

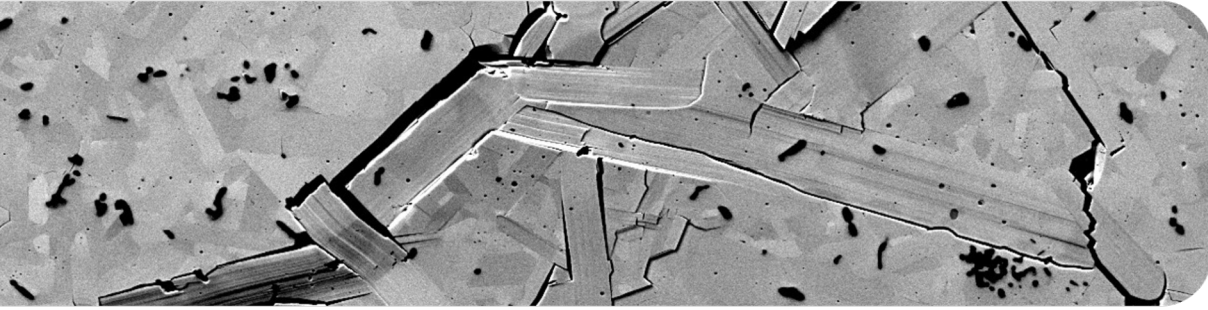


Radiation-induced damage in materials

www.antoine-guitton.fr

Prof. Antoine GUITTON

Université de Lorraine, CNRS, Arts et Métiers Institute of Technology, LEM3, F-57000 Metz,
antoine.guitton@univ-Lorraine.fr



Introduction

Objectives and industrial context

❖ Why study radiation-induced degradation?

- In nuclear reactors, materials are constantly exposed to neutrons, γ -rays, ions, and electrons.
- This exposure causes atomic-scale damage that evolves and accumulates.
- Over time, this leads to macroscopic degradation:
 - ✓ swelling, embrittlement, amorphization, reduced ductility, cracking.

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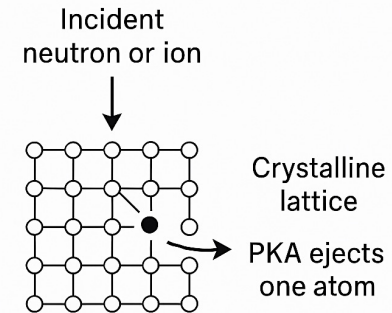
➡ These effects are critical in reactor safety and lifetime management.



Why radiation causes material degradation?

❖ Atomic collisions create defects

- A high-energy particle displaces atoms from their lattice sites
⇒ Formation of vacancies and interstitials.



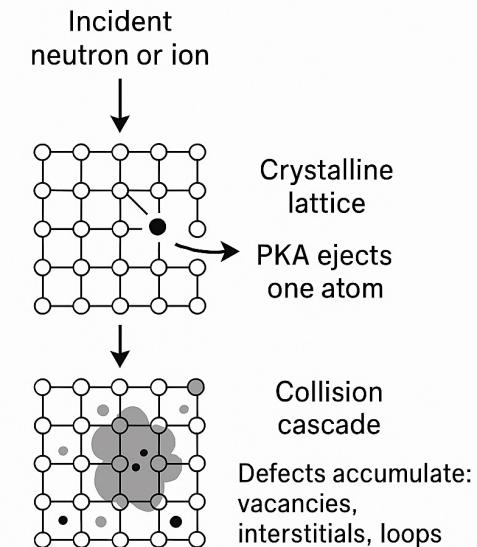
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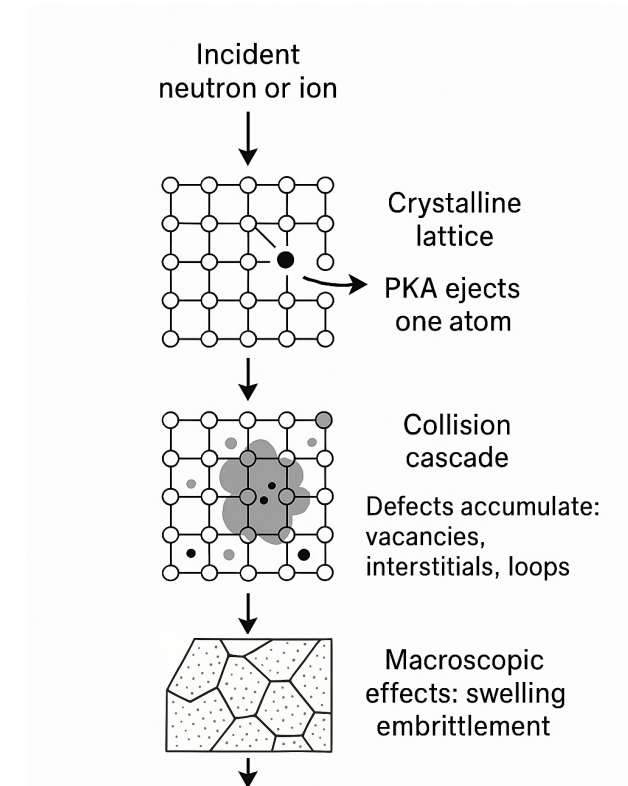
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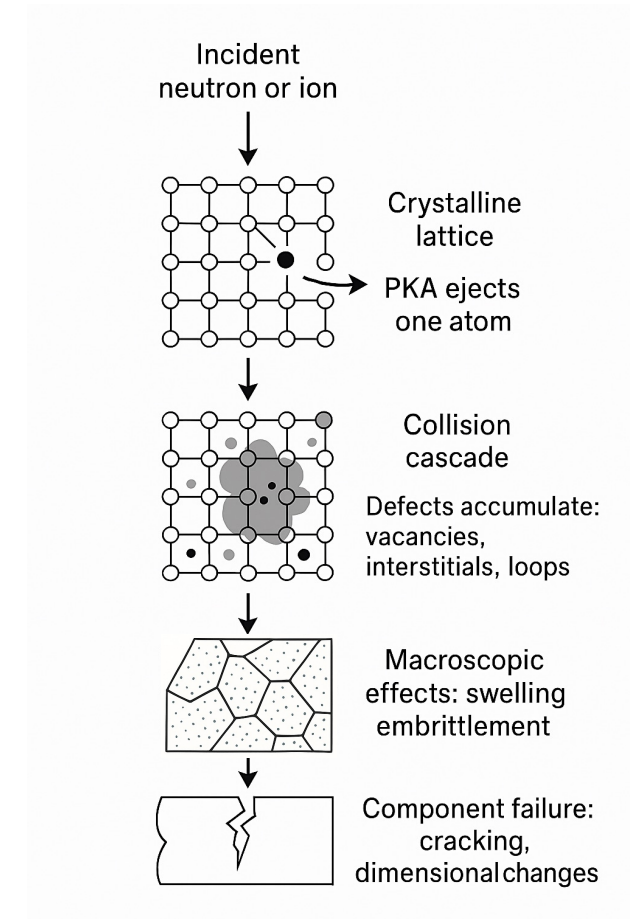
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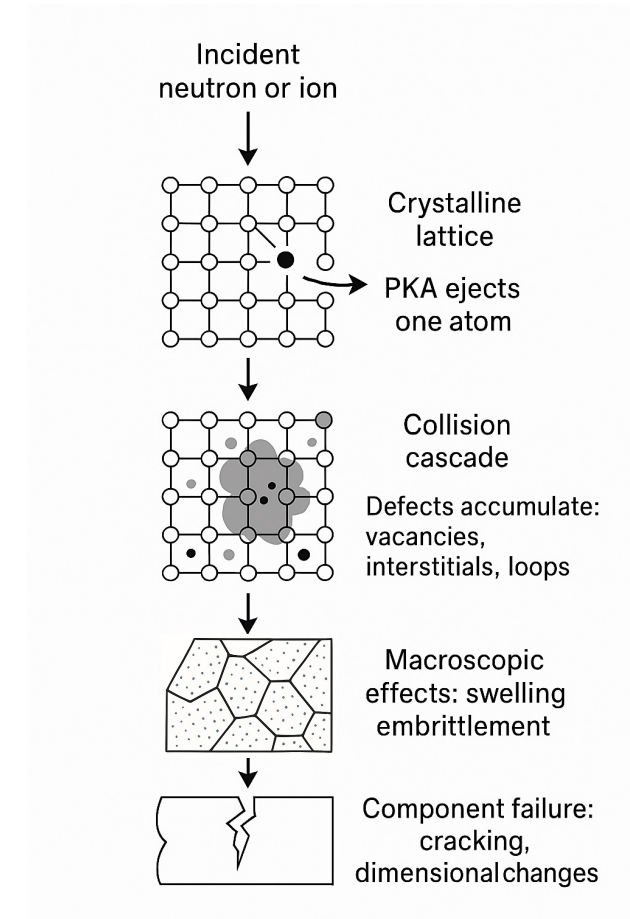
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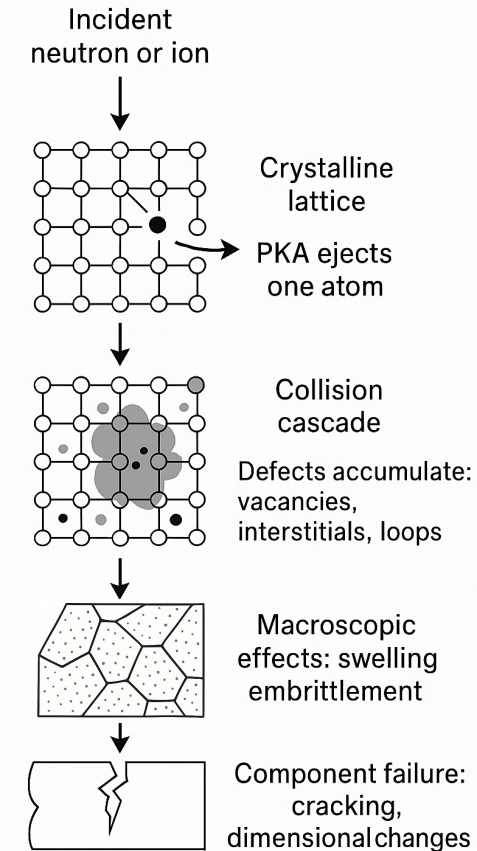
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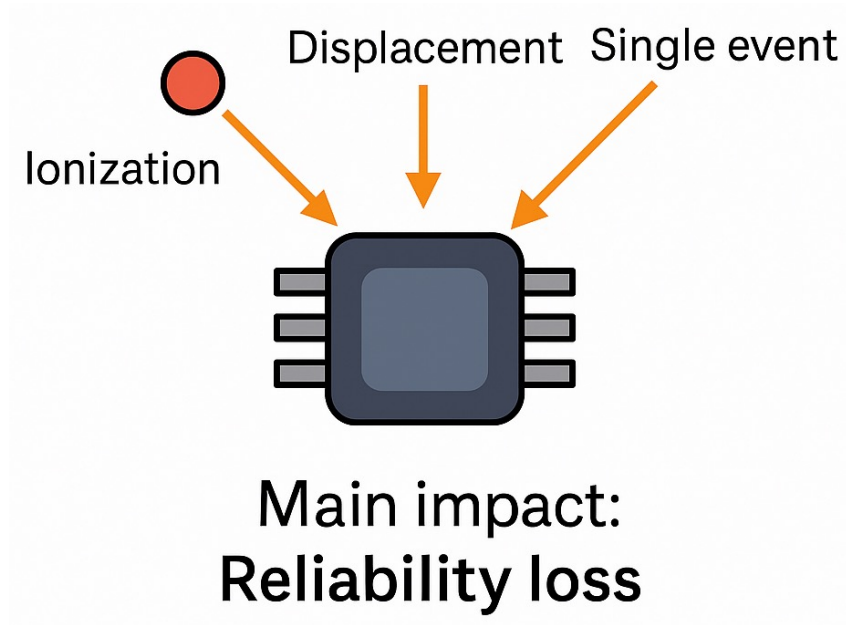
❖ Multi-scale problem

- Damage evolves from atomic to structural level.

⇒ Engineering solutions require linking scales:
atomic → component.



Radiation effects on electronic components



❖ Ionization

- Trapped charges in oxides
⇒ Leakage currents.

❖ Displacement damage

- Defects in the silicon lattice
⇒ Reduced carrier mobility, degraded performance.

❖ Single Event Effects (SEE)

- Bit flips in memories, temporary malfunctions, or destructive latch-up.

❖ Main impact

- Reduced reliability

➡ Need for radiation-hardened designs in critical applications (aerospace, nuclear).

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❖ Embrittlement

- Loss of ductility caused by defect accumulation or segregation under irradiation. Makes materials more prone to fracture or cracking.

