

Chapter 6

Ion/Neutral Spectroscopies

6.1 Interactions of heavy particles with materials

Differences exists in the interaction of ions and electrons with matter. Ions are much heavier, have bigger dimensions and they can have higher charges. Interakci projektlu a terče rozdělit na dva odlišné mechanismy

- Elektronické srážky, při nichž jsou excitovány nebo emitovány elektrony z materiálu.
- Jaderné srážky, například elastické srážky atomů
- Jaderné reakce - pro skutečně vysoké energie

For analytical purposes, we are interested in “emitted particles“

- secondary electrons (secondary ion-electron emission),
- ions (ion scattering, ion-ion secondary emission),
- neutral particles (cathode sputtering),
- photons (characteristic x-rays and visible radiation - ionoluminescence).

Který proces nastane po dopadu atomu či iontu na povrch záleží na mnoha faktorech, jako je energie dopadající částice (E_0), úhel dopadu, tok dopadajících částic (γ_i), hmotnost a atomové číslo dopadající částice (M_1 respektive Z_1), hmotnost a atomové číslo atomů terče (M_2 respektive Z_2) a náboj dopadajících částic a částic terče. Všechny procesy způsobené dopadem atomu či iontu na pevný materiál jsou schematicky naznačeny na obrázku Fig. 6.1.

6.2 Kinematika dvojně srážky

V případě jaderných srážek jsou hmotnosti interagujících částic poměrně blízké. V případě elastické srážky tak může docházet k velké ztrátě kinetické energie dopadající částice, velkému

rozptylu dopadající částice a vzniku energetických zpětně odražených atomů. $E_{i,1}$ a E_t jsou dány vztahy

$$\begin{aligned} E_1 &= KE_0 \\ E_2 &= (1 - K)E_0 \end{aligned} \quad (6.1)$$

kde K je kinetický faktor daný poměrem hmotností M_1/M_2 a úhlem rozptylu v laboratorní soustavě θ . Pokud je hmotnost dopadajícího atomu větší, než hmotnost zasaženého atomu, $M_1/M_2 > 1$, je kinetický faktor daný vztahem:

$$K = \left[\frac{\cos \theta \pm \left(\frac{M_2}{M_1}^2 - \sin^2 \theta \right)^{1/2}}{\frac{M_2}{M_1} + 1} \right]^2. \quad (6.2)$$

Pokud $M_1/M_2 \leq 1$ výraz se zjednoduší na tvar

$$K = \left[\frac{\cos \theta + \left(\frac{M_2}{M_1}^2 - \sin^2 \theta \right)^{1/2}}{\frac{M_2}{M_1} + 1} \right]^2. \quad (6.3)$$

Energie předaná zasaženému atomu lze vyjádřit zjednodušením rovnice (6.2) jako

$$E_2 = \frac{4M_1 M_2}{(M_1 + M_2)^2} \sin^2 \frac{\theta_c}{2} E_0, \quad (6.4)$$

kde θ_c je rozptylový úhel v těžišťové soustavě.

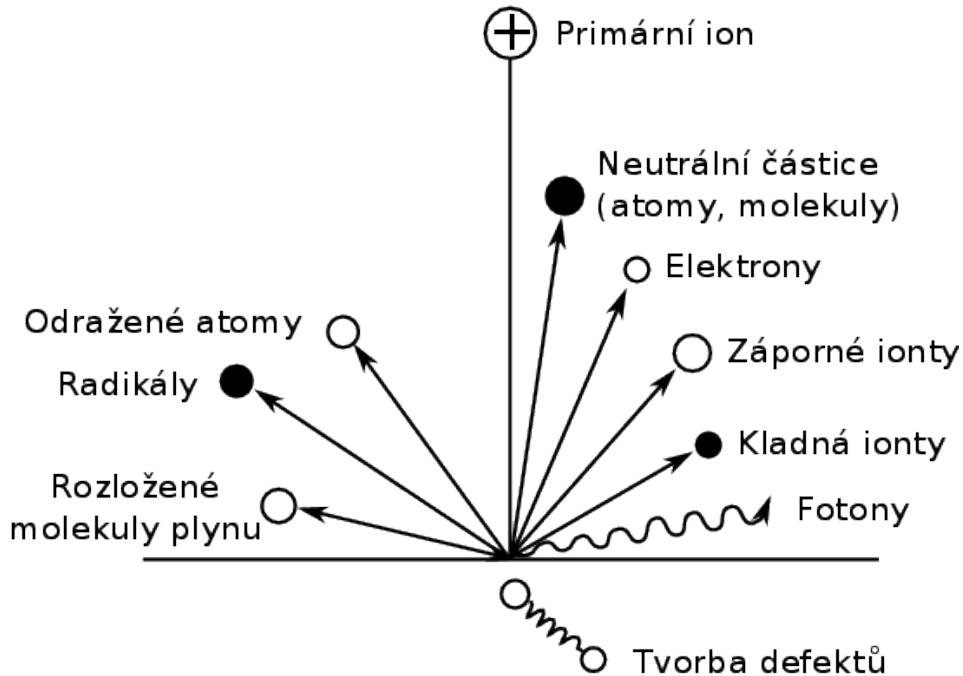


Figure 6.1: Důsledky iontového bombardování.

6.3 Účinný průřez

Vystavení materiálu proudu atomů, či iontů vede k vzájemné interakci velkého množství částic. Proto je obvyklé popisovat tento děj pomocí pravděpodobnostních veličin, založených na pravděpodobnosti rozptylu částic. Uvažujme částici mířící do bodu ve vzdálenosti b od středu jiné částice. Schéma odklonění této částice je na obrázku 6.2.

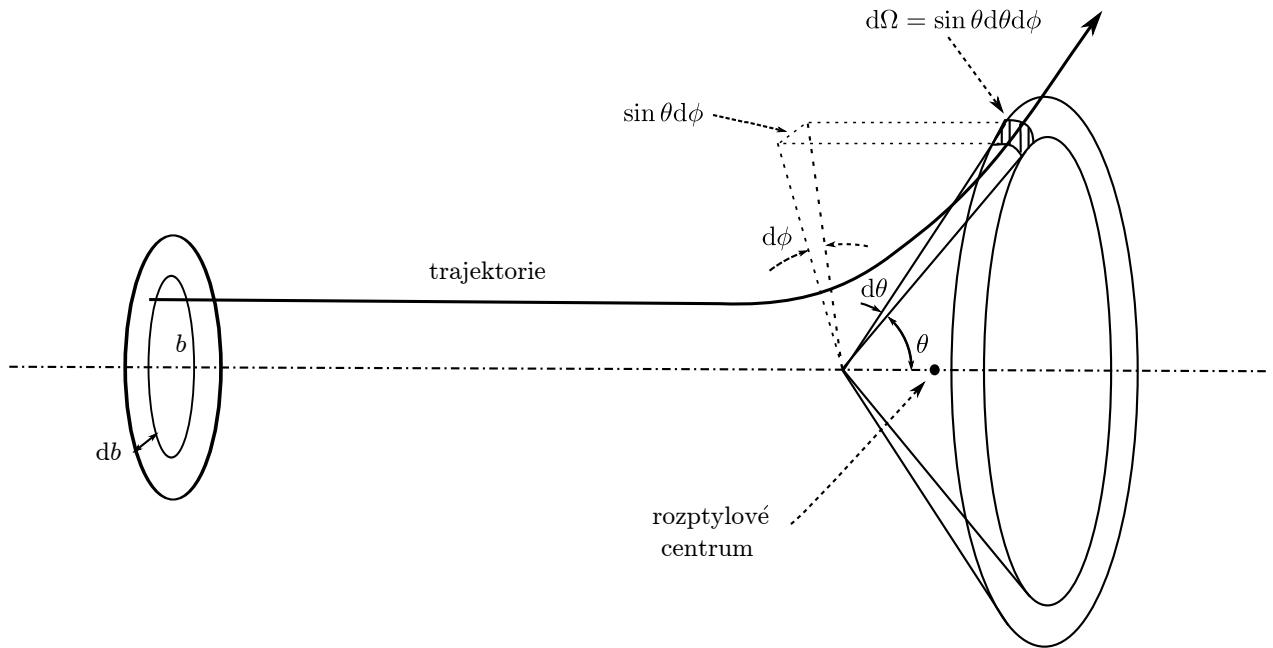


Figure 6.2: Schéma rozptylu lehké částice

Veličina b je jeden ze srážkových parametrů, tzv. záměrná vzdálenost. Tok částic bude značen Γ . Částice vstupující do srážky z diferenciální oblasti $b db d\phi_i$ opouštějí s určitou pravděpodobností srážku skrze diferenciální prostorový úhel Ω definovaný pomocí rozptylového úhlu θ_i a orientace roviny srážky ϕ_i jako

