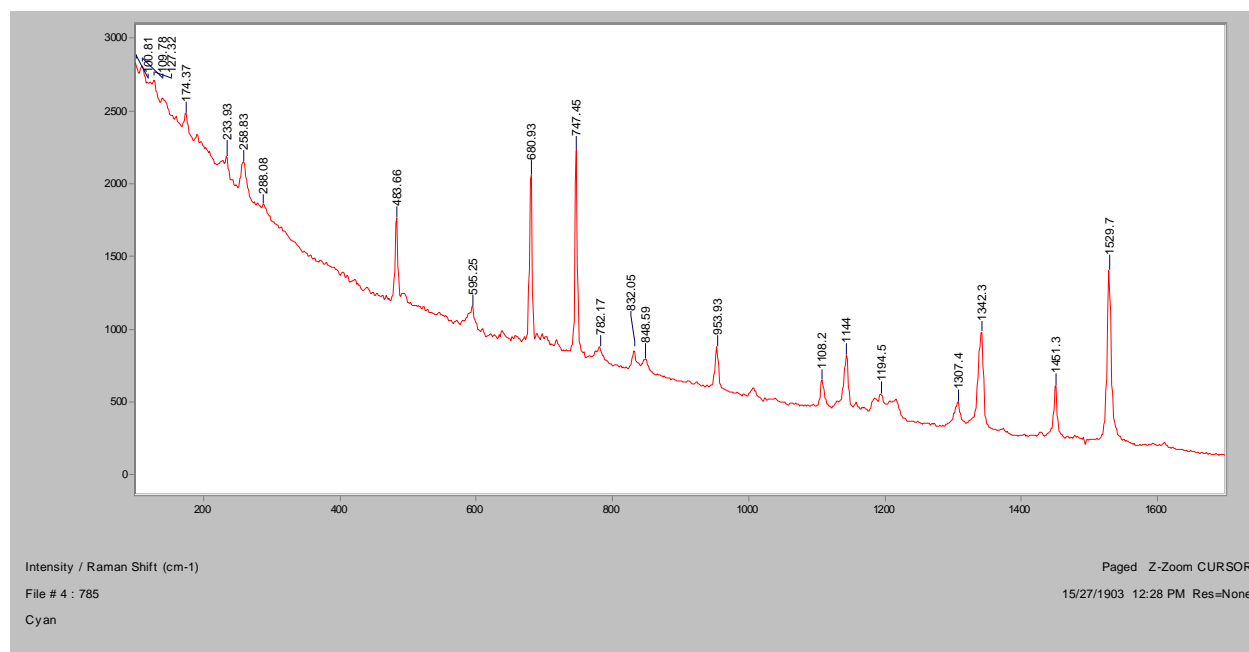
Normal Raman, 488nm



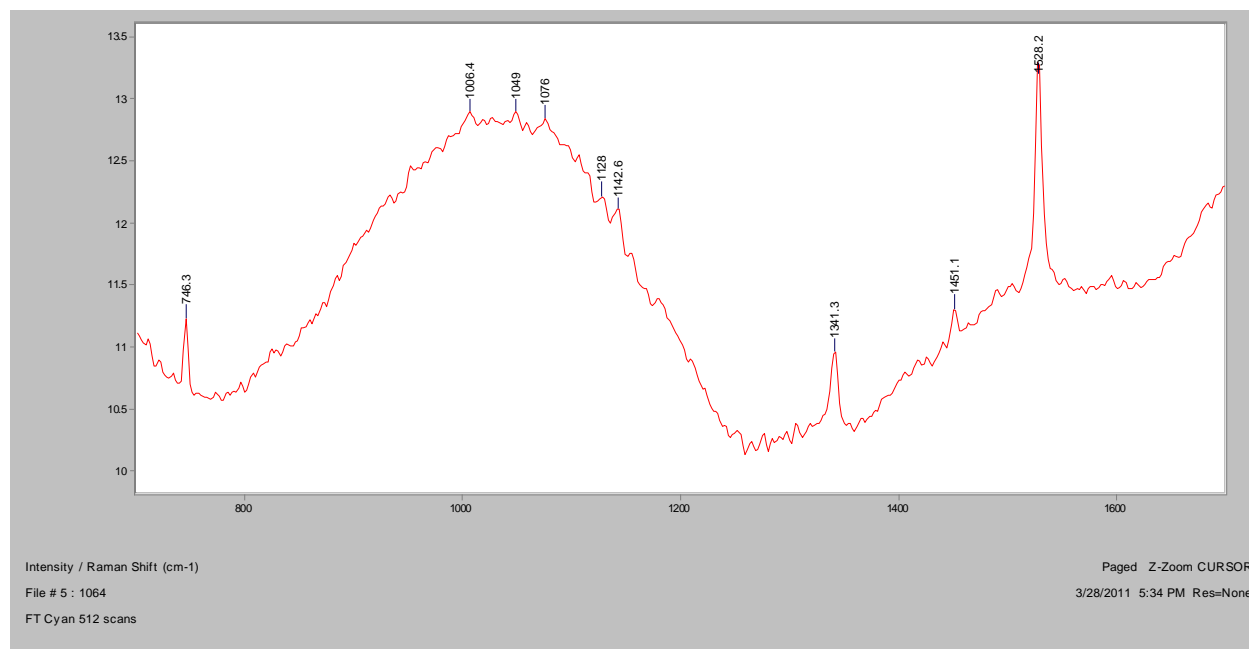
Normal Raman, 633nm



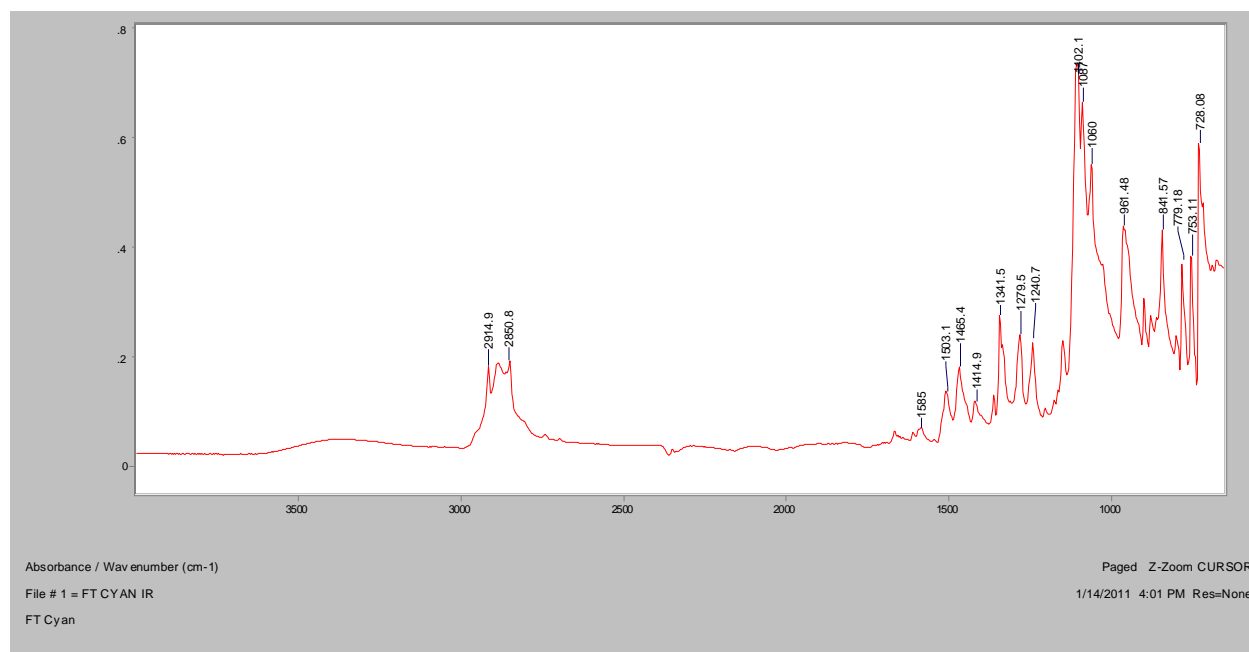
Normal Raman, 785nm



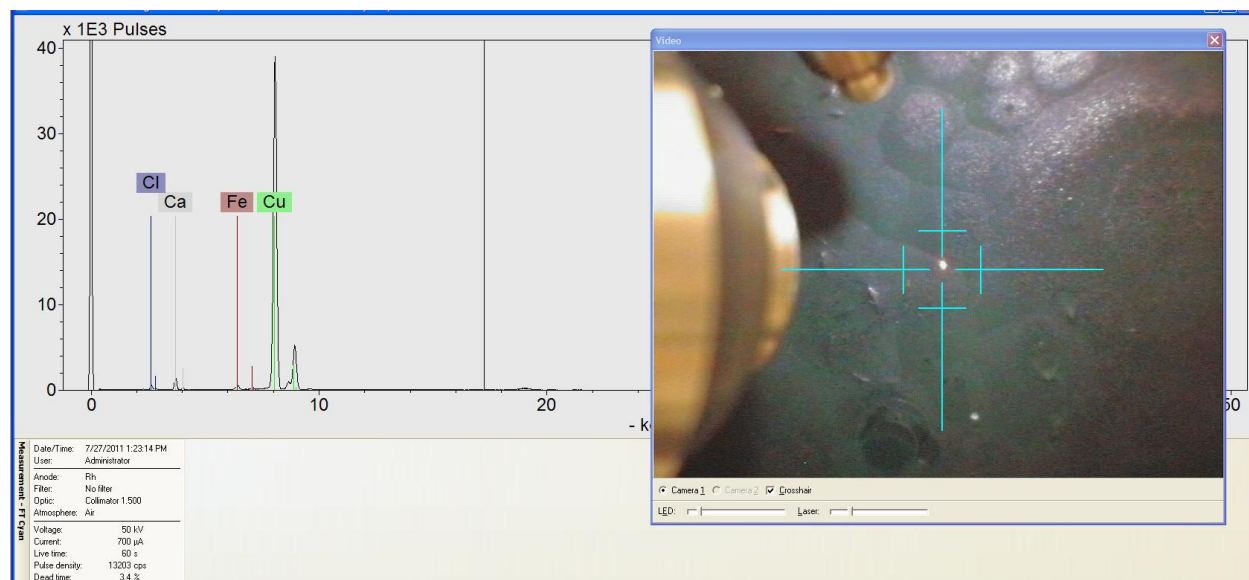
FT-Raman, 1064nm



FT-IR (ATR)



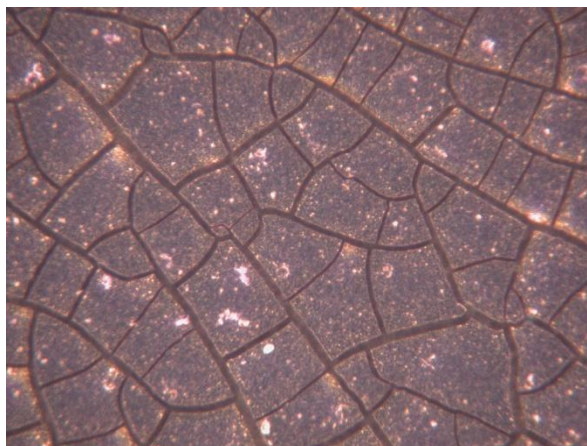
XRF



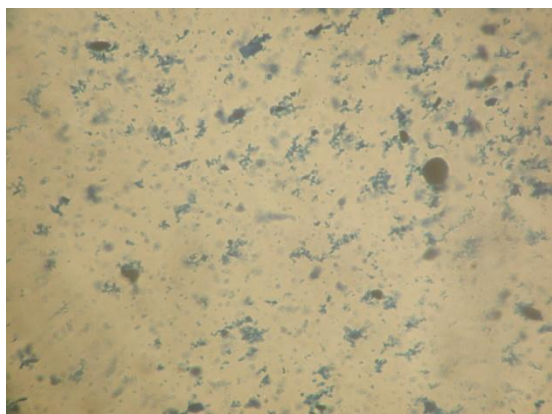
Dark Cyan



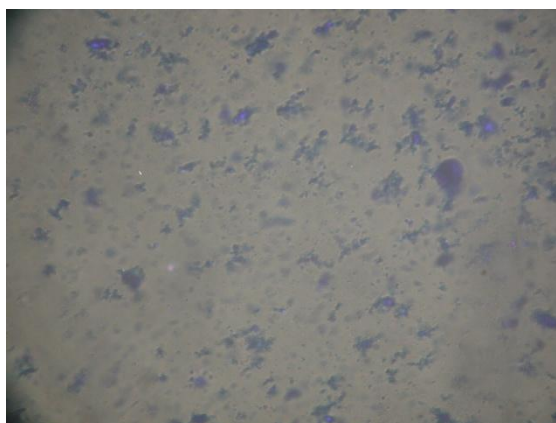
Bright Field, 100x



Dark Field, 100x

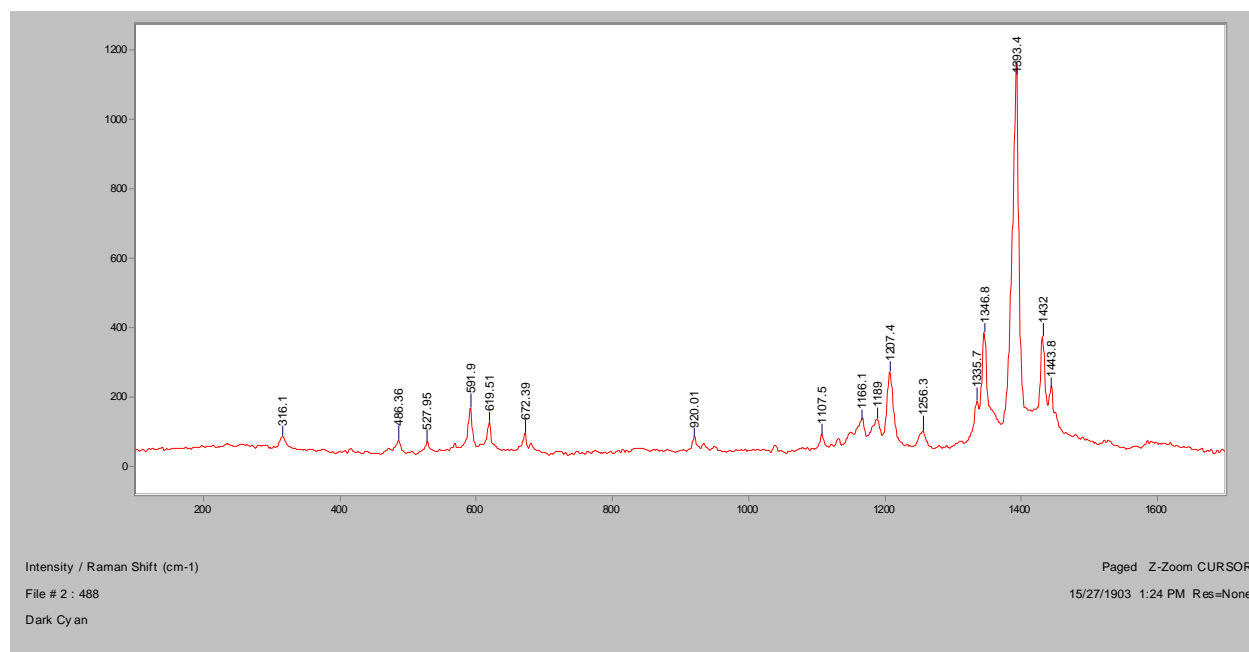


In RI 1.550, 400x

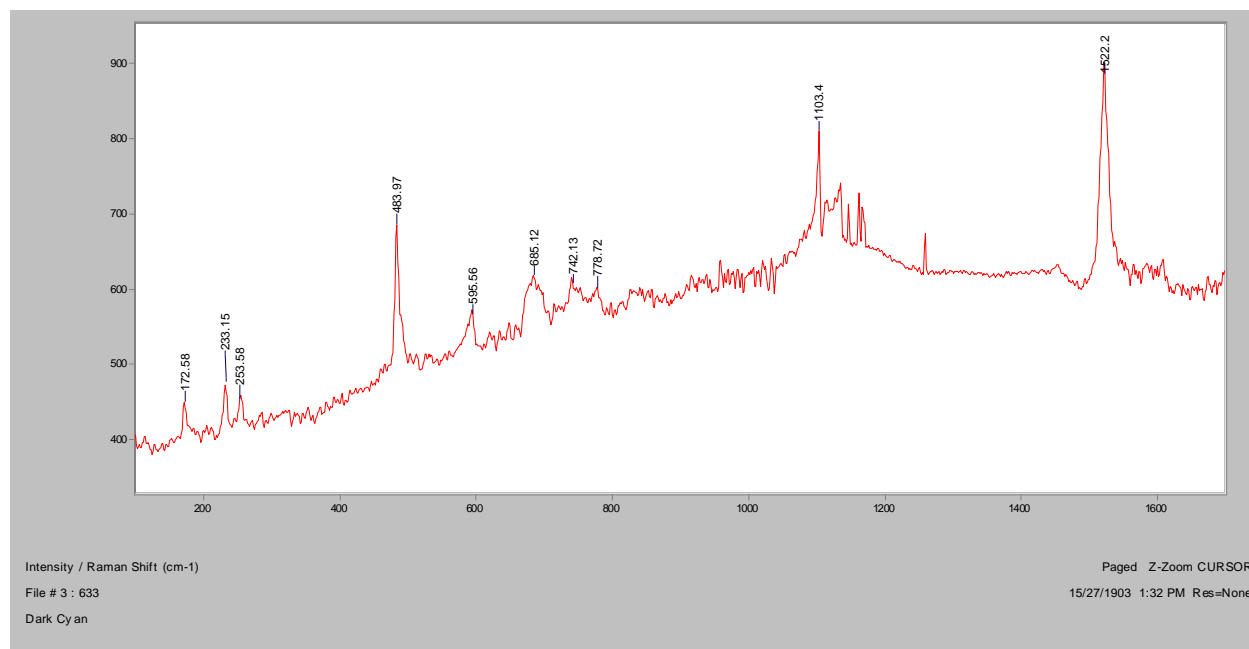


Crossed Polars, In RI 1.550, 400x

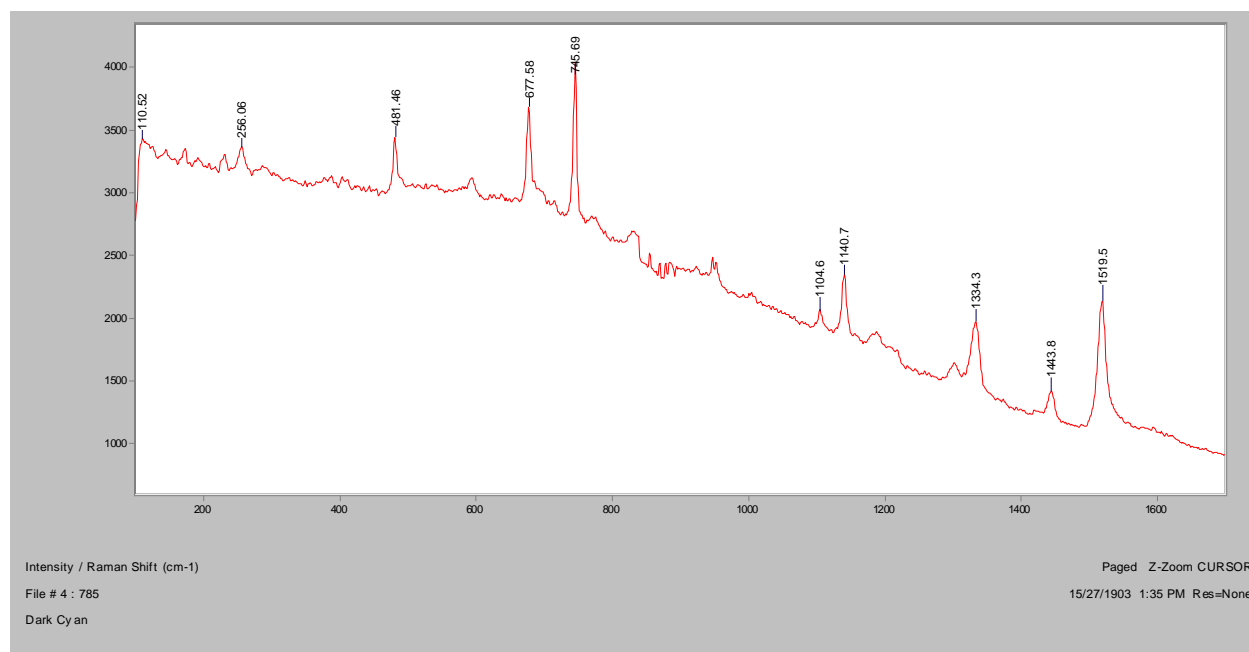
Normal Raman, 488nm



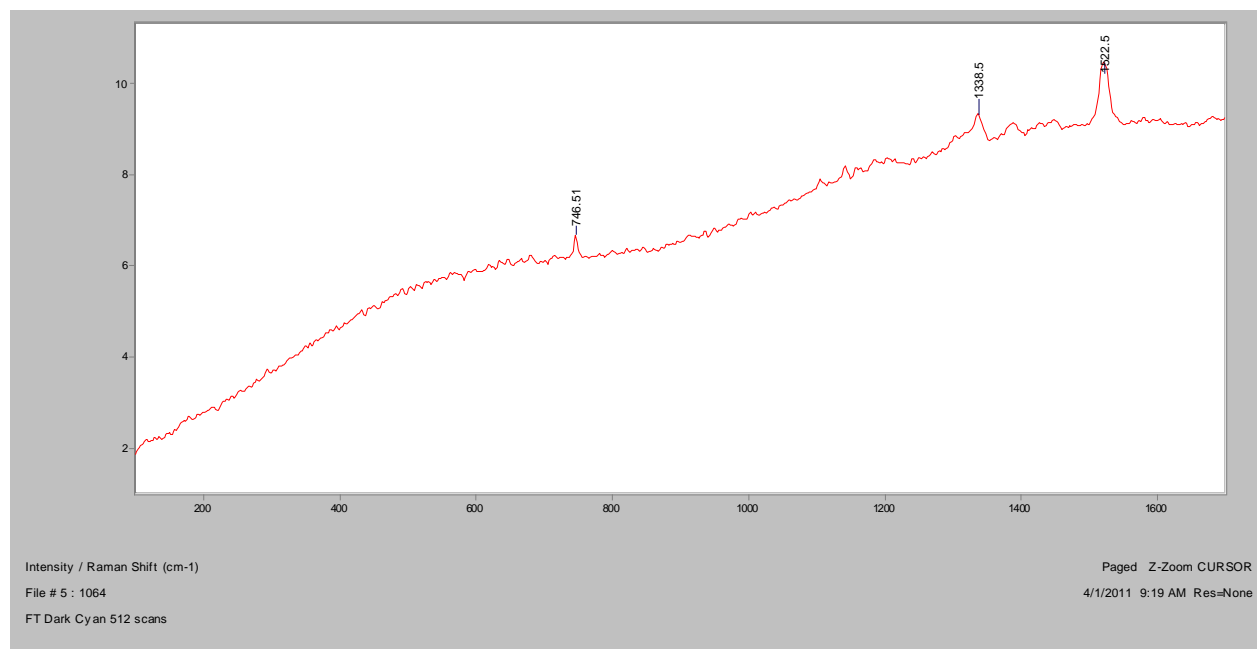
Normal Raman, 633nm



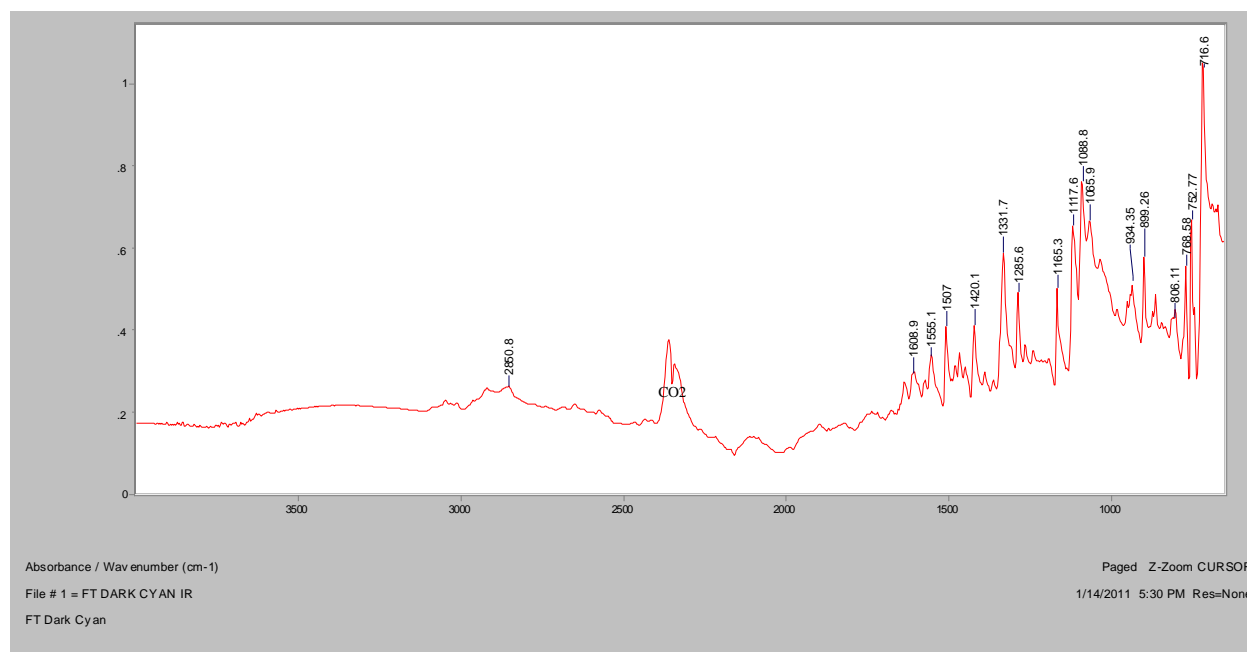
Normal Raman, 785nm



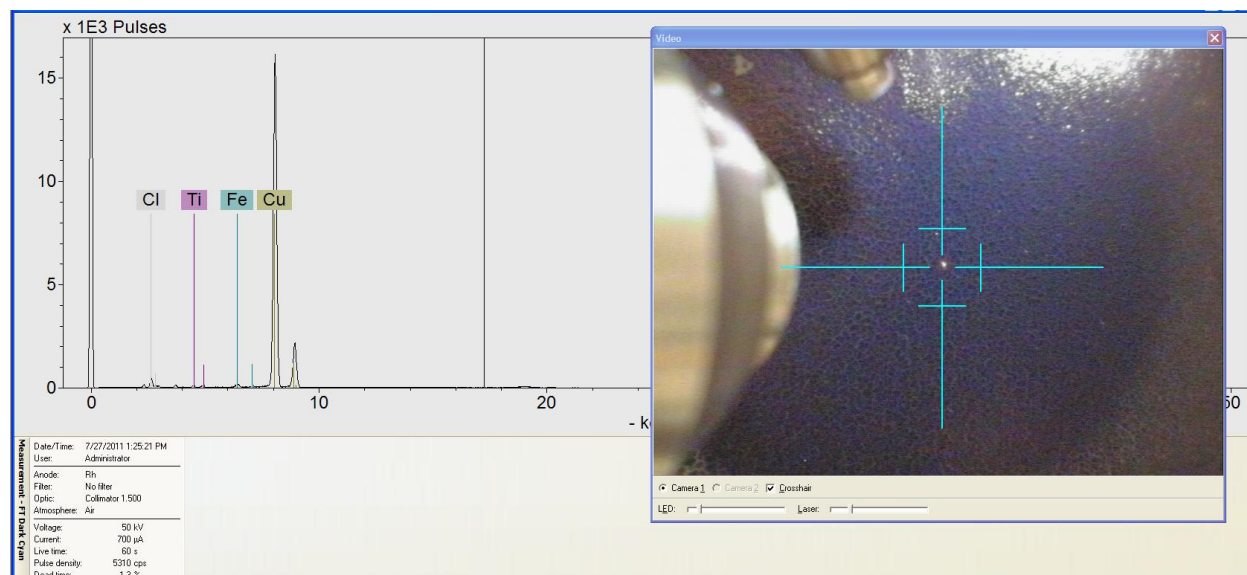
FT-Raman, 1064nm



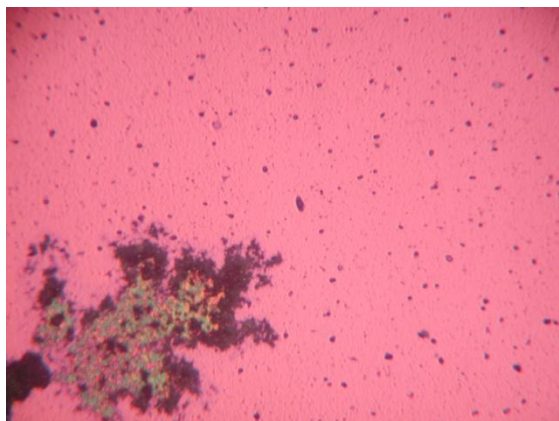
FT-IR (ATR)



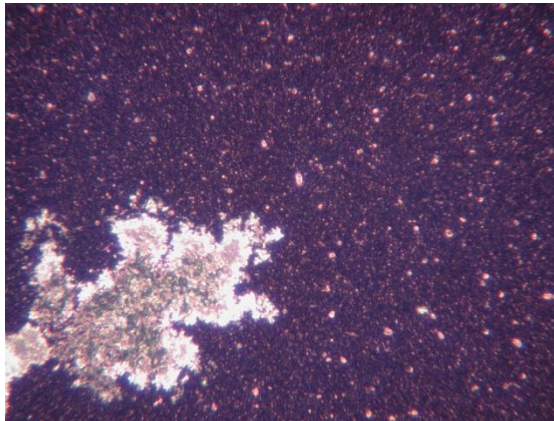
XRF



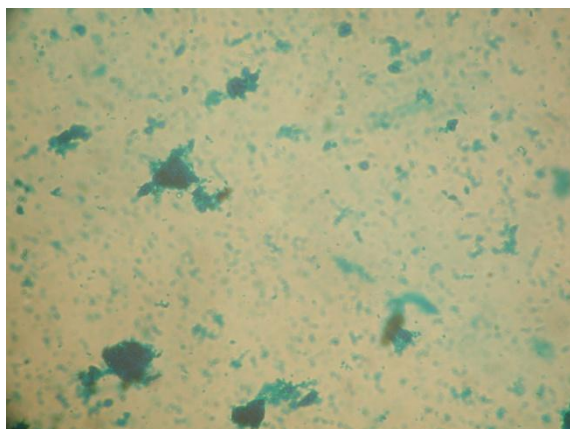
Blue



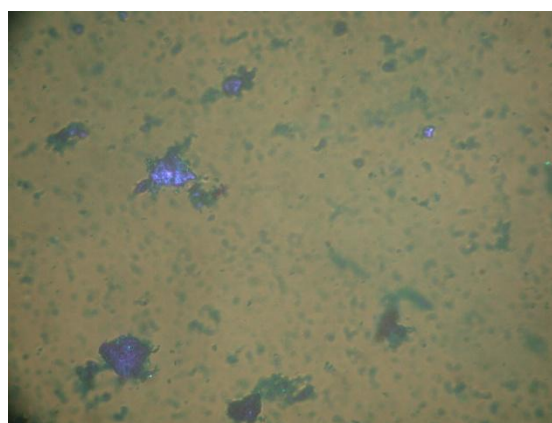
Bright Field, 100x



Dark Field, 100x

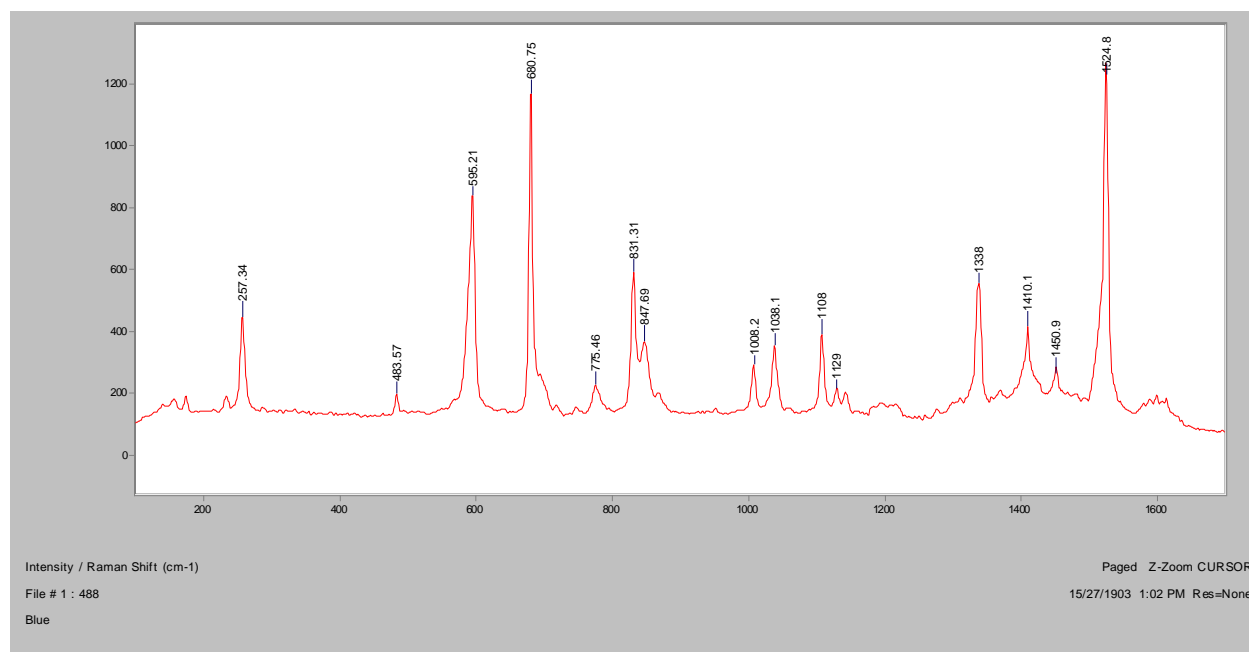


In RI 1.550, 400x

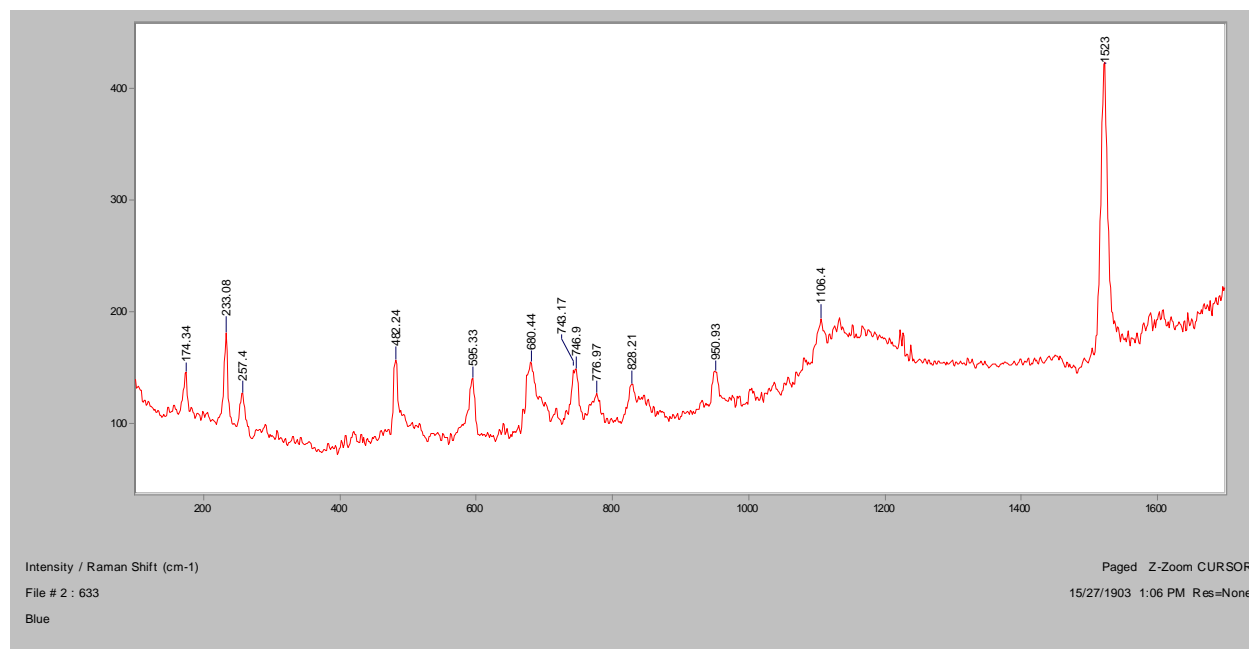


Crossed Polars, In RI 1.550, 400x

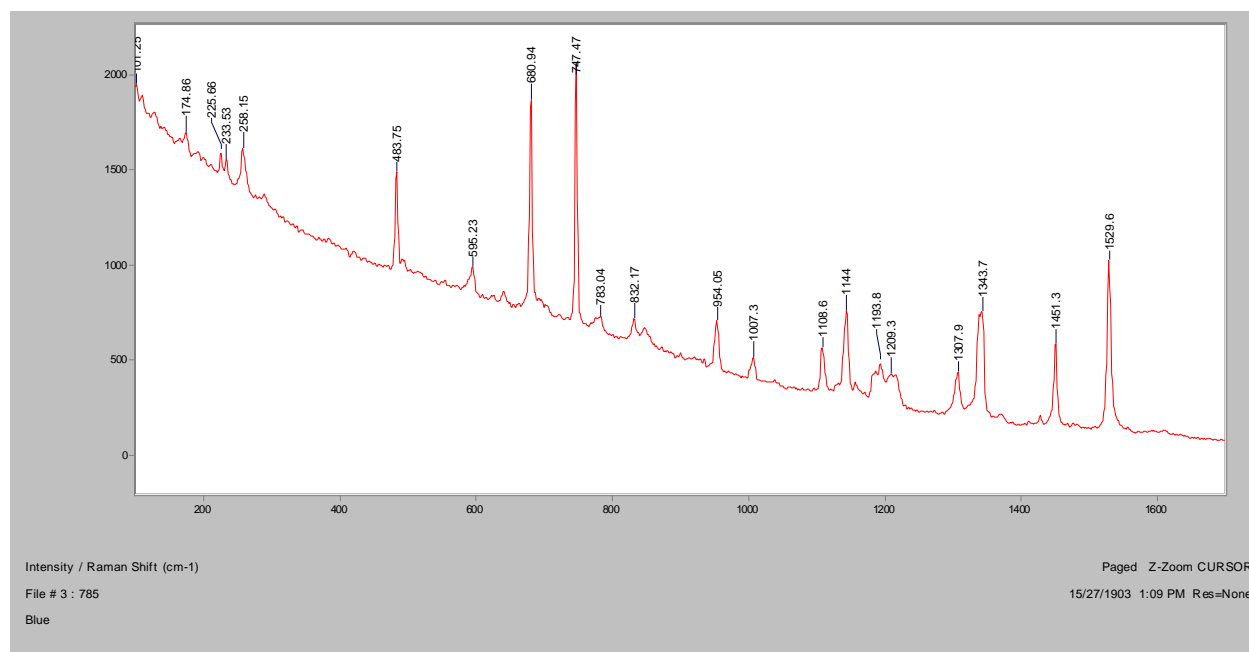
Normal Raman, 488nm



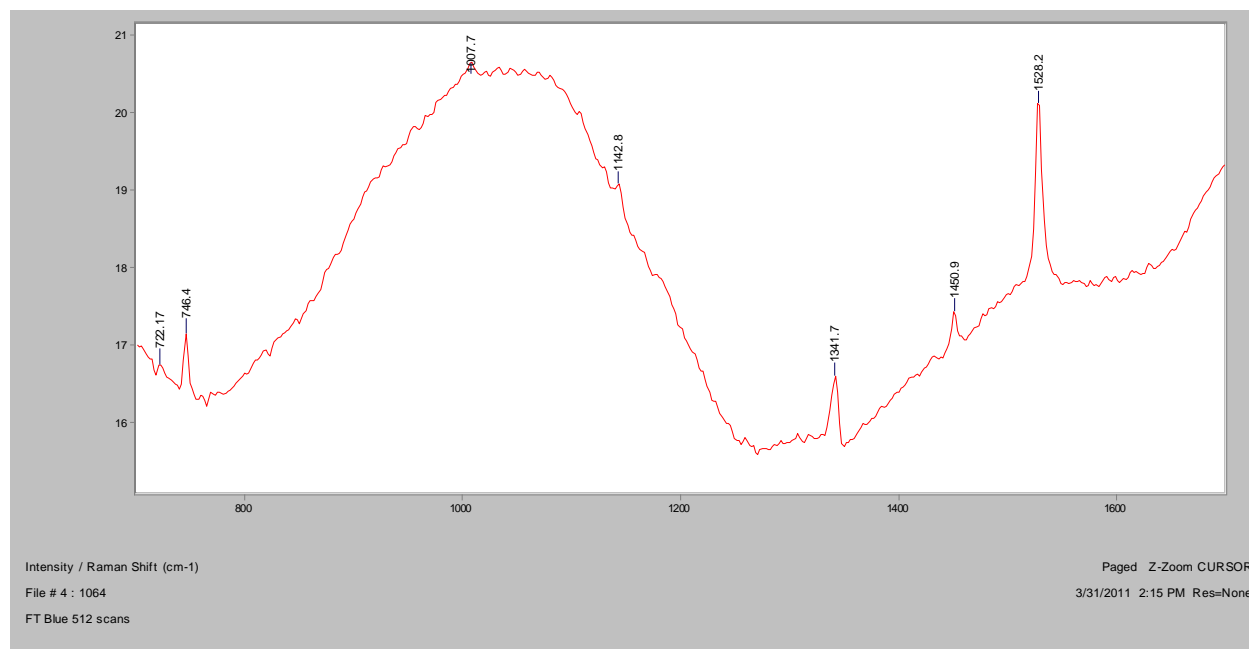
Normal Raman, 633nm



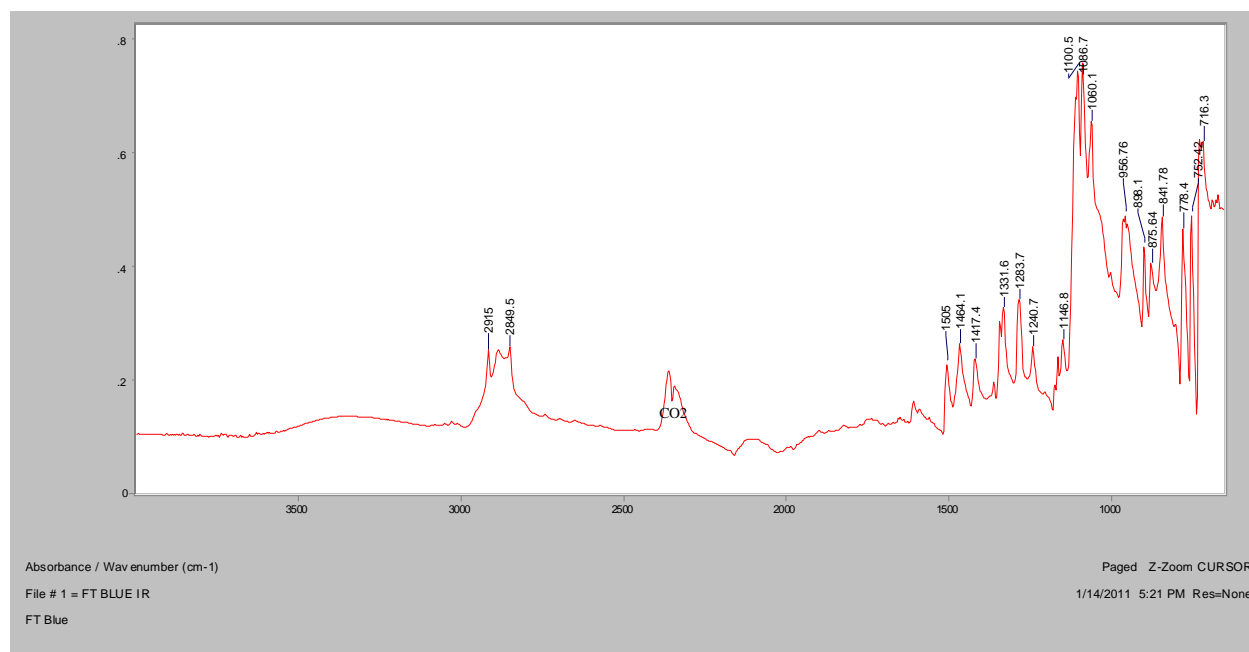
Normal Raman, 785nm



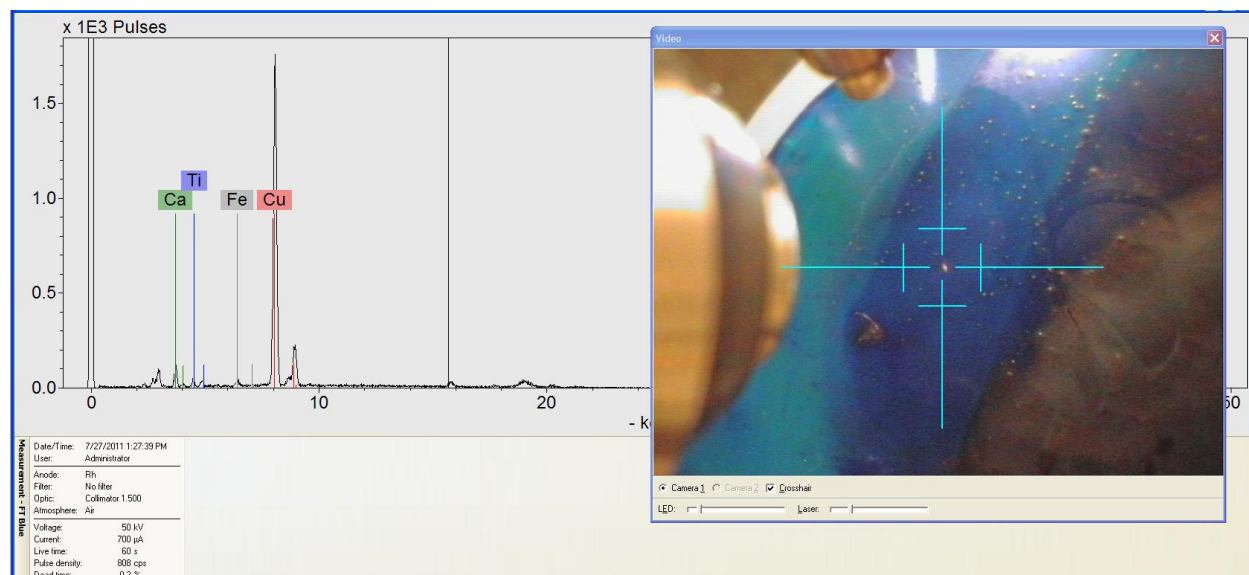
FT-Raman, 1064nm

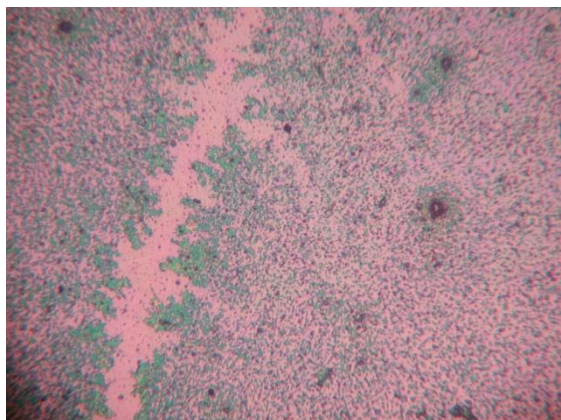
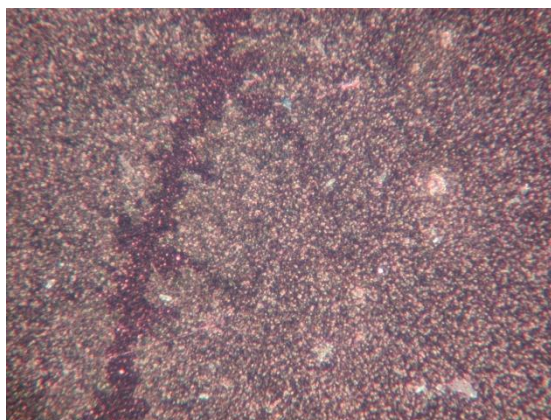
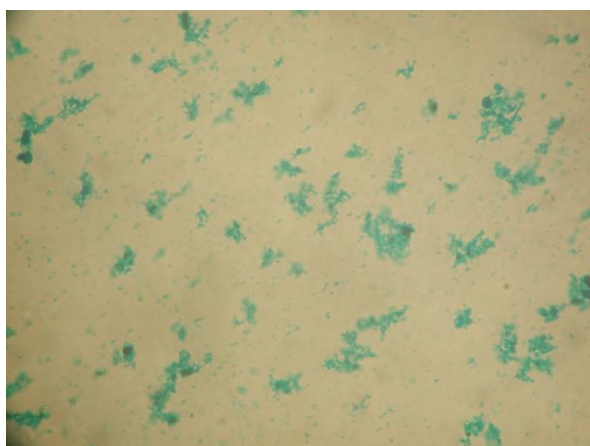
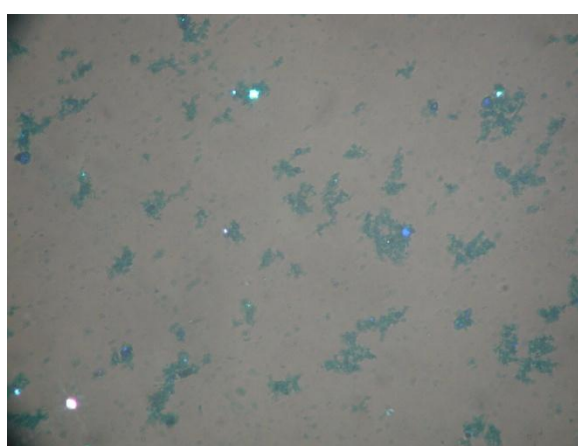


FT-IR (ATR)

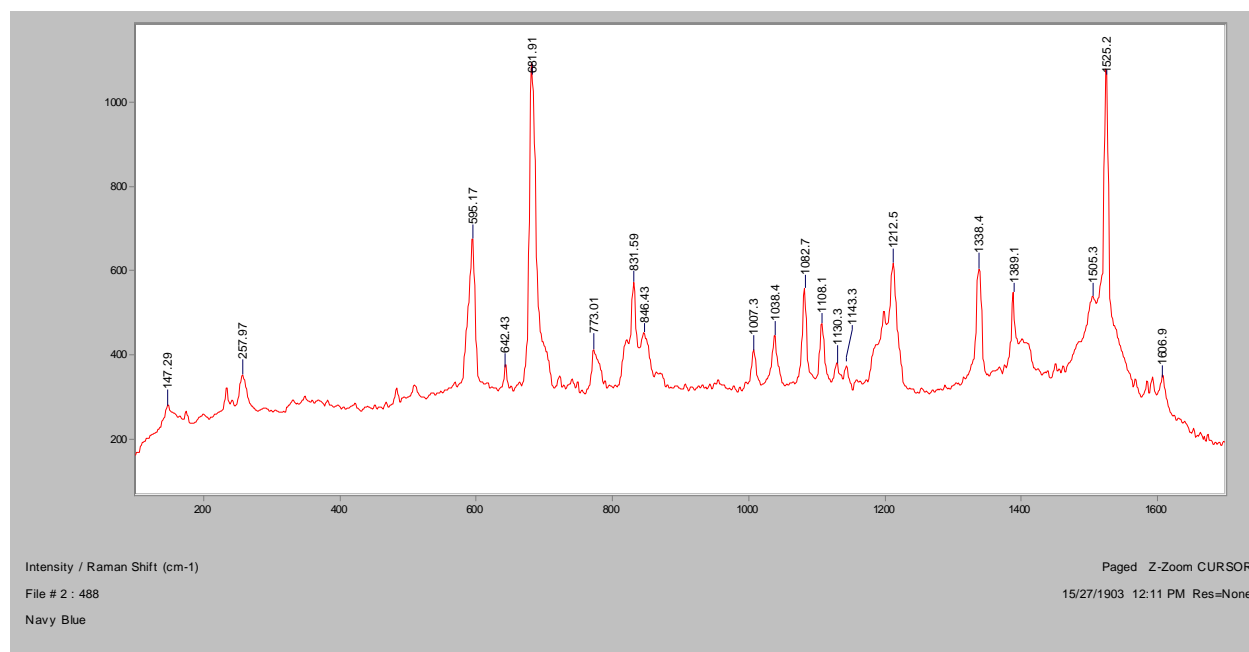


XRF

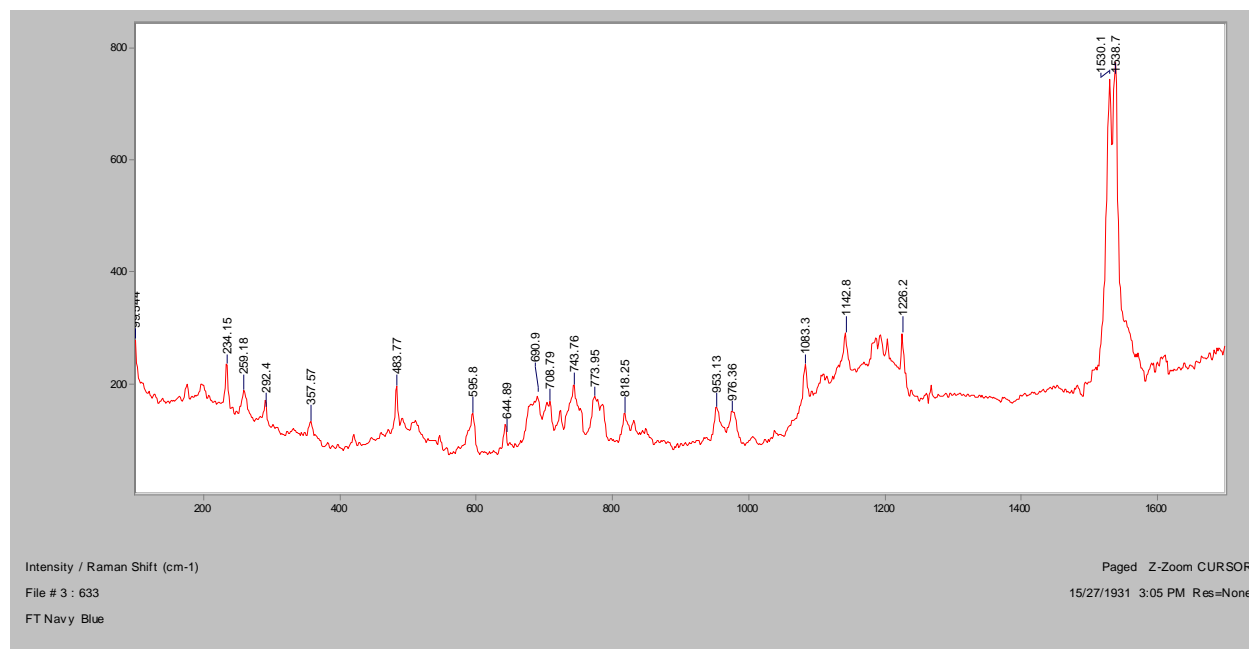


Navy Blue**Bright Field, 100x****Dark Field, 100x****In RI 1.550, 400x****Crossed Polars, In RI 1.550, 400x**

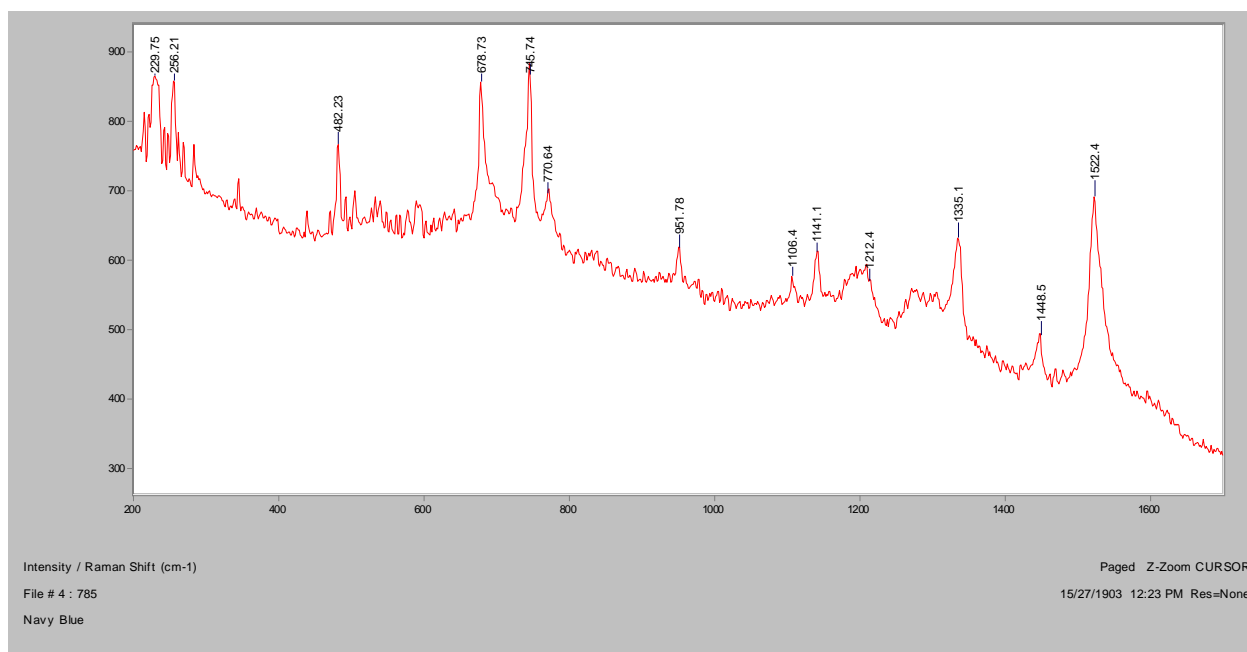
Normal Raman, 488nm



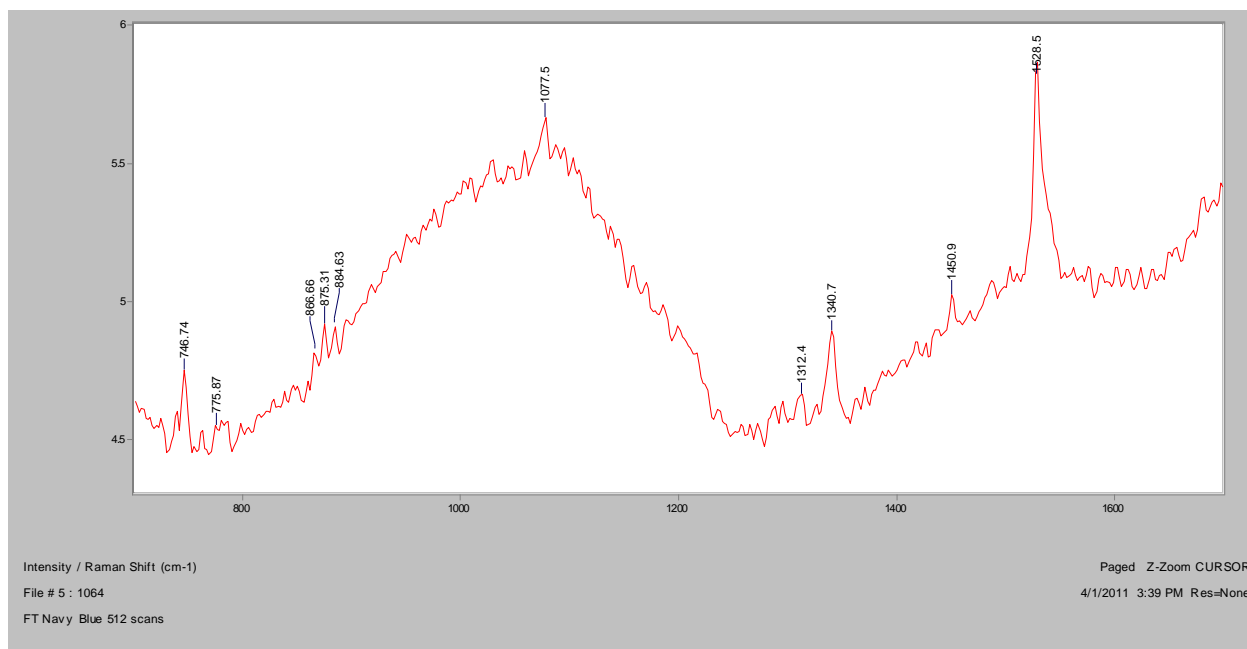
Normal Raman, 633nm



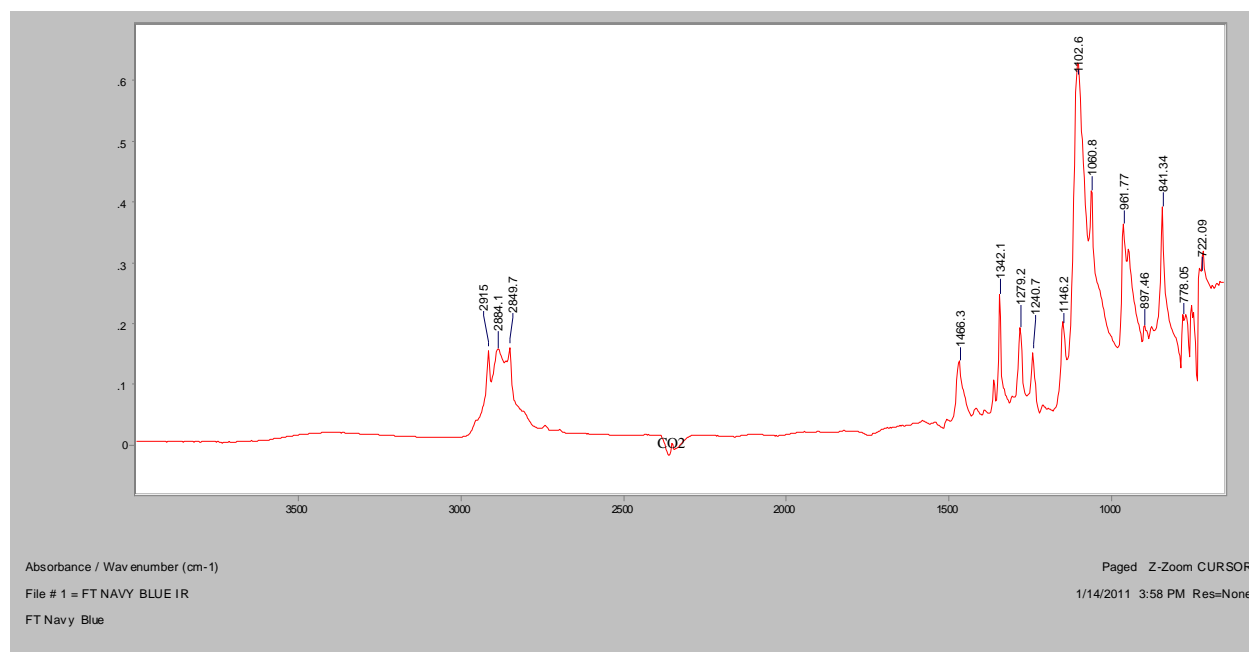
Normal Raman, 785nm



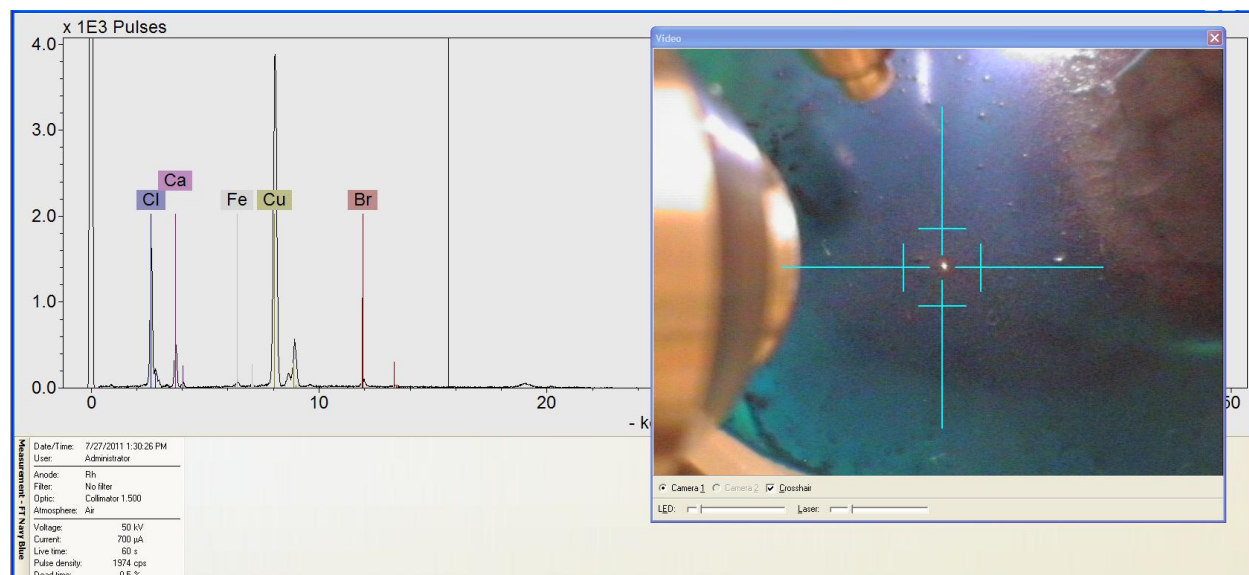
FT-Raman, 1064nm

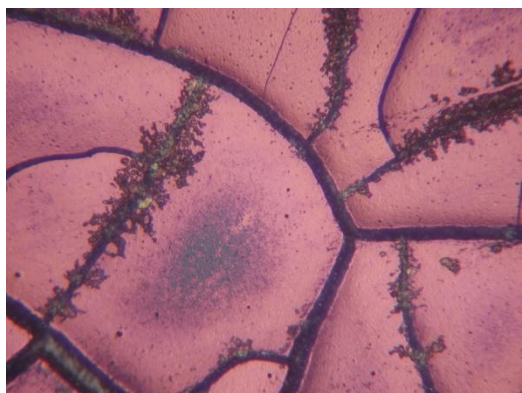
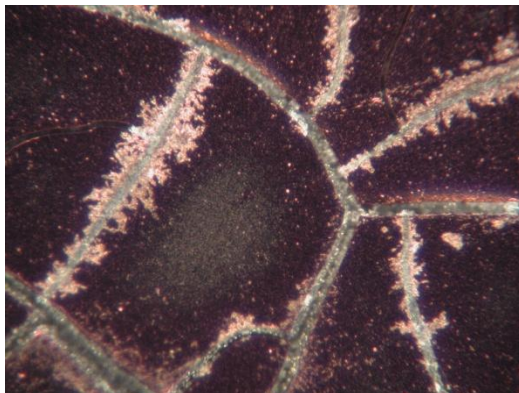
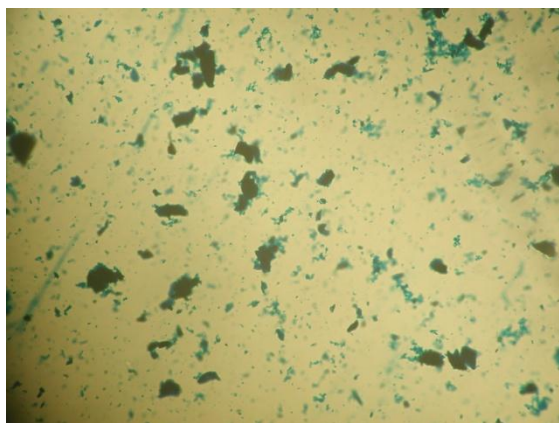
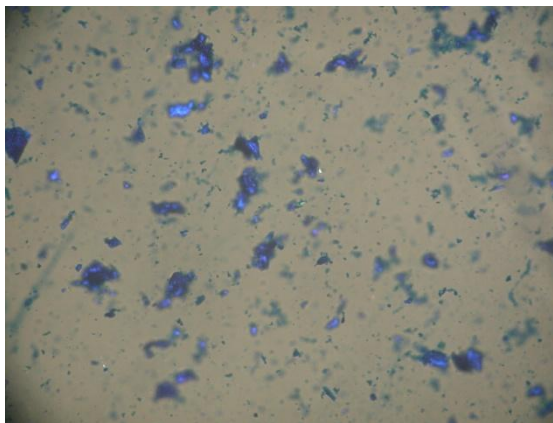


FT-IR (ATR)

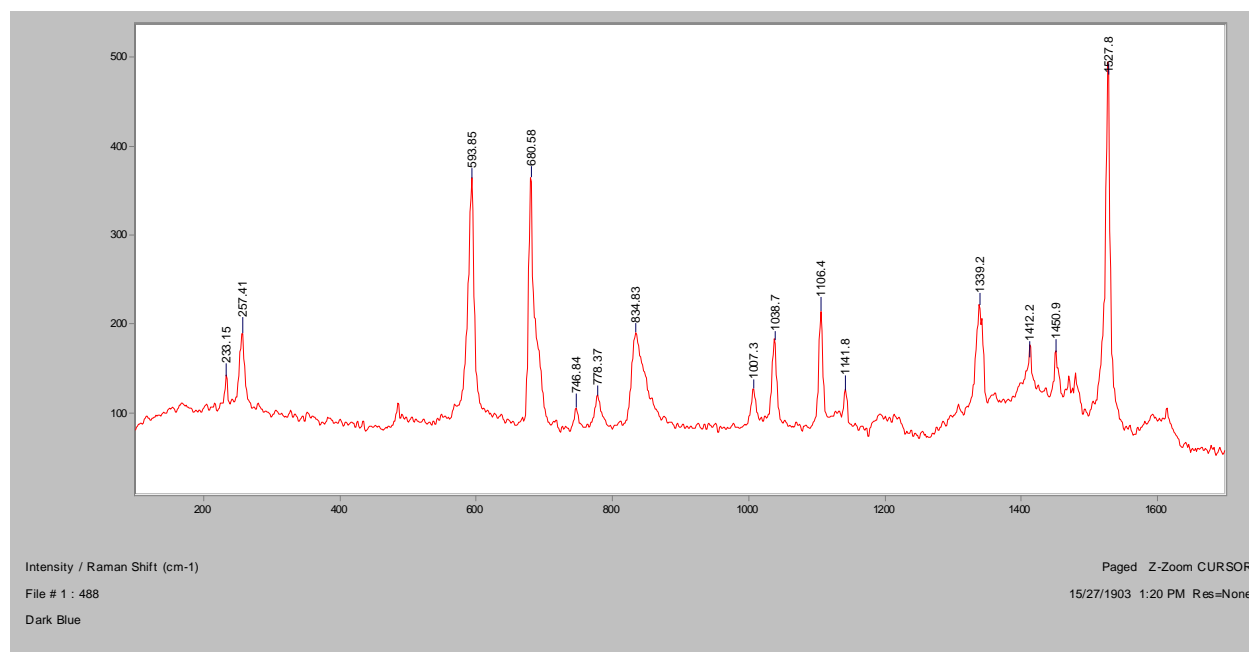


XRF

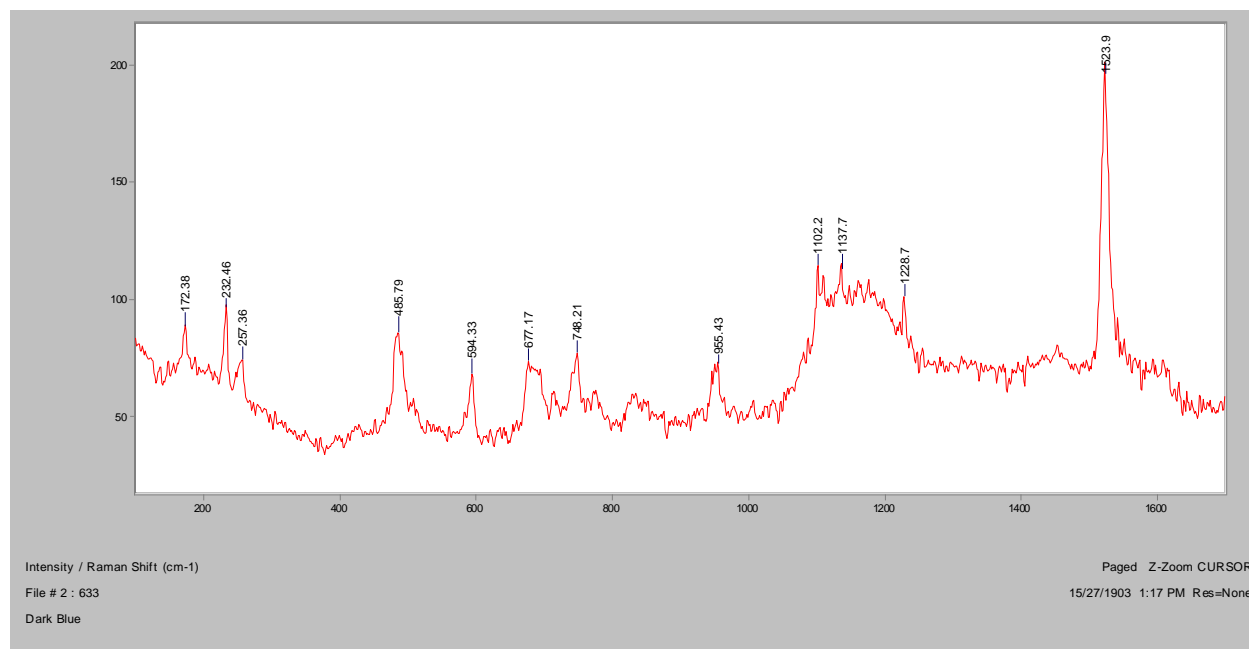


Dark Blue**Bright Field, 100x****Dark Field, 100x****In RI 1.550, 400x****Crossed Polars, In RI 1.550, 400x**

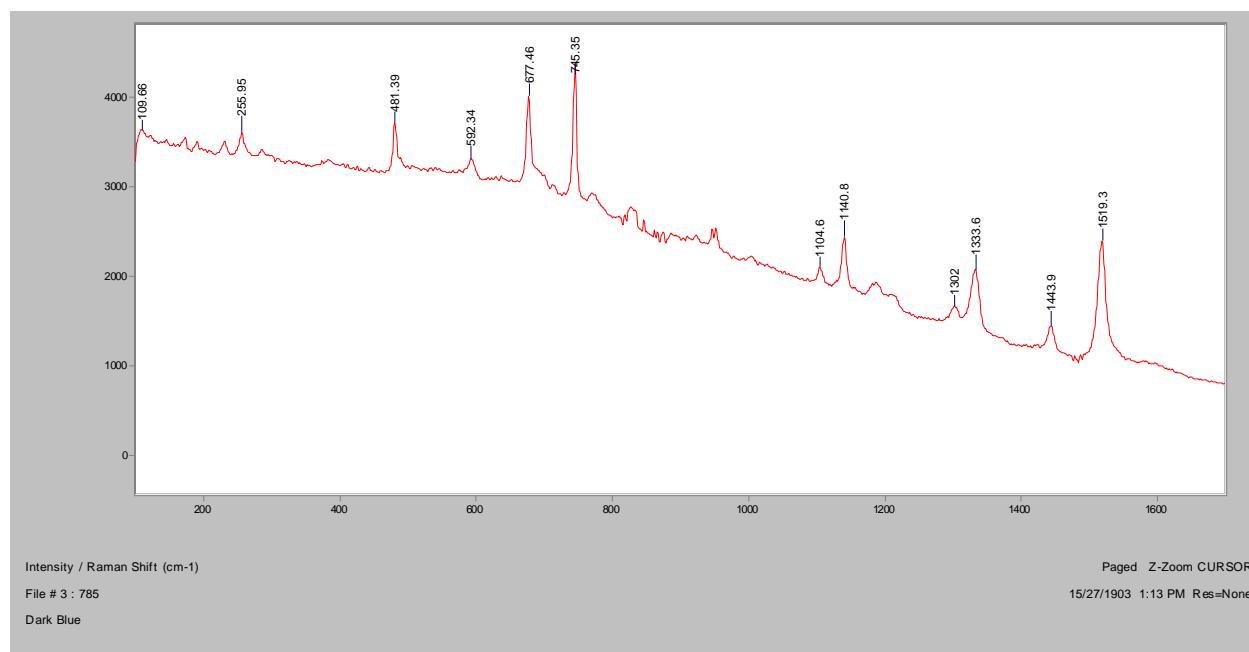
Normal Raman, 488nm



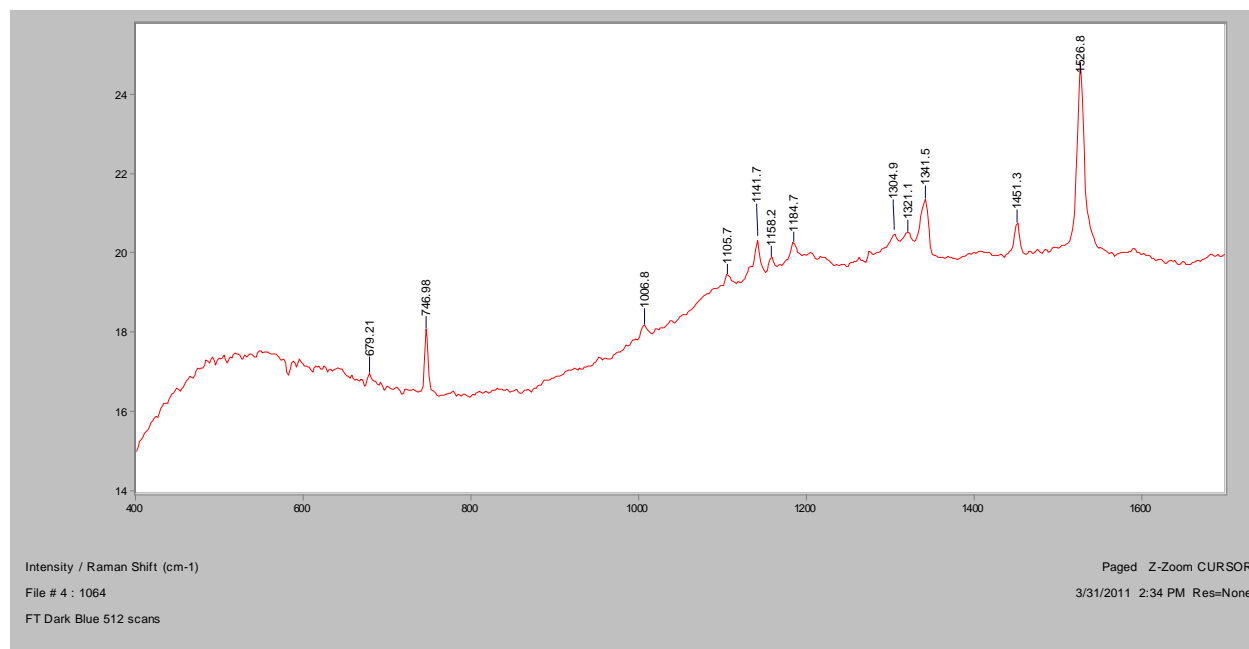
Normal Raman, 633nm



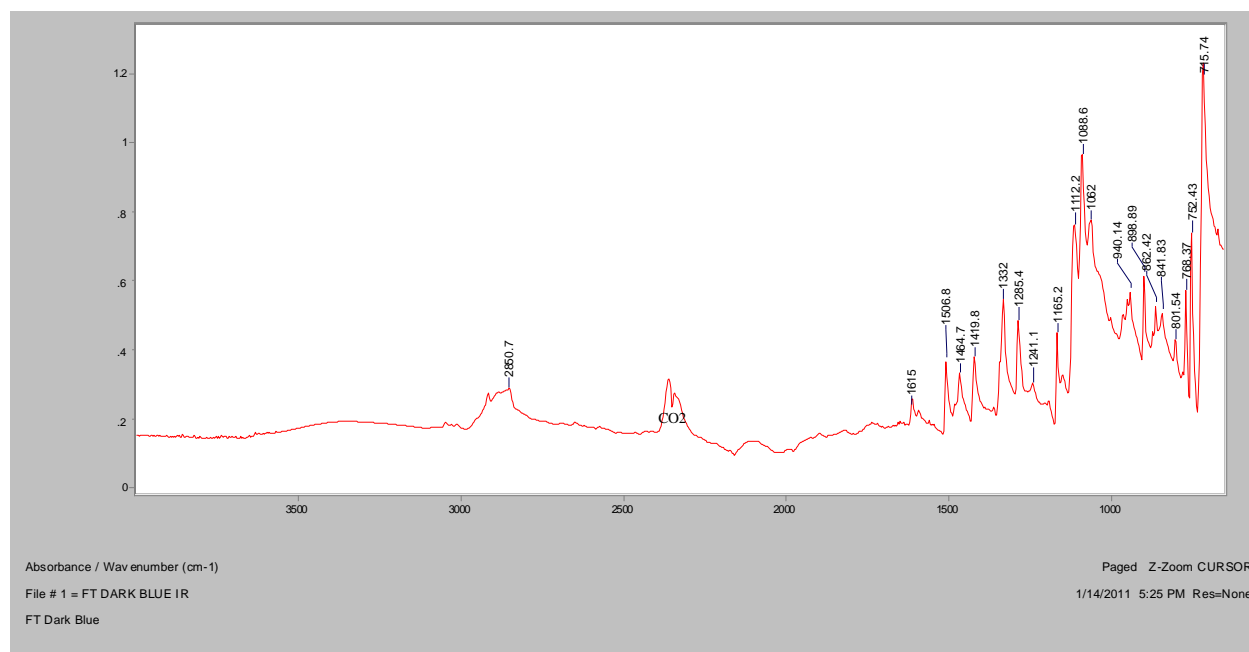
Normal Raman, 785nm



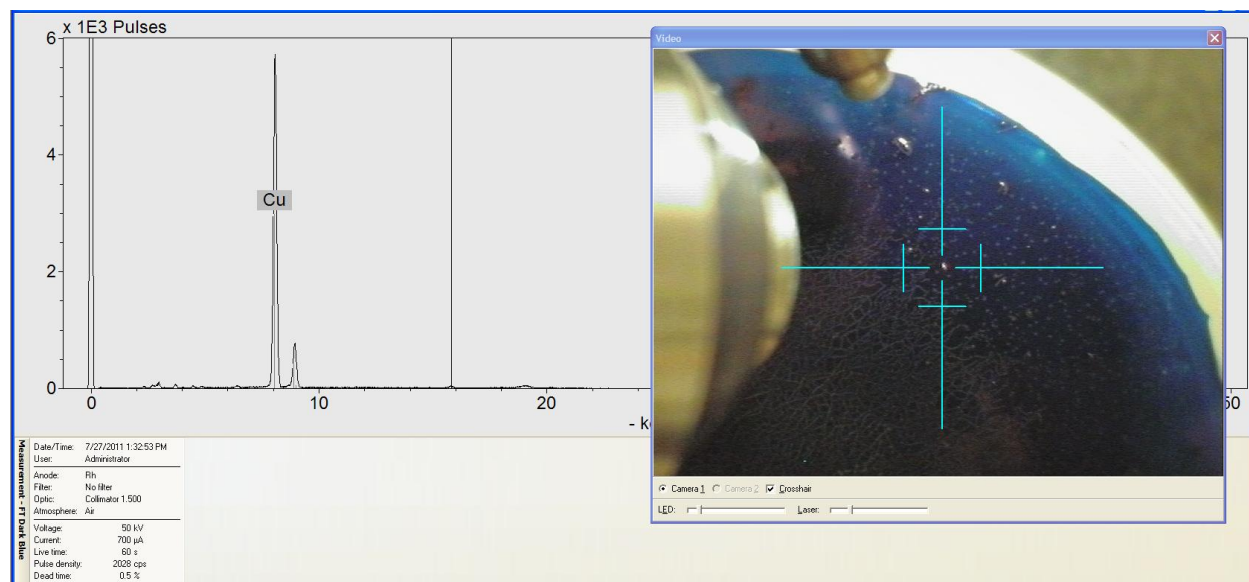
FT-Raman, 1064nm

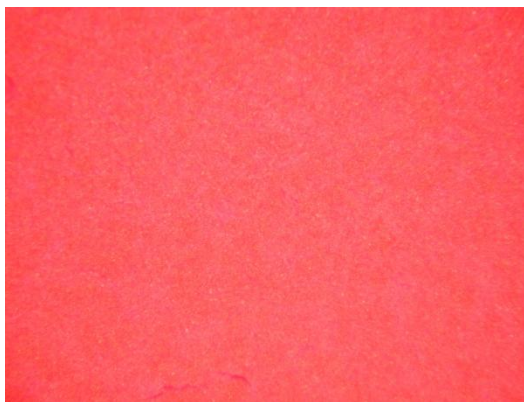
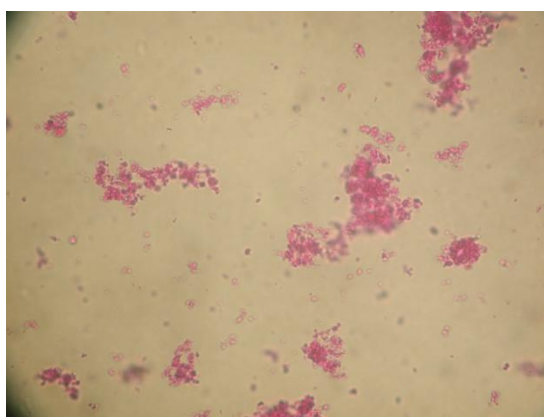
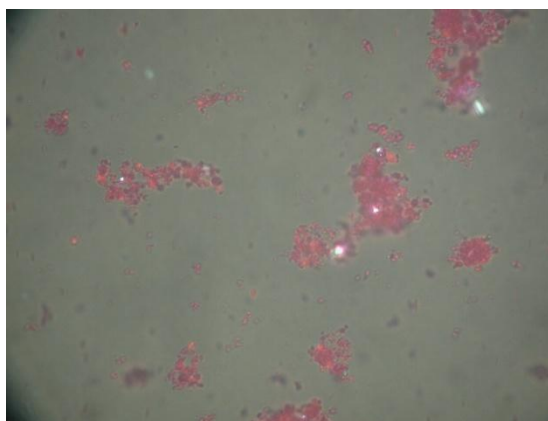


FT-IR (ATR)

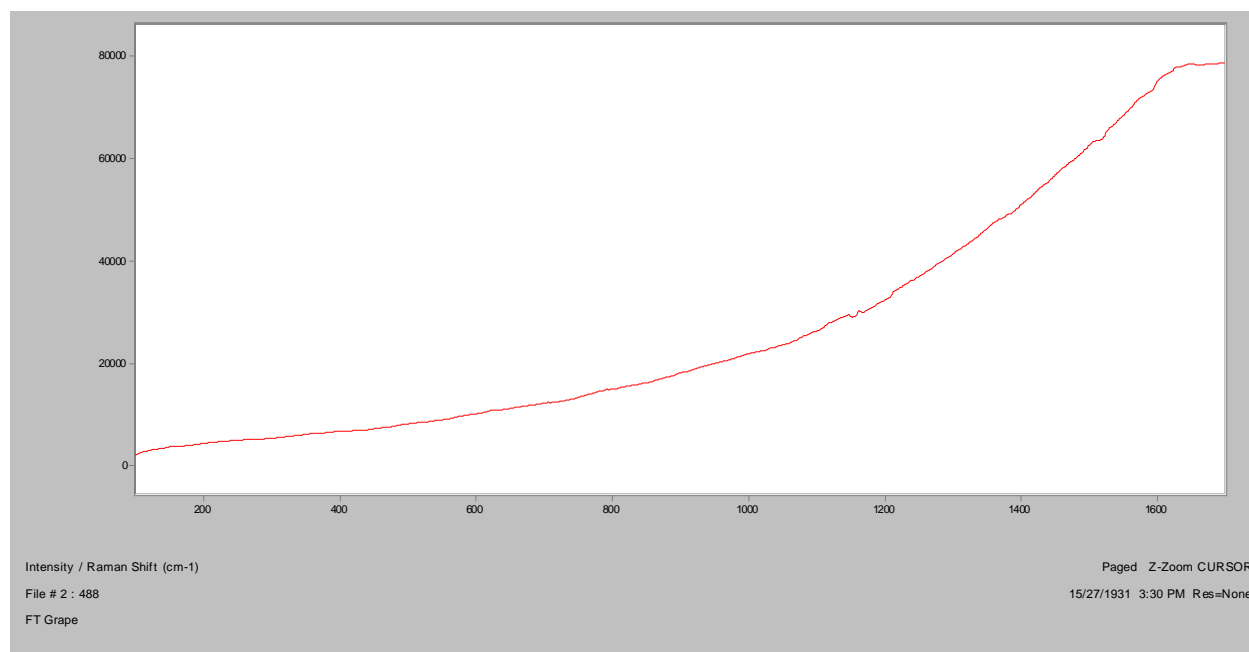


XRF

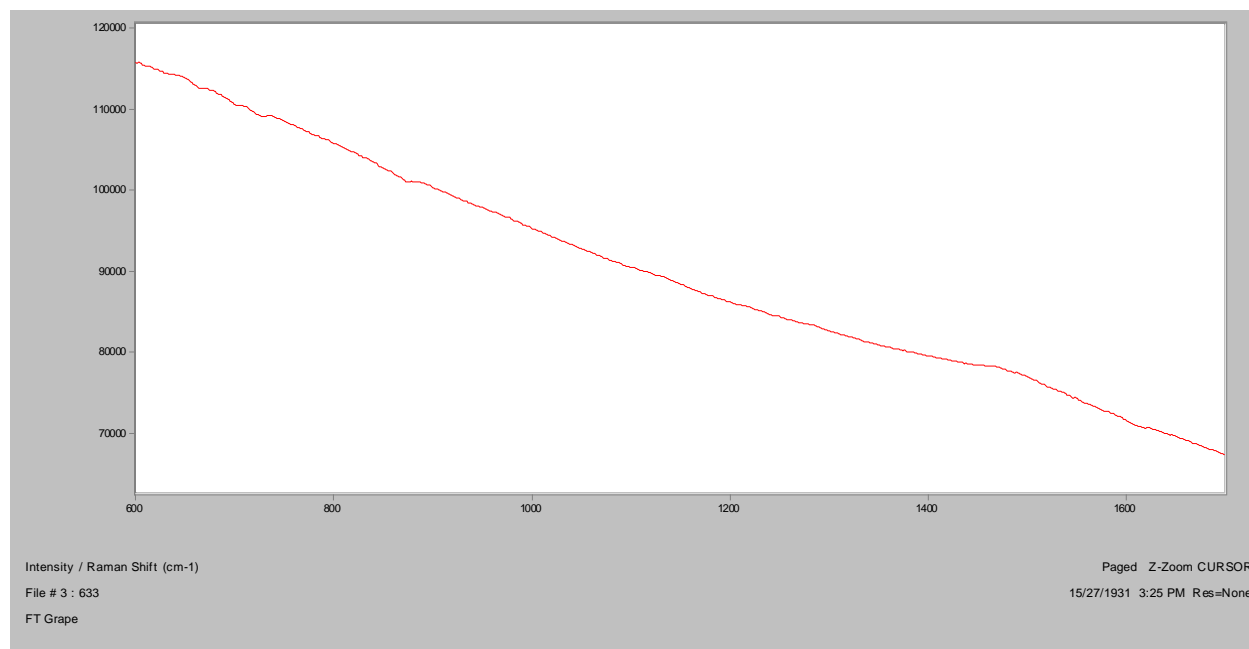


Grape**Bright Field, 100x****Dark Field, 100x****In RI 1.550, 400x****Crossed Polars, In RI 1.550, 400x**

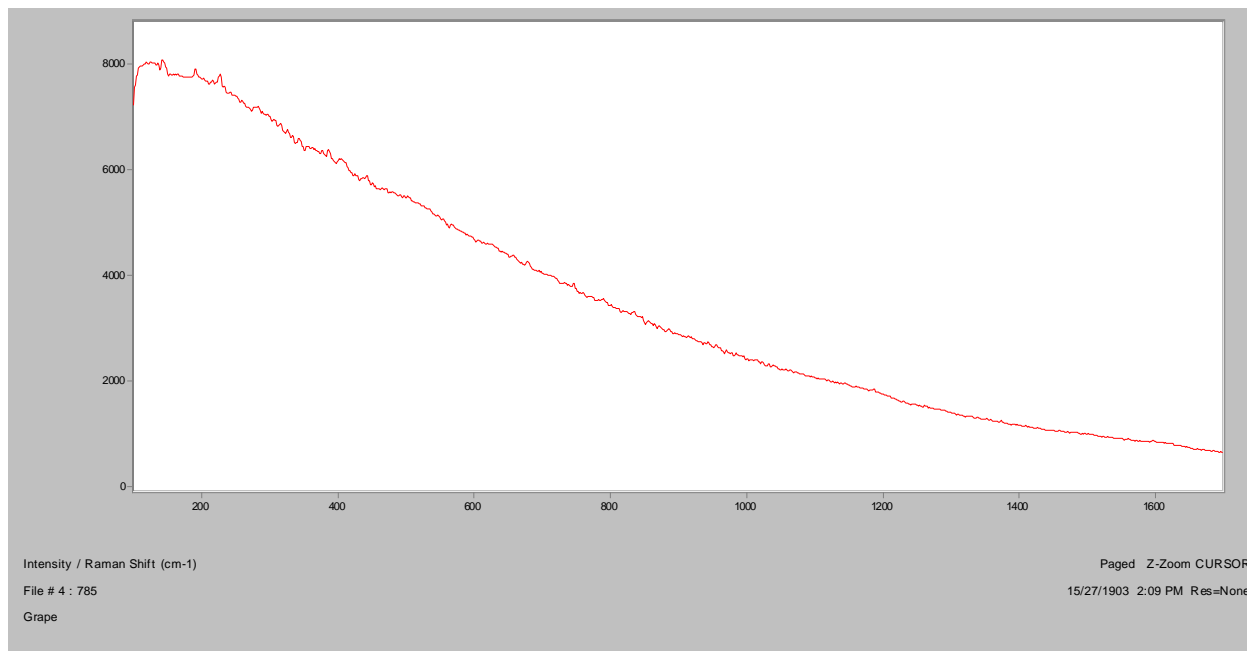
Normal Raman, 488nm



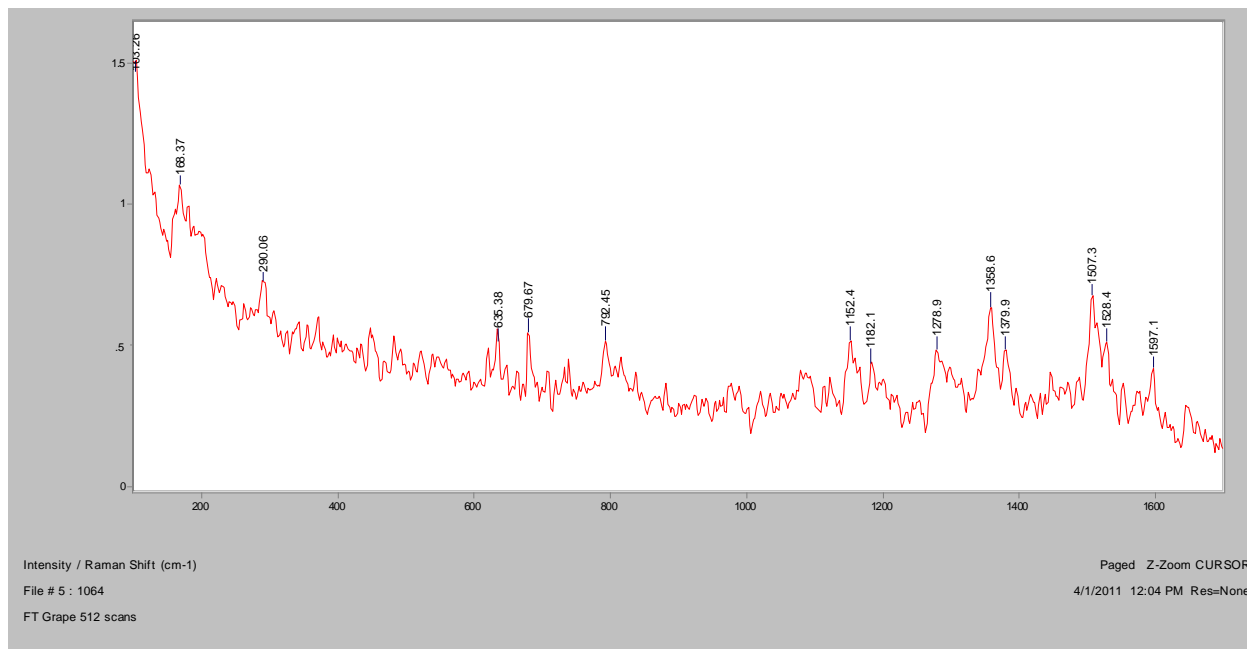
Normal Raman, 633nm



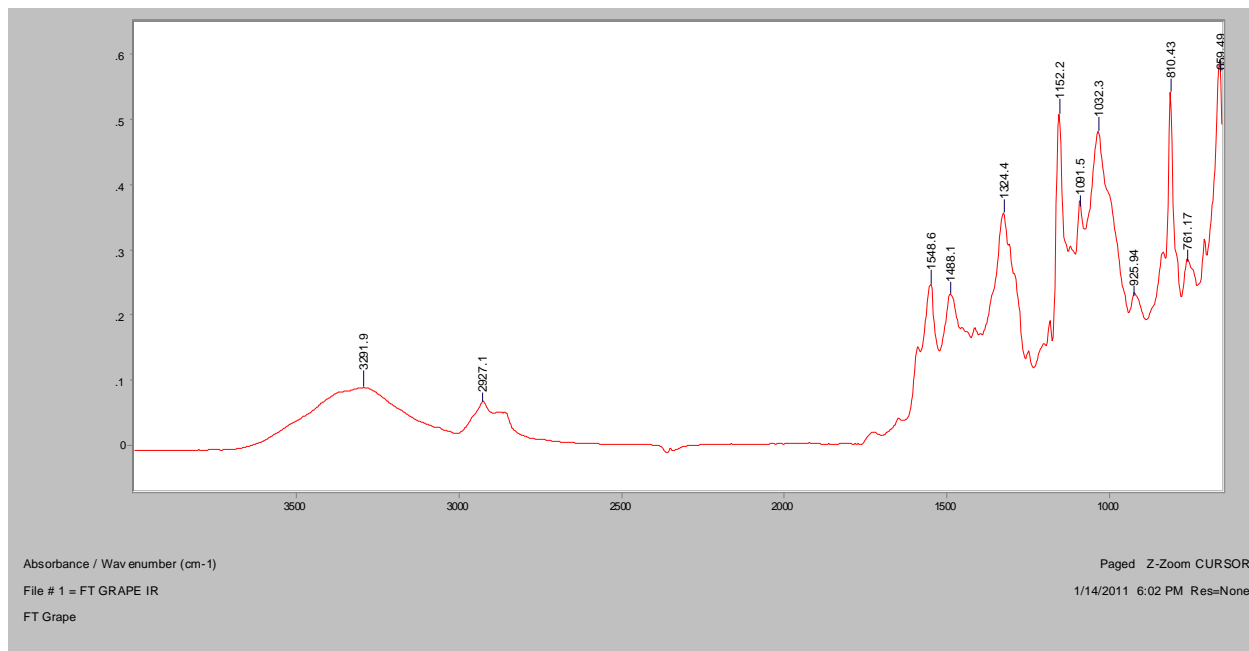
Normal Raman, 785nm



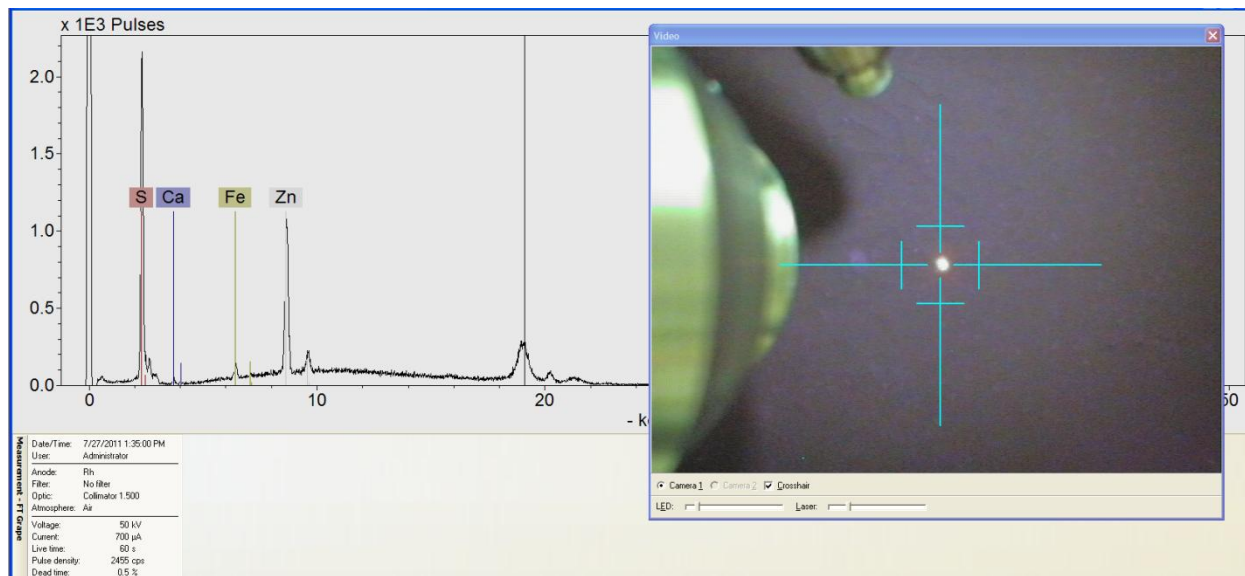
FT-Raman, 1064nm

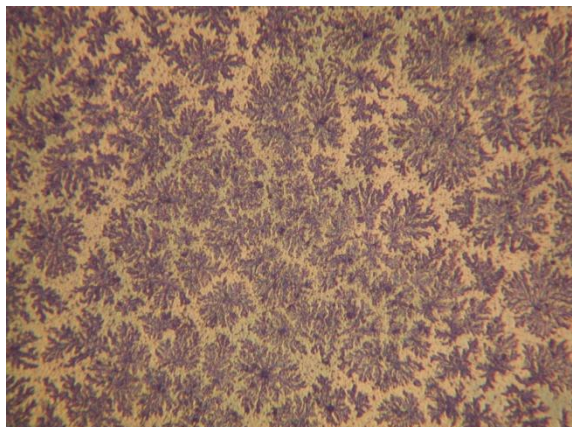
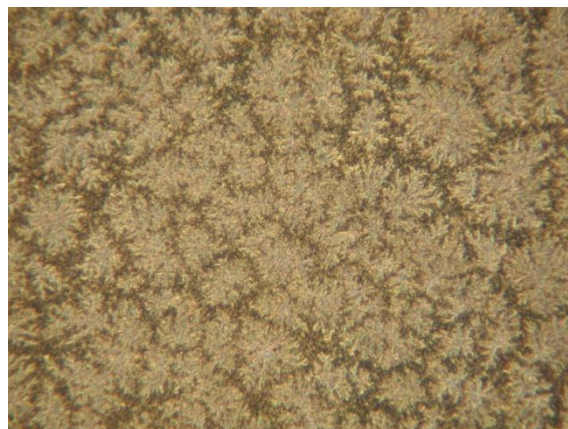
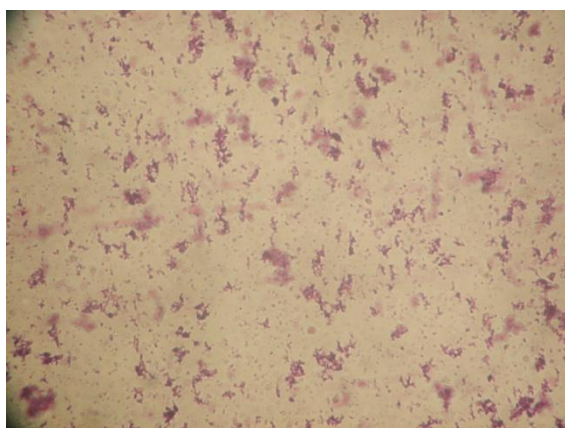
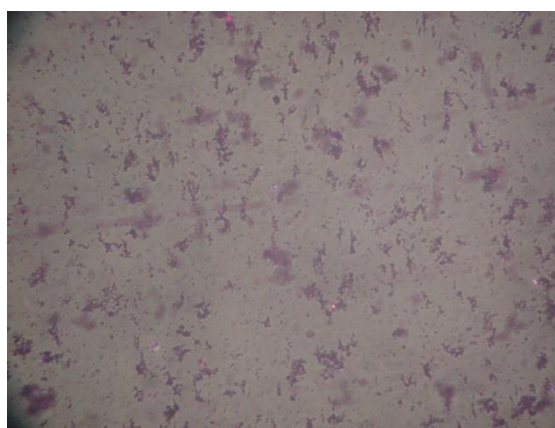


FT-IR (ATR)

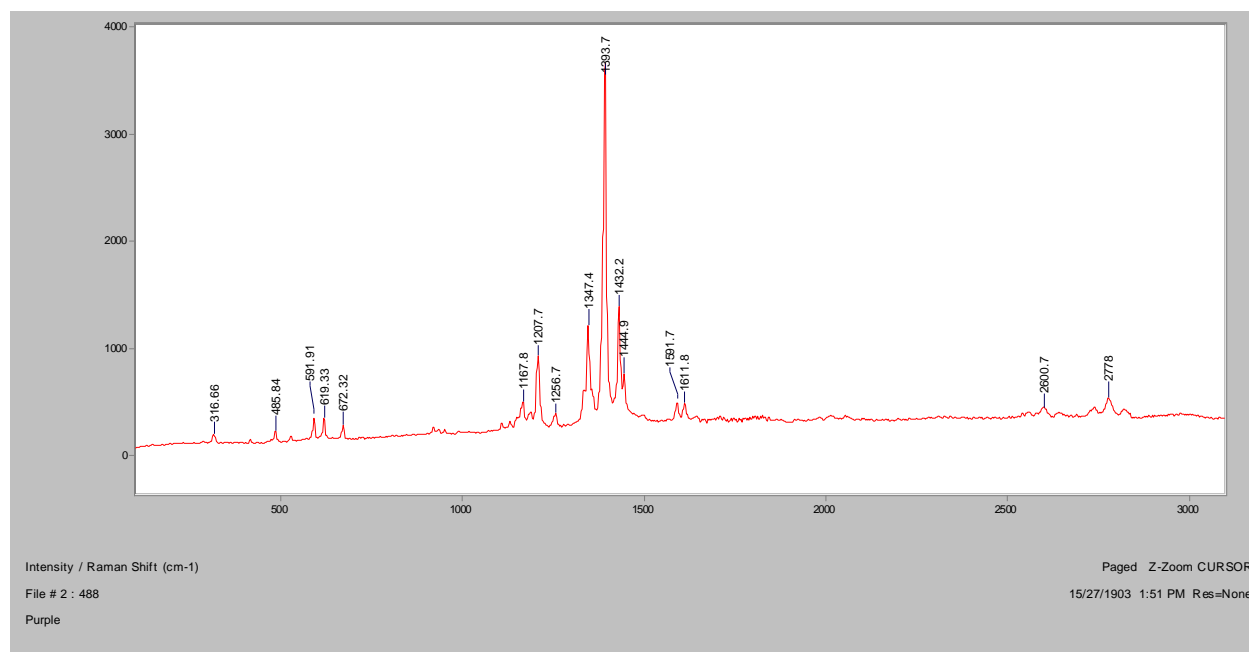


XRF

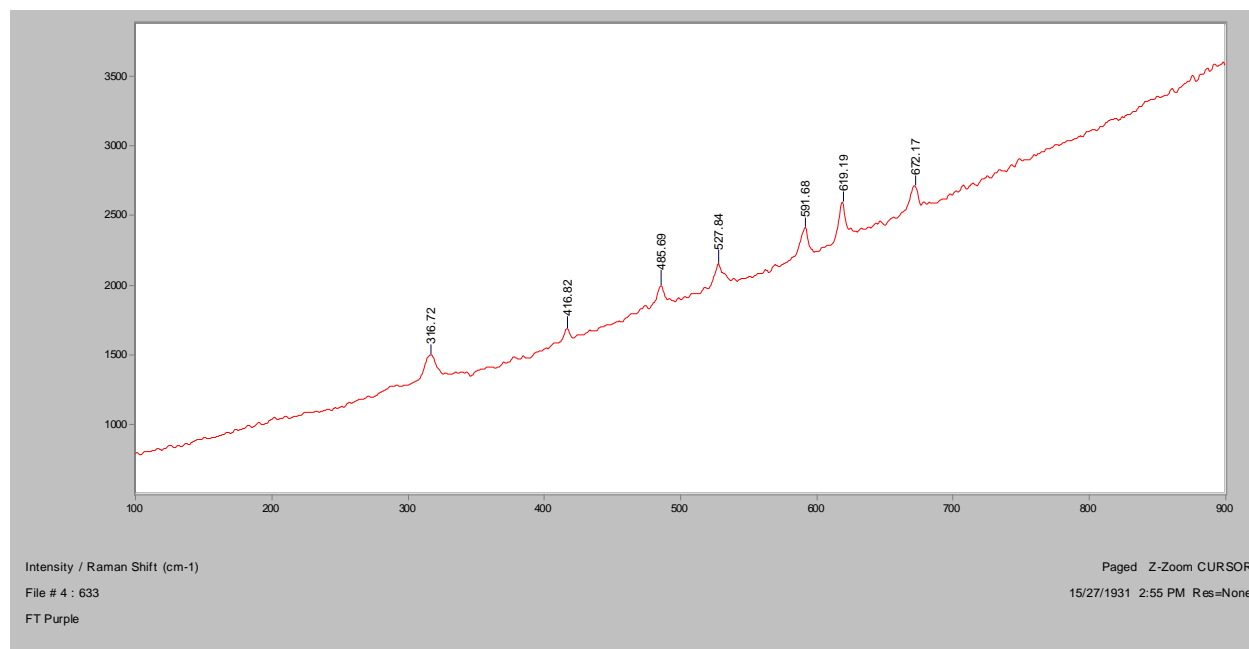


Purple**Bright Field, 100x****Dark Field, 100x****In RI 1.550, 400x****Crossed Polars, In RI 1.550, 400x**

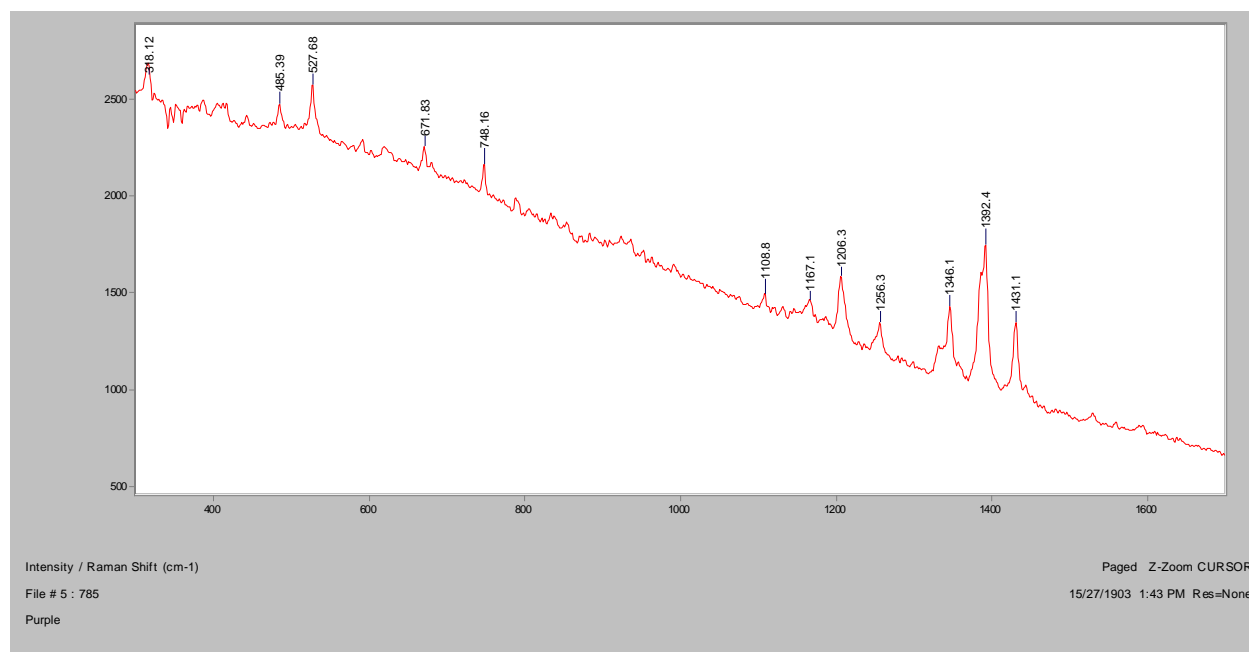
Normal Raman, 488nm



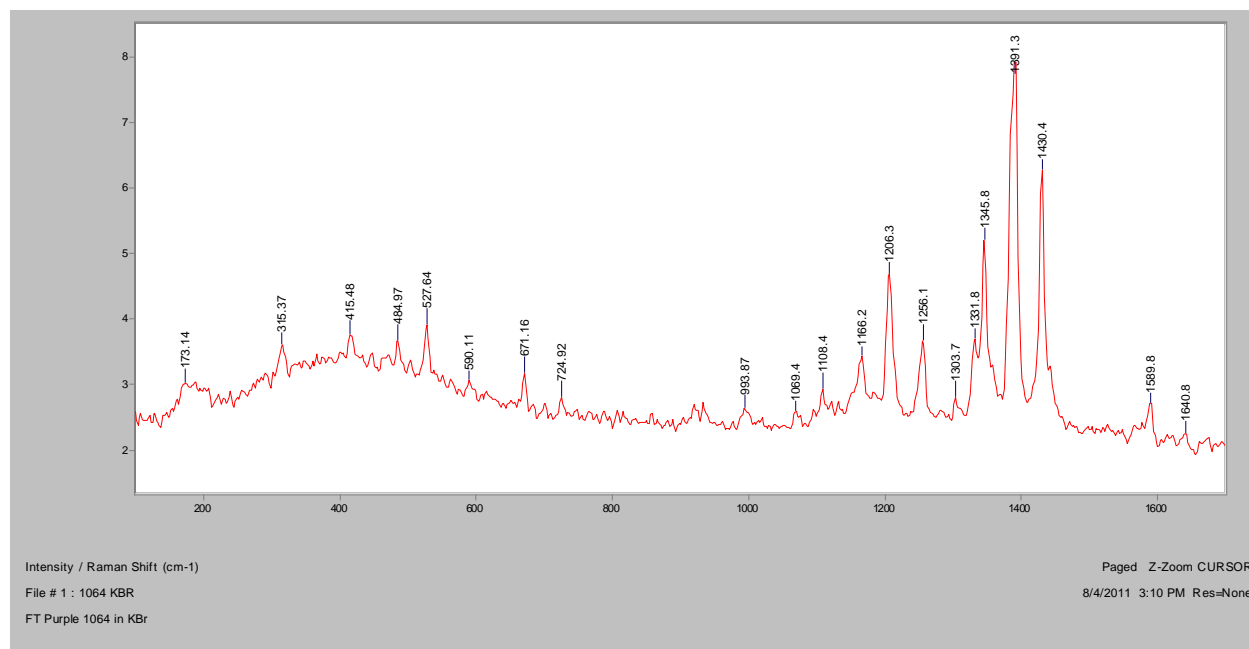
Normal Raman, 633nm



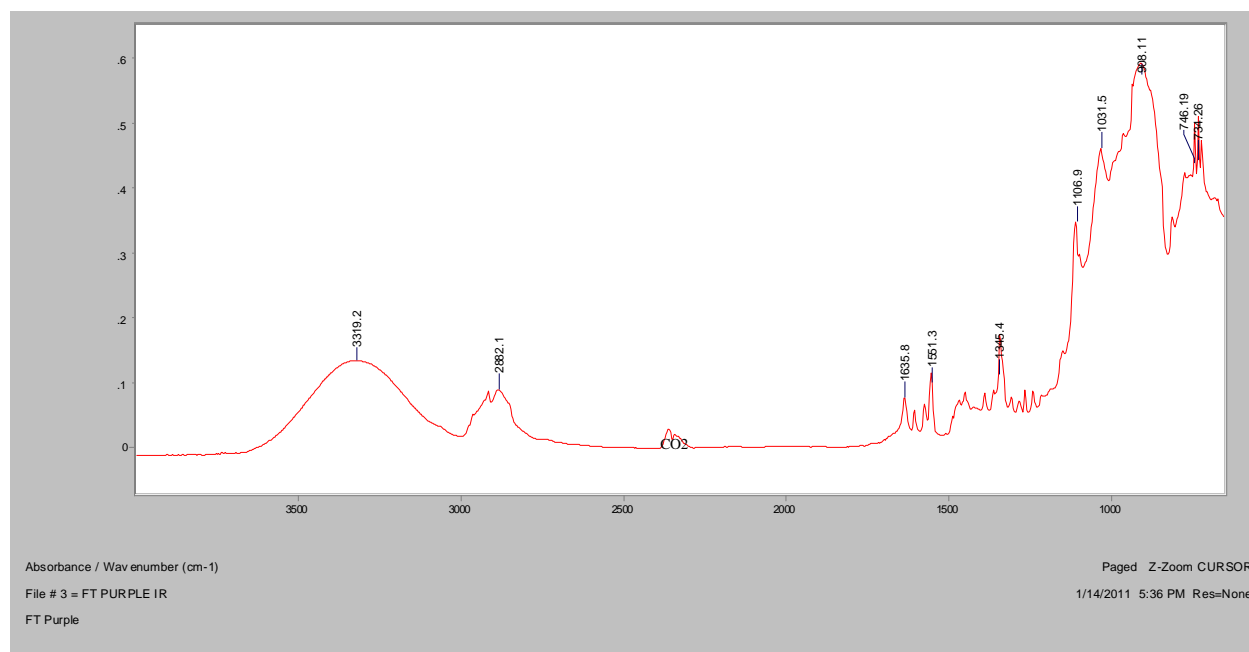
Normal Raman, 785nm



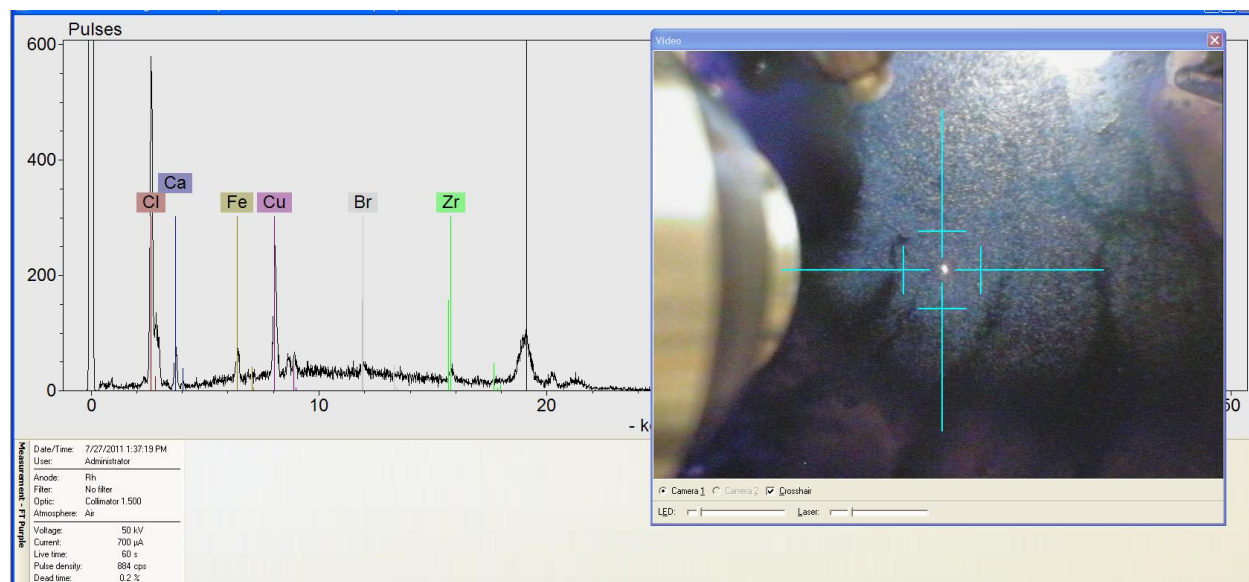
FT-Raman, 1064nm (note: in KBr)

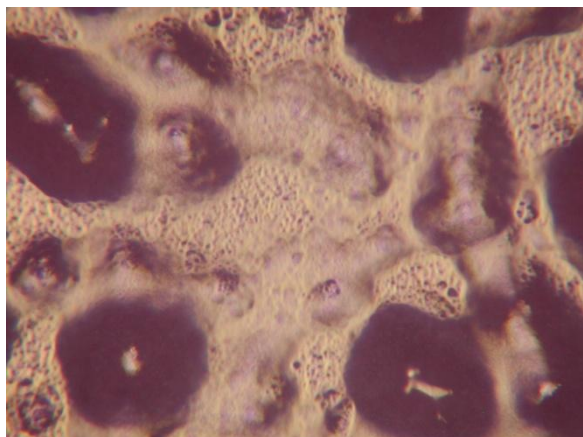
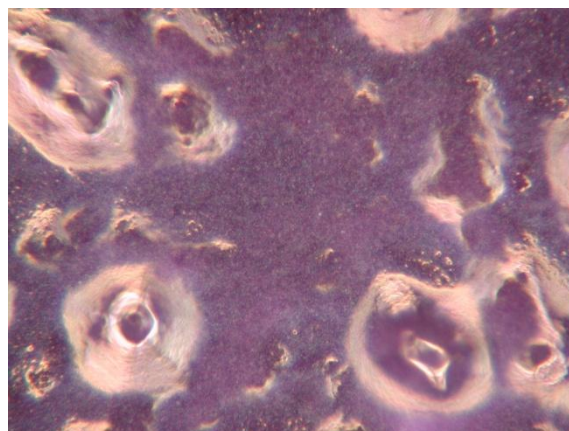
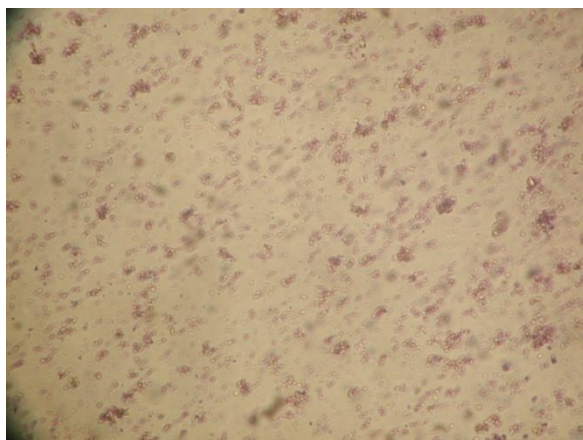
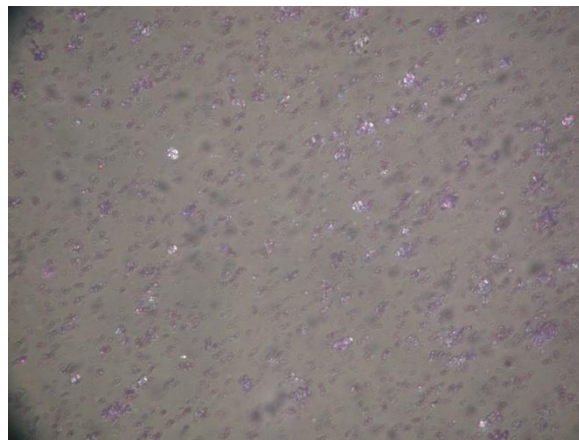


FT-IR (ATR)

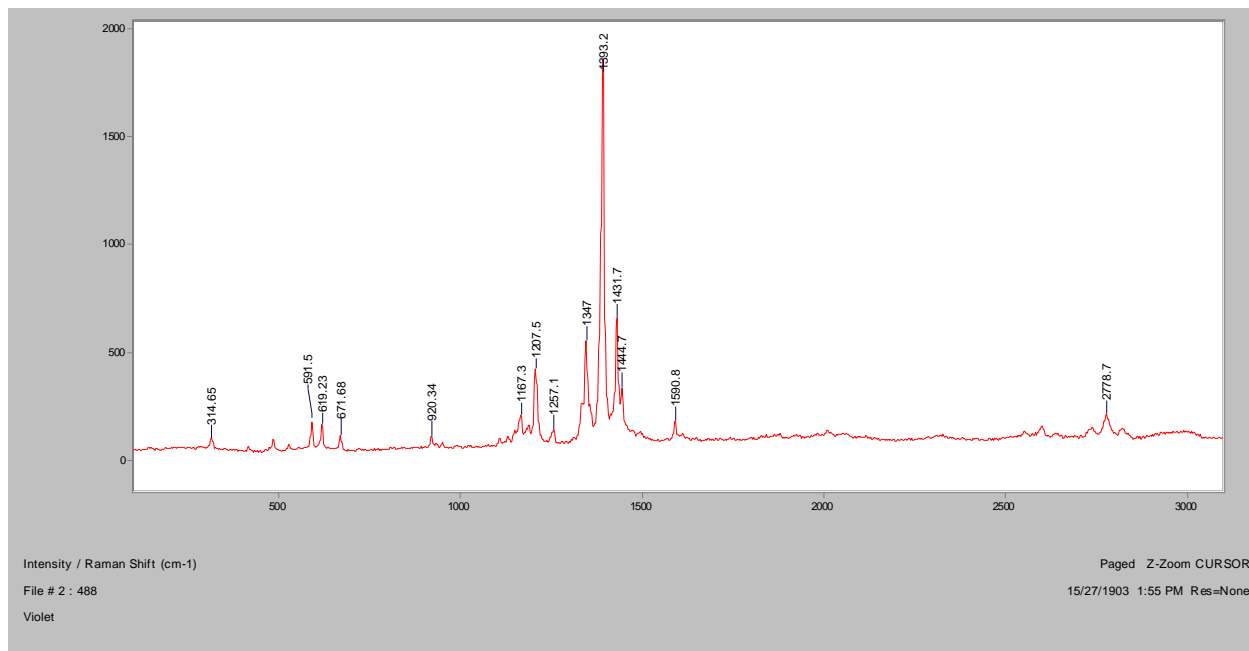


XRF

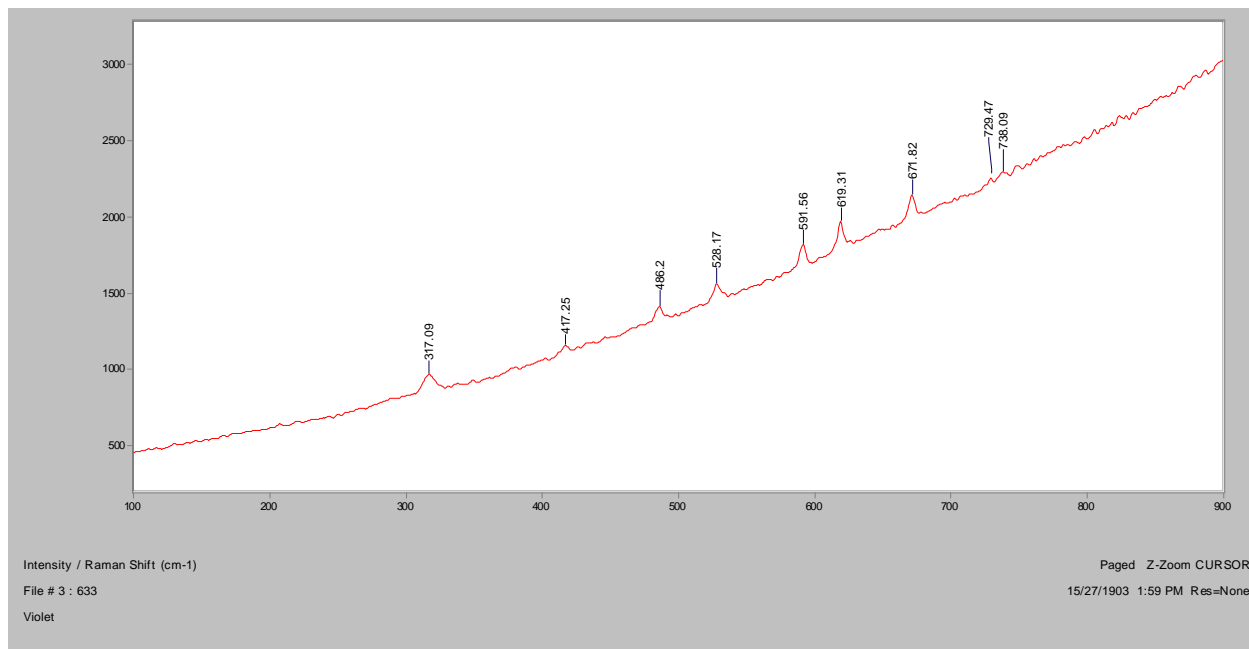


Violet**Bright Field, 100x****Dark Field, 100x****In RI 1.550, 400x****Crossed Polars, In RI 1.550, 400x**

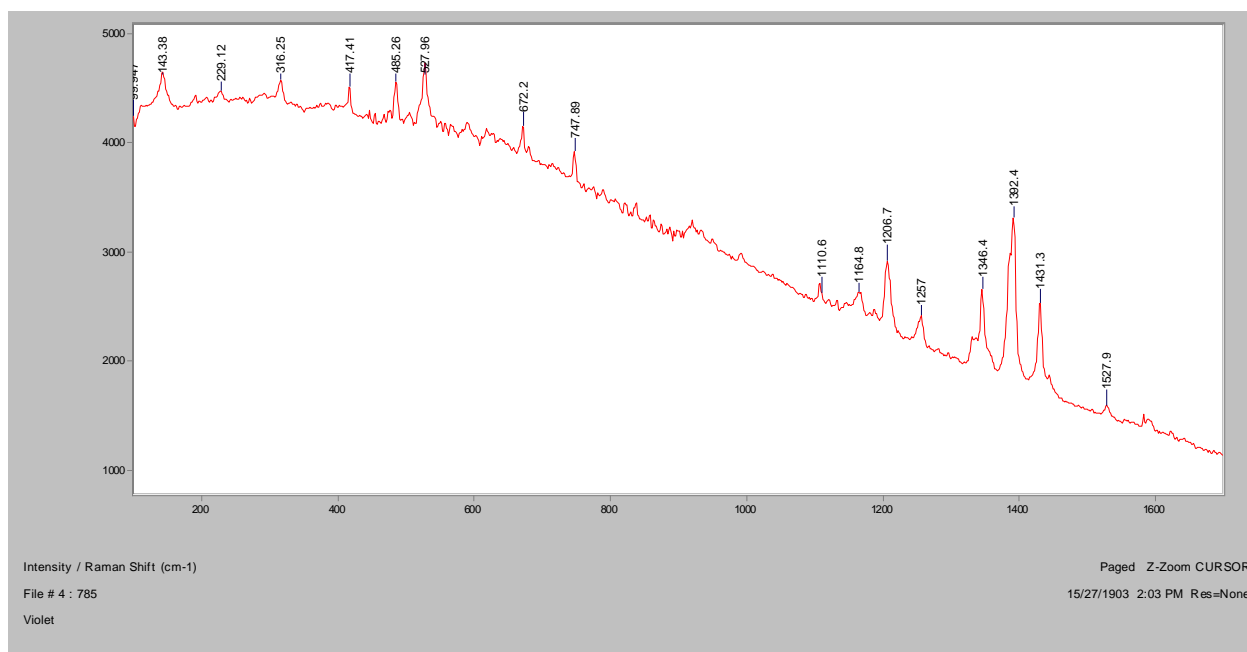
Normal Raman, 488nm



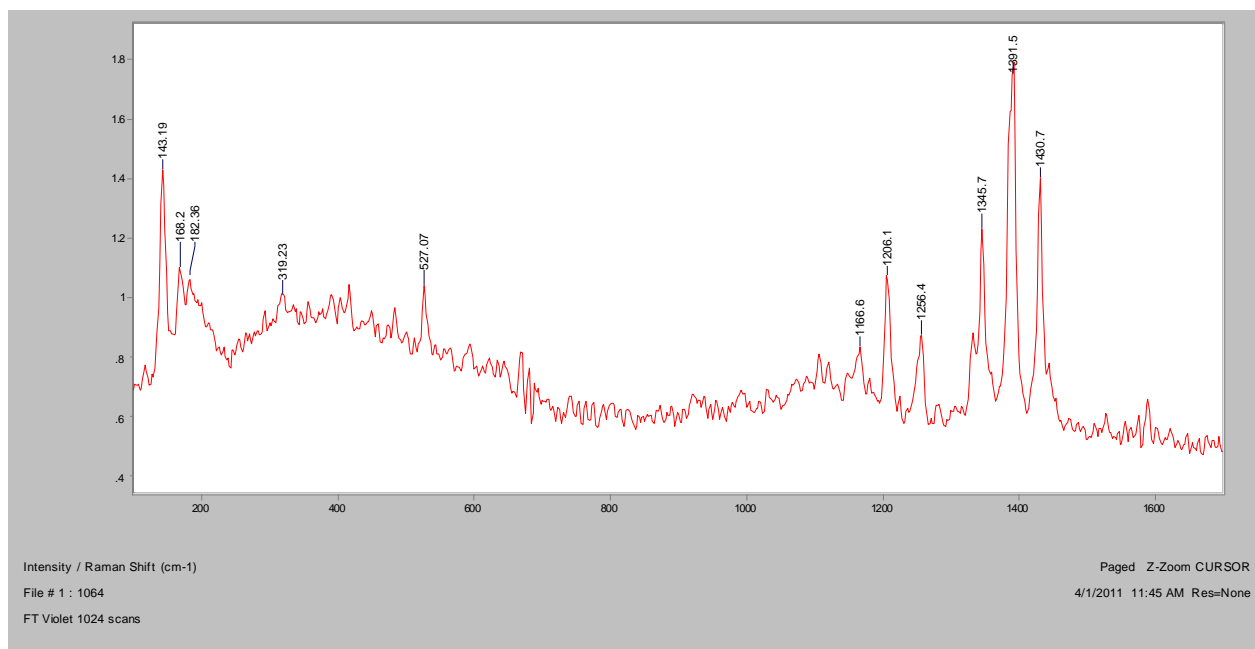
Normal Raman, 633nm



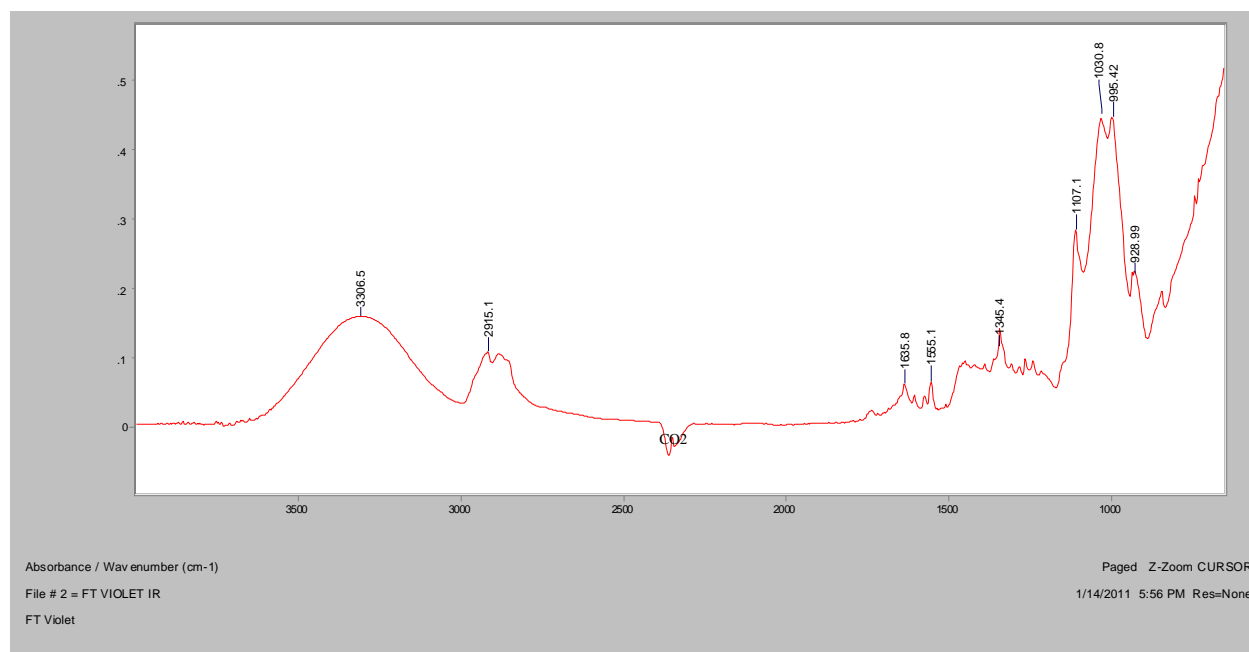
Normal Raman, 785nm



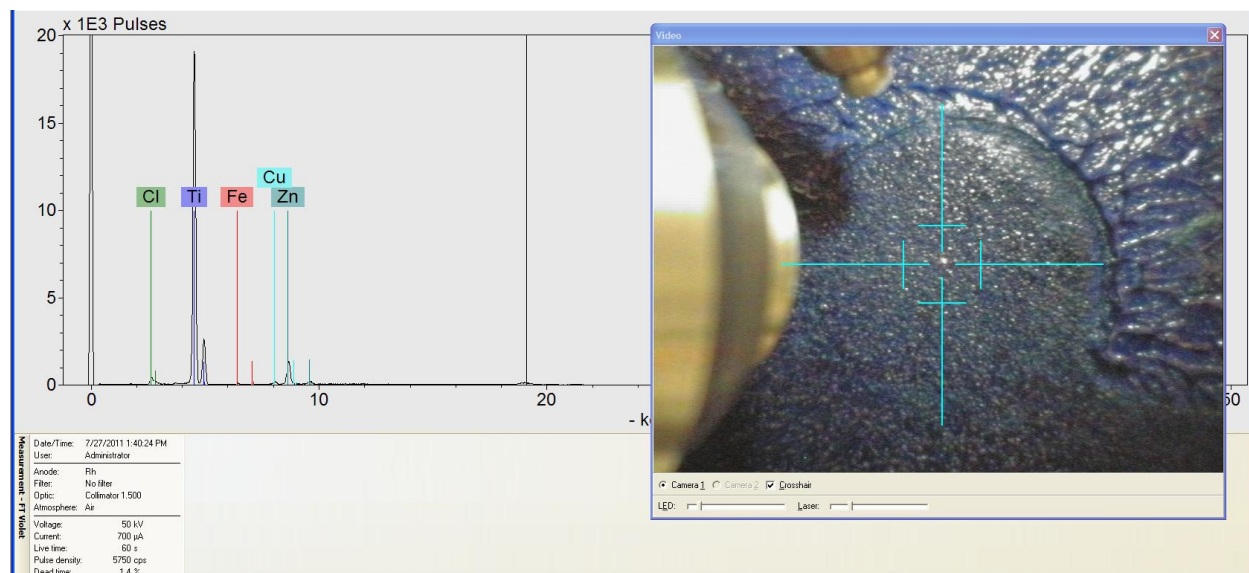
FT-Raman, 1064nm

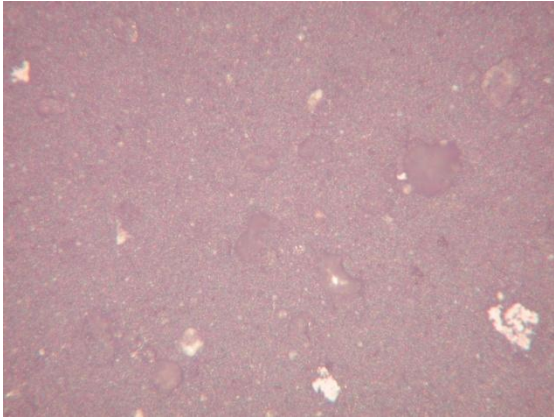
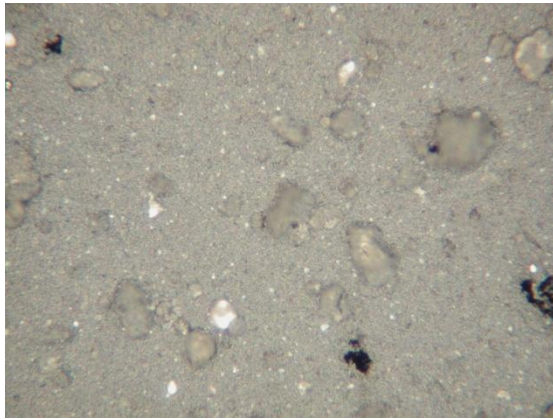
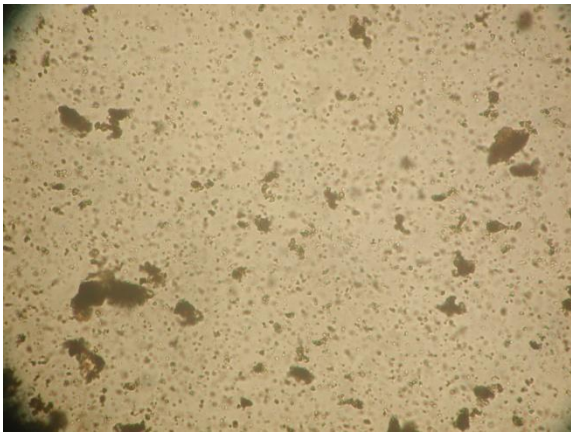
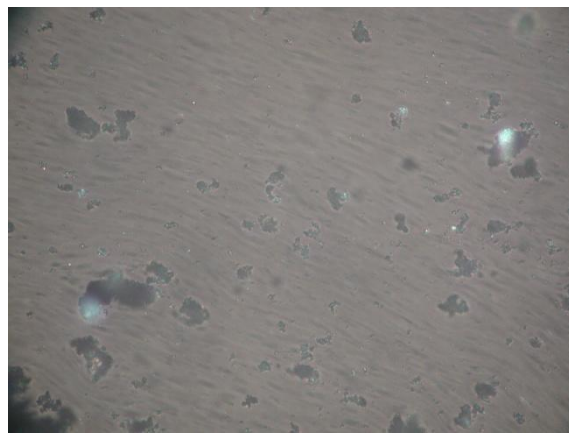


FT-IR (ATR)

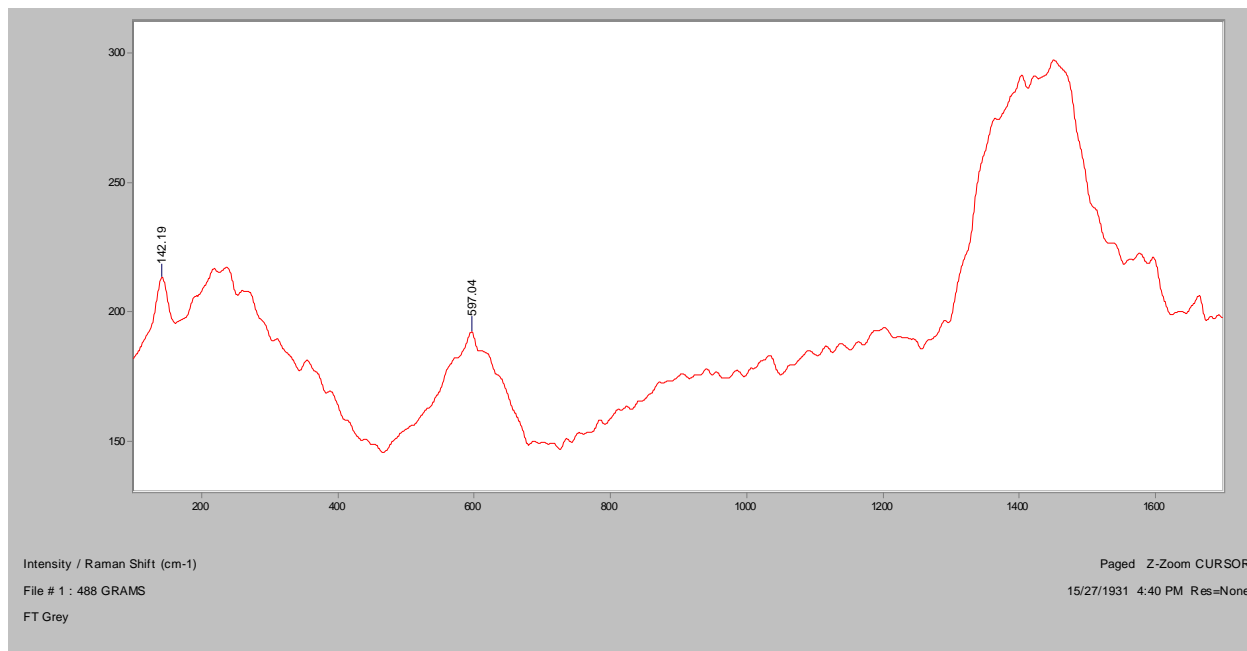


XRF

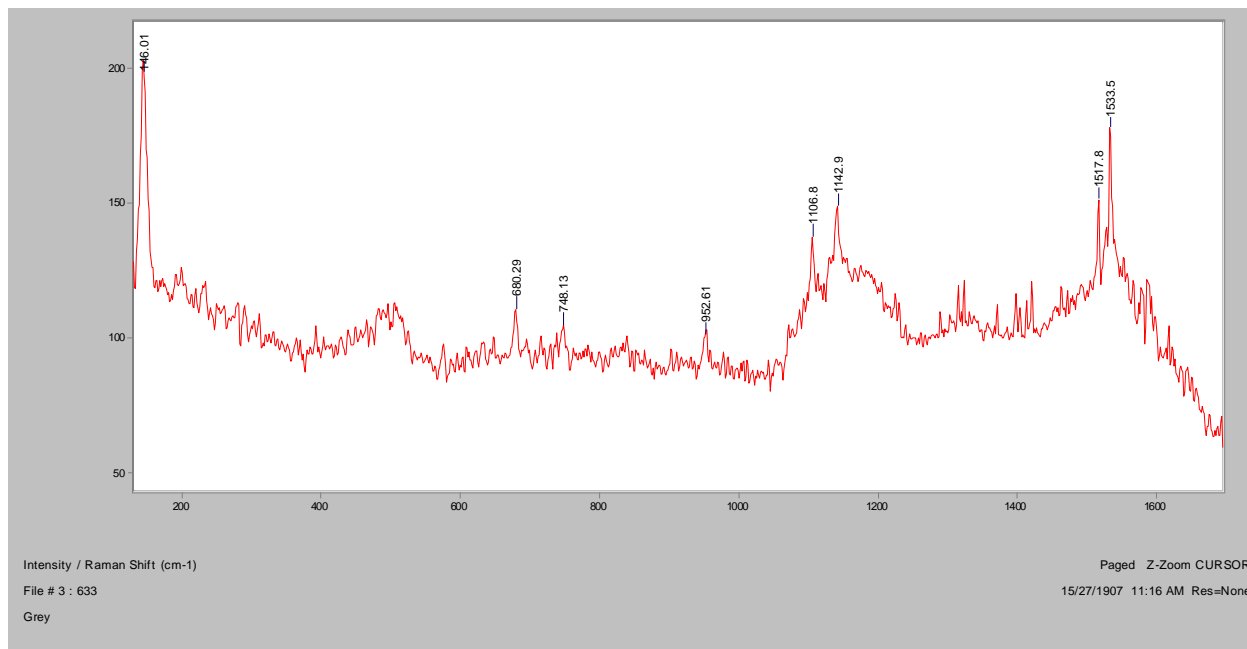


Grey**Bright Field, 100x****Dark Field, 100x****In RI 1.550, 400x****Crossed Polars, In RI 1.550, 400x**

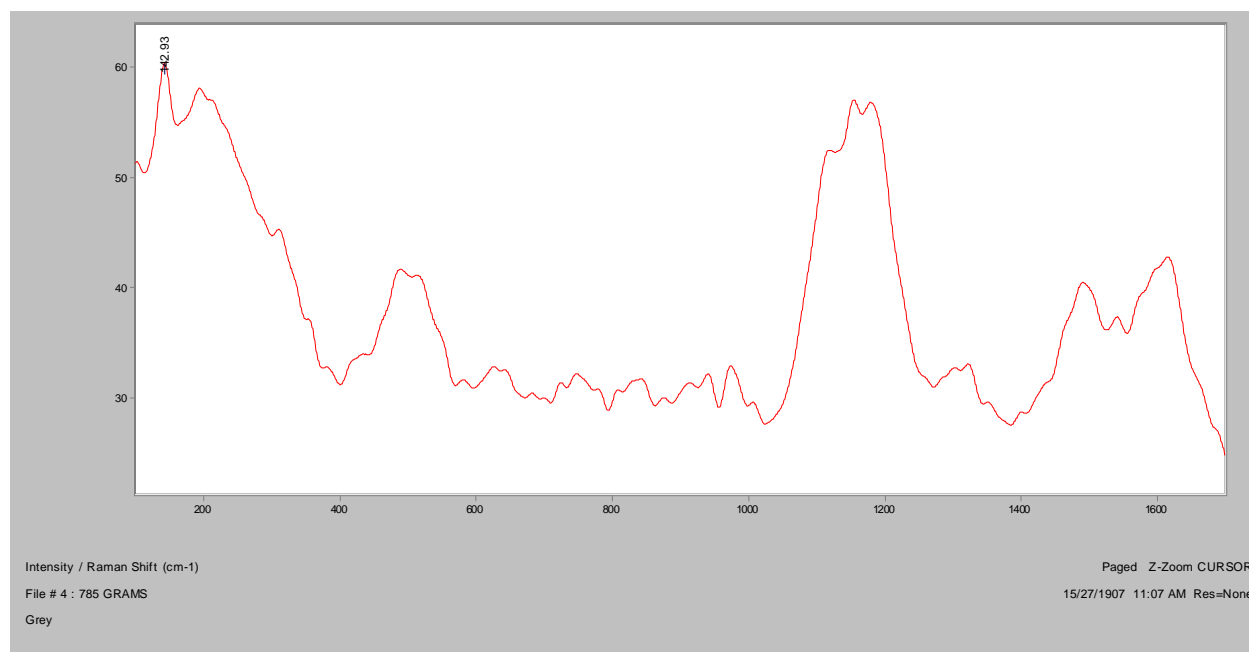
Normal Raman, 488nm



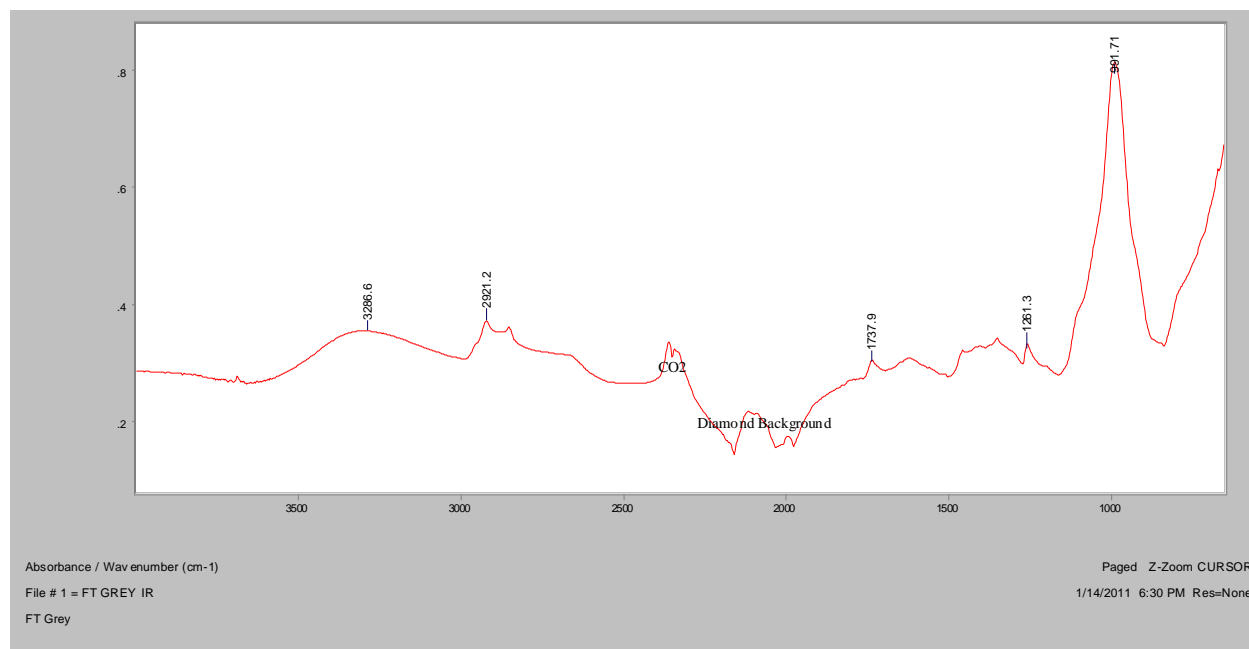
Normal Raman, 633nm



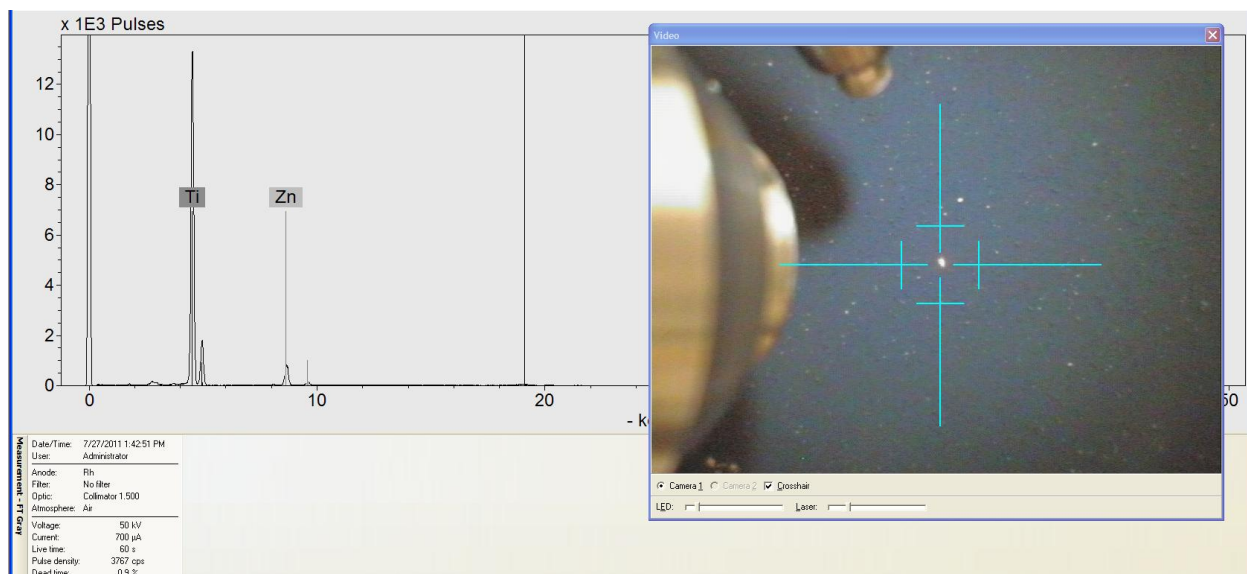
Normal Raman, 785nm

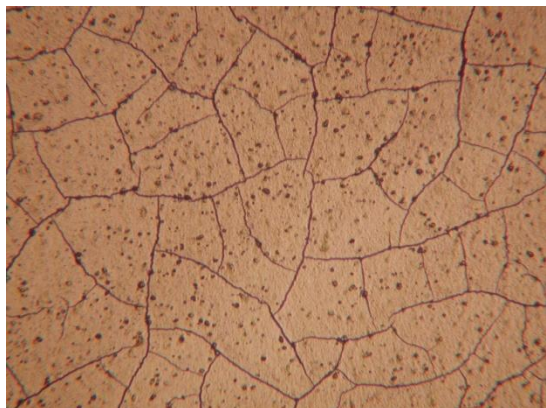
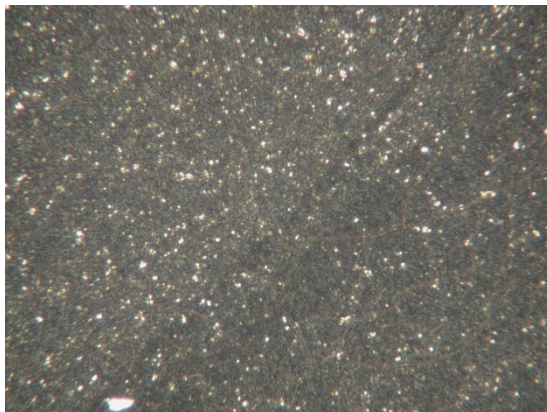
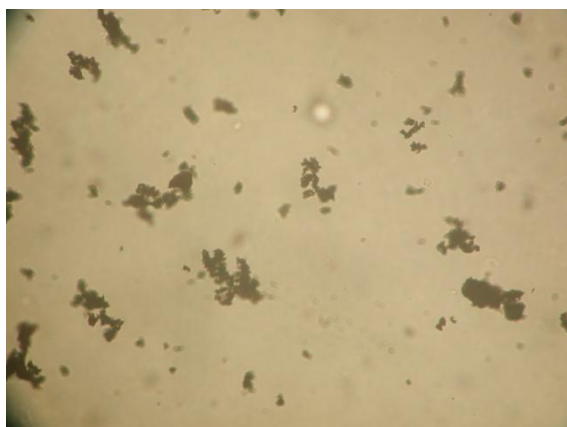
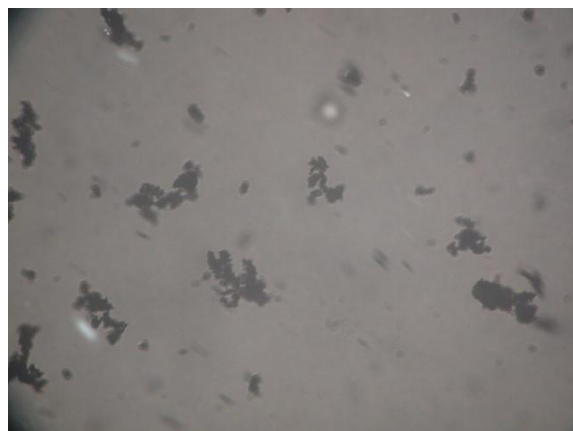


FT-IR (ATR)

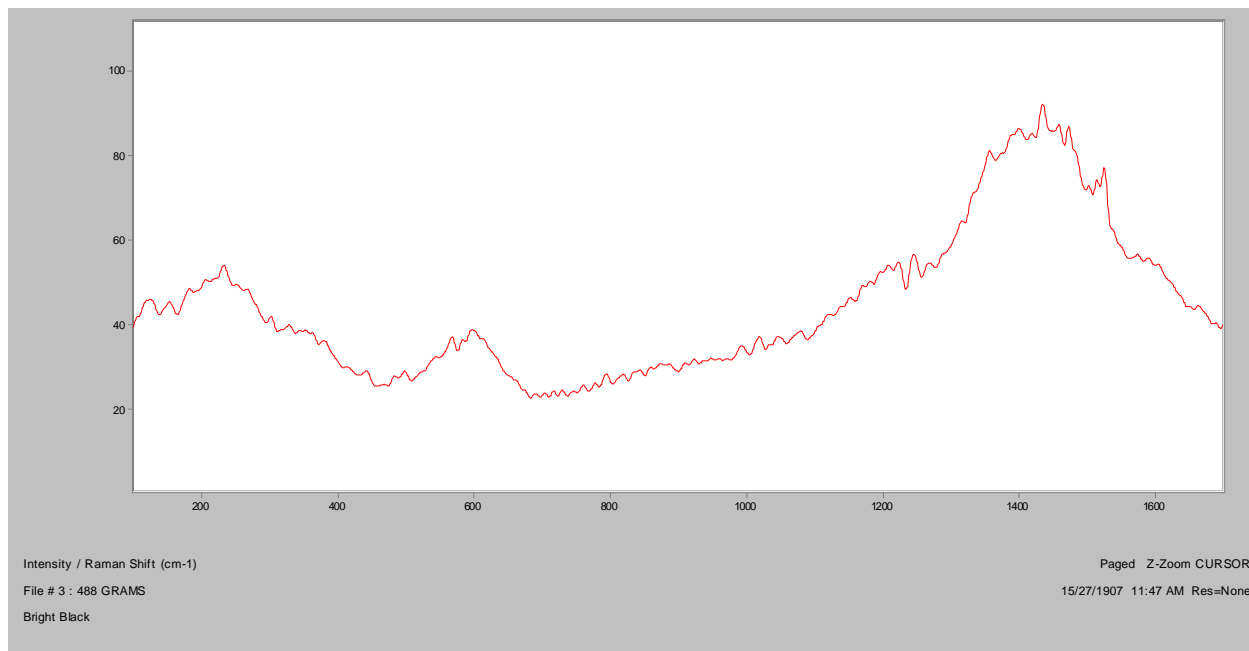


XRF

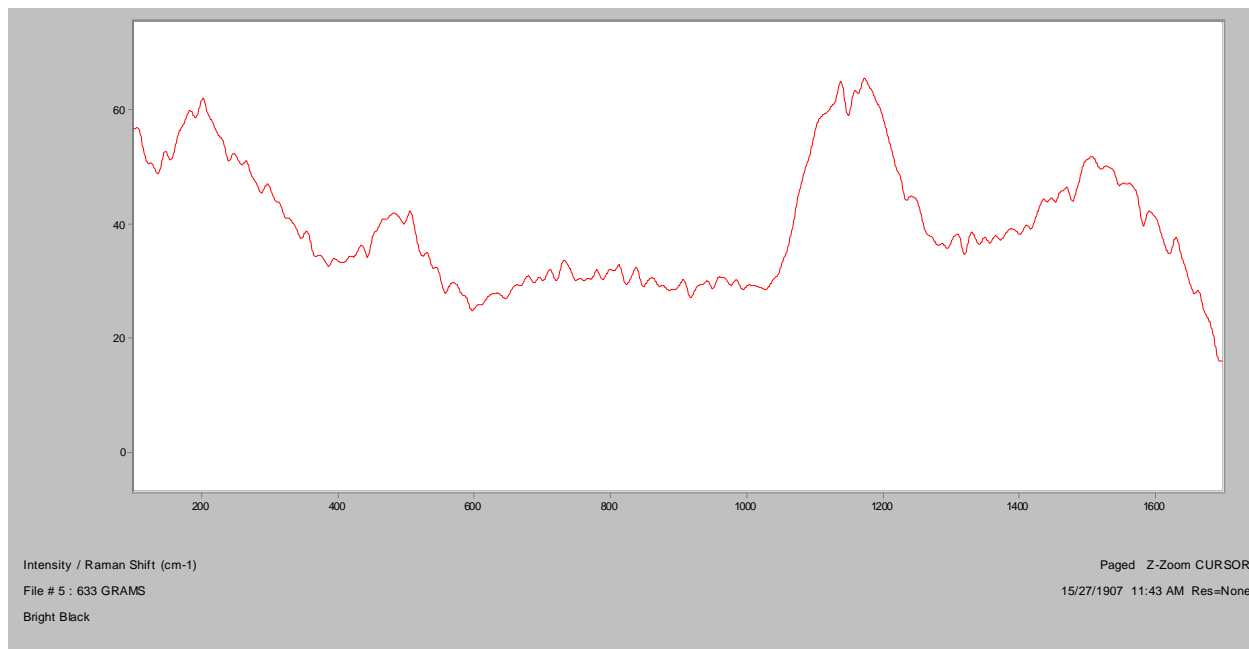


Bright Black**Bright Field, 100x****Dark Field, 100x****In RI 1.550, 400x****Crossed Polars, In RI 1.550, 400x**

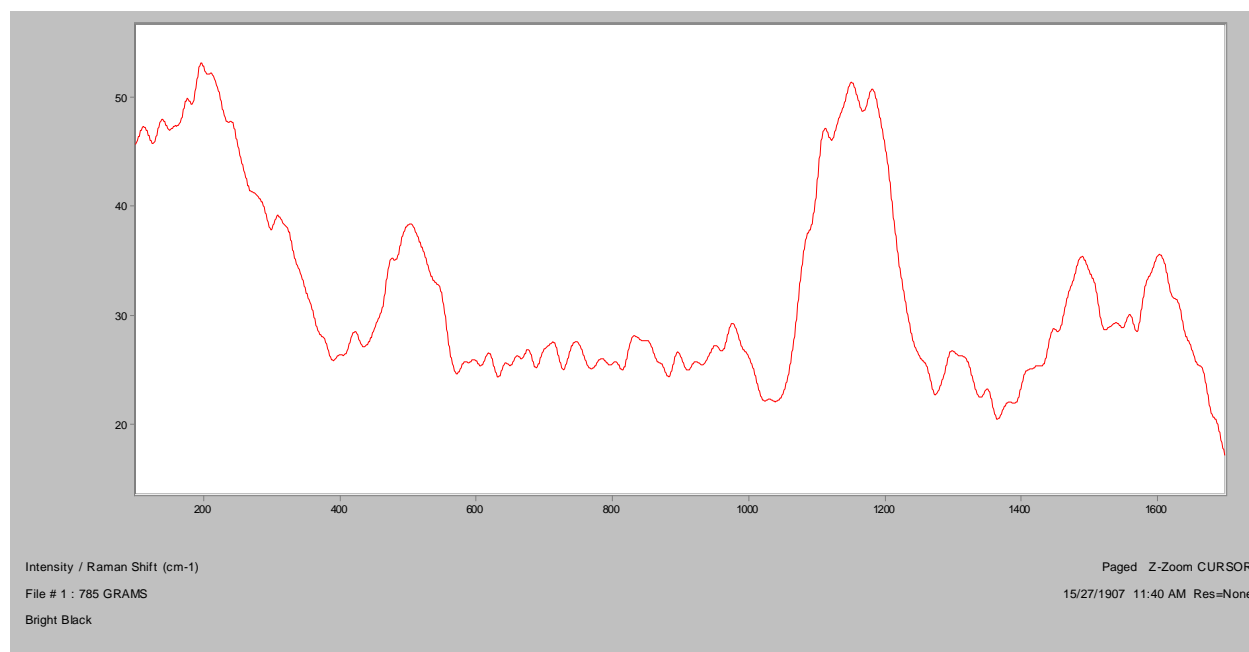
Normal Raman, 488nm



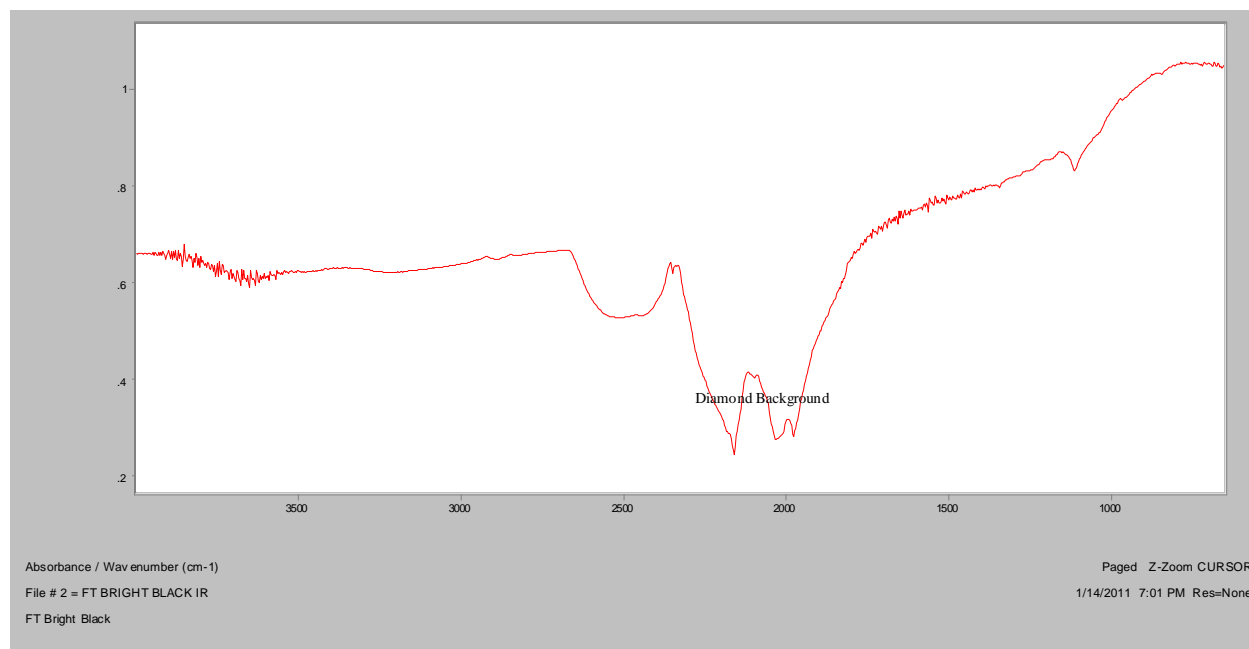
Normal Raman, 633nm



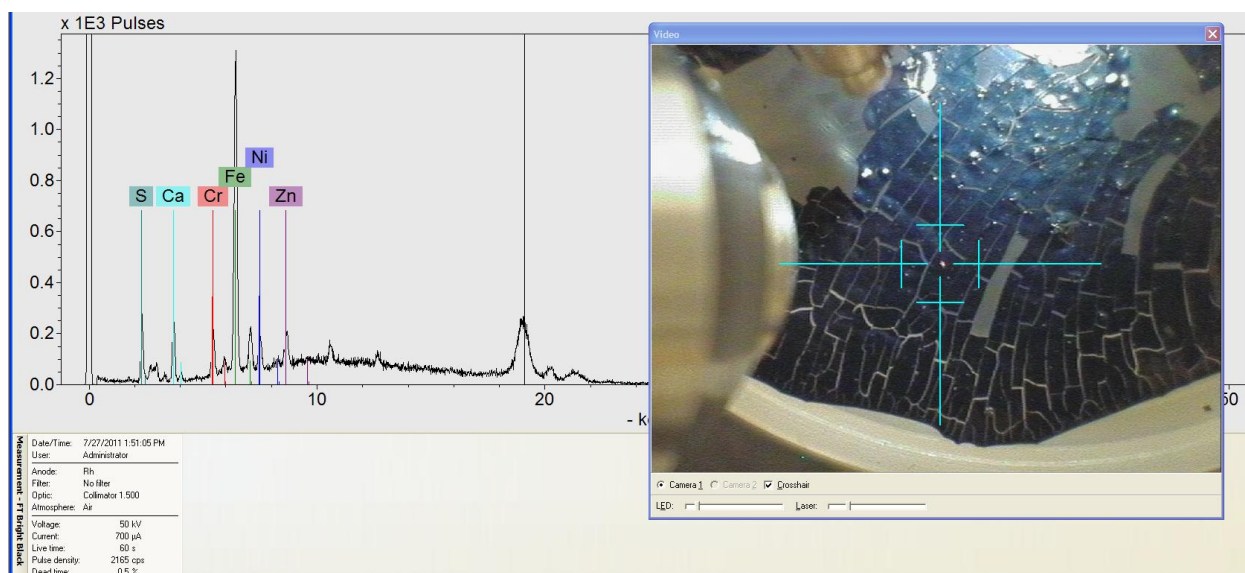
Normal Raman, 785nm

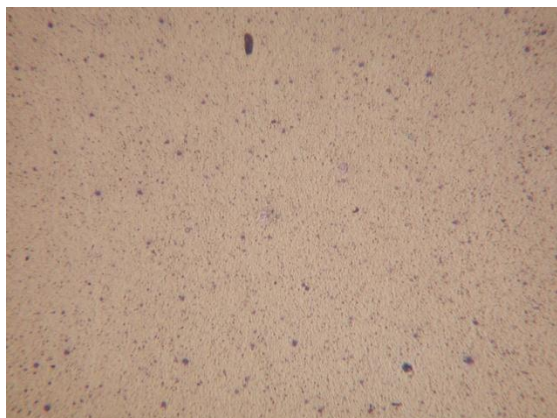
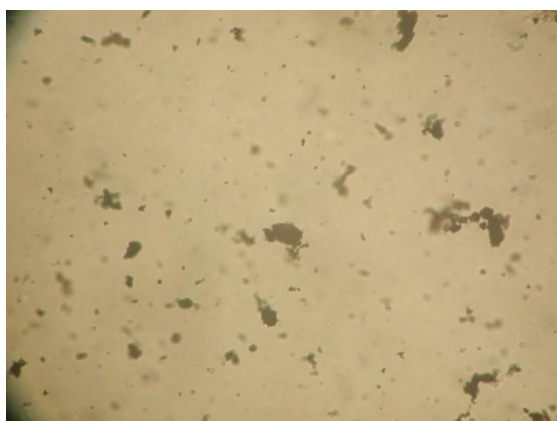
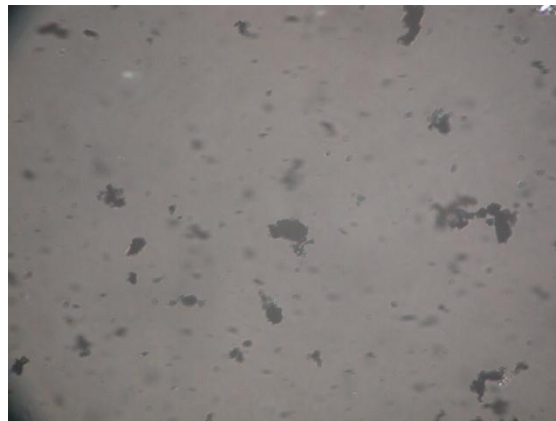
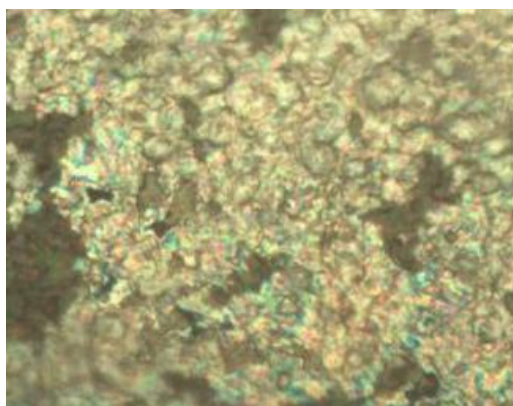


