



# Low Temperature Plasma Technology Laboratory

**CALIBRATION OF LANGMUIR PROBES  
AGAINST MICROWAVES AND  
PLASMA OSCILLATION PROBES**

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LTP-1202

February, 2012



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# Calibration of Langmuir probes against microwaves and plasma oscillation probes

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The use of Langmuir probes for measuring plasma density is subject to uncertainty because the theories commonly used to interpret the data give widely differing results. This is especially troublesome in partially ionized plasmas used, for instance, in the semiconductor industry, since no existing theory adequately treats the case when there are a few collisions between ions and neutral atoms. In this work, plasma densities measured by microwave interferometry and plasma-oscillation probes are compared with those from probe data analyzed with Langmuir's Orbital Motion Limited (OML) theory, the Allen-Boyd-Reynolds (ABR) theory, and the Bernstein-Rabinowitz-Laframboise (BRL) theory. It is found that ABR underestimates and BRL overestimates the density, the problems being the neglect of ion orbiting in ABR and the effect of ion-neutral collisions in BRL. The best theory is either OML or the geometric mean between the ABR and BRL results. For thicker probes, other methods are suggested.

## I. History of this paper

This experiment was conducted during a one-week visit by W. Zawalski from Hiden Analytical, Ltd., in the approximate year 2000. The results were written into a long paper a year later by J.D. Evans and submitted to Plasma Sources Sciences and Technology<sup>1</sup> in 2001. After several interchanges with the referees, the lead author (JDE) did not succeed in making the requested changes before leaving UCLA and the physics community altogether. The data taken by Evans and Zawalski lay fallow for over a decade, though a few of the results were published previously<sup>2</sup>. The entire set has been recovered by the senior author (FFC) and is presented in this shortened paper. This work extends an earlier study by Tuszewski and Tobin<sup>3</sup> which used low-frequency RF (radiofrequency) discharges in which compensation for RF pickup was difficult. They found probe-derived densities to be a factor of 2-3 higher than those from microwave interferometry but could not eliminate RF interference as the cause.

## II. Background

Electrostatic probes, appropriately named after Langmuir, are the simplest method to measure local values of plasma density  $n$  and electron temperature  $T_e$ . The general technique has been described in various books<sup>4,5,6,7</sup> and will not be reviewed here. Electron temperature can be obtained from a semi-logarithmic plot of the electron current collected by the probe. Plasma density can be obtained by the ion saturation current  $I_{\text{sat}}$ , and the interpretation of  $I_{\text{sat}}$  is the subject of this paper. Here electron and ion densities are assumed to be equal in all plasmas of consequence. In principle, electron density can also be obtained from the electron saturation current, but we do not use this datum because that current can be altered by collisions and stray fields in practical plasmas.

In 1926 Mott-Smith and Langmuir<sup>8</sup> calculated the ion current  $I_i(V_p)$  at negative values of the potential  $V_p$  applied to a cylindrical probe. It was assumed that the ions started at infinity isotropically with the same energy, and that there was no sheath. That is, the plasma potential  $V_s$

(for space potential) varied very gently from the probe to infinity. The ions approaching the probe with large angular momentum would orbit and miss it, while those with small angular momentum would be collected. The ion current could then be given by a very simple formula:

$$I_i = A_p n e \frac{\sqrt{2}}{\pi} \left( \frac{e(V_{s1} - V_p)}{M} \right)^{1/2}, \quad (1)$$

Where  $A_p$  is the probe surface area,  $e$  is the electron charge,  $M$  is the ion mass, and  $V_{s1}$  is a substitute for the space potential. This formula predicts that  $I_i^2$  should vary as  $V_p$ , giving a straight line  $I^2 - V$  plot from which  $n$  can be calculated. The intercept  $V_{s1}$  of this line is not the real  $V_s$  because Eq. (1) is not valid near  $V_s$ , and  $I_i$  actually curves near there. Eq. (1) is extremely useful because it is independent of both ion energy and the Maxwellian  $T_e$ , both of which have canceled out. The density  $n$  can be obtained by a simple fitting of this line to the  $I_{sat}$  data by adjusting  $n$  and  $V_{s1}$ . Later, Langmuir extended the theory to Maxwellian ions with a temperature  $T_i$  starting from a sheath edge at a radius  $s$ . The result was a group of more complicated formulas involving error functions. A series of unreasonable approximations is necessary to reduce this set to Eq. (1). An attempt<sup>9</sup> to justify Eq. (1) physically was unsuccessful, but a linear  $I^2 - V$  plot fits experiment better than all other theories.

Since most plasmas have very small Debye lengths  $\lambda_D$ , a sheath should form around a probe tip, creating an “absorption radius” inside of which the electric field is so strong that ions inside this radius would be drawn in by an electric field strong enough to prevent any orbiting. The first attempt to treat the case of a thin sheath around a probe was made by Allen, Boyd, and Reynolds<sup>10</sup> in 1957. This is called the ABR theory. Ions were assumed to start from infinity with no transverse energy, so that they all traveled radially to the probe. A sheath was formed to partially shield the probe’s negative voltage, and all ions were collected without orbiting. The potential distribution and ion current could be computed from a fairly simple radial differential equation, which originally was for spherical probes but has been extended to cylindrical ones<sup>11</sup>.

The neglect of orbiting was too severe a simplification, and in 1958 one of us (FFC) convinced I.B Bernstein to tackle the problem of including both sheath formation and orbiting. The problem was complicated by the fact that orbiting ions contribute twice to the ion density at each radius, while collected ions, whose number is not known beforehand, contribute only once. Bernstein’s elegant solution<sup>12</sup> was a two-part differential equation that was computed by Rabinowitz. Monoenergetic ions were assumed to start at infinity isotropically. Extending this to Maxwellian ions with temperature  $T_i$  turned out to be a more difficult problem because of numerical instabilities. J.G. Laframboise succeeded in this task; his results were given in an unpublished paper<sup>13</sup> and have been summarized by Chen<sup>4,11</sup>. This is called the BRL theory. The numerical curves have been fitted to algebraic approximations by Steinbruchel<sup>14</sup>, Tuszewski and Tobin<sup>3</sup>, and Chen<sup>2</sup>. These three theories, OML, ABR, and BRL, will be used to compute the ion density from measured ion currents.

### III. Apparatus

**1. Plasma source.** Experiments were carried out in the chamber shown in Fig. 1. A PlasmaTherm® ICP (Inductively Coupled Plasma) source is mounted on top of a vacuum chamber lined with small permanent magnets forming a “magnetic bucket”<sup>15</sup>, which helps to confine the plasma drifting down from the source. The three-turn antenna is wound around the periphery of the ceramic source chamber. Though the RF energy is deposited only in a thin skin layer near the circumference, the plasma density is almost radially uniform, as shown in Fig. 2. How this can happen has recently been explained by Curreli and Chen<sup>16</sup>. The antenna is driven

at 2 MHz by an RFPP® Model RF10M generator up to 1 kW. Plasma was produced at 300, 450, 600, 750, and 900 watts at neutral argon pressures of 1, 2, 5, and 10 mTorr, yielding a matrix of 20 conditions spanning typical conditions in industrial plasma processors.

