CURRENT SCALING IN AN ATMOSPHERIC PRESSURE CAPILLARY DIELECTRIC BARRIER DISCHARGE (POSTPRINT)

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Current scaling in an atmospheric pressure capillary dielectric barrier discharge, comprising a structured rare gas flow that extends into ambient air, is characterized by electrical and optical measurements. In the transient glow mode, two current scaling regimes were identified that are separated by the static free shear flow boundary. The peak current was sensitive to cathode placement relative to this flow structure and could be scaled from ~300 mA to over 5 A. Applying a Boltzmann equation solver, it was found that ~1% air entrainment into the flow and an \(E/N \approx 5 \times 10^{16} \text{ V cm}^{-2}\) could account for the observed trends.

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Current scaling in an atmospheric pressure capillary dielectric barrier discharge

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Current scaling in an atmospheric pressure capillary dielectric barrier discharge, comprising a structured rare gas flow that extends into ambient air, is characterized by electrical and optical measurements. In the transient glow mode, two current scaling regimes were identified that are separated by the static free shear flow boundary. The peak current was sensitive to cathode placement relative to this flow structure and could be scaled from ~300 mA to over 5 A. Applying a Boltzmann equation solver, it was found that ~1% air entrainment into the flow and an $E/N \leq 5 \times 10^{16}$ V cm$^{-2}$ could account for the observed trends. © 2009 American Institute of Physics. [DOI: 10.1063/1.3187939]

Research into the generation of stable, nonequilibrium atmospheric pressure plasmas has been growing significantly in part because these plasma sources have the potential to impact a diverse variety of fields from materials engineering to biomedicine.1 One type, the atmospheric pressure plasma jet, utilizes a gas flow, typically helium, which is energized to form a plasma that extends into ambient air. In the configuration studied here,2–5 the plasma channel within the gas flow is formed by a rapidly propagating self-sustained ionization front, a streamerlike discharge, rather than existing as an afterglow plasma effluent from a remote source. With a grounded electrode downstream, a capillary dielectric barrier discharge (CDBD) can be established.6 This configuration has been shown to have significant advantages in terms of enhanced plasma chemistry at atmospheric pressure,7 and has recently been used to demonstrate the high-speed deposition of SiO$_2$ films.8 This motivates a more detailed look at the properties of the discharge and the factors that can affect the plasma chemistry near the substrate. In this letter, we demonstrate the spatiotemporally resolved evolution of the streamer-to-glow transition for this CDBD. While this CDBD evolves much like a single microdischarge in a typical pulsed coplanar DBD, this source has unique properties owing to the structured gas flow through which the current channel is established. We will show that the placement of the cathode relative to this gas flow structure significantly alters the current scaling in the transient glow phase. Two regimes for current scaling are identified that are clearly separated by the static free shear flow boundary that exists between the rare gas core flow and the surrounding air.

The experimental configuration is shown in Fig. 1. An equivalent circuit diagram for the CDBD is displayed in the inset. A single 2 cm long nickel electrode was placed at 12 mm from the edge of a Pyrex capillary with an inner diameter of 2 mm and an outer diameter of 3 mm. This is represented in the circuit diagram as $C_m$. A 95% helium, 5% argon gas mixture, hereafter referred to as the He/Ar mixture, flowed through the capillary at a rate of 2.0 standard l/min, establishing a free shear flow beyond the confines of the capillary. A planar aluminum electrode was placed downstream at a variable distance $d$ from the capillary tip, defining $C_x$. A Teflon dielectric film $C_d$, with thicknesses of 50.8 and 254 $\mu$m, was alternately used on the cathode to simulate a target substrate for material processing. This was grounded through a 1 kΩ load resistance $R_L$. To drive the CDBD, we used a 12 kV, positive unipolar voltage pulse, with a rise time of 10 ns, switched at a 1 kHz rate. These represent the nominal conditions for this experiment. The flow rate, mixture ratios, and driving parameters were kept constant. Optical emission was monitored using two photomultiplier tubes (PMTs) having a rise time of 2 ns. The emission was fiber coupled from detectors focused on the capillary axis with a spatial resolution of ~1 mm and was corrected for inherent signal delays. A reference PMT detector was fixed 1 mm from the capillary tip while the other detector was fixed 1 mm from the movable cathode. To the detectors we affixed 10 nm bandpass filters to measure emission from Ar $2p_1 \rightarrow 1s_2$ at 750 nm, N$_2$C $^3\Pi_u \rightarrow$ N$_2$B $^3\Pi_g$ at 337 nm.