FT-IR (ATR)

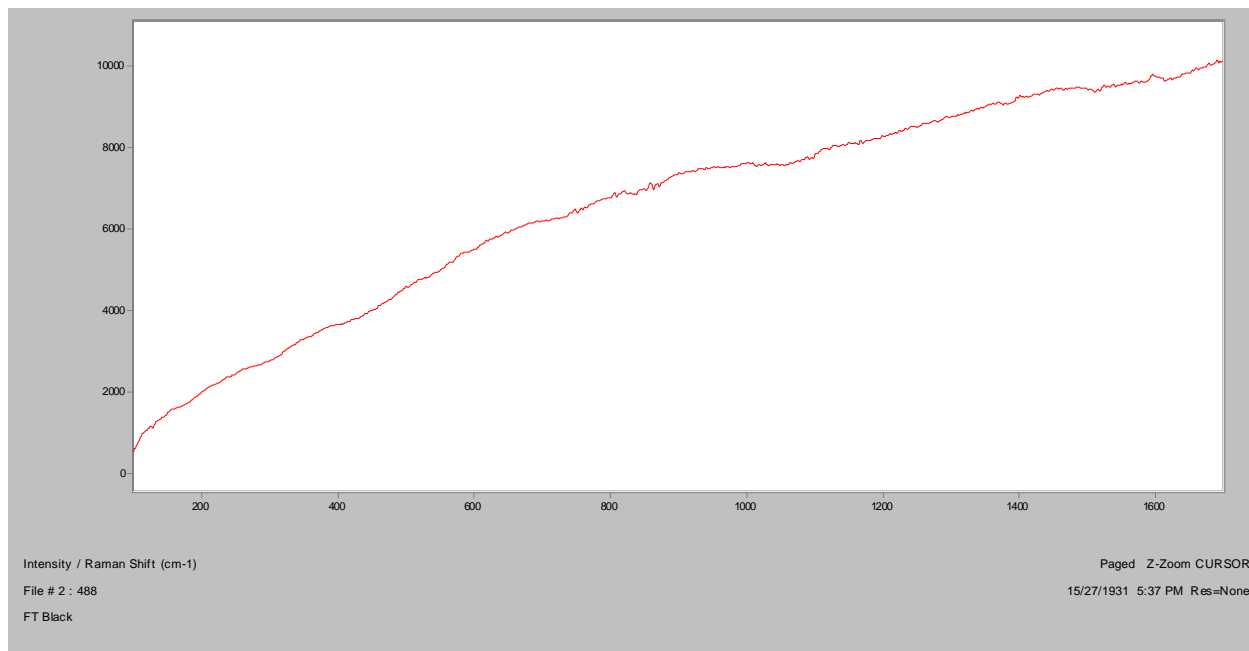


XRF

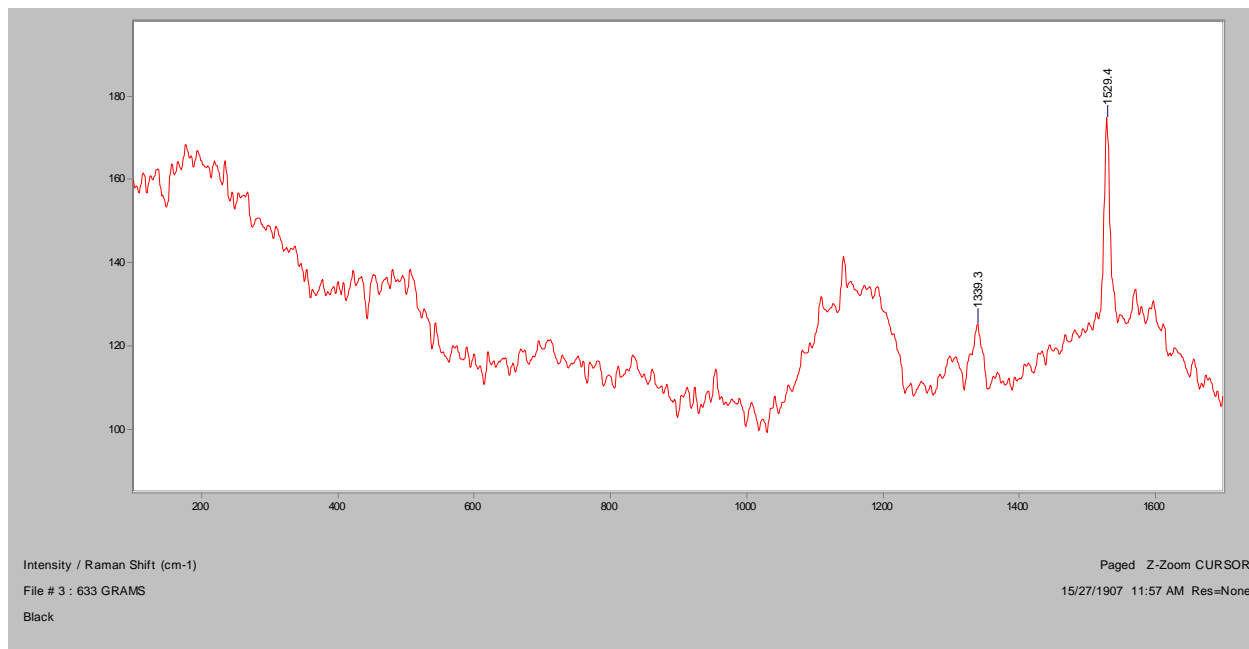


Black**Bright Field, 100x****Dark Field, 100x****In RI 1.550, 400x****Crossed Polars, In RI 1.550, 400x****Raman microscope image, 1000x**

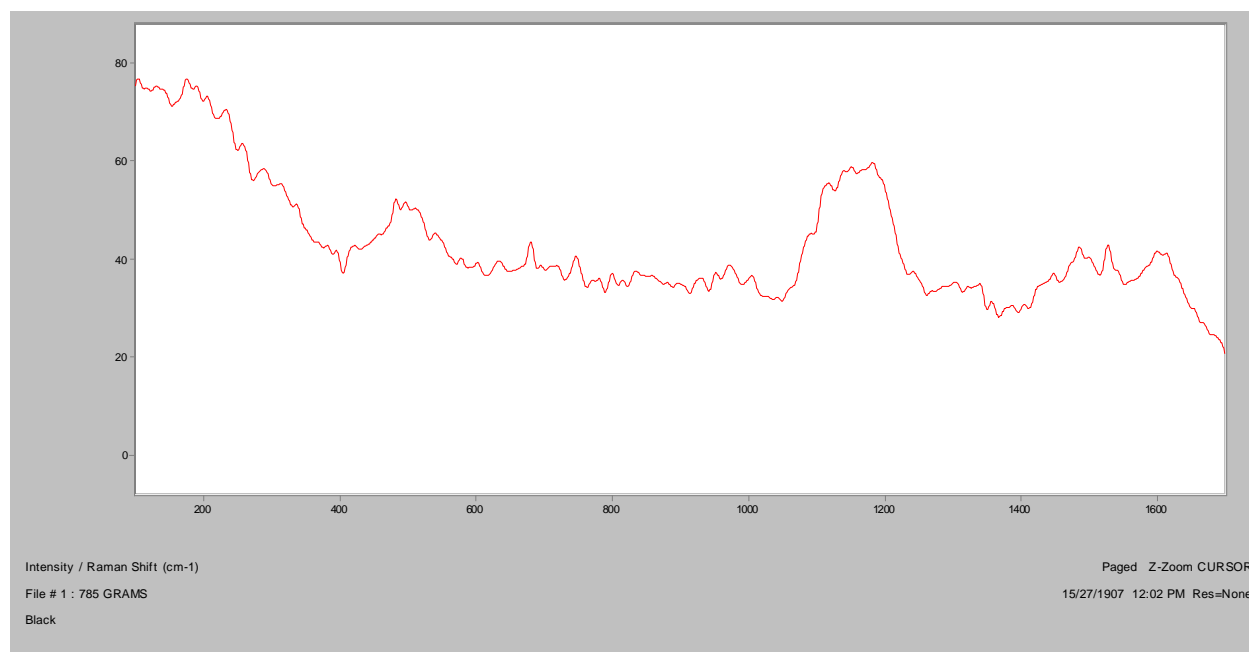
Normal Raman, 488nm



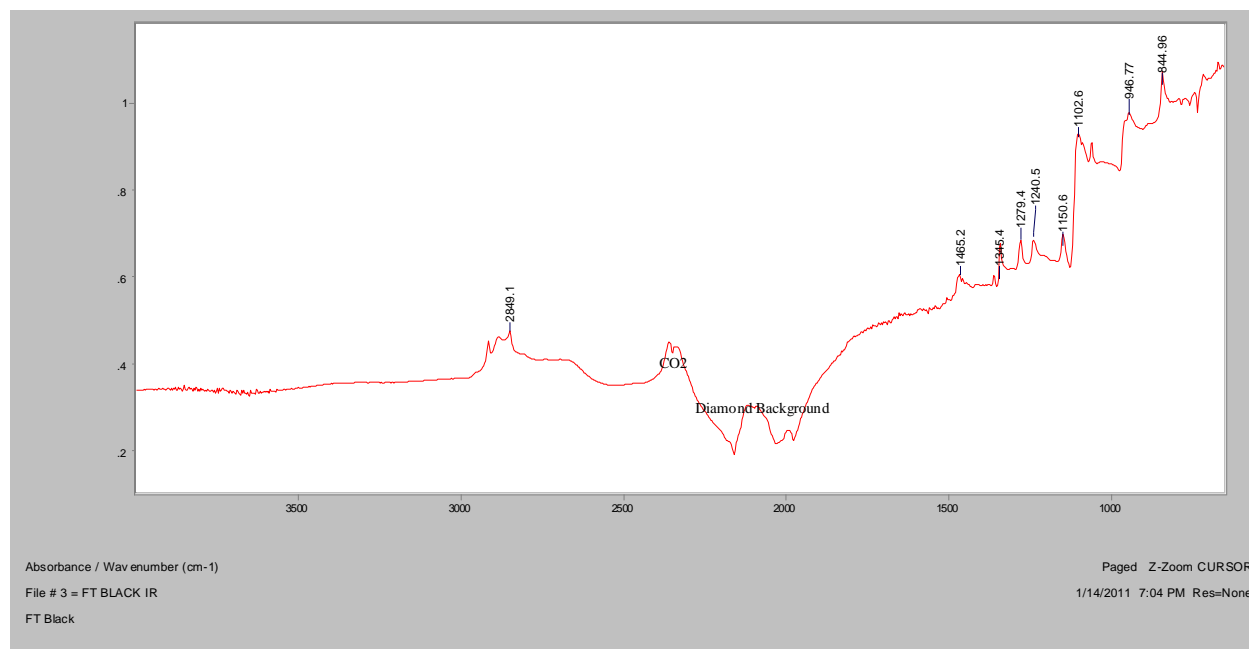
Normal Raman, 633nm



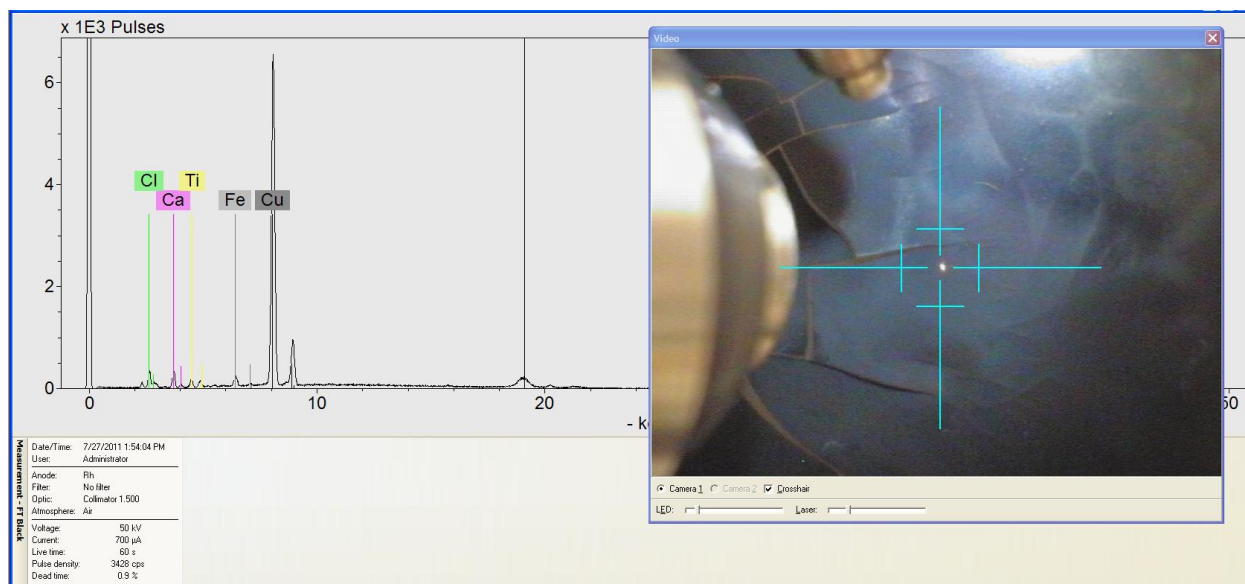
Normal Raman, 785nm

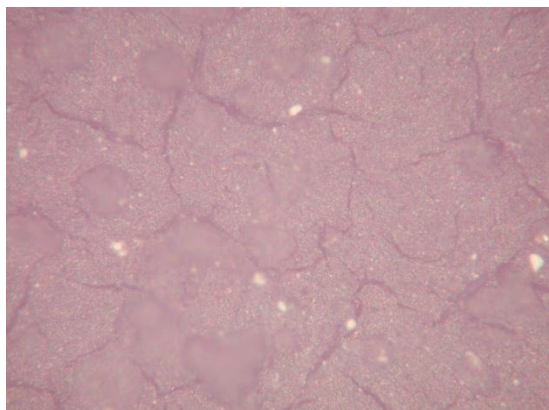
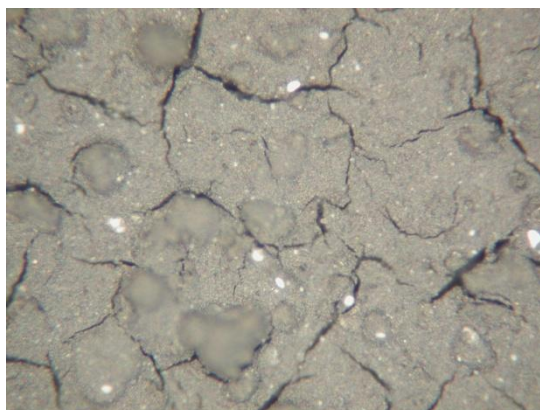
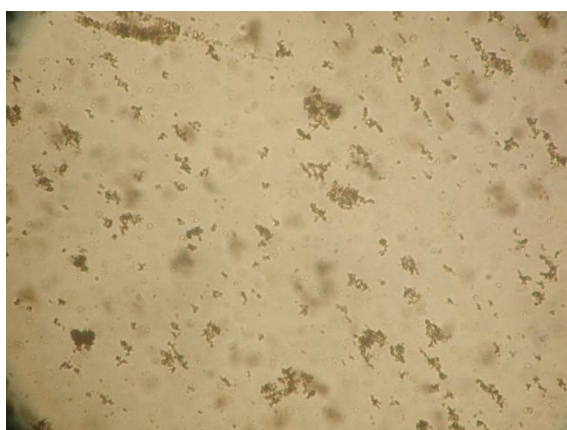
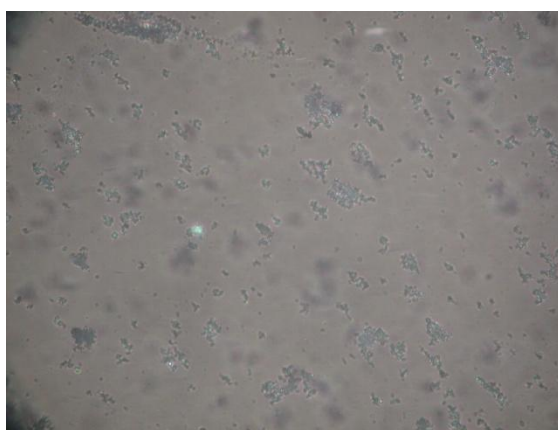


FT-IR (ATR)

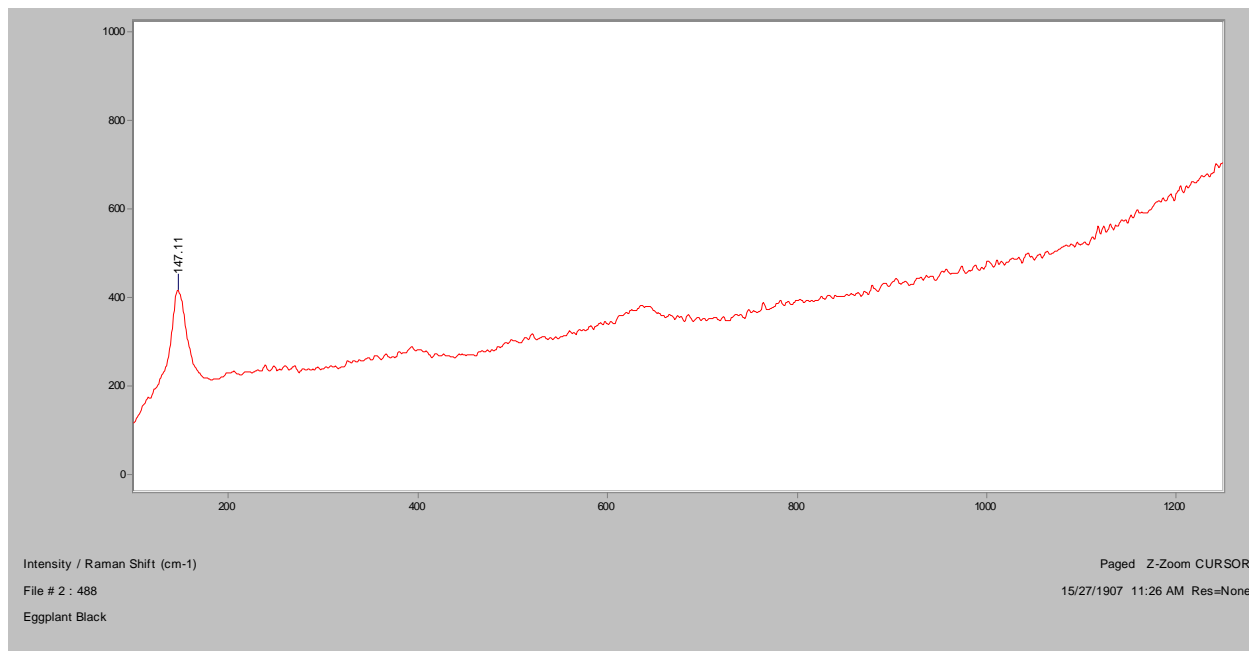


XRF

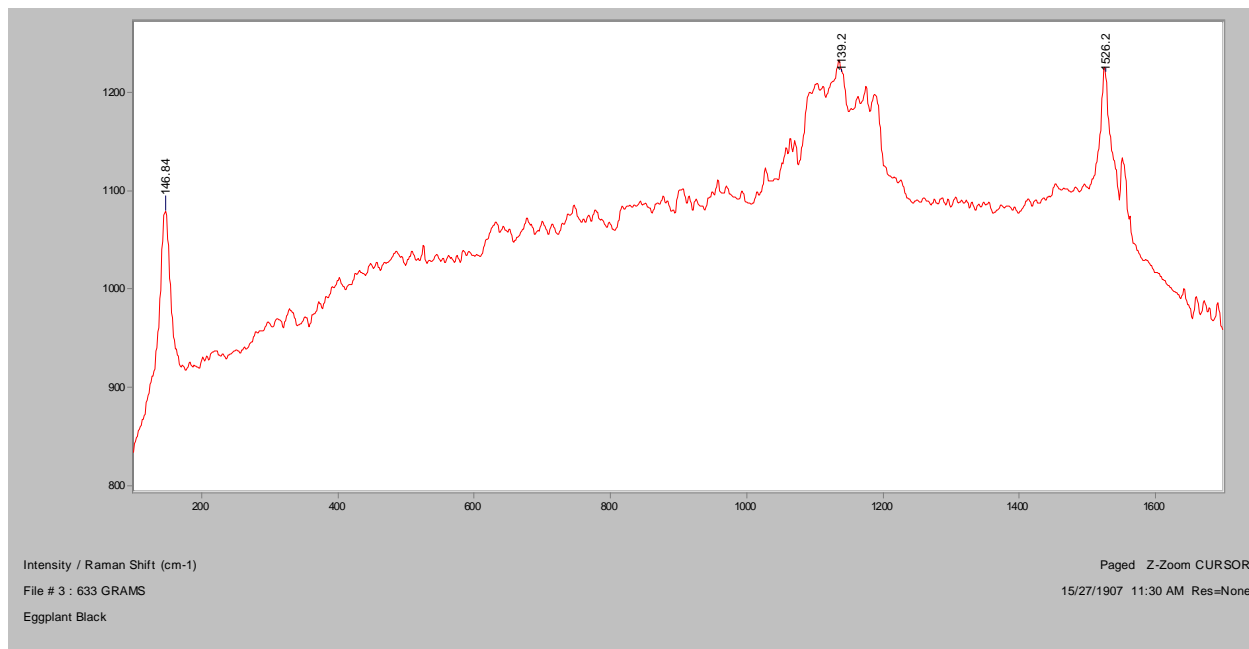


Eggplant Black**Bright Field, 100x****Dark Field, 100x****In RI 1.550, 400x****Crossed Polars, In RI 1.550, 400x**

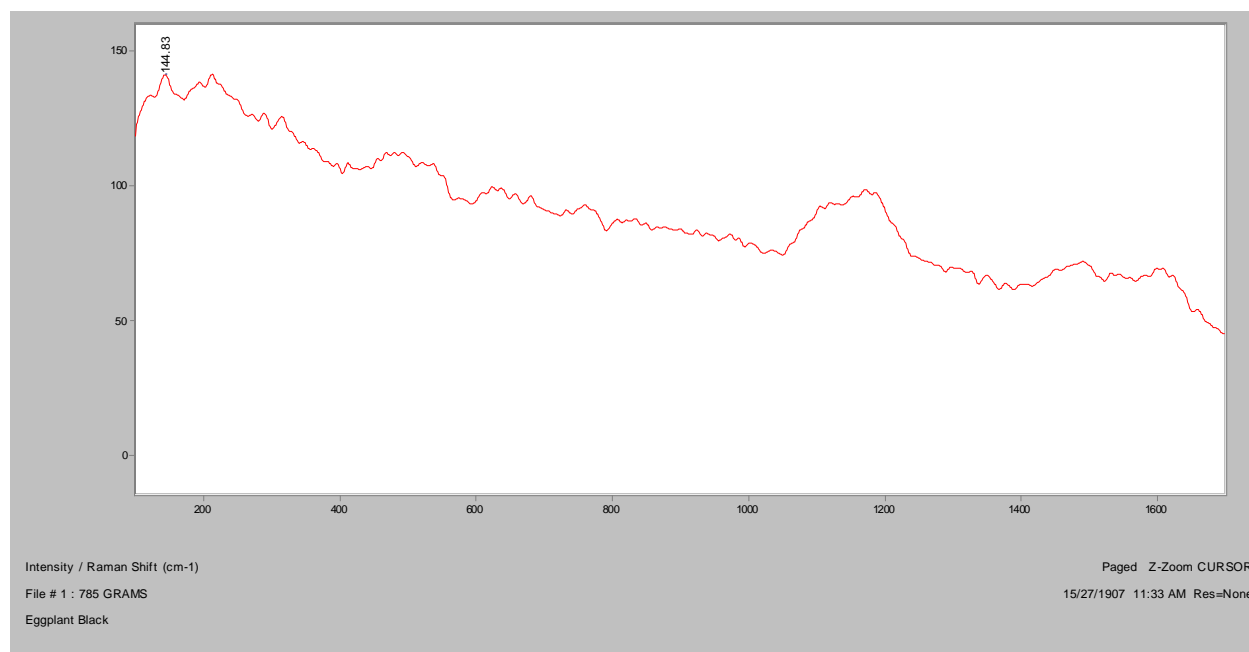
Normal Raman, 488nm



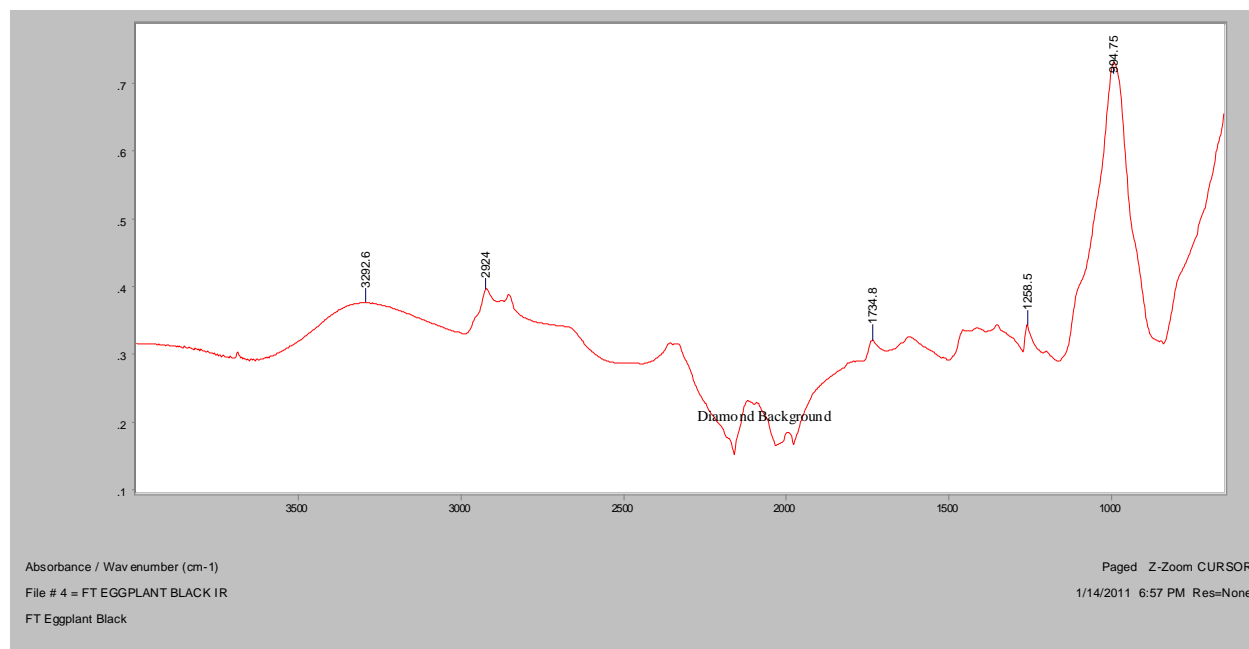
Normal Raman, 633nm

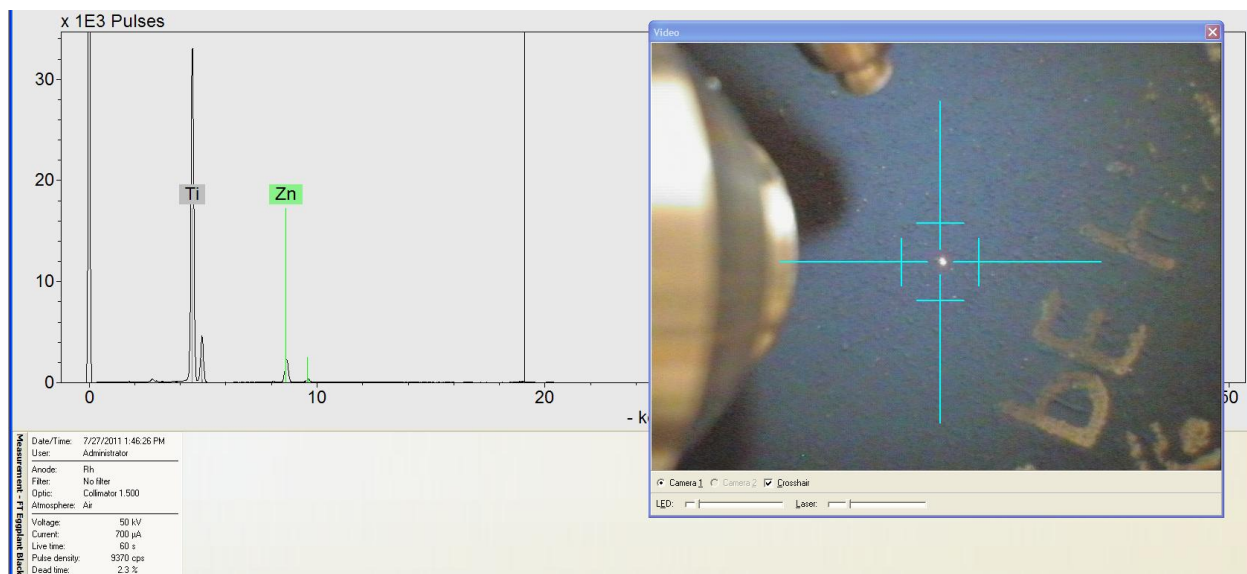


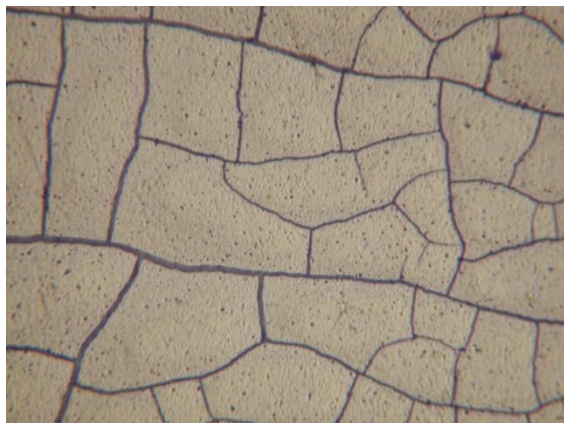
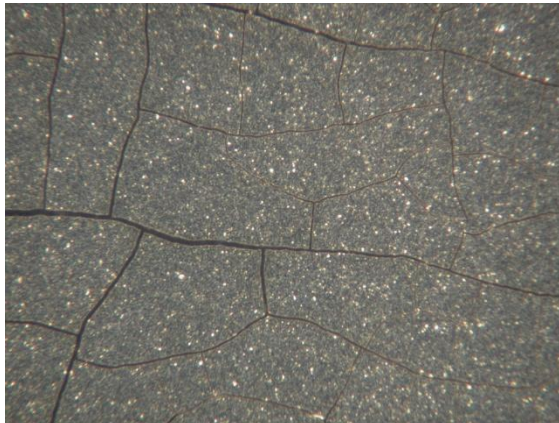
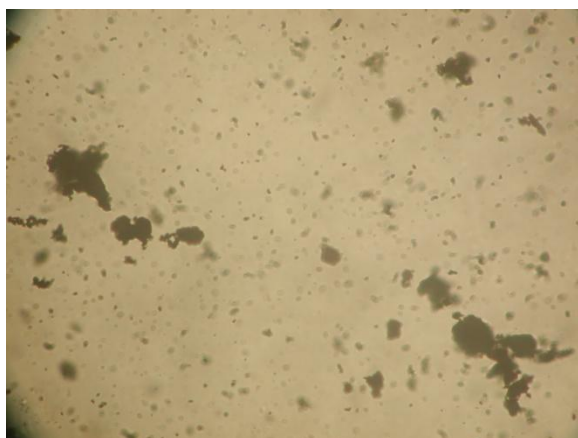
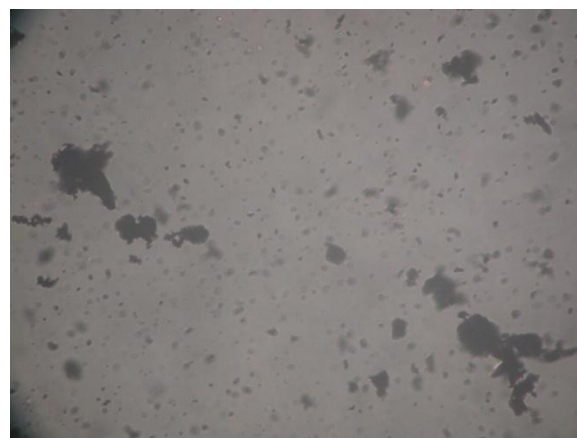
Normal Raman, 785nm



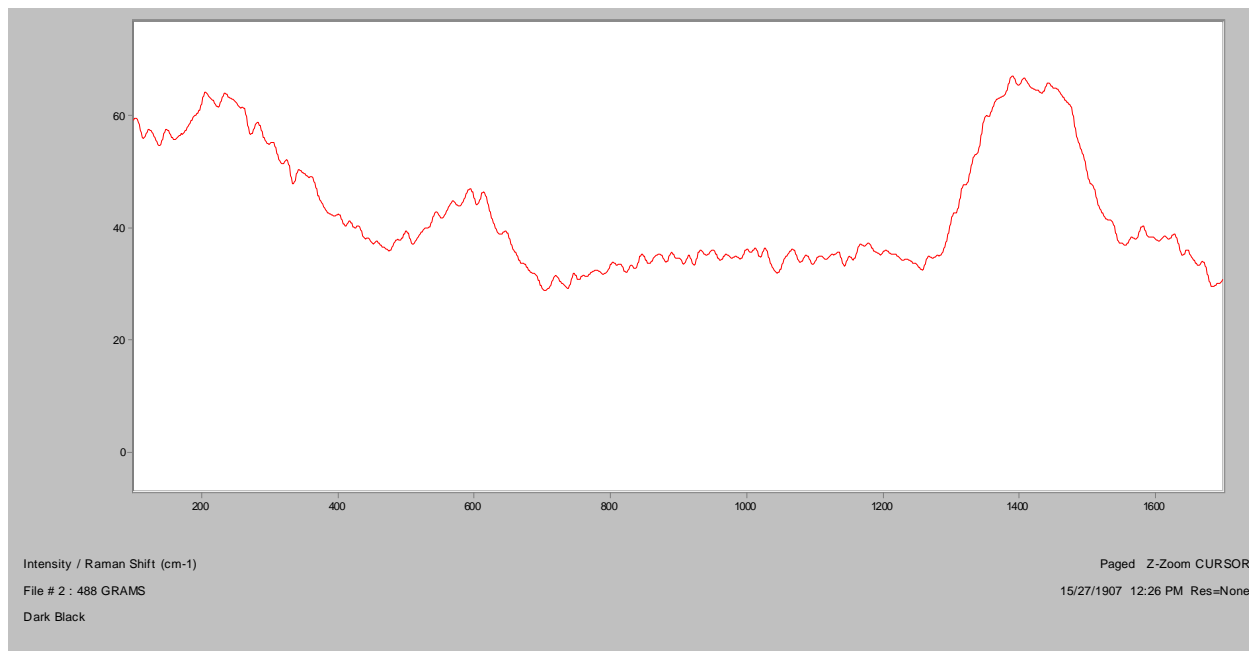
FT-IR (ATR)



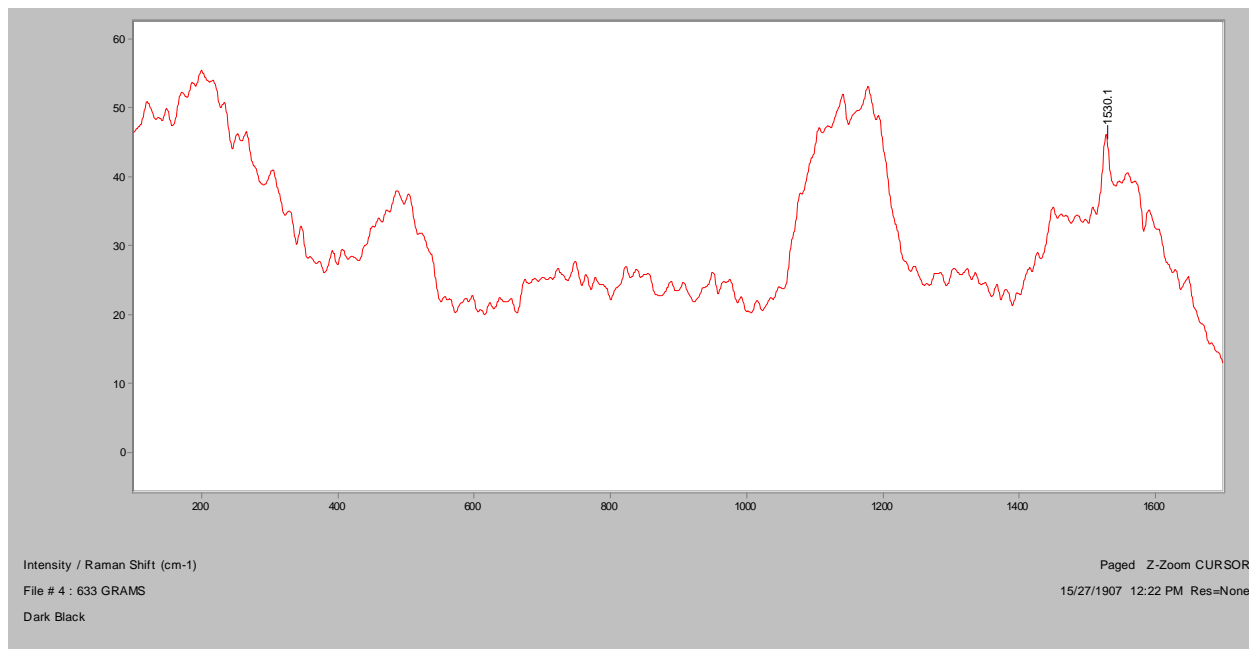
XRF

Dark Black**Bright Field, 100x****Dark Field, 100x****In RI 1.550, 400x****Crossed Polars, In RI 1.550, 400x**

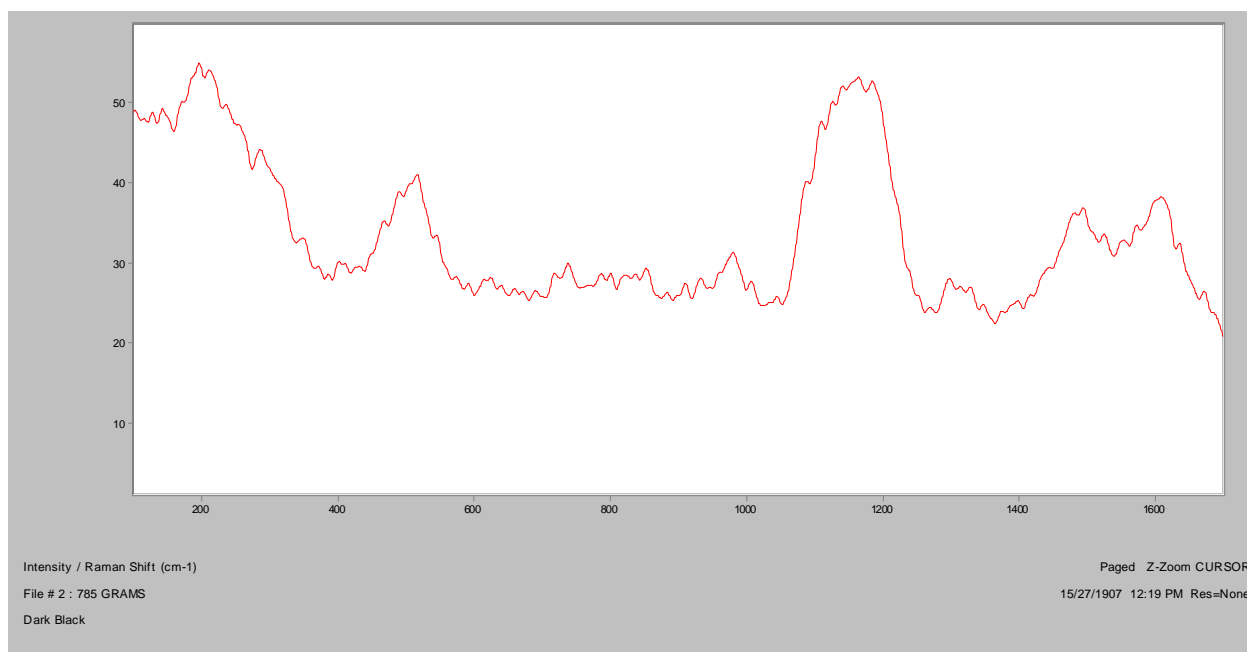
Normal Raman, 488nm



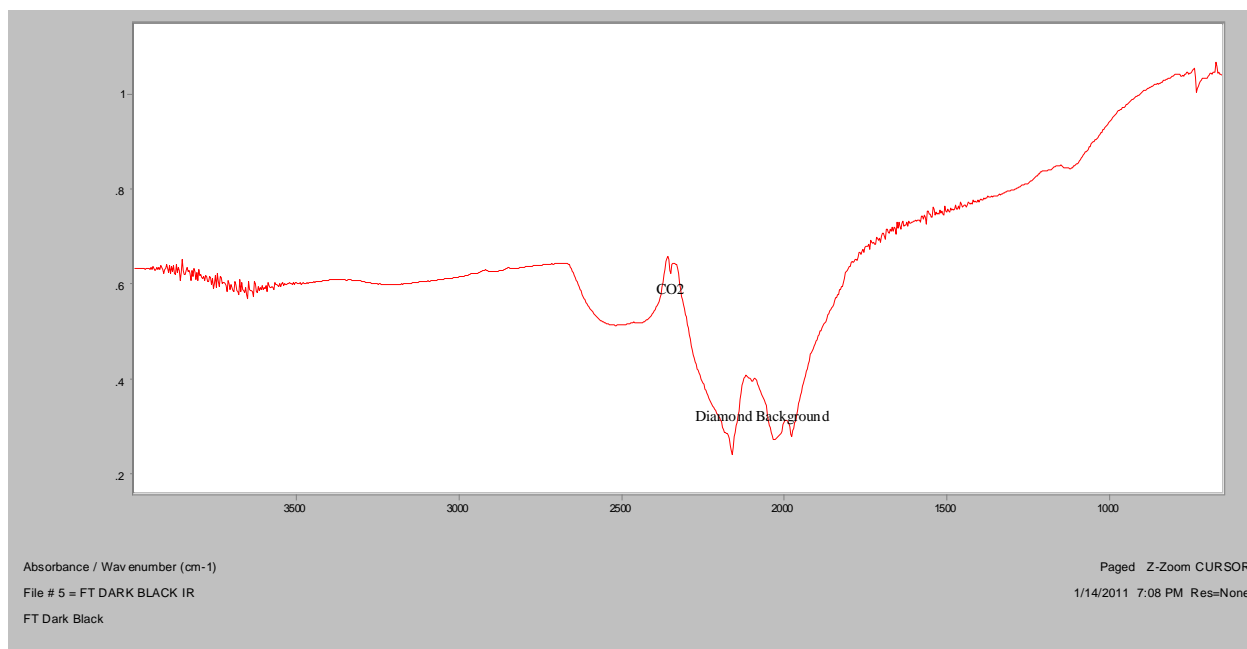
Normal Raman, 633nm

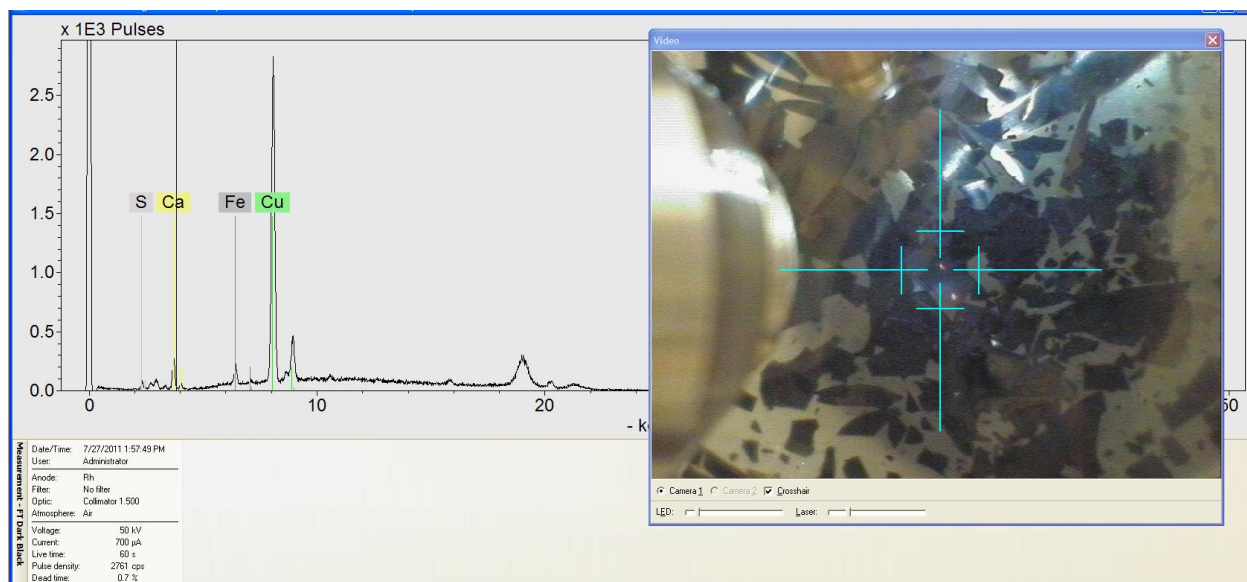


Normal Raman, 785nm

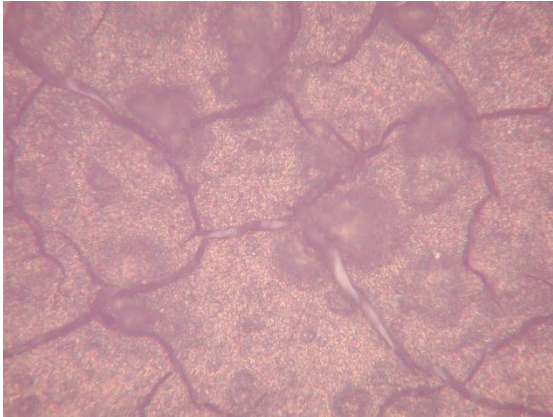


FT-IR (ATR)



XRF

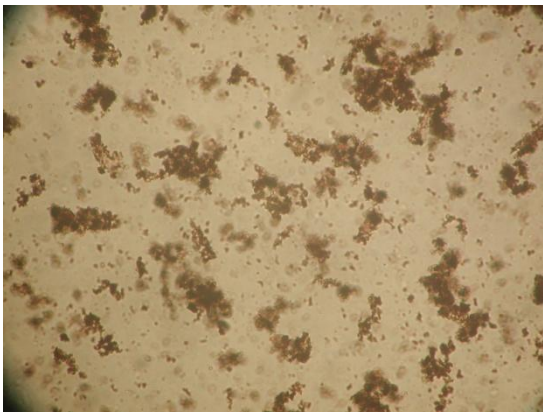
Sayonara Suede



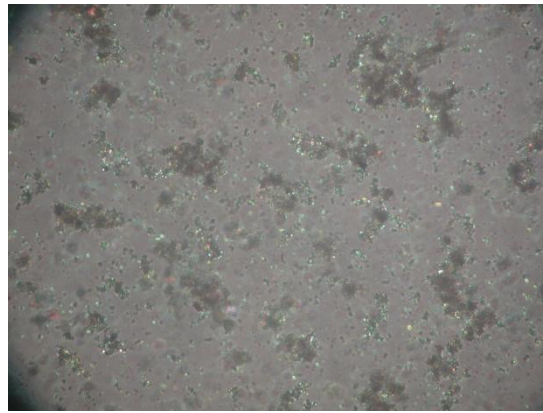
Bright Field, 100x



Dark Field, 100x

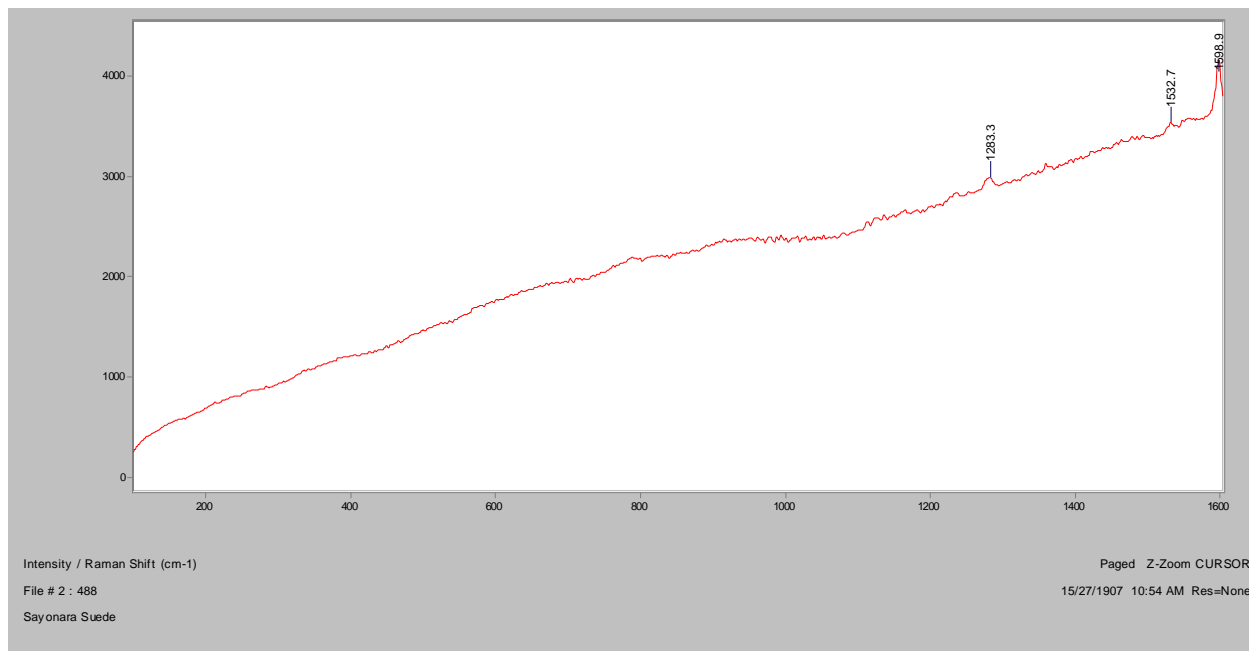


In RI 1.550, 400x

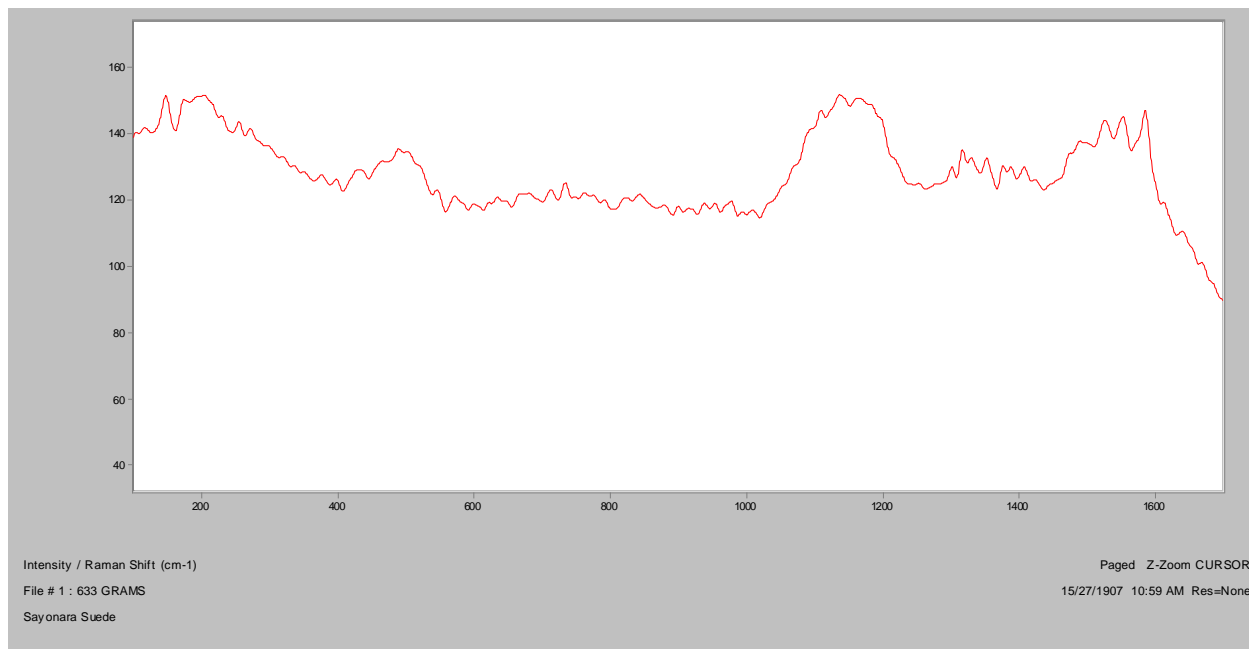


Crossed Polars, In RI 1.550, 400x

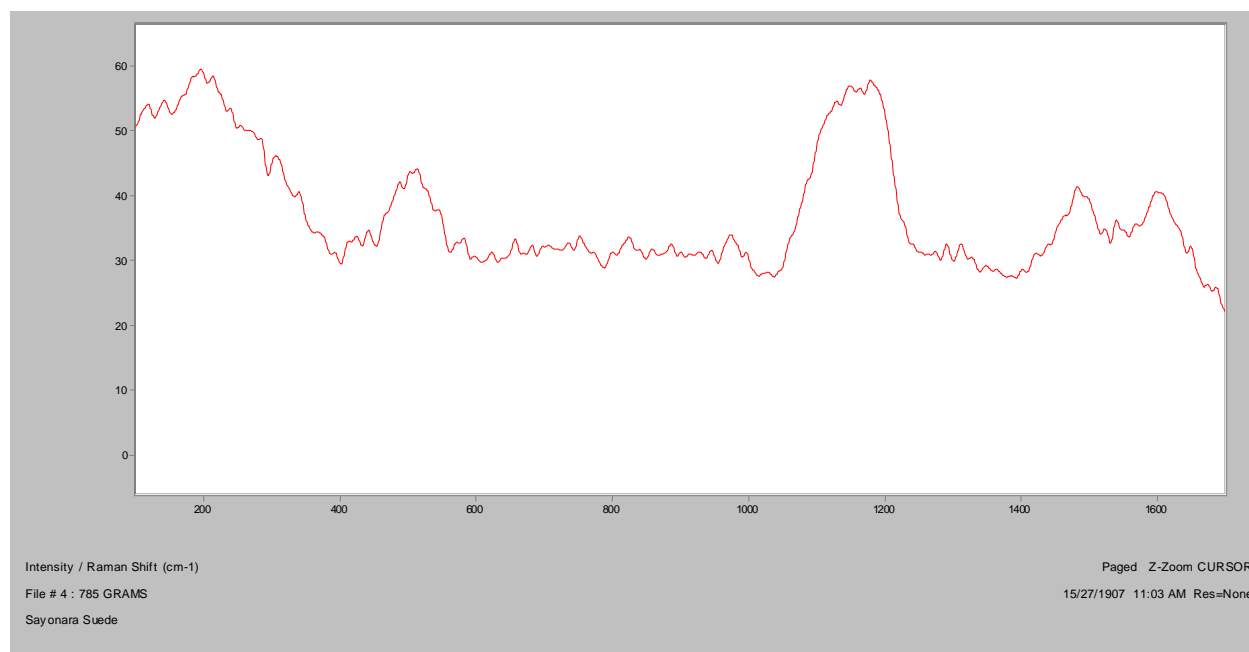
Normal Raman, 488nm



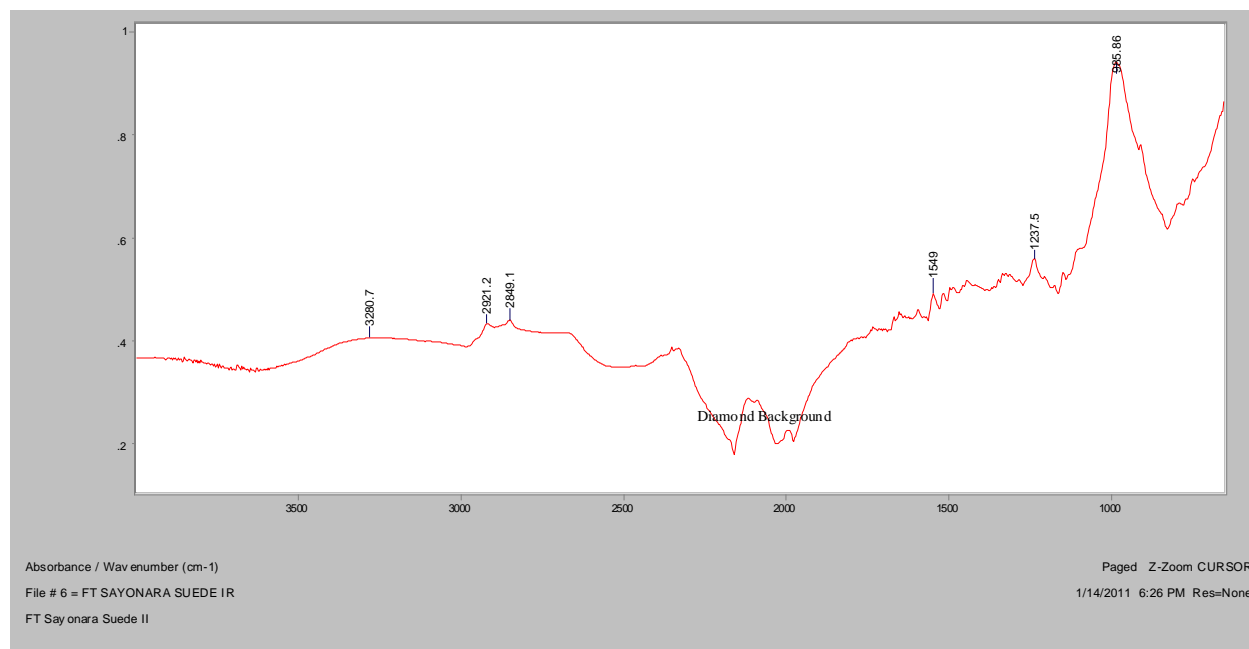
Normal Raman, 633nm



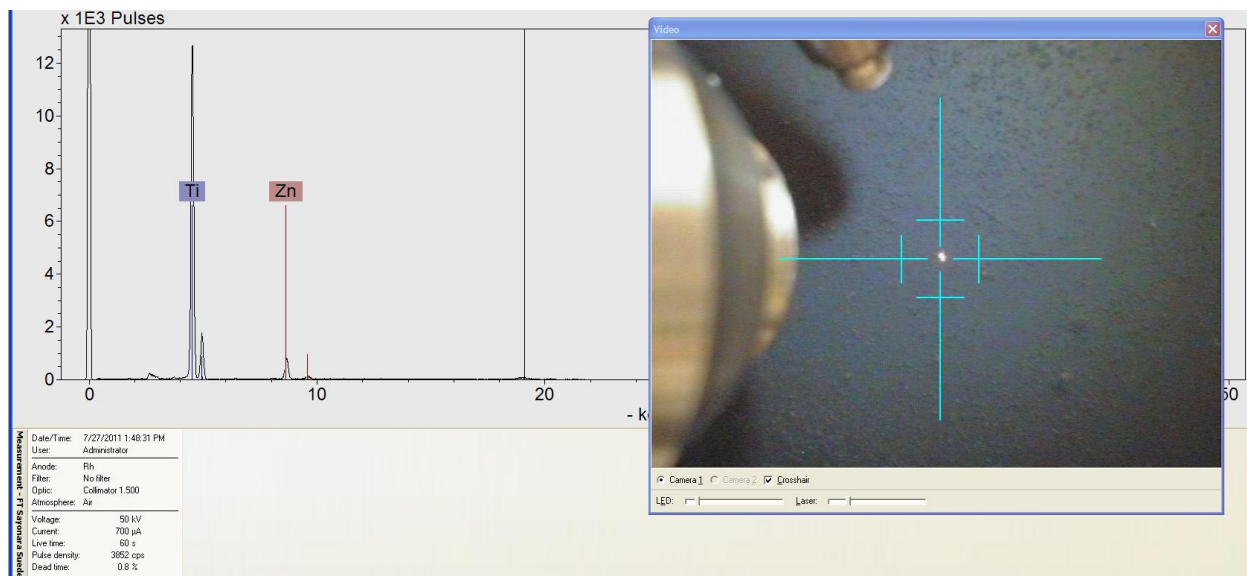
Normal Raman, 785nm

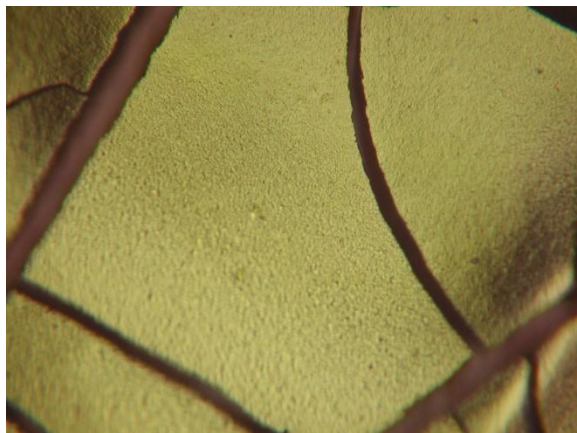
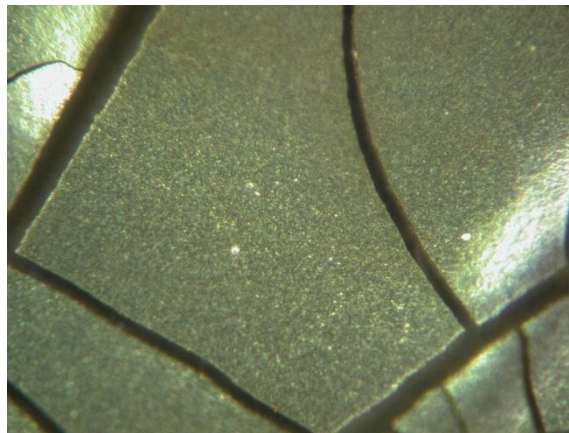
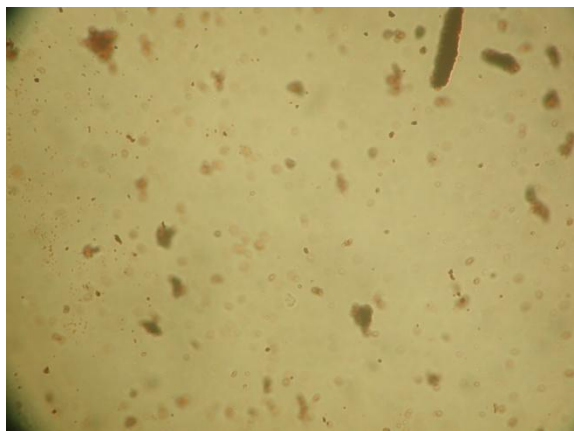
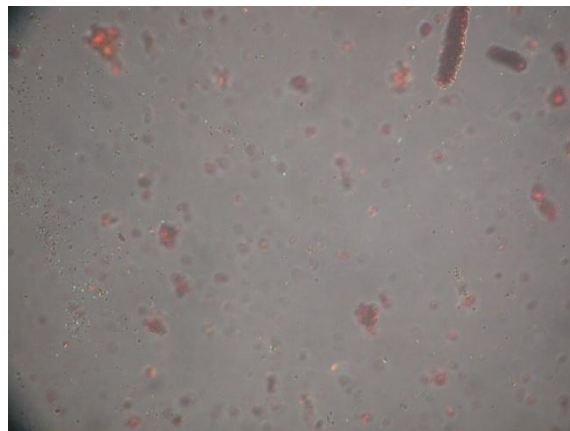


FT-IR (ATR)

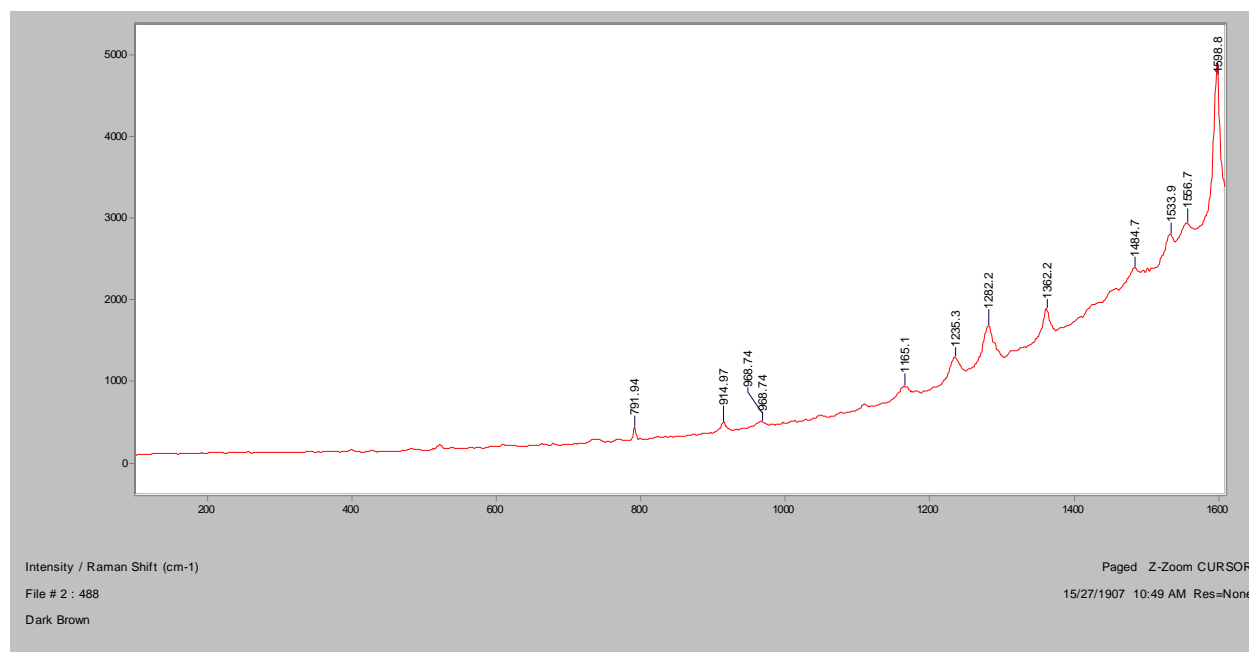


XRF

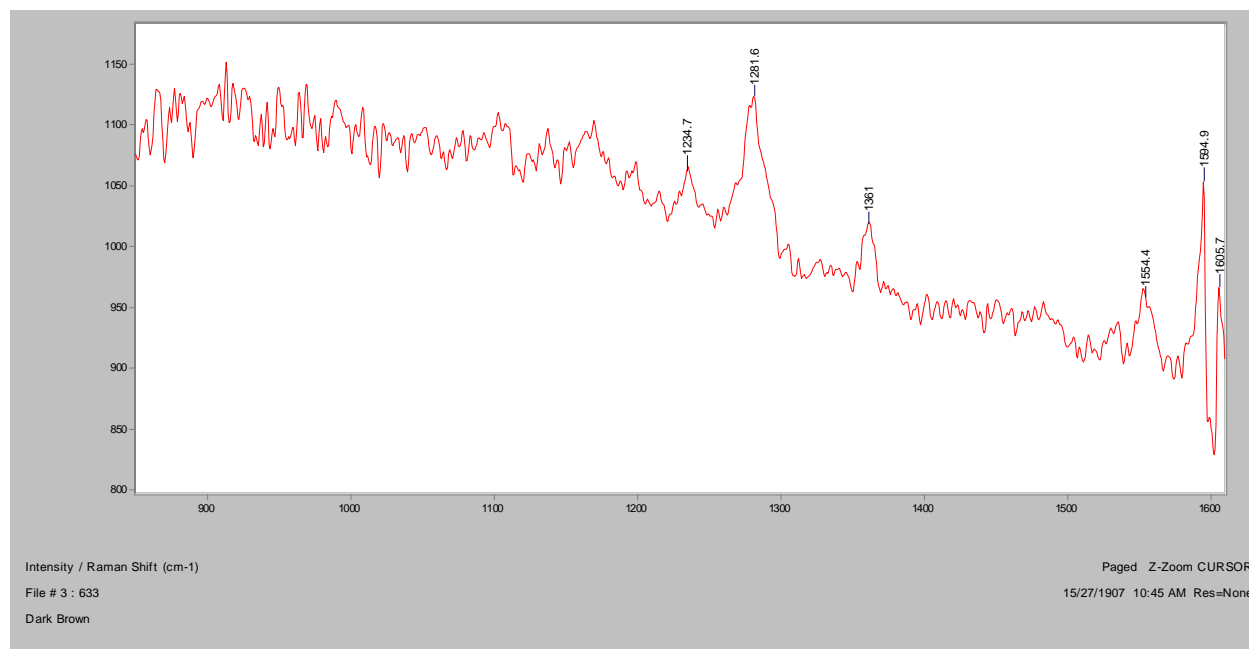


Dark Brown**Bright Field, 100x****Dark Field, 100x****In RI 1.550, 400x****Crossed Polars, In RI 1.550, 400x**

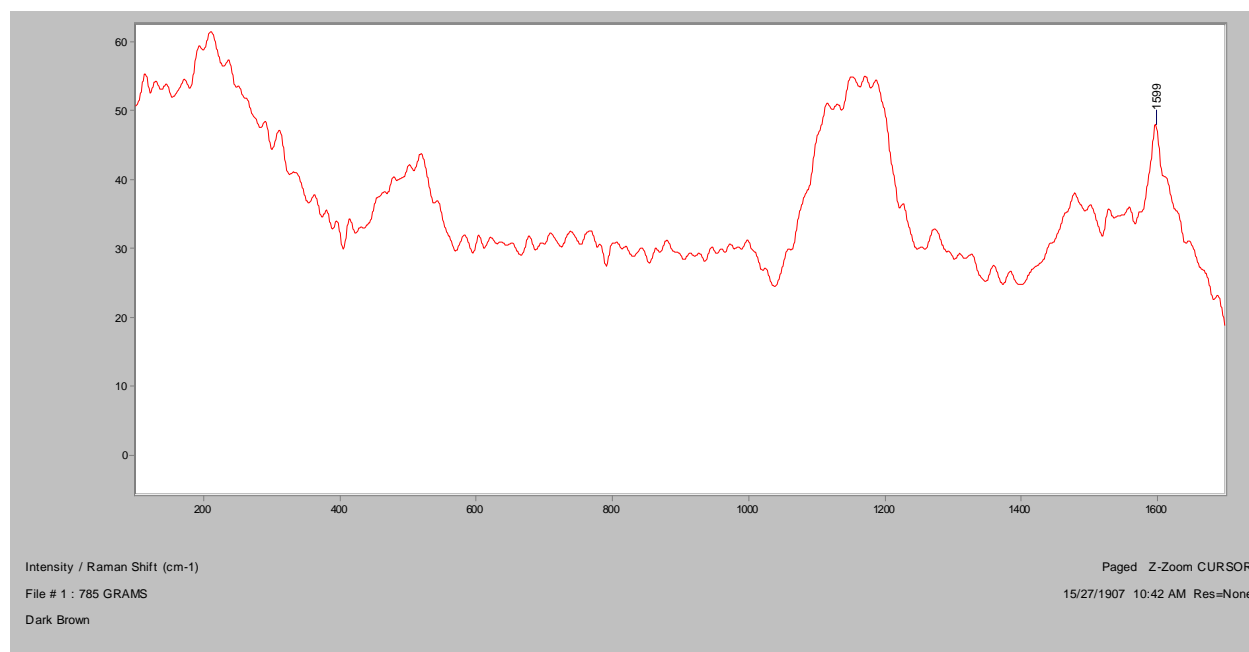
Normal Raman, 488nm



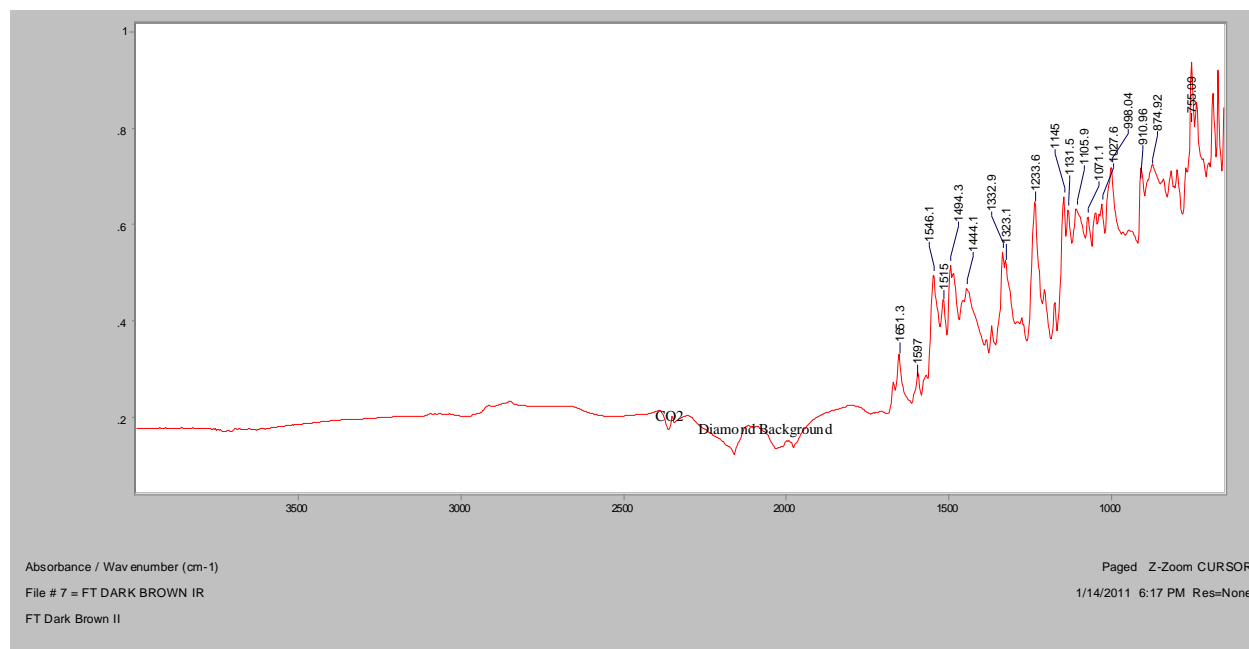
Normal Raman, 633nm



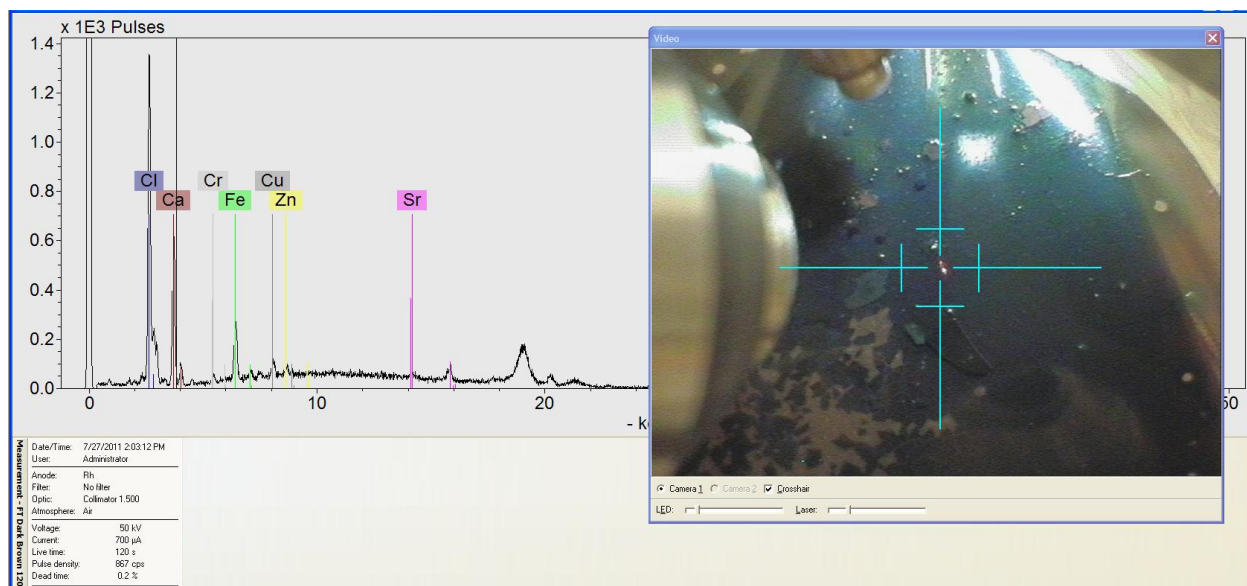
Normal Raman, 785nm



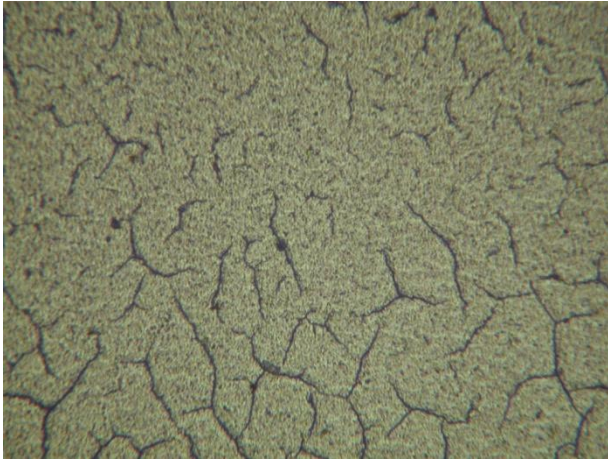
FT-IR (ATR)



XRF

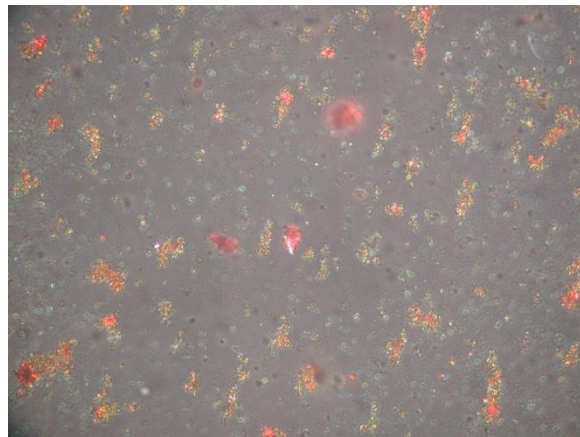
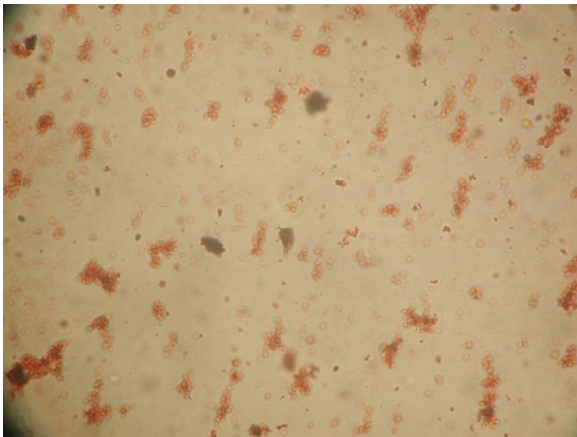


Light Chocolate



Bright Field, 100x

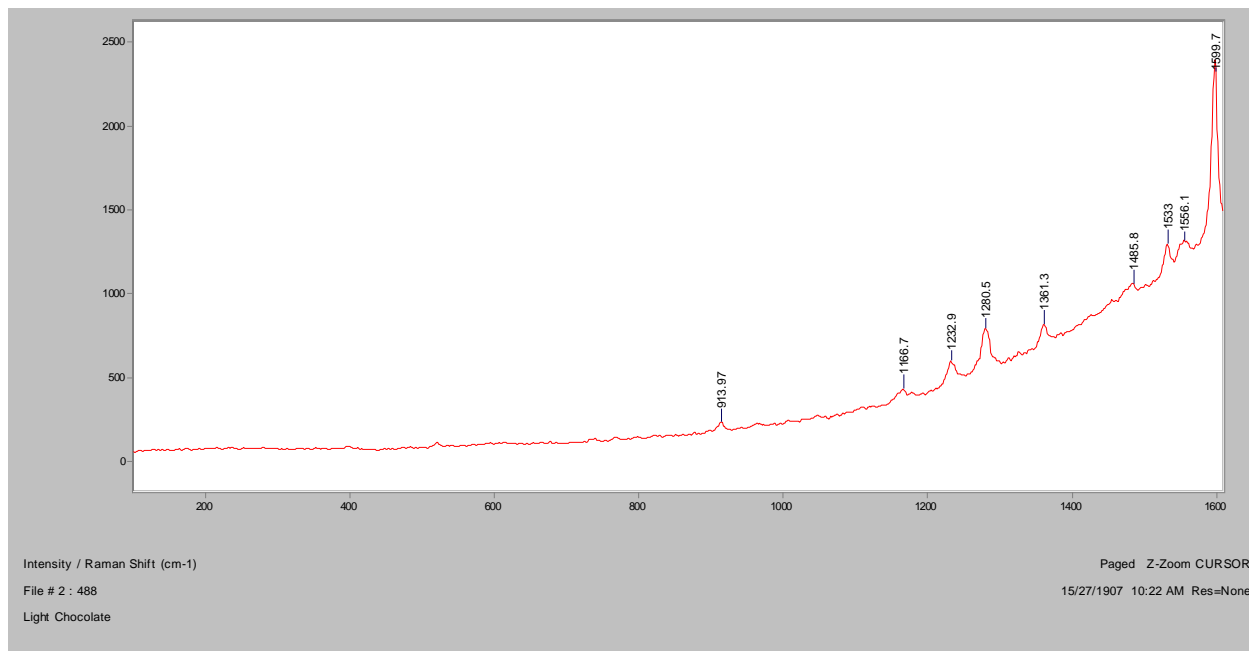
Dark Field, 100x



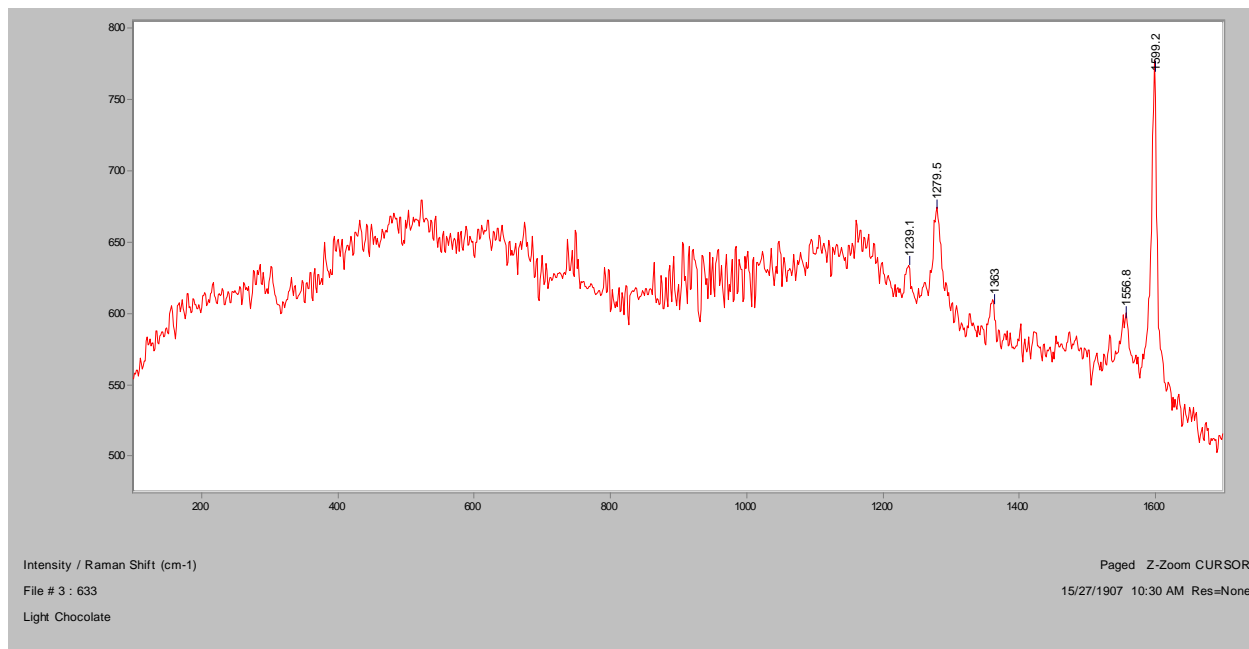
In RI 1.550, 400x

Crossed Polars, In RI 1.550, 400x

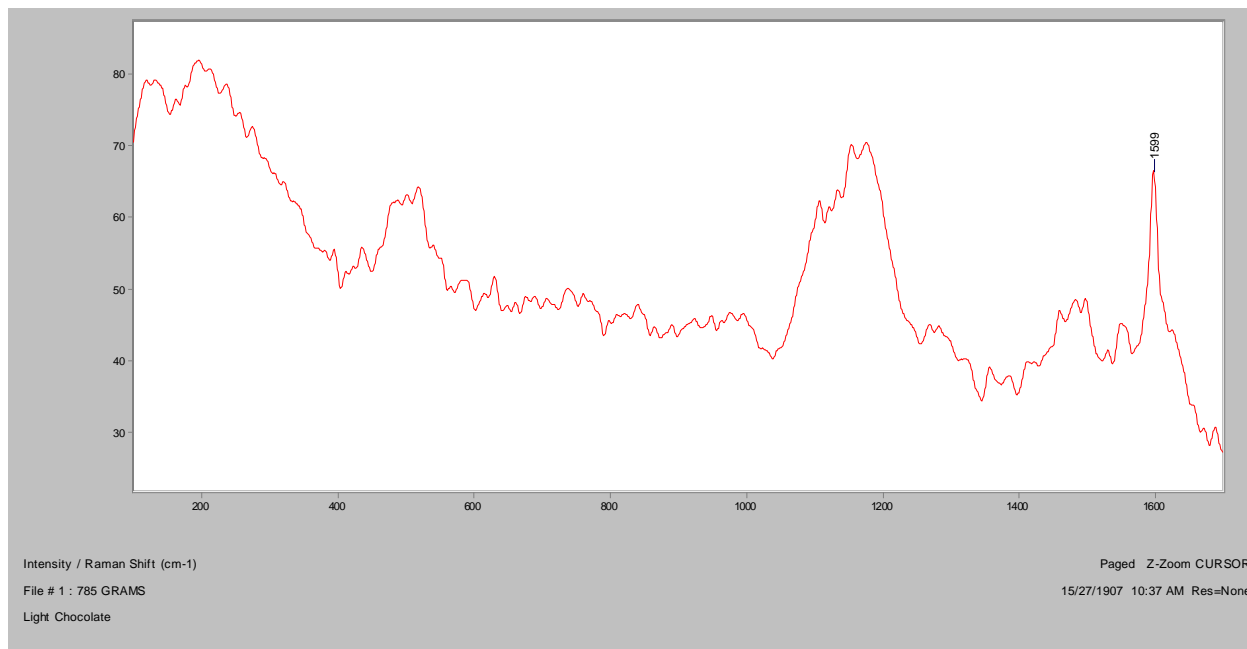
Normal Raman, 488nm



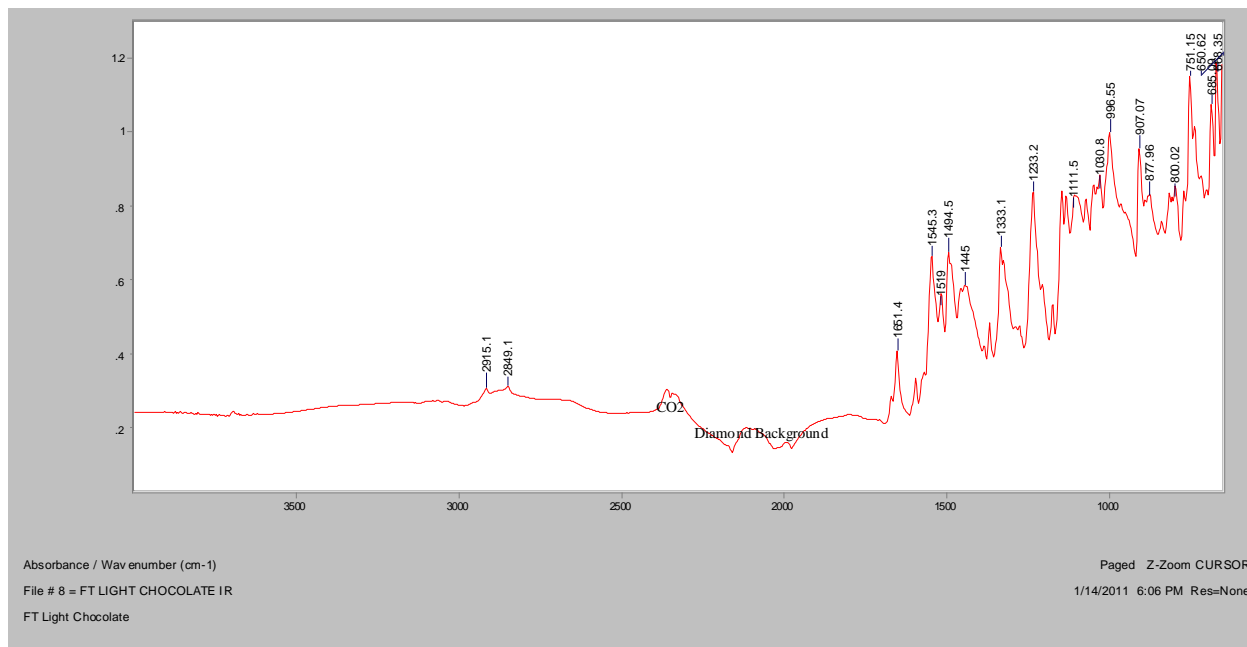
Normal Raman, 633nm



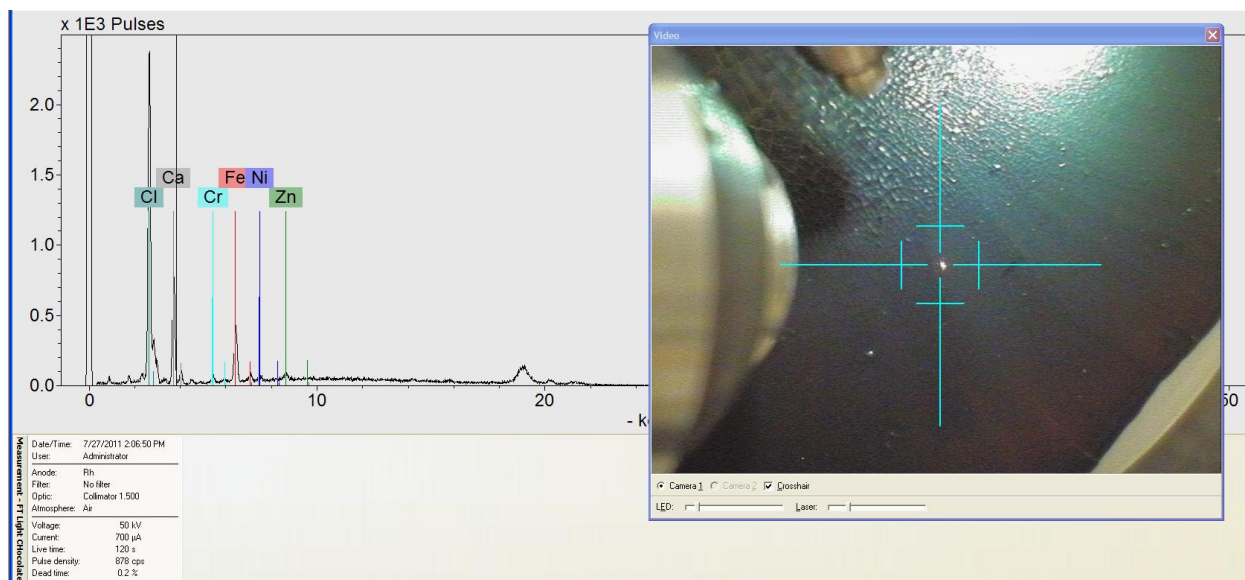
Normal Raman, 785nm

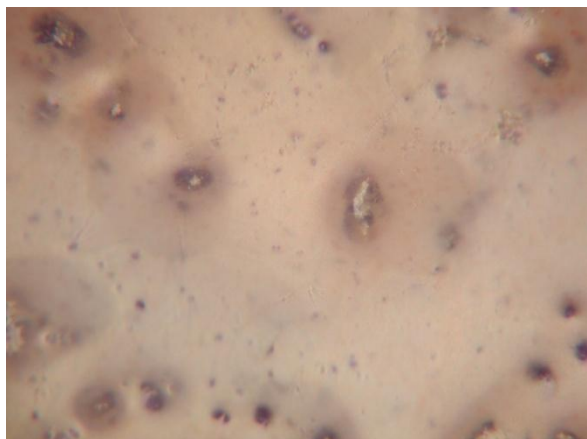
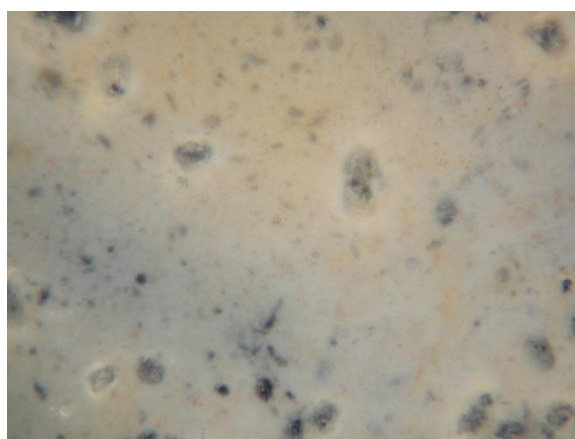
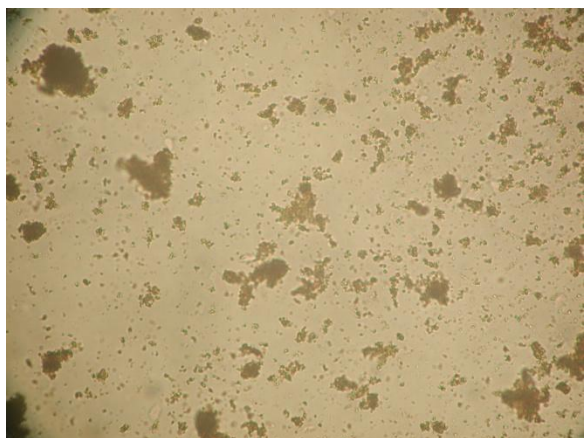
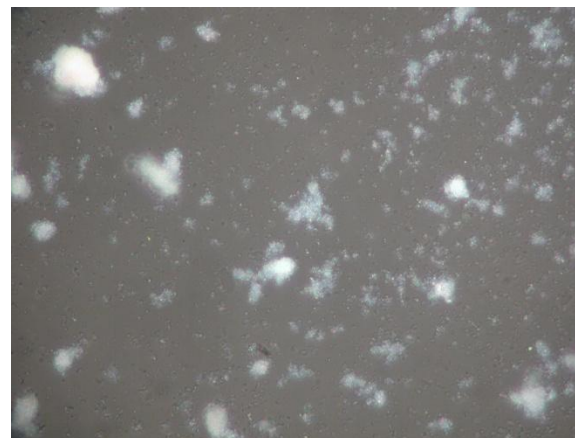


FT-IR (ATR)

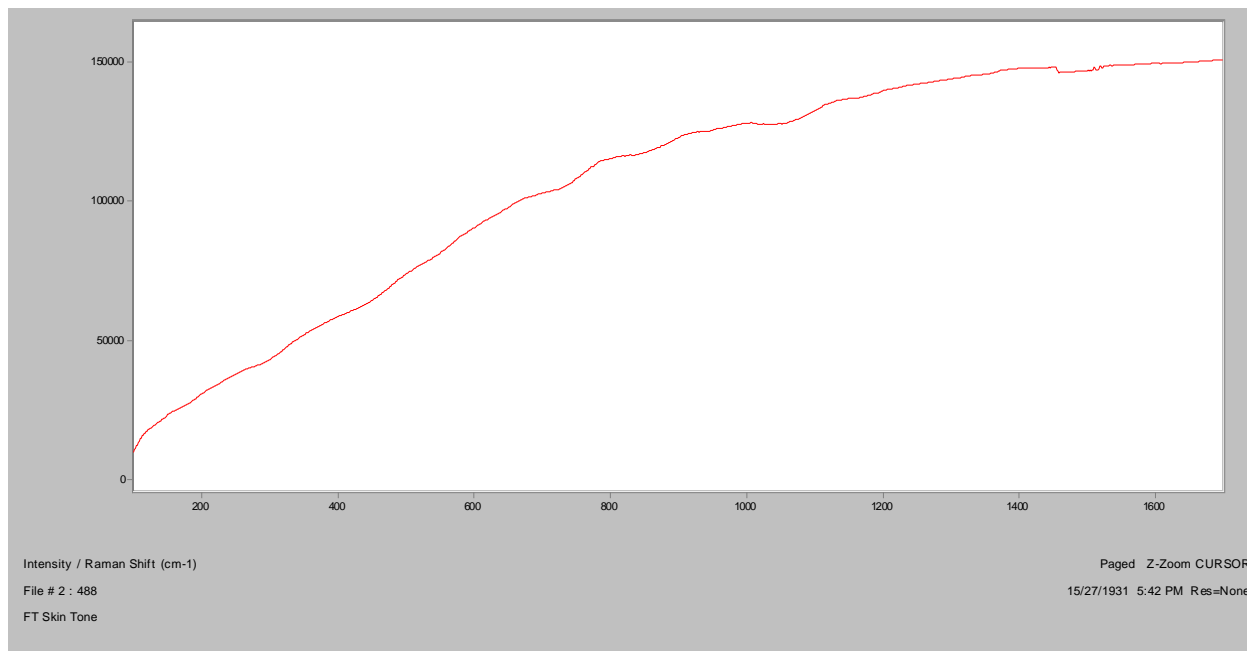


XRF

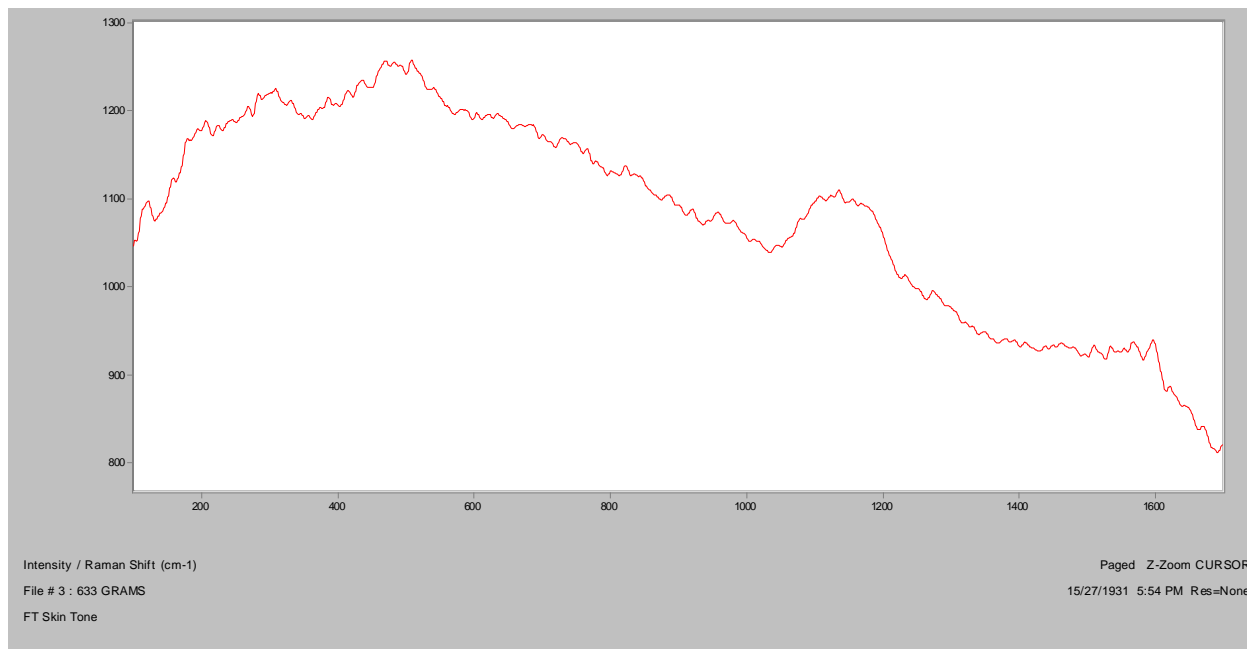


Skin Tone**Bright Field, 100x****Dark Field, 100x****In RI 1.550, 400x****Crossed Polars, In RI 1.550, 400x****Raman microscope image, 1000x**

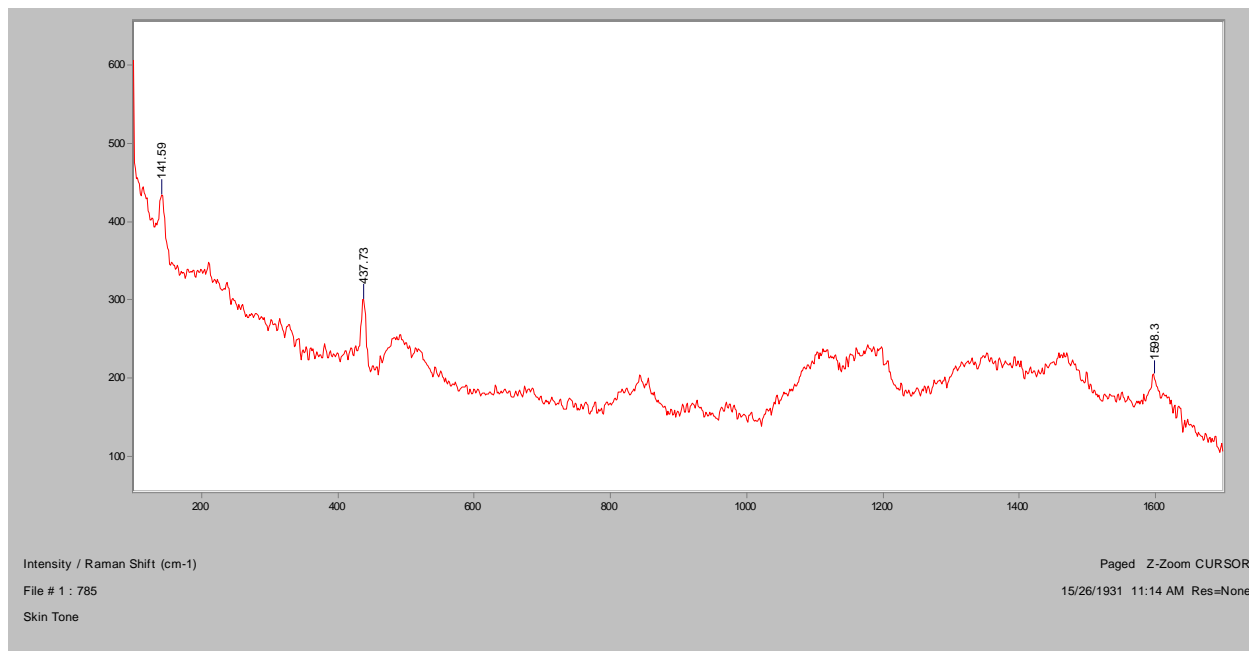
Normal Raman, 488nm



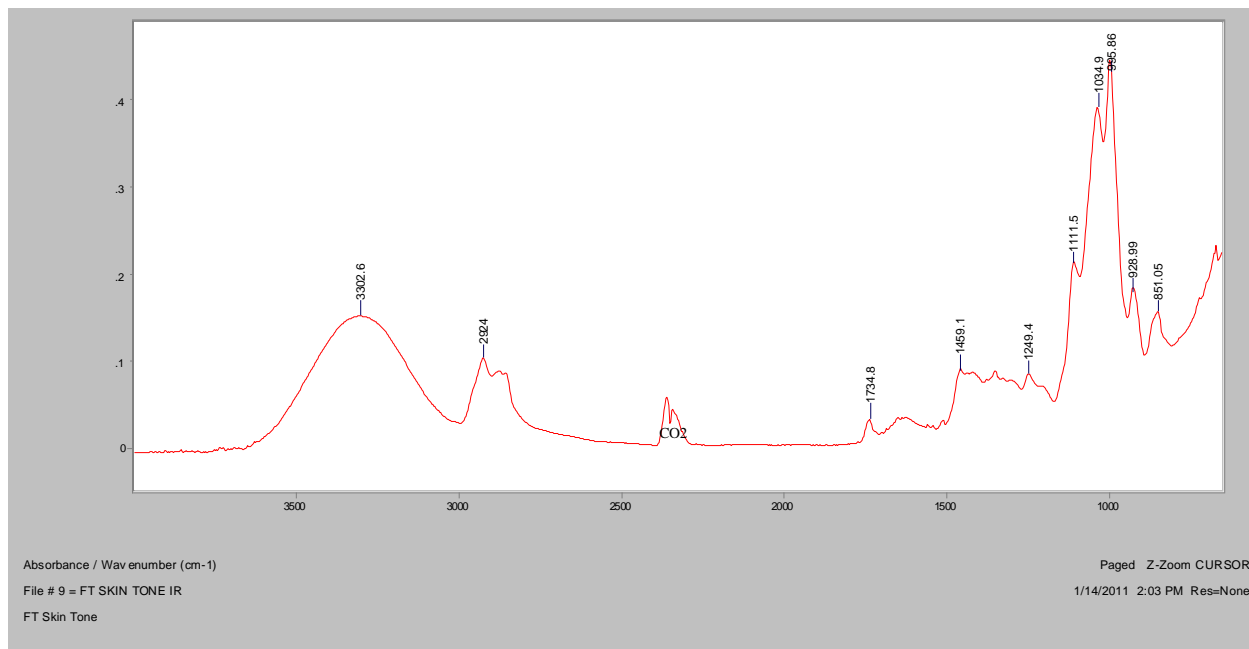
Normal Raman, 633nm

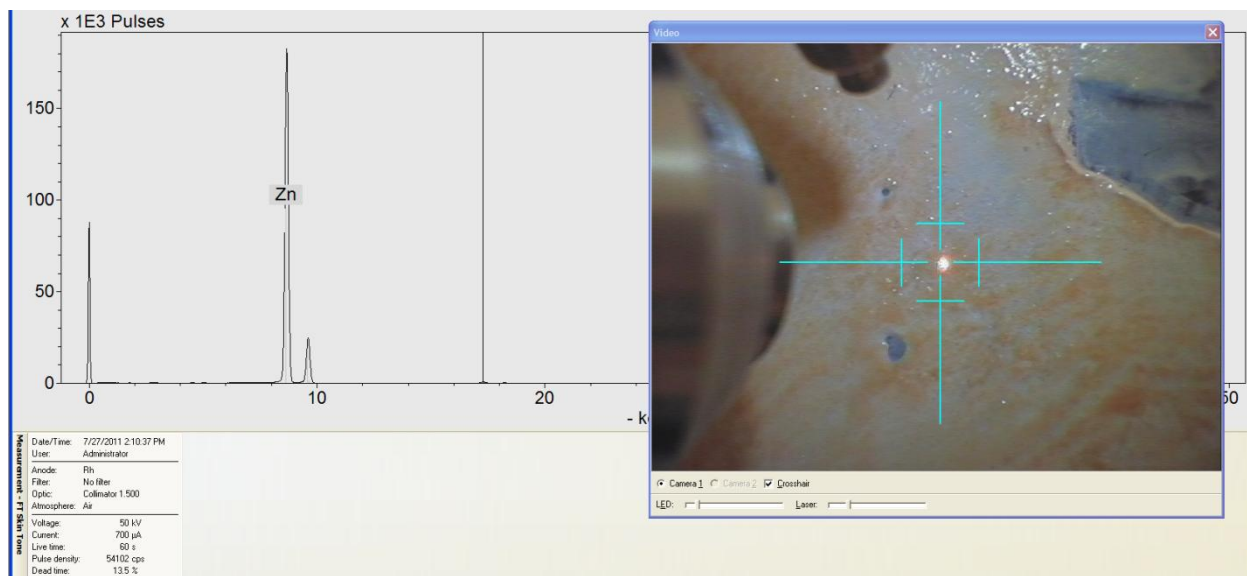


Normal Raman, 785nm

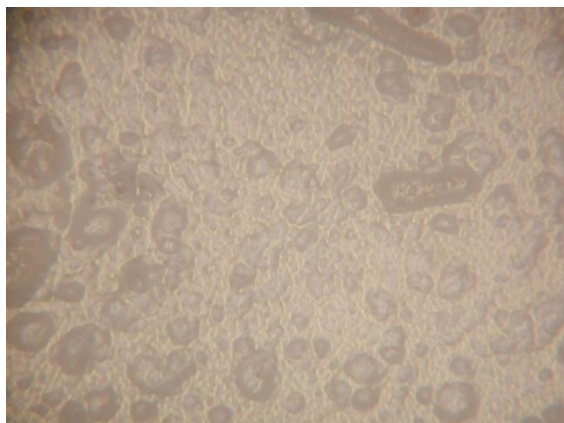


FT-IR (ATR)

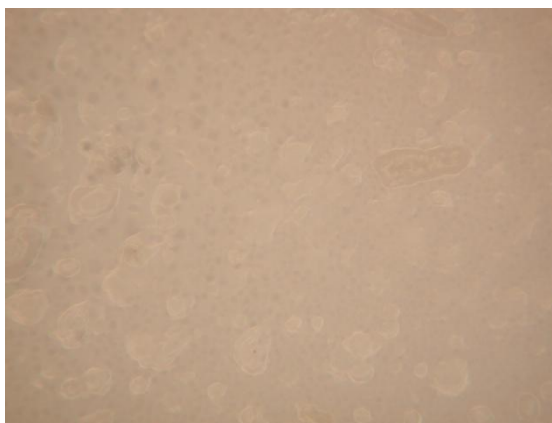


XRF

White



Bright Field, 100x



Dark Field, 100x

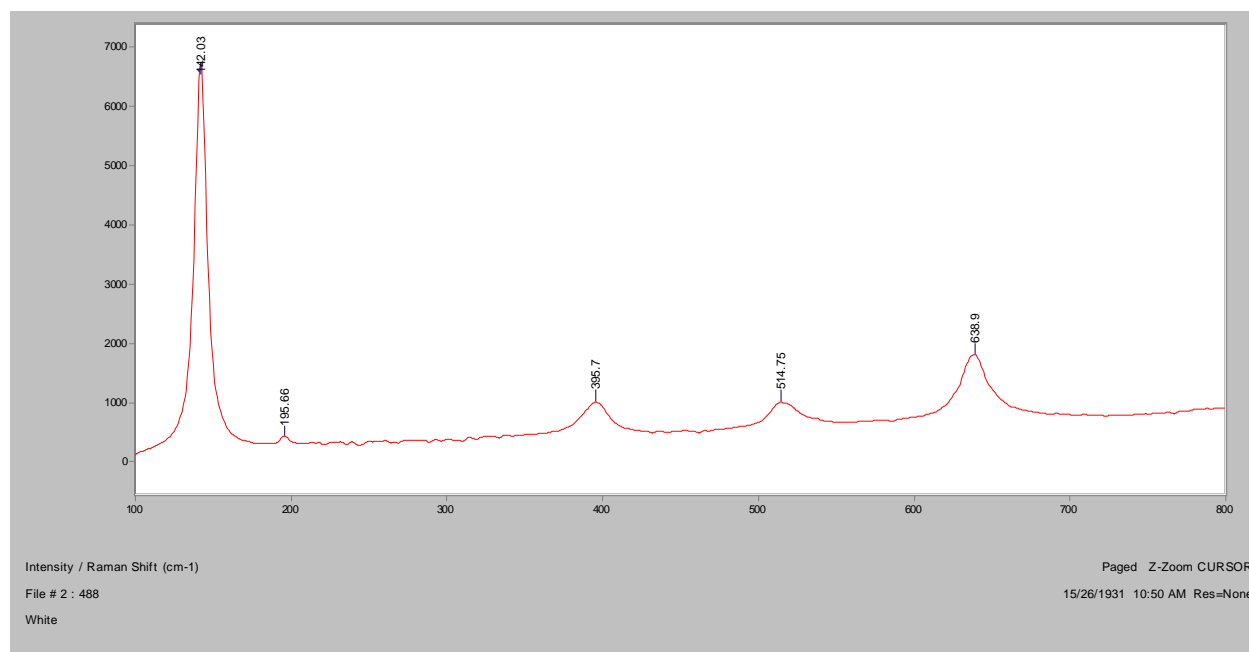


In RI 1.550, 400x

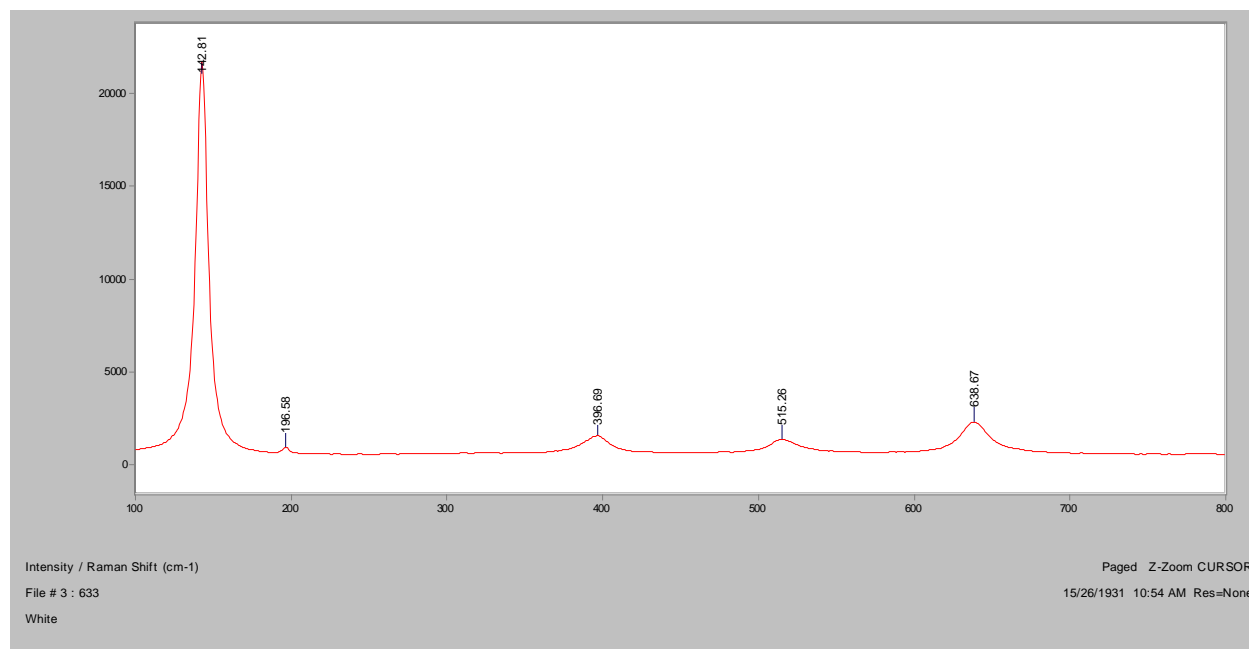


Crossed Polars, In RI 1.550, 400x

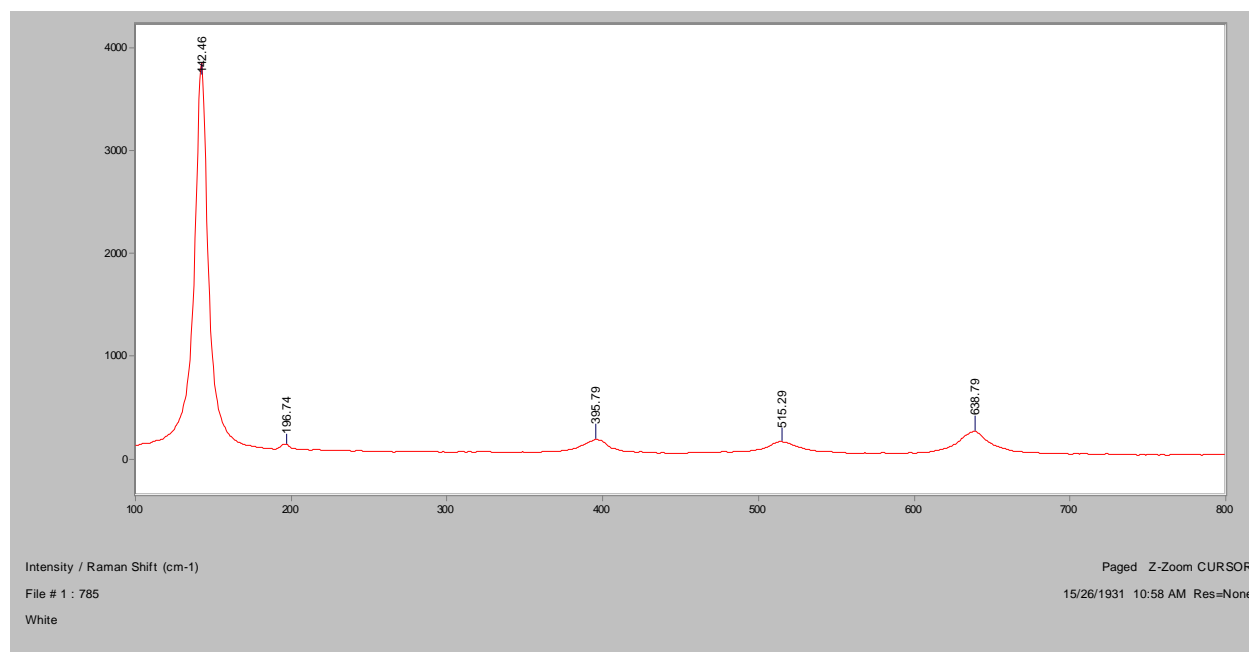
Normal Raman, 488nm



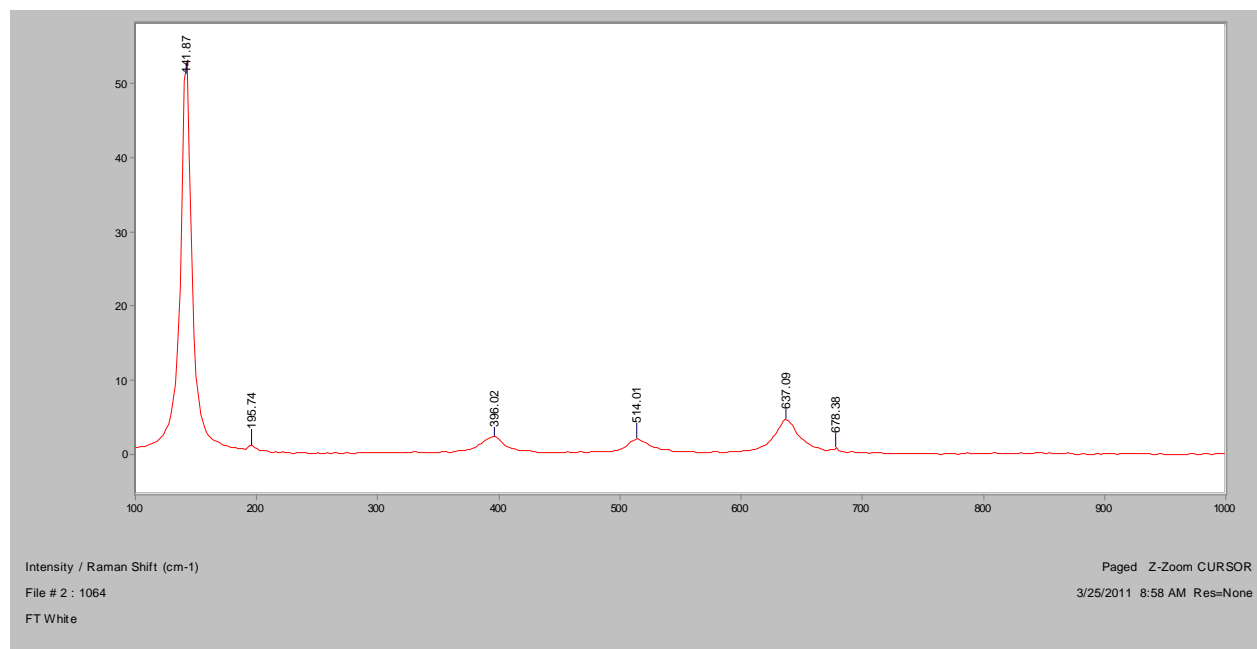
Normal Raman, 633nm



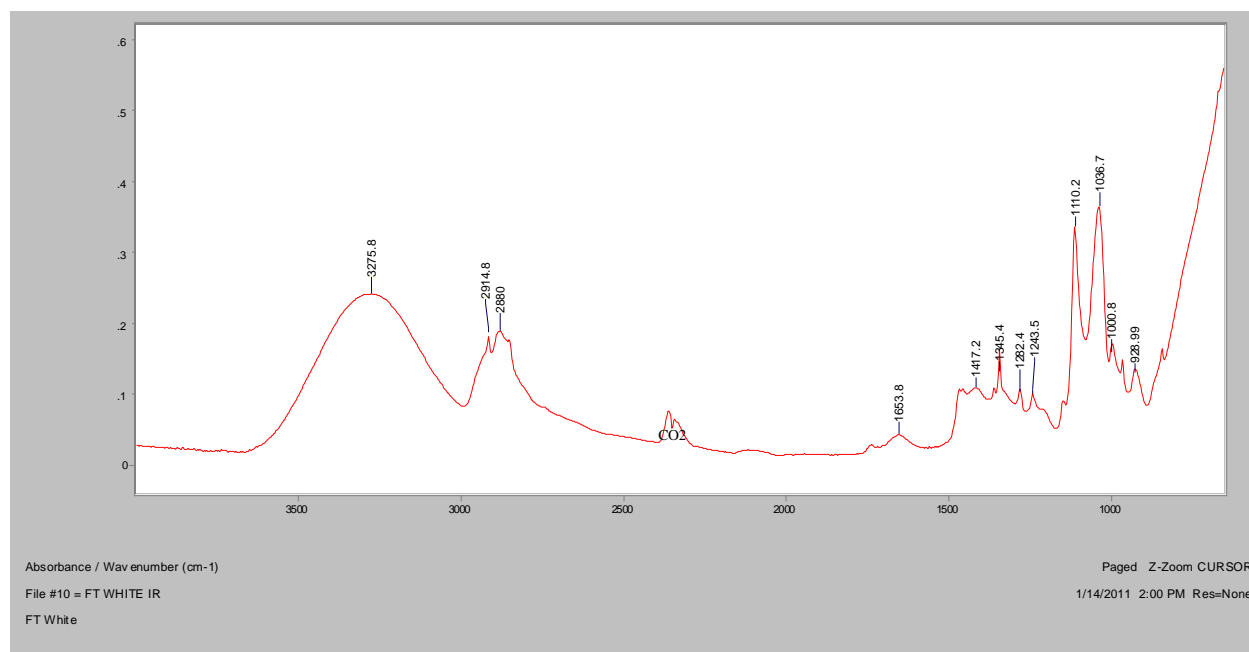
Normal Raman, 785nm



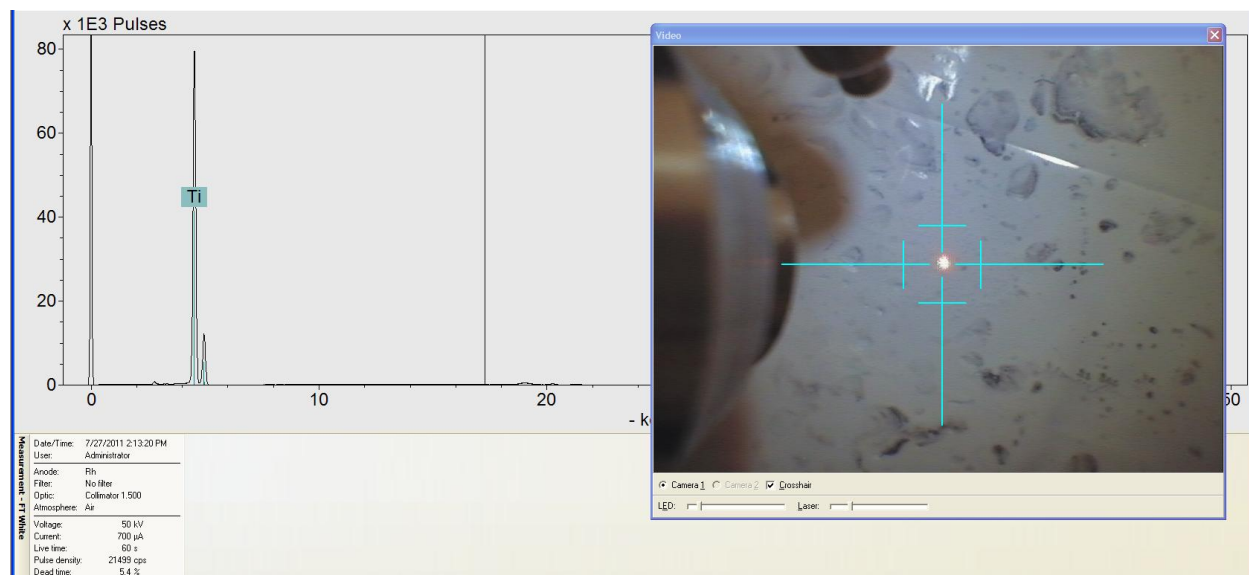
FT-Raman, 1064nm



FT-IR (ATR)



XRF

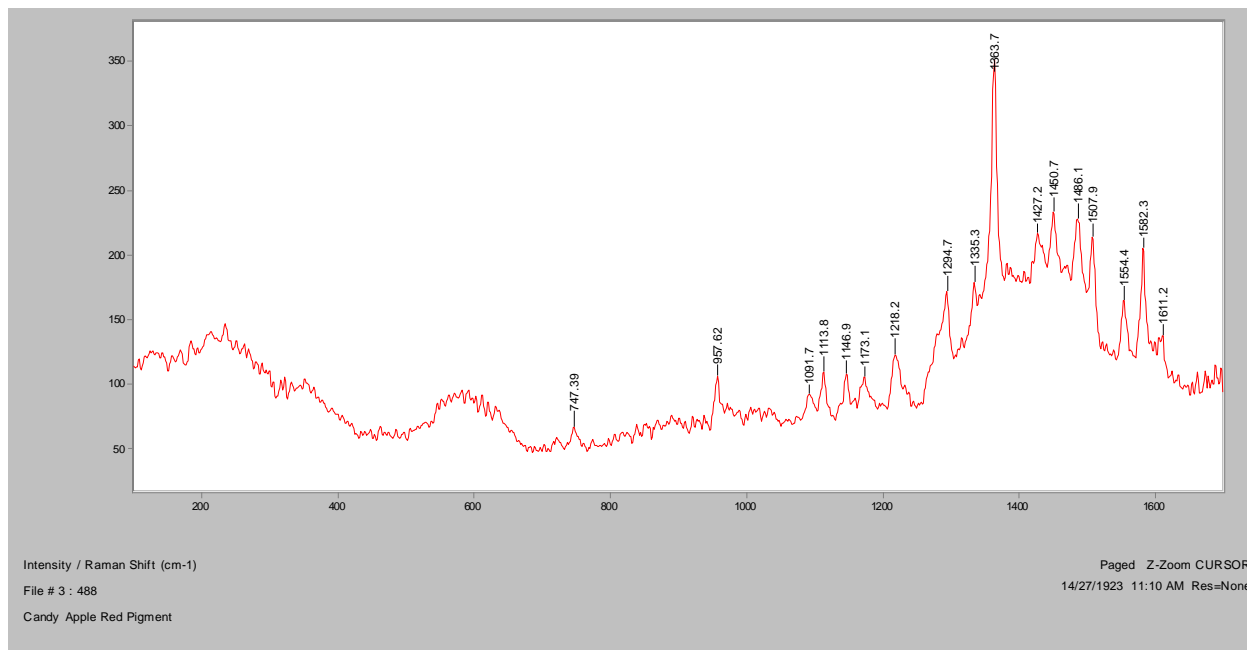


Appendix E: Pigment Extractions

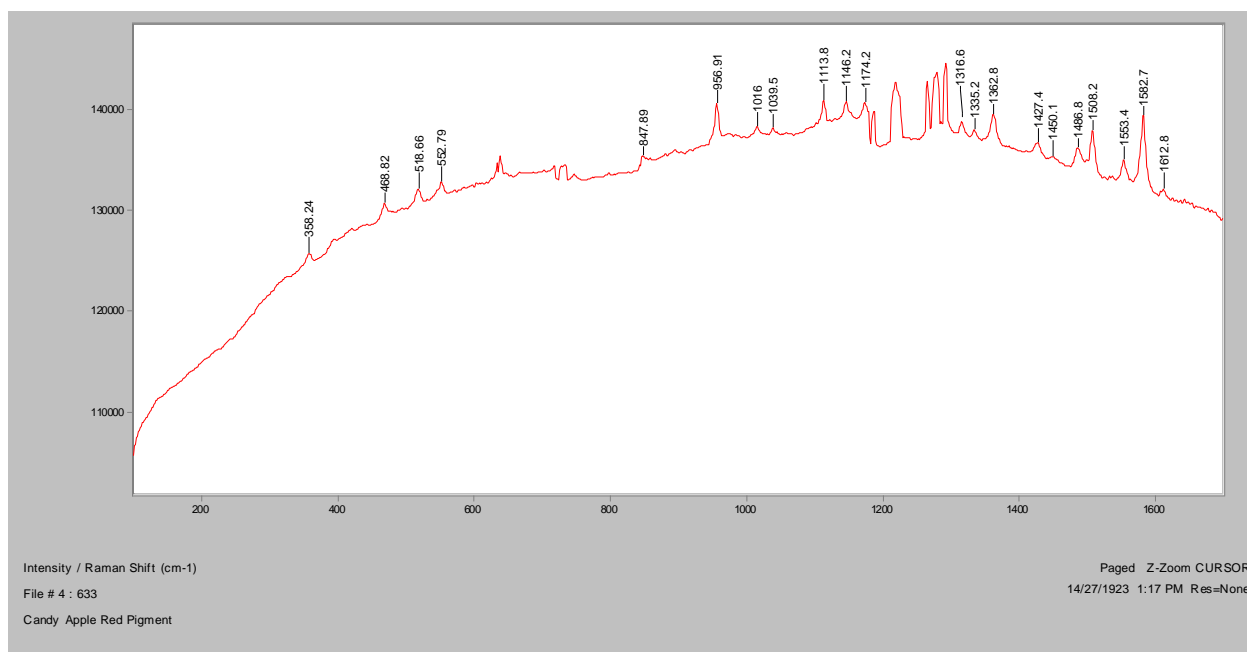
Skin Candy Tattoo Ink

Candy Apple Red

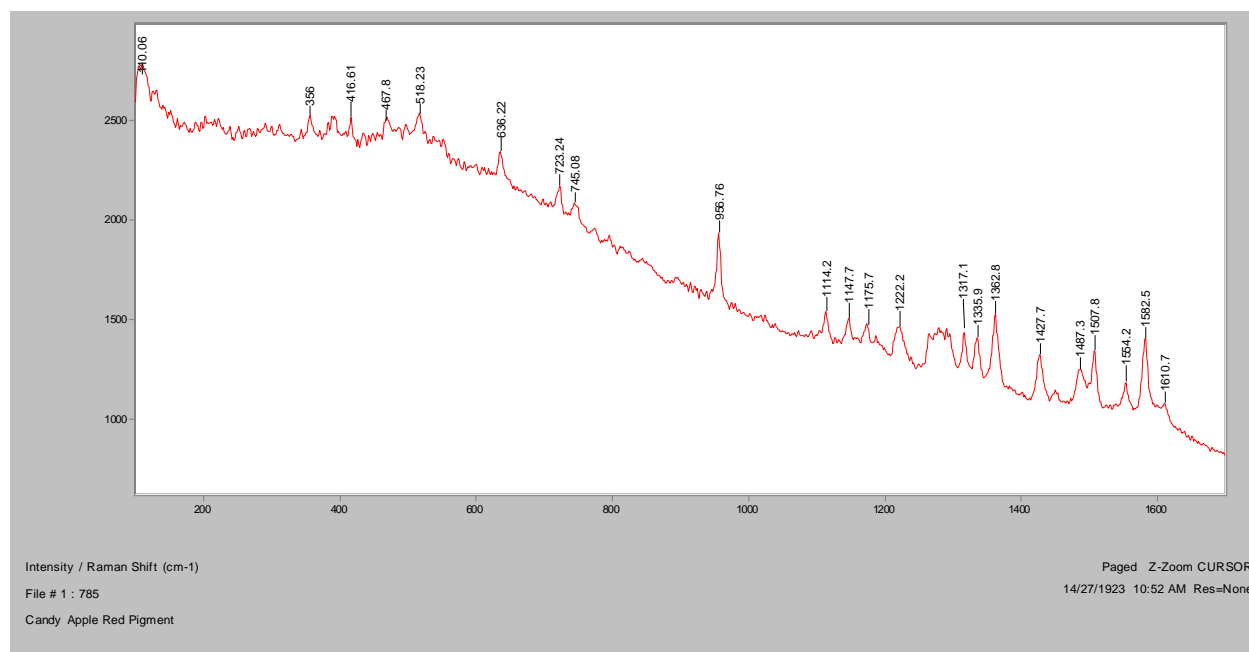
Normal Raman, 488nm



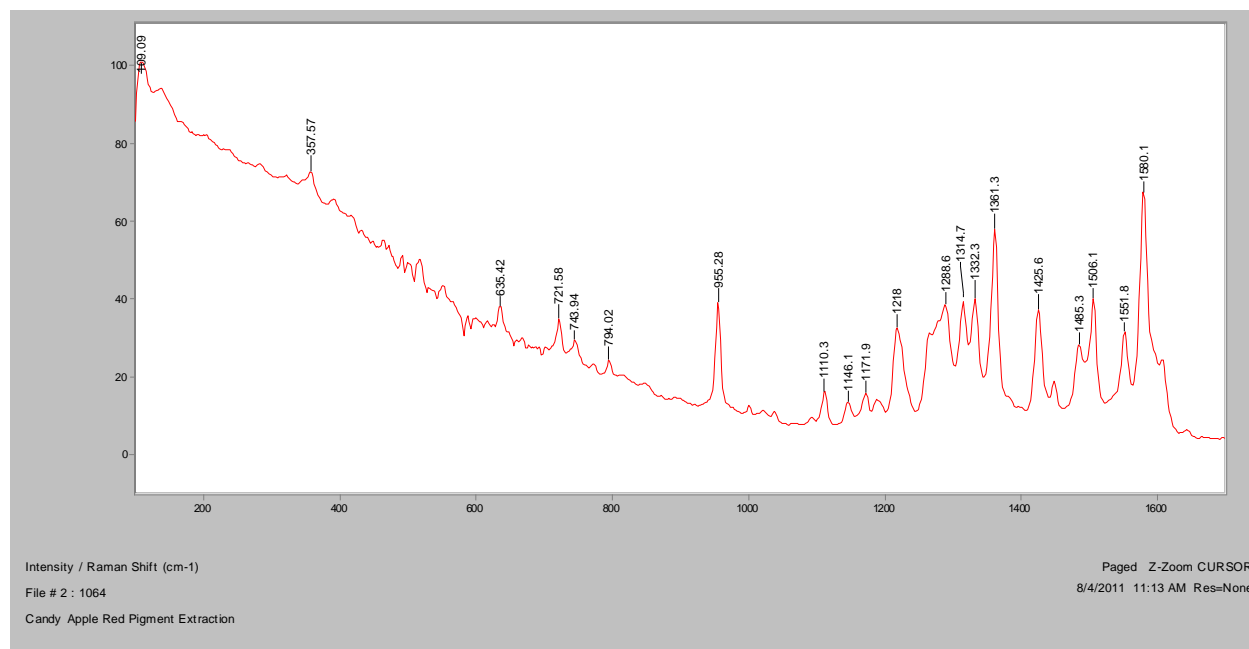
Normal Raman, 633nm



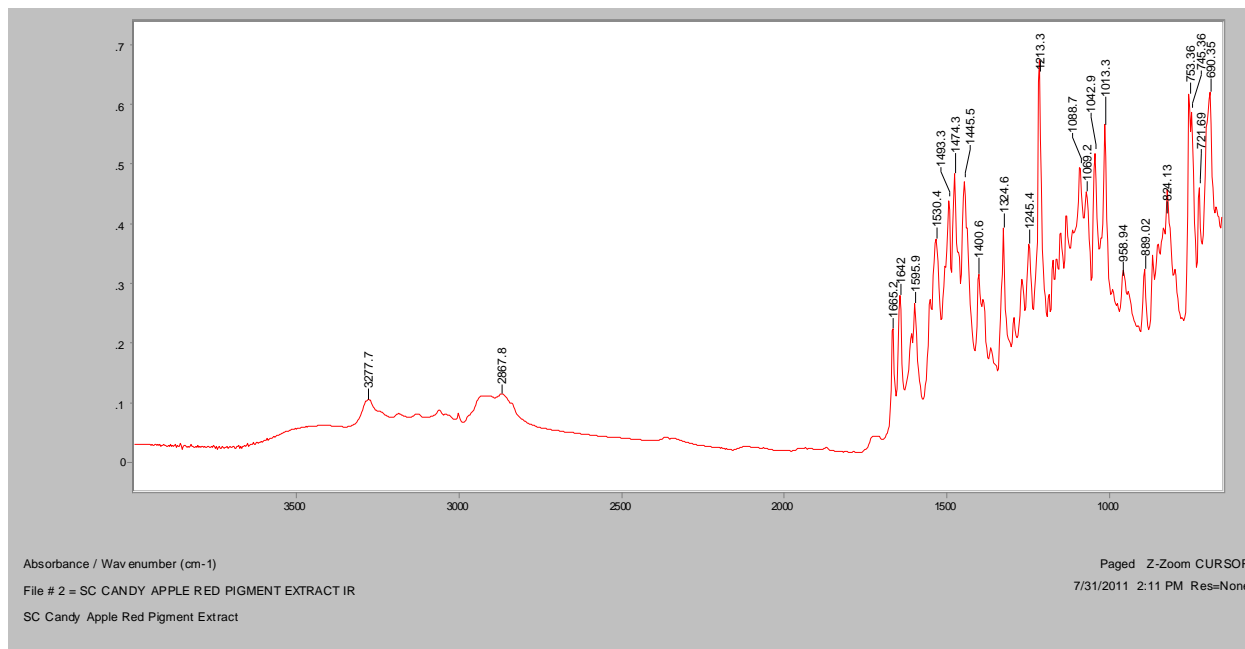
Normal Raman, 785nm



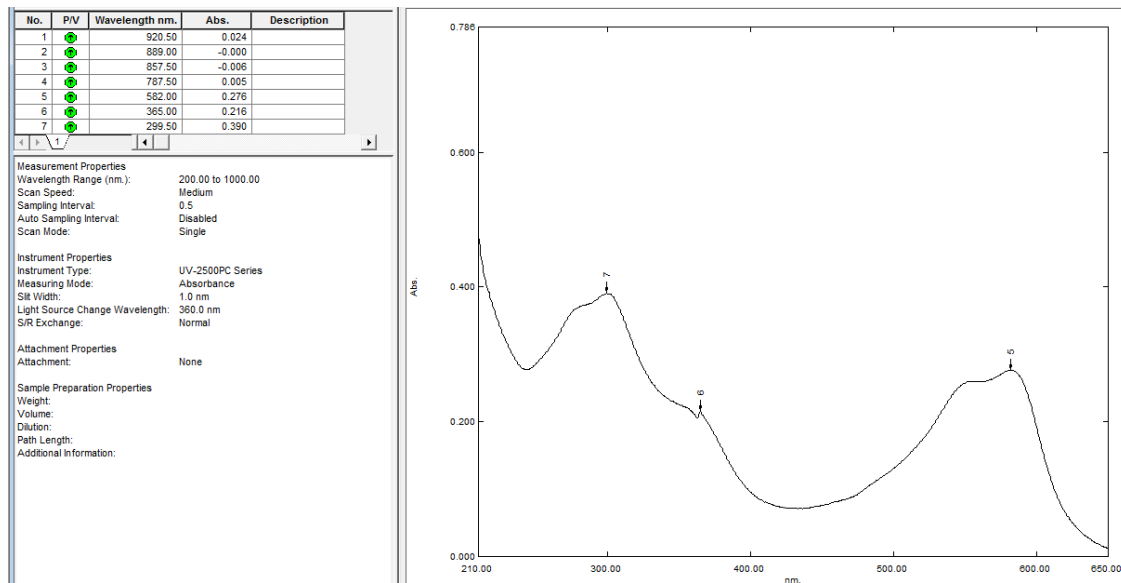
FT-Raman, 1064nm



FT-IR (ATR)

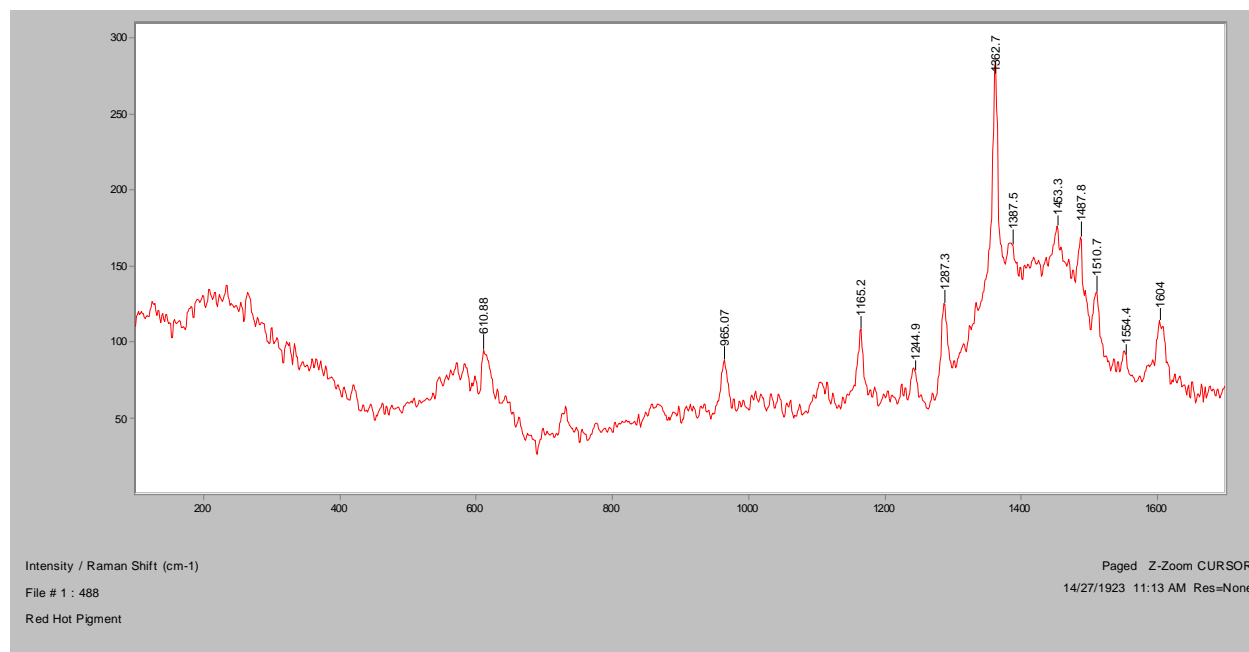


UV-Vis

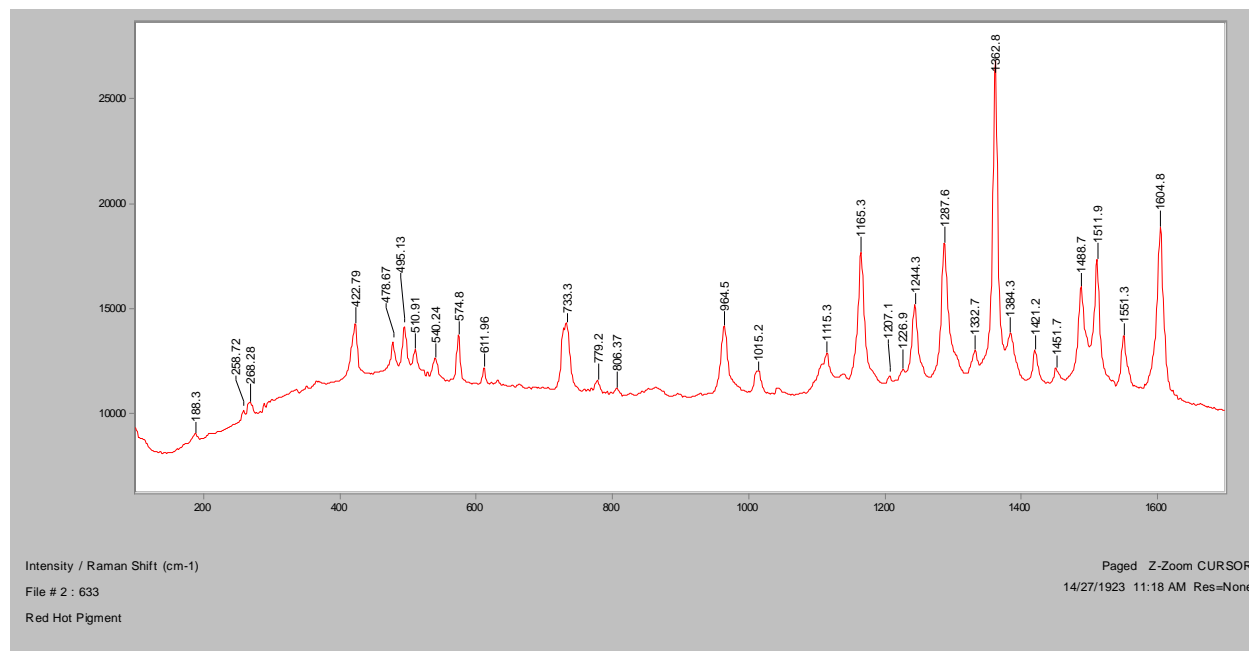


Red Hot

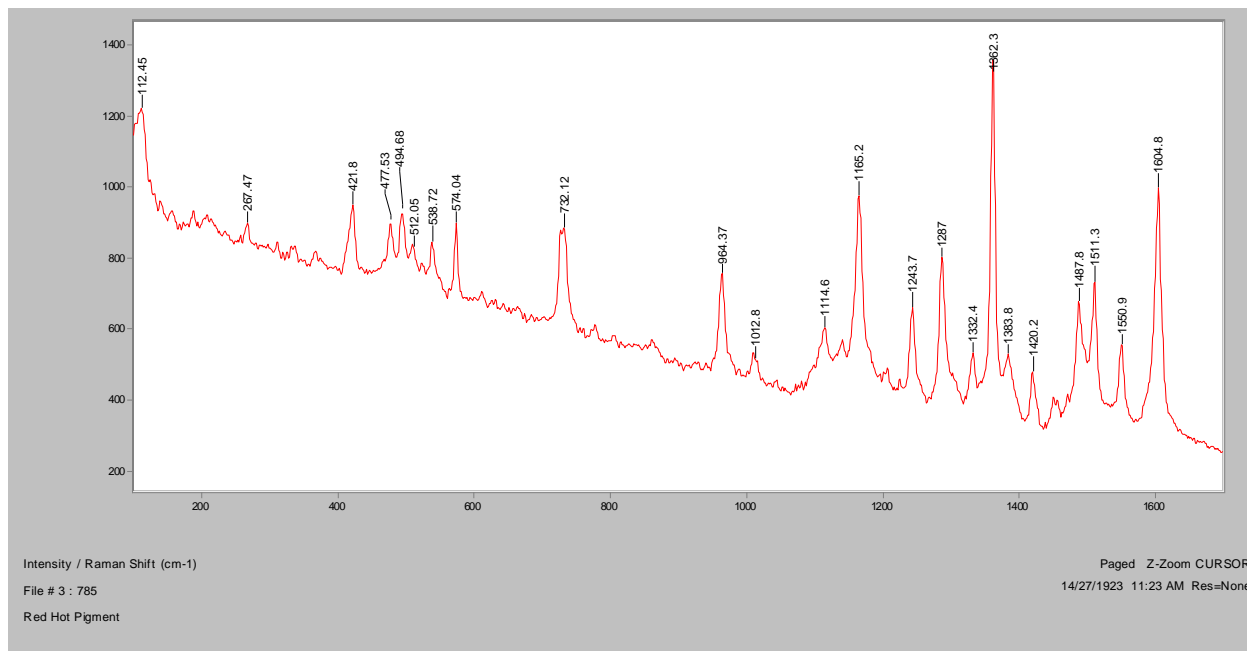
Normal Raman, 488nm



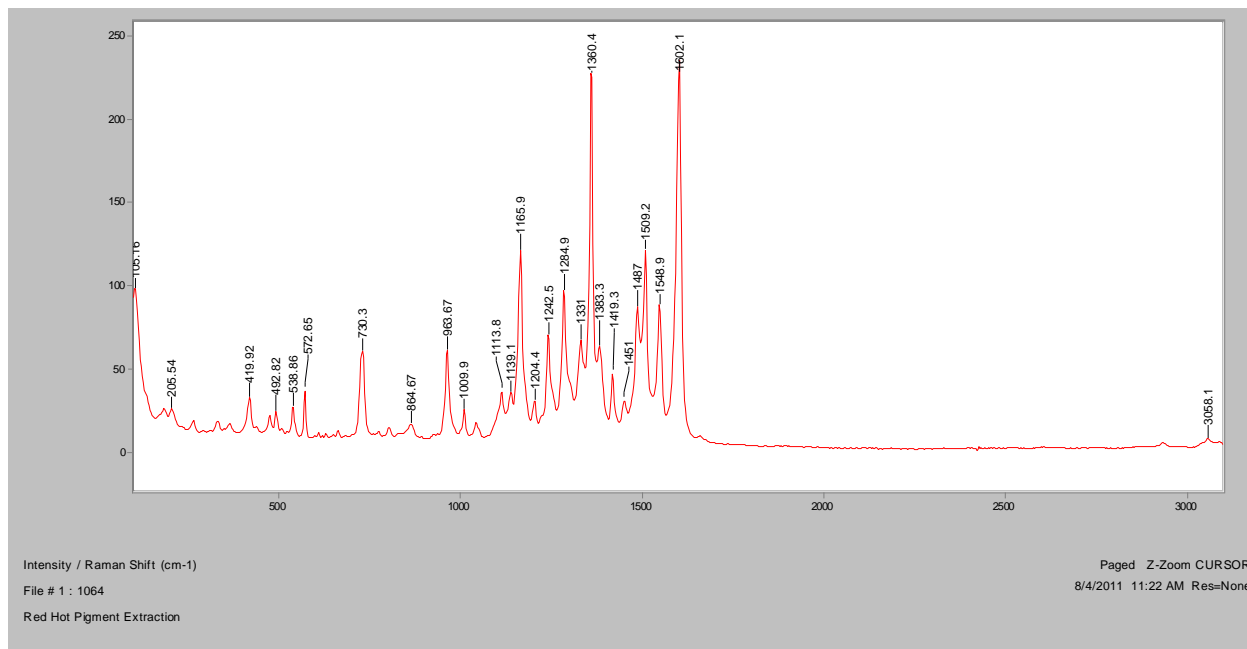
Normal Raman, 633nm



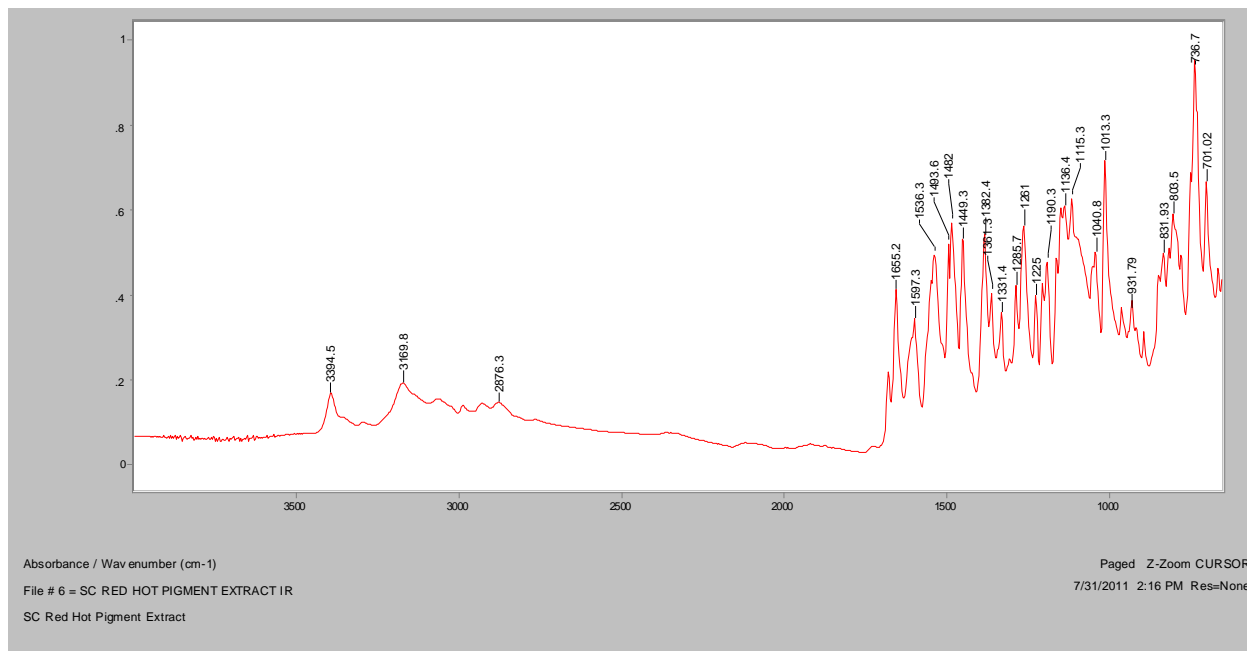
Normal Raman, 785nm



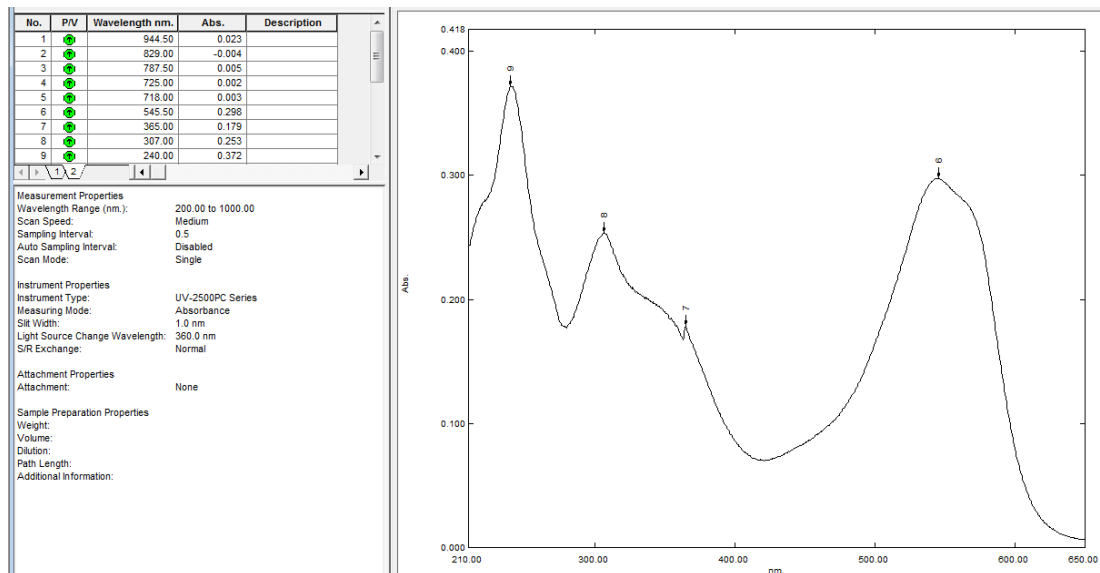
FT-Raman, 1064nm



FT-IR (ATR)

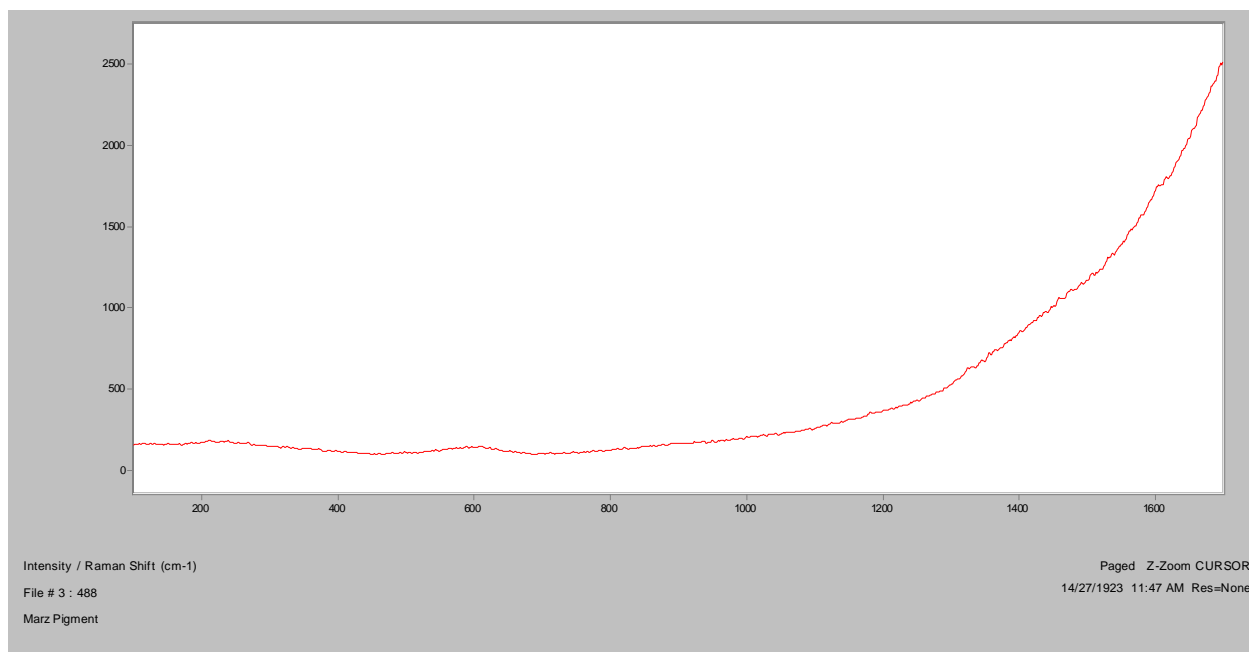


UV-Vis

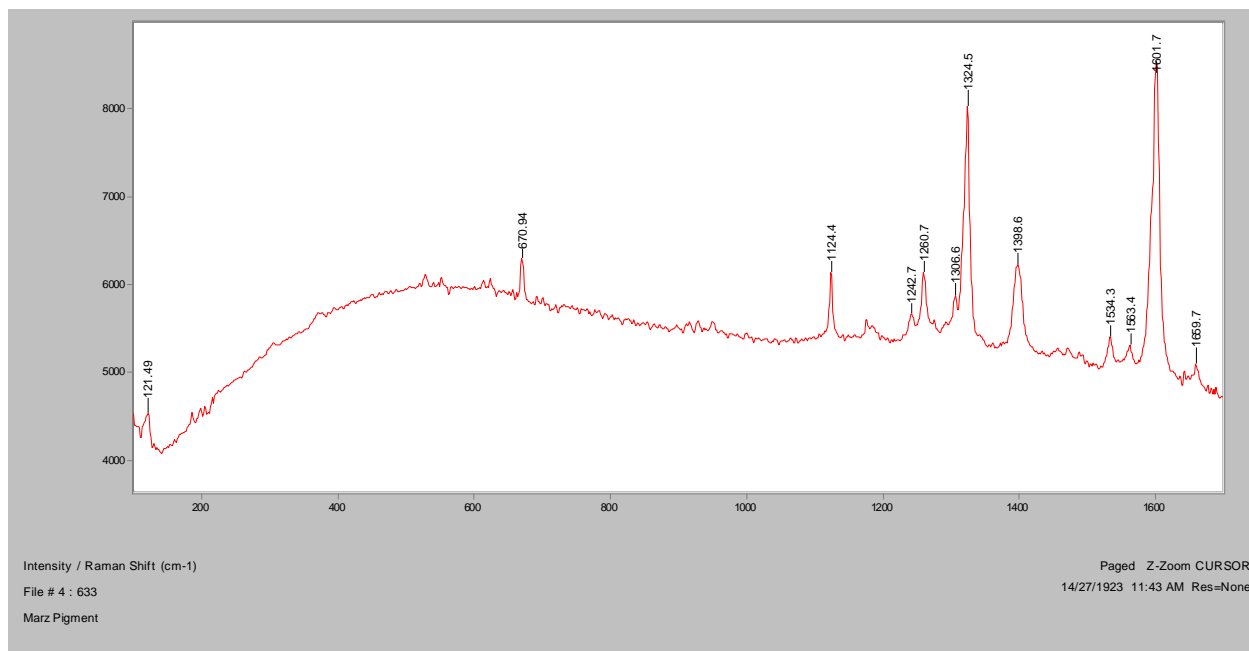


Marz

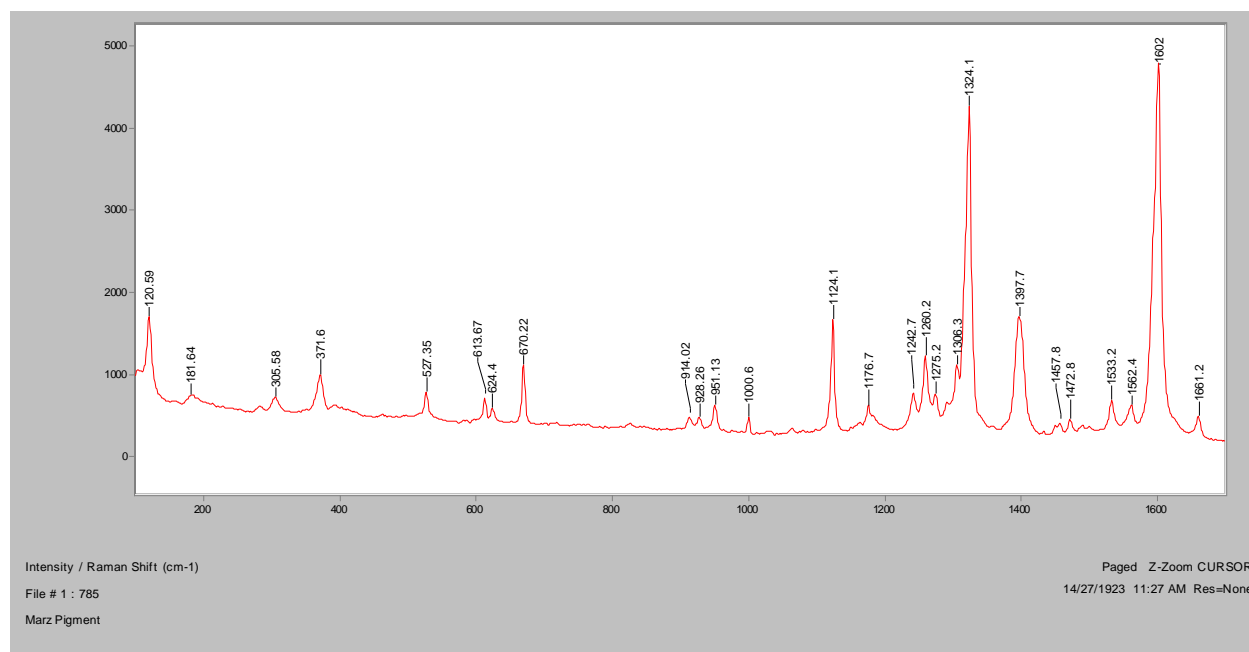
Normal Raman, 488nm



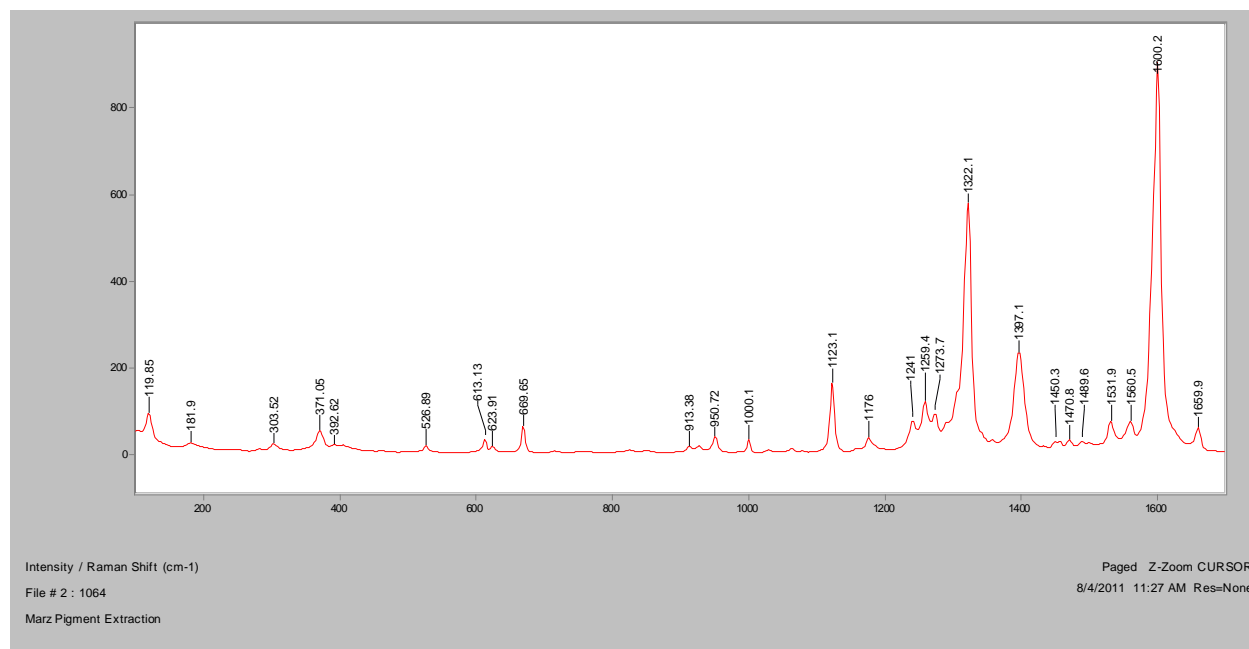
Normal Raman, 633nm



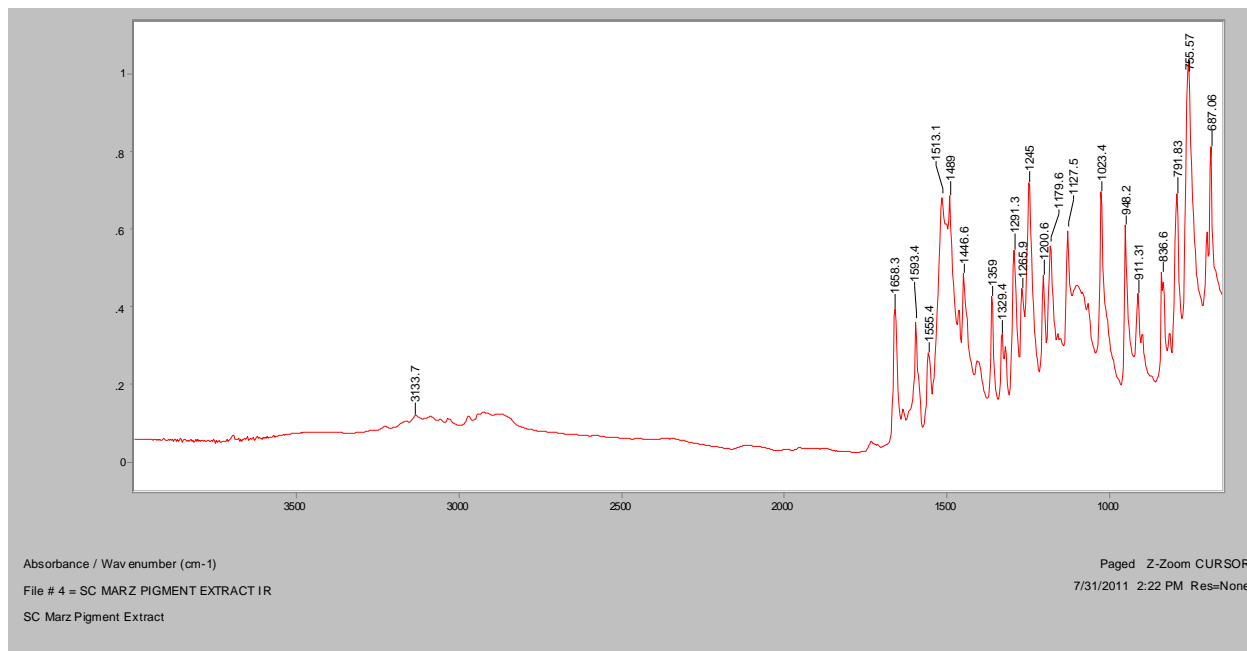
Normal Raman, 785nm



FT-Raman, 1064nm



FT-IR (ATR)