Overview of irradiating particles

Particle	Charge	Mass	Interaction mechanism	Typical effects in solids	Use in nuclear context
Neutron	0	$\sim 1 u$	Elastic/inelastic nuclear collisions	Displacement cascades, transmutation	Primary cause of structural damage
Ion	± 1 to $\pm Z$	$> 1 u$	Coulomb interaction (nuclei + electrons)	Dense cascades, high local damage	Material testing, ion implantation
Electron	-1	$\sim \frac{1}{1836} u$	Electromagnetic with electrons	Ionization, weak displacement ($> 1 MeV$)	Radiation from decay or accelerators
Photon	0	0	Photoelectric, Compton, pair production	Ionization, excitation (especially in polymers)	γ irradiation, insulation aging

❖ Neutrons:

- penetrate deeply, efficient at generating bulk displacement damage.

❖ Ions:

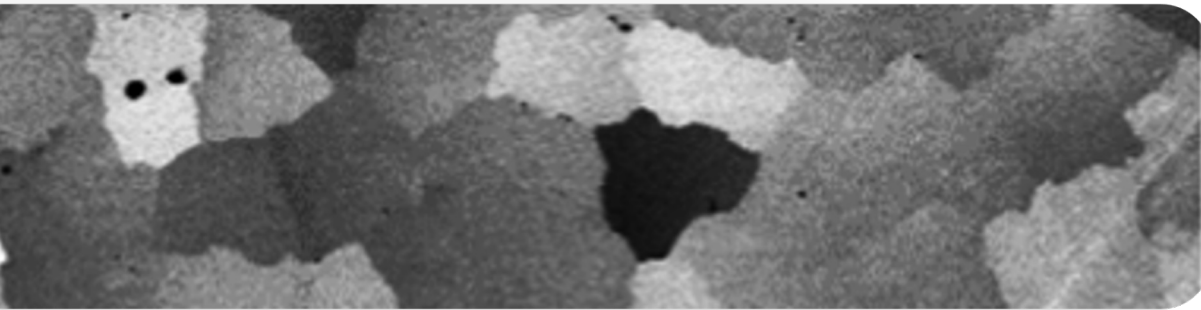
- deposit energy locally $\Rightarrow$ useful for simulating neutron damage.

❖ Electrons:

- mostly cause ionization, rarely displacements unless highly energetic.

❖ Photons:

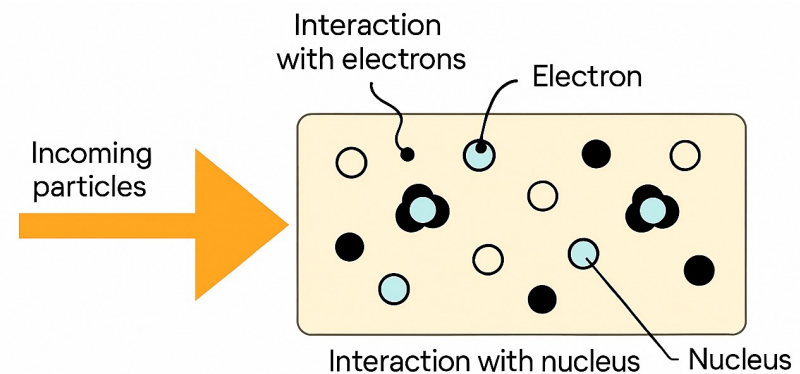
- induce electronic excitations, chemical changes in sensitive materials.



General interactions between particles and matter

How is energy deposited in solids?

An incoming energetic particle enters the material and begins to lose energy.

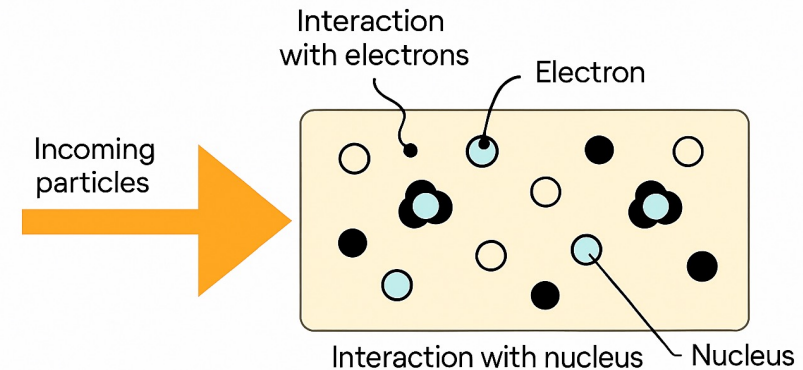


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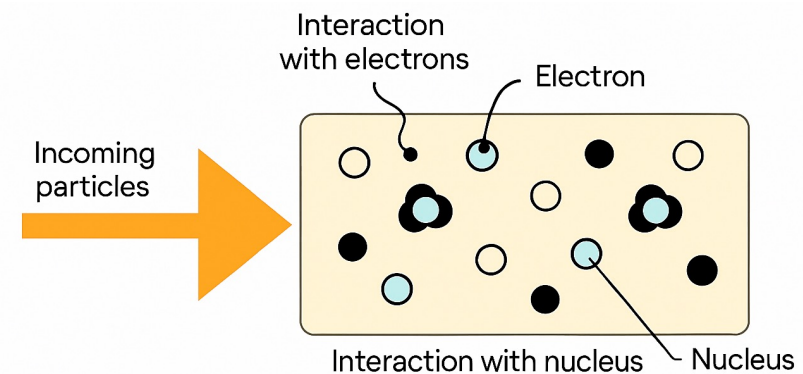
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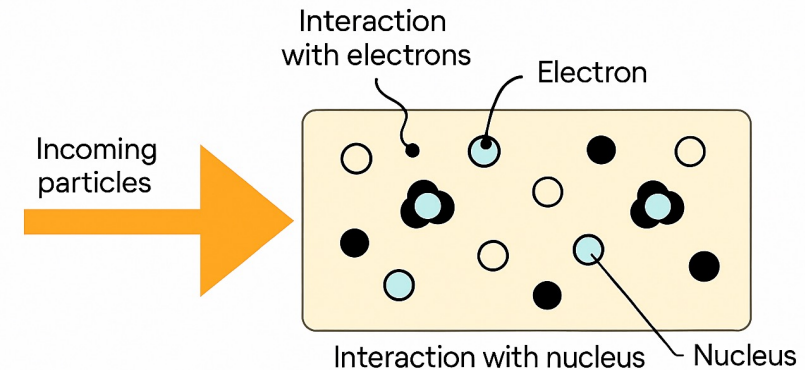
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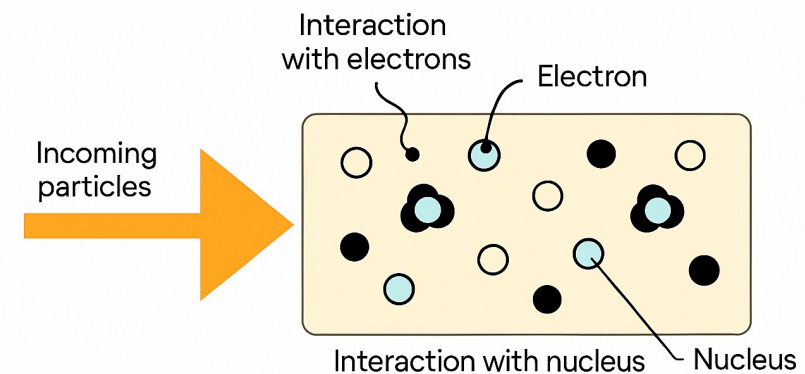
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 - Can knock atoms out of place $\Rightarrow$ defects, PKAs, cascades
 - Only nuclear interactions lead to permanent lattice damage $\Rightarrow$ requires energy transferred $>$ displacement threshold (E_d)



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- ❖ The partition of energy between S_e and S_n depends on:
 - The mass and energy of the particle
 - The atomic structure of the target material

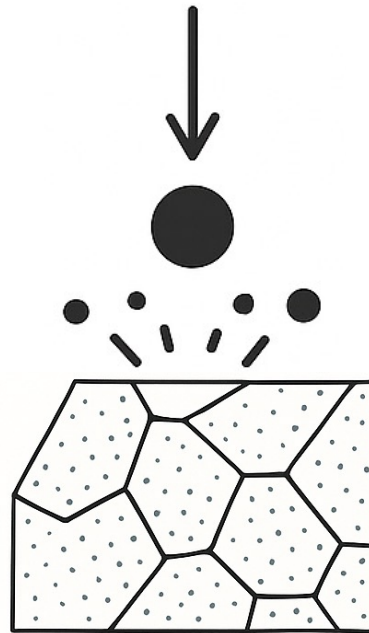


The main mechanisms of particle-matter interaction

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❖ Elastic collision

- Atom ejection
- Reflection
- Desorption
- Backscattered ions

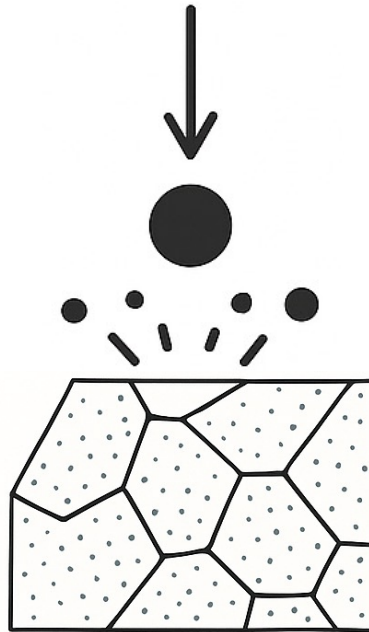


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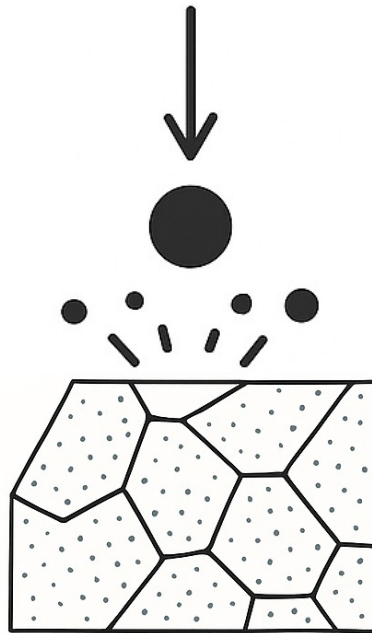
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❖ In the target

- Electronic excitation
- Ionization
- Atomic displacements
- Implanted ions

The four main mechanisms of structural modifications

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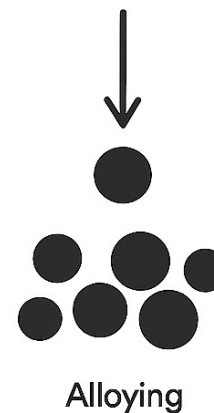
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- Incorporation of foreign atoms into a material, leading to a mixed atomic environment and modified properties.



