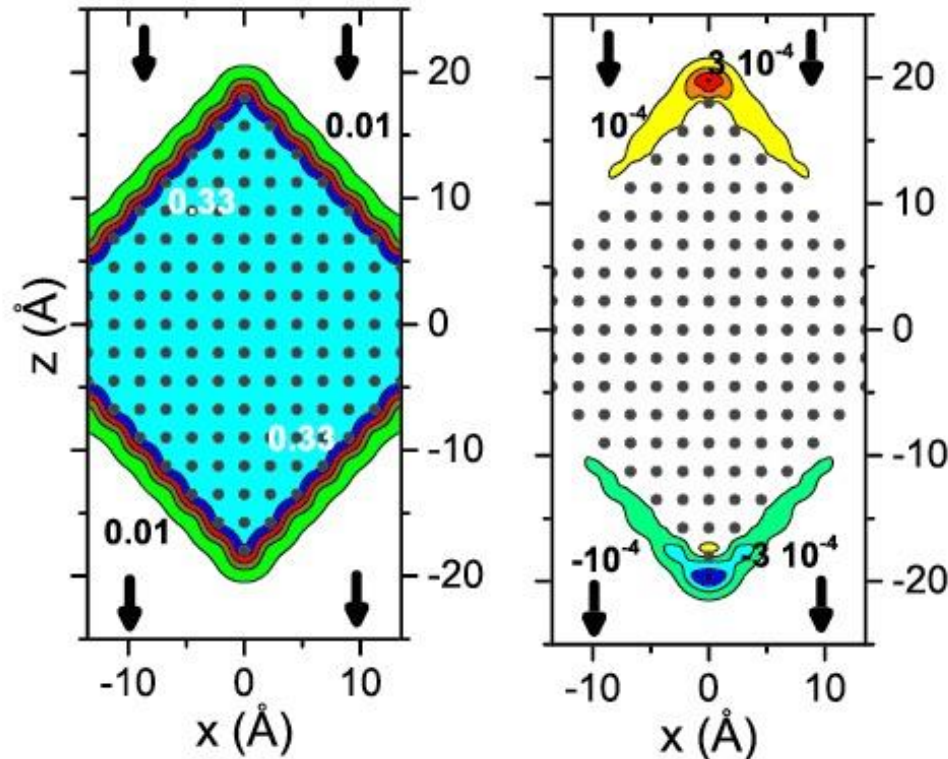


In vacuum breakdown, there seems renewed interest in the details of how electrostatic fields and potentials vary near charged surfaces.

Modern computing techniques, in particular density functional theory (DFT), but also more classical formulations, are now making very useful progress, —particularly with non-planar surfaces.

085105-4 Lepetit, Lemoine, and Márquez-Mijares



J. Lepetit et al, J. Appl. Phys. 120, 085105 (2016).

These authors were aiming to calculate field enhancement factors above “sawtooth” type surfaces, using DFT techniques.

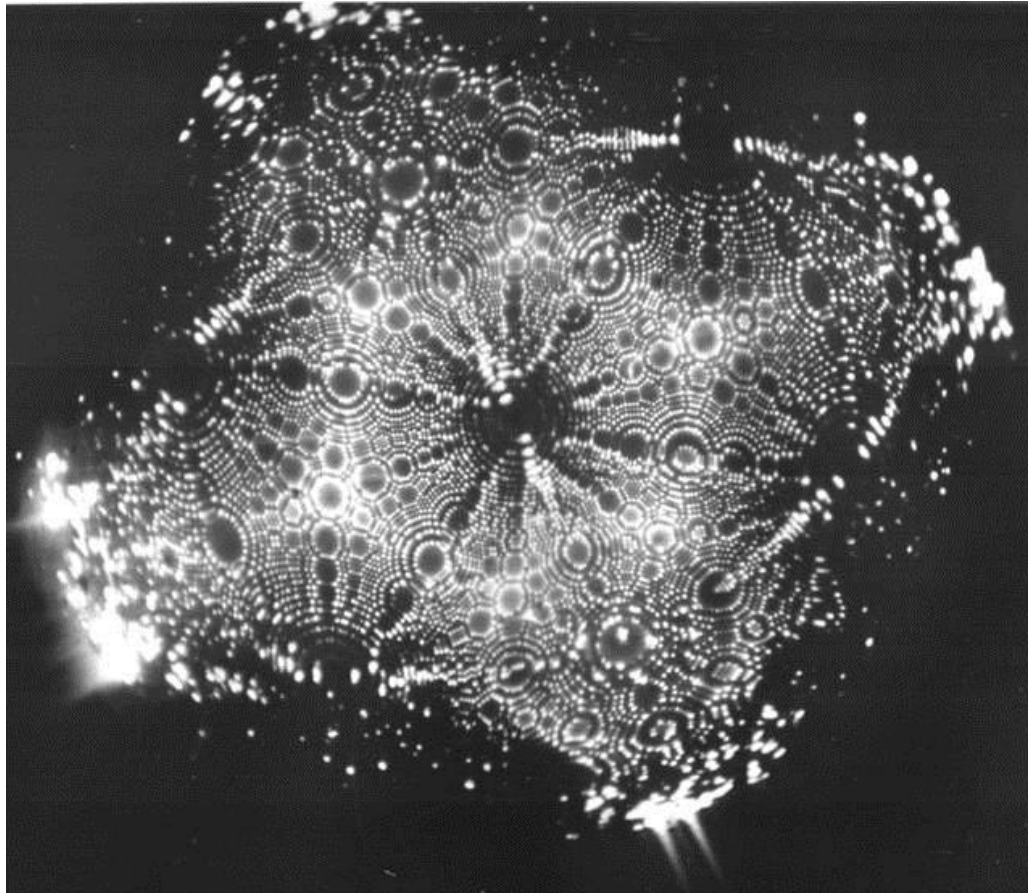
However, similar scientific problems have arisen before, about 50 years ago, in the context of field ion microscopy.

At that time (and until very recently) we could only deal adequately with planar surfaces, but some useful results were obtained.

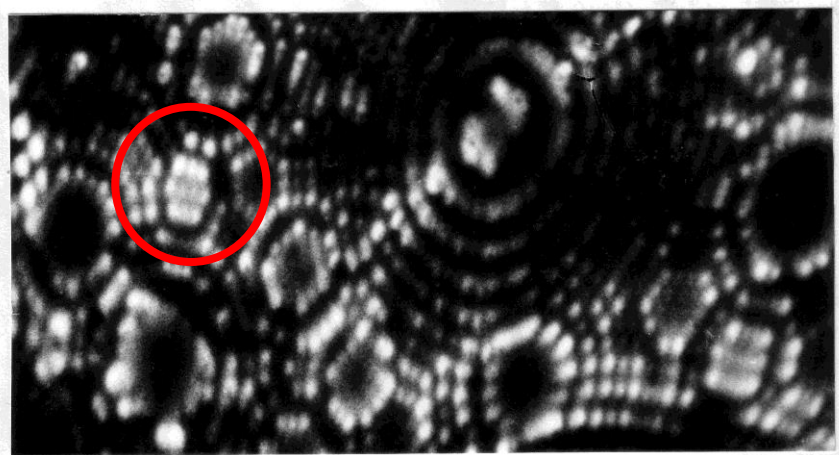
I thought it might be of interest to attempt to relate/compare newer and older theoretical approaches. And to point out that some of the newer techniques could usefully be applied to some of the old problems.