UV-Vis

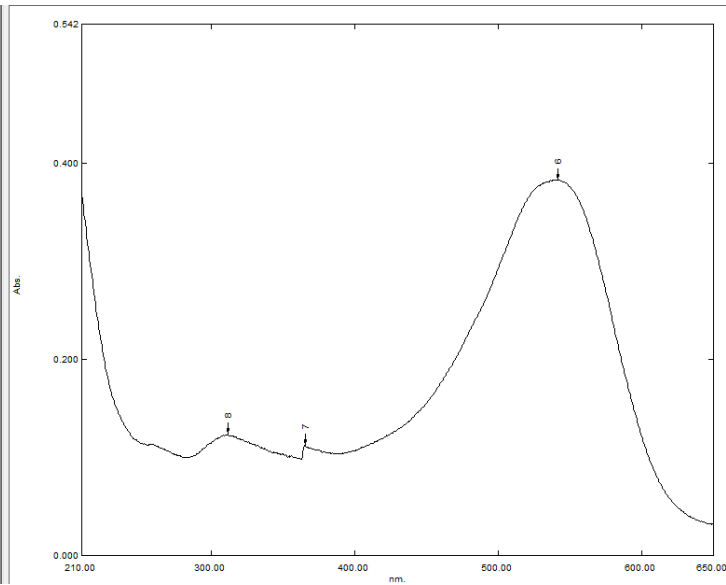
No.	PV	Wavelength nm.	Abs.	Description
1	●	333.50	0.034	
2	●	378.00	0.009	
3	●	833.50	0.007	
4	●	787.50	0.017	
5	●	749.50	0.020	
6	●	541.50	0.383	
7	●	365.50	0.112	
8	●	312.00	0.123	

Measurement Properties
Wavelength Range (nm.): 200.00 to 1000.00
Scan Speed: Medium
Sampling Interval: 0.5
Auto Sampling Interval: Disabled
Scan Mode: Single

Instrument Properties
Instrument Type: UV-2500PC Series
Measuring Mode: Absorbance
Slit Width: 1.0 nm
Light Source Change Wavelength: 360.0 nm
S/R Exchange: Normal

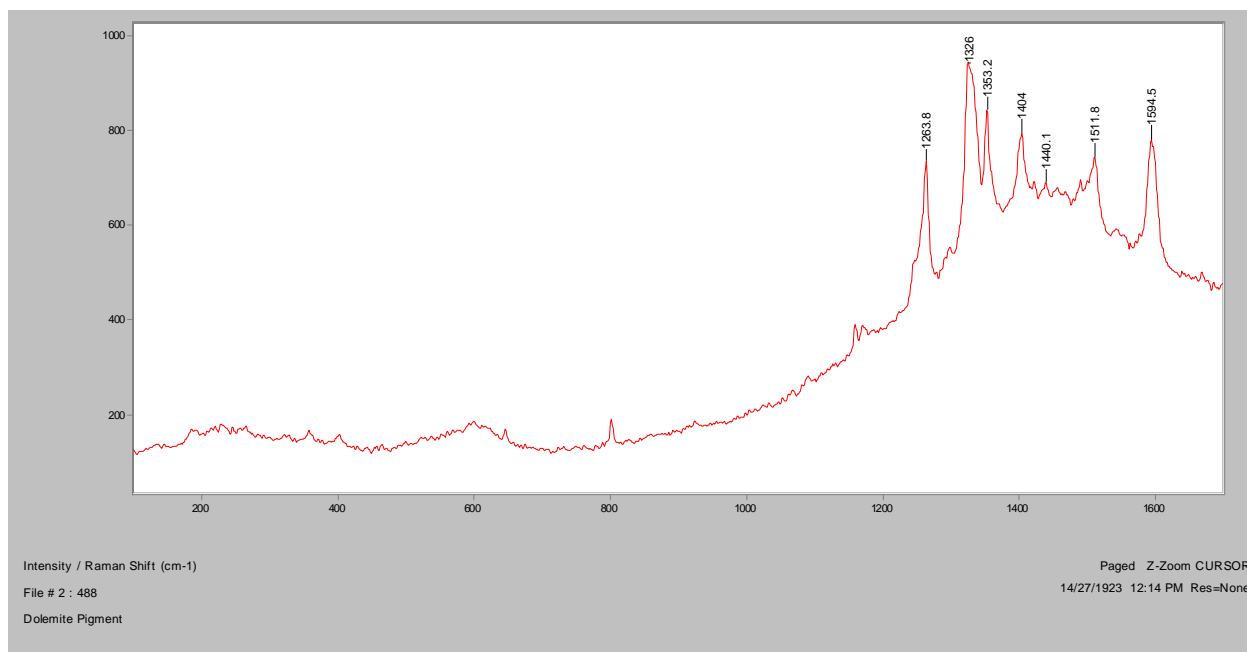
Attachment Properties
Attachment: None

Sample Preparation Properties
Weight:
Volume:
Dilution:
Path Length:
Additional Information:

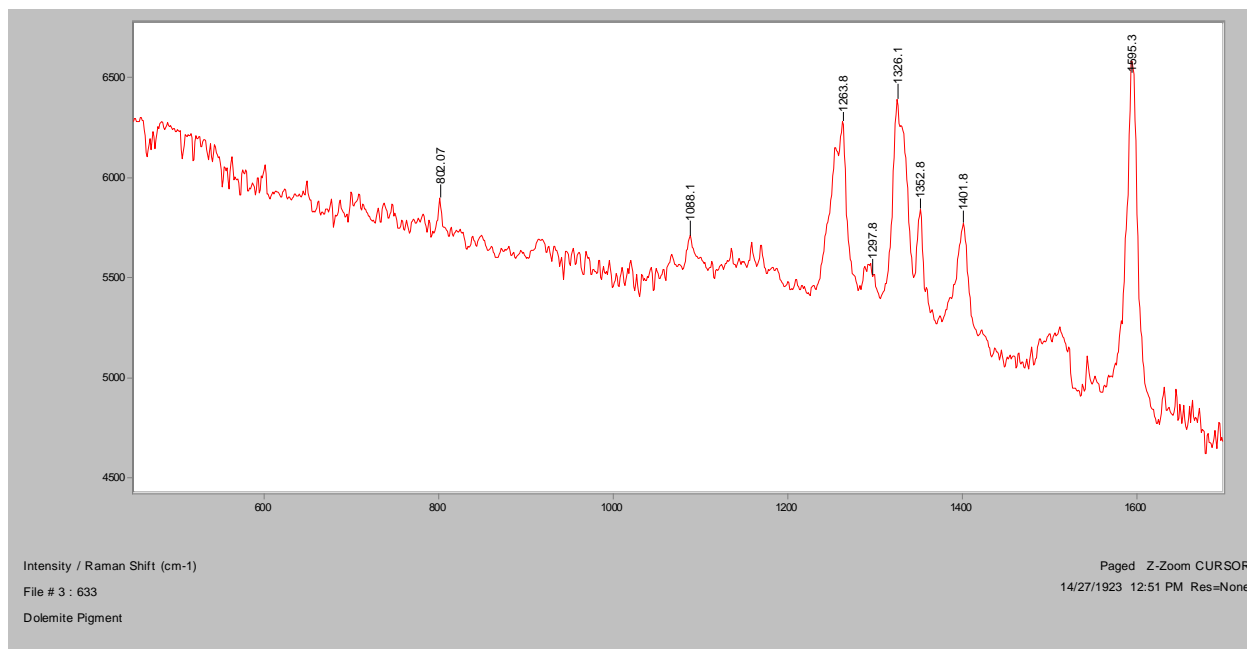


Dolemite

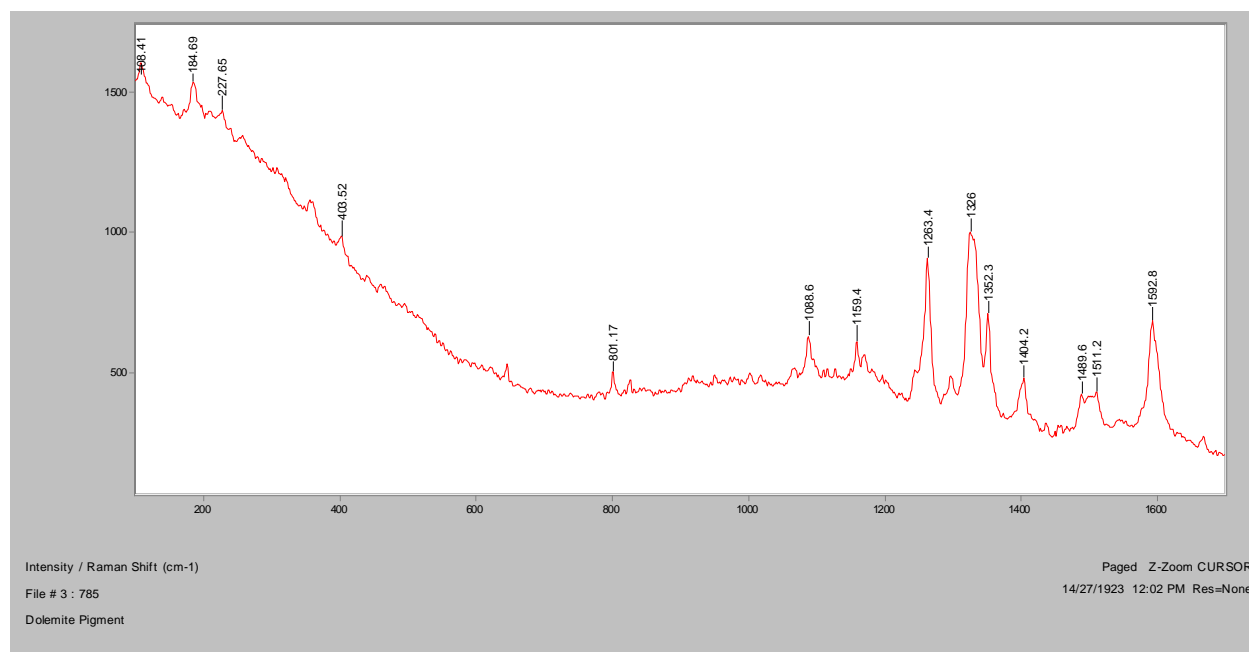
Normal Raman, 488nm



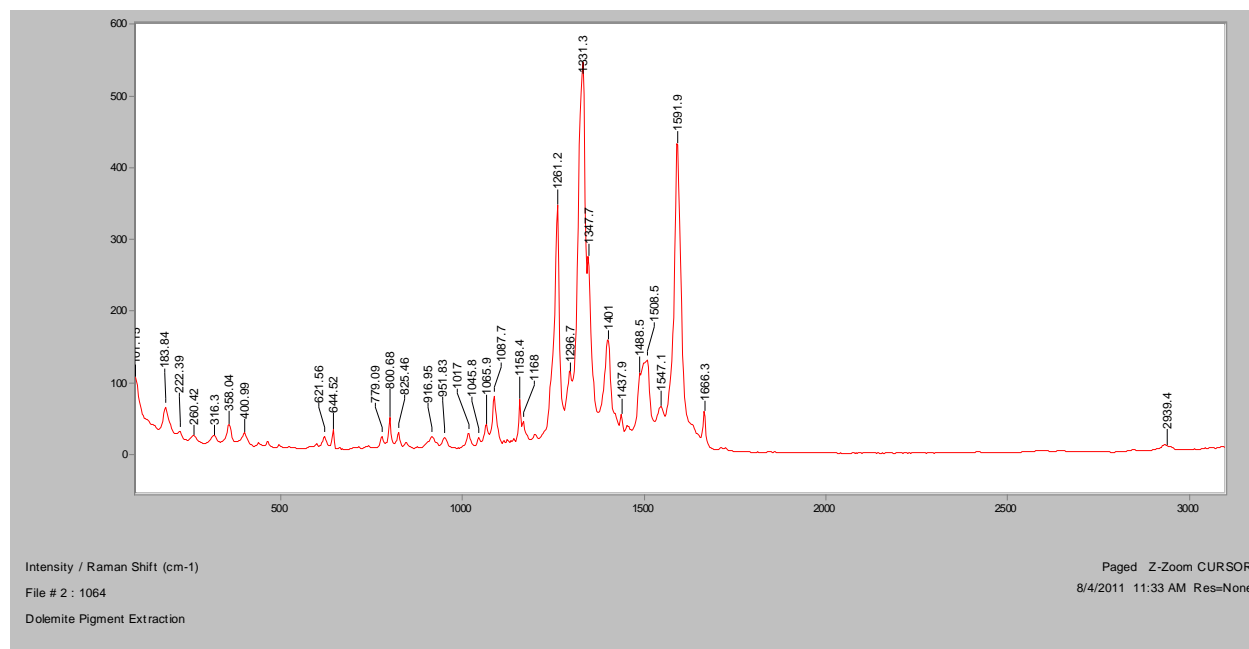
Normal Raman, 633nm



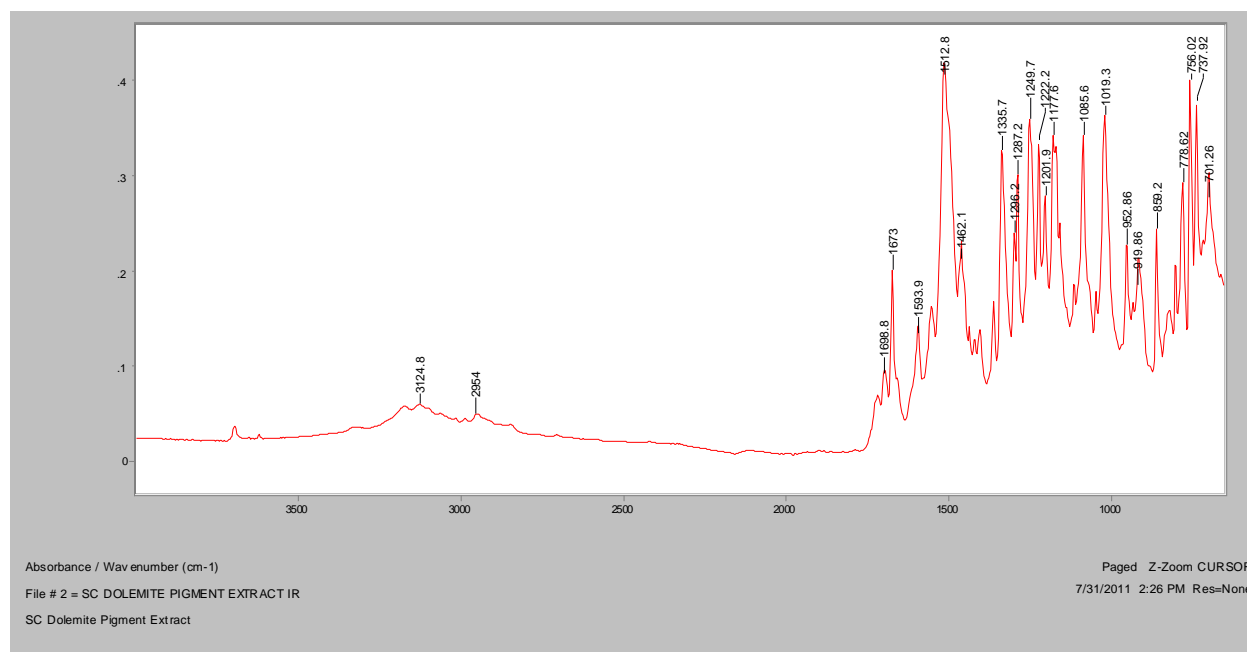
Normal Raman, 785nm



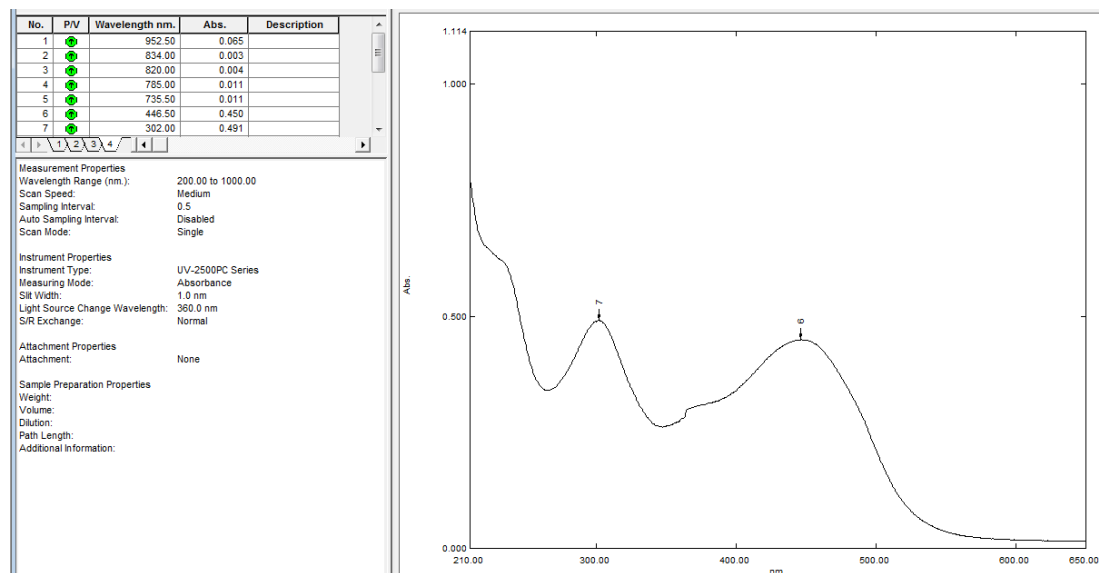
FT-Raman, 1064nm



FT-IR (ATR)

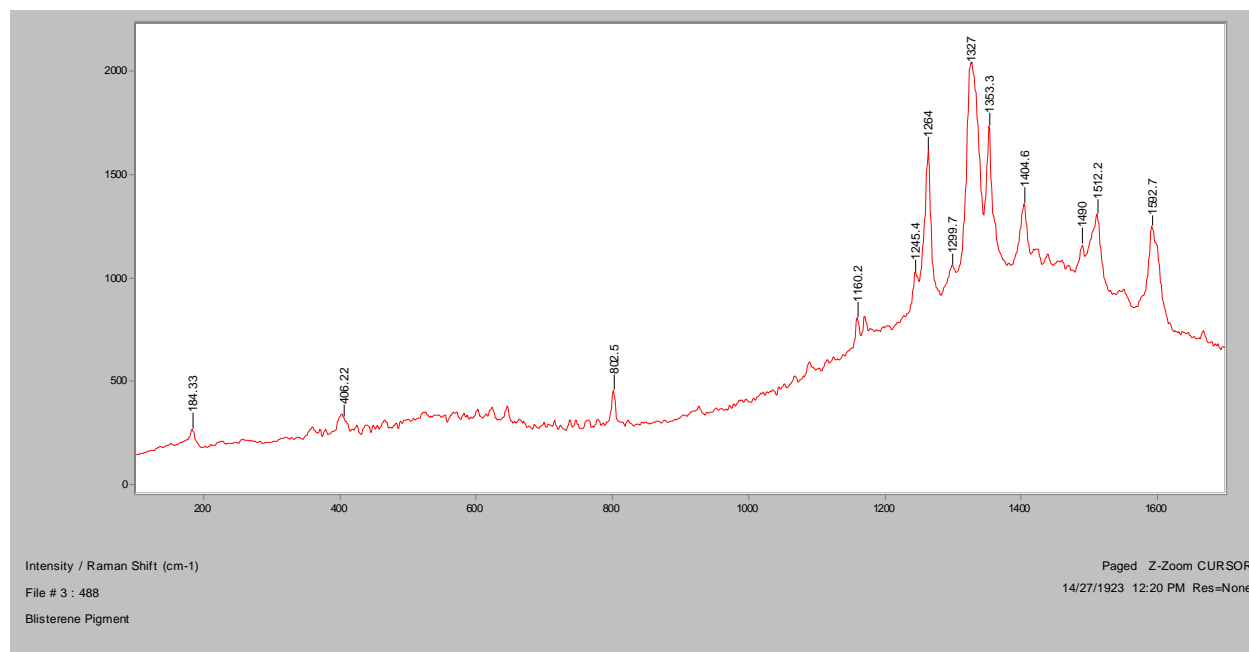


UV-Vis

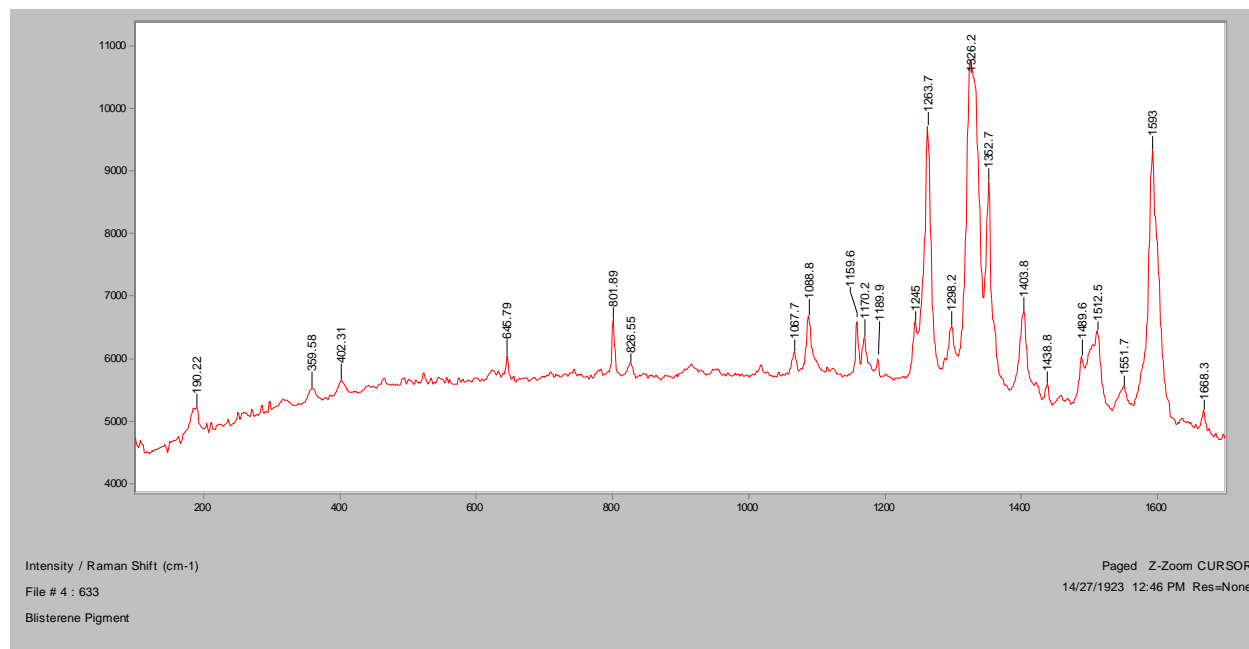


Blisterine

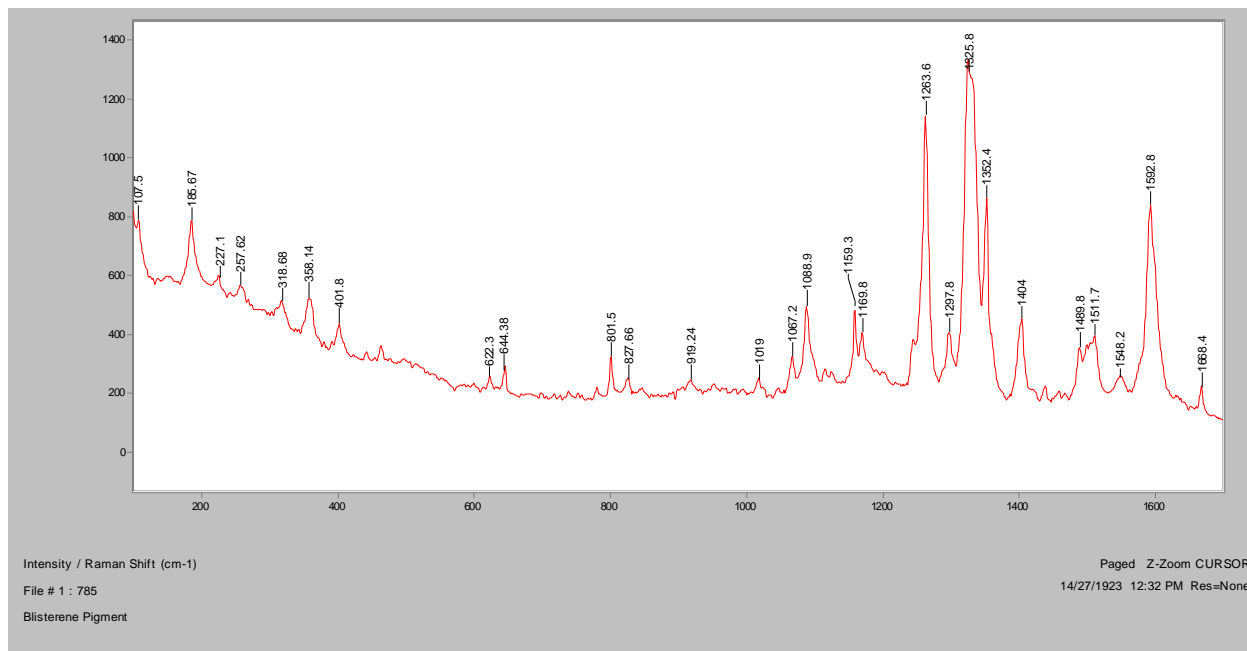
Normal Raman, 488nm



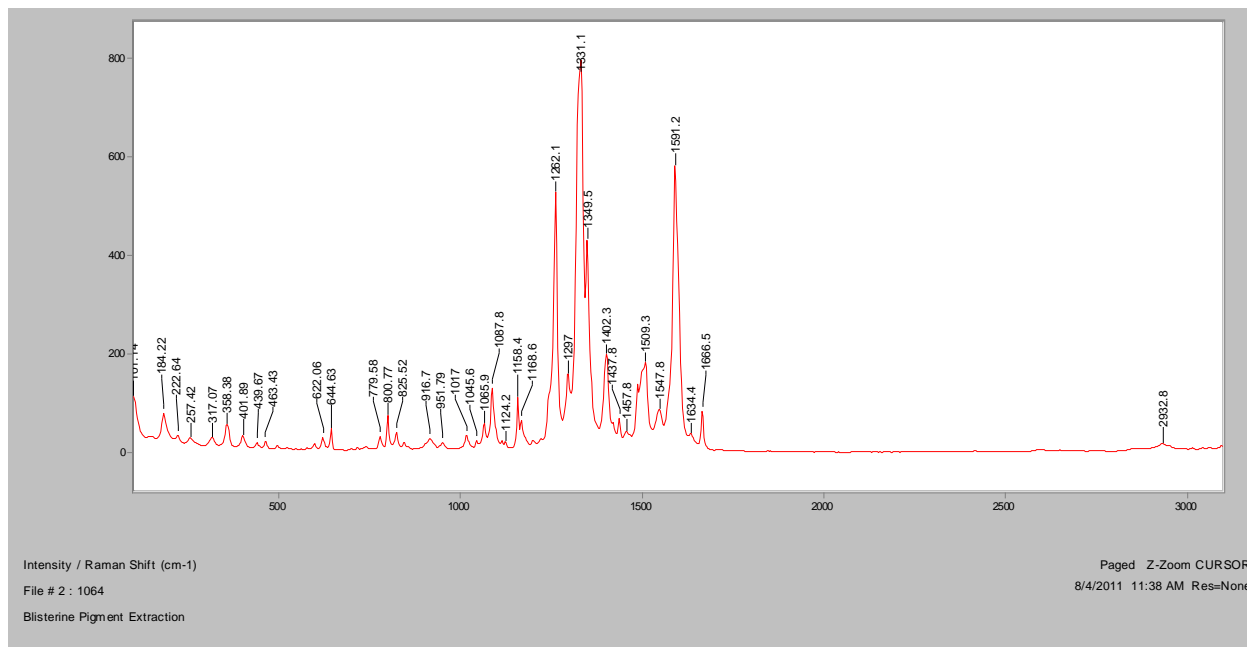
Normal Raman, 633nm



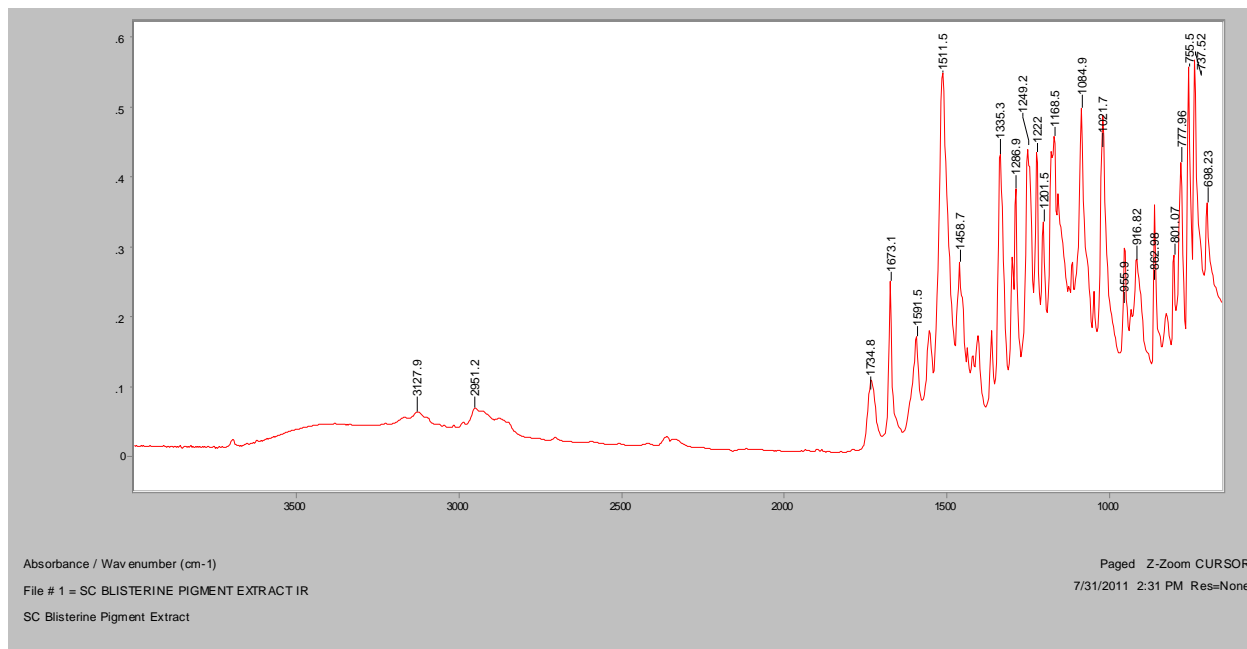
Normal Raman, 785nm



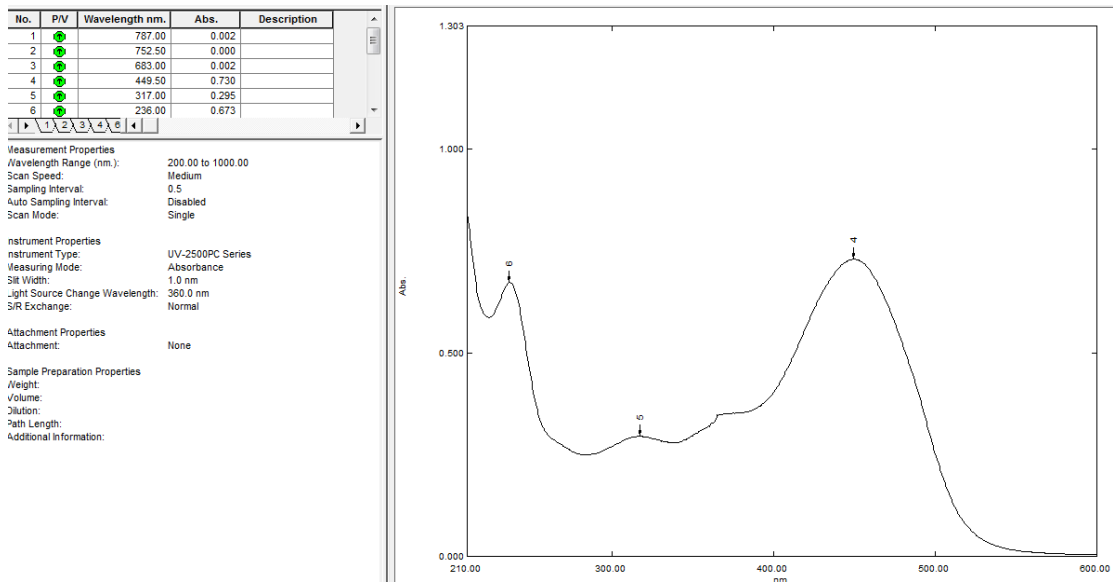
FT-Raman, 1064nm



FT-IR (ATR)

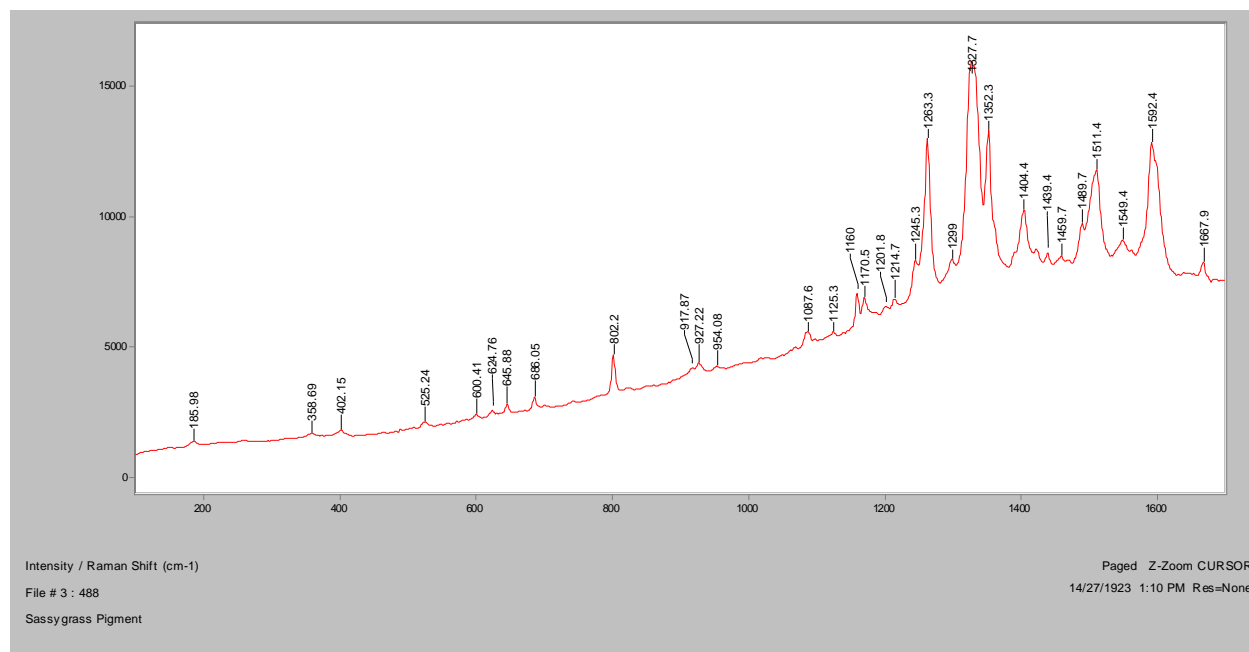


UV-Vis

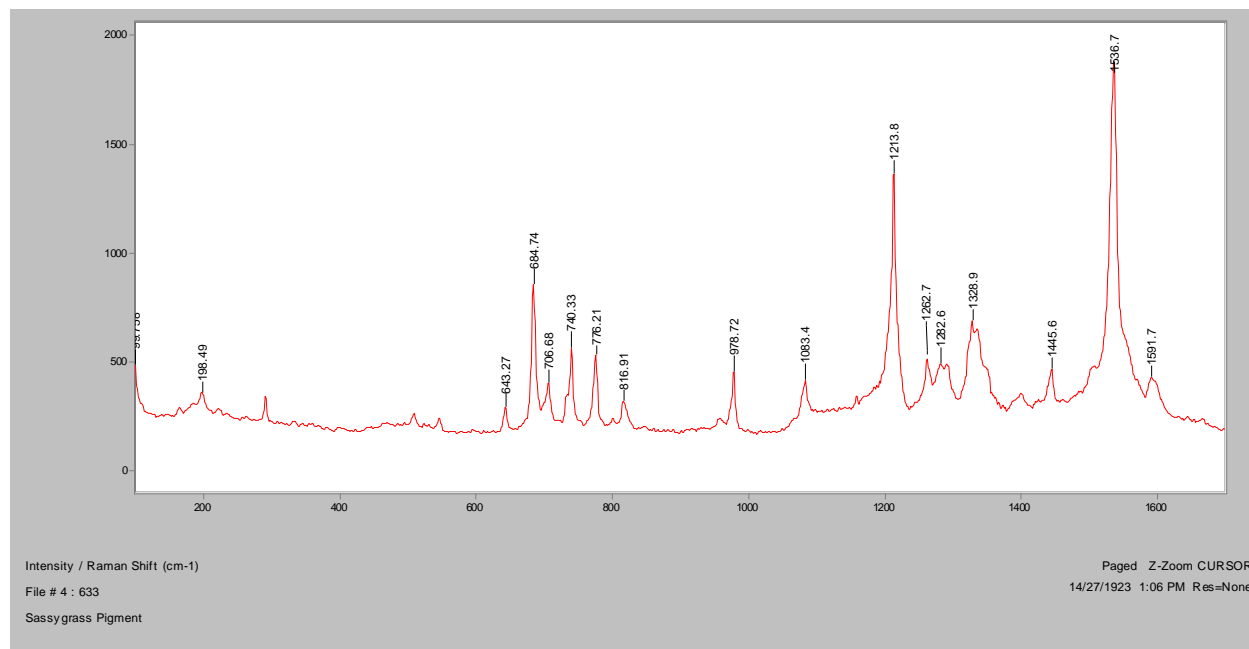


Sassygrass

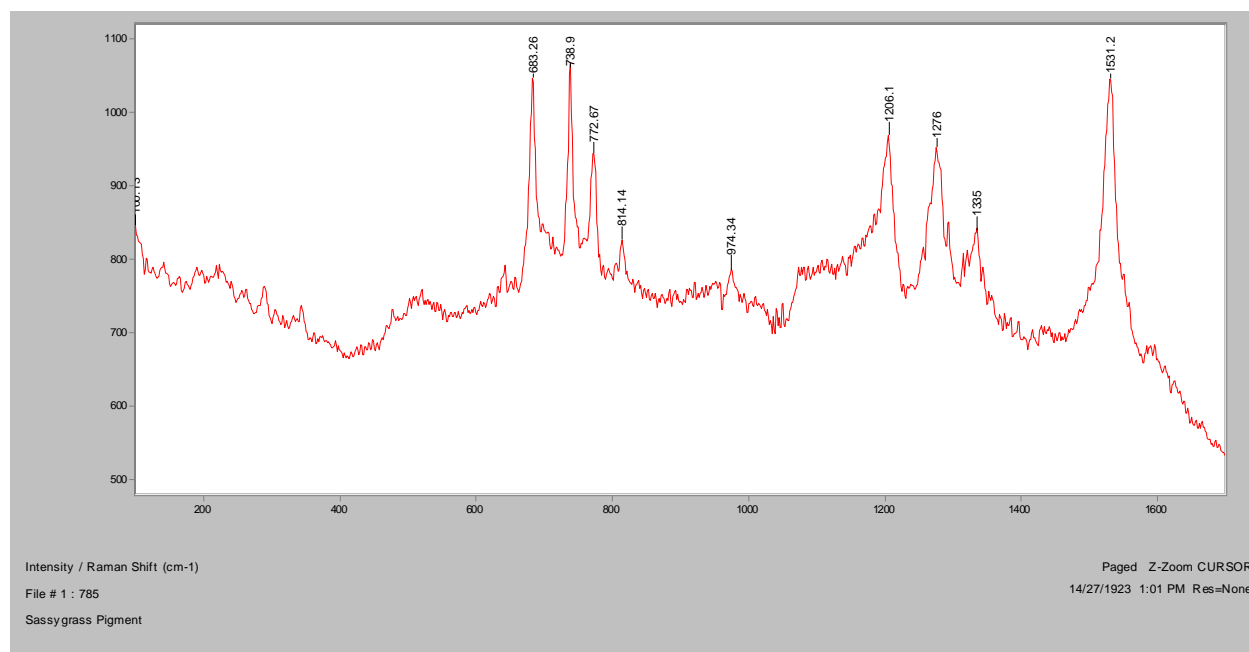
Normal Raman, 488nm



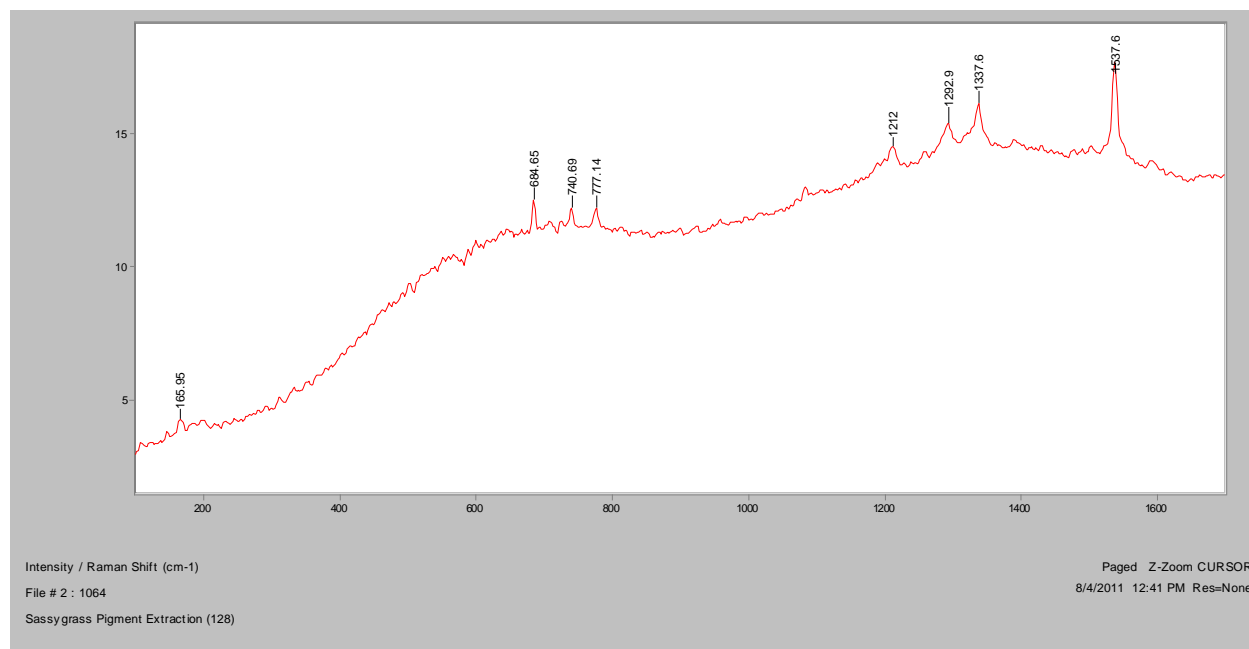
Normal Raman, 633nm



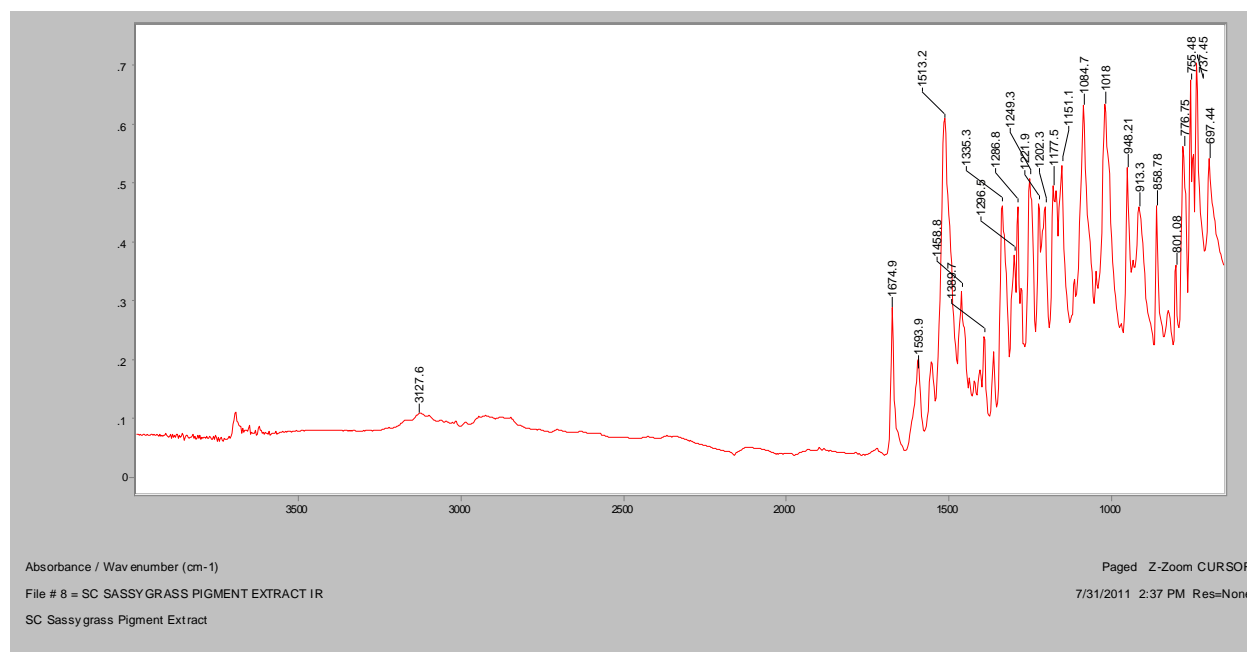
Normal Raman, 785nm



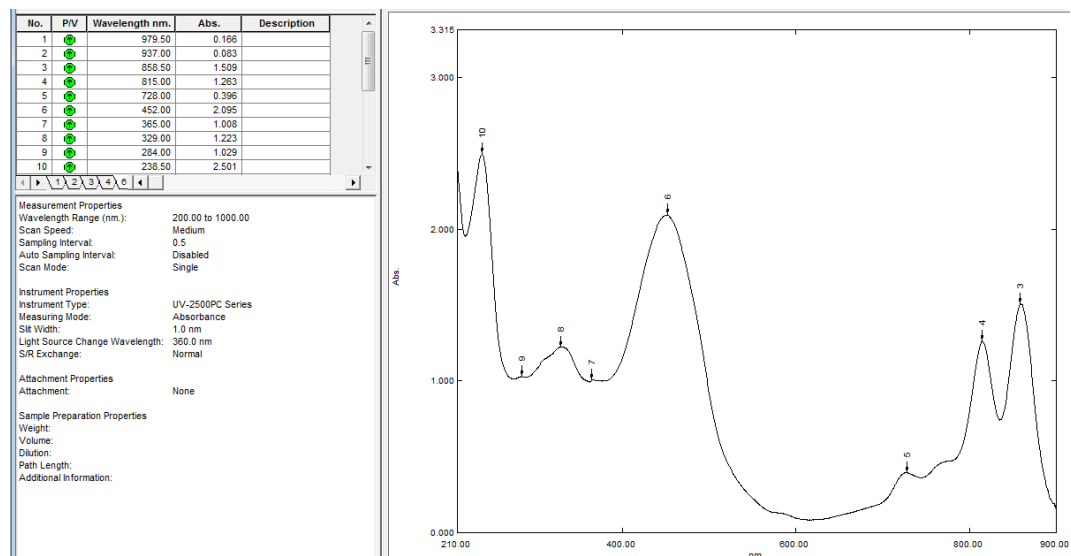
FT-Raman, 1064nm



FT-IR (ATR)

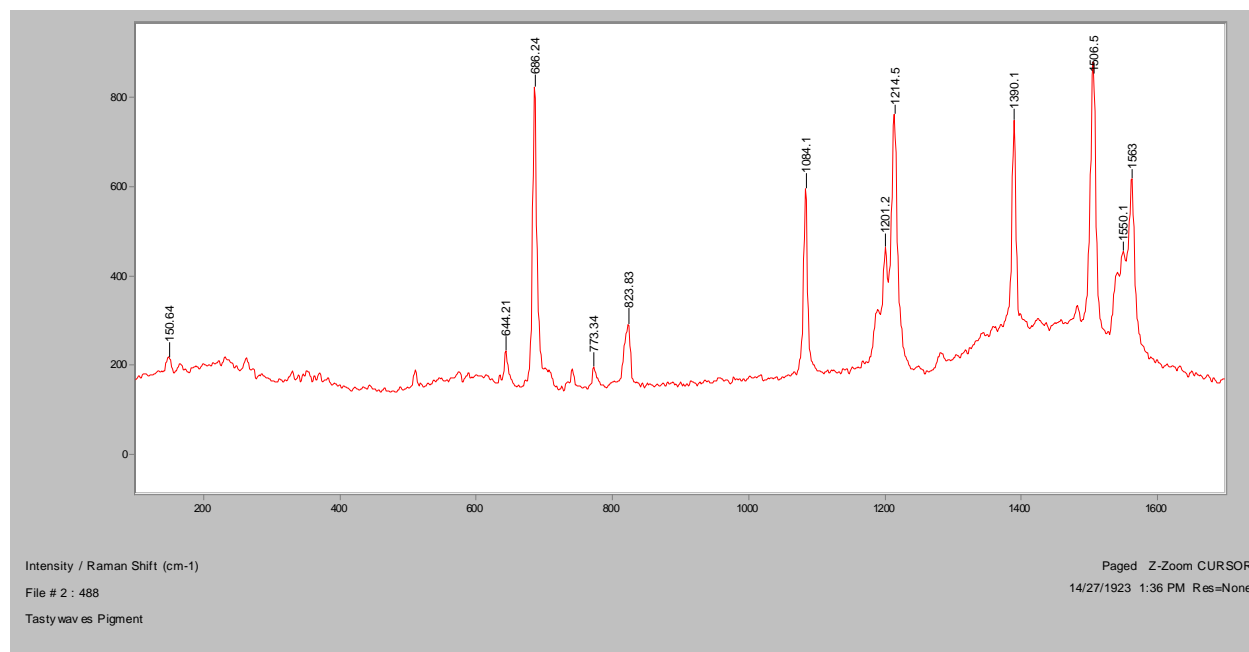


UV-Vis

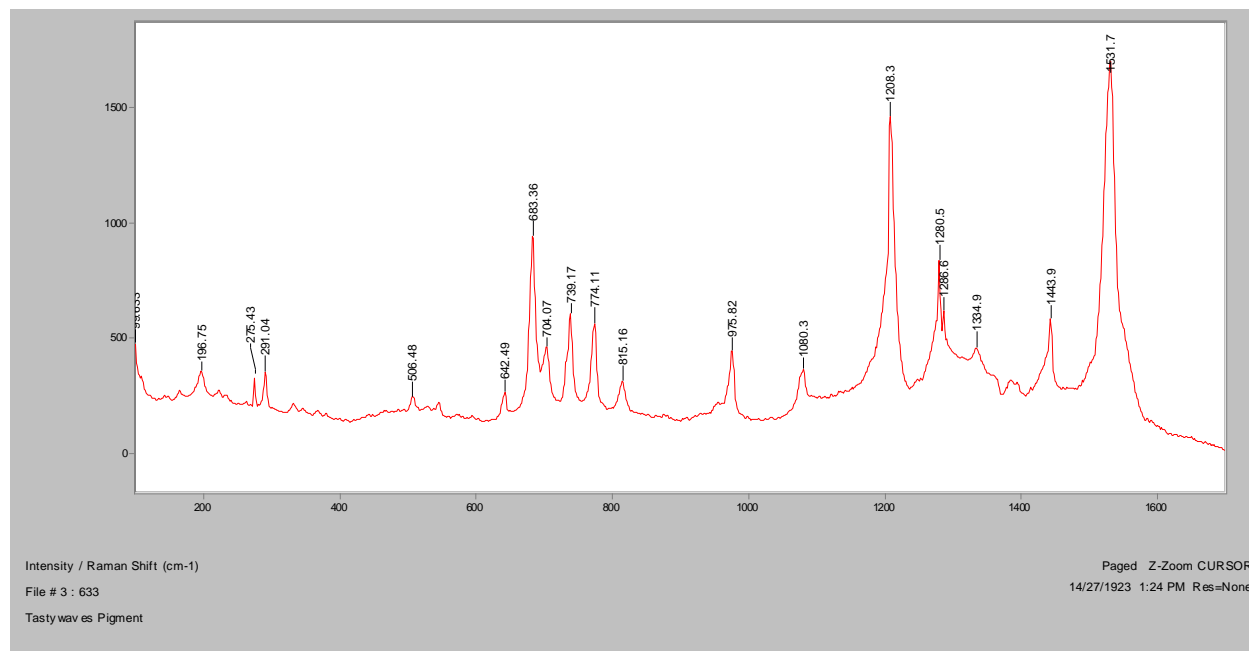


Tastywaves

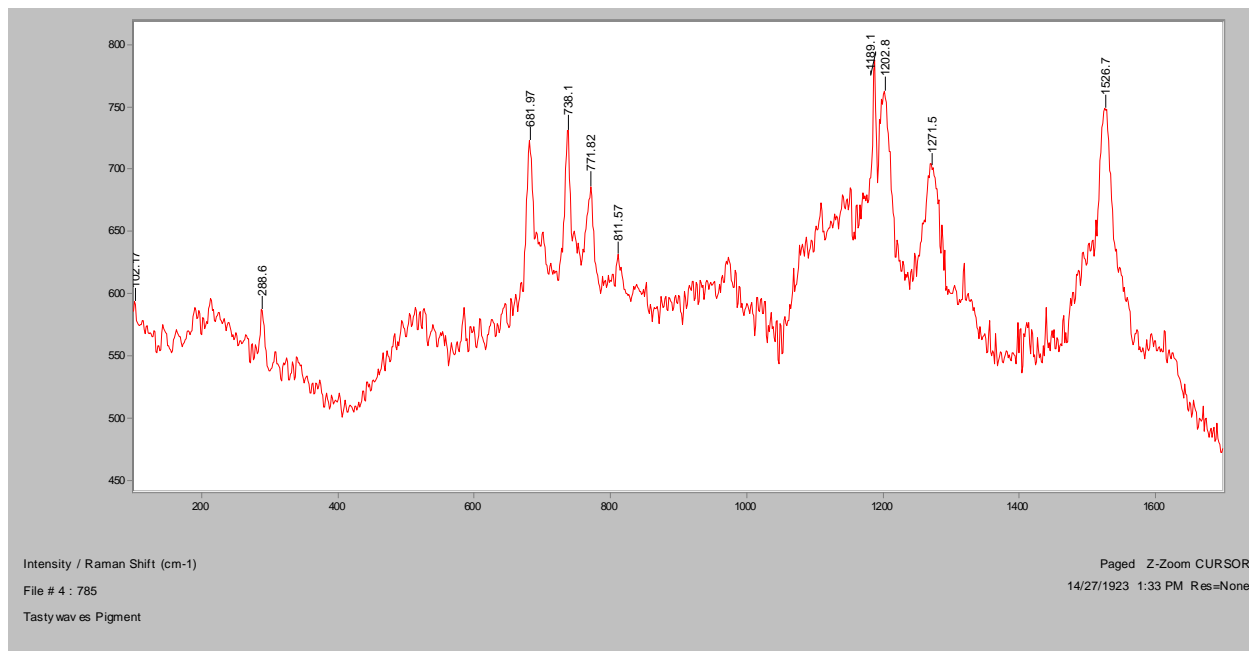
Normal Raman, 488nm



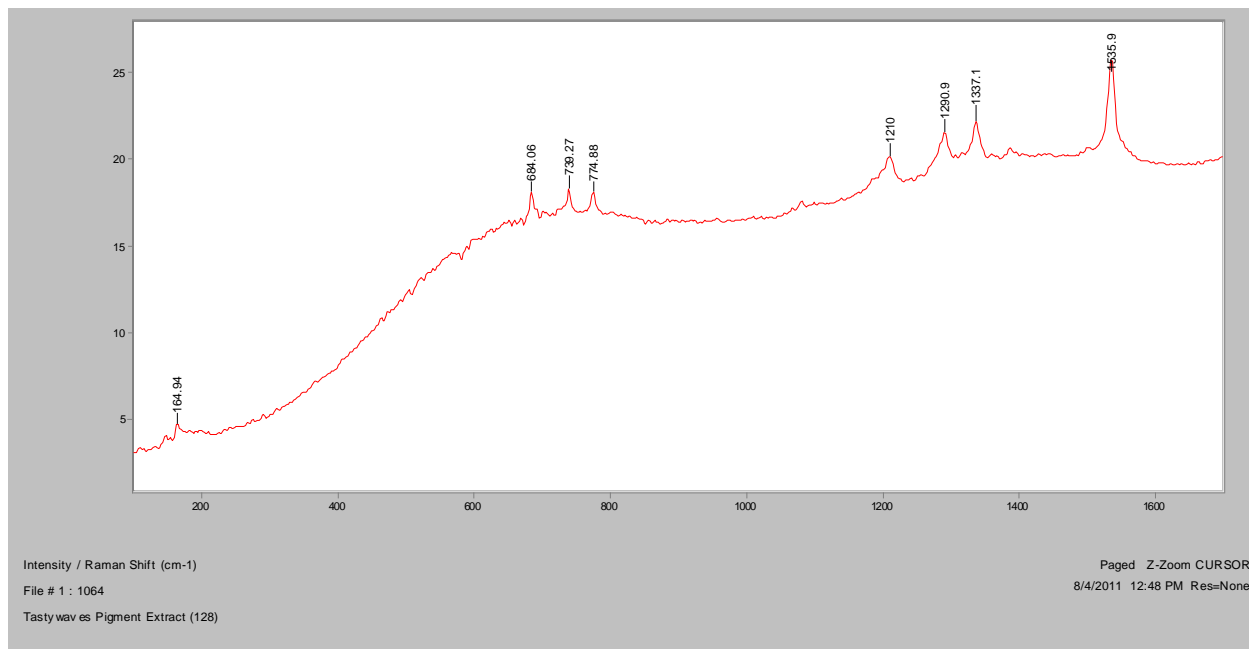
Normal Raman, 633nm



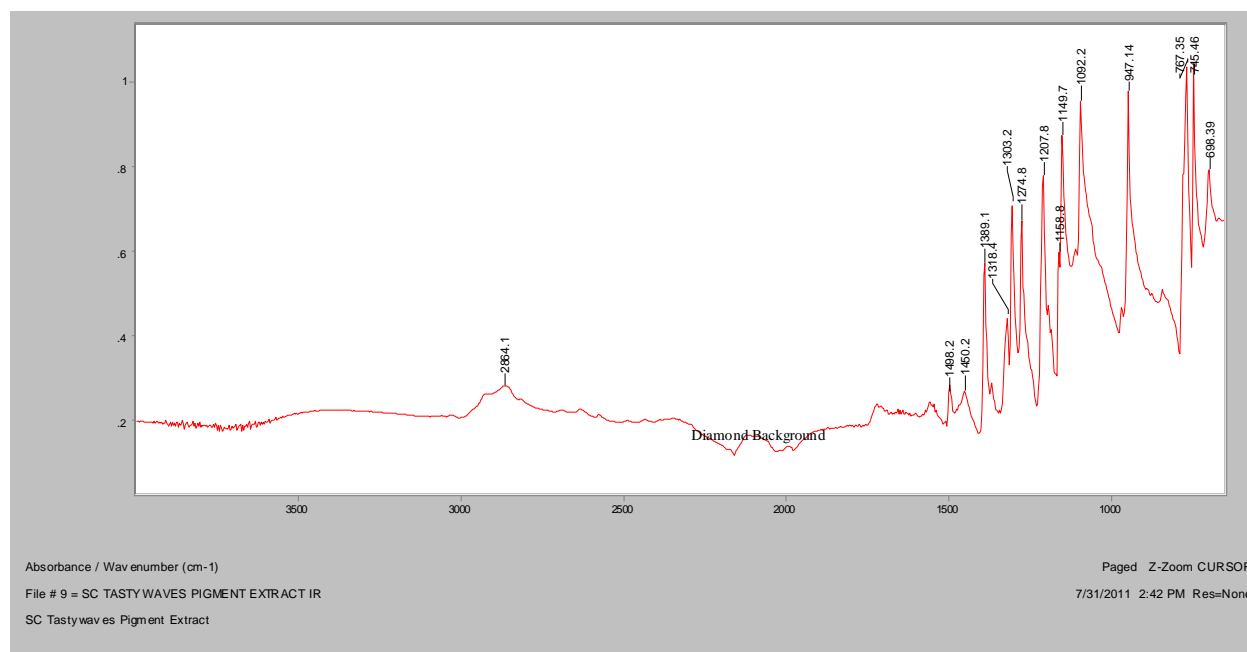
Normal Raman, 785nm



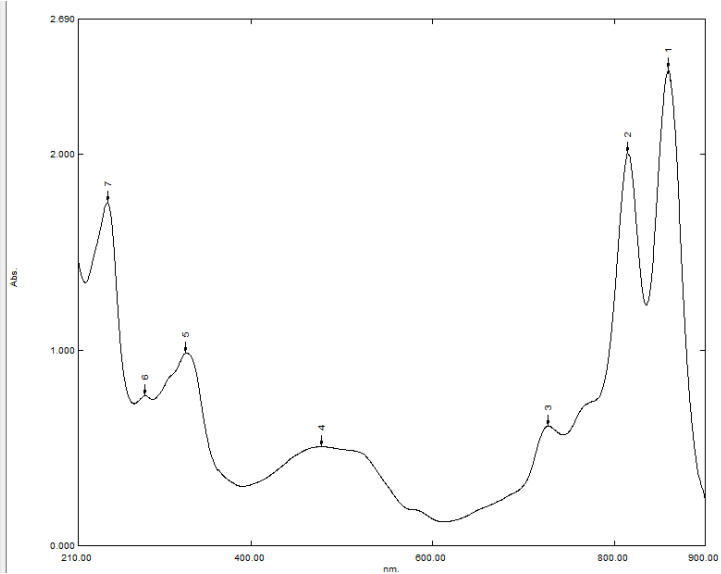
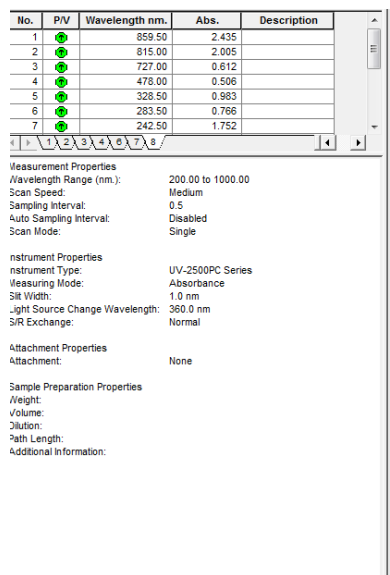
FT-Raman, 1064nm



FT-IR (ATR)

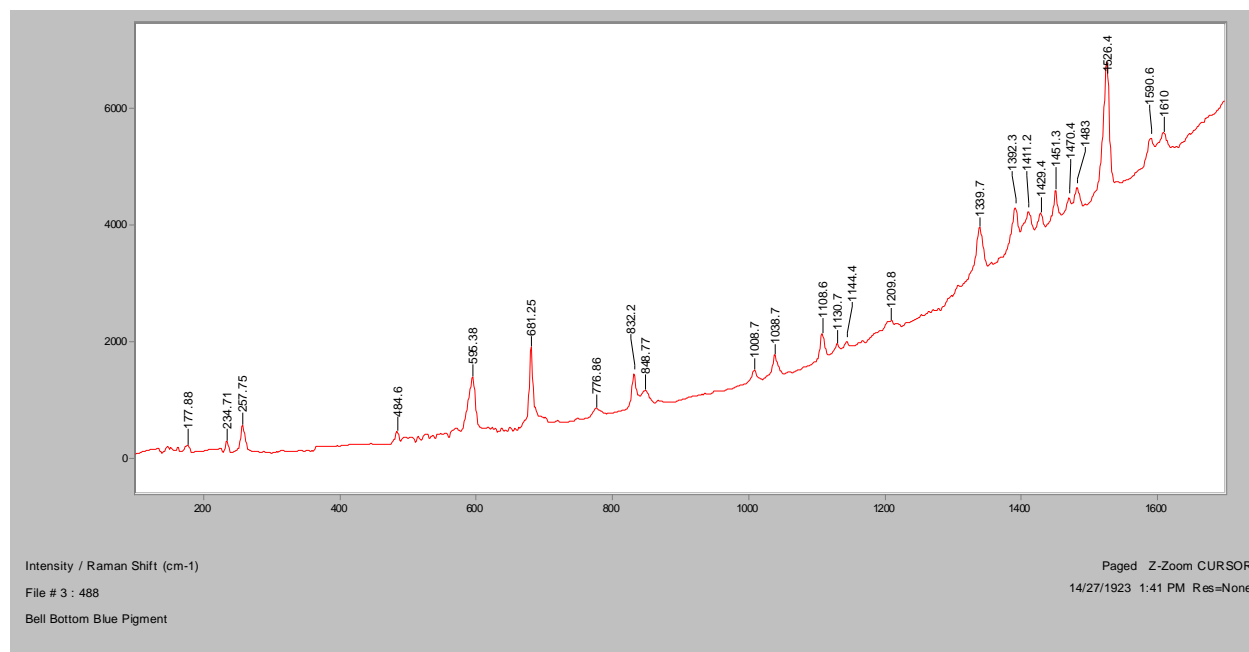


UV-Vis

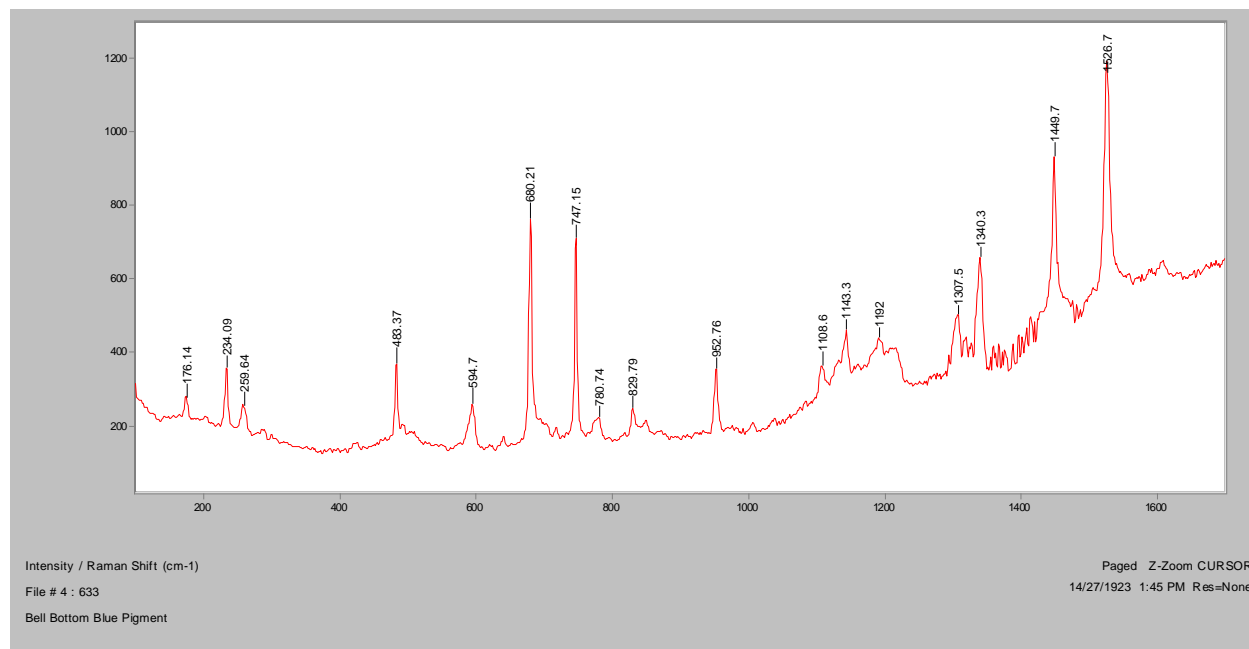


Bell Bottom Blue

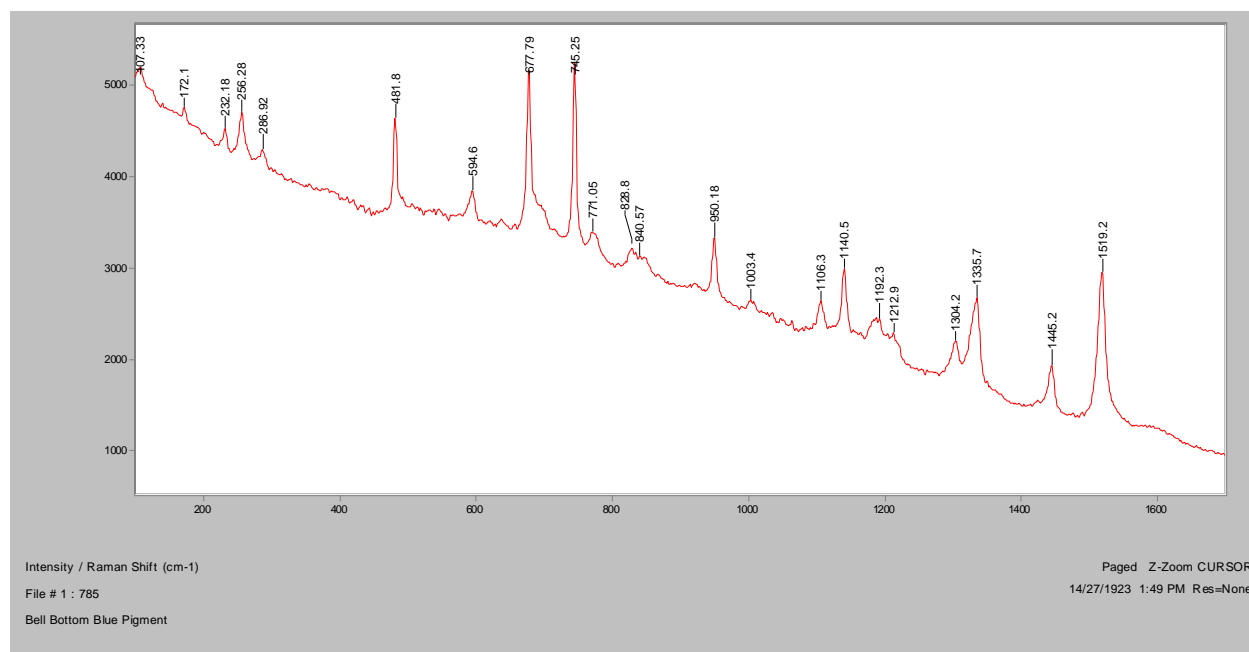
Normal Raman, 488nm



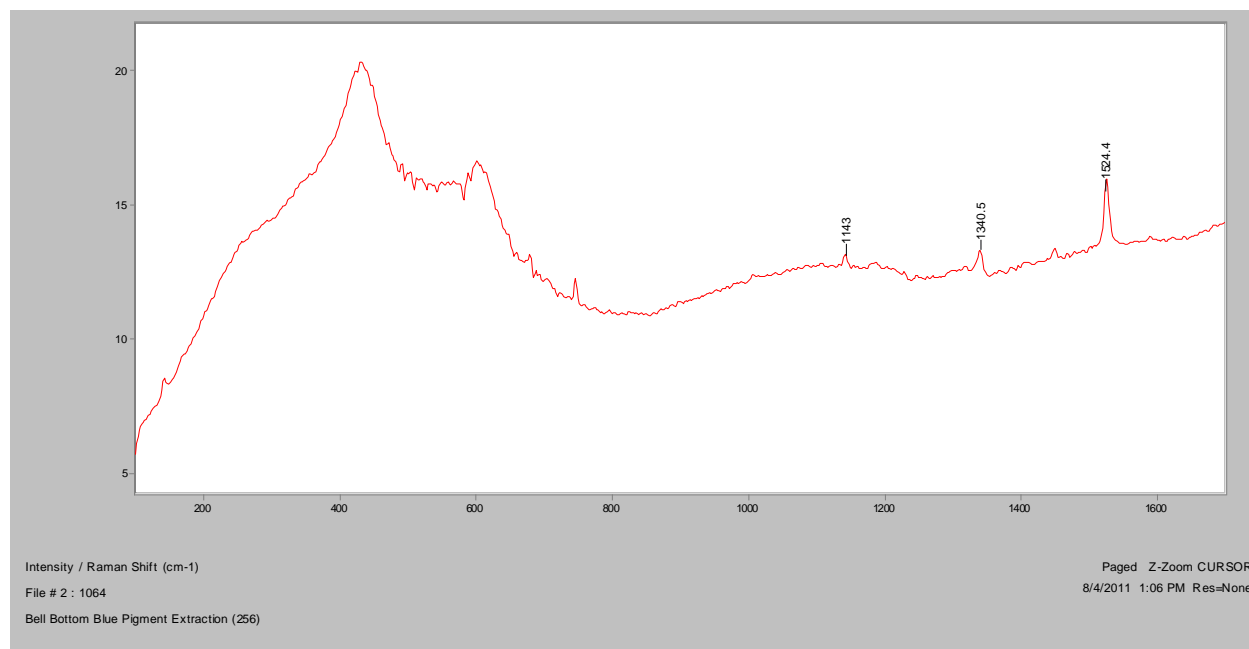
Normal Raman, 633nm



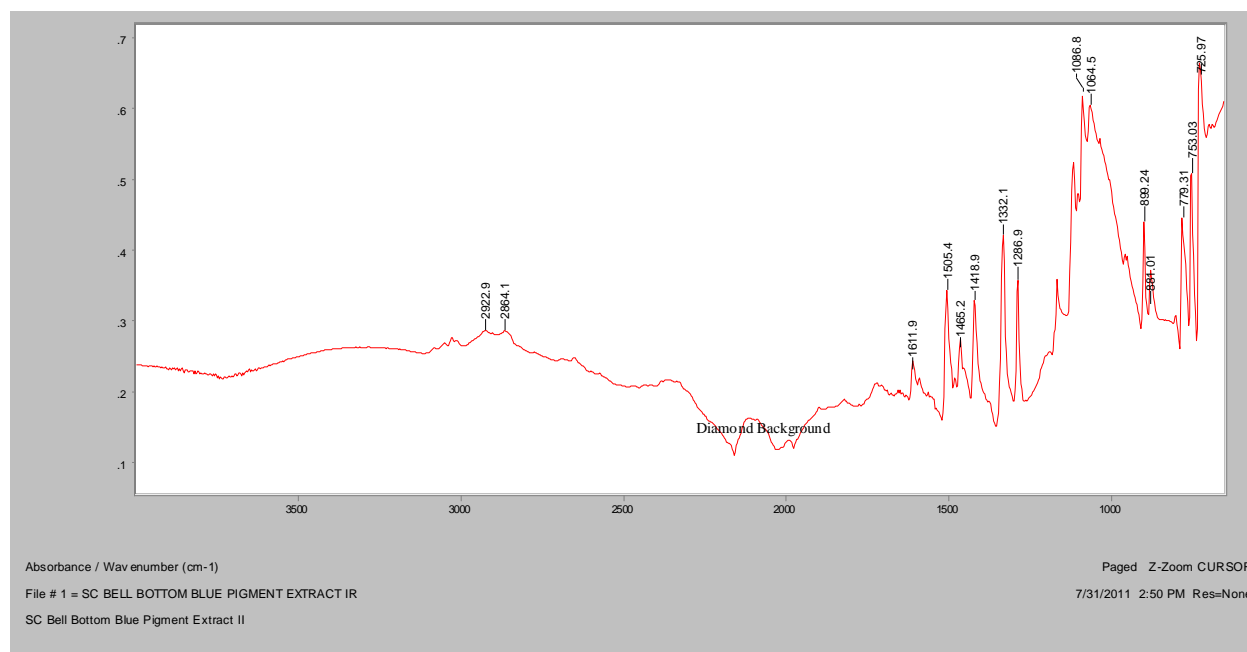
Normal Raman, 785nm



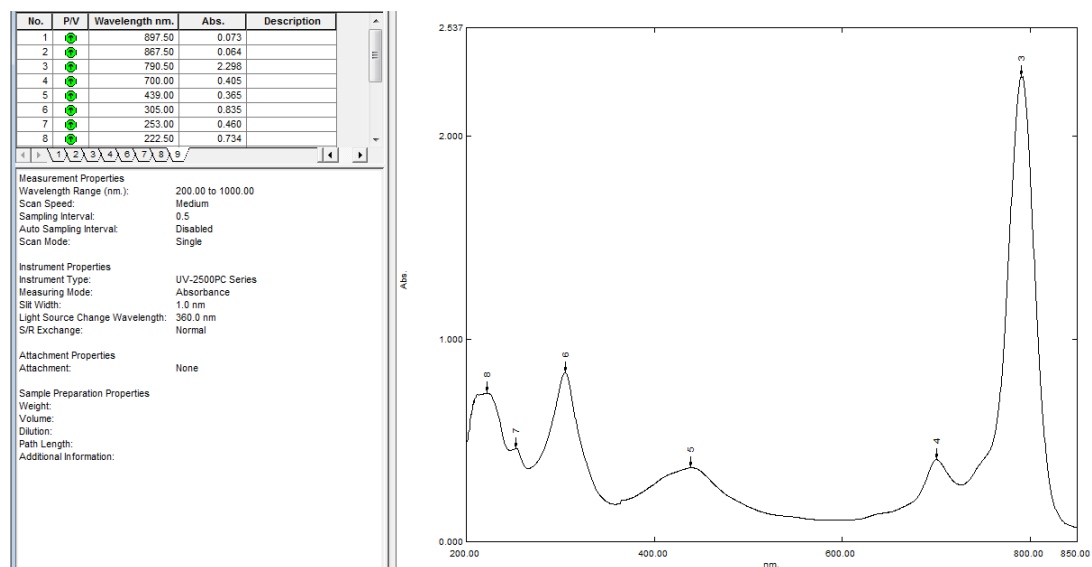
FT-Raman, 1064nm



FT-IR (ATR)

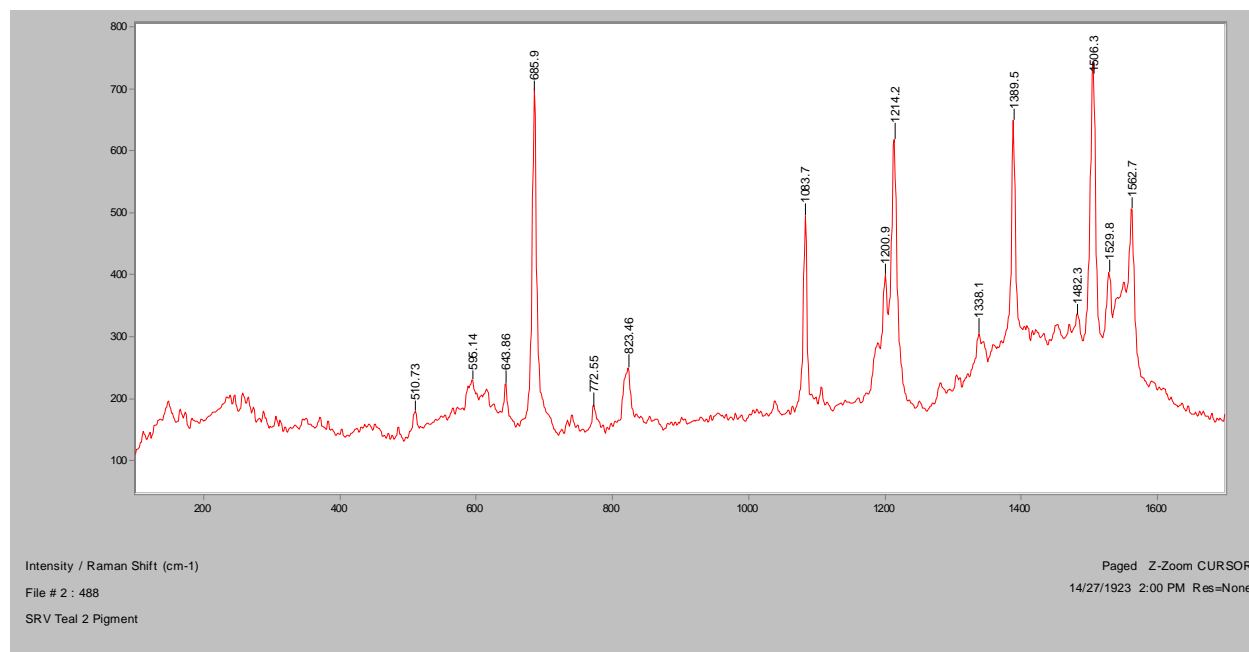


UV-Vis

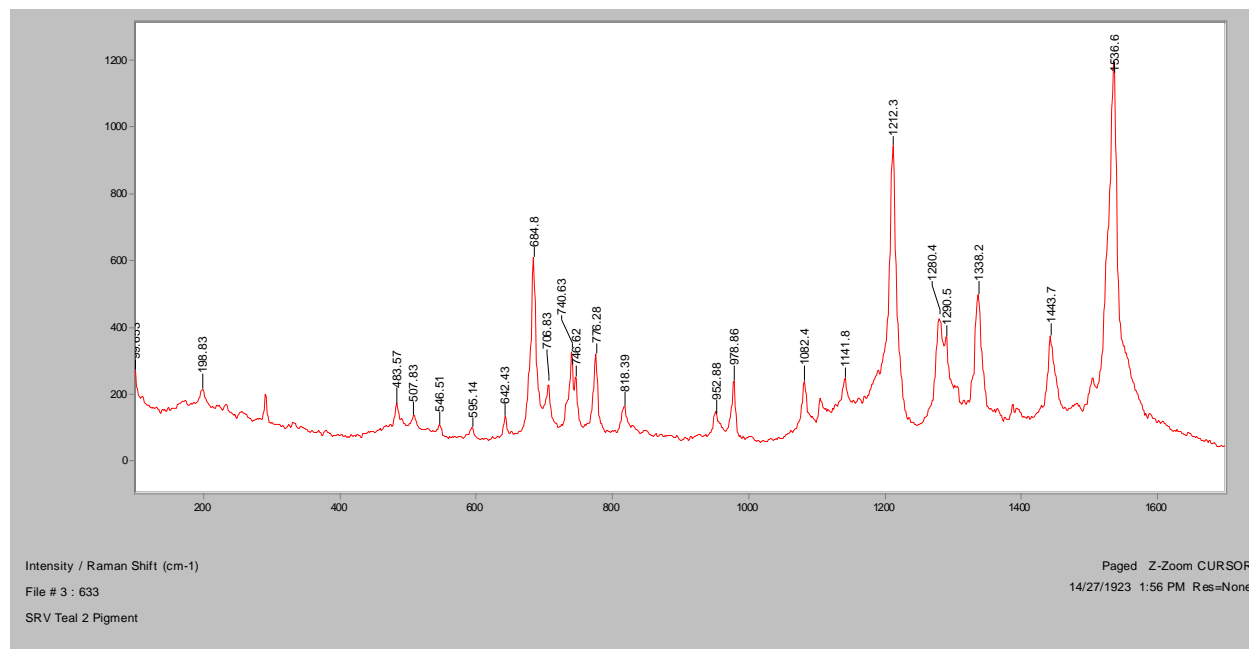


SRV Teal 2

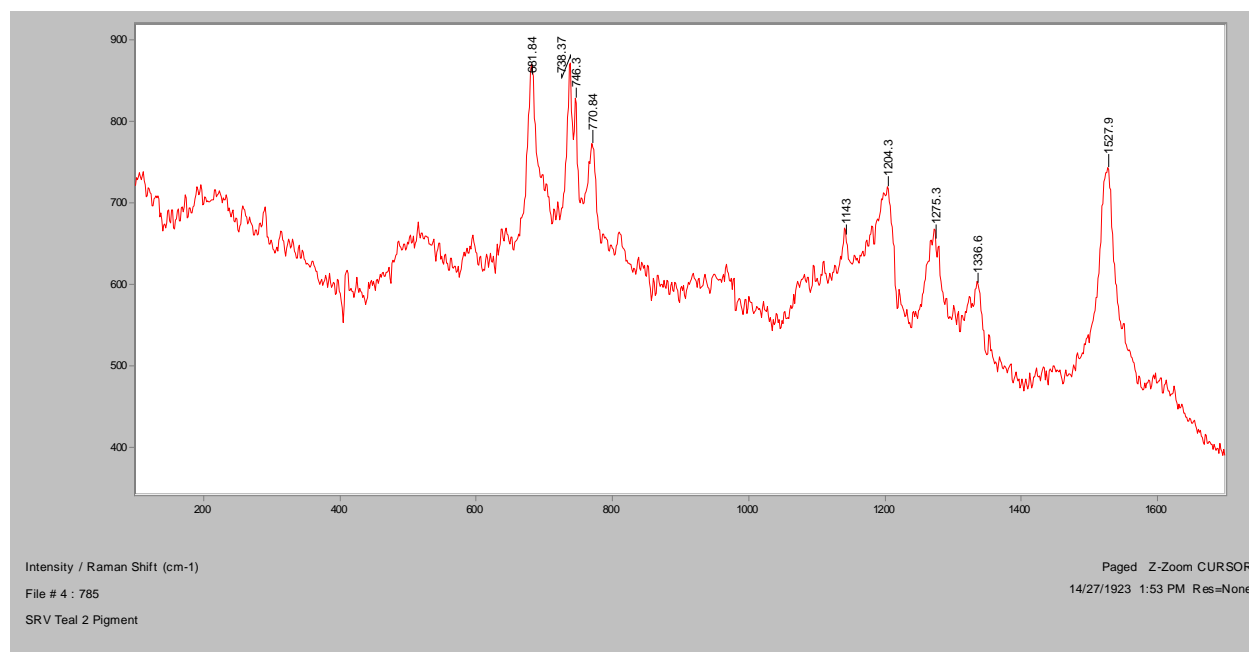
Normal Raman, 488nm



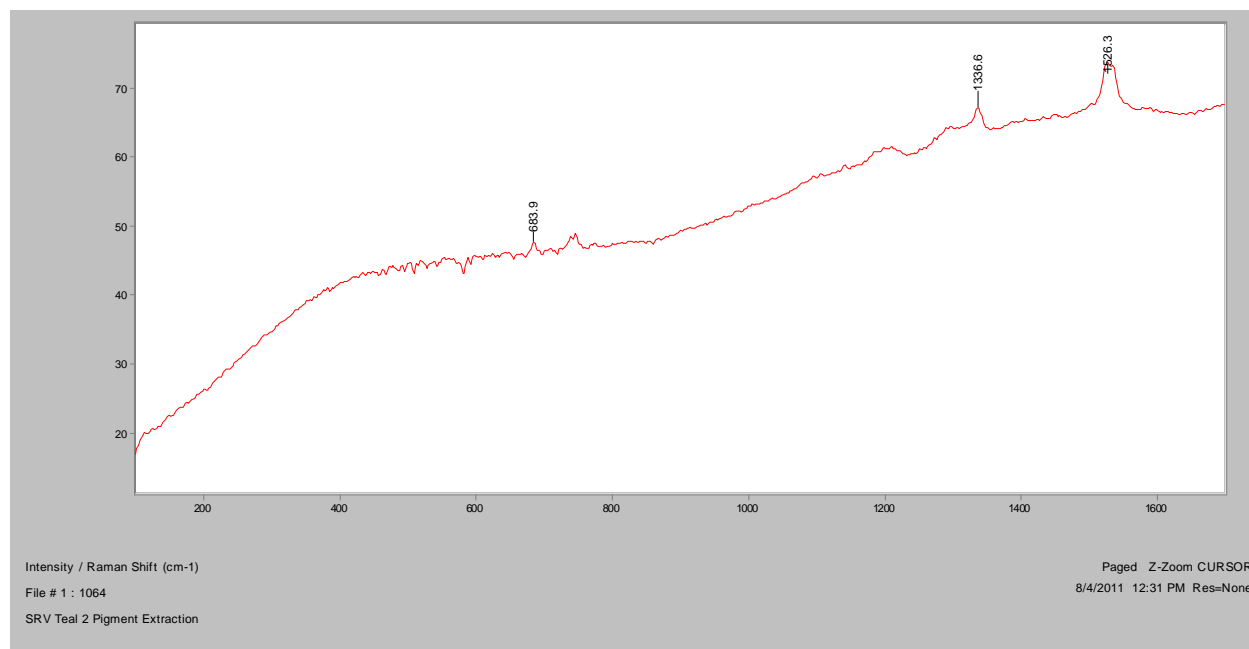
Normal Raman, 633nm



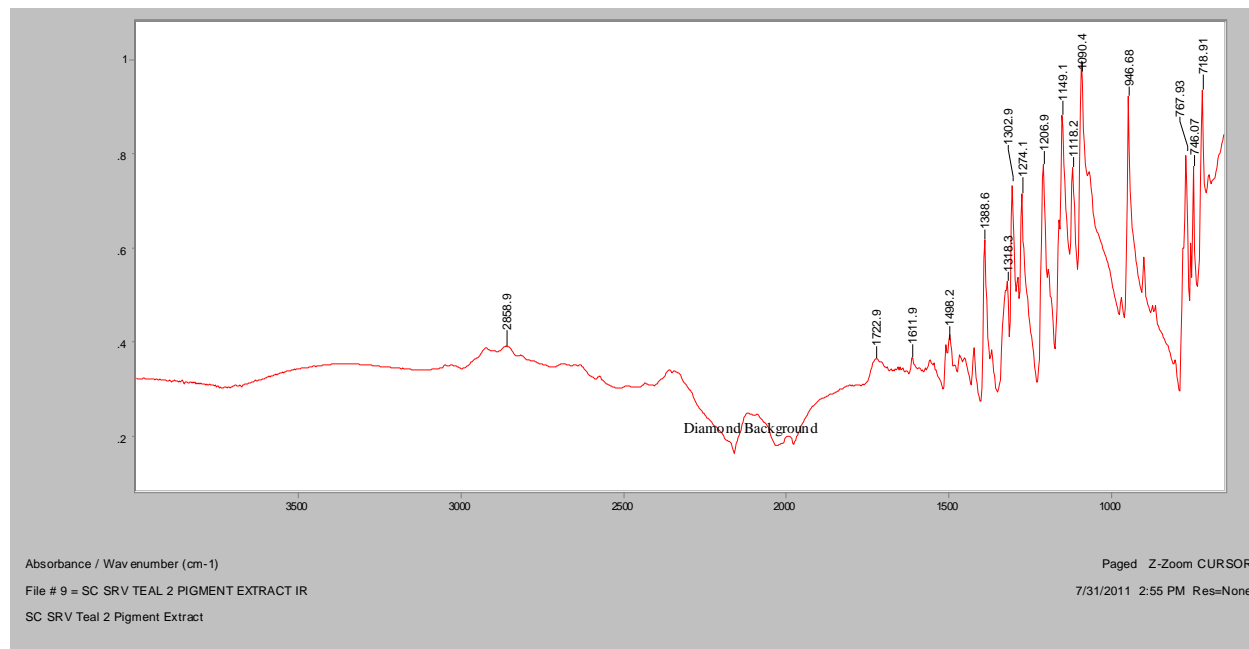
Normal Raman, 785nm



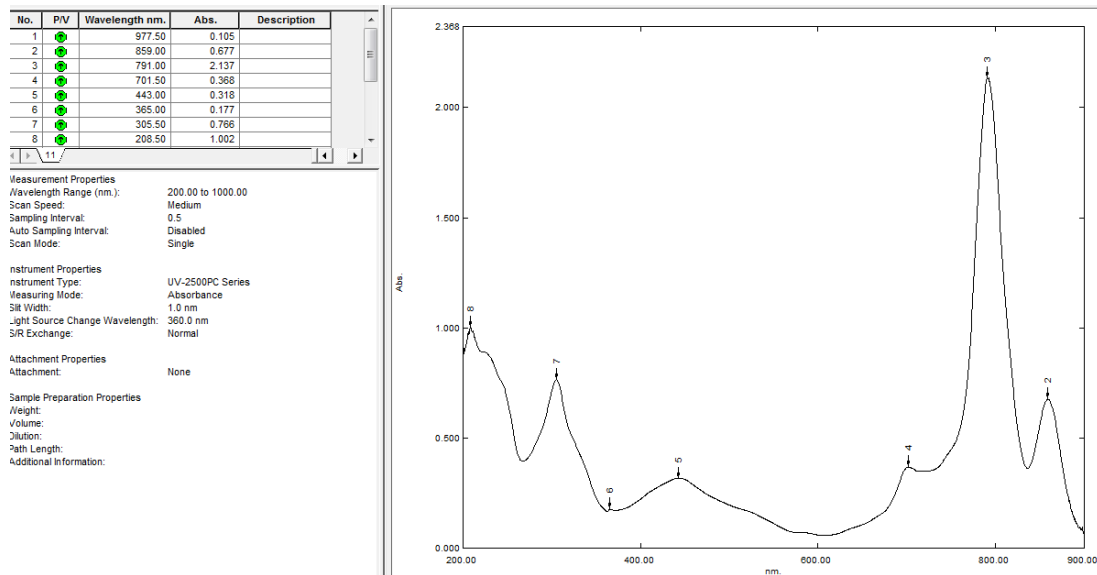
FT-Raman, 1064nm



FT-IR (ATR)

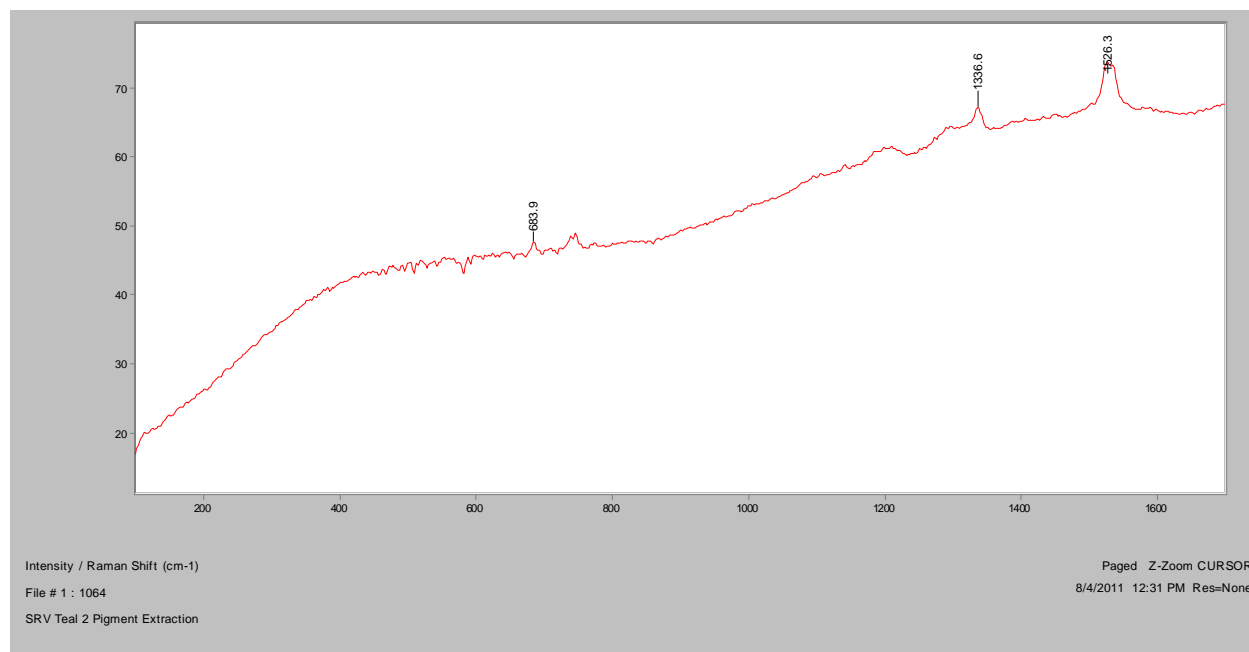


UV-Vis

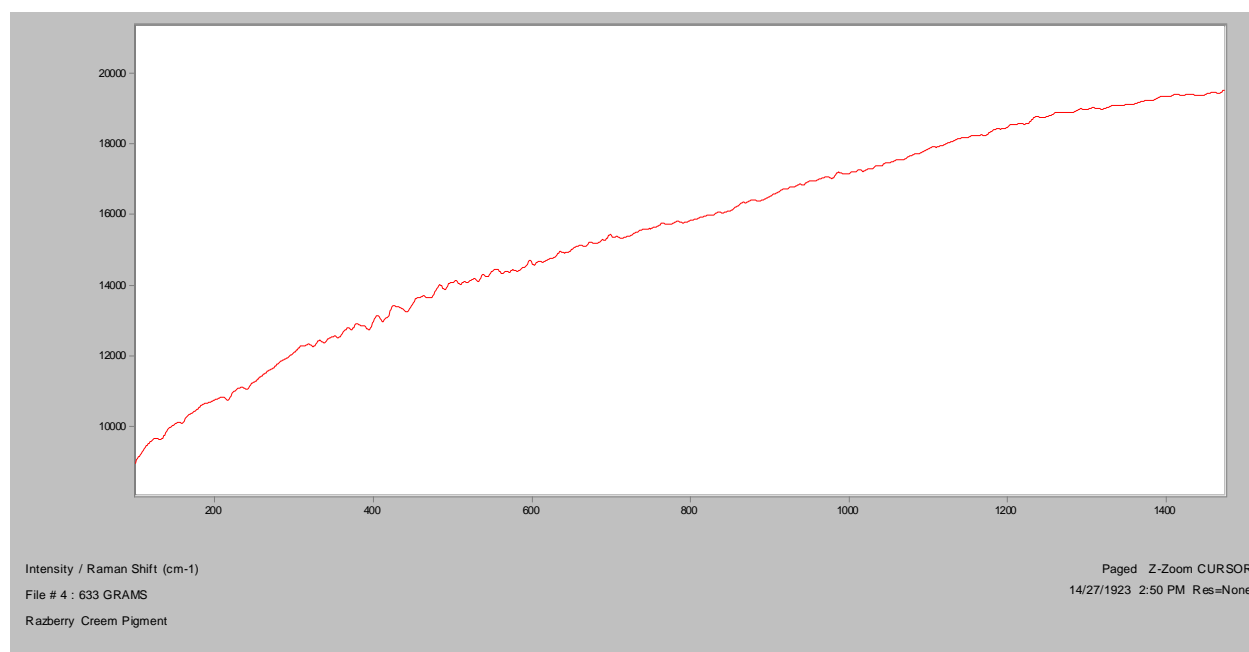


Raspberry Creem

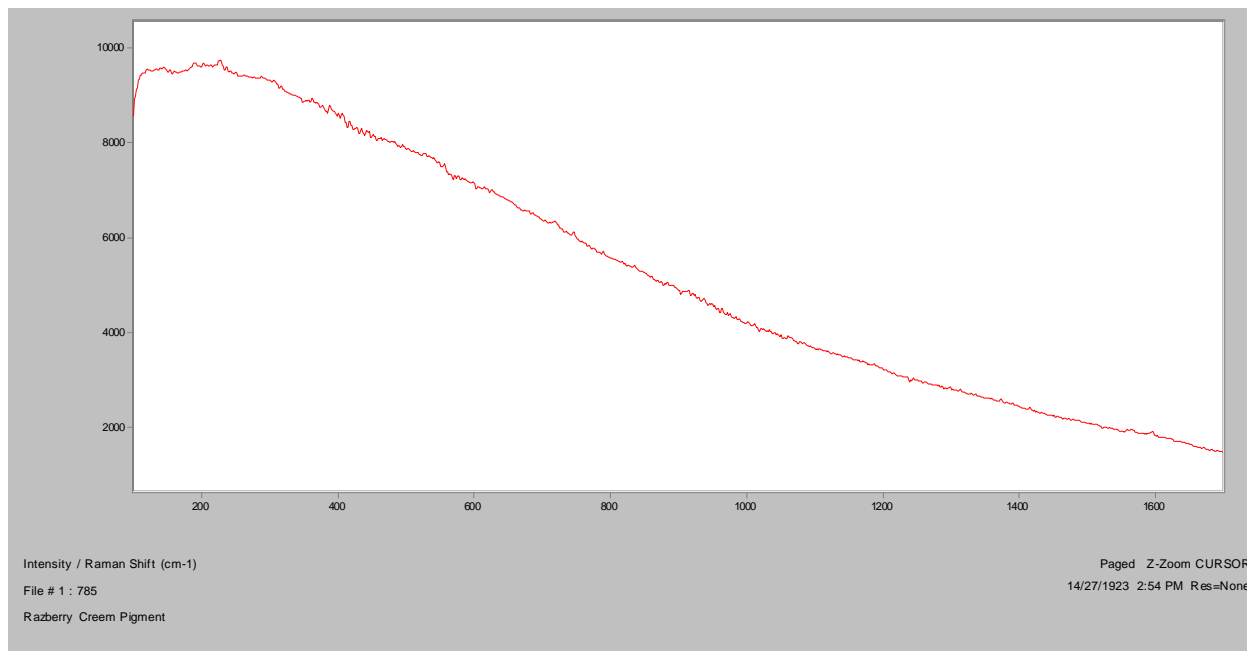
Normal Raman, 488nm



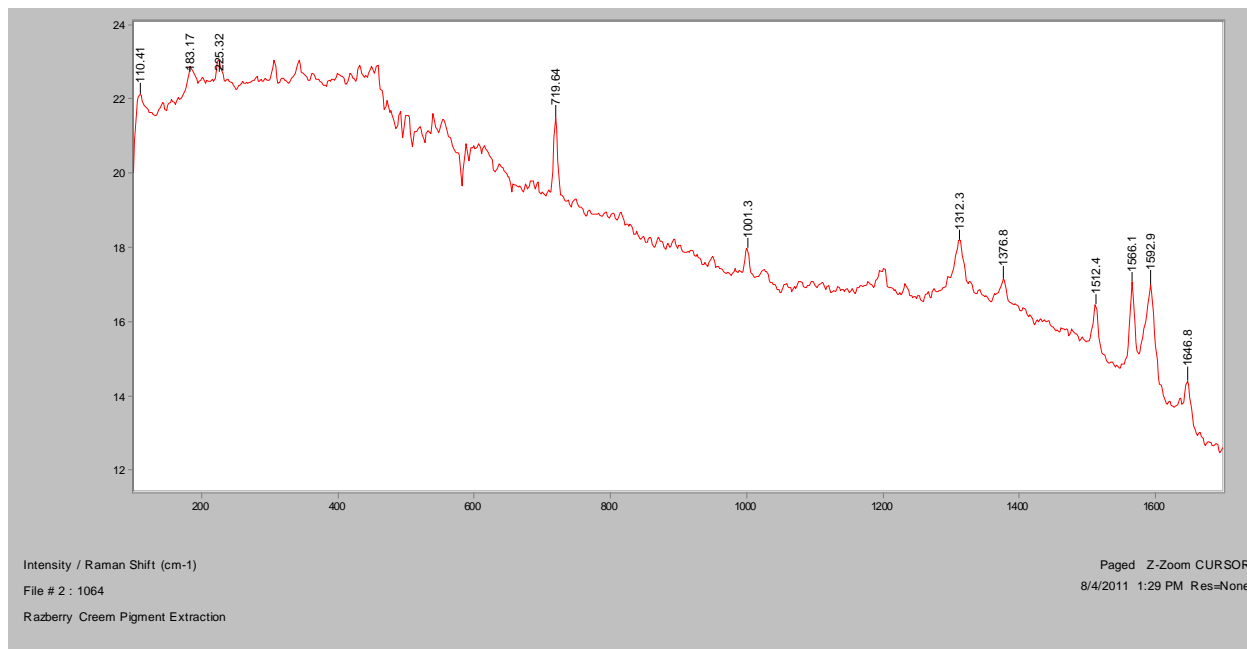
Normal Raman, 633nm



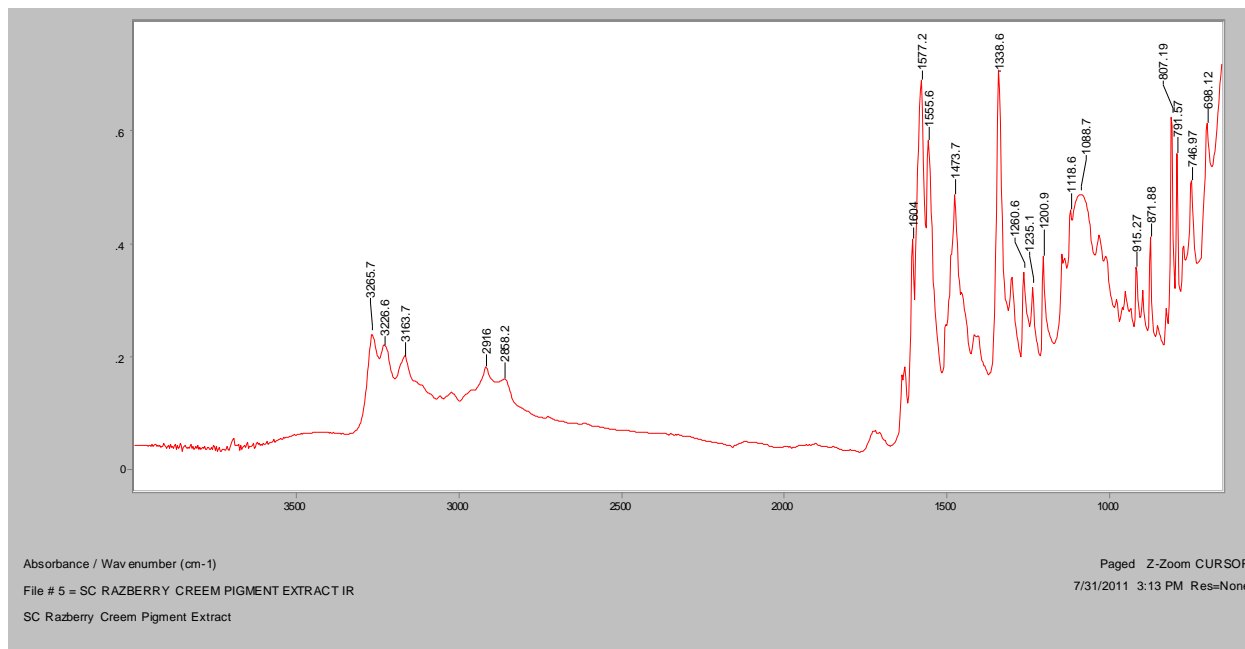
Normal Raman, 785nm



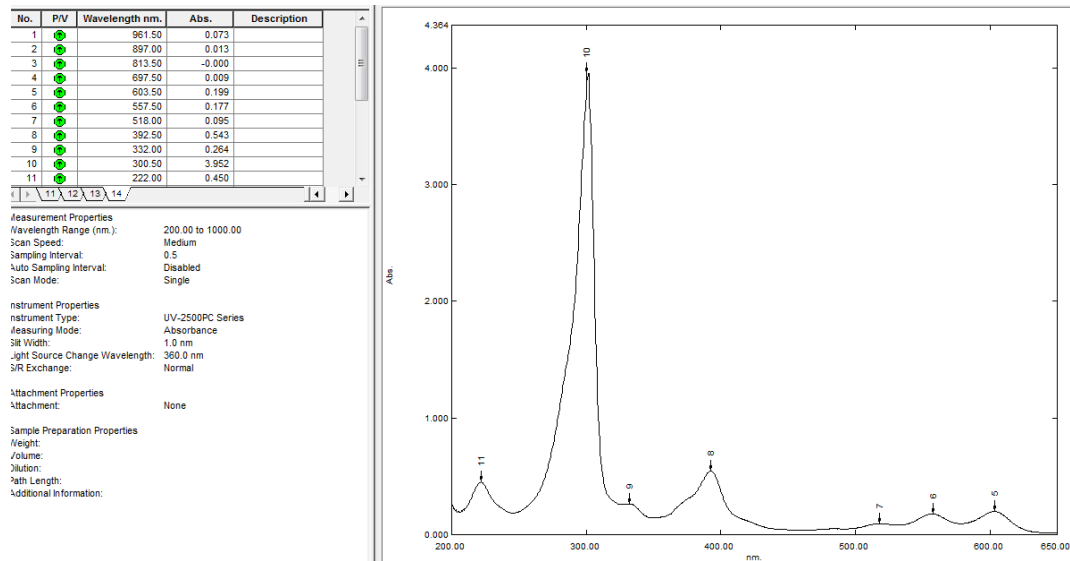
FT-Raman, 1064nm



FT-IR (ATR)

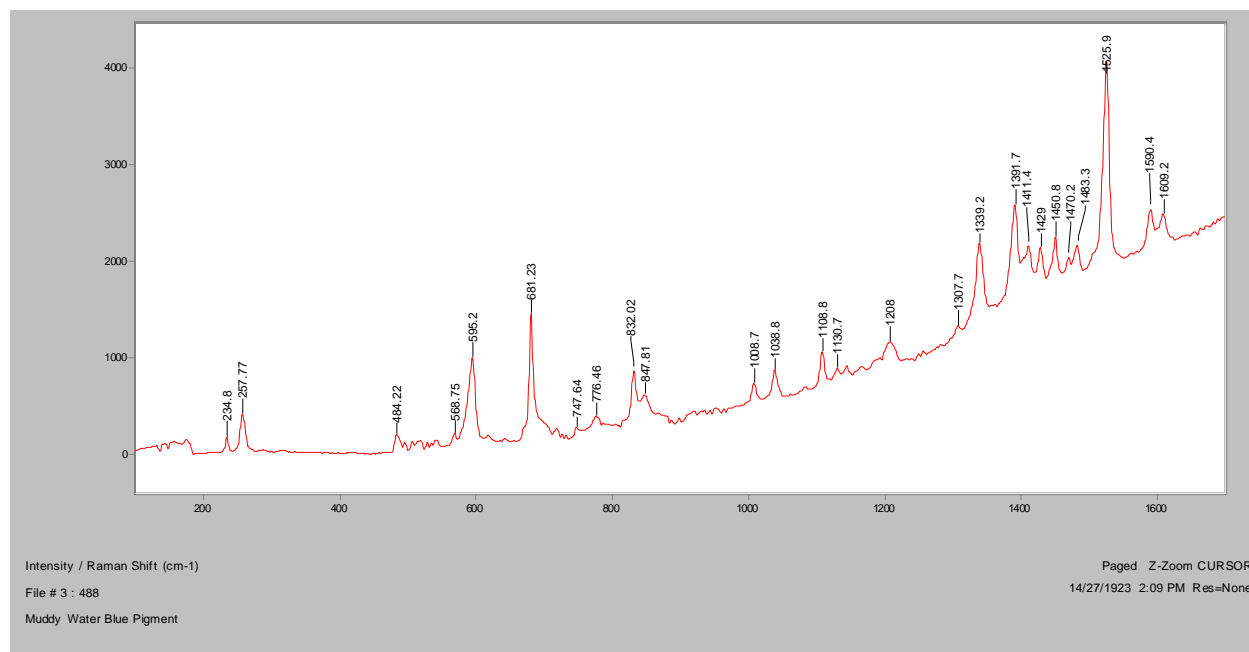


UV-Vis

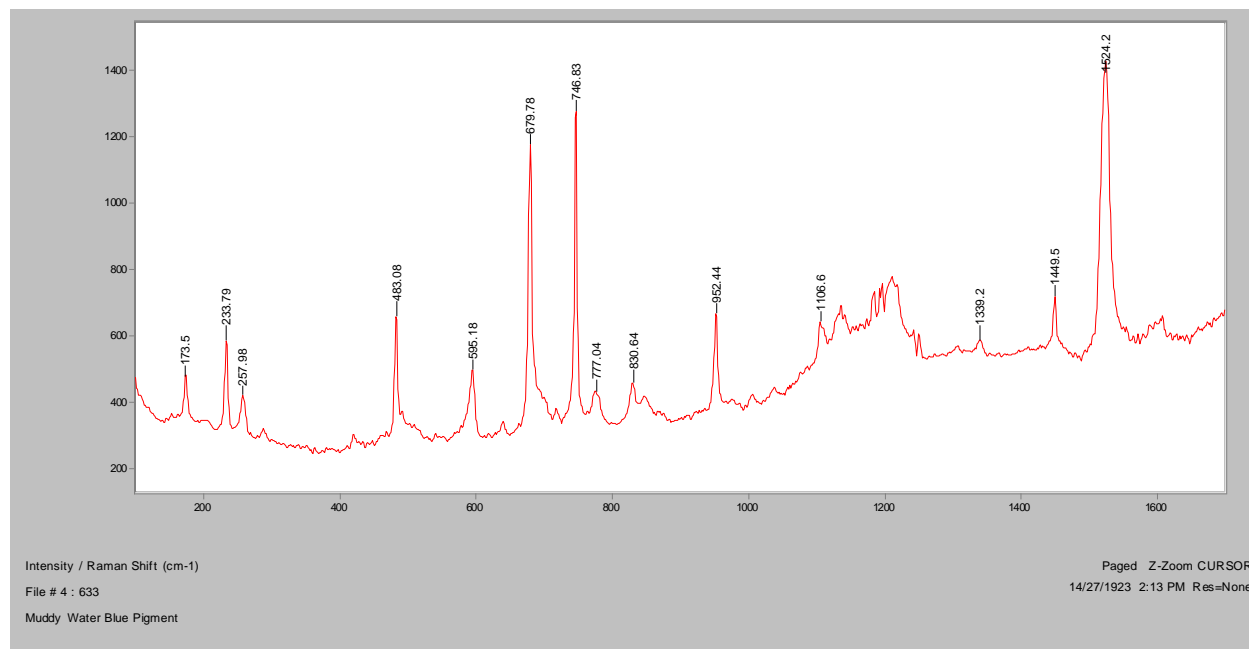


Muddy Water Blue

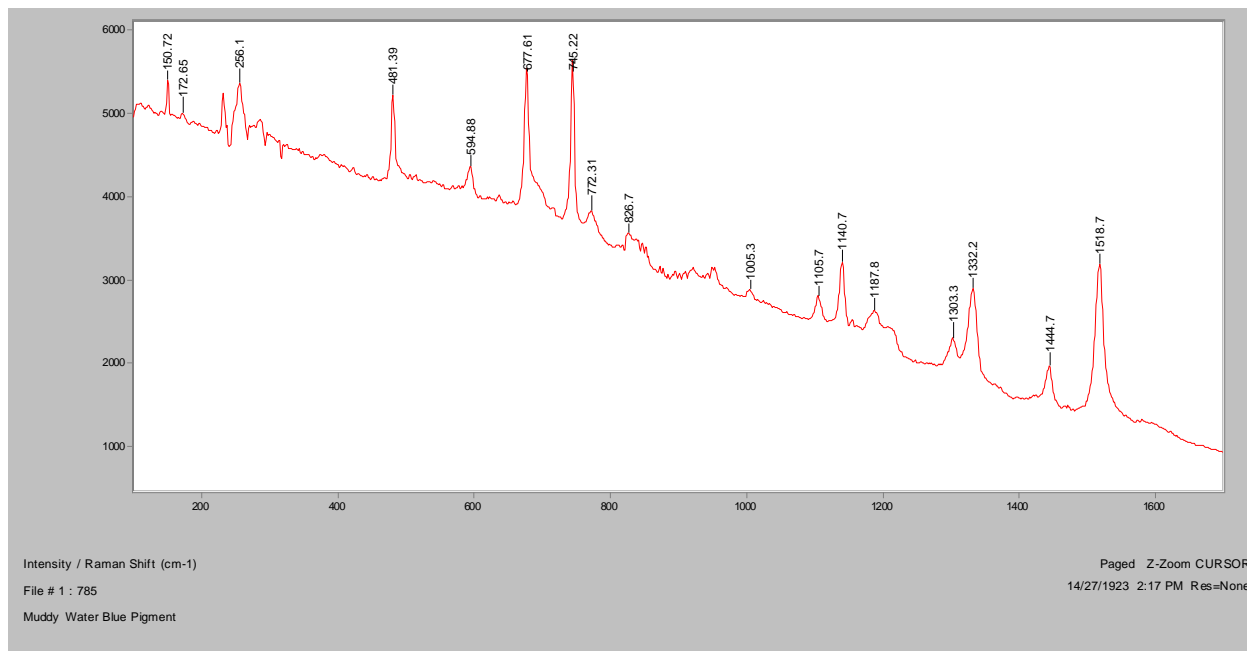
Normal Raman, 488nm



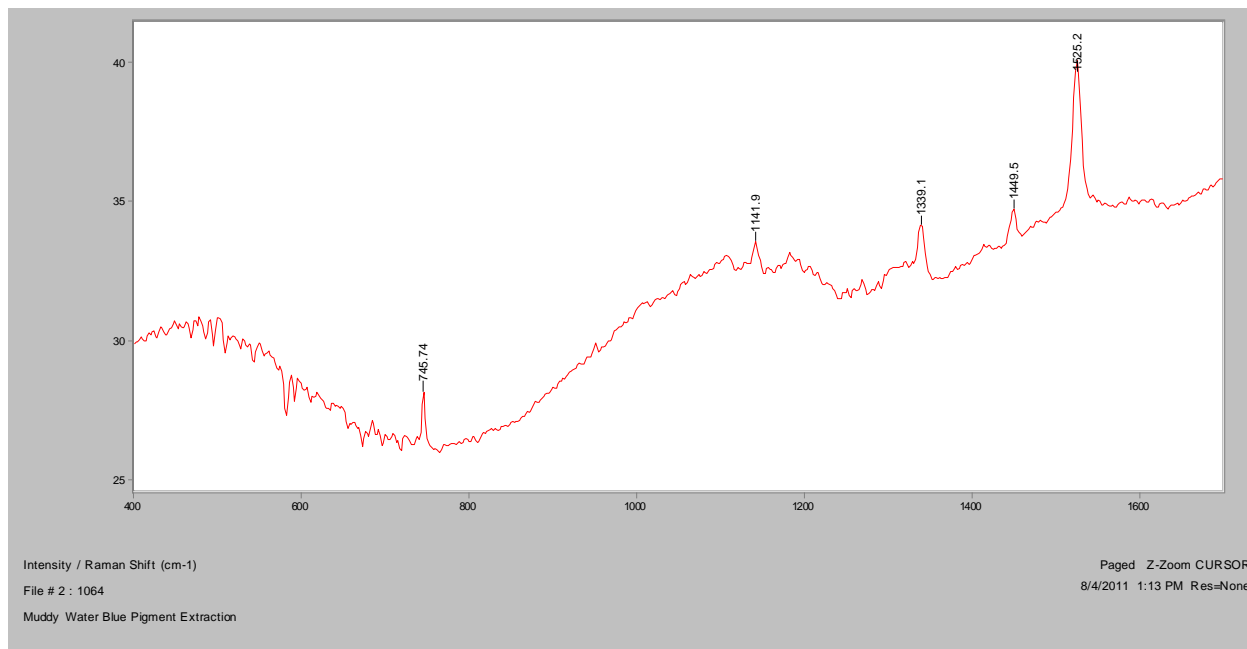
Normal Raman, 633nm



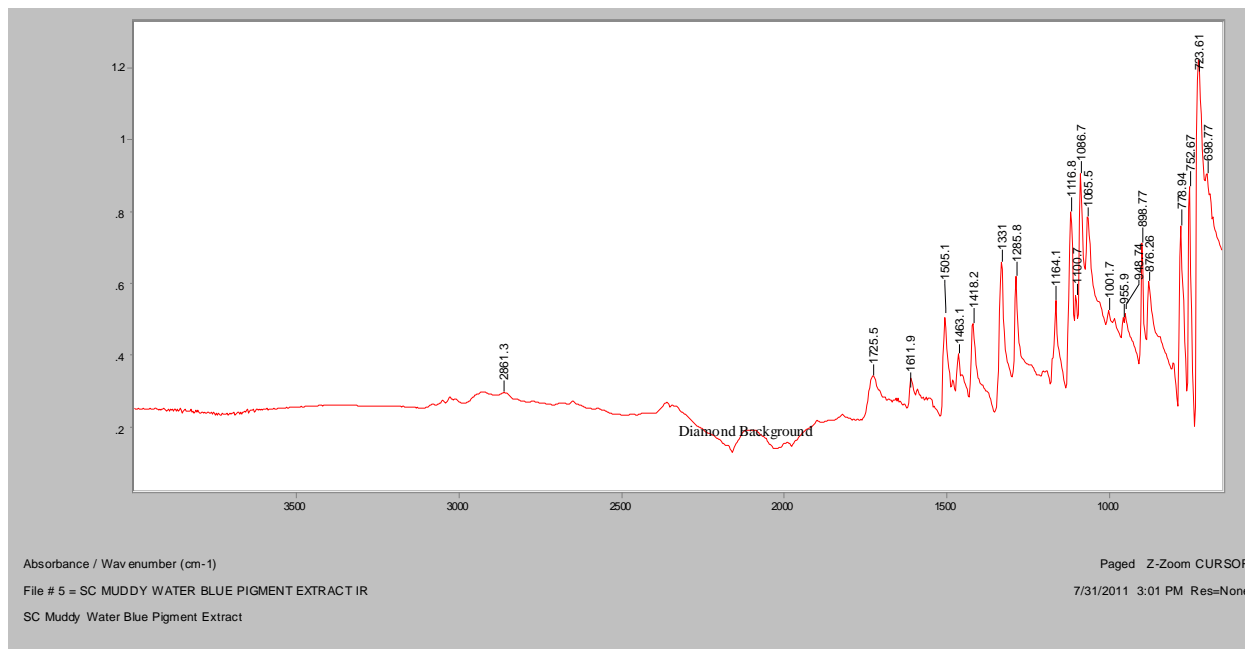
Normal Raman, 785nm



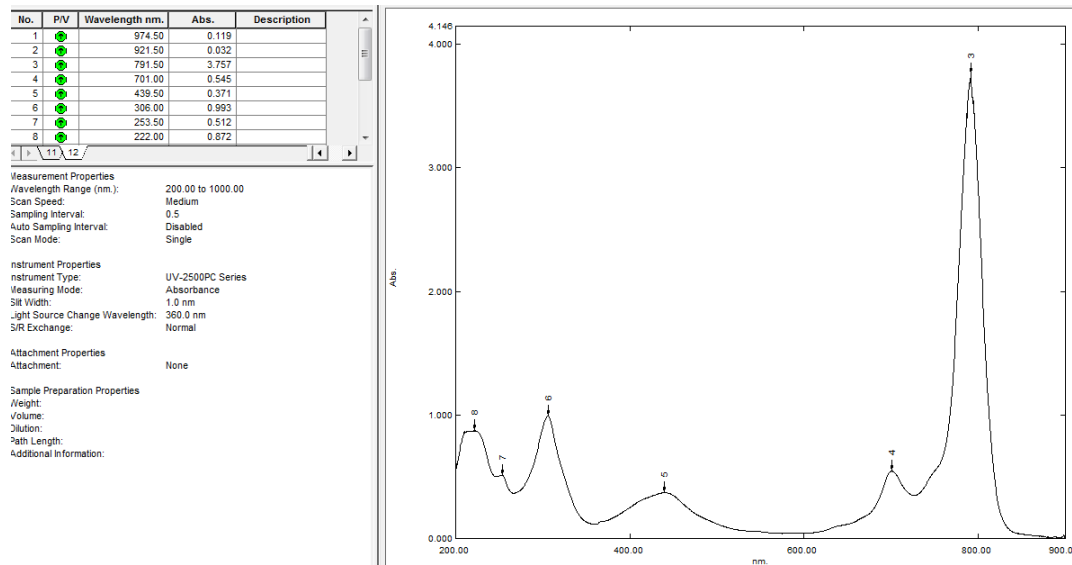
FT-Raman, 1064nm



FT-IR (ATR)

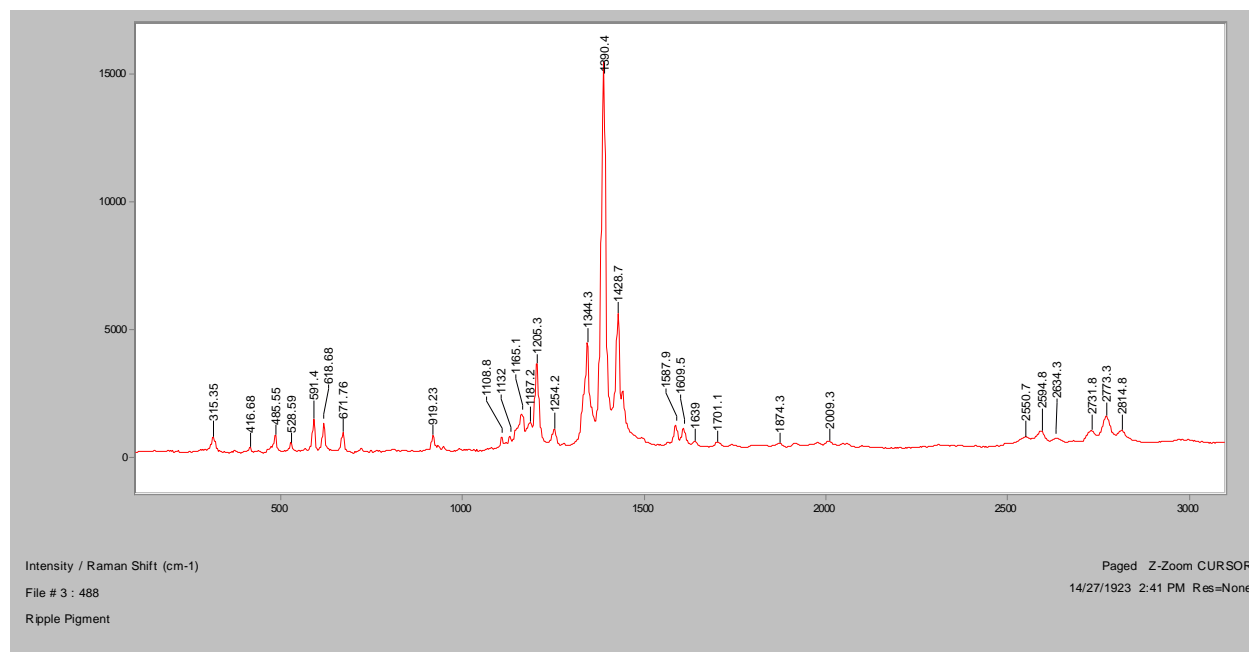


UV-Vis

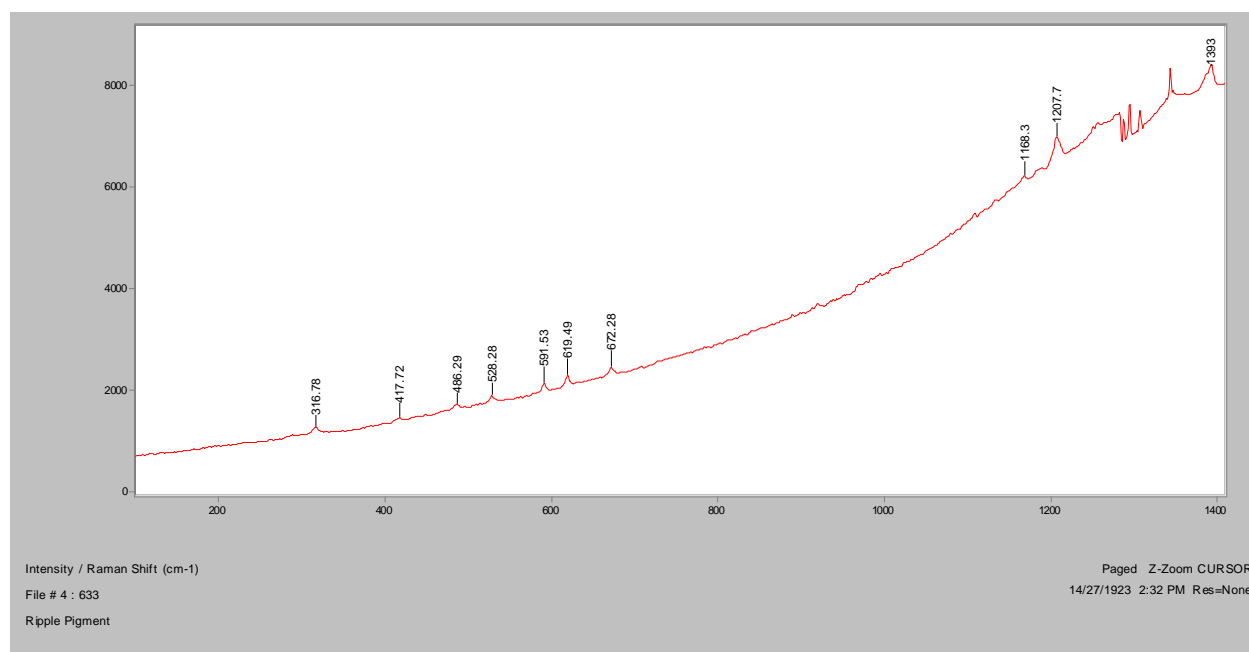


Ripple

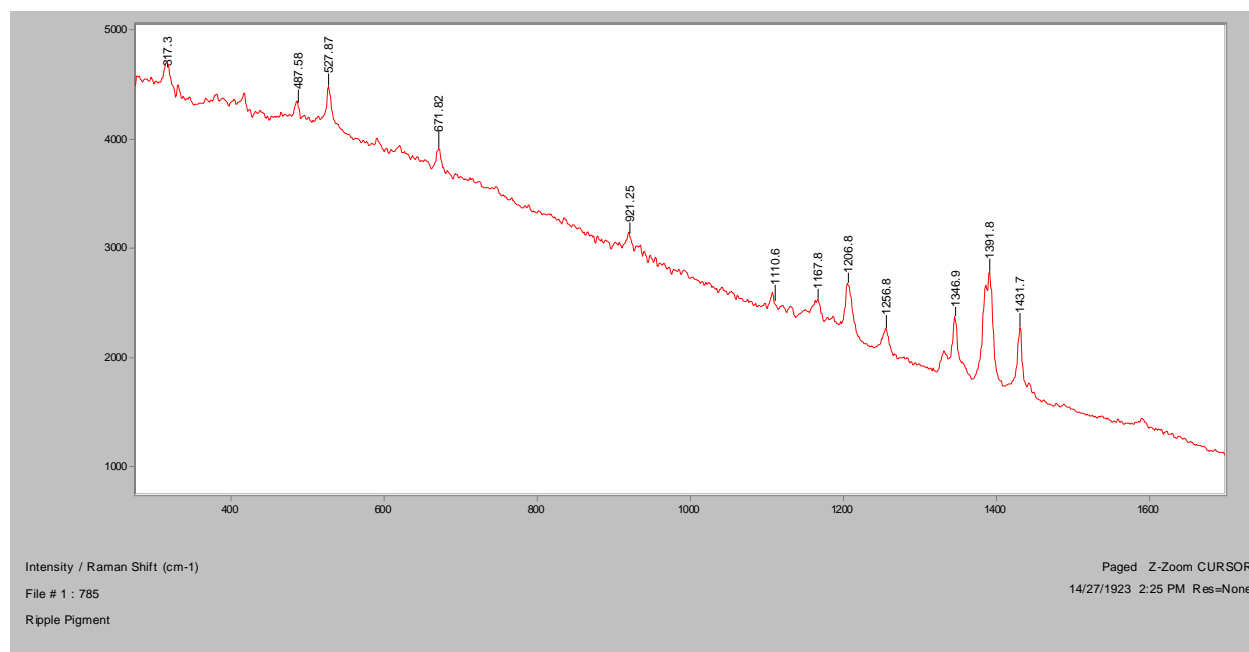
Normal Raman, 488nm



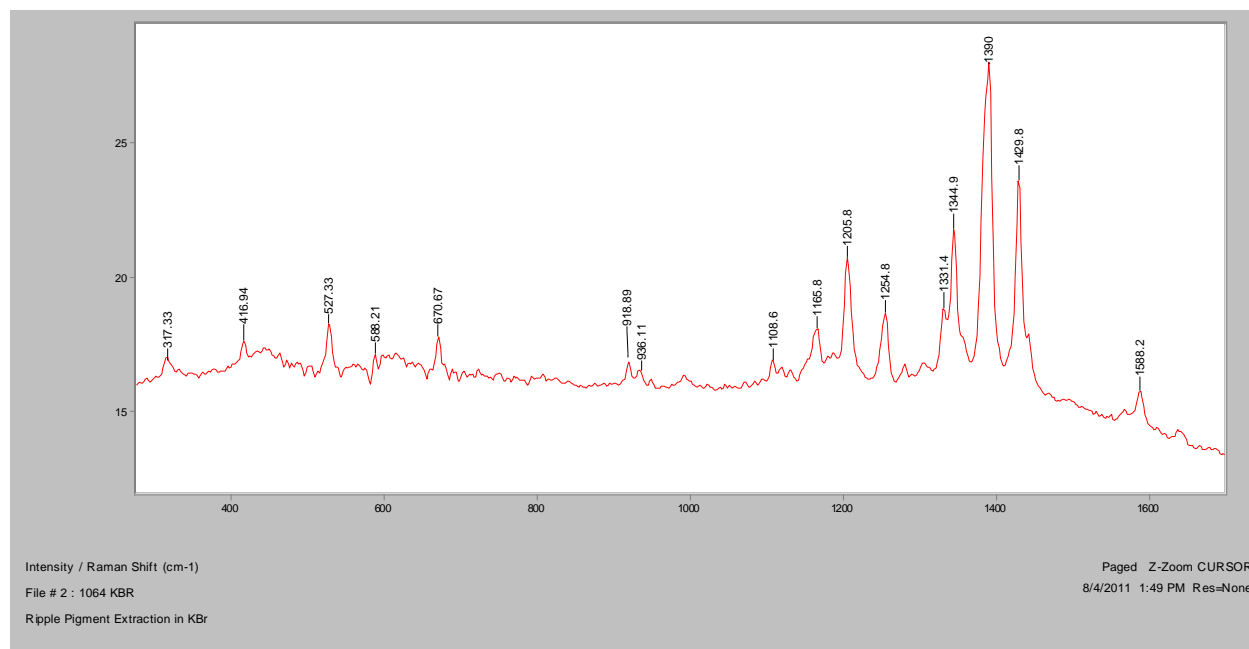
Normal Raman, 633nm



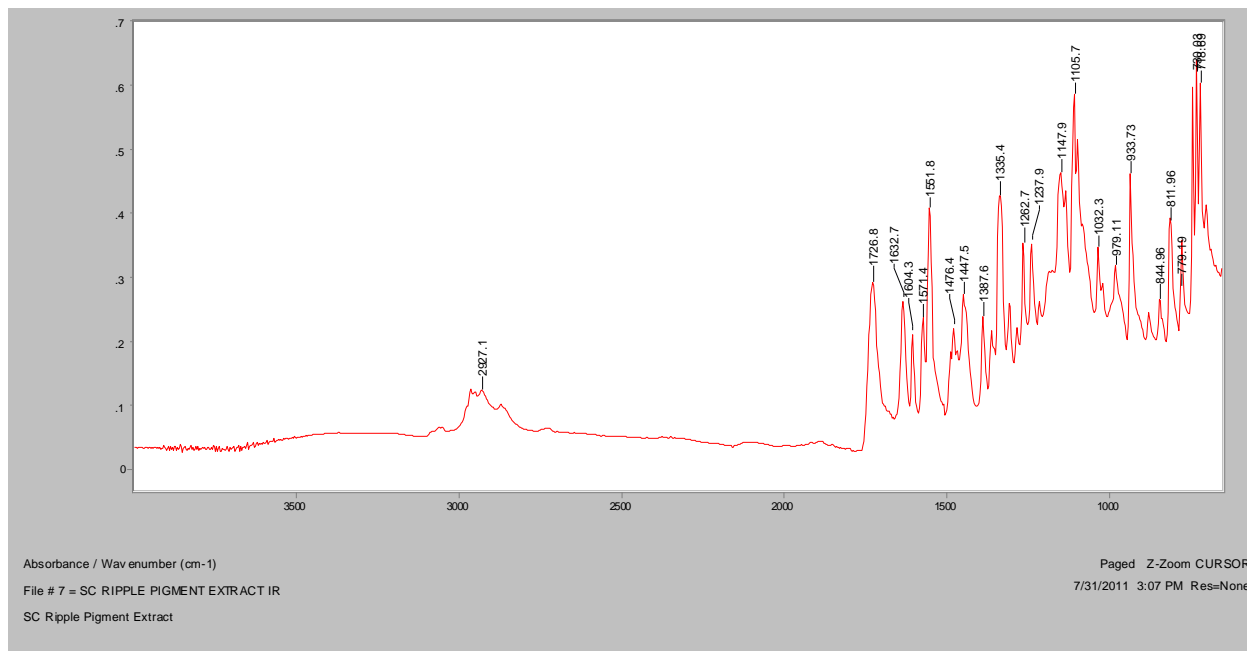
Normal Raman, 785nm



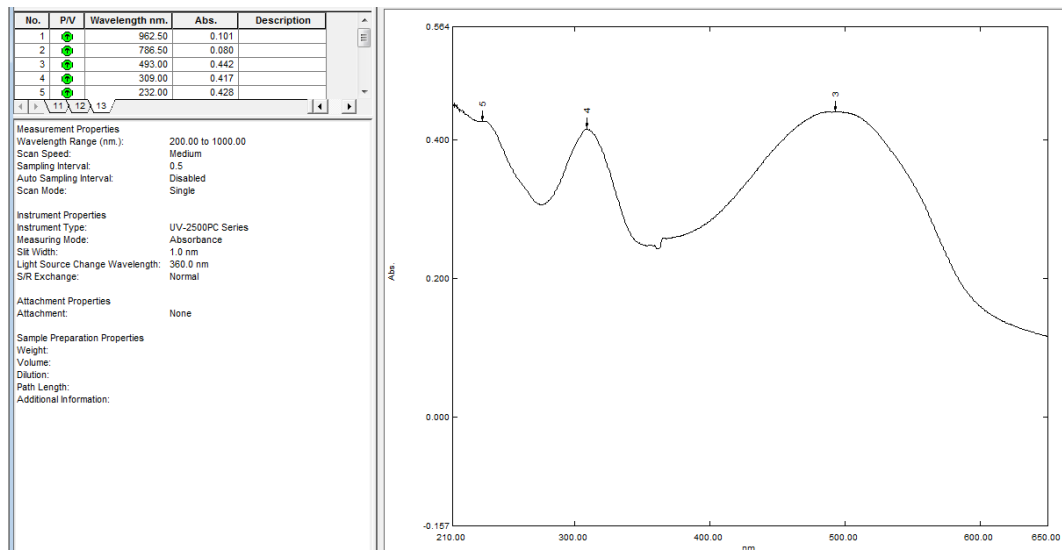
FT-Raman, 1064nm (in KBr)



FT-IR (ATR)

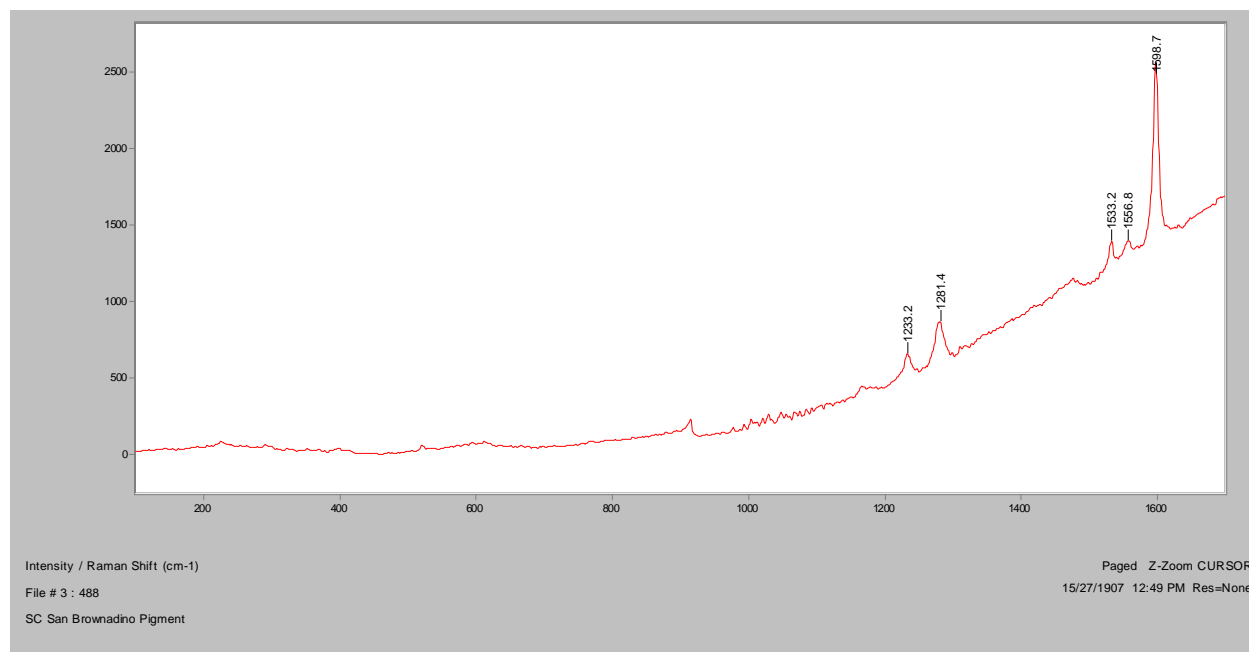


UV-Vis

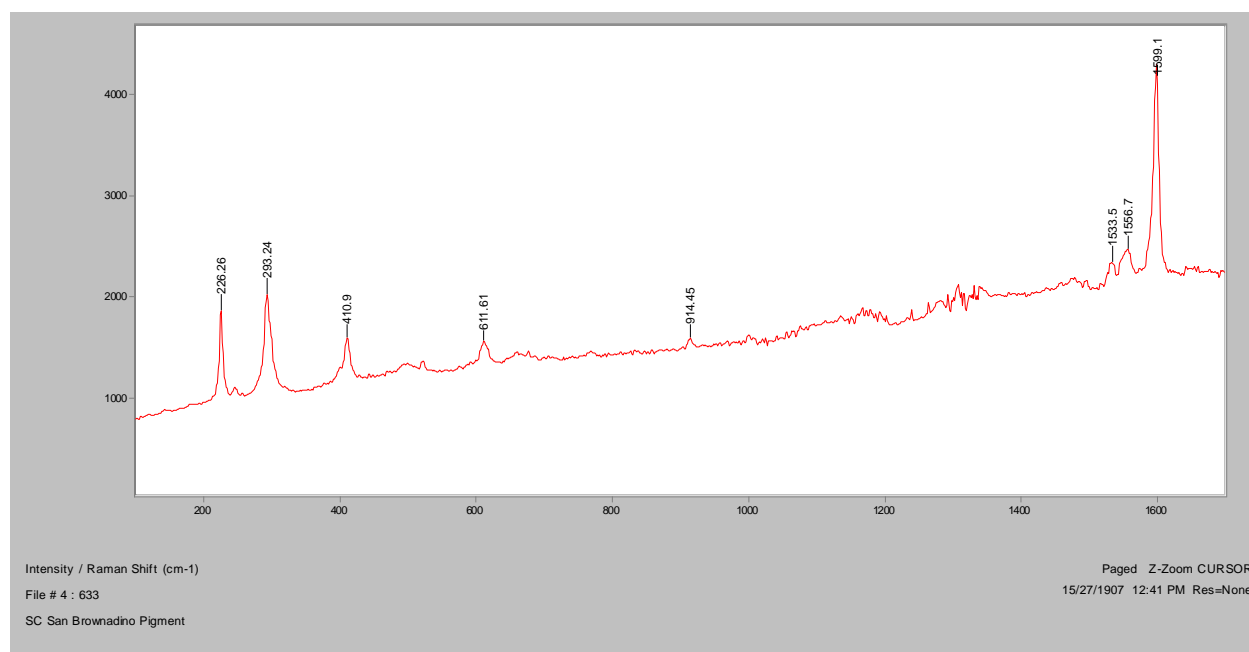


San Brownadino

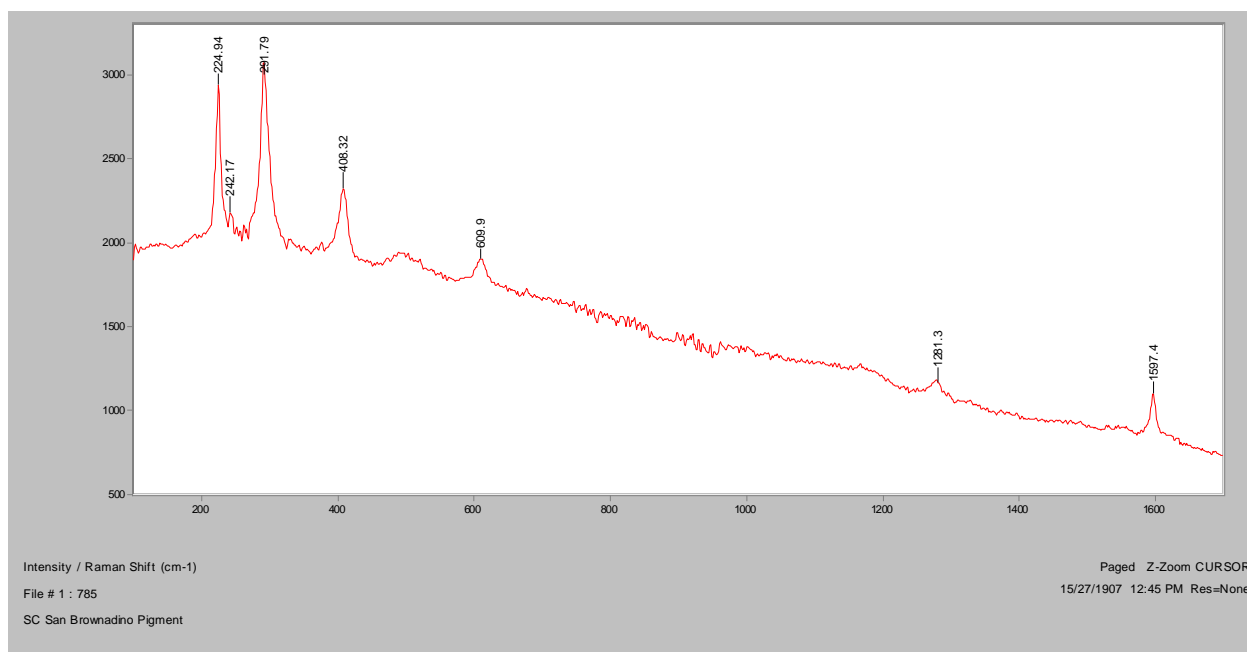
Normal Raman, 488nm



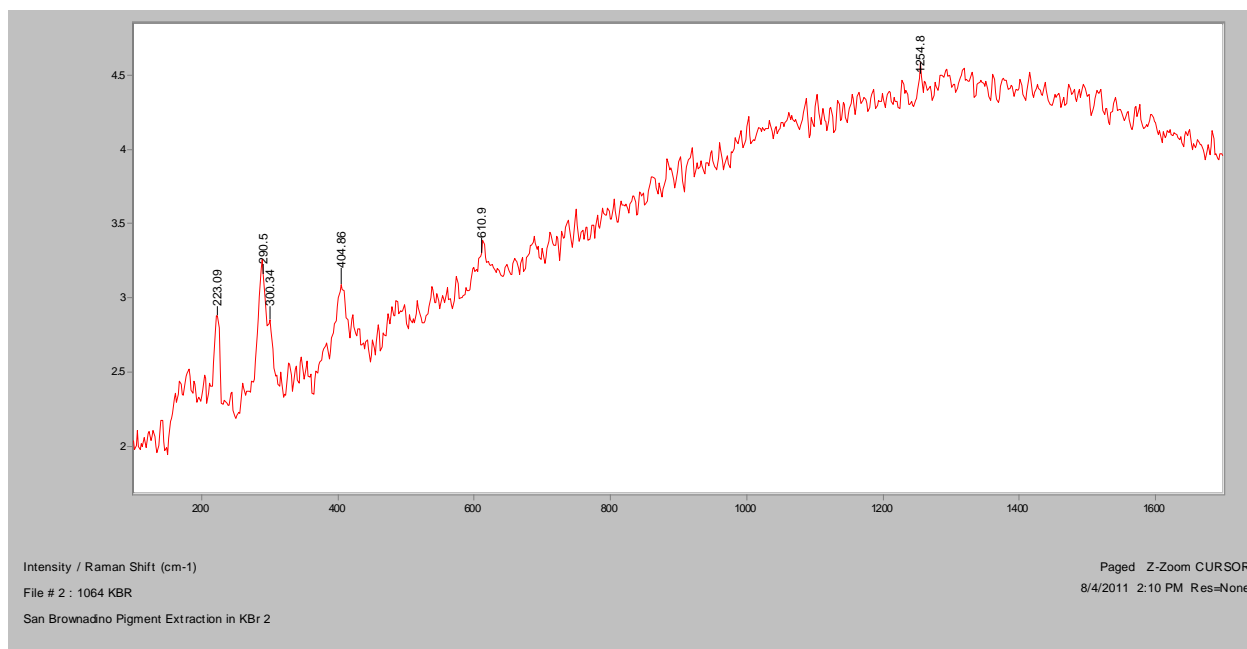
Normal Raman, 633nm



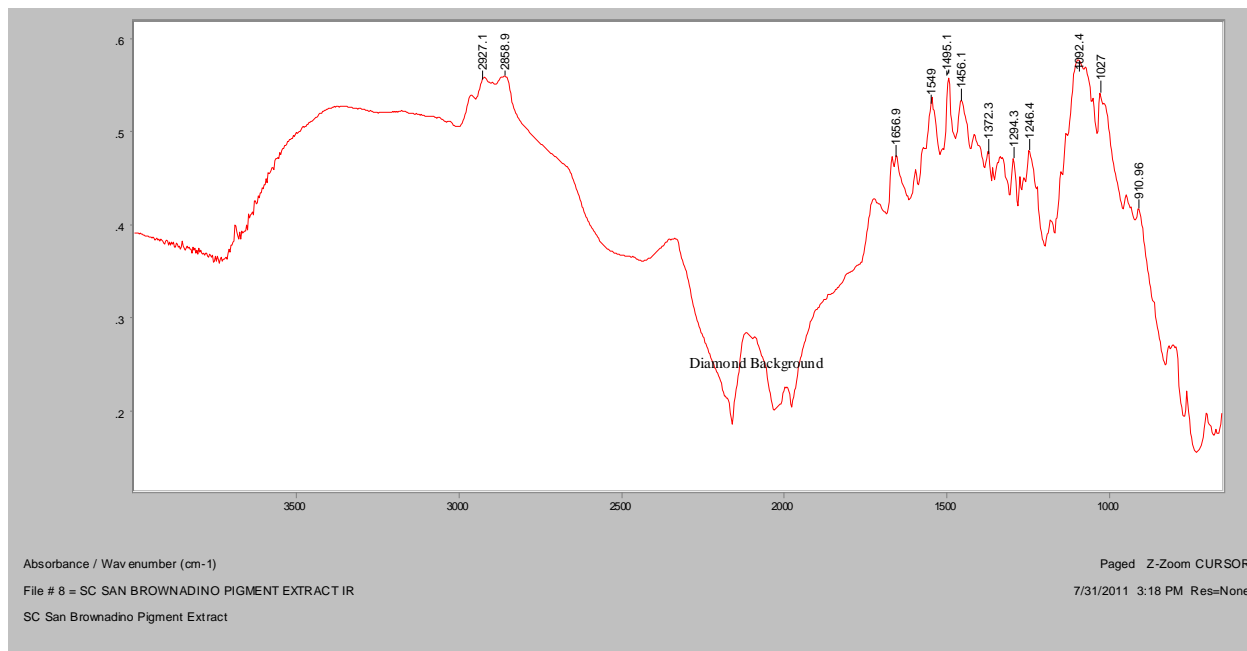
Normal Raman, 785nm



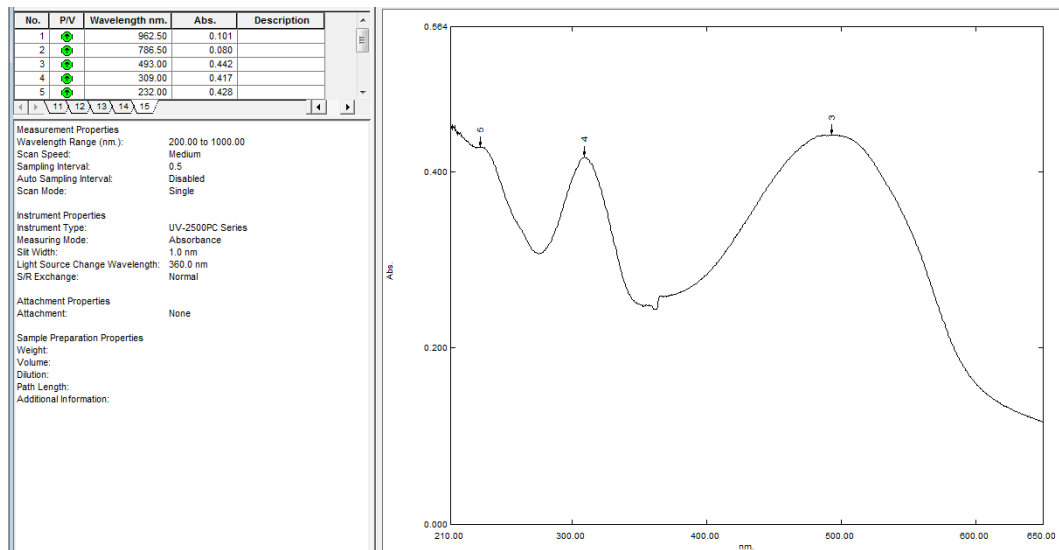
FT-Raman, 1064nm (in KBr)



FT-IR (ATR)

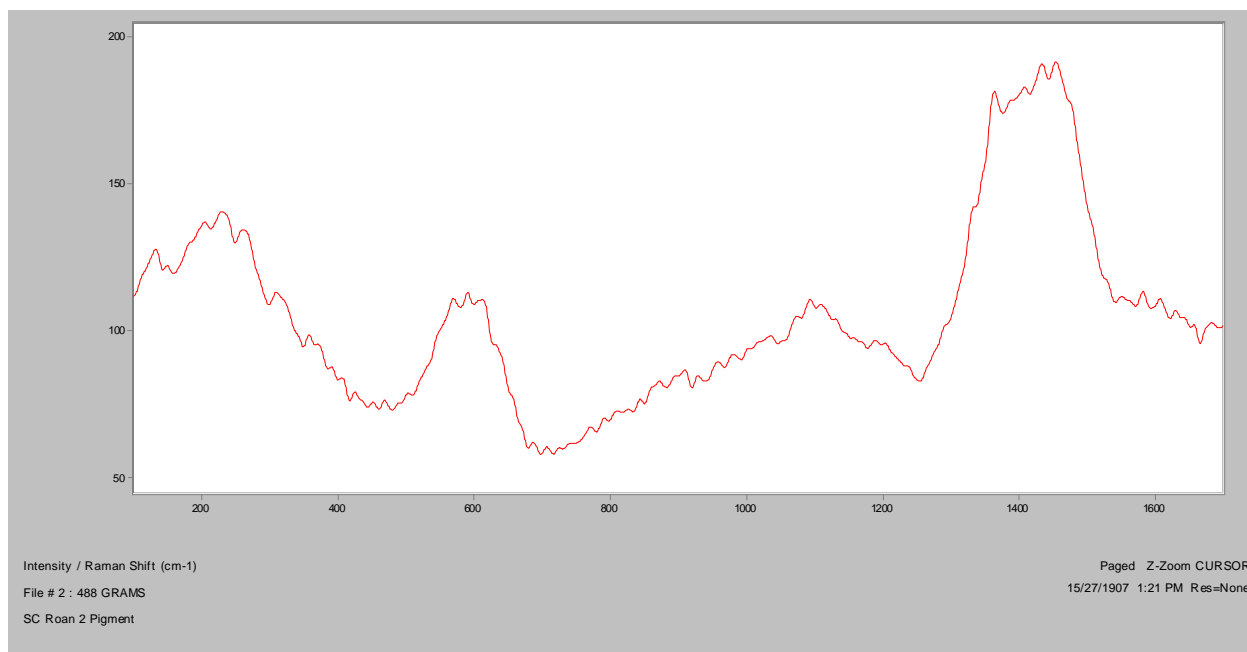


UV-Vis

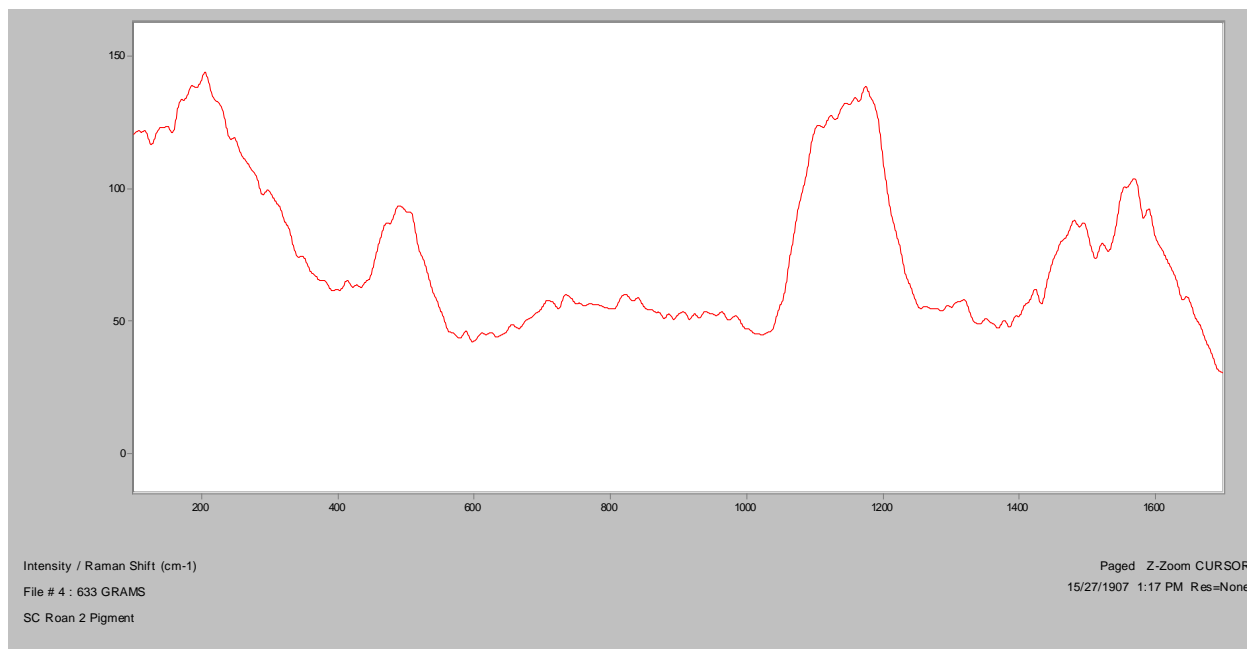


Roan 2

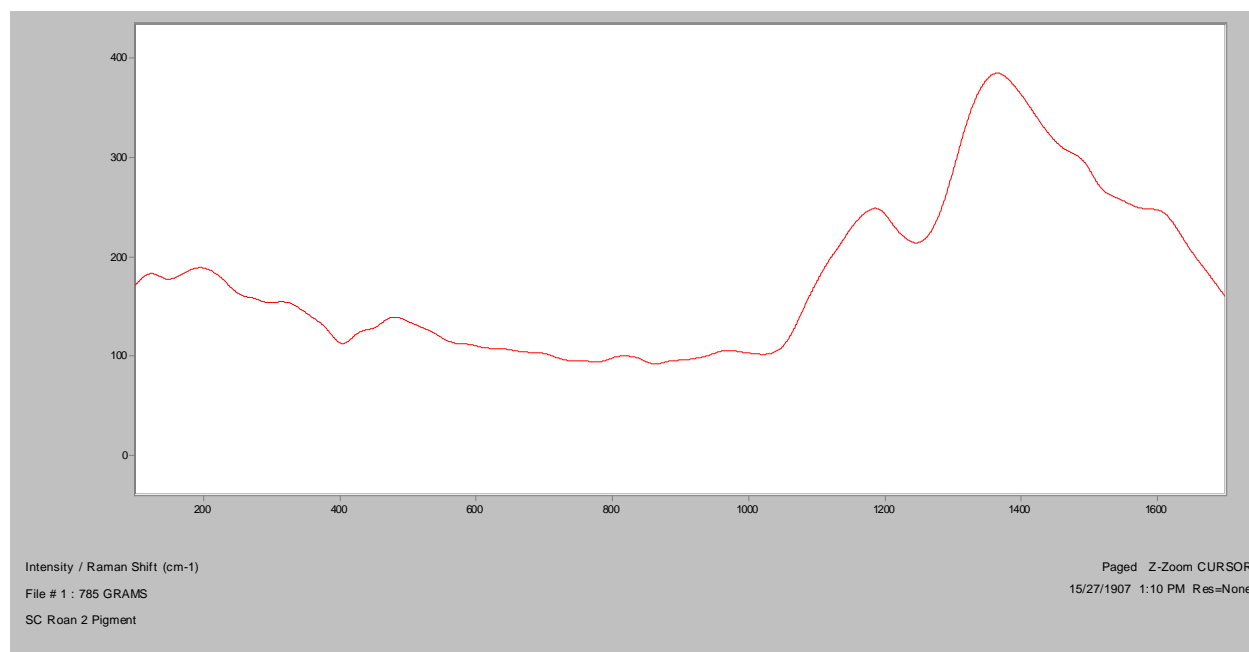
Normal Raman, 488nm



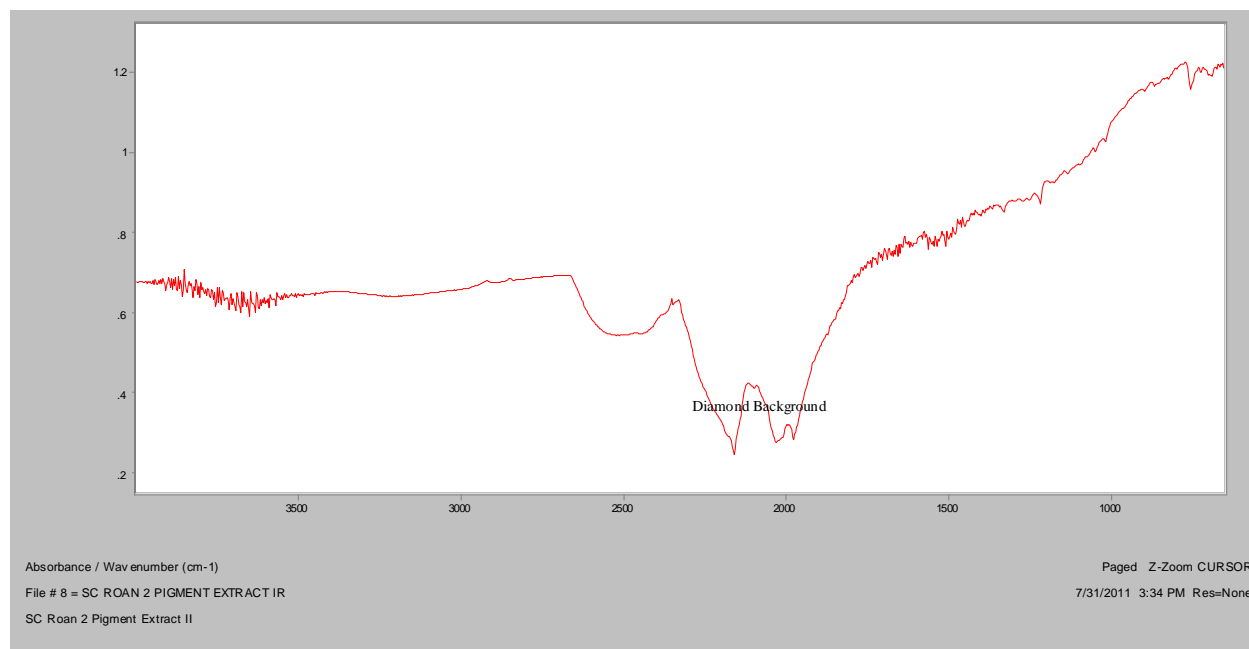
Normal Raman, 633nm



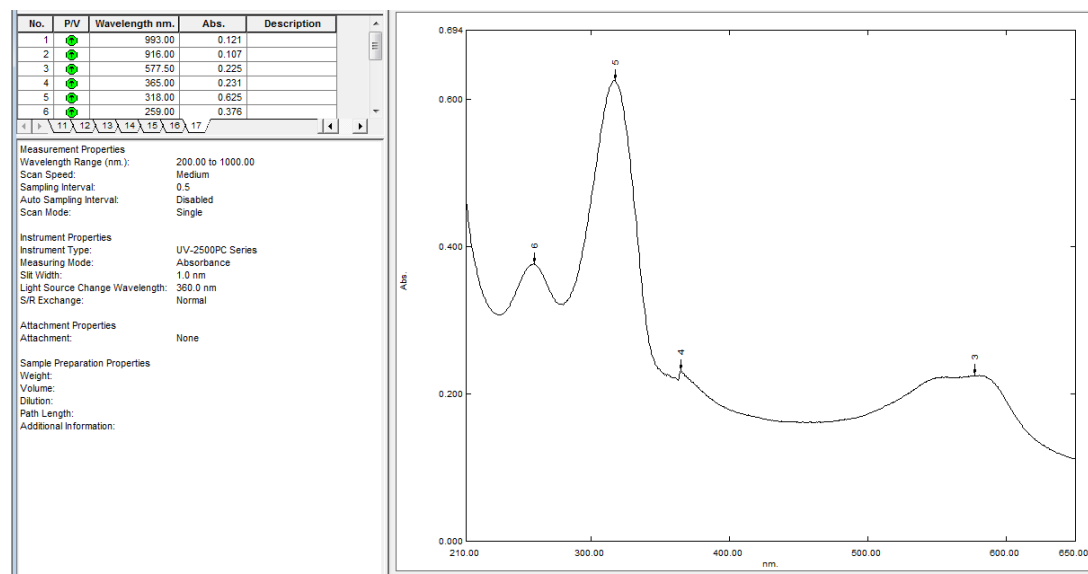
Normal Raman, 785nm



FT-IR (ATR)