$$d\Omega = \sin \theta_i d\theta_i d\phi_i. \quad (6.5)$$

Konstantou úměrnosti je diferenciální účinný průřez $\sigma(\theta_i, \phi_i)$:

$$\Gamma b db d\phi = \sigma(\theta_i, \phi_i) \Gamma d\Omega. \quad (6.6)$$

Protože obě strany rovnice (6.6) odpovídají množství částic rozptylených za jednotku času, tedy výrazu dN/dt , lze diferenciální účinný průřez považovat za množství částic rozptylených za jednotku času a vstupního úhlu do prostorového úhlu $d\Omega$:

$$\sigma(\theta_i, \phi_i) = \frac{dN}{dt \Gamma d\Omega} \quad (6.7)$$

Diferenciální účinný průřez lze vyjádřit z rovnic (6.5) a (6.6) jako

$$\sigma(\theta_i, \phi_i) = \frac{b}{\sin \theta_i} \left| \frac{db}{d\theta_i} \right|. \quad (6.8)$$

Velikost $db/d\theta$ je určena interakční silou, která vyvolává rozptyl. Absolutní hodnota je použita, protože θ obvykle klesá se vzrůstajícím b a $\sigma(\theta_i a \phi_i)$ jsou kladné veličiny.

Celkový účinný průřez σ_t lze vypočítat integrací σ přes celý prostor

$$\sigma_t = \int_{\Omega} \sigma(\theta_i, \phi_i) d\Omega = \int_0^{2\pi} \int_0^{\pi} \sigma(\theta_i, \phi_i) d\theta d\phi. \quad (6.9)$$

Veličiny $\sigma(\theta_i, \phi_i)$ a σ_t závisí na velikosti vzájemné rychlosti částic. V případě centrálně působící sily závisí vzájemný interakční potenciál pouze na vzájemné vzdálenosti částic r . Takový potenciál je izotropní, takže výsledný diferenciální účinný průřez nezávisí na ϕ :

$$\sigma_t = 2\pi \int_0^{\pi} \sigma(\theta_i) d\theta. \quad (6.10)$$

Například Coulombova síla splňuje toto kritérium.

Uvažujme nepohybující se částice rozmístěné s hustotou n_t . Pokud ke srážkám s dopadajícím svazkem částic dochází poměrně zřídka, lze počet částic, které projdou srážkou během průletu oblasti dx lze vyjádřit jako

$$dn = -\sigma_{\text{tot}} n n_t dx. \quad (6.11)$$

Při studiu zastavení iontů v materiálu bývá užitečné znát pravděpodobnost, že projektil s energií $E_{i,0}$ předá zasaženému atomu množství energie v rozmezí E_t a $E_t + dE_t$. Tato pravděpodobnostní funkce definuje účinný průřez pro přenos energie $\sigma_E(E_t)$, který je ve vztahu s účinným průřezem $\sigma(\theta_i, \phi_i)$ jako

$$\sigma_E(E_t) dE_t = \sigma(\theta_i, \phi_i) d\theta_i d\phi_i. \quad (6.12)$$

6.4 Dynamika elastické srážky

Aby bylo možno určit diferenciální účinný průřez z rovnice (6.8) je nutné najít závislost mezi parametrem rozptylu b a úhlem rozptylu θ_i . Závislost lze stanovit i bez konkrétní znalosti přesné závislosti interakční sily působící mezi částicemi. Za předpoklady centrálně působící sily $\mathbf{F}(r) = F(r)\hat{\mathbf{r}}$ lze využít potenciální energie $U(r)$ díky vztahu

$$\mathbf{F}(r) = -\nabla U(r) = -\frac{dU(r)}{dr} \hat{\mathbf{r}}. \quad (6.13)$$

Úhel rozptylu θ_i pak lze zapsat ve tvaru

$$\theta_i(b, v) = \pi - 2 \int_{r_{\min}}^{\infty} \frac{b}{r^2} \left[1 - \frac{b^2}{r^2} - \frac{2U(r)}{\mu v^2} \right]^{-1/2} dr \quad (6.14)$$

kde v je relativní rychlosť částic a r_{\min} je nejmenší vzájemná vzdálenost, která je dána vztahem

$$r_{\min} = b \left[1 - \frac{2U(r_{\min})}{\mu v^2} \right]^{-1/2}. \quad (6.15)$$

6.4.1 Stínící potenciál

Interakce dvou atomových jader je dána coulombovskou potenciální energií

$$U_C(r) = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{Z_i Z_t e^2}{r}. \quad (6.16)$$

Interakce dvou atomů je však složitější, neboť zahrnuje i vliv elektronového obalu a jeho závislost na vzdálenosti. Existují dvě užitečné veličiny, které ohraničují problém a to Bohrův poloměr a_0

$$a_0 = \frac{4\pi\epsilon_0\hbar^2}{m_e e^2}, \quad (6.17)$$

a meziatomová vzdálenost v krystalu r_0 . Bohrův poloměr $a_0 = 0.053$ nm, označuje dosah elektronové slupky atomu. Meziatomová vzdálenost, typicky $r_0 = 0.25$ nm, je vzdálenost mezi mezi dvěma vázanými atomy daná minimem potenciální energie krystalu. Náboj jádra je na vzdálenost $r \gg r_0$ velmi dobře odstíněn elektrony z elektronového obalu. Jak se atomy k sobě přibližují, začnou se elektronové obaly překrývat a může dojít k přitahování atomů a vzniku vazby. V extrémním případě $r \ll a_0$ se jádra stanou vzájemně nejblíže položenými nabitémi částicemi v systému. V takovém případě jejich Coulombovská interakce dominuje a potenciální energie je velmi dobře popsána rovnici (6.16).

Ve střední vzdálenosti $a_0 < r \leq r_0$, má kladná interakční energie, vedoucí na odpudivou sílu, dvě složky (i) elektrostatická odpudivá interakce mezi dvěma jádry (ii) zvýšení energie na základě Pauliho vylučovacího principu.

Ačkoliv přesný popis meziatomové interakce zahrnuje komplikované efekty elektronového obalu, předchozí diskuze ukazuje, že stačí uvažovat rovnici (6.16) upravenou vhodnou limitující funkcí. Ve výsledku je stíněný Coulombovský potenciál popisován tvarem

$$U(r) = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{Z_i Z_t e^2}{r} \chi(r) \quad (6.18)$$

kde χ je stínící funkce. Za ideálních podmínek by $\chi(r)$ mělo jít k nule pro velké vzdálenosti a k jedničce pro malé vzdálenosti.

V podstatě existují dva způsoby vyjádření stínící funkce, (i) jednoduchý statistický a (ii) kvantově-mechanický Hartee-Fockův atomový model.

Thomas-Fermiho statistický model stínící funkce

Statistický Thomas-Fermi (TF) popis předpokládá, že se elektrony chovají jako ideální plyn složený z částic o energii E . Elektrony podléhají Fermi-Diracově statistice a vyplňují potenciálovou jámu v okolí pozitivně nabitého jádra. Tento model evidentně nebene v potaz různé elektronové hladiny.