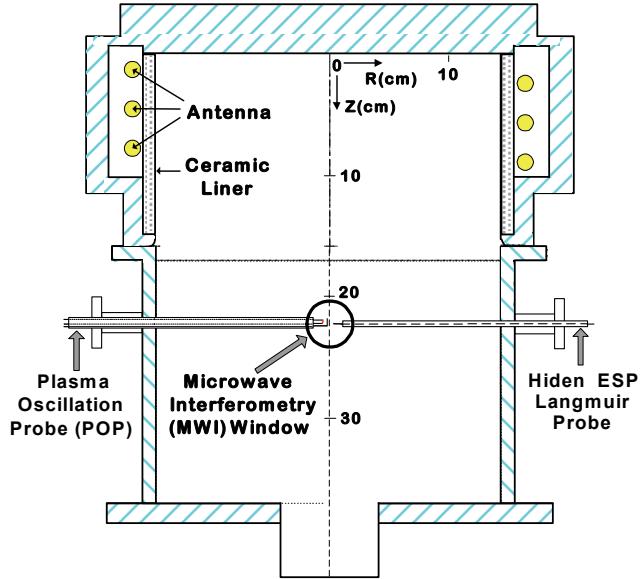


Fig. 1. PlasmaTherm® ICP source on top of a magnetic bucket. A 3-turn spiral antenna is wrapped around a  $\sim 1\text{cm}$  thick ceramic liner which contains the plasma it creates when energized with RF. A Hiden ESP® Langmuir probe (right) and the POP (left) are visible through an MWI access window. All diagnostics sample the region  $R = 0$ , at axial distance  $z = 22\text{ cm}$  from the top of the source. Machine parameters: module I.D. = 32cm, module-bucket interface at  $z = 16.4\text{ cm}$ , bucket I.D. = 35.5 cm, bucket height = 20.5 cm, RF power  $P_{\text{rf}} = 300 - 900\text{ W}$ , neutral pressure  $p_0 = 1 - 10\text{ mTorr Ar}$ , plasma density  $n = 4 \times 10^{10} - 5 \times 10^{11}\text{ cm}^{-3}$  and electron temperature  $T_e = 2 - 4\text{ eV}$ .

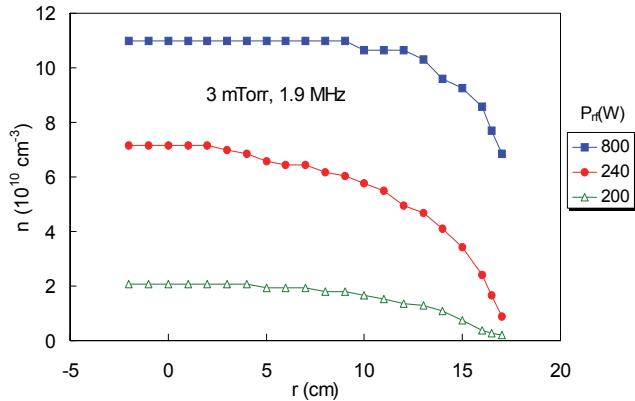


Fig. 2. Density profiles in the ICP of Fig. 1. The density is peaked on axis even though the skin depth of the RF is only 3 cm.

**2. Diagnostics.** The diagnostic system is shown in Fig. 3. The Langmuir probe is inserted from the bottom. At the same height, 22 cm below the top plate, a microwave interferometer (MWI) beam is injected across the plasma to measure the line-integrated plasma density by comparing the phase shift between the leg that passes through air and the one that goes through the plasma. The electronics for this are from an HP 8510C network analyzer. Near the Langmuir probe there is also a Plasma Oscillation Probe (POP) consisting of a hot filament and an antenna connected to a spectrum analyzer. This diagnostic will be described later. The MWI and POP measure the electron density, which should be the same as the ion density measured by the Langmuir probe.

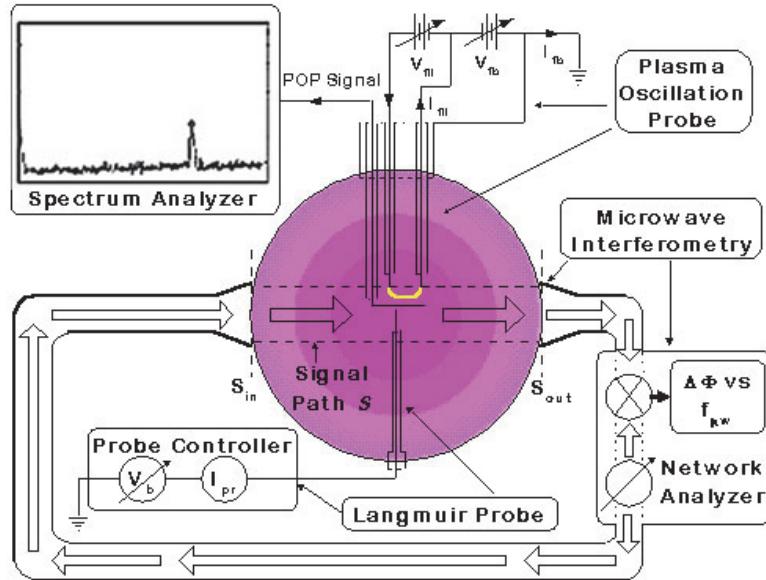
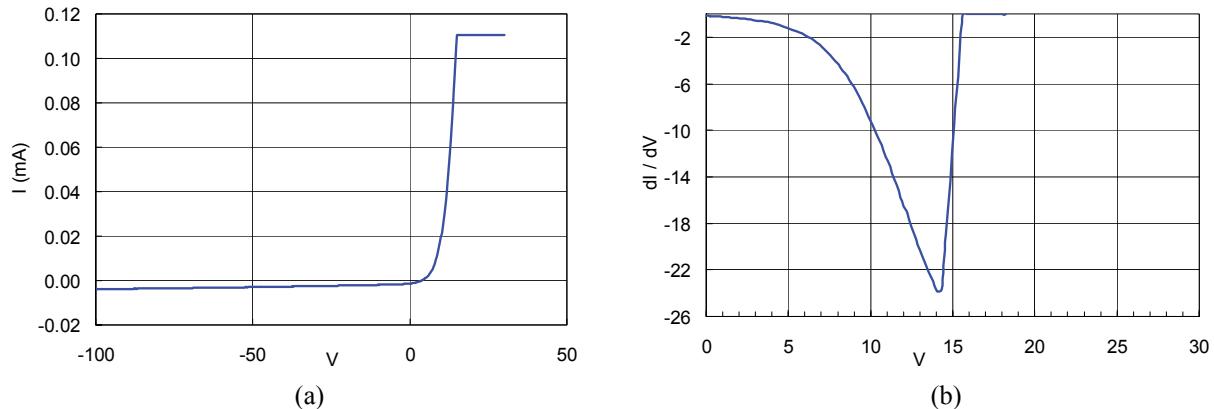


Fig. 3. Conceptual cutaway (top) view of experimental setup, including the essential elements of the diagnostics. Also shown (dotted lines) is the plasma volume subtended by the MWI signal beam path, which encompasses the region sampled by the POP and Langmuir probes.

