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1 Self-supporting CVD diamond charge state

2 conversion surfaces for high resolution imaging of

3 low-energy neutral atoms in space plasmas

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8 9 **Abstract**

10 Two polycrystalline diamond surfaces, manufactured by chemical vapour deposition 11 (CVD) technique, are investigated regarding their applicability as charge state 12 conversion surfaces (CS) for use in a low energy neutral atom imaging instrument in 13 space research. The capability of the surfaces for converting neutral atoms into 14 negative ions via surface ionisation processes was measured for hydrogen and oxygen with particle energies in the range from 100 eV to 1 keV and for angles of 15 incidence between 6 deg and 15 deg. We observed surface charging during the 16 surface ionisation processes for one of the CVD samples due to low electrical 17 conductivity of the material. Measurements on the other CVD diamond sample 18 19 resulted in ionisation efficiencies of ~2 % for H and up to 12 % for O. Analysis of the angular scattering revealed very narrow and almost circular scattering distributions. 20 21 Comparison of the results with the data of the CS of the IBEX-Lo sensor shows that 22 CVD diamond has great potential as CS material for future space missions.

23

24 Keywords

- 25 surface ionisation
- 26 chemical vapour deposition diamond
- 27 charge state conversion surface
- 28 energetic neutral atom imaging
- 29 ion scattering
- 30 space research

31 1 Introduction

Imaging of plasma populations using energetic neutral atoms became a standard measurement in space plasma research to investigate planetary magnetospheres or even the outer boundaries of our solar system, where the heliosphere encounters the local interstellar medium [1]. Energetic neutral atoms (ENAs) are generated in various processes. For magnetospheric research, the process of charge exchange of energetic ions with a cold neutral background gas is the most important. Contrary to ions, the trajectories of energetic neutral atoms remain almost undisturbed after their

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formation [1]. Therefore measurements of populations and directions of ENAs in
space plasmas offer valuable clues to ENA formation and magnetospheric or
heliospheric plasmas and their interaction and therefore further our understanding of
global plasma processes [2].

44 Research in ENA measurements started in the late 1960s, when first neutral atom 45 imaging instruments were developed and flown on sounding rockets to measure 46 neutral hydrogen in the Earth's atmosphere [3]. The spectrometer for these 47 experiments consisted of a deflector at the opening to prevent charged particles from 48 entering the instrument followed by a thin carbon foil to ionise the incoming neutrals 49 [3]. The ionisation of the neutrals is necessary for subsequently deriving their velocity and mass in electrostatic and magnetic analysers, and hence their energy. To this 50 51 day, neutral atom imaging spectrometers on space missions follow this concept as a 52 matter of principle.

ENAs in space plasmas possess energies in the range of a few eV up to MeV 53 54 depending on their origin and formation [1]. For ENAs with energies below 55 1 keV/amu, when passing through a thin foil, the angular scattering significantly 56 increases and ionisation efficiency decresases. ENAs of about 300 eV/amu have a 57 too low energy to pass through a typical thin carbon foil [1]. For efficient ionisation of neutrals with energies below 1 keV, surface ionisation was identified as the only 58 59 viable technique, meeting all requirements for implementation to an instrument on a 60 space mission regarding weight, volume and durability of the material [4]. The 61 fundamental requirements on the charge state conversion surface (CS) for this 62 application are high ionisation efficiency for the atomic species of interest and a 63 narrow spread in the angular scattering distribution of the ionised atoms leaving the 64 surface, both to maximise transmission through the instrument. The former is given 65 by the physical properties of the surface material, e.g. band structure, the latter by 66 the surface roughness and texture, thus requiring a very smooth surface at the atom 67 level.

68 The first space mission, where a CS was successfully applied for ionisation of neutral 69 atoms, was the IMAGE (Imager for Magnetopause-to-Aurora Global Exploration) 70 mission. There, a polycrystalline tungsten surface was used for ionisation of neutrals 71 in the LENA (Low Energy Neutral Atom Imager) instrument [5, 6]. Focused research 72 in the field of surface ionisation for application in space science revealed that 73 insulators and oxides are better suited materials than metal surfaces. In the NPD 74 (Neutral Particle Detector) sensors in ASPERA-3 and ASPERA-4 (Analyzer of Space 75 Plasma and Energetic Atoms) onboard Mars Express and Venus-Express, a 76 multilayer surface of Cr_2O_3 , MgF and WO₂ is used as a start surface. When the start 77 surface is hit by a neutral atom, a signal of secondary electrons is created to initiate 78 the time-of-flight measurement. The surface generating the corresponding stop signal 79 consists of MgO coated graphite [7]. Onboard Chandrayaan-1, a Si-surface with MgO 80 coating is used in the CENA (Chandrayaan Energetic Neutrals Analyzer) sensor to 81 detect neutral atoms from the Moon [8]. The ENA sensor in MPPE (Mercury Plasma

Aside from its high costs, natural diamond is a promising material for CSs due to its chemical inertness, its durability and the possibility for high surface smoothness at the level of nm_{<rms>} roughness [4]. As an alternative, synthetic diamond, which has the same properties at a much more favourable price, was considered. In the IBEX-Lo sensor (Interstellar Boundary Explorer), a Si-surface covered with a thin film of tetrahedral amorphous carbon (diamond-like carbon, DLC) is used to convert ENAs into ions [10, 11].

All of the CSs described before have been uniquely developed and fabricated for the particular space mission. This makes the surfaces, particularly the elaborate multilayers and coatings expensive, and complicated to duplicate as they have run through many different manufacturing processes and institutions.

