Advancing Accurate Composition Analysis of Ternary Semiconductors: Matrix Effects in Secondary Ion Mass Spectrometry

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Advancing Accurate Composition Analysis of Ternary Semiconductors: Matrix Effects in Secondary Ion Mass Spectrometry

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A thesis submitted in fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy in Physics

13 December 2024



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Declaration

I hereby declare that this thesis, titled "Advancing Accurate Composition Analysis of Ternary Semiconductors: Matrix Effects in Secondary Ion Mass Spectrometry," is my original research and has not been submitted for any other degree or qualification at this or any other institution. This thesis is submitted to fulfill the requirements for the Doctor of Philosophy degree at the Institute of Physics, Polish Academy of Sciences.

Zeinab Khosravizadeh 13 December 2024



Abstract

Ternary compound materials are gaining substantial attention with the development of semiconductor technology. Owing to their comprehensive applications, precisely quantifying the matrix composition of ternary compounds has become increasingly vital. In this context, surface analysis techniques are crucial to facilitating accurate characterization for advancing material science. Applying secondary ion mass spectrometry (SIMS) is challenging among these techniques due to the impact of the matrix effect. The matrix elements in a material influence the secondary ions ejected from the surface, causing variations in ionization yield with the compound's composition. The matrix effect is related to changes in the material's electronic properties, such as work function.

This study investigates matrix effects in the SIMS analysis of ternary compound semiconductors. To assess how matrix composition influences secondary ion yield and the accuracy of composition determination. The thesis is divided into two main sections: the first part focuses on matrix effects in the $Cd_{1-x}Zn_xO$ ternary compound, while the second explores matrix effects in $Pb_{1-x}Sn_xTe$.

 $Cd_{1-x}Zn_xO$ (0 < x < 0.6), a widely used ternary compound semiconductor popular mostly in optoelectronic applications, and $Pb_{1-x}Sn_xTe$ (0 < x < 1) another applicable ternary compound demonstrates non-linearity in band structure near critical composition points, making it an ideal candidate for studying the matrix effect. It should be noted that while the matrix effect complicates the quantitative analysis of the material composition, it concurrently allows for valuable inference about the electronic and chemical properties of the studied semiconductor.

A contribution of this research is the development of a calibration curve method using SIMS to determine the composition of CdZnO and PbSnTe ternary compounds accurately. With the use of these calibration curves, we can accurately measure the elemental composition of $Cd_{1-x}Zn_xO$ and $Pb_{1-x}Sn_xTe$ in any structure, which is difficult to achieve with other methods. An innovative aspect of this study is introducing a new approach for SIMS instruments, allowing for estimating the band gap behavior of ternary compound semiconductors of $Pb_{1-x}Sn_xTe$ for the first time while accounting for the matrix effect in SIMS analysis.

This study advances the understanding of matrix effects in SIMS analysis, which is crucial for improving the accuracy of material characterization. Ultimately, the research aims to develop more accurate and reliable analytical methods, supporting fundamental research and practical applications in the semiconductor industry.

Streszczenie

Wraz z rozwojem technologii półprzewodników, materiały trójskładnikowe zyskują coraz większą uwagę. Ze względu na ich szerokie możliwości zastosowań, precyzyjne określenie składu matrycy związków ternarnych staje się coraz bardziej istotne. W tym kontekście, techniki analizy powierzchni umożliwiające dokładną charakteryzację zaawansowanych materiałów, odgrywają kluczową rolę w rozwoju nauki na ich temat. Spośród technik, spektrometria masowa jonów wtórnych (SIMS) jest jedną z najbardiej zaawansowanych technik pomiarowych. Jednak jej wykorzystanie związane jest z trudnością wynikającą z tzw. efektu matrycowego. Efekt ten wynika stąd, że pierwiastki znajdujące się w materiale wpływają na wydajność jonizacji atomów, które sa analizowane podczas pomiaru. Efekt matrycy jest głównie związany ze zmianami właściwości elektronicznych materiału, takimi jak praca wyjścia i powinowactwo elektronowe.

Niniejsza praca poświęcona jest badaniom wpływu efektu matrycy na analizę składu trójskładnikowych związków półprzewodnikowych metodą SIMS. Celem jest ocena, jak skład matrycy wpływa na wydajność jonów wtórnych oraz dokładność identyfikacji składu materiału. Praca podzielona jest na dwie główne części. Pierwsza z nich koncentruje się na efektach matrycy w trójskładnikowym związku takim jak tlenek cynkowo-kadmowy $Cd_{1-x}Zn_xO$ natomiast druga analizuje efekt matrycy w tellurku ołowiowo-cynowym $Pb_{1-x}Sn_xTe$. Zarówno $Cd_{1-x}Zn_xO$ półprzewodnik szeroko stosowany głównie w zastosowaniach optoelektronicznych jak i $Pb_{1-x}Sn_xTe$ wykazujący potencjalne możliwości aplikacyjne, charakteryzujący się nieliniowością struktury pasmowej w pobliżu punktów krytycznych składu, są idealnymi kandydatami do badania efektu matrycy w metodzie SIMS.

Nowatorskim aspektem niniejszego badania było opracowanie metody krzywych kalibracyjnych w badaniach SIMS do określenia dokładnej zawartości związków trójskładnikowych. Zastosowanie jej umożliwia precyzyjne określenie składu pierwiastkowego $Cd_{1-x}Zn_xO$ oraz $Pb_{1-x}Sn_xTe$ w dowolnej strukturze półprzewodnikowej, co jest trudne do osiągnięcia innymi metodami pomiarowymi.Dodatkowo, innowacyjny aspekt tych badań polega na wprowadzeniu nowego podejścia do pomiarów metodą SIMS, które pozwalają na obserwację zmian przerwy energetycznej $Pb_{1-x}Sn_xTe$ z wykorzystaniem efektu matrycy. Niniejsze badania pogłębiają zrozumienie efektów matrycy w analizie SIMS, co jest kluczowe dla poprawy dokładności charakterystyki materiałów. Ostatecznie, celem badań jest opracowanie bardziej precyzyjnych i niezawodnych metod analitycznych, wspierających zarówno badania podstawowe jak i praktyczne zastosowania w przemyśle półprzewodników.

نه تو می مانی و نه اندوه،

Neither you remain, nor sadness,

And not any of the people of this village! Swear to the anxious bubble on the edge of a river, And to the brevity of that moment of joy that passed, Sadness will also pass! Just as it will remain only a memory, Moments are pristine. Do not ever dress the moment in the garment of sorrow... (Sohrab Sepehri)

Translated by Zeinab Khosravizadeh

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Dedication

To my beloved parents—your boundless love, faith, support, and countless sacrifices have made every step of this journey possible. This achievement is a reflection of the dreams you helped me believe in.

Research Articles

This thesis is based on the results published in articles incorporated into this study.

Paper I

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Paper II

Khosravizadeh, Z., Dziawa, P., Dad, S., Jakiela, R., "Secondary Ion Mass Spectrometry Characterization of Matrix Composition in Topological Crystalline Insulator Pb_{1-x}Sn_xTe," <u>Thin Solid Films</u>, 781 (2023) 139974, https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tsf.2023.139974.

Paper III

Khosravizadeh, Z., Dziawa, P., Dad, S., Dabrowski, A., Jakiela, R., "A novel approach for observing band gap crossings using the SIMS technique in Pb_{1-x}Sn_xTe," Journal of Semiconductors, 45 (2024) 112102, https://www.jos.ac.cn/en/article/doi/10.1088/1674-4926/24040023.

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Conference Publications During Ph.D.

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List of Acronyms

- Secondary Ion Mass Spectrometry (SIMS)
- Magnetic Sector Secondary Ion Mass Spectrometry (MS-SIMS)
- Time of Flight Secondary Ion Mass Spectrometry (ToF-SIMS)
- Relative Sensitivity Factor (RSF)
- Reflection High-Energy Electron Diffraction (RHEED)
- Molecular Beam Epitaxy (MBE)
- Parts Per Million (ppm)
- Parts Per Billion (ppb)
- Quadrupole Mass Analyzers (QMA)
- Radio Frequency (RF)
- Standard Cubic Centimeters Per Minute (sccm)
- Direct Current (DC)
- Faraday Cups (FC)
- Electron Multipliers (EM)
- Resistive Anode Encoder (RAE)
- Sputtering Rate (SR)
- X-ray diffraction (XRD)
- Energy-Dispersive X-ray (EDX)
- Scanning Electron Microscope (SEM)
- Light-Emitting Diodes (LEDs),
- Conduction Band Minimum (CBM)
- Valence Band Maximum (VBM)
- Ultraviolet (UV)
- Adopted from (adopt. from)

Chapter 1

Introduction

1.1 Surface Characterization Techniques

Advances in materials science, particularly in the semiconductor industry, heavily depend on accurate surface characterization techniques. These methods are critical for understanding the structural, chemical, and physical properties of materials, enabling the design and optimization of new technologies in fields such as optoelectronics, photovoltaics, and thermoelectrics [1-3].

Surface analysis techniques involve directing primary beams of electrons, ions, X-rays, or photons onto a material's surface, generating signals from ejected particles such as ions, photons, and electrons. These signals are analyzed to determine the material's surface properties [4]. Among the many available techniques, secondary ion mass spectrometry (SIMS) stands out for its exceptional sensitivity and versatility [5,6].

SIMS is a powerful technique for surface analysis, capable of providing precise elemental and isotopic composition data. With detection limits as low as parts per billion, SIMS enables unparalleled insights into material structures and compositions. Its ability to analyze complex materials makes it indispensable in semiconductor research, particularly for emerging materials like ternary semiconductors, where precise control of elemental composition is critical [5, 7, 8].

1.2 Challenges in SIMS Analysis

Despite its strengths, SIMS faces significant challenges in achieving accurate elemental quantification for ternary semiconductors. One of the most critical issues is the occurrence of matrix effects—phenomena where the chemical environment influences ionization efficiencies, distorting secondary ion yields and introducing inaccuracies in quantification [9].

Ternary compound semiconductors, composed of three distinct elements, are particularly interesting for their unique properties and applications in advanced technologies. Materials such as cadmium zinc oxide ($Cd_{1-x}Zn_xO$) [10–12] and lead tin telluride ($Pb_{1-x}Sn_xTe$) [13–18], exemplify these challenges. Their complex compositions and chemical interactions result in significant variations in ionization behavior, complicating SIMS analysis. Accurate elemental characterization of these materials is essential, as even minor deviations in composition can have substantial impacts on their electrical and optical performance.

Beyond compositional challenges, the behavior of electronic properties plays a critical role in how matrix effects manifest during SIMS measurements. Addressing these interconnected challenges is essential for understanding the mechanisms behind matrix effects in SIMS analysis of ternary semiconductors.

1.3 Practical Challenges of Matrix Effects

Matrix effects in SIMS arise due to the high sensitivity of sputtering and ionization processes to the local chemical and physical environment of the sample. The presence of certain elements can enhance or suppress the ionization of others, resulting in nonlinear relationships between secondary ion intensities and the actual elemental concentrations [9]. Such nonlinearities complicate accurate quantification, particularly in ternary semiconductors, where variations in elemental ratios, chemical bonding, and electronic properties exacerbate matrix effects and necessitate advanced calibration techniques.

For example, changes in the ratio of constituent elements in materials like CdZnO and PbSnTe can significantly alter ionization yields, distorting SIMS signals and introducing systematic errors. Additionally, compositional gradients and heterogeneities, such as stoichiometric variations, further complicate data interpretation. Addressing these challenges requires unique calibration curves to account for each specific system. While existing studies have been developed for simpler systems, such as AlGaAs [19], InGaAsP [20], and HgCdTe [21], calibration methods for ternary semiconductors remain not fully understood.

Furthermore, electronic properties, such as work function and electron affinity, influence the probability of the secondary ion emission and contribute to variations in the measured SIMS signal. Understanding the interplay between electronic properties and matrix effects is essential for improving both the theoretical understanding and practical applications of SIMS to explore fundamental material behaviors.

1.4 Goals and Scope

This research is driven by the increasing demand for accurate material characterization techniques to advance semiconductor technology. Specifically, this study focuses on understanding and mitigating matrix effects in SIMS analysis of ternary semiconductors, emphasizing improving quantification accuracy and exploring the impact of electronic properties on ionization behavior.

The scope of this research encompasses two main goals: Developing improved calibration methods to enhance the accuracy of elemental quantification in ternary semiconductors. Furthermore, investigating the role of electronic properties in matrix effects, specifically exploring their influence in altering ionization probabilities during SIMS analysis.

CdZnO and PbSnTe are selected as model systems due to their significant technological relevance and complex compositional challenges. The insights gained from this study are expected to advance the understanding of matrix effects and contribute to developing more accurate SIMS methodologies for complex materials. Moreover, utilizing SIMS to explore how electronic properties contribute to these matrix effects provides a fresh perspective, expanding its role as an analytical tool and revealing new potential applications for SIMS. Ultimately, this research aims to offer practical solutions that can advance research on semiconductor materials and technology.

1.5 Research Objectives

The primary objective of this research is to improve the accuracy and reliability of SIMS as an analytical tool to address a key challenge in semiconductor research. Moreover, the role of electronic properties in the matrix effects in the ternary compound semiconductor in SIMS analysis is explored. The specific objectives of this research are:

Research Question 1: How do matrix effects impact SIMS measurement accuracy?

Matrix effects can significantly alter secondary ion yields, affecting the accuracy of SIMS measurements. This objective focuses on the relationship between matrix effects and ionization yields to improve the reliability of compositional analysis.

Research Question 2: How can we overcome matrix effects for precise quantification in SIMS?

This objective aims to develop calibration techniques specifically tailored to ternary systems, which are crucial for achieving precise quantification. The goal is to construct robust calibration curves, particularly for materials like CdZnO and PbSnTe.

Research Question 3: What is the role of electronic properties of ternary semiconductors in matrix effects?

This objective investigates how the electronic properties of PbSnTe contribute to variations in ionization probability behavior. Understanding these mechanisms will provide deeper insights into matrix effects and inform improved analytical strategies. This is a novel application of SIMS for this category of materials.

1.6 Limitations

While this study provides valuable insights into the quantification of ternary semiconductors using SIMS and the impact of electronic properties on matrix effects, certain limitations must be acknowledged:

- Calibration Curve Specificity: The calibration curve developed in this study is unique to the specific ternary compounds studied (CdZnO and PbSnTe). While this curve offers improved accuracy for these materials, its applicability to other ternary systems may be limited. Each ternary compound may require its own calibration curve due to variations in ionization behaviors and matrix effects. Therefore, while tailored to the materials discussed, this work provides a universal calibration method.
- Electronic Properties Measurement Limitation: In studying the electronic properties of PbSnTe compounds, the resolution of energy distribution has a limitation of about 0.16 eV. This limited the precision with which we could measure and analyze variations in the electronic properties of the materials, like work function and electron affinity.

1.7 Outline

The structure of this thesis is divided into the following:

- Chapter 2: SIMS and Matrix Effects This chapter includes literature and reviews on SIMS, how it works, details of understanding of ionization phenomena, and most importantly, the matrix effects in the SIMS method and the theory behind our works.
- Chapter 3: Materials and Measurements This chapter outlines the reviews on ternary compound semiconductors, a brief overview of CdZnO and PbSnTe, and experimental procedures such as sample growth, SIMS measurement conditions, and data analysis techniques.
- Chapter 4: Results: Summary of Publications In this chapter, a summary of the results of each paper is presented, followed by the attached papers incorporated in this study at the end of this chapter.
- Chapter 5: Conclusions and Outlook At the end, there is a summary of our works in this chapter, including the response to the research questions, the general conclusions in this study, and suggestions for future potential work in this field.

Chapter 2

SIMS and Matrix Effects

2.1 Overview of SIMS

Secondary ion mass spectrometry is an analytical technique used to estimate the composition in solid surfaces and near-surface layers (up to tens of micrometers) based on the sputtering process [5]. The history of SIMS dates back to 1910 when Thomson observed radiation of secondary ions from a metallic surface [22]. Later, he discovered the ratio of charge to mass of ions (e/m) by passing through a magnetic field in vacuum tubes.

In 1949, Herzorg and Viehboeckthe reported the prototype of the SIMS instrument using an improved canal-ray tube, incorporating two electric fields, and conducting sputtering in a high vacuum environment [23]. Eventually, the first commercial SIMS instrument was released by Herzog under a NASA project in 1967, aimed at detecting and analyzing mineral materials discovered during space missions [24]. Raimond Castaing and his Ph.D. student, Slodzian, at the University of Paris-Sud in France, developed a dynamic SIMS device based on magnetic sector mass spectrometry, utilizing argon as the primary beam for bombarding samples [5].

Despite fulfillment in applying mass spectrometry for gaseous samples, it encountered technical challenges related to vaporization and ionization during that period for solids analysis [24]. With the growing need to characterize the surface properties of thin films by developing the industry, SIMS gained significant attention due to its ability to detect all elements in the periodic table. Its high sensitivity, ranging from parts per million (ppm) to parts per billion (ppb), along with nanometer-scale depth resolution and isotopic separation, makes it superior to other surface analysis techniques [7, 25–28]. This advancement led to the widespread application of SIMS across various fields, as reviewed by Williams in 1985 [29], followed by Vleck and later by Bacon et al. [30, 31].

2.2 Basics of SIMS

Mass spectrometry generates ions from compounds through various methods, such as thermal ionization, electric fields, or impacts from energetic electrons, ions, or photons. In SIMS, the surface of a sample is bombarded with accelerated ions known as primary beams. When the primary beam collides with the sample surface, it transfers sufficient energy to eject atoms from the surface into the vacuum. These sputtered particles can



Figure 2.1: Schematically representation of sputtering of secondary ions and ionization yields by the primary beam (Taken from [5]).

include electrons, neutral atoms, molecules, and positively and negatively charged ions (order of 0.1-10%), referred to as secondary ions. Figure 2.1 (Adopt. from [5]) schematically illustrates the sputtering of the secondary ions from the surface. The potential difference between the sample and the detector accelerates the secondary ions into a mass spectrometer, which is analyzed by energy and mass using electric and magnetic fields. After mass analysis, the secondary ions are collected by detectors.

SIMS operates in two main modes: static and dynamic [5]. In the static mode, which is non-destructive under specific bombardment conditions, the low-dose energy primary beam results in the ejection of secondary ions from the surface's top layer. Static SIMS can give information about the surface composition [8]. On the other hand, dynamic SIMS operates by applying high-dose primary beams to the deeper beneath-the-surface analysis. The removed material in the analyzed region enables depth profiles, mass spectra, the image of the surface, and depth-resolved images [32].

A typical SIMS device comprises four primary components: a primary ion source, an energy analyzer, a mass analyzer, and a detector, all functioning within high vacuum conditions. A schematic representation of SIMS components is shown in Figure 2.2 (Adopt. from [32]).

