

# Application of Plasma Phenomena

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**Po-Yu Chang**

**Institute of Space and Plasma Sciences, National Cheng Kung University**

**Lecture 3**

**2025 fall semester**

**Thursday 9:00-12:00**

**Materials:**

**<https://capst.ncku.edu.tw/PGS/index.php/teaching/>**

**Online courses:**

**<https://nckucc.webex.com/nckucc/j.php?MTID=m50e2008a7e216ef32c42db2d027415ec>**

# Grading

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- **Quizzes 50 % (2-min Q&A at the beginning of each class)**
- **Presentations 50 % (10-min presentation on any plasma applications or phenomena)**

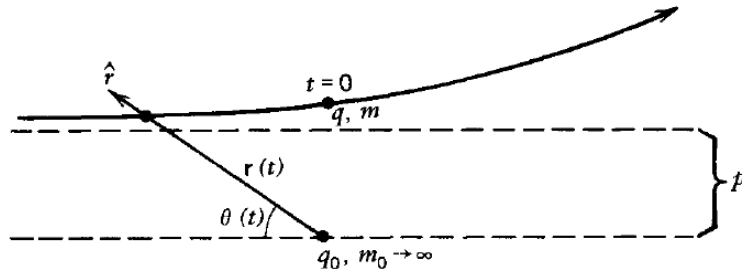
- **No class on 9/25, 11/20.**
- **Final presentation on 12/25.**

# There are several Important plasma parameters that need to be considered



- Debye length  $\lambda_D \equiv \left( \frac{KT_e}{4\pi n e^2} \right)^{1/2}$
- Plasma parameter  $\Lambda \equiv n \frac{4\pi}{3} \lambda_D^3$
- Plasma frequency  $\omega_{pe} \equiv \left( \frac{4\pi n_e e^2}{m_e} \right)^{1/2}$
- Collision time  $\tau_e \equiv \frac{3\sqrt{m_e}(KT_e)^{3/2}}{4\sqrt{2\pi} n e^4 \ln \Lambda}$
- Hall parameter  $\chi \equiv \omega_{ce} \tau_e$ , where  $\omega_{ce} \equiv \frac{eB}{m_e c}$  is the electron gyrofrequency
- Plasma beta  $\beta \equiv \frac{P}{P_B}$ , where  $P_B \equiv \frac{B^2}{8\pi}$  is the magnetic pressure

# Charged particles collide with each other through coulomb collisions



$$mv_{\perp} = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} dt F_{\perp}(t)$$

- Coulomb force:

$$m \ddot{\vec{r}} = \frac{qq_0}{r^2} \hat{r}$$

$$F_{\perp} = \frac{qq_0}{p^2} \sin^3 \theta$$

- Relation between  $\theta$  and  $t$  is

$$x = -r \cos \theta = -\frac{p \cos \theta}{\sin \theta} = v_0 t$$

- Therefore,

$$v_{\perp} = \frac{qq_0}{mv_0 p} \int_0^{\pi} d\theta \sin \theta = \frac{2qq_0}{mv_0 p} \equiv \frac{v_0 p_0}{p}$$

where  $p_0 \equiv \frac{2qq_0}{mv_0^2}$

- Note that this is valid only when  $v_{\perp} \ll v_0$ , i.e.,  $p \gg p_0$ .

# Cumulative effect of many small angle collisions is more important than large angle collisions



- Consider a variable  $\Delta x$  that is the sum of many small random variables  $\Delta x_i$ ,  $i=1,2,3,\dots,N$ ,

$$\Delta x = \Delta x_1 + \Delta x_2 + \Delta x_3 + \dots + \Delta x_N = \sum_{i=1}^N \Delta x_i$$

- Suppose  $\langle \Delta x_i \rangle = \langle \Delta x_i \Delta x_j \rangle_{i \neq j} = 0$

$$\langle (\Delta x)^2 \rangle = \left\langle \left( \sum_{i=1}^N \Delta x_i \right)^2 \right\rangle = \sum_{i=1}^N \langle (\Delta x_i)^2 \rangle = N \langle (\Delta x_i)^2 \rangle$$

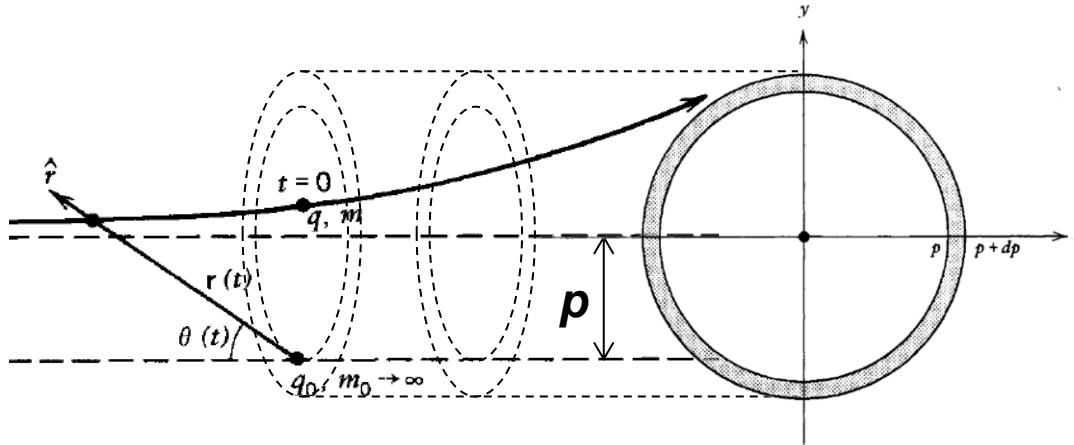
- For one collision:

$$\langle v_{\perp}^2 \rangle = \langle (\Delta v_x)^2 \rangle + \langle (\Delta v_y)^2 \rangle = \frac{v_0^2 p_0^2}{p^2} \quad \langle (\Delta v_x)^2 \rangle = \langle (\Delta v_y)^2 \rangle = \frac{1}{2} \frac{v_0^2 p_0^2}{p^2}$$

- The total velocity in  $\hat{x}$

$$\langle (\Delta v_x^{\text{tot}})^2 \rangle = N \langle (\Delta v_x)^2 \rangle = \frac{N}{2} \frac{v_0^2 p_0^2}{p^2}$$

# The collision frequency can be obtained by integrating all the possible impact parameter



- Number of collisions in a time interval:

$$dN = n_0 2\pi p dp v_0 dt$$

i.e.,  $\frac{dN}{dt} = 2\pi p dp n_0 v_0$

- Therefore

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{d}{dt} \langle (\Delta v_x^{\text{tot}})^2 \rangle &= \frac{1}{2} \frac{v_0^2 p_0^2}{p^2} \frac{dN}{dt} \\ &= \pi n_0 v_0^3 p_0^2 \frac{dp}{p} \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{d}{dt} \langle (\Delta_{\perp}^{\text{tot}})^2 \rangle &= 2 \frac{d}{dt} \langle (\Delta v_x^{\text{tot}})^2 \rangle \\ &= 2\pi n_0 v_0^3 p_0^2 \int_{p_{\min}}^{p_{\max}} \frac{dp}{p} \\ &= 2\pi n_0 v_0^3 p_0^2 \ln \left( \frac{p_{\max}}{p_{\min}} \right) \\ &\approx 2\pi n_0 v_0^3 p_0^2 \ln \left( \frac{\lambda_D}{|p_0|} \right) \\ &\approx 2\pi n_0 v_0^3 p_0^2 \ln \Lambda \end{aligned}$$

- Note that

$$\lambda_D \approx \left( \frac{KT_e}{4\pi n_0 e^2} \right)^{1/2}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\lambda_D}{|p_0|} &\approx \frac{\lambda_D m_e v_e^2}{2e^2} \approx \frac{\lambda_D KT_e}{e^2} \approx 4\pi n_0 \lambda_D^3 \\ &\approx \Lambda \end{aligned}$$

# Comparison between the mean free path and the system size $L$ determines the regime of the plasma



- A reasonable definition for the scattering time due to small angle collisions is the time it takes  $\langle (\Delta v_{\perp}^{\text{tot}})^2 \rangle$  to equal  $v_0^2$ . The collision frequency  $\nu_c$  due to small-angle collisions:

$$\frac{d}{dt} \langle (\Delta_{\perp}^{\text{tot}})^2 \rangle \approx 2\pi n_0 v_0^3 p_0^2 \ln \Lambda \approx v_0^2 \nu_c, \quad p_0 \equiv \frac{2qq_0}{m_e v_0^2} \Rightarrow \nu_c = \frac{8\pi n_0 e^4 \ln \Lambda}{m_e^2 v_0^3}$$

- With more careful derivation, the collisional time is obtained:

$$\tau_e^{-1} = \nu_c = \frac{4\sqrt{2\pi} n e^4 \ln \Lambda}{3\sqrt{m_e} (KT_e)^{3/2}}$$

- Mean free path:  $l_{\text{mfp}} = v_e \tau_e$

$$\begin{cases} l_{\text{mfp}} < L & \text{Fluid Theory} \\ l_{\text{mfp}} > L & \text{Kinetic Theory} \end{cases}$$

# There are several Important plasma parameters that need to be considered



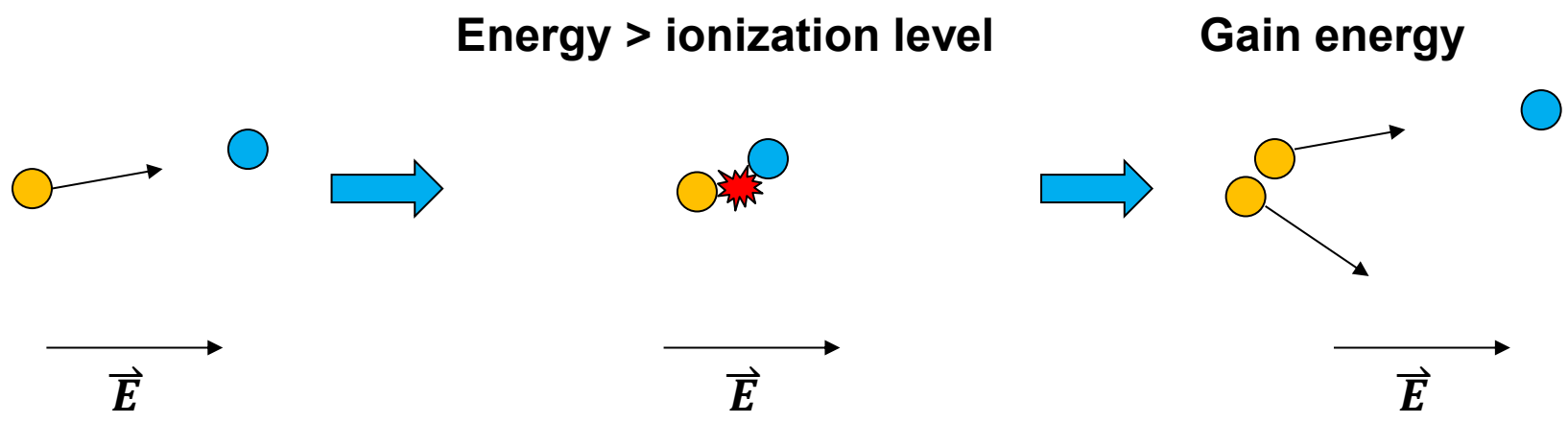
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# Collisions play an important role in ionization process



- At the microscopic level, breakdown requires the presence of sufficiently energy charge particles that have acquired enough energy from the applied electric field between two energy-dissipating collisions to ionize the material and to create more charge particles.



In most cases, electrons dominate the breakdown process since its mobility is much larger than that of ions

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$$E_k = \frac{1}{2}mv^2$$

$$v = \sqrt{\frac{2E_k}{m}}$$

$$E_k \sim kT$$

Collision time:  $t = \frac{s}{\sqrt{\frac{2E_k}{m}}} \sim \frac{n^{-1/3}}{\sqrt{T}} \sqrt{m}$

$$n = \frac{\#}{V} \sim \frac{\#//}{S^3}$$

$$s \sim n^{-1/3}$$

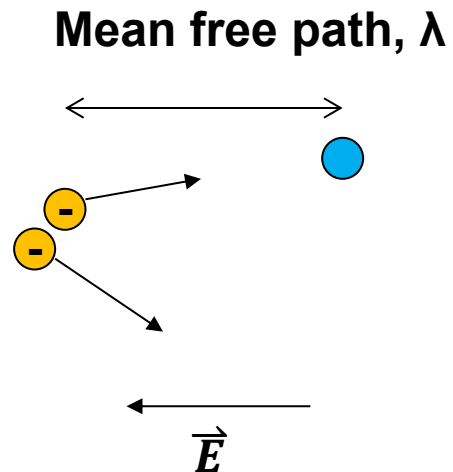
$$\frac{m_i}{m_e} \sim 2000 \times \text{Atomic mass}$$

$$\frac{t_i}{t_e} \sim 45 \times \sqrt{A}$$

# Mean free path is important in ionization process



- For an electron to acquire enough energy between collisions, its mean free path in the material must be sufficiently long.



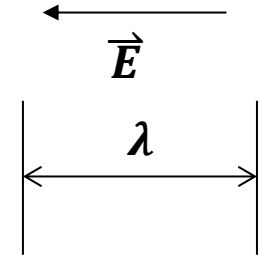
$$E_k = e \times E \times \lambda = eV$$

# Kinetic energy needs to be greater than the ionization energy to ionize the gas



- Between each collision, the kinetic energy increases.

$$\lambda eE = \frac{1}{2}mv^2 \quad v = \sqrt{\frac{2eE\lambda}{m}}$$

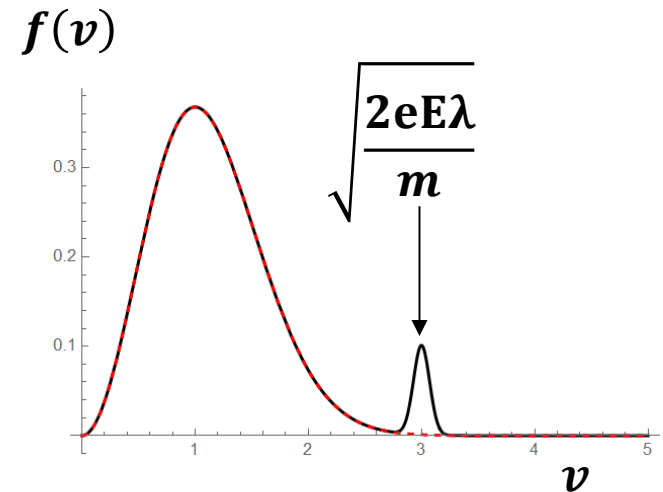


- Mean time between ionization collisions for electron with velocity  $v$ :

$$\tau = \frac{\lambda}{v}$$

- The rate of ionization is:

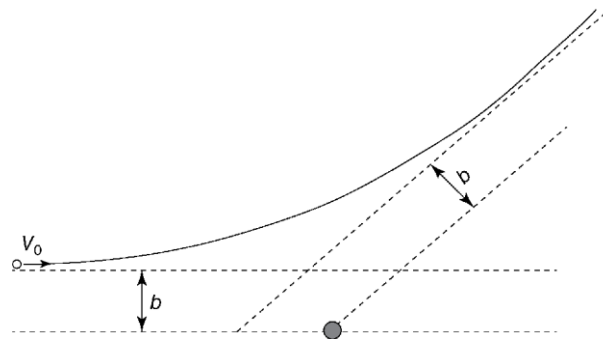
$$\frac{1}{\tau} = \frac{v}{\lambda} = \Sigma v$$



# Collisions can be elastic or inelastic



- **Elastic collisions – NO energy exchanges. Momentum is redistributed.**



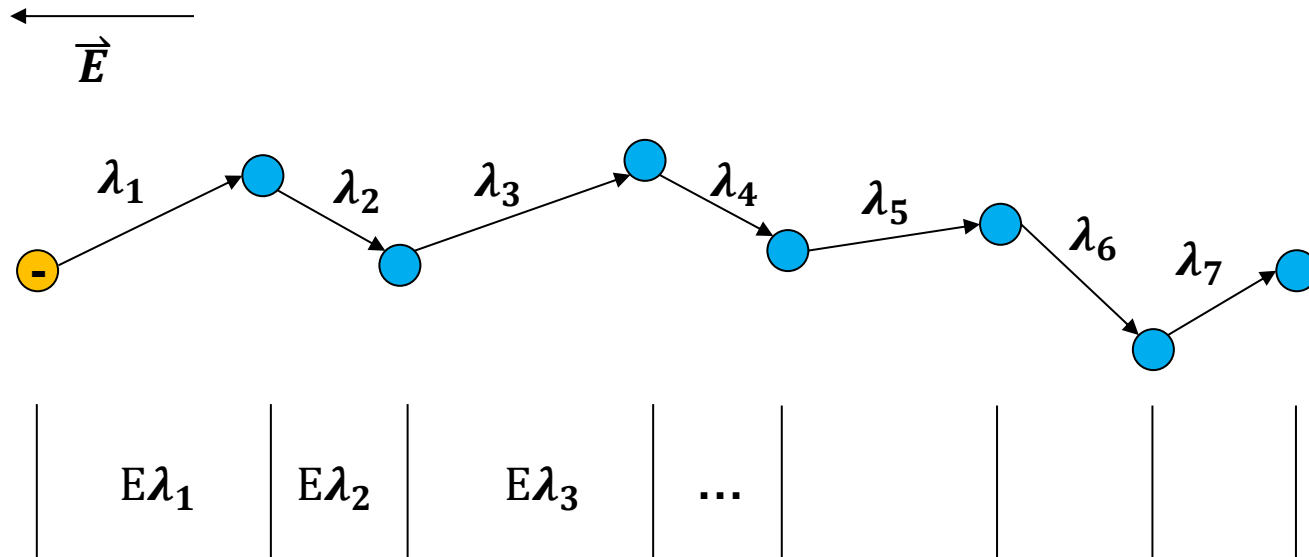
- **Inelastic collisions – energy is exchanged between the collision partners  
→ production of molecules & particles.**
  - A portion of the kinetic energy before collision is converted to potential energy of one of the particles in the system.
  - Ionization:  $A + B \rightarrow A + B^+ + e^-$ 
    - The process of ionization is dominated by  $e^-$  acceleration in an electric field and is greatly aided by the appearance of initiatory electrons: (1) ionization in the gas; (2) emission from the cathode.

# Electron impact ionization is the most important process in a breakdown of gases



- Electron impact ionization:  $A + e^- \rightarrow A^+ + e^- + e^-$ 
  - The most important process in the breakdown of gases but is not sufficient alone to result in the breakdown.

$$eE\lambda_{e,i} \geq eV_i \quad V_i: \text{ionization potential}$$



# Photoionization & collisions with excited molecules

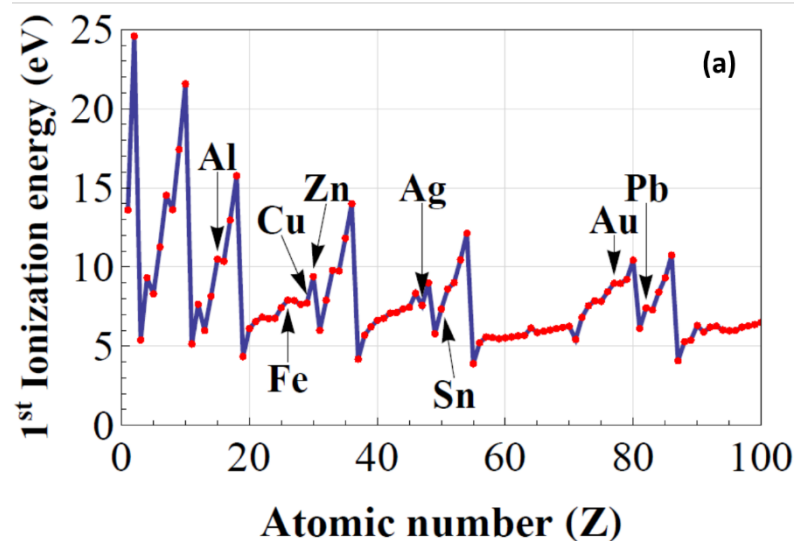


|  |   |
|--|---|
| • Metastable production (1~10 ms life time): | $A + B \rightarrow A^* + B$             |
| • Electron impact excitation:                | $A + e^- \rightarrow A^* + e^-$         |
| • Step ionization:                           | $A^* + e^- \rightarrow A^+ + e^- + e^-$ |
| • De-excitation:                             | $A^* + e^- \rightarrow A + e^- + h\nu$  |
| • Radiative recombination:                   | $A^+ + e^- \rightarrow A + h\nu$        |
| • Dielectronic excitation:                   | $A^* + e^- \rightarrow A^{**} + e^-$    |
| • Autoionization:                            | $A^{**} \rightarrow A^+ + e^-$          |
| • Dielectronic recombination:                | $A^{**} \rightarrow A + h\nu$           |
| • Step photoionization:                      | $A^* + h\nu \rightarrow A^+ + e^-$      |
| • Photoionization:                           | $A + h\nu \rightarrow A^+ + e^-$        |

# Photoionization is very complex



- Photons with  $\lambda=125$  nm (UV) @ 9.9 eV can ionize almost all gases despite that almost all molecules and atom have ionization energy  $> 9.9$  eV!
- Dust or water vapor can emit electrons through photon absorption.
- All photoionization occurs between 6~ 50 eV.



A. Kramida, Yu. Ralchenko, J. Reader, and NIST ASD Team.  
NIST Atomic Spectra Database (ver. 5.5.1), [Online]. Available:  
<https://physics.nist.gov/asd> [2017, December 24]. National  
Institute of Standards and Technology, Gaithersburg, MD., 2017.