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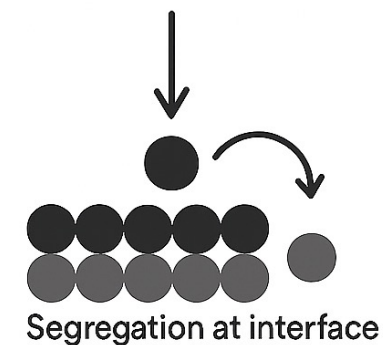
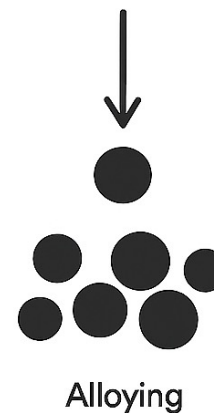
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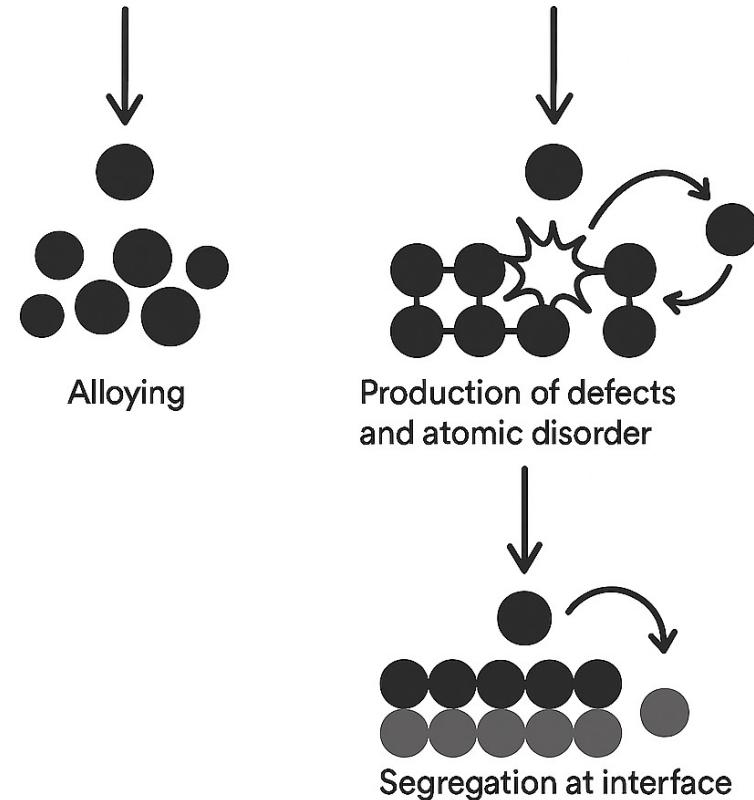
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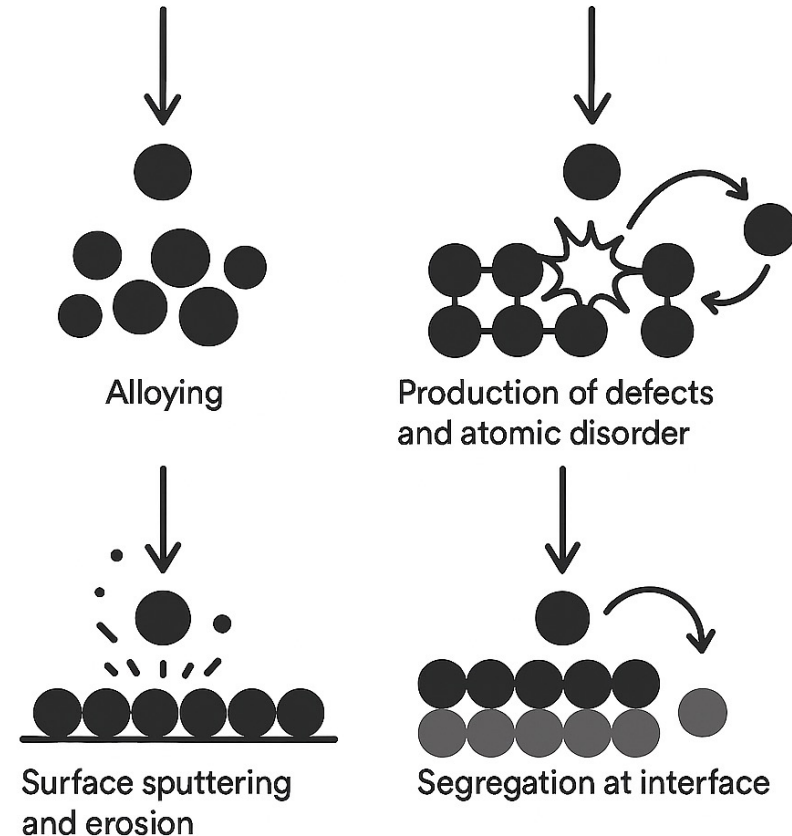
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❖ Surface sputtering and erosion: ($\sim 1 \rightarrow 100$ keV)

- Ejection of atoms from a surface when bombarded by high-energy particles, leading to material loss and surface modification.



Elastic collisions: assumptions and framework

❖ Main objective

- Establish the relationships needed to calculate energy losses.

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- Electronic collisions (inelastic):
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❖ Assumptions for elastic collision calculations

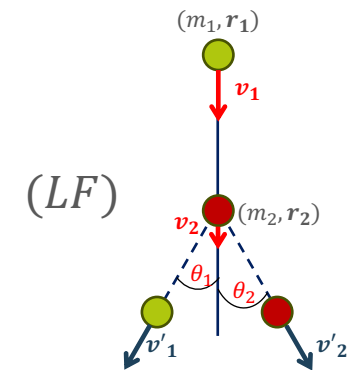
- Binary collisions only (2 atoms involved)
- Classical mechanics is valid
- Electron excitation does not affect elastic collision
- Target atom is initially at rest
- Target atoms are randomly distributed
- Elastic collision: No change in internal states of the particles.



Elastic collisions: assumptions and framework

Be careful! Fasten your seatbelt. And breathe.

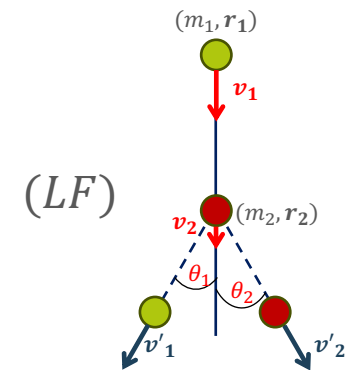
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- ❖ Interaction potential U depends only on the distance between M_1 and M_2 : $\mathbf{r} = \mathbf{M}_1\mathbf{M}_2 = \mathbf{r}_1 - \mathbf{r}_2$

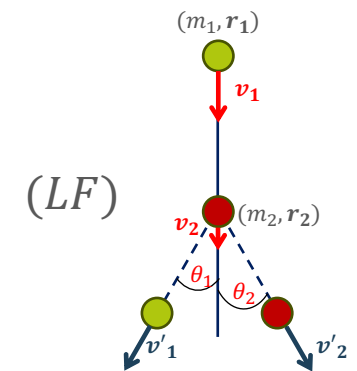


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- ❖ Interaction potential U depends only on the distance between M_1 and M_2 : $\mathbf{r} = \mathbf{M}_1\mathbf{M}_2 = \mathbf{r}_1 - \mathbf{r}_2$
- ❖ Lagrangian function in the laboratory frame (LF):

$$\mathcal{L} = E_k - E_p = \frac{1}{2}m_1\dot{\mathbf{r}}_1^2 + \frac{1}{2}m_2\dot{\mathbf{r}}_2^2 - U(r)$$



Elastic collisions: assumptions and framework

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$$(m_1 + m_2)\mathbf{OG} = m_1\mathbf{OM}_1 + m_2\mathbf{OM}_2$$

$$m_1\mathbf{GM}_1 + m_2\mathbf{GM}_2 = \mathbf{0}$$

- We set:

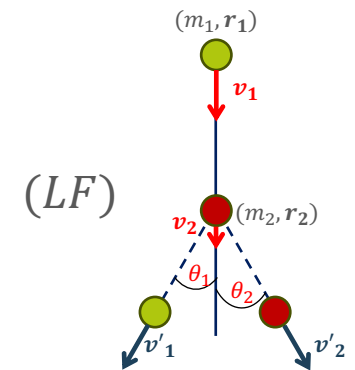
$$\mathbf{GM}_1 = \mathbf{r}_{G1} = \frac{m_2}{m_1 + m_2}\mathbf{r}; \mathbf{GM}_2 = \mathbf{r}_{G2} = \frac{m_1}{m_1 + m_2}\mathbf{r}$$

$$\Rightarrow \mathcal{L} = \frac{1}{2}m_1\dot{\mathbf{r}}_{G1}^2 + \frac{1}{2}m_2\dot{\mathbf{r}}_{G2}^2 - U(r)$$

$$\Rightarrow \mathcal{L} = \frac{1}{2}m\dot{\mathbf{r}}^2 + \frac{1}{2}m\dot{\mathbf{r}}^2 - U(r)$$

- Where:

$$\frac{1}{m} = \frac{1}{m_1} + \frac{1}{m_2}$$



Elastic collisions: assumptions and framework

❖ Conservation of momentum in the CMF:

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{p}_{G1} + \mathbf{p}_{G2} = \mathbf{p}'_{G1} + \mathbf{p}'_{G2} = \mathbf{0} &\Rightarrow \mathbf{p}_{G1} = -\mathbf{p}_{G2}; \mathbf{p}'_{G1} = -\mathbf{p}'_{G2} \\ &\Rightarrow p_{G1} = p'_{G1} \Rightarrow v_{G1} = v'_{G1} \\ &\Rightarrow p_{G2} = p'_{G2} \Rightarrow v_{G2} = v'_{G2} \end{aligned}$$

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- ❖ Conservation of the kinetic energy in the CMF:

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Elastic collisions: assumptions and framework

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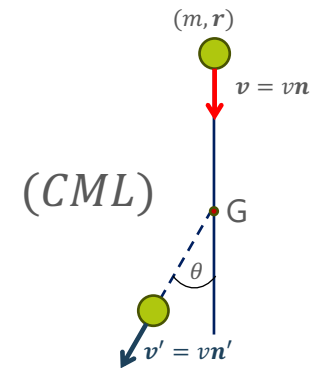
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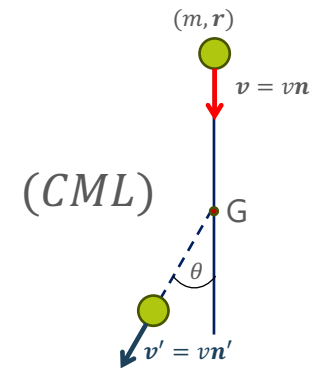
$$\begin{aligned} \frac{1}{2m_1} \mathbf{p}_{G1}^2 + \frac{1}{2m_2} \mathbf{p}_{G2}^2 &= \frac{1}{2m_1} \mathbf{p}'_{G1}{}^2 + \frac{1}{2m_2} \mathbf{p}'_{G2}{}^2 \\ &\Rightarrow \frac{\mathbf{p}_{G1}^2}{2} \left(\frac{1}{m_1} + \frac{1}{m_2} \right) = \frac{\mathbf{p}'_{G1}{}^2}{2} \left(\frac{1}{m_1} + \frac{1}{m_2} \right) \end{aligned}$$

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Elastic collisions: assumptions and framework

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Elastic collisions: assumptions and framework

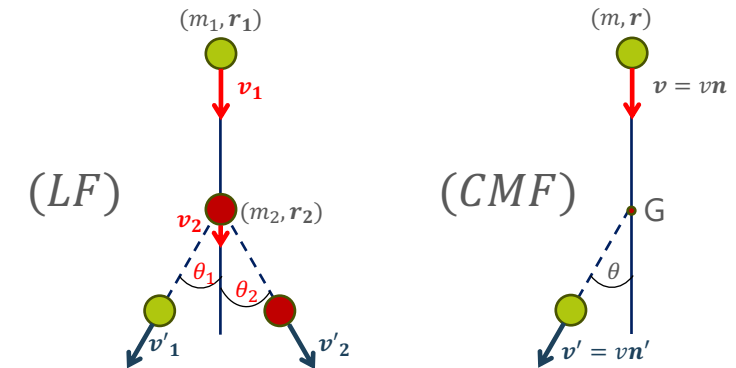
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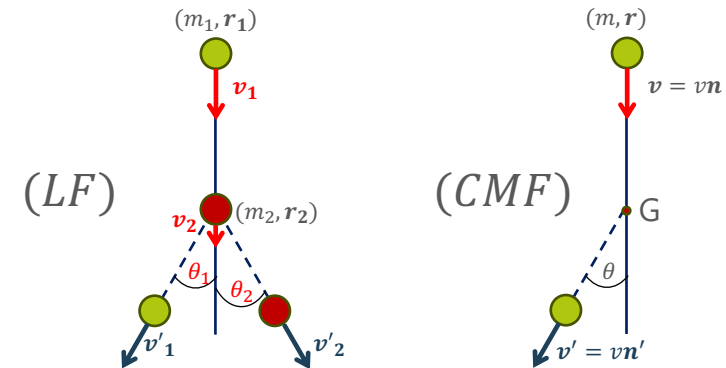
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➡ The problem of elastic collision between two particles can be reduced, in the center-of-mass frame (CMF), to the study of the scattering of a fictitious particle (characterized by m , r , and $\mathbf{v} = \dot{\mathbf{r}}$) in a potential field $U(r)$.