The Langmuir probe is the Hiden ESP Mk2<sup>®</sup> system consisting of a probe, a voltage sweep circuit, and software ESPsoft HAL IV<sup>®</sup> to collect and analyze the data. The probe has a tungsten tip of radius  $R_p = 0.075$  mm and length  $L_p = 1$  cm and an RF compensation system with RF chokes and a large RF compensation electrode as prescribed by Sudit et al.<sup>17</sup> The software can apply a cleaning voltage to the probe and take an  $I - V$  (current-voltage) curve of several hundred points in a couple of seconds. It can also analyze the data with the OML or ABR theory automatically or semi-automatically with user inputs. Our analysis was done, however, with Excel files written by the authors.

#### IV. Measurements

**1. Langmuir probes.** Figure 4 is an example of probe data taken in this experiment. The  $I^2 - V_p$  (or  $V$ ) plot in the ion region is close to linear. It is fitted with a polynomial. RF compensation is so good that the  $\ln(I_e) - V_p$  plot is linear over almost three orders of magnitude, indicating a Maxwellian distribution. The derivative  $dI/dV$  whose minimum should occur at the space potential, shows a well defined peak. However, not all data are this good in RF plasmas.



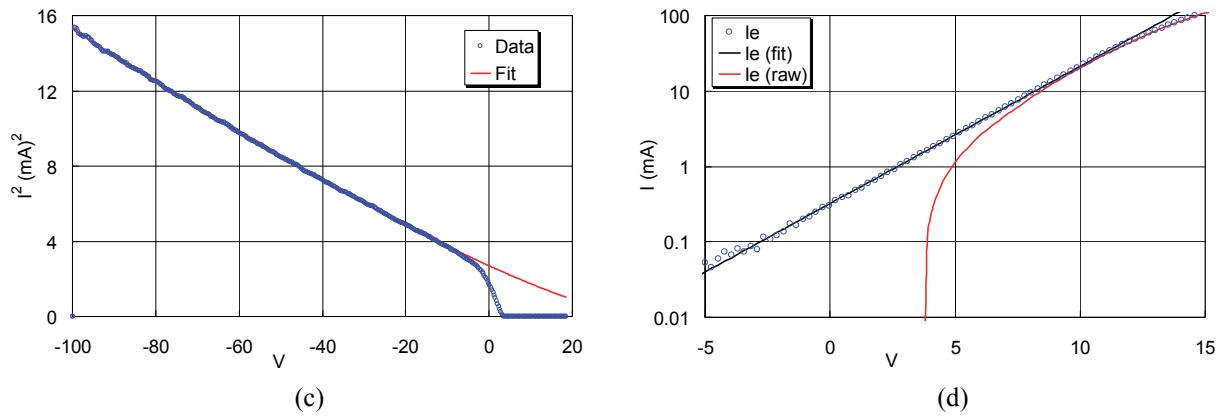


Fig. 4. (a) Entire  $I - V$  curve; (b) Derivative of  $I - V$  curve with a sharp minimum indicating the plasma potential; (c) Plot of  $I_i^2$  vs.  $V_p$  (○) and straight-line fit (—); (d) Semilog plot of  $I_e$  vs.  $V_p$  and straight-line fit to a Maxwellian.

A critical parameter is  $\xi_p \equiv R_p/\lambda_D$ , the ratio of probe tip radius to the Debye length, which determines whether the sheath around the probe is thin or thick, and whether there is an absorption radius. To illustrate how  $I - V$  curves change with  $\xi_p$ , we next show recent data from a helicon discharge, which can reach higher densities than an ICP.

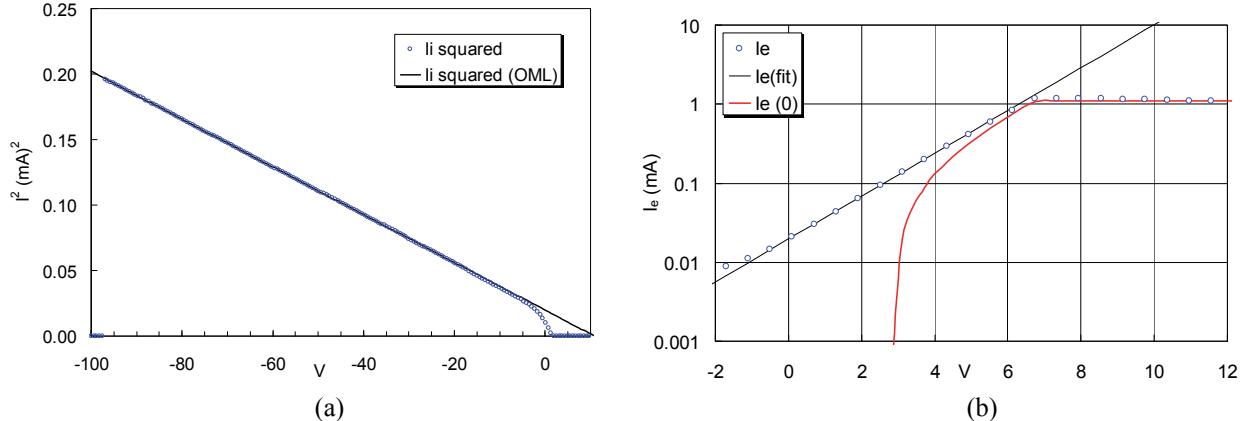


Fig. 5. (a) Plot of  $I_i^2$  vs.  $V_p$  as in Fig. 4c. (b) Semilog plot of  $I_e$  vs.  $V_p$  and a Maxwellian fit, as in Fig. 4d. For convenience the  $I_e$  data were taken only up to 1 mA. The OML result is  $n = 0.80 \times 10^{11} \text{ cm}^{-3}$  and  $KT_e = 1.60 \text{ eV}$  ( $\xi_p = 1.92$ )

Figure 5 shows the ion and electron parts of a low-density discharge. We first analyze the data with OML theory. We see that  $I_i^2$  in (a) falls on a straight line, whose least-squares fit yields the density  $n$  according to Eq. (1). The electron current  $I_e$  is obtained by subtracting the straight-line  $I_i$  fit from the total current. The  $\ln(I_e)$  vs.  $V_p$  plot is shown in Fig. 4b. A Maxwellian distribution appears as a straight line on this plot, since

$$I_e = n e v_{the} e^{(V_p - V_s)/KT_e}, \quad (2)$$

where  $v_{the}$  is the electron random velocity. It is seen that the  $\ln(I_e)$  points form a straight line, a fit to which has a slope yielding  $KT_e$ , according to Eq. (2). Since  $n$  is already known from  $I_i$  (a very convenient feature of the OML formula), the horizontal position of the fitting line yields  $V_s$ . Note that  $V_{s1}$  in Eq. (1) is only the intercept of the ion fit and is not the actual  $V_s$ , since  $I_i(V_p)$  curves near floating potential  $V_f$  and deviates from a straight line there. The behavior of  $I_i$  near  $V_f$  is immaterial, since  $n$  is determined from the points at large negative  $V_p$ . The red line in the  $\ln(I_e)$  plot gives the raw  $I_e$  data before  $I_i$  subtraction. An accurate value for  $KT_e$  depends on an

accurate subtraction of the ion current. Use of this part of the  $I - V$  curve is necessary only if RF compensation is insufficient to give a true  $T_e$  nearer to  $V_s$ .

When the same data are analyzed with the BRL theory (Fig. 6), the theoretical ion current deviates from a straight line only slightly at the highest  $|V_p|$ . Both  $n$  and  $T_e$  agree with the OML analysis because  $n$  is low enough that  $\xi_p$  is small, and in this limit BRL reduces to OML.