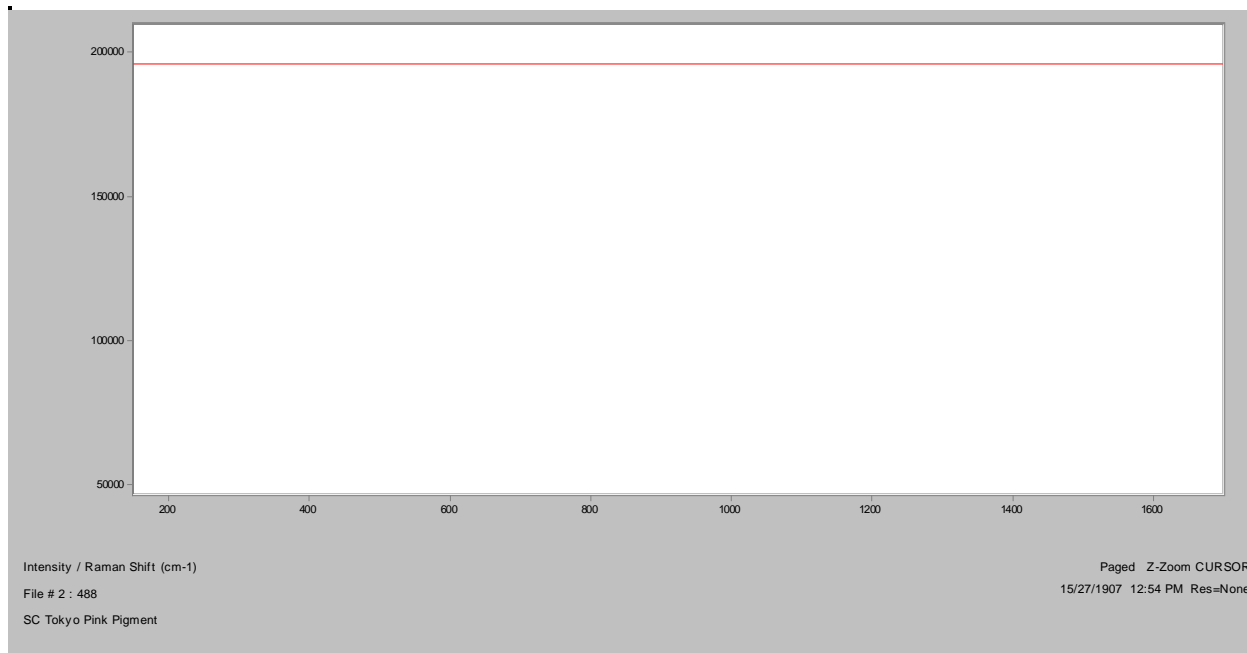


UV-Vis

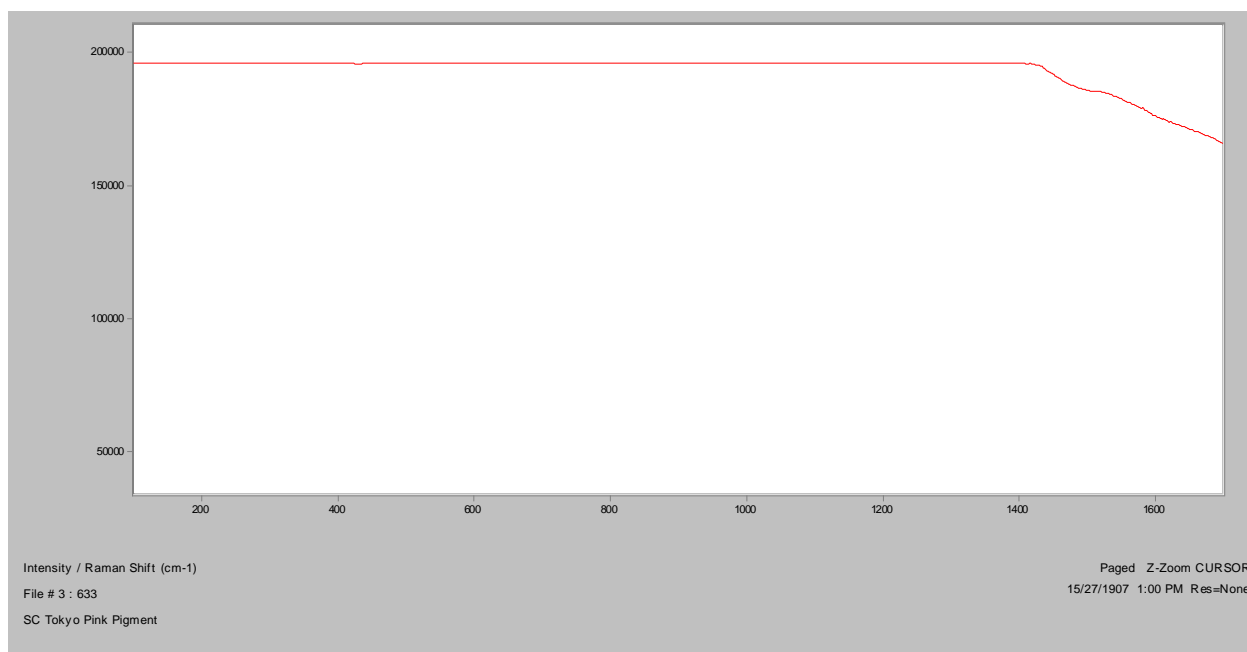


Tokyo Pink

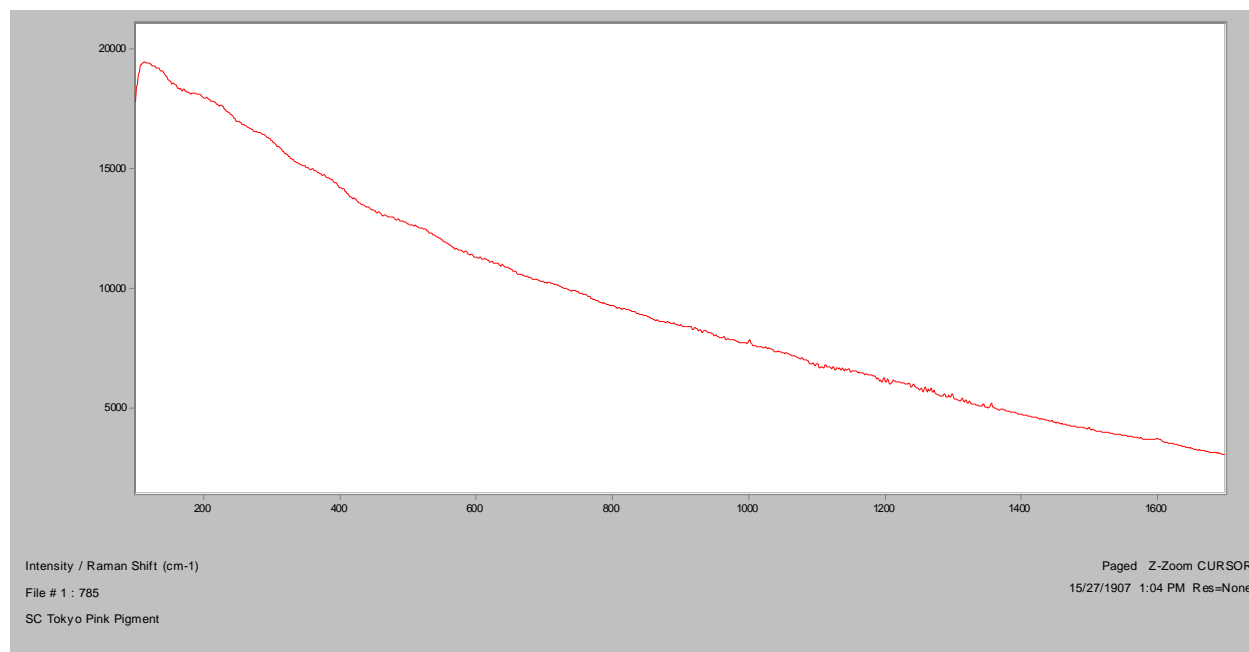
Normal Raman, 488nm



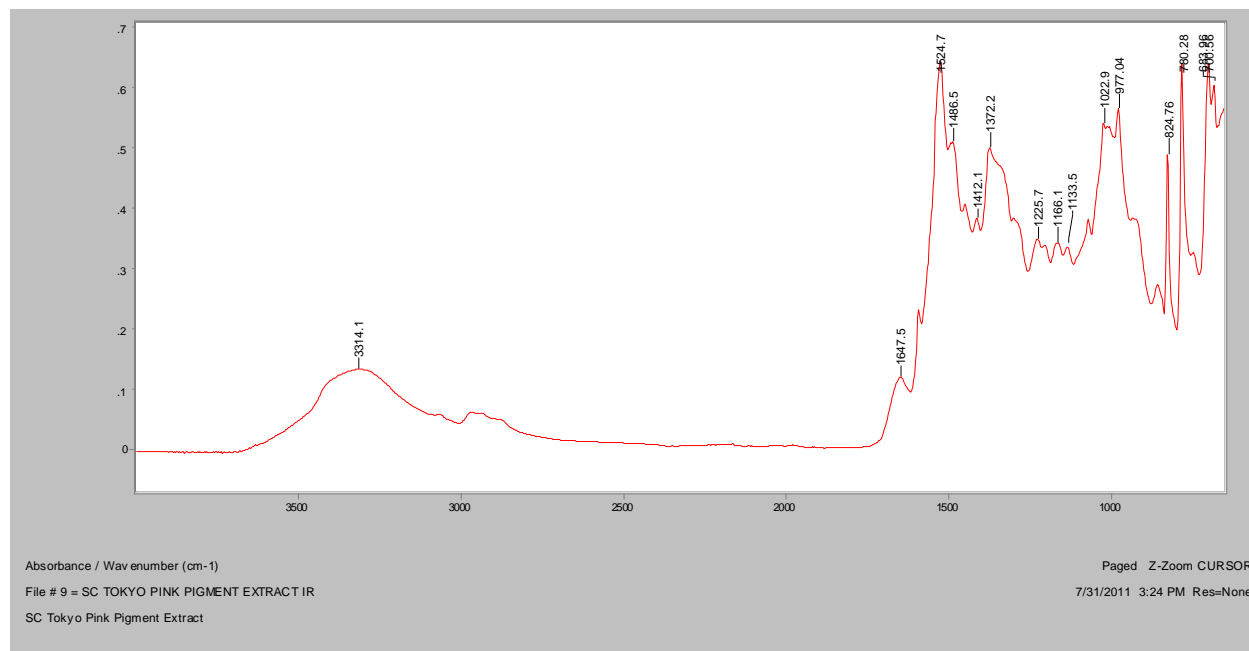
Normal Raman, 633nm



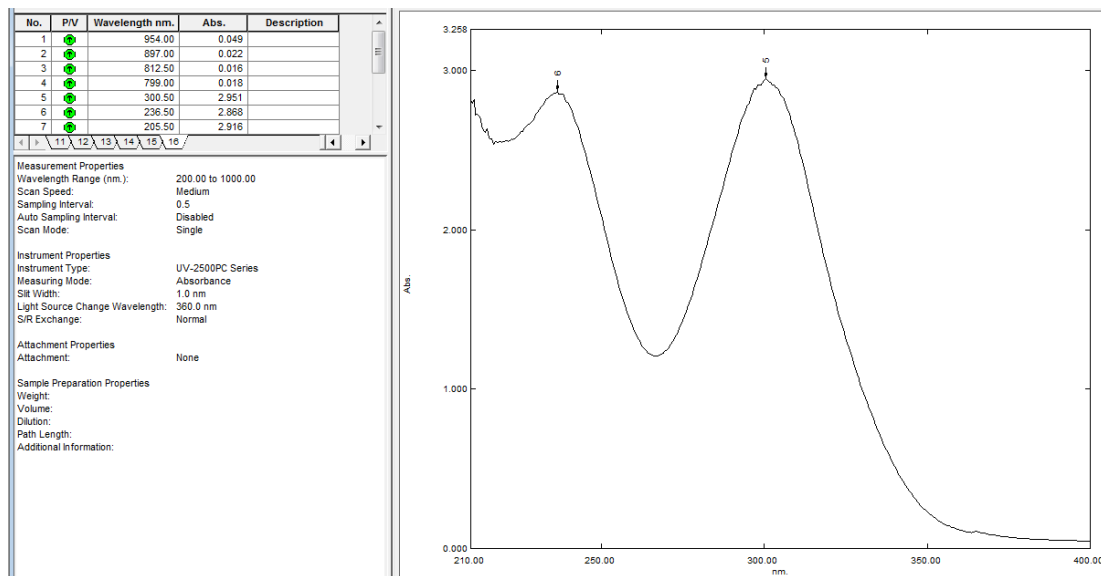
Normal Raman, 785nm

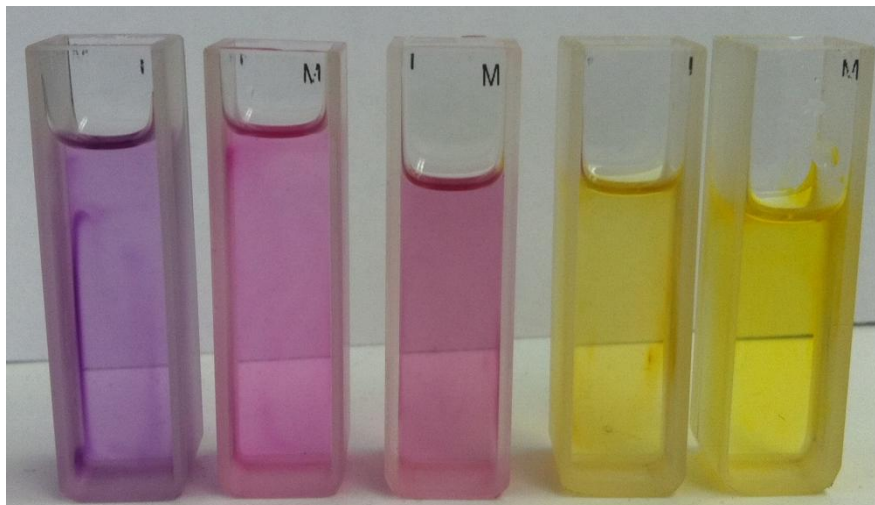


FT-IR (ATR)

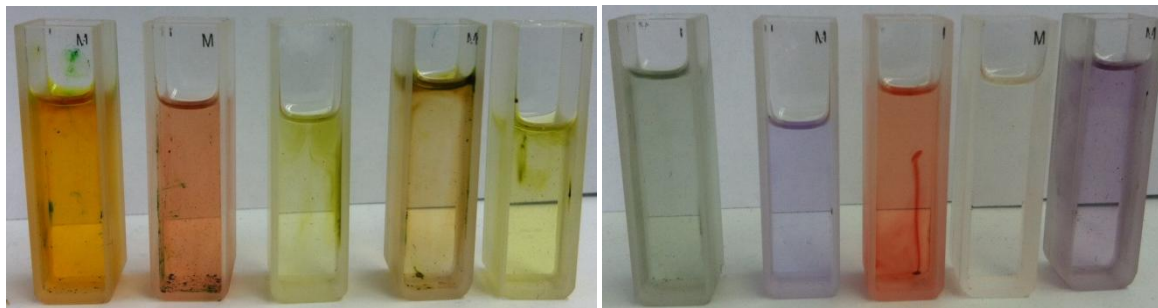


UV-Vis





Candy Apple Red, Red Hot, Marz, Dolemite, Blisterine

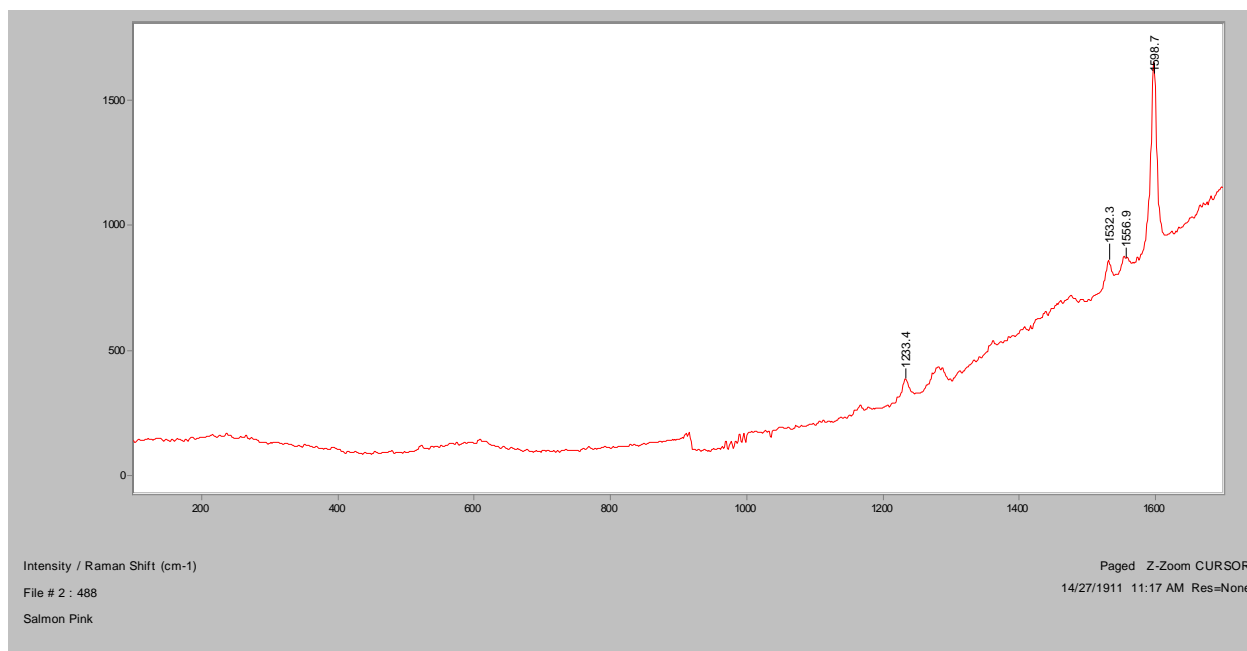


**Sassygrass, Tastywaves, Bellbottom Blue, SRV Teal 2, Muddy Water Blue, Ripple,
Razberry Creem, San Brownadino, Tokyo Pink, Black Cherry Roan 2**

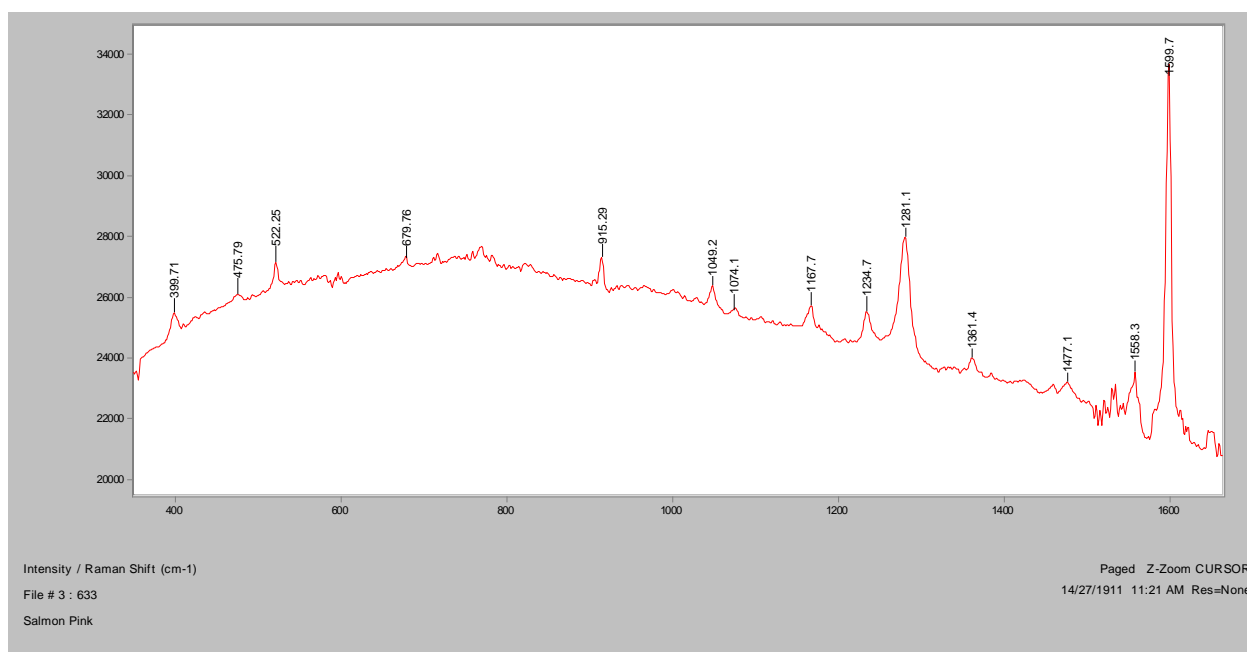
Flying Tigers Tattoo Ink Pigment Extractions

