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Abstract

Sputter yields have been measured for chemically-vapor deposited polycrystalline diamond, carbon-carbon composite, and molybdenum subject to bombardment with xenon ions at 150, 250, 500, and 750 electron volts. The yields for molybdenum and carbon-carbon increased monotonically with energy, as expected, with values ranging from 0.36 at 150 eV to 1.4 at 750 eV for the molybdenum and 0.13 to 0.26 for the carbon-carbon. The yield for the polycrystalline diamond was non-monotonic in energy, due most likely to the surface topography. The diamond yield ranged from 0.17 to 0.33 over the range of energies investigated.

I. Introduction

In recent years there has been significant progress made in the production of chemically vapor deposited (CVD) diamond films. Improvements in quality, reproducibility, and growth rates ($> 10 \text{ mm hr}^{-1}$) have made diamond films attractive for a variety of applications in the fields of electronics, optics, and tribology, among others [1]. One potential application under evaluation at the Jet Propulsion Laboratory involves the use of diamond films as coatings for ion accelerator electrodes which are subject to sputter erosion [2]. While much has been published in the CVD diamond literature regarding its electronic, optical, and mechanical properties, there is relatively little in the way of sputter yields, and none to our knowledge specifically for bombardment with xenon at energies less than 1 keV.

The feasibility of using diamond films as an electrode material for ion thrusters is dependent upon a number of material properties in addition to the sputter yield. These

include thermal conductivity, electrical conductivity, and coefficient of thermal expansion. These properties have been discussed in a previous paper [2] in addition to fabrication issues and relative erosion rates at energies of 500 and 750 eV. In this paper, we present results for the absolute sputter yield, and corresponding erosion rate, of diamond subject to xenon ion bombardment at energies of 150, 250, 500, and 750 eV. While polycrystalline diamond was our primary interest, we were also interested in its yield relative to molybdenum and carbon-carbon composite, both in use as electrode materials.

II. Experiment

An important consideration when conducting sputter yield measurements is to minimize the influence of residual facility gases. Previous work suggests that the presence of nitrogen can lower the erosion rate of metals whereas oxygen has been shown to increase the erosion rates of carbon based materials. Reactive ion etching is one technique which has been used successfully to etch structures in diamond. In this technique a NO_2 gas jet incident on a diamond surface is used while the target is under bombardment with 2 keV xenon ions [4]. The incident ions in this case provide the activation energy required to form C_xN_y and CO_2 volatiles. Minimizing contamination is therefore essential to reduce the chances of reactively eroding the carbon targets and obtaining artificially high sputter yields. For these reasons the present test was conducted in a facility capable of relatively low ultimate pressures.

The system used was an ultra-high-vacuum chamber with a 3 cm Kaufman ion source (Commonwealth Scientific Corp.) normally used for sputter deposition. The vacuum chamber geometry is depicted in Fig. 2. The system is pumped with a turbomolecular pump (1.15 l./sec) backed by a small mechanical pump (0.8 l./sec) down into the 10^{-4} Pa (10^{-6} Torr) range and then with a 6" cryopump (1.5 l./sec) to the 10^{-7} Pa (10^{-9} Torr) range. The base and test pressures for each of the cam arc

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summarized in Table 1. As an additional measure, the chamber was baked at over 100°C every evening for several hours.

One drawback of using a chamber measuring approximately 12 inches high by 15 inches wide is the relative inflexibility of sample and probe placement. The samples were located approximately 2.6 inches downstream of the source exit plane. Although this resulted in relatively high incident current densities, and hence shorter test times, it also resulted in some non-uniformity of the ion current profile over the samples.

The present experimental approach included centering the probe on the point of maximum current density in the beam. This also introduces a non-normal incidence angle into the experiment. In addition, divergence of the ion beam also increases the angle of incidence. The angle of the target mount with respect to the source center-line is listed in Table 1 along with the divergence angle. A reasonable estimate of the incidence angle at the large angle (measured from the surface normal) is the sum of two angles. Unfortunately, we do not have data for the mount angle corresponding to the 500 CV case, but from the data at the other energies it is likely the mount angle was between 6 and 12 degrees. The incidence angle was therefore sonic when in the range of 9 to 22 degrees allowing for the uncertainty in the divergence angle.