I also consider a question not often asked, namely: exactly where is the tunnelling barrier in field electron emission ?

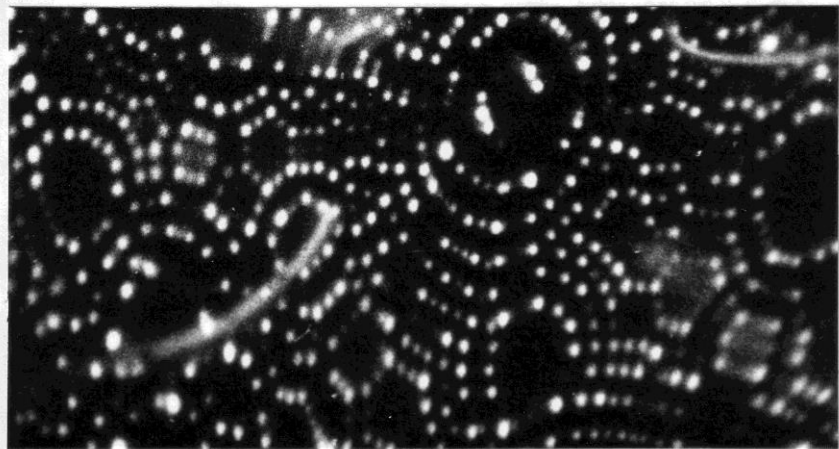
1. **Introductory issues**
2. **The electrical surface and related concepts**
3. **Numerics and comparisons with recent DFT work**
4. **Relation to emission phenomena**



FIM image: Each white spot is a surface atom. The pattern in the image is related to the arrangement of atoms in the tungsten crystal.



Near 80 K

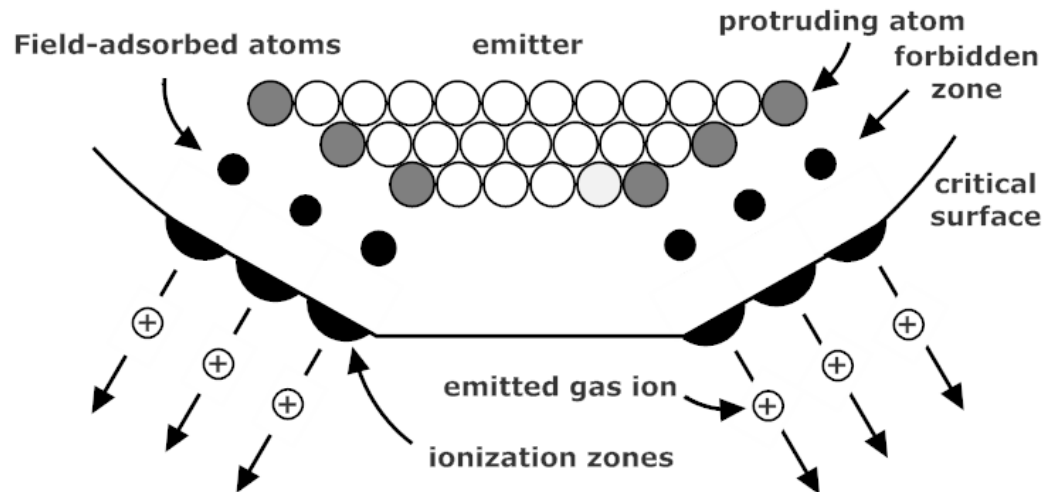


Near 5 K

Adjacent atoms in the (111) plane can be resolved.

Questions for field-ion-microscope (FIM) theory included:

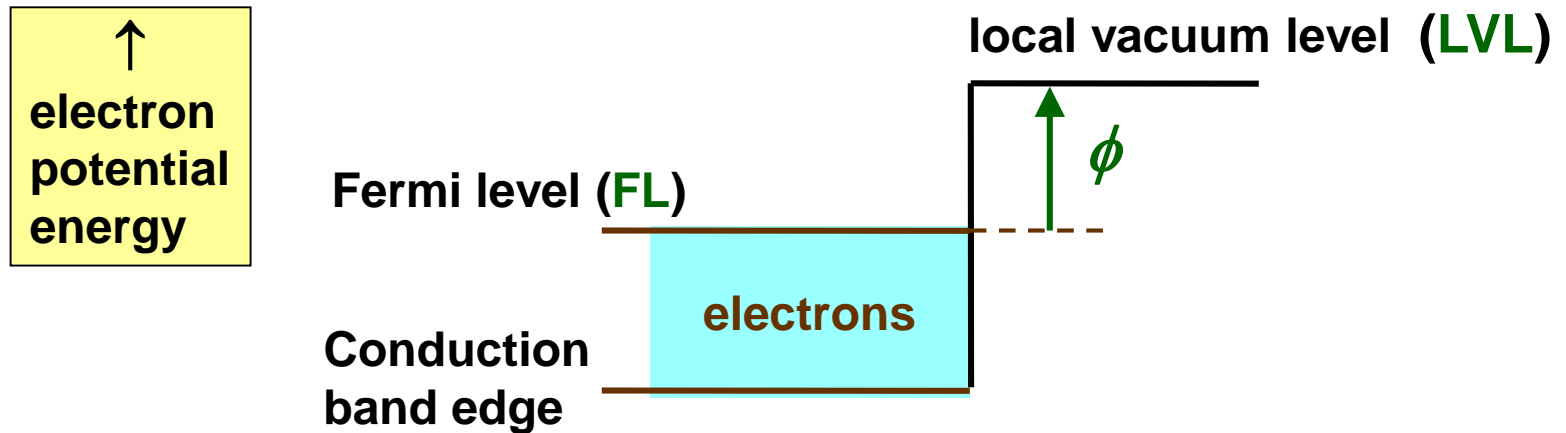
- **How does the microscope work ?**
- **How does it resolve atoms ?**
- **Where does ionization take place ?**



Questions for field-ion-microscope (FIM) theory included:

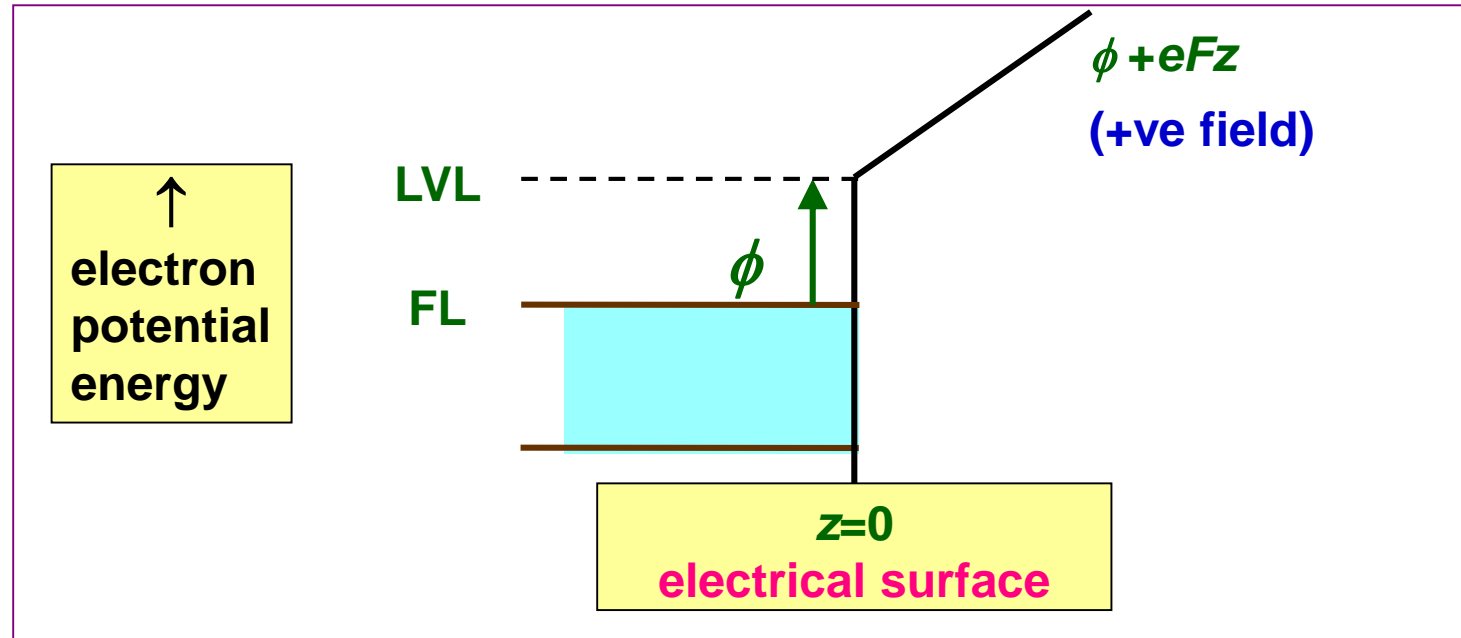
- How does the microscope work ?
- How does it resolve atoms ?
- Where does ionization take place ?
- What is the mechanism of field adsorption ?
- How does field evaporation take place ?

The electrical surface and related concepts



A matter of interest is how the **electrostatic component of the total electron potential energy (EEPE)** varies with position outside a field electron or field ion emitter surface. The argument is initially presented here for a positive field, but the negative-field case is similar.

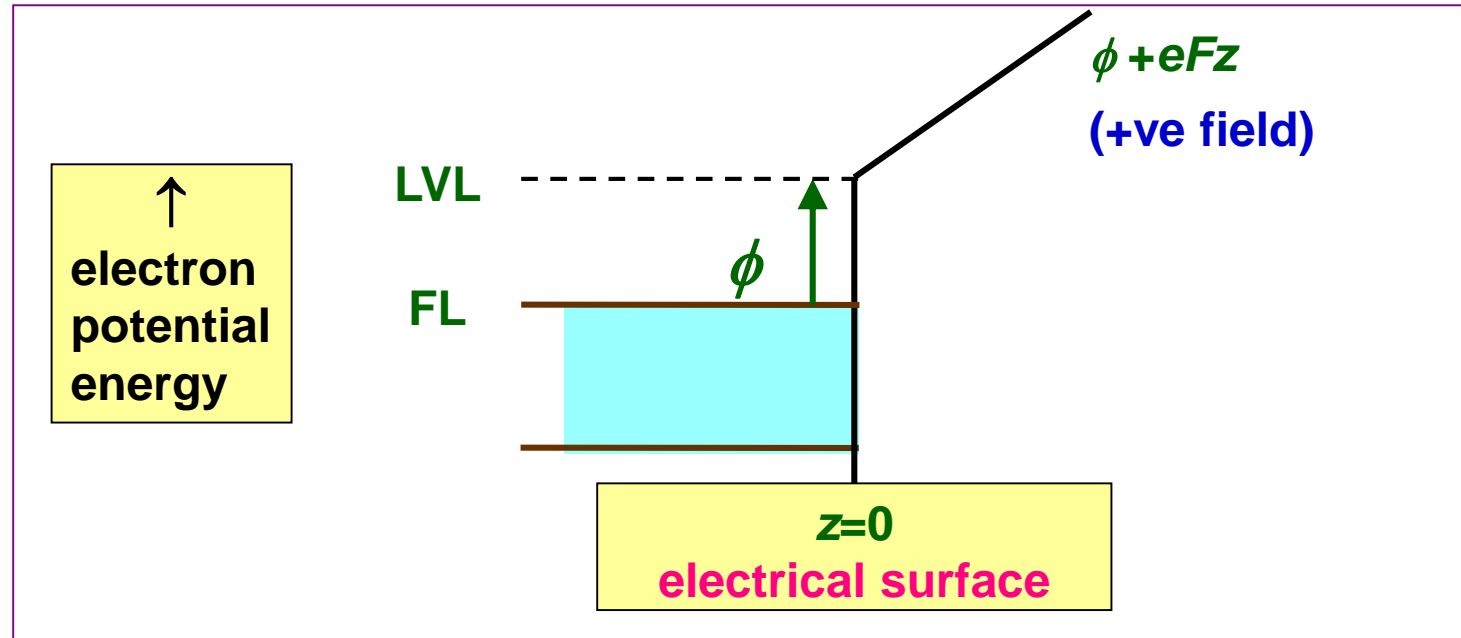
The simple argument starts from the Sommerfeld model, as shown above, where ϕ is the **local work function**.



In the limit of large distances z from the emitter, and relative to the Fermi level, the **EEPE** is constructed to have the form

$$EEPE = \phi + eFz$$

where: **e** is the elementary positive charge;
z is distance measured from the electrical surface;
F is the local electrostatic field (here positive).



