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**Design Considerations For An Electron Energy Loss
Spectroscopy Parallel Recording System.**

by Colin P Scott

submitted for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy in the
University of Glasgow.

May 1988

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". . . . get the shooters out, George"

Jack Regan

"The Sweeney"

ITV circa 1976.

Declaration

This thesis is a report of work which I have undertaken in the Department of Physics and Astronomy at the University of Glasgow. The work described is my own, apart from the design and construction of the digital timing / interface circuits, the analogue - digital conversion unit, and the construction of the RL128S preamplifier board, all of which were carried out by Mr R. Pallister. Some of the results contained in this thesis are published in the following papers:

"The Influence of Magnetic Sector Aberrations in the Design of Parallel Recording Systems for EELS", A J Craven and C P Scott (1986), in Proc. XIth ICEM (eds. T Imura, S Maruse and T Suzuki, Japanese Society of Electron Microscopy), p 517

"Electron Detection in the Analytical Electron Microscope", J N Chapman, A J Craven and C P Scott (1988), Ultramicroscopy (to be published).

"A Quadrupole Lens System for use in a Parallel Recording System for Electron Energy Loss Spectroscopy", C P Scott and A J Craven (1988), Ultramicroscopy (to be published).

"The Design of A Parallel Recording System For EELS", C P Scott and A J Craven (1988) submitted to EUREM, York.

This thesis has not been submitted in any previous application for a degree.

Contents

Acknowledgements

Summary

Chapter 1 Electron energy loss spectroscopy and parallel detection

1.1	Electron scattering within a solid	1
1.1.1	Elastic scattering	1
1.1.2	Inelastic scattering	2
1.1.3	Quantitative analysis of EELS spectra	3
1.1.4	Other information present in EELS spectra	4
1.2	Instrumental considerations	4
1.2.1	The electron source	5
1.2.2	The spectrometer	6
1.2.3	Spectrometer aberrations and collection efficiency	7
1.2.4	Recording the energy loss spectrum	8
1.2.5	Design specifications of a parallel detection system	9

Chapter 2 Homogeneous field magnetic sector spectrometers - theory

2.1	Spectrometer types	11
2.1.1	The Wien filter	11
2.1.2	The magnetic sector	12
2.2	Matrix formulism	12
2.2.1	Transfer matrix of a drift space	12
2.2.2	Transfer matrix of a thin lens	13
2.2.3	Transfer matrix of a thick lens	14
2.2.4	Transfer matrix of an optical system	14
2.2.5	Optical characteristics	14
2.3	Optical properties of magnetic sectors	15
2.3.1	General representation of sector properties	15
2.3.2	First order matrix transformations	18
2.4	Derivation of matrix coefficients for homogeneous field magnetic sectors	19
2.4.1	Derivation of equations of motion	19
2.4.2	The matrix coefficients	21

2.4.3	The effects of momentum variation	23
2.5	The effects of tilted entrance and exit planes	25
2.5.1	The median plane	25
2.5.2	Motion in the vertical plane	26
2.6	The effects of extended fringe fields	28
2.6.1	Field curves and semi-empirical approximations	29
2.6.2	Calculation of trajectories (median plane)	30
2.6.3	Vertical (x) plane motion	33
2.6.4	Fringe field clamping	36
2.6.5	Empirical methods for determining fringe field integrals	37
2.7	Second order coefficients	38
2.7.1	Median plane coefficients of second order	38
2.7.2	Coefficients of general sector magnets	39
2.7.3	Entrance and exit transforms	39
2.7.4	Cross terms affecting median plane focussing	41
2.7.5	Second order effects on vertical focussing	43
2.7.6	Second order effects of extended fringe fields	44

Chapter 3 Calculation of spectrometer aberration coefficients

3.1	Expansion of transfer matrices to second order	46
3.1.1	The transfer matrix coefficients	46
3.1.2	Second order drift matrices	48
3.2	Total transfer matrices and aberration coefficients	50
3.2.1	Aberration equations	51
3.2.2	First order parameters	53
3.2.3	Second order parameters	54
3.2.4	Aberration correction	56
3.3	Evaluation of existing spectrometer designs	57
3.3.1	Spectrometer analysis program	57
3.3.2	Spectrum plotting program	58
3.4	Results of calculations on real spectrometers	59
3.4.1	Shuman spectrometer	59
3.4.2	Scheinein and Isaacson spectrometer	61
3.4.3	Investigating the cause of the large X_3 aberration	64
3.4.4	Higher order aberrations	64

3.4.5	Conclusions from spectrometer calculations	65
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Chapter 4 Post-spectrometer magnification : Quadrupole optics

4.1	Post-spectrometer magnification	66
4.1.1	Advantages of quadrupole lenses over round lenses	66
4.2	Magnetic multipole lenses - theory	68
4.2.1	The magnetic field of a multipole lens	68
4.2.2	The trajectory equations	69
4.2.3	First order solution of the trajectory equations - quadrupole field	71
4.2.4	Quadrupole lenses	72
4.2.5	Calculation of the quadrupole field gradient k_4	72
4.2.6	Higher order solutions of the trajectory equations	73
4.2.7	Effects of extended fringe fields	74
4.2.8	Drift matrices and the total transfer matrix	75
4.3	Quadrupole pairs	75
4.3.1	Transfer matrices of quadrupole pairs	76
4.3.2	Quadrupole pair calculations	77
4.3.3	Towards a magnification system	78

Chapter 5 A post-spectrometer quadrupole magnification system

5.1	System considerations	79
5.1.1	Discussion of a suitable optical configuration	80
5.1.2	The quadrupole pair - Q1 and Q2	81
5.1.3	Varying the magnification - Q3	82
5.1.4	Refocussing the spectrum - Q0	82
5.1.5	Final image plane and optical performance	83
5.2	Ray tracing and reduction of electron scattering	84
5.2.1	Energy selecting slits	85
5.2.2	Spray apertures and fixed slits	86
5.3	Chromatic aberrations and imaging properties	86
5.3.1	Calculation of chromatic aberration coefficients	87
5.4	Effects of a.c. magnetic fields	89
5.4.1	A.C. field superimposed upon a thin electron lens	89
5.4.2	Thin lens approximation for a quadrupole	90
5.4.3	Calculation of the defocus at the final image plane	91

Chapter 6 A prototype acquisition system for EELS - Instrumentation

6.1	Electron detectors	95
	6.1.1 Direct detection methods	96
	6.1.2 Indirect detection	98
	6.1.3 Choice of imaging element	99
6.2	Reticon S series photodiode arrays	100
	6.2.1 Principles of operation RL 128S	101
	6.2.2 Drive electronics : RC 1024SA evaluation board	101
	6.2.3 Power supplies	102
	6.2.4 Alignment procedure - Reticon RL 128S/RC 1024SA	103
6.3	Hamamatsu PCD linear image sensors	104
	6.3.1 Principles of operation S2304-512F	104
	6.3.2 Drive electronics : C2325/C2335	104
	6.2.3 Alignment procedure - S2304-512F/C2325-C2335	105
6.4	Digitising the video signals	106
	6.4.1 Digital timing / interface circuits RL 128S	106
	6.4.2 Digital timing / interface circuits S2304-512F	108
	6.4.3 Analogue-digital conversion unit	
	HTC 0300A / AD 578-L	109
6.5	Computer interfacing : Motorola 68000 mon onboard- VME system	110
	6.5.1 The microprocessor board -	
	Motorola MC 68000 KDM	111
	6.5.2 Acquisition software	111
	6.5.3 The VME host minicomputer system	112
	6.5.4 Testing the acquisition system	113
6.6	Vacuum chamber and cooling system	114
	6.6.1 Mounting the photodiodes in the vacuum system	114
	6.6.2 The Peltier cooling system	115
6.7	Operation of the photodiode arrays in vacuum	116
	6.7.1 Operating the Reticon RL128S array in vacuum	116
	6.7.2 Operating the Hamamatsu S2304-512F array	
	in vacuum	118

Chapter 7 Experiments on photodiode array imaging performance

7.1	Dark current and noise sources in photodiodes	119
7.1.1	Dark current	119
7.1.2	Noise sources	120
7.1.3	Total readout noise and inherent dynamic range	122
7.2	Dark current and noise experiments : RL 128S array	123
7.2.1	Variation of dark current - Reticon RL 128S array	123
7.2.2	Dark current noise - Reticon RL 128S	125
7.3	Dark current and noise experiments : S2304-512F array	126
7.3.1	Variation of dark current - Hamamatsu S2304-512F	126
7.3.2	Dark current noise - Hamamatsu S2304-512F	127
7.4	Summary of dark scan experiments	128
7.4.1	Dark current production and uniformity	128
7.4.2	Flicker noise	128
7.4.3	Readout noise	129
7.5	Optical response of photodiode arrays	129
7.5.1	Description of experiments	130
7.5.2	Beam current measurement - Faraday cup	130
7.6	Optical response : Reticon RL 128S arrays	131
7.6.1	Linearity of response - Reticon RL128S arrays	131
7.6.2	Uniformity of response and digital correction Reticon RL 128S	132
7.7	Optical response : Hamamatsu S2304-512F array	134
7.7.1	Linearity of response- Hamamatsu S2304-512F	134
7.7.2	Uniformity of response and digital correction Hamamatsu S2304-512F array	134
7.8	Summary of optical response experiments	135
7.8.1	Linearity of response	135
7.8.2	Uniformity of response and digital response correction	136

Chapter 8 Electron-photon conversion and detective quantum efficiency

8.1	Luminescent screens and coupling optics	137
8.1.1	Electron-photon conversion and image transfer	138
8.1.2	Performance requirements of an ideal scintillator	139
8.1.3	Scintillator materials	140

8.1.4	Preparation of luminescent screens	141
8.2	Evaluation of scintillator screen performance	145
8.2.1	Linearity and efficiency of photon production	145
8.2.2	Linearity and efficiency of photon production - discussion	145
8.2.3	Uniformity of response and digital response correction	148
8.2.4	Spatial resolution	149
8.2.5	Measurements of principal decay times	151
8.2.6	Examination of secondary time constants	153
8.2.7	Summary of luminescent screen performance	155
8.2.8	Conclusions	156
8.3	Monte Carlo simulation in YAG	157
8.3.1	Theoretical outline	157
8.3.2	Results	158
8.4	Evaluation of detective quantum efficiency	159
8.4.1	Definition of DQE	159
8.4.2	Calculation of the DQE	160
8.4.3	Discussion of the DQE response	161
8.5	Recording a diffraction pattern	163
8.5.1	The gold foil diffraction pattern	163

Chapter 9 Conclusions and suggestions for further work

9.1	The parallel recording system	165
9.1.1	The nature of the energy loss spectrum	165
9.1.2	Post spectrometer magnification	167
9.1.3	The choice of electron detector and detection mode	168
9.1.4	Choice of scintillator screen and optical coupling mode	168
9.1.5	Performance of the detector	169
9.2	Improving the detection system	170
9.2.1	Improving the DQE	170
9.2.2	General improvements in the acquisition system	171
9.2.3	Towards an operational system - future work	171

Appendix 1 Focussing coefficients of homogeneous field magnetic sector spectrometers

Appendix 2 Spectrometer analysis programs

Appendix 3 First and second order focussing coefficients for quadrupole lenses

Appendix 4 Quadrupole analysis programs

Appendix 5 Data acquisition program

Appendix 6 Monte Carlo simulation

References

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Summary

This thesis describes the results of an investigation into the design of a parallel recording system for electron energy loss spectroscopy (EELS). The motivation behind the construction of such a system is the greatly enhanced detection efficiency which can be achieved, as compared to conventional serial recording systems. This is of great benefit in experimental situations where specimen drift, radiation damage, or signal to noise ratio are limiting factors.

Chapter 1 provides a brief introduction to the method of EELS analysis in the transmission electron microscope (TEM) and discusses the instrumentation required to generate and record EELS spectra. Chapter 2 contains a detailed review of the theory of homogeneous field magnetic sector spectrometers, following the work of Enge, Brown, and Heighway. The matrix method used to calculate the optical properties of such spectrometers is introduced, and the focussing coefficients for an arbitrary magnetic sector are derived to second order. A spectrometer analysis program based on the theory of chapter 2 is described in chapter 3. The program is used to calculate the aberration coefficients of two well known 2nd order corrected spectrometer designs [Shuman 1983, Scheinfein and Isaacson 1984] and hence determine the nature of the electron intensity distribution at their dispersion planes.

Post-spectrometer magnification of the dispersion plane is required in parallel EELS in order to overcome the resolution limiting effects of electron scatter within the detector. The requirement that the magnifications in the dispersive and non-dispersive planes be independent indicates the use of quadrupole lenses as the magnifying elements. Chapter 4 reviews the theory of quadrupoles and extends the matrix transfer method of chapters 2 and 3 to quadrupole lenses. The design of a four lens quadrupole system suitable for post-spectrometer magnification in EELS is described in chapter 5. The system can vary the magnification in the dispersive direction from 5x to 97x (at 100 keV), while maintaining an almost constant magnification in the non-dispersive direction.

Chapter 6 considers the types of multielement detectors which could be applied to parallel EELS, and discusses the advantages of using wide aperture linear photodiode arrays operating in the indirect mode as detection elements. The design and construction of the instrumentation required to operate two such arrays, manufactured by Reticon and Hamamatsu, is also reported in this chapter. Experiments on the electrical and optical performance of both these arrays are described in chapter 7. The results of these experiments

indicate that the Hamamatsu device is the more suitable for detection of EELS spectra. Chapter 8 contains experimental results on the evaluation of various scintillator screens laid on fibre-optic plates directly coupled to the fibre-optic input window of the Hamamatsu array. The most suitable of the scintillators tested was a screen made from a single crystal of yttrium aluminium garnet (YAG) polished down to a thickness of $30\mu\text{m}$. The detective quantum efficiency of a prototype detector consisting of the Hamamatsu photodiode array fibre-optically coupled to such a screen is shown to be greater than 0.25 for a range of input electron doses varying from 40 electrons / channel-second to greater than 10^8 electrons / channel-second.

Finally, chapter 9 discusses the implications of the results obtained in this work and considers improvements that could be made to the prototype detector to form an operational system.

CHAPTER 1

Electron Energy Loss Spectroscopy and Parallel Detection

Introduction

Electron energy loss spectroscopy (EELS) is a powerful technique for gaining chemical and structural information from the thin solid specimens used in transmission electron microscopy (TEM). The general method of EELS is quite simple - a beam of monoenergetic electrons is incident upon a thin sample, some of the electrons lose energy in traversing the specimen and the resultant energy loss distribution (spectrum) is obtained by passing the transmitted electrons through a momentum analysing device (spectrometer). The energy loss spectrum is characteristic of the area being irradiated and so the elemental composition of the specimen can be identified. This chapter gives a brief discussion of the physical principles of electron energy loss spectroscopy and outlines the information that can be obtained from an EELS spectrum by quantitative analysis. Further, the necessary instrumentation for generating and recording the spectrum is described along with factors which affect the performance of an EELS system. The advantages of recording the spectrum in parallel as opposed to the more usual serial recording technique are considered, and the difficulties to be overcome in designing a successful parallel recording system are discussed.

1.1 ELECTRON SCATTERING WITHIN A SOLID

When a fast electron beam enters a specimen, which is thin enough so that most of the beam is not absorbed, the transmitted electrons can be classified into three main groups:- electrons that pass straight through the specimen without collision, electrons that undergo elastic scattering and electrons that are inelastically scattered. The first group of undeviated electrons can give information only upon the scattering power (and hence thickness) of the specimen and contains no other useful information, whereas the second two classes are of much more interest from an analytical point of view.

1.1.1 Elastic scattering

Elastic scattering occurs when an incident electron is deflected by the internal electrostatic field of an atom i.e. the nuclear field modified by the screening effect of the surrounding electrons. The mass of the nucleus is very much greater than that of the electron and consequently the latter loses a negligible amount of energy in the collision. Isaacson [1978]

gives an approximate expression for the angular distribution of electrons elastically scattered through small angles from free atoms :

$$\frac{I_{EL}(\theta)}{I_{EL}(0)} = \frac{1}{(\theta^2 + \theta_0^2)^2}$$

where - $I_{EL}(0)$ is the intensity of electrons which are undeviated in scattering
 $I_{EL}(\theta)$ is the intensity of electrons elastically scattered through angle θ
 θ_0 is the characteristic screening angle = $\lambda/2\pi a$

λ is the incident electron wavelength, a is the characteristic atomic radius given by:

$$a = 0.9 a_0 Z^{-1/4}$$

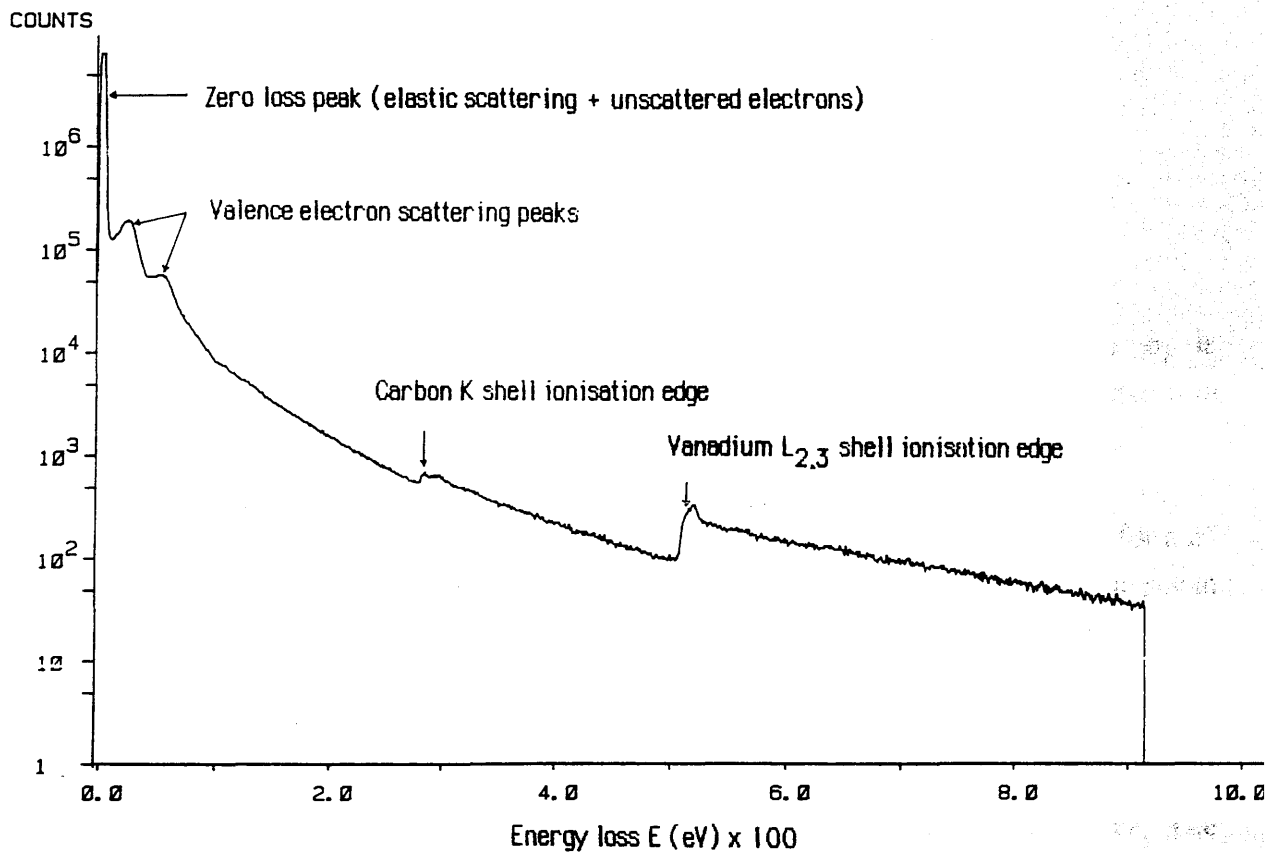
where a_0 is the Bohr radius of the atom and Z is the atomic number. For 100keV incident electrons a typical scattering angle of ~ 20 mrad per elastic collision is quoted by Egerton [1982]. If the specimen is crystalline, the angular distribution is peaked at angles satisfying the Bragg condition, $\theta = \lambda/d$ where d is the lattice spacing. Elastic scattering is represented in the energy loss spectrum by a sharp peak at zero energy loss (Figure 1.1).

1.1.2 Inelastic scattering

Inelastic scattering occurs when an electron interacts directly with one or more atomic electrons, and since the masses are comparable appreciable energy transfer can occur. If the scattering takes place from valence electrons the energy transfer is typically 10-100eV per collision. Valence electron scattering is observed in the energy loss spectrum in the form of one or more peaks in the 10-100eV range as illustrated in figure 1.1. The probability for valence electron scattering is comparable to that for elastic scattering, but there is also a smaller probability that the incident electron may be scattered by an inner shell electron. The inner shell electron can make a transition to the vacuum continuum or to a vacant energy level only if the energy transferred exceeds the ionisation energy of that particular shell. Such events are characterised in the energy loss spectrum by a sharp rise in intensity at an energy loss equal to the inner shell ionisation energy (Figure 1.1). These sharp rises in the spectrum are referred to as ionisation edges, and the energy at which the edge occurs is dependent upon the type of shell (K,L,etc.) and the atomic number of the atom involved. The energy values are well known for every element and are not greatly affected by the chemical environment of the atom. Detection of the ionisation edges in an energy loss

Figure 1.1

EELS Spectrum of Vanadium Carbide



spectrum enables the constituent elements to be identified.

The angle of inelastic scattering is, in general, less than that for elastic scattering and depends upon the energy lost by the incident electron. Isaacson [1978] gives an approximate expression for the angular distribution which is valid for small scattering angles:

$$\frac{I_{IN}(\theta)}{I_{IN}(0)} = \frac{1}{(\theta^2 + \theta_E^2)}$$

where $I_{IN}(0)$ is the intensity of electrons inelastically scattered but undeviated
 $I_{IN}(\theta)$ is the intensity of electrons inelastically scattered through angle θ
 and $\theta_E = E/pv$.

where E is the energy lost by the incident electron of velocity v and momentum p . θ_E is related to the minimum momentum which must be transferred by an incident electron in losing an amount of energy E through the expression:

$$p_{min} = p \theta_E$$

For incident electrons of 100keV energy Isaacson [1978] gives $\theta_E = 0.137$ mrad for a 25 eV loss and 1.37 mrad for a 250 eV energy loss. Thus electrons which lose more energy in the collision are scattered through larger angles.

1.1.3 Quantitative analysis of EELS spectra

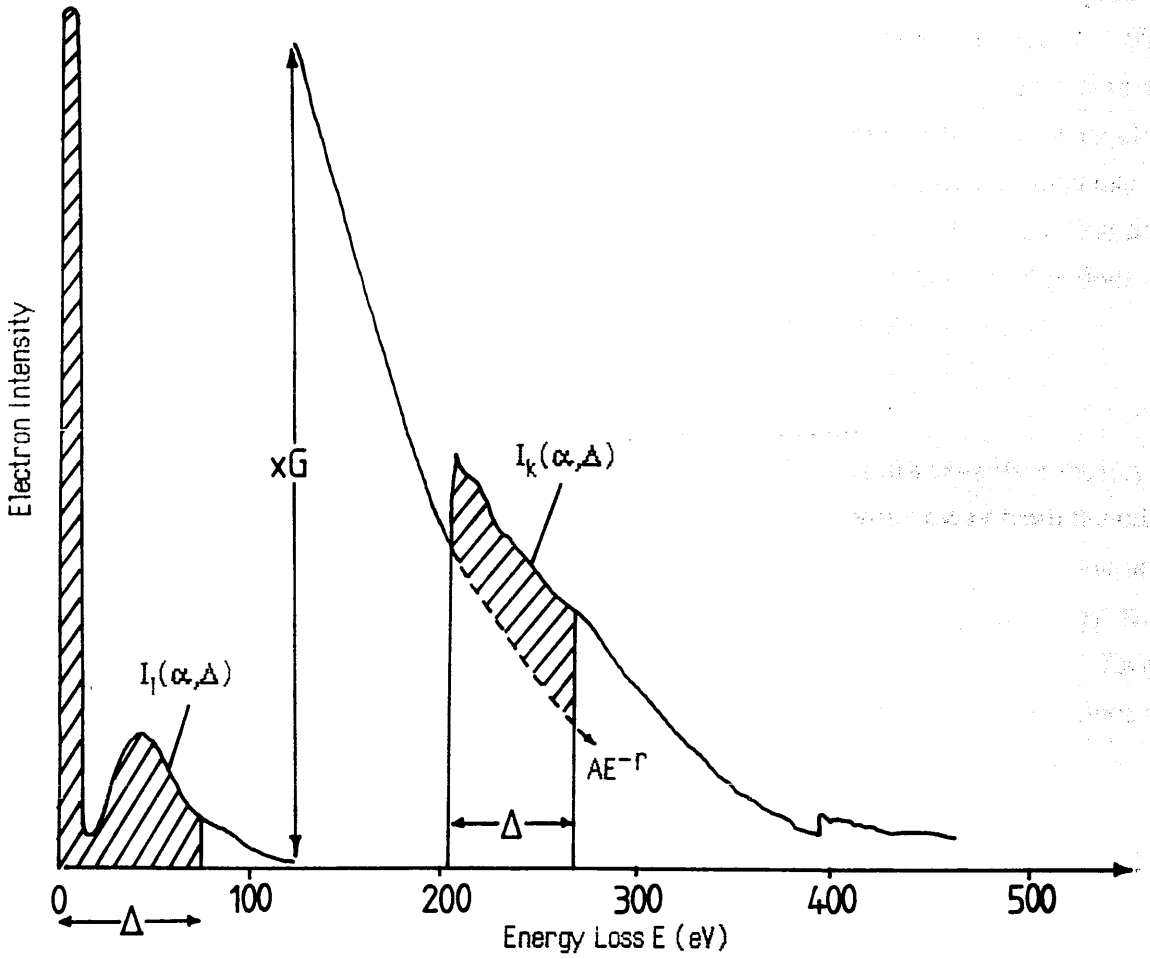
The information present in an energy loss spectra is sufficient to provide absolute (standardless) quantitation of the elemental constitution of the sampled area. The concentration N of a measured element, in atoms per unit area of the specimen is given by Egerton [1982] as:

$$N \sim \frac{1}{G \sigma_i(\alpha, \Delta)} \left[\frac{I_i(\alpha, \Delta)}{I_1(\alpha, \Delta)} \right]$$

where α is the maximum angle of scattering accepted by the spectrometer, Δ is an energy range of integration within the spectrum (Figure 1.2), and G is a gain change factor between the low loss and high loss regions of the spectrum. The parameter $\sigma_i(\alpha, \Delta)$ is an ionisation partial cross-section for the edge in question (K or L) which can be calculated knowing the experimental conditions. $I_1(\alpha, \Delta)$ is the integrated energy loss intensity over an energy range

Figure 1.2

Quantitative Analysis of EELS Spectrum



Δ , starting at the zero loss peak. $I_1(\alpha, \Delta)$ is the integrated intensity under the ionisation edge over the same range Δ , after subtraction of the background intensity (Figure 1.2). For the simple case of thin specimens, where there is no multiple scattering, the background under an isolated ionisation edge can be modelled by a power law decay function AE^{-r} where E is the energy loss, and A and r are constants which can be calculated by sampling the background prior to the edge. This type of analysis depends crucially on achieving a good pre-edge fit, which means that detection noise and artefacts must be kept to a minimum. Moreover, the problem is exacerbated if the sample is thicker than the mean free path for valence electron scattering (~ 100 nm for 100keV electrons) as multiple valence scattering causes the background shape to deviate from the AE^{-r} form, as well as reducing the ionisation edge height. Another difficulty occurs if two ionisation edges lie very close together, in which case background subtraction becomes more complicated because the second pre-edge region is perturbed by the post edge region of the first. Thus the first edge can be fitted with a normal background, but the background of the following edge does not follow a simple power law decay as discussed by Chapman et al. [1985].

1.1.4 Other information present in EELS spectra

A detailed inspection of the ionisation edges present in EELS spectra reveals a variety of structures close to the edge and as far as several hundred electron volts away from the edge. Figure 1.3 shows that the fine structure near the edge (energy loss near edge structure - ELNES) has peaks separated by 1eV or less whereas the oscillatory structure away from the edge (extended energy loss fine structure - EXELFS) varies on a 3-30 eV level. The ELNES contains information about the local chemical bonding in the specimen, since the peaks correspond (approximately) to the excitation of an inner shell electron to a bound excited state rather than the continuum, and the energy levels of the bound states are influenced by the chemical bonding present. The extended oscillatory structure away from the edge occurs when an inner shell electron is ejected from an atom with some kinetic energy such that it experiences elastic collisions with neighbouring atoms, and inelastic collisions with their electrons. Thus the EXELFS structure gives information about the short range order around the excited atom.

The book by Egerton [1986] provides a useful introduction to the theory of ELNES and EXELFS

1.2 INSTRUMENTAL CONSIDERATIONS

In any EELS experiment the characteristics of the incident electron probe are of great importance since they influence the information content of the recorded spectrum. Generally

Figure 1.3 Schematic Energy Loss Spectrum Around

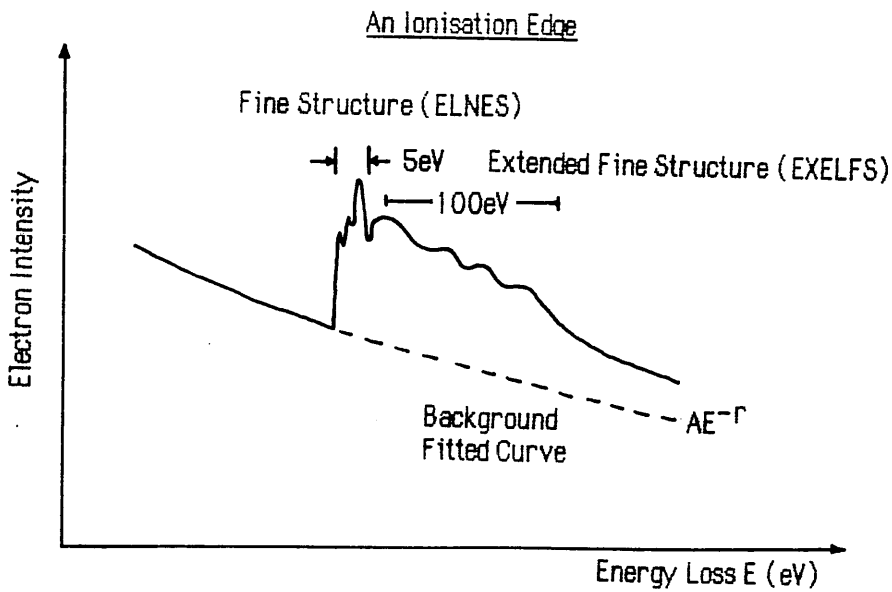


Figure 1.4 General First Order Spectrometer

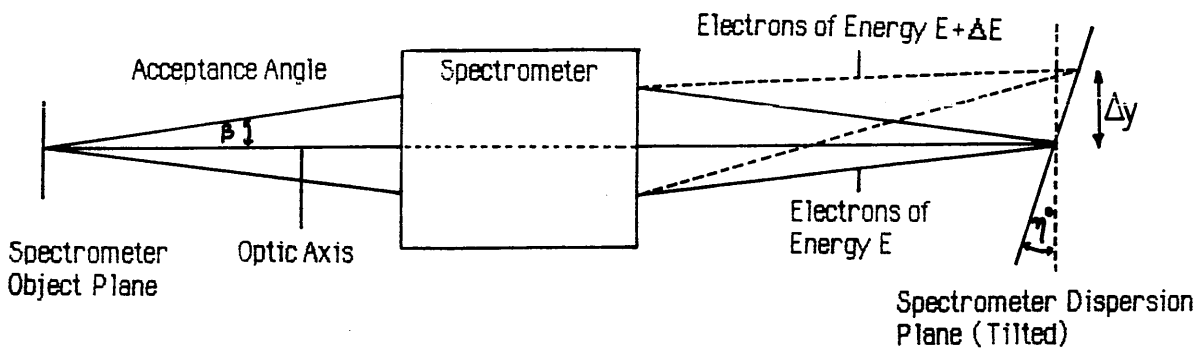
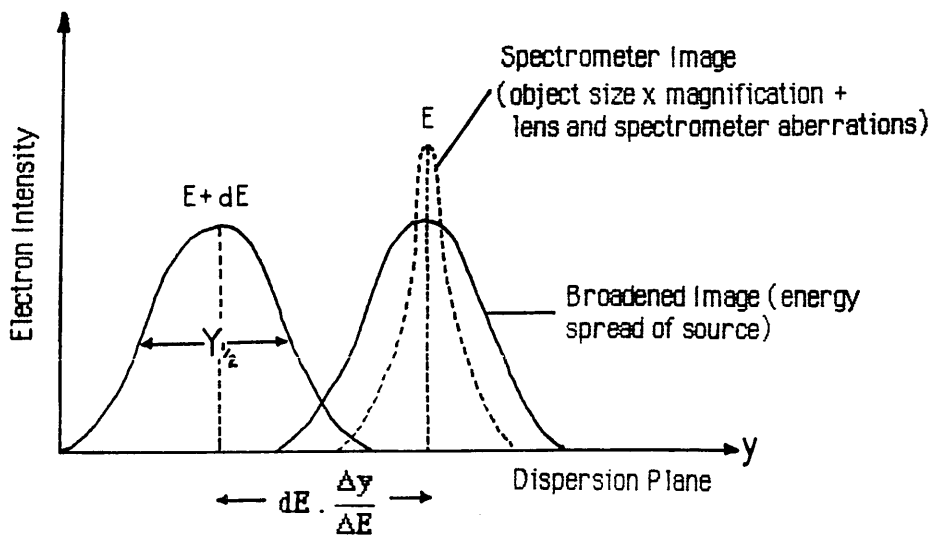


Figure 1.5 Spectrometer Energy Resolution



speaking probe conditions must be optimised in order to obtain the best results. An important parameter is the probe accelerating voltage - as mentioned before if the specimen is thicker than the mean free path for valence electron scattering the signal to background ratio decreases due to multiple scattering events. For this reason EELS analysis is usually done at the highest accelerating voltage possible, $\sim 100\text{keV}$ for most microscopes. Higher accelerating voltages are now becoming available on new machines ($200\text{-}400\text{keV}$) allowing thicker samples to be analysed. This is especially useful for EELS analysis of biological specimens, where preparing sufficiently thin specimens is often difficult.

Other important considerations are factors such as the probe diameter and convergence angle which influence the spatial resolution and angular distribution of the scattered electrons respectively. High spatial resolution EELS requires the smallest possible probe diameter at the specimen. However, obtaining a small probe size generally requires the use of large convergence angles which increase the angular distribution of the scattered electrons. Thus, in general, for a fixed spectrometer collection angle the collection efficiency falls as the spatial resolution is increased.

The amount of time required to collect enough electrons to obtain a good signal to noise ratio in an EELS experiment is directly proportional to the probe current. Minimising the collection time is important in high spatial resolution EELS where specimen drift can be a problem. The maximum probe current which can be used may be limited by the gun brightness, or the appearance of secondary effects such as specimen contamination or even specimen damage. As regards the energy resolution of the recorded spectrum the fundamental limit is the inherent energy spread in the electron probe - this is discussed in the next section.

1.2.1 The electron source

The energy spread in the electron beam is dependent upon the type of electron gun used in the microscope and also on the operating conditions, such as the amount of current drawn from the filament. For microscopes using standard directly heated tungsten filament guns this is $\sim 1\text{-}2\text{eV}$, lanthanum hexaboride (LaB_6) filaments have a spread of $\sim 1\text{eV}$, whilst cold field emission guns have a spread of $\sim 0.25\text{eV}$. Of course these figures are dependent upon the stability of the microscope accelerating voltage supply. It is clear that unless some form of monochromator is placed between the gun and the specimen the 1eV or better resolution required for ELNES studies suggests the use of a cold field emission gun. This is the type of electron source used in the Vacuum Generators HB5 analytical scanning transmission

electron microscope (STEM) used for EELS experiments at Glasgow. Field emission guns have the further advantage that they produce the highest brightness of any of the three emitters i.e. a field emission gun can produce the highest current densities at the specimen. Field emission guns also produce the smallest apparent source size, e.g. the 100keV field emission gun in the HB5 has ~5nm diameter apparent source diameter compared with ~25 μ m for a typical conventional tungsten filament. This places great demands upon the mechanical and electrical stability of the gun because the effect of spatial fluctuations cannot be reduced by using a strongly demagnifying illumination system as in standard microscopes. Probe diameters of <1nm at the specimen are possible with this machine, allowing EELS analysis to be done at very high spatial resolution. The main disadvantage of using field emission guns is the very high vacuum required (<1 $\times 10^{-10}$ torr at the gun) to prevent positively charged contaminants from being accelerated into the tip and ultimately destroying it. This means that microscopes using this kind of illumination system must have their gun sections built to UHV standard which is very expensive. A bonus point is that the ultra clean vacuum system tends to reduce the amount of contamination occurring at the specimen. The article by Le Poole [1983] gives a good introduction to electron sources in the electron microscope.

1.2.2 The spectrometer

The spectrometer is a device which accepts a given angular distribution β of electrons scattered by a point on the specimen, and produces a first order (at least) image of this point at some dispersion plane, with chromatic aberration producing an image shift Δy for an energy difference ΔE (Figure 1.4). In general the dispersion plane is tilted by other aberrations to some angle η to the optic axis. Depending upon the design of the spectrometer, the first order focus achieved may be single (point source is imaged to a line) or double (point source is imaged to a point). The ratio $\Delta y/\Delta E$ is known as the dispersion and is generally of the order of 1-5 μ m/eV for simple spectrometers. It is possible to obtain larger values of the dispersion by using electrostatic lenses to decelerate the electron beam before the spectrometer entrance, but this is not often done due to the difficulty of shielding the required high voltages. The energy resolution of the spectrometer is determined by the ratio of the dispersion to the full width at half maximum ($Y_{1/2}$) of the image of the probe formed at the dispersion plane (Figure 1.5). $Y_{1/2}$ is determined by the combined effects of:

- 1) The object size (probe diameter) at the specimen multiplied by the magnification of the spectrometer and any intervening post specimen lenses.
- 2) Broadening of the image caused by the inherent energy spread of the incident electron

probe.

- 3) Contributions from any aberrations present in the spectrometer and intervening lenses.

In the case of microanalysis in the electron microscope the probe diameter can be considered to be negligible ($\sim 1\text{nm}$ for VG HB5) and it can be assumed that the spectrometer images a point source, thus only 2) and 3) above need give concern. The broadening caused by 2) is just the dispersion multiplied by the energy spread of the probe and is a fundamental resolution limit for any spectrometer. The contribution of 3) is generally more significant and is discussed in the next section.

1.2.3 Spectrometer aberrations and collection efficiency.

Most spectrometers in use are non-cylindrically symmetric devices and therefore contain aberrations of all orders. Assuming a first order focus has been achieved then the dominant aberrations will be of second order. Using the point source assumption the most important resolution limiting aberrations are proportional to β^2 (assuming a circular entrance aperture), since aberration terms proportional to off-axis distance are negligible (see Chapter 2). This means that high angular collection efficiency and high energy resolution are generally incompatible.

The situation is modified in the case of microscopes where the specimen is immersed in the objective lens field. In this case the portion of field after the specimen can be considered to act as a separate lens which supplies some favourable degree of angular compression to the scattered electrons. Of course it is not possible to vary the strength of this 'post-field lens' without changing the focus of the 'pre-field' or probe forming lens. Some degree of freedom is possible if, as in the HB5, the height of the specimen in the lens can be varied using a z lift stage. In this manner the lens strength can be varied and the probe refocussed by changing the position of the specimen, allowing some control over the post-field compression and hence the angular distribution of the scattered electrons. Naturally, changing the lens excitation moves image position, hence defocussing the object for the spectrometer and reducing the energy resolution, so that this method of varying the angular distribution of the scattered electrons has very limited use.

In order to improve the collection efficiency without sacrificing energy resolution it is often possible to provide some limited form of second order aberration correction to the

spectrometer thus allowing larger collection angles to be used. Another solution to the same problem is to interpose one or more post specimen lenses (PSLs) between the specimen and the spectrometer. This technique has been developed by Buggy and Craven [1981] on the Glasgow HB5 where there are three post-specimen lenses between the objective lens and the spectrometer. By varying the strength of these lenses a large angular distribution from the specimen can be compressed to match a smaller spectrometer collection angle (Figure 1.6). Further, the effective object position for the spectrometer is controlled by the strength of the lenses, and the effective source size is determined by the spherical and chromatic aberrations of the post specimen lenses (assuming the combined magnification is small). If these lens aberrations are too large the performance of the spectrometer will suffer, as the effective source size may become large enough so that the uncorrected axial aberrations of the spectrometer become dominant. The combination of a large angular acceptance second order corrected spectrometer along with two post specimen lenses seems to provide an optimum solution to the problem of obtaining good collection efficiency along with high energy resolution in EELS experiments.

1.2.4 Recording the energy loss spectrum

The spectrometer forms an energy loss spectrum at a dispersion plane some distance from its exit face. This dispersion plane will in general be oriented at some angle η to the optic axis, as shown in figure 1.4. Physically, the spectrum is a distribution of electron intensity vs distance (\propto energy) which varies on a scale of $\sim 10^9$ electrons/sec at the zero loss peak down to ~ 10 electrons/sec at the far energy loss end (Figure 1.1). This means that any detection system must be capable of recording signals with a dynamic range $\sim 10^8$.

The most common method of recording the spectrum is to scan the spectrometer exit beam across a slit placed at the dispersion plane, behind the slit lies the electron detector - generally a block of scintillator placed in front of a photomultiplier tube (Figure 1.7). This technique is known as serial collection and is the method currently used at Glasgow. It has the advantages of simplicity, low detector noise, sensitivity independent of energy loss (since each data channel is sampled by the same detector), and large dynamic range.

There are two methods of scanning the electron beam across the slits. Scanning can be done either using scan coils after the spectrometer or, in the case of a magnetic sector, by changing the excitation of the magnet itself. The former technique is used at Glasgow, with the advantage that scanning is fast and hysteresis free. Unfortunately the tilted dispersion plane of the Glasgow spectrometer (Figure 1.4) means that the spectrum becomes

Figure 1.6

Post Specimen Optics In The HB5

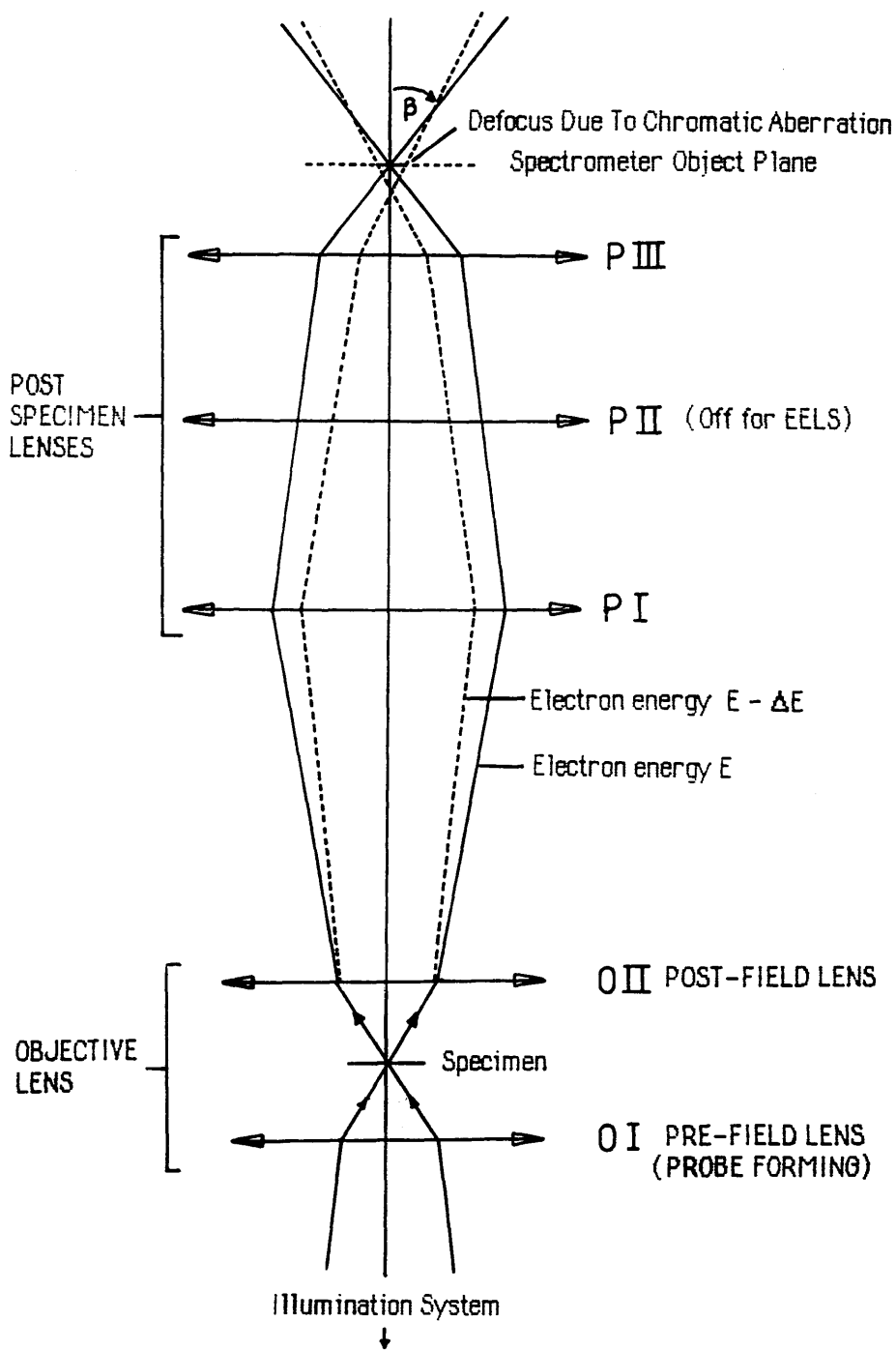
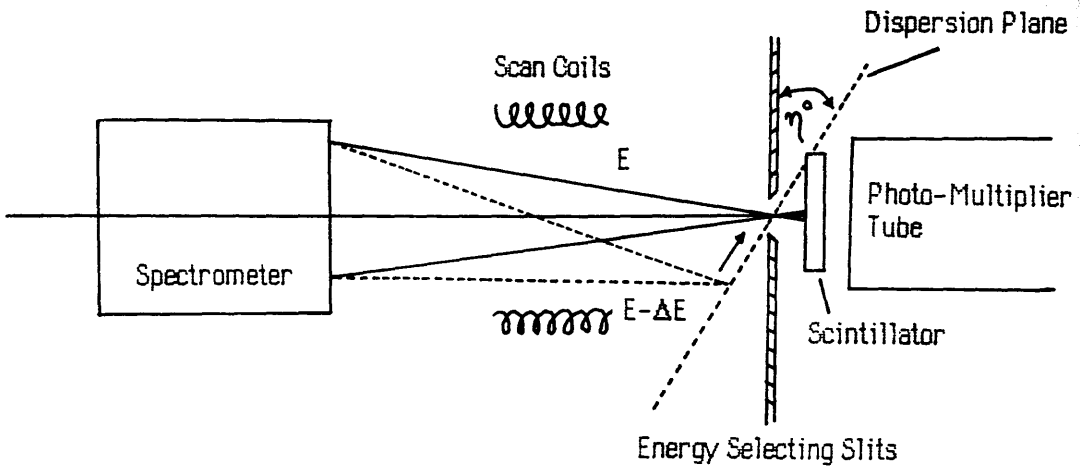


Figure 1.7

Serial Collection System



The serial collection system is a type of spectrometer that uses a single detector to measure the intensity of a beam of radiation as a function of energy. The system consists of a spectrometer, a set of energy selecting slits, a dispersion plane, a scintillator, and a photo-multiplier tube. The spectrometer emits a beam of radiation with energy E . The energy selecting slits select a narrow range of energies, $E \pm \Delta E$. The dispersion plane disperses the beam, and the scintillator converts the radiation into light. The photo-multiplier tube then detects the light and produces a signal that is proportional to the intensity of the radiation. The angle θ is the angle of dispersion.

defocussed as the scan moves away from the central ray, and consequently it is necessary to refocus the spectrum to compensate. Changing the spectrometer excitation, although slower, has a great advantage - aberrations which are proportional to the energy difference from the central ray, such as the dispersion plane tilt, are nullified so that the spectrometer image is always focussed in the plane of the slits.

It is usual to record the high signal intensities present in the low loss region of the spectrum by digitising the analogue output of the photomultiplier. The much smaller signal levels present in the far energy loss can be recorded using an increased photomultiplier gain G controlled by the high voltage bias applied to the tube, or alternatively the photomultiplier gain can be left constant and the far energy loss signal detected using a digital pulse counting system, with pulse height discriminators to eliminate spurious counts due to dark noise in the photomultiplier tube. The latter allows single electron detection for far energy loss signals and is the method used at Glasgow. Both signals (analogue counts and digital counts) are then combined using an algorithm developed by Craven and Buggy [1984] in such a way as to produce the complete spectrum.

The major drawback of serial collection is its inherently low collection efficiency. For example in a spectrum consisting of 1000 data channels each channel contains only 0.1% of the total available signal. If the spectrum could be recorded in a parallel manner (ie. all channels simultaneously) by some multielement detector, the collection efficiency could be improved by up to 1000 times, thus an equivalent spectrum could theoretically be recorded 1000 times faster with the specimen receiving only 1/1000 of the total electron dose. This would be of enormous benefit in cases where radiation damage, specimen contamination, stage drift or signal to noise ratio are the limiting factors.

1.2.5 Design specifications of a parallel detection system.

There are many technical difficulties to be overcome in designing a high performance parallel recording system, and the major requirements of such a system are outlined below:

- 1) High dynamic range and linear response to cope with the rapid change of signal intensity with energy loss.
- 2) Good energy resolution to make use of ELNES information.
- 3) Low noise detection system. A suitable detector will have many hundreds of individual

detection elements so that channel to channel variations in sensitivity and linearity must be kept to a minimum.

The dynamic range of a typical EELS spectrum is $\sim 10^8$; no solid state detector currently available is capable of this level of performance, so that the spectrum has to be recorded in discrete sections - the number of which depends upon the maximum dynamic range of the device. A major problem concerning energy resolution is the scattering of 100keV electrons as they strike the solid material of the detector. Lateral spreading is of the order of 10-50 μm depending upon the elemental composition (eg. the spread in silicon is $\sim 30\mu\text{m}$). Therefore the energy resolution of a solid state detector placed directly at the dispersion plane would be limited to between 5 and 25 eV, assuming a spectrometer dispersion of 2 $\mu\text{m}/\text{eV}$.

One solution to this problem is to provide some form of post spectrometer electron optical magnification of the dispersion. Such an optical system should not introduce any significant aberrations or artefacts into the spectrum, and should be capable of varying the dispersion over a wide range to suit the geometry of the detector used. Another difficulty encountered with parallel detection has already been mentioned - for a typical first order focussing spectrometer, such as the magnetic sector spectrometer currently installed on the HB5, the dispersion plane is not perpendicular to the optic axis of the spectrometer but is tilted by the second order aberrations to some angle η (Figure 1.4). This makes any post spectrometer magnification of the dispersion plane very difficult, so it is desirable that the second order aberrations can be corrected so that $\eta=0^\circ$.

At the time of writing there are several prototype parallel detection systems operating in different laboratories, [Egerton and Crozier 1987, Monson et al. 1982, Shuman 1981, McMullan et al. 1985, Bourdillon et al. 1985] and one system is soon to be commercially available [Krivanek et al. 1987]. All of these designs are different and it is clear that much work remains to be done to arrive at the optimum detection system. The following chapters identify the problems encountered in the design of parallel recording systems for EELS and hopefully provide some insight into the most practical solutions.

CHAPTER 2

Homogeneous field magnetic sector spectrometers - theory

Introduction

The design of a successful parallel recording system for EELS requires calculation of the optical properties of the spectrometer, in order to determine the electron intensity distribution at the spectrometer dispersion plane. Knowledge of this distribution is essential to optimise both post-spectrometer coupling optics and the geometry of the detector used. This chapter is mainly a review of the theory of homogeneous field magnetic sector spectrometers based on the work of Brown, Enge, Penner, and Heighway, and is included in order to provide a background and a consistent notation for the equations used later in the thesis. In particular the treatment draws heavily on the articles by Enge [1964,1967] and figures 2.8, 2.9, 2.10, 2.12, 2.13, 2.14 and 2.18 are essentially taken from these papers.

2.1 SPECTROMETER TYPES

The two types of energy analyser most commonly considered in electron energy loss spectroscopy are the homogeneous field magnetic sector (Figure 2.1) and the Wien filter (Figure 2.2). Other types are discussed in the review article by Pearce-Percy [1978].

2.1.1 The Wien Filter

In its simplest form the Wien filter consists of uniform electric \underline{E} and magnetic \underline{B} fields crossed perpendicularly. The particle beam to be analysed is injected along the normal to the \underline{E} - \underline{B} plane so that the force on an electron moving with velocity \underline{v} is the Lorentz force:

$$\underline{F} = -e [\underline{E} + (\underline{v} \times \underline{B})] \quad (2.1)$$

For a particle moving along the x axis with velocity v_0 such that $v_0 = E/B$ the net force is zero and there is no deflection. All other velocities will be deflected to form an energy spectrum, or more accurately a momentum spectrum. Note that focussing only occurs in the horizontal (x-y) plane so that a point source forms a line image. In order to achieve stigmatic focussing the electrostatic plates can be curved to introduce a component of \underline{E} in the z direction. This

Figure 2.1 Simple Magnetic Sector Analyser

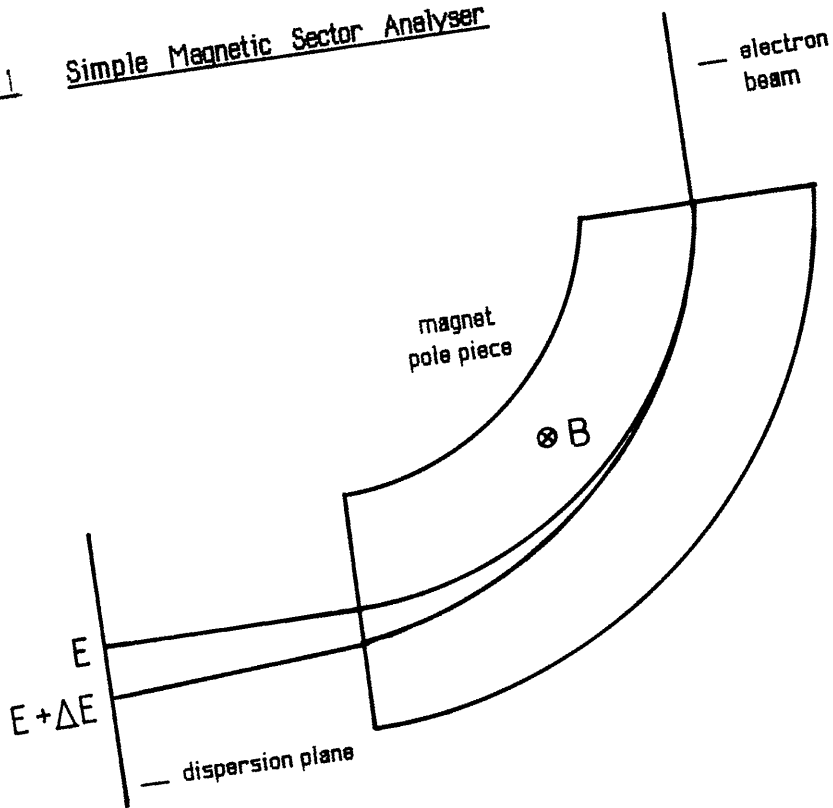
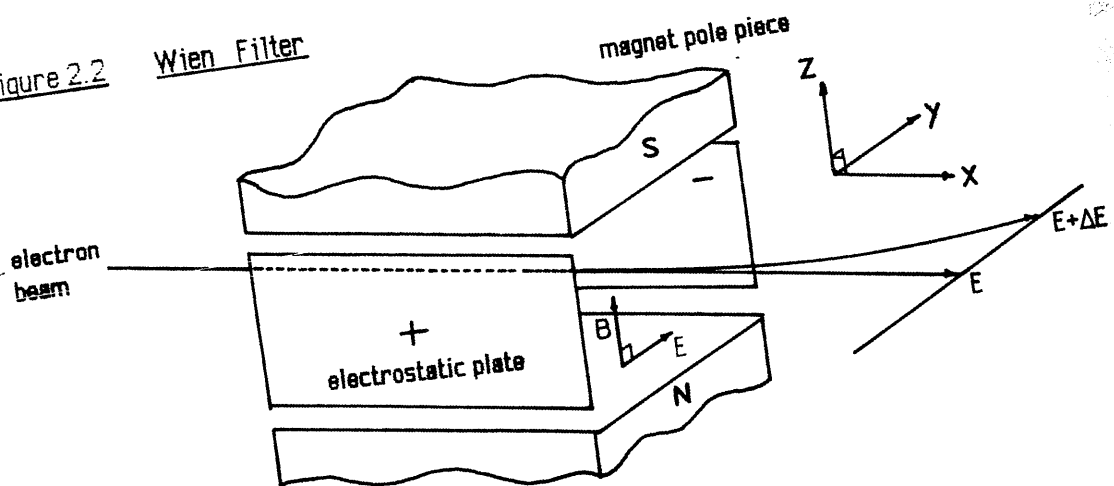


Figure 2.2 Wien Filter



component will cause vertical focussing to occur, allowing point to point imaging. The main disadvantage of the Wien filter is the complication of generating two separate fields, especially at higher beam voltages where electrical breakdown may occur.

2.1.2 The magnetic sector

The optical properties of magnetic sectors have been studied in great detail, principally because of their use in high energy particle accelerators. The theoretical studies are more complete than those of the Wien filter and this, allied to a simpler construction, has led to a wide acceptance of the design - particularly in commercial applications. This is the type of spectrometer which will be considered in detail here.

2.2 MATRIX FORMALISM

Prior to a discussion of the optical properties of magnetic sectors it will be useful to introduce the matrix method of calculation first used in ray optics and later introduced to charged particle optics by Penner [1961]. The advantage of this approach is that complex transport systems consisting of many elements can be analysed simply, with clear reference to the physical parameters involved.

2.2.1 Transfer matrix of a drift space

Consider a field free region of length D (Figure 2.3). A particle enters the region at position (x_0, z_0) with gradient x_0' . As there are no forces acting in this region the particle gradient will be unchanged at z_1 and the equations describing its position are:

$$\begin{aligned}x_1 &= x_0 + Dx_0' \\x_1' &= x_0'\end{aligned}$$

These linear equations can be conveniently expressed in matrix form as:

$$\begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_1' \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & D \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_0 \\ x_0' \end{bmatrix}$$

where the 2x2 matrix is known as the transfer matrix of a drift space of length D .

Figure 2.3 Drift Space

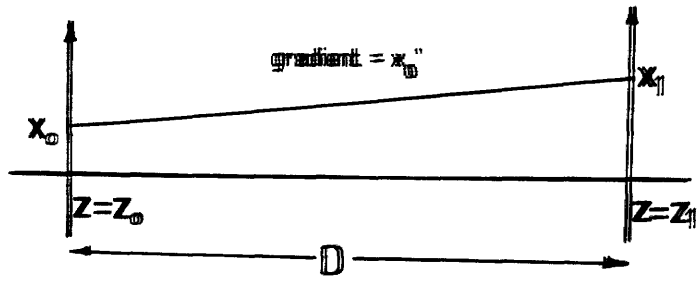


Figure 2.4 Thin Lens

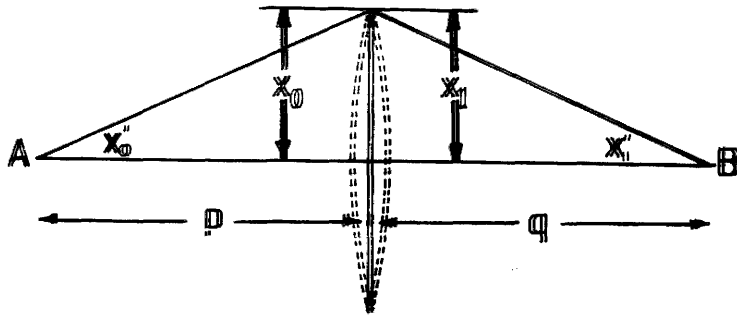
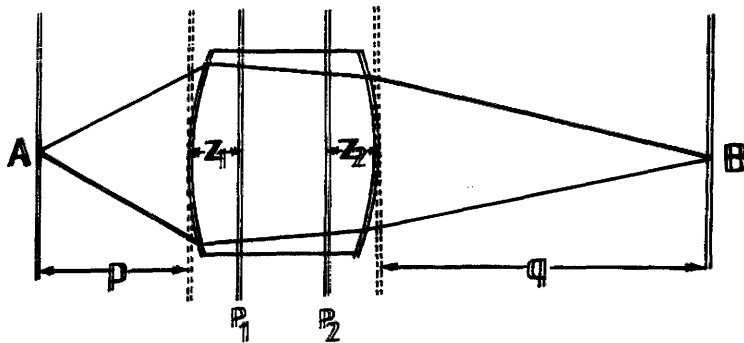


Figure 2.5 Thick Lens



2.2.2 Transfer matrix of a thin lens

A thin lens is a focussing device such that the gradient of a ray or particle entering the lens is altered whilst the position measured from the optic axis is unchanged. This requires that the principal planes are coincident at the centre of the lens. Of course, for true lens action the change in gradient must be proportional to the distance off axis at which the ray enters the lens. Figure 2.4 shows a particle entering a thin lens with coordinates (x_0, x_0') and leaving with coordinates (x_1, x_1') where $x_1 = x_0$. The equation of a thin lens is:

$$1 / p + 1 / q = 1 / f \quad (2.2)$$

where p and q are the object and image distances respectively, and f is the focal length. The trajectory equations are simply:

$$\begin{aligned} x_1 &= x_0 \\ x_1' &= -x_0 / f + x_0' \end{aligned}$$

So that the transfer matrix for the lens action between the principal planes is thus:

$$\begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_1' \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ -\frac{1}{f} & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_0 \\ x_0' \end{bmatrix} \quad (2.3)$$

Note that in both the above cases the determinant of the transfer matrix is unity. This is true generally and is a manifestation of Liouville's theorem of conservation of phase space area. For a proof of the above see Brown [1967].

2.2.3 Transfer matrix of a thick lens

The focussing elements of electron optical systems cannot in general be considered to act as thin lenses. Figure 2.5 is a schematic of a thick lens, in this case equation (2.3) above does not hold. However, if two planes P_1 and P_2 located at distances z_1 and z_2 from the lens boundaries are introduced, it is always possible to find values for z_1 and z_2 such that:

$$1 / (p + z_1) + 1 / (q + z_2) = 1 / f$$

When this equation holds P_1 and P_2 are known as the principal planes. The matrix formulation for a thick lens becomes:

$$\begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_1' \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} A & B \\ C & D \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_0 \\ x_0' \end{bmatrix} \quad (2.4)$$

where:

$$\begin{bmatrix} A & B \\ C & D \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & z_2 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ -\frac{1}{f} & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & z_1 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \quad (2.5)$$

i.e. the thick lens is equivalent to a thin lens flanked by two drift spaces, and again the determinant is unity.

2.2.4 Transfer matrix of an optical system

Now consider the simplest optical system (Figure 2.6) of two drift spaces of length p and q , separated by some focussing element - the complete transfer from object to image is obtained by multiplying together the respective transfer matrices.

$$\begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_1' \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & q \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} A & B \\ C & D \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & p \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_0 \\ x_0' \end{bmatrix} \quad (2.6)$$

Assuming that the two planes of interest Z_0 and Z_i are conjugate (see below) then p is the object distance, counted positive towards the left starting from the entrance plane, and q is the image distance counted positive towards the right starting from the exit plane. It is important to note the order in which the matrices are multiplied together - starting from the image point and working back towards the object.

2.2.5 Optical characteristics

Multiplying out equation (2.6) gives:

$$x_1 = (A + Cq)x_0 + [Ap + B + q(Cp + D)]x_0' \quad (2.7a)$$

$$x_1' = Cx_0 + (Cp + D)x_0' \quad (2.7b)$$

These relations reveal all the first order characteristics of the system :

1) Object / Image Conjugation - point to point focussing requires that image position x_1 is independent of the initial gradient x_0' . From equation (2.7a) the condition is:

$$C p q + A p + D q + B = 0 \quad (2.8)$$

2) Image Position - if the object position is known then (2.8) gives:

$$q = -(A p + B) / (C p + D) \quad (2.9)$$

3) Magnification . Assuming the conjugation relation (2.9) is satisfied then:

$$M = x_1 / x_0 = A + C q$$

$$\text{i.e. } M = A - C [(A p + B) / (C p + D)]$$

$$\text{or } M = (AD - BC) / (C p + D)$$

but (AD-BC) is simply the determinant of the focussing element transfer matrix and from before must be unity. Therefore:

$$M = 1 / (C p + D) \quad (2.10)$$

Complex systems with more than one element are handled in exactly the same manner by multiplication of the appropriate transfer matrices.

2.3 OPTICAL PROPERTIES OF MAGNETIC SECTORS

The literature contains many studies of the optical properties of magnetic sectors, eg. Penner [1961], Brown [1967,1980] one of the clearest and most comprehensive being that by Enge [1967]. This section essentially follows his treatment.

2.3.1 General representation of sector properties

Figure 2.7 represents an arbitrary magnetic sector which is mirror symmetric about a horizontal plane - i.e. the plane of the paper. For convenience this plane is known as the median plane and the direction of the field \underline{B} is perpendicular to the median plane, in what is known as the vertical plane. An arbitrary median plane ray, called the central ray, is chosen to define the origin of the coordinate systems, having a given position and direction at the input and a given momentum. The entrance coordinate system (x_0, y_0, z_0) is constructed as shown with the x direction perpendicular to the median plane, while the exit coordinate system (x_1, y_1, z_1) has the z axis displaced such that it coincides with the central ray after its deflection through the magnet. Given the entrance coordinates (x_0, y_0, z_0) , the slopes $x_0' =$

Figure 2.6 Simple Optical System

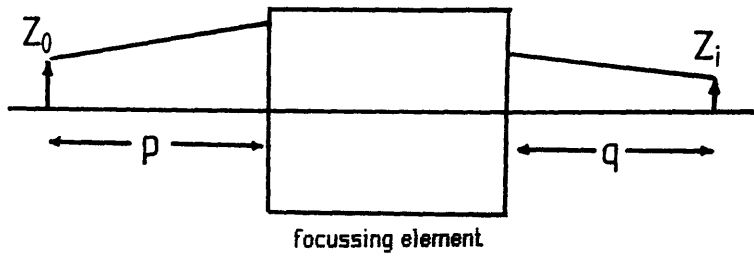
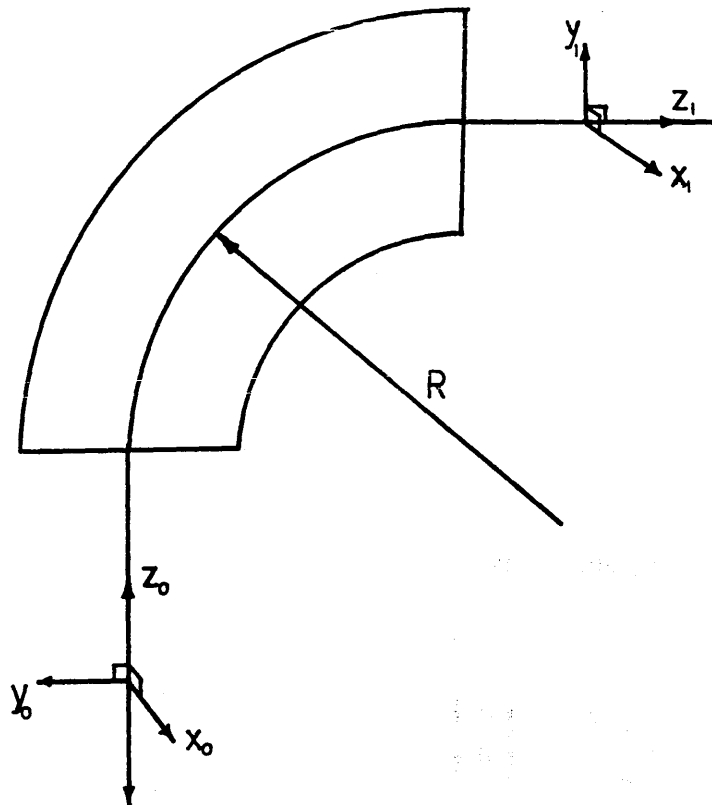


Figure 2.7 Magnetic Sector Coordinate Systems



$dx_0/dz_0, y_0' = dy_0/dz_0$ and the momentum deviation $\delta = \Delta p/p$ of an arbitrary ray, the problem is to determine the exit position (x_1, y_1, z_1) and gradients x_1', y_1' . That is to obtain functions f_n such that at $z_1 = 0$:

$$y_1 / R = f_1 (y_0 / R, y_0', x_0 / R, x_0', \delta) \quad (2.11a)$$

$$y_1' = f_2 (y_0 / R, y_0', x_0 / R, x_0', \delta) \quad (2.11b)$$

$$x_1 / R = f_3 (y_0 / R, y_0', x_0 / R, x_0', \delta) \quad (2.11c)$$

$$x_1' = f_4 (y_0 / R, y_0', x_0 / R, x_0', \delta) \quad (2.11d)$$

where y_0, y_0', x_0, x_0' are specified at $z_0 = 0$. Note that in order to make the above equations dimensionless all lengths (x, y) have been divided by the orbit radius of the central ray, R (Figure 2.7). It is reasonable, in electron microscopy, to assume that the parameters $y_0/R, x_0/R, y_0', x_0'$, and δ are all very much smaller than unity. For example in STEM the diameter of the probe which forms the object for the spectrometer may be as small as 1nm and the collection angle is normally < 5 mrad. The entire electron energy loss spectrum covers ~ 2000 eV, so that at an operating voltage of 100kV δ_{\max} is of the order of 0.01. It is therefore feasible to expand equations (2.11) in a Taylor series about the central ray :

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{y_1}{R} = & \left[\frac{\partial y_1}{\partial y_0} \left[\frac{y_0}{R} \right] + \frac{1}{R} \frac{\partial y_1}{\partial y_0'} [y_0'] + \frac{\partial y_1}{\partial x_0} \left[\frac{x_0}{R} \right] + \frac{1}{R} \frac{\partial y_1}{\partial x_0'} [x_0'] + \frac{1}{R} \frac{\partial y_1}{\partial \delta} [\delta] \right] \\ & + \frac{1}{2!} [\text{2nd order terms}] + \frac{1}{3!} [\text{3rd order terms}] + \dots \quad (2.12a) \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} y_1' = & \left[R \frac{\partial y_1'}{\partial y_0} \left[\frac{y_0}{R} \right] + \frac{\partial y_1'}{\partial y_0'} [y_0'] + R \frac{\partial y_1'}{\partial x_0} \left[\frac{x_0}{R} \right] + \frac{\partial y_1'}{\partial x_0'} [x_0'] + \frac{\partial y_1'}{\partial \delta} [\delta] \right] \\ & + \frac{1}{2!} [\text{2nd order terms}] + \frac{1}{3!} [\text{3rd order terms}] + \dots \quad (2.12b) \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{x_1}{R} = & \left[\frac{\partial x_1}{\partial y_0} \left[\frac{y_0}{R} \right] + \frac{1}{R} \frac{\partial x_1}{\partial y_0'} [y_0'] + \frac{\partial x_1}{\partial x_0} \left[\frac{x_0}{R} \right] + \frac{1}{R} \frac{\partial x_1}{\partial x_0'} [x_0'] + \frac{1}{R} \frac{\partial x_1}{\partial \delta} [\delta] \right] \\ & + \frac{1}{2!} [\text{2nd order terms}] + \frac{1}{3!} [\text{3rd order terms}] + \dots \quad (2.12c) \end{aligned}$$

$$x_1' = \left[R \frac{\partial x_1'}{\partial y_0} \left[\frac{y_0}{R} \right] + \frac{\partial x_1'}{\partial y_0'} [y_0'] + R \frac{\partial x_1'}{\partial x_0} \left[\frac{x_0}{R} \right] + \frac{\partial x_1'}{\partial x_0'} [x_0'] + \frac{\partial x_1'}{\partial \delta} [\delta] \right] \\ + \frac{1}{2!} [\text{2nd order terms}] + \frac{1}{3!} [\text{3rd order terms}] + \dots \quad (2.12d)$$

where all partial derivatives are evaluated at $x_0 = y_0 = x_0' = y_0' = \delta = 0$. Now the median plane symmetry of the magnet places some restrictions upon the allowable Taylor coefficients i.e.

$$y_1/R = f_1 (y_0/R, y_0', x_0/R, x_0', \delta) = f_1 (y_0/R, y_0', -x_0/R, -x_0', \delta) \quad (2.13a)$$

$$x_1/R = f_3 (y_0/R, y_0', x_0/R, x_0', \delta) = -f_3 (y_0/R, y_0', -x_0/R, -x_0', \delta) \quad (2.13b)$$

Expanding equations (2.12a-d) to second order and eliminating all terms which do not satisfy the symmetry conditions (2.13a,2.13b) gives :

$$\frac{y_1}{R} = \left[\frac{\partial y_1}{\partial y_0} \left[\frac{y_0}{R} \right] + \frac{1}{R} \frac{\partial y_1}{\partial y_0'} [y_0'] + \frac{1}{R} \frac{\partial y_1}{\partial \delta} [\delta] \right] \quad (2.14a) \\ + \left[\frac{R}{2} \frac{\partial^2 y_1}{\partial y_0^2} \left[\frac{y_0}{R} \right]^2 + \frac{1}{2R} \frac{\partial^2 y_1}{\partial y_0'^2} [y_0']^2 + \frac{R}{2} \frac{\partial^2 y_1}{\partial x_0^2} \left[\frac{x_0}{R} \right]^2 + \frac{1}{2R} \frac{\partial^2 y_1}{\partial x_0'^2} [x_0']^2 + \frac{1}{2R} \frac{\partial^2 y_1}{\partial \delta^2} [\delta]^2 \right] \\ + \left[\frac{\partial^2 y_1}{\partial y_0 \partial y_0'} \left[\frac{y_0}{R} y_0' \right] + \frac{\partial^2 y_1}{\partial x_0 \partial x_0'} \left[\frac{x_0}{R} x_0' \right] + \frac{\partial^2 y_1}{\partial y_0 \partial \delta} \left[\frac{y_0}{R} \delta \right] + \frac{1}{R} \frac{\partial^2 y_1}{\partial y_0' \partial \delta} [y_0' \delta] \right]$$

$$y_1' = \left[R \frac{\partial y_1'}{\partial y_0} \left[\frac{y_0}{R} \right] + \frac{\partial y_1'}{\partial y_0'} [y_0'] + \frac{\partial y_1'}{\partial \delta} [\delta] \right] \quad (2.14b) \\ + \left[\frac{R^2}{2} \frac{\partial^2 y_1'}{\partial y_0^2} \left[\frac{y_0}{R} \right]^2 + \frac{1}{2} \frac{\partial^2 y_1'}{\partial y_0'^2} [y_0']^2 + \frac{R^2}{2} \frac{\partial^2 y_1'}{\partial x_0^2} \left[\frac{x_0}{R} \right]^2 + \frac{1}{2} \frac{\partial^2 y_1'}{\partial x_0'^2} [x_0']^2 + \frac{1}{2} \frac{\partial^2 y_1'}{\partial \delta^2} [\delta]^2 \right] \\ + \left[R \frac{\partial^2 y_1'}{\partial y_0 \partial y_0'} \left[\frac{y_0}{R} y_0' \right] + R \frac{\partial^2 y_1'}{\partial x_0 \partial x_0'} \left[\frac{x_0}{R} x_0' \right] + R \frac{\partial^2 y_1'}{\partial y_0 \partial \delta} \left[\frac{y_0}{R} \delta \right] + \frac{\partial^2 y_1'}{\partial y_0' \partial \delta} [y_0' \delta] \right]$$

$$\frac{x_1}{R} = \left[\frac{\partial x_1}{\partial x_0} \left[\frac{x_0}{R} \right] + \frac{1}{R} \frac{\partial x_1}{\partial x_0'} [x_0'] \right] + \left[\frac{\partial^2 x_1}{\partial x_0 \partial \delta} \left[\frac{x_0}{R} \delta \right] + \frac{1}{R} \frac{\partial^2 x_1}{\partial x_0' \partial \delta} [x_0' \delta] \right] \quad (2.14c)$$

$$+ \left[R \frac{\partial^2 x_1}{\partial y_0 \partial x_0} \left[\frac{y_0}{R} \frac{x_0}{R} \right] + \frac{\partial^2 x_1}{\partial y_0 \partial x_0'} \left[\frac{y_0}{R} x_0' \right] + \frac{\partial^2 x_1}{\partial y_0' \partial x_0} \left[y_0' \frac{x_0}{R} \right] + \frac{1}{R} \frac{\partial^2 x_1}{\partial y_0' \partial x_0'} [y_0' x_0'] \right]$$

$$x_1' = \left[R \frac{\partial x_1'}{\partial x_0} \left[\frac{x_0}{R} \right] + \frac{\partial x_1'}{\partial x_0'} [x_0'] \right] + \left[R \frac{\partial^2 x_1'}{\partial x_0 \partial \delta} \left[\frac{x_0}{R} \delta \right] + \frac{\partial^2 x_1'}{\partial x_0' \partial \delta} [x_0' \delta] \right] \quad (2.14d)$$

$$+ \left[R^2 \frac{\partial^2 x_1'}{\partial y_0 \partial x_0} \left[\frac{y_0}{R} \frac{x_0}{R} \right] + R \frac{\partial^2 x_1'}{\partial y_0 \partial x_0'} \left[\frac{y_0}{R} x_0' \right] + R \frac{\partial^2 x_1'}{\partial y_0' \partial x_0} \left[y_0' \frac{x_0}{R} \right] + \frac{\partial^2 x_1'}{\partial y_0' \partial x_0'} [y_0' x_0'] \right]$$

2.3.2 First order matrix transformations

Considering the first order coefficients only, equations (2.14 a-d) are linear and can be rewritten in matrix form:

$$\begin{bmatrix} \frac{y_1}{R} \\ y_1' \\ \delta \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{y}{y} & \frac{y}{y'} & \frac{y}{\delta} \\ \frac{y'}{y} & \frac{y'}{y'} & \frac{y'}{\delta} \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \frac{y_0'}{R} \\ y_0' \\ \delta \end{bmatrix} \quad (2.15)$$

and similarly for the vertical plane:

$$\begin{bmatrix} \frac{x_1}{R} \\ x_1' \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{x}{x} & \frac{x}{x'} \\ \frac{x'}{x} & \frac{x'}{x'} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \frac{x_0}{R} \\ x_0' \end{bmatrix} \quad (2.16)$$

The partial derivatives that appear in the Taylor expansion have been written in abbreviated form and are known as 'focussing coefficients'. For example:

$$\frac{y}{y'} = \frac{1}{R} \frac{\partial y_1}{\partial y_0'} \quad \frac{y'}{y} = R \frac{\partial y_1'}{\partial y_0} \quad \frac{y}{\delta} = \frac{1}{R} \frac{\partial y_1}{\partial \delta}$$

$$\frac{x}{x'} = \frac{1}{R} \frac{\partial x_1}{\partial x_0'} \quad \frac{x'}{x} = R \frac{\partial x_1'}{\partial x_0}$$

Note that to first order the motions in the x and y planes are independent of each other. The values in the third row of equation (2.15) reflect the fact that static magnetic fields cannot alter the scalar momentum of charged particles.

2.4 DERIVATION OF MATRIX COEFFICIENTS FOR HOMOGENEOUS FIELD MAGNETIC SECTORS

There are two methods to obtain analytical expressions for the focussing coefficients (y/y') etc. The simplest calculation, as carried out by Penner [1961], is a geometrical analysis based on the fact that all trajectories within a sector are arcs of circles. This procedure is not capable of handling the effects of extended fringe fields however, and it is more useful to solve the trajectory equations for the motion of an electron through a sector magnet. Figure 2.8 shows a typical magnet with entrance and exit faces normal to the central ray and constant field $|B|=B_0$. R is the bending radius of the central ray and $r (=R+y)$ describes the position of an arbitrary ray. As before it is assumed that the deviations from the central ray are small ie. $y/R \ll 1$.

2.4.1 Derivation of equations of motion

Using the cylindrical coordinate system (r,θ,x) defined in Figure 2.8 consider motion in the median plane. The Lorentz force is:

$$\underline{F} = -e(\underline{v} \times \underline{B}) \quad \text{where}$$

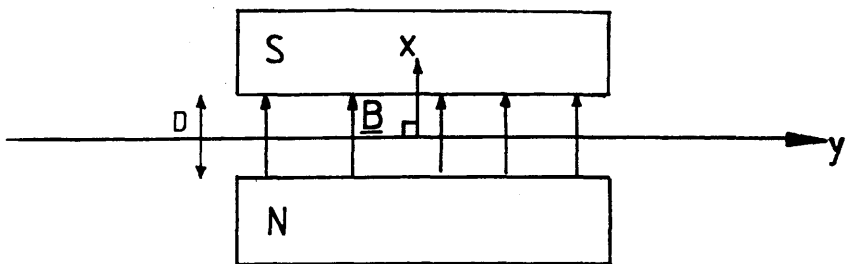
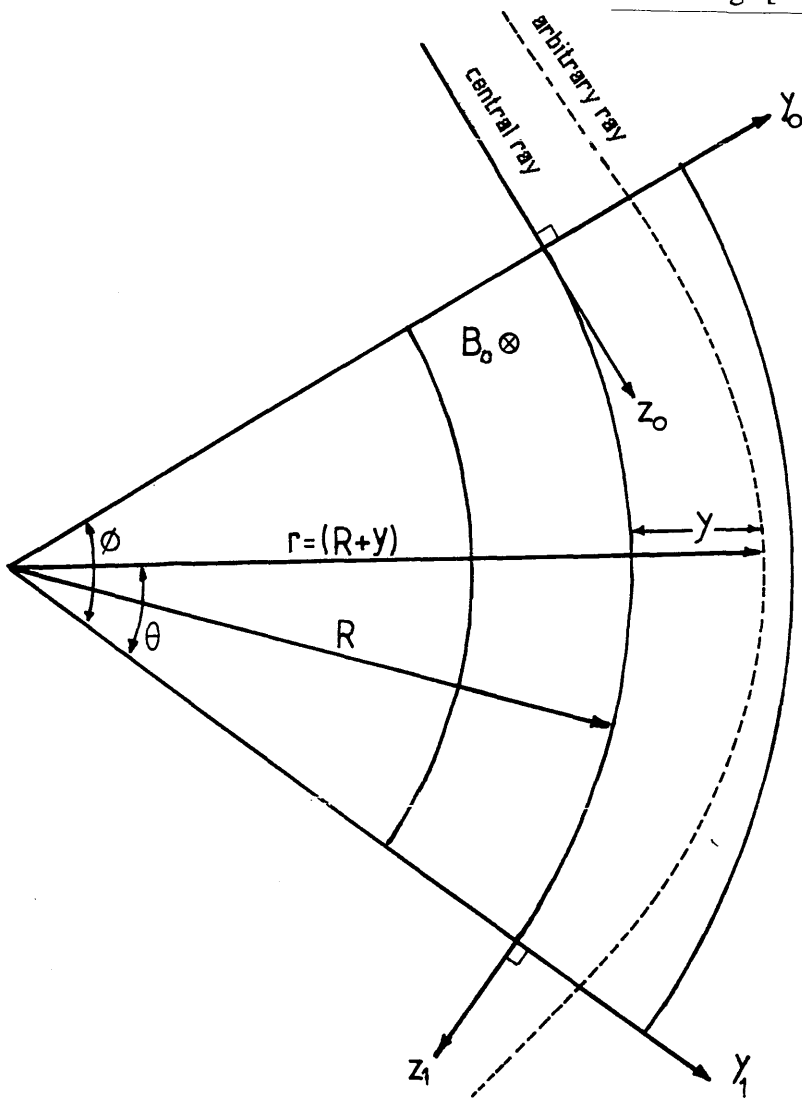
$$B(r, \theta, x) = B(0, 0, B_0)$$

carrying out the vector product gives the components of the force acting:

$$F_r = -e r \dot{\theta} B_0$$

Figure 2.8 Simple Magnetic Sector

After Enge [1967]



$$F_{\theta} = e \dot{r} B_0$$

$$F_x = 0$$

where the dot stands for time derivative and $-e$ is the charge on an electron. Now from Newton's second law:

$$\frac{d}{dt}(m\dot{r}) = m r \dot{\theta}^2 - e r \dot{\theta} B_0 \quad (2.17)$$

ie. mass x radial acceleration = mass x centripetal acceleration - Lorentz force. Equating the rate of change of angular momentum to the moment of the angular force gives:

$$\frac{d}{dt}(m r^2 \dot{\theta}) = r F_{\theta} = e r \dot{r} B_0 \quad (2.18)$$

Rewrite (2.17) as:

$$\dot{r} = r \dot{\theta}^2 - \frac{e}{m} r \dot{\theta} B_0$$

$$\ddot{r} = r \dot{\theta}^2 + \omega r \dot{\theta} \quad (2.19)$$

where $\omega = -eB_0/m$ is the 'cyclotron' frequency of a particle in the central orbit. Rewrite (2.18) as:

$$\frac{d}{dt}(r^2 \dot{\theta}) = -\omega r \dot{r}$$

$$\frac{d}{dt}(r^2 \dot{\theta}) = -\frac{\omega}{2} \frac{d}{dt} \left[r^2 + c \right]$$

$$\dot{\theta} = -\frac{\omega}{2} \left[1 + \frac{c}{r^2} \right]$$

Now when $r = R$, the radius of the central ray then:

$$\dot{\theta} = -\omega$$

$$c = R^2$$

substituting $r = (R+y)$:

$$\dot{\theta} = -\frac{\omega}{2} \left[1 + \frac{1}{\left[1 + \frac{y}{R} \right]^2} \right]$$

Assuming $y \ll R$ gives to first order :

$$\dot{\theta} = -\omega \left[1 - \frac{y}{R} \right]$$

which is inserted into equation (2.19) together with $r = R + y$ to give:

$$\frac{d^2 y}{dt^2} + \omega^2 y = 0 \quad (2.20)$$

This is the Kerst - Serber equation governing the excursion of a particle from the central ray in the median plane. The particle executes harmonic motion in the radial direction about the central ray, so it can be said that the magnet has a positive focussing action in the median plane. Motion in the x direction is dependent upon the r component of the magnetic field $B(r, \theta, x)$, for the case of a homogeneous field sector this is, of course, zero (Figure 2.8). Thus the simple sector discussed has no focussing properties in the x direction and would image a point source to a line, however it is quite possible to introduce a component of B_r by tapering the polefaces of the magnet - and indeed this is a common approach in high energy particle accelerators. However, there are simpler ways of introducing a vertical focus which are discussed in later sections.

2.4.2 The matrix coefficients

The time dependence can be eliminated from equation (2.20) by introducing a new independent variable $z = R\omega t$ where z is the distance along the central ray from the entrance of the magnet.

$$z = R \omega t$$

$$dz = R \omega dt$$

$$dz^2 = R^2 \omega^2 dt^2$$

substituting in (2.20) gives :

$$R^2 \omega^2 \frac{d^2 y}{dz^2} + \omega^2 y = 0 \quad \text{or :}$$

$$\frac{d^2 y}{dz^2} + \frac{y}{R^2} = 0 \quad (2.21)$$

The solution of equation (2.21) is:

$$y = y_A \sin \left(\frac{z}{R} + \gamma \right)$$

Which has a derivative with respect to z :

$$y' = \frac{y_A}{R} \cos \left(\frac{z}{R} + \gamma \right)$$

Now at the magnet entrance $z=0$ so :

$$y_0 = y_A \sin (\gamma)$$

$$y_0' = \frac{y_A}{R} \cos (\gamma)$$

Also at the exit $z = \Phi R$, where Φ is the spectrometer bend angle so :

$$y_1 = y_A \sin \left(\frac{\Phi R}{R} + \gamma \right)$$

$$= y_A \sin \gamma \cos \Phi + y_A \sin \Phi \cos \gamma$$

$$= y_0 \cos \Phi + y_0' R \sin \Phi$$

$$y_1' = \frac{y_A}{R} \cos \left(\frac{\Phi R}{R} + \gamma \right)$$

$$= \frac{y_A}{R} \cos \Phi \cos \gamma - \frac{y_A}{R} \sin \Phi \sin \gamma$$

$$= y_0' \cos \Phi - \frac{y_0}{R} \sin \Phi$$

These expressions can now be written in simple matrix form :

$$\begin{bmatrix} \frac{y_1}{R} \\ y_1' \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \cos \Phi & \sin \Phi \\ -\sin \Phi & \cos \Phi \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \frac{y_0}{R} \\ y_0' \end{bmatrix} \quad (2.22)$$

The equivalent transfer matrix for the vertical or x plane is of course that of a drift space of length $L = \Phi R$:

$$\begin{bmatrix} \frac{x_1}{R} \\ x_1' \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & \Phi \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \frac{x_0}{R} \\ x_0' \end{bmatrix} \quad (2.23)$$

Notice that the determinants of (2.22) and (2.23) are unity. Equation (2.22) shows that the magnet is behaving as a thick lens in the median plane and, referring back to section 2.2.3, the distances of the principal planes from the sector boundaries, z_1 and z_2 are found to be :

$$\frac{z_1}{R} = \frac{z_2}{R} = -\frac{(1 - \cos \Phi)}{\sin \Phi}$$

and the focal length is :

$$\frac{R}{f} = \sin \Phi$$

2.4.3 The effects of momentum variation

The coefficients (y/δ) and (y'/δ) of equation (2.6) still remain to be calculated. To find the effect of a momentum change Δp , notice that this new momentum must correspond to a new equilibrium orbit with radius :

$$r_\delta = R + y_\delta$$

For the central ray :

$$\frac{m v^2}{R} = -e v B_0 \quad \text{therefore} \quad p_0 = -e B_0 R$$

Now :

$$\begin{aligned} p_0 + \Delta p &= -e B_0 r_\delta \\ &= -e B_0 (R + y_\delta) \\ &= -e B_0 R (1 + y_\delta / R) \end{aligned}$$

so :

$$\delta = \frac{\Delta p}{p_0} = \frac{y_\delta}{R} \quad \text{or} \quad y_\delta = R \delta \quad (2.24)$$

This new momentum causes the particle to exhibit harmonic motion about the new equilibrium orbit (Figure 2.9). For the particle with initial conditions $y_0 = 0, y_0' = 0,$

$p=p_0+\Delta p$, the new orbit can be found from the transfer matrix (2.22). With respect to the new equilibrium orbit the particle enters the sector at $y_0'^* = 0$, $y_0^* = -y_\delta = -R\delta$. The transfer matrix describing the position of this particle at the magnet exit with respect to the new equilibrium orbit is :

$$\begin{bmatrix} \frac{y_1^*}{R} \\ y_1'^* \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \cos \Phi & \sin \Phi \\ -\sin \Phi & \cos \Phi \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \frac{-y_\delta}{R} \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

so :

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{y_1^*}{R} &= -\frac{y_\delta}{R} \cos \Phi \\ y_1'^* &= \frac{y_\delta}{R} \sin \Phi \end{aligned}$$

Now comparing the displacements y^* with the central ray :

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{y_1}{R} &= \frac{y_1^*}{R} + \frac{y_\delta}{R} \quad \text{i.e.} \quad \frac{y_1}{R} = -\frac{y_\delta}{R} \cos \Phi + \frac{y_\delta}{R} \\ \frac{y_1}{R} &= \frac{y_\delta}{R} (1 - \cos \Phi) \\ &= \delta (1 - \cos \Phi) \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} y_1' &= y_1'^* \quad \text{i.e.} \quad y_1' = \frac{y_\delta}{R} \sin \Phi \\ &= \delta \sin \Phi \end{aligned}$$

so the complete first order horizontal transfer matrix becomes :

$$\begin{bmatrix} \frac{y_1}{R} \\ y_1' \\ \delta \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \cos \Phi & \sin \Phi & 1 - \cos \Phi \\ -\sin \Phi & \cos \Phi & \sin \Phi \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \frac{y_0}{R} \\ y_0' \\ \delta \end{bmatrix} \quad (2.25)$$

Figure 2.9 Folded Out Motion Of Particle With Momentum $P_0 + \Delta P$ After Enge [1967]
With Reference To The Central Ray

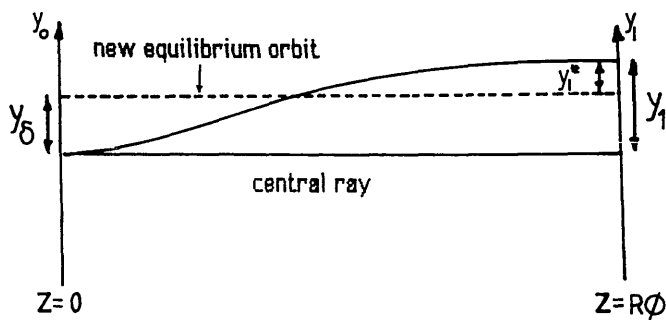


Figure 2.10a Magnet With Non-Zero Entrance And Exit Angles After Enge [1967]

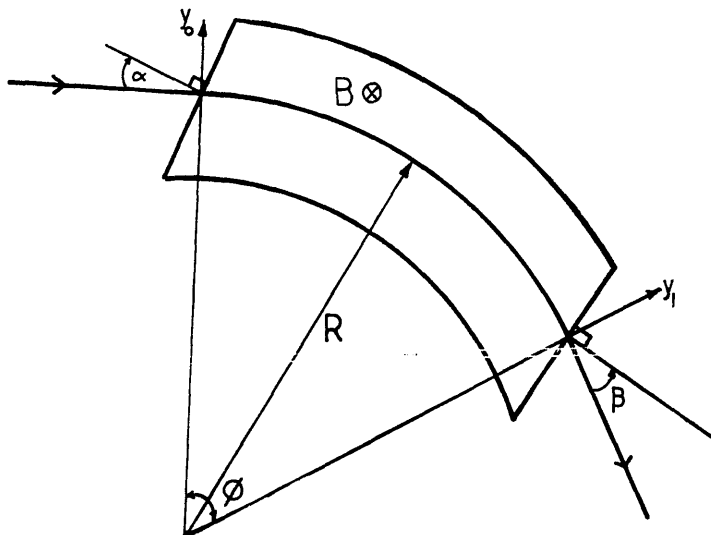


Figure 2.10b

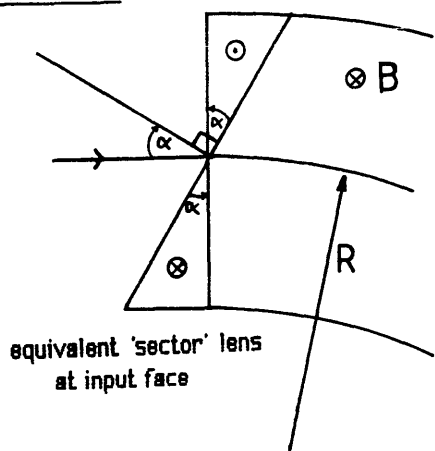
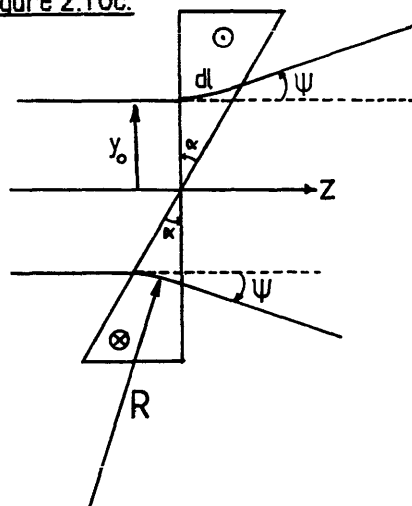


Figure 2.10c.



2.5 THE EFFECTS OF TILTED ENTRANCE AND EXIT PLANES

Figure 2.10a shows a magnet where the central ray does not enter and exit normal to the pole boundaries. The entrance angle α is the angle between the normal to the pole boundary and the central ray in entrance space, and β is the corresponding angle at the exit side. Both α and β are defined as positive when the normals are on the outside of the beam with respect to the centre of curvature.

2.5.1 The median plane.

The effect of positive angles α and β on median plane focussing is to reduce the overall focussing strength. Looking at the entrance side, figure 2.10a shows that positive α tends to remove some of the field traversed by particles with positive y , and to add more field for the inside rays - obviously this is a defocussing effect. Tilting the poleface is equivalent to superimposing a double sector magnet (Figure 2.10b) at the entrance, with the field direction reversed above and below the central ray as shown. This field is of the same strength as the main field and the radius of curvature of the particle is therefore the same as before (Figure 2.10c). If y_0 is small, i.e. small deviation from the central ray, arc dl is short so that the particle y component is approximately unchanged upon traversing the magnet. Thus the entrance sector, and hence the tilted poleface acts as a thin divergent lens. From Figure 2.10c:

$$dl \sim y_0 \tan \alpha$$

The radius of curvature of the trajectory is R since $|B| = B_0$. Hence :

$$dl = R \Psi \sim y_0 \tan \alpha$$

$$\Psi = \frac{y_0}{R} \tan \alpha$$

where Ψ is the angle of deflection. Now if Ψ is small then $\tan \Psi \sim \Psi = y_1'$ so that the transfer matrix for the thin lens can be written as :

$$\begin{bmatrix} \frac{y_1}{R} \\ y_1' \\ \delta \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ \tan \alpha & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \frac{y_0}{R} \\ y_0' \\ \delta \end{bmatrix} \quad (2.26)$$

The non-zero exit angle has an identical effect except α is replaced by β in the transfer

matrix. The complete transfer matrix in the median plane is found by multiplying together the three individual matrices starting from the exit face i.e. :

$$\begin{bmatrix} \frac{y_1}{R} \\ y_1' \\ \delta \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ \tan\beta & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \cos\Phi & \sin\Phi & 1-\cos\Phi \\ -\sin\Phi & \cos\Phi & \sin\Phi \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ \tan\alpha & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \frac{y_0}{R} \\ y_0' \\ \delta \end{bmatrix}$$

Which gives for the first order median plane matrix :

$$\begin{bmatrix} \frac{y_1}{R} \\ y_1' \\ \delta \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\cos(\Phi - \alpha)}{\cos\alpha} & \sin\Phi & 1 - \cos\Phi \\ -\frac{\sin(\Phi - \alpha - \beta)}{\cos\alpha \cos\beta} & \frac{\cos(\Phi - \beta)}{\cos\beta} & \sin\Phi + (1 - \cos\Phi) \tan\beta \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \frac{y_0}{R} \\ y_0' \\ \delta \end{bmatrix} \quad (2.27)$$

2.5.2 Motion in the vertical plane

It has been shown that a simple sector with straight edge polefaces normal to the direction of the central ray acts as a drift space in the vertical plane and a thick lens in the median plane. Figure 2.11a shows a vertical plane cross-section through the magnet poles at the exit face. The field well inside the magnet is constant, B_0 . However, at the polefaces the field cannot rise instantaneously from zero and there exists a region known as the fringing field zone where \underline{B} is not constant. Outside the prism the field lines are curved and lie in planes perpendicular to the polefaces (Figure 2.11b) and a component of \underline{B} in the z direction appears. This component affects the second order focussing properties in the median plane. For $\beta = 0$ however, B_r must still be zero because the field lines lie in planes perpendicular to the r direction. In the case of non-zero β the magnetic lines of force in the fringe field lie in planes perpendicular to the tilted poleface, so that B_z can be further resolved into components B_s and B_r , where s is the direction normal to the poleface (Figure 2.11c). The vertical motion is determined by the x component of Newtons' second law :

$$F_x = \frac{d}{dt} (m \dot{x}) = e r \dot{\theta} B_r \quad (\text{see 2.4.1})$$

Figure 2.11a Fringe Field In The Vertical (z-x) Plane At Exit Face

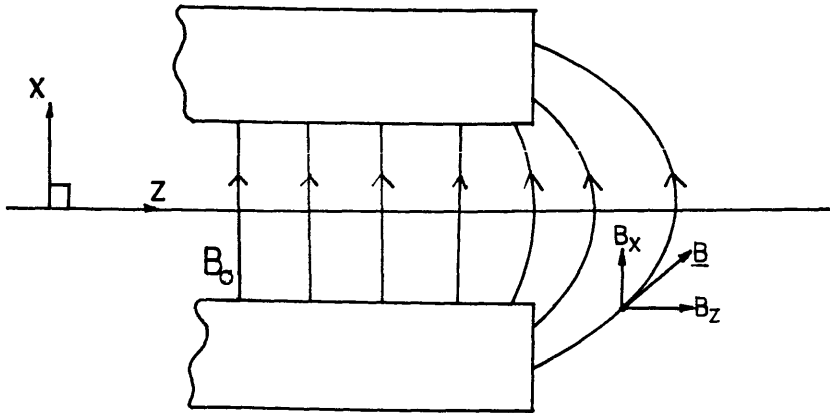


Figure 2.11b Fringe Field At Exit Face Of Magnet With No Poleface Rotation

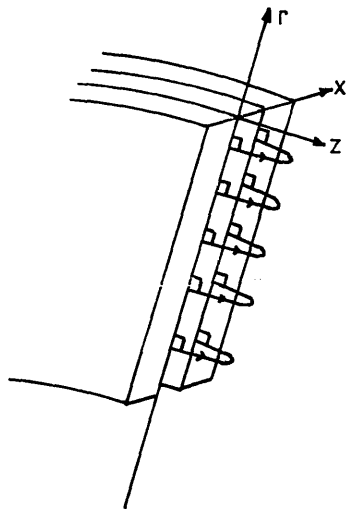
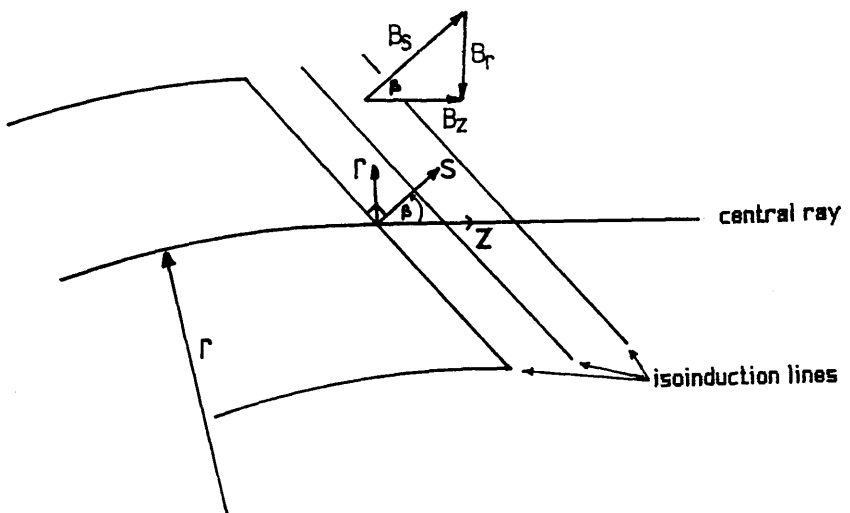


Figure 2.11c Fringe Field In Median Plane Of Magnet With Rotated Poleface



Now since the motion is mainly in the z direction $v \sim r \, d\theta/dt$ so :

$$\dot{x} = \frac{e}{m} v B_r$$

Remembering that :

$$B_0 = -\frac{m v}{e R}$$

gives :

$$\ddot{x} = -\frac{B_r}{B_0} \frac{v^2}{R}$$

and eliminating the time dependence as before gives :

$$\frac{d^2 x}{dz^2} = -\frac{B_r}{B_0 R}$$

$$\Delta \left[\frac{dx}{dz} \right] = -\frac{1}{B_0 R} \int_z B_r dz \quad (2.28a)$$

B_r can be found from Maxwells' equation $\text{Curl } \underline{B} = 0$ which gives :

$$\frac{\partial B_r}{\partial x} = \frac{\partial B_x}{\partial r}$$

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial x} \int B_r dz = \frac{\partial}{\partial r} \int B_x dz \quad \text{and from Fig.2.10c}$$

$$\int B_x dz \sim y_0 B_0 \tan \alpha = (r - R) B_0 \tan \alpha$$

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial r} (r - R) B_0 \tan \alpha = B_0 \tan \alpha$$

to first order. It is now possible to write :

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial x} \int B_r dz = B_0 \tan \alpha$$

$$\int B_r dz = x B_0 \tan \alpha + C$$

The field symmetry about the median plane means that at $x = 0$ (i.e. on the median plane) the component B_r must be zero so that the constant $C = 0$. Now using equation (2.28a) :

$$\Delta\left[\frac{dx}{dz}\right] = -\frac{1}{B_0 R} B_0 x \tan \alpha$$

$$\Delta[x'] = -\frac{x \tan \alpha}{R} \quad (2.28b)$$

This shows that the tilted entrance face behaves like a thin lens, which is focussing when $\alpha > 0$ and defocussing when $\alpha < 0$ - the opposite to the horizontal plane case. The effect of the exit angle β is identical. The total transfer matrix for vertical plane focussing is found by multiplying equation (2.23) by the appropriate thin lens matrices :

$$\begin{bmatrix} \frac{x_1}{R} \\ x_1' \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ -\tan\beta & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & \Phi \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ -\tan\alpha & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \frac{x_0}{R} \\ x_0' \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} \frac{x_1}{R} \\ x_1' \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1-\Phi\tan\alpha & \Phi \\ -\tan\alpha-\tan\beta+\Phi\tan\alpha\tan\beta & 1-\Phi\tan\beta \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \frac{x_0}{R} \\ x_0' \end{bmatrix} \quad (2.29)$$

Note that the tilted polefaces correspond to the introduction of a quadrupole component to the entrance field (see chapter 4).

2.6 THE EFFECTS OF EXTENDED FRINGING FIELDS

All of the first order calculations in the previous sections assumed that the electron beam moves from a field free region to a region of constant field B_0 over a very short distance. In this way the effects of tilting the polefaces could be examined by considering the equivalent thin lens properties. These calculations are known as SCOFF (sharp cut off fringing field) calculations. In this type of calculation the effect of the fringing field is approximated by displacing the magnetic field boundary from the poleface edge. There are empirical methods for determining the approximate distance between the polepiece edge and the effective field boundary, but the essential thing about SCOFF calculations is that the transition from constant field to zero field is considered to occur over a vanishingly small distance. This is, of course, only an approximation as real sector magnets have fringe fields where \underline{B} rises

from zero to its constant value over a considerable distance - comparable to the polepiece gap. The influence of this extended fringing field (EFF) upon the optical properties of the sector is not negligible and must be considered in any accurate design.

2.6.1 Field curves and semiempirical approximations

The shape and extent of the fringing field depends upon the geometry of the sector in question, the shape and position of the field producing coils, and the presence of any external field clamping devices. As such it is obvious that to develop a general theory to cover all possible situations would be very difficult; consequently semiempirical methods of calculation are usually adopted. Figure 2.12 shows a typical fringing field curve plotted against s' , the distance from the pole edges in units of the gap width D . The field $B_{x,0}$ is the x component of the magnetic field measured in the median plane normal to the polepiece boundary and midway between the corners of the polepieces. Enge [1967] provides an analytical expression for this type of curve :

$$h(s) = B_{x,0} / B_0 = 1 / (1 + \exp(S)) \quad (2.31)$$

where :

$$S = c_0 + c_1s + c_2s^2 + c_3s^3 \quad (2.32)$$

The constants c_n have to be determined for each particular case. The variable s in equation (2.31) is again the distance along the normal in units of D , but the origin for s has been placed at the 'virtual field boundary' (vfb) i.e. the point where :

$$\int_0^{\text{vfb}} B_{x,0}(\text{SCOFF}) ds' = \int_0^{\infty} B_{x,0}(\text{EFF}) ds'$$

(Figure 2.12). This means that the pole edges are at negative s . The ratio $B_{x,0} / B_0$ can be expressed by a function $h(s)$ where :

$$\lim_{s \rightarrow \infty} h(s) = 0 \quad \text{and} \quad \lim_{s \rightarrow -\infty} h(s) = 1$$

$$\text{i.e.} \quad \int_{s_1}^{\infty} h(s) ds \sim s_1 \quad \text{for large } s_1$$

This means that the angle of deflection of particles going through this fringing field is nearly identical to that of a SCOFF field terminating at $s=0$. Off the median plane, the x component of the field is modified, and there will also be a y and z component. Figure 2.13 defines the coordinate systems. The dimensionless coordinate s is found by noting :

Figure 2.12 Example Fringe Field Curve Taken From Enge [1967]

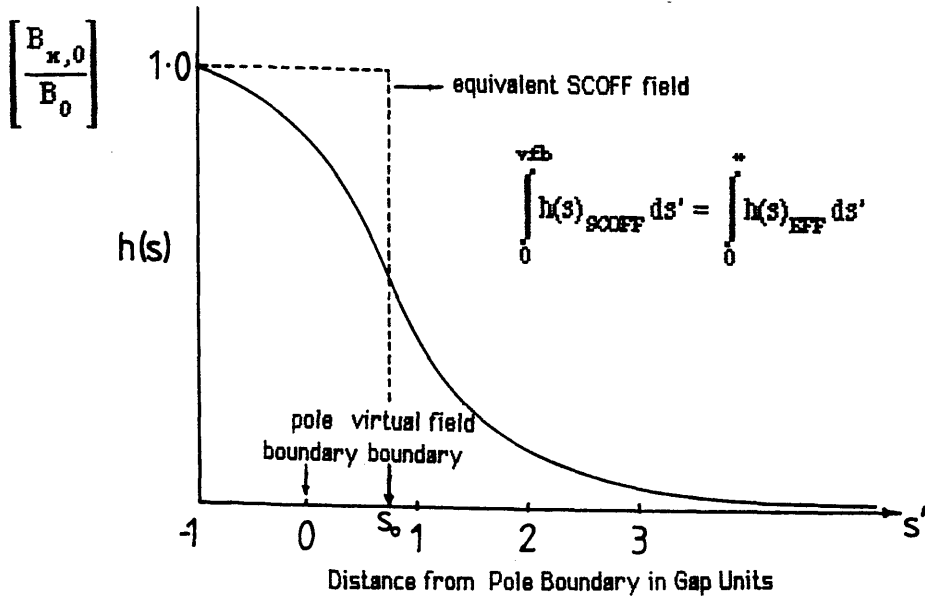


Figure 2.13 Coordinate Systems For EFF Calculations After Enge [1967]

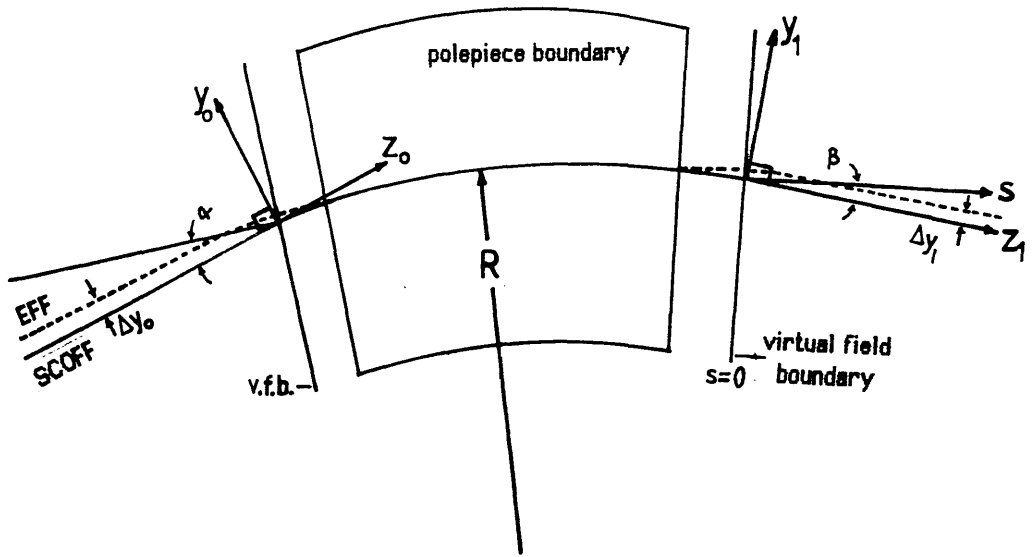
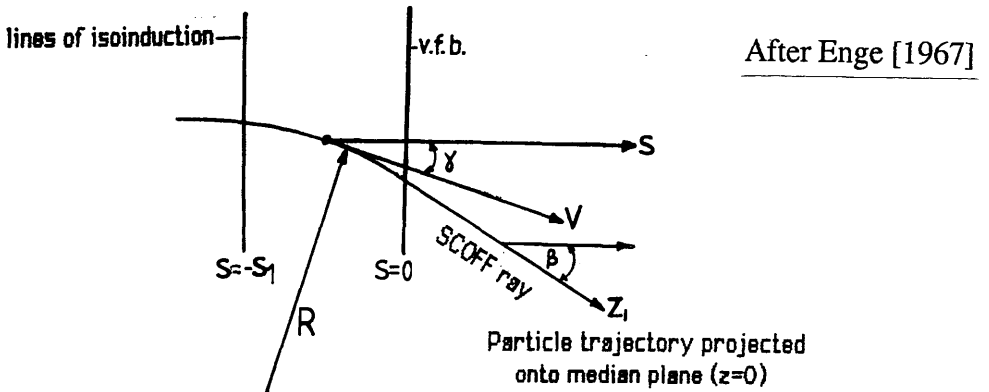


Figure 2.14 Defining Angle γ Between Velocity Vector And Normal To The Field Boundary



$$z \cos\beta + y \sin\beta = \left[\frac{z^2}{Ds} + \frac{y^2}{Ds} \right]$$

$$(Ds)^2 = z^2 + y^2$$

$$\frac{z \cos\beta + y \sin\beta}{D} = s$$

in the exit coordinate system (subscripts 1 have been dropped). Off the median plane, the field components can be expressed in the form of a Taylor series in x . Symmetry conditions imply that $B_x(x) = B_x(-x)$, so the expansion for B_x can contain only even powers of x (Figure 2.11a). Similarly $B_y(x) = -B_y(-x)$ and $B_z(x) = -B_z(-x)$ so that B_y and B_z expansions contain only odd powers of x . To first order :

$$B_x = B_{x,0} \quad (2.33a)$$

$$B_z = x \left[\frac{\partial B_z}{\partial x} \right]_{x=0} \quad (2.33b)$$

$$B_z = x \left[\frac{\partial B_{x,0}}{\partial z} \right] \quad (2.33c)$$

where (2.33c) is obtained from (2.33b) using $\text{curl } \underline{B}=0$. From the definition of $h(s)$:

$$\begin{aligned} B_{x,0} &= B_0 h(s) \\ \frac{\partial B_{x,0}}{\partial z} &= B_0 \frac{dh(s)}{ds} \frac{ds}{dz} \\ B_z &= x B_0 \frac{dh(s)}{ds} \frac{\cos\beta}{D} \end{aligned} \quad (2.34)$$

where B_z was obtained using equation (2.33c). In a similar manner it can be shown that :

$$B_y = \frac{x}{D} B_0 \sin\beta \frac{dh(s)}{ds} \quad (2.35)$$

2.6.2 Calculation of trajectories (median plane)

For the purposes of calculation it can be assumed that the EFF trajectory well inside the magnet coincides with that of the SCOFF central ray which is a circle segment inside the virtual field boundaries (Figure 2.13) and straight lines, tangents to the circle, outside these boundaries. The radius of curvature in the EFF fringing field is larger than that for the

SCOFF case (as $B_{x,0}(\text{EFF}) < B_0$ for $s > 0$), so the real (EFF) trajectory will start to diverge from the SCOFF line when the field begins to decrease (exit side). It will still be curving towards the SCOFF ray after the virtual field boundary and will eventually leave the fringing field parallel to the SCOFF ray, as both particles will have traversed the same field integral. The entrance trajectories obey similar restrictions. Since, to first order, the ray gradients remain unchanged the only effect to calculate is the entrance and exit displacements Δy_0 and Δy_1 . Field symmetry about the median plane implies that any differences between median plane motion and motion in any y - z plane off the median plane must be of second and higher even orders in x . Such factors can be neglected at present by assuming that $x=0$ always. Now on the median plane :

$$F_y = e v_z B_x = m \frac{d^2 y}{dt^2}$$

eliminating the time dependence gives:

$$v_z^2 \frac{d^2 y}{dz^2} = \frac{e v_z}{m} B_x$$

writing :

$$\frac{m v^2}{R} = -e v B_0$$

it is possible to write $v \sim v_z$ as the motion under consideration is very largely in the z direction. Substituting this expression in above gives :

$$\frac{d^2 y}{dz^2} = \frac{e B_x}{-e R B_0} = -\frac{h}{R} \quad (2.36)$$

From equation (2.31) h is a function of s and :

$$dz = \frac{D}{\cos\beta} ds \quad (2.37)$$

so integrating (2.36) gives :

$$\int_{s_1}^s \frac{d^2 y}{dz^2} dz = - \int_{s_1}^s \frac{h(s)}{R} \frac{D}{\cos\beta} ds$$

$$\frac{dy}{dz} \Big|_s - \frac{dy}{dz} \Big|_{s_1} = - \frac{D}{R \cos\beta} \int_{s_1}^s h(s) ds$$

where the gradient dy/dz at $-s_1$ is the slope of both the EFF and SCOFF trajectories at the position $s = -s_1$, inside the magnet where the rays coincide. The SCOFF fringing field function can be written as :

$$\begin{aligned} h_0(s) &= 1 & \text{for } s < 0 \\ h_0(s) &= 0 & \text{for } s > 0 \end{aligned}$$

and the difference in slopes between the EFF and SCOFF rays is :

$$\left[\frac{dy}{dz} \right]_{\text{EFF}}^s - \left[\frac{dy}{dz} \right]_{\text{SCOFF}}^s = - \frac{D}{R \cos \beta} \int_{-s_1}^s (h_0 - h) ds$$

and remembering that :

$$\int_{-s_1}^{\infty} h(s) ds = s_1$$

it is obvious that for $s = \infty$ the difference in slope is zero. Integrating again :

$$\begin{aligned} \int_{-s_1}^s dz \int_{-s_1}^s \frac{d^2 y}{dz^2} dz &= \int_{-s_1}^s \left[\frac{-D}{R \cos \beta} \int_{-s_1}^s h(s) ds \right] dz \\ y|_s - y|_{s_1} &= \frac{D^2}{R \cos^2 \beta} \int_{-s_1}^s ds \int_{-s_1}^s (h_0 - h) ds \end{aligned}$$

substituting for dz . The left hand term $y|_{s_1}$ is the position of both the EFF and SCOFF trajectories at $s = -s_1$. The difference in position between the EFF and SCOFF rays after they have passed through the fringing field is :

$$y_{\text{EFF}} - y_{\text{SCOFF}} = \frac{D^2}{R \cos^2 \beta} I_1 = \Delta y_1 \quad \text{where :}$$

$$I_1 = \int_{-s_1}^{\infty} ds \int_{-s_1}^s (h_0 - h) ds$$

Similarly at the entrance :

$$\Delta y_0 = \frac{D^2 I_1}{R \cos^2 \alpha}$$

The integral I_1 should be obtained experimentally for each sector under consideration. Enge[1967] gives some values for typical sector designs of the order of 0.4 - 0.9. The effect of the extended fringing field on the horizontal plane focussing is to produce a zeroth order (i.e. independent of y, z, y', z', δ) displacement to the beam. Thus, if the sector is aligned with respect to this new centre line all the first order horizontal plane matrix coefficients calculated before are valid.

2.6.3 Vertical (x) plane motion

Vertical focussing effects occur because of the existence of a component of B_y in the fringing field, i.e. the region where dh/ds is non-zero. The focussing force is proportional to $(dh/ds)\tan \gamma$ where γ is the angle between the normal to the field boundary and the velocity vector of the particle (Figure 2.14). Therefore the focussing forces are largest in the region where dh/ds is greatest. The SCOFF approximation has $h(s)$ as a step like function at the virtual field boundary, so dh/ds is non-zero over a very localised region. For the SCOFF exit fringing field $\gamma = \beta$ in the region of maximum dh/ds - i.e. the virtual field boundary (Figure 2.13). The extended fringing field is different, however, as when the particle passes through maximum dh/ds it has not yet experienced the full angle of deflection, so that $\gamma < \beta$ and consequently the focussing force is less. There is no change to first order in the exit coordinates for the EFF and SCOFF rays in the vertical plane if the fringe field is still considered to be a thin lens for z focussing (see section 2.6.4). Let γ describe the direction of the beam as projected down on the median plane, and z describe the length of path along this projection (Figure 2.14). Consider a particle moving parallel to the median plane outside the exit field i.e. at $z = \infty$, $x = x_1$, $dx/dz = 0$. Equations (2.36) and (2.37) can be rewritten as :

$$\frac{d\gamma}{dz} = - \frac{h(s)}{R}$$

$$dz = \left[\frac{D}{\cos \gamma} \right] ds$$

Integrate this last equation once through the fringe field region :

$$\int_s^{\infty} \cos \gamma \, d\gamma = -\frac{D}{R} \int_s^{\infty} h(s) \, ds$$

Now for $s = \infty$, $\gamma = \beta$ so :

$$\sin \gamma = \sin \beta - \frac{D}{R} \int_s^{\infty} h(s) \, ds \quad (2.37a)$$

Replace β by γ in equation (2.35) to give :

$$B_y = \frac{x}{D} B_0 \sin \gamma \frac{dh}{ds}$$

Newtons' Law for motion in the x direction is :

$$v_z^2 m \frac{d^2 x}{dz^2} = -\frac{e v_z B_0 x}{m D} \sin \gamma \frac{dh}{ds}$$

Now substitute $mv_z \sim mv = -e B_0 R$:

$$\frac{d^2 x}{dz^2} = \frac{x}{D R} \sin \gamma \frac{dh}{ds}$$

and integrating this expression through the fringing field using the previous expression for dz :

$$\frac{dx}{dz} = \int_s^{\infty} \frac{x}{R} \tan \gamma \, dh \quad (2.38)$$

solve this by successive approximation by writing $x = x_1$ and $\gamma = \beta$ at large s :

$$\int_s^{\infty} dx = \int_s^{\infty} \frac{D}{\cos \beta} \, ds \int_s^{x_1} \frac{x_1}{R} \tan \beta \, dh$$

$$x_1 - x = x_1 \frac{D \tan \beta}{R \cos \beta} \int_s^{\infty} h \, ds$$

$$x = x_1 \left[1 - \frac{D \tan \beta}{R \cos \beta} \int_s^{\infty} h \, ds \right]$$

Substitute this expression into (2.38) together with an expression for $\tan \gamma$ obtained from equation (2.37a) :

$$\tan \gamma = \tan \beta - \frac{1}{\cos^3 \beta} \left[\frac{D}{R} \int_s^\infty h \, ds \right]$$

$$\frac{dx}{dz} = \frac{x_1}{R} \int_s^\infty \left[1 - \frac{D \tan \beta}{R \cos^3 \beta} \int_s^\infty h \, ds \right] \left[\tan \beta - \frac{D}{R \cos^3 \beta} \int_s^\infty h \, ds \right]$$

and it can be shown that the total change in slope through the exit fringing field is :

$$\Delta \left[\frac{dx}{dz} \right] = -\frac{x_1}{R} \left[\tan \beta - \frac{D}{R} \left[\frac{1 + \sin^2 \beta}{\cos^3 \beta} \right] \int_{-s_1}^\infty dh \int_s^\infty h \, ds \right]$$

to first order. The reduction in vertical focussing implied by the above equation is small when D/R is small, and can be expressed as a decrease in the exit angle β so that the effective exit angle is written as :

$$\tan \beta_v = \tan \beta - \frac{D I_2 (1 + \sin^2 \beta)}{R \cos^3 \beta}$$

where I_2 is given by :

$$I_2 = \int_{-s_1}^\infty dh \int_s^\infty h \, ds$$

Assuming that the fractional term above is small it is possible to simplify the equation to :

$$\beta_v = \beta - \frac{D I_2 (1 + \sin^2 \beta)}{R \cos \beta} \quad (2.39)$$

and similarly for the entrance side :

$$\alpha_v = \alpha - \frac{D I_2 (1 + \sin^2 \alpha)}{R \cos \alpha} \quad (2.40)$$

The reduction in vertical focussing is accounted for if the poleface rotation angles α and β in the vertical transfer matrix are replaced by the effective angles α_v and β_v .

2.6.4 Fringe field clamping

The previous section provides integral expressions for the effective entrance and exit angles α , β which are used to account for the loss in vertical focussing caused by the presence of extended fringing fields. Enge[1964] has calculated values of the integrals I_1 and I_2 pertaining to specific pole geometries and coil arrangements. However, it is clear that precise determination of the position of the virtual field boundaries and evaluations of the integral equations (2.39),(2.40) for an arbitrary design requires experimental measurement of the fringe field component $B_{x,0}$. Another problem is that realistic fringe fields have a long tail at low field strength which extends far out from the magnet. The vertical focussing occurs through the action of the component of B_y in the fringing field (section 2.6.3) and from equation (2.35) B_y is proportional to $dh(s)/ds$. Thus, if $dh(s)/ds$ is non-zero over an extended region then so is B_y and the fringe field cannot be considered to act as a thin lens for vertical focussing. To overcome these problems it has become common practice to employ a technique known as 'field clamping' first developed in high energy physics. The clamp is a piece of high permeability material placed near the edge of the magnet with a hole to allow passage of the beam (Figure 2.15a). Such a clamp behaves as a 'magnetic short circuit' and acts to terminate the fringe field in a shorter distance. Figure 2.15b illustrates the action of the field clamp in 'collecting' field lines. As can be seen from figure 2.15b the clamp tends to extract field lines from the pole gap and the field strength between the poles falls off earlier causing the virtual field boundary to move closer to the mechanical boundary.

Investigations of the design of field clamps have been carried out with reference to sector magnets used in particle accelerators by many authors, including Hübner and Wollnik [1970]. Generally, it must be pointed out that many of the factors considered in these papers are concerned with saturation effects due to the high magnetic fields used in these machines (i.e. ~ 10000 gauss). Some designers, such as Crewe et al. [1971] and Egerton [1980], have applied these designs directly to EELS spectrometers, even following the high energy practice of rounding the edges of the sector polefaces. It has been shown by Braams [1964] that this practice causes the field inside the magnet to fall off even sooner. The theory is that by constructing the correct curvature [Steffen 1965] the virtual field boundary can be made coincident with the mechanical boundary thus simplifying the calculations. In practice the required hyperbolic surface is approximated by a 45° taper of the pole edges. There are two objections to this:

1) By reducing the field in the gap the integral I_2 is increased and $h(s)$ is made to vary over a

Figure 2.15a Magnetic Fringe Field Clamp (After Heighway)

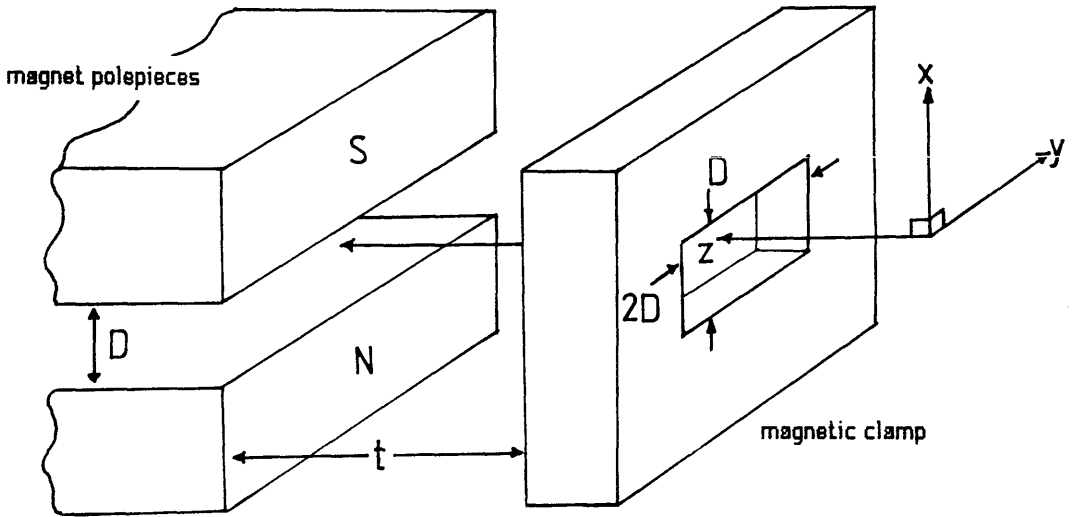
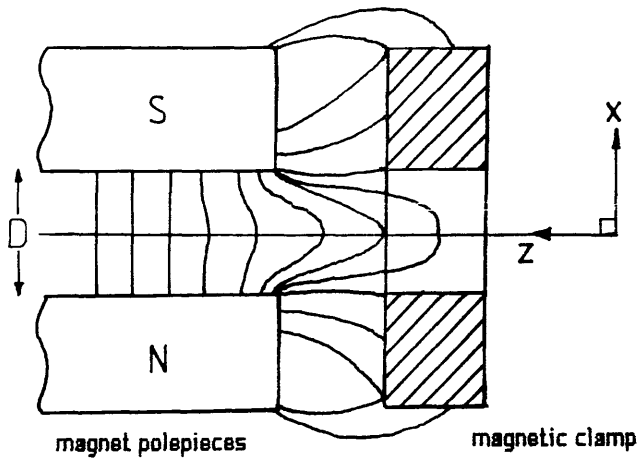


Figure 2.15b Action Of Fringe Field Clamp (After Hubner And Wollnik)



larger distance - thus violating the thin lens criterion of the fringe field calculations.

2) Secondly, the original purpose of rounding the polefaces was to remove edge effects whereby the shape of the fringe field was altered by local saturation near the sharp edge of the pole corner [Braams 1964]. It is true that these local saturations occur at fields very much smaller than that required to saturate the main body of the spectrometer, but even so they are very unlikely to occur in microscopy where the main field is so weak (~100 gauss). Also it is not clear that replacing one 90° edge with two 45° corners gives much improvement.

2.6.5 Empirical methods for determining fringe field integrals.

Heighway [1975] has provided semiempirical expressions for evaluating fringe field effects in clamped dipole magnets with pole gap to bending radius ratios $D/R \leq 0.55$ and poleface rotations $-45^\circ \leq \alpha \leq 45^\circ$. The geometry of the clamp is as shown in Figure 15a. Integral equations (2.39) and (2.40) are replaced by:

$$\beta_v = \beta - C k \frac{D}{R} \frac{(1 + \sin^2 \beta)}{\cos \beta} \quad (2.41)$$

with a similar expression for α_v . The coefficient k replaces the integral I_2 of Enge and the coefficient C is a correction factor. Both C and k are experimentally determined parametric functions of β , D/R , and t/D where t is the clamp to poleface distance. Heighway gives the expression for k as:

$$k = 0.1326 + 0.0842 \left[\frac{t}{D} \right] + 0.00805 \left[\frac{t}{D} \right]^2 \quad (2.42)$$

The equivalent expression for the correction coefficient C has eighteen terms, which are listed in the above reference, however the value of C is of the order unity. The location of the virtual field boundary is described by:

$$\frac{e}{D} = \left[0.386 + 0.324 \left[\frac{D}{R_n} \right] \right] \left[\frac{t}{D} \right] - \left[0.0455 + 0.0930 \left[\frac{D}{R_n} \right] \right] \left[\frac{t}{D} \right]^2 \quad (2.43)$$

where R_n is the radius of curvature of the poleface. In the case of the straight edge magnets considered up to now $R_n \rightarrow \infty$. For the curved faces described in section 2.7.2 the field clamp is curved also, so that its center of curvature coincides with that of the poleface.

The above equations were derived using sector magnet fields varying between 8000 and 15000 gauss. How well they apply to the low field conditions of EELS is open to question,

however several successful spectrometers have been designed using these results [Shuman 1980, Scheinfein and Isaacson 1984].

2.7 SECOND ORDER COEFFICIENTS.

The previous sections have derived expressions for the first order focussing coefficients including the effects of tilted polefaces and extended fringe fields. The remaining thirty second order coefficients in equations (2.14 a-d) must now be considered. There are twelve median plane coefficients (i.e. independent of x and x'), and eighteen others concerned with motion off the median plane. A brief outline of the calculations will be given in the next sections, based on the derivations of Brown [1964] and Enge [1967].

2.7.1 Median plane coefficients of second order

These coefficients can most readily be derived from geometrical considerations. Figure 2.16 shows the trajectory of the central ray in the median plane of a sector magnet with no rotation of the polefaces. Also shown is an arbitrary ray, A with entrance coordinates (y_1, y_1', δ) . It is assumed that the trajectory of the central ray is an arc of radius R centre O , and the trajectory of the arbitrary ray is also an arc, of radius $R(1 + \delta)$ (see equation (2.24)) centre P . In the following calculations all quantities y , y' , δ are considered small as before. It is convenient to replace the ray gradient y' used in the previous sections with an equivalent small angle θ and use the relation $y' = \tan \theta \sim \theta$. The bend radius R is normalised to unity for convenience. Applying the sine rule to triangles OPQ and OPR gives:

$$\frac{1 + y_1}{\sin(\omega + \theta_1)} = \frac{a}{\sin \theta_1} = \frac{1 + \delta}{\sin \omega} \quad (2.44a)$$

$$\frac{1 + y_2}{\sin(\omega - \phi + \theta_2)} = \frac{1 + \delta}{\sin(\omega - \phi)} = \frac{a}{\sin \theta_2} \quad (2.44b)$$

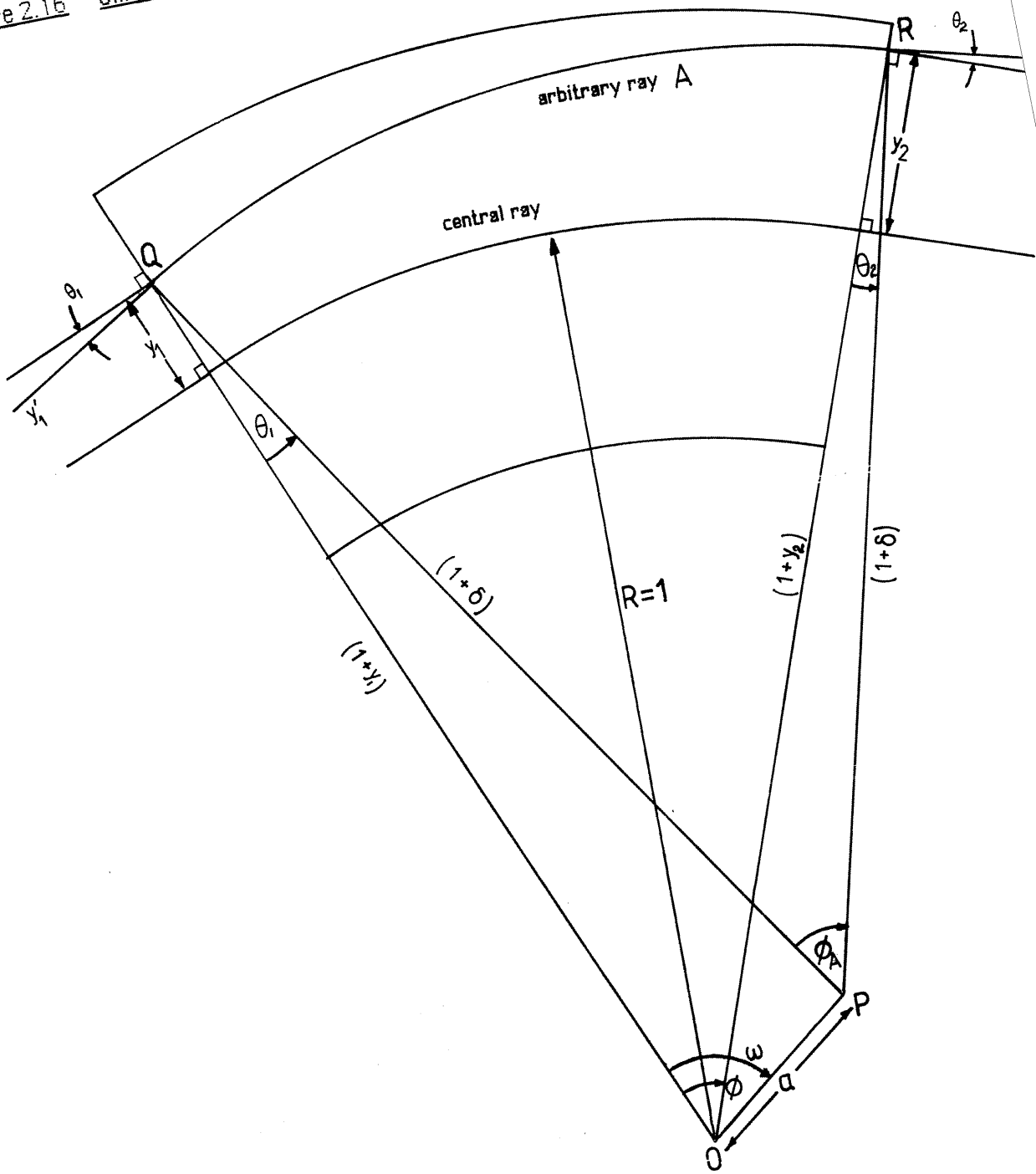
Solving these equations together with expressions obtained using the cosine rule:

$$[a]^2 = (1 + \delta)^2 + (1 + y_1)^2 - 2(1 + \delta)(1 + y_1) \cos \theta_1 \quad (2.44c)$$

$$\cos \omega = \frac{(1 + \delta)^2 - (1 + y_1)^2 - a^2}{-2a(1 + x_1)} \quad (2.44d)$$

gives the required expressions for y_2 and θ_2 to second order in the terms y_1 , θ_1 , and δ .

Figure 2.16 Simple Magnetic Sector Magnet



$$y_2 = y_1 \cos \phi + \theta_1 \sin \phi + \delta (1 - \cos \phi) - \frac{1}{2} y_1^2 \sin^2 \phi + \frac{1}{2} \theta^2 \cos \phi (1 - \cos \phi) - \frac{1}{2} \delta^2 \sin^2 \phi + y_1 \theta \sin \phi \cos \phi + y_1 \delta \sin^2 \phi + \theta \delta \sin \phi (1 - \cos \phi) \quad (2.45a)$$

$$\theta_2 = -y_1 \sin \phi + \theta_1 \cos \phi + \delta \sin \phi - \frac{1}{2} \theta_1^2 \sin \phi - \delta^2 \sin \phi + y_1 \delta \sin \phi \quad (2.45b)$$

The three remaining focussing coefficients y_1^2 , $y_1\theta$, and $\theta\delta$ in the expansion for θ_2 are all identically zero. The above equations (2.45a,b) describe the first and second order optical properties in the median plane of the simple magnet shown in figure 2.16. Note that the first order coefficients are the same as those in equation (2.25).

2.7.2 Coefficients of General Sector Magnets.

As described before the provision of a vertical focus requires that the polefaces of figure 2.16 be rotated at angles α and β . This modifies some of the first order median plane coefficients (see equation (2.27)) and the second order coefficients derived above will also be changed. In order to obtain the best performance from a spectrometer, it is desirable to have some degree of control over the magnitude of the second order focussing coefficients (see chapter 3). This can be done either by placing multipole corrector lenses before and after the magnet [Tang 1981] or by curving the poleface boundaries to the appropriate arcs of circles [Kerwin 1949]. Figure 2.17a depicts the entrance side of such a magnet. The input face is rotated at an angle α to provide vertical focussing and has a radius of curvature R_1 which is defined as positive as shown. The centre of curvature is at point (Z_{C1}, Y_{C1}) . The Y axis is coincident with the poleface of the equivalent straight edge sector with no poleface tilt (Figure 2.16.).

The modified first and second order median plane coefficients can be derived by calculating a transformation which transforms the initial conditions (y, θ, δ) of a ray entering the magnet of figure 2.17a at position (y_0, θ_0) to an equivalent input condition (y_1, θ_1) which results in the ray following an identical trajectory inside the magnet of figure 2.16 (see Figure 2.17b.). A similar approach calculates the transformation at the output face (Figure 2.17c.). Here the problem is to transform from coordinates (y_2, θ_2) for a ray exiting from the magnet of Figure 2.16 to the coordinates (y_3, θ_3) corresponding to the actual exit conditions as shown. Combining the three solutions gives the first and second order median plane focussing coefficients for an arbitrary sector magnet with curved and rotated polefaces.

2.7.3 Entrance and exit transformations.

Figure 2.17a shows an arbitrary ray intersecting the curved poleface at position (Z_A, Y_A) .