III. Data Analysis

The present work utilized the technique where the depth of the eroded valley in the target material is measured with a micro-stylus or profilometer. One assumption inherent in this approach is that the valley depth represents an averaged volume removed per unit area where in fact it only represents the eroded profile at the location where the trace is taken. A true average would require multiple profilometer scans and then an integration of the "slices" to calculate the eroded volume. The diagram in Fig. 1 illustrates the relevant dimensions used in the calculation of eroded depth. Measuring the depth only at the center of the valley does not adequately take into account the profile of the valley walls which may not be vertical. It was found that the molybdenum tended to have more vertical walls than the polycrystalline diamond in which the valley walls sloped gently. In order to calculate a sputtered volume per unit area, or mean effective depth, the depth profile was integrated according to

$$h_{eff} = \frac{1}{(x_r - x_l)} \int_{x_l}^{x_r} (y(x)_{mean} - y(x)_{valley}) dx \quad (1)$$

The traces obtained from the profilometer were scanned into a computer and digitized. In addition to facilitating the integration in Eq. 1, this digitized mesa-

valley-mesa profile could be subjected to statistical analysis to quantify surface roughness.

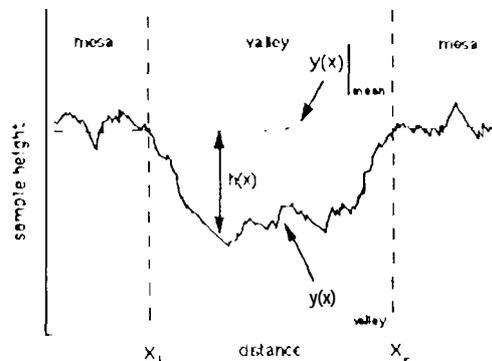


Fig. 1. Schematic of profilometer trace illustrating mesa curve fit which defines datum for depth measurements.

A least squares line fit through the mesa points establishes a datum, $y(x)_{mean}$, from which the valley depth at each x location can be measured. There is a standard deviation associated with this line fit as a result of the mesa surface roughness which is incorporated into the overall uncertainty estimate. The effective depth h_{eff} is then used to calculate the number N_A of target atoms removed per unit area;

$$N_A = \rho h_{eff} \frac{N_{avo}}{M} \quad (2)$$

where N_{avo} is Avogadro's number, M the molecular weight, and ρ the target density. The values for the sample density used in calculating the yields were 10.2 g/cm³ for molybdenum, 1.65 g/cm³ for carbon-carbon, and 3.5 g/cm³ for the CVD diamond. Because of difficulty measuring the CVD sample volume the density was estimated to be that of single crystal diamond. SEM imaging of the sample did not reveal any evidence of porosity indicating this is a good assumption.

A planar probe was used to measure current incident on the target. This probe surface was a 0.063" diameter tungsten disk which was biased to 25 V Mow facility ground to repel electrons. There are several effects which contribute to the experimental uncertainty in the reported measurements. These include secondary electron emission from the probe as well as collection of doubly ionized gas atoms and charge exchange ions. The measured current was corrected for secondary electron emission using data from Ref. 3. This correction is small (1.4-1.5 percent) for the tungsten probe used. A gas utilization efficiency and ratio of double to single ion current was calculated for each case using the methodology described in Ref. 10. The results of these calculations are shown in Table 1.

Because the base pressure for these tests was relatively low, the dominant source of gas atoms which are available to become charge exchange ions will be the unionized xenon from the discharge chamber, a fraction of which will drift out through the grids and into the beam. The ratio of the beam current to the total gas mass flow rate (expressed as a current) is the gas utilization efficiency. For commercial ion sources used primarily for sputter deposition (as opposed to propulsion), this efficiency can be quite low resulting in significant loss of unionized gas through the grids. If the charge exchange current is a significant fraction of the collected current, a correction must be made to avoid overestimating the dosage of energetic sputtering ions. The total current collected at the probe is given by

$$J_p = J_b(1 + \gamma_2) + J_{cex}$$

where J_b is the energetic beam current, γ_2 the secondary electron emission coefficient, and J_{cex} the current due to charge exchange ions. Because one is really interested in dosages, the currents are integrated over the duration of the exposure τ to obtain an expression for the total delivered charge Q_b due to beam ions.