2.2.1 Primary Ion Source

The ion source is crucial for generating the ions (primary beam) that bombard the surface of the sample, causing the ejection of secondary ions for analysis (see Figure 2.3, adopt. from [32]). The primary beam contains ions of elements like cesium, oxygen, or argon



Figure 2.2: Schematically representation of SIMS instruments (Taken from [32]).

 $(Cs^+, O_2^+, O^-, Ar^+, Xe^+, Ga^+, \text{etc.})$ and is accelerated at high energies (often up to 25 keV) toward the sample. The choice of ion type depends on the desired effect: oxygen ions (O_2^+) are commonly used to enhance the emission of positively charged secondary ions like Al, B, etc., while cesium ions (Cs^+) are more effective for negative ion production like C, O, etc. The focused ion beam can target specific sample areas, enabling lateral resolution analysis. The properties of the primary ion beam, such as energy, type, and spatial resolution, directly influence the sputtering process and the depth profiling capabilities of the SIMS instrument [32].

2.2.2 Energy Analyzers

In the sputtering process, secondary ions ejected from a surface have a wide range of energies. The secondary ions enter the electrostatic energy analyzer, ensuring that only ions with a specific energy (and constant velocity) can pass through. After that, a movable energy slit is positioned to selectively filter a narrow range of the dispersed secondary ions, allowing only a chosen fraction with the proper range of energy to pass through the magnetic analyzer. The energy distribution of molecular ions is much narrower than atomic ions. An energy slit at the output of the electrostatic analyzer can intercept the ions with the required energy, allowing them to continue through the mass spectrometer (see Figure 2.4, adopt. from [33]).



Figure 2.3: Schematically representation of primary ion (I_p) and secondary ion (I_s) on the surface (Taken from [32]).



Figure 2.4: Schematically representation of the energy and mass analyzers in SIMS device (Taken from [33]).

2.2.3 Mass Analyzers

There are three types of mass analyzers in SIMS: a magnetic sector (MS), time-of-flight (ToF), and quadrupole mass analyzer (QMA). Two essential factors for comparing mass analysis are mass resolution and transmission [32]. The ability of the mass analyzer to distinguish among distinct mass-to-charge ratios is called mass resolution. This resolution can be determined by dividing the mass of the first peak (m) or the average mass of two peaks by the difference in mass between two peaks (δm). This is mathematically expressed as R = m/ δm , where R represents the resolution. Moreover, the percentage of ions that can pass through a specific area of the mass spectrometer refers to the transmission, which can be estimated by comparing exiting and entering ions on that region [32].

2.2.3.1 Magnetic Sector SIMS Analyzer

The MS-SIMS analyzer applies a magnetic field to separate charged particles according to their mass-to-charge ratio. The physics behind this phenomenon- how charged particles move through a constant magnetic field- can be described by the Lorentz force law, which is the force applied to a charged particle moving through the magnetic field. The Lorentz force (F_L) depends on the velocity (v), the intensity of the magnetic field (B), and the charge of the ion (q). The Lorentz force is given by:

$$\mathbf{F}_L = q \mathbf{v} B \sin \alpha \tag{2.1}$$

 F_L can be equal to qvB, if the v and B are perpendicular. On the other hand, from a centripetal force (F_c), when a charged particle is moving into the uniform magnetic field, it is drawing a circular path with the radius (r_m). The following expression describes the F_c :

$$F_c = \frac{mv^2}{r_m} \tag{2.2}$$

The equivalence between the centripetal force (2.2) and the Lorentz force (2.1) gives us:

$$qvB = \frac{mv^2}{r_m} \tag{2.3}$$

where the mass-to-charge ratio can be expressed as:

$$\frac{m}{q} = \frac{Br_m}{v} \tag{2.4}$$

- $\frac{m}{q}$ is the mass-to-charge ratio $(\frac{\text{kg}}{\text{C}})$, it changes into $\frac{m}{z}$, z is the number of ion's charges concerning the elementary charge),
- *B* is the strength of the magnetic field $(\frac{Wb}{m^2})$,
- v is the velocity $(\frac{m}{s})$,
- r is the radius of the ion trajectory in the magnetic field (m).

By adjusting the apertures and slits in the secondary ion beam path, high transmission (up to 20%) and mass resolution (up to 25,000) can be attained. The primary features of the SIMS system are extremely shallow or deep depth profiling and low detection limit of elements.



Figure 2.5: Schematically representation of the duel beam ToF-SIMS device (Taken from [34]).

2.2.3.2 Time of Flight SIMS Analyzers

ToF-SIMS employs a pulsed primary ion beam, typically Cs or Bi (other sources like Ga, Ar, Xe, SF5, and C60), to selectively remove material from the surface for analyzing and characterizing the surface content. ToF-SIMS operates using a dual-beam system: both ion beams are used to sputter the material, but only ions ejected by the second beam are analyzed (see Figure 2.5, adopt. from [34]).

Upon bombarding the surface with primary ions, species are ejected from the atomic monolayer and accelerated through a flight tube. The masses of species are determined based on their flight times to reach the detector from the initiation of the pulse. Heavier species require more time to reach the detector. ToF-SIMS is designed with a circular path (a reflectron) to increase the flight path and enhance resolution by extending the time difference between masses.

This instrument can gain high transmission (from 10 in the case of inorganic ions, up to 90% for organic ions) and mass resolution (up to 10,000). The high transmission and mass range detection make ToF-SIMS a good candidate for analyzing organic and biological samples. The main contrast between ToF-SIMS and MS-SIMS lies in the different ways of identifying the mass-to-charge ratios. Another variation is the selection of an ion beam for data analysis. In MS-SIMS, Cs^+ ions are often utilized as a primary beam, which has high ionization efficiency and enhances the sensitivity of detecting elements. It is highly effective for detecting trace and atmospheric elements, whereas ToF-SIMS usually operates Bi⁺ ions and provides superior depth resolution. It is more suitable for analyzing organic and complex molecules [32].

2.2.3.3 Quadrupole Mass Analyzers

QMA consists of four parallel rods arranged in a square pattern and is commonly used in various fields. Quadrupole instruments selectively transmit ions by combining radio frequency (RF) and direct current (DC) electric fields. The ability of QMA to precisely separate ions based on their mass-to-charge ratio makes them an essential tool in many analytical applications, mainly for shallow-depth profiling. The mass resolution (300 amu) and its low transmission have limitations depending on the generation of RF voltage and the size of the rods.

2.2.4 Detectors

SIMS typically use a variety of detectors to measure the intensity of secondary ion signals, including Faraday cups (FC), electron multipliers (EM), ion image plates, and the resistive anode encoder (RAE) image detectors [5]. In general, FC can be applied to detect signals in higher ranges starting from 5×10^4 ion counts per second (c/s) and higher. EM as a sensitive detector can be utilized in lower ranges from less than 1 to around 1×10^6 ion counts per second (c/s).

An ion image plate comprises a network of tiny electron multipliers, usually made from lead glass. The front surface of the plate is kept at ground potential, whereas the back surface is typically set to a voltage between 1 and 2 keV. The RAE image detector uses a micro-channel plate to convert ions into electrons. It records images digitally. The maximum count rates of this detector must be kept below 4×10^4 (c/s) as it has a high but stable background count rate [32].

2.3 Quantitative Analysis

2.3.1 Sputtering Process

Upon impact of an energetic ion beam on the surface, the kinetic energy and momentum are transferred to the atoms or molecules. If the radiation energy exceeds the binding energy of atoms in a lattice, recoil atoms are created. Some primary ions may be back-scattered, secondary electrons can be ejected, photons may be produced, and some ions penetrate the sample and share part of their energy with the target atoms through electronic excitation and cascade collisions on the surface [35]. This interaction between the ion beam and the atoms on the surface is the basis of the SIMS method and is called sputtering.

The uppermost layer of the sample undergoes destruction during the measurement

process [36]. However, a significant portion of the primary ions can sputter neutral atoms and molecules, together with electrons and secondary ions at low energy. Employing different primary beams can increase the detection limit by enhancing the ionization yield. For example, using O^- and O_2^+ as a primary beam increases the detection of electropositive elements like aluminum, while Cs⁺ is more effective for electronegative elements like fluorine [37].

The study of sputtering phenomena dates back to the observations made by Grove in 1853 [38] and Faraday in 1854, initially noticing metallic deposits on the glass walls of discharge tubes. Nevertheless, in the early 20th century, Goldstein revealed the evidence of the sputtering effect by performing the first ion-beam sputtering experiment, hitting the cathode with positive ions and demonstrating the disappearance of a gold coating on the glass wall facing the beam [39]. In parallel, significant experimental studies were conducted by Penning and Moubis [40], who used an axial magnetic field to aid in returning secondary electrons and reduce operating pressure. They measured sputtered material by weighing mica disks placed opposite the cathode. Guntherschulze and Meyer also contributed by employing glow discharges between heated filaments and cathodes with holes, pioneering methods to measure sputtering rates. Guntherschulze's observations eliminated back diffusion effects using cylindrical cathodes and wire anodes, deriving sputtering rates from changes in anode weight [41, 42].

Theoretical developments, such as von Hippel's evaporation theory [43], suggested that ions create localized "hot spots" on cathode surfaces, causing vaporization of surface atoms, with sputtering rates peaking at specific ion energies. Although, it did not explicitly frame the context of sputtering with these hot spots. Kingdon and Langmuir's momentum interchange theory proposed that sputtering involves atom ejection from surface crevices formed by ion impacts [44]. Later, Seeliger and Sommermeyer supported this theoretical framework by confirming the Knudsen cosine law for angular distribution of sputtered particles [45].

Stark [46] furthered the sputtering theory by proposing the hot-spot model and later a collision theory pointing to sputtering as a sequence of binary collision events. Stark's analysis incorporated conservation laws and collision cross-sections, explaining energydependent sputtering yields. Stark distinguishes it from von Hippel's earlier discussion of hot spots in a more general context of surface evaporation by ions. Wehner addressed the collision theory by developing an empirical formula including the sound velocity of metal, energy transfer, and sublimation heat using mercury ions to determine the sputtering thresholds for various metals [47]. Highlighted the complexities beyond local evaporation theories, contributing significantly to understanding sputtering mechanisms. Theoretical debates continued, with Lamar and Compton [48] emphasizing binary collision processes in light-ion sputtering versus local evaporation in heavy-ion scenarios. These developments culminated in Timoshenko and Keywell's experiments [49], which illustrated energy-dependent sputtering ratios and proposed models akin to neutron cooling in lattices, leading to a logarithmic relationship between sputtering ratio and ion energy [50].

2.3.2 Sputtering Yield

The sputtering yield (Y) denotes the average number of atoms (including all ejected particles) sputtered from a material per incident ion under specific experimental conditions [35]. Sigmund found the sputtering yield ranges from 10^{-5} to 10^{3} atoms per incident particle [50]. The sputtering yield is given by:

$$Y = \frac{n_a}{n_i} \tag{2.5}$$

in which:

- n_a is the number of atoms sputtered from the bombarded area,
- *n_i* is the number of incident ions.

The sputtering ion yield is the average number of ejected ions (only includes ejected ions detected) from a material per incident ion.

$$Y_m = \frac{n_m}{n_i} \tag{2.6}$$

Here:

• n_m is the number of ions ejected from the sputtered area,

The degree of ionization yield depends on various factors, including the mass, energy, and angle of the primary ions, as well as the characteristics of the target material, such as the mass of the target atoms, the element composition of the sample, and the crystal orientation [35,51]. The relationship between ionization yields and secondary ion current depends on various parameters [52]:

$$I_m^{\pm} = \frac{I_p}{e} \cdot Y_m \cdot \eta \cdot P^{\pm} \cdot c \tag{2.7}$$

where:

• I_m^{\pm} is the intensity of the secondary ion of the mass m,
- I_p is the primary ion beam current,
- Y_m is the sputtering ion yield of the target material,
- η is the ion transmission efficiency of the mass spectrometer,
- P^{\pm} is the ionization probability of m,
- *c* is the concentration of element m.

To improve detection sensitivities, the bombardment of the sample surface with O^- and O_2^+ is a standard method to enhance the positive secondary ions yields. Conversely, to increase the negative secondary ions yields, the Cs⁺ primary beam is desirable [53]. The studies indicate that the incident angle, typically around 60-80 degrees, and the use of heavier ions, compared to lighter ones, influence the enhancement of the ionization yields [35].

As reported by Werner [7], two processes contribute to the sputtering of secondary ions: physical and chemical processes [7, 50]. The physical process involves hitting the atoms on the surface with a high-energy beam, transferring the energy to the atom or molecules, knocking them out from the surface, or causing them to collide with other atoms, and electronic excitation sputtering occurs in metallic and insulator surfaces, respectively [50]. This process results in a collision cascade. Ionization of particles in this process can happen when they gain sufficient energy to break the binding forces holding them to the material's surface. This can happen through charge interaction, tunneling, auto-ionization, or Auger electron emission [7, 50].

The collision cascade model (see Figure 2.6, adopt. from [54]) stands out as the most accurate framework for elucidating the interaction between a stream of atoms and the atoms within a sample. Based on this model, the primary ion dissipates its energy through a sequence of secondary collisions with the atoms of the material. Following the generation of recoil atoms in the sample due to the collision cascade, these atoms engage with other atoms in the material. Given the random direction of recoils, some ejected atoms exit the sample surface, removing a layer approximately 1 nm thick from the sample. This layer thickness primarily hinges on the energy, angle of incidence, and beam current density of the primary ion. The remaining ejected atoms are propelled into the material to a depth of roughly 10 nm, dictated by the energy of the primary ions. The sputter ratio or sputter efficiency serves as the fundamental parameter characterizing the ion sputtering process. Chemical sputtering is when the secondary ions are sputtered from the surface directly by breaking of chemical bonds [7, 50]. Additionally, oxidation plays a crucial role in this type of sputtering [55]. Theories for the inelastic processes suggest either electronic excitations due to atomic collisions or electron tunneling [56, 57]. These two approaches



Figure 2.6: Series of collision processes leading to sputtering of atoms 2 and 4 (Taken from [54]).

differ conceptually. The electron-tunneling model describes the interaction between the discrete electronic levels of the sputtered atom and the continuous electronic states of the solid, with the Fermi level playing a crucial role as it separates occupied and unoccupied states. In contrast, collision models do not explicitly involve the Fermi level [58].

2.4 Matrix Effects

The influence of oxygen and cesium on sputtered ion yields exemplifies the broader phenomenon where ion yields are significantly affected by changes in the surface composition from which ions are ejected. This effect occurs when the sample matrix influences the ionization yields. This influence is called the matrix effect, which is typically unpredictable and poorly understood. This resulted in a considerable challenge to the analytical power of the SIMS technique [9, 29, 59-61]. The presence of different elements in the matrix can influence the ionization efficiency of analyte species, potentially resulting in inaccurate quantification (see Figure 2.7, adopt. from [62]). Therefore, developing a method that considers the matrix effect and enhances the accuracy of the measurement is necessary. According to Datz [61], matrix effects can be categorized into three different types: alloy effects, compound effects, and sputtering effects. Alloy effects arise when the surface's composition alters, but its physical properties do not change, and the surface remains metallic. Compound effects come from transforming a metallic conductor into an insulator, such as in oxides, halides, and other ionic compounds. Initially, cesium's effects might seem to fall under the alloy category. Still, it has been demonstrated that cesium forms charge-transfer insulators with many metals that are ionic and have bandgap properties [63,64]. Consequently, the mechanism by which cesium enhances negative



Figure 2.7: Schematic representation of matrix effects on SIMS signal, illustrating signal enhancement (dark blue line) or suppression (orange line) (Taken from [62]).

ion yields likely mirrors the mechanism by which oxygen enhances positive ion yields. Sputtering effects are compound effects and arise from changes in the quantity of oxygen or cesium on the sputtered surface [29, 61].

Scientists have developed theories to explain ion ejection during sputtering, but understanding remains limited, especially for complex surfaces. The simplest theories envision atoms being ejected from a surface, remaining unchanged, and having the same structure. On a clean metal surface, an electronegative atom tends to attract electrons, becoming a negative ion by gaining an extra electron. As this atom moves away from the metal surface, it loses the extra electron and returns to a neutral state. The potential energy levels for the ionized (negative ion) and neutral states intersect at a distance from the surface. In a one-electron model, this intersection occurs where the atom's energy level matches the Fermi level of the metal, allowing resonant electron transfer back to the metal. The Landau-Zener-Stuekelburg model describes how the probability of an atom remaining ionized decreases exponentially with the distance at which energy levels cross, influenced by the atom's velocity at that point. This explains why different isotopes of the same element have different ionization efficiencies, assuming they have the same energy when ejected [29, 61].

The crossing distance depends on two factors: the surface's work function and the electron affinity of the sputtered atom. If the electron affinity of an atom is higher, its energy level is lower. Changes in the work function affect how different materials behave during sputtering, and changes in electron affinity explain why different elements have different sensitivities. For compounds or insulators, the situation is more complex. Insulators have low electron density at the Fermi level, so electron transfer there is less important. Instead, electron transfer between the atom and the bands (energy levels) of the insulator's surface is more significant if the surface structure remains unchanged. This means that for insulators, the important electron transfers happen between the atom and

the energy levels of the insulator's surface rather than the Fermi level [9,29].

During sputtering, the surface becomes disordered, and in such chaotic conditions, the usual concepts of how electrons move through a material (bulk band structure theory) might not apply. Each ejected atom leaves a defect on the surface, influencing subsequent ionization processes. This understanding forms the basis for comprehending matrix effects in SIMS analysis. When a negatively charged atom (anion) leaves its spot, taking an electron with it, a vacancy forms where the anion used to be, causing an energy drop in the conduction band. This vacancy stabilizes as the anion moves away. The likelihood that the ion survives after ejection depends on where the energy levels of this vacancy and the atom's level meet. This process is similar to what occurs in metals.

The distance where energy levels cross is influenced by the electron affinity or ionization potential of the atom being ejected and the band structure of the surface. A larger band gap indicates higher energy levels in the valence band, resulting in a greater distance where these energy levels intersect. When a narrow band gap metal with a low electropositivity is sputtered from its oxide, the ability to form ions will be lower than when it is sputtered from the oxide of a highly electropositive metal with a wider band gap. The stronger the polarity of the bonding (indicated by a larger band gap), the greater the production of ions. Conversely, a metal with higher electropositivity produces fewer secondary ions when sputtered from the oxide of a metal with lower electropositivity [9, 29, 61].

Using oxygen or cesium primary ions in sputtering reveals matrix effects inversely correlated with the amount of sputtered material or sputtering yield. Since ionization efficiencies often change with the second or third power of the oxygen or cesium concentration on the surface, even minor variations in sputtering yield can cause significant fluctuations in ionization efficiency. Deline et al. [59] proposed a unified explanation for secondary ion yields, discovering that the chemical composition did not affect ionization efficiency [9]. Witmaack critically scrutinized his proposition [60]. However, subsequent research indicated that the change in the material composition strongly impacts ion yields, meaning the composition of the surface plays a crucial role in matrix effects. Williams' review of ion emission models, including the "bond-breaking," work function, band structure, molecular, and surface-polarization models, highlights the complexity in predicting secondary ion yields accurately [29,61,65].