Přesné řešení TF modelu stínící funkce je obvykle získáno numericky. Avšak pro mnoho aplikací je výhodné mít k dispozici analytické řešení, které přibližně odpovídá TF rovnici. Nejstarší a nejznámější je Sommerfeldův asymptotický výraz:

$$\chi(x) = \left[1 + \left(\frac{x}{a} \right)^{\lambda} \right]^{-c} \quad (6.19)$$

kde konstanty a , λ a c jsou voleny následujícím způsobem: $a = 12^{2/3}$ a $c\lambda = 3$. Normalizovaná meziatomová vzdálenost $x = r/a_{\text{TF}}$ je následně modifikována pomocí TF stínícím poloměrem pro srážky mezi atomy

$$a_{\text{TF}} = \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{3\pi}{4} \right)^{3/2} \frac{a_0}{Z_{\text{eff}}^{1/3}} \quad (6.20)$$

kde Z_{eff} je efektivní náboj při interakci dvou rozdílných atomů

$$Z_{\text{eff}} = (Z_i^{1/2} + Z_t^{1/2})^2. \quad (6.21)$$

Sommerfield zjistil, že pro velké x jsou přibližné hodnoty λ a $c\lambda = 0.772$ a $c = 3.886$. Tím dává konečný tvar rovnice (6.22) jako

$$\chi(x) = \left[1 + \frac{x}{12^{2/3}} \right]^{-3.886} \quad (6.22)$$

Další častou používanou approximací stínící funkce je tvar odvozený Molierem ve formě tří exponenciál:

$$\chi(x) = 7p \exp(-qx) + 11p \exp(-4qx) + 2p \exp(20qx) \quad (6.23)$$

kde $p = 0.05$ a $q = 0.3$. Matematicky jednoduché analytické řešení stínící funkce lze vytvořit při využití inverzní $x = r/a_{\text{TF}}$ s exponentem pro různé rozsahy r/a_{TF} :

$$\chi(r) = \frac{k_s}{s} \left(\frac{a_{\text{TF}}}{r} \right)^{s-1} \quad (6.24)$$

kde $s = 1, 2, \dots$ a k_s je numerická konstanta.

Univerzální meziatomový potenciál - kvantově mechanické odvození

Stínící funkce odvozená za použití kvantové mechaniky vytváří tvar, který je obvykle nazýván jako *univerzální meziatomový potenciál*. Díky práci Zieglera, Biersacka a Littmarka byla odvozena stínící funkce ve tvaru:

$$\chi_U = 0.1818 \exp(-3.2x) + 0.5099 \exp(-0.9423x) + 0.2802 \exp(-0.4028x) + 0.02817 \exp(-0.2016) \quad (6.25)$$

kde je redukovaná délka x dána jako

$$x = \frac{r}{a_U} \quad (6.26)$$

a a_U , univerzální stínící délka, je definována jako

$$a_U = \frac{0.8854 a_0}{Z_i^{0.23} + Z_t^{0.23}}. \quad (6.27)$$

Aplikujeme-li meziatomový potenciál se stínící funkcí Eq. (6.24) na rozptylový proces, získáme diferenciální účinný průřez pro rozptyl ve tvaru

$$\sigma_E(E_i) = \frac{C_m}{E_i^m E_t^{1+m}}, \quad (6.28)$$

kde $m = 1/s$ v rovnici (6.24) a konstanta C_m je dána jako

$$C_m = \frac{\pi}{2} \lambda_m a_{TF}^2 \left(\frac{Z_i Z_t e^2}{2\pi \varepsilon_0 a_{TF}} \right)^{2m} \frac{M_1^2}{M_2}, \quad (6.29)$$

kde λ_m je definováno

$$\lambda_{1/3} = 1.309 \quad \lambda_{1/2} = 0.327 \quad \lambda_{0.5} = 0.5. \quad (6.30)$$

6.5 Stopping power

Because $m_{ion} \sim m_{target}$, it leads to considerable energy loss due to elastic collisions. The energy loss is defined like $\Delta E/\Delta x \rightarrow dE/dx$, where $\Delta x \rightarrow 0$. Often

$$S \equiv \frac{dE}{dx} \quad (6.31)$$

is called **stopping power** or **specific energy loss**. The **stopping cross section** can be defined as:

$$\epsilon = \frac{1}{N} \frac{dE}{dx} \quad \text{or} \quad \epsilon = \frac{1}{\rho} \frac{dE}{dx}, \quad (6.32)$$

where N represent [atoms/m³] and ρ is the density [kg/m³]. Sometimes ϵ also represents stopping power.

Obecně lze celkovou ztrátu energie projektilu pohybujícího se v materiálu získat jako součet atomového a elektronového příspěvku:

$$S = S_n + S_e. \quad (6.33)$$

The relative importance of interactions between ions and matter depends on the ion speed, their charge and the atoms of the target

- for $v_{ion} \ll v_0$, where v_0 is the Bohr velocity of electrons in the atom. Ions will carry their electrons which tend to be neutralized by electron capture. At these speeds, the elastic collisions dominates and the losses are called **nuclear energy losses**.
- for higher velocities, the importance of nuclear energy losses decreases with a factor of $1/E$ and the inelastic collisions with electrons become important. Above 200 keV/amu, the contribution of nuclear energy losses is typically less than 1 % than electronic one. Between $0.1v_0 \leq v_{ion} \geq Z_1^{2/3}v_0$ electron collisions are proportional with the velocity ($E^{1/2}$).
- for $v \gg v_0$ the ion charge increases till it completely losses all electrons. The Bethe-Bloch Formula for the electron energy is

$$\frac{dE}{dx} = NZ_2(Z_1 e^2)^2 f(E/M_1), \quad (6.34)$$

where Z_1 is the ion atomic number.

6.5.1 Jaderné brzdění

Průměrná ztráta energie částice při pohybu o vzdálenost x lze získat pomocí diferenciálního účinného průřezu pro přenos energie σ_E . Ten je definován z rovnice (6.12) jako

$$\langle \frac{E}{x} \rangle = n \int_{E_{t,\min}}^{E_{t,\max}} E_t \sigma_E \frac{dE_t}{dx}, \quad (6.35)$$

kde $E_{t,\min}$ a $E_{t,\max}$ jsou minimální, respektive maximální energie předané zasaženému atomu.

Aplikujeme-li diferenciální účinný průřez ze vztahu (6.28), bude účinný průřez pro nukleární zastavování dán

$$S_n(E) = \frac{C_m E^{1-2m}}{1-m} \left[\frac{4M_i M_t}{(M_i + M_t)^2} \right]^{1-m}, \quad (6.36)$$

kde C_m je definováno v rovnici (6.29).

Účinný průřez pro jaderné brzdění roste pro nízké hodnoty energie a dosahuje maxima pro jednotky keV pro lehké ionty a stovky keV pro těžké ionty. Lze ho spočítat pro iont s energií E na základě vztahu odvozeného Zieglerem a kolektivem jako

$$S_n = \frac{8.462 Z_i Z_t S_n(E_r)}{(M_i + M_t) + (Z_i^{0.23} + Z_t^{0.23})} \text{eVcm}^2 / 10^{15} \text{atomů}, \quad (6.37)$$

kde E_r je redukovaná energie vyjádřená jako

$$E_r = \frac{32.53 M_t E}{Z_i Z_t (M_i + M_t) Z_i^{0.23} + Z_t^{0.23}} \quad (6.38)$$

a $S_n(E_r)$ je redukované nukleární brzdění definované jako

$$S_n(E_r) = \frac{\ln(1 + 1.1383 E_r)}{2(E_r + 0.01321 E_r^{0.21226} + 0.19593 E_r^{0.5})} \quad \text{pro} \quad E_r \leq 30 \text{ keV} \quad (6.39)$$

nebo

$$S_n(E_r) = \frac{\ln E_r}{2E_r} \quad \text{pro} \quad E_r > 30 \text{ keV}. \quad (6.40)$$

Nad 200 keV/amu je příspěvek nukleárního brzdění malý, typicky pod 1 % elektronového brzdění.

6.5.2 Elektronové brzdění

Množství srážek s elektrony, které podstoupí iont při průletu pevnou látkou je obrovské. Zároveň může velmi často docházet ke změně náboje iontu. Je proto velice obtížné popsat všechny možné interakce pro všechny možné stavy iontu. Místo toho se brzdění obvykle vyjadřuje jako průměrná ztráta energie pro různé stavy iontu. Tímto přístupem lze teoreticky určit výsledek s chybou odpovídající několika málo procentům při energiích kolem stovky keV. Nejpřesnější je Betheho formule:

$$S = \frac{4\pi}{m_e c^2} \frac{n z^2}{\beta^2} \left(\frac{e^2}{4\pi\varepsilon_0} \right)^2 \left[\ln\left(\frac{2m_e c^2 \beta^2}{I(1-\beta^2)}\right) - \beta^2 \right], \quad (6.41)$$

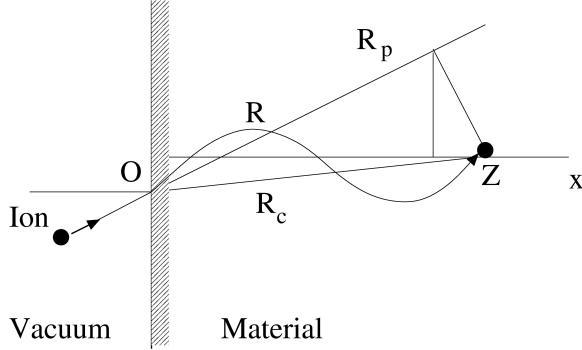


Figure 6.3: Calculation of total distance of ion.

kde v rychlosť iontu, c je rychlosť svetla, $\beta = v/c$, ze je náboj iontu, m_e je klidová hmotnosť elektronu, $n = N_A Z \rho / A$ je elektronová hustota terče a I excitačný potenciál terče.