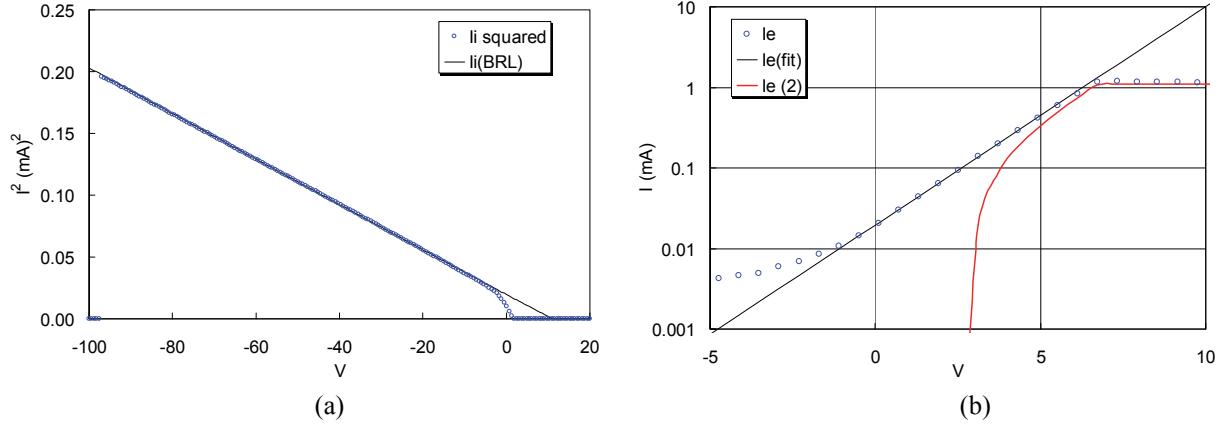


Fig. 6. Same data as in Fig. 5 but analyzed with the BRL theory. The result is  $n = 0.81 \times 10^{11} \text{ cm}^{-3}$  and  $KT_e = 1.60 \text{ eV}$  ( $\xi_p = 1.93$ ).

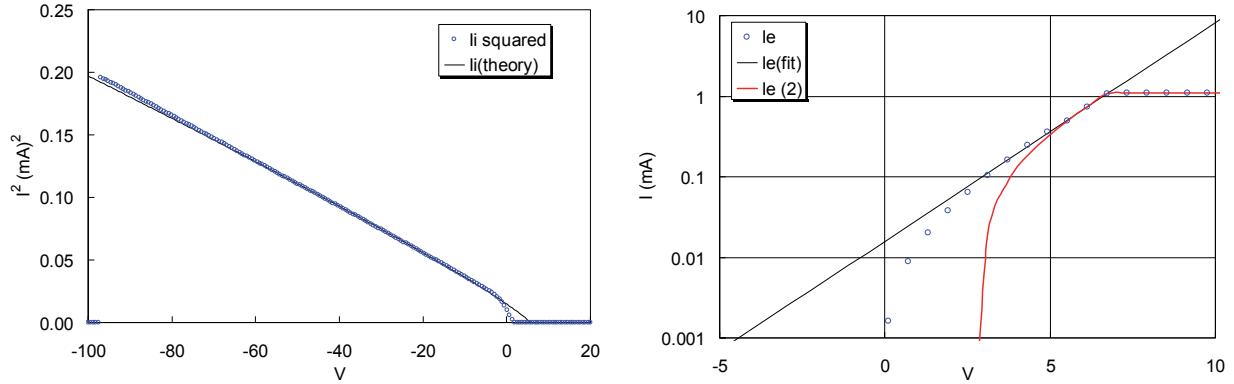


Fig. 7. Same data as in Fig. 4 but analyzed with the ABR theory. The result is  $n = 0.23 \times 10^{11} \text{ cm}^{-3}$  and  $KT_e = 1.60 \text{ eV}$  ( $\xi_p = 1.03$ ).

Figure 7 gives the result of ABR analysis of the same data. The  $I_i^2 - V_p$  curve is nearly linear, but the density is lower than with OML or BRL. This is always the case because ABR neglects orbiting and expects the collected current to come straight from a lower density plasma. In the BRL and ABR analyses,  $I_i$  depends on  $T_e$ , and iteration between the two graphs is necessary to get fits in both of them.

We next show examples from high density, where  $\xi_p \gg 1$ . Figure 8 shows  $I_{\text{sat}}$  for a density above  $10^{12} \text{ cm}^{-3}$ , fitted to OML theory. The data have a slight curve but can be fitted well with a straight line.

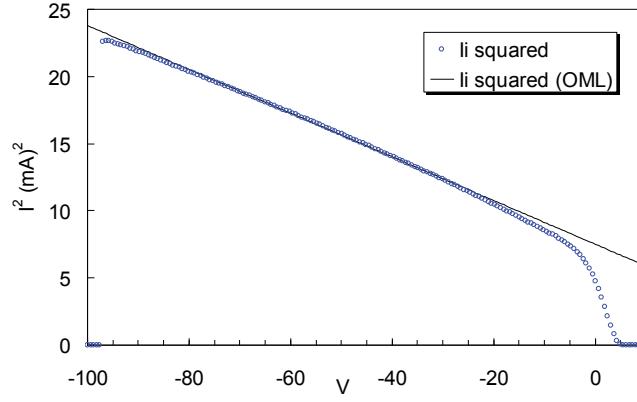


Fig. 8. An OML fit to the ion current in a high-density plasma. The result is  $n = 1.3 \times 10^{12} \text{ cm}^{-3}$  and  $KT_e = 3.0 \text{ eV}$  ( $\xi_p = 5.6$ ).

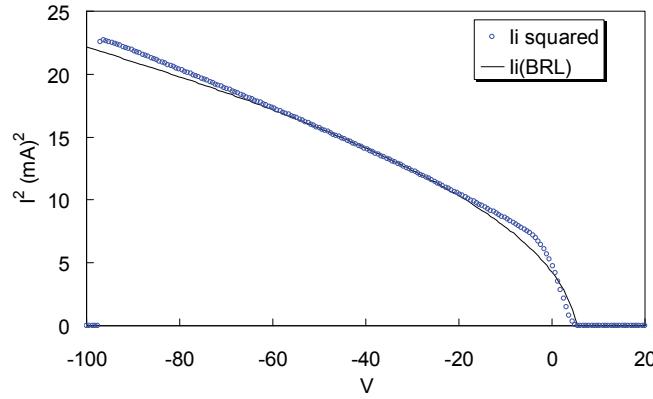


Fig. 9. A BRL fit to the same data as in Fig. 6. The result is  $n = 3.4 \times 10^{12} \text{ cm}^{-3}$  and  $KT_e = 2.6 \text{ eV}$  ( $\xi_p = 9.9$ ).