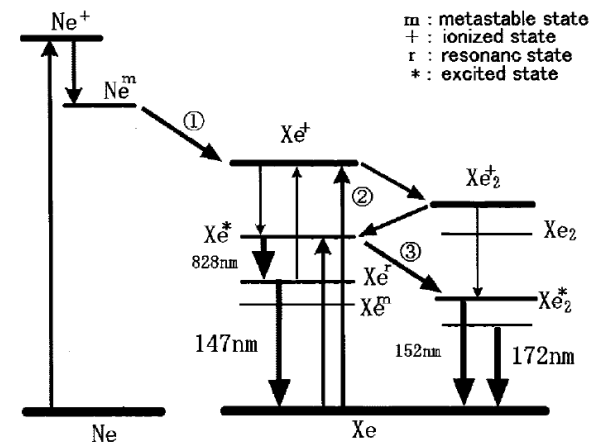
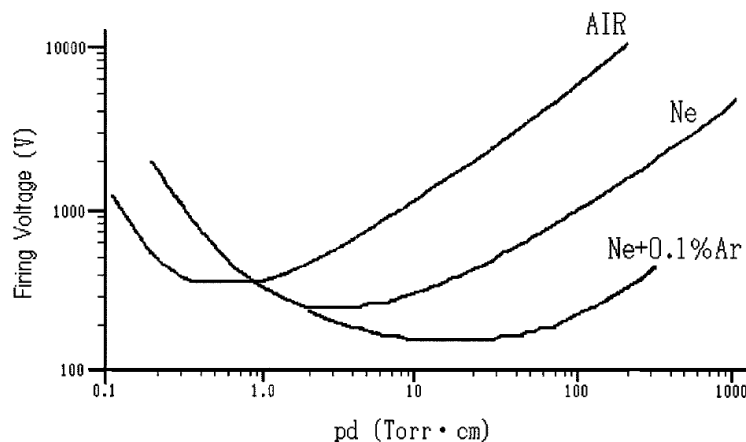
# Penning ionization – breakdown voltage may reduce with mixture of inert gas



- $A^* + B^* \rightarrow A^+ + B + e^-$
- May be from impurities or engineered mixture called penning mixture.
- A penning mixture is a mixture of an inert gas with a small amount of a quench gas, which has lower ionization potential than the 1<sup>st</sup> excited state of the inert gas.
- Ex: neon lamp: Ne + Ar (<2%)

plasma display: He/Ne + Xe

Gas ionization detector: Ar/Xe, Ne/Ar, Ar/acetylene(乙炔)

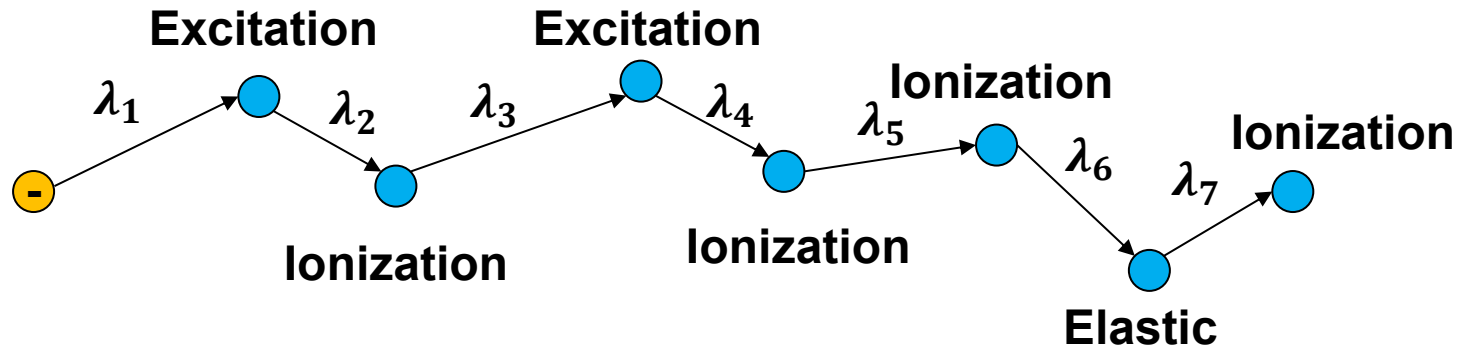


# More complex collisions



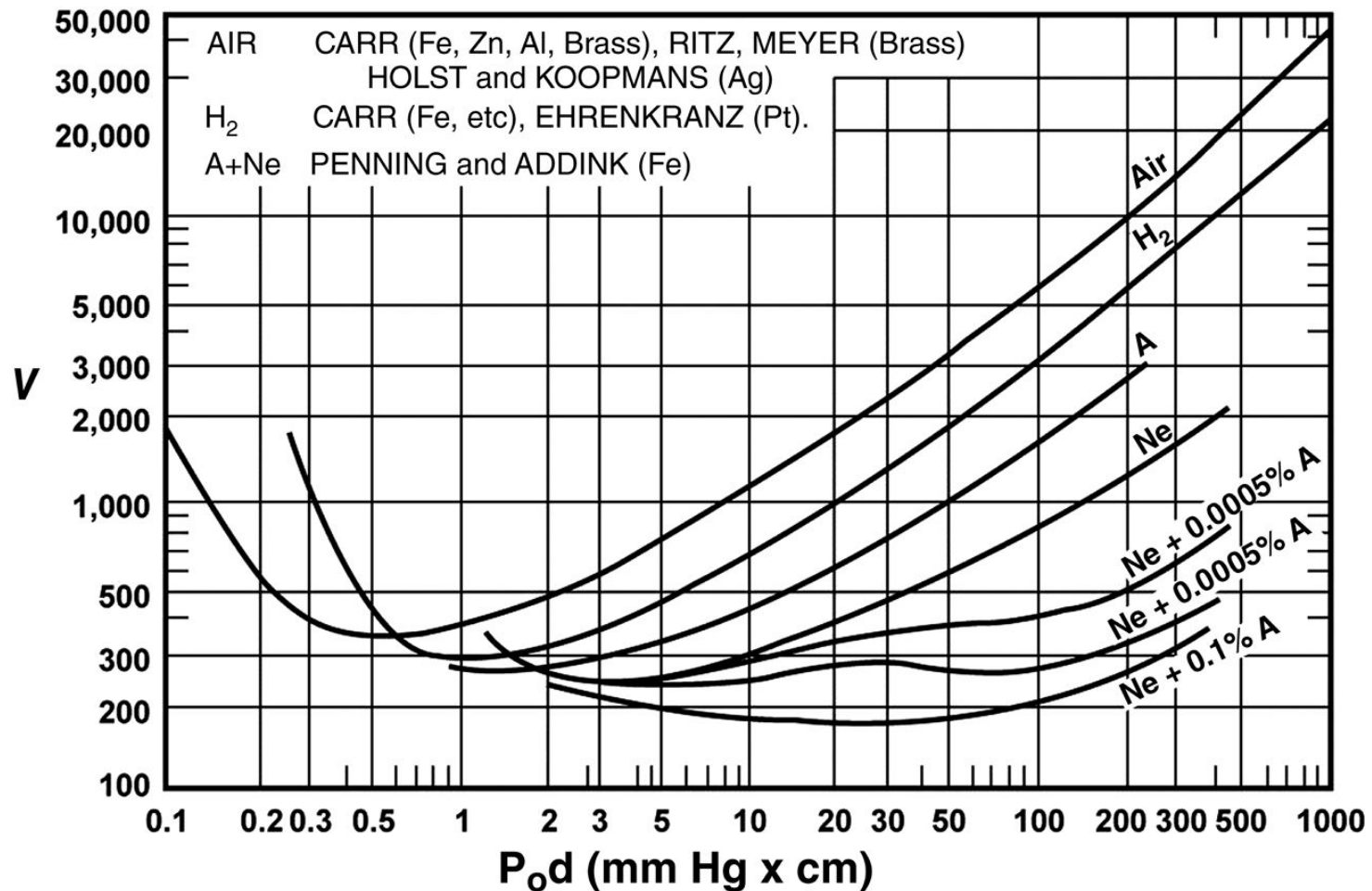
- 3-body collision:  $A^+ + e^- + e^- \rightarrow A^* + e^-$
- Ion impact excitation:  $A^+ + B \rightarrow A^+ + B^*$
- 3-body collision:  $A^+ + B + e^- \rightarrow A^* + B$
- Ion impact ionization:  $A^+ + B \rightarrow A^+ + B^+ + e^-$
- Total collisional cross section:

$$\sigma(\nu) = \sigma_{\text{el}} + \sigma_{\text{ex}} + \sigma_{\text{ion}} + \cdots = \sum_i \sigma_i$$



- Inert gas can be ionized easier since there are less exciting state compared to gas molecules.
- Molecules, e.g.,  $\text{SF}_6$ , dry air (with  $\text{O}_2$ ), that capture electron easier provides a higher breakdown voltage.

# Breakdown voltage of different gas



# Methods of plasma production

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- **DC electrical discharges**
  - Dark electrical discharges in gases
  - DC electrical glow discharges in gases
  - DC electrical arc discharges in gases
- **AC electrical discharges**
  - RF electrical discharges in gases
  - Microwave electrical discharges in gases
  - Dielectric-barrier discharges (DBDs)
- **Other mechanism**
  - Laser produced plasma
  - Pulsed-power generated plasma

# Reference

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- **Industrial plasma engineering, volume 1, by J. Reece Roth, Chapter 8 - 13.**
- **Plasma physics and engineering, by Alexander Fridman and Lawrence A. Kennedy.**
- **Plasma medicine, by Alexander Fridman and Gary Fridman.**

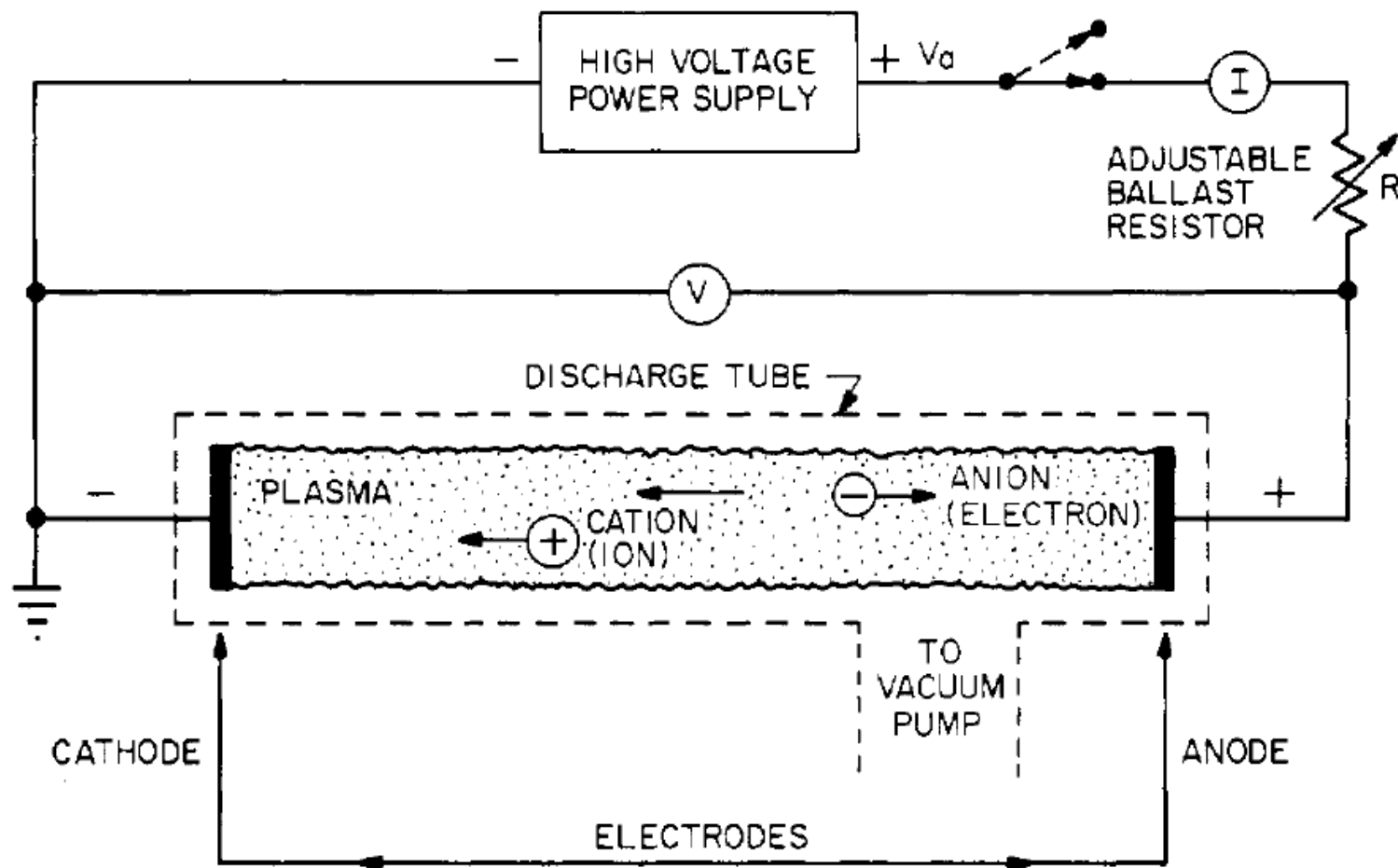
# Methods of plasma production

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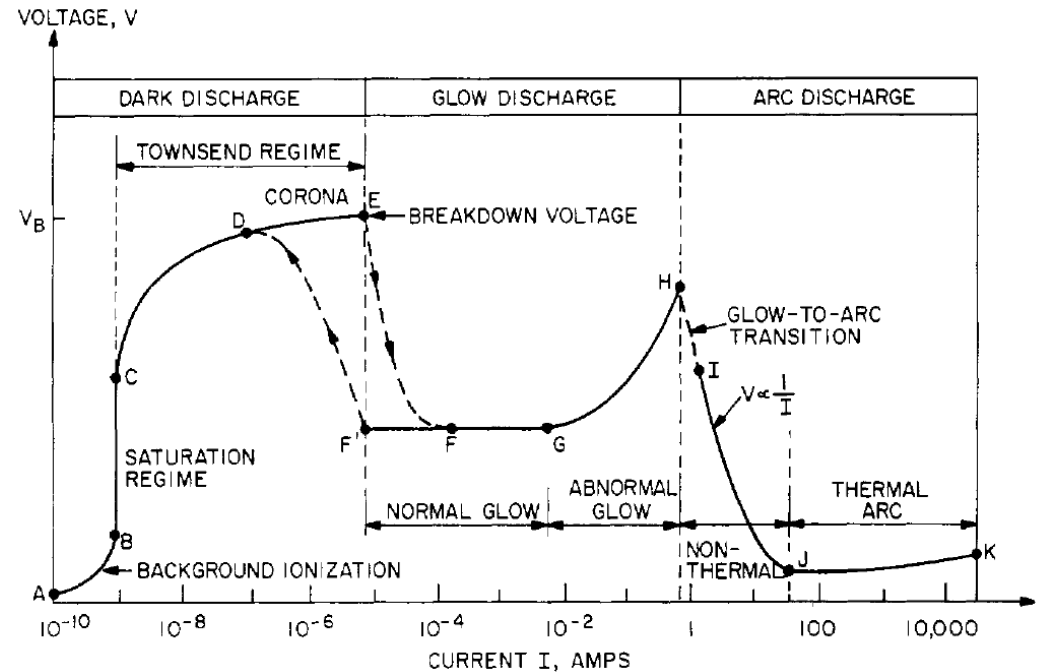
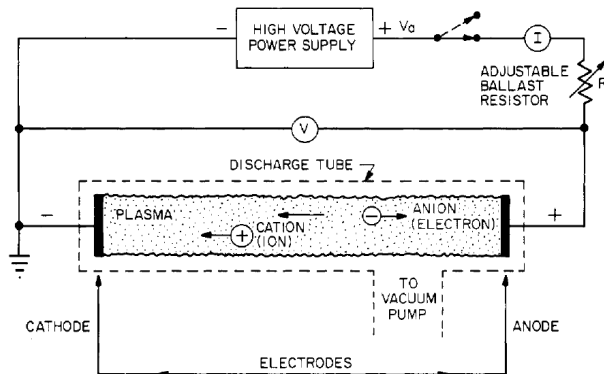


- **DC electrical discharges**
  - **Dark electrical discharges in gases**
  - **DC electrical glow discharges in gases**
  - **DC electrical arc discharges in gases**
- **AC electrical discharges**
  - **RF electrical discharges in gases**
  - **Microwave electrical discharges in gases**
  - **Dielectric-barrier discharges (DBDs)**
- **Other mechanism**
  - **Laser produced plasma**
  - **Pulsed-power generated plasma**

# Electrical discharge physics was studied using the classical low pressure electrical discharge tube



# The V-I curve is nonlinear in a DC electrical discharge tube

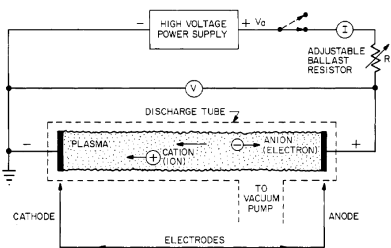
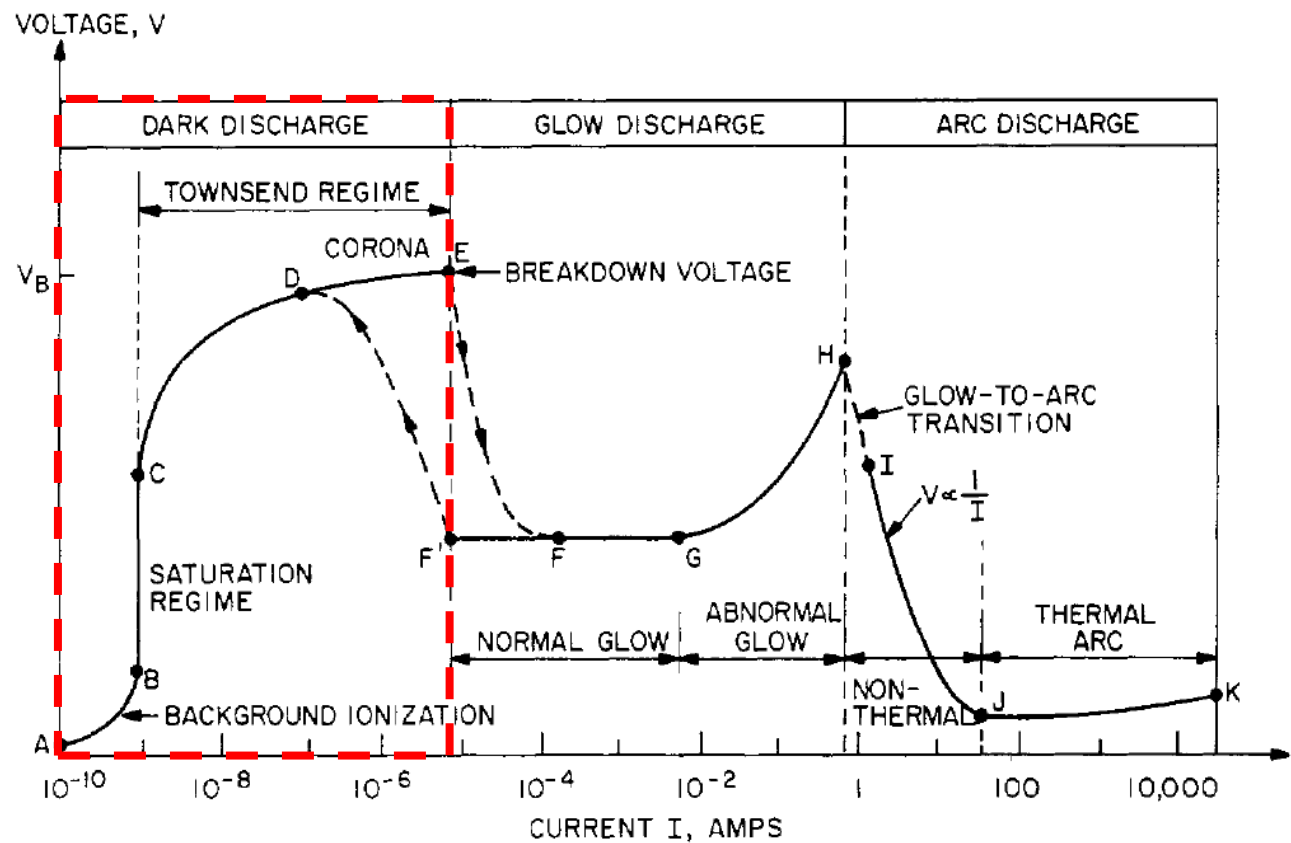


- Depends on the voltage, the adjustable ballast resistor, the voltage-current characteristic behaves differently in different regime.
  - Dark discharge
  - Glow discharge
  - Arc discharge



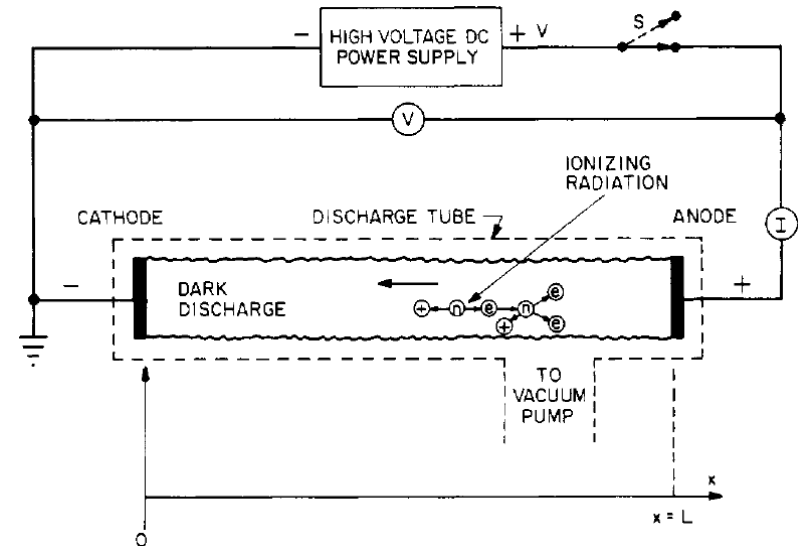
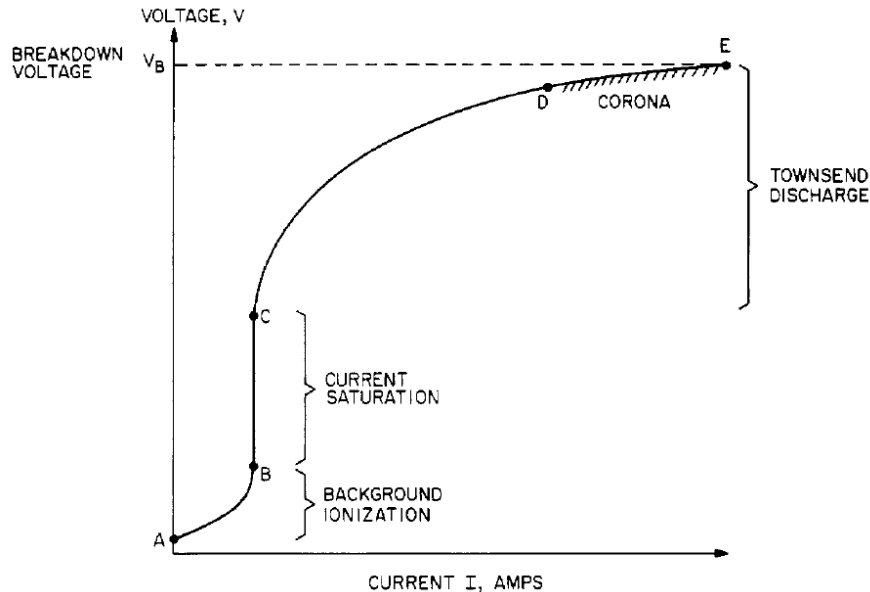
# Dark discharge

In a dark discharge, the excitation light is so little and is not visible



- In dark discharge, with the exception of the more energetic corona discharges, the number density of excited species is so small so that it does not emit enough light to be seen by a human observer.