Pro nižší energie pod približne 100 keV na nukleon, býva obtížnejší určiť brzdný účinek z teorie

Pro rychlosť iontu v rozsahu $\approx 0.1v_0$ to $Z_i^{2/3}v_0$ je ztráta energie díky elektronům približne úměrná $E^{1/2}$, jak odvodil Lindhard a kolektiv. Při vyšších rychlostech $v_{i,0} \gg v_0$ dochází k postupné ztrátě elektronů z obalu iontu až je nakonec zcela ztratí. V takovém případě je ztráta energie úměrná druhé mocnině náboje iontu.

6.6 Penetration depth - Dolet iontů

Jeden z nejdůležitějších parametrů jakékoli interakce mezi ionty a pevnou látkou je rozložení hloubky (vzdálenosti), ve které se ionty zastaví. Obvyklé rozložení v amorfni látce iontů majících stejnou energii je približne gaussovské. Může proto být obvykle charakterizováno projekcí dráhy R_p a šírkou rozptylu ΔR_p kolem této střední hodnoty, jak je zobrazeno na obrázku 6.3.

The *range* R - the total distance that the ion (projectile) travels in coming to rest, is longer than the penetration depth x . The **projected range** R_p is defined as the total path length of the projectile with energies $0.002 \leq \epsilon \leq 0.1$ keV measured along the direction of incidence.

$$R_p = C_1(\mu) M_2 \left[\left(\frac{Z_1^{2/3} + Z_2^{2/3}}{Z_1 Z_2} \right) E \right]^{2/3}, \quad (6.42)$$

where M_2 is the atomic mass of the target, Z is the atomic number while $C_1(\mu)$ is experimentally determined. for projectiles with energies $0.5 \leq \epsilon \leq 10$ keV is

$$R_p = C_1(\mu) M_2 \left[\left(\frac{(Z_1^{2/3} + Z_2^{2/3})^{1/2}}{Z_1 Z_2} \right) E \right]^{2/3}. \quad (6.43)$$

Penetration depth of protons: Protons interactions are similar to electron ones, but some peculiarities can be observed. Being 1836 times the mass of electron, has a higher angular momentum and loses only a small portion of energy at each collision \Rightarrow penetration depth is greater than for electrons. For 2.5 MeV proton, the penetration depth is around 55 μm for carbon and 28 μm for silver; it decreases with the the proton energy and Z of the material.

Penetration depth depends on the number of protons in the ion, its energy and the target. For low energies (several eVs) it is reflected from the target and part of its energy is transferred to the surface atom, causing ejection of atoms, ions or clusters. It can also create cascade collisions.

Ion channelling is possible along crystallographic axes with small critical angles. In this case the penetration depth is substantially increased.

6.7 Radiační poškození

Přilétající ion s energií odpovídající 100 keV, se v pevné látce zastaví za čas řádově 10^{-13} s díky elektronovému a nukleárnímu brzdění. Během své dráhy v pevné látce vykoná dopadající iont mnoho srážek s atomy pevné látky. Když se jedná o krystalickou látku, může být energie předaná při srážce dostatečná k vyražení atomu z jeho polohy v mřížce.

Takto primárně vyražený atom může následně vyrážet další atomy (sekundární, terciární), čímž vytvoří kaskády atomových srážek. Takovéto srážky vedou k vytvoření prázdných míst, uvěznění atomu mimo mřížku a dalším typům krystalových poruch podél dráhy dopadajícího iontu. Tato sekvence mnoha srážek je obvykle nazývána srážkovou kaskádou.

Teorie popisující radiační poškození v pevných látkách je založena na předpokladu, že atom vyražený ze svého místa v krystalu buď iontem, nebo jiným odskočeným atomem musí během srážky získat určitou minimální energii. Dislokační energie E_d je energie kterou musí atom získat, aby byl vyražen z mřížky.

Termální ohřev: Během srážkové kaskády postupně nastane situace, kdy vyražené atomy vyšších řádů již nebudou mít dostatek energie, aby vyrazily další atomy z jejich poloh v mřížce. Další srážky s atomy pevné látky tak pouze způsobí rozvibrování zasažených atomů s velkou amplitudou výchylky. Tyto vibrace se postupně přenáší na další atomy a energie je rozložena do vibrace mřížky, tedy tepla.

Po přibližně 10^{-12} s je dosažen stav termodynamické rovnováhy, kdy se rozdelení vibračních energie začne blížit Maxwell-Boltzmanově rozdělení. Tato fáze srážkové kaskády se nazývá termální ohřev a může trvat i několik pikosekund, než dojde k poklesu na původní teplotu.

Rozprašování: Výtěžnost Y popisuje, kolik atomů je vyraženo během rozprašovací události. Celková výtěžnost je pak definována jako průměrný počet rozprášených atomů připadající na jeden dopadající atom.

Celkové chování atomů terče po dopadu částice lze rozdělit do pěti rozdílných skupin podle E_i , Z_i a M_i , Z_t a M_t . V lineární kaskádní teorii předává počáteční iont energii atomům v mřížce, které jsou v klidu. Produkují tak velké množství rychlých atomů, které následně produkují další pomalejší atomy. Vzniká tak izotropická kaskáda. Přibližně za $1-5 \times 10^{13}$ s po dopadu iontu již energie na hranici kaskády klesne pod limitní energii nutnou k vyražení dalšího atomu (přibližně 10 eV). Kaskáda tak zanikne rozptýlením energie do vibrací mřížky. Použijeme-li tuto teorii, lze výtěžnost spočítat pomocí analytického vztahu.

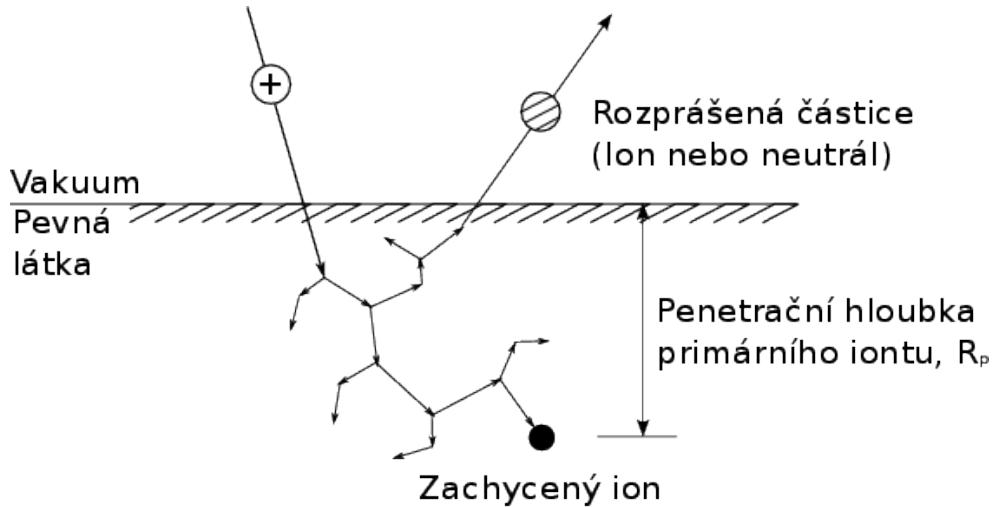


Figure 6.4: Rozprašování

$$Y(E_i, \theta_i) = \frac{K_{it}}{U_0} S_n(E_i/E_{it}) f(\theta_i), \quad (6.44)$$

kde U_0 je velikost potenciálového valu na povrchu (v eV), K_{it} a E_{it} jsou škálovací konstanty závislé na chemickém složení terče a dopadajícím iontu, $S_n(E_i/E_{it})$ je redukovaný účinný průřez pro jaderné brzdění, ($\epsilon = E_i/E_{it}$ je redukovaná energie) a $f(\theta_i)$ je funkce popisující sklon, pod nímž došlo k nárazu.