Salmon Pink

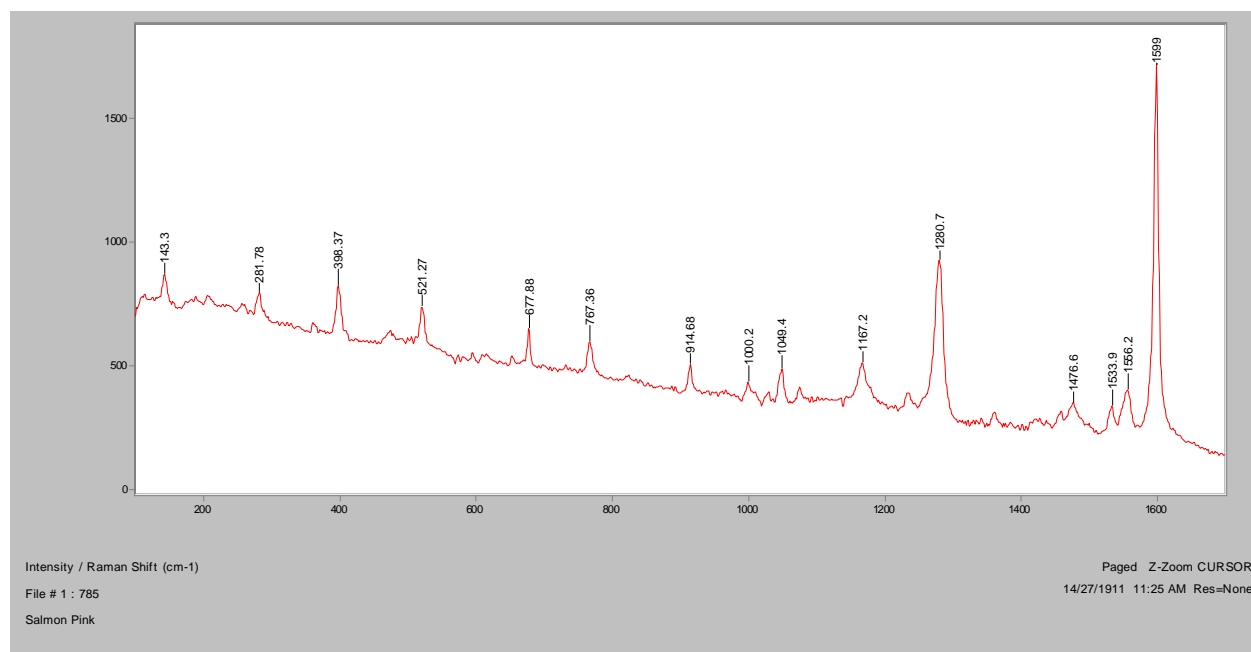
Normal Raman, 488nm



Normal Raman, 633nm

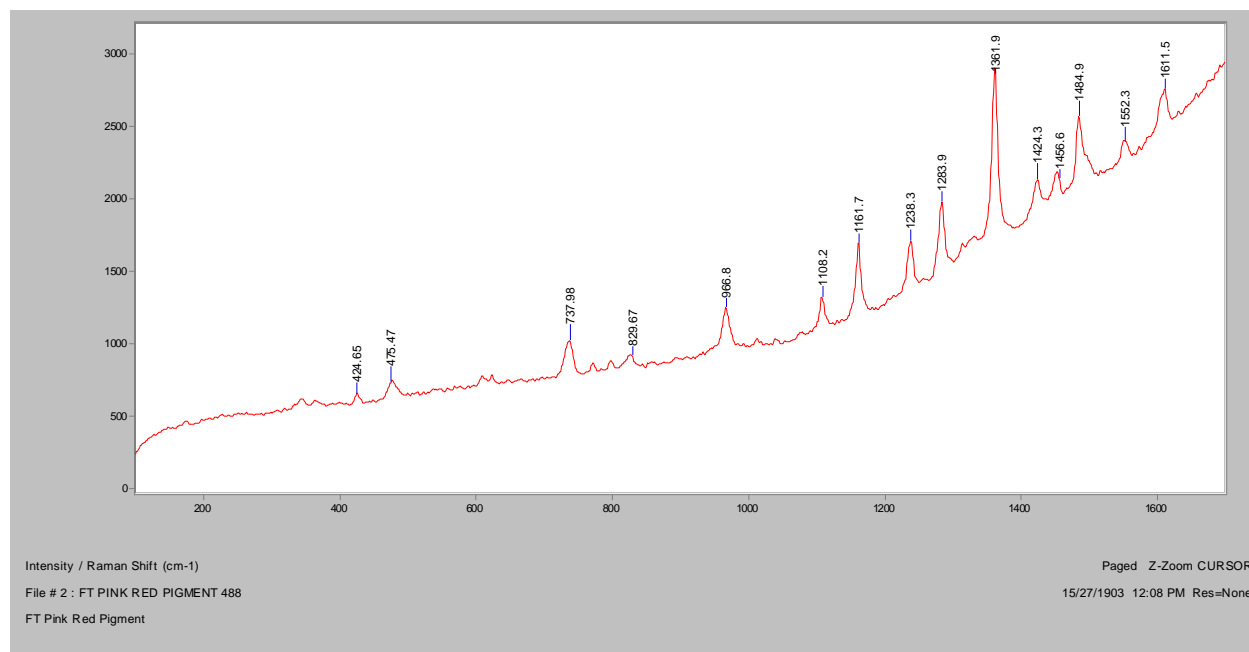


Normal Raman, 785nm

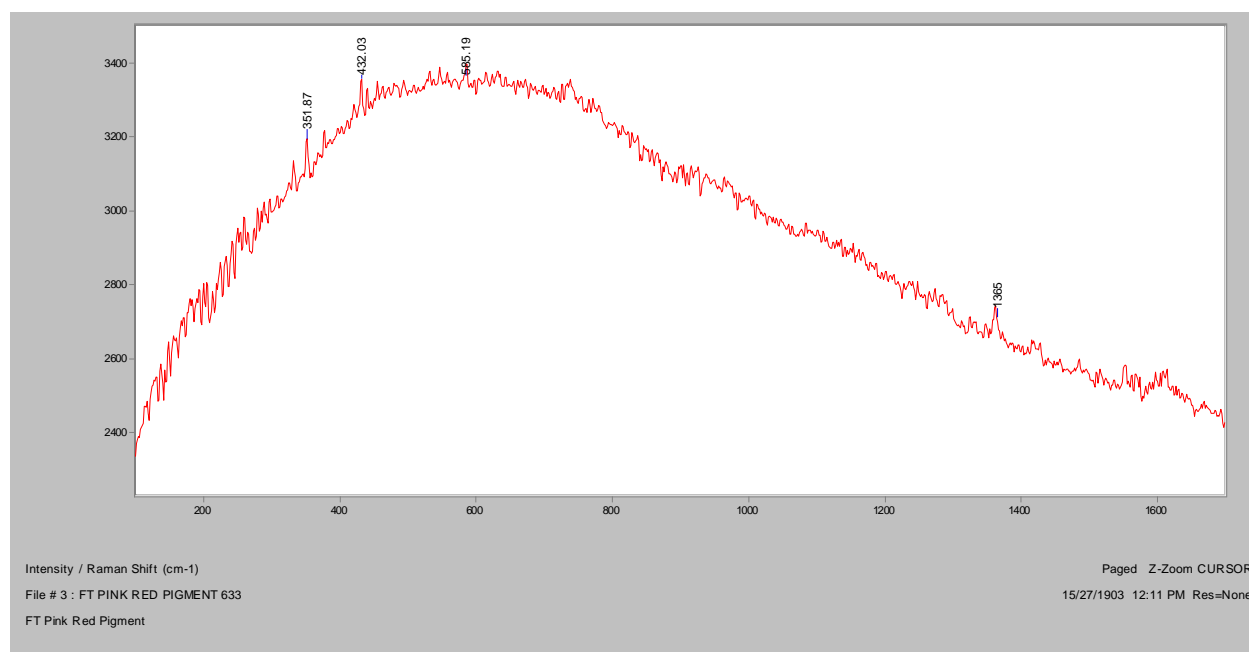


Pink Red

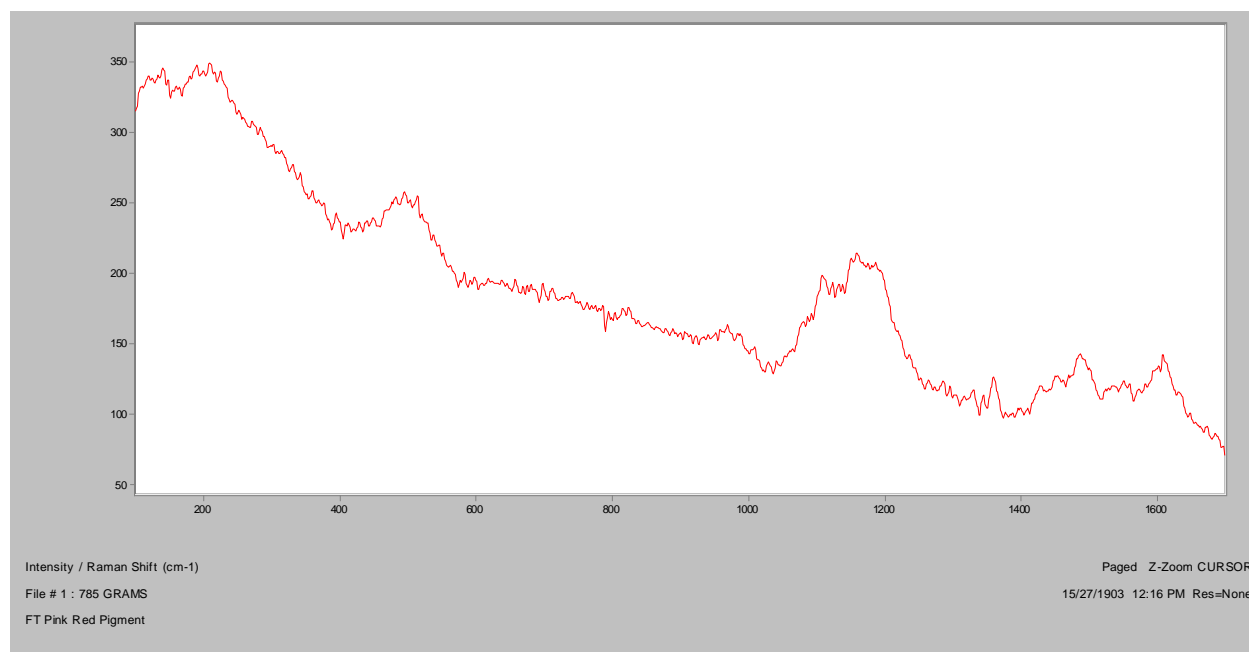
Normal Raman, 488nm



Normal Raman, 633nm

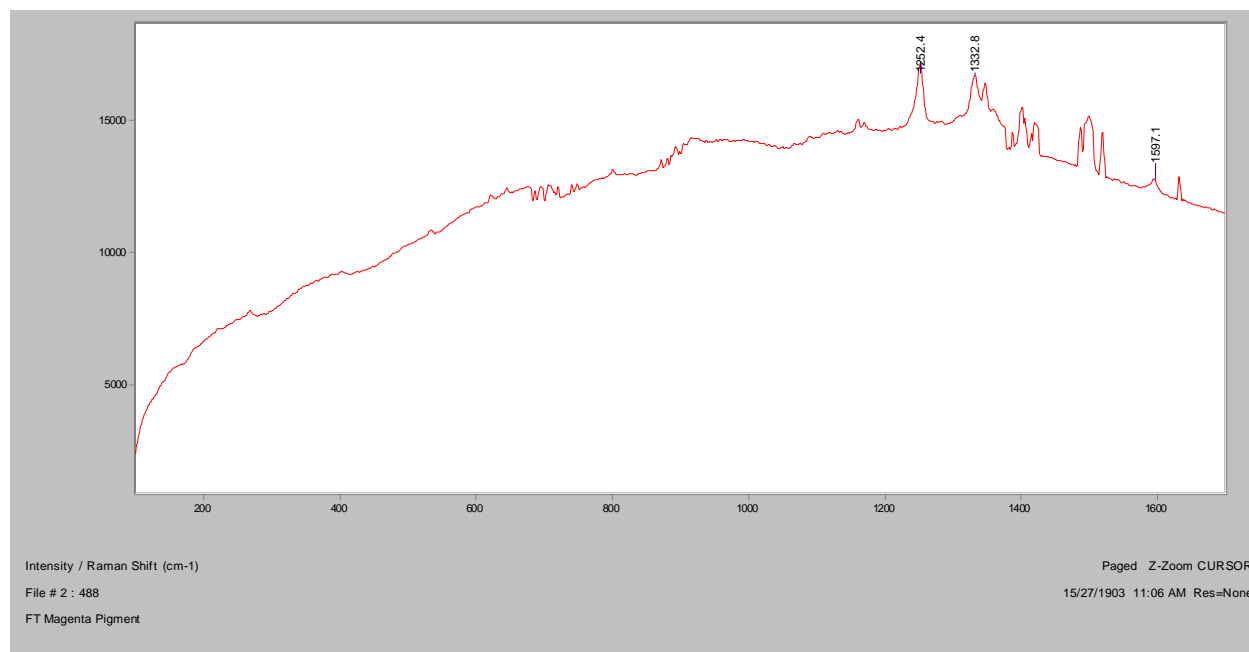


Normal Raman, 785nm

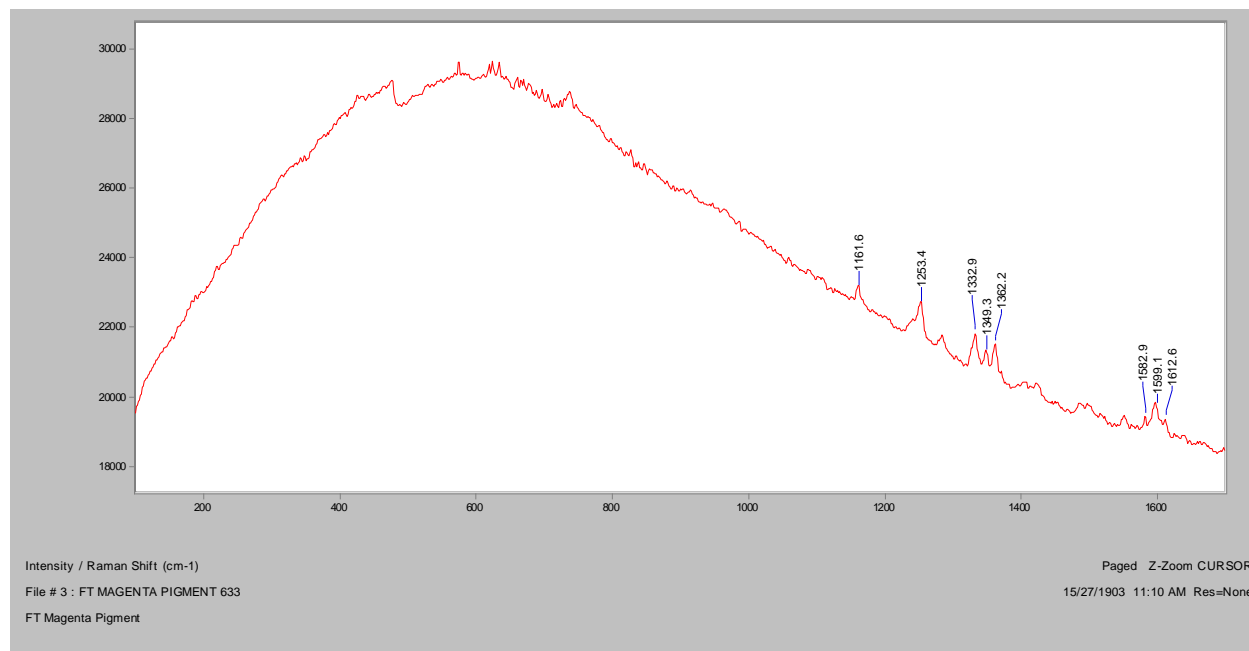


Magenta

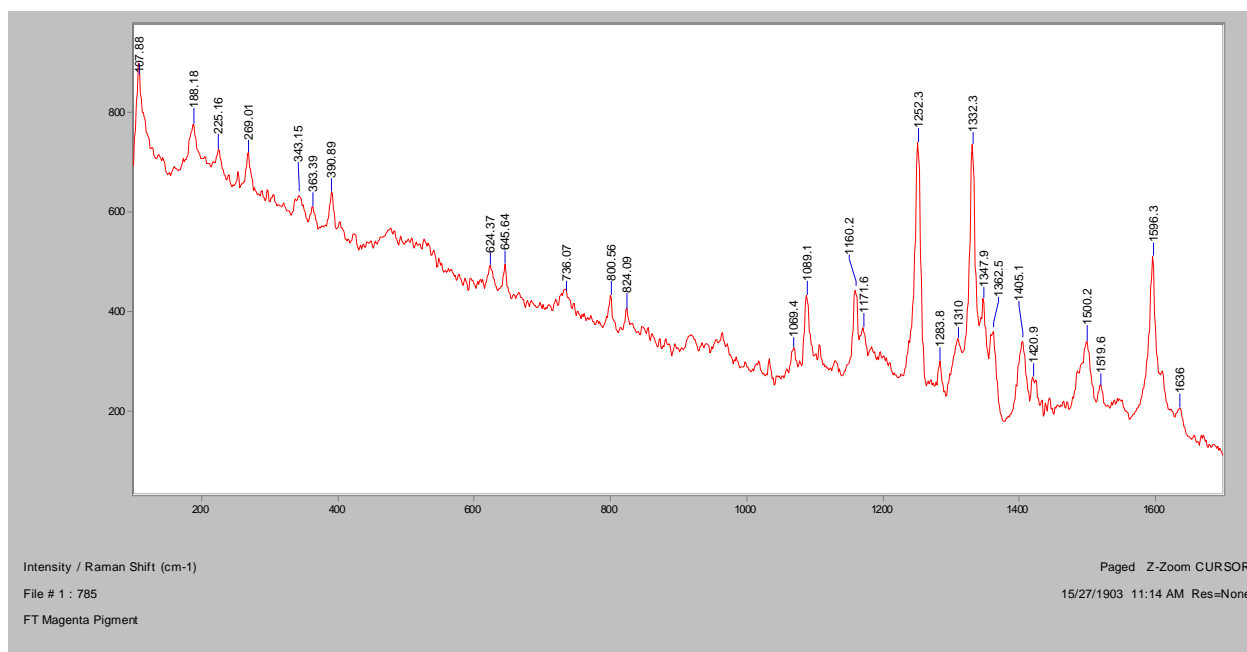
Normal Raman, 488nm



Normal Raman, 633nm

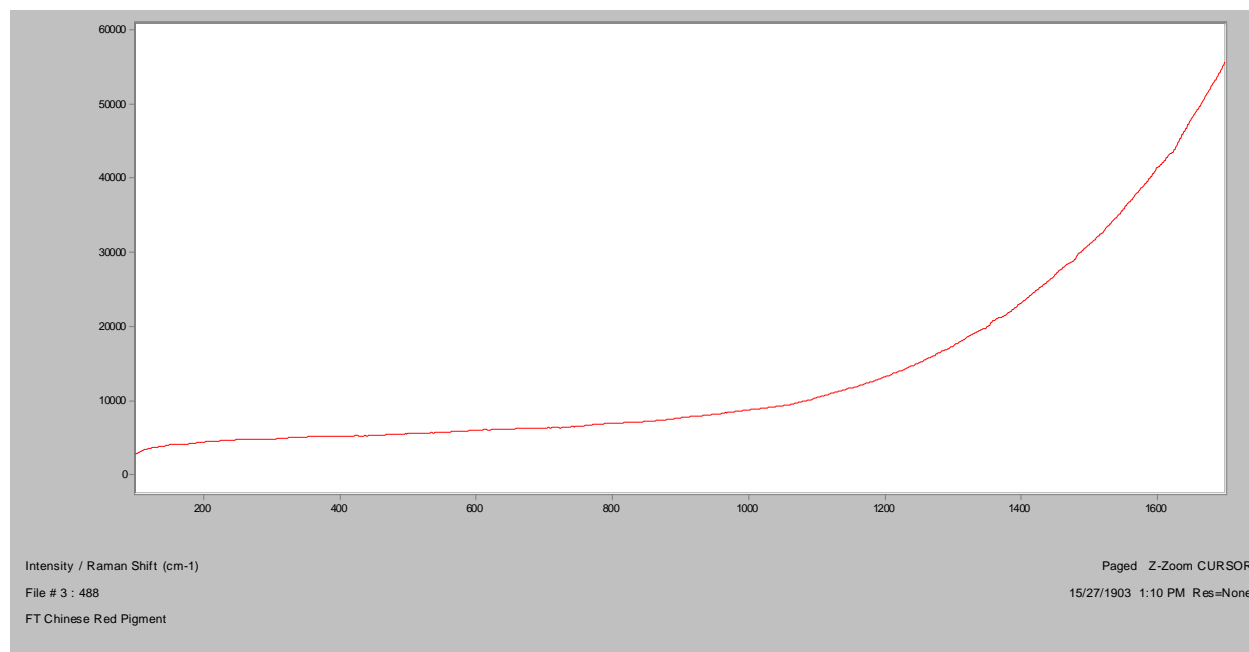


Normal Raman, 785nm

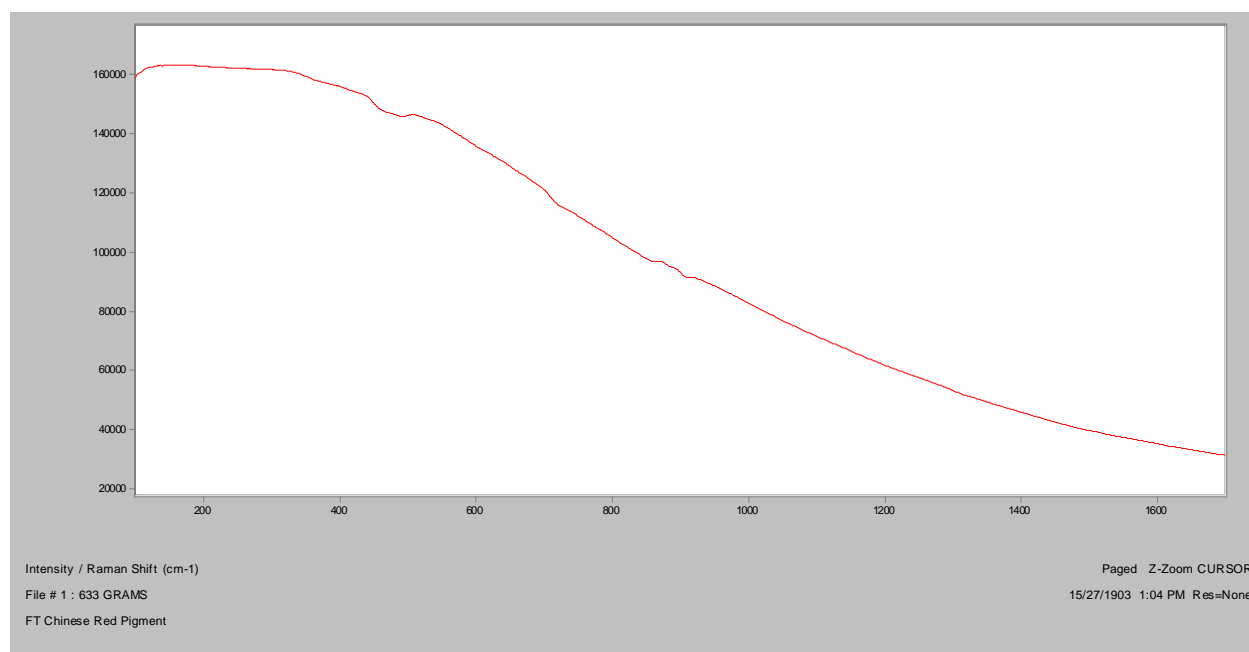


Chinese Red

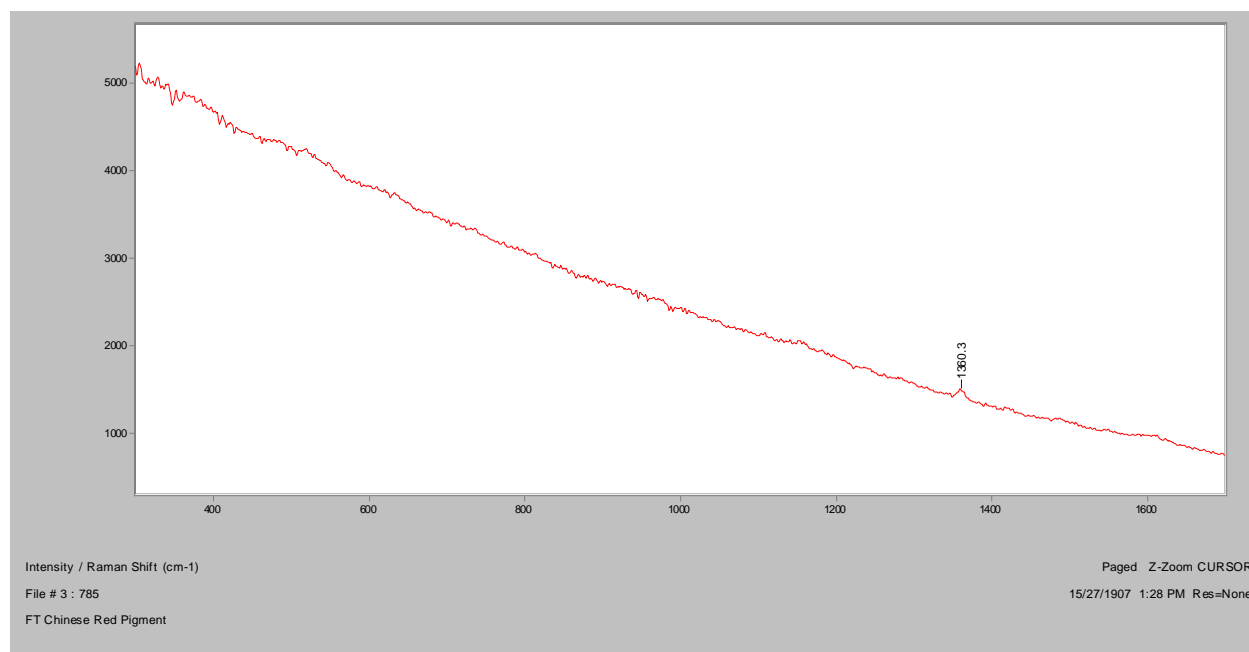
Normal Raman, 488nm



Normal Raman, 633nm

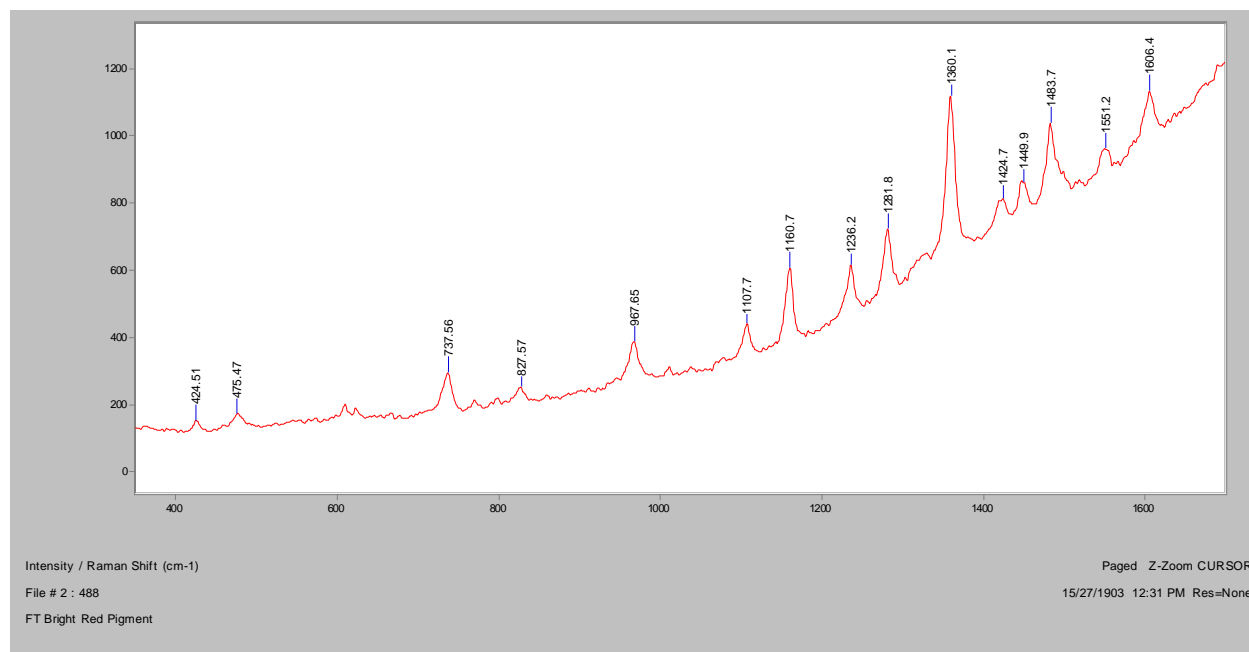


Normal Raman, 785nm

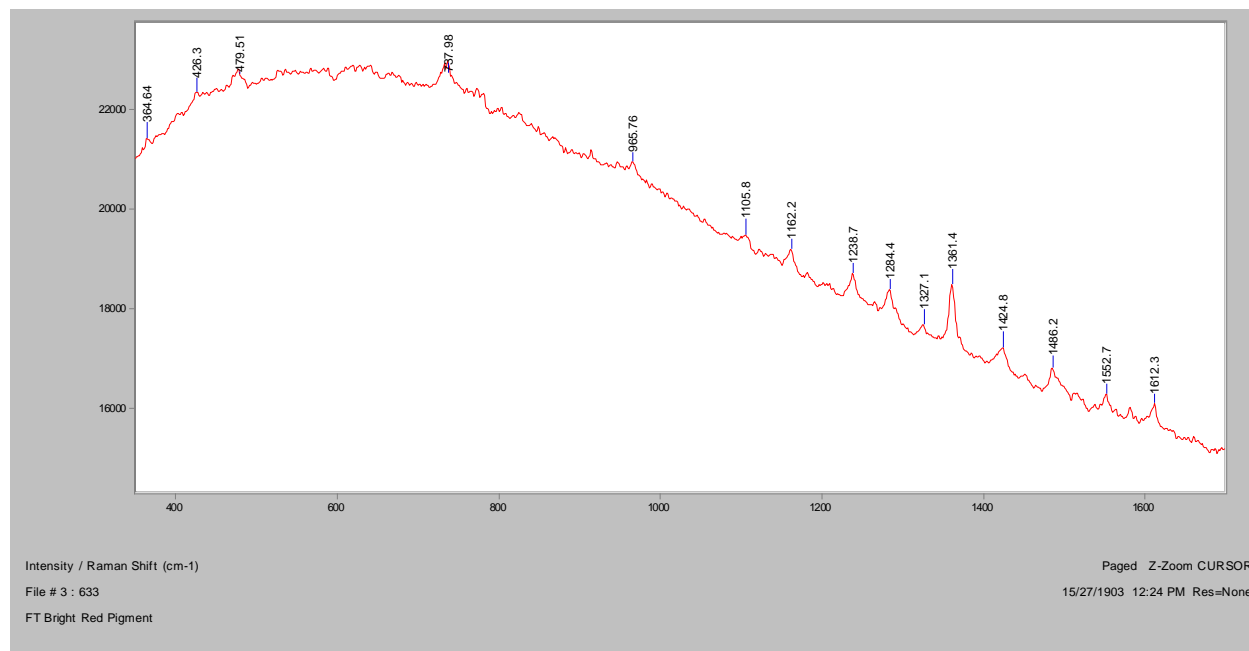


Bright Red

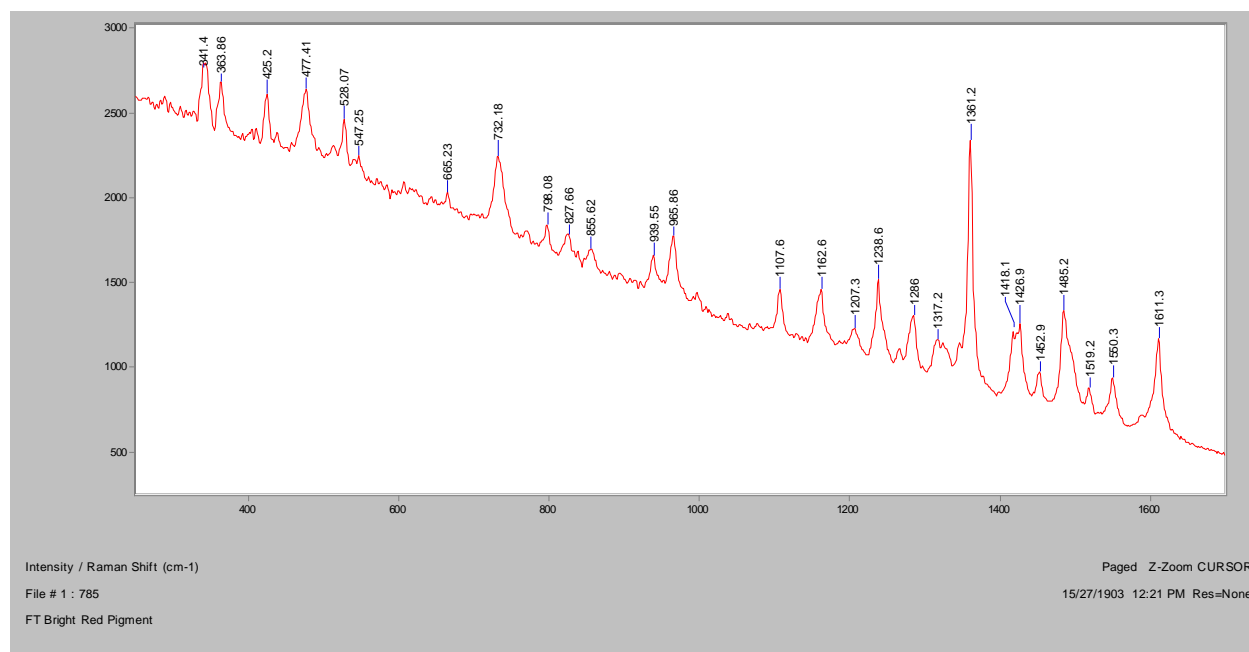
Normal Raman, 488nm



Normal Raman, 633nm

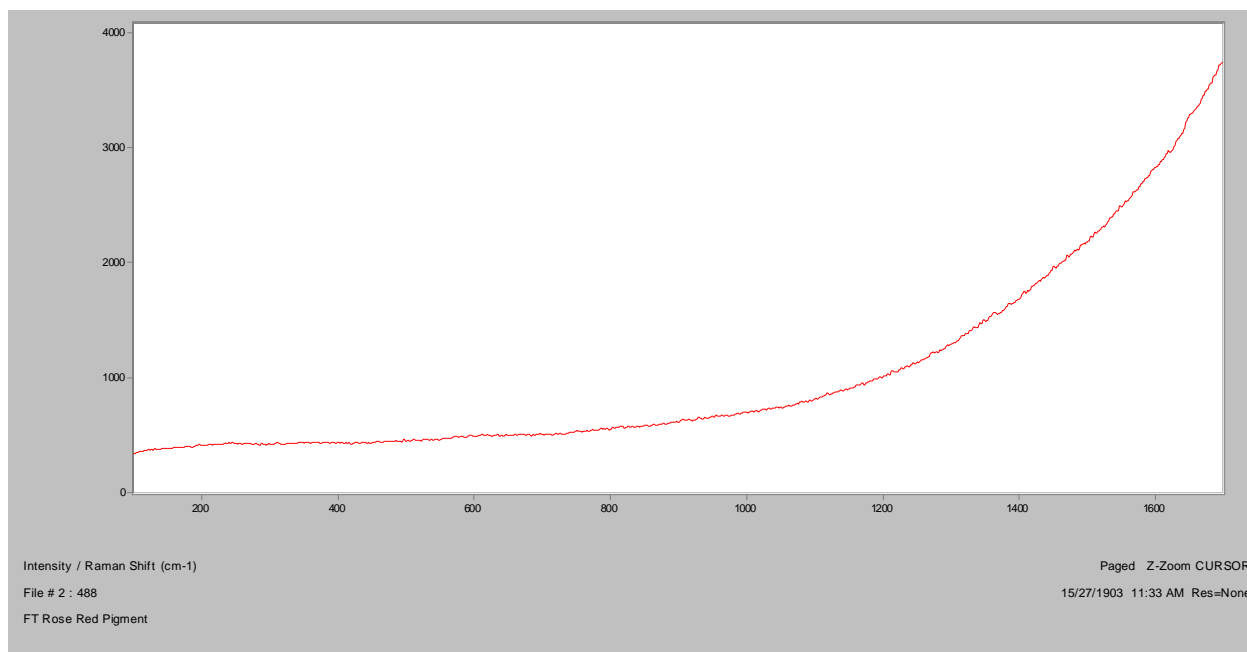


Normal Raman, 785nm

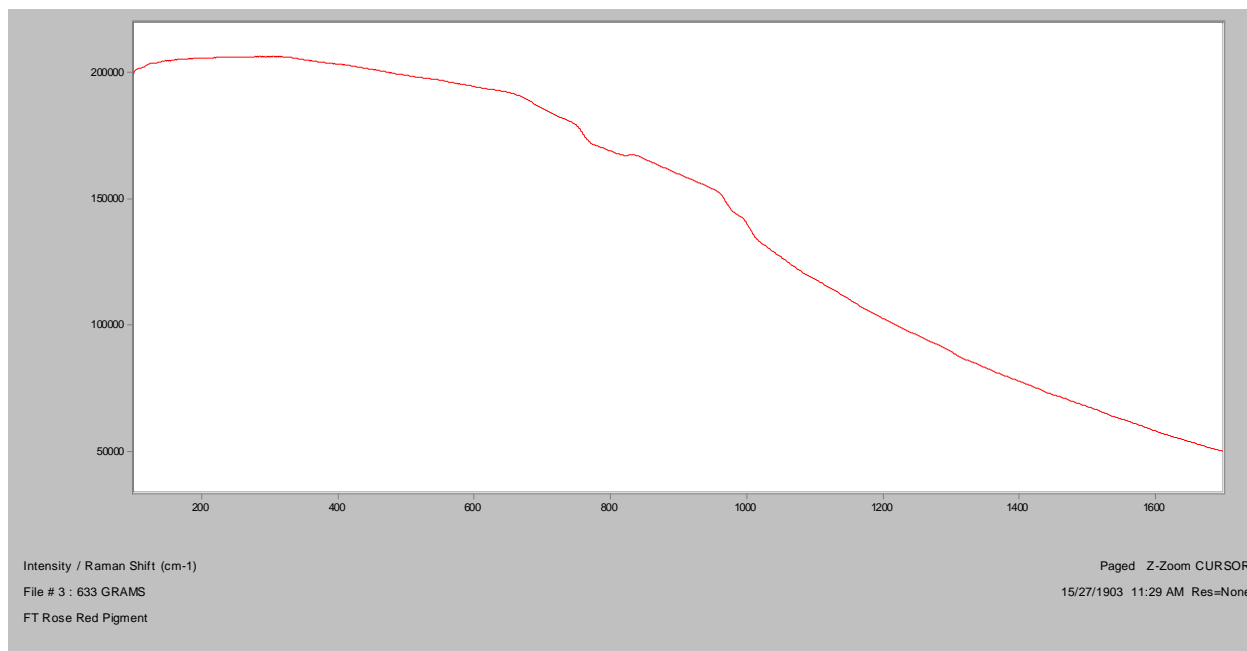


Rose Red

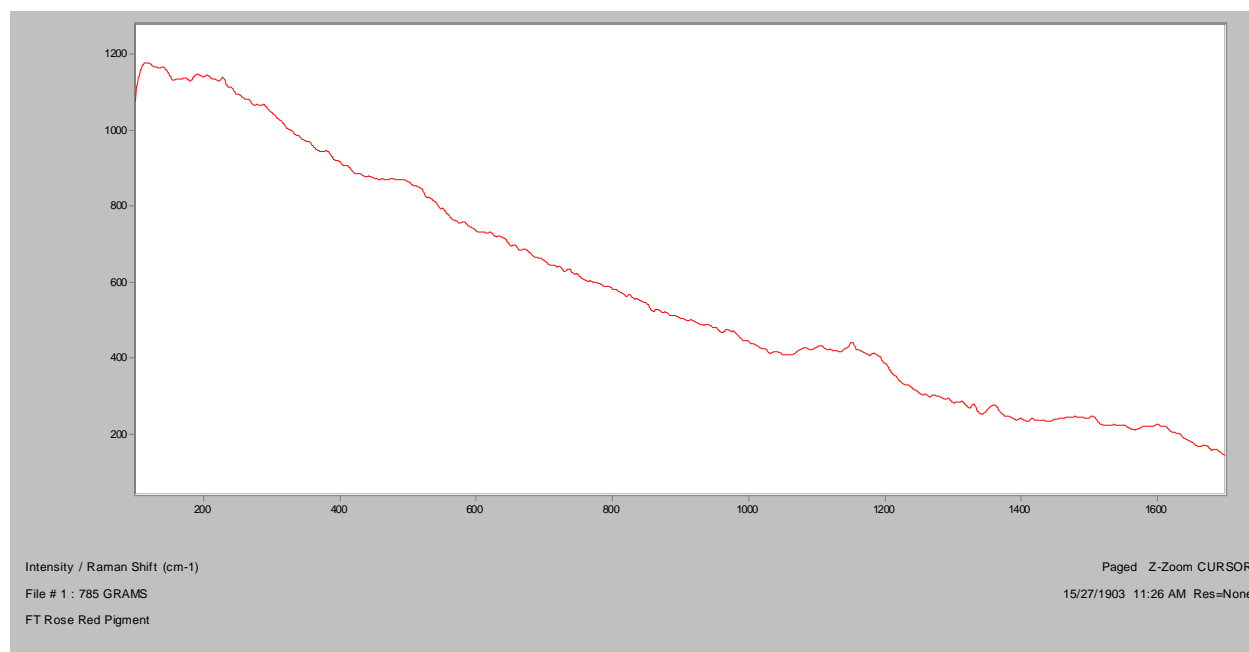
Normal Raman, 488nm



Normal Raman, 633nm

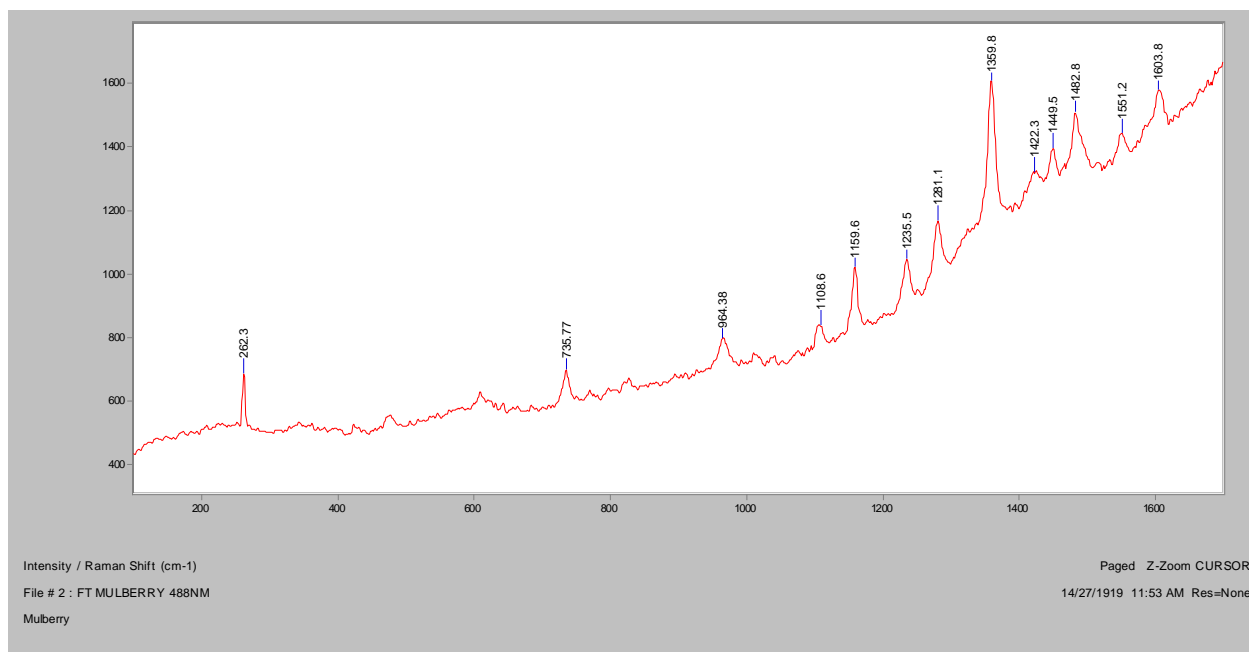


Normal Raman, 785nm

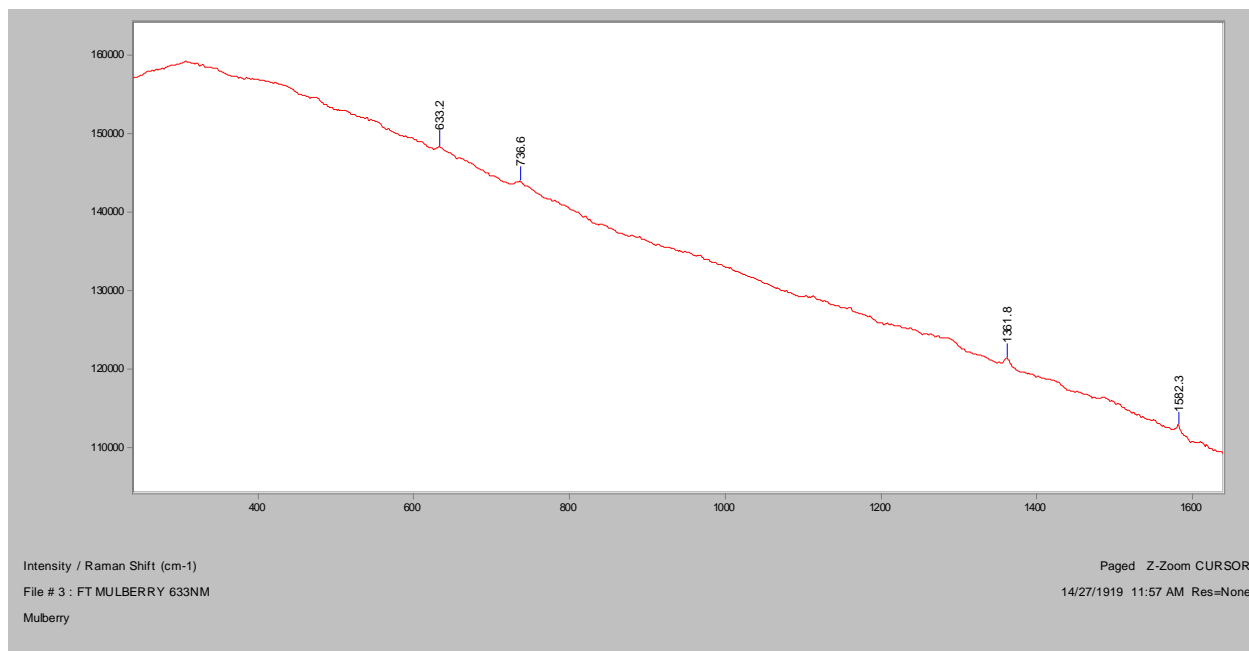


Mulberry

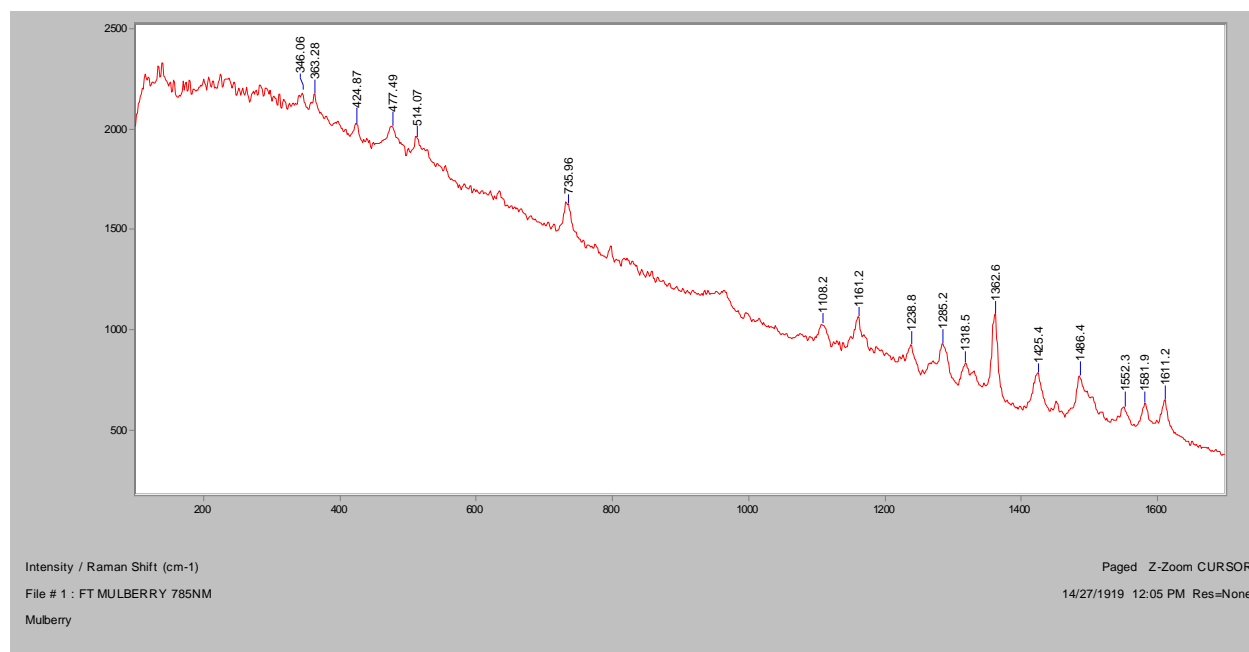
Normal Raman, 488nm



Normal Raman, 633nm

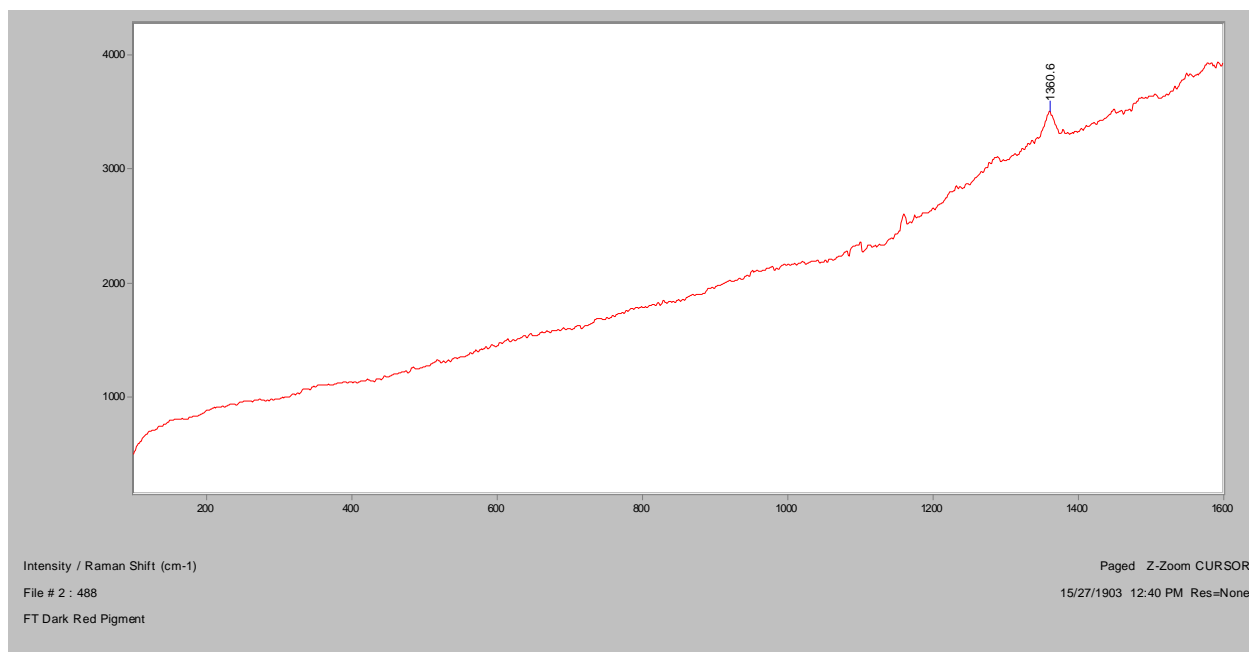


Normal Raman, 785nm

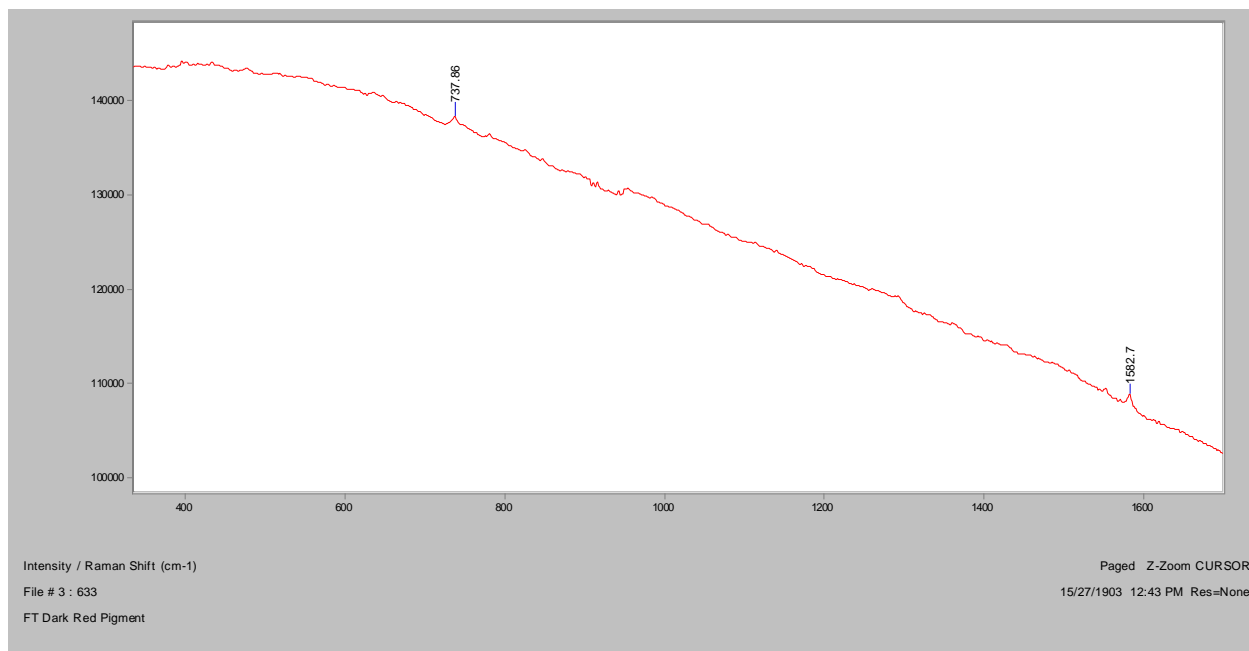


Dark Red

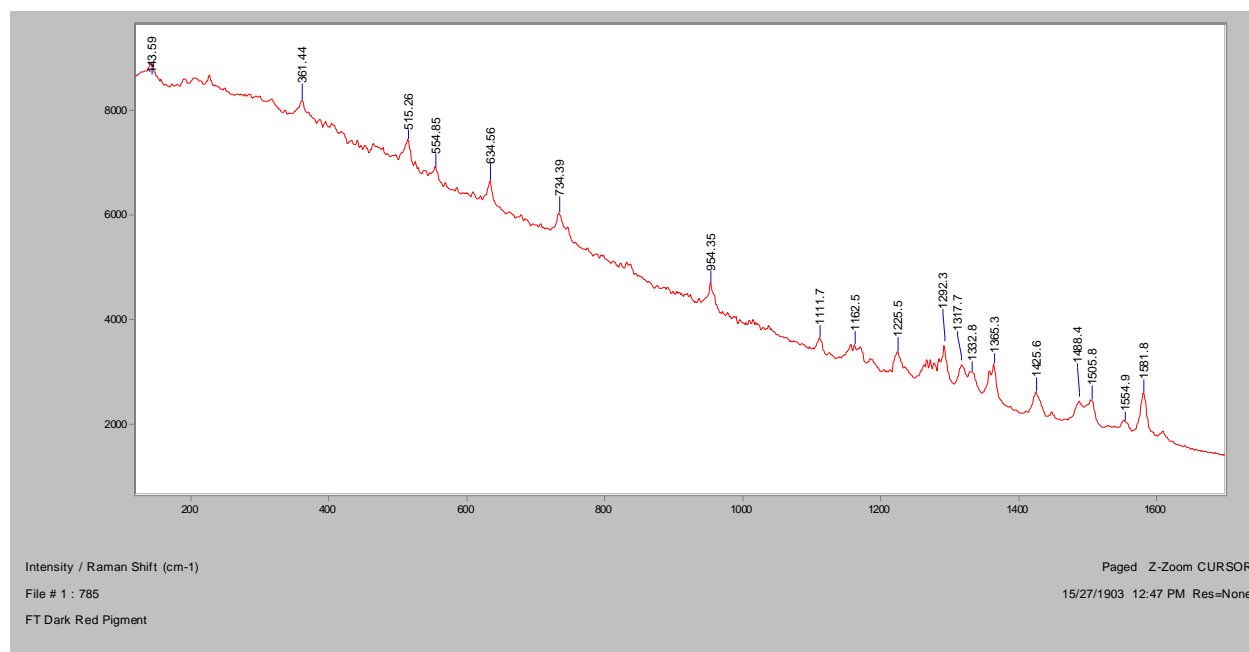
Normal Raman, 488nm



Normal Raman, 633nm

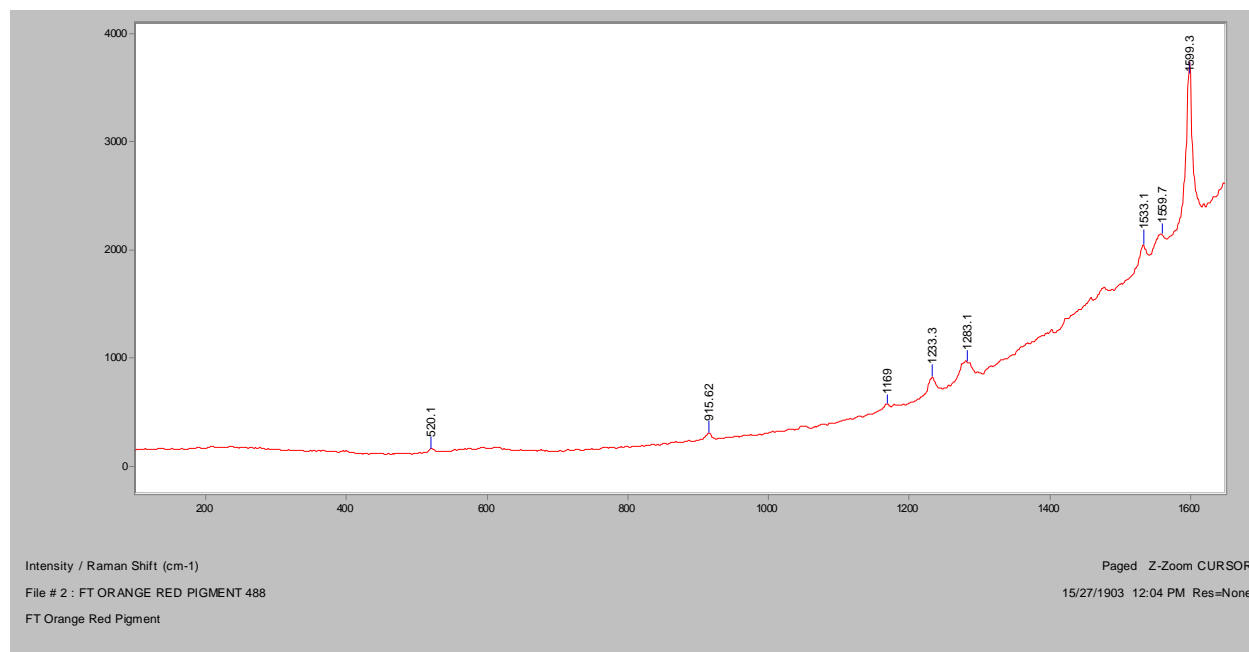


Normal Raman, 785nm

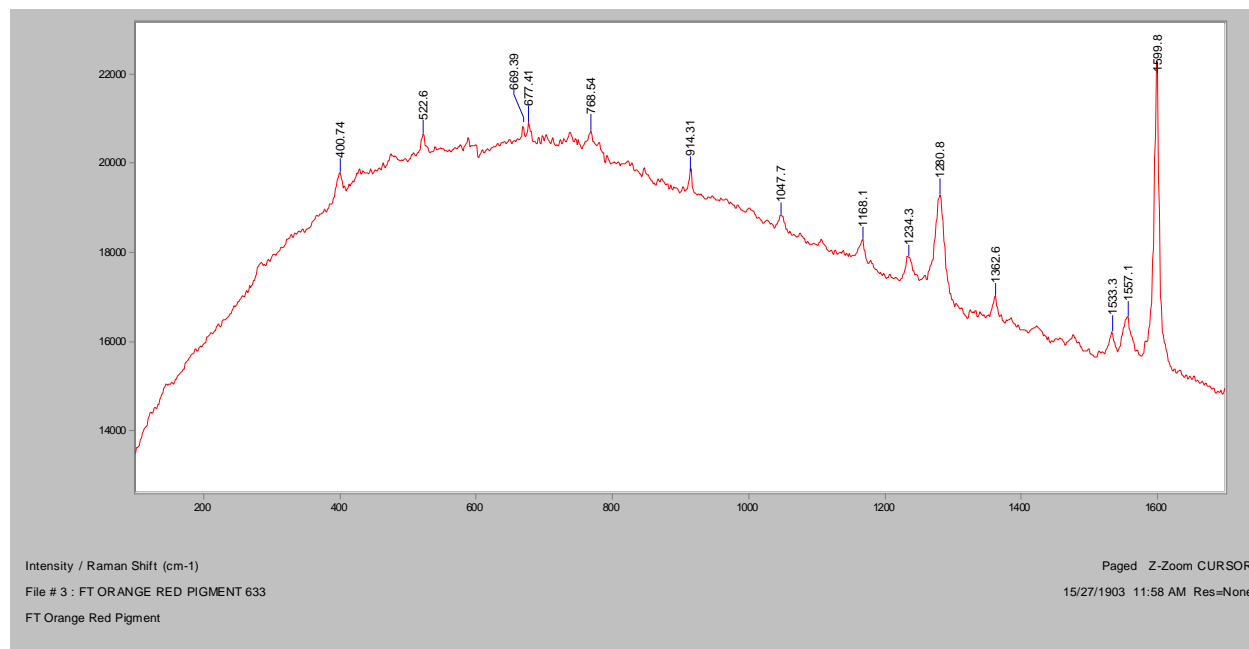


Orange Red

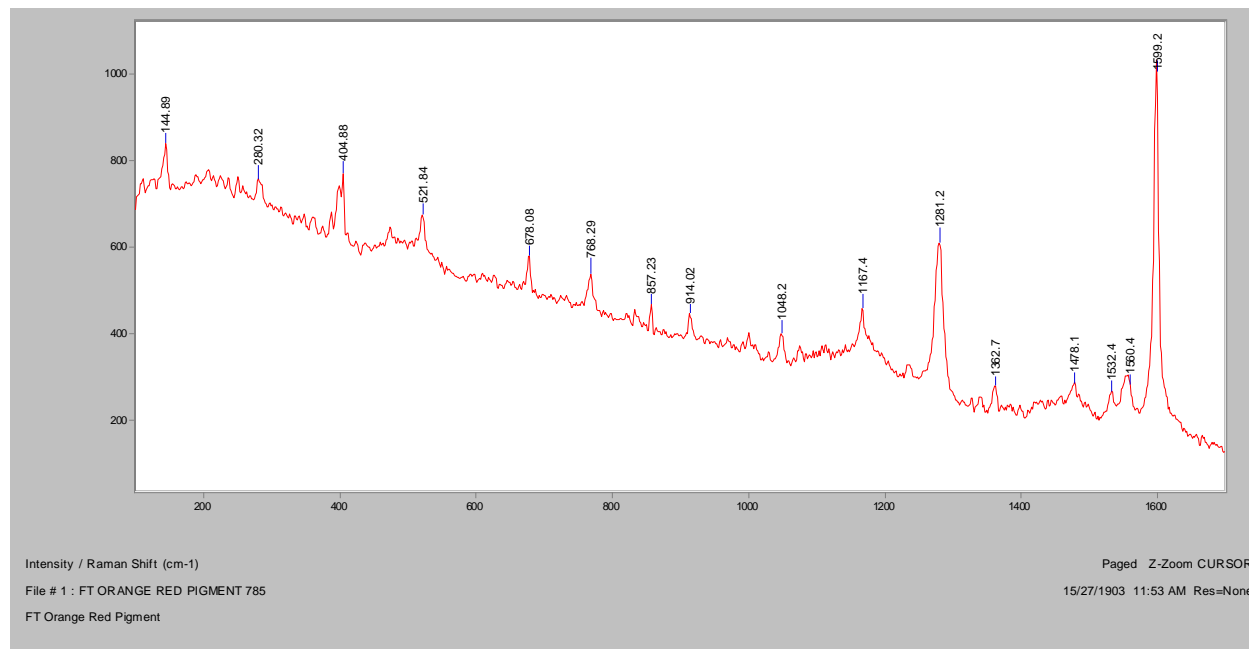
Normal Raman, 488nm



Normal Raman, 633nm

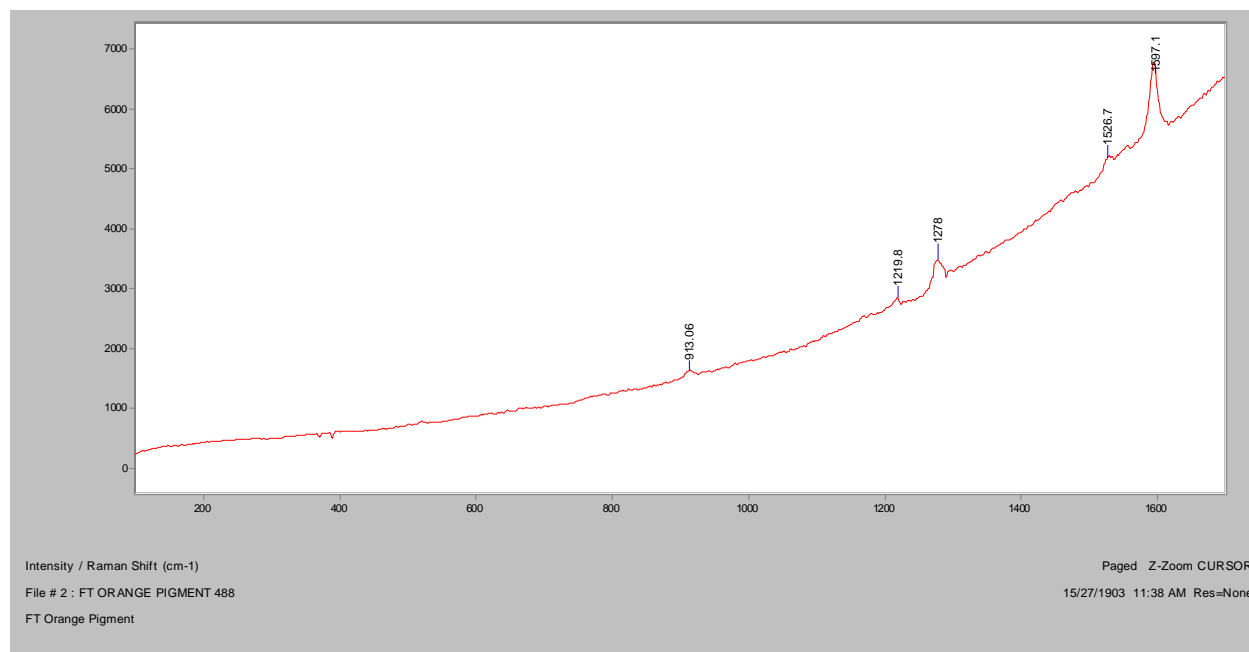


Normal Raman, 785nm

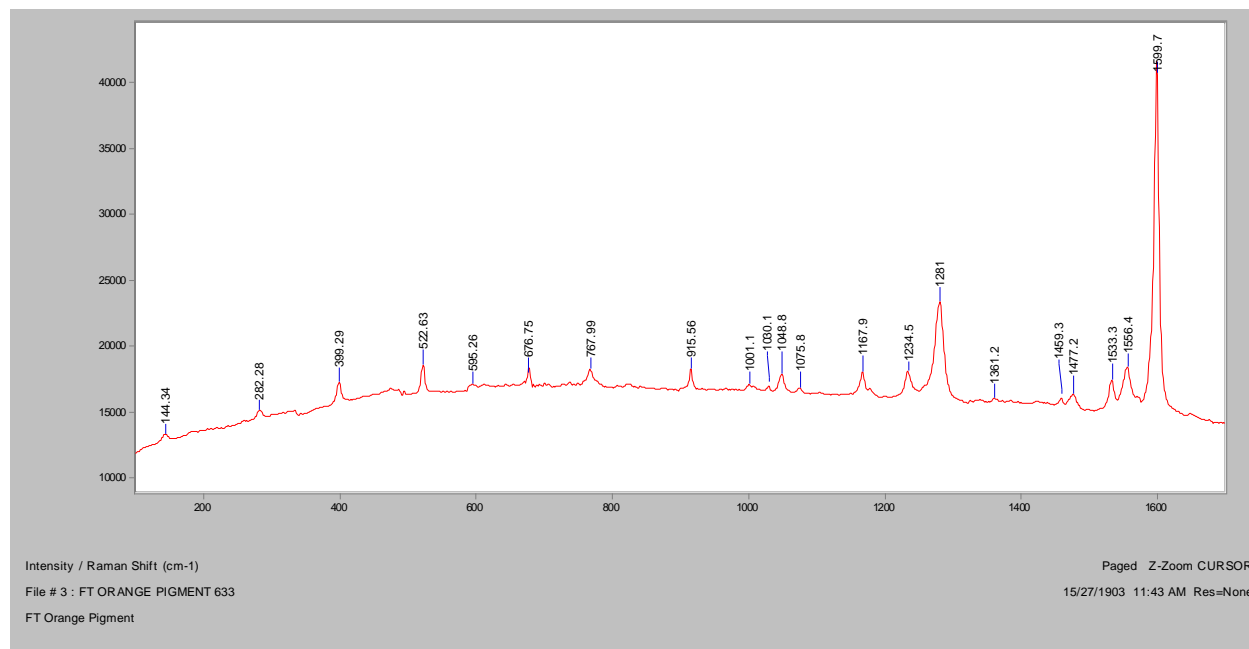


Orange

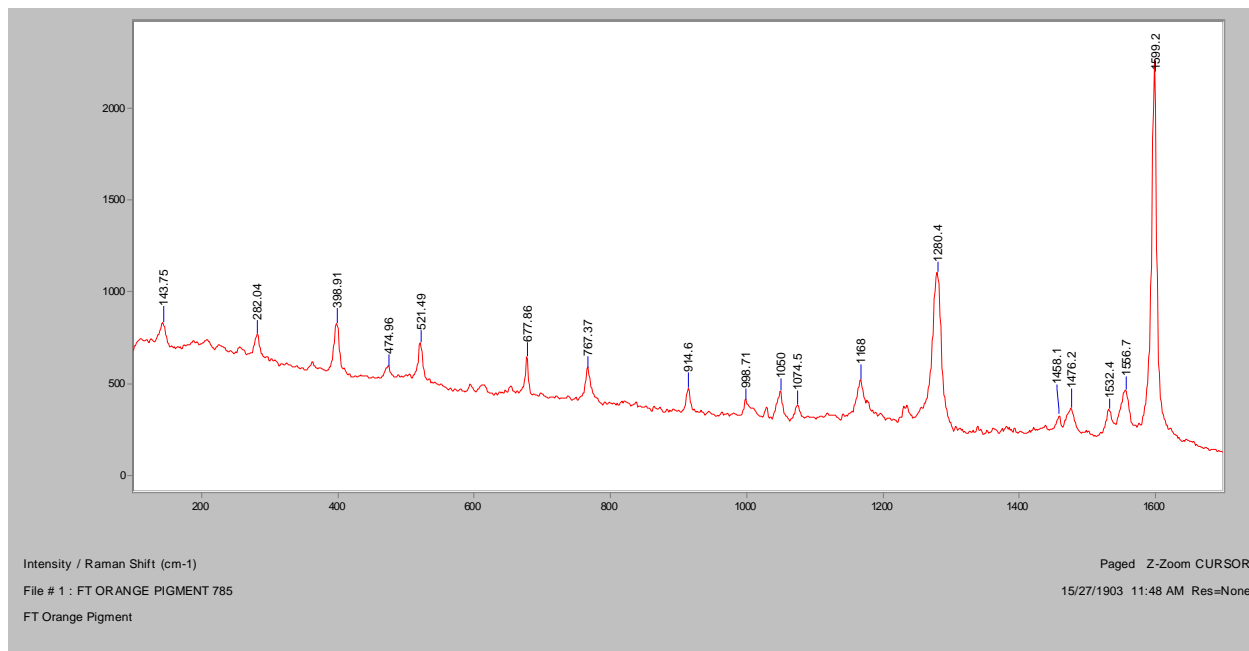
Normal Raman, 488nm



Normal Raman, 633nm

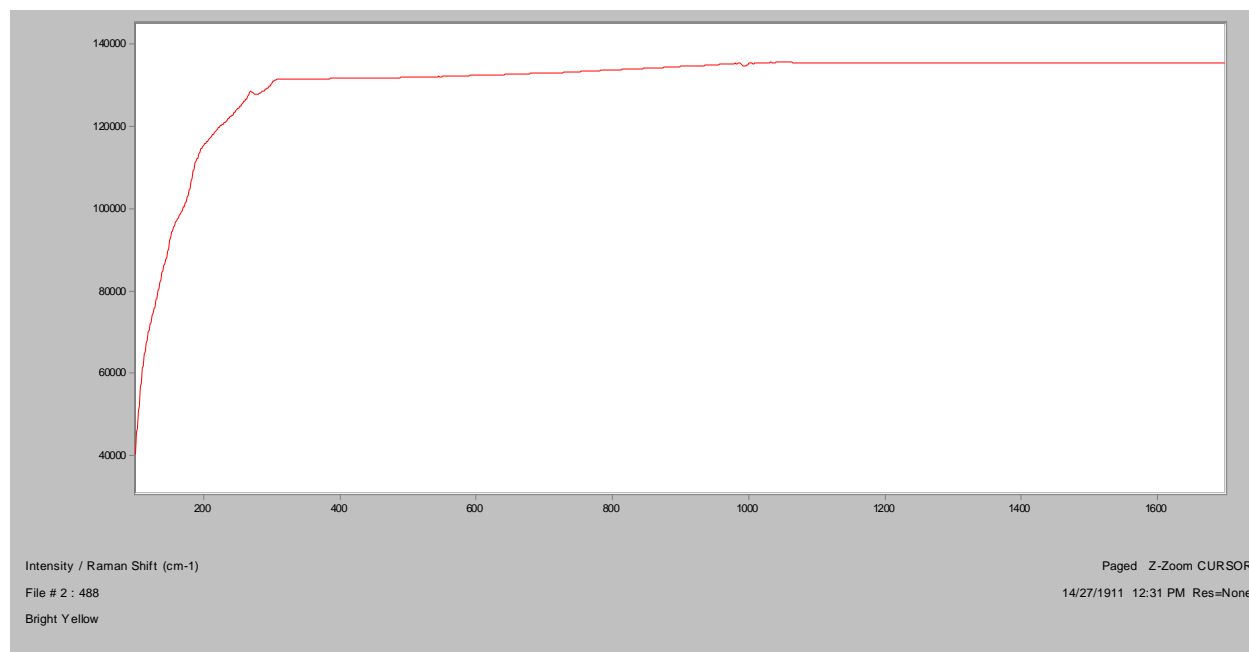


Normal Raman, 785nm

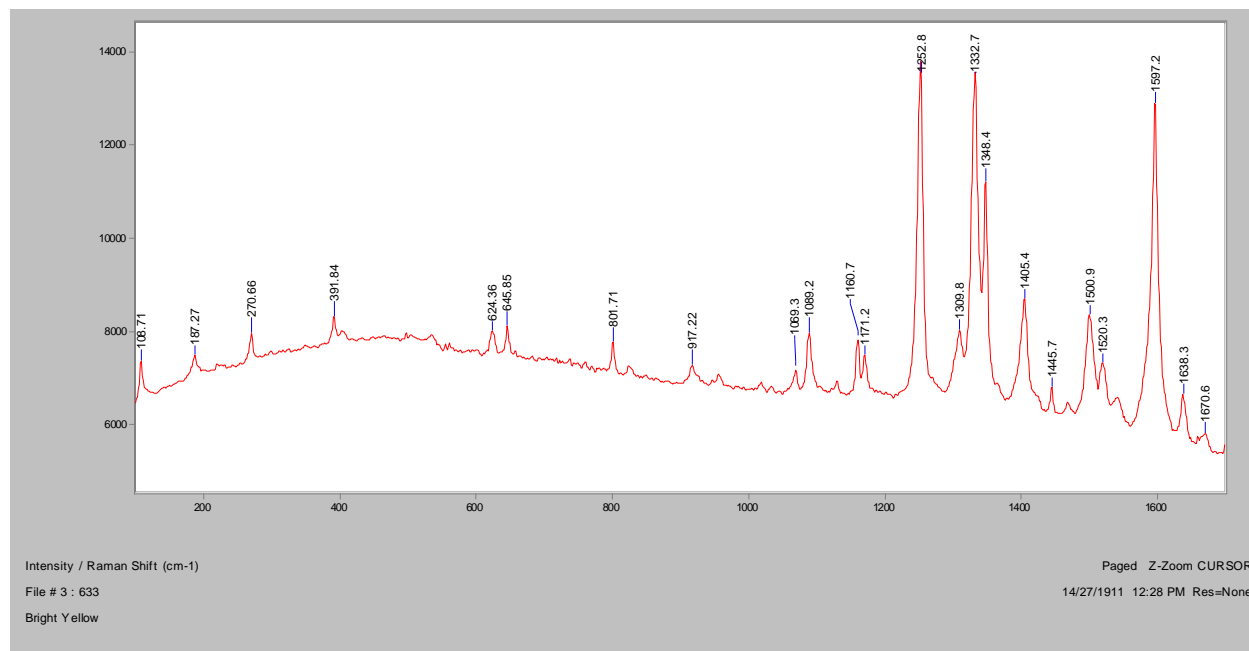


Bright Yellow

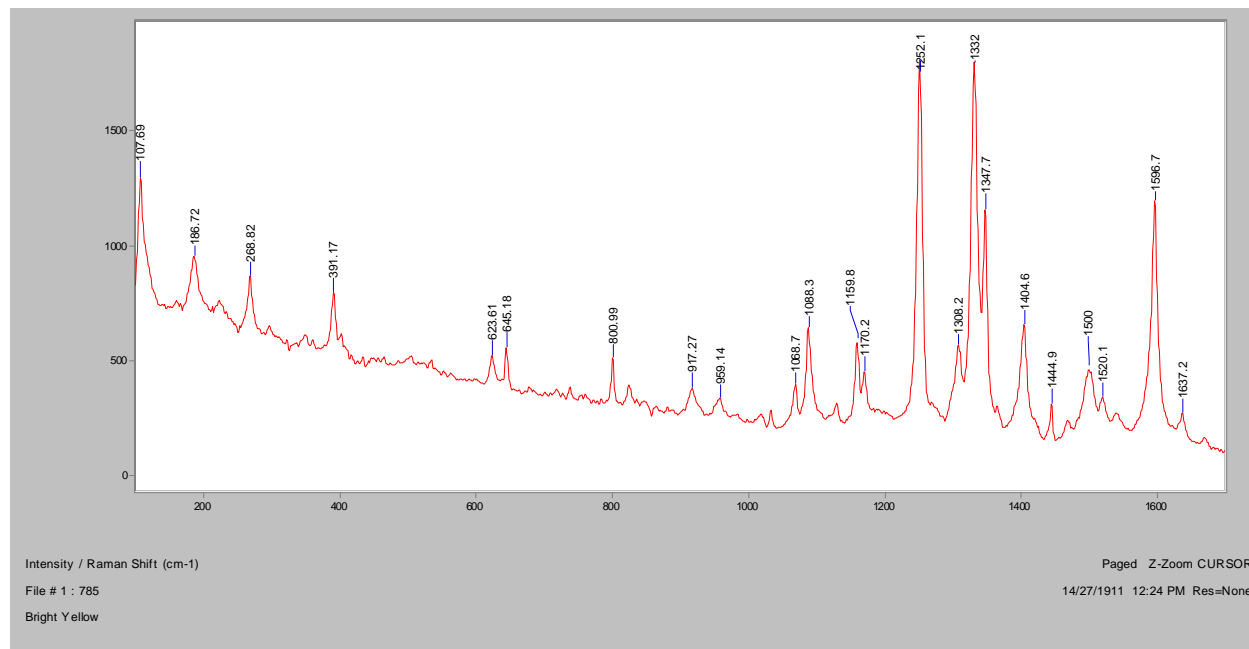
Normal Raman, 488nm



Normal Raman, 633nm

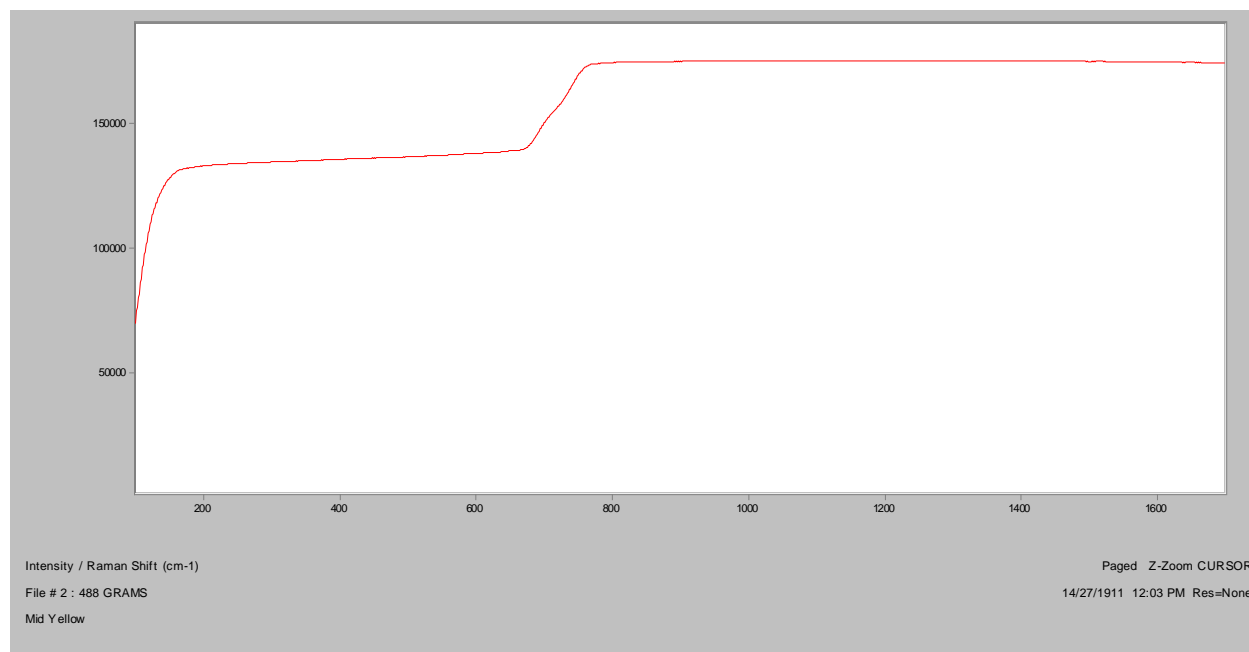


Normal Raman, 785nm

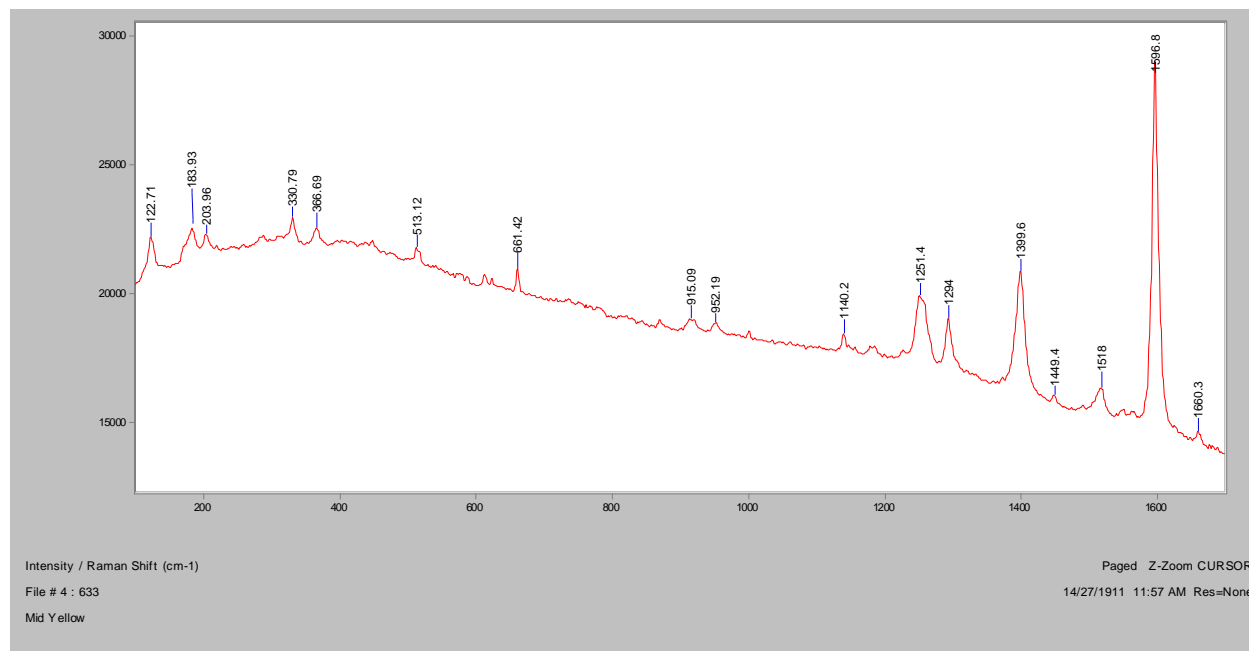


Mid-Yellow

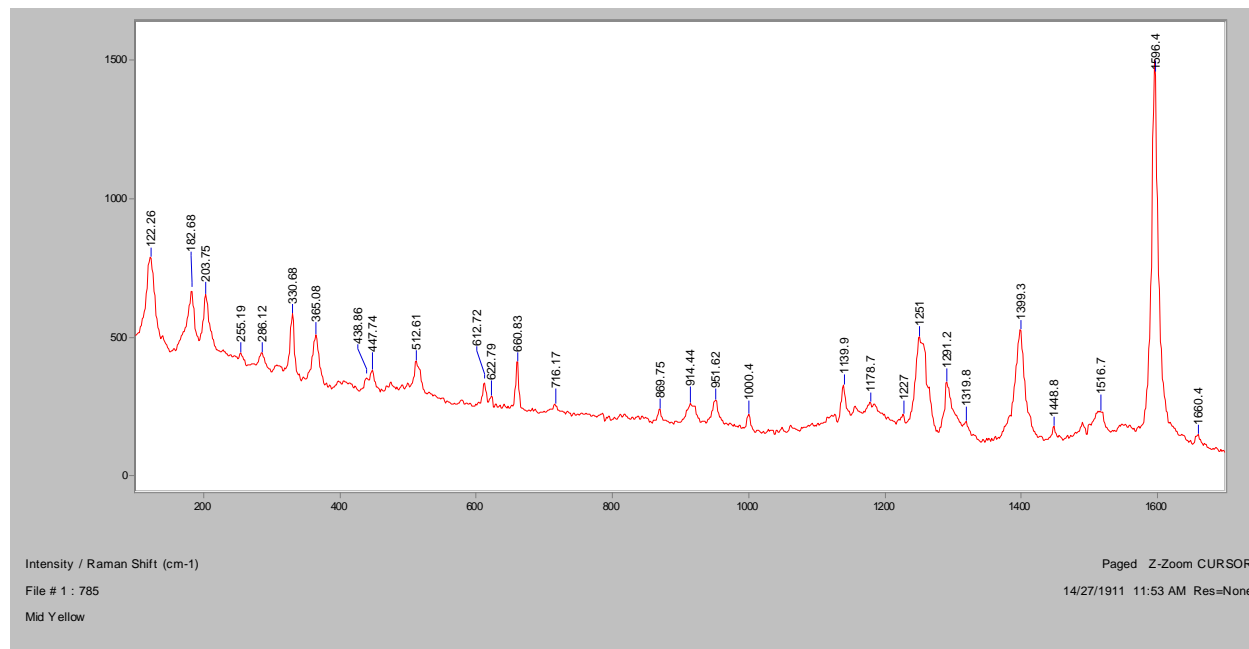
Normal Raman, 488nm



Normal Raman, 633nm

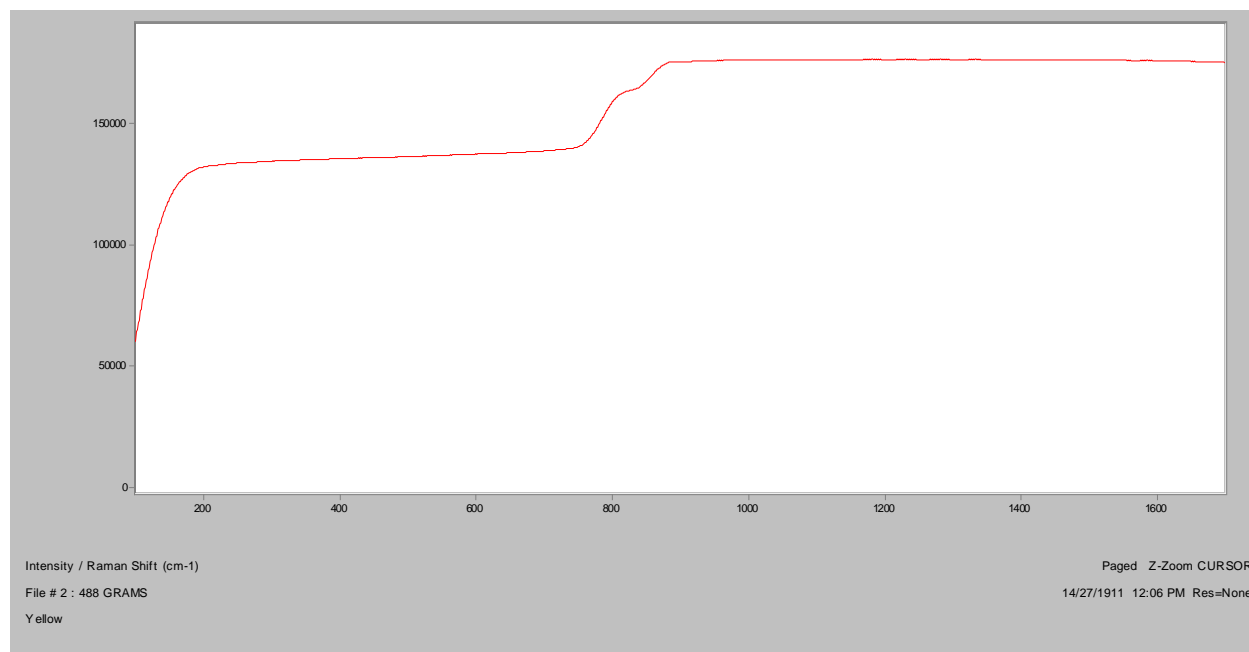


Normal Raman, 785nm

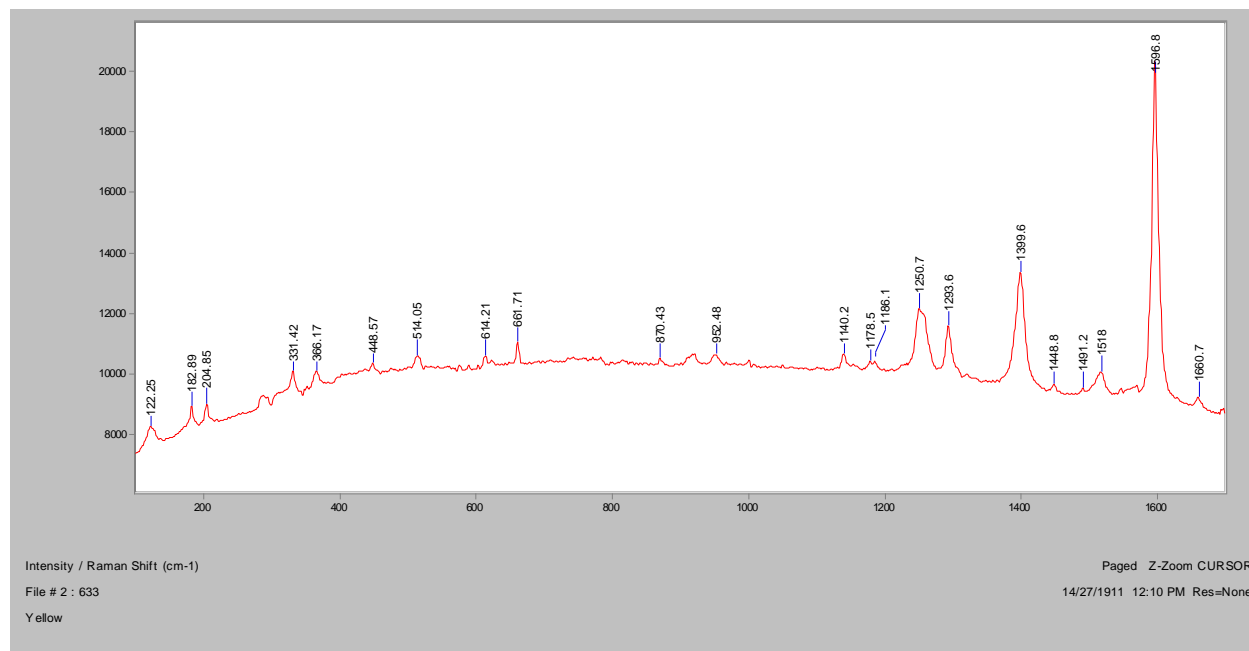


Yellow

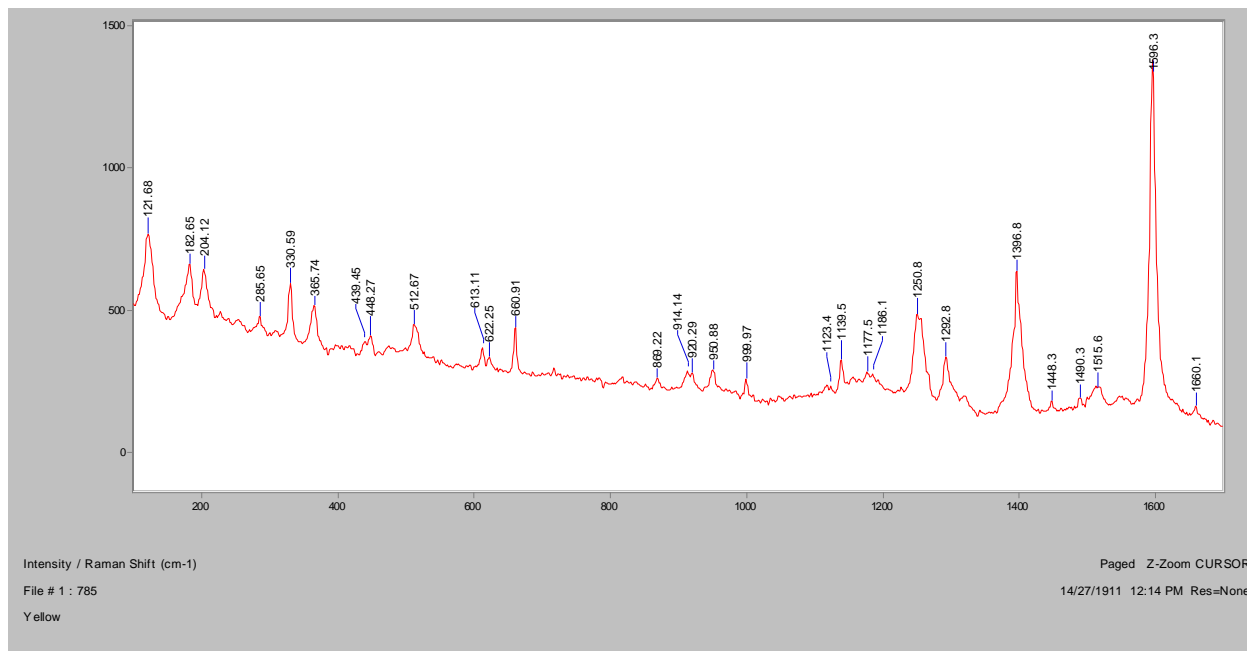
Normal Raman, 488nm



Normal Raman, 633nm

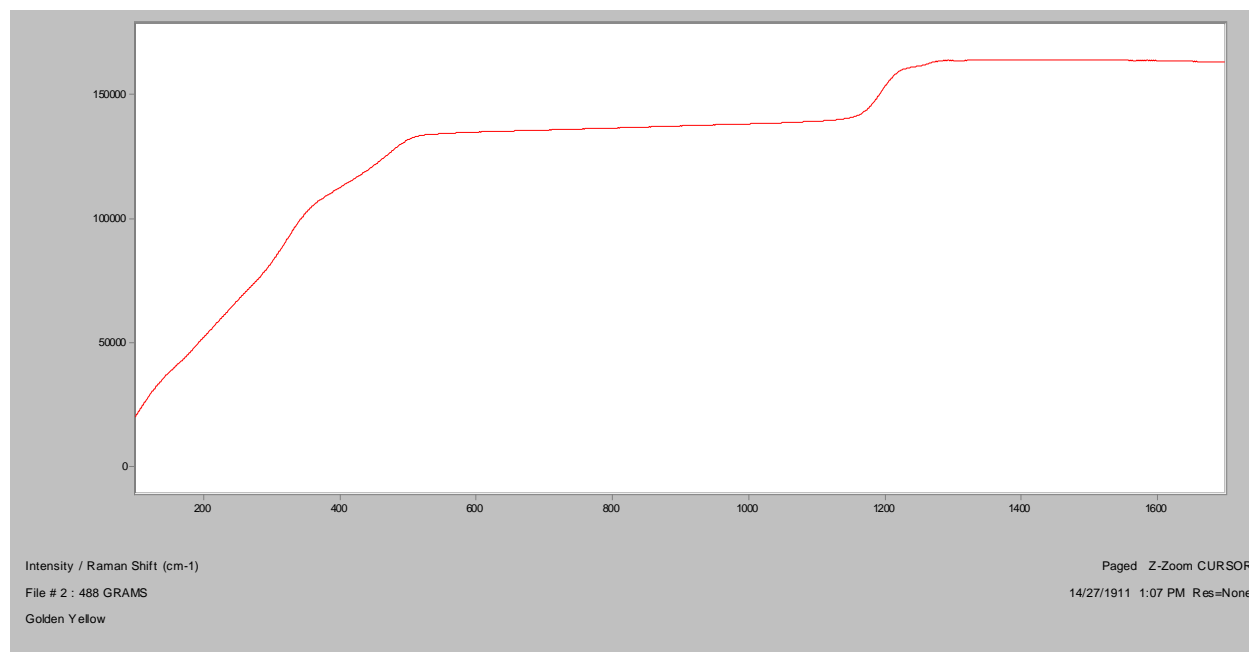


Normal Raman, 785nm

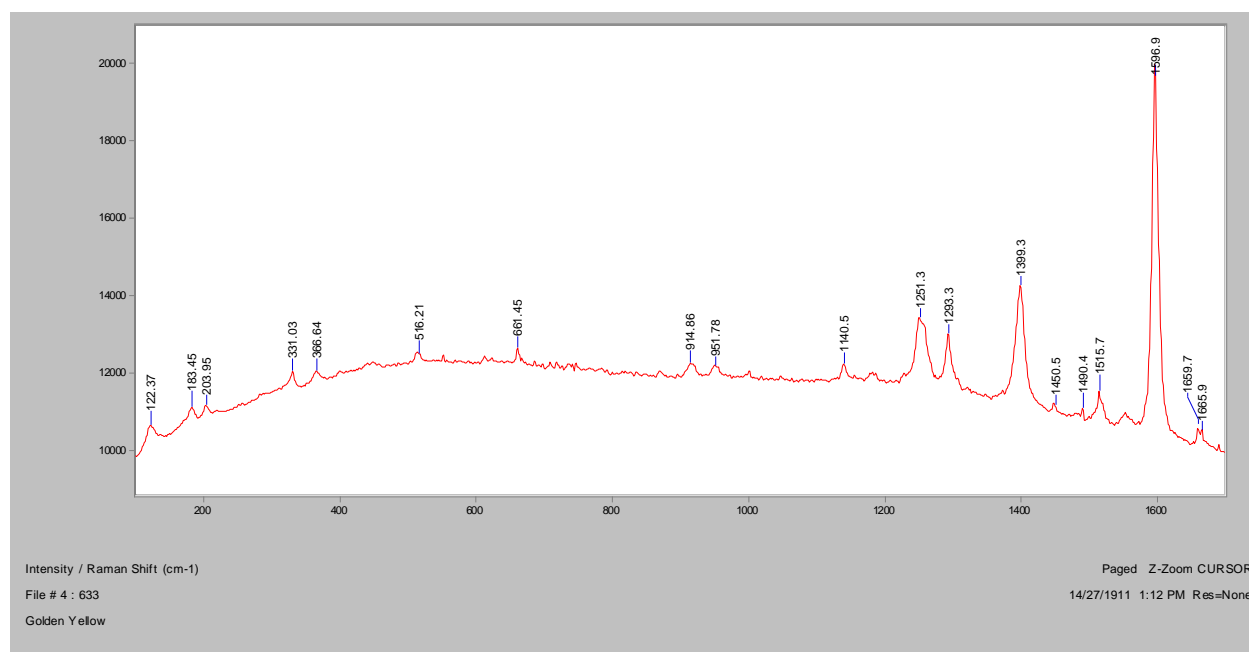


Golden Yellow

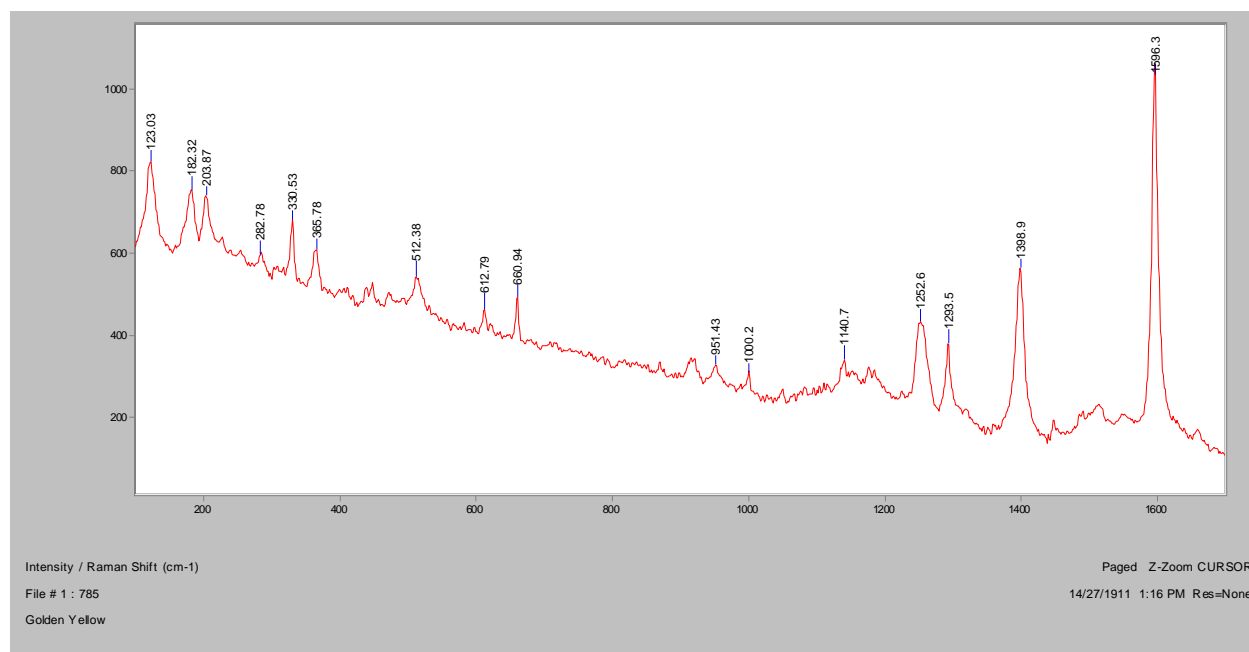
Normal Raman, 488nm



Normal Raman, 633nm

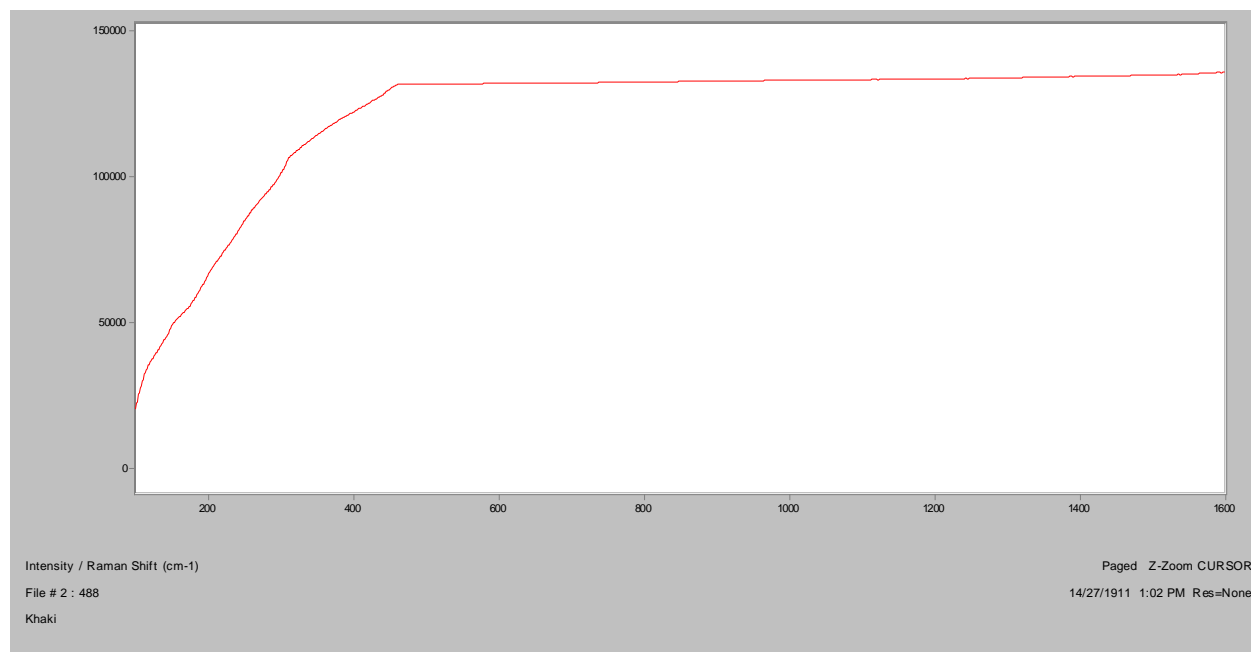


Normal Raman, 785nm

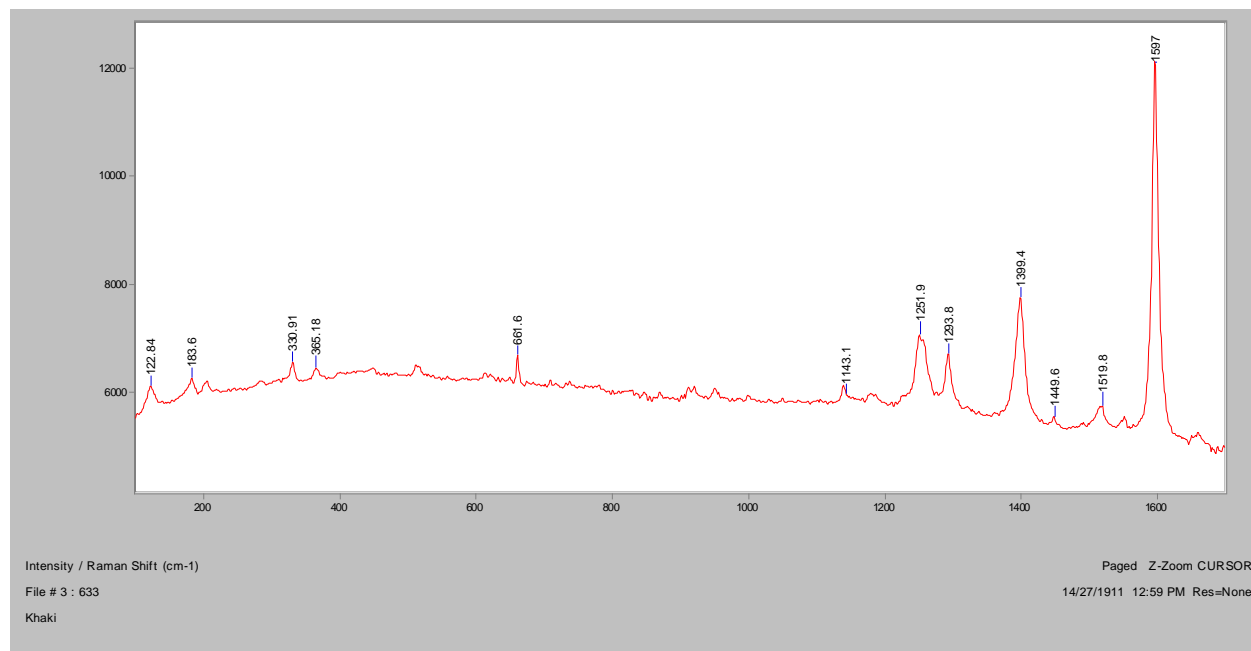


Khaki

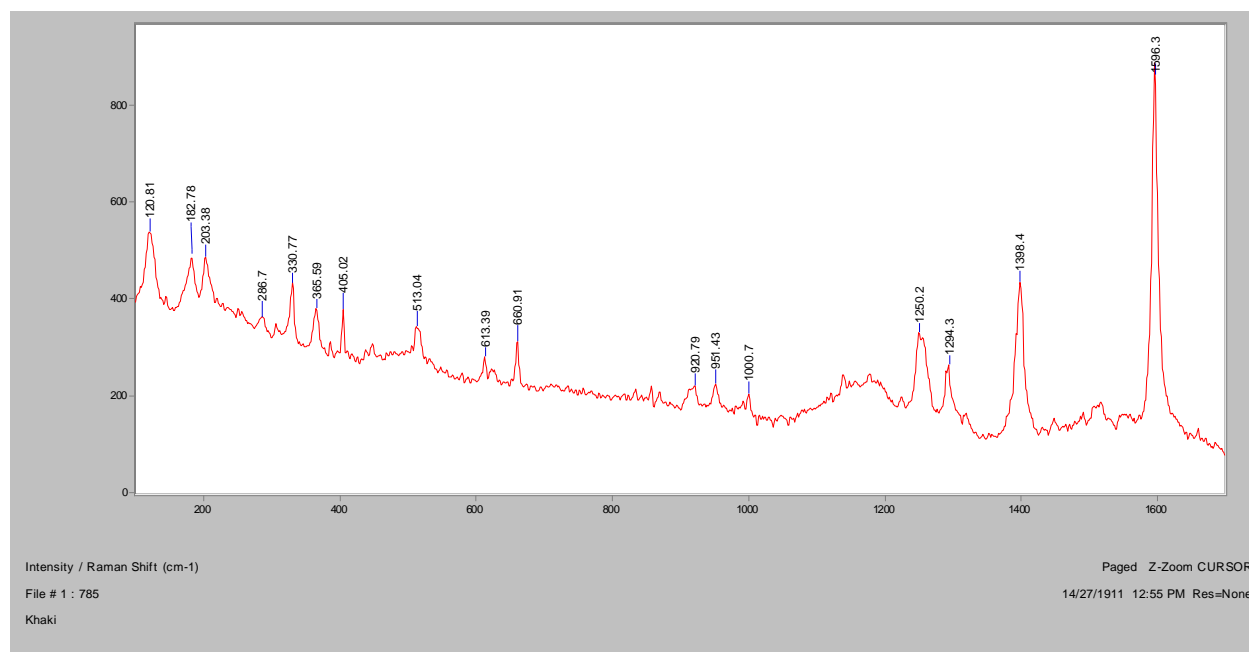
Normal Raman, 488nm



Normal Raman, 633nm

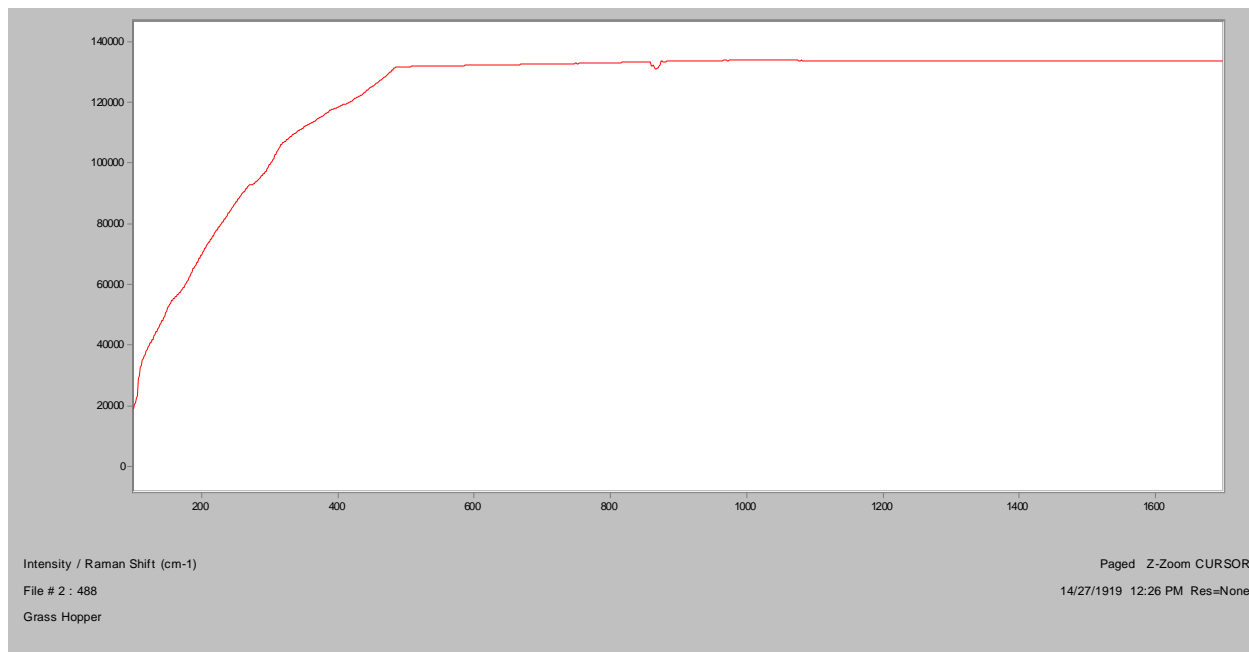


Normal Raman, 785nm

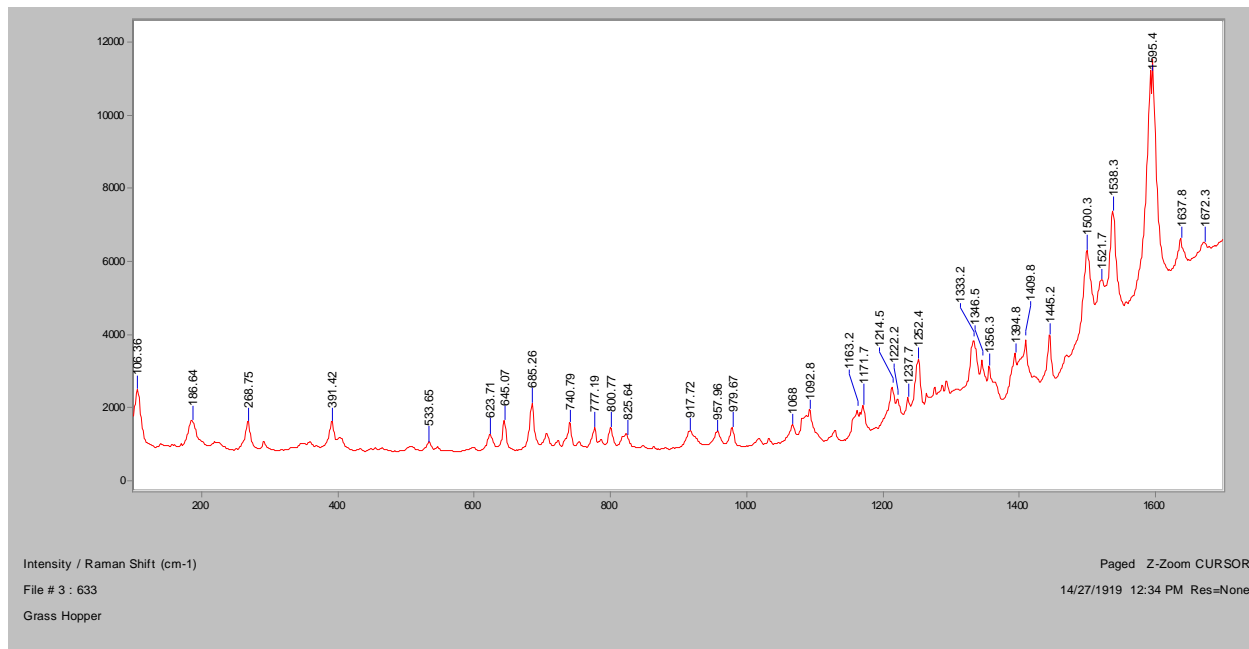


Grass Hopper

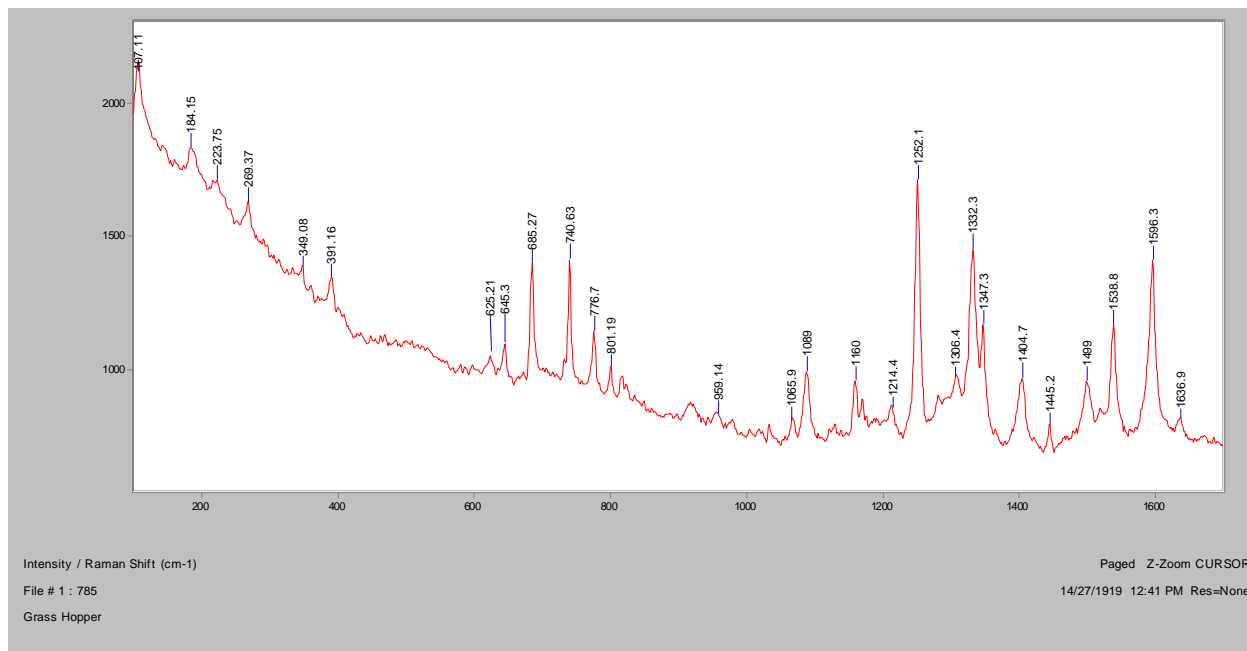
Normal Raman, 488nm



Normal Raman, 633nm

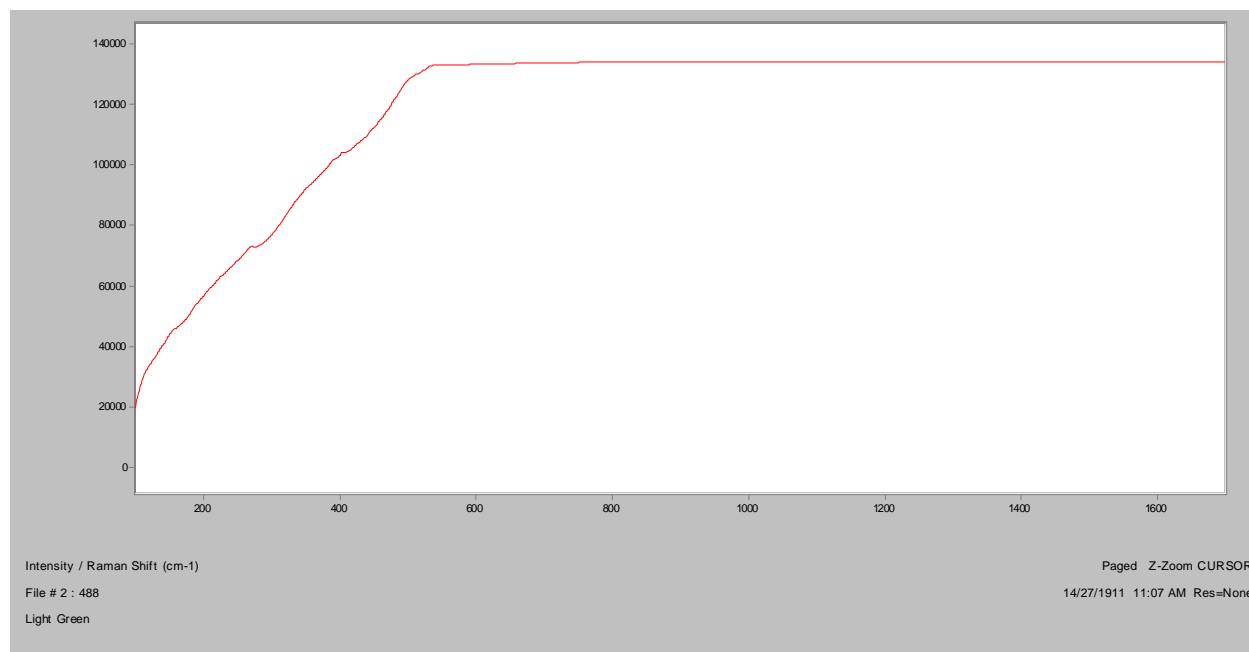


Normal Raman, 785nm

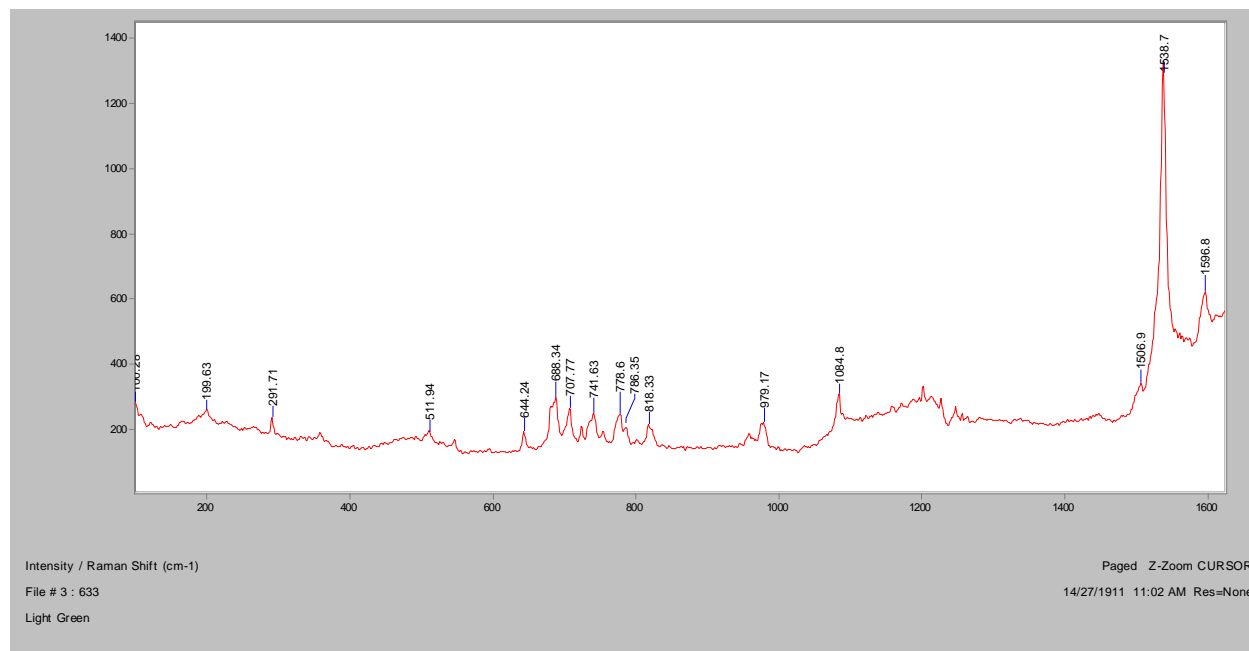


Light Green

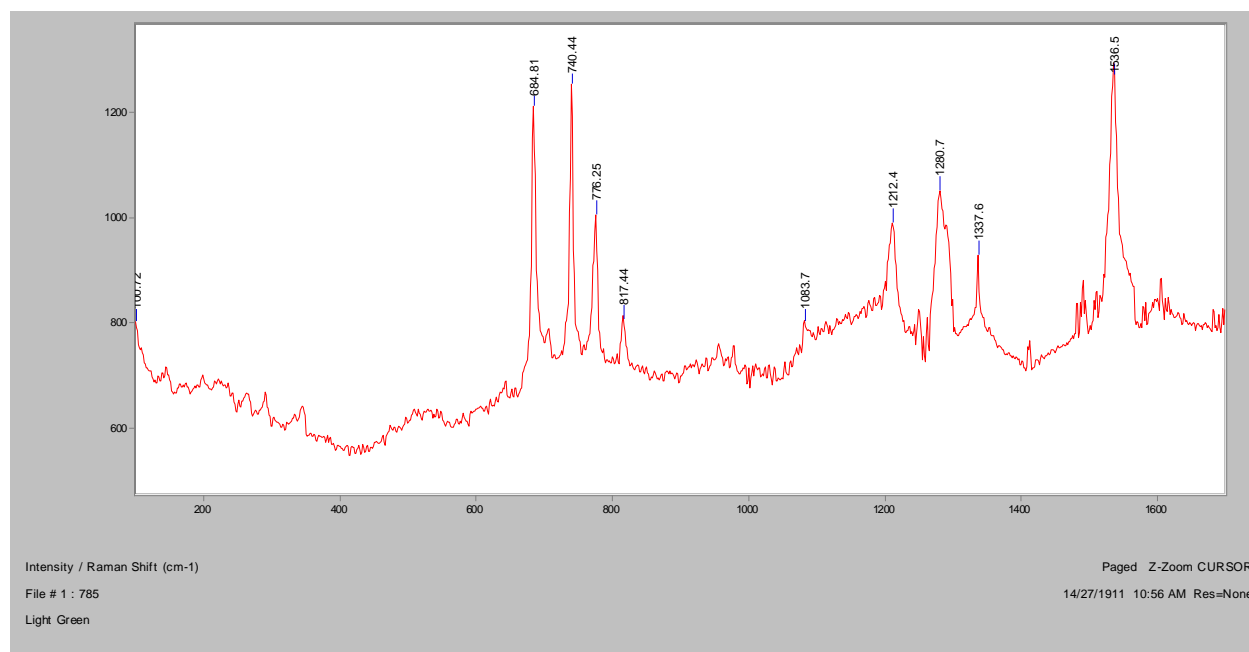
Normal Raman, 488nm



Normal Raman, 633nm

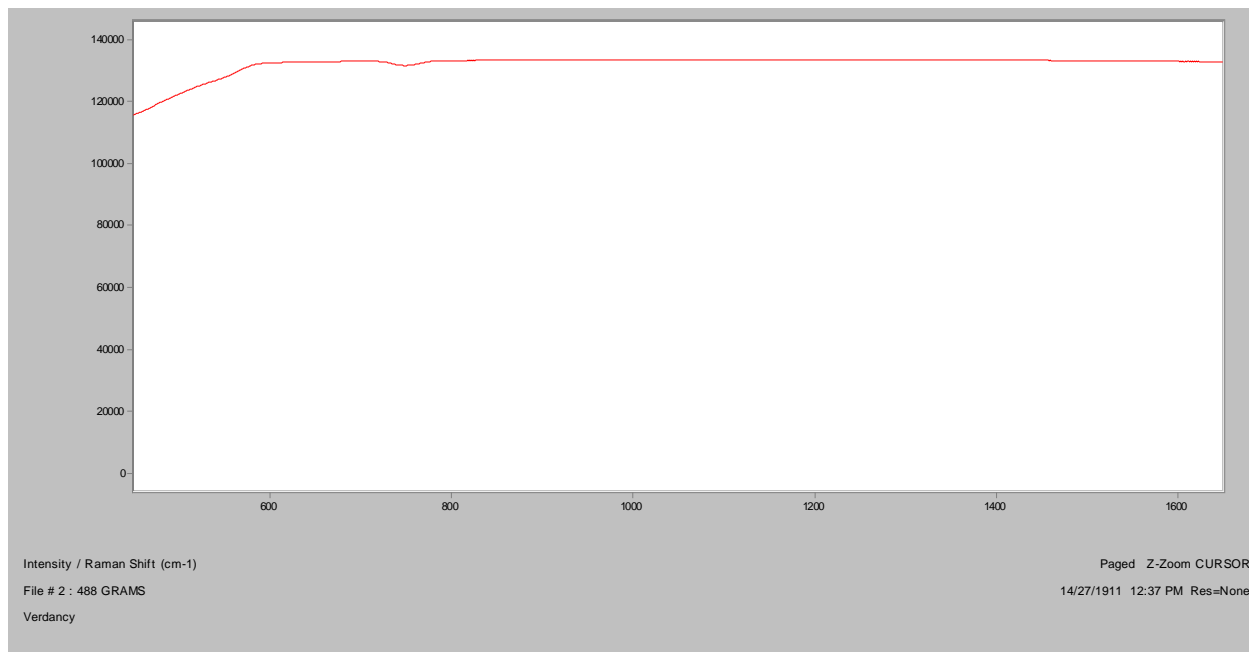


Normal Raman, 785nm

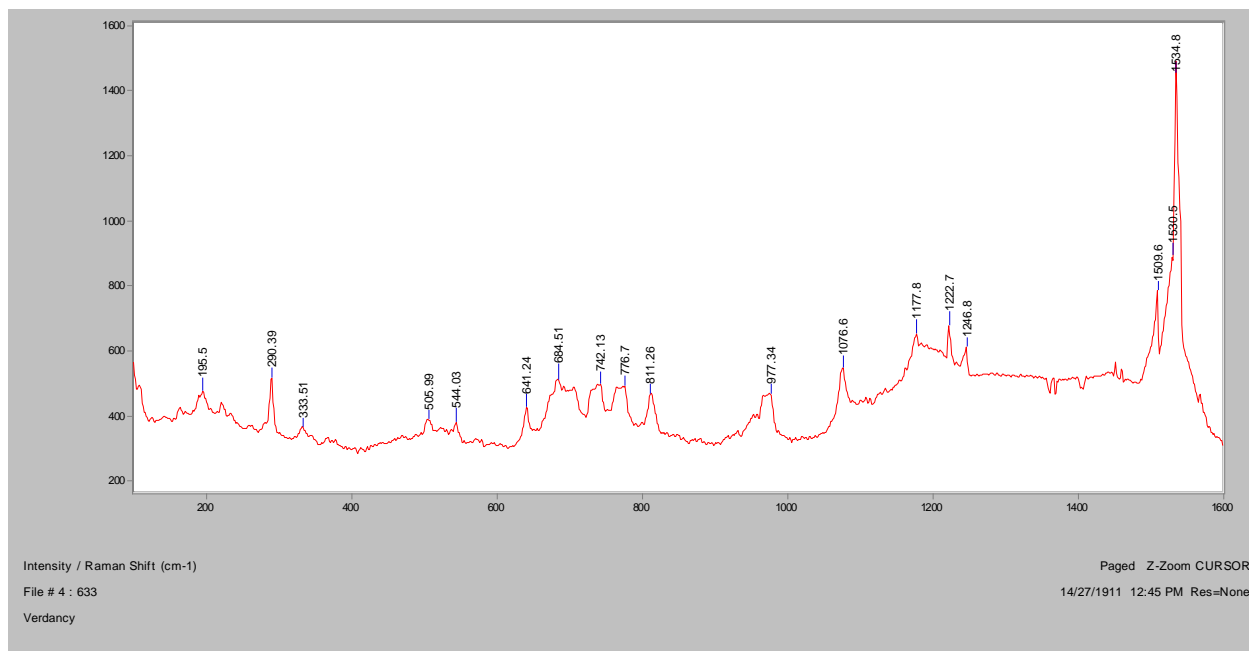


Verdancy

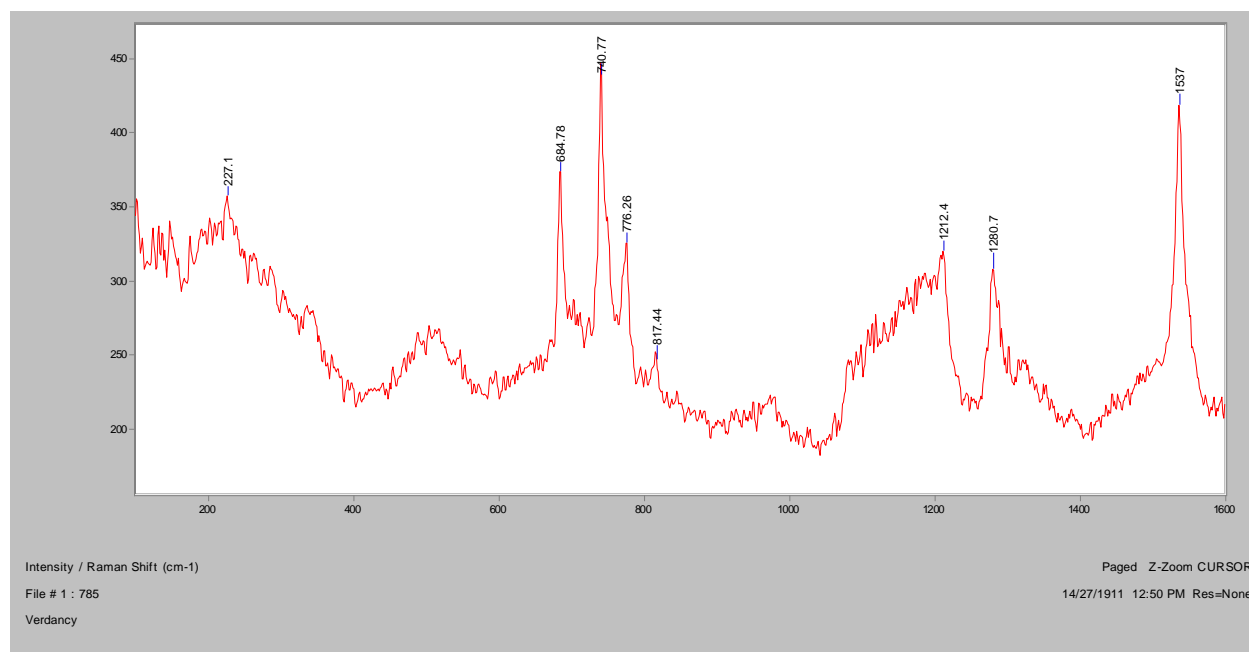
Normal Raman, 488nm



Normal Raman, 633nm

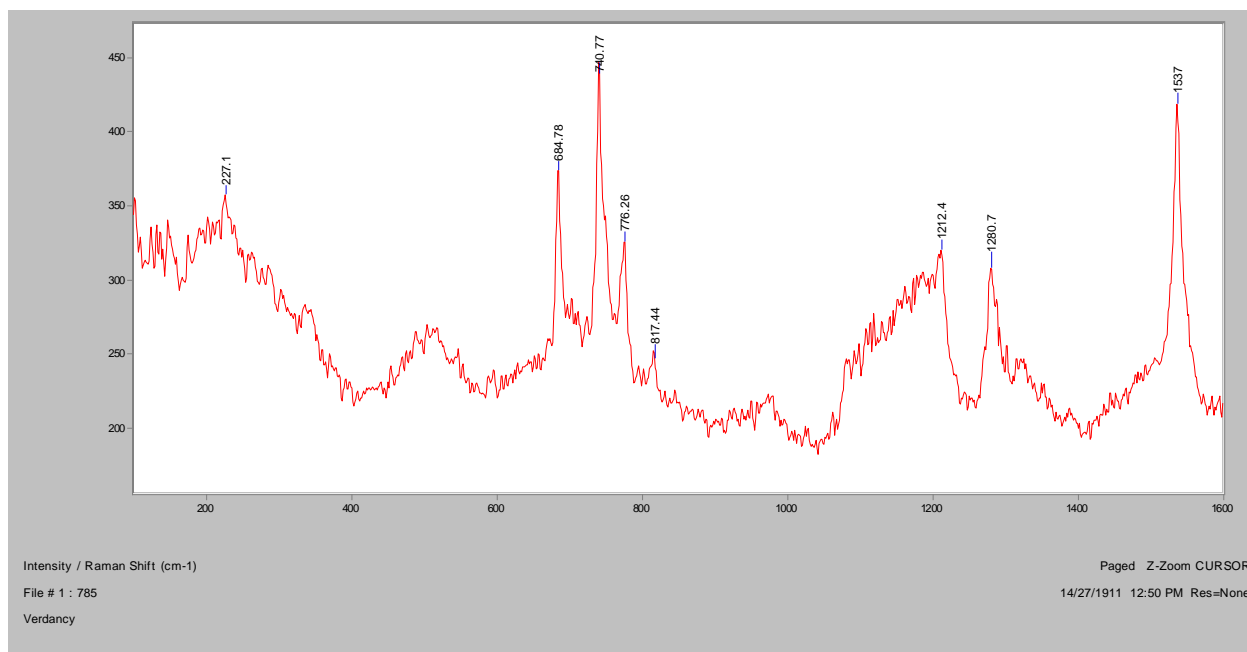


Normal Raman, 785nm

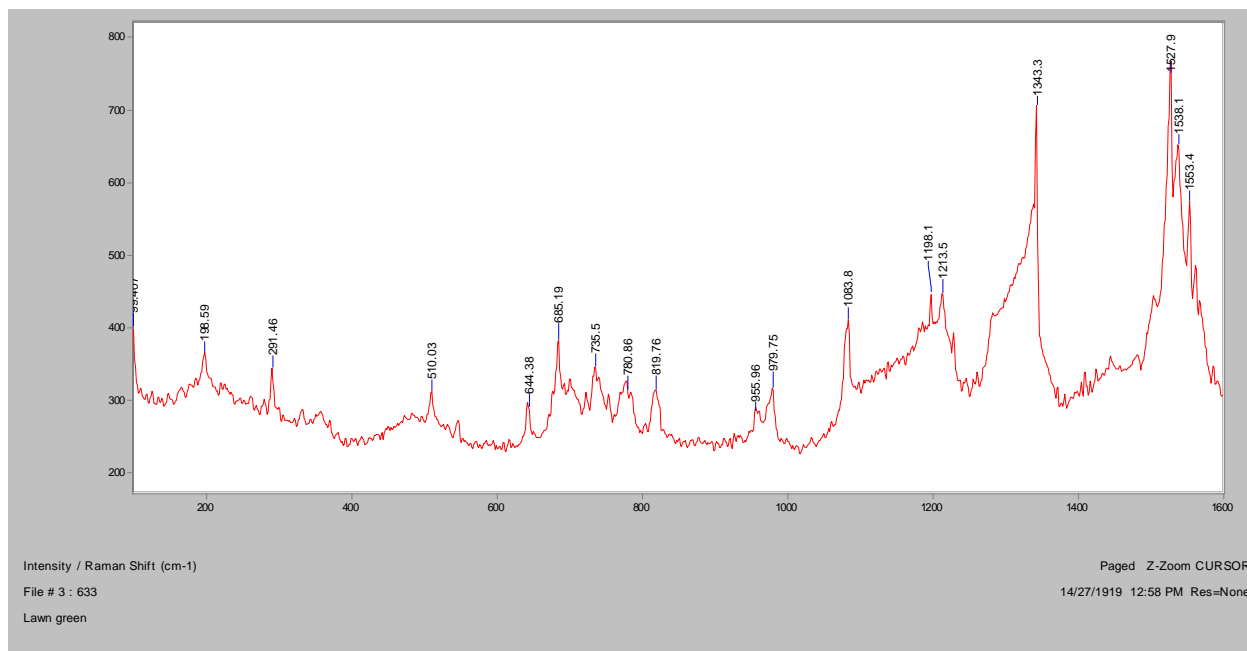


Lawngreen

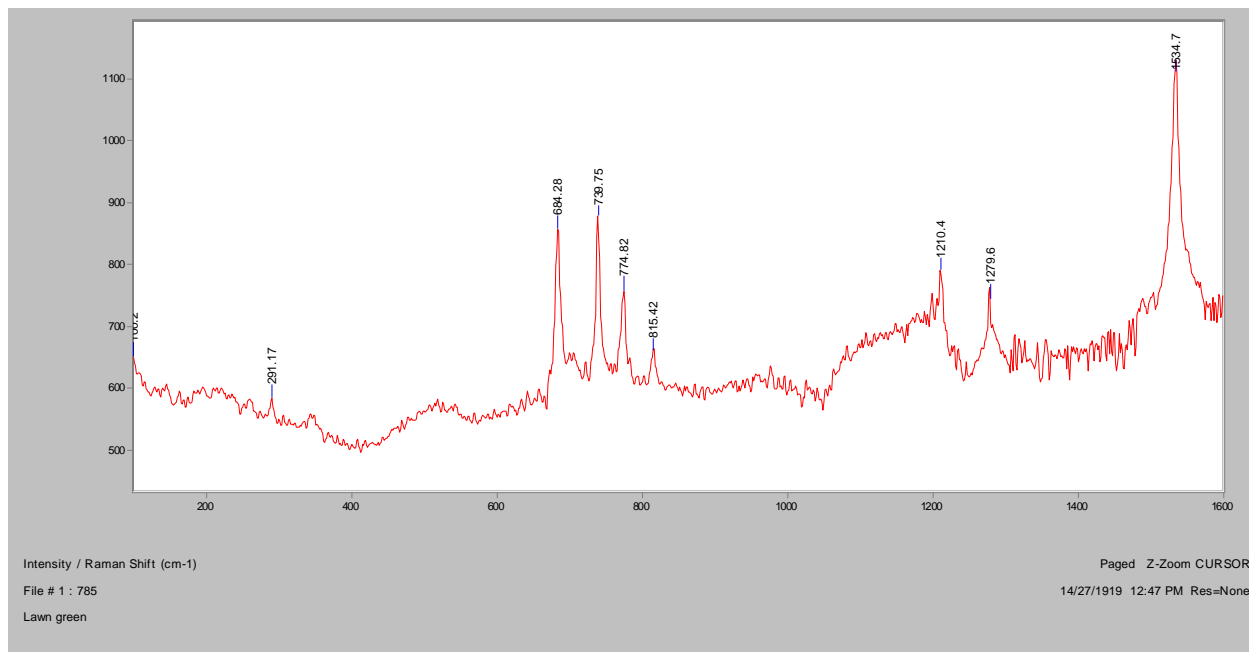
Normal Raman, 488nm



Normal Raman, 633nm

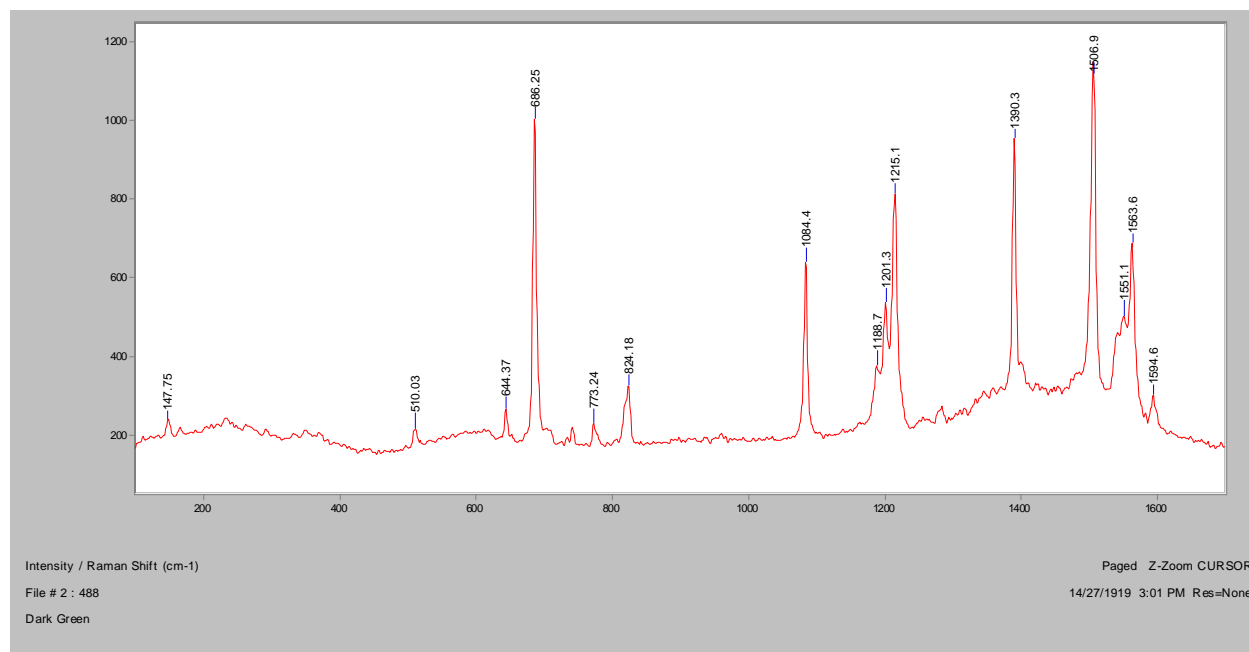


Normal Raman, 785nm

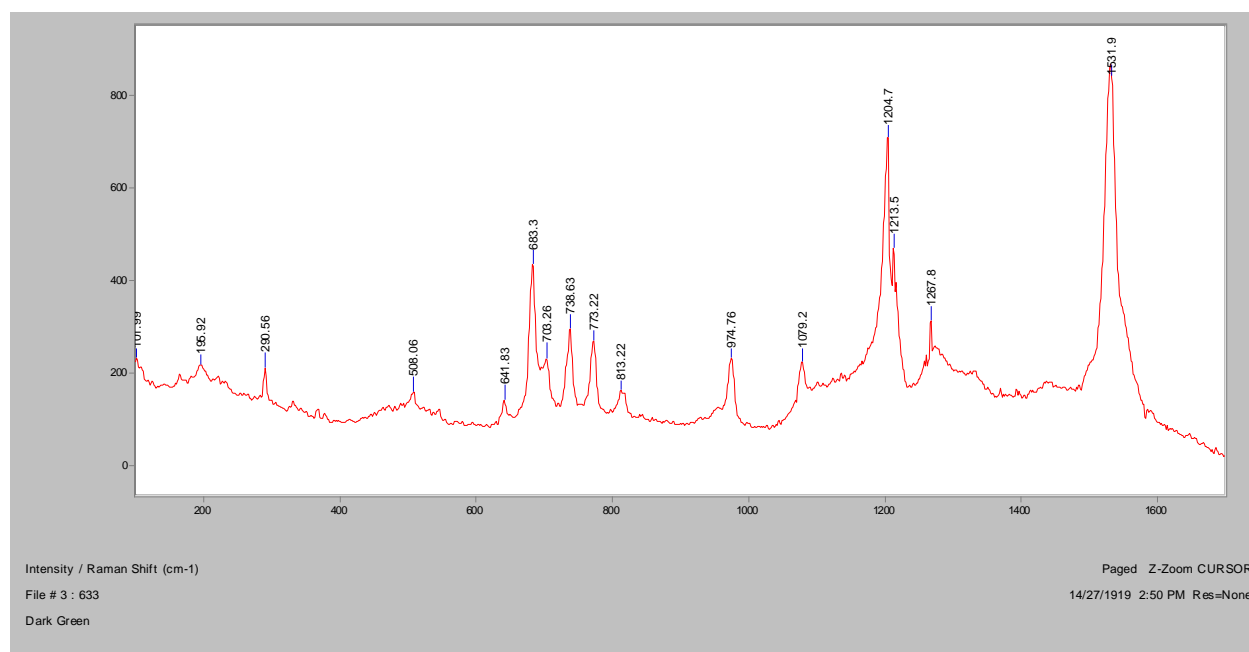


Dark Green

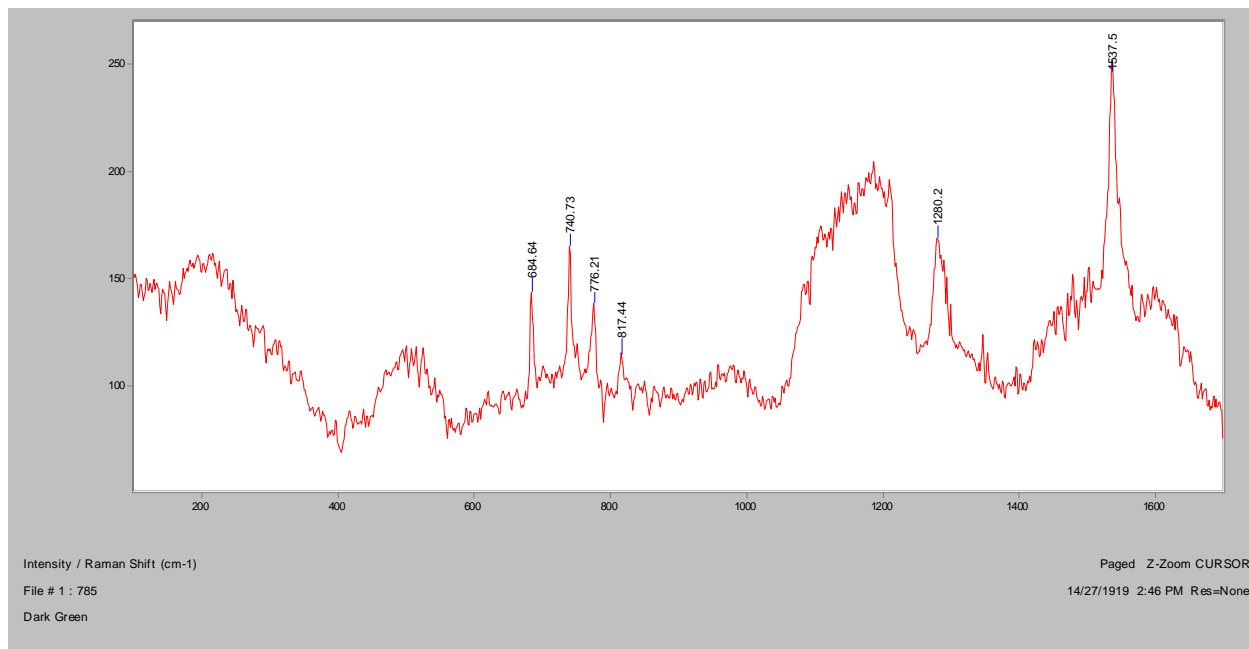
Normal Raman, 488nm



Normal Raman, 633nm

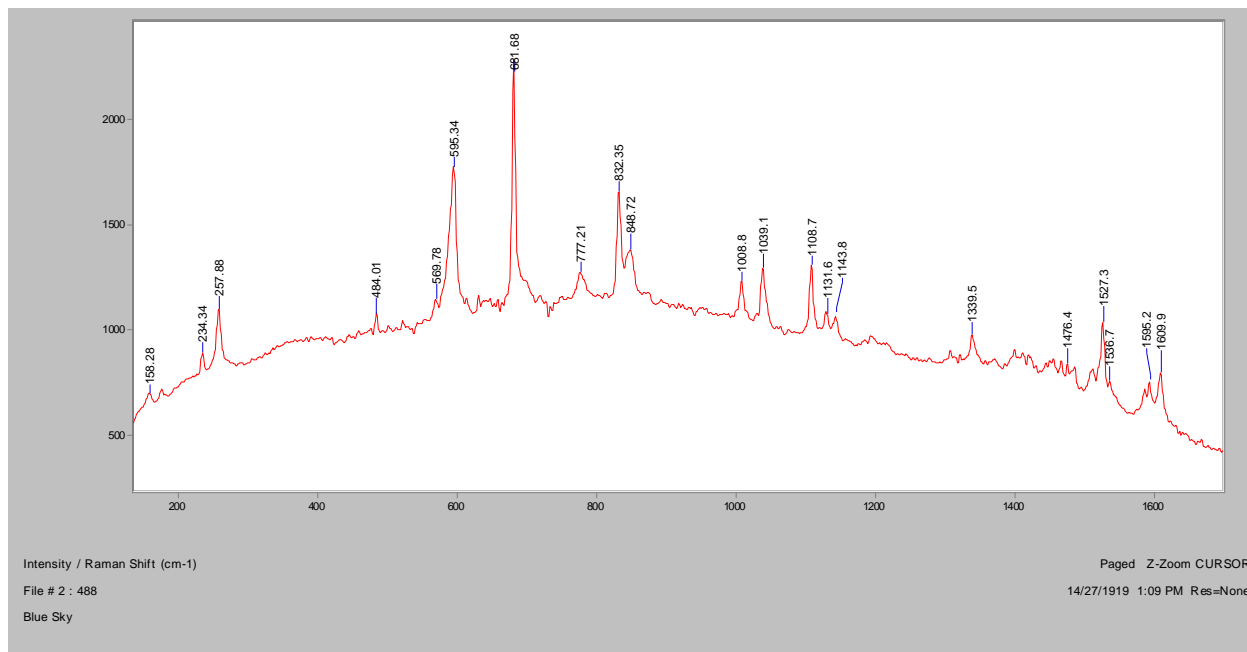


Normal Raman, 785nm

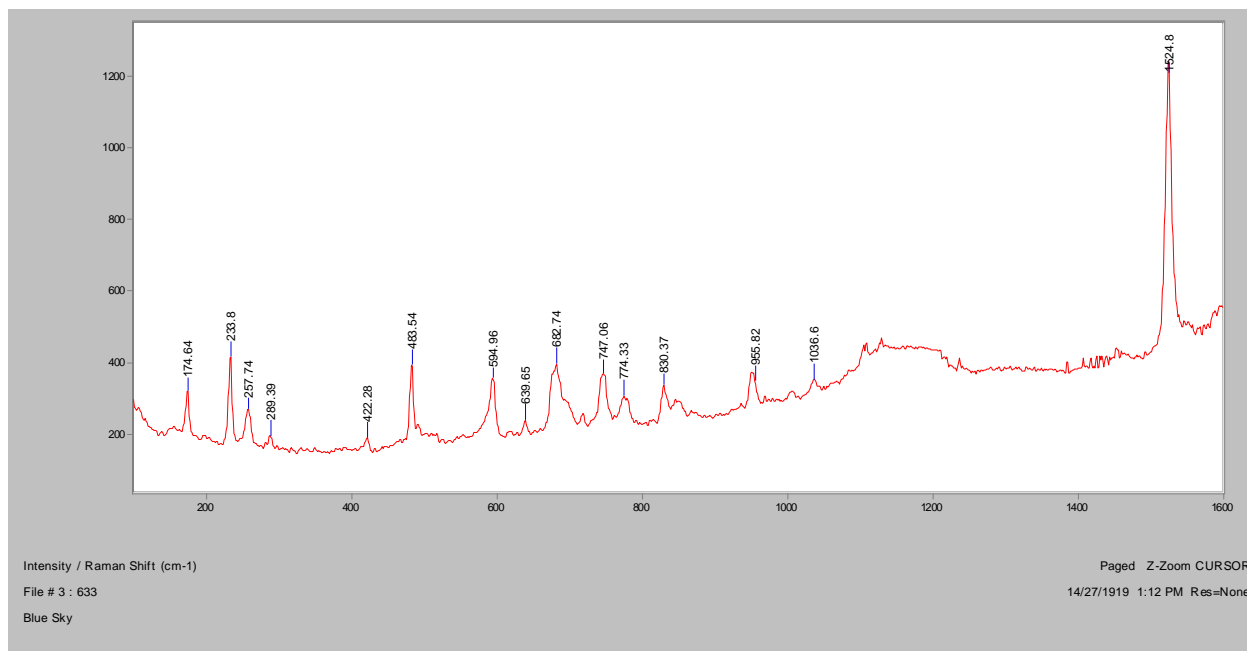


Blue Sky

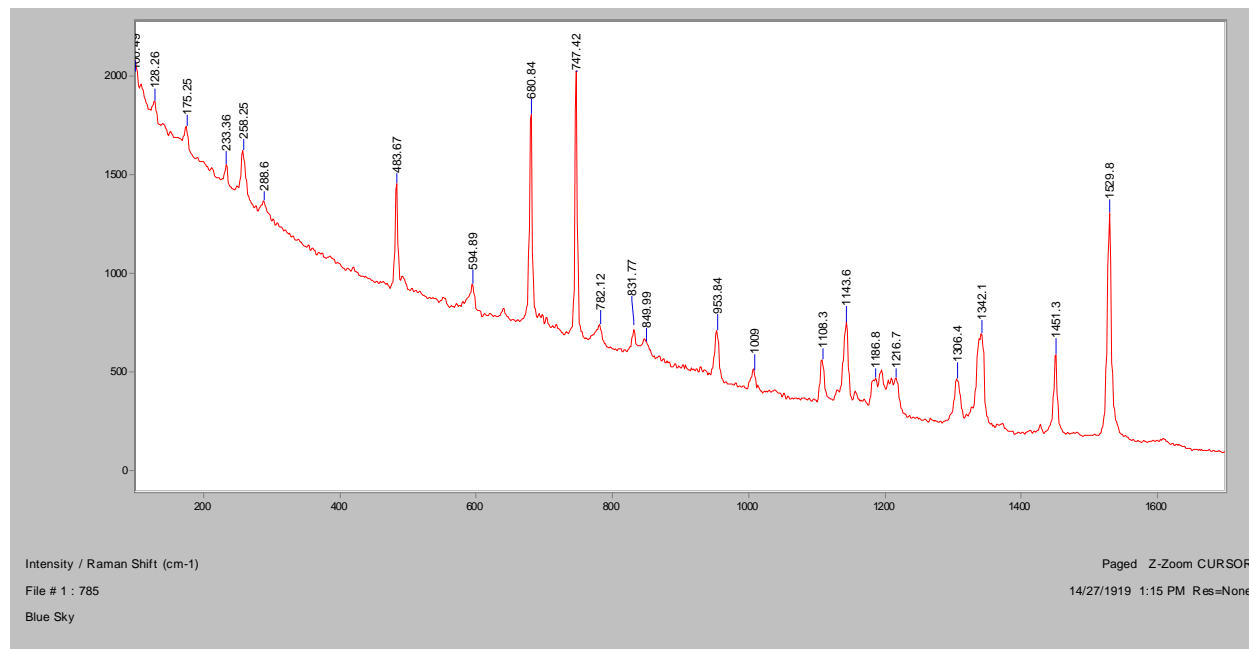
Normal Raman, 488nm



Normal Raman, 633nm

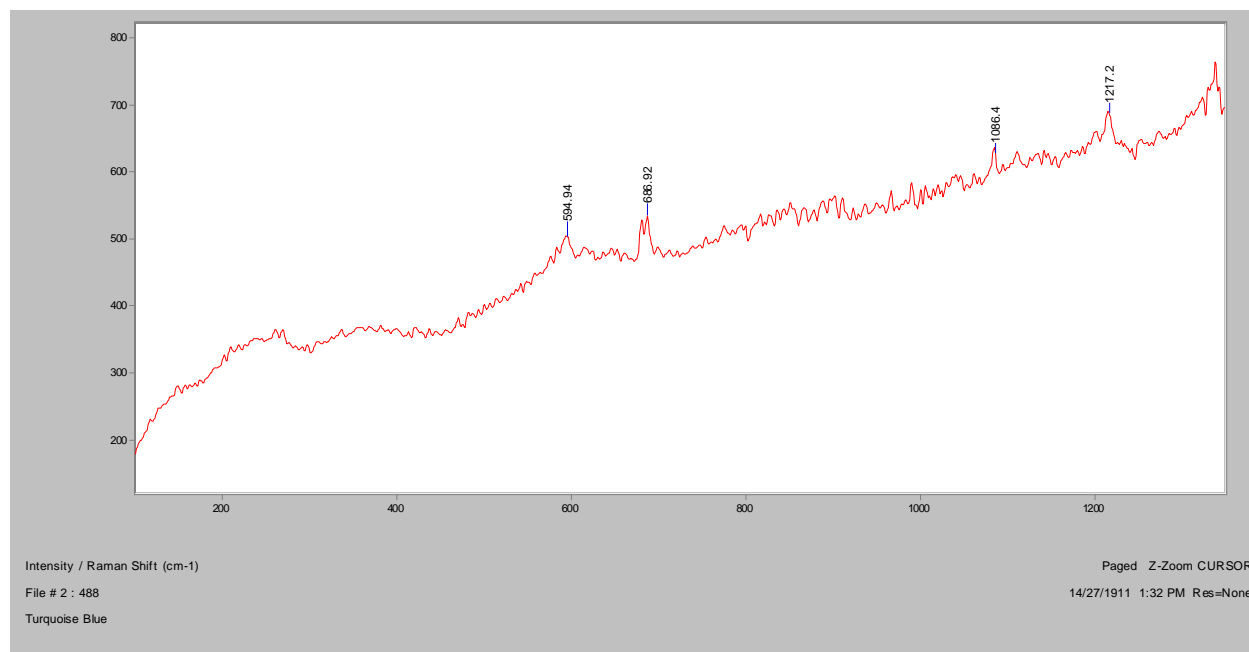


Normal Raman, 785nm

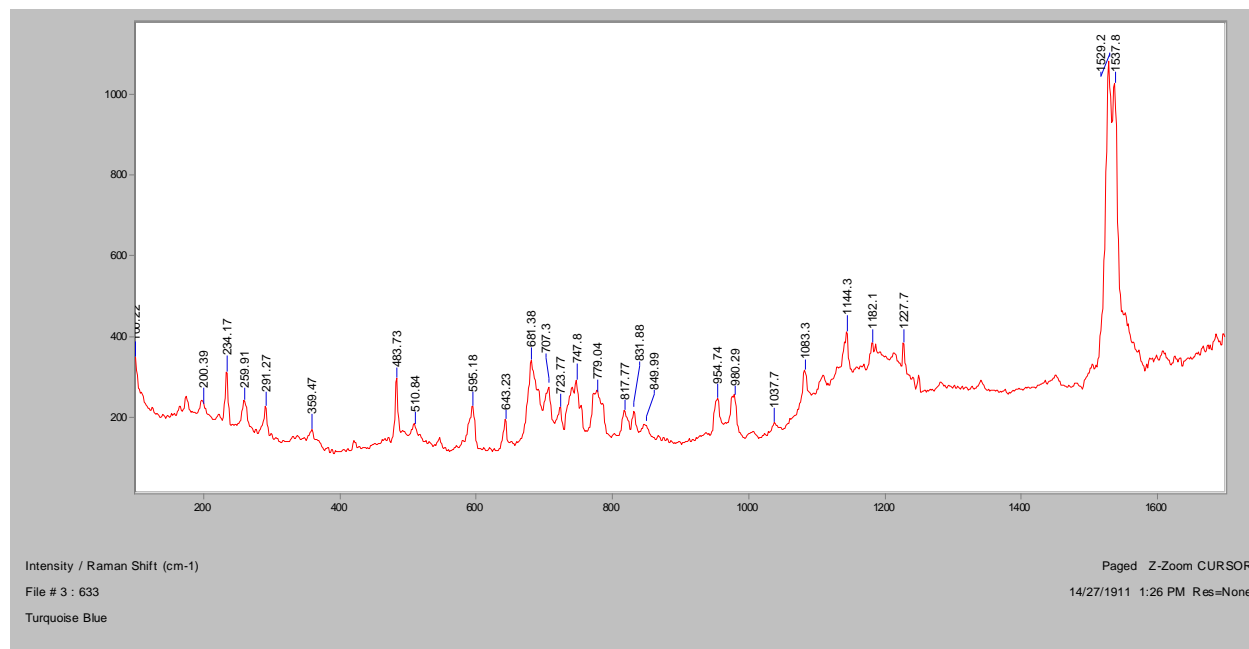


Turquoise Blue

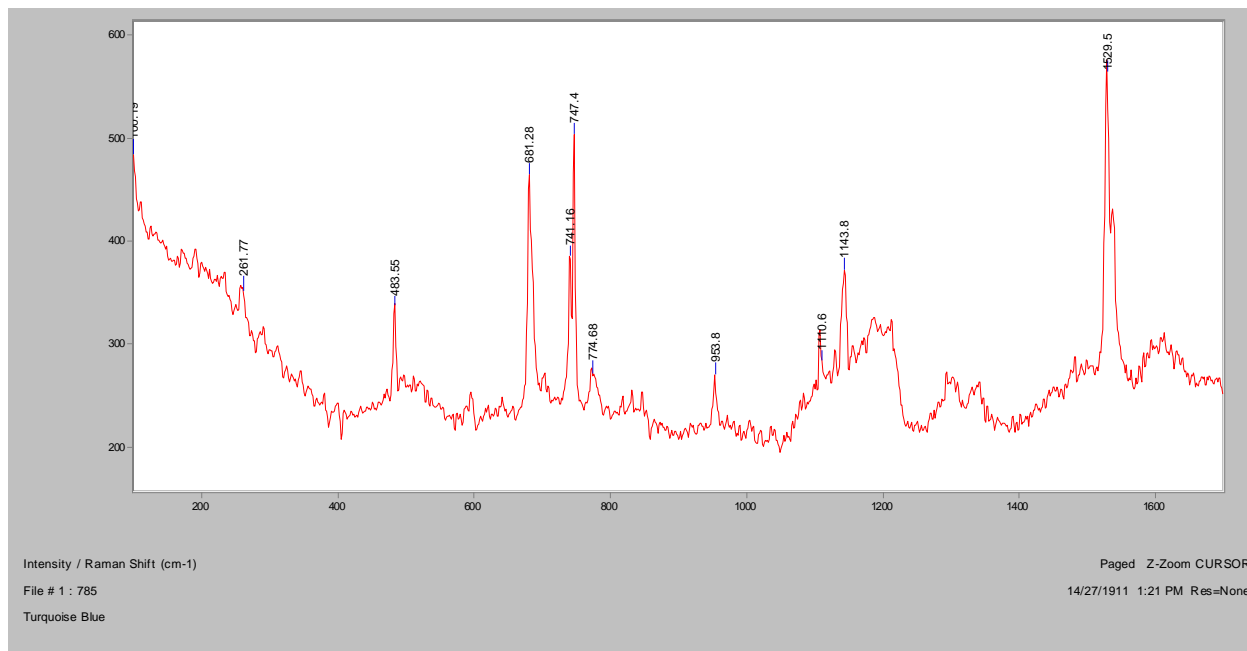
Normal Raman, 488nm



Normal Raman, 633nm

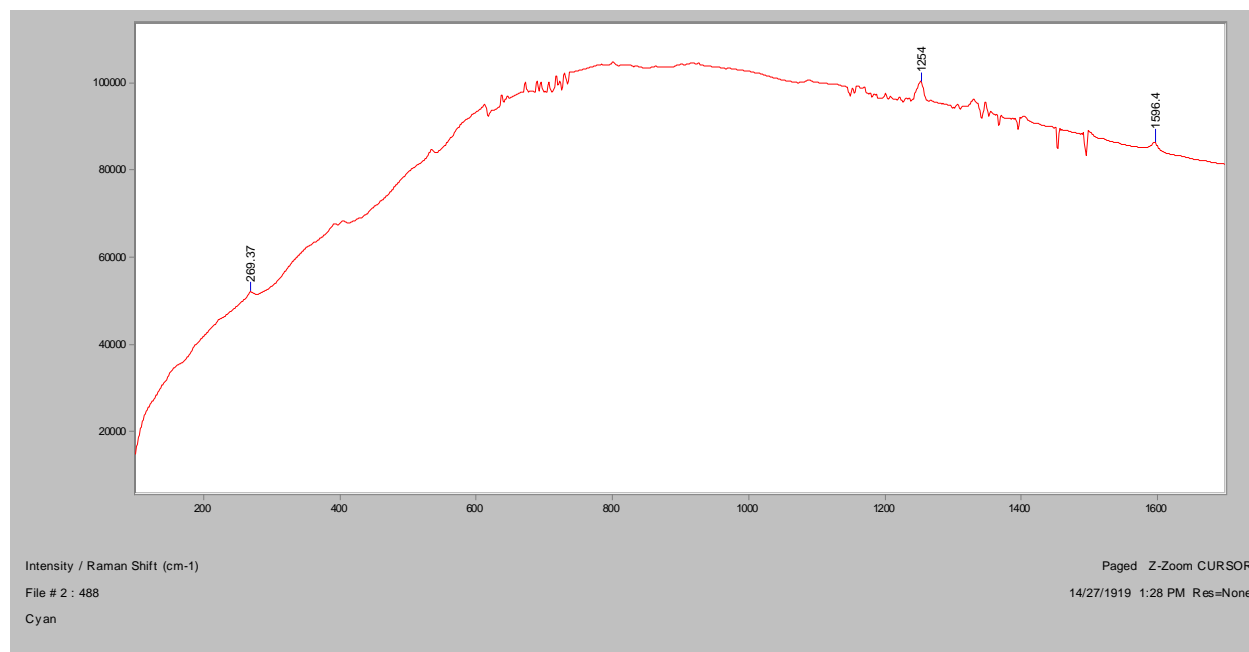


Normal Raman, 785nm

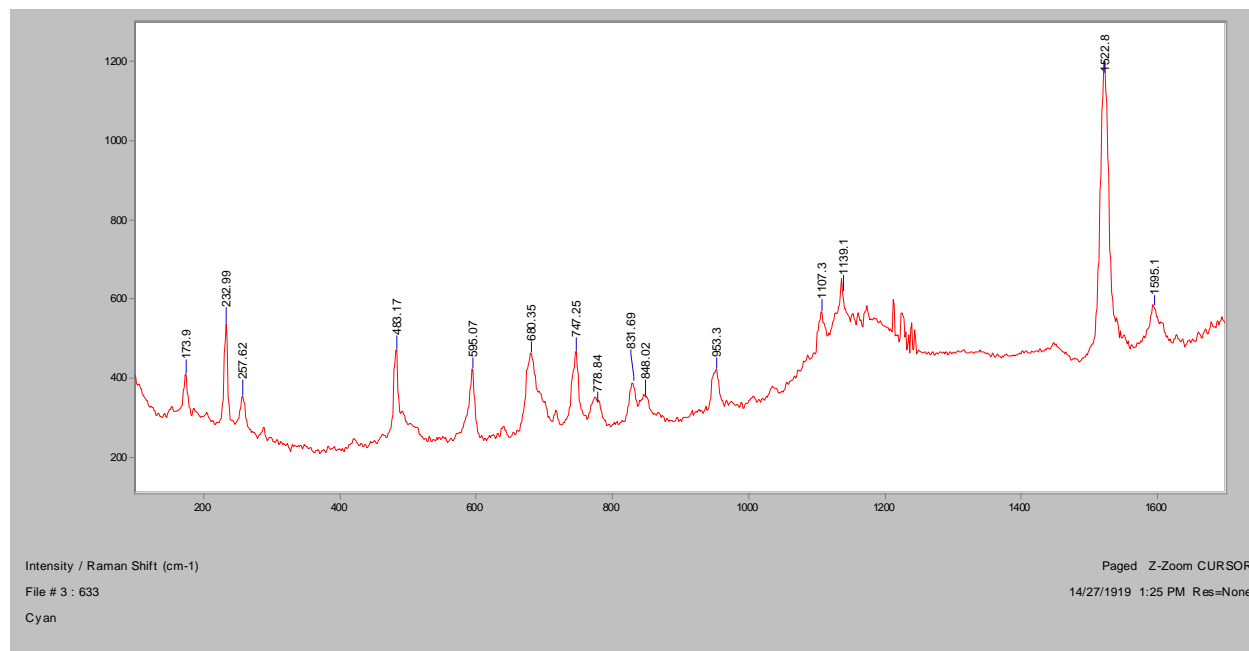


Cyan

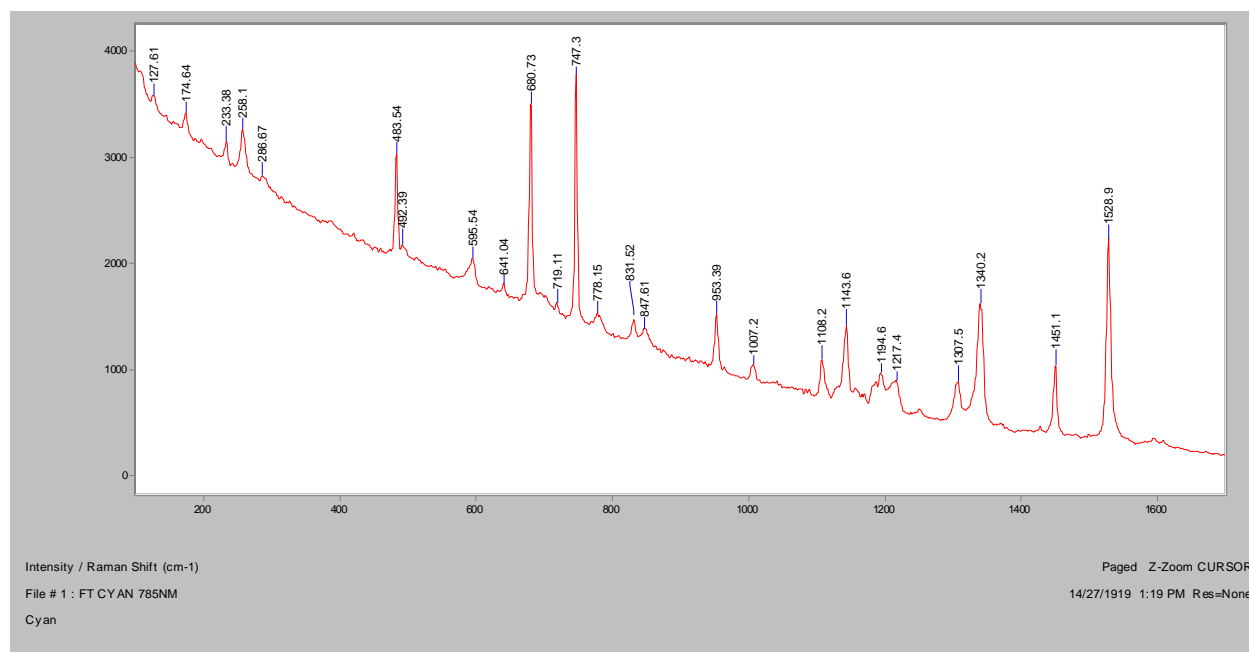
Normal Raman, 488nm



Normal Raman, 633nm

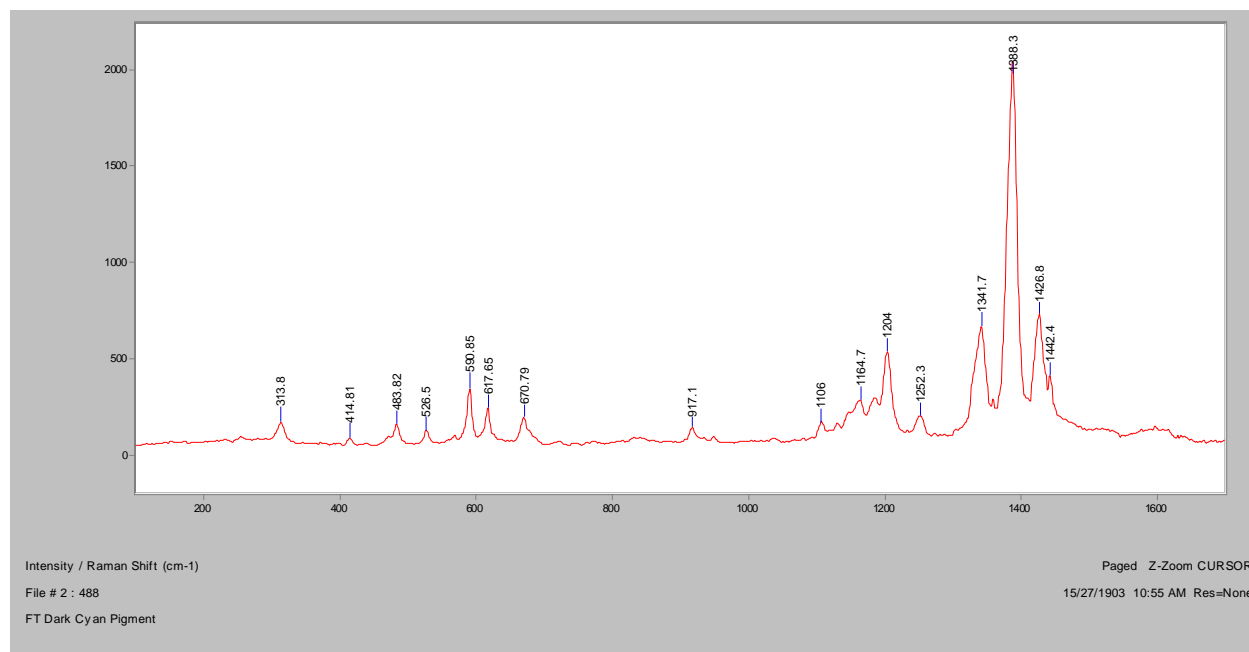


Normal Raman, 785nm

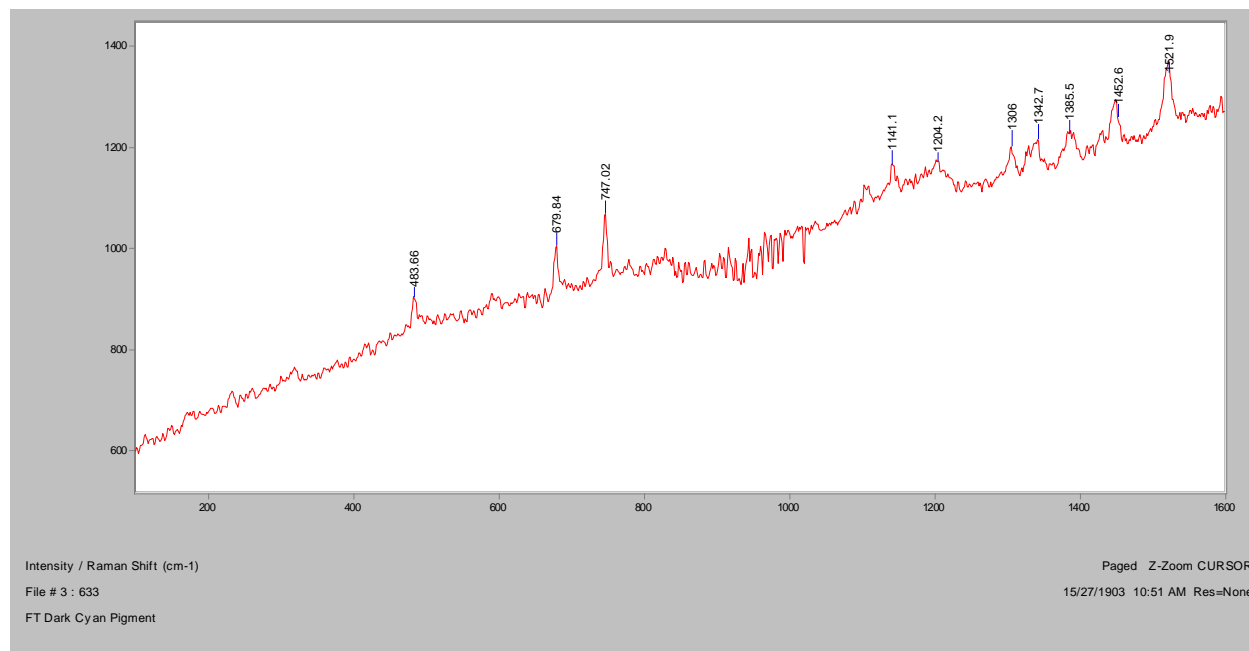


Dark Cyan

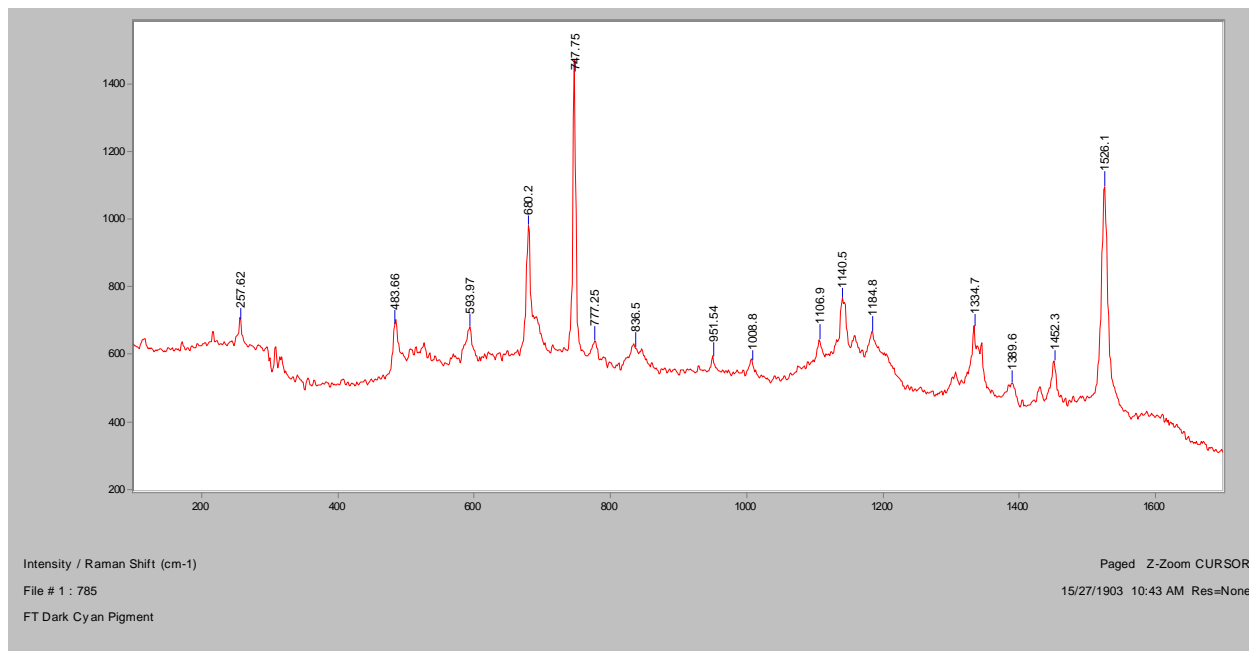
Normal Raman, 488nm



Normal Raman, 633nm

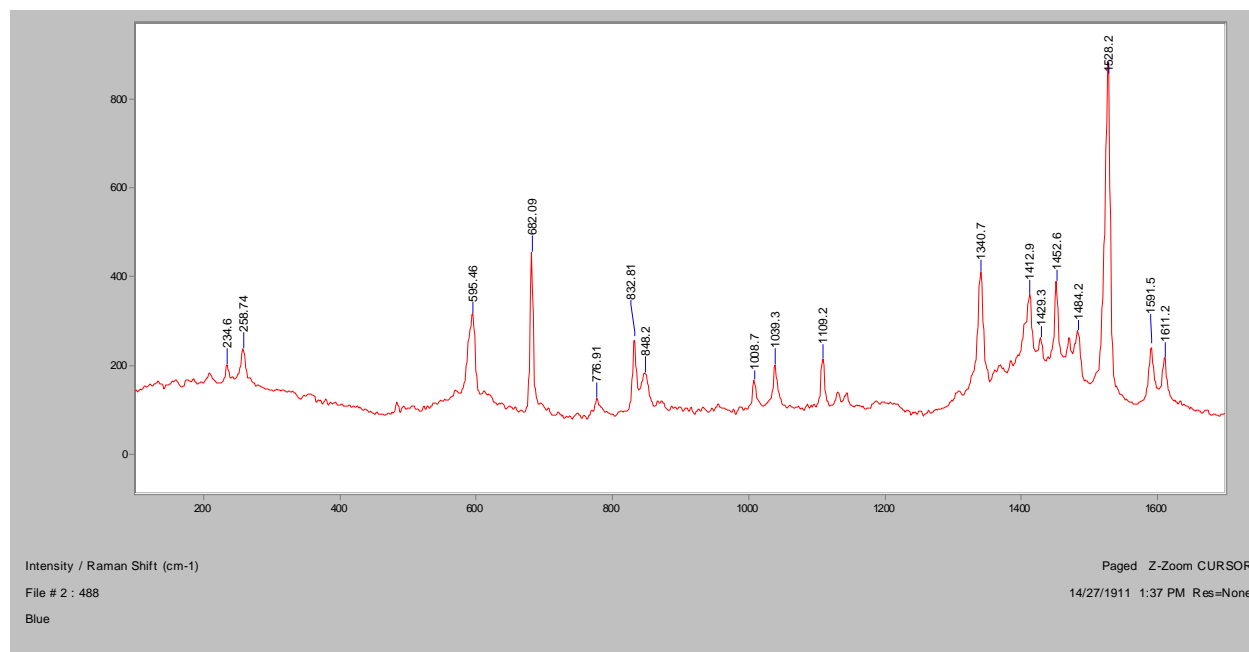


Normal Raman, 785nm

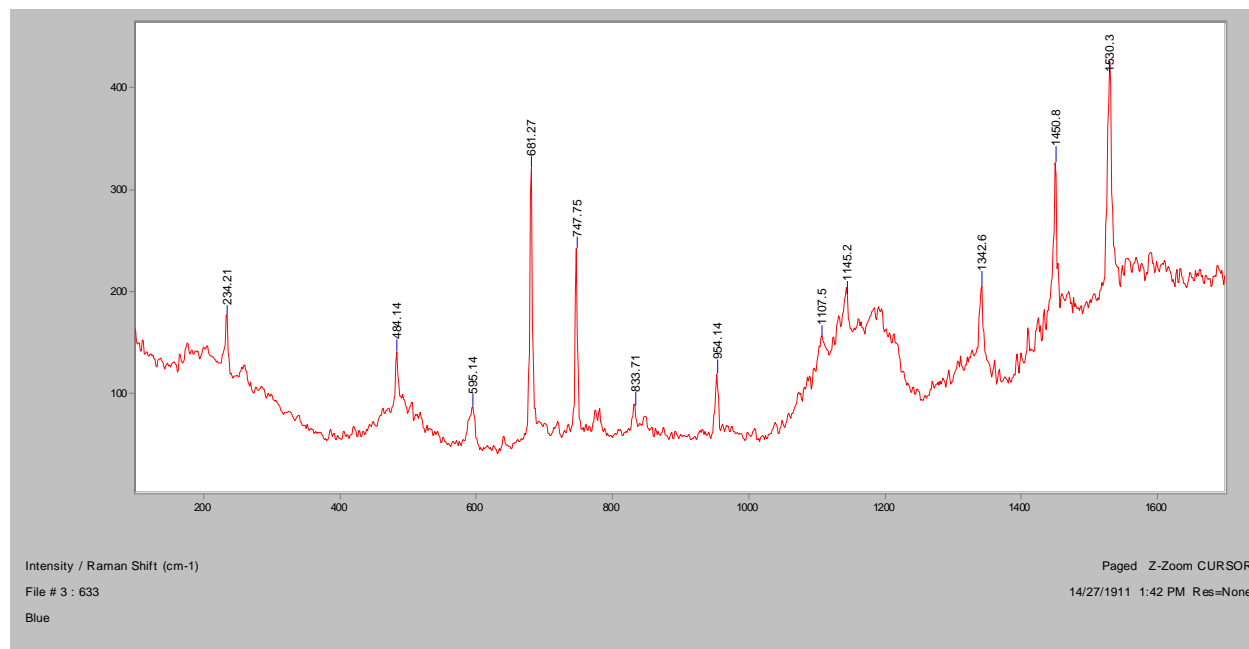


Blue

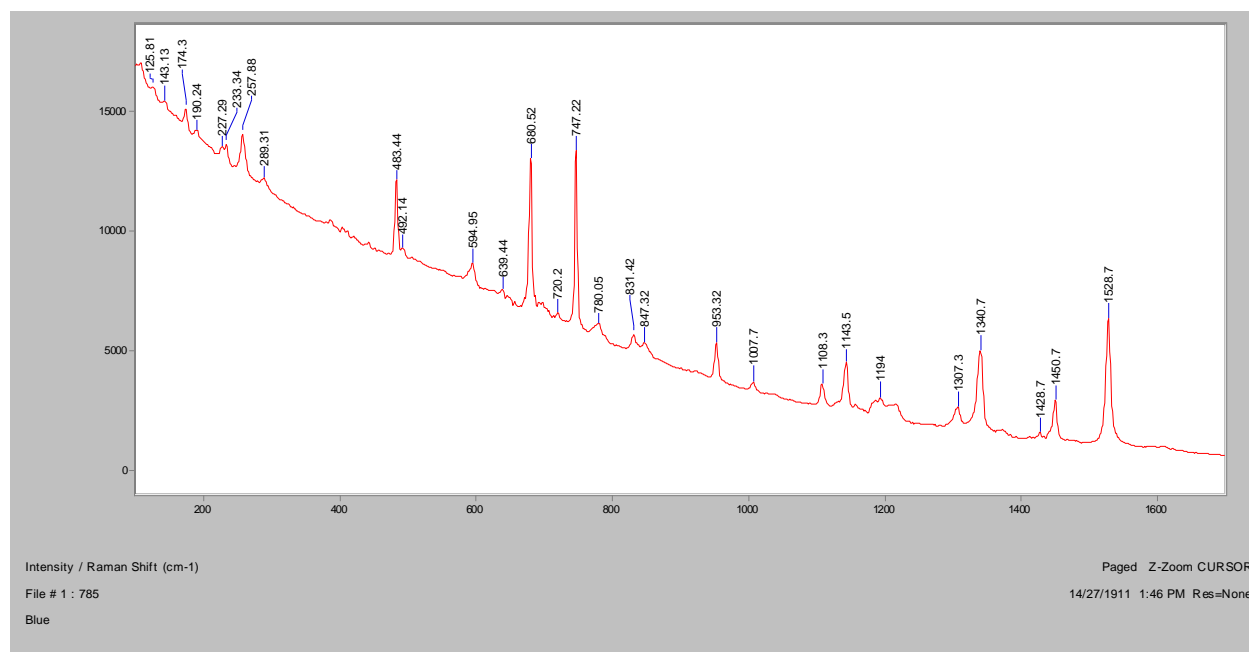
Normal Raman, 488nm



Normal Raman, 633nm

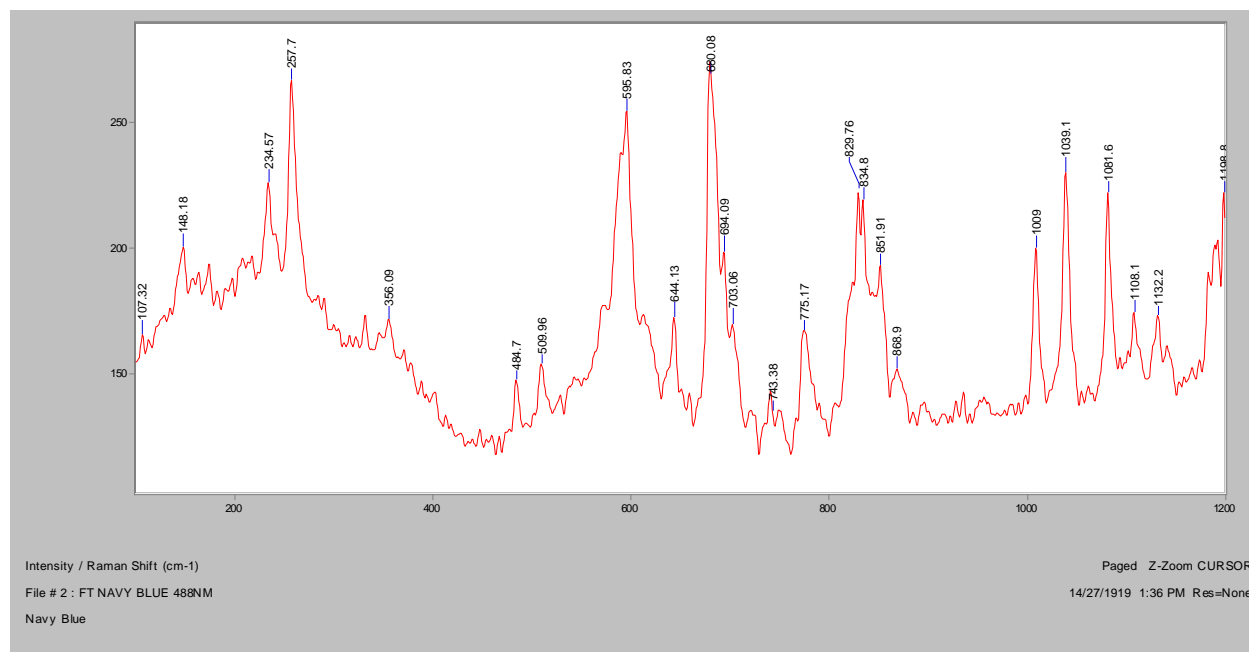


Normal Raman, 785nm

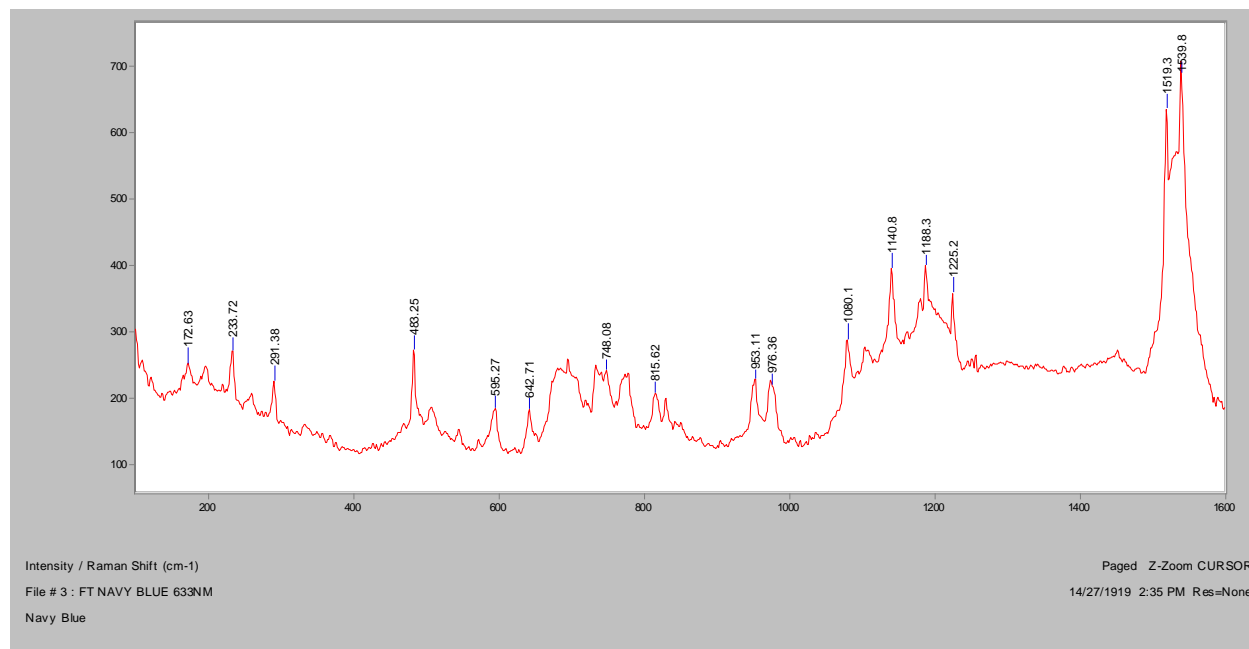


Navy Blue

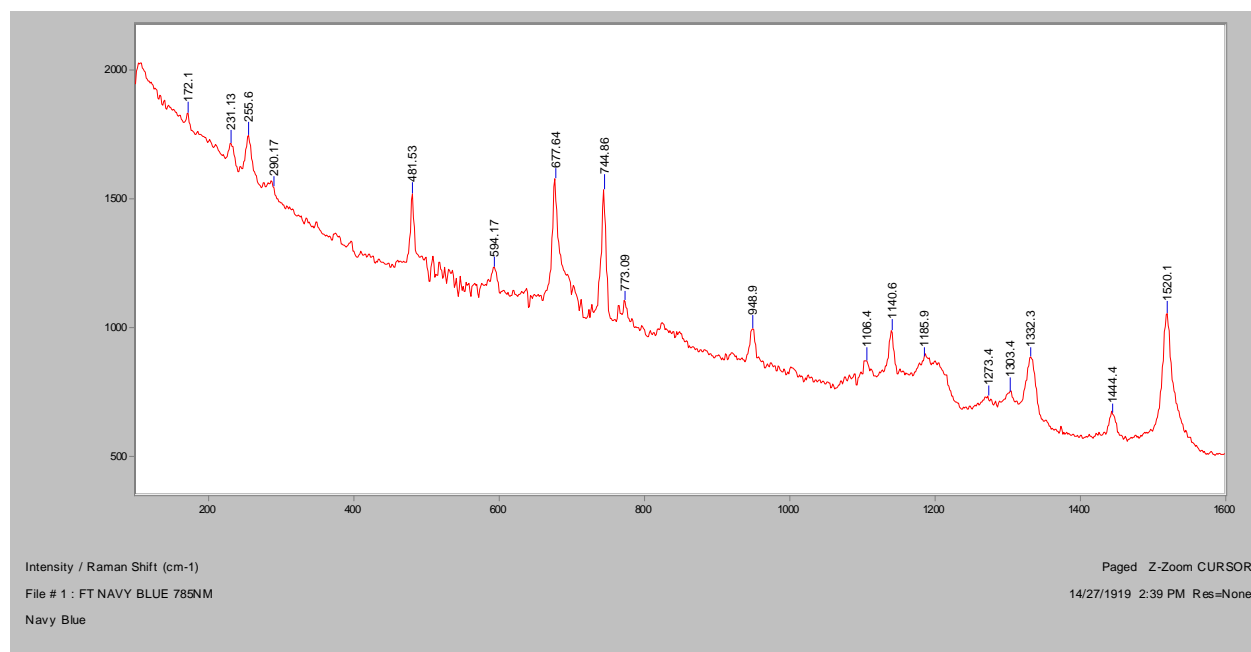
Normal Raman, 488nm



Normal Raman, 633nm

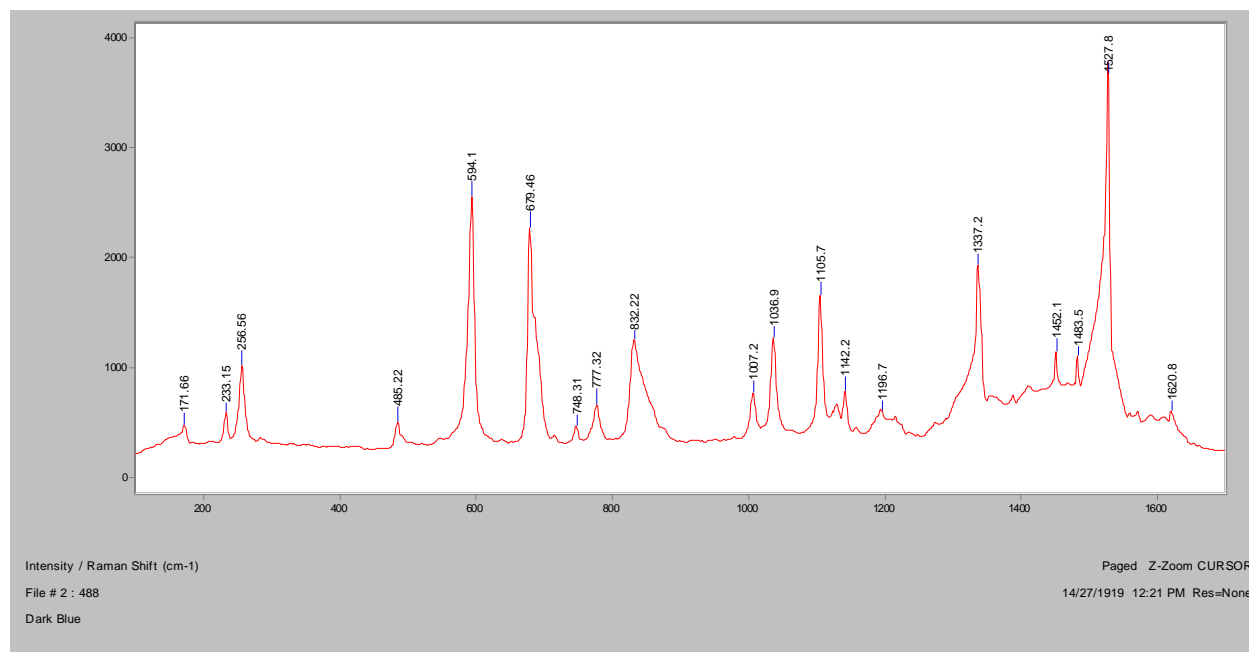


Normal Raman, 785nm

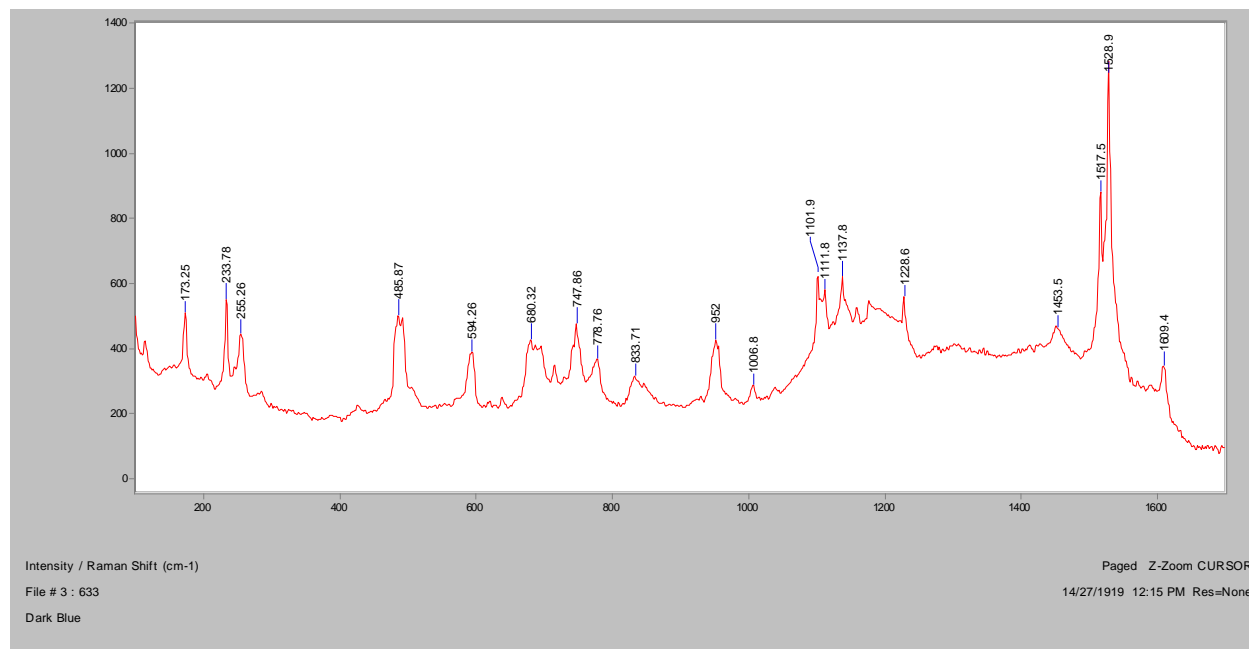


Dark Blue

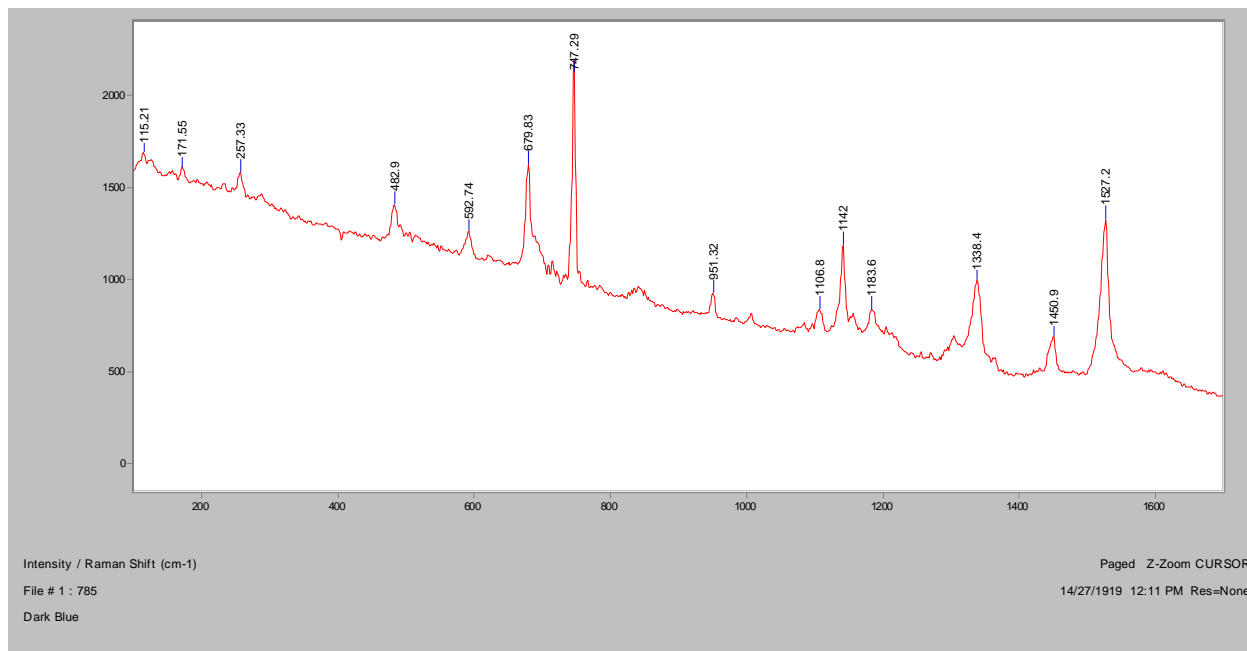
Normal Raman, 488nm



Normal Raman, 633nm

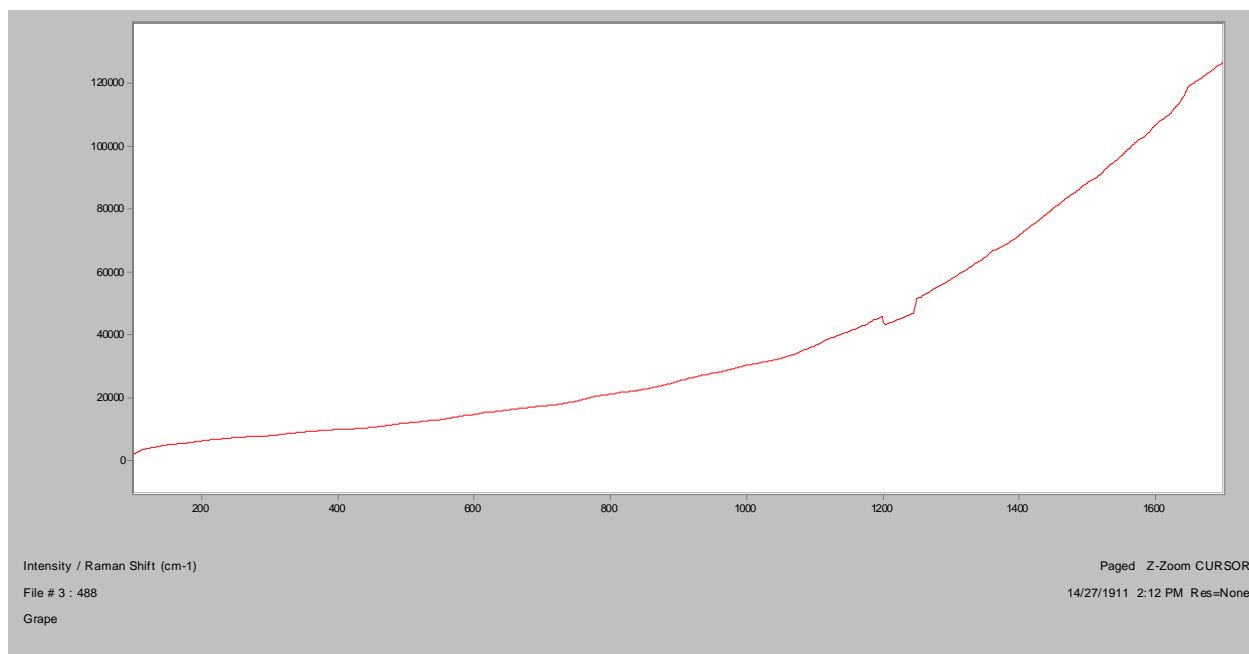


Normal Raman, 785nm

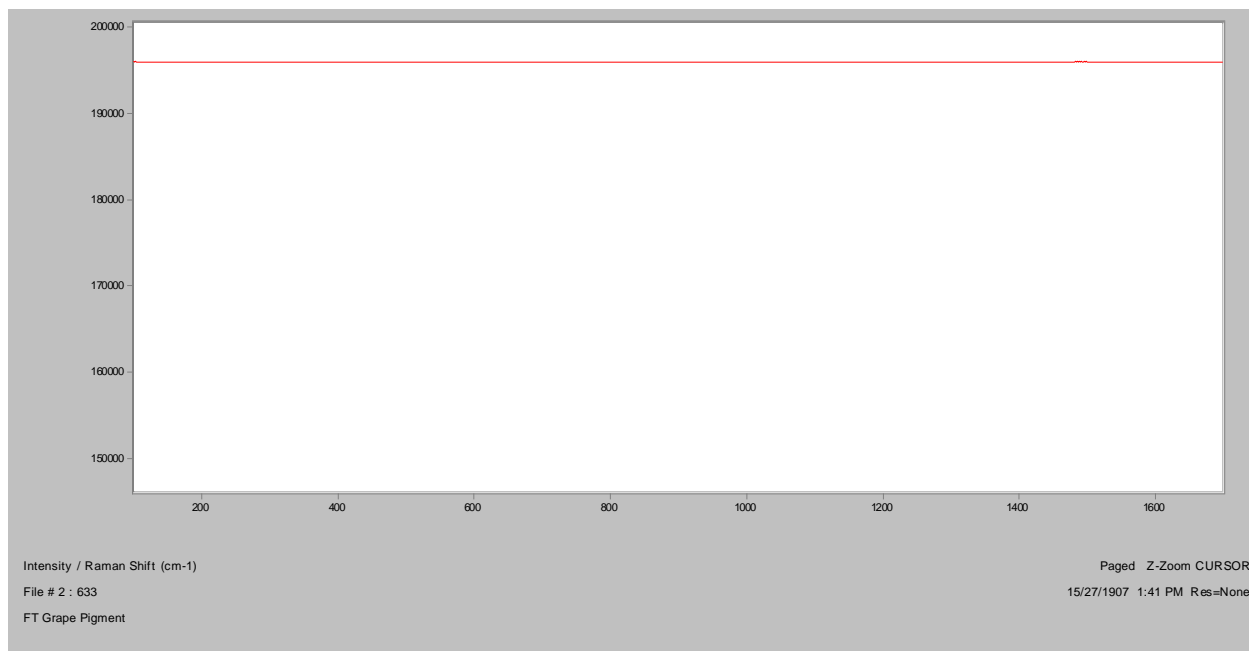


Grape

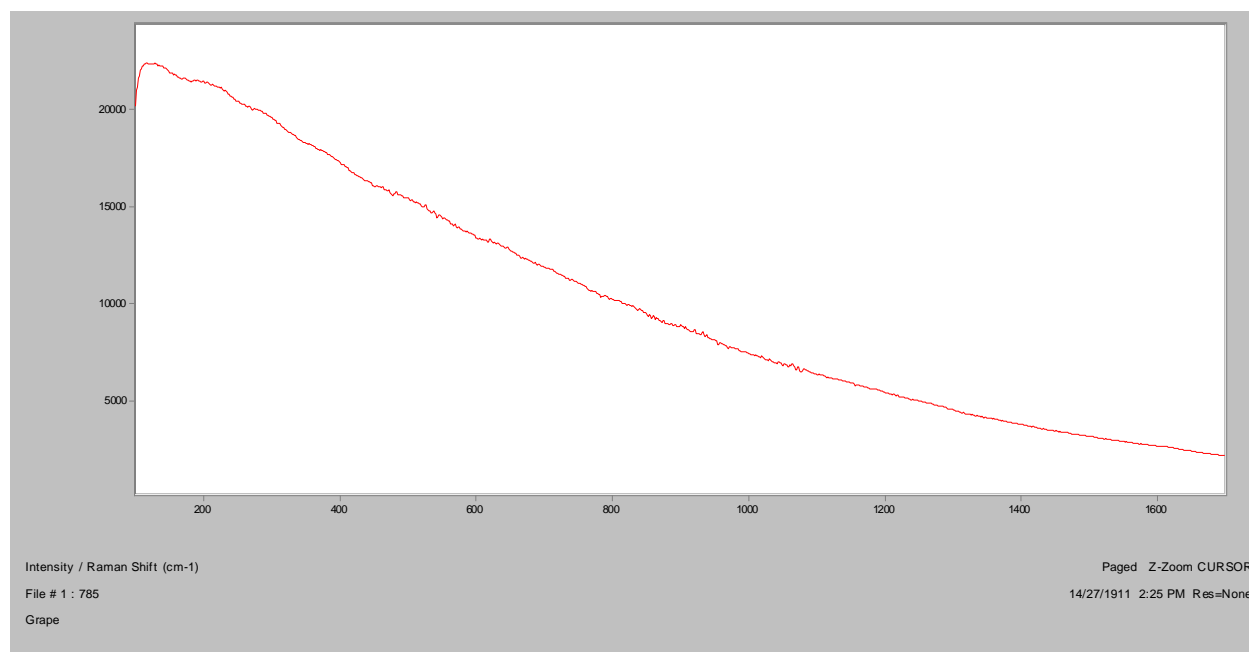
Normal Raman, 488nm



Normal Raman, 633nm

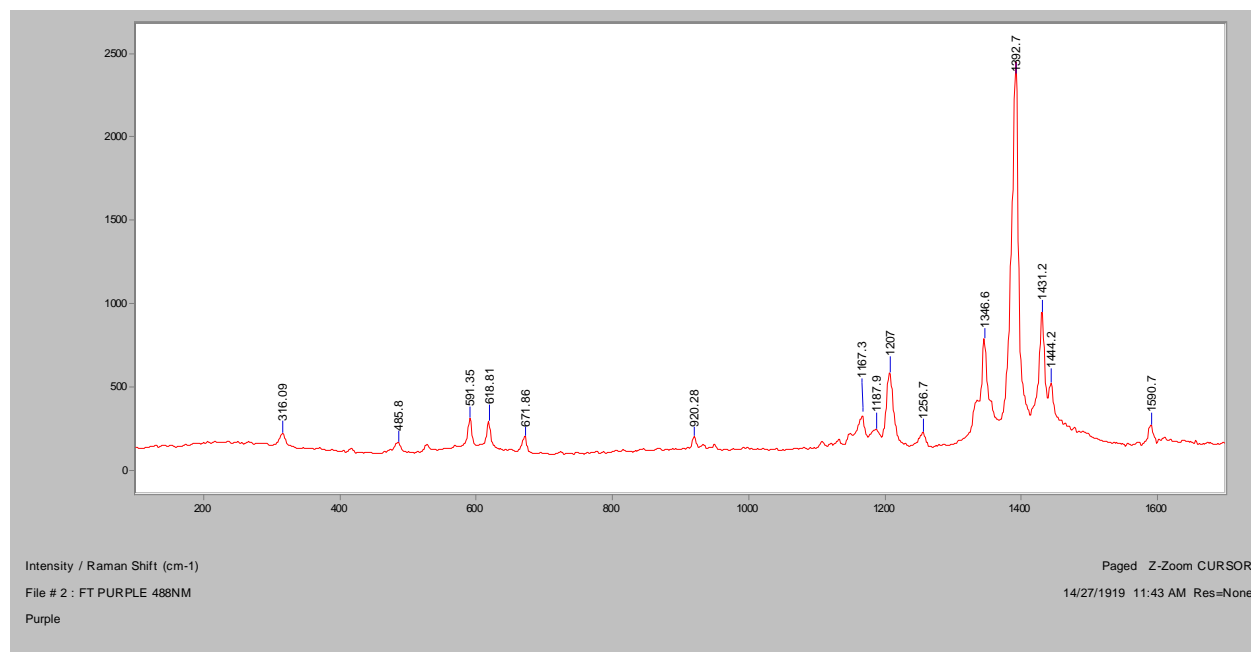


Normal Raman, 785nm

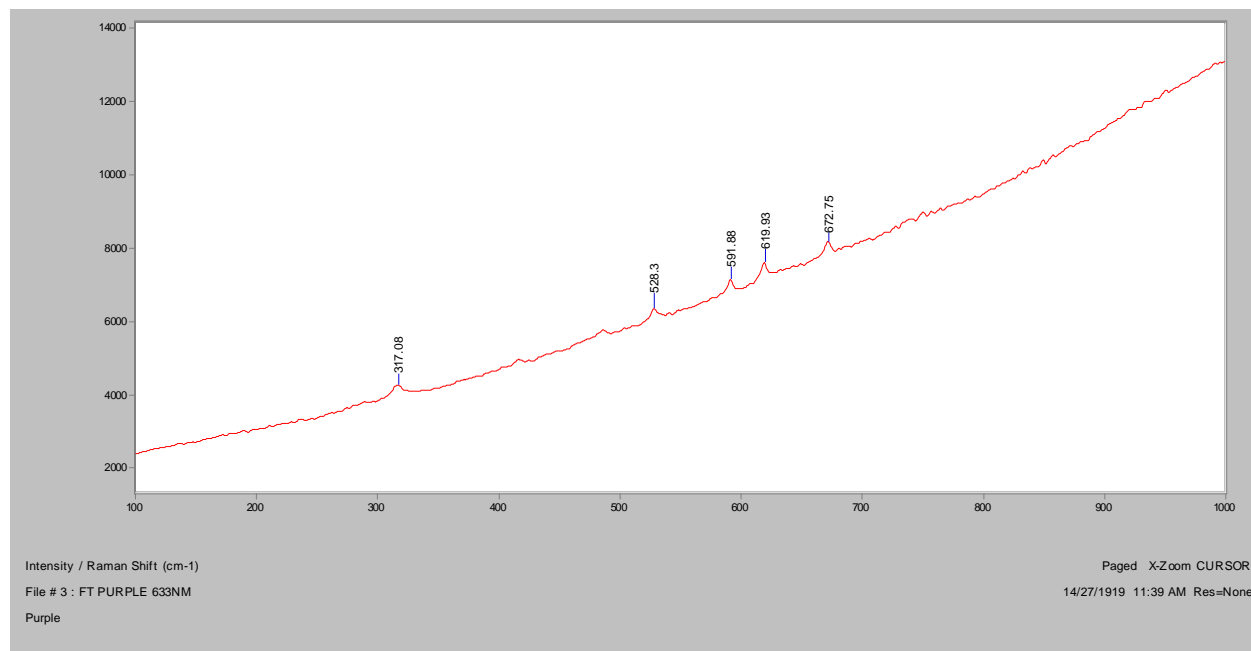


Purple

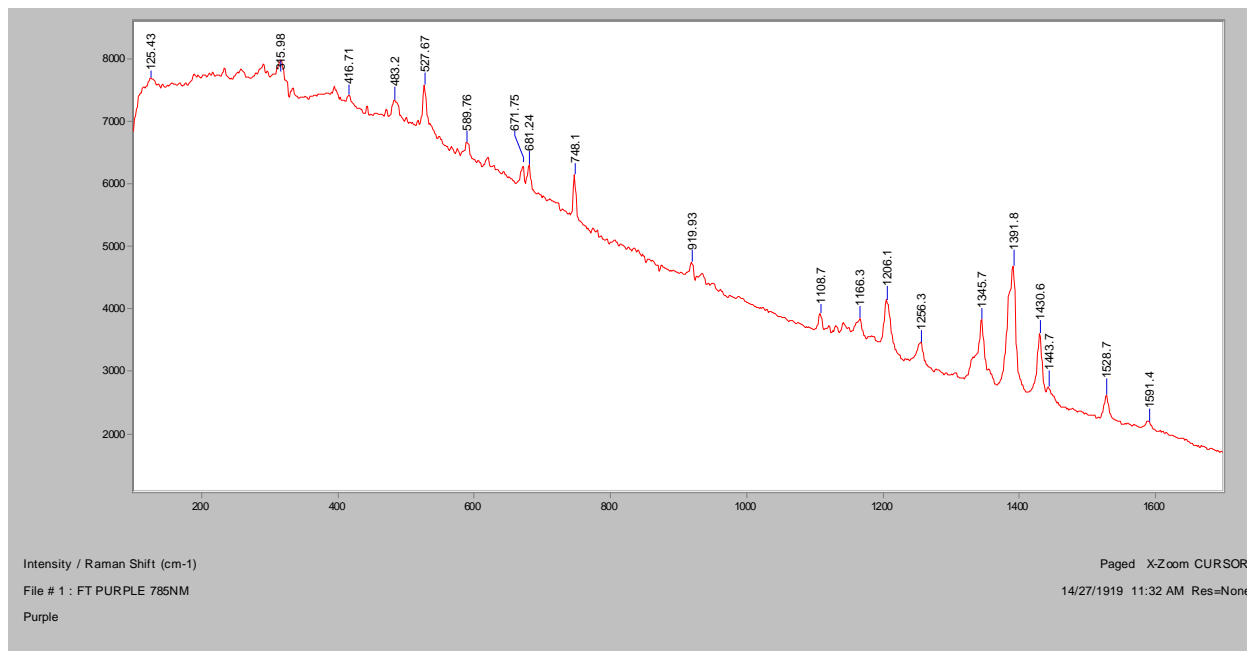
Normal Raman, 488nm



Normal Raman, 633nm

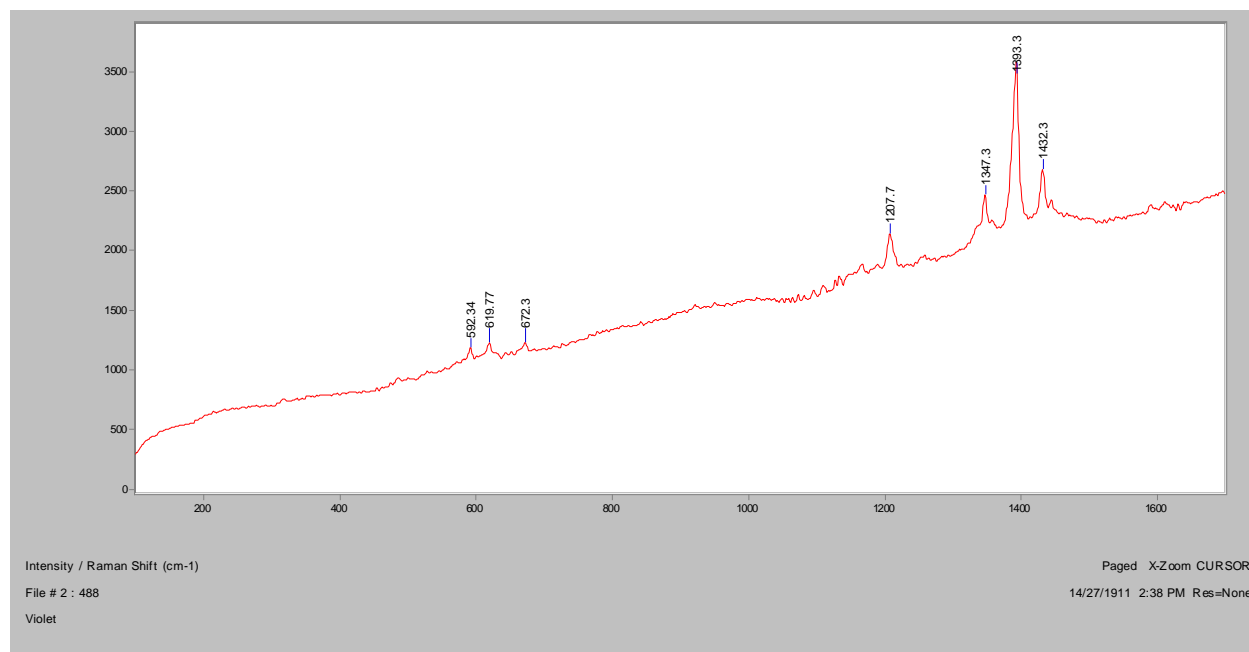


Normal Raman, 785nm

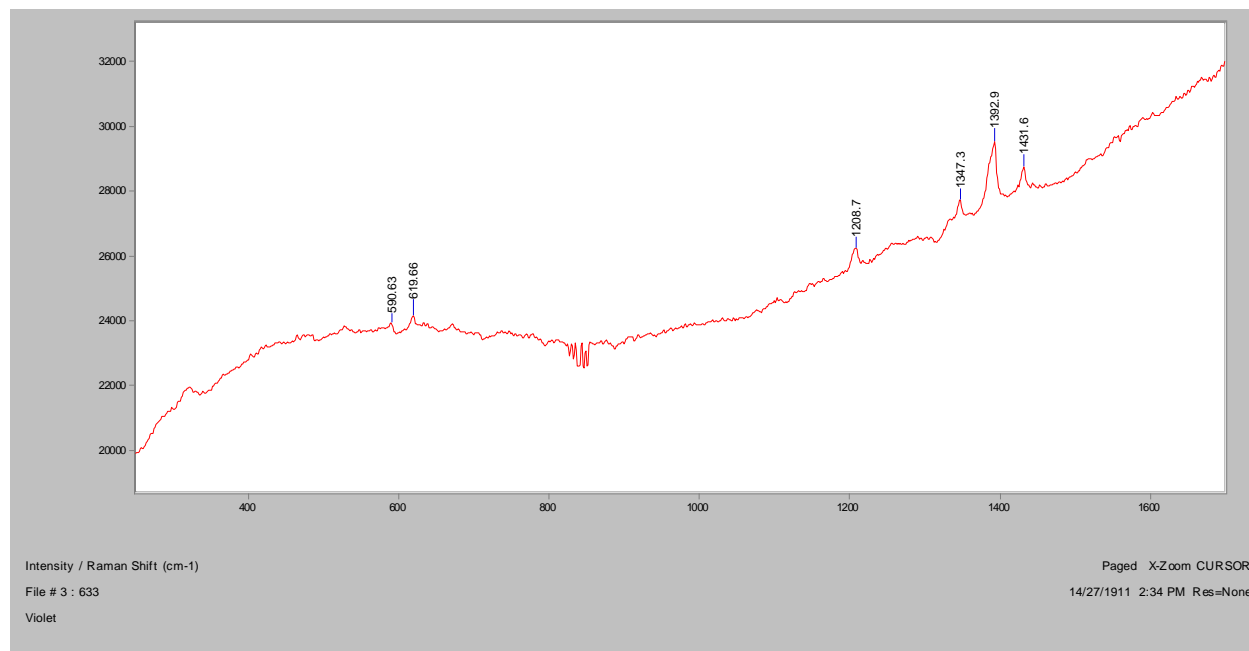


Violet

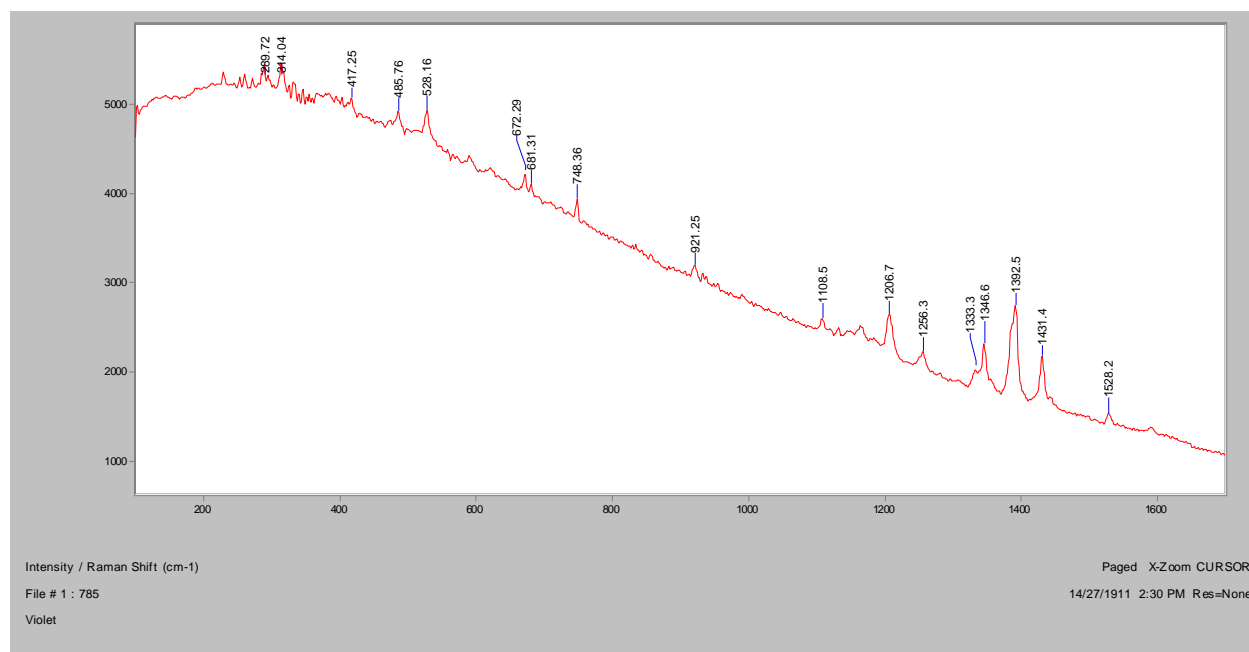
Normal Raman, 488nm



Normal Raman, 633nm

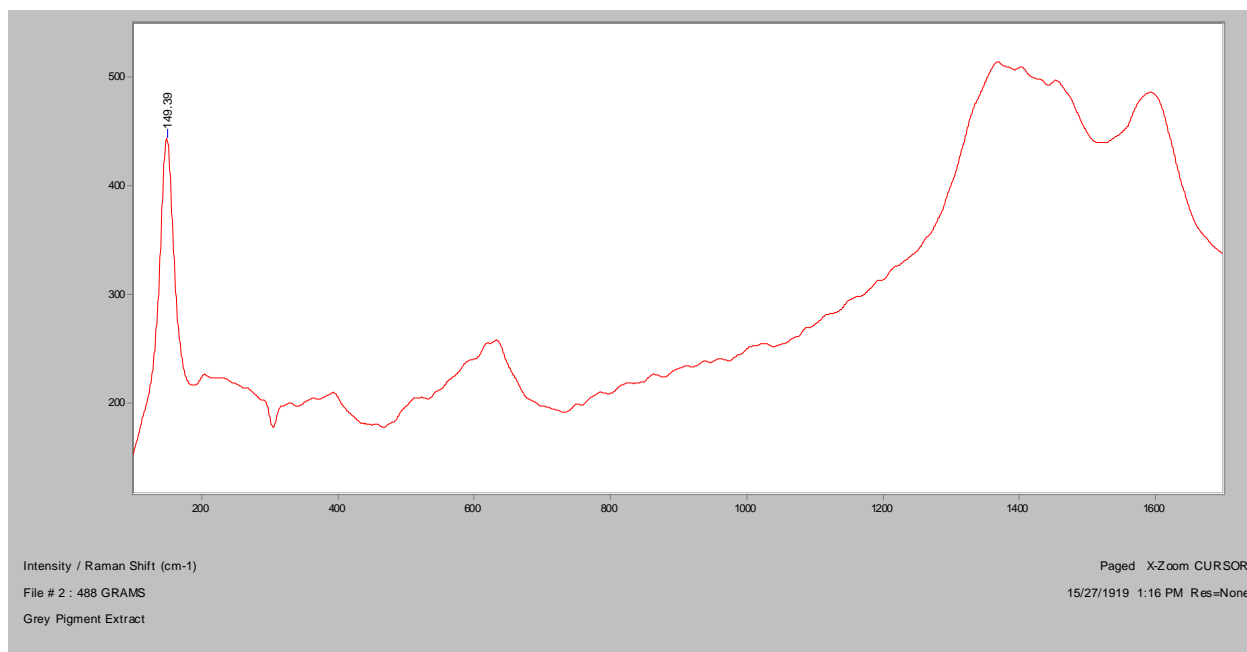


Normal Raman, 785nm

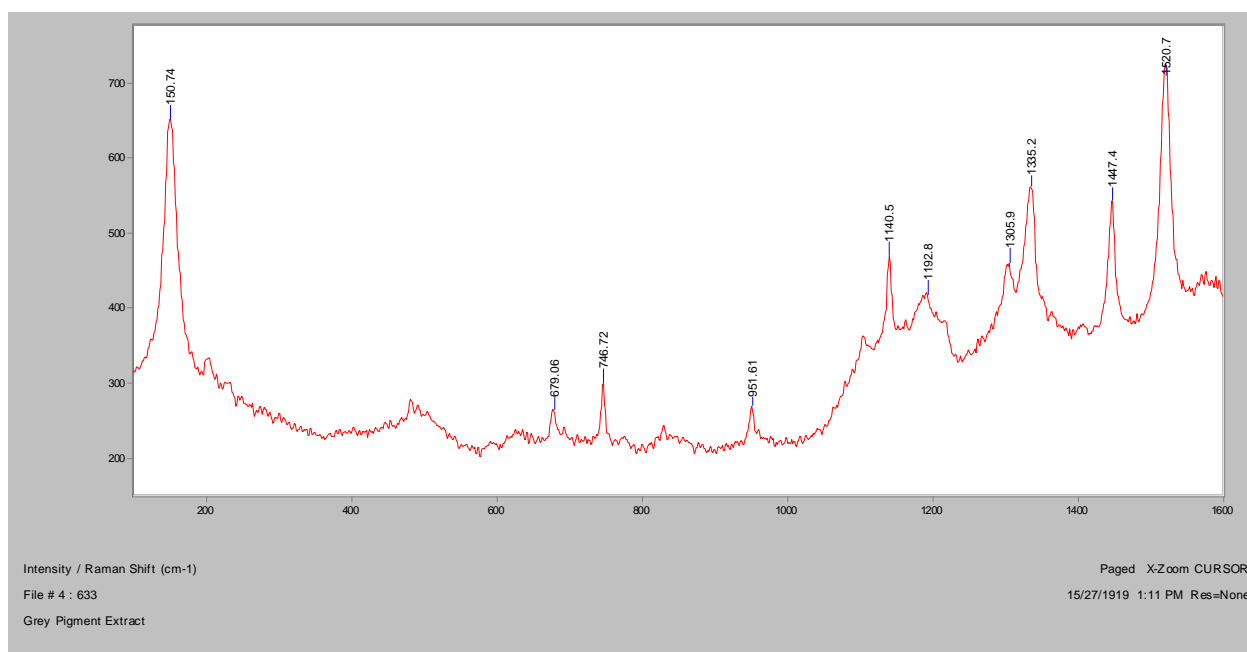


Grey

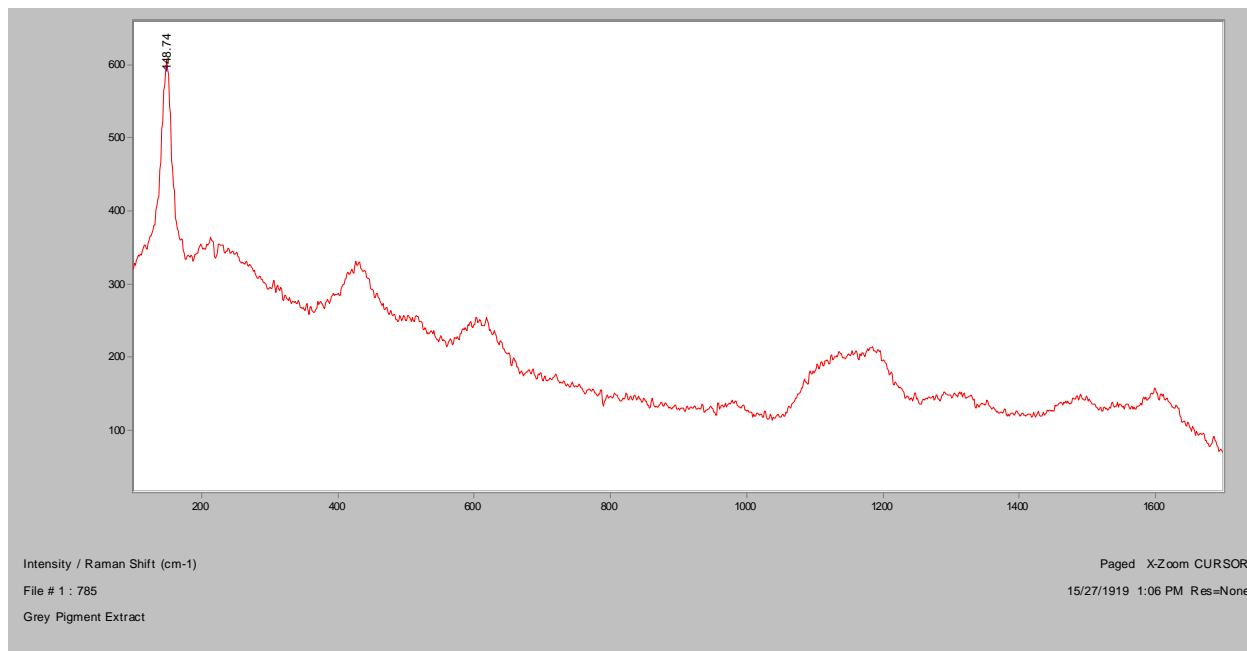
Normal Raman, 488nm



Normal Raman, 633nm

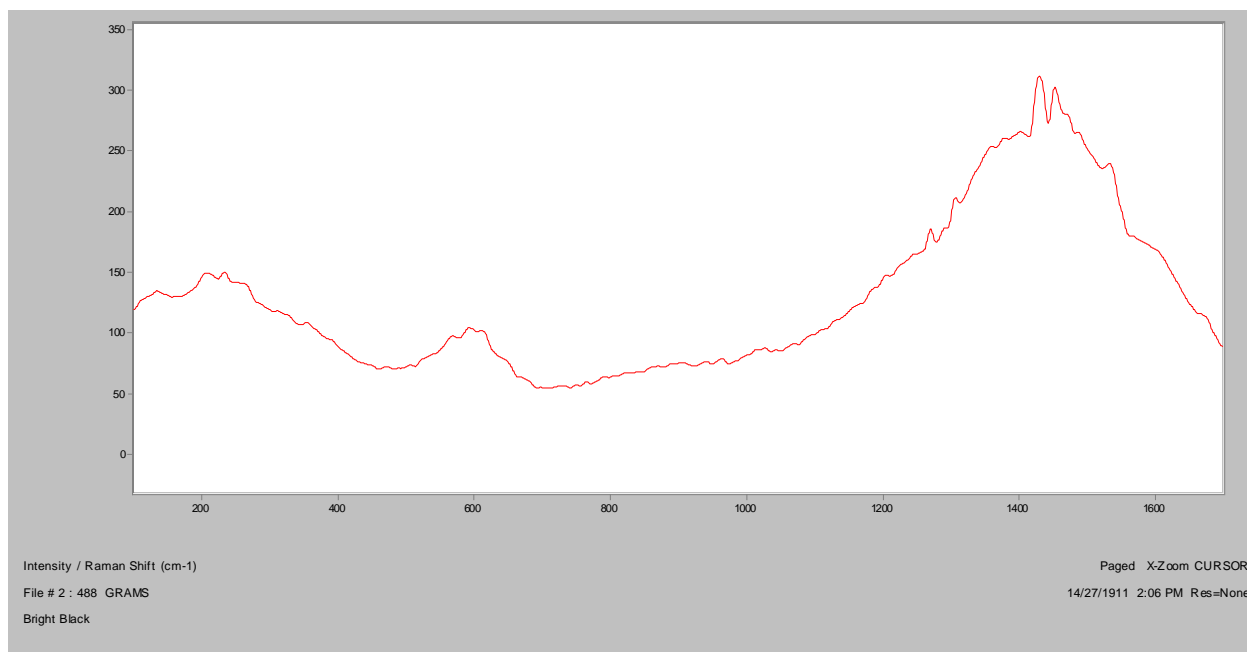


Normal Raman, 785nm

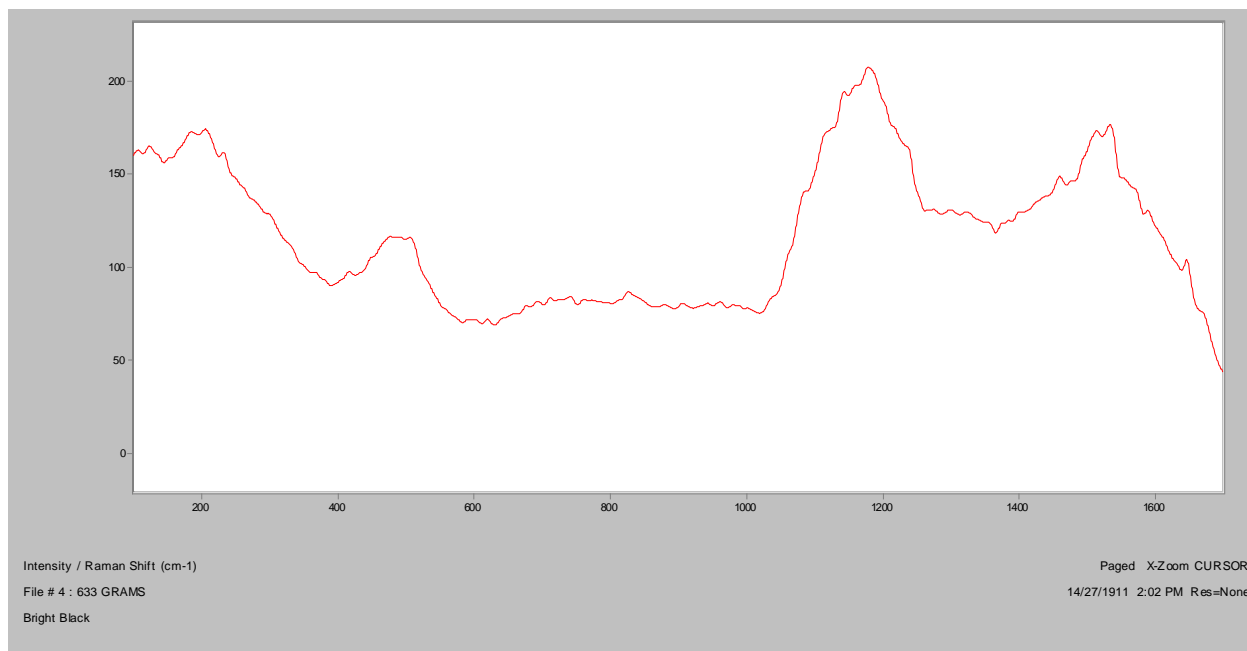


Bright Black

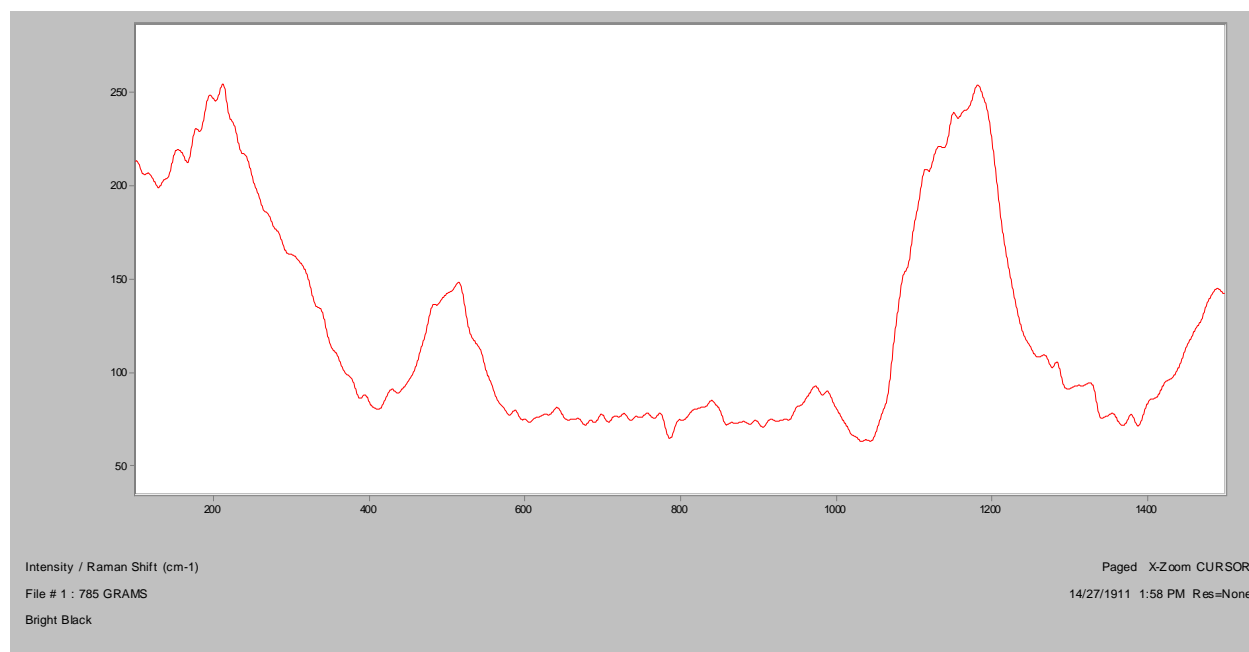
Normal Raman, 488nm



Normal Raman, 633nm

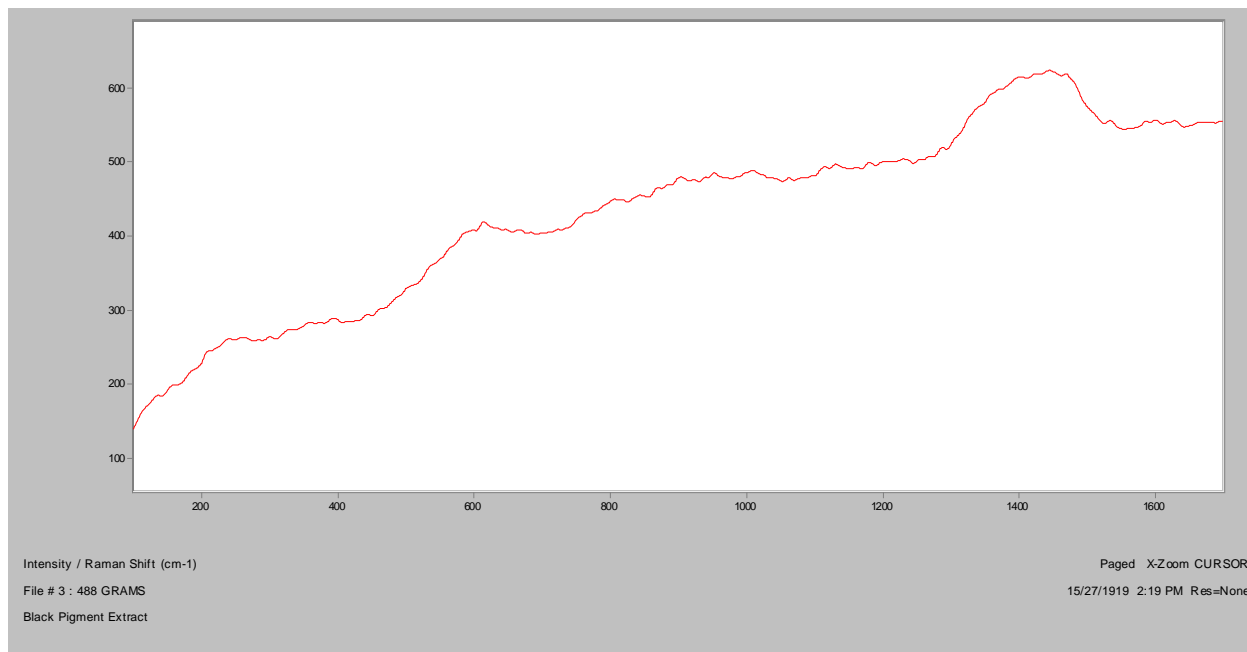


Normal Raman, 785nm

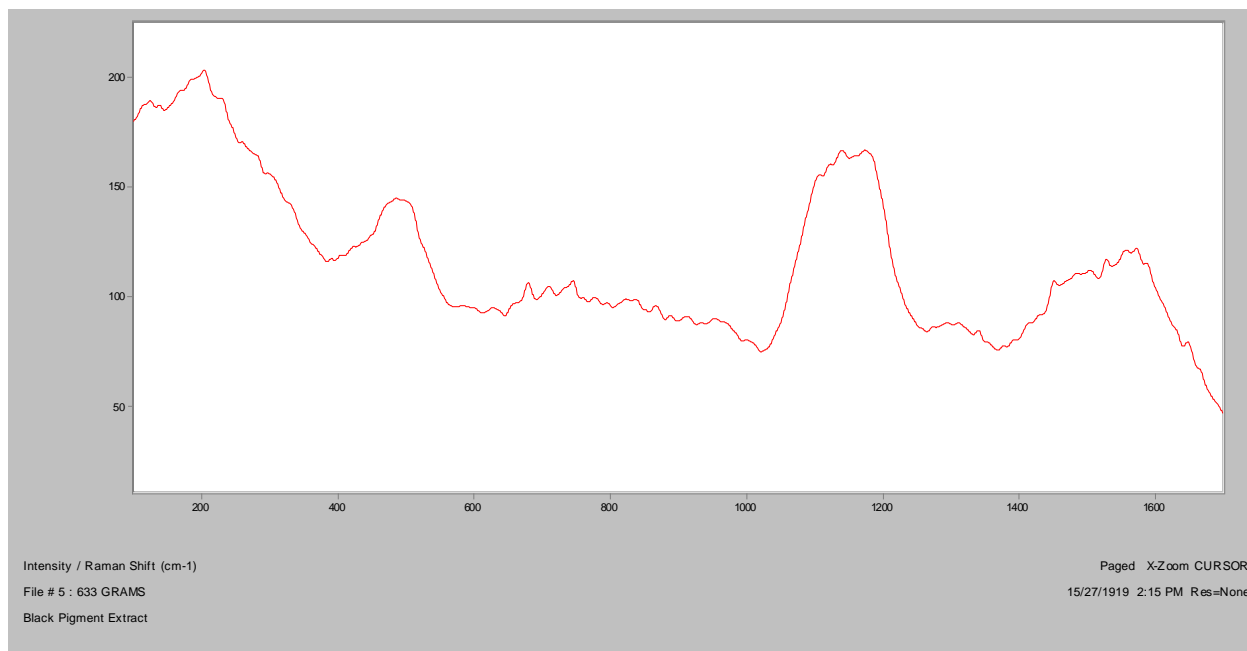


Black

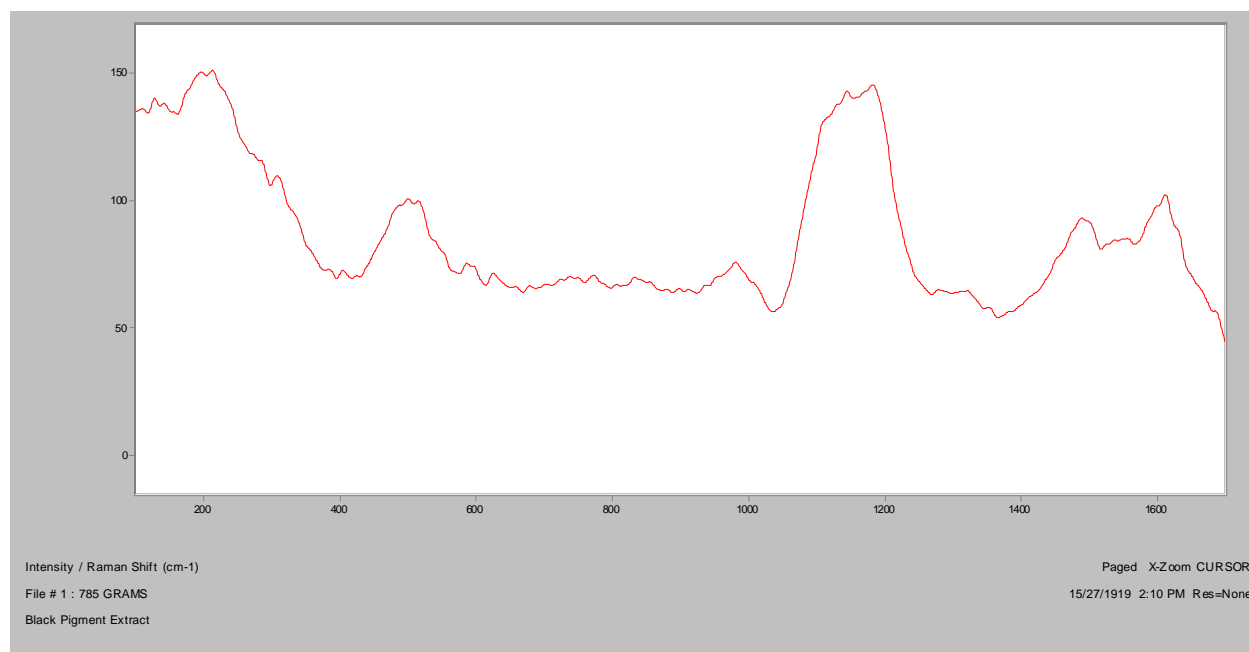
Normal Raman, 488nm



Normal Raman, 633nm

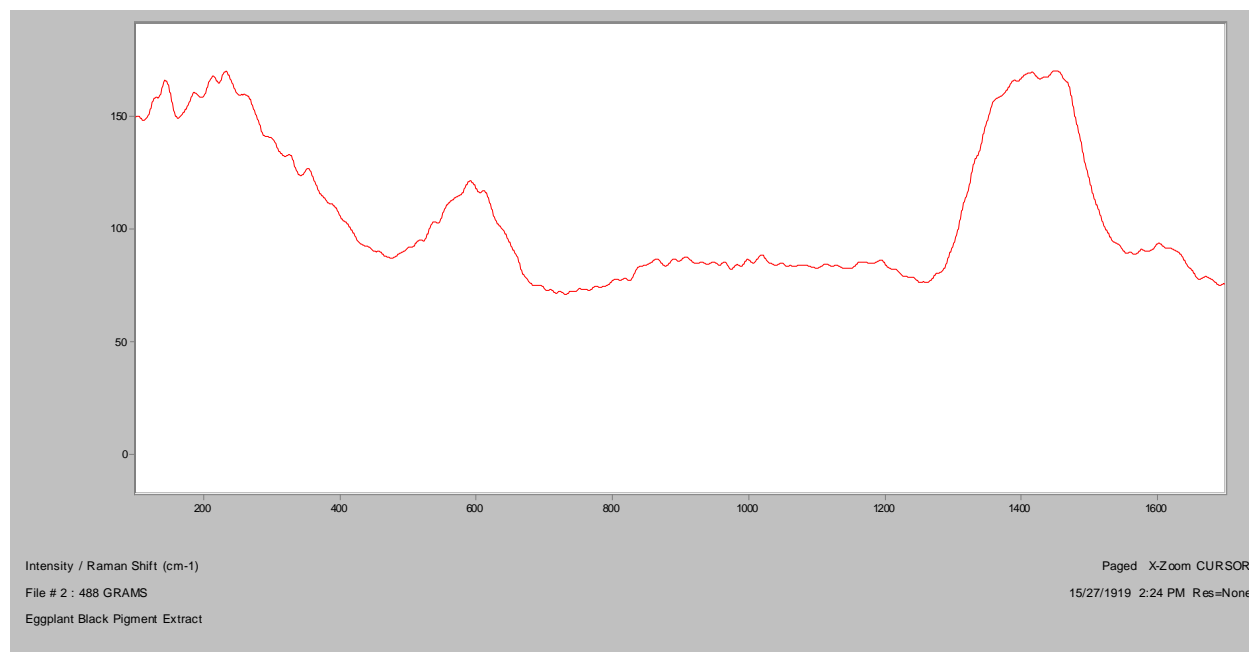


Normal Raman, 785nm

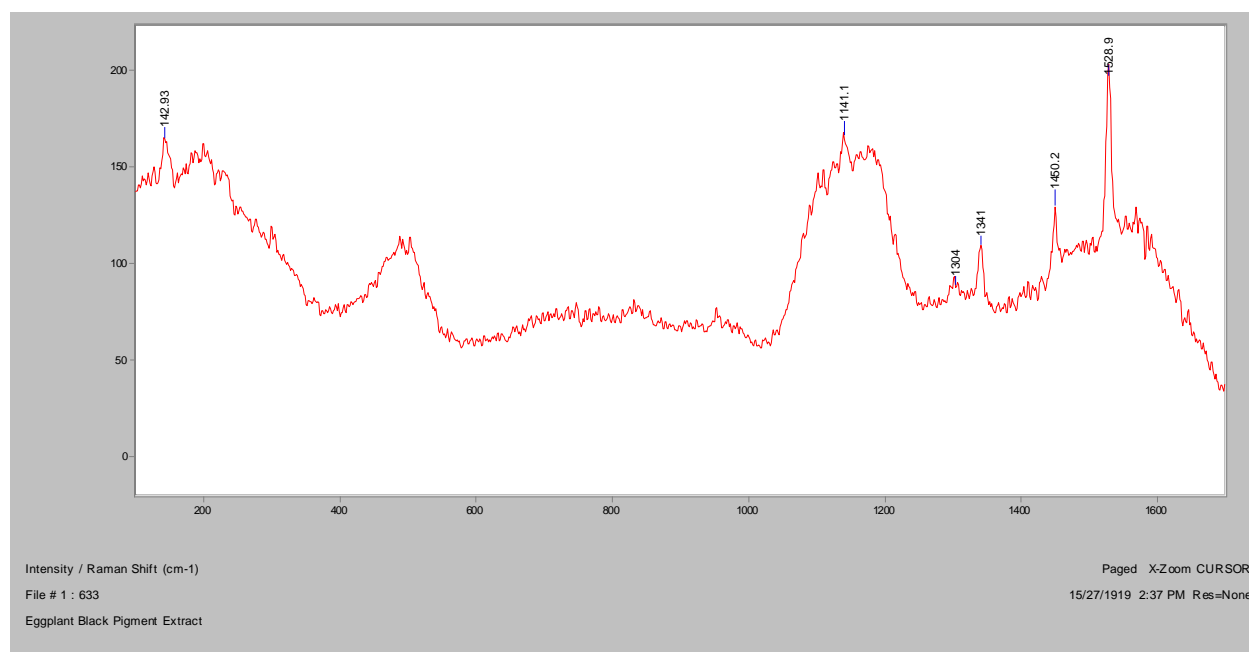


Eggplant Black

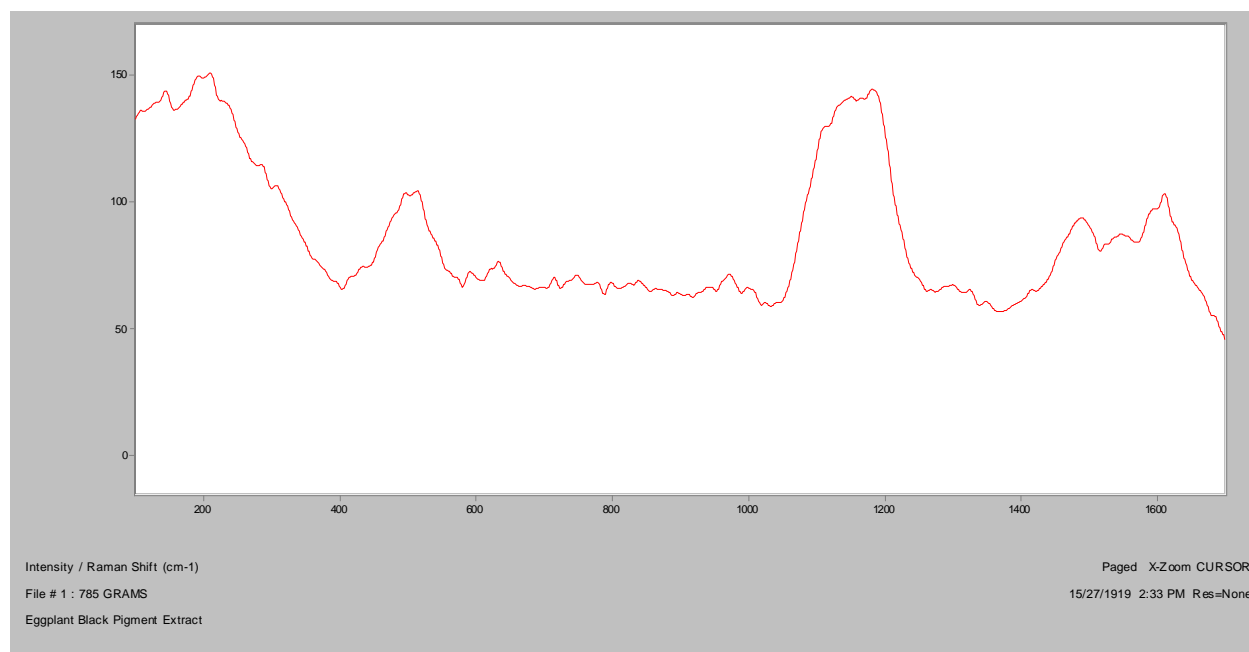
Normal Raman, 488nm



Normal Raman, 633nm

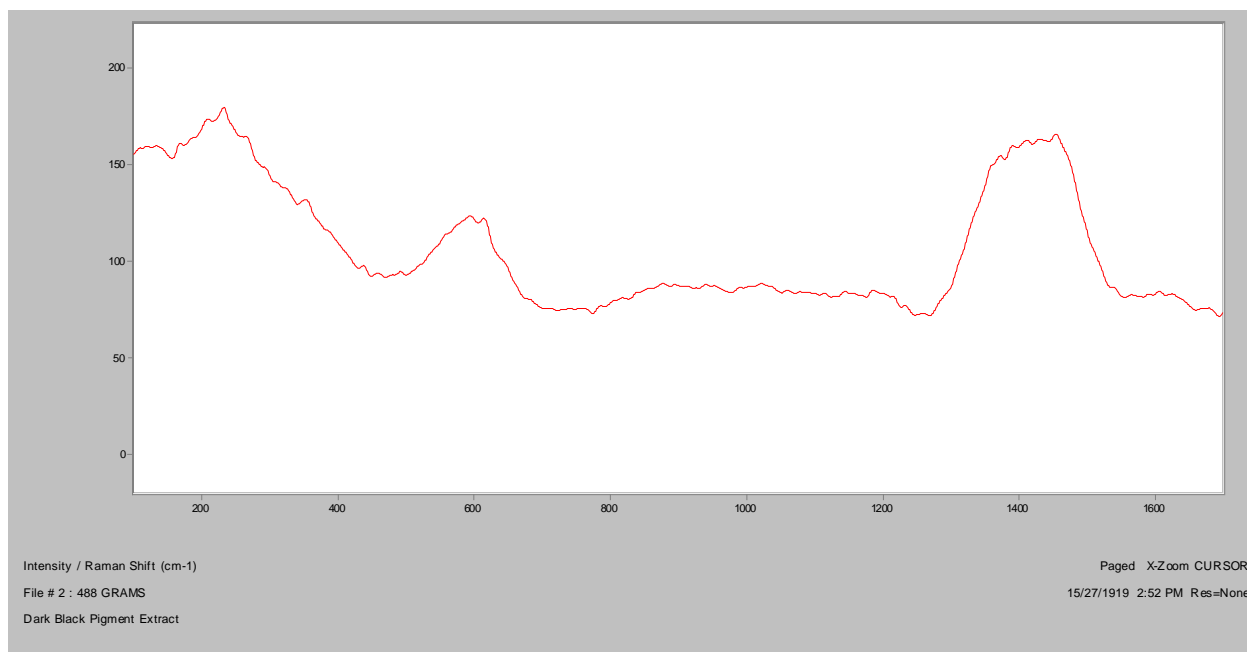


Normal Raman, 785nm

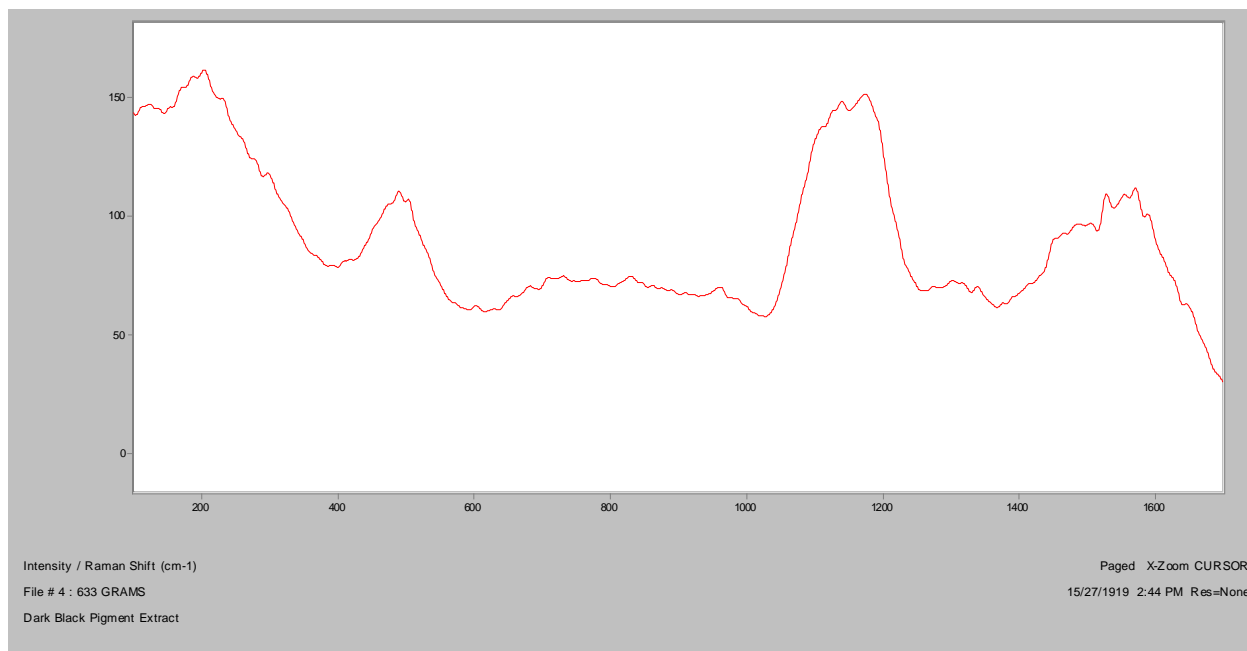


Dark Black

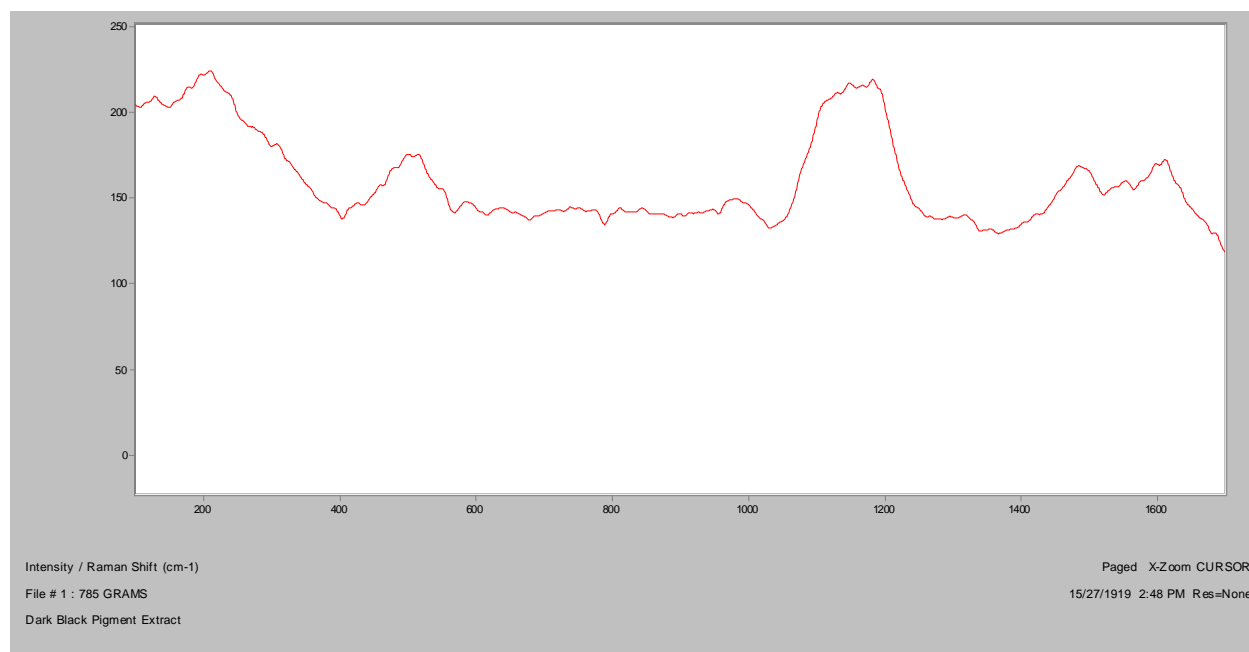
Normal Raman, 488nm



Normal Raman, 633nm

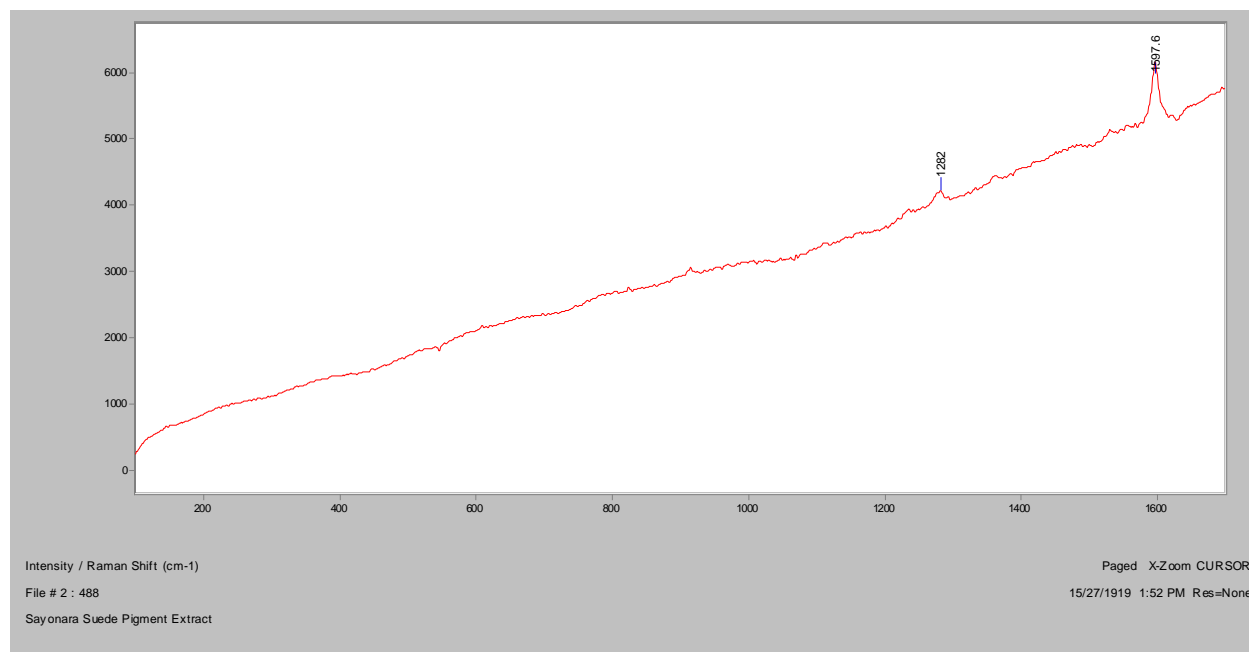


Normal Raman, 785nm

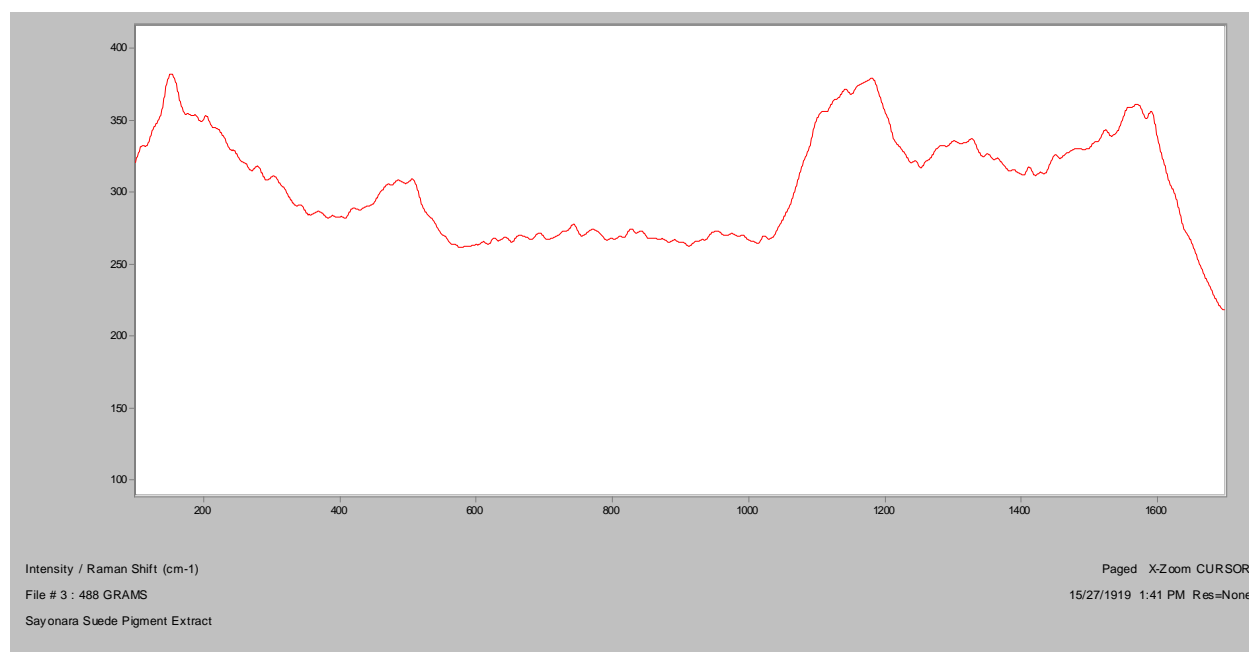


Sayonara Suede

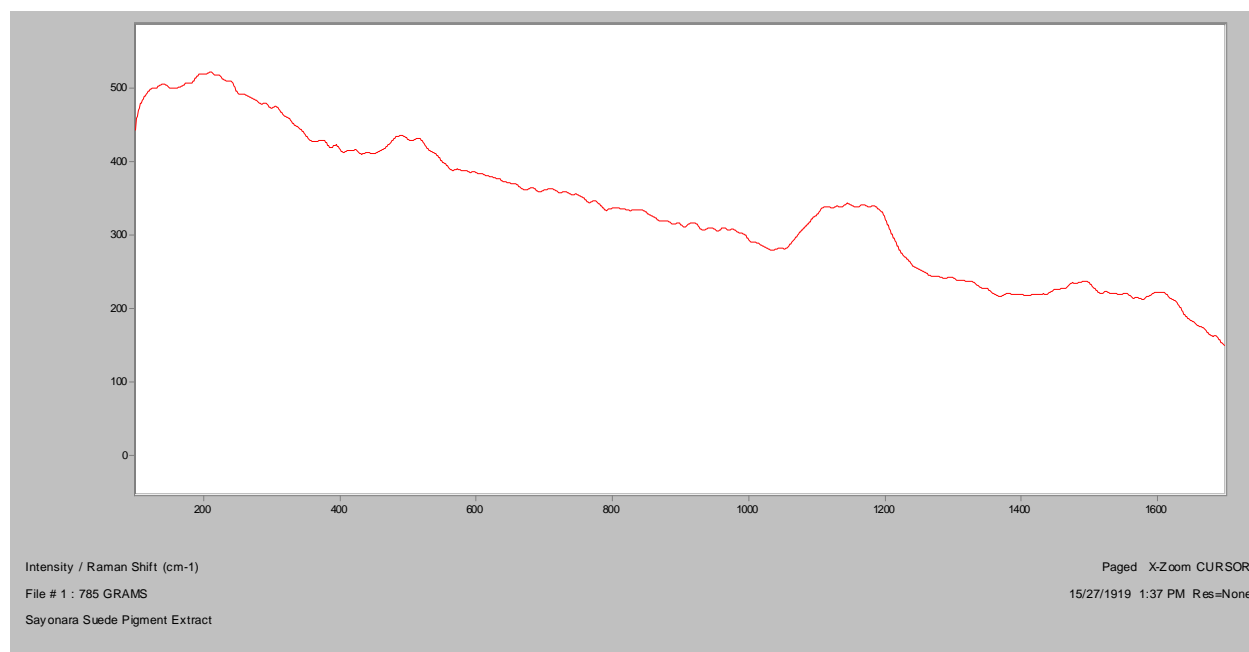
Normal Raman, 488nm



Normal Raman, 633nm

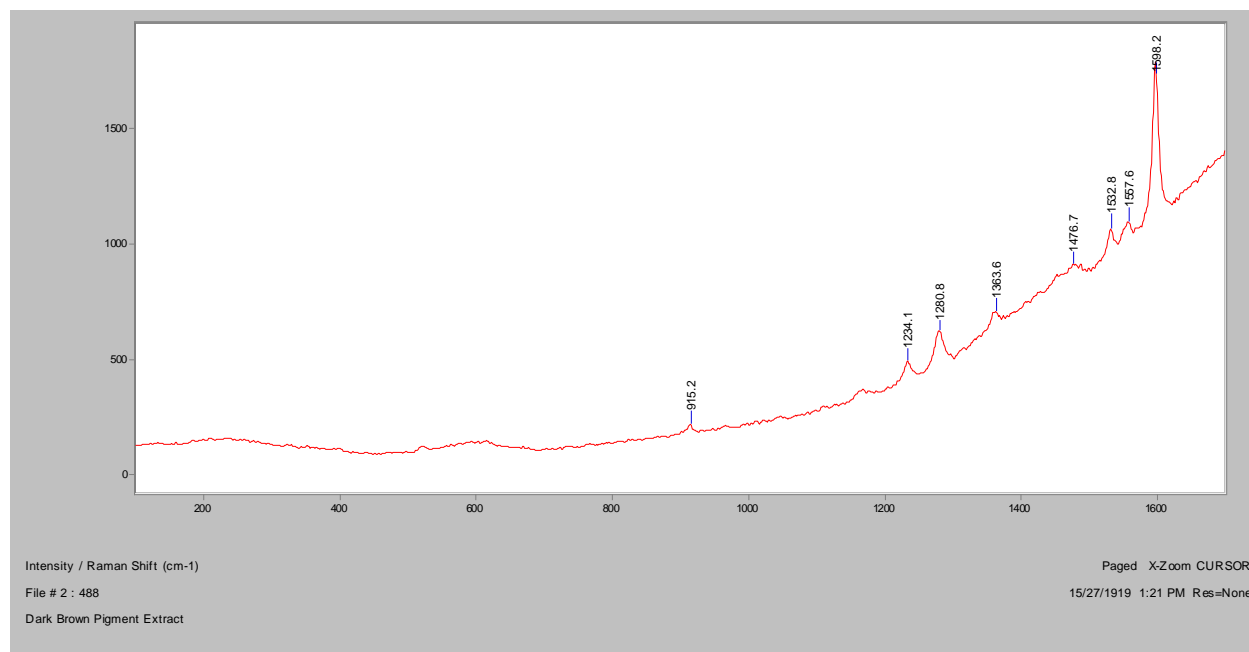


Normal Raman, 785nm

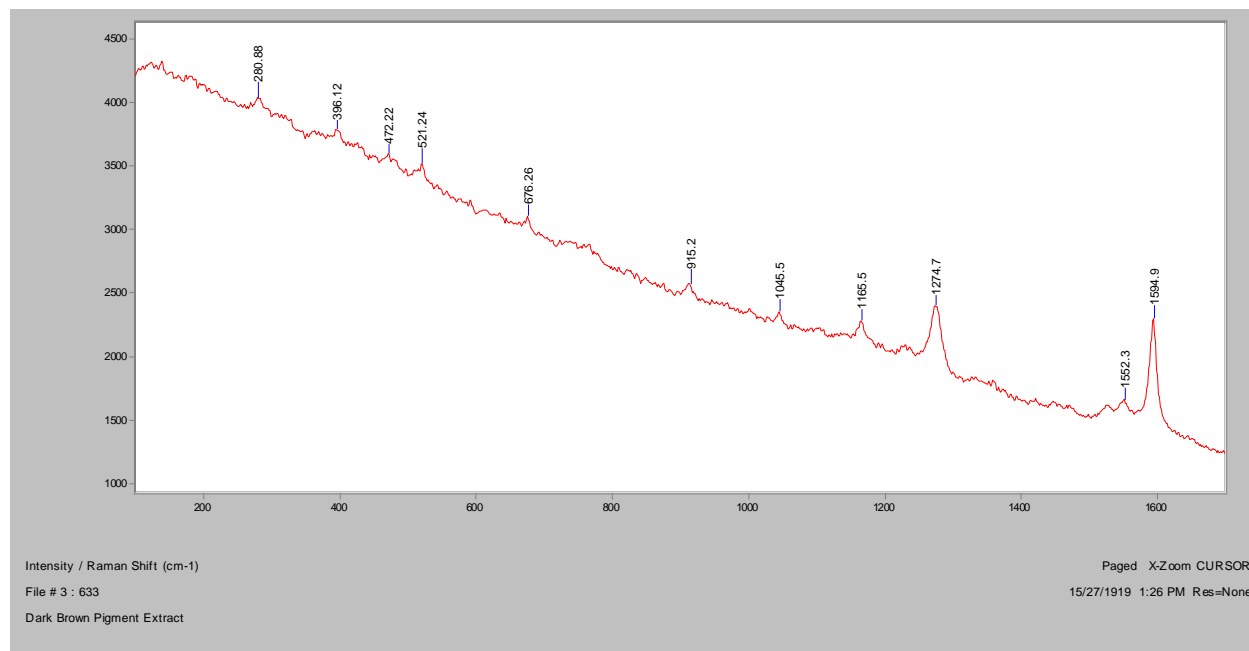


Dark Brown

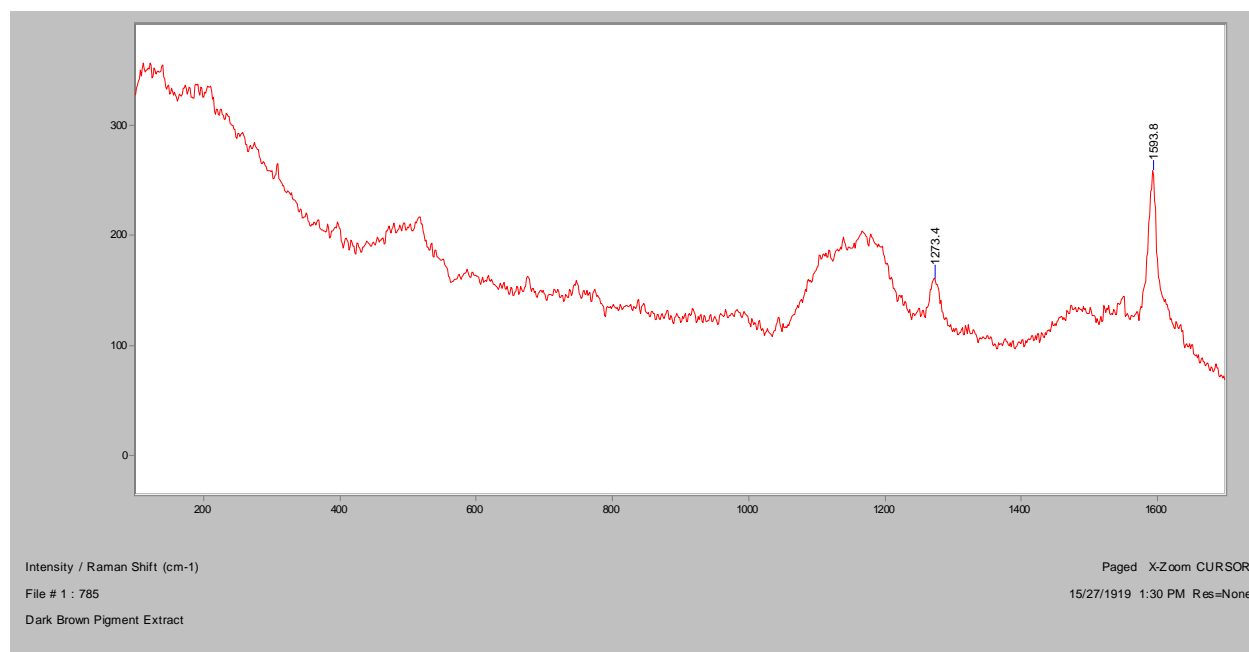
Normal Raman, 488nm



Normal Raman, 633nm

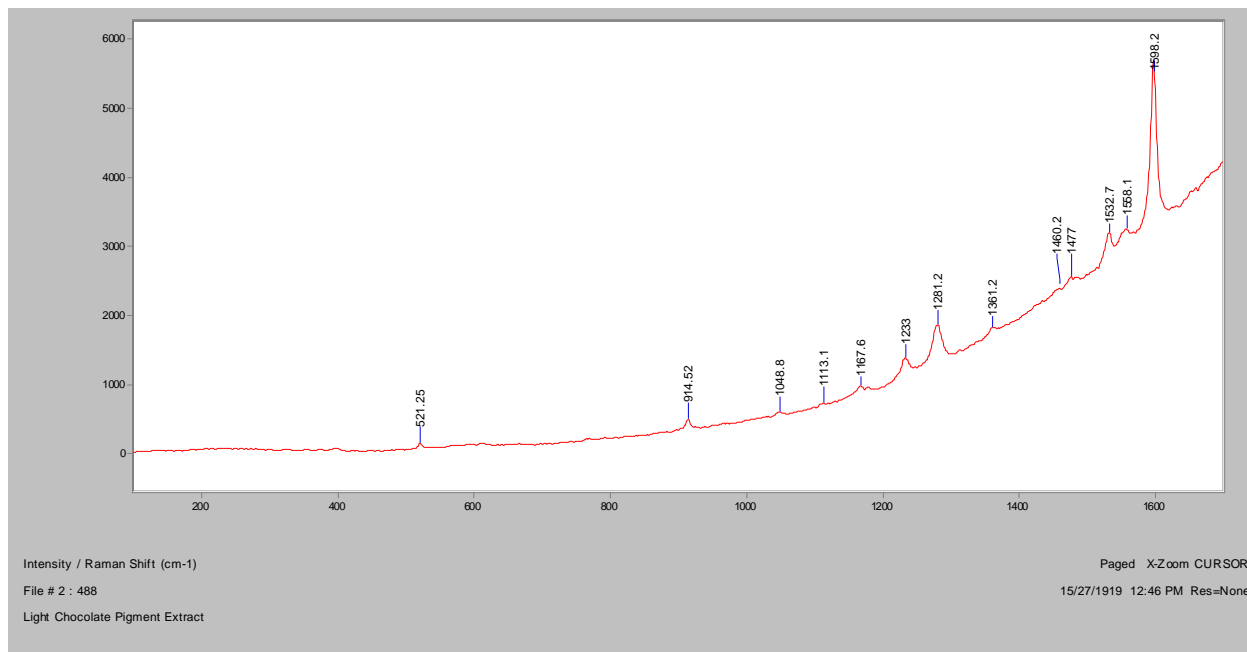


Normal Raman, 785nm

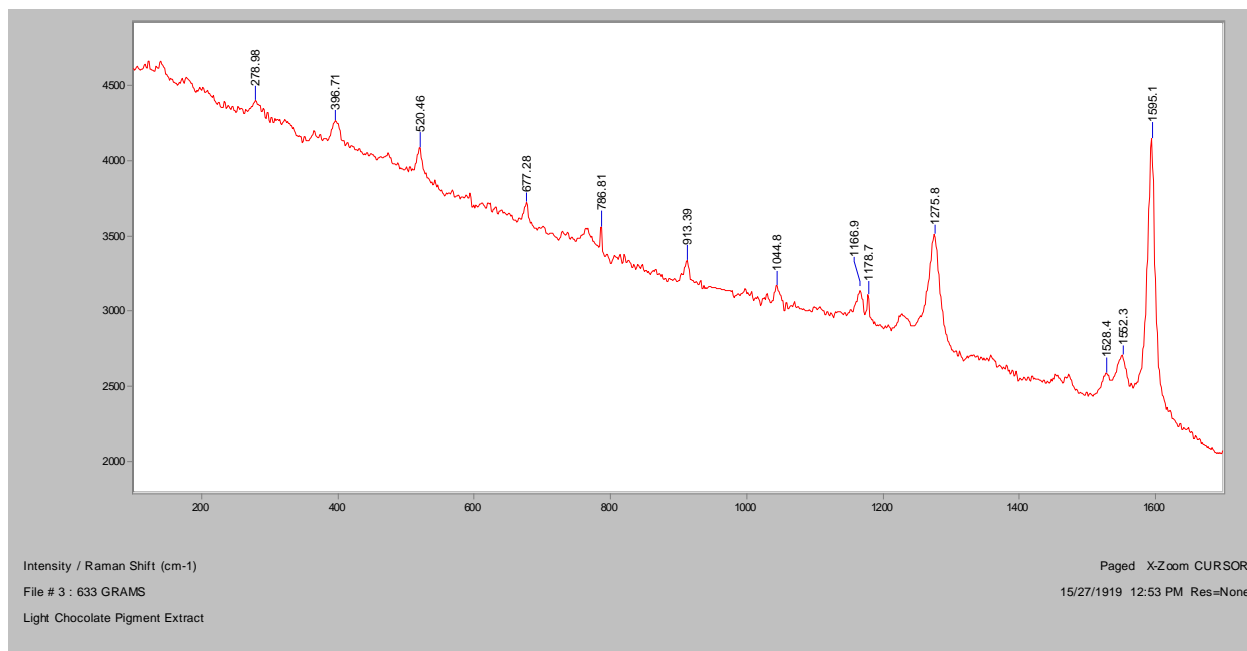


Light Chocolate

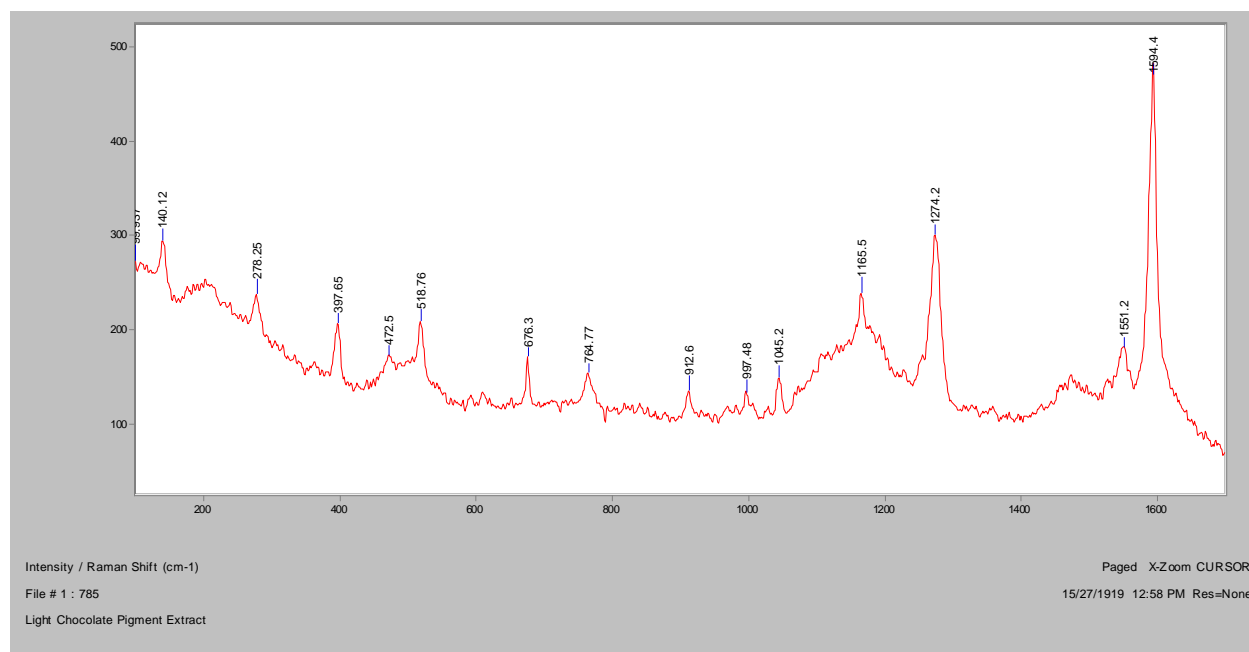
Normal Raman, 488nm



Normal Raman, 633nm

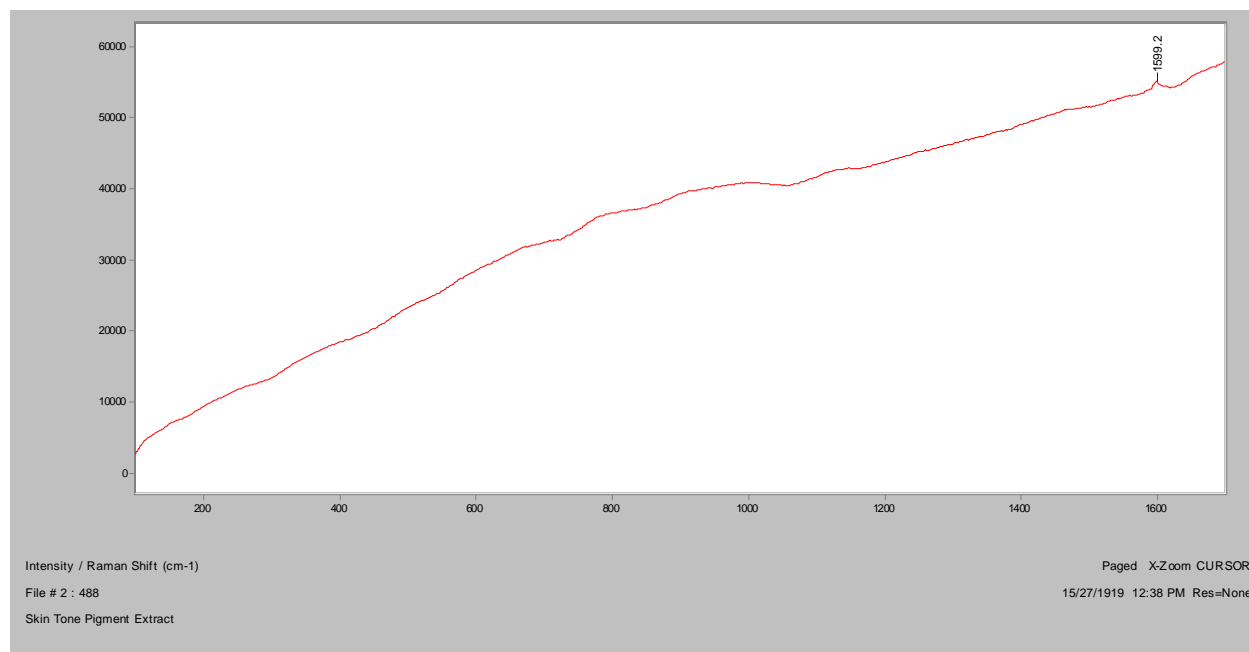


Normal Raman, 785nm

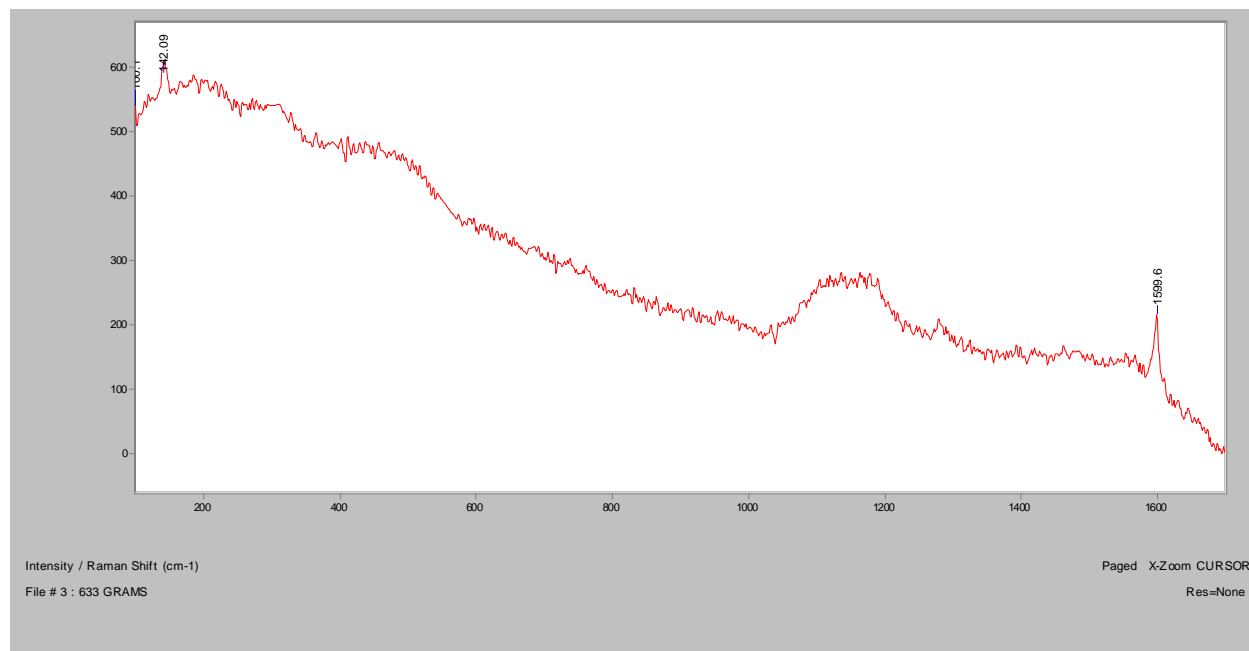


Skin Tone

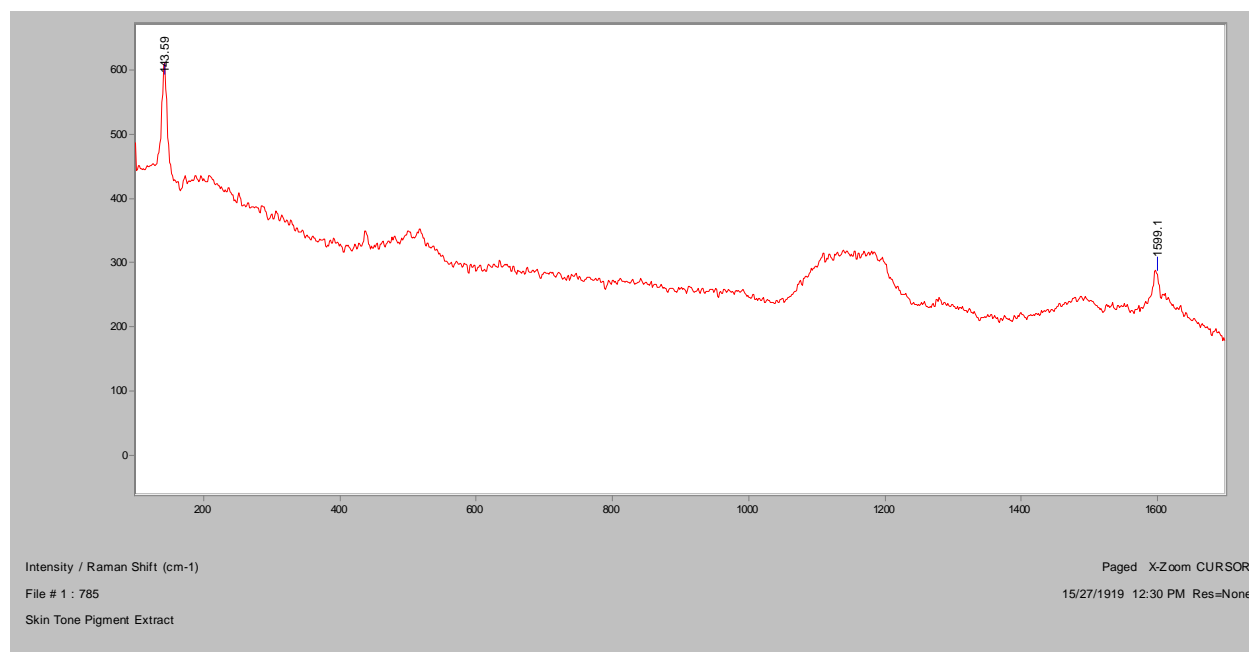
Normal Raman, 488nm



Normal Raman, 633nm

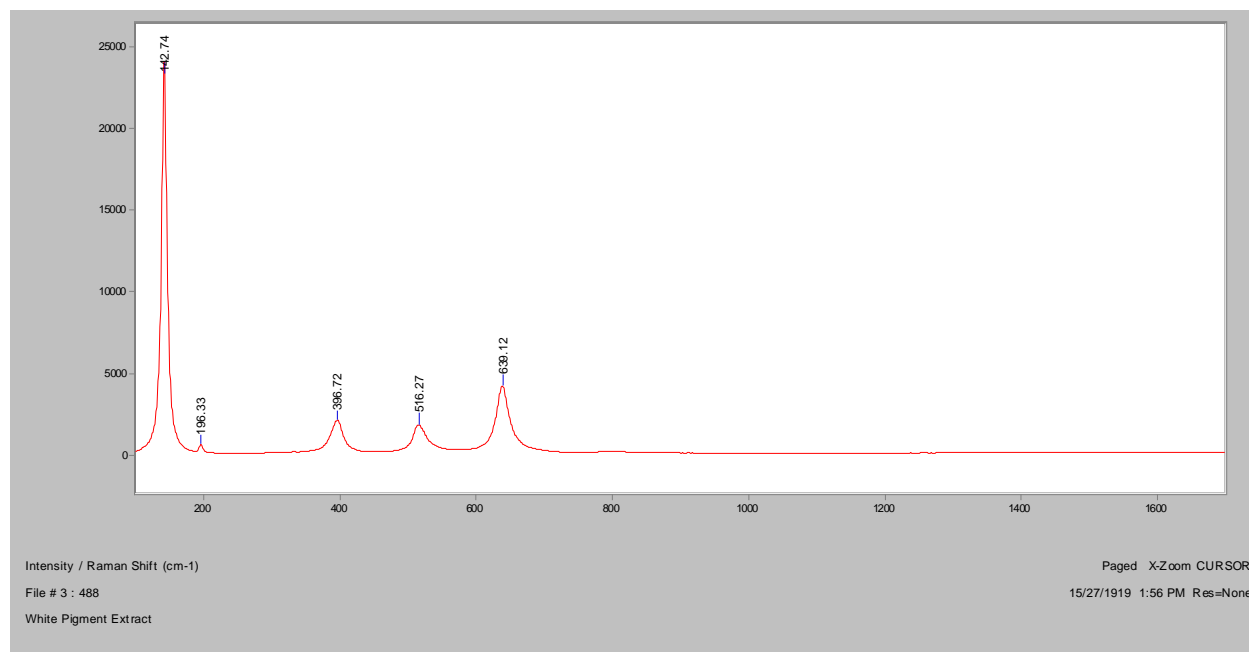


Normal Raman, 785nm

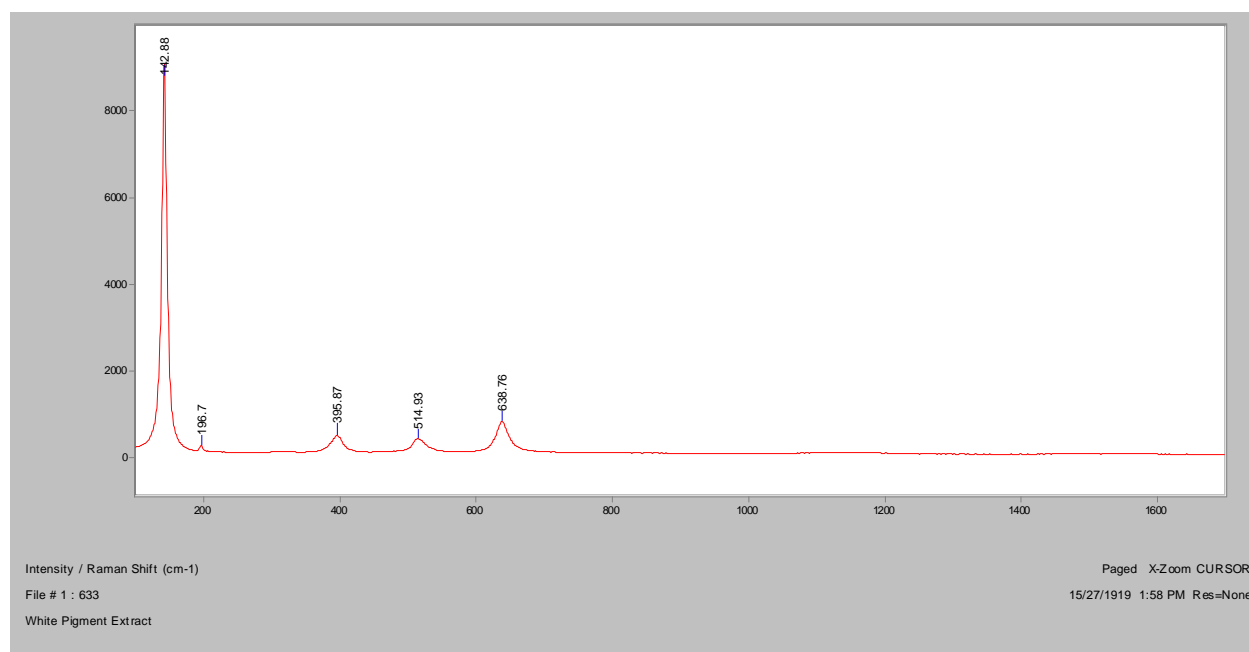


White

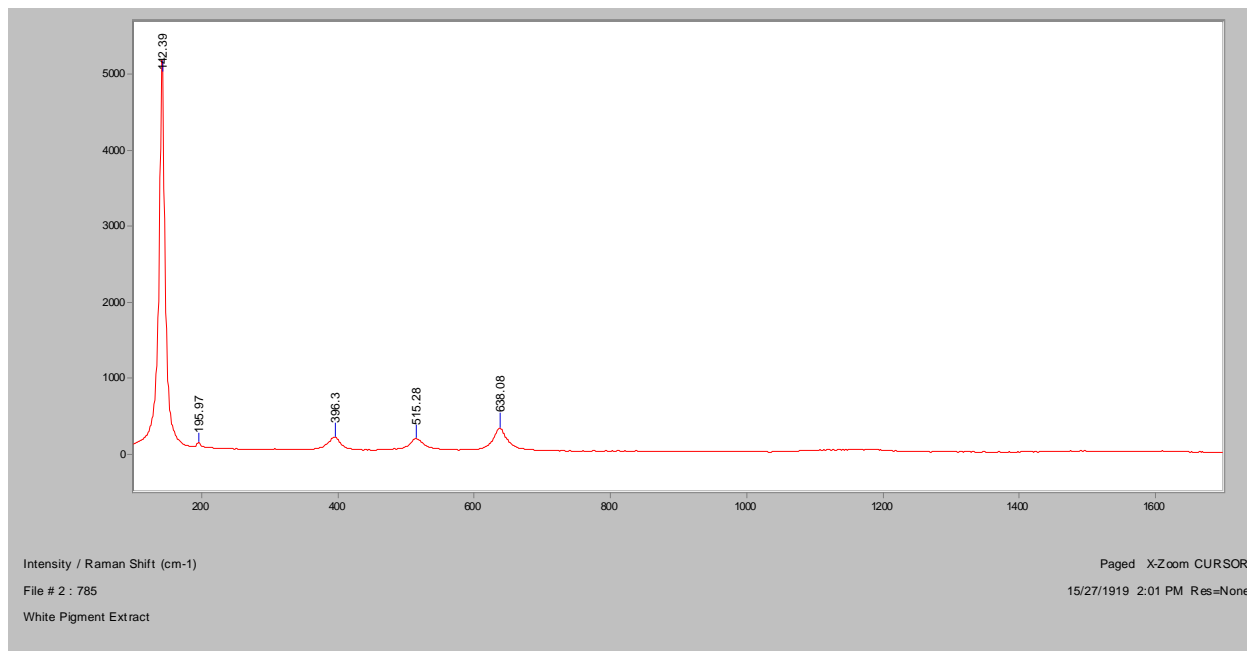
Normal Raman, 488nm



Normal Raman, 633nm



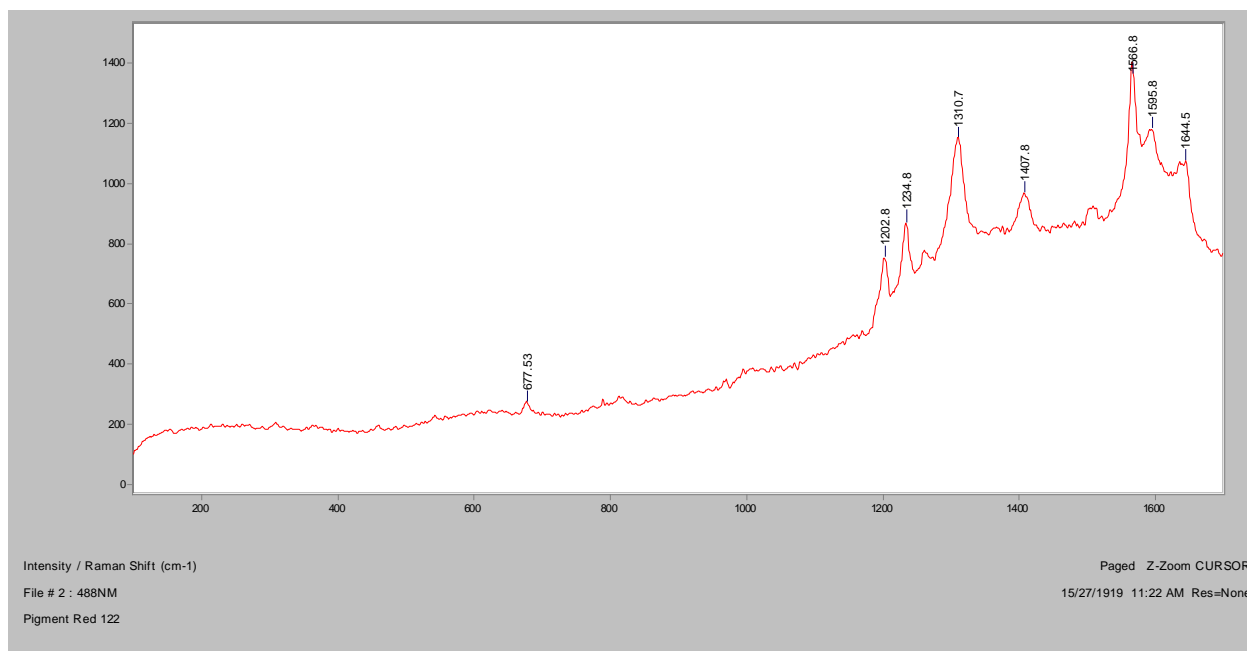
Normal Raman, 785nm



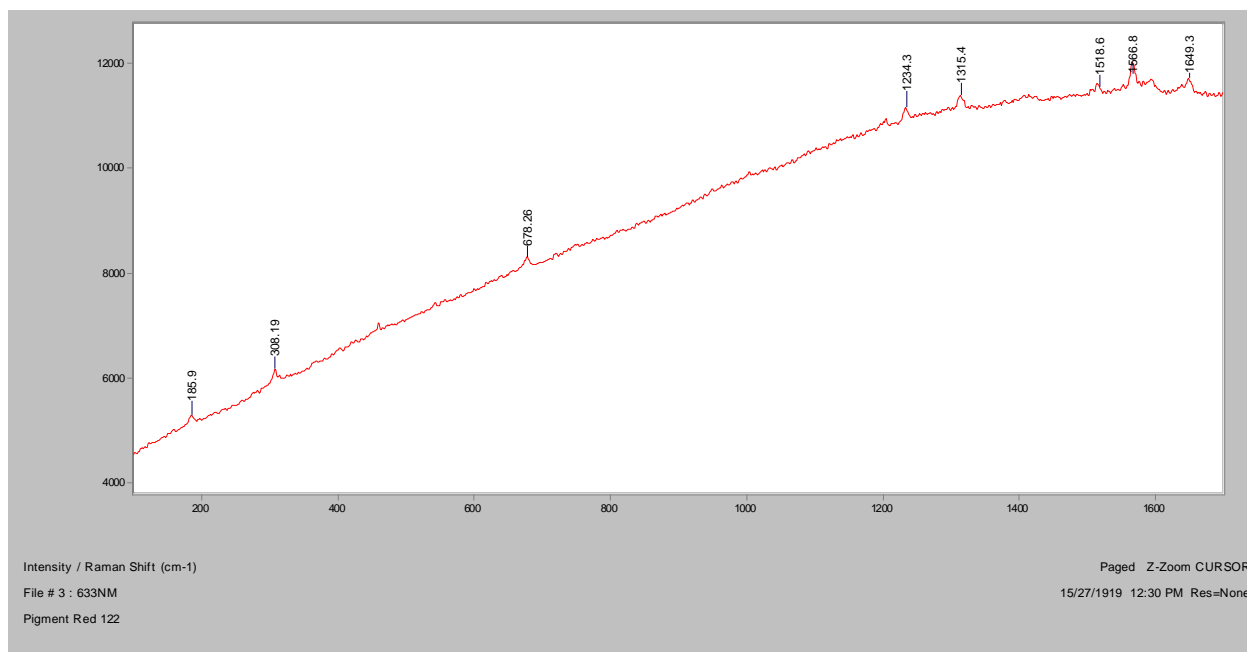
Appendix F: Pigment Standards

Pigment Red 122

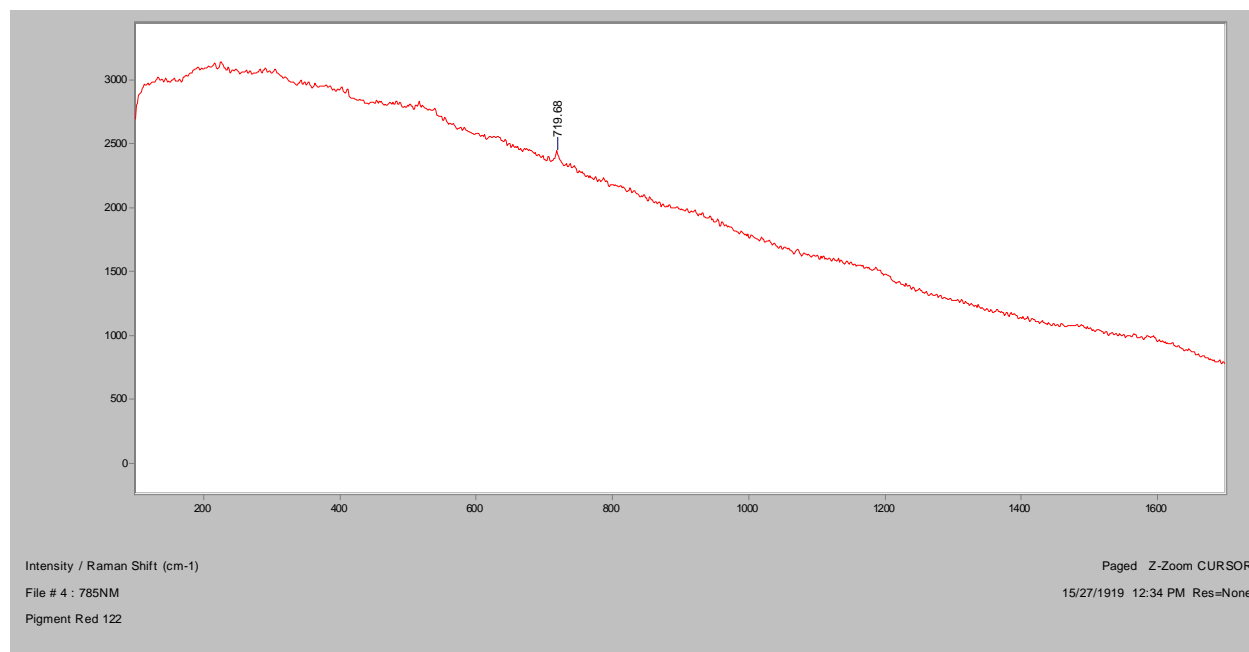
Normal Raman, 488nm



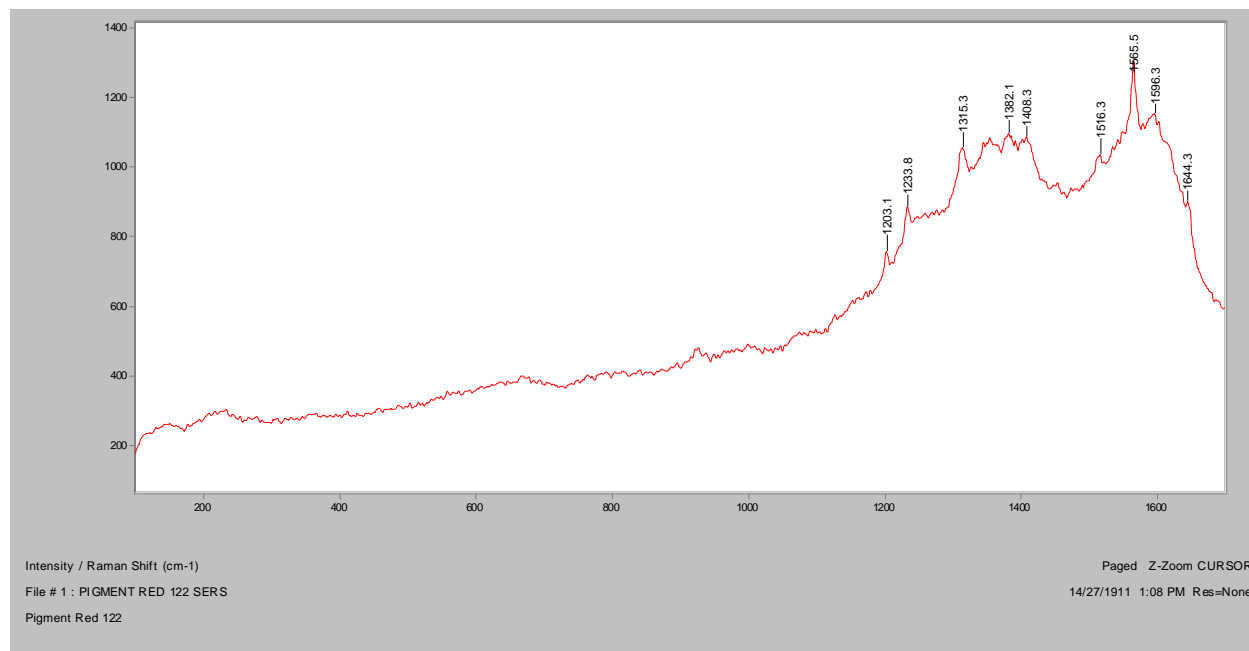
Normal Raman 633nm



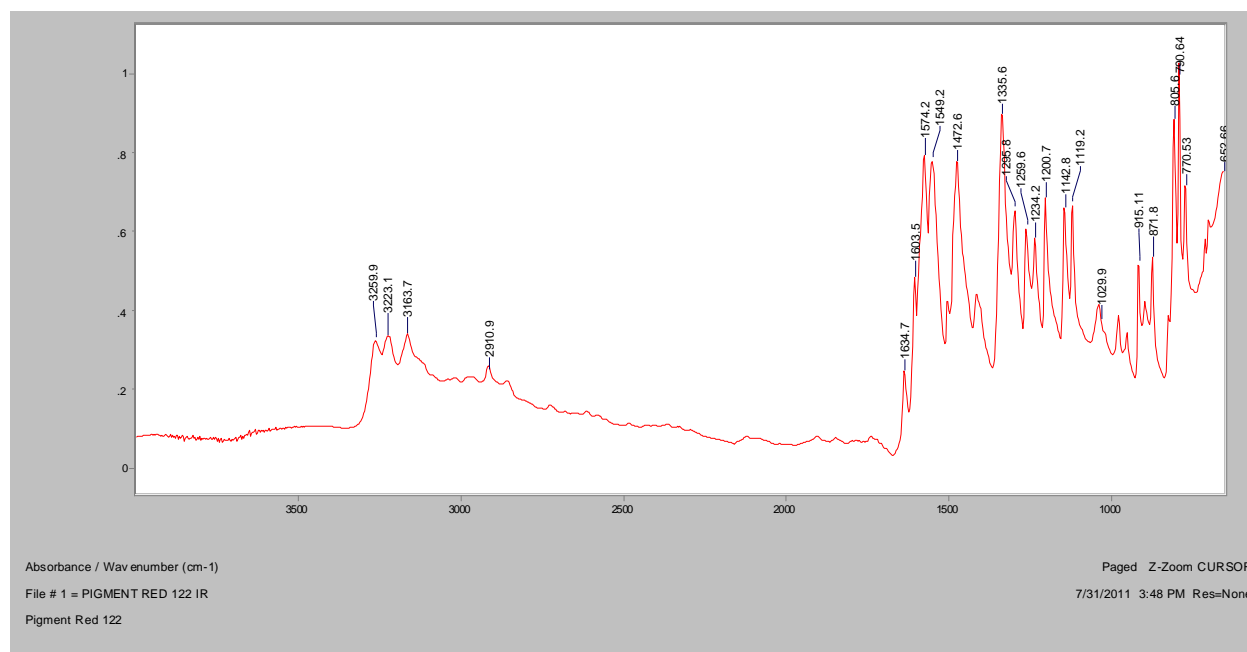
Normal Raman 785nm



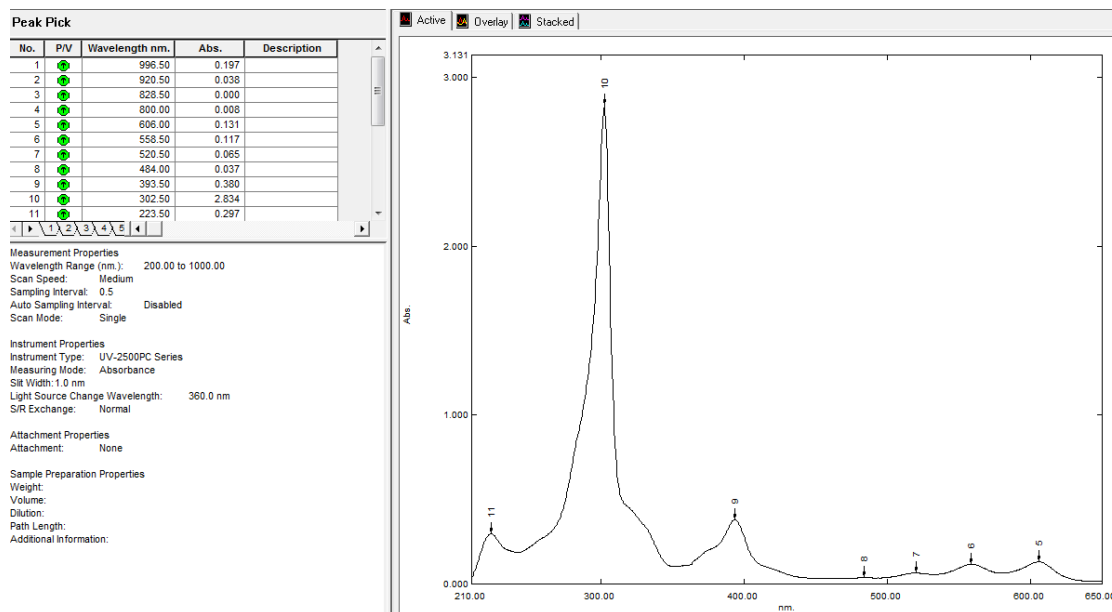
SERS, 488nm



FT-IR (ATR)