![Schematic of the CDBD experimental apparatus and associated diagnostics. An equivalent circuit diagram of the CDBD portion of the circuit is shown in the inset.](image-url)
and $N_2^+ B \rightarrow N_2^+ X \rightarrow N_2^+$ at 391 nm. These emission features were among the brightest in the discharge spectrum. The electrical properties of the discharge were monitored with a wide bandwidth Tektronix P6015 voltage probe connected at the anode and a current sensing resistor $R_n$, with an effective resistance of 8.3 $\Omega$, attached to the cathode. The PMT and probe signals were averaged over 1000 shots.

The characteristic evolution of this capillary dielectric barrier discharge is shown in Fig. 2, using a Teflon covered cathode, as this acted to further stabilize the discharge, allowing for a more precise view of the discharge process. The gap separation was 20 mm. The discharge current is superimposed onto the total current and the peak of the displacement current marks $t=0$. The PMTs were not calibrated for wavelength-dependent emission intensities so they cannot be quantitatively compared. PMT 1 depicts emission from excited Ar near the capillary tip while PMT 2 shows emission from $N_2^+$ near the cathode surface. The primary streamer can be tracked starting with the first large peak from PMT 1 as the streamer exits the capillary. The strong emission peak from $N_2^+$ marks the arrival of the streamer at the cathode. This emission is enhanced as the streamer approaches the cathode and the local $E/N$, where $E$ is the electric field and $N$ is the gas density, increases. The bridging of the gap by the streamer is correlated with a sharp rise in current as the discharge transitions to the transient glow mode. The discharge current peak coincides with a second peak in emission near the capillary tip that is associated with the slowly propagating “secondary streamer” that is characteristic of the low $E/N$ transient glow mode. This discharge process is also illustrated in a time-resolved broadband image sequence acquired with an intensified charge-coupled device camera under conditions close to those in Fig. 2 that is included as a media supplement to this letter.

Figure 2 shows that the basic discharge process is very similar to other pulsed DBD configurations. However, as the gap separation is varied, Fig. 3 shows that the current scaling is not consistent with a simple variation of $E/N$ in the transient glow mode. Data for the bare cathode and various cathode composites are shown using the He/Ar flow gas mixture under nominal conditions. The bare cathode was also tested in a pure He flow. For this case, the anode was slightly recessed so as to decrease $C_{ad}$; measurements were then repeated for the He/Ar mixture for comparison. The error bars for the current measurements under nominal conditions represent the standard deviation of three successive runs to demonstrate the stability of the CDBD, which is noticeably better in the case of a dielectric covered cathode.

Starting with an initial gap separation of 25 mm, Fig. 3 shows the measured current increased slowly over the first 5 mm with little relative variation among the different cases except for a noticeable offset in the pure He case. When the cathode was drawn within 20 mm of the capillary tip, the measured current increased more rapidly depending on the cathode material, anode separation, and flow gas composition. For the bare cathode, the transition between these two regimes was more pronounced and was somewhat muted in the other cases. For example, in the case of the He/Ar mixture, the peak current nearly doubled over a space of 2 mm from ~450 mA at 20 mm. Figure 3 also shows that the increase in current is mostly tracked by a proportionate increase in emission from excited Ar, acquired from PMT 2, and normalized to the He/Ar bare cathode current. The measured Ar emission intensity tracked the current in the dielectric cases as well; however, emission from the air plasma species monitored in this experiment did not track the current indicating the importance of the rare gas core for current scaling.

The data in Fig. 3 shows that there are two distinct regimes for current scaling in this CDBD source that are separated by a transition at a gap separation of ~20 mm under our flow conditions. This is a unique property of this particular DBD source that can be explained by the varying structure of the gas flow that comprises the discharge medium and its effect on the local plasma conductivity as the cathode position is varied. In the following discussion, we refer to the equivalent circuit shown in Fig. 1. We reduce the CDBD to a parallel gap capacitance $C_g$ and lumped resistance $R_g$, both in series with a dielectric capacitance. The dielectric capacitance can be split into contributions from the capillary tip $C_{cap}$ and the cathode $C_{ad}$ if a dielectric film is present. The lumped resistance $R_{g}$ depends inversely on the conductivity of the gas in the current channel. Under the assumption of glow discharge conditions after the streamer has bridged the gap, we used the Boltzmann equation solver BOLSIG+ (Ref. 11) to estimate the fundamental quantities that make up the conductivity, to help explain the data in Fig. 3. The conductivity $\sigma$ in the time domain is given by,
where $\bar{\nu}_i$ is an effective ionization frequency taking attachment into account. The electron mobility is denoted by $\mu_e$. The electron charge and initial electron number density are denoted by $e$ and $n_0$, respectively. The BOLSIG+ solver assumes a spatially uniform and steady state electric field. Consequently, since $\sigma$ varies in time, we restrict our interpretation of model calculations to describing only the initial conditions in the transient glow mode. We assumed a composition of both pure He and 95% He/5% Ar with varying mole fractions of air (79%N$_2$/21%O$_2$) up to 10%, simulating the progressive entrainment of air into the rare gas core flow. Only direct electron impact ionization processes were considered for electron density growth. The $E/N$ was varied between 10 and 150 Td. The important results are summarized in Fig. 4. The ratio of the He/Ar ionization frequency $\nu_{iHe}^{He/Ar}$ to the He ionization frequency $\nu_{iHe}^{He}$ is plotted versus $E/N$ for different mole fractions of air on the left axis. The range of calculated $\nu_{iHe}^{He/Ar}/N$ is shown on the right axis. The missing values in Fig. 4 indicate where $\nu_{iHe}^{He/Ar}/N$ was calculated to be negative, indicating that attachment from the air impurity is dominating. The electron mobility was found not to vary as significantly as $\bar{\nu}_i$ and is not considered further.