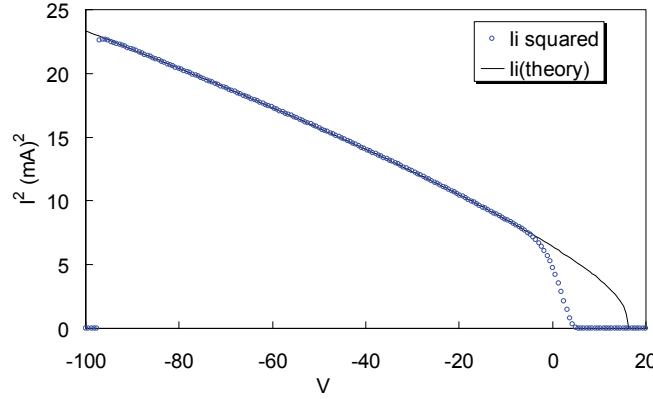


Fig. 10. An ABR fit to the same data as in Fig. 8. The result is  $n = 1.06 \times 10^{12} \text{ cm}^{-3}$  and  $KT_e = 2.3 \text{ eV}$  ( $\xi_p = 5.8$ ).

Figure 9 shows the BRL analysis of the same data. The theoretical curve does not fit the data very well, and the best fit yields a much higher density than OML gives. At values of  $\xi_p \gg 1$ , an absorption radius should form, thus distorting the straight line. The high density is caused by collisions which interrupt the orbiting outside the absorption radius, as we shall discuss later. Figure 10 shows the ABR analysis of the same data. It is known<sup>11</sup> that the ABR curves for cylinders follow an  $I^2 - V$  law for  $\xi_p$  smaller than about 3, and this fit is seen in Fig. 10. However, the calculated  $I_i$  extends into the electron region, making ion subtraction impossible. The density calculated from the large  $|V_p|$  region is lower than the OML density, as is expected

when orbiting is neglected. The range of densities in the current experiment is in an intermediate range, where the theoretical curves are neither very similar nor very hard to fit to the data.

**2. Microwave interferometry (MWI).** This diagnostic technique has been described in books<sup>18,19</sup>. The klystron and other electronic components have in this case been replaced by a Hewlett-Packard 8510C® vector network analyzer. The microwave beam is launched from one microwave horn and received by another, diametrically opposite, horn, sampling the same plasma probed by the other diagnostics (Fig. 3). The phase of the received signal is compared with that of the internal generator. A  $360^\circ$  phase change constitutes one “fringe”. Without plasma, a transit across the chamber yields a phase shift of about 10 fringes at our microwave frequency  $f_0$  of  $\approx 88$  GHz. In the presence of plasma, the microwave’s wavelength  $\lambda_0$  is about 1% longer at our densities, resulting in a fringe shift of about 0.1 fringe relative to vacuum. This is a  $36^\circ$  fringe shift, which can be measured to  $\approx 1\%$  by the network analyzer, whose basic accuracy is 0.05dB in amplitude and  $0.5^\circ$  in phase.

Several sources of error have to be avoided. Diffraction of the beam can occur if the windows are not much larger than  $\lambda_0$ . In this case, the window diameter is 26.6 mm, much larger than a  $\lambda_0$  of  $\approx 3.5$  mm. Refraction of the beam by plasma gradients would occur if these gradients are comparable to  $\lambda_0$ . Here the plasma radius of  $\approx 180$  mm is much larger than  $\lambda_0$ , and the plasma is quite uniform (Fig. 2) besides. Reflection of the beam from curved walls can cause multipath signals to be detected. The chamber is so large compared with  $\lambda_0$  that its curvature can be neglected as long as the beam is directed along a diameter. To avoid electron plasma effects,  $f_0$  should be much larger than the electron plasma frequency  $f_p$ . An  $f_0 \approx 88$  GHz is an order of magnitude above  $f_p$  at our highest density of  $< 10^{12} \text{ cm}^{-3}$ . To ensure that none of these resonant effects occurs, we swept  $f_0$  from 82 to 88 GHz. Figure 11 shows the density inferred from the microwave fringe shift vs.  $f_0$ . There are no spurious effects.

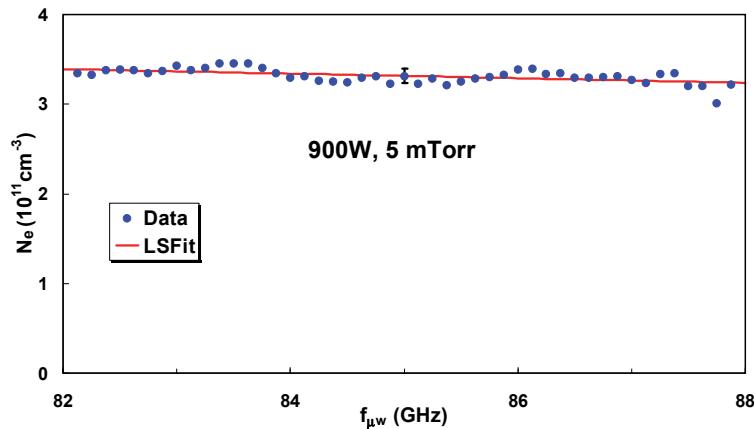


Fig. 11. Plasma density measured by MWI at various frequencies, showing absence of spurious effects.

Microwave interferometry, of course, measures only the line-integrated density. To get the local density, one has to do an Abel inversion using the probe-measured  $n(r)$  and assuming azimuthal symmetry. This was done, but it was not really necessary, since  $n(r)$  is so uniform, as shown in Fig. 2.

**3. Plasma oscillation probe (POP).** This diagnostic, developed by Sugai and collaborators<sup>20</sup>, measures  $n_e$  by exciting electron plasma oscillations, whose frequency  $\omega_p$  directly yields  $n_e$ . Following Sugai, we built the apparatus shown in Fig. 12 and placed it as close as possible to the Langmuir probe. A tungsten filament is heated to electron emission by the upper power supply, and it is biased to a large negative voltage  $V_{fb}$  by the lower supply. A

beam of electrons of energy  $eV_{fb}$  is then ejected into the plasma. If the beam's energy and current are large enough, it will excite plasma oscillations via the beam-plasma instability. These oscillations are detected by an antenna and sent to a spectrum analyzer, which measures their frequency. Near threshold, the spectrum will be a narrow peak, as shown by the inset in Fig. 3. Overdriving the instability will result in a wider spectrum and possible harmonics and beats. From a narrow peak, the density can be calculated from the usual formula  $\omega_p^2 = n_e e^2 / \epsilon_0 m$ .

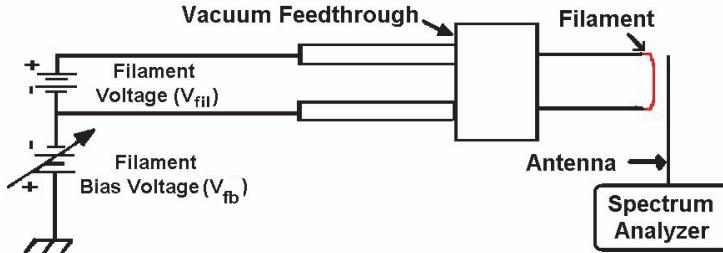


Fig. 12. Diagram of POP apparatus.

