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MEASUREMENT OF ENERGETIC EFFICIENCY OF ELECTRON EMISSION UNDER LOW ENERGY ELECTRON BEAM IRRADIATION: APPLICATION TO HALL THRUSTER DIELECTRIC WALLS

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ABSTRACT

From its discovery until nowadays, electrons emission (EE) has been thoroughly studied and has allowed numerous technologies development. Among them, RADAR, Scanning Electron Microscope and scintillators can be quoted. EE can also be a parasitic phenomenon especially for space applications (multipactor effect in wave guides, spacecraft charging, etc.). Until now, EE has essentially been described for high incident energy (superior to 100 eV). However several technologies are being developed which involved EE with low incident energy (below 100 eV). One of them is plasma thrusters for satellites applications. Toward this work, low energy EE impact (below 100 eV) on energetic balance in Stationary Plasma Thrusters (SPTs) will be discussed as well as method of measurement of this impact.

1. INTRODUCTION

Electronic Emission (more precisely electrons impact induced electronic emission) is the emission of electrons from a material submitted to an incident electrons flow (as described in Figure 1).

![Figure 1 Experimental principle of electronic emission](image)

It is a phenomenon with a non-negligible impact on numerous technology of space industry. For example, it is shown throughout simulation that EE can have a significant impact on SPTs operation [1], [2].

1.1. Description of EE

Several questions are emerging about EE: How many electrons are emitted, with which energy/speed, to which direction? In order to answer these three questions three elements are observed: the Total Electron Emission Yield (TEEY, cf. Figure 2), the energy distribution function (cf. Figure 3), and the angular distribution of emitted electrons (cf. Figure 9 and Figure 10). TEEY depends on incident electrons energy and is defined as:

$$
\sigma(E_0) = \frac{N_e}{N_0}
$$

Where, $N_e$ is the number of emitted electrons and $N_0$ is the number of incident electrons.

The emitted electrons can be divided in three categories: the reflected electrons, the secondary electrons and the backscattered electrons.

Reflected electrons are not penetrating the surface and are directly reemitted in the vacuum. They represent a negligible part of the EE. Their contribution to TEEY is represented by the reflection coefficient $R$. Secondary electrons are mostly electrons from the material (valence band, defects bands or conduction band) which are extracted from it by receiving a sufficient amount of kinetic energy from an incident electron. Some of them diffuse eventually to the surface and are emitted. Their energy is relatively low and, except for very low incident electrons energy ($< 20 \text{ eV}$), they represent the majority of EE (cf. Figure 3). Their contribution to TEEY is represented by the Secondary Electronic Emission Yield (SEEY): $\delta$.

Finally backscattered electrons, which represent the second most important fraction of EE, except for $E_0 < 20 \text{ eV}$, are divided into two categories: elastically and non-elastically backscattered electrons. Elastically backscattered electrons are enduring elastic collisions only. Thus they are not enduring energy losses in the material. Consequently, they are emerging from the
material with energy equal to incident energy (cf. High energy peak on Figure 3). Non-elastically backscattered electrons have transferred a part of the energy to the material due to inelastic collisions but still have enough energy to overcome the vacuum/material barrier. They are represented by the blue dashed line on Figure 3, minus the elastic peak. Backscattered electrons contribution to TEEY is represented by backscattering coefficient \( \eta \). In the end, we have:

\[
\sigma = R + \delta + \eta \approx \delta + \eta
\]

(2)

1.3. Listing of phenomena taking part in EE

On the energy balance point of view, it could appear evident that not all the energy of the incident electron is transferred to the emitted electrons. Macroscopically, several phenomena depend on energy transfers from incident electrons to the material. If they interact strongly with atomic bonding, they can create erosion and material ageing. Besides if they interact with the free electron gas or electron net, they can create a plasmon displacement and thus improve the conductivity of the material, in that case it is question of Radiation Induced Conductivity (RIC) [8]. They can also transfer energy to phonons (especially in dielectrics) and thus generate heat. They can finally transfer enough energy to an intern electron to make him become a secondary electron. It creates in that case Secondary Electron Emission (SEE).

Considering plasma/wall interactions, it can be seen that it is not sufficient to consider independently the number of incident and emitted electrons on one hand and their energetic distributions on the other hand, because none of them represent the energy balance at the wall. A new value combining TEEY and energy distribution could allow giving an idea of energetic properties of a plasma/wall energy exchange.