95 Using surface ionisation in neutral atom imaging instruments to date is a wellestablished technique, building on experience of several space missions. Similar 96 97 instruments will be part of future spacecrafts. The payload of the proposed 98 MarcoPolo-R mission to an asteroid involves a neutral particle analyser (NPA) to 99 investigate interaction of a near Earth asteroid with the solar wind [12, 13], also 100 making use of a CS. ENA maps from the IBEX mission revealed numerous 101 phenomena of the heliosphere/local interstellar medium interaction processes, e.g. a 102 band of intensified ENA emission standing out from the distributed heliosperic ENA 103 signals [14] and a two-lobe structure of the heliotail [15]. Some of these findings 104 needed several years of IBEX data for being discovered, others indicate that ENA 105 mapping with higher resolution would be required to fully understand their origin. The 106 proposed IBEX follow up mission IMAP (Interstellar Mapping Probe) aims to map 107 ENAs at the boundaries of the Solar System with higher sensitivity, increased angular 108 and energy resolution and increased energy range compared to IBEX to advance our 109 understanding of the global interaction of the heliosphere [14, 16]. Both missions, 110 MarcoPolo-R and IMAP, require neutral particle detectors and therefore charge state 111 CSs with improved characteristics to image neutrals in space plasmas with enhanced 112 angular resolution and detection sensitivity.

113 Due to its high potential as a CS, ongoing research concentrates on DLC surfaces [10]. Synthetic diamond generally is manufactured either by the pulsed laser 114 115 deposition (PLD) or chemical vapour deposition (CVD) technique. Suppliers provide 116 from stock diamond wafers for optical, electronics, mechanics and many other 117 applications, optionally with metal surface coating, doping or special polishing. It can 118 be assumed that such wafers from one manufacturer show good uniformity and reproducibility, which is of high importance, because in several neutral particle 119 imaging space instruments it is required to cover large areas with the CS material. 120 121 as, for instance, 500 cm² in case of the IBEX-Lo instrument [10]. Two CVD diamond samples from Diamond Materials GmbH [17] are investigated in this work regarding 122 123 their applicability as CSs.

2 Experiment 124

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126 Key parameters of charge state CSs are their ability to convert neutral atoms into 127 ions (ionisation efficiency) and their angular scattering characteristics. A narrow 128 angular scattering cone and high ionisation efficiency are both essential to maximise 129 the detection efficiency and transmission through a neutral particle imaging 130 instrument. Experiments for this work were carried out at the Imager for Low Energy 131 Neutral Atoms (ILENA) facility at the University of Bern. This test and calibration 132 facility allows to measure the above mentioned key properties of a CS. CSs for 133 ASPERA-3 and -4 and for the IBEX mission were tested in ILENA and selected or rejected owing to their measured performance. Details on the hardware, functionality 134 135 and data processing of the ILENA facility have recently been published in [18]. Therefore, only a short descripton of the facility will be given here. 136

137 In the ILENA facility, singly charged positive ions of a defined atom species are 138 generated in an electron-impact ion source and guided into the ion-optical system by 139 a pair of deflection plates. Beam energies in the range of 100 eV to 1400 eV are 140 feasible. For mass selection, the ion beam passes through a sector magnet having a 141 mass resolution of m/ $m \approx 45$. The ion beam is then focussed by an Einzel lens to pass through a second pair of deflection plates and an aperture of 1 mm diameter 142 143 before it hits the CS. The sample is placed on a grounded sample holder that is 144 rotatably mounted so that an angle of incidence between 0 deg and 90 deg can be 145 selected. Scattered particles are detected by a micro channel plate (MCP) imaging detector, which has a two-dimensional field of view of ±12.5 deg. In front of the 146 147 detector, a retarding potential analyser (RPA) and an additional grid are mounted to 148 eliminate positive ions and low energy electrons, respectively [18]. Fig. 1a displays a 149 schematic drawing of these main components.



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a) Schematic description of the ILENA facility [18].

b) In ILENA, a beam of positive ions strikes the conversion surface (CS) at an angle α of grazing incidence. By scattering from the CS, a fraction N of the incoming atoms gets negatively ionised. The scattered beam is broadened in azimuthal and polar direction to a solid angle Ω .

154 Although charge state CSs are tested for their ability to negatively ionise neutral atoms in a space experiment, positive ions are used for the tests in ILENA. Positive 155 ions can be produced with higher efficiency than neutrals and allow good control over 156 beam energy and direction. Previous publications have demonstrated that positive 157 158 ions are effectively neutralised already on their incoming trajectory, i.e., prior to their 159 interaction with surface atoms [4, 19 and references therein]. Residual positive ions, which are not converted to neutrals, or positive ions, which are sputtered from the 160 161 CS, are excluded from detection by the RPA grid. Therefore, it can be assumed that 162 the results in negative ionisation yield and angular scattering are equal for incident 163 positive ions and neutrals.



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Scattering of 250 eV O^+ atoms from a CVD diamond surface (CVD2, see end of this paragraph) at 8 deg grazing incidence (a) and contour plot (b) of the normalised scattering distribution. The FWHM is indicated by a bold line.