Trajectory equation

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 - The magnitude of a central force depends only on the distance between the particle and the center, not on the direction.

$$\mathbf{F}(\mathbf{r}) = f(r)\mathbf{e}_r$$

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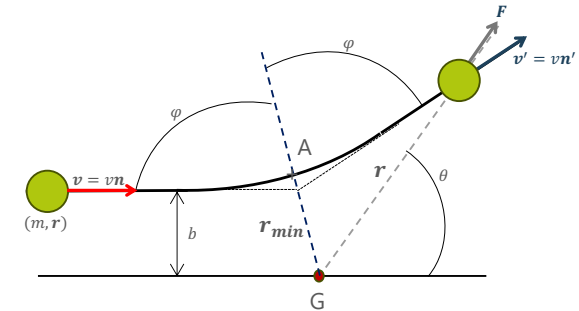
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- ❖ Angular momentum:

$$\mathbf{L} = \mathbf{r} \times \mathbf{p} = m\mathbf{r} \times \mathbf{v} = m(r\mathbf{e}_r + z\mathbf{e}_z) \times (\dot{r}\mathbf{e}_r + r\dot{\theta}\mathbf{e}_\theta + \dot{z}\mathbf{e}_z) = mr^2\dot{\theta}\mathbf{e}_z$$

$$\Rightarrow \dot{\theta} = \frac{L}{mr^2} \Rightarrow \theta = \frac{L}{mr^2}t + cste$$



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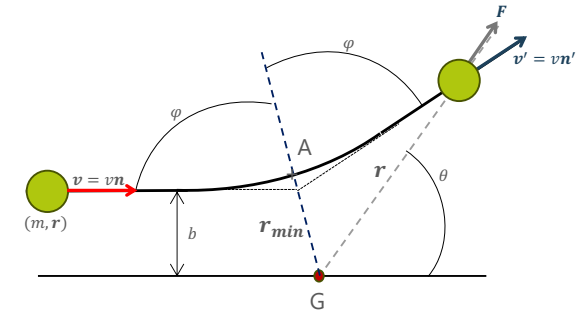
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❖ The total energy of the system E_r , for a particle of mass m in the CMF, is written as:

$$\begin{aligned}E_r &= \frac{1}{2}m\mathbf{v}^2 + U(r) = \frac{1}{2}m\dot{\mathbf{r}}^2 + \frac{L^2}{2mr^2} + U(r) \\ \Rightarrow \dot{r} &= \sqrt{\frac{2}{m}[E_r - U(r)] - \frac{L^2}{m^2r^2}} \Rightarrow t = \int \frac{dr}{\sqrt{\frac{2}{m}[E_r - U(r)] - \frac{L^2}{m^2r^2}}} + cste\end{aligned}$$



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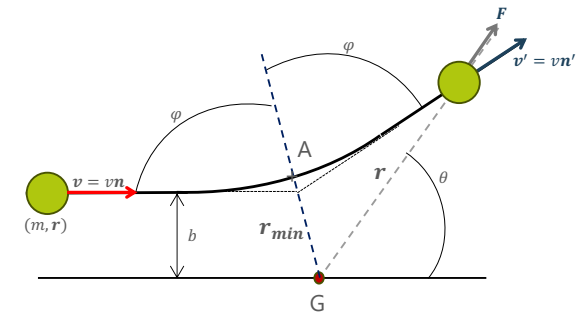
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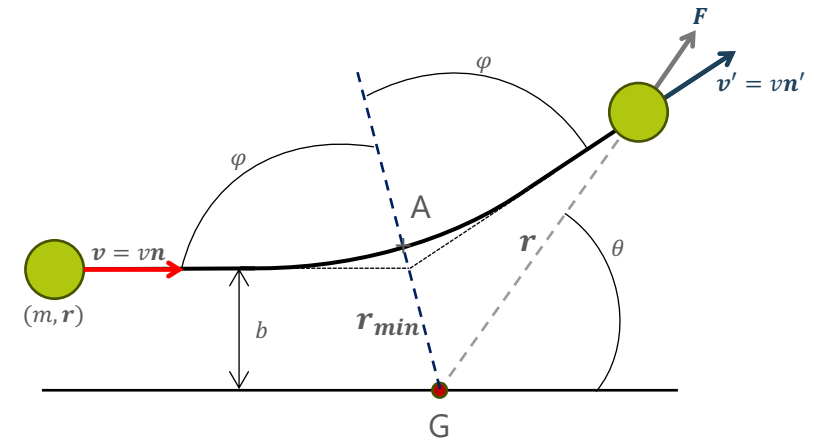
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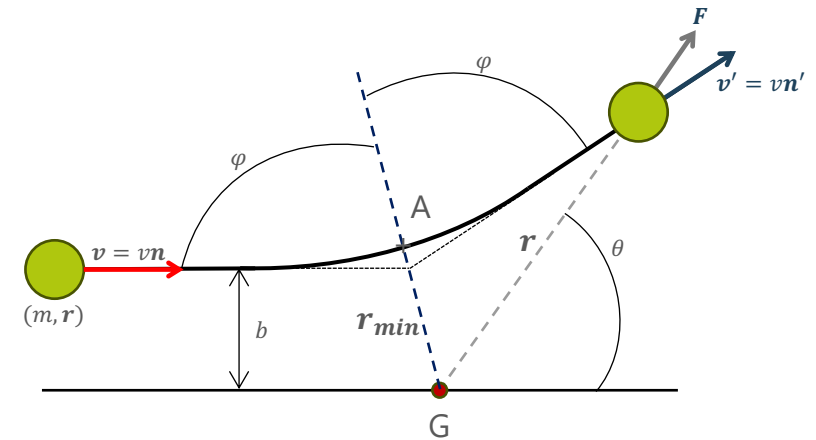
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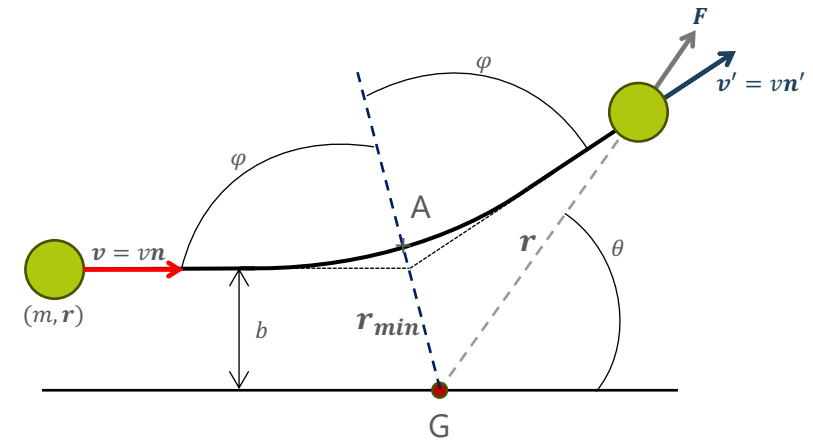


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$$\theta = \pi - 2 \int_{r_{min}}^{\infty} \frac{\frac{L}{r^2} dr}{\sqrt{\frac{2}{m} [E_r - U(r)] - \frac{L^2}{m^2 r^2}}}$$

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Trajectory equation

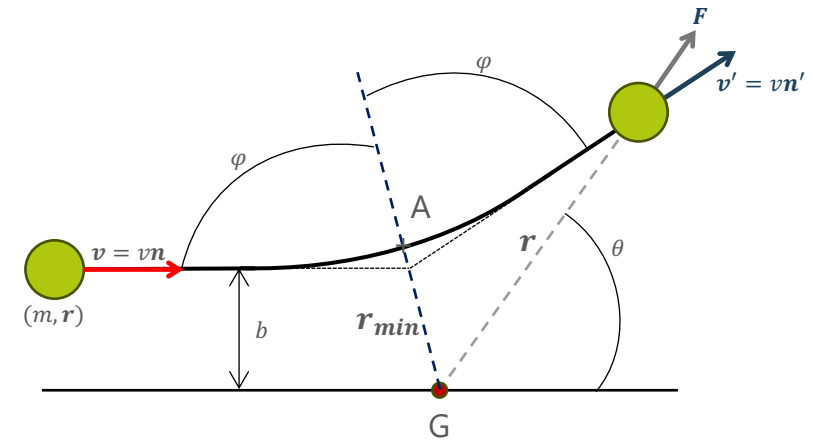
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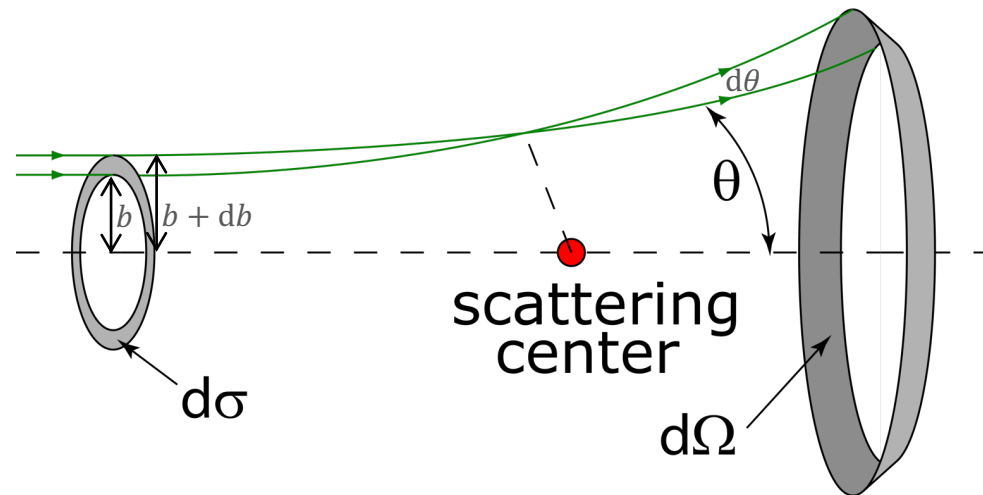
- ❖ Instead of using the quantities E_r and L , it is preferable to use the initial velocity far from the scattering center, where $U(r) = 0$, and then $L = mbv$

$$\theta = \pi - 2b \int_{r_{min}}^{\infty} \frac{\frac{1}{r^2} dr}{\sqrt{1 - \frac{b^2}{r^2} - \frac{2U(r)}{mv^2}}}$$



Cross section

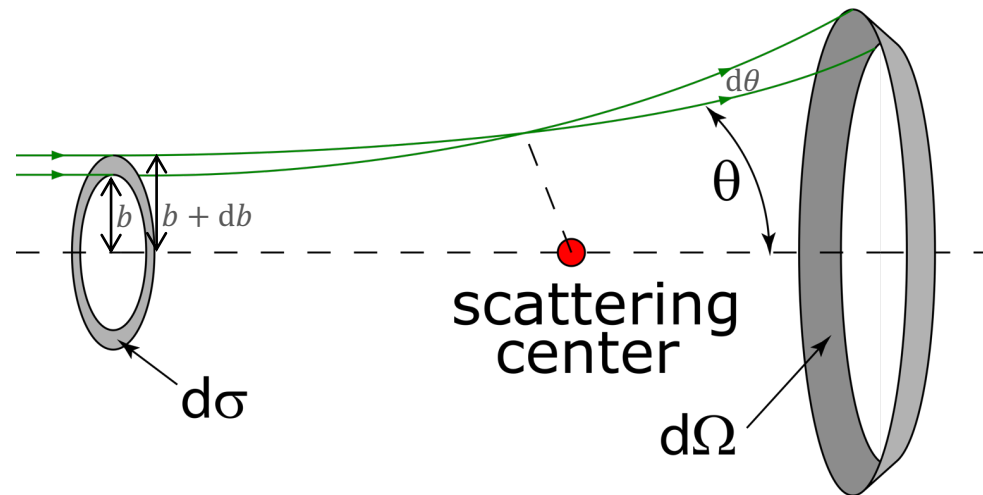
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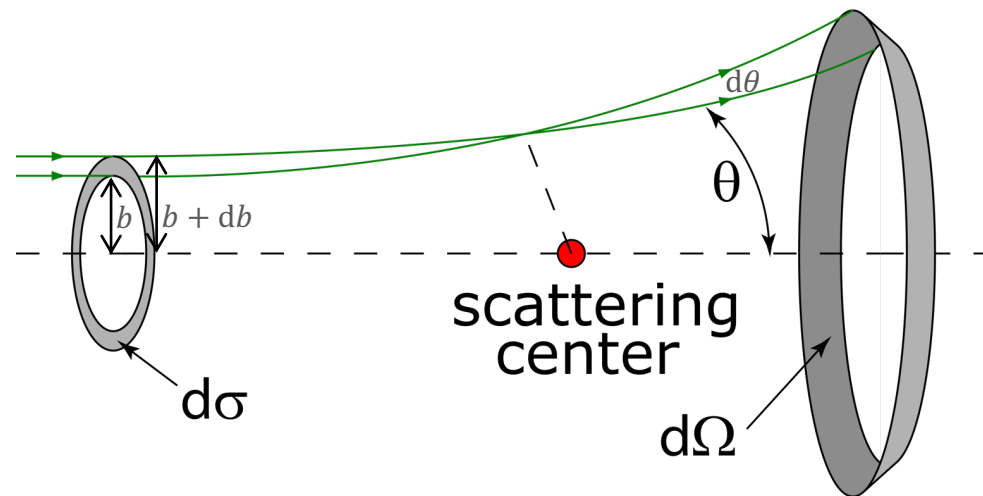
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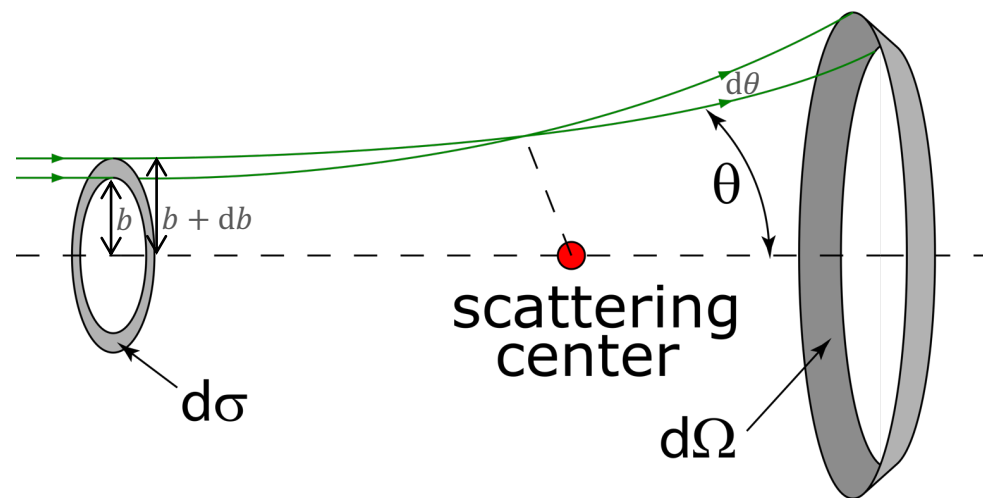
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- ❖ There is a one-to-one correspondence between θ and b since only the particles with an impact parameter between b and $b + db$ are scattered into the angular range between θ and $\theta + d\theta$.