Nevertheless, none of these theoretical frameworks garner sufficient support from experimental evidence to predict secondary ion yields with the desired accuracy. To date, no systematic investigations have delved into the ionization probability of ternary compound semiconductors under continuous bombardment by a Cs^+ primary ion beam. Current research aims to investigate the influence of the matrix effect in ternary semiconductor tor compounds PbSnTe and CdZnO under specific conditions and its relation with the

electronic properties of the material.

2.5 Theory of Study

The ability of the SIMS method for accurate quantitative measurements is limited due to an insufficient understanding of the formation of secondary ions. To overcome this issue, a key factor is the ionization probability, which is the possibility of a sputtered particle becoming a charged ion, either positively or negatively. It is essential to know how the ionization probability is influenced by physical characteristics like work function (the minimum energy required to release an electron from a surface), the electron affinity (the amount of energy released after capturing an electron by an atom) and ionization potential of atom [66–68].

Multiple methods have been utilized to measure the work function of a solid, including techniques such as the Kelvin probe, photo emission, secondary electrons, and secondary ions [69–75]. The method using secondary ions focuses on identifying the initial point of their energy distribution. The observable shift in energy distribution, reflecting changes in potential between the sample and the energy analyzer, provides an effective way to monitor variations in the work function in real time. Findings indicated reduced work function value by adsorbing alkali metals on the surface [69, 76]. Gnaser has explored how adding cesium to surfaces affects either positive or negative ion emissions, revealing insights into the relationship between ion emission and ionization probability due to the variation in work function.

Efforts to estimate the work function using secondary ion analysis have been undertaken by researchers like Blaise and Slodzian [77], who studied the energy distribution of sputtered ions. Similarly, Yamazaki et al. [71] investigated how the work function influences ionization efficiency in SIMS by examining boron implantation into silicon. In metal [78], the electron in the valence band is characterized by their Fermi level, which represents the border of the occupied energy levels and empty ones, ϕ is equal to its electron affinity of material (A_m) [69]. Eq. 2.8 displays the estimation of ϕ in metals. E_{vac} represents the energy in the vacuum level and E_F the energy at the Fermi level.

$$\phi = E_{vac} - E_F \tag{2.8}$$

In semiconductors, the electron affinity plays a crucial role alongside the work function. It denotes the energy difference between the lowest point of the conduction band and the vacuum level [79]. Within n-type semiconductors, the Fermi level aligns near the conduction band edge, and the work function closely follows the electron affinity. In



Figure 2.8: Schematic representation of band gap for semi-insulator semiconductor.

p-type semiconductors, the Fermi level resides near the valence band edge, and the work function consistently exceeds the electron affinity [55, 71]. Due to the band gap, ϕ is greater or equal to A_m in semiconductors. As schematically depicted in Figure 2.8, the A_m represents the energy difference between the vacuum level and the conduction band. Its relationship with ionization potential (*I*) can be expressed using Eqs. 2.9 and 2.10 [69].

$$A_m = E_{vac} - E_c \tag{2.9}$$

$$I = E_{vac} - E_v \tag{2.10}$$

 E_c and E_v display the energy on the conduction and valence bands. By substituting Eq. 2.10 into Eq. 2.8, the work function of semiconductors is express by Eq. 2.11:

$$\phi = I - (E_F - E_v) \tag{2.11}$$

Yu [55, 58, 68, 80–82] conducted an extensive study to explain the correlation between the ionization probability of sputtered ions and the physical properties of ejected particles in case of the metallic surface. He discussed two main factors: ionization potential and electron affinity, which correspond to positive and negative ionization [55, 67, 71, 83, 84], respectively. The relation is expressed as follows:

$$P^- \sim e^{A_e - \phi} \tag{2.12}$$

$$P^+ \sim e^{\phi - I_e} \tag{2.13}$$

The negative secondary ion yield enhancement has been reported to exhibit an exponential relationship with the electron affinities of the sputtered atoms (A_e), Eq. 2.12. The positive secondary ion yield is exponentially related to the ionization potential of sputtered atoms (I_e), Eq. 2.13 [55, 71]. A reduction in a work function makes it easier for electrons to be released from the surface. More and more electrons above the surface are easily captured by Cs⁺ ions [80].

In the case of semiconductors, the ionization probability of secondary ions emitted during sputtering is dependent exponentially on the work function, and the electron affinity of the material (A_m) , as depicted in Eqs. 2.14 and 2.15.

$$P^- \sim e^{A_e - \phi} \tag{2.14}$$

$$P^+ \sim e^{A_m - I_e} \tag{2.15}$$

Changes in chemical composition typically influence the band gap energy, thereby concurrently impacting ϕ and A_m . Unlike materials that display band gap bowing, this relationship is generally linear [55]. In this study, the electronic properties of PbSnTe were characterized based on the appropriate application of the above theory to the SIMS method, creating a data analysis method that is completely new in the context of ternary semiconductor characterization.

2.6 Quantification of SIMS Data

2.6.1 Depth Profile

In SIMS, depth profiling involves bombarding the sample surface with ions to progressively sputter layers, enabling the analysis of elemental distribution and composition throughout the sample's depth. As sputtering proceeds, species are continuously monitored, and their profiles are tracked as the analysis penetrates subsequent layers. SIMS provides detailed information about the sample's structure by measuring the secondary ions ejected at each layer. Maintaining a constant primary current is crucial, as the depth of the crater formed during depth profiling depends on both the primary beam intensity and the sputtering duration [85]. The analysis during a depth profile is conducted at the center of a crater to avoid the influence of edge effect [86].

In depth profiling, converting the depth scale after measurement requires knowledge of the sample thickness. If the thickness is unknown, the sputter rate (SR) can be used, which is defined as the ratio of the crater's depth (d) nm to the sputtering time (t) s, as expressed in Eq. 2.16:

$$SR = \frac{d}{t}$$
(2.16)

This relationship provides a practical method for calibrating depth profiles when sample thickness is not directly measurable [87].

2.6.2 Concentration Profile

The Relative Sensitivity Factor (RSF) method is the predominant quantification technique in SIMS. The approach relies on determining a scaling factor through SIMS measurements of a known elemental standard. RSF denotes the instrument's sensitivity to detect various elements or isotopes within a sample. It is calculated as the ratio of the ion signal for a specific element or isotope to that for a reference element or isotope. Various factors, such as primary ion species and energy, matrix composition, and ionization efficiency of the elements, influence its value.

RSF Correction is employed to address matrix effects in SIMS analysis. This correction involves adjusting the measured intensities of analyte species based on their RSF values, compensating for variations in ionization efficiency induced by matrix effects. RSF Correction significantly enhances the accuracy and precision of SIMS measurements, particularly in quantitative analysis. RSF values are typically determined from the standards, which are the ion-implanted materials, where the RSF of species is quantified using the given formula:

$$RSF = \frac{\phi \cdot a \cdot I_{\rm r} \cdot t}{d \cdot I_{\rm e} - d \cdot I_{\rm b} \cdot a} \times \frac{EM}{FC}$$
(2.17)

where,

- ϕ is the dose (in atoms/cm²) from a known standard.
- *a* denotes the number of analysis iterations.
- $\frac{EM}{FC}$ represents the ratio of electron multiplier to Faraday cup efficiency.
- *d* is the depth of the crater.
- $I_{\rm e}$ is the total intensity of the analyzed elements or implanted species.
- *I*_b is the intensity of the background ions.
- *t* is the duration of the measurement.

The concentration profile of a specific element varies with the depth of the material. Typically, this profile is depicted as a smooth curve of concentration (C) plotted versus depth (x) in the sample, often using a logarithmic scale. By determination of RSF from a measurement of SIMS standard, the concentration of elements can be calculated from the raw SIMS data of a studied sample using the following formula:

$$C = RSF \times \frac{I_e}{I_r}$$
(2.18)

here,

- C is the atom density $(atoms/cm^3)$ in the material.
- I_e and I_r represent the secondary ion intensity (counts/s) of the analyzed element and the reference matrix element, respectively.

2.6.3 Mass Spectra

A mass spectrum is obtained by bombarding the sample surface and scanning the mass range with the mass spectrometer. This spectrum is a graphical representation of signal intensity versus the m/z. Each peak signifies ions produced from the sputtering surface, with its position denoting its m/z value. The intensity or height of each peak reflects the ion's abundance.

2.6.4 Energy Distribution Profile

When the primary beam hits the sample's surface, it generates random collisions that can eject secondary ions with varying energy ranges. This means secondary ions formed from different local environments (neighborhoods) differ in terms of atomic bonding and the surrounding chemical environment, resulting in different energy distribution profiles for each element. The energy distribution of secondary ions usually peaks at low energies (a few eV). Still, the distribution may be narrow or broad, with peaks extending to higher energies (over 100 eV), depending on the type of ion. The secondary ions with a specific range of velocity (the kinetic energy) can go through a particular slit and then to the mass analyzer. Therefore, if the velocity of secondary ions is lower or higher than the adjusted potential, they may not go through the energy gate or may be deflected from the detector.

In a typical SIMS experiment, an energy scan is performed by varying the voltage applied to the sample, usually within a range of about -150 to 150 volts (V). A typical setting of the device potential applied to the sample starts from 4.5 kV and -4.5 kV for positive and negative secondary ions. A voltage offset technique is employed to enhance

the detection of mono-atomic ions over multi-atomic ones, as mono-atomic ions often exhibit broader energy distributions. When the accelerating voltage is reduced (offset), mono-atomic ions generally retain sufficient energy to pass through the energy slits. In contrast, multi-atomic ions are less likely to be detected [32].

The potential applied to the sample affects the overall impact energy of primary ions based on whether positive or negative secondary ions are detected. For example, in the case of positive secondary ions, the total energy of the primary beam impacting the surface would be the difference between the initial energy (10 keV) and the sample bias (4.5 keV), resulting in a total impact energy of 5.5 keV. Finally, adjusting the initial sample potential can achieve an energy distribution profile.

2.6.5 Ion Images

SIMS can utilize focused ion beams to generate images from the secondary ions sputtered from the sample's surface. This technique is similar to SEM, which employs an electron beam to irradiate the surface and collect secondary electrons to produce the image.

2.7 Instruments Used in This Work

This study employed a CAMECA IMS6F magnetic sector SIMS (Figure 2.9), which operates within a high vacuum environment during measurements. Our instrument allows for selecting Cs and O as primary beam options, with energy ranging from 0.5 to 20 keV [5, 35]. In our device, the potential that accelerates the secondary ions into a mass spectrometer is about 4.5 to 10 keV. IMS-6F has two detectors: an electron multiplier and a Faraday cup. The electron multiplier is much more sensitive and can be used for intensities ranging from about 1 to approximately 10⁶ counts per second. A Faraday cup for measuring higher intensity signals [88]. A ToF-SIMS V spectrometer manufactured by IONTOF GmbH was used to acquire the data for time-of-flight secondary ion mass spectrometry (Figure 2.10).

Moreover, the depth of a crater created during the sample's bombardment with a primary beam is determined using the DEKTAK 6M stylus profilometer. A Hitachi SU-70 scanning electron microscope (SEM) with a Thermo Scientific energy-dispersive X-ray (EDX) spectrometer was applied to estimate the content in $Cd_{1-x}Zn_xO$ thin films. A reflection high-energy electron diffraction (RHEED) was utilized to analyze the growth mode of the $Pb_{1-x}Sn_xTe$. Their elemental composition was investigated using a FlexSEM 1000 SEM (Hitachi) equipped with an EDX spectrometer (Oxford Instruments).



Figure 2.9: Cameca IM6F magnetic sector SIMS used in this study.



Figure 2.10: A ToF-SIMS V spectrometer, IONTOF GmbH SIMS used in this study.

Chapter 3

Materials and Measurements

3.1 Introduction

Ternary compound semiconductors represent a significant class of materials in semiconductor research due to their versatile electronic and optical properties. These materials are formed by incorporating a third element into a binary compound semiconductor, which allows for fine-tuning of the material's properties to meet specific application requirements. The ability to adjust the composition in ternary compounds leads to tunable band gaps, which is particularly advantageous for designing optoelectronic devices like light-emitting diodes (LEDs), laser diodes, and photodetectors. Precise control over their structural and electronic characteristics makes ternary compound semiconductors a cornerstone in advancing modern electronic and photonic technologies [89, 90]. This chapter investigates two essential ternary compounds: $Cd_{1-x}Zn_xO$ and $Pb_{1-x}Sn_xTe$. These compounds are important in semiconductor physics and spectroscopic analysis, driving our study forward. Our keen interest in scrutinizing these materials and exploring cutting-edge topics stems from our endeavor to understand the influence of the matrix effects on ion yield in the SIMS method due to the change in material composition.

3.2 Ternary Compound Semiconductors

The foundation of the electronics industry lies in semiconductor devices. The semiconductor industry began in 1947 when Bell Labs introduced the first semiconductor transistor. Following this breakthrough, semiconductor technology rapidly advanced, particularly during the 1970s, when III-V compound semiconductors, especially gallium arsenide (GaAs)-based lasers, garnered significant attention. The introduction of silicon (Si) revolutionized the industry due to its applications in data storage and computing circuits. However, Si's indirect band gap renders it unsuitable for optoelectronic devices. GaAs, with its direct band gap, emerged as a solution. Nonetheless, the increasing demand for ultraviolet (UV) light-emitting devices shifted the focus towards wide-bandgap semiconductors such as SiC, GaN, and ZnO [91].

The initial understanding of the electronic energy band structures in narrow-gap semiconductors originated from a theoretical model proposed by Kane in 1957, which was primarily based on the semiconductor InSb [92]. Following Kane's model, researchers extended their investigations to other narrow-bandgap semiconductor materials such as PbTe, PbSnTe, HgCdTe, and various III-V compounds (e.g., InAs, InSb, GaSb) [93] gained attention due to their similar electronic properties and potential applications in infrared detectors, thermoelectric devices, and optoelectronic systems. The advancement in narrow-bandgap semiconductor physics is intricately linked to infrared detection technology [92].

The crystal structure of semiconductors often lacks perfect order. This lack of order leads to a random distribution of lattice atoms, disrupting the periodic lattice potential and causing variations in bond length, which induce local strain. As a result, Vegard's law does not apply to specific physical parameters such as bandgap energy (Eg), effective mass (m^*), and mobility (μ) in these compounds. Vegard's Law is often used to estimate the composition of semiconductor alloys based on X-ray diffraction or other experimental measurements of lattice parameters. For a ternary semiconductor $A_xB_{1-x}C$, an alloy of two binary semiconductors (AC and BC), the physical property parameter can be expressed as:

$$T_{ij}(x) = (1-x)B_i + xB_j + x(1-x)C_{ij}$$
(3.1)

Here, Tij(x) represents the physical property of the ternary alloy composed of binaries i and j, Bi, and Bj are the properties of the binary semiconductors, and C_{ij} is the ternary bowing parameter that accounts for deviations from linear interpolation between the binaries. Consequently, $E_g = a + bx + Cx^2$ gives the bandgap energy and composition relationship, where C is the bowing parameter, typically ranging from 0.2 to 0.8 in III-V compounds. Additionally, in ternary alloys, when mixing a direct bandgap binary with an indirect bandgap binary, the lowest conduction band can shift from direct to indirect at a specific composition, limiting the material's efficiency as a light emitter [19].

3.3 Cadmium Zinc Oxide

3.3.1 General Overview

II-VI semiconductors have gained considerable attention for their potential applications across various fields for years. These semiconductors consist of group IIB metallic elements like Cd, Zn, and Hg, paired with group VI nonmetallic elements such as O, S, Se, and Te. Among these elements, zinc oxide (ZnO) stands out due to its exceptional properties, making it indispensable in applications ranging from varistors to sensors and optoelectronic devices. Cadmium oxide (CdO) is another significant II-VI semiconductor, noted for its outstanding optoelectronic characteristics [10–12].

The ternary compound $Zn_xCd_{1-x}O$ is anticipated to cover a broad spectral range from ultraviolet to yellow wavelengths due to its adjustable bandgap [94]. While significant research has been conducted on the structural, optical, and electrical properties of $Zn_xCd_{1-x}O$, there is limited work on the quantification and precise calibration of these materials using secondary ion mass spectrometry.

This study explores CdZnO, a ternary compound semiconductor that exhibits intriguing properties, such as tunable bandgap – by varying the ratio of Cd to Zn. Increasing Zn content widens the bandgap while increasing Cd content narrows it, affecting its optoelectronic characteristics. Although CdZnO has been extensively studied for its structural and optical properties, no prior investigations have employed SIMS to analyze its material composition. This study aims to fill that gap by using SIMS to examine the matrix effects and accurately determine the elemental distribution in CdZnO thin films.

By employing SIMS, we aim to establish a precise calibration for analyzing CdZnO, which is crucial for understanding how its composition influences electronic properties. Given the absence of SIMS-specific calibration curves for this material, our work is novel and will contribute significantly to the field of semiconductor analysis. Our findings will also provide insights into the broader applicability of SIMS for similar ternary semiconductors, especially in cases where matrix effects pose challenges for composition determination.

3.3.2 Background

The binary compounds ZnO and CdO possess different crystalline structures: ZnO adopts a wurtzite structure (Zn cations tetrahedrally coordinated by O ions) [95,96] with a direct bandgap of approximately 3.37 eV [97,98]. In comparison, CdO adopts a rock salt structure (Cd cations octahedrally coordinated by O ions) with a bandgap ranging from 2.2 eV [99]

to 2.4 eV [100] at room temperature. The initial study on this ternary compound by Choi et al. [101] demonstrated that decreasing the Zn content (x value) reduces the electrical resistivity, optical transmittance, and bandgap of $Zn_xCd_{1-x}O$. Subsequent research has explored various properties of this compound both experimentally [94, 102–107] and theoretically [108, 109].

Recent studies on the crystalline structure of $Zn_xCd_{1-x}O$ nanopowder report a transition from rocksalt CdO to wurtzite ZnO as the Zn composition increases [110]. Increasing the Cd content decreases the optical bandgap [107]. While significant research has been conducted on the structural, optical, and electrical properties of $Zn_xCd_{1-x}O$, there is limited work on the quantification and precise calibration of these materials using secondary ion mass spectrometry. Most existing studies focus on the impact of annealing on the properties of CdZnO.

This research aims to bridge this gap by estimating the calibration curve for CdZnO using SIMS. To do this, establishing a relationship between the secondary ions' intensity and the concentration of matrix elements in $Cd_{1-x}Zn_xO$ is required. The accurate calibration curves can be constructed by analyzing uniform samples with known contents. This approach not only gives a better understanding of the properties of CdZnO but also can improve the estimation of content in ternary compounds when the matrix effects can affect the measurement.

3.3.3 Applications

The band gap of ZnO can be altered by introducing Cd [111, 112] which makes CdZnO a good candidate in a wide range of applications such as optoelectronic devices [10, 113], photodetectors [114, 115], various sensors [116, 117], and fuel cells and photocatalysis [11,118], high-temperature electronics, light detectors, laser sources, oxide-based quantum devices [12].