6.8 Secondary ion-electron emission

According to the adiabatic principle, heavy ions are not efficient for transferring energy to light electrons to provide ionization. This general statement can be referred to the direct electron emission from solid surfaces induced by ion impact.

The secondary electron emission coefficient γ (electron yield per ion) becomes relatively high only at very high ion energies exceeding 1 keV, when the Massey parameter becomes low. Although the secondary electron emission coefficient γ is low at lower ion energies, it is not negligible and remains almost constant at ion energies below the kilovolt range.

$$\gamma = \frac{i_e}{i_i}. \quad (6.45)$$

Total γ coefficient is the sum of

$$\gamma = \gamma_p + \gamma_k, \quad (6.46)$$

where γ_p is the potential emission and γ_k for the kinetic one. The **Penning mechanism of secondary ion-electron emission**, also called the potential mechanism defines the ion approaching the surface which extracts an electron from there because the ionization potential Φ exceeds the work function ϕ . The defect of energy $\Phi - \phi$ is usually large enough ($\Phi - \phi > \phi$) to enable the

escape of more than one electron from the surface. Such a process is non-adiabatic and its probability is not negligible. The **secondary ion-electron emission coefficient** γ can be estimated using the empirical formula:

$$\Phi \geq 2\phi, \quad (6.47)$$

⇒ potential emissions are observed especially when bombing the surface with ions of inert gases that have high Φ . γ_p is higher for higher ion charge.

Ion-neutralization spectroscopy (INS) is an emission electron spectroscopy. In INS the externally applied agent is a slowly moving positive ion, such as He^+ , presented to the solid surface. Near the surface a non radiative, Auger type electronic transition process occurs which simultaneously neutralizes the ion to the ground state of the parent atom and excites a second electron, which may be ejected into vacuum. The kinetic-energy distribution of these ejected electrons contains spectroscopic information concerning the electronic structure in the surface region of the solid.

- When the incoming ions is just outside the metal surface, two electrons in the filled valence band of the metal interact, exchanging energy and momentum.
- One electron, the neutralizing electron, tunnels through the potential barrier into the potential well presented by the ion, and drops to the vacant atomic ground level.
- The energy released in this transition is taken up by the second interacting election which now may have sufficient energy to escape from the metal
- These Auger type transition can take place anywhere within the filled valence band so that the ejected electrons have a range of energies rather than one specific energy. Outside the metal surface the electron energy distribution can be measured quite straightforwardly.

6.9 Ion sources

In case of surface and thin films analysis can ion sources can be used. Suitable sources provide proper ion beams for surface cleaning and for surface layer sputtering in order obtain a depth profile (such as XPS or AES), primary beam for static and dynamic SIMS. Another sources are represented by the particles accelerators used for energetic ion analysis (such as RBS, PIXE, NRA, ERDA etc.)

The ionization methods can be classified according to:

- electron impact
- fast atom bombardment
- electro-spray ionization
- gas discharge ion sources
- solid state surface atom ionisation sources
- high electric field desorption

Ion beam focus:

- wide ion beam sources
- narrow focused ion beam sources

6.9.1 Electron impact ionisation sources

The principle of ionization source is similar as a ionisation gauge. The only modification include a geometry of gauge and ion collector must be replaced by the system which is able to extract the produced ions. Ionisation space is inside the cylinder - screened by anode with the ion trap at the end. Electrons are accelerated from a thermionic emission cathode by high voltage (100 - 500 V). The electrons travel through the ionisation space and ionize gas molecules around them. The resulting ions are collected at a negative trap electrode - thus resulting in an ion beam. The operating pressure is lower 0.01 Pa and the source provides high focused ion beam with beam current to 10 μA . Due to its properties it is possible another manipulation in ion optics.

Another source modification - double anode source. Two parallel bars - anodes - are placed along the cylindrical cathode (voltage up to 10 kV). Electrostatic field with a saddle point is form on anode axis. Electrons oscillate around this point and they are effectively ionise the gas. The produced ions are accelerated along the plane symmetry to cathode with the outlet. Operation pressure is tenths of Pa, ion current is tens of μA . Electrons are ejected in the form of diverging beam with wide energy distribution → they are inappropriate to another manipulation in ion optics. It causes a high chromaticism. In consequence, it is use to surface sputtering.

6.9.2 Plasma sources

Plasma sources generate plasma - excitation of the gas requires ionization of neutral atoms and molecules. High intensity electric field extracts ions from the plasma surface (negative charged electrode). The dependency of extracts ion current I and electrode surface voltage U_{ex} on the thickness d is described by Child-Langmuir law

$$I \approx U_{\text{ex}}^{3/2} / d^2. \quad (6.48)$$

Two types of plasma sources are most often use to surface and thin films analyses. In van der Graff accelerators, high frequency discharge are the ion sources generally use to analysis with ion energy in order MeV. The duoplasmatron is a type of ion source compresses the plasma by a magnetic field in front of the extraction system. The plasma is so dense that matching to the extraction field strength requires an expansion cup to lower the current density. Most often is used as a source of Ar and O ions.

High frequency ion source

Ions can be created in an inductively or capacitively coupled plasma. The electric field has a frequency in order tenth of MHz, the power is tenth to hundreds of W, the pressure is units of Pa, current is from tenth of μA to tenth of mA. The ionization efficiency can be enhanced by magnetic field.

Two types of inductively coupled RF structures are most common. In one type, the induction coil is placed outside a glass or quartz cylindrical tube in which the plasma is generated. The other type has a metallic discharge chamber with an RF antenna inside the discharge plasma.

Although capacitively coupled RF sources are widely used in plasma etching processes, they are seldom employed for the production of ion beams. Capacitively coupled discharges form a very high positive plasma potential. As a result, material is sputtered from the chamber wall to form impurity ions in the extracted beam.

Duoplasmatron

The duoplasmatron operates as follows: a cathode filament emits electrons into a vacuum chamber, then the gas is introduced in very small quantities into the chamber, where it becomes charged or ionized through interactions with the free electrons from the cathode, forming a plasma. The plasma is then accelerated through a series of at least two highly charged grids, and becomes an ion beam, moving at fairly high speed from the aperture of the device. Duoplasmatrons are characterized by high efficiency - usually above 90 %.

The duoplasmatron components are:

- cathode (K)- generally the heated cathode (thermionic emission), sometimes (for oxygen ions) is use the hollow cold cathode
- intermediate electrode (IE),
- anode (A).

The intermediate electrode and anodes are ferromagnetic and create the part of magnetic circuit. Demirkhanov installed a ferromagnetic anticathode electrode to ensure oscillation of electrons in the anode region of the duoplasmatron. The anticathode was located behind a copper anode and had a potential close to the cathode potential. Electrons oscillating in the magnetic field (1500 G) efficiently ionize the gas at a low pressure of $\sim 5\text{--}10^{-3}$ Torr. When the anticathode negative bias relative to the anode was increased from 0 to 100 V, the ion current increased by a factor of five. The source, which had an outlet aperture 6 mm in diameter and an expansion cup 50 mm in diameter, provided a pulsed hydrogen ion current of up to 1.5 A at a discharge current of 20 A.

Duoplasmatrons can have different ion sources:

- Penning-type electrode system (PIG) to maintain a high current discharge by electrons supplied through a double electric layer from a plasma cathode, has been embodied most completely in the DuoPIGatron type ion source. The magnetic field diverges toward the ion optics, ensuring oscillation of primary electrons between the intermediate and screen electrodes and formation of a large, uniform plasma surface. To increase the cathode lifetime, an inert gas (argon) is fed into the cathode stage and oxygen into the anode stage of the source. An ion optics system with 13 holes of diameter 5 mm provided an ion beam current up to 170 mA at an accelerating voltage of up to 50 kV. After mass separation of the beam and acceleration of ions to energy of 200 keV, a beam of O^+ ions with current 100 mA was obtained. The filament cathode lifetime is over 25 hours.