2. DEFINITION OF ENERGETIC EFFICIENCY

The energetic efficiency of plasma/wall interaction, noted \( \eta_g \) is defined as the kinetic energy of electrons emitted to plasma, divided by the kinetic energy of the electrons incident to the wall (cf. Figure 4). It will then be defined analytically by:

\[
\eta_g = \frac{E_s}{E_0} = \frac{E_0 - E_{abs}}{E_0} = 1 - \frac{E_{abs}}{E_0}
\]

(3)

Where, \( E_s \) is the kinetic energy of electrons emitted from the wall [eV], \( E_0 \) is the kinetic energy of electrons incident to the wall [eV] and \( E_{abs} \) is the energy diffused by incident electrons in the wall [eV]
In many cases of non-equilibrium plasmas, the overwhelming part of plasma/wall interaction is due to electrons/wall interaction. If we approximate $\eta_E$ by electrons contribution only, it can be written that:

$$\eta_E = \frac{N_s}{N_0} \frac{\int_0^{+\infty} E \cdot f_s(E) \cdot dE}{\int_0^{+\infty} E \cdot f_0(E) \cdot dE} = \frac{\sigma(E_0)}{\int_0^{+\infty} E \cdot f_0(E) \cdot dE} \cdot \int_0^{+\infty} E \cdot f_s(E) \cdot dE$$  \hspace{5cm} (4)

Where, $N_s$ is the number of emitted electrons, $N_0$ is the number of incident electrons [\$], $f_s$ is the distribution function of emitted electrons [eV$^{-1}$], $f_0$ is the distribution function of incident electrons [eV$^{-1}$] and $\sigma(E_0)$ is the Total Electrons Emission Yield (TEEY).

The objective of this work is to give experimental values of $\eta_E$ for miscellaneous materials and of their evolution with incident electrons energy.

3. EXPERIMENTAL PROTOCOL

We will now describe the experimental protocol which allowed deducing first values of energetic efficiency of plasma/wall interaction.

3.1. Experimental protocol principle

A monoenergetic incident electrons beam was generated by an electron gun at the energy $E_0$. TEEY and emitted electrons energy spectre were measured for various $E_0$ between 5 eV and 105 eV.

As the incident electron flow is quasi-monocinetic (energy spread 0.6 eV [9]), $\eta_E$ expression can be simplified to:

$$\eta_E = \frac{\sigma(E_0)}{E_0} \cdot \left[ \int_0^{+\infty} E \cdot f_s(E) \cdot dE \right] = \sigma(E_0) \cdot \frac{[E_s]}{E_0}$$  \hspace{5cm} (5)

Where, $[E_s]$ is the mean energy of emitted electrons [eV] and it has been supposed that distribution functions are normalized, i.e:

$$\int_0^{+\infty} f(x) \cdot dx = 1$$  \hspace{5cm} (6)

However, experimentally, we have to approximate this integrated value of emitted electrons mean energy. Thus:

$$\eta_E \approx \sigma(E_0) \cdot \frac{[E_s]}{E_0}$$  \hspace{5cm} (7)

With $[E_s]$ the numerical mean value in eV.

4. EXPERIMENTAL RESULTS

Experimental results have been obtained for three different materials: technical silver (i.e. silver exposed to ambient atmosphere), graphite, and SiO$_2$.
Figure 6 represents the energetic efficiency of silver specimen under electron incident beam at normal incidence. $\eta_E$ values have been read every 5 eV for $E_0$ values between 10 eV and 110 eV. It can be observed that $\eta_E$ is high at low energy (around 80%) and decrease until reaching a minimum value of 51% at 55 eV. It increases again a bit slower until 110 eV, where it reaches 64%. As for as the Lambertian distribution values are concerned, it can be observed a smoother, monotonic shape which decrease from 77% to 63% between 5 and 110 eV.

Figure 7 represents the energetic efficiency of graphite specimen under electron incident beam at normal incidence. $\eta_E$ values have been read every 5 eV between 10 eV and 110 eV. The same global shape as for silver can be observed on Figure 7. However $\eta_E$ values are much lower here (between 19% and 34%).

Figure 8 represents the energetic efficiency of SiO$_2$ thin layer (10 nm) specimen under electron incident beam at normal incidence. $\eta_E$ values have been read for $E_0$ going from 10 eV and 110 eV and set every 5 eV between. A more complicated shape can be observed here. A first stiff decrease from 65% to 53% can be observed between 10eV and 25 eV followed by an increase from 53% to 70% on the range 25 to 90 eV. However, unlike graphite and silver, the curve reaches a maximum here before decreasing again. However due to the range of values we are using, it is difficult to give an estimation of the curve shape above 90 eV. If the Lambertian data are now considered, a non monotonic shape is still observed, which decrease from 63% to 60% between 5 eV and 20 eV. Then, an increase is observed: from 60% to 65% on the 20-110 eV range.

These measurements show a non negligible variation of energetic efficiency from one material to another and also a dependency in electron temperature of energetic efficiency. None of these two observations has been taken into account in the current models of EE applied to SPTs. Nonetheless, if these experiments give quantitative results, one should recognize that they are not simple to realize and that numerous uncertainty should be considered and balanced. Provided that, the results will be quantitatively accurate.

5. MEASUREMENT ACCURACY

Detected uncertainties will be analyzed and the way they are taken into account will be exposed thereafter.

5.1. Surface charging

One of the recurring problems is that dielectric materials will get a surface charge which will vary with incident electrons [11]. However this bias can be easily corrected and the surface potential can be deduced from it. As a
matter of fact, on the energy spectres, an energy offset can be observed with no electron emission for emitted electron energy close to zero. And we know from Chung and Everheart model [4] that secondary electrons are emitted from 0 eV to $+\infty$.