3.3.4 Growth Process of $Cd_{1-x}Zn_xO$ Thin Films

 $Cd_{1-x}Zn_xO$ thin films were grown on c-plane (00.1) sapphire substrates using MBE with a Compact 21 Riber system. This MBE setup uses a radio-frequency (RF) oxygen plasma source and double-zone Knudsen effusion cells that provide the elemental O, Cd, and Zn sources. Cadmium (Cd) with 6 N purity, sourced from JX Nippon Mining and Metal Corporation, and zinc (Zn) with 6 N purity were used, while oxygen plasma was generated by the RF cell.

Prior to film growth, the Al_2O_3 substrates were cleaned chemically in a 1:1 mixture of H_2SO_4 and H_2O_2 . The substrates underwent degassing at 150°C in the load chamber



Figure 3.1: An example of $Cd_{1-x}Zn_xO$ thin films used in the first series. The color of the samples depends on the Cd content.

for 1 hour and were then annealed at 700°C in the growth chamber. The growth of the $Cd_{1-x}Zn_xO$ films was conducted with a constant oxygen flow rate of 3 sccm, with the oxygen plasma activated at approximately 240 W. The films were deposited at a temperature of 360°C, as measured by a thermocouple, over 1 hour. The Cd (*x*) composition within the $Cd_{1-x}Zn_xO$ films was varied by adjusting the fluxes of Cd and Zn through the respective effusion cells.

This study focuses on two distinct series of $Cd_{1-x}Zn_xO$ samples: The first series includes chemically homogeneous samples with progressively increasing Cd content, ranging from 0 to 0.6, as specified in Table 3.1. Each sample in this series has a unique and fixed Cd composition, which establishes a calibration curve for analyzing the SIMS signal ratio (see Figure 3.1). The second series comprises thin samples for which accurate Cd content determination by EDX is challenging.

The objective is to estimate the Cd content using the RSF and calibration curve data and compare the results. The compositional analysis of Cd and Zn in the $Cd_{1-x}Zn_xO$ thin films was performed using an EDX spectrometer with a silicon drift X-ray detector and Noran System 7, set at an accelerating voltage of 8 kV.

Sample	x_{Cd}
1	0.0000
2	0.0001
3	0.0010
4	0.0020
5	0.0080
6	0.0180
7	0.1900
8	0.2800
9	0.3900
10	0.6000

Table 3.1: The content of $Cd_{1-x}Zn_xO$ samples.

3.3.5 Measurement Conditions

For MS-SIMS, a Cs^+ primary beam energy of 5.5 keV at a current of 50 nA was applied to analyze the material. The beam was rastered over the area of 250μ m × 250μ m, and secondary ions were collected from a region of 60μ m in diameter. In the case of ToF-SIMS, Bi^+ primary beam with an energy of 30 keV at a current of 1.1 pA was conducted over an area of 50μ m × 50μ m as the analysis beam. A Cs^+ ion beam over an area of 200μ m × 200μ m was performed to sputter the material for in-depth analysis. The following species were measured using both instruments: ¹¹⁴Cd⁺, ⁶⁴Zn⁺, ¹¹⁴CdCs⁺, ⁶⁴ZnCs⁺. Due to the zero electron affinity of Zn, it can not be detected as a negative ion in our experiment, so we just utilized positive secondary ions [119].

3.4 Lead Tin Telluride

3.4.1 General Overview

 $Pb_{1-x}Sn_xTe$ is a ternary compound semiconductor with notable properties, including its classification as a topological insulator, a material insulating in bulk but conducting electricity on the surface. No investigations have been shown to determine the exact composition of this compound for studying material-based superlattices or heterostructures.

This study fills that gap by using SIMS to examine the matrix effects and accurately determine the elemental distribution in $Pb_{1-x}Sn_xTe$ thin films. By employing SIMS, we aim to establish a precise method for analyzing the content of $Pb_{1-x}Sn_xTe$ which is crucial for understanding how its composition influences its electronic properties. Given the absence of SIMS-specific calibration curves for this material, our work is novel and will contribute significantly to the field of semiconductor analysis. Our findings will also provide insights into the broader applicability of SIMS for similar ternary semiconductors, especially in cases where matrix effects pose challenges for composition determination.

3.4.2 Background

Research into the properties of lead telluride (PbTe), with a bandgap of 0.32 eV, has expanded to investigate the effects of alloying it with other elements. Tin telluride (SnTe), with a bandgap of 0.18 eV, was selected due to its structural and properties similarities with PbTe. By alloying PbTe and SnTe, researchers synthesized the ternary compound Pb_{1-x}Sn_xTe which exhibited intriguing and advantageous properties compared to its binary constituents [120]. PbSnTe is a well-explored semiconductor material, extensively studied for its electronic and thermoelectric attributes, both experimentally [121–127] and theoretically [17, 128, 129].

The material has a narrow energy gap and exhibits an unusual relationship between band energies and the content of Sn. This phenomenon is elucidated by the band inversion model proposed by Dimmock et al. [120], wherein the valence and conduction bands in SnTe are inverted relative to PbTe. Consequently, the energy gap of $Pb_{1-x}Sn_xTe$ initially decreases with increasing Sn content (*x*) and eventually disappears at an intermediate alloy composition, where the valence and conduction bands intersect ($E_g = 0$). Further increases in Sn content (*x*) beyond this point lead to an additional increase in the band gap of this material. Moreover, the position of the band crossing depends on the temperature of measurement. Ocio [130] concurrently discovered that Sn content variations affect the band energy separation of the material. Further contributing to understanding lead chalcogenides, H. Preier presented a comprehensive overview, summarizing the state-of-the-art knowledge on this material in 1979 [131]. 1999, Ferreira et al. reported direct experimental evidence of the band inversion in this ternary compound using optical transmission measurements [132]. Since 2009, $Pb_{1-x}Sn_xTe$ semiconductors have experienced a resurgence of interest. This renewed attention stems from research highlighting the unusual evolution of the band gap in $Pb_{1-x}Sn_xTe$ nanocrystals due to band inversion [133]. Unlike the massive research conducted on the structure properties of PbSnTe, still the quantification of the content of these materials is a fundamental challenge in heterostructures and superlattices. The calibration curves developed in this work aim to fill this gap, providing a valuable tool for precise compositional analysis in future studies of PbSnTe.

3.4.3 Applications

The broad application of PbSnTe made them popular across a variety of fields like optoelectronic devices: infrared detectors [13], lasers [14,15], thermoelectric converters [134], solar cell, and memory devices [16]. Also, it is applicable in quantum computing, advanced electronic [17], and spintronic devices [18].

3.4.4 Growth Process of $Pb_{1-x}Sn_xTe$ Thin Films

The ternary $Pb_{1-x}Sn_xTe$ compounds were synthesized using a home-built designed MBE system, covering the entire composition range from x = 0 to x = 1. The films were grown in an ultra-high vacuum environment, with a base pressure of 10^{-9} mbar, using SnTe and elemental Pb and Te sources. The deposition was conducted at temperatures ranging from 270°C to 310°C, with a beam equivalent pressure of 7×10^{-5} Pa, resulting in a growth rate of about 0.13 nm/s. Two different substrates were used: n-GaAs(111)B [135], and GaAs(100)B [136] for SIMS and BaF₂(100) for Hall effect measurements. The substrates were heated to approximately 600°C to remove surface oxides. The film thicknesses varied from 0.4 to 0.9 µm.

This research featured two series of $Pb_{1-x}Sn_xTe$ samples, each serving a specific purpose. The first series included chemically uniform samples with incremental variations in Sn concentration from x = 0 to x = 1. These samples were used to explore the impact of different Sn content on the band structure and to analyze SIMS signal ratios 3.2 (see Figure 3.2). The second series comprised graded samples where the Sn content changed gradually within each sample. This approach was intended to study continuous variations in the band structure properties, enabling the change in the energy distribution profile of secondary ions analyzed via SIMS. Chemical composition analysis was performed with



Figure 3.2: An example of $Pb_{1-x}Sn_xTe$ thin films used in the first series.

an EDX spectrometer set at an accelerating voltage of 15 kV. Hall effect measurements at room temperature were used to assess carrier concentrations.

Sample	x _{Sn}	\mathbf{d} (μ m)
1	0.84	0.45
2	0.71	0.57
3	0.58	0.57
4	0.57	0.40
5	0.50	0.65
6	0.37	0.48
7	0.36	0.61
8	0.29	0.60
9	0.21	0.70
10	0.19	0.60
11	0.11	0.67
12	0.06	0.84

Table 3.2: The content and thickness of $Pb_{1-x}Sn_xTe$ samples.

3.4.5 Measurement Conditions

The measurements were conducted using the MS-SIMS instrument. Samples were measured under high vacuum conditions with a system pressure of approximately 1.33×10^{-8} Pa. The primary ion was directed on the sample surface at an angle of about 30 degrees to the normal plane. The sputter rates for positive secondary ions were 3 and 5 (nm/s) for negative secondary ions. Primary currents for both primary beams were kept at 50 nA. Also, the raster size was about 150×150 (μ m), and the secondary ions were collected from a region of 60 μ m in diameter. Positive ions were analyzed using Cs^{\pm} primary beam at the energy of 5.5 keV and negative ions at 14.5 keV. The species measured were ¹¹⁸Sn⁺, ²⁰⁸Pb⁺, ¹¹⁸SnCs⁺, ²⁰⁸PbCs⁺, and ¹¹⁸Sn⁻, ²⁰⁸Pb⁻.

Due to the high electronegativity of Te (2.1 eV), a strong negative secondary ion signal of Te at a mass of 120 amu is detectable [67]. To prevent overlap between the ¹²⁰Te⁻ and ¹²⁰Sn⁻ signals at this mass, the isotope ¹¹⁸Sn⁻ was measured instead. This setup allows for the collection of all signals using a single detector, specifically an electron multiplier.

Chapter 4

Results: Summary of Publications

4.1 Quantification of CdZnO

4.1.1 Previous Research on the Calibration Curve Method

The use of SIMS for the compositional analysis of matrix elements in ternary semiconductors has been explored in a limited number of studies. Although the calibration curve method has shown potential for accurate compositional analysis, its application to ternary systems remains underdeveloped. In this context, our study extensively investigates and refines this method for ternary semiconductors, focusing on improving its accuracy and applicability.

Gao [19] pioneered a SIMS technique employing Cs^+ primary ion bombardment and the detection of MCs^+ molecular ions for compositional analysis of AlGaAs/GaAs. This method demonstrated the ability to mitigate matrix effects, achieving linear ion yields independent of the matrix composition with an accuracy better than 2%.

Building on this, Gnaser [20] et al. applied Cs^+ primary ions and MCs^+ molecular ions for depth profiling of Zn-doped InGaAsP/InP multilayer samples. Their results showed that MCs^+ intensities closely correlate with the elemental concentrations, providing a more accurate alternative to traditional atomic ion yields. This method effectively reduced the influence of matrix effects, enabling semi-quantitative analysis of elements such as Zn and Cd, particularly at complex multilayer interfaces.

Wang [21] et al. further refined these techniques for determining Cd composition in HgCdTe. By measuring the ratio of CdCs⁺ to HgCs⁺ secondary ion intensities, they established a calibration curve that accurately mapped Cd composition. Their method delivered precise Cd profiles for multilayer HgCdTe samples with minimal error, especially when employing an internal reference point for calibration.

These studies highlight the evolution of SIMS techniques in mitigating matrix effects and improving quantification accuracy. The calibration curve method developed by Wang, in particular, closely aligns with the approach taken in this work but has been adapted here for CdZnO thin films. Where calibration curves are established using the ratios of $CdCs^+/ZnCs^+$ and Cd^+/Zn^+ secondary ion intensities. These intensity ratios closely correlate with the Cd composition in thin films, enabling precise quantification of Cd content. The novelty of this work lies in the use of two separate calibration curves: one derived from molecular ion intensities ($CdCs^+/ZnCs^+$) and the other from atomic ion intensities (Cd^+/Zn^+) . This dual-calibration approach provides a deeper understanding of ionization behavior in CdZnO thin films and enhances analytical accuracy. Furthermore, the method is validated using two distinct SIMS techniques—MS SIMS and TOF SIMS—allowing cross-comparison and demonstrating the robustness and versatility of the approach. Compared to the traditional RSF method, which requires multiple standards and is prone to matrix effect assumptions, the proposed method offers improved precision, reduced matrix effects, and enhanced reliability for characterizing CdZnO thin films. The significance of this study lies in improving the existing method and systematizing it for all ternary semiconductors, including thin films, heterostructures, and other related materials.

4.1.2 Summary of Key Findings of Publication I

In this paper, we investigated the use of the calibration curve approach to accurately quantify Cd in $Cd_{1-x}Zn_xO$ thin films, focusing on addressing matrix effects in SIMS analysis. Both MS-SIMS and ToF-SIMS were employed to analyze the samples. The study emphasized improving sensitivity and precision for elemental composition analysis. Key findings and contributions are summarized below:

- We employed the MS-SIMS instrument with a Cs^{\pm} ion beam at 10 keV, optimizing the beam current for secondary ion generation and minimizing sample damage.
- The beam spot size was carefully controlled using an aperture to achieve high spatial resolution while maintaining a stable secondary ion yield, ensuring uniform bombardment across the target areas.
- The primary ion beam was focused using the SIMS optical alignment system, with lens adjustments to optimize beam intensity for effective ionization of the sample surface. Samples were placed in the chamber, and various regions were examined to confirm suitable measurement sites and compositional uniformity.
- To further validate the results, we performed ToF-SIMS, allowing for a comparison with MS-SIMS data and enhancing the sensitivity of the measurements.
- The ion beams (Bi^+ for analysis and Cs^+ for sputtering) were selected with suitable currents to optimize ionization and minimize damage. Rastering areas and optical settings were adjusted to ensure accurate beam focus and alignment for effective depth profiling for this instrument.
- Depth profiling was performed by sputtering the sample with the primary beam while measuring the secondary ion signals. To avoid mass overlap, isotopes of

elements were carefully chosen. After setup optimization, signals for Cd^+ , Zn^+ , and their molecular clusters ($CdCs^+$, $ZnCs^+$) were collected.

- Calibration curves were constructed by relating Cd compositions determined from EDX measurements with ion signal intensities from SIMS. Ratios of CdCs⁺/ZnCs⁺ and Cd⁺/Zn⁺ were plotted against the Sn-to-Pb mole fraction. Linear fits were used to derive calibration formulas for single ions and molecular clusters individually.
- Our results confirmed using molecular ion signals (MCs^+) provided a more accurate representation of Cd composition by mitigating matrix effects. These signals aligned well with established literature, validating the approach.
- The MS-SIMS signal for *MCs*⁺ resulted in a more reliable calibration curve than ToF-SIMS due to the stronger ion signal and improved sensitivity in MS-SIMS from differences in primary beam currents.
- The study highlighted the shortcomings of traditional quantification methods (e.g., RSF) for higher x > 1% content and demonstrated that the calibration curve approach offers superior accuracy for ternary semiconductors, where precise quantification of matrix composition is critical for material properties.

This research establishes the calibration curve as a reliable method for addressing matrix effects in SIMS, enhancing accuracy and sensitivity for characterizing ternary compounds like $Cd_{1-x}Zn_xO$. These advances are crucial for applications in materials science and semiconductor technology.

4.2 Quantification of PbSnTe

4.2.1 Summary of Key Findings of Publication II:

In this paper, we investigated the matrix effects in SIMS analysis, focusing on their influence on the quantification of the ternary compound $Pb_{1-x}Sn_xTe$. The study aimed to establish a robust calibration method for accurately determining the elemental composition of $Pb_{1-x}Sn_xTe$ thin films, addressing the challenges posed by non-linear ion yield variations due to matrix effects. The MS-SIMS instrument was employed to analyze the sample composition. The key contributions and findings of this work are summarized below:

- Cs^{\pm} primary ion beam was utilized at 10 keV to optimize secondary ion generation for the ternary compound $Pb_{1-x}Sn_xTe$. The beam current was precisely adjusted to balance sensitivity with minimal sample damage, ensuring reliable and reproducible data acquisition.
- An optimized aperture was selected to define the beam spot size, providing high spatial resolution while maintaining a consistent secondary ion yield. This adjustment was critical to achieving precise and uniform bombardment across the analyzed areas.
- The SIMS optical alignment system was used to focus the primary ion beam meticulously. Fine adjustments to the lens system ensured a tightly focused beam with enhanced intensity, enabling high-quality ionization of the sample surface.
- Samples were systematically placed in the analysis chamber, and the primary beam was directed at different regions to identify appropriate measurement sites and verify compositional uniformity.
- The isotopes of elements were carefully selected for the SIMS measurement to avoid mass overlapping, ensuring comprehensive data collection and enabling using a single detector. After optimizing the setup, signals for Pb^{\pm} , Sn^{\pm} , and their molecular clusters with Cs ($PbCs^{+}$ and $SnCs^{+}$) were acquired for analysis.
- To correlate the sputtering time with the depth of the profile, we used a DEKTAK 6M stylus profiler to measure the crater's depth. The x-axis of the depth profile,

corresponding to the sputtering time, was converted to depth for each sample. This step was essential for establishing an accurate depth profile for calibration purposes.

- Calibration curves were constructed using the known Sn compositions in each sample as measured by EDX and the SIMS measured ion signal intensities. Signal ratios of SnCs⁺/PbCs⁺ and Sn[±]/Pb[±] were calculated and plotted against the Sn to Pb mole fraction. A linear function was fitted to these experimental data points to derive calibration formulas for both single ions (positive and negative) and their molecular clusters.
- The developed calibration formulas effectively correlated the SIMS signal intensities to the elemental composition of $Pb_{1-x}Sn_xTe$, mitigating matrix effects and providing a reliable method for quantifying ternary compounds.

This study significantly enhances the reliability of SIMS for material characterization, overcoming limitations associated with variable ion yields caused by matrix composition. These advancements offer profound implications for applications in materials science, electronics, and semiconductor technology, enhancing the precision and applicability of SIMS in analyzing complex materials.