167 The angular scattering is determined directly from the two-dimensional distribution of 168 particles recorded on the MCP detector. Fig. 2 shows a distribution of 250 eV O⁺ 169 atoms scattered from one of the CVD diamond samples that are investigated in this 170 work. Fig. 2a displays the measured normalised angular distribution and Fig. 2b the 171 contour plot of the distribution, where the FWHM (full-width half maximum) is 172 indicated by a bold line. For characterisation of the CS, the angular width (FWHM) of 173 the distribution is derived in polar (perpendicular to the CS plane) and azimuthal (in 174 the CS plane) direction (Fig. 1b) from the contour plot (Fig. 2b), where the polar angle 175 of 90 deg lies in the CS plane. Irregularities in the distribution arround angles of 176 80 deg in polar and -5 deg in azimuthal direction (Fig. 2b) result from the geometry of 177 the detection unit, because the channels of the MCPs are inclined by 8 degrees. 178 Particles arriving in exactly this angle, do not strike the walls of the first MCP and 179 have thus a much lower detection probability. The lower detection probability is 180 corrected for by our software, but minor misinterpretation of delimitation of the MCP 181 hole can lead to slight irregularities in the contour plot. However, this does not affect 182 the derivation of the FWHM of the scattering distribution.

183 The MCP detector can be floated to high negative voltages to prevent negative ions 184 from entering the detection unit. An ILENA measurement consists of five sequenced 185 single measurements with this voltage alternately enabled and disabled. In the

186 beginning of a measurement, ion optics and source emission are optimised to a count rate of ~5000/s on the detector. In each single measurement, the MCP signal 187 is collected for 2 minutes, resulting in a statistics of approximately 6.10⁵ counts. The 188 total number of counts for a typical measurement is displayed in Fig. 3. From the 189 190 difference of two linear fits through the measurements of neutrals only 191 (measurements 1,3 and 5) and negative ions and neutrals both (measurements 2 and 4), the ionisation efficiency of the CS is determined, defined as the ratio of 192 193 negative ions to neutrals. In this calculation, the detection efficiency of the MCP detector for the specific atom species and the used beam energy is taken into 194 195 account, too. Due to slow degeneration of the filament or ion source stability in general, the countrate can slightly decrease during one measurement (Fig. 3), but 196 this does not affect the measurement of the ionisation efficiency, because of the 197 198 chosen procedure.



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Figure 3

One ILENA measurement consists of five single measurements with alternately floating the MCP detector to a high negative voltage to measure neutral atoms only. Example of 950 eV O^+ measurement on a CVD diamond surface.

The detection unit cannot distiguish between negative ions resulting from sputtering 200 processes of incident particles on the CS and such from surface ionisation proper. 201 202 For determination of this sputtering background, noble gases are used as they do not form stable negative ions. In magnetospheric and heliospheric research, the species 203 204 of largest interest are H and O [4]. These atoms/molecules are used in this work, too. 205 The sputtering background was measured using the noble gases He and Ne, 206 respectively, as these species have comparable masses and therefore also the 207 sputtering effect can be assumed to be in comparable range. All measurements were carried out at a pressure in the low 10^{-7} mbar range. 208

209 Two polycrystalline diamond samples, manufactured by chemical vapour deposition 210 (CVD) technique, from Diamond Materials GmbH [17] were investigated. These free-211 standing optical grade CVD diamond samples were grown using microwave-plasma-212 CVD at a power of 6 kW and a frequency of 2.45 GHz. Typical growth conditions use 213 a temperature of 800–900°C and a pressure of 150 mbar. The gas consists of 1–2 % 214 methane in hydrogen [20]. After deposition, the diamond film is removed from the 215 substrate and mechanically polished to a roughness of Ra = 1 nm_{<rms>} as measured with a white light interferometer [17]. The first sample, refered to as CVD1 in the 216 217 following, is a pure CVD diamond disk of 10 mm diameter and $(300 \pm 50) \mu m$ 218 thickness. The second sample investigated is a CVD diamond disk of 20 mm 219 diameter, 20 µm thickness and a Ti/Au coating on the backside, which is not polished

220 (product name KAIROS010). This sample will be referred to as **CVD2** in the following. Fig. 4 shows AFM images (cantilever BRUKER SNL-10, 0.12N/m) of both surfaces, 221 taken after extensive measurements in ILENA. The surface roughness was 222 223 measured to be Ra= (1.34 ± 0.11) nm for the CVD1 and Ra= (1.36 ± 0.26) nm for the 224 CVD2 surface, in good agreement with the manufacturer specifications. For 225 measurements in ILENA, the CVD1 surface was mounted on the grounded sample 226 holder with two metal clips. The metallised CVD2 surface was attached to the holder 227 using a carbon tab (agar scientific, leit adhesive carbon tab, G3348N).



AFM images of the investigated samples CVD1 (a) and CVD2 (b).

230 **3 Results**

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231 **3.1 Electrostatic Charging**

232 Charge state CSs constantly provide electrons to neutralise the positive ion beam 233 and for negative ionisation of incoming neutral atoms. Additionally, secondary 234 electron emission releases electrons from the surface. If the electrical conductivity of 235 the CS is too low, the sample charges up positively. In space, photoelectron emission 236 stimulated by UV photons adds to the positive charging of the CS. Surface charging 237 significantly influences the process of surface ionisation and scattering. 238 Measurements on the CVD1 surface, in particular measurements with low energy 239 ions (< 500 eV), were suffering from unstable count rates attributed to surface 240 charging. Electrical fields building up at the surface, but not being stable, might 241 spontaneously release charge and therefore have a strong influence on the stability 242 of the countrate.

