Application of Plasma Phenomena



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Institute of Space and Plasma Sciences, National Cheng Kung University

Lecture 8

2024 spring semester

Tuesday 9:10-12:00

Materials:

https://capst.ncku.edu.tw/PGS/index.php/teaching/

Online courses:

https://nckucc.webex.com/nckucc/j.php?MTID=m4082f23c59af0571015416f6 e58dd803

Electromagnetic wave can be used to measure the density or the magnetic field in the plasma



Nonmagnetized isotropic plasma (interferometer needed):

$$n^{2} = 1 - \frac{X(1 - X)}{1 - X - \frac{1}{2}Y^{2}\sin^{2}\theta \pm \left[\left(\frac{1}{2}Y^{2}\sin^{2}\theta\right)^{2} + (1 - X)^{2}Y^{2}\cos^{2}\theta\right]^{1/2}}$$

$$= 1 - X = 1 - \frac{\omega_{\mathrm{p}}^{2}}{\omega^{2}} = 1 - \frac{n_{\mathrm{e}}}{n_{\mathrm{cr}}} \qquad \left(\mathbf{Y} \equiv \frac{\mathbf{\Omega}}{\boldsymbol{\omega}} \equiv \mathbf{0}\right)$$

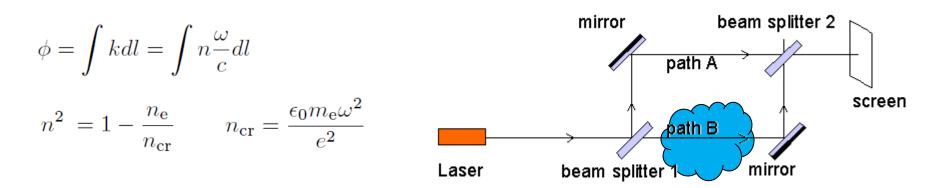
$$\mathbf{Note:} \qquad \omega_{\mathrm{p}}^{2} = \frac{n_{\mathrm{e}}e^{2}}{\epsilon_{0}m_{\mathrm{e}}} \qquad n_{\mathrm{cr}} = \frac{\epsilon_{0}m_{\mathrm{e}}\omega^{2}}{e^{2}}$$

Magnetized isotropic plasma (Polarization detected needed):

Parallel to B₀ $n^2 = 1 - \frac{\omega_{\rm p}^2}{\omega(\omega + \Omega)}$ $\frac{E_{\rm x}}{E_{\rm y}} = \pm i$ $\Omega \equiv \frac{eB_0}{m_{\rm p}}$

Faraday rotation: linear polarization rotation caused by the difference between the speed of LHC and RHC polarized wave.

The phase different depends on the line integral of the electron density along the path



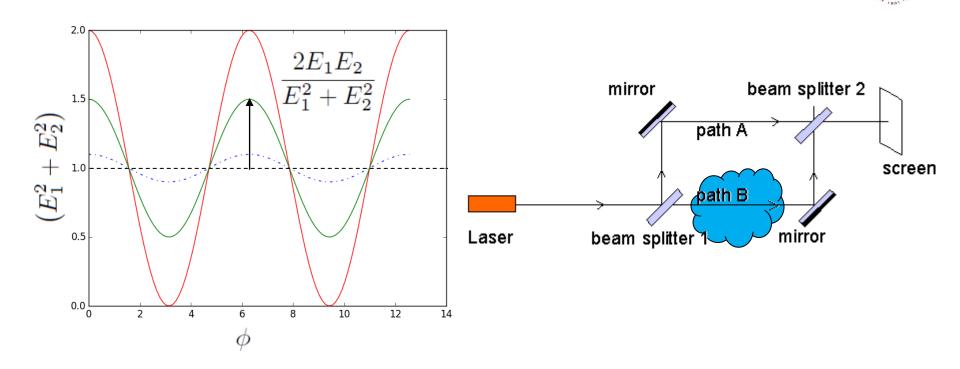
$$\Delta \phi = \int (k_{\text{plasma}} - k_0) \, dl = \frac{\omega}{c} \int (n - 1) \, dl$$

$$= \frac{\omega}{c} \int \left(\sqrt{1 - \frac{n_e}{n_c}} - 1 \right) \, dl \approx \frac{\omega}{c} \int \left(1 - \frac{1}{2} \frac{n_e}{n_c} - 1 \right) \, dl$$

$$= -\frac{\omega}{2cn_c} \int n_e \, dl$$

Note that
$$n_{\rm e} << n_{\rm cr}$$
 is assumed,
$$\sqrt{1-\frac{n_{\rm e}}{n_{\rm cr}}} \approx 1-\frac{1}{2}\frac{n_{\rm e}}{n_{\rm cr}}$$

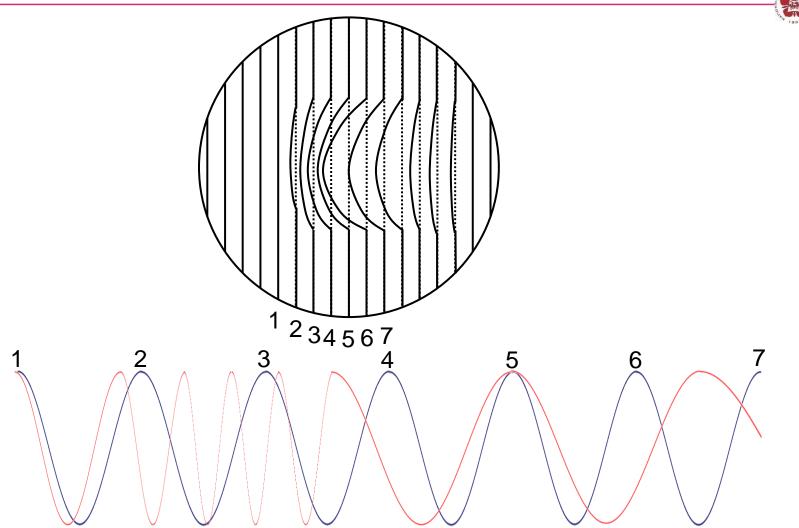
The intensity on screen depends on the phase different between two paths



$$I = \left(E_1^2 + E_2^2\right) \left(1 + \frac{2E_1 E_2}{E_1^2 + E_2^2} \cos \phi\right)$$

The phase is determined by comparing to the pattern without the phase shift





Fourier transform can be used to retrieve the data from the interferometer image

$$I(x,y) = I_0(x,y) + m(x,y)\cos[2\pi\nu_0 x + \phi(x,y)] \qquad cos(x) = \frac{e^{ix} + e^{-ix}}{2}$$

$$= I_0(x,y) + \frac{1}{2}m(x,y)\left(e^{i[2\pi\nu_0 x + \phi(x,y)]} + e^{-i[2\pi\nu_0 x + \phi(x,y)]}\right)$$

$$= I_0(x,y) + \frac{1}{2}m(x,y)e^{i\phi(x,y)}e^{i2\pi\nu_0 x} + \frac{1}{2}m(x,y)e^{-i\phi(x,y)}e^{-i2\pi\nu_0 x}$$

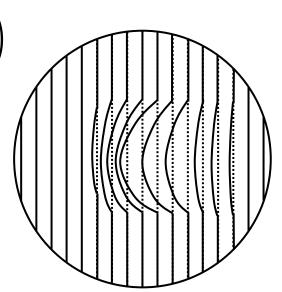
$$= I_0(x,y) + c(x,y)e^{i2\pi\nu_0 x} + c^*(x,y)e^{-i2\pi\nu_0 x}$$

$$c(x,y) \equiv \frac{1}{2}m(x,y)e^{i\phi(x,y)} \qquad \phi(x,y) = \tan^{-1}\left(\frac{\operatorname{Im}[c(x,y)]}{\operatorname{Re}[c(x,y)]}\right)$$

$$\widehat{g}(f_x, y) \equiv \text{FT}[g(x, y)]$$

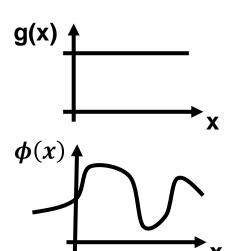
$$\widehat{g}(f_x - \nu_0, y) = \text{FT}[g(x, y)e^{i2\pi\nu_0 x}]$$

$$\hat{I}(f_x, y) = \hat{I}_0(f_x, y) + \hat{c}(f_x - \nu_0, y) + \hat{c}^*(f_x + \nu_0, y)$$

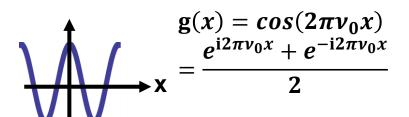


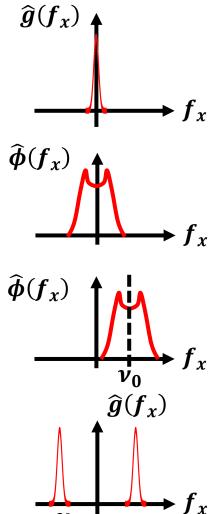
Basic knowledge of Fourier transform





$$\mathbf{h}(x) = \boldsymbol{\phi}(x) \times e^{-\mathrm{i}2\pi\nu_0 x}$$

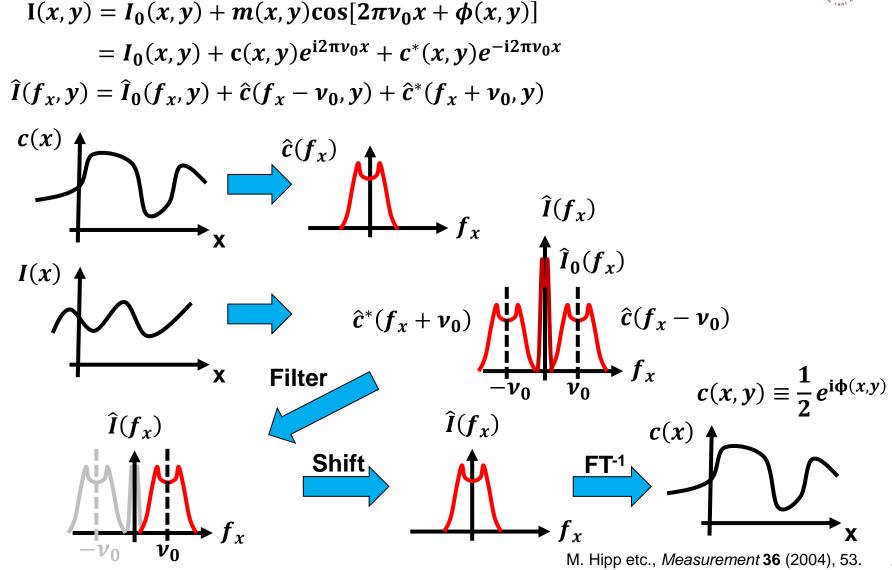




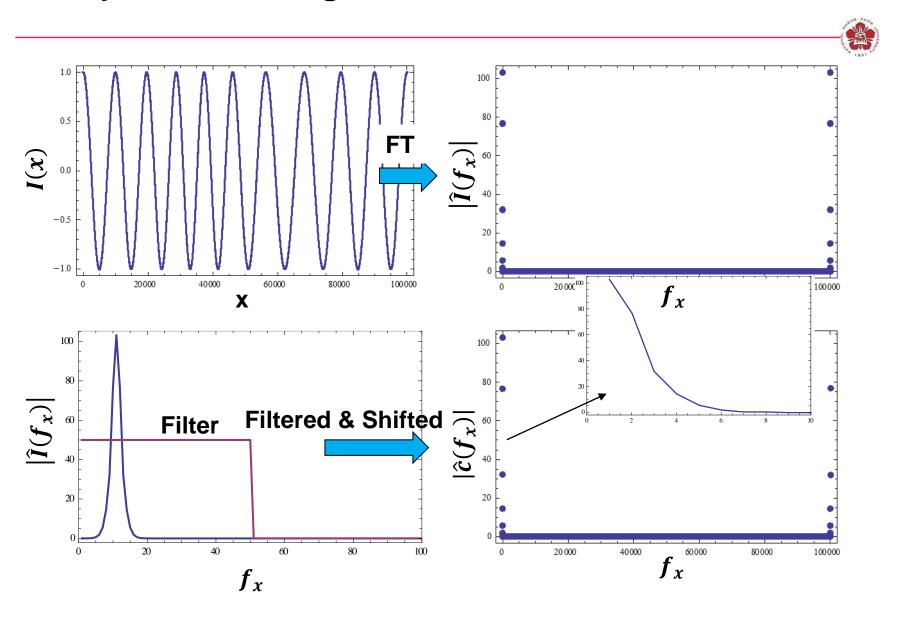
$$I(x) = I_0(x) + m(x)\cos[2\pi v_0 x + \phi(x)]$$

Procedure of retrieving data



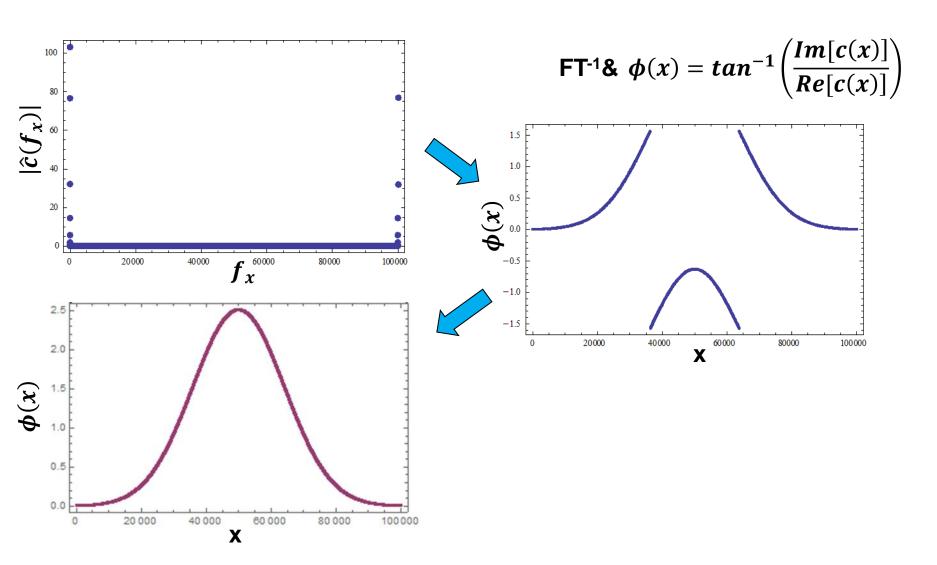


Example of retrieving data from 1D interferometer



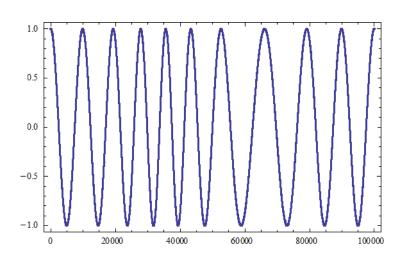
The retrieved data need to be modified if the phase change is too much

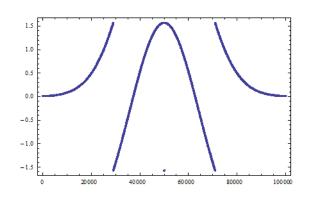


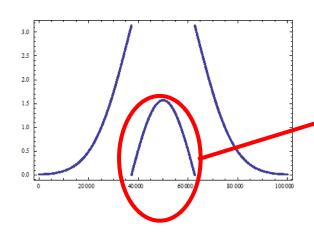


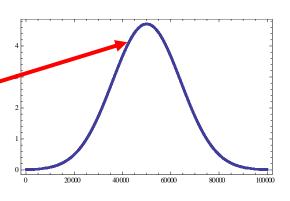
The final phase difference needs to be determined manually since it may exceeds 2π



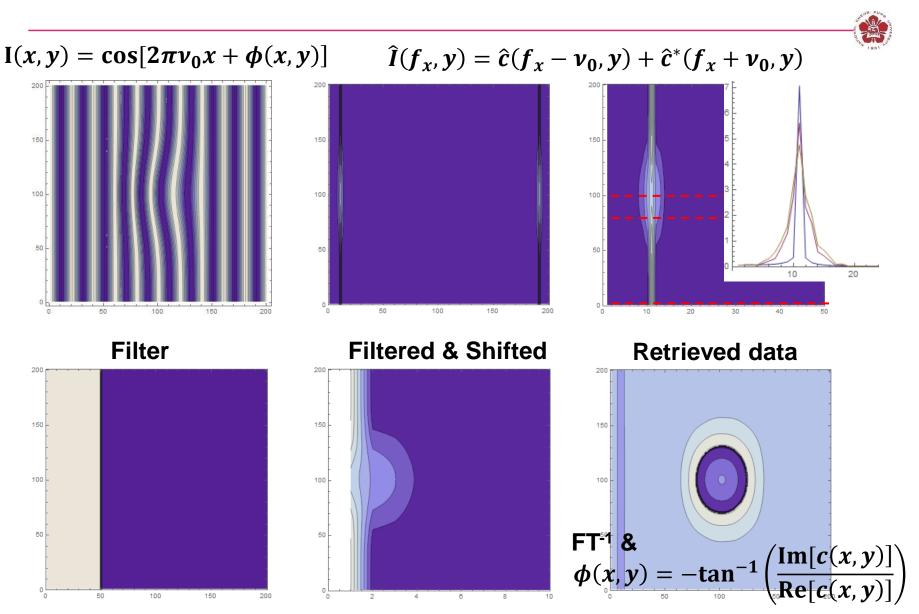






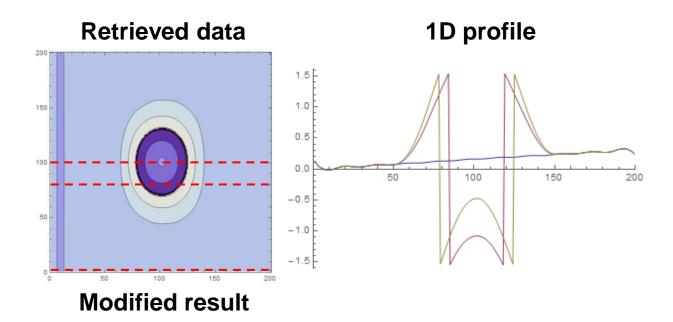


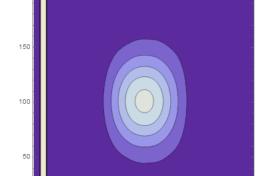
Example of retrieving data from 2D interferometer



The retrieved data may need to be modified if the phase change is too large



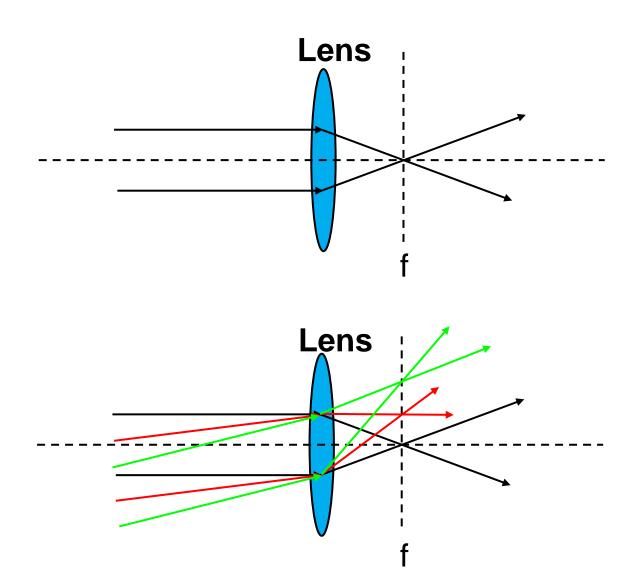




- Slope came from the non-integer spatial frequency of the fringes.
- Noise came from rectangular function as the filter.

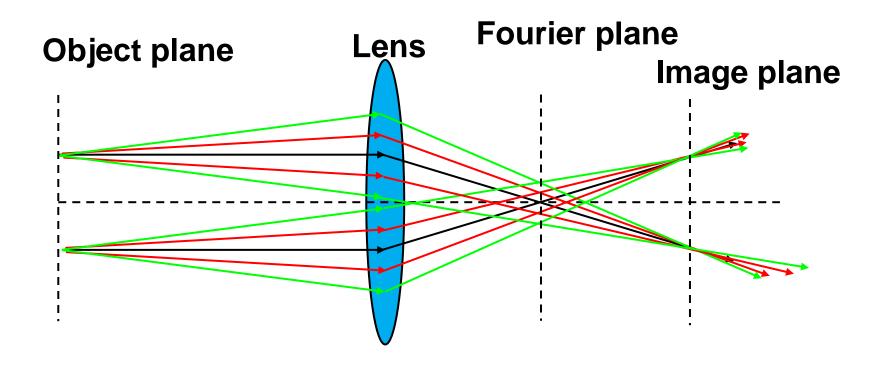
Angular spectrum of plane waves can be used for diagnostic





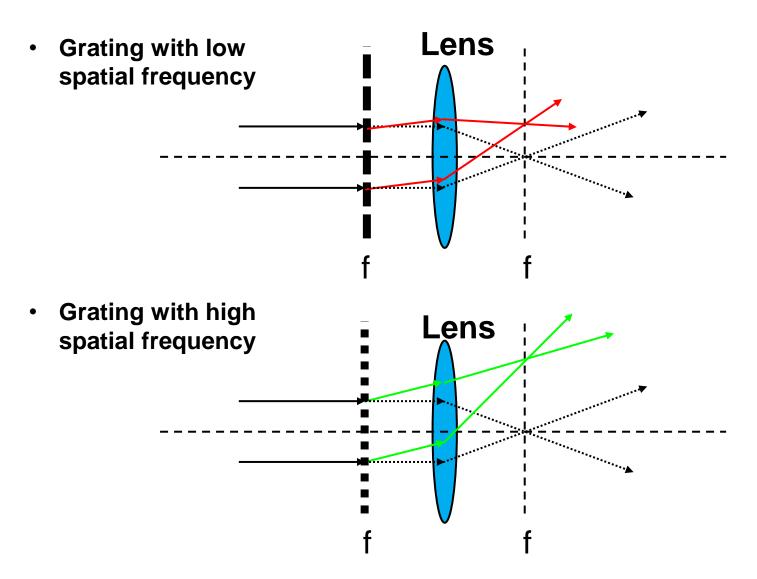
Rays with different angles go through different focal points on the focal points





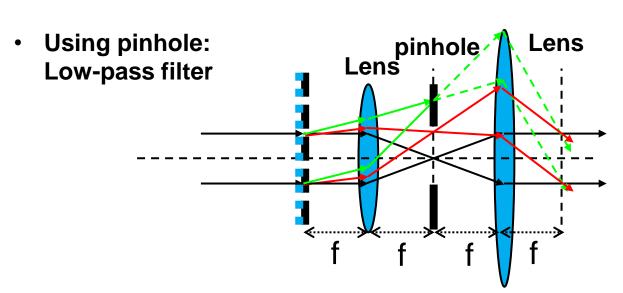
Parallel beams are deflected to different angles with grating with different spatial frequencies

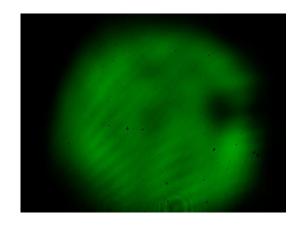




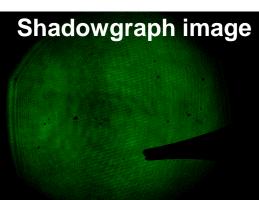
A pinhole or a dot acts like a low-pass / high-pass filter

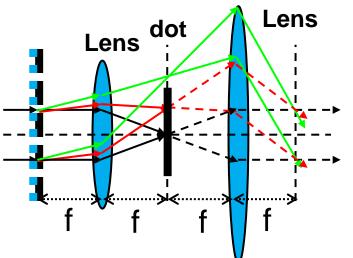


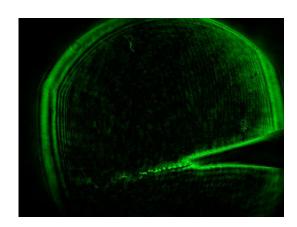




Using dot: High-pass filter



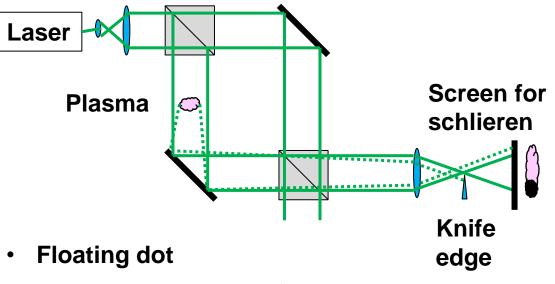


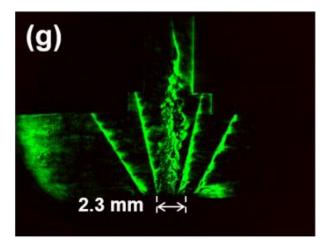


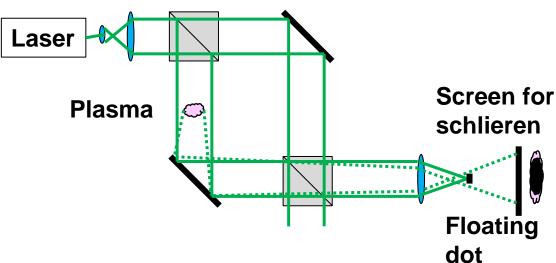
A symmetric Schlieren image can be obtained if the knife edge is replaced by a "floating dot"

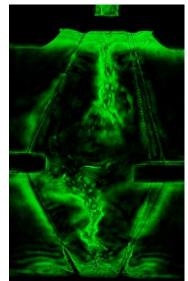




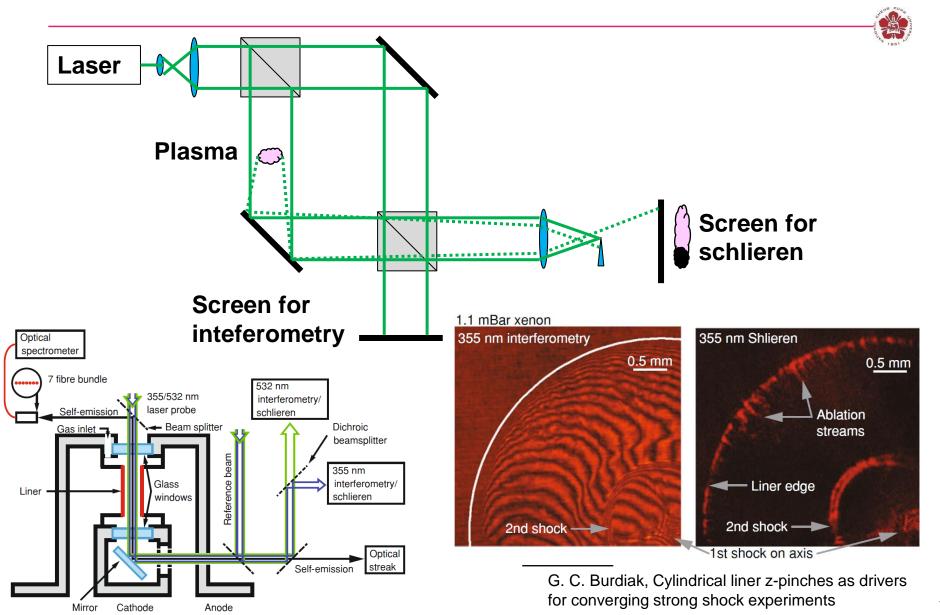




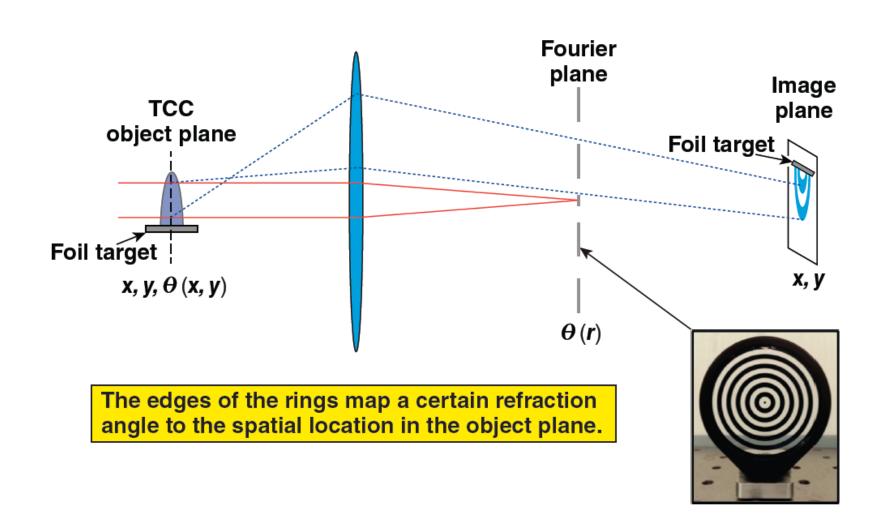




Schlieren imaging system can detect density gradient

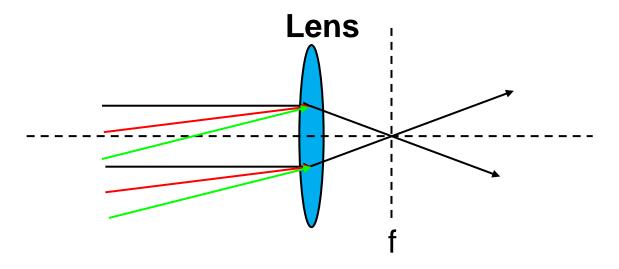


Angular filter refractometry (AFR) maps the refraction of the probe beam at TCC to contours in the image plane