## V. Results

The data shown here were taken in the machine shown in Fig. 1. The RF frequency was 2 MHz, and the probes were in the quiescent plasma below the ICP source where the RF amplitude was small and the Langmuir probe has sufficient RF compensation to allow  $T_e$  measurements up to the space potential. Figure 13 shows a power scan of the density at 5 mTorr of argon, as analyzed by the OML, BRL, and ABR theories. In this case, the OML theory happens to agree best with the real density from microwave interferometry. The fact that BRL greatly overestimates and ABR greatly underestimates the plasma density agrees with results of other authors before and after this work. Figure 14 shows the same data with the addition of POP and  $I_{es}$  results, where  $I_{es}$  is obtained from the electron saturation current. The latter is not to be trusted in industrial plasmas because it can be affected by collisions, magnetic fields, or potential pulling by the probe. The last effect occurs when the electron current is so large that it can make the potential of the entire plasma more positive. If saturation electron current is drawn in too long a pulse at high density, the probe tip can be heated to emission.

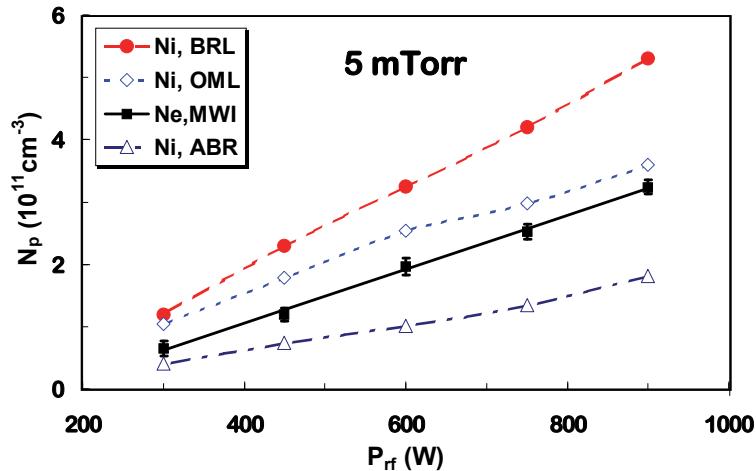


Fig. 13. Plasma density measured with MWI (solid black line), compared with probe data analyzed with various theories.

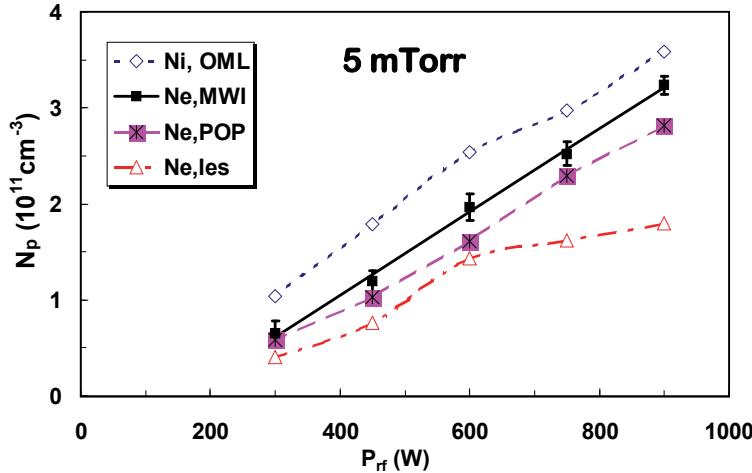


Fig. 14. The data of Fig. 13 compared with  $n_e$  from POP and electron saturation current  $I_{es}$ .

That the disagreement among theories depends on  $\xi_p$  is illustrated in the four sample cases in Fig. 15. These were taken in different plasmas and with different probe radii. The  $T_e$  value do not vary much, but the  $n$  values show great differences. The “Hiden” data also use OML, and differ from “OML” only in the fitting ranges chosen by the automatic ESP<sup>®</sup> analysis.

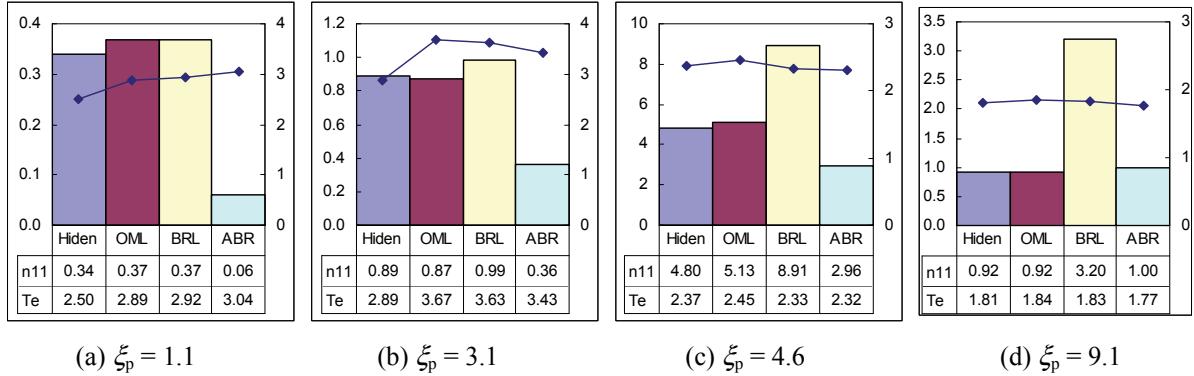


Fig. 15. Comparison of ion collection theories in four plasmas with different values of  $\xi_p$ . Bars show  $n$  on the left scale; points show  $KT_e$  on the right scale.

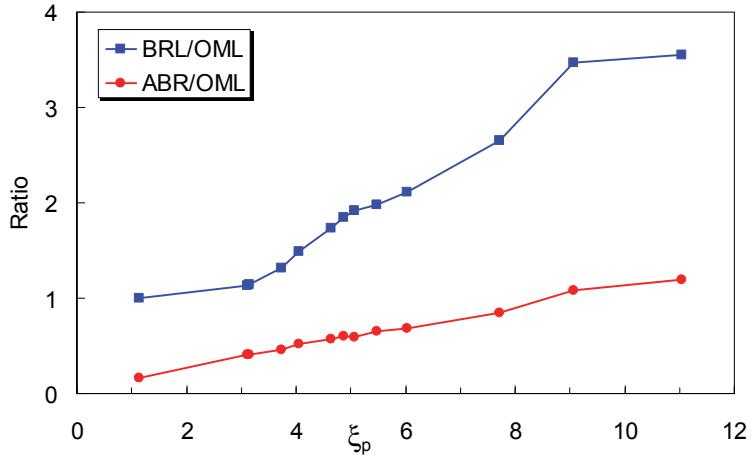


Fig. 16. Ratio of densities determined by different theories as a function of  $\xi_p$  calculated from the OML density.

Figure 16 shows the ratio of BRL-to-OML and ABR-to-OML determined densities for all test cases. ABR is always lower, and BRL is always higher. The BRL/OML ratio gets higher than 3 here but has reached as high as 7 in all our tests. Further data can be found in Ref. [Error! Bookmark not defined.](#)

The entire matrix of calibrations at four pressures and five RF powers is summarized in Figs. 17-20. The OML, MWI, and POP diagnostics were described above. The CL- $V_f$  points are computed with a new Child-Langmuir-floating potential method presented in the next section. This method agrees best with the true density measured by MWI and POP. The  $I_{es}$  points are from saturation electron current and can be accurate only in laboratory plasmas but not in normal industrial plasmas. The OML method, which is used in most commercial probe systems, fails at low pressures because it predicts too many orbiting ions which so not reach the probe. At higher pressures, collisions with neutrals destroy some of the orbiting and bring OML closer to the correct result accidentally. This effect will be discussed later.