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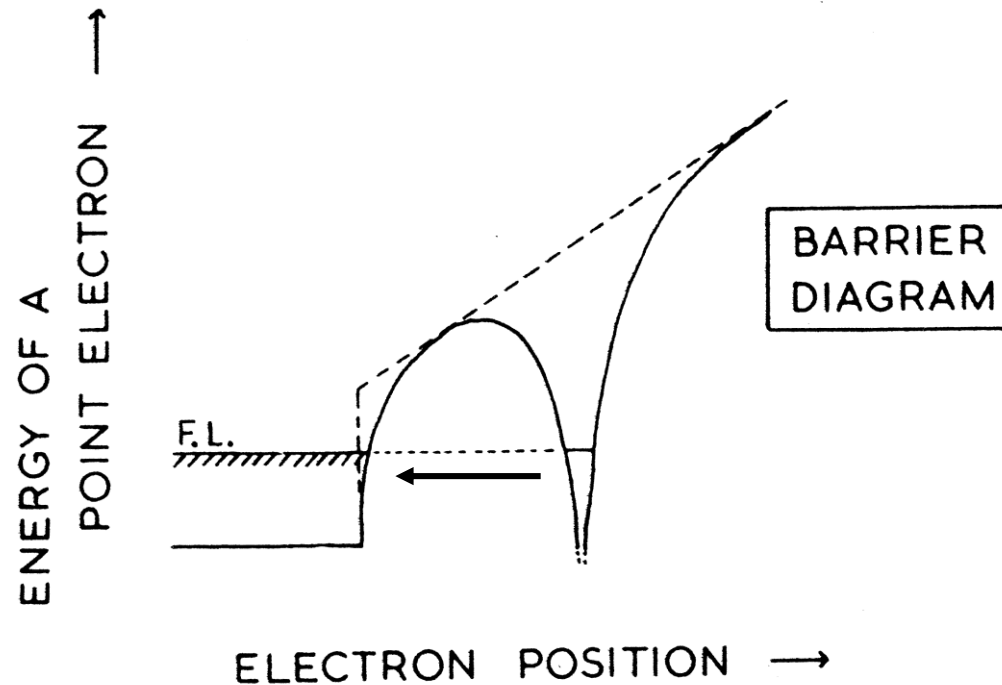
And the “induced” charge associated with the presence of the external field is regarded as located in an infinitely thin layer at the classical conductor surface (i.e., in the electrical surface).

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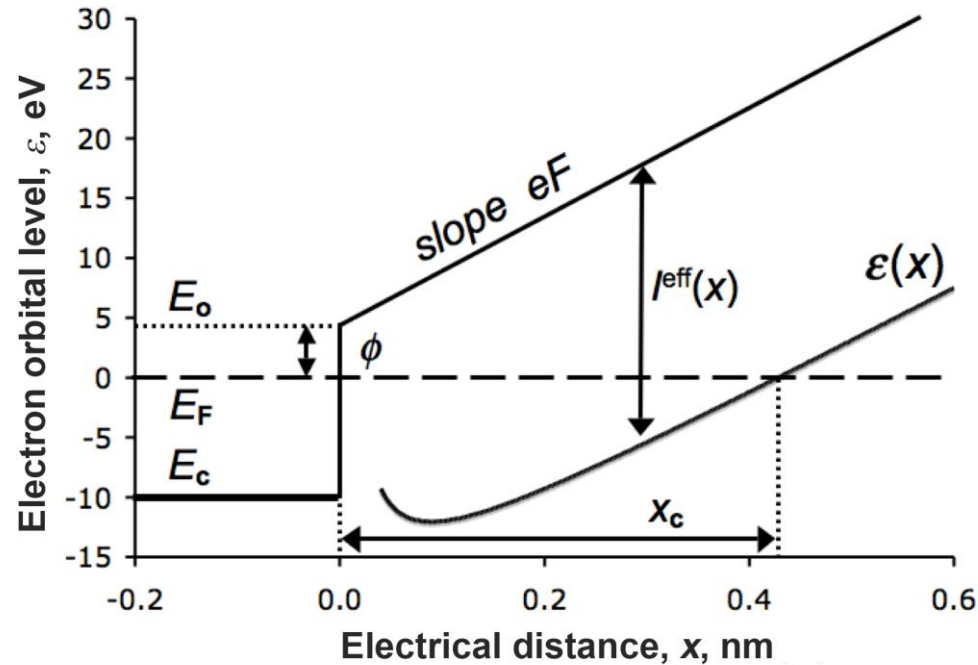
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However, an important issue (for both field ion and field electron emission) is **“Where is the electrical surface relative to the surface atoms?”**, because this is part of the answer to the related question of “Where is the tunnelling/transmission barrier relative to the surface atoms ?”

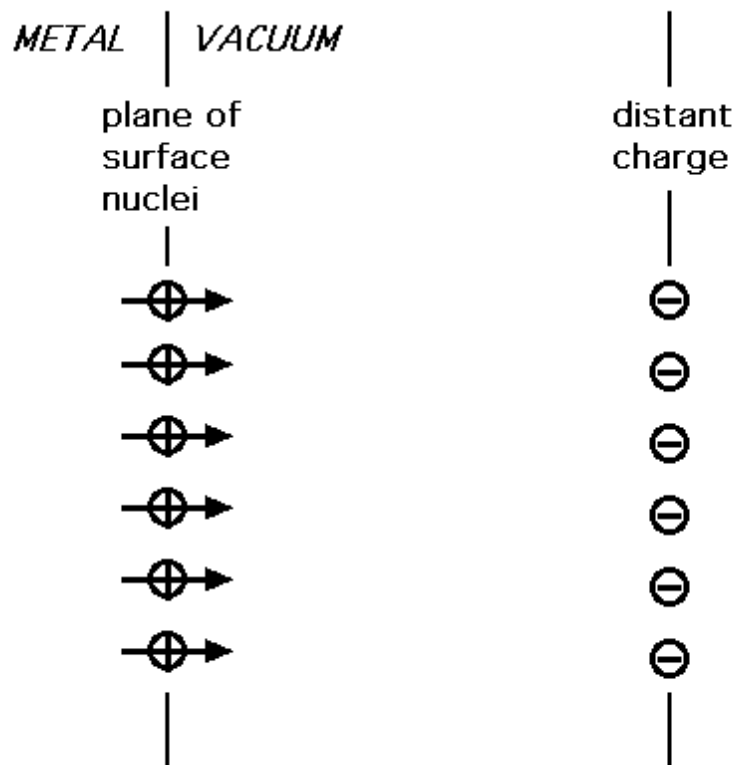


Surface field ionization takes place most rapidly when the topmost electron orbital level in the external gas atom aligns with the Fermi level.



The **critical distance** is the smallest distance the electrical surface at which field ionization can occur.