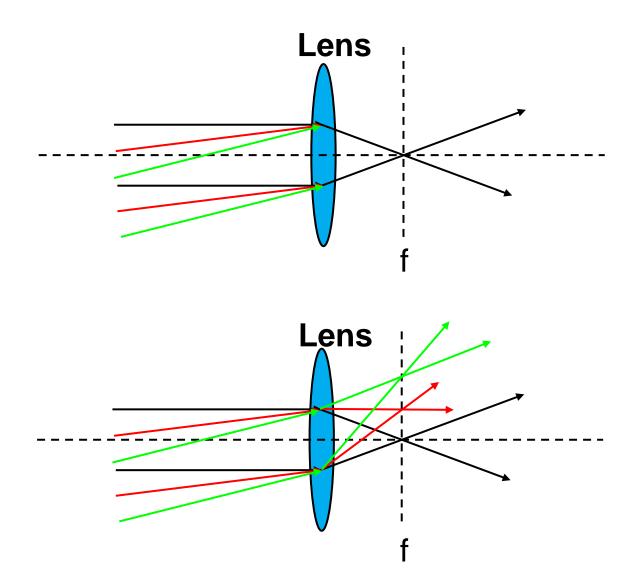
Angular spectrum of plane waves can be used for diagnostic





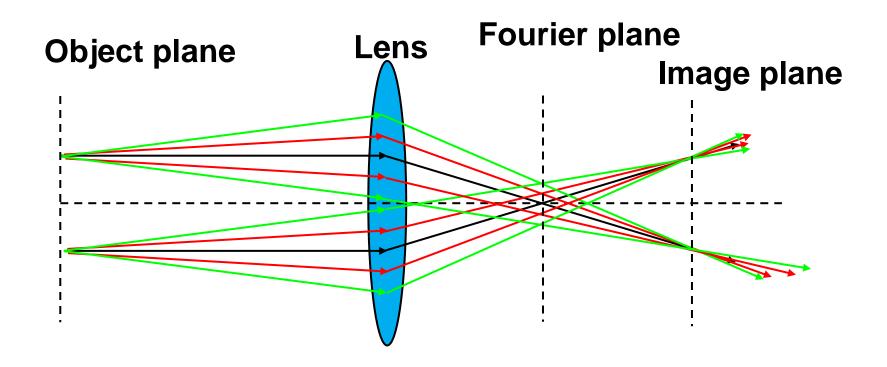
Angular spectrum of plane waves can be used for diagnostic





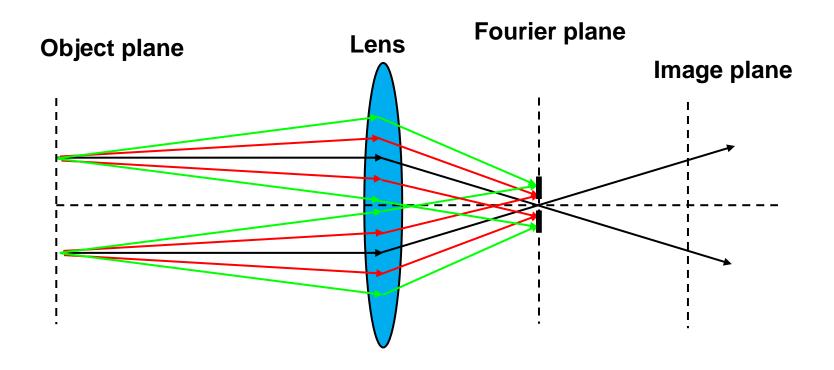
Rays with different angles go through different focal points on the focal points





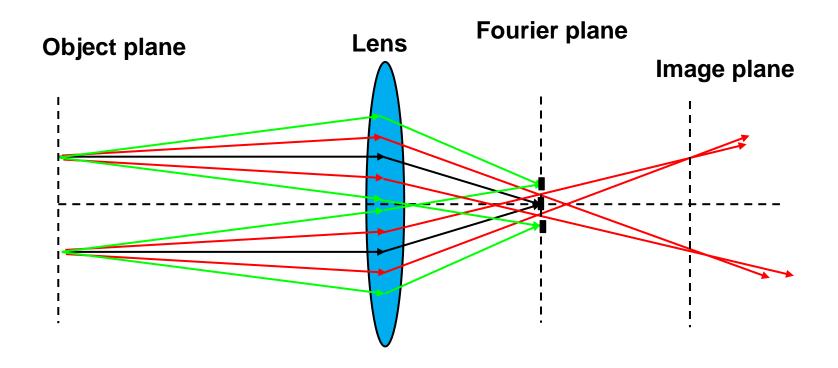
Rays with different angles can be selected by blocking different focal points





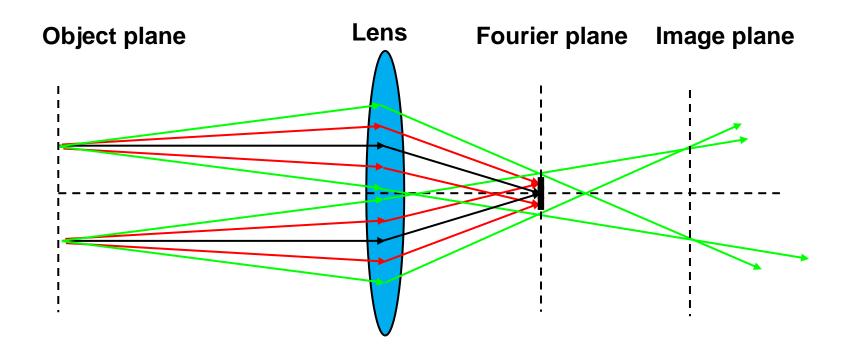
Rays with different angles go through different focal points on the focal points



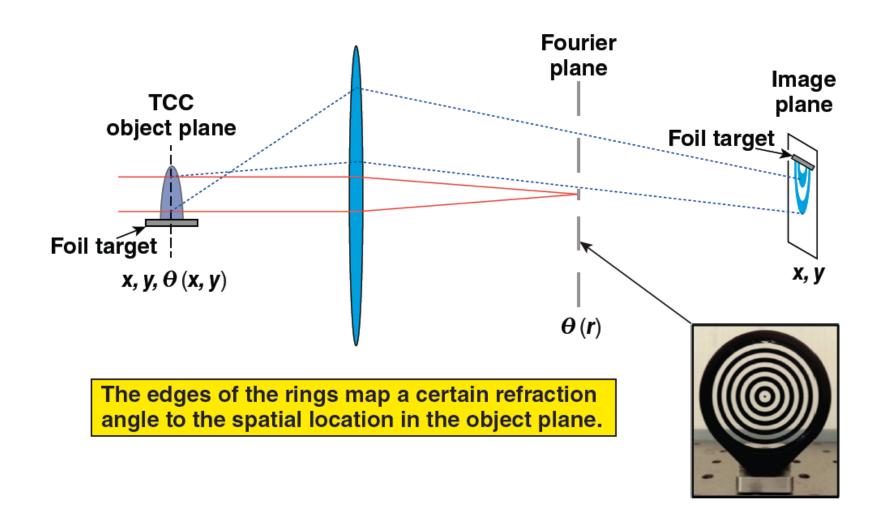


Rays with different angles go through different focal points on the focal points

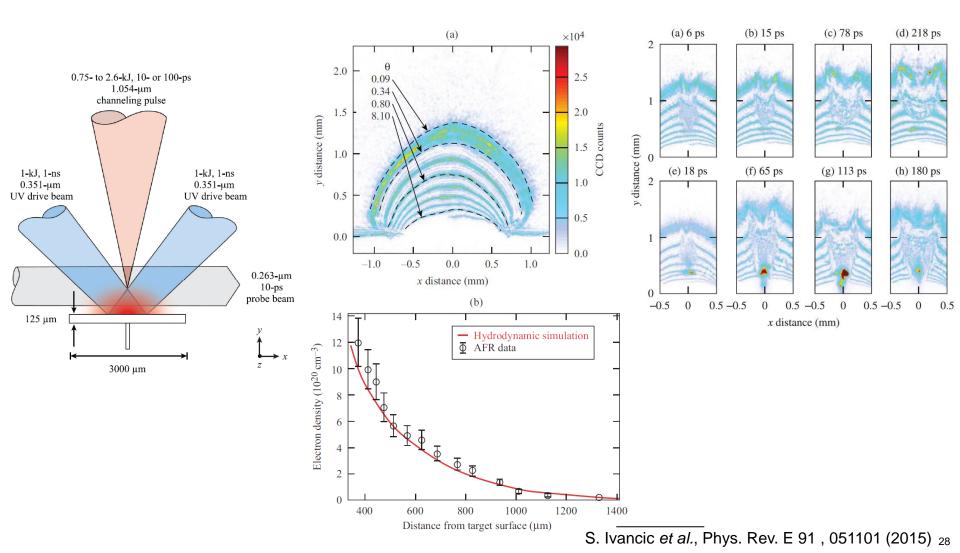




Angular filter refractometry (AFR) maps the refraction of the probe beam at TCC to contours in the image plane



Channeling of multi-kilojoule high-intensity laser beams in an inhomogeneous plasma was observed using AFR



Electromagnetic wave can be used to measure the density or the magnetic field in the plasma



Nonmagnetized isotropic plasma (interferometer needed):

$$n^{2} = 1 - \frac{X(1 - X)}{1 - X - \frac{1}{2}Y^{2}\sin^{2}\theta \pm \left[\left(\frac{1}{2}Y^{2}\sin^{2}\theta\right)^{2} + (1 - X)^{2}Y^{2}\cos^{2}\theta\right]^{1/2}}$$

$$= 1 - X = 1 - \frac{\omega_{\mathrm{p}}^{2}}{\omega^{2}} = 1 - \frac{n_{\mathrm{e}}}{n_{\mathrm{cr}}} \qquad \left(\mathbf{Y} \equiv \frac{\mathbf{\Omega}}{\boldsymbol{\omega}} \equiv \mathbf{0}\right)$$

$$\mathbf{Note:} \qquad \omega_{\mathrm{p}}^{2} = \frac{n_{\mathrm{e}}e^{2}}{\epsilon_{0}m_{\mathrm{e}}} \qquad n_{\mathrm{cr}} = \frac{\epsilon_{0}m_{\mathrm{e}}\omega^{2}}{e^{2}}$$

Note:
$$\omega_{\rm p}^2 = \frac{n_{\rm e}e^2}{\epsilon_0 m_{\rm e}}$$
 $n_{\rm cr} = \frac{\epsilon_0 m_{\rm e}\omega^2}{e^2}$

Magnetized isotropic plasma (Polarization detected needed):

Parallel to B₀
$$n^2 = 1 - \frac{\omega_{\rm p}^2}{\omega \left(\omega \pm \Omega\right)} \qquad \qquad \frac{E_{\rm x}}{E_{\rm y}} = \pm i \qquad \Omega \equiv \frac{eB_0}{m_{\rm e}}$$

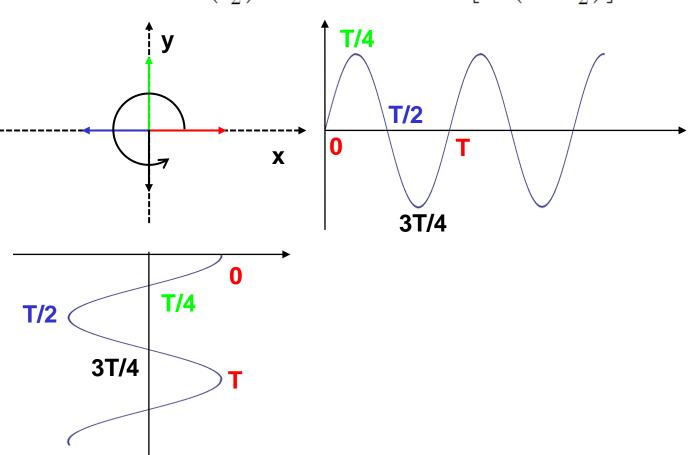
Faraday rotation: linear polarization rotation caused by the difference between the speed of LHC and RHC polarized wave.

Circular polarization



$$E_{\rm x} = E_0 \exp\left(-i\omega t\right)$$

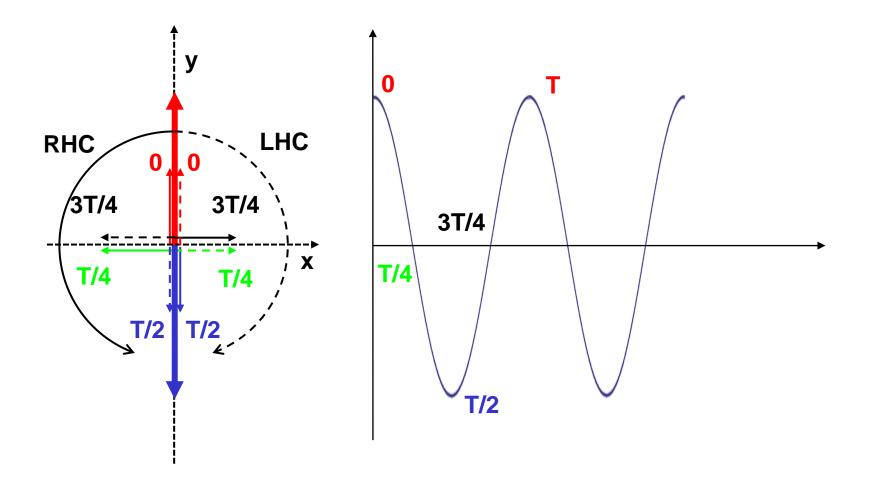
$$E_{y} = iE_{x} = iE_{0} \exp\left(-i\omega t\right) = E_{0} \exp\left(i\frac{\pi}{2}\right) \exp\left(-i\omega t\right) = E_{0} \exp\left[-i\left(\omega t - \frac{\pi}{2}\right)\right]$$



Linear polarization rotates as the wave propagates with different speed in LHC and RHC polarization



A linear polarized wave can be decomposed into one left-handed circular polarized wave and a righ-handed circular polarized wave



The rotation angle of the polarization depends on the linear integral of magnetic field and electron density



$$\phi = \int kdl = \int n\frac{\omega}{c}dl$$
 $\alpha = \frac{\Delta\phi}{2} = \frac{\omega}{2c}\int (n_{\rm R} - n_{\rm L}) dl$

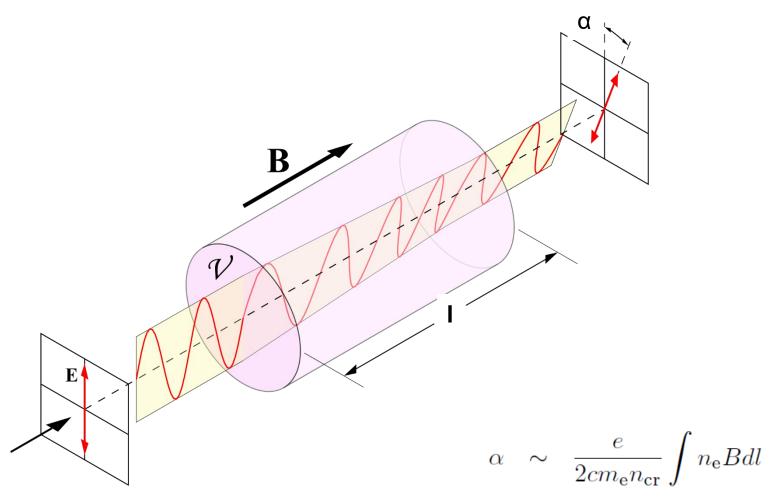
$$n_{\rm R} = \sqrt{1 - \frac{X}{1 + Y}} \sim 1 - \frac{1}{2} \frac{X}{1 + Y}$$
 $X, Y << 1$
 $n_{\rm L} \sim 1 - \frac{1}{2} \frac{X}{1 - Y}$ $\frac{X}{1 \pm Y} << 1$

$$n_{\rm R} - n_{\rm L} \sim \frac{X}{2} \left(\frac{1}{1 - Y} - \frac{1}{1 + Y} \right) = \frac{XY}{1 - Y^2} \sim XY$$

$$\alpha \sim \frac{\omega}{2c} \int XYdl = \frac{\omega}{2c} \int \frac{\omega_{\rm p}^2}{\omega^2} \frac{\Omega}{\omega} dl = \frac{1}{2c} \int \frac{n_{\rm e}}{n_{\rm cr}} \frac{eB}{m_{\rm e}} dl$$
$$= \frac{e}{2cm_{\rm e}n_{\rm cr}} \int n_{\rm e}Bdl$$

The rotation angle of the polarization depends on the linear integral of magnetic field and electron density



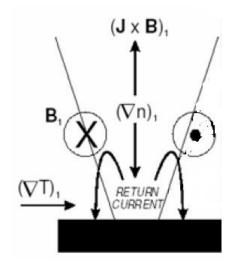


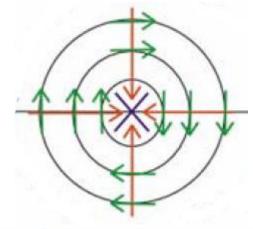
Magnetic field can be generated when the temperature and density gradients are not parallel to each other



$$\frac{\partial \vec{B}}{\partial t} = \nabla \times \left[\underbrace{\vec{u} \times \vec{B}}_{\text{Convection term}} + \underbrace{\frac{1}{\sigma \mu_0} \nabla \times \vec{B}}_{\text{Diffusion term}} + \underbrace{\frac{\nabla p_e}{n_e e}}_{\text{self generated field}} - \underbrace{\frac{1}{\mu_0} \left(\frac{\nabla \times \vec{B}}{n_e e} \times \vec{B} \right)}_{\text{Hall term}} \right]$$

$$\nabla \times \frac{\nabla p_{\rm e}}{n_{\rm e}e} = -\frac{k_{\rm B}}{e} \frac{\nabla n_{\rm e} \times \nabla T_{\rm e}}{n_{\rm e}}$$

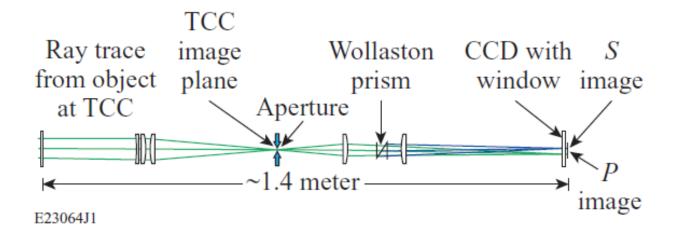


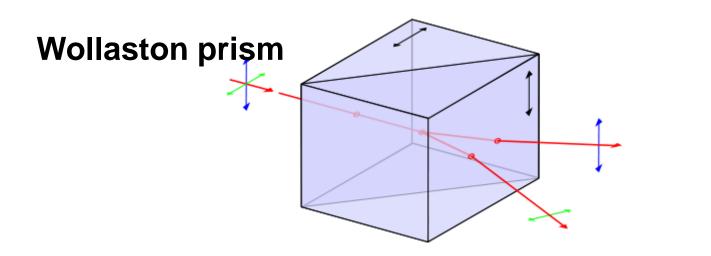


(grad n_e) \times (grad T_e) \longrightarrow B field \longrightarrow

Polarimetry diagnostic can be used to measure the magnetic field

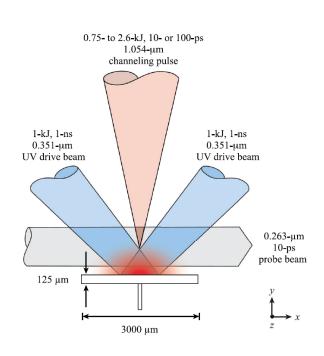


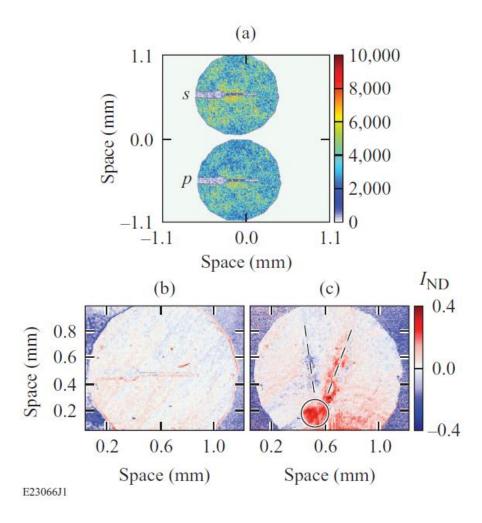




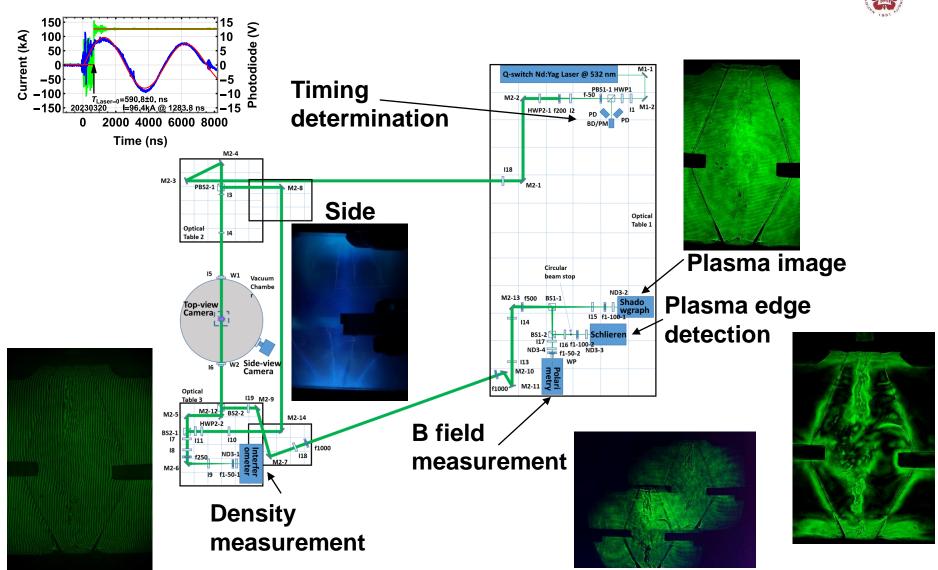
Self-generated field was suggested when multi-kilojoule high-intensity laser beams illuminated on an inhomogeneous plasma





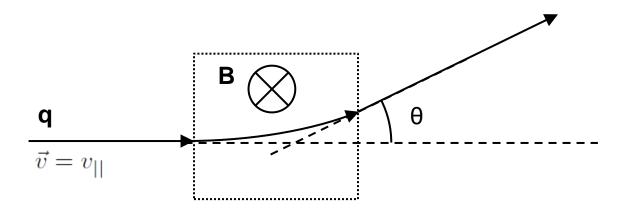


Time-resolved imaging system with temporal resolution in the order of nanoseconds was implemented



The magnetic field can be measured by measuring the deflected angle of charged particles





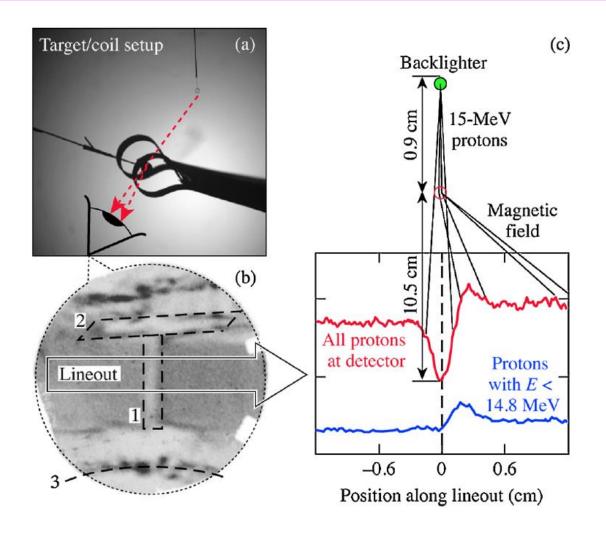
$$F_{\perp} = q\vec{v} \times \vec{B} = qv_{||}B = m\frac{dv_{\perp}}{dt}$$

$$v_{\perp} = \int \frac{qv_{||}B}{m}dt = \frac{qv_{||}}{m} \int Bdt \frac{dx}{dx} = \frac{qv_{||}}{m} \int \frac{B}{v_{||}}dx = \frac{q}{m} \int Bdx$$

$$\tan \theta = \frac{v_{\perp}}{v_{||}} = \frac{q}{mv_{||}} \int B dx = \frac{q}{\sqrt{2mE}} \int B dx \qquad \qquad \int B dx = \frac{\sqrt{2mE}}{q} \tan \theta$$

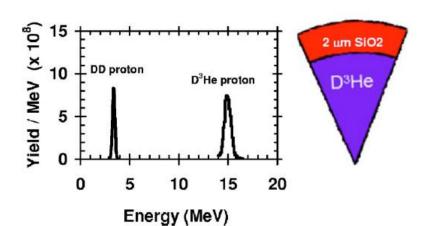
Magnetic field was measured using protons





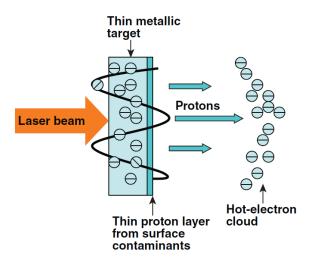
Protons can be generated from fusion product or copper foil illuminated by short pulse laser

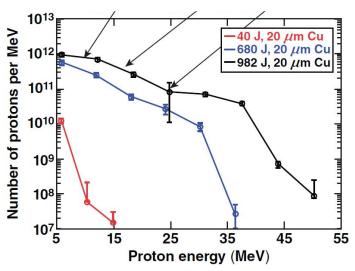




$$D + D \rightarrow T(1.01 \text{MeV}) + p(3.02 \text{MeV})$$

$$D + \mathrm{He^3} \rightarrow \mathrm{He^4}(3.6\mathrm{MeV}) + p(14.7\mathrm{MeV})$$





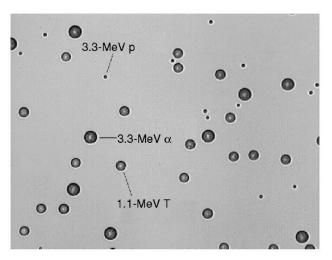
Target normal sheath acceleration (TNSA)

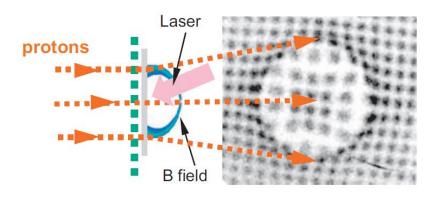
C. K. Li *et al.*, Rev. Sci. Instrum. **77**, 10E725 (2006) L. Gao. PhD Thesis

Protons can leave tracks on CR39 or film

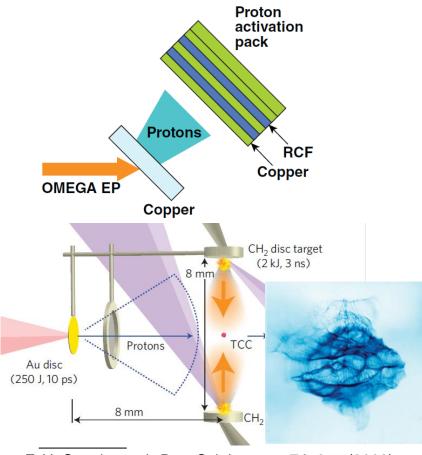


CR 39



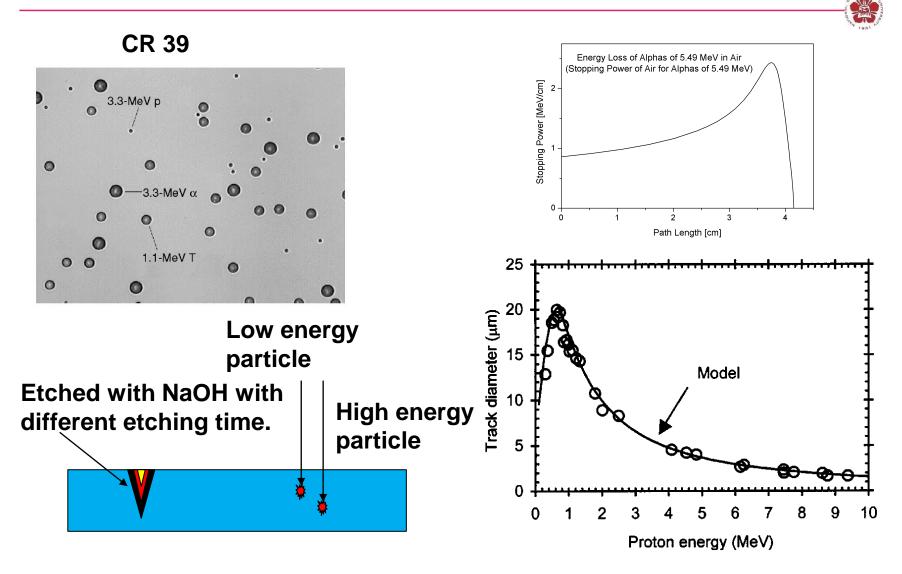


Radiochromic film pack

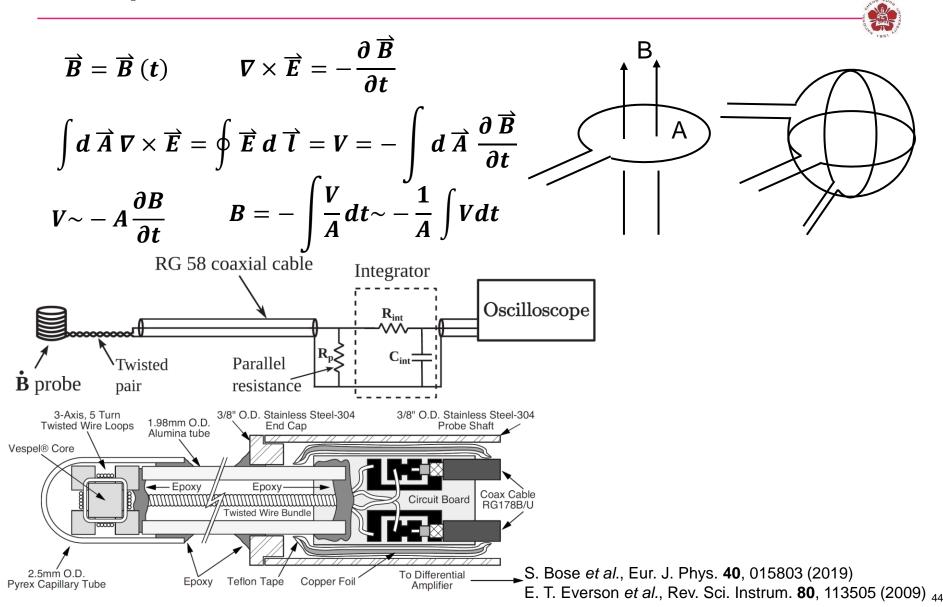


- F. H. Seguin et al., Rev. Sci. Instrum. 74, 975 (2003)
- C. K. Li et al., Phys. Plasmas 16,056304 (2009)
- L. Gao, PhD Thesis
- N. L. Kugland et al., Nature Phys. B, 809 (2012)