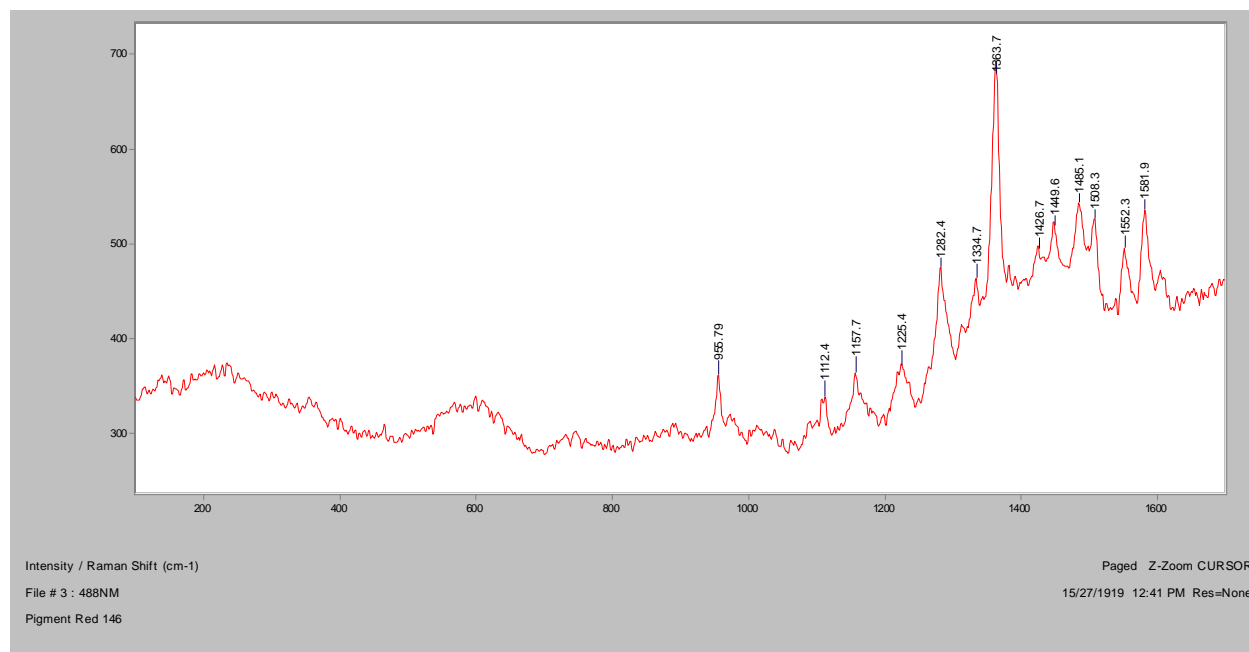


UV-Vis

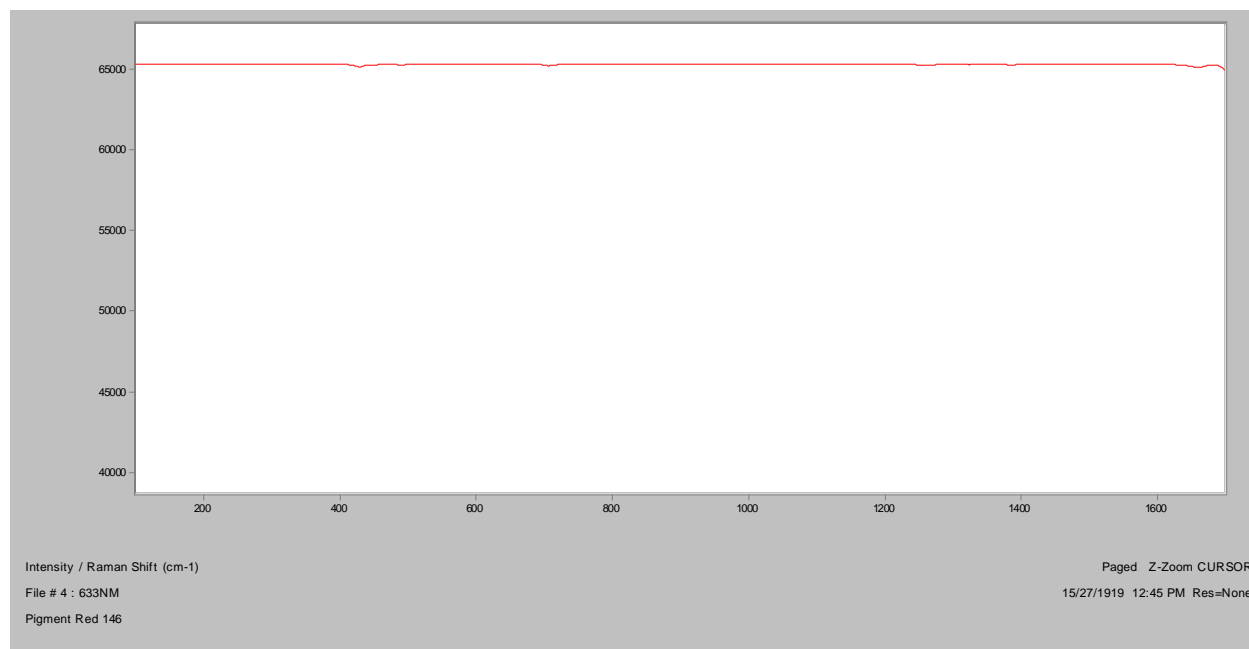


Pigment Red 146

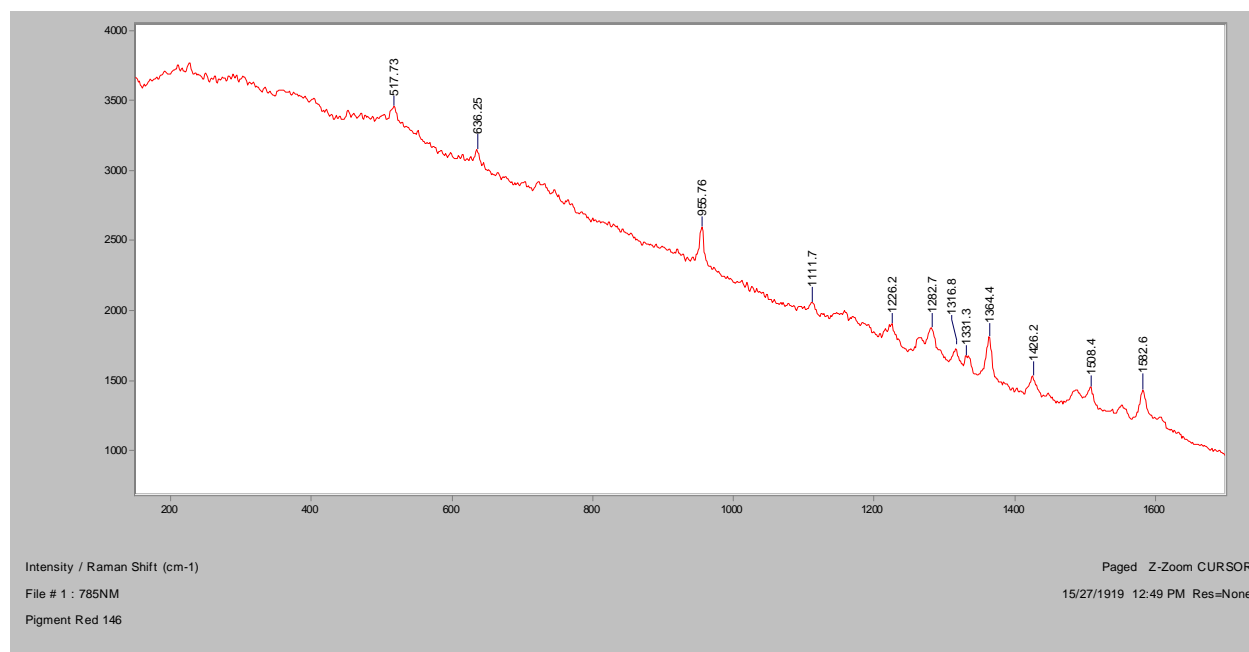
Normal Raman, 488nm



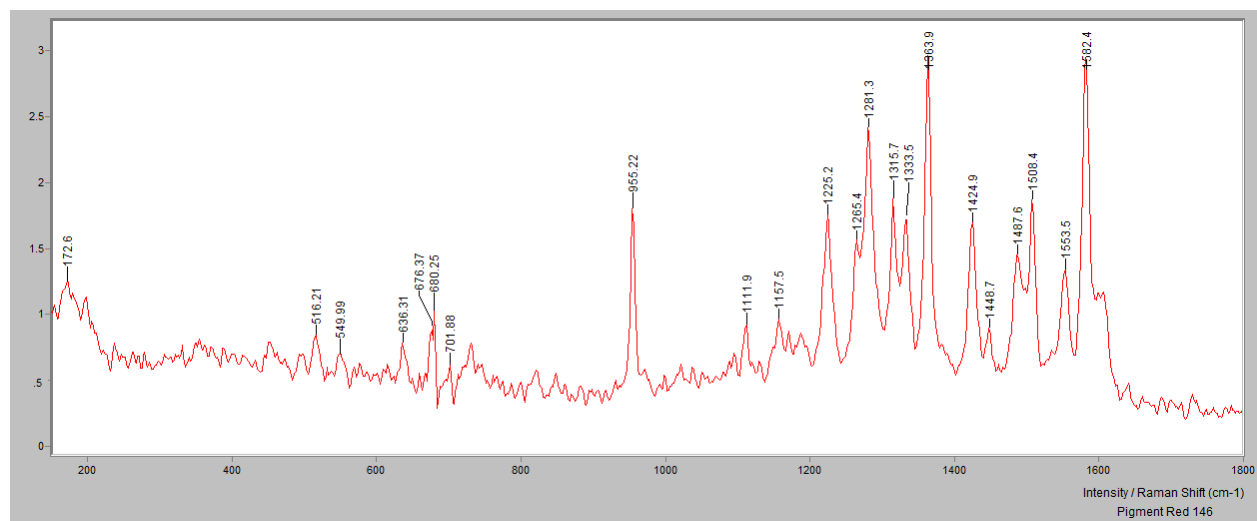
Normal Raman 633nm

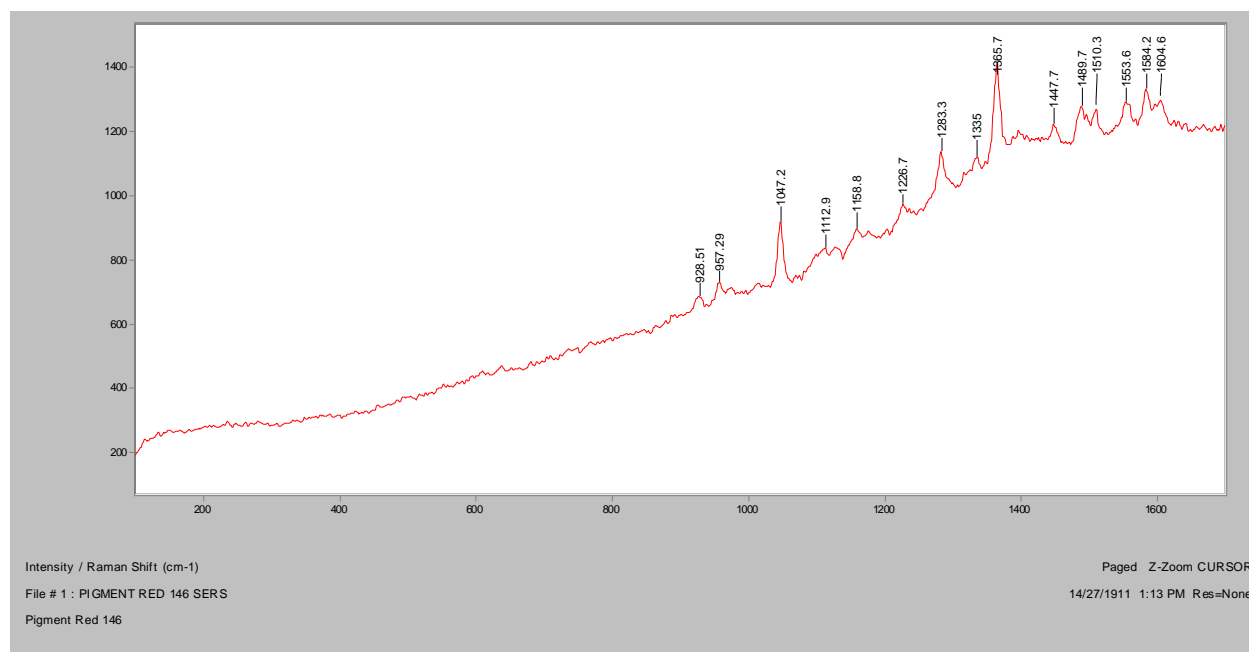
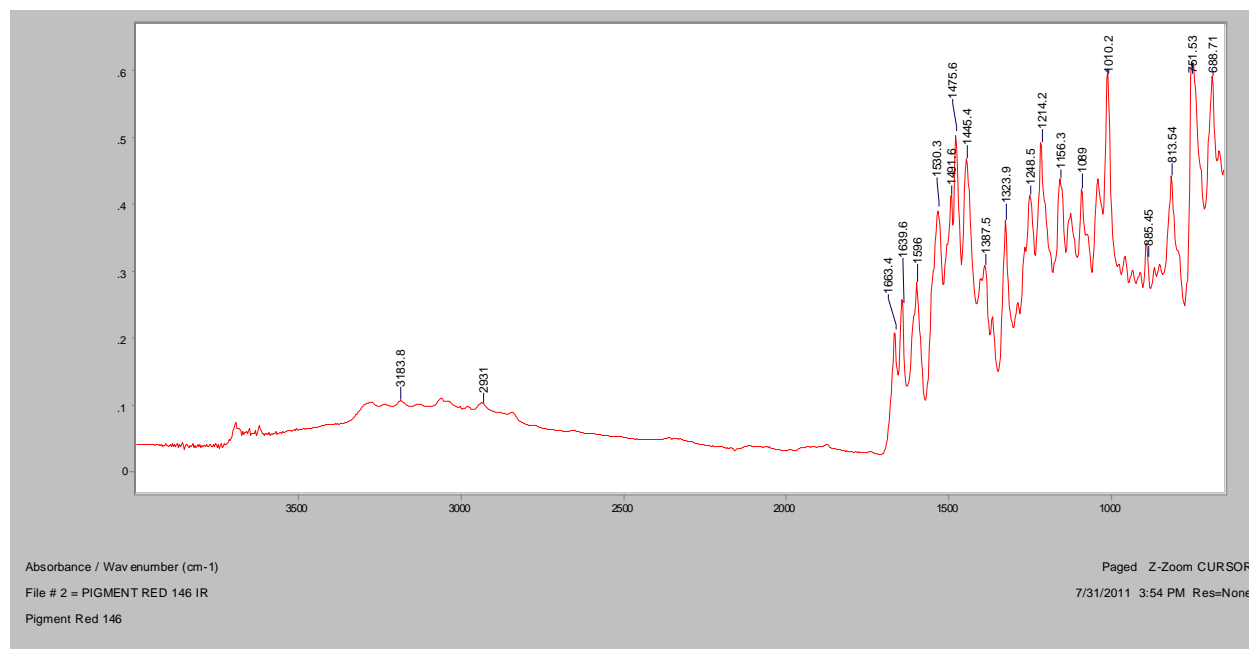


Normal Raman 785nm

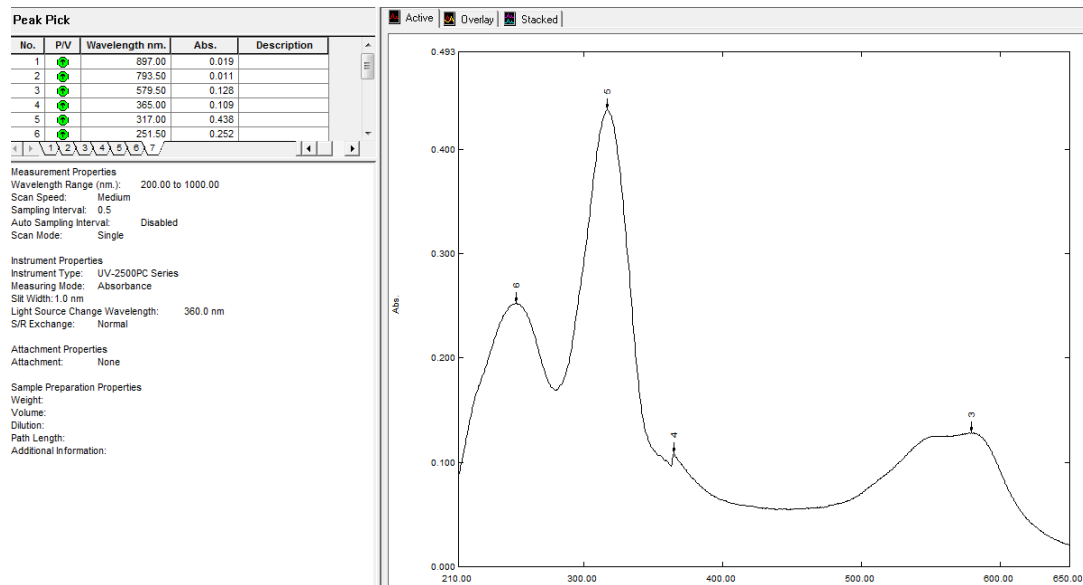


FT Raman, 1064nm



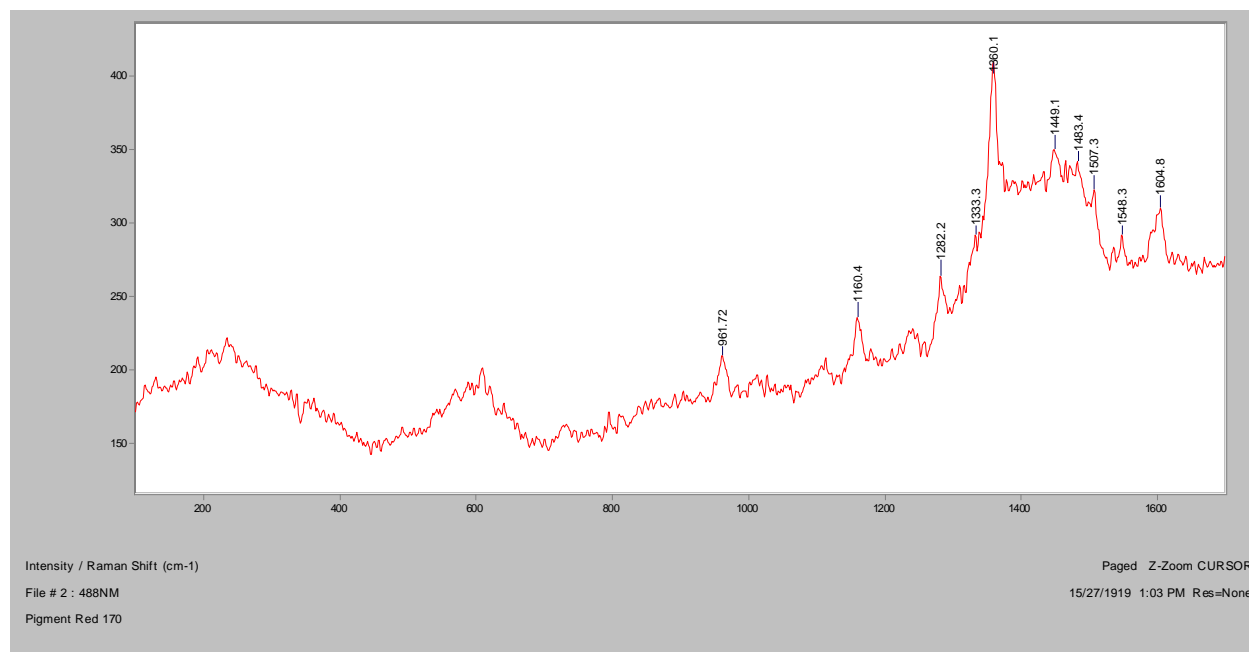
SERS, 488nm**FT-IR (ATR)**

UV-Vis

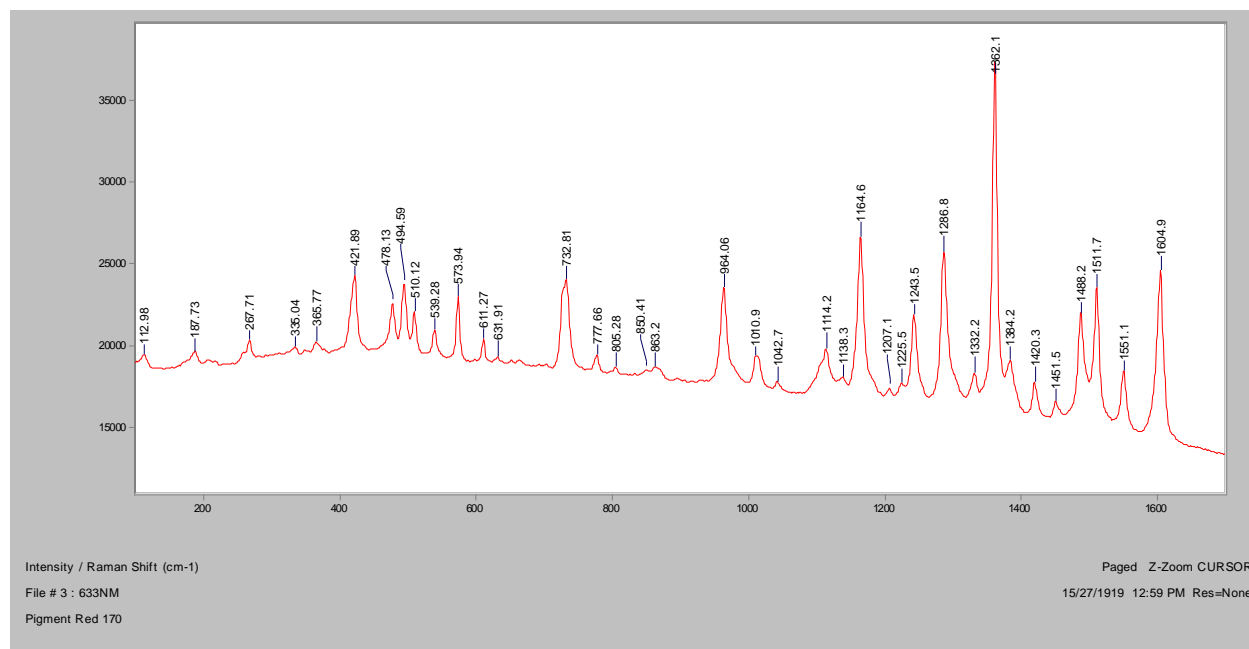


Pigment Red 170

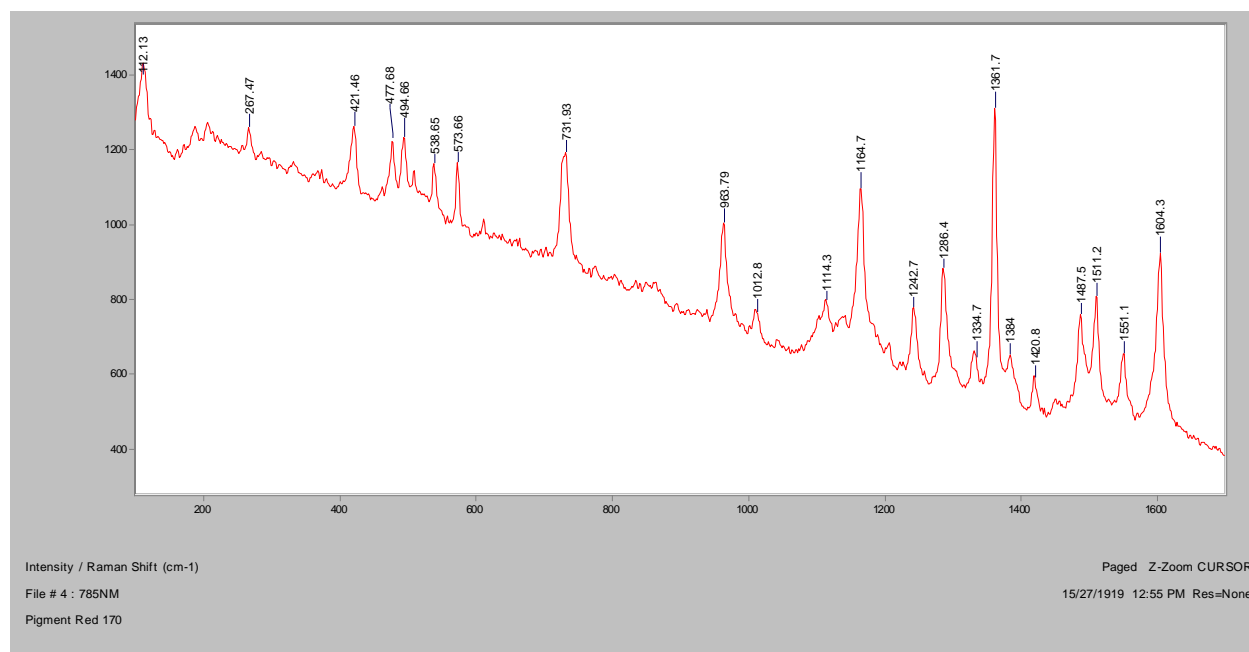
Normal Raman, 488nm



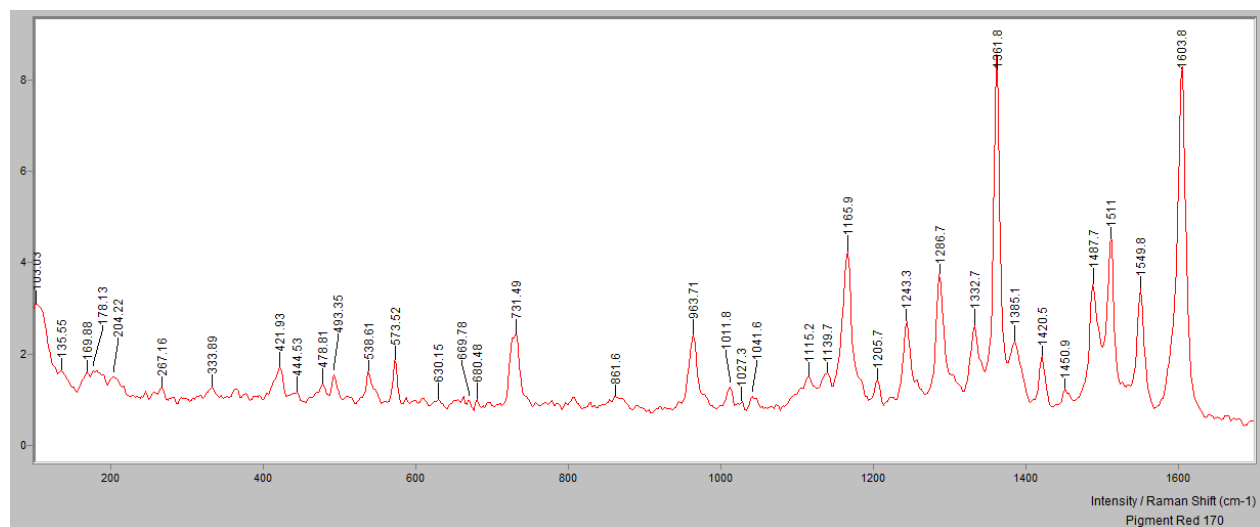
Normal Raman 633nm



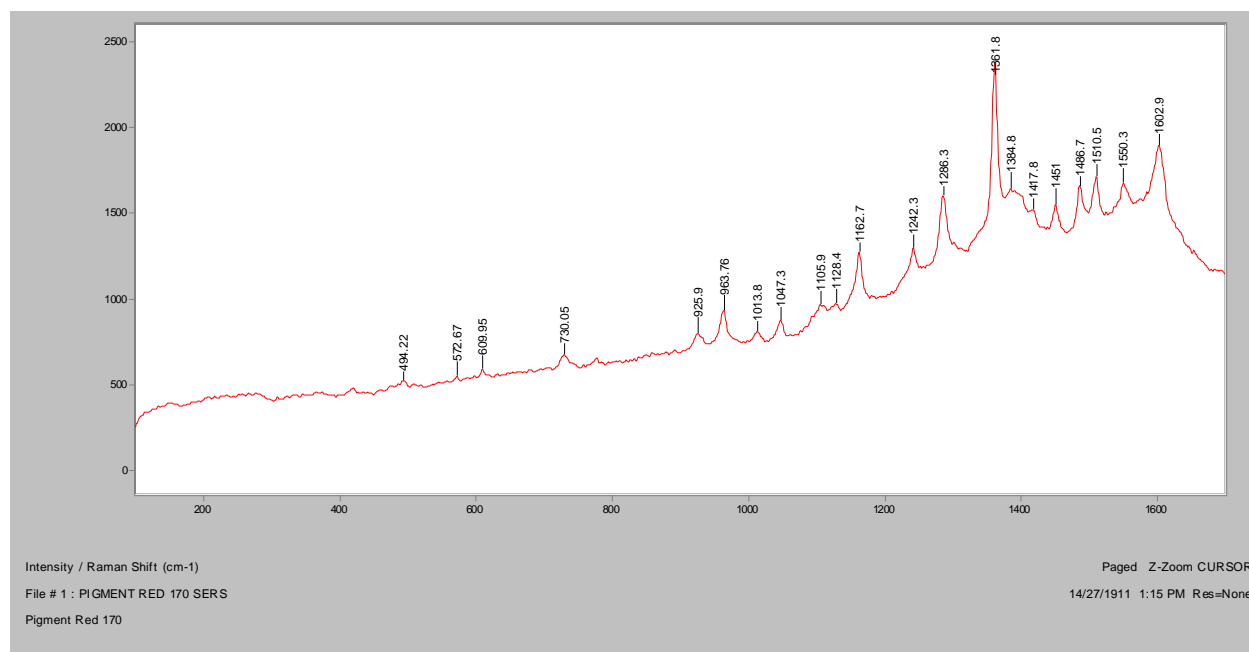
Normal Raman 785nm



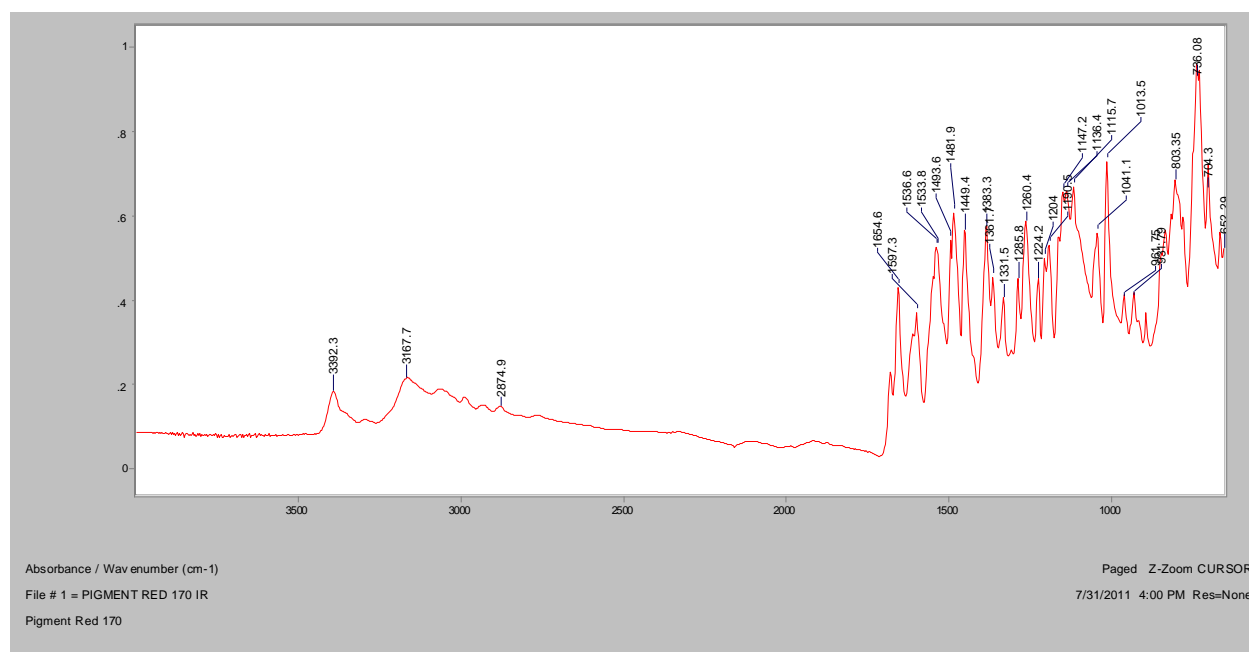
FT Raman, 1064nm



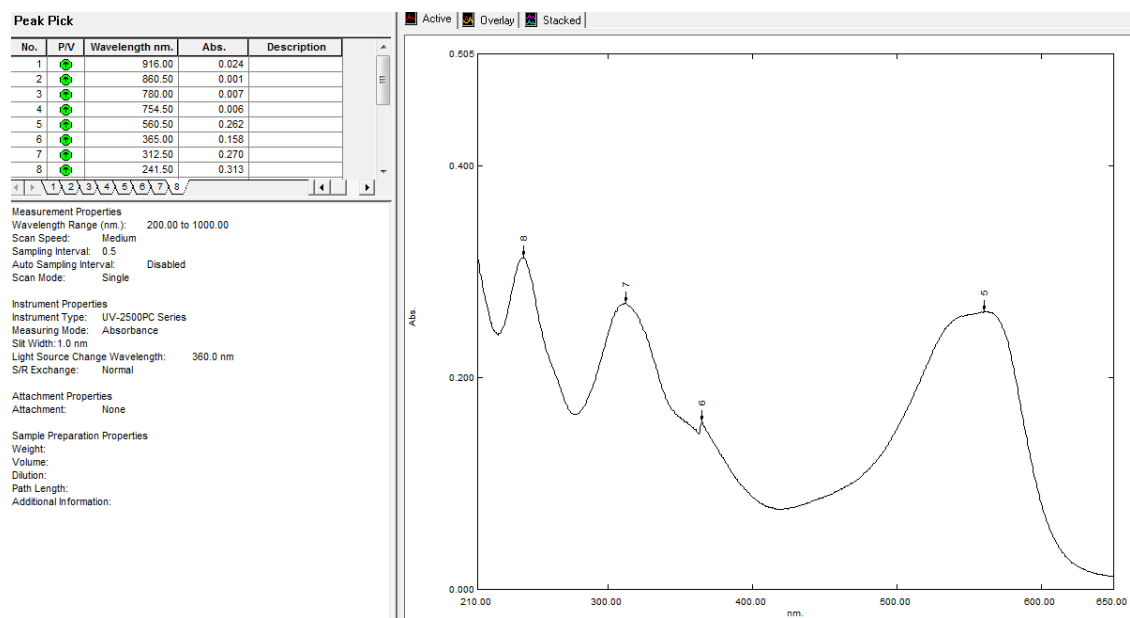
SERS, 488nm



FT-IR (ATR)

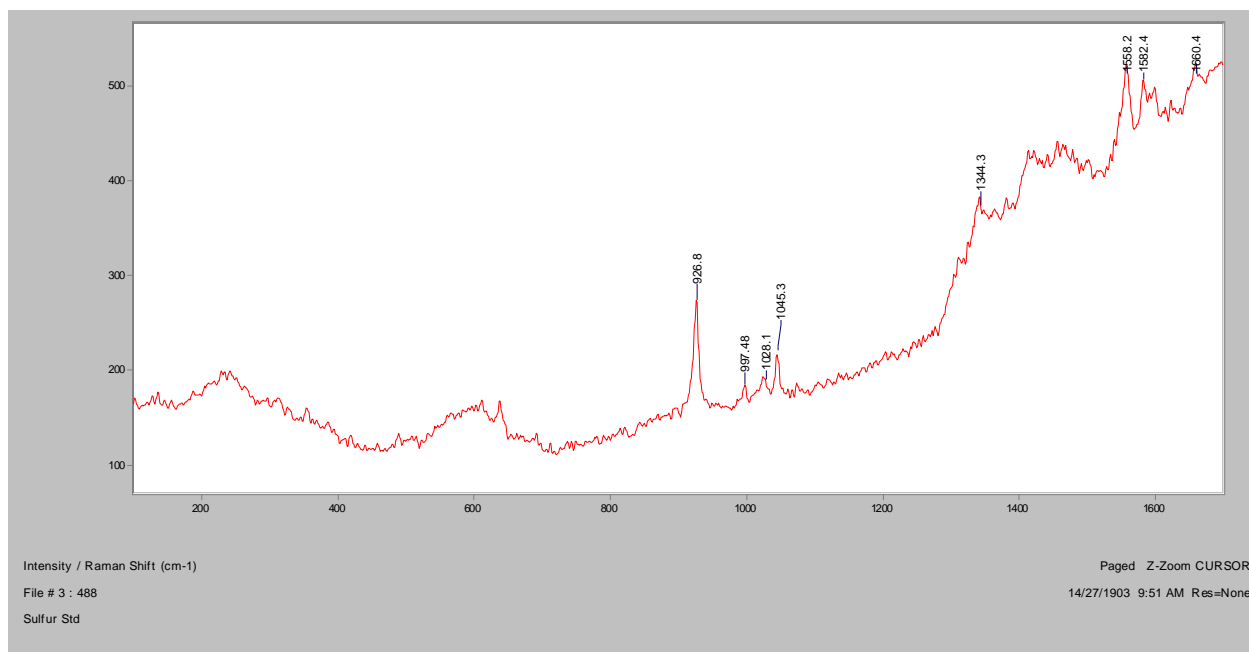


UV-Vis

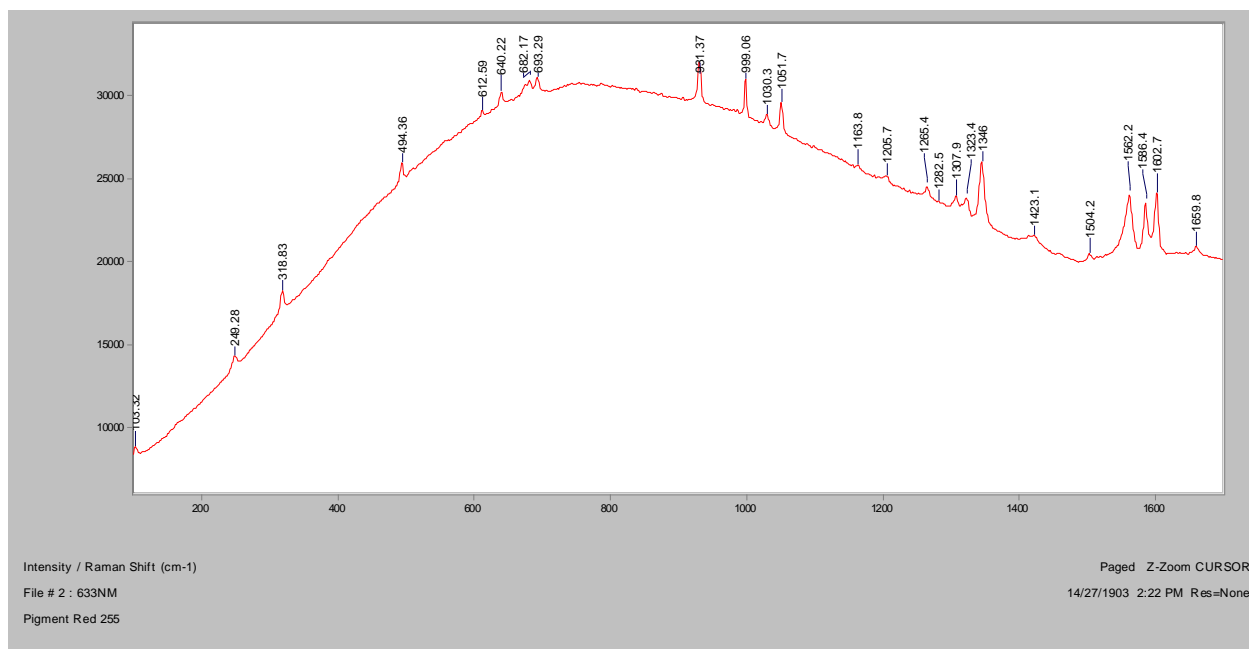


Pigment Red 255

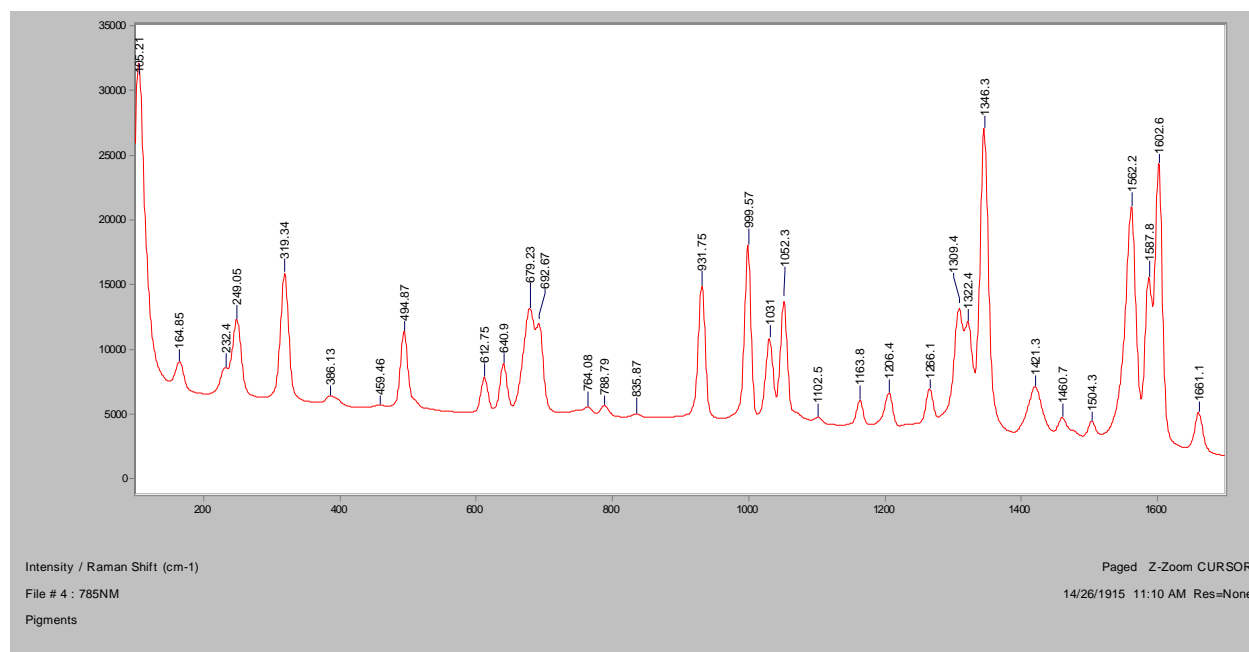
Normal Raman, 488nm



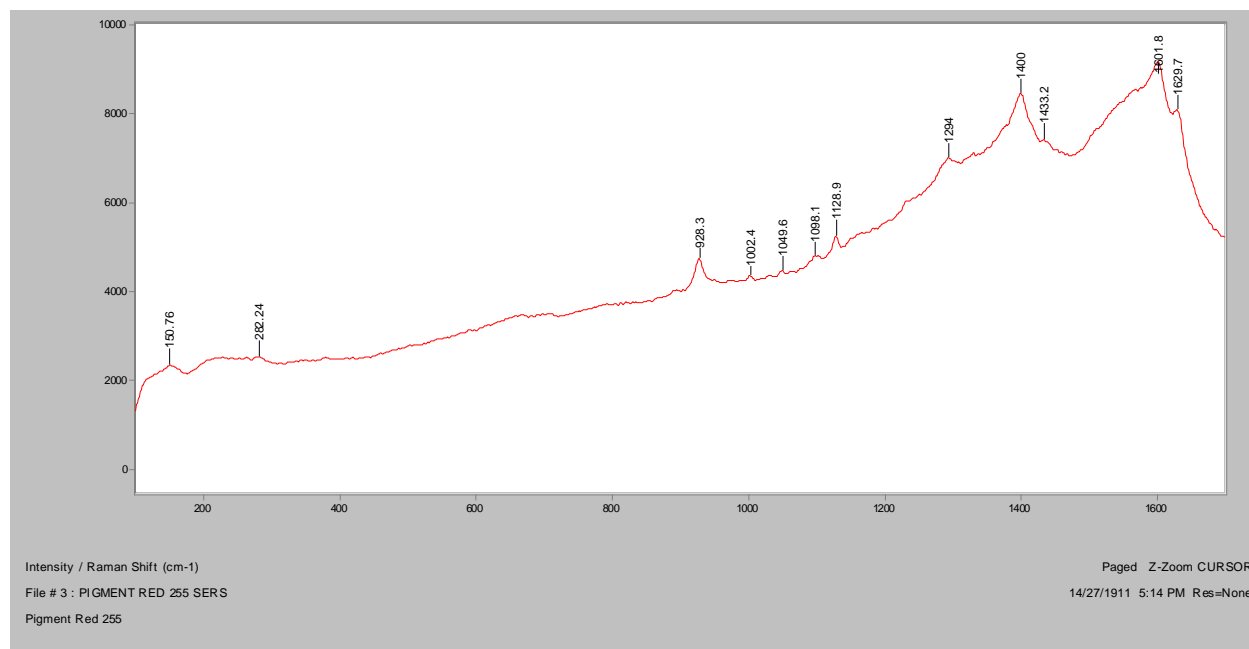
Normal Raman 633nm



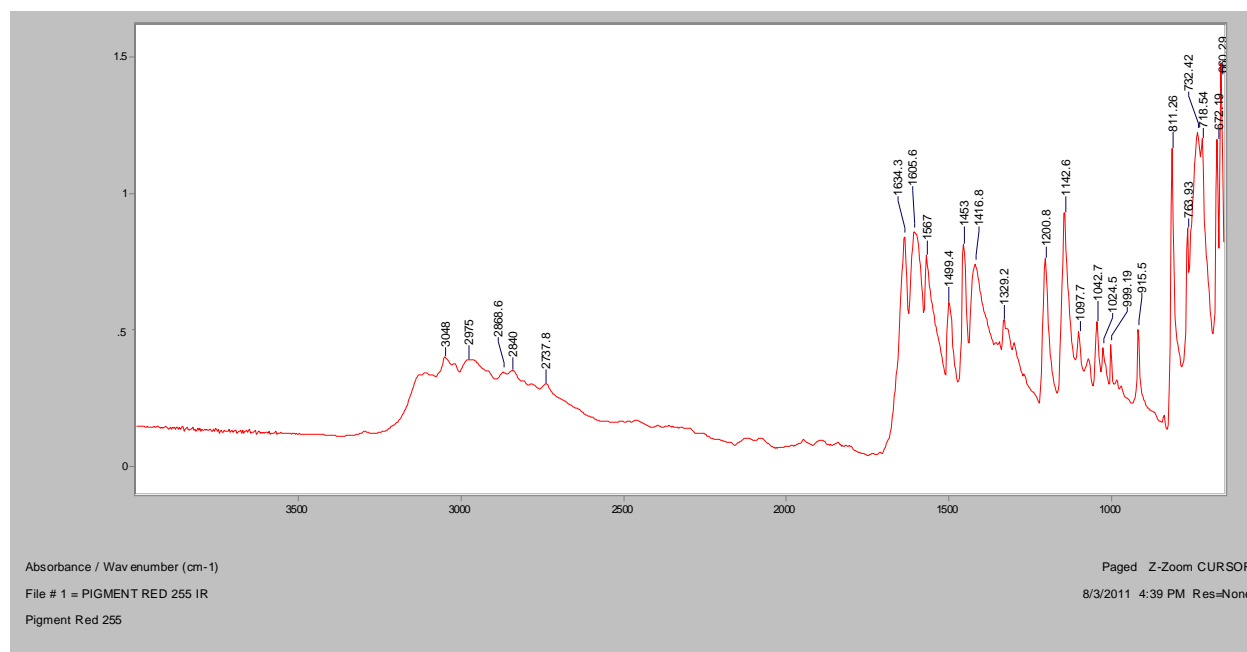
Normal Raman 785nm



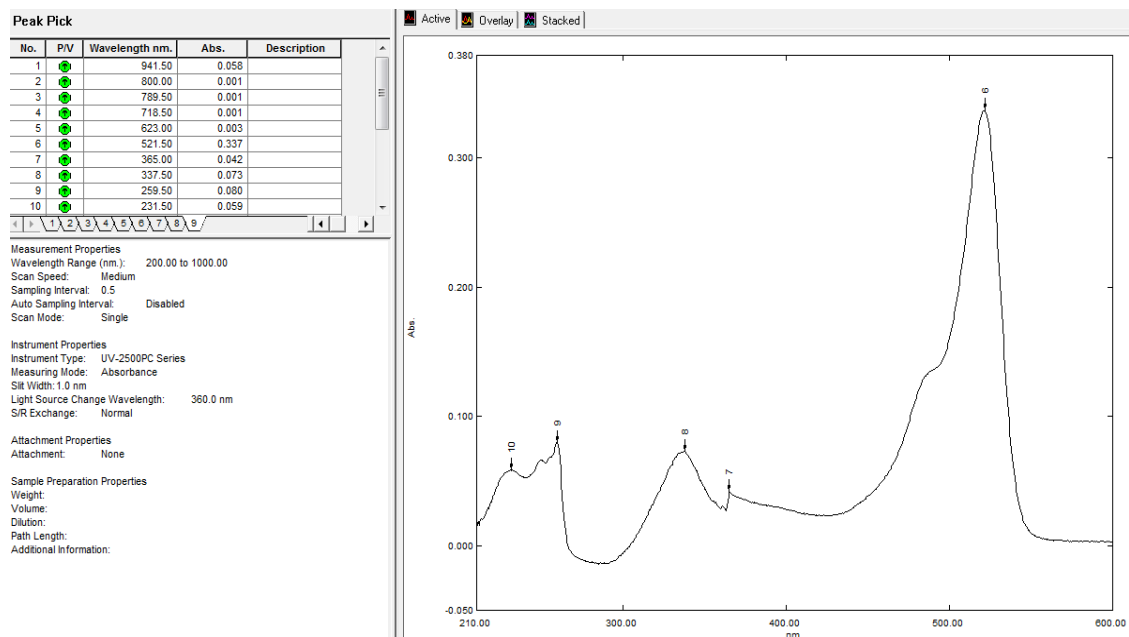
SERS, 488nm



FT-IR (ATR)

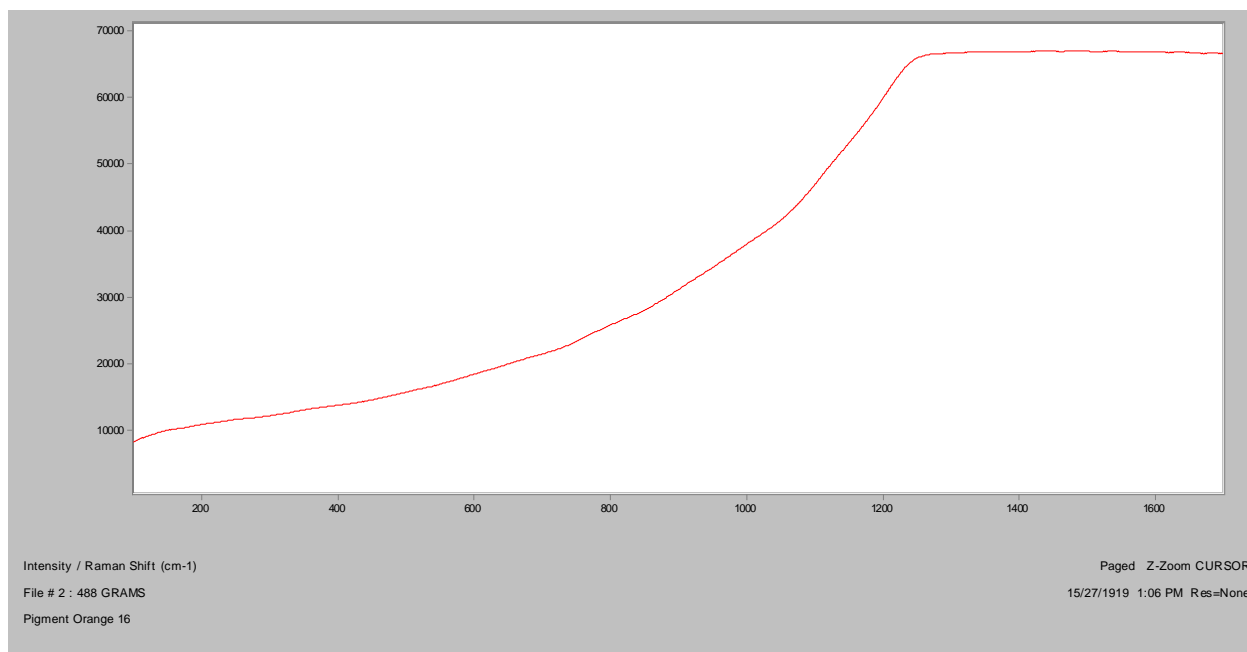


UV-Vis

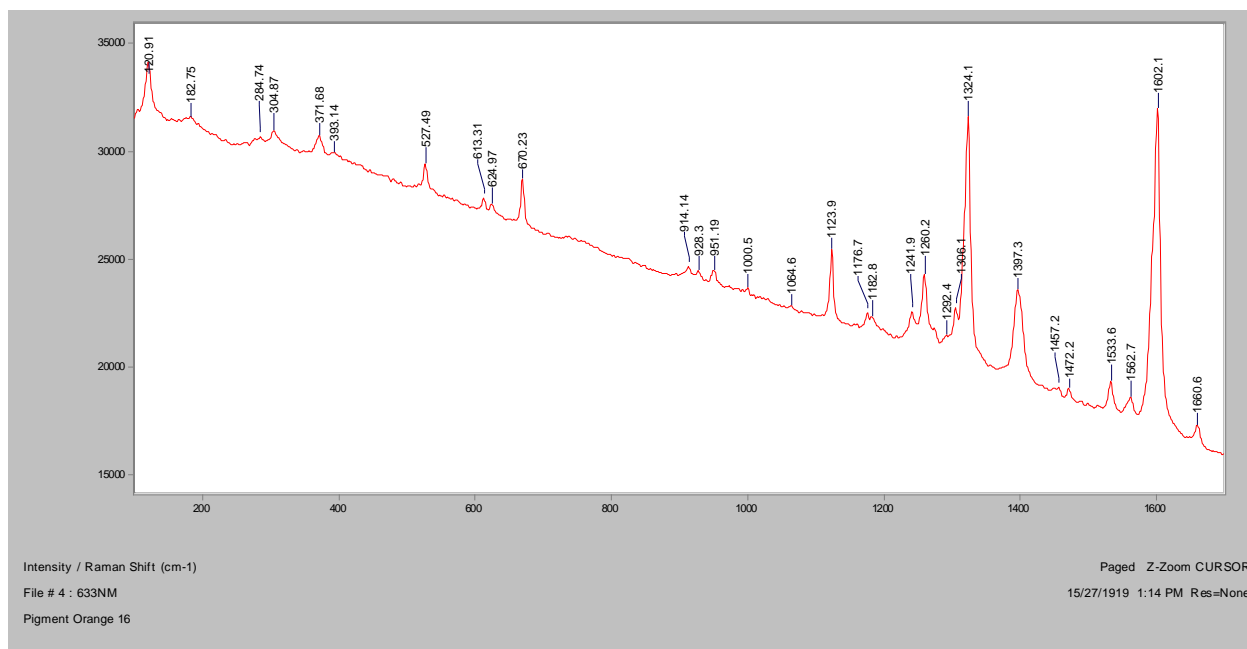


Pigment Orange 16

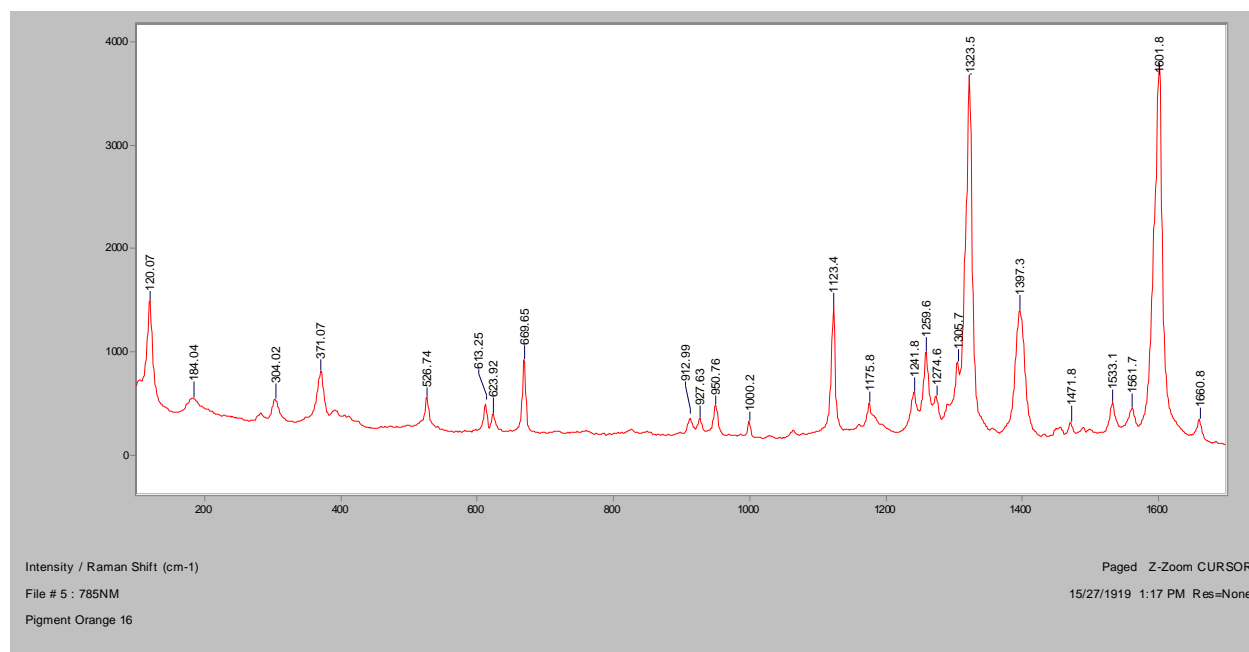
Normal Raman, 488nm



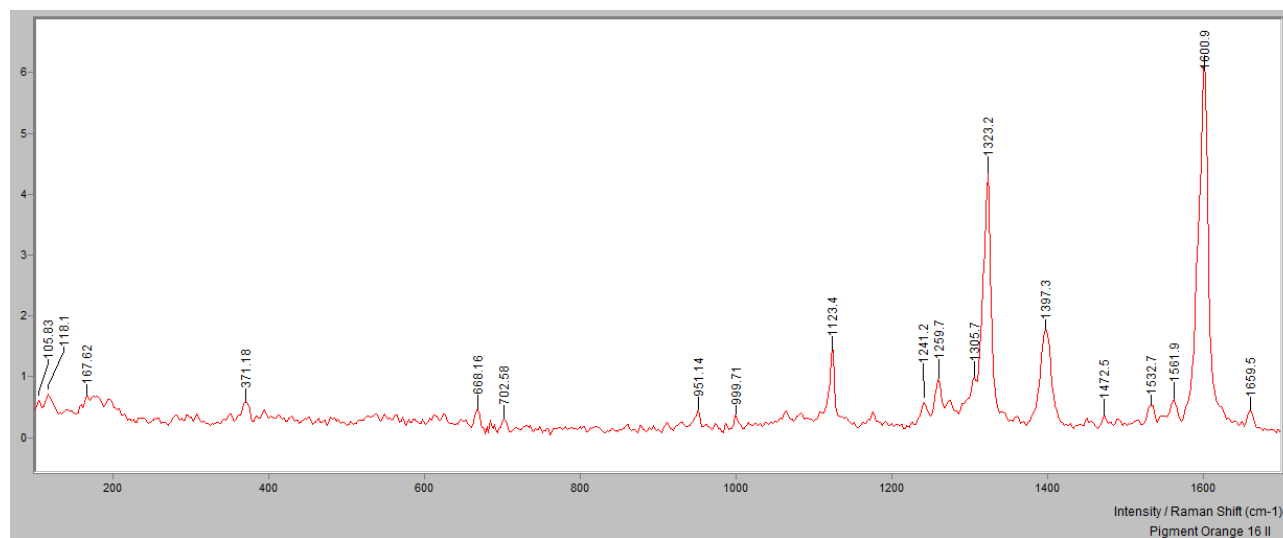
Normal Raman 633nm



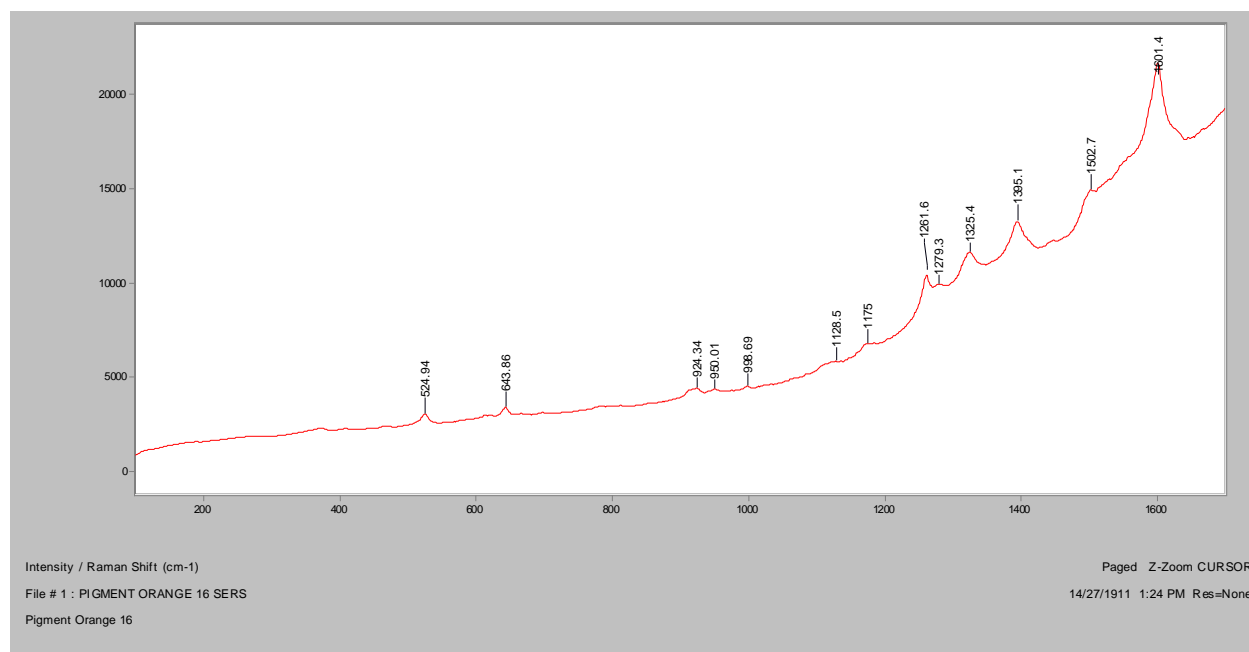
Normal Raman 785nm



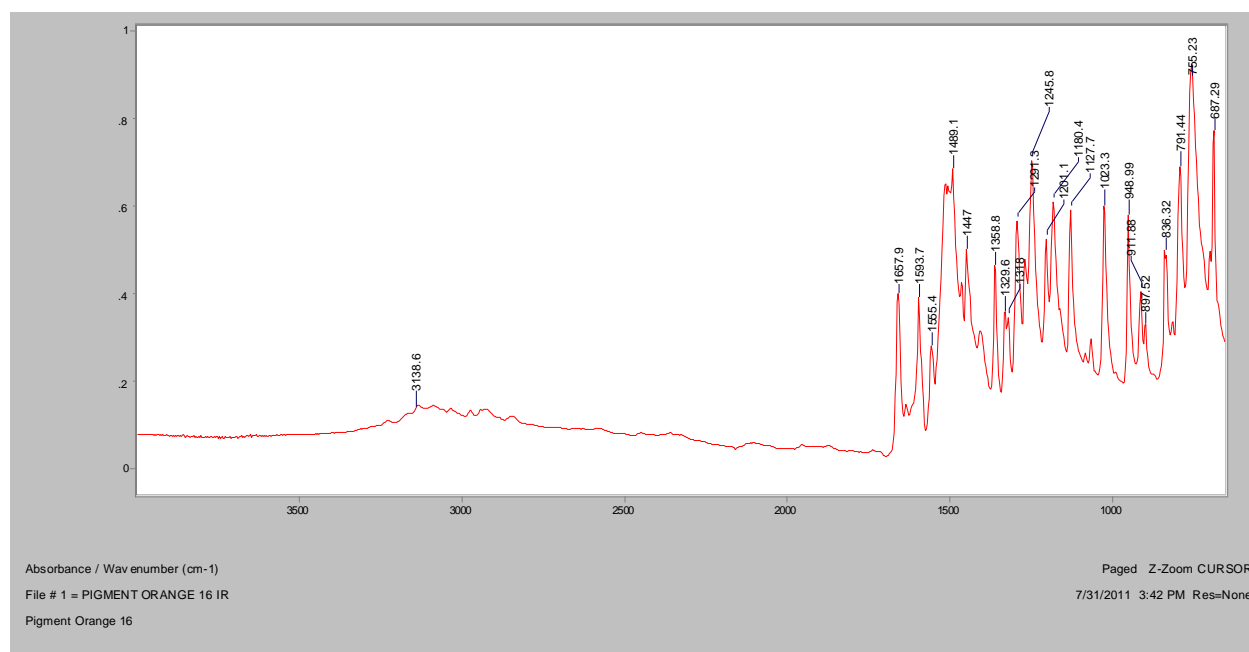
FT Raman, 1064



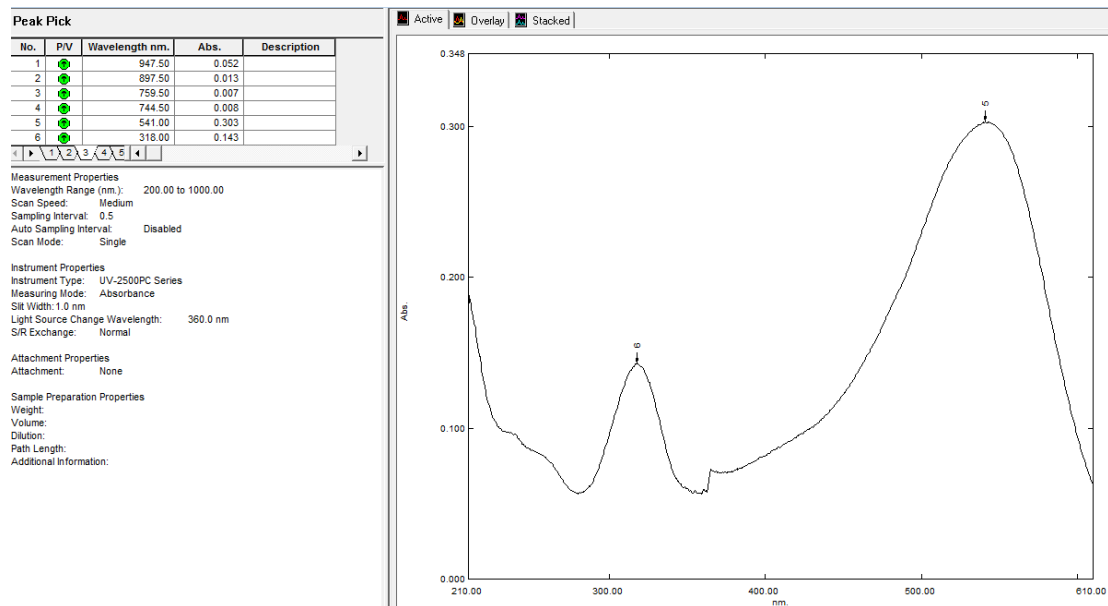
SERS, 488nm



FT-IR (ATR)

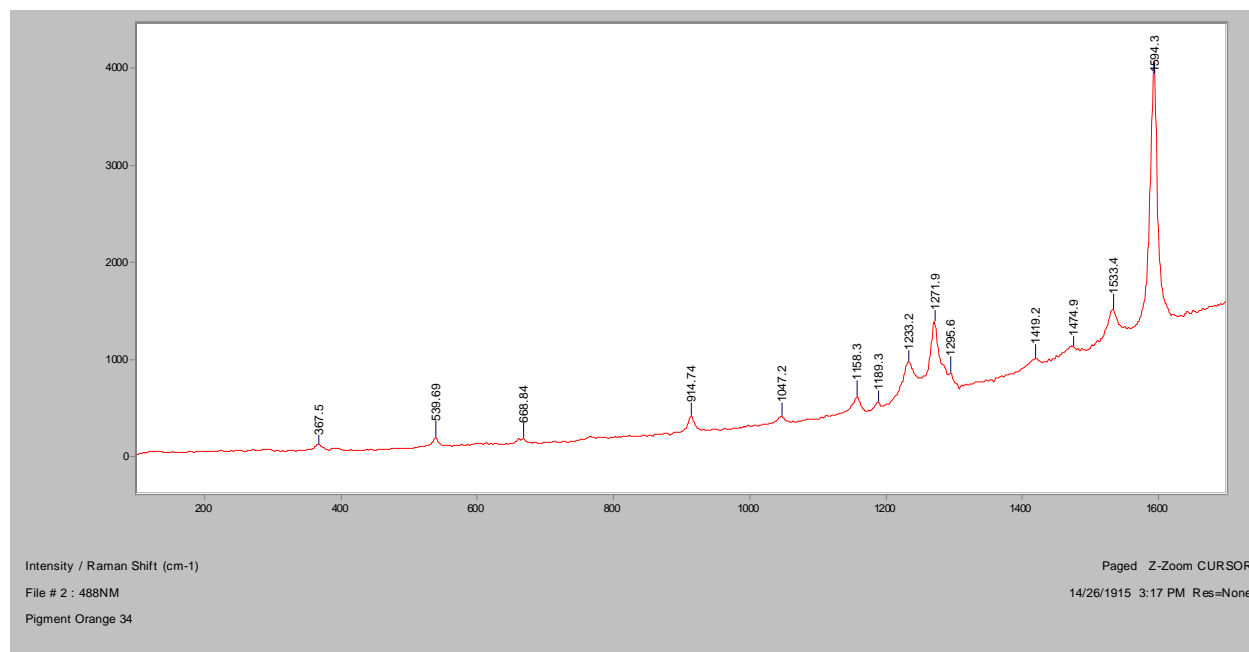


UV-Vis

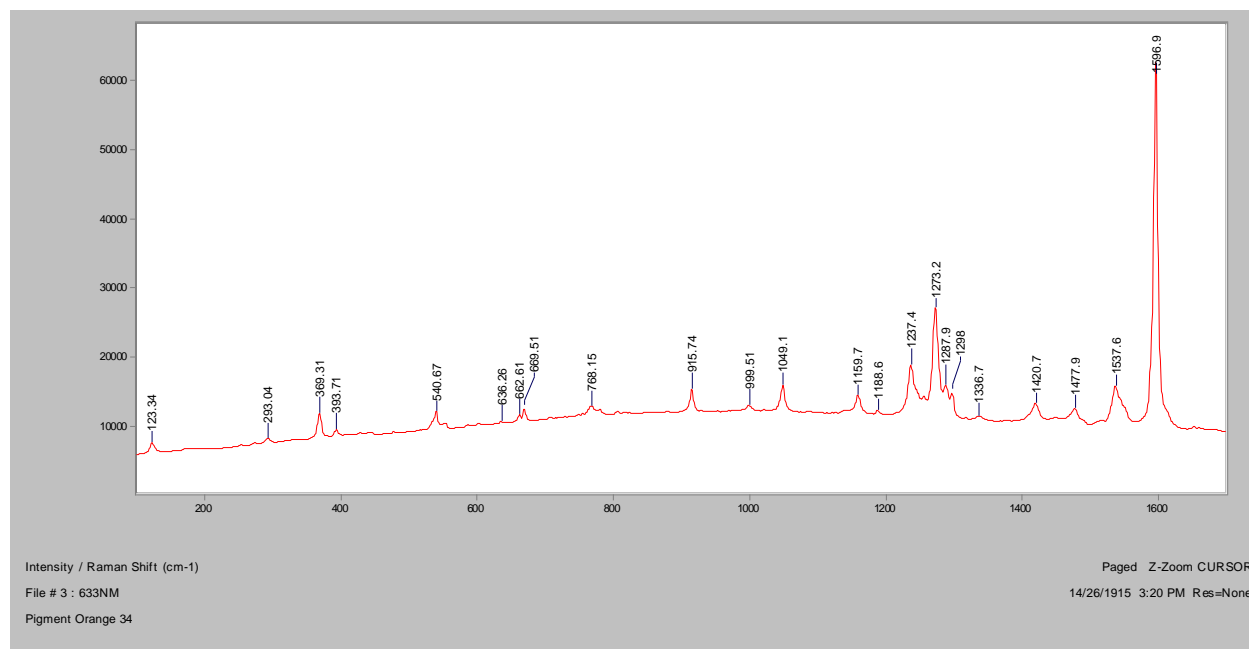


Pigment Orange 34

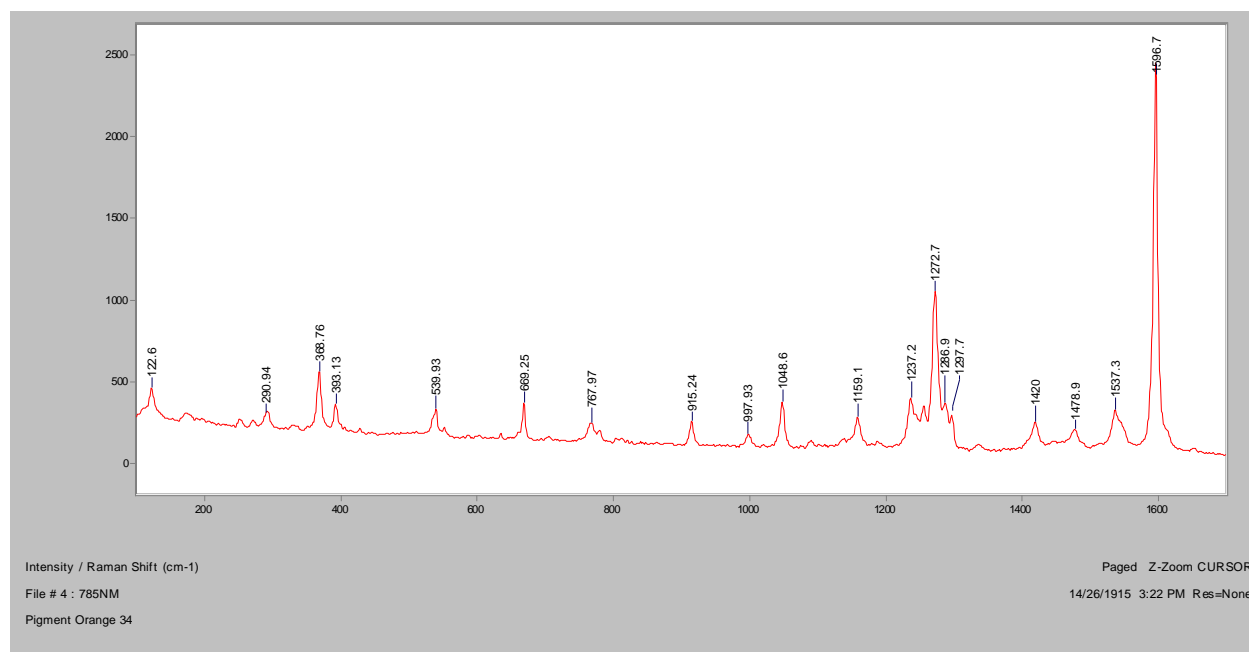
Normal Raman, 488nm



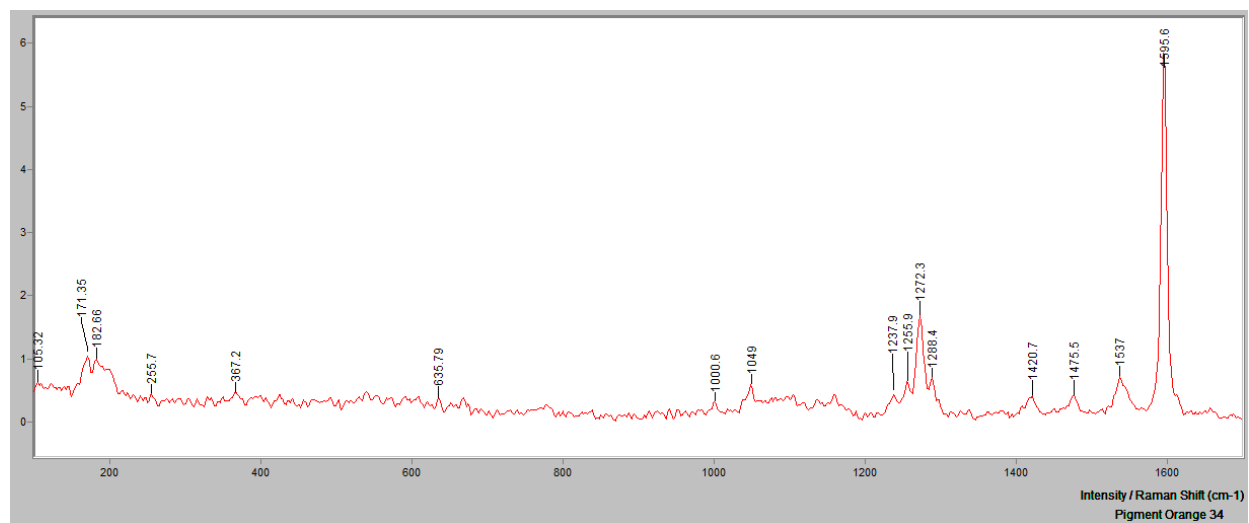
Normal Raman 633nm



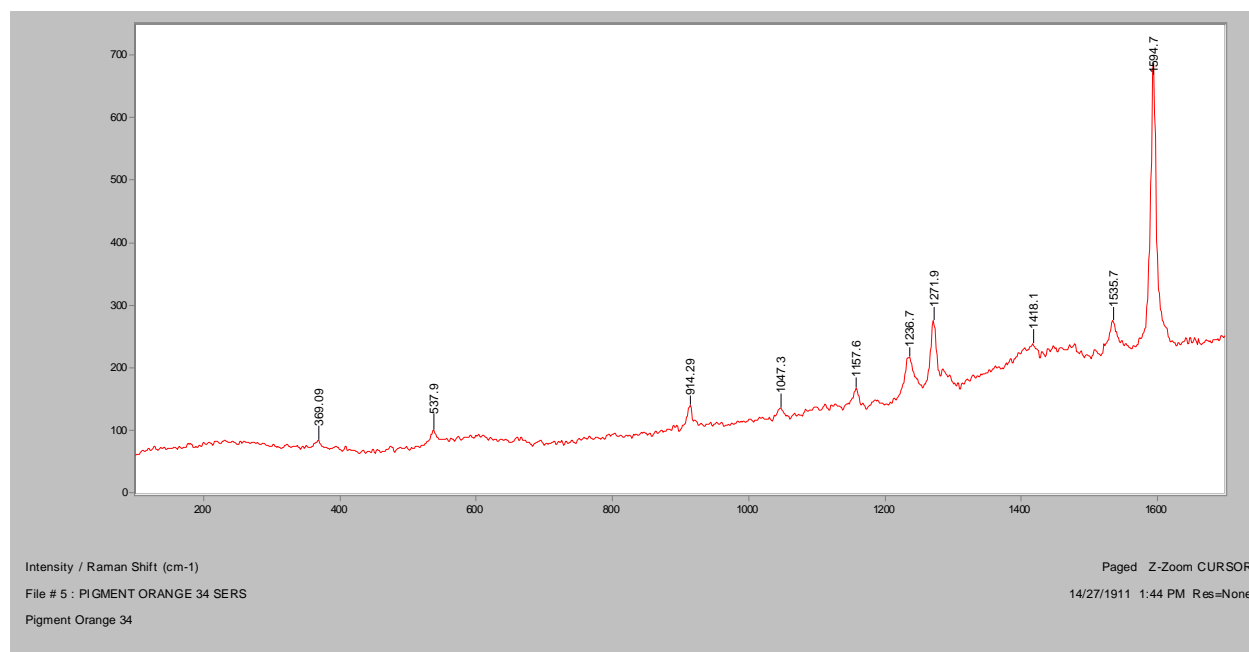
Normal Raman 785nm



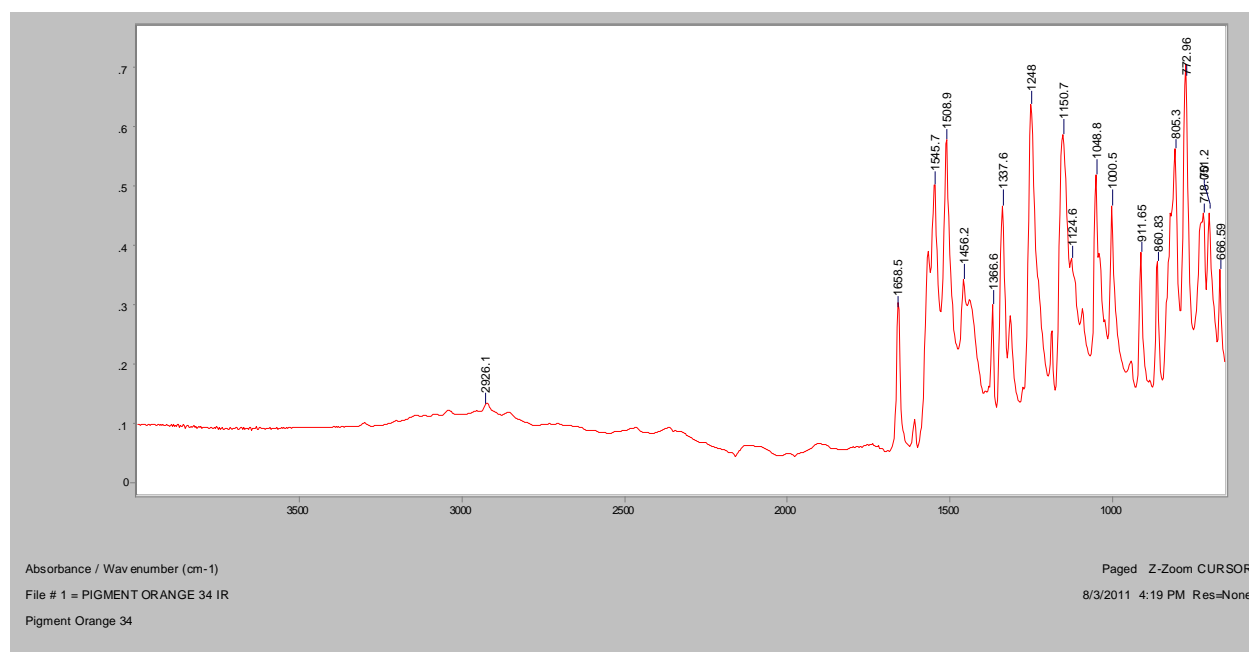
FT Raman, 1064nm



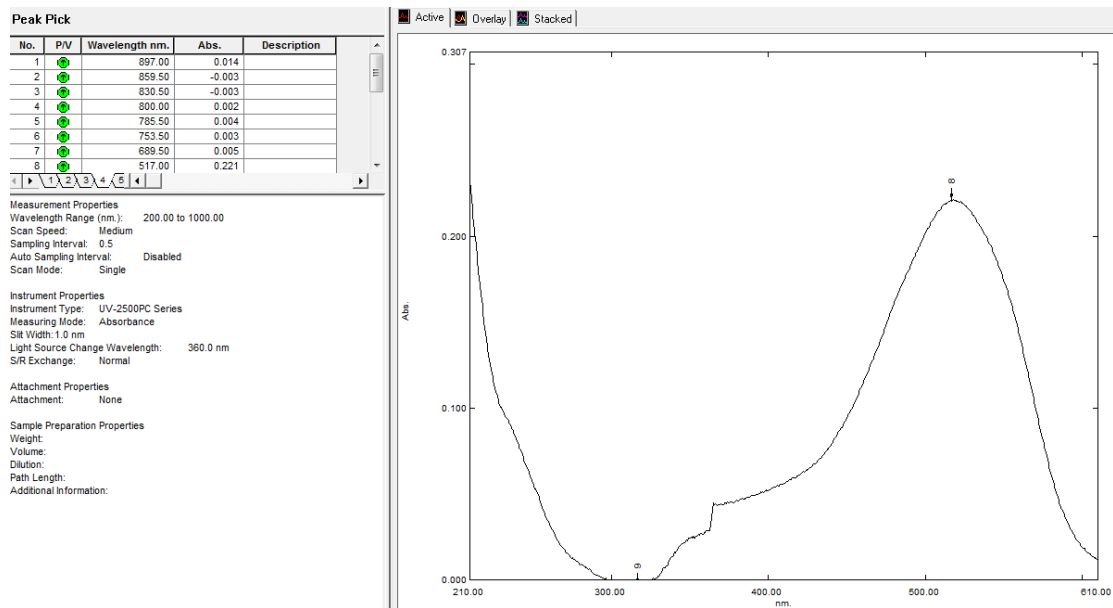
SERS, 488nm



FT-IR (ATR)

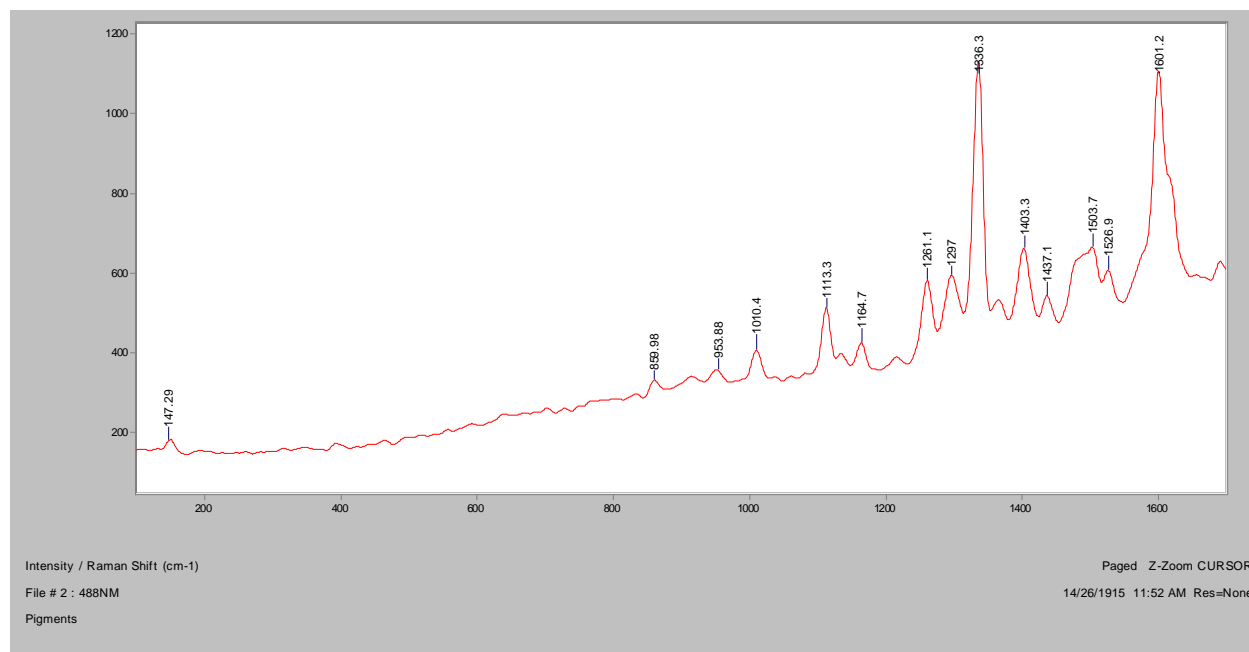


UV-Vis

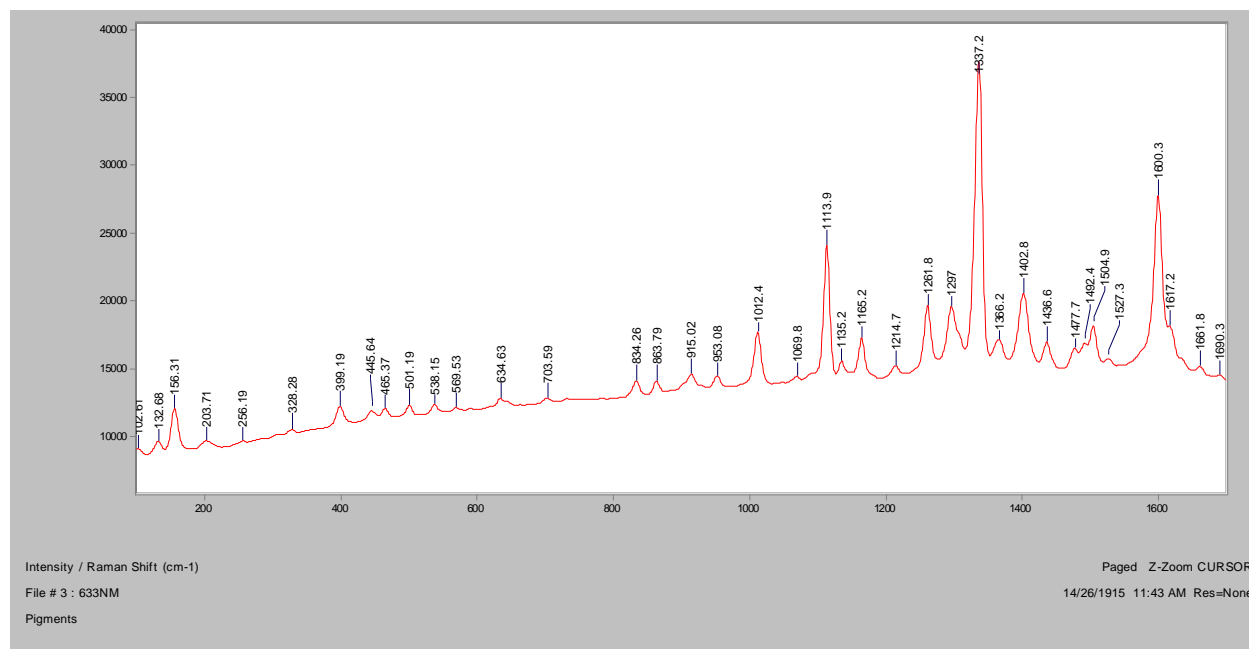


Pigment Orange 62

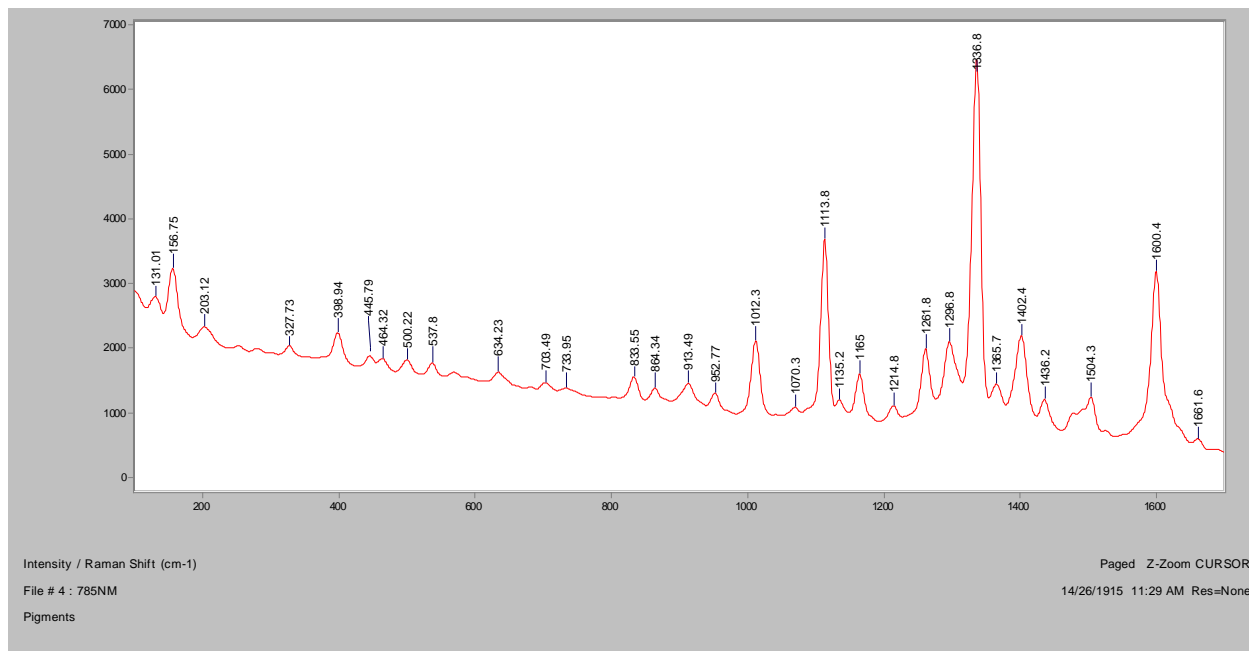
Normal Raman, 488nm



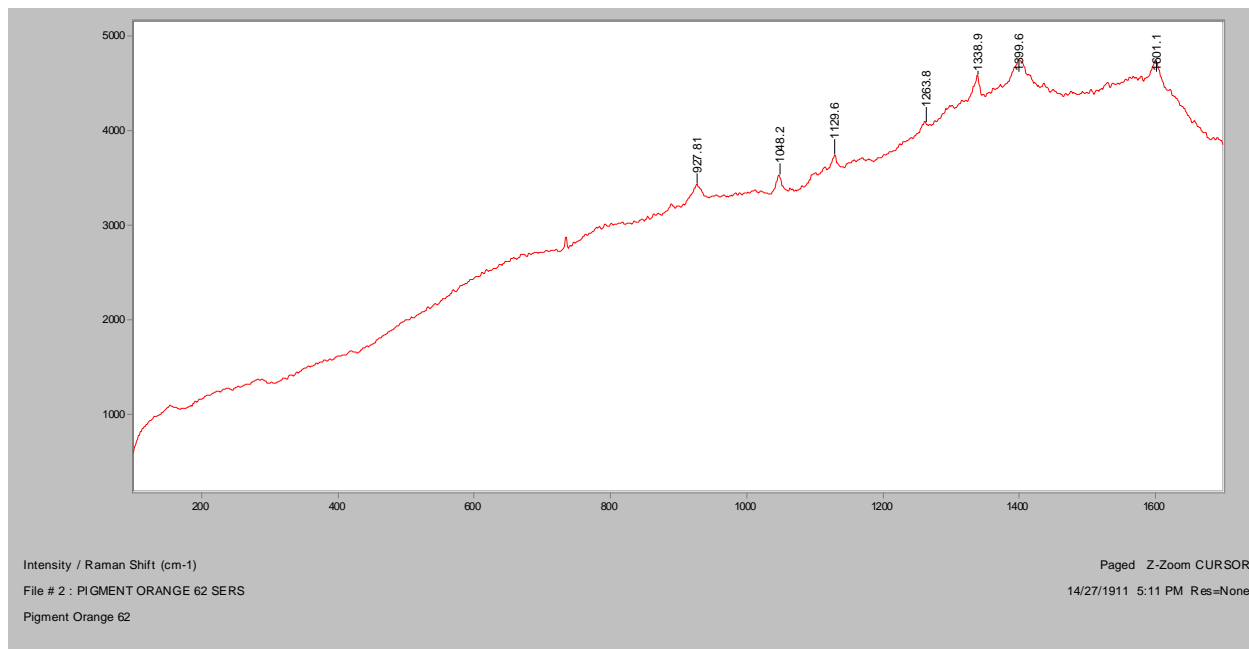
Normal Raman 633nm



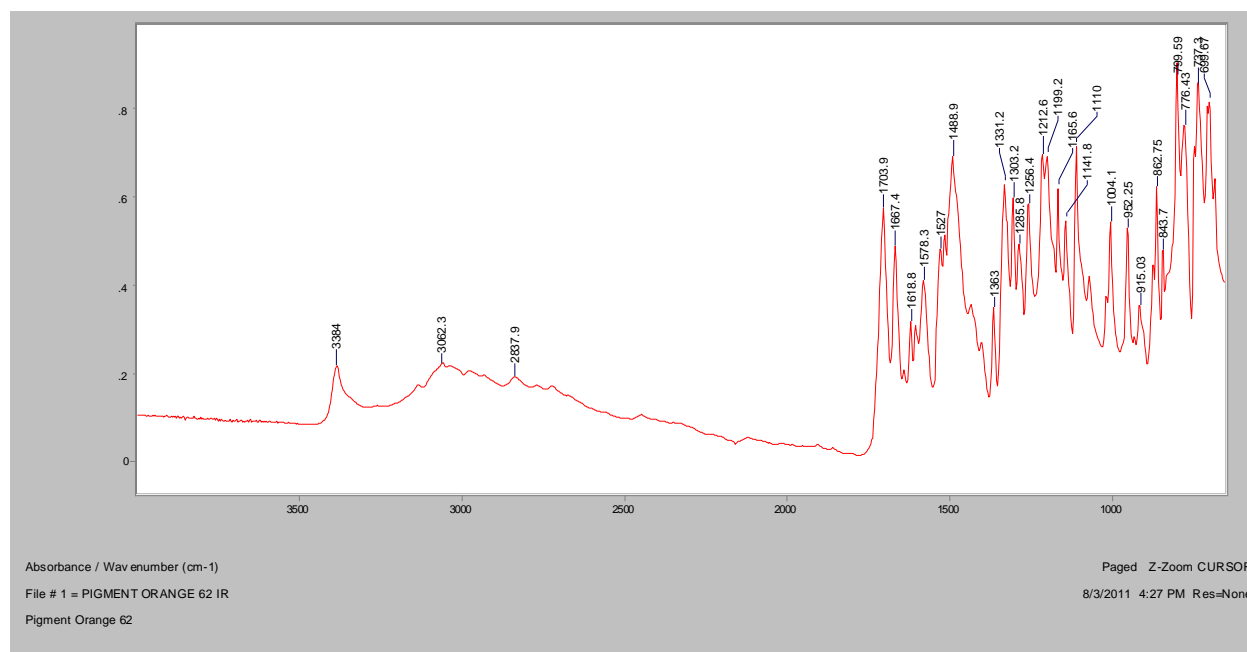
Normal Raman 785nm



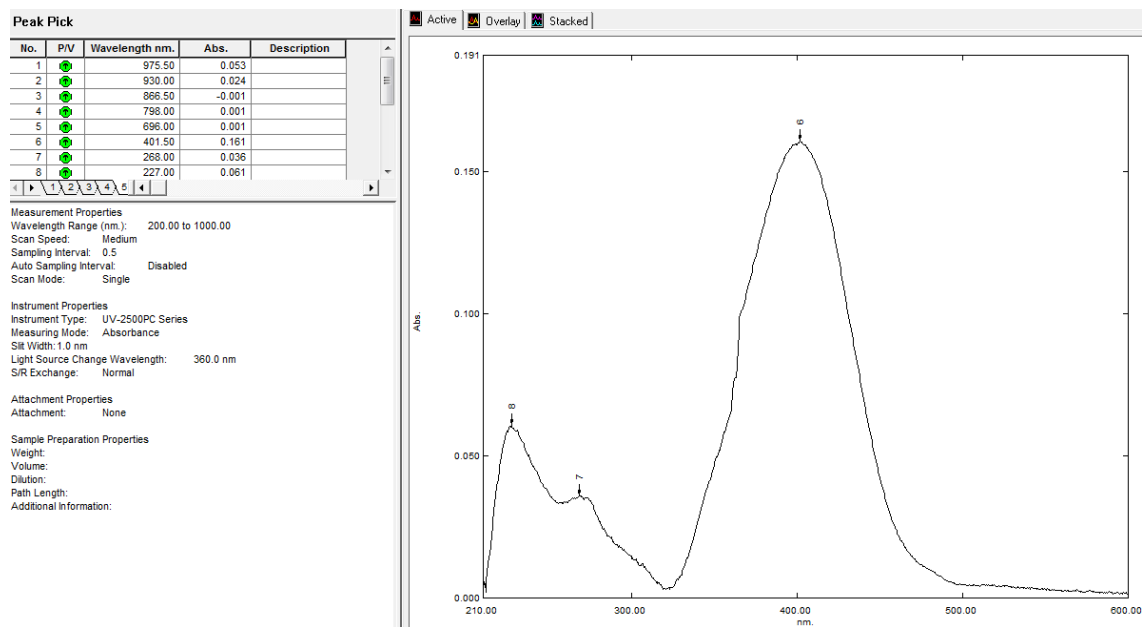
SERS, 488nm



FT-IR (ATR)

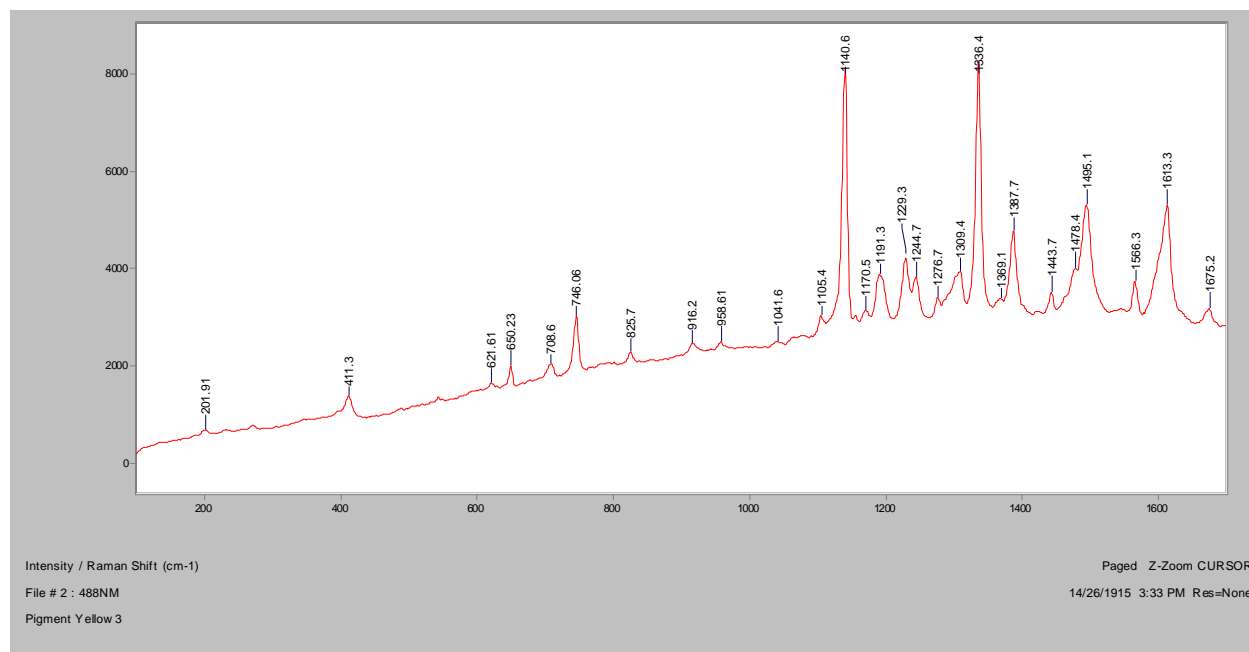


UV-Vis

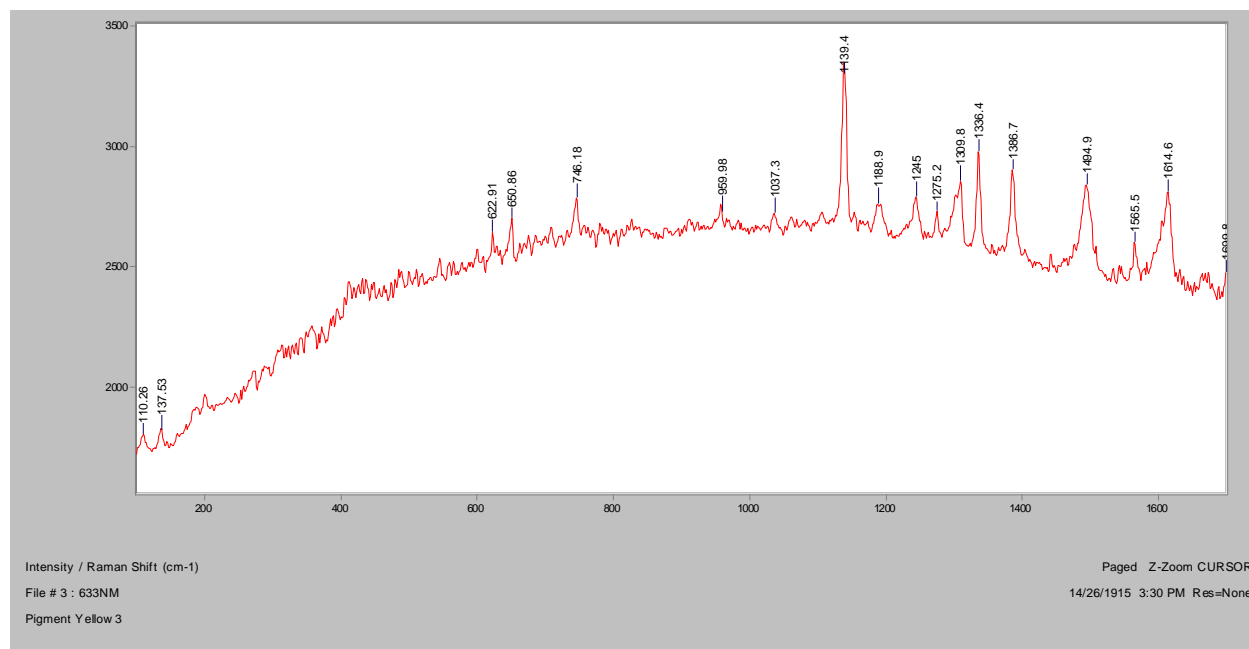


Pigment Yellow 3

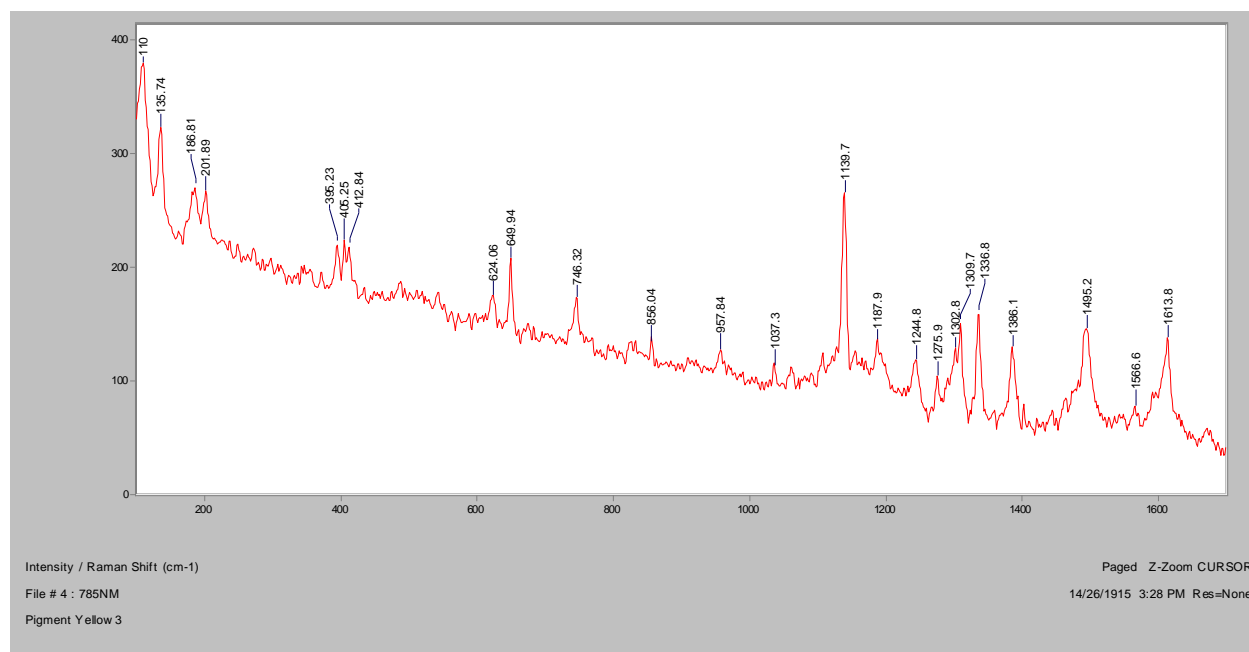
Normal Raman, 488nm



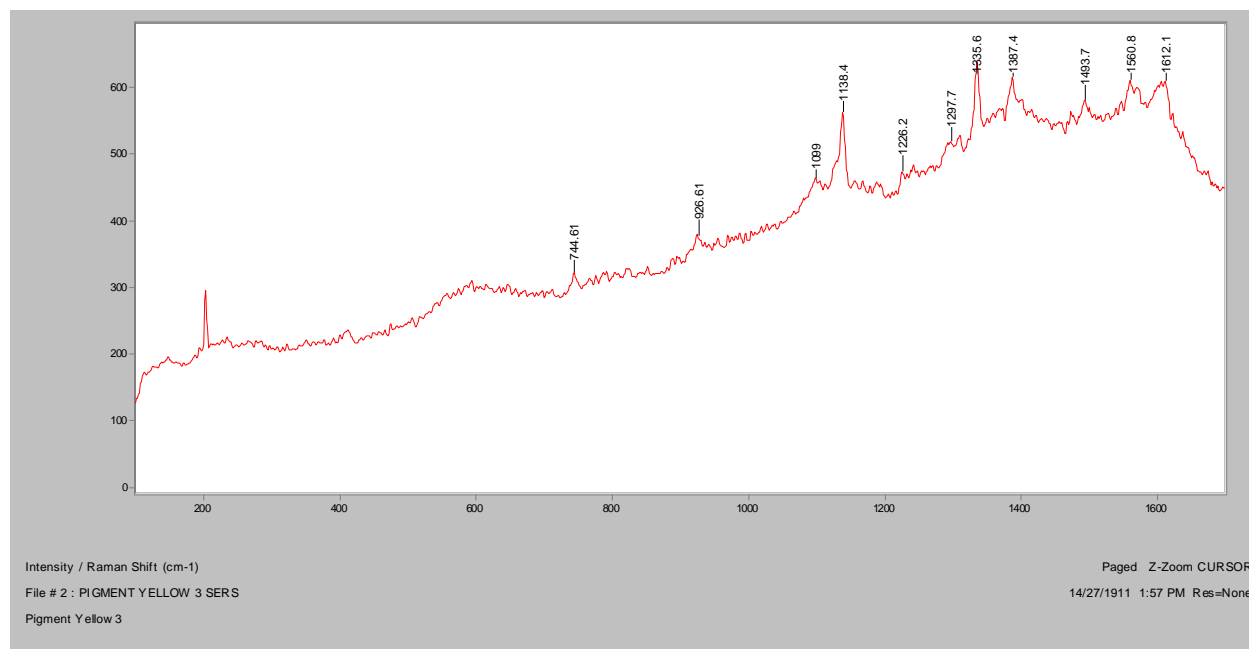
Normal Raman 633nm



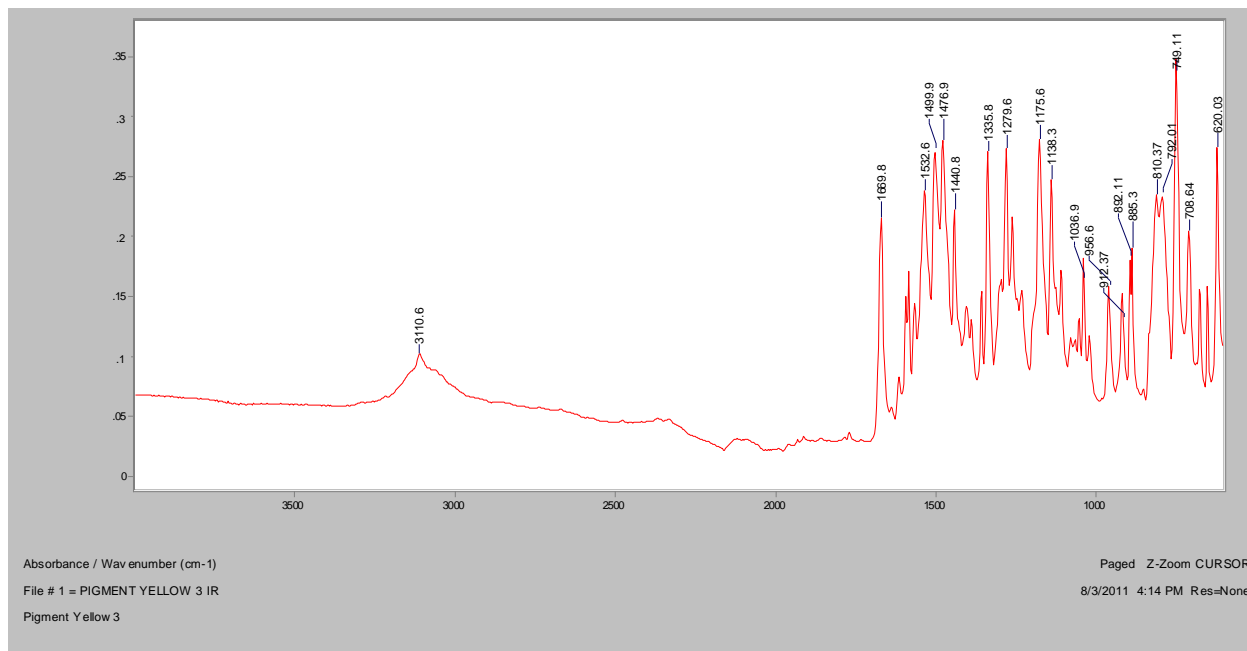
Normal Raman 785nm



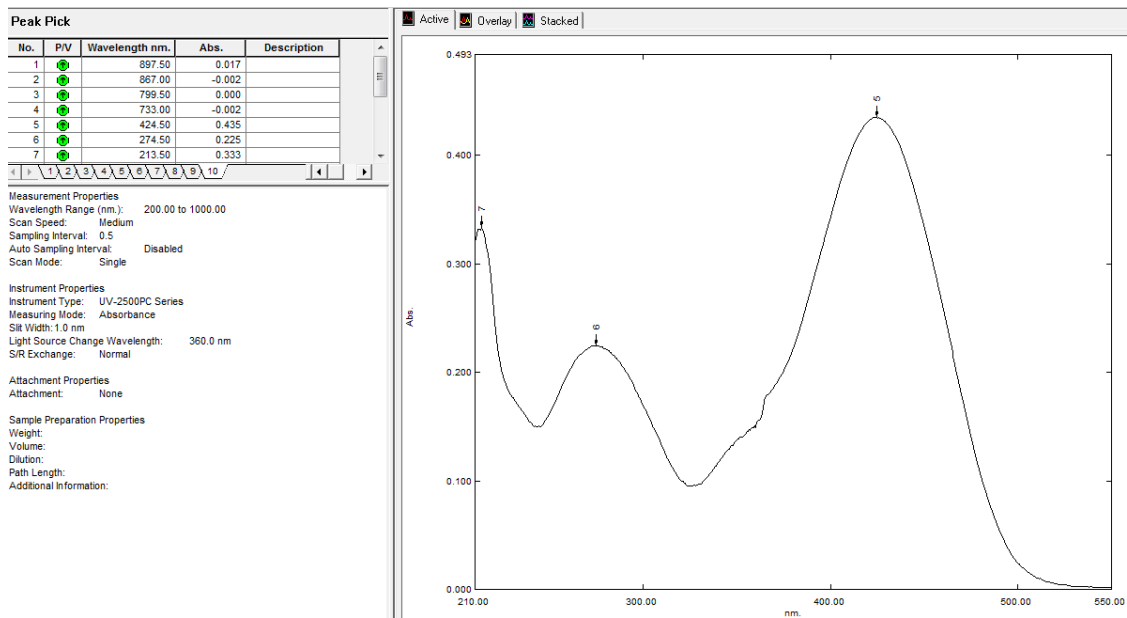
SERS, 488nm



FT-IR (ATR)

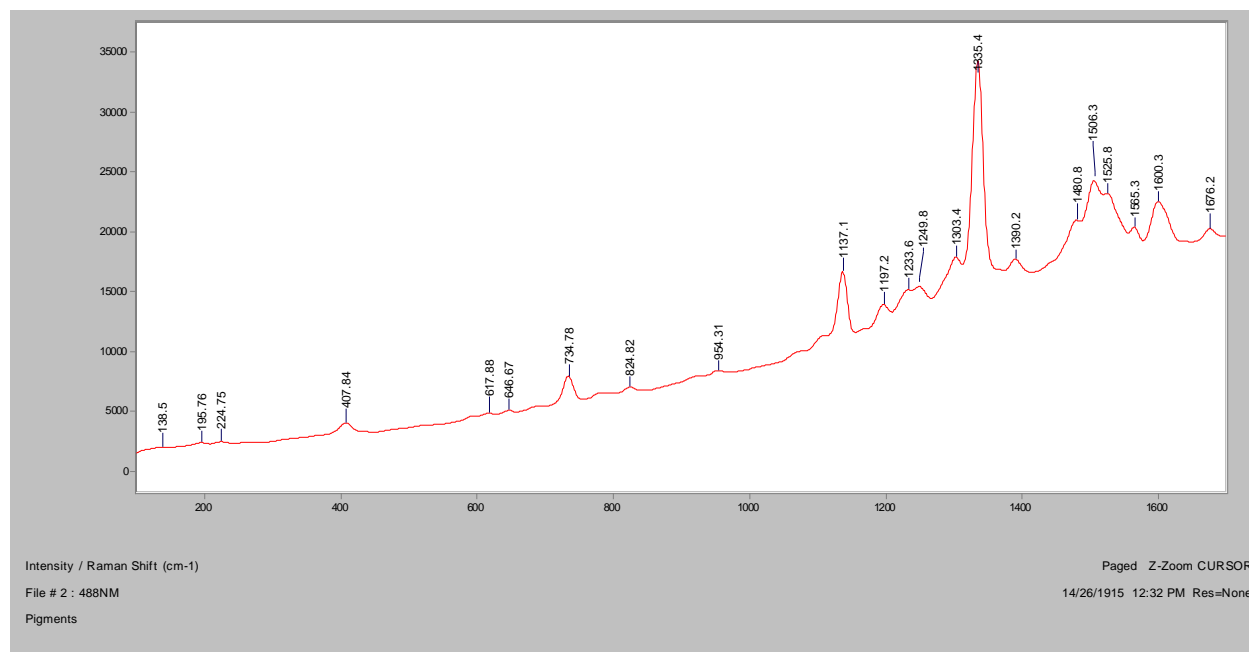


UV-Vis

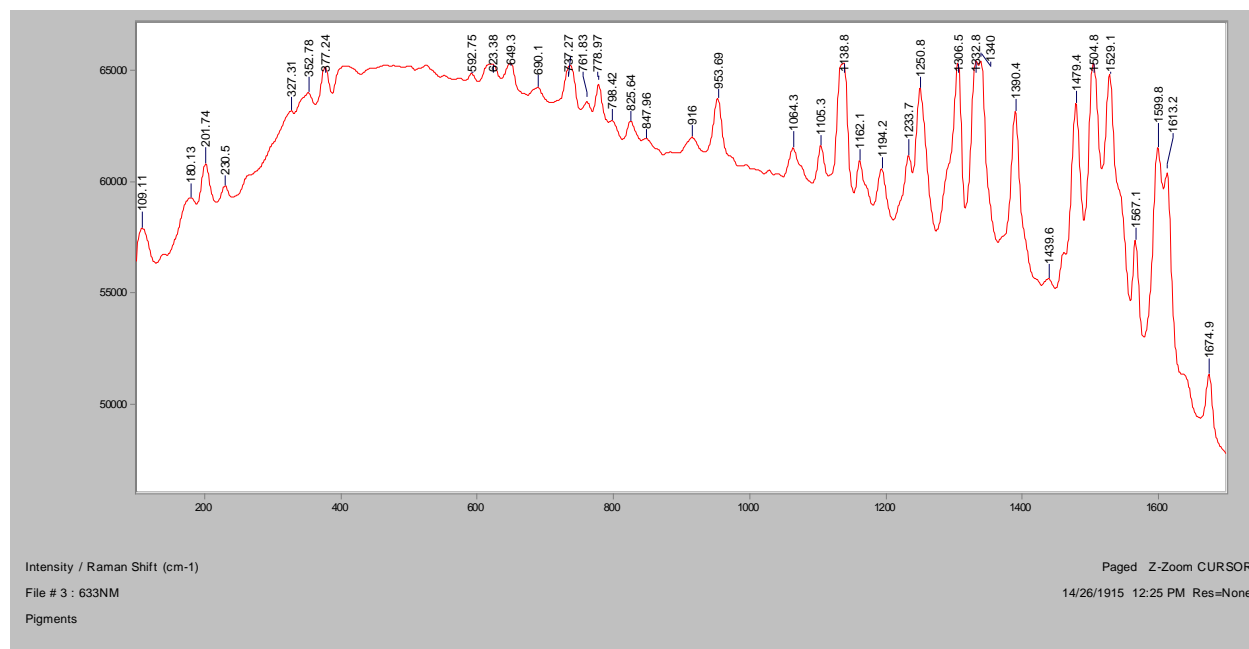


Pigment Yellow 73

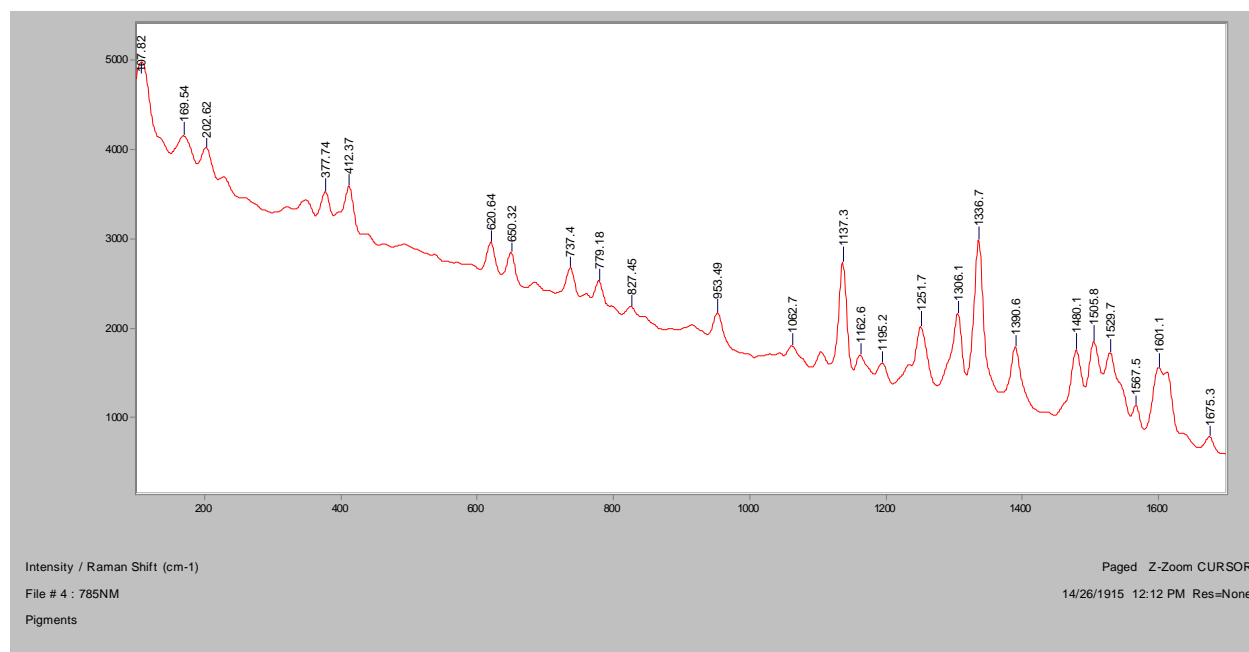
Normal Raman, 488nm



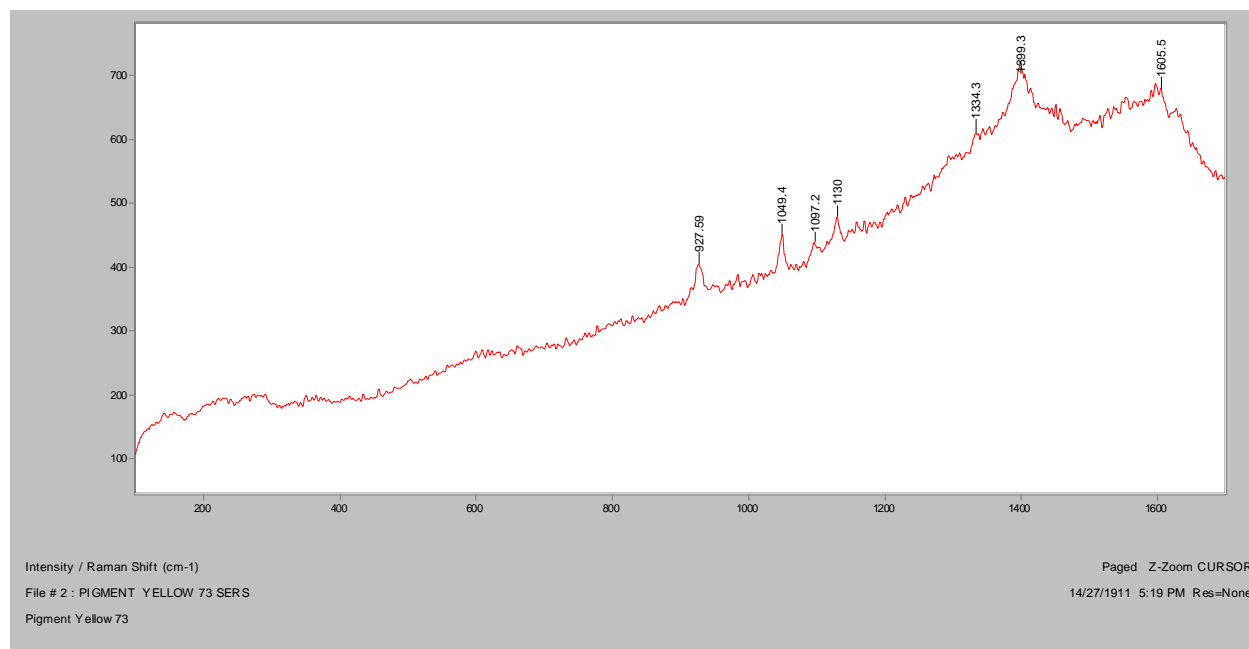
Normal Raman 633nm



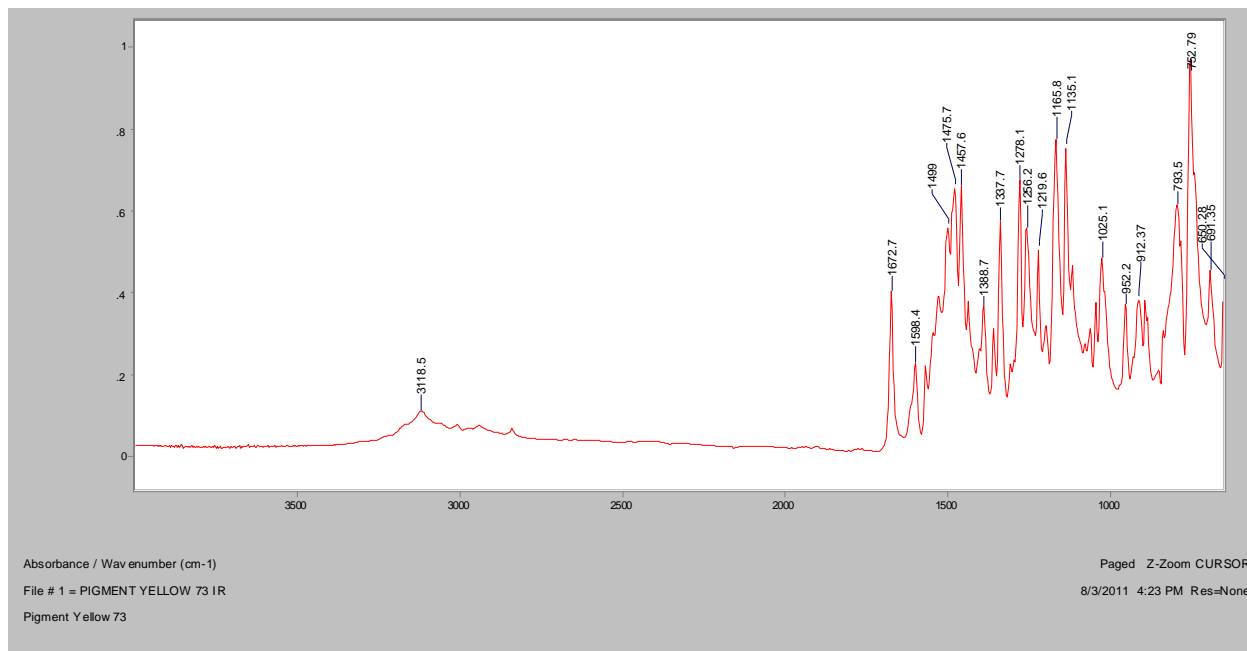
Normal Raman 785nm



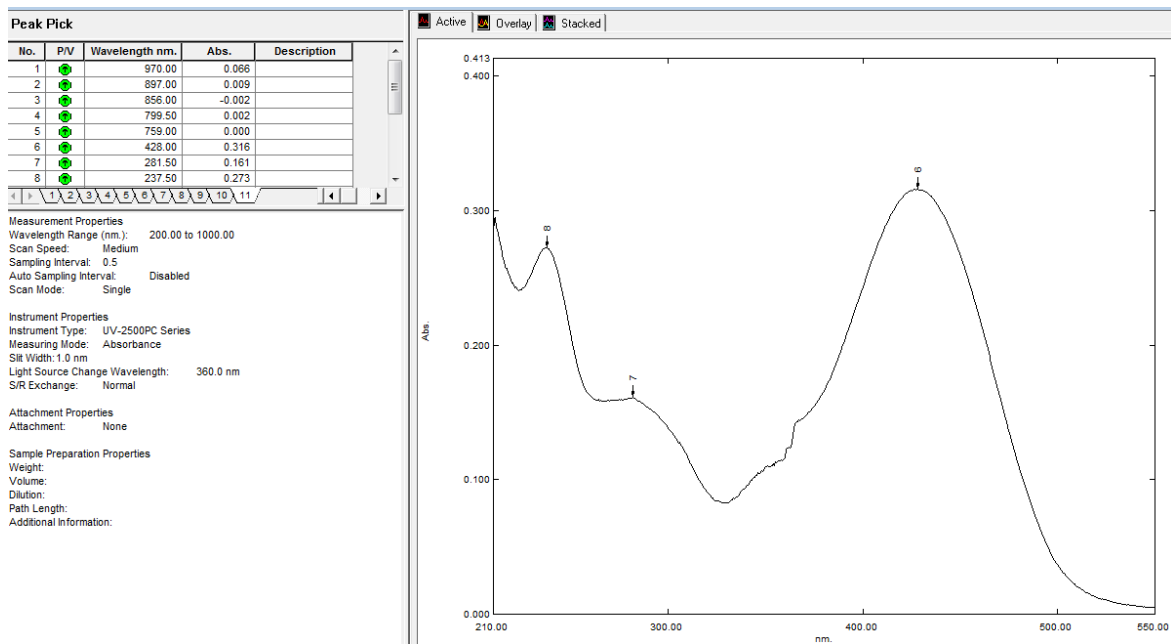
SERS, 488nm



FT-IR (ATR)

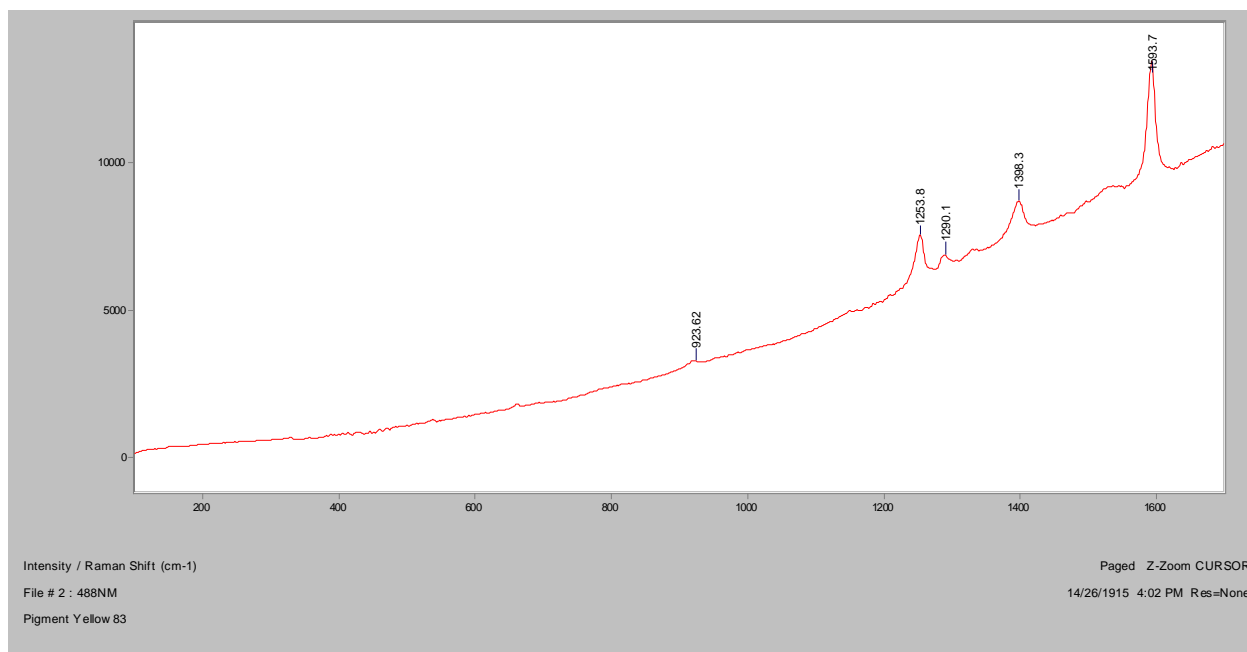


UV-Vis

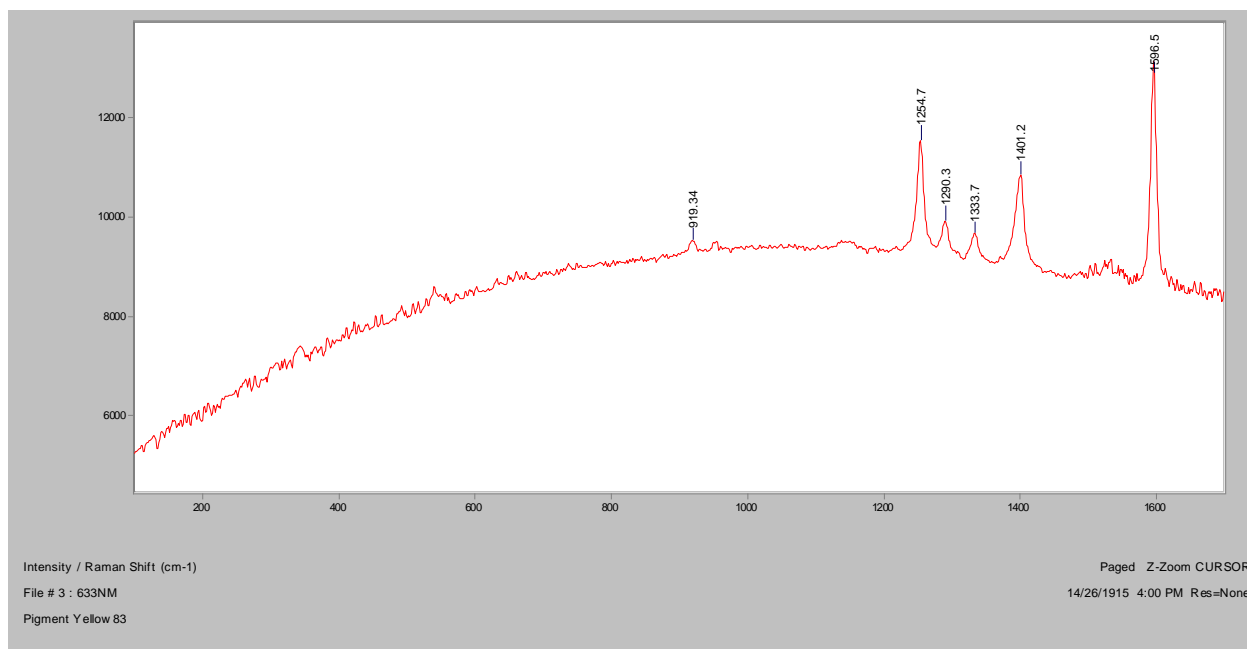


Pigment Yellow 83

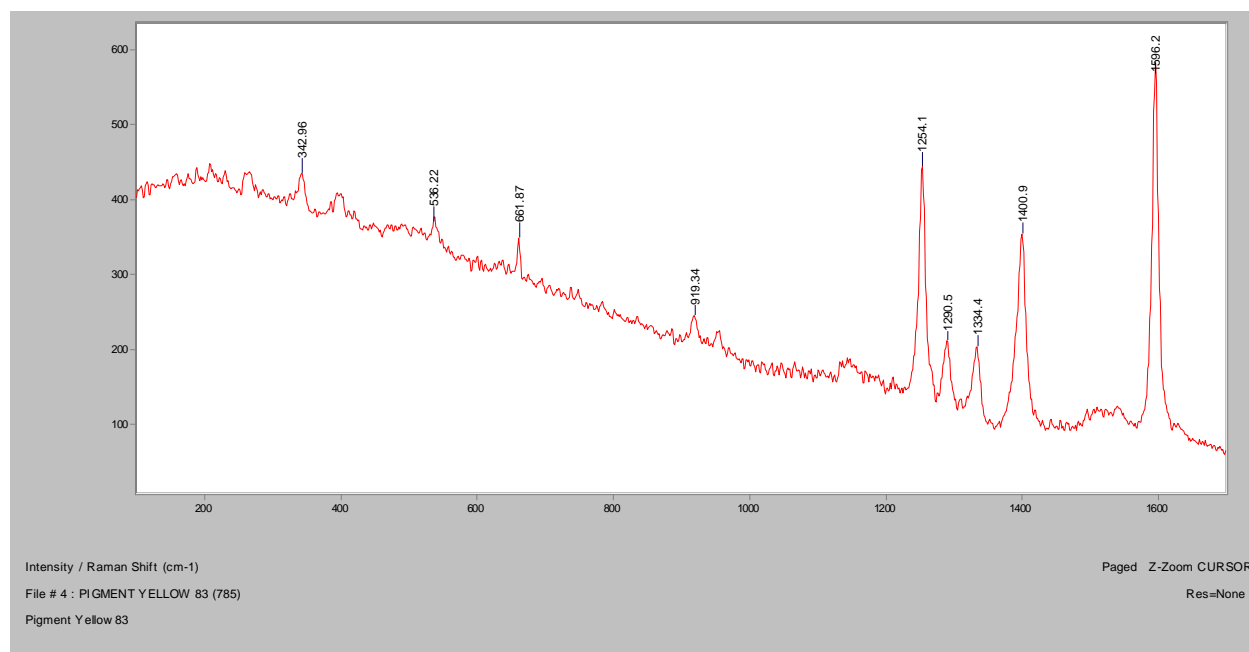
Normal Raman, 488nm



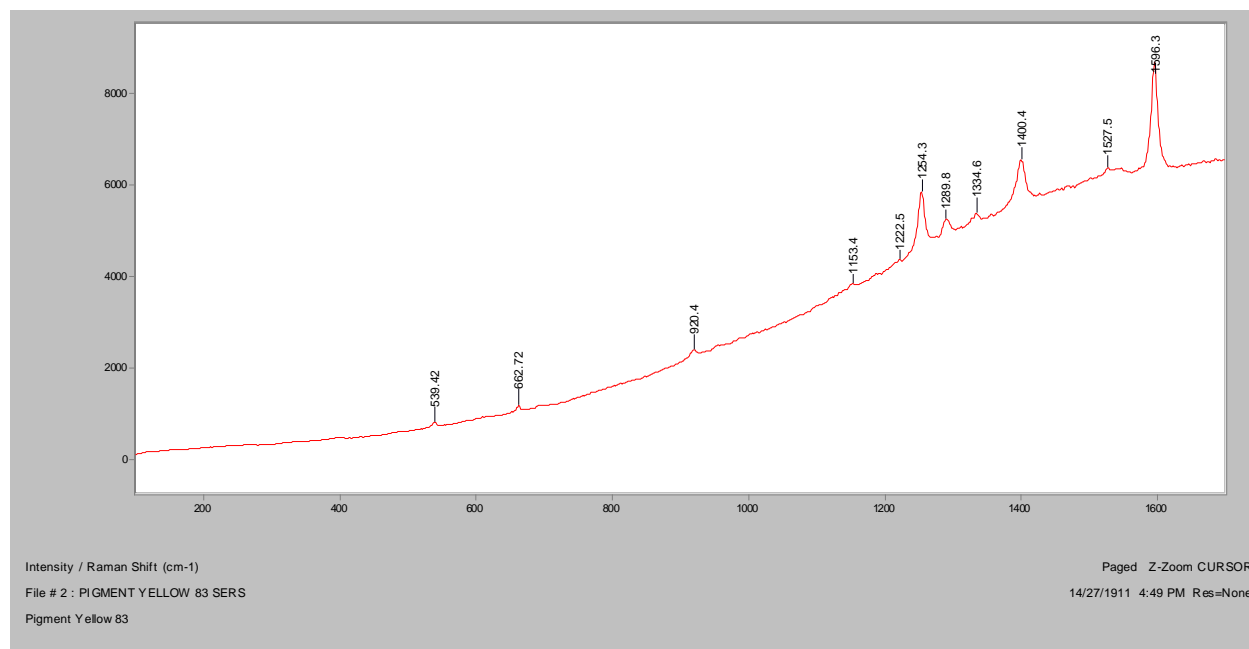
Normal Raman 633nm



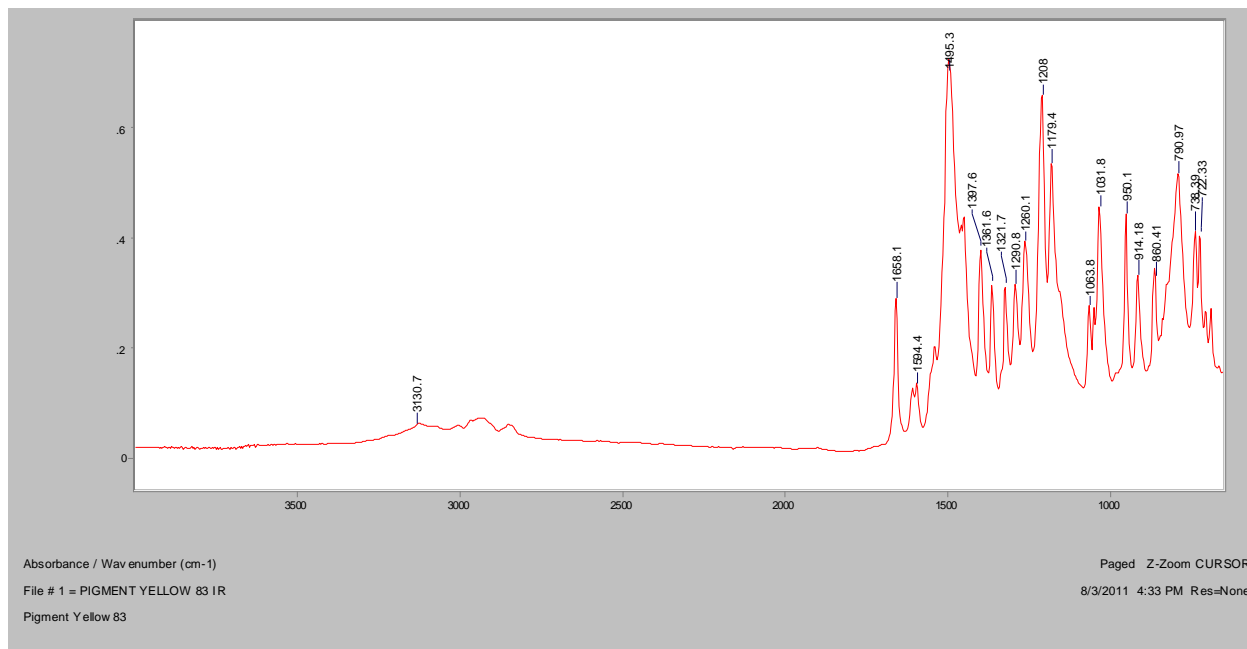
Normal Raman 785nm



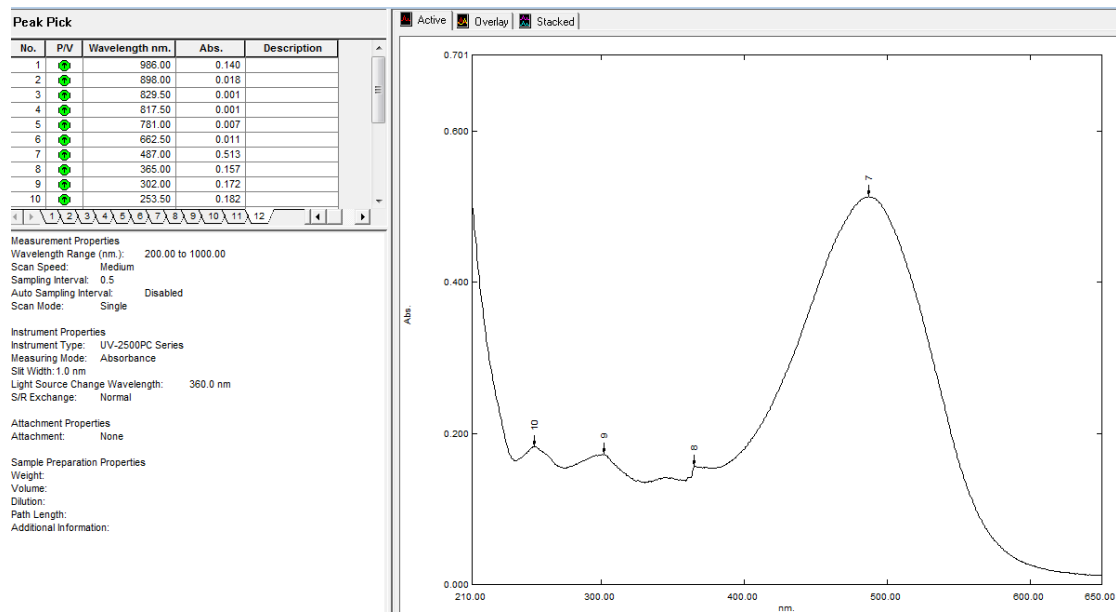
SERS, 488nm



FT-IR (ATR)

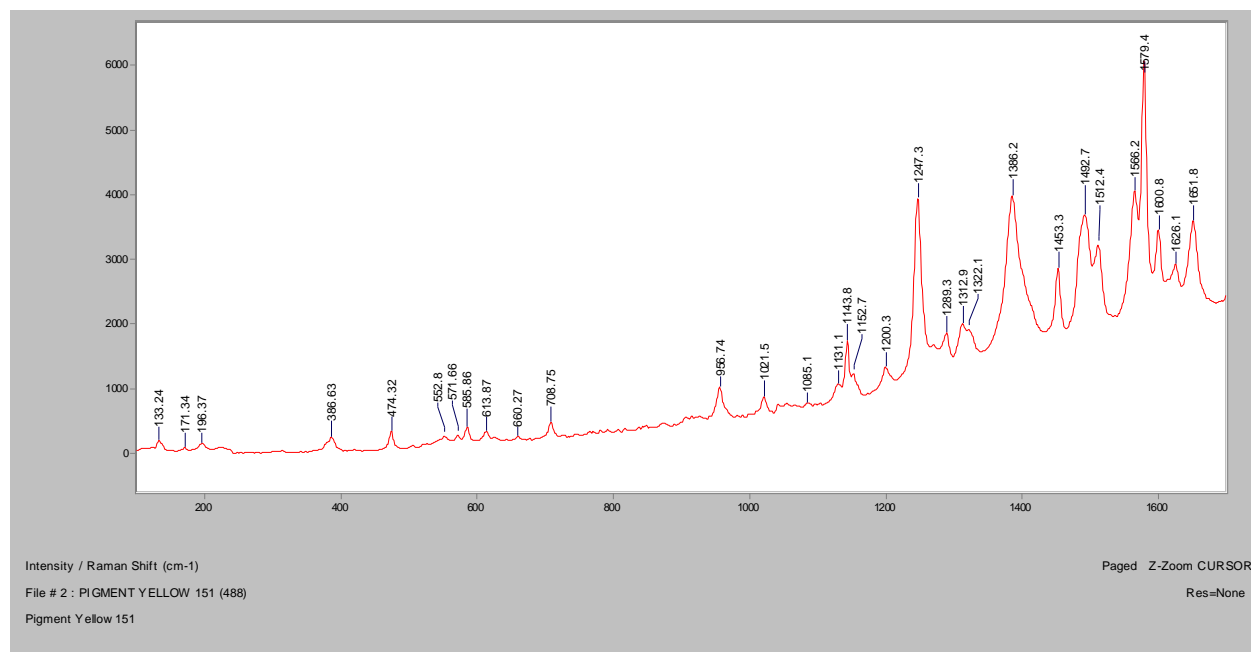


UV-Vis

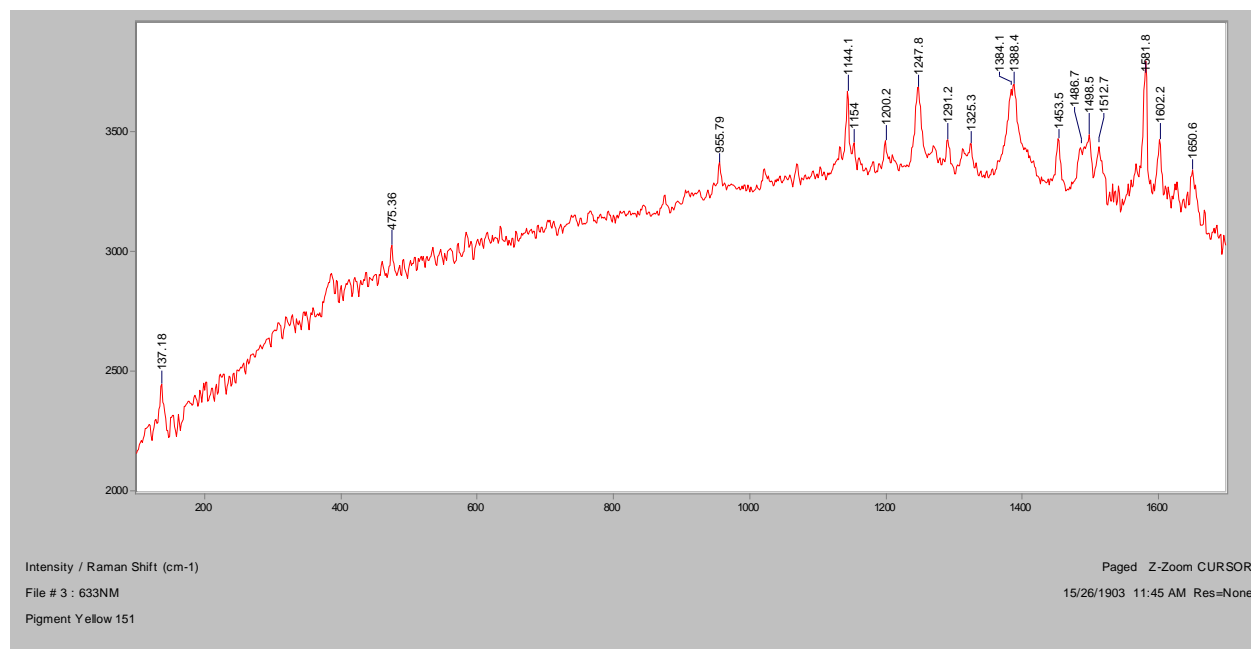


Pigment Yellow 151

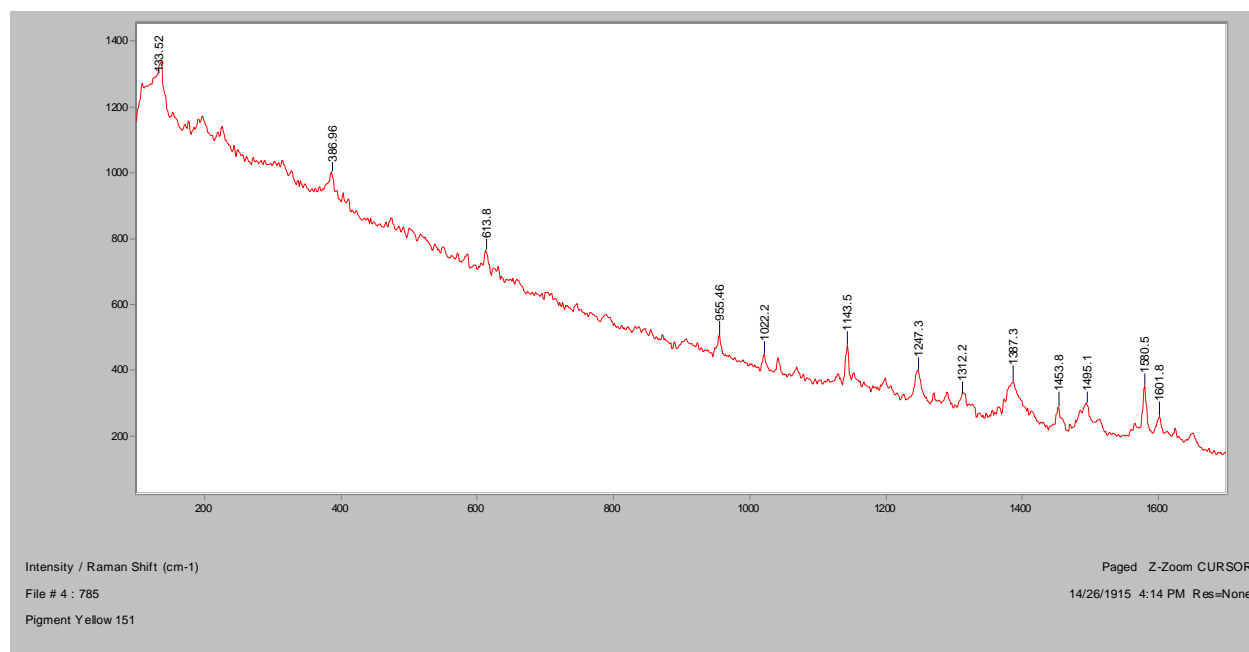
Normal Raman, 488nm



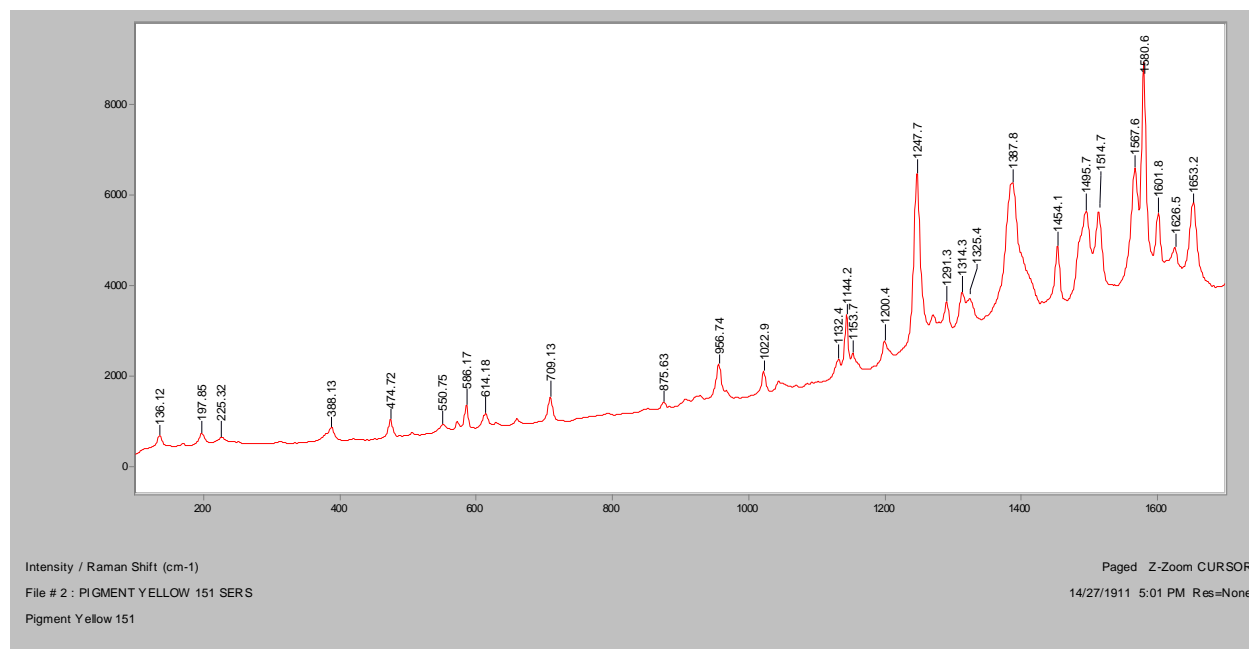
Normal Raman 633nm



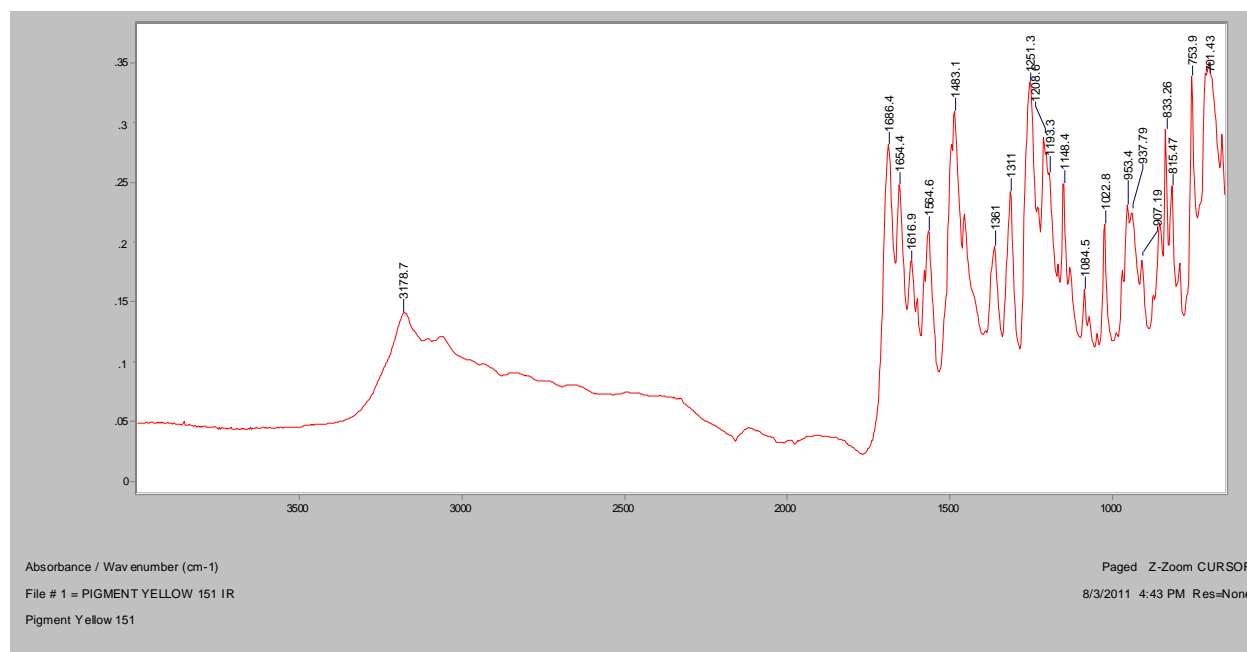
Normal Raman 785nm



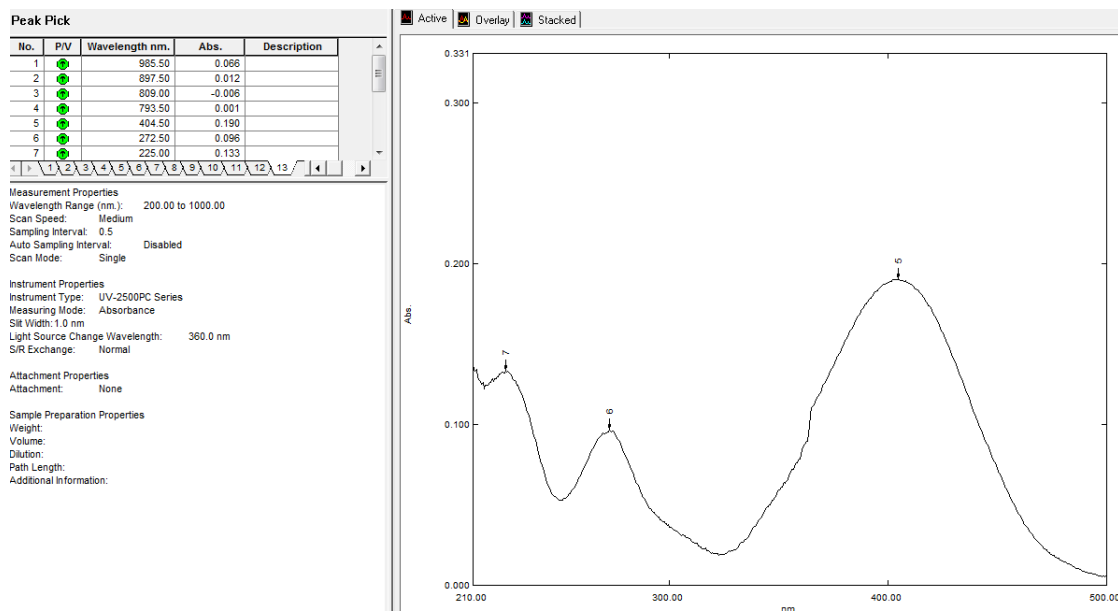
SERS, 488nm



FT-IR (ATR)