4.2.2 Summary of Key Findings of Publication III:

This research investigates how electronic properties of material affect ionization yields and matrix effects in SIMS analysis of the ternary compound $Pb_{1-x}Sn_xTe$, with a focus on understanding the relationship between composition and secondary ion behavior and its relation with changes in the work function (ϕ) and electron affinity of the material (A_m). The primary contributions of this work are as follows:

- We optimized the Cs[±] primary ion beam at 10 keV for each series of samples to maximize secondary ion generation while minimizing sample damage. The beam current, aperture size, and beam focus were carefully tuned to achieve high spatial resolution and reliable data collection.
- The first series of samples, consisting of homogeneous materials with varying Sn content from sample to sample, was bombarded to collect the signal of Pb[±], Sn[±], and Te[±] for depth profiling analysis. The isotopes of the detected elements were carefully selected to prevent mass overlap, and all signals were acquired using a single detector to ensure accurate data collection.
- For the second series of graded samples, where Sn content varied with depth, energy distribution profiles were measured. We estimated the Sn content in these samples using the calibration formula from our previous study, showing good agreement with MBE-designed profiles.
- The samples were mounted in the chamber, and sputtering was performed with the sample potential varied to collect energy distribution data for both positive and negative secondary ions.
- A unique aspect of this study was manually adjusting the sample voltage to monitor energy profile shifts. Despite a device limitation of 0.16 eV energy resolution, careful monitoring of depth profiles ensured accurate measurement of ionization behavior and energy distribution shifts as Sn content varied. These shifts were linked to the work function for negative ions and the electron affinity of materials for positive ions, providing valuable insight into the electronic properties of Pb_{1-x}Sn_xTe.
- A breaking point was observed in the SIMS signal ratio, which corresponded to the band gap crossing point, highlighting a novel application of SIMS to monitor the electronic properties of ternary semiconductors.
- For the first time, we demonstrated that discontinuities in ϕ and A_m and, as a result, in SIMS signal ratios, are linked to the behavior of valence and conduction bands

in $Pb_{1-x}Sn_xTe$, specifically the changes in Sn content. This led to the proposal of a band offset model, which can estimate the electronic properties of $Pb_{1-x}Sn_xTe$ as a function of Sn content.

• This study is the first to establish a connection between ionization probabilities and electronic properties in ternary semiconductors, specifically regarding work function and electron affinity. These findings are significant for evaluating the band structure and behavior of topological crystalline insulators and provide a model for predicting the electronic properties of ternary compounds based on Sn content.

The work demonstrates the potential of SIMS for observing band gap behavior and ionization dynamics in ternary semiconductor materials, contributing new insights into the application of SIMS for material characterization and the study of electronic properties in advanced materials. More importantly, a new application for SIMS.

4.3 Publications:

Publication I

Authorship Statement

I declare that I am the co-author of the publication:

Accurate determination of matrix composition in $Cd_{1-x}Zn_xO$ semiconductor material using MS-SIMS and ToF-SIMS methods. Khosravizadeh, Z., Trzyna-Sowa, M., Lysak, A., Przeździecka, E., Jakiela, R. Journal of Physics D: Applied Physics, 58 (2024) 025303. http://iopscience.iop.org/article/10.1088/1361-6463/ad80a0

I contributed equally to the conceptualization. I took the lead role in data curation, analysis, investigation, methodology, validation, and visualization. I was responsible for the original writing and contributed equally to the review and editing process.

Signature:	Super	
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Date:	10,19,2024	


STATEMENT

I declare that I am the co-author of the publication:

Accurate determination of matrix composition in Cd1-xZnxO semiconductor material using MS-SIMS and ToF-SIMS methods. Khosravizadeh, Z., Trzyna-Sowa, M., Lysak, A., Przezdziecka, E., Jakiela, R. Journal of Physics D: Applied Physics, 19(4): 041019-041028, 2024. http://iopscience.iop.org/article/10.1088/1361-6463/ad80a0

I contributed to TOF-SIMS measurement.

Signature: Molgoule Type - Seve

Date: 29. 11. 2024

ul. prof. Stanisława Pigonia 1, 35-310 Rzeszów tel.: +48 17 851 86 70 e-mail: cmikroinano@ur.edu.pl

I declare that I am the co-author of the publications:

Accurate determination of matrix composition in Cd_{1-x}Zn_xO semiconductor material using MS-SIMS and ToF-SIMS methods – Khosravizadeh, Z., Trzyna-Sowa, M., Lysak, A., Przezdziecka, E., Jakiela, R. Journal of Physics D: Applied Physics, 19(4) (2024) 041019, DOI /10.1088/1361-6463/ad80a0

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I contributed to the growth of the samples using the MBE method and EDX measurements.

Signature: Anastasiia lysech

Date: 5-12 - 2024

I declare that I am the co-author of the publications:

 Accurate determination of matrix composition in Cd_{1-x}Zn_xO semiconductor material using MS-SIMS and ToF-SIMS methods – Khosravizadeh, Z., Trzyna-Sowa, M., Lysak, A., Przezdziecka, E., Jakiela, R. Journal of Physics D: Applied Physics, 19(4) (2024) 041019, DOI /10.1088/1361-6463/ad80a0

I contributed to the planning and development of sample growth parameters and sample growth using the MBE method, as well as discussed some of the results.

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 Accurate determination of matrix composition in Cd_{1-x}Zn_xO semiconductor material using MS-SIMS and ToF-SIMS methods – Khosravizadeh, Z., Trzyna-Sowa, M., Lysak, A., Przezdziecka, E., Jakiela, R. Journal of Physics D: Applied Physics, 19(4) (2024) 041019, DOI /10.1088/1361-6463/ad80a0

I contributed to the substantive supervising of the publication

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Accurate determination of matrix composition in $Cd_xZn_{1-x}O$ semiconductor material using MS-SIMS and ToF-SIMS methods

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Abstract

This study focuses on the method for determining the exact composition for $Cd_xZn_{1-x}O$ semiconducting material using secondary ion mass spectrometry. The calibration curve method is employed to establish a quantitative relationship between the intensity of secondary ions and the concentrations of elements in $Cd_xZn_{1-x}O$ thin films. Additionally, the study compares the relative sensitivity factors with the calibration curve method for determining the value of *x* in $Cd_xZn_{1-x}O$. A comparison between the performances of Time of Flight and Magnetic Sector SIMS in analyzing $Cd_xZn_{1-x}O$ thin films is also presented. This approach aims to enhance the accuracy and reliability of quantitative analysis in SIMS for $Cd_xZn_{1-x}O$ thin films.

Keywords: Cd_xZn_{1-x}O, calibration curve, SIMS, semiconductor

Abbreviations

The following abbreviations are used in this manuscript:

Bi	Bismuth
Cs	Cesium
EDX	Energy-Dispersive x-ray
MBE	Molecular Beam Epitaxy
MS-SIMS	Magnetic Sector SIMS
RSF	Relative Sensitivity Factor
RF	Radio-Frequency
RTP	Rapid Thermal Processing
SIMS	Secondary Ion Mass Spectrometry
ToF-SIMS	Time-of-Flight SIMS

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1. Introduction

The accurate determination of elemental compositions in materials is a fundamental aspect of scientific research and industrial applications. Manipulating the physical properties of ZnO is achievable by incorporating various matrix elements such as Be, Mg, or Cd, as mentioned in [1]. The $Cd_xZn_{1-x}O$, renowned for its unique properties, has attracted significant attention owing to its diverse applications in optoelectronic devices [2–4], solar cells [2, 5], and sensors [1, 6]. Accurate elemental analysis is critical for the comprehensive understanding and optimization of these materials' performance.

Energy-dispersive x-ray spectroscopy (EDX) is a valuable tool for surface-level elemental analysis. Still, it has limitations in sensitivity and accuracy, particularly when detecting trace elements or analyzing heterostructures and thin films. In contrast, secondary ion mass spectrometry (SIMS) offers a more robust analytical approach for elemental and isotopic analysis. It provides detailed insights into a material's surface



composition by bombarding it with a focused primary ion beam, resulting in the emission of secondary ions that carry information about the material's elemental makeup. SIMS delivers in-depth profiling and isotopic analysis, offering precise quantitative data through relative sensitivity factor (RSF) and calibration curves. This makes SIMS particularly effective for analyzing complex samples and multilayered structures. While EDX is suitable for measuring in-depth homogeneous samples for the specific depth dependent on electron beam energy [7].

For years, SIMS has employed the RSF method to determine the concentration of elements in solid-state materials quantitatively [8–12]. While establishing low-concentration elements such as dopants and impurities using RSFs is straightforward, determining the content of matrix elements presents a challenge due to the strong matrix effect. This effect arises when the material's matrix composition changes during surface sputtering, influencing SIMS signals [13–15]. The ionization process in SIMS is significantly influenced by the surface chemistry of the material and the surface modification that occurs during sputtering. These modifications are driven by the electronic properties of the surface, such as the work function and electron affinity. [16].

One critical aspect of SIMS analysis is the establishment of calibration curves, which correlate the intensity of secondary ions with the known content of specific elements. These curves enable precise quantitative determination of a material's elemental composition, offering invaluable insights into its properties and performance. However, creating such calibration curves is not a straightforward task, particularly in the case of ternary compounds like $Cd_xZn_{1-x}O$. Constructing calibration curves for ternary compounds, such as PbSnSe [17], AlGaAs [18], AlGaN [19, 20], HgCdTe [21], and the quaternary compound InGaAsP [22], presents a significant challenge due to the limited array of methodologies available in the literature. Recently, the calibration curve for the ternary compound PbSnTe was studied [23].

Moreover, comparing SIMS systems such as the magnetic sector SIMS (MS-SIMS) and Time-of-Flight SIMS (ToF-SIMS), the choice between Cs^+ and Bi^+ significantly influences the sensitivity of element's detection, and surface damage which affects the depth resolution, impacting the overall data quality and analysis outcomes. Cs^+ ions are known for their high ionization efficiency, particularly beneficial for sputtering inorganic materials and low-mass elements. In contrast, Bi^+ ions, especially as Bi_3^+ clusters, offer better depth resolution.

This paper comprehensively investigates developing and calculating calibration curves for $Cd_xZn_{1-x}O$ using SIMS. These calibration curves can precisely determine the elemental composition of these ternary compounds in any structure. Our research addresses the challenges of ternary compounds and explores methodologies to construct reliable calibration curves. Through systematic analysis of standard samples with precisely known compositions, we have established a robust framework for accurate elemental quantification in

 $Cd_xZn_{1-x}O$ materials. Additionally, an investigation was carried out to compare the RSF and calibration curve approaches in determining the value of *x* in $Cd_xZn_{1-x}O$. Furthermore, the study explores how the RSF-based calculation of *x* diverges from the actual *x* values. Also, our research aims to demonstrate how calibration curves can effectively determine the elemental composition of ternary compounds across different contents.

This study's findings are essential for the accurate characterization of $Cd_xZn_{1-x}O$ and contribute to the broader understanding of SIMS applications in the analysis of complex materials. Moreover, the techniques and insights presented here can have far-reaching implications in fields ranging from materials science to semiconductor technology.

2. Experiments

Molecular beam epitaxy (MBE) is a well-established technique for precisely depositing high-quality thin films with controlled composition and crystalline structure. In this study, a set of $Cd_xZn_{1-x}O$ thin films was grown on cplane (00.1) sapphire substrates using MBE in a Compact 21 Riber system. The MBE system is equipped with a radio-frequency (RF) power Oxygen plasma source and double zone Knudsen effusion cells as the main source of elements O, Cd, and Zn respectively. As the source, Cd (6 N purity, from JX Nippon Mining and Metal Corporation) ingot was used, as a source of Zn (6 N impurity ingots). An RF cell was used for the generation of oxygen plasma.

Before the growth process, the Al₂O₃ substrates were chemically cleaned in H₂SO₄ : H₂O₂ (1:1) mixture. The substrates were first degassed in a load chamber at 150 °C for 1 h. Subsequently, the c-plane Al₂O₃ was annealed at 700 °C in the growing chamber. The growth process of all the layers was performed at a fixed oxygen flow rate of 3 sccm, and the oxygen stream was stimulated with a power of about 240 W. The Cd_xZn_{1-x}O samples were grown at a temperature of 360 °C, as measured by a thermocouple. The thin films were deposited within 1 h. Various Cd (*x*) compositions in Cd_xZn_{1-x}O films were achieved by controlling the Cd and Zn fluxes by adjusting the temperatures of the Cd and Zn effusion cells, respectively [24].

This study examines two distinct series of $Cd_xZn_{1-x}O$ samples, each with a specific purpose: 1st series includes chemically homogeneous samples with incrementally increasing Cd content (x values ranging from 0 to 0.6), as detailed later in table 1. Each sample in this series has a distinct and fixed Cd composition. These samples are used to derive the calibration curve necessary for analyzing the SIMS signal ratio. 2nd Series comprises thin film samples for which accurate Cd content estimation by EDX is not feasible. The goal is to estimate the Cd content in these samples using the RSF and the calibration formula derived from the first series, and to compare these results with those obtained from the first series.

The compositional study of Cd and Zn concentration in $Cd_xZn_{1-x}O$ thin films was conducted using a Hitachi SU-70 scanning electron microscope equipped with a Thermo Scientific EDX spectrometer (1st series) and a silicon drift x-ray detector, along with Noran System 7. The EDX spectra were acquired with an accelerating voltage of 8 kV.

The SIMS measurements utilized a system equipped with a CAMECA IMS6F MS-SIMS, with cesium ions (Cs⁺) as the primary beam. Samples were measured under the following conditions: the Cs ions sputtered the sample's surface at a total ion impact energy of 5.5 keV. The primary beam current was maintained at 50 nA. The raster size was approximately $250 \,\mu\text{m} \times 250 \,\mu\text{m}$, and positive secondary ions were collected from a central region with a diameter of 60 microns.

The data from ToF-SIMS were acquired using a ToF-SIMS V spectrometer manufactured by ION ToF GmbH. Depth profiles were measured using this instrument in dual beam mode. A pulsed 30 keV (Bi^+) primary ion source at a current of 1.1 pA, rastered over a scan area of 50 μ m × 50 μ m was used as the analysis beam. Sputtering was performed using a 2 keV (100 nA) cesium ion beam, rastered over an area of 200 μ m × 200 μ m. Both ion beams impinged on the sample surface, forming a 45° angle with the surface normal.

The following species were measured: $^{114}Cd^+$ and $^{64}Zn^+$. Zn cannot be detected as a negative ion due to its zero electron affinity value [11]. The sample list (1st series) which is provided by the MBE method and characterized by EDX and SIMS is represented in table 1.

3. Results and discussion

The SIMS method offers qualitative measurement because the relative secondary ion intensities do not straightforwardly mirror the relative concentrations of elements in the materials [9, 10].

In this research, the calibration curve method was initially used to determine the concentrations of Cd in the samples, as detailed in table 1. These results were then compared with the Cd concentrations estimated using RSFs to evaluate the accuracy of these methods in estimating the Cd content, particularly in samples where Cd constitutes a high (> 1 percent) content.

3.1. Calibration curve method

SIMS is an effective technique at detecting trace components (ppm to ppb) such as dopants and matrix elements in multilayered materials [25, 26]. While SIMS can accurately determine low-concentration dopants using RSFs, quantifying matrix elements is more challenging due to matrix effects that can alter the secondary ion signal during sputtering [13, 14]. To overcome this issue, employing a calibration curve is crucial for precise determination of the composition in bulk, singlelayer, and multilayered samples, especially when layers have varying compositions. Calculating this curve involves analyzing signals from elements that change with composition, such as Cd and Zn, to achieve accurate results. The methodology for calculating a calibration curve for $Pb_{1-x}Sn_xTe$ has been previously described in a published study [17, 23]. In the current study, we establish a calibration curve specifically for $Cd_xZn_{1-x}O$ and expand the procedure to derive a formula for precisely calculating the value of *x*. By using a linear approximation of the points representing the ratio of Cd^+/Zn^+ SIMS signals against x_{Cd}/x_{Zn} mole fractions, calibration curves were computed using equation (1).

Additionally, the calibration curves obtained from both MS SIMS and ToF SIMS data were compared.

$$R = \frac{I_{\rm Cd}}{I_{\rm Zn}} = A \times \frac{x_{\rm Cd}}{1 - x_{\rm Cd}} + B. \tag{1}$$

In the context of the following expressions, I_{Cd} denotes the signal from cadmium secondary ions, I_{Zn} signifies the signal from zinc secondary ions, and x_{Cd} represents the mole fraction of cadmium in the II elements group. A and B are also defined as the slope and intercept elevation, respectively.

With *R* representing the SIMS signal ratio I_{Cd}/I_{Zn} , the conclusive formula for the mole fraction *x* of Cd results from the conversion of equation (1), as outlined in equation (2):

$$x_{\rm Cd} = \frac{R-B}{R+A-B}.$$
 (2)

For all SIMS signal ratio calculations, the entire ion signals of Cd and Zn were normalized, taking into account the abundance of the measured isotopes: 114 Cd = 28.7%, and 64 Zn = 48.6% [27].

The signal ratio of Cd⁺/Zn⁺ versus x_{cd}/x_{Zn} mole fraction as taken from EDX method is displayed in figure 1.

Linear fitting was applied to the points as determined from SIMS signal ratio to derive the calibration curve, depicted as a pink line in figure 1. As can be seen, the signal ratio of the calibration curve based on ToF-SIMS (green line) is higher than that of the MS-SIMS signal (pink one). This discrepancy is due to the different (Bi⁺ and Cs⁺) analyzing beam used in both SIMS methods. An ideal calibration curve is expected to be fitted using the y = x function (black dash-line), as described in equation (3) [17]

$$\mathbf{R} = \frac{x_{\rm Cd}}{1 - x_{\rm Cd}}.\tag{3}$$

Figure 1 represents the fitted line with slope A and Y-intercept B, where A and B equal 0.35 ± 0.01 and 0.009 ± 0.004 values, respectively. Then, the calibration curve from equation (1) was calculated as presented in equation (4)

$$R = 0.35 \times \frac{x_{\rm Cd}}{1 - x_{\rm Cd}} - 0.009.$$
⁽⁴⁾

By combining equation (4) with equation (2), the formula for the amount of x_{Cd} is calculated for the ratio *R* as measured using single ions in the SIMS method:



Table 1. The content of samples.

Figure 1. The SIMS signal ratio of Cd⁺/Zn⁺ as a function of the mole fraction ratio $x_{cd}/(1 - x_{cd})$, measured using the EDX method. The pink line represents data collected with magnetic sector SIMS (MS-SIMS), while the green line shows data collected with Time of Flight SIMS (ToF-SIMS). The black dashed line indicates an ideal calibration curve y = x.



Figure 2. The ratio of SIMS signals for CdCs⁺/ZnCs⁺ as a function of the mole fraction ratio $x_{cd}/(1 - x_{cd})$, measured using the EDX method. The red line represents data collected with magnetic sector SIMS (MS-SIMS), while the blue line shows data collected with Time of Flight SIMS (ToF-SIMS). The black dashed line indicates an ideal calibration curve y = x.

$$x_{\rm Cd} = \frac{R + 0.009}{R + 0.359}.$$
 (5)

described procedure for the cluster ions results in the following set of equations:

1

$$R = 1.22 \times \frac{x_{\rm Cd}}{1 - x_{\rm Cd}} - 0.01 \tag{6}$$

$$x_{\rm Cd} = \frac{R+0.01}{R+1.23}.$$
 (7)

Element	Ionization potential (eV)
Cd	9.393
Zn	8.941

Equation (7) corresponds to the SIMS signal ratio (R) measured using cluster ions CsM⁺.

As shown in figure 1, the deviations of the fitting parameters from the ideal calibration curve (the expected linear function in equation (2)) are higher compared to the cluster ions ratio (figure 2). This behavior can be attributed to the different ionization potentials of the Zn and Cd elements, as indicated in table 2. This atom parameter influences the strength of the matrix effect. [18, 26].