The linear equation of the trajectory before it crosses the magnet boundary is :

$$y = z \theta_0 + y_0 \quad (\text{for small } \theta_0) \quad (2.46)$$

The equation of the poleface is:

$$(y + R_1 \sin \alpha)^2 + (z - R_1 \cos \alpha)^2 = R_1^2 \quad (2.47)$$

The simultaneous solution of (2.46) and (2.47) gives the intersection point (Z_A, Y_A) . The equation of the circular trajectory A inside the magnet is :

$$\left[y - (Y_A - (1 + \delta) \cos \theta_0) \right]^2 + \left[z - (Z_A + (1 + \delta) \sin \theta_0) \right]^2 = \left[1 + \delta \right]^2 \quad (2.48)$$

i.e. a circle of radius $(1 + \delta)$ intersecting the poleface at (Z_A, Y_A) . Solving equation (2.48) for y at $z=0$ gives the expansion for y_1 in terms of Y_A , Z_A , δ and θ_0 . Substitution of the equations for Y_A and Z_A obtained from the simultaneous solution of (2.46) and (2.47) gives the required expansion for y_1 in terms of y_0 , θ_0 and δ . The expansion for θ_1 can be obtained in a similar manner using $\tan \theta_1 = dz/dx$ at $z=0$. The results are:

$$y_1 = y_0 - \frac{1}{2} y_0^2 \tan^2 \alpha \quad (2.49a)$$

$$\theta_1 = y_0 \tan \alpha + \theta_0 + \frac{1}{2} \left[\frac{y_0^2}{R_1} \right] \sec^3 \alpha + y_0 \theta_0 \tan^2 \alpha - y_0 \delta \tan \alpha \quad (2.49b)$$

Similarly for the exit side (Figs. 2.17c, 2.17d), the equations to be solved are:

$$y_3 = Y_B - Z_B \theta_3 \quad (2.50a)$$

$$(z + R_2 \cos \beta)^2 + (y + R_2 \sin \beta)^2 = R_2^2 \quad (2.50b)$$

$$(z - (1 + \delta) \sin \theta_2)^2 + (y - (y_2 - (1 + \delta) \cos \theta_2))^2 = (1 + \delta)^2 \quad (2.50c)$$

The solutions are:

$$y_3 = y_2 + \frac{1}{2} y_2^2 \tan^2 \beta \quad (2.51a)$$

$$\theta_3 = y_2 \tan \beta + \theta_2 - \frac{1}{2} y_2^2 \tan^3 \beta + \frac{1}{2} \left[\frac{y_2^2}{R_2} \right] \sec^3 \beta - y_2 \theta_2 \tan^2 \beta - y_2 \delta \tan \beta \quad (2.51b)$$

Three transformations have been derived:

$$\begin{aligned} y_1 &= y_1(x_0, \theta_0, \delta) & \theta_1 &= \theta_1(x_0, \theta_0, \delta) \\ y_2 &= y_2(x_0, \theta_0, \delta) & \theta_2 &= \theta_2(x_0, \theta_0, \delta) \\ y_3 &= y_3(x_0, \theta_0, \delta) & \theta_3 &= \theta_3(x_0, \theta_0, \delta) \end{aligned}$$

Figure 2.17c Geometry Of Curved And Rotated Exit Face

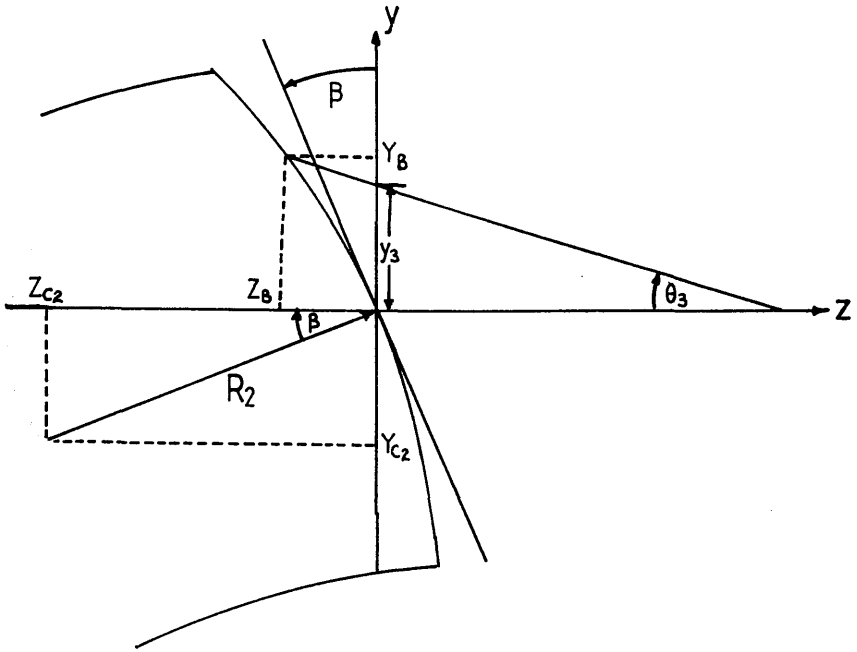
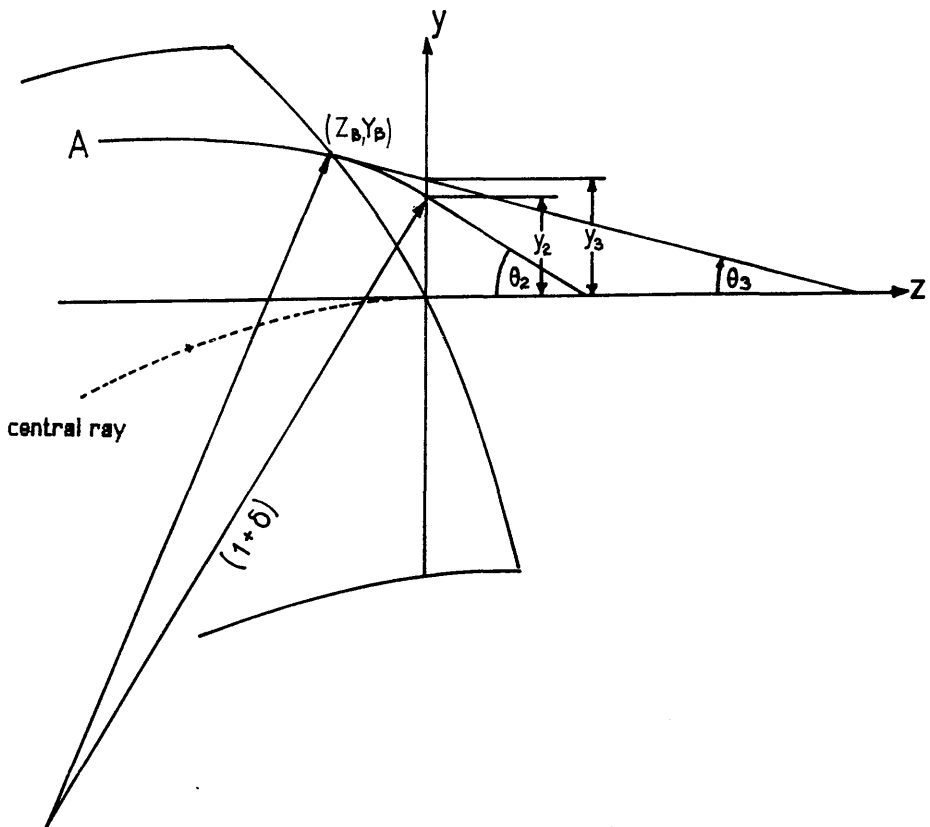


Figure 2.17d Transform From Straight Exit Face To Curved Exit Face



The required transform is:

$$y_3 = y(x_0, \theta_0, \delta) \quad \theta_3 = \theta(x_0, \theta_0, \delta)$$

which is obtained by the following procedure - substitute equations (2.49a,b) into equations (2.45a,b) giving y_2, θ_2 in terms of y_0 and θ_0 . Substitution of the resultant expressions into equations (2.51a,b) provides the complete first and second order median plane focussing coefficients as listed in appendix 1. The first order coefficients are identical to those given in equation (2.27) for a straight edge sector with poleface tilts α and β . This implies that curvature of the polefaces does not alter the first order focussing properties of the magnet-an important property for correction of second order aberrations.

2.7.4 Cross terms affecting median plane focussing

As shown in section 2.3.2 motions in the median and vertical planes are independent to first order. This is not the case for second order terms of the type $(y_1/x_0^2), (y_1/x_0'^2), (y_1'/x_0x_0')$ etc. seen in equations (2.14a,b). The effect of these terms is to introduce changes in the y position and slope of a ray at the exit of the magnet due to variations in the x position and slope at the entrance. There are three perturbations to be considered:

- 1) The x component of the magnetic field off the median plane (B_x) is not the same as the x component on the median plane ($B_{x,0}$) in the fringe field zones.
- 2) The coupling between the vertical velocity v_x and the horizontal component of the magnetic field B_z which appears off the median plane in the fringe field zones.
- 3) The reduction in median plane velocity v_z in the whole magnet when the particle has an x component of velocity.

The first effect was mentioned in section (2.6.2) and is shown in figure 2.11a. The component of the Lorentz force involved was written in section (2.6.2) as:

$$F_y = e v_z B_x$$

It is necessary to modify the Taylor expansion for B_x (eqn.(2.33a)) to include the second order effects due to motion in y - z planes off the median plane. This is done by adding another term to equation (2.33a):

$$B_x = B_{x,0} + \frac{x^2}{2!} \frac{\partial^2 B_{x,0}}{\partial x^2} \quad (2.52)$$

The last term in equation (2.52) produces second order perturbations in the velocity and displacement of the particle in the y direction. The corresponding expressions for the changes in gradient and position of the entrance and exit rays- $\Delta(dy/dx)_1$, $\Delta(dy/dz)_2$, Δy_1 and Δy_2 are given in Enge [1967].

To consider the second effect figure 2.11a. shows that a horizontal component of the magnetic field B_z appears off the median plane in the fringe field zones. This component couples with the vertical velocity v_x giving an acceleration in the y direction caused by the force $-ev_x B_z$. The equation of motion is :

$$v_z^2 \frac{d^2 y}{dz^2} = -\frac{e}{m} v_x B_z$$

where from equation (2.34):

$$B_z = \frac{x}{D} B_0 \cos \beta \frac{dh(s)}{ds}$$

The solution of the above two equations gives the resulting changes in gradient in the fringe field zones - $\Delta(dy/dz)_1$ and $\Delta(dy/dz)_2$ caused by this effect. There are no contributions to the second order term for Δy .

For the third case, the calculations of previous sections have assumed that the particle velocity $v(x,y,z) \sim v_z$. When the particle has an x component of velocity, the projected velocity on the median plane is:

$$v_m = v (1 - x_1'^2)^{\frac{1}{2}} \sim v (1 - \frac{x_1'^2}{2})$$

where x_1' is the vertical slope measured inside the magnet i.e. from equation (2.28a):

$$x_1' = x_1 - [(x_1 \tan \alpha) / R]$$

where x_1 and x_1' are the vertical plane entrance coordinates. The equation for v_m shows that the particle has a reduced median plane velocity throughout the whole magnet. The corresponding effect on the y direction slope and position at the exit is the same as if the particle had a reduced momentum with $\Delta p/p = \delta = -x_1'^2/2$. The perturbations are simply:

$$\Delta y_2' = - \left[\frac{y'}{\delta} \right] \frac{x_i'^2}{2} = - \left[\frac{y'}{\delta} \right] \left[\frac{x_i'^2}{2} - \frac{x_1' x_1'}{R} \tan \alpha + \frac{x_1'^2 \tan^2 \alpha}{2R^2} \right]$$

$$\frac{\Delta y_2}{R} = - \left[\frac{y}{\delta} \right] \frac{x_i'^2}{2} = - \left[\frac{y}{\delta} \right] \left[\frac{x_i'^2}{2} - \frac{x_1' x_1'}{R} \tan \alpha + \frac{x_1'^2 \tan^2 \alpha}{2R^2} \right]$$

The total effects on y displacement and slope at the exit are found by combining the effects from the above three causes in the appropriate manner to yield the six second order median plane cross coefficients $(y/x^2), (y/xx'), (y/x'^2), (y'/x^2), (y'/xx'), (y'/x'^2)$ as given in appendix 1.

2.7.5 Second order effects on vertical focussing.

The second order coefficients for vertical focussing can be found by a matrix calculation similar to equation (2.29). Referring to figure 18 the angle of deflection ϕ_A for the arbitrary ray A can be found by noting that:

$$(\omega - \phi) = 180^\circ - (\phi_A + \chi + y_2')$$

where

$$\chi = 180^\circ - (y_1' + \omega)$$

Solution of the above two equations gives:

$$\phi_A = \phi + y_1' - y_2'$$

Figure 19 shows the arbitrary ray A at the entrance face. The effective entrance angle α_A for this ray is:

$$\alpha_A = y_1' + \theta_A = y_1' + \alpha + \sigma$$

Now $R_1 \sigma \sim x$ so :

$$\sigma \sim y_1 / R_1 \cos \alpha \quad \text{and} \quad \alpha_A = \alpha + y_1' + (y_1 / R_1 \cos \alpha)$$

Similarly:

$$\beta_A = \beta - y_2' + (y_2 / R_2 \cos \beta)$$

The effective vertical plane lens strength at the entrance is from equation (2.28b):

$$\frac{1}{f_1} = \frac{\tan \alpha_A}{R(1+\delta)} \sim \frac{1}{R} \tan \left[\alpha + y_1' + \frac{y_1}{R_1 \cos \alpha} \right] (1-\delta)$$

Figure 2.18 Aid For Calculation Of Second Order Vertical Focussing

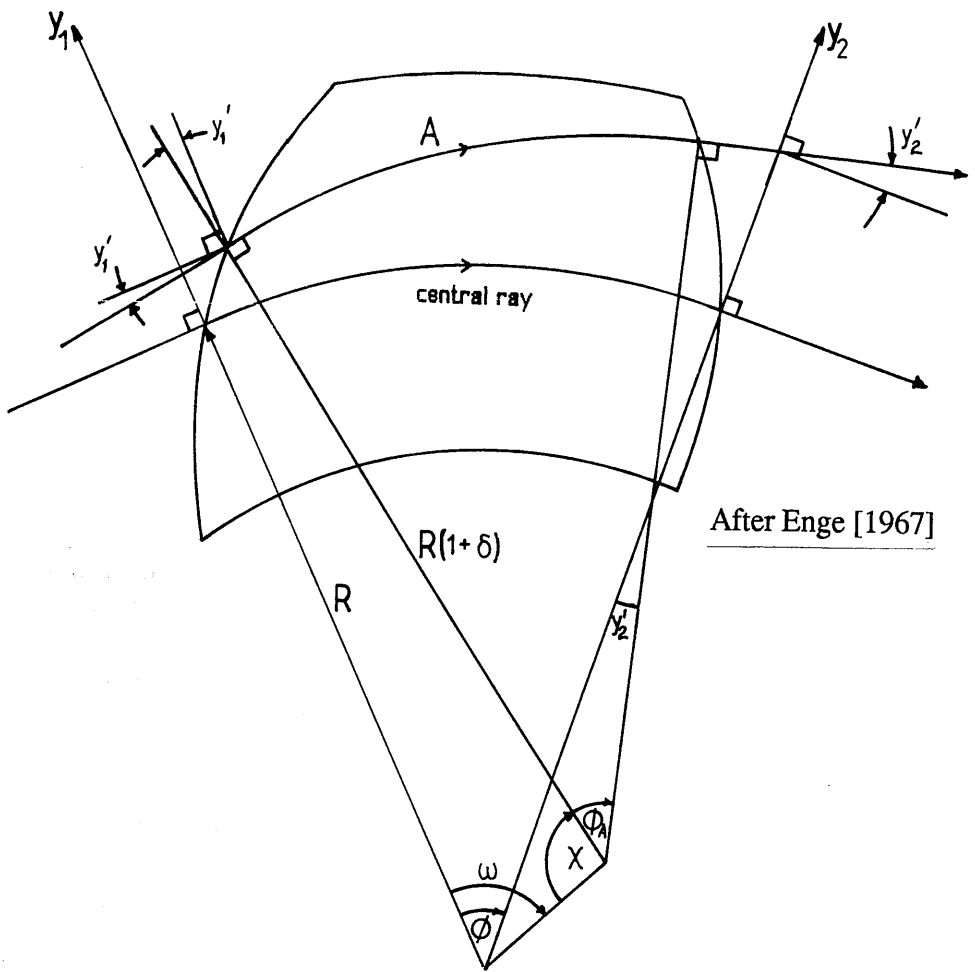
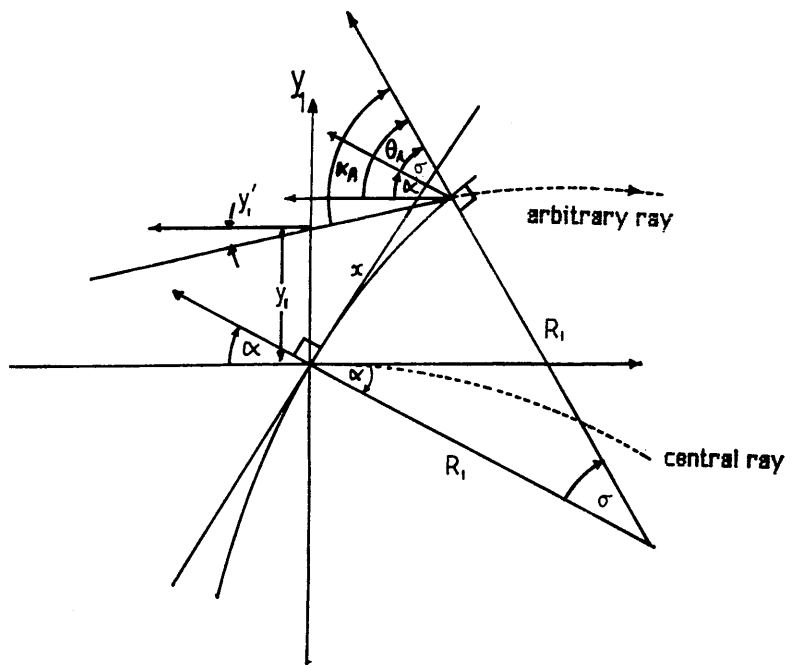


Figure 2.19 Calculating Effective Entrance Angle Of An Arbitrary Ray



The tangent in the above equation can be expanded in a Taylor series about α to give:

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{1}{f_1} &= \frac{1}{R} \left[\tan \alpha + \frac{1}{\cos^2 \alpha} \left[y_1' + \frac{y_1}{R_1 \cos \alpha} \right] \right] (1-\delta) \\ &= \frac{1}{R} \left[\tan \alpha + \frac{y_1'}{\cos^2 \alpha} + \frac{y_1}{R_1 \cos^3 \alpha} - \delta \tan \alpha \right] \end{aligned}$$

Similarly for the exit side:

$$\frac{1}{f_2} = \frac{\tan \beta_A}{R(1+\delta)} \sim \frac{1}{R} \left[\tan \beta - \frac{y_2'}{\cos^2 \beta} + \frac{y_2}{R_2 \cos^3 \beta} - \delta \tan \beta \right]$$

The arc length of trajectory A between the polefaces is:

$$L = R(1+\delta)(\phi + y_1' - y_2') \sim R(\phi + y_1' - y_2' + \phi\delta)$$

There are also small flight paths between the y axes and the pole boundaries (Figure 2.19). For small displacements y_1 and small angles y_1' these approximate to $y_1 \tan \alpha$ and $y_2 \tan \beta$ so that the complete matrix equation for the x direction motion is therefore:

$$\begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_1' \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & y_2 \tan \beta \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ \frac{1}{f_2} & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & L \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ \frac{1}{f_1} & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & y_1 \tan \alpha \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_0 \\ x_0' \end{bmatrix}$$

Multiplying this equation out and retaining only first and second order terms gives the twelve second order coefficients for vertical focussing given in appendix 1.

2.7.6 Second order effects of extended fringe fields

The preceding second order calculations take no account of any second order effects of extended fringe fields. Enge [1967] has calculated the magnitude of these effects by comparing the results from ray tracing computer calculations using an extended fringe field with those obtained using a very sharp cutoff fringe field ($D/R = 0.04$). The latter results compared well with coefficients calculated analytically using the expressions in appendix 1 as should be expected. Enge showed that changes (in going from SCOFF to EFF calculations) in the second order median plane coefficients were small. However changes in the second order cross terms and some of the second order vertical terms were of the same order of magnitude as those of the first order coefficients for z direction focussing, i.e. of the order

(D/R).

In an attempt to improve the accuracy of the cross terms (which are more important than the vertical plane coefficients from the point of view of energy resolution) the values of α and β used in section 2.7.4. can be replaced by the effective entrance angles for vertical focussing α_v and β_v [Shuman 1980]. Clearly for magnets with extended fringe fields (large pole gap to bend radius ratio) the second order vertical plane coefficients will be in error by some amount of the order of D/R. In practice the second order error introduced by the fringe fields will be dominated by machining and alignment tolerances, inhomogeneity of the iron polepieces and the effects of third and higher order aberrations. For these reasons most spectrometer designs utilise external multipole corrector lenses for trimming the residual aberrations of the sector.

CHAPTER 3

Calculation of Spectrometer Aberration Coefficients

Introduction

The previous chapter introduced the matrix multiplication method for calculating the optical properties of beam transport systems and the first and second order focussing coefficients for a general homogeneous field magnetic sector spectrometer were derived. This chapter shows how the spectrometer aberration coefficients, and hence the optical properties, are generated from the resulting transfer matrices. The influence of each aberration coefficient upon the electron intensity distribution at the dispersion plane is discussed with particular regard to parallel detection. As explained in the previous chapter it is possible to correct for some of the second order median plane aberrations by choosing appropriate curvatures for the entrance and exit polefaces. It is shown by reference to calculations for two such second order corrected designs [Scheinefein and Isaacson 1984, Shuman 1980] that the effect of the uncorrected vertical plane aberrations must be considered in any parallel detection system.

3.1 EXPANSION OF TRANSFER MATRICES TO SECOND ORDER

The first order median plane and vertical plane transfer matrices developed in the previous chapter (equations 2.15 and 2.16) can be expanded to second order to include the focussing coefficients derived in section 2.7. The complete second order median plane transfer matrix is of order 12 (i.e. 12 x12 coefficients) and the complete vertical transfer matrix is of order 8. Equations (3.1) and (3.2) show the median and vertical plane matrices respectively. The focussing coefficients are written in the abbreviated Taylor notation - the analytical expressions for each coefficient are listed in appendix 1.

3.1.1 The transfer matrix coefficients

Equations (3.1) and (3.2) show the transfer matrices divided into four quadrants. The top left hand quadrant contains the first order focussing coefficients which are independent in the median and vertical planes, and the top right hand quadrant contains the second order coefficients. The bottom left hand quadrant is uniformly zero and the bottom right hand quadrant contains coefficients which are products of the first order terms. These terms are necessary if the calculation involves more than one focussing element, and describe the coupling of aberrations through the system. The derivation of these terms is very straightforward. For example, the second order component ($y_1 y_1' / R$) is found by

multiplying together the expansions for the first order quantities y_1/R and y_1' .

$$\left[\frac{y_1}{R} \ y_1' \right] = \left[\left[\frac{y}{y} \right] \frac{y_0}{R} + \left[\frac{y}{y'} \right] y_0' + \left[\frac{y}{\delta} \right] \delta + 2^{\text{nd order terms}} \right] \left[\left[\frac{y'}{y} \right] \frac{y_0}{R} + \left[\frac{y'}{y'} \right] y_0' + \left[\frac{y'}{\delta} \right] \delta + 2^{\text{nd order terms}} \right]$$

Multiplying this equation out and excluding all terms higher than second order yields the sixth row of the median plane transfer matrix below (equation 3.1).

Equation (3.1) - Second order median plane transfer matrix.

$\left \frac{y_1}{R} \right $	$\left \frac{y}{y} \ \frac{y}{y'} \ \frac{y}{\delta} \right $	$\left \frac{y}{y^2} \ \frac{y}{y'^2} \ \frac{y}{yy'} \ \frac{y}{y\delta} \ \frac{y}{y'\delta} \ \frac{y}{\delta^2} \ \frac{y}{x^2} \ \frac{y}{x'^2} \ \frac{y}{xx'} \right $	$\left \frac{y_0}{R} \right $
$\left y_1' \right $	$\left \frac{y'}{y} \ \frac{y'}{y'} \ \frac{y'}{\delta} \right $	$\left \frac{y'}{y^2} \ \frac{y'}{y'^2} \ \frac{y'}{yy'} \ \frac{y'}{y\delta} \ \frac{y'}{y'\delta} \ \frac{y'}{\delta^2} \ \frac{y'}{x^2} \ \frac{y'}{x'^2} \ \frac{y'}{xx'} \right $	$\left y_0' \right $
$\left \delta \right $	$\left 0 \ 0 \ 1 \right $	$\left 0 \ 0 \ 0 \ 0 \ 0 \ 0 \ 0 \ 0 \ 0 \ 0 \right $	$\left \delta \right $
$\left \frac{y_1^2}{R^2} \right $	$\left 0 \ 0 \ 0 \right $	$\left \frac{yy}{yy} \ \frac{yy}{y'y'} \ \frac{yy}{yy'} \ \frac{yy}{y\delta} \ \frac{yy}{y'\delta} \ \frac{yy}{\delta\delta} \ 0 \ 0 \ 0 \right $	$\left \frac{y_0^2}{R^2} \right $
$\left y_1'^2 \right $	$\left 0 \ 0 \ 0 \right $	$\left \frac{y'y'}{yy} \ \frac{y'y'}{y'y'} \ \frac{y'y'}{yy'} \ \frac{y'y'}{y\delta} \ \frac{y'y'}{y'\delta} \ \frac{y'y'}{\delta\delta} \ 0 \ 0 \ 0 \right $	$\left y_0'^2 \right $
$\left \frac{y_1}{R} y_1' \right $	$\left 0 \ 0 \ 0 \right $	$\left \frac{yy'}{yy} \ \frac{yy'}{y'y'} \ \frac{yy'}{yy'} \ \frac{yy'}{y\delta} \ \frac{yy'}{y'\delta} \ \frac{yy'}{\delta\delta} \ 0 \ 0 \ 0 \right $	$\left \frac{y_0}{R} y_0' \right $
$\left \frac{y_1}{R} \delta \right $	$\left 0 \ 0 \ 0 \right $	$\left 0 \ 0 \ 0 \ \frac{y}{y} \ \frac{y}{y'} \ \frac{y}{\delta} \ 0 \ 0 \ 0 \right $	$\left \frac{y_0}{R} \delta \right $
$\left y_1' \delta \right $	$\left \right $	$\left \text{etc} \right $	$\left y_1' \delta \right $
$\left \delta^2 \right $	$\left \right $	$\left \right $	$\left \delta^2 \right $
$\left \frac{x_1^2}{R^2} \right $	$\left \right $	$\left \right $	$\left \frac{x_0^2}{R^2} \right $
$\left x_1'^2 \right $	$\left \right $	$\left \right $	$\left x_0'^2 \right $
$\left \frac{x_1}{R} x_1' \right $	$\left \right $	$\left \right $	$\left \frac{x_0}{R} x_0' \right $

The second order vertical transfer matrix is constructed in a similar way :

Equation (3.2) - Second order vertical plane transfer matrix.

$$\begin{array}{c}
 \left| \begin{array}{c} x_1 \\ R \end{array} \right| \left| \begin{array}{c|c} x & x \\ \hline x & x \end{array} \right| \left| \begin{array}{c|c|c|c|c|c} x & x & x & x & x & x \\ \hline xy & xy' & x'y & x'y' & x\delta & x'\delta \end{array} \right| \left| \begin{array}{c} x_0 \\ R \end{array} \right| \\
 \left| \begin{array}{c} x_1' \\ R \end{array} \right| \left| \begin{array}{c|c} x' & x' \\ \hline x & x' \end{array} \right| \left| \begin{array}{c|c|c|c|c|c} x' & x' & x' & x' & x' & x' \\ \hline xy & xy' & x'y & x'y' & x\delta & x'\delta \end{array} \right| \left| \begin{array}{c} x_0' \\ R \end{array} \right| \\
 \left| \begin{array}{c} x_1 y_1 \\ R^2 \end{array} \right| \left| \begin{array}{c|c} 0 & 0 \\ \hline 0 & 0 \end{array} \right| \left| \begin{array}{c|c|c|c|c|c} xy & xy & xy & xy & xy & xy \\ \hline xy & xy' & x'y & x'y' & x\delta & x'\delta \end{array} \right| \left| \begin{array}{c} x_0 y_0 \\ R^2 \end{array} \right| \\
 \left| \begin{array}{c} x_1 y_1' \\ R \end{array} \right| \left| \begin{array}{c|c} 0 & 0 \\ \hline 0 & 0 \end{array} \right| \left| \begin{array}{c|c|c|c|c|c} xy' & xy' & xy' & xy' & xy' & xy' \\ \hline xy & xy' & x'y & x'y' & x\delta & x'\delta \end{array} \right| \left| \begin{array}{c} x_0 y_0' \\ R \end{array} \right| \\
 \left| \begin{array}{c} x_1' y_1 \\ R \end{array} \right| \left| \begin{array}{c|c} 0 & 0 \\ \hline 0 & 0 \end{array} \right| \left| \begin{array}{c|c|c|c|c|c} x'y & x'y & x'y & x'y & x'y & x'y \\ \hline xy & xy' & x'y & x'y' & x\delta & x'\delta \end{array} \right| \left| \begin{array}{c} x_0' y_0 \\ R \end{array} \right| \\
 \left| \begin{array}{c} x_1' y_1' \\ R \end{array} \right| \left| \begin{array}{c|c} 0 & 0 \\ \hline 0 & 0 \end{array} \right| \left| \begin{array}{c|c|c|c|c|c} x'y' & x'y' & x'y' & x'y' & x'y' & x'y' \\ \hline xy & xy' & x'y & x'y' & x\delta & x'\delta \end{array} \right| \left| \begin{array}{c} x_0' y_0' \\ R \end{array} \right| \\
 \left| \begin{array}{c} x_1 \\ R \end{array} \delta \right| \left| \begin{array}{c|c} 0 & 0 \\ \hline 0 & 0 \end{array} \right| \left| \begin{array}{c|c|c|c|c|c} 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & x & x \\ \hline 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & x & x' \end{array} \right| \left| \begin{array}{c} x_0 \\ R \end{array} \delta \right| \\
 \left| \begin{array}{c} x_1' \\ R \end{array} \delta \right| \left| \begin{array}{c|c} 0 & 0 \\ \hline 0 & 0 \end{array} \right| \left| \begin{array}{c|c|c|c|c|c} 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & x' & x' \\ \hline 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & x & x' \end{array} \right| \left| \begin{array}{c} x_0' \\ R \end{array} \delta \right|
 \end{array}$$

The quantities of most interest in many calculations are the first order positions and slopes y_1/R , x_1/R , y_1' , x_1' at the exit of the spectrometer. Thus in many simple cases it is sufficient to work with only the first two quadrants of the above transfer matrices-the extra terms in the fourth quadrant are unnecessary.

3.1.2 Second order drift matrices.

The optical properties of an arbitrary homogeneous field magnetic sector spectrometer can be derived by multiplying the above transfer matrices by the appropriate drift matrices. In order to do this the first order transfer matrices for a drift space, developed in section 2.2.1, must also be expanded to second order. The complete median plane and vertical plane transfer matrices for a drift space are given in equations (3.3) and (3.4). As before the matrices are divided into four quadrants. The top left hand quadrants contain the first order terms and are identical to the first order matrices of section 2.2.1. The top right hand quadrants are

identically zero, as there are no second order contributions to the trajectory of a ray in a drift space. The lower left hand quadrants are zero as before and the bottom right hand quadrant is obtained by multiplication of the appropriate first order terms exactly as described previously.

Equation (3.3) - Second order transfer matrix of a horizontal plane drift space.

$$\begin{array}{c}
 \left| \begin{array}{c} y_1 \\ y_1' \\ \delta \end{array} \right| \left| \begin{array}{ccc|cccccccc} 1 & L & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{array} \right| \left| \begin{array}{c} y_0 \\ y_0' \\ \delta \end{array} \right| \\
 \hline
 \left| \begin{array}{c} y_1^2 \\ y_1'^2 \\ y_1 y_1' \\ y_1 \delta \\ y_1' \delta \\ \delta^2 \\ x_1^2 \\ x_1'^2 \\ x_1 x_1' \end{array} \right| = \left| \begin{array}{ccc|cccccccc} 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & L^2 & 2L & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & L & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & L & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & L^2 & 2L & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & L & 1 \end{array} \right| \left| \begin{array}{c} y_1^2 \\ y_0'^2 \\ y_0 y_0' \\ y_0 \delta \\ y_0' \delta \\ \delta^2 \\ x_0^2 \\ x_0'^2 \\ x_0 x_0' \end{array} \right|
 \end{array}$$

Equation (3.4)- Second order transfer matrix for a vertical plane drift space:

$$\begin{array}{l}
 \left| \begin{array}{c} x_1 \\ x_1' \end{array} \right| = \left| \begin{array}{c|ccccc} 1 & L & & & \\ \hline 0 & 1 & & & \\ \hline \hline 0 & 0 & 1 & L & L & L^2 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & L & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & L & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & L \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{array} \right| \left| \begin{array}{c} x_0 \\ x_0' \\ x_0 y_0 \\ x_0 y_0' \\ x_0' y_0 \\ x_0' y_0' \\ x_0 \delta \\ x_0' \delta \end{array} \right|
 \end{array}$$

3.2 TOTAL TRANSFER MATRICES + ABERRATION COEFFICIENTS

Following the simple procedure described in section 2.2 it is possible to obtain the total transfer matrices for an arbitrary homogeneous magnetic sector spectrometer. These are calculated by multiplying the second order transfer matrices (equations 3.1 and 3.2) by the appropriate second order transfer matrices for a drift space (equations 3.3 and 3.4). Referring to figure 3.1 the correct order of multiplication is :

$$\left[T_M \right] = \left[Q_M \right] \left[M \right] \left[P_M \right] \quad (3.5)$$

$$\left[T_V \right] = \left[Q_V \right] \left[V \right] \left[P_V \right] \quad (3.6)$$

Figure 3.1 Definition of Median and Vertical Plane Object and Image Distances

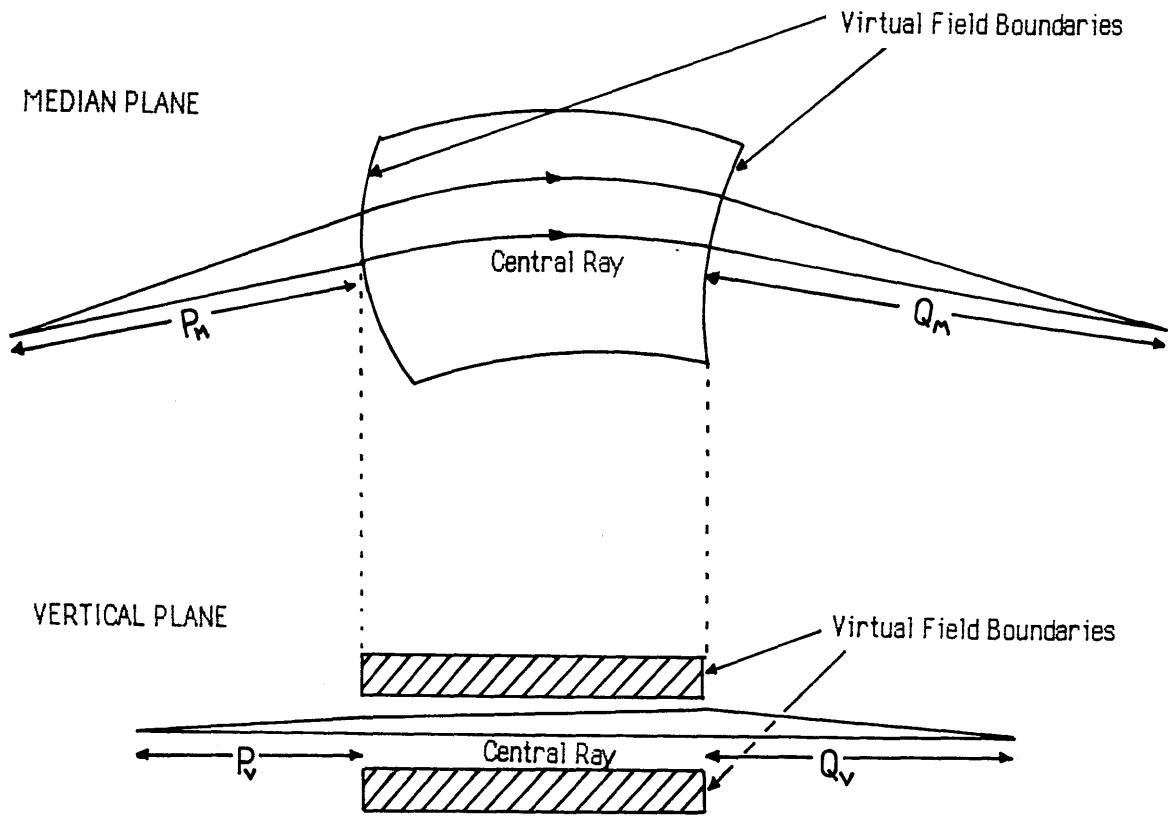
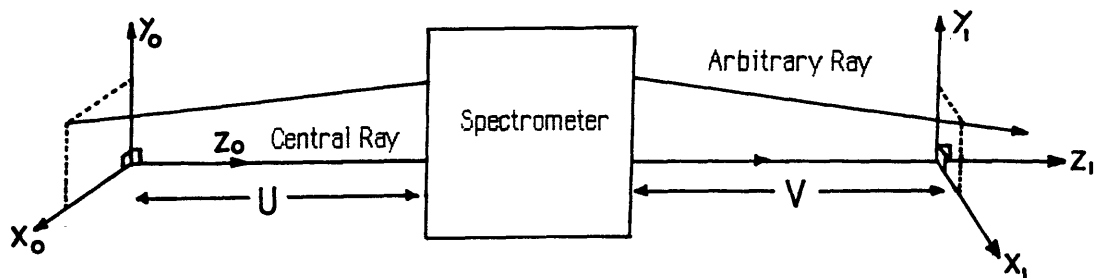


Figure 3.2 Definition of Coordinate Systems



where $[T_M]$ and $[T_V]$ are the total median and vertical plane matrices respectively, and matrices $[M]$ and $[V]$ are the transfer matrices of equations (3.1) and (3.2). $[Q_M]$ is the second order median plane drift matrix for an image distance Q_M and $[P_M]$ is the associated drift matrix for an object distance P_M . $[Q_V]$ and $[P_V]$ are the corresponding drift matrices in the vertical plane (see Figure 3.1). Equations (3.5) and (3.6) describe the optical properties of the spectrometer for given object distances P_M, P_V , and given image distances Q_M, Q_V in the median and vertical planes respectively.

The first order coefficients of the first row of the resulting total transfer matrices $[T_M]$ and $[T_V]$ describe the basic focussing properties of the spectrometer, whereas the second order coefficients in the first row are known as the aberration coefficients - they describe the departures from perfect focussing of trajectories other than that of the central ray. All the aberration coefficients are functions of the object and image distances, as well as the focussing coefficients.

The total transfer matrices are easily calculated but the expressions involved for all the individual elements are lengthy and are not given here. It is sufficient to develop the equations describing the optical properties of an arbitrary spectrometer imaging a point source a distance U ($U=P/R$) from the entrance face and forming an image at some plane a distance V ($V=Q/R$) from the exit face. In this case the object and image distances are the same in both planes i.e. $P_M=P_V$ and $Q_M=Q_V$ which is the most common situation in simple systems. The quantities of most interest are the first order positions y_1 and x_1 of a trajectory as it crosses the image plane (Figure 3.2), and also the first order slopes y_1', x_1' .

3.2.1 Aberration equations

The expansions for the first order properties obtained from the first and second quadrants of the total transfer matrices can be written as:

$$y_1/R = Y_0(y_0/R) + Y_1(y_0') + Y_2(\delta) + Y_3(y_0'\delta) + Y_4(y_0')^2 + Y_5(\delta)^2 + Y_6(x_0')^2 + Y_7(y_0/R)^2 + Y_8(y_0y_0'/R) + Y_9(y_0\delta/R) + Y_{10}(x_0/R)^2 + Y_{11}(x_0x_0'/R) \quad (3.7a)$$

$$y_1' = Y_0'(y_0/R) + Y_1'(y_0') + Y_2'(\delta) + \dots \quad (3.7b)$$

$$x_1/R = X_0(x_0/R) + X_1(x_0') + X_2(x_0'y_0') + X_3(x_0'\delta) \\ + X_4(x_0y_0/R^2) + X_5(x_0y_0'/R) + X_6(x_0'y_0/R) + X_7(x_0\delta/R) \quad (3.7c)$$

$$x_1' = X_0'(x_0/R) + X_1'(x_0') + X_2'(x_0'y_0') + \dots \quad (3.7d)$$

where Y_3 - Y_{11} are the median plane aberration coefficients and X_2 - X_7 are the vertical plane aberration coefficients. The ordering of the terms has been changed slightly to make the notation consistent with that of Shuman [1980]. Equations (3.7 a-d) above can be simplified in the case of a point source (as in EELS) where all terms containing the quantities y_0 and x_0 must disappear, thus the twelve terms in each of equations (3.7 a,b) are reduced to six terms, and the eight terms of equations (3.7 c,d) are reduced to three. Expressions for the remaining terms in equations (3.7a) and (3.7c), as functions of the focussing coefficients and the normalised object and image distances U and V , are given below along with expressions for the first order Y_0 and X_0 terms. Other elements of the total transfer matrices can readily be deduced from equations (3.5) and (3.6).

$$Y_0 = \frac{y}{y} + \frac{y'}{y} V_M \quad (3.8a)$$

$$Y_1 = \frac{y}{y} U + \frac{y}{y'} + \left[\frac{y'}{y'} + U \frac{y'}{y} \right] V_M \quad (3.8b)$$

$$Y_2 = \frac{y}{\delta} + \frac{y'}{\delta} V_M \quad (3.8c)$$

$$Y_3 = \frac{y}{y\delta} U + \frac{y}{y'\delta} + \left[\frac{y'}{y'\delta} + U \frac{y'}{y\delta} \right] V_M \quad (3.8d)$$

$$Y_4 = \frac{y}{y^2} U^2 + \frac{y}{yy'} U + \frac{y}{y'^2} + \left[\frac{y'}{y'^2} + U \frac{y'}{yy'} + U^2 \frac{y'}{y^2} \right] V_M \quad (3.8e)$$

$$Y_5 = \frac{y}{\delta^2} + \frac{y'}{\delta^2} V_M \quad (3.8f)$$

$$Y_6 = \frac{y}{x^2} U^2 + \frac{y}{xx'} U + \frac{y}{x'^2} + \left[\frac{y'}{x'^2} + U \frac{y'}{xx'} + U^2 \frac{y'}{x^2} \right] V_M \quad (3.8g)$$

$$X_0 = \frac{x}{x} + \frac{x'}{x} V_M \quad (3.8h)$$

$$X_1 = \frac{x}{x} U + \frac{x}{x'} + \left[\frac{x'}{x'} + U \frac{x'}{x} \right] V_M \quad (3.8i)$$

$$X_2 = \frac{x}{xy} U^2 + \left[\frac{x}{xy'} + \frac{x}{x'y} \right] U + \frac{x}{x'y'} + \left[\frac{x'}{x'y'} + U \left[\frac{x'}{x'y} + \frac{x'}{xy'} \right] + U^2 \frac{x'}{xy} \right] V_M \quad (3.8j)$$

$$X_3 = \frac{x}{x\delta} U + \frac{x}{x'\delta} + \left[\frac{x'}{x'\delta} + U \frac{x'}{x\delta} \right] V_M \quad (3.8k)$$

3.2.2 First order parameters

Reducing equations (3.7a) and (3.7c) to first order gives:

$$\frac{y_1}{R} = Y_0 (y_0/R) + Y_1 (y_0') + Y_2 (\delta) \quad (3.9a)$$

$$\frac{x_1}{R} = X_0 (x_0/R) + X_1 (x_0') \quad (3.9b)$$

The condition for a first order focus in the median plane is clearly $Y_1 = 0$, i.e. the position at which a ray strikes the image plane is independent of its direction when leaving the object. The image plane which satisfies this condition is known as the dispersion plane. From the expression for Y_1 given in equation (3.8b) this occurs at an image distance V_M given by:

$$V_M = - \left[\frac{y}{y} U + \frac{y}{y'} \right] / \left[\frac{y'}{y} U + \frac{y'}{y'} \right] \quad (3.10)$$

For the vertical plane the equivalent expression is obviously $X_1 = 0$. From equation (3.8i):

$$V_v = - \left[\frac{x}{x} U + \frac{x}{x'} \right] / \left[\frac{x'}{x} U + \frac{x'}{x'} \right] \quad (3.10a)$$

In general $V_M \neq V_v$ so that point source is imaged to a line at the dispersion plane, and the system is said to be single focussing. Setting $V_v = V_M = V$ gives a quadratic equation in U which may or may not have any real solutions depending upon the values of the focussing coefficients. If it does then, for that particular object and image plane only, the system is said to be double focussing.

Assuming that a first order focus has been achieved, the median plane magnification is given by the value of Y_0 at $V = V_M$. The appropriate expression for Y_0 is given in equation (3.8a). Similarly, the vertical plane magnification is given by the value of X_0 when $X_1 = 0$ i.e. $V = V_v$. For the condition of a real object and real image the magnifications are always

negative, showing that the image is inverted. In general, the values of Y_0 and X_0 are different for a given focus position, which means that the focussing is not truly stigmatic even when $V_V=V_M$, as the magnifications are different in the median and vertical planes. Such pseudostigmatic imaging is not important in the case of EELs where the object is a point source.

The remaining first order median plane term is Y_2 - the dispersion, defined in section 1.2.2. It is always positive and describes the shift in median plane image position with change in electron momentum. From equation (3.9a):

$$\Delta y_1 = R Y_2 \frac{\Delta p}{p_0}$$

where p_0 is the momentum of the central ray. The relativistic kinetic energy of the electron can be written in terms of the momentum as:

$$\frac{\Delta p}{p_0} = \frac{\Delta E}{E_0} \left[\frac{E_0 + m_0 c^2}{E_0 + 2m_0 c^2} \right]$$

where E_0 is the kinetic energy of the central ray and $m_0 c^2$ is the electron rest mass energy. Substituting this in the above equation gives:

$$\Delta y_1 = R Y_2 \frac{\Delta E}{E_0} \left[\frac{E_0 + m_0 c^2}{E_0 + 2m_0 c^2} \right] \quad (3.11)$$

3.2.3 Second order parameters

The reduced forms of equations (3.7a) and (3.7c) for the simplified case of a point source are:

$$y_1/R = Y_1(y_0') + Y_2(\delta) + Y_3(y_0'\delta) + Y_4(y_0')^2 + Y_5(\delta)^2 + Y_6(x_0')^2 \quad (3.12)$$

$$x_1/R = X_1(x_0') + X_2(x_0'y_0') + X_3(x_0'\delta) \quad (3.13)$$

The first order terms were discussed in the previous section, but there remain four second order median plane aberrations (Y_3 - Y_6) and two second order vertical plane aberrations (X_2 , X_3) to be considered. The combined effect of these aberrations is to cause the image of a point source to be broadened and defocussed at the dispersion plane, thus reducing the spectrometer energy resolution.

The most important resolution limiting terms for serial collection are the median plane aberrations Y_4 and Y_6 . Expressions for these coefficients are given in equations (3.8e) and (3.8g) respectively. Effectively, these aberrations cause an electron leaving a point object

with slopes (y_0', x_0') to be imaged to a position y_1 , in the dispersion plane, different to that of the central ray. In the absence of other aberrations a point source is defocussed into a line image in the dispersion direction. The magnitude of this effect is proportional to the square of the spectrometer acceptance angle, so that for a given energy resolution the magnitudes of Y_4 and Y_6 determine the maximum useful collection angle. It is obvious that similar considerations apply to any parallel recording system.

The aberration term Y_3 (equation 3.8d) introduces a defocus with energy loss in the dispersion direction which is equivalent to tilting the dispersion plane at some angle η to the central ray (see Figure 1.4). This aberration is most important for parallel detection systems for the reason already discussed in chapter 1 - it makes magnification of the dispersion plane very difficult to achieve. In addition, in serial collection systems where the spectrum is scanned across the energy selecting slits by auxiliary coils placed after the spectrometer, Y_3 causes a loss of energy resolution as the spectrum moves away from the central ray. However, if the scanning is done by varying the excitation of the spectrometer then Y_3 has no effect, as in this case δ is effectively zero always.

The remaining median plane aberration term is Y_5 (equation 3.8f), which is the dispersion nonlinearity. This term systematically reduces or increases the dispersion as $|\delta|$ increases, i.e. $\Delta y/\Delta E$ is not constant. Again this aberration is not important in the case of serial collection where the main field is varied; however in the case of parallel detection or post spectrometer scanning in serial detection, the non-linear dispersion could introduce artefacts into the recorded spectrum.

In the vertical plane there are only two second order aberrations to consider. The first is X_2 (equation 3.8j) which is a defocussing term analogous to Y_4 and Y_6 . In the absence of other aberrations, this term causes a point source to be imaged to a line perpendicular to the dispersion direction. X_2 is not so important for serial detection as long as the alignment of the energy selecting slits is sufficiently parallel to the direction of defocus, otherwise signal intensity can be lost. If X_2 is very large then the multielement detector used in a parallel recording system will need careful alignment, and also should be wider than the defocus so as not to lose signal.

The last aberration to consider is X_3 (equation 3.8k). This aberration is similar to Y_3 and causes a defocus in the non dispersion plane with energy loss, which is equivalent to tilting the X focal plane. Again X_3 is not so important for serial detection when the spectrometer

main field is varied, but must be considered when post spectrometer scanning is used. As far as parallel collection systems are concerned, large values of X_3 influence the width and shape of the spectrum in the non-dispersion direction, and this must be taken into account in designing a magnification system and also when deciding the geometry of the detector to be used. In any real spectrometer design, all the above aberrations will exist to some degree. The corresponding effect upon the image will be determined by the relative magnitudes and the signs of the various coefficients. As mentioned in the previous chapter, it is possible to provide some limited form of second order aberration correction for the median plane of homogeneous field magnetic sector spectrometers by curving the input and output polefaces to the appropriate shape. This is discussed in the following section.

3.2.4 Aberration correction

For an ideal (to second order) spectrometer all the coefficients in equations (3.12) and (3.13) should be set to zero except Y_2 , the first order dispersion. There are altogether eight coefficients to be made zero and eight sector parameters which can be varied - $U, V, R, \phi, \alpha, \beta, R_1, R_2$ and D . Unfortunately the coefficients are not linearly related to the sector parameters and no ideal solutions have yet been found so that compromise solutions have to be adopted. The conditions usually required for serial recording are:

1) First order double focussing ($Y_1 = X_1 = 0$).

The advantage of this condition is that the detector slit does not have to be carefully aligned with respect to the x axis at the dispersion plane.

2) Second order median plane focussing ($Y_4 = Y_6 = 0$).

Enables good energy resolution to be obtained at large spectrometer collection angles.

3) Median focal plane perpendicular to the central ray ($Y_3 = 0$).

This correction allows post spectrometer scanning of the spectrum in serial detection without loss of energy resolution.

Several spectrometer designs exist which satisfy the above criteria. [Shuman 1980, Scheinfein and Isaacson 1984, Krivanek and Swann 1981]. The solution of the simultaneous equations involved requires numerical analysis techniques, particularly when the calculations are of the extended fringe field type. A concise algorithm for deriving the values of the sector parameters required to correct the above aberrations is described in the paper by Shuman [1980].

3.3 EVALUATION OF EXISTING SPECTROMETER DESIGNS

The spectrometers mentioned in the previous section are typical of the best designs currently available using homogeneous field magnetic sectors. The performance of these magnets is well characterised for serial detection techniques, where they have been applied with success. However, transferring from serial to parallel detection methods requires a careful study of the electron intensity distribution at the spectrometer dispersion plane, so that both post spectrometer coupling optics and the geometry of the detector used can be optimised to suit a given spectrometer. To this end two Fortran computer programs were written, one to analyse the performance of any arbitrary magnetic sector spectrometer and the other to provide a graphical display of the electron intensity distribution at the dispersion plane.

3.3.1 Spectrometer analysis program

The analysis program is called FSPECT and was written on an IBM 370 mainframe computer running under the CMS operating system. The program requires as data the magnetic sector parameters, together with information describing the position of the fringe field clamps if such devices are used. The output consists of the first two quadrants of the second order median and vertical plane transfer matrices (equations 3.1 and 3.2), followed by the first two quadrants of the total transfer matrices (equations 3.7 a-d). Also calculated are the first order image positions and magnifications in the median and vertical planes. A listing of the code is contained in appendix 2.

The input data includes the sector parameters and information describing the presence and position of fringe field clamps. It is assumed that the parameters entered are those of the virtual field boundaries, which diverge from the mechanical boundaries as the polepiece gap increases from zero. If data concerning the polepiece boundaries is not available, the program can calculate the location of the virtual field boundary for clamped magnets using equation (2.43). This gives the displacement of the effective edge from the mechanical edge and allows the values of ϕ , R_1 , R_2 , U and V to be recalculated with respect to the virtual field boundaries; and the program can then be rerun using the new values. If the magnet has no field clamps and there is no information concerning the virtual field boundary then an estimate must be made concerning its position. Approximately 0.6 times the pole gap is a reasonable assumption for the distance between the mechanical boundaries and the virtual field position for unclamped magnets [Enge 1967]. Of course, accurate analysis of the sector properties requires a careful determination of the position of the virtual field boundaries.

Assuming that the virtual field boundaries have been obtained, the program calculates the effective poleface tilts for vertical focussing. If the magnet has field clamps then Heighways's expression (equation 2.41) is evaluated for the entrance and exit faces. If there are no field clamps a value of the integral coefficient I_2 (see section 2.6.3) must be supplied - e.g. for an unclamped magnet with square pole edges Enge [1967] estimates that $I_2 = 0.475$.

The next step is to calculate the first and second order focussing coefficients of equations (3.1) and (3.2) using the analytical expressions given in appendix 1. These coefficients are multiplied by the second order drift matrices, corresponding to the reduced object and image distances U and V (equations 3.3 and 3.4), in the manner shown in equations (3.5) and (3.6). The multiplication is done using expressions (3.8 a-k) and similar relations derived for the other terms. The resulting coefficients form the first two quadrants of the total transfer matrices and characterise the optical performance of the spectrometer.

All of the calculations are done using double precision arithmetic to minimise rounding errors. The accuracy of the program was checked by comparing the output with the values of analytical focussing coefficients derived for a straight edge sector magnet in Enge [1967]. Good agreement was found for all the terms.

3.3.2 Spectrum plotting program

Once the spectrometer aberration coefficients have been derived, it is useful to obtain a quick display of the resultant aberration figure for a particular spectrometer acceptance angle β . A second Fortran program called SPECTRUM was written to plot the electron distribution at the dispersion plane using the aberration coefficients calculated by FSPECT. SPECTRUM assumes the spectrometer has a circular entrance aperture with a point source producing an equal number of incident electrons per unit solid angle. The program is looped to allow the energy of the incident electrons to vary by discrete intervals. SPECTRUM is also capable of producing a plot of the spectrometer alignment figure [Egerton 1981, Jeanguillame et al. 1981], which is the image that is displayed on the CRT of a serial collection system in a STEM when the entrance aperture of the spectrometer is systematically explored by the electron beam. The alignment figure differs from the aberration figure in that only trajectories which pass through the energy selecting slits at the dispersion plane are displayed.

The plots obtained from SPECTRUM do not strictly correspond to those that would be obtained in practice as the point source/equal number of electrons per unit solid angle model is only an approximation to the real conditions. A more accurate algorithm would be to

model the spectrometer object using a Monte-Carlo simulation, however the results obtained from FSPECT and SPECTRUM are adequate to provide a good description of the performance of current spectrometer designs.

3.4 RESULTS OF CALCULATIONS ON REAL SPECTROMETERS

Two well known spectrometer designs [Shuman 1980, Scheinfein and Isaacson 1984] were analysed using program FSPECT and the resulting electron distributions at the dispersion plane were obtained using program SPECTRUM. The influence of the calculated aberration patterns for each spectrometer on the design of a parallel detection system is discussed in the following sections.

3.4.1 Shuman spectrometer

This spectrometer has a large bending radius and a corresponding value of $D/R \sim 0.14$, which is small for a typical energy loss spectrometer, with the advantage that the effects of extended fringe fields are lessened. Moreover, the complete system includes two external quadrupole lenses before and after the spectrometer [Shuman et al. 1986], which can be used to trim the first order focussing properties, but there are no correction lenses for second or higher order aberrations. The quoted energy resolution is 0.5 eV at 1 mrad acceptance angle, showing that good second order correction is achieved by the sector alone.

The physical parameters of the virtual field boundaries of the Shuman spectrometer were obtained from two papers [Shuman 1980,1983], and are listed below. The value of the polepiece gap is not given explicitly, but can be calculated knowing the value of I_2 (k in Heighway notation) which is given as 0.174. The distance from poleface to field clamps is given as $t=D/2$. However, substitution of this value in equation (2.42) gives a value for k of 0.177. Forcing k to be 0.174 gives a value for t of 0.47D, which is the value used in the calculations. (Using $t=0.5D$ gave higher residual values for some of the corrected aberrations).

Bending Angle	ϕ	70 °
Bending Radius	R	165.1 mm
Pole Gap	D	22.68 mm
Pole-Clamp Gap	t	10.67 mm
Entrance Tilt	α	11.744 °
Exit Tilt	β	28.785 °

Entrance Radius	R ₁	116.72 mm
Exit Radius	R ₂	-99.55 mm
Object Distance	UR	594.36 mm
Image Distance	VR	393.59 mm

Figure 3.3 is the output from program FSPECT given the above parameters for the virtual field boundaries. As can be seen, the calculated values of the effective entrance and exit tilts for vertical focussing are 10.26 ° and 26.83 ° respectively. These should be compared with the mechanical values of 11.744 ° and 28.785 ° showing the influence of the extended fringe fields. The values of Y₁ and X₁ in the total transfer matrices are effectively zero, implying that the spectrometer is double focussing at the given image plane, however the magnifications in the median and vertical planes are not equal - the imaging is said to be pseudostigmatic. The notation of Figure 3.3 is explained on the page preceding it.

The value of the dispersion coefficient Y₂ is 3.76 which, substituted into equation (3.11), gives a dispersion of 3.4 μm/eV at a primary beam energy of 100keV. The energy resolution limiting aberrations Y₄ and Y₆ are well corrected, allowing large collection angles to be used. For the Shuman spectrometer, the blurring at the dispersion plane caused by these two aberrations for a 5 mrad circular spectrometer acceptance angle β can be written:

$$\Delta y_{\max} = R \beta^2 \left[|Y_4| + |Y_6| \right] \quad \text{giving}$$

$$\Delta y_{\max} = 0.33 \mu\text{m}$$

corresponding to an energy resolution of ~0.1 eV. The aberration describing the dispersion plane tilt, Y₃ is reduced to -0.0031, which ensures that the dispersion plane is normal to the central ray.

The dispersion nonlinearity Y₅ is calculated to be -5.8583 for this spectrometer. The total first and second order dispersion terms can be written:

$$\Delta y \sim R \left[Y_2 \frac{\Delta E}{2E} + Y_5 \left[\frac{\Delta E}{2E} \right]^2 \right]$$

As can be seen from figure 3.3 Y₂ and Y₅ are of opposite sign, so that in moving away from the central ray in increasing energy (ΔE positive), the dispersion tends to decrease as energy increases. Conversely, for electrons with energy less than the central ray, (ΔE negative) the dispersion increases with energy loss. However, for a 2000eV spectrum the maximum value

Figure 3.3

OPTICAL PROPERTIES OF HOMOGENOUS MAGNETIC FIELD
SECTOR MAGNET USING FRINGING FIELD APPROXIMATION.

SHUMAN SPECTROMETER

VIRTUAL FIELD BOUNDARIES

BENDING ANGLE OF CENTRAL RAY = 70.00 Degrees

BENDING RADIUS OF CENTRAL RAY = 165.10 mm.

ENTRANCE POLEFACE TILT = 11.744 Degrees

EXIT POLEFACE TILT = 28.785 Degrees

OBJECT POSITION = 594.36 mm.

POLEPIECE SEPARATION = 22.68 mm.

ENTRANCE FIELD RADIUS OF CURVATURE = 116.73 mm.

EXIT FACE RADIUS OF CURVATURE = -99.55 mm.

DISTANCE FROM ENTRANCE CLAMP TO POLE = 10.67 mm.

DISTANCE FROM EXIT CLAMP TO POLE = 10.67 mm.

ENTRANCE FRINGING FIELD PROPERTIES.

INTEGRAL COEFFICIENT K = 0.1740

CORRECTION COEFFICIENT C = 1.0147

EFFECTIVE VERTICAL POLEFACE TILT = 10.2660 Degrees

EXIT FRINGING FIELD PROPERTIES.

INTEGRAL COEFFICIENT K = 0.1740

CORRECTION COEFFICIENT C = 1.0141

EFFECTIVE VERTICAL POLEFACE TILT = 26.8333 Degrees

Figure 3.3 Calculation of the Aberration Coefficients of the Shuman Spectrometer
Using FSPECT.

The output of the program consists of the first three rows of the horizontal and vertical total transfer matrices, corresponding to the position, slope, and momentum of the electrons as described in matrix equations (3.1) and (3.2). The ordering of the terms has been changed slightly from that expressed in equations 3.7a-d. In terms of the Shuman notation the first row of the horizontal total transfer matrix corresponds to:

$$Y_0, Y_1, Y_2, Y_4, Y_6, Y_5, Y_3, Y_7, Y_{10}, Y_8, Y_{11}, Y_9$$

The ordering of the vertical matrix is:

$$X_0, X_1, X_2, X_3, X_4, X_5, X_7, X_6$$

The values calculated agree well with those published by Shuman [1983] except for X_2 . The discrepancy is due to an error in Shuman's calculations which has since been resolved [Shuman 1986]. The coefficients Y_7 - Y_{11} and X_4 - X_7 have not previously been published.

Figure 3.3

ELEMENTS OF HORIZONTAL TRANSFER MATRIX

:	Y/Y	y/y'	y/d	y/y'^2	y/x'^2	y/d^2
:	0.5374	0.9397	0.6580	0.2458	-1.3006	-0.3762
:	-0.5733	0.8583	1.3012	-1.6659	1.4525	-2.2995
:	0.0000	0.0000	1.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000
:	$y/y'd$	y/y^2	y/x^2	y/yy'	y/xx'	y/yd
:	0.8049	0.3745	-0.8291	0.5612	-1.1600	0.9229
:	-2.1367	0.2008	-0.3013	-1.0927	2.5777	0.1122
:	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000

ELEMENTS OF VERTICAL TRANSFER MATRIX

:	x/x	x/x'	$x/y'x'$	$x/x'd$
:	0.7787	1.2217	0.3389	0.0586
:	-0.5750	0.3820	4.1154	4.7647
:	x/yx	$x/y'x$	x/xd	x/yx'
:	-2.1302	-1.6009	0.0626	0.8480
:	-0.0606	2.2904	3.0077	0.2708

ELEMENTS OF THE TOTAL HORIZONTAL TRANSFER MATRIX

:	Y/Y	y/y'	y/d	y/y'^2	y/x'^2	y/d^2
:	-0.8295	-0.0003	3.7600	-0.0266	0.0542	-5.8583
:	-0.5733	-1.2058	1.3012	-7.3287	10.6036	-2.2995
:	0.0000	0.0000	1.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000
:	$y/y'd$	y/y^2	y/x^2	y/yy'	y/xx'	y/yd
:	-0.0031	0.8532	-1.5474	4.0989	-6.1563	1.1905
:	-1.7326	0.2008	-0.3013	0.3530	0.4083	0.1122
:	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000

ELEMENTS OF THE TOTAL VERTICAL TRANSFER MATRIX

:	x/x	x/x'	$x/y'x'$	$x/x'd$
:	-0.5922	0.0005	-0.0593	37.4568
:	-0.5750	-1.6882	12.5504	15.5926
:	x/yx	$x/y'x$	x/xd	x/yx'
:	-2.2747	-4.3295	7.2331	-6.6954
:	-0.0606	2.0723	3.0077	0.0526

SPECTROMETER IS DOUBLE FOCUSING AT OBJECT POSITION 594.36 mm

HORIZONTAL MAGNIFICATION = -0.8295 AT IMAGE POSITION = 393.5980 mm

VERTICAL MAGNIFICATION = -0.5922 AT IMAGE POSITION = 393.5980 mm

DISPERSION = 3.7600 AT HORIZONTAL IMAGE POSITION

Figure 3.4 Theoretical Electron Intensity Distribution at the Dispersion Plane of the Shuman Spectrometer for a Monochromatic On-Axis Point Source

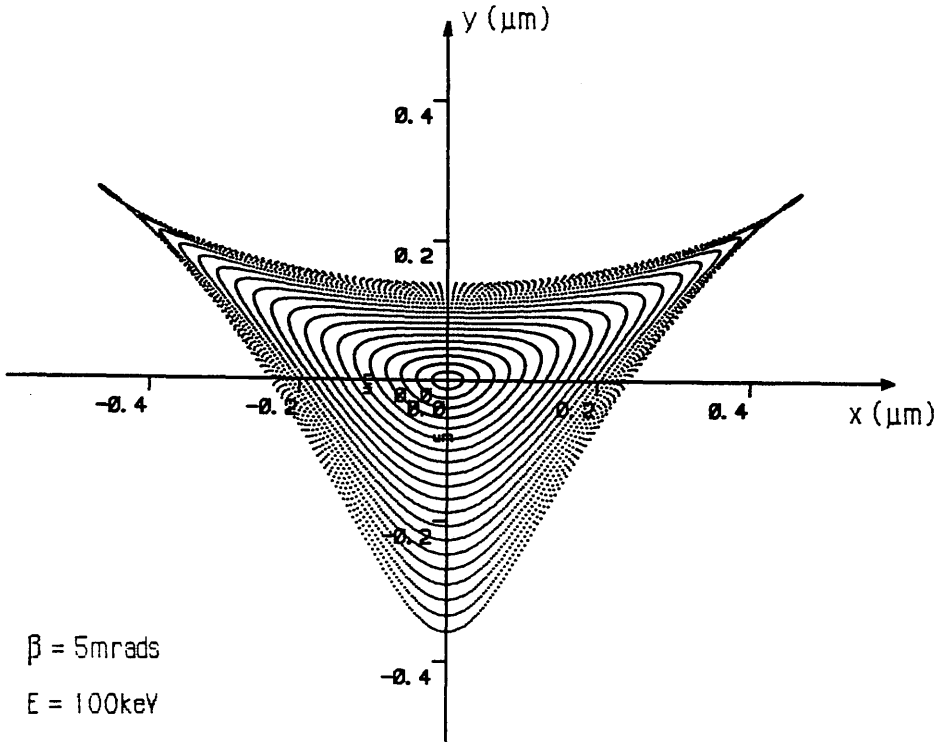
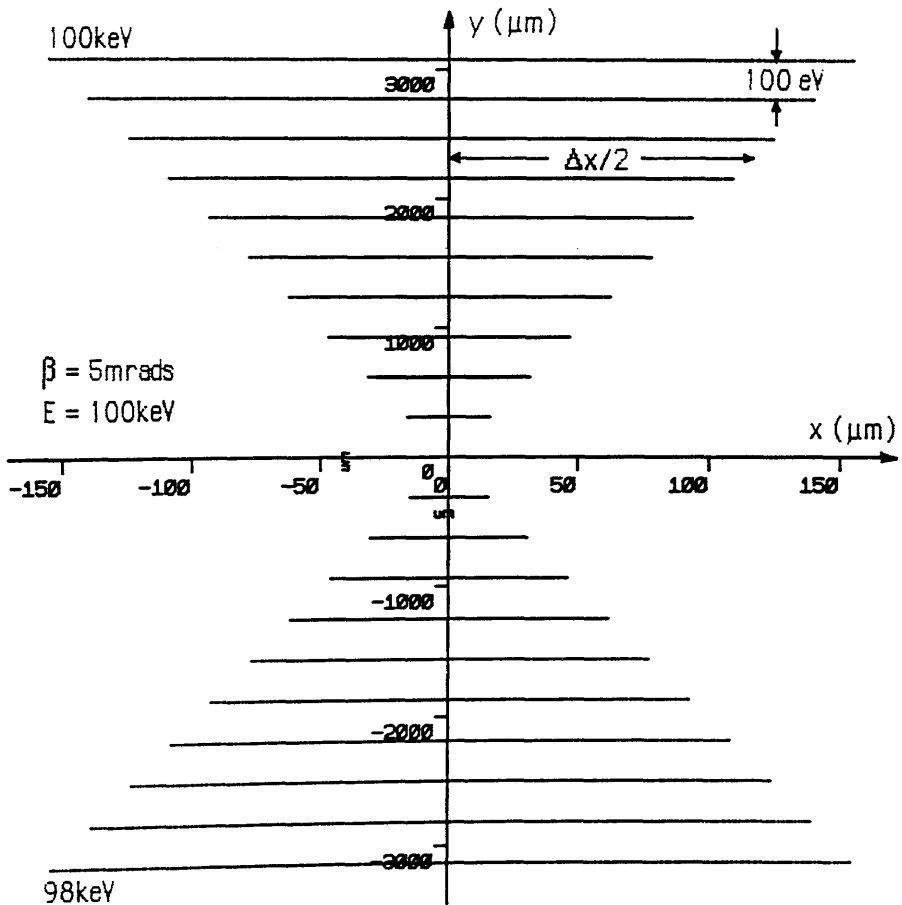


Figure 3.5 Theoretical Electron Intensity Distribution - 2000 eV Range



of the second term in brackets is approximately 1.5% of the first order term at 100keV. This means that the variation in dispersion over an entire spectrum is only ~1.5% which is negligible, especially when it is very unlikely that such a wide energy range would be recorded simultaneously.

The two vertical plane aberrations X_2 and X_3 have values of -0.0593 and 37.4568 respectively. The first term is small enough to be neglected even though it was not specifically corrected for in the original design. However, the second term is large and causes a defocus with energy loss in the x direction given by:

$$\Delta x \sim 2 R X_3 \beta \left[\frac{\Delta E}{2E} \right]$$

For the Shuman spectrometer $\Delta x=0.34 \mu\text{m}/\text{eV}$ at 100 keV , assuming an entrance angle β of 5 mrad. Thus electrons with an energy difference of 1000 eV from the central ray are defocussed to a line extending 340 μm in the x direction. This has obvious repercussions on both the design of the post-spectrometer magnification system and the detector width. The defocus increases linearly with acceptance angle β , which must also be taken into account when deciding the maximum entrance angle to the spectrometer.

The final aberration figure is a complex pattern influenced by all the component aberrations. Figure 3.4 is a plot produced by SPECTRUM of the electron intensity at the dispersion plane of the Shuman spectrometer assuming a monoenergetic point source ($\delta=0$) and a circular acceptance angle β of 5 mrad. As can be seen the extent of the defocus in the dispersion direction is $\sim 0.6 \mu\text{m}$, which implies an intrinsic spectrometer resolution of 0.2 eV at this acceptance angle. Figure 3.5 shows the image of a complete spectrum assuming the same entrance angle. The electron energy is varied in discrete steps of 100 eV, so that the energy spectrum covers 2000 eV. Each 'bar' on the figure consists of monochromatic electrons - in a real spectrum the top bar would correspond to electrons of energy 100 keV, the next bar down to 99.9 keV and so on, down to 98 keV at the bottom (the sector would have to be adjusted so that the energy of the central ray was 99 keV). Clearly illustrated is the defocussing effect of the X_3 aberration. The thickness of each bar is constant owing to the good correction of the Y_3 aberration.

3.4.2 Scheinfein and Isaacson spectrometer

The Scheinfein and Isaacson spectrometer [1984] is a more compact design than the Shuman spectrometer, and consequently has a much larger value of $D/R=0.25$. The fringe fields will

therefore play a bigger part in the optical performance. The complete system contains external quadrupole lenses, a sextupole lens and an octupole corrector lens to eliminate residual second order and reduce third order aberrations. The quoted energy resolution is 0.5 eV at 7.8 mrad acceptance, angle using the external corrector lenses. The sector parameters are listed below:

Bending Angle	ϕ	80 °
Bending Radius	R	100.0 mm
Pole Gap	D	25.00 mm
Pole-Clamp Gap	t	9.50 mm
Entrance Tilt	α	14.61 °
Exit Tilt	β	35.05 °
Entrance Radius	R ₁	72.80 mm
Exit Radius	R ₂	-57.607 mm
Object Distance	UR	350.00 mm
Image Distance	VR	182.17 mm

Figure 3.6 is the output from program FSPECT. The effective entrance and exit tilts for vertical focussing are 11.95 ° and 31.12 ° respectively, compared with mechanical values of 14.61 ° and 35.05 °. The difference is larger than that of the Shuman spectrometer because of the more extended fringe fields.

The total transfer matrices indicate that the spectrometer is not perfectly double focussing ($X_1=0.0863$) and that the vertical focus lies some 4 mm behind the horizontal focus. This could be corrected using the external quadrupole lenses, but is unnecessary for serial detection. On its own, the defocus is small enough to be ignored for parallel detection systems. The dispersion term Y_2 is calculated to be 3.6764 giving a dispersion of 2.0 μ m/eV at 100 keV. The aberration Y_3 is very well corrected so that the dispersion plane is not tilted, similarly Y_5 is of the same order as the Shuman spectrometer and can be neglected for the reasons given previously. Of the two median plane aperture aberrations Y_4 is corrected but Y_6 is 0.3647 which will limit the energy resolution - i.e for an entrance angle $\beta = 5$ mrad:

$$\Delta y_{\max} = R \beta^2 Y_6 \quad \text{giving}$$

$$\Delta y_{\max} = 0.91 \mu\text{m}$$

which gives an energy resolution of 0.5eV. It may be possible to reduce this value using the

Figure 3.6 Calculation of the Aberration Coefficients of the Scheinfein and Isaacson Spectrometer Using FSPECT.

The output of the program consists of the first three rows of the horizontal and vertical total transfer matrices, corresponding to the position, slope, and momentum of the electrons as described in matrix equations (3.1) and (3.2). The ordering of the terms has been changed slightly from that expressed in equations 3.7a-d. In terms of the Shuman notation the first row of the horizontal total transfer matrix corresponds to:

$$Y_0, Y_1, Y_2, Y_4, Y_6, Y_5, Y_3, Y_7, Y_{10}, Y_8, Y_{11}, Y_9$$

The ordering of the vertical matrix is:

$$X_0, X_1, X_2, X_3, X_4, X_5, X_7, X_6$$

The values calculated have not previously been published.

Figure 3.6

OPTICAL PROPERTIES OF HOMOGENOUS MAGNETIC FIELD
SECTOR MAGNET USING FRINGING FIELD APPROXIMATION.

SCHEINFELD AND ISAACSON DESIGN

VIRTUAL FIELD BOUNDARIES

BENDING ANGLE OF CENTRAL RAY = 80.00 Degrees

BENDING RADIUS OF CENTRAL RAY = 100.00 mm.

ENTRANCE POLEFACE TILT = 14.610 Degrees

EXIT POLEFACE TILT = 35.050 Degrees

OBJECT POSITION = 350.00 mm.

POLEPIECE SEPARATION = 25.00 mm.

ENTRANCE FIELD RADIUS OF CURVATURE = 72.80 mm.

EXIT FACE RADIUS OF CURVATURE = -57.61 mm.

DISTANCE FROM ENTRANCE CLAMP TO POLE = 9.50 mm.

DISTANCE FROM EXIT CLAMP TO POLE = 9.50 mm.

ENTRANCE FRINGING FIELD PROPERTIES.

INTEGRAL COEFFICIENT K = 0.1658

CORRECTION COEFFICIENT C = 1.0194

EFFECTIVE VERTICAL POLEFACE TILT = 11.9497 Degrees

EXIT FRINGING FIELD PROPERTIES.

INTEGRAL COEFFICIENT K = 0.1658

CORRECTION COEFFICIENT C = 1.0181

EFFECTIVE VERTICAL POLEFACE TILT = 31.1235 Degrees

Figure 3.6

ELEMENTS OF HORIZONTAL TRANSFER MATRIX

	Y/Y	Y/Y'	Y/d	Y/Y'2	Y/x'2	Y/d2
	0.4304	0.9848	0.8264	0.3104	-1.8677	-0.3169
	-0.6376	0.8645	1.5645	-2.2279	2.7462	-3.5033
	0.0000	0.0000	1.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000
	Y/Y'd	Y/Y2	Y/x2	Y/YY'	Y/xx'	Y/Yd
	1.2143	0.3507	-0.8967	0.4839	-1.3598	1.1003
	-3.5236	0.2197	-0.3732	-1.1204	3.3409	0.2123
	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000

ELEMENTS OF VERTICAL TRANSFER MATRIX

	x/x	x/x'	x/y'x'	x/x'd
	0.7045	1.3963	0.2439	-0.0773
	-0.6370	0.1569	6.0566	8.0075
	x/yx	x/y'x	x/xd	x/yx'
	-2.4752	-1.9665	0.0385	0.8687
	0.1677	2.9611	3.8374	-0.0406

ELEMENTS OF THE TOTAL HORIZONTAL TRANSFER MATRIX

	Y/Y	Y/Y'	Y/d	Y/Y'2	Y/x'2	Y/d2
	-0.7312	0.0003	3.6764	-0.0004	0.3647	-6.6988
	-0.6376	-1.3673	1.5645	-9.0281	16.7336	-3.5033
	0.0000	0.0000	1.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000
	Y/Y'd	Y/Y2	Y/x2	Y/YY'	Y/xx'	Y/Yd
	-0.0001	0.7509	-1.5765	3.6988	-6.3095	1.4870
	-2.7806	0.2197	-0.3732	0.4173	0.7287	0.2123
	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000

ELEMENTS OF THE TOTAL VERTICAL TRANSFER MATRIX

	x/x	x/x'	x/y'x'	x/x'd
	-0.4559	0.0863	-0.5253	39.1123
	-0.6370	-2.0726	18.3318	21.4386
	x/yx	x/y'x	x/xd	x/yx'
	-2.1698	-4.1668	7.0292	-6.7998
	0.1677	3.5478	3.8374	0.5461

SPECTROMETER IS NOT DOUBLE FOCUSING AT OBJECT POSITION 350.00 mm
 HORIZONTAL MAGNIFICATION = -0.7314 AT IMAGE POSITION = 182.1928m
 VERTICAL MAGNIFICATION = -0.4825 AT IMAGE POSITION = 186.3355 mm
 DISPERSION = 3.6768 AT HORIZONTAL IMAGE POSITION

Figure 3.7

Theoretical Electron Intensity Distribution at the Dispersion Plane of the Scheinfein + Isaacson Spectrometer for a Monochromatic On-Axis Point Source

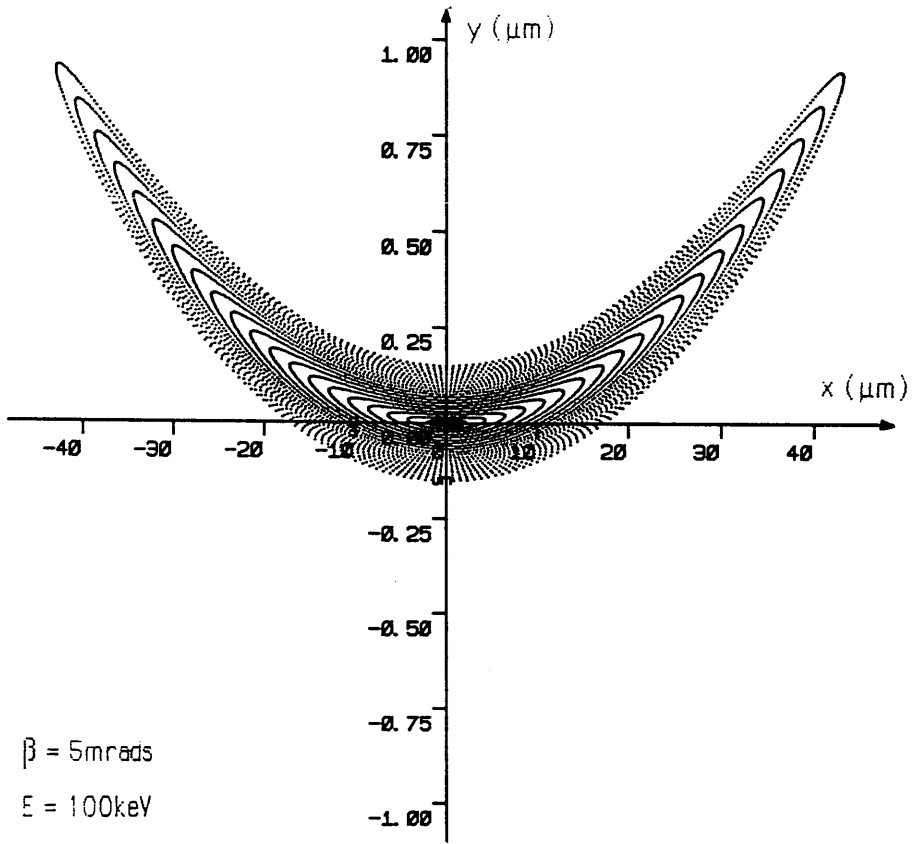
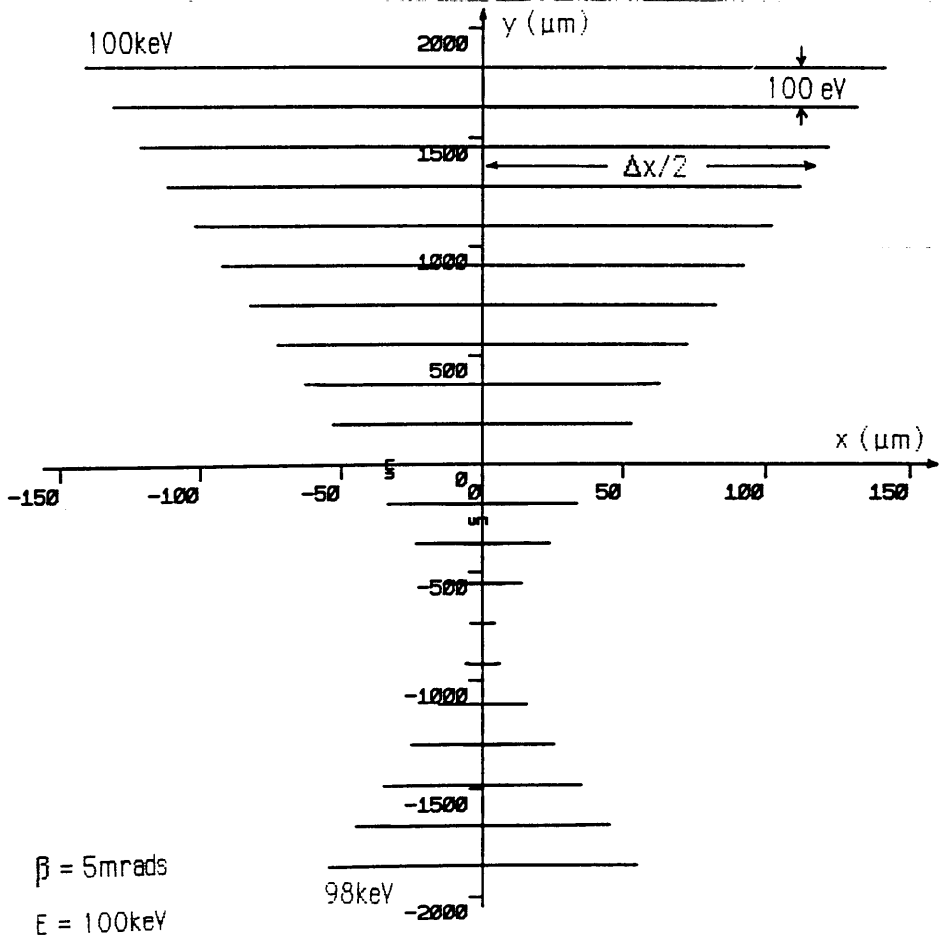


Figure 3.8

Theoretical Electron Intensity Distribution - 2000 eV Range



external sextupole lens, however it is likely that altering Y_6 will introduce an undesirable change in Y_4 . The vertical aberration X_2 is ten times larger than that of the Shuman spectrometer (-0.5253 vs -0.0593), however at $\beta = 5$ mrad, for example, X_2 contributes only $1 \mu\text{m}$ to the defocus in x and can be neglected. The value of X_3 is 39.1123 which is very similar to the Shuman value so that the defocussing effect is very similar, i.e. for a 5 mrad acceptance angle the defocus in x with energy loss is $0.2 \mu\text{m/eV}$.

Figure 3.7 shows the electron intensity at the dispersion plane of the Scheinfein and Isaacson spectrometer for an on axis point source and $\beta = 5$ mrad. All the electrons have the same energy as the central ray ($\delta=0$). As can be seen, the defocus in x is much larger than for the Shuman spectrometer ($\sim 80 \mu\text{m}$ vs $1 \mu\text{m}$), due to the residual uncorrected first order focussing term X_1 . In the dispersion (y) direction the figure extends $\sim 1 \mu\text{m}$ giving an energy resolution of $\sim 0.55 \text{ eV}$ for this acceptance angle. The blurring in the y direction is mainly due to the Y_6 term.

Figure 3.8 shows the image of a complete spectrum assuming $\beta = 5$ mrad. As before each 'bar' consists of monochromatic electrons and the energy increment between each bar is 100 eV , so that the entire spectrum encompasses 2000 eV . From the figure it can be seen that the spectrum is not symmetrical about $y=0$. The reason can easily be seen by writing the equation for the defocus in x as:

$$\Delta x = R \left[X_1 (x') + X_3 (x'\delta) \right]$$

The coefficients X_1 ($=0.0863$) and X_3 ($=39.1123$) have the same sign, so that when δ is positive ($y>0$) the two components add, and when δ is negative ($y<0$) the two components subtract to give the pattern shown in figure 3.8. Consequently, the x defocus is at a minimum at some non-zero value of δ corresponding to an energy difference of -441.3 eV from the central ray. The same effect occurs in the Shuman spectrometer but to a much smaller degree, as X_1 is close to zero.

Figure 3.9 shows the electron intensity distribution at the dispersion plane for monochromatic electrons which have an energy 441.3 eV less than that of the central ray. As can be seen, the defocus in the dispersion direction is the same as for the central ray, $\sim 1 \mu\text{m}$, but the defocus in the x direction is reduced to $\sim 1.2 \mu\text{m}$. Referring back to figure 3.8 it is as though the spectrometer had an effective bending angle slightly greater than 70° . In practice, for serial collection, the energy selecting slits could be displaced from the position of the central ray ($y = 0 \text{ mm}$) by -0.81 mm so that the 'effective central ray', (i.e. ray with minimum

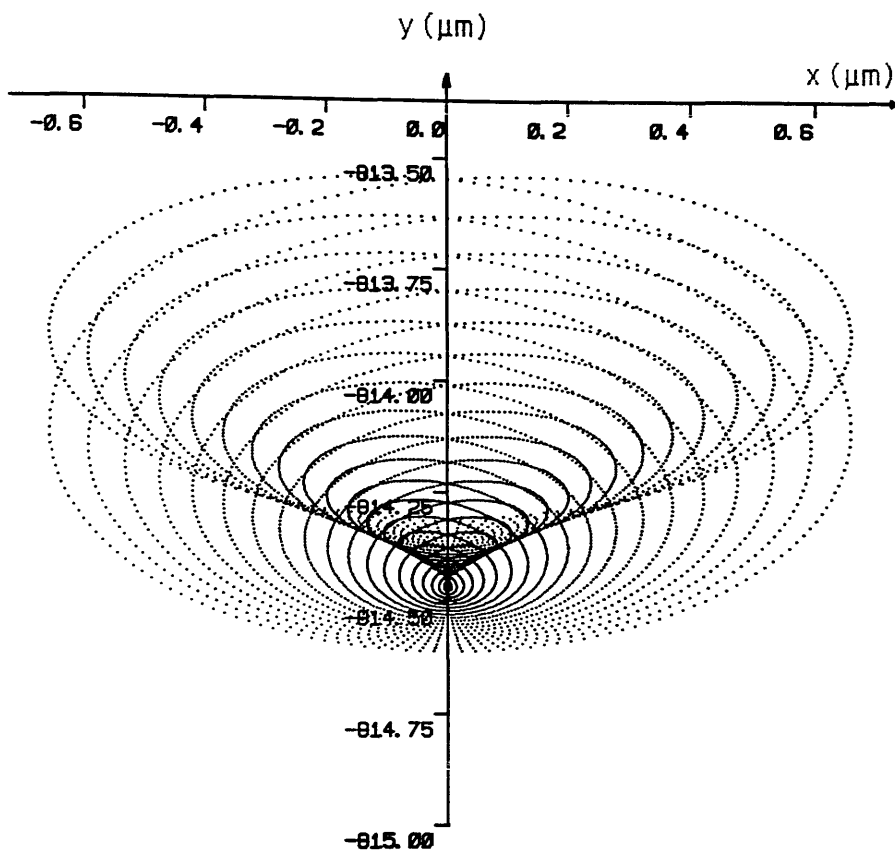


Figure 3.9 Theoretical Electron Intensity Distribution at the Dispersion Plane of the Scheinfein + Isaacson Spectrometer for an On-Axis Point Source With Energy 441 eV Less Than The Central Ray - Minimum Defocus in x

defocus in x) could be recorded. However, as there is no real difference in the energy resolution between the two rays there is limited advantage in doing so.

3.4.3 Investigating the cause of the large X_3 aberration.

An expression for calculating the value of the X_3 aberration is given in equation (3.8k). As can be seen the magnitude of X_3 depends upon the values of four focussing coefficients, $x/x\delta$, $x'/x'\delta$, $x'/x\delta$, $x/x'\delta$. An examination of the appropriate transfer matrices (Figures 3.3 and 3.6) firstly shows that the coefficients are of similar signs and magnitudes for each spectrometer, and secondly that the values of the last two coefficients are the most significant, being two orders of magnitude larger than those of the first two in each case. Analytical expressions for these two coefficients are given in appendix 1. These can be written:

$$\frac{x'}{x'\delta} = F_1(\phi, \alpha, \beta, D) - F_2(\phi, \alpha, \beta, D) C_2$$

$$\frac{x}{x\delta} = F_3(\phi, \alpha, \beta, D) - F_4(\phi, \alpha, \beta, D) C_2$$

where C_2 is the exit curvature ($C_2 = R/R_2 \cos^3 \beta$) and the functions F_j depend upon the sector parameters. For both spectrometers, the values of the first terms on the right hand side of the above equations are approximately equal in magnitude to those of the second terms, but of opposite sign as the exit face radius of curvature R_2 is negative in each case. If R_2 were positive then the magnitudes of the $x'/x'\delta$ and $x'/x\delta$ focussing coefficients would be much smaller, and consequently the value of the X_3 aberration much reduced. Egerton [1980] has shown that correction of the median plane aberrations Y_4 and Y_6 requires R_1 and R_2 to be of opposite sign, and that designs with a negative entrance curvature tend to have lower values of first order dispersion. For this reason most second order spectrometer designs have a positive entrance curvature and negative exit curvature. From the above it can be inferred that, at least in part, a negative curvature on the exit poleface coupled with positive values of α and β tends to increase the value of the X_3 aberration.

3.4.4 Higher order aberrations

Sector spectrometers produce aberrations of all orders. There is some evidence to suggest that correction of second order aberrations can increase the values of third order aberrations, to the point that these become resolution limiting even at moderate acceptance angles [Tang 1982]. Scheinfein and Isaacson [1984] noted that third order aberrations began to dominate the residual second order aberrations for acceptance angles > 5 mrad. Derivation of third and higher order aberrations by the matrix method is possible [Fujita et al 1977, Matsuda

and Wollnik 1970], but the calculations involved are extremely lengthy and require an accurate determination of the fringe field profiles. The paper by Tang outlined a method whereby these fringe field profiles could be calculated using the finite element analysis programs developed by Munro [1973] for analysing round lenses. Correction of third order aberrations using shaped polepieces is likely to be almost impossible due to the machining tolerances required. External multipole lenses could possibly be used, however each new element adds further cost and complexity to a detection system. At present, it seems that obtaining good energy resolution with high collection efficiency is best accomplished using the combination of a second order corrected spectrometer with post specimen lenses to compress the angular distribution of the scattered electrons before the spectrometer.

3.4.5 Conclusions from spectrometer calculations

The two spectrometers analysed are typical of second order corrected homogeneous field magnetic sector designs. It has been shown that correction of the median plane aberrations tends to increase the value of the vertical plane aberration coefficient X_3 to ~ 40 , causing a considerable vertical defocus with energy loss. It is very likely that other such spectrometers behave similarly, and that the vertical defocus is a general property for spectrometers with median plane aberrations corrected. It is obvious that careful calculations of the type shown in this chapter are necessary to design a parallel collection system that successfully matches an existing spectrometer.

CHAPTER 4

Post-spectrometer magnification: quadrupole optics

Introduction

Parallel detection in electron energy loss spectroscopy requires that the dispersion plane of the spectrometer be magnified to overcome the resolution limiting effects of electron scattering within the detector, and that the shape of the magnified spectrum should match the geometry of the particular detector used. This chapter describes the properties required of such post-spectrometer magnification systems and discusses the advantages of using combinations of quadrupole lenses as the magnifying elements. A review of the theory of the focussing properties of multipole lenses is given and the transfer matrix for a magnetic quadrupole lens is developed to second order. The optical properties of single quadrupoles and quadrupole pairs are discussed, and the relevant matrix equations are developed.

4.1 POST SPECTROMETER MAGNIFICATION

The need for post spectrometer magnification has already been discussed in chapter 1 (section 1.2.4). A successful magnification system should be able to couple the spectrometer dispersion plane to the detector with minimum loss of signal, and ideally no loss of resolution. The magnification should be variable over a wide range allowing collection of whole spectra at low energy resolution, and also detailed high energy resolution images of ionisation edges and fine structure. Furthermore, it is desirable that the magnifications in the median and vertical planes be independent, so that the dispersion of a spectrum can be increased without changing its width in the nondispersive direction. Thus by adjusting the non-dispersive magnification the width of the spectrum could be made to match exactly that of the detector at every magnification. The choice of magnifying elements is discussed below.

4.1.1 Advantages of quadrupole lenses over round lenses

There are two types of electron lens which can be used for magnifying the dispersion plane—round lenses or quadrupole lenses. These lenses can be either magnetic or electrostatic, however electrostatic lenses are less practical as they must be contained within the vacuum system, whereas magnetic lenses can be external to a vacuum flight tube. This difficulty, allied to problems of shielding the high voltages required suggests that magnetic lenses are

more suitable for this application. The properties of round lenses and quadrupoles compare as follows:

<u>Quadrupoles</u>	<u>Round Lenses</u>
1) Low power, no cooling required.	High power, must be cooled.
2) No image rotation.	Image rotation unless paired.
3) Short working distance.	Long working distance.
4) Psuedostigmatic focussing if paired.	Stigmatic focussing only.
5) Four second order chromatic aberrations.	No second order aberrations.

The first point is important from a constructional point of view - water cooling of lenses is best avoided if possible as it involves extra expense and complexity. Image rotation is obviously undesirable as the detector would have to be rotated into a new alignment every time the magnification was changed. Also it is advantageous to have as short a working distance as possible between the spectrometer exit plane and the detector, both from a mechanical point of view and also to limit the effects of external electromagnetic fields. The advantage of psuedostigmatic focussing is that it is possible to make the magnifications in the dispersive and non-dispersive planes independent. This feature is impossible to achieve using round lenses. The rotational symmetry of round lenses excludes all aberrations of second and higher even orders. Quadrupole lenses also have no second order aperture or geometric aberrations, but do possess four second order chromatic aberrations which must be considered.

Magnification systems using two and three post spectrometer quadrupoles have been constructed [Egerton and Crozier 1987, Krivanek et al. 1987] and a system using four round lenses configured as two anti-rotation pairs has been reported [Shuman and Kruit 1985]. The latter system has a very long flight path and suffers from electromagnetic interference, to the extent that a feedback system designed to reduce the effects of the external a.c. fields is necessary [Kruit and Shuman 1985]. It seems that quadrupole lens systems offer much more flexibility and ease of construction than equivalent round lens configurations, and can form the basis of a more efficient magnification system. The following sections outline the theory of magnetic multipole lenses, and quadrupole lenses in particular.

Figure 4.1

Particle Trajectory In Generalised Multipole Lens

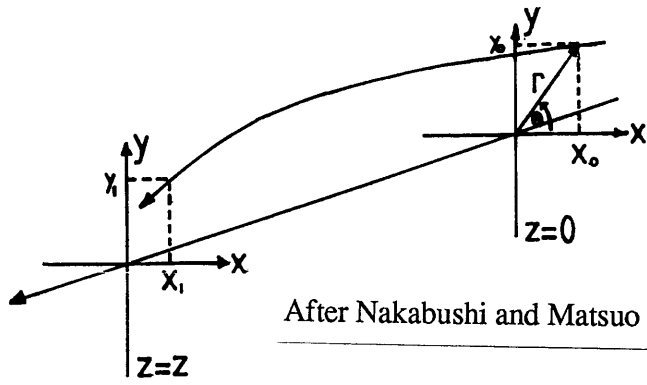


Figure 4.2

Idealised Quadrupole Lens

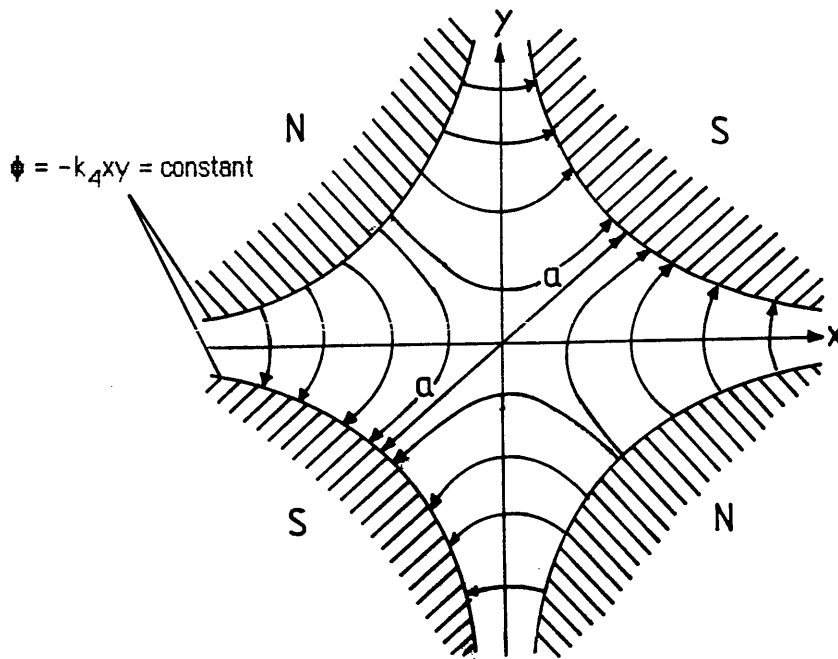
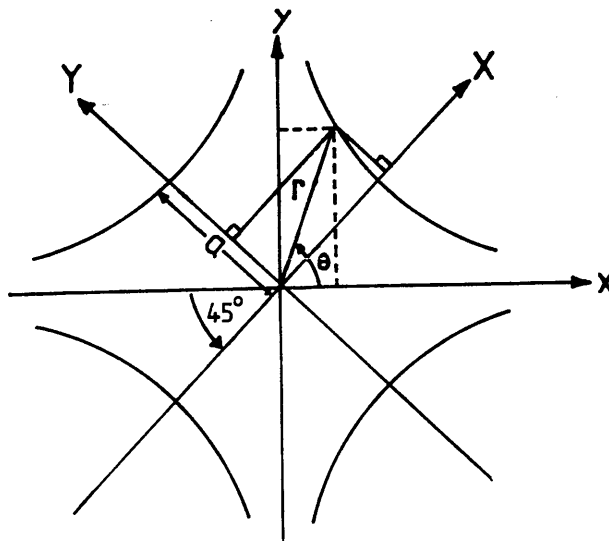


Figure 4.3

Aid For Calculation Of k_4



4.2 MAGNETIC MULTIPOLE LENSES - THEORY

The electron-optical properties of any multipole lens can be derived using the matrix multiplication method described in the previous chapters. An ideal magnetic multipole lens produces a field which is transverse to the optic axis of the lens and possesses one or more rotational symmetry planes. In the next sections the generalised form of the magnetic field of a multipole lens is derived and the trajectory equations for the motion of electrons in such a field are developed. Solution of these equations gives the transfer matrix focussing coefficients for the particular multipole field of interest. The first and second order focussing coefficients for a pure quadrupole field are used to form the quadrupole transfer matrix. The derivations assume sharp cutoff (SCOFF) fringe fields, and follow the method of Steffen (1965) and Nakabushi and Matsuo (1982).

4.2.1 The magnetic field of a multipole lens

Figure 4.1 shows an arbitrary trajectory of an electron in a generalised multipole lens. The electron enters the lens with coordinates (x_0, y_0) at position $z=0$, and exits at position $z=z$ with coordinates (x_1, y_1) . The magnetic field is assumed to be transverse and unsaturated, so that the magnetic scalar potential ϕ has no z dependence, and the only symmetry condition is that the scalar magnetic potential be an odd function of y :

$$\phi(x, -y) = -\phi(x, y) \quad (4.1)$$

ϕ must satisfy the Laplace equation which can be written in cylindrical polar coordinates :

$$\nabla^2 \phi(r, \theta) = \frac{1}{r} \frac{\partial}{\partial r} \left[r \frac{\partial \phi}{\partial r} \right] + \frac{1}{r^2} \frac{\partial^2 \phi}{\partial \theta^2} = 0 \quad (4.2)$$

This equation can be solved using the method of separation of variables [Nakabushi and Matsuo 1982] to give using (4.1):

$$\phi(r, \theta) = - \sum_n \frac{k_{2n}}{n} r^n \sin n\theta \quad n = 1, 2, 3, 4, \dots \quad (4.3)$$

where r and θ are the plane polar coordinates in the x - y plane. Expanding equation (4.3):

$$\phi(r, \theta) = -k_2 r \sin\theta - \frac{k_4}{2} r^2 \sin 2\theta - \frac{k_6}{3} r^3 \sin 3\theta - \frac{k_8}{4} r^4 \sin 4\theta - \dots \quad (4.4)$$

It is easy to identify the individual multipole components from equation (4.4). For example the term containing $\sin 2\theta$ has two maxima and two minima as θ rotates from 0 to 2π radians about the z axis, suggesting a four pole or quadrupole type symmetry. Similarly the $\sin 3\theta$ term is a sextupole field and the $\sin 4\theta$ term represents an octupole field. The constants k_4 , k_6 and k_8 are the field strength parameters of the quadrupole, sextupole and octupole field

components respectively, whereas the k_2 term represents a dipole field (such as a sector) and is not considered further. Equation (4.4) can be expressed in cartesian form by substituting $\sin\theta = y/r$ and $\cos\theta = x/r$ to give:

$$\phi(x, y) = -k_4 xy - k_6(x^2 y - \frac{1}{3} y^3) - k_8(x^3 y - xy^3) - \dots \quad (4.5)$$

The magnetic field components can be now obtained using $B = \nabla\phi$ i.e.

$$B_x = k_4 y + 2k_6 x y + k_8(3x^2 y - y^3) \quad (4.6a)$$

$$B_y = k_4 x + k_6(x^2 - y^2) + k_8(x^3 - 3xy^2) \quad (4.6b)$$

$$B_z = 0 \quad (4.6c)$$

4.2.2 The trajectory equations

The equations of motion for an electron in a multipole lens field are obtained by combining the Lorentz equation together with equations (4.6 a-c) to give:

$$m\ddot{x} = e\dot{z}B_y \quad (4.7a)$$

$$m\ddot{y} = -e\dot{z}B_x \quad (4.7b)$$

$$m\ddot{z} = -e(\dot{x}B_y - \dot{y}B_x) \quad (4.7c)$$

where the dot stands for time derivative as before. In order to change the independent variable from time to z the differentials can be rewritten as follows:

$$\dot{x} = \dot{x} \dot{z} \quad \text{so} \quad \ddot{x} = \dot{x} \ddot{z} + \dot{z} \dot{x}''$$

where the dash stands for derivative with respect to z . Expanding the last term gives:

$$\dot{z} \dot{x}'' = \dot{z} \frac{d}{dz} (\dot{x} \dot{z}) = \dot{z} (\dot{x} \ddot{z} + \dot{z} \dot{x}'') = \dot{z}^2 \dot{x}'' \quad (\text{as } \ddot{z} = 0)$$

Substituting back gives the following transformations:

$$\ddot{x} = \dot{x} \ddot{z} + \dot{z}^2 \dot{x}'' \quad (4.8a)$$

$$\ddot{y} = \dot{y} \ddot{z} + \dot{z}^2 \dot{y}'' \quad (4.8b)$$

The velocity of the electron is:

$$\begin{aligned} v^2 &= \dot{x}^2 + \dot{y}^2 + \dot{z}^2 \\ v^2 &= (\dot{x} \dot{z})^2 + (\dot{y} \dot{z})^2 + \dot{z}^2 \\ v^2 &= \dot{z}^2 (1 + \dot{x}'^2 + \dot{y}'^2) \end{aligned} \quad (4.9)$$

where v is particle velocity and dz/dt is the velocity component of the electron parallel to the optic axis. From equation (4.8a):

$$\ddot{x} = \frac{1}{\dot{z}^2} (\ddot{x} - \dot{x} \ddot{z})$$

Substituting in the above equation for \dot{z}^2 using equation (4.9), \ddot{x} using equation (4.7a) and \ddot{z} using equation (4.7c) gives:

$$\ddot{x} = \frac{e}{mv} (1 + \dot{x}'^2 + \dot{y}'^2)^{\frac{1}{2}} \left[B_y + (\dot{x}' B_y - \dot{y}' B_x) \dot{x}' \right] \quad (4.10a)$$

A similar procedure gives for the y direction:

$$\ddot{y} = \frac{e}{mv} (1 + \dot{x}'^2 + \dot{y}'^2)^{\frac{1}{2}} \left[-B_x + (\dot{x}' B_y - \dot{y}' B_x) \dot{y}' \right] \quad (4.10b)$$

To consider chromatic aberrations a momentum deviation is defined as before:

$$p = p_0 (1 + \delta) \quad \text{and} \quad \frac{1}{p} = \frac{1}{p_0} \left[1 - \delta + \delta^2 - \dots \right] \quad (4.11)$$

Equation (4.10a) can be written:

$$\ddot{x} = \frac{e}{p} \left[B_y \left(1 + \frac{3}{2} \dot{x}'^2 + \frac{1}{2} \dot{y}'^2 \right) - B_x (\dot{x}' \dot{y}') \right]$$

Where terms of greater than third order in x' , y' have been neglected. Substituting for B_x and B_y using equations (4.6 a,b) and including chromatic terms through equation (4.11) yields, again to third order:

$$\ddot{x} = \frac{e}{p_0} \left[k_4 \left[x + \frac{3}{2} x \dot{x}'^2 + \frac{1}{2} x \dot{y}'^2 - y \dot{y}' \dot{x}' \right] + k_6 \left[x^2 - y^2 \right] + k_8 \left[x^3 - 3xy^2 \right] - k_4 x \delta + k_6 \left[y^2 \delta - x^2 \delta \right] + k_4 x \delta^2 \right]$$

which can be rewritten as:

$$\ddot{x} + qx = qx\delta + h(y^2 - x^2) - qx\delta^2 - h\delta(y^2 - x^2) + q(\dot{x}'\dot{y}' - \frac{3}{2}x\dot{x}'^2 - \frac{1}{2}x\dot{y}'^2) + p(3xy^2 - x^3) \quad (4.12)$$

where:

$$q = -\frac{e k_4}{p_0} = \text{quadrapole strength}$$

$$h = -\frac{e k_6}{p_0} = \text{sextupole strength}$$

$$p = -\frac{e k_8}{p_0} = \text{octupole strength}$$

A similar method develops the trajectory equation for y:

$$y'' - qy = -qy\delta + 2hxy \quad (4.13)$$

where only terms of first and second order have been carried. Equations (4.12) and (4.13) are the trajectory equations describing the motion of an electron through a general multipole lens.

4.2.3 First order solution of the trajectory equations - quadrupole field

In the case of a pure quadrupole field the sextupole and octupole terms k_6 and k_8 must be zero and the trajectory equations (4.12, 4.13) can be written to first order in x, y and δ :

$$x'' - qx = 0 \quad (4.14)$$

$$y'' + qy = 0 \quad (4.15)$$

The solutions to these equations are:

$$x = x_0 \cos \sqrt{q} z + x_0' \frac{1}{\sqrt{q}} \sin \sqrt{q} z \quad (4.16)$$

$$y = y_0 \cosh \sqrt{q} z + y_0' \frac{1}{\sqrt{q}} \sinh \sqrt{q} z \quad (4.17)$$

where x_0, y_0, x_0', y_0' are the initial values of the coordinates and gradients of the electron at $z=0$. The form of equations (4.16) and (4.17) suggests that a pure quadrupole field is convergent in one plane and divergent in the other. For positive q as above the x plane is convergent and the y plane is divergent. Thus, particles travelling in the x0z plane experience a focussing action whilst particles travelling in the y0z plane are defocussed, which implies that a single quadrupole field images a point source to a line.

Equations (4.16) and (4.17) are linear and can be expressed in matrix form exactly as in the case of the magnetic sector equations of chapter 2. Once more motions in the two orthogonal planes are independent to first order. The first order transfer matrices for the x and y planes of a pure quadrupole field are given below in equations (4.18) and (4.19), where the focussing coefficients for the second row are found by differentiating the appropriate first row coefficients with respect to z.

First order transfer matrix for quadrupole convergent plane:

$$\begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_1' \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \cos\sqrt{q} z & \frac{1}{\sqrt{q}} \sin\sqrt{q} z \\ -\sqrt{q} \sin\sqrt{q} z & \cos\sqrt{q} z \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_0 \\ x_0' \end{bmatrix} \quad (4.18)$$

First order transfer matrix for quadrupole divergent plane:

$$\begin{bmatrix} y_1 \\ y_1' \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \cosh\sqrt{q} z & \frac{1}{\sqrt{q}} \sinh\sqrt{q} z \\ \sqrt{q} \sinh\sqrt{q} z & \cosh\sqrt{q} z \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} y_0 \\ y_0' \end{bmatrix} \quad (4.19)$$

4.2.4 Quadrupole lenses

This section describes how a quadrupole field can be generated in practice. From equations (4.6 a-c) a pure quadrupole field has $B_y=k_4x$, $B_x=k_4y$ and $B_z=0$, where k_4 is the field strength gradient, which should be constant. The quadrupole field \underline{B} may be derived from a potential:

$$\phi = -k_4xy \quad \text{as} \quad \underline{B} = -\nabla \phi \quad (4.20)$$

The equipotential lines $\phi = -k_4xy = \text{constant}$ form a set of symmetric hyperbolae in the x-y plane. Figure 4.2 shows four such hyperbolae which represent the contour lines of the four magnetic poles of an ideal lens. For the polarity shown the lens is focussing in the y direction and defocussing in the x direction. In practical terms real polepieces can only approximate to the infinite hyperbolae required. Further modifications to the contours may be necessary to make room for coil windings. Deviations from the ideal pole shape will introduce higher order field components (hexapole, octupole etc.) into the field expansion, but in general the magnitude of these higher terms is small, and Grivet [1972] has shown that hyperbolic polepieces can be approximated by circular polepieces without introducing any significant departures from an ideal quadrupole field.

4.2.5 Calculation of the quadrupole field gradient k_4

The equation of a hyperbola such as depicted in figure 4.3 is:

$$X^2 - Y^2 = a^2$$

with respect to the X-Y coordinate system. However the principal axes of the lens x,y are rotated at 45° to this system. The equation of the hyperbola, with respect to the x-y axes, can

be found by noting:

$$X = r \cos (\theta - 45^{\circ}) \qquad Y = r \sin (\theta - 45^{\circ})$$

Where r and θ are polar coordinates as shown. The sine and cosine terms can be expanded and written in terms of coordinate axes x and y as:

$$X = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} (x + y) \qquad Y = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} (y - x)$$

substituting these expressions into the original equation gives:

$$\frac{1}{2} \left[(x + y)^2 - (y - x)^2 \right] = a^2$$

i.e. $xy = \frac{a^2}{2}$

If the polefaces are assumed to be equipotential surfaces the magnetic scalar potential is:

$$\phi = \mu_0 N I$$

where NI is the number of amp-turns per pole. Substituting for ϕ in equation (4.20):

$$\mu_0 N I = -k_4 x y$$

$$k_4 = \frac{-2 \mu_0 N I}{a^2} \qquad (4.21)$$

where a is the radius of the largest circle that can be inscribed inside the polepieces.

4.2.6 Higher order solutions of the trajectory equations

Solutions of equation (4.12) are given to third order by Nakabushi and Matsuo [1982] in the form of matrix coefficients. The same authors also present solutions of equation (4.13) to second order. It is interesting to note that pure sextupole fields ($k_4=k_8=0$) have no non-zero first order focussing coefficients and hence do not affect first order focussing properties. For this reason sextupole corrector lenses are often used to correct for residual second order aberrations of magnetic sectors. Pure octupole lenses have no first or second order coefficients so that they can be used to correct for third order aberration effects. Field symmetry limits quadrupole lenses to eight non-zero second order chromatic focussing coefficients in each plane - analytical expressions for these are given in appendix 3; and the second order transfer matrices for the convergent and divergent planes of a quadrupole lens can be constructed in an identical manner to those given in chapter 3 for a magnetic sector. The transfer matrix for the x plane is given below in terms of the abbreviated Taylor coefficient notation of chapter 2. The y plane transfer matrix is identical in form simply

requiring substitution of the appropriate focussing coefficients.

Second order quadrupole transfer matrix (x plane):

$$\begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_1' \\ x_1 \delta \\ x_1' \delta \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{x}{x} & \frac{x}{x'} & | & \frac{x}{x\delta} & \frac{x}{x'\delta} \\ \frac{x'}{x} & \frac{x'}{x'} & | & \frac{x'}{x\delta} & \frac{x'}{x'\delta} \\ \hline 0 & 0 & | & \frac{x}{x} & \frac{x}{x'} \\ 0 & 0 & | & \frac{x'}{x} & \frac{x'}{x'} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_0 \\ x_0' \\ x_0 \delta \\ x_0' \delta \end{bmatrix} \quad (4.22)$$

Unlike the magnetic sector there are no second order cross terms in a quadrupole lens, so that motions in the horizontal and vertical planes are independent to second order.

4.2.7 Effects of extended fringe fields

The magnetic field in any real quadrupole lens does not disappear abruptly at the end planes of the magnet. As in the case of a magnetic sector there exist fringe field zones outside the magnet where B_x and B_y are non-zero, and the fringe field does not have a pure quadrupole configuration, as k_4 is not constant and also a component of B_z appears. To account for this effect it is usual to represent the lens by three transfer matrices, one for the idealised main field (i.e. equation 4.22), and two others to represent the actions of the entrance and exit fringe fields.

The principal effect of extended fringe fields is to shorten the focal length of the lens and hence change the first order focussing properties. Expressions for the focussing coefficients of the fringe field matrices have been determined [Lee-Whiting 1970, Smith 1970, Matsuda and Wollnik 1972] however the calculations require experimental measurements of the fringe field profiles. Smith [1972] has shown that a SCOFF type calculation, where the constant interior field is extended a distance beyond the mechanical edges to a virtual field boundary, (Figure 4.4) can give a good approximation to the first order focussing properties of a real lens. An expression for the 'effective length' L of the lens is given by Grivet [1972] as:

$$L = L' + 1.1 a \quad (4.23)$$

where L' is the mechanical length and a is the radius of the quadrupole aperture.

Figure 4.4

Defining The Effective Length Of A Quadrupole Lens

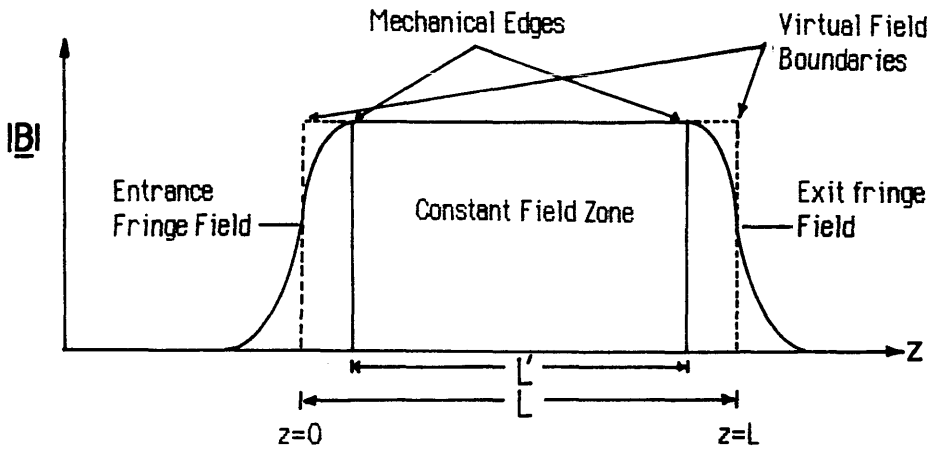
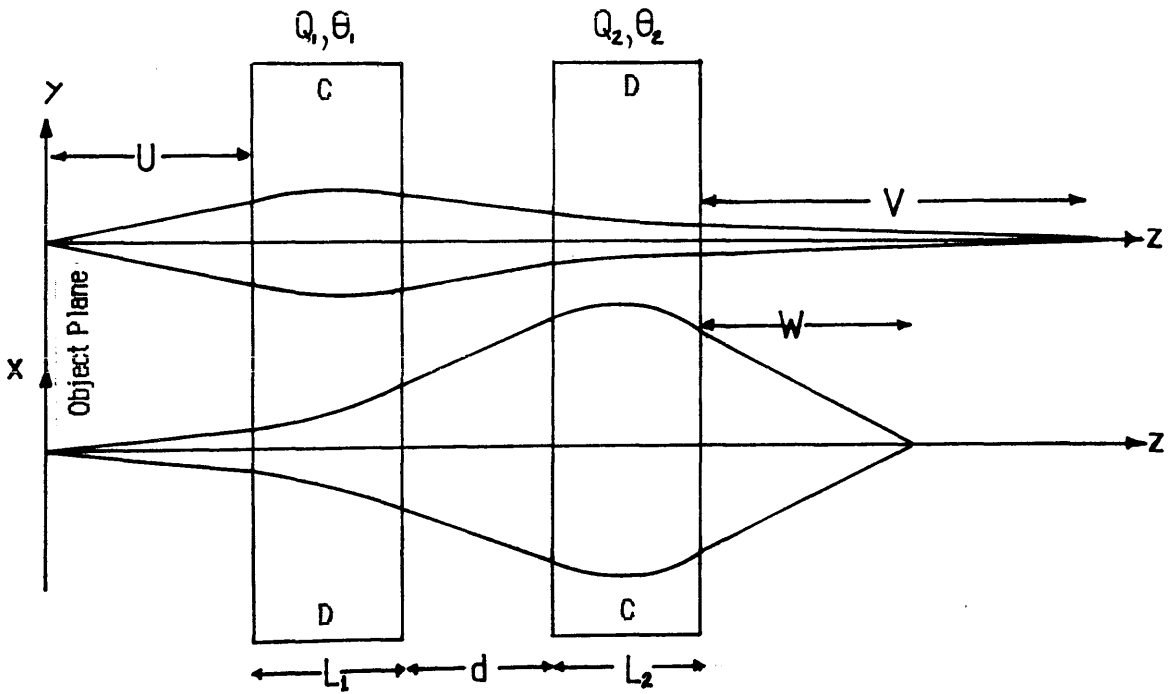


Figure 4.5

Quadrupole Pair Imaging



4.2.8 Drift matrices and the total transfer matrix

As in the case of the magnetic sector the optical properties of a quadrupole lens are obtained from the total transfer matrices for each plane. The second order drift matrix for a length U is determined in exactly the same manner as for the magnetic sector i.e.

$$\begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_1' \\ x_1\delta \\ x_1'\delta \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & U & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & U \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_0 \\ x_0' \\ x_0\delta \\ x_0'\delta \end{bmatrix} \quad (4.24)$$

with an identical matrix for the y plane. The total transfer matrices are then given by:

$$[T_x] = [Q_x][X][P_x] \quad (4.25)$$

$$[T_y] = [Q_y][Y][P_y] \quad (4.26)$$

where $[T_x]$ and $[T_y]$ are the x and y plane total transfer matrices. $[X]$ and $[Y]$ are the transfer matrices corresponding to equation (4.22). $[Q_x]$ is the second order x plane drift matrix for an image distance Q_x and $[P_x]$ is the associated drift matrix for an object distance P_x . $[Q_y]$ and $[P_y]$ are the corresponding drift matrices in the y plane. As mentioned before single quadrupole lenses are incapable of stigmatic focussing, and as such are of limited practical use for the magnification of an EELS spectrum. Obtaining any form of stigmatism requires the use of a second lens.

4.3 QUADRUPOLE PAIRS

Starting from a real object, a single quadrupole gives a real image point in its convergent plane and a virtual image in its divergent plane. Producing a real image in both planes requires a pair of quadrupoles, Q_1, Q_2 rotated at 90° to each other as shown in figure 4.5. Thus the focussing plane of the second quadrupole is aligned with the defocussing plane of the first and the overall effect can be to produce focussing in both planes. Quadrupole pairs are basic focussing elements in particle transport systems, and the next sections describe some of their optical properties.

4.3.1 Transfer matrices of quadrupole pairs

From figure 4.5 the distance between the effective ends of the quadrupoles is d . L_1 and L_2 are the effective lengths of the quadrupoles and the respective excitations θ_1 and θ_2 are:

$$\theta_1 = \sqrt{q_1} L_1 = \sqrt{\frac{-e k_{4_1}}{p_0}} L_1 = \sqrt{\frac{2 e \mu_0 (NI)_1}{p_0}} \frac{L_1}{a_1} \quad (4.27)$$

$$\theta_2 = \sqrt{q_2} L_2 = \sqrt{\frac{-e k_{4_2}}{p_0}} L_2 = \sqrt{\frac{2 e \mu_0 (NI)_2}{p_0}} \frac{L_2}{a_2} \quad (4.28)$$

where subscript 1 refers to the first quadrupole and 2 refers to the second. It is interesting to note that the quadrupole strength is directly proportional to the quantity L/a . Figure 4.5 shows typical trajectories in each plane. In general, the image position in the convergent-divergent (CD) plane is different from that in the divergent-convergent (DC) plane, but by varying θ_1 and θ_2 it is possible to produce a pseudo-stigmatic image ($V=W$) for any given object distance U . The choice of θ_1 and θ_2 is fixed by the required object and image positions. The magnifications are then completely determined and are unequal, in general the magnification is greatest in the CD plane.

The equations for the combined transfer matrices of a quadrupole pair such as shown in figure 4.5 can be written :

$$[YCD] = [X2][d][Y1] \quad (4.29)$$

$$[XDC] = [Y2][d][X1] \quad (4.30)$$

The notation can be explained as follows:

Both quadrupoles are assumed to be convergent in their y -planes and divergent in their x -planes. The x - y coordinate axes of Q_2 are rotated at 90° to those of Q_1 so that a particle leaving Q_1 in its convergent y -plane enters Q_2 in its divergent x -plane. Thus $[X2]$ is the transfer matrix for the divergent plane of quadrupole 2, $[Y1]$ is the convergent transfer matrix of quadrupole 1. Similarly $[X1]$ is the divergent transfer matrix for Q_1 and $[Y2]$ is the convergent transfer matrix for Q_2 . The transfer matrix for the drift space between the lenses is $[d]$. $[YCD]$ is the combined transfer matrix for the CD direction, $[XDC]$ is the corresponding combined transfer matrix for the DC direction. The total transfer matrices for

the two directions are given by:

$$[TYCD] = [V][YCD][U] \quad (4.31)$$

$$[TXDC] = [W][XDC][U] \quad (4.32)$$

where [U],[V],[W] are the transfer matrices for the appropriate drift spaces of the object and image planes.

The total transfer matrices are the products of five individual transfer matrices, so the expressions for each coefficient are extremely lengthy and are not listed here, but are quite straightforward to derive. The conditions for a pseudo-stigmatic image ($V=W$) can easily be obtained from equations (4.31) and (4.32) in a manner similar to that used in section 3.2.2 for a magnetic sector. Again the equations are very lengthy and are not listed here.

4.3.2 Quadrupole pair calculations

A Fortran computer program, QPAIR*, was written to calculate the first order optical properties of quadrupole pairs. The program requires as data the effective lengths L_1, L_2 of each lens and the distance d between them, along with data describing the range of excitations θ_1 and θ_2 to be considered. The desired ratio of the image distances W/V should also be supplied. For pseudo-stigmatic imaging $W/V=1$, however other values can be useful (see chapter 5). The program calculates the the combined transfer matrices (equations 4.29,4.30) for each value of θ_1 and θ_2 , and then solves the appropriate equations to find the object and image distances that correspond to the required conditions. For example, if psuedo-stigmatic imaging is required the program calculates, for each θ_1, θ_2 pair, the unique value of object distance U such that the image distance is equal in both planes i.e. $W=V$. Also calculated are the associated magnifications in each plane.

The results of a calculation for the case where $L_1=L_2=L$ and $d=L/2$ are shown in figures 4.6 a,b and c. The imaging condition imposed is that $W=V$ i.e. pseudo-stigmatic imaging, and θ_1 and θ_2 are constrained to vary between 1.0 and 1.7. Figure 4.6a shows the universal curves for this quadrupole pair, where the object and image distances have been normalised by dividing by L . The vertical curves are for θ_1 constant whilst the horizontal curves are for θ_2 constant. The graph can be used to predict the values of θ_1 and θ_2 which will produce a pseudo-stigmatic focus for a given object and image distance. The example shown is the

* Listing in Appendix 4

Figure 4.6a

Universal Curves For Quadrupole Pair

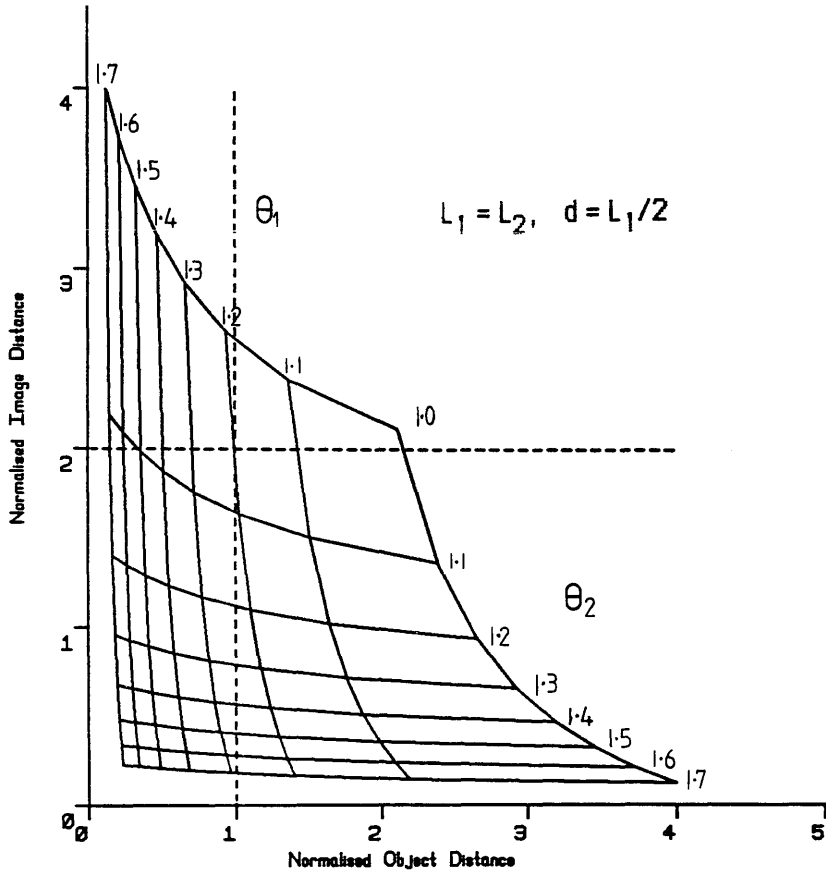


Figure 4.6b

Magnification Curves For The Convergent-Divergent Plane

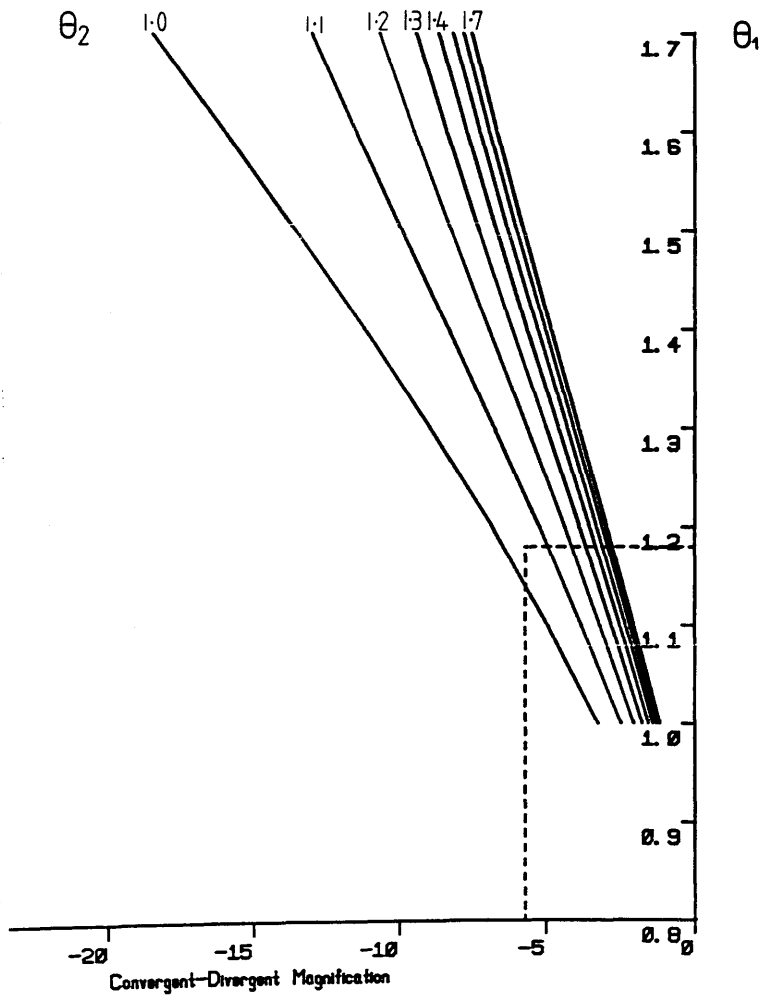
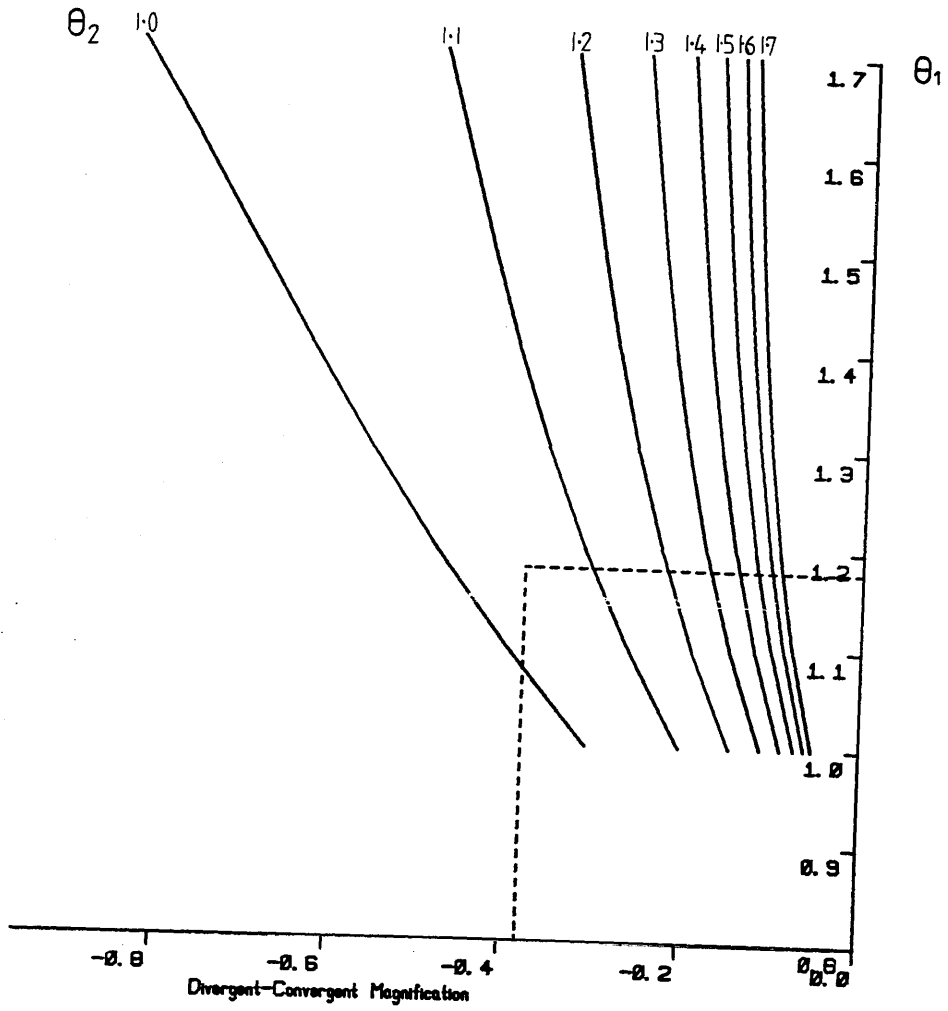


Figure 4.6c

Magnification Curves For The Divergent-Convergent Plane



case where $U/L=1$ and $V/L=2$. The intersection of the two lines $U/L=1$ and $V/L=2$ occurs at $\theta_1 \sim 1.18$, $\theta_2 \sim 1.05$. Figure 4.6b shows the corresponding magnification curves for the CD plane as a function of θ_1 , for θ_2 constant. The associated magnification in the DC plane is shown in figure 4.6c. As can be seen, the magnification curves in both planes are negative so that the doublet produces an inverted image. In figure 4.6c the DC magnification is always less than unity which means that the quadrupole pair is actually demagnifying in this plane, over the given range of θ_1 and θ_2 . From figures 4.6b and c the magnifications associated with the pseudostigmatic focus above are: $M_{CD}=-5.70$, $M_{DC}=-0.38$.

The choice of object and image planes completely determines the values of θ_1 and θ_2 and therefore the magnifications in each plane. It is however, possible to change the optical properties by varying the distance d between the lenses - the effect of increasing the distance d from zero is, for fixed values of θ_1 and θ_2 , to decrease the object and image distances and to decrease the magnifications in each plane. In practical terms d can never be made to be zero, as there must be a finite transition region where the field gradient is reversing. Also it is likely that the physical gap between the lenses is determined by the dimensions of the coil windings.

4.3.3 Towards a magnification system

It is clear that obtaining variable magnification with fixed object and image planes requires another degree of freedom i.e. another quadrupole lens. The properties of quadrupole triplets are well known from high energy physics where they are used extensively in beam transport systems. With a triplet it is possible to vary the magnification in both directions over a wide range while maintaining the same conjugate planes. It is even possible to arrange that the imaging is truly stigmatic (magnifications equal in both planes) as in a round lens. Unfortunately it is not possible to hold the magnification in one plane constant while varying the other as is required in EELS. In order to make the magnifications in each plane independent another lens is needed. The properties of quadrupole triplets and the design of a suitable quadruplet magnification system are discussed in the next chapter.

CHAPTER 5

A Post-Spectrometer Quadrupole Magnification System

Introduction

This chapter describes the design of a four lens quadrupole system suitable for use in post-spectrometer magnification in EELS. The configuration is basically an astigmatic quadrupole pair running at fixed excitation, with two external 'thin' quadrupole lenses - one to vary the magnification in the dispersion direction and the other to refocus the spectrum at the specified image plane. A real object configuration is used in preference to a virtual object, both for ease of alignment and elimination of stray electron scattering. A further advantage of this mode is that the spectrum can be recorded in a serial manner if required. The theoretical magnification range is from $\sim 5x$ to $\sim 97x$ at 100 keV, assuming a maximum lens excitation of 200 amp-turns per pole. Chromatic aberrations of second order in the quadrupoles are calculated (in a SCOFF approximation) within the given magnification range, and their effect on the energy resolution is discussed. Methods of reducing stray electron scattering within the flight tube are considered, and to this effect the optimum placement of slits and spray apertures in the optical system is investigated. The effects of external a.c. magnetic fields are an important consideration in any electron imaging system, especially as the flight path increases in length. Systems using a real object configuration are especially sensitive in this respect, as the flight path is extended beyond the spectrometer dispersion plane - in this case by 22.5 cm. Calculations of the reduction in resolution caused by the presence of an a.c. magnetic field of 1 milligauss were carried out for a range of magnifications (using a thin lens model), and the results are reported. The following sections and illustrations explain the various procedures involved in the design process and outline the operating modes of the system.

5.1 SYSTEM CONSIDERATIONS

The principal requirement of any post-spectrometer magnification system is to provide suitable magnification of the dispersion plane, in order to overcome the effects of electron scatter in the detection system, and thus produce the desired energy resolution. The geometry of the magnified spectrum should match, as closely as possible, that of the detector used, to avoid loss of signal and make for ease of alignment. From this it is obvious that the detector geometry and magnification system are closely linked, each influencing the other.

The proposed detection element for the parallel EELS system is a linear photodiode array described in chapter 6. The array consists of 512 individual elements 25 μ m wide and 2.5mm long, making the total active detector area 12.8mm by 2.5mm. These figures therefore mark the maximum useful dimensions of the image produced by the magnification system. It is assumed that the object for the magnification system is the spectrum produced by the Scheinfein and Isaacson spectrometer discussed previously, since this spectrometer is one of those which are commercially available and can be interfaced to the HB5.

5.1.1 Discussion of a suitable optical configuration

As mentioned in the previous chapter, maintaining fixed object and image planes with independent magnifications in the dispersive and non-dispersive directions requires the use of four quadrupole lenses. The requirement that the post spectrometer flight path be kept as short as possible suggests the use of a virtual object. This approach was followed by Krivanek et al [1987] who used one pre and three post-spectrometer quadrupoles in their system. The quadrupole before the magnet performs two functions; firstly it compensates for a varying object position and secondly it produces a pair of line foci one on either side of the midplane of the first post-spectrometer quadrupole. In addition to coupling the pre and post-spectrometer optics, this system must also affect the aberration correction of the spectrometer, since exciting the pre-spectrometer quadrupole causes the object point for the analyser to become astigmatic.

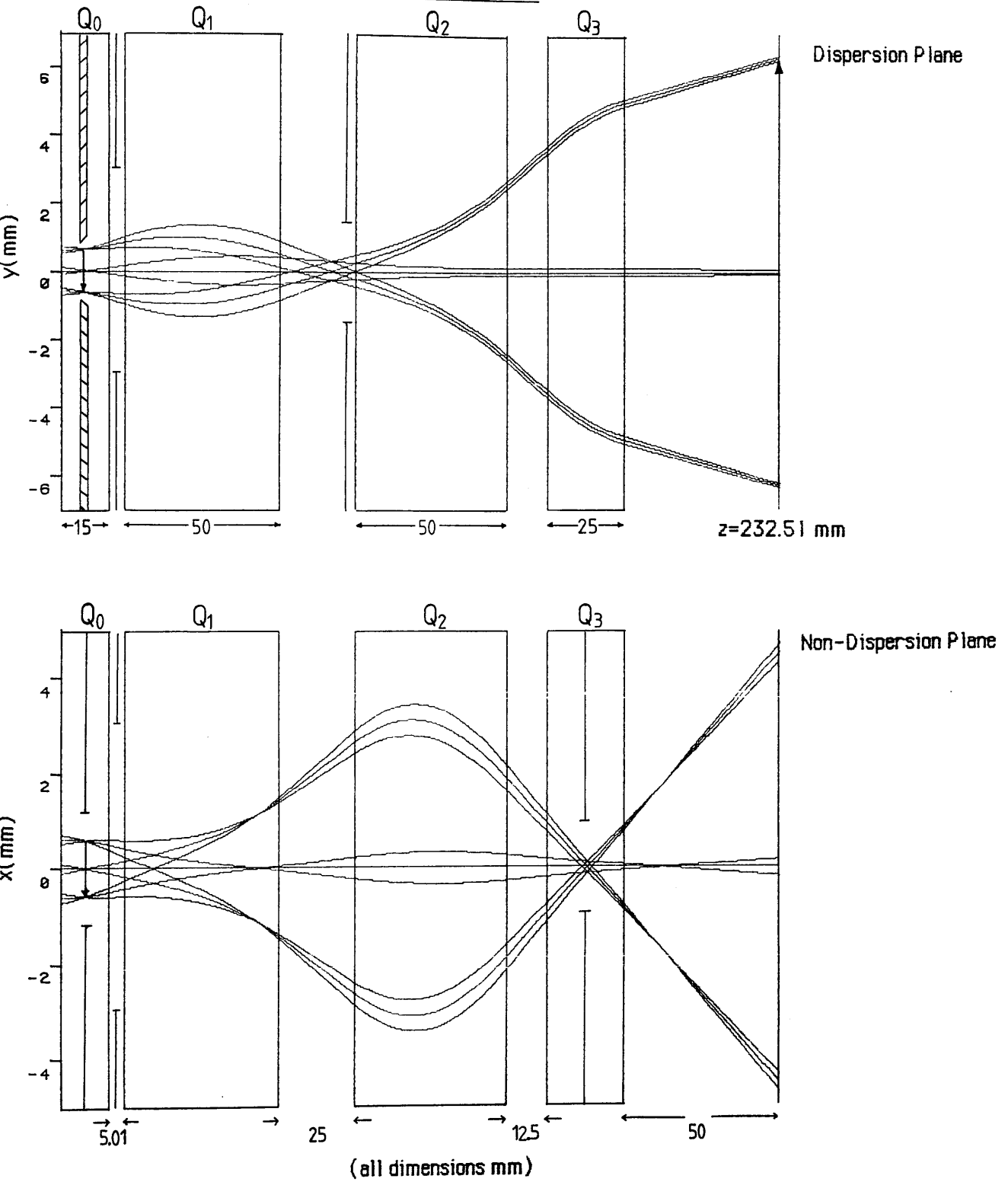
A simpler approach by Egerton and Crozier [1987] consisted of two post-spectrometer quadrupoles in a virtual object configuration. The magnification and focus of the spectrum are varied by altering the lens excitations and also by physically changing the relative positions of each lens. This system is not capable of independent control of the dispersive and non-dispersive magnifications, thus the width of the spectrum at the detector is a function of the magnification selected.