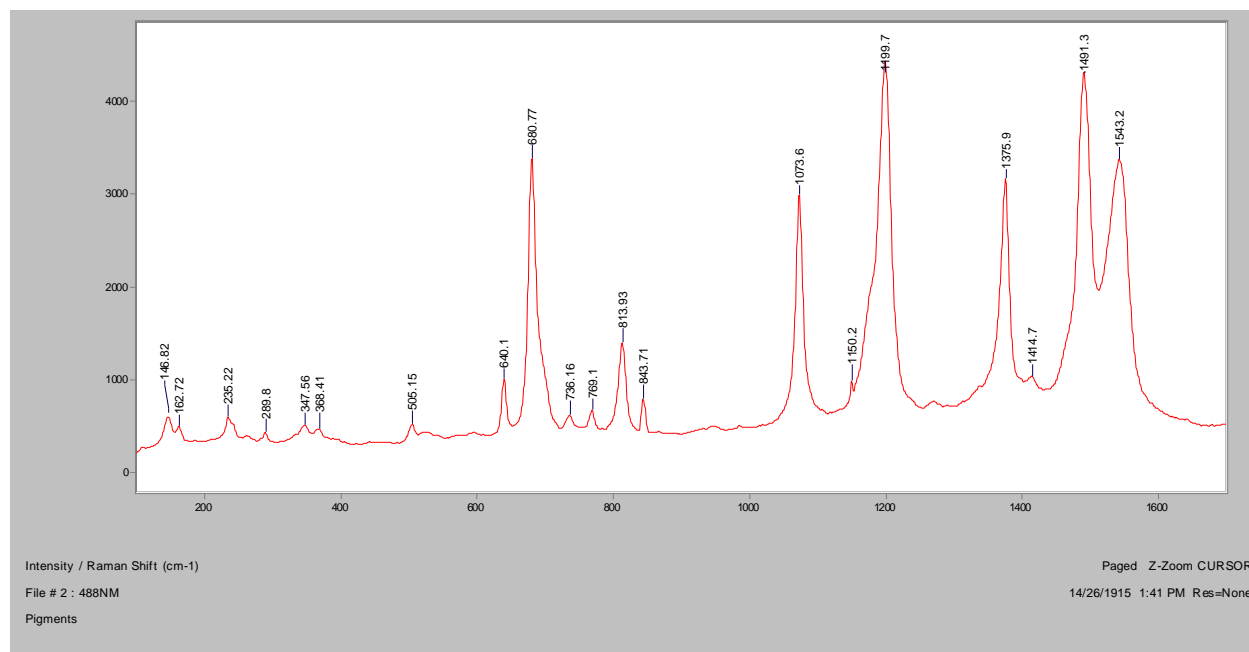


UV-Vis

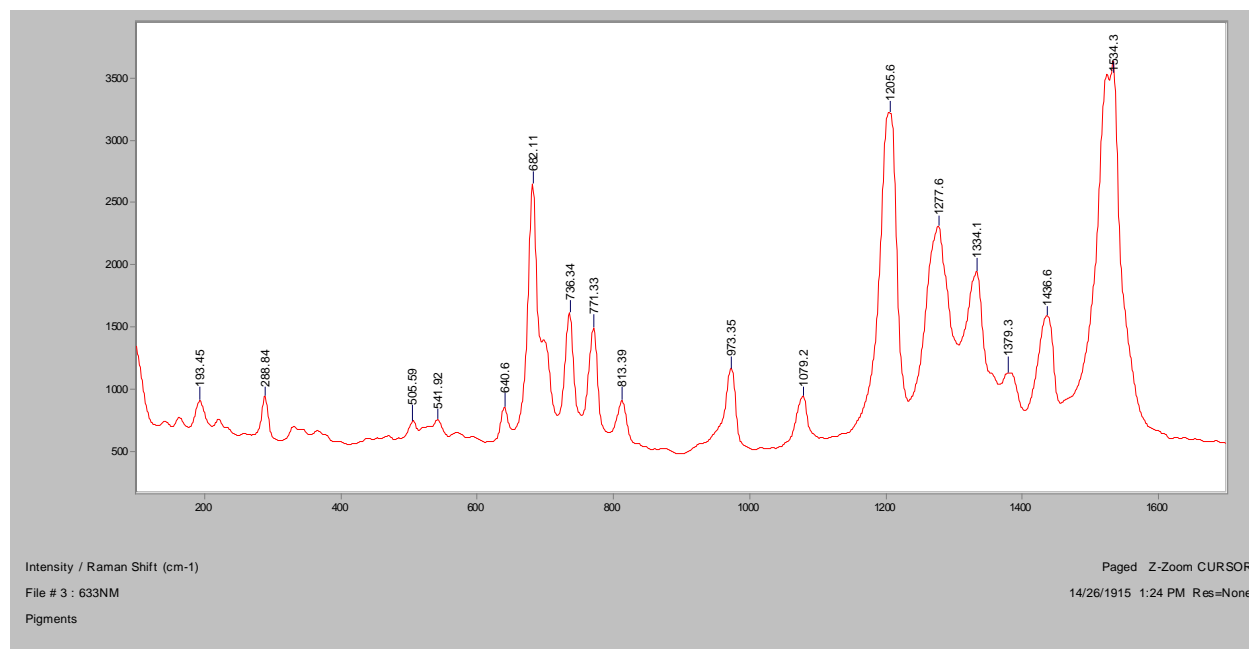


Pigment Green 7

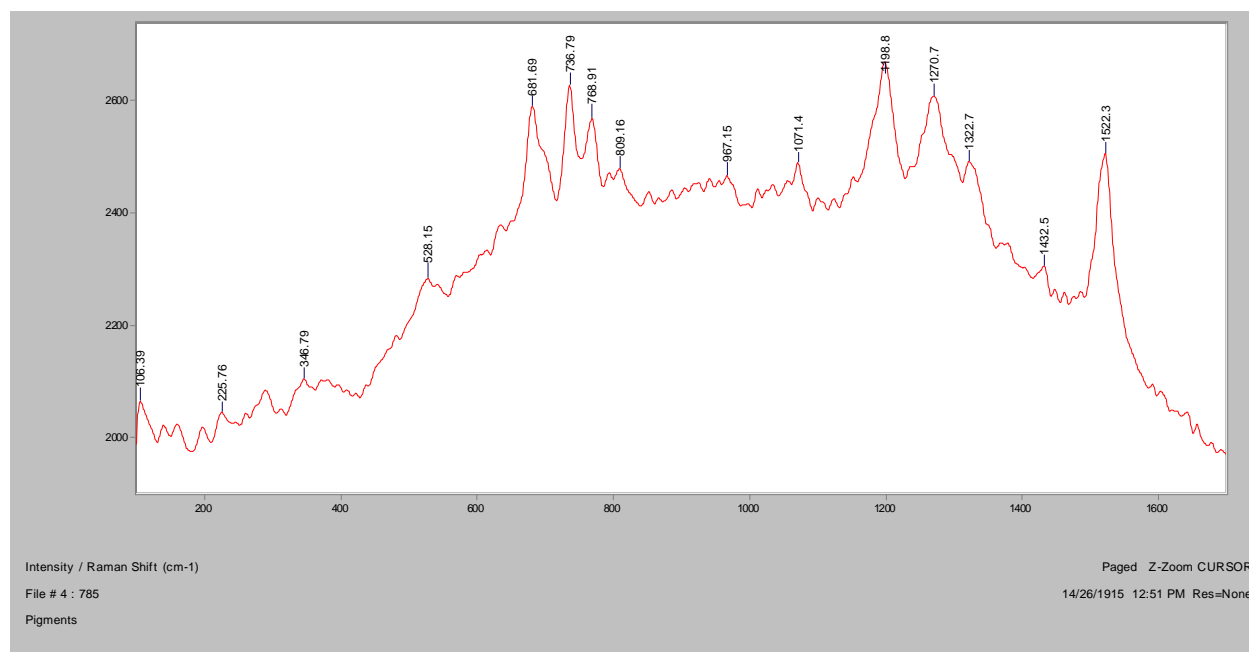
Normal Raman, 488nm



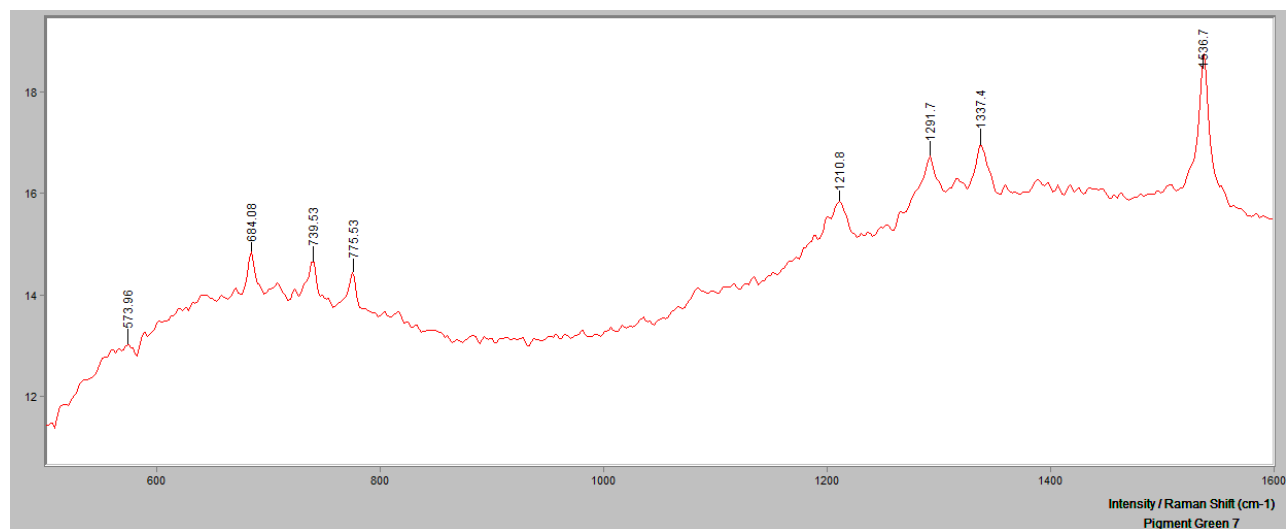
Normal Raman 633nm



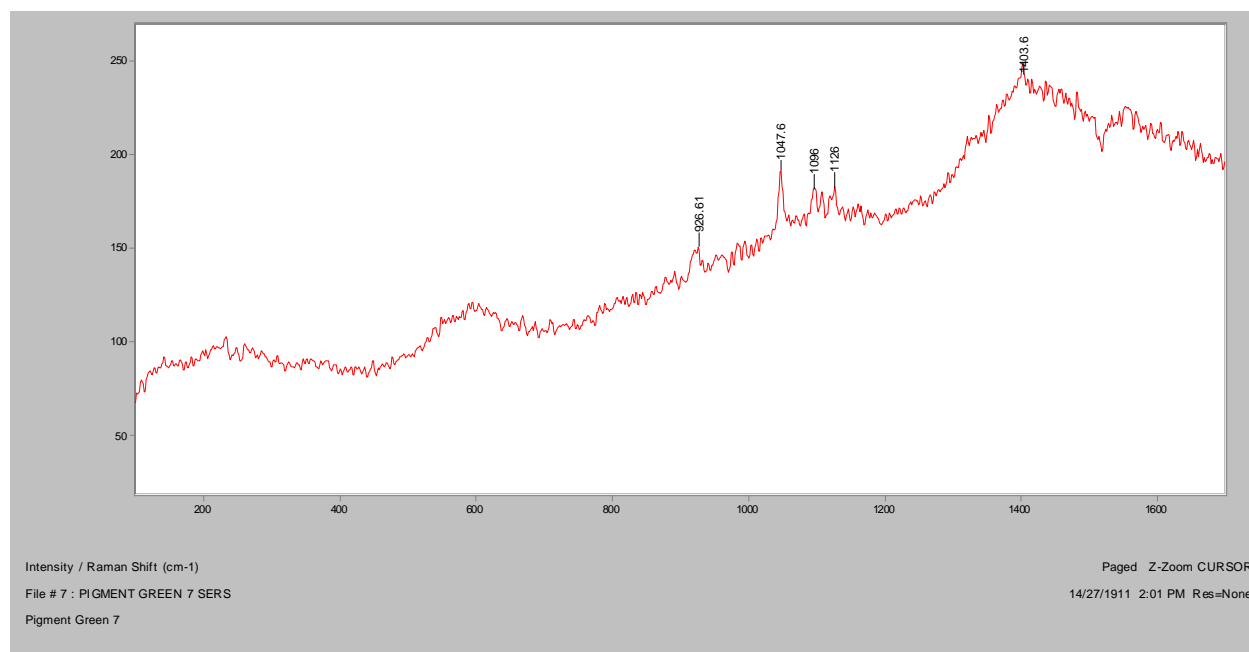
Normal Raman 785nm



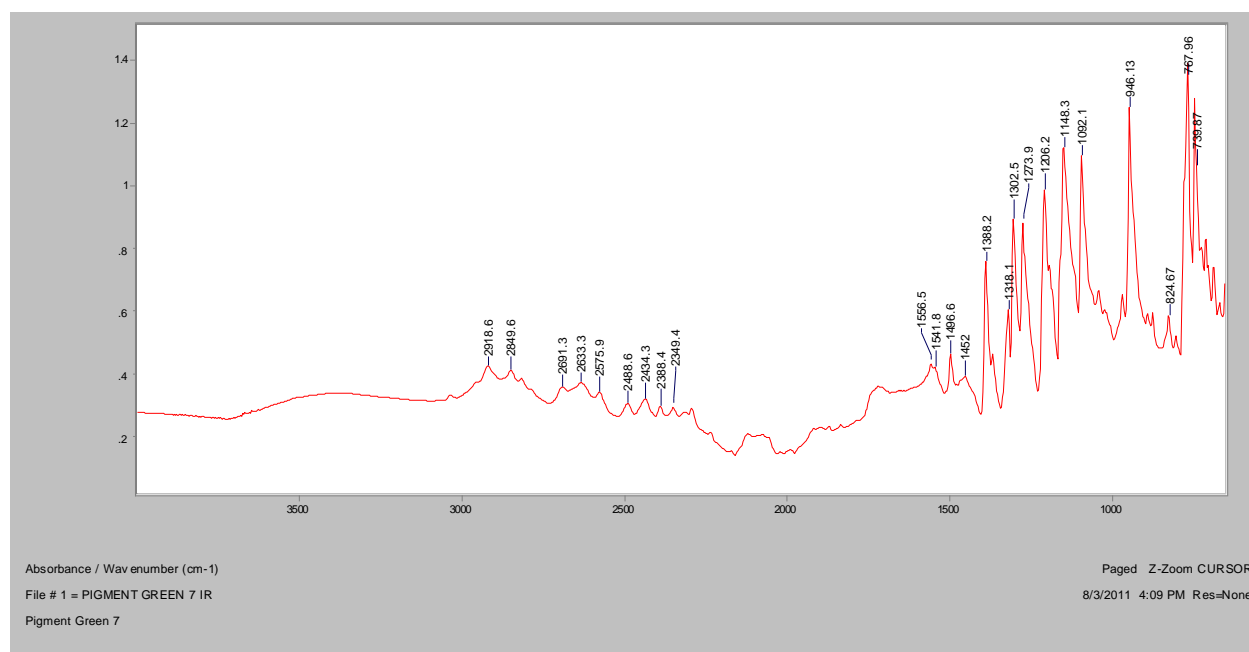
FT Raman, 1064nm



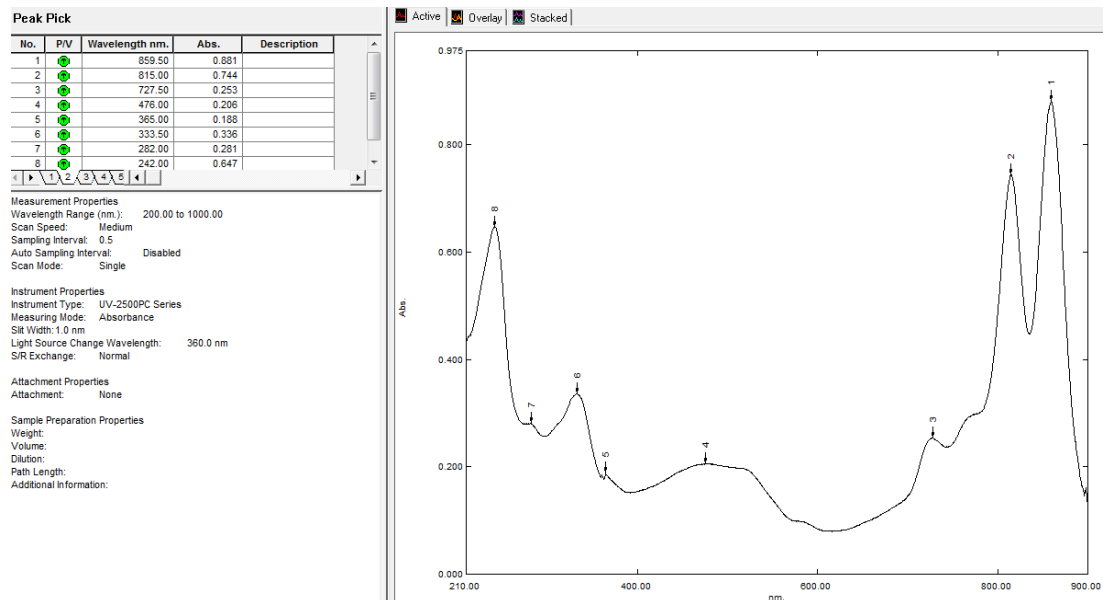
SERS, 488nm



FT-IR (ATR)

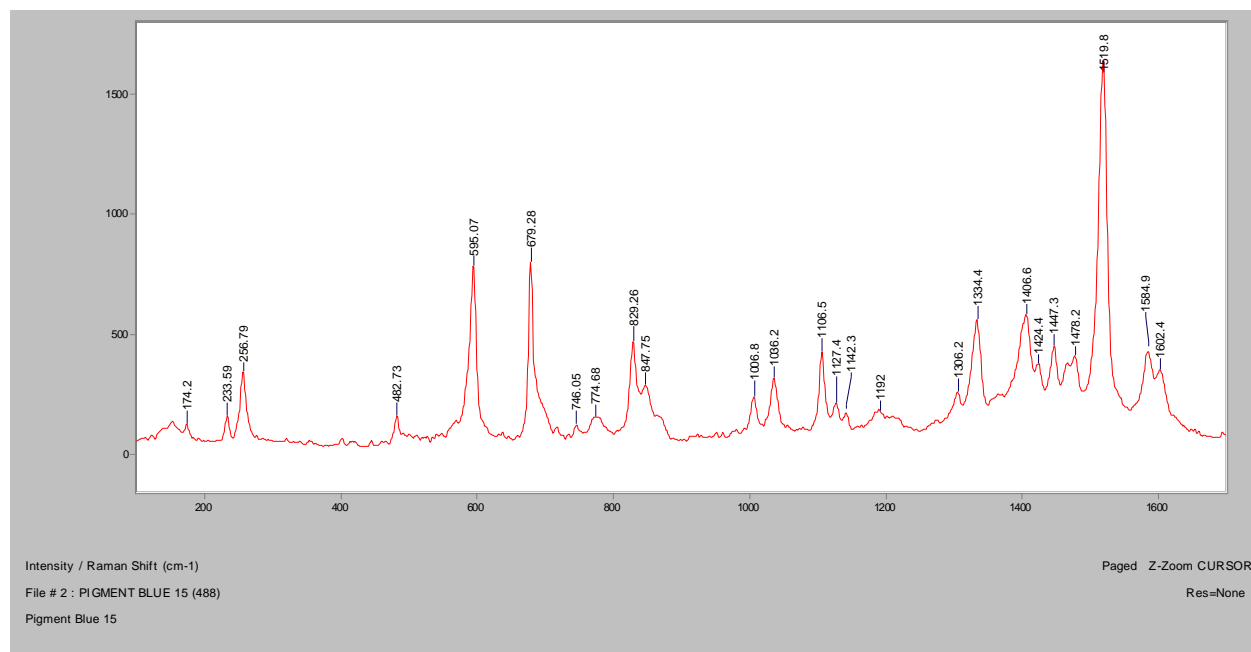


UV-Vis

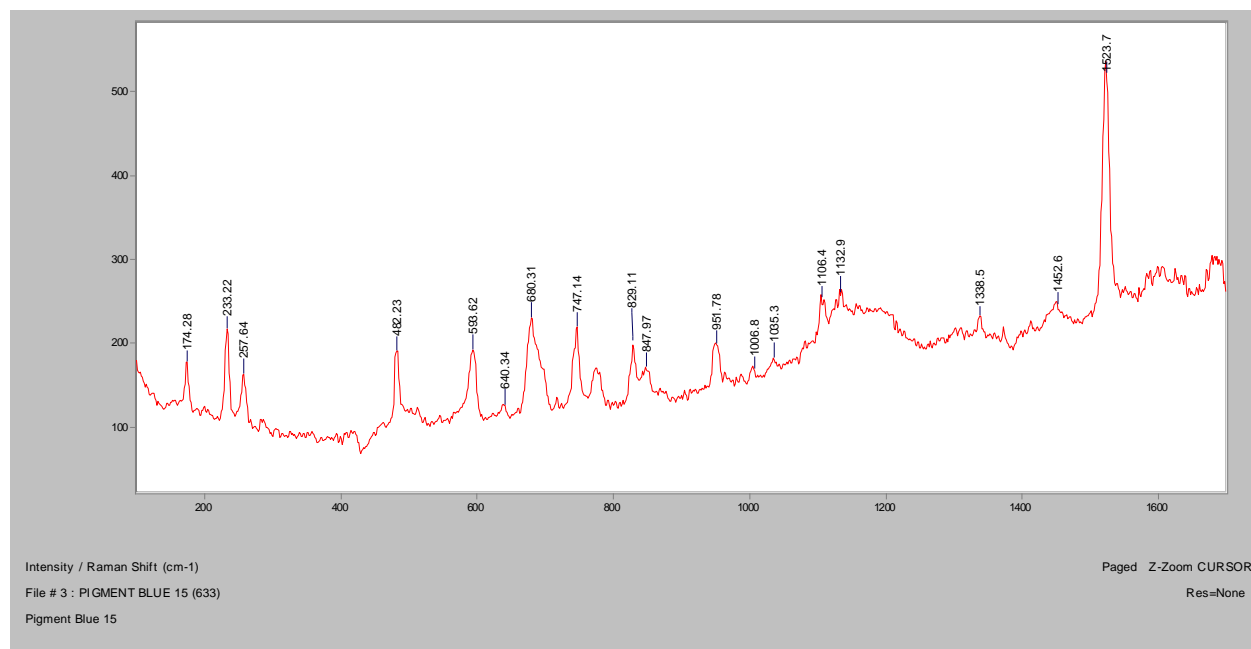


Pigment Blue 15

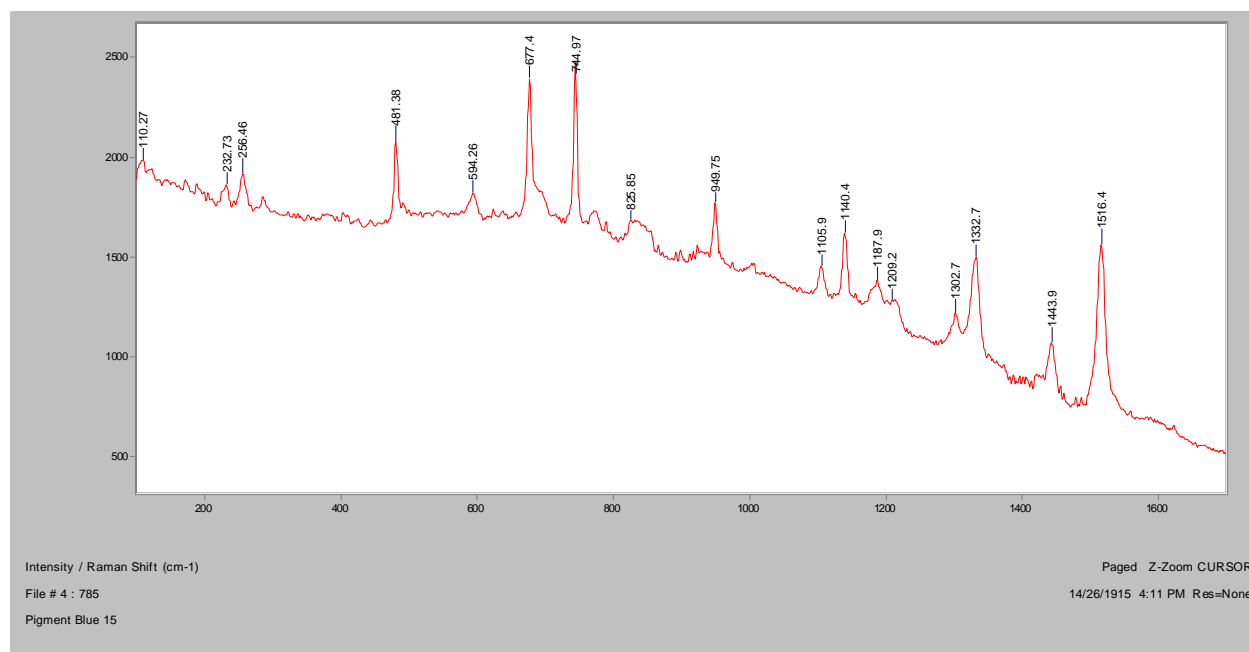
Normal Raman, 488nm



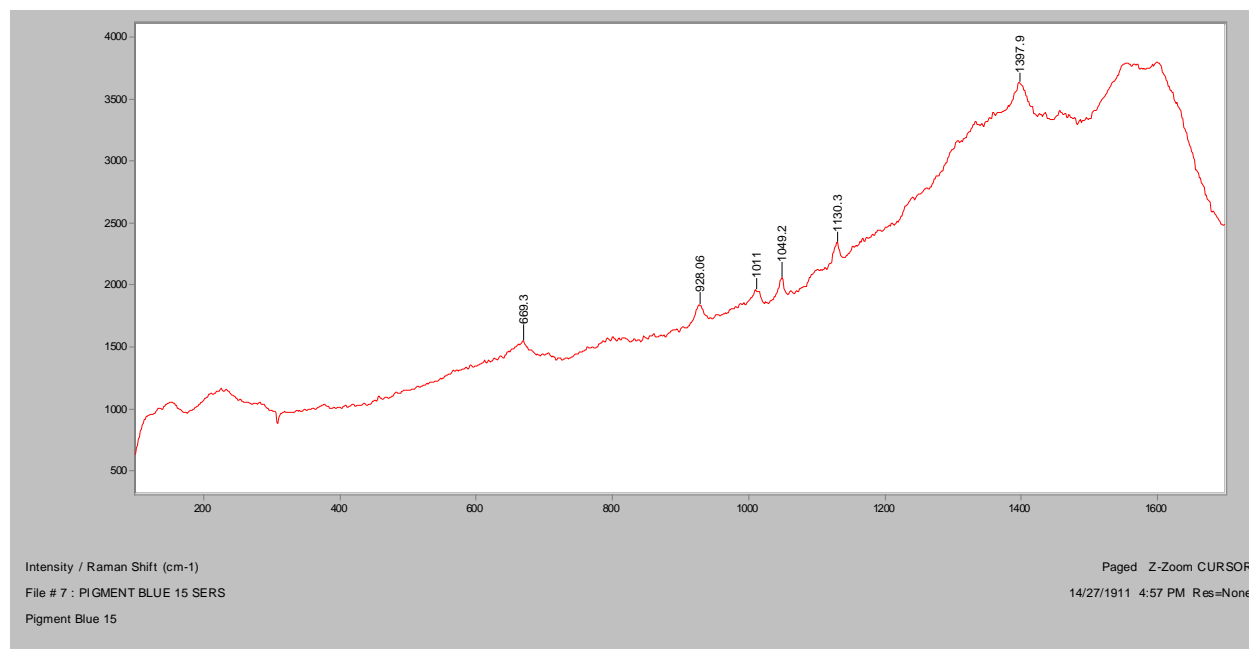
Normal Raman 633nm



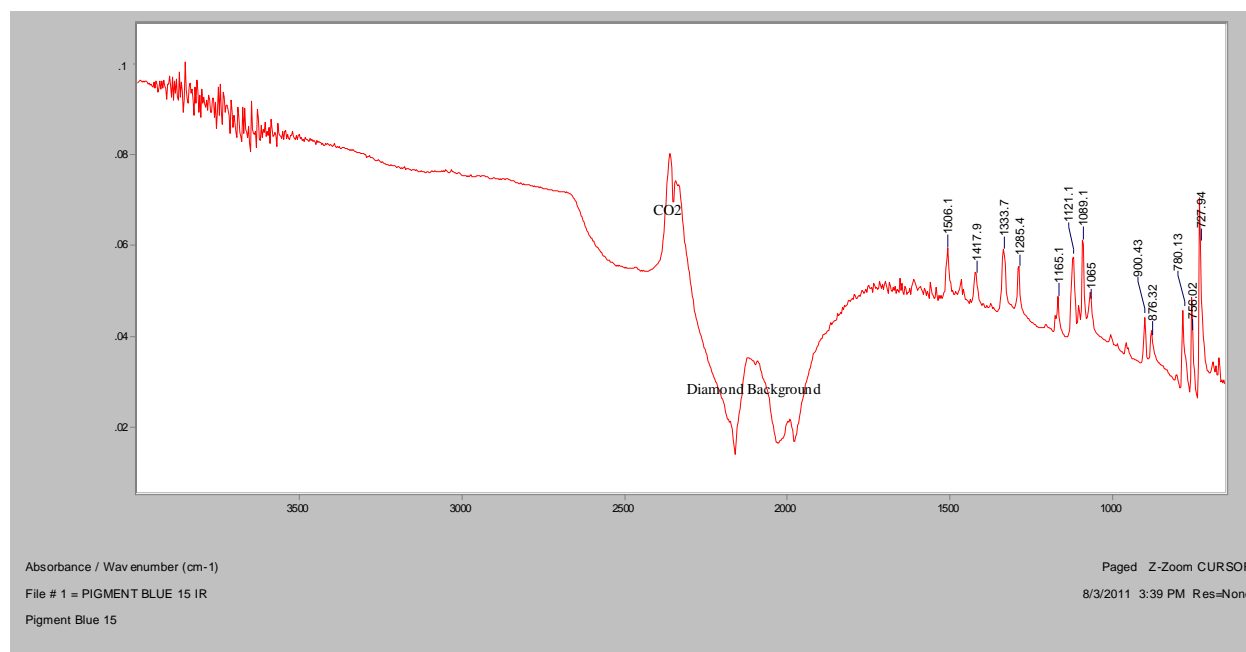
Normal Raman 785nm



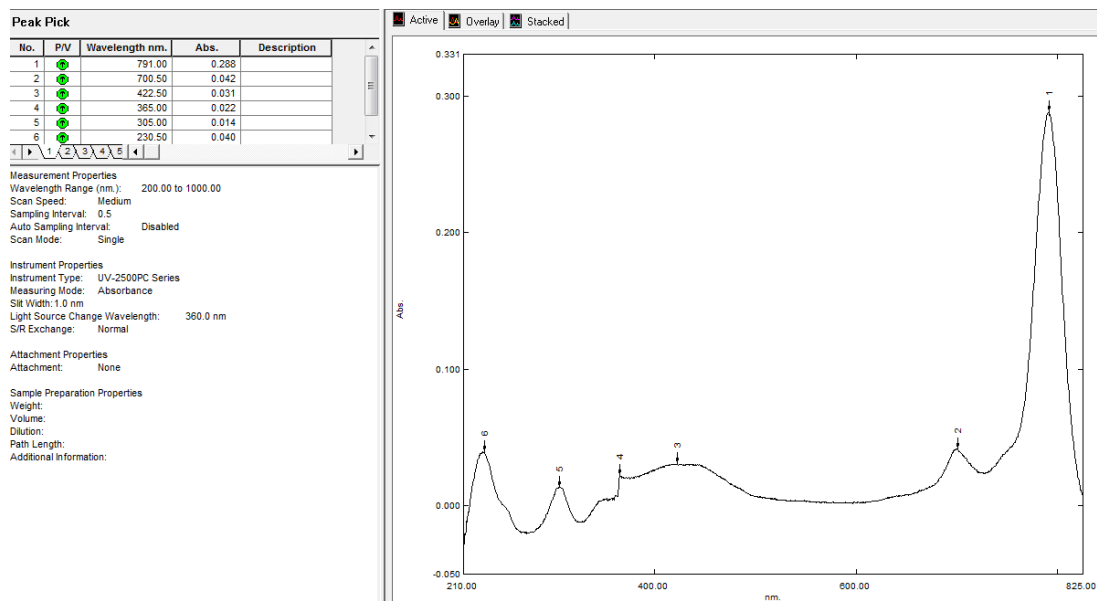
SERS, 488nm

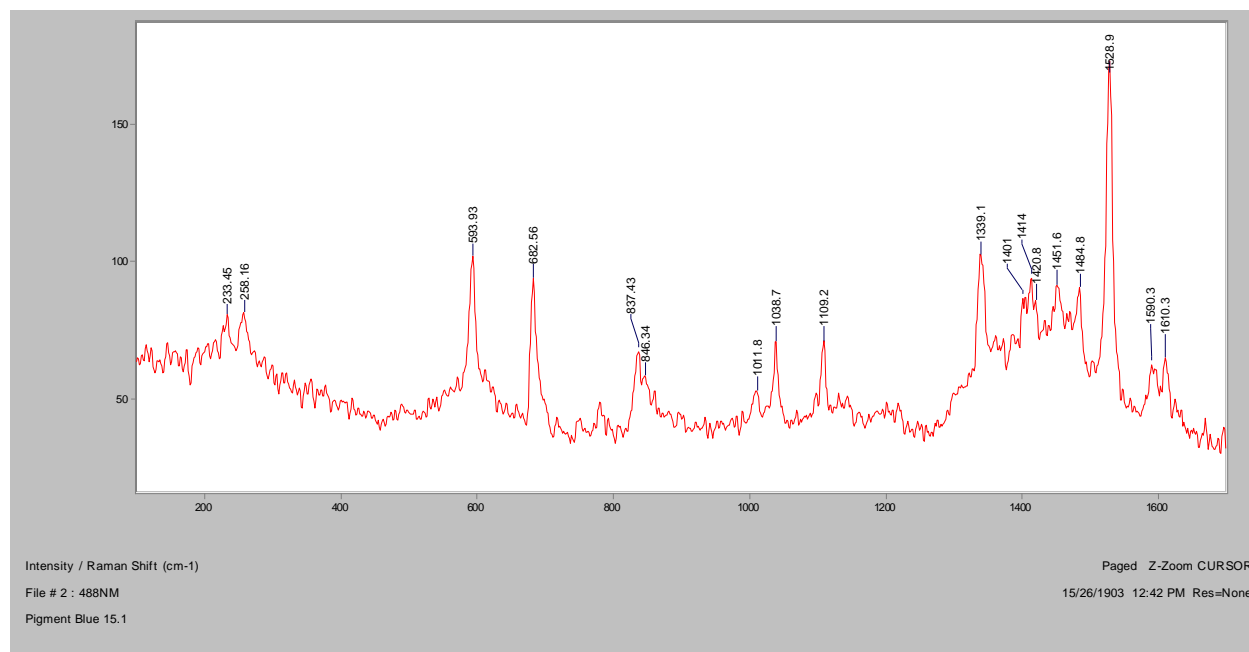
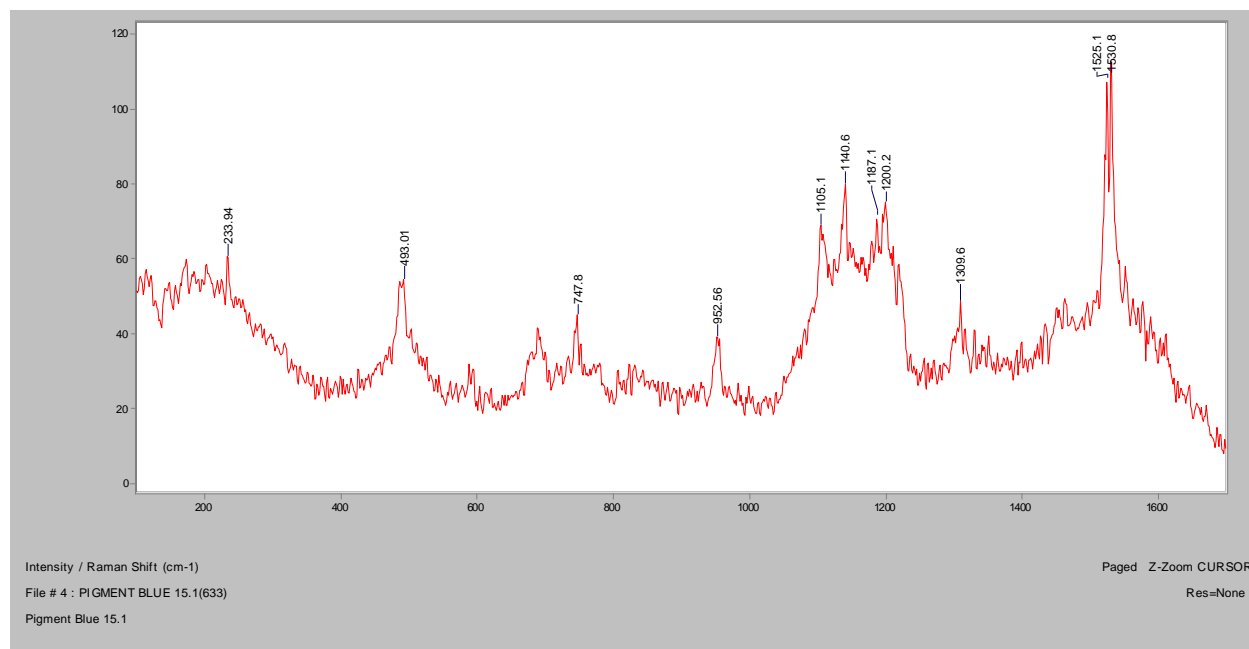


FT-IR (ATR)

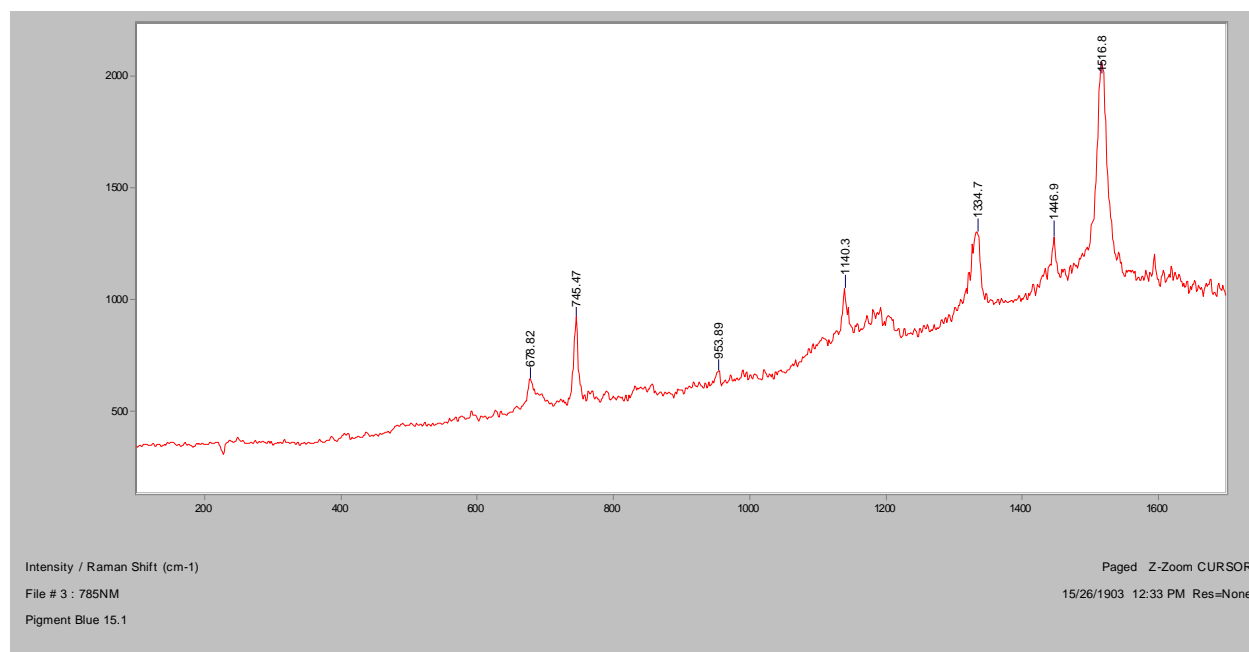


UV-Vis

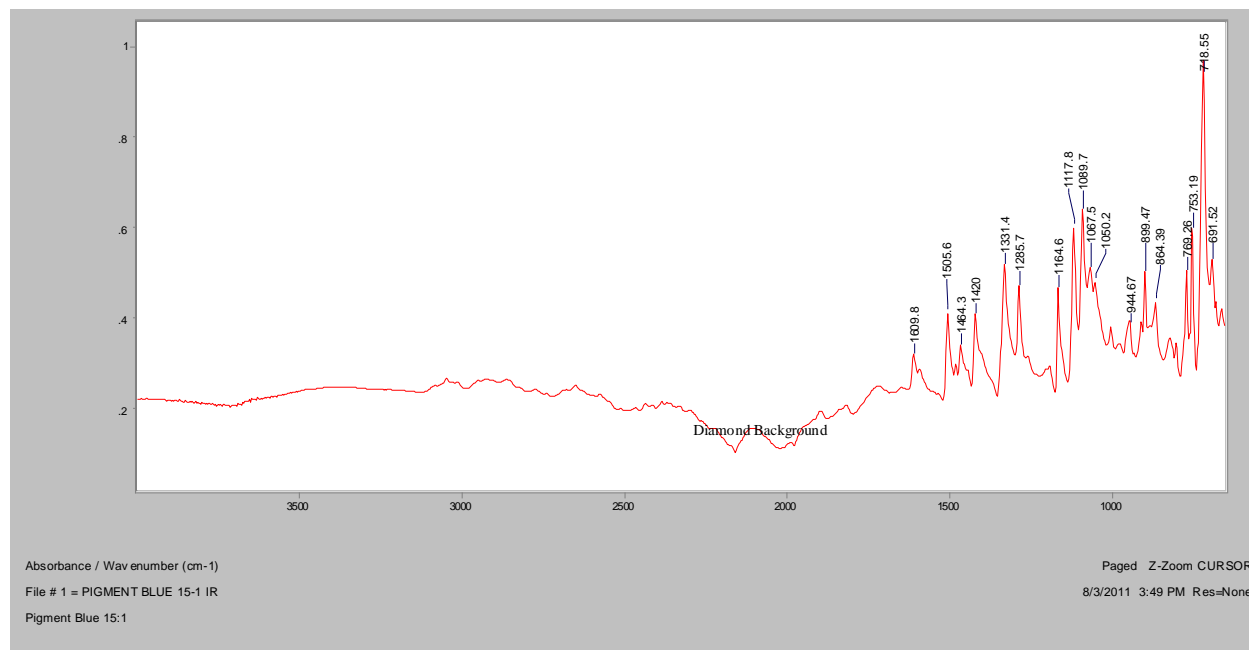


Pigment Blue 15:1**Normal Raman, 488nm****Normal Raman 633nm**

Normal Raman 785nm

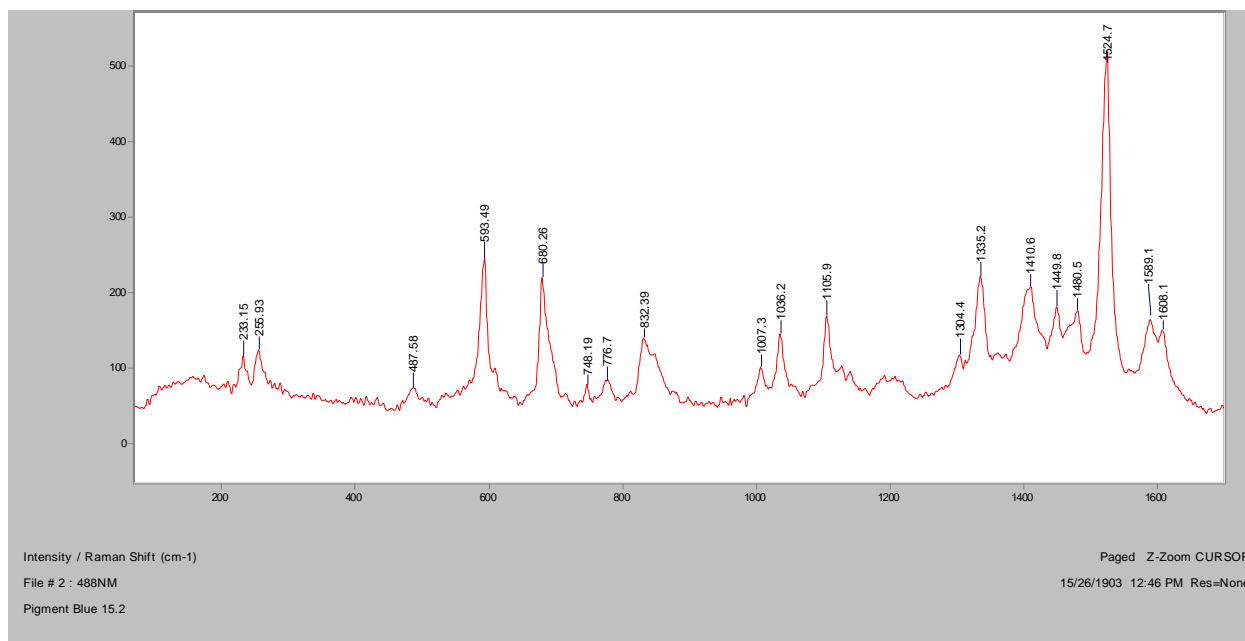


FT-IR (ATR)

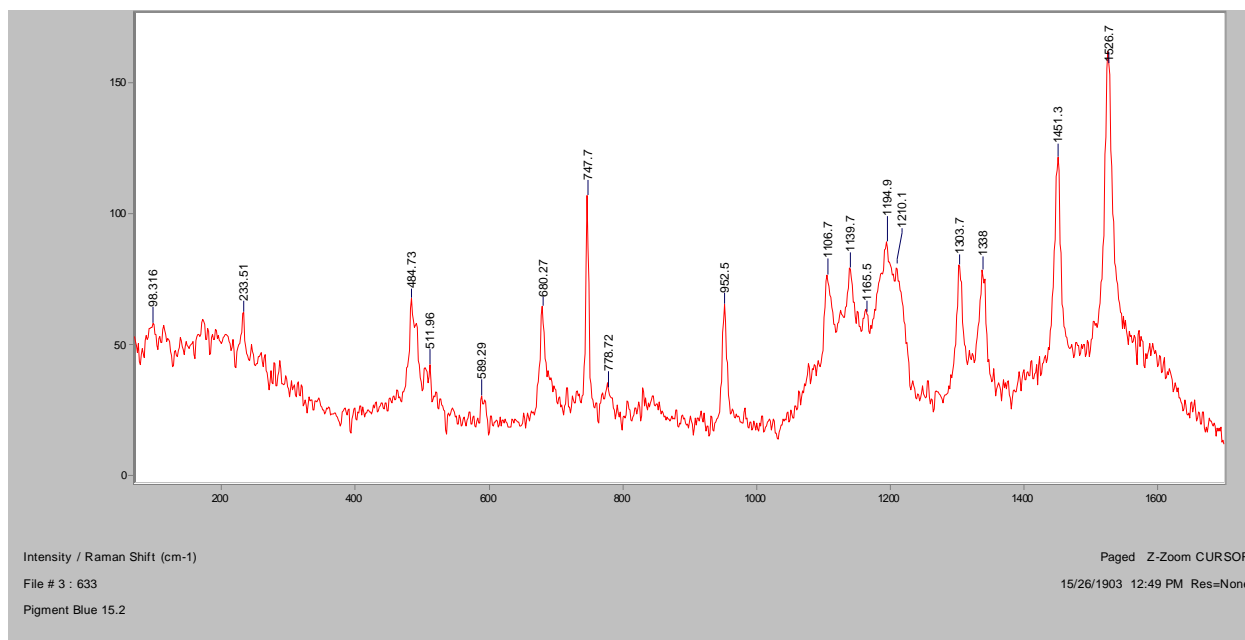


Pigment Blue 15:2

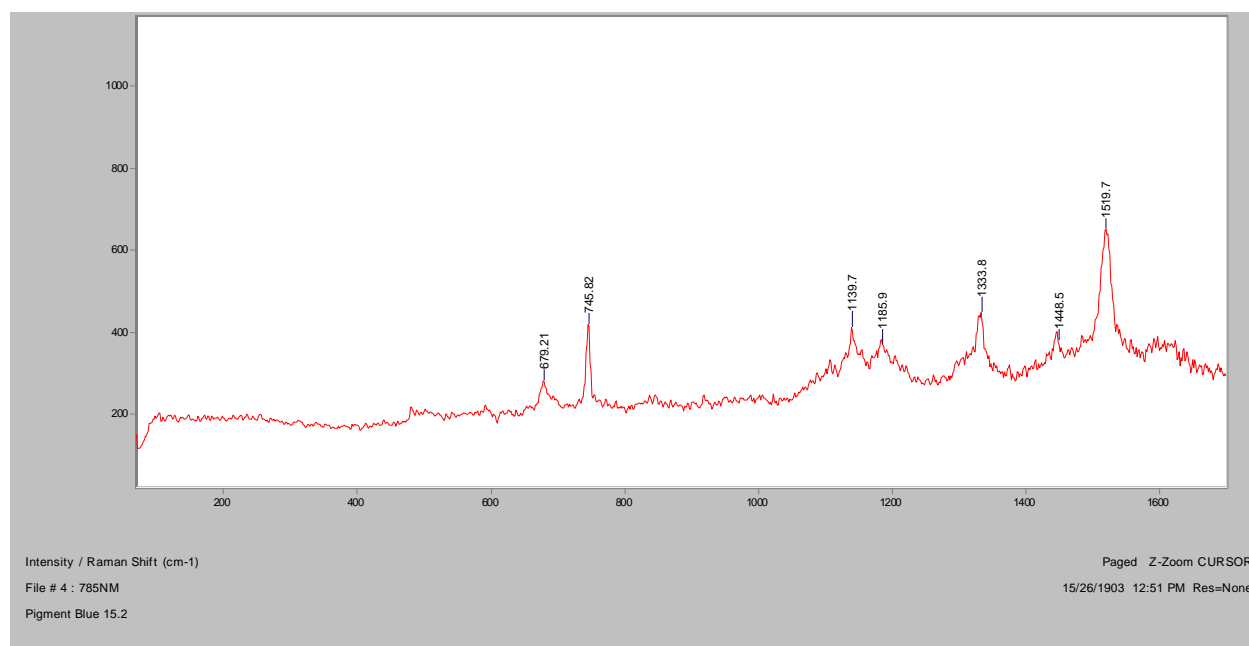
Normal Raman, 488nm



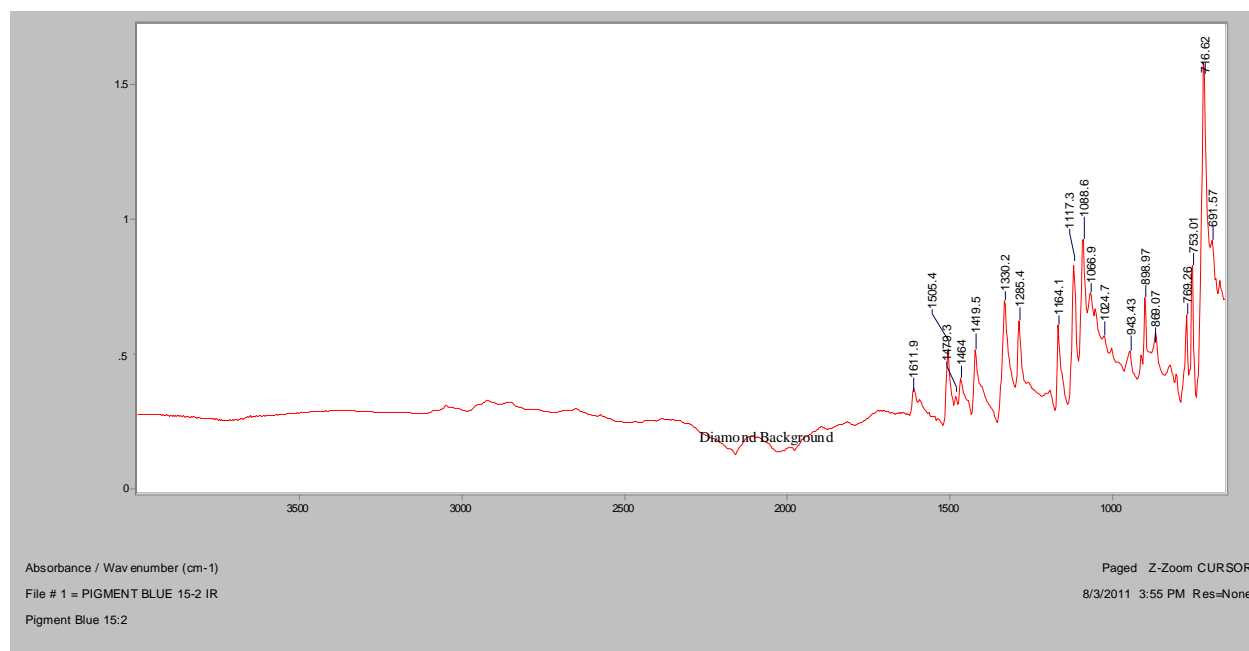
Normal Raman 633nm



Normal Raman 785nm

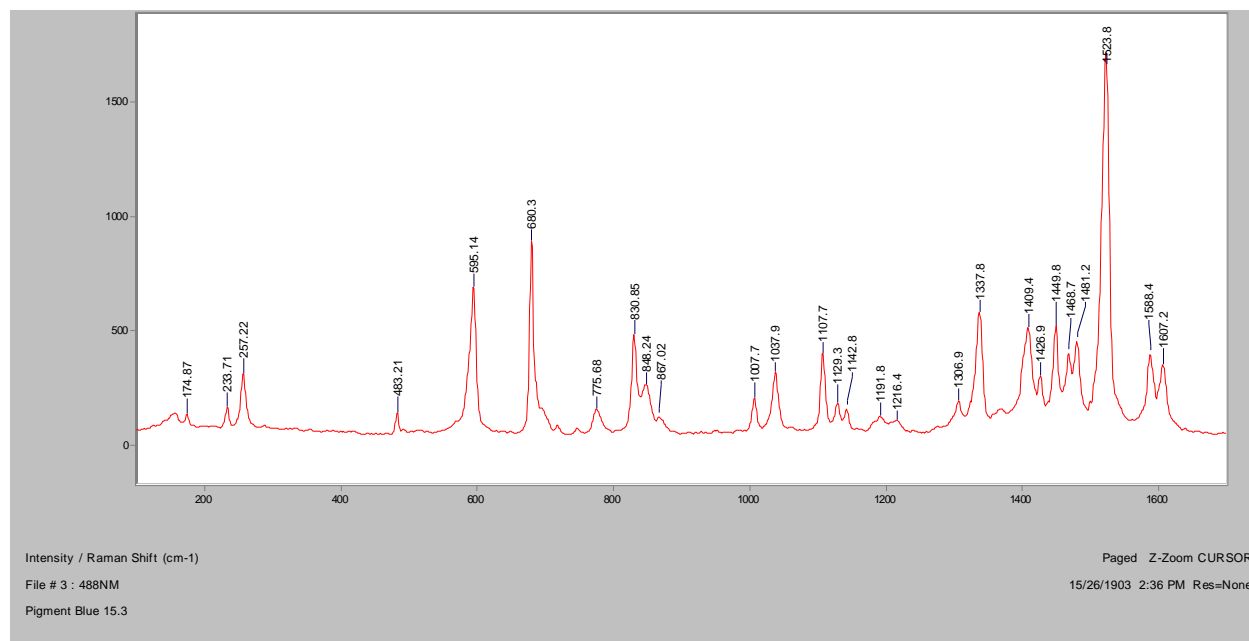


FT-IR (ATR)

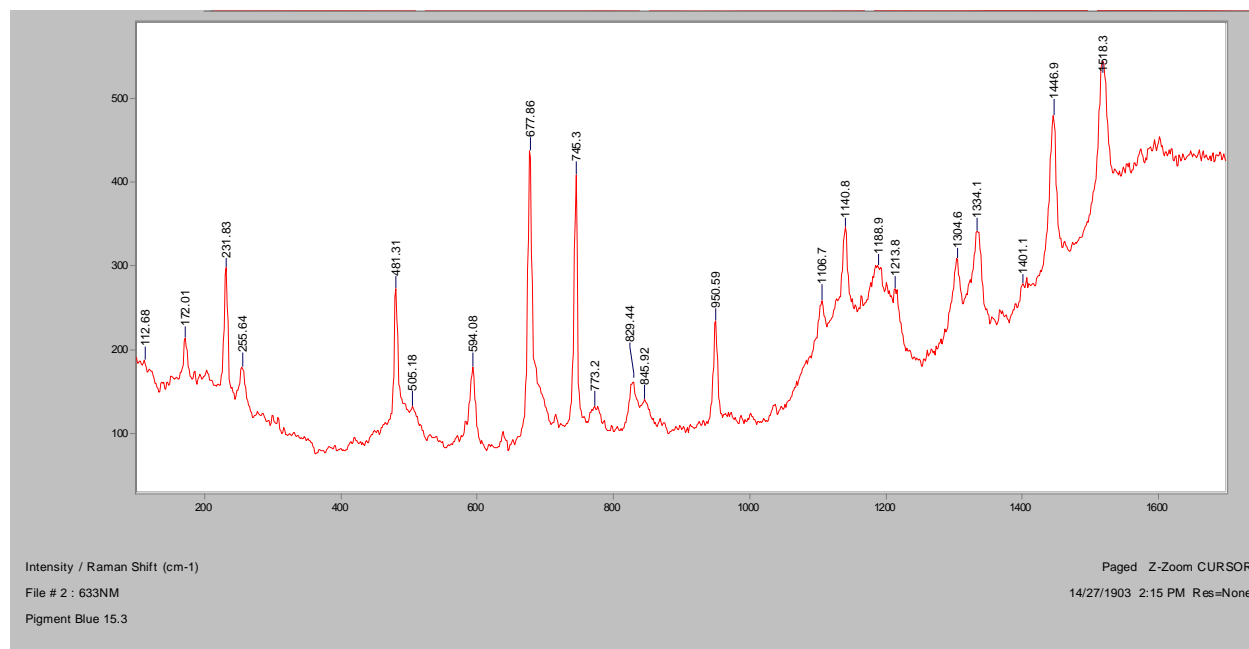


Pigment Blue 15:3

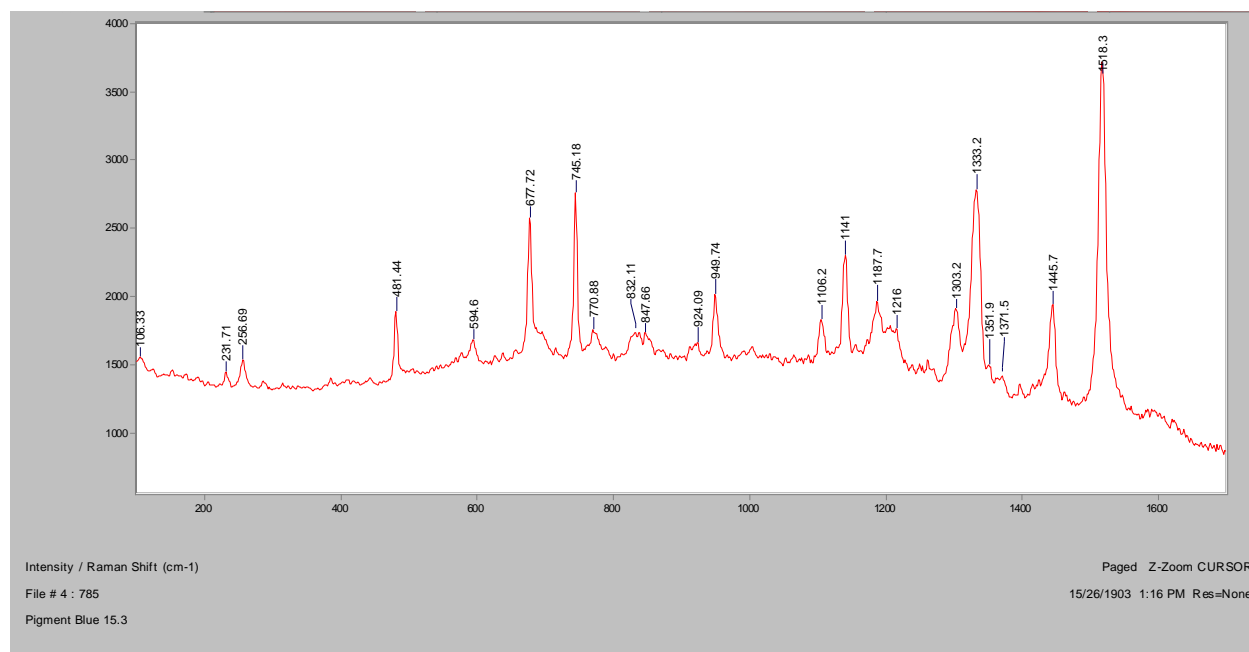
Normal Raman, 488nm



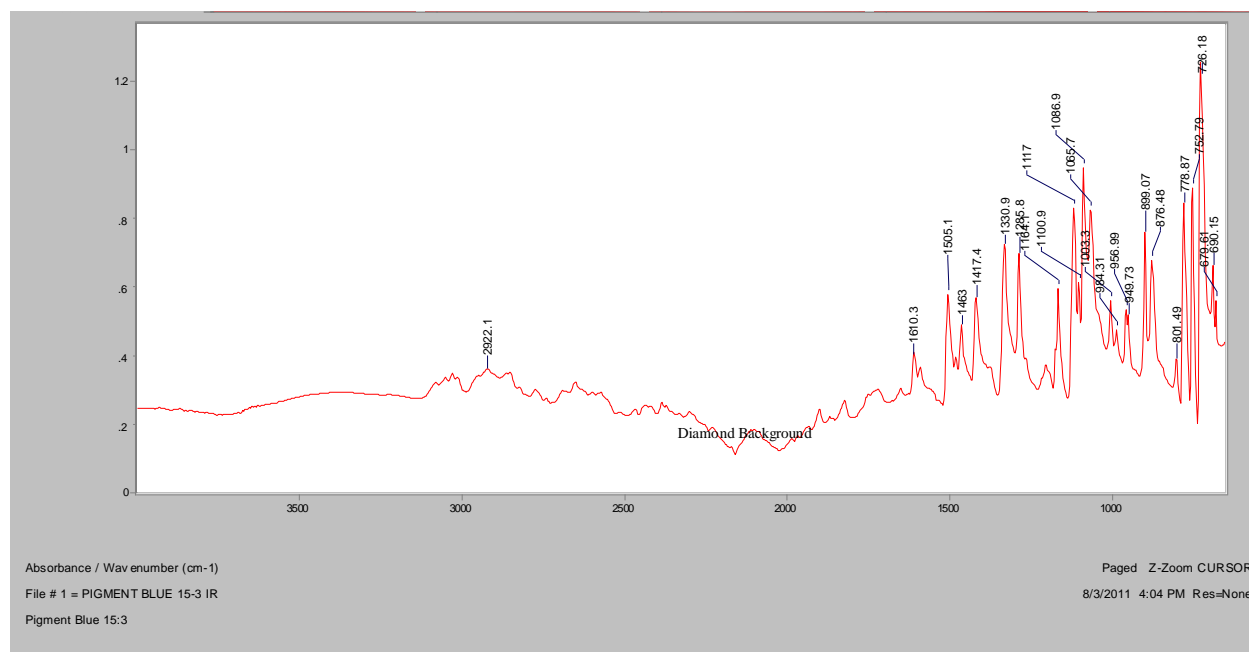
Normal Raman 633nm



Normal Raman 785nm

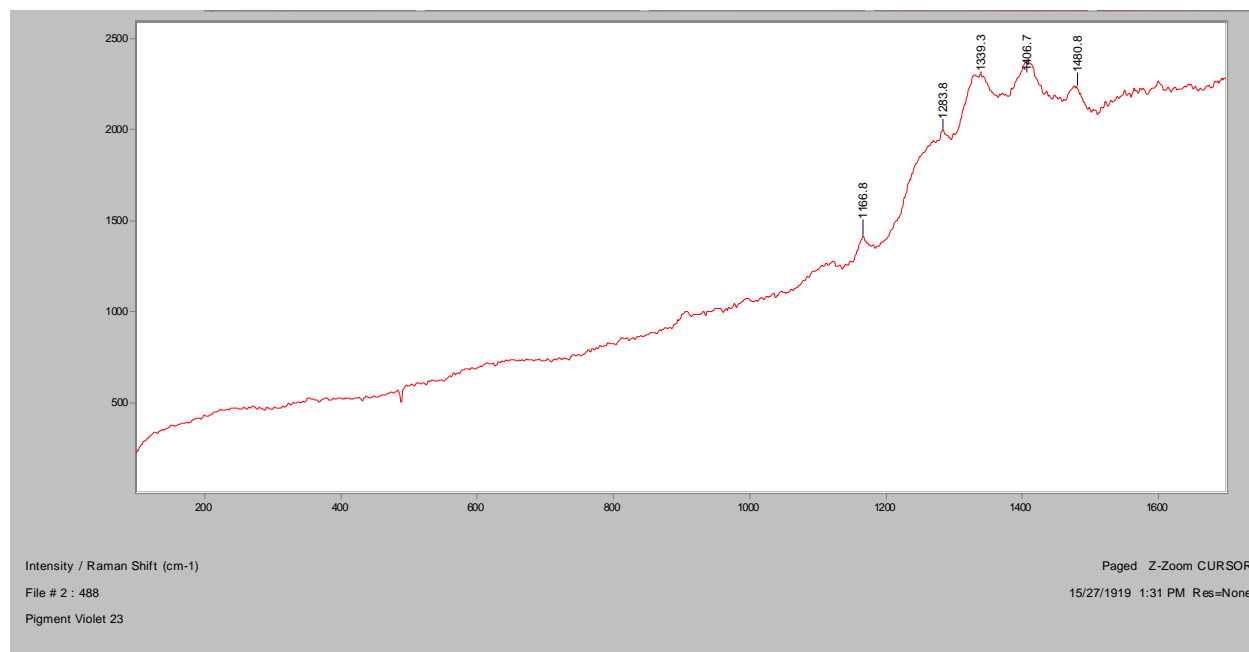


FT-IR (ATR)

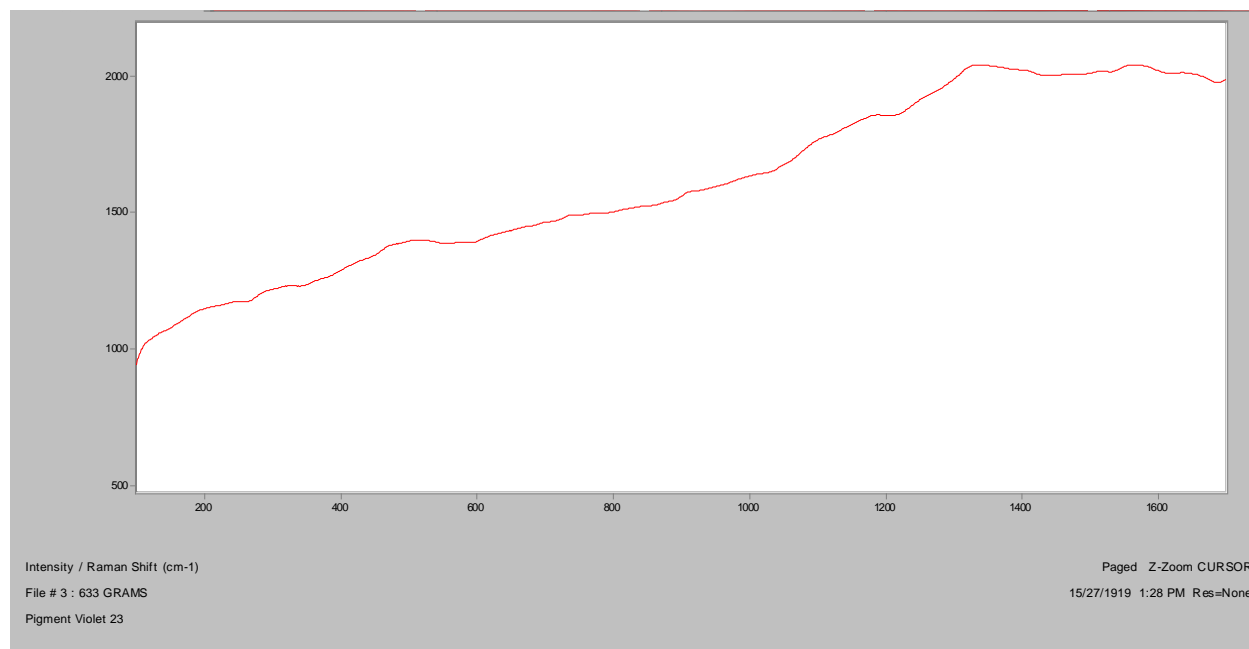


Pigment Violet 23 α

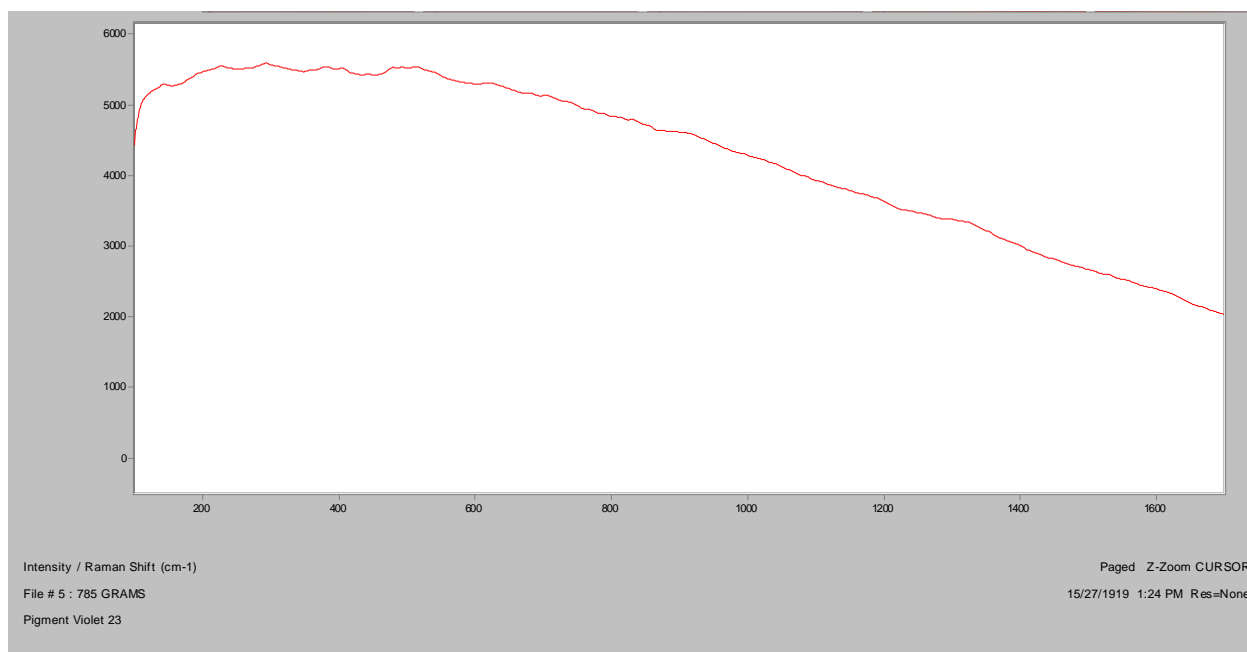
Normal Raman, 488nm



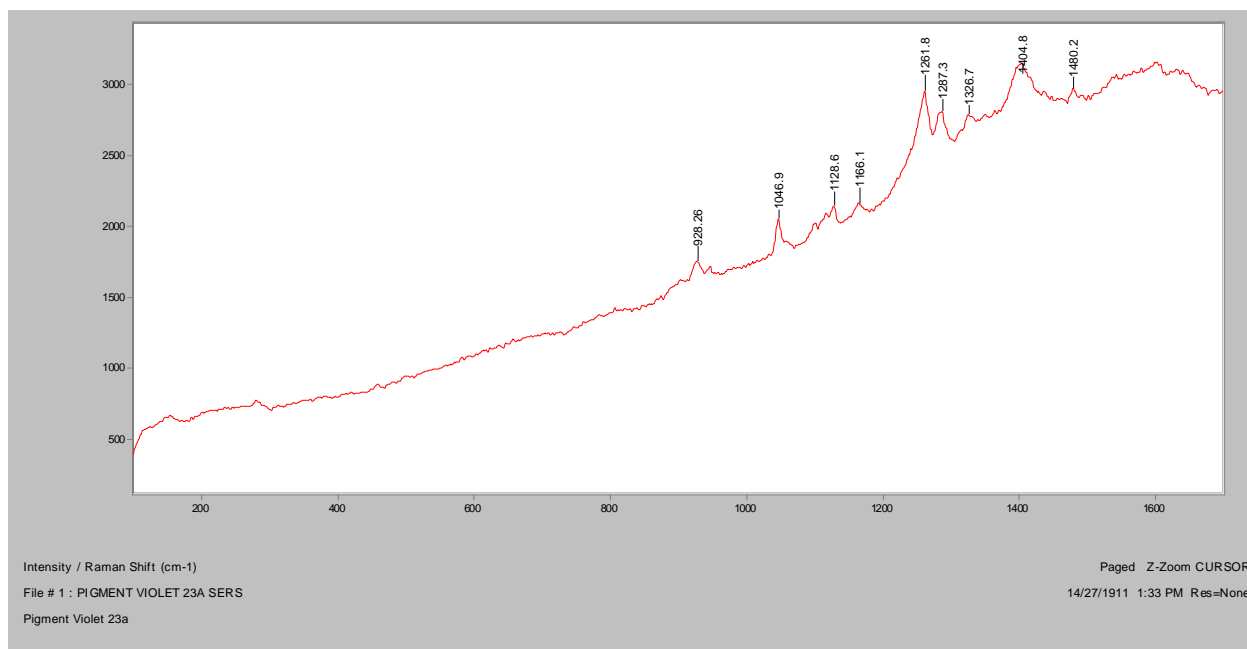
Normal Raman 633nm



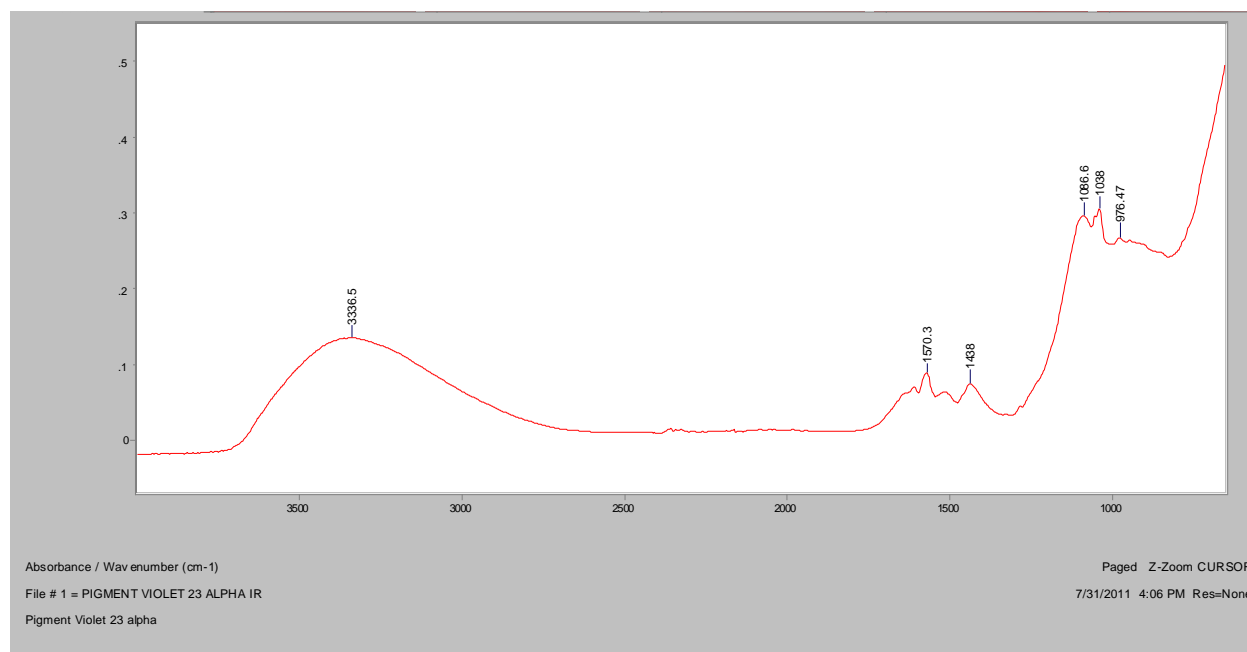
Normal Raman 785nm



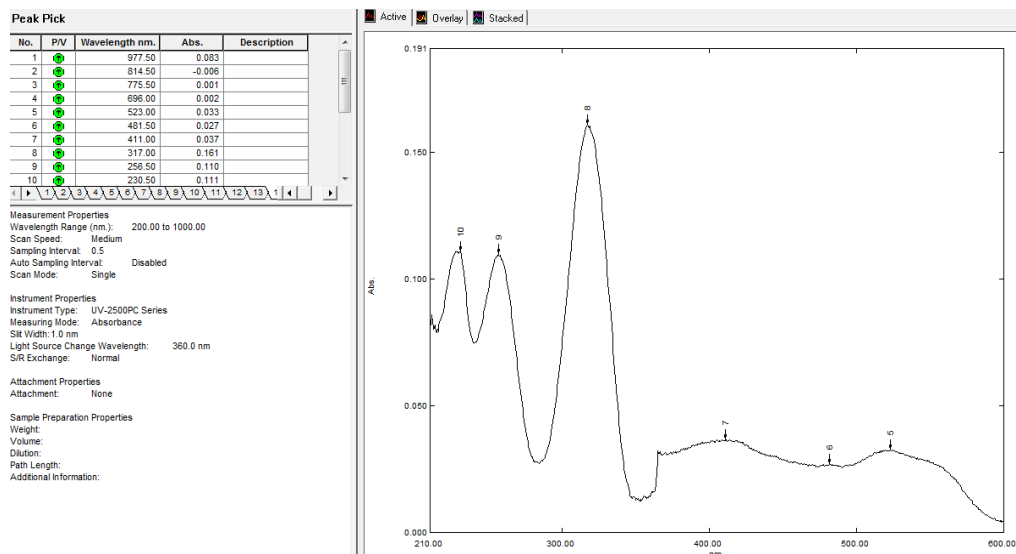
SERS, 488nm



FT-IR (ATR)

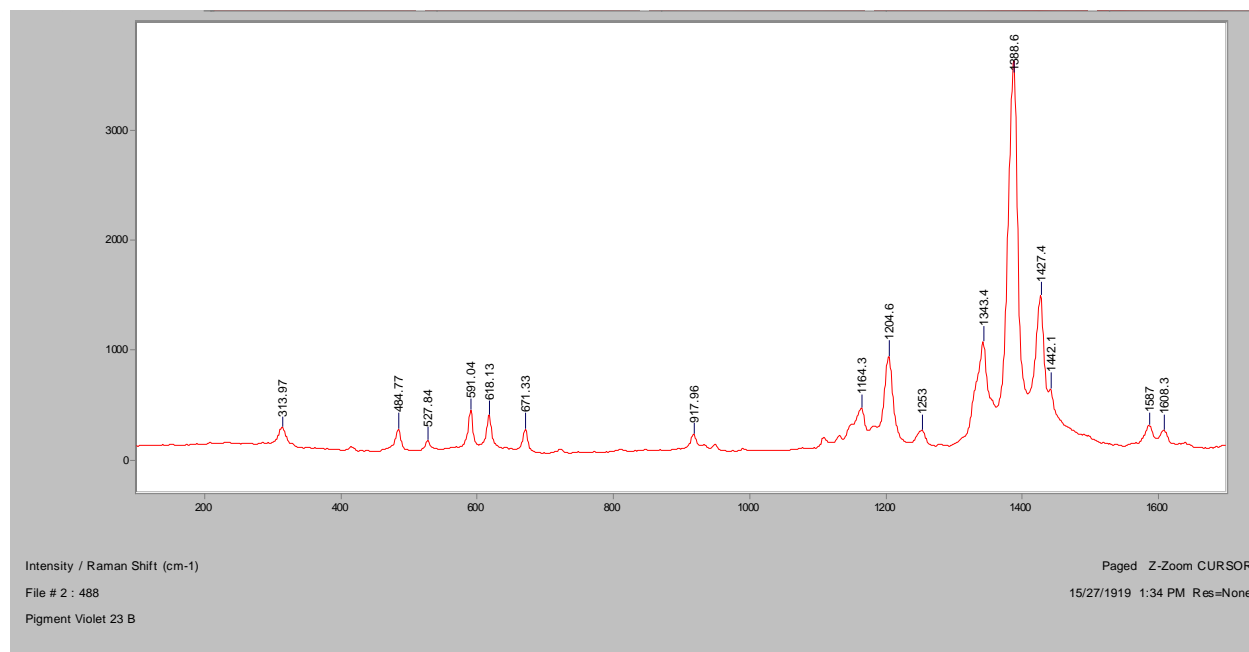


UV-Vis

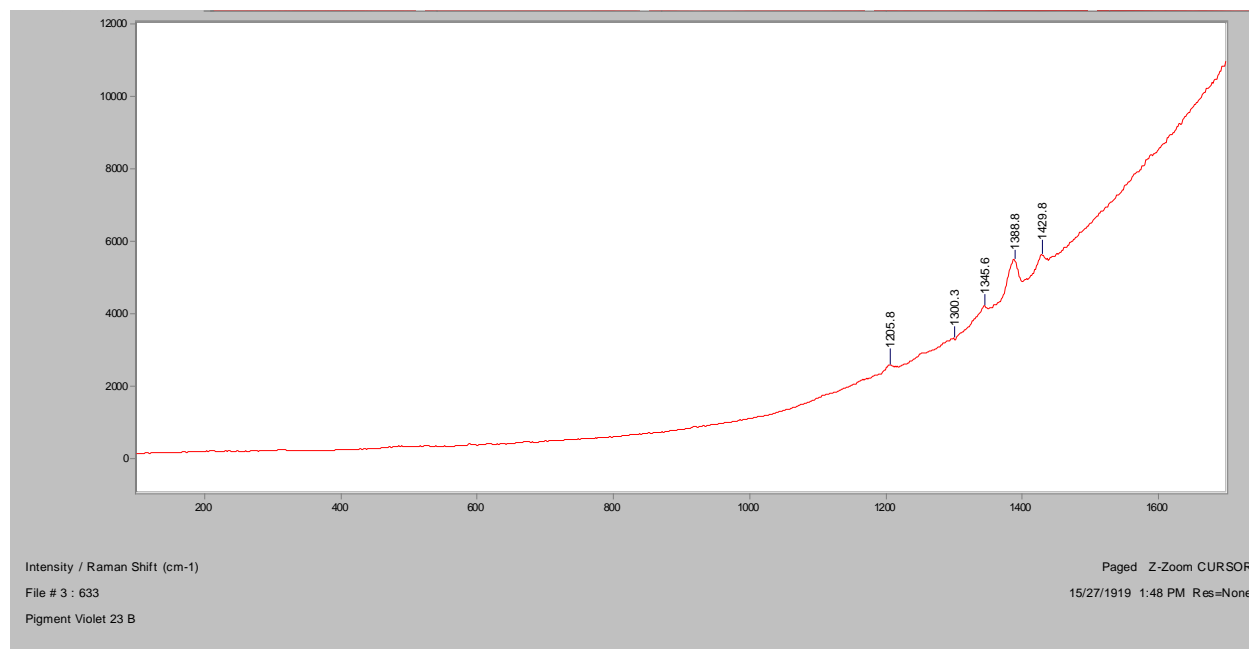


Pigment Violet 23 β

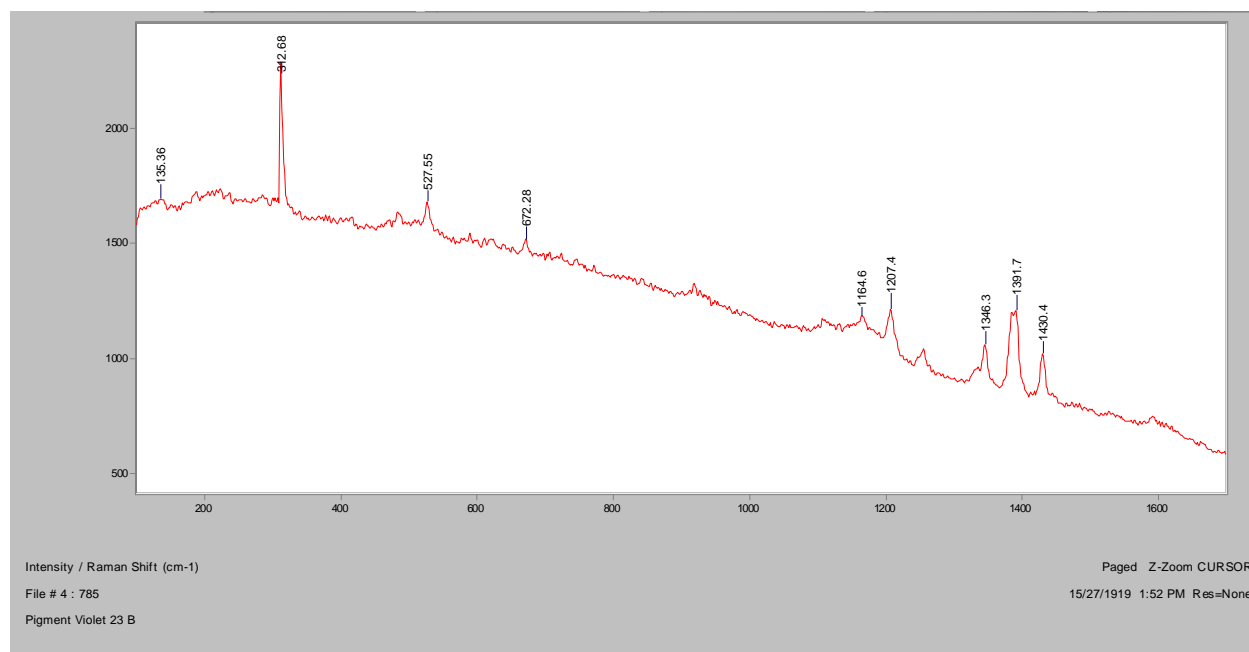
Normal Raman, 488nm



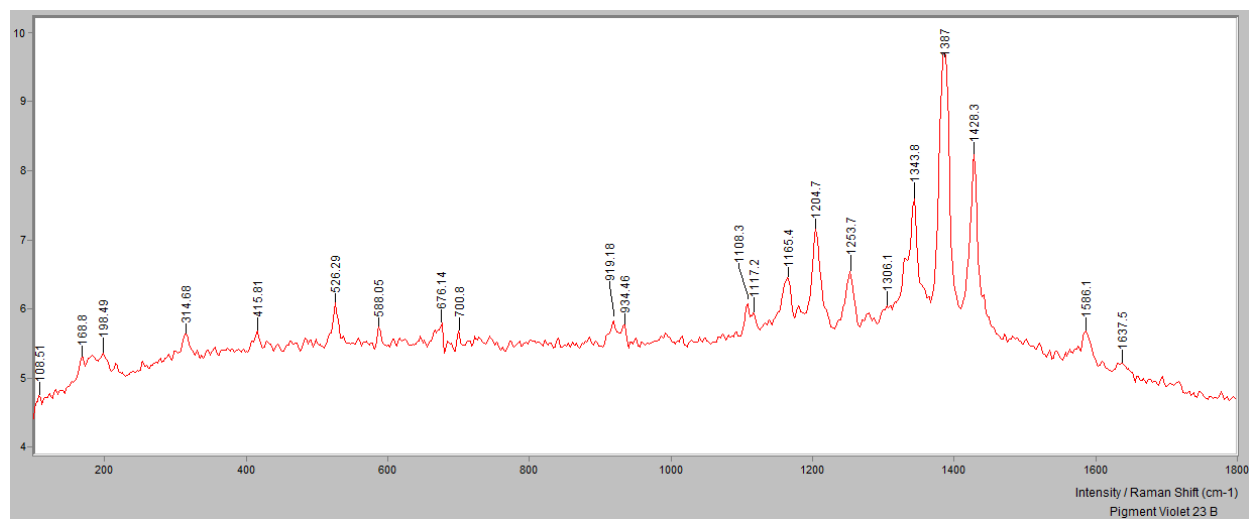
Normal Raman 633nm



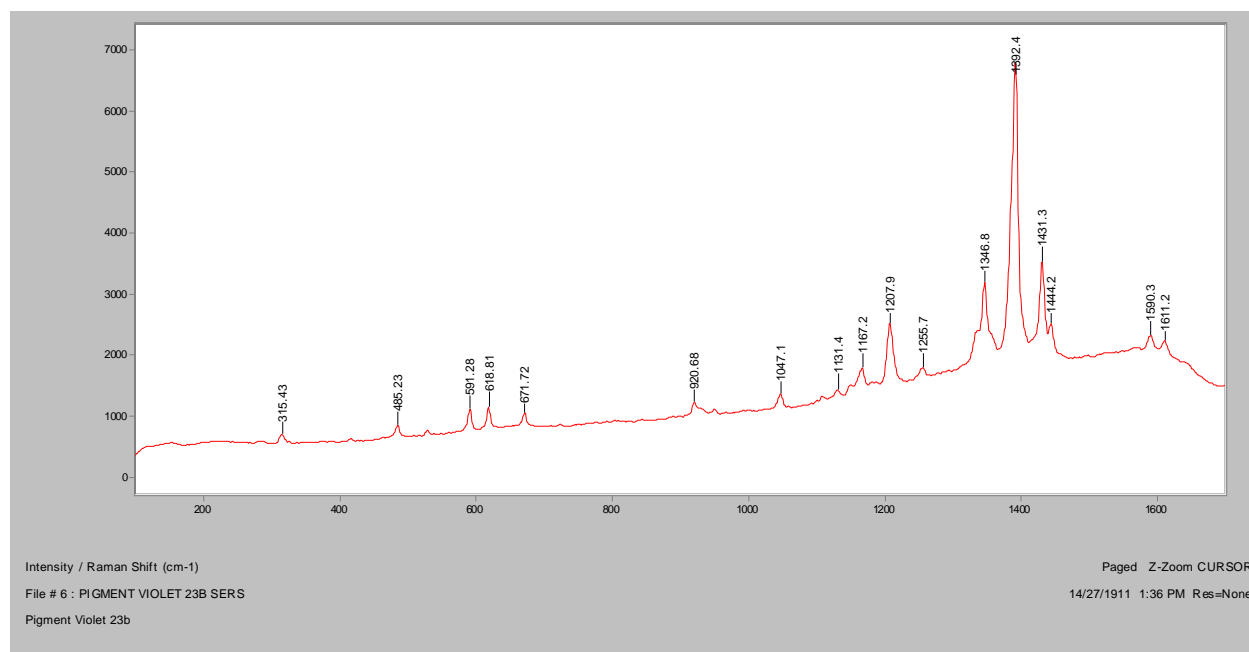
Normal Raman 785nm



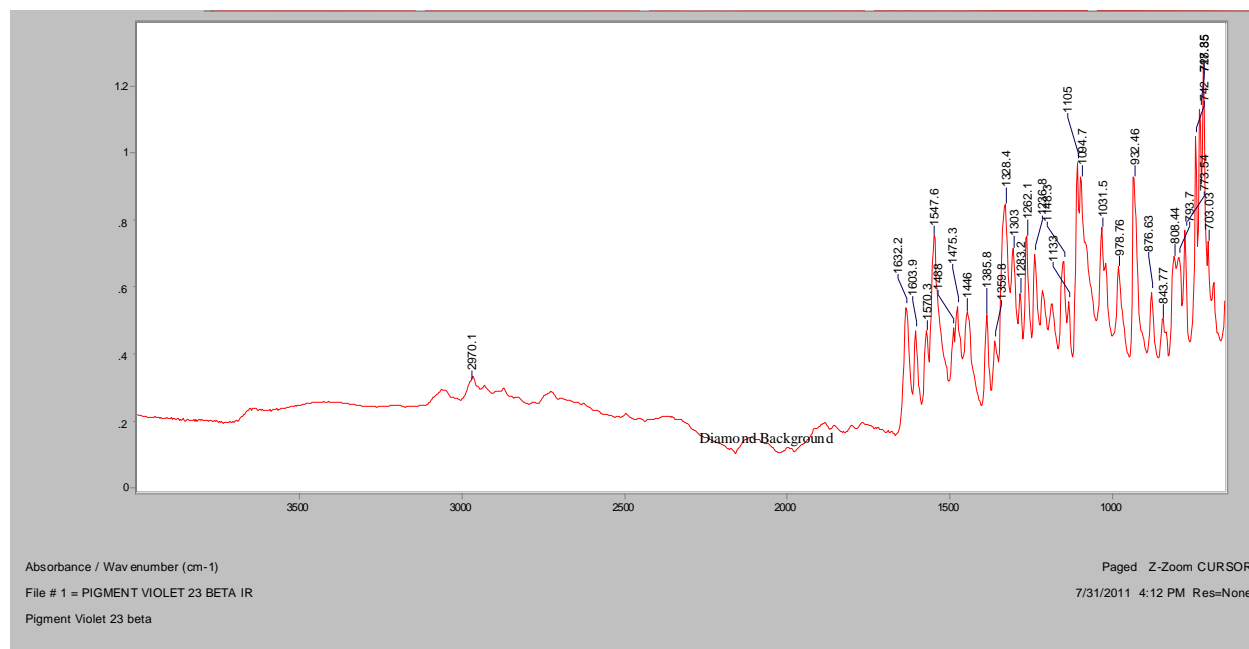
FT Raman, 1064nm



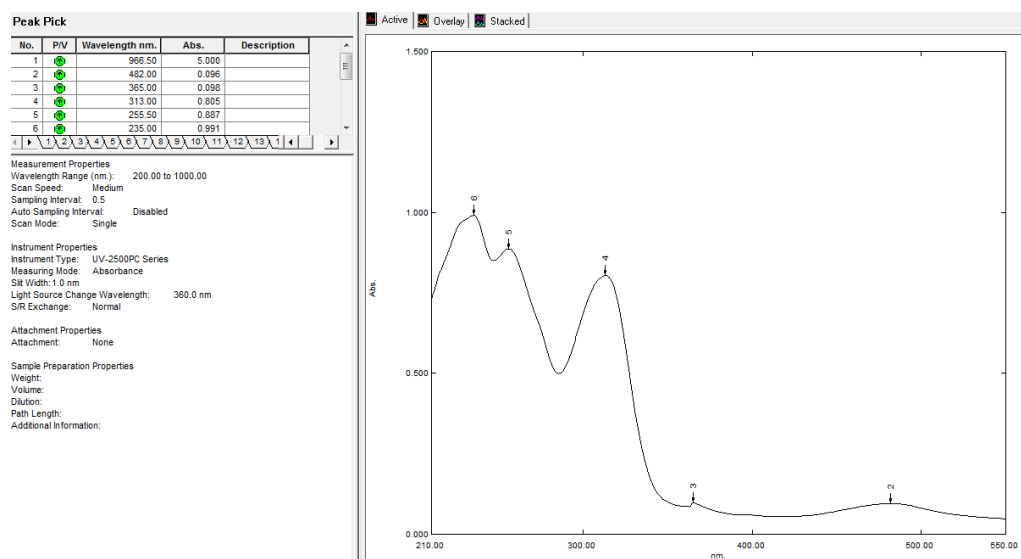
SERS, 488nm



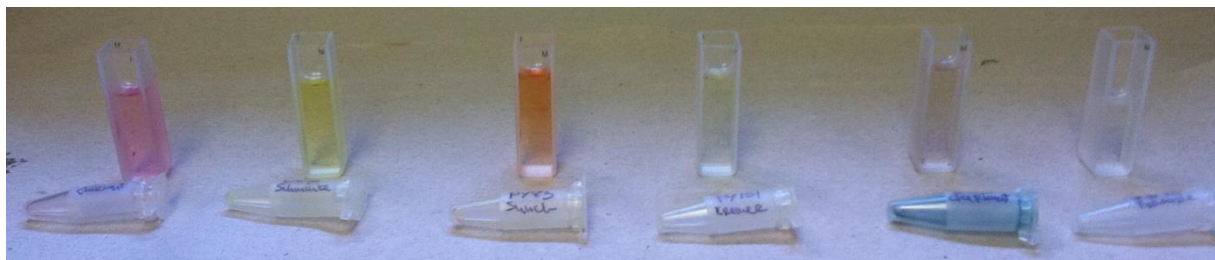
FT-IR (ATR)



UV-Vis



PR 122, PR 146, PR 170, PO 16, PV 23a, PV 23b



PO 34, PY 3, PY 83, PY 151, PG 7, PB 15



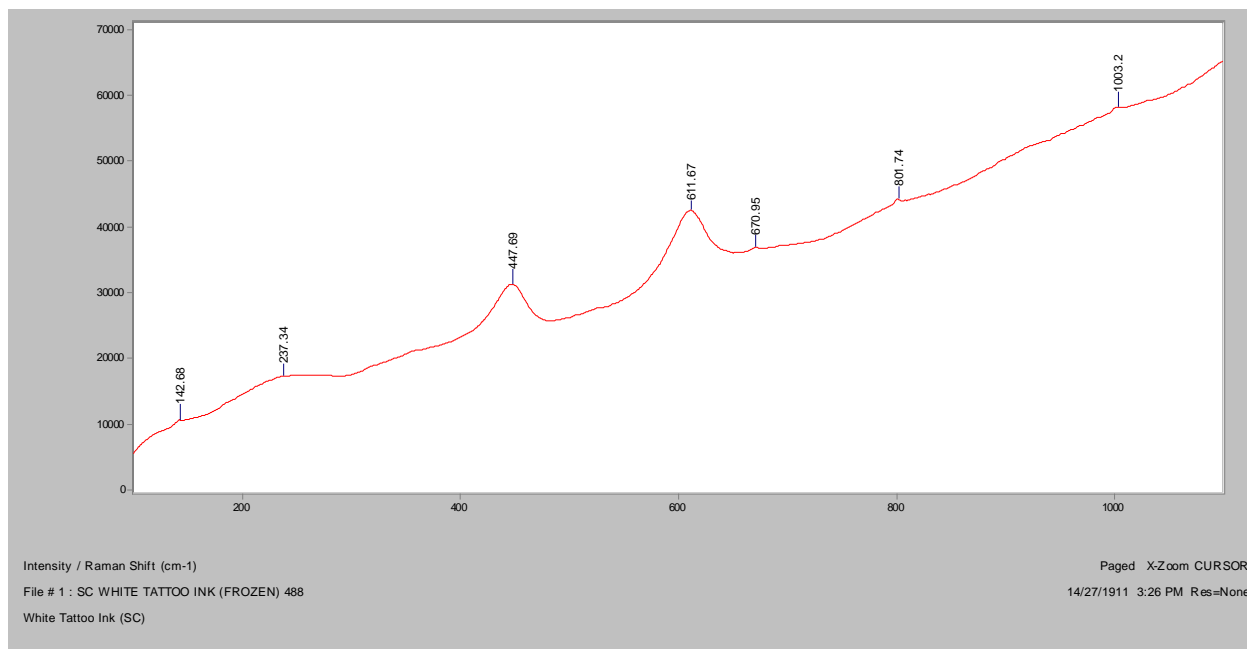
PR 255, PO 62, PY 73

Appendix G: Tattoo Inks in Pigskin

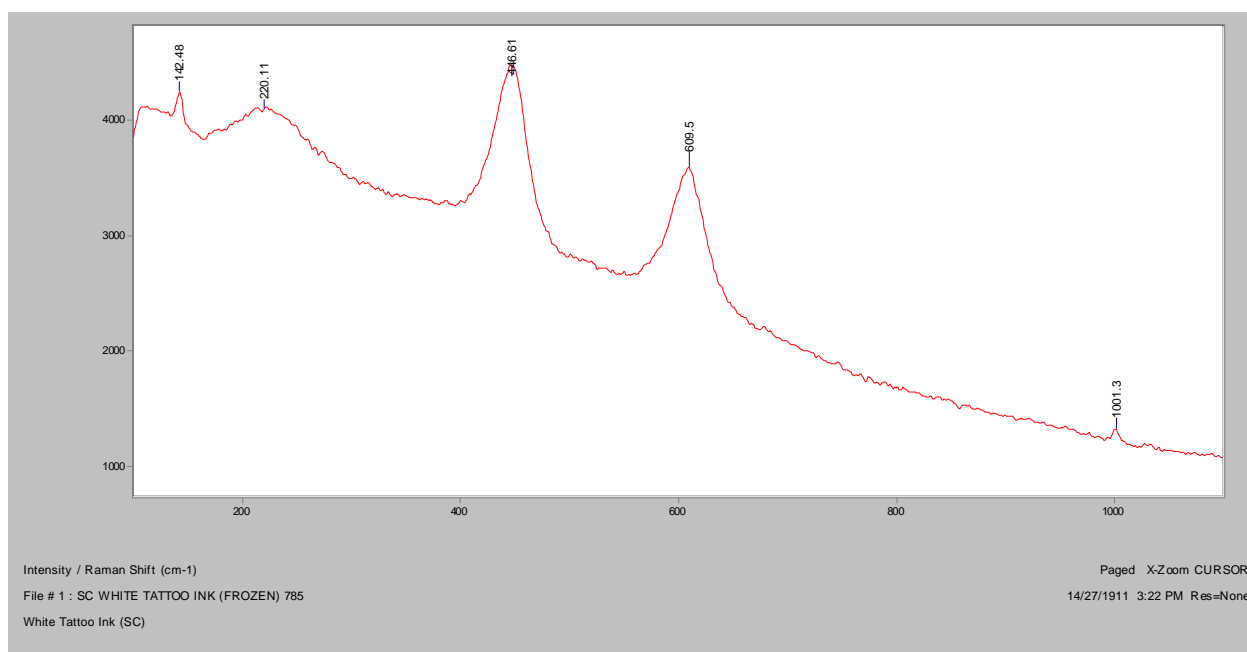
Frozen Tissue

White region

Normal Raman, 488nm

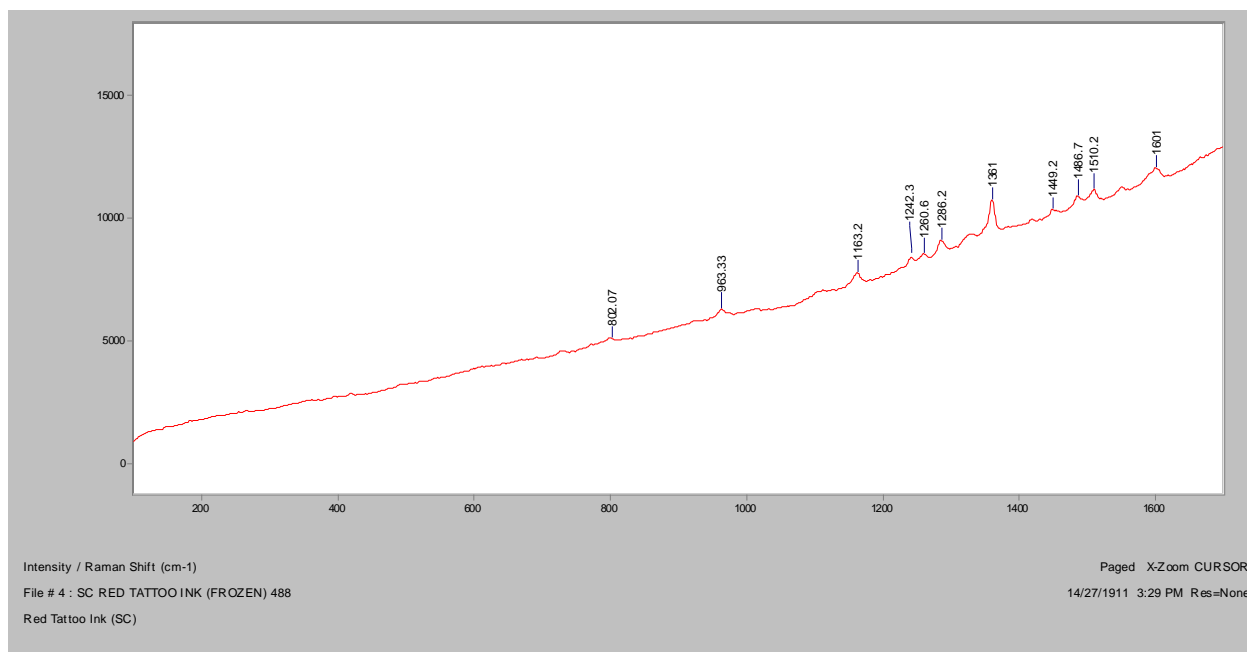


Normal Raman, 785nm

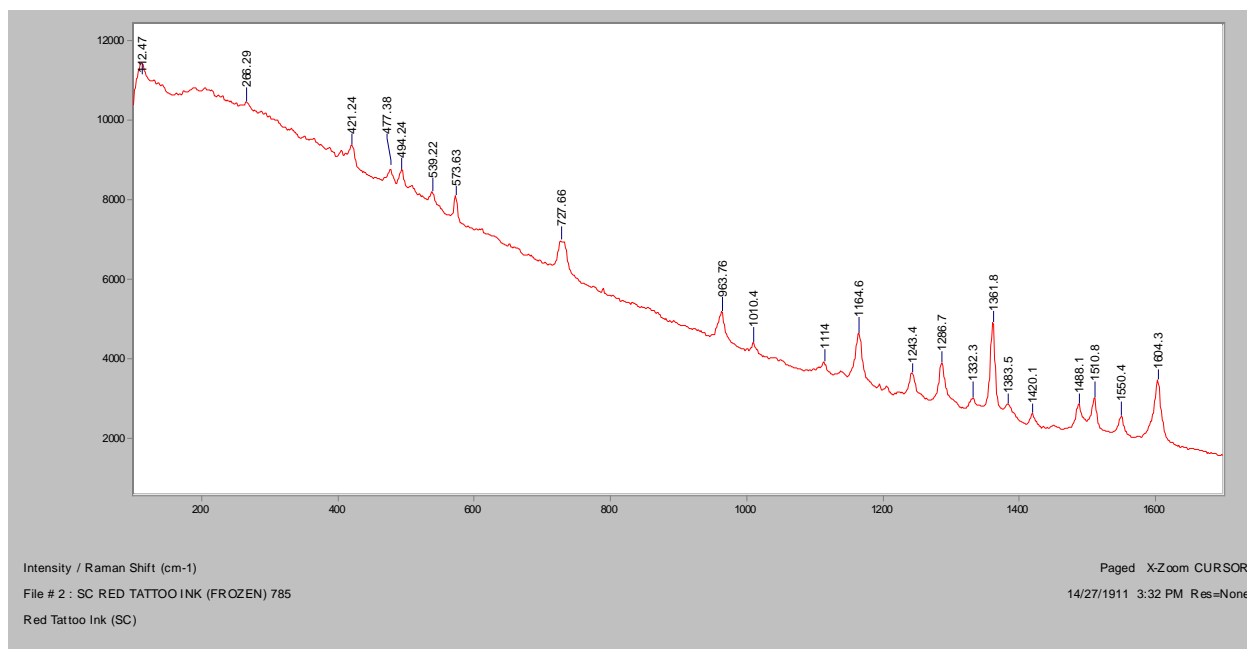


Red region

Normal Raman, 488nm

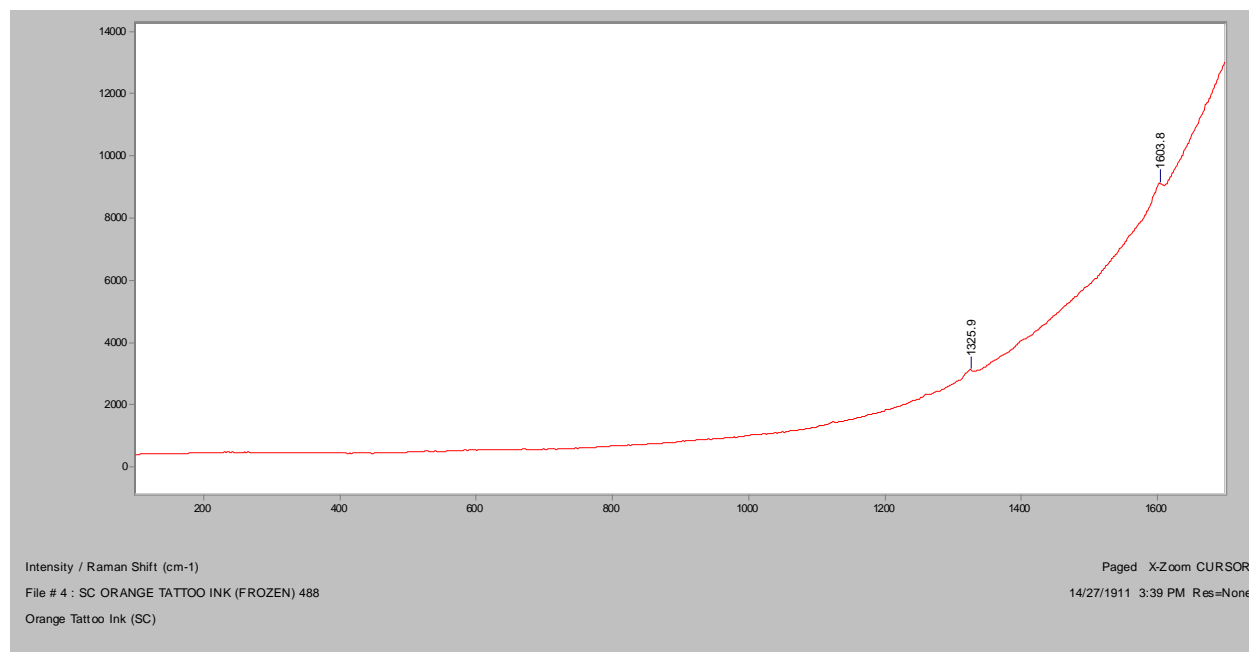


Normal Raman, 785nm

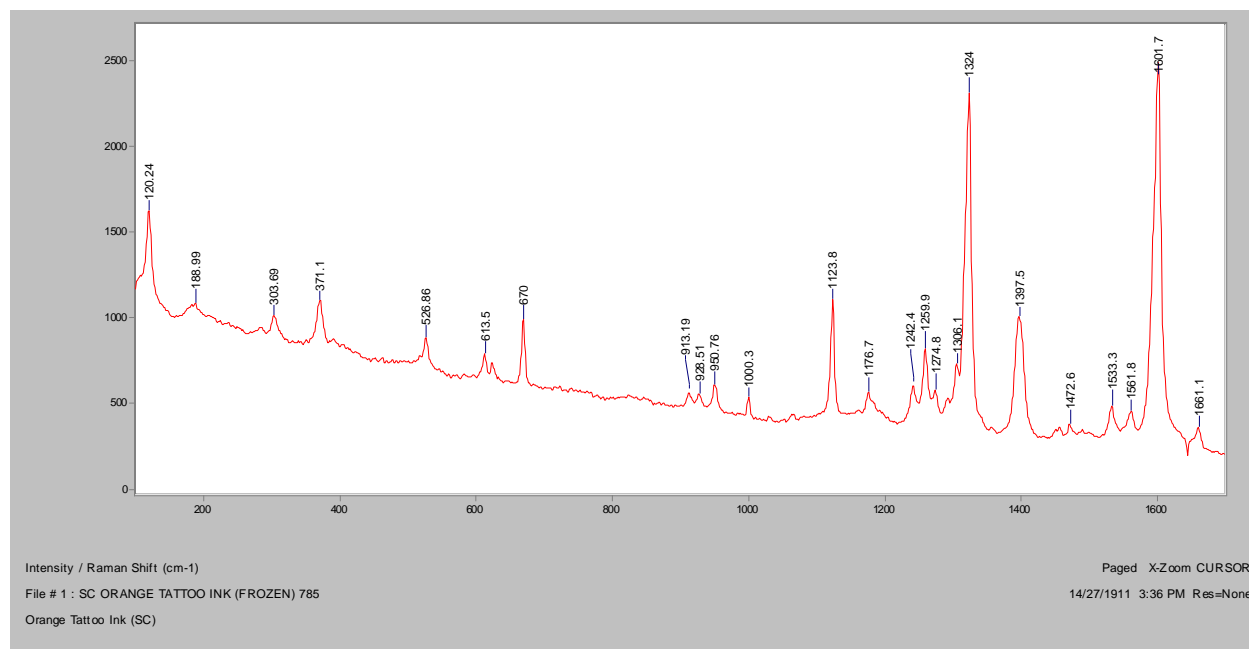


Orange region

Normal Raman, 488nm

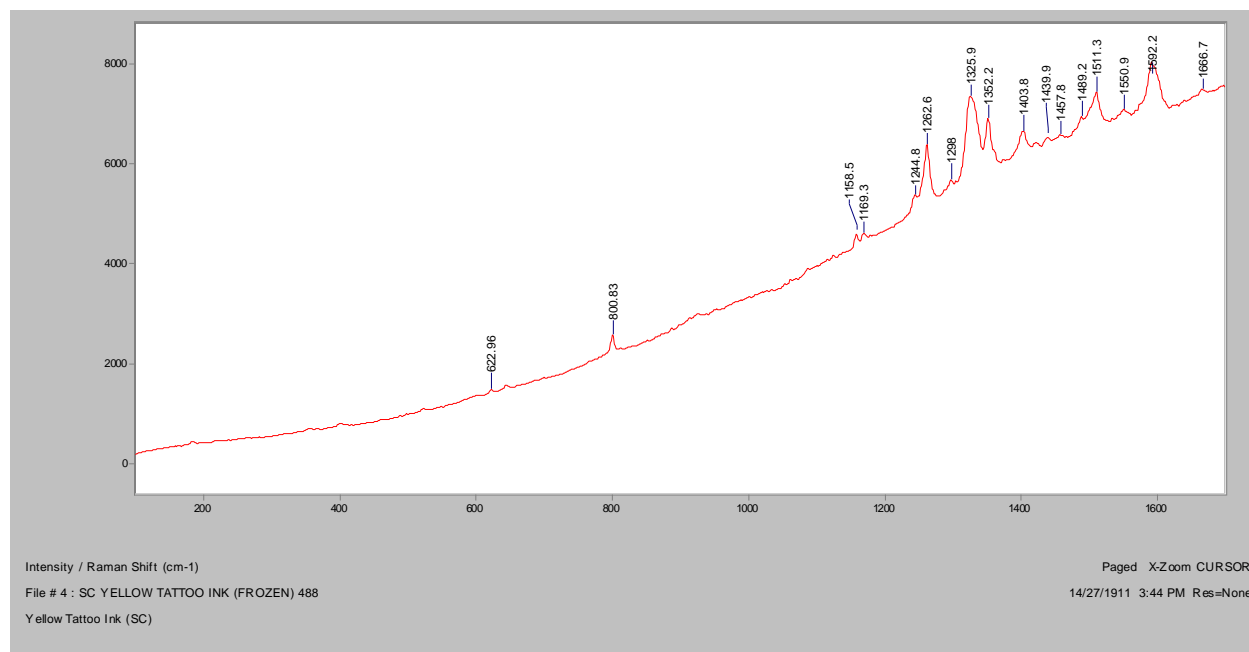


Normal Raman, 785nm

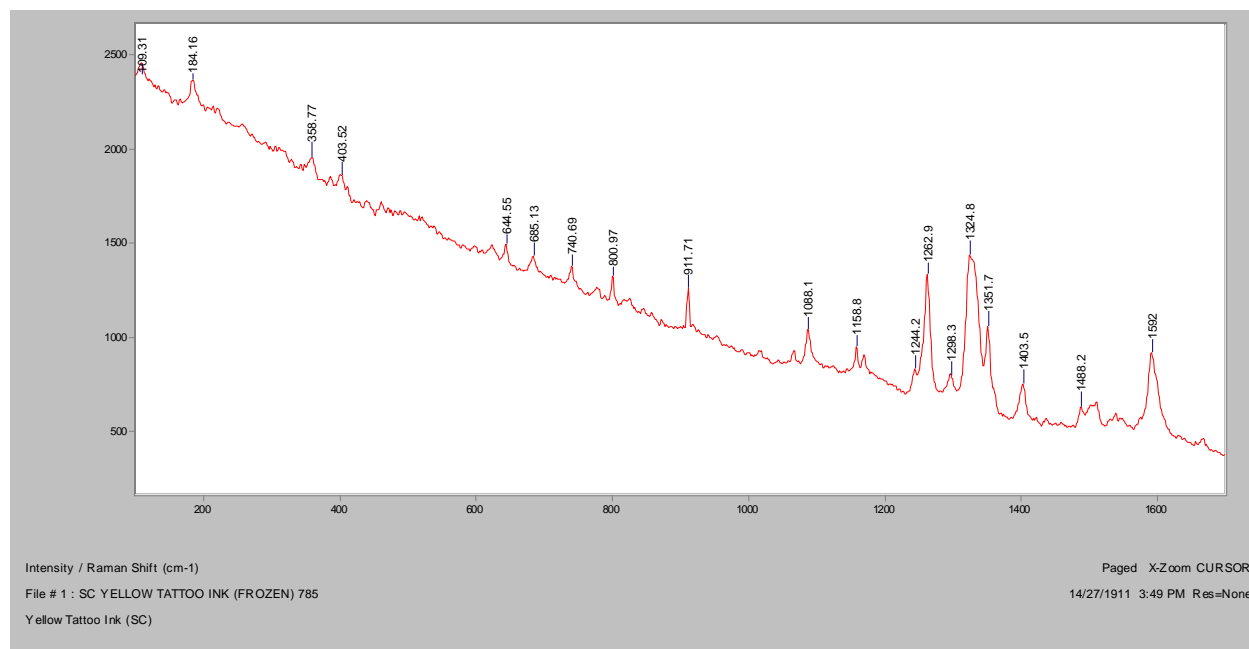


Yellow region

Normal Raman, 488nm

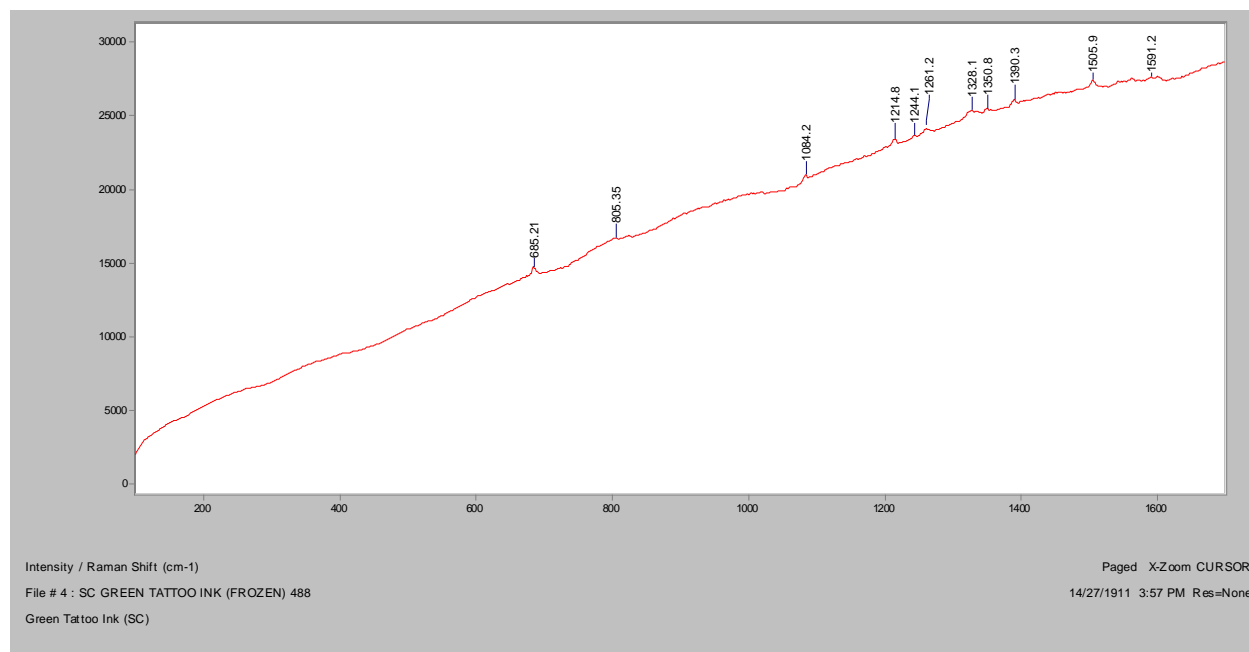


Normal Raman, 785nm

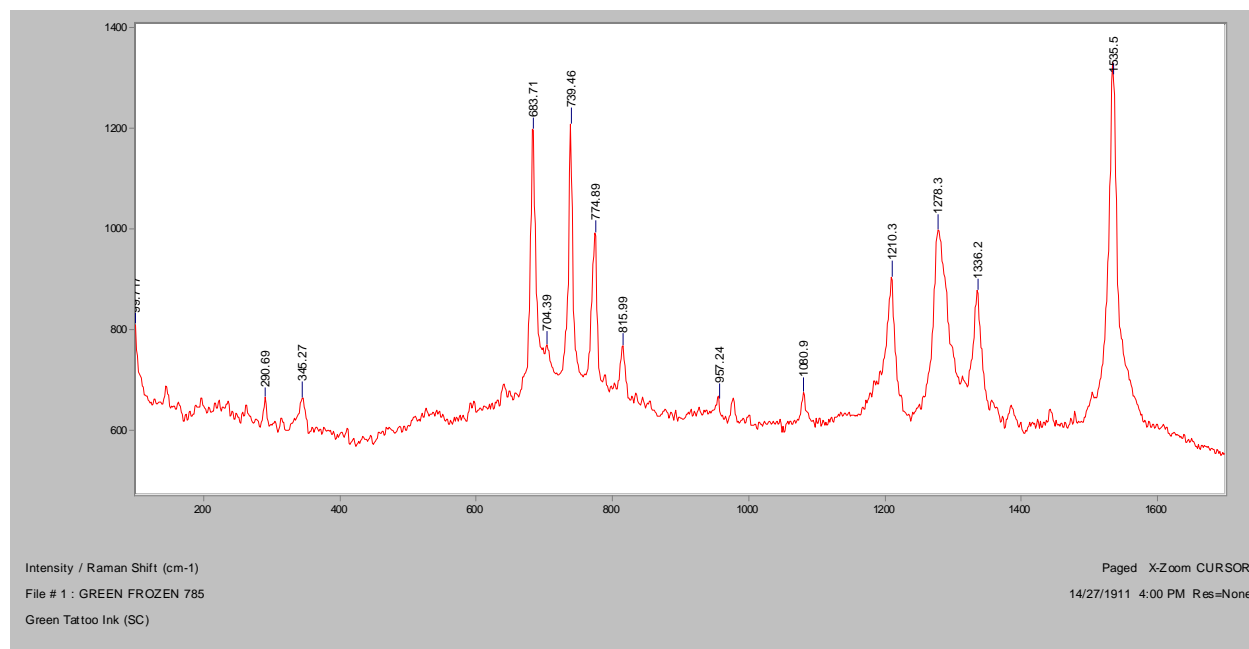


Green region

Normal Raman, 488nm

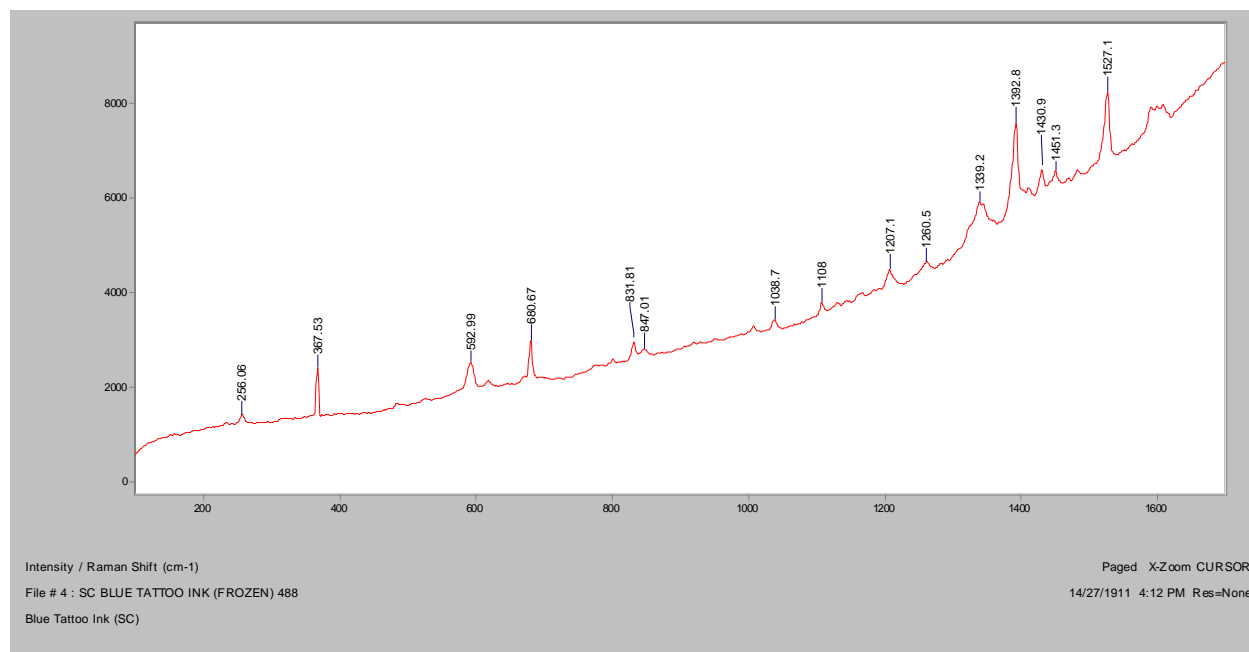


Normal Raman, 785nm

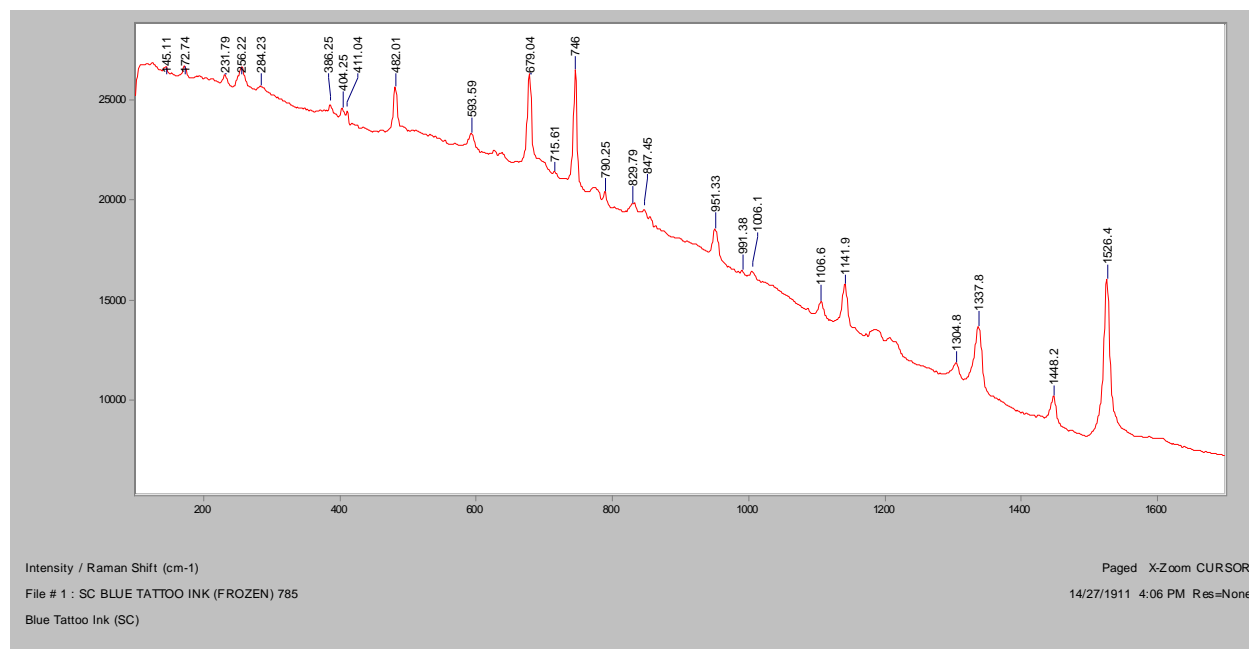


Blue region

Normal Raman, 488nm

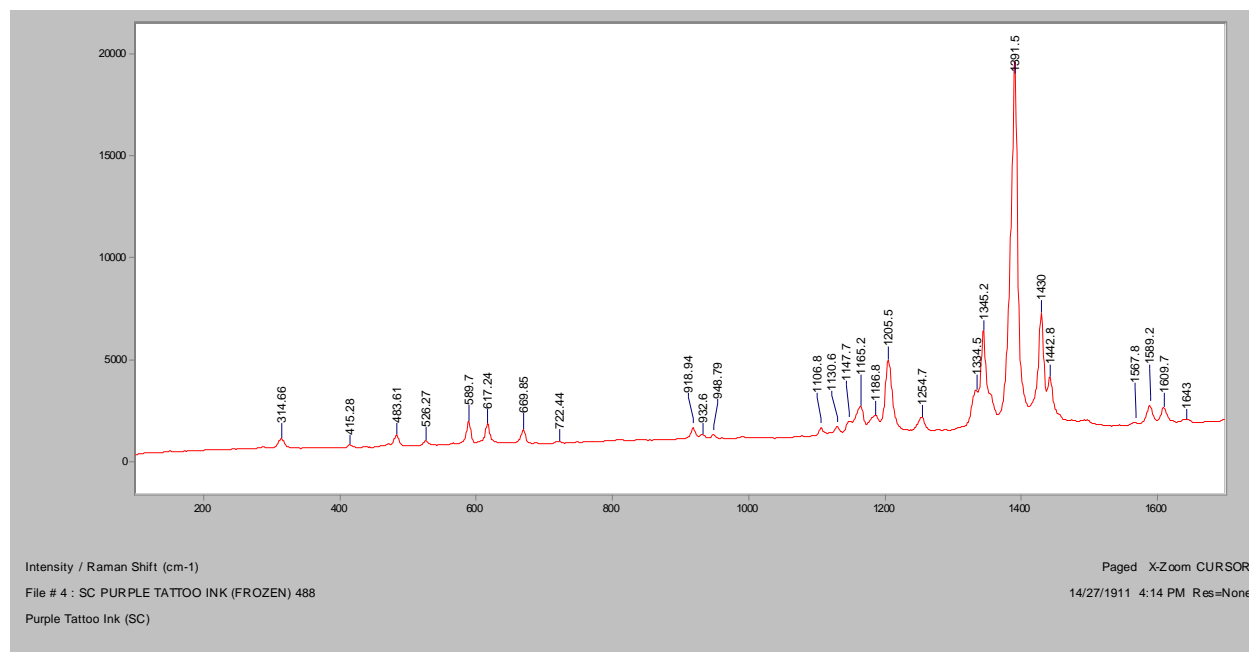


Normal Raman, 785nm

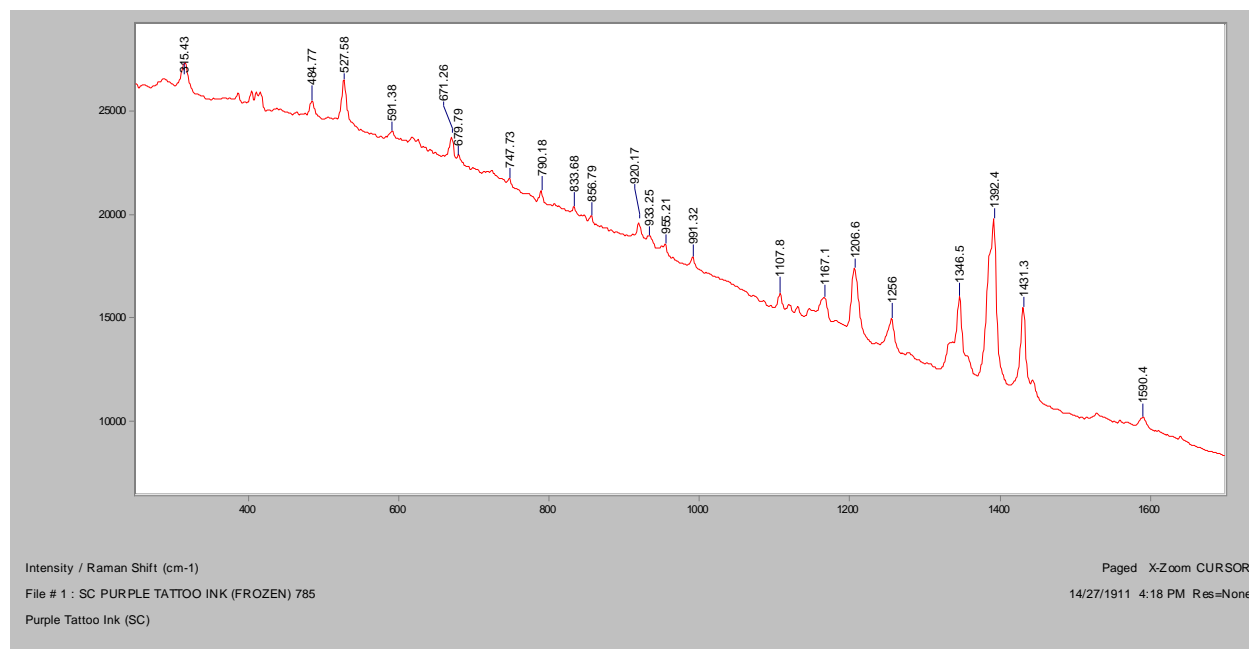


Purple region

Normal Raman, 488nm



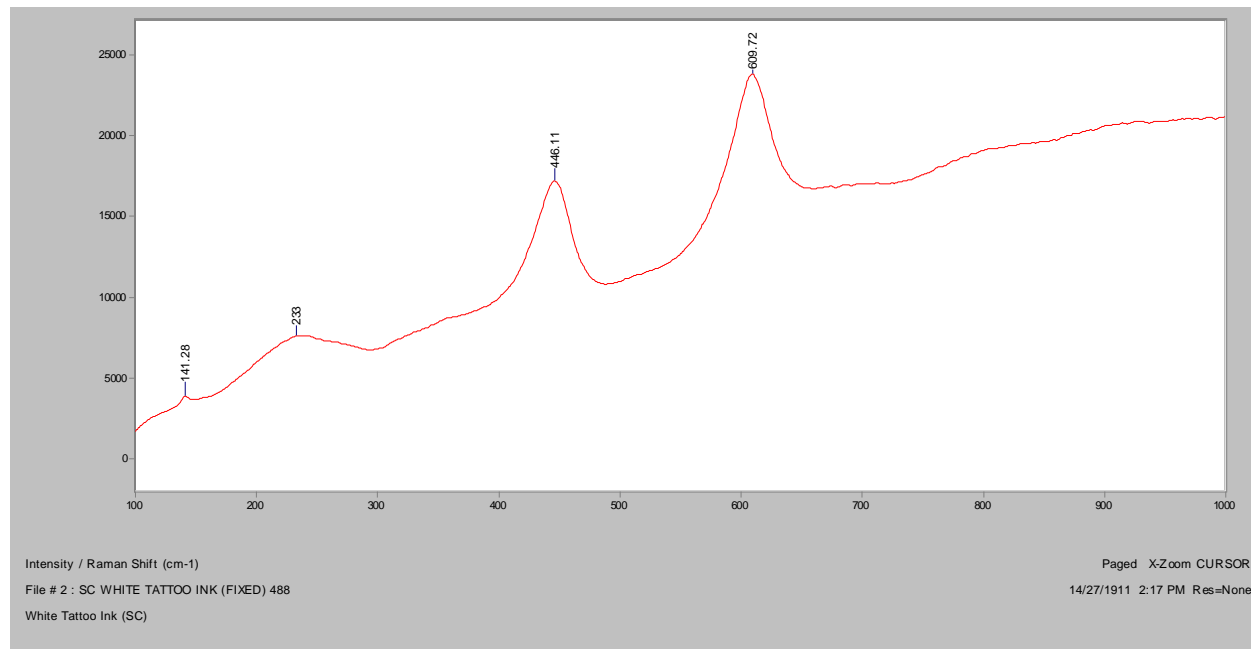
Normal Raman, 785nm



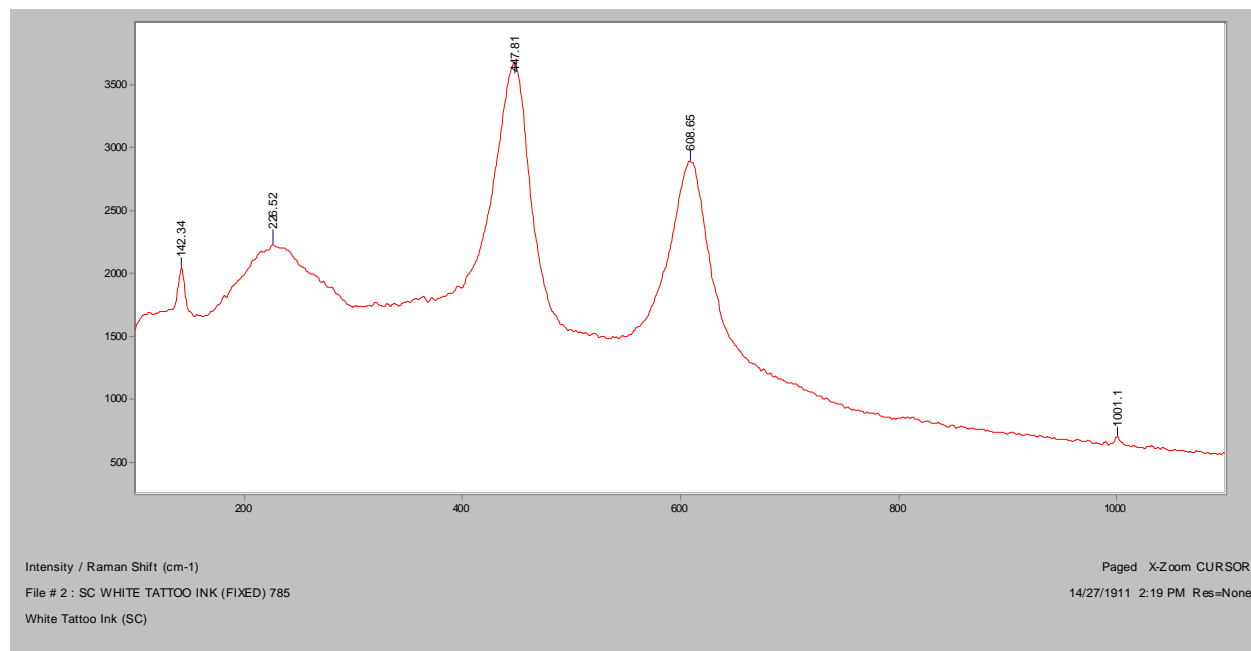
Formalin Fixed Tissue

White region

Normal Raman, 488nm

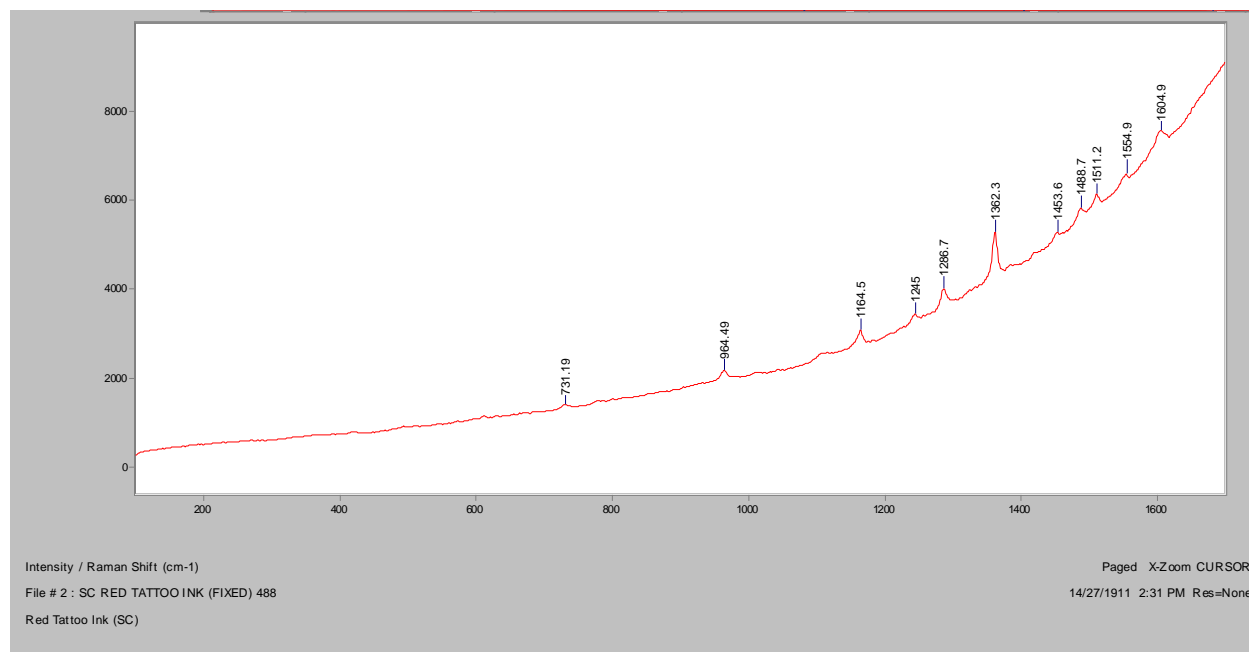


Normal Raman, 785nm

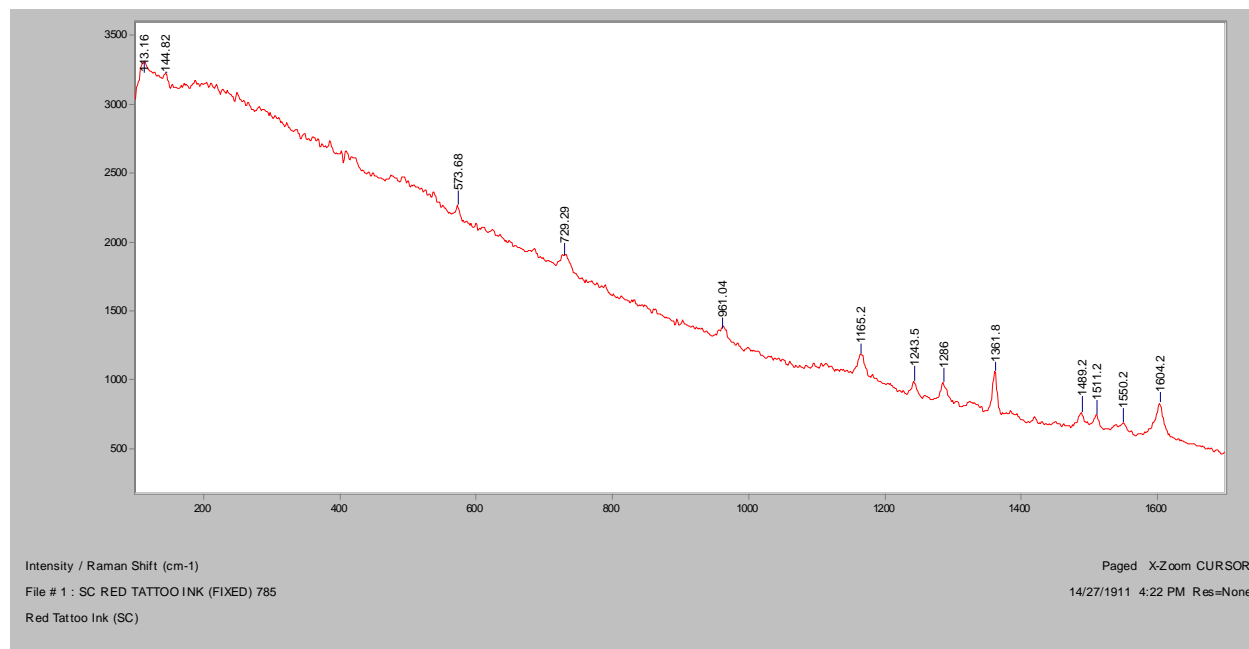


Red region

Normal Raman, 488nm

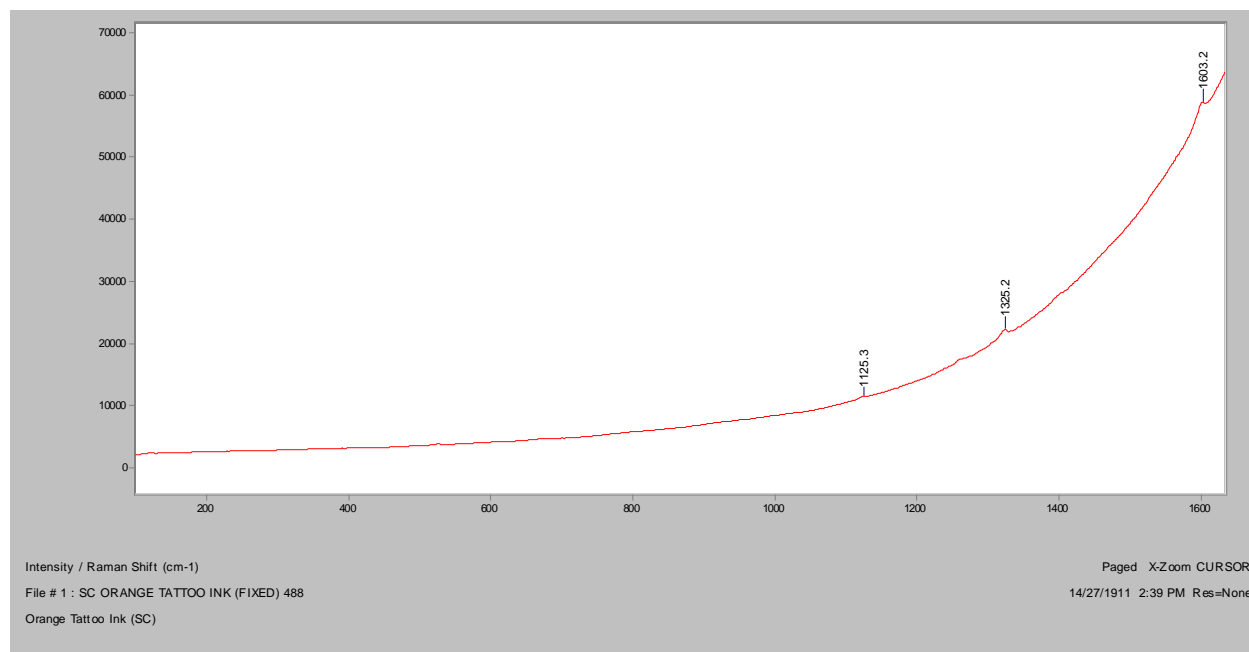


Normal Raman, 785nm

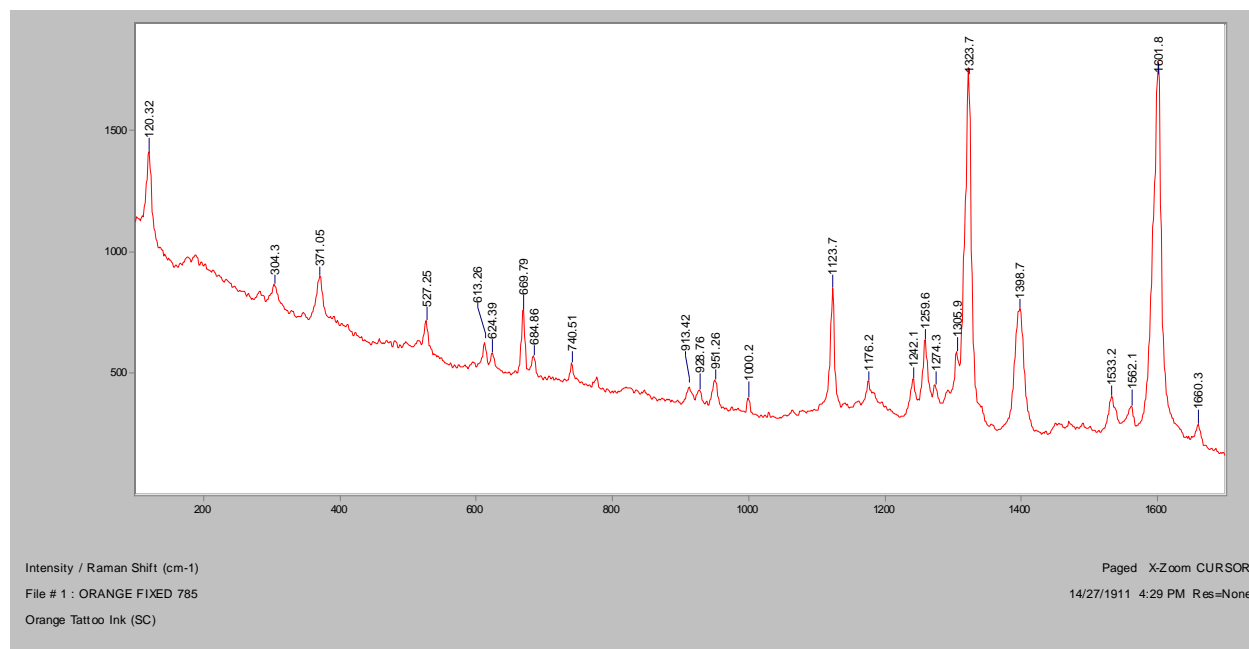


Orange region

Normal Raman, 488nm

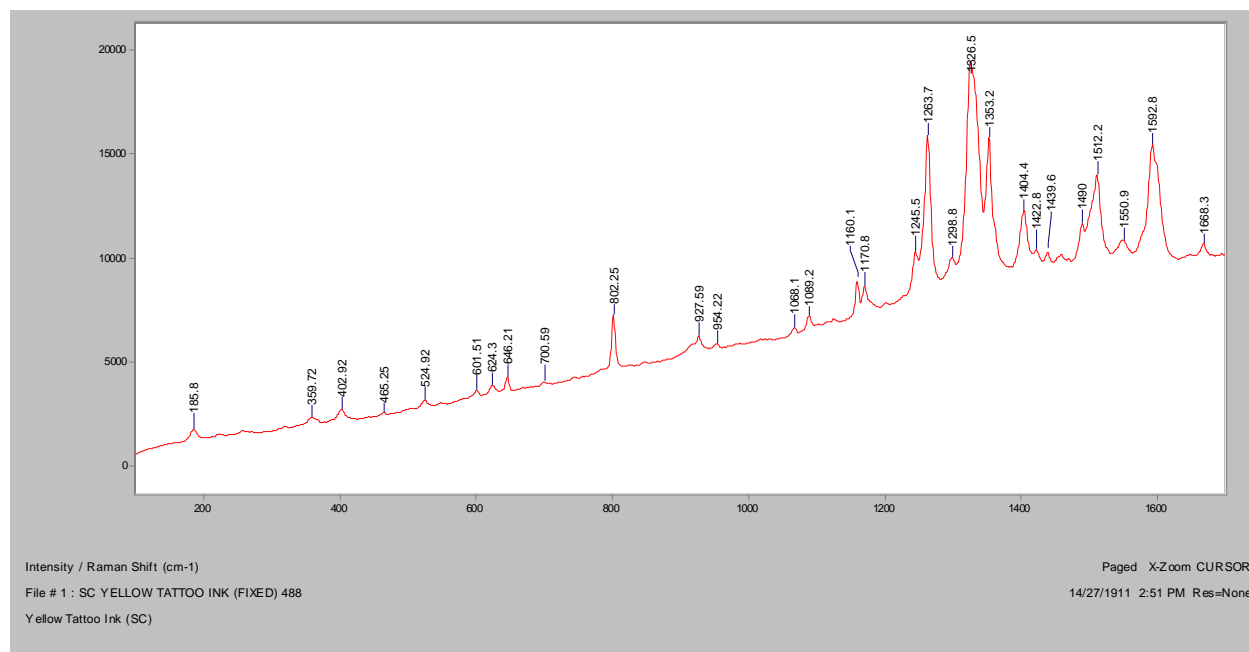


Normal Raman, 785nm

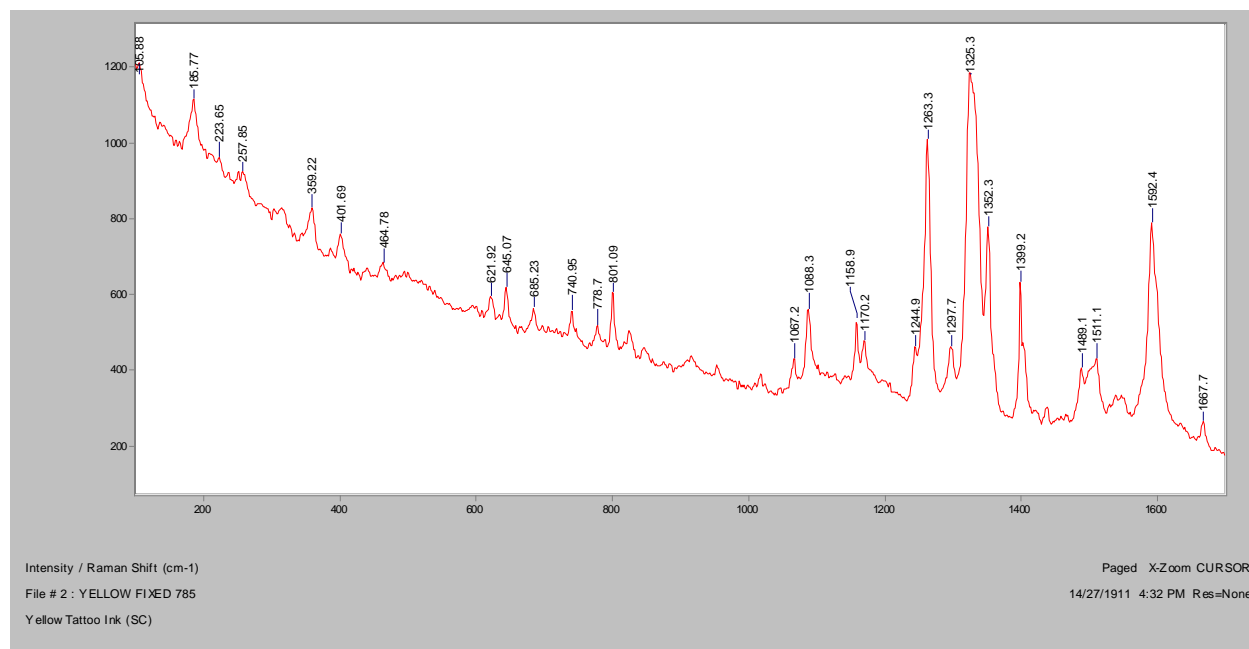


Yellow region

Normal Raman, 488nm

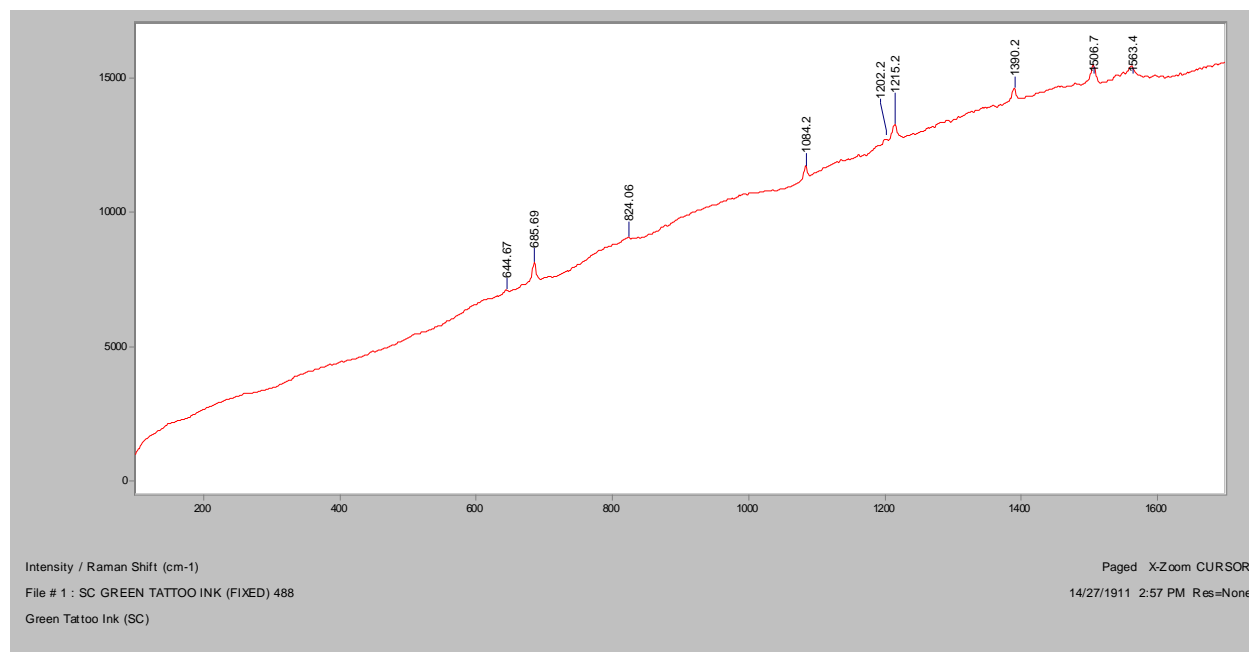


Normal Raman, 785nm

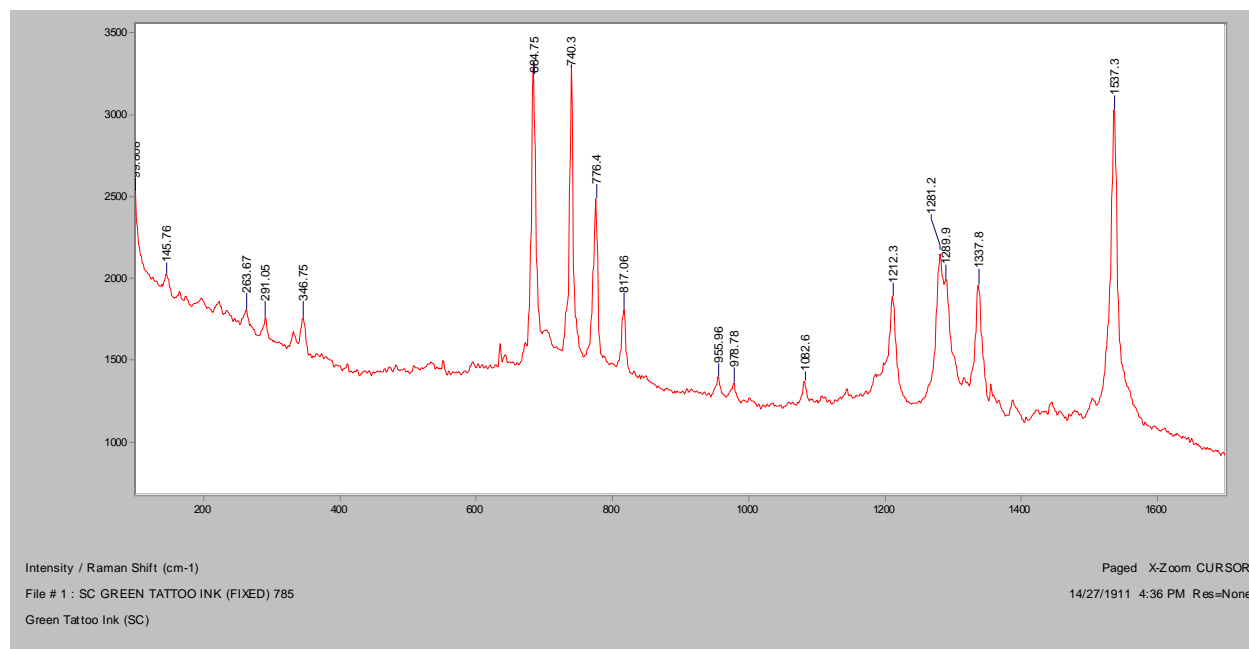


Green region

Normal Raman, 488nm

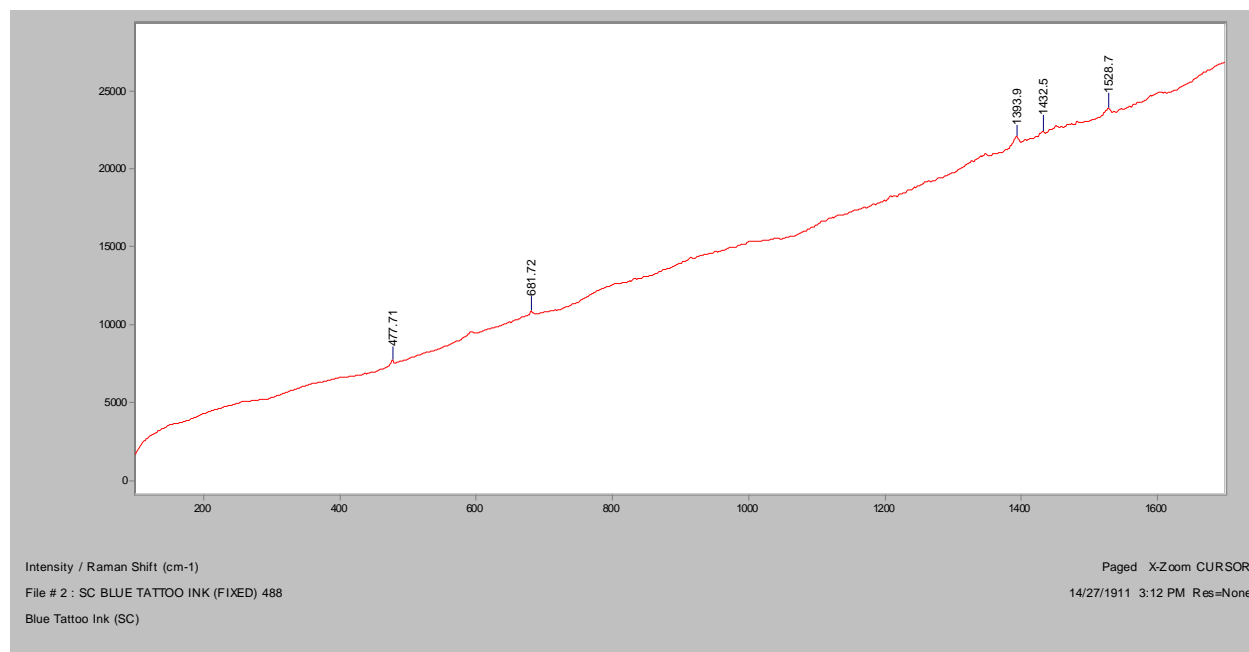


Normal Raman, 785nm

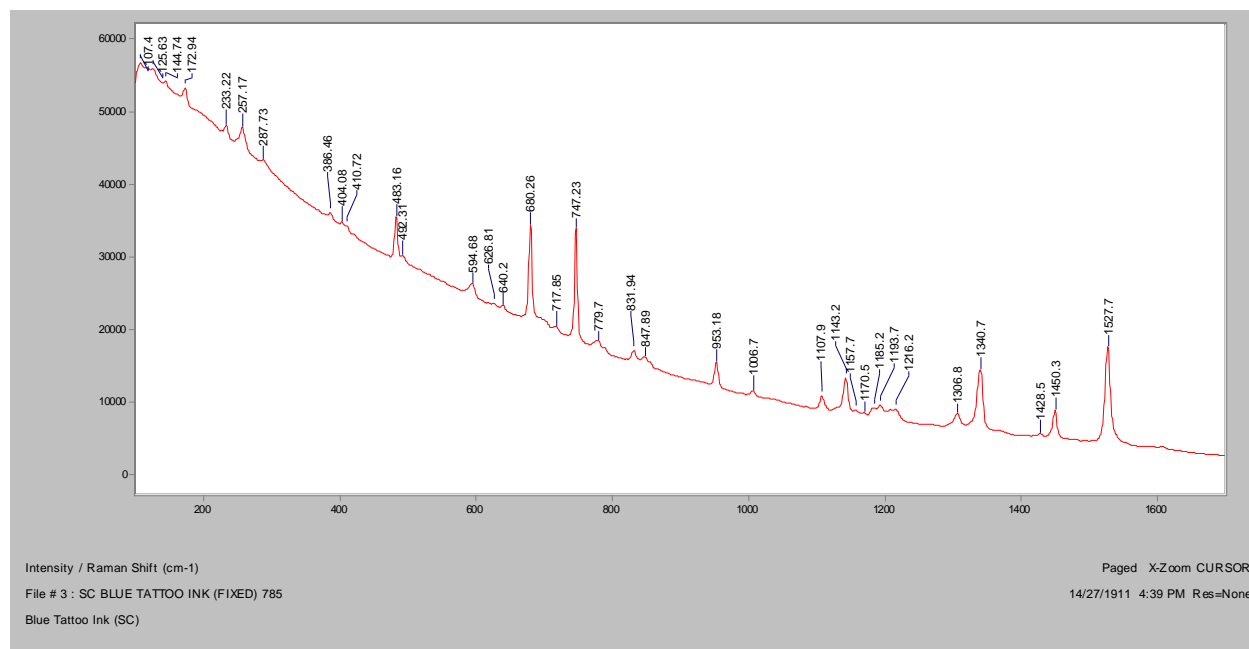


Blue region

Normal Raman, 488nm

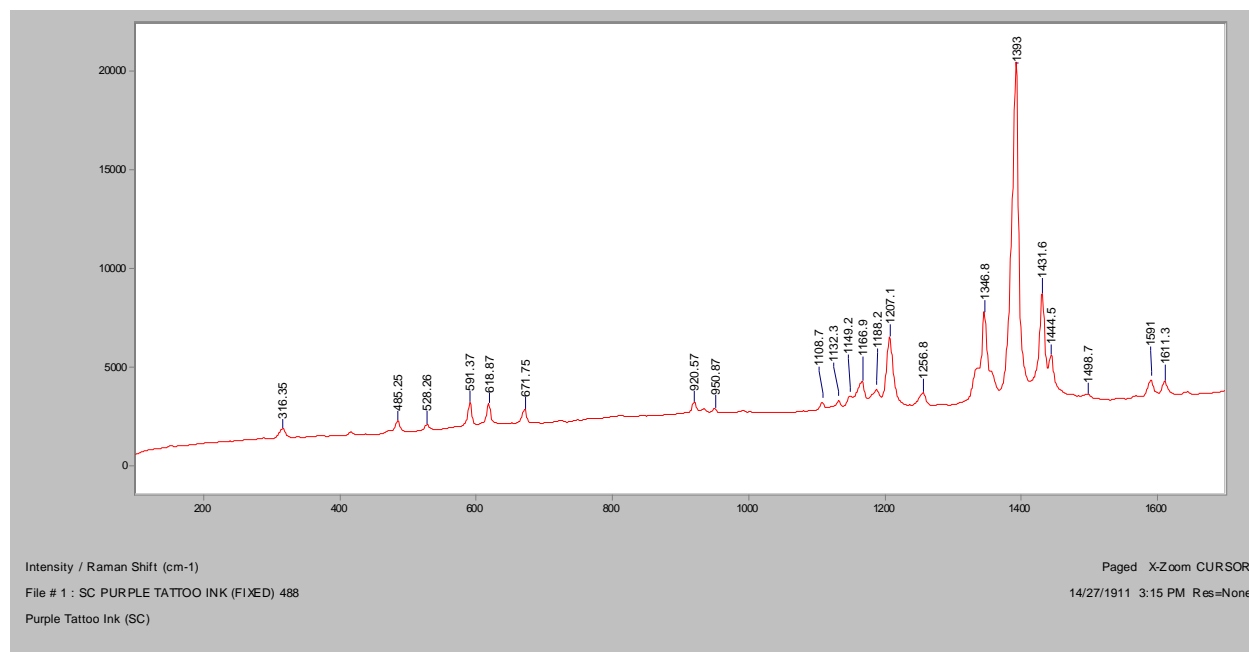


Normal Raman, 785nm

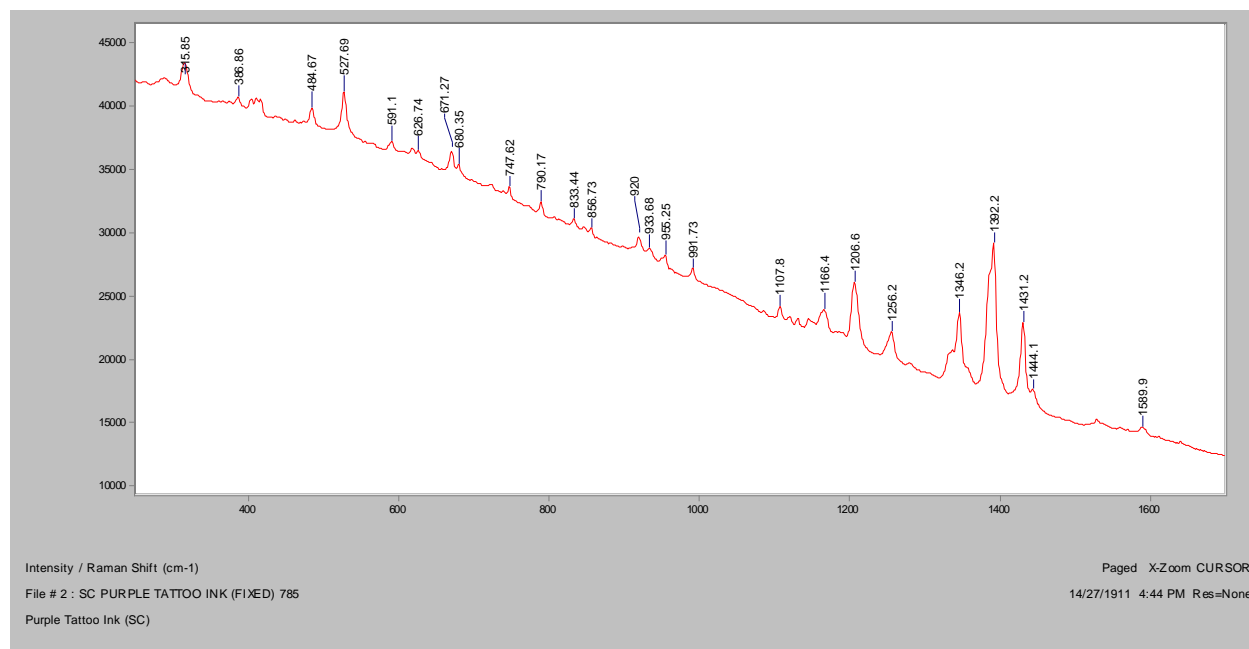


Purple region

Normal Raman, 488nm



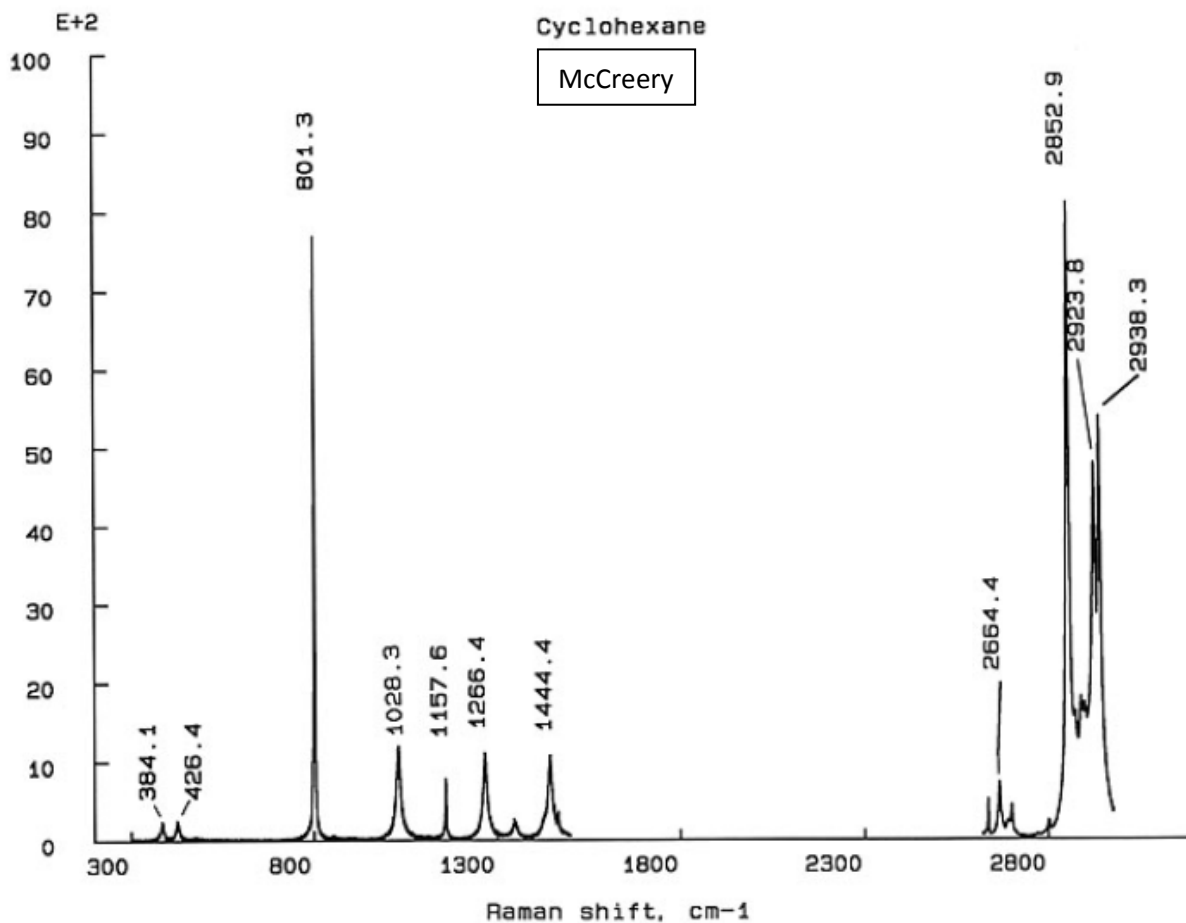
Normal Raman, 785nm



Appendix H: Calibration Standards

Raman Reference Spectra^{5,6}

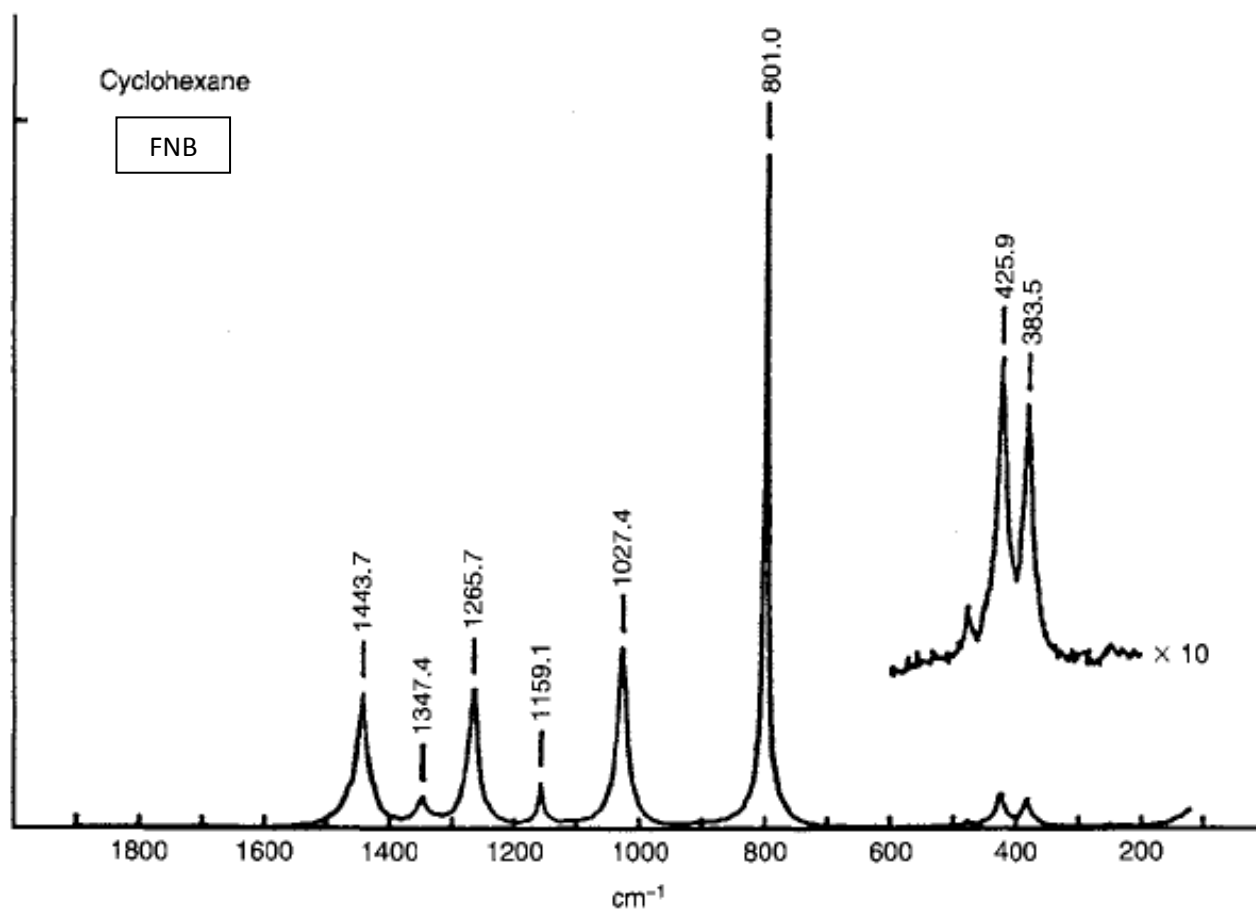
Cyclohexane



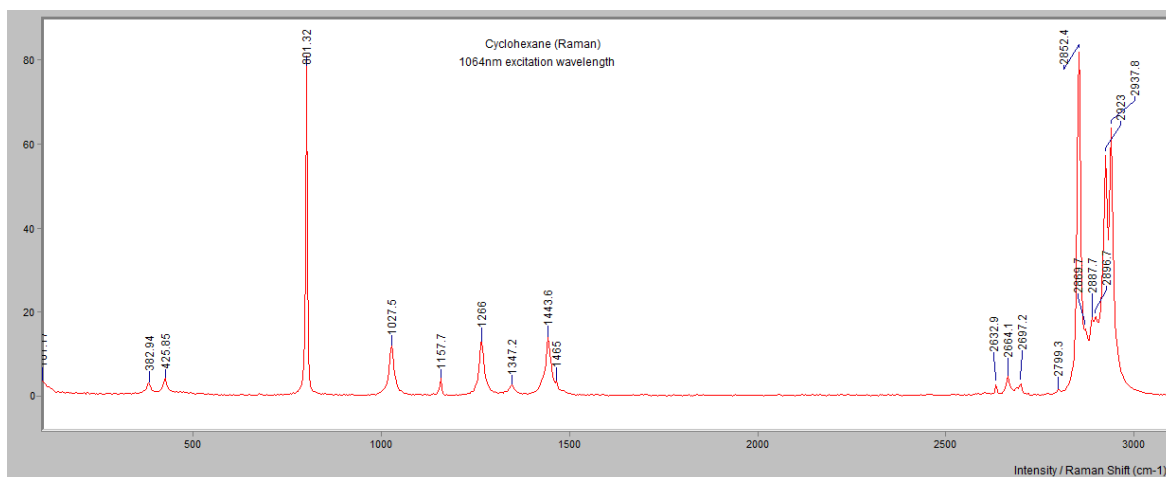
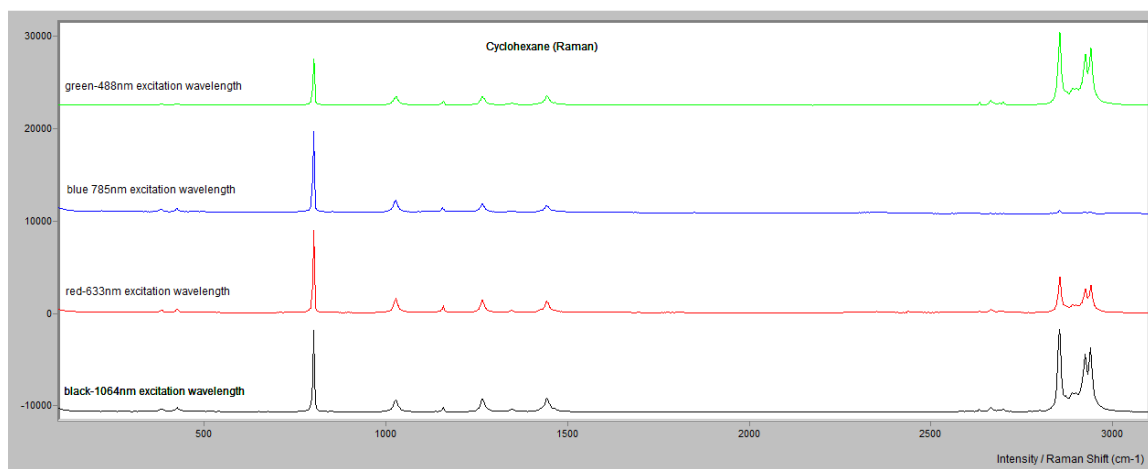
⁵ Spectra labeled "McCreery" were obtained from The McCreery Group website:

<http://www.chem.ualberta.ca/~mccreery/ramanmaterials.html>. All spectra generated with an FT-Raman (1064nm laser excitation wavelength)

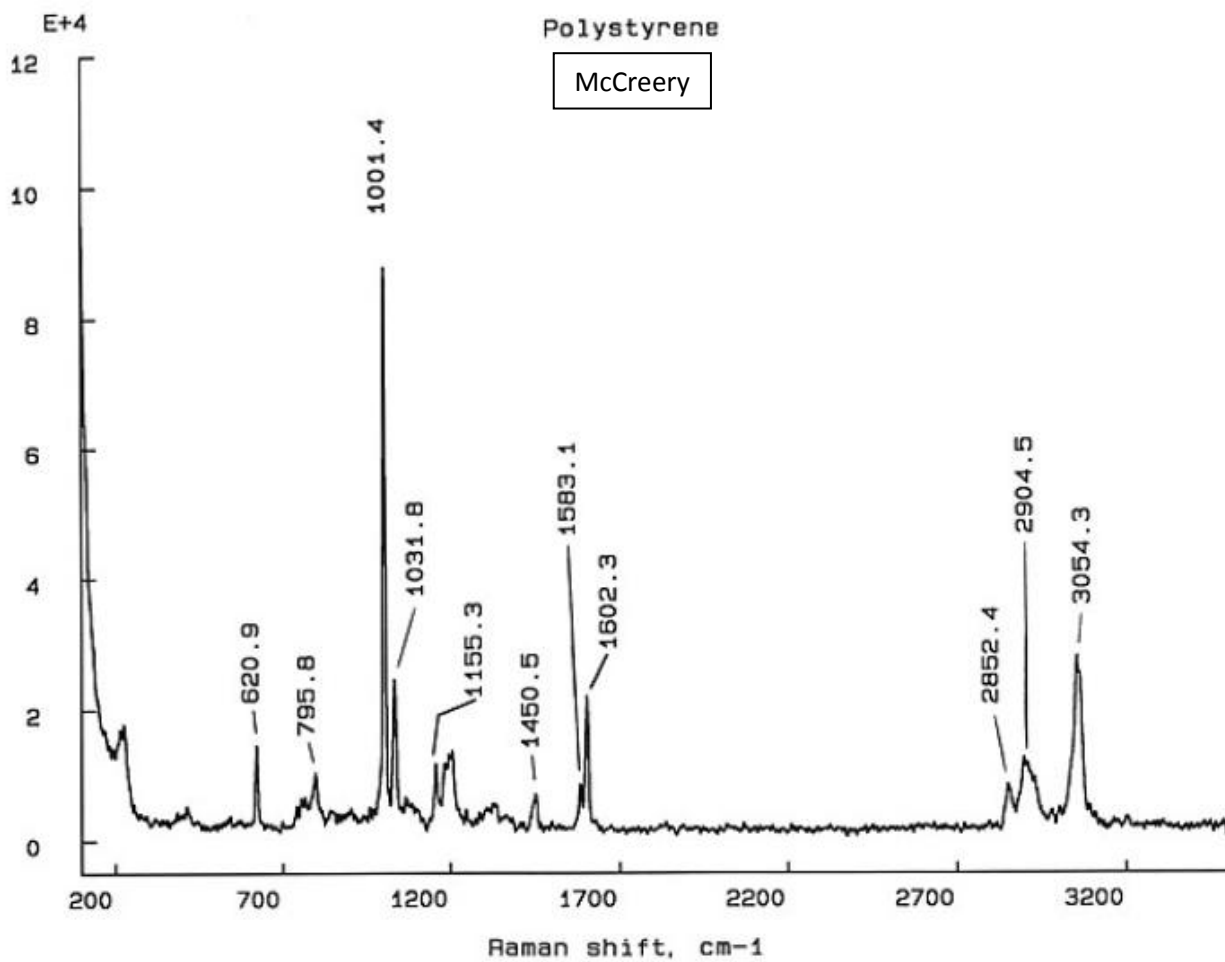
⁶ Spectra labeled "FNB" were obtained from Ferraro, J., K. Nakamoto & C. Brown, Introduction to Raman Spectroscopy, 2nd edition, Elsevier Science, 2003. All spectra were generated with a 488nm laser excitation wavelength.