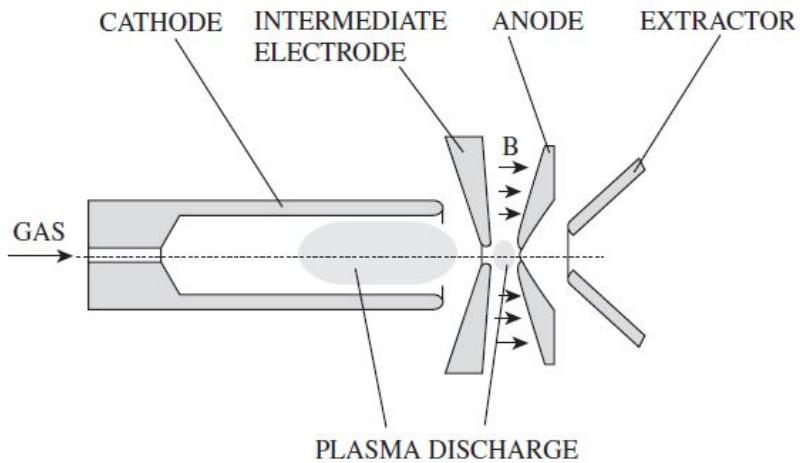


Figure 6.5: Duoplasmatron scheme.

- periplasmatron-type ion source has a unique electrode system design, which decreases heating of the screen electrode by thermal radiation of the cathode, reduces the effect of secondary electron back flow from the accelerating gap, and ensures a high uniformity of plasma flow to the screen grid. A rectangular variant of this source provided a hydrogen ion current of 96 A from an extractor 40 x 16 cm in size.
- magnetic-field-free source for use in neutral beam injectors has been developed in which the plasma is generated by a diffuse low-pressure high-current discharge, with a distributed thermionically emitting cathode. Twenty hairpin filaments, 0.5 mm in diameter, are installed around the periphery of the discharge chamber, 14 cm in diameter, near the cylindrical wall, which serves as the anode. The peripheral placement of the cathode provides generation of uniform ($\pm 6\%$), oscillation-free plasma of 12 cm diameter. For a discharge current of 1000 A the deuterium ion beam current density is 0.5 A cm^{-2} and the beam current 15 A at an extraction voltage of 15 kV.

6.9.3 Surface ionization sources

Surface ionization sources are commonly used for producing a Cs^+ ion beam. The surface ionization source emits ions from a hot plate. This configuration is ideal for designing beam optics with minimum aberration because the emitting surface is a solid boundary. In fact, the surface ionization source can be designed to produce a beam with very large aperture (and therefore high current per beam) because of the rigid emitting surface. The ion temperature from a surface ionization source is typically low, of the order of a fraction of an eV; therefore the beam emittance is kept low, even when the source diameter is large. The two main types of surface ionization sources are contact ionizers and aluminosilicate sources.

The ratio of density of emitted positive ions flux j_+ to density of emitted atoms flux j_a is

defined

$$j_+/j_a = \frac{g_+}{g_a} e^{-\frac{V_i - \phi}{kT}}, \quad (6.49)$$

where g_+ a g_a are statistical weight of ionized and atomic state of adsorbed atom, V_i is ionization energy of adsorbed atom, ϕ represents work function of solid, T is the temperature of solid and k is Boltzmann constant.

6.9.4 Field ionization

Field emission from sharp needle points at which very intense electric fields are created can be used to extract either electrons or ions from the solid (or liquid) state:

- liquid metal ion sources (LMIS) - is used in liquid metal ion sources to produce beams of species of low melting point metals such as Ga, In, Bi, Al, Sn, ... with extraordinarily high brightness
- gas field ion source (GFIS)

In both types the electric field with intensity 10 V/nm is use.

6.10 Ion scattering spectroscopy - ISS

Sometimes called Low Energy Ion Scattering Spectroscopy (LEIS) is a surface sensitive analytical technique used to characterize the chemical and structural properties of materials. The range of ion energies is from hundreds of eV to units keV. When a beam of ions hits a solid surface part of the projectiles will be scattered back into the vacuum after one or more collisions with target atoms of the layer. Measurement of the energy of the backscattered particles is use to identify chemical structure of solid. primary ion energies of 0.5 – 5 keV are used with noble gas ions (He, Ne, Ar) and also alkali ions (Li, Na, K). With this method, information is obtained from the topmost atomic layer, under certain circumstances also from the second or third layer.

6.10.1 Qualitative analysis

From the applied conservation and momentum laws in the case of two-body collisions it is possible to calculate the ion kinetic energy after a collision with a surface atom without knowing the interaction potential.

If the incident ion has energy E_0 , the mass M_1 and the surface atom M_2 , we obtain the energy and mass conservation relation for the backscatter energy E_1 :

$$\frac{E_1}{E_0} = \left[\frac{\cos \theta \pm [(M_2/M_1)^2 - \sin^2 \theta]^{1/2}}{M_2/M_1 + 1} \right]^2, \quad (6.50)$$

When this relation is derived, the kinetic energy of atom should be neglected

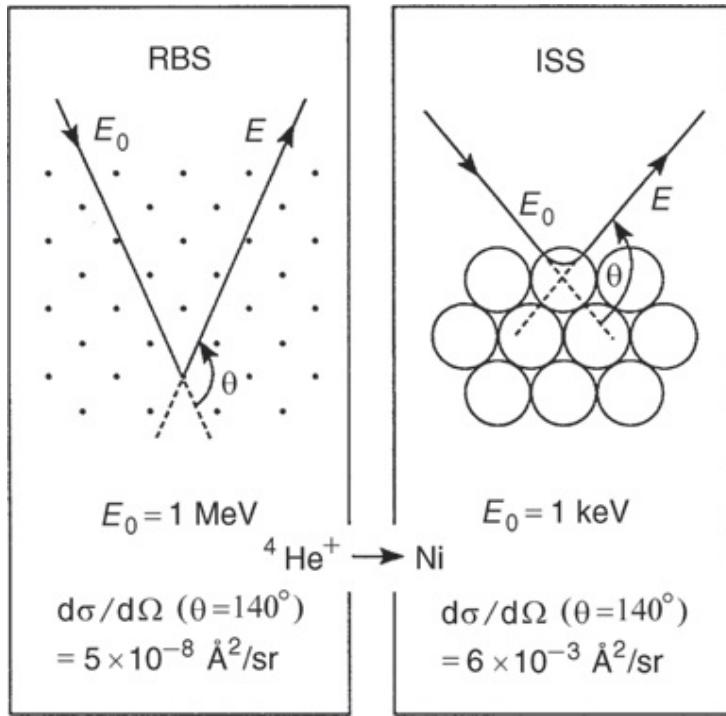


Figure 6.6: Comparison of RBS and ISS techniques.

For 90° and 180° : backscattering angles the relation is simplified:

$$\frac{E_1}{E_0} = \frac{M_2 - M_1}{M_2 + M_1} \quad \text{for } \theta = 90^\circ \quad (6.51)$$

$$\frac{E_1}{E_0} = \frac{(M_2 - M_1)^2}{(M_2 + M_1)^2} \quad \text{for } \theta = 180^\circ \quad (6.52)$$

The ration $K = E_1/E_0$ is named kinematic factor. The above relations show that the energy of ion after collision is given by the projectile and the target atom weight and the backscattered angle (for constant E_0) \Rightarrow determination of target atom mass M_2 . The corresponding expression for the recoiling target atom is:

$$\frac{E_2}{E_0} = \frac{4A}{(1+A)^2} \cos^2 \theta_2 \quad (6.53)$$

Scattered-ion energy spectra are transformed into mass spectra by the backscattered relation for $\theta = 180^\circ$. Consequently, the mass resolution also can be calculated from this equation for the special case of $\theta = 90^\circ$:

$$\frac{M_2}{\Delta M_2} = \frac{E}{\Delta E} \frac{2A}{A^2 - 1} \quad (6.54)$$

Assuming a constant relative energy resolution of the detector of $E/\Delta E = 100$ the mass resolution is better for large scattering angles and about equal ion and target atom masses. So the primary projectile mass has to be selected accordingly if mass resolution is important.