To confirm charging of the CVD1 surface, long duration measurements were carried
out with low energy ions (<400 eV) as these should be more sensitive to interaction
with a CS charged to a certain potential. Consecutive measurements with 195 eV
He⁺ ions and the detector floated to high negative voltage were collected for 4 hours.
Fig. 5a displays the FWHM of scattering in polar direction over time. The FWHM

decreases from 10 deg to 6.5 deg within 4 h, which can be assigned to the surface 248 charging. If the CS gets positively charged during measurement, the incident beam of 249 positive ions is repelled from the surface and the distance of closest approach 250 251 increases. Hence, the angle of incidence and therefore the velocity component 252 normal to the surface decreases and interaction of incident atoms with the surface 253 atoms is less severe, which results in a narrower scattering distribution and 254 consequently in more particles reaching the detector. Additionally, the charged 255 surface might have a collimating effect on the scattered beam of negative ions, which 256 intensifies the influence on angular scattering and count rate.





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In Fig. 5b the peak of the scattering distribution in polar direction, i.e., the cut along 260 261 the 0 deg azimuth angle, is shown for a similar measurement with 390 eV He⁺ ions after 10 and 100 minutes. In the ideal case specular reflection of atoms is expected. 262 263 After 10 minutes the maximum of the distribution is situated at about 84 deg, which corresponds to a specular reflection for the angle of incidence of 6 deg. After 264 265 100 minutes, the maximum of the distribution is shifted by about 0.7 deg to a larger 266 polar angle, which directly reflects the decrease of the angle of incidence due to the 267 incident ions being deflected by the charged surface.

268 Previous research has shown that with increasing energy of the incident particles the angular distribution of scattered atoms broadens [9]. From theory it is known that the 269 higher the particle energy the closer the approach of incident particle and surface 270 271 atoms, and therefore the stronger the interaction due to deeper penetration of the 272 incident particle into the surface atom potential [10]. The CVD1 diamond sample does not show this relation (Sec. 3.3, Fig. 9b), which is another confirmation of the 273 274 surface charging. Fig. 6 displays the angular scatter distribution of 780 eV O⁺ ions on the CVD1 (Fig. 6a) and the CVD2 (Fig. 6b) diamond surface. At this atom energy, the 275 276 angular scattering distribution should be broadened compared to the lower energies. as it is the case for the CVD2 surface (Fig. 6b). The narrow scattering distribution of 277

the CVD1 surface is attributed to electrostatic charging of the sample, as the surface roughness and texture of both samples are comparable (Fig. 4).

Nevertheless, despite charging, for measurements, where the count rate stayed at least constant and did not increase or fluctuate during the measurement, ionisation efficiency and scattering angles were evaluated for the CVD1 sample for atom species with energies >500 eV. For comparison reasons the data are included in the result plots (Fig. 7b, Fig. 9b), but these results should be ascribed minor importance.



²⁸⁶ Figure 6

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Angular scattering distribution of 780 eV O⁺ on the CVD1 (a) and the CVD2 (b) diamond surface in 8 deg grazing incidence. The narrower scattering on the CVD1 sample is caused by electrostatic charging effects.

Similar experiments were conducted with the CVD2 surface. The sample did not show any indications for electrostatic charging neither in long duration runs nor for very low beam energies. Therefore, it can be concluded that the thinner diamond bulk and the additional metal coating on the backside sufficiently increase conductivity of the CS and therefore successfully eliminate the unwanted charging effects.

294 3.2 Ionisation Efficiency

295 The ionisation efficiency, defined as the fraction of negative ions to neutrals scattered 296 from the CS, was measured in ILENA for H and O, both species of major interest in 297 space plasma research [21]. For the CVD2 sample measurements were taken at 8 deg grazing incidence of the ions. The sputtering background was determined by 298 299 experiments with He and Ne atoms, respectively. This resulted in fractions of 300 sputtered negative ions of 1.1 % to 2.5 % for He and 2.2 % to 3.7 % for Ne produced 301 by sputtering, where the lowest values were accounted for lowest energies measured 302 (150 eV) and increasing to higher energies.

For light atomic species, the production rate in the ion source of ILENA is poor, particularly for very low energy beams, and therefore reasonably high enough count rates on the detector could not be achieved. For this reason, measurements for H below 800 eV, as indicated in Fig. 7a, were carried out using H molecules as these can be produced much more efficiently. In previous publications it was shown that H_{2}^{\dagger} molecules can be used in scattering experiments instead of a primary atomic H^{\dagger} ion beam as approximately 80 % of the incident H_2^{+} molecules will dissociate upon scattering [4]. Considering the fact that, in case of dissociation, the two resulting atoms will not necessarily carry away exactly half of the primary beam energy each, an error bar of 10% has been added to the beam energy of the CVD2 data (Fig. 7a) for measurements performed with molecules. Oxygen measurements were all performed with atomic O⁺. Absolute errors on the measured fractions of negative ions are ± 0.5 %, which can be attributed to the measurement accuracy of the facility [18].

For comparison, values for the ionisation yield of CSs calibrated for the IBEX-Lo sensor from [22] and a DLC sample manufactured by pulsed laser deposition (PLD) technique from [10, 23] were added to the plot. Both surfaces are samples of very thin diamond films on a Si-substrate, which additionally have undergone hydrogen termination of the diamond surface.