Track diameter on the CR39 is depended on the particle energy that incidents

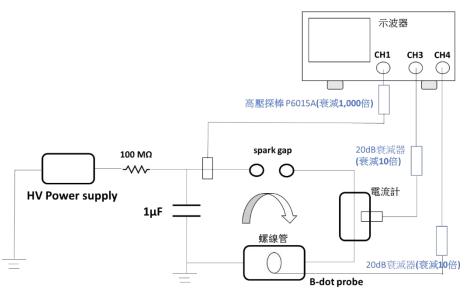


Time dependent magnetic field can be measured using B-dot probe



B-dot probe experiments

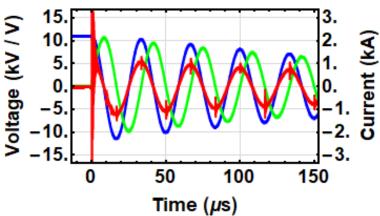




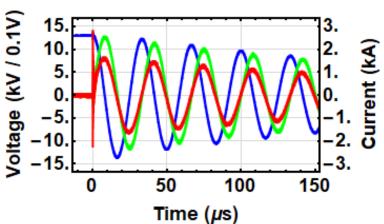
0.1V) Voltage

RG 58 coaxial Twisted pair

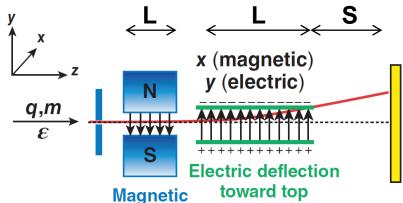
Without integrator



With integrator



A Thomson parabola uses parallel electric and magnetic fields to deflect particles onto parabolic curves that resolve q/m



into page (y direction)
$$F_{\rm x} = qv_{||}B = m\frac{dv_{\rm x}}{dt}$$

$$v_{\rm x} = \frac{q}{m}v_{||}B\Delta t = \frac{q}{m}v_{||}B\frac{L}{v_{||}} = \frac{qBL}{m}$$

$$\tan\theta_{\rm x} = \frac{v_{\rm x}}{v_{||}} = \frac{qBL}{mv_{||}} = \frac{qBL}{\sqrt{2m\epsilon}}$$

of page

(v direction)

$$\tan \theta_{\rm x} = \frac{v_{\rm x}}{v_{||}} = \frac{qBL}{mv_{||}} = \frac{qBL}{\sqrt{2m\epsilon}}$$

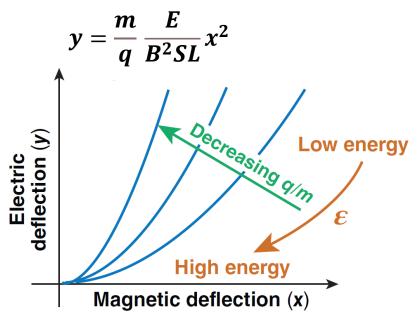
deflection

into page

$$F_{y} = qE = m\frac{dv_{y}}{dt}$$

$$v_{y} = \frac{q}{m}E\Delta t = \frac{q}{m}E\frac{L}{v_{||}} = \frac{qEL}{mv_{||}}$$

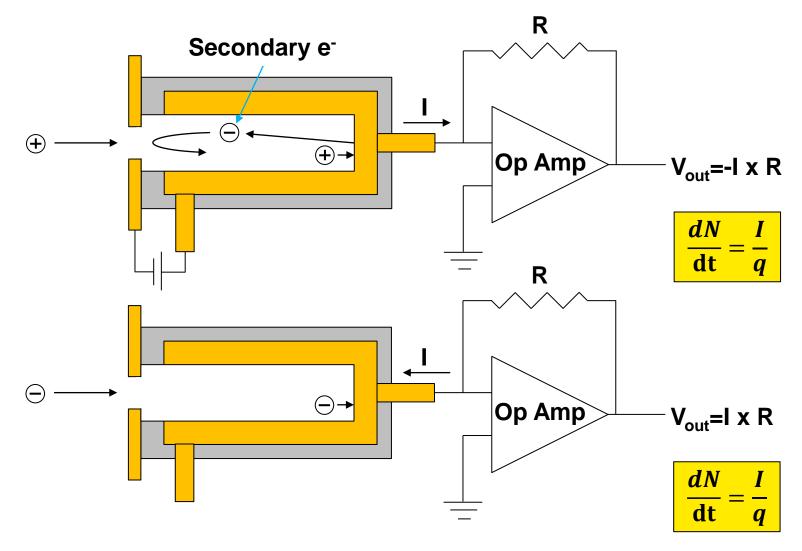
- Deflection caused by magnetic field $\sim q/p$
- Deflection caused by electric field ~q/KE
- Ion traces form parabolic curves on detector plane



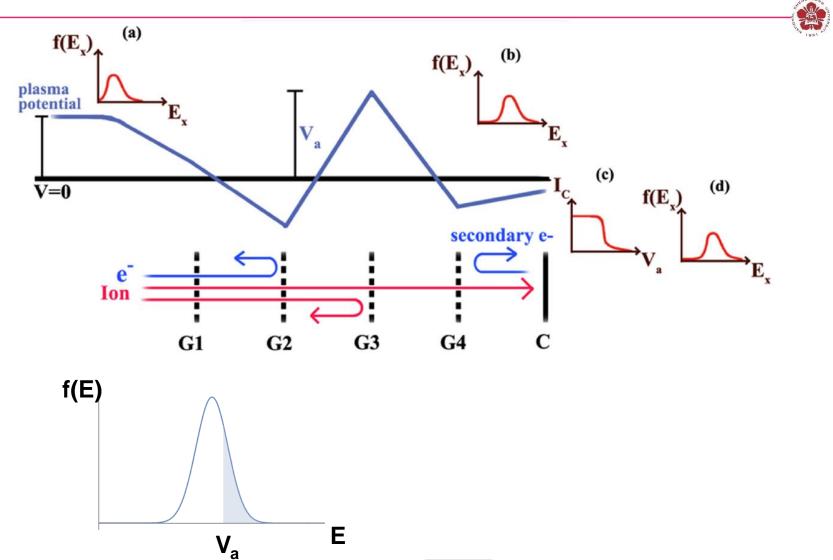
$$an oldsymbol{ heta}_{
m y} = rac{oldsymbol{v}_{
m ||}}{oldsymbol{v}_{
m ||}^2} = rac{oldsymbol{q} EL}{2 \epsilon}$$

A faraday cup measures the flux of charge particles





Retarding potential analyzer measures the energy / velocity distribution function



H.-K. Fang, 2015 NCKU Ph. D. Thesis, Ion measurements of ionosphere plasma in space plasma operation chamber

The photon energy spectrum provides valuable information

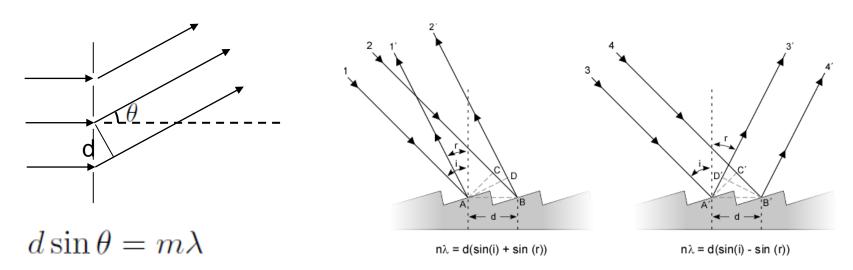


- Plasma conditions can be determined from the photon spectrum
 - visible light: absorption and laser-plasma interactions
 - x rays: electron temperature, density, plasma flow, material mixing
- There are three basic tools for determining the spectrum detected
 - filtering
 - grating spectrometer
 - Bragg spectrometer

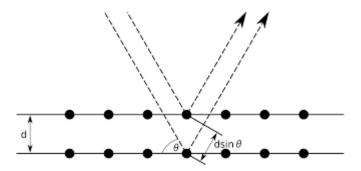
Spectrum can be obtained using grating



Grating is used to disperse the light



Bragg condition in the crystal is used for X-ray.

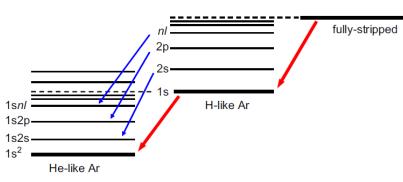


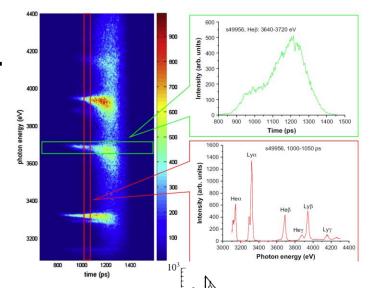
 $2d\sin\theta = m\lambda$

Temperature and density can be obtained from the emission



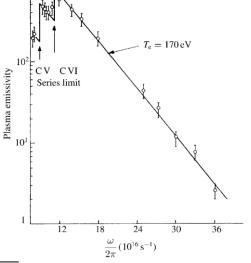
Line emission





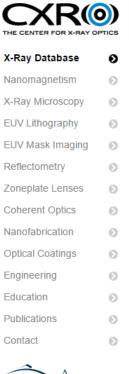
Bremsstrahlung emission

$$\eta_{\nu} = \frac{16\pi}{3\sqrt{6\pi}} \frac{e^6}{m_{\rm e}^2 c^3} \frac{Z_{\rm i}^2 n_{\rm e}}{\sqrt{k_{\rm B} T_{\rm e}/m_{\rm e}} A m_{\rm p}} \exp\left(-\frac{h\nu}{k_{\rm B} T_{\rm e}}\right)$$



Information of x-ray transmission or reflectivity over a surface can be obtained from the Center for X-Ray Optics

http://henke.lbl.gov/optical_constants/





The Center for X-Ray Optics is a multi-disciplined research group within Lawrence Berkeley National Laboratory's (LBNL)

X-Ray Interactions With Matter

Introduction

Access the atomic scattering factor files.

Look up x-ray properties of the elements.

The index of refraction for a compound material.

The x-ray attenuation length of a solid.

X-ray transmission

- Of a solid.
- · Of a gas.

X-ray reflectivity

- · Of a thick mirror.
- Of a single layer.
- Of a bilayer.
- Of a multilayer.

The diffraction efficiency of a transmission grating.

Related calculations:

Synchrotron bend magnet radiation.

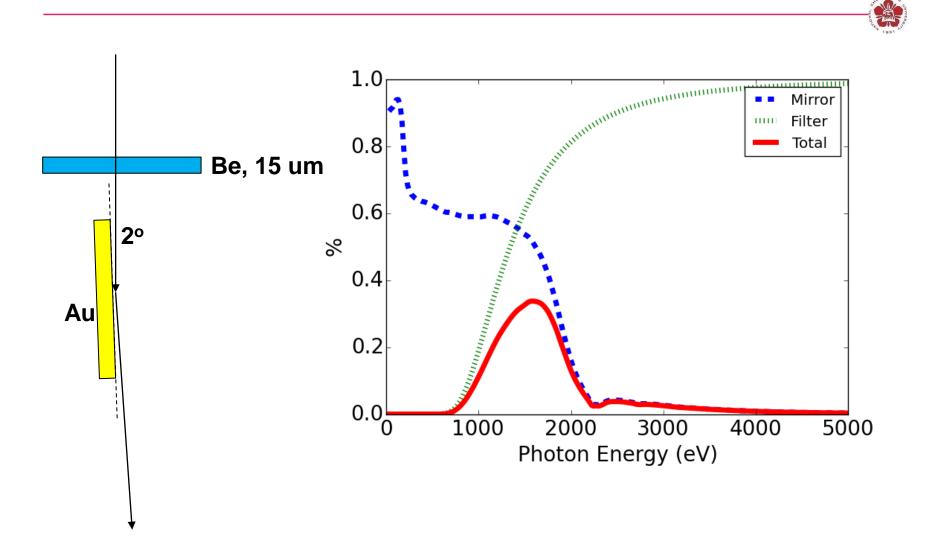
Other x-ray web resources.

X-ray Data Booklet

Reference

B.L. Henke, E.M. Gullikson, and J.C. Davis. *X-ray interactions: photoabsorption, scattering, transmission, and reflection at E=50-30000 eV, Z=1-92*, Atomic Data and Nuclear Data Tables Vol. **54** (no.2), 181-342 (July 1993).

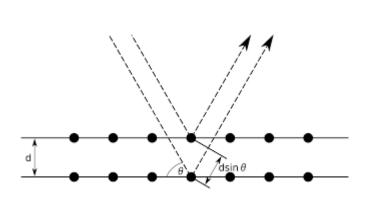
A band pass filter is obtained by combing a filter and a mirror

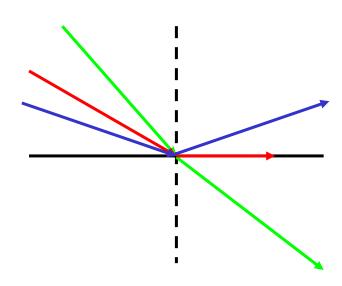


X rays can not be concentrated by lenses



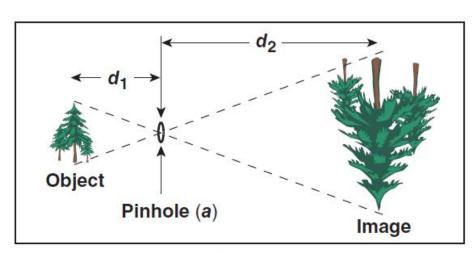
- X-ray refractive indices are less than unity, $n \lesssim 1$
- For those with lower refractive indices, the absorption is also strong
- X-ray mirrors can be made through
 - Bragg reflection
 - External total reflection with a small grazing angle





The simplest imaging device is a pinhole camera



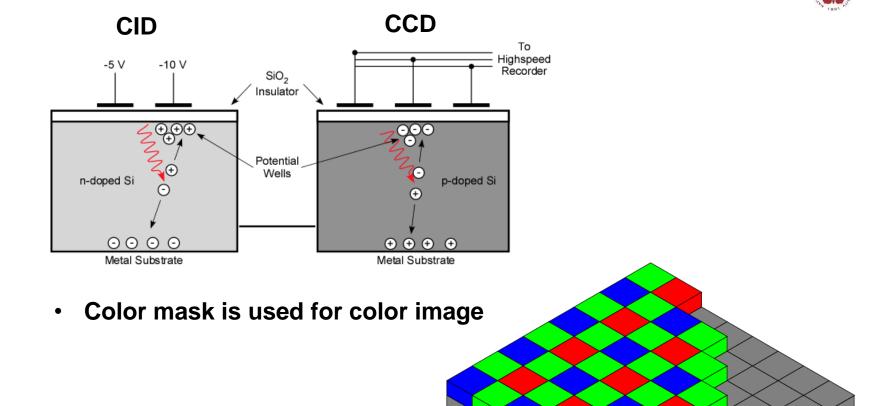


Kodak Brownie camera

- Magnification = $\frac{d_2}{d_1}$
- Infinite depth of field (variable magnification)
- Pinhole diameter determines
 - resolution ~a
 - light collection: $\Delta\Omega = \frac{\pi}{4} \frac{a^2}{d_1^2}$

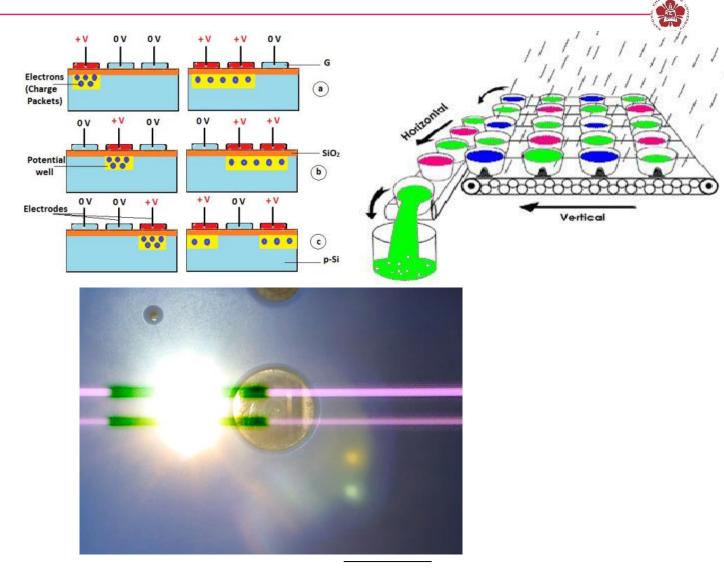
Imaging optics (e.g., lenses) can be used for higher resolutions with larger solid angles.

2D images can be taken using charge injection device (CID) or charge coupled device (CCD)



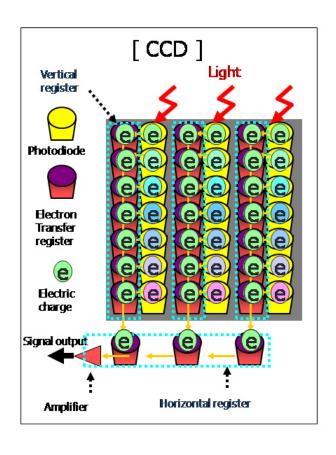
Charges are transferred along the array for readout in CCD

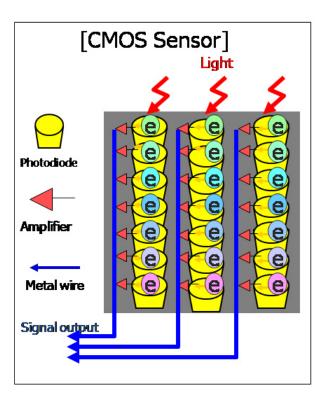
CCD readout:



Signal is readout individually in CMOS sensor

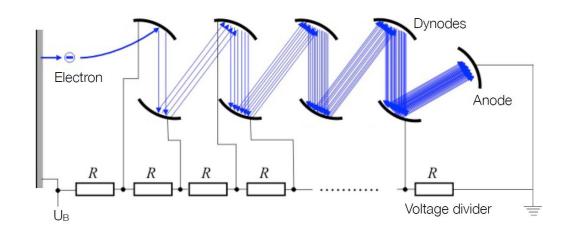


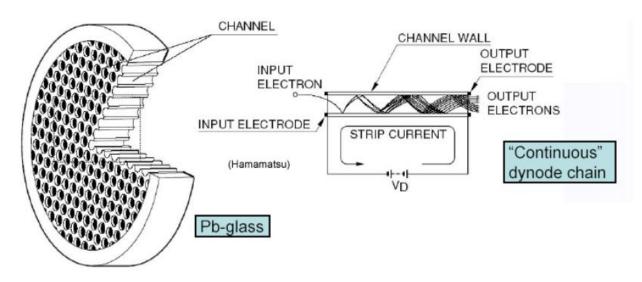




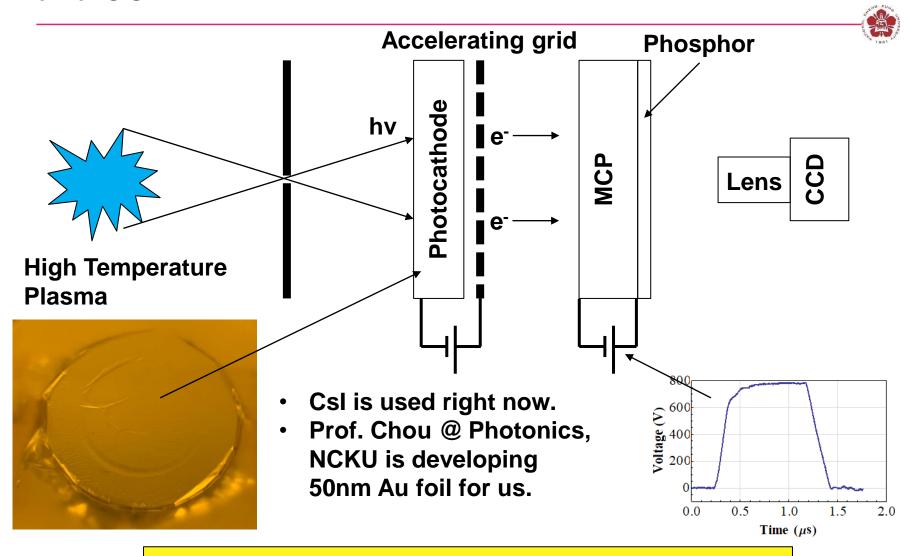
The number of electrons can be increased through photomultipliers or microchannel plate (MCP)





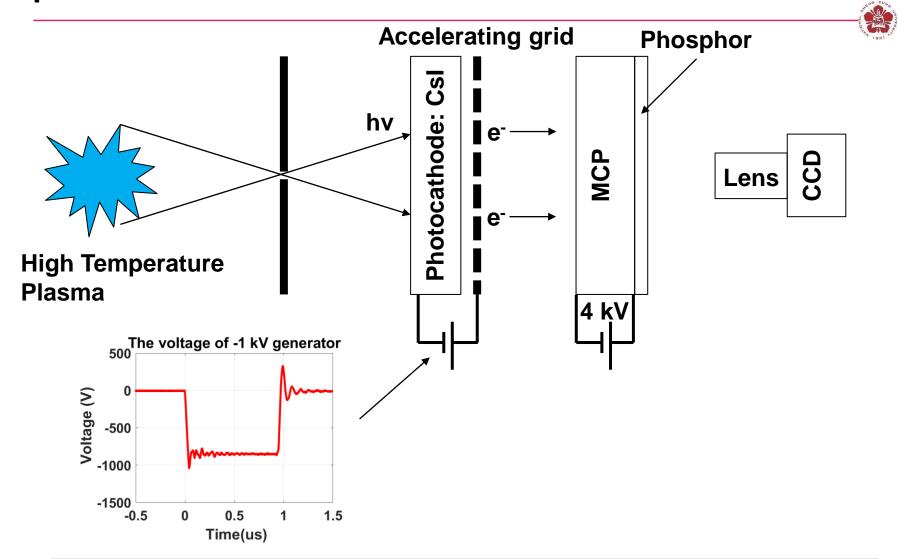


X-rays are imaged using photocathode, MCP, phosphor, and CCD



Images can be gated using fast high voltage pulses.

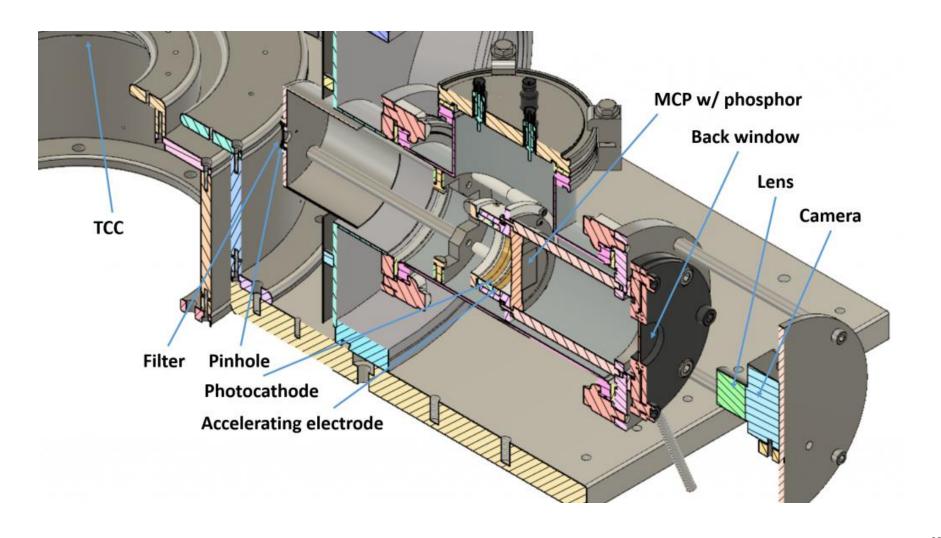
A negative high-voltage pulse is used in our x-ray pinhole camera



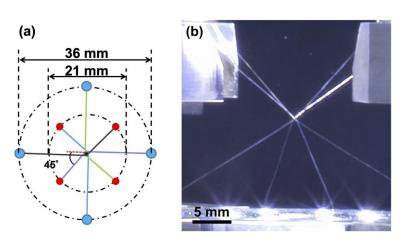
The x-ray camera with a shutter opening time of ≤ 10 ns will be built.

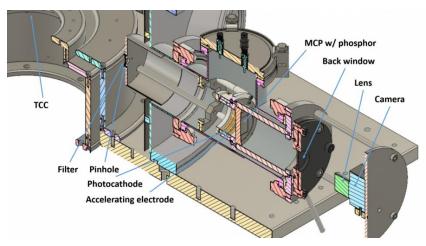
A pinhole camera was designed and was built

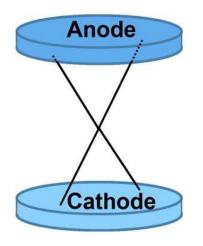


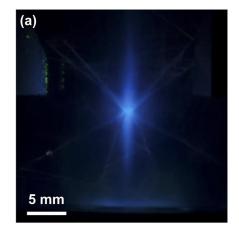


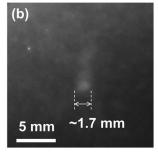
We demonstrated using x-ray pinhole camera to capture the radiation from an imploded x pinch







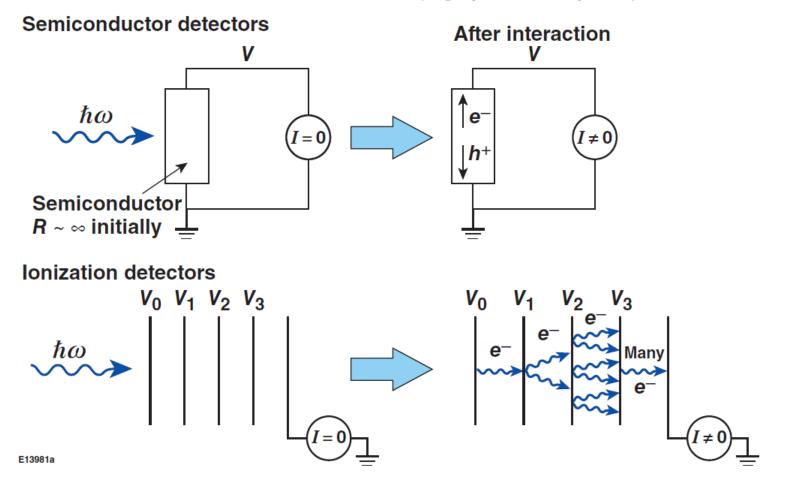




Electronic detectors provide rapid readout



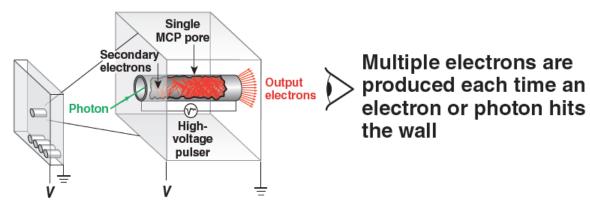
 Electronic detectors are typically semiconductors or ionization-based stacks (e.g., photomultipliers)



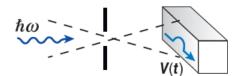
A framing camera provides a series of time-gated 2-D images, similar to a movie camera



- The building block of a framing camera is a gated microchannel-plate (MCP) detector
- An MCP is a plate covered with small holes, each acts as a photomultiplier



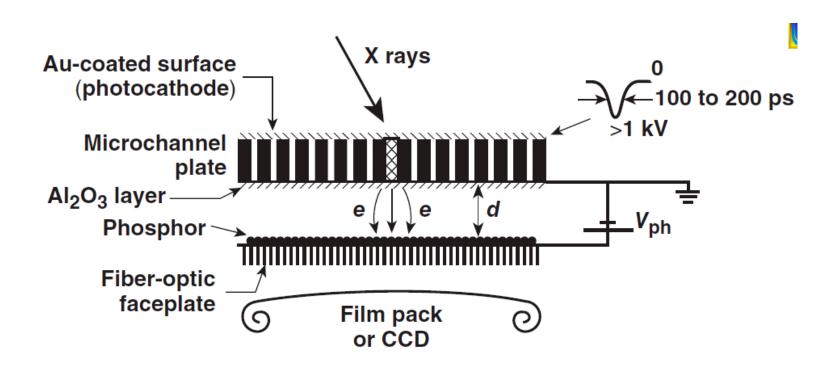
A voltage pulse is sent down the plate, gating the detector



The detector is only on when the voltage pulse is present

E13986b

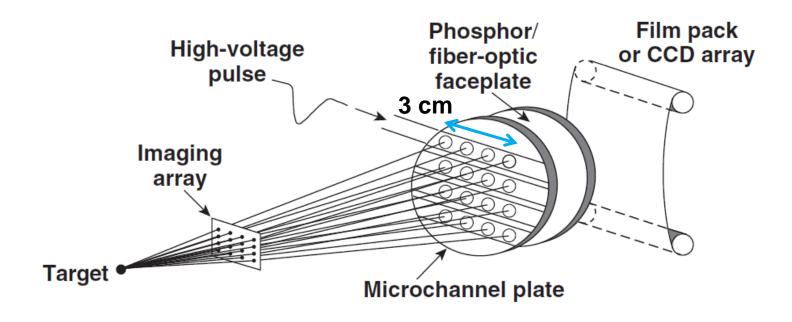
A framing camera detector consists of a microchannel plate (MCP) in front of a phosphor screen



- Electrons are multiplied through MCP by voltage V_c
- Images are recorded on film behind phosphor
- Insulating Al₂O₃ layer allows for V_{ph} to be increased, thereby improving the spatial resolution of phosphor