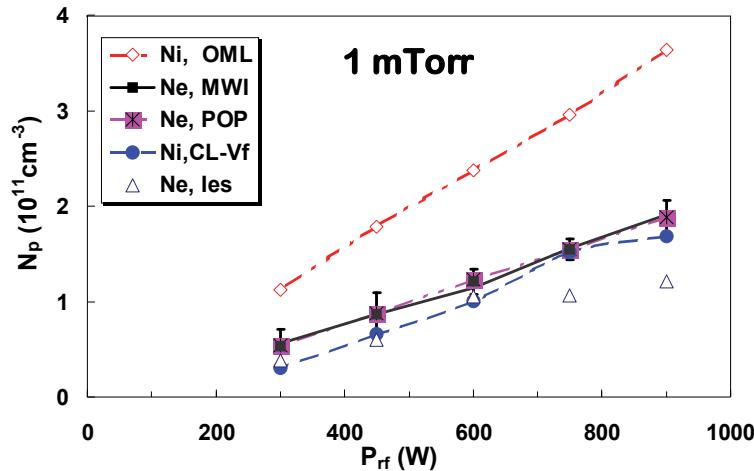


Fig. 17. Power scan of density at 1 mTorr with various diagnostics, taken on axis ( $r = 0$ ).

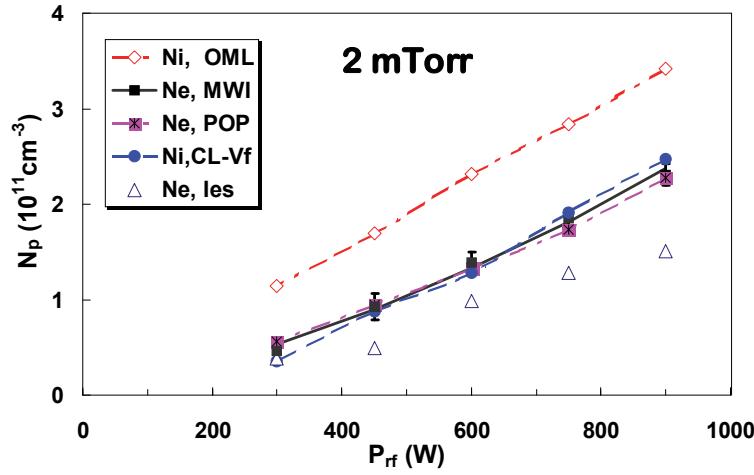


Fig. 18. Power scan of density at 2mTorr with various diagnostics.

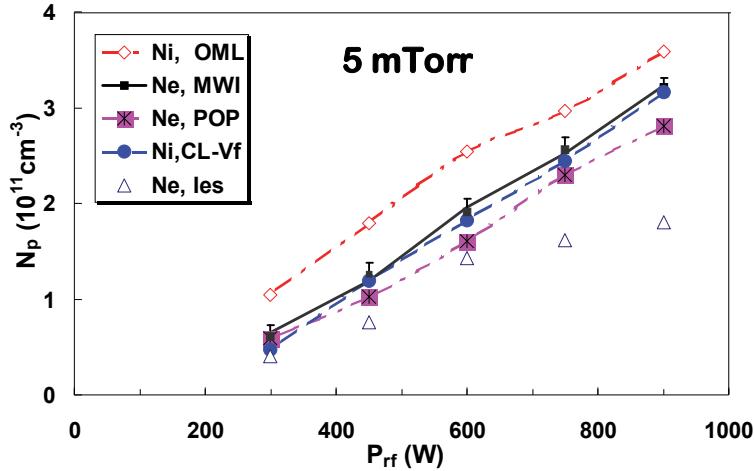


Fig. 19. Power scan of density at 5 mTorr with various diagnostics.

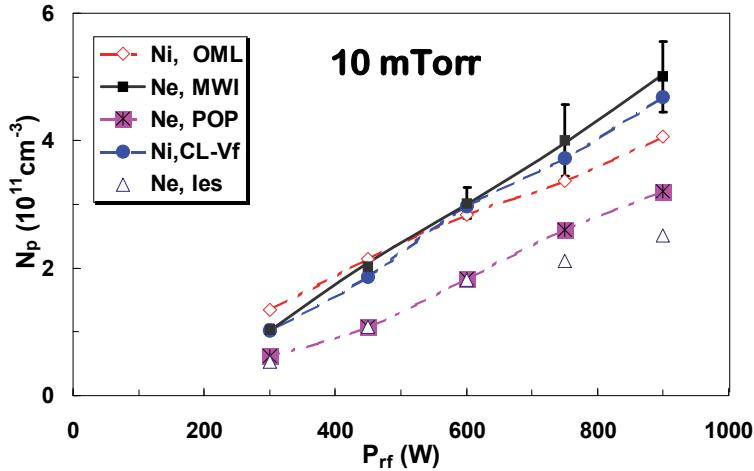


Fig. 20. Power scan of density at 10 mTorr with various diagnostics.

## VI. Discussion

Langmuir probes can be designed to be “thick” or “thin”. Thick probes have  $R_p \gg \lambda_D$  so that the sheath is thin, and the sheath area is not much larger than the probe area  $A_p$ . In that case, the ion current is approximated by<sup>4</sup>  $A_p \alpha_0 n e c_s$ , where  $\alpha_0 \approx 1/2$  and  $c_s$  is the “Bohm velocity”, equal to the ion acoustic velocity  $(K T_e / M)^{1/2}$  in a single-species plasma. Thick probes, however, have to be long enough to approximate an infinite cylinder and therefore may draw enough current to disturb the plasma. Also, thick probes may become “thin” at low densities. This paper emphasizes the more commonly used thin probes, but these suffer from difficulties in calculating ion orbits in the presence of finite sheath thicknesses. Many theories are limited to spherical probes because of logarithmic divergences in cylindrical geometry, but spherical probes are impractical in experiment. To reconcile probe data with calibrations, one can take the geometric mean between the BRL and ABR results. The agreement is shown in Fig. 21. However, this is cumbersome, since it requires two fits for each point.

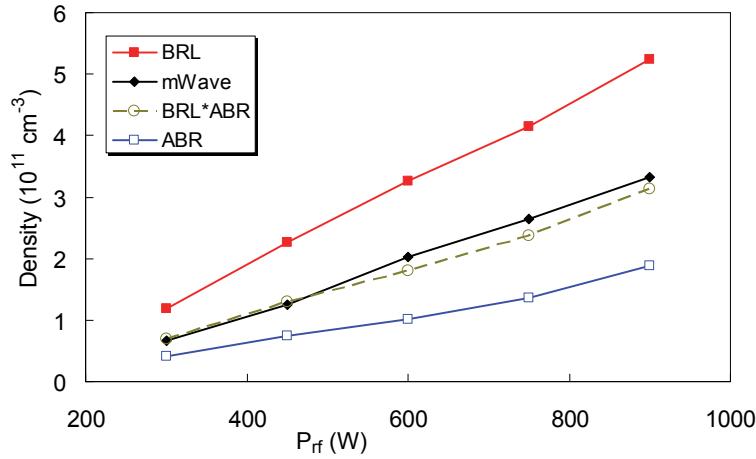


Fig. 21. Example of the agreement of the geometric mean (—○—) between BRL and ABR and the MWI density.