There are two disadvantages to working with a virtual object - the first is the alignment problem. In the case of the above designs no readily detectable real image from the spectrometer is available even when the magnification system is off, and so the sector alignment and aberration correction cannot be done independently of the alignment of the magnification system. The second difficulty is that of multiple backscattering of electrons which strike the walls of the flight tube. Some of these reach the detector, forming an instrumental background signal which can degrade the recorded spectra. Elimination of this stray scattering is usually accomplished with combinations of slits and spray apertures,

Figure 5.1

Quadrupole Post-Spectrometer Magnification System

Low Magnification = $-10\times$



however the virtual object mode means that, especially in the dispersion direction, there are no obvious positions to place the apertures without obstructing some signal electrons. For these reasons, the system described in the following sections uses a real object, and is correspondingly longer than an equivalent virtual object design. All the results presented refer to the focussing of 100keV electrons.

Figure 5.1 shows the entire four lens system operating in low magnification mode with a dispersion plane gain of $\sim 10x$. The position of the various spray apertures and slits discussed in section 5.2.2 is indicated. Some ray bunches have been traced through the system to illustrate the imaging operation in the dispersive and non-dispersive planes. (For the purpose of clarity, these rays are more divergent and further off axis than would normally be expected, and the lack of apparent focus is due to a plotting artefact). For simplicity the lens combination is designed to operate with the central quadrupoles, Q_1 and Q_2 , running at fixed excitation. Changing the excitation of Q_3 alters the magnification in the dispersion plane, whilst Q_0 is used to refocus the spectrum at the image plane - essentially a two control system. The optical properties in the non-dispersive plane are largely independent of Q_0 and Q_3 , because of the particular optical configuration chosen.

5.1.2 The quadrupole pair - Q_1 and Q_2

The operation of the central quadrupole pair in isolation is shown in figure 5.2. The lens orientation is convergent-divergent (CD) in the dispersion plane and divergent-convergent (DC) in the non-dispersive plane, and the bores of all the lenses to be described are 2cm, allowing for a flight tube to match the 2cm gap of the Scheinfein and Isaacson spectrometer. The gap between lenses Q_1 and Q_2 is 25mm, and the effective length L of each lens is 50mm, giving an L/a ratio of 5. Q_1 and Q_2 are operated in an astigmatic imaging condition at fixed excitation, where the ratio of the non-dispersive focal distance W to the dispersion direction focal distance V has been chosen to be 1:2 (fig.5.2). The Fortran programme QPAIR, described previously, was used to produce the universal curves of figure 5.3a. Choosing the object and image distances to be $U=0.25$ and $V=1$ ($W=0.5$) respectively, where U , V and W have been normalised to L , gives from figure 5.3a excitation values θ_1 and θ_2 of 1.651 and 1.486. Using equations (4.27) and (4.28) these values correspond to 44.5 and 36 amp-turns per pole respectively. The resultant magnifications are obtained from figures 5.3b and 5.3c as $-11.05x$ in the CD (dispersive) and $-0.18x$ in the DC (non-dispersive) planes.

Figure 5.2

The Quadrupole Pair

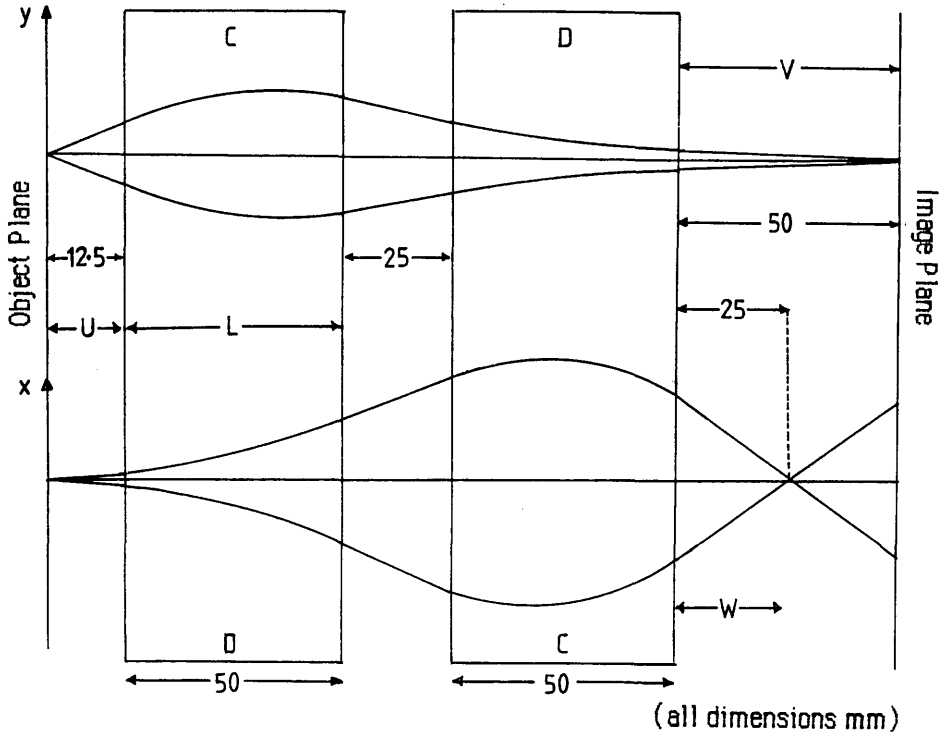


Figure 5.3a

Universal Curves For Figure 5.2

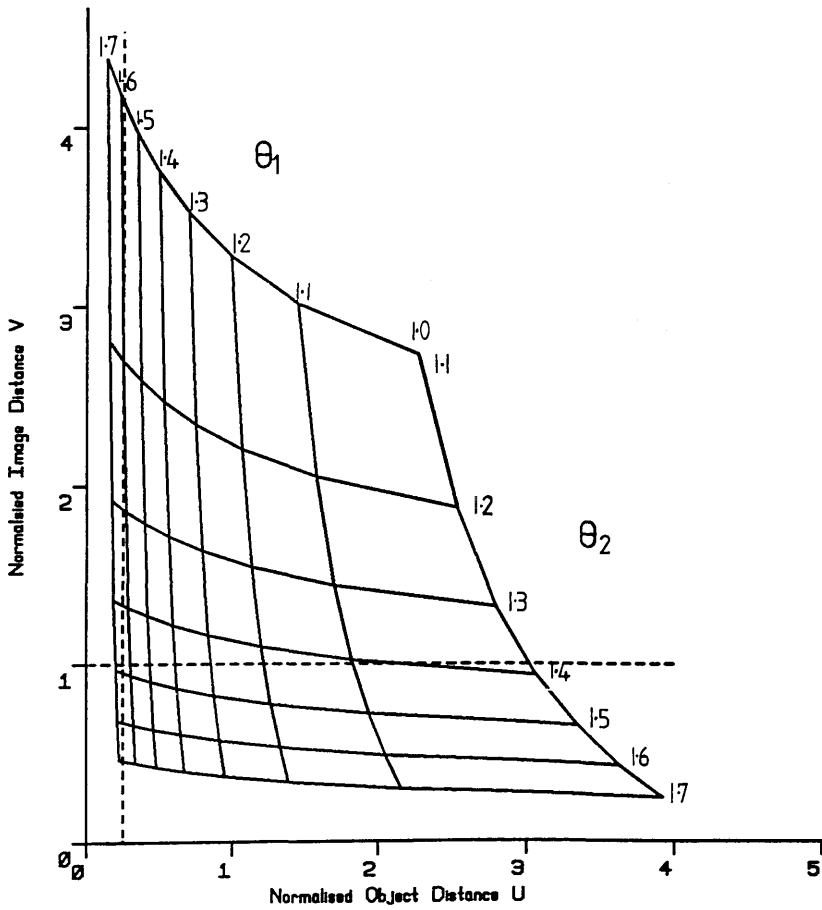


Figure 5.3b

Dispersion Plane (C-D) Magnification Curves

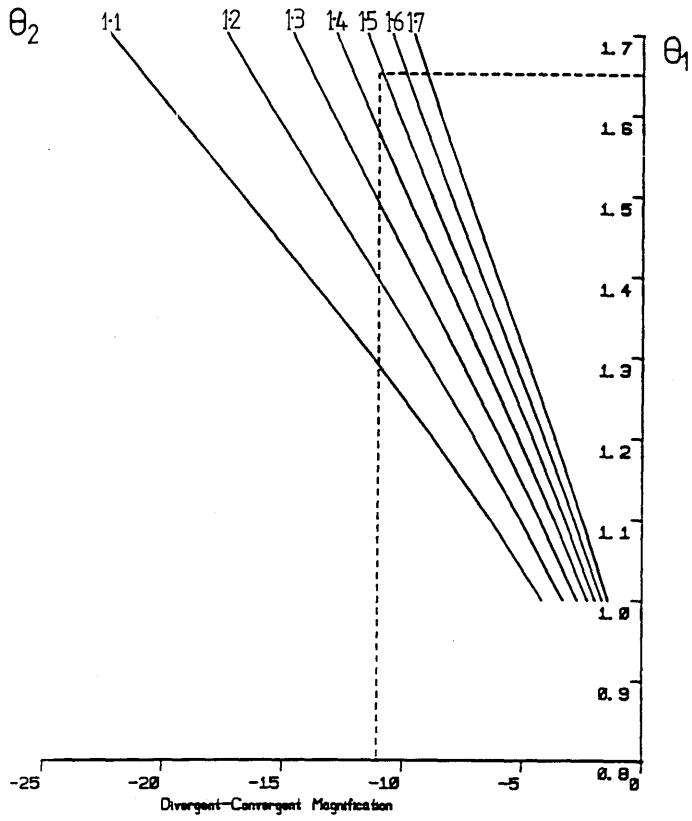
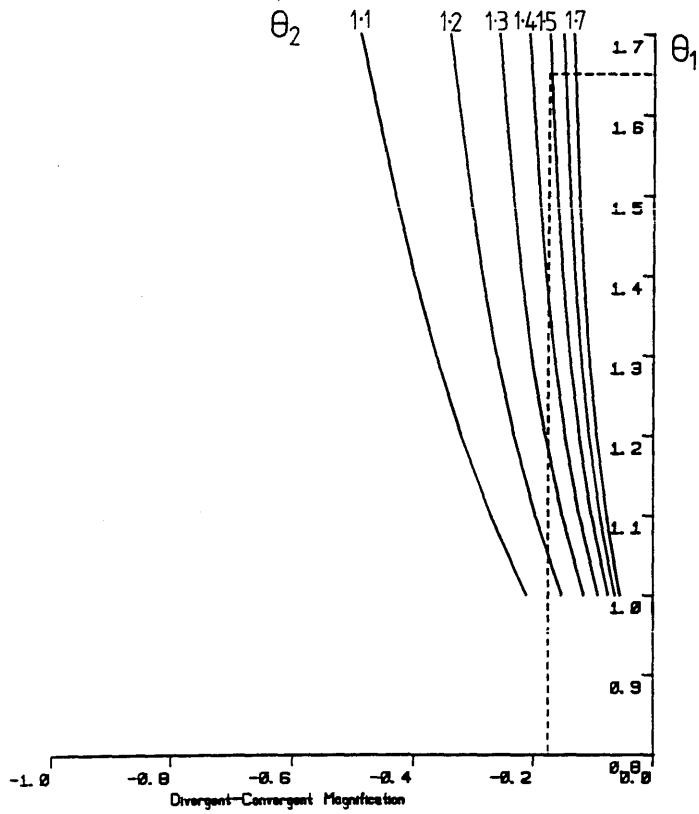


Figure 5.3c

Non-Dispersion Plane (D-C) Magnification Curves



5.1.3 Varying the magnification - Q₃

As mentioned in the previous chapter, the quadrupole pair excitations θ_1 and θ_2 are completely determined by the chosen object and image planes. In order to provide variable magnification a third quadrupole lens is necessary. This lens, Q₃ is positioned so that the non-dispersive focus occurs at its centre (fig 5.4). Thus, if Q₃ is considered a 'thin' lens, it will have no effect on the position and magnification of the non-dispersive focus.

The design of Q₃ requires some compromise, due to the different tasks required of it in each plane. In order to provide high magnification in the dispersion plane the lens excitation should be strong, however the length L₃ cannot be made large as the lens would behave as a thick lens, causing the non-dispersive focus position to vary. Simply using a large number of amp-turns per pole is not the ideal solution as the excitation $\theta \propto \sqrt{NI}$, and heating effects will limit the maximum value of NI. Accordingly, as the bore is 20mm the effective length L₃ was chosen to be 25mm, i.e. L/2.

A Fortran program QTRIP4, was written to calculate the optical properties of systems containing up to four quadrupoles. It is essentially an extended version of QPAIR and uses the same matrix calculations. Figures 5.5 a,b show the optical properties of the quadrupole triplet configuration described above, as a function of the third lens excitation θ_3 , for θ_1 and θ_2 constant. In this case the action of Q₃ is diverging in the dispersion (CDD) plane and converging in the non-dispersion (DCC) plane. The object position is referenced to the entrance face of Q₁ while the image positions are referenced to the exit face of Q₂. As expected, for $\theta_3=0$ the optical properties are identical to those of Q₁ and Q₂ alone. Increasing θ_3 causes the dispersive focus and magnification to increase, whilst the corresponding quantities in the non-dispersive plane remain relatively constant. This configuration is called the high magnification mode. Reversing the polarity of Q₃ causes the opposite effect, as shown in figures 5.6 a, b. Now an increase in θ_3 causes the dispersion plane focus position and magnification to decrease, so that this configuration is known as the low magnification mode. Again the non-dispersive properties remain largely constant.

5.1.4 Refocussing the spectrum - Q₀

In order to position the dispersion plane focus at the required image plane a fourth lens is necessary. If this lens, Q₀ is positioned so that the spectrometer dispersion plane is located at its centre, then relatively coarse changes in the lens excitation will effect only small changes in the effective object position as seen by the following lens Q₁, producing a fine focussing action. Again the construction of this lens requires a compromise between short length and

Figure 5.4 Quadrupole Triplet Showing Position Of Q_3 Relative To Q_1 And Q_2

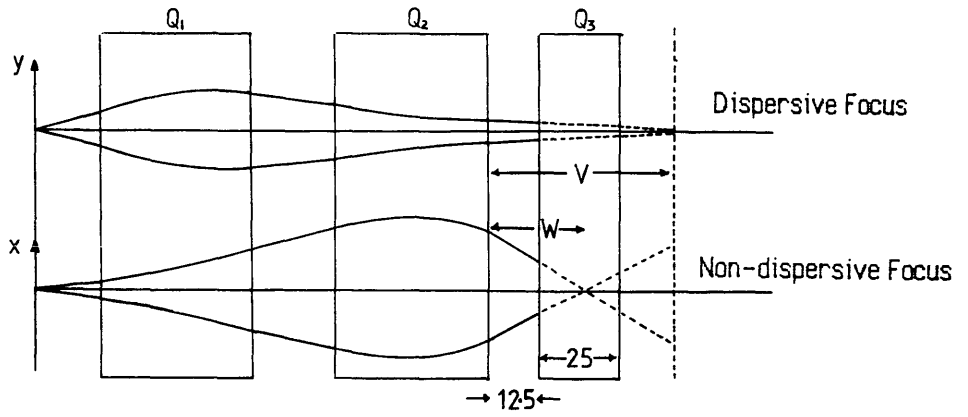


Figure 5.5a Imaging Properties Of Figure 5.4 (High Mag Mode)

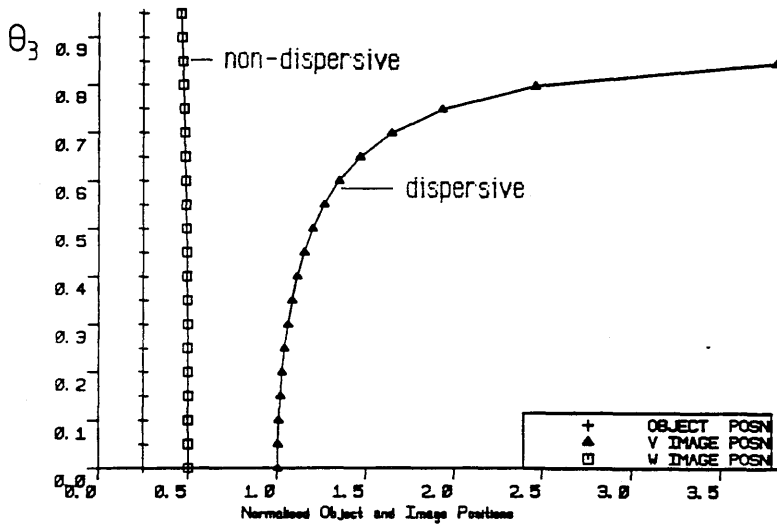


Figure 5.5b Magnification Properties Of Figure 5.4 (High Mag Mode)

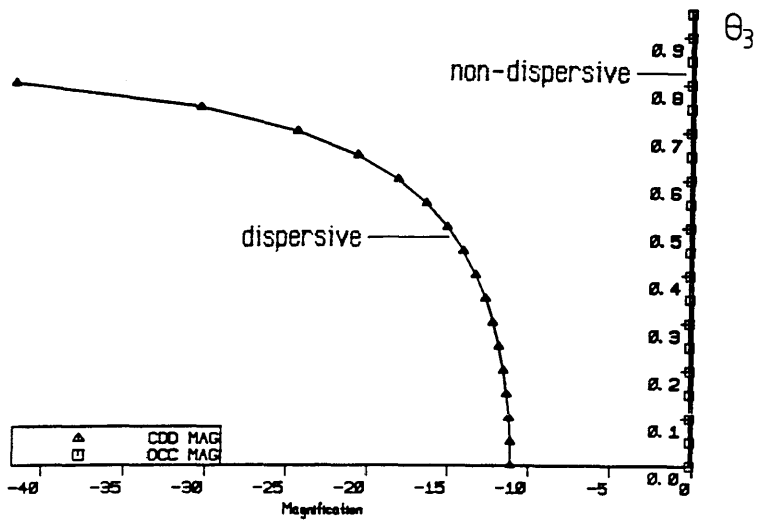


Figure 5.6a

Imaging Properties Of Figure 5.4 (Low Mag Mode)

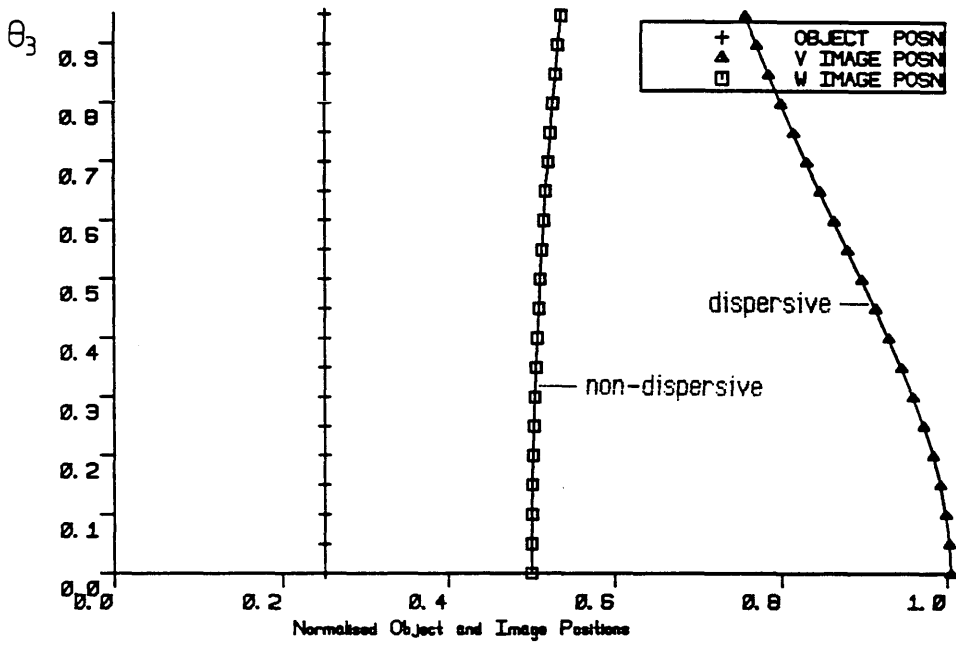
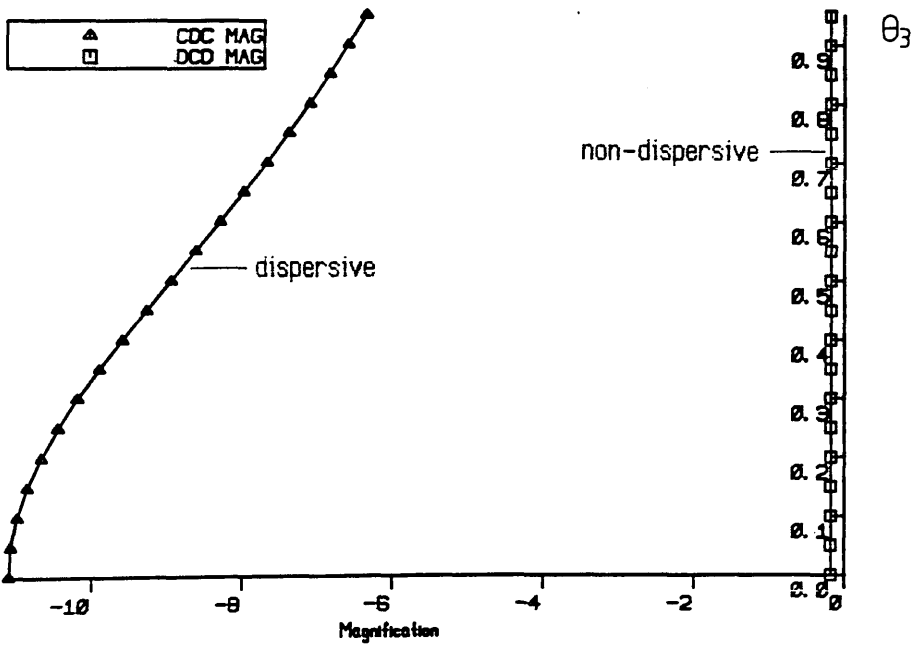


Figure 5.6b

Magnification Properties Of Figure 5.4 (Low Mag Mode)



maximum excitation. The effective length is chosen to be 15mm (i.e. 0.3L) and the lens is positioned as shown in figure 5.1.

Figures 5.7a,b are the optical properties as calculated by QTRIP4 for the high magnification mode, given the above configuration. Again θ_1 and θ_2 are held constant and the optical properties are plotted as a function of θ_3 , for constant values of θ_0 . In this case Q_0 is converging in the dispersion direction giving a CCDD arrangement, and diverging in the non-dispersion direction to give the complementary DDCC configuration in this plane. As can be seen, increasing θ_0 for constant θ_3 tends to reduce the dispersive focus and lowers the dispersive magnification. The corresponding effects on the non-dispersive plane focus and magnification are negligible, because of the demagnifying nature of this plane.

Figures 5.8 a,b show the associated results for the low magnification mode. In this configuration the polarities of Q_0 and Q_3 are reversed, so that the dispersion plane configuration is DCDC, and the non-dispersion plane configuration is therefore CDCD. Now increasing θ_0 for θ_3 constant results in an increase in the dispersion plane focal position. The effect on the magnification in this plane is more complex;- for $\theta_3 < 0.7$ the magnification increases, whereas for $\theta_3 > 0.7$ the magnification decreases with increasing θ_0 . At the crossover point it is interesting to see that the magnification is independent of θ_0 , however the image position is not. It is obvious from figures 5.7 and 5.8 that the excitations of Q_0 and Q_3 can be chosen so as to provide a variable magnification in the dispersion plane, at fixed object and image positions. This is discussed in the next section.

5.1.5 Final image plane and optical performance

The location of the final image plane is determined by the desire to keep the optical system as compact as possible, and yet provide large values of magnification in the dispersion plane, without recourse to unrealistically large excitations of Q_3 . The chosen image position is 87.5mm (1.75L) after the exit of Q_2 , which corresponds to a distance of 50mm (L) after the exit of Q_3 . This gives a complete optical system length of 232.5mm (not including the drift space between the spectrometer exit and the dispersion plane), however since the object is at the centre of Q_0 the optical flight path is actually 225mm. A further Fortran program, QQUAD was written to calculate the correct focussing excitation θ_0 , for each value of θ_3 , which focusses the magnified dispersion plane at this image position.

The solution for the high magnification (CCDD) configuration is shown in figure 5.9a, along with the associated magnifications in each plane (fig.5.9b). As can be seen from figure 5.7a,

Figure 5.7a IMAGING PROPERTIES OF QUADRUPLLET(HIGH MAG)

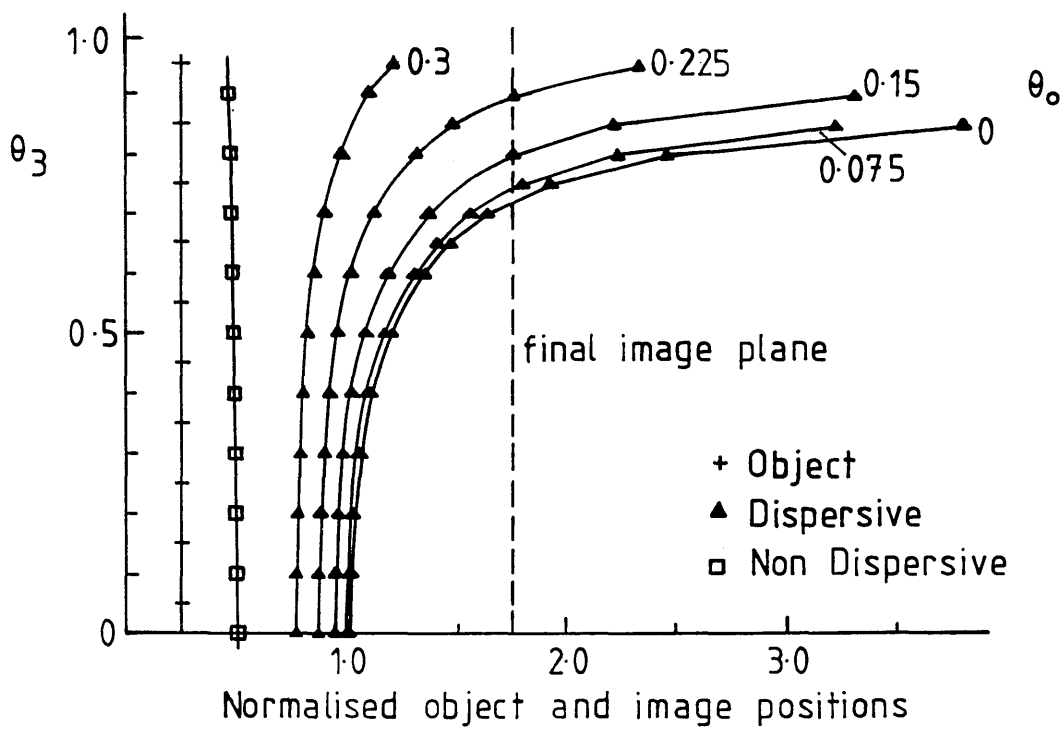


Figure 5.7b MAGNIFICATION OF QUADRUPLLET (HIGH MAG)

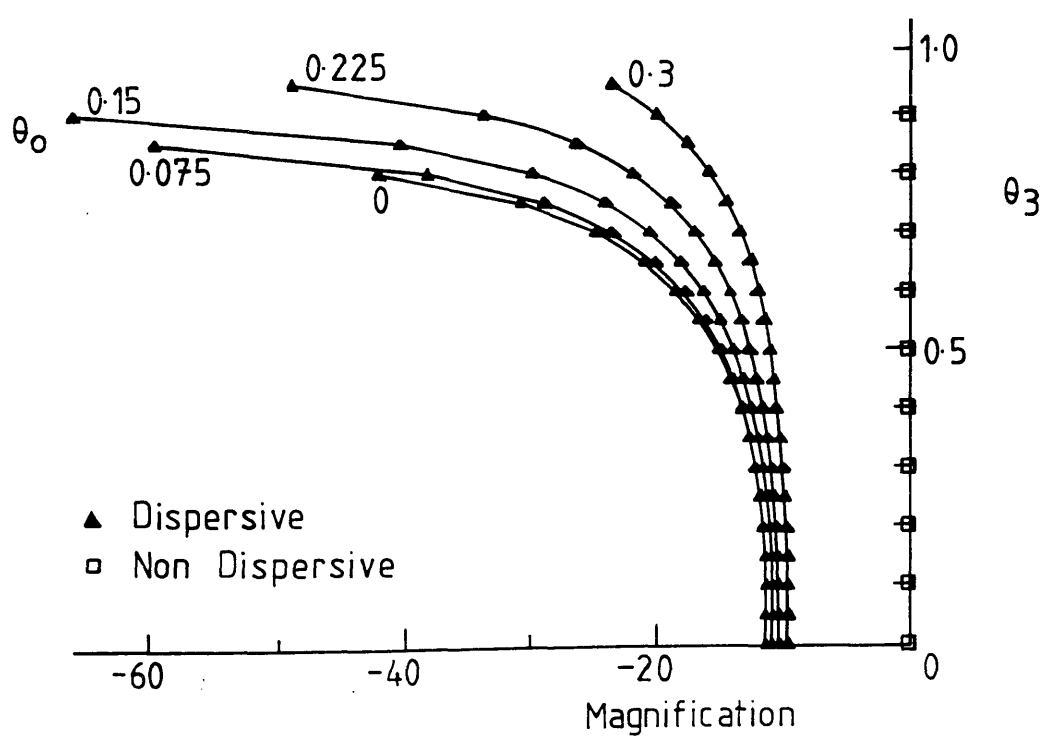


Figure 5.8a IMAGING PROPERTIES OF QUADRUPLLET (LOW MAG)

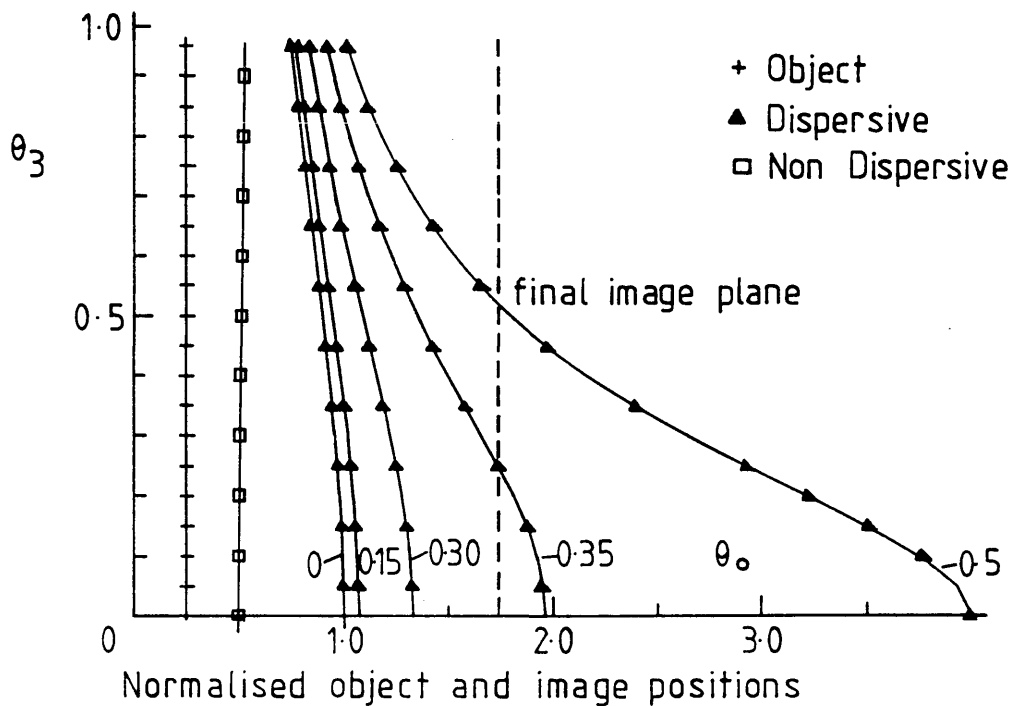


Figure 5.8b MAGNIFICATION PROPERTIES OF QUADRUPLLET (LOW MAG)

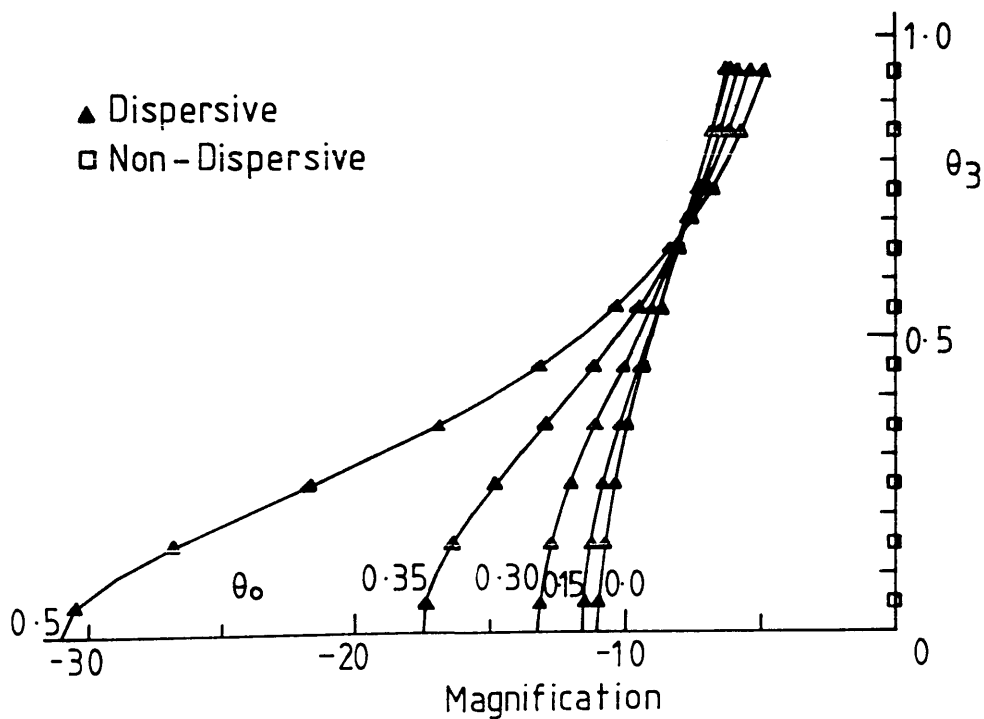


Figure 5.9a

Focussing Excitations Of Quadruplet (High Mag)

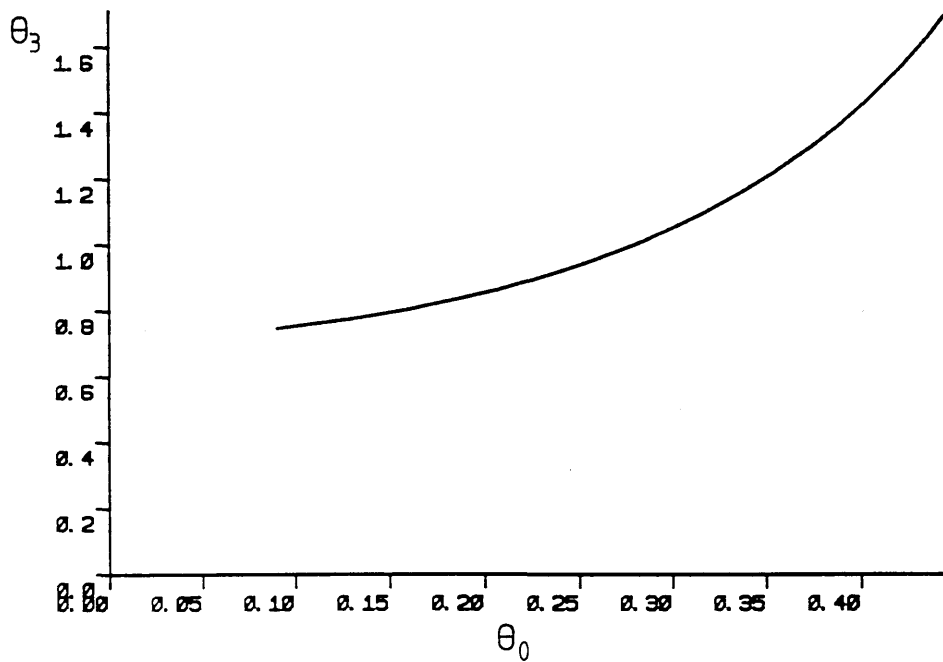


Figure 5.9b

Magnification Range Of Quadruplet (High Mag)

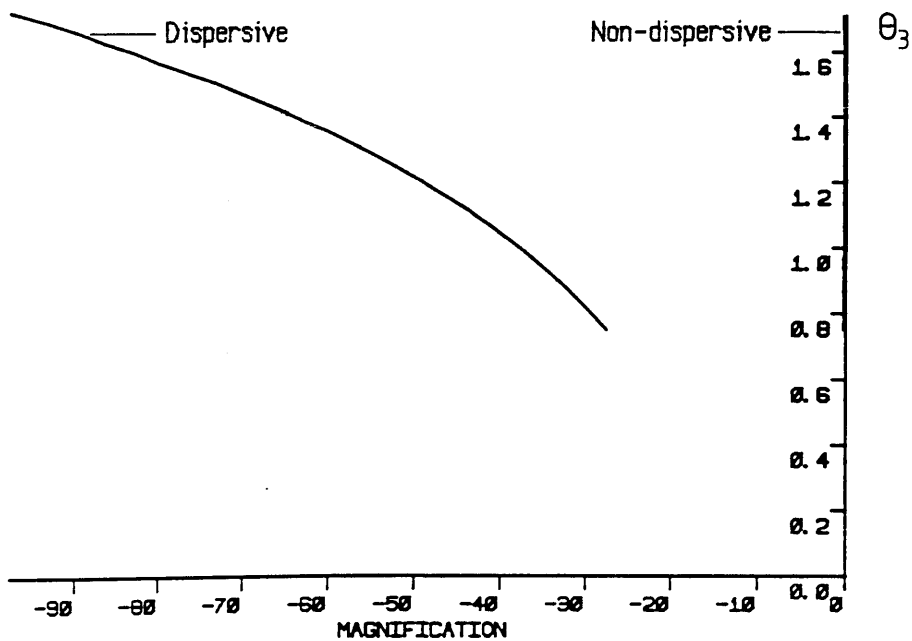


Figure 5.10a

Focussing Excitations Of Quadruplet (Low Mag)

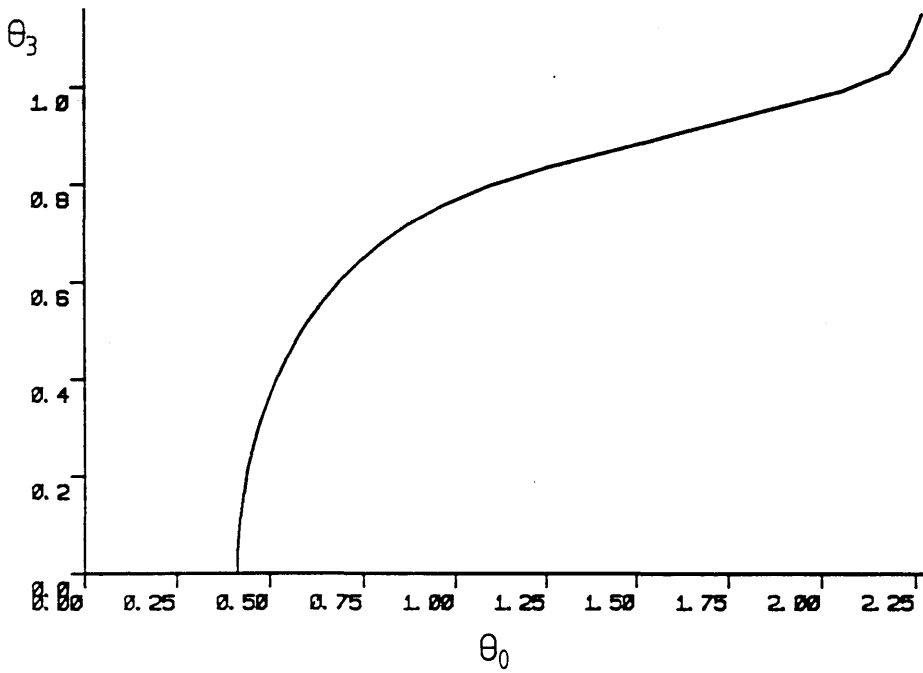
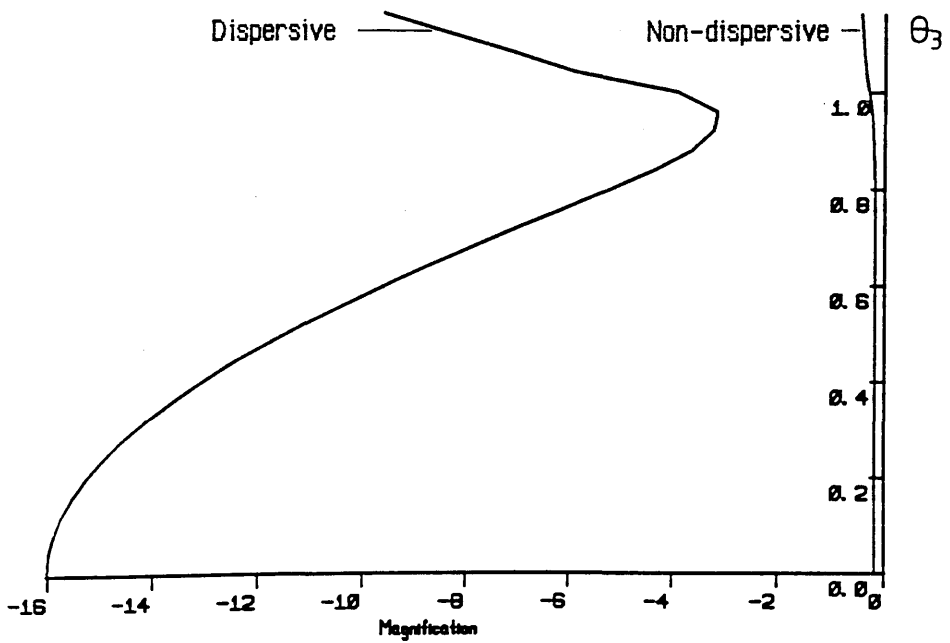


Figure 5.10b

Magnification Range Of Quadruplet (Low Mag)



the smallest value of θ_3 for which a solution exists is $\theta_3 \sim 0.75$, which corresponds to an excitation of ~ 37 amp-turns per pole and gives a dispersion plane magnification of $\sim 27x$. The highest attainable magnification is determined by the maximum excitation of Q_3 . Assuming that the maximum value of NI is of the order of 200 amp-turns per pole [Hawkes 1970] then $\theta_{3 \text{ max}} \sim 1.7$, giving a magnification of $\sim 97x$ at $\theta_0 = 0.44$. The magnification in the non-dispersive plane remains constant at around $-0.2x$.

The solution for the low magnification (CDCD) configuration is shown in figures 5.10 a,b. The behaviour of the system is now slightly more complex, and the maximum magnification in this mode is $-16x$, occurring at $\theta_3 = 0$, $\theta_0 = 0.41$. The minimum obtainable magnification is determined by the maximum excitation of Q_0 - if θ_0 were unlimited the minimum magnification would be $\sim -3x$. However, assuming $NI_{\text{max}} = 200$ amp-turns per pole, $\theta_0 \text{ max} = 1.05$ giving $\theta_3 = 0.8$ (42 amp-turns per pole) and a practical minimum magnification of $\sim -5.2x$. The magnification in the non-dispersive plane is invariant at $-0.17x$ up to this point, and then slowly increases.

Combining the two optical modes above gives a magnification range of $\sim 5x$ to $\sim 97x$. The dispersion of the Scheinfein and Isaacson spectrometer is $1.8\mu\text{m}/\text{eV}$, so that the range of the magnified dispersion is $\sim 9\mu\text{m}/\text{eV}$ up to $\sim 175\mu\text{m}/\text{eV}$, which is wide enough to cover most practical requirements.

5.2 RAY TRACING AND REDUCTION OF ELECTRON SCATTERING

It is most important, in any magnification system, to eliminate electrons which have been randomly scattered in the flight tube and which, if detected, would contribute to an instrumental background signal. The most efficient way to do this is by constructing a suitable series of spray apertures, fixed slits, and movable slits along the optical path. In order to optimise the position and apertures of these elements a Fortran program, QTRACE, was written to trace selected trajectories through the system. Trajectories of most interest are those of the extreme rays which can be imaged at each magnification by the 12.8 mm detector. The divergence of each ray bunch is calculated from the spectrum produced by the Scheinfein and Isaacson spectrometer, assuming an entrance angle β of 5mrad.

Output from QTRACE is displayed in graphical form in figures 5.11 to 5.16. The six figures cover the entire range of magnifications, and are useful in determining the most

efficient positions for the placement of slits and apertures. In all cases the maximum excursion of any trajectory from the optic axis does not exceed 9mm in the dispersion direction, and 5mm in the non-dispersive direction. It is also obvious from the figures that the width of the defocused image in the non-dispersive plane is virtually independent of the dispersion plane magnification, being determined solely by the angular divergence of the electrons at the object plane. This angular distribution in turn is directly proportional to the entrance angle β , so that the width of the magnified spectrum in the non-dispersive direction can be controlled by varying the spectrometer collection angle. At the very lowest magnification the source size does contribute a small amount to the broadening of the defocus.

The position of the non-dispersive focus remains relatively close to the centre of lens Q_3 , except at the higher magnifications when θ_3 becomes very strong. At this point the focus position is pulled towards the entrance face, however the defocus at the final image plane does not increase because the rest of the lens acts to compress the angular distribution of the electrons. For example, at a magnification of -51x the focus position is shifted ~4mm away from the centre of the lens. The entire shift over the whole magnification range is approximately 10mm.

5.2.1 Energy selecting slits.

Proper design of entrance slits is very important in order to reduce stray scattering effects. The purpose of these slits is to block out all the electrons with energy differences greater than the maximum range which can be detected at each magnification, and the optimum location is at the spectrometer dispersion plane, conjugate with the final image plane i.e. at the centre of Q_0 . At the lowest magnification of -5.19x, the maximum object size which can be imaged onto the detector is 2.46 mm, corresponding to an energy range of 1369eV (for the Scheinfein and Isaacson spectrometer). Thus, to prevent electrons outside this range entering the magnification system the slits should be closed down to a gap of 2.46mm. At the highest magnification of -97x the slits should be closed down to 0.13mm, corresponding to an energy range of 73eV. If it is desired that the system be also capable of serial detection, then the entrance slits should close down to $< 1\mu\text{m}$.

In the non-dispersive plane a pair of fixed slits can be located anywhere inside the bore of Q_0 , preferably after the energy selecting slits. The purpose of these fixed slits is to stop any electrons which have been scattered inside the spectrometer and managed to pass through the energy selecting slits. If the magnification system were perfectly aligned then these slits

could easily be made less than 1mm wide. However, this narrow gap could make initial setting up very difficult, so that a compromise gap of 2.5mm may be more convenient.

5.2.2 Spray apertures and fixed slits

After the energy selecting slits there is scope for the placement of a circular spray aperture of radius 3mm in the gap between Q_0 and Q_1 . This aperture would help to stop any high angle electrons scattered off the edges of the energy selecting slits from progressing any further, especially at lower magnifications. There is a beam crossover point in the dispersive plane which is located after the exit of Q_1 and before the exit of Q_2 , the exact position depending upon the magnification. A pair of fixed slits ~3mm wide placed at the entrance of Q_2 would pass all the signal trajectories and act as a further impediment to the progress of randomly scattered electrons. There are no further positions for the placement of slits or apertures in the dispersion plane.

The most obvious place for a pair of fixed slits in the non-dispersive plane is at the focus point at the centre of Q_3 , unfortunately the slits cannot be made too narrow because of the slight movement of this focal point with change in magnification. However, a gap of 2mm should be narrow enough to help to eliminate any spurious electron trajectories at this point, without obstructing the signal path at even the most extreme magnifications. Figures 5.1 and 5.11 include schematic representations of the above mentioned apertures and slits. In the latter case the figure refers to the lowest attainable magnification, where the electrons are most displaced from the optic axis, and it can be seen that there is no obstruction to even the most extreme trajectories.

5.3 CHROMATIC ABERRATIONS AND IMAGING PROPERTIES

As described in chapter 4 quadrupole field symmetry excludes all second order aberrations except second order chromatic aberrations. There are eight second order focussing coefficients to be considered, four in each plane (the convergent and divergent planes are still independent to second order). In order to obtain values for these coefficients a Fortran program, QMATRIX was written to carry out the required second order matrix calculations using the SCOFF approximation. The results are discussed in the following sections.

Figure 5.11

Magnification = $-5x$

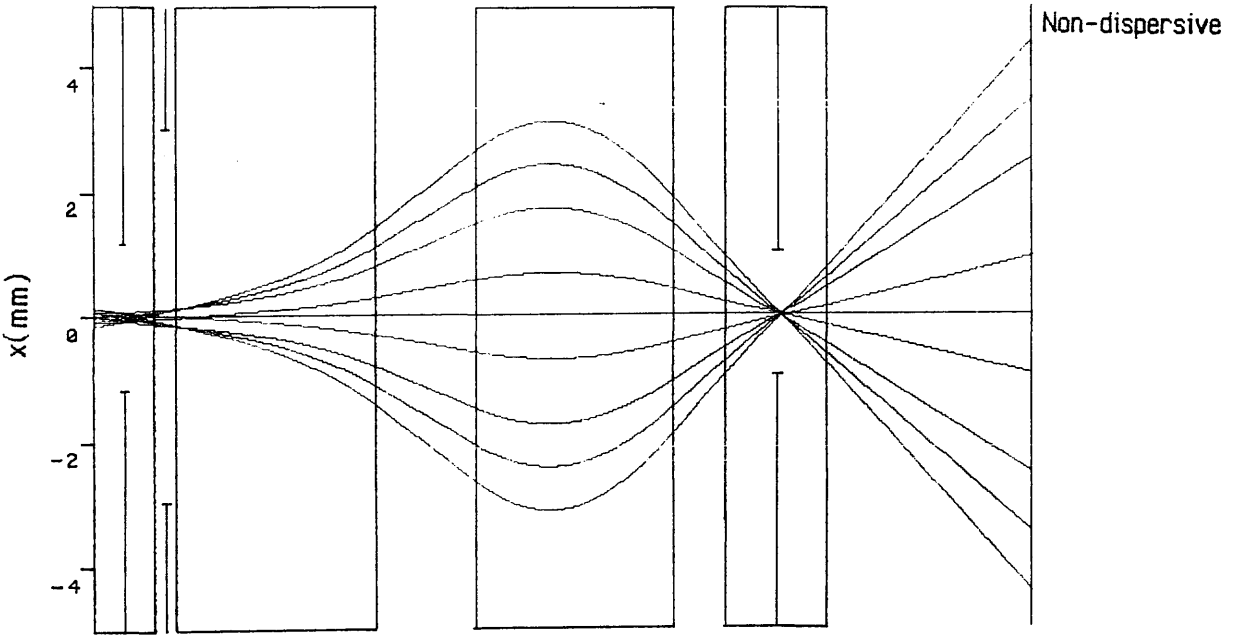
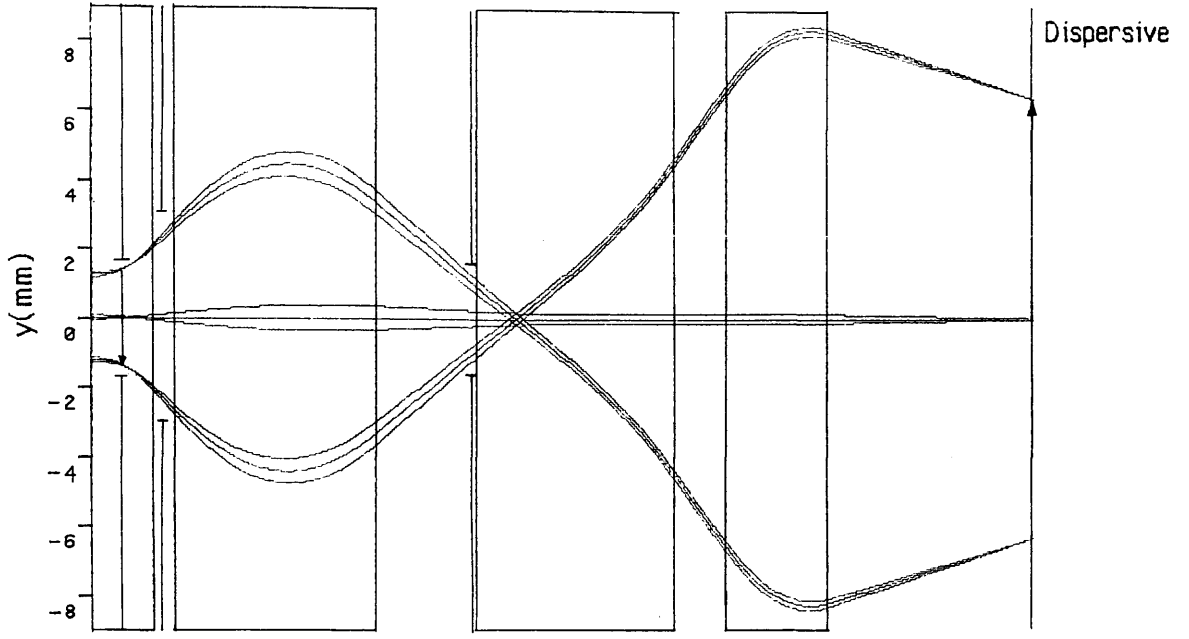


Figure 5.12

Magnification = $-10\times$

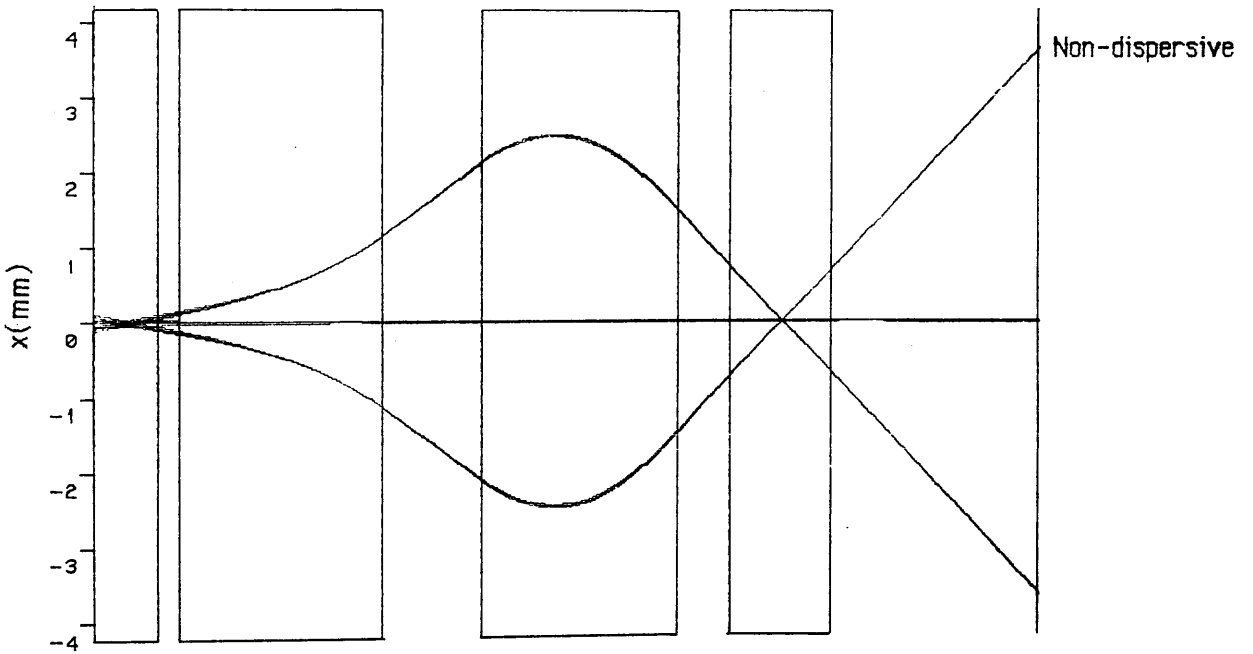
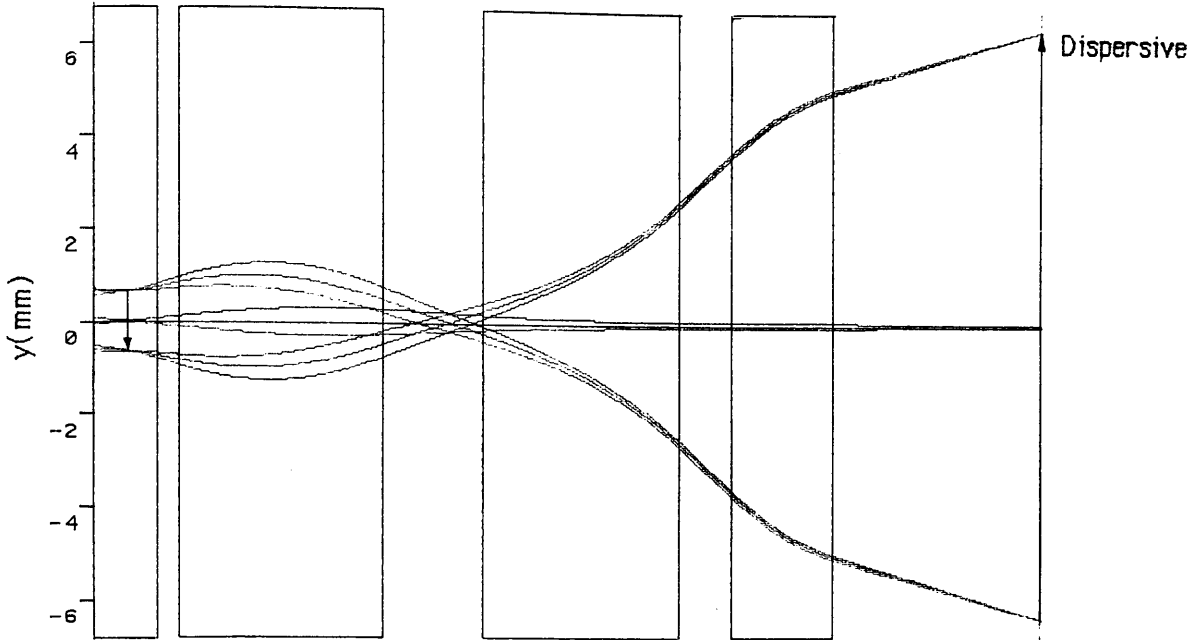


Figure 5.13

Magnification = $-16x$

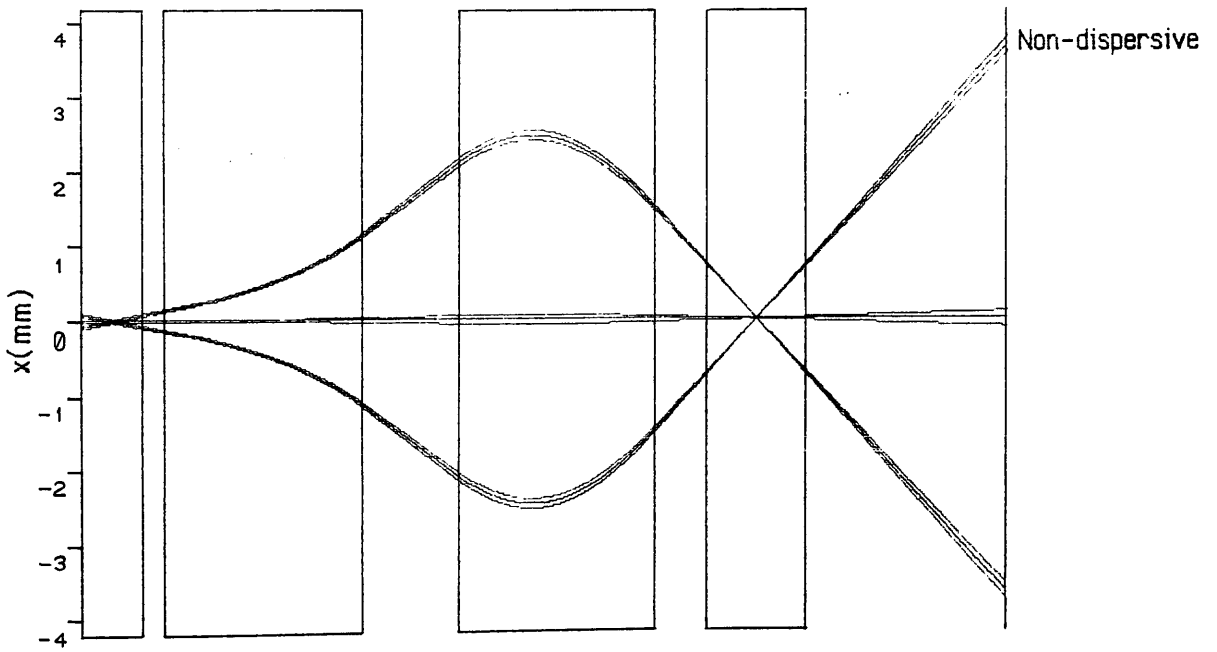
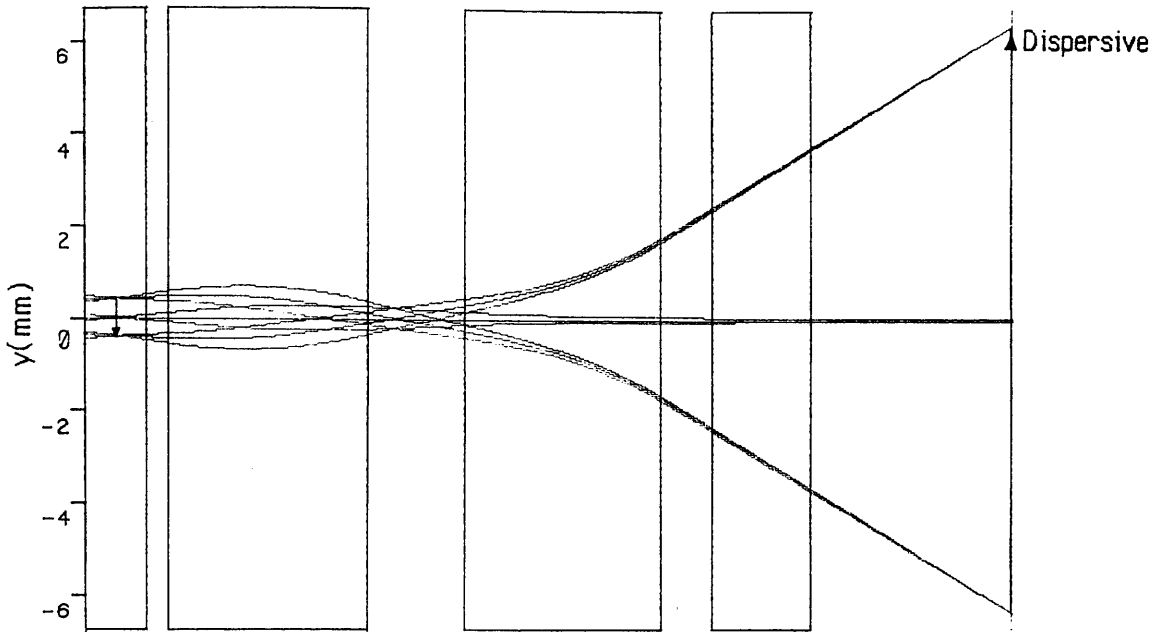


Figure 5.14

Magnification = $-28x$

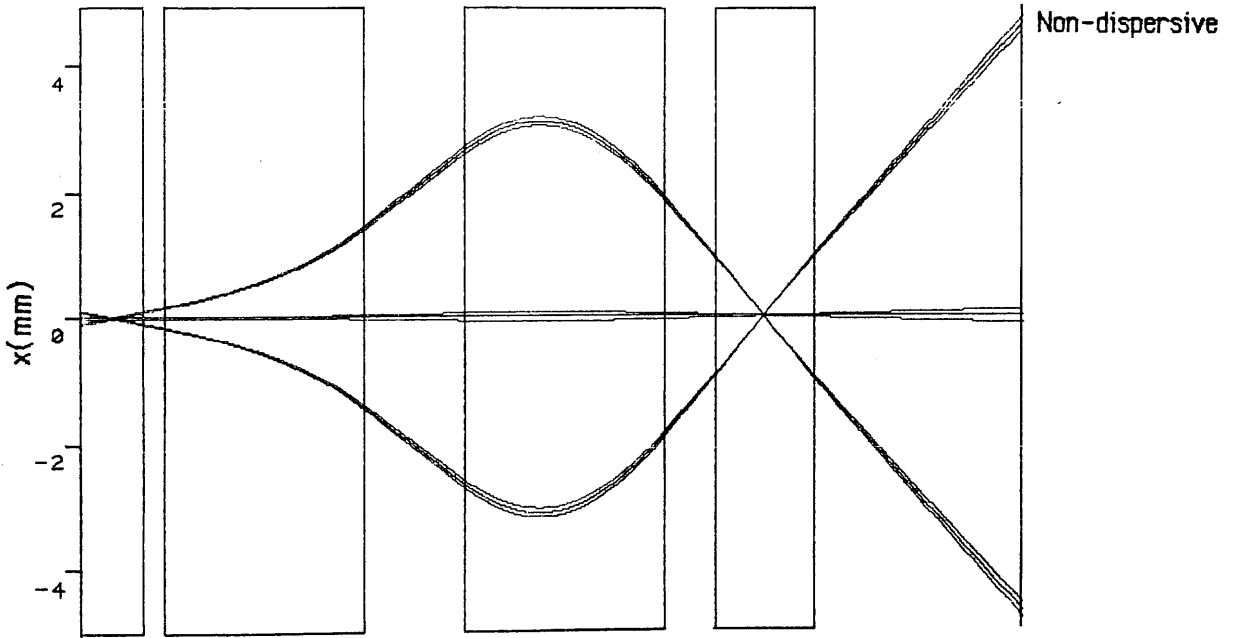
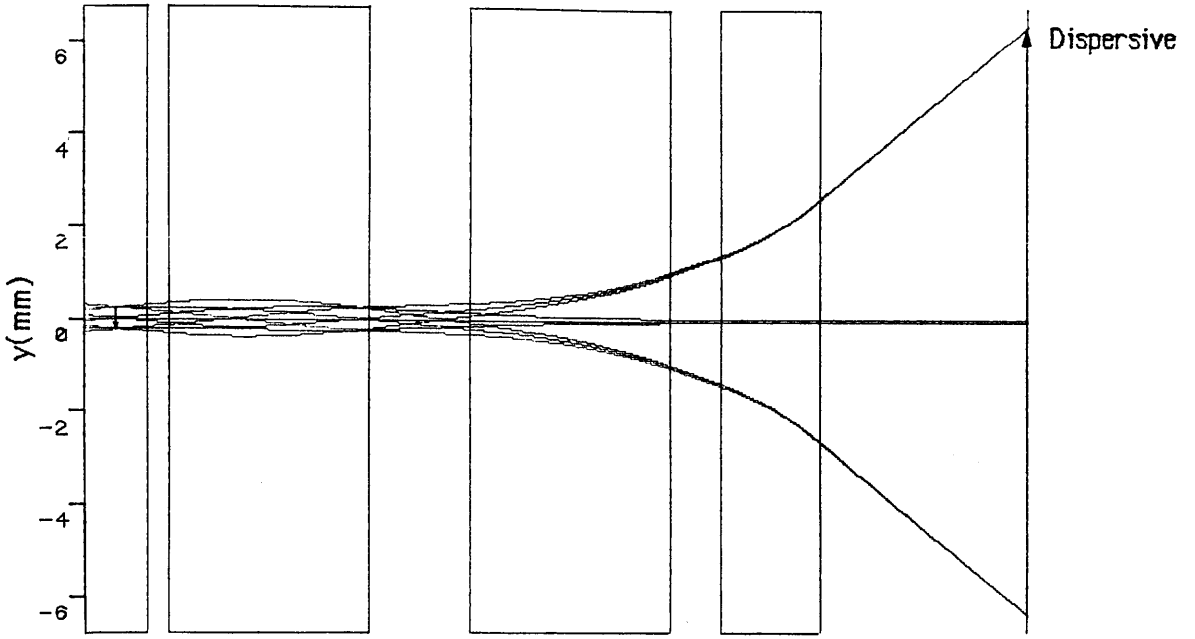


Figure 5.15

Magnification = $-51x$

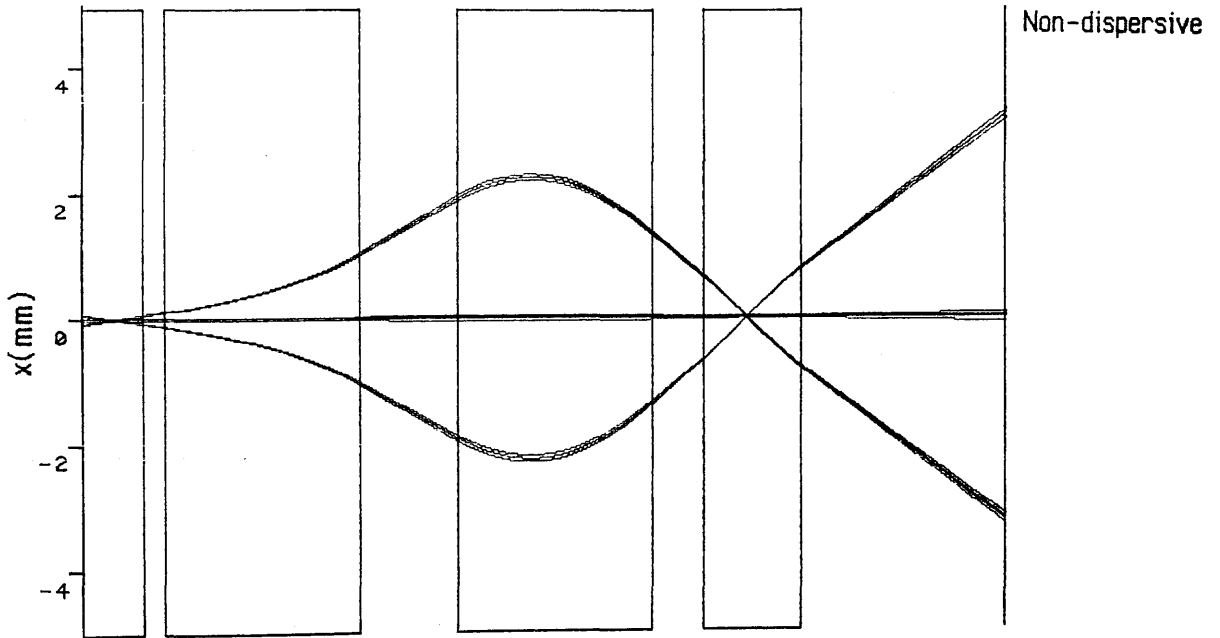
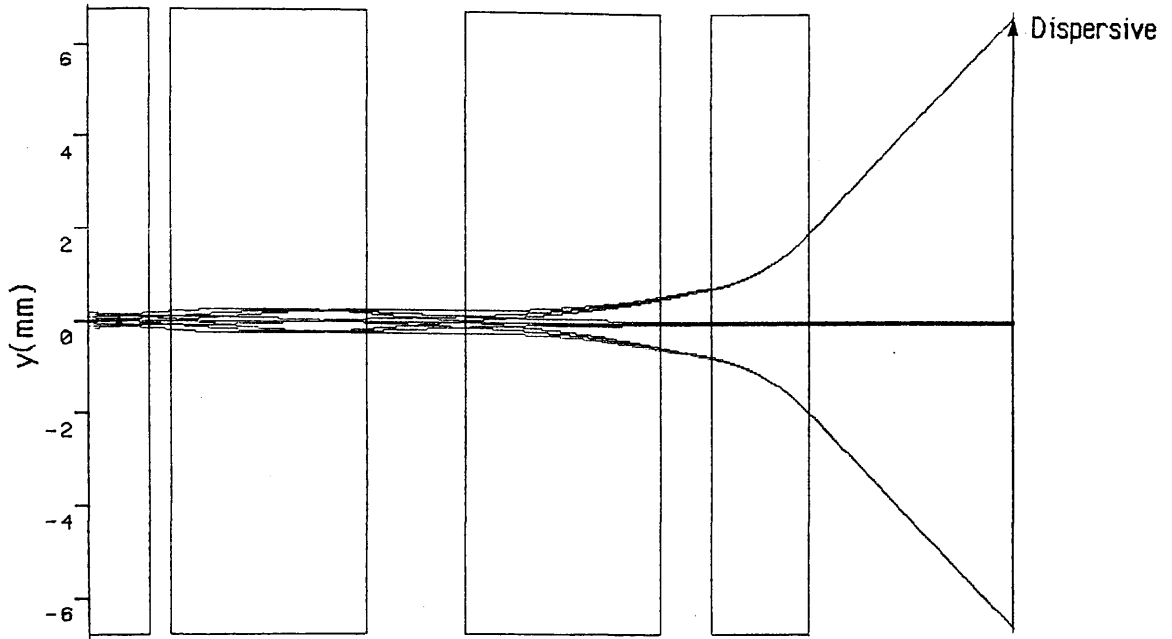
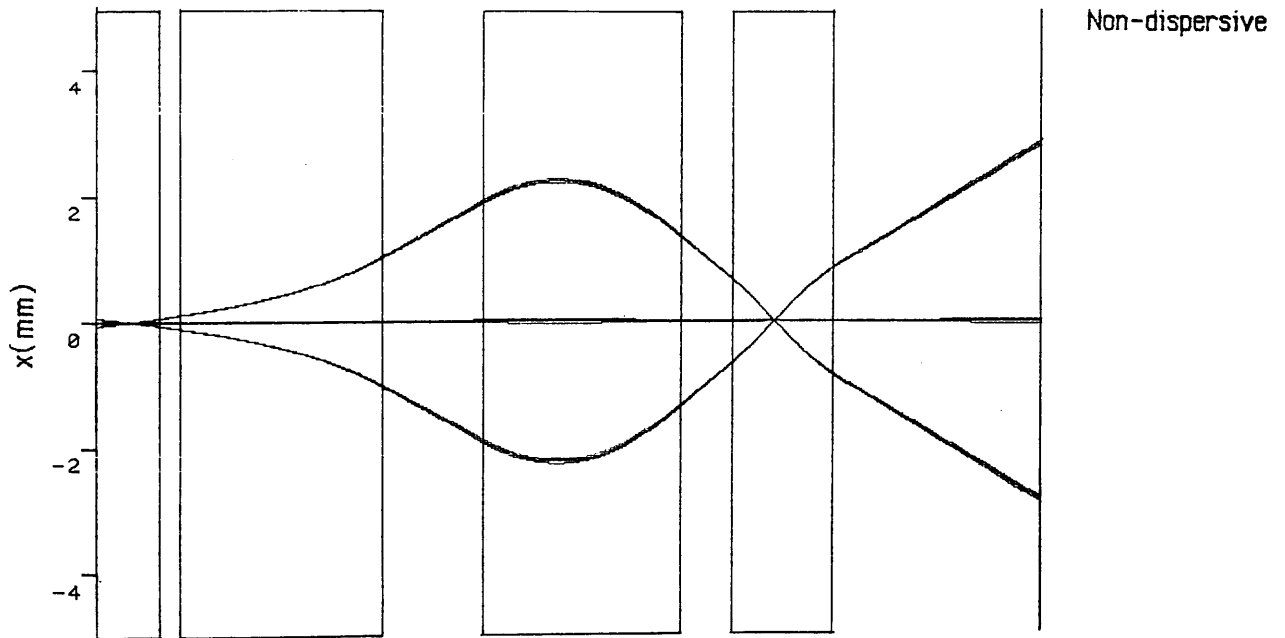
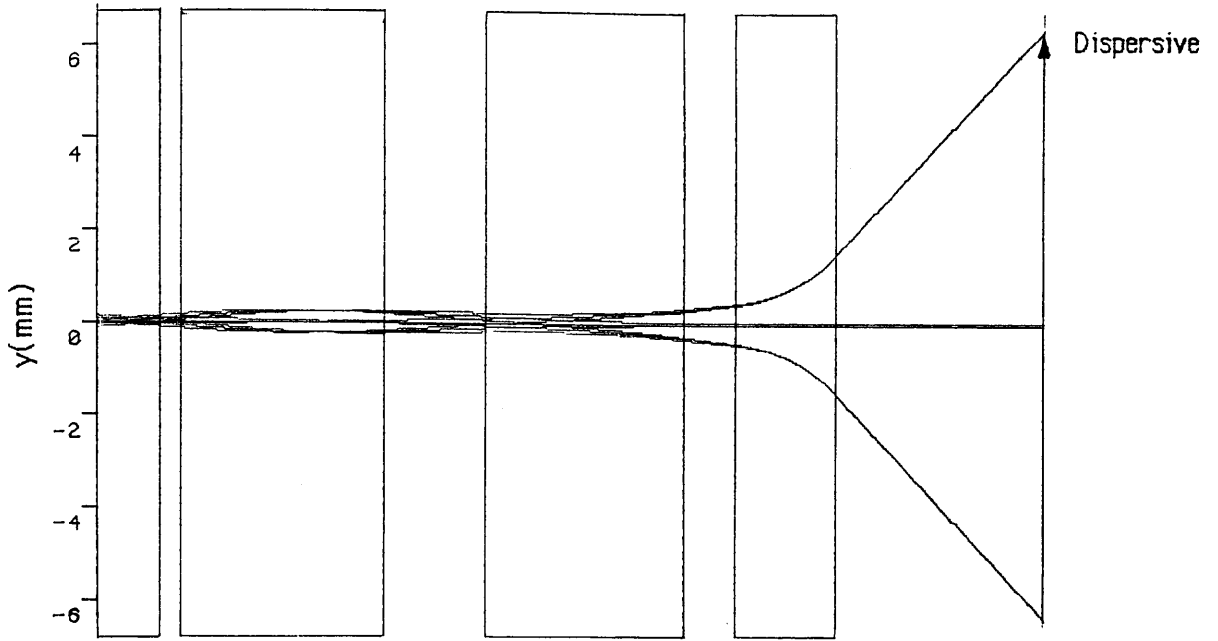


Figure 5.16

Magnification = $-90x$



5.3.1 Calculation of chromatic aberration coefficients

Figure 5.17 is an example of the output of program QMATRIX given lens excitations corresponding to a magnification of -27.7x. Table 5.1 contains the results for other magnifications covering the available range. The second row aberrations $y'/y \delta$, $y'/y'\delta$, $x'/x\delta$, $x'/x'\delta$ are not listed, as they do not affect the final image resolution. However, the corresponding focussing coefficients must, of course, be carried in the matrix calculation. The expressions for the transformation through the whole system from an object position (y_0, x_0) , to the associated image position (y_1, x_1) are:

$$y_1 = \frac{y}{y} (y_0) + \frac{y}{y'} (y_0') + \frac{y}{y\delta} (y_0\delta) + \frac{y}{y'\delta} (y_0'\delta) \quad (5.1)$$

$$x_1 = \frac{x}{x} (x_0) + \frac{x}{x'} (x_0') + \frac{x}{x\delta} (x_0\delta) + \frac{x}{x'\delta} (x_0'\delta) \quad (5.2)$$

where the coefficients are obtained from the total transfer matrices for each plane (see fig.5.17). The values of the chromatic aberration terms are complex functions of the magnification and it is interesting to note from table 5.1 that the terms in the dispersion (y) direction are always positive, while those in the non-dispersion (x) direction tend to vary in sign. In practice only the terms in the dispersion plane are of importance.

Figure 5.18a shows a schematic spectrum from the Scheinfein and Isaacson spectrometer covering an energy range of 700 eV, at an accelerating voltage of 100 keV. The spectrometer acceptance angle β is 5 mrad, and it is assumed that the magnet excitation has been adjusted so that the central ray corresponds to an electron energy of 99.65 keV. Figure 5.18b shows an image of the spectrum magnified by -10.36x, produced by a Fortran program QPLOT, which calculates the position of each electron entering the magnification system as it crosses the final image plane. As can be seen the final image is magnified, inverted, and defocused to a constant width in the non-dispersive direction.

The effect of the $y/y \delta$ term can be deduced using figure 5.18a and equation 5.1. For electrons with an energy greater than that of the central ray both y_0 and δ are positive, so that as $y/y \delta$ is always positive, the net effect of this aberration is to cause a positive y shift at the image plane. For electrons with less energy than the central ray δ and y_0 are both negative, so the aberration causes a y shift in the same sense at the image plane. The overall result is that a non-linearity in dispersion is introduced to the final image, as indicated in

figure 5.18b. Obviously this effect is greatest for large values of δ , and therefore most obvious at lower magnifications where the energy range accepted is at a maximum. For example, at the lowest magnification of $\sim 5.2x$ the energy range of interest is ~ 1369 eV, corresponding to a maximum axial displacement y_0 of 1.232mm. From table 5.1 the value of $y/y\delta$ at this magnification is 16.54, so that the image shift at the extremes of the spectrum is:

$$\Delta y_{\max}(\text{shift}) = \frac{y}{y\delta} (y_{0\max}) (\delta_{\max})$$

$$\Delta y_{\max}(\text{shift}) = 16.54 (1.232 \times 10^{-3} \text{ m}) (684.5 \text{ eV} / 200000 \text{ eV})$$

$$\Delta y_{\max}(\text{shift}) = 69.7 \mu\text{m}$$

Compared with a detector channel width of $25 \mu\text{m}$. The magnified dispersion is $9.3 \mu\text{m}/\text{eV}$, so that this shift corresponds to a displacement of ~ 7.5 eV, or equivalently a non-linearity in dispersion of $\sim 1\%$. This is, of course, an extreme case; at a magnification of $-50x$ the corresponding non-linearity is reduced to 0.001% which is negligible.

The effect of the aberration $y/y'\delta$ is to cause a blurring of the magnified spectrum with energy loss i.e. it is analogous to the dispersion plane tilt aberration Y_3 of a sector spectrometer. If the assumption is made that the angular distribution of electrons entering the magnification system is approximately independent of energy loss, then this aberration will have the greatest effect at low magnifications where δ is largest. Using the data in table 5.1 for a magnification of $-5.19x$ and assuming a spectrometer collection angle of 5 mrad, the magnitude of the defocus is:

$$\Delta y_{\max}(\text{blur}) = \frac{y}{y'\delta} (y'_{0\max}) (\delta_{\max})$$

$$\Delta y_{\max}(\text{blur}) = 0.1633 \text{ m} (0.012) (684.5 \text{ eV} / 200000 \text{ eV})$$

$$\Delta y_{\max}(\text{blur}) = 6.7 \mu\text{m}$$

[The maximum angular divergence for the extreme electrons is ~ 12 mrad calculated using equation 3.7b]. As before the magnified dispersion is $9.3 \mu\text{m}/\text{eV}$, so that this corresponds to a maximum defocus of ~ 0.72 eV. The magnitude of the maximum defocus is relatively independent of the magnification, remaining around $6 \mu\text{m}$, so that the effect is negligible at higher magnifications.

Figure 5.17

QUADRUPOLE QUADRUPLER HIGH MAG MODE MAGNIFICATION = -27.67x

LENGTH OF FIRST LENS = 15.00 mm.

First quadrupole strength = 0.09001

LENGTH OF SECOND LENS = 50.00 mm.

Second quadrupole strength = 1.65100

LENGTH OF THIRD LENS = 50.00 mm.

Third quadrupole strength = 1.48600

LENGTH OF FOURTH LENS = 25.00 mm.

Fourth quadrupole strength = 0.75000

OBJECT POSITION = -7.50 mm.

NORMALISED IMAGE POSITION = 1.00

LENS 1-2 SEPARATION = 5.01 mm.

LENS 2-3 SEPARATION = 25.00 mm.

LENS 3-4 SEPARATION = 12.50 mm.

QUADRUPOLE 0 CONVERGENT TRANSFER MATRIX

y/y	y/y'	y/yd	y/y'd
0.9960	0.0150	0.0040	0.0000
-0.5394	0.9960	0.5387	0.0040
0.0000	0.0000	0.9960	0.0150
0.0000	0.0000	-0.5394	0.9960

QUADRUPOLE 0 DIVERGENT TRANSFER MATRIX

x/x	x/x'	x/xd	x/x'd
1.0041	0.0150	-0.0041	0.0000
0.5408	1.0041	-0.5416	-0.0041
0.0000	0.0000	1.0041	0.0150
0.0000	0.0000	0.5408	1.0041

QUADRUPOLE 1 CONVERGENT TRANSFER MATRIX

y/y	y/y'	y/yd	y/y'd
-0.0801	0.0302	0.8228	0.0171
-32.9139	-0.0801	14.2731	0.8228
0.0000	0.0000	-0.0801	0.0302
0.0000	0.0000	-32.9139	-0.0801

QUADRUPOLE 1 DIVERGENT TRANSFER MATRIX

x/x	x/x'	x/xd	x/x'd
2.7020	0.0760	-2.0721	-0.0295
82.8857	2.7020	-115.0946	-2.0721
0.0000	0.0000	2.7020	0.0760
0.0000	0.0000	82.8857	2.7020

QUADRUPOLE 2 CONVERGENT TRANSFER MATRIX

y/y	y/y'	y/yd	y/y'd
0.0847	0.0335	0.7403	0.0146
-29.6132	0.0847	16.6768	0.7403
0.0000	0.0000	0.0847	0.0335
0.0000	0.0000	-29.6132	0.0847

Figure 5.17

QUADRUPOLE 2 DIVERGENT TRANSFER MATRIX

x/x	x/x'	x/xd	x/x'd
2.3228	0.0705	-1.5577	-0.0228
62.3096	2.3228	-82.4474	-1.5577
0.0000	0.0000	2.3228	0.0705
0.0000	0.0000	62.3096	2.3228

QUADRUPOLE 3 CONVERGENT TRANSFER MATRIX

y/y	y/y'	y/yd	y/y'd
0.7317	0.0227	0.2556	0.0022
-20.4492	0.7317	18.4561	0.2556
0.0000	0.0000	0.7317	0.0227
0.0000	0.0000	-20.4492	0.7317

QUADRUPOLE 3 DIVERGENT TRANSFER MATRIX

x/x	x/x'	x/xd	x/x'd
1.2947	0.0274	-0.3084	-0.0025
24.6695	1.2947	-26.8999	-0.3084
0.0000	0.0000	1.2947	0.0274
0.0000	0.0000	24.6695	1.2947

ELEMENTS OF THE TOTAL C-C-D-D TRANSFER MATRIX

y/y	y/y'	y/yd	y/y'd
-27.6717	0.0000	55.7042	1.0626
-321.7547	-0.0361	715.9514	12.2829
0.0000	0.0000	-27.6717	0.0000
0.0000	0.0000	-321.7547	-0.0361

ELEMENTS OF THE TOTAL D-D-C-C TRANSFER MATRIX

x/x	x/x'	x/xd	x/x'd
-8.6307	-0.3602	15.6004	0.5395
-132.1037	-5.6294	120.7825	3.1234
0.0000	0.0000	-8.6307	-0.3602
0.0000	0.0000	-132.1037	-5.6294

OBJECT POSITION = -7.50000 mm.

CONV-CONV-DIV-DIV MAG = -27.67170 AT IMAGE POSITION = 50.23531 mm.

DIV-CONV-DIV-CONV MAG = -0.17764 AT IMAGE POSITION = -13.75264 mm.

Figure 5.18a

700eV Spectrum From Scheinfein + Isaacson Spectrometer

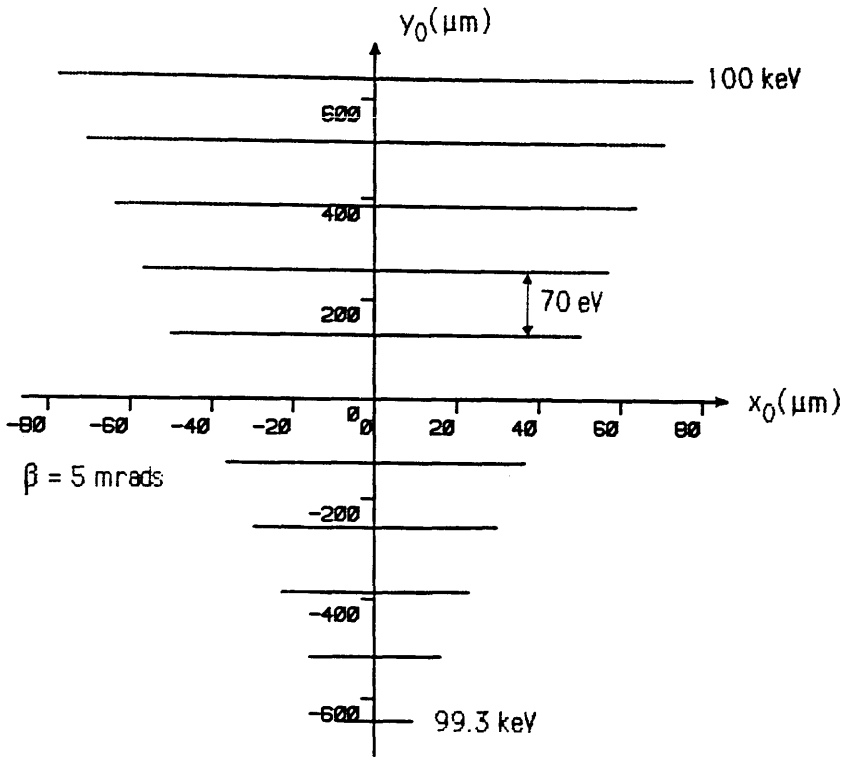
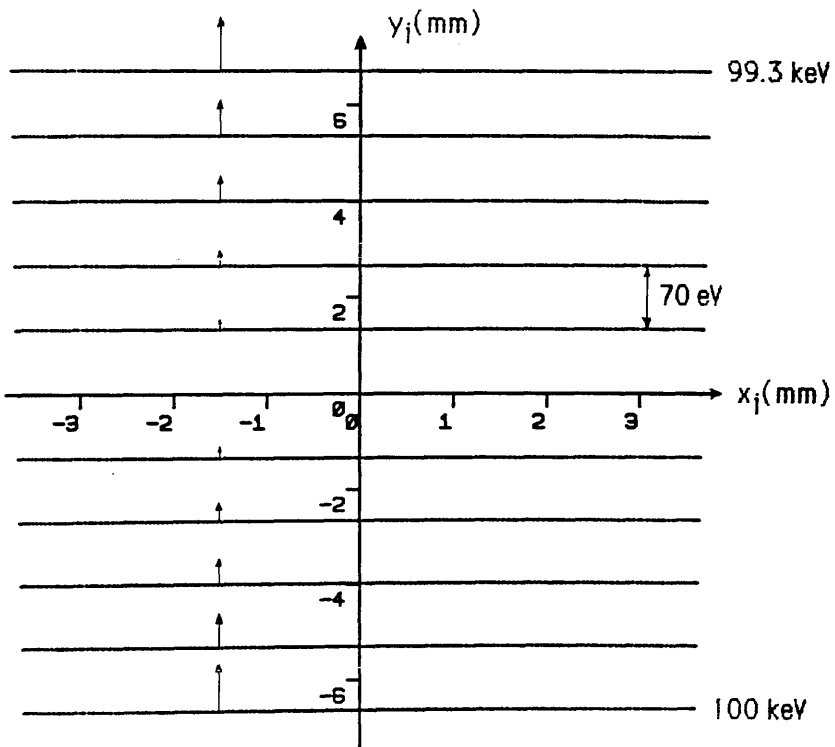


Figure 5.18b

Magnified Spectrum



It should be pointed out that the values for the above aberration coefficients were calculated using the SCOFF approximation described in chapter 4. In practice real lenses have extended fringe fields, which tend to increase the magnitude of the aberrations. However, the previous calculations should be reliable enough to give a reasonable estimate of the chromatic aberrations in a real system.

5.4 EFFECTS OF A.C MAGNETIC FIELDS

Time varying magnetic fields are present in every experimental environment to a greater or lesser degree. It is possible to partially shield sensitive apparatus from these fields by enclosing the equipment in a material with a high magnetic permeability, for example 'mu-metal'. However, it is virtually impossible to suppress all the field, and very likely a small a.c. component ≤ 1 milligauss will remain in the system. These fields vary at mains and mains transformer frequencies i.e. 50-150 Hz, so that each electron traversing the optical system experiences essentially a static field. The effects of these stray fields are discussed in the following sections.

5.4.1 A.C. Field superimposed on a thin electron lens.

Figure 5.19 shows a schematic electron lens with an a.c. magnetic field \underline{B} perpendicular to the plane of the paper. Consider an electron leaving the object point O and initially traveling along the optic axis. The effect of the stray field is to bend the trajectory away from the axis in the arc of a circle, in a positive or negative direction depending upon the direction of \underline{B} . The radius R_s of this circle is just the cyclotron radius:

$$R_s = \frac{m v_z}{e B} \quad (5.3)$$

where the approximation that $v \sim v_z$ has been made. For a stray field of 1 milligauss $R_s \sim 10^4$ m. The electron cuts the plane $z = 0$ at point $y = \Delta y$ at an angle ψ_s . The equation of the circular arc OP is:

$$(y - R_s)^2 + (z + U)^2 = R_s^2$$

Setting $z=0$ gives the intersection point P:

$$(\Delta y - R_s)^2 + U^2 = R_s^2$$

$$\Delta y^2 - 2R_s \Delta y + U^2 = 0$$

Figure 5.19

Thin Electron Lens With Stray Field

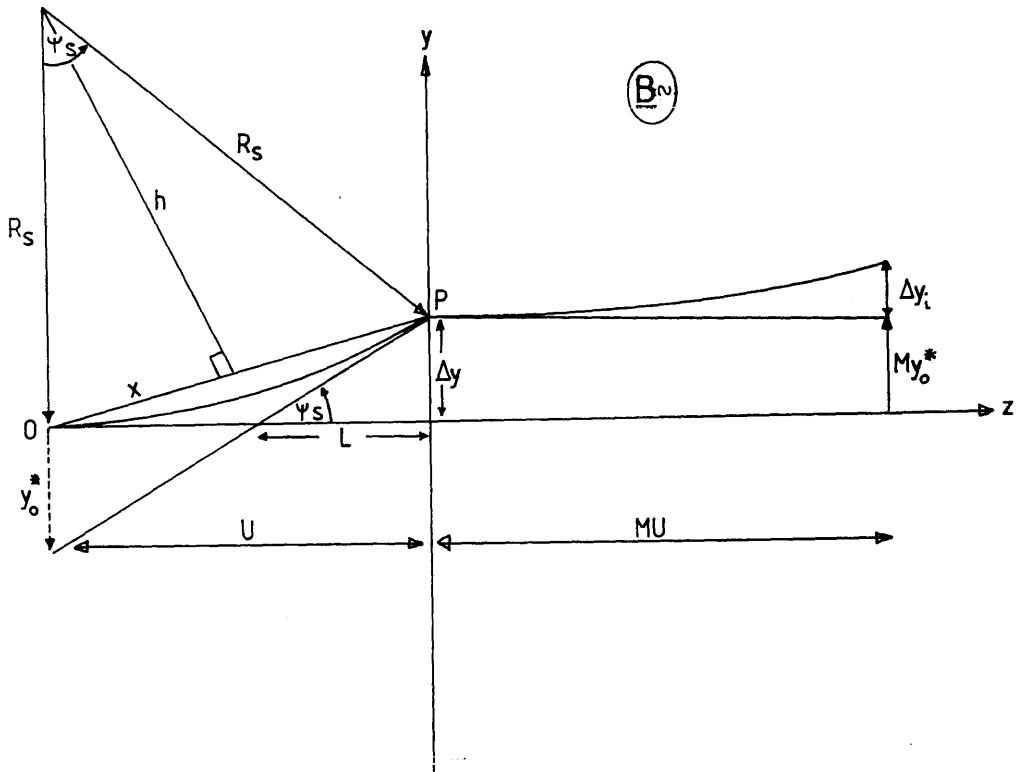
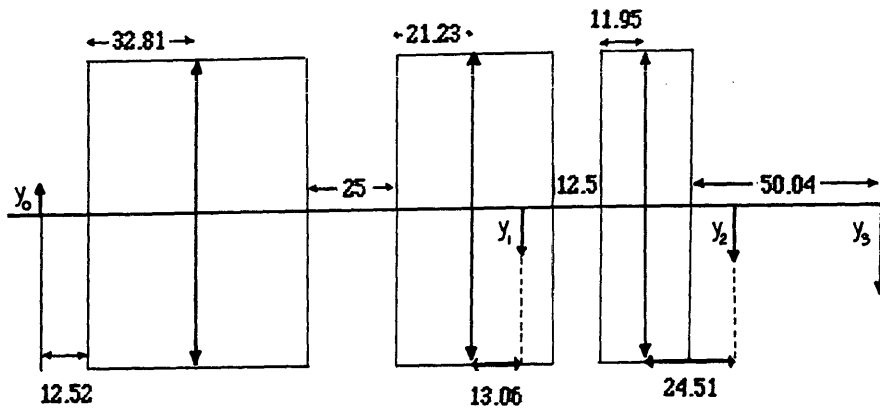


Figure 5.20

Equivalent Thin Lens System



(all dimensions millimetres)

Solving this quadratic equation and choosing the smaller solution gives:

$$\Delta y = R_s \left(1 - \sqrt{1 - U^2/R_s^2} \right)$$

and as $R_s \gg U$ the solution can be written:

$$\Delta y \sim U^2 / 2R_s \quad (5.4)$$

Now referring to figure 5.19 the expression for the angle of deflection ψ_s can be found:

$$\tan(\psi_s/2) = x/h \quad \text{where } x = \frac{1}{2} \sqrt{U^2 + \Delta y^2} \sim \frac{1}{2} U$$

and $h \sim R_s$ so that :

$$\tan(\psi_s/2) \sim U / 2R_s \quad \text{i.e. } \psi_s \sim U/R_s \quad (5.5)$$

where ψ_s is assumed to be small. The effect of this displacement Δy and deflection ψ_s can be referred back to the object plane to produce an effective object y_0^* where:

$$\begin{aligned} y_0^* &= (U - L) \tan \psi_s = U (\tan \psi_s - \Delta y) \\ &= U (U/R_s - U/2R_s) \\ &= U^2/2R_s \end{aligned}$$

i.e. the effective object size y_0^* is equal to the displacement Δy . After the lens this effective object is magnified at the image plane, and there is also a contribution Δy_i from the curvature in image space. The size of the final image is thus:

$$y_i = M y_0^* + \Delta y_i$$

The displacement Δy_i in image space is found in exactly the same way as for the object space, so that the final image is just:

$$y_i = \frac{MU^2}{2R_s} [1 + M] \quad (5.6)$$

Of course the magnetic field acts in both senses so that the final image size is twice this quantity.

5.4.2 Thin lens approximation for a quadrupole

The simplest way to estimate the effects of a small a.c. magnetic field on the whole system is to replace the quadrupole lenses by their equivalent thin lenses. Any quadrupole transfer

matrix can be replaced by an appropriate thin lens matrix with two drift matrices on either side; e.g. for the convergent plane:

$$\begin{bmatrix} \cos \theta & (1/\sqrt{q}) \sin \theta \\ -\sqrt{q} \sin \theta & \cos \theta \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & S_c \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ -1/f_c & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & S_c \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

where:

$$1/f_c = \sqrt{q} \sin \theta \quad S_c = \frac{1 - \cos \theta}{\sqrt{q} \sin \theta} \quad (5.7)$$

i.e. the focussing strength is the same, but the associated drift space is larger than $L/2$. A similar approach gives for the divergent plane:

$$1/f_d = \sqrt{q} \sinh \theta \quad S_d = \frac{\cosh \theta - 1}{\sqrt{q} \sinh \theta} \quad (5.8)$$

In this way the entire magnification system can be represented by four thin lenses with the appropriate focal lengths. The influence of a.c. fields need only be considered in the dispersion plane, as the non-dispersive plane is not critical, and the overall demagnification of this plane will tend to reduce the effect. Referring back to figure 5.1 the object for the first quadrupole lens Q_0 is positioned at the centre of the lens, so that the object distance U in equation (5.6) is zero, and therefore the net effect of the stray field is negligible in a thin lens approximation. The purpose of this lens is to shift the object position for Q_1 , so this must be taken into account in the optical calculation. The following sections carry out the necessary calculations for a system magnification of $-27.7x$, using the transfer matrices of figure 5.17, and assuming a stray field $B \sim 1$ milligauss, with a corresponding cyclotron radius R_s of $10^4 m$.

5.4.3 Calculation of the defocus at the final image plane

First of all the thin lens equivalents are calculated for each quadrupole using equations (5.7) and (5.8) and the data of figure 5.17. At the magnification of interest, $-27.7x$, the quadrupole configuration is CCDD i.e. the high magnification mode. The relevant parameters are:

$$\begin{array}{ll} f_1 = 30.38 \text{ mm} & S_1 = 32.81 \text{ mm} \\ f_2 = -16.05 \text{ mm} & S_2 = 21.23 \text{ mm} \\ f_3 = -40.54 \text{ mm} & S_3 = 11.95 \text{ mm} \end{array}$$

The mechanical object distance is $U=12.51\text{mm}$ but this is modified by lens Q_0 to be 12.52mm (using equation 3.10). The equivalent thin lens system is shown in figure 5.20. Considering lens Q_1 , the object distance is $U_1=U+S_1 = 45.34 \text{ mm}$. The image distance is found using the simple lens formula, and is 92.108 mm , thus the magnification is $-2.032x$. An on-axis point source will be imaged as a line, whose magnitude is given by equation (5.6) to be $\sim 0.6 \mu\text{m}$.

The following lens Q_2 is divergent in the dispersion plane, and the distance between Q_1 and Q_2 is :

$$d_{1-2} = S_1 + \text{gap}_{1-2} + S_2 = 79.05 \text{ mm}.$$

Thus the image produced by Q_1 acts as a virtual object for lens Q_2 , where the object distance $U_2=-13.06 \text{ mm}$. The focal length of Q_2 is -16.05 mm , so that the lens will produce a real magnified image at a position 70.18 mm to the right of Q_2 . The magnification is therefore $5.37x$. The size of the virtual object as seen by lens Q_2 is modified by the curvature of the trajectory in the drift space between lenses Q_1 and Q_2 , however if $U_2^2 \ll V_1^2$ this effect can be neglected.

The size of the image produced by lens Q_2 is therefore:

$$y_2 = M_2 y_1 + (M_2 U_2)^2 / 2R_s$$

$$y_2 \sim 3 \mu\text{m}$$

This image forms a virtual object for the final lens which is separated from Q_2 by 45.68mm , making $U_3 = -24.51 \text{ mm}$. The image formed by Q_3 is located at a position 61.98 mm to the right of Q_3 and the magnification of the final lens is therefore $2.53x$. The final image size can be calculated as in the previous case:

$$y_3 = M_3 y_2 + (M_3 U_3)^2 / 2R_s$$

$$y_3 \sim 9 \mu\text{m}$$

Thus the effect of an a.c. magnetic field of magnitude ~ 1 milligauss is to cause an axial point source to be imaged as a line of length $2y_3 = 18 \mu\text{m}$. The overall magnification of the thin lens equivalent system is the product of all the individual magnifications, which is $-27.60x$ at

TABLE 5.1 Chromatic aberration coefficient values

Mag	$x/x\delta$	$x/x'\delta$ (m)	$y/y\delta$	$y/y'\delta$ (m)
-5.19	-78.94	1.44	16.54	0.163
-10.36	-8.88	1.22	23.38	0.376
-16.02	10.33	0.96	33.27	0.601
-27.67	15.60	0.53	55.70	1.063
-51.31	3.27	-0.08	105.05	1.999
-89.64	-18.33	-0.69	191.87	3.518

TABLE 5.2 Reduction in resolution introduced by 1 milligauss a.c. magnetic field.

Mag	f_0 (cm)	f_1 (cm)	f_2 (cm)	f_3 (cm)	M_1	M_2	M_3	Image(μ m)	Resolution(eV)
-5.22	-1.05	3.04	-1.60	4.36	-2.24	-4.88	-0.45	3.84	0.41
-10.29	-3.43	3.04	-1.60	8.40	-2.10	19.22	0.26	8.64	0.47
-27.60	185.4	3.04	-1.60	-4.54	-2.03	5.37	2.52	18.80	0.38
-51.75	12.17	3.04	-1.60	-12.9	-2.01	4.46	5.58	33.84	0.36
-92.06	8.15	3.04	-1.60	-6.04	-2.00	4.08	11.27	60.42	0.36

Note that the image size is the diameter of the image disc formed from a point source.

a final image plane located 50.04 mm after the last drift space. Results from the corresponding matrix calculation are; magnification = -27.67x; final image plane 50.23mm after exit of lens Q₃. The small discrepancy is probably due to arithmetic rounding errors.

The calculated defocus can be referred back to the object plane by dividing by the magnification, to give an effective object size of ~0.7 μm. The dispersion of the Scheinfein and Isaacson spectrometer is 1.8μm/eV so that the effective object resolution is ~0.4eV. Table 5.2 gives results of calculations done at other magnifications throughout the available range. In each case the degradation in energy resolution is less than 0.5 eV, showing that a.c. fields of this magnitude do not significantly reduce the energy resolution of the magnification system.

The flight path from the spectrometer exit plane to the dispersion plane of the Scheinfein and Isaacson spectrometer is ~182mm. The effect of a 1 milligauss a.c. field can be estimated using equation (5.4), giving a value of Δy of 1.65mm. For the spectrometer alone, the corresponding degradation in energy resolution is :

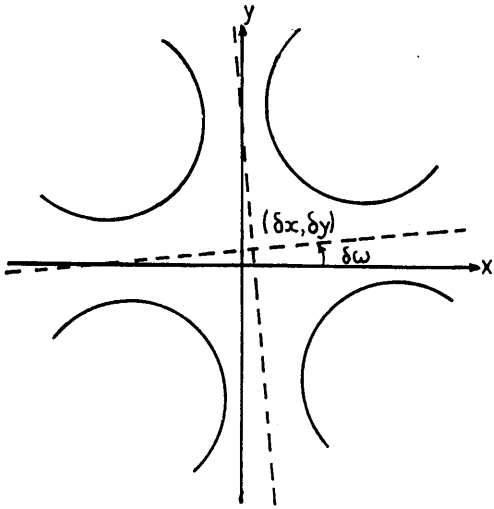
$$\Delta E = 2\Delta y / \text{dispersion} = 1.84 \text{ eV.}$$

Thus in all cases the spectrometer itself is the limiting factor in determining the energy resolution, and not the post-spectrometer optics. In practice the resolution of this spectrometer operating in serial collection mode is known to be considerably better than the above figure, suggesting that a stray field remanent of 1 milligauss is a pessimistic estimate.

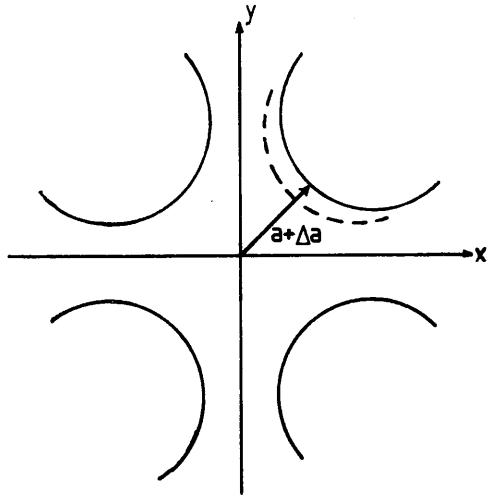
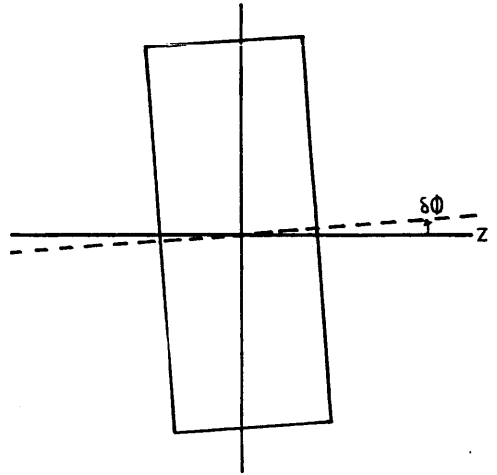
5.5 CONSTRUCTIONAL ABERRATIONS

Quadrupole lens systems are subject to defects arising from misalignment, inaccurate machining, inhomogeneity of magnetic materials, and asymmetries in the magnetic circuitry. These factors are of special importance as there is no simple device, such as a stigmator, to correct for them. A generalised study of the effects of aberrations resulting from these imperfections is not particularly feasible, because their relative importance varies widely with the lens design and application. The defects can be broadly classified into two separate types; cases where the quadrupole symmetry is maintained but the lens optic axis is shifted or rotated with respect to its ideal position (figure 5.21a,b), and instances where the planes of quadrupole symmetry are distorted by a displacement of one or more of the polepieces (figure 5.21c,d). Departures from quadrupole symmetry tend to introduce extra 'parasitic'

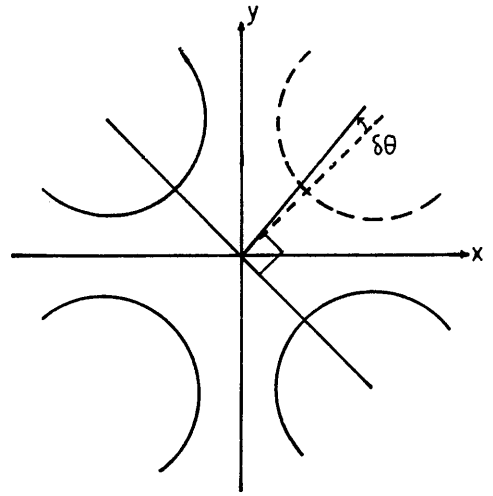
a) Shifted and Rotated Axis



b) Tilted About Axis



c) Radial Polepiece Error



d) Angular Polepiece Error

After Hawkes (1970)

terms [Hawkes 1970] into the magnetic field expansion of equation (4.5), and the net result is generally an introduction of second order aberrations to the image. Displacements and angular rotations of the lenses result in the formation of deflecting fields which cause a displacement in the image, and can also introduce second order aberrations.

Calculations of the required tolerances for the quadrupole system described in this chapter have not been carried out explicitly, however order of magnitude values for the various parameters involved can be estimated from the study of a symmetric quadruplet magnification system carried out by Kawakatsu et al. [1968]. This quadruplet was designed to act as the projection lens system for a microscope, so that the condition of stigmatic double focussing was required at all magnifications. Each lens had a mechanical length L' of 3cm, bore radius a of 1.5cm, separation d of 1.7cm, and the projector focal length was designed to vary between 0.75 and 3.6mm. Kawakatsu et al. found that the condition that the radial and rotational error in the magnification of the image be less than 3% at all magnifications gave tolerances for this system of:

- 1) Lens rotation $\delta\omega < \pm 1.7$ mrad
- 2) Individual Polepiece radial alignment $\Delta a/a < \pm 0.063$
- 3) Individual polepiece angular alignment $\delta\theta < \pm 13$ mrad
- 4) Axial Shifts $\delta x, \delta y < 0.5$ mm
- 5) Lens tilt $\delta\phi < 10$ mrad

where the relevant parameters are defined in figure 5.21. To keep $\Delta M/M < \pm 10^{-4}$, where M is the magnification, fluctuations in the lens current must satisfy $\Delta I/I < \pm 8 \times 10^{-5}$. The authors found that the deflection introduced by tilt and displacement of the lenses was relatively harmless, hence the wide tolerances. In contrast, the quadrupole angular alignment $\delta\omega$ seems very critical; - as noted experimentally by Crewe et al. [1967] who used a weak quadrupole lens to correct for the aberrations arising when adjacent quadrupoles were twisted with respect to each other. This weak lens was placed between the quadrupoles of interest and its symmetry planes were oriented at 45° to the others.

It is not clear exactly how appropriate the above calculations are to a post-spectrometer magnification system where the magnifications are greatly different in each plane; - at least an order of magnitude correlation should be expected, considering the similar dimensions of the components used. It is clear however, that constructional factors are extremely important in all quadrupole systems, and as such must be treated with the greatest of care.

Third Order Aberrations

The previous calculations do not include any effects caused by the third order geometrical aberrations of quadrupole lenses. In particular, at the lower magnifications (eg. Figure 5.11) the excursion of the extreme trajectories from the optic axis is very large, occupying almost all of the bore of the final quadrupole lens. Thus third order axial aberrations of this lens could introduce serious geometrical distortions to the magnified spectrum. Fortunately, for quantitative analysis of EELS spectra such wide energy ranges as Figure 5.11 (~1300eV) would not be required, and indeed dynamic range limitations of the detector (section 8.4) reduce the most practical energy range for parallel recording to a few hundred eV. Thus it is not anticipated that magnifications much lower than that of Figure 5.14 (~30x) would be required.

The effects of third order aperture aberrations can be reduced by restricting the angular divergence of the electrons at the dispersion plane. For example in the HB5 STEM equipped with post-specimen lenses the effective spectrometer collection angle β is ~2mrads giving a maximum angular divergence at the dispersion plane of ~6mrads using the Scheinfein and Isaacson spectrometer. Smaller divergence can be introduced by further restricting the spectrometer collection angle.

In principle, the matrix method used in all the previous calculations can be extended to third order by incorporating extra transfer matrices for the quadrupole entrance and exit fields. Analytical expressions for the third order aberrations of the central field regions of quadrupole lenses have been published by Smith [1969], and equivalent expressions for the third order aberrations of the fringing fields of such lenses are given in the paper by Matsuda and Wollnik [1972]. The latter are expressed in terms of the distribution function of the field gradient, which must be measured experimentally. The authors emphasise the fact that the focussing characteristics described apply to perfect lenses only, and that mechanical imperfections such as those described in section 5.5 must be considered.

It may be possible to reduce the effects of third order aberrations using suitably placed octupole corrector lenses [Scherzer 1947], but clearly further work would be required to determine the ultimate performance these aberrations would impose upon the optical system.

CHAPTER 6

A Prototype Acquisition System For Eels - Instrumentation

Introduction

The design and construction of a prototype parallel recording system for EELS is described in this chapter. The instrumentation was developed and tested in a vacuum chamber attached below the camera chamber of a JEOL JEM 100C transmission electron microscope, allowing irradiation of the detector by the electron beam. The performance of the detector under various conditions is reported in chapter 7; this chapter deals mainly with the design, construction and evaluation process of the detection system. The first section describes some of the multielement solid state detectors which can be applied to parallel EELS, and outlines the advantages of using wide aperture photodiode arrays in the indirect detection mode as the detection elements. The operation of two such arrays, manufactured by E G + G Reticon and Hamamatsu Photonics is described, along with the construction and function of the various electronic circuits necessary to drive the devices. The data output from both arrays is an analogue video signal, which must be digitised and processed. To this end, the design and evaluation of a sample and hold / analogue to digital conversion circuit is described, along with the digital electronics used to interface the output to a Motorola 68000 microprocessor monoboard, and hence to a VME minicomputer system for processing and display. As the photodiodes operated in the confined space of the microscope vacuum system, they were physically separated from some of their drive electronics. The effect of this separation on the electronic performance is reported, and the design of a suitable head amplifier for the Reticon array is given. In order to reduce the dark current generated in all photodiodes, the arrays were cooled in operation using a thermoelectric cooler chip, and the operation of this cooling system is also described.

6.1 ELECTRON DETECTORS

There are many different methods of recording, in parallel, the information present in an EELS spectrum. The most fundamental choice is whether to design a system relying on the direct detection of the electrons, for example in a semiconductor device, (direct detection) or whether to employ an intermediate conversion screen to convert the electrons to photons, and record the light signal generated (indirect detection). The latter method allows optional

intensification of the photon signal before detection. Applications of both recording methods are considered in the following sections, and the advantages of the indirect detection method are described.

6.1.1 Direct detection methods

The simplest method of direct detection is to place a photographic film at the spectrometer dispersion plane. After exposure to the electron beam the film is developed and digitised for quantitative analysis. Apart from dynamic range limitations imposed by over-exposure effects, the sheer inconvenience of this method makes it impractical for use in a modern detection system and it will not be discussed further.

An alternative solution is to detect the electrons directly using a solid state image sensor, such as a charge coupled device (CCD), photodiode array (PDA), or resistive strip position sensitive detector (PSD) located at the spectrometer dispersion plane, or preferably the final image plane of a post spectrometer magnification system. This configuration has the advantages of simplicity and very high detection efficiency at low beam currents, since each 100keV electron produces $\sim 10^4$ signal electrons in a silicon device. Single electron detection can therefore be achieved using this method and several investigations of this type of detection system have been carried out [McMullan et al 1985, Shuman 1981, Roberts 1980, Bourdillion et al 1985].

The following is a brief summary of the operation of the three types of sensor mentioned above;

1) Resistive strip (position sensitive) detectors.

These detectors consist of a silicon p-n junction, on the surface of which is fabricated a resistive layer terminated by electrodes at each end. One contact is grounded, and the other is connected to a charge sensitive amplifier, the output of which is proportional to the distance from the grounded contact to the point of impact of the electron. The main problem with this device is that only one electron event can be handled at any one time.

2) Charge coupled device (CCD) image sensors.

This device is basically an integrated circuit consisting of an oxide covered silicon substrate upon which is fabricated a linear or area array of closely spaced electrodes. Each electrode is equivalent to the 'gate' of a MOS transistor. Electrons or photons

absorbed in the silicon substrate produce a number of electron-hole pairs, proportional to energy. This charge is trapped in the 'potential wells' formed in depletion layers under electrodes supplied with an appropriate bias. After some period, known as the integration time, the potential on the electrodes is varied in such a way as to cause transfer of the accumulated packets of charge from one to the other, with very little loss of signal. By repeatedly pulsing the voltages on the electrodes between high and low levels the charge can be quickly transported to a shielded storage region, and hence to the readout register, where it is sequentially applied to a charge sensitive amplifier to form the video output. If the illumination is not blanked the charge transfer must be accomplished in an interval that is short compared to the integration time, otherwise light still incident upon the active area will cause image smearing to occur.

The main problem with direct exposure of a CCD is that the high gain involved ($\sim 10^4$ electrons produced per 100keV signal electron) soon causes the individual detection elements to saturate, resulting in low dynamic range.

3) Photodiode array (PDA) image sensors.

Photodiode arrays consist of one or more rows of silicon photodiodes each with an associated storage capacitance on which to integrate photocurrent, and a multiplex switch to connect the diode to a common video line. Incident photons or electrons generate charge (as in the CCD) which is stored on the diode capacitance. After an integration time the diodes are connected, in sequence, via the multiplex switches to the video line, and the charge pulse generated is converted to a video voltage output by a charge sensitive amplifier. Again the dynamic range is limited by cell saturation effects, although some diode arrays are constructed with large individual elements which can store more charge.

The problems associated with direct detection using any of the above devices are low dynamic range and, after prolonged exposure to 100 keV electrons, the occurrence of radiation damage effects (less so for PSD). Radiation damage is usually manifested in increased dark current, and a worsening of the device pixel to pixel response function. This problem can be mediated somewhat by annealing the devices at 400 °C [Roberts 1980], but not entirely removed. The construction of radiation hardened devices is a subject of current interest in military applications, but as yet no such devices are available in the civilian sector. In conclusion, direct detection is very attractive for recording weak signals where the high

electron gain is most useful. Unfortunately, EELS spectra contain intensities which tend to saturate currently available devices, and ultimately cause damage to occur. If, in future, radiation hard devices become available with higher cell capacities (or reduced gain) the merits of this form of detection will increase.

6.1.2 Indirect detection

Indirect detection of the spectrum has the advantage that radiation damage to the semiconductor detection element does not occur, and higher dynamic range is available because of the reduced gain. The penalty is that the system performance depends largely upon the properties of the conversion screen, and that single electron detection is not generally possible. This is discussed more fully in chapter 7.

The simplest method of recording the transmitted photons is using a commercial TV camera. Optical coupling between the conversion screen and the camera can be provided using glass lenses, or better still fibre-optic plates. In order to detect the low light levels generated at the far energy loss region of the spectrum, it is usually necessary to place some form of image intensifier between the screen and the camera. The literature available on image intensifying camera systems is vast, as is the number of designs. A useful review is given by Schlagen [1975]. Detection systems of this type have been constructed by Shuman [1984] and Egerton [1981] using silicon intensified target [SIT] vidicon cameras.

Systems using image intensified TV cameras as detectors can suffer from a number of disadvantages; the resolution of the camera itself is usually quite poor, and noise processes in the image intensification stage can limit the dynamic range. Apart from this, the gain of the image intensifier must be varied during the actual recording, in order to accommodate a reasonable dynamic range, and also to prevent overload damage occurring at high input intensities. Other drawbacks of traditional TV tube cameras include such undesirable properties as image lag and image distortion, both of which reduce the attractiveness of these devices for EELS applications. Recently low light level (LLL) cameras have become available using CCD arrays as detection elements. LLL cameras do not suffer from the same faults as electro-optic tubes, and are often used in TEM imaging systems. Their application to EELS may be considered if cost is a limiting factor and the highest performance is not required.

The preferred type of indirect detection system uses a solid state image sensor optically coupled to a transmission scintillator screen. Again the optical coupling can be achieved

using glass lenses [Monson et al 1982, Strauss et al 1987], or more efficiently by a fibre optic link [Krivanek et al 1987, Egerton and Crozier 1987]. This configuration does not suffer from the same kind of problems as the TV type systems. The detectors themselves are available with many different geometries, and generally feature improved performance as compared with those used in integrated camera systems. The choice of the most suitable detector is discussed in the next section.

6.1.3 Choice of imaging element

There are many factors to be considered when deciding upon the optimum imaging element for an indirect detection system. In practical terms, the types of sensor most suitable for this application are area CCD arrays and wide aperture linear photodiode arrays. CCD arrays are also available in linear form, but the element size is usually of the order of $25\mu\text{m}$ square which, from chapter 3, is much too narrow to image the full width of an EELS spectrum. Area photodiode arrays offer inferior performance to the equivalent CCD arrays, and are not considered further. The decision on whether to opt for an area CCD or a wide aperture linear photodiode array is not clear cut, as the electrical performance is equivalent, and each sensor has its own particular advantages. The important points are listed below:

- 1) The PDA cell capacity is $\sim 100\times$ larger than that of a CCD element, so that cell saturation is less of a problem at low energy losses.
- 2) CCD noise performance is much better than that of PDAs, partly because of the very much smaller source capacitance, however the dynamic ranges are roughly equivalent due to the higher cell capacity of the photodiode array.
- 3) If all the CCD elements are used for imaging, then the electron beam must be blanked during the CCD readout time, to prevent image smear.
- 4) Linear PDA readout time is very much faster than the time required to read out a whole two dimensional CCD array.
- 5) Linear photodiode arrays are available with up to 1024 elements in the dispersion direction, whereas the largest commercial CCD arrays are typically 512×512 elements.
- 6) CCD arrays can be used as two dimensional imaging devices e.g. for energy filtered

imaging studies [Shuman 1986].

- 7) Area CCDs with fibre optic windows are ~ 5x more expensive than an equivalent wide aperture photodiode array.

It is possible to improve points 3) and 4) by using only part of the CCD array to image the spectrum, and shielding the remainder from the beam. In the case of Strauss et al. [1987], a fractional area consisting of 5 x 512 elements is exposed to the spectrum. After an integration time this image is transferred under a shield (transfer time for 5 rows of cells ~ 5 μ s) and another image is recorded. This is repeated until the array is full, by which time 100 consecutive images have been stored. Scan time is greatly reduced, since the CCD is only read out once every hundred acquisitions, and the need for beam blanking is also much reduced, as the charge packets need only be transferred across five elements each time. Disadvantages include the fact that the active area is only 150 μ m wide, which is still too narrow to image the defocussed spectrum, and non-standard drive electronics must be used to control the charge transfer.

Taking all the above points into consideration, and noting that 2-dimensional imaging is not required in this application, it seems that the simplicity of application of the linear photodiode array tips the balance in favour of this sensor. Accordingly, the remainder of this chapter is concerned with the operation of two such devices, purchased from different manufacturers. The next sections describe the operation of the RL128S photodiode array manufactured by EG+G Reticon, and later sections deal with the S2304-512F sensor manufactured by Hamamatsu Photonics.

6.2 RETICON S SERIES PHOTODIODE ARRAYS

The Reticon S series (scientific) self scanned silicon photodiode arrays are specifically designed and optimised for applications in optical spectroscopy. The array under investigation is the RL128S which has 128 elements, but the operation is identical to larger arrays available with 512 or 1024 photodiodes. Each sensor element has a 100:1 aspect ratio (25 μ m x 2.5mm), and the maximum charge that can be stored on each diode is 14 pC i.e. 8.75×10^7 electrons. Normally light is incident on the photodiodes through a quartz window. The following sections describe in more detail the operation of these devices.

6.2.1 Principles of operation - RL 128 S

Each of the sensor elements in this device consists of a planar diode made by diffusing p-type bars in an n-type silicon substrate. Light incident on the sensing area generates charge, which is collected and stored on the p-type bars during the integration period. The n-type silicon surface is also photosensitive, charge generated here divides between the two adjacent p regions. Figure 6.1 shows a simplified equivalent circuit for the array. Each individual cell consists of a photodiode and a dummy diode, both with an associated storage capacitance. These diodes connect through MOS multiplex switches to video and dummy recharge lines; one pair of recharge lines is common to all the odd elements, and another pair is common to all the even elements.

The multiplex switches are turned on and off in sequence by two shift register scanning circuits, thereby periodically recharging each cell to 5 volts and storing charge Q_{sat} on its capacitance. After an integration time τ , the diodes have discharged by an amount proportional to the intensity of the incident light, and also an additional amount due to the dark leakage current. This charge must be replaced through the video line when the diode is sampled once each scan. Thus the output signal from each scan is a train of pulses each proportional to the light intensity on the corresponding photodiode. In addition to the signal charge, switching transients are capacitively coupled into the video lines by the multiplex switches. By differentially amplifying the dummy and active video lines these transients can be suppressed.

More detailed information on the operation and performance of these sensors has been published by Talmi and Simpson [1980]. Spectral response and responsivity information is also contained in 'Image Sensing Products' published by EG+G Reticon.

6.2.2 Drive electronics: RC-1024 SA evaluation board.

The electronic signals necessary to drive the array consist of timing circuitry to control the integration time and the scan speed, and a signal processing circuit to produce a sampled and held video output. Reticon supply an evaluation board, the RC-1024 SA which provides the above functions for all the S series arrays. The circuit is constructed on a standard 4.5" x 9" printed circuit card, and all the connections are made via a 22 pin edge connector.

Figure 6.2 is a block diagram representing the four major circuit sections. The logic section consists of TTL circuits which provide the program and control signals for clocking the arrays. It includes an oscillator clock circuit with a frequency variable between 150 kHz and

Figure 6.1 Equivalent Circuit For Reticon S Series Photodiode Arrays

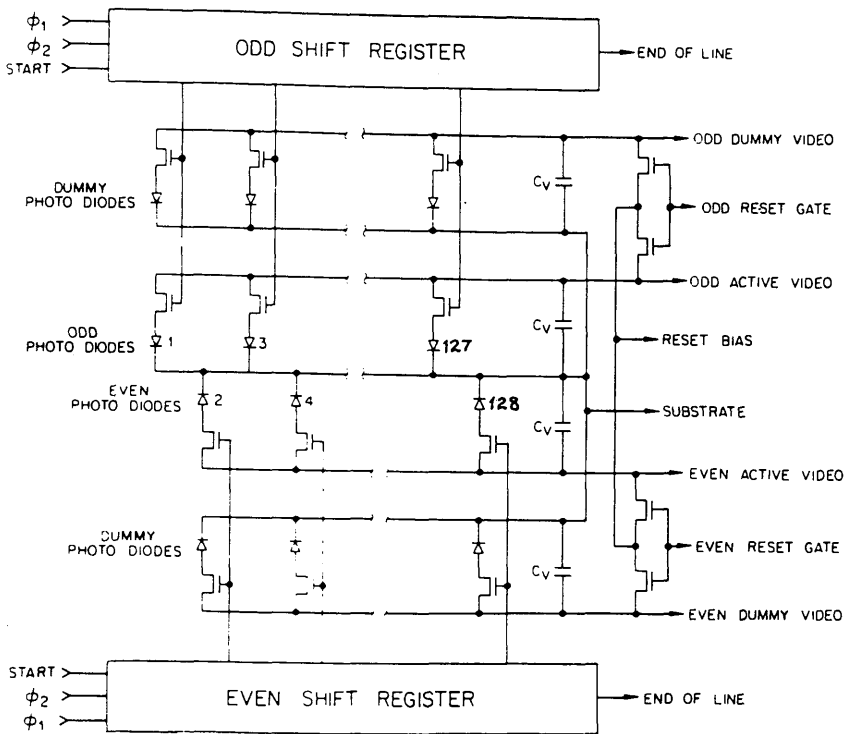
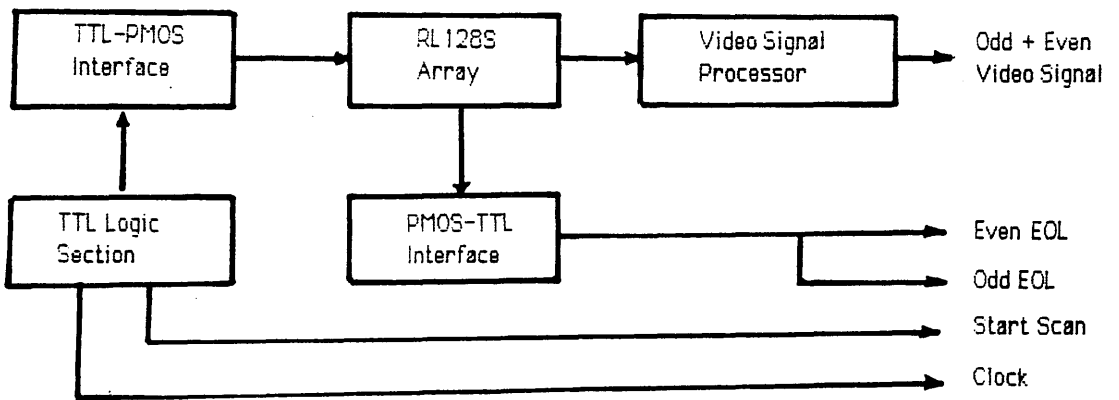


Figure 6.2 Block Diagram Of RC1024 SA Evaluation Board



1.5 MHz. All subsequent timing signals, including the array integration time, are derived from this master clock. The diode sampling frequency operates at one quarter of the clock frequency, and is limited to a maximum of 300 kHz to optimise the low noise characteristics. The length of the integration time is varied using a preset binary counter, up to a maximum of 16384 sample periods (1 sample period = 4 clock periods), which corresponds to 0.4 seconds at the slowest clock rate. The minimum integration time is determined by the scan time (time required to read out all the elements) of the array and corresponds to an almost continuous video signal.

The signal processor is an analogue circuit which amplifies the video signal and enhances the signal to noise ratio using a double sampled auto-correlation technique (see chapter 7), after which the odd and even signals are combined in a sequential sample and held signal. The saturation video voltage is specified to be +3V, and the amplifier output impedance is 10 ohms. The gain of the video circuit is 2.14×10^{11} Volts/Coulomb or 3.42×10^{-8} Volts/electron.

The S series PDA is located in a DIL socket on the reverse side of the circuit board. The interface circuits simply provide the necessary voltage translation from TTL to MOS levels between the logic circuitry and the array inputs, and the reciprocal MOS to TTL transfer from the array output connections.

Apart from the video output signal the RC-1024 SA board also provides oscillator clock and start-of-scan output signals (positive TTL), and end-of-line (EOL) signals for the odd and even scans (negative TTL). From a constructional point of view, the board was shielded from external interference in a metal case, and all the output signals were carried on shielded coaxial cable using BNC connectors with the cable shields connected to the board earth and the case left floating. Further information, including detailed circuit and timing diagrams, is available in the Reticon publication 'Operational Instructions for RC-1024 SA Evaluation Board' [1978]. This publication also contains information concerning the setup procedure which is discussed later.

6.2.3 Power Supplies

The DC power supplies required for correct operation of the photodiode circuitry are $\pm 15V$ at 75 mA and 175 mA respectively, and +5V at 500 mA. Obviously for the best performance the supplies should be regulated, low noise units. The components used were Powerail 23005A 5V/3A, and Powerail 23215A $\pm 15V/0.8A$ supplies. The output ripple is specified

at 5mV pk-pk maximum, with a DC stability of $\pm 0.3\%$ over a 24hr period. Each supply was housed in a metal case to reduce external interference, and the output connections were made using RS 8-way sockets. All the output leads were contained in a multicore screened cable, which was mains earthed at the power supply end and left floating at the PDA end.

6.2.4 Alignment procedure - Reticon RL 128 S / RC 1024 SA

This section describes briefly the setup procedure for the RC 1024 SA evaluation board and the RL 128 S photodiode array. The signals illustrated in figures 6.3a-e were monitored using a Tektronix 7623A storage oscilloscope equipped with a 7A13 100MHz differential amplifier unit and a 7A22 10mV differential amplifier unit. The full alignment procedure, including the location of the relevant potentiometer controls, is described in the Reticon data sheet for the evaluation board, the purpose of this section being mainly to introduce the various waveforms involved.

For all experiments described in this work the oscillator clock frequency was set at 200kHz, as this was convenient for digitisation of the output signal and matched the highest available clock frequency on the Hamamatsu drive electronics (section 6.3.2). This sets the scan rate at 50 kHz i.e. a sample time of 20 μ sec per diode. The maximum integration time is therefore 0.32 secs, and the minimum integration time is 2.56 msec, which is the readout time for one complete scan.

Figure 6.3a shows part of the video output in the dark as might be seen after startup. The integration time is 2.56 msec and the array temperature is $\sim 30^\circ\text{C}$. Clearly there is a 1,2,3,4 type fixed pattern noise to the dark signal. The first pixel is displaced from all the others and is ignored in this and later observations. The first step in aligning the board is to separate the odd and even video signals by 200 mV in the dark (fig 6.3b). By altering the capacitance, hence the signal coupling, between each pair of clock phases the imbalance in the odd and even signals can be independently reduced (Figure 6.3c). Figure 6.3d shows the odd and even signals correctly recombined to give a uniform dark signal. Note that the magnitude of the sampling pulse feedthrough is greater for the even scan. This is shown more clearly in figure 6.3e, which depicts the clock pulses superimposed upon the video output. Further alignment is concerned with optimising the video amplifier gain balance for each channel, and setting the retrace blank level coincident with the dark level at zero volts. This procedure is described in more detail in the relevant Reticon data sheets.

Dark Alignment Procedure For
Reticon RL128S Linear Photodiode
Array On RC1024 SA Evaluation
Board

Figure 6.3a Unaligned Video Signal

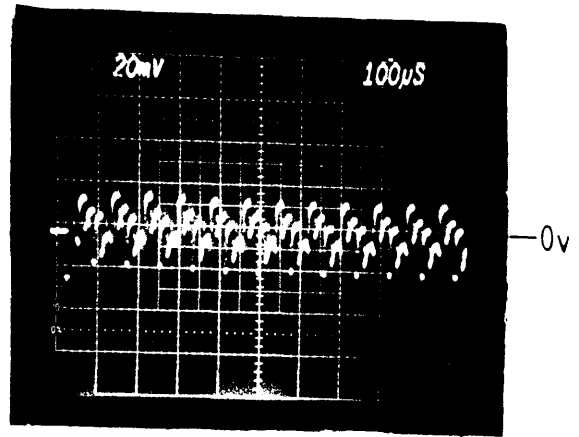


Figure 6.3b Separate Odd and Even Signals

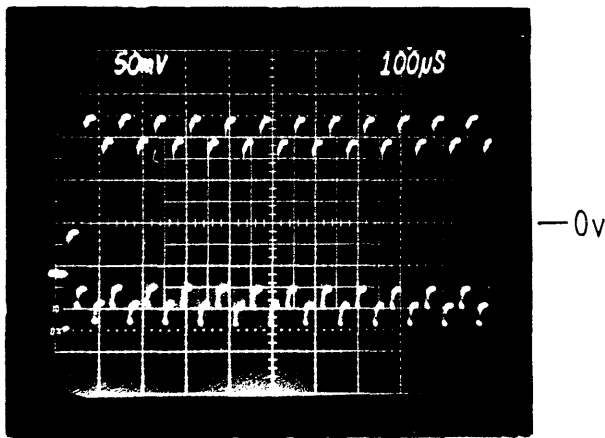


Figure 6.3c Balance Clock Phase Feedthrough

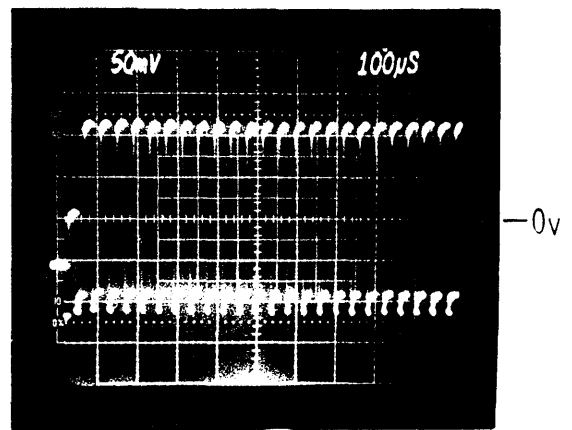


Figure 6.3d Odd + Even Correctly Recombined

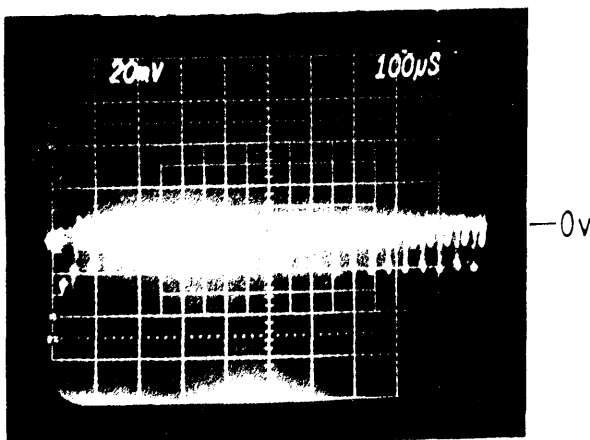
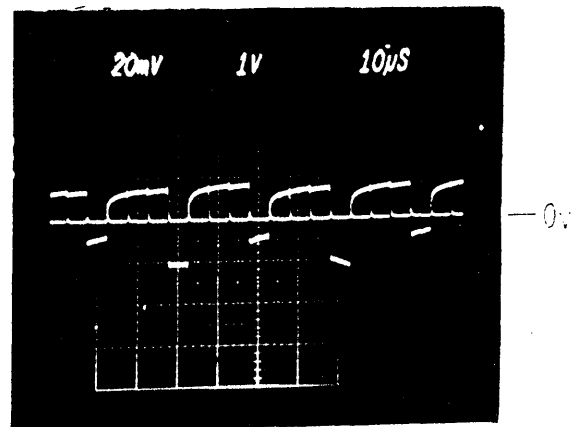


Figure 6.3e Video Output + Clock Pulses



6.3 HAMAMATSU PCD LINEAR IMAGE SENSORS

The Hamamatsu S2304 series linear image sensors are monolithic self-scanning photodiode arrays designed specifically for applications in multichannel spectroscopy. The array under consideration is the S2304-512F, which has 512 elements of $25\mu\text{m}\times 2.5\text{mm}$ and is fitted with a fibre optic input window. The saturation charge for each diode is 7.5 pC, corresponding to an element capacity of 4.7×10^7 electrons.

6.3.1 Principles of operation : S2304 - 512F

The actual construction and operation of the sensor elements in this photodiode array is extremely similar to that of the Reticon S series arrays, the main difference being in the readout circuitry. Figure 6.4 shows a simplified equivalent circuit for this sensor. As can be seen, there is only one video line, and the sampling switches are bipolar transistors compared with the MOS devices used in the Reticon arrays. The single bipolar static scanning shift register operates using three phase TTL compatible clocks. Advantages of this system include a much reduced sample pulse feedthrough, so that no dummy photodiodes are necessary, and the signal is available from only one row as a sequential output. This results in much simplified driver and readout electronics, with corresponding increases in reliability and ease of use. Further data is available in the Hamamatsu technical data publication, 'PCD Linear Image Sensors S2301, S2304 Series'.

6.3.2 Drive electronics : C2325 / C2335

The drive electronics for the Hamamatsu array are supplied on two separate PCBs with the PDA itself located on the C2325 driver/amplifier board, which generates the three clock phases necessary to drive the shift register and includes a low-noise video amplification system. The second board is the C2335 pulse generator, which provides the 'reference clock' and 'start' pulses for the C2325 board. Figure 6.5 shows a block diagram of the main circuit components.