# In background ionization, ions and electrons are created by ionization from background radiation

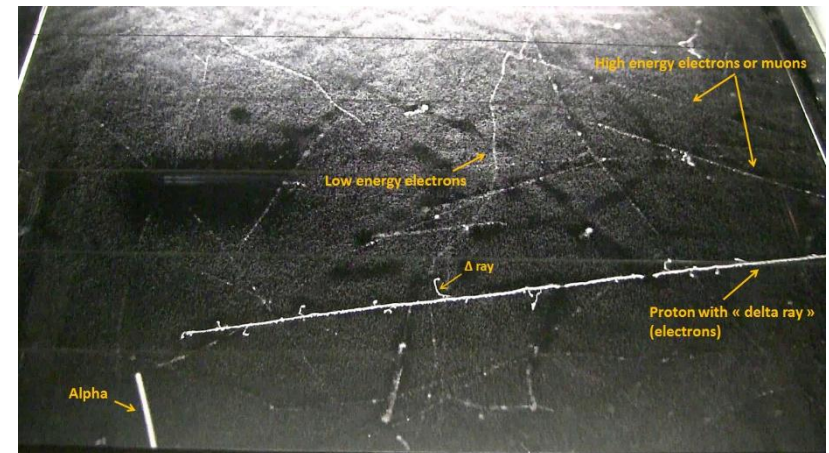
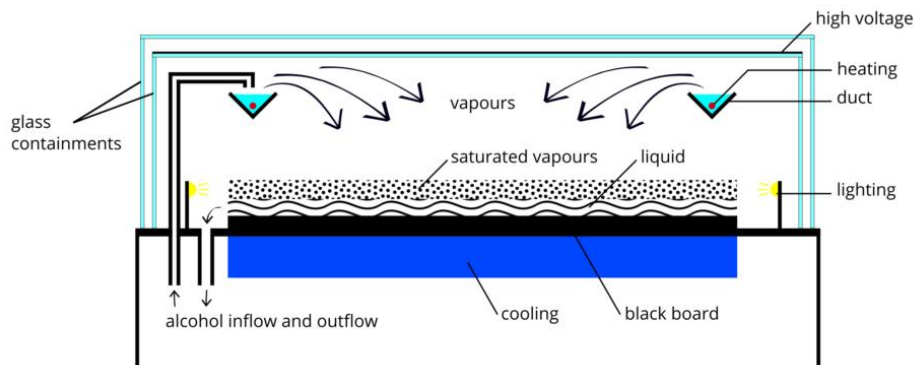


- Sources of background radiation:
  - Cosmic rays
  - Radioactive minerals in the surroundings
  - Electrostatic charge
  - UV light illumination
  - Other sources

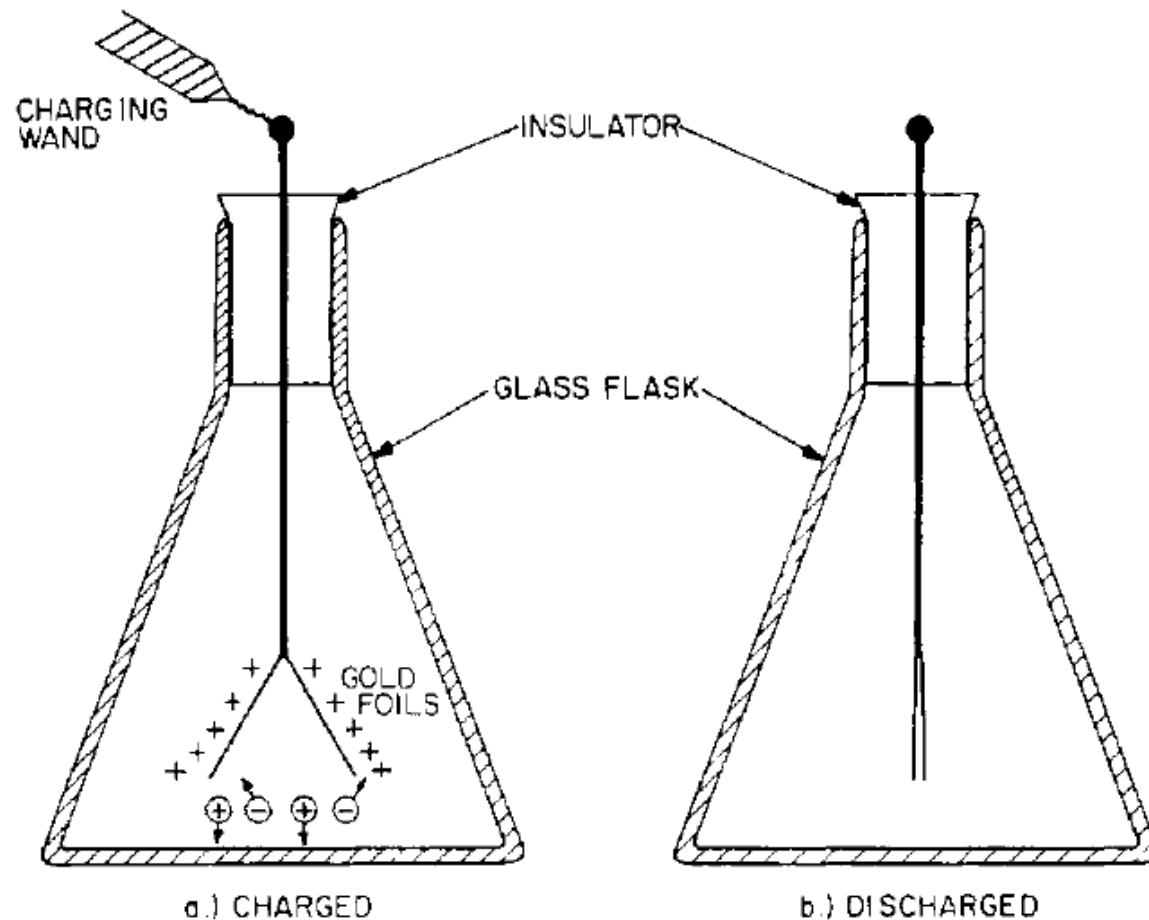
# Cosmic rays can be observed by a “cloud chamber”



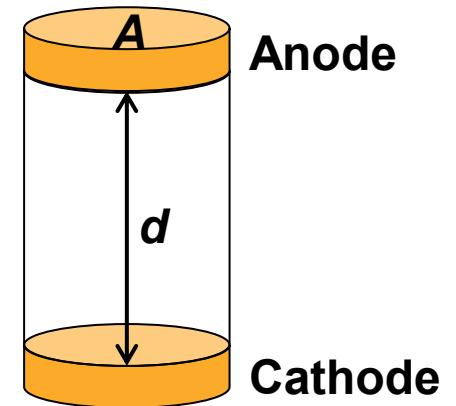
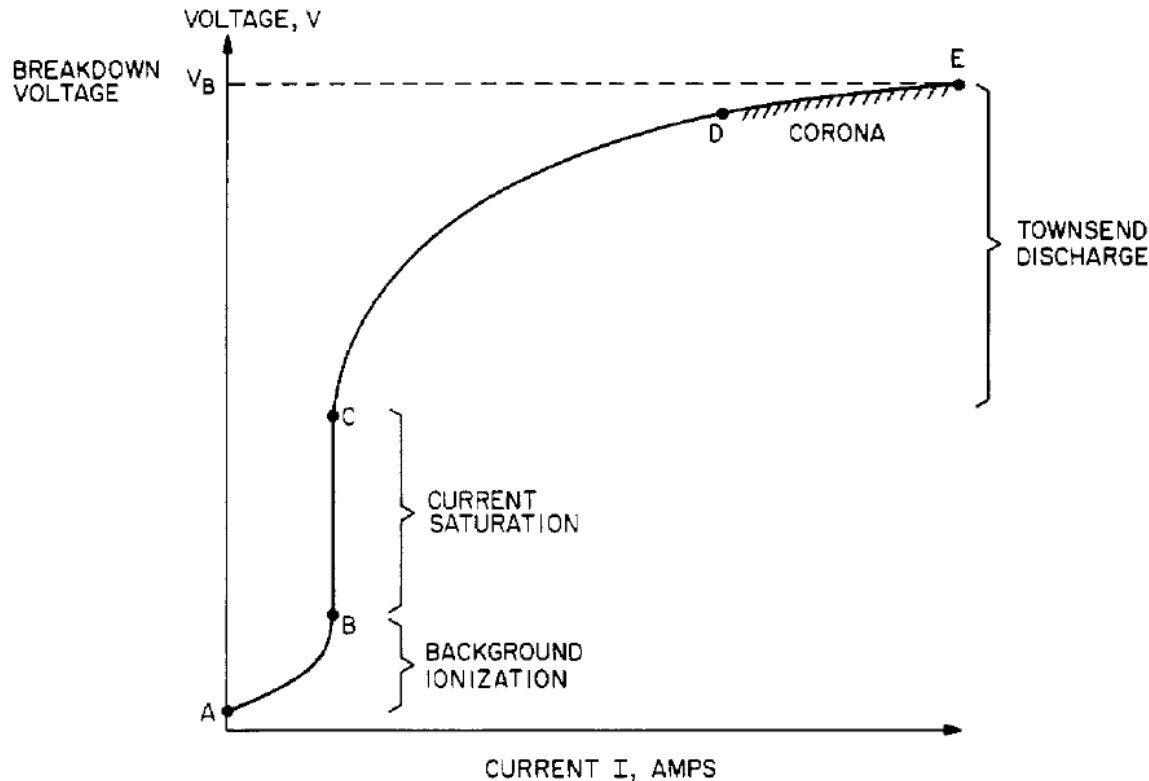
- A cloud chamber consists of a sealed environment containing a supersaturated vapor of water or alcohol. An energetic charged particle interacts with the gaseous mixture by knocking electrons off gas molecules via electrostatic forces during collisions, resulting in a trail of ionized gas particles. The resulting ions act as condensation centers around which a mist-like trail of small droplets form if the gas mixture is at the point of condensation. These droplets are visible as a "cloud" track that persists for several seconds while the droplets fall through the vapor.



# A discharge of a gold-leaf electroscope can illustrate the ionization of air by cosmic rays and background radiation



# Current saturation occurs when all ions and electrons produced between the electrodes are collected

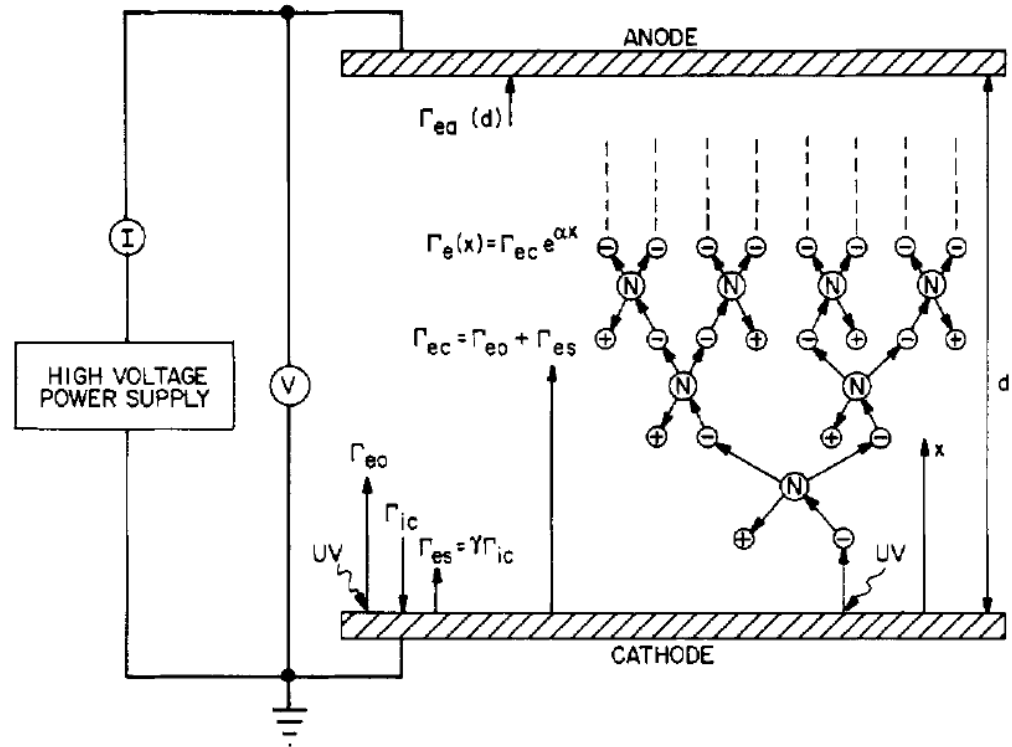
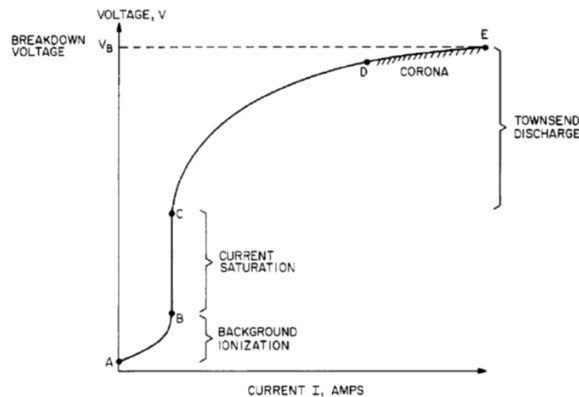


$$S = \frac{dn}{dt} \text{ (electrons or ions/m}^3 \text{ - s)}$$

$$I_s = eAdS$$

$$J_s = edS$$

# The region where the current exponentially increases is called the Townsend discharge



- Electrons from photo- or secondary electron emission from the cathode:

$$\Gamma_{ec} = \Gamma_{e0} + \Gamma_{es} (\text{electrons}/m^2 - s)$$

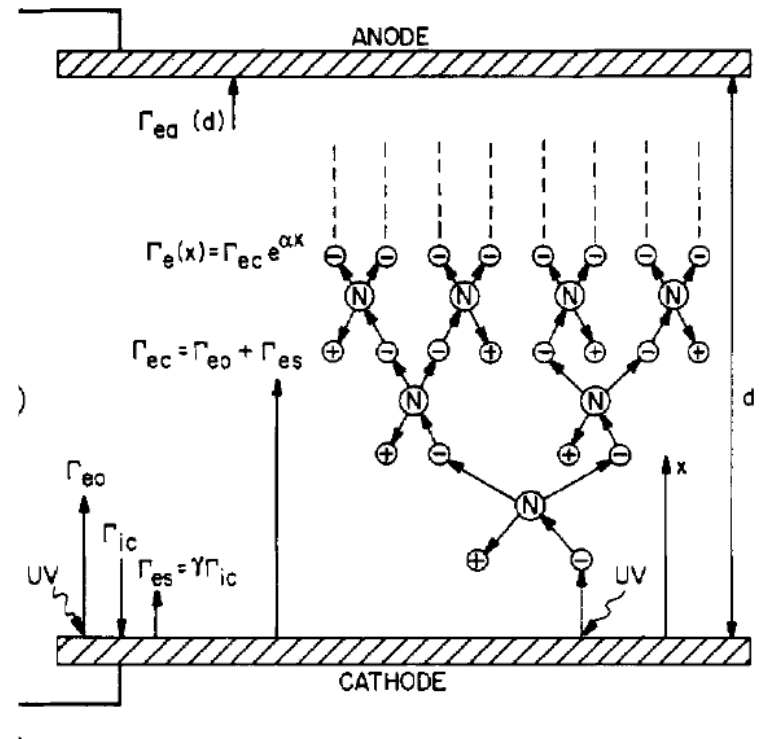
- Volume ionization source from the ionization of the background gas by energetic electrons accelerated in the electric field:

$$S_e = R_e = n_e n_0 \langle \sigma v \rangle_{ne}$$

# Chain reaction or avalanche of electron and ion production occurs in a strong electric field



1. The electrons initially produced in the creation of ion-electron pairs by ionizing radiation or from other sources are accelerated in the electric field of the discharge tube.
2. If the electric field is high enough, the electrons can acquire sufficient energy before reaching the anode to ionize another neutral atom.
3. As the electric field becomes stronger, these secondary electrons may themselves ionize a third neutral atom leading to a chain reaction, or avalanche of electron and ion production.



# Special case I



- **Assumption:**
  - No recombination or loss of electrons occurs.
  - Initiating electrons are emitted from the cathode, with no contribution by volume ionization.
- Townsend's first ionization coefficient,  $\alpha$ : the number of ionizing collisions made on the average by an electron as it travels 1 m along the electric field:

$$\alpha \sim \frac{1}{\lambda_i} = \frac{\nu_{ei}}{\bar{v}_e} = \frac{n_0 \langle \sigma v_e \rangle_{ne}}{\bar{v}_e}$$

- **Differential electron flux:**

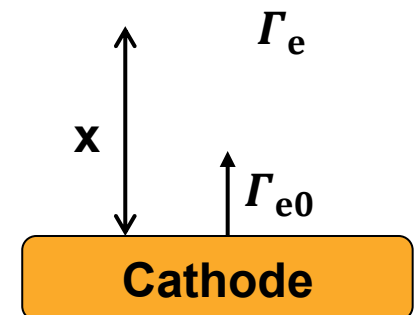
$$d\Gamma_e = \alpha \Gamma_e dx$$

$$\Gamma_e = \Gamma_{e0} e^{\alpha x}$$

$$\int_{\Gamma_{e0}}^{\Gamma_e} \frac{d\Gamma_e}{\Gamma_e} = \int_0^x \alpha dx$$

$$J_e = e\Gamma_e = J_{e0} e^{\alpha x} \quad (\text{A/m}^2)$$

$$I_e = I_{e0} e^{\alpha x} = A J_{e0} e^{\alpha x} \quad (\text{A})$$





# Special case II



- **Assumption:**
  - No recombination or loss of electrons occurs.
  - No cathode emission, i.e.,  $\Gamma_{e0}=0$ .
  - Significant volume source of electrons throughout the discharge volume.
- **Differential electron flux:**

$$d\Gamma_e = \alpha\Gamma_e dx + S_e dx$$

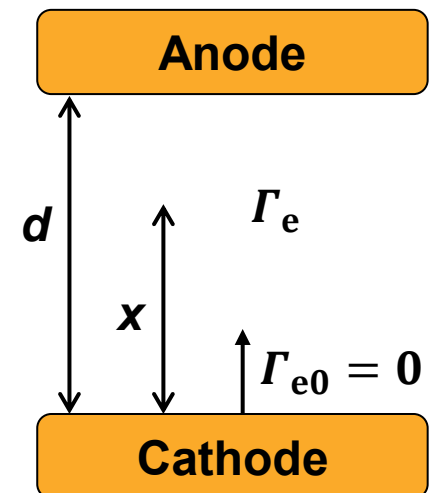
$$\int_0^{\Gamma_e} \frac{1}{\alpha\Gamma_e + S_e} d\Gamma_e = \int_0^x dx = \frac{\ln(\alpha\Gamma_e + S_e)}{\alpha} \Big|_0^{\Gamma_e}$$

$$\Gamma_e = \frac{S_e}{\alpha} (e^{\alpha x} - 1)$$

$$J_e = \frac{J_s}{\alpha d} (e^{\alpha x} - 1)$$

$$J_e = e\Gamma_e = \frac{eS_e}{\alpha} (e^{\alpha x} - 1)$$

$$J_s = edS_e$$



# Derivation of Townsend's first ionization coefficient



$$\frac{1}{\lambda_i} = \frac{\nu_{ei}}{\bar{v}_e} = \frac{n_0 \langle \sigma v_e \rangle_{ne}}{\bar{v}_e} = \frac{p}{T} \frac{\langle \sigma v \rangle_{ne}}{\bar{v}_e} \equiv Ap \qquad A \equiv \frac{1}{T} \frac{\langle \sigma v \rangle_{ne}}{\bar{v}_e}$$

- Number of primary electrons with energy higher than the ionization potential:

$$dn_e = -n_e \frac{dx_i}{\lambda_i} \Rightarrow \frac{n_e(x_i)}{n_{e0}} = \exp\left(-\frac{x_i}{\lambda_i}\right)$$

$$\alpha \equiv \frac{\text{\# / ionization collisions}}{\text{per electron}} \times (\text{\# / electron with } E > \text{ionization potential})$$

$$= \frac{1}{\lambda_i} \frac{n_e(x_i)}{n_{e0}} = \frac{1}{\lambda_i} \exp\left(-\frac{x_i}{\lambda_i}\right)$$

$$\alpha = Ap \exp(-Ap x_i)$$

$$\frac{\alpha}{p} = A \exp\left(-\frac{AV^*}{E/p}\right) \equiv A \exp\left(-\frac{C}{E/p}\right) \equiv f\left(\frac{E}{p}\right)$$

$$x_i \approx \frac{V^*}{E} \text{ where } V^* > V_i$$

- The parameters A and C must be experimentally determined.

# Phenomenological constants $A$ and $C$ of Townsend's first ionization coefficient for selected gases



| Gas              | $A$<br>ion pairs/m-Torr | $C$<br>V/m-Torr |
|------------------|-------------------------|-----------------|
| A                | 1200                    | 20 000          |
| Air              | 1220                    | 36 500          |
| CO <sub>2</sub>  | 2000*                   | 46 600          |
| H <sub>2</sub>   | 1060                    | 35 000          |
| HCl              | 2500*                   | 38 000          |
| He               | 182                     | 5 000           |
| Hg               | 2000                    | 37 000          |
| H <sub>2</sub> O | 1290*                   | 28 900          |
| Kr               | 1450                    | 22 000          |
| N <sub>2</sub>   | 1060                    | 34 200          |
| Ne               | 400                     | 10 000          |
| Xe               | 2220                    | 31 000          |

\* These values may be high by as much as a factor of two.