The Classical Array Model for a charged surface

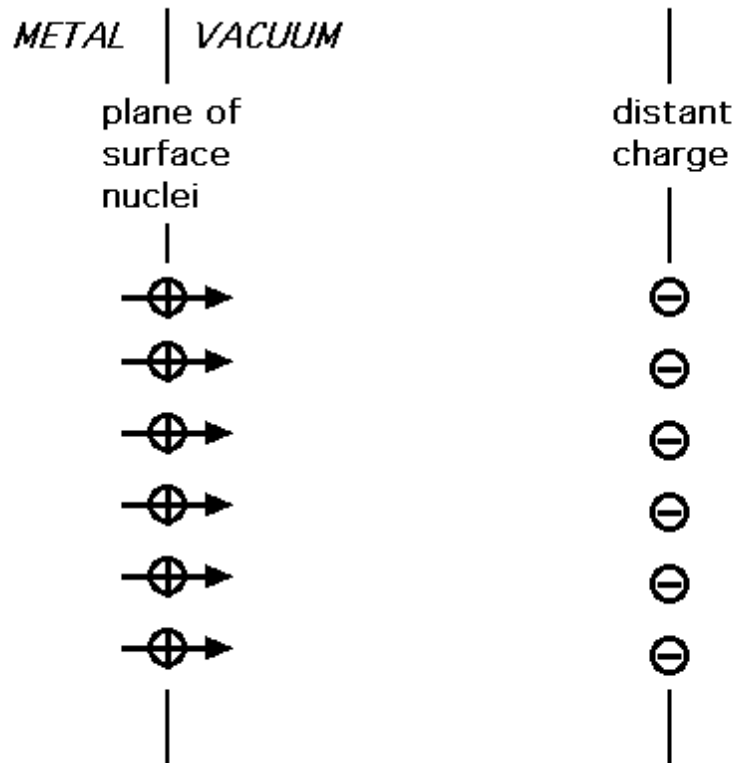


In the **planar classical array model**, an atomically flat charged surface is modeled by an array of charges & dipoles placed at the positions of the atomic nuclei.

A distant array of charge of the opposite sign represents the counter-electrode [which is needed for electrostatic self-consistency].

The diagram shows a positively charged surface, but the argument is similar for a negatively charged surface.

The Classical Array Model
for a charged surface



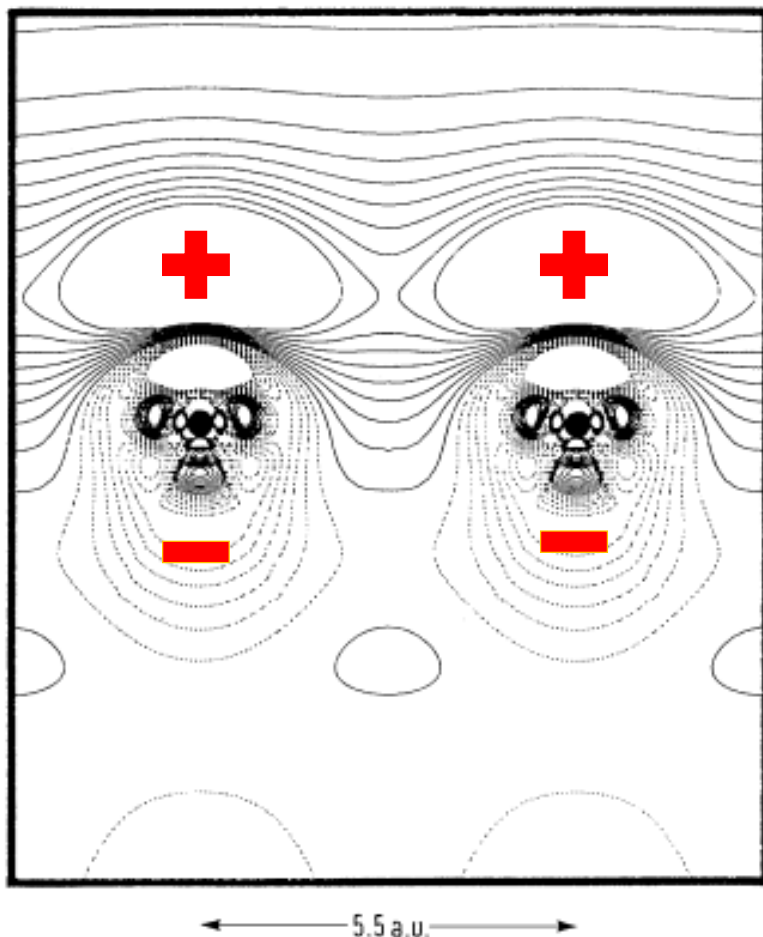
The positive nuclei in the surface atoms are attracted by the distant negative charge.

Each surface nucleus moves away from the electrical centre of the electrons in its atom.

This separation causes a restraining pull (by the electrons) on the surface nucleus, towards the emitter.

The equilibrium situation is an electrically polarized atom.

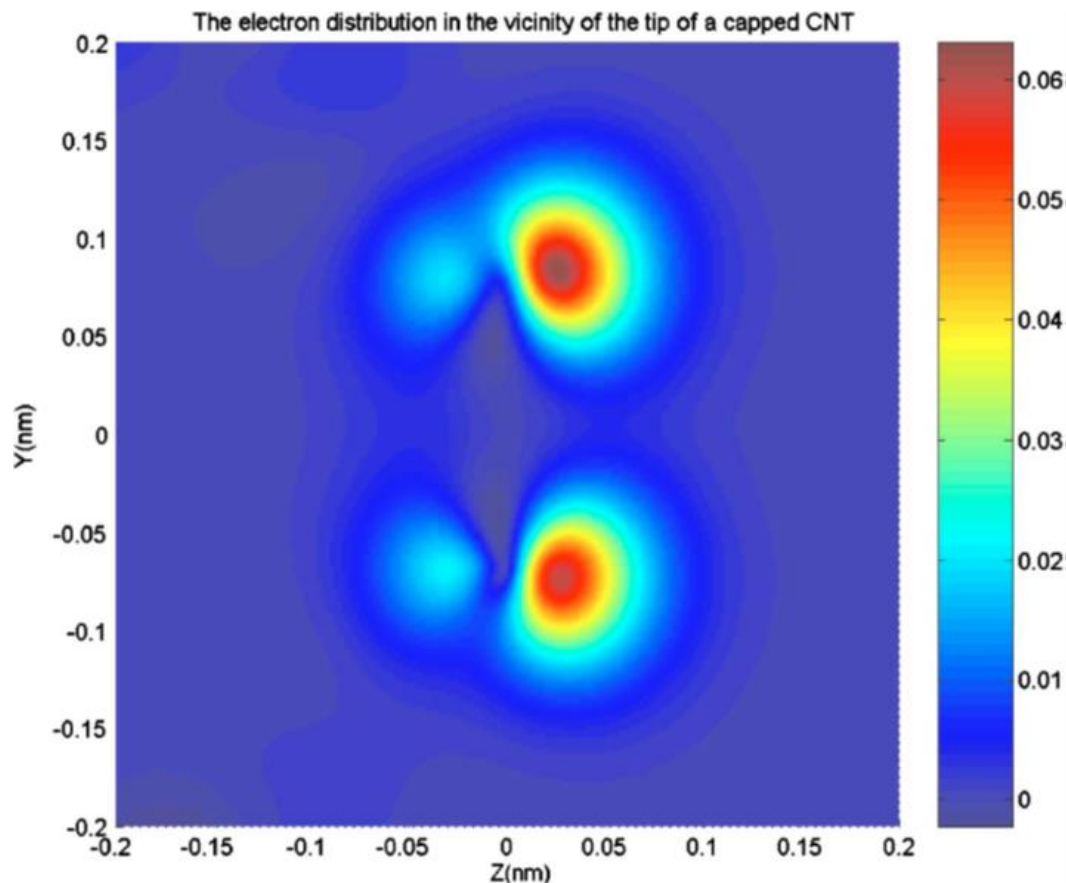
This surface-atom polarization effect is an universal property of charged surfaces.