The pulse generator board includes a quartz crystal oscillator 'master clock' at a frequency of 1MHz. The 'reference clock' applied to the C2325 board is obtained by dividing down the 'master clock' frequency using preset switches arranged in a 1-2-5 sequence. In this way the 'reference clock' frequency can be varied between 0.02Hz and 1MHz in discrete steps. The 'start' pulses control the integration time and are generated either from the 'master clock' or from the 'reference clock' depending upon the position of a circuit jumper. The maximum available integration time in the 'master clock' mode is 50 seconds, and the minimum usable

Figure 6.4 Equivalent Circuit For Hamamatsu Linear Photodiode Arrays

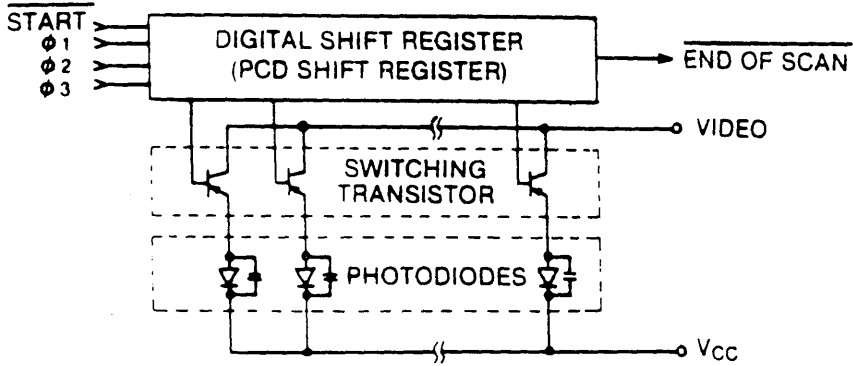
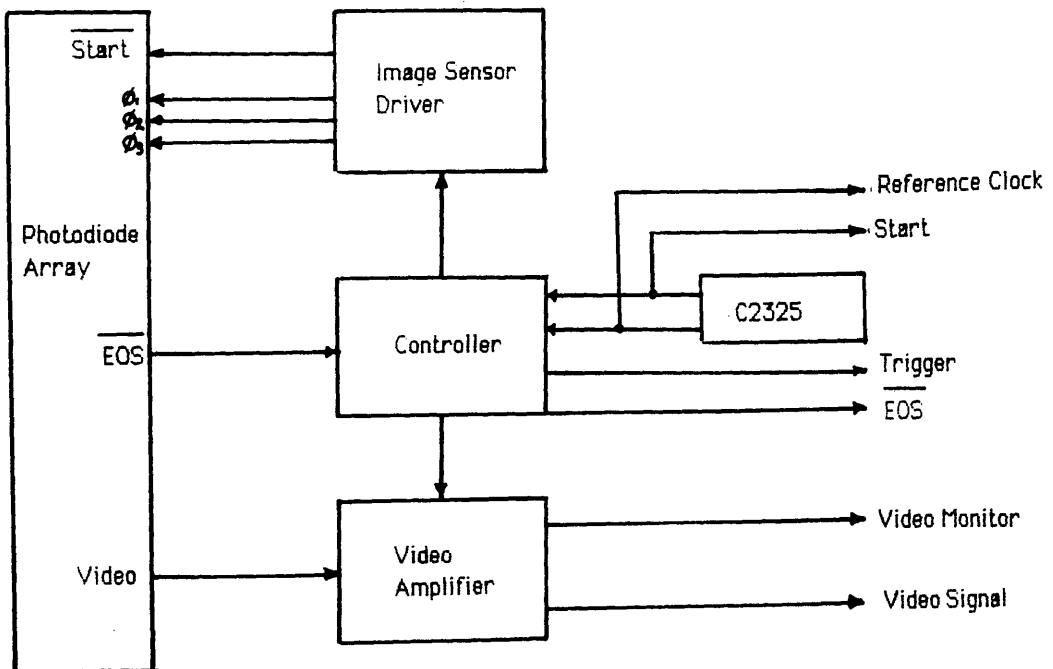


Figure 6.5 Block Diagram Of C2325 Driver/Amplifier Electronics



integration time is again determined by the array readout time.

The amplifier section of the C2325 board uses a low noise charge integrator to detect the diode output signal and a double sampling technique to reduce the reset or thermodynamic noise (see section 7.1.2). The maximum video rate is restricted to 62.5 kHz, and as the timing is identical to the Reticon diodes (i.e. one sample pulse every four clock periods) this corresponds to a maximum 'reference clock' frequency of 250 kHz. The closest clock frequency available from the C2335 board is 200kHz, giving a data rate of 50 kHz. With 512 elements the time taken to read out a complete scan of the S2304-512F array is therefore 10.2 msec. The saturation video voltage is 3V, and the diode capacity is 7.5 pC, so that the amplifier gain is 4×10^{11} V/C or 6.4×10^{-8} V/electron.

Apart from the video signal, the C2325 board also provides 'reference clock', 'start', and 'trigger' outputs which are positive TTL signals. The 'trigger' pulse is used to provide the 'start convert' signal for the analogue to digital conversion board (section 6.4.2), and it occurs at the start of the fourth clock period in each sample pulse. Other outputs include an 'end of scan' (EOS) signal (negative LS-TTL compatible), and a 'video monitor' signal which is used in setting up the C2325 board.

The two driver boards were initially housed in one metal casing, and the input/output connections were constructed identically to those of the Reticon device described previously. The power supply requirements are ± 15 V at 20mA each and +5V at 120mA, so that the power supplies of section 6.2.3 could be used to drive both the Reticon and Hamamatsu electronics.

6.3.3 Alignment procedure : S2304 -512F / C2325-C2335

This section gives a brief description of the setup procedure for the C2325 evaluation board and S2304-512F photodiode array. Further details are available in 'Operational Instructions for the C2325 Series Evaluation Board' published by Hamamatsu. The following images were obtained with the array in the dark, at a temperature of $\sim 25^\circ\text{C}$.

The 'reference clock' frequency was set to 200 kHz, which is the maximum that the C2325-C2335 combination can achieve, giving a video rate of 50kHz. The integration time was set at 20 msec, which is the shortest usable value available on the C2335 board. Figure 6.6a shows the output of the 'video monitor' signal as displayed on the Tektronix oscilloscope. This signal corresponds to the integrated video current signal, and is used for

Figure 6.6a Unaligned Video Monitor Signal

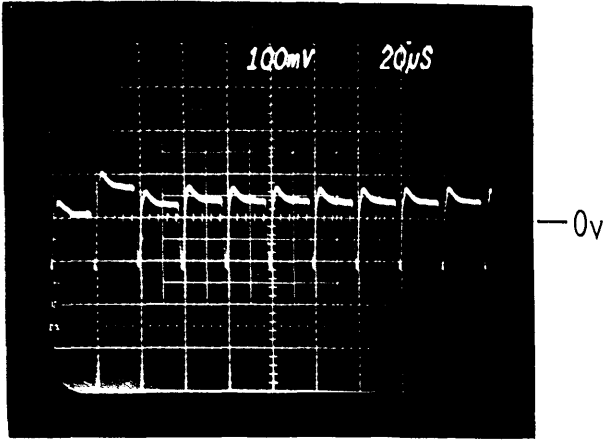


Figure 6.6b Zero Level Adjusted To Ground

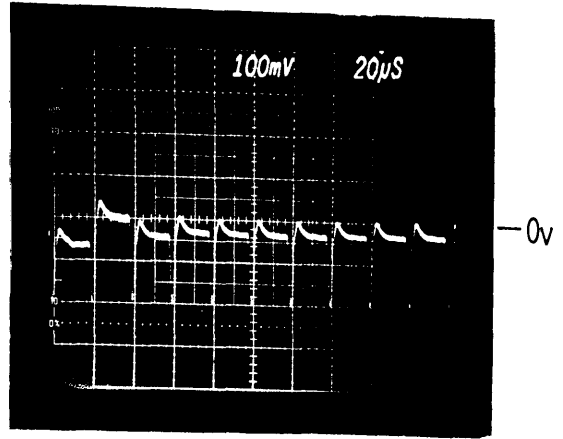


Figure 6.6c Reset Pulses Nulled

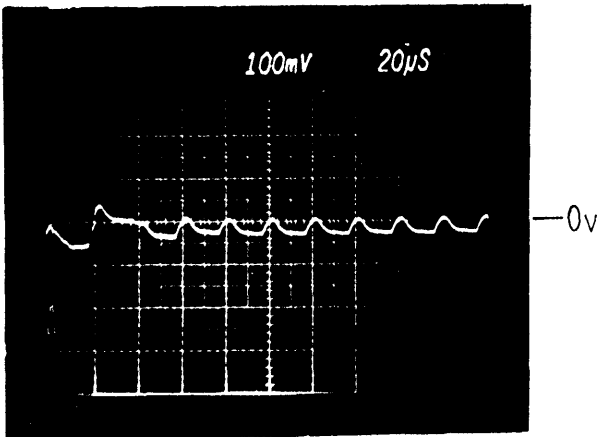
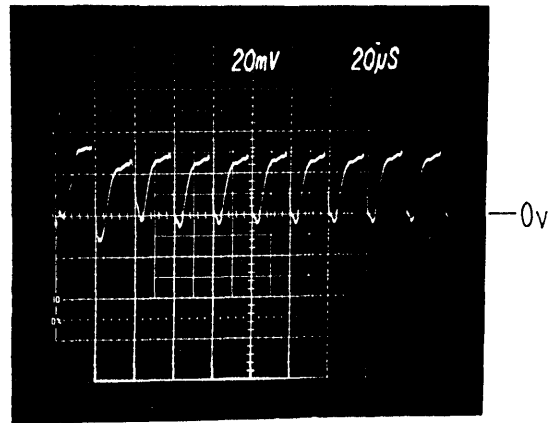


Figure 6.6d Correctly Aligned Video Signal



1997 Alignment Procedure for Hamamatsu C2304-512F
Photodiode Array On C2325 Driver / Amplifier Board

adjusting the switching noise cancellation and setting the output zero level. Figure 6.6b shows the zero level adjusted to the oscilloscope ground, and figure 6.6c shows the 'video monitor' signal after the reset pulses have been nulled out. The resultant correctly adjusted video signal is shown in figure 6.6d. As can be seen there is no odd-even type pattern in the signal due to the single video line, and the output waveform is a pulse rather than a sampled and held type signal. The rounded edges and uneven tops of each pixel are probably due to the fact that the board is operating at near maximum speed. As the clock frequency is lowered, each pixel becomes more 'box like', however the rms noise is little altered, so that the dynamic range does not change.

6.4 DIGITISING THE VIDEO SIGNALS

For quantitative measurements the diode array video signals must be digitised and stored in computer memory for further processing. The actual conversion time must be fast enough to match the diode readout rate, and sufficiently precise to complement the dynamic range of the array. The following sections describe the digital timing / analogue-digital conversion electronics built to enable computer controlled acquisition of the video data from both diode arrays, via a 68000 microprocessor monoboard computer. Two circuits are required to cope with the different timing signals and number of pixels from each array. These circuits were constructed on the same PCB and shared some logic gates. Selection of the required circuit is by an external hardware switch.

6.4.1 Digital timing / interface circuits RL128S

The timing diagram for the output signals from the RC 1024S evaluation board and the interface circuit is shown in figure 6.7. As can be seen from this and figure 6.3e, the video signal is not constant over the four clock periods of each sample pulse. Obviously the digitisation point should be well away from the sample pulse feedthrough in the first clock period, and consequently it was decided to sample in the fourth clock period, where the signal changes least rapidly. Referring to figure 6.7 the first pixel occurs on the 10th clock period after the positive edge of the 'start scan signal'. The preferred sampling point appears 3 clock periods later, and then every fourth subsequent clock period until the scan ends.

The digital timing circuit constructed to digitise the video signal is shown in figure 6.8. Some extra components are included as these form part of the equivalent timing circuit for the Hamamatsu array, the two circuits being combined on one board using some common

Figure 6.7 Timing Diagram For Reticon RL128S-RC1024S

Clock 200 kHz

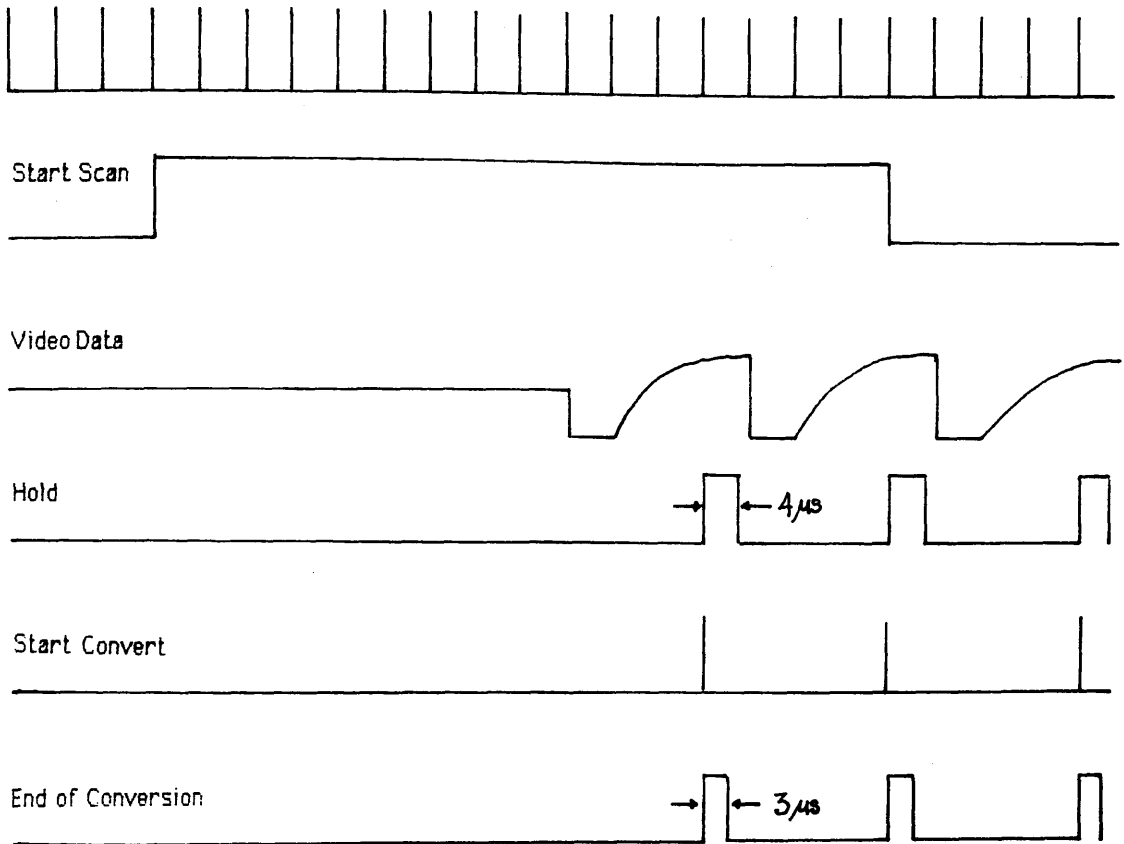
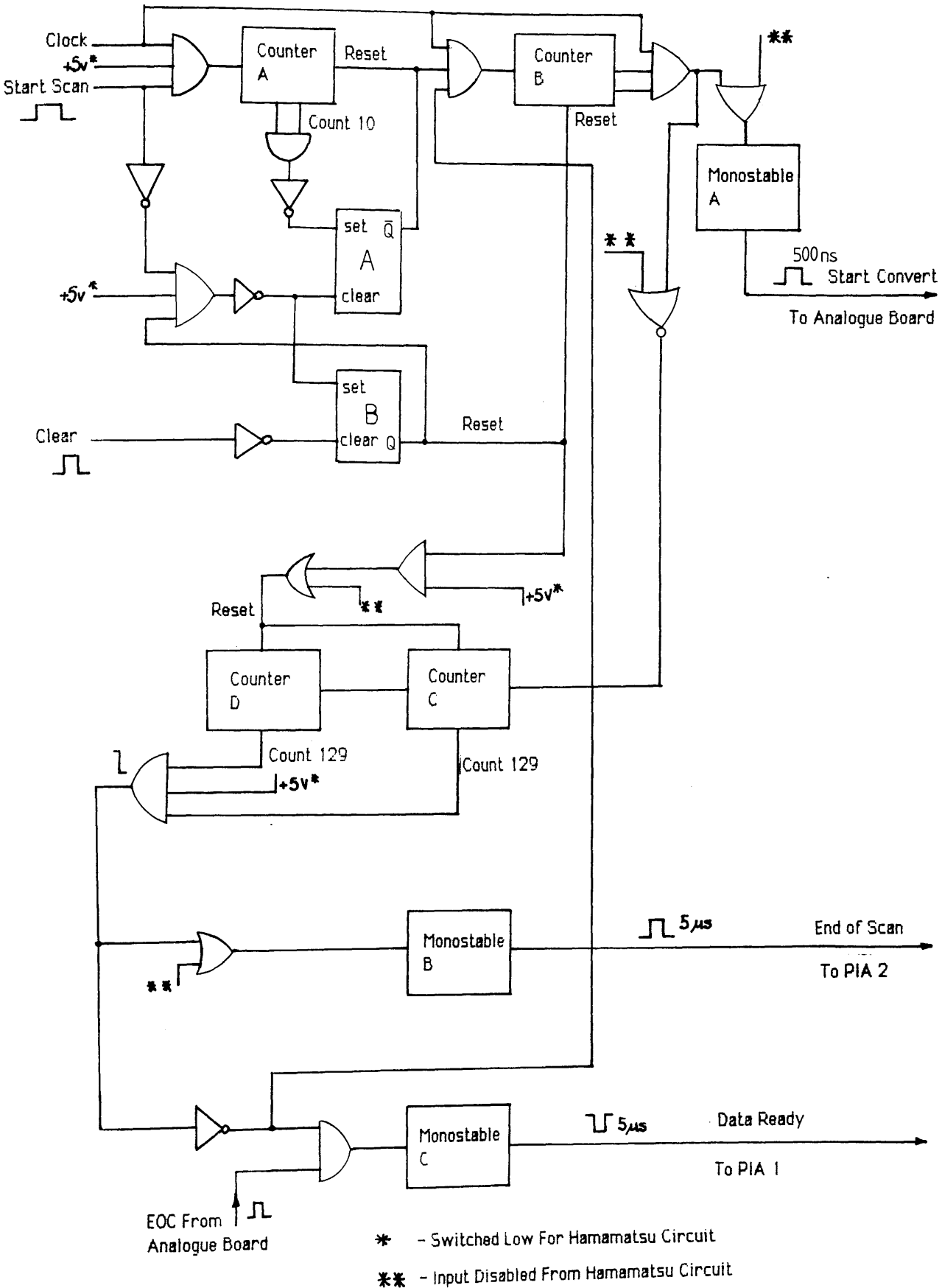


Figure 6.8 Digital Timing Circuit - Reticon RL128S / RC1024 SA



elements. The operation is as follows:

- 1) Initialisation is implemented by a 'clear' pulse from the microprocessor board. Prior to the 'clear' pulse, the output of flip-flop B is unchanged from its value at the end of the previous scan i.e. high (at power on the output is indeterminate, and one 'dummy' scan may be necessary to set up this gate), thus binary counter A is 'reset'.
- 2) The arrival of the 'clear' pulse sets the output of flip-flop A high, causing binary counters B, C, and D to be held in the 'reset' condition. If the 'start scan' input is low, the output of flip-flop B is set low, enabling counter A and disabling the clock input to counter B. The falling edge of the 'clear' pulse causes flip-flop A to reset to low, enabling counters B, C, and D.
- 3) The system now waits for the leading edge of the next 'start scan' pulse, which allows the diode clock pulses to trigger counter A. After 10 clock pulses (i.e. 9 clock periods) the output of A is used to set flip-flop B output high, thus enabling the passage of clock pulses to counter B and putting counter A at 'reset'.
- 4) Counter B is wired as a divide by four gate, giving one sampling pulse for every four clock pulses, so that the first and subsequent pulses output from B coincide with the desired sampling points. These sampling pulses are used to trigger two monostable oscillators which provide the 'start convert' and 'hold' pulses for the analogue board, 500 nsecs for the former and 4 μ secs for the latter.
- 5) The signals from counter B are simultaneously applied to counters C and D, which are wired together to count 129 pulses. On the 129th pulse three things happen; the input to counter B is disabled until the next 'clear' pulse, thus inhibiting the 'start convert' pulses to the analogue board, the 'data ready' pulses described in section 6.4.3 are inhibited, and an 'end of scan' pulse is sent to interrupt the microprocessor and terminate the data transfer.

It is possible in step 2) above that the 'clear' pulse could arrive anywhere during the time when the 'start scan' pulse was high. In this case counter A is not enabled until the falling edge of the 'start scan' pulse, and the rest of the scan is ignored, as counter B cannot receive clock pulses until after the arrival of the next 'start scan' pulse.

The digital timing electronics were housed in a metal casing along with the analogue electronics described in section 6.4.3, on separate circuit boards. All external signal connections to the RL 1024 SA board were made by shielded coaxial cables using BNC connectors, and the regulated power supply used was a separate unit from the supplies used to drive the photodiode evaluation board.

6.4.2 Digital timing / interface circuits : S2304-512F

The timing diagram for the output signals from the C2325 driver/amplifier board is given in figure 6.9. The digitisation procedure is made simpler than that for the Reticon diode by the presence of the 'trigger' pulses, and the fact that the falling edge of the 'start' pulse corresponds with the start of the first pixel. The digital timing circuit constructed is shown in figure 6.10. As before, some of the components are shared with the Reticon circuit. The operation is as follows:

- 1) Initiation is implemented by a 'clear' pulse from the microprocessor board. Prior to the clear pulse, the output of flip-flops A, B, and C are unchanged from their values at the end of the previous scan (at power on the outputs are indeterminate, so a 'dummy' scan is sometimes necessary to set up the gates). The output Q of flip-flop A is low, inhibiting the 'start' pulse, the Q bar output of flip-flop B is high, such that the binary counters A,B,C are held at 'reset', while the complementary Q output being low inhibits the passage of 'trigger' pulses to monostable B. The Q output of flip-flop C is also low at this point.
- 2) The rising edge of the 'clear' pulse causes flip-flop A to change state, enabling the passage of the next 'start' pulse to flip-flop B.
- 3) Upon receipt of the rising edge of the 'start' pulse flip-flop B changes state. Output Q bar goes low, enabling counters A,B,C, and output Q goes high so that 'trigger' pulses are able to clock the counters. At the same time as B changes, the Q output of flip-flop C changes from low to high, enabling the passage of 'trigger' pulses to the analogue board via monostable B, which produces a 500nsec 'start' pulse for every 'trigger' pulse.
- 4) The operation continues until 512 'trigger' pulses have been counted by counters A,B,C, at which point the Q output of flip-flop C is set low, disabling the 'start convert' pulses.

Figure 6.9 Timing Diagram For Hamamatsu S2304-512F / C2325

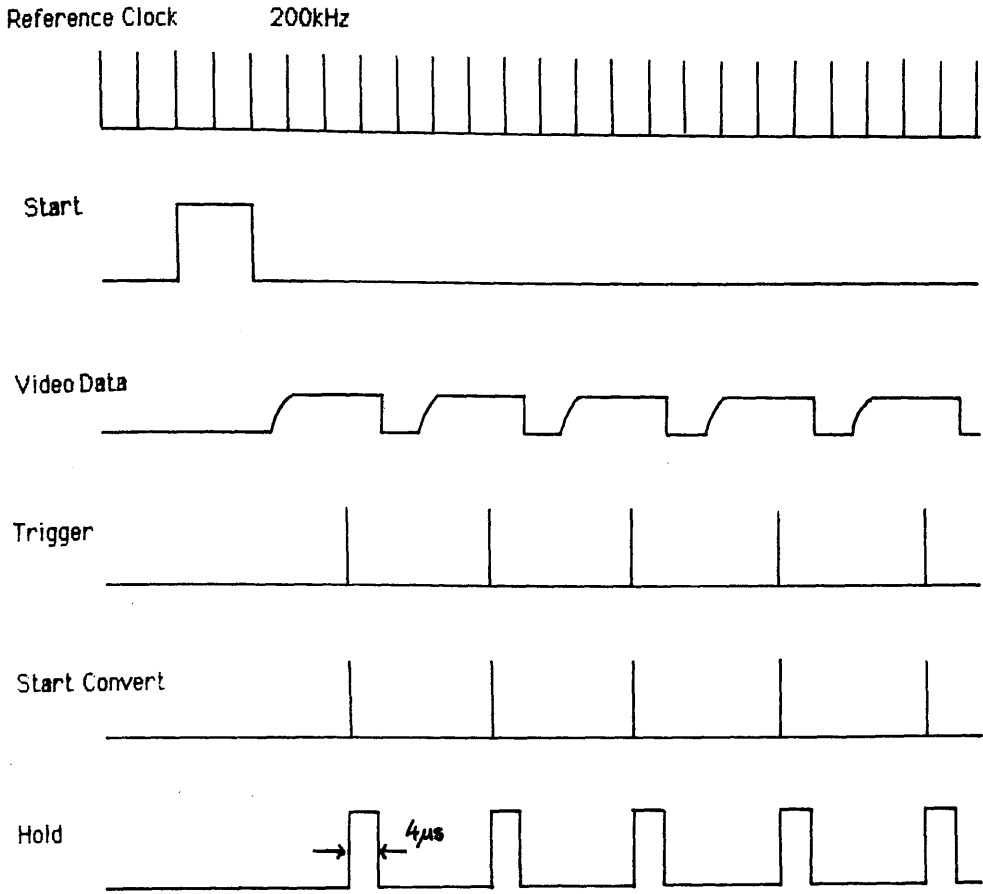
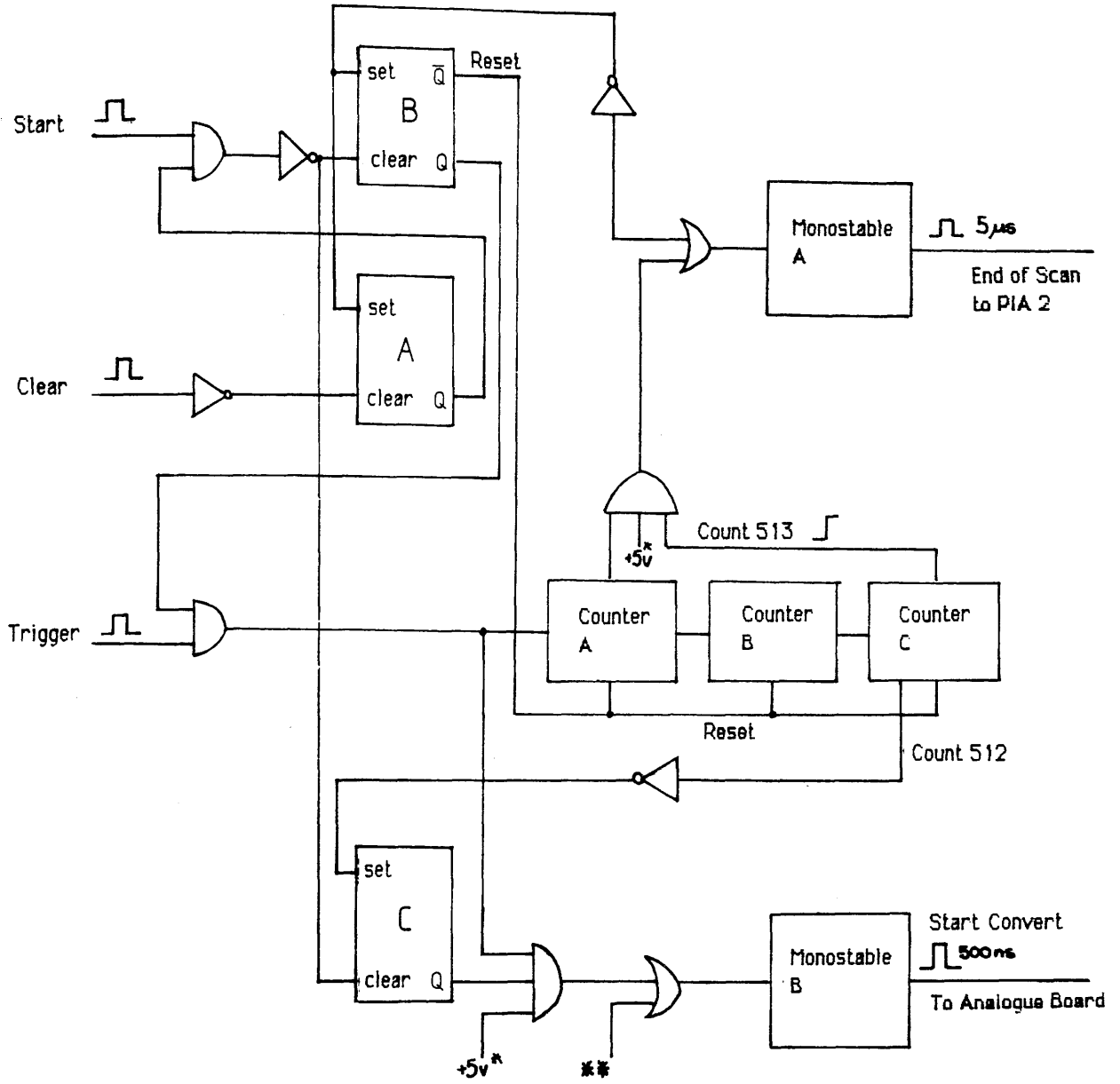


Figure 6.10 Digital Timing Circuit - Hamamatsu S2304-512F / C2325



* - Switched Low For Reticon Circuit

** - Input Disabled From Reticon Circuit

- 5) On the 513th count an 'end of scan' pulse is sent to the microprocessor by monostable A, flip-flop B output changes state to 'reset' the counters and inhibit the 'trigger' signals, and flip-flop A output goes low to block any further 'start' pulses reaching flip-flop B. The circuit now waits for the next 'clear' pulse from the processor.

6.4.3 Analogue to digital conversion circuit : HTC 0300A / AD 578-L

The rms single pixel dynamic range of the RL 128 S array /RC 1024 SA evaluation board, defined as the ratio of the peak signal / rms noise on one pixel, is specified to be $> 10000:1$. This figure corresponds to ~ 9000 electrons rms noise. The equivalent figure quoted for the S2304-512F array /C2325 driver-amplifier is a dynamic range of $15000:1$, corresponding to ~ 3100 rms electrons noise. Thus, it can readily be seen that for both these devices single electron detection in the indirect mode is not likely, unless an extremely efficient 100 keV electron-photon conversion efficiency can be achieved.

The above figure of $15000:1$ dynamic range requires a conversion accuracy of 14 bits if the ADC is not to limit the dynamic range of the output. Conversion speed is also a critical factor; from the previous sections the digitisation and memory transfer cycle must be complete within four clock periods, i.e. with a clock frequency of 200 kHz $20\mu\text{secs}$. Unfortunately, the cost of ADCs rises rapidly with conversion speed and number of bits, so it was decided that, for the purposes of evaluation, the digital accuracy should be compromised slightly in favour of conversion speed. This allocated the maximum amount of time to the transfer of the digital information into memory, so that special high speed electronics, such as direct memory access (DMA) systems were not necessary.

The ADC chosen was an Analogue Devices AD578 L 12 bit successive approximation converter with a maximum conversion time of $3\mu\text{secs}$. The video signal was sampled using an Analogue Devices HTC 0300A track and hold amplifier, which can track a 10V step in input voltage to an accuracy of 0.01% in 300 nsecs. The layout of the analogue board is shown in figure 6.11. The op-amps are Analogue Devices AD711 units, which settle to an accuracy of 0.01% in $1\mu\text{sec}$, with a slew rate of $18\text{V}/\mu\text{sec}$ at unity gain. Considerable care was exercised to obtain the best possible performance from the components used. All the analogue components were wire-wrapped onto an isolated circuit board, with an integral ground plane. The power supply lines were capacitively decoupled following the manufacturers advice, and solid state transient suppressors were used to protect the devices from power 'glitches'. The analogue circuit board was housed in the same casing as the digital timing circuits. Input and output connections to the microprocessor were made using

a standard 40 pin ribbon cable connector.

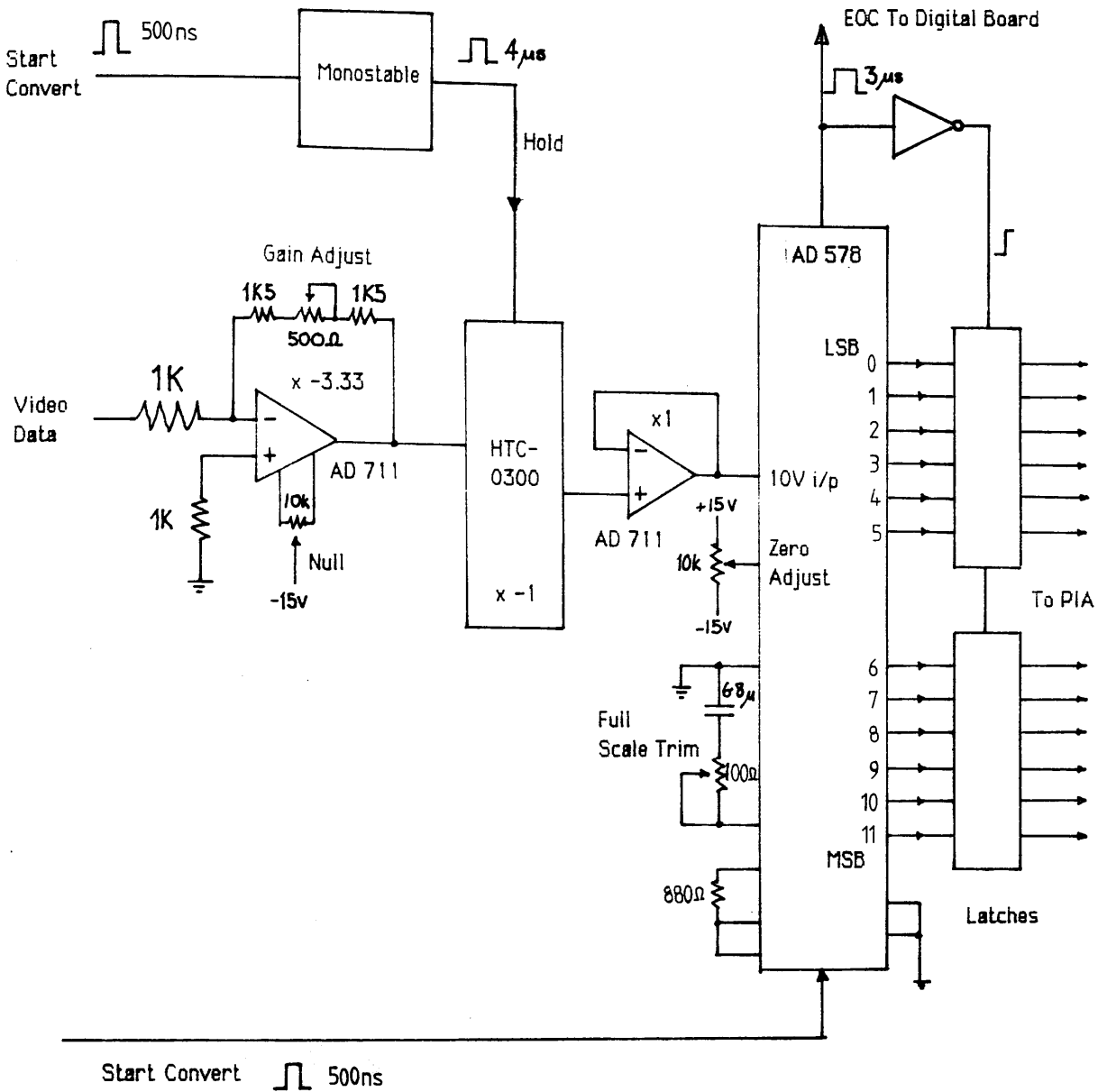
The principal operational difficulty was found to be the noise performance of the HTC-0300A track/hold amplifier, which proved to be ultra-sensitive to power supply variations and circuit layout. The final circuit design of figure 6.11 is the best of many different configurations tested, and is relatively noise free. Unfortunately there is no protection circuitry in the signal path, since any additional components (e.g. zener diodes etc) always seemed to degrade the performance, so great care has to be taken that the analogue input does not exceed $\pm 3V$. The operation of the circuit is as follows:

- 1) The analogue video signal is amplified by $-3.33x$, to match the 0-3V signal from the evaluation board to the 0-10V signal required by the ADC. The HTC 0300A has a gain of $-1x$, so that the signal applied to the input of the AD 578 via the unity gain buffer amp has the correct polarity.
- 2) The 'start convert' pulse from the digital timing board is applied simultaneously to the ADC as a 500 nsec pulse, and to the HTC 0300 as a 4 μ sec 'hold' command. At the instant the start convert pulse is applied, the end of conversion (EOC) output of the ADC goes high, and then 3 μ sec later switches to low when the conversion is complete and the data is valid.
- 3) The negative going edge of the EOC signal from the ADC is used to trigger two 8 bit digital latches, causing the output of the ADC lines to be transferred to the output of the latches, where it can be read by the microprocessor. The latched output remains until the next conversion is complete. After every conversion the EOC signal triggers a monostable on the digital board to produce a negative edge on a control line which acts as a 'data ready' flag for the microprocessor. The operation of the microprocessor controller is discussed in more detail in section 6.5.1.

6.5 COMPUTER INTERFACING : Motorola 68000 monoboard - VME system

Once the video data has been digitised it must be read by a computer and stored in memory ready for processing. The computer must also provide and receive timing pulses, such as the 'clear' and 'data ready' signals mentioned in section 6.4. This section describes the operation of the Motorola 68000 microprocessor system used to provide the hardware

Figure 6.11 Analogue To Digital Conversion Circuit



interfacing between the A-D / digital timing circuit, and a Motorola VME minicomputer system.

6.5.1 The microprocessor board: Motorola MC68000 KDM

The Motorola MC68000 KDM monoboard computer includes a 16 bit Motorola 68000 microprocessor with 32k bytes of dynamic RAM, two 16 bit peripheral interface adapter ports (PIA1,PIA2), along with other facilities such as 16 bit timers etc. Communication to the board is provided by two asynchronous communication ports (ACIAs). One ACIA is configured to be connected to a standard RS-232C data terminal, and the other is configured to simulate an RS-232C terminal, enabling communication with a host computer. Selection of a transparent mode allows the KDM board to be bypassed, so that a program can be directly created on the host computer and then downloaded into the microprocessor memory for execution. Similarly, the contents of the microprocessor memory can be uploaded into the host computer for processing and display.

Figure 6.12 shows the PIA input/output connections. The PIA ports are wired in such a way that the A peripheral data registers (PDRA1,PDRA2) from each port can be read simultaneously using one 16 bit read operation addressed to PDRA2. The system is configured so that the four most significant bits from the ADC are read by the A3 to A0 lines of PIA2, and the eight least significant bits are read by the A7-A0 lines of PIA1. Line A4 of PIA2 is used as an output line to provide the 'clear' pulse to initialise the timing circuit. All other data lines are grounded. Control line CA1 of PIA1 is an input line which registers the 'data ready' pulse generated by the end of conversion (EOC) signal from the ADC, and control line CA1 of PIA2 is used as an interrupt input which reads the 'end of scan' pulse from the timing circuit.

6.5.2 Acquisition software

The assembly language program which controls the data acquisition is listed in appendix 5. The program provides all the necessary instructions to acquire 10 consecutive digitised video scans from either the Hamamatsu or Reticon arrays, and store the data in memory. In practice, the program is stored on disk in the VME host computer system. The assembled machine code program is downloaded into the KDM board for execution, and the digitised video data is uploaded back to the VME system for processing. The program operation is as follows:

- 1) Assign various constants and address locations required in the program.

Figure 6.12 Microprocessor Interfacing Circuit

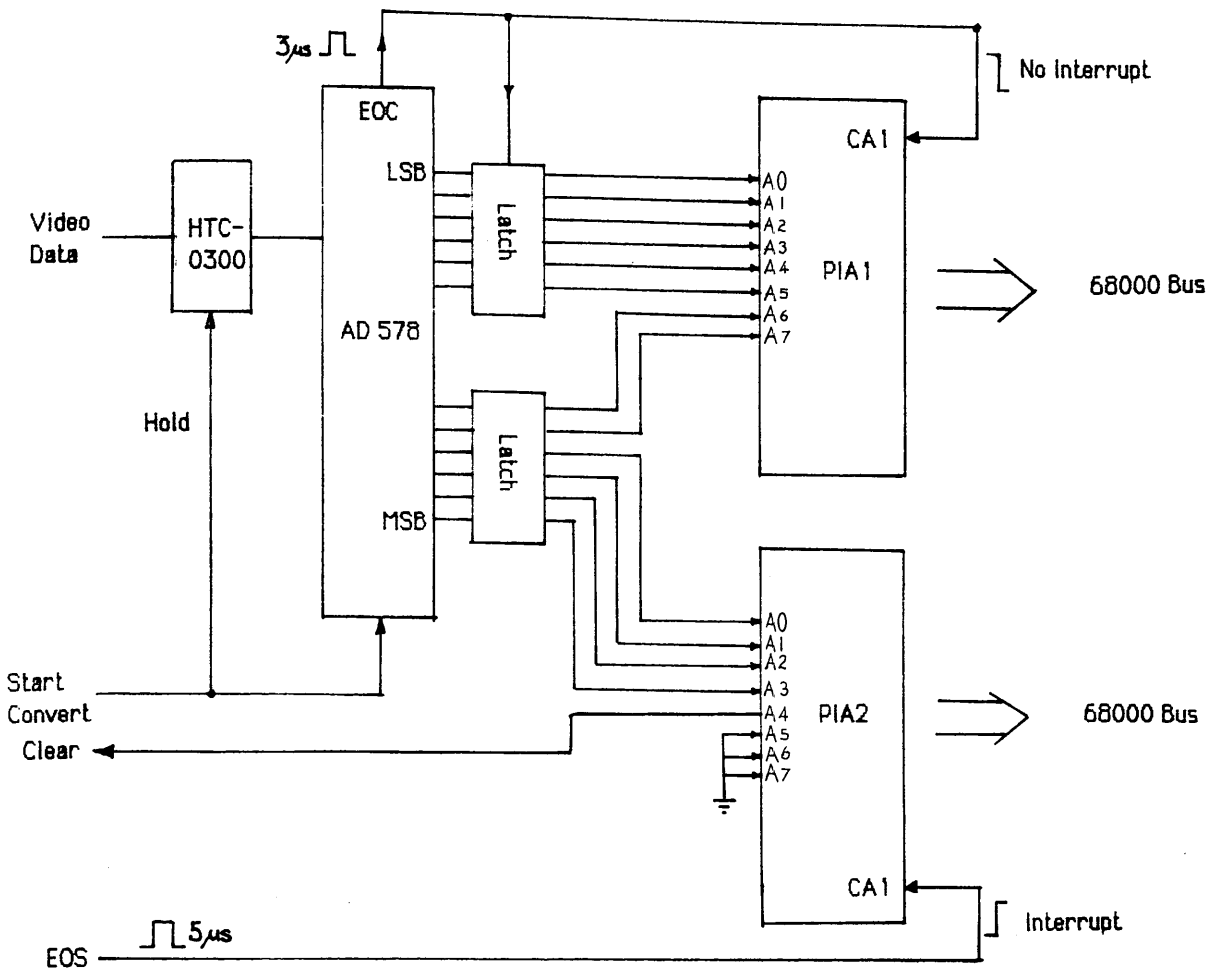
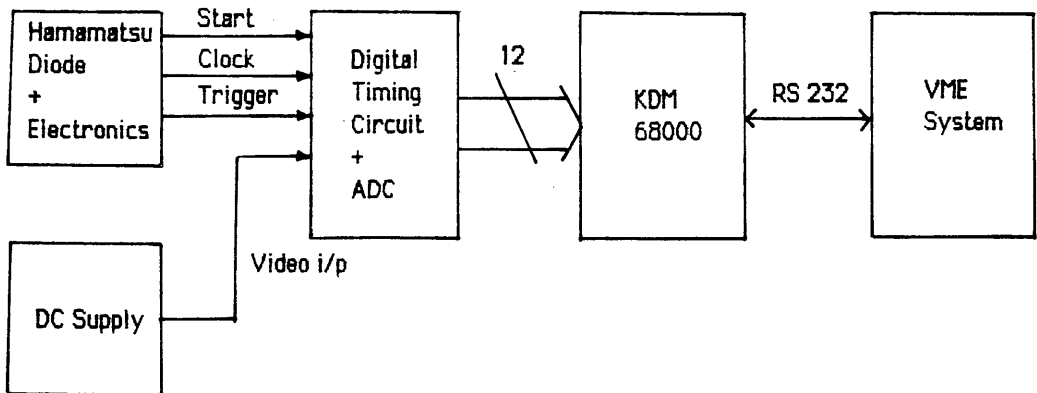


Figure 6.13 Testing The Acquisition System



- 2) Clear a block of memory for the data.
- 3) Set up the PIA lines as inputs or outputs as described in the previous section. Line CA1 of PIA1 ('data ready') is initialised to respond to a falling edge, but the interrupt is masked. Line CA1 of PIA2 ('end of scan') provides a processor interrupt on receipt of a rising edge.
- 4) The main program firstly checks to see if all 10 scans are complete, if they are the program terminates. If there are still scans left to acquire a 'clear' pulse is sent out to the digital timing circuit.
- 5) The program enters a read loop which is only terminated upon receipt of the 'end of scan' interrupt. Inside the loop the program continuously polls the 'data ready' line. If the line is set, a 16 bit read takes place, transferring the data from the PIAs to memory.
- 6) When the 'end of scan' interrupt arrives the program control is transferred to an interrupt service routine. This routine firstly causes 16 blank bytes to be inserted in memory after the last received data byte, in order to serve as an end of scan marker. The interrupt flag is then cleared, control is returned to the main program and the cycle repeats until 10 scans have been completed.

The main difficulty the program must overcome is the relatively high data rate of the video signal i.e. 50kHz. Allowing at least 3 μ secs for the conversion, the time remaining for data detection, transfer and storage is <17 μ secs. This is not long enough for the standard handshaking/interrupt type interface between the processor and the ADC to be used. In order to speed up the transfer process the simple polling routine of step 5) is used. The actual loop consists of only four instructions, which take \sim 32 machine cycles to execute, i.e. at 8MHz clock rate the loop takes around 4 μ sec. This time does not include overheads such as time spent refreshing the dynamic RAM, so that the actual average execution time is longer. Nevertheless this program enables data rates of up to \sim 75kHz to be acquired comfortably.

6.5.3 The VME host minicomputer system.

The Motorola VME host minicomputer system is a stand alone computer based on the 68000 microprocessor and running the VERSADOS operating system, which is compatible with the

KDM board. Data and programs are stored on an integral hard disk, or on 5 inch floppy disks. Serial ports are available for up to three terminals, and there is also a parallel printer port. Read/write communication with the KDM microprocessor board is via one of the terminal ports. The assembly language acquisition program described previously was written and debugged on this computer using the resident 68000 assembler.

At the start of an experiment the assembled code is downloaded to the KDM board as a series of 'S records' under VERSADOS control. After the microprocessor has finished the scans and stored all the video data in RAM, it is transferred back up to the VME system and stored in a data file again in 'S record' format. Each record consists of 8 identifier characters, 32 hexadecimal numbers corresponding to eight 16-bit conversions, followed by two checksum characters. An interactive Fortran program, NRUN, was written to read this data file and convert the hexadecimal numbers to decimal figures for further processing. This, and other such programs are described more fully in chapter 7.

6.5.4 Testing the acquisition system

A simple experiment was carried out to check the operation of the data acquisition system. The equipment was set up as in figure 6.13, with the video signal from the Hamamatsu array replaced by a DC voltage, from a Time Electronics Model 2004 DC precision voltage supply. The 'reference clock' frequency was set at 200 kHz, to give a sampling rate of 50 kHz. A series of complete scans, consisting of 512 conversions, were acquired and transferred to the host computer where the data was converted to decimal format and displayed on a monitor. The average value of each scan and the standard deviation about the mean σ were then calculated.

The AD 578 is a 12 bit converter, so that the digital output varies from 0 (all bits off) to 4095 (all bits on). The input voltage range is 10 volts, therefore one least significant bit (LSB) corresponds to 2.44 mV. However, in terms of the video output signal 1 LSB corresponds to 0.723 mV, because of the x3.33 gain introduced before the sample and hold amplifier. The continuous analogue signal is partitioned into 4096 discrete ranges for 12 bit conversion, so that all analogue values within a 1 bit range are represented by the same digital code which is nominally the midrange value. This implies a quantising uncertainty of $\pm 1/2$ LSB, i.e. ± 0.366 mV.

The ADC was set up so that the transition from all bits off to LSB on occurred at an input voltage of $+1/2$ LSB i.e. 0.366 mV, and the final transition to all bits on occurred at full scale

- 3/2 LSB i.e. 2.9989V. Having fixed the end points of the conversion, the input voltage was varied and the experimental conversion value was compared to the theoretical value. The purpose of averaging the 512 nominally identical readings in each scan was to reduce the effects of random electrical noise, so that a true measure of the system linearity could be obtained. Figure 6.14a is a plot of the absolute deviation from the theoretical conversion value, against the theoretical conversion value. As can be seen, the values are well within the $\pm 1/2$ LSB quantisation error over the whole range, indicating that non-linearity effects are negligible. The corresponding plot of the standard deviation σ about the mean of each scan, against theoretical conversion value is shown in figure 6.14b. It can be seen that, for the most part, σ is less than 1/2 LSB indicating that the noise performance of the circuit is acceptable.

6.6 VACUUM CHAMBER AND COOLING SYSTEM

The experiments described in chapter 7 were carried out in the vacuum system of a JEOL JEM 100 C electron microscope. The vacuum chamber shown in figure 6.15 was attached below the microscope camera chamber in the position normally occupied by the STEM detector, so that the arrays could be exposed to the electron beam. The chamber is made of brass ~1.5 cm thick to absorb X-rays generated by the 100 keV electrons. Figure 6.16 is a photograph of the entire detection system in situ, showing the vacuum chamber, power supplies, and electronics used to drive the array

6.6.1 Mounting the photodiodes in the vacuum system

The Hamamatsu C2325 driver/amplifier board measures 10.6 cm by 6.3 cm so that it is small enough to fit inside the vacuum chamber. The RC 1024 SA evaluation board is much too large to do this, so that a special preamplifier board similar in size to the C2325 was constructed, to operate the Reticon array in vacuum. The C2325 board has a slot cut directly beneath the diode array, exposing the underside of the device for ease of cooling. A similar slot was cut in the preamp board built for the Reticon array.

Inside the vacuum chamber the circuit boards were sprung mounted on four insulating pillars, in order to force the back of the arrays into good thermal contact with the cold surface of a Peltier cooler, described in section 6.6.2. The Peltier cooler was mounted on a copper pillar attached to a copper vacuum flange, designed so that the entire cooling assembly could be removed independently from the baseplate. Electrical connections to the cooler were made

Figure 6.14a Linearity of Analogue - Digital Conversion System

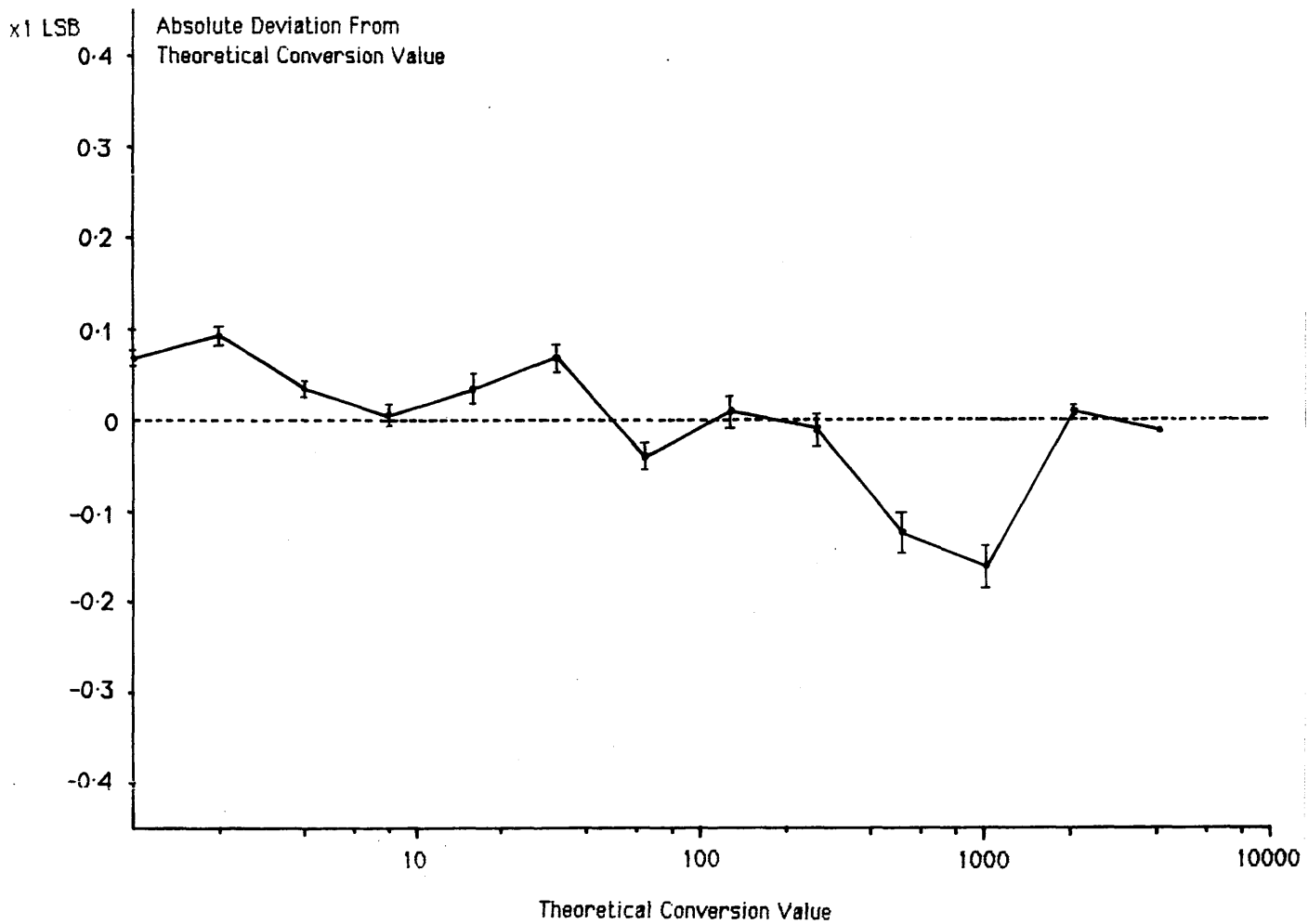


Figure 6.14b Noise Performance of Analogue - Digital Conversion System

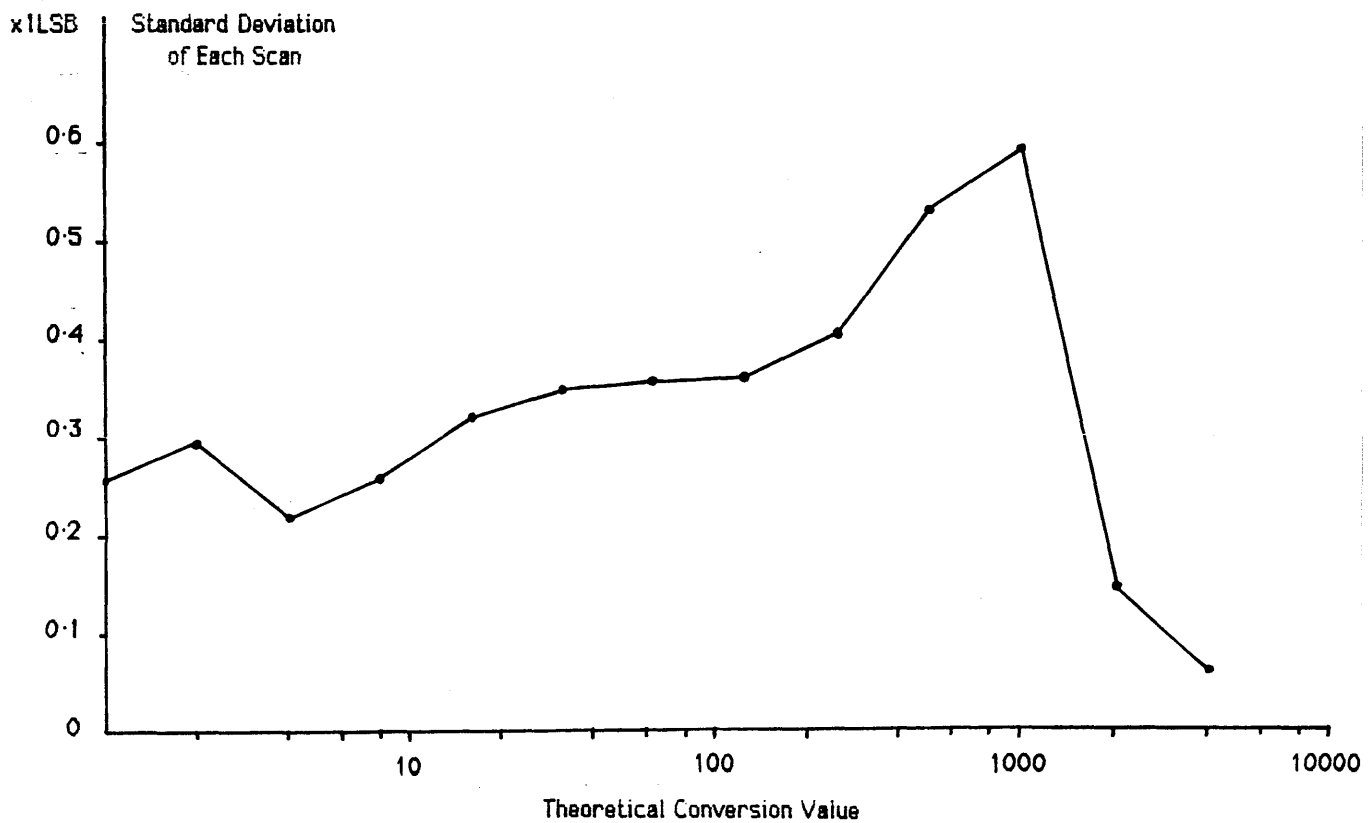


Figure 6.15 Vacuum Chamber, Diode Mounting and Cooling System

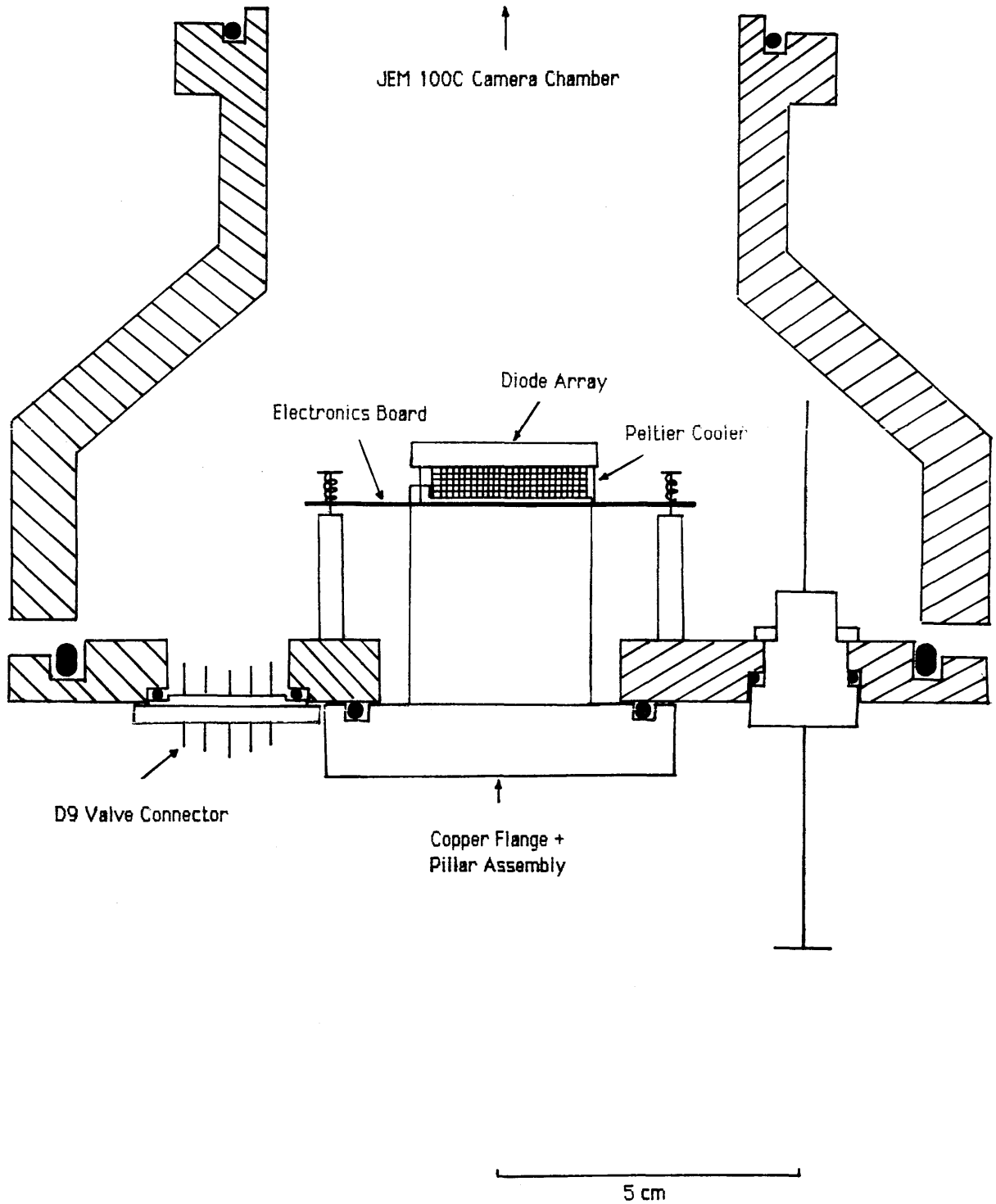
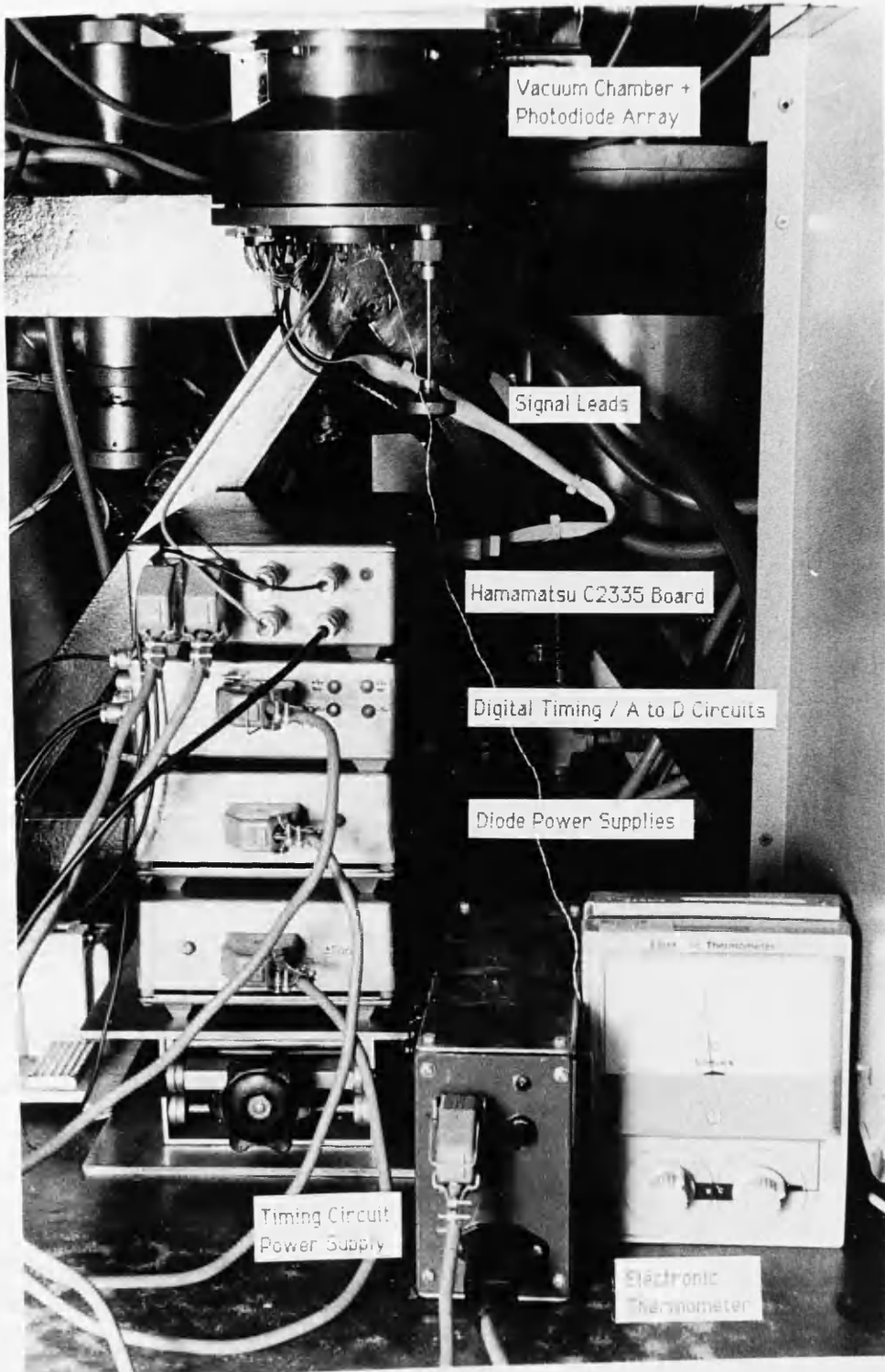


Figure 3-10 Prototype Detection System Attached to JEM 100C



through two metal-to-glass seals hard soldered into the copper flange. A further metal-to-glass seal carried a pair of thermocouple wires, used for temperature monitoring.

The electrical signals used to drive the arrays were made via three D9 valve connectors which were vacuum sealed with O rings and a metal clamping plate. In this way up to 27 separate electrical connections could be made. The rotatable vacuum rod was originally included to enable a beam blanking plate to be positioned over the array, but was never used in practice.

6.6.2 The Peltier cooling system

At low light levels the maximum integration time that can be used in a photodiode array is limited by the build up of charge due to the dark leakage current. For example, at 25 °C the cells of the Reticon RL 128 S array are fully saturated in the dark after ~ 3 secs. In order to increase the integration time, and reduce the dark current shot noise, the array must be cooled. The most convenient method of cooling is to use a Peltier or thermoelectric cooler. The device employed was a single stage, 6 couple device manufactured by Midland Ross/Cambion for the purpose of cooling integrated circuits. The device number is 801-1029-01, the active area measures 26mm x 7.6mm, and the height is 5.3mm. The cooler is capable of maintaining a temperature difference of 60°C between its hot and cold surfaces.

Silver loaded thermally conductive epoxy resin was used to bond the cooler directly to the copper pillar. The copper pillar and flange were designed to act as a heat sink by conducting the excess heat away to the main body of the chamber, and the temperature of the cold surface of the cooler was monitored using a Cu/Ni thermocouple connected to a Comark electronic thermometer. Good thermal contact between the cold surface and the photodiode array was ensured by the mechanical action of the spring loading, and some thermal paste applied to the junction. Power for the Peltier cooler was supplied using a Powerline LAB 515 10 amp regulated d.c. power supply.

Figure 6.17a is a plot of the Peltier temperature as a function of the applied current. The experiment was performed in the vacuum chamber attached to the microscope, one curve represents the response with no heat load, and the other curve the response when cooling the Hamamatsu photodiode. The start temperatures differ due to the heat generated by the diode and surrounding electronics. As can be seen, with no load the temperature of the cold surface can be varied over a range $\Delta T \sim 60^\circ\text{C}$. The initial variation is roughly linear, and then the response starts to level off. The effect is more obvious in the curve with the heat

Figure 6.17a Peltier Temperature v Applied Current

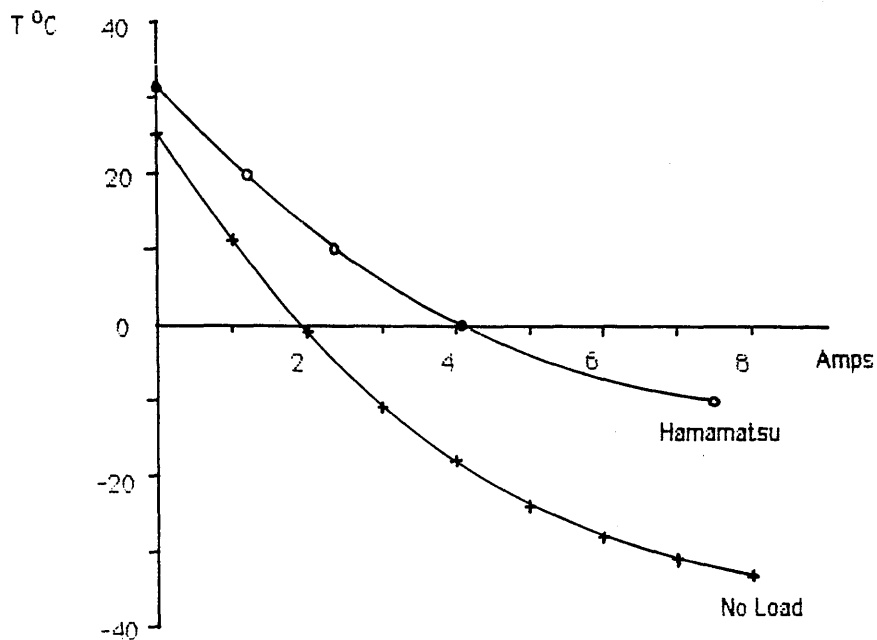
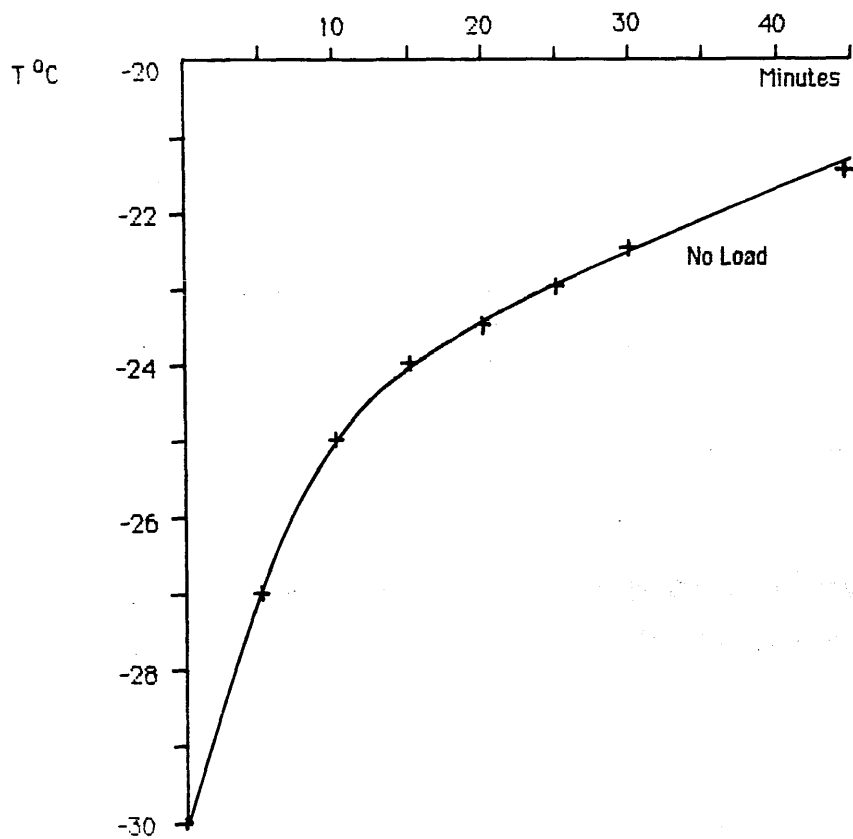


Figure 6.17b Temperature Stability of Cooling System I = 6 Amps



load. In this case the temperature range ΔT is reduced to $\sim 40^{\circ}\text{C}$, mostly because the copper heatsink does not dissipate the excess heat efficiently enough. With more efficient heatsinking ΔT could be made larger, and lower operating temperatures could be maintained.

The temperature stability was examined and the results for no heatload are given in figure 6.17b. Initially the Peltier current was fixed at 6A, giving a cold surface temperature of -30°C . This temperature tends to increase with time as the heat removed from the cold surface is transferred to the copper flange, causing the hot surface temperature of the cooler to rise. The flange gradually heats up until some equilibrium point is reached, when the heat extracted from the cold surface is just balanced by the heat dissipated from the flange. In an attempt to measure the time constant of this thermal drift the temperature was monitored (for a fixed Peltier Current of 6A) every 5 minutes up to 30 minutes, and then again at 45 minutes. After ~ 10 minutes, the change in temperature with time becomes roughly linear, with a gradient of $\sim 0.08^{\circ}\text{C}/\text{min}$. As can be seen from figure 6.17b the temperature was still rising at this rate after 45 minutes, indicating the presence of a very long equilibrium time constant, or possibly an external effect such as room heating. In comparison the longest integration time used in these experiments was 10 secs, so that this level of temperature stability was acceptable. Again, better heatsinking would decrease the drift rate.

6.7 OPERATION OF THE PHOTODIODE ARRAYS IN VACUUM

In order to operate the photodiode arrays in the vacuum system certain electrical modifications had to be made. As the Hamamatsu driver-amplifier board fitted inside the vacuum chamber, the only difference here was the increased separation of the C2335 and C2325 boards. On the other hand, the Reticon RL 128S array had to be completely removed from the RC 1024 SA evaluation board, and placed on a specially constructed preamplifier board. The design of this board, and the effects of vacuum operation on both arrays are discussed in the following sections.

6.7.1 Operating the Reticon RL 128S array in vacuum

Operating the RL 128 S array away from the RC 1024 SA board is not an entirely straightforward task, due to the sensitive nature of the device and its drive electronics. Special attention must be paid to the effects imposed by the increased capacitance associated with lengthy cable connections, both analogue and digital. The diode array must be physically close to the video signal preamplifier for successful operation; it cannot simply be

removed from the board on extended signal leads. Reticon have recently introduced a new satellite preamplifier board for S series photodiode arrays, which measures 11.4 cm x 5.1cm, and comes complete with a mother board containing the drive electronics. Unfortunately this was not available to be tested at the time of these experiments.

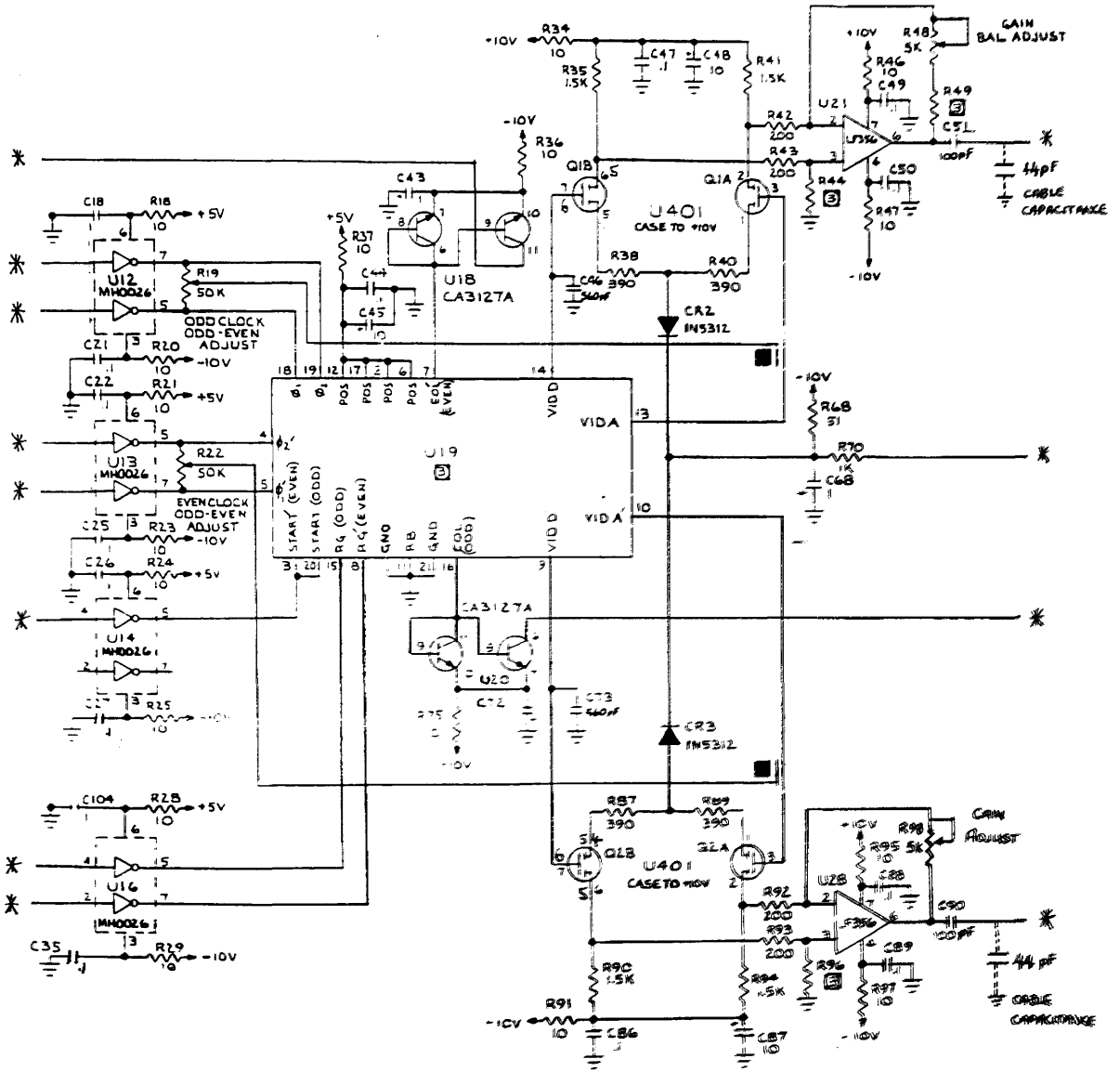
The preamplifier board constructed to operate the diode array in the vacuum system measured 10.9 cm x 6.8 cm, and was made from copper strip board with a top surface ground plane. Input and output connections were made using the three D9 valve base connections. External to the vacuum system, the digital connections were made using low-capacitance ribbon cable, whilst the two video outputs (odd and even) were carried by shielded coaxial cable to reduce noise pickup. The 40 cm long signal cable terminates in a standard RS 25 pin D connector socket, which plugs into the box containing the RC 1024 SA board.

The circuit diagram for the preamp board is shown in figures 6.18, and is virtually identical to the preamplifier stage of the RC1024 SA circuit. Certain modifications to the Reticon circuit were necessary; the capacitive coupling for the odd-even clock adjust is provided by the proximity of two PC tracks on the RC 1024 SA board. This was replaced on the preamp board by the capacitive coupling obtained by twisting together two short lengths of insulated wire connected to the relevant circuit points. Another difficulty was that the capacitance of the coaxial cables carrying the video signals is 44pF to ground, as shown in figure 6.18. This acted as a potential divider, reducing the overall gain of the amplifier circuit. In order to restore the gain to the correct value, the gain of op-amps U21 and U28 was increased by replacing their feedback resistors with 5k variable resistors. It was also found that the last two diodes in the scan, 127 and 128, would only operate in a linear fashion if the EOS (odd) line was grounded, and the EOS (even) line was loaded with 560 ohms to ground.

Figures 6.19 a and b show two dark scans, the first obtained with the photodiode array on the RC 1024 SA board, and the second obtained with the array on the preamplifier board. The integration time for both scans was 0.32 secs; the average values differ because the operating temperature of the RC 1024 SA board was $\sim 40^{\circ}\text{C}$, whilst the preamp board ran at $\sim 27^{\circ}\text{C}$. Clearly, the fixed pattern is essentially unchanged, except for diode 1 which is discounted anyway.

In order to examine the noise performance of the two configurations the reproducibility of dark scans was investigated, as a function of integration time. Figures 6.20 a ,b are graphs showing the results in each case, after subtraction of two consecutive dark scans. The video

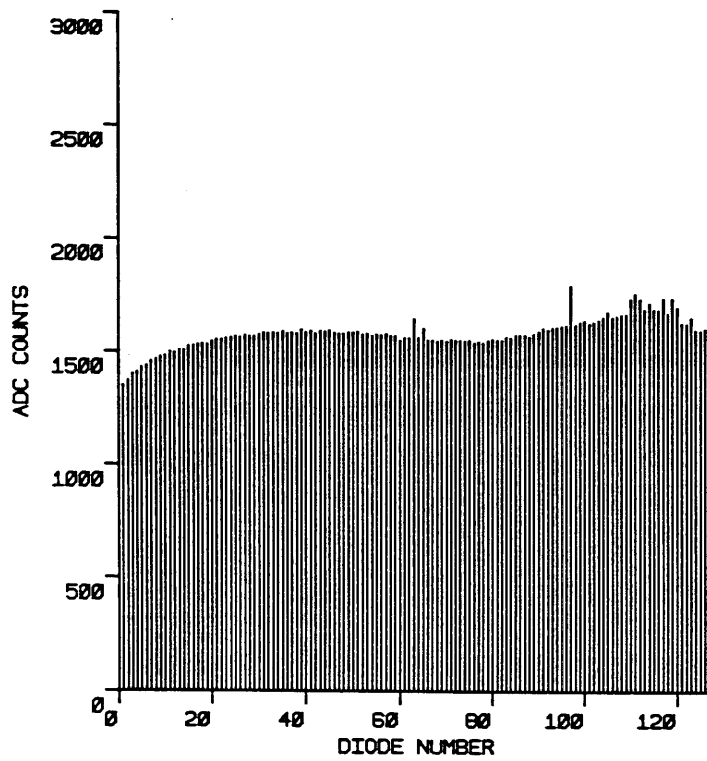
Figure 6.18 Circuit Diagram for Reticon Preamplifier Board



* - To Reticon RC1024 SA Evaluation Board

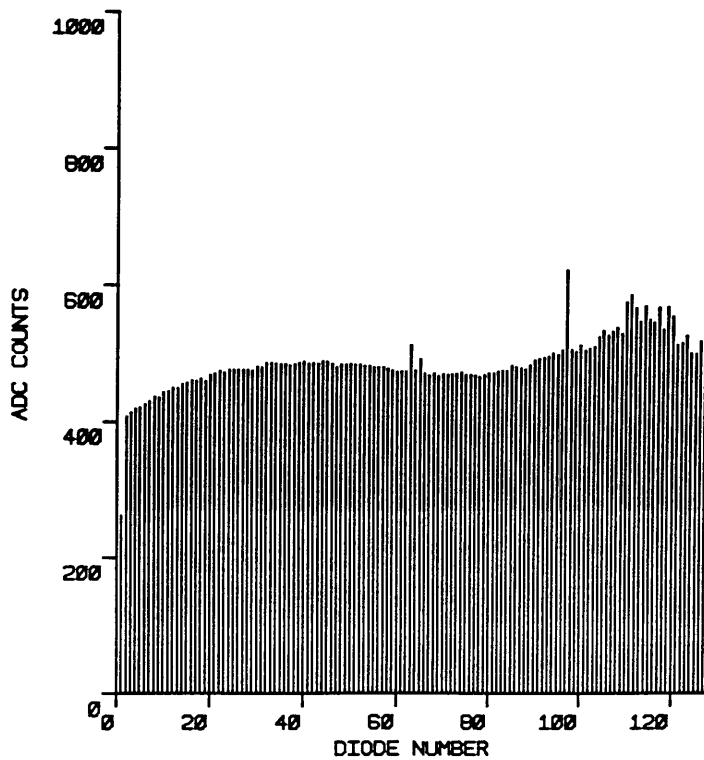
■ - Capacitive Coupling Provided By Short Twisted Wires

Figure 6.19a Reticon Dark Scan, Integration Time 0.32 sec, T = 40°C



Reticon RL128S RC1024SA Board

Figure 6.19b Reticon Dark Scan, Integration Time 0.32 sec, T = 27°C



Reticon RL128S Preamp Board

Figure 6.20a Reproducibility of Dark Scans - Reticon RL 128S

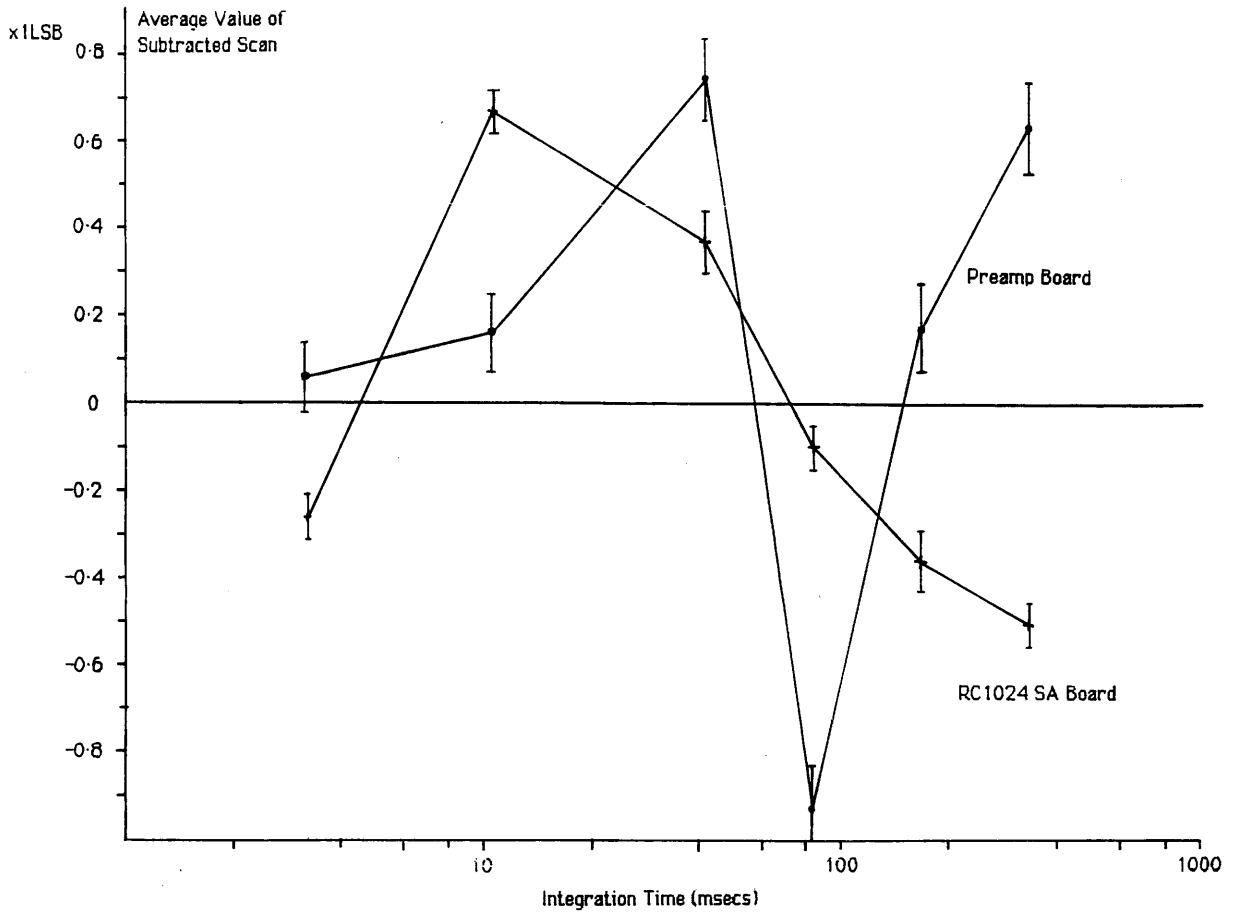


Figure 6.20b Noise Level In Subtracted Dark Scans - Reticon RL 128S

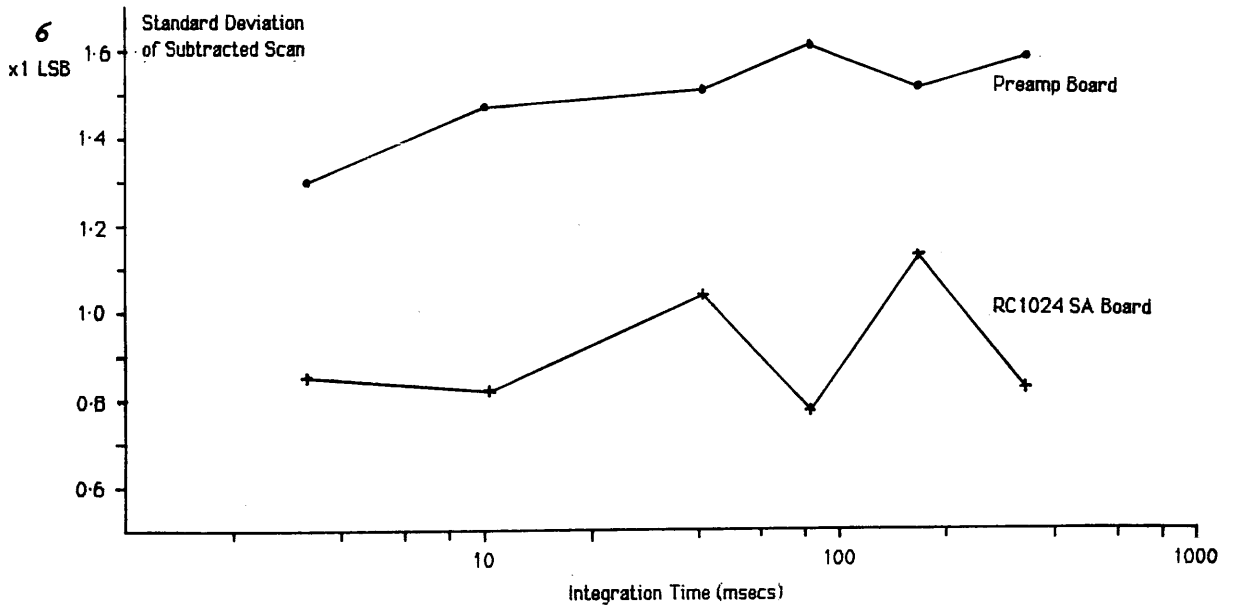


Figure 21a Reproducibility of Dark Scans - Hamamatsu S2304-512F

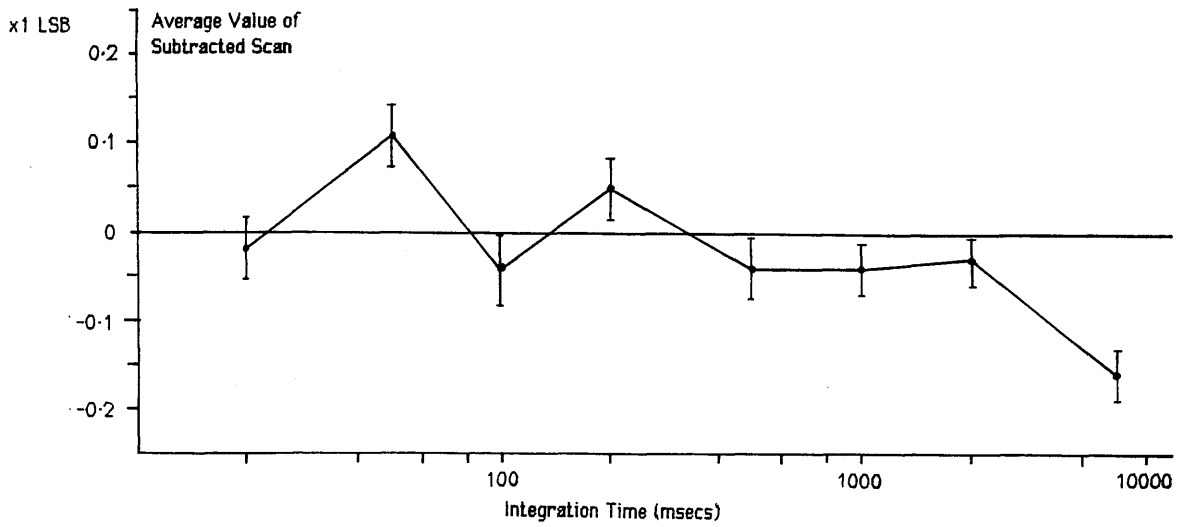
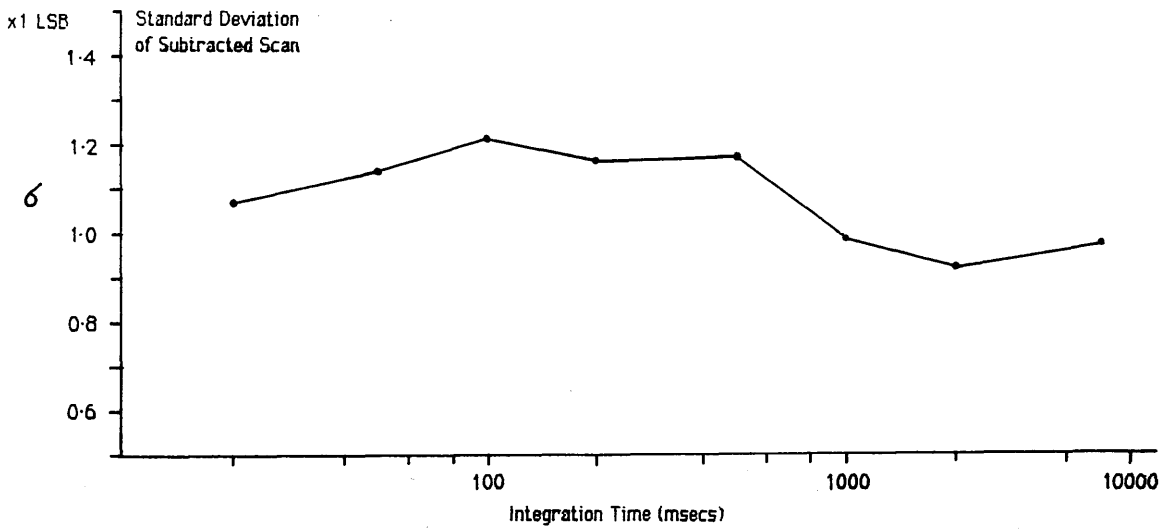


Figure 21b Noise Level In Subtracted Dark Scans - Hamamatsu S2304-512F



rate was 50 kHz. If the two consecutive scans were identical, the average value of the subtracted scan would be zero; any deviation from this value, greater than the inherent uncertainty introduced by the presence of readout and digitisation noise, indicates the presence of 'flicker' noise. The standard deviation about the mean of the subtracted scan gives some indication of the magnitude of other noise sources, such as the readout and digitisation noise mentioned above. Figure 6.20 a indicates that, not surprisingly, removing the diode from the RC 1024 SA evaluation board does increase the 'flicker' noise in the video signal. Figure 6.20b shows the standard deviation about the mean of the subtracted scans. Clearly the noise here has increased by almost a factor of two.

These results imply that removing the diode from the evaluation board degrades the electrical performance. Much of the increased noise seems to be picked up on the extended signal leads, as the video signal was very sensitive to movements of these connections. Indeed, setting up the preamplifier board correctly was almost impossible, as any movement of the cables connecting the preamp board to the RC 1024 SA board disturbed the fixed pattern shape of the scan. Further artefacts discovered in operating the Reticon arrays are discussed in chapter 7.

6.7.2 Operating the Hamamatsu S2304-512F array in vacuum

The fact that the C2325 driver/amplifier board was small enough to fit inside the vacuum chamber made this task relatively simple. Electrically, the only difference is that the signal connections between the C2325 and C2335 boards were lengthened. Figure 6.21 plots the average value of two consecutive dark scans after subtraction, with the array operating in the vacuum system at video rate of 50 kHz. As can be seen, this average is very much less than that for the Reticon array, showing that 'flicker' type noise is much reduced. The standard deviation is also slightly lower than that displayed by the Reticon array on the preamp board. From a practical point of view, the sensitivity of the Hamamatsu device to movements of the connecting cables was very much less than that for the Reticon array, and there was little difficulty involved in correctly setting up the C2325 board in the vacuum chamber. Further details concerning the operation of both arrays are given in chapter 7.

CHAPTER 7

Experiments on Photodiode Array Imaging Performance

Introduction

The previous chapter was concerned with the technical aspects involved in operating the Reticon and Hamamatsu photodiode arrays as detectors in the electron microscope. This chapter presents experimental results on the noise performance of these arrays, and the optical performance under indirect detection conditions. A brief review of the main sources of electrical noise generation in photodiode arrays is given, followed by experimental results obtained from series of dark scans, taken under various operating conditions. The response of the photodiodes to various levels of uniform illumination is reported, and the effectiveness of digital signal processing techniques is described. The performance of both types of array was slightly marred by artefacts in the video output signal, the importance and possible causes of these effects is also discussed.

7.1 DARK CURRENT AND NOISE SOURCES IN PHOTODIODES

This section gives a brief account of the sources of electrical noise generation characteristic to photodiode arrays in general, with specific reference to the Reticon and Hamamatsu devices of interest. The theoretical figures calculated are later compared with experimental values.

7.1.1 Dark current

All silicon photodiodes have a thermal leakage current which is independent of illumination and is a strong function of temperature. The specification for the Reticon S-series arrays is that the dark current i_d is $\leq 5\text{pA}$ at 25°C , and halves for every 7°C decrease in temperature. The corresponding figure for the Hamamatsu S2304 series arrays is less; $i_d < 1\text{pA}$ at 25°C . The integrated dark leakage current, at temperature T , from each diode can be expressed in terms of electrons as:

$$N_d = i_d(T) \tau / e \quad (7.1)$$

where τ is the integration time and e is the electronic charge. For example, after a dark scan of one second at $T=25^\circ\text{C}$ $N_d = 3.125 \times 10^7$ electrons for the Reticon S series, which is 36% of the saturation output ($Q_{\text{sat}} = 8.75 \times 10^7$ electrons). Of course, each individual diode element has a slightly different value of i_d , so that the resultant video scan will contain a

characteristic dark pattern superimposed upon the average signal. This dark pattern is constant for constant conditions and can be removed by subtraction (section 7.4). By cooling the device the magnitude of the dark signal can be reduced greatly, allowing longer integration times to be used.

7.1.2 Noise sources

The output signal from a photodiode array in the dark contains five components:

- (1) The integrated dark leakage current N_d .
- (2) Shot noise in the dark current n_d .
- (3) Fixed pattern noise.
- (4) Preamplifier noise n_a .
- (5) Reset (thermodynamic) noise of the array diodes n_r .

Dark current noise n_d is caused by the shot noise in the dark current. Applying Poisson statistics to equation (7.1) it can be seen that:

$$n_d = (i_d(T) \tau / e)^{\frac{1}{2}} \quad (7.2)$$

Applying this equation to the conditions used in section 7.1.1. gives a value for n_d of 5590 electrons for the Reticon array. This figure can be arbitrarily reduced by cooling the array.

Fixed pattern noise is a pixel output pattern in the dark which is the same from scan to scan under constant conditions. It is composed of the dark scan pattern mentioned previously and there are also effects dependent upon clock signal feedthrough, such as the odd/even variations between adjacent pixels described in the previous chapter. The essential consideration here is that fixed pattern noise can be removed by subtracting a dark scan from the scan containing the optical information of interest, and therefore does not directly affect the dynamic range.

Preamplifier noise is the electronic noise introduced to the signal by the video preamplifier and is obviously dependent upon the type of detection circuit used. Simpson [1979] gives an expression for amplifiers using an FET input :

$$n_a = (C/e) \left[4kTBR_c \right]^{\frac{1}{2}} \quad (7.3)$$

where k = Boltzmann's constant, B = bandwidth, R_C = the channel resistance of the input FET, and C is the total capacitance at the input node including the video line capacitance C_V . Values of the order of $n_a \sim 1000$ electrons can be obtained with proper amplifier design [Talmi and Simpson 1980].

Reset noise or thermodynamic noise has basically two components - diode reset noise and video line reset noise. Of these diode reset noise is the most important, as it cannot be corrected by any form of signal processing and is relatively insensitive to temperature, so that it forms the ultimate limiting noise source in photodiode arrays [Walker et al. 1985]. Video line reset noise can be reduced by special signal processing known as correlated double sampling.

When the reset voltage is applied to each diode through the shift register switch S_n (see figure 7.1), Johnson noise in the switch resistance introduces an uncertainty in the actual value of the applied bias. An expression for this diode reset noise in terms of signal electrons is given by Simpson [1979] for the Reticon S series arrays as:

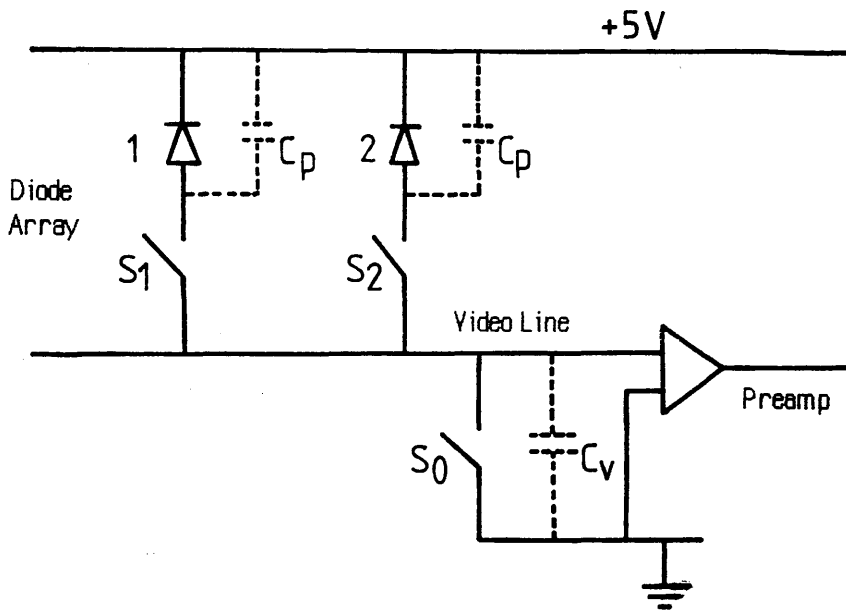
$$n_r = (1/e) [kT(2C_p + 2C_{VC})]^{1/2} \quad (7.4)$$

where C_p is the pixel capacitance, and C_{VC} is the video line to clock line capacitance. At 25°C, n_r is ~ 1000 electrons rms for the Reticon arrays [Talmi and Simpson 1980]. An equivalent figure is not available for Hamamatsu devices, however as the diode capacitances are very similar (1.8pF against 2pF), n_r is likely to take a similar value. This figure is therefore the very best noise value which can be achieved with conventional photodiode arrays.

The video line reset noise occurs because the capacitance C_p of each photodiode is connected in parallel with the video line capacitance C_V , which can be very much larger for long arrays. From figure 7.1 it can be seen that this extra capacitance adds into equation (7.4) to increase the value of n_r . For example, C_V for the Hamamatsu S2304-512F array is 25pF, which increases the value of n_r at 25°C to ~ 2200 electrons. The Reticon RL128S array has C_V of only 3pF, because of the twin video line construction and smaller number of photodiode elements; in this case n_r is increased to ~ 1200 electrons. The video line reset noise can fortunately be reduced by using a correlated double sampling readout technique.

The operation of the correlated double sampling technique is as follows (see figure 7.1): initially assume that switches S_1 and S_0 are closed and S_2 is open so that diode 1 is biased to

Figure 7.1 Correlated Double Sampling



5v (+reset noise) while diode 2 is integrating; now switch S_0 is opened and the video line zero reference voltage v_0 is sampled; switch S_1 is then opened and S_2 closed, allowing the voltage V_2 on diode 2 to be sampled; closing S_2 causes diode 2 to be reset and the cycle repeats. The difference signal $V_2 - v_0$ gives the video signal from diode 2 without any video line reset noise, since this is common to both samples. The main difficulty with correlated double sampling is that it cannot be successfully implemented at higher frequencies, hence the clock limitation on the RL1024 SA and C2325 boards.

7.1.3 Total readout noise and inherent dynamic range

The total readout noise can be expressed as the sum, in quadrature, of the individual noise components. Fixed pattern noise is ignored as this can be digitally removed from the signal.

$$n_t^2 = n_d^2 + n_r^2 + n_a^2 \quad (7.5)$$

n_t increases with integration time τ , through equation (7.2), and is decreased with drop in temperature through equations (7.2) and (7.3). The inherent dynamic range of the array is defined as the maximum detectable signal divided by the minimum detectable signal. This can be expressed as [Egerton 1984]:

$$DR = \frac{S_{\min}}{S_{\max}} = \frac{Q_{\text{sat}} - i_d \tau}{e n_t F} \quad (7.6)$$

where F represents the minimum signal/noise ratio acceptable in the output - often F is taken to be 5. It is possible to increase this inherent dynamic range by using a multiple scan technique [Egerton 1984], whereby each exposure time τ is divided into m periods and m separate readouts are digitally summed in memory. In this case the accumulated readout noise is:

$$n_t^2 = i_d \tau / e + m (n_r^2 + n_a^2) \quad (7.7)$$

i.e. n_t increases by a factor slightly less than \sqrt{m} . However, the maximum recordable signal S_{\max} increases by a factor of m , so that the overall dynamic range increases by a factor of at least \sqrt{m} . In practice the success of this technique can be limited by any low frequency or flicker noise present in the video signal [Talmi and Simpson 1980] as described in section 7.2.2.

The theoretical noise value for a Reticon RL128S array at 25°C ignoring dark current noise but inclusive of video line reset noise is $n_t \sim 1600$ electrons, giving a theoretical inherent dynamic range of 5.5×10^4 for $F=1$. The corresponding figure for the Hamamatsu S2304-512F array is $n_t \sim 2400$ electrons, or a dynamic range of 1.95×10^4 . Of course, these

figures are ideal and are unlikely to be achieved in practice due to the presence of noise sources external to the diode array.

7.2 DARK CURRENT AND NOISE EXPERIMENTS: RL128S array

The results of a series of dark scan experiments on two Reticon RL128S arrays are presented in this section. The dark scan response as a function of integration time and temperature is examined for each diode, and the results are compared with the theoretical values of the previous section. Some measure of the video noise level was obtained by examining the degree of reproducibility of these dark scans under identical conditions. The presence of two artefacts in the video signal is also reported, and the importance of the respective faults is considered.

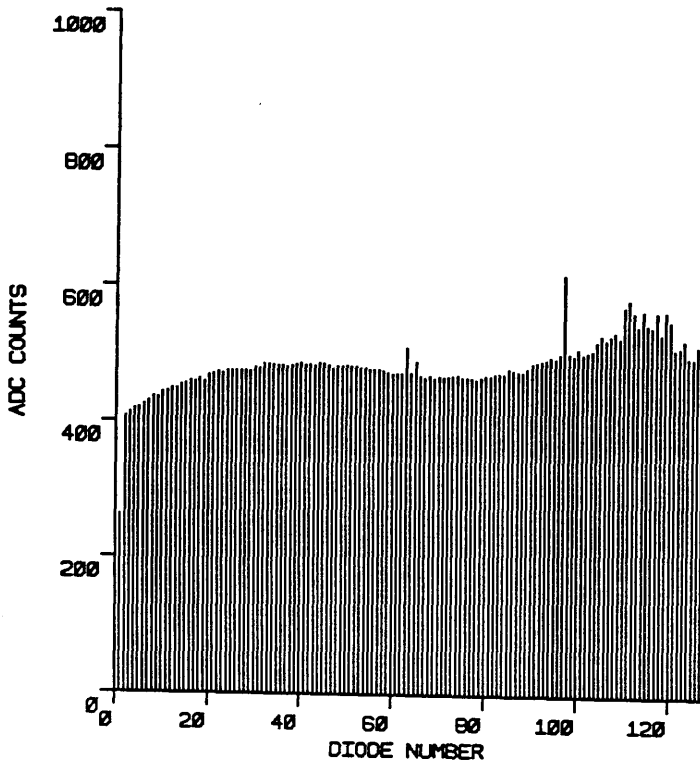
7.2.1 Variation of dark current - Reticon RL128S array

Figures 7.2a and 7.2b illustrate dark scans for the two Reticon RL128S photodiodes under consideration, both operated on the external preamplifier board at a temperature of 27°C. The integration time was 0.327 secs, which is the maximum available when using a 200kHz clock. As can be seen, the dark patterns are very different, with Reticon 1 having a much more uniform response than Reticon 2. The peak to peak non-uniformity in dark pattern (excluding diode 1) is 5.4% of the saturation output for Reticon 1, and 13.7% of saturation for Reticon 2. These figures are not constants however, as they vary with temperature and integration time. Using the average values for the dark signals of 491 ADC counts for Reticon 1, and 424 ADC counts for Reticon 2, it can be seen that both diodes would be completely saturated at this temperature in ~ 3 secs.

Equation (7.1) predicts that the average value of the dark signal should increase linearly with integration time. Figure 7.3 is a graph showing the average dark signal as a function of integration time for Reticon 1 on the RC1024 SA evaluation board, at a temperature of 44°C. Clearly, for integration times longer than ~100 msecs the relationship is not linear. Figures 7.4a and 7.4b show similar graphs for Reticon 1 and Reticon 2 respectively, operating at various temperatures from -10°C to +25°C on the external preamplifier board. Again the dark current/integration time relationship becomes non-linear above 100msec. The non-linearity becomes more pronounced as the temperature is decreased, until at a temperature of -10°C, the integrated dark current actually appears to decrease with time, from 100 msecs onward.

Figure 7.2a

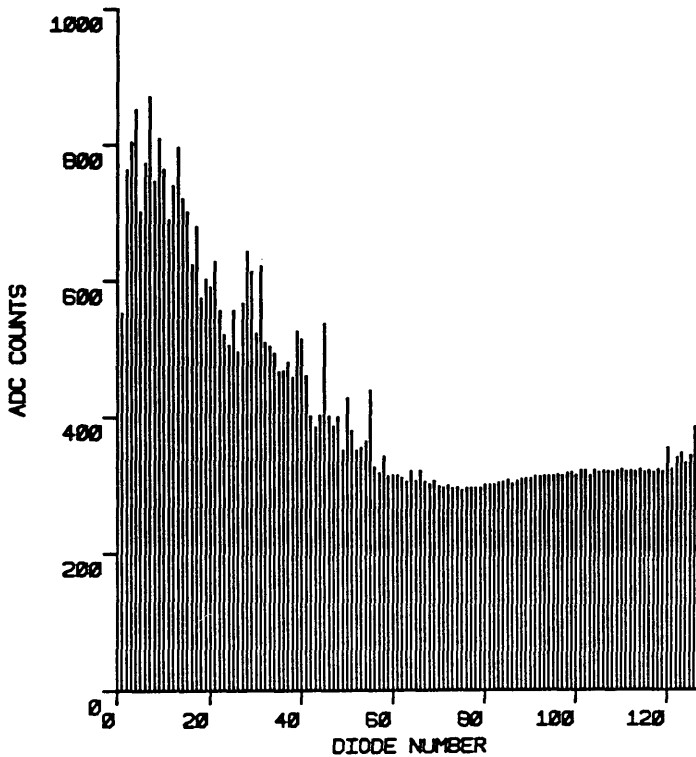
Dark Signal $\tau=327\text{msecs}$ $T=27^{\circ}\text{C}$



Reticon 1 on Preamp Board

Figure 7.2b

Dark Signal $\tau=327\text{msecs}$ $T=27^{\circ}\text{C}$



Reticon 2 on Preamp Board

Figure 7.3 Average Dark Signal v Integration Time Reticon 1
on RC1024 SA Board T=44°C

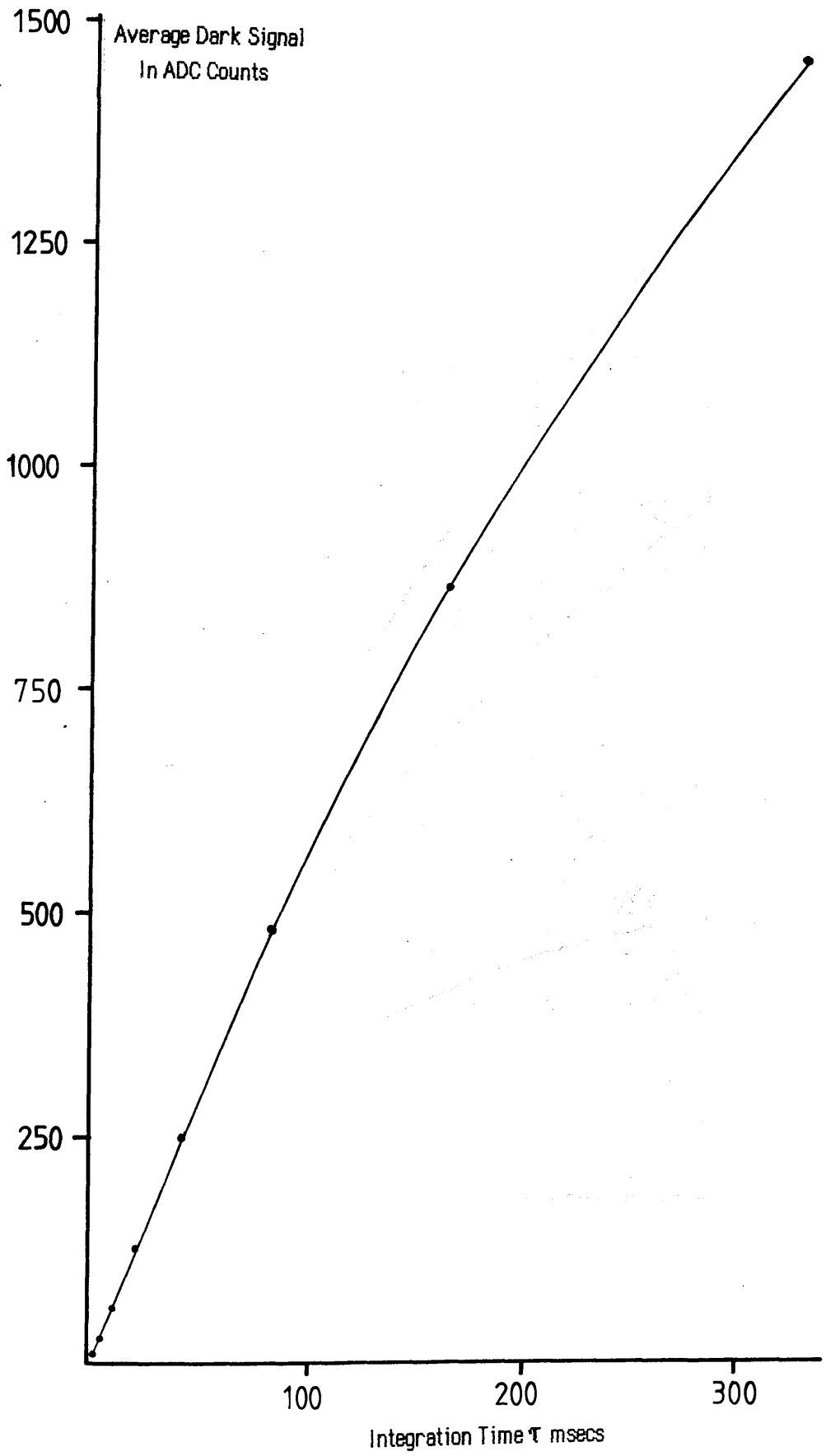


Figure 7.4a Average Dark Signal v Integration Time
Reticon 1 on Preamp Board

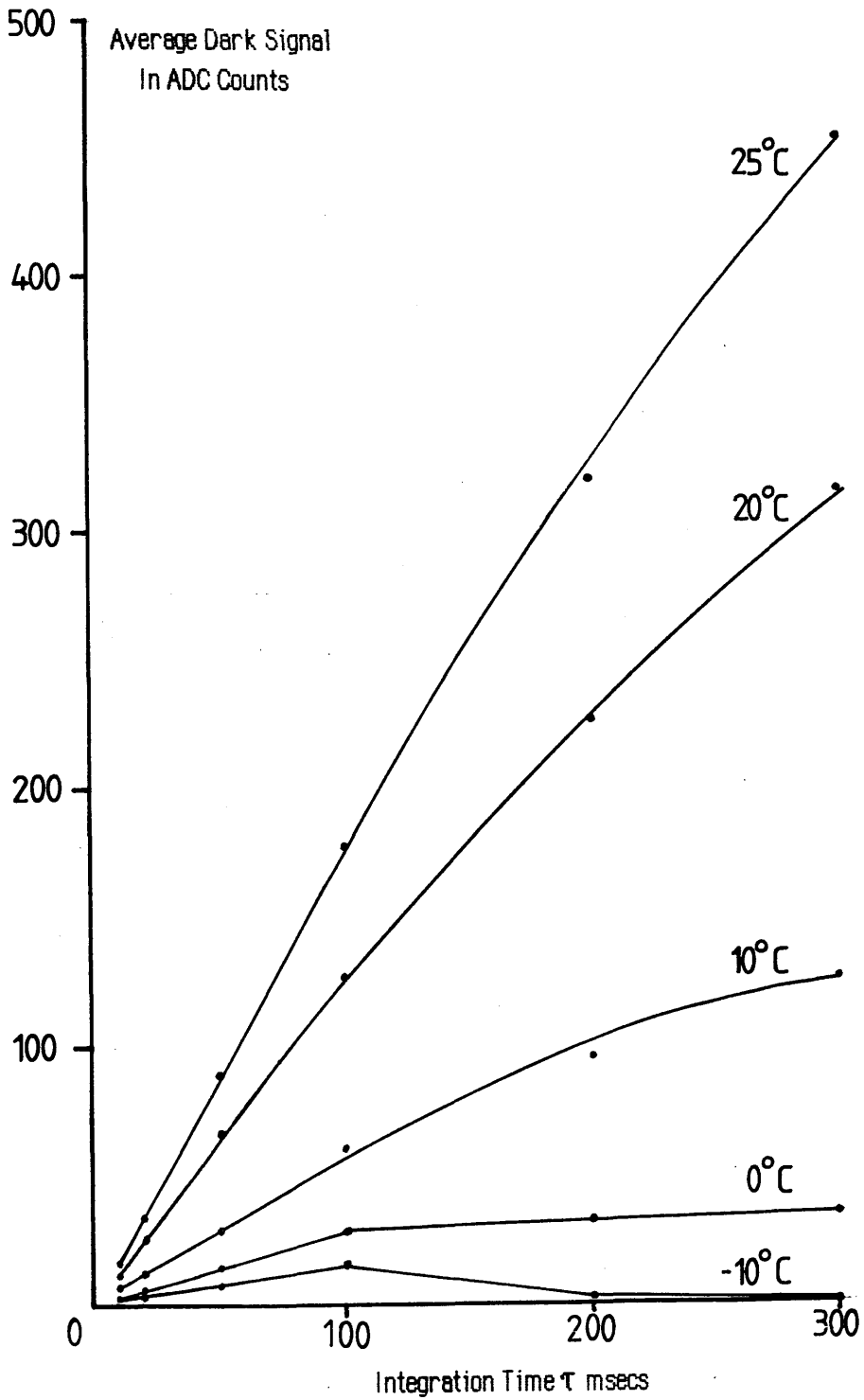
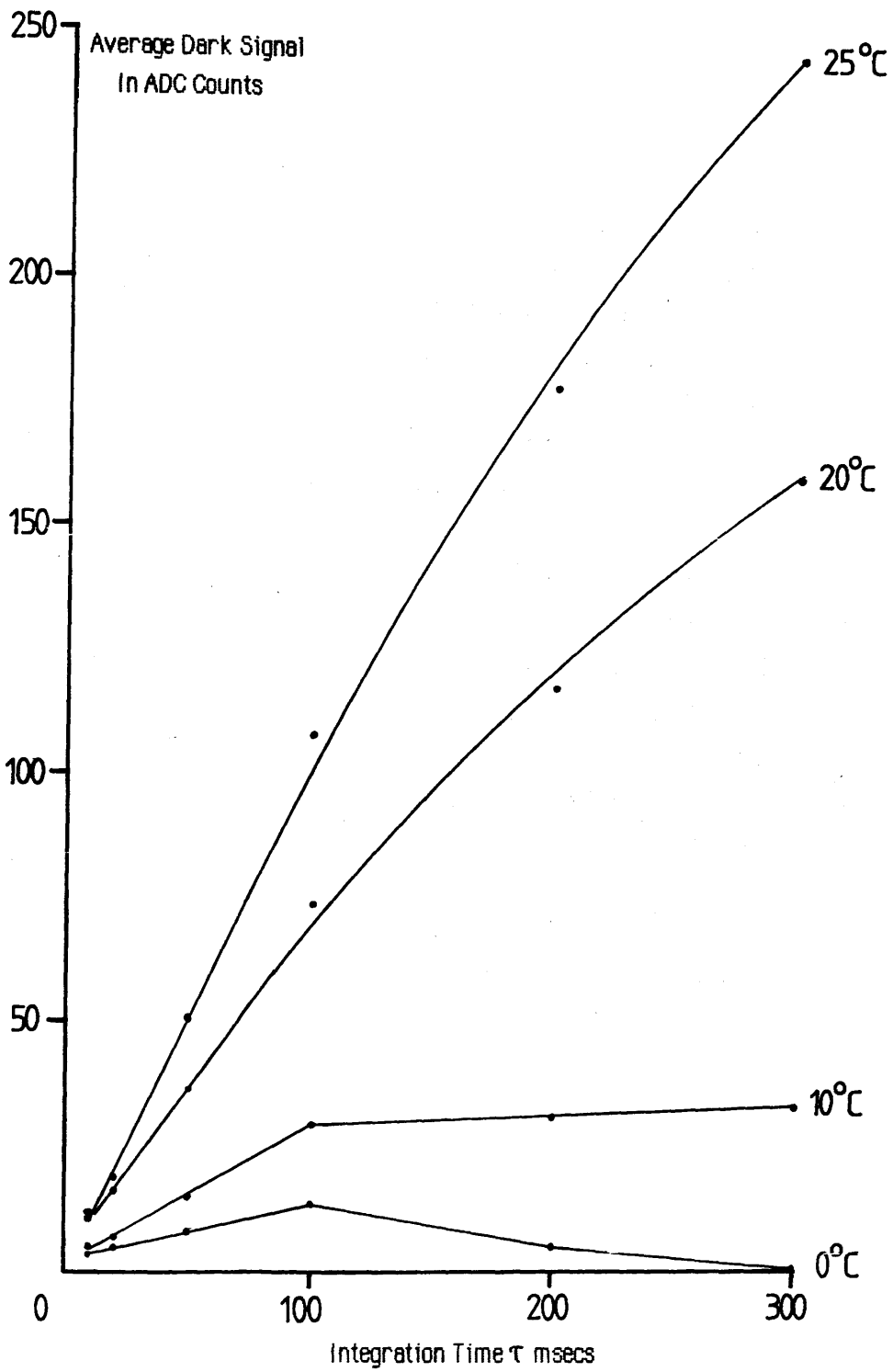


Figure 7.4b Average Dark Signal v Integration Time
Reticon 2 on Preamp Board



Clearly, this behaviour is incompatible with the expected relationship of equation (7.1). A closer examination of the waveforms revealed two possible causes of non-linearity. The first artefact discovered was a variation of the video signal retrace blank level with integration time. Figure 7.5a shows the dark scan of Reticon 2 at a temperature of -10°C , with an integration time of 2.56 msec. The 1-2-3-4 type fixed pattern noise is caused by the sensitivity of the diode alignment to movements of the electrical connections between the preamplifier board in the vacuum system, and the RC1024 SA evaluation board outside. External adjustment was not possible, as all the relevant potentiometer controls had to be located on the preamplifier board. Aside from this, the retrace blank level between the two scans is correctly set at zero volts. Figure 7.5b shows what happens when the integration time is increased to 50 msec ($T=20^{\circ}\text{C}$), i.e. the retrace blank level drops to $\sim -6\text{mV}$. This effect occurred for both Reticons 1 and 2, and was independent of temperature. The retrace level remained constant up to 20 msec integration time, dropped to -6mV at this point, and varied between -4mV and -6mV at integration times above this. As this variation was repeatable from scan to scan, and occurred for both diodes, a fault on either the preamplifier board or the RC1024 SA board is suspected.

The magnitude of the D.C shifts from this effect are not enough to account for the non-linear behaviour of figures 7.4a and 7.4b. The strange results occurring at longer integration times may possibly be explained by the effect shown in figure 7.5 c. This shows sequential dark scans from Reticon 2, at a temperature of 10°C and an integration time of 89 msec. The negative signal is an artefact, which seems to breakthrough after ~ 80 msec of integration. The magnitude of the breakthrough was independent of the diode examined or the operating temperature, and varied from $\sim -40\text{mV}$ to $\sim -80\text{mV}$ as the integration time increased from 100 msec to 327 msec. The source of this signal could not be traced to any external influence, and the regular timing of the breakthrough suggests an internal electronic fault. Unfortunately, it was not possible to check the RC1024 SA board in isolation, as the effect was only discovered after the preamplifier section had been removed. However, the similarity in the shape of the dark response of figure 7.3 to those of figures 7.4a and 7.4b suggests that the fault was endemic to the evaluation board.

Figure 7.6 is a graph showing the average dark current i_{d} as a function of temperature for both the photodiodes. The values plotted were obtained using the gradients of the linear regions of figures 7.4a and 7.4b. As can be seen, the dark current for Reticon 1 is consistently higher than that of Reticon 2, by almost a factor of 2. The graphs show the exponential relationship of i_{d} with temperature, and indicate that the dark current is roughly

Figure 7.5a Reticon 2 ($\tau = 2.56$ msec)

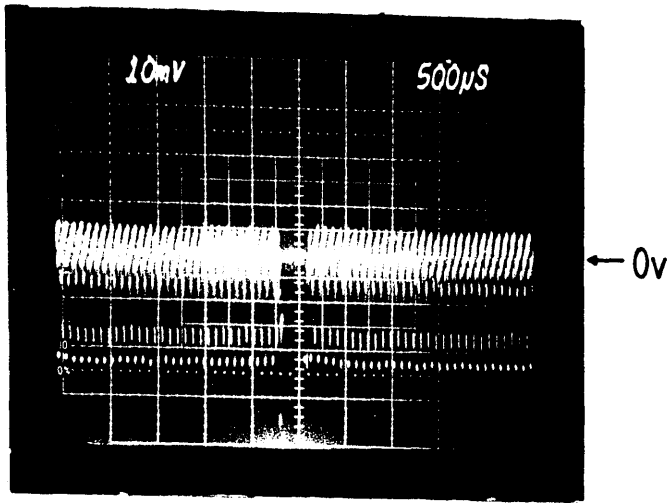


Figure 7.5b Reticon 2 ($\tau = 50$ msec)

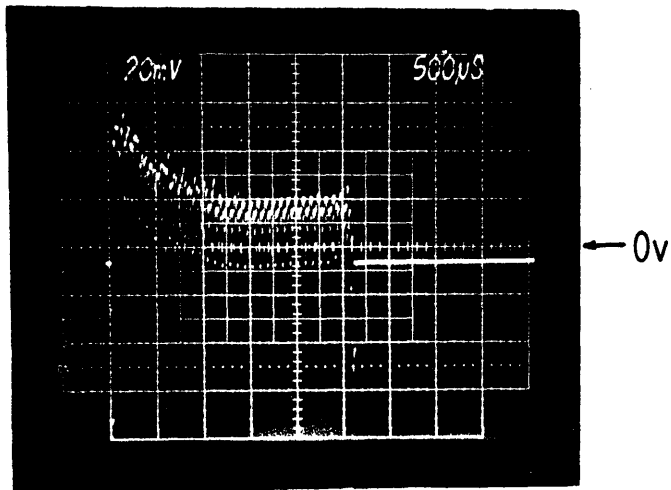


Figure 7.5c Reticon 2 ($\tau = 89$ msec)

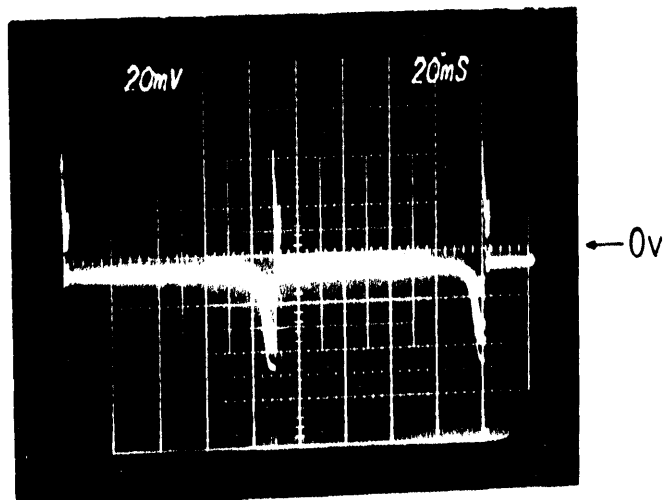
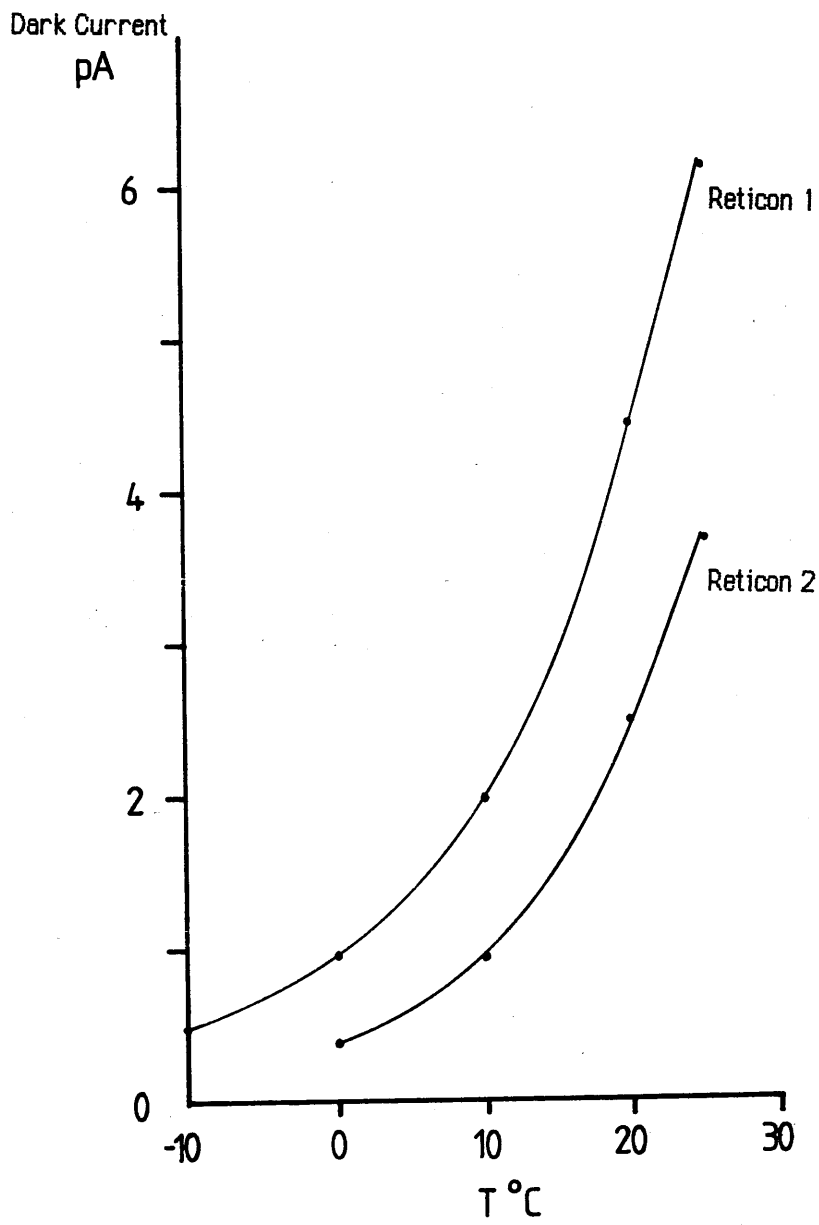


Figure 7.6 Average Dark Current v Temperature



halved for every 9°C drop in temperature rather than the 7°C drop quoted by Reticon. Thus, at a temperature of 0°C the maximum integration time of Reticon 1 is increased to 15 secs, and that of Reticon 2 to 36 secs. Longer integration times than this can be obtained by further cooling.

7.2.2 Dark current noise - Reticon RL128S

Section 6.7.1 showed that the dark noise levels in the RL128S array were increased when the photodiode was transferred from the RC1024 SA board to the preamplifier board, in spite of the fact that the operating temperature was reduced by ~20°C. In this section the response of noise levels to variations in integration time and diode temperature is reported, using a similar dark scan subtraction technique.

Figure 7.7a shows the normalised distribution of ADC counts in a difference scan (subtraction of two consecutive dark scans), obtained using Reticon 1 on the RC1024 SA evaluation board at 40°C, with an integration time of 163 msec. As can be seen, the distribution is of a Gaussian form, with a mean value S of -0.35 LSB, and a standard deviation about this mean $\sigma_1 = 1.13$ LSB, which can be compared to $\sigma < 0.5$ LSB for the amplifier/sample-hold/ADC system on its own (see section 6.5.4). Values of σ can be used to give some indication of the magnitude of readout noise present in the dark signals. Figures 7.7b and 7.7c plot the difference scan standard deviations σ_1 and σ_2 obtained from both Reticon photodiodes operating on the preamplifier board in vacuum, as a function of integration time. As can be seen, the performance of Reticon 1 is better than that of Reticon 2, with the magnitude of σ_1 typically 1.1 LSB, compared to σ_2 at typically 1.5 LSB.

There does not seem to be any clear relationship between the readout noise level and integration time, for either photodiode array, at any of the operating temperatures used, suggesting that the non-linear dark signals described previously are consistent from scan to scan, and that the signal artefacts do not introduce any significant extra noise to the video signal. No sensible data was obtained using Reticon 1 at -10°C for integration times longer than 100 msec, as the signal artefacts reduced the average dark scan value to < 2 ADC counts, with most pixels giving a zero signal. Similarly, the limit for Reticon 2 was 100 msec integration time at 0°C.

Some information about the presence of low frequency or flicker noise can be derived from an examination of the average value S of each difference scan. If there were no flicker noise, S would be zero, within an uncertainty ΔS introduced by the presence of readout noise.