$$Q_b = \frac{1}{1 + \gamma_2} \left[\int_0^\tau J_p(t) dt - \int_0^\tau J_{cex}(t) dt \right] \quad (3)$$

The first integral in the bracket represents the uncorrected, recorded probe current. This was integrated graphically from the strip chart data for the probe. The second integral represents the dosage of charge exchange ions and generally is not known as a function of time. Analysis with the ir(iclc-ir)-cell (PIC) computer simulations were used to estimate the charge exchange current at least to the right order of magnitude. Based on these calculations a constant value for the charge exchange current equal to 10 percent of the mean (averaged over the test duration) energetic current density was used.

Because the probe will count the arrival of a double ion as two single ions, it is necessary to calculate the equivalent single ion dosage at the target. In terms of the double to single ion current ratio

$$R_d = \frac{J_b^{++}}{J_b^+}$$

we can express the dosage of single and double ions as

$$Q_b^+ = \frac{1}{1 + R_d} Q_b \quad Q_b^{++} = \frac{R_d}{1 + R_d} Q_b$$

The total dosage of energetic, sputtering ions at the target is then

$$N_E = \frac{1}{e} \left(Q_b^+ + \frac{1}{2} Q_b^{++} \right) \quad (4)$$

The yield is then given by the ratio of atoms removed to incident energetic ions;

$$Y = \frac{N_A}{N_E} \quad (5)$$

which can be expressed in terms of the previous expressions as

$$Y = \frac{h_{eff}}{\left(\int_0^\tau J_p(t) dt - J_{cex} \tau \right)} \left[\frac{\rho e N_{avo} (1 + \gamma_2) (1 + R_d)}{M \left(1 + \frac{R_d}{2} \right)} \right] \quad (6)$$

where a constant charge exchange current has been assumed. Although the yield given by Eq. 6 is corrected for double ion dosage in terms of the number of incident ions, it does not correct for damage caused by the double ions which impact with twice the energy. This is a much more difficult correction to make since one would have to have some knowledge of the yield as a function of energy which is what is being calculated. As seen in Table 1, for the operating conditions used in these tests, the fraction of double ions was insignificant,

In these experiments the probe (and target) was located only 6.6 cm (2.6 in) from the source. With the target and source in such proximity, a potentially significant uncertainty in the measured current is introduced by non uniformity of the beam profile. During the experiment, the probe is centered on the point of maximum current in the beam. This was checked at various times during the experiment by moving the probe slightly and observing the probe current. The eroded portions of the samples are located within a 1.27 cm (0.5 inch) diameter circle centered on the probe. Non uniformity of the beam results in the current density decreasing away from the probe. This situation was worsened by localized erosion of the ion source accelerator grid resulting in the complete erosion of the webbing joining a group of 4 or 5 holes (out of a total of 4-5 holes) in the grid. The resulting perturbation in the beam symmetry was noticeable in a subsequent mapping of the current profile. To correct the dose calculation for beam non uniformity, the density profile maps were used to estimate the incident current at the exposed sample as a fraction of the probe or maximum beam current.

IV. Results

The yield measured for molybdenum is presented in Fig. 3 along with data from Rosenberg and Wehner [5] and Weijnsfeld et al. [6]. Both of the previous studies used plasma sources to provide the incident ions and utilized measurement of target mass loss to determine the quantity of sputtered material. Although a quantitative comparison is difficult without uncertainty estimates for the earlier work, the yields calculated here are set to be greater by a factor of 1.3 at 750 eV up to a factor of 3.1 at 150 eV.