In figure 2, the optimal fitting parameters were determined for the $CdCs^+/ZnCs^+$ ratio, exhibiting the most minor deviation from the ideal calibration. This result suggests that using a molecular cluster with Cs ions (CsM⁺) minimizes the matrix effect.

Using CsM⁺ ion provides enhanced sensitivity in mass spectrometry due to cesium's high ionization efficiency and high affinity for bonding with other atoms. CsM⁺ also shows reduced matrix effects compared to single M⁺ ions. Furthermore, CsM⁺ offers better reproducibility of measurements thanks to stable ionization characteristics. In contrast, M⁺ ions can be more affected by matrix components, leading to higher variability and potentially lower ionization efficiency and, thus, sensitivity. Therefore, using molecular clusters with Cs ions helps minimize the matrix effect, which is influenced by differences in ionization potentials and electron affinities of atoms. When ion clusters are used, the difference in Cd and Zn ionization potentials minimally impacts the SIMS signal ratio. This is likely because the charge of the clusters originates from the ionization of Cs atoms rather than Cd or Zn atoms. Additionally, the bonding of neutral atoms with Cs ions can influence the SIMS signal ratio, which might lead to lower deviations in the calibration curve than single ions [18, 26].

The slight difference in signal ratio between MS-SIMS and ToF-SIMS methods can be attributed to their use of different analyzing beams, Bi^+ for ToF-SIMS and Cs^+ for MS-SIMS. Bi^+ primary ions in ToF-SIMS are particularly effective in enhancing the secondary ion yields of organic and complex molecules, leading to higher sensitivity for these species. Additionally, the differences in the primary beam currents—approximately 1.1 pA for Bi^+ and 50 nA for Cs^+ - result in a higher ion signal and better elemental sensitivity in MS-SIMS.

The distinct ionization mechanisms associated with Bi^+ and Cs^+ beams result in different secondary ion production efficiencies, impacting the observed signal ratios. Additionally, the interaction of these primary ions with the sample's surface can cause variations in sputtering rates and ion yields, further contributing to the differences in signal ratios between the two SIMS techniques. However, a detailed



Figure 3. The atomic concentration of Cd vs depth profile. The red line represents SIMS measurement. The blue dashed line represents SRIM calculation.

comparison between these two SIMS methods falls outside the primary focus of this study.

3.2. RSF method

The RSF is essential for quantifying SIMS results, as it enables the conversion of measured secondary ion intensities into atomic concentrations. This process involves analyzing standards—materials with known concentrations of the element under study—to calculate the RSF. The RSF, similar to the calibration curve, allows for the accurate conversion of secondary ion counts into elemental concentrations. The standard is typically a sample of a specific compound (in this case ZnO) implanted with ions of an element (in this case Cd) at a known dose, containing one or all of the naturally occurring isotopes of that element. Analyzing these standards under specific experimental conditions is critical for determining the RSF and establishing the detection limit of the analyzed element for a particular measurement [8, 11, 12, 28].

Figure 3 shows the SIMS depth profile of Cd implanted into a 1 μ m-thick ZnO layer, at an energy of 250 keV to a dose of 10¹⁶ cm⁻². Using the stopping and range of ions in matter (SRIM) program, the numerical method was employed to estimate Cd ions' distribution implanted in this matrix. A comparison between the Cd concentration profile obtained by SIMS and SRIM reveals a notable agreement between the experimental and simulated data. Finally, our RSF was calculated based on this standard sample.



Figure 4. The SIMS signal of selected isotopes of Zn^+ and Cd^+ was collected as a cluster with Cs^+ vs depth.

All provided RSFs in this study are elemental, encompassing the sum of all isotopes for the impurity and matrix elements rather than specific isotopes of matrix elements. Figure 4 shows an example signal of selected isotopes collected in the SIMS measurement. Higher RSF values mean lower secondary ion yield, which leads to the higher (worse) detection limit of the analyzed element [11]. The concentration calculation based on the RSF is defined as:

$$C = \text{RSF} \times \frac{I_e}{I_r} \tag{8}$$

where *C* is the concentration of elements (atoms cm⁻³) in the material, and *I* is the secondary ion intensity (counts s⁻¹). The indices *e* and *r* refer to the intensities of the studied element and the matrix element used as the reference, respectively.

Figure 5 shows an example of the depth profile with the absolute value of Cd concentration as calculated using RSF for the $Cd_xZn_{1-x}O/ZnO$ layer on the Al_2O_3 substrate, grown using the MBE method.

Unfortunately, the RSF exhibits variability across different matrices and detected elements because the matrix effect affects [13] the ion signals, both the measured and the reference elements.



Figure 5. The atomic concentration of Cd and SIMS signal of Zn^+ vs depth profile.

3.3. Comparison of RSF and calibration curve methods

For low-concentration (<1%), dopants, using RSF is always applicable and the most precise in the SIMS method. However, the RSF method is no longer appropriate for matrix elements and needs to be substituted by the calibration curve in highconcentration dopants (1% >).

Figure 6 compares the x values calculated from RSF and those obtained using the calibration curve method. The analysis aims to assess the impact of matrix effects when employing RSF for matrix elements. The results indicate that the calibration curve method provides more reliable outcomes, aligning more closely with the ideal y = x relationship. Discrepancies are more pronounced in the case of RSF, particularly where Cd constitutes more than 1 percent of the content. As a result, the RSF method is no longer appropriate for matrix elements and needs to be substituted by the calibration curve in the case of high concentration dopants (1% >).

4. Conclusions

In summary, this study estimates the concentrations of elements in $Cd_xZn_{1-x}O$ materials grown on Al_2O_3 substrates using MBE, employing the calibration curve approach. The established calibration curves, developed via depth profiling, provide a robust correlation between secondary ion intensity and known element concentrations in $Cd_xZn_{1-x}O$ thin films. A



Figure 6. Comparison of *x* as calculated based on the RSF (blue-circle) and results obtained from MS and ToF-SIMS calibration curve estimation (pink circle) vs Cd content as derived from the EDX method. The black dashed line presents an ideal calibration curve.

comparative analysis between the RSF method and the calibration curve approach offered valuable insights into determining the variable *x*. These findings indicate that the RSF method is inadequate for matrix elements. Therefore, the calibration curve method should be adopted as the preferred approach in such cases. Additionally, the results highlight the differences in the calibration curves estimated using signals from ToF-SIMS and MS-SIMS, which arise due to the distinct analyzing beams of each instrument. These findings contribute significantly to material characterization, particularly in materials science and semiconductor technology applications.

Data availability statement

The data that support the findings of this study are available upon reasonable request from the authors.

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Ethical approval

Ethical approval does not apply to this study.

Conflicts of interest

The authors declare that there are no conflicts of interest regarding the publication of this paper.

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Publication II

I declare that I am the co-author of the publication:

Secondary Ion Mass Spectrometry Characterization of Matrix Composition in Topological Crystalline Insulator $Pb_{1-x}Sn_xTe$. Khosravizadeh, Z., Dziawa, P., Dad, S., Jakiela, R. Thin Solid Films, 781 (2023) 139974 https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tsf.2023.139974

I contributed equally to the conceptualization. I took the lead role in data curation, analysis, investigation, methodology, validation, and visualization. I was responsible for the original writing and contributed equally to the review and editing process.

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I declare that I am the co-author of the publication:

Secondary Ion Mass Spectrometry Characterization of Matrix Composition in Topological Crystalline Insulator $Pb_{1-x}Sn_xTe$. Khosravizadeh, Z., Dziawa, P., Dad, S., Jakiela, R. Thin Solid Films, 781 (2023) 139974 https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tsf.2023.139974

My contribution to the work, including the MBE growth of the studied samples and EDX measurements.

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Secondary Ion Mass Spectrometry Characterization of Matrix Composition in Topological Crystalline Insulator $Pb_{1-x}Sn_xTe$. Khosravizadeh, Z., Dziawa, P., Dad, S., Jakiela, R. Thin Solid Films, 781 (2023) 139974 DOI: https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tsf.2023.139974

I contributed to the Molecular Beam Epitaxial growth of the studied samples and EDX measurements.

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I declare that I am the co-author of the publications:

 Secondary Ion Mass Spectrometry Characterization of Matrix Composition in Topological Crystalline Insulator Pb_{1-x}Sn_xTe – Khosravizadeh, Z., Dziawa, P., Dad, S., Jakiela, R., Thin Solid Films, 781 (2023) 139974, DOI /10.1016/j.tsf.2023.139974.

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Secondary ion mass spectrometry characterization of matrix composition in topological crystalline insulator $Pb_{1-x}Sn_xTe$

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ABSTRACT

Keywords: Matrix effect Secondary Ion mass spectrometry Topological crystalline insulators Calibration Depth profile Ternary compound Content determination Lead tin telluride This study explores the use of Secondary Ion Mass Spectrometry (SIMS) to accurately measure the content of $Pb_{1-x}Sn_xTe$, a new class of electronic materials known as Topological Crystalline Insulators (TCIs). We analyzed the SIMS signal ratios of $SnCs^+/PbCs^+$ and Sn^{\pm}/Pb^{\pm} in thin layers and determined the calibration curves necessary to estimate the exact amount of content in this ternary compound. Additionally, we investigated the matrix effect and performed depth profiling to obtain a more precise determination of the content. These findings contribute to the understanding and development of TCIs, and highlight the potential of SIMS for accurate content determination in ternary compounds.

1. Introduction

Both lead telluride (PbTe) and tin telluride (SnTe) crystallize in a rock-salt structure and have unique electronic properties, including a narrow and direct band gap [1,2] and a high dielectric permittivity [3] which has increased attention toward $Pb_{1-x}Sn_xTe$. Such ternary compounds, called topological crystalline insulators (TCIs), have been studied for years both theoretically [4,5], and experimentally [6–11]. The importance of these studies mainly comes from the broad applications of $Pb_{1-x}Sn_xTe$ compounds in electronic and photonic devices such as IR detectors [12], lasers [13,14], thermoelectric converters [15], solar cells, memory devices [16] and spintronic devices [17].

Secondary ion mass spectrometry (SIMS) and the Relative Sensitivity Factor (RSF) have been used for years to determine the concentration of elements (such as dopants and impurities) quantitatively in solid state materials [18,19]. However, the most effective method for determining the elemental content of a ternary compound is to ascertain the calibration curve. Additionally, the SIMS method offers advantages such as depth profiling (the SIMS signal of the individual elements can be measured as a function of depth [20]) with high depth resolution, the possibility to distinguish isotopes, the potential for 3D imaging [21], and very low detection limit compared to other techniques like XPS (X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy), RBS (Rutherford backscattering spectrometry) [22], and EDX (energy-dispersive X-ray spectroscopy) [23]. There are limited approaches to construct the calibration curve for such ternary compounds as AlGaAs [24], Al-GaN [25,26], HgCdTE [27], and quaternary compound InGaAsP [28]. In a previous paper, the calibration curve for the ternary compound $Pb_{1-x}Sn_xSe$ was studied[29].

In this study, the thin films of $Pb_{1-x}Sn_xTe$ were grown by adopting Molecular Beam Epitaxy (MBE).

The novelty of this study lies in the determination of the calibration curve of the ternary compound $Pb_{1-x}Sn_xTe$ TCI by utilizing SIMS signal ratios. These calibration curves can be employed to accurately determine the elemental composition of ternary compounds in any structure. Furthermore, a suitable fit for the calibration curve of these ternary compounds was defined.

2. Experiments

Thin films of $Pb_{1-x}Sn_xTe$ were grown on GaAs substrate using MBE methods [30]. To achieve this, we utilized a home-built apparatus equipped with Pb, Sn, and Te sources. In the first step, the n-GaAs (111)B (AXT Inc.) substrate was annealed at about 600 °C to desorb oxides. The deposition was then carried out at growth temperatures ranging from 270 °C to 310 °C linearly corresponding to *x* ranging from 0 to 1. The beam equivalent pressure (BEP) reflecting the total metal flux was kept at 7×10^{-5} Pa, corresponding to a growth rate of about 0.13 nm/s. The thickness of each layer was in the range of $0.5-0.9 \mu m$.

Chemical analysis was carried out using a FlexSEM 1000 scanning electron microscope (Hitachi) equipped with an energy dispersive X-ray spectrometer (Oxford Instruments) [31]. The analysis was performed at an accelerating voltage of 15 kV.

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Table	1			
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The content and thickness of samples.												
	Values											
x _{Sn}	0.84	0.71	0.58	0.57	0.5	0.37	0.36	0.29	0.21	0.19	0.11	0.06
thickness (µm)	0.45	0.57	0.57	0.4	0.65	0.48	0.61	0.6	0.7	0.6	0.67	0.84

The SIMS measurements were performed a CAMECA IMS6F magnetic sector instrument. A high vacuum is required in the chamber during the measurement. Therefore, the vacuum pressure in the system was about 1.33×10^{-8} Pa. This pressure corresponds to the SIMS signal of H, C, and O in PbSnTe of about 50 c/s, 10 c/s, and 100 c/s, respectively.

The samples were measured under the following conditions: the positive ions were analyzed at the primary beam energy of 5.5 keV and the negative ions at 14.5 keV, which collide with the surface normal at an angle of 30 degrees. The sputter rates for positive and negative secondary ions were 3 nm/s and 5 nm/s, respectively.

Primary currents for both primary beams were kept at 50 nA. The size of the raster was about 150 μ m × 150 μ m, and the secondary ions were collected from a central region of 60 μ m in diameter. For positive and negative secondary ions the following species were measured: ¹¹⁸Sn⁺, ²⁰⁸Pb⁺, ¹¹⁸SnCs⁺, ²⁰⁸PbCs⁺, and ¹¹⁸Sn⁻, ²⁰⁸Pb⁻. Due to the high electronegativity value of Te (2.1 eV), the high negative secondary ions signal of Te at the mass of 120 (amu) can be detected [32]. Therefore, to avoid the overlap between Te and Sn at the mass of 120 (amu), the isotope ¹¹⁸Sn⁻ was measured. Such measurement condition allows for the collection of all signals by one detector namely electronmultiplier. The electron multiplier is capable of detecting signals up to 10⁶ (counts/s), and all the measured signals in our experiment were below this limit. In contrast, the Faraday cup utilized in our experiment has a measurement lower limit of 10⁵ (counts/s).

Given that all the SIMS signals were consistently below 10^6 (counts/s), we chose to collect all the data using the electron multiplier (EM) for greater convenience. To ensure consistency, both the primary beam and analyzed area were carefully adjusted to keep all signals within the range of the EM.

Finally, the SIMS signal ratios of Sn^{\pm}/Pb^{\pm} and $SnCs^{+}/PbCs^{+}$ versus Sn/Pb mole fraction ratio are plotted to obtain the calibration curves for the ternary compound. Since the content of Te remains constant in each sample, we assume that it does not have any influence on the SIMS signal ratio. The sample list which is provided by the MBE method and characterized by EDX and SIMS is represented in Table 1.

3. Results and discussion

In our study, we employed high-energy electron diffraction (RHEED) to analyze the growth mode of the material. As shown in Fig. 1 the obtained RHEED pattern exhibited a distinct streaky pattern, which is indicative of the Frank-van der Merwe (layered) growth mode under the conditions of the experiment.

Elemental composition was investigated using energy-dispersive Xray spectroscopy (EDX). Example spectra which are recorded for samples at two different Sn concentrations are depicted in Fig. 2. Additionally, the analysis revealed the presence of oxygen and carbon, commonly associated with surface contamination. The resulting averaged outcome exhibits a deviation of up to 2%, indicating the precision of our measurements.

SIMS is considered a highly sensitive technique to detect the accurate amount of the constituents (in the range of ppm to ppb) [33,34] like dopants and matrix elements in multilayered heterostructures. Contrary to the ease of establishing low-concentration elements (such as dopants and impurities) using RSFs, determining the content of matrix elements is complicated due to the strong matrix effect. This matrix effect occurs when the composition of the matrix material changes during the sputtering of the surface. The matrix effect significantly influences SIMS signals. [35].



Fig. 1. RHEED pattern corresponding to 500 µm thick Pb0.5 Nn0.5 Te layer.

Therefore, to obtain the exact composition for each ternary compound using the SIMS method, it is necessary to use a calibration curve. The calibration curve is required to determine the elemental composition of bulk, single-layer, or multi-layered $Pb_{1-x}Sn_xTe$ samples. To calculate a calibration curve, the signals of elements that change with the composition, such as Sn and Pb signals in this study, are required. The example depth profiles of the collected elements are displayed in Fig. 3. As depicted in Fig. 3, the depth profile of all collected elements remains stable, which is the expected behavior.

The concentrations of H and C in the analyzed layers were at the background level and they amounted to 5×10^{19} (cm⁻³) and 10^{17} (cm⁻³). The real concentration of O was observed at the level of 3×10^{19} (cm⁻³) which is displayed in Fig. 4. Cesium ions (Cs⁺) were used as the primary beam.

Due to the surface being bombarded with a beam of accelerated ions, there is an ion mixing of the material. Hence, the sample structure does not play a crucial role during measurement. Usually, the roughness of the bottom of the crater increases with the sputtering time [20]. However, in our case, the values of roughness were at the same level for the surface and crater's area which amounted to 4.2 nm and 4.5 nm, respectively. Fig. 5 represents the cross-section profile of the crater of the exampled sample as measured by DEKTAK 6M stylus profiler.

The procedure of calculating a calibration curve for $Pb_{1-x}Sn_xSe$ has been described in the previous paper [29]. In this paper, the calibration curve for $Pb_{1-x}Sn_xTe$ was determined. Furthermore, the procedure was extended to drive the formula for the exact *x* calculation. Thence, making the linear approximation to the points of Sn^{\pm}/Pb^{\pm} SIMS signals ratio vs Sn/Pb mole fractions, the calibration curves were calculated using Eq. (1) [29].

$$R = \frac{I_{Sn}}{I_{Pb}} = A \frac{x_{Sn}}{1 - x_{Sn}} + B$$
(1)



Fig. 2. Comparison of EDX spectra corresponding to $Pb_{1-x}Sn_xTe$ at x = 0.84 (red line) and x = 0.5 (black line), for (a) low energy, and (b) high energy. Spectra are normalized to the spectral range of the Pb M line (E = 2.35 eV).



Fig. 3. The SIMS depth profiles of $Pb_{1-x}Sn_x$ Te matrix elements in the sample with $x_{Sn} = 0.5$ values where; (a) positive ions, (b) negative ions were collected.

where, I_{Sn} is the tin secondary ions signal, I_{Pb} corresponds to the lead secondary ions signal, and x_{Sn} represents Sn mole fraction in IV elements group. Also, A and B are considered as the slope and the intercept elevation, respectively. Considering R as the SIMS signal ratio of I_{Sn}/I_{Pb} , the final formula for Sn in IV group mole fraction x is a result of converting Eq. (1) in relation to as indicated in Eq. (2):

$$\mathbf{x}_{Sn} = \frac{\mathbf{R} - \mathbf{B}}{\mathbf{R} + \mathbf{A} - \mathbf{B}} \tag{2}$$

For all SIMS signal ratio calculations the entire ion signals of Sn, and Pb were calculated, taking into account the abundance of the measured isotopes: 118 Sn = 24.3%, and 208 Pb = 52.4% [36].