Figure 7.7a Normalised Distribution Of Conversion Values In Difference Scan
Reticon 1 on RC1024 SA board T=40°C, $\tau=163$ msec

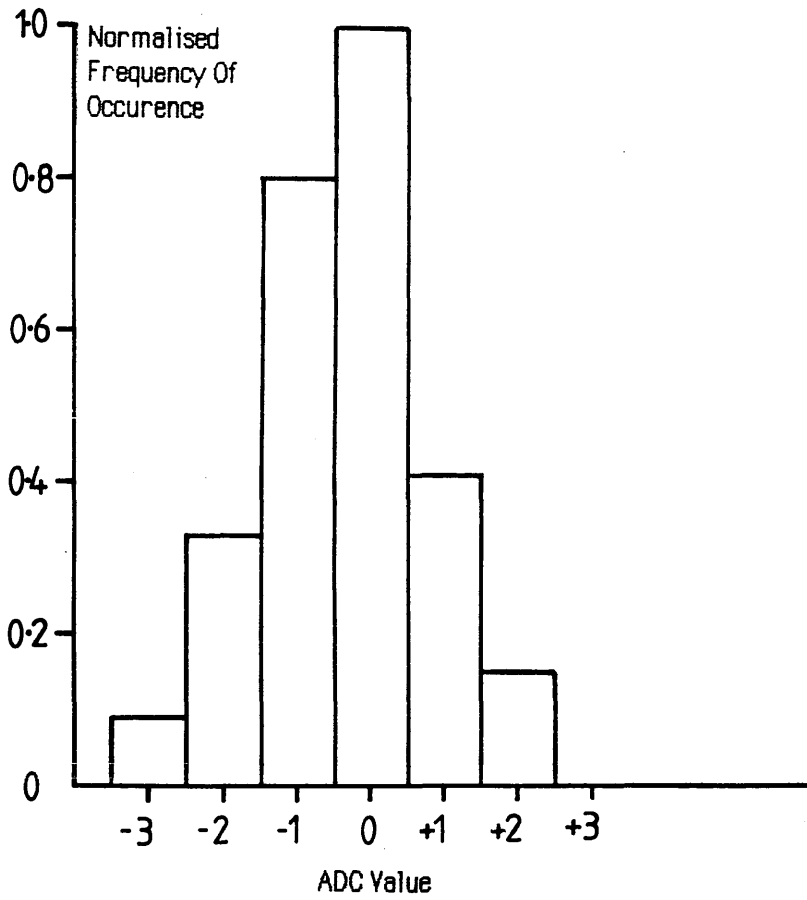


Figure 7.7b Standard Deviation in Difference Scans
Reticon 1 On Preamp Board

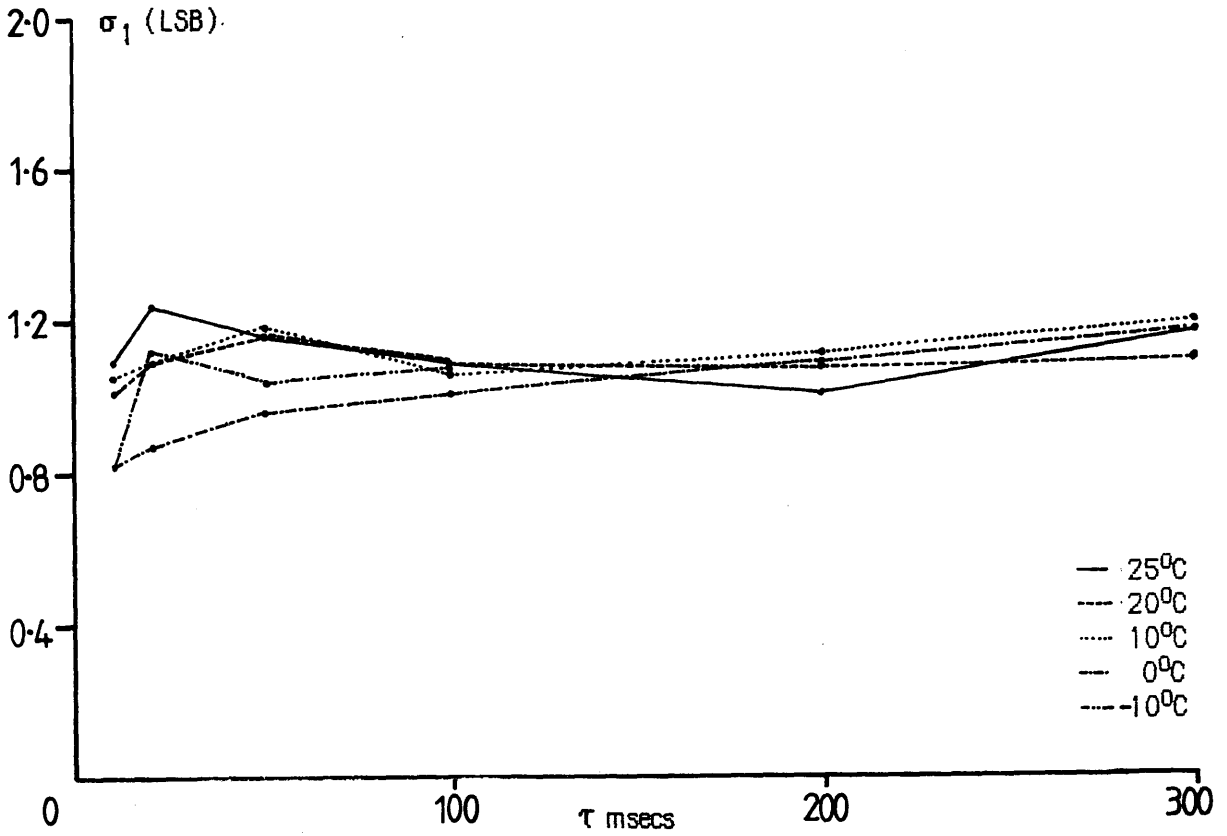


Figure 7.7c Standard Deviation in Difference Scans
Reticon 2 On Preamp Board

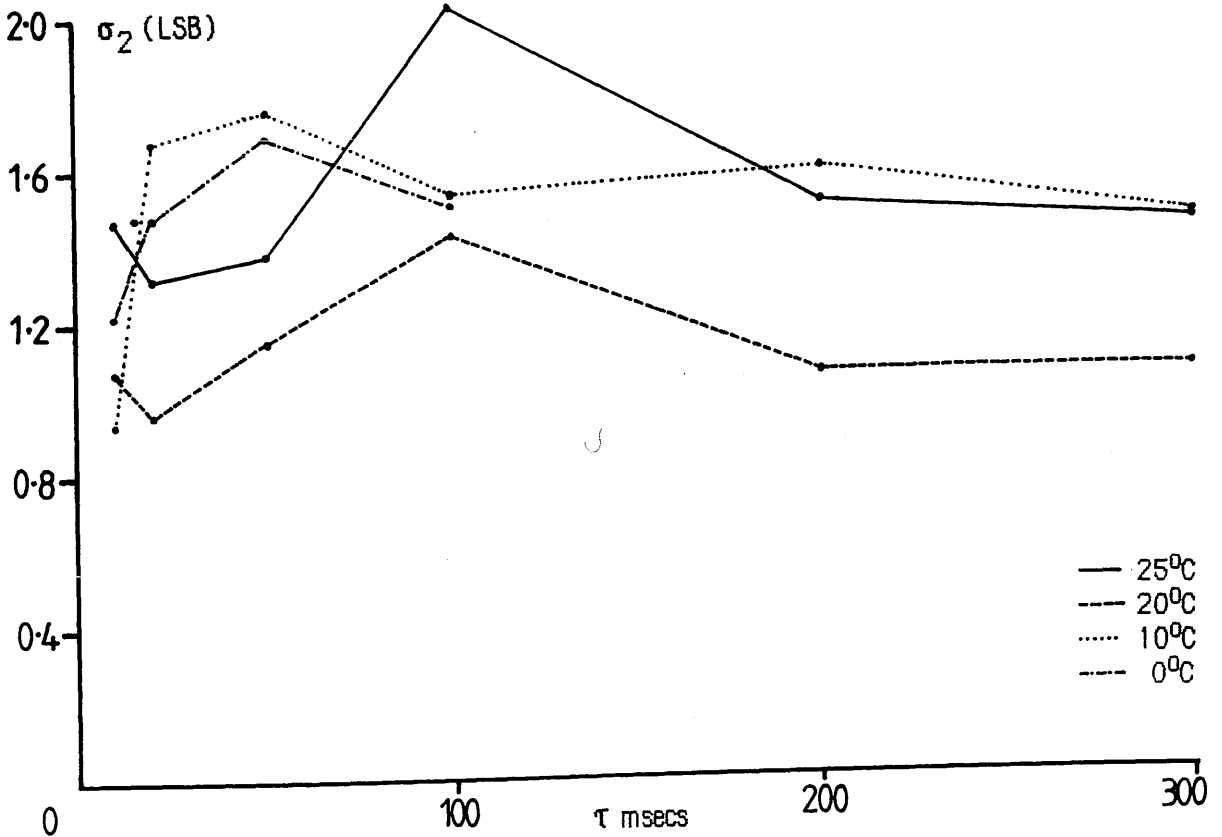


Figure 7.8a Mean Value S Of Difference Scans
Reticon 1 On Preamp Board

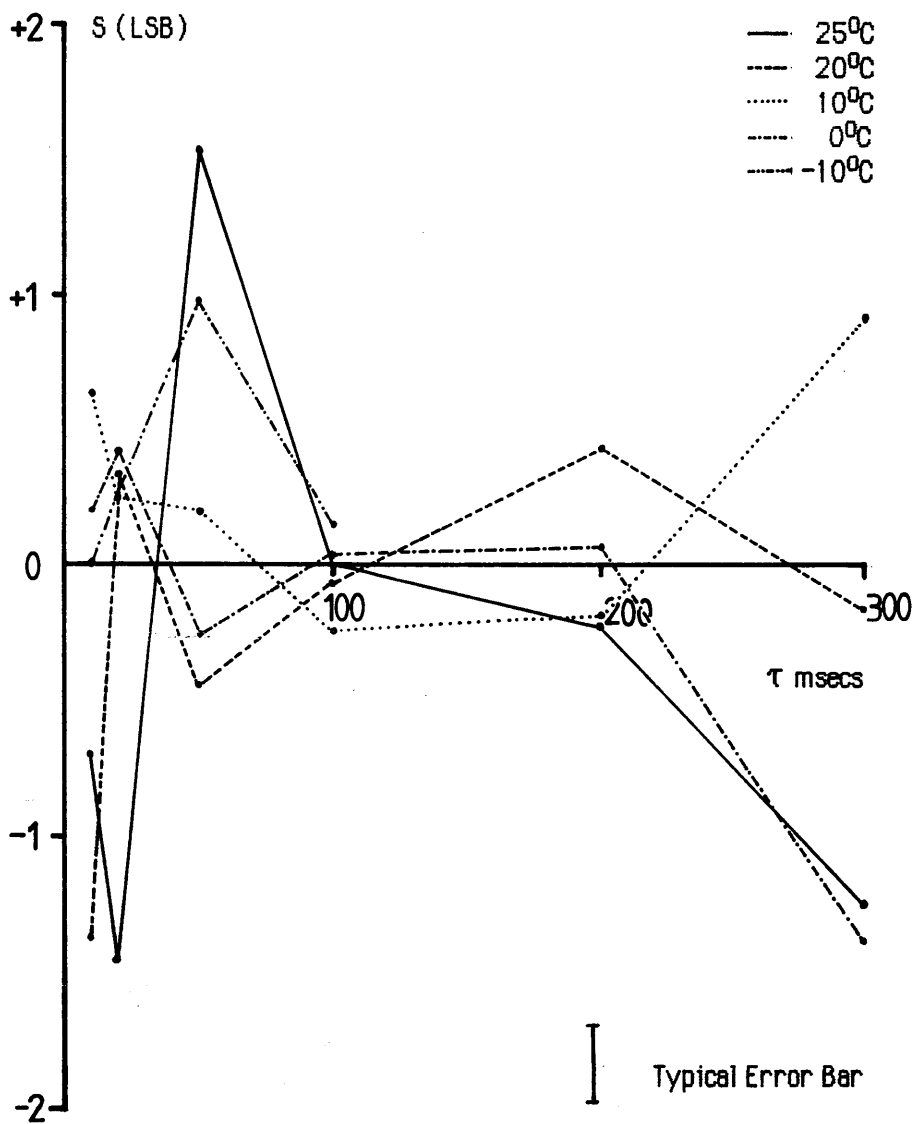
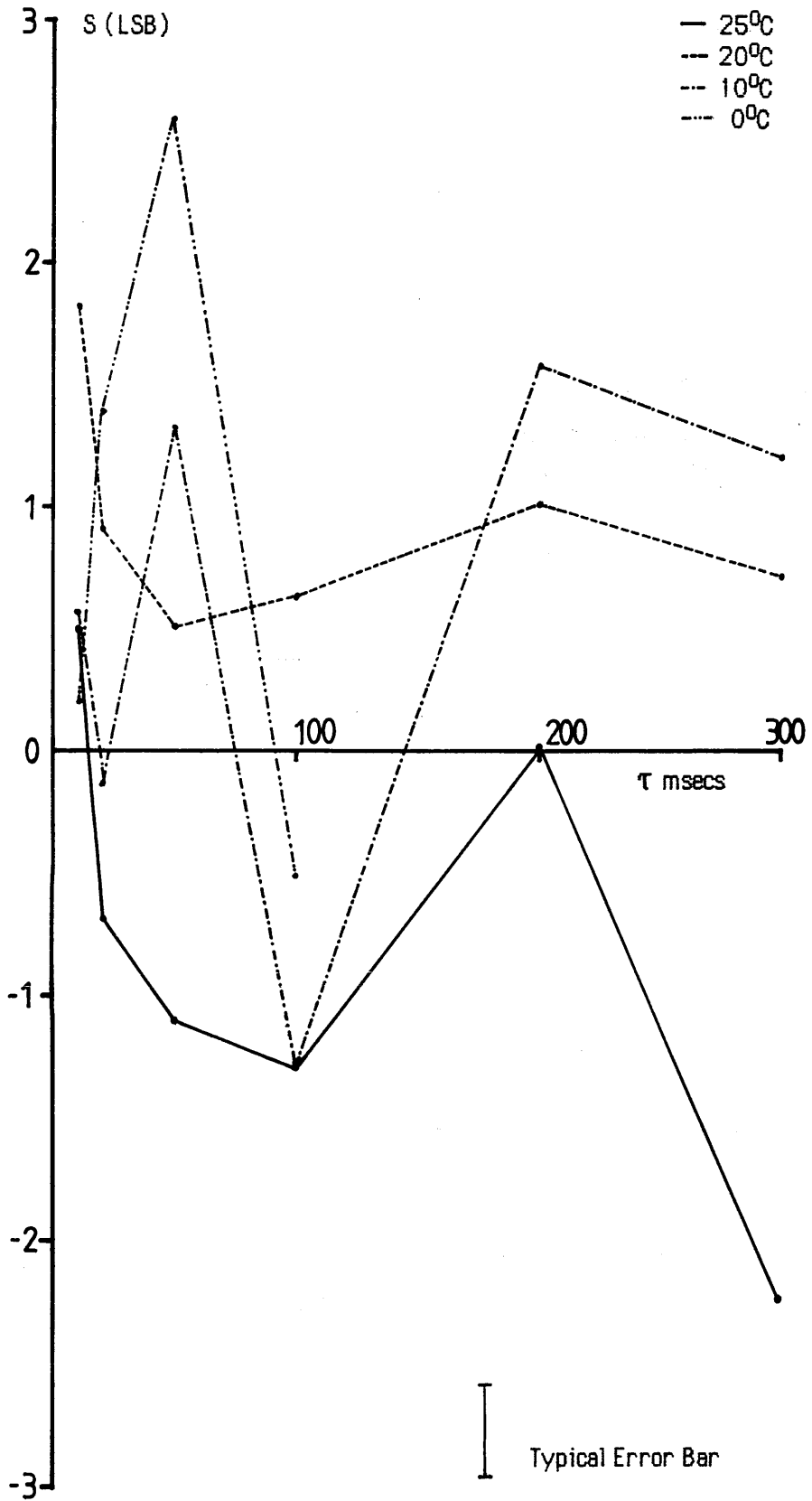


Figure 7.8b Mean Value S Of Difference Scans
Reticon 2 On Preamp Board



Non-zero values of S greater than this level indicate the presence of flicker noise. To find the statistical uncertainty in the averaged value of each difference scan, assume that the readout noise level is the same in each scan and is uncorrelated, and that distribution of noise is similar to figure 7.7a. Thus, the statistical error ΔS in the average value of each difference scan is $\sim \sqrt{2}\sigma_{av}/\sqrt{n}$, where n is the number of elements in the array, and σ_{av} is the average standard deviation of each dark scan. Using the typical values of $\sigma_1 \sim 1.1$ LSB and $\sigma_2 \sim 1.5$ LSB from figures 7.7b and 7.7c gives $\Delta S_1 \sim \pm 0.14$ LSB, and $\Delta S_2 \sim \pm 0.19$ LSB for Reticon 1 and Reticon 2 respectively.

Figures 7.8a and 7.8b graph the corresponding mean values of each difference scan S, as a function of integration time. As can be seen, the magnitude of S extends well beyond the limits imposed by uncertainties ΔS_1 and ΔS_2 in each case, indicating the presence of flicker noise. The flicker noise on Reticon 1 lies in the range of $\sim \pm 1$ LSB, whilst that of Reticon 2 is $\sim \pm 1.5$ LSB. There is possibly a slight decrease in the flicker with decreasing temperature for Reticon 1, but the same effect is not obvious for Reticon 2. Again, no apparent connection between integration time and flicker noise can be deduced from either figure at any temperature. The implications of the above results are examined in section 7.4.

7.3 DARK CURRENT AND NOISE EXPERIMENTS : S2304-512F array

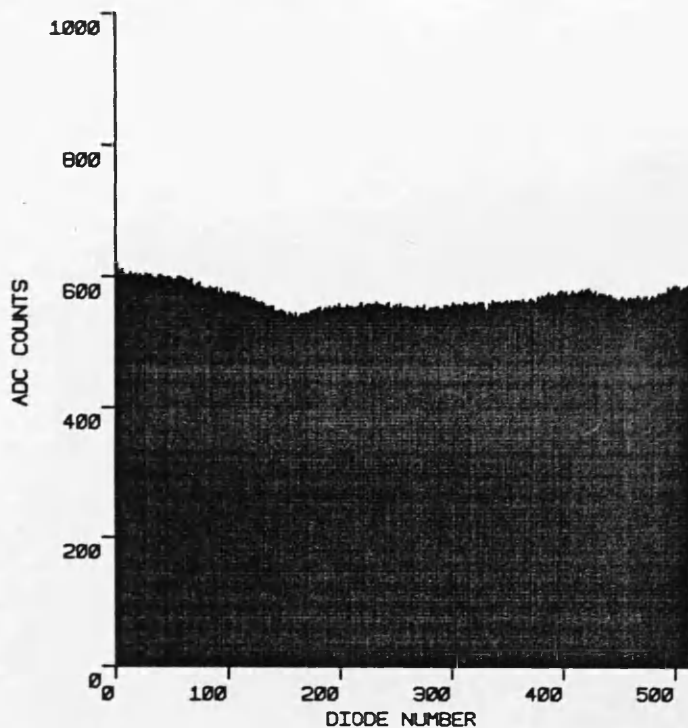
The experiments described in the previous sections were applied to the Hamamatsu S2304-512F array, and the results are presented below.

7.3.1 Variation of dark current : Hamamatsu S2304-512F

Figure 7.9a illustrates a dark scan obtained from the Hamamatsu S2304-512F array at 26°C, with an integration time of 2 secs. The peak to peak nonuniformity in the dark pattern is $\sim 2\%$ of the saturation output; very much better than that of the Reticon diodes. In the case of this array the dark current saturation time at 26°C is ~ 14 secs.

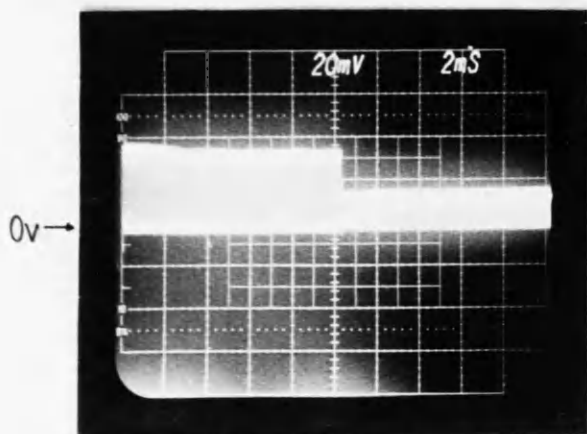
Figure 7.10 shows the average dark signal as a function of integration time, at various operating temperatures. In contrast to the Reticon arrays, the dark current is linear at longer integration times, and becomes non-linear as the integration time is decreased, particularly at lower temperatures. The reason for this behaviour is apparent upon examination of figures 7.9b and 7.9c. Figure 7.9b is a dark scan taken at 30°C with an integration time of 50 msecs, whilst figure 7.9c is a similar scan at -10°C, with an integration time of 5 secs. The

Figure 7.9a Hamamatsu S2304-512F Dark Scan $\tau=2\text{secs}$



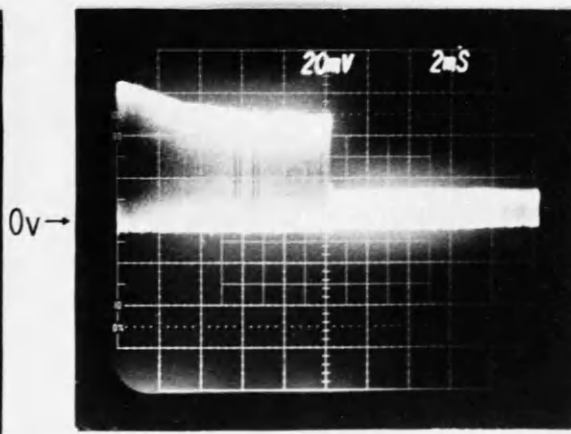
Hamamatsu Diode 26°C

Figure 7.9b Hamamatsu Dark Scan



($\tau=50\text{msec}$, $T=30^{\circ}\text{C}$)

Figure 7.9c Hamamatsu Dark Scan



($\tau=5\text{sec}$, $T=-10^{\circ}\text{C}$)

Figure 7.10 Average Dark Signal v Integration Time
Hamamatsu S2304-512F

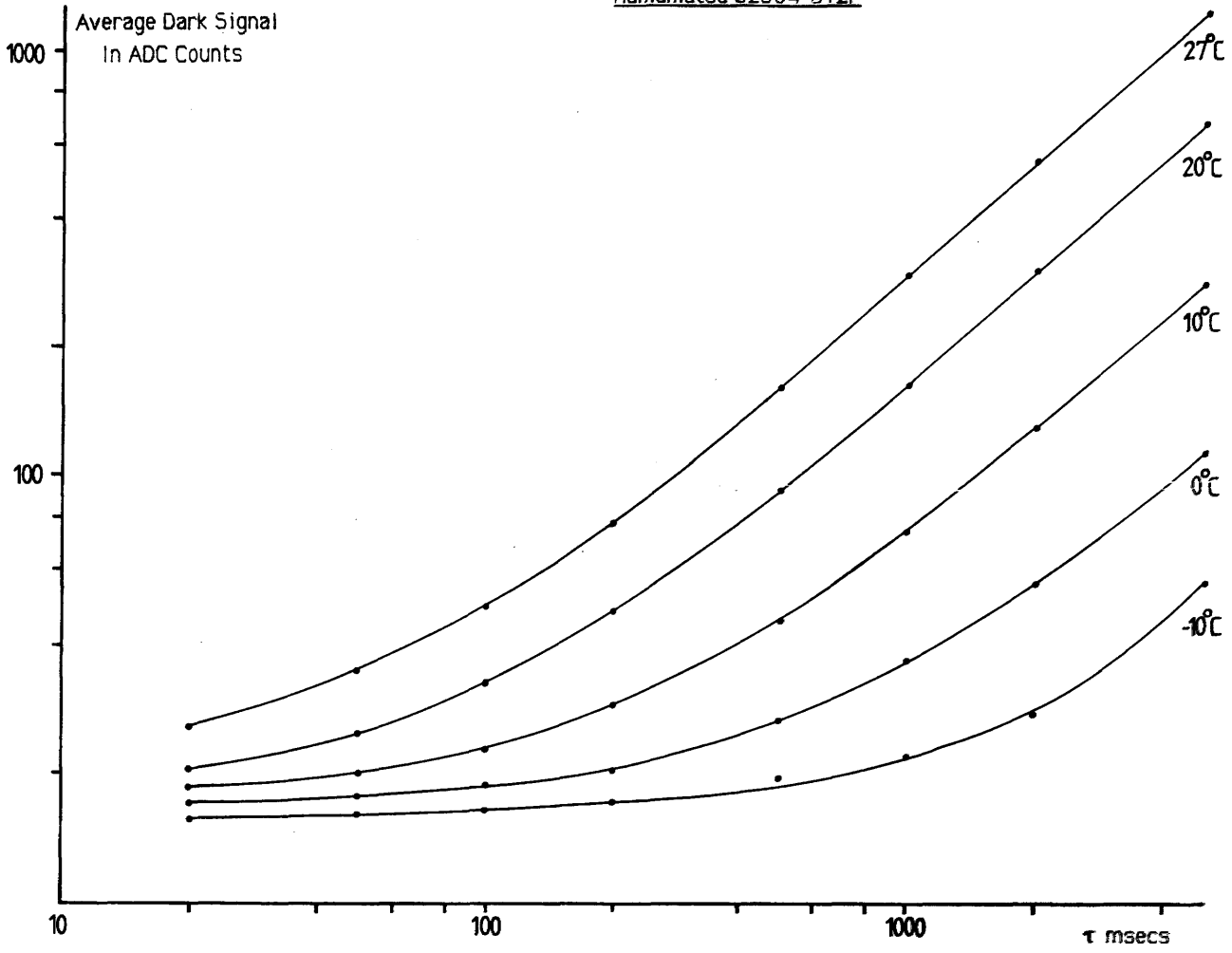
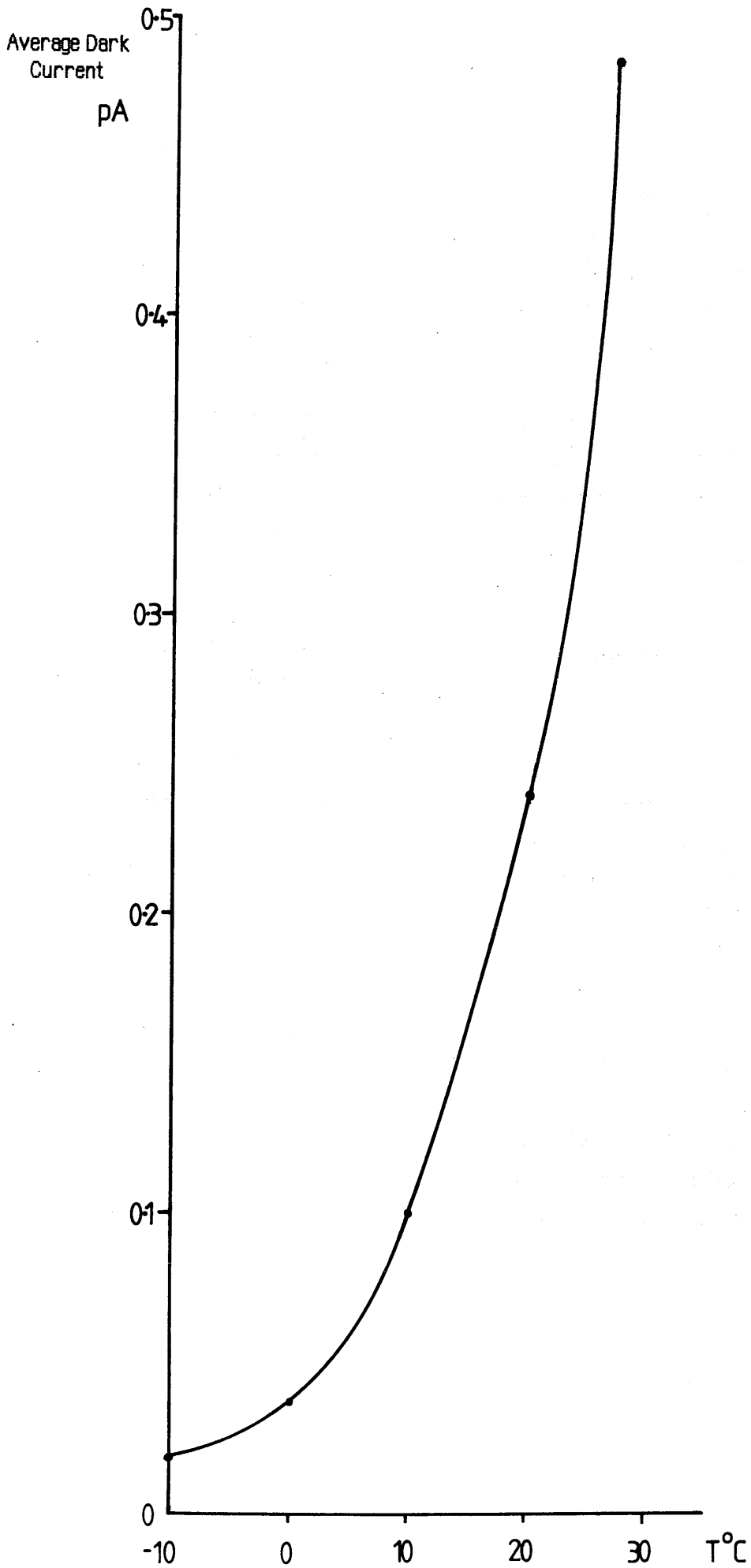


Figure 7.11

Average Dark Current v Temperature
Hamamatsu S2304-512F



retrace blank level of both scans is not a d.c. signal as it should be, but contains an a.c. component of $\sim 15\text{mV}$ at the same frequency as the video signal. This spurious signal must also be present in the video output, as no amount of cooling or reduction in integration time could reduce the video signal to below this level, hence the behaviour of figure 7.10. The artefact was found to be constant under all possible operating conditions, and could not be traced to any external source of interference. One possibility is that of crosstalk in the connector cable, from the digital leads onto the video line, but this could not be proved either way. As this signal varies with the same frequency and phase as the video signal itself, the only effect it has is to introduce an effectively constant d.c. offset to the output voltage.

Figure 7.11 shows the average dark current i_d as a function of temperature. The values plotted were obtained using the gradients of the linear regions of the curves of figure 7.10. When compared with the Reticon arrays, the dark current is almost an order of magnitude lower, so that at 0°C the maximum integration time for this array is ~ 203 secs, compared with 36 secs for the best Reticon device.

7.3.2 Dark current noise : Hamamatsu S2304-512F

The technique of dark scan subtraction was used to obtain information on the noise levels in this array, as a function of temperature and integration time. Figure 7.12a shows the normalised distribution of ADC counts in a difference scan taken at 20°C , with an integration time of 200 msec. As in the case of the Reticon arrays, the distribution is Gaussian, with a mean value of -0.05 LSB, and a standard deviation about this mean $\sigma = 1.18$ LSB. Figure 7.12b shows σ values of difference scans taken at various operating temperatures, as a function of integration time. The range of σ lies between ~ 0.9 LSB and 1.3 LSB; again there is no clear connection between values of readout noise and temperature or integration time.

From figure 7.12b the average value of σ is ~ 1.1 LSB, which gives a value for ΔS of $\sim \pm 0.07$ LSB. Figure 7.12c plots the average value S of each difference scan, as a function of integration time. It can be seen that S typically lies in the range ± 0.10 LSB, and at no time does S exceed ± 0.16 LSB, indicating that the flicker noise present is negligible. As before there does not seem to be any correlation between the magnitude of the flicker noise and temperature or integration time.

Figure 7.12a Normalised Distribution Of Conversion Values In Difference Scan

Hamamatsu S2304-512F T=20°C $\tau=200$ msecs

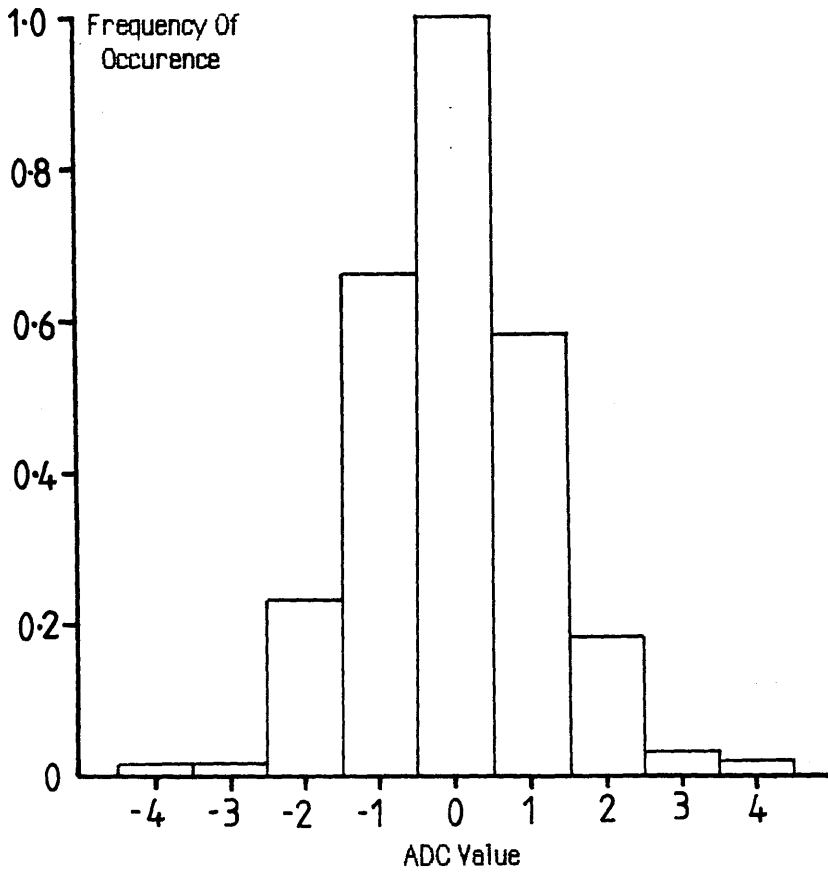
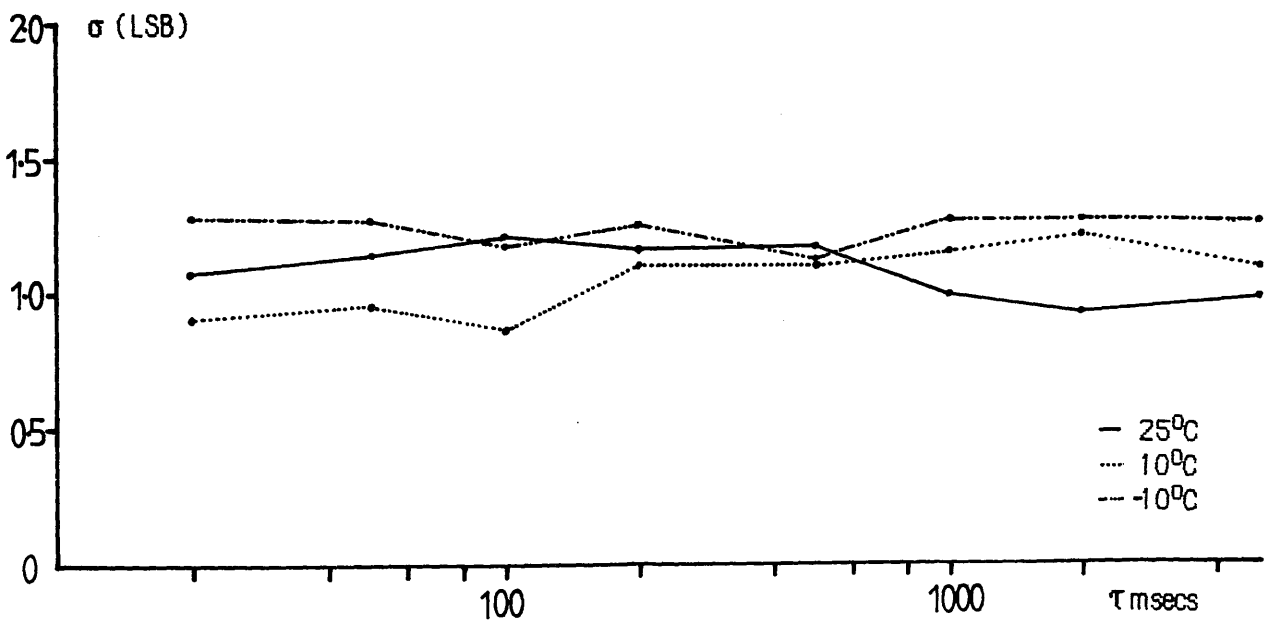


Figure 7.12b Standard Deviation In Difference Scans
Hamamatsu S2304-512F



7.4 SUMMARY OF DARK SCAN EXPERIMENTS

The next few sections attempt to summarise the electrical performance of the Hamamatsu and Reticon arrays in the dark. No consideration is given to the signal artefacts mentioned previously, as these do not seem to introduce any extra noise into the system, merely causing a non-linear response of dark signal, which can be removed by subtraction of the appropriate dark scan from the scan containing the information of interest. It is important to realise however, that dark scan subtraction must be done under identical conditions of temperature and integration time, due to the non-linear response.

7.4.1 Dark current production and uniformity

A comparison of the average dark current values i_d , as a function of array temperature (figures 7.6 and 7.11) clearly demonstrates the superiority of the Hamamatsu device in this area, with a dark current production almost an order of magnitude lower than that of the Reticon arrays. Given the fact that the signal capacity of the Reticon photodiodes is approximately twice that of the Hamamatsu array, the maximum integration time that can be used, at a given temperature, is five times longer for the Hamamatsu device. An examination of figures 7.2a,b and 7.9a also reveals the much more uniform dark response of the Hamamatsu array. The non-uniformity in dark current is clearly less than for the Reticon arrays, especially Reticon 2. This, along with the lower dark current production, would tend to indicate that the fabrication processes are better controlled in the Hamamatsu device. The fact that two seemingly identical devices from Reticon show such differing dark patterns also tends to support this hypothesis.

7.4.2 Flicker noise

Turning to the question of noise performance, figures 7.8a and 7.8b show that the Reticon arrays suffer from flicker noise, particularly Reticon 2. This effect has been noted by Talmi and Simpson [1980], who suspected the cause to be flicker noise in the MOS-FET multiplex switches. Flicker noise does not limit the absolute dynamic range of the signal, but is detrimental to any form of digital signal processing:- for example procedures such as dark scan subtraction and digital response correction are subject to this uncertainty. Signal averaging (i.e. averaging the results of many identical scans) can help to improve the signal to noise range, but is obviously limited by the extent of the flicker noise.

Using the information of figures 7.8a and 7.8b, the flicker noise for Reticon 1 lies in a range of $\sim \pm 1$ LSB, corresponding to ~ 21000 signal electrons. This limits the maximum dynamic

range of any (non-averaging) signal processing procedure to 4095 : 1. The flicker noise figure for Reticon 2 is $\sim \pm 1.5$ LSB, which corresponds to ~ 32000 signal electrons, giving a dynamic limit of 2731:1. Figure 7.12c shows that the Hamamatsu array has a very much better performance, and does not possess any detectable flicker noise.

7.4.3 Readout noise

The magnitude of other sources of random noise can be estimated from figures 7.7b,c and figure 7.12b. The readout noise levels of Reticon 1 and the Hamamatsu array are comparable at $\sim \pm 1.1$ LSB, corresponding to ~ 19000 signal electrons for the Reticon device and ~ 12100 signal electrons for the Hamamatsu device. Reticon 2 is again slightly worse at $\sim \pm 1.5$ LSB or ~ 32000 signal electrons. These figures limit the dynamic range of the Hamamatsu device to $\sim 3722:1$, and Reticon 1 and Reticon 2 to $\sim 3722:1$ and $\sim 2731:1$ respectively. The absence of any obvious relationship between these figures and operating temperature or integration time tends to suggest that most of the readout noise is composed of digitisation, reset, and preamplifier noise, plus an unknown contribution from electrical noise introduced external to the photodiodes. The Gaussian distribution of figures 7.7a and 7.12a implies that digitisation noise ($\pm 1/2$ LSB) is not the principle source of the random signal. Signal averaging should improve the signal to noise ratio of the Hamamatsu array, and a slight improvement may be possible for the Reticon arrays, subject to the flicker noise described previously.

7.5 OPTICAL RESPONSE OF PHOTODIODE ARRAYS

Having examined the electrical properties of the photodiode arrays in darkness, the next experiments involved evaluating their response to uniform illumination. Important factors such as linearity and uniformity of response as functions of temperature, integration time, and incident intensity are discussed below. The effectiveness of digital response correction procedures is also reported, while other factors such as resolution and detection efficiency are discussed in chapter 8. Measuring the direct response of photodiode arrays to varying illumination levels is difficult, principally due to the problems involved in quantifying the incident photon flux. For this reason the following experiments used an indirect measurement technique, using a scintillator to convert an incident electron distribution into a photon flux.

7.5.1 Description of experiments

The following experiments were carried out with the photodiode arrays in the vacuum chamber of figure 6.15, attached to the JEM 100C TEM. Uniform illumination was provided by electron irradiation of a 1mm thick slice of single crystal cerium doped yttrium aluminium garnet (YAG), whose properties are discussed more fully in chapter 8. The crystal was cut from a 20mm disk, and measured 9mm across by 20mm at its widest part as shown in figure 8.2. The YAG was glued onto the back of a 1mm thick aluminium shield using 'Loctite Glass Bond' UV sensitive adhesive. A rectangular slot measuring 17mm x 6mm had previously been cut in the shield allowing electrons to penetrate the scintillator. The edges of the slot were bevelled, and the whole top surface, including the YAG, was coated with $\sim 500 \text{ \AA}$ of aluminium, to prevent charging. The entire assembly was mounted on the electronics board (see fig 6.15) above the photodiode array, in such a way that the height and position of the scintillator could be varied, relative to the photodiodes. The aluminium shield served to protect the electronic boards from electron irradiation, and was earthed to the vacuum chamber. Opening the camera shutter plate in the microscope viewing chamber allowed the passage of electrons through the camera chamber to the scintillator. By defocussing the electron beam (no specimen present) the illumination could be made uniform, and the intensity controlled by the degree of defocus introduced to the beam.

7.5.2 Beam current measurement - Faraday Cup

In order to give some measure of the electron beam current density in the viewing chamber, a Faraday cup was made. The cup consisted of a circular copper disk 19mm in diameter, with a 5mm diameter central hole allowing passage of the electrons into a copper cup 8mm deep and 15mm in diameter. The inside of the cup was painted with carbon dag, reducing the backscattering coefficient for 100keV electrons to $\sim 6\%$, and the entire assembly was supported by a copper rod attached to a rotatable metal to glass seal so that it could be swung in and out of the beam. The top surface of the copper disk was coated with a layer of P47 phosphor, to enable easy location of the electron beam. A Keithley model 616 digital electrometer was used to monitor the current reading.

The Faraday cup could only give an accurate current reading for electron beam diameters less than 5mm, so that all the particles entered the cup. For defocussed illumination, the current reading (now a measure of the current density rather than the total current) was obviously a function of the position and angle of the cup relative to the beam, as well as the number of electrons intercepted by the supporting copper rod. In order to maintain a consistent sensitivity, the Faraday cup was placed in as near to possible an identical position for each

current measurement, by aligning its shadow image with marks on the viewing screen. The area of the copper support rod exposed to the beam was kept constant by defining a constant illuminated area using a selected area aperture. Tests showed that this procedure allowed consistent measurements of beam current densities with an repeatability of better than $\pm 5\%$.

7.6 OPTICAL RESPONSE : Reticon RL128S arrays

The following sections describe the response of the Reticon photodiode arrays to uniform illumination, provided by the single crystal YAG screen which was centred over the photosensitive elements and mounted approximately 1mm above the quartz window of the arrays. Figure 7.13 shows the saturation output of Reticon 2 under constant illumination. The maximum video voltage was initially set up outside the vacuum system to be 3V, but the saturation value was reduced to 2.8V (ie 3822 ADC counts) once the vacuum chamber was attached to the microscope, probably due to the sensitivity of diode alignment to movements of the external connector cables. The saturation output voltage was not sensitive to changes in operating temperature, integration time or readout rate and was the same for both Reticon 1 and Reticon 2. In principle, changing the gain of the op-amp input to the sample and hold amplifier should restore the full scale value although this was not done in practice.

7.6.1 Linearity of response - Reticon RL128S arrays

Figure 7.14 is a plot of the response of Reticon 1 to constant illumination as a function of integration time, at an operating temperature of 0°C . On the vertical axis is plotted the average value of each scan, after subtraction of the dark signal component. As expected the relationship is seen to be linear to within experimental error. This experiment was repeated at various temperatures between $+25^{\circ}\text{C}$ and -10°C with no effect on the results. The response of Reticon 2 under identical operating conditions was very similar and is not shown.

Figure 7.15a shows the relationship between the photodiode response and incident illumination level for Reticon 1 at an operating temperature of 0°C and integration time of 50msec. Again the vertical axis plots the average value of each scan after subtraction of the dark signal component, while the horizontal axis is calibrated in terms of the beam current reading from the Faraday cup. This is not an absolute value as the beam was defocussed, however the main concern in this experiment was to measure the relative intensity of the illumination which is correct to within an error of $\sim\pm 5\%$. As can be seen from figure 7.15a the relationship is linear up to the maximum beam current which could be achieved while

Figure 7.13 Saturation Output Of Reticon RL128S

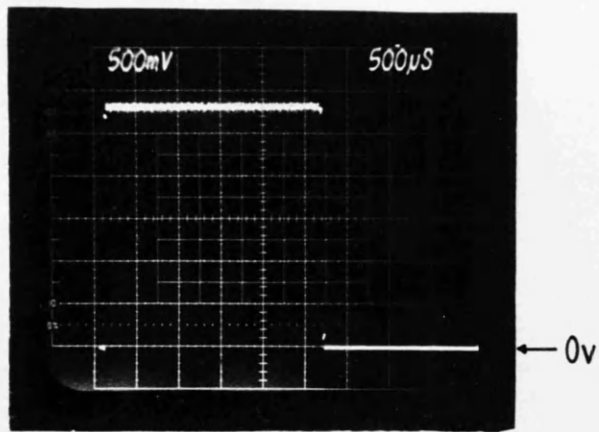


Figure 7.14 Response Of Reticon 1 To Constant Illumination As A Function Of Integration Time $T=0^{\circ}\text{C}$

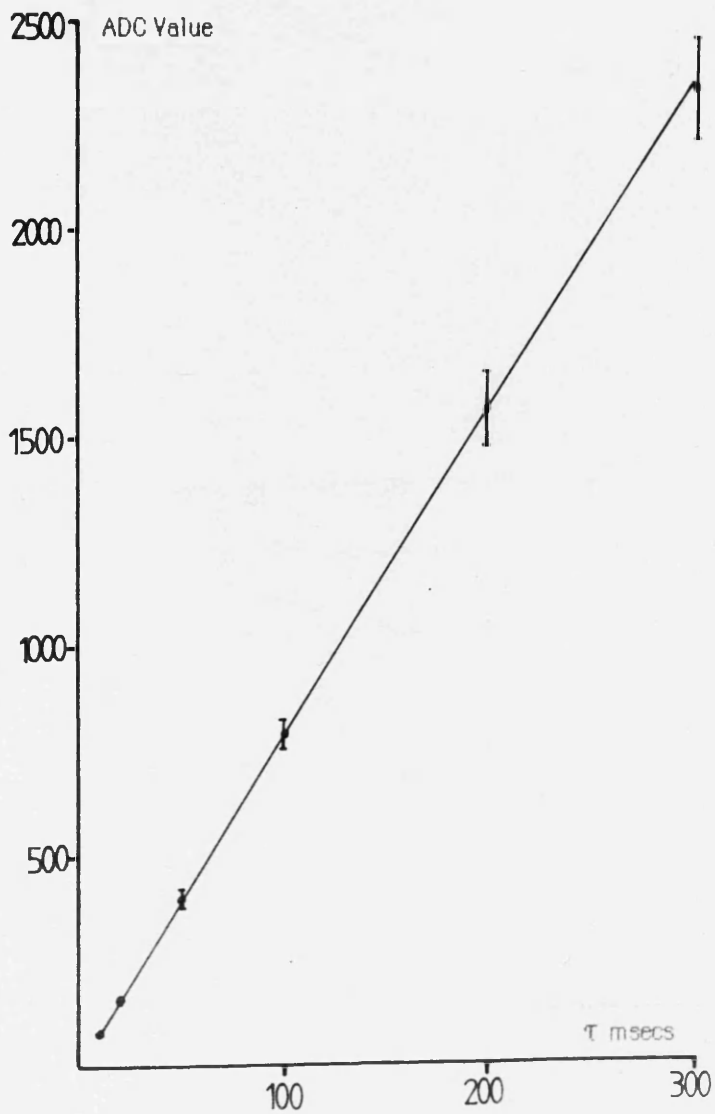


Figure 7.15a Response Of Reticon 1 To Varying Illumination Level
 $T = 0^{\circ}\text{C}$ $\tau = 50 \text{ msec}$

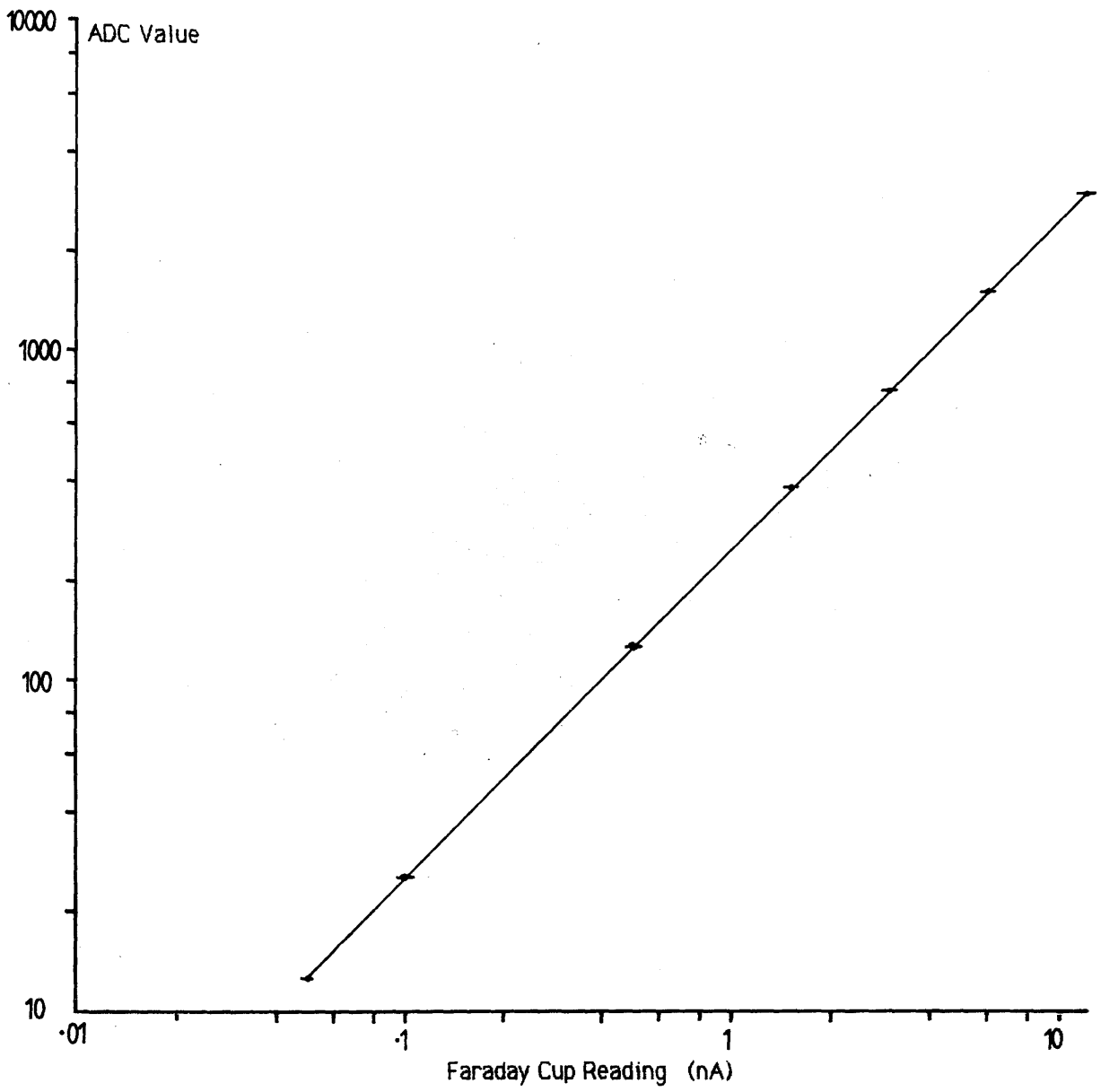
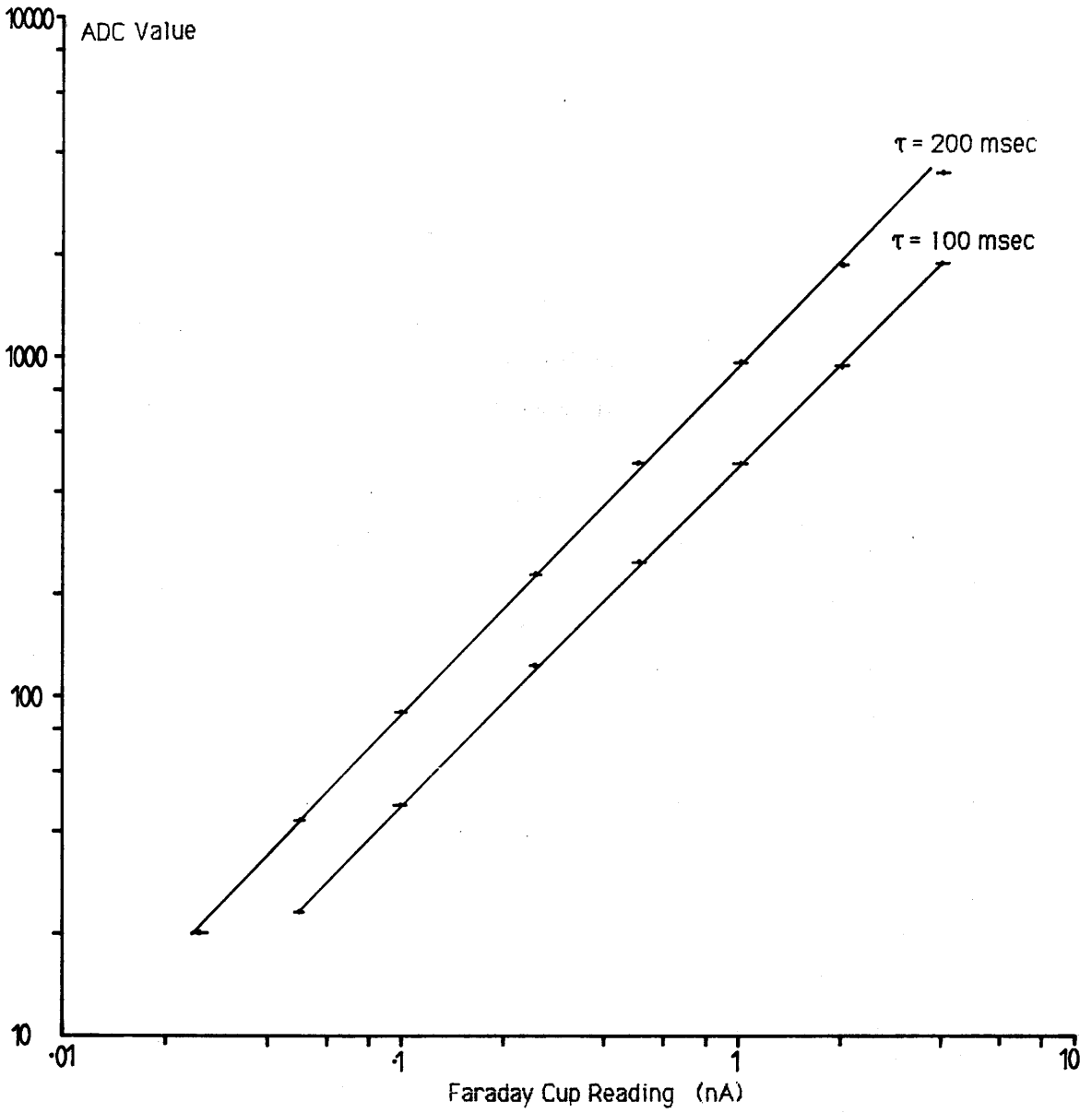


Figure 7.15b Response Of Reticon 2 To Varying Illumination Level

$T = 0^{\circ}\text{C}$



maintaining uniform illumination. A similar experiment was carried out using Reticon 2 with increased integration times of 100 msec and 200 msec, again at 0°C. Figure 7.15b shows that the response using the shorter integration time is linear to within experimental error, while that using the longer integration time appears to fall off slightly as the array reaches saturation. This effect cannot be due to saturation of the scintillator as the current density of the electron beam is no greater than that used in the shorter integration time. From figure 7.4b the integrated dark current could only amount to ~30 ADC counts, so that this could not be the cause. Similar behaviour was exhibited by Reticon 1 under identical conditions, suggesting that some kind of saturation process is occurring in the photodiodes.

7.6.2 Uniformity of response and digital correction- Reticon RL128S

A measure of the non-uniformity of response of the Reticon diodes was obtained by examination of a uniformly illuminated scan after subtraction of the dark signal component. A figure for the percentage non-uniformity was calculated by dividing the differences of the most and least sensitive elements by the average value of the diodes along the array. Naturally, this figure contains some contribution from non-uniform components present in either the electron illumination or luminescent screen; however the technique of digital response correction described later can compensate for this, at least in part.

Reticon specify the non-uniformity of response for the S-series PDAs, measured at 50% of saturation, to be $\leq \pm 10\%$ at 25°C. Measurements on the two diodes using the YAG screen gave experimental values of $\sim \pm 1.8\%$ for Reticon 1 and $\sim \pm 2.5\%$ for Reticon 2 (ignoring diode 1) under these conditions - well within the specified response figure.

After subtraction of the dark signal any non-random variation in the output signal from photodiodes under ideal uniform illumination is due to differences in the diode to diode sensitivity along the array, plus any component of signal dependent fixed pattern noise not common to the dark signal. Subject to the limitations imposed by flicker noise, the non-uniform response can be corrected to first order by multiplying the video data by a digital mask stored in memory. This is known as digital response correction. In practice the technique is only capable of correcting variations caused by linear effects, i.e. if the individual photodiode sensitivities are not constant but vary as a function of signal level, then simple correction is not possible.

Best results using this technique were obtained using digital masks made by uniformly illuminating the array with the maximum signal intensity to be recorded, subtracting off the

dark signal component and dividing the resultant scan by the average value of all the diodes. In practice, it was found that if the initial scan and the dark scan were produced by averaging the results of 10 identical consecutive scans the effects of flicker noise and spurious interference signals could be reduced, so that better correction was obtained.

Figure 7.16 shows the advantages of digital response correction for the Reticon 1 array operated at 0°C with an integration time of 50 msec. The array was uniformly illuminated at various intensities over a range of three orders of magnitude, and the corresponding average signal value (after dark scan subtraction) is plotted along the horizontal axis in terms of ADC counts. The vertical axis is scaled as $\pm\%$ non-uniformity in the recorded scans. This value is not a simple 'highest-lowest' type estimate as before, but is calculated from three times the standard deviation about the mean (3σ level) of each uniform scan. The reasons for choosing this generally more conservative criterion are; firstly that spurious single channel effects are averaged out, and secondly it gives a better representation of the improvement in response that can be achieved using digital response correction.

The top curve of figure 7.16 represents the unprocessed data after dark scan subtraction, while the lower curve is the same data after multiplication by a digital response correction mask generated in the manner described previously. The upper straight line is the limit to signal uniformity imposed by the readout noise (3σ level $\sim 3.3\text{LSB}$) whilst the remaining line represents the fundamental uniformity limit imposed by the 12 bit digitisation.

At low signal levels, the non-uniformity is dominated by the readout noise described in section 7.2 and digital response correction has no effect. As the signal level increases the effect of random noise decreases, and the corrected scan begins to show some clear improvement in uniformity remaining close to the readout noise limit. The 3σ level drops to below 1% for average signal outputs ≥ 500 ADC counts, while at midrange the non-uniformity is reduced to below $\pm 0.4\%$. Comparison of the corrected scan with the uniformity limit imposed by readout noise shows that perfect correction is not achieved - the limiting factors are most likely flicker noise and non-linear sensitivity effects.

Figure 7.17 shows the results of digital response correction when the incident illumination was held constant and the diode integration time was varied at an operating temperature of 0°C. In this case the correction mask was made at the longest integration time of 300msecs, where the average value of the scan was 2344 ADC counts. The graph illustrates the effectiveness of the technique and again shows non-uniformity of response corrected to

Figure 7.16 Digital Response Correction For Varying Illumination Levels

Reticon 1. $T = 0^{\circ}\text{C}$ $\tau = 50$ msec

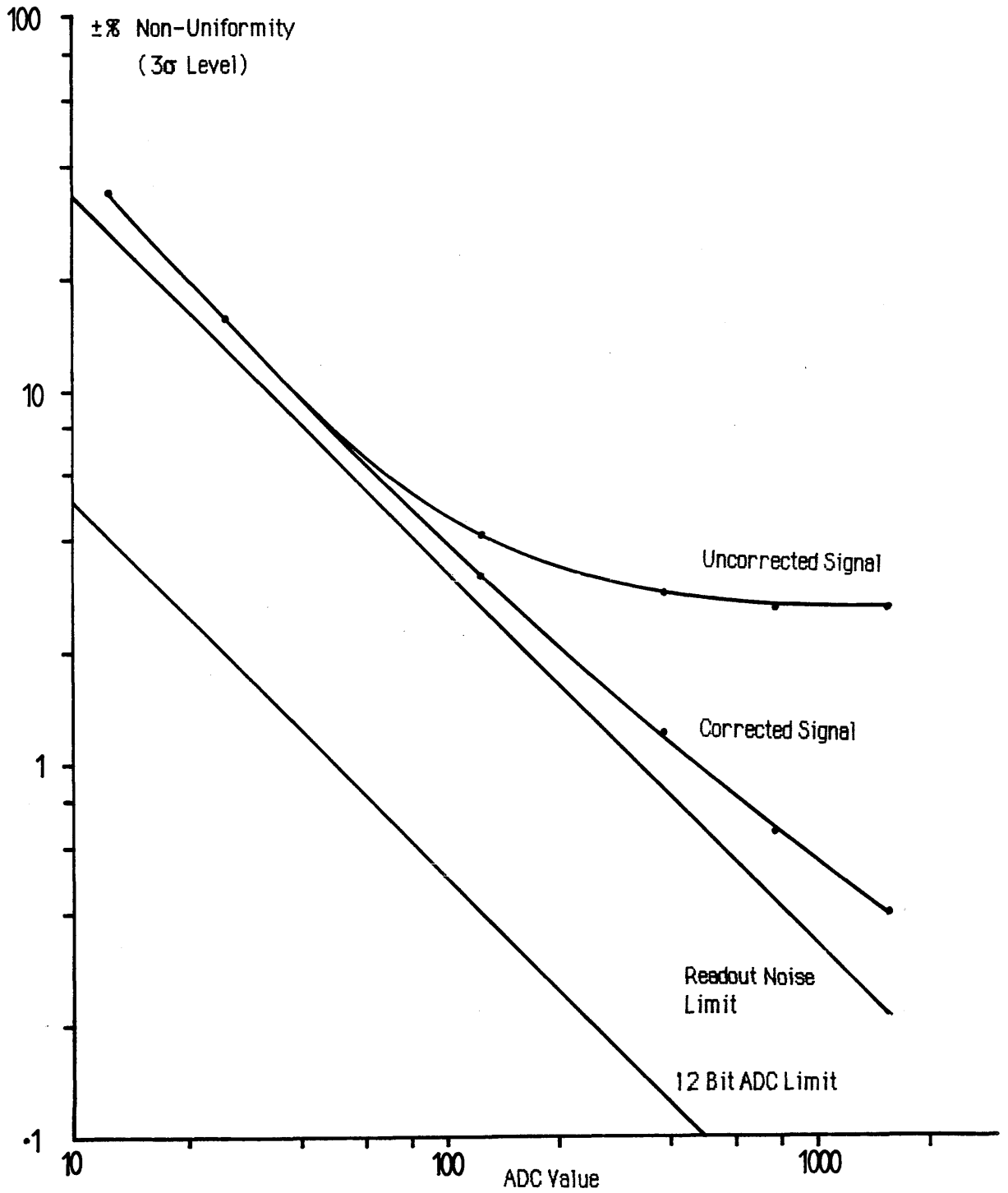
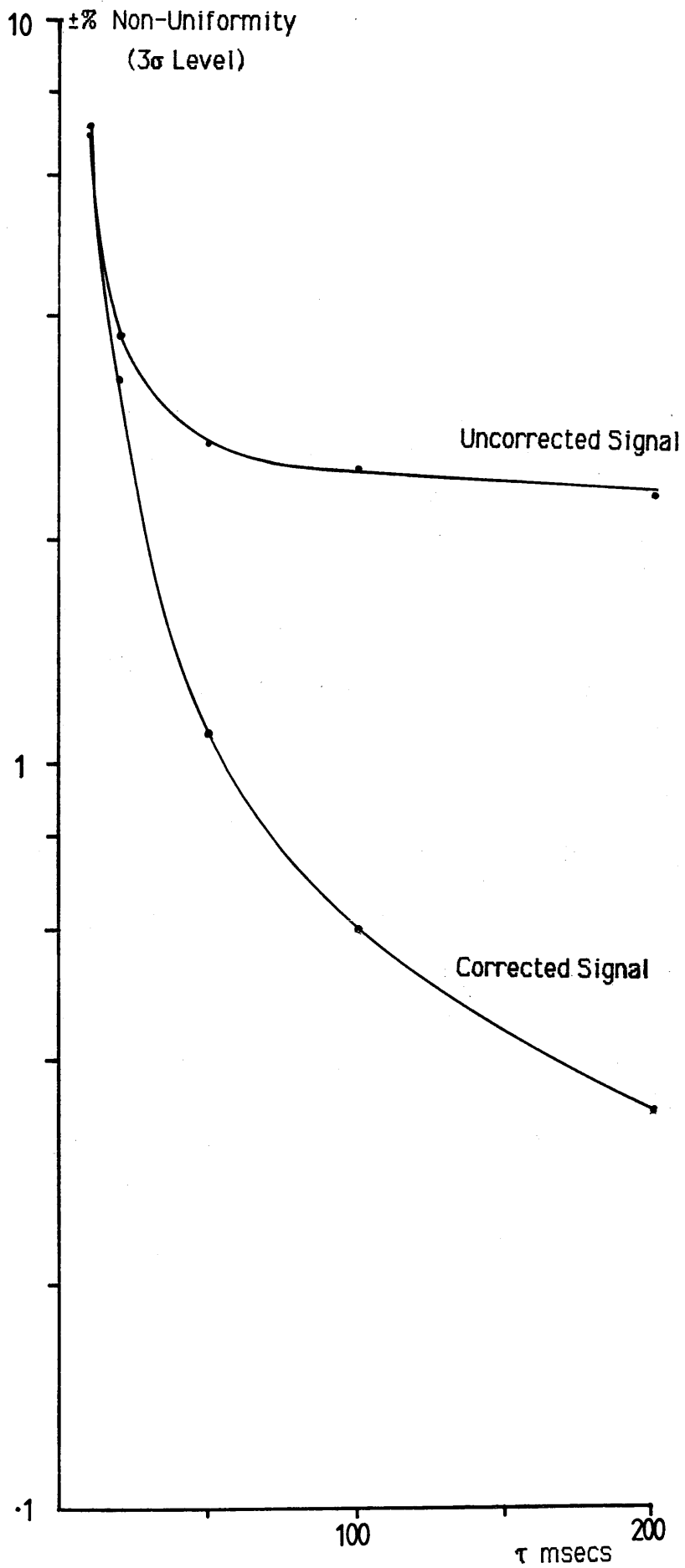


Figure 7.17

Digital Response Correction For Varying
Integration Times - Reticon I T=0°C



$\leq \pm 0.4\%$ for midrange signals. The above experiments were also carried out using Reticon 2 and the results were very similar. The significance of these figures is discussed more fully in section 7.8.

7.7 OPTICAL RESPONSE : Hamamatsu S2304-512F array

The video output signal of the Hamamatsu photodiode array just before saturation is shown in figure 7.18a, using a 20 msec integration time at 0°C . Figure 7.18b shows the output when the illumination is increased so that the photodiodes were over-saturated. The saturation video voltage is 2.8 volts, corresponding to ~ 3820 ADC counts. It was found that this value was dependent upon the reference clock frequency applied to the C2325 driver/amplifier board, and hence the diode sampling rate. At lower frequencies than the 50 kHz sample rate used for all these experiments the saturation video voltage reached 3V, suggesting some form of bandwidth limitation in the video amplifier section.

The rounded response shown in figure 7.18a is due to some non-uniformity in the incident illumination rather than the array itself. The shape of the response could be altered by small shifts in the position of the defocussed electron beam, suggesting that there was some variance in the current density applied to the YAG screen over the 12.8mm active length of the array. The effect was probably not apparent when using the Reticon arrays because of their much shorter active lengths of 3.2mm.

7.7.1 Linearity of response: Hamamatsu S2304-512F array

Figure 7.19 graphs the response of the Hamamatsu photodiode array to constant illumination as a function of integration time at a temperature of 0°C . The vertical axis plots the average value of each scan after subtraction of the dark signal component. The relationship is linear to within experimental error, under all operating temperatures from -10°C to $+30^{\circ}\text{C}$. The associated relationship between photodiode response and incident illumination level is plotted in figure 7.20 using an integration time of 1sec at 0°C . Again the beam current reading on the horizontal axis is only relative as the illumination was defocussed, however the response is seen to be linear within experimental error.

7.7.2 Uniformity of response+digital correction:Hamamatsu S2304-512F

The non-uniformity of response of the Hamamatsu photodiode array is specified to be $\leq \pm 5\%$ at half saturation at 25°C . A true experimental value could not be obtained using the YAG screen because of the non-uniform illumination produced, however later experiments using

Figure 7.18a Hamamatsu Photodiode Just Before Saturation

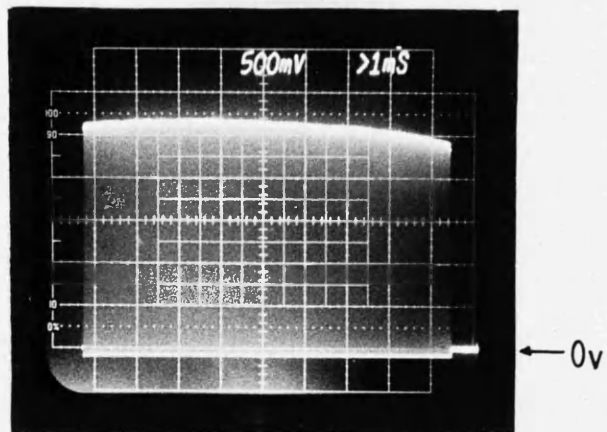


Figure 7.18b Hamamatsu Photodiode Oversaturated

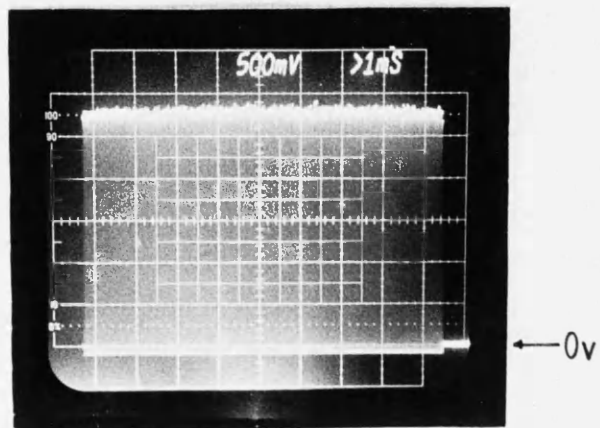


Figure 7.19 Response Of Hamamatsu S2304-512F To Constant Illumination As A Function Of Integration Time $T=0^{\circ}\text{C}$

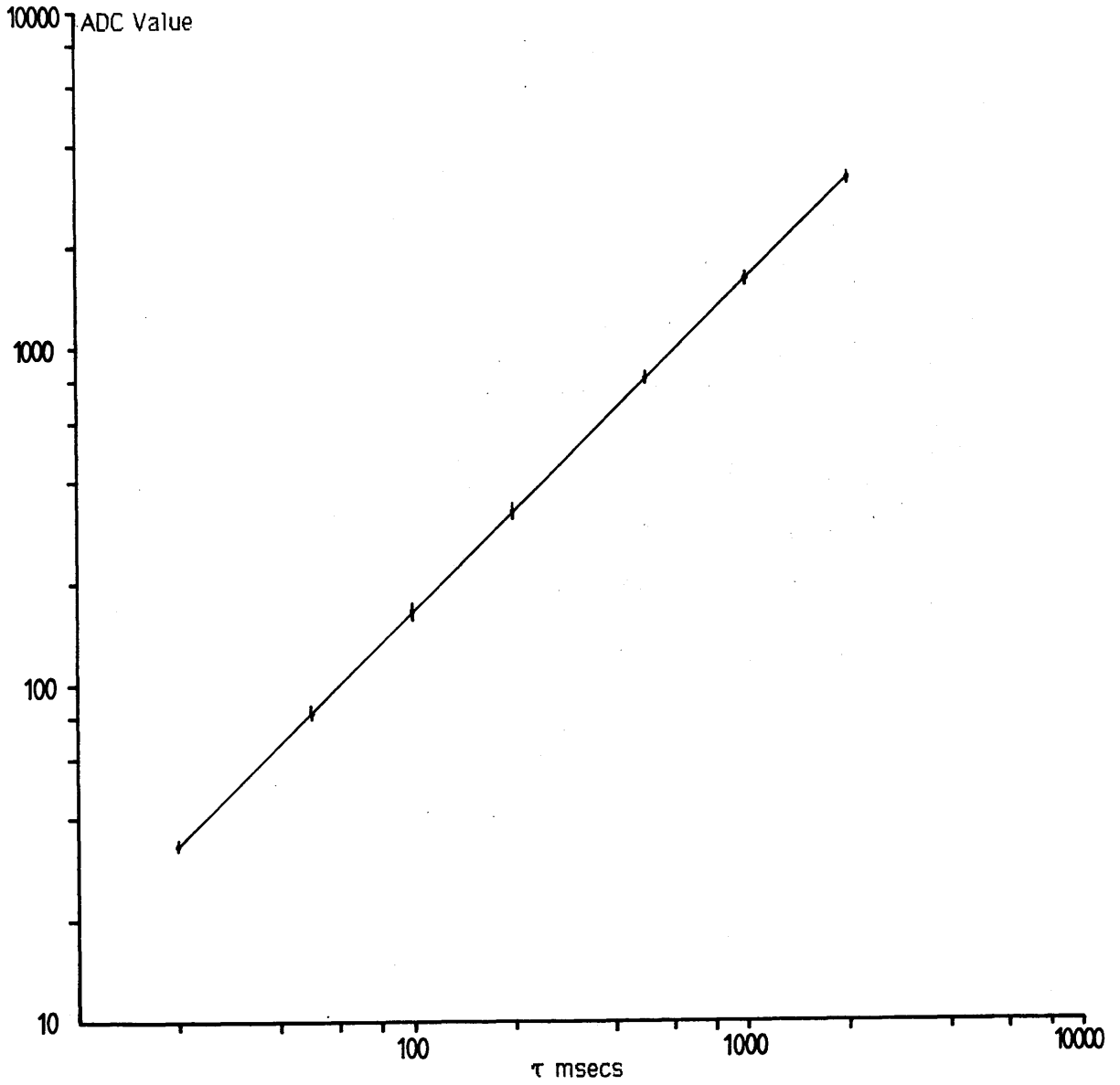
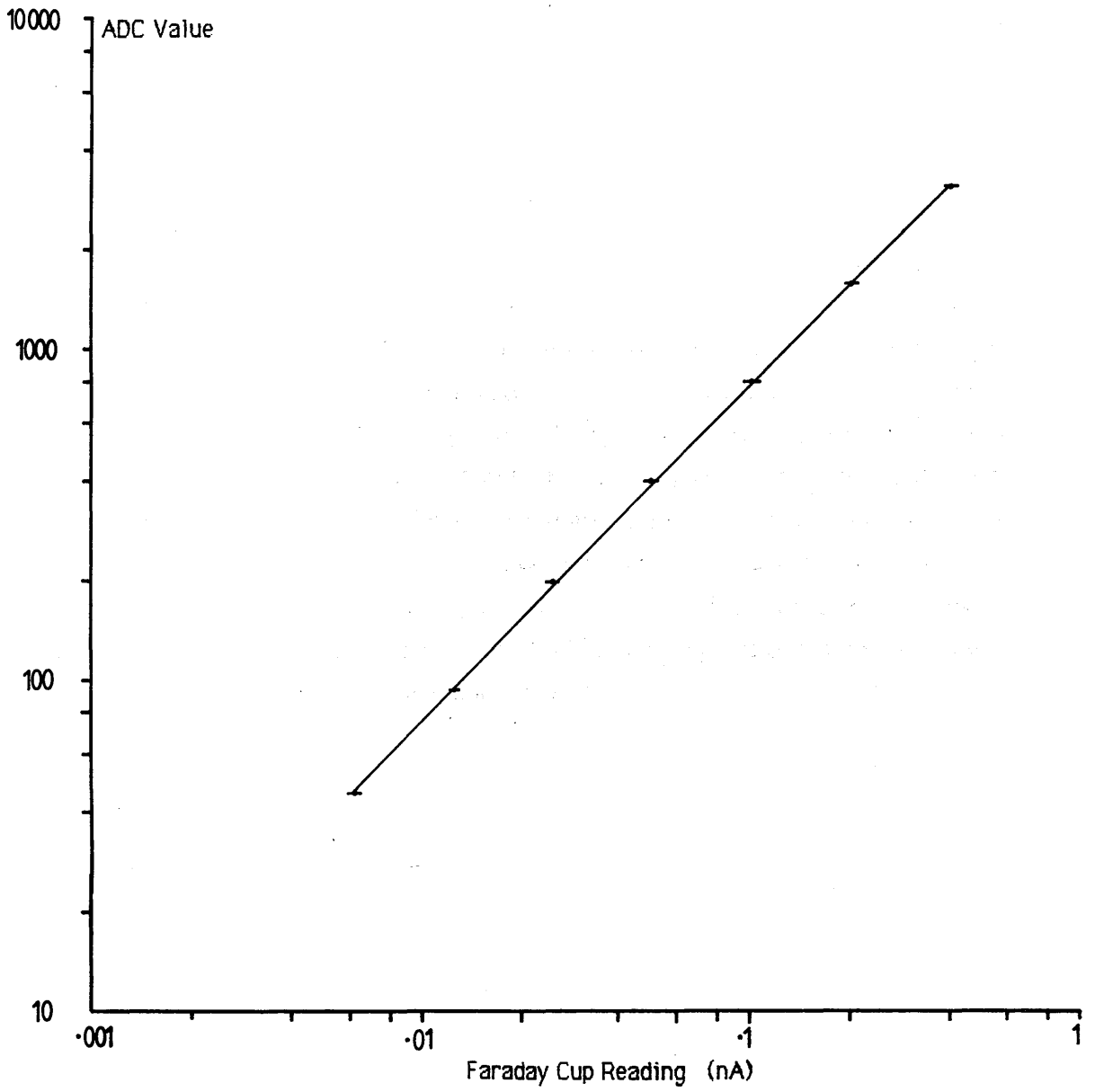


Figure 7.20 Response Of Hamamatsu S2304-512F To Varying
Illumination Level $T = 0^{\circ}\text{C}$ $\tau = 1 \text{ sec}$



the Terbium doped scintillator faceplate described in chapter 8 seemed to produce a more uniform response (see figure 8.7a), and an experimental value for the non-uniformity of response (based on a 'highest-lowest' calculation) of $\pm 1.2\%$ was measured, exclusive of the first and last diodes in the scan. The only plausible explanation for this is that somehow the microscope parameters were altered in the time between the two sets of experiments, so that the illumination became more uniform.

Figure 7.21 shows the effect of digital response correction on the Hamamatsu array when illuminated using the Terbium screen. The integration time was 1 sec and the operating temperature was 0°C . As before the non-uniformity is plotted as a $\pm\%$ obtained from the 3σ level of each uniformly illuminated scan. The unprocessed data shows a 3σ non-uniformity $\sim \pm 2\%$ at midrange values. In comparison, the non-uniformity of the digitally corrected scan drops below $\pm 1\%$ at ADC values ≥ 500 counts, and seems to be reduced to $< \pm 0.5\%$ for ADC counts > 1000 . A comparison with the limiting uniformity line, calculated on the basis of ± 3.3 LSB readout noise (3σ level) shows that again perfect correction is not obtained; the performance is similar to that of the Reticon arrays. The Hamamatsu array does not possess any measurable flicker noise, so that the limitation to perfect correction must be non-linear sensitivity effects in the individual photodiodes.

Figure 7.22 shows the results of digital response correction when the incident intensity is held constant and the diode integration time is varied at a constant temperature of 0°C . This experiment was carried out using the YAG screen, as the incident electron current was not altered during the measurements hence the non-uniformity in illumination was constant and could be corrected. The required digital correction mask was made at an integration time of 2 secs, which corresponded to an average ADC value of 3196. Again the correction is seen to be very effective.

7.8 SUMMARY OF OPTICAL RESPONSE EXPERIMENTS

The results of the optical response experiments described previously are briefly summarised in the next two sections, and the performances of the Reticon and Hamamatsu photodiode arrays are compared.

7.8.1 Linearity of response

An examination of figures 7.13 and 7.18b shows that the saturation video voltage levels of both the Hamamatsu and Reticon arrays are $\sim 2.8\text{V}$ instead of 3V under the prescribed

Figure 7.21 Digital Response Correction For Varying Illumination Levels
 Hamamatsu S2304-512F T = 0°C τ = 1 sec - Terbium Screen

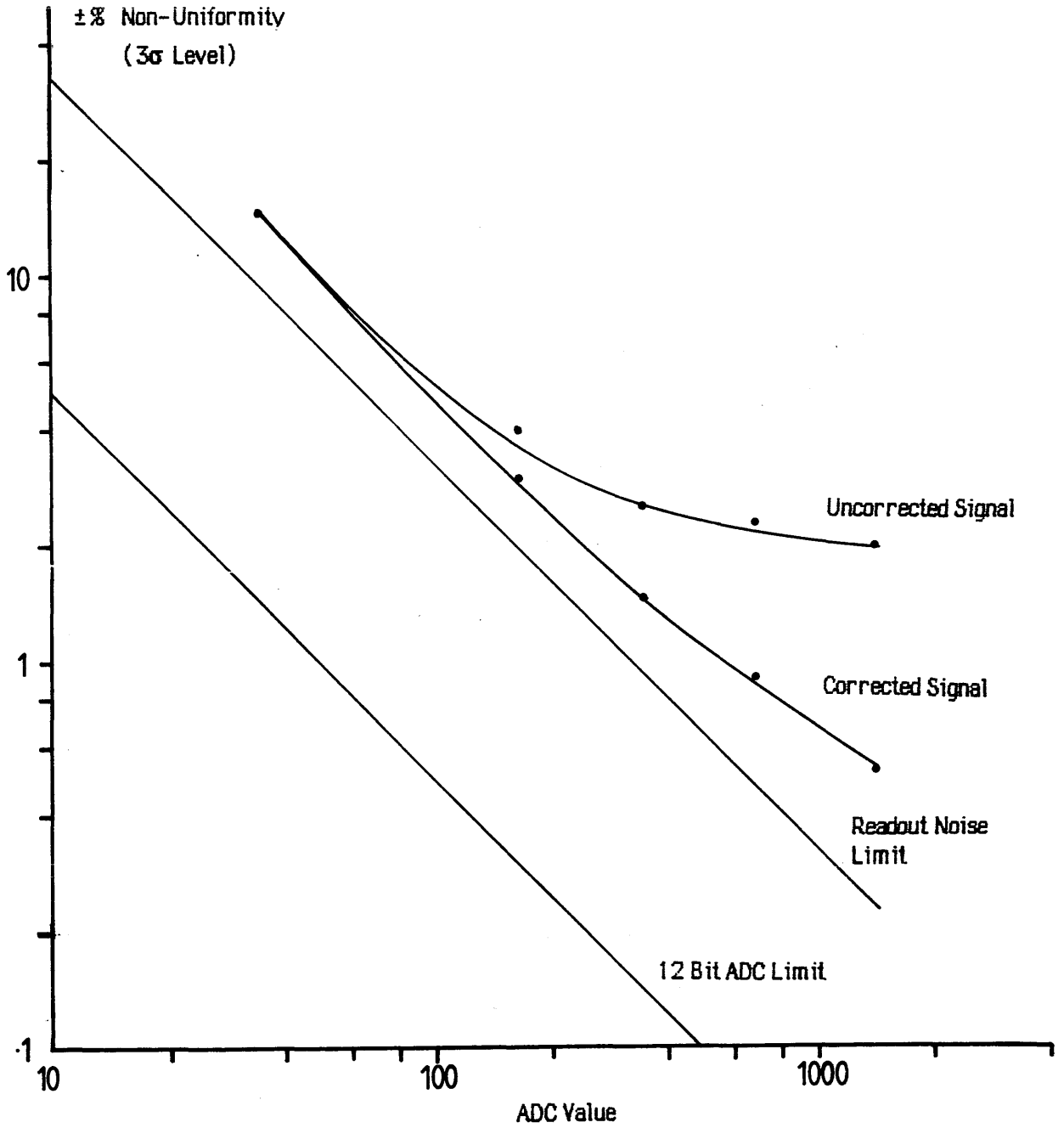
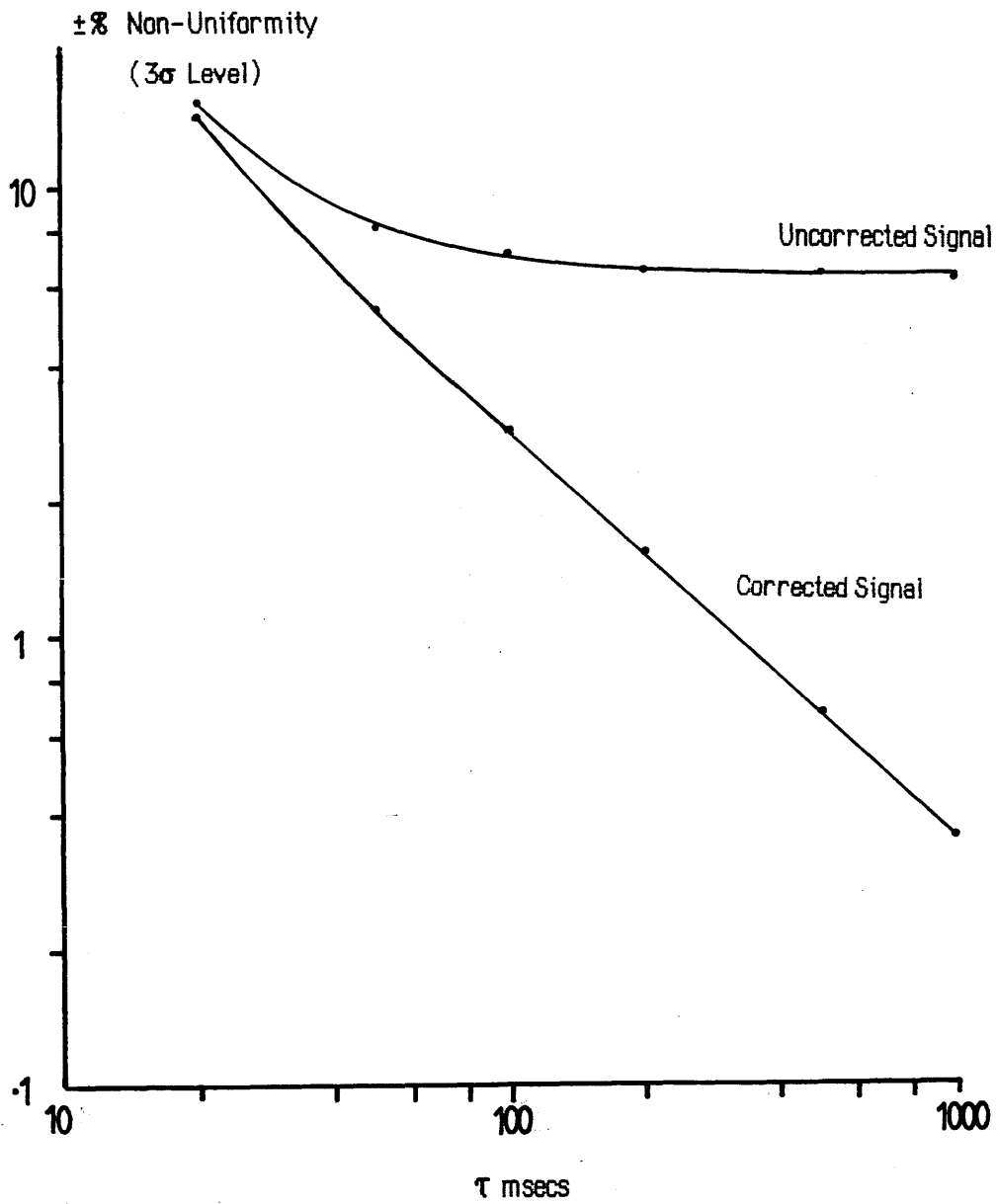


Figure 7.22 Digital Response Correction For Varying Integration Times
Hamamatsu S2304-512F T=0°C YAG Screen



operating conditions. Possible causes of these effects have been discussed in the relevant sections, and a slight increase in the gain applied to the video signal prior to digitisation should restore the full dynamic range.

As regards linearity of response to uniform illumination both devices responded well, except when close to saturation. Figure 7.15b illustrates a slight non-linearity in response of the Reticon array as the signal level increases towards saturation. Any similar such non-linearity in the response of the Hamamatsu array was small enough to be hidden by the uncertainty in beam current measurement as shown in figure 7.20.

7.8.2 Uniformity of response and digital response correction

Values for the non-uniformity of response of the two Reticon arrays, based on the difference of the most and least sensitive elements, were found to be $\sim\pm 1.8\%$ and $\sim\pm 2.5\%$ at half saturation for Reticon 1 and Reticon 2 respectively, using the YAG screen. Both figures are considerably better than the $\pm 10\%$ uniformity specified by the manufacturers. In comparison, the corresponding uniformity figure for the Hamamatsu array was found to be $\pm 1.2\%$, measured using the terbium fibre-optic screen. Again this figure is better than the manufacturers specification of $\pm 5\%$

These figures are influenced to some extent by the degree of uniformity present in both the illumination and the luminescent screens. Unfortunately, time prevented the investigation of the Reticon response when illuminated using the terbium screen, however later experiments on the uniformity of various types of screen (section 8.2.3) suggests that the difference would not be large.

The improvement in uniformity of response obtained by digital response correction is clearly illustrated for both types of photodiode in figures 7.16 and 7.21. The degree of correction obtained for both photodiodes is similar; - the figures show that the non-uniformity of response can be reduced to $\leq\pm 0.4\%$ at half saturation for both types of array. This level of correction does not quite approach the uniformity limit imposed by the readout noise, suggesting that there are some non-linear sensitivity effects occurring in both the Reticon and Hamamatsu photodiodes. However, it is most likely that a reduction in readout noise levels would result in a corresponding improvement in the uniformity of response levels that can be achieved in both types of array.

CHAPTER 8

Electron-photon conversion and Detective Quantum Efficiency

Introduction

The examination of the properties of two commercial photodiode arrays carried out in the previous chapter illustrated the superiority of the Hamamatsu S2304-512F device for use as a parallel detector in EELS. However, the performance of indirect detection systems based around this or any other detector depends crucially upon the properties of the electron-photon conversion medium. The most important parameters to be considered are: efficiency of photon production, linearity and uniformity of response, resistance to radiation damage, spatial resolution, spectral response and decay time. This chapter describes experimental measurements of the above properties for various luminescent screens, referenced to those of a commercial high resolution Zn Cd S: Ag (P20) phosphor screen manufactured by Mullard for use as an image intensifier faceplate. The screens examined include: P46 cerium doped yttrium aluminate powder phosphor screens in three different particle sizes supplied by Derby Luminescents Ltd, two single crystal YAG screens thinned by different polishing techniques and a novel terbium doped fibre optic faceplate scintillator developed by Collimated Holes Inc. Results are presented for these screens, and the detective quantum efficiency of a complete detector assembly consisting of the Hamamatsu photodiode array fibre-optically coupled to the screen with the most favourable qualities is evaluated. Unfortunately it was not possible to test the detector by recording an actual EELS spectrum because of the lack of a suitable spectrometer, but a line image through the spot diffraction pattern of a single crystal gold specimen was recorded in the JEM 100C microscope. The dynamic range of such a pattern is comparable to that found in EELS spectra. Finally, the diffraction line scan was compared to one serially recorded from the HB5 using the same specimen, in order to estimate the degree of spreading in the image.

8.1 LUMINESCENT SCREENS AND COUPLING OPTICS

The amount of data published concerning the fabrication and properties of luminescent screens is almost overwhelming, dating right back to the invention of the cathode ray tube. Frequently the information presented is confusing or even contradictory because of the large effects that minute differences in phosphor composition, purity, and deposition can introduce. No attempt will be made here to discuss the complex mechanisms of photon

production in the myriads of compounds which exhibit cathodoluminescence, a standard reference being the book by Leverenz [1950] or the review by Garlick [1966]. A useful investigation of the performance of some scintillators commonly used in electron microscopy is given by Pawley [1974]. The properties required of an ideal conversion screen are discussed, and a brief description of some of the types of luminescent materials which could be considered is given. The particular compounds thought to be most promising for use in this application are highlighted, and investigated further in later sections. The most appropriate form of optical coupling between the luminescent screen and the photodiode array is via a fibre-optic plate; some of the advantages this method offers over conventional lens optics are also mentioned.

8.1.1 Electron-photon conversion and image transfer

When a 100keV electron strikes a solid scintillator it gradually loses energy in a series of scattering processes. The fraction of this energy converted to light is known as the scintillator conversion efficiency. Assuming, on average, an energy of $\sim 2.5\text{eV}$ is required to create one photon, then a scintillator with a 5% conversion efficiency would produce ~ 2000 photons per incident electron. This figure assumes that all the electron energy is deposited in the scintillator, if there is a large amount of backscattering or the screen thickness is less than the electron range the number of photons produced will be reduced.

The photons emitted by the luminescent centres in any scintillator propagate in all directions, so that only a fraction find their way to the exit surface. The addition of a thin reflecting layer of aluminium at the input surface helps to retain light which would otherwise be lost, at some cost to the spatial resolution. The aluminium screen fulfills the dual role of providing a conducting path to ground, which is most important for transmission screens fabricated on insulating transparent media such as quartz or glass. Photons which have to travel a long path distance in the scintillator may well be reabsorbed, particularly in thick screens of opaque powder phosphors. In the case of transparent single crystal scintillators light which strikes the polished input and output faces at angles greater than the critical angle is totally internally reflected and piped out to the edges of the crystal, or dissipated at surface defects such as scratches, pits or burrs. Shauer and Atrata [1979] have shown that matt finishing the output surface of bulk single crystal YAG scintillators can increase the light output by 30% due to the suppression of light piping. Atrata [1978] also suggests that the corresponding increase in the light output of thinned scintillators is likely to be up to $\sim 60\%$, but the effect on screen resolution and uniformity is not clear.

The light produced by a luminescent screen can most efficiently be coupled into the photodiode array using fibre-optic plates, as large numerical apertures can easily be obtained over a wide area without distortion, allowing more efficient transfer of the light than conventional lens optics. Another advantage of fibre-optic technology is that the screens are strong enough to be made into vacuum windows, so that the scintillator inside the vacuum system can be laid directly onto a fibre-optic vacuum seal; - the output face of which is in contact with the fibre-optic window of the photodiode array in air (if the array is cooled then it should be in a roughing vacuum to prevent condensation). The complete optical system is then very robust and compact, needing no setting up once in operation. The transfer efficiency of the fibre-optics depends upon the numerical aperture, open area, and transmittance of the individual fibres at the wavelengths of interest. The small size of fibre repeat distances ($<10\mu\text{m}$) available in current faceplates means that the spatial resolution of the system will be limited by the screen itself rather than the coupling optics.

Not all the photons which eventually reach the photodiode array are ultimately recorded. Some of the light is absorbed in the SiO_2 layer at the diode surfaces, particularly the blue wavelengths. The transmission of the PDA fibre-optic input window is also a function of wavelength, tending towards a maximum in the red end of the spectrum. These factors determine the quantum efficiency of the array, which describes the percentage of incident photons which are recorded as a function of wavelength. Figures taken from the standard Hamamatsu data sheets indicate that the S2304 series Hamamatsu arrays with a quartz input window have a spectral response peak at $\sim 600\text{nm}$ where the quantum efficiency is 71%. With a fibre-optic input window the peak shifts to $\sim 750\text{nm}$ with a quantum efficiency of $\sim 52\%$ and the quantum efficiency at 600nm is reduced to $\sim 44\%$.

8.1.2 Performance requirements of an ideal scintillator

The high dynamic range of a typical EELS spectrum means that the electron beam current incident upon the scintillator in a parallel recording system will vary over a range of $\sim 10^{-5}\text{A/cm}^2$ to $\sim 10^{-11}\text{A/cm}^2$, although much higher current densities may occur during alignment. It is most important that the light production of the luminescent screen is linear over this range, and that it does not suffer from radiation damage caused by prolonged exposure to the higher intensities. The efficiency of photon production should be high enough so that low level signals can be detected above the photodiode readout noise, and the spatial resolution should ideally match that of the photodiode array i.e. 20 line pairs/mm. The principal decay time should be reasonably short $<1\mu\text{sec}$, and more importantly there should be no long secondary time constants to produce low intensity afterglow effects which

could cause artefacts to occur at the low current range of the spectrum. The spectral output of the scintillator should provide a reasonable match for the Hamamatsu array with a fibre-optic input window, so that scintillators which emit in the blue region are not suitable. The final requirements are that the screen should be mechanically robust, UHV compatible and preferably able to be vacuum baked to 200°C.

8.1.3 Scintillator materials

Compounds exhibiting cathodoluminescence can be categorised into 5 groups determined by their physical structure and chemical composition. The basic categories are listed below along with a brief discussion of their important properties.

A) Inorganic Powder Phosphors

These are the most common types of luminescent screens and have been extensively investigated for use in television, radar and general display devices. The materials consist of a polycrystalline powder deposited (usually by liquid sedimentation methods) on a glass or other suitable substrate. Much early work on high efficiency, fast decay phosphors was carried out by Brill and Klasens [1952a,1952b] who found that compounds of zinc sulphide activated by silver (ZnS: Ag) had the highest absolute conversion efficiencies of any scintillator at ~25%. Unfortunately the decay times of the most efficient phosphors are usually rather long. The strongest candidates in this class for recording EELS spectra are cerium doped yttrium aluminate phosphors (P46). Figures published by Auzrat et al [1983a] indicate that the conversion efficiency of this phosphor is ~4%, decay time is ~200nsec to 10%, the spectral response peak occurs at ~560nm, and resistance to radiation damage is extremely good. There is no commercially available phosphor with a longer wavelength emission which can match the speed and linearity of this compound [Hill 1985].

B) Inorganic Single Crystals

This class of scintillators consists of blocks of single crystal usually grown from a melt. The conversion efficiencies are generally less than that of ZnS: Ag with thallium activated sodium iodide (NaI:Tl) being the most efficient at ~13%. Other single crystal scintillators available include caesium iodide (CsI:Na) and calcium fluoride (CaF₂:Eu), but the most useful of all for microscopy are the single crystal forms of cerium activated yttrium aluminium perovskite or YAP (Y Al O₃) and yttrium aluminium garnet or YAG (Y₃ Al₅ O₁₂).

Of the two the latter has the more suitable spectral emission for coupling to photodiode arrays. Atrata et al. [1983b] measured the conversion efficiency of YAG to be ~4% with a decay time similar to that of P46, and found that the material was almost unaffected by radiation damage. These properties, together with the uniformity of response and mechanical strength advantages inherent in the single crystal structure, make single crystal YAG a leading contender for this application.

C) Glass Scintillators

Certain types of lithium activated glasses (e.g. NE901) fluoresce with the required short time constant and are reasonably resistant to radiation damage. Unfortunately the light emission tends to occur in the blue region of the spectrum and the efficiency of production is not high. An interesting new scintillator material developed by Collimated Holes Inc. uses glass fibres activated with terbium oxide. The fibres are formed into a fibre-optic faceplate which can be made into a scintillating vacuum seal. A pre-production sample of this scintillator was made available for testing for general use in electron microscopy and EELS in particular.

D) Organic Single Crystals

Luminescent single crystals of organic compounds such as anthracene and naphthalene can be grown from the melt and have been applied to electron microscopy. Decay times are suitably short, but the spectral response tends to be unsuitable for coupling to photodiode arrays, and the vapour pressure of these compounds tends to be too high for UHV applications. Also the resistance to radiation damage of these materials is not high enough for EELS.

E) Plastic Scintillators

Plastic scintillators such as NE102A have very fast decay times and are reasonably efficient. The main drawback, as reported by Pawley [1974], is an extreme sensitivity to radiation damage which renders this class of materials almost unusable for EELS.

8.1.4 Preparation of luminescent screens

All the screens examined (except the terbium faceplate) were prepared on fibre-optic faceplates supplied by Mullard Ltd. Figure 8.1a is a photograph of one of these plates. The

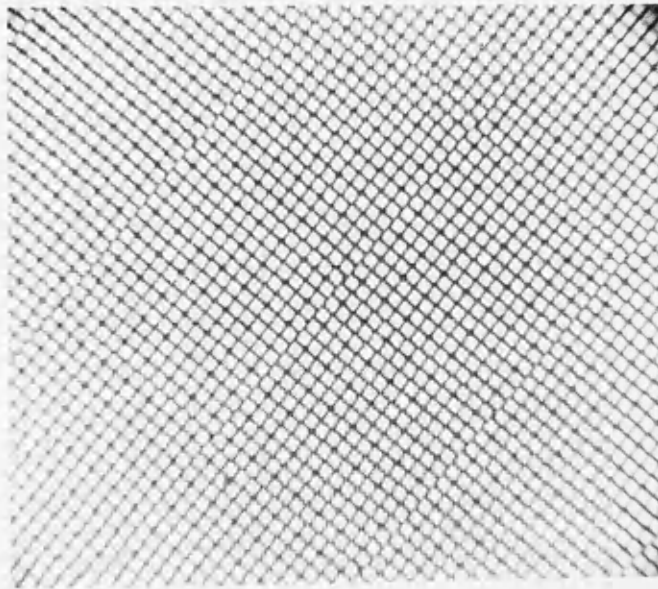
Figure 8.1a

Mullard Fibre Optic Faceplate



Figure 8.1b

Optical Micrograph of Fibre Plate



Repeat distance = $5.5\mu\text{m}$

diameter of the central circle which contains the fibres is ~20mm, and the plate is ~4mm thick. Figure 8.1b is an optical transmission micrograph showing the regular construction of the fibre bundles. The light areas are the fibre cores which make up ~90% of the total area and the dark lines are the optically inactive fibre cladding. The diamond shaped area at the intersection of each group of four fibres is an extra-mural absorber which helps to reduce cross-talk between fibres. The fibre repeat distance in figure 8.1b is ~5.5 μ m and Mullard specify the numerical aperture in air and the optical transmission to be 1.0 and 60% respectively. The methods of luminescent screen production used are described in the following subsections.

A) P46 Powder Screens

The P46 powder was obtained from Derby Luminescents Ltd. in three different grades: YAG69M, YAG69MM and YAG69MF, corresponding to mean particle sizes of 8-9 μ m, 6 μ m, and 3 μ m respectively. The actual fabrication method used was the standard sedimentation method described below, the only difference being that it was found to be necessary to add a few drops of collodion binder to ensure good screen adhesion of the 3 μ m grade phosphor. The method was as follows:

- 1) First of all the fibre optic plate and all glassware used in the procedure were thoroughly cleaned in the following manner:
 - a) Wash in quadralene solution, rubbing surfaces vigorously with a clean cloth.
 - b) Ultrasonic for 5 mins in fresh quadralene solution.
 - c) Rinse in de-ionised water.
 - d) Ultrasonic for 5 mins in acetone.
 - e) Ultrasonic for 5 mins in absolute alcohol.
 - f) Blow dry using inert gas e.g. dry nitrogen.

- 2) Approximately 1g of phosphor powder was weighed out and added to 100ml of acetone [at this point a few drops of collodion binder were added to the 3 μ m suspension]. The solution was agitated in an ultrasonic bath for 5 minutes then quickly decanted into the settling dish containing the fibre optic plate. It was found to be best if the fibre optic was immersed in ~50ml of acetone prior to the introduction of the phosphor suspension. The top of the dish was covered to prevent dust contamination and the solution left overnight or until such time as all the phosphor had settled out. After the required settling time the drain tap on the settling dish was opened to allow

the remaining acetone to escape slowly, without disturbing the screen.

- 3) The finished screen was carefully removed from the settling dish and the excess phosphor removed using a fine point artists' brush and an air-jet. A conductive coating of $\sim 50\text{nm}$ of aluminium was then evaporated onto the top surface, and the screen was ready for use.

The limited quantities of phosphor powder available meant that the scope for experimentation with screen weights was very limited, as it often took several tries to produce an acceptable screen. In the end the screens tested had weights of $35\text{mg}/\text{cm}^2$ for the $8\text{-}9\mu\text{m}$ grain size, $18\text{mg}/\text{cm}^2$ for the $6\mu\text{m}$ grain size and $15\text{mg}/\text{cm}^2$ for the $3\mu\text{m}$ grain size. The first screen weight is really too heavy for imaging 100keV electrons, however it was the best available at the time.

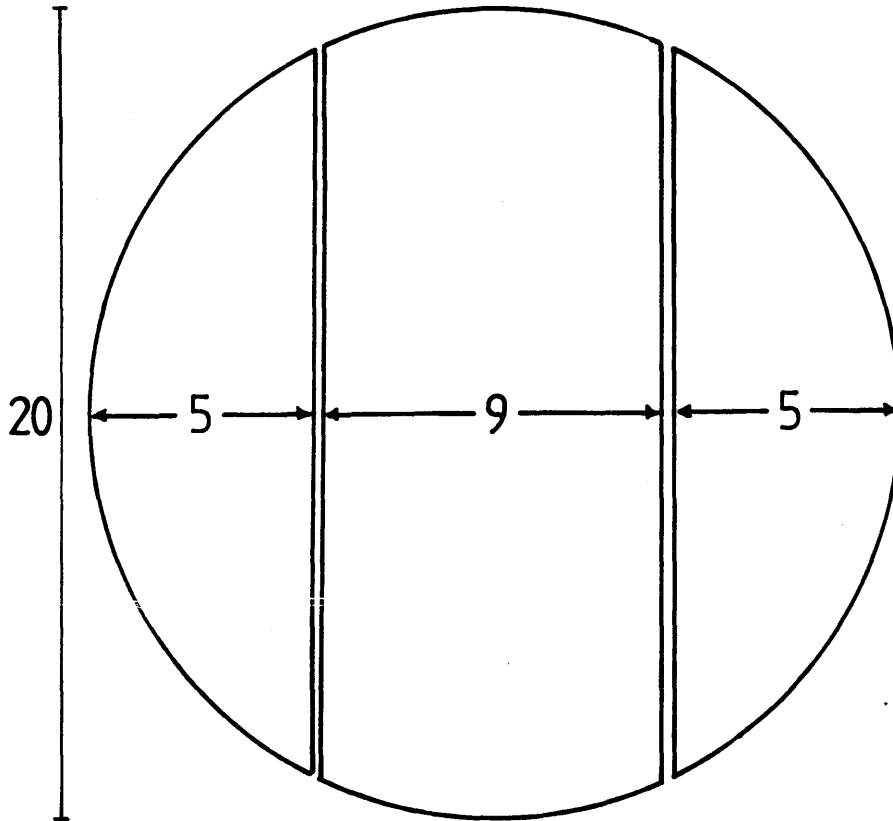
B) Single Crystal YAG Screens

A disk of single crystal YAG 1mm thick and 20mm in diameter was purchased from Agar Aids Ltd. One side of the crystal was polished and the other had a matt finish to reduce total internal reflection effects. This disk was cut into three portions as shown in figure 8.2, and the central part was used to provide uniform illumination for the photodiode array experiments described in the previous chapter. The two remaining sectors were made into thinned screens, in the following manner:

- 1) The YAG crystals and fibre optic faceplates were cleaned using the method described previously.
- 2) The bulk crystals were bonded polished side down to the fibre plates using Loctite 'Glass Bond' UV sensitive adhesive. A small drop of glue was applied to the surface of the fibre plate and the YAG carefully positioned in the center. Once the position was correct the YAG was weighted down for 12 hours, so that the compressive action tended to force excess adhesive out from under the crystal. After this time the glue was hardened using an ultra-violet lamp. Experiments showed that a uniform layer of adhesive $<5\mu\text{m}$ thick could be achieved using this method.
- 3) The fibre-optic plates were clamped in a lapping machine and the bulk YAG samples were then ground down roughly, using 600 grade silicon carbide powder on a brass lapping plate.

Figure 8.2

Segmentation of YAG Disk



(all dimensions millimetres)

- 4) One sample, known as screen A, was mechanically fine polished using 1 μ m grade diamond paste on a solder lapping plate. This method gives good thickness control, however the surface finish tends to contain scratches. The second sample, screen B, was finished using SYTON W15 colloidal silica polish on an expanded polyurethane lapping plate. The silica polish is less abrasive than the diamond paste, and gives a much smoother surface finish. However, the control achievable over the screen thickness and uniformity is much less.
- 5) The finished screens were coated with a conducting layer of ~50nm of aluminium to prevent charging and increase light output.

From the Monte-Carlo studies reported in section 8.3, the optimum thickness of single crystal YAG for imaging 100keV electrons is ~30 μ m. The purpose of using two different finishing polishes on the YAG was to see which gave the best overall properties. Measurements carried out on the two screens using a micrometer dial gauge showed that the thickness of screen A varied between 30 μ m and 35 μ m over its whole area, and that of screen B varied between 52 μ m and 58 μ m. Screen B could not safely be thinned any more using the silica polish. The thickness of both screens was most uniform around the center, and tended to decrease slightly towards the edges.

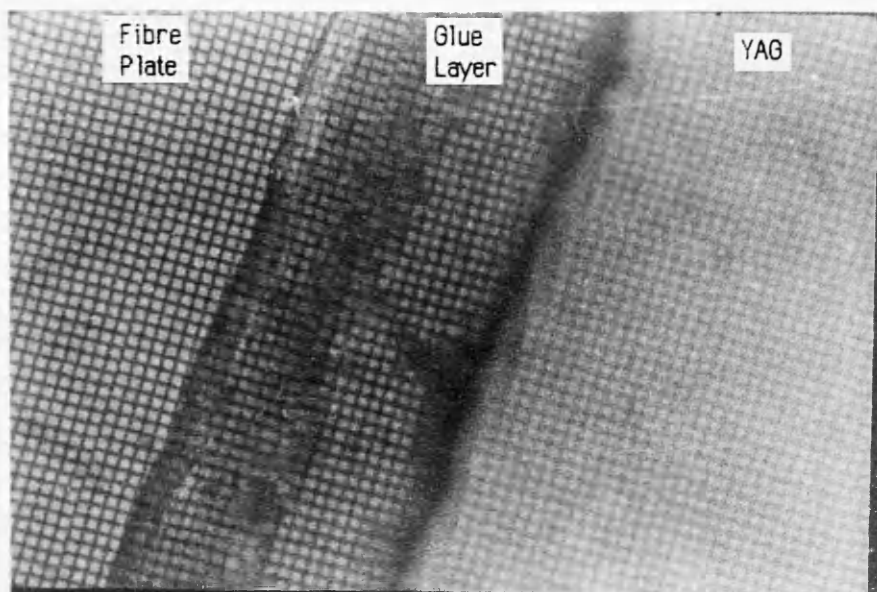
Figures 8.3a and b are optical micrographs of screen A showing the boundary between the edge of the YAG and the fibre plate. The boundary layer between the YAG and the glass is hardened glue. In figure 8.3a the fibre-optic plate is focussed while in figure 8.3b the top surface of the scintillator is in focus. The dark scratches which can be seen on the surface of the YAG are caused by the diamond polish. Figures 8.3c and 8.3d are equivalent micrographs of screen B. In this case the boundary glue layer is very much wider, probably due to the less abrasive polishing method, and the YAG thickness is seen to be greater as the fibre-optic surface is not visible through the crystal. The surface finish is much better, unfortunately the photograph is marred slightly by blemishes on the negative which gave rise to the white scratch lines.

C) Terbium Faceplate

This screen was supplied as a rectangular fibre-optic plate measuring 25mm x 17mm x 3.2 mm thick. Figure 8.4 is an optical micrograph showing the arrangement of the fibre bundles. Most fibres are hexagonal in cross-section, with a mean diameter of 25 μ m. No EMA is provided on this sample, although the manufacturers include this as an option. The

Figure 8.3a

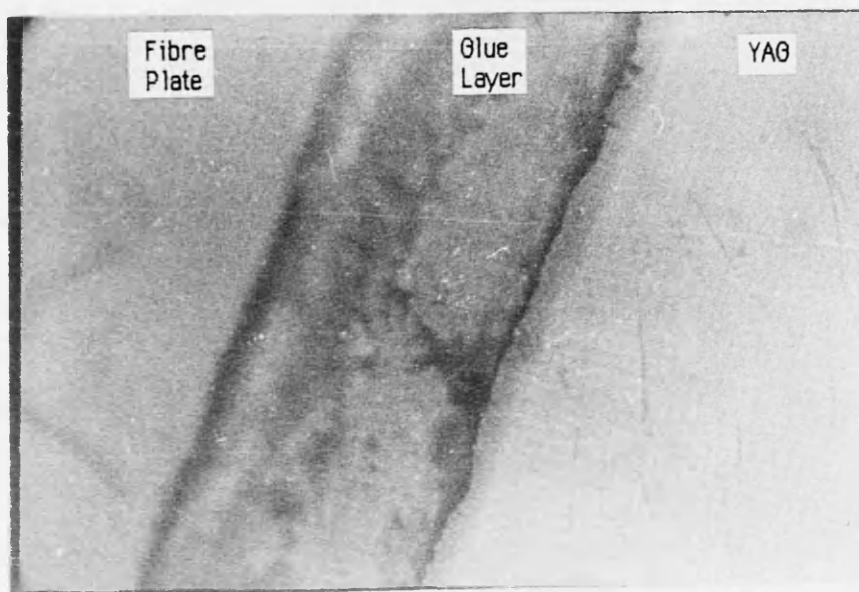
Optical Micrograph of YAG Screen A (30 μ m)



Focus on Fibre Plate

Figure 8.3b

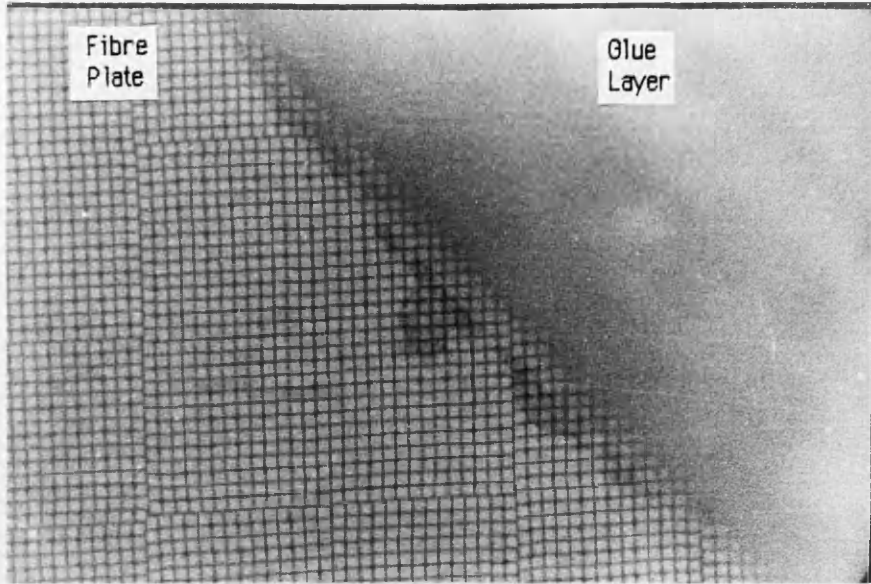
Optical Micrograph of YAG Screen A (30 μ m)



Focus on YAG Surface

Figure 8.3c

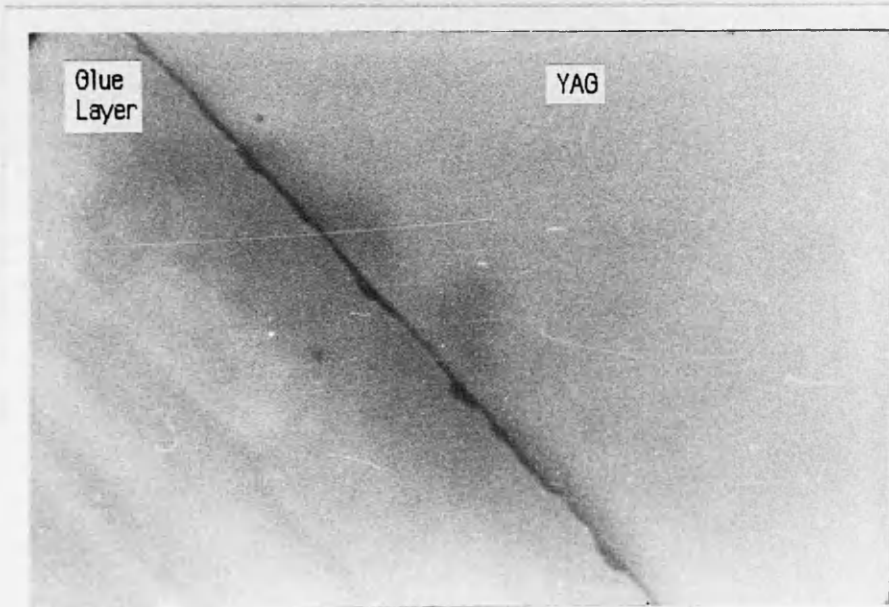
Optical Micrograph of YAG Screen B (50 μ m)



Focus on Fibre Plate

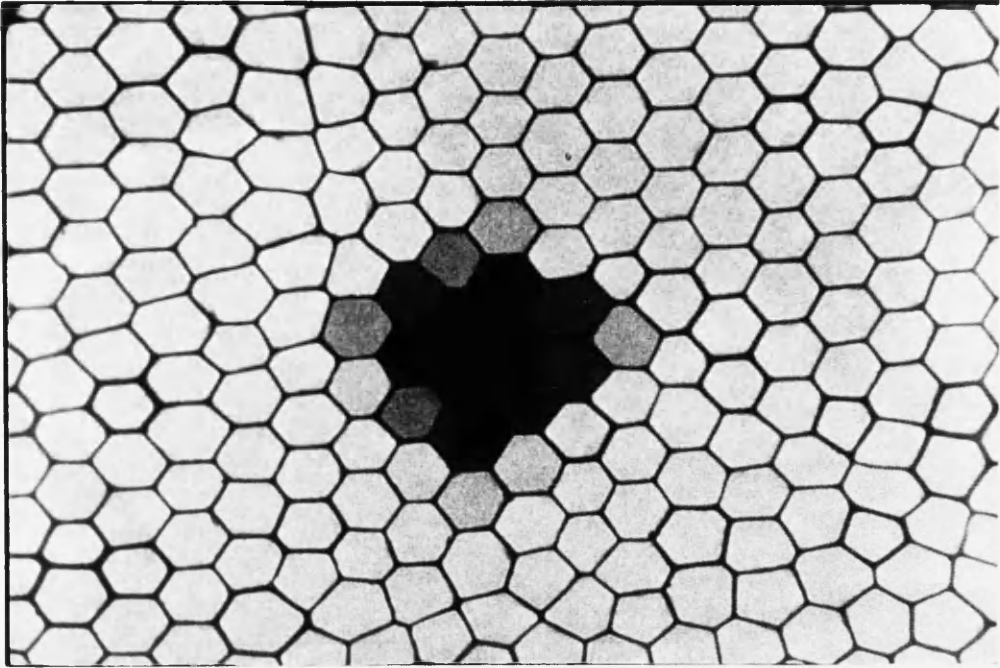
Figure 8.3d

Optical Micrograph of YAG Screen B (50 μ m)



Focus on YAG Surface

Figure 8.4 Optical Micrograph of Terbium Doped Fibre Optic Faceplate



Repeat Distance $\sim 25\mu\text{m}$

numerical aperture is less than that of the Mullard plates at 0.4. An examination of the fibre plate under the optical microscope revealed some evidence of 'dead' fibres, i.e. those where the optical transmission is very low, as seen in the centre of figure 8.4. All that was required to make the plate usable was to evaporate ~50nm of aluminium as a conducting coating on the top surface.

D) Mullard P20 Screen

The Mullard screen used as a reference was designed to be used as the faceplate of an image intensifier and as such is optimised for 10keV electrons. The screen weight is therefore much too low for efficient detection of 100keV electrons, however the high conversion efficiency of the P20 phosphor helps to improve the performance. The screen was supplied on a fibre-optic plate with a coating of aluminium already applied.

8.2 EVALUATION OF SCINTILLATOR SCREEN PERFORMANCE

The results of a series of experiments designed to determine the imaging properties of the various scintillator screens under consideration are given. In the cases where absolute quantitation is not possible the measured parameter is referenced to that of the commercial P20 image intensifier faceplate supplied by Mullard. All of the experiments, except those which measured the principal decay times, were carried out in the vacuum chamber attached to the JEM 100C microscope. An aluminium shield similar to that described in section 7.5 was constructed to hold the fibre-optic plates above the Hamamatsu photodiode array. The screens were positioned centrally above the photodiodes so that the fibre-optic window of the array was in contact with the output side of the fibre-optic faceplates.

8.2.1 Linearity and efficiency of photon production

Measurements of the response of the various scintillators to changes in the incident electron intensity were carried out in an identical manner to those described in chapter 7. The only difference was that the thinned single crystal YAG screens were not large enough in area to cover the whole array, so to ensure uniform illumination of a reasonable fraction of the 512 available photodiode elements the YAG screens were positioned across the array, such that their long axes were at right angles to the pitch of the diodes (see figures 8.7 b, c).

Figures 8.5 a-e show plots of the response of the screens under investigation to variations in the incident electron current, over the range accessible in the JEM 100C microscope.

Unfortunately this range is not wide compared to that likely to be found in an EELS spectrum, because of the necessity to keep the illumination uniform over the area of the array. As before the beam current measurements plotted along the horizontal axes are not absolute, because the illumination was defocussed. All the results of figure 8.5 were obtained using an integration time of 1 sec at an operating temperature of 0°C. In each case the response of the screens was found to be linear within experimental error. The response of the bulk YAG used in the previous chapter is included for comparison in figure 8.5c.

Some information on the relative detection efficiency of each scintillator can be deduced from the graphs of figure 8.5. This detection efficiency is not the same as the phosphor conversion efficiency discussed previously as it represents the number of photons recorded by the photodiode array per incident 100keV electron, which is subject to many other factors such as the coupling efficiency of the fibre-optics and the degree of spectral matching between the phosphor and the photodiode array. Values of detection efficiency normalised to that of the Mullard P20 screen are listed in table 8.1.

A more quantitative measure of scintillator efficiency was made by recording the signal produced by a small circular electron probe of diameter < 2.4mm. The probe was produced at a microscope magnification of 1600x using a 20µm selected area aperture, and the probe current was accurately measured using the Faraday cup. An oscilloscope was used to monitor the video output of the photodiode array, enabling the probe to be positioned so that the output signal was a maximum i.e. the incident beam was directly over the photodiodes. Figures 8.6 a-g show the recorded signals after subtraction of the dark signal. The integration times and probe currents are listed in table 8.2, as well as the integrated counts under each peak. The number of ADC counts can be converted to the number of recorded photons using the fact that the full well capacity of the Hamamatsu array is 4.7×10^7 electrons (section 7.6.3) and the saturation video voltage is 2.8V (figure 7.18a). Each ADC count corresponds to 11474 diode electrons or 11474 recorded photons, assuming each recorded photon produces one diode electron-hole pair.

A comparison of the number of photons recorded per incident 100keV electron, normalised to that of the P20 screen gives reasonable agreement with table 8.1, except in the case of the Terbium screen. A glance at figure 8.6g shows the reason for the discrepancy is that the spreading of the light signal in this scintillator means that a non-negligible fraction of the photons are incident beyond the 2.5mm width of the array elements, and are therefore not recorded. A corrected signal based on the relative efficiency figure of table 8.1 is included in

Figure 8.5a

Response of Mullard P20 Screen
to Variations in Incident Electron Intensity

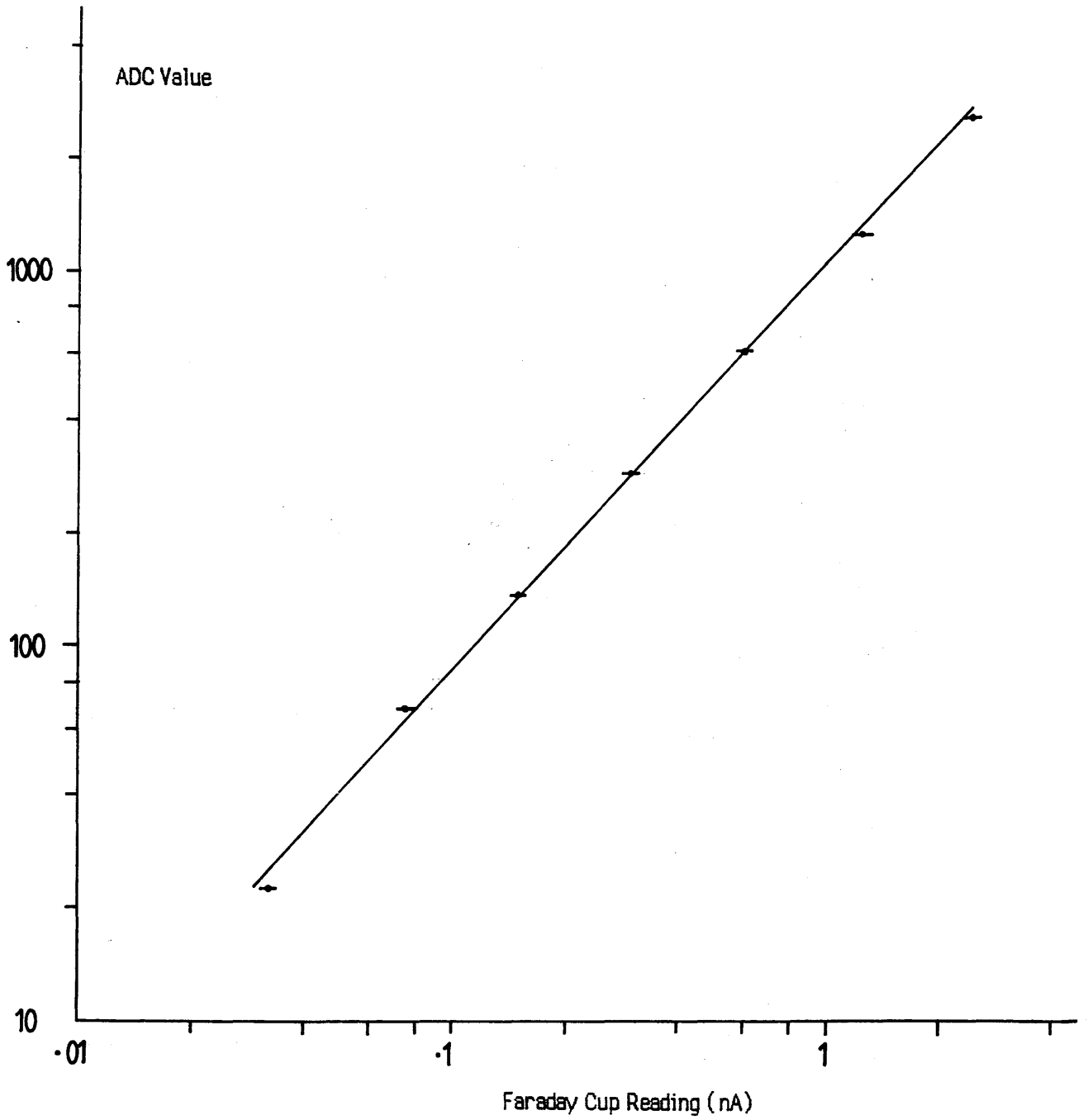


Figure 8.5b

Response of Single Crystal YAG Screen B (50 μ m)
to Variations in Incident Electron Intensity

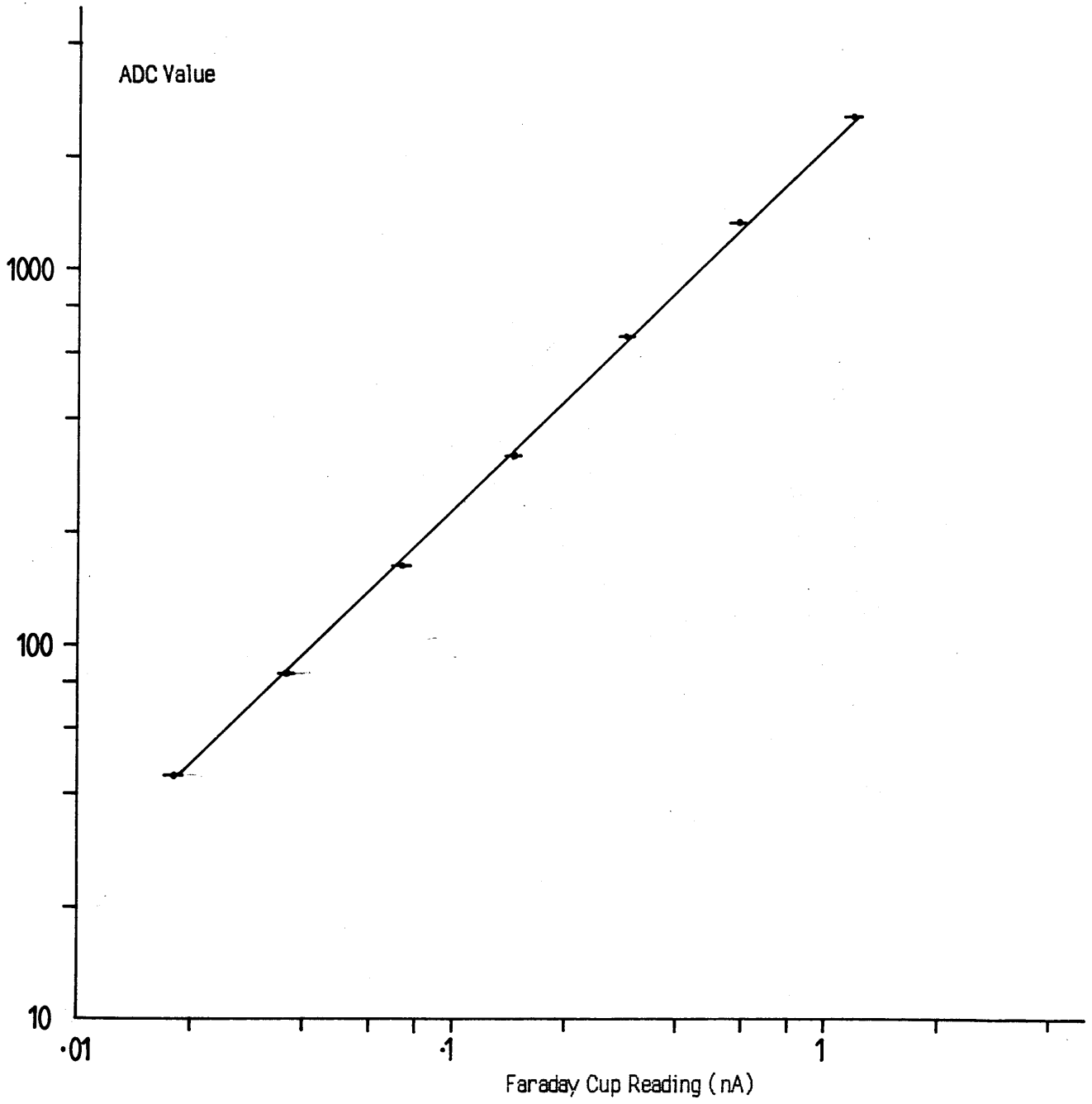


Figure 8.5c

Response of Single Crystal YAG Screen A (30 μ m)
to Variations in Incident Electron Intensity

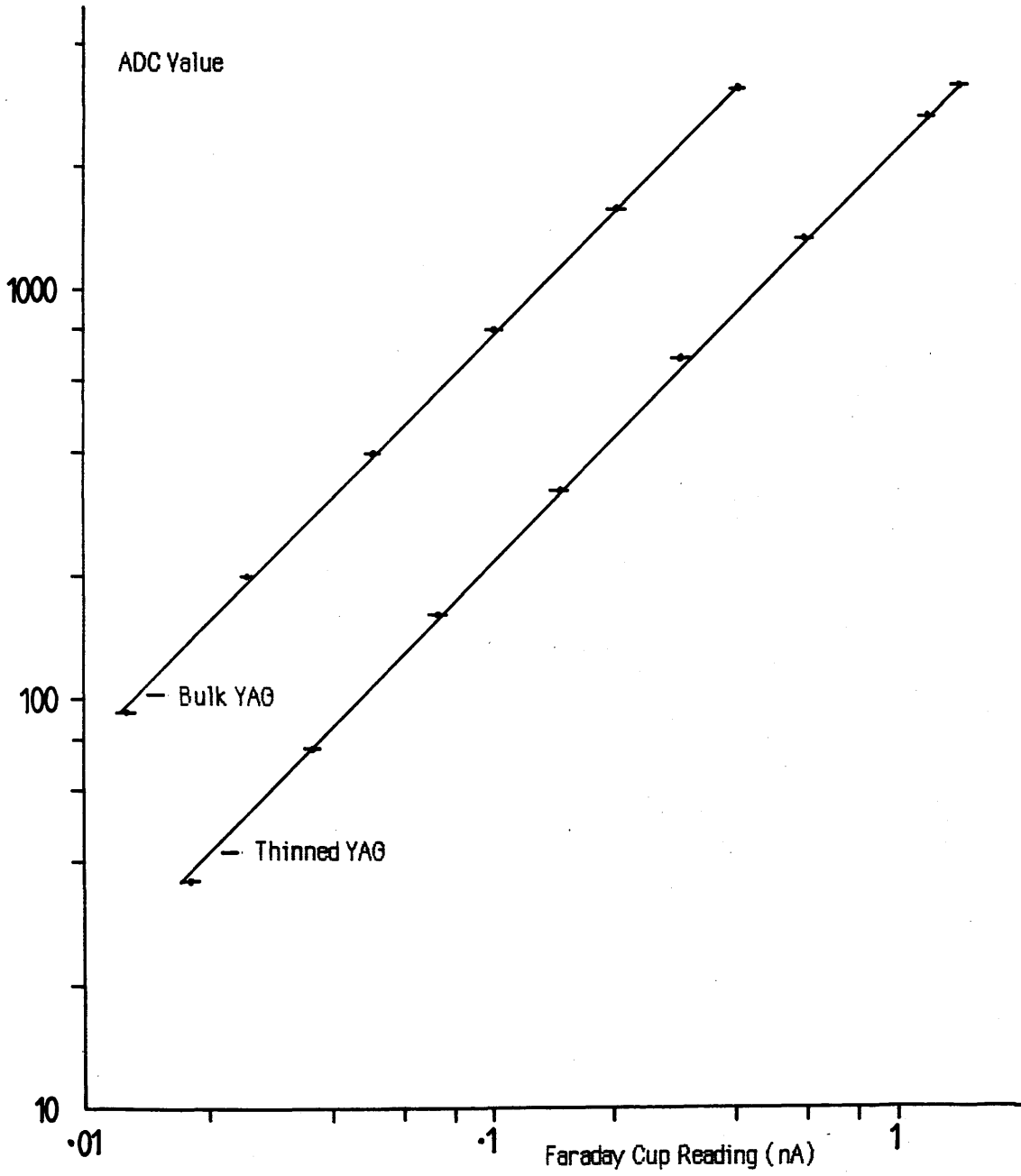


Figure 8.5d

Response of Mullard P46 Powder Phosphor Screens
to Variations in Incident Electron Intensity

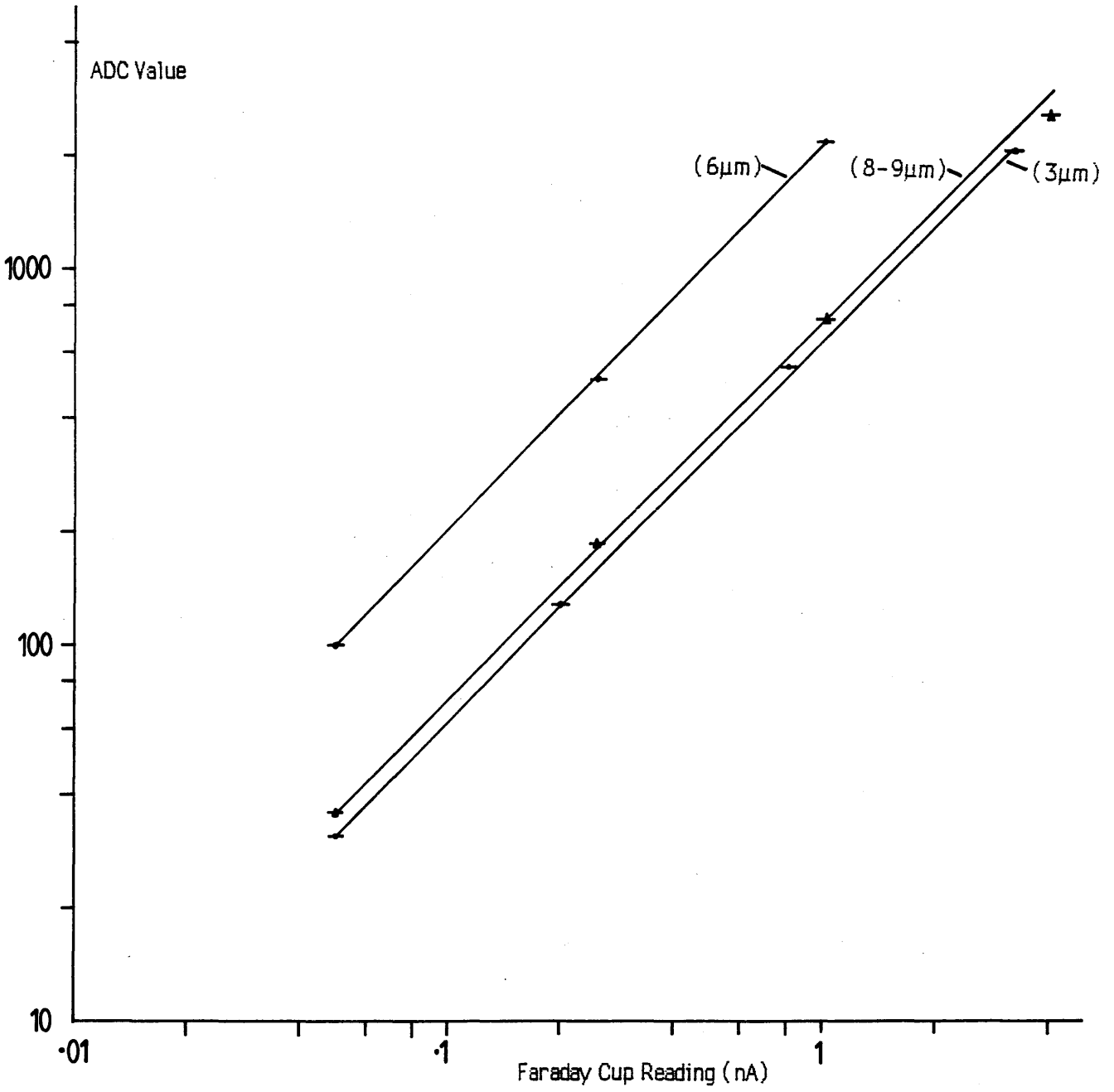


Figure 8.5e

Response of Terbium Doped Fibre Optic Faceplate
to Variations in Incident Electron Intensity

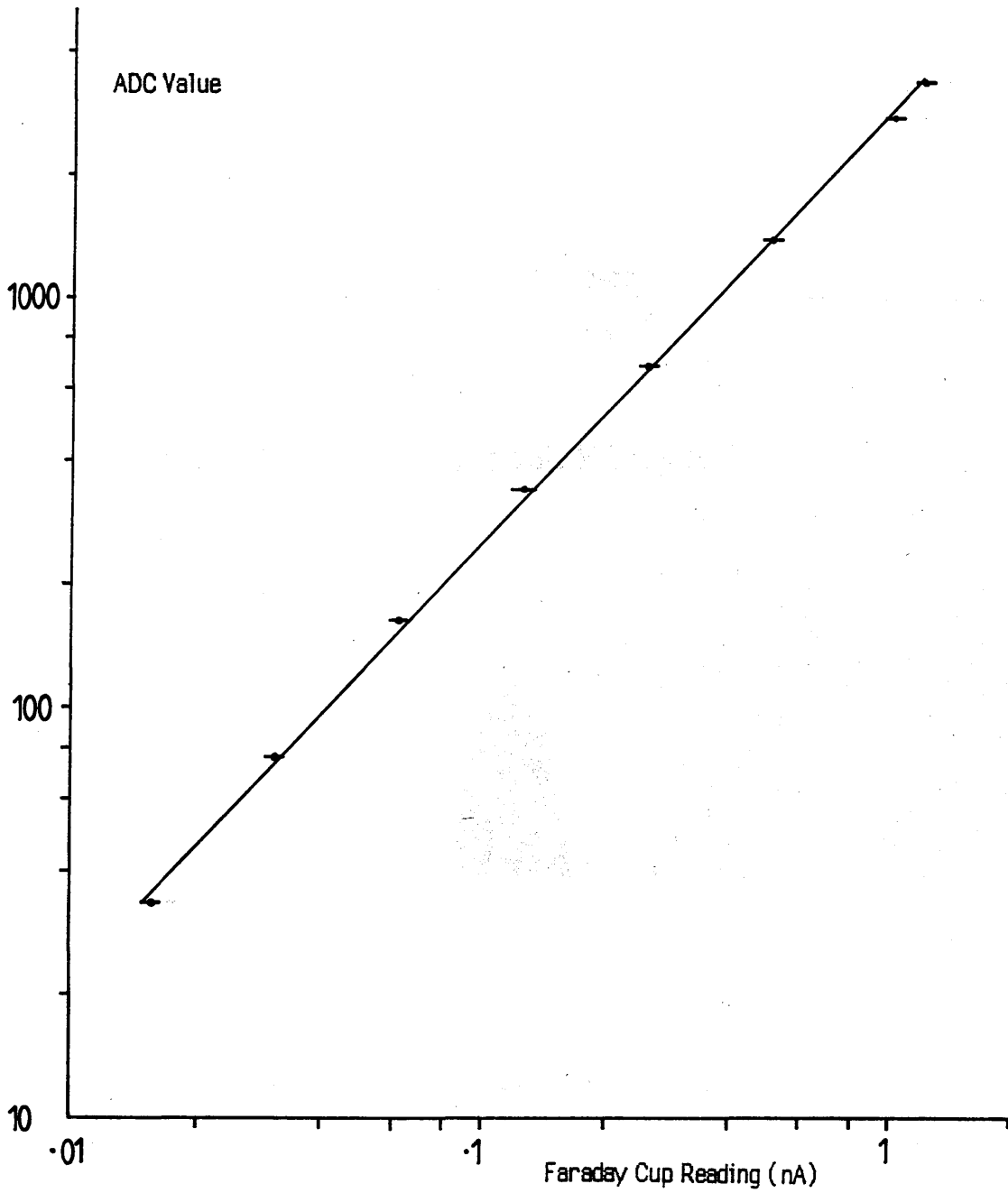


Figure 8.6a

Mullard P20 Phosphor Screen

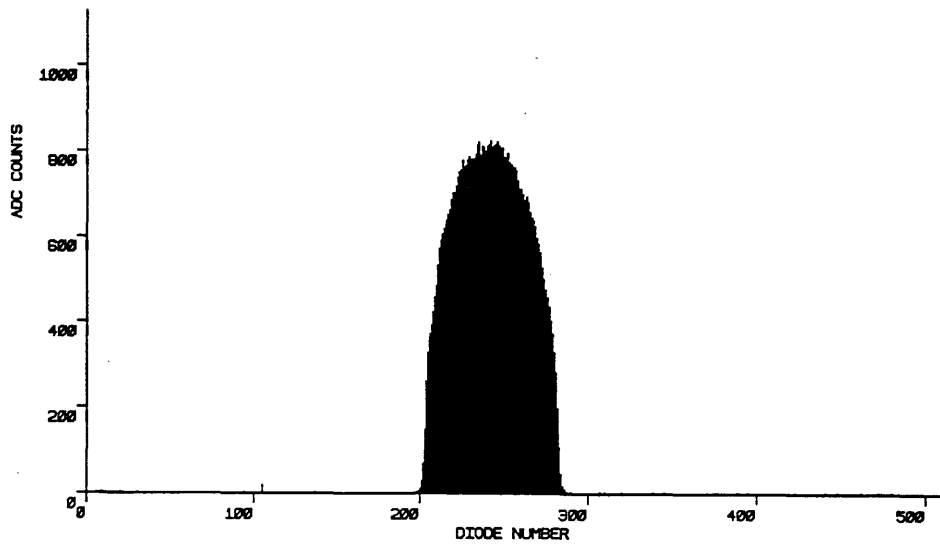


Figure 8.6b

Single Crystal YAG Screen B (50 μ m)

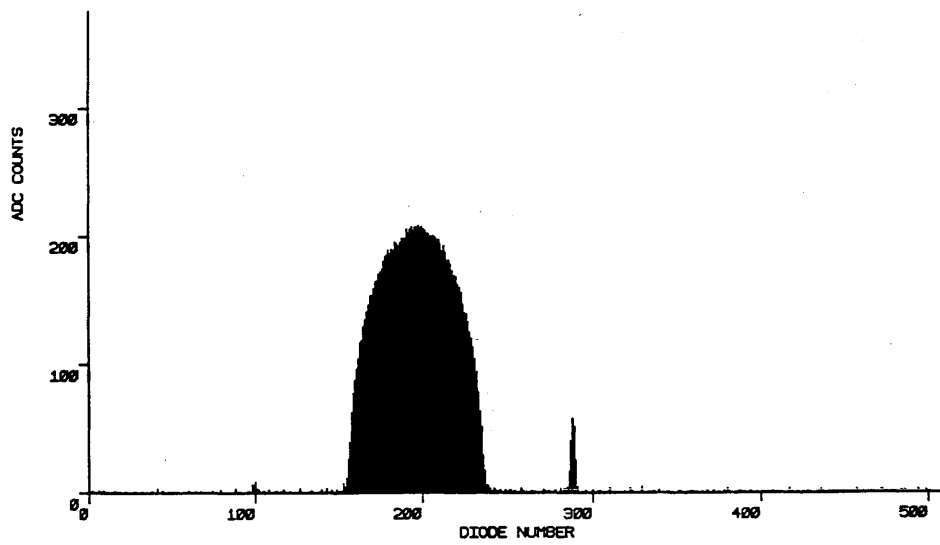


Figure 8.6c

Single Crystal YAG Screen A (30 μ m)

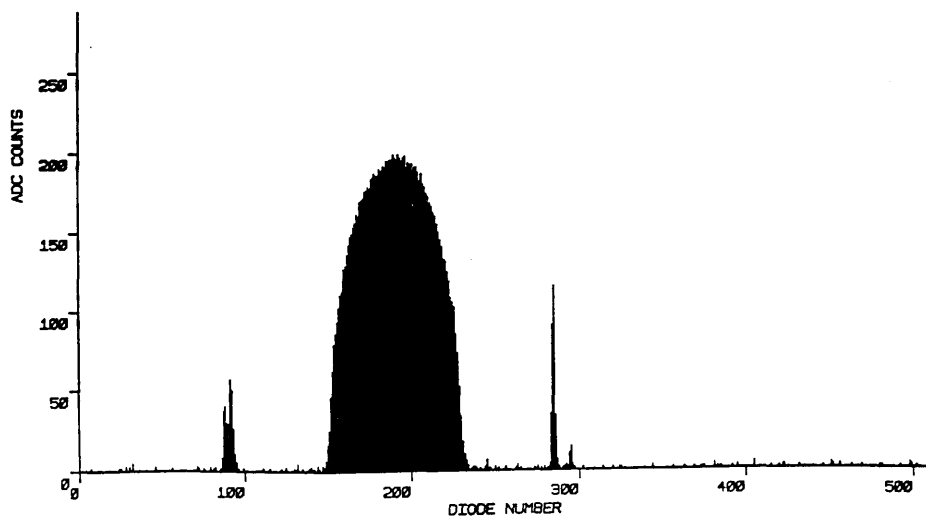


Figure 8.6d

P46 Powder Phosphor Screen (8-9 μ m Grade)

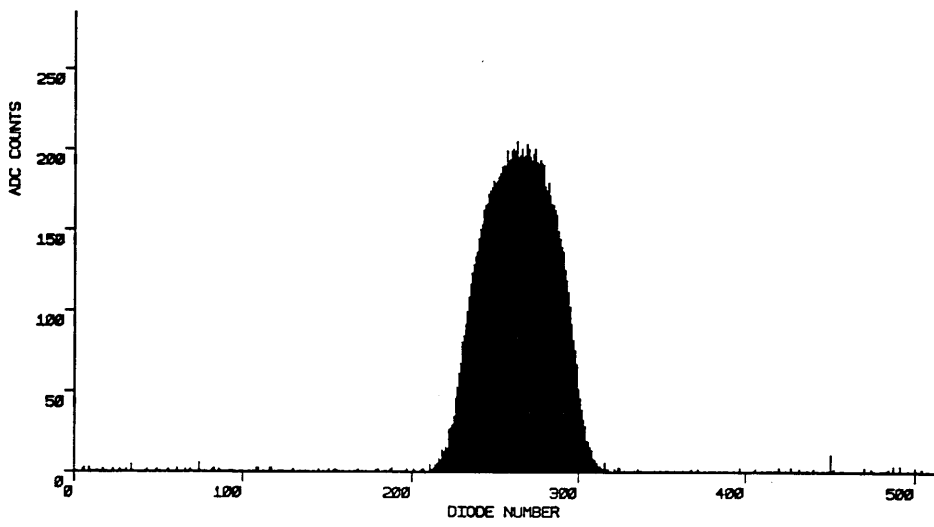


Figure 8.6e

P46 Powder Phosphor Screen (6 μ m Grade)

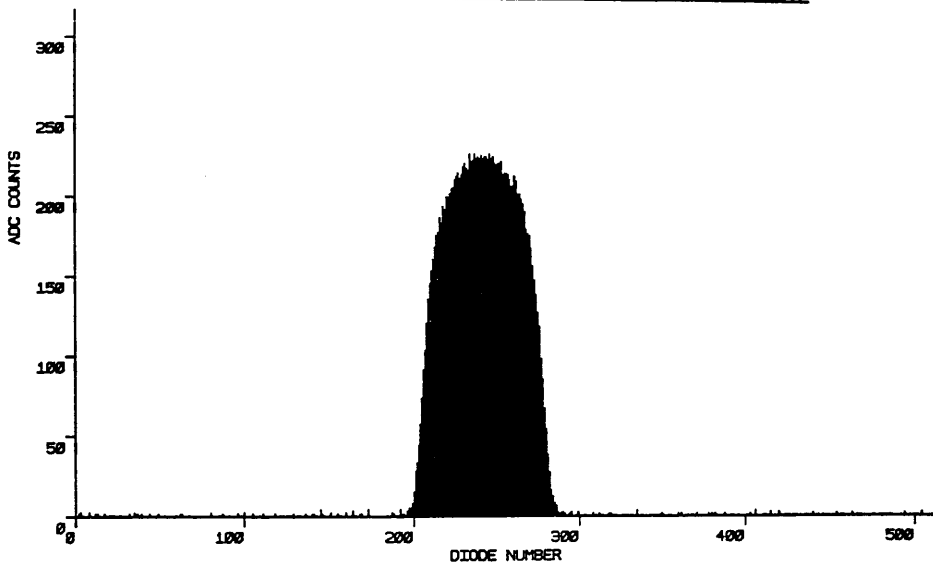


Figure 8.6f

P46 Powder Phosphor Screen (3 μ m Grade)

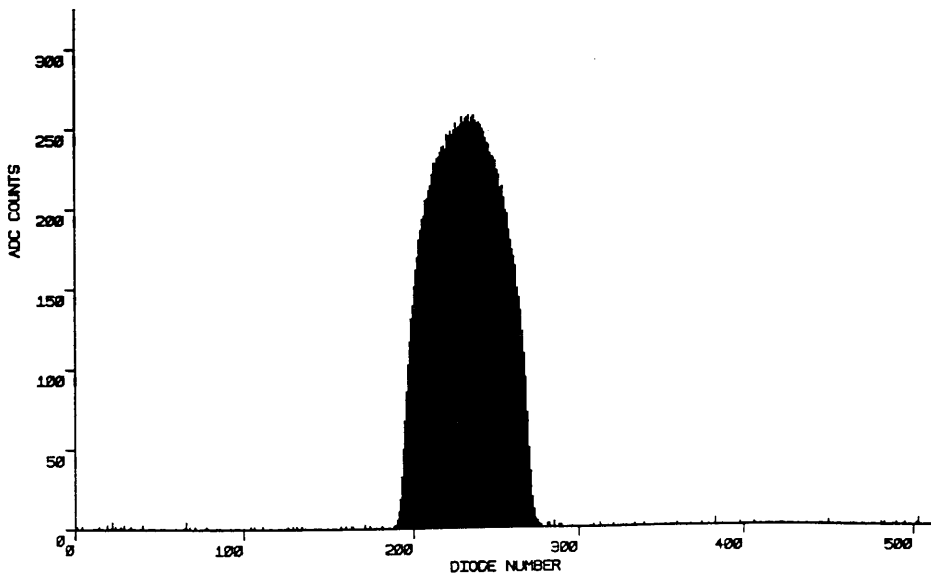


Table 8.1

Screen	Relative Efficiency	Non-Uniformity of Response
P20	1.0	±8.4%
P46 8-9µm	0.7	±4.7%
P46 6µm	2.0	±3.1%
P46 3µm	0.6	±17 %
YAG 30µm	2.2	±1.4%
YAG 50µm	2.2	±1.5%
YAG Bulk	7.7	-
Terbium	2.7	±1.2%

Table 8.2

Screen	Beam Current	Integration Time t	Total no. electrons	Integrated ADC Counts	Photons per e-	Relative Efficiency
P20	.00488nA	500msec	1.53×10^7	52804	40	1.00
P46 8-9µm	.01526nA	50msec	4.77×10^6	12085	29	0.73
P46 6µm	.00760nA	50msec	2.38×10^6	14707	71	1.78
P46 3µm	.02250nA	50msec	7.03×10^6	15470	26	0.65
YAG 30µm	.00615nA	50msec	1.92×10^6	12515	75	1.88
YAG 30µm*	.00615nA	50msec	1.92×10^6	12515	79	1.98
YAG 50µm	.00591nA	50msec	1.85×10^6	13147	82	2.05
YAG 50µm*	.00591nA	50msec	1.85×10^6	13147	83	2.08
Terbium	.04460nA	20msec	5.58×10^6	39139	81	2.03
Terbium**	.04460nA	20msec	5.58×10^6	39139	108	2.70
YAG Bulk**	-	-	-	-	308	7.70

* Including internally reflected light peaks

** Estimated from table 8.1

table 8.2.