# Stoletow point is the pressure for maximum current



- Stoletow experimentally found that for a given electric field between the plates, there is an air pressure in the Townsend discharge where the current is a maximum.

$$p_{\max} = \frac{E}{37200} \text{ (Torr)}$$

$$\frac{\alpha}{p} = A \exp\left(-\frac{C}{E/p}\right)$$

$$\frac{\alpha}{p} = f\left(\frac{E}{p}\right)$$

$$\frac{d\alpha}{dp} = A \left[1 - p \frac{C}{E}\right] \exp\left(-\frac{Cp}{E}\right) = 0$$

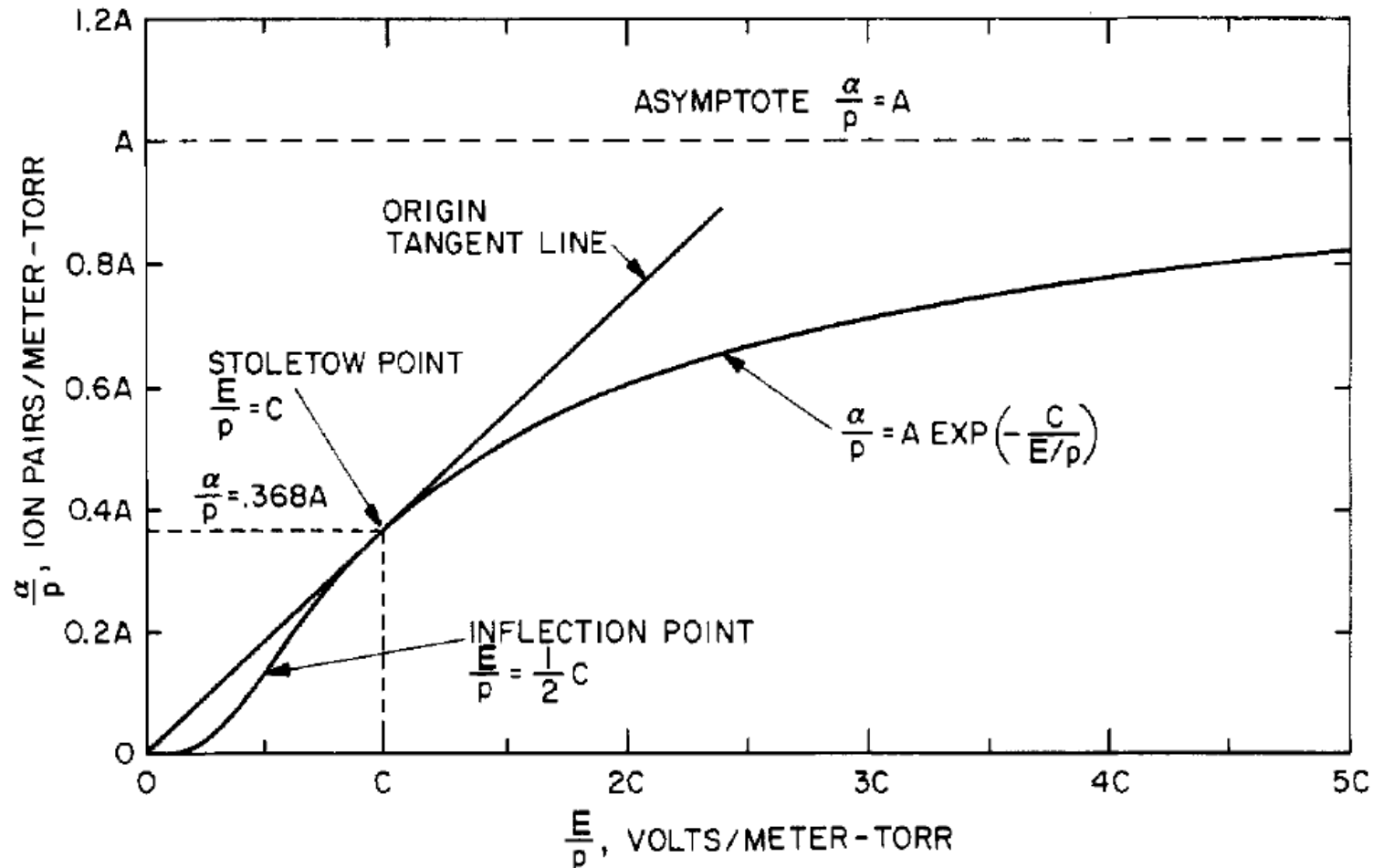
$$\frac{d\alpha}{dp} = \frac{d}{dp} \left[ p f\left(\frac{E}{p}\right) \right] \equiv 0$$

$$p_{\max} = \frac{E}{C} = \frac{E}{36500} \text{ for air}$$

$$f\left(\frac{E}{p}\right) - p \frac{E}{p^2} f'\left(\frac{E}{p}\right) = \frac{\alpha}{p} - \frac{E}{p} f'\left(\frac{E}{p}\right) = 0$$

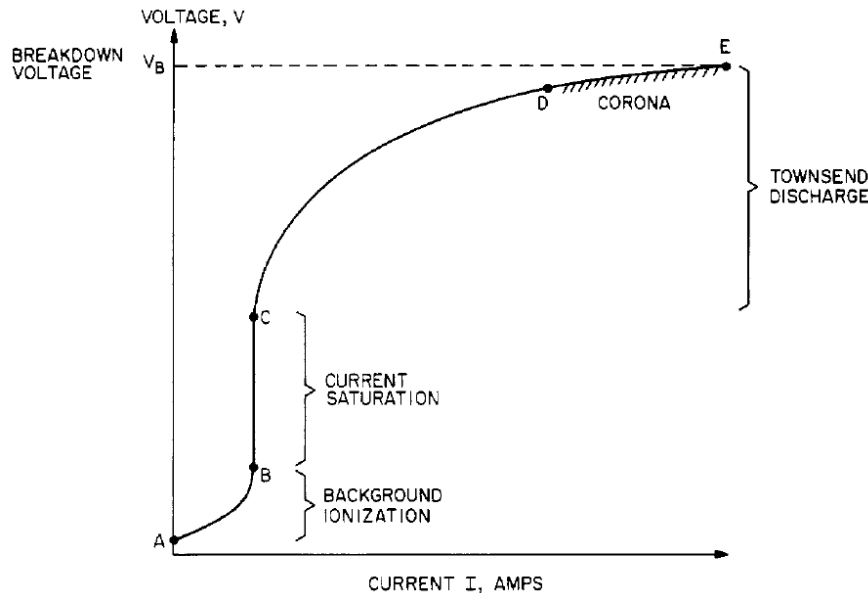
$$\left(\frac{\alpha/p}{E/p}\right) = f'\left(\frac{E}{p}\right) = \tan\theta$$

The current will be a maximum when the tangent to the  $\alpha/p$  versus  $E/p$  curve intersects the origin



- Stoletow point is the minimum of the Paschen breakdown curve for gases.

# Corona discharge (unipolar discharge) is a very low current, continuous phenomenon



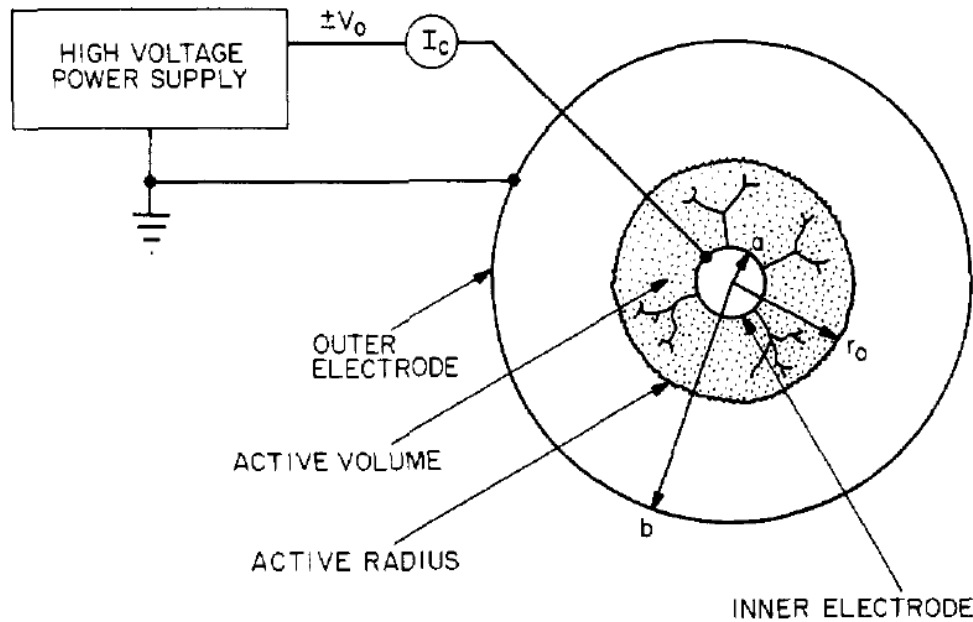
- Break down condition for dry air:

$$E_B = 3000 + \frac{1.35}{d} \text{ kV/m}$$

$$V_B = 3000d + 1.35 \text{ kV}$$

- Corona can initiate on sharp points at potentials as low as 5 kV.
- It can initiate from sharp points, fine wires, sharp edges, asperities, scratches or anything which creates a localized electric field greater than the breakdown electric field of the medium surrounding it.
- It can be a “glow discharge”, i.e., visible to eyes. For low currents, the entire corona is dark.

# Phenomenology of corona generated by a fine wire

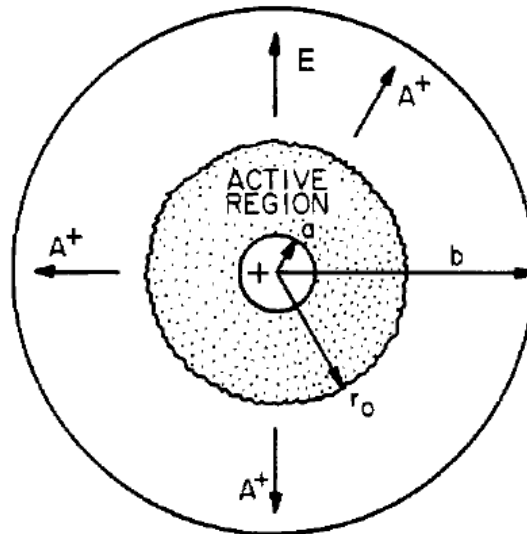


- The point of corona initiation is that point at which the voltage on the inner conductor of radius  $a$  is high enough that corona is just detectable.
- The electric field will drop off to the breakdown value at a radius  $r_0$  called the active radius.

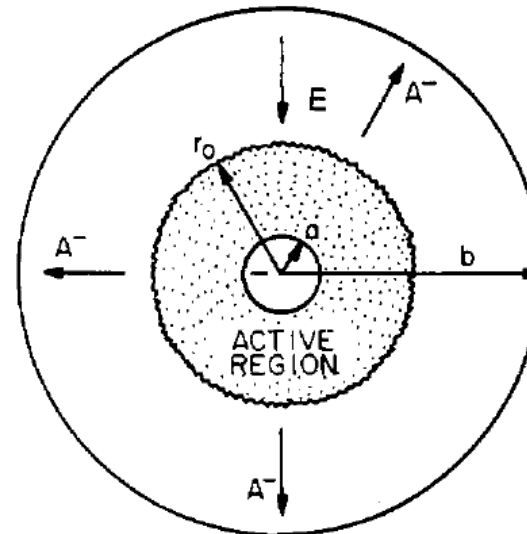
# Corona can occur for both positive and negative polarity



- **Positive polarity**



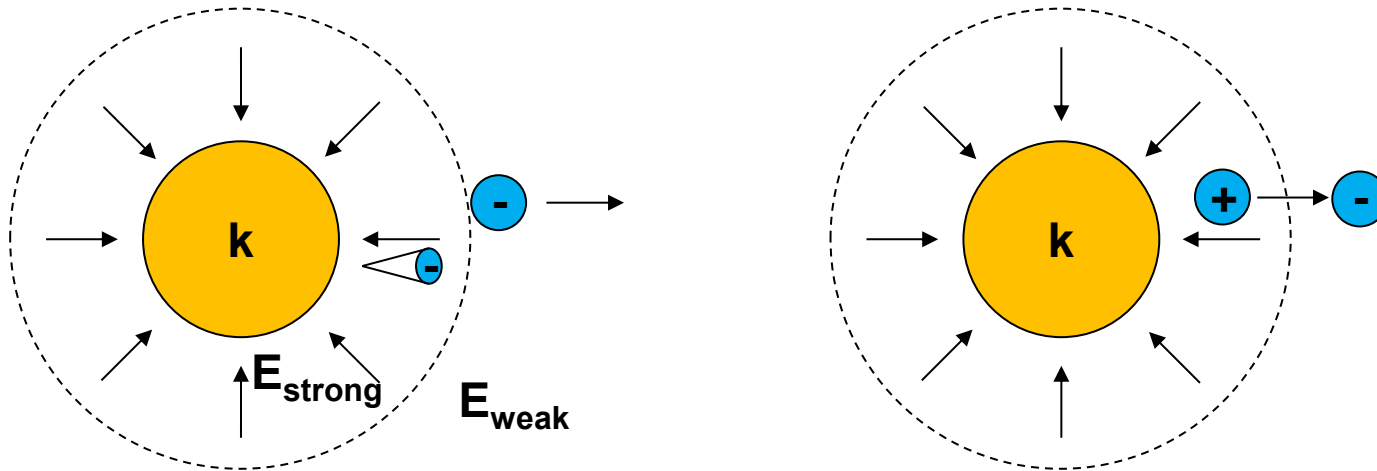
- **Negative polarity**



- The initiation voltages or coronal current are slightly different between positive and negative polarity.
- A continuous (positive polarity, DC) or intermittent (negative polarity, usually) current, usually in the order of  $\mu\text{A} \sim \text{mA}$  per decimeter of length will flow to the power supply.

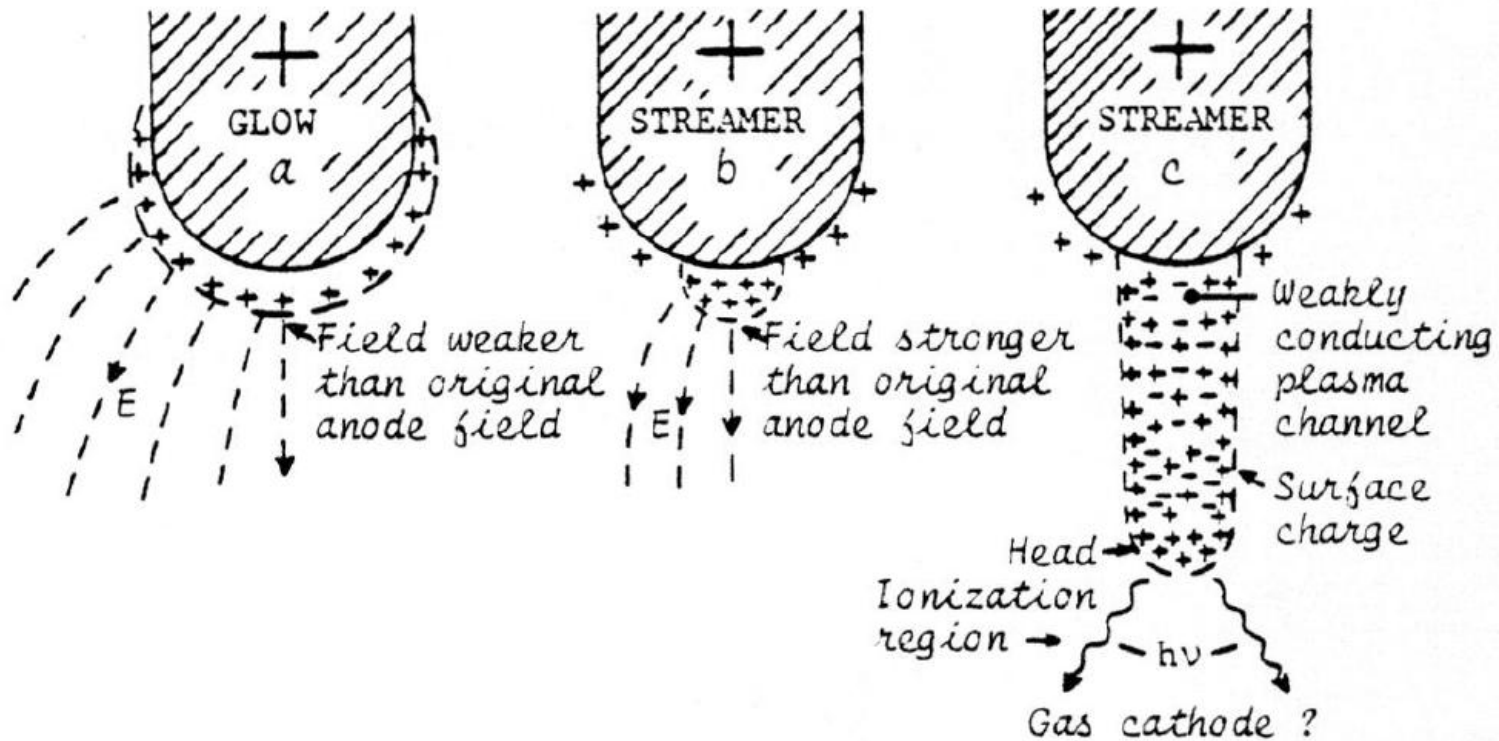


# Negative point corona, also known as Trichel pulses



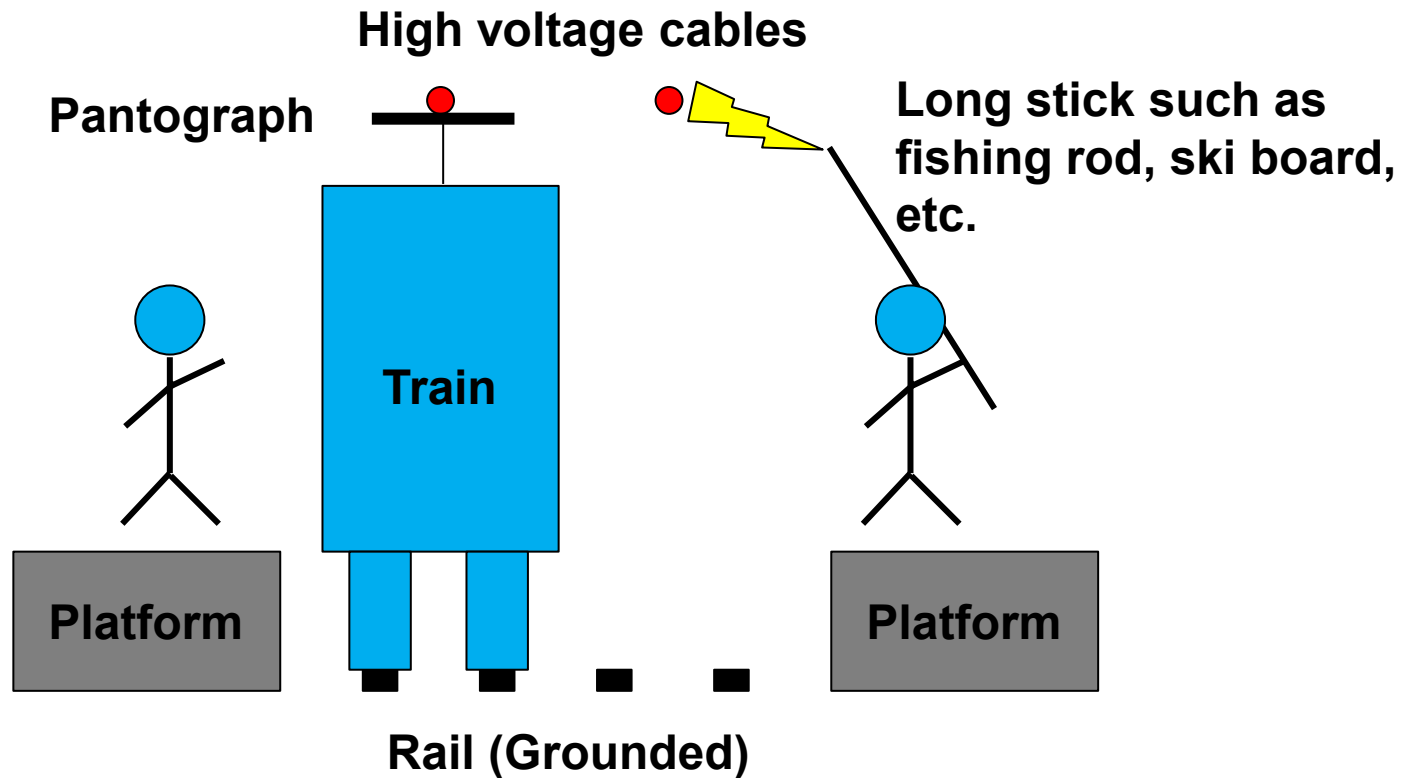
- Avalanche toward anode occurs in the strong electric field region.
- No further ionization occurs in the weak field region.
- Electrons are slow down by positively charged ions (ion+) behind.
- Electrons attach to gas molecules forming negatively charged ions (ion-).
- The presence of the negative ions reduces the electric field at the point electrode and the discharge extinguishes.
- When positively/negatively charged ions drifted away, the original high-field conditions are re-established

# Positive point corona



- Electron avalanche initiated near the high-field region propagating toward anode.
- Streamer is developed.
- Lateral avalanches feed into the streamer core.

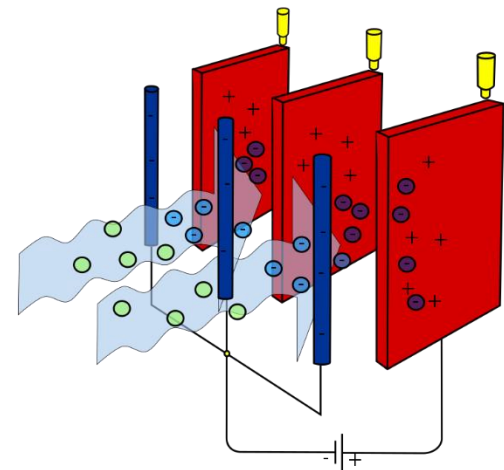
# Don't bring a long stick to a train station



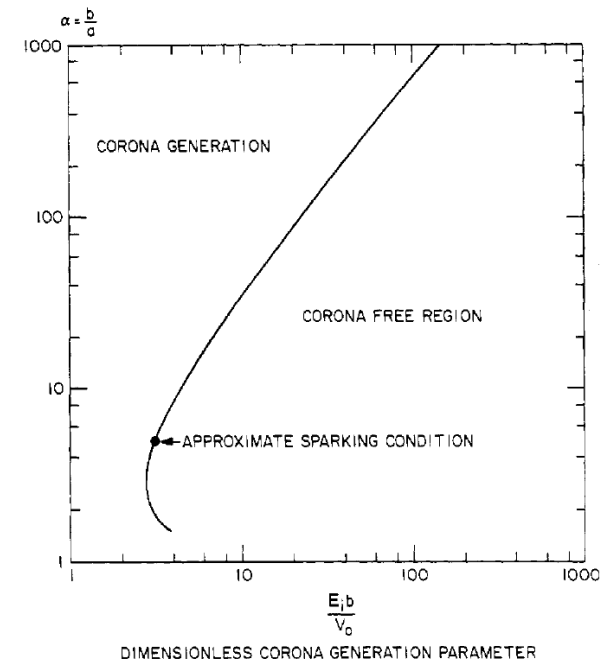
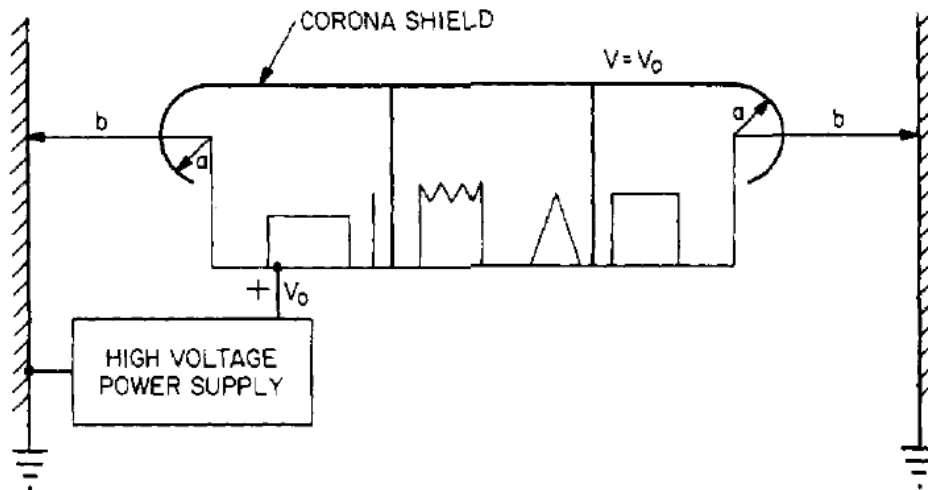
# A corona discharge causes some problems even no breakdown occurs



- Ozone ( $O_3$ ) is generated.
- Rubber is destroyed by  $O_3$ .
- $NO_3^+$  is generated with moisture.
- Disadvantage:
  - Power losses.
  - Radio frequency (RF) interference.
  - Reduce the service life of solid and liquid insulation via initiating partial discharge.
  - Chemical decomposition.
- Advantage:
  - Pseudospark discharge – fast switch.
  - Electrostatic precipitator (dust remover) using corona discharge.
  - Hair dryer