When the cathode is in the rare gas core flow, for $d \leq 20$ mm, the measured current is significantly larger for the He/Ar mixture than for He alone (open symbol cases). For $d > 20$ mm, the measured current for all cases converge to a single trend that is largely independent of the flow mixture or cathode material. In Fig. 4, the ratio $\nu_{iHe}^{He/Ar}/\nu_{iHe}^{He}$ favors the He/Ar mixture with no air impurity, but this ratio decreases significantly with just 1% air entrainment for $E/N < 30$ Td and approaches unity for $>1\%$ air entrainment, independent of $E/N$. For $E/N > 50$ Td, the effect of air entrainment is comparatively small. This can explain the data in Fig. 3 as a transition from the rare gas core flow to a mixed gas regime characterized by air entrainment. The measurement for He/Ar in this mixed gas regime is still measurably greater than for the He case, but it is converging toward the He value. Figure 4 then suggests the amount of air entrainment at the transition to this regime is likely closer to 1% when $\nu_{iHe}^{He/Ar}/\nu_{iHe}^{He} > 1$. This agrees with experimental measurements taken with the “plasma needle” that place this value as low as 0.5%. Additionally, for progressive air entrainment to account for the observed trends in Fig. 3, it implies that the $E/N$ in the plasma channel in the transient glow mode is $\leq 50$ Td. Indeed, this is consistent with a rough estimate of the $E/N$ simply from the ratio of applied voltage to gap separation. The dependence of the current scaling on the dielectric capacitance in the two regimes can also be explained from Fig. 4. Increasing the Teflon film thickness will decrease the gap $E/N$. From Fig. 4, $\nu_{iHe/Ar}^{He}/N$ is significantly reduced in the presence of air for $E/N < 30$ Td. However, Eq. (1), on the timescale of the current rise (order 10 ns), suggests that the local conductivity is insensitive to these changes in the mixed gas regime as the exponential growth term will approach unity at low $E/N$. Therefore, the current should follow $E/N$ linearly in this regime, which is slowly varying assuming $E/N \approx 1/d$, independent of the dielectric capacitance. This is justified in Fig. 3 for $d > 20$ mm. Conversely, when the cathode is brought into the rare gas core flow (0% data), Fig. 4 shows that $\nu_{iHe/Ar}^{He}/N$ can increase abruptly in the absence of air at low $E/N$. The exponential dependence on $\bar{\nu}_i$ in Eq. (1) is now more significant and the sensitivity of $\nu_{iHe/Ar}^{He}/N$ to $E/N$ has a greater effect on the conductivity. For $E/N < 50$ Td, $\nu_{iHe/Ar}^{He}/N$ varies by almost three orders of magnitude. Again, since the gap $E/N$ is lower with increasing dielectric thickness, the gap separation then needs to be smaller than in the bare cathode case to yield a significant increase in the conductivity. This can explain the dependence of current scaling on dielectric thickness for $d < 20$ mm in Fig. 3 as the marked increase in current occurs at smaller gap separations for increased dielectric thickness. The BOLSIG+ calculations show that with a small incorporation of air into the current channel, the channel conductivity is determined primarily by the air impurity. This can account for the observed current scaling trends.

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$\sigma(t) = e \mu_e n_0 \exp(\bar{\nu}_i t)$, 

(1)

FIG. 4. (Color online) BOLSIG+ calculations showing the ratio of ionization frequencies of a 95% He/5% Ar mixture to the pure He case (left) and the ionization frequency in the He/Ar mixture (right) for several mole fractions of air.

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10. See EPAPS supplementary material at http://dx.doi.org/10.1063/1.3187939 for a time-resolved image sequence of the discharge process.