There are two sets of figures for the YAG screens, the first are simply the integrated counts under the image peak and the second include the counts recorded at the edges of the crystal. Even these second figures are somewhat lower than expected, because most of the internally reflected light is piped out to edges of the crystal not imaged by the detector, and is therefore not recorded.

8.2.2 Linearity and efficiency of photon production:- discussion

The graphs of figure 8.5 establish that there are no obvious non-linear effects occurring in any of the screens that were tested, within the current range investigated. There is, however, a wide variation in the efficiency of the screens as a whole. By far the most efficient screen was the bulk single crystal YAG used in the previous chapter, at an estimated 308 photons recorded per incident 100keV electron. This higher figure is due mostly to the fact that the YAG screen was directly coupled to the fibre-optic window of the photodiode array and the matt output surface reduced total internal reflection effects.

The next highest performer was the terbium doped fibre-optic with a corrected figure of 108 photons/ e^- (100keV), reflecting the advantage of having the scintillator integral with the fibre-optic plate so that light loss is restricted to the boundary between the scintillator and the photodiode window.

The two thinned YAG screens showed very similar efficiencies of 79 and 83 photons/ e^- (100keV) for the 30 μ m and 50 μ m thicknesses respectively. The closeness of the two figures suggests that the optimum depth of 30 μ m which is calculated in section 8.3 is reasonable. Assuming that each incident electron produces \sim 1600 photons (see section 8.3.2) then the Mullard faceplate will couple \sim 960 of these to the photodiode input window. If losses at the interface are ignored, and the transmission of the Hamamatsu fibre optic window is also \sim 60%, then \sim 576 of these photons reach the photodiodes. The quantum efficiency of the Hamamatsu array is \sim 44% at the spectral response peak of YAG, giving a theoretical efficiency of 253 photons recorded per incident 100keV electron.

The fact that the experimental efficiency is so much less than the theoretical efficiency (and that of bulk YAG) is most likely due to internal reflections in the YAG discussed earlier, and possibly losses at the interface of the fibre plates. By comparison, figures published by Egerton and Crozier [1986] show an efficiency of \sim 250 photons recorded per 100keV

electron when using a 65 μm thick YAG screen fibre-optically coupled to a Reticon RL1024 SF photodiode array. The YAG had its output face matt finished to reduce total internal reflections, and the junction of the fibre-optic plate and the fibre-optic photodiode window was filled with a thin layer of silicon oil to reduce reflections at this interface. A resolution of 70 μm was quoted (but not the contrast), and there was no measure of screen uniformity.

Of the P46 powder phosphors only one screen approached the efficiency of the single crystals and this was the 6 μm grade, with a screen weight of 18 mg/cm^2 , which produced 71 photons/ e^- (100keV). This was superior to the screens produced using the 3 μm and 8-9 μm grades of P46 which gave efficiencies of 26 photons/ e^- (100keV) and 29 photons/ e^- (100keV) respectively. The screen weight of the 3 μm grade phosphor was 15 mg/cm^2 , and the reason for its comparative inefficiency when compared to the similar weight 6 μm screen is the fact that light output from powder phosphors is known to decrease as the mean particle size falls below $\sim 4\mu\text{m}$. This phenomenon has been noted by Hill [1985] and McGee et al. [1966] among others. The result obtained for the 8-9 μm grade screen reflects the fact that the weight of 35 mg/cm^2 is too heavy to image 100keV electrons, and results in a thick inefficient screen with considerable self-absorption.

The P20 phosphor screen manufactured by Mullard gave an efficiency of 40 photons/ e^- (100keV) which compares favourably with that of the less efficient P46 screens. The reason is of course that the screen weight is optimised for high resolution imaging of 10keV electrons and is therefore too thin to efficiently record 100keV electrons. The fact that it performs better than some heavier P46 screens is because the phosphor conversion efficiency is very much higher.

8.2.3 Uniformity of response and digital response correction

Figures 8.7 a-g show uniform illumination recordings after dark scan subtraction taken at approximately half scale using the different screens. Again all the data was recorded using a 1sec integration time at 0 $^\circ\text{C}$. The percentage non-uniformity of response of each screen was calculated as in chapter 7 (using the 'highest-lowest' criterion) and is included in table 8.1. It can be seen that in general the powder screens show more variation, with finer grained screens giving more even diode-to-diode response, although the bulk thickness is more difficult to control (figure 8.7 f).

The terbium faceplate (figure 8.7 g) has the best response over the whole array length with a non-uniformity value of $\sim \pm 1.2\%$. The two thinned YAG screens show almost as good

Figure 8.7a

Response of Mullard P20 Phosphor Screen
to Uniform Illumination

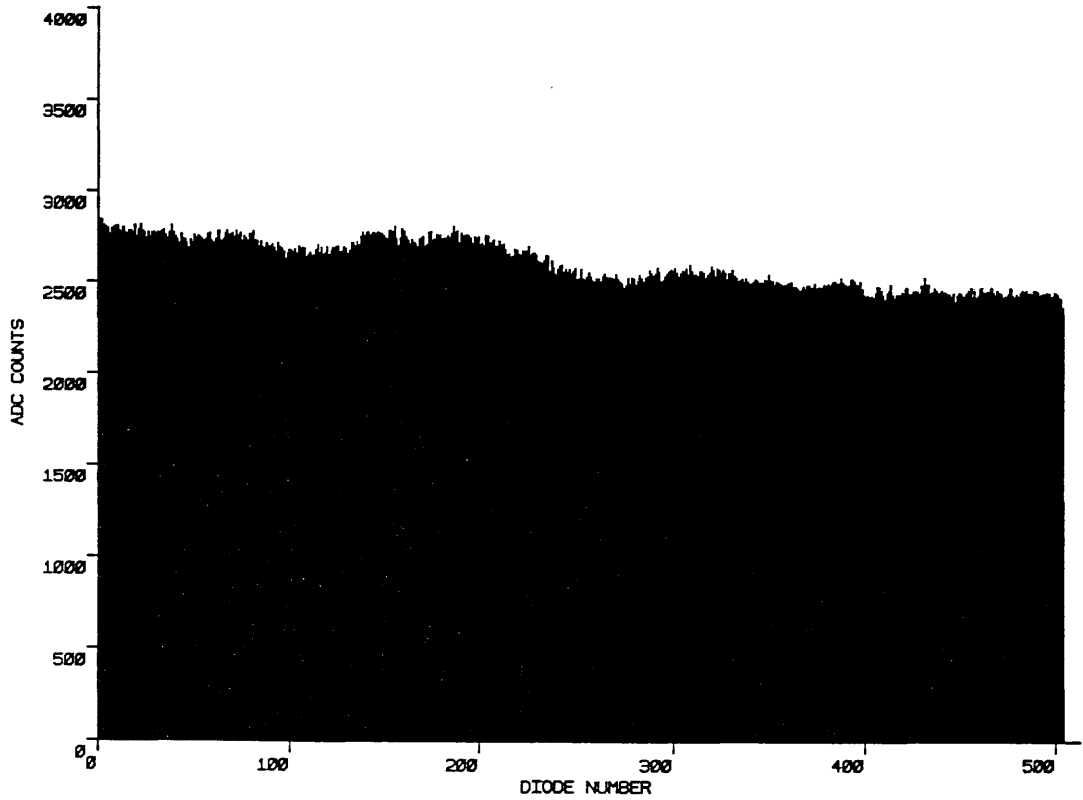


Figure 8.7b

Response of Single Crystal YAG Screen B (50 μ m)
to Uniform Illumination

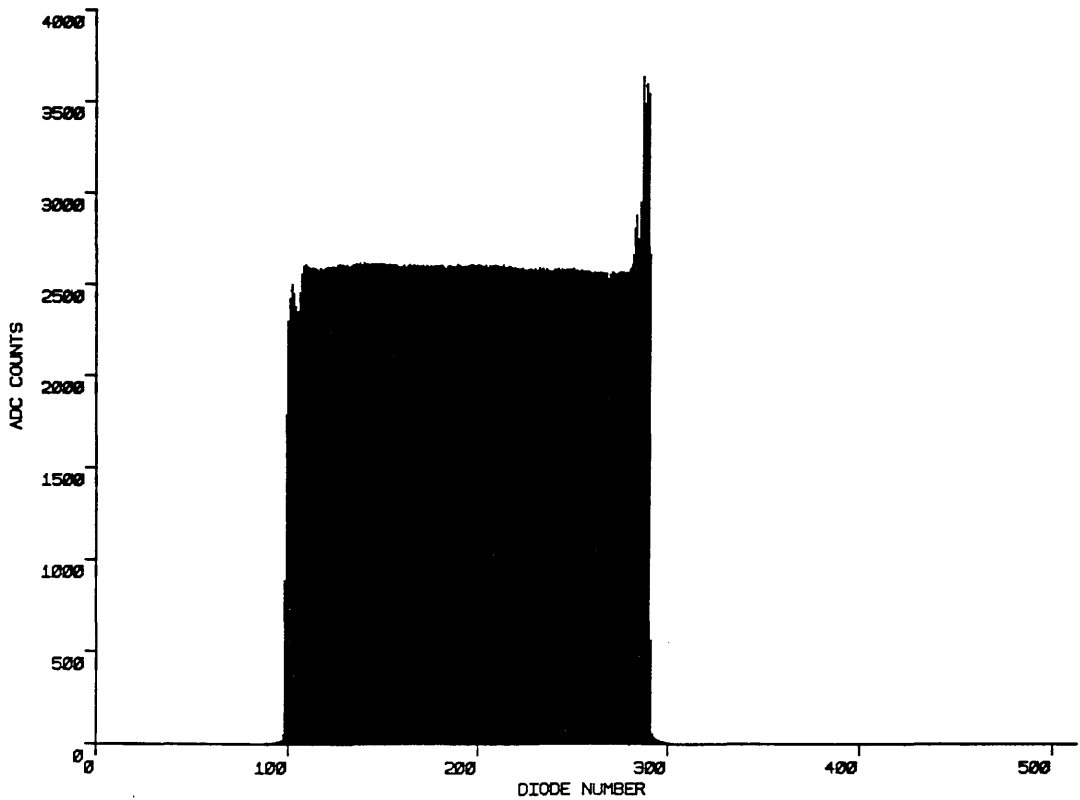


Figure 8.7c

Response of Single Crystal YAG Screen A (30 μ m)

to Uniform Illumination

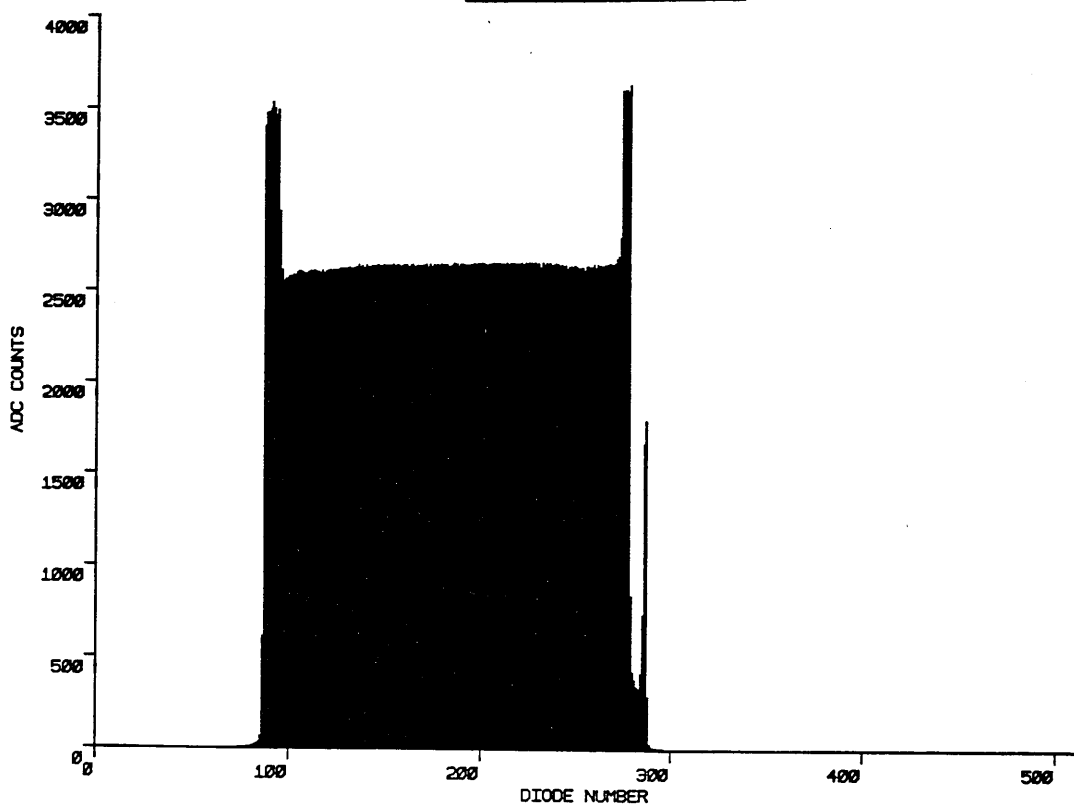


Figure 8.7d

Response of P46 Powder Phosphor Screen (8-9 μ m Grade)

to Uniform Illumination

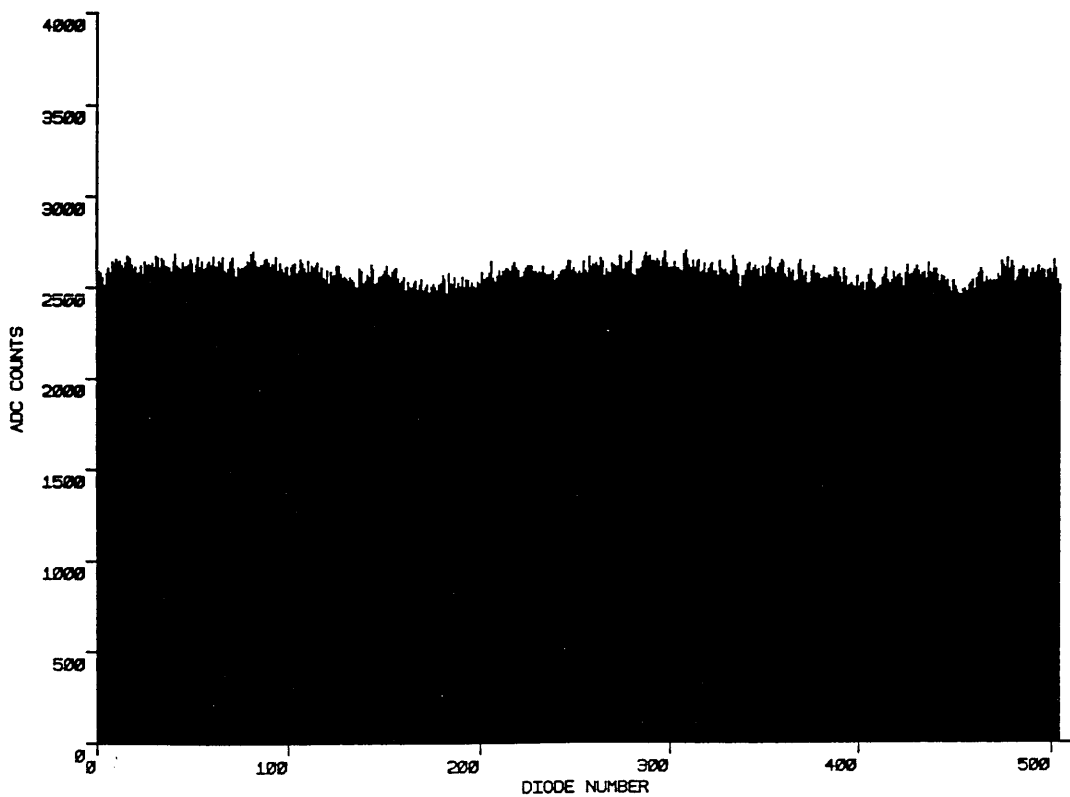


Figure 8.7e

Response of P46 Powder Phosphor Screen (6 μ m Grade)

to Uniform Illumination

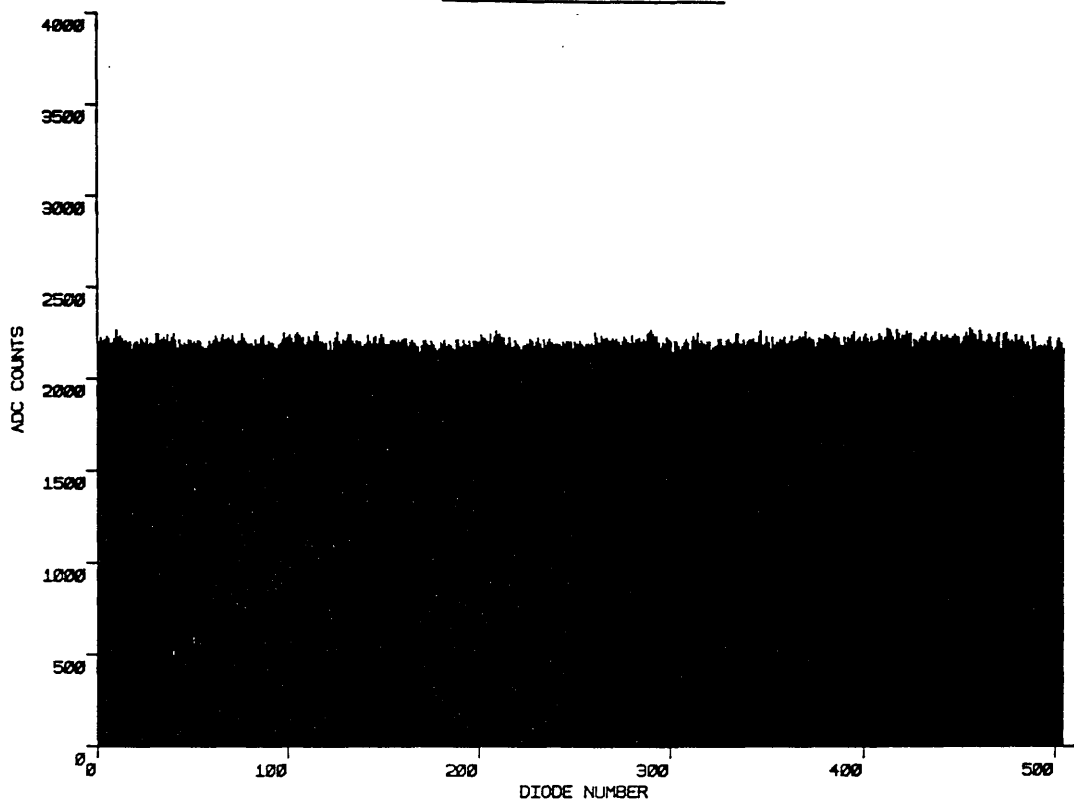


Figure 8.7f

Response of P46 Powder Phosphor Screen (3 μ m Grade)

to Uniform Illumination

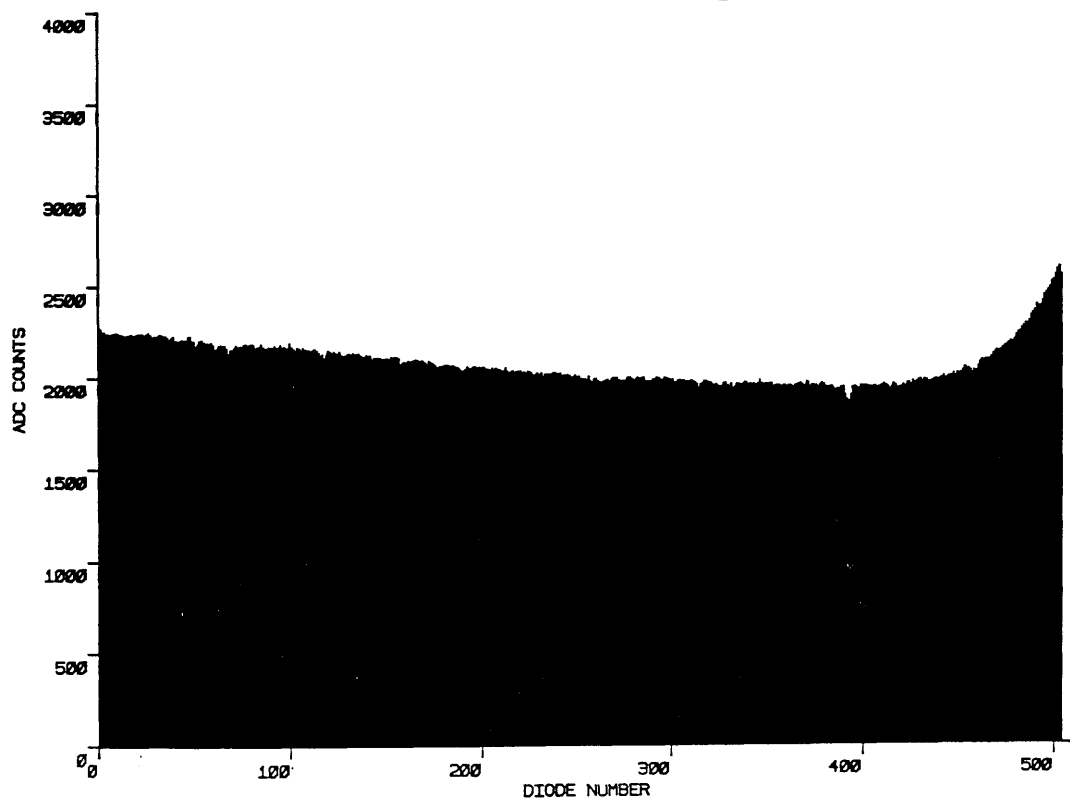
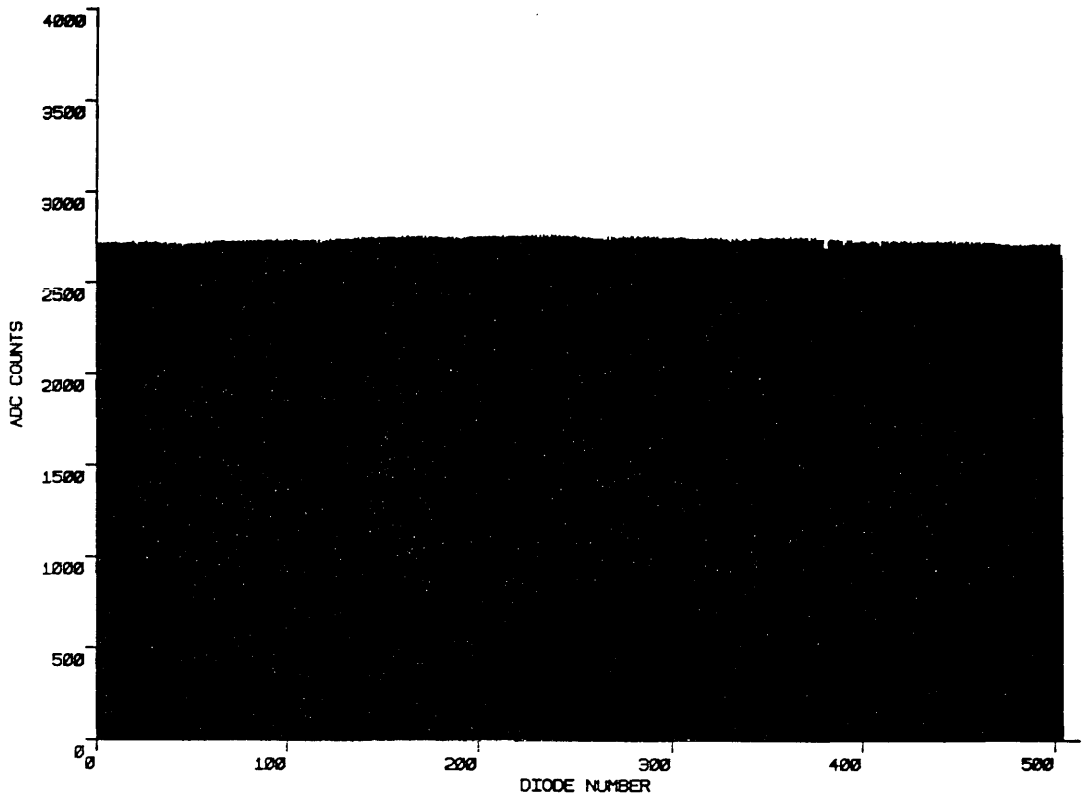


Figure 8.7g

Response of Terbium Doped Fibre Optic Faceplate
to Uniform Illumination



performance over their central area, but suffer markedly from the effects of 'light piping' at the edges (figures 8.7 b,c) due to total internal reflection. The thinner 30 μ m screen (screen A) seems to show this effect to a greater extent than the other (see also figs 8.6 b,c). It is not clear why one edge of the 50 μ m screen (screen B) should display the effect so much more than the other, unless it has something to do with the thickness or shape of the boundary glue layer. In practice an operational screen would be larger in area than the array elements, so that the edge effects would not be recorded. As mentioned previously a matt finish on the exit surface of the YAG reduces the internal reflections, but might possibly impair the uniformity of response.

The method of digital response correction described in chapter 7 was applied to all of the screens, and it was found that the 3σ non-uniformity of response for the thinned single crystal YAG screens and the Terbium screen could be reduced to below $\pm 0.4\%$ at half scale, while that of the powder screens was reduced to between $\pm 0.5\%$ and $\pm 1\%$ at mid-range.

8.2.4 Spatial resolution

The ultimate spatial resolution of the detector is limited to 20 line pairs (lp)/mm by the 25 μ m pitch of the photodiode elements. The resolution of each screen is determined by the degree of electron scatter and light spreading in the scintillator. The former is controlled by the average atomic number and density of the phosphor, and the latter mainly depends upon the screen thickness.

A measure of the resolution of each screen was obtained by projecting the shadow image of a 1000 mesh copper foil (~ 39 lp/mm) down onto the screen at very low magnification and recording the image produced. The square grid pattern of the foil had an aspect ratio of $\sim 2:1$ i.e. the distance between two adjacent copper grid lines was twice the thickness of each grid line. The foil was held in a tilt and rotate specimen holder, allowing the grid lines to be accurately aligned with the diode elements. By monitoring the video output from the array on an oscilloscope, the shadow image could be positioned and rotated so that the signal showed the greatest contrast.

In order to obtain sufficiently low magnifications the JEM 100C microscope was operated in free lens controller mode with the objective and second intermediate lenses switched off. The projector lens was run at a constant current of 139mA, and the magnification was varied using the first intermediate lens. The condenser control was turned fully anticlockwise, the spot size selected was 1 and condenser aperture 1 (400 μ m) was inserted. In this way

magnifications of $< 3x$ could be achieved with minimum distortion. To maintain a relatively constant illumination it was found to be necessary to reduce the gun bias as the magnification was decreased.

The factors which limit the highest spatial frequencies and image contrast that can be achieved using this method are electron optical image distortions incurred in the projection lenses. As the magnification is decreased the image aberrations tend to increase causing the shadow image axes to depart from orthogonality. Thus precise alignment of the grid lines with the photodiode elements becomes impossible, and the image contrast is decreased.

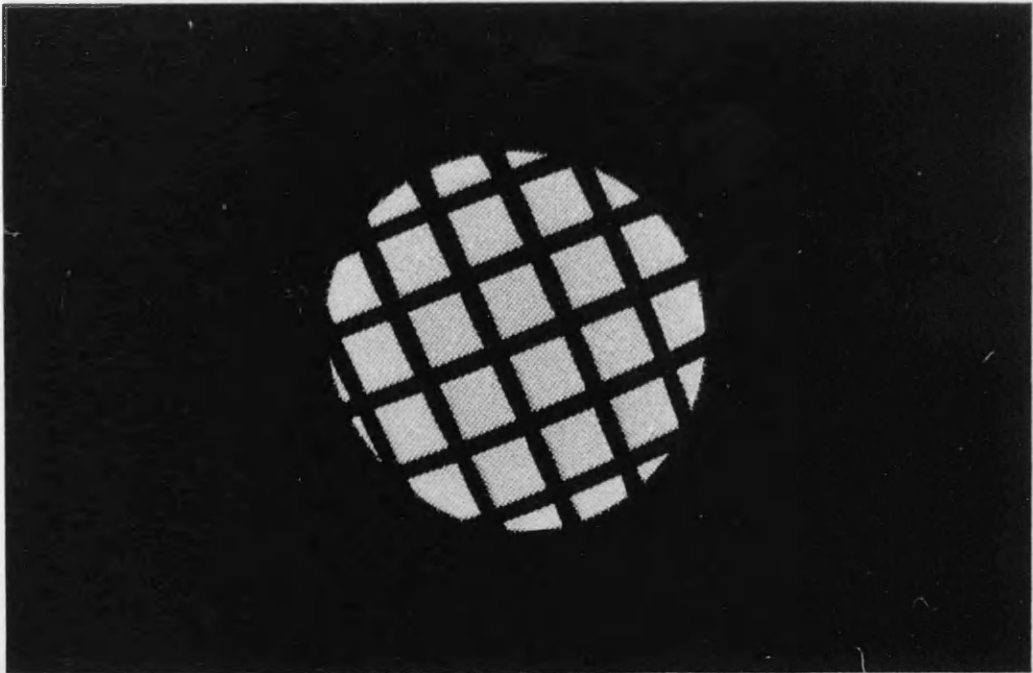
Figure 8.8a is an enlargement of a micrograph taken at a magnification of $\sim 2.6x$. The fine mesh is 2000 lines per inch, and the spatial frequency of the micrograph is ~ 30 lp/mm. At this low magnification there is some evidence of 'pincushion' type distortion in the image, resulting in a slight curvature of the fine mesh lines especially near the edges. It can be seen that the contrast of the coarse grid is very much better than that of the fine mesh; this is due to a combination of microscope aberrations degrading the actual image at the film plane, electron spread in the film, and optical limitations imposed by the enlarging process. For the actual experiment a 1000 mesh foil was supported over a 1 x 2mm slot so that the coarse grid bars of figure 8.8a were not imaged.

Figures 8.9 a-c are signals recorded from the Mullard P20 screen at spatial frequencies of 3.2, 8, and 13 lp/mm respectively. The area of array illuminated decreases at the higher spatial frequencies because the size of the shadow image was unavoidably reduced at the lower magnifications. The degree of contrast varies from $>90\%$ at 3.2 lp/mm, to 67% at 8 lp/mm, to $>20\%$ at 13 lp/mm. At the higher spatial frequencies the shading effect seen in the diode scans could be due to variations in the spatial frequency of the image caused by the aberrations described previously. It is also quite possible that some aliasing is taking place as the spatial frequency in the image approaches the Nyquist limit for the detector (20 lp/mm) resulting in a reduction in contrast of the recorded scan.

Results using the $50\mu\text{m}$ YAG screen (screen B) are presented in figures 8.10a-c and similar data obtained from the $30\mu\text{m}$ YAG (screen A) is displayed in figures 8.11 a-c. Screen B gives a contrast of 80% at 3.6 lp/mm, falling to 50% at 7.3 lp/mm and 30% at 10 lp/mm. In comparison screen A gives contrasts of 90% at 2.8 lp/mm, 50% at 8 lp/mm and 40% at 10 lp/mm.

Figure 8.8a

Shadow Electron Image Of 2000 Mesh Cu Foil



Spatial frequency of micrograph = ~ 30 lp/mm

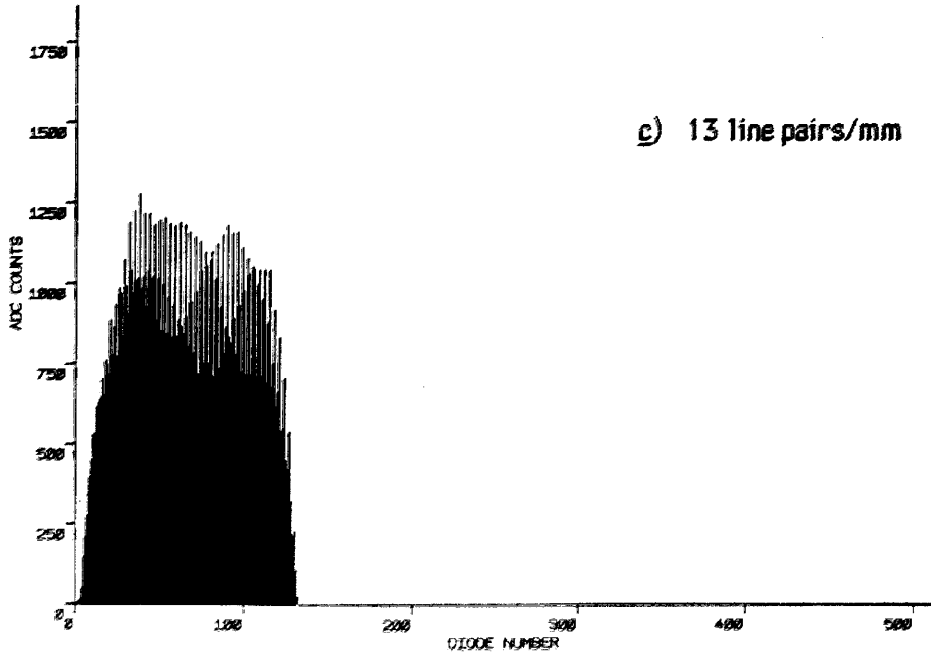
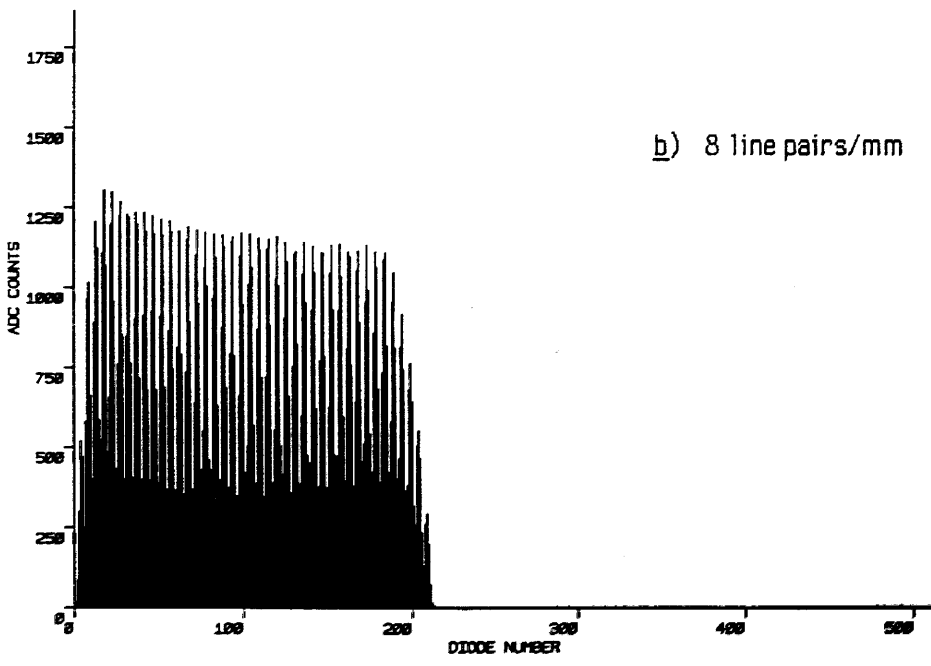
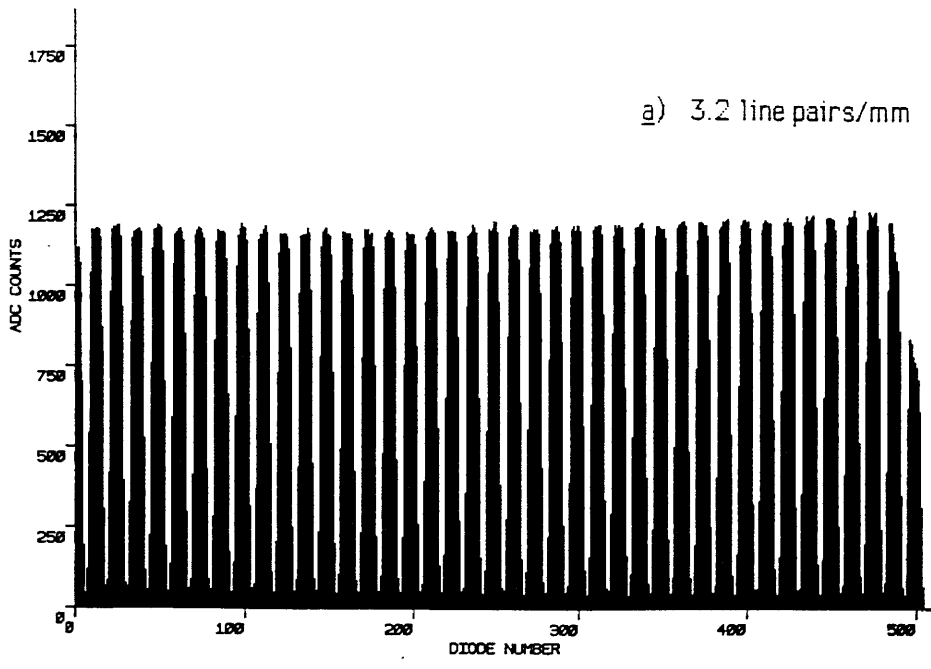
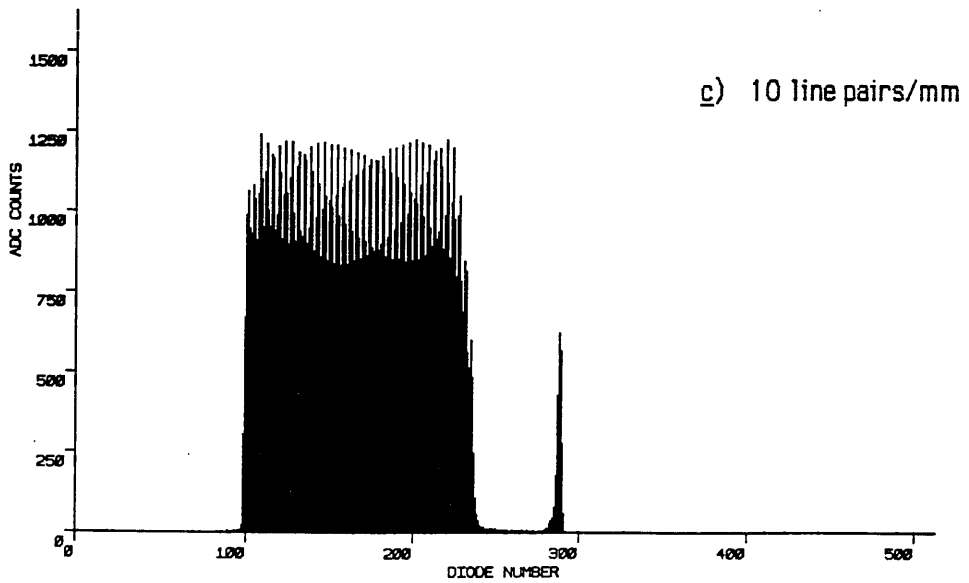
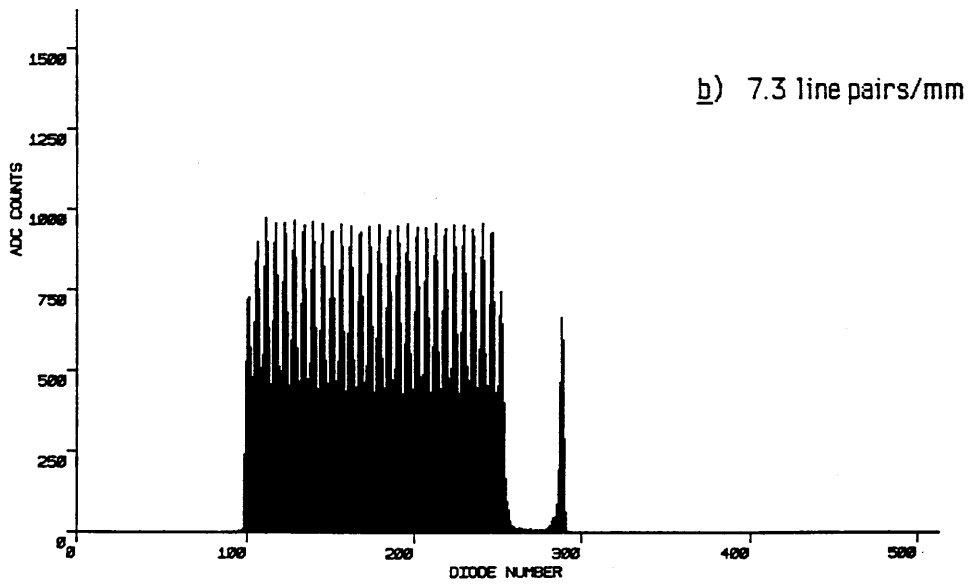
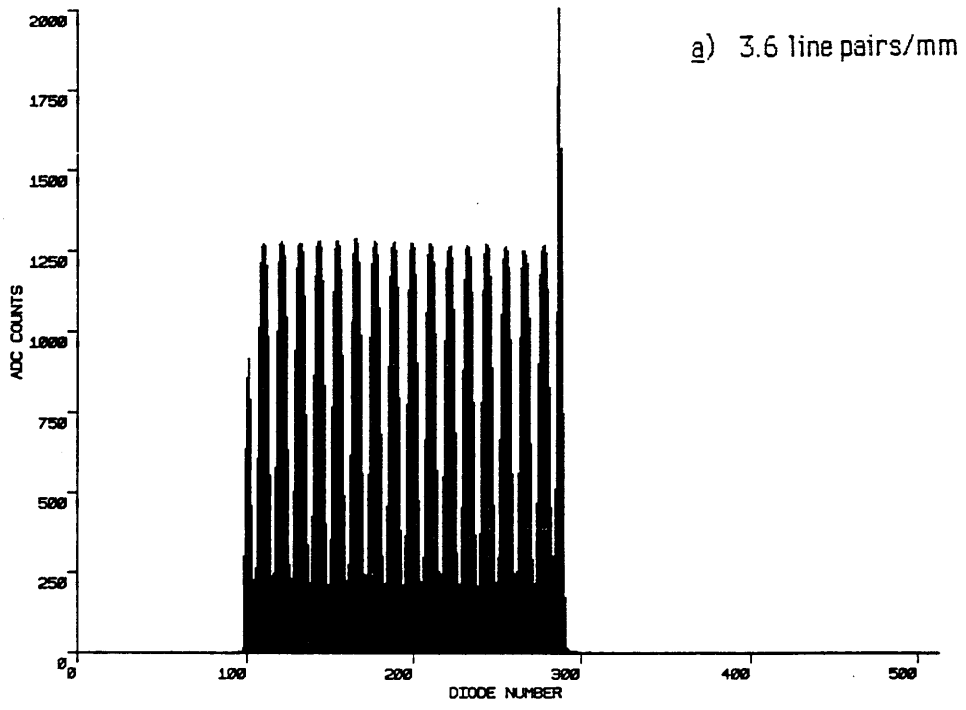


Figure 8.10 a,b,c

Spatial Resolution of Single Crystal YAG Screen B (50 μ m)



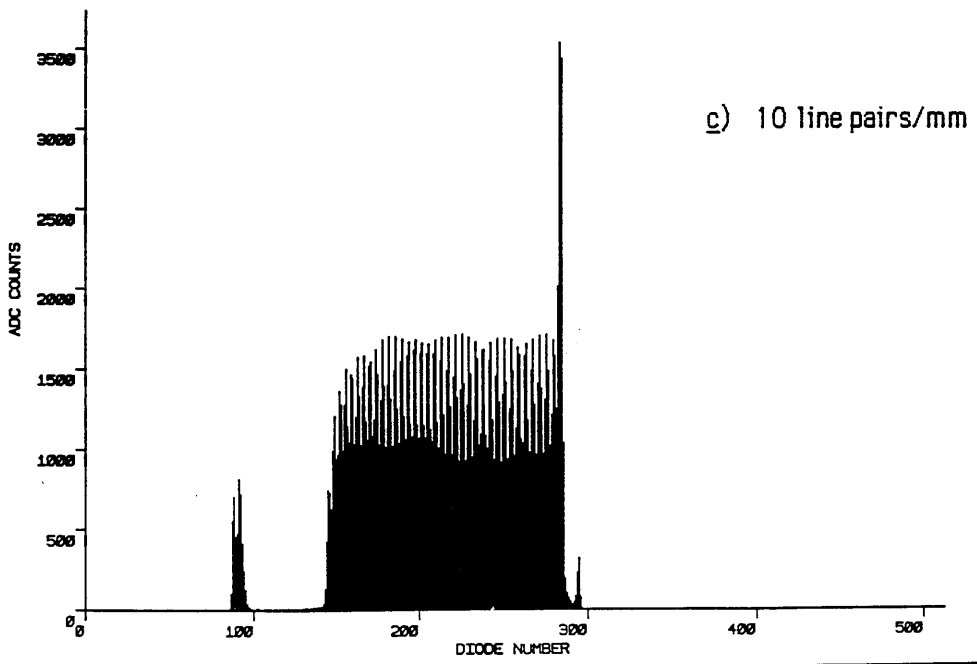
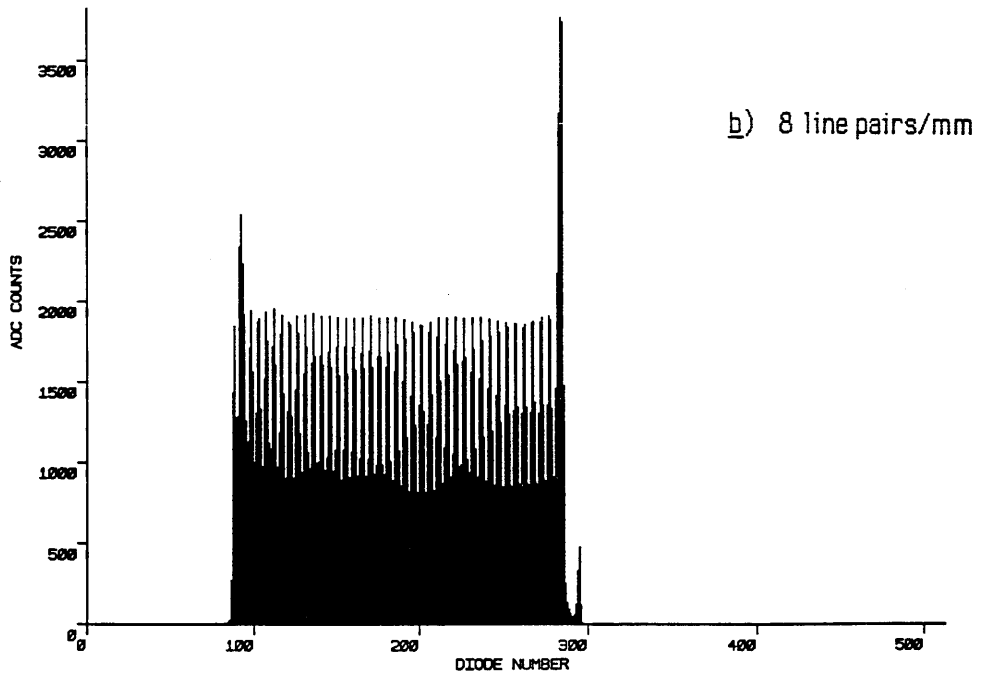
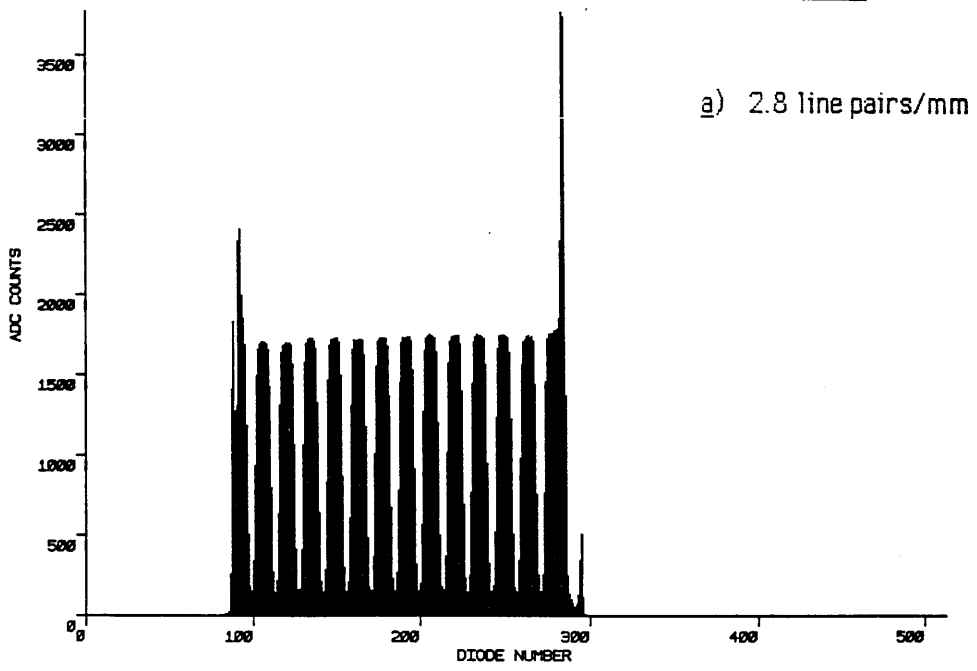


Figure 8.12 a,b,c

Spatial Resolution of P46 Powder Phosphor Screens

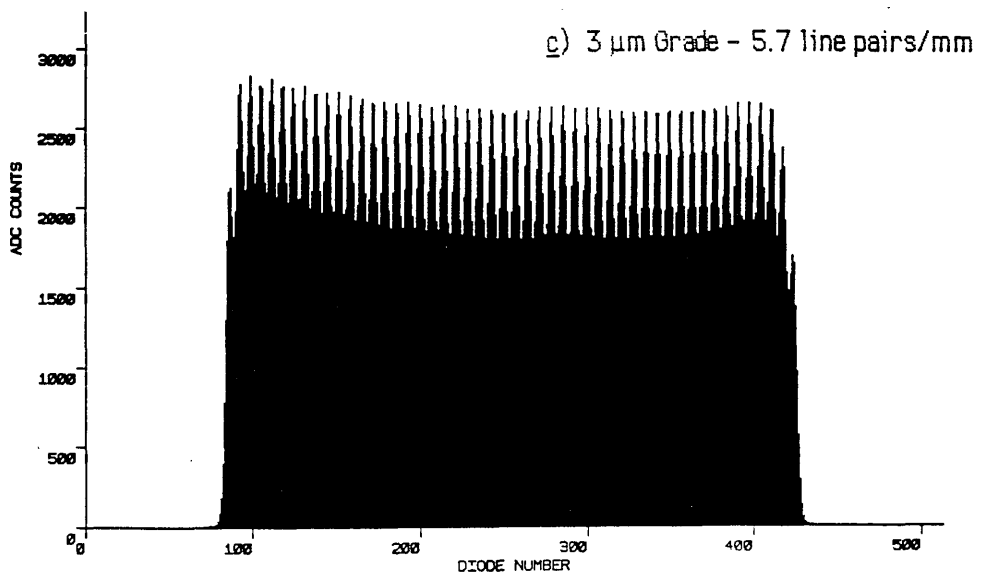
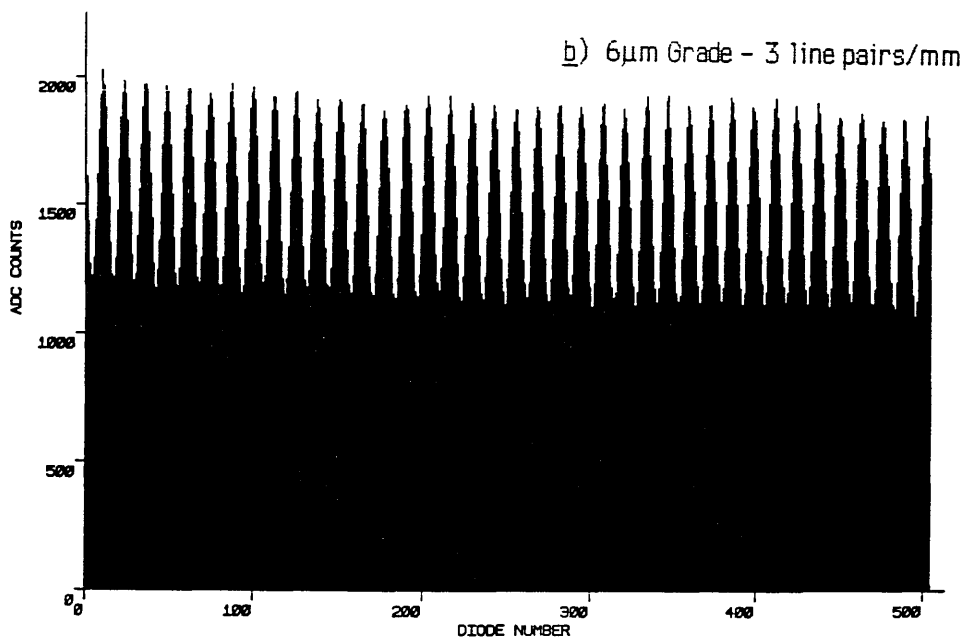
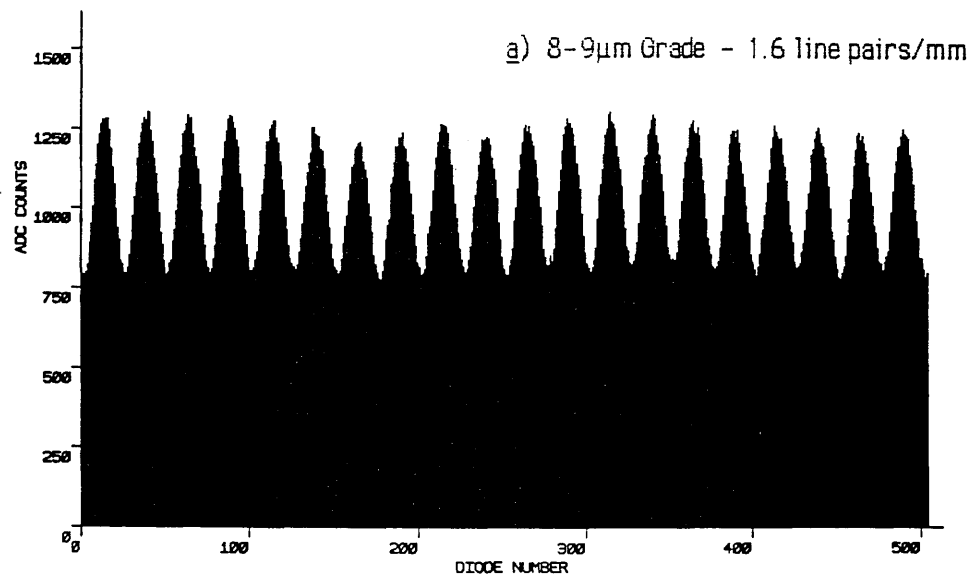
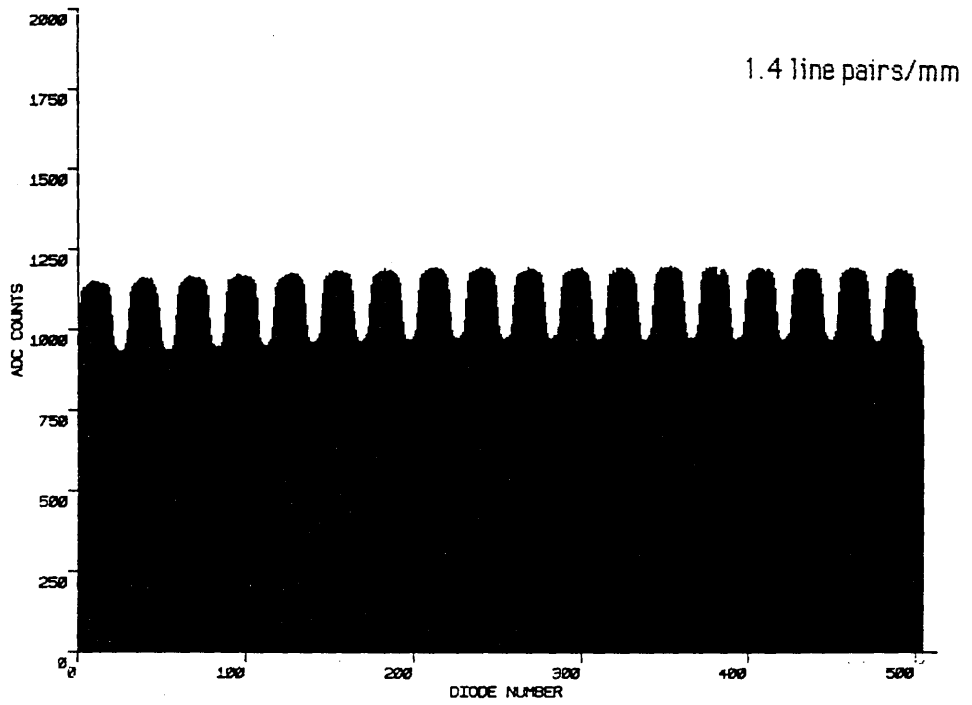


Figure 8.12 d

Spatial Resolution of Terbium Doped Fibre Optic Faceplate



Figures 8.12 a,b,c are scans taken using the powder P46 screens of 8-9 μm , 6 μm and 3 μm grades respectively. The contrast for the 8-9 μm grade phosphor shown in figure 8.11a is 35% at a spatial frequency of 1.6 lp/mm. The 6 μm grade P46 displays 47% contrast at 3 lp/mm in figure 8.12b, and the finest 3 μm grade has a 30% contrast at 5.7 lp/mm in figure 8.12c. The terbium doped fibre optic plate gave a contrast of less than 20% at 1.4 lp/mm as illustrated in figure 8.12d.

As expected, the best resolution was obtained using the Mullard P20 screen with its thin layer of phosphor, however the performance of the single crystal YAG screens was not very much inferior, with the 30 μm screen being predictably the better of the two. The resolution of the P46 powder phosphor screens is directly proportional to screen thickness (hence screen weight) and also tends to increase as the particle size decreases as shown in figure 8.12a-c. It can be seen that, for the screen weights tested, the contrast is limited by light scatter in the phosphor layers to give resolution levels much poorer than the P20 or thinned YAG screens.

Predictably, from figure 8.6g, the poorest resolution of all was found in the terbium doped fibre-optic plate. It was noted that varying the electron accelerating voltage between 20 and 100keV produced no substantial change in the image contrast or resolution, suggesting that it is light and not electron scatter within the plate which is the limiting factor. The particular sample investigated did not contain any form of extra-mural absorption (EMA), which would help to reduce the light spreading illustrated in figure 8.12d and also in figure 8.6g. It can only be concluded that, unless the screen is mechanically thinned like the YAG specimens, the resolution without EMA is much poorer than other luminescent screens commonly used in electron microscopy.

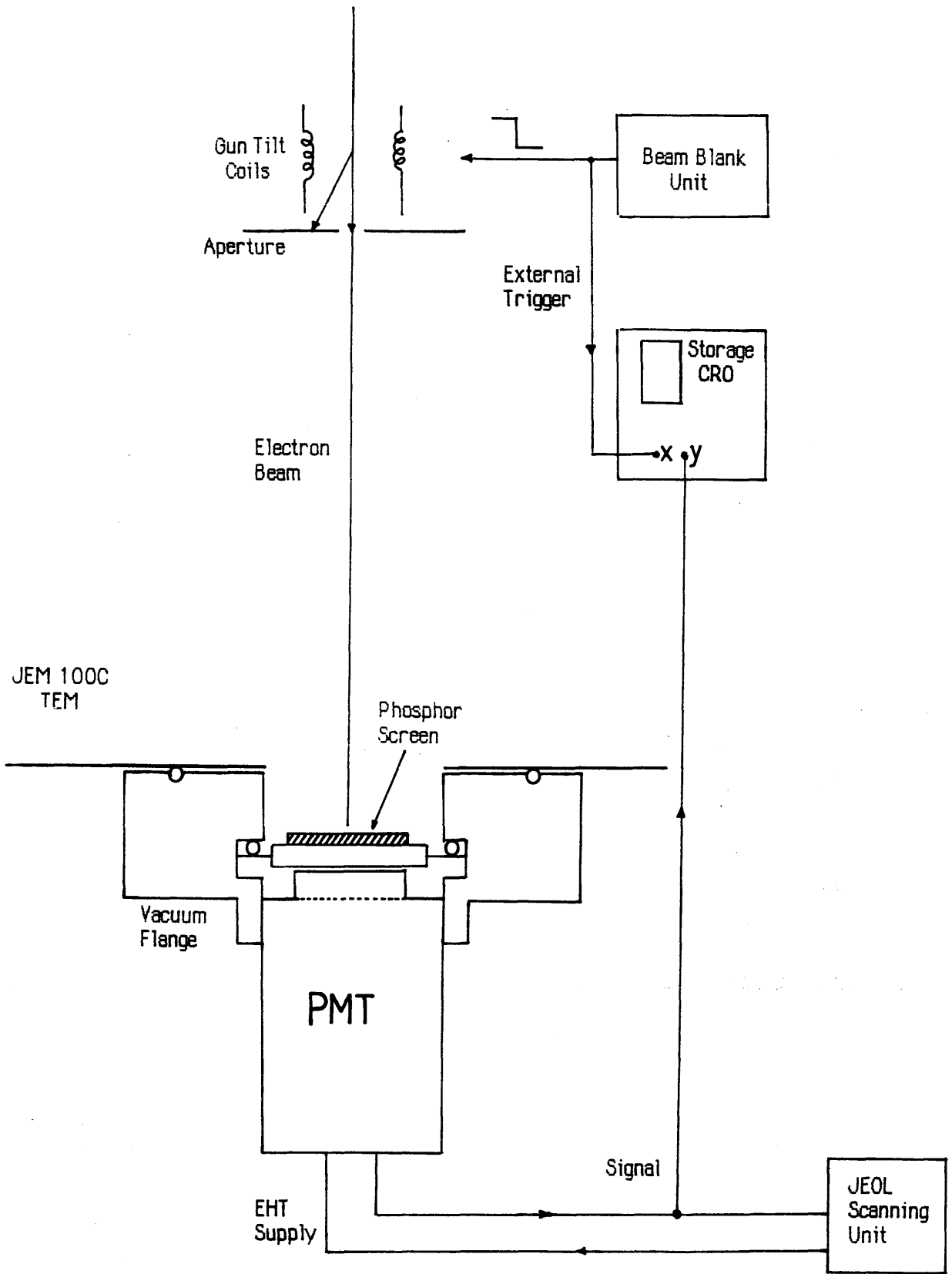
8.2.5 Measurements of principal decay times

Precise measurements of the decay times of fast scintillators requires carefully controlled experimental conditions and specialised high speed electronics- none of which were available at the time of these experiments. However, if absolute measurements could not readily be carried out then certainly comparative results could be obtained, and upper limits placed upon the principal decay times of each of the phosphors examined.

The experimental apparatus was set up as in figure 8.13. A special vacuum flange for the JEM 100C microscope was designed and constructed to allow the fibre-optic plates carrying the luminescent screens to act as vacuum windows. This flange replaced the STEM detector

Figure 8.13

Measurement of Principal Decay Times



unit beneath the camera chamber of the microscope. A modified photomultiplier screw fitting was attached to the outside of the flange enabling a standard JEOL photomultiplier tube (PMT) to be directly coupled to the output face of the fibre-optic plates.

The microscope was operated in scanning mode with the scanning unit set to spot mode, i.e. the scan coils were disabled. The beam was instead deflected using a beam blank unit which automatically applied a current pulse to the microscope tilt coils causing the beam to be shifted onto the condenser aperture mechanism. The output voltage from the PMT (0v to ~ 7 v max) was applied to the Y input of a Tektronix storage oscilloscope, and the X triggering was taken directly from the beam blank unit. Thus deflection of the electron beam from the phosphor screen triggered the oscilloscope to store and display the voltage output from the PMT, the rate of decay of which was proportional to the scintillator time constants.

Clearly the time resolution of this apparatus was limited mainly by the speed of the beam deflecting electronics and the bandwidth of the oscilloscope input amplifier. The voltage risetime of the blanking signal applied to the microscope tilt coils was measured to be ~ 2 μ sec and the corresponding current risetime, which is the important quantity, is likely to be much slower due to the inductance of the coils. Taking this into account, the input bandwidth of the oscilloscope was set at 1MHz in order to suppress any signals faster than the beam blank action.

Figure 8.14a shows the initial decay of the Mullard P20 screen to be quite fast, the output drops by 50% in < 1 msec. This figure agrees well with the published specification (Mullard data sheets) which is 0.5msec to the $1/e$ (37%) point. After the fast primary decrease in output intensity a slower decay phase becomes dominant, the output is still $\sim 16\%$ of the initial value at 19msecs after removal of the beam. Figure 8.14b is taken using a slower timebase indicating that the output falls below 1% after ~ 500 msec.

The principal decay time of YAG in P46 or single crystal form has been measured by Autrata et al [1983a] to be ~ 80 nsec to 37% which is far too fast for this system to resolve. Figure 8.15a is the decay curve recorded for the 3μ m grade P46 phosphor showing a drop to 50% in $\sim 100\mu$ secs, which is 3 orders of magnitude longer than the above specification. Obviously the rate of decay is limited by the blanking system rather than the YAG decay time, and no sensible information about the principal decay time, other than it is less than 100μ secs, can be derived from the figure. All the other YAG screens measured displayed curves of similar form.

Figure 8.14a

Initial Decay of Mullard P20 Screen

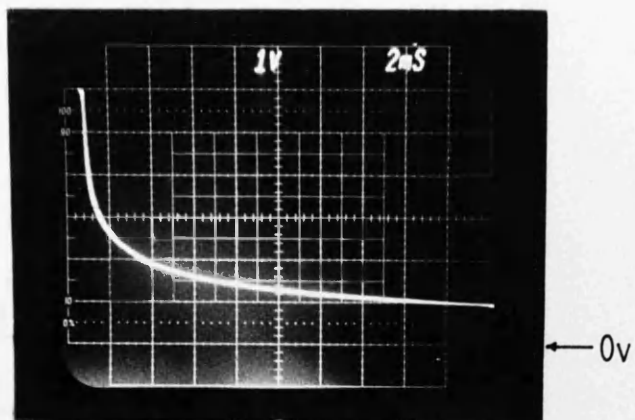


Figure 8.14b

Secondary Decay of Mullard P20 Screen

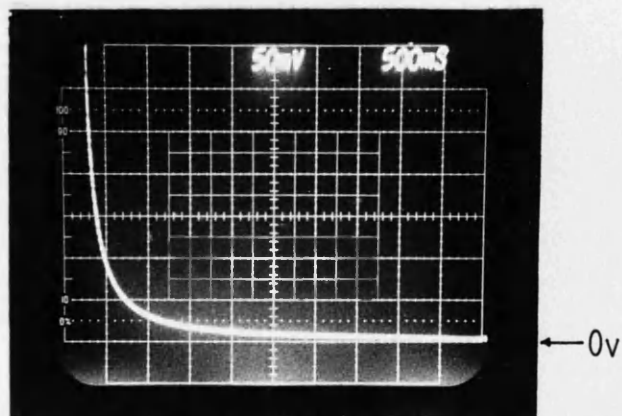


Figure 8.15a

Initial Decay of 3 μ m Grade P46 Powder Phosphor Screen

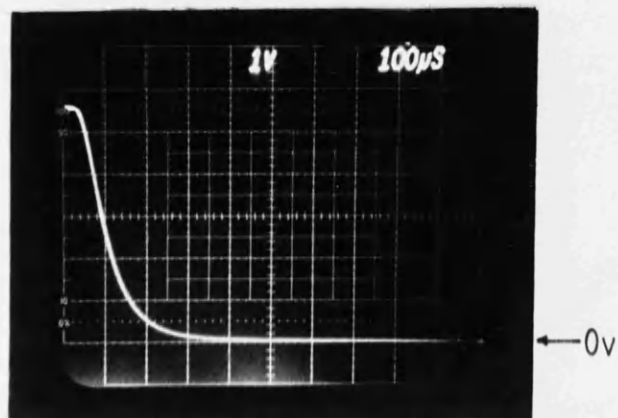


Figure 8.15b

Secondary Decay of 3 μ m Grade Powder Phosphor Screen

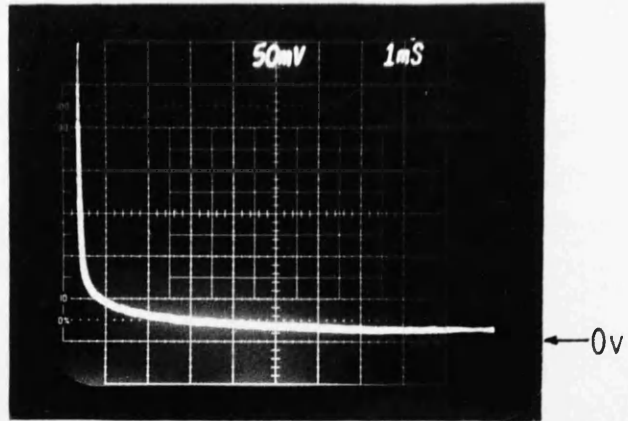


Figure 8.15c

Secondary Decay of Single Crystal YAG Screen A

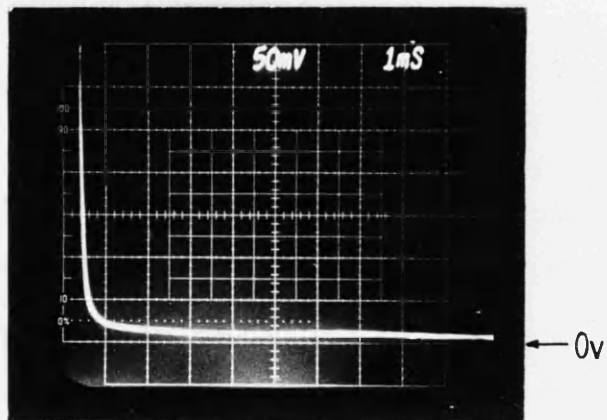


Figure 8.16

Initial Decay of Terbium Doped Fibre Optic Faceplate

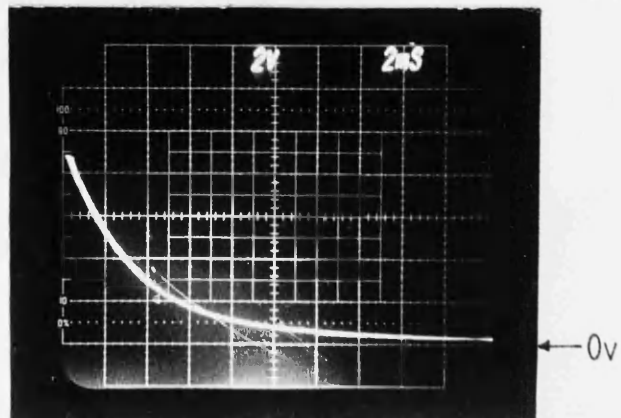


Figure 8.15b and 8.15c are recordings of the decay curves of 3 μ m grade P46 phosphor and the thinned single crystal YAG screen A respectively, captured using a longer timebase. Interestingly, the initial decay is very fast as expected, but there exists a comparatively long-lived secondary effect at around 0.005% of the initial intensity. The gradient of this secondary decay seems to be slightly greater for the powder phosphor. A close examination of the 'tail' of figure 8.15c seems to show the light output actually increasing at one point which is clearly impossible- it must be assumed that this effect is due to some external electrical interference, possibly mains frequency interference.

The principal responses of the other YAG based screens were found to be very similar, and the secondary effects are investigated in more detail in the next section. The final trace, figure 8.16, displays the decay curve of the terbium scintillator which exhibits a slow principal decay, reaching 50% in \sim 2msecs and 10% at \sim 10 msecs. The presence of any long term decay constant for this screen is also discussed in the next section.

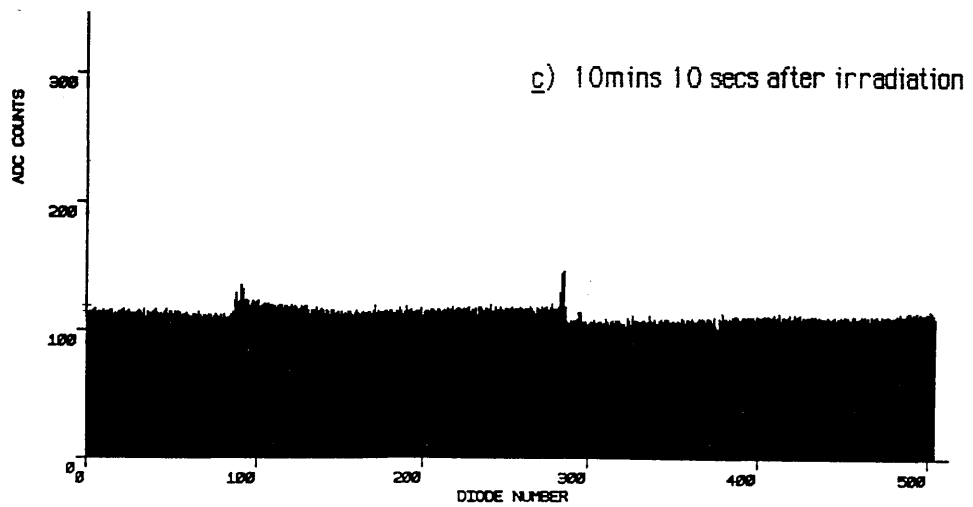
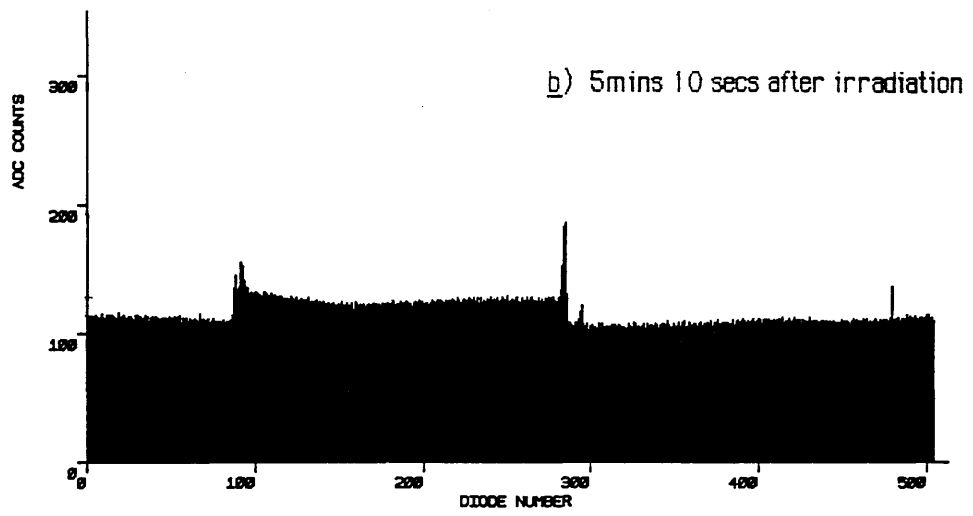
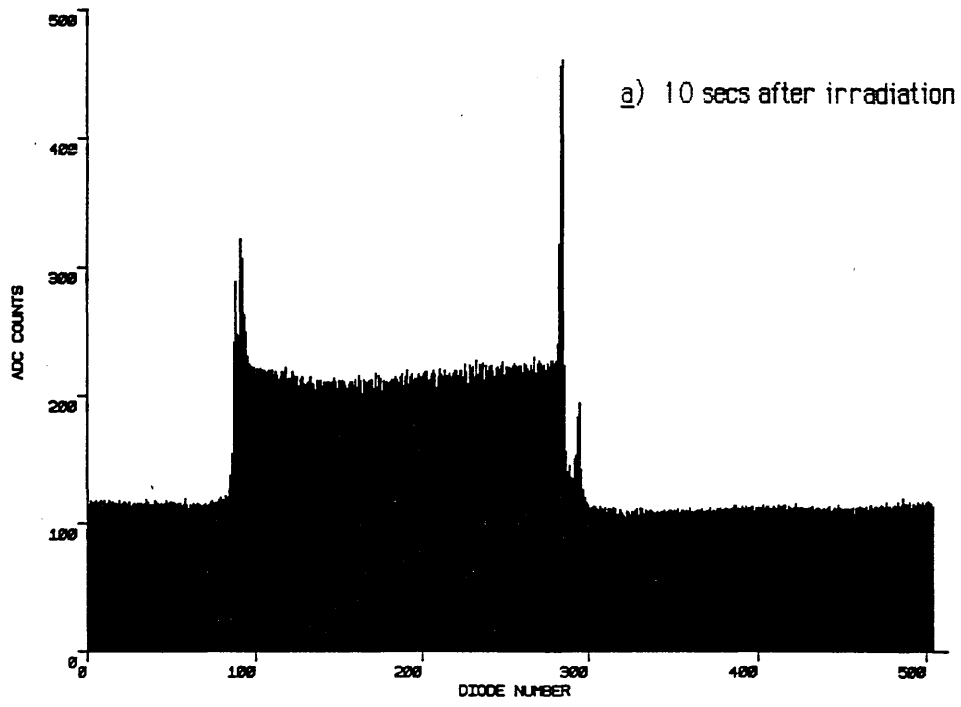
8.2.6 Examination of secondary time constants

Most phosphors exhibit decay characteristics with more than one time constant, generally because their light production involves more than one radiative process, each different mechanism having its own associated decay time. Usually there is a comparatively fast primary decay constant, such as those illustrated previously, and one or more slower secondary time constants at lower intensities. These secondary time constants can cause a long-lived afterglow or 'ghost' image to be retained. Obviously this kind of effect is undesirable for parallel EELS as it may introduce artefacts into the data, particularly when recording a low-level signal soon after an intense signal.

Figure 8.17a is a dark scan taken using an integration time of 5 secs at a temperature of 0 $^{\circ}$ C, \sim 10 secs after uniformly irradiating the single crystal YAG screen A for 1 minute at a high current density (7.5nA Faraday cup reading). There is a clear ghost image superimposed upon the dark signal, and figures 8.17b-f illustrate the decay of this image at five minute intervals, showing that the signal is just about detectable 25 minutes after the original irradiation. Similar results were obtained for the other single crystal YAG screen. Figure 8.18 is a graph of the integrated counts in each scan (after subtraction of the dark signal) as a function of time. The uncertainties are due to errors incurred in the dark signal subtraction. It appears that there are many time constants involved in this decay process, as the points lie on a smooth curve, however it is clear that these decay constants are of the order of several minutes.

Figure 8.17 a-f

Dark Scan Single Crystal YAG Screen A



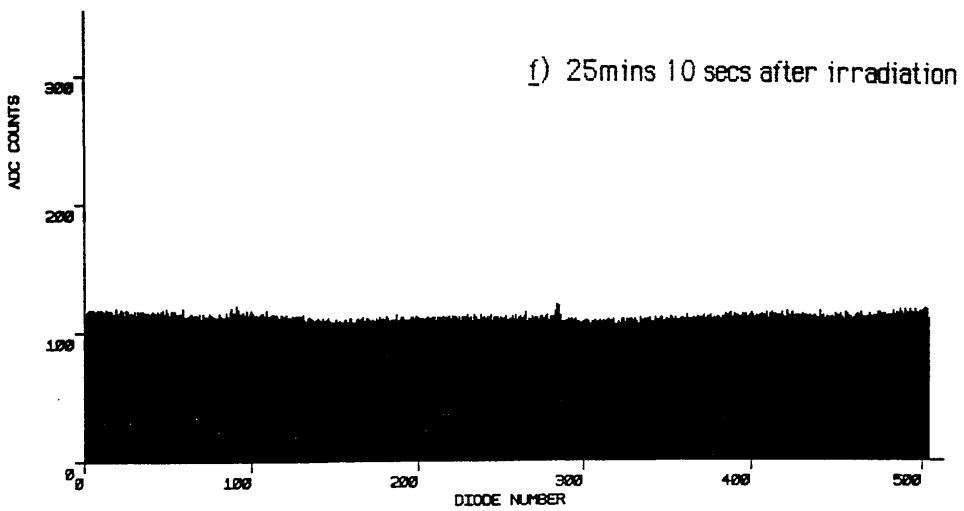
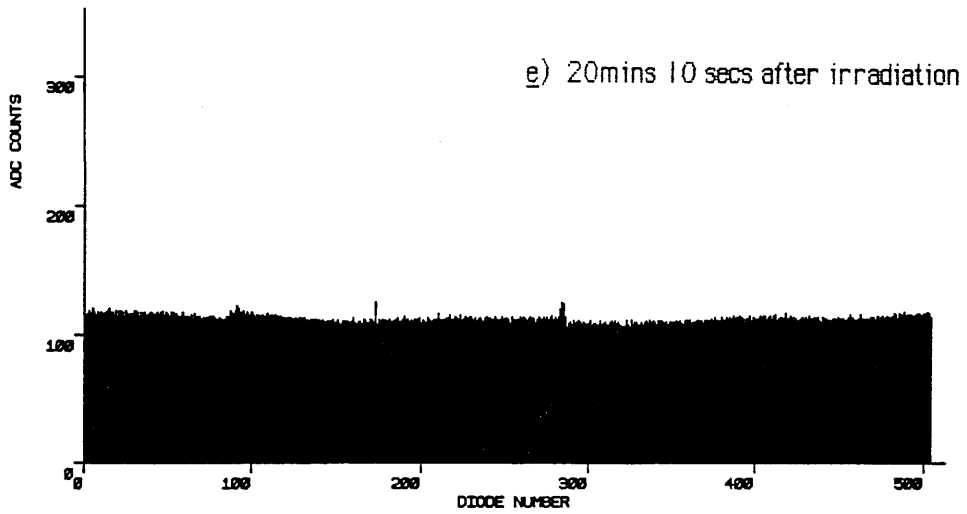
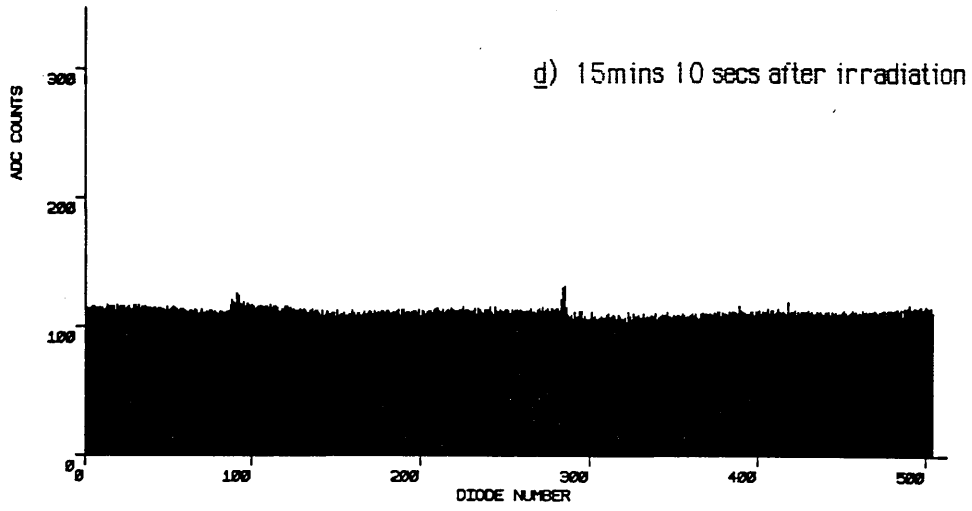


Figure 8.18

Variation of Integrated Counts In 'Ghost' Image With Time

Single Crystal YAG Screen A

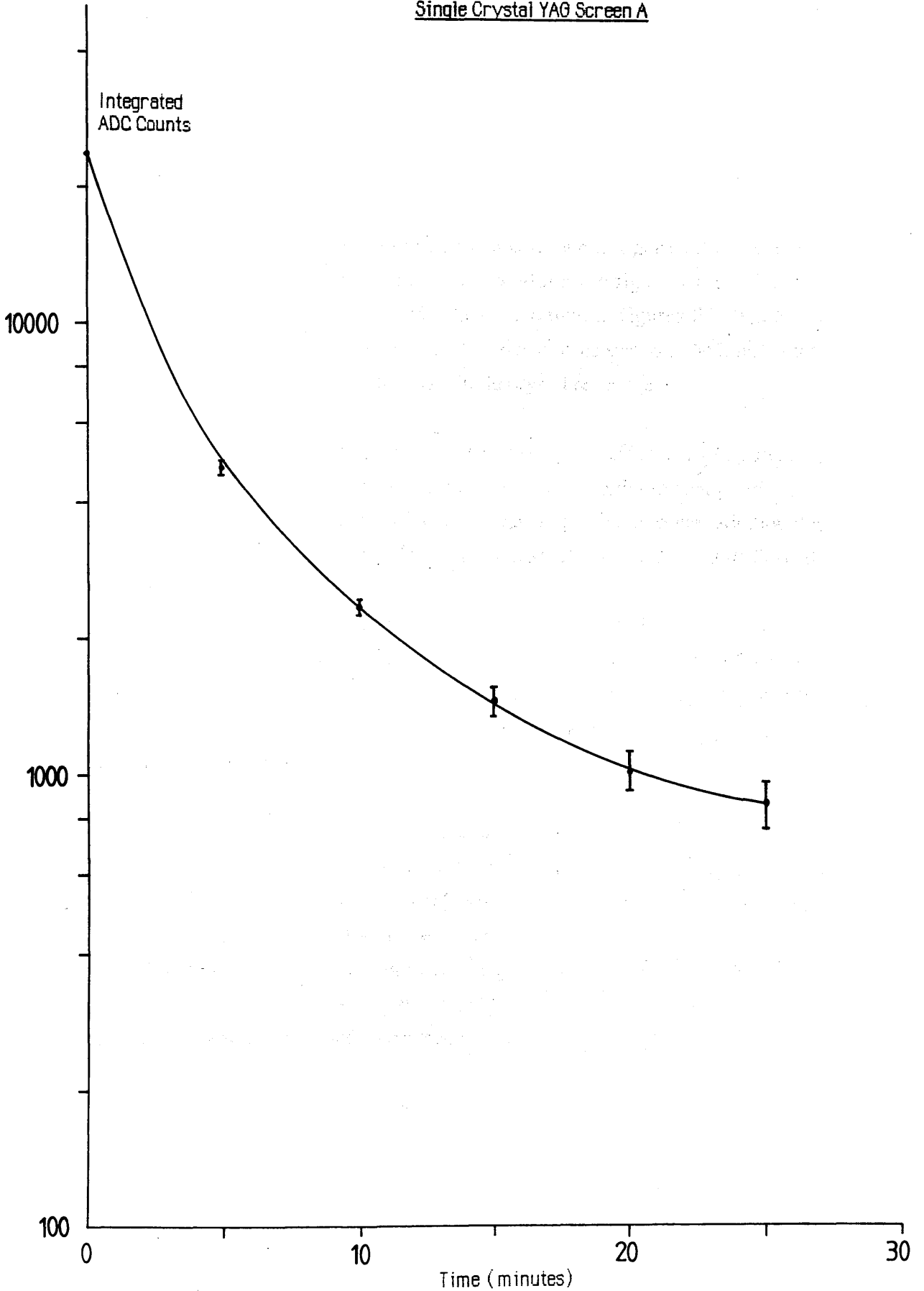


Figure 8.19a is a dark scan taken 10 secs after exposing the 6 μ m grade P46 powder screen to a high intensity electron probe for ~2 minutes. Again a ghost image of the probe is superimposed upon the dark signal, but the decay is much faster as evidenced by figure 8.19b which is an identical scan acquired 4 minutes later. The 3 μ m grade phosphor displayed very similar characteristics, but the largest grade (8-9 μ m) did not show any significant afterglow at all. This latter observation is unexplained, the cause may possibly be due to some difference in the preparation of the different phosphor grades.

The response of the terbium fibre-optic screen is shown in figure 8.20a which is a dark scan taken 20 secs after irradiation using identical conditions to figure 8.19a. The ghost image of the probe can clearly be seen, and the decay is shown in figures 8.20b and c which were taken at four minute intervals. The secondary decay time seems to be longer than that of the powder P46 screens but shorter than the single crystal response.

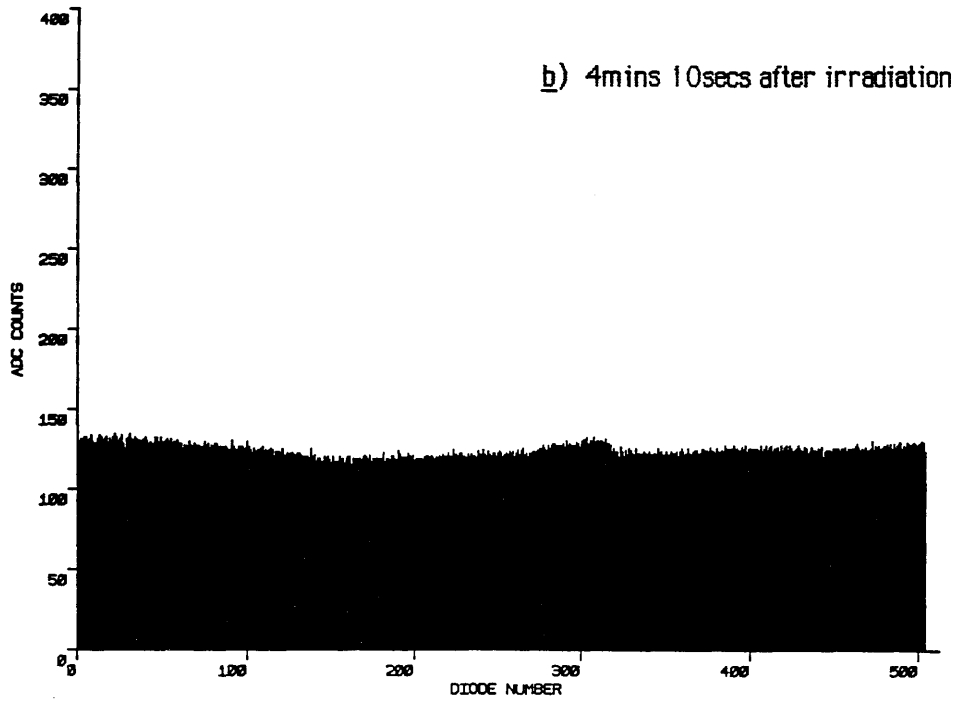
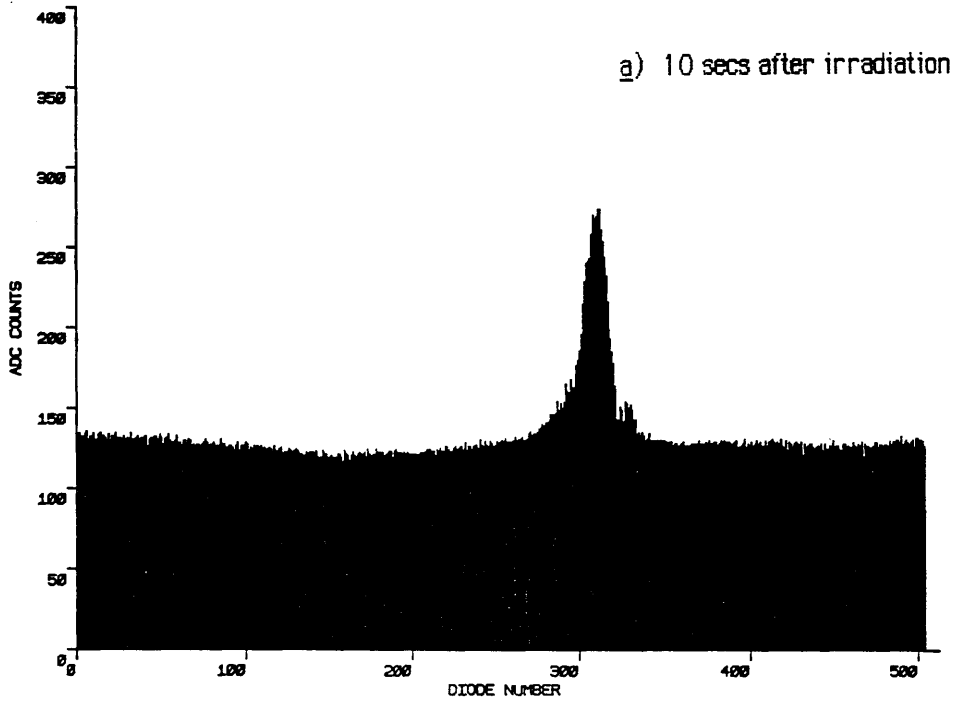
The afterglow effect is most pronounced in the single crystal YAG screens, where the secondary decay constants have been shown to be of the order of many minutes. In practice it seemed that the level of afterglow detected was proportional to the radiation dose received by the YAG, up to a saturation limit which was of the order of 0.01% of the incident intensity. No explicit experiments were carried out to determine the exact correlation between radiation dose and afterglow levels, but certainly with the maximum beam currents available in the TEM significant 'ghosting' required constant exposure times of the order of tens of seconds. Current densities present in parallel recording of EELS spectra are likely to be at least 100x greater than those used in these experiments, so that a corresponding decrease in the exposure time should be anticipated.

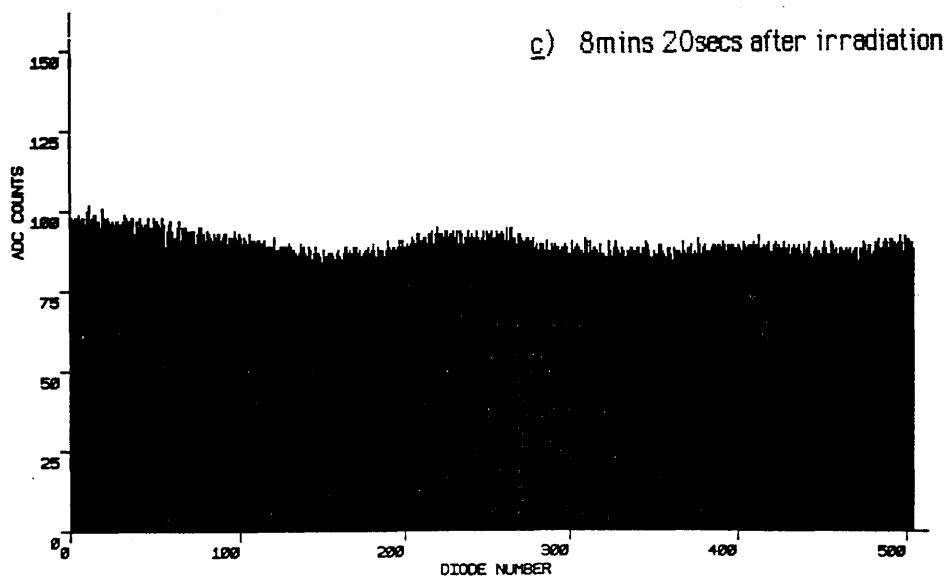
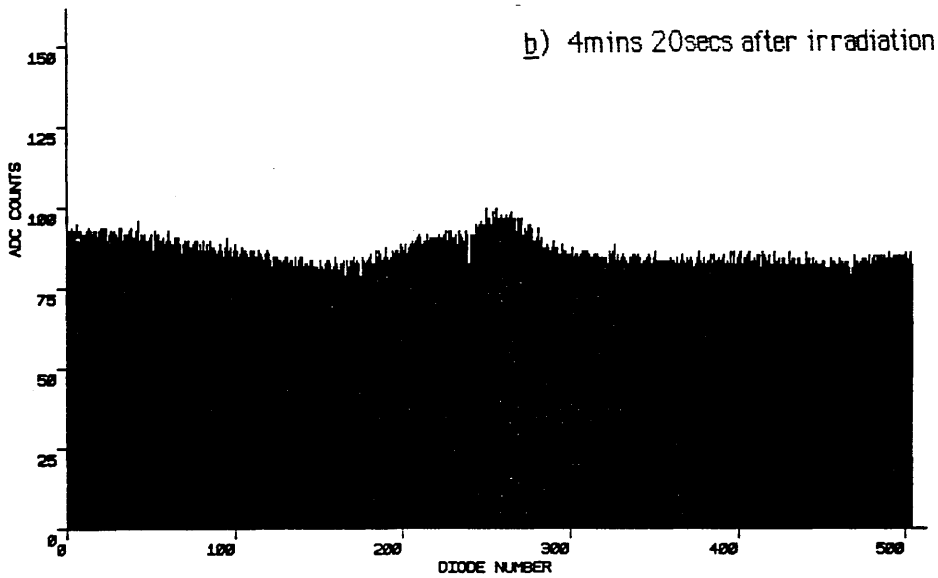
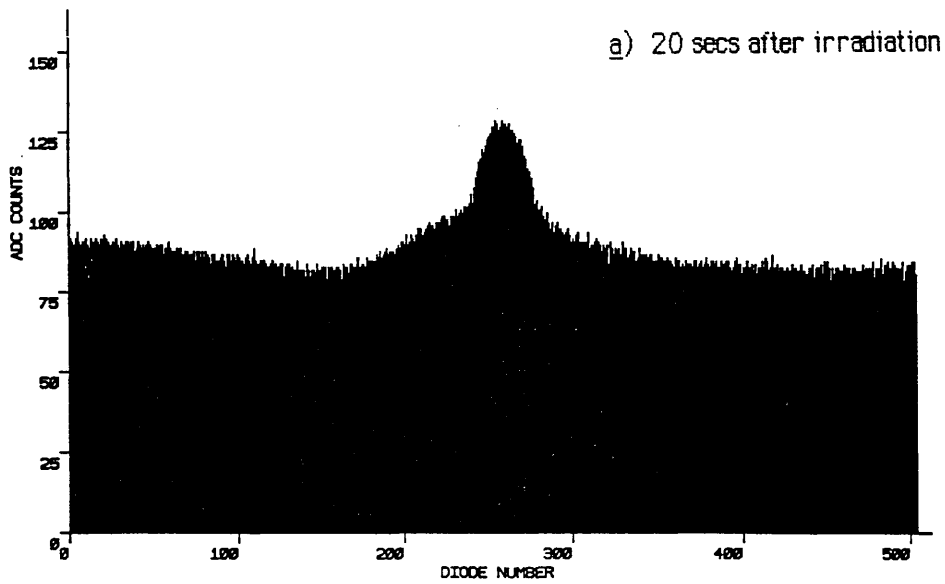
Decay times of the order of minutes as measured above would be disastrous for parallel EELS detection if the signal intensities involved were comparable with those of the spectrum to be recorded. Fortunately, the intensities of these afterglow effects lie at around the 0.005% level (which is much less than 1 LSB in a 12 bit system), and can only be easily detected by integrating the dark signal for long periods. Another helpful factor is that with such slow decay rates, the afterglow could effectively be removed from a spectrum by subtracting a dark scan recorded immediately before the signal of interest.

When recording EELS spectra using scintillators with long secondary time constants, such as single crystal YAG, several precautions should be adopted in order to reduce the risk of spurious images corrupting the data. It seems sensible to try to avoid as much as possible

Figure 8.19 a,b

Dark Scan 6 μ m Grade P46 Powder Phosphor Screen





prolonged exposure of the scintillator to intense signals such as the zero loss beam, both in order to reduce the ghosting effect and also to help minimise radiation damage. Secondly, when recording whole spectra in discrete sections the less intense regions (i.e. the far energy loss) should be recorded first and the highest (zero loss) last. If the scintillator is exposed to intense irradiation for a length of time greater than a few seconds then it would be advisable to wait for at least 5 minutes before recording any more data, by which time the ghost image should have decayed to a negligible level. With care and attention to the above details there should be no difficulty in successfully recording wide dynamic range spectra using these scintillators.

8.2.7 Summary of luminescent screen performance

The results of the previous experiments are used to consider the overall suitability of each scintillator for use as an electron-photon conversion screen in a parallel EELS detector, and thus select the screen which best meets the requirements listed in section 8.1.2.

Mullard P20 screen

This commercially produced screen was used as a performance reference for the others. It has the highest spatial resolution of any of the screens tested, showing >20% contrast at a spatial frequency of 13 lp/mm, but consequently suffers in the areas of efficiency and uniformity of light production. Apart from this, the main drawback for its use in parallel EELS is the relatively slow principal decay time which is of the order of 0.5 msec to 50%, and an even slower secondary time constant which means that the light output takes ~500 msec to decay to 1% of the initial value.

P46 powder phosphor screens

The performance of these screens was in most cases below that of the thinned single crystal screens. Admittedly many of the parameters measured depend to a large extent upon the thickness and uniformity of the phosphor layer, which is difficult to control with any degree of accuracy due to the nature of the settling technique. Of the three screens tested the 6 μ m grade gave by far the highest levels of efficiency at 71 photons recorded per 100keV electron, and was also the most uniform. The principal decay times are very fast, and secondary time constants are shorter than those of single crystal YAG. Spatial resolution is dependent upon the screen thickness and upon the mean phosphor particle size; unfortunately the efficiency of photon production is inversely proportional to these factors so that a compromise must be made. Generally the P46 screens offer no real advantage over single crystal YAG and in fact suffer from several defects commonly associated with particulate

screens.

Terbium doped fibre plate

This novel scintillator has several attractive properties- it is was the most efficient screen measured (apart from bulk YAG) giving >100 recorded photons/e⁻(100keV) and displayed the best uniformity of response of any screen at $\pm 1.2\%$. The fibre plate construction is mechanically robust allowing the screen to be formed into an integral vacuum window, and resistance to radiation damage should be good as in other glass scintillators. Unfortunately the spatial resolution of this sample was the poorest of any of the screens tested, due to light spreading in the fibre array. The introduction of EMA should improve the performance, at the risk of reducing the active area and hence efficiency. The principal decay time is fairly slow, reaching the 10% level in ~ 10 msecs, and there is a low level secondary decay constant which is longer than that of P46 but less than single crystal YAG. Overall the scintillator is potentially very useful for general use in microscopy, if the resolution can be improved, but the slow decay times make it unsuitable for EELS recording.

Single crystal YAG screens

The thinned single crystal YAG screens performed well in the areas of efficiency and uniformity of response, and were second only to the Mullard P20 screen in terms of spatial resolution. The principal decay time is very fast but there does exist a very long term secondary time constant which may cause problems when recording very faint signals immediately after an intense signal. The radiation damage resistance of single crystal YAG is known to be extremely good, and the favourable mechanical properties of the single crystal structure are well suited to parallel EELS recording. The main disadvantage of this scintillator is the reduction in efficiency caused by total internal reflections between the polished surfaces. It should be possible to substantially increase the light output^{of} thinned YAG by matt finishing the output side of the crystal, but the effect on resolution and uniformity of response would have to be carefully examined.

8.2.8 Conclusions

Taking all the above factors into account the most suitable screen for use in a parallel EELS detector is clearly thinned single crystal YAG. Of the two YAG screens tested the 30 μ m thick screen A showed the better resolution, giving 40% contrast at 10 lp/mm, but seemed to suffer slightly more from light piping. Consequently the thinner screen produced 79 recorded photons/e⁻(100keV) as against 83 recorded photons/e⁻(100keV) for the 50 μ m thick screen. The rougher surface finish of screen A does not seem to cause any problems, as

evidenced by the similar uniformity of light production from both screens. It seems that the diamond paste polishing method which was used to finish screen A is more useful than the silica polish used on screen B, as it allows the thickness of the screen to approach the optimum value (as discussed in the next section) without any serious decrease in efficiency or uniformity of light production.

8.3 MONTE CARLO SIMULATION IN YAG

For a given incident electron energy, the optimum thickness of a single crystal YAG screen is that thickness in which all of the energy of the electrons is just absorbed, screens that are thinner than this lose efficiency and thicker screens lose resolution because of increased light spreading. Obviously the optimum thickness is therefore determined by the incident electron energy. A Monte Carlo study was made of the scattering process of 100keV electrons in bulk single crystal YAG in order to determine the most suitable practical depth of scintillator. The original Monte Carlo program was written to model the behaviour of electrons incident upon a thin poly-methyl-methacrylate (PMMA) resist upon a bulk substrate as used in electron beam lithography, but was modified to simulate a layer of single crystal YAG on a glass substrate.

8.3.1 Theoretical outline

A detailed description of the physical model used in the Monte Carlo simulation is contained in 'The Resist Exposure and Development Suite' guide available from Dr Steve Beaumont of the Department of Electrical Engineering at Glasgow University, and a listing of the modified Fortran code along with information on running the program is contained in appendix 6.

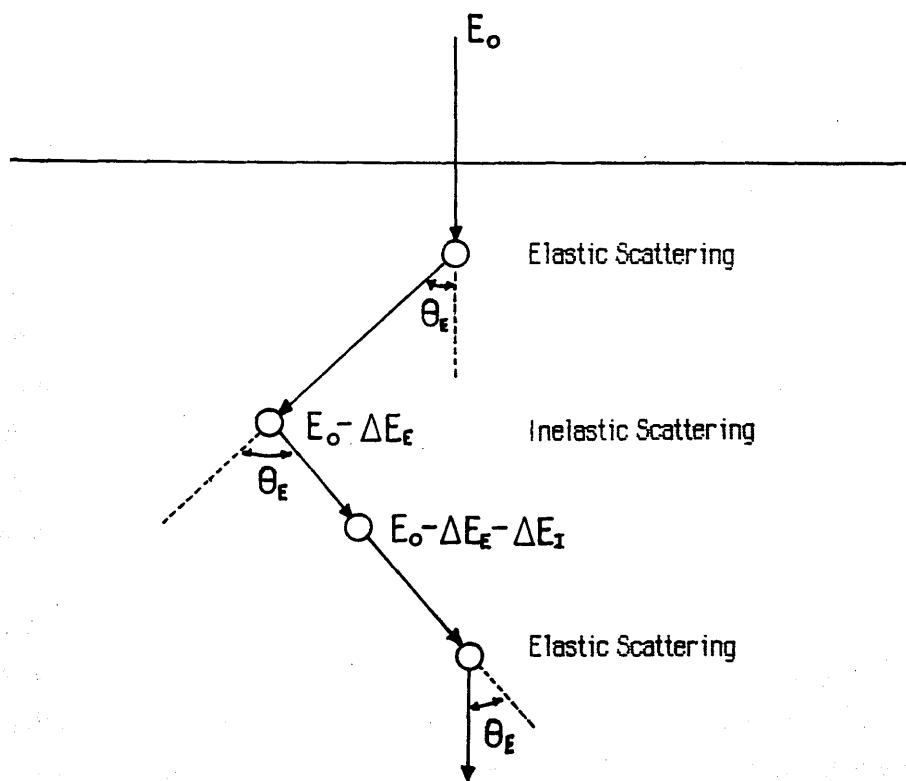
The Monte Carlo model simulates real electron trajectories by the assembly of straight line steps of finite length. The progress of a simulated electron is illustrated in figure 8.21 where each step represents the distance between elastic collisions with nuclei or inelastic collisions with other electrons. It is assumed that elastic collisions involve no dissipation of energy but cause angular scattering of the electrons and inelastic collisions involve dissipation of energy without angular deviation. The mean free path λ_{tot} between collisions is a combination of the mean free paths for elastic scattering and inelastic scattering:

$$\frac{1}{\lambda_{\text{tot}}} = \frac{1}{\lambda_{\text{elastic}}} + \frac{1}{\lambda_{\text{inelastic}}} \quad (8.1)$$

and the actual step length computed is determined, on the basis of a Poisson distribution

Figure 8.21

Monte Carlo Simulation Of Electron Scattering



about λ_{TOT} , by a uniformly distributed random number. The mean free path for elastic scattering is derived from the screened Rutherford scattering model as is the inelastic scattering angle θ_E , while an expression for the mean free path for inelastic scattering, derived from the Bethe energy loss equation, is given by Shimizu et al [1975].

Selection of an inelastic or elastic event is decided by a random number- if the collision is elastic then the scattering angle θ_E is determined using the Rutherford model, and the energy lost by the electron in travelling to the next collision site ΔE_E is calculated using an approximate analytic solution to the Bethe energy loss equation (also known as the Bethe continuous slowing down approximation) derived by Greeneich and Van Duzer [1973]. The energy dissipated is attributed to the elastic collision point at the start of the current path element, which in the case of the first path element is assumed to be the origin (although no angular scattering takes place at the origin).

The energy lost in an inelastic collision ΔE_I is selected by a random number according to a Poisson distribution about the mean excitation energy for electron loss in the solid I, which appears in the Bethe energy loss equation. This energy is attributed to the inelastic collision site. After each collision the energy lost by the electron is decremented from the original energy, and the next collision is calculated. The trajectory stops when the electron is either absorbed or leaves the YAG.

The angular distribution of the scattered electrons is determined by the elastic scattering events, and is a function of the atomic number of the atom involved in each collision. For YAG scintillator this atom might be yttrium, oxygen, aluminium or cerium. For simplicity the latter is discounted as it makes up only 1 atomic percent of the available atoms. The probability that any one type of atom is involved in a collision depends upon the scattering cross section of that atom and what percentage of the total number of atoms it makes up. The Monte Carlo program selects the collision atom type using a random function weighted with the above probabilities.

8.3.2 Results

Figure 8.22a shows the trajectories of 1000 100keV electrons in 30 μ m of YAG (density 4.56 g/cm³). The incident energy of the electrons is relativistically corrected to 109780 eV. Each electron enters the YAG at coordinates Y=X=0 travelling in the Z direction, and the resultant trajectories have all been projected down onto the Y-Z plane. As can be seen, only one electron actually manages to enter the glass substrate.

Figure 8.22a

Monte Carlo Simulation Of Electron Scattering in 30 μ m YAG

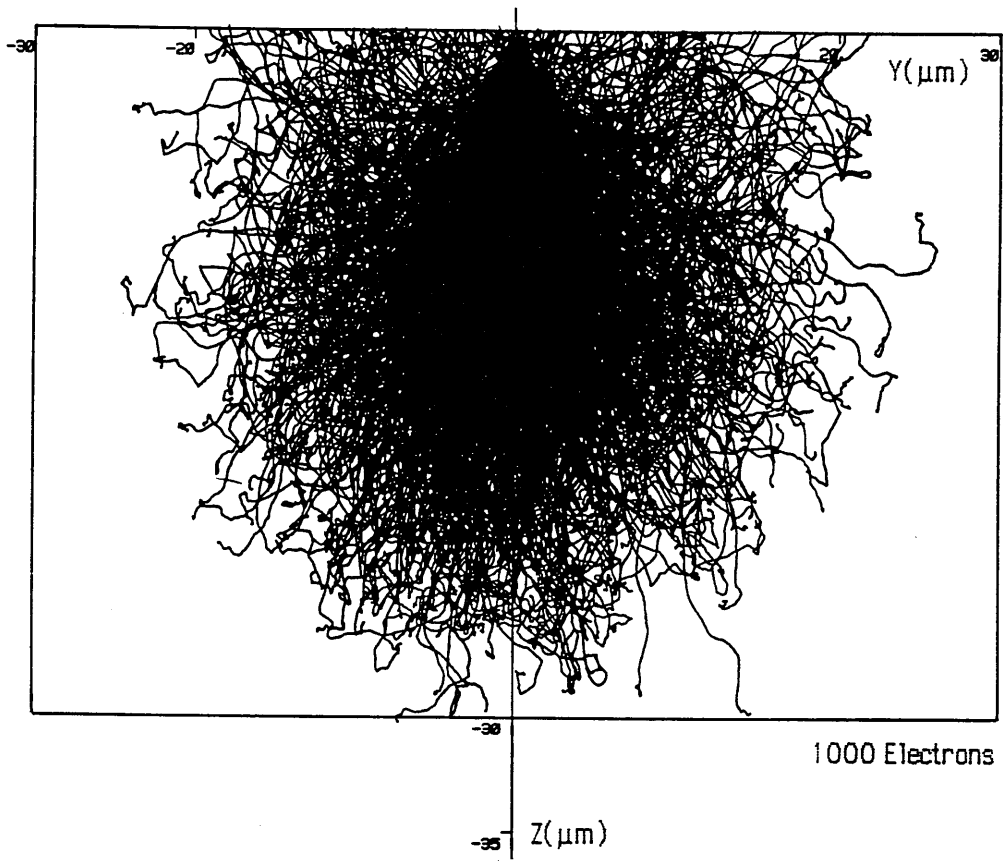
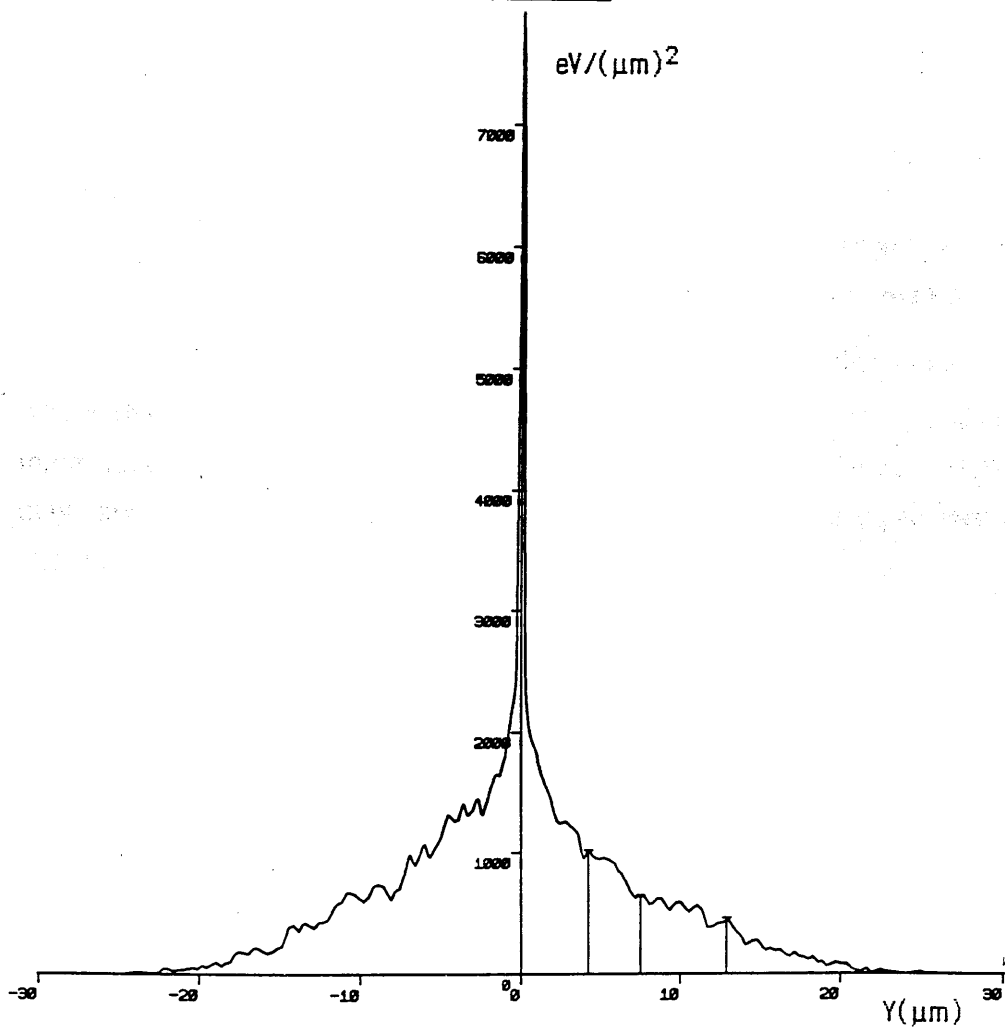


Figure 8.22b

Integrated Energy Deposited in YAG



Calculations show that almost 93 % of the total incident electron energy is deposited in the YAG, while the other 7% is backscattered. Thus, assuming an average photon energy of 2.5eV, and a conversion efficiency of 4% each incident electron should produce ~1600 photons. Thinner substrates result in less energy being deposited in the YAG and are correspondingly less efficient; for example similar calculations have shown that a 20µm thick YAG screen absorbs only 83% of the total incident electron energy, while a 10 µm thick screen absorbs only 40%. Figure 8.22b shows the integrated energy deposited in eV/µm² in a series X-Z slices taken through the plane of figure 8.22a. The 50, 70 and 90% boundaries of energy deposition are clearly marked. As can be seen, at the 90% point the maximum lateral spread of the electrons is ~26µm, indicating that this is the minimum point to point resolution which can be achieved using 30µm of YAG to image 100keV electrons. Of course this spread function corresponds to an infinitely narrow electron beam, for real probes the response function would have to be convoluted with the probe shape.

8.4 EVALUATION OF DETECTIVE QUANTUM EFFICIENCY

The experiments of this and the previous chapter have suggested that a successful detector for a parallel recording system for 100keV EELS could be constructed using a 30µm thick single crystal YAG screen fibre-optically coupled to a Hamamatsu S2304-512F photodiode array. This section attempts to evaluate the detective quantum efficiency (DQE) of such a system over a range of electron intensities, using the experimental data of chapters 7 and 8.

8.4.1 Definition of DQE

The efficiency of any electron detector can most usefully be expressed in terms of its DQE, specified over some range of input intensities. For a linear detector the DQE is defined as:

$$DQE = (\text{SNR of output signal})^2 / (\text{SNR of input signal})^2$$

where SNR is the signal to noise ratio. Thus a perfect detector which adds no noise to the input signal has a DQE of unity. Real detectors are not perfect but have DQE values which may approach unity over a limited intensity range, gradually falling to zero outside of this region.

For a 30µm single crystal YAG screen the figure of 79 recorded photons per incident 100keV electron was found. The maximum diode capacity of the Hamamatsu S2304-512F array is 4.7×10^7 electrons, so that each individual diode is saturated after receiving a dose of

$\sim 5.9 \times 10^5$ incident electrons. Thus, electron doses beyond this range cannot be recorded, and the DQE must fall due to saturation effects. At the other end of the scale low input signal levels are masked by the detector readout and digitisation noise, which is approximately 12100 photodiode electrons (section 7.4.3) corresponding to an input noise of ~ 153 incident 100keV electrons. The DQE is therefore very low for electron doses less than this value.

8.4.2 Calculation of the DQE

The DQE of the detector is calculated in the following section subject to two assumptions: the first is that the input signal SNR is shot noise limited and instrumental variations can be ignored. According to Poisson statistics the input noise n_i is equal to $\sqrt{N_i}$, where N_i is the number of incident electrons per diode element. Thus the input signal SNR_i is just $N_i/n_i = \sqrt{N_i}$. The second assumption is that the influence of the dark current shot noise upon the output SNR of the array can be made negligible by suitable cooling. The output noise per element can be expressed as:

$$n_o = \left[(\eta\sqrt{N_i})^2 + n_t^2 + (\epsilon N_i)^2 \right]^{\frac{1}{2}} \quad (8.2)$$

where η is the number of photons recorded per incident electron, n_t is the total readout noise of the array as defined in section 7.1.3 but including digitisation noise, and ϵ is the fractional non-uniformity in channel to channel response for the whole detector. Equation (8.2) can be re-expressed in terms of an equivalent input noise to give:

$$n_o^* = \left[N_i + \left(\frac{n_t}{\eta}\right)^2 + (\epsilon N_i)^2 \right]^{\frac{1}{2}} \quad (8.3)$$

The output SNR_o can be written in terms of the input signal as:

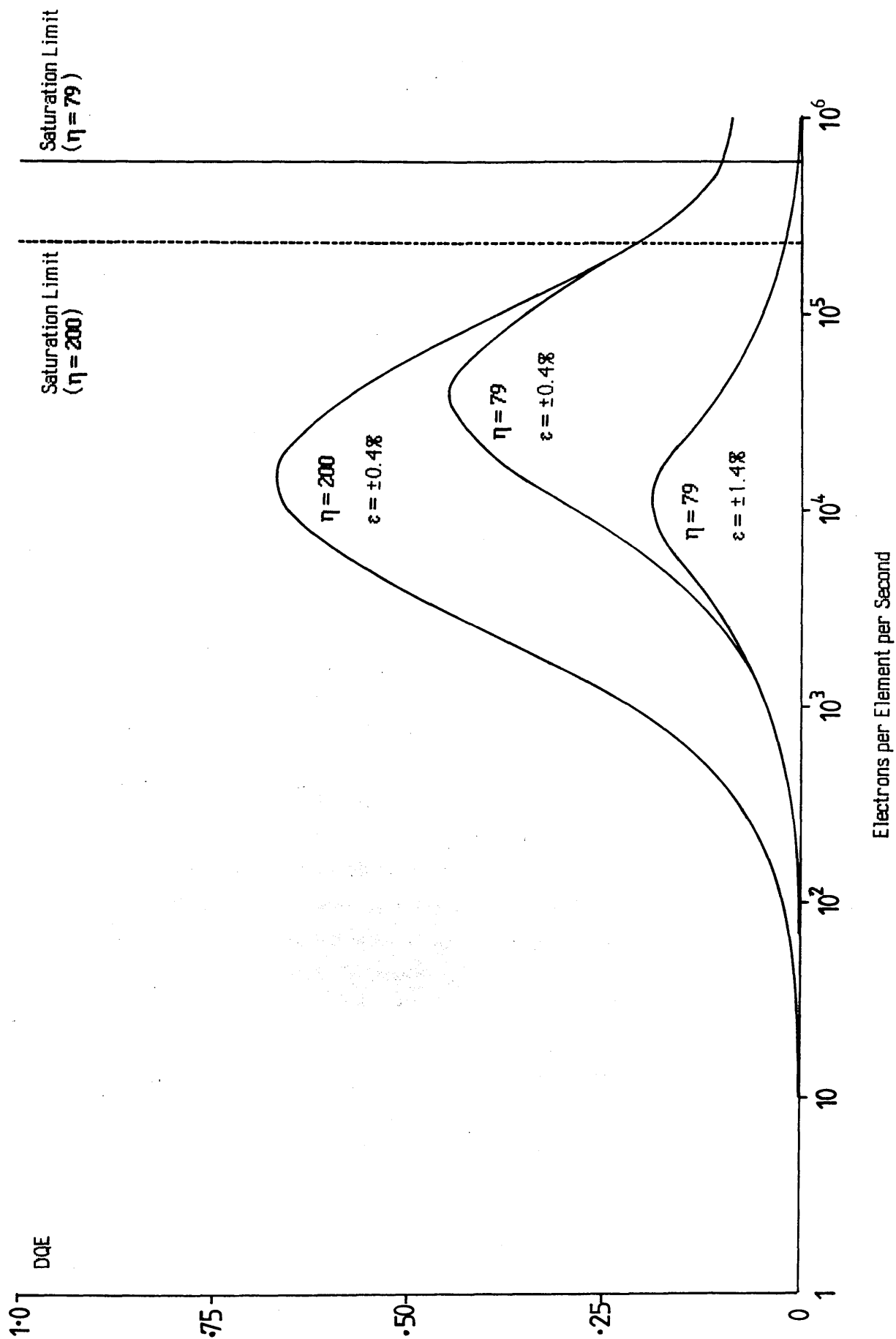
$$\text{SNR}_o^* = N_i / \left[N_i + \left(\frac{n_t}{\eta}\right)^2 + (\epsilon N_i)^2 \right]^{\frac{1}{2}} \quad (8.4)$$

and the DQE is therefore just:

$$\text{DQE} = N_i / \left[N_i + \left(\frac{n_t}{\eta}\right)^2 + (\epsilon N_i)^2 \right] \quad (8.5)$$

This is plotted in figure 8.23 for values of ϵ of $\pm 1.4\%$ which is the non-uniformity figure for the 30 μm YAG screen, and also $\epsilon = \pm 0.4\%$ which is the value that can be obtained using digital correction methods.

Figure 8.23 DQE of Parallel Detection System



At electron doses of less than 2000 electrons / element the DQE is the same in both cases, being dominated by the large readout noise factor n_t . The DQE values then increase as the dose rises well above the readout noise level, but the corrected curve increases faster because of its much lower non-uniformity value ϵ , ultimately reaching a DQE of 0.45 at a dose of 4×10^4 electrons/element. The uncorrected signal peaks at a DQE of <0.2 at a dose of 1×10^4 electrons/element. Above the maxima the DQE is dominated by the level of non-uniformity of response in the detector, which causes the response to fall off towards the saturation limit.

8.4.3 Discussion of the DQE response

Figure 8.23 clearly demonstrates the advantages of digital response correction especially at higher dose rates. The detector DQE response can only be extended at the high dose region by improving further the value of ϵ . The non-uniformity of response of the photodiode array itself is probably the limiting factor, rather than any non-uniformities in the scintillator screen. As it is, the value of ϵ for the complete detector of $\pm 1.4\%$ is well below the specified maximum value of $\pm 5\%$ for the Hamamatsu array alone, so that further gains here will probably have to come from improvements in the manufacture of the photodiode arrays. It may be possible to improve the digital response correction technique to give a lower value for the corrected non-uniformity, for instance by correcting for non-linear response in each diode element, but this would require very careful characterisation of each array and large computational overheads and would possibly change with time.

The rather poor DQE response at lower doses is mainly due to the large value of the readout noise $(n_t / \eta)^2$. Any reduction in this figure would greatly improve the performance for very low doses, and increase the maximum DQE attainable. The best way to do this would be to reduce the levels of readout noise - possibly by giving more care to the electronic layout and connections for the photodiode array, and by increasing the precision of the ADC so that the digitisation noise was reduced. In addition to this, the value of η could be increased at the cost of lowering the saturation limit of the array. A third DQE trace shows the theoretical DQE (assuming $\epsilon = \pm 0.4\%$) if η was increased to 200 photons per incident electron, as achieved by Egerton and Crozier [1987]. Clearly the DQE is much improved at lower electron doses, being above 0.25 for over 2 decades, however the saturation limit is decreased from 5.9×10^5 electrons/element to 2.3×10^5 electrons/element.

As it stands, the DQE in a single scan (with digital response correction) is above 0.25 for a range of input electron doses covering ~ 1.5 decades. However, the range of electron intensities which can be detected at this level is greatly increased by varying the photodiode

integration time. The shortest integration time that can be used is determined by the diode readout rate, which is limited to 20msec using the Hamamatsu C2325 evaluation board, whereas the longest useful integration time is determined by the dark signal accumulation. At -10°C the dark current is $\sim 20\text{fA}$ (figure 7.11) so that the array would be half filled in approximately 180 seconds and the shot noise in the dark current would be ~ 4743 electrons which is equivalent to an input noise of 60 fast electrons. Thus the range of useful integration times is of the order of 10^4 , and the range of incident beam intensities per detector element which can be recorded with $\text{DQE} > 0.25$ is from $\sim 40 \text{ e}^-/(\text{channel sec})$ to $\sim 1 \times 10^7 \text{ e}^-/(\text{channel sec})$.

If the value of η could be increased to 200 there would be an improvement in the detectability of low level signals, where the DQE would be above 0.25 from $\sim 7 \text{ e}^-/(\text{channel sec})$. The high level response is dominated by the array non-uniformity of response and so is not improved by increasing η . A further increase in the sensor dynamic range is made possible by varying the magnification of the spectrum at the YAG surface. For example, assuming a spectrometer dispersion of $2\mu\text{m}/\text{eV}$, the magnification system described in chapter 5 could vary the dispersion at the YAG screen from $\sim 2.5\text{eV}/\text{channel}$ to $\sim 0.14\text{eV}/\text{channel}$, giving an almost twenty-fold decrease in the intensity of the spectrum at the detector. This would effectively extend the dynamic range at high intensities (at the cost of reducing the energy range which could be recorded simultaneously to $\sim 72\text{eV}$) by another order of magnitude, allowing electron doses of between $\sim 40 \text{ e}^-/(\text{channel sec})$ to $> 10^8 \text{ e}^-/(\text{channel sec})$ to be recorded with a DQE of greater than 0.25.

This range is sufficient to record all the signals of interest in a typical EELS spectrum except possibly the zero loss peak, which could be detected using a Faraday cup placed somewhere in the detector plane or, better still, the higher intensities could be recorded by effectively decreasing the array integration time using a fast beam blanking system. Such a system would have to be synchronised to the diode scans, and the blanking action should preferably be carried out before the specimen. As it stands, a spectrum with a dynamic range of 10^7 would have to be recorded in 5 separate sections to maintain a $\text{DQE} > 0.25$ at all intensities. If the DQE response could be improved as shown in figure 8.23 then a dynamic range of 10^8 could be recorded in 4 sections and it may be possible, with reductions in the readout noise levels, to improve the DQE further thus reducing this value to 3 sections.

8.5 RECORDING A DIFFRACTION PATTERN

As mentioned previously it was not possible to test the detector by recording an EELS spectrum because no suitable spectrometer / magnification system was available. It seemed reasonable instead to record a line scan through a spot diffraction pattern in the JEM 100C TEM, because the dynamic range of such a pattern is similar to that observed in EELS spectra and also because recording TEM diffraction patterns is one possible use for a parallel detection system, albeit 2 dimensional. The parallel image obtained in the TEM is then compared with a similar pattern obtained serially in the HB5 STEM using the rocking beam diffraction mode.

8.5.1 The gold foil diffraction pattern

Figure 8.24 is a micrograph of a selected area diffraction pattern from a thin single crystal gold foil taken in the TEM using a camera length of 20cm. This diffraction pattern was projected down onto the 30 μ m YAG screen, which was repositioned to have its long axis parallel to the photodiode pitch, allowing two diffraction spots to be recorded simultaneously. The images of the five diffraction spots indicated were recorded in pairs using integration times from 20 msec to 1 sec. Positioning of the required spots relative to the array was accomplished by mechanically moving the final projector lens of the microscope while the video output was displayed on an oscilloscope.

The resultant images, after dark signal subtraction and digital response correction, are shown in figures 8.25a-d. The dynamic range of the five spots is $\sim 2000:1$, and it can be seen that the detector can cope with this easily. The background of figure 8.25d is not due to dark current but to thermal diffuse electron scattering. The fact that single channel peak values of each spot are clearly distinguished indicates that the point to point resolution of the detector cannot be much worse than 25 μ m.