Two-dimensional time-resolved images are recorded using x-ray framing cameras





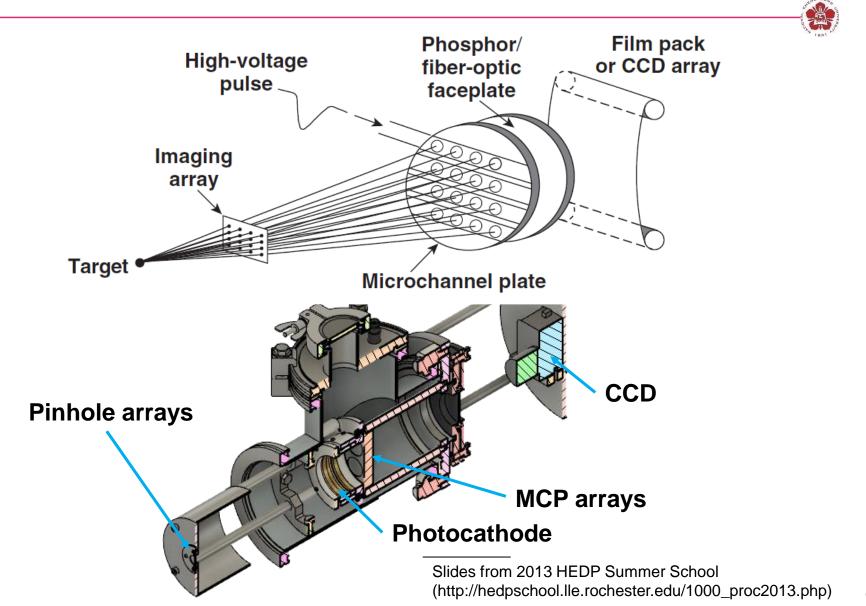
- Temporal resolution = 35 to 40 ps
- Imaging array: Pinholes: 10- to 12- μ m resolution, 1 to 4 keV
- Space-resolved x-ray spectra can be obtained by using Bragg crystals and imaging slits

E7105b

Ex:
$$\Delta t = \frac{3 \text{ cm}/3}{3 \times 10^{10} \text{ cm/s}} = 33 \text{ ps}$$

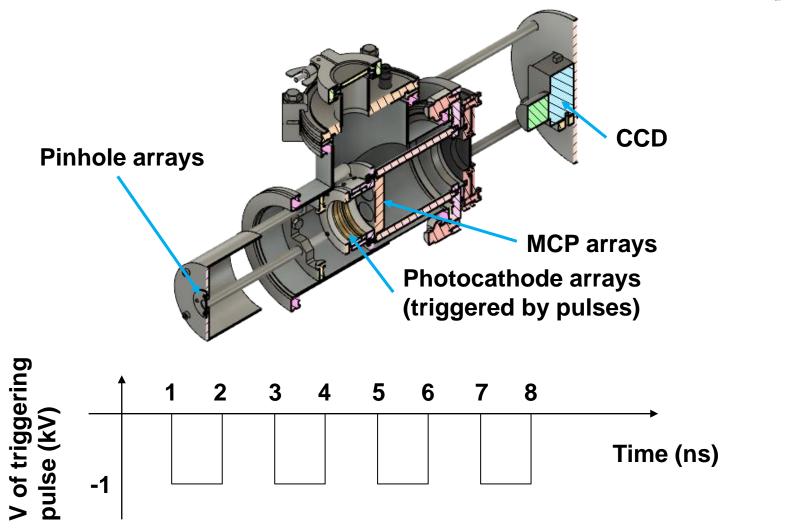
Framing camera

X-ray framing cameras for recording two-dimensional time-resolved images will be built by the end of 2021



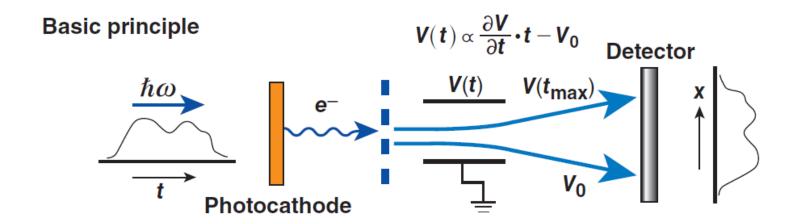
Each pinhole camera will be triggered separately



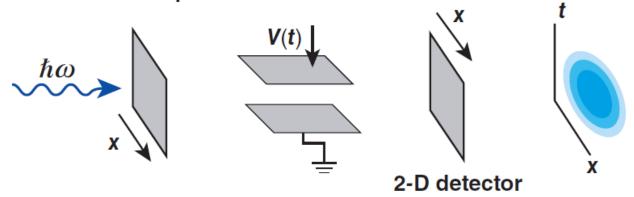


A streak camera provides temporal resolution of 1-D data





A streak camera can provide 2-D information

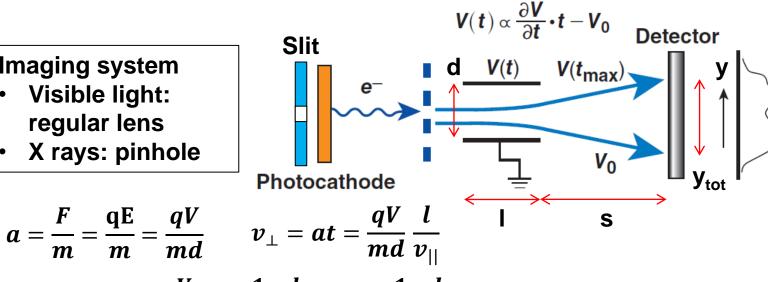


A temporal resolution higher than 15 ps is expected



Imaging system

- Visible light: regular lens
- X rays: pinhole



$$m$$
 m md md $v_{||}$ $y = s \operatorname{Tan}\theta = s \frac{V_{\perp}}{V_{||}} = \frac{1}{2E_{L}} \frac{l}{d} sqV = \frac{1}{2E_{L}} \frac{l}{d} sq(V_{0} + V't)$

Let d=10 mm, l=20 mm, s=50 mm, $E_k=1$ keV, V=-200 ~ 200 V

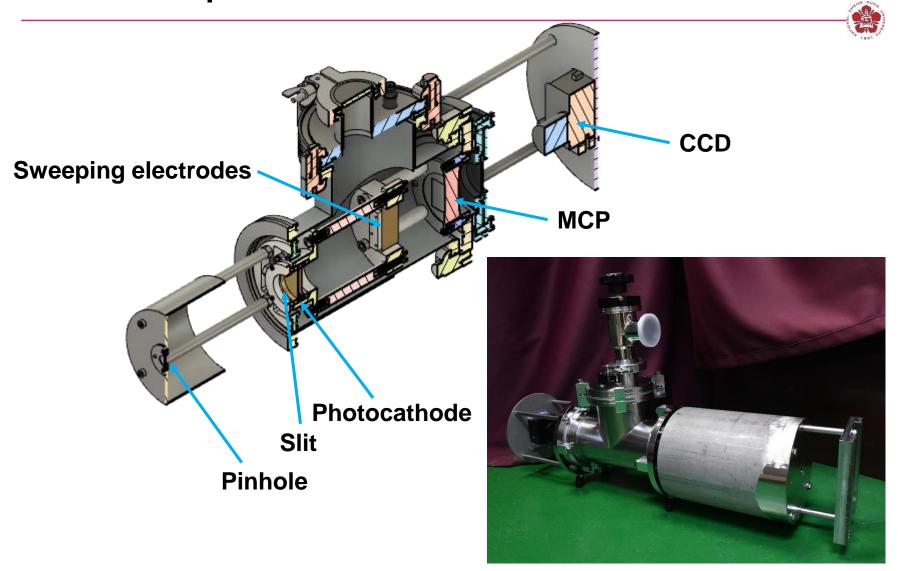
$$V' \equiv \frac{V_{\text{tot}}}{t_{\text{tot}}} = 0.06 \,\text{kV/ns}$$
 $y_{\text{tot}} = 15 \,\text{mm}$ $y_{\text{tot}} = 15 \,\text{mm}$

Temporal resolution:

$$\delta t = \delta y \frac{2E_k d}{lsqV'} = 15 \text{ ps for } \delta y = 45 \mu m$$

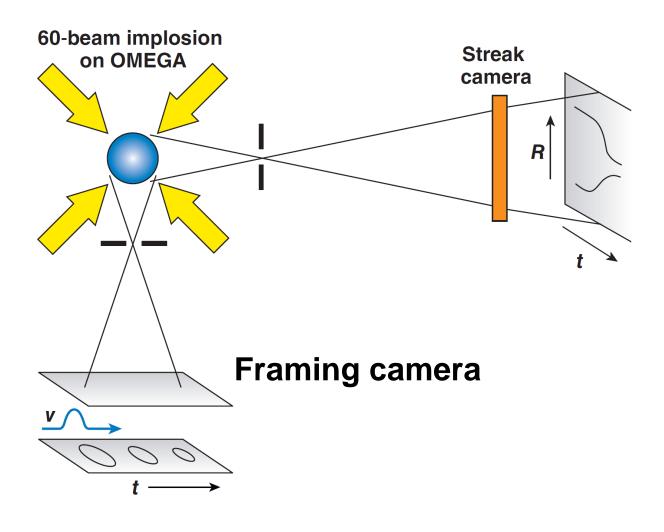
• δt will be adjusted by changing E_k .

A streak camera with temporal resolution of 15 ps has been developed



Shell trajectories can be measured using framing camera or streak camera



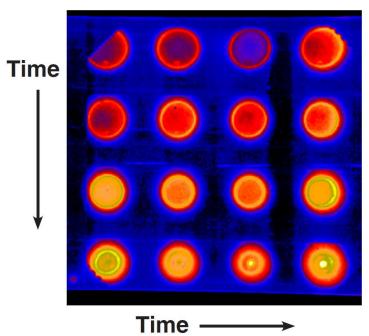


Comparison of images from framing camera versus streak camera

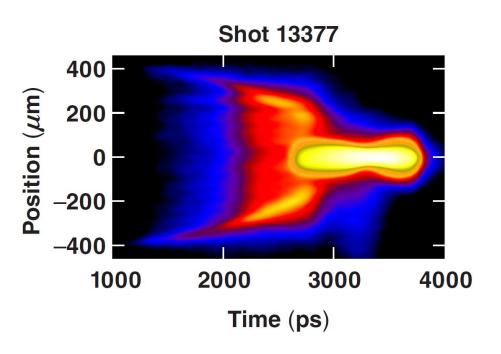




Shot 13377

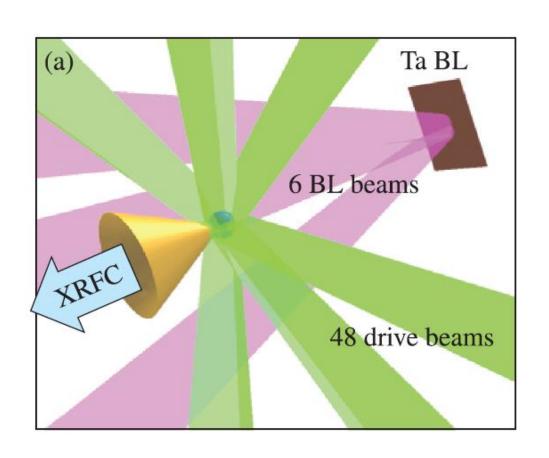


Streak-camera image



The optical density can be measured using the absorption of a backlighter





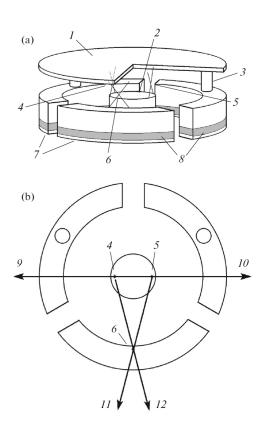
$$I = \int I(\varepsilon) \exp(-\mu(\varepsilon)\rho\delta) d\varepsilon$$

$$I = I_{\text{BL}} \exp(-\bar{\mu}\rho\delta)$$

$$\ln I = \ln I_{\text{BL}} - \mu\rho r$$

X-ray radiography of an X-pinch by using another X-pinch or two X-pinches as point sources of probing radiation





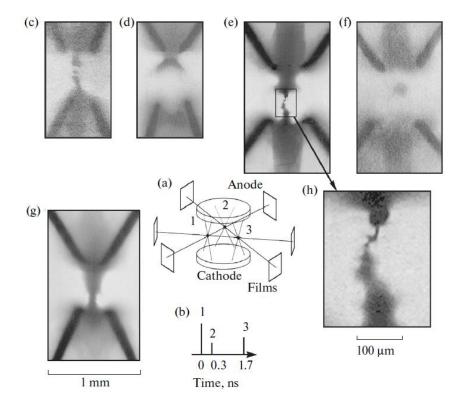
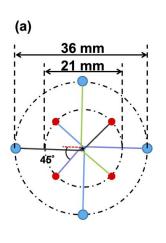
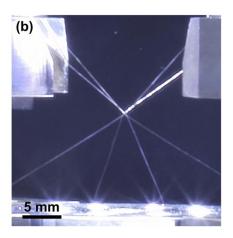
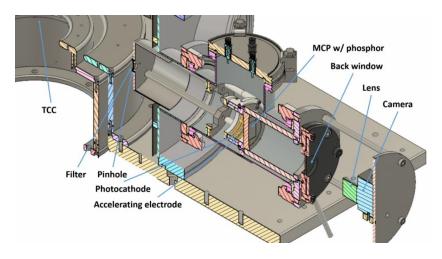


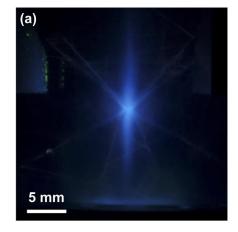
Fig. 44. X-ray radiographs obtained in the system of three parallel 2×12.5 - μ m Mo X-pinches: (a) arrangement of the pinches and films, (b) temporal positions and relative intensities of probing X-ray pulses, (c) image of X-pinch 1 in the radiation of X-pinch 2, (d) image of X-pinch 1 in the radiation of X-pinch 3, (e) image of X-pinch 2 in the radiation of X-pinch 1, (f) image of X-pinch 2 in the radiation of X-pinch 3, (g) image of X-pinch 3 in the radiation of X-pinch 1 emission, and (h) enlarged fragment of the image.

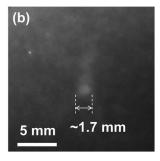
We demonstrated using x-ray pinhole camera to capture the radiation from an imploded x pinch



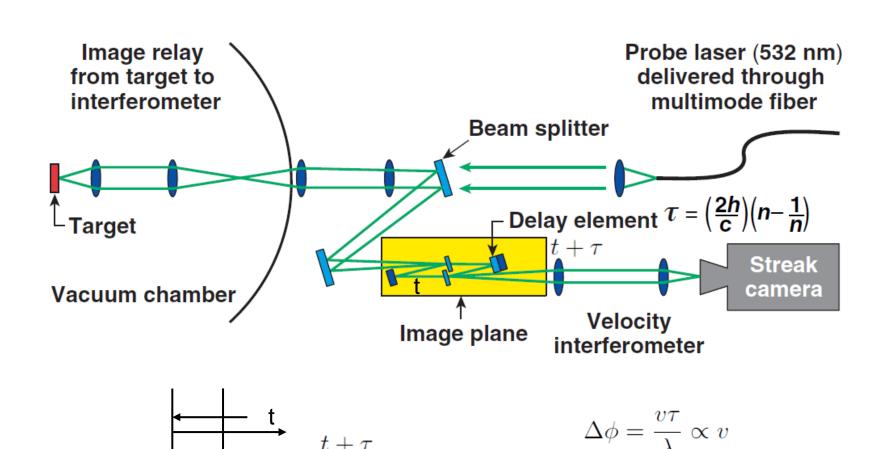




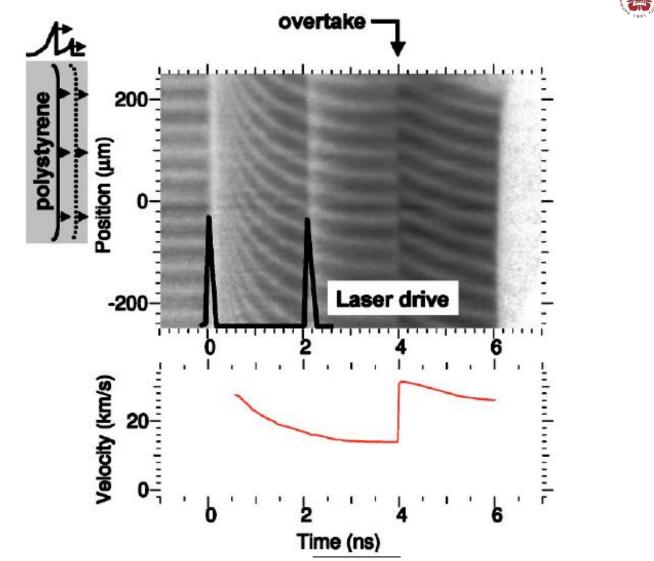


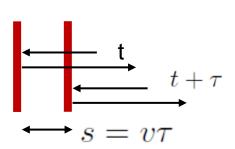


Shock velocities are measured using time-resolved Velocity Interferometer System for Any Reflector (VISAR)

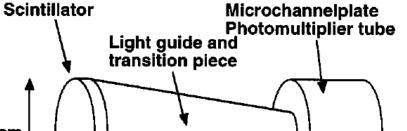


Shock velocities are measured using time-resolved Velocity Interferometer System for Any Reflector (VISAR)





Neutron average temperature is obtained using Neutron Time of Flight (NToF)



0.5 cm

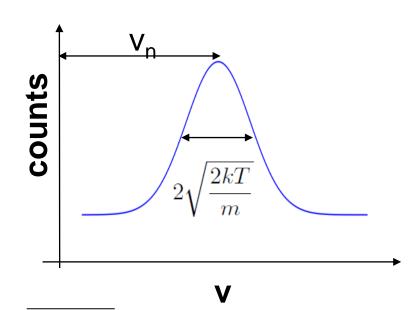


$$D + D \longrightarrow He^3 (0.82 \text{ MeV}) + n (2.45 \text{ MeV})$$

$$D + T \longrightarrow He^4 (3.5 \text{ MeV}) + n (14.1 \text{ MeV})$$

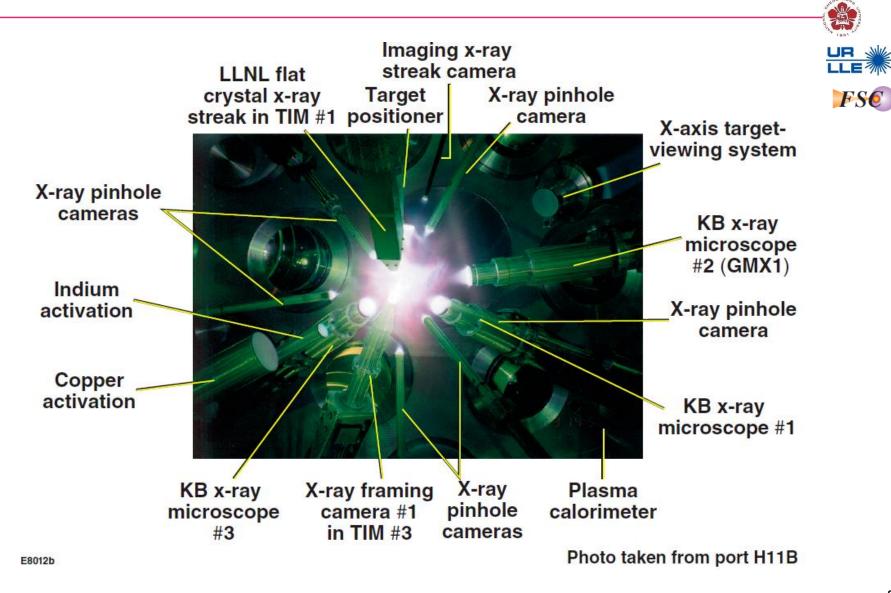
$$s = vt$$
 $v = \frac{s}{t}$

$$f(v) = \sqrt{\left(\frac{m}{2\pi kT}\right)} \exp\left(-\frac{mv^2}{2kT}\right)$$



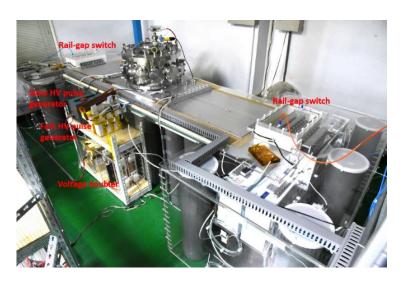
T. J. Murphy et al., Rev. Sci. Instrum. **72**, 773 (2001) 80

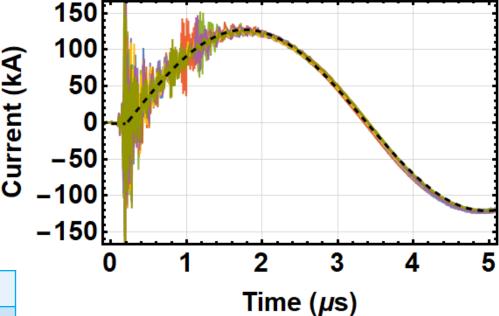
The OMEGA Facility is carrying out ICF experiments using a full suite of target diagnostics



A peak current of ~135 kA with a rise time of ~1.6 us is provided by the pulsed-power system

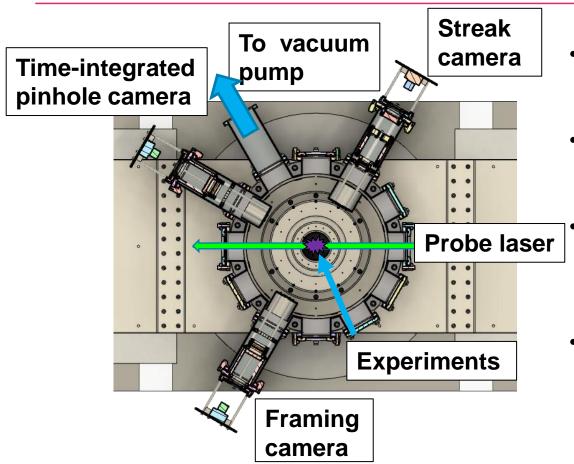






Capacitance (µF)	5
V _{charge} (kV)	20
Energy (kJ)	1
Inductance (nH)	204 ± 4
Rise time (quarter period, ns)	1592 ± 3
I _{peak} (kA)	135 <u>+</u> 1

A suit of diagnostics in the range of (soft) x-ray are being built



- Csl are used as the photocathode for all xray imaging system.
- Au photocathode may be used in the future.

Pinhole camera:

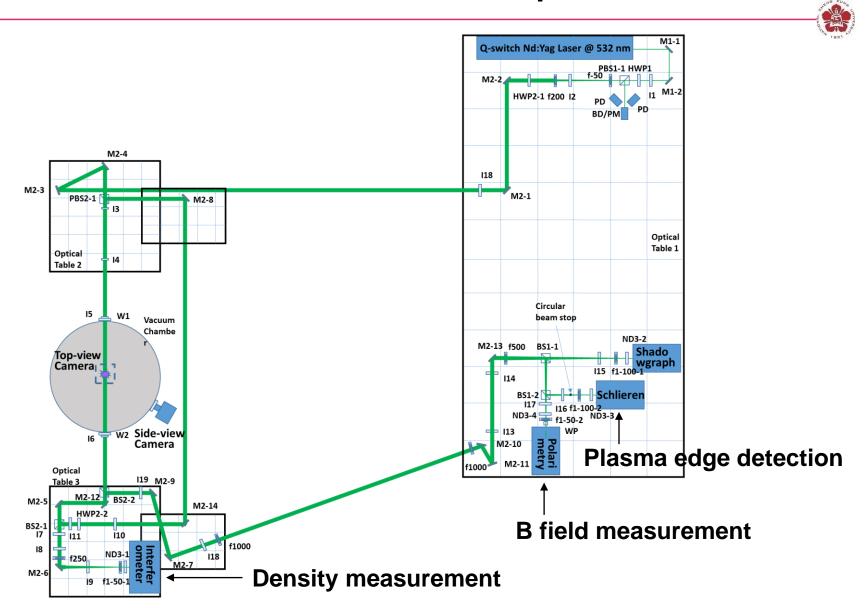
- Magnification: 1x

- Exposure time: 1 us

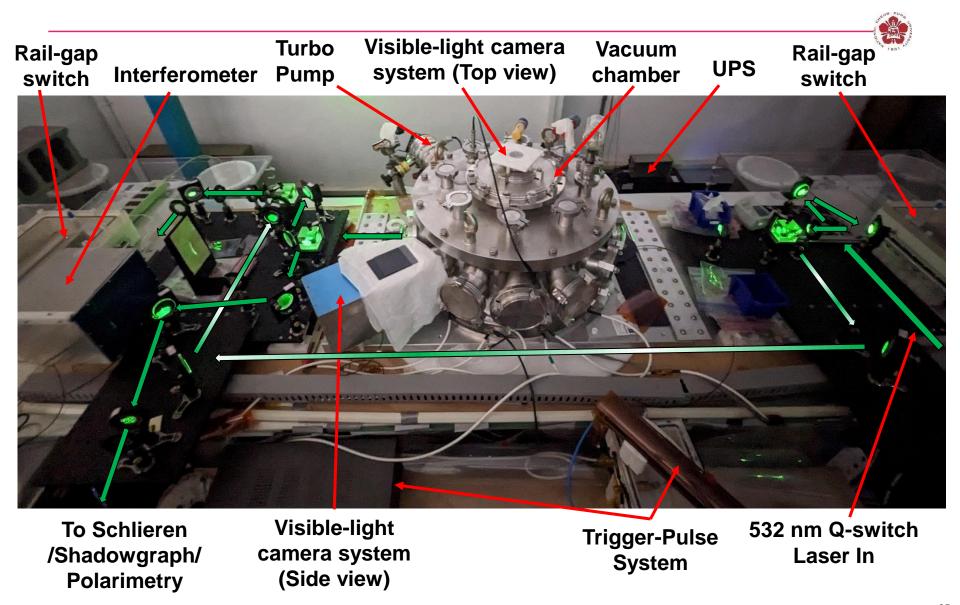
Streak camera:

- Magnification: 1x
- Temporal resolution: 15 ps
- Framing camera:
- Magnification: 0.3x
- Temporal resolution: ~ns using 4 individual MCPs
- Laser probing:
- For interferometer, schlieren, shadowgraphy, Thomson scattering.
- Temporal resolution: ~300 ps using stimulated brillouin scattering (SBS) pulse compression in water

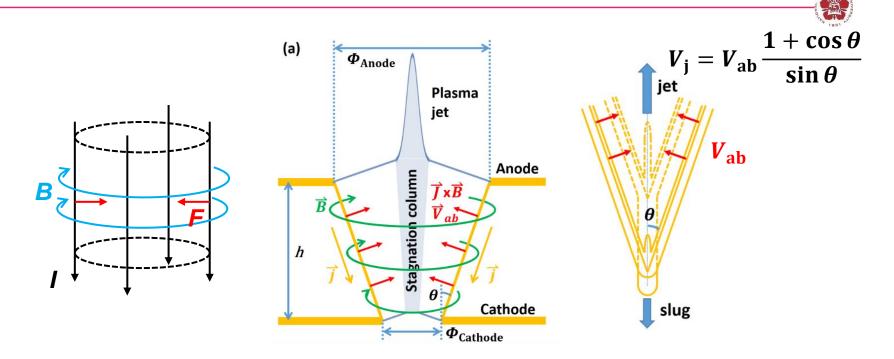
Time-resolved imaging system with temporal resolution in the order of nanoseconds was implemented



Varies diagnostics were integrated to the system



A plasma jet can be generated by a conical-wire array due to the nonuniform z-pinch effect

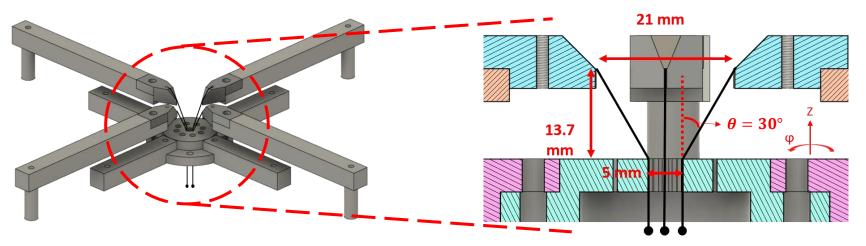


- 1. Wire ablation: corona plasma is generated by wire ablations.
- 2. Precursor : corona plasma is pushed by the $\vec{J} \times \vec{B}$ force and accumulated on the axis forming a precursor.
- 3. Plasma jet is formed by the nonuniform z-pinch effect due to the radius difference between the top and the bottom of the array.

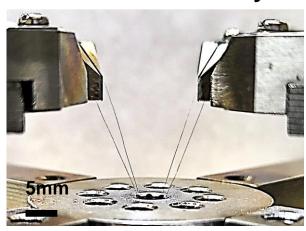
D. J. Ampleforda, et al., Phys. Plasmas 14, 102704 (2007)

G. Birkhoff, et al., J. Applied Physics 19, 563 (1948)

Our conical-wire array consists of 4 tungsten wires with an inclination angle of 30° with respect to the axis



Conical-wire array



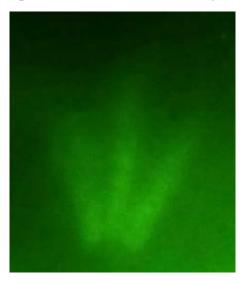


- Material : Tungsten.
- Number of wires: 4.
- Diameter : 20 µm.

Self-emission of the plasma jet in the UV to soft x-ray regions was captured by the pinhole camera



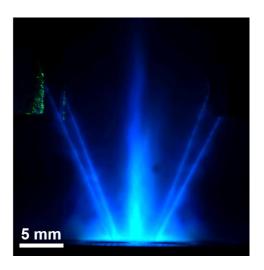
Image in UV/soft x ray



(Brightness is increased by 40 %.)