The basic idea that surface atoms might be polarized was introduced (in the context of FEM adsorption studies) in the 1950s.

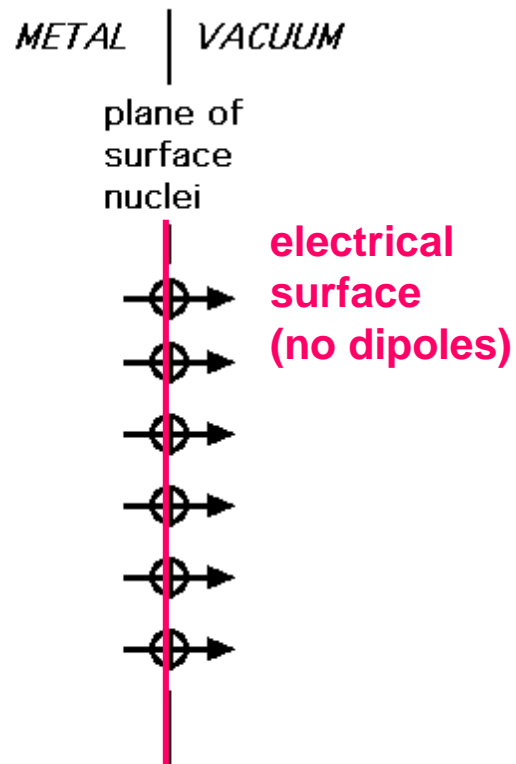
But it took until the late 1980s before the first satisfactory quantum-mechanical (QM) calculations of the effect (shown alongside) were done.

Induced-charge distribution for Ag(001) facet, for an positive external field of 5 V/nm, as calculated by Aers and Inglesfield.



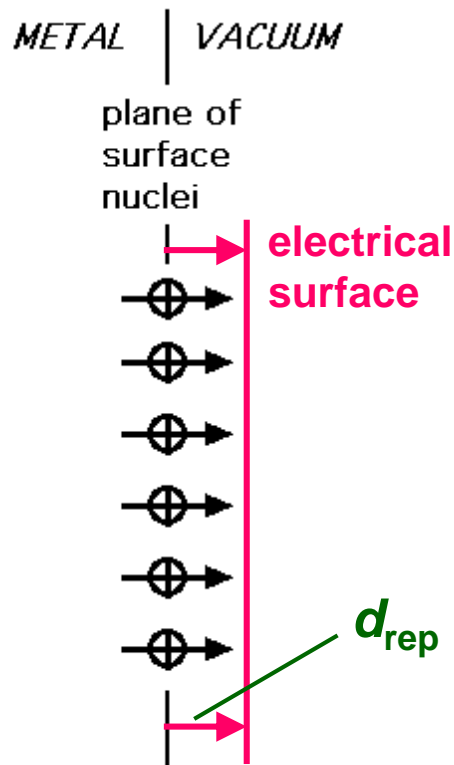
Surface-atom polarization effects of this kind also occur with negative applied fields, as demonstrated by J. Peng et al. in first principles calculations on closed carbon nanotubes.

The Classical Array Model for a charged surface



It can be shown that, in the absence of surface dipoles, the $z=0$ plane would lie in the plane of the surface nuclei.

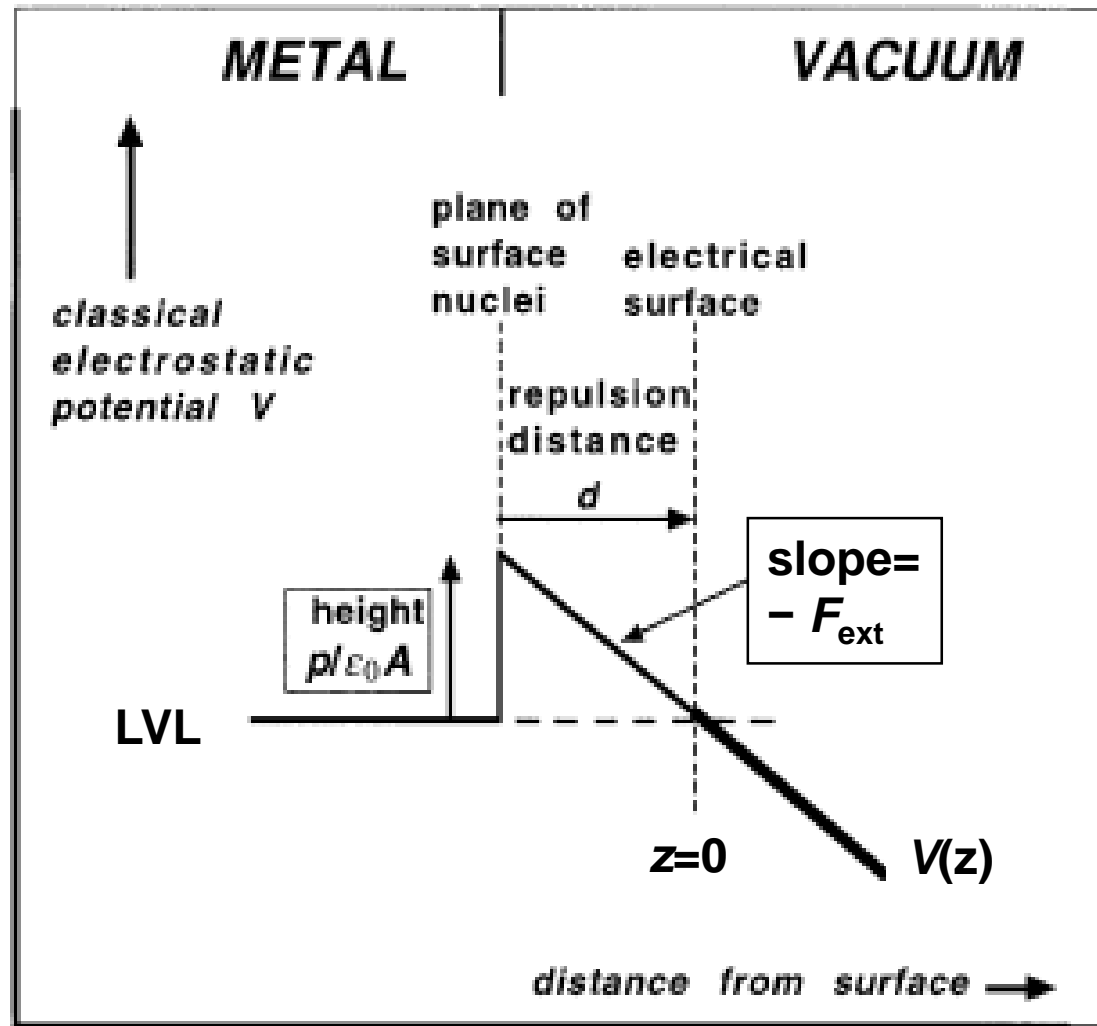
The Classical Array Model for a charged surface



It can be shown that, in the absence of surface dipoles, the $z=0$ plane would lie in the plane of the surface nuclei.