The Rutherford cross section

❖ For the Colomb potential:

$$U(r) = \frac{q_1 q_2}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{1}{r} = \alpha \frac{1}{r}$$

$$\theta = \pi - 2b \int_{r_{min}}^{\infty} \frac{\frac{1}{r^2} dr}{\sqrt{1 - \frac{b^2}{r^2} - \frac{2U(r)}{mv^2}}}$$

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- ❖ Implantation: ion-atom approach distances are relatively large, so the Coulomb potential is screened by the electronic shells:

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↪ The Rutherford cross section provides a fundamental framework to quantify the probability of elastic scattering events between charged particles and target atoms. Understanding this cross section is essential for predicting the number and distribution of atomic displacements, which in turn control the nature and extent of irradiation-induced defects in materials.

The stopping powers and the total range

❖ The nuclear stopping power (S_n):

- If E is the energy of the ions in the plane parallel to the surface at position x , they will lose an average energy $\langle \Delta E \rangle$ due to elastic collisions after passing through a layer of thickness Δx :

$$\langle E \rangle = E_0 - \langle \Delta E \rangle$$

- The probability dP that an ion undergoes an elastic nuclear collision within a layer of thickness Δx and a density of N , corresponding to a differential cross section $d\sigma$, is:

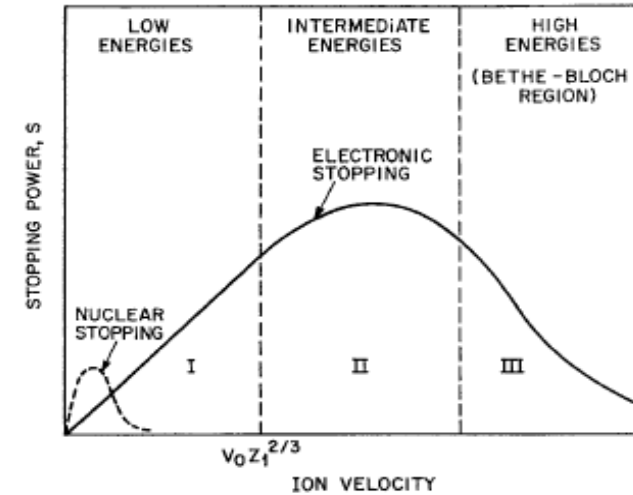
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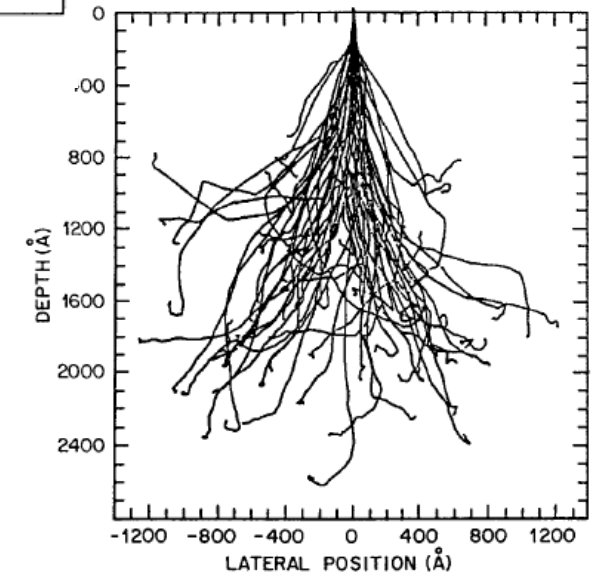
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Trajectories of $^{128}\text{B}^+$ ions at 50 keV in Si (Monte Carlo simulation)



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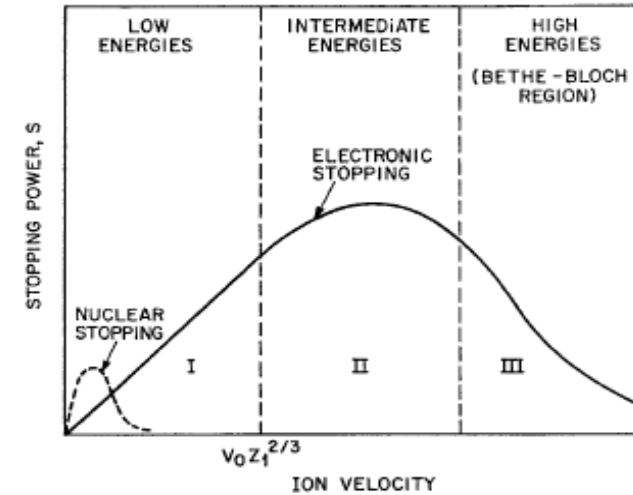
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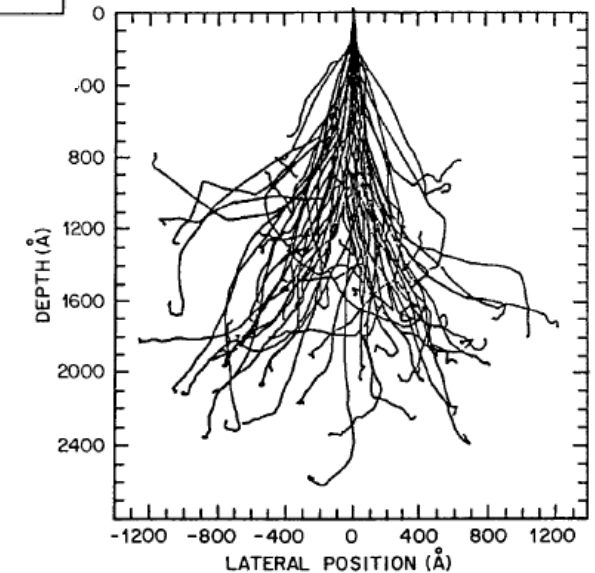
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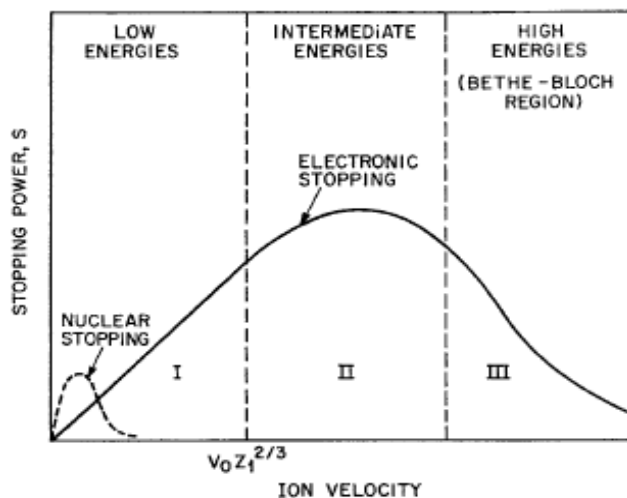
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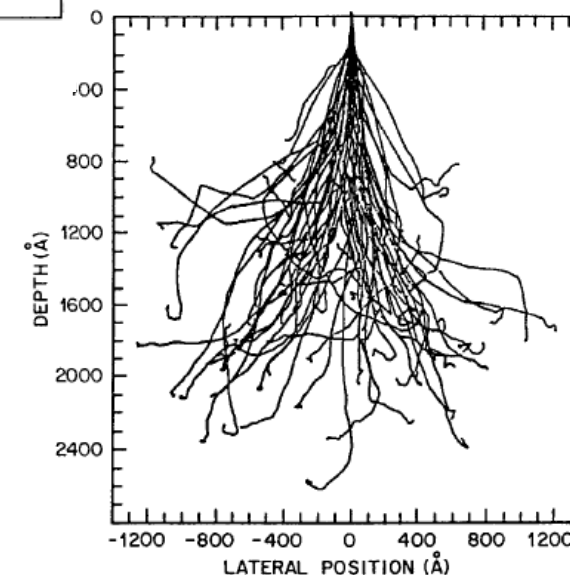
❖ Total range of the ions in the solid:

$$R_T = \int_0^E \frac{dE}{N(S_n + S_e)}$$

Since R_T is a broken (zigzag) path, it will be much greater than the projected range R_p along the direction perpendicular to the surface.



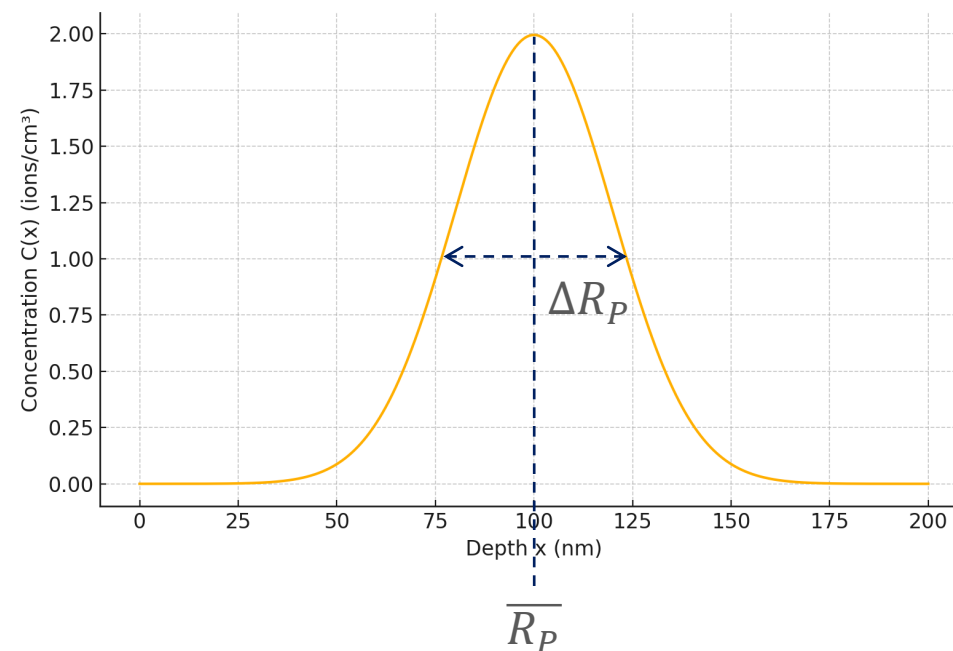
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Distribution of implanted ions

- ❖ The concentration profile $C(x)$ for a fluence ϕ (ions/cm²) of ions implanted into a target with atomic density N (atoms/cm³) is reasonably well approximated at low fluence levels ($< 10^{16}$ cm⁻²) by a Gaussian distribution:

$$C(x) = \frac{\phi}{\sqrt{2\pi N \Delta(R_p)}} \exp \left[-\frac{(x - \overline{R_p})^2}{2(\Delta R_p)^2} \right]$$