# A corona shield is used to suppress corona



- **Cylindrical approximation:**

$$E_s = \frac{V_0}{a \ln(b/a)} = \frac{bV_0}{a b \ln(b/a)} \quad \chi \equiv \frac{b}{a}$$

$$E_s \equiv E_i \text{ (} E \text{ @ surface for corona initiation)}$$

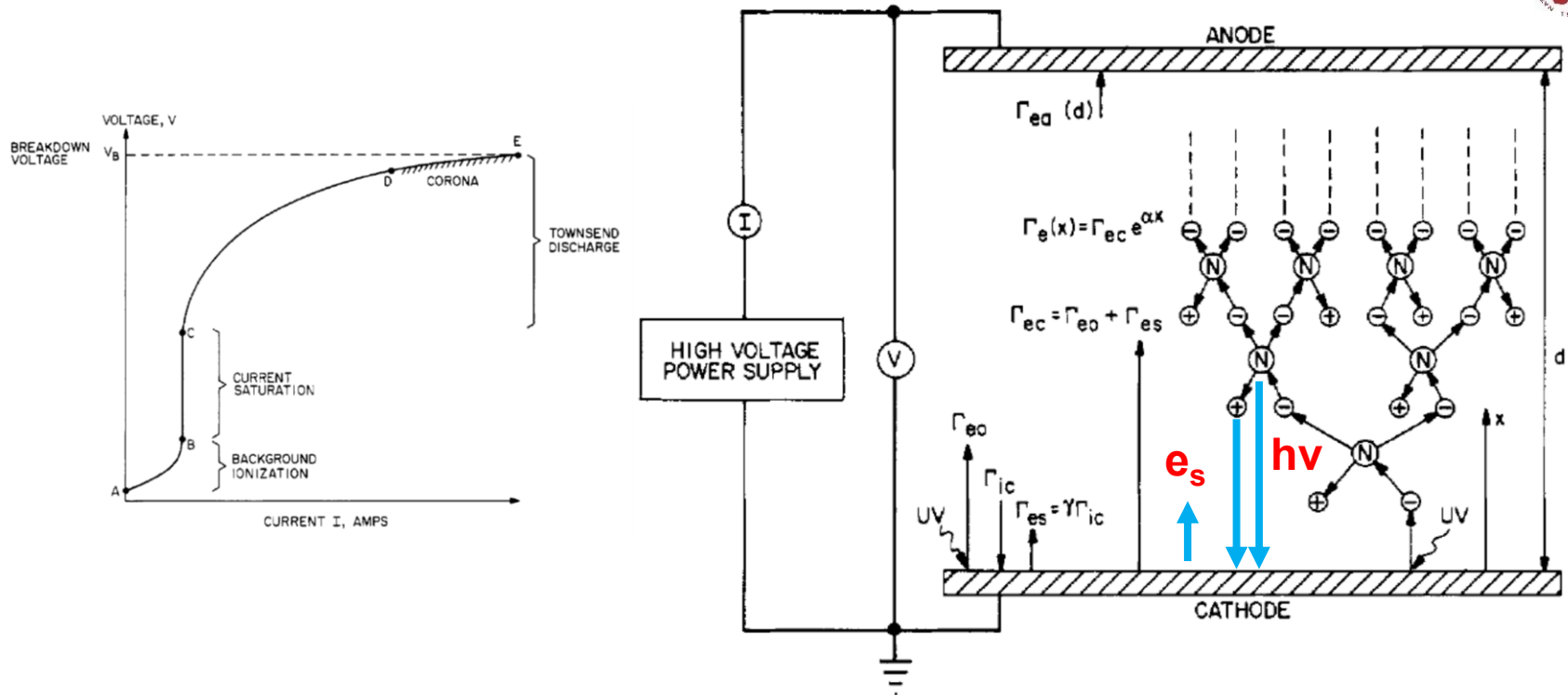
$$\Rightarrow \frac{E_i b}{V_0} = \frac{\chi}{\ln \chi}$$

- For  $b=0.5 \text{ m}$ ,  $V_0=50 \text{ kV}$ ,  $E_i \sim E_B \sim 3 \text{ MV/m}$

$$\frac{E_B b}{V_0} = \frac{3 \times 10^6 \times 0.5}{5 \times 10^4} = 30 = \frac{\chi}{\ln \chi}$$

$$\chi \approx 150, \text{ i.e., } a = 0.33 \text{ mm}$$

# Electrical breakdown occurs when applied voltage is greater than the breakdown voltage



- **Primary electrons:** electrons from the cathode due to photoemission, background radiation, or other processes.
- **Secondary electrons:** electrons emitted from the cathode per incident ion or photon created from ionization in gas.

# Derivation of electrical breakdown



- Secondary electron emission coefficient:

$$\gamma \equiv \frac{\text{\# / of electrons emitted}}{\text{\# / of incident ions or photons}}$$

$$\Gamma_{es} = \gamma \Gamma_{ic}$$

$$\Gamma_{ec} = \Gamma_{e0} + \Gamma_{es}$$

$$I_{ea} = I_{ec} + I_{ic} \Rightarrow \Gamma_{ea} = \Gamma_{ec} + \Gamma_{ic}$$

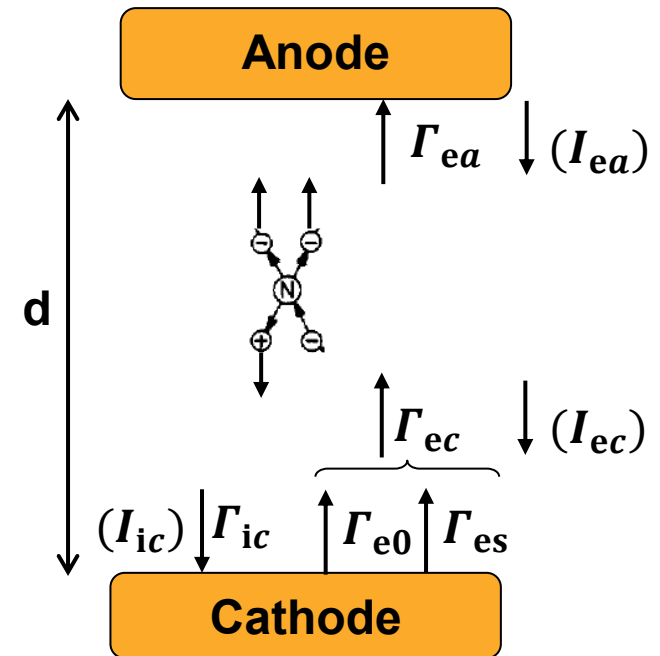
$$\Gamma_{ea} - \Gamma_{ec} = \Gamma_{ic} = \frac{\Gamma_{es}}{\gamma} \quad (\Gamma_{ea} = \Gamma_{ec} e^{\alpha d})$$

$$\Gamma_{es} = \gamma(\Gamma_{ea} - \Gamma_{ec}) = \gamma \Gamma_{ec}(e^{\alpha d} - 1)$$

$$\Gamma_{ec} = \Gamma_{es} + \Gamma_{e0} = \gamma \Gamma_{ec}(e^{\alpha d} - 1) + \Gamma_{e0}$$

$$\Gamma_{ec} = \frac{\Gamma_{e0}}{1 - \gamma(e^{\alpha d} - 1)}$$

$$\Gamma_{ea} = \Gamma_{e0} \frac{e^{\alpha d}}{1 - \gamma(e^{\alpha d} - 1)} \quad (\text{electrons}/m^2 - s)$$



$$J = J_0 \frac{e^{\alpha d}}{1 - \gamma(e^{\alpha d} - 1)} \quad (A/m^2)$$

# The Townsend condition for ignition (avalanche grows)



$$J = J_0 \frac{e^{\alpha d}}{1 - \gamma(e^{\alpha d} - 1)} (A/m^2)$$

- The Townsend condition for ignition or called avalanche grows occurs when

$$1 - \gamma(e^{\alpha d} - 1) = 0$$

$$\gamma e^{\alpha d} = \gamma + 1 \quad \text{or} \quad \ln\left(1 + \frac{1}{\gamma}\right) = \alpha d$$

$$A p d \exp\left(-\frac{C p d}{V_B}\right) = \ln\left(1 + \frac{1}{\gamma}\right)$$

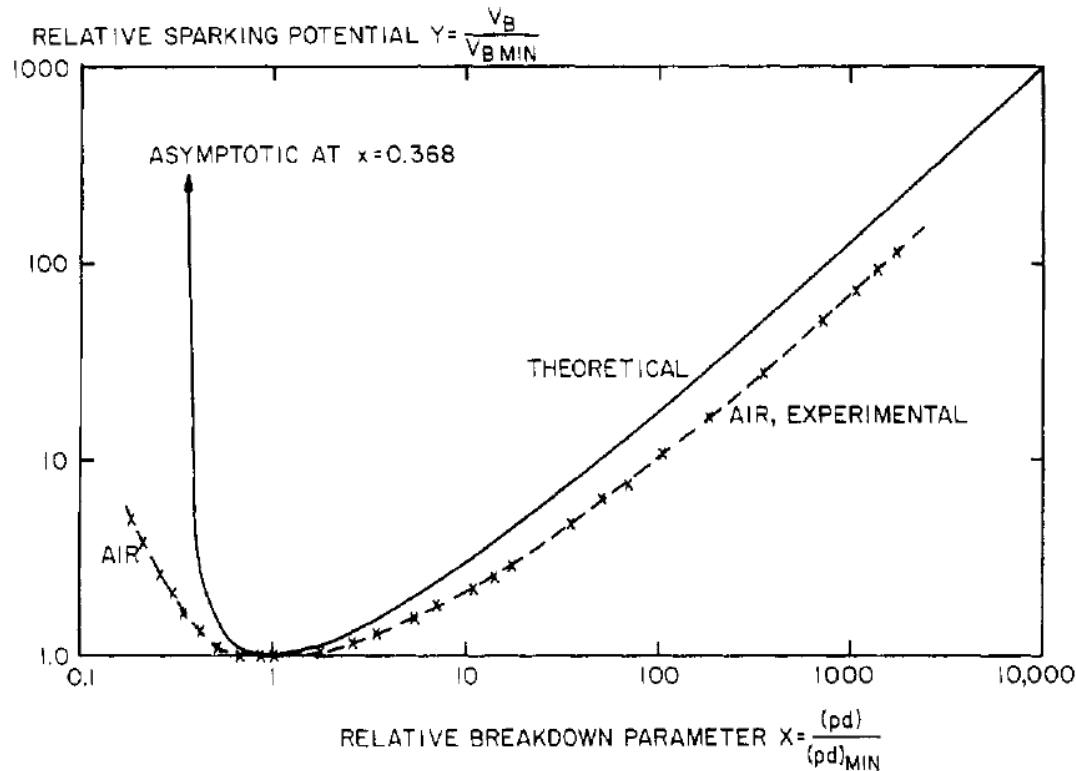
$$\frac{\alpha}{p} = A \exp\left(-\frac{C}{E/p}\right) \quad E_B = \frac{V_B}{d}$$

$$V_B = \frac{C p d}{\ln\left[\frac{A p d}{\ln\left(1 + \frac{1}{\gamma}\right)}\right]} = f(pd)$$

$$(pd)_{\min} = \frac{e}{A} \ln\left(1 + \frac{1}{\gamma}\right) = \frac{2.718}{A} \ln\left(1 + \frac{1}{\gamma}\right) \quad V_{B,\min} = 2.718 \frac{C}{A} \ln\left(1 + \frac{1}{\gamma}\right)$$



# Universal Paschen's curve

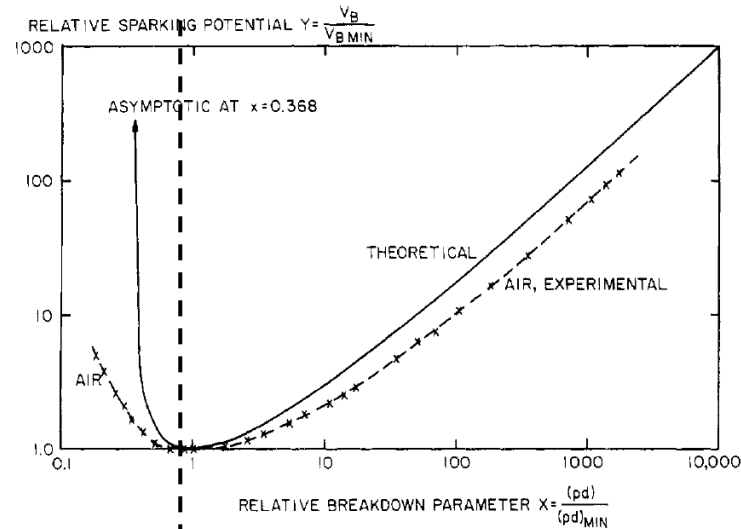


$$V_B = \frac{Cpd}{\ln \left[ \frac{Apd}{\ln \left( 1 + \frac{1}{\gamma} \right)} \right]} = f(pd)$$

$$Y \equiv \frac{V_B}{V_{B,min}} \quad X \equiv \frac{pd}{(pd)_{min}}$$

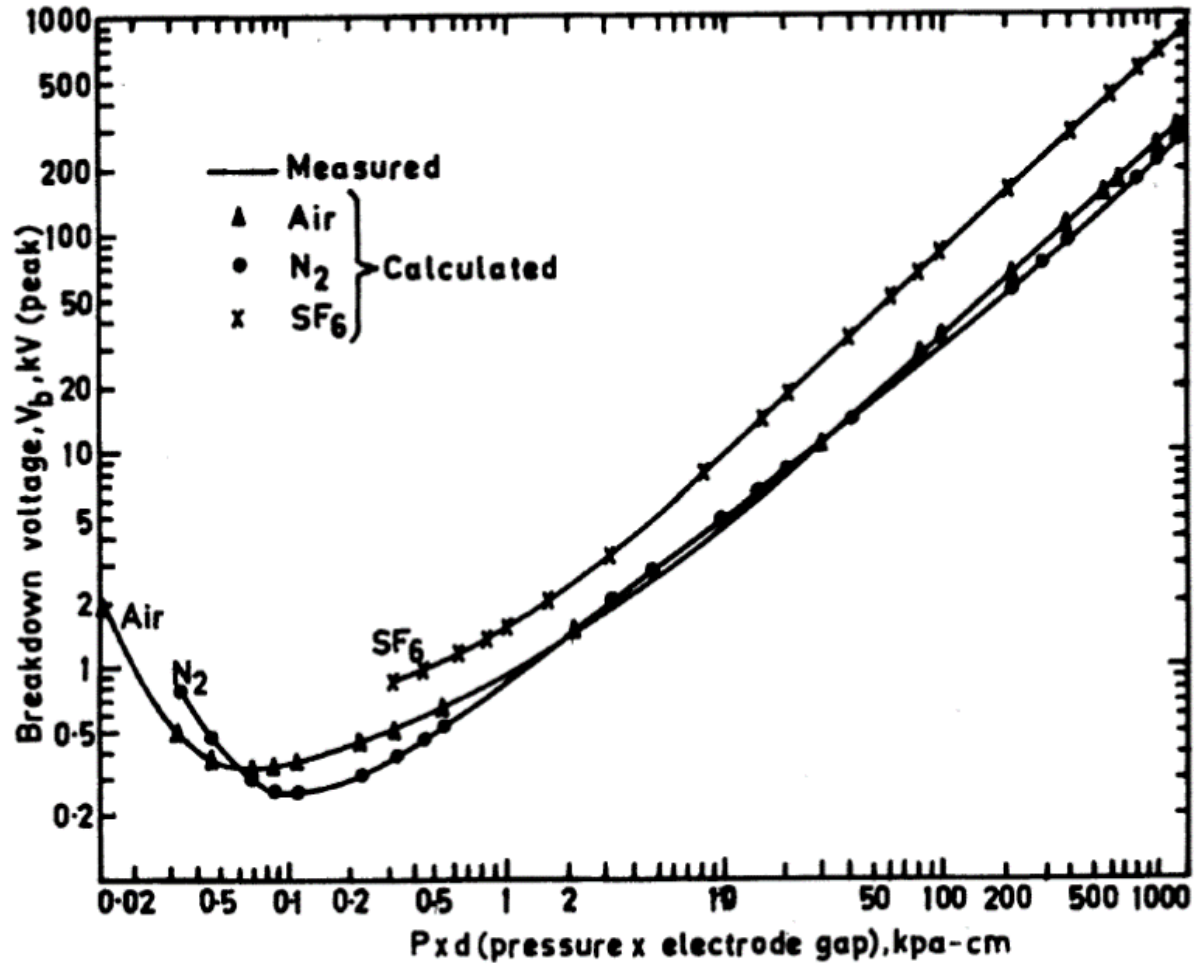
$$Y = \frac{V_B}{V_{B,min}} = \frac{X}{1 + \ln X}$$

# Collision frequency and electron energy gained from electric field are both important to electrical breakdown



- Collision is not frequent enough even the electrons gain large energy between each collision.
- Electrons do not gain enough energy between each collision even collisions happen frequently.
- The minimum of the Paschen's curve corresponds to the Stoletow point, the pressure at which the volumetric ionization rate is a maximum.

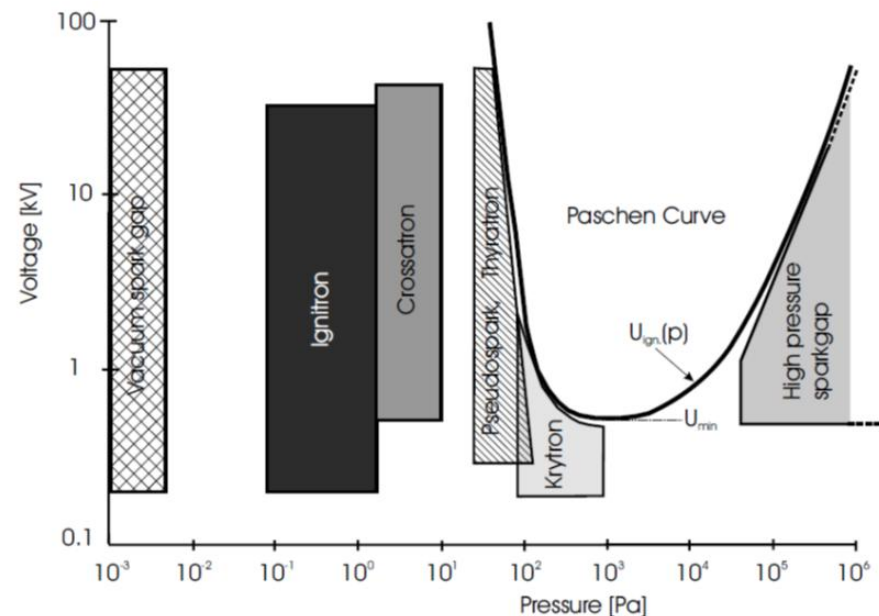
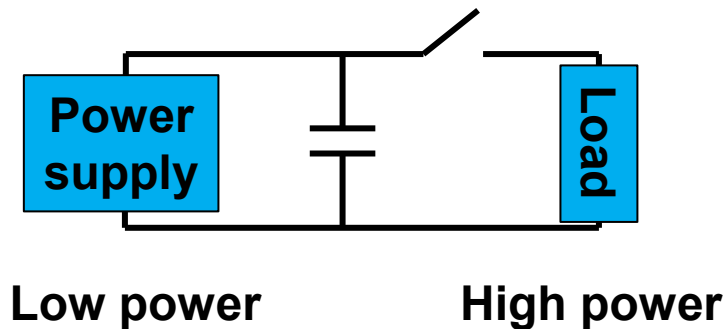
# Experimental Paschen's curve



# Paschen's curve is used to design different high voltage high current switches in pulsed-power system



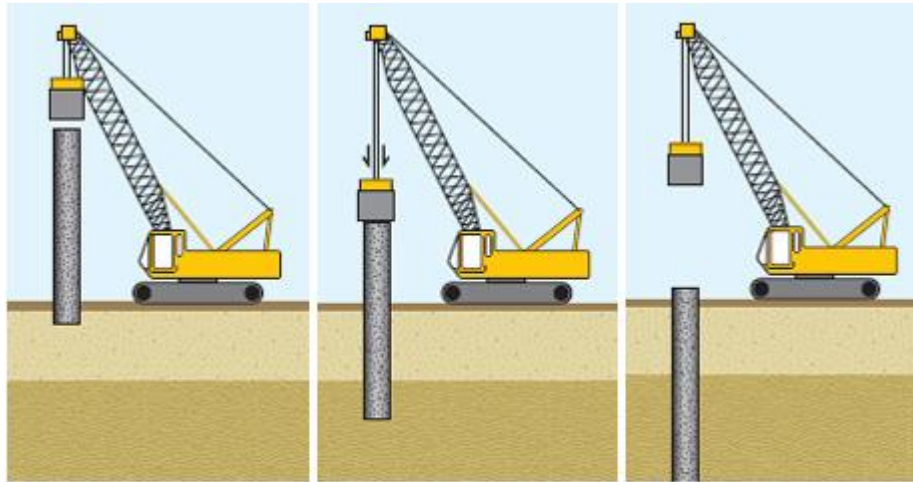
- Pulsed-power system



# Driven piles - prefabricated steel, wood or concrete piles are driven into the ground using impact hammers



- Driven piles



PLACEMENT OF PILE

INSTALLATION OF PILE

REPETITION OF PROCESS

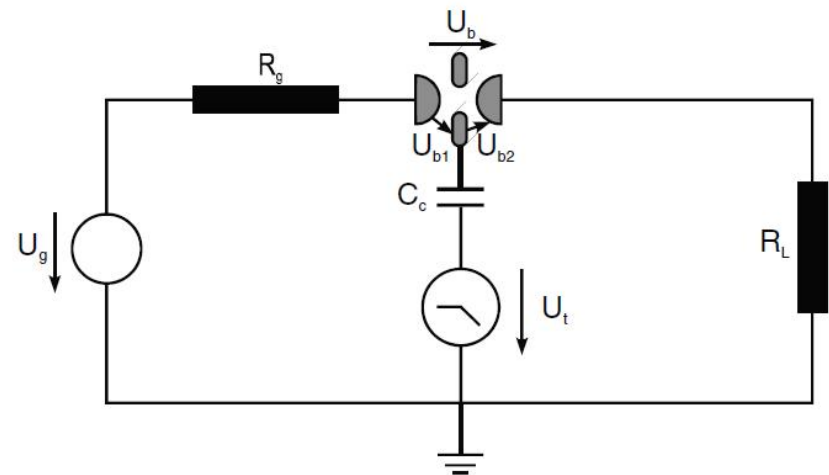
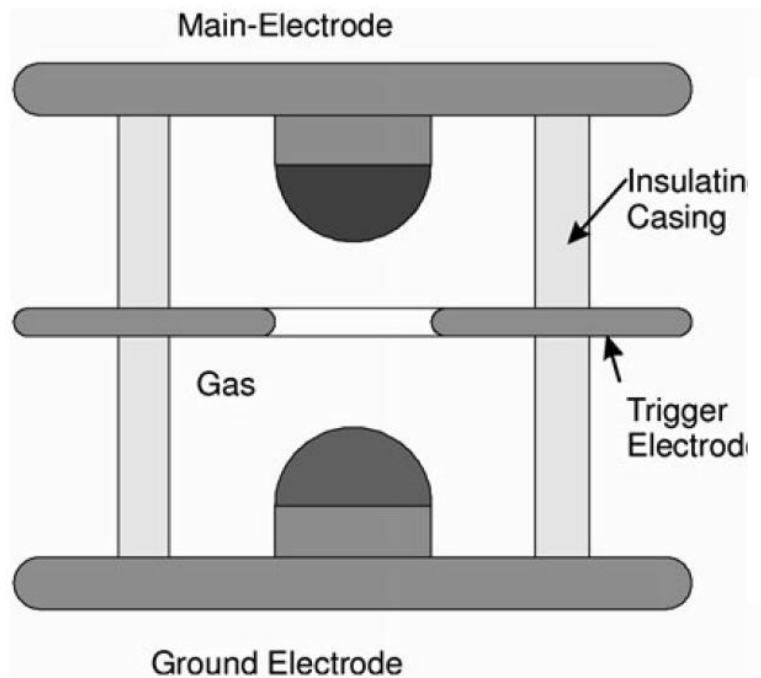
- Hammer