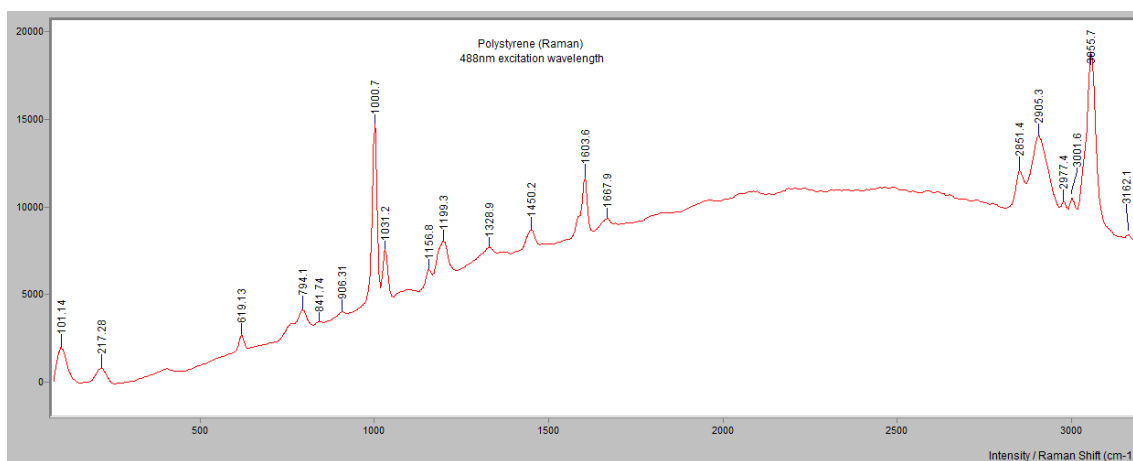
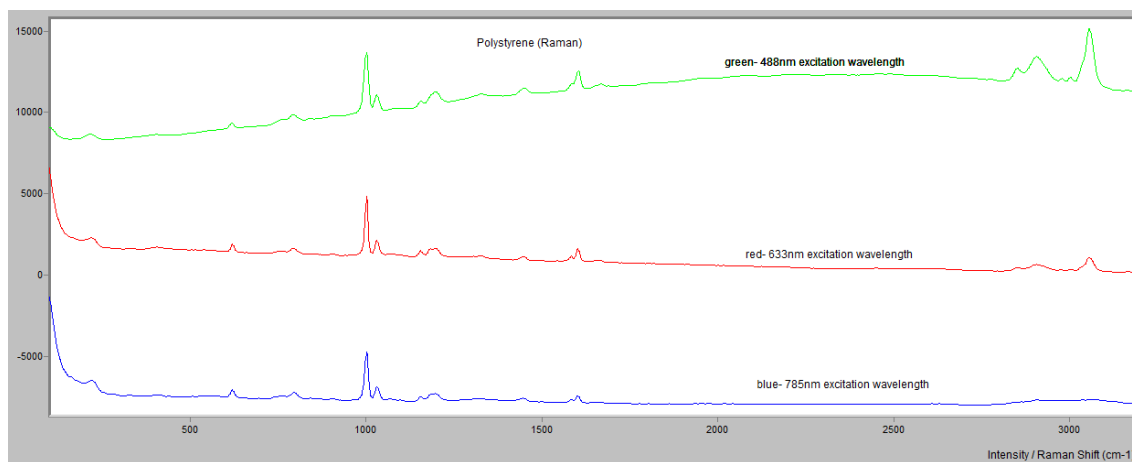
Cyclohexane

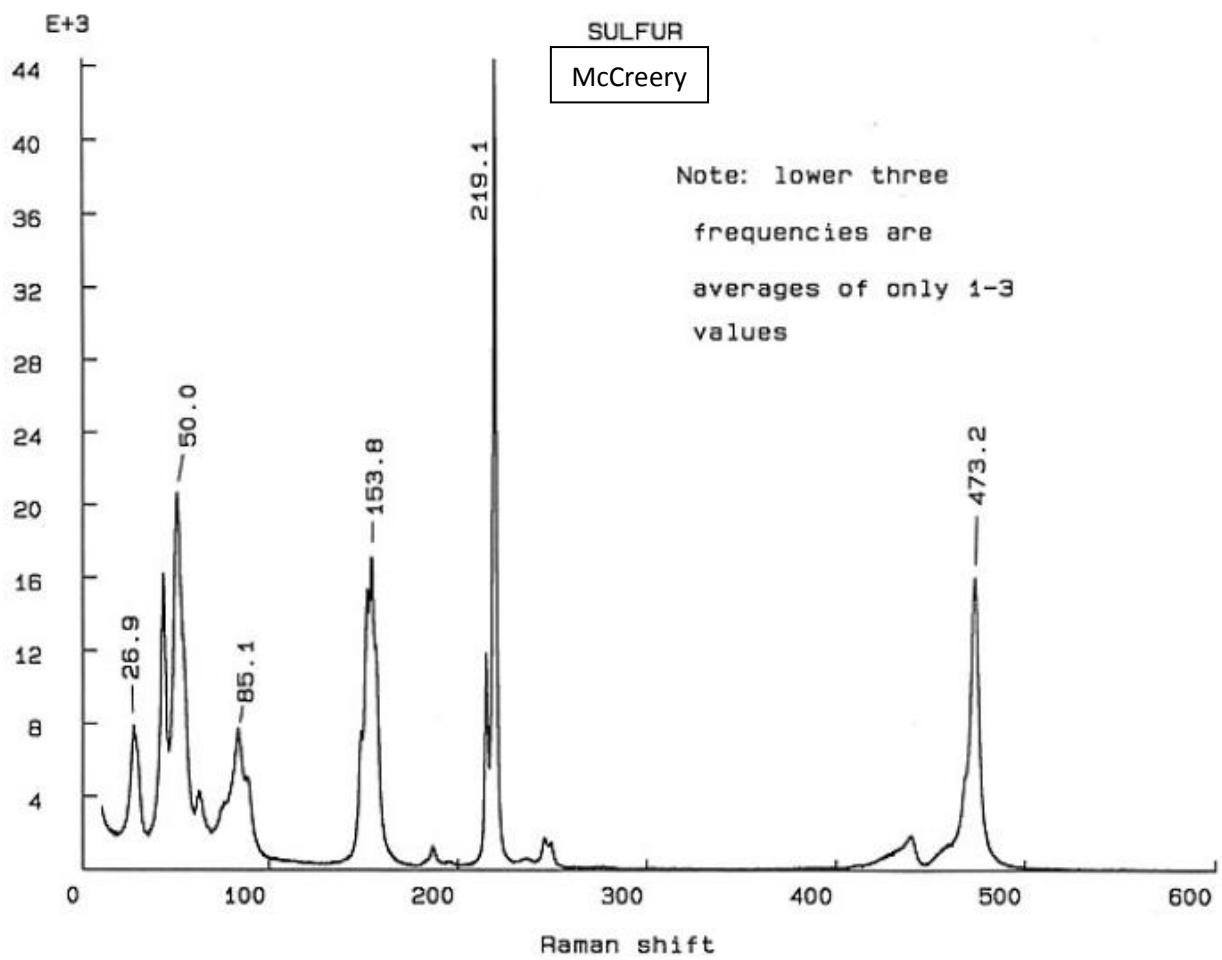


Polystyrene

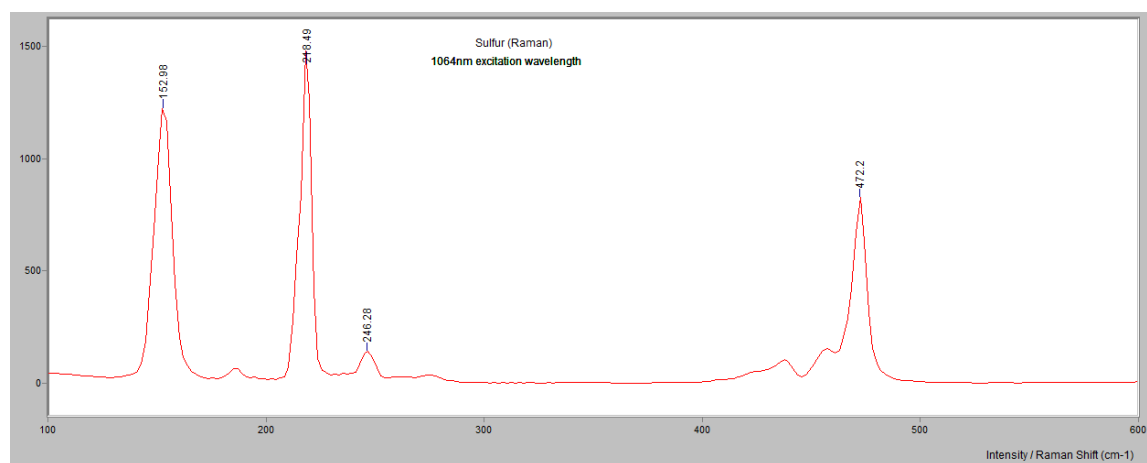
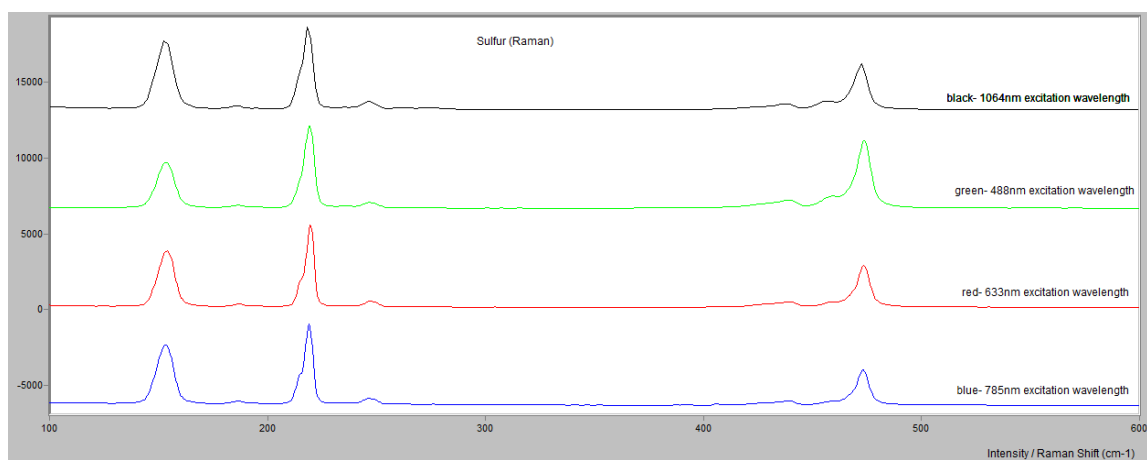


Polystyrene

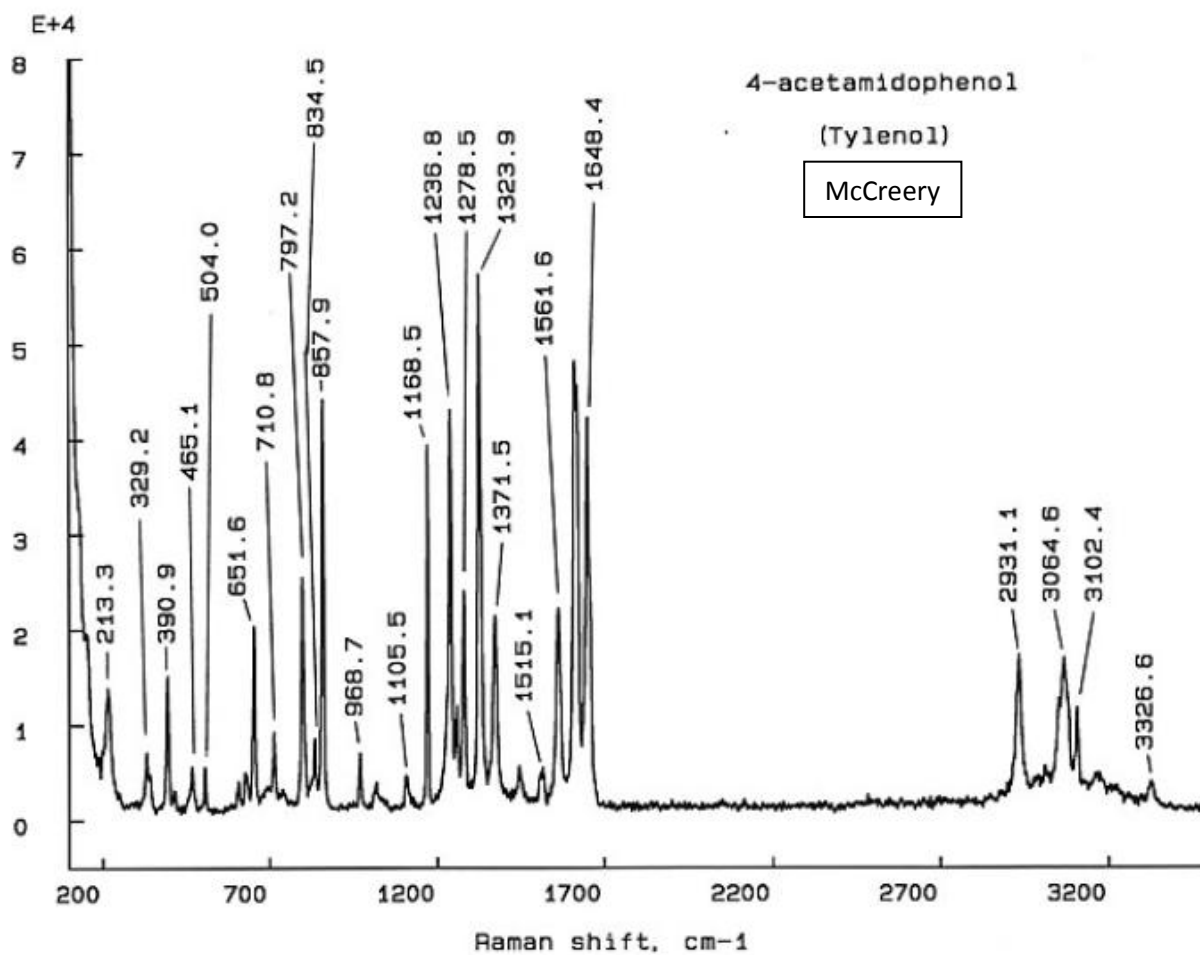


Sulfur

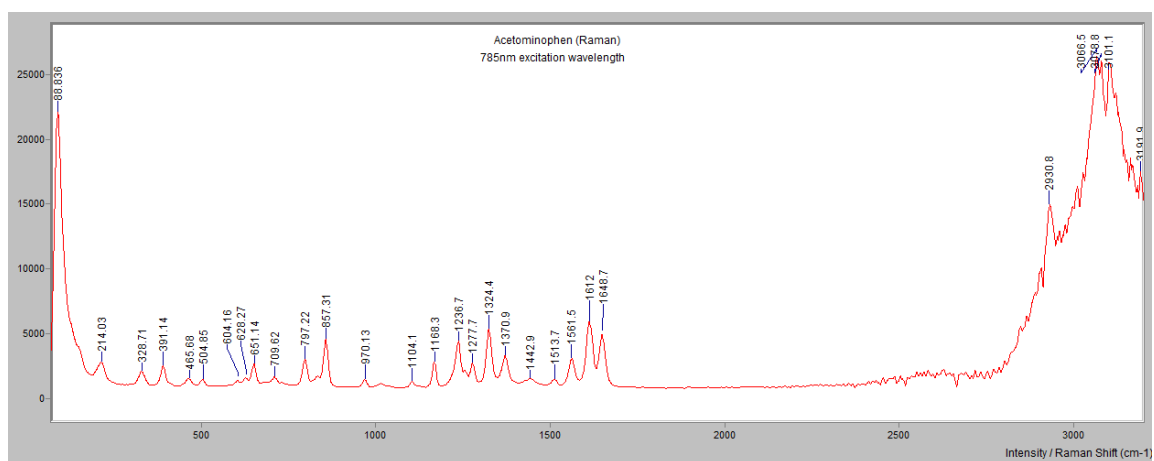
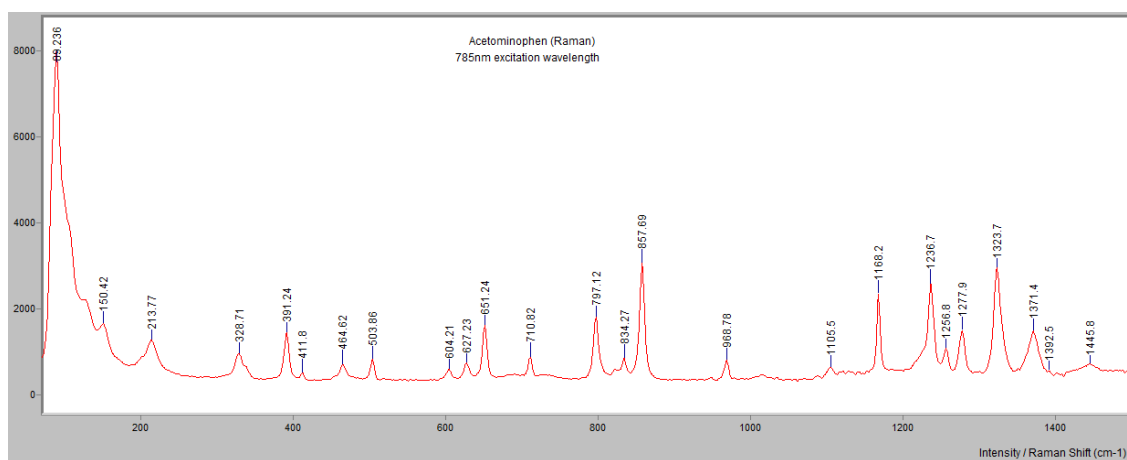
Sulfur



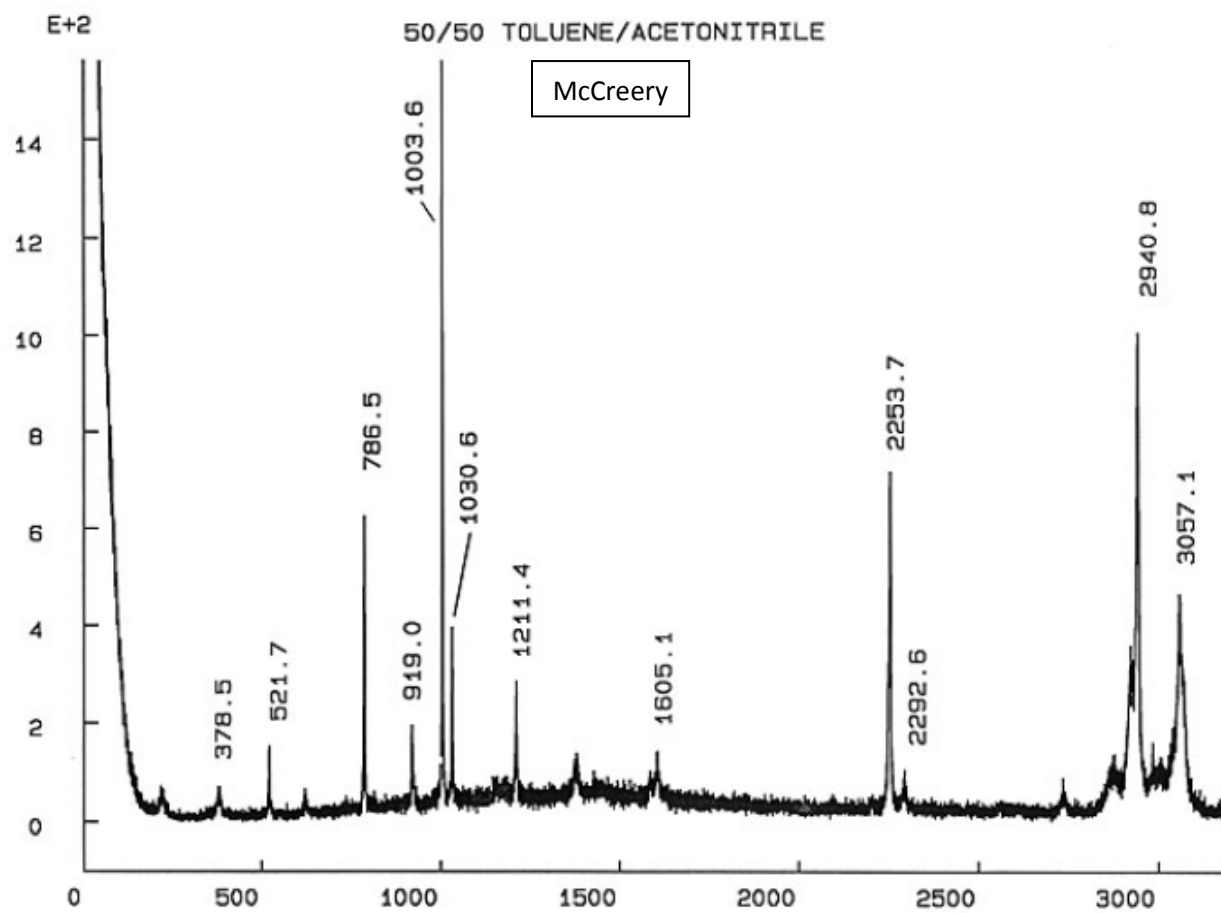
4-acetamidophenol (Tylenol)



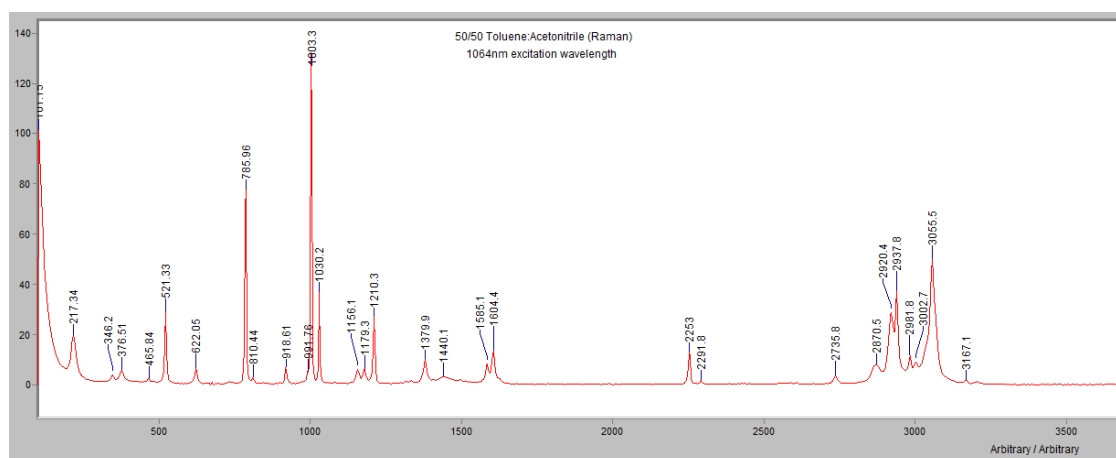
Acetaminophen



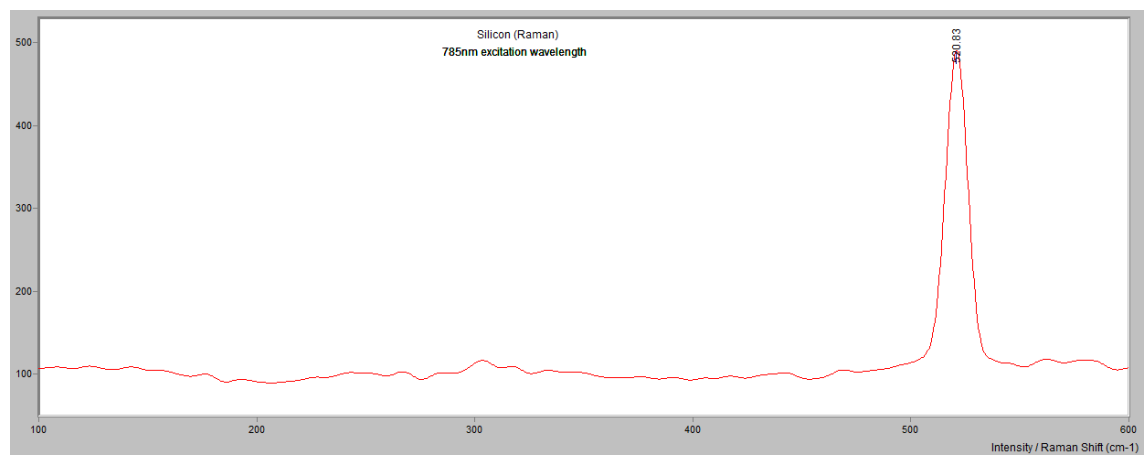
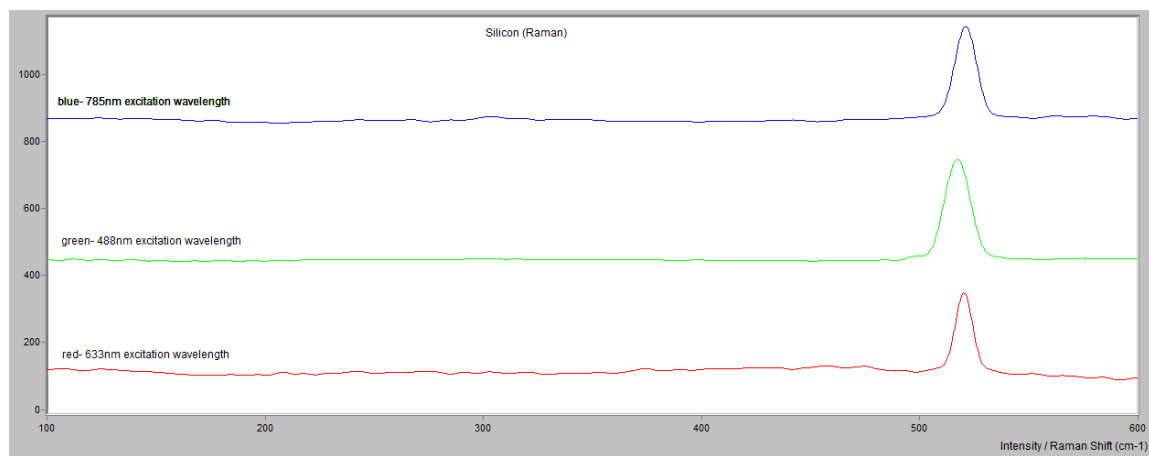
50/50 Toluene: Acetonitrile



50/50 Toluene: Acetonitrile

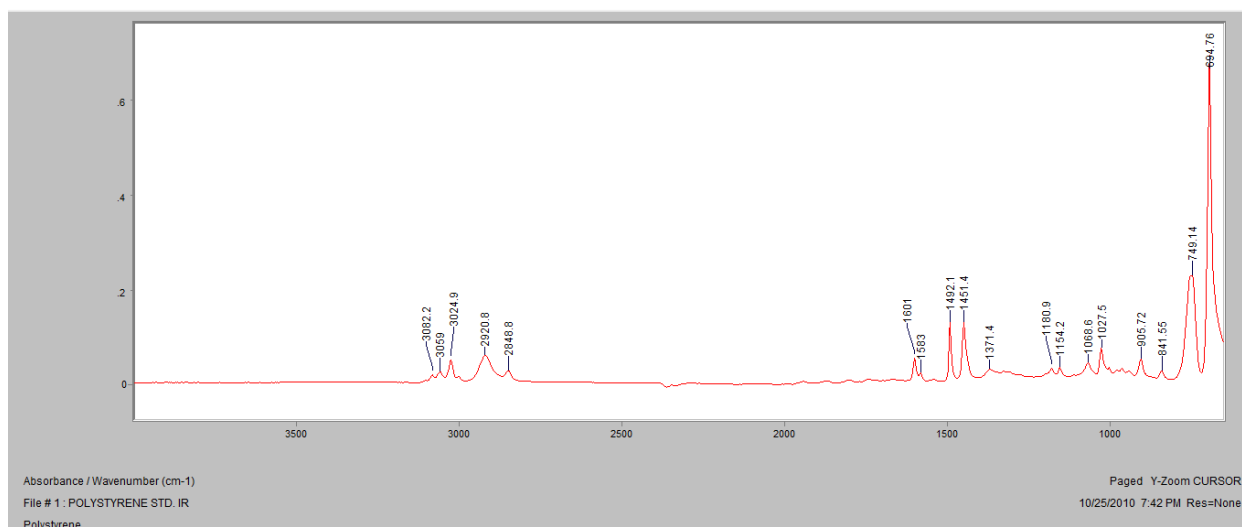


Silicon



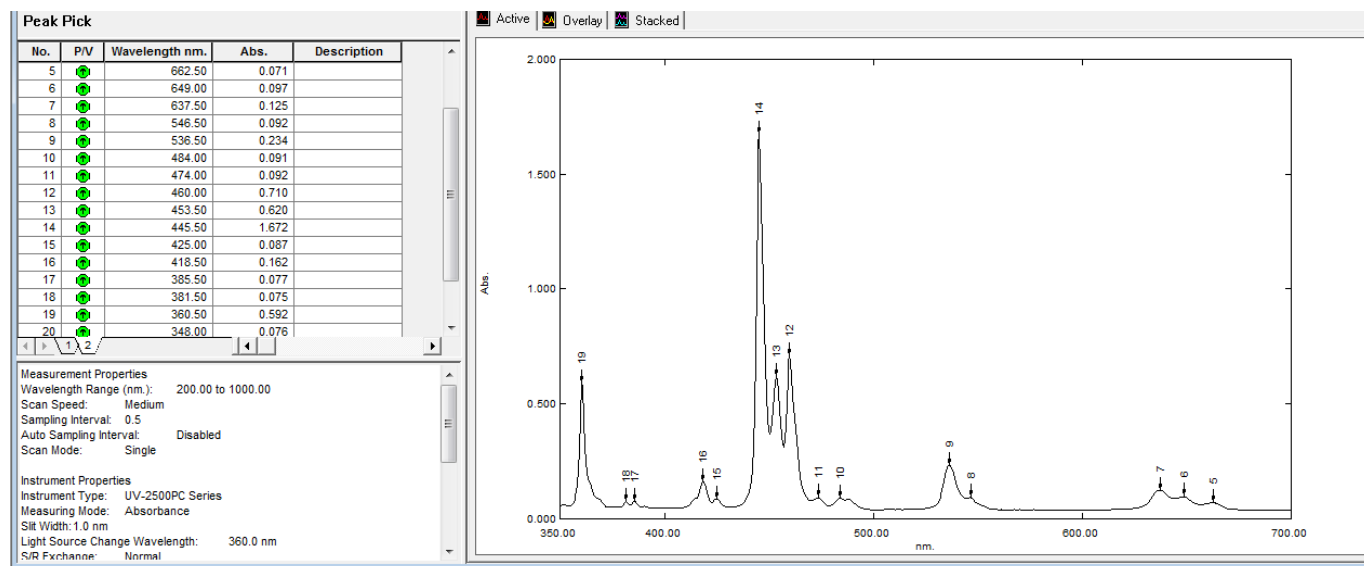
Infrared Reference Spectra

Polystyrene- ATR

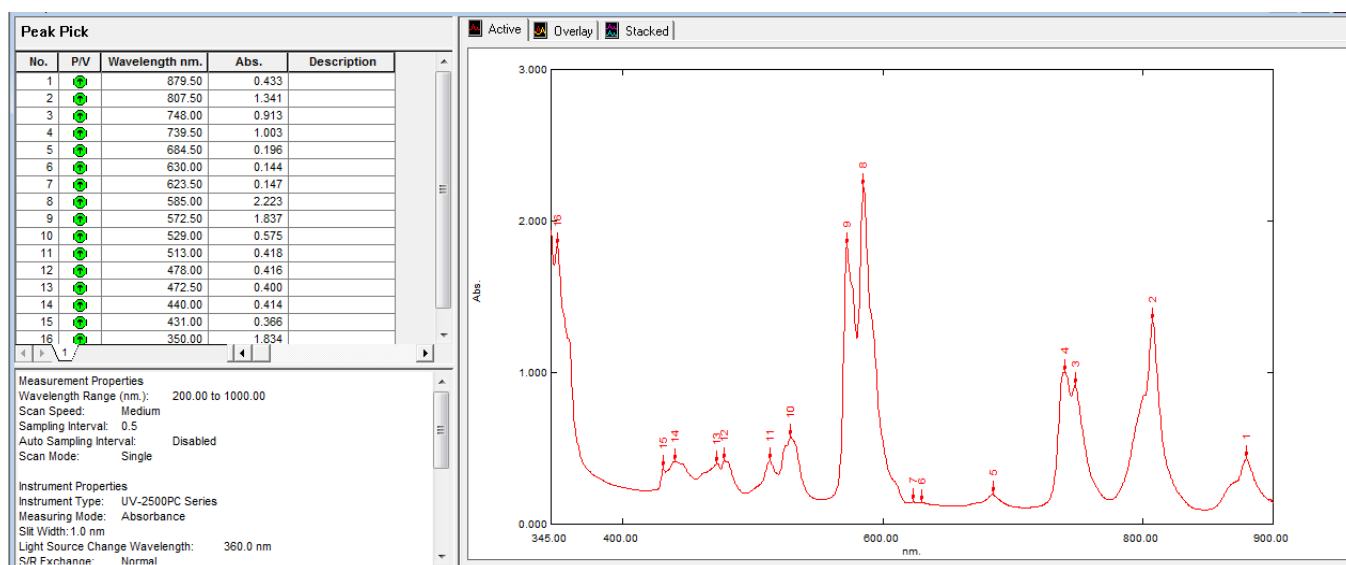


UV-Vis Reference Spectra

Holmium Oxide



Didimyum



Appendix I: Raman Reference Spectra- Pigment Standards

The following tables and spectra from the literature report the pigments and their corresponding Raman shifts. For a more comprehensive file of Raman reference spectra for pigments in addition to experimental conditions, the reader is referred to the publications of Colombini 2010, Scherrer 2009, Schulte 2008, Ropret 2008 and Vandenabeele 2000 (full citations of which can be found in the References section)⁷.

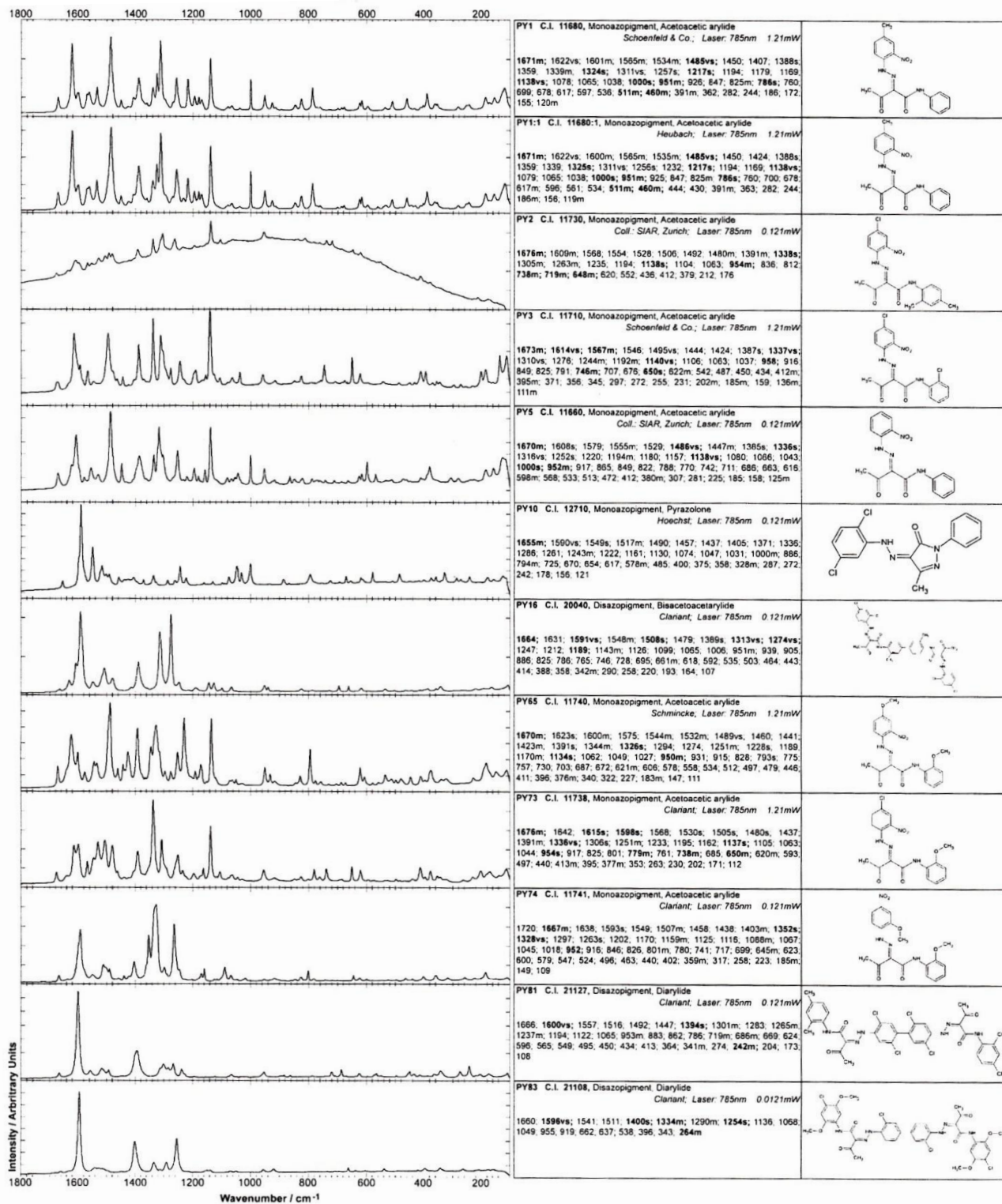
7

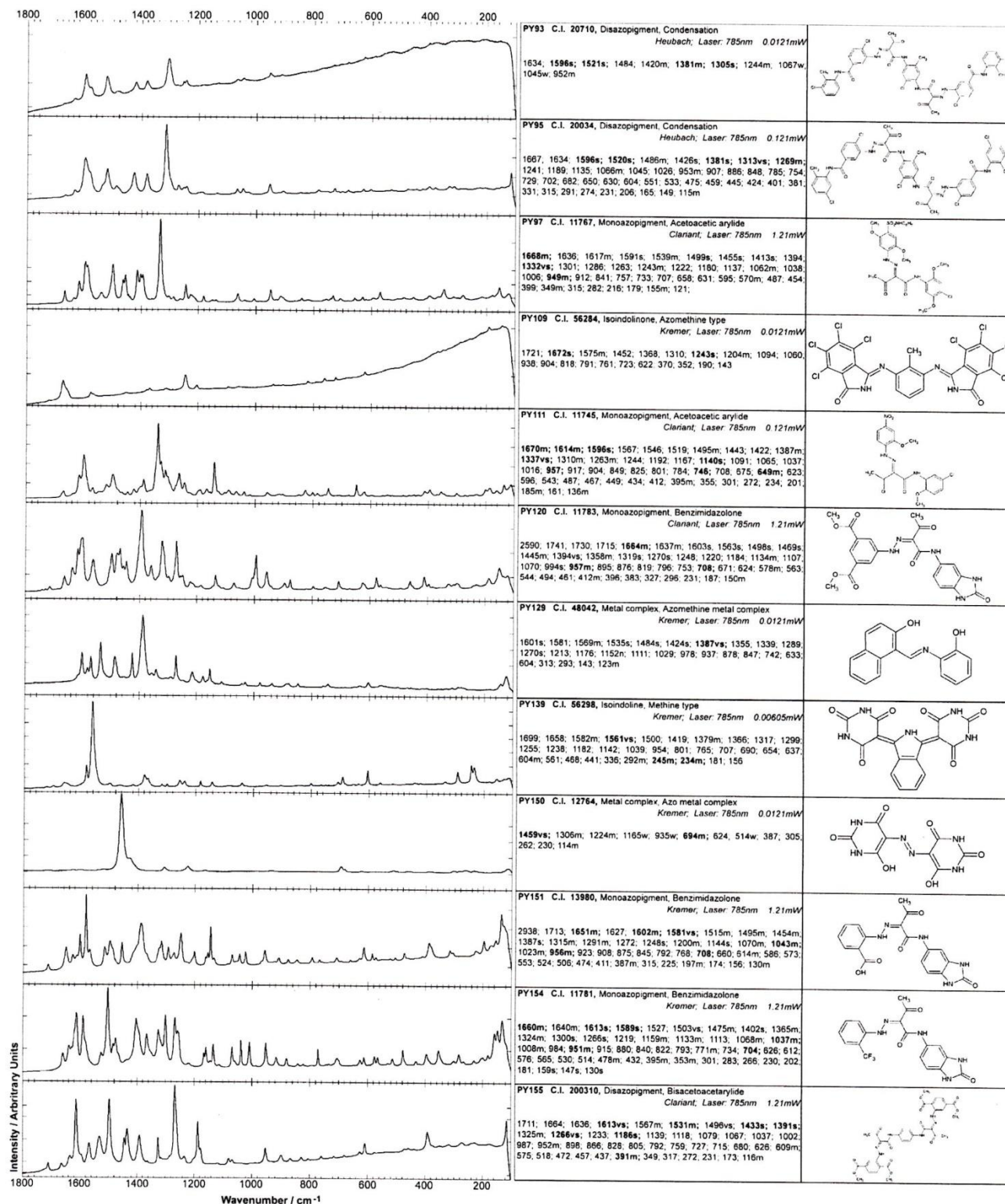
Relative intensities: vs = very strong; s = strong; m-s = medium to strong; m = medium; m-w = medium to weak; w = weak; vw = very weak; sh = shoulder.

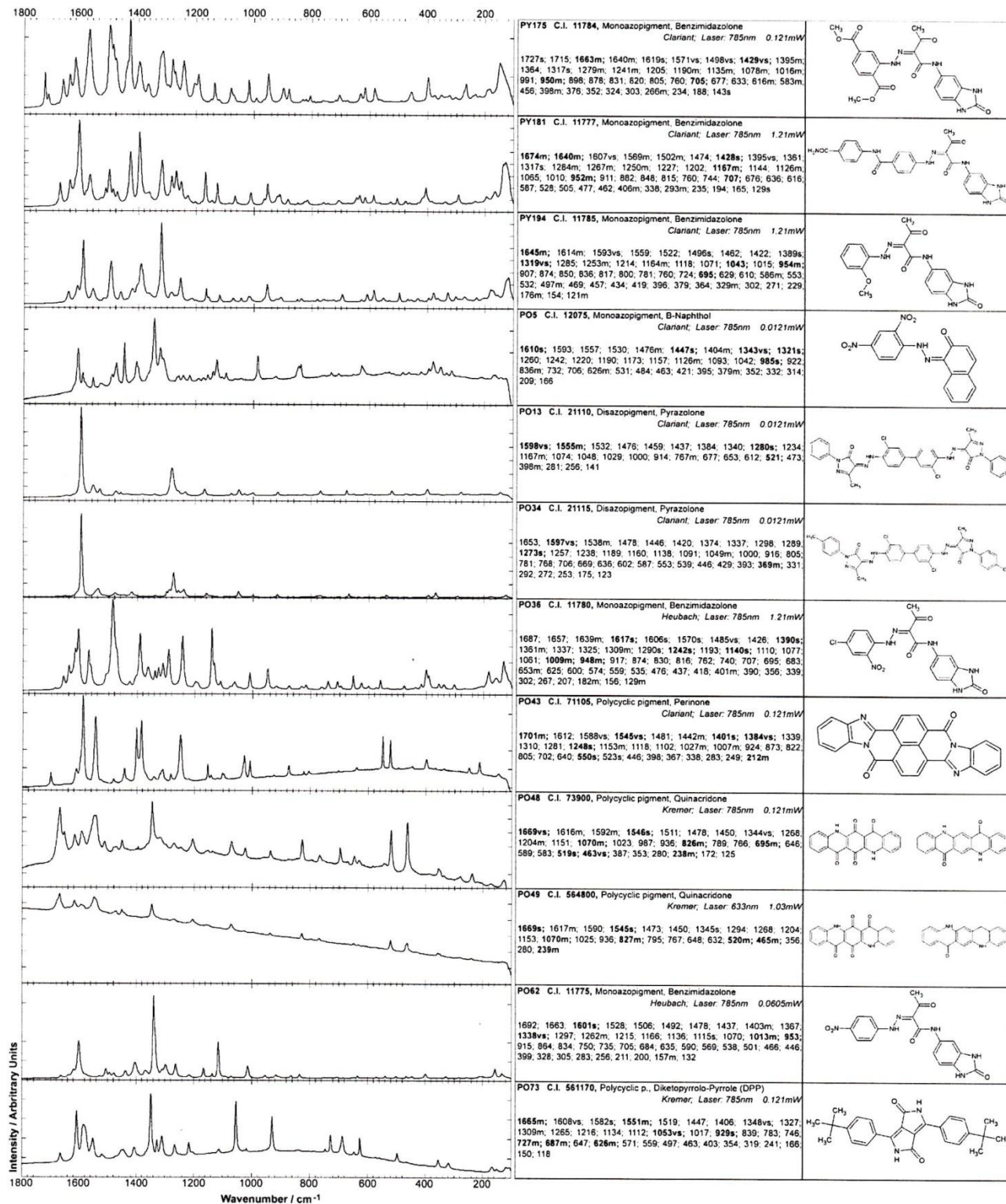
Spectra Reported By Colombini, 2010 ($\lambda_0=785\text{nm}$):

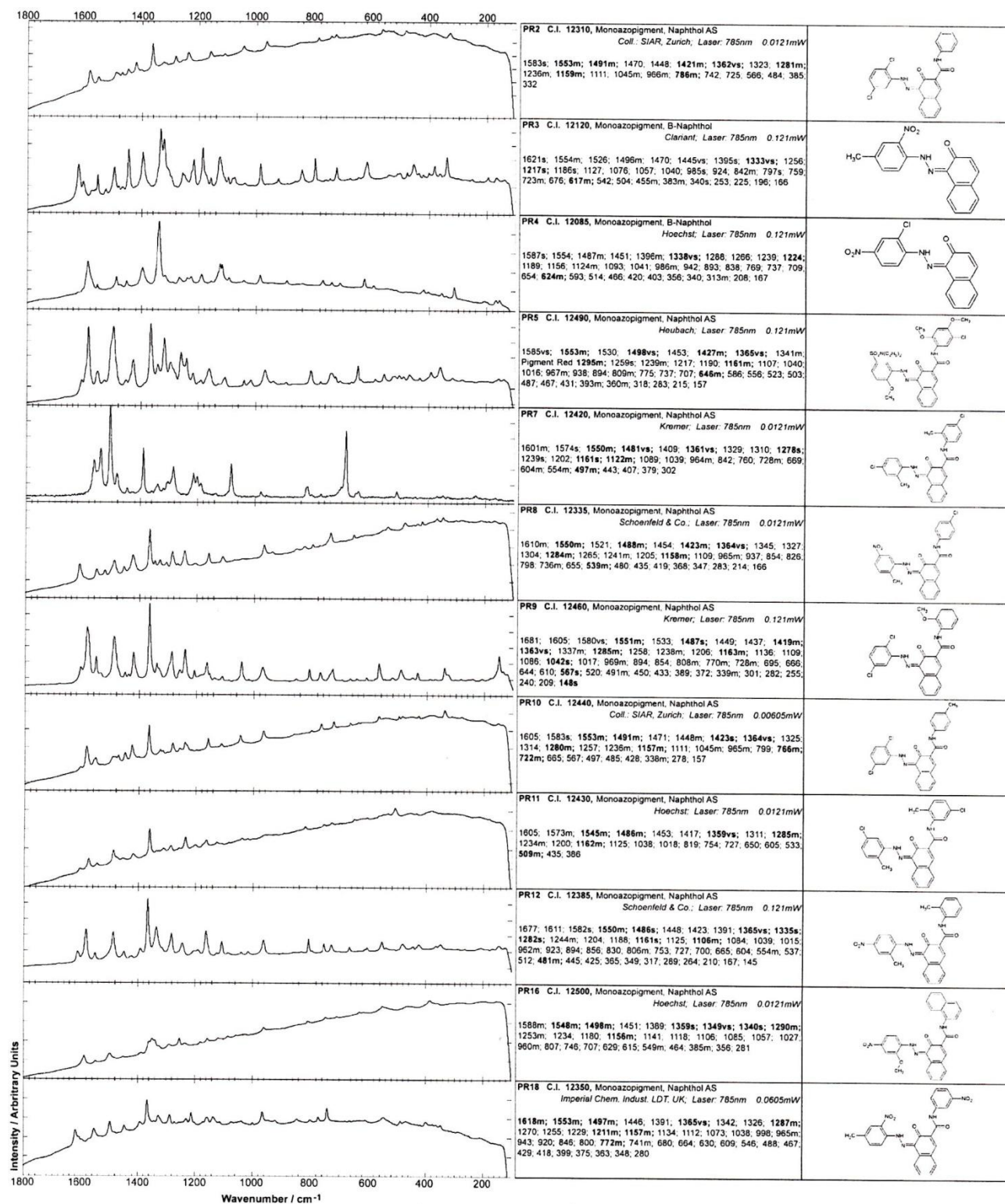
Colour Index	Raman bands (wavenumber/cm ⁻¹)
PO34	1600(vs), 1540(m), 1480(m), 1425(m), 1341(w), 1300(m), 1291(m), 1275(s), 1258(m), 1239(m), 1161(m), 1052(m), 1002(w), 916(w), 769(w), 671(w), 542(w), 395(w), 369(w), 294(w) 1660(m), 1643(m), 1608(vs), 1570(s), 1487(vs), 1391(vs), 1362(m), 1339(m), 1326(m), 1311(m), 1292(s), 1245(vs), 1196(w), 1141(vs), 1113(w), 1063(w), 1011(m), 950(m), 919(w), 876(w), 833(w), 818(w), 740(m), 708(w), 655(m), 626(m), 602(w), 561(m), 479(w), 420(w), 401(m), 358(w), 340(w), 305(w)
PO36	1703(m), 1615(m), 1591(vs), 1547(vs), 1484(w), 1445(m), 1403(vs), 1385(vs), 1344(w), 1315(m), 1283(w), 1250(vs), 1155(m), 1103(w), 1029(m), 1009(m), 875(m), 807(w), 641(w), 550(w), 523(w), 447(w), 399(m), 338(w), 250(w), 213(m)
PO43	1671(vs), 1655(ms), 1616(ms), 1591(ms), 1549(s), 1510(w), 1475(w), 1456(m), 1347(vs), 1318(mw), 1270(w), 1203(m), 1150(w), 1075(w), 1020(w), 937(w), 828(ms), 696(m), 645(w), 523(s), 462(vs), 353(w), 283(w), 241(w)
PO48 & PO49	1676(m), 1602(s), 1535(m), 1423(w), 1359(s), 1336(vs), 1291(w), 1262(s), 1166(w), 1137(w), 1028(w), 836(w), 782(m), 756(w), 717(w), 544(w), 500(w), 448(w), 371(w), 342(w), 310(w), 256(w)
PO59	1673(w), 1592(s), 1493(w), 1445(s), 1403(s), 1307(w), 1237(vs), 1185(m), 1147(s), 1105(s), 1076(w), 939(w), 842(w), 727(m), 682(m), 564(w), 400(w), 291(m), 243(w), 230(w)
PO61	1620(w), 1605(w), 1595(m), 1580(m), 1533(m), 1486(m), 1428(s), 1415(s), 1394(vs), 1370(m), 1346(m), 1285(w), 1262(w), 1236(s), 1193(w), 1164(w), 1114(w), 1050(w), 989(w), 875(w), 773(w), 749(w), 646(w), 585(w), 330(w), 296(w)
PO65	1668(m), 1612(s), 1586(s), 1554(ms), 1523(w), 1448(m), 1408(m), 1352(vs), 1330(m), 1314(ms), 1268(m), 1220(m), 1207(w), 1115(w), 1057(s), 1020(w), 931(s), 749(w), 730(ms), 690(ms), 650(w), 627(ms), 500(m), 358(m), 323(m)
PO73	1672(m), 1622(vs), 1602(s), 1563(s), 1536(s), 1487(vs), 1451(m), 1389(s), 1339(s), 1325(s), 1312(vs), 1257(s), 1218(s), 1195(w), 1179(w), 1170(w), 1139(vs), 1000(s), 952(ms), 925(m), 847(m), 826(m), 786(s), 616(m), 511(w), 460(m), 391(m)
PY1	1674(w), 1614(vs), 1596(vs), 1568(m), 1546(m), 1496(vs), 1445(m), 1388(vs), 1338(vs), 1311(vs), 1276(ms), 1246(s), 1191(m), 1156(m), 1140(vs), 1106(w), 1063(w), 1037(m), 988(vs), 957(m), 825(w), 746(m), 650(ms), 620(m), 461(ms), 452(ms), 410(m), 394(m)
PY3	1673(w), 1633(m), 1592(vs), 1549(ms), 1508(s), 1478(m), 1389(s), 1316(vs), 1276(vs), 1246(m), 1187(w), 1143(m), 1127(m), 1100(w), 1067(ms), 952(m), 940(m), 827(w), 695(m), 661(m), 621(m)
PY16	1663(ms), 1621(m), 1598(s), 1419(m), 1385(vs), 1354(w), 1261(m), 1185(s), 1159(m), 1010(w), 528(m), 456(m), 275(w)
PY24	1673(w), 1596(s), 1516(m), 1403(ms), 1355(s), 1330(vs), 1301(w), 1266(s), 1163(w), 1092(m), 1067(w), 804(m), 647(w), 400(w), 362(w)
PY74	1671(w), 1622(s), 1599(m), 1560(w), 1535(w), 1486(s), 1450(w), 1390(m), 1339(w), 1310(m), 1256(m), 1217(m), 1196(w), 1180(w), 1140(s), 1000(s), 988(s), 952(ms), 926(m), 826(m), 787(s), 616(m), 595(w), 512(m), 461(m), 391(m)
PY83	1671(vs), 1575(m), 1454(w), 1369(m), 1311(m), 1244(s), 1205(m), 1095(w), 1061(w), 820(w), 762(m), 724(m), 623(m), 370(w), 352(w)
PY109	1601(m), 1569(m), 1535(m), 1484(m), 1424(m), 1387(s), 1339(w), 1270(m), 1213(m), 1177(w), 1154(m), 1111(w), 1030(w), 978(w), 939(w), 880(w), 848(w), 604(w), 444(w)
PY129	1787(w), 1672(w), 1486(m), 1462(w), 1418(s), 1371(s), 1353(m), 1282(m), 1188(w), 966(m), 770(w), 655(w), 620(w), 585(w), 525(w), 352(w), 327(w)
PY138	1665(w), 1588(m), 1564(vs), 1381(m), 1259(w), 1246(w), 1185(w), 1141(w), 695(m), 605(m), 294(m), 246-237(ms)
PY139	1715(w), 1653(m), 1628(w), 1603(m), 1582(s), 1516(m), 1497(m), 1455(m), 1388(s), 1320(m), 1292(m), 1273(w), 1249(m), 1202(m), 1145(s), 1070(m), 1044(m), 1023(m), 957(m), 908(w), 876(w), 846(w), 794(w), 703(w), 615(m), 586(w), 475(w), 385(m), 311(w), 225(w), 198(m)
PY151	1660(w), 1615(s), 1589(s), 1503(vs), 1474(m), 1403(s), 1365(ms), 1323(ms), 1298(s), 1266(s), 1160(m), 1134(m), 1070(m), 1038(m), 1006(m), 955(m), 916(w), 878(w), 772(m), 705(w), 612(w), 567(w), 516(w), 480(m), 400(w), 355(m), 285(w)
PY154	1634(m), 1570(m), 1551(m), 1493(m), 1458(m), 1423(w), 1391(vs), 1298(m), 1243(m), 1080(w), 958(w), 903(w), 725(w), 580(m), 375(m)
PY173	1590(s), 1550(s), 1511(w), 1428(w), 1363(s), 1233(m), 1204(m), 1158(s), 1094(w), 1049(w), 982(m), 797(w), 773(m), 691(w), 637(m), 269(w)
Fluorescent orange, Sennelier	1602(ms), 1551(m), 1509(m), 1429(m), 1381(m), 1368(m), 1310(w), 1234(w), 1205(w), 1153(vs), 1096(m), 1048(w), 977(ms), 798(s), 775(w), 692(m), 660(w), 637(s), 615(w), 544(w), 291(s)
Fluorescent orange, Kremer	1711(m), 1596(s), 1573(ms), 1455(m), 1378(s), 1298(vs), 1064(m), 548(m), 451(w), 391(w)
Fluorescent Lumogen orange, Kremer	1697(w), 1599(m), 1587(m), 1383(m), 1366(m), 1156(s), 1094(w), 1049(m), 980(m), 797(m), 691(w), 636(m), 543(w), 291(w)
Fluorescent yellow, Sennelier	1695(w), 1602(s), 1548(ms), 1432(m), 1384(m), 1234(m), 1208(m), 1157(vs), 1099(m), 1051(m), 977(ms), 916(w), 801(s), 689(m), 637(ms), 544(m), 474(w), 410(w), 298(ms)
Fluorescent yellow, Kremer	
Fluorescent Lumogen yellow, Kremer	1586(vs), 1573(vs), 1525(w), 1464(w), 1355(s), 1314(s), 1301(s), 1227(m), 1125(w), 1083(m), 599(w), 519(m)

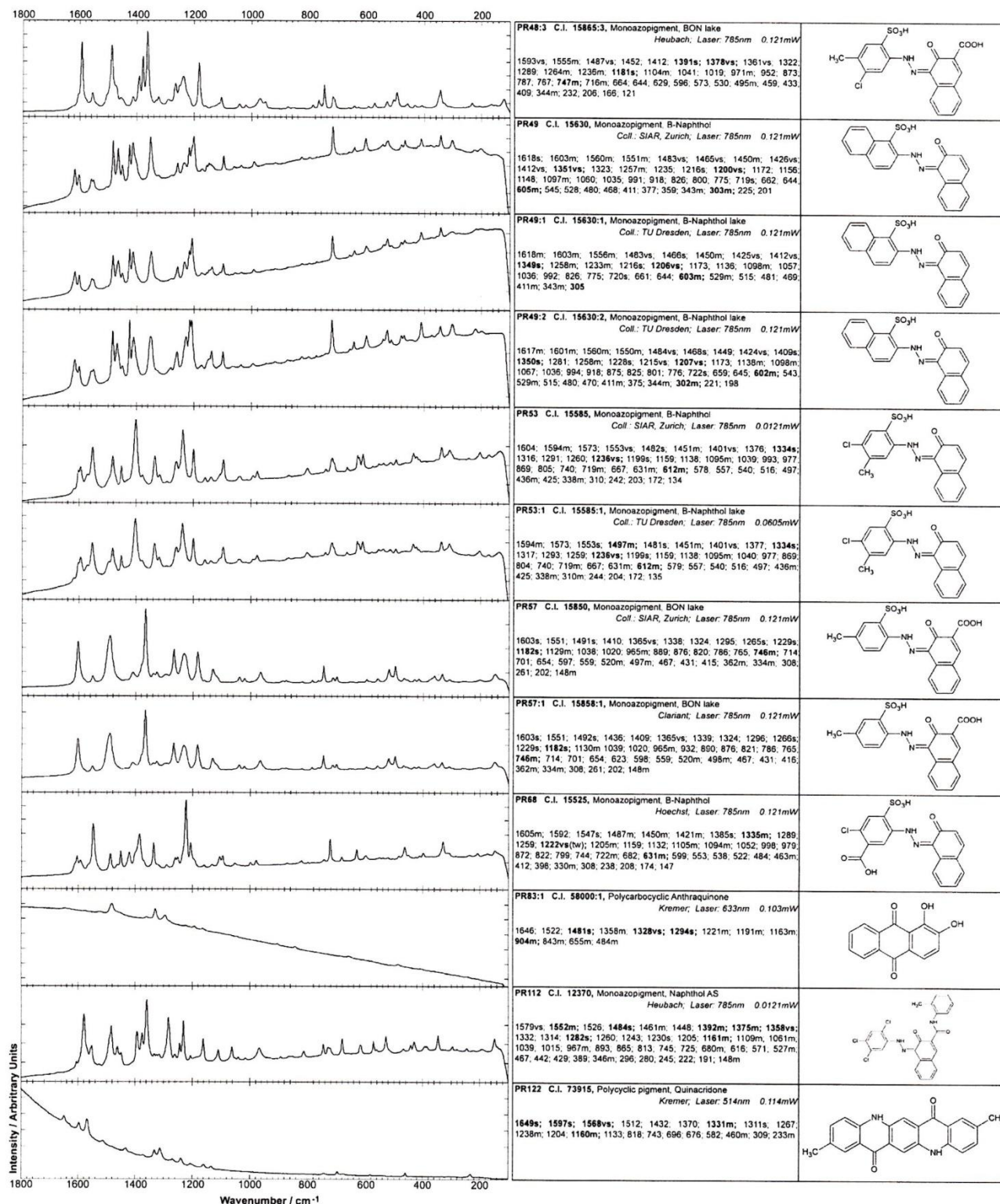
Spectra Reported By Scherrer, 2009:

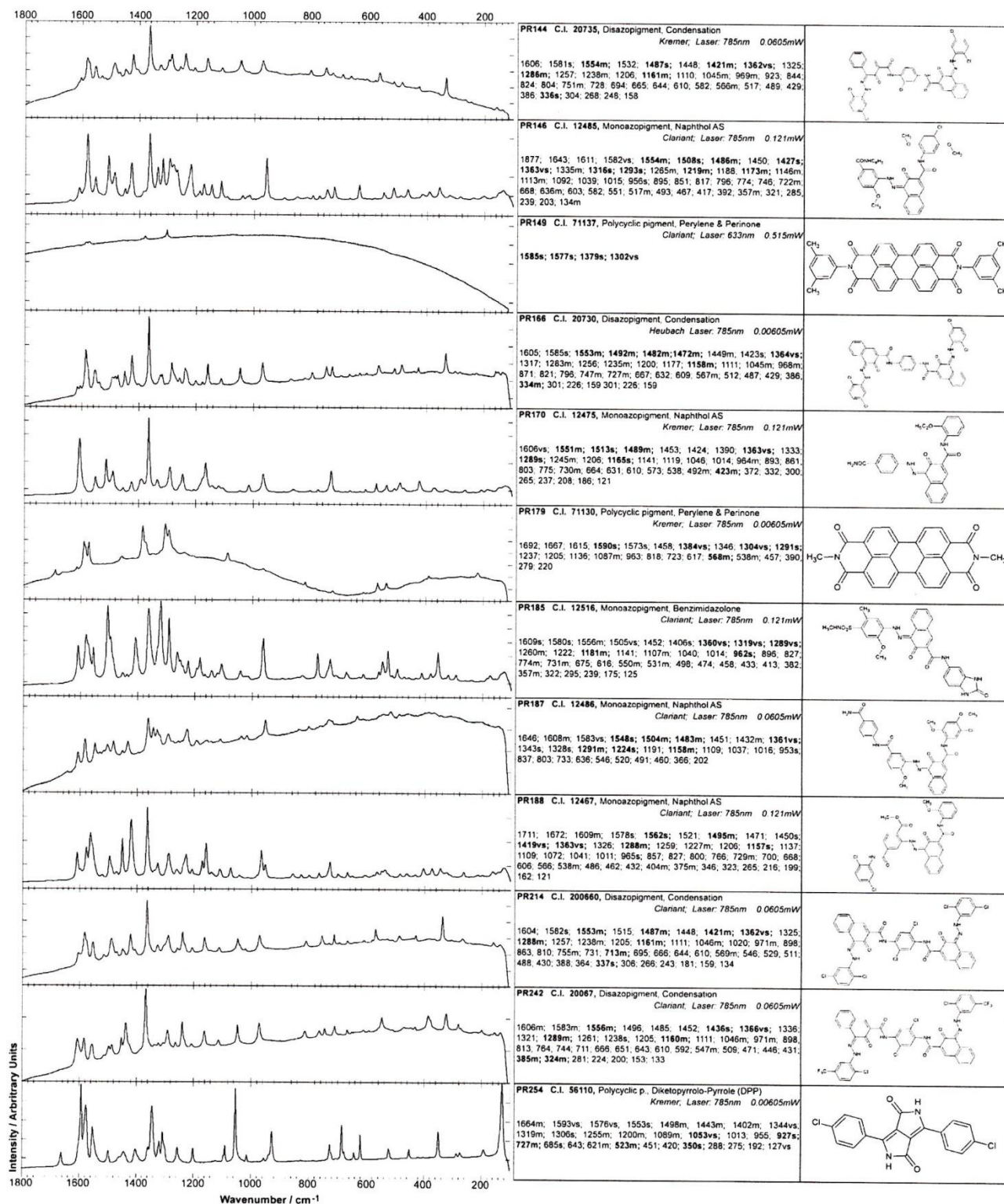


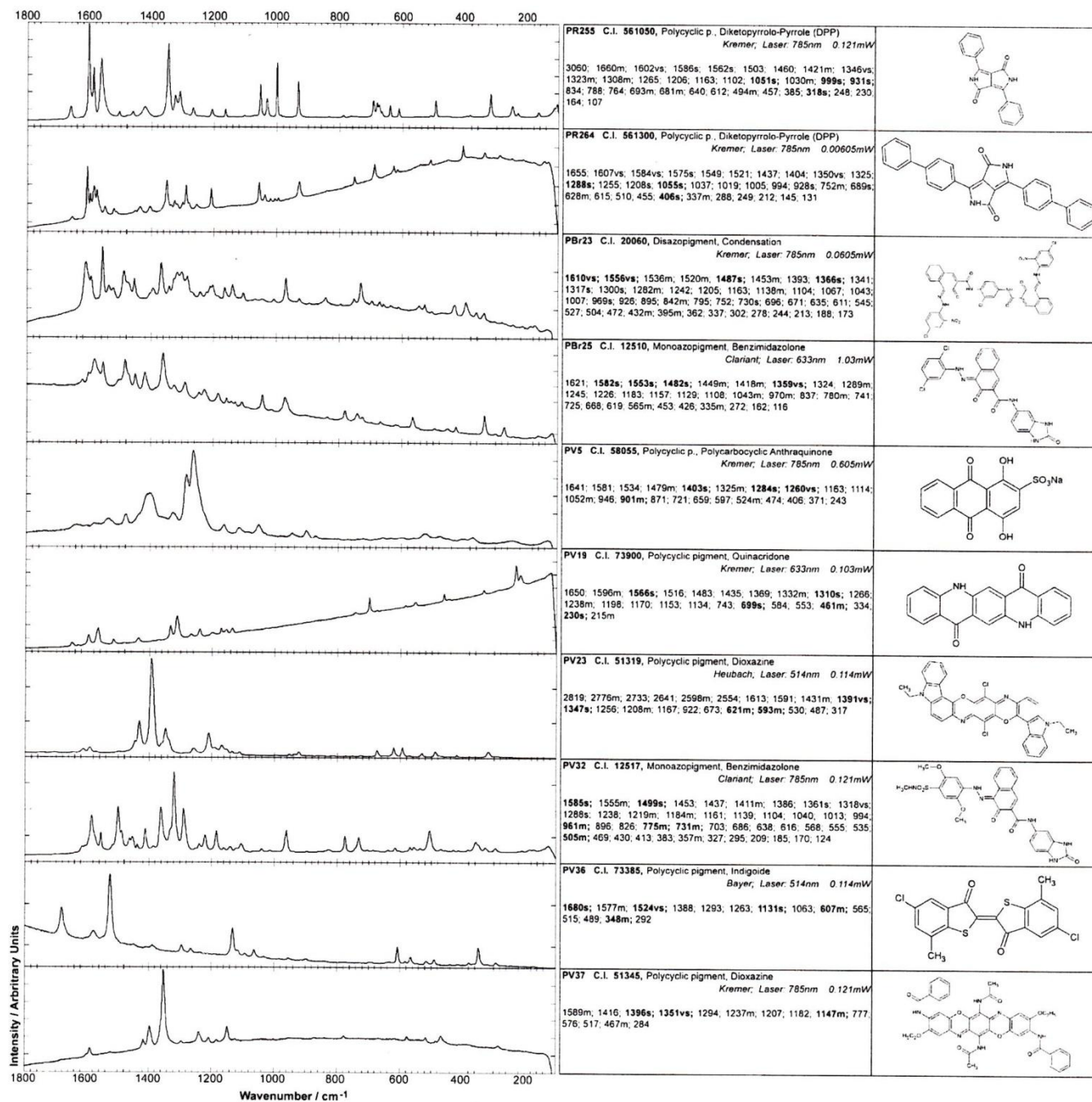


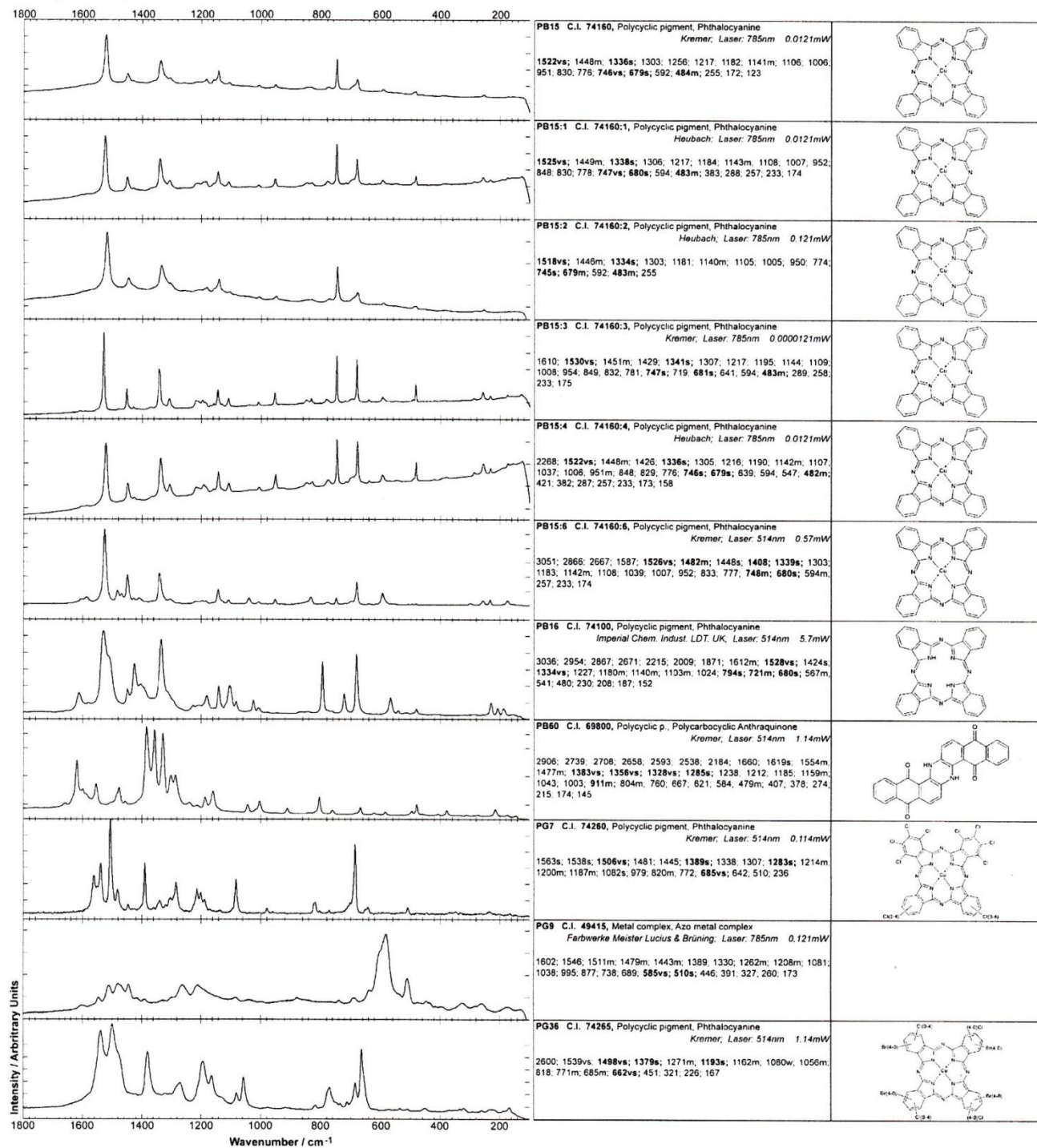








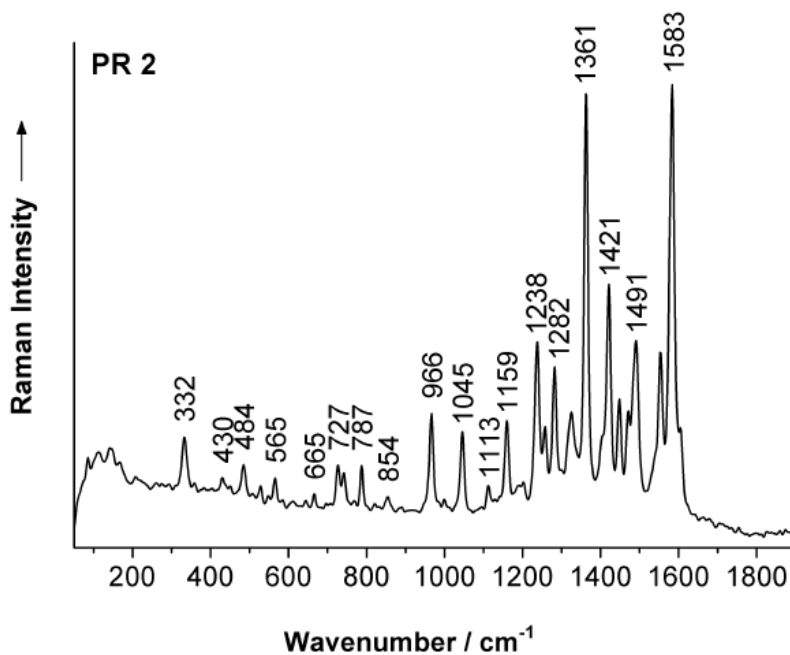


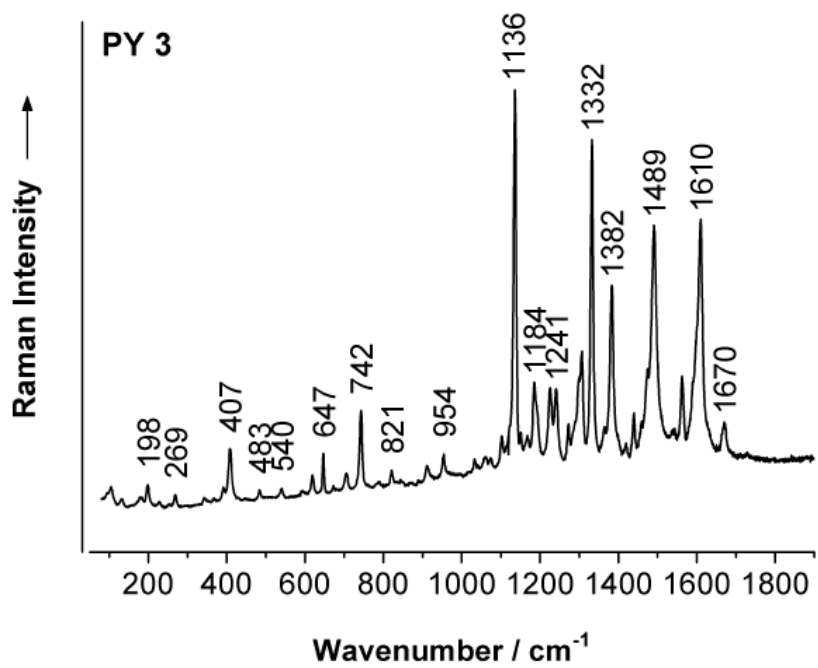
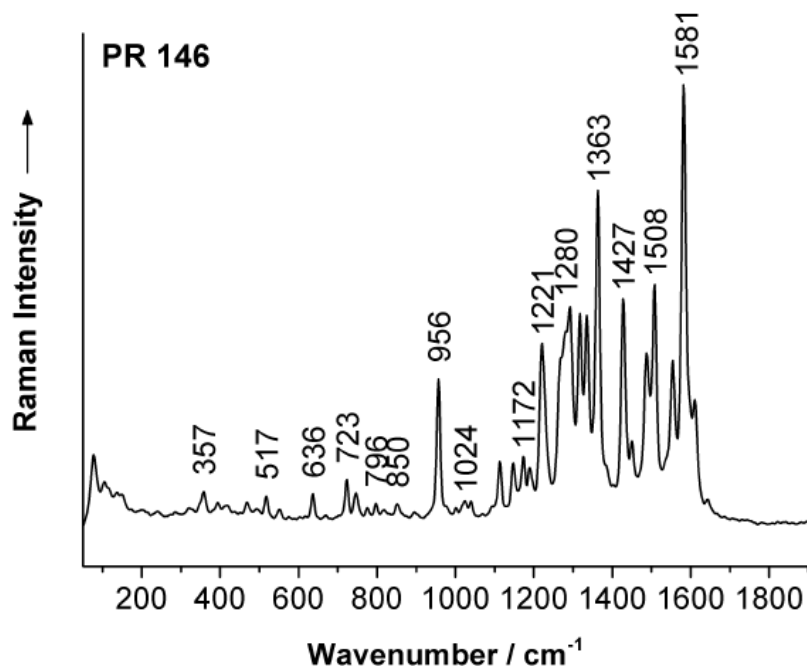


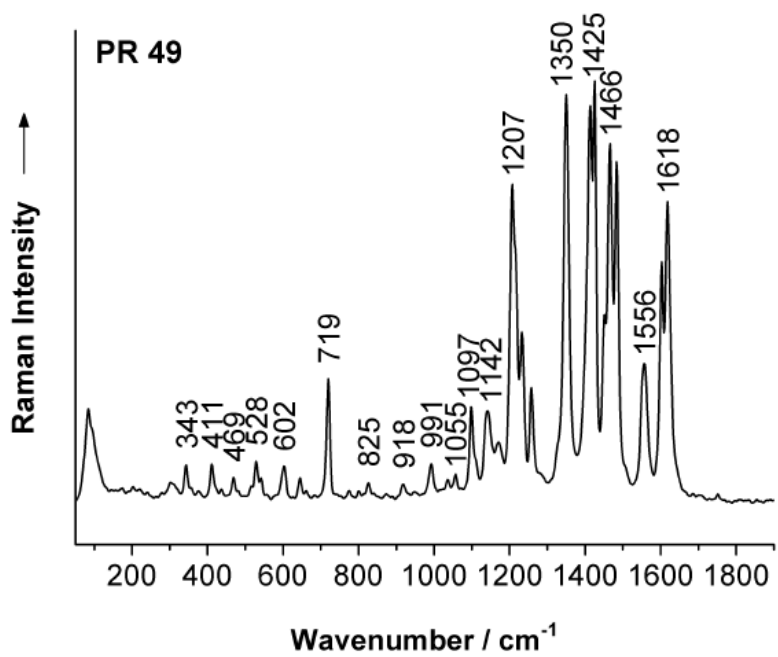
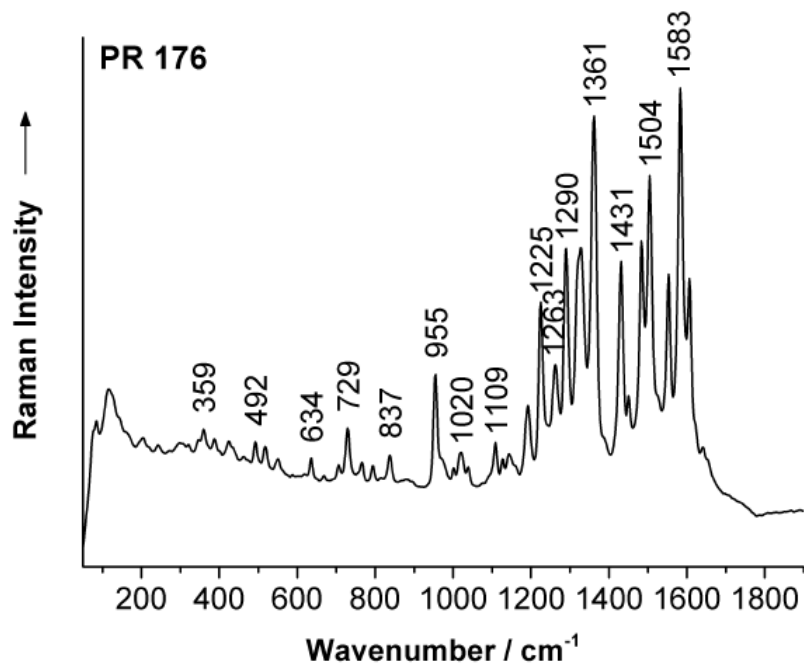
Spectra Reported By Schulte, 2008:

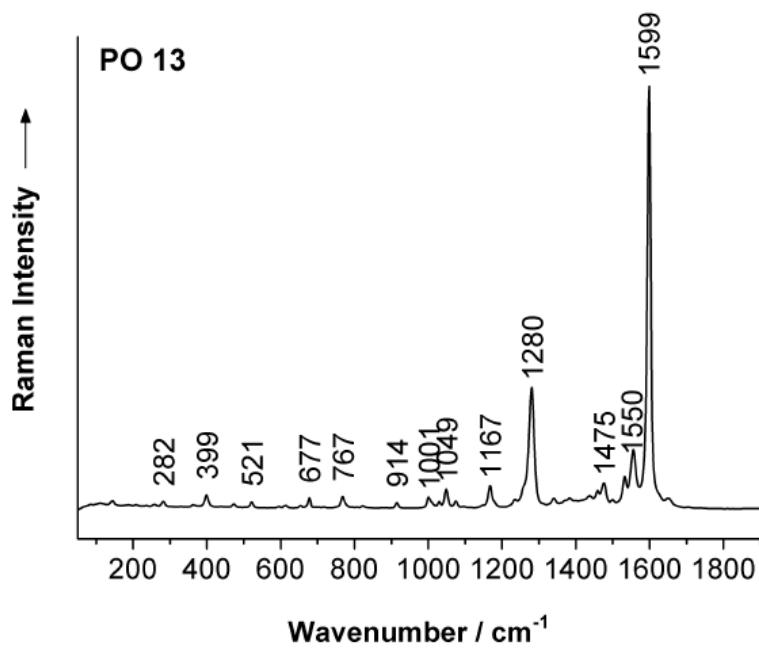
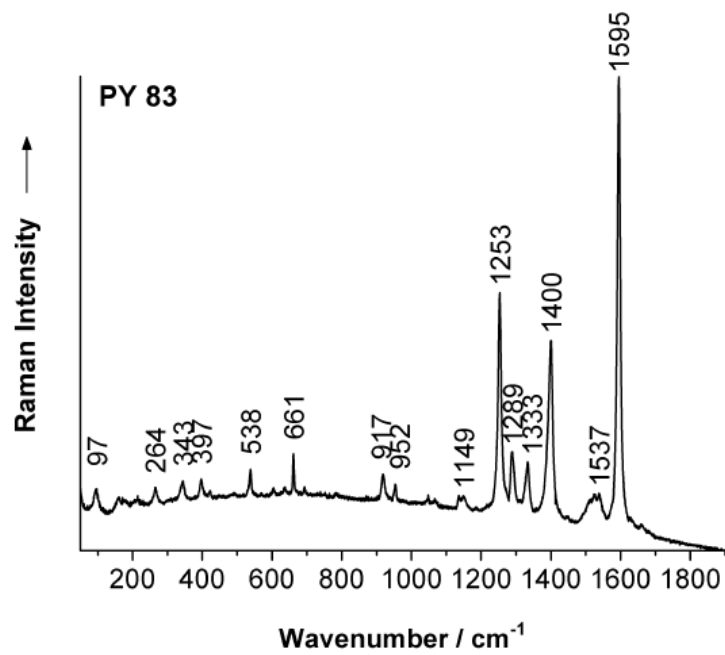
Excitation wavelengths reported as follows:

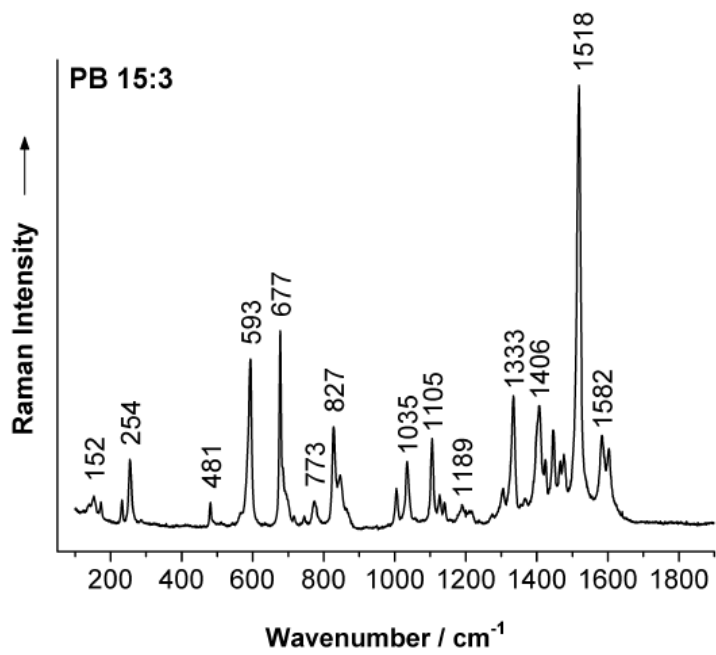
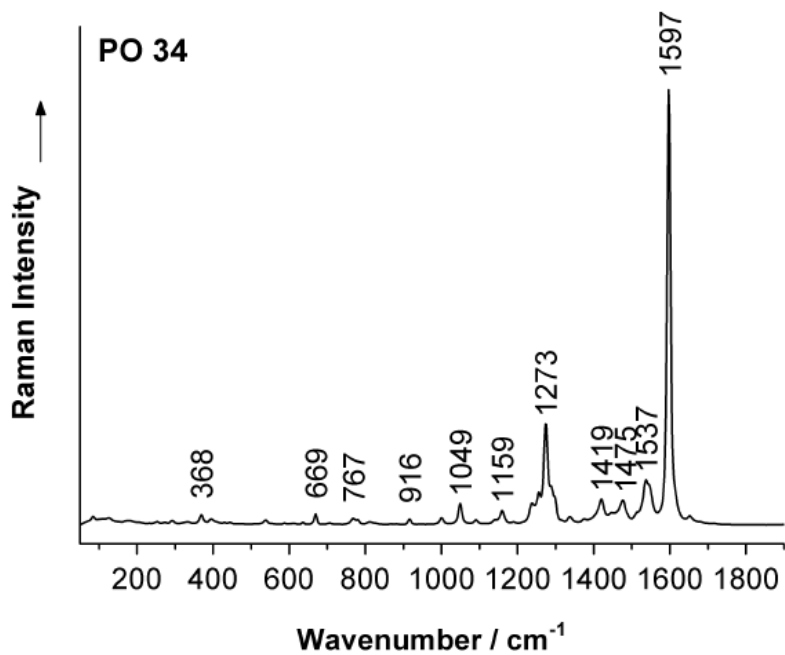
Excitation Wavelength (nm)	Pigment Analyzed
458	PR 179, PV 19
476	PR 122, PR 123
488	PR 83:1, PB 15:3, PG 7, PV 5:1
514.5	PY 3, PV 1, PV 2
632.8	PY 83
1064	PR 2, PR 49, PR88, PR 146, PR 176, PR 181, PO 13, PO 34, PO 43, PY 109, PY 110

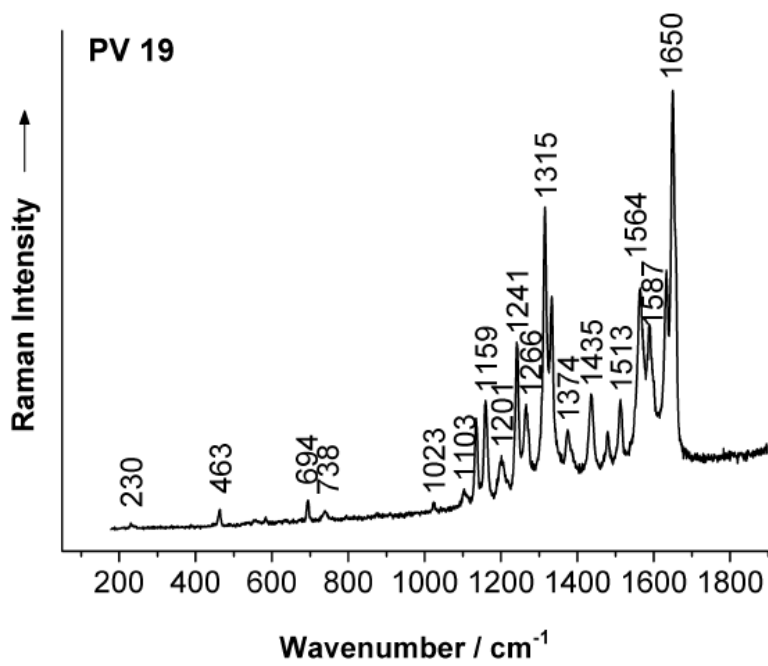
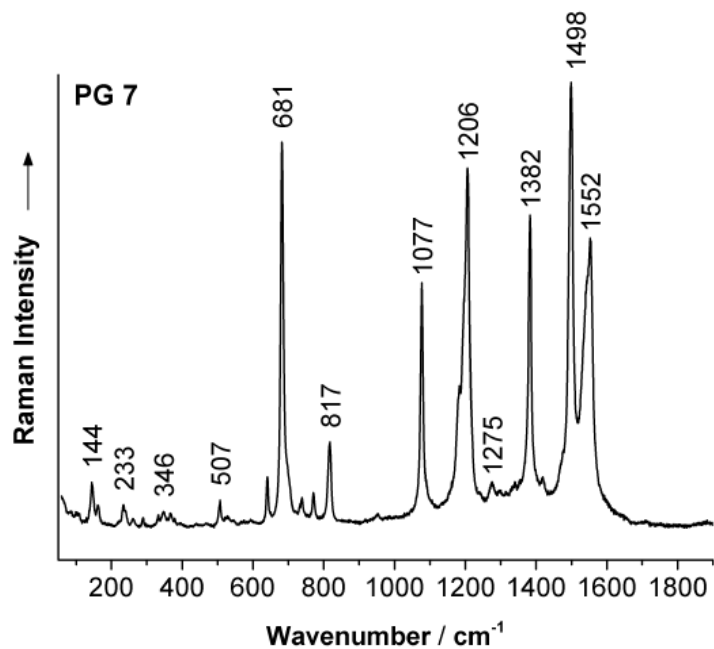


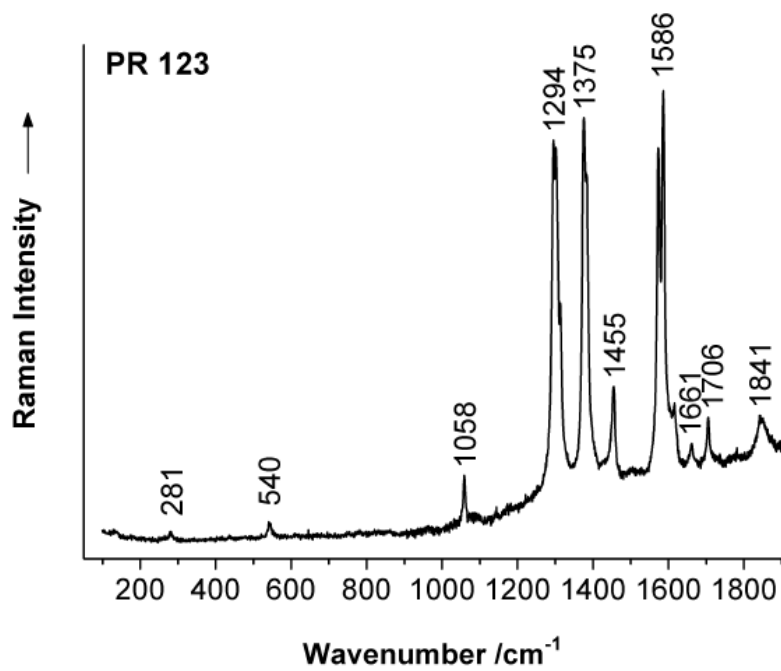
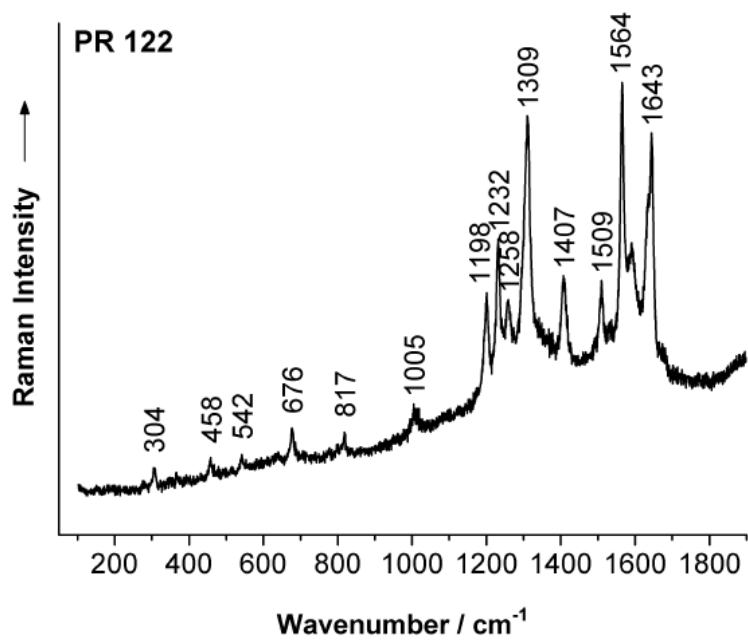


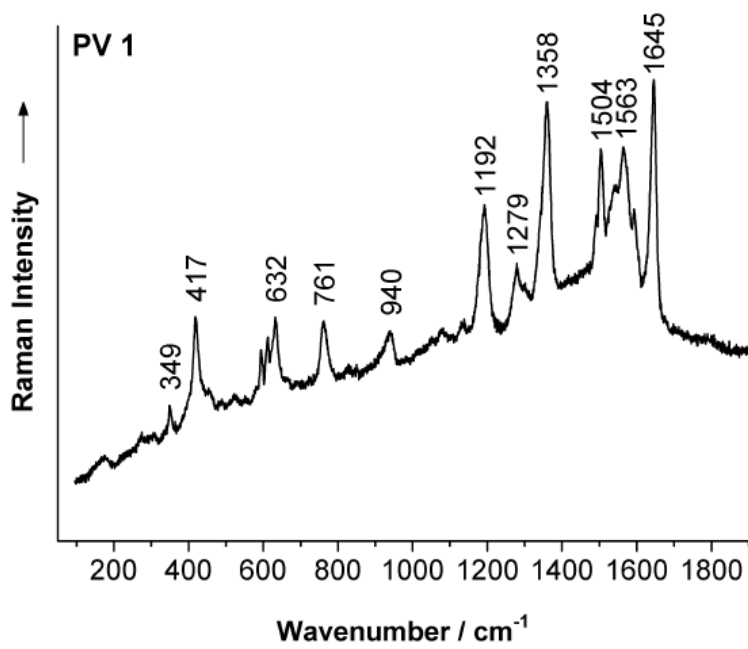
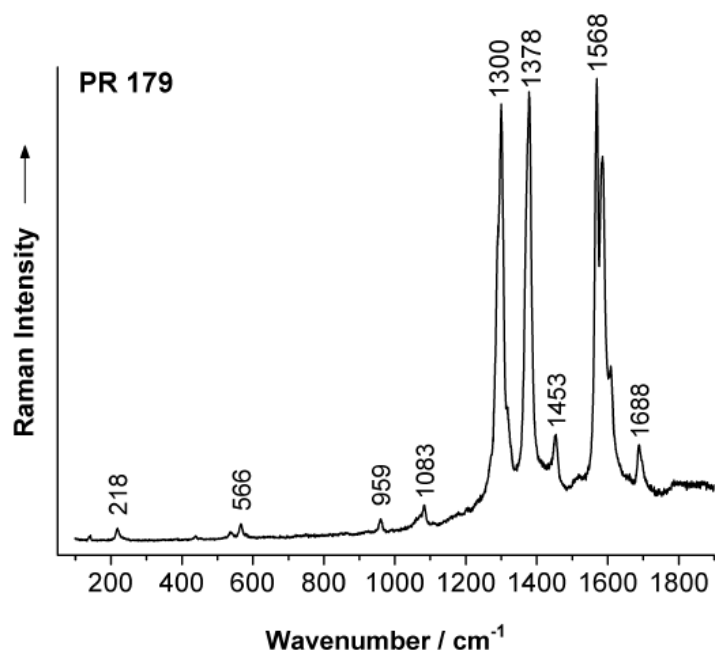


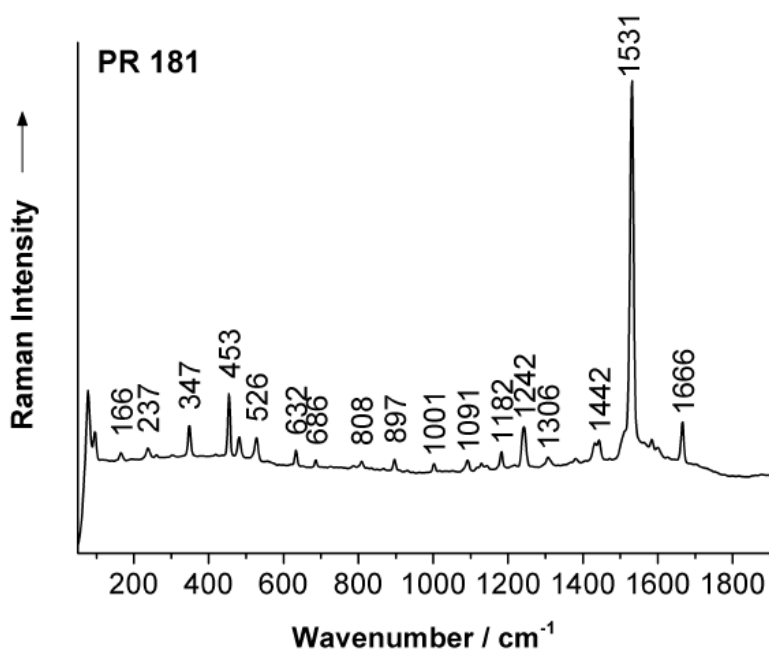
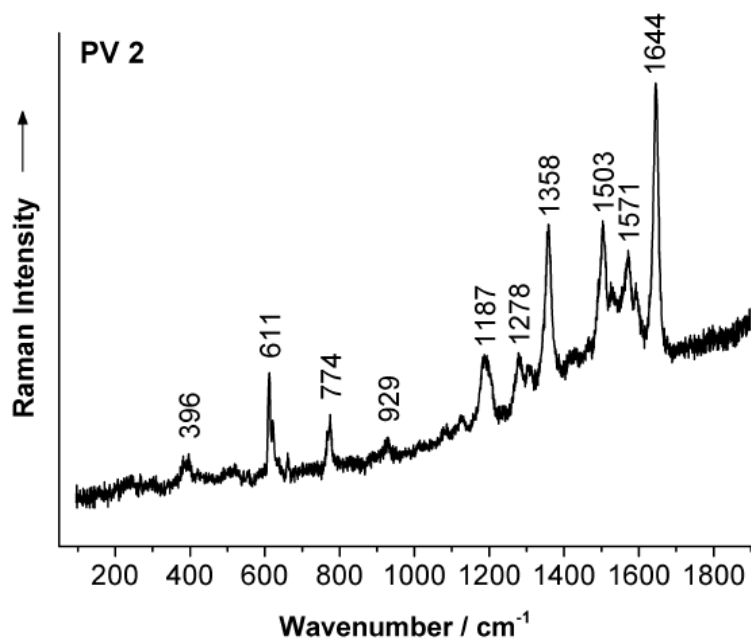


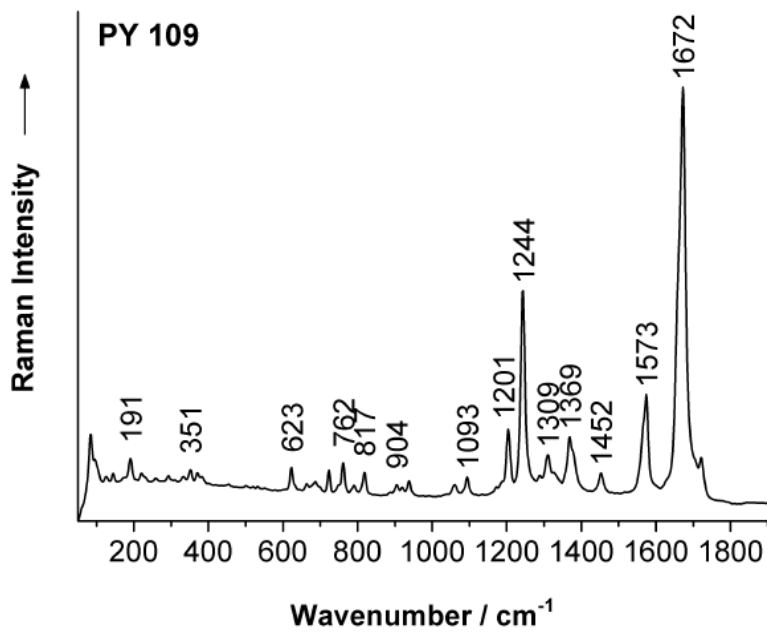
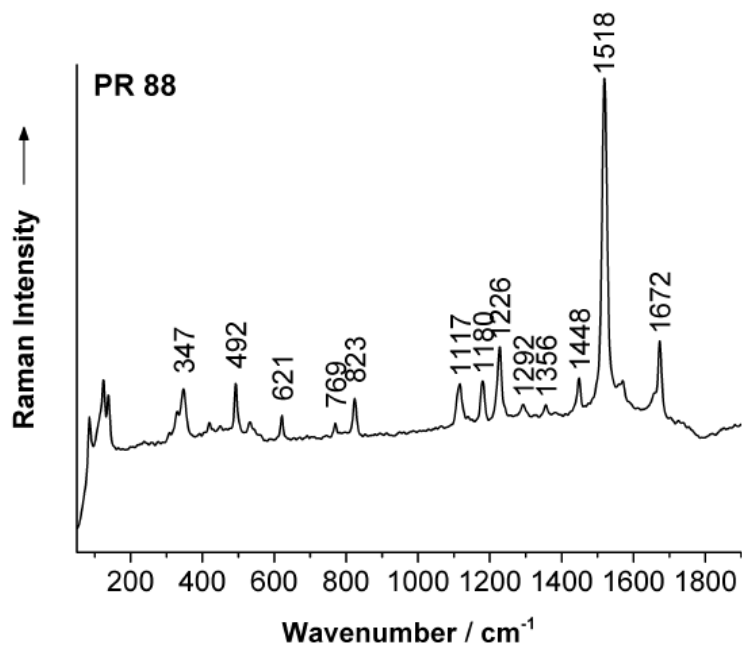


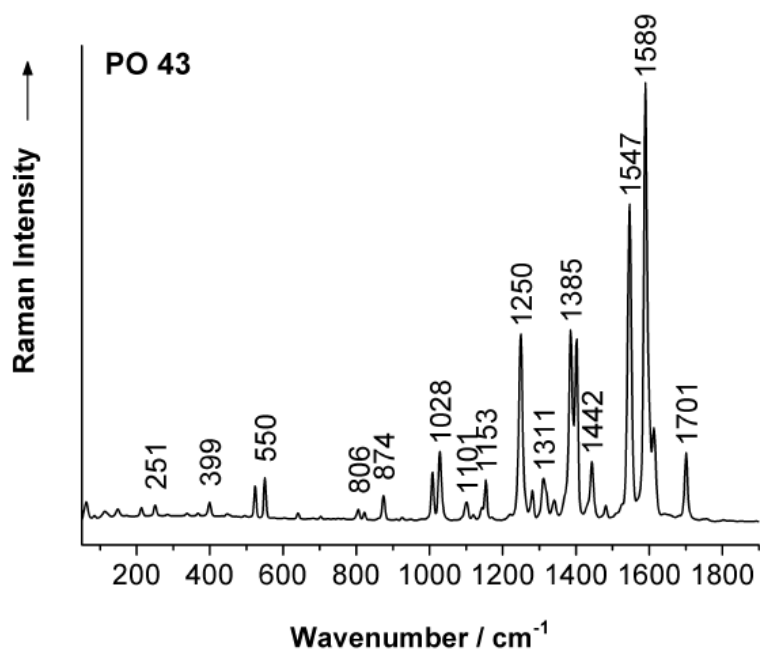
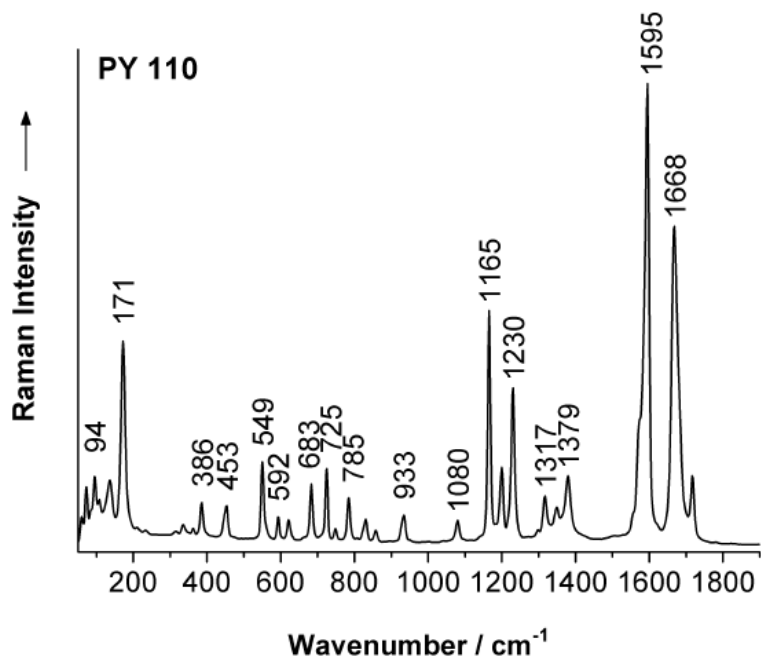


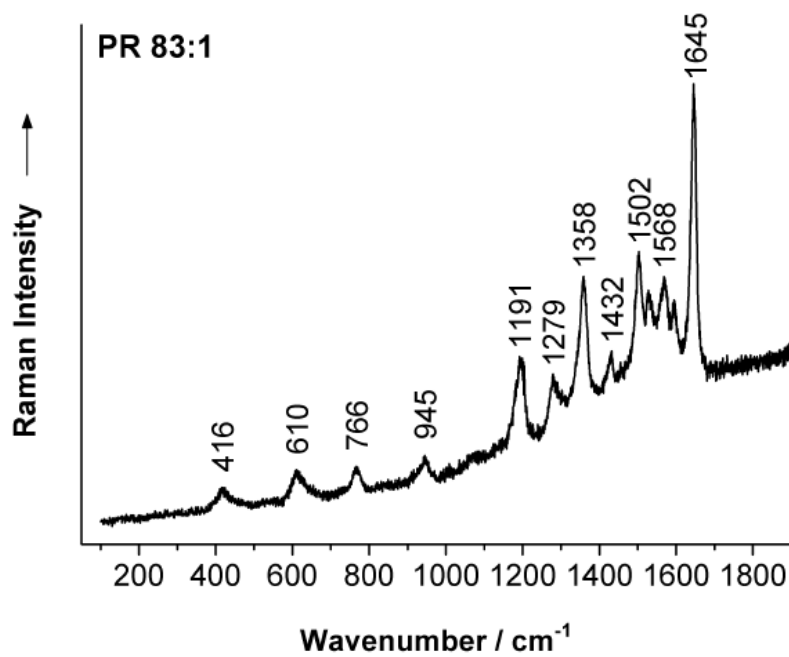
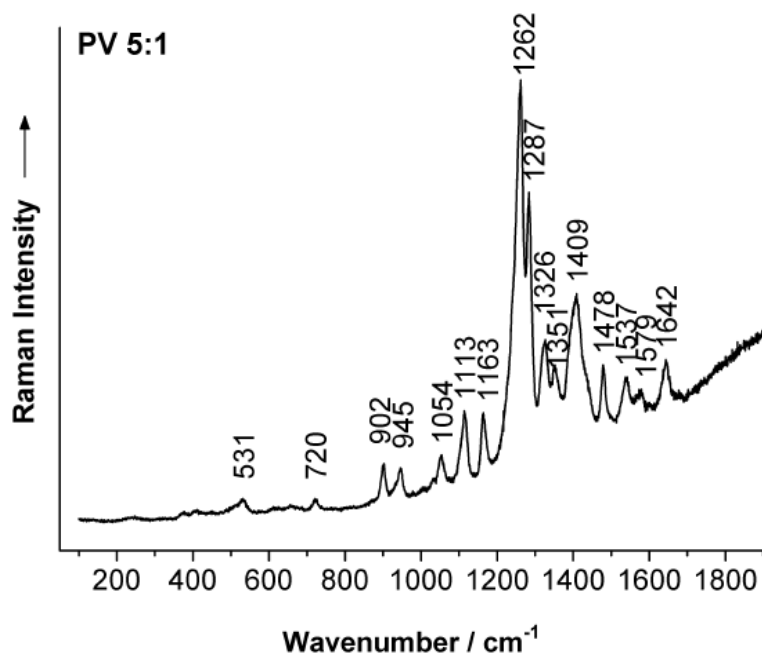


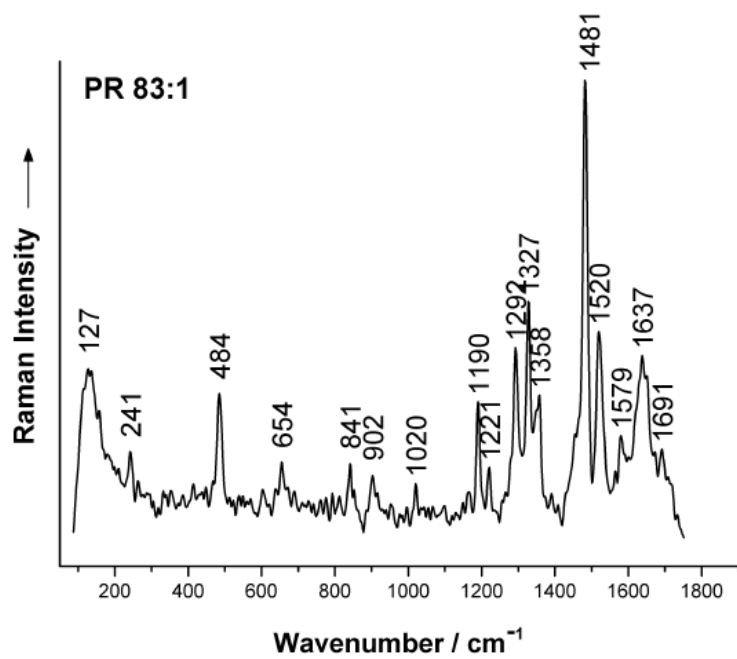












Spectra Reported By Ropret, 2008 ($\lambda_0=785\text{nm}$):

Raman shifts of the reference synthetic organic pigment samples

C.I. name and group	Raman band wave numbers (cm^{-1}) and relative intensities (s, strong; m, medium; w, weak; sh, shoulder; v, very)
Monoazo	
PY6	1673w, 1620m, 1602s, 1569m-w, 1563wsh, 1536vw, 1505msh, 1492s, 1453vw, 1404w, 1388m, 1361vw, 1337m, 1327m, 1308s, 1292wsh, 1288wsh, 1259m, 1235vw, 1193w, 1182w, 1164vw, 1142vs, 1112vw, 1078vw, 1069vw, 1041vw, 1001m, 988vw, 953m-w, 926vw, 917vw, 849vw, 822vw, 785vw, 769vw, 760vw, 742w, 693vw, 685vw, 654w, 625w, 617w, 594vw, 563vw, 532vw, 512vw, 483vw, 443vw, 431vw, 413w, 393wsh, 384w, 370vwsh, 352vw, 331vw, 281vw, 248vwsh, 240vw, 209vw
PY73	1678w, 1641vw, 1616s-m, 1601s-m, 1569m-w, 1546m, 1532s-m, 1507s-m, 1481s-m, 1463vw, 1440vw, 1423vw, 1407wsh, 1392m, 1338vs, 1308s-m, 1296wsh, 1291wsh, 1252m, 1235w, 1224vw, 1196w, 1171vw, 1163w, 1138s, 1117vw, 1106w, 1076vwsh, 1063vw, 1044vw, 1030vw, 955m-w, 917vw, 846vw, 837vw, 826vw, 802vw, 779w, 760vw, 738w, 685vw, 650m-w, 619w, 593vw, 572vw, 525vw, 496vw, 483vw, 467vw, 438vw, 411m-w, 396vw, 377w, 352vw, 343vw, 321vw, 263vw, 228vw, 201vw, 178vw
PY75	1673w, 1611s, 1570m-w, 1561wsh, 1532w, 1522m-w, 1505m, 1479w, 1436vw, 1417vw, 1403vw, 1389m-w, 1357w, 1341vs, 1327m, 1301m, 1300msh, 1260wsh, 1254m, 1247wsh, 1197w, 1166m-w, 1139vs, 1122vw, 1110w, 1063w, 955w, 910vw, 859w, 823w, 758vw, 737m-w, 710vw, 650m-w, 619w, 539vw, 491vw, 438vw, 411w, 379w, 349vw, 315vw, 230vw, 212vw
PY97	1669w, 1637vw, 1618m, 1596s-m, 1589s-m, 1540w, 1500s-m, 1464m, 1456m, 1445vwsh, 1439vw, 1414m, 1402m, 1395m, 1333vs, 1302vw, 1287vw, 1262vw, 1243m-w, 1224w, 1215wsh, 1181vw, 1148vw, 1137vw, 1062w, 1038vw, 1027vw, 1005vw, 985vw, 948m-w, 929vw, 911w, 902vwsh, 841vw, 825vw, 817vw, 765vwsh, 756vw, 740vwsh, 732vw, 706vw, 657vw, 630vw, 617vw, 593vw, 569w, 543vw, 508vw, 486vw, 453vw, 398vw, 368vw, 347w, 314vw, 282vw, 212vw, 176vw, 154vw
PY111	1669vw, 1638vw, 1599s, 1543vw, 1519m-w, 1499w, 1489wsh, 1454vw, 1422w, 1400w, 1361w, 1344ssh, 1336vs, 1327s, 1301m-wsh, 1263s-m, 1244w, 1223vw, 1202vw, 1167w, 1128vw, 1090w, 1066vw, 1016vw, 949vw, 923vw, 903vw, 825vw, 800vw, 783vw, 745vw, 715vw, 645vw, 626vw, 596vw, 557vw, 523vw, 499vw, 466vw, 439vw, 399vw, 387vw, 353vw, 328vw, 300vw, 235vw, 191vw
PY213	1725vw, 1698vw, 1666vw, 1631m-w, 1613vw, 1571w, 1550w, 1491m-w, 1458w, 1446w, 1434w, 1423w, 1405wsh, 1390vs, 1376m, 1319vw, 1293w, 1279vwsh, 1270vw, 1244w, 1234vwsh, 1213vwsh, 1204vw, 1189vw, 1177vw, 1145vw, 1115vw, 1077vw, 1067vwsh, 978vw, 956vw, 940vwsh, 900w, 826vw, 806vw, 763vw, 727vw, 717vwsh, 686vw, 673vw, 627vw, 608vw, 577w, 548vw, 462vw, 417vw, 380vwsh, 373w, 351vw, 340vw, 319vw, 274vw, 261vw, 202vw, 172vw

C.I. name and group	Raman band wave numbers (cm ⁻¹) and relative intensities (s, strong; m, medium; w, weak; sh, shoulder; v, very)
Monoazo pigment lakes	
PY100	1682vw, 1602vs, 1566vw, 1506m, 1476m-w, 1415vw, 1353msh, 1346m, 1316vw, 1269vw, 1231vwsh, 1220m-w, 1214wsh, 1178m-w, 1148vwsh, 1126m, 1098w, 1038vw, 1007vw, 989s-m, 982vwsh, 841w, 810w, 763vw, 716vw, 698vw, 647vw, 631w, 615w, 482vw, 461w, 453w, 396vw, 359vw, 282vw, 244vw, 213vw, 185vw
Diarylide	
PY55	1670vw, 1611msh, 1599vs, 1565vw, 1524vw, 1509vw, 1440vw, 1398m, 1326vw, 1308vw, 1287w, 1258s-m, 1242wsh, 1176vw, 1148vw, 1068vw, 1050vw, 1024vw, 951vw, 916vw, 871vw, 856vw, 790vw, 765vw, 705vw, 674vw, 657vw, 619vw, 609vwsh, 575vw, 550vw, 515vw, 491vw, 415vw, 397vw, 375w, 356vw, 329vw, 288vw, 262vw, 225vw, 198vw, 183vw, 163vw
PY81	1668vw, 1602vs, 1558vw, 1518w, 1510wsh, 1494w, 1447vw, 1394m, 1312wsh, 1302m-w, 1285w, 1267m-w, 1238w, 1230vwsh, 1195vw, 1156vw, 1123vw, 1077vwsh, 1066vw, 1058vwsh, 1017vw, 953w, 934vw, 897vw, 890vwsh, 884vw, 862vw, 826vw, 787vw, 740vw, 720vw, 708vwsh, 686vw, 670vw, 624vw, 596vw, 572vw, 565vw, 549vw, 495vw, 455vwsh, 449w, 433vw, 413vw, 386vw, 363vw, 341w, 331vwsh, 273vw, 241w, 215vw, 202vw, 172vw
Bisacetoacetarylide	
PY16	1673vwsh, 1667vw, 1633w, 1610m, 1594vs, 1551w, 1517wsh, 1510m, 1481w, 1430vw, 1415vw, 1391m, 1315s, 1276vs, 1248w, 1214vw, 1191vw, 1144w, 1127w, 1109vwsh, 1100vw, 1067vw, 952vw, 940vw, 907vw, 826vw, 785vw, 764vw, 743vw, 729vw, 696vw, 661vw, 619vw, 592vw, 535vw, 502vw, 464vw, 441vw, 413vw, 399vwsh, 386vw, 357vw, 341vw, 218vw, 190vw
PY155	1712w, 1665vw, 1636w, 1614s, 1596wsh, 1568m-w, 1532m, 1497s, 1445m, 1435s-m, 1391m, 1363vw, 1325m, 1315wsh, 1285wsh, 1266vs, 1232w, 1199wsh, 1186s-m, 1178m-w, 1120vw, 1079vw, 1067vw, 994vw, 952m-w, 897w, 866vw, 828vw, 804vw, 758vw, 715vw, 679vw, 625vw, 608m-w, 574vw, 470vw, 458vw, 435vw, 390m-w, 346vw, 314vw, 272vw, 230vw
Disazo condensation	
PY95	1668vw, 1636vw, 1598s-m, 1583msh, 1537wsh, 1521m, 1489vw, 1425m, 1381m-w, 1314vs, 1298m-wsh, 1270vw, 1252vwsh, 1242vw, 1190vw, 1136vw, 1066vw, 1046vw, 1025vw, 953w, 906vw, 888vw, 847vw, 785vw, 756vw, 728vw, 718vw, 702vw, 681vw, 648vw, 628vw, 602vw, 530vw, 473vw, 445vw, 422vw, 399vw, 379vw, 329vw, 313vw, 274vw, 234vw
PY128	1670vwbr, 1635vw, 1600s-m, 1580m, 1521m, 1480wbr, 1430m, 1384m, 1303s, 1259w, 1075vw, 1047vw, 955w, 915vw, 727vw, 324vw, 207vw, 190vw, 170vwsh, 154vwsh
Benzimidazolone	
PY151	1714vw, 1652m, 1628m-w, 1611wsh, 1602s-m, 1581vs, 1569m, 1515m, 1497m, 1488msh, 1455m, 1404msh, 1388s, 1371wsh, 1324m-wsh, 1315m, 1292m-w, 1272w, 1248s-m, 1207wsh, 1200m-w, 1161wsh, 1554w, 1144s-m, 1133w, 1069w, 1053vwsh, 1043w, 1023w, 967vwsh, 956m-w, 922vwsh, 907vw, 874vw, 844vw, 792vw, 767vw, 707vw, 689vwsh, 659vw, 629vw, 613m-w, 584vw, 572vw, 522vw, 505vw, 473vw, 409vw, 386m-w, 380wsh, 313w, 304vw, 226vw, 195vw
PY154	1661w, 1640m-w, 1630m-wsh, 1613s, 1590s, 1581msh, 1526w, 1503vs, 1484m-w, 1475m, 1439vw, 1403s, 1396m-wsh, 1366m, 1357wsh, 1325s-m, 1319msh, 1300s, 1267s, 1257s-m, 1219vw, 1166w, 1159m-w, 1143vw, 1133m-w, 1111vw, 1068m-w, 1059vwsh, 1036m, 1007m, 951m, 915w, 879w, 840vw, 821vw, 770w, 732vw, 704w, 624vw, 610w, 584vwsh, 574w, 564vw, 528vw, 512vw, 476w, 430vw, 394w, 351w, 298vw, 281w, 263vw, 228vw, 197vw, 179vw, 156w
Azomethine metal complex	
PY129	1615vwsh, 1600m, 1580wsh, 1569m, 1534s-m, 1512vw, 1484m, 1424m, 1385vs, 1353vw, 1339w, 1304vw, 1292vw, 1270m, 1213m-w, 1200vwsh, 1176w, 1153m, 1142vwsh, 1112vw, 1040vwsh, 1030vw, 978vw, 937vw, 922vwsh, 879vw, 845vw, 758vw, 742vw, 651vw, 630vw, 603w, 558vw, 502vw, 465vw, 455vw, 413vw, 289vw, 269vwsh, 233vw, 193vw
PY153	1683m-w, 1633vw, 1603vs, 1554s, 1537s-m, 1495w, 1446s-m, 1433m, 1419m-wsh, 1370s-m, 1358s-m, 1315vs, 1300m, 1263s, 1240s-msh, 1233s, 1176s-m, 1156w, 1132m, 1104vw, 1080vw, 1032w, 999vs, 988m-w, 966m-w, 905vw, 827m, 813wsh, 759m-w, 722m-w, 710vwsh, 686vw, 616w, 564w, 522w, 513vw, 465m-w, 439w, 406vw, 382m-w, 366vw, 358vwsh, 307m-w, 273vw, 259m, 250wsh, 213m, 154vw
Isoindolinone and isoindoline	
PY109	1724vw, 1706vw, 1673vs, 1664s-msh, 1576m-w, 1568wsh, 1454vw, 1376w, 1369m-w, 1325vwsh, 1311w, 1290vw, 1244s, 1204m-w, 1189vw, 1094w, 1060vw, 938vw, 919vw, 905vw, 818w, 791vw, 760m-w, 748vwsh, 722w, 696vwsh, 684vw, 663vw, 631vwsh, 622w, 582vw, 531vw, 498vw, 449vw, 385vwsh, 368vw, 349vw, 330vwsh, 290vw, 258vw, 223vw, 218vwsh, 189vw
PY110	1719w, 1669s-m, 1597vs, 1575m-wsh, 1380m-w, 1350vw, 1318w, 1299vw, 1231s-m, 1200m-w, 1182vw, 1166s, 1080w, 934w, 929vwsh, 858vw, 831vw, 805vw, 784m-w, 747vw, 724m, 682m, 660vw, 620w, 592w, 549s-m, 452m-w, 445wsh, 384w, 360vw, 333vw, 312vw, 233vw, 209vw, 170s-m

C.I. name and group	Raman band wave numbers (cm^{-1}) and relative intensities (s, strong; m, medium; w, weak; sh, shoulder; v, very)
PY173	1708m-w, 1685vs, 1616vw, 1584s, 1572msh, 1470vw, 1374wsh, 1364w, 1313vw, 1270vw, 1253m, 1245m, 1221vw, 1188vw, 1168vw, 1143m, 1053vwsh, 1037w, 1011w, 960vw, 902vw, 889vw, 845w, 825vw, 801vw, 779w, 763vw, 728vw, 708w, 686vw, 655m, 632vw, 610vw, 590w, 553vw, 540vw, 527w, 497s-m, 477vw, 446vw, 389vw, 371vw, 331vw, 304vw, 265vw, 230w, 196m-w
PY139	1724vw, 1700vw, 1662vw, 1650vwsh, 1597vwsh, 1584m-w, 1563vs, 1501vw, 1466vw, 1419vw, 1379w, 1367w, 1318vw, 1300vw, 1256vw, 1239vw, 1183vw, 1142vw, 1089vw, 1038vw, 955vw, 904vw, 837vw, 800vw, 765vw, 706vw, 690w, 654vw, 636vw, 604m-w, 561vw, 515vw, 466vw, 440vw, 421vw, 335vw, 291w, 243m, 233m-w, 179vw, 155vw

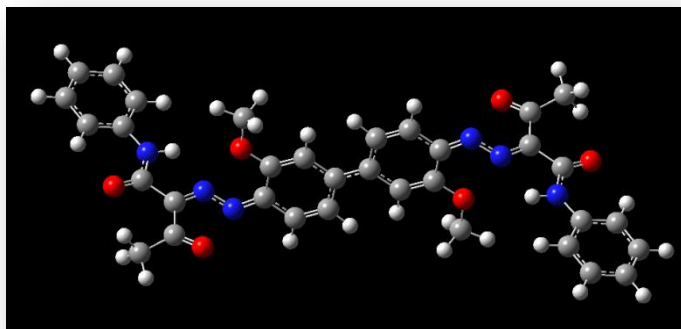
Spectra Reported By Vandenberg, 2000 ($\lambda_0=780\text{nm}$):

CI name	Supplier	Raman band wavenumbers $\tilde{\nu}/\text{cm}^{-1}$ (between 1800 and 50 cm^{-1})
PY 1	SunChemicals	1670(w), 1621(vs), 6101(m-w), 1564(w), 1533(w), 1485(vs), 1450(vw), 1406(w), 1386(m), 1337(m-w), 1323(m), 1310(vs), 1255(m), 1216(m), 1192(w), 1178(w), 1168(w), 1138(vs), 1068(vw), 999(m), 951(m-w), 925(w), 845(w), 824(w), 786(m), 616(w), 511(w), 460(w), 410(vw), 390(m-w), 361(w), 353(vw), 186(w)
PY 3	Schmincke, SunChemicals	1671(vw), 1612(m), 1593(w,sh), 1566(vw), 1545(vw), 1494(m), 1442(vw), 1386(m), 1336(m-s), 1309(m), 1275(vw), 1243(w), 1189(w), 1153(vw), 1138(vs), 1105(vw), 1061(vw), 1036(vw), 957(vw), 915(vw), 848(vw), 824(vw), 791(vw), 745(w), 707(vw), 675(vw), 649(m-w), 621(w), 542(vw), 486(vw), 449(vw), 434(vw), 411(w), 394(w), 370(vw), 355(vw), 345(vw), 296(vw), 272(vw), 201(w), 184(w), 136(w), 111(vw)
PY 65	SunChemicals	1670(w), 1623(m), 1601(m-w), 1576(vw), 1543(w), 1534(w,sh), 1488(vs), 1460(vw), 1441(w), 1424(m-w), 1392(m-s), 1344(m), 1326(s), 1316(m,sh), 1295(vw), 1275(vw), 1252(m), 1229(vs), 1190(w), 1171(w), 1135(vs), 1072(vw,sh), 1062(vw), 1049(vw), 1027(vw), 951(w), 932(w), 916(vw), 829(w), 794(m-s), 777(vw), 759(vw), 705(vw), 689(vw), 672(vw), 622(m-w), 607(w), 580(vw), 558(vw), 535(w), 512(vw), 497(vw), 480(vw), 447(w), 411(w), 398(vw), 377(w), 340(vw), 325(w), 229(vw), 184(w), 150(vw), 112(vw)
PY 74	Kremer, SunChemicals	1667(vw), 1593(m), 1549(vw), 1511(w), 1489(w), 1438(vw), 1404(w), 1352(m), 1327(vs), 1298(w), 1263(s), 1202(vw), 1170(vw), 1159(w), 1125(vw), 1117(vw), 1089(w), 1067(vw), 1046(vw), 1019(vw), 954(vw), 917(vw), 846(vw), 826(vw), 802(w), 781(vw), 741(vw), 717(vw), 646(vw), 624(vw), 601(vw), 525(vw), 498(vw), 464(vw), 441(vw), 404(vw), 360(vw), 319(vw), 259(vw), 225(vw), 186(vw)
PR 3	Kremer	1619(m), 1604(w,sh), 1554(w), 1524(vw), 1496(m), 1444(m-s), 1394(m), 1332(vs), 1320(s,sh), 1251(w), 1225(w,sh), 1216(m), 1186(m-s), 1127(m), 1076(w), 986(m), 923(w), 842(m-w), 796(m), 723(m-w), 616(m), 503(w), 479(vw), 454(m-w), 422(vw), 402(vw), 384(w), 340(m-s), 168(w)
PY 12	SunChemicals	1661(vw), 1597(vs), 1554(vw), 1517(vw), 1490(vw), 1449(vw), 1399(m), 1320(vw), 1294(w), 1255(w), 1228(vw), 1179(vw), 1140(vw), 1065(vw), 1050(vw), 1001(vw), 952(vw), 917(vw), 871(vw), 817(vw), 718(vw), 661(w), 623(vw), 613(vw), 515(vw), 475(vw), 449(vw), 407(vw), 365(vw), 330(vw), 308(vw), 284(vw), 256(vw), 204(vw), 183(vw), 125(vw)
PY 13	SunChemicals	1673(vw), 1598(vs), 1553(vw), 1522(vw), 1491(vw), 1448(vw), 1399(m-w), 1315(vw), 1287(w), 1258(m-w), 1248(w,sh), 1183(vw), 1144(vw), 1067(vw), 1049(vw), 953(vw), 938(vw), 907(vw), 874(vw), 829(vw), 780(vw), 720(vw), 707(vw), 674(vw), 658(vw), 620(vw), 564(vw), 541(vw), 492(vw), 443(vw), 420(vw), 398(vw), 345(vw), 272(vw), 225(vw), 199(vw), 171(vw), 114(vw)
PY 14	SunChemicals	1670(vw), 1597(vs), 1557(vw), 1524(vw), 1481(vw), 1458(vw), 1400(w), 1313(vw), 1287(w), 1258(m), 1180(vw), 1145(vw), 1068(vw), 1049(vw), 954(vw), 918(vw), 798(vw), 769(vw), 709(vw), 659(vw), 623(vw), 539(vw), 512(vw), 477(vw), 444(vw), 422(vw), 396(vw), 344(vw), 280(vw), 203(vw), 172(vw), 120(vw)
PY 17	SunChemicals	1668(vw), 1599(vs), 1546(vw), 1518(vw), 1489(vw), 1461(vw), 1436(vw), 1399(m), 1334(vw), 1292(vw), 1268(w), 1256(w), 1183(vw), 1162(vw), 1067(vw), 1049(vw), 953(vw), 918(vw), 832(vw), 794(vw), 712(vw), 665(vw), 618(vw), 508(vw), 453(vw), 409(vw), 349(vw), 268(vw), 215(vw), 176(vw), 124(vw)
PY 83	Schmincke, SunChemicals	1659(vw), 1595(vs), 1540(vw), 1523(vw), 1511(vw), 1449(vw), 1399(m), 1333(w), 1289(w), 1253(m), 1218(vw), 1148(vw), 1136(vw), 1067(vw), 1049(vw), 956(vw), 920(vw), 692(vw), 661(vw), 638(vw), 538(vw), 421(vw), 394(vw), 342(vw), 265(vw), 211(vw), 176(vw), 158(vw)
PR 49:1	SunChemicals	1617(m), 1602(m-w), 1557(w), 1483(m-s), 1465(m), 1450(w), 1425(m-s), 1413(m-s), 1349(m-s), 1278(vw), 1257(w), 1232(m-w), 1215(m-s,sh), 1206(vs), 1172(vw), 1136(w), 1097(m-w), 1057(vw), 1035(vw), 993(vw), 946(vw), 917(vw), 873(vw), 826(vw), 800(vw), 775(vw), 720(s), 661(vw), 645(w), 604(w), 542(vw), 529(m), 515(vw), 481(vw), 469(w), 411(m-w), 357(w), 343(m-w), 304(vw), 280(vw), 254(vw), 236(vw), 216(vw), 199(vw), 172(vw)

CI name	Supplier	Raman band wavenumbers $\tilde{\nu}/\text{cm}^{-1}$ (between 1800 and 50 cm^{-1})
PR 53 : 1	SunChemicals	1596(m-w), 1571(w,sh), 1552(m), 1482(m), 1451(w), 1401(vs), 1378(w), 1333(m), 1316(w), 1291(vw), 1259(m-w), 1236(vs), 1199(m-s), 1159(vw), 1138(vw), 1095(m), 1040(vw), 993(vw), 978(w), 871(vw), 805(w), 741(vw), 719(w), 667(vw), 630(m-w), 612(m-w), 577(vw), 557(vw), 540(vw), 515(vw), 497(w), 436(w), 426(w,sh), 338(m-w), 311(m-w), 242(vw), 205(w), 173(vw)
PR 52 : 1	SunChemicals	1598(m), 1575(w,sh), 1554(m), 1488(m), 1456(vw), 1440(vw), 1403(vs), 1362(vs), 1336(vw), 1324(vw), 1294(vw), 1265(m-w), 1237(s), 1179(s), 1159(vw), 1106(w), 1045(w), 1020(vw), 961(s), 871(vw), 802(vw), 786(vw), 744(m-w), 718(vw), 711(vw), 668(vw), 653(vw), 627(vw), 599(vw), 562(w), 528(m-w), 463(w), 434(w), 418(vw), 406(vw), 360(m), 346(m,sh), 325(vw), 240(vw), 210(vw), 182(vw), 138(vw)
PR 57 : 1	SunChemicals	1602(m), 1550(vw), 1490(m-s), 1409(vw), 1365(vs), 1336(vw), 1325(vw), 1294(vw), 1265(m-w), 1230(m-w), 1182(m), 1130(w), 1118(vw,sh), 1038(vw), 1020(vw), 964(vw), 888(vw), 876(vw), 822(vw), 785(vw), 746(w), 714(vw), 701(vw), 597(vw), 559(vw), 520(w), 497(w), 466(vw), 417(vw), 362(vw), 335(w), 309(vw), 253(vw), 150(vw)
PR 8	Kremer	1673(w), 1572(vw), 1519(vs), 1449(w), 1356(vw), 1296(vw), 1227(w), 1180(w), 1119(w), 825(w), 771(w), 620(m-w), 533(w), 492(m), 421(w), 347(m-s), 329(w), 235(vw), 140(vw)
PR 9	Kremer	1604(w), 1579(m-s), 1549(w), 1485(m), 1448(vw), 1362(vs), 1337(w), 1283(m-w), 1257(vw), 1237(m), 1204(vw), 1153(w), 1135(vw), 1108(vw), 1041(w), 1017(vw), 968(w), 853(vw), 807(w), 769(w), 728(w), 665(vw), 642(vw), 609(vw), 565(m-w), 520(vw), 490(w), 448(vw), 432(w), 339(w), 326(vw,sh), 149(w)
PR 17	SunChemicals	1610(m), 1592(vw), 1550(w), 1519(vw), 1488(m), 1454(vw), 1425(m-w), 1362(vs), 1319(vw), 1284(w), 1240(m-w), 1204(vw), 1164(w), 1107(w), 1041(vw), 1015(vw), 997(vw), 966(w), 943(vw,sh), 898(vw), 854(vw), 826(vw), 807(vw), 756(w), 727(w), 666(vw), 620(vw), 539(vw), 516(vw), 483(w), 445(vw), 426(w), 401(vw), 363(w), 343(w)
PR 22	SunChemicals	1611(m-w), 1590(vw,sh), 1550(w), 1519(vw), 1485(m-w), 1453(w), 1424(m-w), 1362(vs), 1347(w), 1318(w), 1283(m-w), 1267(vw), 1238(m-w), 1206(vw), 1161(w), 1107(w), 998(vw), 966(w), 939(w), 856(vw), 826(vw), 798(vw), 771(vw), 734(w), 665(vw), 623(vw), 548(vw), 528(vw), 512(vw), 476(w), 425(w), 399(vw), 363(w), 342(w), 224(vw), 176(vw)
PR 23	SunChemicals	1613(m-w), 1600(w,sh), 1550(w), 1499(vs), 1483(w), 1443(w), 1366(m-s), 1346(vs), 1329(w), 1293(m), 1259(m-w), 1238(m-w), 1172(w), 1160(w), 1108(w), 1078(vw), 1038(vw), 1015(vw), 969(w), 940(w), 837(w), 796(vw), 774(vw), 742(w), 632(w), 610(vw), 496(w), 413(w), 397(w), 370(w), 345(w), 319(vw), 300(vw), 277(vw), 236(vw), 214(vw)
PR 112	Schmincke, Kremer	1604(vw), 1578(s), 1551(w), 1482(m), 1460(w), 1448(w,sh), 1423(vw), 1391(m), 1374(m), 1357(vs), 1331(vw), 1281(s), 1258(vw), 1242(w), 1229(m-s), 1204(vw), 1160(m-w), 1108(w), 1061(w), 1014(vw), 967(w), 892(vw), 865(vw), 813(w), 744(w), 728(w), 679(m-w), 615(w), 571(w), 527(m), 467(vw), 442(w), 429(w), 391(vw), 346(m), 296(vw), 279(vw), 245(vw), 150(vw)
PR 170	Kremer	1605(m-s), 1593(w,sh), 1549(w), 1512(m-w), 1488(w), 1452(vw), 1423(vw), 1388(w), 1363(vs), 1332(w), 1288(m-w), 1244(w), 1164(m), 1142(vw), 1119(vw), 1047(vw), 1013(vw), 964(m-w), 859(vw), 802(vw), 775(vw), 729(m), 665(vw), 610(vw), 573(w), 537(w), 512(vw), 490(w), 479(vw,sh), 423(w), 371(vw), 331(vw), 266(vw), 236(vw), 208(vw), 188(vw), 146(vw)

Appendix J: Density Functional Theory Input and Resultant Spectra

Pigment Orange 16



Preprocessing Note: Pigment Orange 16 in vac optandfreq after initial opt with sto

File Name: pigment_orange_16_freq

File Type: .log

Calculation Type: FREQ

Calculation Method: RB3LYP

Basis Set: 6-311G(d,p)

Charge: 0

Spin: Singlet

E(RB3LYP): -2093.95103360a.u.

RMS Gradient Norm: 0.00000188a.u.

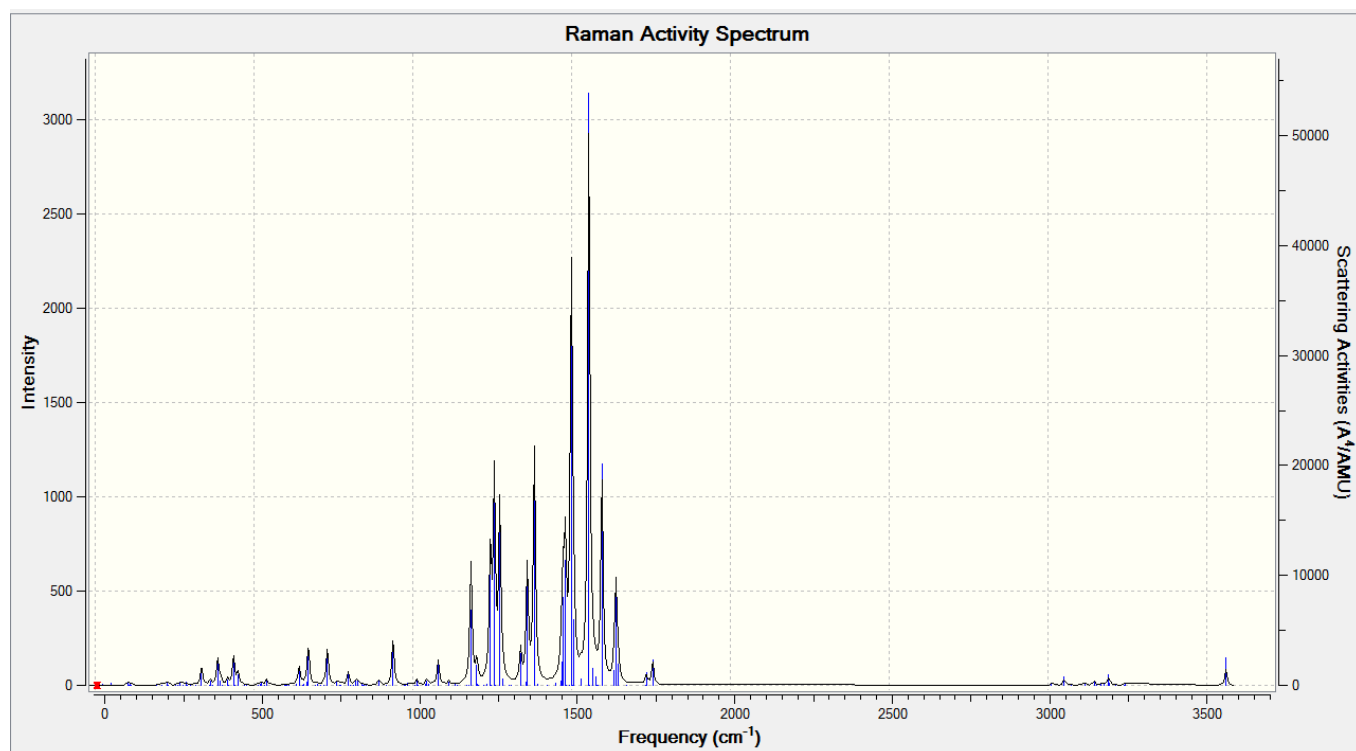
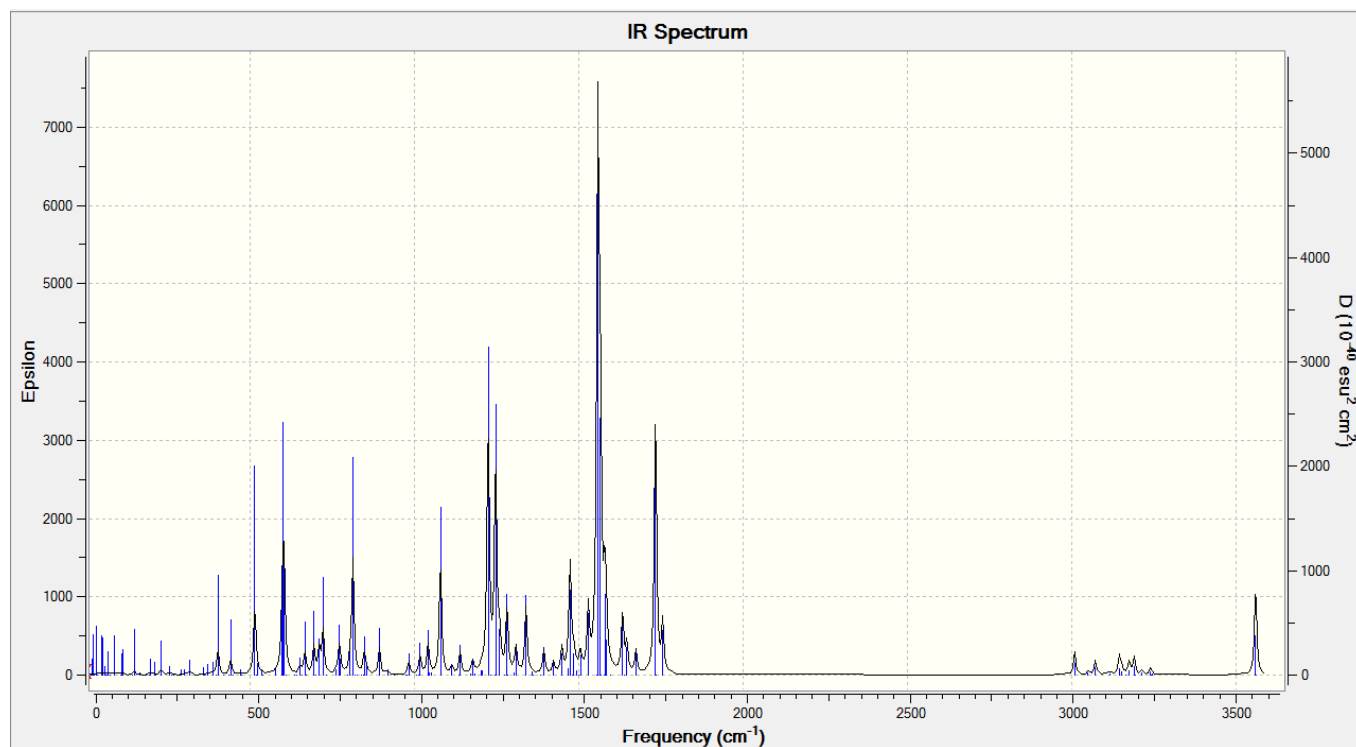
Imaginary Freq: 0

Dipole Moment: 0.0006Debye

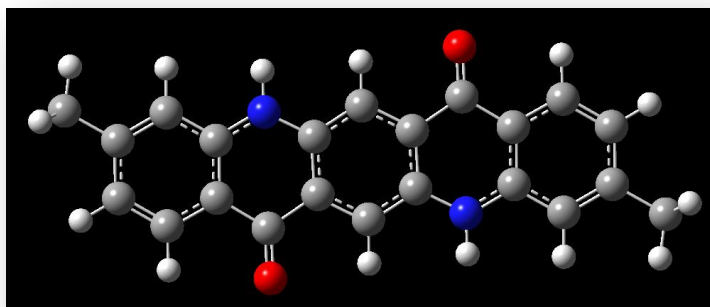
Point Group: C1

Job cpu time: 1 days 20 hours 15 minutes 40.0 seconds

Pigment Orange 16



Pigment Red 122



Preprocessing Note: Pigment Red 122_opt in vac optanffreq after opt with sto

File Name: pigment_red_122_freq

File Type: .log

Calculation Type: FREQ

Calculation Method: RB3LYP

Basis Set: 6-311G(d,p)

Charge: 0

Spin: Singlet

E(RB3LYP): -1108.27861652a.u.

RMS Gradient Norm: 0.00001084a.u.

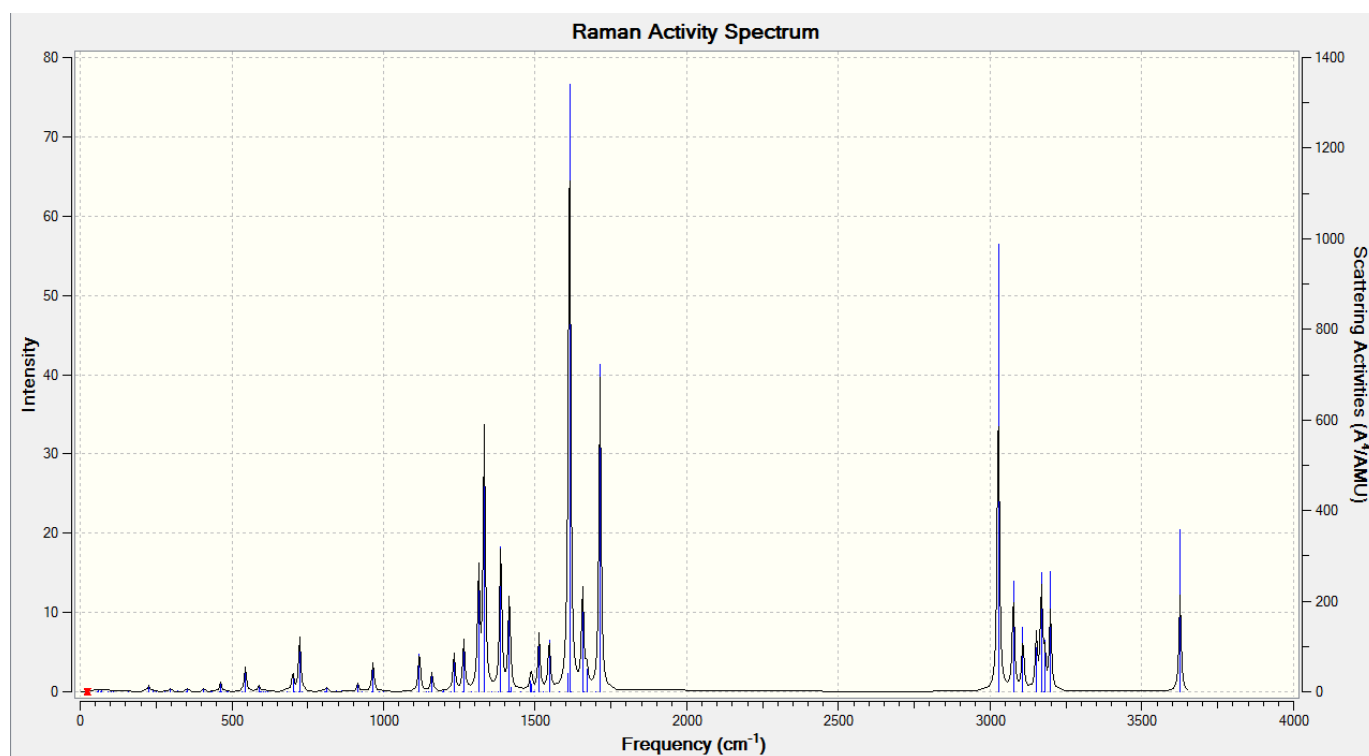
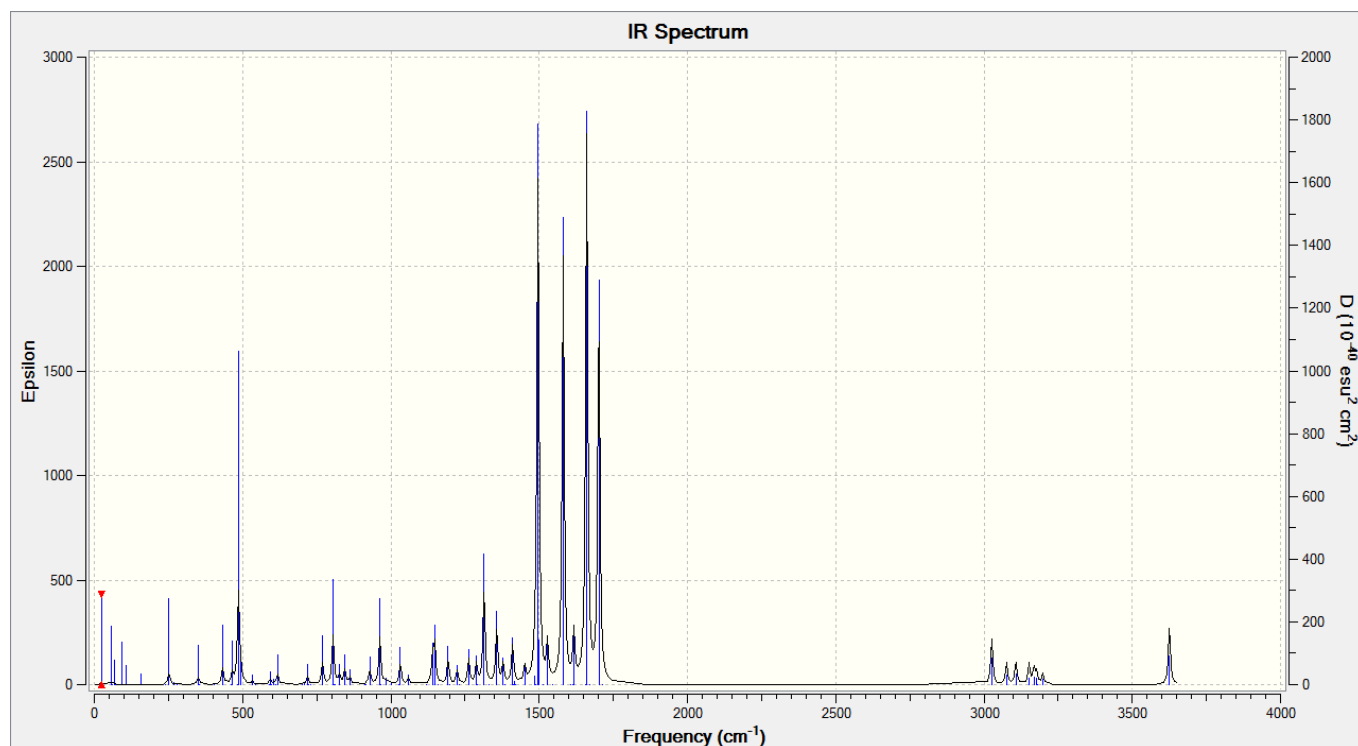
Imaginary Freq: 0

Dipole Moment: 0.0005Debye

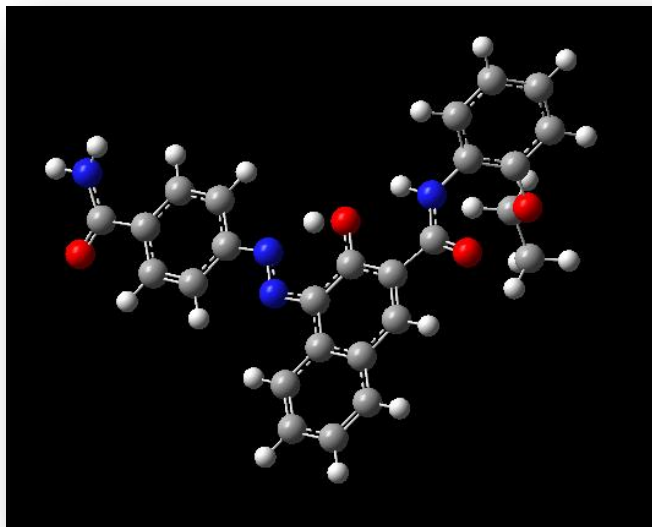
Point Group: C1

Job cpu time: 0 days 17 hours 19 minutes 40.7 seconds

Pigment Red 122



Pigment Red 170



Preprocessing Note: Pigment Red 170 in vac with optandfreq after opt with sto in addition to optimization of the geometry

File Name: pigment_red_170_new_freq2

File Type: .log

Calculation Type: FREQ

Calculation Method: RB3LYP

Basis Set: 6-311G(d,p)

Charge: 0

Spin: Singlet

E(RB3LYP): -1524.31578103a.u.

RMS Gradient Norm 0.00000935a.u.

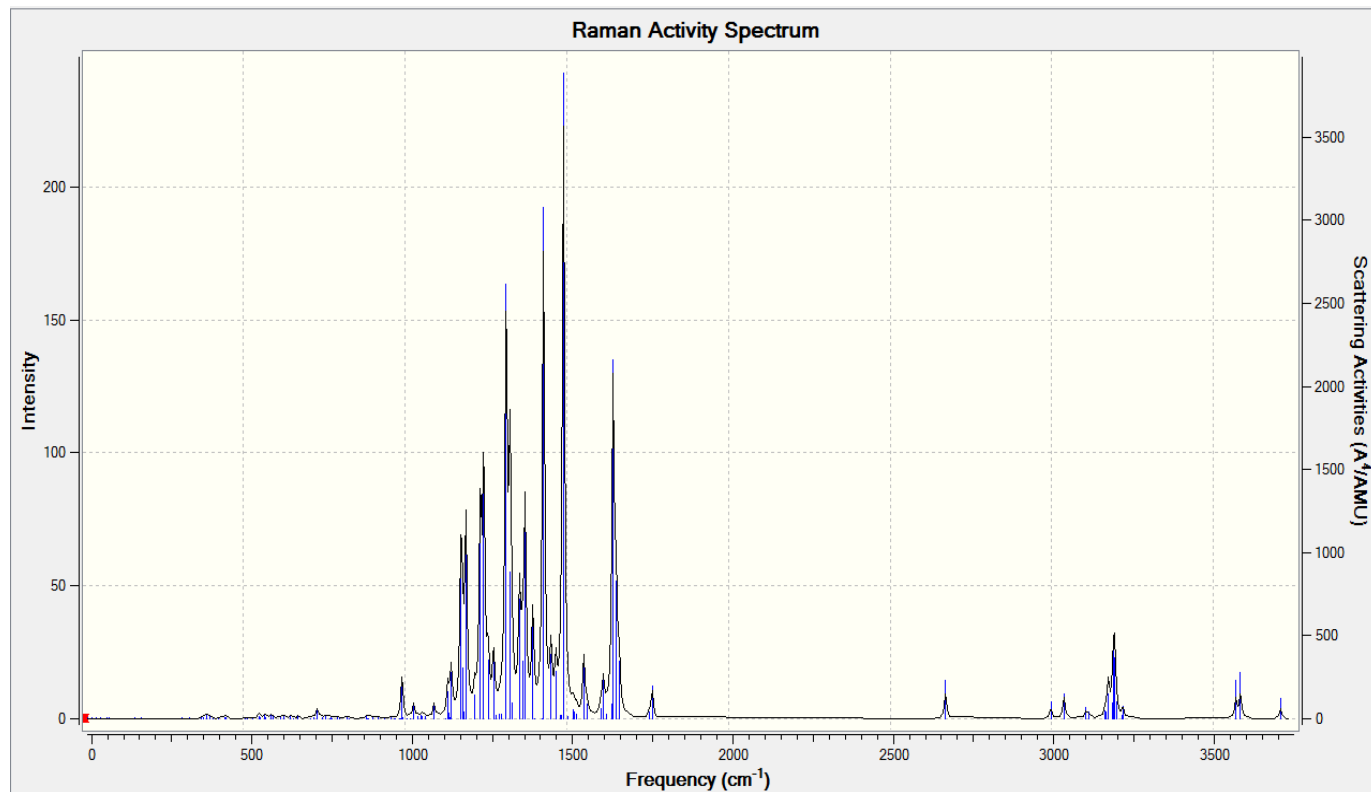
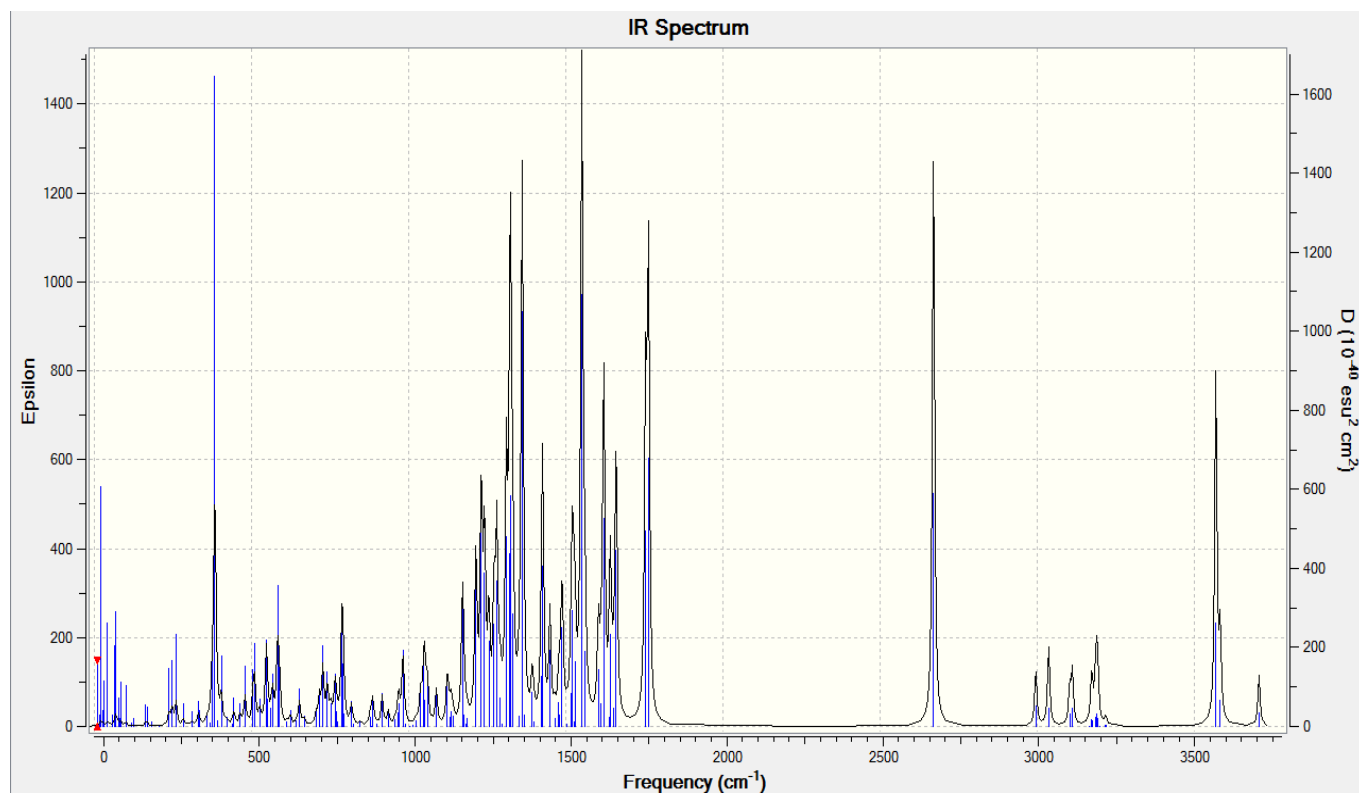
Imaginary Freq: 0

Dipole Moment: 4.0238Debye

Point Group: C1

Job cpu time: 2 days 4 hours 26 minutes 28.9 seconds

Pigment Red 170



Chapter 7: References

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