

Low energy ion scattering and scanning tunneling microscopy for surface structure analysis

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Abstract. Low energy ion scattering (ISS) and scanning tunneling microscopy (STM) are powerful tools for the analysis of surface structures. Both techniques are operative in real space. The ion scattering techniques afford quantitative data on surface structure but as spatial averages only. STM provides non-averaged local information but it is not necessarily quantitative. STM provides detailed information on surface defects, e. g. steps, and mesoscopic structures. The two techniques will be compared in the case of (110) surfaces of Au and Pb.

INTRODUCTION

Surface structure analysis has reached a new acra since the invention of the scanning tunneling microscope [1]. This new tool was preceded by approximately 20 years of surface analysis using a large number of different techniques based on different basic phenomena of physics. Au(110) was the first surface found to exhibit reconstruction [2]. Reconstruction means, the actual surface is in a regular way different from the crystallographic structure of an equivalent plane in the bulk of the material. If the surface plane is equal in structure to the equivalent planes in the bulk, the situation is called "bulk terminated". Additionally to reconstruction there is a change of lattice parameters such that the planar distance between the outermost layer and the second layer, is changed. In most materials the change is a reduction called "contraction". The "standard data" for Au(110) are: the surface is (1x2) reconstructed with a contraction of 0.29Å and a lateral shift in the [001] direction of the [110]



FIGURE 1: Model (perspective view) of a regular fcc (110) surface and of (1x2) reconstructed surface. The reconstructed phase has been named "missing row" structure.

rows in the 2nd layer by 0.14Å [3]. Fig. 1 shows a model of a regular (1x1) surface of a fcc metal and a (1x2) reconstructed surface. For obvious reasons this structure is called "missing row" structure. Beside on Au (110) this type of reconstruction is also found on Pt(110).

STRUCTURE OF THE Au(110) SURFACE: ISS-RESULTS

The data presented have been published in the past in a number of papers. With respect to structural data good agreement was obtained with the LEED data [3, 4, 5]. Fig. 2 [6, 7] shows experimental ISS spectra in comparison with calculated spectra using the code MARLOWE. The code includes a simulation of the thermal displacement of the surface atoms. The "philosophy" is equivalent to the LEED analysis, i. e. a surface structure model is used based on the so called R-factor analysis. Best agreement is reached with the Moritz and Wolf model [4, 5]. The "saw tooth" model [8] e. g. is by all means not satisfactory (Fig. 2). For further details see the original papers [6, 7].

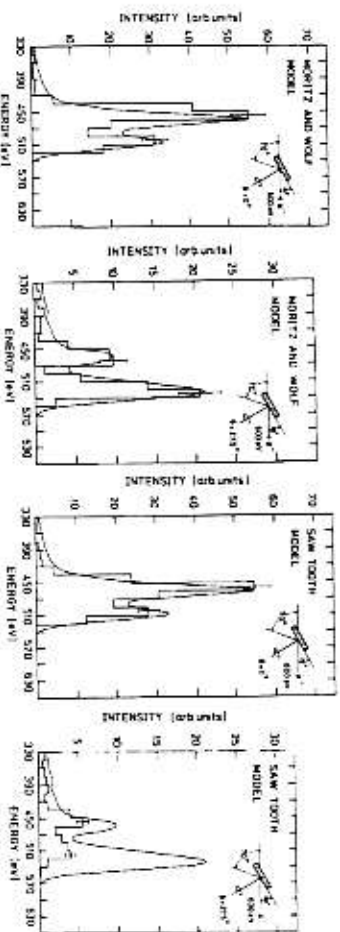


FIGURE 2: Comparison of experimental ion scattering spectra of K₁ scattered from Au(110)(1x2) [6] in comparison with calculated spectra (histograms)[7]. The calculated spectra are obtained from the structural models of Moritz and Wolf [4, 5] and the saw tooth model [8] respectively.

It is worth mentioning that the LEED analysis [4, 5, 9] is judged not only the "standard structural" data but also a detailed analysis of possible "defects" on fcc (110) surfaces, which includes (1x1), (1x2), (1x3), ... islands bordered by the necessary steps which connect the different areas. In short, the LEED analysis led to a real space surface which is dominated by the (sqrt(2)) reconstruction, but is organised in a mesa-like pattern with average dimensions of about 60Å along the [110] direction and of about 30Å along [001]. It would have been interesting to have had an "in situ" STM analysis of the same surface,

because recent STM results show much larger terraces in average [10, 11, 12] and obviously, there are no extended [001] steps. The surface forms the so called "fish" scale pattern.