The signal ratio of Sn^-/Pb^- versus [Sn]/[Pb] mole fraction as taken from EDX method is displayed in Fig. 6.

A linear fitting was applied to the SIMS signal ratio to estimate the calibration curve which is displayed in red in Fig. 6. An ideal calibration curve should be fitted by a linear function [29] as presented in Eq. (3).

$$R = \frac{x_{Sn}}{1 - x_{Sn}}$$
(3)

Table 2				
Properties of the elements.				
Element	Electron affinity (eV)	Ionization potential (eV)		
Sn	1.11	7.34		
Pb	0.36	7.42		
Те	1.97	9.01		

Consequently, deviation from this line occurred in the experimental data due to the differences in the electron affinity and ionization potential of sputtered atoms. The electron affinity plays a significant role in the case of negative secondary ions [32]. The deviation from the reference's line Eq. (3) could be attributed to the higher electron affinity of Sn compared to Pb. The values of electron affinity and ionization potential are shown in Table 2.

In Fig. 6 the fitted line with slope A and Y-intercept B is represented. Where A and B are equal to 12.45 ± 0.19 and 0.93 ± 0.33 values, respectively. Then, the calibration curve from Eq. (1) was calculated as



Fig. 4. The SIMS depth profiles of H, C, and O in the sample with $x_{Sn} = 0.5$.



Fig. 5. Cross-section profile of the crater in the sample with $x_{Sn} = 0.5$ as measured by DEKTAK 6M stylus profiler.

presented in Eq. (4).

$$R = 12.45 \frac{x_{Sn}}{1 - x_{Sn}} + 0.93$$
(4)

By combining Eq. (4) with Eq. (2) the amount of x_{Sn} is calculated for the negative secondary ions:

$$\mathbf{x}_{\mathrm{Sn}} = \frac{\mathbf{R} - 0.93}{\mathbf{R} + 11.51} \tag{5}$$

The signal ratio of Sn^+/Pb^+ and $SnCs^+/PbCs^+$ of positive secondary ions are plotted in Figs. 7 and 8, respectively. The fitting lines corresponding to the calibration curves are depicted in these figures as well. Applying the above procedure for the positive secondary ions results in the following equations:

$$x_{Sn} = \frac{R - 0.2}{R + 1.53} \tag{6}$$

$$x_{\rm Sn} = \frac{R - 0.12}{R + 0.58} \tag{7}$$



Fig. 6. The SIMS signal ratio of Sn⁻/Pb⁻ vs $x_{Sn}/(1 - x_{Sn})$ mole fraction ratio as measured by EDX. The red dashed line presents an ideal calibration curve.



Fig. 7. The SIMS signal ratio of Sn^+/Pb^+ vs $x_{Sn}/(1 - x_{Sn})$ mole fraction ratio as measured by EDX. The red dashed line presents an ideal calibration curve.

where Eq. (6) corresponds to the SIMS signal ratio of single ions and Eq. (7) is related to the cluster ions.

As shown in Figs. 7 and 8 the deviation of fitting parameters of the expected linear function from Eq. (3) are relatively small. The reason for such behavior could be the comparable ionization energy of Sn and Pb elements (Table 2), which corresponds to the positive ionization of atoms. Thus, the best fitting parameters were obtained for $SnCs^+/PbCs^+$ ratio, which has the lowest deviation from Eq. (3), since using the molecular cluster with Cs ion allows minimizing the matrix effect. The matrix effect is affected by differences in ionization potentials and electron affinities of atoms [24,34]. In the case of ion clusters, the ionization potential of Sn and Pb does not show a significant effect on SIMS signal ratio. This is most likely due to the charge of clusters that comes from the ionization of Cs atoms instead of Sn or Pb atoms [24,34]. Additionally, the bonding of neutral atoms with Cs ions could play a crucial role in SIMS signal ratio, which might have a minor effect on the deviation of the calibration curve.

The results evidence it is plausible to ascertain the precise content of any $Pb_{1-x}Sn_xTe$ compound in either bulk samples or heterostructures



Fig. 8. The SIMS signal ratio of $SnCs^+/PbCs^+$ vs $x_{Sn}/(1 - x_{Sn})$ mole fraction ratio as measured by EDX. The red dashed line presents an ideal calibration curve.

using SIMS when the same measurement conditions (such as the Cs primary beam and the secondary ion polarity) are set, by applying Eq. (5), (6), and (7). The influence of Se was discussed in the previous paper, where it was noted that there is a difference in the ionization yield and electron affinity between Te and Se. Notably, Se has a higher electron affinity, which explains why we obtained a higher signal in the previous paper. Furthermore, our study confirmed that using the Cs cluster method gives the most proper results for determining the matrix composition [24].

4. Conclusions

Using MBE, thin films of $Pb_{1-x}Sn_xTe$ were deposited on GaAs substrate. The calibration curves for the ternary compound of $Pb_{1-x}Sn_xTe$ TCI were estimated by applying the depth profiling as a novel method for this type of material. These calibration curves were used to determine the equations for calculating the unknown chemical composition of $Pb_{1-x}Sn_xTe$ ternary compound in any structure. Also, the calibration curve related to the positive and negative secondary ions indicates that Cs cluster secondary ions are closer to possibly an ideal calibration. This is well known to be due to the significant reduction of the matrix effect when using Cs clusters.

CRediT authorship contribution statement

Z. Khosravizadeh: Writing – original draft, Methodology, Investigation. **P. Dziawa:** Review & editing, Growing the sample. **S. Dad:** Investigation. **R. Jakiela:** Writing – review & editing, Supervision, Methodology, Investigation, Conceptualization.

Declaration of competing interest

The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

Data availability

Data will be made available on request

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Publication III

I declare that I am the co-author of the publication:

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A novel approach for observing band gap crossings using the SIMS technique in $Pb_{1-x}Sn_xTe$. Khosravizadeh, Z., Dziawa, P., Dad, S., Dabrowski, A., Jakiela, R. Journal of Semiconductors, 45 (2024) 112102. https://www.jos.ac.cn/en/article/doi/10.1088/1674-4926/24040023

I contributed equally to the conceptualization. I took the lead role in data curation, analysis, investigation, methodology, validation, and visualization. I was responsible for the original writing and contributed equally to the review and editing process.

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I declare that I am the co-author of the publication:

A novel approach for observing band gap crossings using the SIMS technique in $Pb_{1-x}Sn_xTe$. Khosravizadeh, Z., Dziawa, P., Dad, S., Dabrowski, A., Jakiela, R. Journal of Semiconductors, 45 (2024) 112102. https://www.jos.ac.cn/en/article/doi/10.1088/1674-4926/24040023

My contribution to the work, including the MBE growth of the studied samples and the reviewing and editing the draft.

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I contributed to the Molecular Beam Epitaxial growth of studied samples and Hall measurements.

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I contributed to preparation and conduct of Hall measurement

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A novel approach for observing band gap crossings using the SIMS technique in Pb_{1-x}Sn_xTe – Khosravizadeh, Z., Dziawa, P., Dad, S., Dabrowski, A., Jakiela, R., Journal of Semiconductors, 45 (2024) 112102, DOI /10.1088/1674-4926/24040023.

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A novel approach for observing band gap crossings using the SIMS technique in $Pb_{1-x}Sn_xTe$

Zeinab Khosravizadeh, Piotr Dziawa, Sania Dad, Andrzej Dabrowski, and Rafa Jakiela

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A novel approach for observing band gap crossings using the SIMS technique in $Pb_{1-x}Sn_xTe$

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Abstract: This paper introduces a pioneering application of secondary ion mass spectrometry (SIMS) for estimating the electronic properties of $Pb_{1-x}Sn_xTe$, a compound categorized as a topological crystalline insulator. The proposed approach marks the first application of SIMS for such estimations and focuses on investigating variations in ionization probabilities and shifts in the energy distribution of secondary ions. The ionization probabilities are influenced by pivotal parameters such as the material's work function and electron affinity. The derivation of these parameters hinges upon the energy gap's positioning relative to the vacuum level for varying values of x within the $Pb_{1-x}Sn_xTe$ compound. The findings elucidate noteworthy alterations in SIMS signals, particularly near the critical point of band-gap closing.

Key words: SIMS; TCI; ionization probability; work function; Pb_{1-x}Sn_xTe; band-gap closing

Citation: Z Khosravizadeh, P Dziawa, S Dad, A Dabrowski, and R Jakiela, A novel approach for observing band gap crossings using the SIMS technique in Pb_{1-x}Sn_xTe[J]. *J. Semicond.*, 2024, 45(11), 112102. https://doi.org/10.1088/1674-4926/24040023

1. Introduction

The $Pb_{1-x}Sn_xTe$ compound, a narrow gap material, has been recognized since the 1960s for its notable applications in thermoelectricity and mid-infrared detection and generation. In a study at the end of the 1960s, Ocio analyzed the band behavior of $Pb_{1-x}Sn_xTe$. This investigation, informed by an examination of the Hall coefficient, suggested that an increase in Sn content led to a higher valence band energy separation^[1]. Furthermore, contributing to the understanding of lead chalcogenides, in 1979, Preier presented a comprehensive overview of lead chalcogenides used in diode lasers, summarizing the state-of-the-art knowledge at that time^[2].

In recent years, beginning in 2009, there has been a resurgence of interest in IV-VI semiconductors. This renewed attention can be attributed to Ref. [3] for reporting unusual band gap evolution in $Pb_{1-x}Sn_xTe$ due to band inversion. Additionally, the theoretical prediction by Fu proposed the existence of topologically protected surface states arising from the rock-salt crystal structure, particularly emphasizing the 110 mirror symmetry and strong spin-orbit coupling^[4]. Experimental validations of this theoretical framework were subsequently conducted using angle-resolved photoemission spectroscopy, revealing the presence of the topological crystalline insulator (TCI) phase characterized by a linear dispersion of topological surface states^[5-8]. This study focuses on the influence of chemical composition, precisely the $Pb_{1-x}Sn_xTe$ substitutional solid solution. In the low x range, topologically trivial (open gap) states are observed, while in the high x range, non-trivial (closed gap) states prevail. The emergence of these states is associated with band inversion,

a phenomenon induced by changes in temperature, pressure, or chemical composition. Our investigation concentrates on the latter, exploring the effects of varying *x*.

Within the TCI phase, coexisting with gapless surface states, the bulk states exhibit typical behavior. Band closing occurs at a critical x_c under defined conditions, leading to an inverted band symmetry. Beyond this critical value, an increase in x results in an augmented band gap. Consequently, manipulating the cations ratio provides a straightforward means to control the TCI state. The transition from PbTe (band gap of 0.32 eV) to SnTe (inverted band gap of 0.18 eV) at room temperature is exemplified by the change in x from 1 to 0^[9]. Within the virtual crystal approximation, the expected point of band closing is approximately $x \approx 0.64$.

Exploring the work function and electron affinity of the material stands as a fundamental approach to gauging the behavior of the band gap^[10] in these ternary compounds. Various methodologies^[11, 12] have been employed to ascertain the work function, encompassing diverse techniques such as Kelvin probe, photoemission, secondary electrons^[13], and secondary ions^[14–16]. The approach involving secondary ions relies on pinpointing the initial point of their energy distribution. The discernible shift in energy distribution, indicative of alterations in potential between the sample and the energy analyzer, furnishes a real-time avenue for determining variations in the work function^[14–16].

This study investigates deviations of the SIMS signal ratio of [Sn, Pb]/Te from its anticipated linear relationship. This analysis entails scrutinizing variations in secondary ion signals in response to sample composition changes. The alterations in the work function and electron affinity of the material are associated with band gap changes in Pb_{1-x}Sn_xTe. Hence, the utility of the SIMS signal ratio, coupled with an investigation into the shift in the energy distribution of secondary ions, is evaluated as a method for predicting these band gap changes.

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Fig. 1. (Colour online) The assumed tin profiles (black curves) along the growth direction in individual $Pb_{1-x}Sn_xTe$ graded samples (numbered from #1 to #4). A value of d = 0 corresponds to the surface. The red and blue solid lines represent the Sn depth profile as measured by SIMS using negative and positive secondary ions, respectively. Horizontal dashed grey lines correspond to values in cladding layers with constant chemical composition. The differences in x between negative and positive SIMS results may result from a disturbance of the element's abundance in MBE source materials. Calibration curves for x in $Pb_{1-x}Sn_xTe$ are calculated from isotope ions measurements^[17].

2. Experimental

The experiments utilised a custom-built molecular beam epitaxy (MBE) system to grow ternary $Pb_{1-x}Sn_xTe$ semiconductor compounds across the entire composition spectrum, ranging from x = 0 to x = 1. The growth processes were meticulously executed under ultra-high vacuum conditions, maintaining a base pressure of 10^{-9} mbar, employing binary SnTe, and elemental Pb and Te sources. Two distinct substrates were used: n-GaAs(100) for SIMS measurements and insulating BaF₂(100) for Hall effect measurements. The thickness of the layers varied from 0.4 to 0.8 μ m.

To analyze the chemical composition of the samples, an energy-dispersive X-ray spectrometer (Oxford Instruments) was employed, operating at an accelerating voltage of 15 kV. The concentration of carriers was investigated through Hall effect measurements conducted at room temperature.

This study involves two distinct series of $Pb_{1-x}Sn_xTe$ samples (1st and 2nd series), each serving a specific purpose: 1st series—the chemically homogeneous samples detailed in a prior study^[17] consists of samples with incrementally increasing Sn content (*x* values of 0 to 1). Each sample has a different and fixed Sn composition, allowing us to study the discrete effects of Sn content on the material's band structure used in analysing the SIMS signal ratio. In addition to the chemically homogeneous samples, the 2nd series consists of samples where Sn content varies gradually within each sample, called "graded samples". This is intended to observe continuous changes in the band structure properties within a single sample for energy distribution analysis by SIMS. Fig. 1 presents the designed profiles of the *x* value in the graded

samples alongside experimental depth profiles for both negative and positive secondary ions. It shows the variation in Sn content within each sample, helping us investigate the gradual changes in the work function and band structure within a single sample.

Notably, observable perturbations in the experimental data near the surface (close to d = 0) are attributed to the presence of contaminants and oxides^[18].

SIMS measurements were performed using a system equipped with a CAMECA IMS6F magnetic sector instrument, with detailed measurement conditions outlined in Ref. [17]. The elements' signal ratios were considered to standardise the measurement conditions, with the tellurium ions signal serving as a constant reference throughout the experiment (1st series).

In SIMS, energy scan or energy distribution entails adjusting the voltage applied to the sample during measurement, typically within a range of approximately –150 to 150 V. Due to software limitations, each potential adjustment was constrained to 1 eV. To enhance energy resolution, the sample potential was manually fine-tuned in 0.16 V increments around –4.5 or 4.5 kV for negative and positive secondary ions, respectively, while SIMS signals were recorded. This progressive potential correction was executed during the sputtering process of the graded samples, corresponding to changes in the compound's chemical composition. The samples were exposed to a uniform beam of cesium ions, and measurements were conducted once the dynamic equilibrium of cesium concentration on the sample surface was attained (2nd series). SRIM software was utilized to simulate the depth



Fig. 2. Schematic representation of the energy of the valence band maximum (E_{VBM}), conduction band minimum (E_{CBM}), and Fermi level (E_F) relative to the vacuum level (E_{vac}). Here, A_m , ϕ , and I_m represent the electron affinity of the material, work function, and ionization potential of the material, respectively.

affected by Cs ions, estimated at 10 nm, with the maximum Cs content in the steady-state depth range set at 8 at.%. The variation in the work function (ϕ) or electron affinity (A) of the material is discerned through shifts in the energy distribution of secondary ions associated with the sputtering of the graded sample. In instances where ion yields are also indicative of changes in ϕ and A, the ratios of simple ion signals (Sn, Pb)⁻/Te⁻ and (Sn, Pb)⁺/Te⁺ are examined for the chemically homogeneous samples.

3. Results

The work function, ionization potential, and electron affinity stand as pivotal electronic properties of solids (refer to Fig. 2). The work function (ϕ) denotes the minimum energy required to eject an electron from the surface of a solid and transfer it into the vacuum, equivalent to the energy disparity between the vacuum level and the Fermi level (E_F). Meanwhile, the electron affinity of the material (A_m) signifies the energy difference between the vacuum level and the conduction band minimum. On the other hand, the ionization energy (I_m) represents the discrepancy between the vacuum level and the valence band maximum. These parameters undergo modifications upon the addition of extra atoms or molecules on the surface^[19, 20].

The absorption of alkali metals on the surface has been observed to reduce the work function, as demonstrated in previous studies^[20, 21]. Research by Gnaser delves into the incorporation of cesium on surfaces, exploring its impact on both positive and negative ion emissions. This investigation probes the correlation between ion emission and ionization probability, elucidating the effects of work-function alterations^[14, 15].

Attempts to estimate the work function using secondary ion analysis were made by Blaise and Slodzian, who measured the energy distribution of sputtered ions^[22]. In 1999, Yamazaki *et al.* investigated the influence of work function on ionization efficiency in the SIMS method. This study involved boron implantation into silicon and represents pioneering experimentation to estimate changes in the work function with varying chemical compositions^[16]. Yu discussed in his



Fig. 3. (Colour online) Dependence of the intrinsic holes concentration on the Sn content of the $Pb_{1-x}Sn_xTe$ grown on BaF_2 . The black solid dots are the data points taken directly from the hall effect measurement and the red dashed line represents a fitting function.

book the two critical energy factors of sputtered atoms: ionization potential and electron affinity, concerning both positive and negative ionization probability^[19].

The probability of the secondary ionization process exhibits an exponential relationship with the work function and electron affinity of the material^[16, 19, 23, 24]. In the case of n-type semiconductors, where the Fermi level aligns near the edge of the conduction band, the work function closely aligns with the electron affinity of the material. Conversely, in p-type semiconductors, where the Fermi level resides near the edge of the valence band, the work function consistently surpasses the electron affinity of the material.

3.1. Carrier concentration

In $Pb_{1-x}Sn_xTe$ compounds grown without intentionally introducing an excess of cations, the predominant carriers are linked with metal (Pb or Sn) vacancies, leading to p-type conductivity. The carrier concentration was measured using Hall effect measurement at room temperature to ensure consistency with the conditions used for SIMS measurements. The concentration of holes exhibits a logarithmic increase with *x* in Pb_{1-x}Sn_xTe. Fig. 3 illustrates the intrinsic carrier concentration in chemically homogeneous thin films as a function of Sn content. The hole concentration in the non-graded samples utilized in this study conforms to the relationship depicted in Fig. 3. The red dashed line in the figure represents the trend that fits the experimental data.