The presence of the dipoles moves the electrical surface **outwards** (towards the vacuum) by the **repulsion distance** d_{rep} .

The size of d_{rep} is comparable with atomic radii, as assessed by half the nearest-neighbour distance.



An analysis of the electrostatics enables a formula to be obtained for d_{rep} , in terms of the surface crystallography and effective surface-atom polarizability α_{pol} . For cubic-system crystals this takes the form

$$d_{\text{rep}} = p/\epsilon_0 A_s = \frac{1}{2} \alpha_{\text{pol}} / [\epsilon_0 A_s (1 + T_{\text{str}} \alpha_{\text{pol}} / 4\pi \epsilon_0 C_{\text{lat}}^3)]$$

where C_{lat} is the bulk lattice parameter, A_s is the surface area per atom, and T_{str} is a **structure factor** that depends on the crystallographic structure of the relevant crystal face.

In the case of Al, these classical results can be compared with the QM calculations of Aers and Inglesfield, as shown on next slide

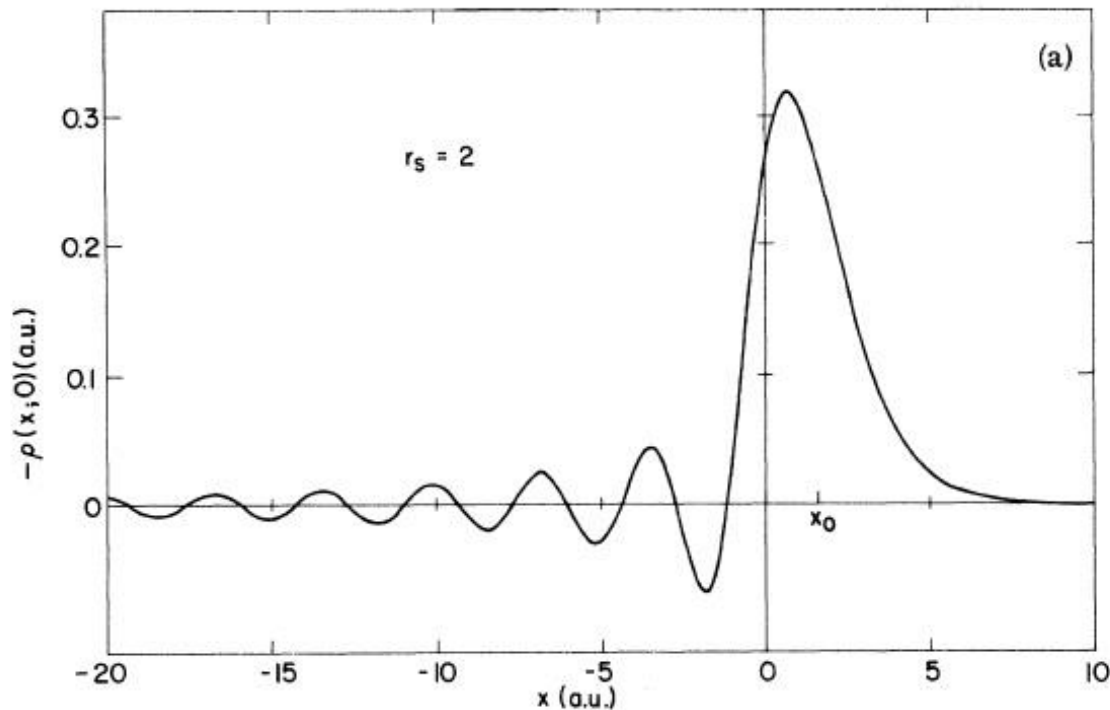
Table 1

Values for the repulsion distance d , calculated for different faces of aluminium by means of self-consistent quantum mechanical (q/m) calculations and the classical array model

Reference	Material & facet	Repulsion distance (pm) at zero field	
		q/m model	Classical model
Lam and Needs [10]	Al (1 1 1)	167	150
Inglesfield [6]	Al (1 0 0)	159	152
Lam and Needs [10]	Al (1 1 0)	152	149

In all cases, classical and quantum-mechanical values agree to within 20 pm.

This provides justification for using the classical model to estimate values for other metal systems, as shown shortly.



An equivalent result had been obtained earlier by Lang and Kohn, using a so-called “jellium” model.

This showed that the electrical surface was OUTSIDE the jellium edge.

**In their one dimensional jellium model, Lang and Kohn showed that
the electrical surface in the centroid of the induced charge.**

I have shown that this is also true for the planar array model.

Numerics and Comparisons with recent DFT work

Table 1

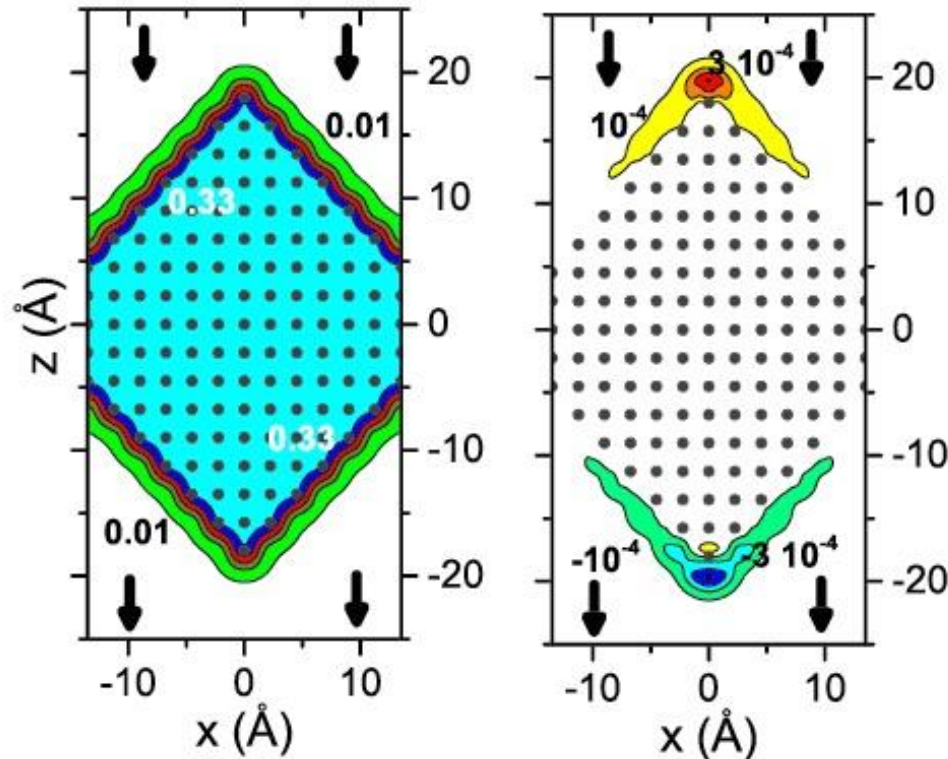
Values for the repulsion distance d , for the close-packed faces of selected metals. Also shown are the volume polarisability α_v as tabulated in Ref. [17], and the atomic radius as estimated by half the nearest-neighbour distance R_{NN} in the solid metal