The most significant difference between the present work and the earlier experiments is that in the present work the targets were bombarded at non-normal incidence. In a study of the effect of incidence angle on sputter yields, Wehner (Ref. 9) determined that metals generally fall into one of three classes; those exhibiting a 1) "very slight angle effect", 2) "moderate angle effect", and 3) "very pronounced effect". The third group includes iron, tantalum, and molybdenum. Wehner's data includes sputter yields for molybdenum as a function of incidence angle subject to heavy ion sputtering (Hg^{+}) at energies of 200 eV and 800 eV. This data was used to determine an empirical relation for the ratio of the yield at some angle relative to that for normal incidence as function of angle and energy;

$$\frac{Y(\theta)}{Y(0)} = f(\theta, E) \quad 0^\circ < \theta < 30^\circ$$

The data corrected using this empirical relation is shown in Fig. 3. The sensitivity to incidence angle

suggests I_{bis} is a likely source of the difference in the present results with those of the previous work. Other possible differences include secondary electron emission, charge exchange, or double ion current collection.

At low energies (<1 keV) the secondary electron emission is roughly constant and less than 2 percent of the beam current for xenon incident on the tungsten probe [3]. This represents only a small uncertainty. The technique used by Wehner in this previous work, namely biasing a target substrate in a plasma would not induce a large charge exchange current since the acceleration of the ions occurs over a relatively small volume (sheath). As a result it is unlikely that he was collecting a significant charge exchange current which he did not correct for. Finally, with respect to damage due to double ions, from the last two columns in Table 1, it is evident that in the present experiment the role of double ions was negligible. This eliminates the possibility that double ions with twice the kinetic energy could account for the higher yield.

The absolute yield data for all three materials are presented in Fig. 4. The carbon-carbon yield increases monotonically with energy, as expected from previous investigations with graphite. [5]. Unlike graphite, the carbon-carbon composite consists of graphitic fibers woven together in a carbonaceous matrix, which is in part graphitic and part glassy carbon [7]. Although these targets were polished before testing, examination of the profilometer traces reveal an increase in surface roughness after exposure to the beam, probably resulting from local variation in yield due to non-homogeneities in the material.

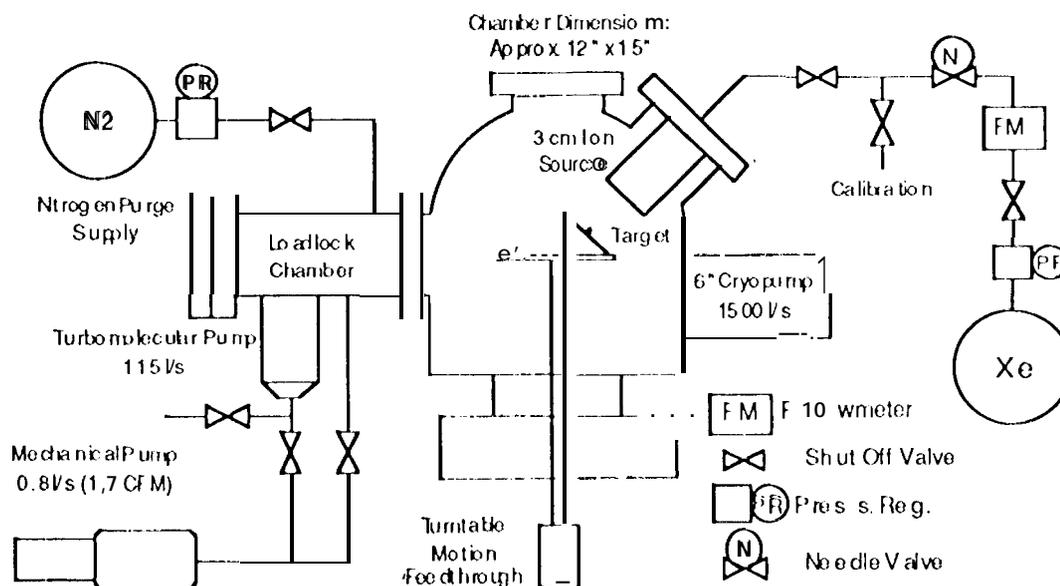


Fig. 2. Schematic of the UI IV test system

Table 1. Base and test pressures, calculated discharge gas utilization efficiency and double to single ion current ratio.