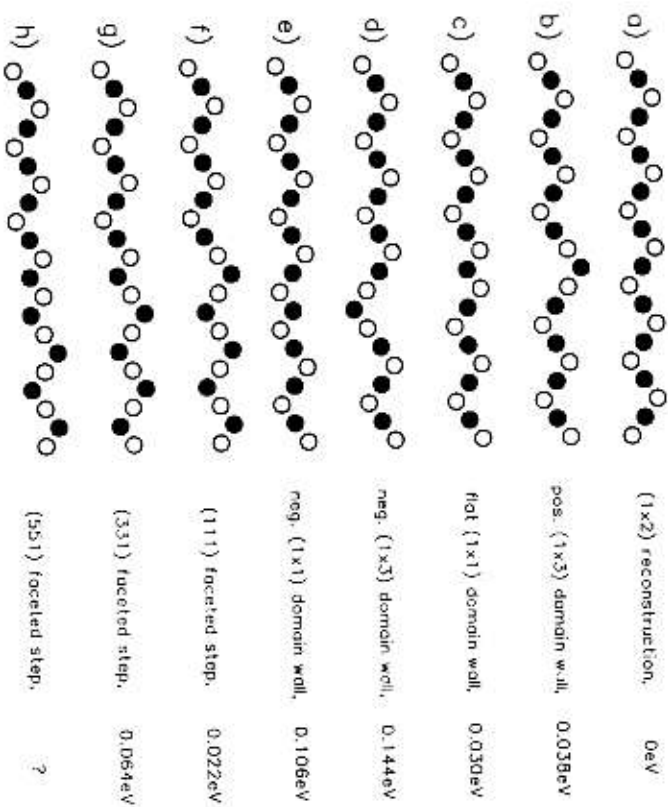


FIGURE 3: Defect structures (side view) of the (1×2) reconstructed fcc (110) surface with creation energies per atom (glue model [28])

In the course of our ion scattering work we used also another approach, i.e. the NICISS variation (Neutral Impact Collision Ion Scattering Spectrometry) [13, 14, 15]. The method is based on the classical shadow cone effect [16]. Fig. 4 shows results of intensity vs glancing angle of incidence experiments in comparison with "2 atom-model" calculations [17]. The critical angle which we locate at 0.8 of the intensity is a direct measure of the shadow cone radius at the interatomic distance of the surface chain of atoms in question or viceversa [14, 18]. The broadening towards smaller impact angles is a measure for the thermal displacements of the atoms. These displacements can be accurately modelled using the Debye-theory [14]. This is included in the calculations the results of which are the solid lines in Figs. 4. The agreement of experiments and calculation is better than 10^{-4} in most cases (least square deviations). The results of the NICISS experiments are summarized in Fig. 5 which shows the intensities related to "perfect" [110] chains, to vacancies in the chains and to larger defects. The appearance of the larger defects at about 650K,

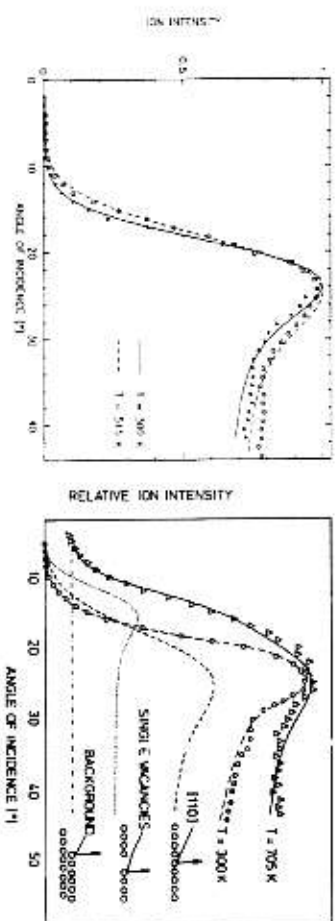


FIGURE 4: Ion scattering results from Au(110) at low temperatures and above the phase transition temperature $T_c = 650$ K. The ion intensities are yields from a NICISS experiment, i.e. double differential spectra with respect to angle and energy making use of the shadow cone effect. Lines are calculated from a two atom model. [17]

(the destruction temperature of the (1×2) structure) [19] is in agreement with the temperature of the roughening transition predicted theoretically [20] and found experimentally [17, 21]. That is, we relate the appearance of the large defects (Fig. 3) with roughening.