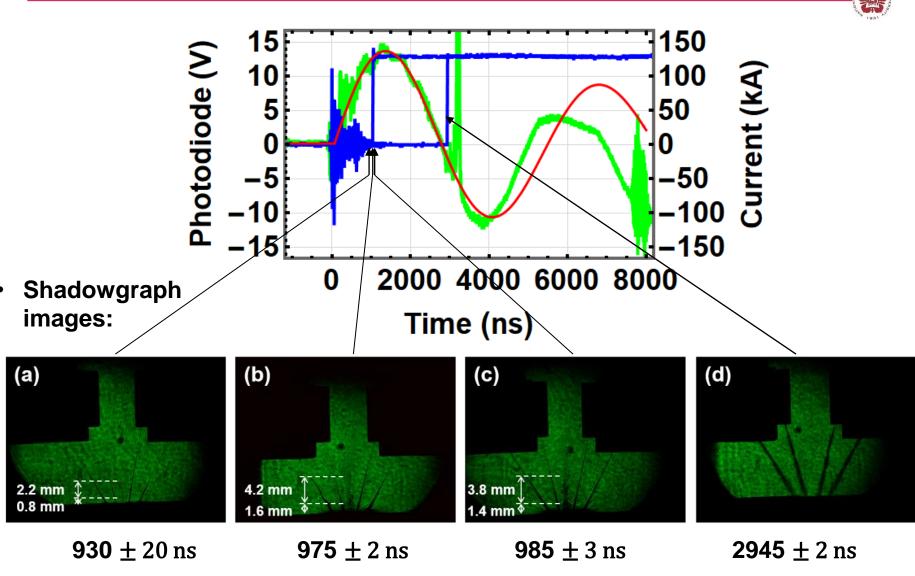
Pinhole diameter:
 0.5 mm, i.e., spatial resolution: 1 mm.

Image in visible light



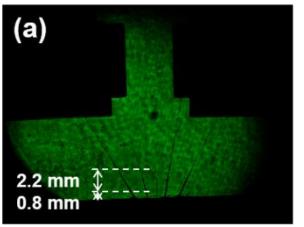
(Enhanced by scaling the intensity range linearly from 0 - 64 to 0 - 255.)

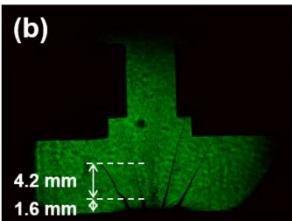
Plasma jet propagation was observed using laser diagnostics

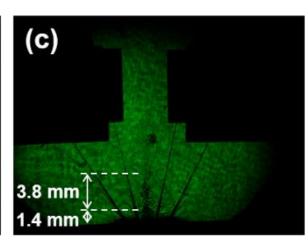


Length of the plasma jet at different time was obtained by the Schlieren images at different times

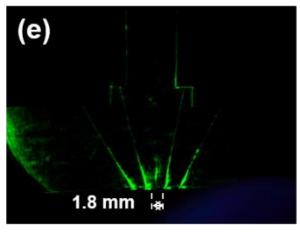
Shadowgraph images:

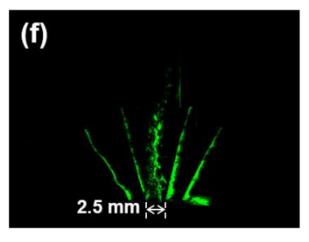


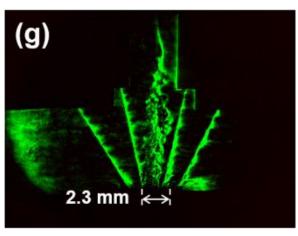




Schlieren images:







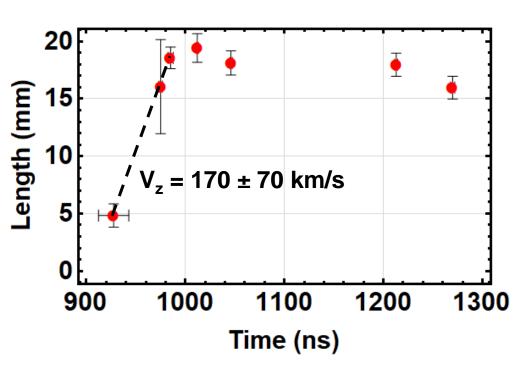
 $930 \pm 20 \text{ ns}$

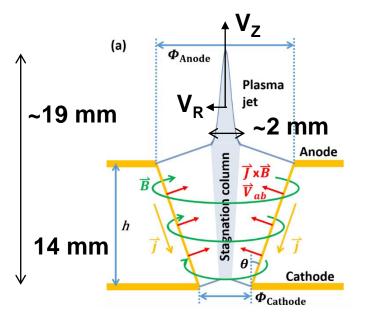
 $975 \pm 2 \text{ ns}$

 $985 \pm 3 \text{ ns}$

The measured plasma jet speed is $170 \pm 70 \text{ km/s}$ with the corresponding Mach number greater than 5





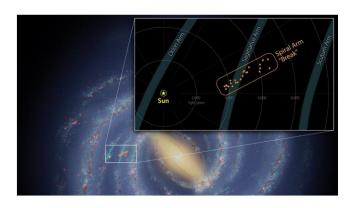


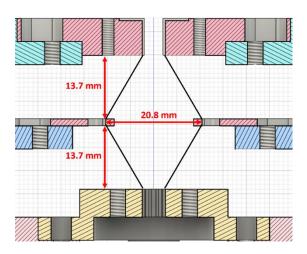
$$M = \frac{V_Z}{V_R} \ge \frac{Z}{r} \approx \frac{(19 - 14) \text{ mm}}{\frac{2 \text{ mm}}{2}} = 5$$

$$V_{ab} = V_{j} \frac{\sin \theta}{1 + \cos \theta} = 50 \pm 20 \text{ km/s}$$

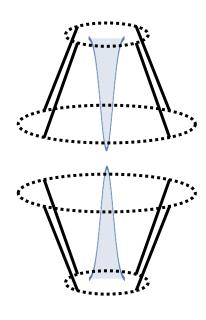
Plasma disk can be formed when two head-on plasma jets collide with each other

 Astronomers Find a 'Break' in One of the Milky Way's Spiral Arms.









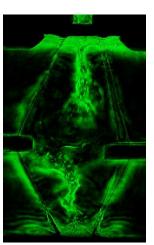
Plasma disk can be formed when two head-on plasma jets collide with each other



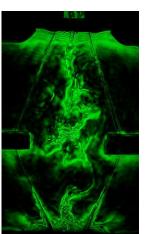
Schlieren

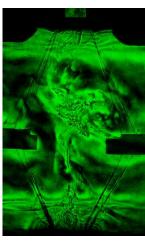








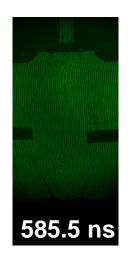




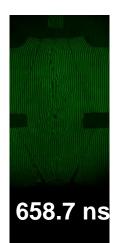
Interferometer







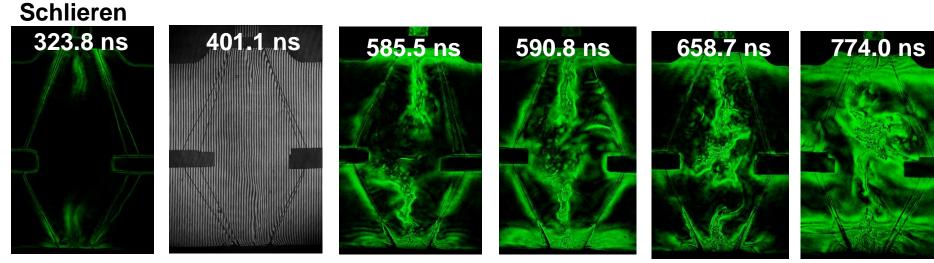






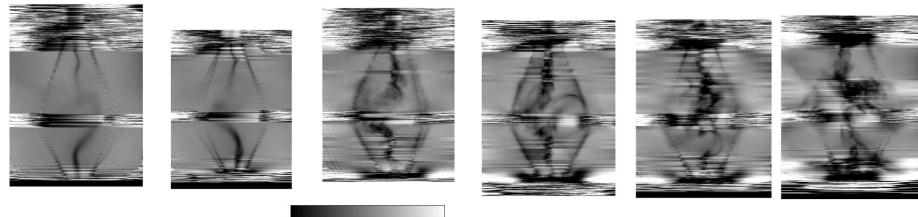
Plasma disk can be formed when two head-on plasma jets collide with each other





Interferometer

 $-2\pi \sim 2\pi = 0 \sim 4.2 \times 10^{17} \text{ cm}^{-2} = 8.4 \times 10^{17} \text{ cm}^{-3} \text{ for } l = 5 \text{mm}$



-6 -4 -2 0 2 4

Φ(rad)

Energetic charged particles losses most of its energy right before it stops



Momentum transfer:

$$\Delta p_{\perp} = \int F_{\perp} dt = \int F_{\perp} \frac{dt}{dx} dx = \int F_{\perp} \frac{dx}{v}$$

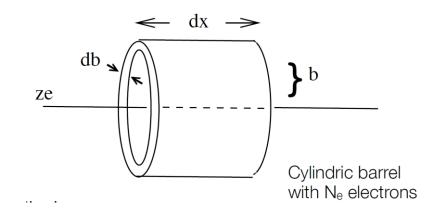
$$= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{ze^2}{(x^2 + b^2)} \cdot \frac{b}{\sqrt{x^2 + b^2}} \cdot \frac{1}{v} \, dx = \frac{ze^2b}{v} \left[\frac{x}{b^2 \sqrt{x^2 + b^2}} \right]_{-\infty}^{\infty} = \frac{2ze^2}{bv}$$

 Δp_{\parallel} : averages to zero

$$\Delta E(b) = \frac{\Delta p^2}{2m_{\rm e}} \quad \ {\rm N_e} \ = \ {\rm n\cdot (2\pi b) \cdot db \, dx} \label{eq:delta_E}$$

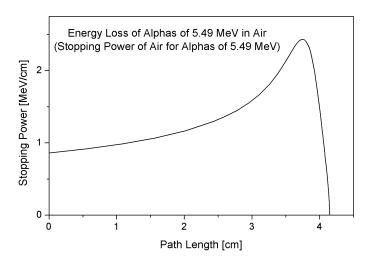
$$-dE(b) = \frac{\Delta p^2}{2m_e} \cdot 2\pi nb \, db \, dx$$

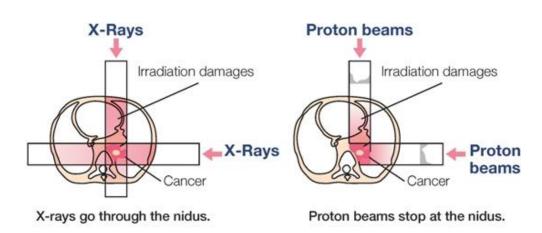
$$-\frac{dE}{dx} = \frac{4\pi \, n \, z^2 e^4}{m_{\rm e} v^2} \cdot \int_{b_{\rm min}}^{b_{\rm max}} \frac{db}{b} = \frac{4\pi \, n \, z^2 e^4}{m_{\rm e} v^2} \, \ln \frac{b_{\rm max}}{b_{\rm min}}$$



Proton therapy takes the advantage of using Bragg peak

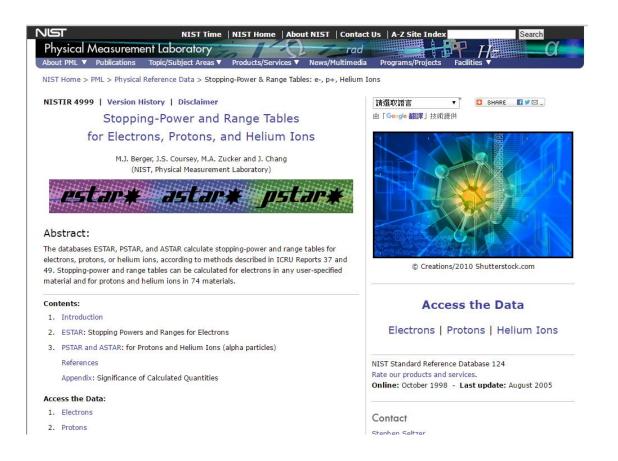




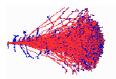


There are two suggested website for getting the information of proton stopping power in different materials

http://www.nist.gov/pml/data/star/

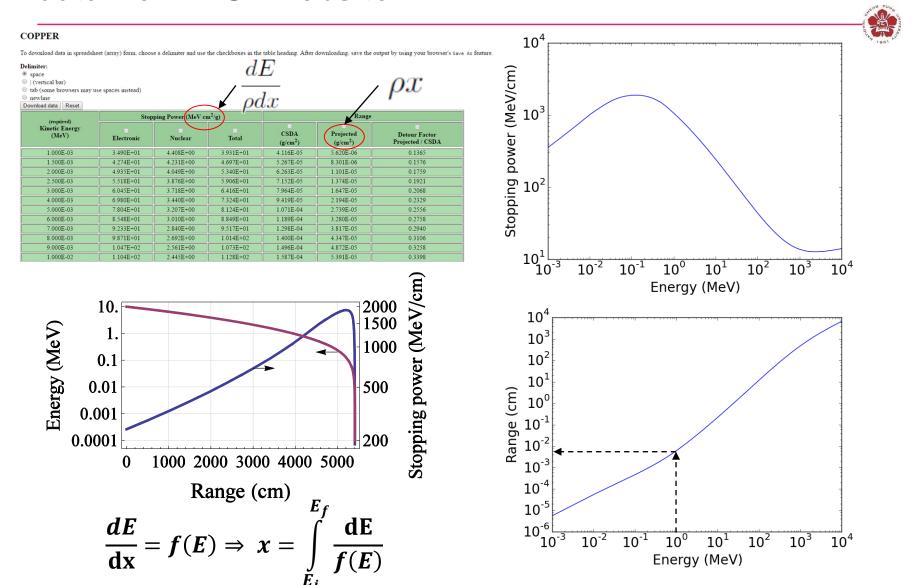


http://www.srim.org/



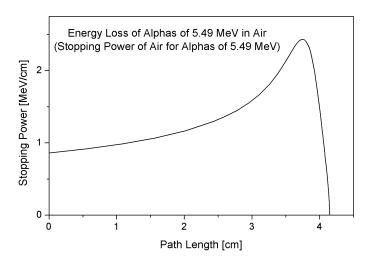
SRIM Textbook		
Software	Science	
SRIM / TRIM Introduction	<u> Historical Review</u>	
Download SRIM- 2013	Details of SRIM- 2013	
<u>SRIM</u> <u>Install Problems</u>	Experimental Data Plots Stopping of Ions in Matter	
SRIM Tutorials	Stopping in Compounds	
Download TRIM Manual Part-1, Part-2	Scientific Citations of Experimental Data	

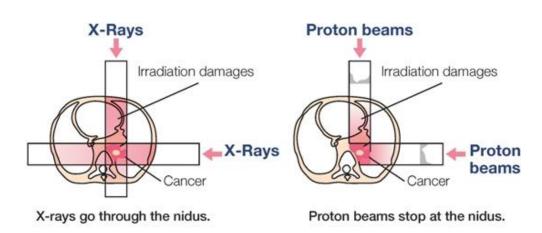
The thickness of a filter can be decided from the range data from NIST website



Proton therapy takes the advantage of using Bragg peak







Saha equation gives the relative proportions of atoms of a certain species that are in two different states of ionization in thermal equilibrium

$$\frac{n_{r+1}n_e}{n_r} = \frac{G_{r+1}g_e}{G_r} \frac{(2\pi m_e KT)^{3/2}}{h^3} \exp\left(-\frac{\chi_r}{KT}\right)$$

- n_{r+1}, n_r: Density of atoms in ionization state r+1, r (m⁻³)
- n_e: Density of electrons (m⁻³)
- G_{r+1}, G_r: Partition function of ionization state r+1, r
- g_e=2: Statistical weight of the electron
- m_e: Mass of the electron
- χ_r: Ionization potential of ground level of state r to reach to the ground level of state r+1
- T: Temperature
- h: Planck's constant
- K: Boltzmann constant

Some backgrounds of quantum mechanics



Planck blackbody function:

$$u(\nu,T) = \frac{8\pi h \nu^3}{c^3} \frac{1}{e^{h\nu/KT} - 1} (W/m^3 Hz)$$

- **Boltzmann formula:**
 - g_i, g_i: statistical weight

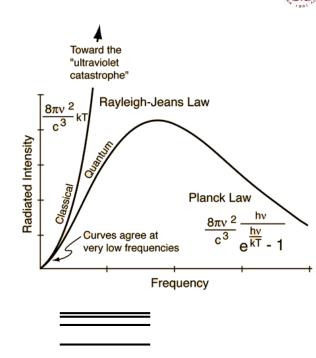
$$\frac{n_i}{n_j} = \frac{g_i e^{-\epsilon_i/\text{KT}}}{g_i e^{-\epsilon_j/\text{KT}}} = \frac{g_i}{g_j} e^{-h\nu_{ij}/\text{KT}} \qquad \frac{g_i}{g_j} = \frac{2J_i + 1}{2J_j + 1}$$

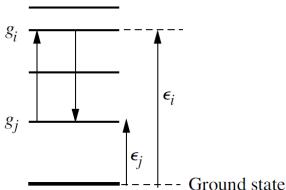
(J: angular momenta quantum number)

– Number in the ith state to the total atom:

$$\frac{n_i}{n} = \frac{n_i}{\Sigma n_i} \equiv \frac{g_i e^{-\epsilon_i/\text{KT}}}{G} \qquad G \equiv \Sigma g_j e^{-\epsilon_j/\text{KT}}$$

G: partition function of statistical weight for the atom, taking into account all its excited states.





Einstein coefficient



- Probability of electron energy transition:
 - Excitation (\uparrow): $P_{ji} = B_{ji}u(\nu, T)$
 - De-excitation (\downarrow): $P_{ij} = A_{ij} + B_{ij}u(\nu, T)$
- In thermal equilibrium:

$$n_{i}(A_{ij} + B_{ij}u) = n_{j}B_{ji}u$$

$$\frac{g_{i}}{g_{j}}e^{-x}(A_{ij} + B_{ij}u) = B_{ji}u$$

$$x \equiv \frac{h\nu}{KT}$$

$$u = a(e^{x} - 1)^{-1}$$

$$a \equiv \frac{8\pi h\nu^{3}}{c^{3}}$$

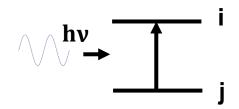
$$a\left(e^{x}B_{ji} - \frac{g_{i}}{g_{j}}B_{ij}\right) = (e^{x} - 1)\frac{g_{i}}{g_{j}}A_{ij}$$

• The Einstein coefficients are independent of T or ν .

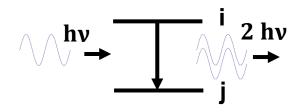
$$x \to 0, e^x \to 1$$
 $x \to \infty, e^x \to \infty$
$$\frac{B_{ij}}{B_{ii}} = \frac{g_j}{g_i}$$

$$aB_{ji} = \frac{g_i}{g_j} A_{ij} \quad \frac{A_{ij}}{B_{ij}} = \frac{8\pi h \nu^3}{c^3}$$

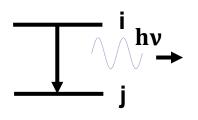
Photoexcitation:



Induced radiation:



Spontaneous radiation:



Saha equation is derived using the transition between different ionization states

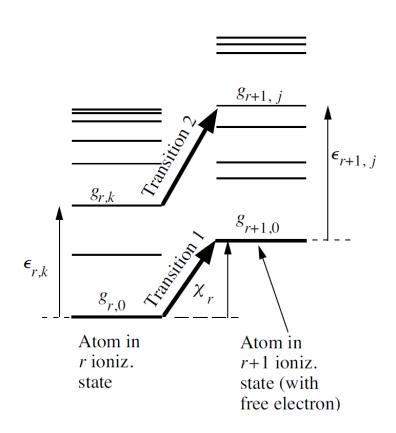


 Required photon energy for transition 1 from the ground state of r ionization state to the ground state of r+1 ionization state:

$$hv = \chi_r + \frac{p^2}{2m}$$
 Energy of the free electron

 Required photon energy for transition 2 from the energy level k of r ionization state to the energy level j of r+1 ionization state:

$$hv = \chi_r + \epsilon_{r+1,j} - \epsilon_{r,k} + \frac{p^2}{2m}$$



Saha equation is derived using the transition between different ionization states



Photoionization:

$$R_{\mathrm{pi}} = n_{r,k} u(\nu) B_{r,k \to r+1,j}$$

Induced radiation:

$$R_{ir} = n_{r+1,j} n_{e,p}(p) u(\nu) B_{r+1,j \to r,k}$$

Spontaneous emission:

$$R_{\rm sr} = n_{r+1,j} n_{e,p}(p) A_{r+1,j\to r,k}$$

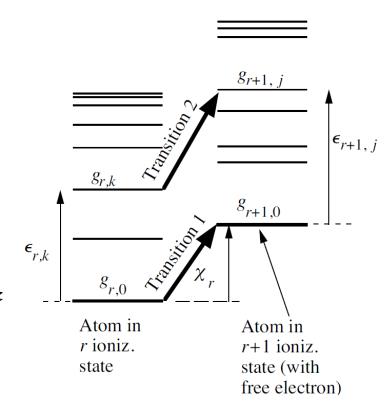
In thermal equilibrium:

$$n_{r+1,j}n_{e,p}A_{r+1,j\to r,k} + n_{r+1,j}n_{e,p}uB_{r+1,j\to r,k}$$

= $n_{r,k}uB_{r,k\to r+1,j}$

Einstein coefficients:

$$\frac{B_{r,k\to r+1,j}}{B_{r+1,j\to r,k}} = \frac{g_{r+1,j}}{g_{r,k}} \frac{g_e 4\pi p^2}{h^3}$$



$$\frac{A_{r+1,j\to r,k}}{B_{r+1,j\to r,k}} = \frac{8\pi h \nu^3}{c^3}$$

Saha equation - continued



$$n_{r+1,j}n_{e,p}A_{r+1,j\to r,k} + n_{r+1,j}n_{e,p}uB_{r+1,j\to r,k} = n_{r,k}uB_{r,k\to r+1,j}$$

$$n_{r+1,j}n_{e,p}rac{A_{r+1,j o r,k}}{B_{r+1,j o r,k}}+n_{r+1,j}n_{e,p}u=n_{r,k}urac{B_{r,k o r+1,j}}{B_{r+1,j o r,k}}$$

$$\frac{n_{r+1,j}n_{e,p}}{n_{r,k}} = \left(\frac{A_{r+1,j\to r,k}}{uB_{r+1,j\to r,k}} + 1\right)^{-1} \frac{B_{r,k\to r+1,j}}{B_{r+1,j\to r,k}}$$

$$n_{e,p}(p) = \frac{n_e 4\pi p^2}{(2\pi m KT)^{3/2}} \exp\left(-\frac{p^2}{2m KT}\right)$$

$$\frac{B_{r,k\to r+1,j}}{B_{r+1,j\to r,k}} = \frac{g_{r+1,j}}{g_{r,k}} \frac{g_e 4\pi p^2}{h^3}$$

$$\frac{A_{r+1,j\to r,k}}{B_{r+1,j\to r,k}} = \frac{8\pi h \nu^3}{c^3}$$

$$\frac{n_{r+1,j}n_e}{n_{r,k}} = \frac{(2\pi m KT)^{3/2}}{4\pi p^2} \exp\left(\frac{p^2}{2m KT}\right) \left[\frac{c^3}{8\pi h \nu^3} \left(e^{h\nu/KT} - 1\right) \frac{8\pi h \nu^3}{c^3} + 1\right]^{-1} \frac{g_{r+1,j}}{g_{r,k}} \frac{g_e 4\pi p^2}{h^3}$$

$$\frac{n_{r+1,j}n_e}{n_{r,k}} = \frac{(2\pi m KT)^{3/2}}{h^3} \frac{g_{r+1,j}g_e}{g_{r,k}} \exp\left[\frac{1}{KT} \left(\frac{p^2}{2m} - h\nu\right)\right]$$

Saha equation - continued



$$\frac{n_{r+1,j}n_e}{n_{r,k}} = \frac{(2\pi m KT)^{3/2}}{h^3} \frac{g_{r+1,j}g_e}{g_{r,k}} \exp\left[\frac{1}{KT} \left(\frac{p^2}{2m} - h\nu\right)\right]$$

$$\frac{n_{r+1,j}n_e}{n_{r,k}} = \frac{(2\pi m KT)^{3/2}}{h^3} \frac{g_{r+1,j}g_e}{g_{r,k}} \exp\left[\frac{1}{KT} \left(\frac{p^2}{2m} - \chi_r - \epsilon_{r+1,j} + \epsilon_{r,k} - \frac{p^2}{2m}\right)\right]$$

$$\frac{n_{r+1,j}n_e}{n_{r,k}} = \frac{(2\pi m KT)^{3/2}}{h^3} \frac{g_{r+1,j} \exp\left(\frac{\epsilon_{r+1,j}}{KT}\right)g_e}{g_{r,k} \exp\left(\frac{\epsilon_{r,k}}{KT}\right)} \exp\left(-\frac{\chi_r}{KT}\right)$$

$$rac{n_{r,k}}{n_r} = rac{g_{r,k}e^{-\epsilon_{r,k}/\mathrm{KT}}}{G_r}$$
 $G_r = \Sigma g_{r,k}e^{-\epsilon_{r,k}/\mathrm{KT}}$

$$\frac{n_{r+1,j}}{n_{r+1}} = \frac{g_{r+1,j}e^{-\epsilon_{r+1,j}/KT}}{G_{r+1}} \qquad G_{r+1} = \sum g_{r+1,j}e^{-\epsilon_{r+1,j}/KT}$$

$$\frac{n_{r+1}n_e}{n_r} = \frac{G_{r+1}g_e}{G_r} \frac{(2\pi m_e KT)^{3/2}}{h^3} \exp\left(-\frac{\chi_r}{KT}\right)$$

Saha equation – example: hydrogen plasma of the sun



- Photosphere of the sun hydrogen atoms in an optically thick gas in thermal equilibrium at temperature T=6400 K.
 - Neutral hydrogen (r state / ground state)

$$G_r = \Sigma g_{r,k} = g_{r,0} + g_{r,1} \exp\left(-\frac{\epsilon_{r,1}}{KT}\right) + \dots = 2 + 8 \exp\left(-\frac{10.2 \text{ eV}}{0.56 \text{ eV}}\right) + \dots$$

= 2 + 9.8 × 10⁻⁸ + \dots \approx 2

lonized state (r+1 state)

$$G_{r+1} = \Sigma g_{r+1,j} = g_{r+1,0} + g_{r+1,1} \exp\left(-\frac{\epsilon_{r+1,1}}{KT}\right) + \cdots \approx 1$$

– Other information: $g_e=2$ $\chi_r=13.6 \,\mathrm{eV}$; KT = 0.56 eV $n_{r+1}=n_e$

$$\frac{n_{r+1}^2}{n_r} = 2.41 \times 10^{21} \frac{1 \times 2}{2} (6400)^{3/2} \exp\left(-\frac{13.6}{0.56}\right) = 3.5 \times 10^{16} m^{-3}$$

It is mostly neutral in the photosphere of the sun



Assuming 50 % ionization:

$$n_{r+1} = n_r = 3.5 \times 10^{16} m^{-3}$$
 $n = n_{r+1} + n_r = 7 \times 10^{16} m^{-3}$

- At lower densities n at the same temperature, there should be fewer collisions leading to recombination and thus the plasma to be more than 50 % ionization.
- In the photosphere of the sun:

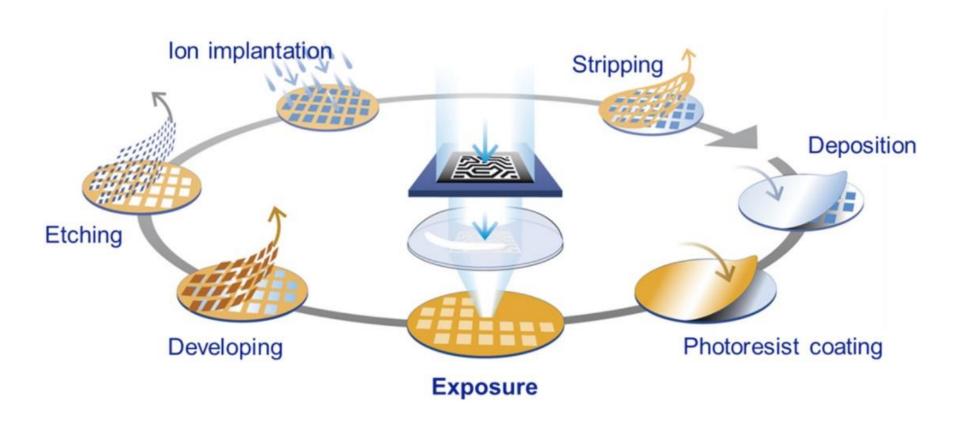
$$ho \sim 3 \times 10^{-4} \, \mathrm{kg}/m^3 \rightarrow n = 2 \times 10^{23} m^{-3} \gg 7 \times 10^{16} m^{-3}$$
 \Rightarrow Less than 50 % ionization

Use the total number density to estimate the ionization percentage:

$$n_{r+1} + n_r = 2 \times 10^{23}$$
 $\frac{n_{r+1}}{n_r} = 4 \times 10^{-4} @6400K$

A semiconductor device is fabricated by many repetitive production process

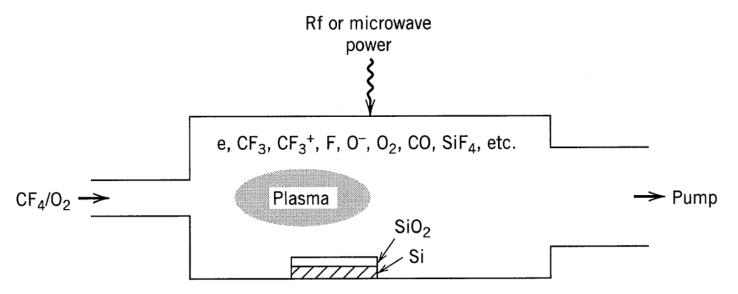




Reference for material processing



- Principles of plasma discharges and materials processing, 2nd edition, by Michael A. Lieberman and Allan J. Lichtenberg
- http://www.eecs.berkeley.edu/~lieber/
- Materials science of thin films, 2nd edition, by Milton Ohring
- Plasma etching, by Dennis M. Manos and Daniel L. Flamm
- Industrial plasma engineering, volume 1, by J. Reece Roth