Figure 8.26a is the central spot of figure 8.25a magnified to show the fine detail. The spikes on the tail sections are due to the edge effects illustrated in figure 8.26b, which displays the response of the YAG screen to constant illumination. The poor uniformity arises from the fact that the thinned screen was not large enough in area to illuminate all of the array, and the alignment was such that some of the light piped to the edge of the crystal was recorded. Digital response correction techniques cannot completely eliminate edge effects, as the relative intensities in the spikes vary slightly with the position of the beam on the scintillator. In a production detector the area of YAG would be greater than the array area, so that edge

Figure 8.24

Gold Diffraction Pattern From TEM

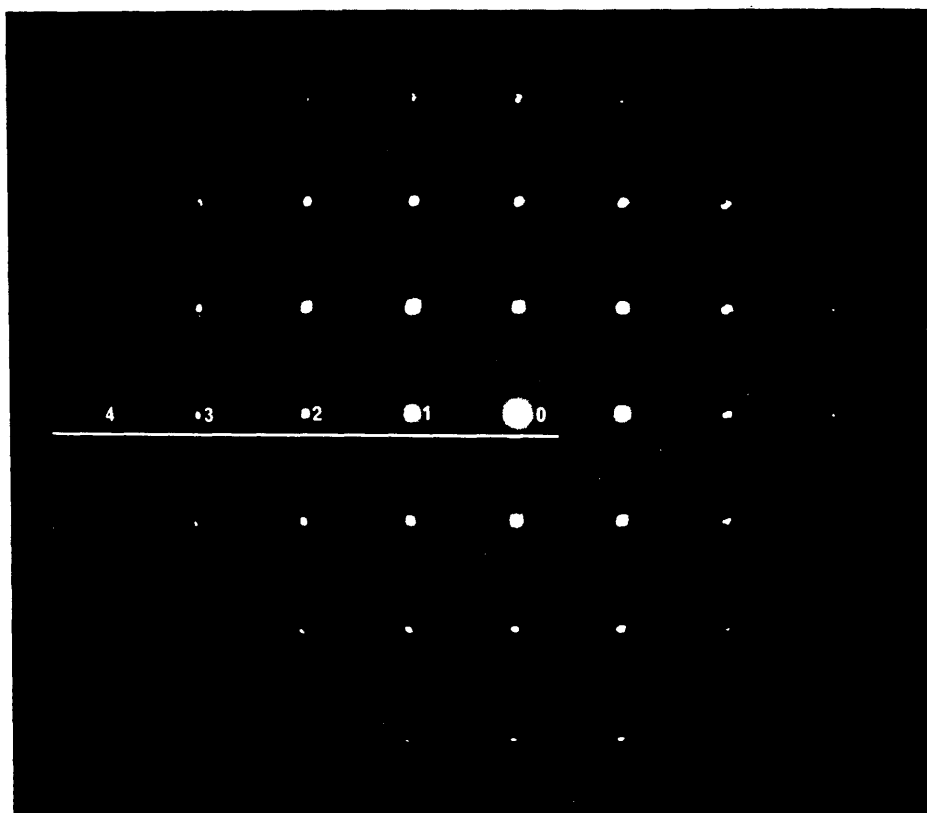
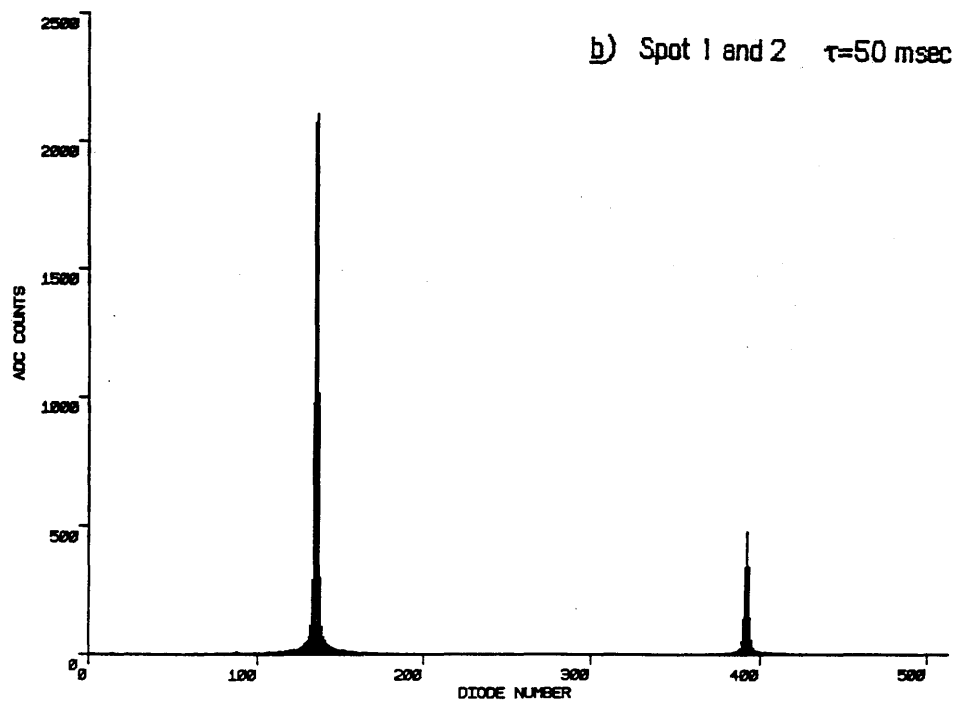
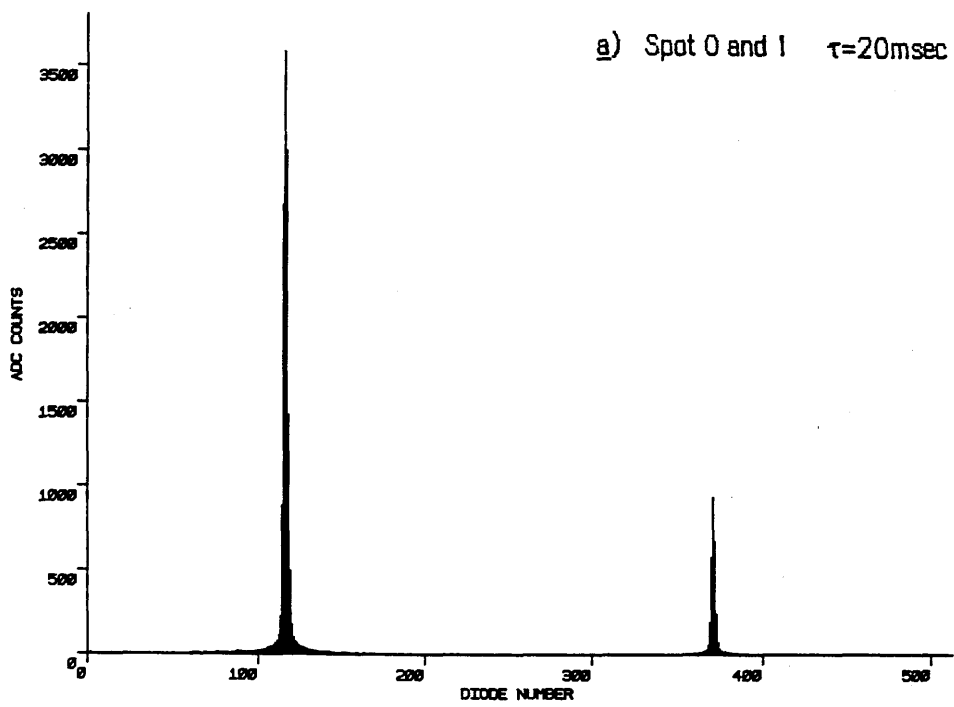


Figure 8.25a-d

Line Image of Gold Diffraction Pattern



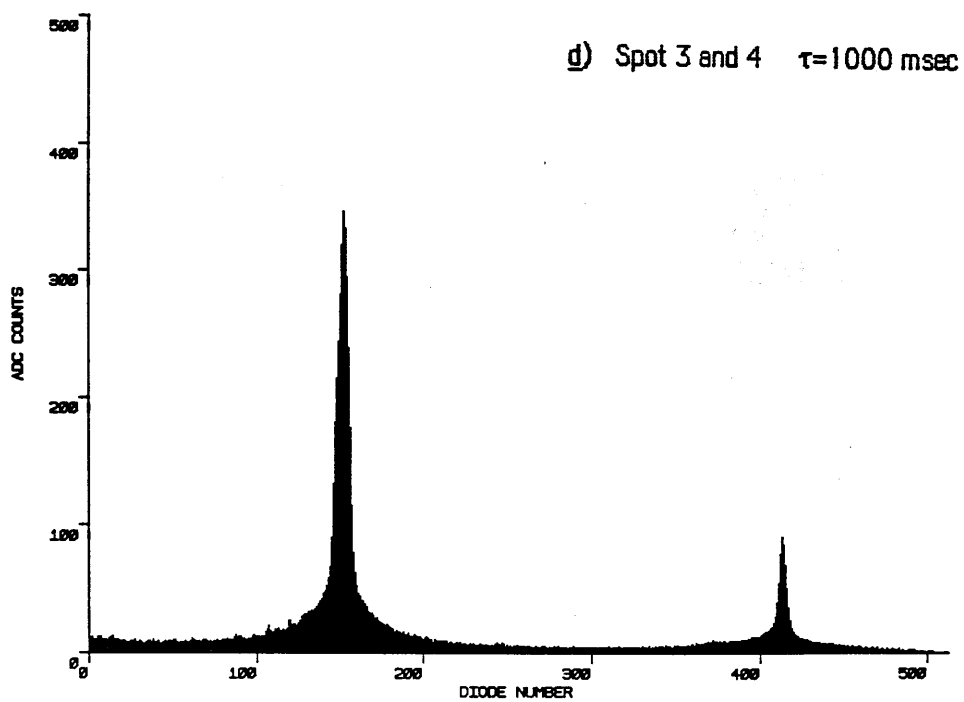
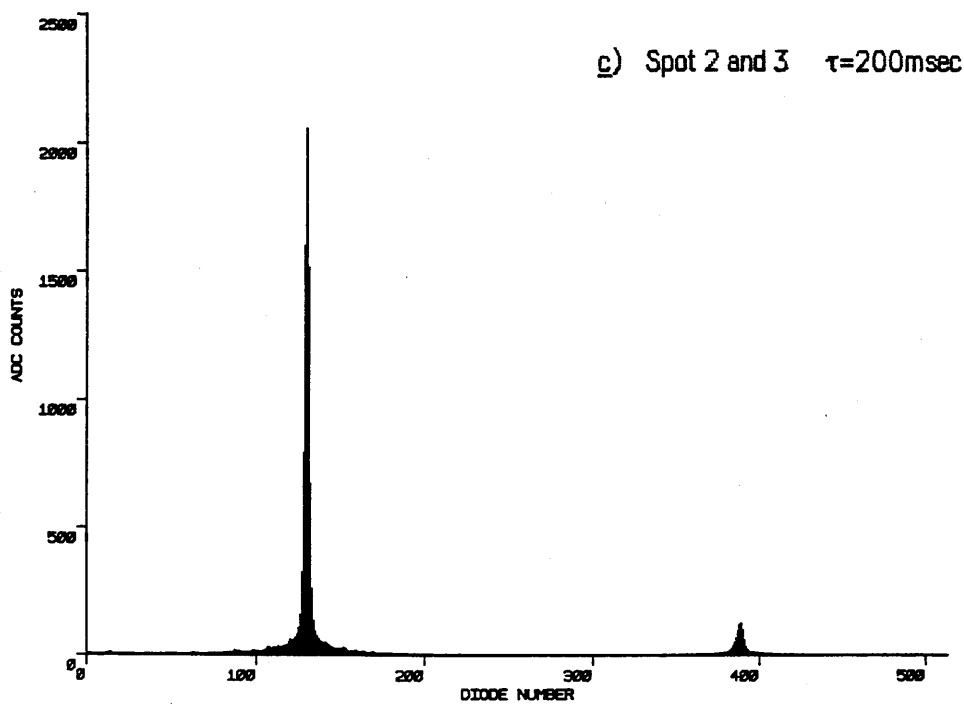


Figure 8.26a

Magnified Image of Central Diffraction Spot

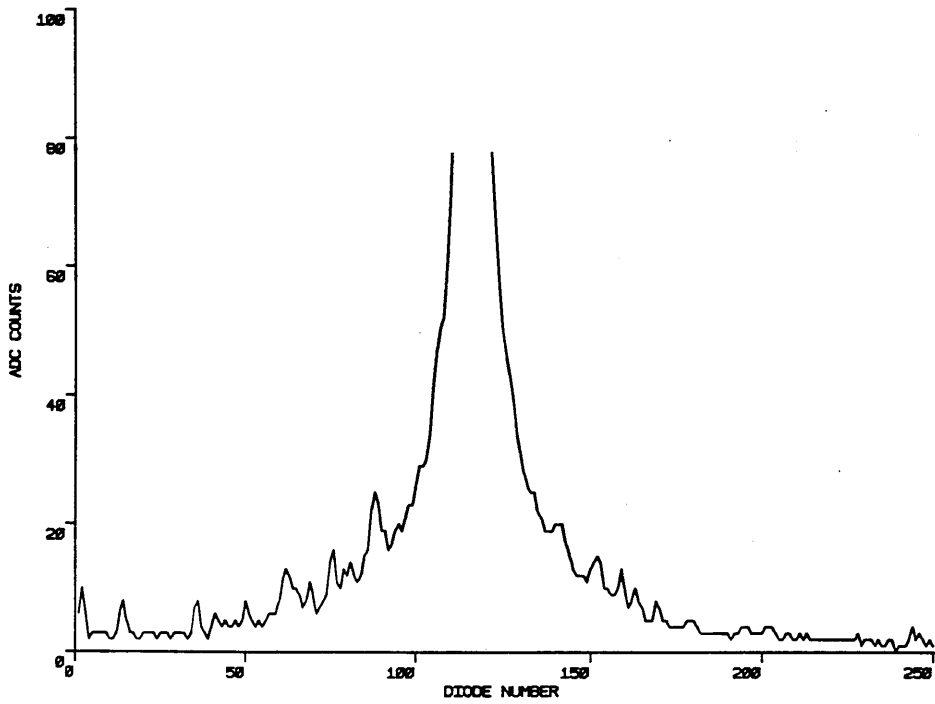


Figure 8.26b

Response of YAG Screen A to Uniform Illumination

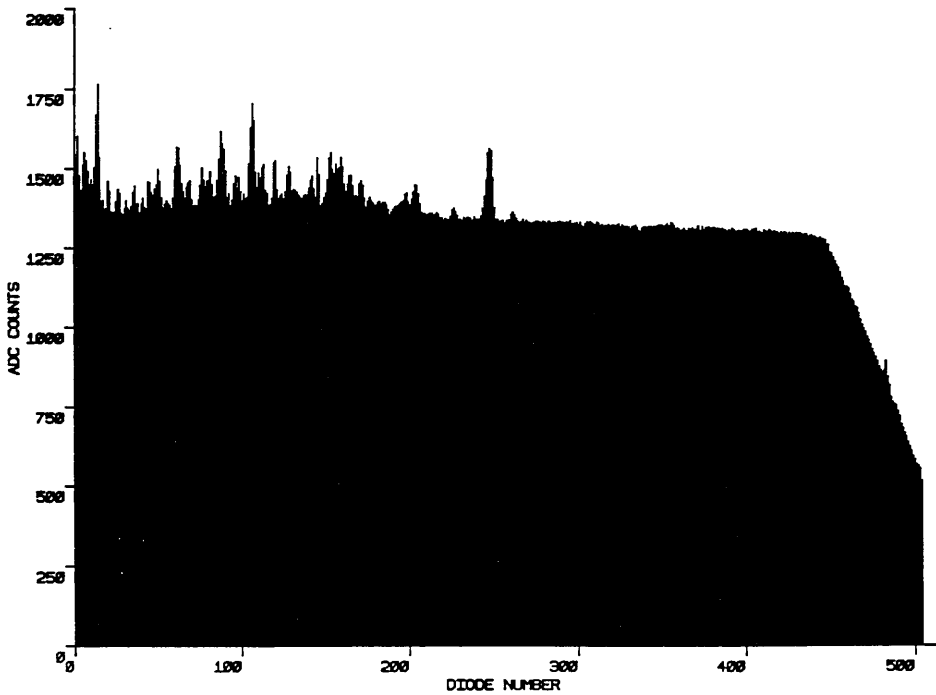


Figure 8.27a Rocking Beam Diffraction Pattern Line Scan From HB5

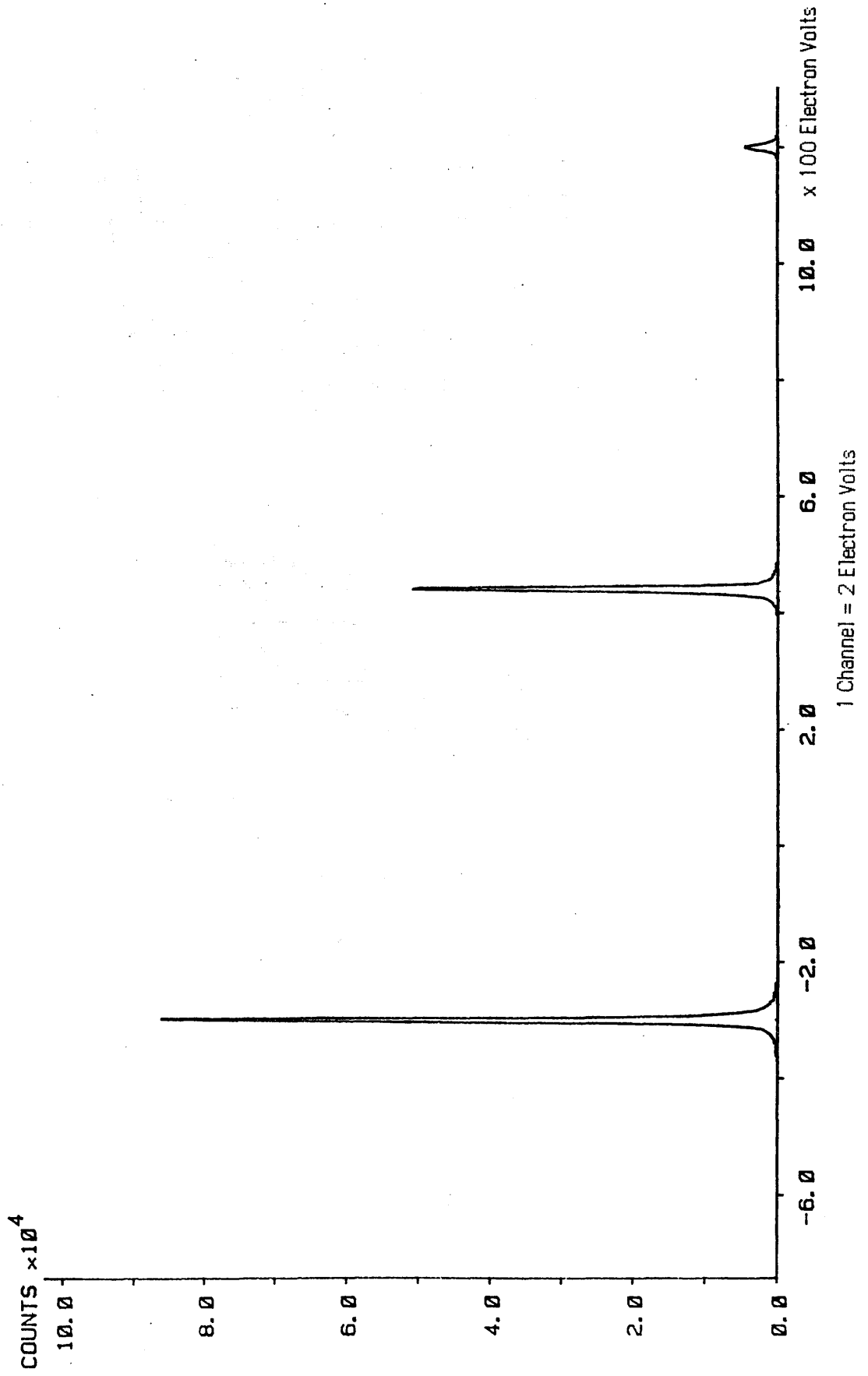
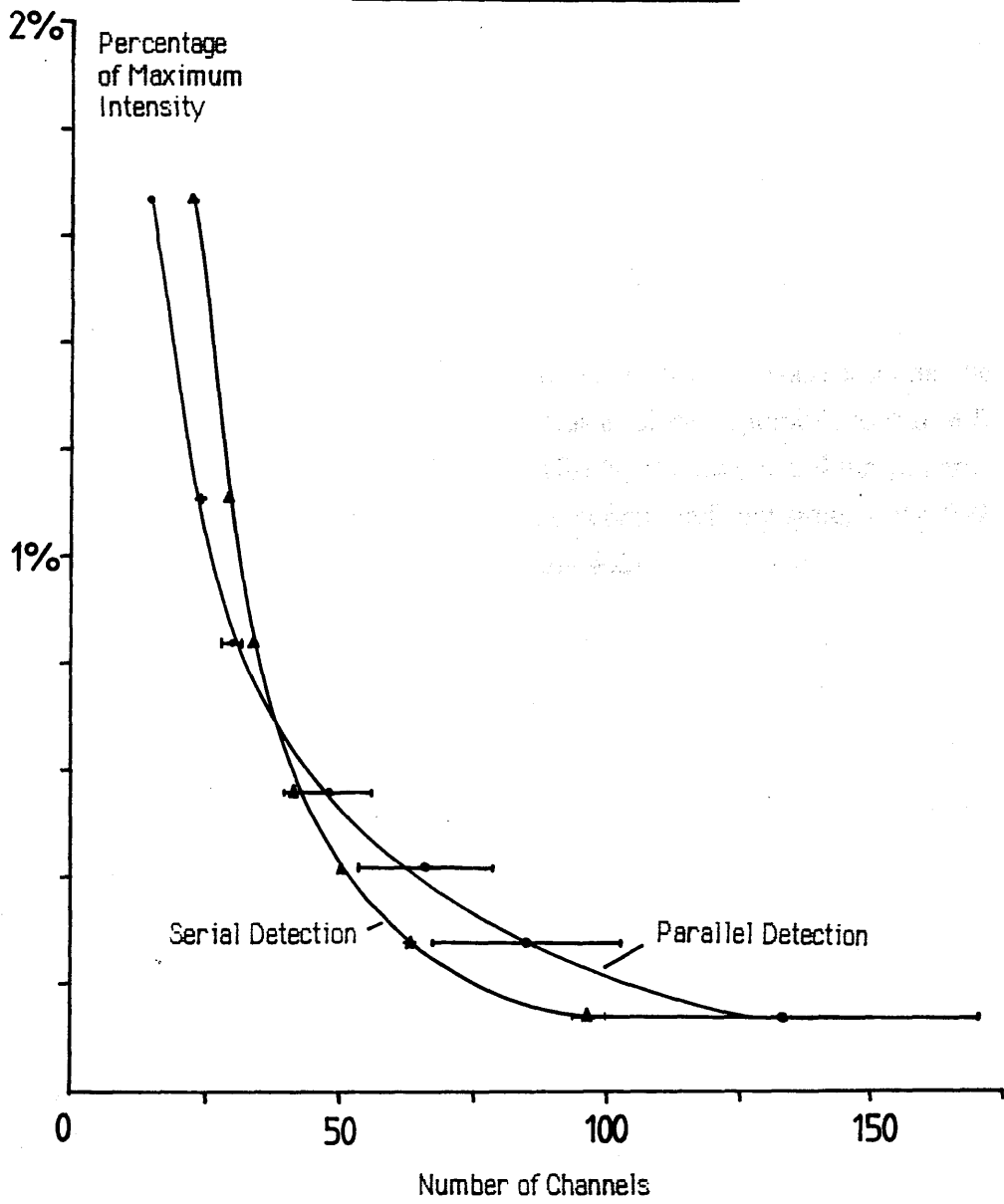


Figure 8.27b

Comparison of Full Widths of Central Diffraction Spot

For Parallel and Serial Detection



effects could be neglected.

However, even ignoring the edge effects there do exist definite low intensity tails on each of the recorded diffraction spots. In order to determine whether these tails were due to genuine signal or a detector artefact, a rocking beam diffraction pattern from the same specimen was serially recorded in the HB5 STEM. A line scan from this pattern is shown in figure 8.27a. Of course it was not possible to recreate the exact recording conditions of figure 8.25a, but it can be seen that there also exist tails on the serially recorded pattern which were definitely due to a real signal and not an artefact. The HB5 channel width was set so that the full width at half maximum (FWHM) of the central spot was as close as possible to that of figure 8.25a (4 channels FWHM in HB5 v 3 channels FWHM figure 8.25a), and the camera length was set so that the ratio of the distance between the central and first spots to the FWHM of the central peak were the same in both cases (within ~8%).

Figure 8.27b is a graph showing the full width of the central diffraction spot against intensity level, for the parallel and serial images. With such a crude comparison it is difficult to draw any definite conclusions, essentially since like is not compared with like and instrumental effects must play a part. However, it does seem that the degree of spreading is slightly greater in the parallel detector at the lowest intensities. This may be due to the fact that the points plotted on figure 8.27b are influenced by the noise present in the recorded signals, and the fact that the statistics of the serially recorded data are in this case very much better will have an effect on the comparison. Also the non-uniformity of response of the particular area of YAG screen used tends to increase the uncertainties involved. The information from the serial scan does however indicate that most of the tailing effect recorded by the parallel detector is due to a genuine signal.

It is interesting to note that figure 8.27a was recorded with a dwell time of 100msec per channel, and took over 100secs to record the 1024 channels in the image, whereas the 512 channels of figure 8.25a were recorded in 20msecs. To get similar statistics in the parallel scan, the integration time would have to be increased to around 0.5 secs which is still 200 times more efficient than the serial detector.

CHAPTER 9

Conclusions and suggestions for further work

Introduction

In this thesis the results of an investigation into the design of a parallel recording system for EELS were presented. The results described in this work are generally applicable to any transmission electron microscope equipped with a suitable spectrometer, and in particular the Glasgow University HB5 STEM. Interest in the parallel recording technique derives from the much improved detection efficiency which can be achieved using this method, as compared with that of the more common serial recording systems - such as the one presently installed on the HB5. Parallel recording is especially useful in areas such as high spatial resolution EELS where specimen drift and contamination can be problematic, investigations of radiation sensitive materials such as biological specimens, and the study of EXELFS information where the signal to noise ratio is critical. At the time of writing one commercial parallel recording system is entering the early stages of production, with further development currently in progress. It is clear that the optimum design of such a system is a complex task involving many variables - hopefully this thesis provides the framework on which an operational system could be based.

9.1 THE PARALLEL RECORDING SYSTEM

The proposed parallel detection system consists of many separate components all of which interact to a greater or lesser degree. The following sections summarise the essential parts of the design and discuss the performance of the various individual elements which make up the detector.

9.1.1 The nature of the energy loss spectrum

The operational specifications of any detection system are determined by the nature of the signal to be recorded. In the case of EELS the signal of interest can vary from $\sim 10^9$ electrons/sec at the most intense part of the spectrum down to ~ 100 electrons/sec for the far energy loss events. The first part of this work involved gaining an understanding of the nature of this intensity distribution, since this obviously influences the choice of detector used to record the spectrum.

It seems clear that, at the present time, the most suitable type of spectrometer for use in parallel EELS is a second order aberration corrected homogeneous field magnetic sector spectrometer, since the theoretical and practical development of these analysers is much more complete than that of any other kind currently in use. In general the energy resolution limiting second order aberrations of the median plane are corrected by the use of curved entrance and exit faces, along with external multipole corrector lenses. However the second order vertical plane aberrations are not eliminated, and while these are relatively unimportant for serial detection they do have an influence on parallel recording.

A computer program was written to calculate values for the residual median plane aberration coefficients and uncorrected vertical plane aberration coefficients of any spectrometer of this type, using the analytical expressions of Enge [1967], Brown [1967], and the fringe field approximations derived by Heighway [1975]. Knowledge of the aberration coefficients allows the spatial distribution of the spectrum formed at the spectrometer dispersion plane to be determined.

Studies of two well known spectrometers, designed by Scheinfein and Isaacson [1984] and Shuman [1983], were carried out. The Scheinfein and Isaacson spectrometer is of special interest to this project as it is commercially available for the HB5. Results of the analysis revealed that both spectrometers produced good theoretical energy resolutions, as expected from second order corrected designs: 0.55eV for the Scheinfein and Isaacson design and 0.2eV for the Shuman spectrometer, and that the aberration which causes tilting of the dispersion plane had been eliminated, which is most important for parallel recording.

There was however, a considerable defocus with energy loss in the non-dispersive direction for both designs, caused by one of the uncorrected vertical plane aberrations. The magnitude of the defocus was found to be 0.2 $\mu\text{m}/\text{eV}$ for the Scheinfein and Isaacson design and 0.31 $\mu\text{m}/\text{eV}$ for the Shuman analyser, broadening the non-dispersive width of a full 2000eV spectrum to $\sim 200\mu\text{m}$ and $\sim 310\mu\text{m}$ respectively at the extremities. It seems that this defocus is a general property of sector spectrometers having a negative exit poleface curvature coupled with positive poleface tilts, which is the most common configuration used in second order corrected designs. Obviously the type of detector chosen should be wider than the maximum defocus, so that the whole signal can be accommodated.

9.1.2 Post spectrometer magnification

The dispersion of a typical magnetic sector spectrometer is $\sim 2\mu\text{m}/\text{eV}$. When a 100keV electron hits the solid surface of, for example, a silicon detector it spreads laterally by $\sim 30\mu\text{m}$, thus reducing the energy resolution of a silicon device placed directly at the dispersion plane to an unacceptably low 15eV.

In order to overcome this difficulty a post spectrometer magnification system consisting of four quadrupole lenses was designed. The major advantage of using four quadrupoles as opposed to a more conventional round lens system is the fact that the magnifications in the dispersive and non-dispersive directions can be made virtually independent, allowing the dispersion to be increased without changing the width of the spectrum. The predicted range of magnifications in the dispersion direction (assuming a maximum excitation of 200 amp-turns per pole) lies between 5x and 97x at 100keV, corresponding to a dispersion range of $\sim 10\mu\text{m}/\text{eV}$ to $\sim 194\mu\text{m}/\text{eV}$, which is more than adequate for general purposes.

The magnification system was designed using a real as opposed to a virtual object configuration, as this allows independent alignment of the spectrometer, ease of elimination of stray scattering, and also retains the option of using serial scanning where necessary. Both the central lenses of the quadruplet are designed to run at fixed excitations, with the magnification and focus of the spectrum being controlled by varying the strengths of the outer quadrupoles. In this manner, the whole range of magnifications can be accessed using a simple double control system. As far as the electron-optical aberrations of the system are concerned the main considerations with quadrupole lenses are the effects of the four second order chromatic aberration coefficients, which were computed in a sharp cut-off fringe field (SCOFF) approximation, and shown to be negligible over the useful range of operating conditions.

The major disadvantage of using a real object as opposed to a virtual object configuration is the associated extension of the electron flight path, and the corresponding increase in susceptibility to external a.c. magnetic fields. The proposed magnification system would extend the flight path 22.5cm beyond the spectrometer dispersion plane. In order to estimate the loss in resolution incurred, a calculation (using a thin lens approximation) of the defocus produced by an external a.c. field of 1milligauss was carried out, assuming a point source at the entrance plane of the magnification system. The reduction in energy resolution over the whole magnification range was found to be $< 0.5\text{eV}$. Indeed, it was shown that this figure is less than the resolution loss that would be incurred in the drift space between the exit face

and dispersion plane of the Scheinfein and Isaacson spectrometer alone, subject to a similar a.c. field.

9.1.3 The choice of electron detector and detection mode

In choosing a suitable multielement detector for EELS there are many factors to be considered - the first decision to be made is whether to detect the spectrum directly, by allowing the 100keV electrons to strike the surface of a solid state device, or whether to use an indirect detection method whereby the electron signal is converted to a photon flux in a scintillator, and the resultant light signal recorded. The former method offers very good sensitivity at low electron rates, but is generally unsuitable for EELS because the high signal intensities involved in a typical spectrum tend to saturate the detector, and very likely degrade its performance over a period of time due to radiation damage effects.

Two types of solid state detector were considered - area CCD arrays and wide aperture linear photodiode arrays. CCD arrays offer better noise performance than photodiode arrays, but the limited cell capacity of these devices means that saturation effects are very much a problem when recording the more intense regions of EELS spectra. Furthermore, the small cell size of a CCD array (typically $25\mu\text{m}\times 25\mu\text{m}$) means that the non-dispersive defocus described previously would spread the spectrum over many rows of cells, the contents of which would then have to be summed electronically. It seems that the higher cell capacity, larger cell size and simpler application of the wide aperture photodiode arrays outweighs the disadvantage of their higher noise levels for this application.

Two different wide aperture photodiode arrays were investigated, the RL128S array manufactured by Reticon, and the S2304-512F array manufactured by Hamamatsu. Both these devices have sensor elements 2.5mm wide on a $25\mu\text{m}$ pitch, so that the defocus of the spectrum in the non-dispersive direction can be easily accommodated. A comparison of the electrical and optical properties of both arrays revealed the superiority of the Hamamatsu device in the areas of uniformity and linearity of response, dark current, and readout noise. This, together with the more compact drive circuitry and lower cost of the Hamamatsu device, indicated that the S2304-512F array was the more suitable device for this application.

9.1.4 Choice of scintillator screen and optical coupling mode

Indirect detection methods depend crucially upon the properties of the electron-photon conversion medium and the efficiency of the optical coupling between the screen and the detector. Fibre-optic plates offer several advantages over conventional lens optics in the

latter respect, allowing a larger fraction of the available light to be recorded. Several types of luminescent screen were fabricated on Mullard fibre-optic faceplates for evaluation purposes. The output surface of the fibre-optic faceplates was in direct contact with the fibre-optic input window of the Hamamatsu array, allowing an estimated 36% of the available light to reach the array.

The luminescent screens were tested for linearity and efficiency of photon production, uniformity of response, spatial resolution and decay times. The screen which performed consistently well in all these areas was thinned single crystal YAG, which has the added advantage of possessing exceptional resistance to radiation damage. Monte Carlo studies suggested that the optimum screen thickness was 30 μ m, where the combination of spatial resolution and photon production efficiency was at a maximum. Calculations suggested that, in theory, ~1600 photons should be produced by every 100keV electron, of which ~250 should be recorded by the array. In practice only ~80 photons were recorded for every incident 100keV electron; - this loss of efficiency was attributed to internal reflection effects in the YAG causing light to be piped out to the edges of the crystal, and losses at the fibre-optic interface. The only disadvantage of single crystal YAG is the presence of some very long decay constants at low intensity levels. With care this latter effect should not cause any serious problems when recording spectra.

9.1.5 Performance of the detector

Assuming an efficiency of 80 photons recorded per incident 100keV electron, the Hamamatsu array saturates for electron doses greater than 5.9×10^5 electrons/channel. The combined readout and digitisation noise of the current detection system is equivalent to an input noise of 153 fast electrons, so that single electron detection is not possible. The DQE of the detector is strongly influenced by the latter figure at low electron dose rates, and by the channel to channel non-uniformity of response at higher dose rates. A figure of $\pm 1.4\%$ non-uniformity of response was found using the 30 μ m YAG screen, but this was reduced to $\pm 0.4\%$ using digital response correction techniques. The DQE of the detector in a single scan is above 0.25 for a range of input electron doses covering ~1.5 decades (with digital response correction); however by varying the integration time of the array and the dispersion of the spectrum, a range of ~40e⁻/channel sec to $>10^8$ e⁻/channel sec can be recorded with the same efficiency.

Unfortunately it was not possible to test the detector by recording an EELS spectrum because of the lack of a suitable spectrometer/magnification system. However, it was possible to

demonstrate the capabilities of the system by recording a line scan through the spot diffraction pattern produced by a single crystal gold foil in the JEM 100C TEM. The data obtained from the parallel detector was compared to that obtained from a serially recorded line scan of a rocking beam diffraction pattern from the same specimen in the HB5 STEM, revealing a detection efficiency ~200 times greater for the parallel system.

9.2 IMPROVING THE DETECTION SYSTEM

The prototype detection system described in this thesis functions satisfactorily within certain limitations - it is clear that some straightforward improvements can be made to improve both the DQE and the overall performance.

9.2.1 Improving the DQE

At low signal intensities the DQE response is limited by the high readout and digitisation noise associated with the photodiode array and its drive electronics. The most obvious way to reduce this figure is to employ a higher precision (14 or 15 bit) ADC, in order to reduce the contribution made by digitisation errors. Secondly, more attention should be paid to suppressing external noise picked up on signal leads etc, by shortening signal paths and using shielding wherever possible.

An immediate DQE benefit could be obtained by increasing the number of photons recorded per incident electron as discussed in chapter 8. This could be done by matt finishing the output face of the YAG scintillator to reduce internal reflection effects, although care is required to ensure that the spatial resolution and uniformity of response of the screen are not significantly degraded.

At higher dose rates the DQE is determined by the channel to channel non-uniformity of response of the detector, and saturation effects of the photodiode array. The latter could be improved by replacing the Hamamatsu S2304 class sensor with an S2301 series device, which has an identical construction except that the photodiode element pitch is increased from 25 μm to 50 μm , resulting in a cell capacity which is more than doubled. The non-uniformity of response of the detector is readout noise limited, as illustrated in chapter 8, so that the previous suggestions for reducing the readout noise should also help in this area. Implementation of a more sophisticated digital response correction technique such as the gain averaging procedure described by Shuman [1985] is certainly possible, however these

methods generally require the acquisition of multiple spectra, thus reducing the detection efficiency advantage that is the whole purpose behind parallel recording. Ultimately it is the non-linear component of the channel to channel response of the photodiode array itself which determines the limit to uniformity of response, and this can only be reduced by improvements in the manufacture of the devices.

9.2.2 General improvements in the acquisition system

The electronics designed and built to acquire, store and process the data from the photodiode arrays functioned successfully and reliably during these experiments. However several modifications could be made to improve the performance. It would be useful (and necessary in an operational detector) to interface the photodiode drive electronics to the microprocessor acquisition system, allowing electronic control of the array integration time. The incorporation of a direct memory access (DMA) circuit for storage of the diode video data, and a parallel data transfer interface between this and the VME minicomputer would speed up the data acquisition throughput considerably. Also the stability of the Peltier cooling system could be improved if the diode temperature was monitored and regulated by the microprocessor.

9.2.3 Towards an operational system - future work

The successful implementation of a parallel recording system on the HB5 STEM requires the installation of a suitable second order aberration corrected spectrometer. It would be relatively simple to convert the analysis program of chapter 3 to actually design a spectrometer, however it would be more efficient to utilise an existing design which is commercially available such as the Scheinfein and Isaacson analyser. The construction and testing of a post spectrometer magnification system, of the design described in chapter 5, would have to be undertaken, along with the preparation of a full size 30 μ m thick single crystal YAG screen.

As regards the detector itself, even if all the improvements to the DQE mentioned previously could be achieved, it is unlikely that the zero loss signal could be recorded without saturating the detector. Either the diode integration time would have to be reduced by speeding up the clocking signals (and accepting the associated decrease in performance), or else some form of fast beam blanking system installed in the microscope and synchronised to the photodiode scan.

Appendix 1

Focussing coefficients of homogeneous field magnetic sector spectrometers

After Enge [1967]

First Order Coefficients - Median Plane

(y/y)	$\cos (\phi - \alpha) / \cos \alpha$
(y/y')	$\sin \phi$
(y/δ)	$1 - \cos \phi$
(y'/y)	$-\sin (\phi - \alpha - \beta) / \cos \alpha \cos \beta$
(y'/y')	$\cos (\phi - \beta) / \cos \beta$
(y'/δ)	$\sin \phi + (1 - \cos \phi) \tan \beta$

First Order Coefficients -Vertical Plane

(x/x)	$1 - \phi \tan \alpha_v$
(x/x')	ϕ
(x'/x)	$-\tan \alpha_v - \tan \beta_v + \phi \tan \alpha_v \tan \beta_v$
(x'/x')	$1 - \phi \tan \beta_v$

Second Order Coefficients - Median Plane

(y/y^2)	$1/2 [(y'/y) \sin \phi - \beta \alpha + C_1 \sin \phi]$
(y/yy')	$(y/y) \tan \alpha + \sin \phi \sec^2 \beta \cos \phi + \tan \alpha \tan^2 \beta$
(y/y'^2)	$1/2 [\cos \phi - (y'/y) \cos \phi - \beta]$
$(y/y\delta)$	$1 + (y/y)(\tan^2 \beta - \sec^2 \beta \cos \phi)$
$(y/y'\delta)$	$(y/\delta) \sec^2 \beta \sin \phi$
(y/δ^2)	$1/2 [(y/\delta)^2 \tan^2 \beta - \sin^2 \phi]$
(y'/y^2)	$1/2 [-(y'/y)^2 \tan \beta + C_1 (y'/y) + C_2 (y/y)^2]$
(y'/yy')	$(y'/y) [\tan \alpha - (y'/y) \tan \beta] + C_2 (y/y) \sin \phi$
(y'/y'^2)	$1/2 [-\sin \phi \beta - (y'/y)^2 \tan \beta + C_2 \sin^2 \phi]$
$(y'/y\delta)$	$-(y'/y)(\sec^2 \beta + \sin \phi \beta \tan \beta) + C_2 (y/y) (y/\delta)$
$(y'/y'\delta)$	$-(y'/y) (y'/\delta) \tan \beta + C_2 (y/\delta) \sin \phi$
(y'/δ^2)	$1/2 [-(y'/\delta) (2 + (y'/\delta) \tan \beta) + C_2 (y/\delta)^2]$

Second Order Coefficients - Cross Terms

$$\begin{aligned}
 (y/x^2) & \quad 1/2 [(y/y) \sec^2\alpha + \sin \phi \tan^3\alpha - (y/\delta) \tan^2\alpha - (x/x)^2 \sec^2\beta - C_1 \sin \phi] \\
 (y/xx') & \quad (y/\delta) \tan \alpha - (y/y') \tan^2\alpha - (x/x) (x/x') \sec^2\beta \\
 (y/x'^2) & \quad -1/2 [(y/\delta) + (x/x')^2 \sec^2\beta] \\
 (y'/x^2) & \quad 1/2 [(y'/y) \sec^2\alpha + (y'/y') \tan^3\alpha - (y'/\delta) \tan^2\alpha + 2 (x/x) (x'/x) \tan^2\beta \\
 & \quad + (x/x)^2 \tan^3\beta - C_1 (y'/y) + C_2 (x/x)^2] \\
 (y'/xx') & \quad (y'/\delta) \tan \alpha - (y'/y') \tan^2\alpha + [(x/x') (x'/x) + (x/x) (x'/x')] \tan^2\beta \\
 & \quad + (x/x) (x/x') \tan^3\beta - C_2 (x/x) (x/x') \\
 (y'/x'^2) & \quad 1/2 [(x/x')^2 \tan^3\beta + 2 (x/x') (x'/x') \tan^2\beta - (y'/\delta) - C_2 (x/x')^2]
 \end{aligned}$$

Second Order Coefficients - Vertical Plane

$$\begin{aligned}
 (x/yx) & \quad (y'/y) \tan \alpha + (y/y) (x'/x) \tan \beta - C_1 \phi \\
 (x/yx') & \quad (x/x) \tan \alpha + (y/y) (x'/x') \tan \beta - (y'/y) \\
 (x/y'x) & \quad - \phi \sec^2\alpha - [1 - (y'/y')] \tan \alpha + (y/y') (x'/x) \tan \beta \\
 (x/y'x') & \quad 1 - (y'/y') + (y/y') (x'/x') \tan \beta \\
 (x/\delta x) & \quad (y'/\delta) \tan \alpha + (y/\delta) (x'/x) \tan \beta \\
 (x/\delta x') & \quad \phi - (y'/\delta) + (y/\delta) (x'/x') \tan \beta \\
 (x'/yx) & \quad (y'/y) [(x/x) \sec^2\beta - \tan \alpha \tan \beta] - C_1 (x'/x') - C_2 (y/y) (x/x) \\
 (x'/yx') & \quad (y'/y) [\phi \sec^2\beta + \tan \beta] + (x'/x) \tan \alpha - C_2 \phi (y/y) \\
 (x'/y'x) & \quad (y'/y') (x/x) \sec^2\beta - (x'/x') \sec^2\alpha + [1 - (y'/y')] \tan \alpha \tan \beta - C_2 (x/x) \sin \phi \\
 (x'/y'x') & \quad (y'/y') [\phi \sec^2\beta + \tan \beta] - \tan \beta - C_2 \phi \sin \phi \\
 (x'/\delta x) & \quad (y'/\delta) [(x/x) \sec^2\beta - \tan \alpha \tan \beta] - (x'/x) - C_2 (x/x) (y/\delta) \\
 (x'/\delta x') & \quad (y'/\delta) [\phi \sec^2\beta + \tan \beta] - C_2 \phi (y/\delta)
 \end{aligned}$$

Where:

$$C_1 = R / R_1 \cos^3 \alpha$$

$$C_2 = R / R_2 \cos^3 \beta$$

$$\sin \phi_{-\beta\alpha} = \sin (\phi - \alpha + \beta) / \cos \alpha \cos \beta$$

$$\cos \phi_{-\beta} = \cos (\phi + \beta) / \cos \beta$$

$$\sin \phi_{\alpha} = \sin (\phi - \alpha) / \cos \alpha$$

$$\sin \phi_{\beta} = \sin (\phi - \beta) / \cos \beta$$

Appendix 2

Spectrometer Analysis Programs

Complete listings of programs FSPECT and SPECTRUM are given along with example data files for each. The programs are self-contained except for the plotting routines which call subroutines from the 'SIMPLEPLOT' library.

Program FSPECT expects the input parameters to be those of the spectrometer virtual field boundaries. If only the mechanical boundaries are known, then the integer parameter IV should be set to 1. The program will calculate the displacement between the polefaces and the virtual field boundaries (assuming a value for the fringe field coefficient I_2 is given or can be calculated) but otherwise runs as normal. For more accurate results the input parameters PHI, R1, R2, AOBJ and BIM should be referenced to the position of the virtual field boundaries and the program rerun.

Program SPECTRUM is straightforward to use. Parameters DTHETA and DPHI are concerned with the number and angular separation of the trajectories from the point source and should be kept within the limits specified in the program header. ELIMIT and ELOSS determine the energy range and energy increment of the incident electrons - the output spectrum is formed symmetrically about the central ray within an energy range \pm ELIMIT.

```

C
C
C PROGRAM FSPECT
C
C This program computes transfer matrix coefficients and
C optical properties for homogeneous magnetic field sector
C magnets using the fringing field approximations of ENGE
C and HEIGHWAY. It is assumed that the sector parameters
C given are referenced to the virtual field boundaries. If
C not, the displacement of the effective edges from the
C mechanical boundaries can be calculated, thus allowing
C recalculation of the other parameters (by hand!).
C
C The principle variables are defined as follows-
C PHI = Bending angle of central ray in degrees.
C R0 = Bending radius of central ray in millimetres.
C R1 = Radius of curvature of entrance poleface (mm).
C R2 = Radius of curvature of exit poleface (mm).
C R1 = 0.0 for straight entrance poleface.
C R2 = 0.0 for straight exit poleface.
C Alpha = Tilt angle of entrance poleface in degrees.
C Beta = Tilt angle of exit poleface in degrees.
C Alphae = Effective tilt angle of entrance poleface due to
C fringing field effects (vertical transfer matrix only).
C Betae = Effective tilt angle of exit poleface due to
C fringing field effects (vertical transfer matrix only).
C Aobj = Object distance from entrance poleface in millimetres.
C Bim = Image distance from exit poleface in millimetres.
C U = Object distance normalised to bending radius.
C V = Image distance normalised to bending radius.
C Gap = Polepiece separation in millimetres.
C IFC = Integer parameter describing fringe field clamping.
C IFC = 1 No field clamps used.
C IFC = 2 Entrance field clamp only.
C IFC = 3 Exit field clamp only.
C IFC = 4 Entrance and exit field clamps used.
C DFC1 = Distance from field clamp to entrance poleface.
C DFC2 = Distance from exit poleface to field clamp.
C DFC1/2 = 0.0 If no field clamp is used.
C I2 = Value of ENGE integral coefficient for fringe field.
C If I2=0.0 an empirical value is calculated (HEIGHWAY)
C IV = Parameter determining the reference of above values.
C IV = 0 If parameters referenced to virtual field boundaries.
C IV = 1 If parameters referenced to mechanical boundaries.
C Y = Horizontal transfer matrix.
C X = Vertical transfer matrix.
C TY = Total horizontal transfer matrix.
C TX = Total vertical transfer matrix.
C HMAG = Horizontal magnification at horizontal focus.
C VMAG = Vertical magnification at vertical focus.
C DISP = Horizontal dispersion at horizontal focus.
C
C IMPLICIT REAL*8(A-H,O-Z)
C DIMENSION Y(12,3),X(8,2),TY(12,3),TX(8,2)
C DIMENSION TITLE(20)
C REAL*8 I2
C
C Read title of up to 80 characters from unit 1
C READ(1,1)(TITLE(I),I=1,20)
C FORMAT(20A4)
C
C Read a blank line from unit 1
C READ(1,2)
C FORMAT(1X)
C
C Read first order parameters from unit 1
C READ(1,5) PHI,R0,ALPHA,BETA,AOBJ,BIM
C READ(1,2)
C
C Read second order and fringe field parameters from unit 1
C READ(1,6) R1,R2,GAP,IFC,DFC1,DFC2

```

```

FSP00010
FSP00020
FSP00030
FSP00040
FSP00050
FSP00060
FSP00070
FSP00080
FSP00090
FSP00100
FSP00110
FSP00120
FSP00130
FSP00140
FSP00150
FSP00160
FSP00170
FSP00180
FSP00190
FSP00200
FSP00210
FSP00220
FSP00230
FSP00240
FSP00250
FSP00260
FSP00270
FSP00280
FSP00290
FSP00300
FSP00310
FSP00320
FSP00330
FSP00340
FSP00350
FSP00360
FSP00370
FSP00380
FSP00390
FSP00400
FSP00410
FSP00420
FSP00430
FSP00440
FSP00450
FSP00460
FSP00470
FSP00480
FSP00490
FSP00500
FSP00510
FSP00520
FSP00530
FSP00540
FSP00550
FSP00560
FSP00570
FSP00580
FSP00590
FSP00600
FSP00610
FSP00620
FSP00630
FSP00640
FSP00650
FSP00660
FSP00670
FSP00680
FSP00690
FSP00700
FSP00710
FSP00720

```

```

READ(1,2) FSP00730
READ(1,7) I2,IV FSP00740
5 FORMAT(5X,6F10.4) FSP00750
6 FORMAT(5X,3F10.4,I10,2F10.4) FSP00760
7 FORMAT(5X,F10.4,I10) FSP00770
C FSP00780
C Write title and headings on unit 2 FSP00790
C FSP00800
CALL HEAD(PHI,R0,ALPHA,BETA,AOBJ,R1,R2,GAP,IFC,DFC1,DFC2,TITLE,IV) FSP00810
C FSP00820
C Convert from degrees to radians FSP00830
C FSP00840
PHIR=(3.1415926*2*PHI)/360 FSP00850
ALPHAR=(3.1415926*2*ALPHA)/360 FSP00860
BETAR=(3.1415926*BETA*2)/360 FSP00870
C FSP00880
C Divide AOBJ and BIM by R0 to make equations non-dimensional FSP00890
C FSP00900
U=AOBJ/R0 FSP00910
V=BIM/R0 FSP00920
C FSP00930
C Call subroutine to calculate effective vertical entrance FSP00940
C and exit tilts. If the sector parameters given are those of FSP00950
C the mechanical boundaries (IV = 1) then the displacement of FSP00960
C virtual field boundary from the poleface is calculated. FSP00970
C FSP00980
CALL FRINGE(GAP,IFC,DFC1,ALPHAR,R0,R1,ALPHAE,1,I2,IV) FSP00990
CALL FRINGE(GAP,IFC,DFC2,BETAR,R0,R2,BETAE,2,I2,IV) FSP01000
C FSP01010
C Call subroutine to calculate transfer matrices FSP01020
C FSP01030
99 CALL TRANS(PHIR,ALPHAR,BETAR,ALPHAE,BETAE,R0,R1,R2,Y,X) FSP01040
C FSP01050
C Call subroutine to print out transfer matrices. FSP01060
C FSP01070
CALL MATRIX(Y,X,1) FSP01080
C FSP01090
C Call subroutine to calculate total transfer matrices FSP01100
C FSP01110
CALL TTRANS(Y,X,U,V,TY,TX) FSP01120
C FSP01130
C Call subroutine to print out total transfer matrices FSP01140
C FSP01150
CALL MATRIX(TY,TX,2) FSP01160
C FSP01170
C Check if system is double focussing and calculate optical FSP01180
C properties. If not, calculate horizontal and vertical image FSP01190
C positions and optical properties at these positions. FSP01200
C FSP01210
IF(DABS(TY(2,1)).GT.0.01) GOTO 10 FSP01220
IF(DABS(TX(2,1)).GT.0.01) GOTO 10 FSP01230
HMAG=TY(1,1) FSP01240
VMAG=TX(1,1) FSP01250
DISP=TY(3,1) FSP01260
VY=V FSP01270
VX=V FSP01280
WRITE(2,30) AOBJ FSP01290
GOTO 16 FSP01300
C FSP01310
C Not double focussing so calculate new image positions FSP01320
C FSP01330
10 WRITE(2,31) AOBJ FSP01340
VY=-(Y(1,1)*U+Y(2,1))/(Y(1,2)*U+Y(2,2)) FSP01350
VX=-(X(1,1)*U+X(2,1))/(X(1,2)*U+X(2,2)) FSP01360
HMAG=Y(1,1)+(VY*Y(1,2)) FSP01370
VMAG=X(1,1)+(VX*X(1,2)) FSP01380
DISP=Y(3,1)+(VY*Y(3,2)) FSP01390
C FSP01400
C Output optical properties FSP01410
C FSP01420
16 WRITE(2,40) HMAG,VY*R0 FSP01430
WRITE(2,50) VMAG,VX*R0 FSP01440

```



```

WRITE(2,60) DISP
30 FORMAT(/1X,'SPECTROMETER IS DOUBLE FOCUSING AT OBJECT',
- ' POSITION ',F8.2,' mm')
31 FORMAT(/1X,'SPECTROMETER IS NOT DOUBLE FOCUSING AT OBJECT',
- ' POSITION ',F8.2,' mm')
40 FORMAT(/1X,'HORIZONTAL MAGNIFICATION = ',F8.4,3X,'AT IMAGE',
- ' POSITION = ',F8.4,' mm')
50 FORMAT(/1X,'VERTICAL MAGNIFICATION = ',F8.4,3X,'AT IMAGE',
- ' POSITION = ',F8.4,' mm')
60 FORMAT(/1X,'DISPERSION = ',F8.4,3X,'AT HORIZONTAL IMAGE POSITION')
STOP
END

C
C Subroutine Trans
C
C This subroutine calculates the horizontal
C and vertical transfer matrices.
C
SUBROUTINE TRANS(PHI,A,B,AE,BE,R0,R1,R2,Y,X)
IMPLICIT REAL*8(A-H,O-Z)
DIMENSION Y(12,3),X(8,2)

C
C Set up various constants
C
IF(R1.EQ.0.0.OR.R2.EQ.0.0) GOTO 5
C1=R0/(R1*(DCOS(A)**3))
C2=R0/(R2*(DCOS(B)**3))
5 SEC2A=1.0/(DCOS(A)**2)
SEC2B=1.0/(DCOS(B)**2)
SPHIBA=DSIN(PHI-A+B)/(DCOS(A)*DCOS(B))
CPHIB=DCOS(PHI+B)/DCOS(B)
SPHIA=DSIN(PHI-A)/DCOS(A)
SPHIB=DSIN(PHI-B)/DCOS(B)

C
C Initialise Y and X arrays to zero
C
DO 20 I=1,12
DO 10 J=1,3
Y(I,J)=0.0
10 CONTINUE
20 CONTINUE
DO 40 I=1,8
DO 30 J=1,2
X(I,J)=0.0
30 CONTINUE
40 CONTINUE

C
C Calculate first order horizontal coefficients
C
Y(1,1)=DCOS(PHI-A)/DCOS(A)
Y(2,1)=DSIN(PHI)
Y(3,1)=(1.0-DCOS(PHI))
Y(1,2)=-((DSIN(PHI-A-B))/(DCOS(A)*DCOS(B)))
Y(2,2)=DCOS(PHI-B)/DCOS(B)
Y(3,2)=DSIN(PHI)+((1.0-DCOS(PHI))*DTAN(B))
Y(3,3)=1.0

C
C Calculate first order vertical coefficients
C
X(1,1)=1.0-(PHI*DTAN(AE))
X(2,1)=PHI
X(1,2)=((PHI*DTAN(AE))*DTAN(BE))-DTAN(AE)-DTAN(BE)
X(2,2)=1.0-(PHI*DTAN(BE))

C
C Calculate second order horizontal elements (row 1)
C
Y(4,1) =0.5*(DCOS(PHI)-(Y(2,2)*CPHIB))
Y(5,1) =-0.5*(Y(3,1)+((X(2,1)**2)*SEC2B))
Y(6,1) =0.5*((Y(3,1)**2)*(DTAN(B)**2)-(DSIN(PHI)**2))
Y(7,1) =Y(3,1)*SEC2B*DSIN(PHI)
Y(8,1) =0.5*(Y(1,2)*SPHIBA+(C1*DSIN(PHI)))
Y(9,1) =0.5*(Y(1,1)*SEC2A+(DSIN(PHI)*(DTAN(A)**3))-Y(3,1)*

```

FSP01450
FSP01460
FSP01470
FSP01480
FSP01490
FSP01500
FSP01510
FSP01520
FSP01530
FSP01540
FSP01550
FSP01560
FSP01570
FSP01580
FSP01590
FSP01600
FSP01610
FSP01620
FSP01630
FSP01640
FSP01650
FSP01660
FSP01670
FSP01680
FSP01690
FSP01700
FSP01710
FSP01720
FSP01730
FSP01740
FSP01750
FSP01760
FSP01770
FSP01780
FSP01790
FSP01800
FSP01810
FSP01820
FSP01830
FSP01840
FSP01850
FSP01860
FSP01870
FSP01880
FSP01890
FSP01900
FSP01910
FSP01920
FSP01930
FSP01940
FSP01950
FSP01960
FSP01970
FSP01980
FSP01990
FSP02000
FSP02010
FSP02020
FSP02030
FSP02040
FSP02050
FSP02060
FSP02070
FSP02080
FSP02090
FSP02100
FSP02110
FSP02120
FSP02130
FSP02140
FSP02150
FSP02160

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-      (DTAN(AE)**2))-((X(1,1)**2)*SEC2B)-(C1*DSIN(PHI)))      FSP02170
Y(10,1)=(Y(1,1)*DTAN(A))+(SPHIA*SEC2B*DCOS(PHI))+(DTAN(A)*      FSP02180
-      (DTAN(B)**2))      FSP02190
Y(11,1)=(Y(3,1)*DTAN(AE))-Y(2,1)*(DTAN(A)**2))-X(1,1)*X(2,1)*      FSP02200
-      SEC2B      FSP02210
Y(12,1)=1.0+(Y(1,1)*((DTAN(B)**2)-(SEC2B*DCOS(PHI))))      FSP02220
C      FSP02230
C      Calculate second order horizontal elements (row 2)      FSP02240
C      FSP02250
Y(4,2) =0.5*(-SPHIB-((Y(2,2)**2)*DTAN(B))+(C2*(DSIN(PHI)**2)))      FSP02260
Y(5,2) =0.5*((X(2,1)**2)*(DTAN(B)**3)+(2.0*X(2,1)*X(2,2)*      FSP02270
-      (DTAN(B)**2))-Y(3,2)-(C2*(X(2,1)**2)))      FSP02280
Y(6,2) =0.5*(-Y(3,2)*(2.0+(Y(3,2)*DTAN(B)))+(C2*(Y(3,1)**2)))      FSP02290
Y(7,2) =-Y(2,2)*Y(3,2)*DTAN(B))+(C2*Y(3,1)*DSIN(PHI))      FSP02300
Y(8,2) =0.5*(-((Y(1,2)**2)*DTAN(B))+(C1*Y(2,2))+(C2*(Y(1,1)**2)))      FSP02310
Y(9,2) =0.5*((Y(1,2)*SEC2A)+(Y(2,2)*(DTAN(A)**3))-Y(3,2)*(DTAN      FSP02320
-      (AE)**2)))+(2.0*X(1,1)*X(1,2)*(DTAN(B)**2))+((X(1,1)**2)*      FSP02330
-      (DTAN(B)**3))-C1*Y(2,2))-C2*(X(1,1)**2)))      FSP02340
Y(10,2)=Y(1,2)*(DTAN(A)-(Y(2,2)*DTAN(B)))+(C2*Y(1,1)*DSIN(PHI))      FSP02350
Y(11,2)=(Y(3,2)*DTAN(AE))-Y(2,2)*(DTAN(A)**2))+((DTAN(B)**2)*      FSP02360
-      (X(2,1)*X(1,2)+X(1,1)*X(2,2)))+(X(1,1)*X(2,1)*(DTAN(B)**3)      FSP02370
-      )-(C2*X(1,1)*X(2,1))      FSP02380
Y(12,2)=-Y(1,2)*(SEC2B+(SPHIB*DTAN(B)))+(C2*Y(1,1)*Y(3,1))      FSP02390
C      FSP02400
C      Calculate second order vertical elements (row 1)      FSP02410
C      FSP02420
X(3,1)=1.0-Y(2,2)+(Y(2,1)*X(2,2)*DTAN(B))      FSP02430
X(4,1)=PHI-Y(3,2)+(Y(3,1)*X(2,2)*DTAN(B))      FSP02440
X(5,1)=(Y(1,2)*DTAN(A))+(Y(1,1)*X(1,2)*DTAN(B))-C1*PHI      FSP02450
X(6,1)=-PHI*SEC2A-((1.0-Y(2,2))*DTAN(A))+(Y(2,1)*X(1,2)*DTAN(B))      FSP02460
X(7,1)=(Y(3,2)*DTAN(A))+(Y(3,1)*X(1,2)*DTAN(B))      FSP02470
X(8,1)=(X(1,1)*DTAN(A))+(Y(1,1)*X(2,2)*DTAN(B))-Y(1,2)      FSP02480
C      FSP02490
C      Calculate second order vertical elements (row 2)      FSP02500
C      FSP02510
X(3,2)=Y(2,2)*((PHI*SEC2B)+DTAN(B))-DTAN(B)-(C2*PHI*DSIN(PHI))      FSP02520
X(4,2)=Y(3,2)*((PHI*SEC2B)+DTAN(B))-C2*PHI*Y(3,1)      FSP02530
X(5,2)=Y(1,2)*((X(1,1)*SEC2B)-(DTAN(A)*DTAN(B)))-(C1*X(2,2))-      FSP02540
-      (C2*Y(1,1)*X(1,1))      FSP02550
X(6,2)=(Y(2,2)*X(1,1)*SEC2B)-(X(2,2)*SEC2A)+((1.0-Y(2,2))*DTAN(A)      FSP02560
-      *DTAN(B))-C2*X(1,1)*DSIN(PHI))      FSP02570
X(7,2)=Y(3,2)*((X(1,1)*SEC2B)-(DTAN(A)*DTAN(B)))-(C2*X(1,1)*Y(3,1)      FSP02580
-      )-X(1,2)      FSP02590
X(8,2)=Y(1,2)*((PHI*SEC2B)+DTAN(B))+(X(1,2)*DTAN(A))-C2*PHI*      FSP02600
-      Y(1,1)      FSP02610
RETURN      FSP02620
END      FSP02630
C      FSP02640
C      FSP02650
C      Subroutine Ttrans      FSP02660
C      FSP02670
C      This subroutine calculates the total vertical      FSP02680
C      and horizontal transfer matrices.      FSP02690
C      FSP02700
SUBROUTINE TTRANS(Y,X,U,V,TY,TX)      FSP02710
IMPLICIT REAL*8(A-H,O-Z)      FSP02720
DIMENSION Y(12,3),TY(12,3),X(8,2),TX(8,2)      FSP02730
C      FSP02740
C      INITIALISE TY AND TZ ARRAYS TO ZERO      FSP02750
C      FSP02760
DO 20 I=1,12      FSP02770
DO 10 J=1,3      FSP02780
TY(I,J)=0.0      FSP02790
CONTINUE      FSP02800
CONTINUE      FSP02810
DO 40 I=1,8      FSP02820
DO 30 J=1,2      FSP02830
TX(I,J)=0.0      FSP02840
CONTINUE      FSP02850
CONTINUE      FSP02860
C      FSP02870
C      Calculate total horizontal matrix elements      FSP02880

```


	WRITE(2,50)(Y(J,3),J=7,12)	FSP03610
	IF(ORDER.EQ.1) WRITE(2,60)	FSP03620
	IF(ORDER.EQ.2) WRITE(2,90)	FSP03630
	WRITE(2,93)	FSP03640
	WRITE(2,61)(X(J,1),J=1,4)	FSP03650
	WRITE(2,61)(X(J,2),J=1,4)	FSP03660
	WRITE(2,94)	FSP03670
	WRITE(2,61)(X(J,1),J=5,8)	FSP03680
	WRITE(2,61)(X(J,2),J=5,8)	FSP03690
	RETURN	FSP03700
10	FORMAT(/1X,'ELEMENTS OF HORIZONTAL TRANSFER MATRIX',/)	FSP03710
60	FORMAT(/1X,'ELEMENTS OF VERTICAL TRANSFER MATRIX',/)	FSP03720
80	FORMAT(/1X,'ELEMENTS OF THE TOTAL HORIZONTAL TRANSFER MATRIX',/)	FSP03730
90	FORMAT(/1X,'ELEMENTS OF THE TOTAL VERTICAL TRANSFER MATRIX',/)	FSP03740
91	FORMAT(10X,'y/y',7X,4Hy/y',6X,'y/d',5X,5Hy/y' ² ,5X,5Hy/x' ² ,6X,	FSP03750
	4Hy/d ²)	FSP03760
92	FORMAT(/8X,5Hy/y'd,6X,4Hy/y ² ,6X,4Hy/x ² ,6X,5Hy/yy',5X,5Hy/xx',	FSP03770
	5X,4Hy/yd)	FSP03780
93	FORMAT(10X,'x/x',7X,4Hx/x',4X,6Hx/y'x',4X,5Hx/x'd)	FSP03790
94	FORMAT(/9X,'x/yx',5X,5Hx/y'x,6X,4Hx/xd,6X,5Hx/yx')	FSP03800
50	FORMAT(1X,' ',6F10.4,' ')	FSP03810
61	FORMAT(1X,' ',4F10.4,' ')	FSP03820
	END	FSP03830
C		FSP03840
C		FSP03850
C	Subroutine Head	FSP03860
C		FSP03870
C	This subroutine writes out titles and headings on unit 2.	FSP03880
C		FSP03890
	SUBROUTINE HEAD(PHI,R0,AL,BET,AOBJ,R1,R2,GAP,IFC,DFC1,DFC2,T,IV)	FSP03900
	IMPLICIT REAL*8(A-H,O-Z)	FSP03910
	DIMENSION T(20)	FSP03920
	WRITE(2,5)	FSP03930
	WRITE(2,7)(T(I),I=1,20)	FSP03940
	IF(IV.EQ.0) THEN	FSP03950
	WRITE(2,8)	FSP03960
	ELSE	FSP03970
	WRITE(2,9)	FSP03980
	END IF	FSP03990
	WRITE(2,10) PHI	FSP04000
	WRITE(2,15) R0	FSP04010
	WRITE(2,20) AL	FSP04020
	WRITE(2,25) BET	FSP04030
	WRITE(2,30) AOBJ	FSP04040
	WRITE(2,35) GAP	FSP04050
	IF(R1.NE.0.0) WRITE(2,40) R1	FSP04060
	IF(R2.NE.0.0) WRITE(2,45) R2	FSP04070
	GOTO(50,55,60,65)IFC	FSP04080
50	RETURN	FSP04090
55	WRITE(2,75) DFC1	FSP04100
	WRITE(2,80)	FSP04110
	RETURN	FSP04120
60	WRITE(2,90)	FSP04130
	WRITE(2,85) DFC2	FSP04140
	RETURN	FSP04150
65	WRITE(2,75) DFC1	FSP04160
	WRITE(2,85) DFC2	FSP04170
	RETURN	FSP04180
5	FORMAT(/1X,'OPTICAL PROPERTIES OF HOMOGENOUS MAGNETIC FIELD',/,	FSP04190
	'SECTOR MAGNET USING FRINGING FIELD APPROXIMATION.'//)	FSP04200
7	FORMAT(20A4)	FSP04210
8	FORMAT(/1X,'VIRTUAL FIELD BOUNDARIES')	FSP04220
9	FORMAT(/1X,'MECHANICAL BOUNDARIES')	FSP04230
10	FORMAT(/1X,'BENDING ANGLE OF CENTRAL RAY = ',F8.2,' Degrees')	FSP04240
15	FORMAT(/1X,'BENDING RADIUS OF CENTRAL RAY = ',F8.2,' mm.')	FSP04250
20	FORMAT(/1X,'ENTRANCE POLEFACE TILT = ',F8.3,' Degrees')	FSP04260
25	FORMAT(/1X,'EXIT POLEFACE TILT = ',F8.3,' Degrees')	FSP04270
30	FORMAT(/1X,'OBJECT POSITION = ',F8.2,' mm.')	FSP04280
35	FORMAT(/1X,'POLEPIECE SEPARATION = ',F8.2,' mm.')	FSP04290
40	FORMAT(/1X,'ENTRANCE FIELD RADIUS OF CURVATURE = ',F8.2,' mm.')	FSP04300
45	FORMAT(/1X,'EXIT FACE RADIUS OF CURVATURE = ',F8.2,' mm.')	FSP04310
70	FORMAT(/1X,'NO FIELD CLAMPS USED.')	FSP04320

```

75 FORMAT(/1X,'DISTANCE FROM ENTRANCE CLAMP TO POLE = ',F6.2,' mm. ') FSP04330
80 FORMAT(/1X,'NO EXIT FIELD CLAMP') FSP04340
85 FORMAT(/1X,'DISTANCE FROM EXIT CLAMP TO POLE = ',F6.2,' mm. ') FSP04350
90 FORMAT(/1X,'NO ENTRANCE FIELD CLAMP') FSP04360
END FSP04370
C FSP04380
C FSP04390
C Subroutine Fringe FSP04400
C FSP04410
C This subroutine calculates the effective poleface tilts FSP04420
C using the semi-empirical formulae of ENGE and HEIGHWAY. FSP04430
C If the parameters given are not referenced to the virtual field FSP04440
C boundaries then the virtual field boundary displacement from FSP04450
C the mechanical edge can be calculated. FSP04460
C FSP04470
C The principle variables are defined as follows: FSP04480
C GAP = Polepiece separation. FSP04490
C D = Polepiece separation normalised to bending radius. FSP04500
C IFC = Integer parameter describing fringe field clamping. FSP04510
C DFC = Distance of field clamp from poleface. FSP04520
C T = Distance of clamp from poleface normalised to GAP FSP04530
C A = Mechanical poleface tilt. FSP04540
C R0 = Bending radius. FSP04550
C R = Radius of curvature of poleface. FSP04560
C ANGLE = Effective poleface tilt. FSP04570
C ISIDE = Integer parameter. FSP04580
C ISIDE = 1 Entrance poleface. FSP04590
C ISIDE = 2 Exit poleface. FSP04600
C I2 = Integral coefficient from ENGE. If I2=0.0 then an FSP04610
C empirical value is calculated from HEIGHWAY. FSP04620
C K = Equivalent empirical value for I2 (HEIGHWAY) FSP04630
C C = Correction coefficient C (HEIGHWAY) FSP04640
C DELTA = Poleface tilt correction angle. FSP04650
C E = Distance of virtual field boundary from poleface. FSP04660
C FSP04670
SUBROUTINE FRINGE(GAP,IFC,DFC,A,R0,R,ANGLE,ISIDE,I2,IV) FSP04680
IMPLICIT REAL*8(A-H,O-Z) FSP04690
REAL*8 K,I2 FSP04700
C FSP04710
C Set constants. FSP04720
C FSP04730
IF(GAP.NE.0.0) GOTO 3 FSP04740
T = 0.0 FSP04750
GOTO 4 FSP04760
3 T = DFC/GAP FSP04770
4 D = GAP/R0 FSP04780
C FSP04790
C Entrance or exit poleface? FSP04800
C FSP04810
GOTO(5,10) ISIDE FSP04820
5 WRITE(2,1) FSP04830
C FSP04840
C If I2 is given then use Enge expression for effective tilt. FSP04850
C FSP04860
IF(I2.NE.0.0) GOTO 50 FSP04870
GOTO 15 FSP04880
C FSP04890
C If I2 is given then use Enge expression for effective tilt. FSP04900
C FSP04910
WRITE(2,2) FSP04920
IF(I2.NE.0.0) GOTO 50 FSP04930
GOTO 15 FSP04940
C FSP04950
C Field is clamped so use HEIGHWAY expression for K FSP04960
C FSP04970
15 K = 0.1326+(0.0842*T)+(0.00805*T*T) FSP04980
C FSP04990
C Calculate HEIGHWAY correction coefficient C FSP05000
C FSP05010
C = 1.015-(0.9226D-3*A)+(0.02794*D)-(0.4276D-2*A*D)-(0.1912*D*D) FSP05020
C = C+(0.9153D-7*A*A*A)-(0.3320D-6*A*A*A*D)-(0.0232*K) FSP05030
C = C+(0.2834D-2*K*A)-(0.2621D-4*K*A*A)-(0.05834*K*A*D) FSP05040

```

C	C = C-(0.5473D-3*K*A*A*D*D)+(1.994*K*D*D*D)+(0.06623*K*A*D*D)	FSP05050
C	C = C+(0.3968D-3*K*D*A*A)-(0.1698*K*A*D*D*D)	FSP05060
C	C = C+(0.4281D-2*K*A*A*D*D)-(0.3498D-4*K*A*A*A*D*D)	FSP05070
C		FSP05080
C	Calculate tilt correction angle and resultant effective tilt	FSP05090
C		FSP05100
C	DELTA = C*K*D*(1.0+(DSIN(A)**2))/DCOS(A)	FSP05110
C	ANGLE = A-DELTA	FSP05120
C		FSP05130
C	If the parameters are those of the mechanical boundaries	FSP05140
C	then calculate distance of virtual field from poleface.	FSP05150
C	Note - only valid for clamped fields.	FSP05160
C	Is poleface straight or curved?	FSP05170
C		FSP05180
C	IF(IV.GT.0) GOTO 29	FSP05190
C	IF(R.NE.0.0) GOTO 25	FSP05200
C	E = GAP*((0.386*T)-(0.0455*T*T))	FSP05210
C	GOTO 29	FSP05220
25	E = GAP*((0.386+(0.324*GAP/R))*T-(0.0455+(0.093*GAP/R))*T*T)	FSP05230
C	GOTO 29	FSP05240
C		FSP05250
C	Integral coefficient I2 has been given so calculate	FSP05260
C	correction angle based on ENGE expression.	FSP05270
C		FSP05280
50	DELTA = I2*D*(1.0+(DSIN(A-(1.2*I2*D)**2))/(DCOS(A-(1.2*I2*D)**3)	FSP05290
C	ANGLE = DTAN(A)-DELTA	FSP05300
C	ANGLE = DATAN(ANGLE)	FSP05310
C		FSP05320
C	Write out properties on unit 1	FSP05330
C		FSP05340
29	WRITE(2,30) K,C	FSP05350
C	WRITE(2,35)((ANGLE*360)/(2*3.1415926))	FSP05360
C	IF(IV.GT.0) WRITE(2,40) E	FSP05370
C	RETURN	FSP05380
1	FORMAT(/1X,'ENTRANCE FRINGING FIELD PROPERTIES.')	FSP05390
2	FORMAT(/1X,'EXIT FRINGING FIELD PROPERTIES.')	FSP05400
30	FORMAT(/1X,'INTEGRAL COEFFICIENT K = ',F12.4,/,	FSP05410
-	' CORRECTION COEFFICIENT C = ',F10.4)	FSP05420
35	FORMAT(/1X,'EFFECTIVE VERTICAL POLEFACE TILT = ',F10.4,' Degrees')	FSP05430
40	FORMAT(/1X,'EFFECTIVE EDGE DISPLACEMENT = ',F10.4,' mm.')	FSP05440
	END	FSP05450

```

C      PROGRAM SPECTRUM                                SPE00010
C                                                    SPE00020
C      This program uses the total first and second order transfer SPE00030
C      coefficients from FSPECT to produce an intensity distribution SPE00040
C      plot of the spectrometer dispersion plane for a point source SPE00050
C      with a circular collector aperture. The central ray is assumed SPE00060
C      to be the zero energy loss beam. For serial collection systems SPE00070
C      an alignment figure can also be produced. SPE00080
C                                                    SPE00090
C      The principle variables are defined as follows: SPE00100
C                                                    SPE00110
C      TY      = 1st and 2nd order median plane transfer coefficients SPE00120
C      TZ      = 1st and 2nd order vertical plane transfer coefficients SPE00130
C      R0      = Bending radius of spectrometer (mm). SPE00140
C      EEV     = Electron energy (eV). SPE00150
C      ELOSS   = Electron energy loss step (eV). SPE00160
C      ELIMIT  = Maximum energy loss (eV). SPE00170
C      BETA    = Acceptance half angle of spectrometer (mrad). SPE00180
C      DTHETA  = Increment in azimuthal angle of the point source SPE00190
C              (1 < dtheta < 90) degrees. SPE00200
C      DPHI    = Increment in polar angle of the point source SPE00210
C              (dphi > beta/21) mrad. SPE00220
C      SLIT    = Width of energy selecting slit in microns. SPE00230
C      DSLIT   = Distance of lower edge of the slit from the optic axis SPE00240
C              (measured in the +y direction) in um. SPE00250
C      YDASH   = Array containing median plane gradient component SPE00260
C              of each ray. SPE00270
C      ZDASH   = Array containing vertical plane gradient component SPE00280
C              of each ray. SPE00290
C      RMAX    = Maximum gradient SPE00300
C      IPOINT  = Number of rays between (0.0 < PHI < BETA) SPE00310
C      ILINE   = Number of lines of rays between (0.0 < THETA < 90.0) SPE00320
C      IEND    = Last column of YDASH and ZDASH containing a gradient SPE00330
C      ILOOP   = Loop counter (Maximum energy loss/energy loss step) SPE00340
C      DV      = Energy increment SPE00350
C      YSCALE  = Length of dispersion (median) axis (um) SPE00360
C      ZSCALE  = Length of vertical axis (um) SPE00370
C      DELTA   = Fractional change in momentum from central ray SPE00380
C      YIM     = Y coordinate of image point (um) SPE00390
C      ZIM     = Z coordinate of image point (um) SPE00400
C                                                    SPE00410
C                                                    SPE00420
C      DIMENSION YDASH(94,84),ZDASH(94,84),TY(6,1),TZ(3,1) SPE00430
C      DIMENSION YIM(94,84),ZIM(94,84),AZ1(2),AY1(2),AY2(2) SPE00440
C      DATA EEV/100000./ SPE00450
C                                                    SPE00460
C      Read input parameters from unit 1 SPE00470
C                                                    SPE00480
C      READ(1,1) BETA,DTHETA,DPHI SPE00490
C      FORMAT(/5X,3F10.4) SPE00500
C      READ(1,1) R0,ELIMIT,ELOSS SPE00510
C                                                    SPE00520
C      Read array elements from unit 1 SPE00530
C                                                    SPE00540
C      READ(1,3) TY SPE00550
C      FORMAT(/5X,6F10.4) SPE00560
C      READ(1,4) TZ SPE00570
C      FORMAT(/5X,3F10.4) SPE00580
C                                                    SPE00590
C      Read data on slits SPE00600
C                                                    SPE00610
C      READ(1,5) SLIT,DSLIT SPE00620
C      FORMAT(/5X,2F10.4) SPE00630
C                                                    SPE00640
C      Convert from milliradians to radians SPE00650
C                                                    SPE00660
C      BETA = BETA*0.001 SPE00670
C      DPHI = DPHI*0.001 SPE00680
C                                                    SPE00690
C      Convert from radians to gradients SPE00700
C                                                    SPE00710
C      RMAX = TAN(BETA) SPE00720

```

```

DPHI = TAN(DPHI)
C
C   Calculate loop counters and convert DTHETA to radians
C
IPOINT = IFIX(RMAX/DPHI)+1
IEND=IPOINT*4
ILINE = IFIX(90.0/DTHETA)+1
DTHETA = DTHETA*2*3.1415926/360
ANGLE = 0.0
C
C   Do loop to assign median plane and vertical plane
C   gradients of each ray in all four quadrants.
C
DO 10 I = 1, ILINE
R = 0.0
DO 20 J = 1, IPOINT
YDASH(I,J) = R*COS(ANGLE)
ZDASH(I,J) = R*SIN(ANGLE)
R = R+DPHI
CONTINUE
ANGLE = ANGLE+DTHETA
CONTINUE
DO 30 I = 1, ILINE
DO 40 J = 1, IPOINT
K = J+IPOINT
YDASH(I,K) = -YDASH(I,J)
ZDASH(I,K) = ZDASH(I,J)
L = K+IPOINT
YDASH(I,L) = -YDASH(I,J)
ZDASH(I,L) = -ZDASH(I,J)
M = L+IPOINT
YDASH(I,M) = YDASH(I,J)
ZDASH(I,M) = -ZDASH(I,J)
CONTINUE
CONTINUE
C
C   Calculate energy loss loop counter
C
ILOOP = IFIX(ELIMIT/ELOSS)+1
C
C   Calculate vertical (median) and horizontal scales
C   for dispersion plane plot.
C
YSCALE=(ABS(TY(1,1)*RMAX)+ABS(TY(2,1)*0.5*ELIMIT/EEV)+ABS(TY(3,1)
- *(RMAX**2))+ABS(TY(4,1)*(RMAX**2))+ABS(TY(5,1)*0.25*ELIMIT
- *ELIMIT/(EEV**2)))*R0*1000*1.1
ZSCALE=(ABS(TZ(1,1)*RMAX)+ABS(TZ(2,1)*RMAX*0.5*RMAX)+
- (ABS(TZ(3,1)*RMAX*(0.5*ELIMIT/EEV)))*R0*1000*1.1
YNEG=YSCALE
IF(ELIMIT.NE.0.0) YNEG=YSCALE/20
C
C   Set up graphical outputs
C
CALL PAGE(20.0,29.0)
CALL PACK IN(14.0,28.0)
CALL NEWPLT(-ZSCALE,ZSCALE,12.0,-YNEG,YSCALE,12.0)
CALL DRAW AX('um',2,0.0,0.0)
CALL DRAW AX('um',2,0.0,90.0)
CALL TITLE('T', 'L', 'SCHEINFELD ZERO LOSS 5.0 MR',27)
AZ1(1)=-ZSCALE
AZ1(2)=ZSCALE
AY1(1)=-DSLIT
AY1(2)=-DSLIT
AY2(1)=SLIT-DSLIT
AY2(2)=SLIT-DSLIT
CALL BRKN CV(AZ1,AY1,2,-1)
CALL BRKN CV(AZ1,AY2,2,-1)
C
C   Calculate aberration pattern
C
DO 100 L=1,2
DV=0.0

```

```

SPE00730
SPE00740
SPE00750
SPE00760
SPE00770
SPE00780
SPE00790
SPE00800
SPE00810
SPE00820
SPE00830
SPE00840
SPE00850
SPE00860
SPE00870
SPE00880
SPE00890
SPE00900
SPE00910
SPE00920
SPE00930
SPE00940
SPE00950
SPE00960
SPE00970
SPE00980
SPE00990
SPE01000
SPE01010
SPE01020
SPE01030
SPE01040
SPE01050
SPE01060
SPE01070
SPE01080
SPE01090
SPE01100
SPE01110
SPE01120
SPE01130
SPE01140
SPE01150
SPE01160
SPE01170
SPE01180
SPE01190
SPE01200
SPE01210
SPE01220
SPE01230
SPE01240
SPE01250
SPE01260
SPE01270
SPE01280
SPE01290
SPE01300
SPE01310
SPE01320
SPE01330
SPE01340
SPE01350
SPE01360
SPE01370
SPE01380
SPE01390
SPE01400
SPE01410
SPE01420
SPE01430
SPE01440

```


Example data files for FSPECT and SPECDAT. The parameters given refer to the Shuman spectrometer described in chapter 3.

FILE: FSPECT DATA A GLASGOW HEP CMS/SP V 4.19

SHUMAN SPECTROMETER VIRTUAL FIELD BOUNDARIES.

PHI	RADIUS	ALPHA	BETA	AOBJ	BIM
70.0000	165.100	11.7440	28.7850	594.3600	393.598
R1	R2	GAP	IFC	DFC1	DFC2
116.726	-99.555	22.6770	4	10.669	10.669
I2	IV				
0.00	0				

FILE: SPECTRUM DATA A GLASGOW HEP CMS/SP V 4.19

BETA	DTHETA	DPHI			
5.0	1.0	0.250			
R0	ELIMIT	STEP			
165.1	1000.0	100.0			
y/y'	y/d	y/y' ²	y/x' ²	y/d ²	y/y' ^d
-0.0003	3.7600	-0.0266	0.0542	-5.8583	-0.0031
x/x'	x/y' ^x	x/x' ^d			
0.0005	-0.0593	37.4568			
SLIT	DSLIT				
1.00	0.500				

Appendix 3

First and second order focussing coefficients for quadrupole lenses

Convergent Plane

(y/y)	$\cos \sqrt{q} z$
(y/y')	$(1 / \sqrt{q}) \sin \sqrt{q} z$
(y'/y)	$-\sqrt{q} \sin \sqrt{q} z$
(y'/y')	$\cos \sqrt{q} z$
$(y/y\delta)$	$1/2 q z (y/y')$
$(y'/y\delta)$	$1/2 [(y/y') - z (y/y)]$
$(y'/y\delta)$	$1/2 q [z (y/y) + (y/y')]$
$(y'/y'\delta)$	$1/2 \sqrt{q} z \sin \sqrt{q} z$

Divergent Plane

(x/x)	$\cosh \sqrt{q} z$
(x/x')	$(1 / \sqrt{q}) \sinh \sqrt{q} z$
(x'/x)	$\sqrt{q} \sinh \sqrt{q} z$
(x'/x')	$\cosh \sqrt{q} z$
$(x/x\delta)$	$-1/2 q z (x/x')$
$(x'/x\delta)$	$1/2 [(x/x') - z (x/x)]$
$(x'/x\delta)$	$-1/2 q [z (x/x) + (x/x')]$
$(x'/x'\delta)$	$-1/2 \sqrt{q} z \sinh \sqrt{q} z$

After Nakabushi and Matsuo [1982]

Appendix 4

Quadrupole Analysis Programs

Listings of programs QPAIR, QTRIP4 and QQUAD are given along with example data files. Again the programs are self-contained except for the plotting routines which use the SIMPLEPLOT library. QTRIP4 and QQUAD are set up to analyse the 'high mag mode' described in chapter 5. 'Low mag' or any other configuration can be simulated by making the appropriate changes in the order of the parameters in the calls to subroutine QCOMB. Changing the configuration will also affect the iteration procedure in QQUAD, and lines 161 and 165 may have to be altered - the correct sense can be determined from the output of QTRIP4.

```

C
C PROGRAM QPAIR
C
C This program computes the universal curves and
C magnifications of quadrupole pairs over a given
C range of lens excitations
C
C The principle variables are defined as follows-
C
C Lenth1 - Effective length of first quadrupole Q1
C Lenth2 - Effective length of second quadrupole Q2
C Rtqz1 - Excitation (theta1) of first quadrupole Q1
C Rtqz2 - Excitation (theta2) of second quadrupole Q2
C Delqz1 - Increment in Q1 excitation
C Delqz2 - Increment in Q2 excitation
C Nk1 - Number of increments in Q1 excitation (<=10)
C Nk2 - Number of increments in Q2 excitation (<=10)
C Ratio - Ratio of image positions (W/V)
C D - Gap between lenses (mm)
C Y1 - First order convergent transfer matrix Q1
C Y2 - First order convergent transfer matrix Q2
C YCD - Combined transfer matrix - vertical plane
C XDC - Combined transfer matrix - horizontal plane
C TY - Total transfer matrix - vertical plane
C TX - Total transfer matrix - horizontal plane
C Ustig - Calculated object position giving desired ratio of
C image positions
C Vstig - Calculated image position - vertical plane
C Wstig - Calculated image position - horizontal plane
C Conmag - Vertical plane magnification at focus
C Divmag - Horizontal plane magnification at focus
C
C IMPLICIT REAL*8(A-H,O-Z)
C REAL*4 OBJ(10,10),IMG(10,10),MAG(10,10),EXITN(10,10)
C DIMENSION Y1(2,2),X1(2,2),TY(2,2),TX(2,2)
C DIMENSION Y2(2,2),X2(2,2),YCD(2,2),XDC(2,2)
C DIMENSION TITLE(20)
C REAL*8 LENTH1,LENTH2
C
C Read title of up to 80 characters from unit 1
C READ(1,1)(TITLE(I),I=1,20)
C
C Read a blank line from unit 1
C READ(1,2)
C
C Read first quadrupole parameters from unit 1
C READ(1,7) LENTH1,RTQZ1,DELQZ1,NK1
C
C Read another blank line then second quadrupole parameters
C READ(1,2)
C READ(1,7) LENTH2,RTQZ2,DELQZ2,NK2
C
C Read a blank line then first order imaging properties
C READ(1,2)
C READ(1,6) RATIO,D
C
C 1 FORMAT(20A4)
C 2 FORMAT(1X)
C 6 FORMAT(5X,2F10.4)
C 7 FORMAT(5X,3F10.4,I10)
C
C Convert from millimetres to metres
C
C D=D*0.001
C LENTH1=LENTH1*0.001
C LENTH2=LENTH2*0.001
C
C Write title and headings on unit 2

```

```

QPA00010
QPA00020
QPA00030
QPA00040
QPA00050
QPA00060
QPA00070
QPA00080
QPA00090
QPA00100
QPA00110
QPA00120
QPA00130
QPA00140
QPA00150
QPA00160
QPA00170
QPA00180
QPA00190
QPA00200
QPA00210
QPA00220
QPA00230
QPA00240
QPA00250
QPA00260
QPA00270
QPA00280
QPA00290
QPA00300
QPA00310
QPA00320
QPA00330
QPA00340
QPA00350
QPA00360
QPA00370
QPA00380
QPA00390
QPA00400
QPA00410
QPA00420
QPA00430
QPA00440
QPA00450
QPA00460
QPA00470
QPA00480
QPA00490
QPA00500
QPA00510
QPA00520
QPA00530
QPA00540
QPA00550
QPA00560
QPA00570
QPA00580
QPA00590
QPA00600
QPA00610
QPA00620
QPA00630
QPA00640
QPA00650
QPA00660
QPA00670
QPA00680
QPA00690
QPA00700
QPA00710
QPA00720

```

```

C                                     QPA00730
CALL FHEAD(LENTH1,LENTH2,RTQZ1,RTQZ2,U,RATIO,D,TITLE) QPA00740
C                                     QPA00750
C Start to loop through all the desired excitations QPA00760
C                                     QPA00770
DO 1001 J = 1,NK2 QPA00780
DO 1000 I = 1,NK1 QPA00790
C                                     QPA00800
C Call subroutine to calculate first quadrupole transfer matrix QPA00810
C                                     QPA00820
CALL QTRANS(LENTH1,RTQZ1,Y1,X1) QPA00830
C                                     QPA00840
C Call subroutine to calculate second quadrupole transfer matrix QPA00850
C                                     QPA00860
CALL QTRANS(LENTH2,RTQZ2,Y2,X2) QPA00870
C                                     QPA00880
C Call subroutine to calculate the combined transfer matrices QPA00890
C                                     QPA00900
CALL QCOMB(Y1,X1,Y2,X2,D,YCD,XDC) QPA00910
C                                     QPA00920
C Calculate correct object position to give the required QPA00930
C ratio of horizontal to vertical image distances. A ratio QPA00940
C of 1 corresponds to psuedo-stigmatic double focussing. QPA00950
C                                     QPA00960
A=RATIO*(YCD(1,1)*XDC(1,2)-(YCD(1,2)*XDC(1,1)) QPA00970
B=(RATIO*((YCD(1,1)*XDC(2,2)+(YCD(2,1)*XDC(1,2)))- QPA00980
+ (YCD(2,2)*XDC(1,1)-(YCD(1,2)*XDC(2,1)))/A QPA00990
C=RATIO*(YCD(2,1)*XDC(2,2)-(YCD(2,2)*XDC(2,1)) QPA01000
ROOT=(B**2)-(4*(C/A)) QPA01010
IF(ROOT.GT.0.0) THEN QPA01020
GOTO 100 QPA01030
ELSE QPA01040
WRITE(2,110) QPA01050
USTIG=0.0 QPA01060
VSTIG=0.0 QPA01070
WSTIG=0.0 QPA01080
CONMAG=0.0 QPA01090
GOTO 999 QPA01100
END IF QPA01110
100 USTIG=0.5*(-B+DSQRT(ROOT)) QPA01120
VSTIG=-1.0*((YCD(1,1)*USTIG+YCD(2,1))/((YCD(1,2)*USTIG+YCD(2,2)) QPA01130
WSTIG=-1.0*((XDC(1,1)*USTIG+XDC(2,1))/((XDC(1,2)*USTIG+XDC(2,2)) QPA01140
CONMAG=YCD(1,1)+(VSTIG*YCD(1,2)) QPA01150
DIVMAG=XDC(1,1)+(WSTIG*XDC(1,2)) QPA01160
WRITE(2,101) USTIG/LENTH1 QPA01170
C                                     QPA01180
C Output optical properties QPA01190
C                                     QPA01200
16 WRITE(2,40) CONMAG,VSTIG/LENTH1 QPA01210
WRITE(2,50) DIVMAG,WSTIG/LENTH1 QPA01220
C                                     QPA01230
C Store results for graphical output QPA01240
C                                     QPA01250
999 OBJ(I,J)=SNGL(USTIG/LENTH1) QPA01260
IMG(I,J)=SNGL(VSTIG/LENTH1) QPA01270
MAG(I,J)=CONMAG QPA01280
EXITN(I,J)=RTQZ1 QPA01290
C                                     QPA01300
RTQZ1=RTQZ1+DELQZ1 QPA01310
1000 CONTINUE QPA01320
RTQZ2=RTQZ2+DELQZ2 QPA01330
RTQZ1=RTQZ1-(NK1*DELQZ1) QPA01340
1001 CONTINUE QPA01350
C                                     QPA01360
C Call subroutine to draw graph QPA01370
C                                     QPA01380
CALL GRAPH(OBJ,IMG,MAG,EXITN) QPA01390
C                                     QPA01400
40 FORMAT(1X,'CONV-DIV MAGNIFICATION = ',F8.4,3X,'AT IMAGE', QPA01410
- ' POSITION = ',F8.4) QPA01420
50 FORMAT(1X,'DIV-CONV MAGNIFICATION = ',F8.4,3X,'AT IMAGE', QPA01430
- ' POSITION = ',F8.4) QPA01440

```

```

101  FORMAT(/1X,'CORRECT OBJECT POSITION FOR REQUIRED IMAGE RATIO = ', QPA01450
-      D12.6) QPA01460
110  FORMAT(/1X,'ERROR IN CALCULATION OF ASTIGMATIC OBJECT DISTANCE.') QPA01470
120  STOP QPA01480
      END QPA01490
C QPA01500
C QPA01510
C Subroutine Qtrans QPA01520
C QPA01530
C This subroutine calculates the first order QPA01540
C convergent and divergent transfer matrices. QPA01550
C QPA01560
C SUBROUTINE QTRANS(LENGTH,ROOTQZ,Y,X) QPA01570
C IMPLICIT REAL*8(A-H,O-Z) QPA01580
C DIMENSION Y(2,2),X(2,2) QPA01590
C REAL*8 LENGTH QPA01600
C ROOTQ=ROOTQZ/LENGTH QPA01610
C WRITE(2,6) ROOTQZ QPA01620
6  FORMAT(/1X,'Quadrupole angle theta = ',F8.4,' (Dimensionless)') QPA01630
C QPA01640
C Initialise Y and X arrays to zero QPA01650
C QPA01660
C DO 20 I=1,2 QPA01670
C DO 10 J=1,2 QPA01680
C Y(I,J)=0.0 QPA01690
C X(I,J)=0.0 QPA01700
10  CONTINUE QPA01710
20  CONTINUE QPA01720
C QPA01730
C Calculate first order convergent coefficients QPA01740
C QPA01750
C Y(1,1)=DCOS(ROOTQZ) QPA01760
C Y(2,1)=(1.0/ROOTQ)*DSIN(ROOTQZ) QPA01770
C Y(1,2)=-ROOTQ*DSIN(ROOTQZ) QPA01780
C Y(2,2)=DCOS(ROOTQZ) QPA01790
C QPA01800
C Calculate first order divergent coefficients QPA01810
C QPA01820
C X(1,1)=DCOSH(ROOTQZ) QPA01830
C X(2,1)=(1.0/ROOTQ)*DSINH(ROOTQZ) QPA01840
C X(1,2)=ROOTQ*DSINH(ROOTQZ) QPA01850
C X(2,2)=DCOSH(ROOTQZ) QPA01860
C RETURN QPA01870
C END QPA01880
C QPA01890
C QPA01900
C Subroutine Qcomb QPA01910
C QPA01920
C This subroutine calculates the combined horizontal QPA01930
C and vertical transfer matrices. QPA01940
C QPA01950
C SUBROUTINE QCOMB(Y1,X1,Y2,X2,D,YCD,XDC) QPA01960
C IMPLICIT REAL*8(A-H,O-Z) QPA01970
C DIMENSION Y1(2,2),X1(2,2),Y2(2,2),X2(2,2),YCD(2,2),XDC(2,2) QPA01980
C QPA01990
C Initialise YCD and XDC arrays to zero QPA02000
C QPA02010
C DO 10 I=1,2 QPA02020
C DO 10 J=1,2 QPA02030
C YCD(I,J)=0.0 QPA02040
C XDC(I,J)=0.0 QPA02050
10  CONTINUE QPA02060
C QPA02070
C Calculate convergent-divergent transfer matrix QPA02080
C QPA02090
C YCD(1,1)=Y1(1,1)*X2(1,1)+(Y1(1,2)*(D*X2(1,1)+X2(2,1))) QPA02100
C YCD(2,1)=Y1(2,1)*X2(1,1)+(Y1(2,2)*(D*X2(1,1)+X2(2,1))) QPA02110
C YCD(1,2)=Y1(1,1)*X2(1,2)+(Y1(1,2)*(D*X2(1,2)+X2(2,2))) QPA02120
C YCD(2,2)=Y1(2,1)*X2(1,2)+(Y1(2,2)*(D*X2(1,2)+X2(2,2))) QPA02130
C QPA02140
C Calculate divergent-convergent matrix QPA02150
C QPA02160

```

```

XDC(1,1)=X1(1,1)*Y2(1,1)+(X1(1,2)*(D*Y2(1,1)+Y2(2,1)))
XDC(2,1)=X1(2,1)*Y2(1,1)+(X1(2,2)*(D*Y2(1,1)+Y2(2,1)))
XDC(1,2)=X1(1,1)*Y2(1,2)+(X1(1,2)*(D*Y2(1,2)+Y2(2,2)))
XDC(2,2)=X1(2,1)*Y2(1,2)+(X1(2,2)*(D*Y2(1,2)+Y2(2,2)))
RETURN
END

```

QPA02170
QPA02180
QPA02190
QPA02200
QPA02210
QPA02220
QPA02230
QPA02240

Subroutine Fhead

This subroutine writes out titles and headings on unit 2.

```

SUBROUTINE FHEAD(LENTH1,LENTH2,RTQZ1,RTQZ2,U,RATIO,D,TITL)
IMPLICIT REAL*8(A-H,O-Z)
DIMENSION TITL(20)
REAL*8 LENTH1,LENTH2
WRITE(2,5)
WRITE(2,7)(TITL(I),I=1,20)
WRITE(2,15) LENTH1*1000
WRITE(2,16) LENTH2*1000
WRITE(2,20) RTQZ1
WRITE(2,21) RTQZ2
WRITE(2,30) U*1000
WRITE(2,35) RATIO
WRITE(2,40) D*1000
RETURN
5 FORMAT(/1X,'OPTICAL PROPERTIES OF MAGNETIC QUADRUPOLE PAIRS.'//)
7 FORMAT(20A4)
15 FORMAT(/1X,'LENGTH OF FIRST LENS           = ',F8.2,' mm.')
```

QPA02250
QPA02260
QPA02270
QPA02280
QPA02290
QPA02300
QPA02310
QPA02320
QPA02330
QPA02340
QPA02350
QPA02360
QPA02370
QPA02380
QPA02390
QPA02400
QPA02410
QPA02420
QPA02430
QPA02440
QPA02450
QPA02460
QPA02470
QPA02480
QPA02490
QPA02500
QPA02510
QPA02520
QPA02530
QPA02540
QPA02550
QPA02560
QPA02570
QPA02580
QPA02590
QPA02600
QPA02610
QPA02620
QPA02630
QPA02640
QPA02650
QPA02660
QPA02670
QPA02680
QPA02690
QPA02700
QPA02710
QPA02720
QPA02730
QPA02740
QPA02750
QPA02760
QPA02770
QPA02780
QPA02790
QPA02800
QPA02810
QPA02820
QPA02830
QPA02840
QPA02850
QPA02860
QPA02870
QPA02880

Subroutine Graph

This subroutine does the plotting

```

SUBROUTINE GRAPH(OBJ,IMG,MAG,EXITN)
REAL*4 OBJ(10,10),IMG(10,10),MAG(10,10),EXITN(10,10)
REAL*4 AX(2),AY(2),BX(2),BY(2),CX(2),CY(2),DX(2),DY(2)
AX(1)=1.00
AX(2)=1.00
AY(1)=0.0
AY(2)=5.0
BX(1)=0.0
BX(2)=4.0
BY(1)=1.0
BY(2)=1.0
CX(1)=-11.05
CX(2)=-11.05
CY(1)=0.80
CY(2)=1.651
DX(1)=-11.05
DX(2)=0.0
DY(1)=1.651
DY(2)=1.651
CALL PAGE(20.0,22.0)
CALL NEWPLT(0.0,5.0,10.0,0.0,5.0,12.0)
CALL DRAW AX('Normalised Object Distance U',28,0.0,0.0)
CALL DRAW AX('Normalised Image Distance V',27,0.0,90.0)
CALL BRKN CV(AX,AY,2,-1)
CALL BRKN CV(BX,BY,2,-1)
CALL TITLE('H ','C ','QUADRUPOLE PAIR W/V RATIO = 0.25',32)
CALL TITLE('L ','C ','QUADRUPOLE SEPARATION = L/2',27)
DO 10 I=1,10
DO 20 J=1,10
IF(OBJ(I,J).GT.5.0.OR.IMG(I,J).GT.5.0) GOTO 20

```

QPA02520
QPA02530
QPA02540
QPA02550
QPA02560
QPA02570
QPA02580
QPA02590
QPA02600
QPA02610
QPA02620
QPA02630
QPA02640
QPA02650
QPA02660
QPA02670
QPA02680
QPA02690
QPA02700
QPA02710
QPA02720
QPA02730
QPA02740
QPA02750
QPA02760
QPA02770
QPA02780
QPA02790
QPA02800
QPA02810
QPA02820
QPA02830
QPA02840
QPA02850
QPA02860
QPA02870
QPA02880

	IF(OBJ(I,J).LE.0.0.OR.IMG(I,J).LE.0.0) GOTO 20	QPA02890
	CALL JOIN PT(OBJ(I,J),IMG(I,J))	QPA02900
20	CONTINUE	QPA02910
	CALL BREAK	QPA02920
10	CONTINUE	QPA02930
	DO 30 J=1,10	QPA02940
	DO 40 I=1,10	QPA02950
	IF(OBJ(I,J).GT.5.0.OR.IMG(I,J).GT.5.0) GOTO 40	QPA02960
	IF(OBJ(I,J).LE.0.0.OR.IMG(I,J).LE.0.0) GOTO 40	QPA02970
	CALL JOIN PT(OBJ(I,J),IMG(I,J))	QPA02980
40	CONTINUE	QPA02990
	CALL BREAK	QPA03000
30	CONTINUE	QPA03010
C		QPA03020
C	Draw the magnification graph	QPA03030
C		QPA03040
	CALL NEWPLT(-25.0,0.0,10.0,0.8,1.7,12.0)	QPA03050
	CALL DRAW AX('Divergent-Convergent Magnification',34,0.8,0.0)	QPA03060
	CALL DRAW AX(' ',1,0.0,90.0)	QPA03070
	CALL BRKN CV(CX,CY,2,-1)	QPA03080
	CALL BRKN CV(DX,DY,2,-1)	QPA03090
C	CALL TITLE('H ', 'C ', 'QUADRUPOLE PAIR VERTICAL MAGNIFICATION',	QPA03100
C	+ 38)	QPA03110
C	CALL TITLE('L ', 'C ', 'QUADRUPOLE SEPARATION = L/2',27)	QPA03120
	DO 50 J=1,10	QPA03130
	DO 60 I=1,10	QPA03140
	IF(MAG(I,J).LT.-25.0.OR.MAG(I,J).GE.0.0) THEN	QPA03150
	CALL BREAK	QPA03160
	GOTO 60	QPA03170
	END IF	QPA03180
	CALL JOIN PT(MAG(I,J),EXITN(I,J))	QPA03190
60	CONTINUE	QPA03200
	CALL BREAK	QPA03210
50	CONTINUE	QPA03220
	CALL END PLT	QPA03230
	RETURN	QPA03240
	END	QPA03250

```
C
C
C           PROGRAM QTRIP4
C
C           This program calculates the optical properties of a
C           quadrupole quadruplet given a specified object position.
C           By changing the relevant parameters in the code any two lenses
C           can be varied while the other two run at fixed excitation. The
C           normal case is that the central lenses (Q1,Q2) are held fixed
C           while the outer two (Q0,Q3) are varied. The lens configuration
C           (high mag mode or low mag mode) is controlled by the order of
C           the parameters in the call to subroutine QCOMB
C
C           The principle variables are defined as follows-
C
C           Lenth0 Effective length of first quadrupole Q0 (mm)
C           Lenth1 Effective length of second quadrupole Q1 (mm)
C           Lenth2 Effective length of third quadrupole Q2 (mm)
C           Lenth3 Effective length of fourth quadrupole Q3 (mm)
C           Rtqz0-4 Excitation (theta) of respective quadrupole
C           Delqz0 Increment in Q0 excitation
C           Delqz3 Increment in Q3 excitation
C           Nk0 Number of increments in Q0 excitation (<=5)
C           Nk3 Number of increments in Q3 excitation (<=20)
C           D0 Gap between lenses Q0,Q1 (mm)
C           D1 Gap between lenses Q1,Q2 (mm)
C           D2 Gap between lenses Q2,Q3 (mm)
C           U Object position referenced to entrance of Q0 (mm)
C           Y0-Y3 Second order convergent transfer matrix of relevant
C           quadrupole lens.
C           X0-X3 Second order divergent transfer matrix of relevant
C           quadrupole lens.
C           YCD Combined transfer matrix (Q2,Q3) - vertical plane
C           XDC Combined transfer matrix (Q2,Q3) - horizontal plane
C           YCDC Combined transfer matrix (Q1,Q2,Q3) - vertical plane
C           XDCD Combined transfer matrix (Q1,Q2,Q3) - horizontal plane
C           YCDCD Combined transfer matrix (Q0,Q1,Q2,Q3) - vertical
C           XCDCD Combined transfer matrix (Q0,Q1,Q2,Q3) - horizontal
C           TY Total second order transfer matrix - vertical plane
C           TX Total second order transfer matrix - horizontal plane
C           Hastig Calculated image position - vertical plane
C           Dastig Calculated image position - horizontal plane
C           Conmag Vertical plane magnification at focus
C           Divmag Horizontal plane magnification at focus
C
C           IMPLICIT REAL*8(A-H,O-Z)
C           DIMENSION Y0(4,4),X0(4,4),YCDC(4,4),XCDCD(4,4)
C           DIMENSION Y1(4,4),X1(4,4),TY(4,4),TX(4,4)
C           DIMENSION Y2(4,4),X2(4,4),YCD(4,4),XDC(4,4)
C           DIMENSION Y3(4,4),X3(4,4),YCDC(4,4),XCDCD(4,4)
C           DIMENSION TITLE(20)
C           REAL*4 OBJ(20,5,10),HIMAG(20,5,10),DIMAG(20,5,10)
C           REAL*4 CDCMAG(20,5,10),DCDMAG(20,5,10),EXITN(20),Q3EX(10)
C           REAL*8 LENTH0,LENTH1,LENTH2,LENTH3
C
C           Read title of up to 80 characters from unit 1
C           READ(1,1)(TITLE(I),I=1,20)
C
C           Read focussing quadrupole paramaters
C
C           READ(1,2)
C           READ(1,7) LENTH0,RTQZ0,DELQZ0,NK0
C
C           Read first quadrupole parameters from unit 1
C
C           READ(1,2)
C           READ(1,7) LENTH1,RTQZ1,DELQZ1,NK1
C
C           Read another blank line then second quadrupole parameters
C
C           READ(1,2)
C           READ(1,7) LENTH2,RTQZ2,DELQZ2,NK2
```

C	Read another blank line then third quadrupole parameters	QTR00730
C		QTR00740
	READ(1,2)	QTR00750
	READ(1,7) LENTH3,RTQZ3,DELQZ3,NK3	QTR00760
C		QTR00770
C	Read a blank line then first order imaging properties	QTR00780
C		QTR00790
	READ(1,2)	QTR00800
	READ(1,6) U,D0,D1,D2	QTR00810
C		QTR00820
1	FORMAT(20A4)	QTR00830
2	FORMAT(1X)	QTR00840
6	FORMAT(5X,4F10.0)	QTR00850
7	FORMAT(5X,3F10.4,I10)	QTR00860
C		QTR00870
C	Convert from millimetres to metres	QTR00880
C		QTR00890
	LENTH0=LENTH0*0.001	QTR00900
	LENTH1=LENTH1*0.001	QTR00910
	LENTH2=LENTH2*0.001	QTR00920
	LENTH3=LENTH3*0.001	QTR00930
	U=U*0.001	QTR00940
	D0=D0*0.001	QTR00950
	D1=D1*0.001	QTR00960
	D2=D2*0.001	QTR00970
C		QTR00980
C	Write title and headings on unit 2	QTR00990
C		QTR01000
	CALL FHEAD(LENTH0,LENTH1,LENTH2,LENTH3,RTQZ0,RTQZ1,RTQZ2,RTQZ3, U,D0,D1,D2,TITLE)	QTR01010
		QTR01020
C		QTR01030
C	Start looping excitations	QTR01040
C		QTR01050
	DO 1002 L=1,NK1	QTR01060
	DO 1001 N=1,NK0	QTR01070
	DO 1000 I=1,NK3	QTR01080
C		QTR01090
C	Call subroutine to calculate focus quadrupole transfer matrix	QTR01100
C		QTR01110
	CALL QTRANS(LENTH0,RTQZ0,Y0,X0)	QTR01120
C		QTR01130
C	Call subroutine to calculate first quadrupole transfer matrix	QTR01140
C		QTR01150
	CALL QTRANS(LENTH1,RTQZ1,Y1,X1)	QTR01160
C		QTR01170
C	Call subroutine to calculate second quadrupole transfer matrix	QTR01180
C		QTR01190
	CALL QTRANS(LENTH2,RTQZ2,Y2,X2)	QTR01200
C		QTR01210
C	Call subroutine to calculate third quadrupole transfer matrix	QTR01220
C		QTR01230
	CALL QTRANS(LENTH3,RTQZ3,Y3,X3)	QTR01240
C		QTR01250
C	Call subroutine to calculate the Q2/Q3 transfer matrices	QTR01260
C		QTR01270
	CALL QCOMB(X2,Y2,Y3,X3,D2,YCD,XDC)	QTR01280
C		QTR01290
C	Call subroutine to calculate the Q1/Q2/Q3 transfer matrices	QTR01300
C		QTR01310
	CALL QCOMB(Y1,X1,XDC,YCD,D1,YCDC,XDCD)	QTR01320
C		QTR01330
C	Call subroutine to calculate the Q0/Q1/Q2/Q3 transfer matrices	QTR01340
C		QTR01350
	CALL QCOMB(Y0,X0,XDCD,YCDC,D0,YCDC,XDCD)	QTR01360
C		QTR01370
C	Object position is given so calculate non-stigmatic image positions.	QTR01380
C		QTR01390
	CALL ASTIG(YCDC,XDCD,U,DASTIG,HASTIG,CONMAG,DIVMAG)	QTR01400
C		QTR01410
C	Output optical properties	QTR01420
C		QTR01430
C		QTR01440

```

WRITE(2,101) U/LENTH2
WRITE(2,40) CONMAG,HASTIG/LENTH2
WRITE(2,50) DIVMAG,DASTIG/LENTH2

C
C      Set up arrays for graphical output
C
EXITN(I)=SNGL(RTQZ3)
OBJ(I,N,L)=SNGL((U+LENTH0+D0)/LENTH2)
IF(OBJ(I,N,L).GT.5.0.OR.OBJ(I,N,L).LT.0.0) OBJ(I,N,L)=0.0
HIMAG(I,N,L)=SNGL(HASTIG/LENTH2)
DIMAG(I,N,L)=SNGL(DASTIG/LENTH2)
IF(HIMAG(I,N,L).GT.4.0.OR.HIMAG(I,N,L).LT.0.0) HIMAG(I,N,L)=0.0
IF(DIMAG(I,N,L).GT.4.0.OR.DIMAG(I,N,L).LT.-1.) DIMAG(I,N,L)=0.0

C
C      Reference the image positions to the central quadrupole pair
C
IF(HIMAG(I,N,L).NE.0.0) THEN
HIMAG(I,N,L)=SNGL((HASTIG+LENTH3+D2)/LENTH2)
END IF
IF(DIMAG(I,N,L).NE.0.0) THEN
DIMAG(I,N,L)=SNGL((DASTIG+LENTH3+D2)/LENTH2)
END IF
CDCMAG(I,N,L)=SNGL(CONMAG)
DCDMAG(I,N,L)=SNGL(DIVMAG)
IF(CDCMAG(I,N,L).LT.-70.0.OR.CDCMAG(I,N,L).GT.0.0)
+ CDCMAG(I,N,L)=0.0
IF(DCDMAG(I,N,L).LT.-70.0.OR.DCDMAG(I,N,L).GT.0.0)
+ DCDMAG(I,N,L)=0.0
RTQZ3=RTQZ3+DELQZ3
1000 CONTINUE
RTQZ3=RTQZ3-(NK3*DELQZ3)
RTQZ0=RTQZ0+DELQZ0
1001 CONTINUE
RTQZ0=RTQZ0-(NK0*DELQZ0)
Q3EX(L)=SNGL(RTQZ1)
RTQZ0=RTQZ0+DELQZ0
1002 CONTINUE

C
C      Call plotting subroutine
C
IF(NK1.LE.1) THEN
CALL GRAPH1(OBJ,HIMAG,DIMAG,CDCMAG,DCDMAG,EXITN,NK3,NK0)
ELSE
CALL GRAPH2(OBJ,HIMAG,DIMAG,CDCMAG,DCDMAG,Q3EX,NK3)
END IF

C
40 FORMAT(/1X,'CONV-DIV-CONV MAG = ',D10.4,3X,'AT IMAGE',
- ' POSITION = ',D12.6)
50 FORMAT(/1X,'DIV-CONV-DIV MAG = ',D10.4,3X,'AT IMAGE',
- ' POSITION = ',D12.6)
101 FORMAT(/1X,'OBJECT POSITION = ',D10.4,' mm.')
STOP
END

C
C      Subroutine Qtrans
C
C      This subroutine calculates the convergent
C      and divergent transfer matrices.
C
SUBROUTINE QTRANS(LENGTH,ROOTQZ,Y,X)
IMPLICIT REAL*8(A-H,O-Z)
DIMENSION Y(4,4),X(4,4)
REAL*8 LENGTH

C
C      Set up various constants
C
ROOTQ=ROOTQZ/LENGTH
Q=ROOTQ**2
WRITE(2,6) ROOTQZ
6 FORMAT(/1X,'Quadrupole angle theta = ',F8.4,' (Dimensionless)')
C

```

QTR01450
QTR01460
QTR01470
QTR01480
QTR01490
QTR01500
QTR01510
QTR01520
QTR01530
QTR01540
QTR01550
QTR01560
QTR01570
QTR01580
QTR01590
QTR01600
QTR01610
QTR01620
QTR01630
QTR01640
QTR01650
QTR01660
QTR01670
QTR01680
QTR01690
QTR01700
QTR01710
QTR01720
QTR01730
QTR01740
QTR01750
QTR01760
QTR01770
QTR01780
QTR01790
QTR01800
QTR01810
QTR01820
QTR01830
QTR01840
QTR01850
QTR01860
QTR01870
QTR01880
QTR01890
QTR01900
QTR01910
QTR01920
QTR01930
QTR01940
QTR01950
QTR01960
QTR01970
QTR01980
QTR01990
QTR02000
QTR02010
QTR02020
QTR02030
QTR02040
QTR02050
QTR02060
QTR02070
QTR02080
QTR02090
QTR02100
QTR02110
QTR02120
QTR02130
QTR02140
QTR02150
QTR02160

```

C      Initialise Y and X arrays to zero
C
DO 20 I=1,4
DO 10 J=1,4
Y(I,J)=0.0
X(I,J)=0.0
10 CONTINUE
20 CONTINUE
C
C      Calculate first and second order convergent coefficients
C
Y(1,1)=DCOS(ROOTQZ)
Y(2,1)=(1.0/ROOTQ)*DSIN(ROOTQZ)
Y(3,1)=0.5*Q*LENGTH*Y(2,1)
Y(4,1)=0.5*(Y(2,1)-(LENGTH*Y(1,1)))
Y(1,2)=-ROOTQ*DSIN(ROOTQZ)
Y(2,2)=DCOS(ROOTQZ)
Y(3,2)=0.5*Q*((LENGTH*Y(1,1))+Y(2,1))
Y(4,2)=0.5*ROOTQ*DSIN(ROOTQZ)
Y(3,3)=Y(1,1)
Y(4,3)=Y(2,1)
Y(3,4)=Y(1,2)
Y(4,4)=Y(2,2)
C
C      Calculate first and second order divergent coefficients
C
X(1,1)=DCOSH(ROOTQZ)
X(2,1)=(1.0/ROOTQ)*DSINH(ROOTQZ)
X(3,1)=-0.5*ROOTQZ*DSINH(ROOTQZ)
X(4,1)=0.5*(X(2,1)-(LENGTH*X(1,1)))
X(1,2)=ROOTQ*DSINH(ROOTQZ)
X(2,2)=DCOSH(ROOTQZ)
X(3,2)=-0.5*Q*((LENGTH*X(1,1))+X(2,1))
X(4,2)=-0.5*ROOTQZ*DSINH(ROOTQZ)
X(3,3)=X(1,1)
X(4,3)=X(2,1)
X(3,4)=X(1,2)
X(4,4)=X(2,2)
RETURN
END
C
C      Subroutine Qcomb
C
C      This subroutine calculates the combined horizontal
C      and vertical transfer matrices.
C
SUBROUTINE QCOMB(Y1,X1,Y2,X2,D,YCD,XDC)
IMPLICIT REAL*8(A-H,O-Z)
DIMENSION Y1(4,4),X1(4,4),Y2(4,4),X2(4,4),YCD(4,4),XDC(4,4)
C
C      Initialise YCD and XDC arrays to zero
C
DO 10 I=1,4
DO 10 J=1,4
YCD(I,J)=0.0
XDC(I,J)=0.0
10 CONTINUE
C
C      Calculate convergent-divergent transfer matrix
C
YCD(1,1)=Y1(1,1)*X2(1,1)+(Y1(1,2)*(D*X2(1,1)+X2(2,1)))
YCD(2,1)=Y1(2,1)*X2(1,1)+(Y1(2,2)*(D*X2(1,1)+X2(2,1)))
YCD(3,1)=Y1(3,1)*X2(1,1)+(Y1(3,2)*(D*X2(1,1)+X2(2,1)))+
- Y1(3,3)*X2(3,1)+(Y1(3,4)*(D*X2(3,1)+X2(4,1)))
YCD(4,1)=Y1(4,1)*X2(1,1)+(Y1(4,2)*(D*X2(1,1)+X2(2,1)))+
- Y1(4,3)*X2(3,1)+(Y1(4,4)*(D*X2(3,1)+X2(4,1)))
YCD(1,2)=Y1(1,1)*X2(1,2)+(Y1(1,2)*(D*X2(1,2)+X2(2,2)))
YCD(2,2)=Y1(2,1)*X2(1,2)+(Y1(2,2)*(D*X2(1,2)+X2(2,2)))
YCD(3,2)=Y1(3,1)*X2(1,2)+(Y1(3,2)*(D*X2(1,2)+X2(2,2)))+
- Y1(3,3)*X2(3,2)+(Y1(3,4)*(D*X2(3,2)+X2(4,2)))
YCD(4,2)=Y1(4,1)*X2(1,2)+(Y1(4,2)*(D*X2(1,2)+X2(2,2)))+

```

QTR02170
QTR02180
QTR02190
QTR02200
QTR02210
QTR02220
QTR02230
QTR02240
QTR02250
QTR02260
QTR02270
QTR02280
QTR02290
QTR02300
QTR02310
QTR02320
QTR02330
QTR02340
QTR02350
QTR02360
QTR02370
QTR02380
QTR02390
QTR02400
QTR02410
QTR02420
QTR02430
QTR02440
QTR02450
QTR02460
QTR02470
QTR02480
QTR02490
QTR02500
QTR02510
QTR02520
QTR02530
QTR02540
QTR02550
QTR02560
QTR02570
QTR02580
QTR02590
QTR02600
QTR02610
QTR02620
QTR02630
QTR02640
QTR02650
QTR02660
QTR02670
QTR02680
QTR02690
QTR02700
QTR02710
QTR02720
QTR02730
QTR02740
QTR02750
QTR02760
QTR02770
QTR02780
QTR02790
QTR02800
QTR02810
QTR02820
QTR02830
QTR02840
QTR02850
QTR02860
QTR02870
QTR02880

```

TX(4,3) =U*(X(3,3)+(V*X(3,4)))+X(4,3)+(V*X(4,4))
TX(3,4) =X(3,4)
TX(4,4) =(U*X(3,4))+X(4,4)
RETURN
END

```

QTR03610
QTR03620
QTR03630
QTR03640
QTR03650
QTR03660
QTR03670
QTR03680
QTR03690

Subroutine Astig

This subroutine calculates the object plane distances given the image plane distance and the transfer matrices.

QTR03700
QTR03710
QTR03720
QTR03730
QTR03740
QTR03750
QTR03760
QTR03770
QTR03780
QTR03790

```

SUBROUTINE ASTIG(YCDC,XDCD,U,DASTIG,HASTIG,CONMAG,DIVMAG)
IMPLICIT REAL*8 (A-H,O-Z)
DIMENSION YCDC(4,4),XDCD(4,4)
DASTIG=(XDCD(1,1)*U+XDCD(2,1))/(XDCD(1,2)*U+XDCD(2,2))
DIVMAG=XDCD(1,1)+(DASTIG*XDCD(1,2))
HASTIG=(YCDC(1,1)*U+YCDC(2,1))/(YCDC(1,2)*U+YCDC(2,2))
CONMAG=YCDC(1,1)+(HASTIG*YCDC(1,2))
RETURN
END

```

QTR03800
QTR03810
QTR03820
QTR03830
QTR03840
QTR03850
QTR03860
QTR03870
QTR03880
QTR03890

Subroutine Fhead

This subroutine writes out titles and headings on unit 2.

QTR03880
QTR03890
QTR03900
QTR03910
QTR03920
QTR03930
QTR03940
QTR03950
QTR03960
QTR03970
QTR03980
QTR03990

```

SUBROUTINE FHEAD(LENTH0,LENTH1,LENTH2,LENTH3,RTQZ0,RTQZ1,
+ RTQZ2,RTQZ3,U,D0,D1,D2,TITLE)

```

QTR03980
QTR03990
QTR04000
QTR04010
QTR04020
QTR04030
QTR04040
QTR04050
QTR04060
QTR04070
QTR04080
QTR04090

```

IMPLICIT REAL*8 (A-H,O-Z)
DIMENSION TITLE(20)
REAL*8 LENTH0,LENTH1,LENTH2,LENTH3
WRITE(2,5)
WRITE(2,7)(TITLE(I),I=1,20)
WRITE(2,14) LENTH0*1000
WRITE(2,19) RTQZ0
WRITE(2,15) LENTH1*1000
WRITE(2,20) RTQZ1
WRITE(2,16) LENTH2*1000
WRITE(2,21) RTQZ2
WRITE(2,17) LENTH3*1000
WRITE(2,22) RTQZ3
WRITE(2,30) U*1000
WRITE(2,35) D0*1000
WRITE(2,40) D1*1000
WRITE(2,45) D2*1000
RETURN

```

QTR04070
QTR04080
QTR04090
QTR04100
QTR04110
QTR04120
QTR04130
QTR04140
QTR04150
QTR04160
QTR04170
QTR04180
QTR04190
QTR04200
QTR04210
QTR04220
QTR04230
QTR04240
QTR04250
QTR04260
QTR04270
QTR04280
QTR04290
QTR04300
QTR04310
QTR04320

```

5 FORMAT(/1X,'OPTICAL PROPERTIES OF MAGNETIC QUADRUPOLE PAIRS.'//)
7 FORMAT(20A4)

```

QTR04080
QTR04090
QTR04100
QTR04110
QTR04120
QTR04130
QTR04140
QTR04150
QTR04160
QTR04170
QTR04180
QTR04190
QTR04200
QTR04210
QTR04220
QTR04230
QTR04240
QTR04250
QTR04260
QTR04270
QTR04280
QTR04290
QTR04300
QTR04310
QTR04320

```

14 FORMAT(/1X,'LENGTH OF FIRST LENS           = ',F8.2,'mm.')
```

QTR04100

```

15 FORMAT(/1X,'LENGTH OF SECOND LENS          = ',F8.2,'mm.')
```

QTR04110

```

16 FORMAT(/1X,'LENGTH OF THIRD LENS           = ',F8.2,'mm.')
```

QTR04120

```

17 FORMAT(/1X,'LENGTH OF FOURTH LENS          = ',F8.2,'mm.')
```

QTR04130

```

19 FORMAT(/1X,'First quadrupole strength      = ',F8.2)
```

QTR04140

```

20 FORMAT(/1X,'Second quadrupole strength     = ',F8.2)
```

QTR04150

```

21 FORMAT(/1X,'Third quadrupole strength      = ',F8.2)
```

QTR04160

```

22 FORMAT(/1X,'Fourth quadrupole strength     = ',F8.2)
```

QTR04170

```

30 FORMAT(/1X,'OBJECT POSITION = ',F8.2,' mm.')
```

QTR04180

```

35 FORMAT(/1X,'LENS 1-2 SEPARATION = ',F8.2,' mm.')
```

QTR04190

```

40 FORMAT(/1X,'LENS 2-3 SEPARATION = ',F8.2,' mm.')
```

QTR04200

```

45 FORMAT(/1X,'LENS 3-4 SEPARATION = ',F8.2,' mm.')
```

QTR04210

```

END
QTR04220
```

QTR04230
QTR04240
QTR04250
QTR04260
QTR04270
QTR04280
QTR04290
QTR04300
QTR04310
QTR04320

SUBROUTINE GRAPH1

This subroutine plots out the optical properties using the simpleplot library routines

```

SUBROUTINE GRAPH1(OBJ,HIMAG,DIMAG,CDCMAG,DCDMAG,EXITN,NK1,NK2)
REAL*4 OBJ(20,5,10),HIMAG(20,5,10),DIMAG(20,5,10)
REAL*4 CDCMAG(20,5,10),DCDMAG(20,5,10),EXITN(20)

```

QTR04290
QTR04300
QTR04310
QTR04320

```

REAL*4 OBJIM(20,15),COMMAG(20,10)
DO 10 I=1,NK1
OBJIM(I,1)=(OBJ(I,1,1))
OBJIM(I,2)=(HIMAG(I,1,1))
OBJIM(I,3)=(DIMAG(I,1,1))
OBJIM(I,4)=(OBJ(I,2,1))
OBJIM(I,5)=(HIMAG(I,2,1))
OBJIM(I,6)=(DIMAG(I,2,1))
OBJIM(I,7)=(OBJ(I,3,1))
OBJIM(I,8)=(HIMAG(I,3,1))
OBJIM(I,9)=(DIMAG(I,3,1))
OBJIM(I,10)=(OBJ(I,4,1))
OBJIM(I,11)=(HIMAG(I,4,1))
OBJIM(I,12)=(DIMAG(I,4,1))
OBJIM(I,13)=(OBJ(I,5,1))
OBJIM(I,14)=(HIMAG(I,5,1))
OBJIM(I,15)=(DIMAG(I,5,1))
COMMAG(I,1)=(CDCMAG(I,1,1))
COMMAG(I,2)=(DCDMAG(I,1,1))
COMMAG(I,3)=(CDCMAG(I,2,1))
COMMAG(I,4)=(DCDMAG(I,2,1))
COMMAG(I,5)=(CDCMAG(I,3,1))
COMMAG(I,6)=(DCDMAG(I,3,1))
COMMAG(I,7)=(CDCMAG(I,4,1))
COMMAG(I,8)=(DCDMAG(I,4,1))
COMMAG(I,9)=(CDCMAG(I,5,1))
COMMAG(I,10)=(DCDMAG(I,5,1))
10 CONTINUE
OBJIM(1,1)=0.0
CALL PAGE(18.0,22.0)
CALL PACK IN(14.0,20.0)
CALL JBAXES(OBJIM,300,12.0,'Normalised Object and Image Positions'
+           ,37,EXITN,20,8.0,' ',1)
ITEMP1=1
ITEMP2=2
ITEMP3=3
DO 21 K=1,NK2*3
IF((K-ITEMP1).EQ.0) LINE=3
IF((K-ITEMP2).EQ.0) LINE=2
IF((K-ITEMP3).EQ.0) THEN
LINE=0
ITEMP1=ITEMP1+3
ITEMP2=ITEMP2+3
ITEMP3=ITEMP3+3
ELSE
GOTO 19
END IF
19 DO 20 L=1,NK1
IF(ABS(OBJIM(L,K)).GT.0.0) THEN
CALL JOIN PT(OBJIM(L,K),EXITN(L))
CALL MARK PT(OBJIM(L,K),EXITN(L),LINE)
END IF
20 CONTINUE
CALL BREAK
21 CONTINUE
CALL SET KY('T ','R ',3,12)
CALL MARK KY(3,'OBJECT POSN ',13)
CALL MARK KY(2,'V IMAGE POSN ',13)
CALL MARK KY(0,'W IMAGE POSN ',13)
CALL JBAXES(COMMAG,200,12.0,'Magnification',13,
+           EXITN,20,8.0,' ',2)
DO 31 M=1,NK2*2
TEMP=M/2.0
TEMP=TEMP-INT(TEMP)
IF(ABS(TEMP).GT.0.001) THEN
LINE=2
ELSE
LINE=0
END IF
DO 30 N=1,NK1
IF(COMMAG(N,M).LT.0.0) THEN
CALL JOIN PT(COMMAG(N,M),EXITN(N))

```

```

QTR04330
QTR04340
QTR04350
QTR04360
QTR04370
QTR04380
QTR04390
QTR04400
QTR04410
QTR04420
QTR04430
QTR04440
QTR04450
QTR04460
QTR04470
QTR04480
QTR04490
QTR04500
QTR04510
QTR04520
QTR04530
QTR04540
QTR04550
QTR04560
QTR04570
QTR04580
QTR04590
QTR04600
QTR04610
QTR04620
QTR04630
QTR04640
QTR04650
QTR04660
QTR04670
QTR04680
QTR04690
QTR04700
QTR04710
QTR04720
QTR04730
QTR04740
QTR04750
QTR04760
QTR04770
QTR04780
QTR04790
QTR04800
QTR04810
QTR04820
QTR04830
QTR04840
QTR04850
QTR04860
QTR04870
QTR04880
QTR04890
QTR04900
QTR04910
QTR04920
QTR04930
QTR04940
QTR04950
QTR04960
QTR04970
QTR04980
QTR04990
QTR05000
QTR05010
QTR05020
QTR05030
QTR05040

```

	CALL MARK PT(COMMAG(N,M),EXITN(N),LINE)	QTR05050
	END IF	QTR05060
30	CONTINUE	QTR05070
	CALL BREAK	QTR05080
31	CONTINUE	QTR05090
	CALL SET KY('T ','L ',2,8)	QTR05100
	CALL MARK KY(2,'DCDC MAG ',9)	QTR05110
	CALL MARK KY(0,'DCDC MAG ',9)	QTR05120
	CALL END PLT	QTR05130
	STOP	QTR05140
	END	QTR05150
C		QTR05160
C		QTR05170
C	SUBROUTINE GRAPH2	QTR05180
C		QTR05190
C	This subroutine does the plotting if q3	QTR05200
C	is the quadrupole which is varied while	QTR05210
C	q1 and q2 are held constant.	QTR05220
C		QTR05230
	SUBROUTINE GRAPH2(OBJ,HIMAG,DIMAG,CDCMAG,DCDMAG,Q3EX,NK3)	QTR05240
	REAL*4 OBJ(20,5,10),HIMAG(20,5,10),DIMAG(20,5,10)	QTR05250
	REAL*4 CDCMAG(20,5,10),DCDMAG(20,5,10),Q3EX(10)	QTR05260
	REAL*4 OBJIM(10,3),COMMAG(10,2)	QTR05270
	DO 10 I=1,10	QTR05280
	OBJIM(I,1)=OBJ(1,1,I)	QTR05290
	OBJIM(I,2)=HIMAG(1,1,I)	QTR05300
	OBJIM(I,3)=DIMAG(1,1,I)	QTR05310
	COMMAG(I,1)=CDCMAG(1,1,I)	QTR05320
	COMMAG(I,2)=DCDMAG(1,1,I)	QTR05330
10	CONTINUE	QTR05340
	CALL PAGE(25.0,25.0)	QTR05350
	CALL PACK IN(14.0,22.0)	QTR05360
	CALL JBAXES(OBJIM,30,15.0,'M',1,Q3EX,10,10.0,' ',1)	QTR05370
	DO 20 K=1,3	QTR05380
	DO 20 L=1,NK3	QTR05390
	LINE=K	QTR05400
20	CALL MARK PT(OBJIM(L,K),Q3EX(L),LINE)	QTR05410
	CALL SET KY('B ','L ',3,12)	QTR05420
	CALL MARK KY(1,' OBJECT POSN',12)	QTR05430
	CALL MARK KY(2,' HIMAGE POSN',12)	QTR05440
	CALL MARK KY(3,' DIMAGE POSN',12)	QTR05450
	CALL TITLE('T ','L ','QUADRUPOLE TRIPLET OPTICS',25)	QTR05460
	CALL JBAXES(COMMAG,20,15.0,'MAG',3,Q3EX,10,10.0,'K3',2)	QTR05470
	DO 30 M=1,2	QTR05480
	DO 30 N=1,NK3	QTR05490
	LINE=M	QTR05500
30	CALL MARK PT(COMMAG(N,M),Q3EX(N),LINE)	QTR05510
	CALL SET KY('B ','L ',2,8)	QTR05520
	CALL MARK KY(1,' CDC MAG',8)	QTR05530
	CALL MARK KY(2,' DCD MAG',8)	QTR05540
	CALL TITLE('T ','L ','QUADRUPOLE TRIPLET OPTICS',25)	QTR05550
	CALL END PLT	QTR05560
	STOP	QTR05570
	END	QTR05580


```

C
C
C PROGRAM QQUAD
C
C This program calculates the required excitations of the
C Q0 and Q3 quadrupole lenses in a quadruplet to give a fixed
C object and vertical image position, assuming that Q1 and Q2
C are held constant. The lens configuration is controlled
C by the order of parameters in the call to subroutine QCOMB.
C Also changing from say high mag to low mag mode requires
C adjustment of the sign of the lens increments - the correct
C sense can be obtained by running QTRIP4 for the same optical
C configuration.
C
C The principle variables are defined as follows-
C
C Lenth0 Effective length of first quadrupole Q0 (mm)
C Lenth1 Effective length of second quadrupole Q1 (mm)
C Lenth2 Effective length of third quadrupole Q2 (mm)
C Lenth3 Effective length of fourth quadrupole Q3 (mm)
C Rtqz0-4 Excitation (theta) of respective quadrupole
C Delqz0 Increment in Q0 excitation
C Delqz3 Increment in Q3 excitation
C Nk3 Number of increments in Q3 excitation (<=20)
C D0 Gap between lenses Q0,Q1 (mm)
C D1 Gap between lenses Q1,Q2 (mm)
C D2 Gap between lenses Q2,Q3 (mm)
C U Required object position ref. to entrance of Q0 (mm)
C V Required vertical image position referenced to the
C exit of Q3 - normalised to length of Q1 (LENTH2)
C Y0-Y3 Second order convergent transfer matrix of relevant
C quadrupole lens.
C X0-X3 Second order divergent transfer matrix of relevant
C quadrupole lens.
C YCD Combined transfer matrix (Q2,Q3) - vertical plane
C XDC Combined transfer matrix (Q2,Q3) - horizontal plane
C YCDC Combined transfer matrix (Q1,Q2,Q3) - vertical plane
C XDCD Combined transfer matrix (Q1,Q2,Q3) - horizontal plane
C YCDCD Combined transfer matrix (Q0,Q1,Q2,Q3) - vertical
C XDCDC Combined transfer matrix (Q0,Q1,Q2,Q3) - horizontal
C TY Total second order transfer matrix - vertical plane
C TX Total second order transfer matrix - horizontal plane
C Hastig Calculated image position - vertical plane
C Dastig Calculated image position - horizontal plane
C Conmag Vertical plane magnification at focus
C Divmag Horizontal plane magnification at focus
C
C IMPLICIT REAL*8(A-H,O-Z)
C DIMENSION Y0(4,4),X0(4,4),YCDC(4,4),XCDCD(4,4)
C DIMENSION Y1(4,4),X1(4,4),TY(4,4),TX(4,4)
C DIMENSION Y2(4,4),X2(4,4),YCD(4,4),XDC(4,4)
C DIMENSION Y3(4,4),X3(4,4),YCDC(4,4),XCDCD(4,4)
C DIMENSION TITLE(20)
C REAL*4 CDCMAG(40),DCDMAG(40),Q0EX(40),Q3EX(40)
C REAL*8 LENTH0,LENTH1,LENTH2,LENTH3
C
C Read title of up to 80 characters from unit 1
C READ(1,1)(TITLE(I),I=1,20)
C
C Read focussing quadrupole parameters
C
C READ(1,2)
C READ(1,7) LENTH0,RTQZ0,DELQZ0
C
C Read first quadrupole parameters from unit 1
C
C READ(1,2)
C READ(1,5) LENTH1,RTQZ1
C
C Read another blank line then second quadrupole parameters
C
C READ(1,2)
C READ(1,5) LENTH2,RTQZ2

```

```

QQU00010
QQU00020
QQU00030
QQU00040
QQU00050
QQU00060
QQU00070
QQU00080
QQU00090
QQU00100
QQU00110
QQU00120
QQU00130
QQU00140
QQU00150
QQU00160
QQU00170
QQU00180
QQU00190
QQU00200
QQU00210
QQU00220
QQU00230
QQU00240
QQU00250
QQU00260
QQU00270
QQU00280
QQU00290
QQU00300
QQU00310
QQU00320
QQU00330
QQU00340
QQU00350
QQU00360
QQU00370
QQU00380
QQU00390
QQU00400
QQU00410
QQU00420
QQU00430
QQU00440
QQU00450
QQU00460
QQU00470
QQU00480
QQU00490
QQU00500
QQU00510
QQU00520
QQU00530
QQU00540
QQU00550
QQU00560
QQU00570
QQU00580
QQU00590
QQU00600
QQU00610
QQU00620
QQU00630
QQU00640
QQU00650
QQU00660
QQU00670
QQU00680
QQU00690
QQU00700
QQU00710
QQU00720

```

C		QQU00730
C	Read another blank line then third quadrupole parameters	QQU00740
C		QQU00750
	READ(1,2)	QQU00760
	READ(1,8) LENTH3,RTQZ3,DELQZ3,NK3	QQU00770
C		QQU00780
C	Read a blank line then first order imaging properties	QQU00790
C		QQU00800
	READ(1,2)	QQU00810
	READ(1,6) U,V,D0,D1,D2	QQU00820
C		QQU00830
1	FORMAT(20A4)	QQU00840
2	FORMAT(1X)	QQU00850
5	FORMAT(5X,2F10.0)	QQU00860
6	FORMAT(5X,5F10.0)	QQU00870
7	FORMAT(5X,3F10.0)	QQU00880
8	FORMAT(5X,3F10.0,I10)	QQU00890
C		QQU00900
C	Convert from millimetres to metres	QQU00910
C		QQU00920
	LENTH0=LENTH0*0.001	QQU00930
	LENTH1=LENTH1*0.001	QQU00940
	LENTH2=LENTH2*0.001	QQU00950
	LENTH3=LENTH3*0.001	QQU00960
	U=U*0.001	QQU00970
	D0=D0*0.001	QQU00980
	D1=D1*0.001	QQU00990
	D2=D2*0.001	QQU01000
C		QQU01010
C	Write title and headings on unit 2	QQU01020
C		QQU01030
	CALL FHEAD(LENTH0,LENTH1,LENTH2,LENTH3,RTQZ0,RTQZ1,RTQZ2,RTQZ3,	QQU01040
-	U,V,D0,D1,D2,TITLE)	QQU01050
C		QQU01060
C	Call subroutine to calculate first quadrupole transfer matrix	QQU01070
C		QQU01080
	CALL QTRANS(LENTH1,RTQZ1,Y1,X1)	QQU01090
C		QQU01100
C	Call subroutine to calculate second quadrupole transfer matrix	QQU01110
C		QQU01120
	CALL QTRANS(LENTH2,RTQZ2,Y2,X2)	QQU01130
	ICOUNT=0	QQU01140
C		QQU01150
C	Start looping excitations - if the correct excitation of Q0	QQU01160
C	is beyond 2000xDELQZ0 then the calculation stops and the next	QQU01170
C	value of RTQZ3 is examined.	QQU01180
C		QQU01190
	DO 1000 I=1,NK3	QQU01200
C		QQU01210
10	IF(ICOUNT.GT.2000) THEN	QQU01220
	Q3EX(I)=RTQZ3	QQU01230
	Q0EX(I)=RTQZ0	QQU01240
	WRITE(2,89)	QQU01250
	GOTO 995	QQU01260
	END IF	QQU01270
C		QQU01280
C	Call subroutine to calculate focus quadrupole transfer matrix	QQU01290
C		QQU01300
	CALL QTRANS(LENTH0,RTQZ0,Y0,X0)	QQU01310
C		QQU01320
C	Call subroutine to calculate third quadrupole transfer matrix	QQU01330
C		QQU01340
	CALL QTRANS(LENTH3,RTQZ3,Y3,X3)	QQU01350
C		QQU01360
C	Call subroutine to calculate the Q2/Q3 transfer matrices	QQU01370
C		QQU01380
	CALL QCOMB(X2,Y2,Y3,X3,D2,YCD,XDC)	QQU01390
C		QQU01400
C	Call subroutine to calculate the Q1/Q2/Q3 transfer matrices	QQU01410
C		QQU01420
	CALL QCOMB(Y1,X1,XDC,YCD,D1,YCDC,XDCD)	QQU01430
C		QQU01440

```

C      Call subroutine to calculate the Q0/Q1/Q2/Q3 transfer matrices QQU01450
C      CALL QCOMB(Y0,X0,XDCD,YCDC,D0,YCDC,XDCD) QQU01460
C      QQU01470
C      Object position is given so calculate non-stigmatic QQU01480
C      image positions. QQU01490
C      QQU01500
C      QQU01510
C      CALL ASTIG(YCDC,XDCD,U,DASTIG,HASTIG,CONMAG,DIVMAG) QQU01520
C      QQU01530
C      Check to see if the vertical image position is within QQU01540
C      a given range of the required position. If it is then QQU01550
C      store the results else increment Q0 exitation approp- QQU01560
C      riately. QQU01570
C      QQU01580
C      TEMP=(HASTIG/LENTH2)-V QQU01590
C      IF(DABS(TEMP).LE.0.005) GOTO 990 QQU01600
C      IF(TEMP.GT.0.005.OR.RTQZ0.LE.0.0) THEN QQU01610
C      RTQZ0=RTQZ0+DELQZ0 QQU01620
C      ICOUNT=ICOUNT+1 QQU01630
C      END IF QQU01640
C      IF(TEMP.LT.-0.005.AND.RTQZ0.GT.0.0) THEN QQU01650
C      RTQZ0=RTQZ0-DELQZ0 QQU01660
C      ICOUNT=ICOUNT+1 QQU01670
C      END IF QQU01680
C      GOTO 10 QQU01690
C      QQU01700
C      Vertical image correct - output optical properties QQU01710
C      QQU01720
C      990 Q3EX(I)=SNGL(RTQZ3) QQU01730
C      Q0EX(I)=SNGL(RTQZ0) QQU01740
C      995 WRITE(2,60) RTQZ0,RTQZ3 QQU01750
C      WRITE(2,101) U/LENTH2 QQU01760
C      WRITE(2,40) CONMAG,HASTIG/LENTH2 QQU01770
C      WRITE(2,50) DIVMAG,DASTIG/LENTH2 QQU01780
C      QQU01790
C      Set up arrays for graphical output QQU01800
C      QQU01810
C      CDCMAG(I)=SNGL(CONMAG) QQU01820
C      DCDMAG(I)=SNGL(DIVMAG) QQU01830
C      IF(CDCMAG(I).LT.-100.0.OR.CDCMAG(I).GT.0.0) QQU01840
C      + CDCMAG(I)=0.0 QQU01850
C      IF(DCDMAG(I).LT.-100.0.OR.DCDMAG(I).GT.0.0) QQU01860
C      + DCDMAG(I)=0.0 QQU01870
C      RTQZ3=RTQZ3+DELQZ3 QQU01880
C      ICOUNT=0 QQU01890
C      1000 CONTINUE QQU01900
C      QQU01910
C      Call plotting subroutine QQU01920
C      QQU01930
C      CALL GRAPH(Q3EX,Q0EX,CDCMAG,DCDMAG,NK3) QQU01940
C      QQU01950
C      40 FORMAT(/1X,'CONV-DIV-CONV MAG = ',F10.5,3X,'AT IMAGE', QQU01960
C      - ' POSITION = ',F10.5,' mm. ') QQU01970
C      50 FORMAT(/1X,'DIV-CONV-DIV MAG = ',F10.5,3X,'AT IMAGE', QQU01980
C      - ' POSITION = ',F10.5,' mm. ') QQU01990
C      60 FORMAT(/1X,'RTQZ0=',F10.5,2X,'RTQZ3=',F10.5) QQU02000
C      69 FORMAT(/1X,'Q0 EXITATION NOT CONVERGED TO OBJECT POSITION') QQU02010
C      101 FORMAT(/1X,'OBJECT POSITION = ',F10.5,' mm. ') QQU02020
C      STOP QQU02030
C      END QQU02040
C      QQU02050
C      QQU02060
C      Subroutine Qtrans QQU02070
C      QQU02080
C      This subroutine calculates the convergent QQU02090
C      and divergent transfer matrices. QQU02100
C      QQU02110
C      SUBROUTINE QTRANS(LENGTH,ROOTQZ,Y,X) QQU02120
C      IMPLICIT REAL*8(A-H,O-Z) QQU02130
C      DIMENSION Y(4,4),X(4,4) QQU02140
C      REAL*8 LENGTH QQU02150
C      QQU02160

```

Appendix 4

Quadrupole Analysis Programs

Listings of programs QPAIR, QTRIP4 and QQUAD are given along with example data files. Again the programs are self-contained except for the plotting routines which use the SIMPLEPLOT library. QTRIP4 and QQUAD are set up to analyse the 'high mag mode' described in chapter 5. 'Low mag' or any other configuration can be simulated by making the appropriate changes in the order of the parameters in the calls to subroutine QCOMB. Changing the configuration will also affect the iteration procedure in QQUAD, and lines 161 and 165 may have to be altered - the correct sense can be determined from the output of QTRIP4.

PROGRAM QPAIR

This program computes the universal curves and magnifications of quadrupole pairs over a given range of lens excitations

The principle variables are defined as follows-

Lenth1 - Effective length of first quadrupole Q1
 Lenth2 - Effective length of second quadrupole Q2
 Rtqz1 - Excitation (theta1) of first quadrupole Q1
 Rtqz2 - Excitation (theta2) of second quadrupole Q2
 Delqz1 - Increment in Q1 excitation
 Delqz2 - Increment in Q2 excitation
 Nk1 - Number of increments in Q1 excitation (≤ 10)
 Nk2 - Number of increments in Q2 excitation (≤ 10)
 Ratio - Ratio of image positions (W/V)
 D - Gap between lenses (mm)
 Y1 - First order convergent transfer matrix Q1
 Y2 - First order convergent transfer matrix Q2
 YCD - Combined transfer matrix - vertical plane
 XDC - Combined transfer matrix - horizontal plane
 TY - Total transfer matrix - vertical plane
 TX - Total transfer matrix - horizontal plane
 Ustig - Calculated object position giving desired ratio of image positions
 Vstig - Calculated image position - vertical plane
 Wstig - Calculated image position - horizontal plane
 Conmag - Vertical plane magnification at focus
 Divmag - Horizontal plane magnification at focus

IMPLICIT REAL*8(A-H,O-Z)

REAL*4 OBJ(10,10),IMG(10,10),MAG(10,10),EXITN(10,10)

DIMENSION Y1(2,2),X1(2,2),TY(2,2),TX(2,2)

DIMENSION Y2(2,2),X2(2,2),YCD(2,2),XDC(2,2)

DIMENSION TITLE(20)

REAL*8 LENTH1,LENTH2

Read title of up to 80 characters from unit 1
 READ(1,1)(TITLE(I),I=1,20)

Read a blank line from unit 1
 READ(1,2)

Read first quadrupole parameters from unit 1
 READ(1,7) LENTH1,RTQZ1,DELQZ1,NK1

Read another blank line then second quadrupole parameters
 READ(1,2)
 READ(1,7) LENTH2,RTQZ2,DELQZ2,NK2

Read a blank line then first order imaging properties
 READ(1,2)
 READ(1,6) RATIO,D

FORMAT(20A4)
 FORMAT(1X)
 FORMAT(5X,2F10.4)
 FORMAT(5X,3F10.4,I10)

Convert from millimetres to metres

D=D*0.001
 LENTH1=LENTH1*0.001
 LENTH2=LENTH2*0.001

Write title and headings on unit 2

QPA00010
 QPA00020
 QPA00030
 QPA00040
 QPA00050
 QPA00060
 QPA00070
 QPA00080
 QPA00090
 QPA00100
 QPA00110
 QPA00120
 QPA00130
 QPA00140
 QPA00150
 QPA00160
 QPA00170
 QPA00180
 QPA00190
 QPA00200
 QPA00210
 QPA00220
 QPA00230
 QPA00240
 QPA00250
 QPA00260
 QPA00270
 QPA00280
 QPA00290
 QPA00300
 QPA00310
 QPA00320
 QPA00330
 QPA00340
 QPA00350
 QPA00360
 QPA00370
 QPA00380
 QPA00390
 QPA00400
 QPA00410
 QPA00420
 QPA00430
 QPA00440
 QPA00450
 QPA00460
 QPA00470
 QPA00480
 QPA00490
 QPA00500
 QPA00510
 QPA00520
 QPA00530
 QPA00540
 QPA00550
 QPA00560
 QPA00570
 QPA00580
 QPA00590
 QPA00600
 QPA00610
 QPA00620
 QPA00630
 QPA00640
 QPA00650
 QPA00660
 QPA00670
 QPA00680
 QPA00690
 QPA00700
 QPA00710
 QPA00720


```

101  FORMAT(/1X,'CORRECT OBJECT POSITION FOR REQUIRED IMAGE RATIO = ', QPA01450
-      D12.6) QPA01460
110  FORMAT(/1X,'ERROR IN CALCULATION OF ASTIGMATIC OBJECT DISTANCE.') QPA01470
120  STOP QPA01480
     END QPA01490
C QPA01500
C QPA01510
C      Subroutine Qtrans QPA01520
C QPA01530
C      This subroutine calculates the first order QPA01540
C      convergent and divergent transfer matrices. QPA01550
C QPA01560
C SUBROUTINE QTRANS(LENGTH,ROOTQZ,Y,X) QPA01570
C IMPLICIT REAL*8(A-H,O-Z) QPA01580
C DIMENSION Y(2,2),X(2,2) QPA01590
C REAL*8 LENGTH QPA01600
C ROOTQ=ROOTQZ/LENGTH QPA01610
C WRITE(2,6) ROOTQZ QPA01620
6  FORMAT(/1X,'Quadrupole angle theta = ',F8.4,' (Dimensionless)') QPA01630
C QPA01640
C      Initialise Y and X arrays to zero QPA01650
C QPA01660
C DO 20 I=1,2 QPA01670
C DO 10 J=1,2 QPA01680
C Y(I,J)=0.0 QPA01690
C X(I,J)=0.0 QPA01700
10  CONTINUE QPA01710
20  CONTINUE QPA01720
C QPA01730
C      Calculate first order convergent coefficients QPA01740
C QPA01750
C Y(1,1)=DCOS(ROOTQZ) QPA01760
C Y(2,1)=(1.0/ROOTQ)*DSIN(ROOTQZ) QPA01770
C Y(1,2)=-ROOTQ*DSIN(ROOTQZ) QPA01780
C Y(2,2)=DCOS(ROOTQZ) QPA01790
C QPA01800
C      Calculate first order divergent coefficients QPA01810
C QPA01820
C X(1,1)=DCOSH(ROOTQZ) QPA01830
C X(2,1)=(1.0/ROOTQ)*DSINH(ROOTQZ) QPA01840
C X(1,2)=ROOTQ*DSINH(ROOTQZ) QPA01850
C X(2,2)=DCOSH(ROOTQZ) QPA01860
C RETURN QPA01870
C END QPA01880
C QPA01890
C QPA01900
C      Subroutine Qcomb QPA01910
C QPA01920
C      This subroutine calculates the combined horizontal QPA01930
C      and vertical transfer matrices. QPA01940
C QPA01950
C SUBROUTINE QCOMB(Y1,X1,Y2,X2,D,YCD,XDC) QPA01960
C IMPLICIT REAL*8(A-H,O-Z) QPA01970
C DIMENSION Y1(2,2),X1(2,2),Y2(2,2),X2(2,2),YCD(2,2),XDC(2,2) QPA01980
C QPA01990
C      Initialise YCD and XDC arrays to zero QPA02000
C QPA02010
C DO 10 I=1,2 QPA02020
C DO 10 J=1,2 QPA02030
C YCD(I,J)=0.0 QPA02040
C XDC(I,J)=0.0 QPA02050
10  CONTINUE QPA02060
C QPA02070
C      Calculate convergent-divergent transfer matrix QPA02080
C QPA02090
C YCD(1,1)=Y1(1,1)*X2(1,1)+(Y1(1,2)*(D*X2(1,1)+X2(2,1))) QPA02100
C YCD(2,1)=Y1(2,1)*X2(1,1)+(Y1(2,2)*(D*X2(1,1)+X2(2,1))) QPA02110
C YCD(1,2)=Y1(1,1)*X2(1,2)+(Y1(1,2)*(D*X2(1,2)+X2(2,2))) QPA02120
C YCD(2,2)=Y1(2,1)*X2(1,2)+(Y1(2,2)*(D*X2(1,2)+X2(2,2))) QPA02130
C QPA02140
C      Calculate divergent-convergent matrix QPA02150
C QPA02160

```

```

XDC(1,1)=X1(1,1)*Y2(1,1)+(X1(1,2)*(D*Y2(1,1)+Y2(2,1)))
XDC(2,1)=X1(2,1)*Y2(1,1)+(X1(2,2)*(D*Y2(1,1)+Y2(2,1)))
XDC(1,2)=X1(1,1)*Y2(1,2)+(X1(1,2)*(D*Y2(1,2)+Y2(2,2)))
XDC(2,2)=X1(2,1)*Y2(1,2)+(X1(2,2)*(D*Y2(1,2)+Y2(2,2)))
RETURN
END

```

QPA02170
QPA02180
QPA02190
QPA02200
QPA02210
QPA02220
QPA02230
QPA02240
QPA02250
QPA02260
QPA02270
QPA02280
QPA02290
QPA02300
QPA02310
QPA02320
QPA02330
QPA02340
QPA02350
QPA02360
QPA02370
QPA02380
QPA02390
QPA02400
QPA02410
QPA02420

Subroutine Fhead

This subroutine writes out titles and headings on unit 2.