The CL- $V_f$  theory is intermediate between “thick” and “thin” and fits the microwave data best. This idea came about because some  $I_i - V$  curves fit better when  $I^{4/3}$  is plotted against  $V_p$  rather than  $I^2$ , as seen in Fig. 22.

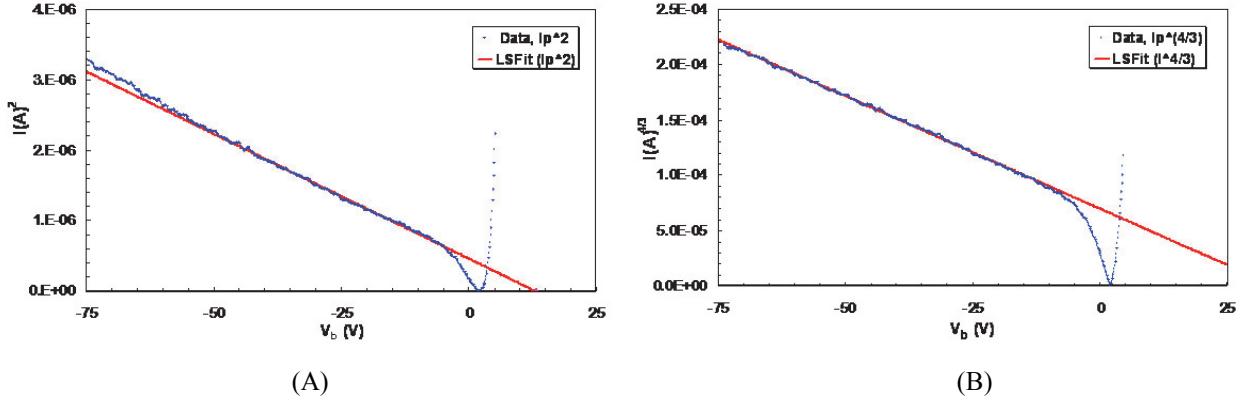


Fig. 22. Ion curves (A)  $I^2 - V$  and (B)  $I^{4/3} - V$ , showing a better fit with  $I^{4/3}$ .

The  $V^{3/4}$  dependence of  $I_i$  is reminiscent of the Child-Langmuir (C-L) law<sup>21,22</sup> for pure ion sheaths:

$$I_i = \frac{4}{9} \left( \frac{2e}{M} \right)^{1/2} \frac{\epsilon_0 |V - V_s|^{3/2}}{d^2}, \quad (3)$$

where  $d$  is the thickness of the C-L sheath and varies as  $|V_p - V_s|^{3/4}$ . The value of  $I_i$  at  $V = V_f$  is easily found from Fig. 22, since  $V_f$  is the voltage where the data points go to zero, and the straight-line fit to  $I_i$  is only a short extrapolation to  $V_f$ . Knowing  $I_i(V_f)$  and  $V_f$ , we can solve Eq. (3) for  $d$ . The result is

$$d = 1.018 \eta_f^{3/4} \lambda_D, \text{ where } \eta_f \equiv |V_s - V_f| / K T_e, \quad \lambda_D \equiv (\epsilon_0 K T_e / n e^2)^{1/2}. \quad (4)$$

We now assume that the absorption radius of the probe lies a distance  $d$  from the probe surface, so that a probe of radius  $R_p$  and length  $L$  collects a current

$$I_i(V_f) = 2\pi(R_p + d)L\alpha_0 n e c_s. \quad (5)$$

The density  $n$  appears linearly here and also as  $n^{-1/2}$  in  $d$ . Eq. (5) is thus a quadratic equation in  $\sqrt{n}$  which can easily be solved to obtain  $n$ . This is the value labeled  $N_i$ ,  $CL-V_f$  in Figs. 17-20. This floating-potential method is explained in detail by Chen, Evans, and Arnush<sup>23</sup>, including the fact that it is empirical and has no rigorous theoretical foundation.

Though we have shown empirical methods to obtain values of  $n$  from probe data that agree with microwave measurements, the question remains as to why the ABR and BRL theories are so erroneous. It is clear that ABR cannot be applied to thin probes because it neglects ion orbiting. That BRL overestimates  $n$ , we believe, is due to the fact that collisions are neglected. When an orbiting ion makes a collision with a neutral atom, it charge-exchanges and loses its angular momentum. It then moves radially into the probe rather than misses it. Thus  $I_i$  is larger, and the theory expects a higher density.

The effect of collisions on ion current collection has been considered by many authors, but mostly for spherical probes. The early work of Self and Shih<sup>24</sup> was a careful extension of ABR to include collisions. Delicate spherical probes were constructed, and comparison was made with a microwave cavity. The experiment was in a small dc discharge at low density. Wasserstrom and Su<sup>25</sup> included orbiting by dividing phase space in two and using a different distribution function in each. Chou, Talbot, and Willis<sup>26</sup> worked out the kinetic theory of a spherical probe with collisions, but the equations could not be solved, and the effect was a collisional *decrease* of ion current, not the orbiting effect. Treatments of the continuum problem, in which ions moved by diffusion with short mean free paths, were comparatively simple. Bienkowski and Chang<sup>27</sup> included orbiting, using a moment method to derive equations for intermediate collisionality which reduced to the known collisionless and continuum limits.

There have been two books on probes. In Swift and Schwar<sup>28</sup>, BRL orbiting was not treated. Chung, Talbot, and Tournyan<sup>29</sup> is the best reference for the continuum case. They also give a good summary of the attempts cited above to treat the case of intermediate collisionality. In more recent times, Knappmiller, Robertson, and Sternovsky<sup>30</sup> compared *cylindrical* probe, disk probe, microwave cavity, and microwave hairpin measurements at  $10^8 \text{ cm}^{-3}$  densities in a DC plasma and noted the effects of collisions. However, no general theory was given that could be used at higher densities. Going back to spheres, Lampe *et al.*<sup>31</sup> considered collisions, but only with application to the charging of spherical dust particles. Hutchinson and Patachini<sup>32</sup> calculated ion currents with collisions, but again only for spheres.

## VII. Conclusions

We have compared Langmuir probe with microwaves for local density  $n$  measurements in industrial RF plasmas which are not collisionless. Different theories were used to interpret the probe  $I - V$  characteristics. We find that the BRL theory greatly overestimates the plasma density, while the ABR theory underestimates it. Langmuir's original OML theory works best if the probe is made as thin as possible to decrease  $\zeta_p \equiv R_p/\lambda_D$ . This gives  $n$  to within a factor of 2 except at very low pressures of argon. Such a probe can be used successfully up to the high  $10^{12} \text{ cm}^{-3}$  range in RF plasmas as long as one understands that the value of  $n$  may be somewhat inflated. A new floating-potential method is proposed which agrees well with microwave densities, but the method has no theoretical justification. What is needed is a theory for cylindrical probes which includes ion orbiting and intermediate collisionalities.

## VIII. Acknowledgments

The authors thank Hiden Analytical, Inc., for the use of their probe and their employee in this work, and also Brendan Melia of Hiden and F. Matt Espiau of the UCLA Center for High

Frequency Electronics for their valued technical support. We are also grateful to Dave Johnson and John Donohue of PlasmaTherm® (now Unaxis®) for the use of their ICP source module.

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