6.11 Rutherford backscattering spectroscopy - RBS

In Rutherford Backscattering Spectroscopy (RBS) the primary ion energy ranges from about 100 keV (for H^+) to several MeV (for He^+ and heavier ions). The ion-target atom interaction can be described using the Coulomb potential from which the Rutherford scattering cross-section is derived, which allows absolute quantification of the results. Information in principle arises from a thickness of the order of 100nm (10^{-5} cm), but analysis of surface layers is also possible by using channelling/blocking techniques. Scattering of H^+ with energies around 100 keV is sometimes referred to as MEIS (Medium Energy Ion Scattering), probably because it only needs a smaller type of accelerator, but physically it is within the RBS regime.

The physical principles are the same for both techniques (ISS and RBS): an ion beam is directed onto a solid surface, a part of the primary projectiles is backscattered from the sample and the energy distribution of these ions is measured. Since the ion–target atom interaction can be described by two-body collisions, the energy spectra can be easily converted into mass spectra. The difference between ISS and RBS arises from the difference in the cross-sections and the influence of electronic excitations and charge exchange processes, which result in different information depths. In both cases, structural information is obtained from crystalline samples by varying the angles between beam and sample. Deduction of structural information from the data is straightforward, since both techniques are "real space" methods which are based on fairly simple concepts. With ion scattering only the individual atoms of an element can be detected and no information on compounds or molecules can be gained.

In terms of analytical characteristics, is important the variable cross section for elastic scattering, which integrates a number of dispersed particles with the number of atoms in the substance to be examined. Differential scattering cross section at the angle θ in the laboratory system is then:

$$\frac{d\sigma_R}{d\Omega} = \left(\frac{Z_1 Z_2 e^2}{2E_0} \right)^2 \frac{\left[(M_2^2 - M_1^2 \sin^2 \theta)^{1/2} + M_2 \cos \theta \right]^2}{M_2 \sin^4 \theta (M_2^2 - M_1^2 \sin^2 \theta)^{1/2}}, \quad (6.55)$$

where Z_1 and Z_2 are the atomic numbers of the ion and the target.

Analysis using heavier particles and lower energies can play a significant role in electron screening. In such cases the first correct approximation of the cross section is multiply by the correction factor F in the form:

$$F = \frac{\sigma}{\sigma_R} = 1 - \frac{0,049 Z_1 Z_2^{4/3}}{E_{CM}}, \quad (6.56)$$

where E_{CM} is the energy of particles expressed in keV. In a conventional design RBS the correction is below 5 %. Significant deviation of the cross section appear when the energy of the particles is increased , or particles with lower atomic number are used. The effect of nuclear forces appears when the scattered are scattered at large angles and energies $E_0 > E_{critical}$

$$E_{critical} = 10^3 Z_1 Z_2 M_2^{-1/3}. \quad (6.57)$$

For example, nuclear effects occur when the α particles ($Z_1 = 2$, $M_1 = 4$)on Si atoms ($Z_2 = 14$, $M_2 = 28$) sat energies $E_{krit} > 9$ MeV are scattered.

6.11.1 Elemental composition determination

The basic relationship is

$$Y = QN \int_{\Delta\omega} \frac{d\sigma}{d\Omega} d\Omega, \quad (6.58)$$

where Y is the number of the dispersed particles registered, Q is the number of incident particles, N is the area density in the layer (atoms/cm^2) and $\Delta\omega$ is the interval of the solid angle from which is detected the scattered particle. The equation can be applied in a layer containing multi-elements or a thin layer on a stronger substrate.

6.11.2 Energy loss

Only a small fraction of the primary ions come close enough to a target nucleus (impact parameters of the order of 10^{-12} cm) to undergo an elastic nuclear collision which is described by the kinematics given in the previous section. If such an ion is backscattered, its final energy is determined by the *elastic* nuclear collision in a certain depth of the sample and the additional *inelastic* energy loss to electrons on its way in and out of the target.

The relation for energy loss per unit length, $-dE/dx$ given in $\text{eV}/\text{\AA}$ and commonly called **stopping power**:

$$S = -\frac{dE}{dx} \quad (\text{keV.cm}^{-1}), \quad (6.59)$$

The stopping cross section ϵ ($\text{eV}/(\text{atoms}/\text{cm}^2)$) relates this quantity to the atomic density N and is therefore more specific for a

$$\epsilon = \frac{1}{N} S \quad (\text{keV.cm}^2), \quad (6.60)$$

The stopping power curve exhibits a broad maximum around 1 MeV and that is the operational regime of RBS: here, the stopping power does not depend very much on the ion energy and hence can be assumed to be constant as a sufficient approximation in many cases; the stopping power there has its maximum value and therefore RBS its best depth resolution and in this energy range the nuclear interaction is exactly given by the Coulomb potential, giving RBS the advantage of an absolute analytical method. Stopping cross section for a particle with energy E and a mixture of A_mB_n elements is

$$\epsilon^{A_mB_n} = m\epsilon^A(E) + n\epsilon^B(E), \quad (6.61)$$

where $\epsilon^A(E)$ and $\epsilon^B(E)$ are the stopping cross sections for the elements A and B.

6.12 Detection of ejected atoms - ERDA

Detection of light elements by RBS is difficult due to the low effective elastic scattering cross-sections and often because the signal lies on a high background originated by scattering on heavier elements. Therefore, the method used is ERDA (Elastic recoil detection analysis).

In this method, atoms or ions are detected which are removed from the surface by one single collision with an incoming projectile. They can therefore be identified by their kinetic energy. Directly recoiling particles are therefore different from those secondary particles that originate

from a collision cascade in a sputtering process and have a broad energy distribution around one to two eV. They are used in secondary ion or neutral mass spectroscopy. Recoil cross-sections are generally of the same order as scattering cross-sections. They are largest towards $\theta_2 = 90^\circ$, but then the recoil energy approaches zero. A useful energy range is obtained between 30° and 60° . ERDA is also often done using a relatively low energy (2 MeV) He beam specifically to depth profile hydrogen. In this technique multiple detectors are used, at backscattering angles to detect heavier elements by RBS and a forward (recoil) detector to simultaneously detect the recoiled hydrogen (the cross-section for which reaction is strongly non-Rutherford at these energies). The recoil detector has to have a *range foil*: a thin film (typically 6 micrometres of PET film) to preferentially stop the incident He beam scattered into the forward direction.

6.13 Secondary ion mass spectrometry - SIMS

Secondary Ion Mass Spectrometry (SIMS) is a relatively new technique for surface chemical analysis compared with Auger electron spectroscopy (AES) and X - ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS). SIMS examines the mass of ions escaped from a solid surface to obtain information on surface chemistry.

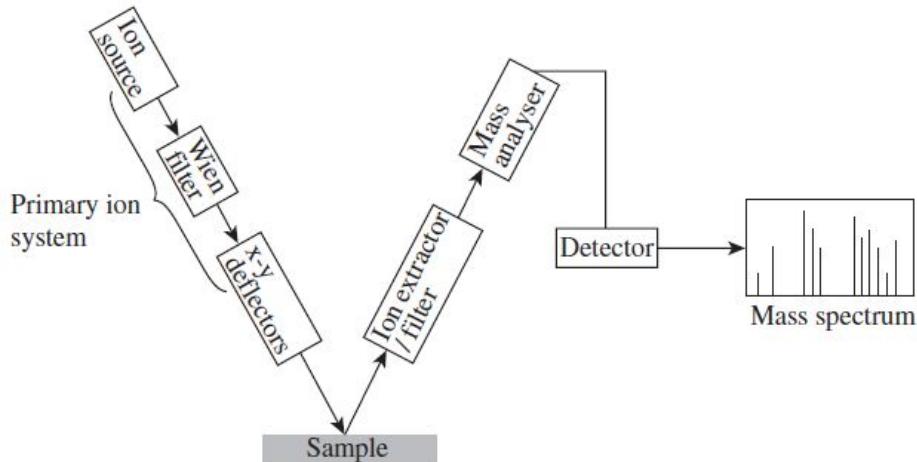


Figure 6.7: SIMS instrumentation.