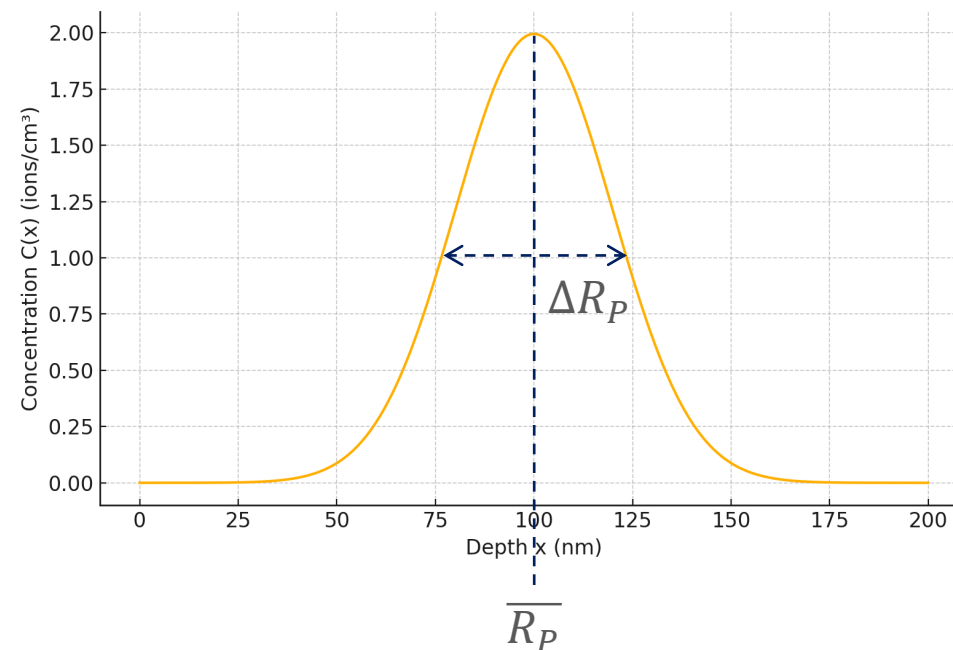
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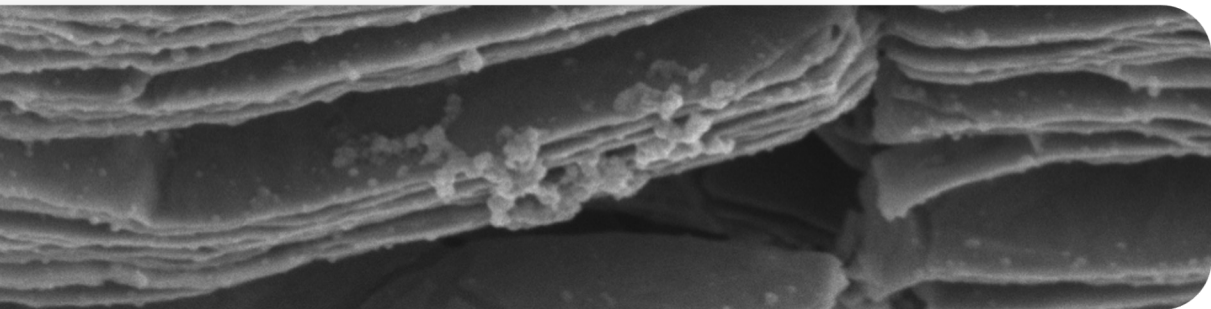
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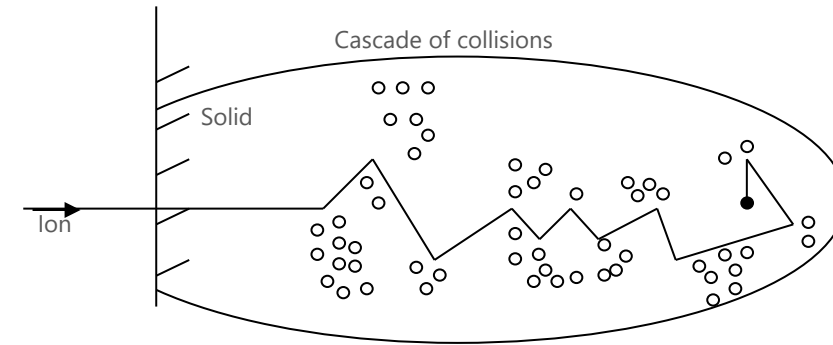




Damage induced by irradiation

Characteristics of the displacement cascade

- ❖ A displacement cascade is a sequence of atomic displacements initiated when a high-energy incident particle (such as an ion or neutron) transfers sufficient kinetic energy to a target atom in a solid, displacing it from its lattice site. This primary knock-on atom (*PKA*) can in turn collide with other atoms, creating a chain reaction of further displacements. The result is a localized region of atomic disorder, typically consisting of interstitials, vacancies, and defect clusters.

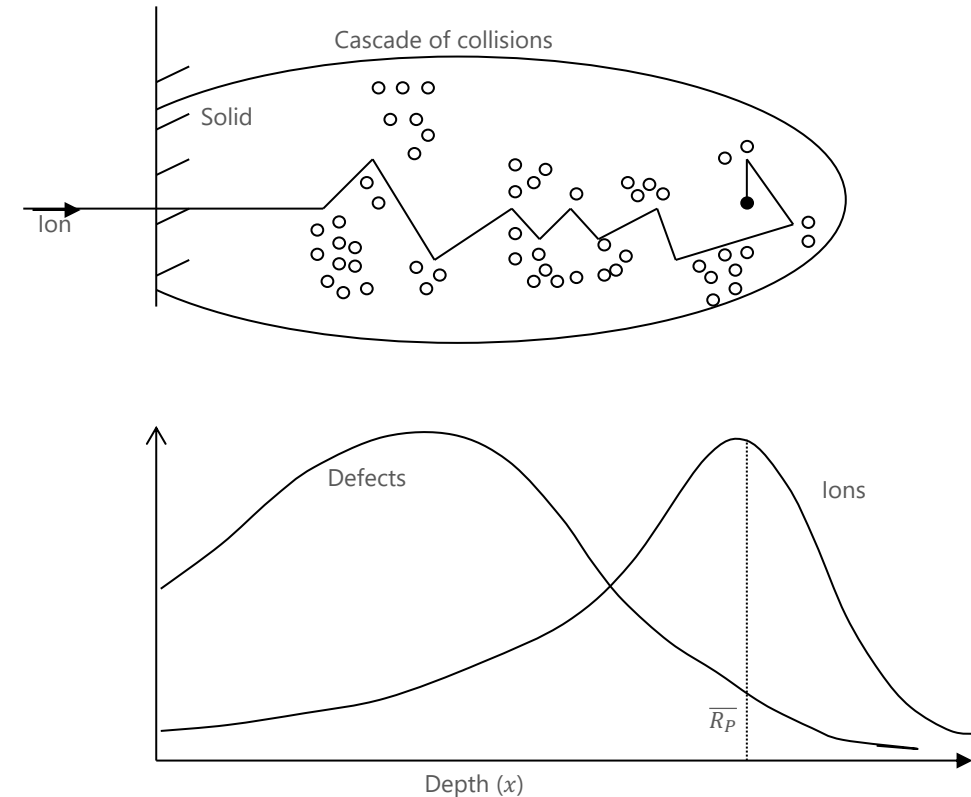


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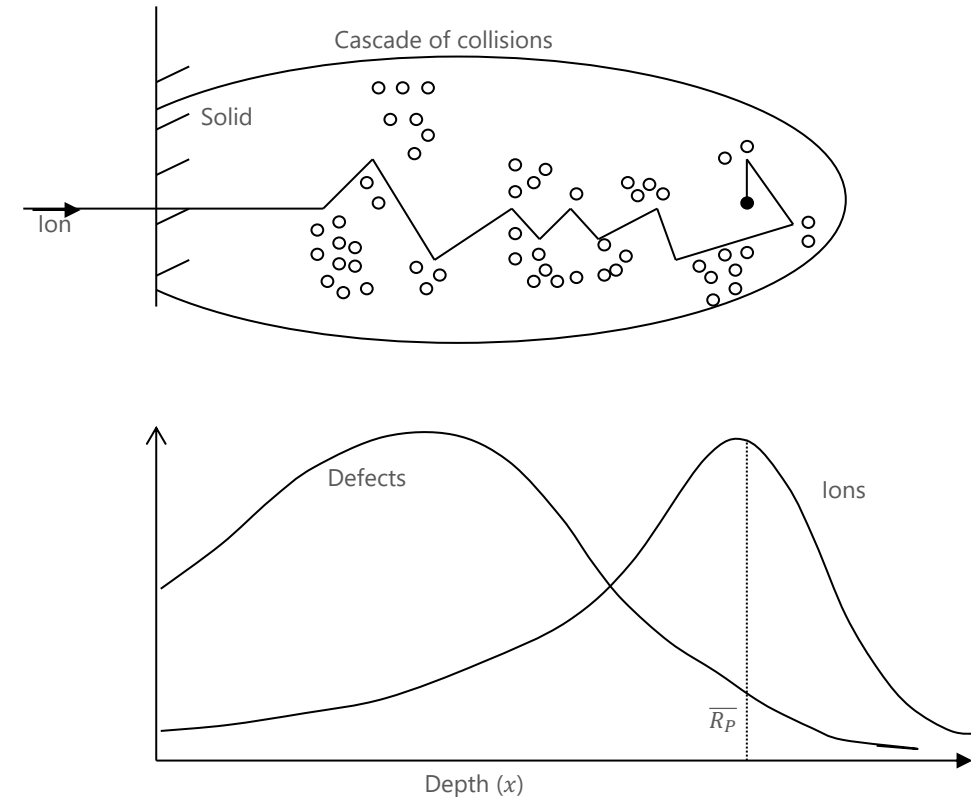
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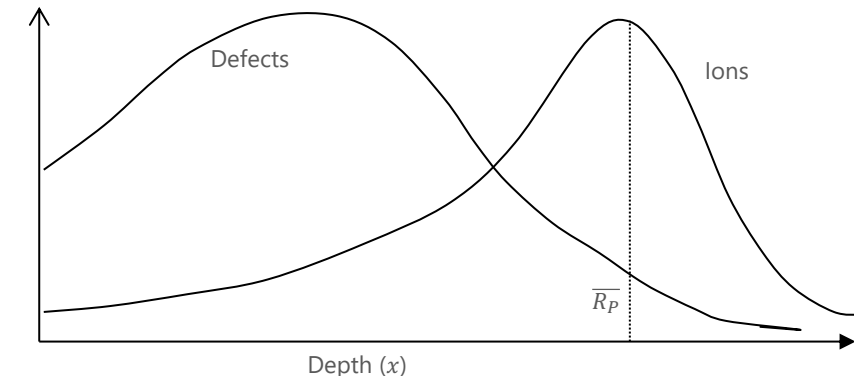
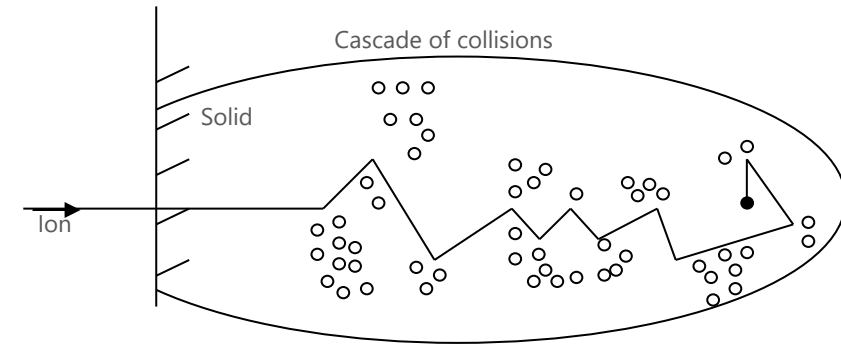
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$$V_D = \frac{4}{3} \pi \langle \Delta y_D^2 \rangle \sqrt{\langle \Delta x_D^2 \rangle}$$



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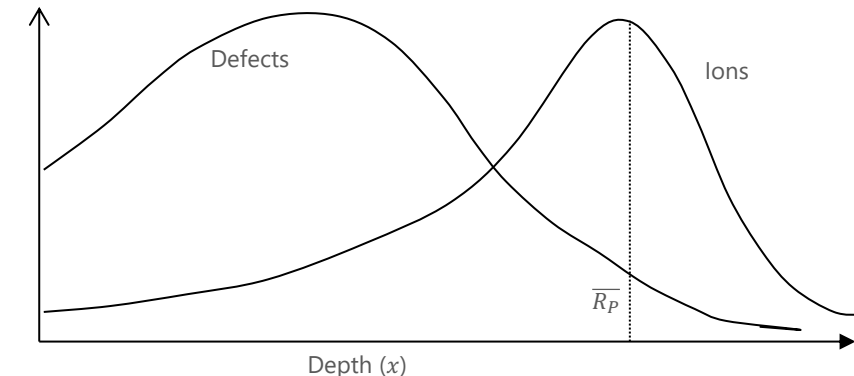
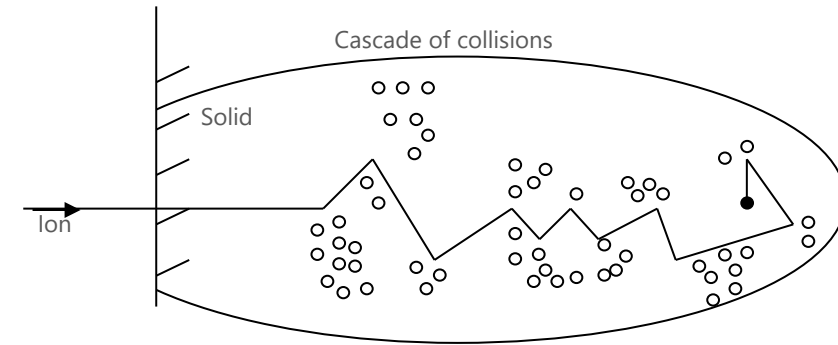
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$$dpa = \frac{0.8}{2E_d} S_n \frac{\Phi}{N}$$

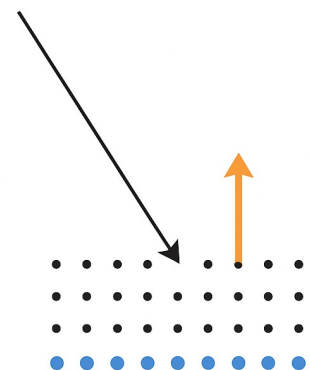
(E_d is the energy lost by each incident ion through elastic collisions)



Surface sputtering and erosion

❖ There are three sputtering mechanisms:

- Single-impact regime: surface target atoms receive enough energy from individual ion impacts to be ejected.