321 Fig. 7a displays the measured negative ionisation yield of H for energies from 100 eV 322 to 1 keV. After subtraction of the sputtering background the results show that 323 (1.9 ± 0.5) % of incident neutral atoms are ionised by scattering on the CVD2 surface. While on other CSs a significant increase of the ion yield with increasing 324 325 beam energy was observed [10, 21], this effect is not clearly seen for the CVD2 sample within the measurement accuracy. Merely for O, a slight increase of the 326 327 ionisation efficiency from (10.2 ± 0.5) % to (12.2 ± 0.5) % is measured on the CVD2 surface within the investigated energy range (Fig. 7b). In Fig. 7b the values 328 measured on the CVD1 surface are displayed, too. It was shown before that this 329 conversion surface got electrostatically charged (Sec. 3.1) during measurements. 330 Nevertheless, for beam energies \geq 500 eV, measurements with a reasonable trend of 331 the count rate were evaluated. The mean ionisation yield of O (Fig. 7b) is 332 (14.1 ± 0.7) % for the CVD1, which is about 2 % higher than for the CVD2 surface at 333 the highest energies measured, but reliability of these numbers is questionable. 334



336 Figure 7

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Negative ionisation yield of the CVD2 diamond surface for H (a) and O (b) at 8 deg grazing incidence.
 Values of a PLD diamond surface [23] and of the IBEX CS [22] are displayed for comparison. Data for CVD1 is affected by surface charging.

Negative ion fractions of the CVD2 surface are considerably lower than ionisation
yields of the PLD diamond surface and the surfaces used in the IBEX-Lo sensor. For
H e.g., the IBEX surface exhibits ionisation efficiencies of 3 % for 390 eV H-atoms
rising to 4 % for beam energy of 500 eV, while fractions of ionised H-atoms are about
% for these energies on the CVD2 surface.

344 Published research asserts that the negative ionisation yield of CSs is dependent on 345 α , the angle of incidence. For the IBEX surfaces it was found that with increasing 346 angle of incidence, i.e., higher particle velocity normal to the surface plane, the ionisation efficiency increases [22]. For investigation of this relation, measurements 347 348 of the ionisation efficiency of the CVD2 diamond surface for O⁺ at four selected beam energies were carried out at angles of incidence of 6, 10, 12 and 15 deg in addition to 349 the extensive set of measurements at 8 deg. The results, displayed in Fig. 8, show 350 clearly an increasing trend of the ionisation efficiency with larger angles of incidence, 351 exceeding 13 % for 500 eV O⁺ incident in 15 deg. Values for the higher beam 352 353 energies are not displayed for angles of 12 deg and 15 deg as the FWHM of the 354 angular scattering distribution in azimuthal direction exceeded the detector viewing 355 angle. 356



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358 3.3 Angular Scattering

359 The angular distribution of H^+ and O^+ ions, scattering off the two CVD diamond surfaces at an incidence angle of 8 deg, was measured in the ILENA facility. The 360 scattering distributions are analysed separately in polar and azimuthal direction 361 362 (Fig. 1b, Fig. 2). Fig. 9a and Fig. 9b show the scattering distribution width in polar direction for H and O, respectively. In Fig. 9c and Fig. 9d the FWHM in azimuthal 363 364 direction is displayed for both gases. Data of the PLD diamond [23] and the IBEX 365 surface [22] are shown for comparison. Where measurements were carried out with 366 molecules instead of atoms, an error bar of 10 % is added to the beam energy to take 367 into account that in dissociation processes the resulting atoms might not carry away 368 exactly half of the primary beam energy each. This is the case for the PLD and IBEX 369 data, and for the CVD2 for H measurements with beam energies below 800 eV, as 370 indicated in Fig. 9a.

The general trend of an increasing FWHM with increasing beam energy is evident from all plots in Fig. 9. For H, the measured scattering angles in polar direction for the

373 CVD2 are comparable to the data of the PLD diamond surface for the few reference values available (Fig. 9a). For O, in polar direction, the CVD2 performs better than 374 the PLD surface, i.e., reveals smaller scattering angles, and is comparable to the 375 376 IBEX numbers (Fig. 9b). In Fig. 9b, data of the CVD1 diamond surface are displayed. 377 too. The measured scattering angles of the CVD1 are significantly lower than for the 378 other surfaces and do not increase with larger beam energies. This finding can be 379 explained by electrostatic charging of the sample (Sec. 3.1), which lead to deflection 380 and focussing of the scattered beam of negative ions, also for beam energies above 381 500 eV.



Figure 9 Chergy (ev)
 Angular scattering of hydrogen (left panels) and oxygen (right panels) in a),b) polar and c),d)
 azimuthal direction. Data for CVD1 are affected by surface charging.

384 The azimuthal FWHM of the scattering distribution from the CVD2 diamond surface is significantly narrower compared to the earlier samples for both test gases (Fig. 9c, 385 386 Fig. 9d). For H atoms, the distribution width in azimuthal direction of the PLD surface reaches 22 deg at 390 eV, whereas for the CVD2 surface the numbers stay below 387 20 deg even for beam energies of 1 keV (Fig. 9c). For O, the FWHM in azimuthal 388 389 direction of the CVD2 sample is about 2 deg (195 eV) to 6 deg (500 eV) lower than 390 the values of the IBEX surface (Fig. 9d). The difference is even more distinct when comparing to the PLD diamond. 391