SIMS uses energized primary particles, usually ions such as Ar^+ , Ga^+ and Cs^+ , to bombard a solid surface in order to induce sputtering of secondary particles from an area. The interactions between primary ions and the solid are rather complicated. First, the secondary particles include electrons, neutral species of atoms or molecules, and ions. The majority of the secondary particles are neutral and not useful in SIMS. Only the secondary ions generated by the bombarding process carry chemical information. Second, the interactions are often more than a simply one-to-one knock-out of a surface ion by a primary ion. Commonly, the primary ions induce a series of collisions (collision cascade) in a solid because the energy of a primary ion is transferred by

collisions between atoms in a solid before secondary ions on the surface are emitted. The ionization probability is strongly affected by the electronic properties of the sample matrix. Ionization directly affects the signal intensity of secondary ions as shown in the basic equation of secondary ion yield.

$$J_s^\pm = J_p c Y \beta^\pm f, \quad (6.62)$$

where J_p is the primary ion flux, Y is the sputter yield, c is concentration of species m in the surface layer, β^\pm represents the probability for positive ions and f is the transmission of the detection system. The transmission is defined as the ratio of the ions detected to ions emitted, and it varies from 0 to 1 depending on the analyser. The yield of elemental secondary ions can vary by several orders of magnitude across the periodic table.

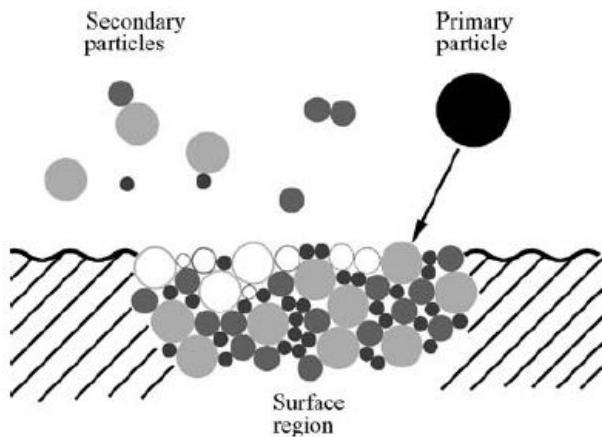


Figure 6.8: Secondary particle generation by an energetic primary particle.

6.13.1 Ion sputtering

Emission of secondary particles can result from collision sputtering or from other processes such as thermal sputtering. Collision sputtering includes direct collision sputtering and slow collision sputtering. The former can be considered as a direct impact between a primary ion and a surface atom. Direct collision sputtering is extremely fast, and occurs in the range of 10^{-15} to 10^{-14} seconds after the primary ion strikes a surface. Slow collision sputtering, represents the case that a primary ion never has chance to collide with a surface atom; instead, atoms in the solid transfer the impact energy to surface atoms after a series of collisions. The time scale of slow collision sputtering is in the range of 10^{-14} to 10^{-12} seconds.

Only a small portion of secondary particles ($\sim 1\%$ of total secondary particles) are ionized and become the secondary ions that are analysed in SIMS. A sputtered particle faces competition between ionization and neutralization processes when it escapes a sample surface. Ionization probability represents the chance of a sputtered particle being an ion.

6.13.2 Ion sources

The commonly used primary ions include argon (Ar^+), xenon (Xe^+), oxygen (O^{2+}), gallium (Ga^+) and caesium (Cs^+) ions. Heavier metal ions such as bismuth (Bi^+) are also available in modern static SIMS instruments. The ions of elements normally occurring in gaseous phases, such as oxygen and argon, are produced by electron bombardment sources or plasma ion sources. Electron bombardment sources use a circular filament cathode surrounding a cylindrical grid anode. The gas to be ionized is injected into the open space of the grid, and the gas molecules are bombarded by the electrons emitted from the cathode. The electrons travel in orbit inside the grid in order to increase their chances of striking gas molecules. An extraction field induced in the grid will draw the gas ion beam through an opening in the center of the extractor. The electron bombardment sources provide moderate brightness of primary ions ($\sim 10^5 \text{ Am}^{-2}$ per solid angle).

6.13.3 Mass analysis system

The mass analysis system collects and analyses the ion masses to produce mass spectra with the assistance of a computer. The extractor filter extracts secondary ions from the surface, selects a mass range of ions to analyse, and eliminates scattered primary ions from a mass spectrum. The

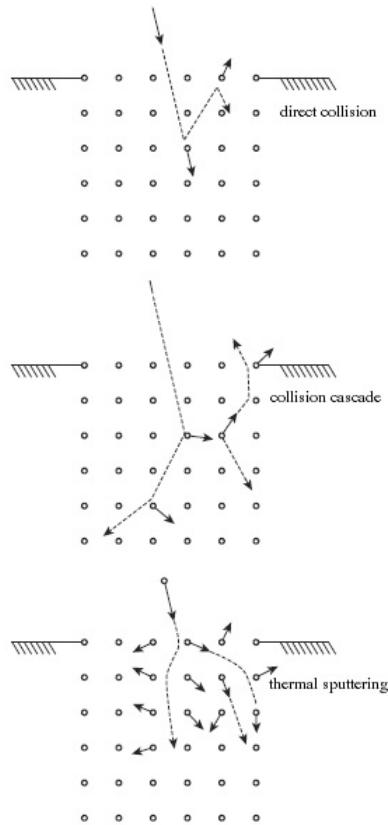


Figure 6.9: The sputtering process: (a) direct collision sputtering; (b) collision cascade; and (c) thermal sputtering.

mass analyser, the critical component for secondary ion mass analysis, can be one of the following types:

- magnetic sector analyser,
- quadrupole analyser,
- time-of-flight analyser.

Magnetic sector analyser

This analyser was the oldest type used for mass spectroscopy. Secondary ions are accelerated by an extraction potential of 4 kV before entering a magnetic field. The magnetic field in the magnetic sector will impose a field force in a direction orthogonal to the direction in which the ions travel. The ions with a given kinetic energy will change their travel path to a circular trajectory. The radius of path curvature R has the following relationship with the ion mass.

$$R = \frac{(2V)^{1/2}}{B} \left(\frac{m}{z} \right)^{1/2} \quad (6.63)$$

where the extraction potential (V) is constant. We can adjust the magnetic field strength B , to select ions with a certain mass-to-charge ratio (m/z) with a fixed radius of magnetic sector R .

Quadrupole mass analyser

The quadrupole mass analyser selects ions with a certain mz^{-1} by generating unstable oscillation travels for the non-selected ions. Oscillations of ion trajectories are created by an electric field combining a constant direct current (DC) and alternating current with a radio frequency (RF). The secondary ions are accelerated by an extraction field, and then the ions travel through the center of four circular rod electrodes. Combined DC and RF voltages are applied to one pair of rods and equal but opposite combined voltages are applied to another pair of rods. Such an arrangement of electric fields generates ion oscillation. The oscillation can be so severe that ion trajectories become unstable and ions strike the rods. Ions with unstable trajectories cannot travel through the exit slit of the analyser to reach the mass detector. Only the ions with a certain mz^{-1} have stable trajectories and can pass through the exit slit under a given ratio of DC:AC voltages. The analyser is a sequential type that only allows the ions with single mz^{-1} values to reach the detector. Thus, the quadrupole analyser is a device with low transmission, as less than 1% of ions can reach the detector at any time. To obtain a whole mz^{-1} spectrum, the analyser increases the voltages but keeps the ratio of DC:AC voltages constant.

Time-of-Flight analyzer

The time-of-flight (ToF) analyser is the most widely used analyser in static SIMS. As its name indicates, for this analyser the flight time of an ion is the parameter for measurement. When ions are obtained with a constant kinetic energy from an acceleration potential (V) of 3 – 8 kV, the flight time of ions through a distance (L) of flight tube to reach a detector is calculated.

$$t = L(2V)^{-1/2} \left(\frac{m}{z} \right)^{1/2} \quad (6.64)$$

Thus, the mz^{-1} of ions is analysed by measuring their flight time in the analyser. Heavier ions will have longer flight times in the tube. To measure the time of flight, precisely pulsed primary ions should be used. The pulse is controlled by a highly accurate clock. The pulse periods are typically in the order of 10 ns. The flight time of ions to the detector is electronically measured and converted to mz^{-1} . In a pulse period, all the ions can be measured and a whole mass spectrum can be obtained almost simultaneously. Again, the initial kinetic energy of secondary ions will affect the resolution of mass analysis, because the velocity could be different when ions with the same mz^{-1} enter the flight tube.