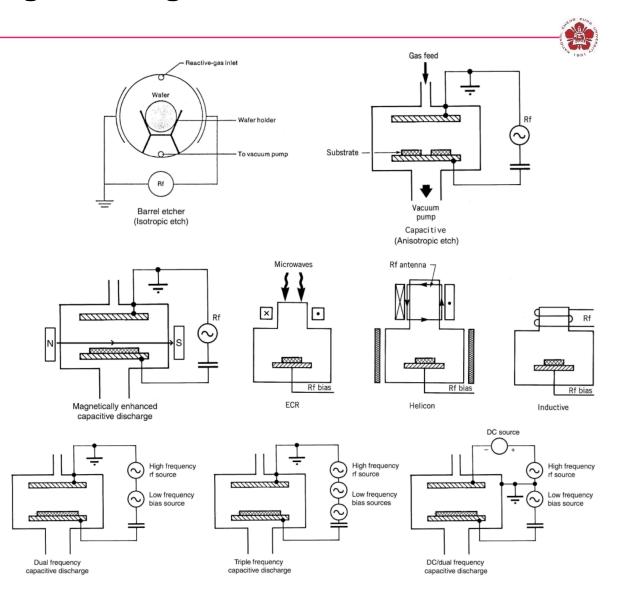


Evolution of etching discharges

1st generation (1 source, multi-wafer, low density)

2nd generation (2 sources, single-wafer, high density)

3rd generation (multi-sources, singlewafer, moderate density)

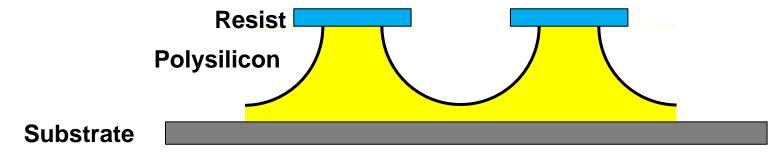




There are two types of etching: isotropic vs anistropic



Isotropic etching



• Anisotropic etching

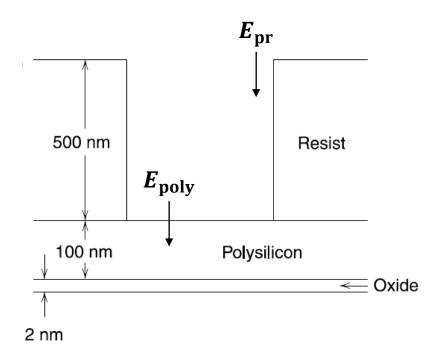
Resist

Polysilicon

Substrate

Plasma etch requirements – etch rate





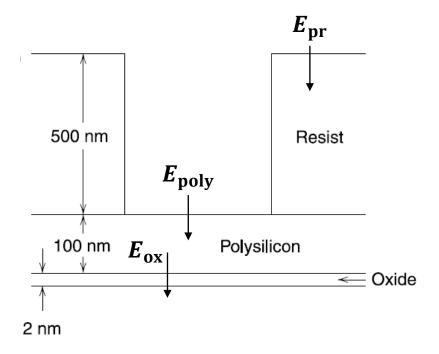
 Etch time needs to be within a few minutes:

$$E_{\rm pr} \geq 250\,{\rm nm/min}$$

$$E_{\rm poly} \ge 50 \, \rm nm/min$$

Plasma etch requirements - selectivity





 Selectivity between polysilicon and resist:

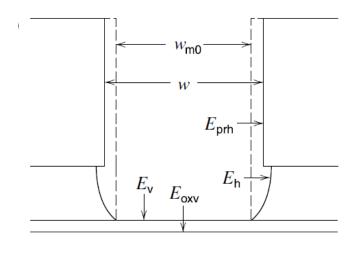
$$s = \frac{E_{\text{poly}} \triangle t}{E_{\text{pr}} \triangle t} >> \frac{100 \text{nm}}{500 \text{nm}} = 0.2$$

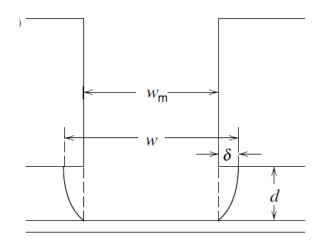
 Assuming 20% nonuniformity on the wafer:

$$s = \frac{E_{\text{poly}} \triangle t}{E_{\text{ox}} \triangle t} >> \frac{20\% \times 100 \text{nm}}{2 \text{nm}} = 10$$

Plasma etch requirements – Anisotropy







Anisotropy

$$a_{h} = \frac{E_{v}}{E_{h}} = \frac{d}{\delta}$$

$$w = w_{m} + 2\delta$$

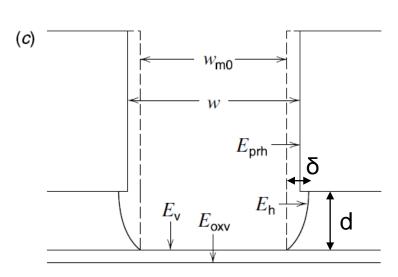
$$a_{h} \ge \frac{2d}{w - w_{m}}$$

 The smallest feature size where w_m=0:

$$w \approx \frac{2d}{a_{\rm h}}$$

Plasma etch requirements – Anisotropy including etching on photoresist



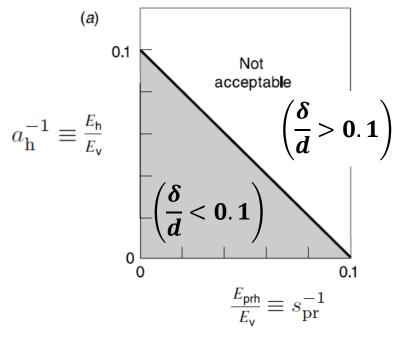


$$\delta \approx (E_{\rm h} + E_{\rm prh}) t$$

$$t = \frac{d}{E_{\rm v}}$$

$$\delta \approx d \frac{E_{\rm h} + E_{\rm prh}}{E_{\rm v}}$$

$$\frac{E_{\rm h} + E_{\rm prh}}{E_{\rm v}} \approx \frac{\delta}{d}$$



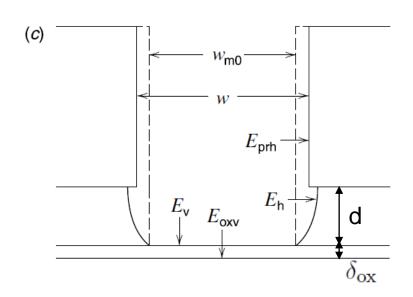
$$\frac{E_h}{E_V} + \frac{E_{\text{prh}}}{E_V} = a_h^{-1} + s_{\text{pr}}^{-1} \approx \frac{\delta}{d} \equiv 0.1$$

 The contribution of the horizontal etching is from both E_h and E_{prh}.

Principles of plasma discharges and materials processing, 2nd edition, by Michael A. Lieberman and Allan J. Lichtenberg

Plasma etch requirements – Uniformity on selectivity and anisotropy



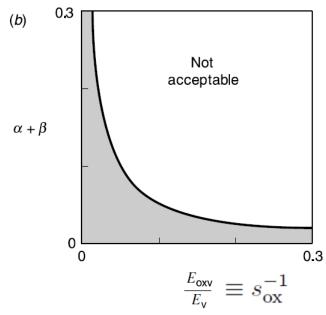


$$d \rightarrow d(1 \pm \alpha)$$
 $E_{\rm v} \rightarrow E_{\rm v}(1 \pm \beta)$

where α , β are variations.

$$t_{\text{max}} = \frac{d(1+\alpha)}{E_{\text{v}}(1-\beta)} \approx \frac{d}{E_{\text{v}}}(1+\alpha+\beta)$$

$$t_{\min} = \frac{d(1-\alpha)}{E_{\nu}(1+\beta)} \approx \frac{d}{E_{\nu}}(1-\alpha-\beta)$$



$$\delta_{\text{ox}} = (t_{\text{max}} - t_{\text{min}}) E_{\text{oxv}}$$
$$= \frac{d}{E_{\text{v}}} 2(\alpha + \beta) E_{\text{oxv}}$$
$$F \qquad \delta$$

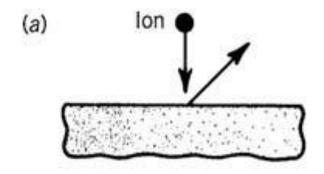
$$2(\alpha + \beta) \frac{E_{\text{oxv}}}{E_{\text{v}}} = \frac{\delta_{\text{ox}}}{d}$$

Principles of plasma discharges and materials processing, 2nd edition, by Michael A. Lieberman and Allan J. Lichtenberg

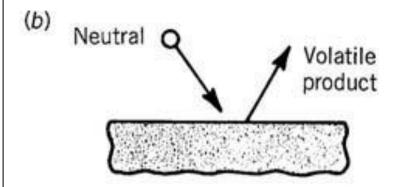
There are four major plasma etching mechanisms

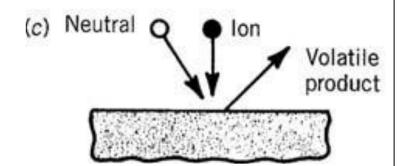


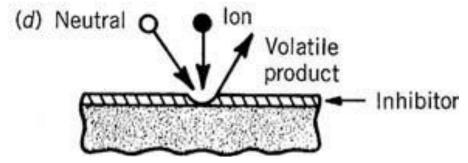












Ion energy-driven etching

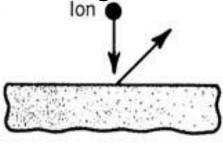
lon-enhanced inhibitor etching

Sputtering etching

Sputtering is an unselective but anisotropic process

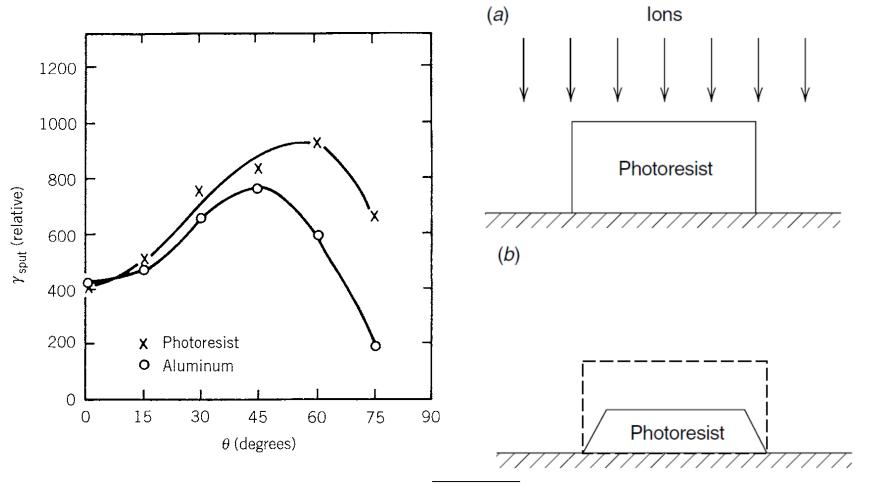


- Unselective process.
- Anisotropic process, strongly sensitive to the angle of incidence of the ion.
- Sputtering rates of different materials are roughly the same.
- Sputtering rates are generally low because the yield is typically of order one atom per incident ion.
- Sputtering is the only one of the four etch processes that can remove nonvolatile products from a surface.
- The process is generally under low pressure since the mean free path of the sputtered atoms must be large enough to prevent redeposition on the substrate or target.



Topographical patterns might not be faithfully transferred during sputter etching





Principles of plasma discharges and materials processing, 2nd edition, by Michael A. Lieberman and Allan J. Lichtenberg

Pure chemical etching

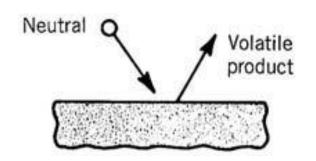
Atoms or molecules chemically react with the surface to form gas-phase products

1921

Highly chemically selective, e.g.,

$$Si(s) + 4F \longrightarrow SiF_4(g)$$

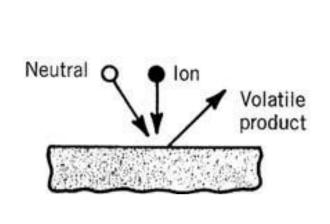
photoresist + O(g) $\longrightarrow CO_2(g) + H_2O(g)$

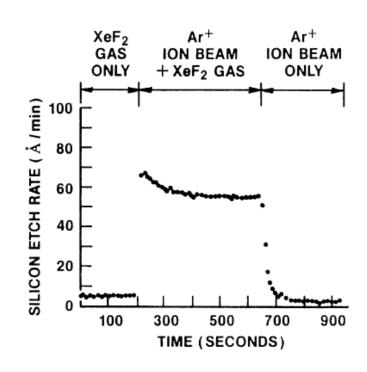


- Almost invariably isotropic.
- Etch products must be volatile.
- The etch rate can be quite large.
- Etch rate are generally not limited by the rate of arrival of etchant atoms, but by one of a complex set of reactions at the surface leading to formation of etch products.

Ion-enhanced energy-driven etching

The discharge supplies both etchants and energetic ions to the surface





- Low chemical etch rate of silicon substrate in XeF2 etchant gas.
- Tenfold increase in etch rate with XeF₂ + 500 V argon ions, simulating ionenhanced plasma etching.
- Very low "etch rate" due to the physical sputtering of silicon by ion bombardment alone.

 Plasma etching, by Daniel L. Flamm and G. Kenneth Herb

Ion-enhanced energy-driven etching has the characteristic of both sputtering and pure chemical etching

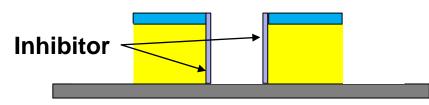
- Chemical in nature but with a reaction rate determined by the energetic ion bombardment.
- Product must be volatile.
- Highly anisotropic.

Ion-enhanced inhibitor etching

An inhibitor species is used



- Inhibitor precursor molecules that absorb or deposit on the substrate form a protective layer or polymer film.
- Etchant is chosen to produce a high chemical etch rate of the substrate in the absence of either ion bombardment or the inhibitor.
- Ion bombardment flux prevents the inhibitor layer from forming or clears it as it forms.
- Where the ion flux does not fall, the inhibitor protects the surface from the etchant.
- May not be as selective as pure chemical etching.
- A volatile etch product must be formed.
- Contamination of the substrate and final removal of the protective inhibitor film are other issues.



→ Inhibitor

Comparison of different processes



	Sputtering etching	Pure chemical etching		Ion-enhanced Inhibitor etching
Selectivity	X	0	0	0
Anisotropic	0	X	0	0
Volatile product	X	0	0	0

TABLE 15.1. Etch Chemistries Based on Product Volatility

Material	Etchant Atoms
Si, Ge	F, Cl, Br
SiO_2	F, F + C
Si ₃ N ₄ , silicides	F
Al	Cl, Br
Cu	$C1 (T > 210^{\circ}C)$
C, organics	O
W, Ta, Ti, Mo, Nb	F, Cl
Au	Cl
Cr	Cl, Cl + O
GaAs	Cl, Br
InP	Cl, C + H

Deposition and implementation

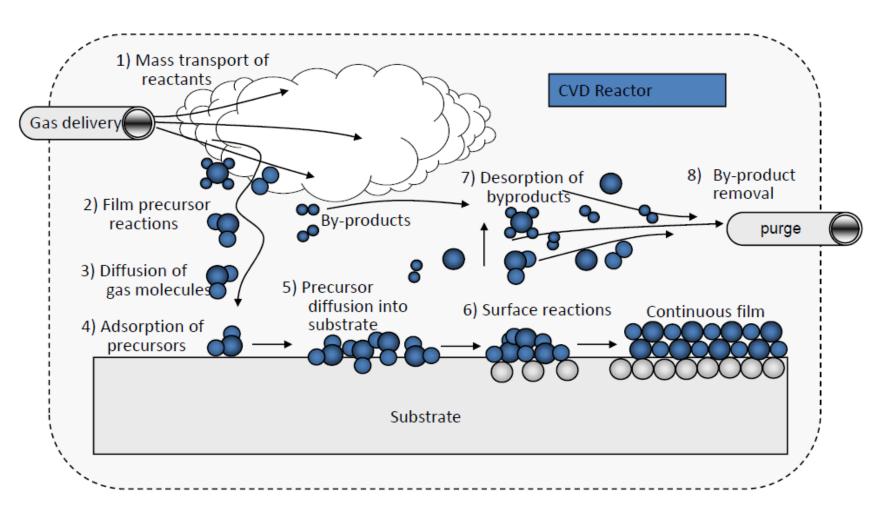


- Plasma-assisted deposition, implantation, and surface modification are important material processes for producing films on surfaces and modifying their properties
- Example processes:
 - Plasma-enhanced chemical vapor deposition (PECVD)
 - Sputter deposition / physical vapor deposition (PVD)
 - Plasma-immersion ion implantation (PIII)



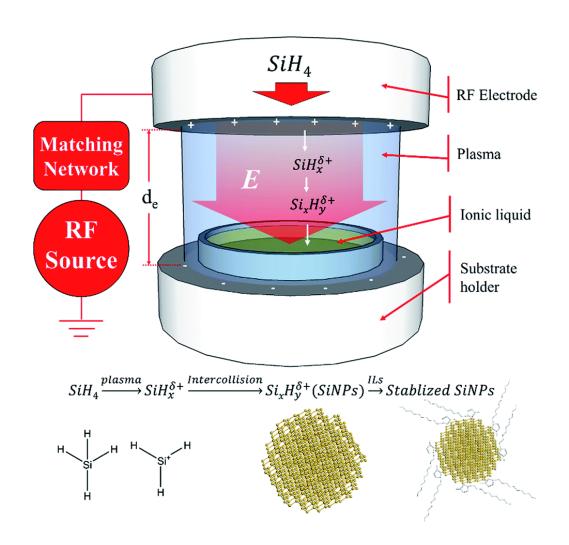
Chemical Vapor Deposition (CVD)





Plasma-enhanced chemical vapor deposition (PECVD)





Films can be deposited in low temperatures using plasma deposition



- Device structures are sensitive to temperature, high-temperature deposition processes cannot be used in many cases.
- High-temperature films can be deposited at low temperatures.
- Unique films not found in nature can be deposited, e.g., diamond.

Working temperature is determined by the desired film properties

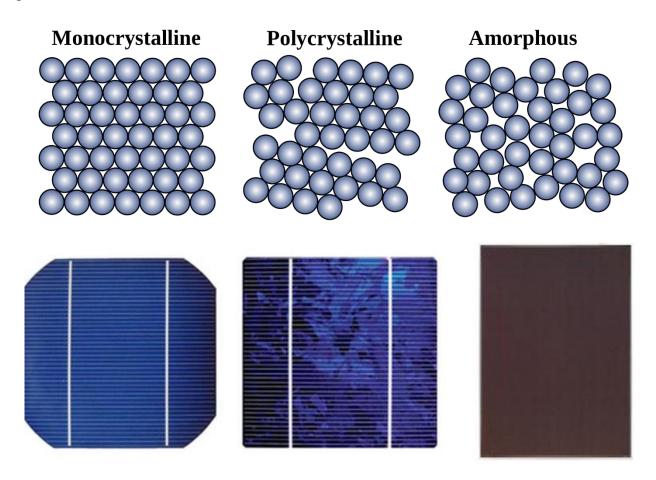


- CVD consists of a thermally activated set of gas-phase and surface reactions that produce a solid product at a surface.
- PECVD gas-phase and the surface reactions are controlled or modified by the plasma properties.
- Te~2-5 eV in PECVD is much greater than the substrate temperature, the temperature in PECVD is much less that CVD.
- Deposition rates are usually not very sensitive to the substrate temperature T.
- Film properties such as composition, stress, and morphology, are functions of T.
- Low-temperature PECVD films are amorphous, not crystalline, which can more easily be achieved with chemical vapor deposition (CVD).

Example of using PECVD – amorphous silicon



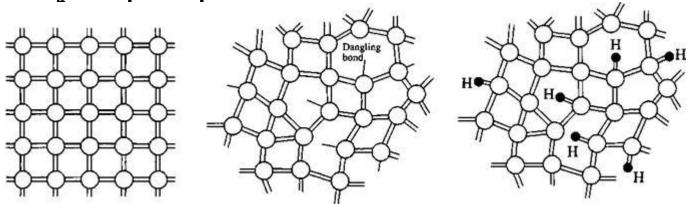
Amorphous silicon thin films are used in solar cells



Example of using PECVD – amorphous silicon



- H is required so that SiH₄ is used
 - For the material to be semiconducting.
 - Terminate the dangling bonds.
 - The dangling bonds are created by ion bombardment (SiH₃⁺) which also removes hydrogen from the surface.
 - SiH₃ and SiH₂ radicals are important precursors for film growth while
 SiH₄ also participates in surface reactions.

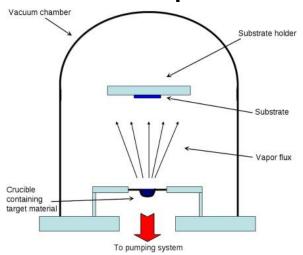


PVD

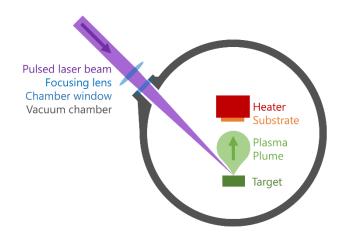
Physical vapor deposition can be achieved by heating the deposited material



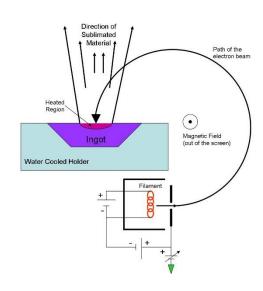
Thermal evaporator



Pulsed-laser deposition

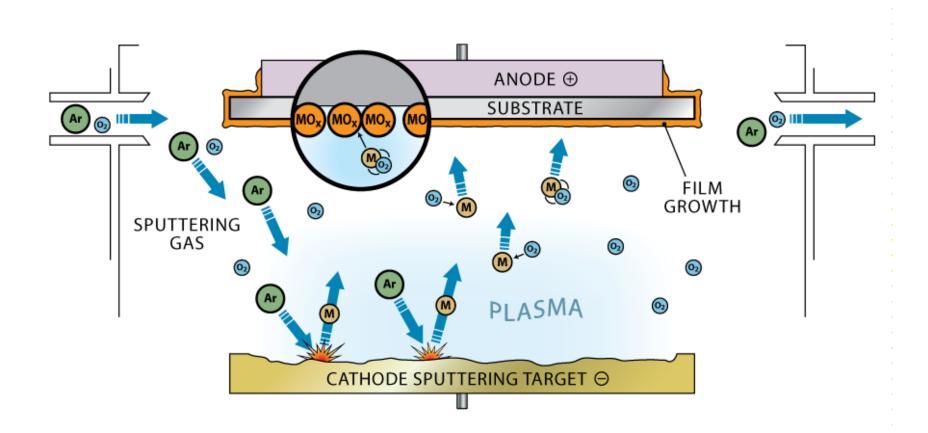


Electron-beam evaporator



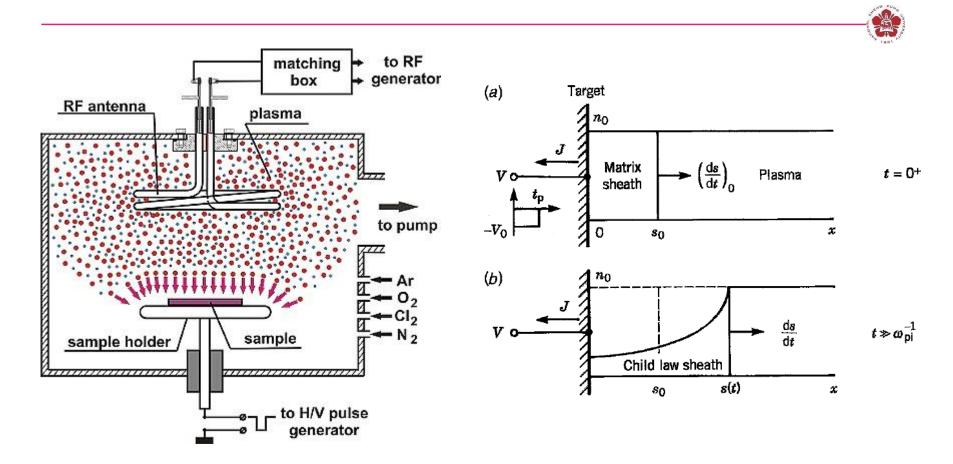
Sputtering deposition





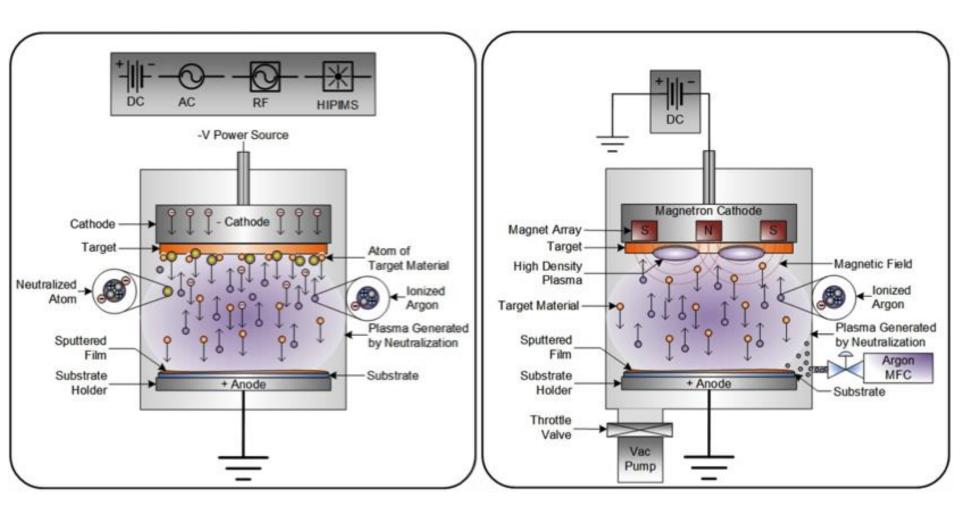


Plasma-immersion ion implantation (PIII)



- Silicon doping ions such as B, P, As are implanted
- Surface hardening of metals N, C are implanted

Magnetron sputtering provides higher deposition rates than conventional sputtering



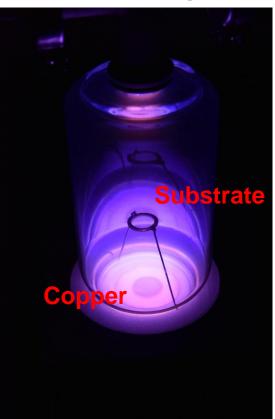
Demonstration experiments – magnetron sputtering



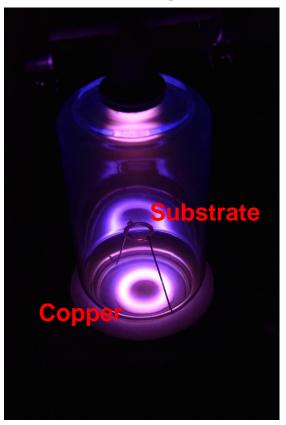
System



Without magnet



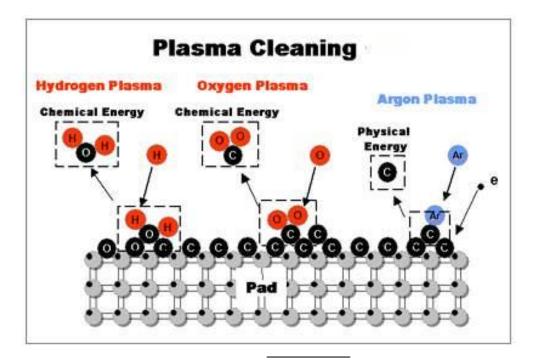
With magnet



Plasma can be used for cleaning surface



- Cleaning mechanisms:
 - Chemical reactions by free radicals
 - Physical sputtering by high energy ions



Free radicals are generated and used in chemical reactions



$$e^- + H_2 \rightarrow 2H \bullet \qquad \qquad e^- + O_2 \rightarrow 2O \bullet \qquad \qquad O \bullet + O_2 \rightarrow O_3$$

- Highly reactive free radicals generated in plasma may react with the hydrocarbon contaminants of surface oxide.
- **Both H•** and O• can react with grease or oil on surface to form volatile hydrocarbons.

$$\begin{split} \mathbf{H} \bullet_{(g)} + C_n H_{2n+2(s)} &\to \mathbf{CH}_{4(s)} \\ \mathbf{O} \bullet_{(g)} + C_n H_{2n+2(s)} &\to \mathbf{CO}_{(s)} + \mathbf{CH}_x O_{y(g)} + H_2 O_{(g)} \end{split}$$

• O• is more reactive than H•. But O• may also react with surface metal to form oxide, deteriorating the material properties. Nevertheless, H• can make metal oxide back to metal.

$$0 \cdot +Me \rightarrow MeO$$
 $H \cdot +MeO \rightarrow Me + H_2O$

The effect of chemical reactions is increased as the pressure increases



Advantages:

- Stable gas products are formed.
- No redeposition problem.
- High etching selectivity.

Disadvantages:

- Higher concentration of H₂ or O₂ is required to ensure an appropriate etching rate.
- H₂ safety or O₂ strong oxidation ability needs to be monitored.

High energy ions are used in physical sputtering cleaning



- lons generated in plasma can be accelerated toward the substrate to physically bombard away the atoms of contaminants.
- The physical sputtering rate increases as the following quantities increase:
 - Plasma density;
 - Accelerating voltage;
 - Mass of bombardment atoms.
- The physical sputtering is also enhanced by lowering the pressure.
- High cathode bias is used.
- Ar+ has strong sputtering effect.

The physical sputtering rate increases with higher cathode bias and Ar concentration and lower pressure

Advantages:

- Highly efficient cleaning effect can be achieved.
- Gas consumption rate can be very low.