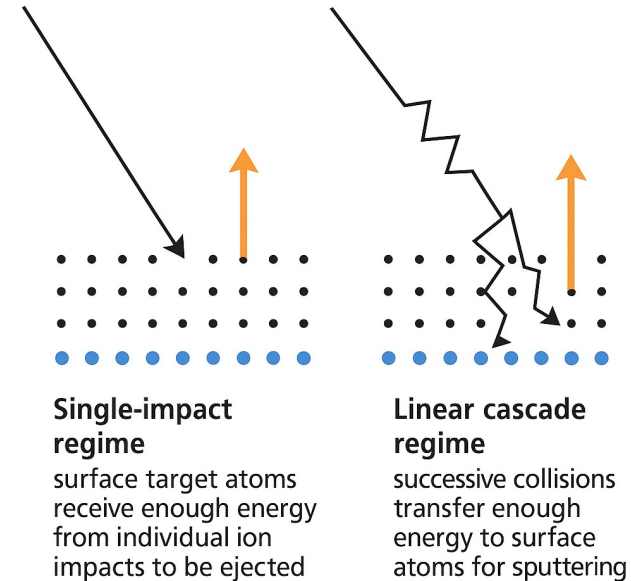
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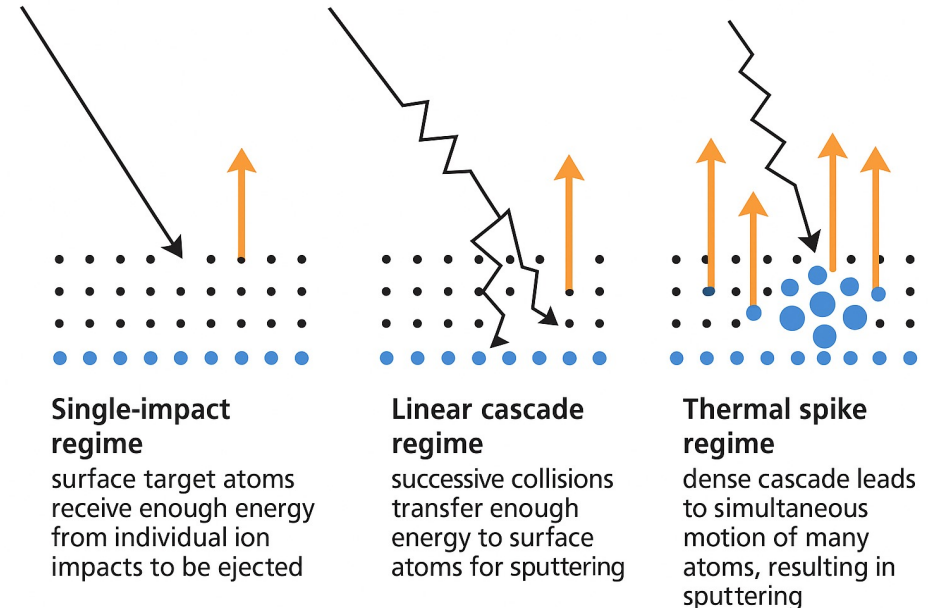
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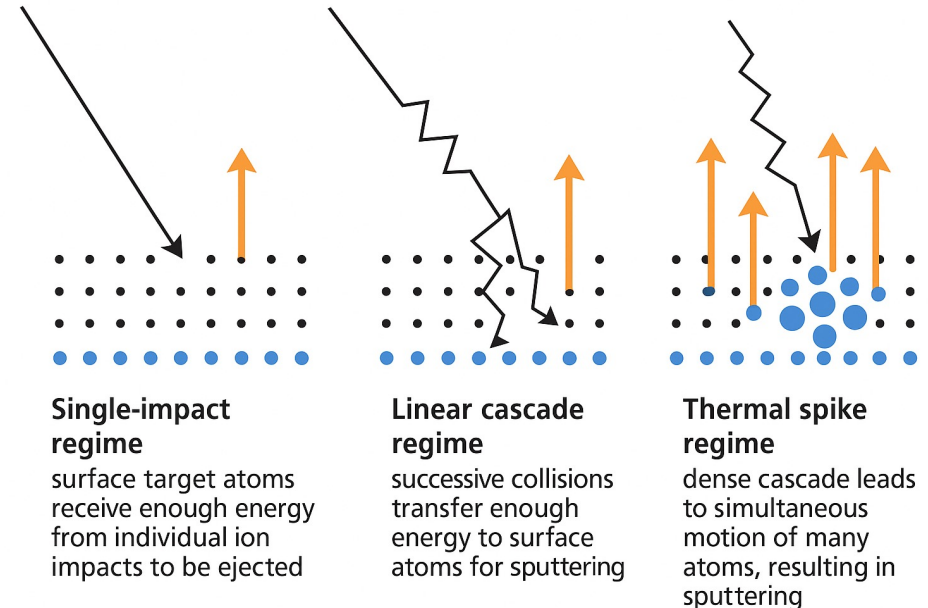
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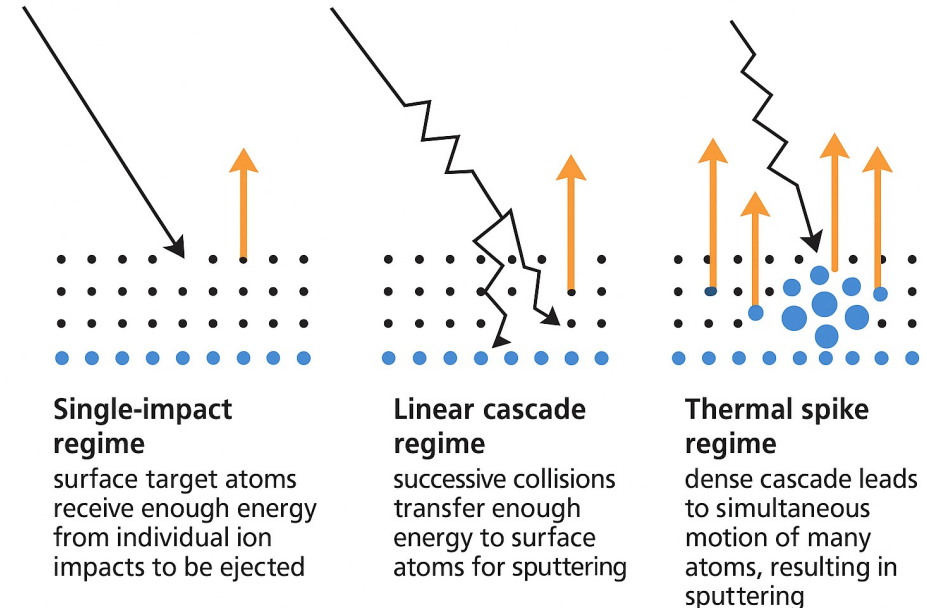
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❖ Consequences of sputtering on implantation profiles

- An initially Gaussian profile at low fluence broadens, and a plateau corresponding to a maximum concentration appears when the sputtered thickness equals R_P ; the maximum (plateau) concentration is approximately $C_m \sim \frac{1}{Y}$.

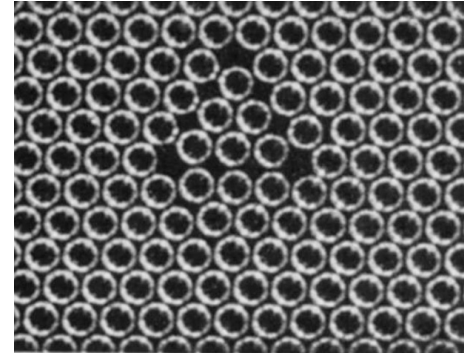


Production of point defects

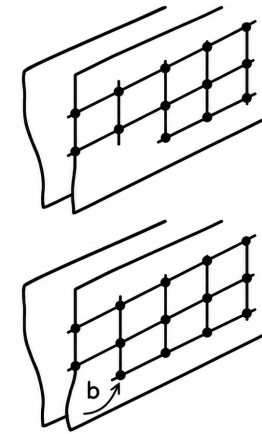
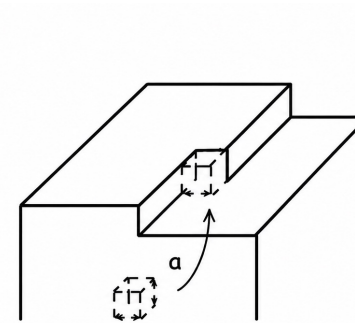
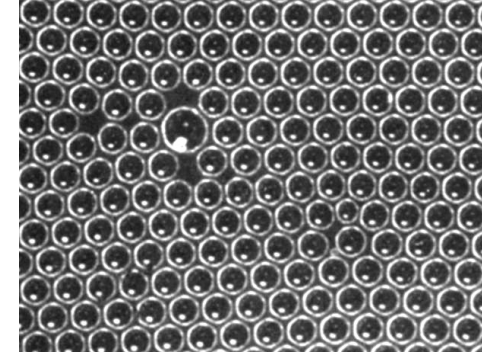
❖ Vacancy

- Missing atom from its lattice site
- Very frequent – one of the primary defects