5.2 Emitted electrons anisotropy

![Figure 9 Scheme of angular distribution of secondary electrons][3]

One of the other points which has to be handled is the anisotropy of emitted electrons. It can be observed, on Figure 9, that the angular distribution of the secondary electrons is almost Lambertian [3] for polycrystalline and amorphous materials. However the backscattered electrons are, on the contrary very anisotropic as it can be seen on Figure 10 [3].

![Figure 10 Scheme of backscattered electrons angular distribution][3]

Thus, as a function of the analyzer position, the recorded spectre may differ as function of the acceptance angle. This may probably induce an important uncertainty on measurements.

5.3 Distribution function deformation with surface charge

One of the other points that can have a non negligible effect on measurements accuracy is the deformation of electrons distribution due to their transport between the surface and the analyzer. It has been observed on silver specimen that, depending on the sample voltage bias $\eta_E$ values will vary significantly (cf. Figure 11).

Indeed, we can see, on Figure 11, $\eta_E$ evolution in function of incident energy for three different surface potential. Both values for monoenergetic and Lambertian distributed incident electron beam have been plotted.

We can recognize on Figure 11 the typical form of monoenergetic and Lambertian distribution function curves that we have already seen in Figure 6 to Figure 8. It can be observed, also, that monoenergetic curves are not monotonic. They start from a high value (between 63% and 80%) at 5eV, decrease until reaching a value between 45% and 47% around 60 eV before very slightly increasing to a value between 46% and 49%. Depending on the surface potential a deviation can be observed between the different curves. For a high surface potential (15V) $\eta_E$ values are, averagely, more important than for a 10V or 5V surface potential. Between 25 and 35 eV, a gap of 12% can be observed between 15V and 10V and of 7% between 10V and 5V. These deviations become negligible at high energy (approximately 3% around 100 eV).

These experimental values show that, even if the global shape of the curve is accurate, there are some improvements to perform on the experimental protocol and data processing before getting very accurate quantitative results.
One explanation which seems plausible is that surface potential modified the angular distribution of emitted electrons by replying the SE, leading to the distortion the emission lobs normally to the surface.

6. ANALYSIS

It can be interesting now to inspect the implications that these measurements could have as for as SPTs application is concerned.

6.1. Electron/wall predominance in plasma/wall energy balance

Electrons can have a predominant role in energetic balance of plasma thrusters. In order to observe it, an energy balance to the wall can be considered. First of all, it can be observed that in steady state, the charge balance at the wall (cf. Erreur ! Source du renvoi introuvable.) is equal to zero, that is:

\[ I_{e0} + I_{ee} + I_{i} = 0 \]  \hspace{1cm} (10)

Where, \( I_{e0} \) is the thermal electron flux from plasma, \( I_{ee} = -\sigma \cdot I_{e0} \) is the flux of emitted electrons and \( I_{i0} \) is the ion flux from the plasma

Thus, there is:

\[ I_{i} = -I_{e0}(1 - \sigma) \]  \hspace{1cm} (11)

It can be observed thus, that for \( \sigma \sim 1 \), the current of thermal electrons collected from the plasma is well higher than the current of ions.

In term of energy, by supposing that the electrons temperature is equal to ion energy, this equation transforms into:

\[ \frac{P_{i}}{P_{e}} = \frac{1 - \sigma}{1 - \eta_{E}} \]  \hspace{1cm} (12)

It can be observed thus, that for \( \sigma \sim 1 \), the energy balance is dominated by the electrons \( \frac{P_{i}}{P_{e}} \approx 0 \). Thus, the energy efficiency yield could be a key parameter in the energy balance computation.

6.2. Consequences of \( \eta_{E} \) measurement on SPT modelling

In the measurements done, a non-negligible variation of \( \eta_{E} \) is observed, it could suggest that an improvement of the current models is possible. As a matter of fact, if we consider calculations realised on SPTs performances by Katz and Goebel [12], a constant loss at the wall is generally considered. It could be interesting to rewrite these calculations taking these experimental data into account.

Moreover current Particle In Cell models (plasma particles models based on Monte-Carlo method) are today 1D or 2D [1], [2], [13] (a 3D model is impractical today due to computation cost of such a simulation). In order to take EE into account, they use an energy balance to reinsert in the plasma electrons with a total energy depending on the chosen loss model at the wall. Until now, loss model at the wall has been assumed constant or linear. It could be interesting to use these experimental data in order to see if it could impact the global modelling.

7. CONCLUSION AND FURTHER STUDIES

This work shows which problems arise when it is tried to measure accurately the energetic efficiency of plasma/wall interaction, and by extension, how difficult it is to measure a relevant energy spectre for a material. However, even if experimental data will need more investigation to give accurate quantitative results, they show yet an important variation along the 0-100 eV incident energy range. This could have a non-negligible impact on SPTs modelling and miscellaneous other applications.

In order to take into account the uncertainty linked to angular distribution of EE, one of the ONERA test-beds (CELESTE test-bed, DESP, ONERA) has been modified in order to control the angular position of the analyzer and thus to be able to integrate measurements on a \( \pi \)-angle. It is hoped that this would solve the bias due to angular anisotropy and surface potential influence on angular distribution.

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9. REFERENCES