Within a framework of a simple three-band model useful in IV-VI's, the bands are successively filled with holes—in the first step, four L bands (high electron mass), followed by twelve Σ bands (low electron mass). This results in a nonlinear dependence of Fermi energy in the function of hole concentration. An example of such behavior is experimentally shown in PbTe:Tl, where a rapid increase in E_F from about 30 meV is observed at lower hole concentrations (up to ~4 × 10¹⁹ cm⁻³), followed by a flattening with an average $E_F \approx$ 90 meV at higher hole concentrations^[25].

3.2. Model for probability of secondary ions creation

Understanding ionization probability involves examining its dependence on the electronic properties of both the sputtered particles and the substrate's material. This probability determines the chance that a sputtered particle will become a charged ion, either positive or negative. Studies have demon-
Table 1. E	Basic properties	of the elements	used in this work.
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Fig. 4. (Colour online) SIMS signal as a function of sample potential corresponding to the energy of the positive (a) and negative (b) Sn and Te secondary ions.

strated that ionization probability for the sputtered atoms of a metallic substrate can be explained by the electronic properties of both atoms and the substrate's material^[24]. Extensive research by Yu^[19] has demonstrated that ionization probability changes exponentially with ϕ as the surface is covered by cesium during the sputtering. Additionally, parameters such as electron affinity for negative ions and ionization probability, which exhibits an exponential dependence^[24].

The theoretical foundation of our method in the case of semiconductor is based on the ionization probabilities of negatively and positively charged particles as a function of the work function and electron affinity, according to the following equations:

$$P^{-} \sim e^{A_{\rm e} - \phi}, \qquad (1)$$

$$P^+ \sim e^{A_{\rm m}-I_{\rm e}}.$$
 (2)

Here, A_e denotes the electron affinity of the element, and I_e represents the first ionization potential of the sputtered atoms. Parameters of the studied elements are outlined in Table 1. Changes in chemical composition typically influence the band gap energy, thereby concurrently impacting ϕ and A_m . This relationship is generally linear, barring materials that exhibit band gap bowing^[23]. Any irregularities should be discernible in the SIMS signal ratio.

Our method utilizes the energy distribution of secondary ions (see Experimental Section) to measure the sample's potential changes as shifts in the energy distribution scan provided by the SIMS method. These changes can be interpreted as variations in the work function and electron affinity when measuring negative or positive secondary ions, respectively, while the material composition gradually changes. The observed changes are described using Eqs. (1) and (2).

In ternary $Pb_{1-x}Sn_xTe$ compound, both above-mentioned parameters are expected to deviate from linear



Fig. 5. (Colour online) SIMS signal ratio of the negative ions as a function of x in $Pb_{1-x}Sn_xTe$. The grey lines indicate the fit of linear functions (in log-scale) for two sets of experimental points for low and high x ranges. The vertical lines mark the intersection points of the fitting functions for Sn^-/Te^- and Pb^-/Te^- in red and blue, respectively.

behaviour at a certain critical value of *x* where the band crossing is observed^[5]. It has been demonstrated that monitoring the shifts in energy distributions of secondary ions can offer a real-time method for evaluating $\Delta \phi$ for the material^[16]. Fig. 4 depicts an example of the energy scan distribution obtained from the SIMS technique for one of the graded samples described in the Experimental Section (see Fig. 1).

3.3. Analysis of negative secondary ions

Fig. 5 illustrates the SIMS Sn⁻/Te⁻ and Pb⁻/Te⁻ signal ratios as a function of Sn content. It is apparent that owing to its higher electron affinity (see Table 1), the signal ratio associated with Sn ions surpasses that of Pb ions^[17].

In the lower x range, the reduction in Pb content leads to an increased probability of secondary ionization, resulting in a gradual variation in the Pb⁻/Te⁻ signal ratio. This gradual variation suggests that the increase in ionization probability is due to a decrease in the work function, as outlined in Eq. (1).

A significant decline in the Pb⁻/Te⁻ SIMS signal ratio observed at $x \approx 0.55$ marks the point where the work function begins to rise. This change indicates a transition from a decreasing to an increasing work function beyond this *x* composition. In contrast, the Sn⁻/Te⁻ signal ratio shows a breaking point at $x \approx 0.4$, which differs from the Pb⁻/Te⁻ ratio (refer to Fig. 5). This divergence highlights a different behavior in work function changes as a function of Sn content.

Analogous conclusions can be inferred from the behavior of the secondary ion distribution, as depicted in the energy scan (refer to Fig. 6). As the work function diminishes with increasing x within a low x range, the energy requisite for electron release from the surface gradually decreases. Consequently, an abrupt surge in secondary ion signal is observed at a lower sample potential (refer to Fig. 4).

Furthermore, Fig. 6 illustrates that the potential value continues to decrease until it reaches approximately x = 0.57. Beyond this critical point, a reversal occurs, indicating an increase in the potential, signifying a rise in the work function and a subsequent decline in the probability of negative ionization.

In summary, the shift in the energy distribution of negative secondary ions aligns with the variations in the work func-



Fig. 6. (Colour online) Estimated values of the sample potential change (representing the shift in the energy distribution of the ion signal) corresponding to the change in the relative work function for negative secondary ions in graded samples as a function of *x* in $Pb_{1-x}Sn_xTe$. The initial points are on the horizontal grey line at $\Delta V = 0$. The spans of *x* value correspond to the change of *x* in the experimental depth profiles Fig. 1.



Fig. 7. (Colour online) SIMS signal ratio of the positive ions as a function of x in $Pb_{1-x}Sn_xTe$. The grey lines indicate the fit of linear functions (in log-scale) for two sets of experimental points for low and high x ranges. The vertical lines mark the intersection points of the fitting functions for Sn⁺/Te⁺ and Pb⁺/Te⁺ in red and blue, respectively.

tion as Sn content changes in the material. This suggests that the SIMS signal ratio provides a more precise method for estimating changes in the work function compared to the energy scan.

3.4. Analysis of positive secondary ions

Fig. 7 presents the Sn^+/Te^+ and Pb^+/Te^+ SIMS signal ratios as functions of Sn content. When the sample is positively polarized, electrons are drawn towards the surface. Hence, the electron affinity of the material assumes a crucial role in determining the ionization probability.

The experimental data reveal a rapid rise in the Sn⁺/Te⁺ signal ratio within the low *x* range, corresponding to the increase in Sn content and the enhancement of the material's electron affinity. Around x = 0.42, a trend change is observed in the Sn⁺/Te⁺ signal ratio, similar to that observed for negative ions. This alteration is linked to a decrease in the electron affinity of the material, resulting in a reduction in the rate of increase in the probability of positive ionization, as described by Eq. (2). The behavior of the Pb⁺/Te⁺ signal ratio parallels that of the negative ions (refer to Fig. 5), as the increment in Pb⁺ stems from A_m .



Fig. 8. (Colour online) Estimated values of the sample potential change (representing the shift in the energy distribution of the ion signal) corresponding to the change in the relative electron affinity for positive secondary ions in graded samples as a function of *x* in $Pb_{1-x}Sn_xTe$. The initial points are on the horizontal grey line at $\Delta V = 0$. The spans of *x* value correspond to the change of *x* in the experimental depth profiles Fig. 1.



Fig. 9. Schematic representation of the PbTe/SnTe heterostructure arranged from the highest (A) to the lowest (E) possible band-offsets. The bottom and upper bars reflect the valence and conduction bands, respectively. Dark grey bars correspond to PbTe (reference), and light grey denotes the SnTe. Cases (B–D) show band-offsets in typical quantum wells type I and II. The VL is a vacuum level.

Similar conclusions can be drawn from analysing the energy distribution for positive secondary ions, as depicted in Fig. 8. As the Sn content in the material increases, the electron affinity also rises, leading to a gradual increase in the energy gain resulting from electron capture from the vacuum near the surface. Consequently, more positive ions are generated. The positive potential required to attract electrons decreases until the maximum electron affinity is attained. Beyond this point, the electron affinity decreases, reversing the trend and resulting in a decline in the probability of positive ionization. This behavior is illustrated in Fig. 8, where the rate of potential increase far exceeds the rate of decrease. It is noteworthy that the ionization potential of positive secondary ions remains constant throughout the experiment, as it is a characteristic parameter of the atoms.

Regarding potential alterations, the conduction band minimum (related to electron affinity) decreases until a critical point of approximately x = 0.62, then increases with higher Sn content. Conversely, the valence band maximum (associ-



Fig. 10. (Colour online) Schematic representation of the band structure evolution of the $Pb_{1-x}Sn_xTe$ in cases B and C. The diagram illustrates the changes in the valence band maximum (VBM) and conduction band minimum (CBM) as the composition x varies from 0 (pure PbTe) to 1 (pure SnTe). The red line represents the VBM, while the black line represents the CBM. The grey-shaded areas highlight the energy gaps between the valence and conduction bands for each composition, demonstrating how the band structure evolves with increasing Sn content.

ated with the work function) rises until the same critical point and then declines. The findings lead us to propose a potential band offset model for this $Pb_{1-x}Sn_xTe$, depicted in Fig. 9, particularly types B and C (Fig. 10), aids in identifying which scenario aligns with our data. This provides insights to predict the band offset model for $Pb_{1-x}Sn_xTe$.

In summary, the shift observed in the distribution of positive secondary ions corresponds to changes in the electron affinity of the material as the Sn content varies within the graded ternary compound. However, unlike the pronounced changes observed in negative secondary ions, the results of the potential shift for positive secondary ions do not exhibit significant variations. This discrepancy can be attributed to the relatively small differences in the electron affinity of the material compared to the work function for negative secondary ions. These subtle changes in electron affinity approach the limit of the SIMS potential resolution step, which is approximately 0.16 V.

4. Discussion

We attribute the uniqueness of the SIMS signal ratio to the band-crossing phenomenon within the $Pb_{1-x}Sn_xTe$ system. Properties such as work function, electron affinity, and ionization potential, which significantly influence the ionization of sputtered atoms, can profoundly impact the observation of band gap behavior in $Pb_{1-x}Sn_xTe$. To gain a deeper understanding of our results, we aim to consider and address potential factors affecting their interpretation.

• Cesium, an element in the alkali metal group typically employed as p-type dopants in IV - VI semiconductors, warrants attention. However, as elucidated in Ref. [26], alkali metals larger than potassium are unsuitable dopants in bulk Pb_{1-x}Sn_xTe due to ion size and associated steric effects.

• It is widely acknowledged that variations in the x value, temperature, or pressure influence the band crossing position in $Pb_{1-x}Sn_xTe$. Additionally, this position can be altered by introducing an extra element. Isoelectronic elements typically induce modifications in the band gap (E_g), and transition metals can play a similar role. A noteworthy case is that of $Pb_{1-x-y}Sn_xMn_yTe$, where an increase in the band gap with the Mn content is observed^[27]. Consequently, a shift of the band crossing to higher values of x is anticipated^[28]. These considerations suggest that shifting the cross-

ing point towards smaller values of x can be achieved by reducing E_g on the PbTe side (conversely, increasing the absolute value of E_g on the SnTe side). However, in our experiment, such a scenario—namely, a change in chemical composition—does not occur.

• The authors in Ref. [28] highlight that within the virtual crystal approximation, the transition from trivial to non-trivial topological phase is not sharp but rather broadened, potentially spanning a range of $\Delta x \approx 0.2$.

• Importantly, besides the bulk states, high-density surface states are observed in the topological crystalline insulator (TCI) phase in $Pb_{1-x}Sn_xTe^{[7]}$. However, as mentioned in the Experimental Section, the surface is strongly modified by cesium. Hence, we do not anticipate TCI surface states as a component influencing the ionization probabilities.

• The carrier concentration increases logarithmically with the x value, and the Fermi level is a function of carrier concentration. However, even at x = 1, i.e., for binary SnTe with $p \approx 2 \times 10^{21}$ cm⁻³, only the L-band is filled with holes, according to the three-band model mentioned in the Results Section. Therefore, we neglect any potential influence of the Σ band on the slope of the SIMS signal ratio in our results.

• The change in slope observed at different x values for Sn and Pb, as indicated by the span between vertical lines in Fig. 5 and Fig. 7, may be attributed to:

(i) Competition to form SnCs and PbCs clusters over the sample surface, which influences the abundance of single ions;

($i\bar{i}$) Differences in the abundance of collected Sn or Pb isotopes;

(iii) Disparities in ionization potential and electron affinity for positive and negative (Sn or Pb) ions, respectively;

(iv) Chemical reactions during the sputtering process, which may enhance or diminish the ion yield at x = 0.5.

5. Conclusions

This study offers a comprehensive examination of the electronic characteristics of $Pb_{1-x}Sn_xTe$ through the innovative application of SIMS. By analyzing the variations in ionization probabilities and observing shifts in the energy distribution of secondary ions, we have garnered significant insights into the compound's behavior. These variations, influenced by critical parameters such as the material's work function and elec-

tron affinity, have provided an invaluable understanding of the underlying mechanisms shaping its electronic structure.

The identified changes in ionization probabilities and shifts in ion energy distribution are intricately linked to the energy gap's position relative to the vacuum level across different *x* values within the $Pb_{1-x}Sn_xTe$ compound. Particularly noteworthy are the pronounced alterations observed around critical points indicative of band-gap behavior, highlighting the method's sensitivity to subtle band variations. These discoveries significantly contribute to our comprehension of $Pb_{1-x}Sn_xTe's$ properties and their potential applications within the domain of topological crystalline insulators.

In essence, the insights gleaned from this study not only enrich our understanding of $Pb_{1-x}Sn_xTe$, but also underscore the effectiveness of SIMS as a potent tool for probing the electronic properties of materials within the topological crystalline insulator class.

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Chapter 5

Conclusions and Outlook

5.1 Addressing the Research Questions

This thesis investigated matrix effects in the SIMS method for analyzing ternary semiconductors, addressing challenges in precise elemental quantification and advancing electronic property characterization. The research focused on answering three core questions, each of which is addressed through the results presented below:

RQ 1: *How do matrix effects impact SIMS measurement accuracy?*

Matrix effects significantly influence SIMS measurements by altering the ionization probabilities of atoms during sputtering. This study demonstrated that in ternary semiconductors such as CdZnO and PbSnTe, variations in secondary ion yields stem from differences in electronic properties, elemental ratios, and chemical bonding. These effects are particularly pronounced in complex structures like heterostructures and superlattices, creating challenges for interpreting raw SIMS data. Without proper calibration, these matrix effects introduce uncertainty into composition measurements.

RQ 2: *How can we overcome matrix effects for precise quantification in SIMS?*

To overcome matrix effects, this research developed and validated novel calibration curves tailored to CdZnO and PbSnTe. These calibration curves provided an accurate method for quantifying elemental content using SIMS signal ratios of matrix elements. Key advancements include:

- Calibration curves reliably determined unknown compositions in ternary semiconductor structures.
- The MCs⁺ cluster approach effectively mitigated matrix effects, improving measurement precision in complex thin films.
- Comparative analysis revealed that while the RSF method is effective for low-content elements (namely dopants), the calibration curve approach is more accurate for high-content elements (namely matrix elements).

RQ 3: What is the role of electronic properties of ternary semiconductors in matrix effects?

The research established a critical link between electronic properties—such as work function and electron affinity—and the manifestation of matrix effects in SIMS. For PbSnTe, variations in secondary ion yields correlated with shifts in the energy distribution of emitted ions. These changes were linked to electronic properties and band gap behavior. Highlights include:

- Significant changes in SIMS signal ratios near the critical band crossing point corresponded to the valence band maximum (VBM) and conduction band minimum (CBM) evolution.
- The study predicted band gap behavior by analyzing ionization probabilities and shifts in secondary ions' energy distribution. This is a novel application for electronic property characterization of ternary semiconductors using the SIMS method.

5.2 General Conclusions

By addressing these research questions, this thesis highlights the transformative potential of SIMS in material characterization by addressing challenges associated with matrix effects and achieving precise elemental quantification in ternary semiconductors. It is important to note that even minor differences in estimating the composition of materials can significantly impact their electrical and optical properties. The precise quantification of matrix composition in ternary compound semiconductors is necessary due to the development of advanced semiconductor technology. Combining innovative calibration techniques with insights into electronic properties, the study significantly advances the understanding and application of SIMS for complex materials.

The main results are summarized as follows:

- A novel approach was developed and improved to create calibration curves by analyzing the SIMS signal ratio of matrix elements in CdZnO and PbSnTe.
- Calibration curves were essential in constructing a formula to calculate unknown amounts of compositions in PbSnTe and CdZnO across varied structures like heterostructures or superlattices, dramatically increasing the accuracy of material analysis.
- The MCs⁺ clusters reduced deviations from ideal calibration curves compared to single ions, effectively mitigating matrix effects and enabling more accurate content determination in complex thin films.

- The study revealed a new application of SIMS in evaluating the energy band gap behavior in ternary compound semiconductors, particularly for $Pb_{1-x}Sn_xTe$ compound with band crossings in its electronic structure.
- By analyzing ionization probabilities and energy distribution shifts of secondary ions and linking them to electronic properties such as work function and electron affinity, this work successfully predicted the band gap behavior of $Pb_{1-x}Sn_xTe$ for the first time by SIMS.
- The evolution of the VBM and CBM as the Sn composition varied from 0 (pure PbTe) to 1 (pure SnTe) was observed, with critical changes in SIMS signal ratios linked to the band crossing position in $Pb_{1-x}Sn_xTe$.
- A comparative analysis between the RSF method and the calibration curve approach in $Cd_{1-x}Zn_xO$ thin films demonstrated that RSF is reliable for low-content elements, but the calibration curve method is much more precise for higher-content elements.
- Discrepancies between calibration curves derived from MS-SIMS and ToF-SIMS instruments were attributed to differences in analyzing beams affecting secondary ion signals. This finding highlights the importance of selecting appropriate techniques for material characterization.

This thesis demonstrated the effectiveness of advanced material characterization techniques, such as SIMS, in accurately quantifying the matrix elements by reducing the impact of the matrix effects. It provides a foundation for applying these techniques to a broader range of materials.

5.3 Outlook

The findings emphasize the importance of accurate composition quantification in ternary compounds for advanced semiconductor devices. While this study focused on CdZnO and PbSnTe, the methodologies and insights can be extended to other ternary and quaternary systems. Future research should focus on:

- Investigating calibration curves for wide band-gap ternary compounds such as MgZnO or AlGaN.
- Studying ternary compounds combining narrow and wide band-gap semiconductors, such as AlInN, to enhance understanding of composition impacts on energy distribution profiles.

- Exploring topological materials with magnetic properties, such as PbSnTe(: Cr: Mn), using SIMS to compare its electronic properties behavior with our results.
- Assessing how matrix effects influence dopant quantification and diffusion characterization, particularly for elements like Cr and Mn in PbSnTe and impurities like H and C in CdZnO.
- Estimation of the dependency of the elemental RSF on the ternary compound composition (RSF calibration curve).
- Continuing research to enhance material performance and achieve precise control over thin-film characteristics, contributing to advancements in applications such as next-generation electronic devices.

This thesis paves the way for future advancements in semiconductor technology, emphasizing the role of precise material characterization in enabling innovative applications.

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