In Fig. 9 it stands out that the trend of increasing FWHM in polar and azimuthal direction with increasing beam energy shows a different behaviour for H than for O measurements. For H, the rise of the FWHM is steeper at low energies and turns into 395 a plateau at about 400 eV for the CVD2 sample. Due to the higher density of the data points for the CVD2 surface, the trend is more evident for this sample, but is also 396 compatible with the PLD reference data, where polar direction the plateau might be 397 398 reached at higher beam energies, where no reference data are available. The same 399 applies in azimuthal direction, where the limits of the detector viewing angle are 400 reached at 200 eV for the PLD sample. On the contrary, for O the angular spreads 401 show a linear increase with energy, where merely the slopes differ from each other 402 for the different samples. E.g. the increase of the FWHM with increasing beam 403 energy in azimuthal direction is steeper for the IBEX than for the CVD2 surface. The 404 slope of the initial increase of angular scattering in polar as well as in azimuthal 405 direction for O resembles the data for H for the CVD2 sample more when plotted 406 against atom velocity perpendicular to the surface. Nevertheless, angular scattering 407 is shown as a function of atom energy, because this is the parameter of interest in 408 space research. If for O a plateau like for H is reached, it probably appears at a beam energy $E \ge 1600 \text{ eV}$, which exceeds the feasible energy range of the ILENA facility. 409





We found a clear correlation of the angular scattering and the angle of incidence. 411 Fig. 10a displays the angular scattering distributions of 390 eV O⁺ ions on the CVD2 412 diamond surface for angles of grazing incidence of $\alpha = 6.8.10$ and 12 deg. With 413 414 increasing α , the scattering distribution significantly broadens. A steeper angle of 415 incidence is equivalent to a higher velocity perpendicular to the CS plane. Fig. 10b shows the angular scattering of O^+ and Ne^+ atoms (390, 500, 780 and 1000 eV, 416 417 α = 6, 8, 10, 12, 15 deg) on the CVD2 surface as a function of the atom velocity 418 perpendicular to the CS. With increasing perpendicular velocity, thus larger energy or larger impact angle, the particle probes the CS potential at a deeper level and is stronger affected by the surface corrugation, which leads to an increase of scattering [22]. In Fig. 10a it can be seen that the scattering distribution is nearly circular for smaller angles of incidence and becomes elliptic with increasing α . This can be explained by the fact that a further expansion of the scattering in polar direction is restricted by the CS plane, which is equal to 90 deg polar angle.

425 **4 Discussion**

426 **4.1 Electrostatic Charging**

427 Measurements on the CVD1 surface (pure CVD diamond, 300 µm thick) showed 428 indications of electrostatic charging of the sample, i.e., a fluctuating or increasing 429 countrate during measurements in ILENA. Charging of the CS was identified by a 430 significant decrease of the scattering distribution width and a shift of the distribution 431 maximum during long duration measurements. Both phenomena can be explained by 432 the CS getting positively charged by releasing electrons to ionise incoming neutral 433 atoms and additional emission of secondary electrons. Incoming positive ions are 434 then deflected from the nominal point of impact on the surface to a point further 435 downstream and thus scattered with lower impact angle. This decrease of the angle 436 of incidence is also observed as a shift in polar direction of the scattering distribution maximum (Fig. 5b). A smaller angle of incidence also implicates a narrower 437 438 scattering distribution (Fig. 10a). Additionally, the charged surface will have ion-439 optical focussing and deflection effects on the negative ions scattering off the 440 surface. Such effects can also lead to a narrow scattering distribution and to an 441 increase in the countrate. From the decrease of the FWHM in polar direction and 442 knowing the influence of the angle of incidence on the polar FWHM (Fig. 10), we 443 estimated the CVD1 surface charging up to potentials of 1 to 2 V, depending on the 444 experiment conditions (energy of He⁺ atoms, current, measurement duration). E.g. for 445 the case displayed in Fig. 5a (195 eV He⁺) the potential of the CVD1 surface after 4 h was evaluated to ~1.8 V. 446

447 Nevertheless, for atoms \geq 500 eV, scattering distribution width and ionisation 448 efficiency of the CVD1 surface were evaluated as higher energetic atoms should be 449 less affected by charging effects. However, comparison of the results of angular 450 scattering and ionisation yield for CVD1 to the sufficiently conductive CVD2 sample 451 showed that even a higher energetic ion beam is affected by the charging effects. 452 Although the surface roughness of the two samples is in a comparable range (Fig. 4), 453 the scattering distributions resulting from the CVD1 diamond surface appear to be significantly narrower. For the scattering of 500 eV O⁺, the FWHM in polar direction is 454 455 found to be about 4 deg smaller on the CVD1 than on the CVD2 surface (Fig. 9b). 456 Because the scattering distribution was not broadened with increasing beam energy 457 on the CVD1, this difference rises to a 8 deg narrower FWHM at 1 keV (Fig. 9b). The 458 ionisation yield of the CVD1 was found to be about 2 % higher than for the CVD2 459 (Fig. 7b), although the bulk material of both samples is the same. The reason for this

464 These experiments demonstrate that in surface ionisation and scattering 465 experiments, results of very narrow scattering distributions should be treated with 466 caution and have to be proven for their reliability. An increasing countrate during the 467 measurement is a first indicator for electrostatic charging and careful observation of 468 the scatter distribution in long duration measurements clearly reveal the insufficient 469 conductivity of a CS. However, no electrostatic charging effects were observed for 470 the CVD2 sample, which means that the thinner diamond bulk (20 µm) and the 471 additional metallic coating (Ti/Au) on the backside lead to a sufficient electrical conductivity. 472