```

SUBROUTINE FHEAD(LENTH1,LENTH2,RTQZ1,RTQZ2,U,RATIO,D,TITL)
IMPLICIT REAL*8(A-H,O-Z)
DIMENSION TITL(20)
REAL*8 LENTH1,LENTH2
WRITE(2,5)
WRITE(2,7)(TITL(I),I=1,20)
WRITE(2,15) LENTH1*1000
WRITE(2,16) LENTH2*1000
WRITE(2,20) RTQZ1
WRITE(2,21) RTQZ2
WRITE(2,30) U*1000
WRITE(2,35) RATIO
WRITE(2,40) D*1000
RETURN
5 FORMAT(//1X,'OPTICAL PROPERTIES OF MAGNETIC QUADRUPOLE PAIRS.'//)
7 FORMAT(20A4)
15 FORMAT(/1X,'LENGTH OF FIRST LENS           = ',F8.2,' mm. ')
16 FORMAT(/1X,'LENGTH OF SECOND LENS          = ',F8.2,' mm. ')
20 FORMAT(/1X,'QUADRUPOLE1 ANGLE THETA        = ',F8.2)
21 FORMAT(/1X,'QUADRUPOLE2 ANGLE THETA        = ',F8.2)
30 FORMAT(/1X,'OBJECT POSITION = ',F8.2,' mm. ')
35 FORMAT(/1X,'RATIO OF HORIZONTAL-VERTICAL IMAGE POSITIONS= ',F8.2)
40 FORMAT(/1X,'LENS SEPARATION = ',F8.2,' mm.'//)
END

```

QPA02270
QPA02280
QPA02290
QPA02300
QPA02310
QPA02320
QPA02330
QPA02340
QPA02350
QPA02360
QPA02370
QPA02380
QPA02390
QPA02400
QPA02410
QPA02420
QPA02430
QPA02440
QPA02450
QPA02460
QPA02470
QPA02480
QPA02490
QPA02500
QPA02510
QPA02520
QPA02530
QPA02540
QPA02550
QPA02560
QPA02570
QPA02580
QPA02590
QPA02600
QPA02610
QPA02620
QPA02630
QPA02640
QPA02650
QPA02660
QPA02670
QPA02680
QPA02690
QPA02700
QPA02710
QPA02720
QPA02730
QPA02740
QPA02750
QPA02760
QPA02770
QPA02780
QPA02790
QPA02800
QPA02810
QPA02820
QPA02830
QPA02840
QPA02850
QPA02860
QPA02870
QPA02880

Subroutine Graph

This subroutine does the plotting

```

SUBROUTINE GRAPH(OBJ,IMG,MAG,EXITN)
REAL*4 OBJ(10,10),IMG(10,10),MAG(10,10),EXITN(10,10)
REAL*4 AX(2),AY(2),BX(2),BY(2),CX(2),CY(2),DX(2),DY(2)
AX(1)=1.00
AX(2)=1.00
AY(1)=0.0
AY(2)=5.0
BX(1)=0.0
BX(2)=4.0
BY(1)=1.0
BY(2)=1.0
CX(1)=-11.05
CX(2)=-11.05
CY(1)=0.80
CY(2)=1.651
DX(1)=-11.05
DX(2)=0.0
DY(1)=1.651
DY(2)=1.651
CALL PAGE(20.0,22.0)
CALL NEWPLT(0.0,5.0,10.0,0.0,5.0,12.0)
CALL DRAW AX('Normalised Object Distance U',28,0.0,0.0)
CALL DRAW AX('Normalised Image Distance V',27,0.0,90.0)
CALL BRKN CV(AX,AY,2,-1)
CALL BRKN CV(BX,BY,2,-1)
CALL TITLE('H  ', 'C  ', 'QUADRUPOLE PAIR W/V RATIO = 0.25',32)
CALL TITLE('L  ', 'C  ', 'QUADRUPOLE SEPARATION = L/2',27)
DO 10 I=1,10
DO 20 J=1,10
IF(OBJ(I,J).GT.5.0.OR.IMG(I,J).GT.5.0) GOTO 20

```

QPA02520
QPA02530
QPA02540
QPA02550
QPA02560
QPA02570
QPA02580
QPA02590
QPA02600
QPA02610
QPA02620
QPA02630
QPA02640
QPA02650
QPA02660
QPA02670
QPA02680
QPA02690
QPA02700
QPA02710
QPA02720
QPA02730
QPA02740
QPA02750
QPA02760
QPA02770
QPA02780
QPA02790
QPA02800
QPA02810
QPA02820
QPA02830
QPA02840
QPA02850
QPA02860
QPA02870
QPA02880

	IF(OBJ(I,J).LE.0.0.OR.IMG(I,J).LE.0.0) GOTO 20	QPA02890
	CALL JOIN PT(OBJ(I,J),IMG(I,J))	QPA02900
20	CONTINUE	QPA02910
	CALL BREAK	QPA02920
10	CONTINUE	QPA02930
	DO 30 J=1,10	QPA02940
	DO 40 I=1,10	QPA02950
	IF(OBJ(I,J).GT.5.0.OR.IMG(I,J).GT.5.0) GOTO 40	QPA02960
	IF(OBJ(I,J).LE.0.0.OR.IMG(I,J).LE.0.0) GOTO 40	QPA02970
	CALL JOIN PT(OBJ(I,J),IMG(I,J))	QPA02980
40	CONTINUE	QPA02990
	CALL BREAK	QPA03000
30	CONTINUE	QPA03010
C		QPA03020
C	Draw the magnification graph	QPA03030
C		QPA03040
	CALL NEWPLT(-25.0,0.0,10.0,0.8,1.7,12.0)	QPA03050
	CALL DRAW AX('Divergent-Convergent Magnification',34,0.8,0.0)	QPA03060
	CALL DRAW AX(' ',1,0.0,90.0)	QPA03070
	CALL BRKN CV(CX,CY,2,-1)	QPA03080
	CALL BRKN CV(DX,DY,2,-1)	QPA03090
C	CALL TITLE('H ', 'C ', 'QUADRUPOLE PAIR VERTICAL MAGNIFICATION',	QPA03100
C	+ 38)	QPA03110
C	CALL TITLE('L ', 'C ', 'QUADRUPOLE SEPARATION = L/2',27)	QPA03120
	DO 50 J=1,10	QPA03130
	DO 60 I=1,10	QPA03140
	IF(MAG(I,J).LT.-25.0.OR.MAG(I,J).GE.0.0) THEN	QPA03150
	CALL BREAK	QPA03160
	GOTO 60	QPA03170
	END IF	QPA03180
	CALL JOIN PT(MAG(I,J),EXITN(I,J))	QPA03190
60	CONTINUE	QPA03200
	CALL BREAK	QPA03210
50	CONTINUE	QPA03220
	CALL END PLT	QPA03230
	RETURN	QPA03240
	END	QPA03250

PROGRAM QTRIP4

This program calculates the optical properties of a quadrupole quadruplet given a specified object position. By changing the relevant parameters in the code any two lenses can be varied while the other two run at fixed excitation. The normal case is that the central lenses (Q1,Q2) are held fixed while the outer two (Q0,Q3) are varied. The lens configuration (high mag mode or low mag mode) is controlled by the order of the parameters in the call to subroutine QCOMB

The principle variables are defined as follows-

Lenth0	Effective length of first quadrupole Q0 (mm)	QTR00150
Lenth1	Effective length of second quadrupole Q1 (mm)	QTR00160
Lenth2	Effective length of third quadrupole Q2 (mm)	QTR00170
Lenth3	Effective length of fourth quadrupole Q3 (mm)	QTR00180
Rtqz0-4	Excitation (theta) of respective quadrupole	QTR00190
Delqz0	Increment in Q0 excitation	QTR00200
Delqz3	Increment in Q3 excitation	QTR00210
Nk0	Number of increments in Q0 excitation (<=5)	QTR00220
Nk3	Number of increments in Q3 excitation (<=20)	QTR00230
D0	Gap between lenses Q0,Q1 (mm)	QTR00240
D1	Gap between lenses Q1,Q2 (mm)	QTR00250
D2	Gap between lenses Q2,Q3 (mm)	QTR00260
U	Object position referenced to entrance of Q0 (mm)	QTR00270
Y0-Y3	Second order convergent transfer matrix of relevant quadrupole lens.	QTR00280
X0-X3	Second order divergent transfer matrix of relevant quadrupole lens.	QTR00300
YCD	Combined transfer matrix (Q2,Q3) - vertical plane	QTR00320
XDC	Combined transfer matrix (Q2,Q3) - horizontal plane	QTR00330
YCDC	Combined transfer matrix (Q1,Q2,Q3) - vertical plane	QTR00340
XDCD	Combined transfer matrix (Q1,Q2,Q3) - horizontal plane	QTR00350
YCDCD	Combined transfer matrix (Q0,Q1,Q2,Q3) - vertical	QTR00360
XCDCD	Combined transfer matrix (Q0,Q1,Q2,Q3) - horizontal	QTR00370
TY	Total second order transfer matrix - vertical plane	QTR00380
TX	Total second order transfer matrix - horizontal plane	QTR00390
Hastig	Calculated image position - vertical plane	QTR00400
Dastig	Calculated image position - horizontal plane	QTR00410
Conmag	Vertical plane magnification at focus	QTR00420
Divmag	Horizontal plane magnification at focus	QTR00430

IMPLICIT REAL*8(A-H,O-Z) QTR00440
DIMENSION Y0(4,4),X0(4,4),YCDC(4,4),XDCD(4,4) QTR00450
DIMENSION Y1(4,4),X1(4,4),TY(4,4),TX(4,4) QTR00460
DIMENSION Y2(4,4),X2(4,4),YCD(4,4),XDC(4,4) QTR00470
DIMENSION Y3(4,4),X3(4,4),YCDC(4,4),XDCD(4,4) QTR00480
DIMENSION TITLE(20) QTR00490
REAL*4 OBJ(20,5,10),HIMAG(20,5,10),DIMAG(20,5,10) QTR00500
REAL*4 CDCMAG(20,5,10),DCDMAG(20,5,10),EXITN(20),Q3EX(10) QTR00510
REAL*8 LENTH0,LENTH1,LENTH2,LENTH3 QTR00520

Read title of up to 80 characters from unit 1 QTR00530
READ(1,1)(TITLE(I),I=1,20) QTR00540

Read focussing quadrupole parameters QTR00550

READ(1,2) QTR00560
READ(1,7) LENTH0,RTQZ0,DELQZ0,NK0 QTR00570
QTR00580
QTR00590
QTR00600
QTR00610
QTR00620

Read first quadrupole parameters from unit 1 QTR00630

READ(1,2) QTR00640
READ(1,7) LENTH1,RTQZ1,DELQZ1,NK1 QTR00650
QTR00660
QTR00670

Read another blank line then second quadrupole parameters QTR00680

READ(1,2) QTR00690
READ(1,7) LENTH2,RTQZ2,DELQZ2,NK2 QTR00700
QTR00710
QTR00720


```

WRITE(2,101) U/LENTH2
WRITE(2,40) CONMAG,HASTIG/LENTH2
WRITE(2,50) DIVMAG,DASTIG/LENTH2

C
C      Set up arrays for graphical output
C
EXITN(I)=SNGL(RTQZ3)
OBJ(I,N,L)=SNGL((U+LENTH0+D0)/LENTH2)
IF(OBJ(I,N,L).GT.5.0.OR.OBJ(I,N,L).LT.0.0) OBJ(I,N,L)=0.0
HIMAG(I,N,L)=SNGL(HASTIG/LENTH2)
DIMAG(I,N,L)=SNGL(DASTIG/LENTH2)
IF(HIMAG(I,N,L).GT.4.0.OR.HIMAG(I,N,L).LT.0.0) HIMAG(I,N,L)=0.0
IF(DIMAG(I,N,L).GT.4.0.OR.DIMAG(I,N,L).LT.-1.) DIMAG(I,N,L)=0.0

C
C      Reference the image positions to the central quadrupole pair
C
IF(HIMAG(I,N,L).NE.0.0) THEN
HIMAG(I,N,L)=SNGL((HASTIG+LENTH3+D2)/LENTH2)
END IF
IF(DIMAG(I,N,L).NE.0.0) THEN
DIMAG(I,N,L)=SNGL((DASTIG+LENTH3+D2)/LENTH2)
END IF
CDCMAG(I,N,L)=SNGL(CONMAG)
DCDMAG(I,N,L)=SNGL(DIVMAG)
IF(CDCMAG(I,N,L).LT.-70.0.OR.CDCMAG(I,N,L).GT.0.0)
+ CDCMAG(I,N,L)=0.0
IF(DCDMAG(I,N,L).LT.-70.0.OR.DCDMAG(I,N,L).GT.0.0)
+ DCDMAG(I,N,L)=0.0
RTQZ3=RTQZ3+DELQZ3
1000 CONTINUE
RTQZ3=RTQZ3-(NK3*DELQZ3)
RTQZ0=RTQZ0+DELQZ0
1001 CONTINUE
RTQZ0=RTQZ0-(NK0*DELQZ0)
Q3EX(L)=SNGL(RTQZ1)
RTQZ0=RTQZ0+DELQZ0
1002 CONTINUE

C
C      Call plotting subroutine
C
IF(NK1.LE.1) THEN
CALL GRAPH1(OBJ,HIMAG,DIMAG,CDCMAG,DCDMAG,EXITN,NK3,NK0)
ELSE
CALL GRAPH2(OBJ,HIMAG,DIMAG,CDCMAG,DCDMAG,Q3EX,NK3)
END IF

C
40 FORMAT(/1X,'CONV-DIV-CONV MAG = ',D10.4,3X,'AT IMAGE',
- ' POSITION = ',D12.6)
50 FORMAT(/1X,'DIV-CONV-DIV MAG = ',D10.4,3X,'AT IMAGE',
- ' POSITION = ',D12.6)
101 FORMAT(/1X,'OBJECT POSITION = ',D10.4,' mm.')
```

STOP
END

```

C
C      Subroutine Qtrans
C
C      This subroutine calculates the convergent
C      and divergent transfer matrices.
C
SUBROUTINE QTRANS(LENGTH,ROOTQZ,Y,X)
IMPLICIT REAL*8(A-H,O-Z)
DIMENSION Y(4,4),X(4,4)
REAL*8 LENGTH

C
C      Set up various constants
C
ROOTQ=ROOTQZ/LENGTH
Q=ROOTQ**2
WRITE(2,6) ROOTQZ
6 FORMAT(/1X,'Quadrupole angle theta = ',F8.4,' (Dimensionless)')
```

QTR01450
QTR01460
QTR01470
QTR01480
QTR01490
QTR01500
QTR01510
QTR01520
QTR01530
QTR01540
QTR01550
QTR01560
QTR01570
QTR01580
QTR01590
QTR01600
QTR01610
QTR01620
QTR01630
QTR01640
QTR01650
QTR01660
QTR01670
QTR01680
QTR01690
QTR01700
QTR01710
QTR01720
QTR01730
QTR01740
QTR01750
QTR01760
QTR01770
QTR01780
QTR01790
QTR01800
QTR01810
QTR01820
QTR01830
QTR01840
QTR01850
QTR01860
QTR01870
QTR01880
QTR01890
QTR01900
QTR01910
QTR01920
QTR01930
QTR01940
QTR01950
QTR01960
QTR01970
QTR01980
QTR01990
QTR02000
QTR02010
QTR02020
QTR02030
QTR02040
QTR02050
QTR02060
QTR02070
QTR02080
QTR02090
QTR02100
QTR02110
QTR02120
QTR02130
QTR02140
QTR02150
QTR02160

```

C      Initialise Y and X arrays to zero
C
DO 20 I=1,4
DO 10 J=1,4
Y(I,J)=0.0
X(I,J)=0.0
10 CONTINUE
20 CONTINUE
C
C      Calculate first and second order convergent coefficients
C
Y(1,1)=DCOS(ROOTQZ)
Y(2,1)=(1.0/ROOTQ)*DSIN(ROOTQZ)
Y(3,1)=0.5*Q*LENGTH*Y(2,1)
Y(4,1)=0.5*(Y(2,1)-(LENGTH*Y(1,1)))
Y(1,2)=-ROOTQ*DSIN(ROOTQZ)
Y(2,2)=DCOS(ROOTQZ)
Y(3,2)=0.5*Q*((LENGTH*Y(1,1))+Y(2,1))
Y(4,2)=0.5*ROOTQZ*DSIN(ROOTQZ)
Y(3,3)=Y(1,1)
Y(4,3)=Y(2,1)
Y(3,4)=Y(1,2)
Y(4,4)=Y(2,2)
C
C      Calculate first and second order divergent coefficients
C
X(1,1)=DCOSH(ROOTQZ)
X(2,1)=(1.0/ROOTQ)*DSINH(ROOTQZ)
X(3,1)=-0.5*ROOTQZ*DSINH(ROOTQZ)
X(4,1)=0.5*(X(2,1)-(LENGTH*X(1,1)))
X(1,2)=ROOTQ*DSINH(ROOTQZ)
X(2,2)=DCOSH(ROOTQZ)
X(3,2)=-0.5*Q*((LENGTH*X(1,1))+X(2,1))
X(4,2)=-0.5*ROOTQZ*DSINH(ROOTQZ)
X(3,3)=X(1,1)
X(4,3)=X(2,1)
X(3,4)=X(1,2)
X(4,4)=X(2,2)
RETURN
END
C
C      Subroutine Qcomb
C
C      This subroutine calculates the combined horizontal
C      and vertical transfer matrices.
C
SUBROUTINE QCOMB(Y1,X1,Y2,X2,D,YCD,XDC)
IMPLICIT REAL*8(A-H,O-Z)
DIMENSION Y1(4,4),X1(4,4),Y2(4,4),X2(4,4),YCD(4,4),XDC(4,4)
C
C      Initialise YCD and XDC arrays to zero
C
DO 10 I=1,4
DO 10 J=1,4
YCD(I,J)=0.0
XDC(I,J)=0.0
10 CONTINUE
C
C      Calculate convergent-divergent transfer matrix
C
YCD(1,1)=Y1(1,1)*X2(1,1)+(Y1(1,2)*(D*X2(1,1)+X2(2,1)))
YCD(2,1)=Y1(2,1)*X2(1,1)+(Y1(2,2)*(D*X2(1,1)+X2(2,1)))
YCD(3,1)=Y1(3,1)*X2(1,1)+(Y1(3,2)*(D*X2(1,1)+X2(2,1)))+
- Y1(3,3)*X2(3,1)+(Y1(3,4)*(D*X2(3,1)+X2(4,1)))
YCD(4,1)=Y1(4,1)*X2(1,1)+(Y1(4,2)*(D*X2(1,1)+X2(2,1)))+
- Y1(4,3)*X2(3,1)+(Y1(4,4)*(D*X2(3,1)+X2(4,1)))
YCD(1,2)=Y1(1,1)*X2(1,2)+(Y1(1,2)*(D*X2(1,2)+X2(2,2)))
YCD(2,2)=Y1(2,1)*X2(1,2)+(Y1(2,2)*(D*X2(1,2)+X2(2,2)))
YCD(3,2)=Y1(3,1)*X2(1,2)+(Y1(3,2)*(D*X2(1,2)+X2(2,2)))+
- Y1(3,3)*X2(3,2)+(Y1(3,4)*(D*X2(3,2)+X2(4,2)))
YCD(4,2)=Y1(4,1)*X2(1,2)+(Y1(4,2)*(D*X2(1,2)+X2(2,2)))+

```

```

QTR02170
QTR02180
QTR02190
QTR02200
QTR02210
QTR02220
QTR02230
QTR02240
QTR02250
QTR02260
QTR02270
QTR02280
QTR02290
QTR02300
QTR02310
QTR02320
QTR02330
QTR02340
QTR02350
QTR02360
QTR02370
QTR02380
QTR02390
QTR02400
QTR02410
QTR02420
QTR02430
QTR02440
QTR02450
QTR02460
QTR02470
QTR02480
QTR02490
QTR02500
QTR02510
QTR02520
QTR02530
QTR02540
QTR02550
QTR02560
QTR02570
QTR02580
QTR02590
QTR02600
QTR02610
QTR02620
QTR02630
QTR02640
QTR02650
QTR02660
QTR02670
QTR02680
QTR02690
QTR02700
QTR02710
QTR02720
QTR02730
QTR02740
QTR02750
QTR02760
QTR02770
QTR02780
QTR02790
QTR02800
QTR02810
QTR02820
QTR02830
QTR02840
QTR02850
QTR02860
QTR02870
QTR02880

```

```

-      Y1(4,3)*X2(3,2)+(Y1(4,4)*(D*X2(3,2)+X2(4,2)))
YCD(3,3)=Y1(3,3)*X2(3,3)+(Y1(3,4)*(D*X2(3,3)+X2(4,3)))
YCD(4,3)=Y1(4,3)*X2(3,3)+(Y1(4,4)*(D*X2(3,3)+X2(4,3)))
YCD(3,4)=Y1(3,3)*X2(3,4)+(Y1(3,4)*(D*X2(3,4)+X2(4,4)))
YCD(4,4)=Y1(4,3)*X2(3,4)+(Y1(4,4)*(D*X2(3,4)+X2(4,4)))
C
C      Calculate divergent-convergent matrix
C
XDC(1,1)=X1(1,1)*Y2(1,1)+(X1(1,2)*(D*Y2(1,1)+Y2(2,1)))
XDC(2,1)=X1(2,1)*Y2(1,1)+(X1(2,2)*(D*Y2(1,1)+Y2(2,1)))
XDC(3,1)=X1(3,1)*Y2(1,1)+(X1(3,2)*(D*Y2(1,1)+Y2(2,1)))+
-      X1(3,3)*Y2(3,1)+(X1(3,4)*(D*Y2(3,1)+Y2(4,1)))
XDC(4,1)=X1(4,1)*Y2(1,1)+(X1(4,2)*(D*Y2(1,1)+Y2(2,1)))+
-      X1(4,3)*Y2(3,1)+(X1(4,4)*(D*Y2(3,1)+Y2(4,1)))
XDC(1,2)=X1(1,1)*Y2(1,2)+(X1(1,2)*(D*Y2(1,2)+Y2(2,2)))
XDC(2,2)=X1(2,1)*Y2(1,2)+(X1(2,2)*(D*Y2(1,2)+Y2(2,2)))
XDC(3,2)=X1(3,1)*Y2(1,2)+(X1(3,2)*(D*Y2(1,2)+Y2(2,2)))+
-      X1(3,3)*Y2(3,2)+(X1(3,4)*(D*Y2(3,2)+Y2(4,2)))
XDC(4,2)=X1(4,1)*Y2(1,2)+(X1(4,2)*(D*Y2(1,2)+Y2(2,2)))+
-      X1(4,3)*Y2(3,2)+(X1(4,4)*(D*Y2(3,2)+Y2(4,2)))
XDC(3,3)=X1(3,3)*Y2(3,3)+(X1(3,4)*(D*Y2(3,3)+Y2(4,3)))
XDC(4,3)=X1(4,3)*Y2(3,3)+(X1(4,4)*(D*Y2(3,3)+Y2(4,3)))
XDC(3,4)=X1(3,3)*Y2(3,4)+(X1(3,4)*(D*Y2(3,4)+Y2(4,4)))
XDC(4,4)=X1(4,3)*Y2(3,4)+(X1(4,4)*(D*Y2(3,4)+Y2(4,4)))
RETURN
END
C
C
C      Subroutine Qttran
C
C      This subroutine calculates the total vertical
C      and horizontal transfer matrices.
C
SUBROUTINE QTTRAN(Y,X,U,V,TY,TX)
IMPLICIT REAL*8(A-H,O-Z)
DIMENSION Y(4,4),TY(4,4),X(4,4),TX(4,4)
C
C      Initialise TY and TX arrays to zero
C
DO 20 I=1,4
DO 10 J=1,4
TY(I,J)=0.0
TX(I,J)=0.0
10 CONTINUE
20 CONTINUE
C
C      Calculate total horizontal matrix elements
C
TY(1,1) =Y(1,1)+(V*Y(1,2))
TY(2,1) =U*(Y(1,1)+(V*Y(1,2)))+Y(2,1)+(V*Y(2,2))
TY(3,1) =Y(3,1)+(V*Y(3,2))
TY(4,1) =U*(Y(3,1)+V*Y(3,2))+Y(4,1)+(V*Y(4,2))
TY(1,2) =Y(1,2)
TY(2,2) =(U*Y(1,2))+Y(2,2)
TY(3,2) =Y(3,2)
TY(4,2) =Y(4,2)+(U*Y(3,2))
TY(3,3) =Y(3,3)+(V*Y(3,4))
TY(4,3) =U*(Y(3,3)+(V*Y(3,4)))+Y(4,3)+(V*Y(4,4))
TY(3,4) =Y(3,4)
TY(4,4) =(U*Y(3,4))+Y(4,4)
C
C      Calculate total vertical matrix elements
C
TX(1,1) =X(1,1)+(V*X(1,2))
TX(2,1) =U*(X(1,1)+(V*X(1,2)))+X(2,1)+(V*X(2,2))
TX(3,1) =X(3,1)+(V*X(3,2))
TX(4,1) =U*(X(3,1)+V*X(3,2))+X(4,1)+(V*X(4,2))
TX(1,2) =X(1,2)
TX(2,2) =(U*X(1,2))+X(2,2)
TX(3,2) =X(3,2)
TX(4,2) =X(4,2)+(U*X(3,2))
TX(3,3) =X(3,3)+(V*X(3,4))

```

QTR02890
QTR02900
QTR02910
QTR02920
QTR02930
QTR02940
QTR02950
QTR02960
QTR02970
QTR02980
QTR02990
QTR03000
QTR03010
QTR03020
QTR03030
QTR03040
QTR03050
QTR03060
QTR03070
QTR03080
QTR03090
QTR03100
QTR03110
QTR03120
QTR03130
QTR03140
QTR03150
QTR03160
QTR03170
QTR03180
QTR03190
QTR03200
QTR03210
QTR03220
QTR03230
QTR03240
QTR03250
QTR03260
QTR03270
QTR03280
QTR03290
QTR03300
QTR03310
QTR03320
QTR03330
QTR03340
QTR03350
QTR03360
QTR03370
QTR03380
QTR03390
QTR03400
QTR03410
QTR03420
QTR03430
QTR03440
QTR03450
QTR03460
QTR03470
QTR03480
QTR03490
QTR03500
QTR03510
QTR03520
QTR03530
QTR03540
QTR03550
QTR03560
QTR03570
QTR03580
QTR03590
QTR03600

```

TX(4,3) =U*(X(3,3)+(V*X(3,4)))+X(4,3)+(V*X(4,4))
TX(3,4) =X(3,4)
TX(4,4) =(U*X(3,4))+X(4,4)
RETURN
END

```

QTR03610
QTR03620
QTR03630
QTR03640
QTR03650
QTR03660
QTR03670
QTR03680
QTR03690
QTR03700
QTR03710
QTR03720

Subroutine Astig

This subroutine calculates the object plane distances given the image plane distance and the transfer matrices.

```

SUBROUTINE ASTIG(YCDC,XDCD,U,DASTIG,HASTIG,CONMAG,DIVMAG)
IMPLICIT REAL*8 (A-H,O-Z)
DIMENSION YCDC(4,4),XDCD(4,4)
DASTIG=(XDCD(1,1)*U+XDCD(2,1))/(XDCD(1,2)+U+XDCD(2,2))
DIVMAG=XDCD(1,1)+(DASTIG*XDCD(1,2))
HASTIG=(YCDC(1,1)*U+YCDC(2,1))/(YCDC(1,2)+U+YCDC(2,2))
CONMAG=YCDC(1,1)+(HASTIG*YCDC(1,2))
RETURN
END

```

QTR03730
QTR03740
QTR03750
QTR03760
QTR03770
QTR03780
QTR03790
QTR03800
QTR03810
QTR03820
QTR03830
QTR03840
QTR03850

Subroutine Fhead

This subroutine writes out titles and headings on unit 2.

```

SUBROUTINE FHEAD(LENTH0,LENTH1,LENTH2,LENTH3,RTQZ0,RTQZ1,
+ RTQZ2,RTQZ3,U,D0,D1,D2,TITLE)
IMPLICIT REAL*8 (A-H,O-Z)
DIMENSION TITLE(20)
REAL*8 LENTH0,LENTH1,LENTH2,LENTH3
WRITE(2,5)
WRITE(2,7)(TITLE(I),I=1,20)
WRITE(2,14) LENTH0*1000
WRITE(2,19) RTQZ0
WRITE(2,15) LENTH1*1000
WRITE(2,20) RTQZ1
WRITE(2,16) LENTH2*1000
WRITE(2,21) RTQZ2
WRITE(2,17) LENTH3*1000
WRITE(2,22) RTQZ3
WRITE(2,30) U*1000
WRITE(2,35) D0*1000
WRITE(2,40) D1*1000
WRITE(2,45) D2*1000
RETURN

```

QTR03860
QTR03870
QTR03880
QTR03890
QTR03900
QTR03910
QTR03920
QTR03930
QTR03940
QTR03950
QTR03960
QTR03970
QTR03980
QTR03990
QTR04000
QTR04010
QTR04020
QTR04030
QTR04040
QTR04050
QTR04060
QTR04070

```

5  FORMAT(/1X,'OPTICAL PROPERTIES OF MAGNETIC QUADRUPOLE PAIRS.'//)
7  FORMAT(20A4)
14  FORMAT(/1X,'LENGTH OF FIRST LENS          = ',F8.2,'mm.')
```

QTR04080
QTR04090
QTR04100
QTR04110
QTR04120
QTR04130
QTR04140
QTR04150
QTR04160
QTR04170
QTR04180
QTR04190
QTR04200
QTR04210

```

15  FORMAT(/1X,'LENGTH OF SECOND LENS         = ',F8.2,'mm.')
```

```

16  FORMAT(/1X,'LENGTH OF THIRD LENS          = ',F8.2,'mm.')
```

```

17  FORMAT(/1X,'LENGTH OF FOURTH LENS         = ',F8.2,'mm.')
```

```

19  FORMAT(/1X,'First quadrupole strength     = ',F8.2)
```

```

20  FORMAT(/1X,'Second quadrupole strength    = ',F8.2)
```

```

21  FORMAT(/1X,'Third quadrupole strength     = ',F8.2)
```

```

22  FORMAT(/1X,'Fourth quadrupole strength    = ',F8.2)
```

```

30  FORMAT(/1X,'OBJECT POSITION = ',F8.2,' mm.')
```

```

35  FORMAT(/1X,'LENS 1-2 SEPARATION = ',F8.2,' mm.')
```

```

40  FORMAT(/1X,'LENS 2-3 SEPARATION = ',F8.2,' mm.')
```

```

45  FORMAT(/1X,'LENS 3-4 SEPARATION = ',F8.2,' mm.')
```

END

SUBROUTINE GRAPH1

This subroutine plots out the optical properties using the simpleplot library routines

```

SUBROUTINE GRAPH1(OBJ,HIMAG,DIMAG,CDCMAG,DCDMAG,EXITN,NK1,NK2)
REAL*4 OBJ(20,5,10),HIMAG(20,5,10),DIMAG(20,5,10)
REAL*4 CDCMAG(20,5,10),DCDMAG(20,5,10),EXITN(20)

```

QTR04220
QTR04230
QTR04240
QTR04250
QTR04260
QTR04270
QTR04280
QTR04290
QTR04300
QTR04310
QTR04320

```

REAL*4 OBJIM(20,15),COMMAG(20,10)
DO 10 I=1,NK1
OBJIM(I,1)=(OBJ(I,1,1))
OBJIM(I,2)=(HIMAG(I,1,1))
OBJIM(I,3)=(DIMAG(I,1,1))
OBJIM(I,4)=(OBJ(I,2,1))
OBJIM(I,5)=(HIMAG(I,2,1))
OBJIM(I,6)=(DIMAG(I,2,1))
OBJIM(I,7)=(OBJ(I,3,1))
OBJIM(I,8)=(HIMAG(I,3,1))
OBJIM(I,9)=(DIMAG(I,3,1))
OBJIM(I,10)=(OBJ(I,4,1))
OBJIM(I,11)=(HIMAG(I,4,1))
OBJIM(I,12)=(DIMAG(I,4,1))
OBJIM(I,13)=(OBJ(I,5,1))
OBJIM(I,14)=(HIMAG(I,5,1))
OBJIM(I,15)=(DIMAG(I,5,1))
COMMAG(I,1)=(CDCMAG(I,1,1))
COMMAG(I,2)=(DCDMAG(I,1,1))
COMMAG(I,3)=(CDCMAG(I,2,1))
COMMAG(I,4)=(DCDMAG(I,2,1))
COMMAG(I,5)=(CDCMAG(I,3,1))
COMMAG(I,6)=(DCDMAG(I,3,1))
COMMAG(I,7)=(CDCMAG(I,4,1))
COMMAG(I,8)=(DCDMAG(I,4,1))
COMMAG(I,9)=(CDCMAG(I,5,1))
COMMAG(I,10)=(DCDMAG(I,5,1))
10 CONTINUE
OBJIM(1,1)=0.0
CALL PAGE(18.0,22.0)
CALL PACK IN(14.0,20.0)
CALL JBAXES(OBJIM,300,12.0,'Normalised Object and Image Positions'
+           ,37,EXITN,20,8.0,' ',1)
ITEMP1=1
ITEMP2=2
ITEMP3=3
DO 21 K=1,NK2*3
IF((K-ITEMP1).EQ.0) LINE=3
IF((K-ITEMP2).EQ.0) LINE=2
IF((K-ITEMP3).EQ.0) THEN
LINE=0
ITEMP1=ITEMP1+3
ITEMP2=ITEMP2+3
ITEMP3=ITEMP3+3
ELSE
GOTO 19
END IF
19 DO 20 L=1,NK1
IF(ABS(OBJIM(L,K)).GT.0.0) THEN
CALL JOIN PT(OBJIM(L,K),EXITN(L))
CALL MARK PT(OBJIM(L,K),EXITN(L),LINE)
END IF
20 CONTINUE
CALL BREAK
21 CONTINUE
CALL SET KY('T ','R ',3,12)
CALL MARK KY(3,'OBJECT POSN ',13)
CALL MARK KY(2,'V IMAGE POSN ',13)
CALL MARK KY(0,'W IMAGE POSN ',13)
CALL JBAXES(COMMAG,200,12.0,'Magnification',13,
+           EXITN,20,8.0,' ',2)
DO 31 M=1,NK2*2
TEMP=M/2.0
TEMP=TEMP-INT(TEMP)
IF(ABS(TEMP).GT.0.001) THEN
LINE=2
ELSE
LINE=0
END IF
DO 30 N=1,NK1
IF(COMMAG(N,M).LT.0.0) THEN
CALL JOIN PT(COMMAG(N,M),EXITN(N))

```

QTR04330
QTR04340
QTR04350
QTR04360
QTR04370
QTR04380
QTR04390
QTR04400
QTR04410
QTR04420
QTR04430
QTR04440
QTR04450
QTR04460
QTR04470
QTR04480
QTR04490
QTR04500
QTR04510
QTR04520
QTR04530
QTR04540
QTR04550
QTR04560
QTR04570
QTR04580
QTR04590
QTR04600
QTR04610
QTR04620
QTR04630
QTR04640
QTR04650
QTR04660
QTR04670
QTR04680
QTR04690
QTR04700
QTR04710
QTR04720
QTR04730
QTR04740
QTR04750
QTR04760
QTR04770
QTR04780
QTR04790
QTR04800
QTR04810
QTR04820
QTR04830
QTR04840
QTR04850
QTR04860
QTR04870
QTR04880
QTR04890
QTR04900
QTR04910
QTR04920
QTR04930
QTR04940
QTR04950
QTR04960
QTR04970
QTR04980
QTR04990
QTR05000
QTR05010
QTR05020
QTR05030
QTR05040

	CALL MARK PT(COMMAG(N,M),EXITN(N),LINE)	QTR05050
	END IF	QTR05060
30	CONTINUE	QTR05070
	CALL BREAK	QTR05080
31	CONTINUE	QTR05090
	CALL SET KY('T ','L ',2,8)	QTR05100
	CALL MARK KY(2,'DCDC MAG ',9)	QTR05110
	CALL MARK KY(0,'CDCD MAG ',9)	QTR05120
	CALL END PLT	QTR05130
	STOP	QTR05140
	END	QTR05150
C		QTR05160
C		QTR05170
C	SUBROUTINE GRAPH2	QTR05180
C		QTR05190
C	This subroutine does the plotting if q3	QTR05200
C	is the quadrupole which is varied while	QTR05210
C	q1 and q2 are held constant.	QTR05220
C		QTR05230
	SUBROUTINE GRAPH2(OBJ,HIMAG,DIMAG,CDCMAG,DCDMAG,Q3EX,NK3)	QTR05240
	REAL*4 OBJ(20,5,10),HIMAG(20,5,10),DIMAG(20,5,10)	QTR05250
	REAL*4 CDCMAG(20,5,10),DCDMAG(20,5,10),Q3EX(10)	QTR05260
	REAL*4 OBJIM(10,3),COMMAG(10,2)	QTR05270
	DO 10 I=1,10	QTR05280
	OBJIM(I,1)=OBJ(1,1,I)	QTR05290
	OBJIM(I,2)=HIMAG(1,1,I)	QTR05300
	OBJIM(I,3)=DIMAG(1,1,I)	QTR05310
	COMMAG(I,1)=CDCMAG(1,1,I)	QTR05320
	COMMAG(I,2)=DCDMAG(1,1,I)	QTR05330
10	CONTINUE	QTR05340
	CALL PAGE(25.0,25.0)	QTR05350
	CALL PACK IN(14.0,22.0)	QTR05360
	CALL JBAXES(OBJIM,30,15.0,'M',1,Q3EX,10,10.0,' ',1)	QTR05370
	DO 20 K=1,3	QTR05380
	DO 20 L=1,NK3	QTR05390
	LINE=K	QTR05400
20	CALL MARK PT(OBJIM(L,K),Q3EX(L),LINE)	QTR05410
	CALL SET KY('B ','L ',3,12)	QTR05420
	CALL MARK KY(1,' OBJECT POSN',12)	QTR05430
	CALL MARK KY(2,' HIMAGE POSN',12)	QTR05440
	CALL MARK KY(3,' DIMAGE POSN',12)	QTR05450
	CALL TITLE('T ','L ','QUADRUPOLE TRIPLET OPTICS',25)	QTR05460
	CALL JBAXES(COMMAG,20,15.0,'MAG',3,Q3EX,10,10.0,'K3',2)	QTR05470
	DO 30 M=1,2	QTR05480
	DO 30 N=1,NK3	QTR05490
	LINE=M	QTR05500
30	CALL MARK PT(COMMAG(N,M),Q3EX(N),LINE)	QTR05510
	CALL SET KY('B ','L ',2,8)	QTR05520
	CALL MARK KY(1,' CDC MAG',8)	QTR05530
	CALL MARK KY(2,' DCD MAG',8)	QTR05540
	CALL TITLE('T ','L ','QUADRUPOLE TRIPLET OPTICS',25)	QTR05550
	CALL END PLT	QTR05560
	STOP	QTR05570
	END	QTR05580

```

C
C PROGRAM QUAD
C
C This program calculates the required excitations of the
C Q0 and Q3 quadrupole lenses in a quadruplet to give a fixed
C object and vertical image position, assuming that Q1 and Q2
C are held constant. The lens configuration is controlled
C by the order of parameters in the call to subroutine QCOMB.
C Also changing from say high mag to low mag mode requires
C adjustment of the sign of the lens increments - the correct
C sense can be obtained by running QTRIP4 for the same optical
C configuration.
C
C The principle variables are defined as follows-
C
C Lenth0 Effective length of first quadrupole Q0 (mm)
C Lenth1 Effective length of second quadrupole Q1 (mm)
C Lenth2 Effective length of third quadrupole Q2 (mm)
C Lenth3 Effective length of fourth quadrupole Q3 (mm)
C Rtqz0-4 Excitation (theta) of respective quadrupole
C Delqz0 Increment in Q0 excitation
C Delqz3 Increment in Q3 excitation
C Nk3 Number of increments in Q3 excitation (<=20)
C D0 Gap between lenses Q0,Q1 (mm)
C D1 Gap between lenses Q1,Q2 (mm)
C D2 Gap between lenses Q2,Q3 (mm)
C U Required object position ref. to entrance of Q0 (mm)
C V Required vertical image position referenced to the
C exit of Q3 - normalised to length of Q1 (LENTH2)
C Y0-Y3 Second order convergent transfer matrix of relevant
C quadrupole lens.
C X0-X3 Second order divergent transfer matrix of relevant
C quadrupole lens.
C YCD Combined transfer matrix (Q2,Q3) - vertical plane
C XDC Combined transfer matrix (Q2,Q3) - horizontal plane
C YCDC Combined transfer matrix (Q1,Q2,Q3) - vertical plane
C XDCD Combined transfer matrix (Q1,Q2,Q3) - horizontal plane
C YCDCD Combined transfer matrix (Q0,Q1,Q2,Q3) - vertical
C XCDCD Combined transfer matrix (Q0,Q1,Q2,Q3) - horizontal
C TY Total second order transfer matrix - vertical plane
C TX Total second order transfer matrix - horizontal plane
C Hastig Calculated image position - vertical plane
C Dastig Calculated image position - horizontal plane
C Conmag Vertical plane magnification at focus
C Divmag Horizontal plane magnification at focus
C
C IMPLICIT REAL*8(A-H,O-Z)
C DIMENSION Y0(4,4),X0(4,4),YCDC(4,4),XCDCD(4,4)
C DIMENSION Y1(4,4),X1(4,4),TY(4,4),TX(4,4)
C DIMENSION Y2(4,4),X2(4,4),YCD(4,4),XDC(4,4)
C DIMENSION Y3(4,4),X3(4,4),YCDC(4,4),XCDCD(4,4)
C DIMENSION TITLE(20)
C REAL*4 CDCMAG(40),DCDMAG(40),Q0EX(40),Q3EX(40)
C REAL*8 LENTH0,LENTH1,LENTH2,LENTH3
C
C Read title of up to 80 characters from unit 1
C READ(1,1)(TITLE(I),I=1,20)
C
C Read focussing quadrupole paramaters
C
C READ(1,2)
C READ(1,7) LENTH0,RTQZ0,DELQZ0
C
C Read first quadrupole parameters from unit 1
C
C READ(1,2)
C READ(1,5) LENTH1,RTQZ1
C
C Read another blank line then second quadrupole parameters
C
C READ(1,2)
C READ(1,5) LENTH2,RTQZ2

```

```

QQU00010
QQU00020
QQU00030
QQU00040
QQU00050
QQU00060
QQU00070
QQU00080
QQU00090
QQU00100
QQU00110
QQU00120
QQU00130
QQU00140
QQU00150
QQU00160
QQU00170
QQU00180
QQU00190
QQU00200
QQU00210
QQU00220
QQU00230
QQU00240
QQU00250
QQU00260
QQU00270
QQU00280
QQU00290
QQU00300
QQU00310
QQU00320
QQU00330
QQU00340
QQU00350
QQU00360
QQU00370
QQU00380
QQU00390
QQU00400
QQU00410
QQU00420
QQU00430
QQU00440
QQU00450
QQU00460
QQU00470
QQU00480
QQU00490
QQU00500
QQU00510
QQU00520
QQU00530
QQU00540
QQU00550
QQU00560
QQU00570
QQU00580
QQU00590
QQU00600
QQU00610
QQU00620
QQU00630
QQU00640
QQU00650
QQU00660
QQU00670
QQU00680
QQU00690
QQU00700
QQU00710
QQU00720

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```

C          Read another blank line then third quadrupole parameters
C          READ(1,2)
C          READ(1,8) LENTH3,RTQZ3,DELQZ3,NK3
C          Read a blank line then first order imaging properties
C          READ(1,2)
C          READ(1,6) U,V,D0,D1,D2
C          FORMAT(20A4)
C          FORMAT(1X)
C          FORMAT(5X,2F10.0)
C          FORMAT(5X,5F10.0)
C          FORMAT(5X,3F10.0)
C          FORMAT(5X,3F10.0,I10)
C          Convert from millimetres to metres
C          LENTH0=LENTH0*0.001
C          LENTH1=LENTH1*0.001
C          LENTH2=LENTH2*0.001
C          LENTH3=LENTH3*0.001
C          U=U*0.001
C          D0=D0*0.001
C          D1=D1*0.001
C          D2=D2*0.001
C          Write title and headings on unit 2
C          CALL FHEAD(LENTH0,LENTH1,LENTH2,LENTH3,RTQZ0,RTQZ1,RTQZ2,RTQZ3,
C          -          U,V,D0,D1,D2,TITLE)
C          Call subroutine to calculate first quadrupole transfer matrix
C          CALL QTRANS(LENTH1,RTQZ1,Y1,X1)
C          Call subroutine to calculate second quadrupole transfer matrix
C          CALL QTRANS(LENTH2,RTQZ2,Y2,X2)
C          ICOUNT=0
C          Start looping excitations - if the correct excitation of Q0
C          is beyond 2000xDELQZ0 then the calculation stops and the next
C          value of RTQZ3 is examined.
C          DO 1000 I=1,NK3
C          IF(ICOUNT.GT.2000) THEN
C          Q3EX(I)=RTQZ3
C          Q0EX(I)=RTQZ0
C          WRITE(2,89)
C          GOTO 995
C          END IF
C          Call subroutine to calculate focus quadrupole transfer matrix
C          CALL QTRANS(LENTH0,RTQZ0,Y0,X0)
C          Call subroutine to calculate third quadrupole transfer matrix
C          CALL QTRANS(LENTH3,RTQZ3,Y3,X3)
C          Call subroutine to calculate the Q2/Q3 transfer matrices
C          CALL QCOMB(X2,Y2,Y3,X3,D2,YCD,XDC)
C          Call subroutine to calculate the Q1/Q2/Q3 transfer matrices
C          CALL QCOMB(Y1,X1,XDC,YCD,D1,YCDC,XDCD)

```

```

QQU00730
QQU00740
QQU00750
QQU00760
QQU00770
QQU00780
QQU00790
QQU00800
QQU00810
QQU00820
QQU00830
QQU00840
QQU00850
QQU00860
QQU00870
QQU00880
QQU00890
QQU00900
QQU00910
QQU00920
QQU00930
QQU00940
QQU00950
QQU00960
QQU00970
QQU00980
QQU00990
QQU01000
QQU01010
QQU01020
QQU01030
QQU01040
QQU01050
QQU01060
QQU01070
QQU01080
QQU01090
QQU01100
QQU01110
QQU01120
QQU01130
QQU01140
QQU01150
QQU01160
QQU01170
QQU01180
QQU01190
QQU01200
QQU01210
QQU01220
QQU01230
QQU01240
QQU01250
QQU01260
QQU01270
QQU01280
QQU01290
QQU01300
QQU01310
QQU01320
QQU01330
QQU01340
QQU01350
QQU01360
QQU01370
QQU01380
QQU01390
QQU01400
QQU01410
QQU01420
QQU01430
QQU01440

```

```

C      Call subroutine to calculate the Q0/Q1/Q2/Q3 transfer matrices QQU01450
C      CALL QCOMB(Y0,X0,XDCD,YCDC,D0,YCDC,XDCD) QQU01460
C      QQU01470
C      Object position is given so calculate non-stigmatic QQU01480
C      image positions. QQU01490
C      QQU01500
C      CALL ASTIG(YCDC,XDCD,U,DASTIG,HASTIG,CONMAG,DIVMAG) QQU01510
C      QQU01520
C      Check to see if the vertical image position is within QQU01530
C      a given range of the required position. If it is then QQU01540
C      store the results else increment Q0 exitation approp- QQU01550
C      riately. QQU01560
C      QQU01570
C      TEMP=(HASTIG/LENTH2)-V QQU01580
C      IF(DABS(TEMP).LE.0.005) GOTO 990 QQU01590
C      IF(TEMP.GT.0.005.OR.RTQZ0.LE.0.0) THEN QQU01600
C      RTQZ0=RTQZ0+DELQZ0 QQU01610
C      ICOUNT=ICOUNT+1 QQU01620
C      END IF QQU01630
C      IF(TEMP.LT.-0.005.AND.RTQZ0.GT.0.0) THEN QQU01640
C      RTQZ0=RTQZ0-DELQZ0 QQU01650
C      ICOUNT=ICOUNT+1 QQU01660
C      END IF QQU01670
C      GOTO 10 QQU01680
C      QQU01690
C      QQU01700
C      Vertical image correct - output optical properties QQU01710
C      QQU01720
C      Q3EX(I)=SNGL(RTQZ3) QQU01730
C      Q0EX(I)=SNGL(RTQZ0) QQU01740
C      995 WRITE(2,60) RTQZ0,RTQZ3 QQU01750
C      WRITE(2,101) U/LENTH2 QQU01760
C      WRITE(2,40) CONMAG,HASTIG/LENTH2 QQU01770
C      WRITE(2,50) DIVMAG,DASTIG/LENTH2 QQU01780
C      QQU01790
C      Set up arrays for graphical output QQU01800
C      QQU01810
C      CDCMAG(I)=SNGL(CONMAG) QQU01820
C      DCDMAG(I)=SNGL(DIVMAG) QQU01830
C      IF(CDCMAG(I).LT.-100.0.OR.CDCMAG(I).GT.0.0) QQU01840
C      + CDCMAG(I)=0.0 QQU01850
C      IF(DCDMAG(I).LT.-100.0.OR.DCDMAG(I).GT.0.0) QQU01860
C      + DCDMAG(I)=0.0 QQU01870
C      RTQZ3=RTQZ3+DELQZ3 QQU01880
C      ICOUNT=0 QQU01890
C      1000 CONTINUE QQU01900
C      QQU01910
C      Call plotting subroutine QQU01920
C      QQU01930
C      CALL GRAPH(Q3EX,Q0EX,CDCMAG,DCDMAG,NK3) QQU01940
C      QQU01950
C      40 FORMAT(/1X,'CONV-DIV-CONV MAG = ',F10.5,3X,'AT IMAGE', QQU01960
C      - ' POSITION = ',F10.5,' mm.')
```

```

50 FORMAT(/1X,'DIV-CONV-DIV MAG = ',F10.5,3X,'AT IMAGE', QQU01980
- ' POSITION = ',F10.5,' mm.')
```

```

60 FORMAT(/1X,'RTQZ0=',F10.5,2X,'RTQZ3=',F10.5) QQU02000
89 FORMAT(/1X,'Q0 EXITATION NOT CONVERGED TO OBJECT POSITION') QQU02010
101 FORMAT(/1X,'OBJECT POSITION = ',F10.5,' mm.')
```

```

STOP QQU02030
END QQU02040
C      QQU02050
C      QQU02060
C      Subroutine Qtrans QQU02070
C      QQU02080
C      This subroutine calculates the convergent QQU02090
C      and divergent transfer matrices. QQU02100
C      QQU02110
C      SUBROUTINE QTRANS(LENGTH,ROOTQZ,Y,X) QQU02120
C      IMPLICIT REAL*8(A-H,O-Z) QQU02130
C      DIMENSION Y(4,4),X(4,4) QQU02140
C      REAL*8 LENGTH QQU02150
C      QQU02160
```

```

C      Set up various constants
C
ROOTQ=ROOTQZ/LENGTH
Q=ROOTQ**2
C
C      Initialise Y and X arrays to zero
C
DO 20 I=1,4
DO 10 J=1,4
Y(I,J)=0.0
X(I,J)=0.0
10 CONTINUE
20 CONTINUE
C
C      Calculate first and second order convergent coefficients
C
Y(1,1)=DCOS(ROOTQZ)
Y(2,1)=(1.0/ROOTQ)*DSIN(ROOTQZ)
Y(3,1)=0.5*Q*LENGTH*Y(2,1)
Y(4,1)=0.5*(Y(2,1)-(LENGTH*Y(1,1)))
Y(1,2)=-ROOTQ*DSIN(ROOTQZ)
Y(2,2)=DCOS(ROOTQZ)
Y(3,2)=0.5*Q*((LENGTH*Y(1,1))+Y(2,1))
Y(4,2)=0.5*ROOTQZ*DSIN(ROOTQZ)
Y(3,3)=Y(1,1)
Y(4,3)=Y(2,1)
Y(3,4)=Y(1,2)
Y(4,4)=Y(2,2)
C
C      Calculate first and second order divergent coefficients
C
X(1,1)=DCOSH(ROOTQZ)
X(2,1)=(1.0/ROOTQ)*DSINH(ROOTQZ)
X(3,1)=-0.5*ROOTQZ*DSINH(ROOTQZ)
X(4,1)=0.5*(X(2,1)-(LENGTH*X(1,1)))
X(1,2)=ROOTQ*DSINH(ROOTQZ)
X(2,2)=DCOSH(ROOTQZ)
X(3,2)=-0.5*Q*((LENGTH*X(1,1))+X(2,1))
X(4,2)=-0.5*ROOTQZ*DSINH(ROOTQZ)
X(3,3)=X(1,1)
X(4,3)=X(2,1)
X(3,4)=X(1,2)
X(4,4)=X(2,2)
RETURN
END
C
C      Subroutine Qcomb
C
C      This subroutine calculates the combined horizontal
C      and vertical transfer matrices.
C
SUBROUTINE QCOMB(Y1,X1,Y2,X2,D,YCD,XDC)
IMPLICIT REAL*8(A-H,O-Z)
DIMENSION Y1(4,4),X1(4,4),Y2(4,4),X2(4,4),YCD(4,4),XDC(4,4)
C
C      Initialise YCD and XDC arrays to zero
C
DO 10 I=1,4
DO 10 J=1,4
YCD(I,J)=0.0
XDC(I,J)=0.0
10 CONTINUE
C
C      Calculate convergent-divergent transfer matrix
C
YCD(1,1)=Y1(1,1)*X2(1,1)+(Y1(1,2)*(D*X2(1,1)+X2(2,1)))
YCD(2,1)=Y1(2,1)*X2(1,1)+(Y1(2,2)*(D*X2(1,1)+X2(2,1)))
YCD(3,1)=Y1(3,1)*X2(1,1)+(Y1(3,2)*(D*X2(1,1)+X2(2,1)))+
- Y1(3,3)*X2(3,1)+(Y1(3,4)*(D*X2(3,1)+X2(4,1)))
YCD(4,1)=Y1(4,1)*X2(1,1)+(Y1(4,2)*(D*X2(1,1)+X2(2,1)))+
- Y1(4,3)*X2(3,1)+(Y1(4,4)*(D*X2(3,1)+X2(4,1)))

```

QQU02170
 QQU02180
 QQU02190
 QQU02200
 QQU02210
 QQU02220
 QQU02230
 QQU02240
 QQU02250
 QQU02260
 QQU02270
 QQU02280
 QQU02290
 QQU02300
 QQU02310
 QQU02320
 QQU02330
 QQU02340
 QQU02350
 QQU02360
 QQU02370
 QQU02380
 QQU02390
 QQU02400
 QQU02410
 QQU02420
 QQU02430
 QQU02440
 QQU02450
 QQU02460
 QQU02470
 QQU02480
 QQU02490
 QQU02500
 QQU02510
 QQU02520
 QQU02530
 QQU02540
 QQU02550
 QQU02560
 QQU02570
 QQU02580
 QQU02590
 QQU02600
 QQU02610
 QQU02620
 QQU02630
 QQU02640
 QQU02650
 QQU02660
 QQU02670
 QQU02680
 QQU02690
 QQU02700
 QQU02710
 QQU02720
 QQU02730
 QQU02740
 QQU02750
 QQU02760
 QQU02770
 QQU02780
 QQU02790
 QQU02800
 QQU02810
 QQU02820
 QQU02830
 QQU02840
 QQU02850
 QQU02860
 QQU02870
 QQU02880

```

YCD(1,2)=Y1(1,1)*X2(1,2)+(Y1(1,2)*(D*X2(1,2)+X2(2,2)))
YCD(2,2)=Y1(2,1)*X2(1,2)+(Y1(2,2)*(D*X2(1,2)+X2(2,2)))
YCD(3,2)=Y1(3,1)*X2(1,2)+(Y1(3,2)*(D*X2(1,2)+X2(2,2)))+
- Y1(3,3)*X2(3,2)+(Y1(3,4)*(D*X2(3,2)+X2(4,2)))
YCD(4,2)=Y1(4,1)*X2(1,2)+(Y1(4,2)*(D*X2(1,2)+X2(2,2)))+
- Y1(4,3)*X2(3,2)+(Y1(4,4)*(D*X2(3,2)+X2(4,2)))
YCD(3,3)=Y1(3,3)*X2(3,3)+(Y1(3,4)*(D*X2(3,3)+X2(4,3)))
YCD(4,3)=Y1(4,3)*X2(3,3)+(Y1(4,4)*(D*X2(3,3)+X2(4,3)))
YCD(3,4)=Y1(3,3)*X2(3,4)+(Y1(3,4)*(D*X2(3,4)+X2(4,4)))
YCD(4,4)=Y1(4,3)*X2(3,4)+(Y1(4,4)*(D*X2(3,4)+X2(4,4)))
C
C Calculate divergent-convergent matrix
C
XDC(1,1)=X1(1,1)*Y2(1,1)+(X1(1,2)*(D*Y2(1,1)+Y2(2,1)))
XDC(2,1)=X1(2,1)*Y2(1,1)+(X1(2,2)*(D*Y2(1,1)+Y2(2,1)))
XDC(3,1)=X1(3,1)*Y2(1,1)+(X1(3,2)*(D*Y2(1,1)+Y2(2,1)))+
- X1(3,3)*Y2(3,1)+(X1(3,4)*(D*Y2(3,1)+Y2(4,1)))
XDC(4,1)=X1(4,1)*Y2(1,1)+(X1(4,2)*(D*Y2(1,1)+Y2(2,1)))+
- X1(4,3)*Y2(3,1)+(X1(4,4)*(D*Y2(3,1)+Y2(4,1)))
XDC(1,2)=X1(1,1)*Y2(1,2)+(X1(1,2)*(D*Y2(1,2)+Y2(2,2)))
XDC(2,2)=X1(2,1)*Y2(1,2)+(X1(2,2)*(D*Y2(1,2)+Y2(2,2)))
XDC(3,2)=X1(3,1)*Y2(1,2)+(X1(3,2)*(D*Y2(1,2)+Y2(2,2)))+
- X1(3,3)*Y2(3,2)+(X1(3,4)*(D*Y2(3,2)+Y2(4,2)))
XDC(4,2)=X1(4,1)*Y2(1,2)+(X1(4,2)*(D*Y2(1,2)+Y2(2,2)))+
- X1(4,3)*Y2(3,2)+(X1(4,4)*(D*Y2(3,2)+Y2(4,2)))
XDC(3,3)=X1(3,3)*Y2(3,3)+(X1(3,4)*(D*Y2(3,3)+Y2(4,3)))
XDC(4,3)=X1(4,3)*Y2(3,3)+(X1(4,4)*(D*Y2(3,3)+Y2(4,3)))
XDC(3,4)=X1(3,3)*Y2(3,4)+(X1(3,4)*(D*Y2(3,4)+Y2(4,4)))
XDC(4,4)=X1(4,3)*Y2(3,4)+(X1(4,4)*(D*Y2(3,4)+Y2(4,4)))
RETURN
END
C
C
C Subroutine Qttran
C
C This subroutine calculates the total vertical
C and horizontal transfer matrices.
C
SUBROUTINE QTTRAN(Y,X,U,V,TY,TX)
IMPLICIT REAL*8(A-H,O-Z)
DIMENSION Y(4,4),TY(4,4),X(4,4),TX(4,4)
C
C Initialise TY and TX arrays to zero
C
DO 20 I=1,4
DO 10 J=1,4
TY(I,J)=0.0
TX(I,J)=0.0
10 CONTINUE
20 CONTINUE
C
C Calculate total horizontal matrix elements
C
TY(1,1) =Y(1,1)+(V*Y(1,2))
TY(2,1) =U*(Y(1,1)+(V*Y(1,2)))+Y(2,1)+(V*Y(2,2))
TY(3,1) =Y(3,1)+(V*Y(3,2))
TY(4,1) =U*(Y(3,1)+V*Y(3,2))+Y(4,1)+(V*Y(4,2))
TY(1,2) =Y(1,2)
TY(2,2) =(U*Y(1,2))+Y(2,2)
TY(3,2) =Y(3,2)
TY(4,2) =Y(4,2)+(U*Y(3,2))
TY(3,3) =Y(3,3)+(V*Y(3,4))
TY(4,3) =U*(Y(3,3)+(V*Y(3,4)))+Y(4,3)+(V*Y(4,4))
TY(3,4) =Y(3,4)
TY(4,4) =(U*Y(3,4))+Y(4,4)
C
C Calculate total vertical matrix elements
C
TX(1,1) =X(1,1)+(V*X(1,2))
TX(2,1) =U*(X(1,1)+(V*X(1,2)))+X(2,1)+(V*X(2,2))
TX(3,1) =X(3,1)+(V*X(3,2))
TX(4,1) =U*(X(3,1)+V*X(3,2))+X(4,1)+(V*X(4,2))
QQU02890
QQU02900
QQU02910
QQU02920
QQU02930
QQU02940
QQU02950
QQU02960
QQU02970
QQU02980
QQU02990
QQU03000
QQU03010
QQU03020
QQU03030
QQU03040
QQU03050
QQU03060
QQU03070
QQU03080
QQU03090
QQU03100
QQU03110
QQU03120
QQU03130
QQU03140
QQU03150
QQU03160
QQU03170
QQU03180
QQU03190
QQU03200
QQU03210
QQU03220
QQU03230
QQU03240
QQU03250
QQU03260
QQU03270
QQU03280
QQU03290
QQU03300
QQU03310
QQU03320
QQU03330
QQU03340
QQU03350
QQU03360
QQU03370
QQU03380
QQU03390
QQU03400
QQU03410
QQU03420
QQU03430
QQU03440
QQU03450
QQU03460
QQU03470
QQU03480
QQU03490
QQU03500
QQU03510
QQU03520
QQU03530
QQU03540
QQU03550
QQU03560
QQU03570
QQU03580
QQU03590
QQU03600

```

	TX(1,2) =X(1,2)	QQU03610
	TX(2,2) =(U*X(1,2))+X(2,2)	QQU03620
	TX(3,2) =X(3,2)	QQU03630
	TX(4,2) =X(4,2)+(U*X(3,2))	QQU03640
	TX(3,3) =X(3,3)+(V*X(3,4))	QQU03650
	TX(4,3) =U*(X(3,3)+(V*X(3,4)))+X(4,3)+(V*X(4,4))	QQU03660
	TX(3,4) =X(3,4)	QQU03670
	TX(4,4) =(U*X(3,4))+X(4,4)	QQU03680
	RETURN	QQU03690
	END	QQU03700
C		QQU03710
C		QQU03720
C	Subroutine Astig	QQU03730
C		QQU03740
C	This subroutine calculates the object plane distances	QQU03750
C	given the image plane distance and the transfer matrices.	QQU03760
C		QQU03770
	SUBROUTINE ASTIG(YCDC,XDCD,U,DASTIG,HASTIG,CONMAG,DIVMAG)	QQU03780
	IMPLICIT REAL*8 (A-H,O-Z)	QQU03790
	DIMENSION YCDC(4,4),XDCD(4,4)	QQU03800
	DASTIG=-(XDCD(1,1)*U+XDCD(2,1))/(XDCD(1,2)*U+XDCD(2,2))	QQU03810
	DIVMAG=XDCD(1,1)+(DASTIG*XDCD(1,2))	QQU03820
	HASTIG=-(YCDC(1,1)*U+YCDC(2,1))/(YCDC(1,2)*U+YCDC(2,2))	QQU03830
	CONMAG=YCDC(1,1)+(HASTIG*YCDC(1,2))	QQU03840
	RETURN	QQU03850
	END	QQU03860
C		QQU03870
C		QQU03880
C	Subroutine Fhead	QQU03890
C		QQU03900
C	This subroutine writes out titles and headings on unit 2.	QQU03910
C		QQU03920
	SUBROUTINE FHEAD(LENTH0,LENTH1,LENTH2,LENTH3,RTQZ0,RTQZ1,	QQU03930
	+ RTQZ2,RTQZ3,U,V,D0,D1,D2,TITLE)	QQU03940
	IMPLICIT REAL*8 (A-H,O-Z)	QQU03950
	DIMENSION TITLE(20)	QQU03960
	REAL*8 LENTH0,LENTH1,LENTH2,LENTH3	QQU03970
	WRITE(2,5)	QQU03980
	WRITE(2,7)(TITLE(I),I=1,20)	QQU03990
	WRITE(2,14) LENTH0*1000	QQU04000
	WRITE(2,19) RTQZ0	QQU04010
	WRITE(2,15) LENTH1*1000	QQU04020
	WRITE(2,20) RTQZ1	QQU04030
	WRITE(2,16) LENTH2*1000	QQU04040
	WRITE(2,21) RTQZ2	QQU04050
	WRITE(2,17) LENTH3*1000	QQU04060
	WRITE(2,22) RTQZ3	QQU04070
	WRITE(2,30) U*1000	QQU04080
	WRITE(2,31) V	QQU04090
	WRITE(2,35) D0*1000	QQU04100
	WRITE(2,40) D1*1000	QQU04110
	WRITE(2,45) D2*1000	QQU04120
	RETURN	QQU04130
5	FORMAT(/1X,'OPTICAL PROPERTIES OF MAGNETIC QUADRUPOLE PAIRS.'//)	QQU04140
7	FORMAT(20A4)	QQU04150
14	FORMAT(/1X,'LENGTH OF FIRST LENS = ',F8.2,'mm.')	QQU04160
15	FORMAT(/1X,'LENGTH OF SECOND LENS = ',F8.2,'mm.')	QQU04170
16	FORMAT(/1X,'LENGTH OF THIRD LENS = ',F8.2,'mm.')	QQU04180
17	FORMAT(/1X,'LENGTH OF FOURTH LENS = ',F8.2,'mm.')	QQU04190
19	FORMAT(/1X,'First quadrupole strength = ',F8.2)	QQU04200
20	FORMAT(/1X,'Second quadrupole strength = ',F8.2)	QQU04210
21	FORMAT(/1X,'Third quadrupole strength = ',F8.2)	QQU04220
22	FORMAT(/1X,'Fourth quadrupole strength = ',F8.2)	QQU04230
30	FORMAT(/1X,'OBJECT POSITION = ',F8.2,' mm.')	QQU04240
31	FORMAT(/1X,'NORMALISED IMAGE POSITION = ',F8.2)	QQU04250
35	FORMAT(/1X,'LENS 1-2 SEPARATION = ',F8.2,' mm.')	QQU04260
40	FORMAT(/1X,'LENS 2-3 SEPARATION = ',F8.2,' mm.')	QQU04270
45	FORMAT(/1X,'LENS 3-4 SEPARATION = ',F8.2,' mm.')	QQU04280
	END	QQU04290
C		QQU04300
C		QQU04310
C		QQU04320

C	SUBROUTINE GRAPH	QQU04330
C		QQU04340
C	This subroutine does the plotting	QQU04350
C		QQU04360
	SUBROUTINE GRAPH(Q3EX,Q0EX,CDMAG,DCDMAG,NK3)	QQU04370
	REAL*4 CDMAG(40),DCDMAG(40),COMMAG(40,2),Q3EX(40),Q0EX(40)	QQU04380
	DO 10 I=1,NK3	QQU04390
	COMMAG(I,1)=CDMAG(I)	QQU04400
10	COMMAG(I,2)=DCDMAG(I)	QQU04410
	CALL PAGE(18.0,22.0)	QQU04420
	CALL PACK IN(14.0,20.0)	QQU04430
	CALL JBAXES(Q0EX,40,12.0,' ',2,Q3EX,40,8.0,' ',2)	QQU04440
	DO 20 L=1,NK3	QQU04450
	IF(Q0EX(L).GT.0.0) THEN	QQU04460
	CALL JOIN PT(Q0EX(L),Q3EX(L))	QQU04470
	END IF	QQU04480
20	CONTINUE	QQU04490
C20	CALL MARK PT(Q0EX(L),Q3EX(L),3)	QQU04500
	CALL BREAK	QQU04510
	CALL JBAXES(COMMAG,80,12.0,'Magnification',13,Q3EX,40,8.0,' ',2)	QQU04520
	DO 40 M=1,2	QQU04530
	DO 30 N=1,NK3	QQU04540
	LINE=M	QQU04550
	CALL JOIN PT(COMMAG(N,M),Q3EX(N))	QQU04560
30	CONTINUE	QQU04570
C30	CALL MARK PT(COMMAG(N,M),Q3EX(N),LINE)	QQU04580
	CALL BREAK	QQU04590
40	CONTINUE	QQU04600
C	CALL SET KY('B ', 'L ', 2, 8)	QQU04610
C	CALL MARK KY(1, 'DCDC MAG', 8)	QQU04620
C	CALL MARK KY(2, 'CDCD MAG', 8)	QQU04630
C	CALL TITLE('T ', 'L ', 'QUADRUPLLET OPTICS', 17)	QQU04640
	CALL END PLT	QQU04650
	STOP	QQU04660
	END	QQU04670

Example data files for QPAIR, QTRIP4 and QQUAD

FILE: QPAIR DATA A GLASGOW HEP CMS/SP V 4.19

Central quadrupole pair from quadruplet system

LENGTH1	ROOTQZ1	DELQZ1	NK1
50.0	1.0000	0.1000	8
LENGTH2	ROOTQZ2	DELQZ2	NK2
50.0	1.1000	0.1000	7
RATIO	D		
0.50	25.0		

FILE: QTRIP4 DATA A GLASGOW HEP CMS/SP V 4.19

Quadrupole quadruplet high magnification mode

LENGTH0	ROOTQZ0	DELQZ0	NK0
15.00	0.00000	0.075	5
LENGTH1	ROOTQZ1	DELQZ1	NK1
50.00	1.6510	0.010	1
LENGTH2	ROOTQZ2	DELQZ2	NK2
50.00	1.4860	0.001	1
LENGTH3	ROOTQZ3	DELQZ3	NK3
25.00	0.0000	0.0500	20
OBJECT	GAP0	GAP1	GAP2
-7.500	5.0100	25.00	12.50

FILE: QQUAD DATA A GLASGOW HEP CMS/SP V 4.19

QUADRUPOLE QUADRUPLER HIGH MAG MODE

LENGTH0	ROOTQZ0	DELQZ0		
15.00	0.09001	0.00005		
LENGTH1	ROOTQZ1			
50.00	1.6510			
LENGTH2	ROOTQZ2			
50.00	1.4860			
LENGTH3	ROOTQZ3	DELQZ3	NK3	
25.00	0.7500	0.030	33	
OBJECT	IMAGE	GAP0	GAP1	GAP2
-7.5000	1.0000	5.01	25.00	12.500

Appendix 5

Data acquisition program.

A listing of the assembly language program written to acquire the digital data from the ADC is given. All the memory locations, traps etc. are specific to the Motorola KDM 68000 monoboard computer.

* PROGRAM TO READ MULTIPLE SCANS OF DATA FROM AN ADC *

```
*
DATA EQU $2000
BLOCK EQU $5000
STACK EQU $8000
VECTOR2 EQU $68
VECTOR3 EQU $6C
NSCANS EQU 10
```

```
*
DDRA1 EQU $3FF41
PDRA1 EQU $3FF41
CRA1 EQU $3FF45
DDRA2 EQU $3FF40
PDRA2 EQU $3FF40
CRA2 EQU $3FF44
```

SET UP STATUS REGISTER,LOAD AUTOVECTORS,STACK POINTER AND SCAN COUNTER

```
*
MOVE.W #$2700,SR *MASK INTERRUPTS TO LEVEL 7
MOVE.L #STACK,A7 *SET STACK POINTER
MOVE.L #SERVICE,VECTOR2 *LOAD AUTOVECTOR POINTERS
MOVE.L #SERVICE,VECTOR3
MOVE.W #NSCANS,D0 *SCAN COUNTER
MOVE.L #DATA,A0 *START ADDRESS OF DATA BLOCK
```

* CLEAR BLOCK OF MEMORY FOR DATA STORAGE OF UP TO TEN SCANS *

```
*
CLEAR LEA DATA,A1 *START ADDRESS OF DATA BLOCK
CLR (A1)+ *ZERO MEMORY LOCATION
CMP #BLOCK,A1 *FINISHED YET?
BLT.S CLEAR *IF NOT CONTINUE
```

* SET UP PIA'S AND ENABLE PROCESSOR INTERRUPTS AT LEVEL 6 OR ABOVE *

```
*
RESET
MOVE.B #0,CRA1 *ACCESS DATA DIR REG A OF PIA1
MOVE.B #0,DDRA1 *MAKE ALL LINES INPUTS
MOVE.B #%00000100,CRA1 *ACCESS PER DATA REG OF PIA1
*CA1 INTERRUPT ON FALLING EDGE MASKED
MOVE.B #0,CRA2 *ACCESS DATA DIR REG A OF PIA2
MOVE.B #%00010000,DDRA2 *MAKE A0-A3 I/P,A4 O/P,A5-A7 NOT USED
MOVE.B #%00000111,CRA2 *ACCESS PER DATA REG OF PIA2
*CA1 INTERRUPT ON RISING EDGE UNMASKED
MOVE.W #$2500,SR *ENABLE PROCESSOR INTERRUPT AT LEVEL 5
```

* MAIN PROGRAM POLLS CA1 OF PIA1 EXITING ON INTERRUPT FROM CA1 OF PIA2 *

```
*
PROGRAM SUBQ.B #1,D0 *DECREMENT SCAN COUNTER
BMI.S ENDJOB *IF SCANS COMPLETE THEN EXIT

MOVE.B #00010000,PDRA2 *SEND OUT INITIALISATION RESET PULSE
CLR.B PDRA2 *CLEAR PULSE

LOOP MOVE.B CRA1,D3 *ANY DATA YET?
BPL.S LOOP *IF NOT REPEAT TEST
MOVE.W PDRA2,(A0)+ *16 BIT READ, PIA2 LINE A3 HAS MSB
BRA.S LOOP *REPEAT UNTIL INTERRUPT

ENDJOB TRAP #15 *FINISHED NOW SO ESCAPE TO MONITOR
DC.W 0
```

* INTERRUPT SERVICE ROUTINE CLEARS 16 BYTES OF MEMORY BETWEEN SCANS *

```
*
SERVICE ADD.W #32,A0 *MOVE DATA BLOCK POINTER ALONG
MOVE.L #PROGRAM,2(A7) *CHANGE ADDRESS ON STACKED PROGRAM
*COUNT TO SET UP NEXT SCAN
MOVE.W PDRA2,A2 *DUMMY READ TO CLEAR INTERRUPT
RTE *RETURN TO CORRECT START POINT
END
```

Appendix 6

Monte Carlo Simulation

A listing of the Monte Carlo routine is given along with an example data file. The program allows simulation of electron scatter in a layer of YAG on top of a glass (silicon) substrate, although any combination of elements can be used by recalculating the appropriate parameters and constants. This version of the program allows the placement of a rectangular array of vertical gold pixellation walls throughout the YAG. The size and spacing of these walls is controlled by parameters XWALL, YWALL and WIDTH. Alignment of the gold walls with respect to the incident electron beam (at the origin) is controlled by the parameter OFFSET. If OFFSET = 0 the beam hits the YAG in the x-y plane in the centre of a rectangle (square) bounded by four gold walls. If OFFSET = 1 the beam hits the centre of a y-direction gold wall, and if OFFSET=2 the beam hits the centre of both y and x direction walls; i.e. in the centre of the gold cross formed at the intersection of two walls. If pixellation is not desired set parameter OFFSET = 0 and make XWALL and YWALL larger than YAX.

Methods of calculating the various constants used in the program are described in 'The resist exposure and development suite user guide' available from Dr. Steve Beaumont of Glasgow University Electrical Engineering Department. The input parameters not defined in the program header are:

Ncode	Parameter determining the form of the output plot.
Ncode = 0	Produces a y-z plot as shown in chapter 8.
Ncode = 1	Produces an x-y slice with the trajectories followed between two z limits.
Ztop	Upper z axis limit for x-y display (μm).
Zbot	Lower z axis limit for x-y display (μm).
Xwall	Half spacing of gold walls in x direction (μm).
Ywall	Half spacing of gold walls in y direction (μm).
Offset	Parameter controlling position of gold walls relative to the origin.
Offset = 0	Walls equidistant about origin in x and y directions.
Offset = 1	Origin coincides with the centre of a y direction gold wall, x direction walls equidistant about the origin.
Offset = 2	Origin coincides with centre of gold wall in both x and y directions.

```

C
C MONTE CARLO PROGRAM
C
C THE PRINCIPAL VARIABLES ARE DEFINED AS FOLLOWS:
C
C CO1 = ARRAY OF X,Y,Z CO-ORDS IN CM
C A1 = TRANSFORMATION MATRIX TO CONVERT TO MAIN COORDS
C TETA = ANGLE OF DEFLECTION IN RADIANS
C FIE = AZIMUTHAL ANGLE IN RADIANS
C STEP = STEP LENGTH IN CM
C EEV = CURRENT ENERGY OF ELECTRON IN ELECTRON VOLTS
C ALPHAS = VALUE OF ALPHA FOR THE SCATTERING ATOM
C YFL = RANDOM NUMBER GENERATOR VARIABLE
C IX,IY = RANDOM NUMBER GENERATOR VARIABLES
C NCODE = DATA CODE - DETERMINES FORM OF OUTPUT
C NMODE = INDICATION OF THE STATE OF THE ELECTRON
C     NMODE = 1 ELECTRON IS IN YAG
C     NMODE = 2 ELECTRON HAS BEEN REFLECTED
C     NMODE = 3 ELECTRON IS IN THE SUBSTRATE (GLASS)
C     NMODE = 4 ELECTRON IS IN THE GOLD BARRIERS
C EEV0 = INITIAL ENERGY OF ELECTRONS IN ELECTRON VOLTS
C FILM = THICKNESS OF YAG FILM IN MICRONS
C SUBSTR = THICKNESS OF SUBSTRATE FILM IN MICRONS
C ZFILM = THICKNESS OF YAG FILM IN CM
C ZSUPP = THICKNESS OF SUBSTRATE FILM IN CM
C NEVT = NUMBER OF ELECTRONS TO BE SIMULATED
C NEVTX,NEVT1 = ELECTRON COUNTER
C NT = NUMBER OF ELECTRONS TRANSMITTED
C NR = NUMBER OF ELECTRONS REFLECTED
C NP = NUMBER OF ELECTRONS REMAINING IN YAG
C NB = NUMBER OF ELECTRONS BACKSCATTERED FROM SUBSTRATE
C NTS = NUMBER OF ELECTRONS TRANSMITTED THROUGH ENTIRE FILM
C FT = FRACTION OF ELECTRONS TRANSMITTED
C FR = FRACTION OF ELECTRONS REFLECTED
C FP = FRACTION OF ELECTRONS IN YAG
C FB = FRACTION OF ELECTRONS BACKSCATTERED INTO YAG AT LEAST ONCE
C FNTS = FRACTION OF ELECTRONS TRANSMITTED THROUGH SUPPORT FILM
C EEV1 = ELECTRON ENERGY BEFORE SCATTERING EVENT
C EEVL = ELECTRON ENERGY LOSS IN ELECTRON VOLTS
C IY = DISTANCE OF SCATTERING CENTRE FROM ORIGINAL DIRECTION OF
C     ENTRY MEASURED IN THE Y DIRECTION IN CM.
C RTIME = TIME REMAINING UNTIL JOB ENDS IN SECONDS
C NEVT1 = TOTAL NUMBER OF ELECTRONS SIMULATED
C NEVTS = DO LOOP COUNTER FOR ELECTRONS
C RANGE = RANGE OF ELECTRONS IN CM.
C DIST = DISTANCE OF ELECTRON FROM YAG
C EYAGN = NORMALISED INITIAL ENERGY IN YAG
C RYAG = NORMALISED INITIAL RANGE IN YAG
C GYAG = CONSTANT FOR GREENEICH AND VAN DUZER APPROXIMATION
C ACONST = VALUE OF DSQRT(E/2)
C AIYAG = EXCITATION ENERGY OF YAG IN EV
C AISI = EXCITATION ENERGY OF SI IN EV
C ESIN = NORMALISED INITIAL ENERGY IN SILICON
C GSI = ANOTHER CONSTANT FOR GREENEICH AND VAN DUZER APPROXIMATION
C
C IMPLICIT REAL*8(A-H,O-Z)
C DIMENSION CO1(3),CSTART(3),A1(3,3),TITL(20)
C REAL*4 RTIME,YFL,AEV(201),AY(201),AEVXY(201,201),YW(4),XW(4)
C COMMON CO1,A1,TETA,FIE,STEP,EEV,EEVL,ALPHAS,RANGE,INEL,NCODE
C COMMON /RAN/YFL,IX,IY
C COMMON /SUB/EYAGN,RYAG,GYAG
C COMMON /SUB1/ESIN,RSI,GSI
C COMMON /WALL/EAUN,RAU,GAU
C COMMON /PLOT/AMY,AEV
C COMMON /PLOT2/EEVT
C COMMON /PLOT3/AEVXY
C DATA ACONST/1.1658/
C DATA AIYAG/171.32586/,AIS1/172.25/,AIAU/796.675/
C DATA NT/0/,NR/0/,NTS/0/,NGTOY/0/,NAUTOY/0/,NYAG/0/,NAU/0/,NGLAS/0/
C DATA YAGEN/0.0/,GLASEN/0.0/,AUEN/0.0/,REN/0.0/,TEN/0.0/
C DATA RTIME/0.0/

```

```

MON00010
MON00020
MON00030
MON00040
MON00050
MON00060
MON00070
MON00080
MON00090
MON00100
MON00110
MON00120
MON00130
MON00140
MON00150
MON00160
MON00170
MON00180
MON00190
MON00200
MON00210
MON00220
MON00230
MON00240
MON00250
MON00260
MON00270
MON00280
MON00290
MON00300
MON00310
MON00320
MON00330
MON00340
MON00350
MON00360
MON00370
MON00380
MON00390
MON00400
MON00410
MON00420
MON00430
MON00440
MON00450
MON00460
MON00470
MON00480
MON00490
MON00500
MON00510
MON00520
MON00530
MON00540
MON00550
MON00560
MON00570
MON00580
MON00590
MON00600
MON00610
MON00620
MON00630
MON00640
MON00650
MON00660
MON00670
MON00680
MON00690
MON00700
MON00710
MON00720

```

```

IX = 1722371299
C
C Set up random number generator
C
C CALL G05CCF
C CALL G05CBF(1)
C CALL ABN322
C
C Read input data
C
C READ(3,20) (TITL(I),I=1,20)
C FORMAT(20A4)
C READ(3,21) NCODE,EEV0,FILM,SUBSTR,NEVT
C READ(3,22) RYAG,RSI,RAU,YAX,OFFSET
C READ(3,23) ZTOP,ZBOT,XWALL,YWALL,WIDTH
C21 FORMAT(/5X,I10,3F10.2,I10)
C22 FORMAT(/5X,4F10.0,I10)
C23 FORMAT(/5X,5F10.0)
C
C Calculate normalised incident energy in YAG, EYAGN
C
C EYAGN=ACONST*EEV0/AIYAG
C
C Calculate normalised incident energy in SI, ESIN
C
C ESIN=ACONST*EEV0/AISI
C
C Calculate normalised incident energy in AU, EAUN
C
C EAUN=ACONST*EEV0/AIAU
C
C Calculate gammas
C
C GYAG=1.0-DEXP(DSQRT((DLOG(EYAGN)**2)-2.
C -* (EYAGN**2)/RYAG)-DLOG(EYAGN))
C
C GSI=1.0-DEXP(DSQRT((DLOG(ESIN)**2)-2.
C -* (ESIN**2)/RSI)-DLOG(ESIN))
C
C GAU=1.0-DEXP(DSQRT((DLOG(EAUN)**2)-2.
C -* (EAUN**2)/RAU)-DLOG(EAUN))
C
C Convert film and substrate thickness to cm
C
C ZFILM=FILM*1.0E-4
C ZSUPP=SUBSTR*1.0E-4
C
C Initialise arrays for graph plotting routines
C AMY=YAX/100.0
C AEV(1)=0.0
C AY(1)=-YAX
C EEVT=0.0
C DO 30 I=2,201
C AEV(I)=0.0
C AY(I)=AY(I-1)+AMY
C30 CONTINUE
C DO 31 I=1,201
C DO 31 J=1,201
C AEVXY(I,J)=0.0
C31 CONTINUE
C
C Set up coordinates of AU wall boundaries in X and Y directions.
C Geometry is controlled by parameter OFFSET.
C
C YOFFST=0.0
C XOFFST=0.0
C IF(OFFSET.GT.0) YOFFST=YWALL+(WIDTH/2.0)
C IF(OFFSET.EQ.2) XOFFST=XWALL+(WIDTH/2.0)
C XW(1)=XWALL-XOFFST
C XW(2)=XWALL+WIDTH-XOFFST
C XW(3)=(3*XWALL)+WIDTH-XOFFST
C XW(4)=(3*XWALL)+(2*WIDTH)-XOFFST

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MON00730
MON00740
MON00750
MON00760
MON00770
MON00780
MON00790
MON00800
MON00810
MON00820
MON00830
MON00840
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MON00860
MON00870
MON00880
MON00890
MON00900
MON00910
MON00920
MON00930
MON00940
MON00950
MON00960
MON00970
MON00980
MON00990
MON01000
MON01010
MON01020
MON01030
MON01040
MON01050
MON01060
MON01070
MON01080
MON01090
MON01100
MON01110
MON01120
MON01130
MON01140
MON01150
MON01160
MON01170
MON01180
MON01190
MON01200
MON01210
MON01220
MON01230
MON01240
MON01250
MON01260
MON01270
MON01280
MON01290
MON01300
MON01310
MON01320
MON01330
MON01340
MON01350
MON01360
MON01370
MON01380
MON01390
MON01400
MON01410
MON01420
MON01430
MON01440

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```

YW(1)=YWALL-YOFFST
YW(2)=YWALL+WIDTH-YOFFST
YW(3)=(3*YWALL)+WIDTH-YOFFST
YW(4)=(3*YWALL)+(2*WIDTH)-YOFFST
C
C Set up plotting routines
C
IF(NCODE.NE.0) GOTO 24
CALL SETYZ(FILM,SUBSTR,YW,YAX)
GOTO 25
24 CALL SETXY(FILM,SUBSTR,XW,YW,YAX)
C
C Convert wall dimensions to centimetres
C
25 DO 26 I=1,4
XW(I)=XW(I)*1.0E-4
YW(I)=YW(I)*1.0E-4
26 CONTINUE
WIDTH=WIDTH*1.0E-4
C
C Set up do loop for electrons
C
DO 185 NEVTS=1,NEVT
C
CALL JOIN PT(0.0,0.0)
C
C Initialise electron energy,CO1,CSTART,A1,MMODE,TETA,FIE
C
EEV=EEV0
DO 50 I=1,3
CSTART(I)=0.0
50 CO1(I)=0.0
DO 51 I=1,3
DO 52 J=1,3
52 A1(I,J)=0.0
51 A1(I,I)=1.0
TETA=0.0
FIE=0.0
MMODE=1
C
C Branch to appropriate subroutine for first scattering event
C
IF(DABS(CO1(2)).GE.YW(1).AND.DABS(CO1(2)).LE.YW(2)) GOTO 300
IF(DABS(CO1(2)).GE.YW(3).AND.DABS(CO1(2)).LE.YW(4)) GOTO 300
C*****
C ELECTRON IS IN YAG REGION
C*****
C
C Store electron energy and position prior to collision
C and establish position of next scattering centre
C
100 EEV1=EEV
DO 101 I=1,3
CSTART(I)=CO1(I)
101 CONTINUE
CALL YAG
IF(INEL.EQ.1) GOTO 500
CALL ANGLE
CALL CORD(ZTOP,ZBOT)
GOTO 530
500 TETA=0.0
FIE=0.0
CALL CORD(ZTOP,ZBOT)
C
C Has electron been reflected out of top surface?
C
530 IF(CO1(3).GT.0.0) GOTO 90
NR=NR+1
REN=REN+EEV
MMODE=2

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MON01450
MON01460
MON01470
MON01480
MON01490
MON01500
MON01510
MON01520
MON01530
MON01540
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MON01580
MON01590
MON01600
MON01610
MON01620
MON01630
MON01640
MON01650
MON01660
MON01670
MON01680
MON01690
MON01700
MON01710
MON01720
MON01730
MON01740
MON01750
MON01760
MON01770
MON01780
MON01790
MON01800
MON01810
MON01820
MON01830
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MON01890
MON01900
MON01910
MON01920
MON01930
MON01940
MON01950
MON01960
MON01970
MON01980
MON01990
MON02000
MON02010
MON02020
MON02030
MON02040
MON02050
MON02060
MON02070
MON02080
MON02090
MON02100
MON02110
MON02120
MON02130
MON02140
MON02150
MON02160

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C      Is electron still above substrate interface? MON02170
C      MON02180
90     IF(CO1(3).GE.ZFILM) MMODE=3 MON02190
C      MON02200
C      Is electron inside gold barriers? MON02210
C      MON02220
C      IF(MMODE.EQ.2.OR.MMODE.EQ.3)GOTO 91 MON02230
C      IF(DABS(CO1(1)).GT.XW(1).AND.DABS(CO1(1)).LT.XW(2)) MMODE=4 MON02240
C      IF(DABS(CO1(1)).GT.XW(3).AND.DABS(CO1(1)).LT.XW(4)) MMODE=4 MON02250
C      IF(DABS(CO1(2)).GT.YW(1).AND.DABS(CO1(2)).LT.YW(2)) MMODE=4 MON02260
C      IF(DABS(CO1(2)).GT.YW(3).AND.DABS(CO1(2)).LT.YW(4)) MMODE=4 MON02270
C      MON02280
C      Add energy loss to total lost in YAG. Terminate trajectory MON02290
C      if electron energy less than mean ionisation energy in YAG MON02300
C      Branch to appropriate subroutine for next scattering event MON02310
C      MON02320
91     IF(EEV.LT.AIYAG.AND.MMODE.NE.2.AND.MMODE.NE.3) GOTO 116 MON02330
C      YAGEN=YAGEN+EEVL MON02340
C      CALL ARRAY(CSTART(1),CSTART(2),EEVL) MON02350
C      GOTO(100,180,110,300) MMODE MON02360
116    YAGEN=YAGEN+EEV1 MON02370
C      CALL ARRAY(CSTART(1),CSTART(2),EEV1) MON02380
C      NYAG=NYAG+1 MON02390
C      GOTO 180 MON02400
C      MON02410
C***** MON02420
C ELECTRON IS IN THE SUBSTRATE (GLASS) REGION MON02430
C***** MON02440
C      MON02450
C      Electron has entered the glass (silicon) substrate- MON02460
C      store energy prior to next collision. MON02470
C      MON02480
110    NT=NT+1 MON02490
111    EEV1=EEV MON02500
C      MON02510
C      Establish position of next scattering centre (silicon) MON02520
C      CALL SI MON02530
C      IF(INEL.EQ.1) GOTO 510 MON02540
C      CALL ANGLE MON02550
C      CALL CORD(ZTOP,ZBOT) MON02560
C      GOTO 520 MON02570
510    TETA=0.0 MON02580
C      FIE=0.0 MON02590
C      CALL CORD(ZTOP,ZBOT) MON02600
C      MON02610
C      Is electron above or below YAG/GLASS interface? MON02620
C      MON02630
520    IF(CO1(3).GE.ZFILM) GOTO 140 MON02640
C      MON02650
C      Electron has left substrate - has it been reflected? MON02660
C      MON02670
C      IF(CO1(3).GT.0.0) GOTO 150 MON02680
C      MON02690
C      Electron has been reflected through YAG - Terminate trajectory MON02700
C      MON02710
C      GLASEN = GLASEN+EEVL MON02720
C      REN=REN+EEV MON02730
C      NR=NR+1 MON02740
C      GOTO 180 MON02750
C      MON02760
C      Electron is either in YAG or GOLD, which? MON02770
C      MON02780
150    IF(DABS(CO1(1)).GT.XW(1).AND.DABS(CO1(1)).LT.XW(2)) GOTO 152 MON02790
C      IF(DABS(CO1(1)).GT.XW(3).AND.DABS(CO1(1)).LT.XW(4)) GOTO 152 MON02800
C      IF(DABS(CO1(2)).GT.YW(1).AND.DABS(CO1(2)).LT.YW(2)) GOTO 152 MON02810
C      IF(DABS(CO1(2)).GT.YW(3).AND.DABS(CO1(2)).LT.YW(4)) GOTO 152 MON02820
C      MON02830
C      Electron has been backscattered into YAG MON02840
C      MON02850
151    NGTOY=NGTOY+1 MON02860
C      MMODE=1 MON02870
C      GOTO 299 MON02880

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C		MON02890
C	Electron has been backscattered into GOLD	MON02900
C		MON02910
152	MMODE=4	MON02920
	GOTO 299	MON02930
C		MON02940
C	Electron is below YAG/GLASS interface- has it been transmitted?	MON02950
C		MON02960
140	IF(CO1(3).LT.(ZFILM+ZSUPP)) GOTO 145	MON02970
	GLASEN=GLASEN+EEVL	MON02980
	TEN=TEN+EEV	MON02990
	NTS=NTS+1	MON03000
	GOTO 180	MON03010
C		MON03020
C	Electron is still in glass - can it return to YAG. Terminate	MON03030
C	if not or if energy < mean ionisation energy in glass	MON03040
C		MON03050
145	IF(RANGE.LT.(CO1(3)-ZFILM).OR.EEV.LT.AISI) GOTO 146	MON03060
	GOTO 299	MON03070
146	GLASEN=GLASEN+EEV1	MON03080
	NGLAS=NGLAS+1	MON03090
	GOTO 180	MON03100
C		MON03110
C	Add energy loss into total lost in glass and branch to required	MON03120
C	scattering subroutine	MON03130
C		MON03140
299	GLASEN=GLASEN+EEVL	MON03150
	GOTO(100,180,111,300) MMODE	MON03160
C		MON03170
C	*****	MON03180
C	ELECTRON IS IN GOLD REGION	MON03190
C	*****	MON03200
C		MON03210
C	Electron is in gold barrier	MON03220
C	Establish position of next scattering event (GOLD)	MON03230
C	Store electron energy and position prior to scattering	MON03240
C		MON03250
300	EEV1=EEV	MON03260
	DO 301 I=1,3	MON03270
	CSTART(I)=CO1(I)	MON03280
301	CONTINUE	MON03290
	CALL GOLD	MON03300
	IF(INEL.EQ.1) GOTO 330	MON03310
	CALL ANGLE	MON03320
	CALL CORD(ZTOP,ZBOT)	MON03330
	GOTO 335	MON03340
330	TETA=0.0	MON03350
	FIE=0.0	MON03360
	CALL CORD(ZTOP,ZBOT)	MON03370
C		MON03380
C	Is electron above or below interface?	MON03390
C		MON03400
335	IF(CO1(3).GE.ZFILM) GOTO 340	MON03410
C		MON03420
C	Electron is above glass - has it been reflected?	MON03430
C		MON03440
C	IF(CO1(3).GT.0.0) GOTO 350	MON03450
C		MON03460
C	Electron has been reflected - terminate trajectory	MON03470
	AUEN=AUEN+EEVL	MON03480
	REN=REN+EEV	MON03490
	NR=NR+1	MON03500
	GOTO 180	MON03510
C		MON03520
C	Electron is in YAG or GOLD - which?	MON03530
C		MON03540
350	IF(DABS(CO1(1)).GT.XW(1).AND.DABS(CO1(1)).LT.XW(2)) GOTO 351	MON03550
	IF(DABS(CO1(1)).GT.XW(3).AND.DABS(CO1(1)).LT.XW(4)) GOTO 351	MON03560
	IF(DABS(CO1(2)).GT.YW(1).AND.DABS(CO1(2)).LT.YW(2)) GOTO 351	MON03570
	IF(DABS(CO1(2)).GT.YW(3).AND.DABS(CO1(2)).LT.YW(4)) GOTO 351	MON03580
C		MON03590
C	Electron has been backscattered into YAG	MON03600

```

C
NAUTOY=NAUTOY+1
MMODE=1
GOTO 399
C
C Electron is still in gold - can it return to YAG? Terminate
C if not or if energy < mean ionisation energy in GOLD
C
351 IF(EEV.LE.AIAU.OR.RANGE.LE.(WIDTH/SQRT(2.0))) GOTO 380
GOTO 381
380 AUEN=AUEN+EEV1
NAU=NAU+1
GOTO 180
381 MMODE=4
GOTO 399
C
C Electron is below YAG/GOLD layer - has it been transmitted?
C
340 IF(CO1(3).LT.(ZFILM+ZSUPP)) GOTO 370
NTS=NTS+1
AUEN=AUEN+EEVL
TEN=TEN+EEV
GOTO 180
C
C Electron has been backscattered into the substrate (GLASS)
C
370 MMODE=3
C
C Add energy loss into total lost in the substrate and
C branch to the appropriate scattering routine.
C
399 AUEN=AUEN+EEVL
GOTO(100,180,110,300) MMODE
C
C*****
C START NEW ELECTRON AFTER TIME CHECK
C*****
C
180 NEVTX=NEVTS
CALL TIMEL(RTIME)
IF(RTIME.LE.20.0) GOTO 186
CALL BREAK
CALL JOIN PT(0.0,0.0)
185 CONTINUE
186 CALL BREAK
C
C*****
C CALCULATE FRACTIONS AND PRINT RESULTS
C*****
C
C CALCULATE PERCENTAGES
TOTEV=EEV0*NEVTX
FYAGEN=(YAGEN/TOTEV)*100
FGLASE=(GLASEN/TOTEV)*100
FAUEN=(AUEN/TOTEV)*100
FREN=(REN/TOTEV)*100
FTEN=(TEN/TOTEV)*100
FNYAG=(DFLOAT(NYAG)/DFLOAT(NEVTX))*100
FNGLAS=(DFLOAT(NGLAS)/DFLOAT(NEVTX))*100
FNAU=(DFLOAT(NAU)/DFLOAT(NEVTX))*100
FNR=(DFLOAT(NR)/DFLOAT(NEVTX))*100
FNNTS=(DFLOAT(NTS)/DFLOAT(NEVTX))*100
FNNT=(DFLOAT(NT)/DFLOAT(NEVTX))*100
FNGTOY=(DFLOAT(NGTOY)/DFLOAT(NEVTX))*100
FAUTOY=(DFLOAT(NAUTOY)/DFLOAT(NEVTX))*100
C
C CALCULATE 50,70 AND 90% RANGES FOR ENERGY GRAPH
NPERC=EEVT*(9.0/10.0)
SPERC=EEVT*(7.0/10.0)
FPERC=EEVT*(5.0/10.0)
SUM1=AEV(101)
SUM2=0.0

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MON03610
MON03620
MON03630
MON03640
MON03650
MON03660
MON03670
MON03680
MON03690
MON03700
MON03710
MON03720
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MON03740
MON03750
MON03760
MON03770
MON03780
MON03790
MON03800
MON03810
MON03820
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MON03870
MON03880
MON03890
MON03900
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MON03950
MON03960
MON03970
MON03980
MON03990
MON04000
MON04010
MON04020
MON04030
MON04040
MON04050
MON04060
MON04070
MON04080
MON04090
MON04100
MON04110
MON04120
MON04130
MON04140
MON04150
MON04160
MON04170
MON04180
MON04190
MON04200
MON04210
MON04220
MON04230
MON04240
MON04250
MON04260
MON04270
MON04280
MON04290
MON04300
MON04310
MON04320

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DO 600 I=1,100
SUM1=SUM1+AEV(101+I)
SUM2=SUM2+AEV(101-I)
IF((SUM1+SUM2).LE.FPERC) IFPERC=I
IF((SUM1+SUM2).LE.SPERC) ISPERC=I
IF((SUM1+SUM2).LE.NPERC) INPERC=I
600 CONTINUE
C
C*****
CPRINT RESULTS
C*****
C
WRITE(4,192)(TITL(I),I=1,20)
192 FORMAT(///20A4)
WRITE(4,193) EEV0
193 FORMAT(F10.0,' = RELATIVISTIC ENERGY OF ELECTRONS IN eV')
WRITE(4,194) FILM
194 FORMAT(F10.4,' = THICKNESS OF YAG FILM IN MICRONS')
WRITE(4,195) SUBSTR
195 FORMAT(F10.4,' = THICKNESS OF SUBSTRATE FILM IN MICRONS')
WRITE(4,196) XWALL*2.0
196 FORMAT(F10.4,' = DISTANCE BETWEEN AU WALLS (X DIRN.) IN MICRONS')
WRITE(4,197) YWALL*2.0
197 FORMAT(F10.4,' = DISTANCE BETWEEN AU WALLS (Y DIRN.) IN MICRONS')
WRITE(4,216) WIDTH*1.0E4
216 FORMAT(F10.4,' = WIDTH OF GOLD WALLS IN MICRONS')
WRITE(4,198) RYAG
198 FORMAT(F10.3,' = NORMALISED RANGE IN YAG')
WRITE(4,199) RSI
199 FORMAT(F10.3,' = NORMALISED RANGE IN SILICON')
WRITE(4,200) RAU
200 FORMAT(F10.3,' = NORMALISED RANGE IN GOLD')
WRITE(4,201) NEVTX
201 FORMAT(I10,' = NUMBER OF ELECTRONS SIMULATED')
WRITE(4,202)
202 FORMAT(//1X,'NUMBER OF ELECTRONS :',/)
WRITE(4,203) NYAG,FNYAG
203 FORMAT(1X,'ABSORBED IN YAG = ',I6,5X,F6.2,' %')
WRITE(4,204) NAU,FNAU
204 FORMAT(1X,'ABSORBED IN GOLD = ',I6,5X,F6.2,' %')
WRITE(4,205) NGLAS,FGLAS
205 FORMAT(1X,'ABSORBED IN GLASS = ',I6,5X,F6.2,' %')
WRITE(4,206) NR,FNR
206 FORMAT(1X,'REFLECTED BACK OUT = ',I6,5X,F6.2,' %')
WRITE(4,207) NTS,FNTS
207 FORMAT(1X,'TRANSMITTED THROUGH BULK = ',I6,5X,F6.2,' %')
WRITE(4,208) NT,FNT
208 FORMAT(1X,'CROSSING INTO SUBSTRATE = ',I6,5X,F6.2,' %')
WRITE(4,209) NAUTOY,FAUTOY
209 FORMAT(1X,'BACKSCATTERED FROM GOLD TO YAG = ',I6,5X,F6.2,' %')
WRITE(4,210) NGTOY,FNGTOY
210 FORMAT(1X,'BACKSCATTERED FROM GLASS TO YAG = ',I6,5X,F6.2,' %')
WRITE(4,211) FYAGEN
211 FORMAT(//1X,'FRACTION OF INCIDENT ENERGY DEPOSITED IN YAG = ',
-F6.2,' %')
WRITE(4,212) FAUEN
212 FORMAT(1X,'FRACTION OF INCIDENT ENERGY DEPOSITED IN GOLD = ',
-F6.2,' %')
WRITE(4,213) FGLASE
213 FORMAT(1X,'FRACTION OF INCIDENT ENERGY DEPOSITED IN GLASS = ',
-F6.2,' %')
WRITE(4,214) FREN
214 FORMAT(1X,'FRACTION OF INCIDENT ENERGY REFLECTED = ',
-F6.2,' %')
WRITE(4,215) FTEN
215 FORMAT(1X,'FRACTION OF INCIDENT ENERGY TRANSMITTED = ',
-F6.2,' %')
WRITE(4,218)
218 FORMAT(///// )
WRITE(4,217)(AEV(I),I=1,201)
217 FORMAT(1X,5F10.0)
C

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MON04330
MON04340
MON04350
MON04360
MON04370
MON04380
MON04390
MON04400
MON04410
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MON04460
MON04470
MON04480
MON04490
MON04500
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MON04570
MON04580
MON04590
MON04600
MON04610
MON04620
MON04630
MON04640
MON04650
MON04660
MON04670
MON04680
MON04690
MON04700
MON04710
MON04720
MON04730
MON04740
MON04750
MON04760
MON04770
MON04780
MON04790
MON04800
MON04810
MON04820
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MON04880
MON04890
MON04900
MON04910
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MON04970
MON04980
MON04990
MON05000
MON05010
MON05020
MON05030
MON05040

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C*****
C DRAW GRAPH
C*****
C
  CALL JBAXES(AY,201,22.5,'MICRONS',7,AEV,201,22.5,'ELECTRON VOLTS'
-,14)
  CALL DRAW CV(AY,AEV,201)
  CALL YRANGE(AY(IFPERC+101),0.0,AEV(IFPERC+101))
  CALL YRANGE(AY(ISPERC+101),0.0,AEV(ISPERC+101))
  CALL YRANGE(AY(INPERC+101),0.0,AEV(INPERC+101))
  CALL TITLE('B ','C ','100 keV ELECTRONS 30 um YAG',27)
  CALL SKETCH(AEVXY,201,201,22.5,15.0)
  CALL SOLID(AEVXY,201,201,22.5,15.0)
  CALL END PLT
  STOP
  END
C
C*****
C SUBROUTINE YAG
C*****
C
  This subroutine calculates the step length, final energy,
  and range in YAG for the scattering event
C
  The principle variables are defined as follows:
C
  DENY = DENSITY OF YTTRIUM ATOMS IN YAG
  DENAL = DENSITY OF ALUMINIUM ATOMS IN YAG
  DENO = DENSITY OF OXYGEN ATOMS IN YAG
  ALPHAY = VALUE OF ALPHA FOR YTTRIUM
  ALPHAL = VALUE OF ALPHA FOR ALUMINIUM
  ALPHAO = VALUE OF ALPHA FOR OXYGEN
  ALPHAS = VALUE OF ALPHA FOR THE SCATTERING ATOM
  ALAMDA = MEAN FREE PATH IN CM.
  VEL = VELOCITY OF ELECTRONS IN CM/SEC
  SIGMAY = SCATTERING CROSS SECTION OF YTTRIUM
  SIGMAL = SCATTERING CROSS SECTION OF ALUMINIUM
  SIGMAO = SCATTERING CROSS SECTION OF OXYGEN
  R1,R2 = RANDOM NUMBERS BETWEEN 0 AND 1
  STEPN = NORMALISED STEP LENGTH
  RANGE = ELECTRON RANGE IN CM
  RANGEN = NORMALISED RANGE
  STEP = STEP LENGTH IN CM
  PY = PROBABILITY THAT YTTRIUM IS THE SCATTERER
  PA = PROBABILITY THAT ALUMINIUM IS THE SCATTERER
  PO = PROBABILITY THAT OXYGEN IS THE SCATTERER
  EYAGN = NORMALISED INITIAL ENERGY IN YAG
  RYAG = NORMALISED INITIAL RANGE IN YAG
  GYAG = CONSTANT IN GREENEICH AND VAN DUZER EQUATION
  CONST = DENORMALISING FACTOR FOR RANGES
  DENSTY = DENSITY OF YAG IN GM/CM
  AIYAG = EXCITATION ENERGY OF YAG IN EV
C
  SUBROUTINE YAG
  IMPLICIT REAL*8(A-H,O-Z)
  DIMENSION CO1(3),A1(3,3)
  COMMON CO1,A1,TETA,FIE,STEP,EEV,EEVL,ALPHAS,RANGE,INEL
  COMMON /RAN/YFL,IX,IY
  COMMON /SUB/EYAGN,RYAG,GYAG
  DATA DENY/1.39156D22/,DENAL/2.31928D22/
  DATA DENO/5.56627D22/,CONST/5.86182D-7/
  DATA DENSTY/4.56/
  DATA C1/7.9015225/,C2/5.4786098/,C3/4.66/
  DATA C4/3.5176094D15/,C5/3.13612D20/
  DATA C6/3.6588D19/,C7/1.44743D19/
  DATA C8/2.31928D22/,C9/1.39156D22/
  DATA C10/1.68009D11/,C11/6.80457D-3/
  DATA ACONST/1.1658/,AIYAG/171.32586/
  Z=DSQRT(EEV)
  ALPHAY=C1/Z
  ALPHAL=C2/Z
  ALPHAO=C3/Z

```

MON05050
MON05060
MON05070
MON05080
MON05090
MON05100
MON05110
MON05120
MON05130
MON05140
MON05150
MON05160
MON05170
MON05180
MON05190
MON05200
MON05210
MON05220
MON05230
MON05240
MON05250
MON05260
MON05270
MON05280
MON05290
MON05300
MON05310
MON05320
MON05330
MON05340
MON05350
MON05360
MON05370
MON05380
MON05390
MON05400
MON05410
MON05420
MON05430
MON05440
MON05450
MON05460
MON05470
MON05480
MON05490
MON05500
MON05510
MON05520
MON05530
MON05540
MON05550
MON05560
MON05570
MON05580
MON05590
MON05600
MON05610
MON05620
MON05630
MON05640
MON05650
MON05660
MON05670
MON05680
MON05690
MON05700
MON05710
MON05720
MON05730
MON05740
MON05750
MON05760

C		MON05770
C	Calculate elastic mean free path.	MON05780
C		MON05790
	VEL=DSQRT(C4*EEV)	MON05800
	Z=VEL**4	MON05810
	SIGMAY=C5/(Z*(ALPHAY**2)*(ALPHAY**2+1.0))	MON05820
	SIGMAL=C6/(Z*(ALPHAL**2)*(ALPHAL**2+1.0))	MON05830
	SIGMAO=C7/(Z*(ALPHAO**2)*(ALPHAO**2+1.0))	MON05840
	AMFPE=1.0/((DENY*SIGMAY)+(DENAL*SIGMAL)+(DENO*SIGMAO))	MON05850
C		MON05860
C	Calculate inelastic mean free path	MON05870
C		MON05880
	AMFPI=(AIYAG)/(C10*DLOG(C11*EEV)/EEV)	MON05890
C		MON05900
C	Calculate the total mean free path	MON05910
C		MON05920
	AMFPT=AMFPI*AMFPE/(AMFPI+AMFPE)	MON05930
C		MON05940
C	Step length is mean free path * random number	MON05950
C		MON05960
	CALL RAND	MON05970
	R1=DBLE(YFL)	MON05980
	IX=IY	MON05990
	STEP=-AMFPT*DLOG(R1)	MON06000
C		MON06010
C	Decide whether scattering event is elastic or inelastic.	MON06020
C		MON06030
	CALL RAND	MON06040
	R1=DBLE(YFL)	MON06050
	IX=IY	MON06060
	IF(R1.LE.(AMFPT/AMFPI)) GOTO 20	MON06070
C		MON06080
C	Elastic collision; determine which atom has scattered the electron	MON06090
C		MON06100
	INEL=0	MON06110
	EETEMP=EEV	MON06120
	PA=C8*SIGMAL*AMFPE	MON06130
	PY=C9*SIGMAY*AMFPE	MON06140
	CALL RAND	MON06150
	R2=DBLE(YFL)	MON06160
	IX=IY	MON06170
	IF(R2.LT.PA)GOTO 100	MON06180
	Z=PA+PY	MON06190
	IF(R2.LE.Z)GOTO 101	MON06200
	ALPHAS=ALPHAO	MON06210
	GOTO 30	MON06220
100	ALPHAS=ALPHAL	MON06230
	GOTO 30	MON06240
101	ALPHAS=ALPHAY	MON06250
	GOTO 30	MON06260
C		MON06270
C	Inelastic collision; determine the energy loss	MON06280
C		MON06290
20	INEL=1	MON06300
	CALL RAND	MON06310
	R1=DBLE(YFL)	MON06320
	IX=IY	MON06330
	EEVL=-(AIYAG*DLOG(R1))	MON06340
	EEV=EEV-EEVL	MON06350
C		MON06360
C	Calculate Bethe energy loss and range	MON06370
C		MON06380
30	STEPN=DENSTY*STEP/CONST	MON06390
	EEVN=EEV*ACONST/AIYAG	MON06400
	RANGEN=(RYAG/GYAG)*((GYAG-1.0)+(1.0/EYAGN)*	MON06410
	-DEXP(DSQRT((DLOG(EYAGN))**2-2.0*EYAGN*(EYAGN-EEVN)/RYAG)))	MON06420
	RANGEN=RANGEN-STEPN	MON06430
	IF(INEL.EQ.1) GOTO 35	MON06440
	EEVN=EYAGN+(0.5*RYAG/EYAGN)*((DLOG(EYAGN)*	MON06450
	-(1.0-GYAG*(RYAG-RANGEN)/RYAG)))**2-(DLOG(EYAGN)**2))	MON06460
	EEV=AIYAG*EEVN/ACONST	MON06470
	EEVL=EETEMP-EEV	MON06480


```

C SUBROUTINE ANGLE MON07210
C*****MON07220
C MON07230
C This subroutine calculates scattering angles TETA and FIE MON07240
C MON07250
C SUBROUTINE ANGLE MON07260
C IMPLICIT REAL*8(A-H,O-Z) MON07270
C DIMENSION CO1(3),A1(3,3) MON07280
C COMMON CO1,A1,TETA,FIE,STEP,EEV,EEVL,ALPHAS,RANGE MON07290
C COMMON /RAN/YFL,IX,IY MON07300
C CALL RAND MON07310
C R3=DBLE(YFL) MON07320
C IX=IY MON07330
C Z1=ALPHAS*ALPHAS MON07340
C Z3=R3 MON07350
C Z2=(Z3*(1.0+(2.0*Z1))-Z1)/(Z3+Z1) MON07360
C TETA=DACOS(Z2) MON07370
C CALL RAND MON07380
C R4=DBLE(YFL) MON07390
C IX=IY MON07400
C FIE=2.0*3.1415927*R4 MON07410
C RETURN MON07420
C END MON07430
C MON07440
C*****MON07450
C SUBROUTINE RAND MON07460
C*****MON07470
C MON07480
C This subroutine generates a uniform random MON07490
C number between 0 and 1 (obtained from G05CAF) MON07500
C MON07510
C SUBROUTINE RAND MON07520
C REAL*4 G05CAF MON07530
C COMMON /RAN/YFL,IX,IY MON07540
C YFL=G05CAF(YFL) MON07550
C RETURN MON07560
C END MON07570
C MON07580
C*****MON07590
C SUBROUTINE SI MON07600
C*****MON07610
C MON07620
C This subroutine calculates the step length MON07630
C and energy loss in SILICON (Glass substitute) MON07640
C MON07650
C The principle variables are defined as follows: MON07660
C MON07670
C ALPHAS = VALUE OF ALPHA FOR SILICON MON07680
C ALAMDA = MEAN FREE PATH IN CM. MON07690
C SIGMAS = VALUE OF SIGMA IN CM(2) MON07700
C ESIN = NORMALISED INITIAL ENERGY IN SILICON MON07710
C RSI = NORMALISED INITIAL RANGE IN SILICON MON07720
C CONST = DENORMALISING FACTOR FOR RANGES MON07730
C DENSTY = DENSITY OF SILICON IN GM/CC MON07740
C STEPN = NORMALISED STEP LENGTH MON07750
C EEVN = NORMALISED ELECTRON ENERGY MON07760
C RANGEN = NORMALISED ELECTRON RANGE MON07770
C AISI = EXCITATION ENERGY OF SILICON IN EV MON07780
C MON07790
C MON07800
C SUBROUTINE SI MON07810
C IMPLICIT REAL*8(A-H,O-Z) MON07820
C DIMENSION CO1(3),A1(3,3) MON07830
C COMMON CO1,A1,TETA,FIE,STEP,EEV,EEVL,ALPHAS,RANGE,INEL MON07840
C COMMON /RAN/YFL,IX,IY MON07850
C COMMON /SUB1/ESIN,RSI,GS1 MON07860
C DATA CONST/5.5820694D-7/,DENSTY/2.33/ MON07870
C DATA ACONST/1.1658/,AIS1/172.25/ MON07880
C DATA C1/5.61563/,C2/3.5176094D15/ MON07890
C DATA C3/4.231734D19/,C4/4.99586D22/ MON07900
C DATA C10/9.140519D10/,C11/6.76806D-3/ MON07910
C MON07920

```

```

C Calculate the elastic mean free path MON07930
C MON07940
ALPHAS=C1/(DSQRT(EEV)) MON07950
Z=ALPHAS*ALPHAS MON07960
VEL=DSQRT(C2*EEV) MON07970
SIGMAS=C3/((VEL**4)*Z*(Z+1.0)) MON07980
AMFPE=1.0/(C4*SIGMAS) MON07990
MON08000
C Calculate the inelastic mean free path MON08010
C MON08020
AMFPI=AISI/(C10*DLOG(C11*EEV)/EEV) MON08030
MON08040
C Calculate the total mean free path MON08050
C MON08060
AMFPT=AMFPI*AMFPE/(AMFPI+AMFPE) MON08070
MON08080
C Step length = total mean free path * random number MON08090
C MON08100
CALL RAND MON08110
R1=DBLE(YFL) MON08120
IX=IY MON08130
STEP=-AMFPT*DLOG(R1) MON08140
MON08150
C Decide whether event is elastic or inelastic MON08160
C MON08170
CALL RAND MON08180
R1=DBLE(YFL) MON08190
IX=IY MON08200
IF(R1.LE.(AMFPT/AMFPI)) GOTO 20 MON08210
MON08220
C Elastic collision MON08230
C MON08240
INEL=0 MON08250
EETEMP=EEV MON08260
GOTO 30 MON08270
MON08280
C Inelastic collision - determine energy loss MON08290
C MON08300
INEL=1 MON08310
CALL RAND MON08320
R1=DBLE(YFL) MON08330
IX=IY MON08340
EEVL=-(AISI*DLOG(R1)) MON08350
EEV=EEV-EEVL MON08360
MON08370
C Calculate Bethe energy loss and range MON08380
C MON08390
STEPN=DENSTY*STEP/CONST MON08400
EEVN=EEV*ACONST/AISI MON08410
RANGEN=(RSI/GSI)*((GSI-1.0)+(1.0/ESIN)*DEXP(DSQRT((DLOG(ESIN))**2-
-2.0*ESIN*(ESIN-EEVN)/RSI))) MON08420
MON08430
RANGEN=RANGEN-STEPN MON08440
MON08450
IF(INEL.EQ.1) GOTO 35 MON08460
EEVN=ESIN+(0.5*RSI/ESIN)*((DLOG(ESIN*(1.0-GSI*(RSI-RANGEN)/
-RSI))**2-(DLOG(ESIN)**2)) MON08470
MON08480
EEV=AISI*EEVN/ACONST MON08490
MON08500
EEVL=EETEMP-EEV MON08510
35 RANGE=RANGEN*CONST/DENSTY MON08520
MON08530
RETURN MON08540
END MON08550
C*****MON08560
C SUBROUTINE GOLD MON08570
C*****MON08580
C This subroutine calculates the step length MON08590
C and energy loss in gold MON08600
C MON08610
C The principle variables are defined as follows: MON08620
C MON08630
ALPHAS = VALUE OF ALPHA FOR GOLD MON08640
ALAMDA = MEAN FREE PATH IN CM. MON08650

```



```

C SIGMAG = VALUE OF SIGMA IN CM(2) MON08650
C EAUN = NORMALISED INITIAL ENERGY IN GOLD MON08660
C RAU = NORMALISED INITIAL RANGE IN GOLD MON08670
C CONST = DENORMALISING FACTOR FOR RANGES MON08680
C DENSTY = DENSITY OF GOLD IN GM/CC MON08690
C STEPN = NORMALISED STEP LENGTH MON08700
C EEVN = NORMALISED ELECTRON ENERGY MON08710
C RANGEN = NORMALISED ELECTRON RANGE MON08720
C AIAU = EXCITATION ENERGY OF GOLD IN EV MON08730
C MON08740
C MON08750
C SUBROUTINE GOLD MON08760
C IMPLICIT REAL*8(A-H,O-Z) MON08770
C DIMENSION CO1(3),A1(3,3) MON08780
C COMMON CO1,A1,TETA,FIE,STEP,EEV,EEVL,ALPHAS,RANGE,INEL MON08790
C COMMON /RAN/YFL,IX,IY MON08800
C COMMON /WALL/EAUN,RAU,GAU MON08810
C DATA CONST/1.484D-5/,DENSTY/19.32/ MON08820
C DATA ACONST/1.1658/,AIAU/796.675/ MON08830
C DATA C1/9.9977/,C2/3.5176094D15/ MON08840
C DATA C3/1.27052D21/,C4/5.90684D22/ MON08850
C DATA C10/3.77935D12/,C11/1.463D-3/ MON08860
C MON08870
C Calculate the elastic mean free path MON08880
C MON08890
C ALPHAS=C1/(DSQRT(EEV)) MON08900
C Z=ALPHAS*ALPHAS MON08910
C VEL=DSQRT(C2*EEV) MON08920
C SIGMAG=C3/((VEL**4)*Z*(Z+1.0)) MON08930
C AMFPE=1.0/(C4*SIGMAG) MON08940
C MON08950
C Calculate the inelastic mean free path MON08960
C MON08970
C AMFPI=AIAU/(C10*DLOG(C11*EEV)/EEV) MON08980
C MON08990
C Total mean free path MON09000
C MON09010
C AMFPT=AMFPI*AMFPE/(AMFPI+AMFPE) MON09020
C MON09030
C Step length = total mean free path * random number MON09040
C MON09050
C CALL RAND MON09060
C R1=DBLE(YFL) MON09070
C IX=IY MON09080
C STEP=-AMFPT*DLOG(R1) MON09090
C MON09100
C Decide whether event is elastic or inelastic MON09110
C MON09120
C CALL RAND MON09130
C R1=DBLE(YFL) MON09140
C IX=IY MON09150
C IF(R1.LE.(AMFPT/AMFPI)) GOTO 20 MON09160
C MON09170
C Elastic collision MON09180
C MON09190
C INEL=0 MON09200
C EETEMP=EEV MON09210
C GOTO 30 MON09220
C MON09230
C Inelastic collision - determine energy loss MON09240
C MON09250
C INEL=1 MON09260
C CALL RAND MON09270
C R1=DBLE(YFL) MON09280
C IX=IY MON09290
C EEVL=-(AIAU*DLOG(R1)) MON09300
C EEV=EEV-EEVL MON09310
C MON09320
C Calculate Bethe energy loss and range MON09330
C MON09340
C STEPN=DENSTY*STEP/CONST MON09350
C EEVN=EEV*ACONST/AIAU MON09360

```

```

RANGEN=(RAU/GAU)*((GAU-1.0)+(1.0/EAUN)*DEXP(DSQRT((DLOG(EAUN))**2-MON09370
-2.0*EAUN*(EAUN-EEVN)/RAU))) MON09380
RANGEN=RANGEN-STEPN MON09390
IF(INEL.EQ.1) GOTO 35 MON09400
EEVN=EAUN+(0.5*RAU/EAUN)*((DLOG(EAUN*(1.0-GAU*(RAU-RANGEN)/
-RAU))**2-(DLOG(EAUN)**2)) MON09410
EEV=AIAU*EEVN/ACONST MON09430
EEVL=EETEMP-EEV MON09440
35 RANGE=RANGEN*CONST/DENSTY MON09450
RETURN MON09460
END MON09470

```

35

C

```

C*****MON09490
C SUBROUTINE ARRAY MON09500
C*****MON09510

```

```

C This subroutine assigns the relevant energy lost by the
C electron to the appropriate element of the energy loss
C array MON09550
C MON09560

```

```

SUBROUTINE ARRAY(X,Y,EEV2,NEVTS) MON09570
IMPLICIT REAL*8(A-H,O-Z) MON09580
REAL*4 AEV(201),AEVXY(201,201) MON09590
COMMON /PLOT/AMY,AEV MON09600
COMMON /PLOT2/EEVT MON09610
COMMON /PLOT3/AEVXY MON09620
IX=IDINT((X*1.0E4)/AMY) MON09630
IY=IDINT((Y*1.0E4)/AMY) MON09640
IF(ABS(IX).GT.100.OR.ABS(IY).GT.100) RETURN MON09650
AEV(IY+101)=AEV(IY+101)+EEV2 MON09660
AEVXY(IX+101,IY+101)=AEVXY(IX+101,IY+101)+EEV2 MON09670
EEVT=EEVT+EEV2 MON09680
RETURN MON09690
END MON09700

```

```

C*****MON09710
C SUBROUTINE SETYZ MON09730
C*****MON09740

```

```

C This subroutine produces a y-z plot of the electron
C scattering volume. Subroutine PLOTYZ does the actual
C plotting MON09780
C MON09790

```

```

SUBROUTINE SETYZ(FILM,SUBSTR,YW,YAX) MON09800
IMPLICIT REAL*8(A-H,O-Z) MON09810
REAL*4 SZAX,SFILM,SSUBST,SYAX,YW(4) MON09820
SFILM=SNGL(FILM) MON09830
SSUBST=SNGL(SUBSTR) MON09840
SYAX=SNGL(YAX) MON09850
SZAX=SFILM+SSUBST MON09860
CALL NEW PLT(-SYAX,SYAX,15.0,-SZAX,2.00,15.0) MON09870
CALL DRAW AX(' ',1,0.0,0.0) MON09880
CALL DRAW AX(' ',1,0.0,90.0) MON09890
CALL XRANGE(-SYAX,SYAX,-SFILM) MON09900
CALL XRANGE(-SYAX,SYAX,-SZAX) MON09910
CALL YRANGE(YW(1),-SFILM,0.0) MON09920
CALL YRANGE(-YW(1),-SFILM,0.0) MON09930
CALL YRANGE(YW(2),-SFILM,0.0) MON09940
CALL YRANGE(-YW(2),-SFILM,0.0) MON09950
CALL YRANGE(YW(3),-SFILM,0.0) MON09960
CALL YRANGE(-YW(3),-SFILM,0.0) MON09970
CALL YRANGE(YW(4),-SFILM,0.0) MON09980
CALL YRANGE(-YW(4),-SFILM,0.0) MON09990
CALL TITLE('T ','L ','100KEV ELECTRONS YAG DEN=4.56 G/CM3',35) MON10000
CALL JOIN PT(0.0,0.0) MON10010
RETURN MON10020
END MON10030

```

```

C MON10040

```

```

C*****MON10050

```

```

C SUBROUTINE SETXY MON10060

```

```

C*****MON10070

```

```

C MON10080

```

```

C This subroutine produces an XY slice of the electron scattering volume at any depth in the YAG or GLASS
C Subroutine PLOTXY does the actual plotting
C
SUBROUTINE SETXY(FILM,SUBSTR,XW,YW,YAX)
IMPLICIT REAL*8(A-H,O-Z)
REAL*4 SFILM,SSUBST,XW(4),YW(4),SYAX,SXAX
SFILM=SNGL(FILM)
SSUBST=SNGL(SUBSTR)
SYAX=SNGL(YAX)
SXAX=SYAX
CALL NEW PLT(-SXAX,SXAX,22.0,-SYAX,SYAX,22.0)
CALL DRAW AX('          UM ',35,0.0,0.0)
CALL DRAW AX('          UM',35,0.0,90.0)
CALL XRANGE(-XW(1),XW(1),YW(1))
CALL XRANGE(-XW(1),XW(1),-YW(1))
CALL XRANGE(-XW(2),XW(2),YW(2))
CALL XRANGE(-XW(2),XW(2),-YW(2))
CALL YRANGE(XW(1),-YW(1),YW(1))
CALL YRANGE(-XW(1),-YW(1),YW(1))
CALL YRANGE(XW(2),-YW(2),YW(2))
CALL YRANGE(-XW(2),-YW(2),YW(2))
CALL TITLE('T ', 'L ', '100KV ELECTRONS YAG DEN=4.56',28)
RETURN
END
C
C*****
C SUBROUTINE PLOTYZ
C*****
SUBROUTINE PLOTYZ
IMPLICIT REAL*8(A-H,O-Z)
DIMENSION CO1(3),A1(3,3)
REAL*4 YPT,ZPT
COMMON CO1,A1,TETA,FIE,STEP,EEV,ALPHAS,RANGE
YPT=SNGL(CO1(2)*1.0E4)
ZPT=SNGL(CO1(3)*1.0E4)
CALL JOIN PT(YPT,-ZPT)
RETURN
END
C
C*****
C SUBROUTINE PLOTXY
C*****
SUBROUTINE PLOTXY(ZTOP,ZBOT)
IMPLICIT REAL*8(A-H,O-Z)
DIMENSION CO1(3),A1(3,3)
REAL*4 SZTOP,SBZBOT,XPT,YPT
COMMON CO1,A1,TETA,FIE,STEP,EEV,ALPHAS,RANGE
SZTOP=SNGL(ZTOP)
SBZBOT=SNGL(ZBOT)
XPT=SNGL(CO1(1)*1.0E4)
YPT=SNGL(CO1(2)*1.0E4)
ZPT=SNGL(CO1(3)*1.0E4)
IF(ZPT.LE.SZTOP.OR.ZPT.GT.SBZBOT)GOTO 10
IF(ABS(SZTOP-SBZBOT).GT.1.0) GOTO 5
CALL MARK PT(XPT,YPT,3)
GOTO 10
CALL JOIN PT(XPT,YPT)
RETURN
END

```

```

MON10090
MON10100
MON10110
MON10120
MON10130
MON10140
MON10150
MON10160
MON10170
MON10180
MON10190
MON10200
MON10210
MON10220
MON10230
MON10240
MON10250
MON10260
MON10270
MON10280
MON10290
MON10300
MON10310
MON10320
MON10330
MON10340
MON10350
MON10360
MON10370
MON10380
MON10390
MON10400
MON10410
MON10420
MON10430
MON10440
MON10450
MON10460
MON10470
MON10480
MON10490
MON10500
MON10510
MON10520
MON10530
MON10540
MON10550
MON10560
MON10570
MON10580
MON10590
MON10600
MON10610
MON10620
MON10630
MON10640
MON10650
MON10660
MON10670
MON10680
MON10690
MON10700

```

Example data file for the Monte Carlo simulation shown in chapter 8.

FILE: MONTDAT DATA A GLASGOW HEP CMS/SP V 4.19

100kV electrons in 30 microns YAG density 4.56 gm/cm**3

Ncode	EEV0	Film	Substr	Nevt
0	109780.0	30.0	10.0	1000
Ryag	Rsi	Rau	Yax	Offset
44258.0	43950.0	2870.268	30.0	0
Ztop	Zbot	Xwall	Ywall	Width
0.0000	30.000	50.00	50.00	1.00

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