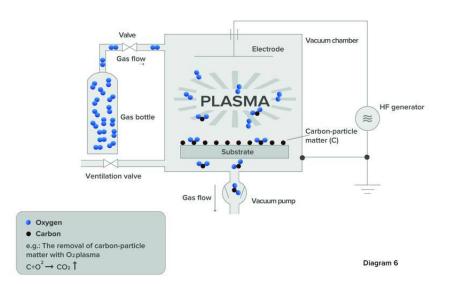
Disadvantages:

- Etching problems non-selective etching by physical sputtering.
- Redeposition problems: the products sputtered out may be highly unstable and tend to deposit again downstream.

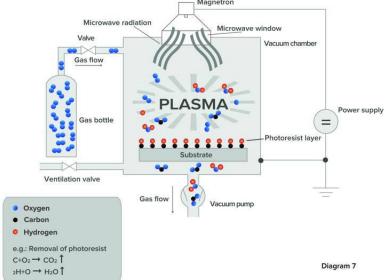
Plasma cleaning examples



Low-pressure plasma system: Generation with a low-frequency or high-frequency generator



Low-pressure plasma system: Cleaning with a microwave generator

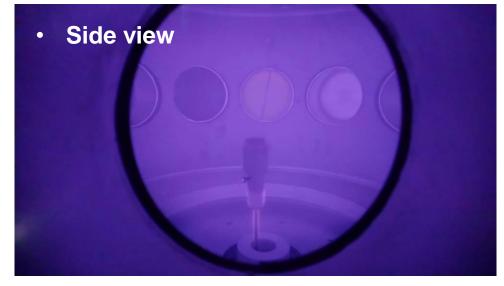


Plasma cleaning needs to work in the regime of abnormal glow discharge





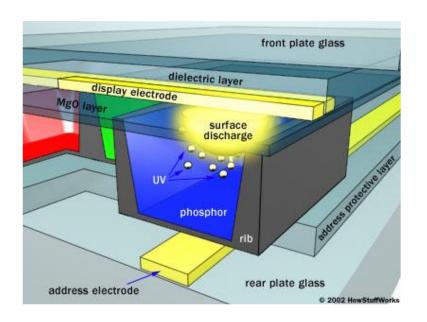




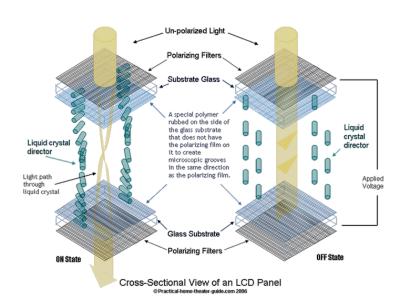
Light source and display systems



Plasma display panel (PDP)



Liquid crystal display (LCD)



Outlines

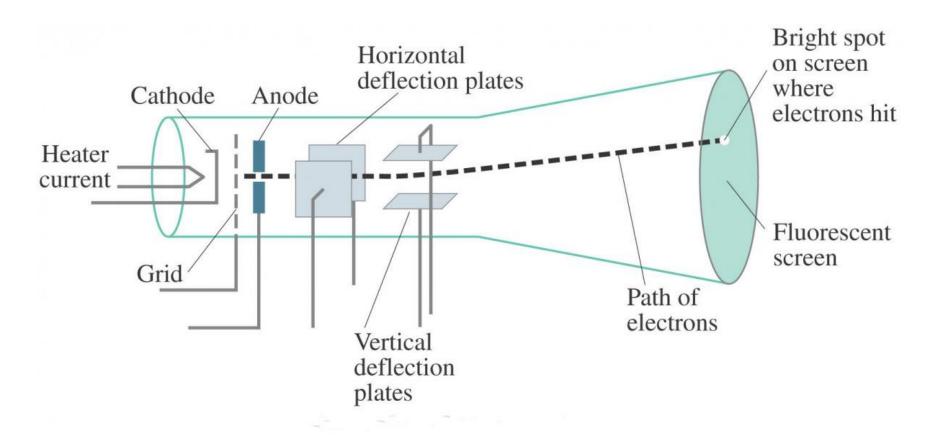


- Cathode Ray Tube
- Color space (CIE 1931 color spaces)
- History of plasma display panel (PDP)
- Design of PDP
- Liquid crystal display (LCD)
- LCD vs PDP



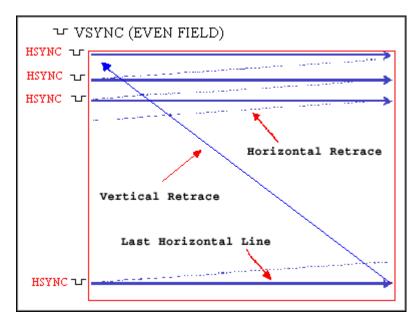
Cathode Ray Tube uses electron beams to light the fluorescent screen

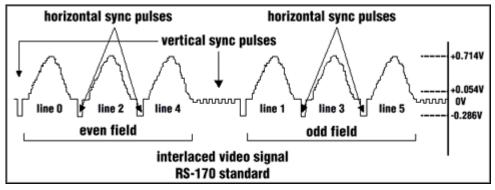


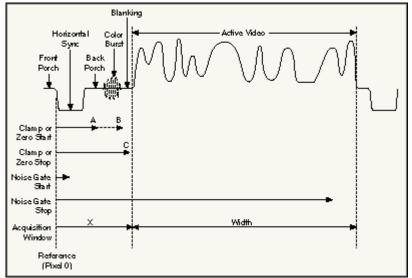


The image is shown by scanning through the whole screen with the single electron beam



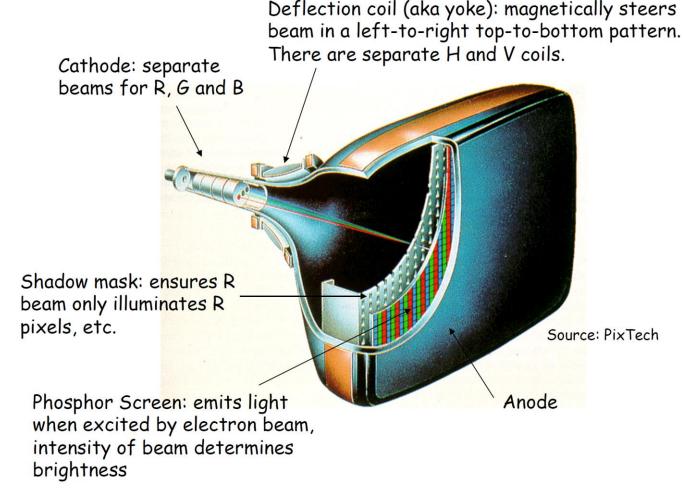






Color image is formed by using three electron beams scanning through three different color channels

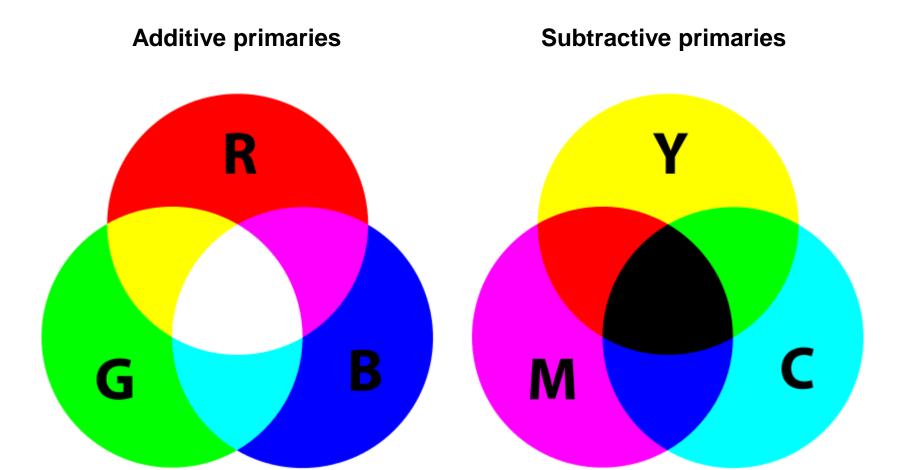




Color space

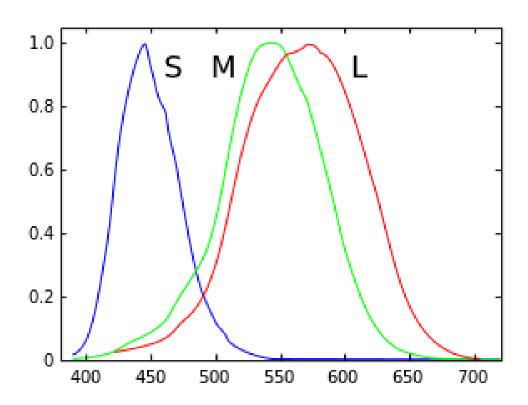
Color can be created using three primary colors





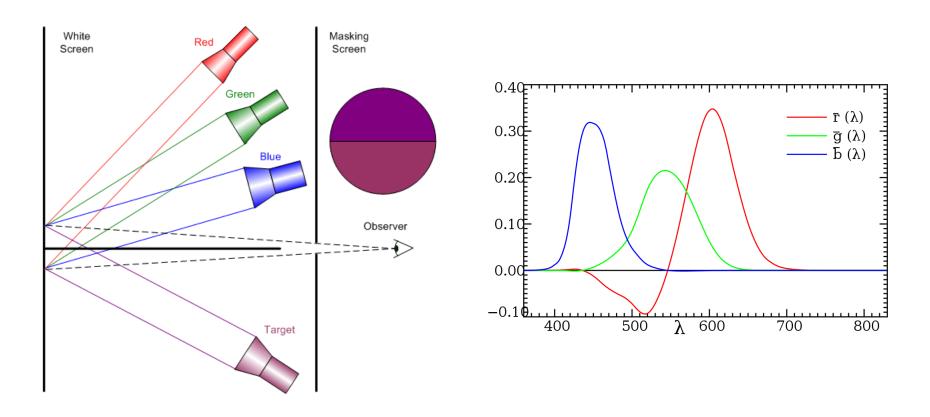
Human retina has three kinds of "cones" that have different spectral response





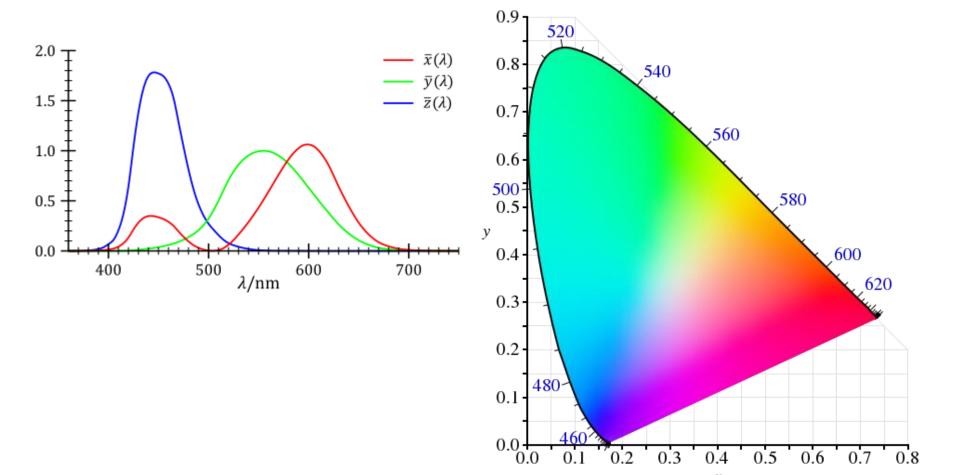
Spectral response of retina "cones" are tested using light sources with single wavelength





The CIE 1931 color space chromaticity diagram is the standard color space





0.1

0.2

0.3

0.4

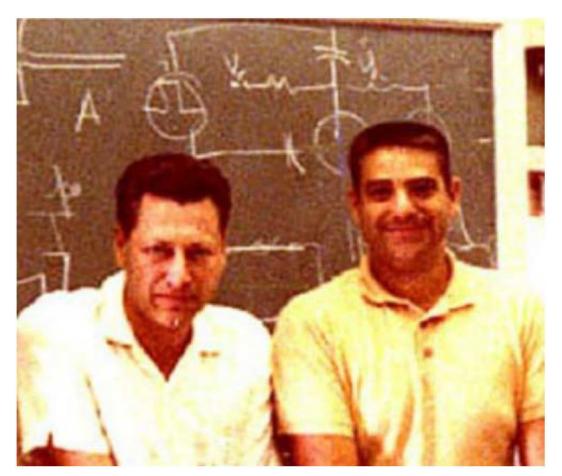
0.5

0.7

0.6

History of PDP

Plasma display panel was invented at the University of Illinois in 1967



Prof. H. Gene Slottow

Prof. Donald L. Bitzer

PDP was invented due to a need for Programmed Logic for Automatic Teaching Operations (PLATO) in 1960s





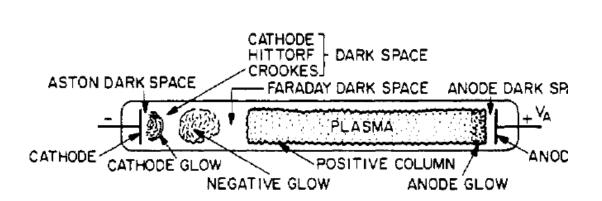


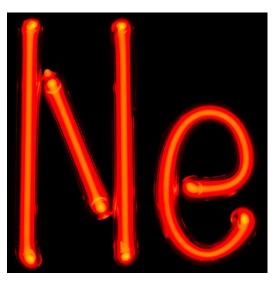


https://topwallpapers.pw/computer/keyboards-computers-history-teletype-typewriters-desktop-hd-wallpaper-1035981/https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Punched_tape https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/PLATO_(computer_system)

The positive column in a glow discharge is used to excite phosphors in color PDP



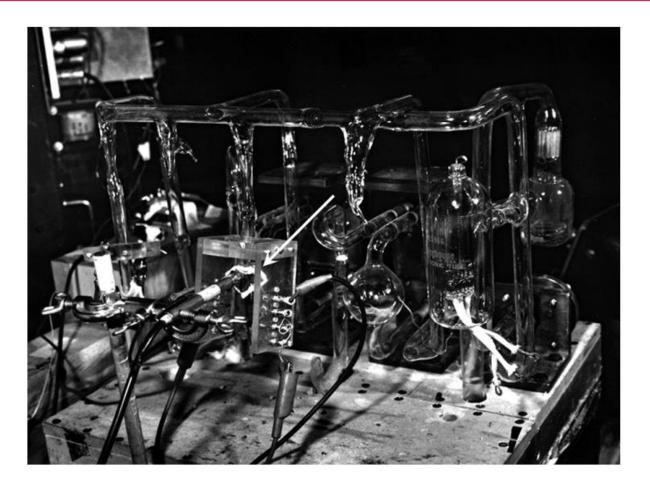




- Majority of monochrome PDPs use the negative glow as the light source
- The positive column is used to excite phosphors in fluorescent lamps and in color PDPs

Early plasma panel (PD) attached to the glass vacuum system used for the first plasma displays at UI

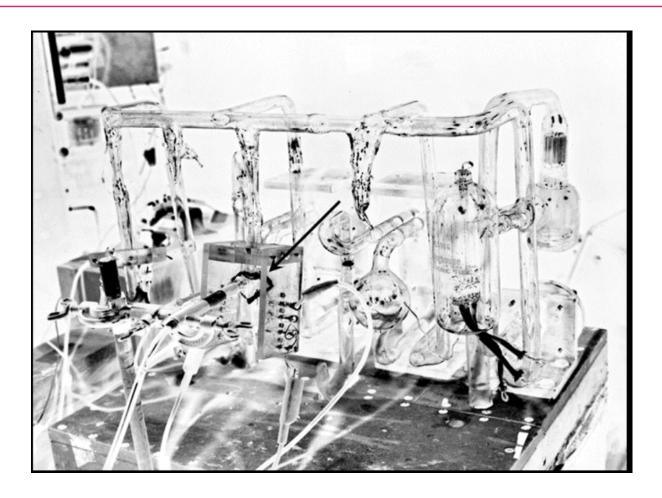




 It had the same alternating sustain voltage, neon, gas, and dielectric glass insulated electrodes that are used for plasma TVs today.

Early plasma panel (PD) attached to the glass vacuum system used for the first plasma displays at UI

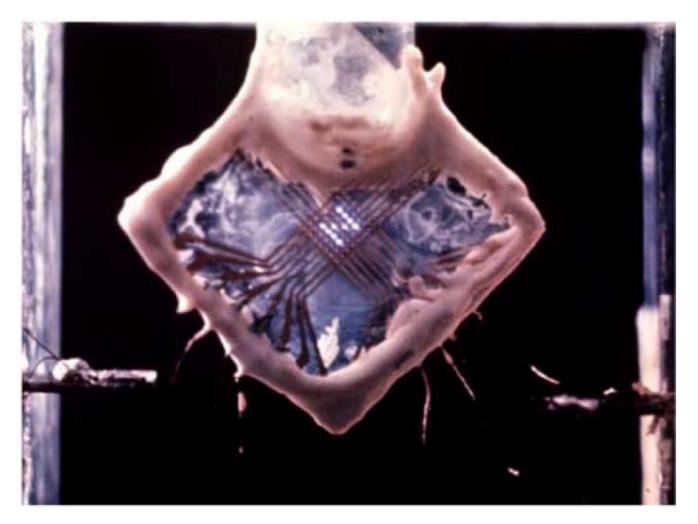




 It had the same alternating sustain voltage, neon, gas, and dielectric glass insulated electrodes that are used for plasma TVs today.

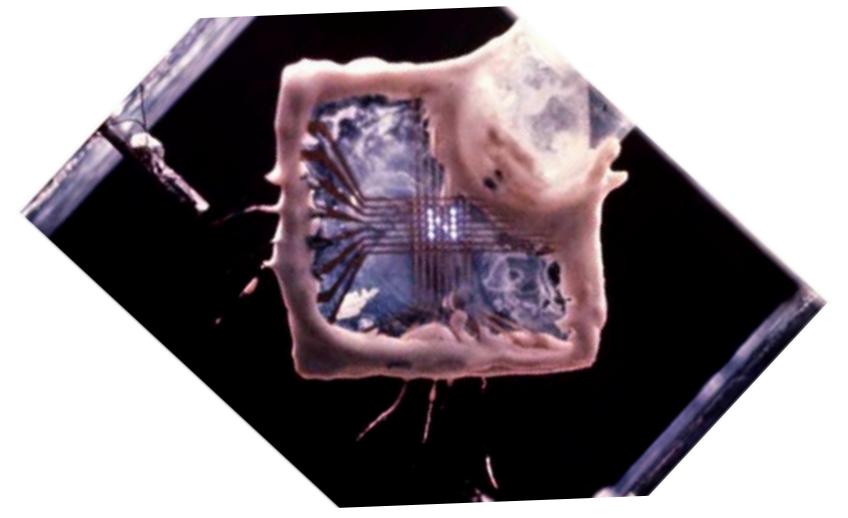
Early 4x4 pixel panel has achieved matrix addressability for the first time





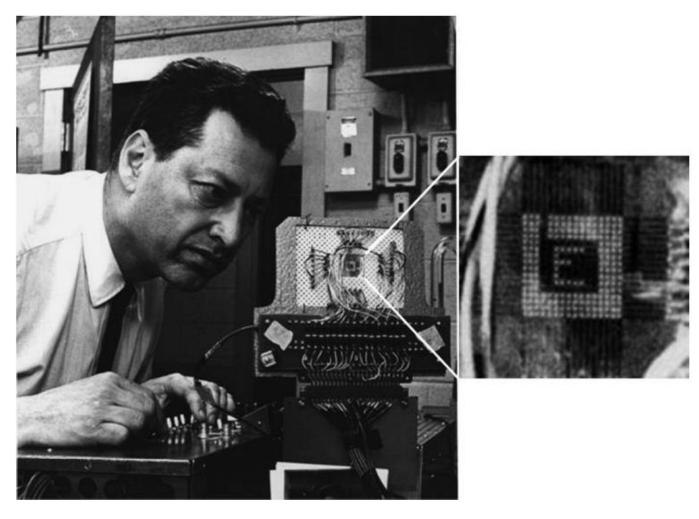
Early 4x4 pixel panel has achieved matrix addressability for the first time



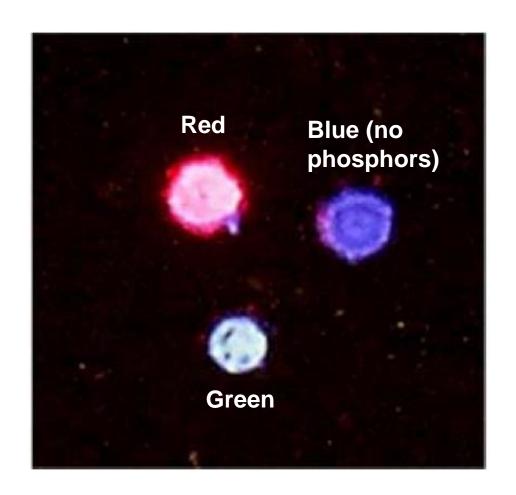


A 16x16 pixel PD, developed in 1967, needed to be addressed manually





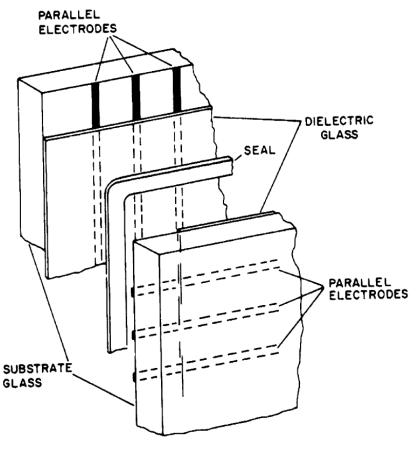
First color PD was three cell prototype with red and green color phosphors excited by a xenon gas discharge



Open-cell structure developed in 1968







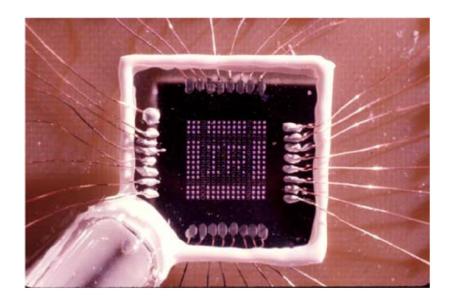
It could be baked under vacuum at 350 °C to drive out contaminants.

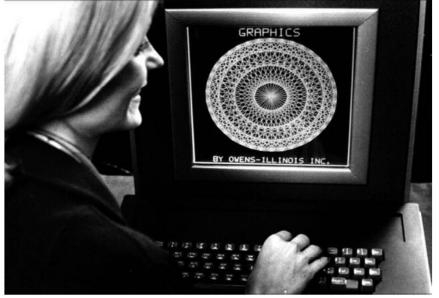
More progress



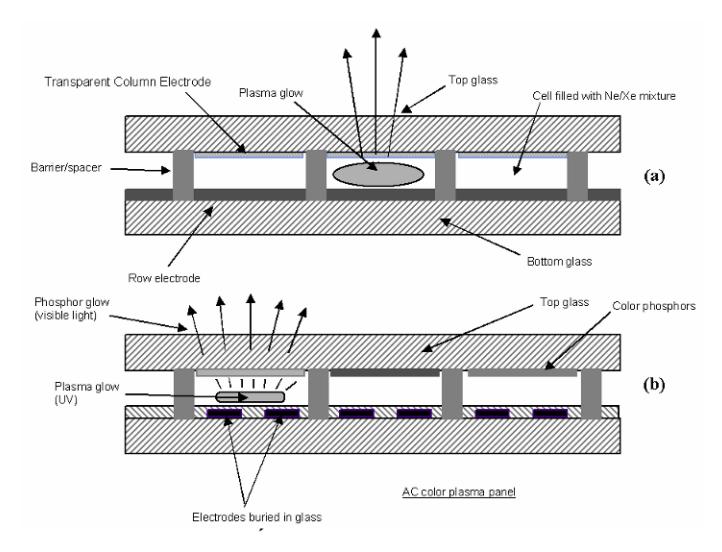
1968, University of Illinois 16x16 pixels

1971, Owens-Illinois 512x512 pixels



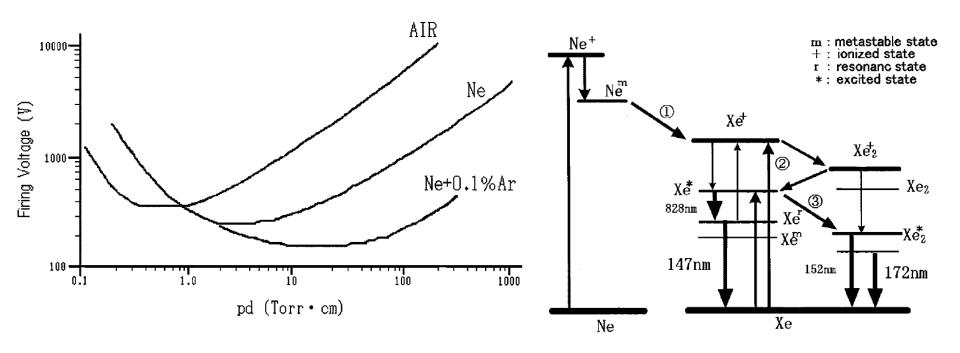


Color PDPs had short display lifetime due to the degradation of color phosphors caused by ion sputtering



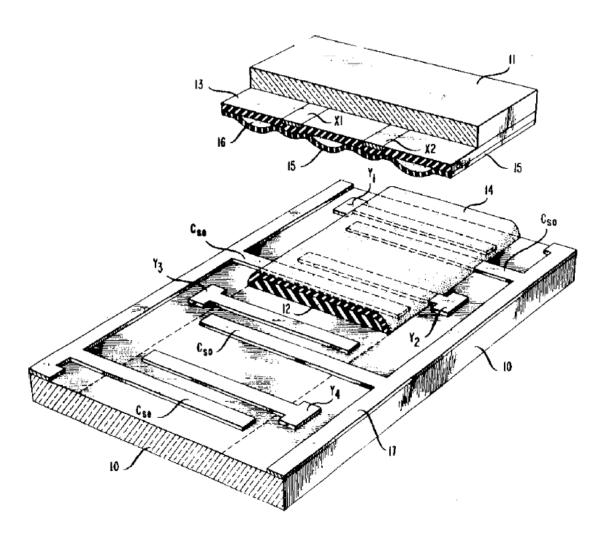
Design of PDP

A lower breakdown voltages can be obtained with very small amounts of added gas



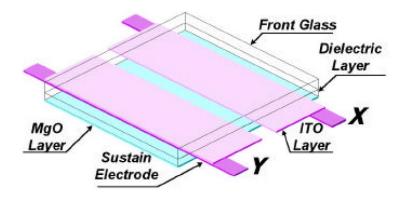
AT&T three-electrode patent

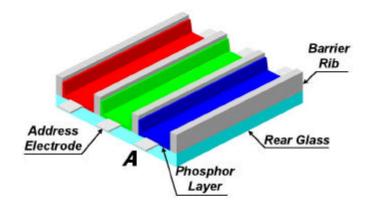


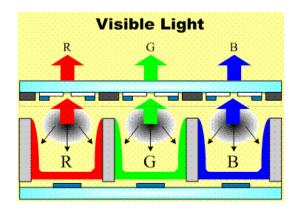


Reflective phosphor geometry is used in most of today's plasma TVs



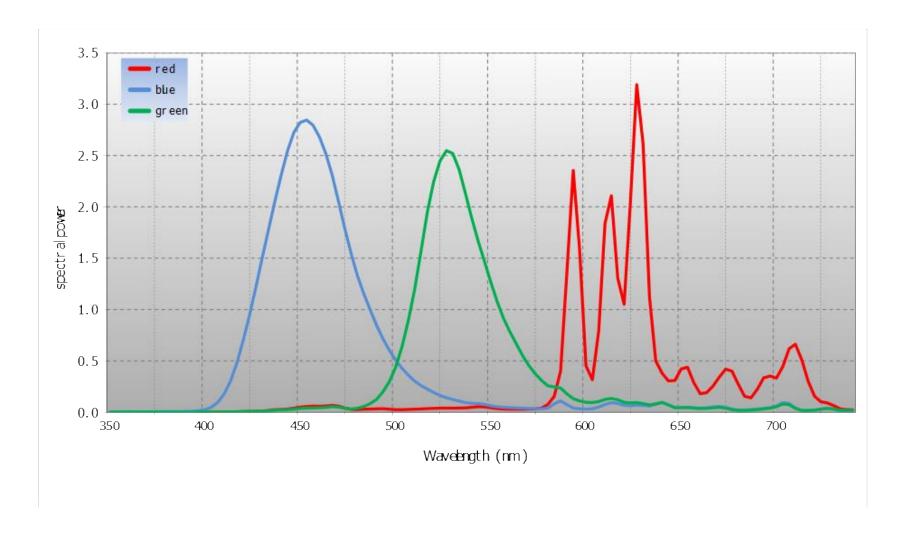






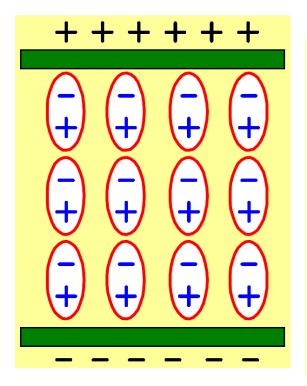
Spectrum of the different phosphors

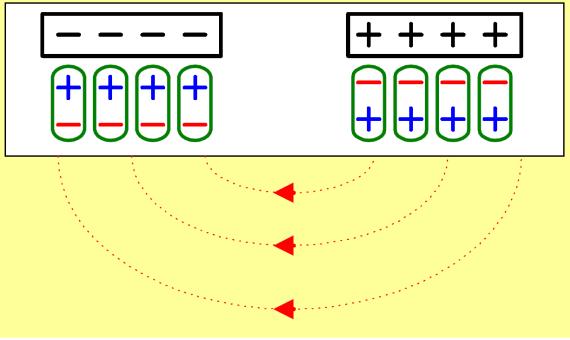




The foundation of AC discharge

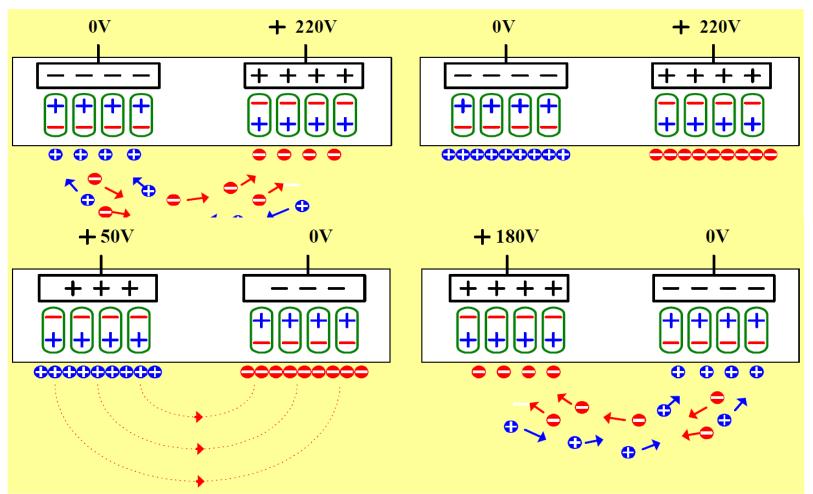






The plasma can be sustained using ac discharged

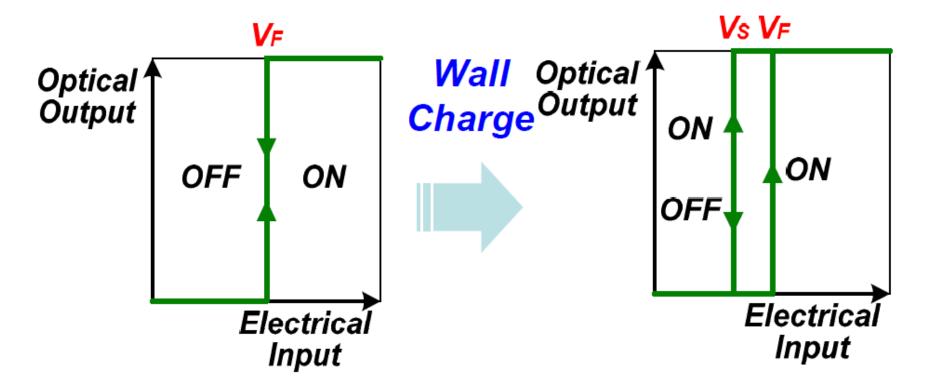




Wall discharge reduced the required discharge voltage

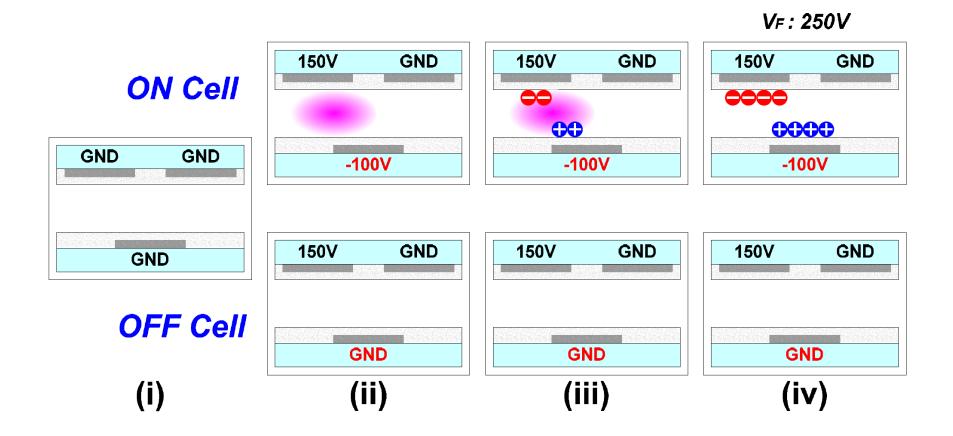
Wall discharge reduced the required discharge voltage