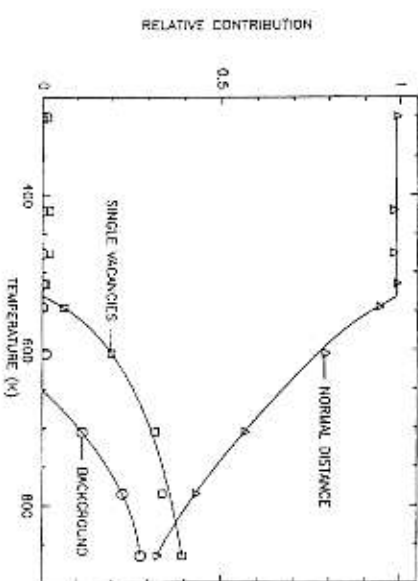


FIGURE 5: Relative contributions of the ion yields in the experiments of Fig. 4 as a function of the target temperature. The different contributions are visualized in the inset [17].

The experimental data for the [001] direction show no evidence for other periodicities than (1×2) and a qualitative similar temperature dependence. En passant we mention ISS results for Pt(110) [13, 14, 22] and Ir(110) [23, 24]. In the Pt(110) case (room temperature results only) there is also clear evidence for the missing row structure. The reconstruction is accompanied

by contraction between the first and second layer. The order of the Pt(110) surface is apparently better than that of Au(110) in agreement with STM results [10]. In the Ir(110) case other periodicities are found, i. e. (1x3) mainly mixed with (1x1) and some (1x2). There are also more large defects present at room temperature compared to Au and Pt. In the case of Ir(110) there is also evidence for roughening at about the structure transition temperature of 1050K [25].

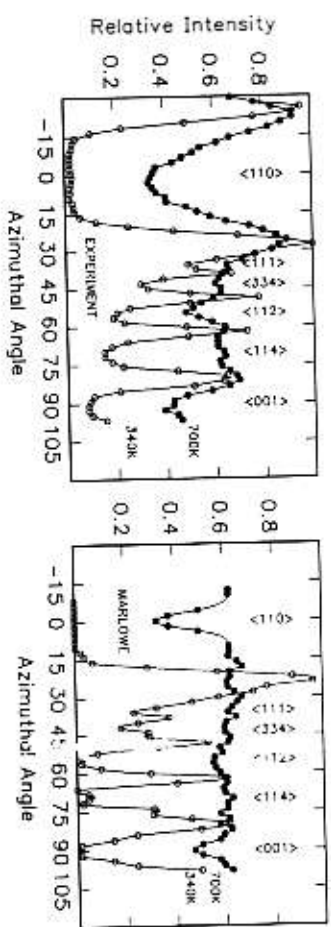


FIGURE 6: Azimuthal dependence of the ion intensity from Au(110)(1x2) at room temperature and above $T_c = 650$ K, i. e. the phase transition temperature. Each data point is the ion yield of double differential spectrum with respect to angle and energy.

In the last section of this paragraph we will address the question: what does the Au(110) surface actually look like above the transition temperature of 650K? We have one answer from ion scattering [26, 27] and one from theory [28] the ion scattering results are obtained using the “blocking-effect”, i. e. the beam is incident grazing onto the surface and the ion spectrometer is placed at some large angle of scattering. In the experiment only the azimuthal angle is varied. The result (Fig. 6) is an intensity distribution reflecting the real space periodicity of the crystal, i. e. all low index surface directions cause a minimum in the intensity because all particles are channeled essentially into the specular angle of scattering. Looking at the channeled particles is useful too, i. e. by means of a position sensitive detector [29, 30, 31]. In the blocking pattern, $I vs \varphi$ plot (Fig. 6), “large” channels give wide minima etc. The minimum yield is a measure for the order of the crystal as is the yield of backscattered ions at small angle of incidence in the $I vs \psi$ plots (Fig. 4). When the temperature is raised the minima change characteristically but without a “sharp” change at 650K, i. e. the behaviour is rather smooth as in Fig. 5. The increase of the minimum intensity shows, however, a threshold behaviour as the intensity attributed to “background” in Fig. 5. We note that the Au(110) above 650K is certainly not liquid like. A liquid surface causes a flat $I vs \varphi$ curve as shown in the case of surface molten Pb(110) [30]. The comparison with the