Energy (eV)	Base Press. (Torr x 10 ⁻³)	Test Press. (Torr x 10 ⁻⁴)	Gas Utilization Efficiency	J_{+2}/J_{+1}
150	7.7	2.1	0.022	0.00097
250	1.1	2.1	0.067	0.00264
500	11.0	2.1	0.088	0.00326
750	2.3	2.1	0.091	0.00340

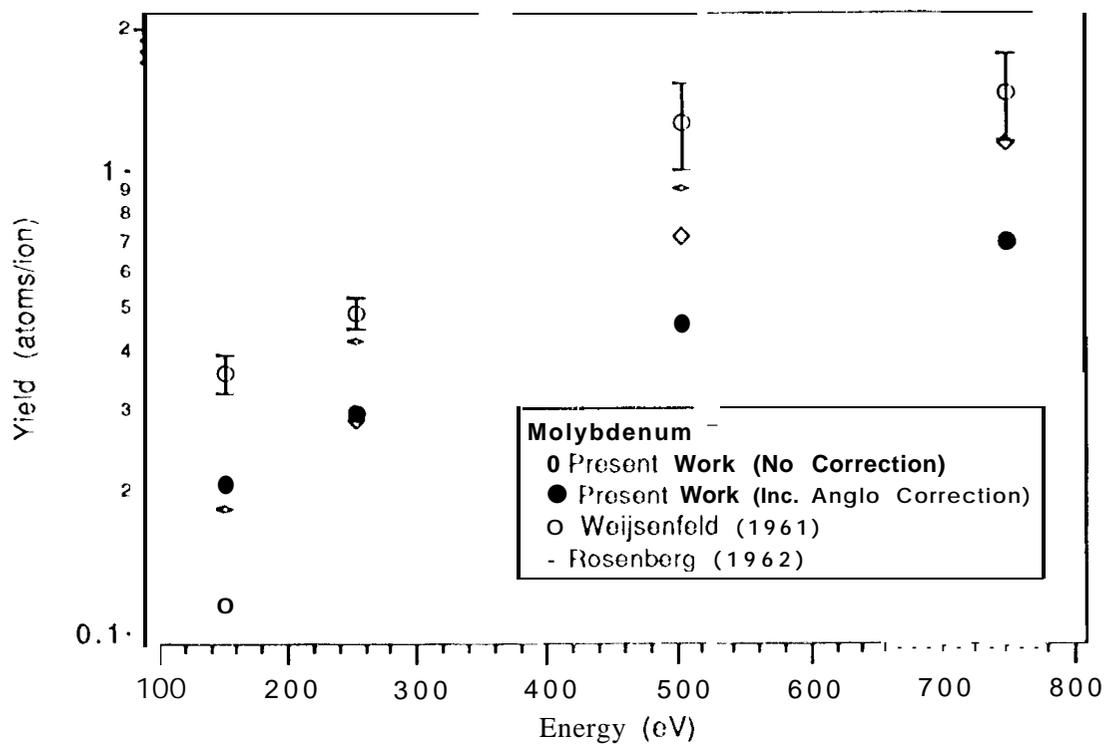


Fig. 3. Comparison of molybdenum yield with data of Weijnsfeld and Rosenberg illustrating pronounced effect of incidence angle. Incidence angles for present work are listed in Table 2.