ON/OFF State Selection

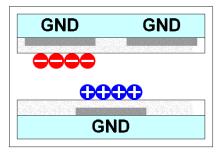


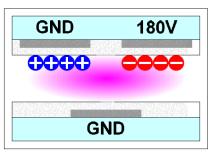


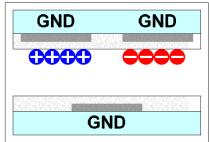
Sustain discharge

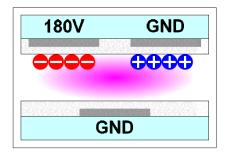


ON Cell

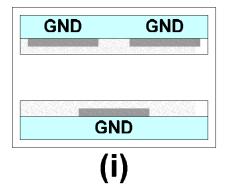


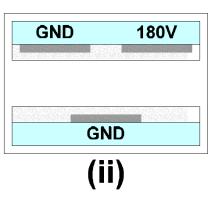


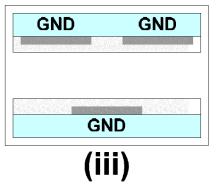


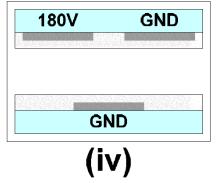


OFF Cell



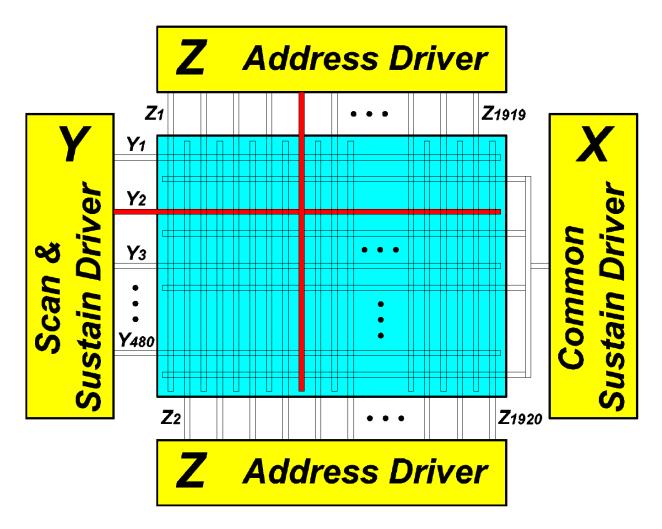






Address and sustain electrodes are connected to different drivers

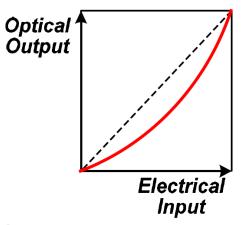




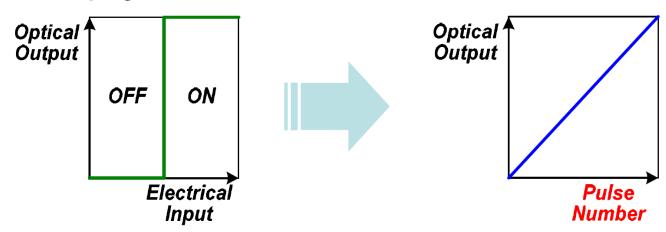
PDP pixel can only be either ON or OFF



Cathode Ray Tube :



Plasma Display Panel :



PDP luminance is controlled by using number of light pulses



CRT : Control the Luminance using Electron Beam Intensity

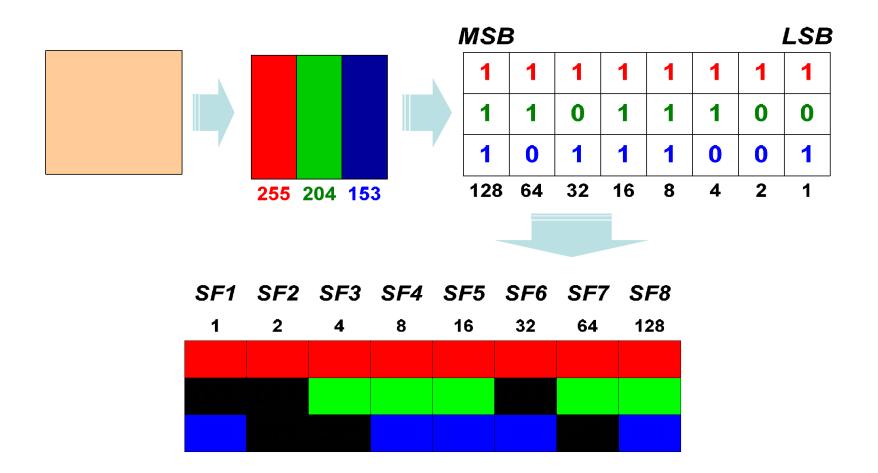


PDP : Control the Luminance using Number of Light Pulses



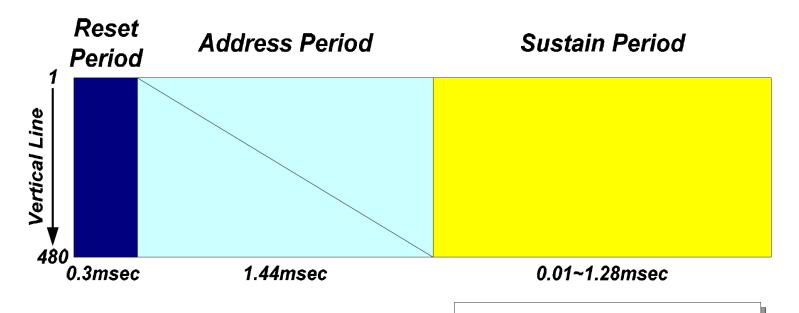
A single field is divided into 8 subfield





Composition of each subfield

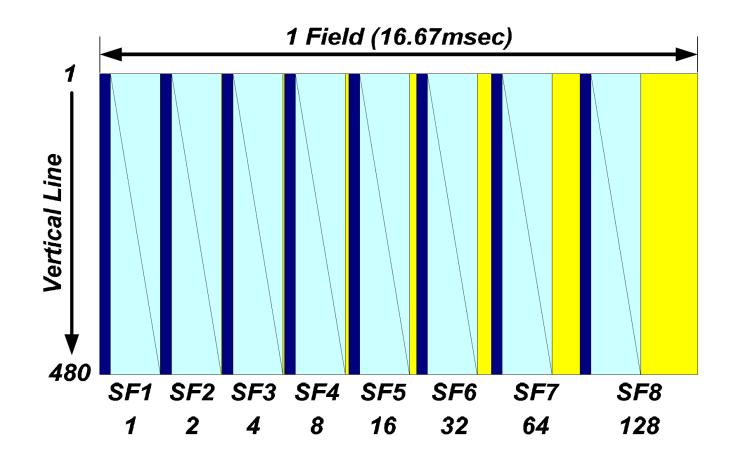




Spec : VGA (640*480) 8 Subfield 0.03msec Address Pulse 100KHz Sustain Freq.

8 subfield in one TV-Field (ADS)

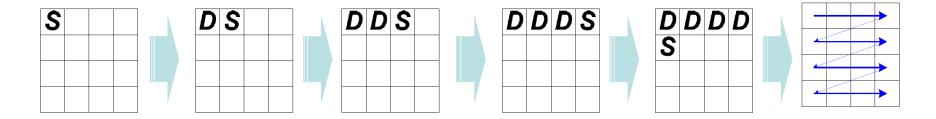




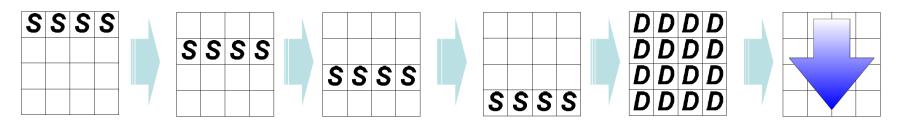
PDP uses line-by-line scanning



Cathode Ray Tube : Cell-by-Cell Scanning



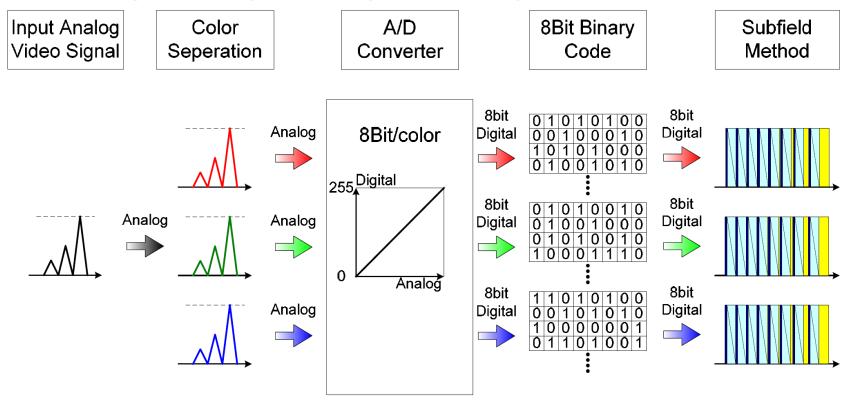
PDP : Line-by-Line Scanning



Video signal processing



Analog Video Signal ⇒ Digital Pulse Signal



Addressing period





Displaying period

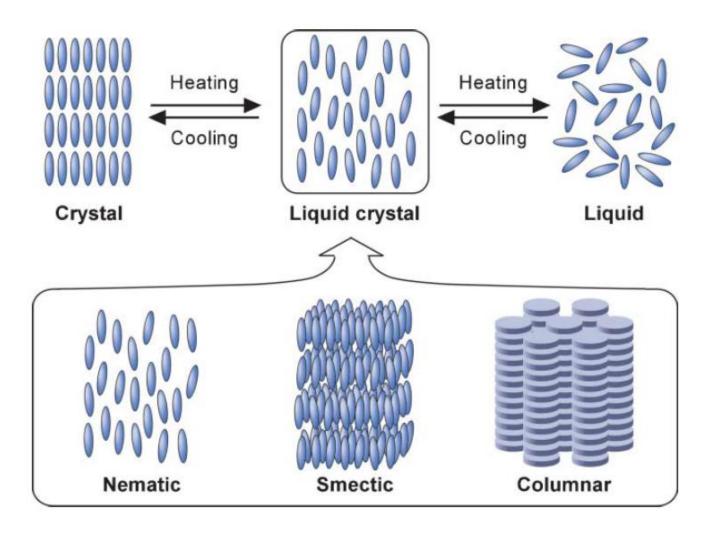






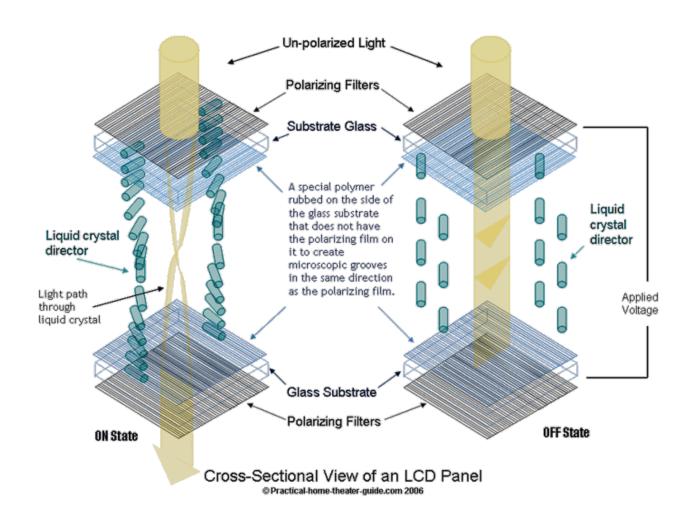
Liquid crystal are a special state of matter between liquid and crystal





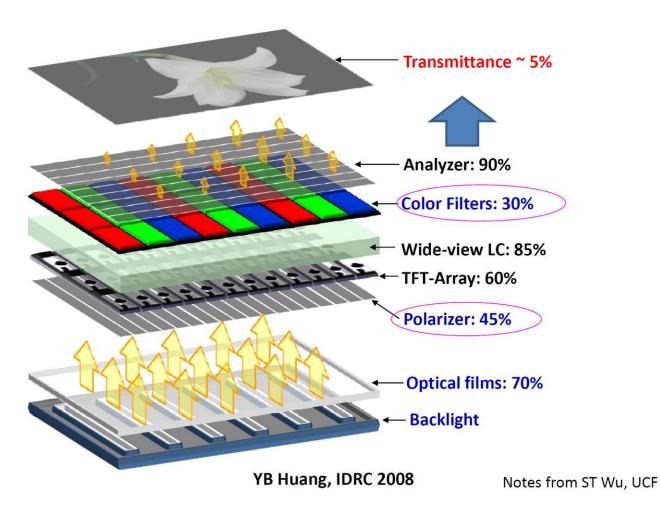
Linear polarization of a light can be rotated by miss aligned liquid crystal





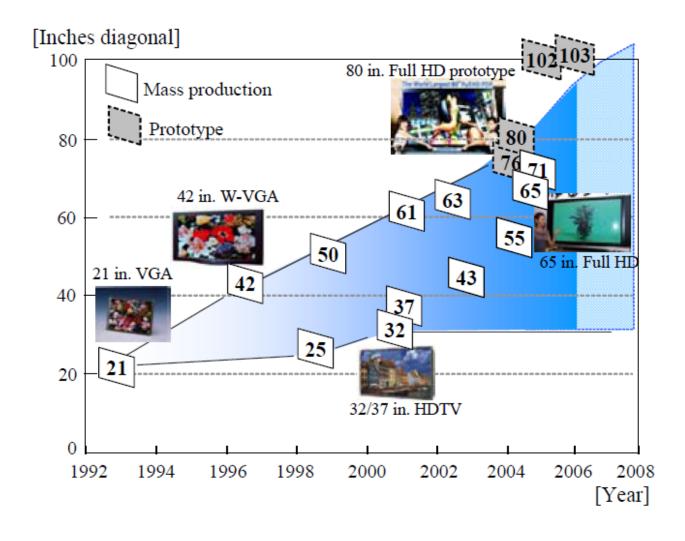
Structure of Liquid crystal display (LCD)





Optimistic projection of PDP market

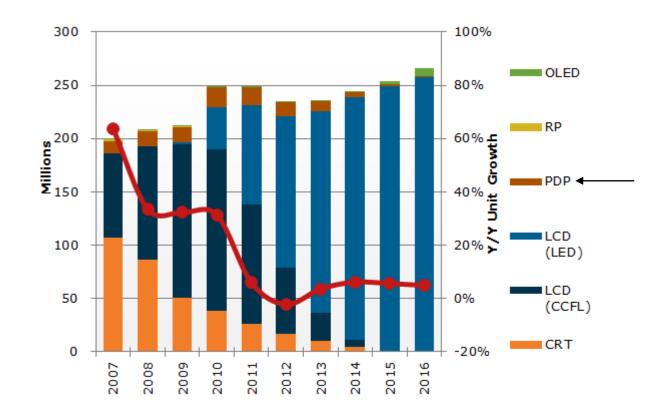




Reality



TV Shipment Growth by Technology



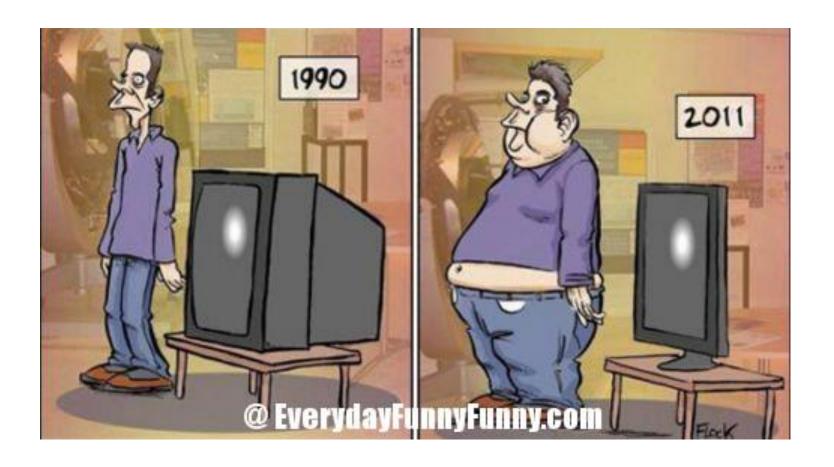
Too many reasons that PDP died!



- Bright showroom conditions put plasmas at a distinct disadvantage versus LED-lit LCDs
- Aesthetics may have played a role in hastening plasma's demise
- UHD/4K caught on quickly
- Screen-size limitations also played a part in plasmas plight
- You can't bend a plasma
- Plasmas were harder to deal with than LCDs
- While OLED is still in the early stages of development, there's no question it offers greater potential than plasma
- Energy efficiency may have played a part in putting plasma out to pasture
- Plasma was the original flat-panel technology, People just thought of it as old technology.
- Projectors improved in quality and prices dropped

Let's stand up and do exercise!!





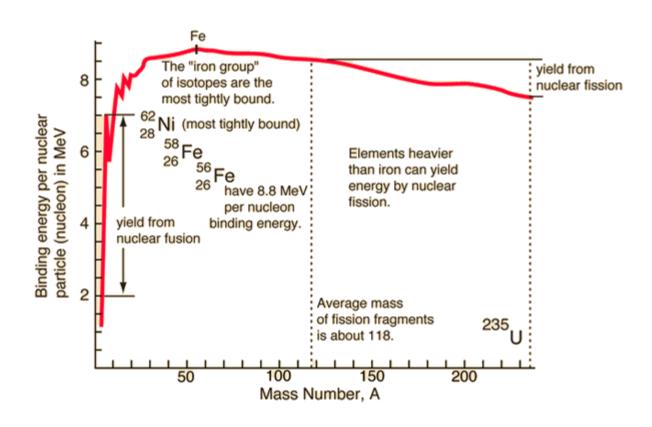
The hydrogen bomb





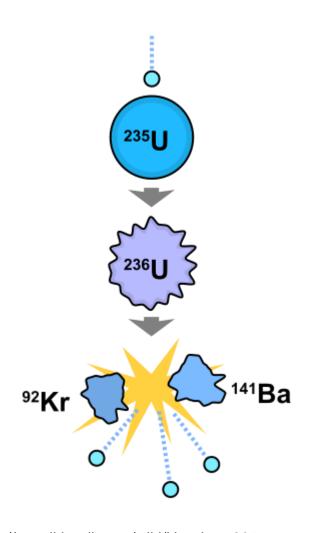
The "iron group" of isotopes are the most tightly bound





Chain reaction can happen in U²³⁵ fission reaction

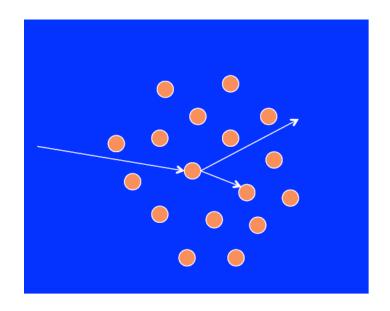




- ~ 200 million electron volts
 (MeV)/fission, ~million times more
 than chemical reactions
- Energy for bombs, or for civilian power can generate huge amounts of energy (and toxicity) in a small space with a modest amount of material
- Source of safety, security issues for nuclear power

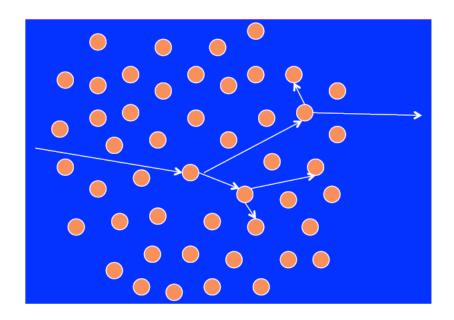
The neutrons are leaking out and stopping the chain reaction in a sub-critical mass





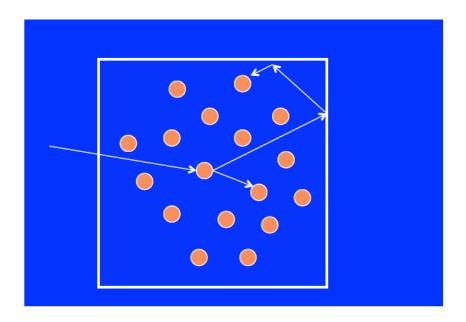
Solution 1: add more material





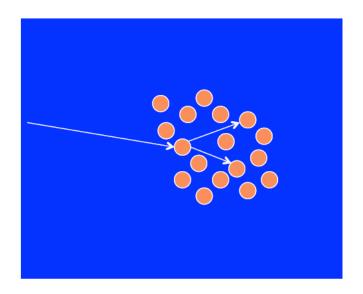
Solution2: reflect the neutron back in





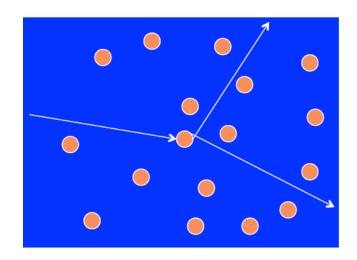
Solution 3: increase the density





How to get the material together before it blows apart?



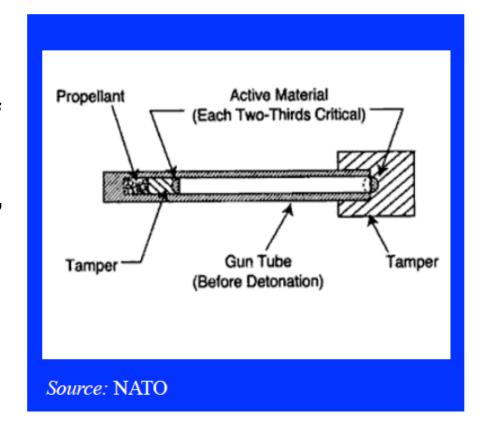


- There are always neutrons around
- Once chain reaction starts, material will heat up, expand, stop reaction
- How to get enough material together fast enough?

Gun-type bomb



- Simple, reliable can be built without testing
- Highly inefficient require lots of nuclear material (50-60 kg of 90% enriched HEU)
- Can only get high yield with HEU, not plutonium
- Hiroshima bomb: cannon that fired HEU projectile into HEU target



Hiroshima Bomb – "Little Boy"





Gun Type – Easiest to design and build (Hiroshima bomb was never tested)

About 13 kiloton explosive yield

Atomic bomb is very destructive



Hiroshima: August 6, 1945

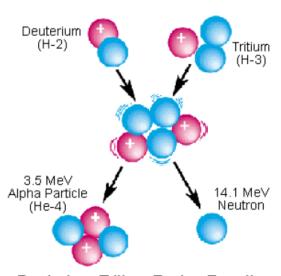


Nagasaki: August 9, 1945



The fusion process





 $^{2}H+^{3}H \Rightarrow ^{4}He+n+Q \equiv 17.6 \text{ MeV}$

Energy release Q=17.6 MeV

In comparison

$${}^{2}H+{}^{2}H \Rightarrow {}^{1}H+{}^{3}H + Q \equiv 4.0 \text{ MeV}$$
 ${}^{2}H+{}^{2}H \Rightarrow {}^{3}He+n + Q \equiv 3.2 \text{ MeV}$
 ${}^{3}H+{}^{3}H \Rightarrow {}^{4}He+2n+Q \equiv 11.3 \text{ MeV}$
 ${}^{235}U+n \Rightarrow X_{A}+X_{B}+3n + Q \approx 200 \text{ MeV}$

Deuterium-Tritium Fusion Reaction

Fusionable Material, deuterium ²H (D) and tritium ³H (t):

Deuterium: natural occurrence (heavy water) (0.015%).

Tritium: natural occurrence in atmosphere through cosmic ray bombardment; radioactive with $T_{1/2}$ =12.3 y.

"Advantages" of hydrogen bomb



Fusion of
$${}^{2}\text{H+}{}^{3}\text{H}$$
: $\frac{Q}{A} = \frac{17.6 \ MeV}{(3+2) \ amu} = 3.5 \frac{MeV}{amu}$

Fission of ²³⁵U:
$$\frac{Q}{A} = \frac{200 \ MeV}{236 \ amu} = 0.85 \frac{MeV}{amu}$$

Fusion is 4 times more powerful than fission and generates 24 times more neutrons!

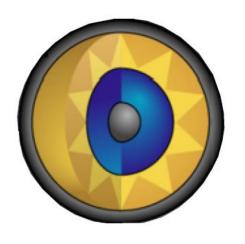
$$^{2}H + ^{3}H : \frac{n}{A} = \frac{1}{5} = 0.2$$

Neutron production:

$$^{235}U + n$$
: $\frac{n}{A} = \frac{2}{236} = 0.0085$

Hydrogen bomb uses a fission bomb to initiate the fusion reaction





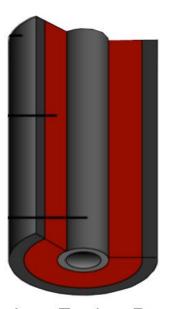
Fuel

Primary Fission Device

Core: ²³⁹Pu, ²³⁵U, plus ²H+³H booster

Shell: 238U tamper

High explosive lenses

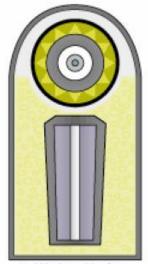


Secondary Fusion Device

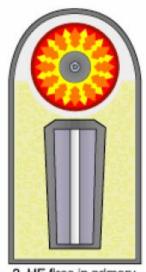
Radiation channel
²³⁹Pu sparkplug
⁶Li, ²H, ³H fusion cell
²³⁸U tamper

Event sequence

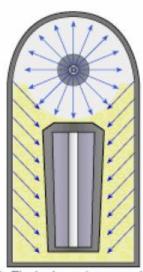




1. Warhead before firing; primary (fission bomb) at top, secondary (fusion fuel) at bottom, all suspended and beginning a fission in polystyrene foam.



2. HE fires in primary, compressing plutonium core into supercriticality reaction.



 Fissioning primary emits X-rays which reflect along the inside of the casing, irradiating the polystyrene foam.



Polystyrene foam becomes plasma, compressing secondary, and plutonium sparkplug begins to fission.



Compressed and heated, lithium-6 deuteride fuel begins fusion reaction, neutron flux causes tamper to fission. A fireball is starting to form...

Additional pressure from recoil of exploding shell (ablation)!

You don't want to build a hydrogen bomb!