Material and face		$R_{NN}/2$ (pm)	α_v 10^{-30} m^3	d (pm)
W	bcc (1 1 0)	137	11.1	157
Ir	fcc (1 1 1)	136	7.6	144
Mo	bcc (1 1 0)	136	12.8	160
Pt	fcc (1 1 1)	139	6.5	141
Au	fcc (1 1 1)	144	5.8	138
Rh	fcc (1 1 1)	135	8.6	147
Fe(α)	bcc (1 1 0)	129	8.4	143
Ni	fcc (1 1 1)	125	6.8	136
Cu	fcc (1 1 1)	128	6.1	135

In general, repulsion distances are comparable in size (often slightly greater than) atomic radii.

For tungsten, the predicted electrical surface position tends to be confirmed (at least qualitatively) by experimental measurements of field ion appearance energy.

085105-4 Lepetit, Lemoine, and Márquez-Mijares



The “induced charge barycentre” of Lepetit et al. is essentially the same concept as the older concept of the electrical surface, when this is interpreted as the centroid of the induced charge.

Theoretical estimates of repulsion distance for tungsten are:

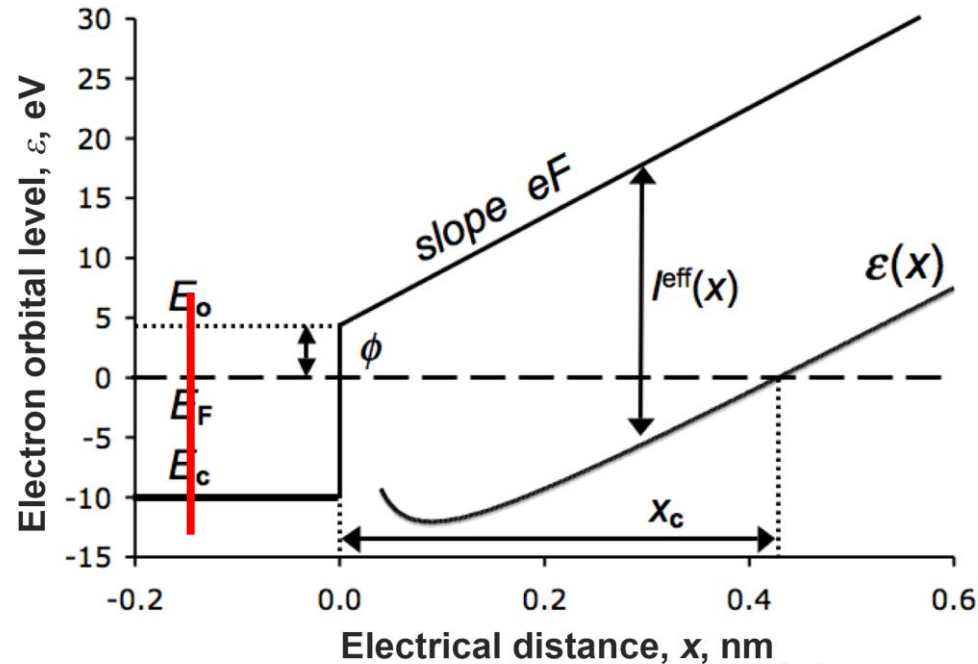
Classical array model – (110) surface: 157 pm

DFT (sawtooth apex – positive field): 161 pm

DFT (sawtooth apex – negative field): 213 pm

Good general consistency between all models, QM and classical.

Relation to emission phenomena

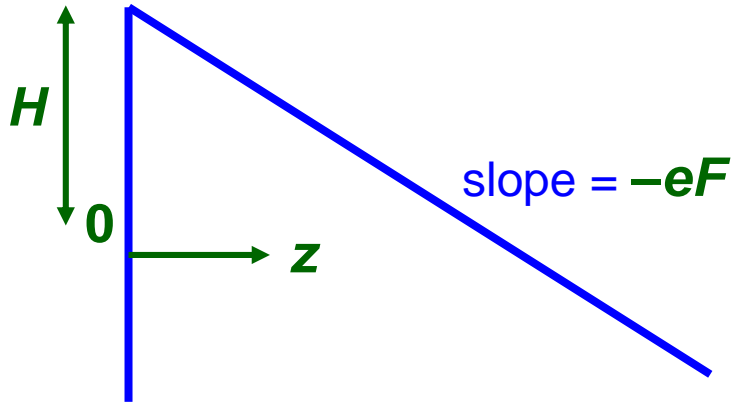


For helium on tungsten, work function = 4.5 eV, ionization energy = 24.6 eV, best image field = 45 v/nm, so critical distance is about 450 pm.

Repulsion distance is about 160 nm.

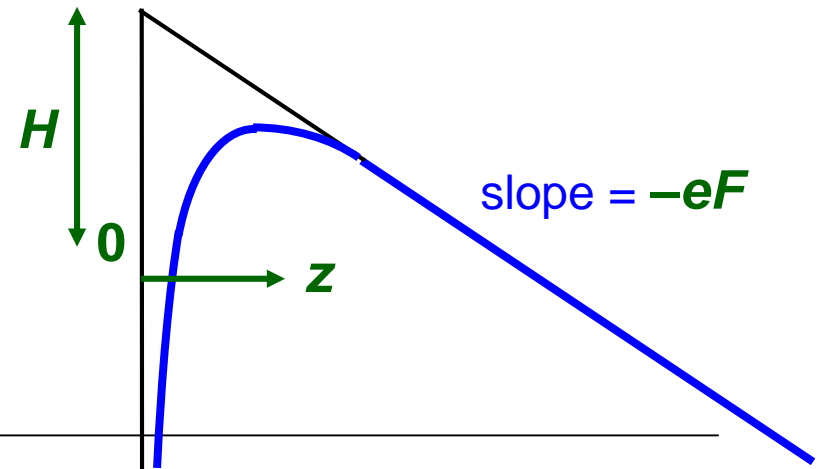
Distance of ionization zone from surface-atom nuclei is about 600 pm.

Exactly triangular (ET) barrier



$$M(z) = H - eFz$$

Schottky-Nordheim (SN) barrier



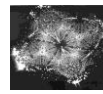
$$M(z) = H - eFz - 1/16\pi\epsilon_0 z$$

Repulsion distance is about 200 nm (according to Lepetit et al.)

For SN barrier, distance from electrical surface to inner edge of barrier is about 150 pm, under typical emission conditions.

Corresponding distance from surface-atom nuclei is roughly 350 nm

Barrier appears to be significantly outside atomic wave-functions.



Thanks for your attention