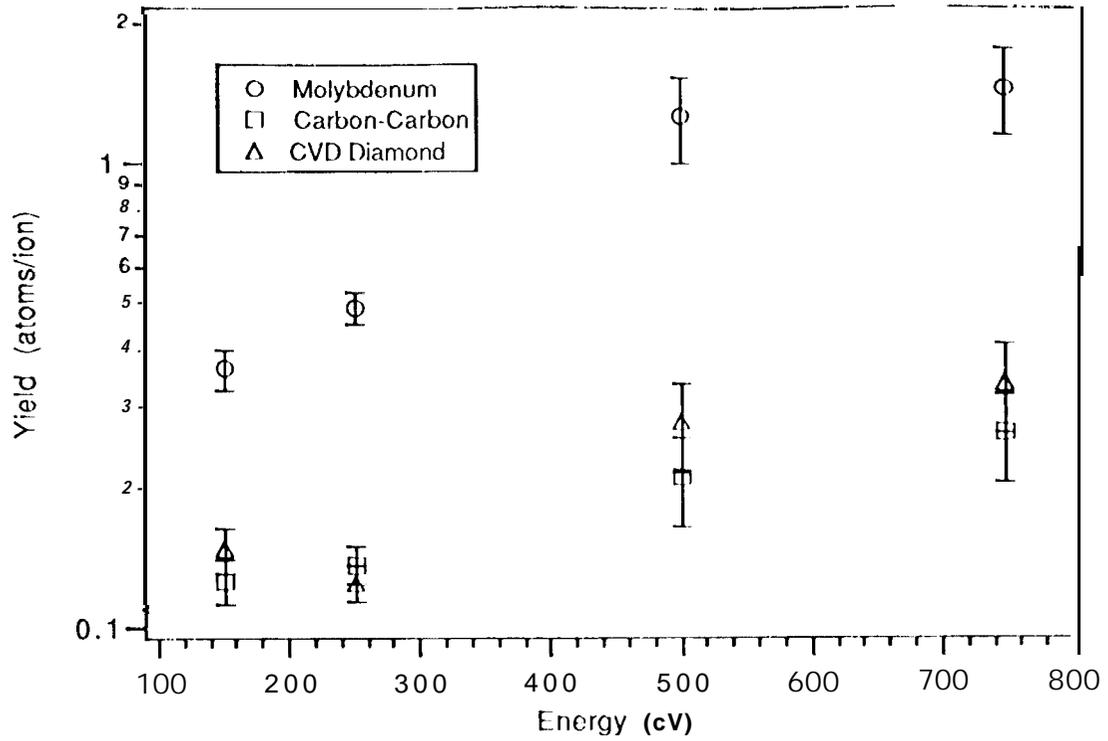


Fig.4. Sputter Yields for Molybdenum, Carbon-Carbon composite, and CVD Diamond

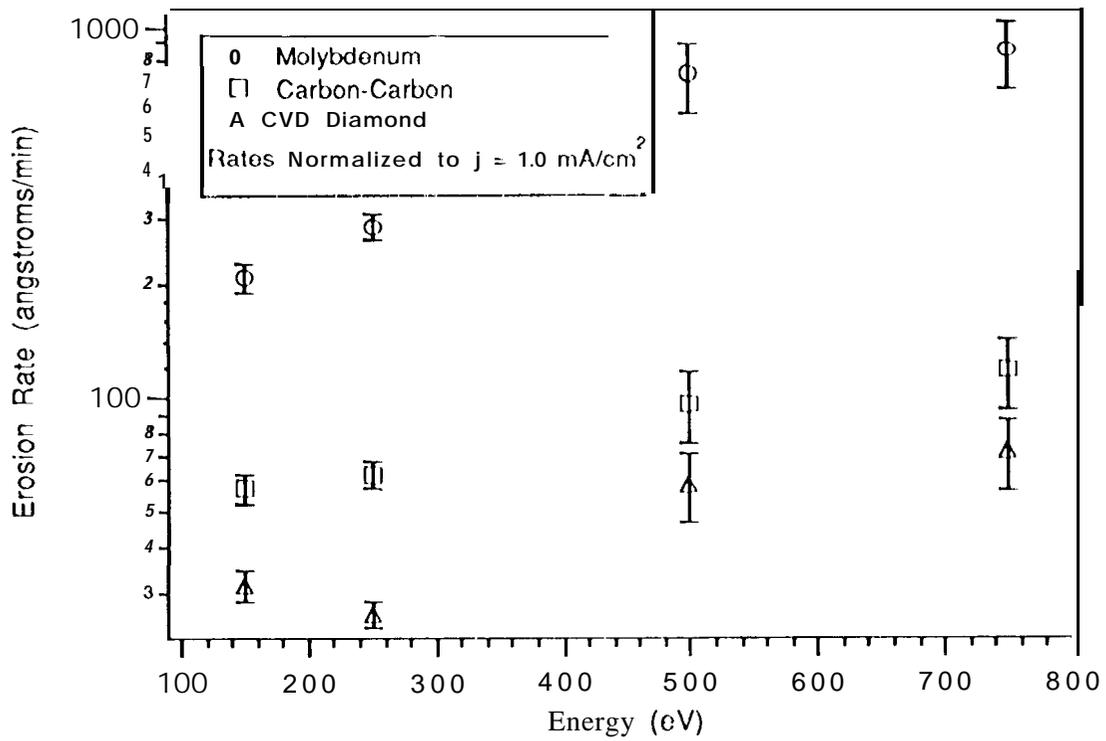


Fig.5. Erosion Rates for Molybdenum, Carbon-Carbon composite, and CVD Diamond

The yield data for the polycrystalline diamond is lower than expected at an energy of 750 eV where it deviates from a monotonically increasing function. Incidence angle data for polycrystalline materials in the keV range suggest a \cos^{-1} dependence [8] in which the yield increases with incidence angle. Referring to Table 2, an incidence angle for this case of 17 degrees would result in a yield close to 10 percent higher than that at normal incidence and therefore does not account for the lower yield. The lower than expected yield is likely due to effects of the surface topography of the sample. To investigate this possibility, the sample was imaged with an SEM in the eroded valleys corresponding 10 each of the tests. These photographs reveal a larger density of pits in the surface used for the 150 and 250 CV tests. This face of the sample corresponds to the first layer grown in the deposition process which may explain the higher density of pits. It is possible these are areas where the crystallites had not completely covered the substrate during the growth process. In particular, the valley corresponding to the test at 250 CV is seen to be noticeably rougher with a higher surface density of pits. In general the yields for rougher surfaces tend to be lower due in part to re-deposition of sputtered material along sides of surface features.

Table 2. Mean current density at target and incidence angle (from normal) averaged over test duration.

Energy (eV)	J (mA/cm ²)	Incidence Angle (deg)
150	0.27 +/- 0.02	14.5
250	0.71 +/- 0.05	12.2
5(X)	1.63 +/- 0.34	17.4
750	2.56 +/- 0.54	10.2

For engineering calculations the erosion rate is often a more meaningful way to present comparisons of sputtering data since one does not have to correct for differing material densities to assess relative performance. The erosion rate is related to the sputter yield by the following relation;