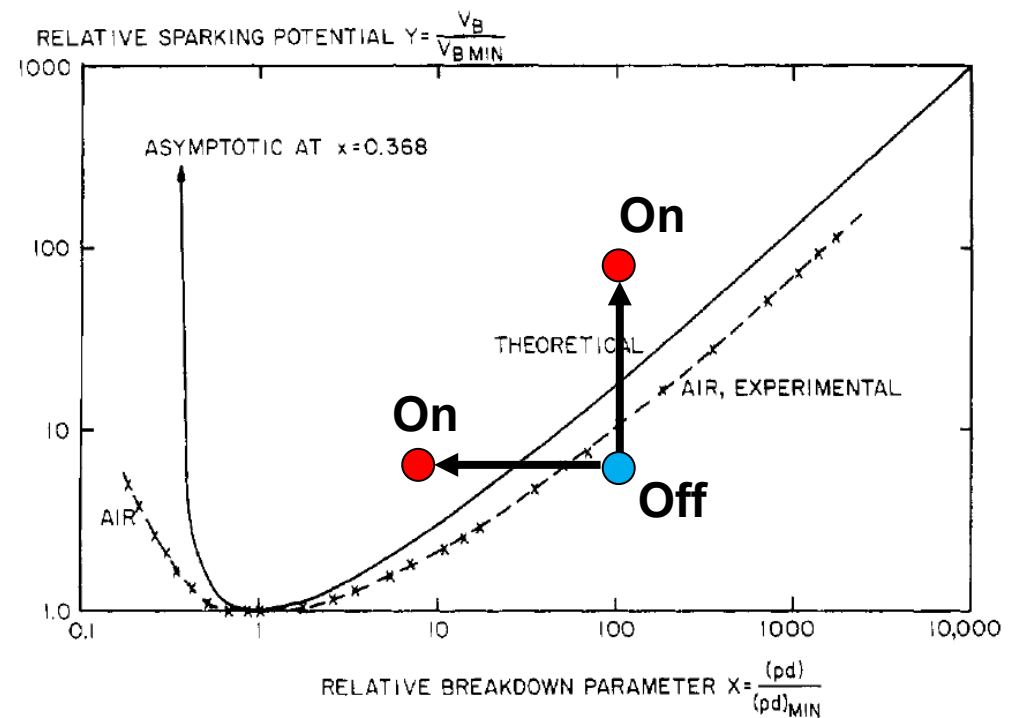
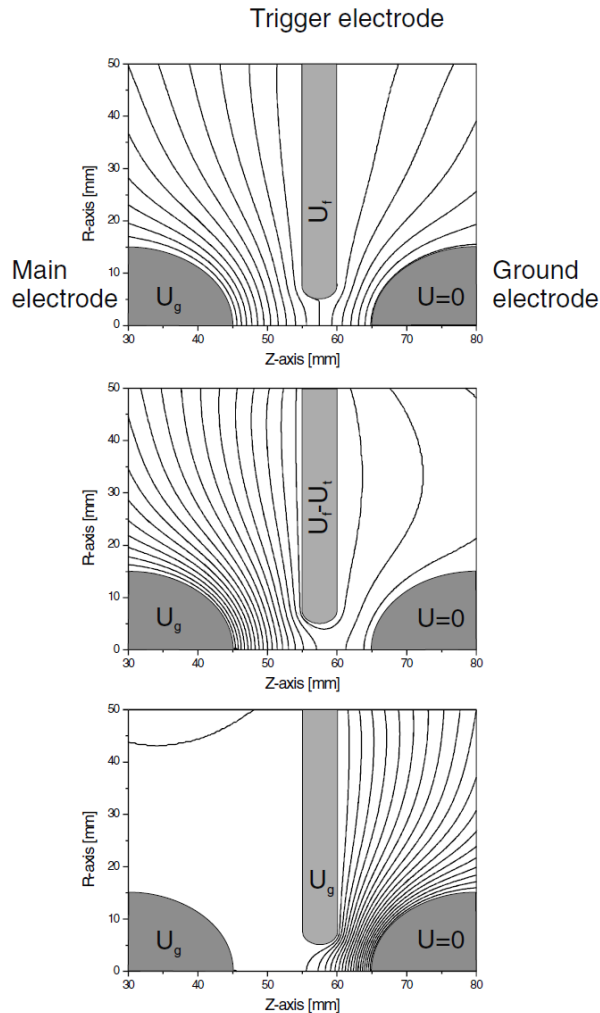
# Example of short pulses with a controllable repetition rate



# Spark-gap switch



# A spark gap switch is closed when electron breakdown occurs

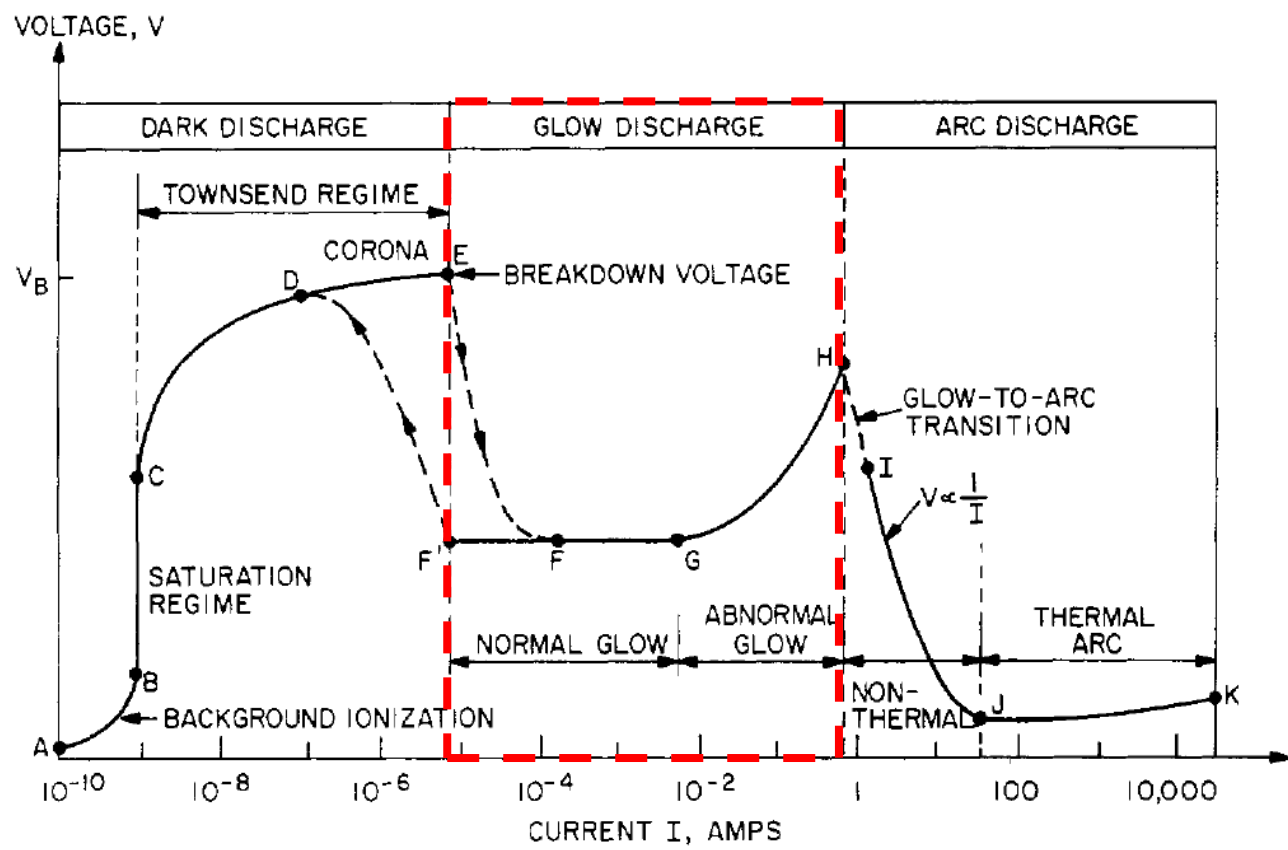




# DC electrical glow discharges in gases



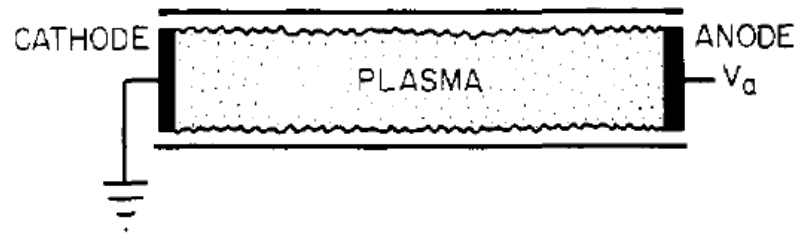
- The internal resistance of the power supply is relatively low, then the gas will break down at the voltage  $V_B$ , and the discharge tube will move from the dark discharge regime into the low pressure normal glow discharge regime.



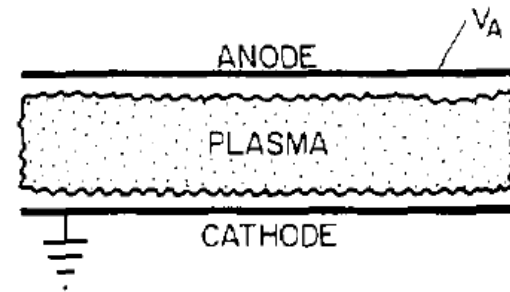
# The plasma is luminous in the glow discharge regime



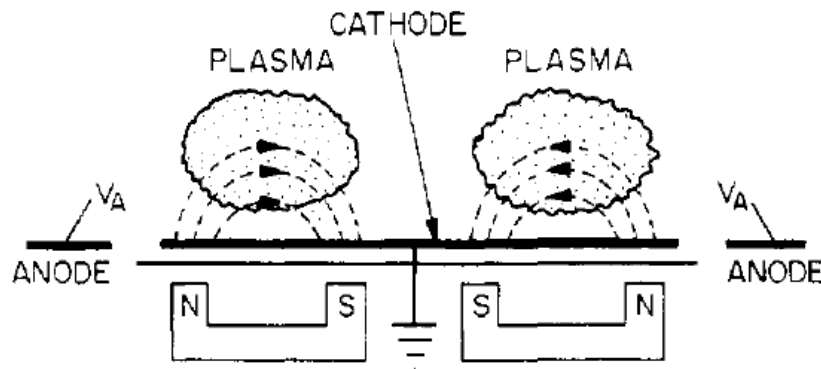
- The luminosity arises because the electron energy and number density are high enough to generate visible light by excitation collisions.



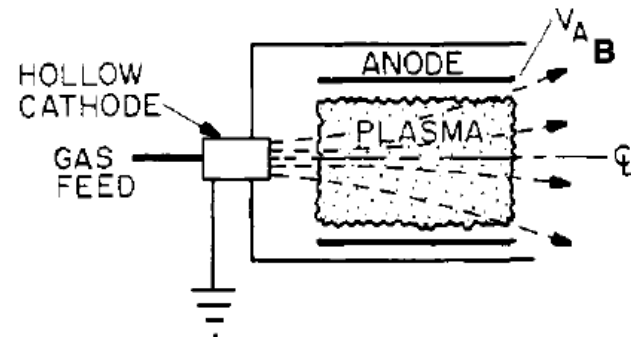
CLASSICAL DC ELECTRICAL DISCHARGE TUBE



PARALLEL PLATE PLASMA REACTOR

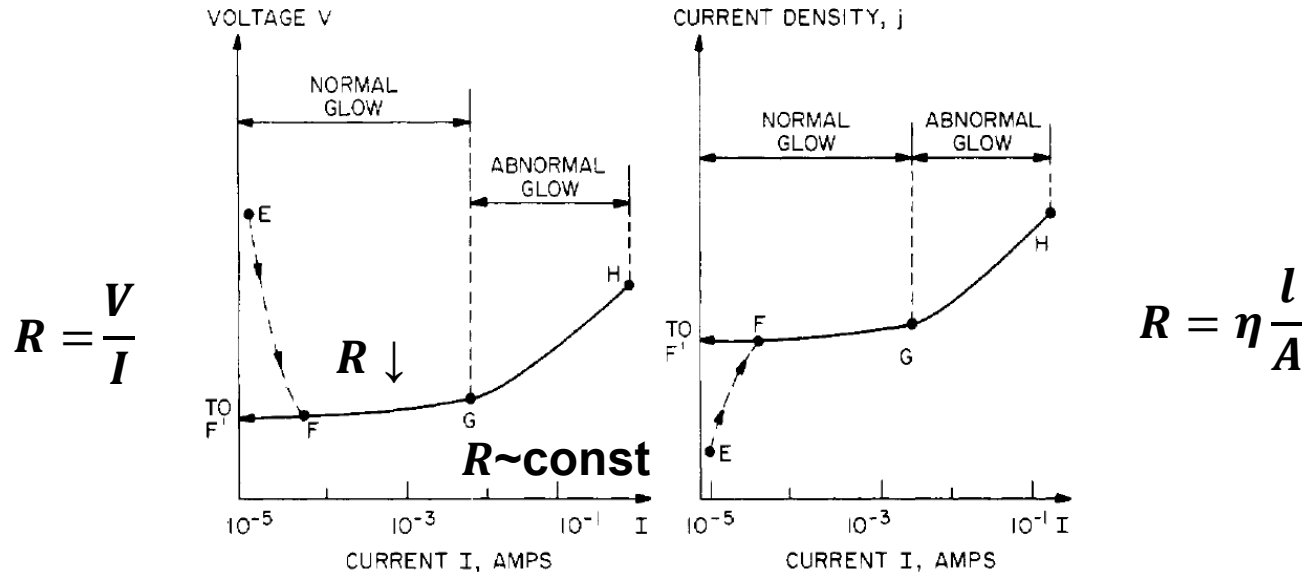


COPLANAR MAGNETRON REACTOR

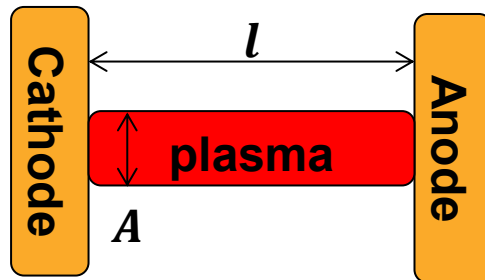


COAXIAL ELECTRON BOMBARDMENT DISCHARGE CHAMBER

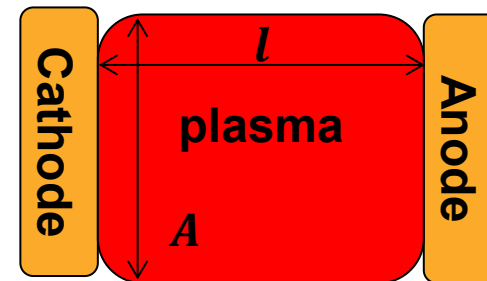
# Abnormal glow discharge occurs when the cross section of the plasma covers the entire surface of the cathode



- Normal glow discharge:



- Abnormal glow discharge:



- Surface cleaning using plasma needs to work in the abnormal glow discharge region.

# Plasma cleaning needs to work in the regime of abnormal glow discharge



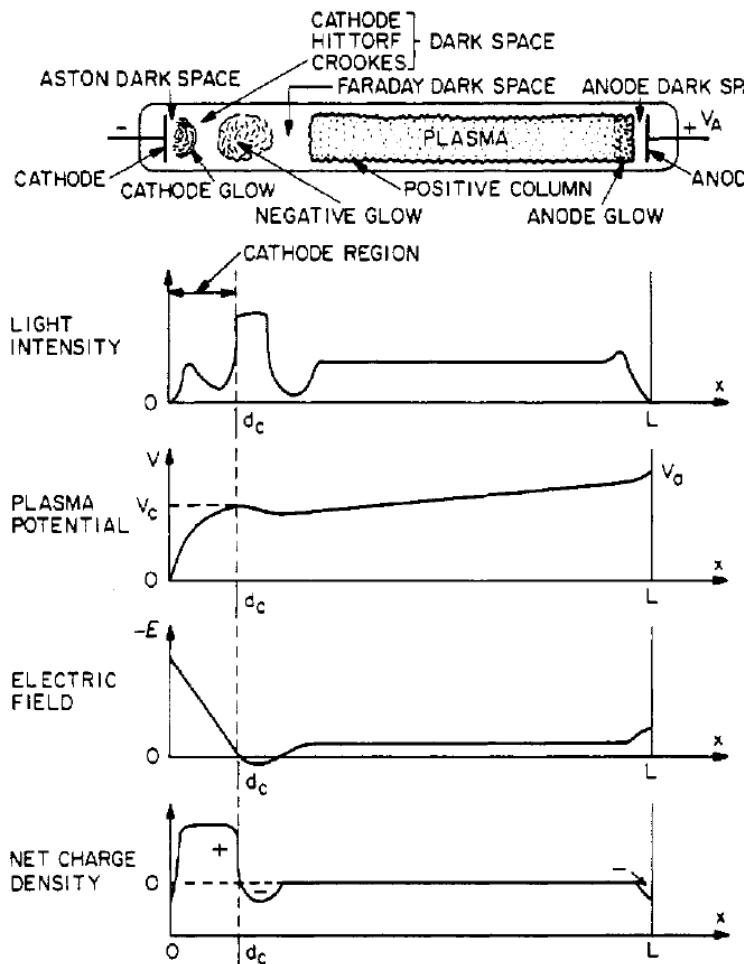
- Top view



- Side view

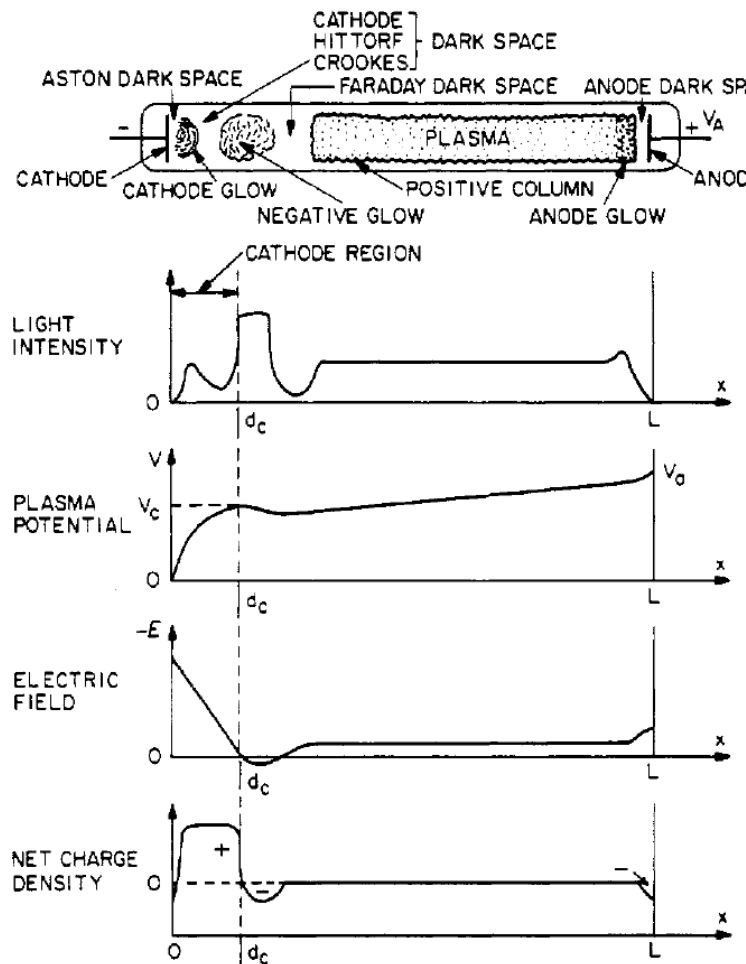


# Low pressure normal glow discharge



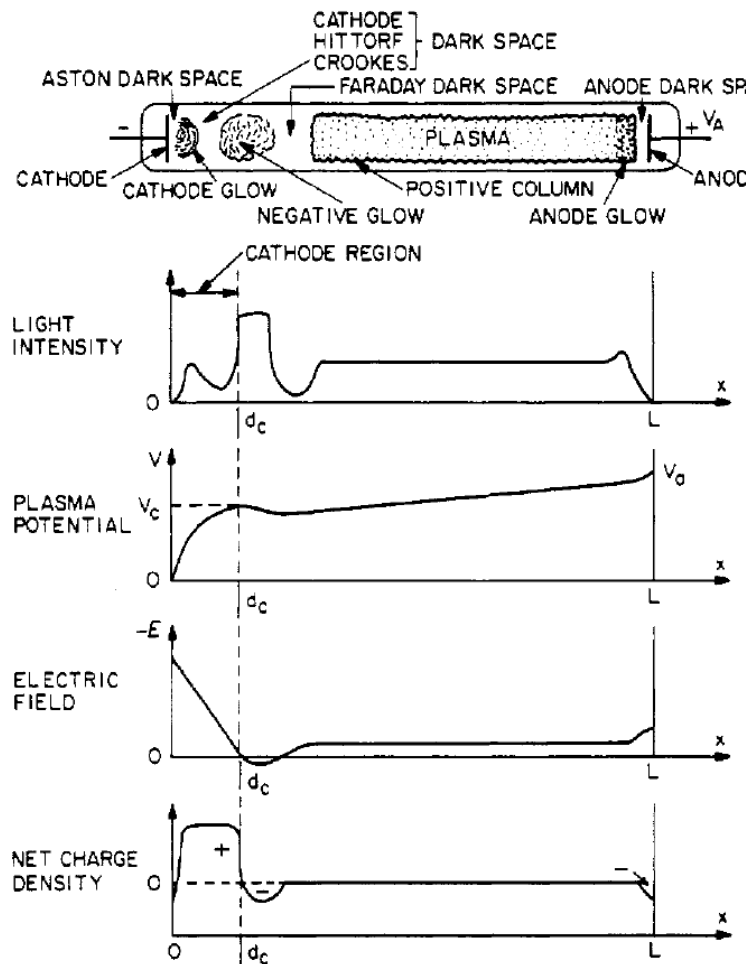
- **Cathode**: made of an electrically conducting metal with 2<sup>nd</sup> e<sup>-</sup> emission  $\gamma$ , of which has a significant effect on the operation of the discharge tube.
- **Aston dark space**: a thin region with a strong electric field and a negative space charge. The electrons are of too low a density and/or energy to excite the gas, so it appears dark.
- **Cathode glow**: has a relatively high ion number density. The length depends on the type of gas and the gas pressure.
- **Cathode (Crookes, Hittorf) dark space**: has a moderate electric field, a positive space charge, and a relatively high ion density.