473 **4.2 Ionisation Efficiency**

474 The ionisation efficiency of the CVD2 diamond surface was measured for H and O at 475 8 deg grazing incidence and compared to the values of a PLD diamond surface [23] 476 and the IBEX CS [22]. While for the reference surfaces, the ionisation efficiency for H 477 increases from 2.4 % (at 200 eV) to 3.1 % (IBEX) or even 4.7 % (PLD) (at 500 eV), 478 ionisation is constant within the resolution of the measurement with a value of 479 (1.9 ± 0.5) % on average for the CVD2 surface (Fig. 7a). For O, we see a small 480 increase of ionisation efficiency from (10.2 ± 0.5) % to (12.2 ± 0.5) % over the 481 measured energy range from 150 eV to 1 keV (Fig. 7b). These values are 482 considerably lower than the numbers of the reference surfaces. However, for CSs in 483 space applications, a common requirement is a negative ionisation yield exceeding 484 1 % for all species [4]. This requirement is well met by the CVD2 surface for H and O. 485 Furthermore, the reduced energy dependence of the ionisation yield can be of 486 advantage in terms of calibration of a neutral atom sensing instrument.

487 By additional measurements at angles of incidence α = 6, 10, 12 and 15 deg it was 488 confirmed that the ionisation efficiency increases with larger α (Fig. 8). On the other 489 hand, the scattering distribution broadens with increasing particle velocity 490 perpendicular to the surface, hence larger angle of incidence α (Fig. 10). Therefore 491 measurements at higher beam energies (780 eV, 1 keV) could not be evaluated at 492 α = 15 deg, because the scattering distribution exceeded the detector viewing angle 493 in azimuthal direction. This indicates that for the design of an energetic neutral atom 494 instrument for space application, the angle of incidence has to be optimised 495 considering ionisation yield and angular scattering.

496 **4.3 Angular Scattering**

497 Scattering on the CVD2 diamond surface was analysed in detail for H- and O-atoms
498 incident on the CS at an angle of 8 deg. Within the investigated energy range of
499 150 eV to 1 keV we found an increase of the FWHM of the scattering distribution in
500 azimuthal and polar direction (Fig. 9).

For measurements with H^+ , the increase of FWHM in both angular directions shows a steep increase at low beam energies, reaching a constant value of ~13.5 deg in polar and ~19 deg in azimuthal direction at about 400 eV (Fig. 9a,c). The increase of FWHM in polar direction is comparable to the PLD diamond surface from [23]. On the contrary, in azimuthal direction, the CVD2 sample performs considerably better, thus showing a FWHM that is 3 deg (at 500 eV) to 7 deg (at 95 eV) smaller than for the reference samples.

For O⁺ measurements, the FWHM in both directions shows a linearly increasing trend with increasing particle energy (Fig. 9b,d). In polar direction, the results are comparable to the numbers of the IBEX surface. In azimuthal direction, the CVD2 surface reveals a narrower scattering distribution. The measured FWHM are \sim 2.5 deg (at 195 eV) and 6 deg smaller (at 500 eV) than the numbers of the IBEX CS.

In general the FWHM of the scattering distribution from a CS is larger in azimuthal 514 515 than in polar direction, because the latter is restricted by the scattering geometry. Fig. 11 displays the FWHM of the scattering distribution in polar versus azimuthal 516 517 direction for scattering of H^+ and O^+ from the CVD2 diamond surface (at 8 deg grazing incidence). Values of the PLD diamond [23] and the IBEX surface [22] are 518 shown for comparison. The numbers beside the markers denote the beam energy in 519 [eV]. The dashed line indicates a circular scattering cone. It can be seen that all 520 521 measured scattering distributions of the CVD2 diamond surface are closer to a 522 circular geometry than values of the reference surfaces. The deviation from the 523 dashed line increases to higher particle energies. This effect is larger for light atom 524 species (H^{+}) than for heavier ones (O^{+}) .



525

526 Beside small scattering angles in general, a more circular scattering distribution is 527 advantageous for the ion-optical transmission of a neutral particle imaging 528 instrument. Often, the angular scatter in azimuthal direction drives the size of the ion-529 optical system (e.g. see [24]), hence, a large spread of the distribution in azimuthal 530 direction results in particle loss. Broadening in azimuthal direction is therefore of

531 concern in neutral particle imaging instruments, as the emittance from the surface 532 has to match the acceptance of the ion-optical system. Naturally, a narrow 533 symmetrical beam is favourable for subsequent ion guiding and focussing ion-optics. 534 Accordingly, smaller scattering angles of the CS are advantageous for high angular 535 resolution of the instrument. From this point, the measured scattering angles of CVD2 536 diamond surface are very promising, particularly with a view towards future space 537 missions like IMAP, where high angular resolution ENA mapping is the goal.

538 4.4 Figure of Merit

Crucial parameters for a CS in a neutral atom imaging instrument are the angular 539 540 scattering and the ionisation efficiency. Both parameters were measured on a CVD 541 diamond surface in ILENA for H and O. In comparison to reference samples from 542 previous publications, the CVD2 diamond sample showed a lower ionisation 543 efficiency (Fig. 7), which is disadvantageous, but on the other hand showed a 544 narrower scattering cone (Fig. 9), which is beneficial for a higher transmission of ions 545 through a neutral atom imaging instrument. For evaluation of how these two 546 parameters can counterbalance each other in terms of instrument performance, we 547 defined a figure of merit (FoM). On a CS, the incident beam is scattered into a solid 548 angle Ω (Fig. 1b). Let F [%] be the fraction of the hemispherical solid angle above the 549 CS, that is covered by Ω . The figure of merit then is defined as the ionisation 550 efficiency [%] devided by F, which gives a unitless number that, preferably, should be 551 large.