Vacancy



Interstitial



Production of point defects

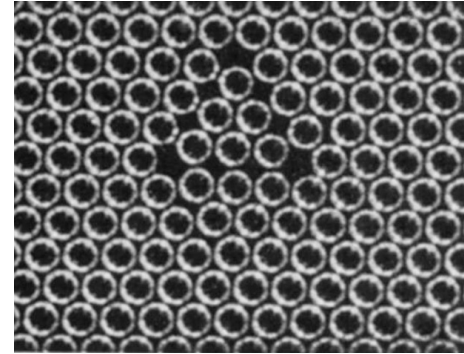
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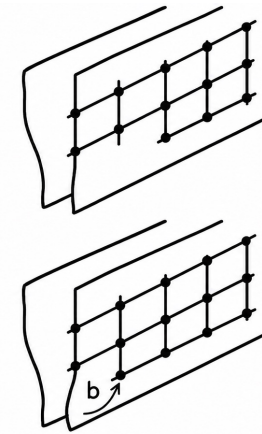
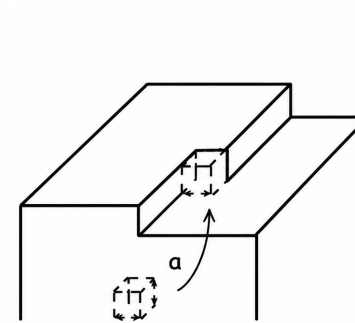
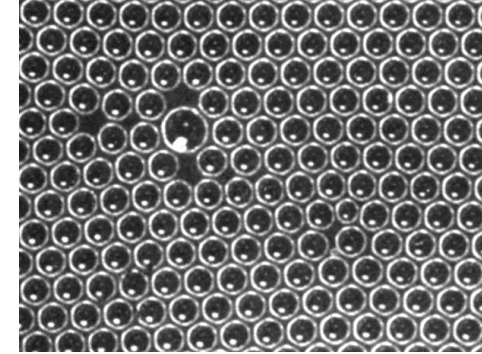
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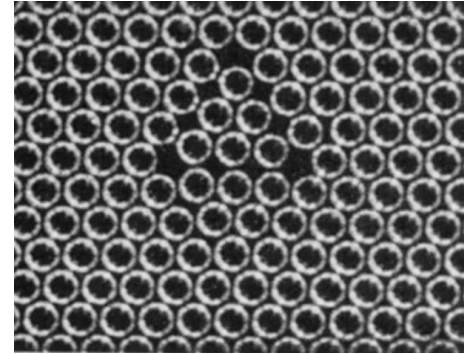
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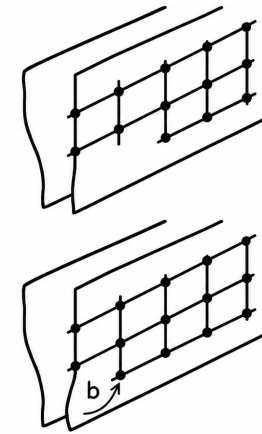
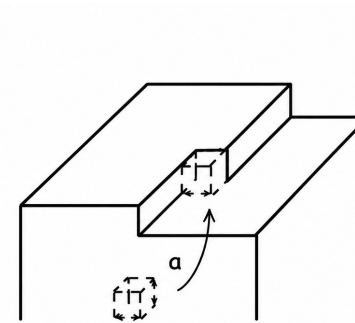
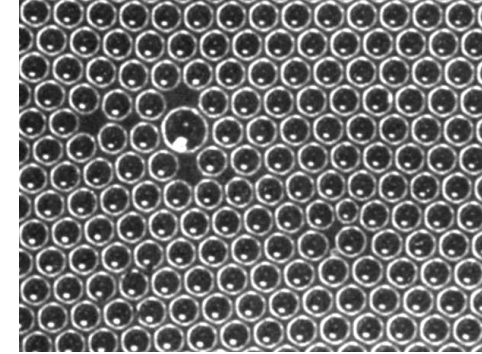
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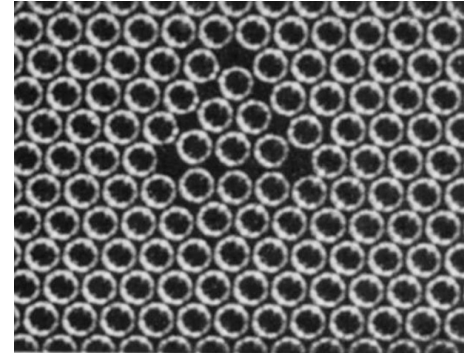
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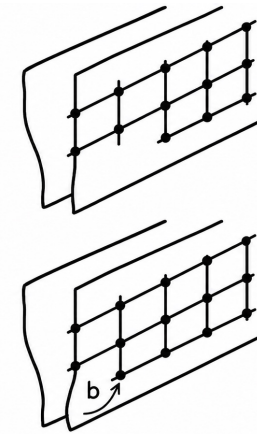
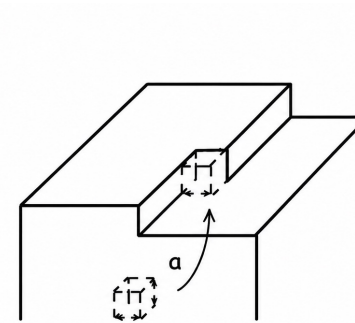
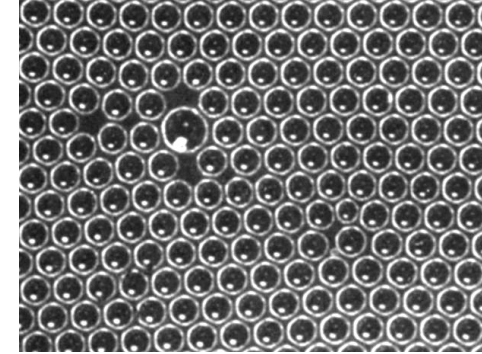
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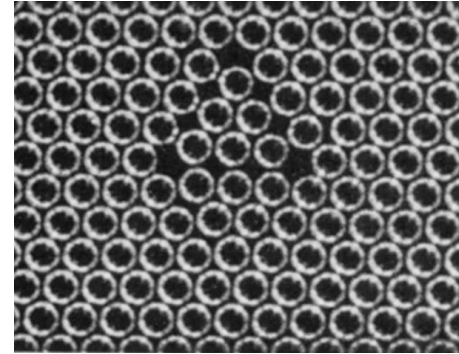
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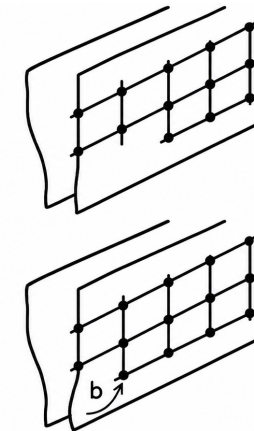
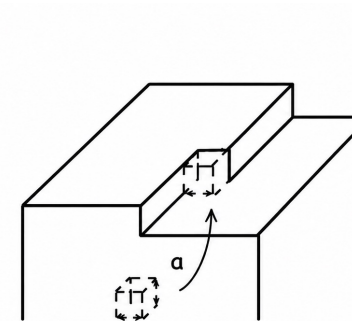
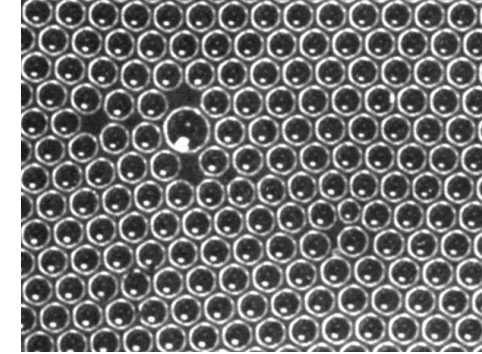
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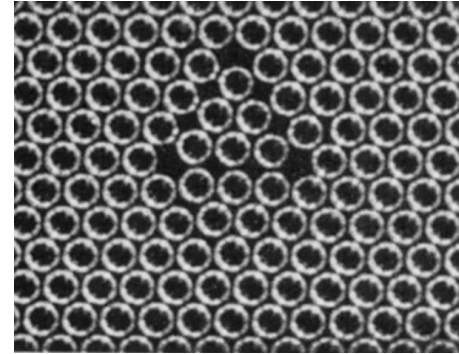
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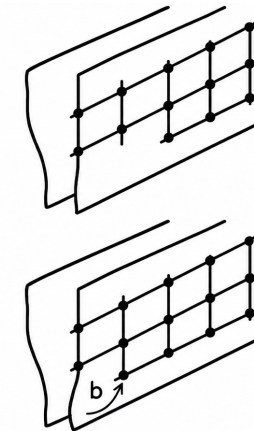
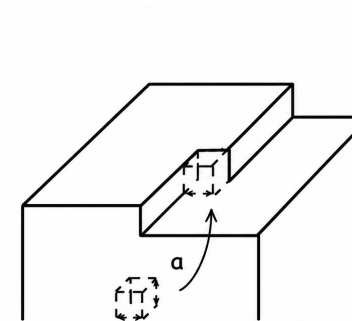
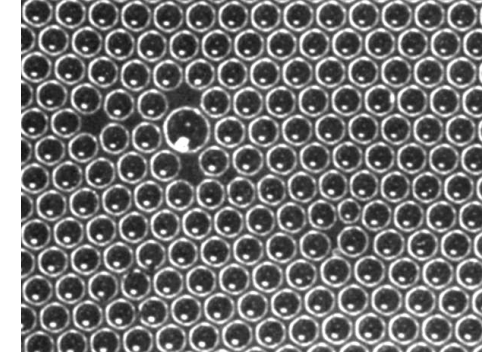
❖ Anti-site defect (in ordered compounds)

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- Rare, but relevant in compound semiconductors or ordered alloys

Vacancy



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90

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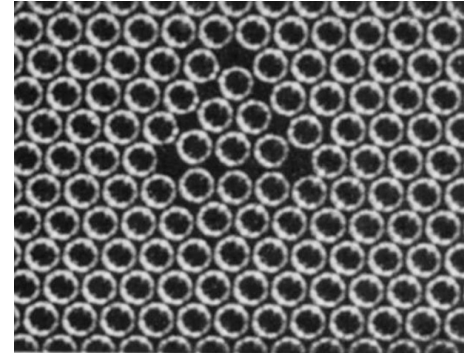
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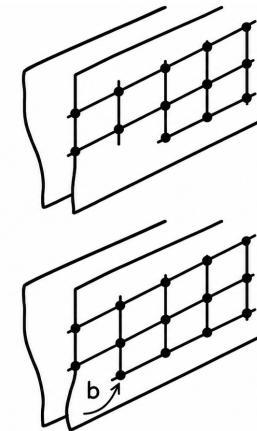
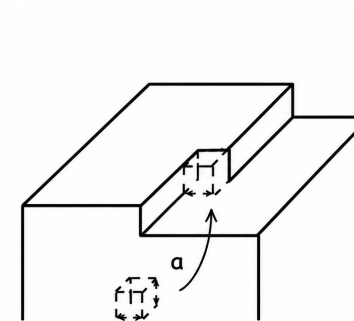
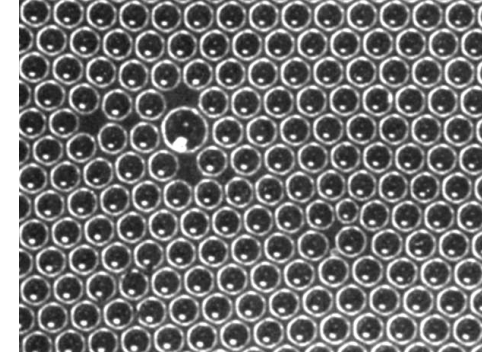
❖ Defect clusters (e.g., vacancy clusters, interstitial loops)

- Aggregation of primary defects
- Frequent at high dose or temperature

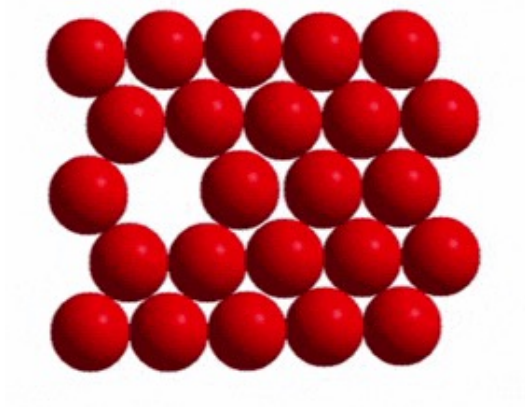
Vacancy



Interstitial



Production of point defects



Always present at an equilibrium
(thermal agitation)

$$N_v = N \exp\left(-\frac{Q_f}{k_B T}\right)$$

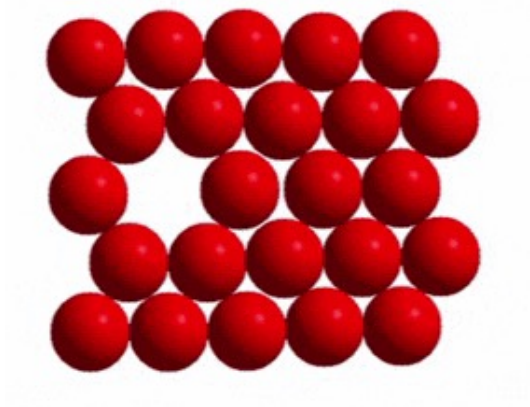
Q_f : formation energy $\approx 1 \text{ eV}$

T : temperature

k_B : constant of Boltzmann

N : number of atoms

Production of point defects



Always present at an equilibrium
(thermal agitation)

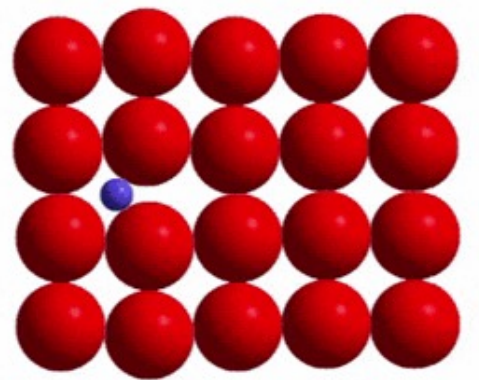
$$N_v = N \exp\left(-\frac{Q_f}{k_B T}\right)$$

Q_f : formation energy $\approx 1 \text{ eV}$

T : temperature

k_B : constant of Boltzmann

N : number of atoms



Varies with temperature
(thermal agitation)

$$N_i = N \exp\left(-\frac{Q_i}{k_B T}\right)$$

Q_i : formation energy

T : temperature

k_B : constant of Boltzmann

$k_B = 1.381 \cdot 10^{-23} \text{ J/K}$

N : number of atoms



Thanks for your listening!

If you need further information:

Prof. Antoine GUITTON

Full Professor at Université de Lorraine

Phone (LEM3): +33 372 747 826

Email: antoine.guitton@univ-lorraine.fr

Website: www.antoine-guitton.fr