# Low pressure normal glow discharge



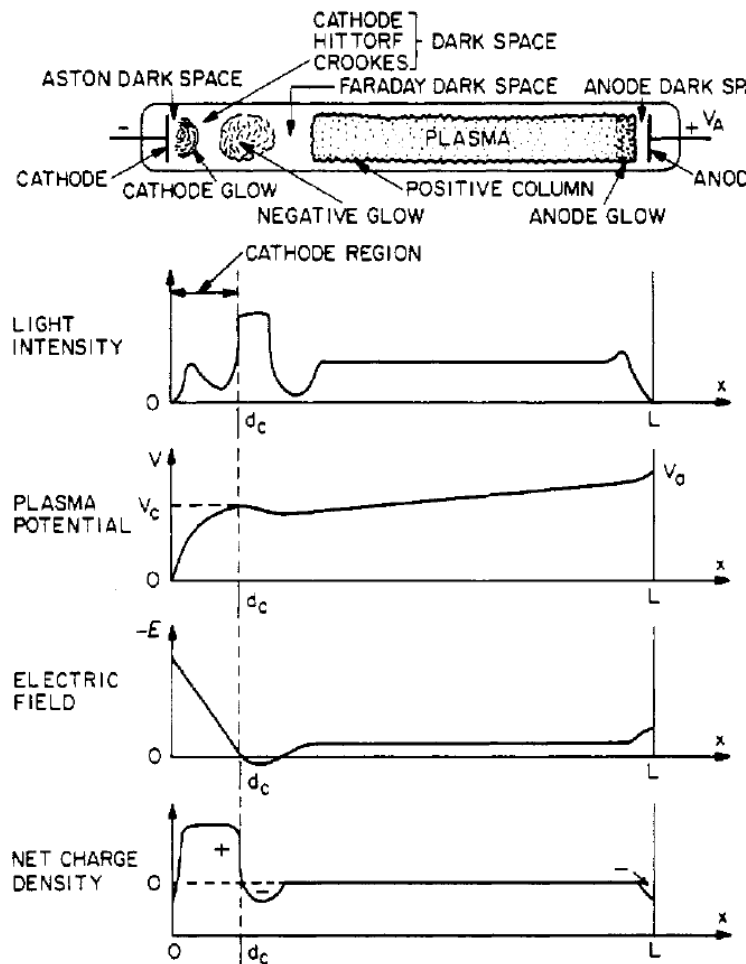
- **Cathode region:** most of the voltage drop (cathode fall) across the discharge tube appears between the cathode and the boundary between the cathode dark space and the negative glow. Electrons are accelerated to energies high enough to produce ionization and avalanching in this region. The axial length will adjust itself such that  $d_c p \sim (dp)_{\min}$  where  $(dp)$  is the Paschen minimum.

# Low pressure normal glow discharge



- **Negative glow**: the brightest light intensity in the entire discharge. It has a relatively low electric field and is usually long compared to the cathode glow. Electrons carry almost the entire current in the negative glow region. Electrons which have been accelerated in the cathode region produce ionization and intense excitation in the negative glow, hence the bright light output observed.

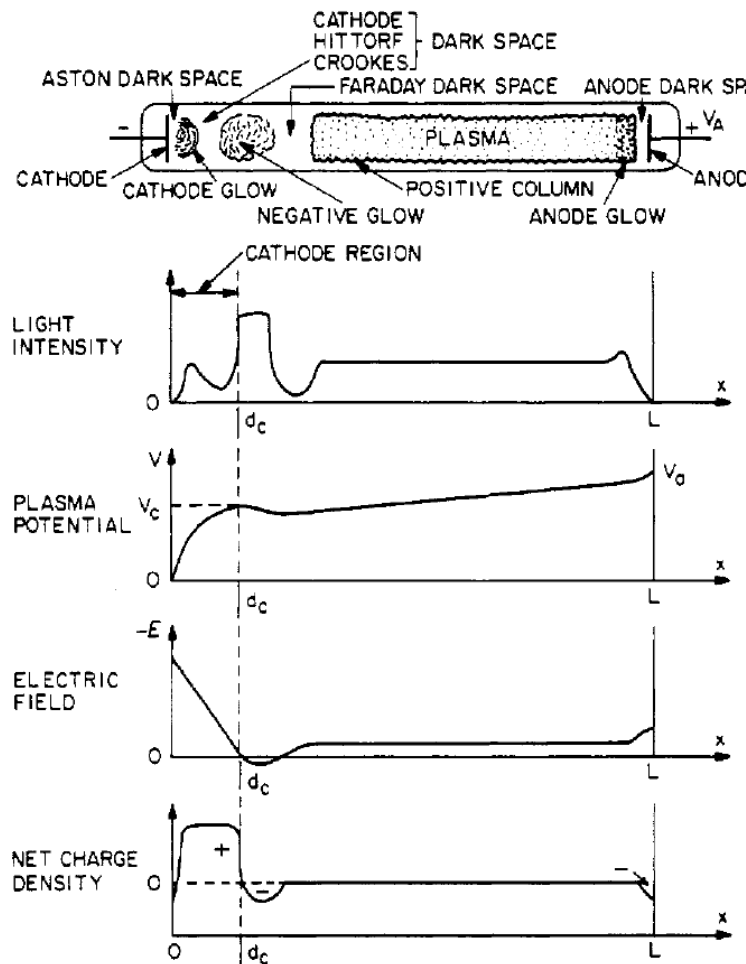
# Low pressure normal glow discharge



- **Faraday dark space:** the electron energy in it is low as a result of ionization and excitation interactions in the negative glow. The electron number density decreases by recombination and radial diffusion, the net space charge is very low, and the axial electric field is relatively small.

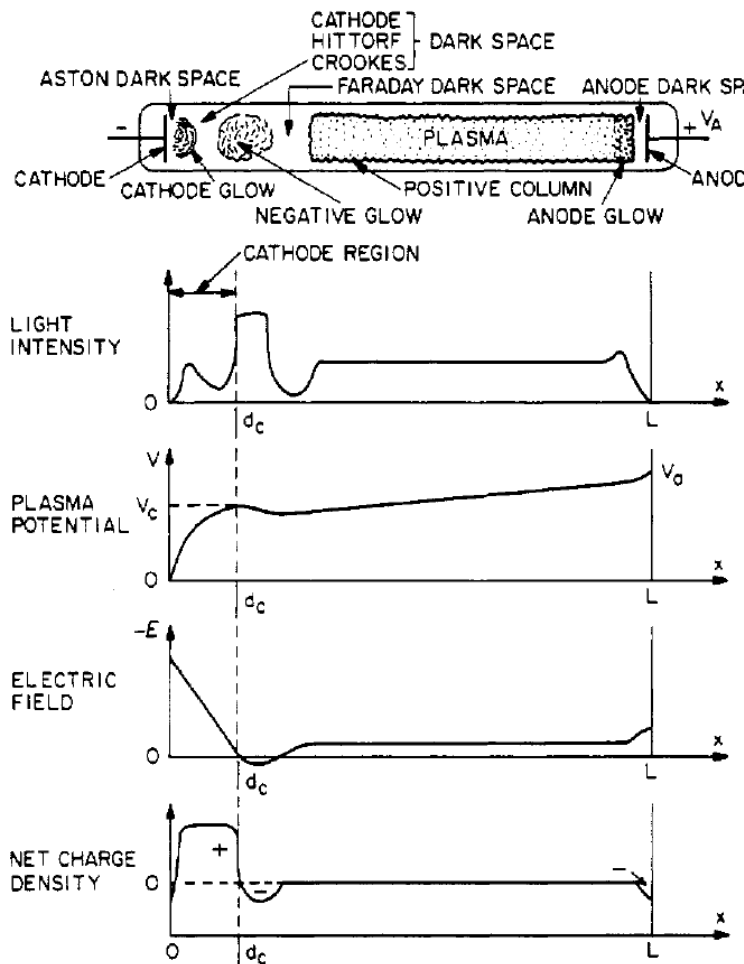


# Low pressure normal glow discharge



- **Positive column:** quasi-neutral, the electric field is small and is just large enough to maintain the required degree of ionization at its cathode end. Since the length of cathode region remains constant, the positive column lengthens as the length of the discharge tube is increased.

# Low pressure normal glow discharge

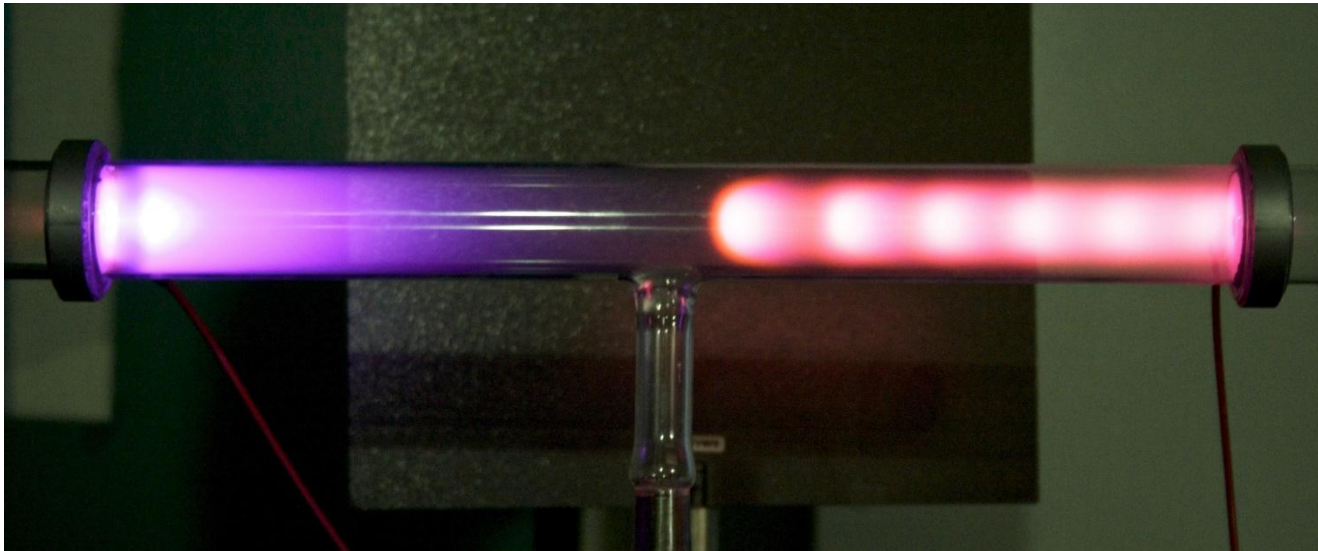


- **Anode glow**: the boundary of the anode sheath, slightly more intense than the positive column.
- **Anode dark space**: has a negative space charge due to electrons traveling from the positive column to the anode and a higher electric field than the positive column. The anode pulls electrons out of the positive column and acts like a Langmuir probe in electron saturation in this respect.

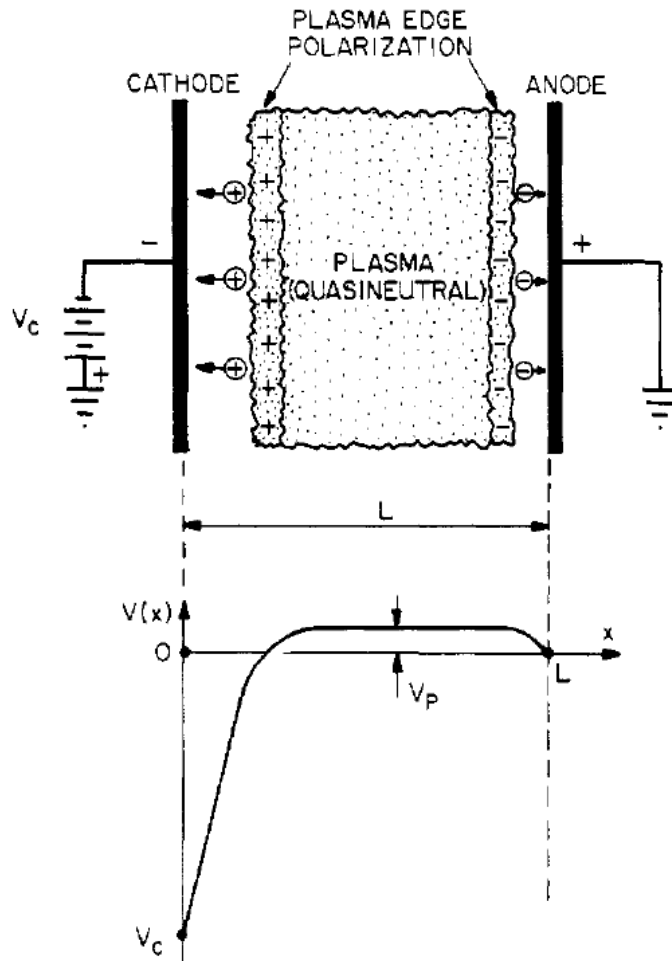
# Striated discharges



- Moving or standing striations are, respectively, traveling waves or stationary perturbations in the electron number density which occur in partially ionized gases, including the positive columns of DC normal glow discharge tubes.
- <https://youtu.be/Be4RIjMTOWE>



# Obstructed discharges



$$L < d_c$$

at the Paschen minimum, i.e.,  $(pd_c)_{\min}$

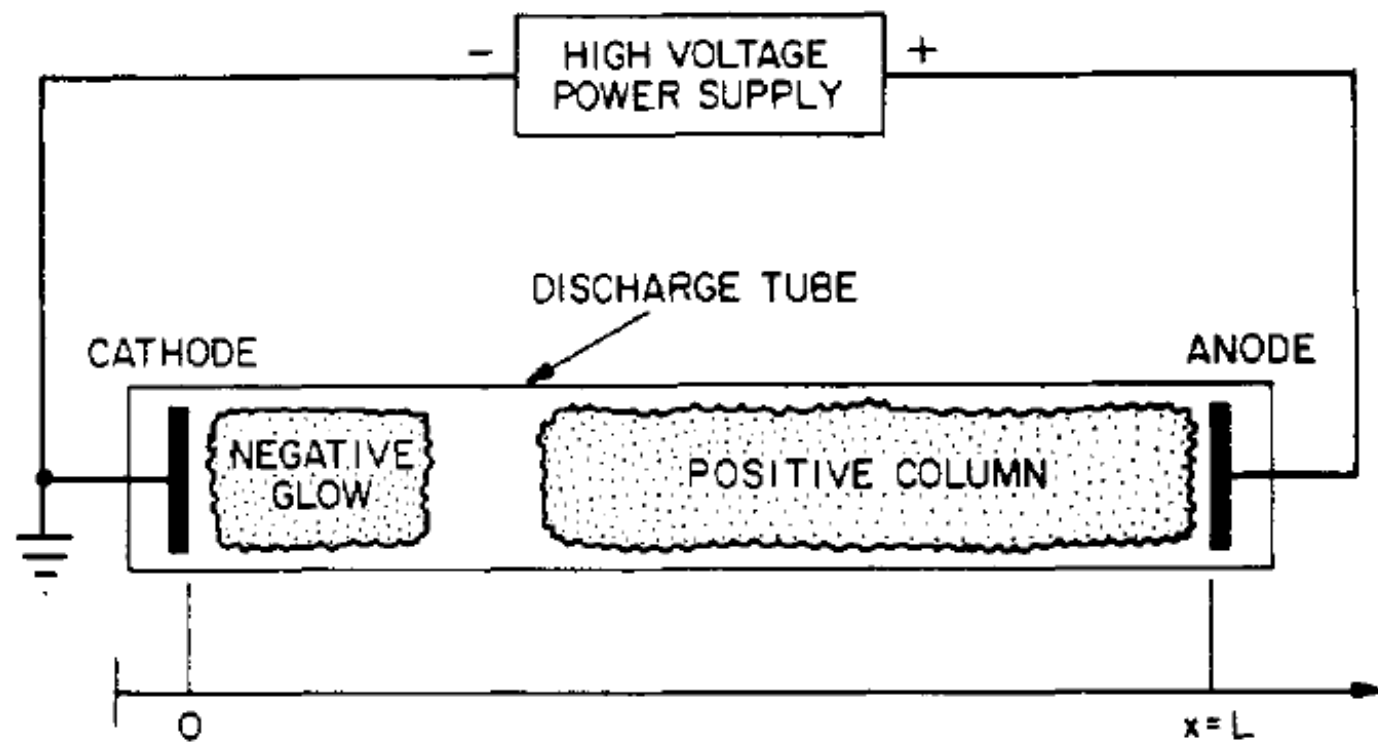
$$V_c > V_{\text{Paschen}}$$

- The obstructed glow discharge finds many uses in industry, where the high electron number densities generated by such discharge are desired. It will operate with a higher anode voltage. Such high voltage drops are sometimes desirable to accelerate ions into a wafer for deposition or etching purposes.

## Cylindrical glow discharge sources



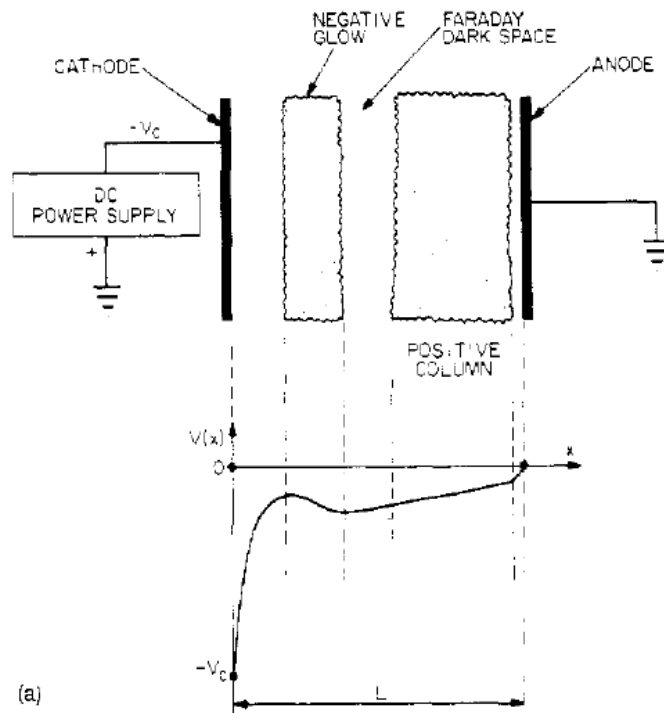
- This configuration is used in lighting devices, such as fluorescent lights and neon advertising signs.



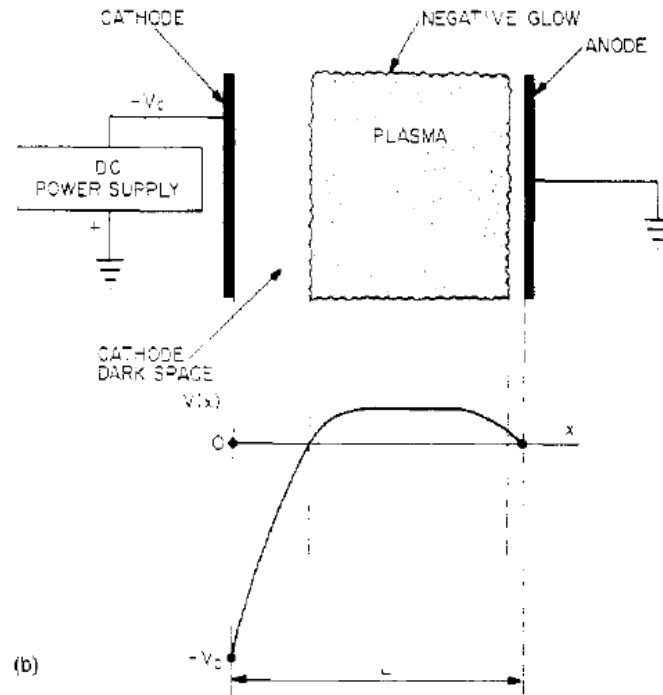
# Parallel plate sources are widely used for plasma processing and plasma chemistry applications