$$\dot{R} = \frac{h_{eff}}{\tau} = \left(\frac{M}{e\rho N_{AVO}} \right) \bar{j} \quad (7)$$

where \bar{j} is the mean current density averaged over the duration of the exposure. This can be determined from the previous expression for the dosage of energetic ions by

$$\bar{j} = \frac{1}{\tau} \left(Q_b^+ + \frac{1}{2} Q_b^{++} \right) = \frac{e}{\tau} N_E \quad (8)$$

The erosion rate results for the three materials are presented in Fig. 5 with values normalized to a current density of 1 mA/cm².

V. Conclusions

Sputter yields were measured for molybdenum, carbon-carbon, and polycrystalline diamond subject to xenon ion bombardment in the energy range of 150 to 750 eV. Erosion rates were calculated for each case corresponding to a normalized current density of 1 mA/cm². The ratio of erosion rate for diamond relative to molybdenum and carbon-carbon is listed in Table 3. The ratio at 250 eV is high due to the lower than expected erosion rate of the polycrystalline sample as previously discussed. The conclusion from these measurements is that CVD diamond can decrease the erosion rate by roughly 40 percent relative to carbon-carbon, and 85 - 92 percent relative to molybdenum.

Table 3. Ratio of Erosion rates for molybdenum and carbon-carbon relative to diamond.

Energy (eV)	$\frac{\dot{R}_{Mo}}{\dot{R}_{Dia}}$	$\frac{\dot{R}_{C-C}}{\dot{R}_{Dia}}$
150	6.8 +/- 3.5	1.8 +/- 1.3
250	10.8 +/- 3.5	2.4 +/- 1.3
500	12.5 +/- 3.5	1.6 +/- 1.3
750	11.8 +/- 3.5	1.7 +/- 1.3

As was discussed in Ref. 2, two approaches are under consideration to utilize the lower erosion rates for diamond. One is to coat a molybdenum (or possibly carbon-carbon) grid with a diamond film, the second is to fabricate the grid from a relatively thick (1 mm) free standing film. The extent to which grid lifetime can be increased will strongly depend on which of these two approaches is adopted because a coating tens of microns thick will eventually be eroded through. However, given the number of companies which currently perform high quality diamond film coatings (especially on molybdenum substrates), the benefits in increased lifetime suggested by the data are worth pursuing.

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