Fig. 12a displays this FoM for measurements with O^{+} ions incident in an angle of 552 8 deg on the CVD2 diamond surface. For comparison, FoM values of the IBEX and 553 the PLD diamond surface are displayed. For all samples, the FoM decreases to 554 higher beam energies as the angular scattering increases and apparently the 555 increasing ionisation efficiency cannot compensate for that. However, it can be seen 556 557 from Fig. 12a that the CVD2 diamond surface has a performance similar to the IBEX 558 surface. Both surfaces possess a clearly higher FoM than the PLD diamond surface. The CVD2 surface showed a considerably lower ionisation effiency than the IBEX 559 560 surface (Sec. 3.2), but this consideration of a FoM demonstrates that narrower scattering distributions of the CVD2 sample can balance the smaller ionisation 561 562 efficiencies and therefore maximise transmission through the instrument.



Figure 12

- a) Figure of merit (FoM) for O⁺ incident in 8 deg on the CVD2 diamond surface and values from [23] and [22] for comparison.
- b) FoM for measurements of O⁺ on the CVD2 diamond surface in various angles of incidence. Lines are added to guide the eye.

564 For larger angles of incidence we observed an increase of the ionisation efficiency for the CVD2 sample (Fig. 8). However, the FoM decreases for larger angles of 565 566 incidence due to the significant increase of scattering (Fig. 10). This relation is shown 567 in Fig. 12b, where the FoM is displayed for different angles of incidence. Lines in this 568 figure are added to guide the eye only. The FoM is even larger at 6 deg grazing 569 incidence than for 8 deg due to the very narrow scattering distributions. This analysis 570 suggests that for minimisation of particle loss in a neutral atom imaging instrument, 571 the instrument should be designed for small angles of incidence preferably. Similar 572 conclusions are reported in [25]. After all, the possibilities for such optimisations 573 depend on the requirements of instrument dimensions and weight.

574 **5 Conclusion**

575 We measured the key characteristics of two CVD diamond samples from Diamond 576 Materials GmbH [17] for serving as a charge state CS in a neutral atom imaging 577 instrument for a space mission. Both samples are delivered from stock and no 578 additional procedures like sample coating, polishing or other treatment is needed. 579 This is of advantage as it implicates availability and reproducibility of the diamond 580 surfaces. Key parameters of a CS, that are ionisation efficiency and angular 581 scattering, were measured in the ILENA facility for the species H and O.

582 It was found that the first sample, a pure CVD diamond of 300 µm thickness (CVD1), 583 becomes electrostatically charged during the surface ionisation experiments, thus it 584 has a too low electrical conductivity for the desired application. The second sample, a 585 thinner CVD diamond surface of 20 µm thickness and Ti/Au coating on backside 586 (CVD2), did not show any signs of electrostatic charging. For this CVD diamond 587 surface, ionisation efficiency for H- and O-atoms and the scattering distributions were 588 analysed, both for energies of the incident particles in a range from 100 eV to 1 keV 589 and for various angles of incidence.

590 Compared to published research, i.e., the CS used in the IBEX-Lo sensor [22] and a 591 PLD diamond surface [23], the CVD2 surface revealed lower ionisation yields. 592 Furthermore, these ionisation yields appeared to be less energy dependent. The 593 former is not of great concern as all measured ionisation yields are >1 %, a common 594 requirement for a CS in space application [4]. The latter can be of advantage in terms 595 of simplification of instrument calibration.

596 We observed favourable angular scattering characteristics for the CVD2 surface. The 597 scattering distributions in polar direction were found to be in comparable range or 598 better than the reference surfaces. In azimuthal direction, without exception, the 599 CVD2 surface showed narrower scattering distributions than the reference surfaces, 600 resulting in scattering closer to circular shape. The design of a neutral particle instrument is, among others, directed by the particle scattering in polar direction. A 601 spread in azimuthal direction therefore implies particle loss, which would be avoided 602 603 by the attribute of more circular scattering distributions of the CVD2 surface. A 604 narrow and symmetrical particle beam is convenient for ion beam focussing and

605 guiding optics subsequent to the surface ionisation process and beneficial for 606 matching the CS emittance to the ion-optical acceptance, all very important factors 607 especially when aiming for ENA mapping with high sensitivity.

608 A figure of merit (FoM) was defined to analyse how the good angular scattering 609 characteristics of the CVD2 surface can compensate for the weaker ionisation 610 efficiency. Based on the FoM, at an angle of incidence of 8 deg, the CVD2 surface is 611 equivalent to the surface used in the IBEX-Lo sensor. We found, in agreement with 612 published research, that the ionisation efficiency of the CVD2 sample can be 613 enhanced by increasing the angle of incidence. Nevertheless, the FoM is decreasing 614 for larger angles of incidence due to considerable broadening of the scattering 615 distribution. On the contrary, the FoM increases for even smaller angles of incidence.

The results of this study suggest that neutral atom imaging instruments, if possible, should be designed for grazing angles of incidence on the CS to use the full potential of narrow scattering distributions. The CVD2 surface, a standalone CVD diamond surface from stock, exhibits high potential for a CS in a neutral particle instrument on future space missions, e.g. the IMAP mission [16].

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625 626 **References**

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728 Highlights

729 730	•	We investigate two CVD diamond surfaces for their applicability as charge state conversion surfaces.
731	•	We measure angular scattering and ionisation efficiency for hydrogen and oxygen.
732	•	Results are compared, amongst others, to the data of the IBEX conversion surface.
733 734	•	The CVD diamond surface has great potential as conversion surface material for future space missions.
735		