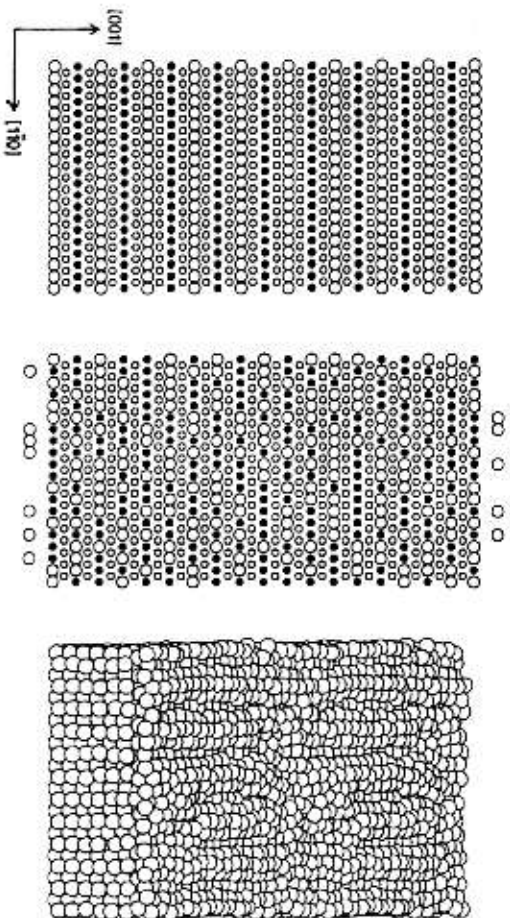


FIGURE 7: Structural models (top view) of the regular (1x2) structure, a “random” model [27], i. e. a randomized $\frac{1}{2}$ monolayer on a regular (1x1) surface, and the disordered structure from glue model calculations [28] (with courtesy of the authors).

MARLOWE [32] results (Fig. 6) is satisfactory at room temperature. The agreement at 700K is bad, probably because the “random” surface model (Fig. 7) used is not the “real” surface structure. We tried other models, e. g. (1x1) with point defects and adatoms, large “anomalous”, thermal vibrations etc. with no better results [26]. Qualitatively, Au(110) above 650K is like the rough Pb(110) surface at 420K [33], the detailed structure of which is not known either. A surface as proposed by theory (Fig. 7 right) [28] has not been tested in comparison with our experiments. The theory is based on a “glue potential” calculation. A previous embedded atom (EAM) calculation shows a breakup of the surface chains as in Fig. 7 (middle) but less single atoms or single vacancies [34].

In summary: The pre-STM experiments give a very accurate structure model of Au(110): a good model for the (1x2) \rightleftharpoons (1x1) phase transitions [21] [35] and some ideas of the disordered surface.

SCANNING TUNNELING MICROSCOPY ON Au(110)

Au(110) was one of the first surfaced probed by STM [35]. The structure was dominantly (1x2) and with practically all the defects expected from the

3 days to get the fish scale pattern with a good developed (1x2) structure. The "critical" phase for the shock cooling is probably the interval between 650K and 515K where we found the vacancy formation to start, i. e. the temperature where the surface mobility is high in agreement with the frizziness results [39]. From our STM results we propose that at the (1x1) \Rightarrow (1x2) phase transition temperature the [110] chains are not completely randomized. This finding agrees qualitatively with the ion scattering result (Fig. 6) which shows "better" [110] channels than expected from a random model.



FIGURE 10: STM image from a rapidly cooled Au(110) surface from above 650K to room temperature with a rate of 50K/min. The surface roughness extends over more than two layers. The dominating lattice constant in the [001] direction corresponds on the lighter patches (2nd layer) to a (1x3) reconstruction, on the dark patches (3d layer) to a (1x2) reconstruction. The irregular lengthly rows (light) of the top layer are oriented parallel to [110] ($500 \times 500 \text{ \AA}^2$, $U_1 = 0.5 \text{ V}$, $I_1 = 0.8 \text{ nA}$).

SUMMARY

The data presented here show clearly that STM is a complementary tool to other surface science techniques including ISS. The strength of STM is the topography information especially about steps and related "defects". Crystallography data are more accurately obtained using pre-STM techniques. High temperature studies may also remain a forbidden realm for STM, since the "capturing" of the tip by the surface atoms under study may be a general effect [40]. A further important difference, as well known as the topography vs crystallography arguments [14], is the difference in "chemical" information. It comes naturally e. g. with ISS, but is rather a weak point of STM.

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