- Unobstructed operation

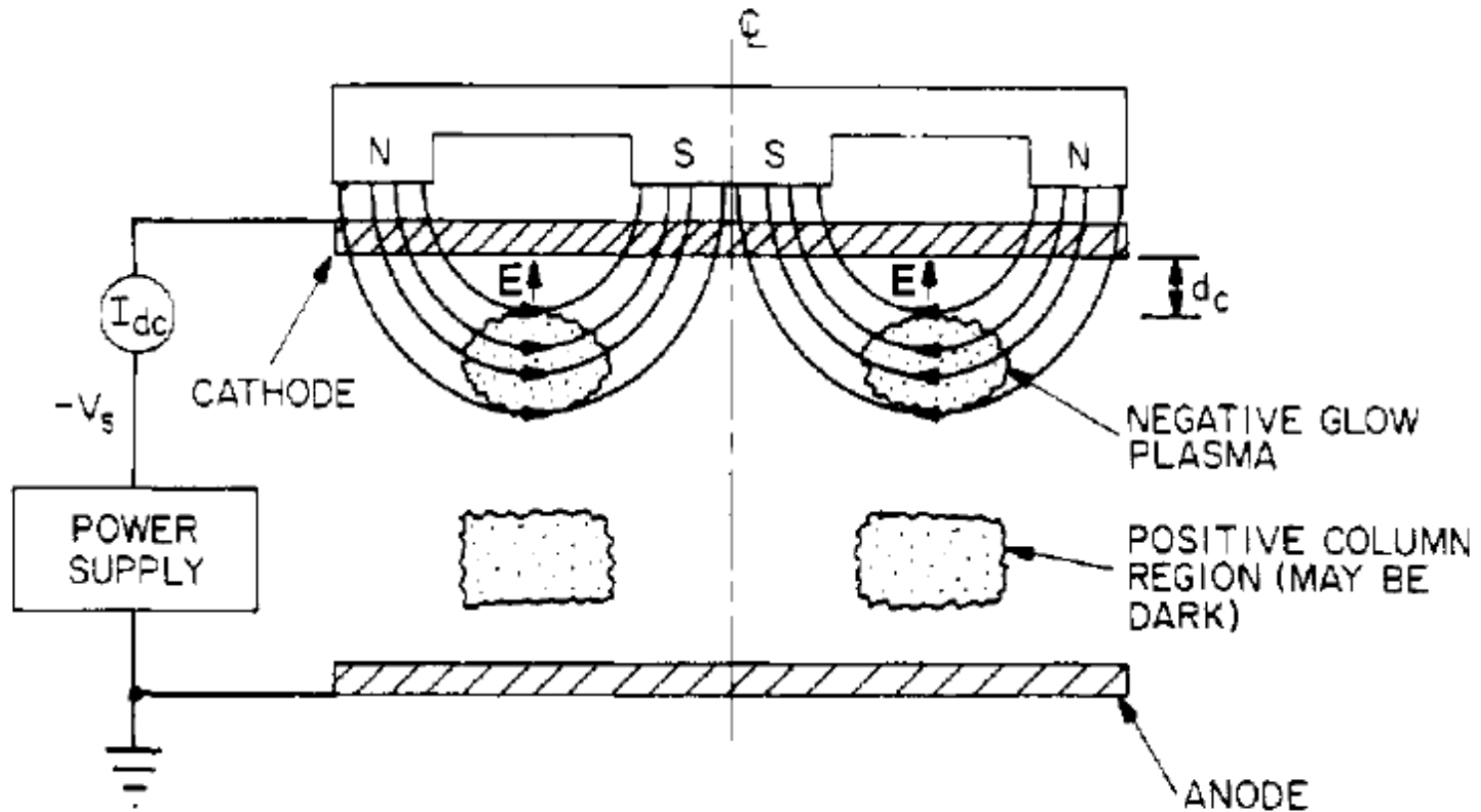


- Obstructed operation



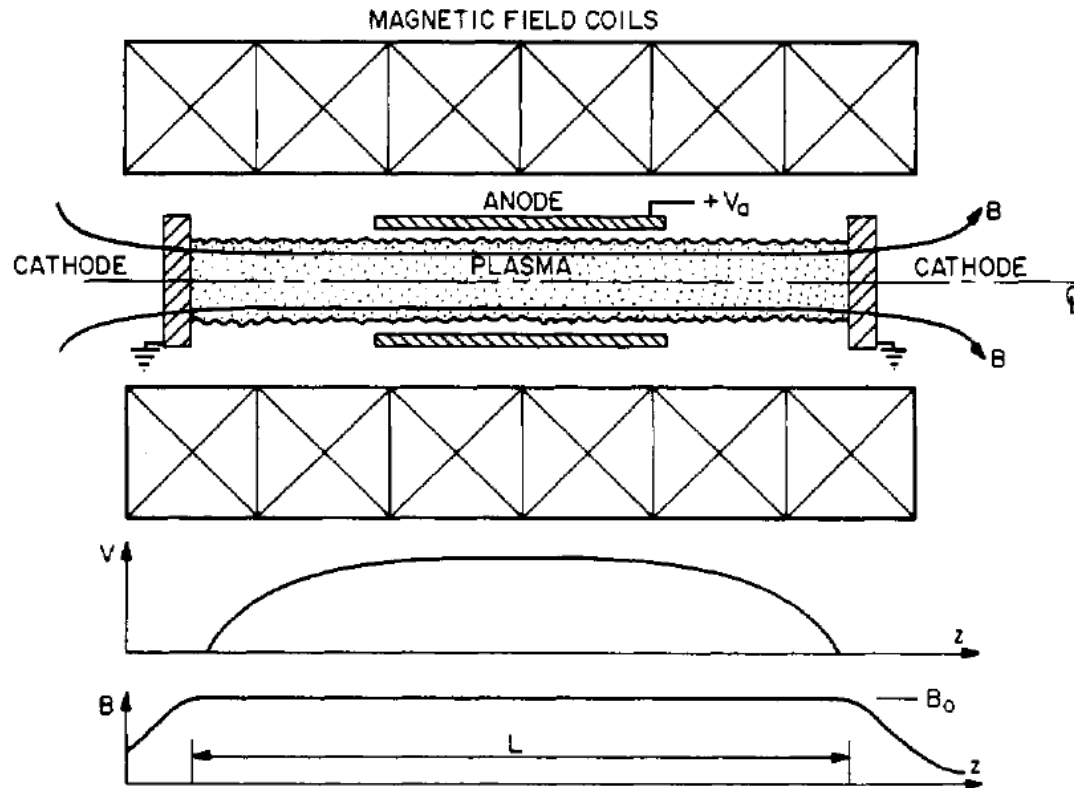
- The obstructed configuration is used for plasma processing, where high ion energies bombarding the cathode, over large areas and at vertical incidence, are desired.

# Magnetron plasma source are used primarily for plasma-assisted sputtering and deposition



- When several hundred voltages are applied between the parallel plates, a glow discharge will form, with a negative glow plasma trapped in the magnetic mirrors above the magnet pole pieces.

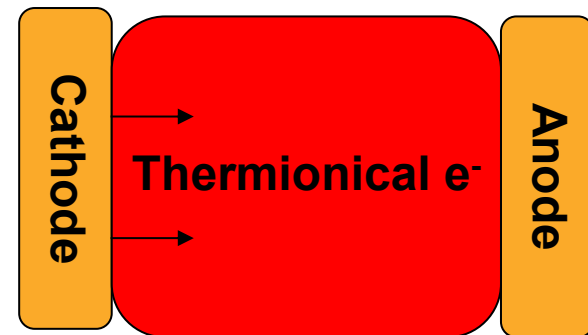
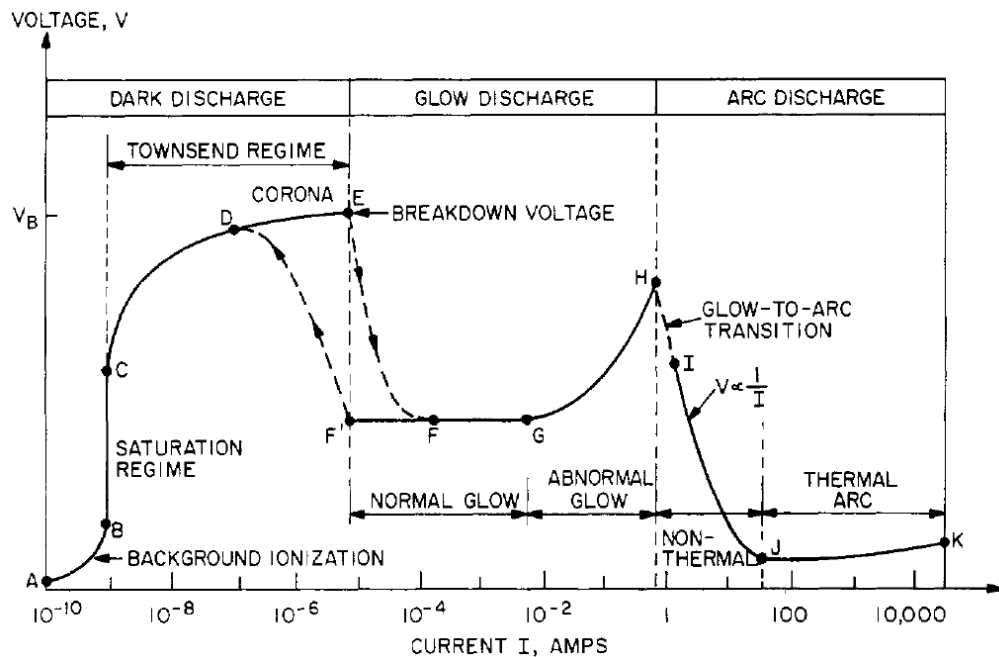
# Penning discharge plasma sources produce a dense plasma at pressures far below than most other glow discharges



- Strong axial magnetic fields: to prevent electrons from intercepting the anode.
- Axial electric fields: electrons are reflected by opposing cathodes.
- Multiple reflection of the electrons along axis.

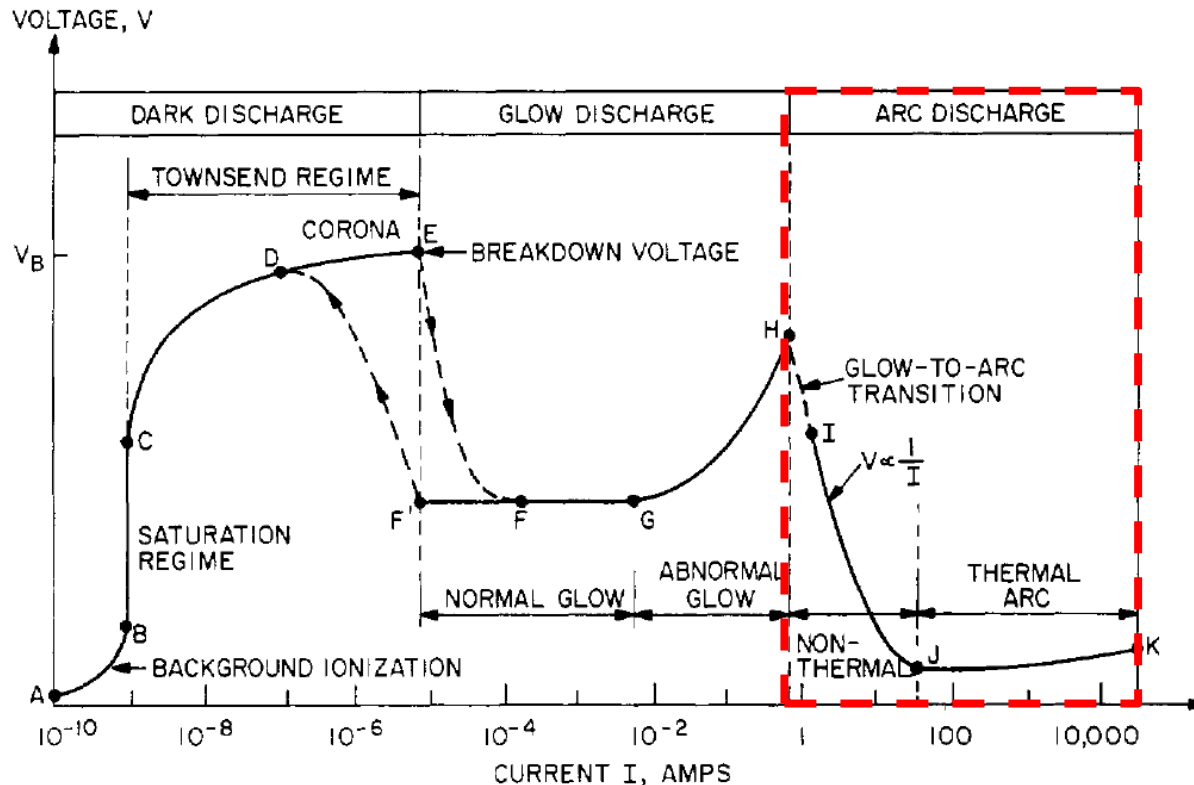


Discharge may enter glow-to-arc transition region if the cathode gets hot enough to emit electrons thermionically



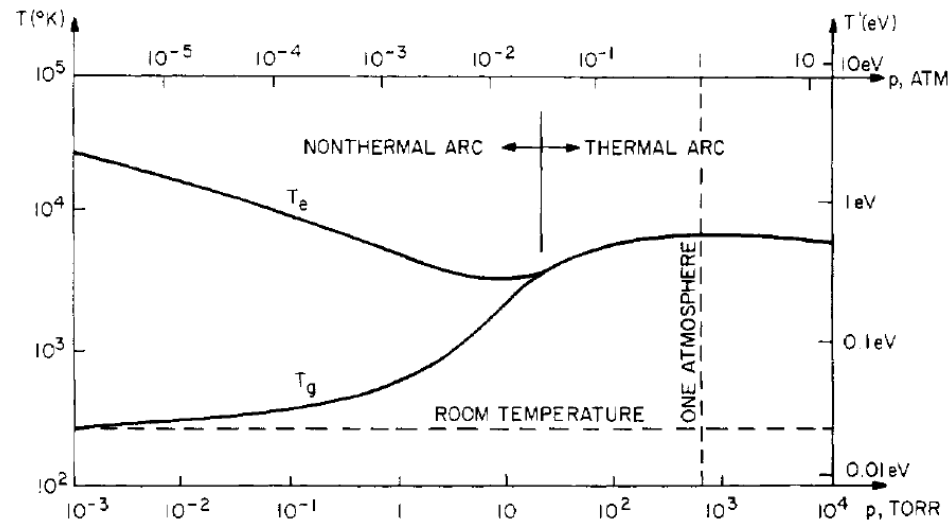
- If the cathode gets hot enough to emit electrons thermionically and the internal impedance of the power supply is sufficiently low, the discharge will make a transition into the arc regime.

# DC electrical arc discharges in gases



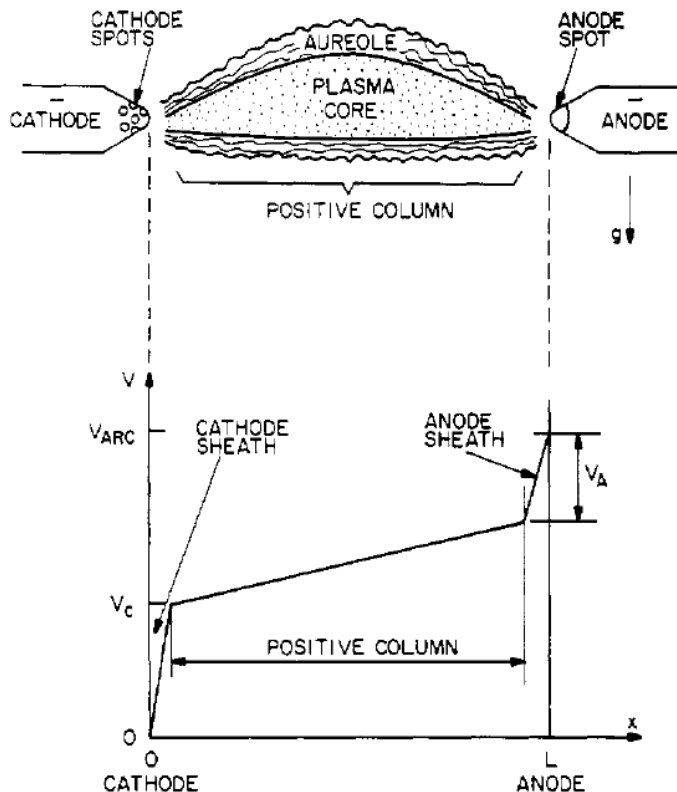
- An arc is highly luminous and is characterized by high currents ( $> 1$  A) and current densities ( $A/cm^2$  to  $kA/cm^2$ ).
- Cathode voltage fall is small ( $\approx 10$  V) in the region of high spatial gradients within a few mm of the cathode.

# An arc can be non-thermal or thermionic



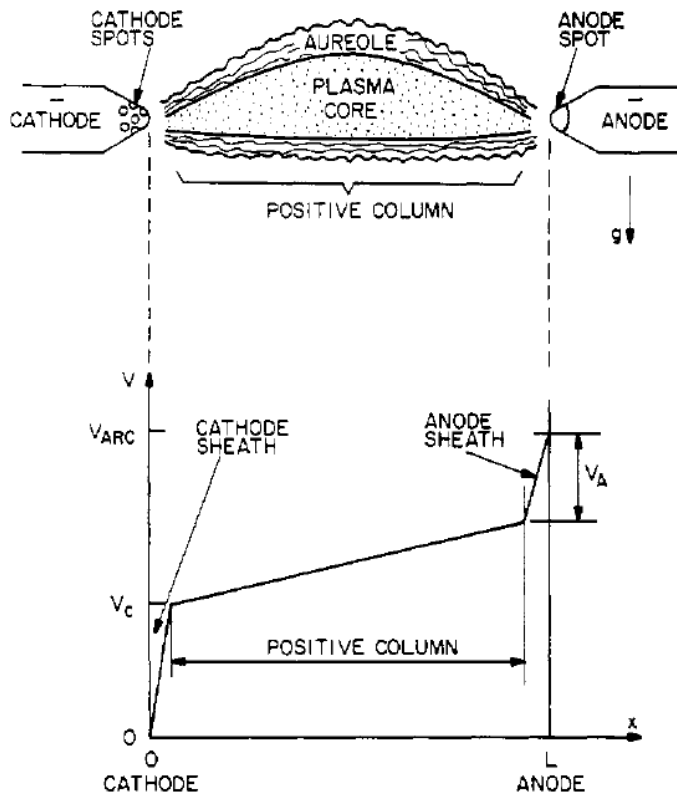
| Plasma parameter                                       | Non-thermal arc           | Thermal arc               |
|--|---------------------------|---------------------------|
| Equilibrium state                                      | Kinetic                   | LTE                       |
| Electron density, $n_e$<br>(electrons/m <sup>3</sup> ) | $10^{20} < n_e < 10^{21}$ | $10^{22} < n_e < 10^{25}$ |
| Gas pressure, $p$ (Pa)                                 | $0.1 < p < 10^5$          | $10^4 < p < 10^7$         |
| Electron temperature, $T_e'$ (eV)                      | $0.2 < T_e' < 2.0$        | $1.0 < T_e' < 10$         |
| Gas temperature, $T_g'$ (eV)                           | $0.025 < T_g' < 0.5$      | $T_g' = T_e'$             |
| Arc current, $I$ (A)                                   | $1 < I < 50$              | $50 < I < 10^4$           |
| $E/p$ (V/m-Torr)                                       | High                      | Low                       |
| $IE$ (kW/cm)   | $IE < 1.0$                | $IE > 1.0$                |
| Typical cathode emission                               | Thermionic                | Field                     |
| Luminous intensity                                     | Bright                    | Dazzling                  |
| Transparency   | Transparent               | Opaque                    |
| Ionization fraction                                    | Indeterminate             | Saha equation             |
| Radiation output                                       | Indeterminate             | LTE                       |

# Classical arc were mostly used as lighting devices and operated as non-thermal arcs



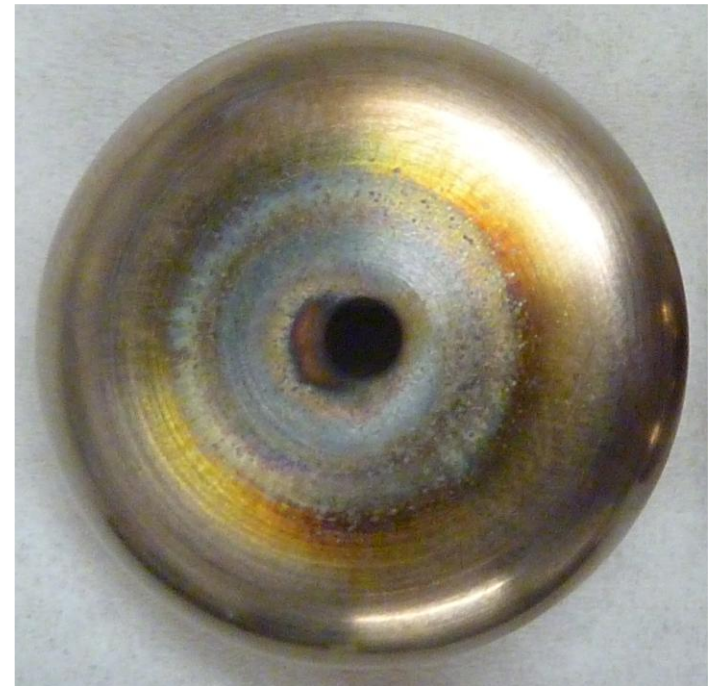
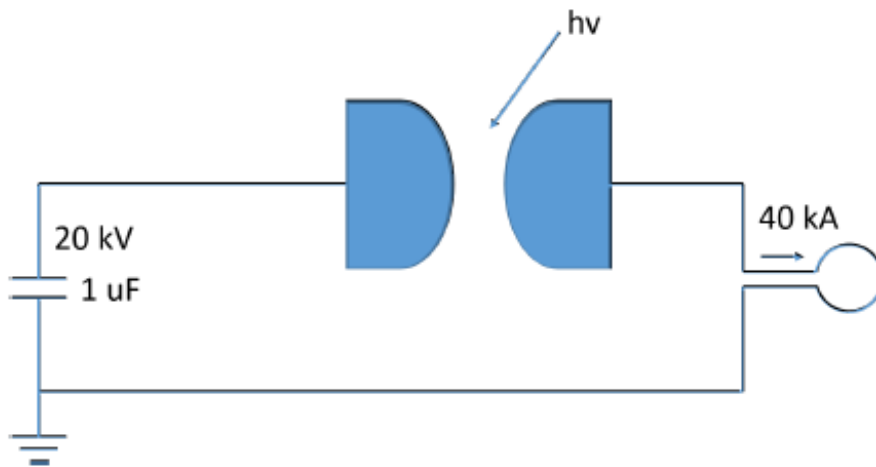
- Cathode - emits electrons thermionically
- Cathode spots - several hot spots causing material losses through vaporization and move over the cathode surface with a velocity  $\sim$  m/s.
- Cathode sheath - voltage drop (cathode fall)  $\sim 10$  V in  $< 1$  mm.
- Positive column - little drop in voltage.
- Plasma core - hot region in thermodynamic equilibrium and radiates like a black body.
- Aureole - flaming gases where plasma chemistry takes place.

# Classical arc were mostly used as lighting devices and operated as non-thermal arcs



- Anode sheath - voltage drop (anode fall) ~ cathode fall and is comparable to or less than the ionization potential of the gas.
- Anode spot - a single 'hot spot' where the current density is high.
- Anode - usually made of a high melting point, refractory metal and is similar or slightly hotter than cathode.

# Example



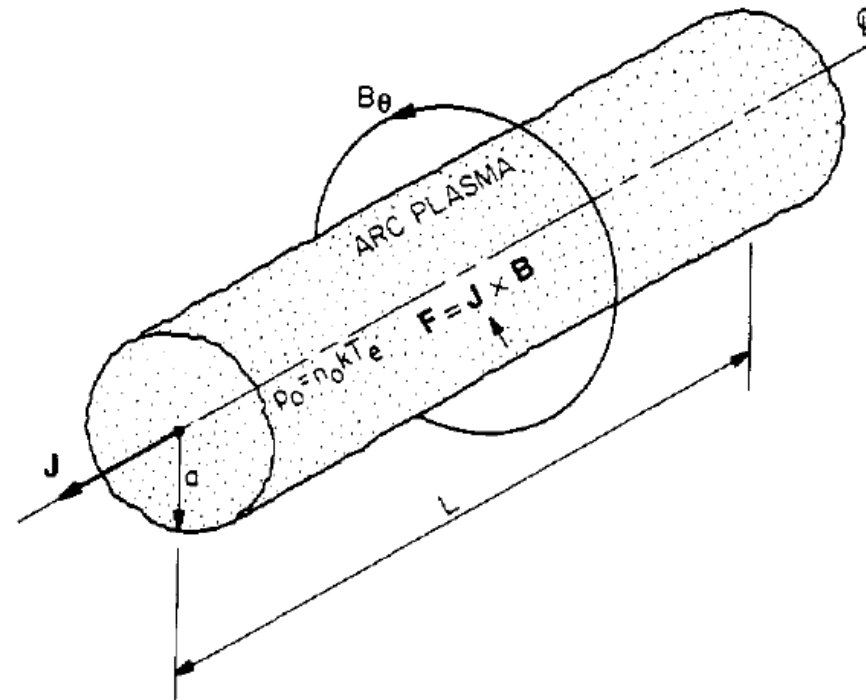
# **Note 1 - the cathode fall in arc is usually too small for secondary electron emission so that the emission relies on thermionic and field emission**

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- **Non-thermal, low intensity arcs - relies on thermionic emission**
  - **Non-self sustained thermionic emission - cathode must be heated externally.**
  - **Self sustained thermionic emission - cathode surface is raised to and maintained by the heat flux from the arc**
- **Thermal, high intensity arcs: relies on field emission**
  - **high current and current densities**
  - **cathode temperature is determined by the heat transfer to the cathode and the cathode cooling mechanism and is usually too cool to emit thermionically.**

# The arc tends to be pinched to smaller diameter

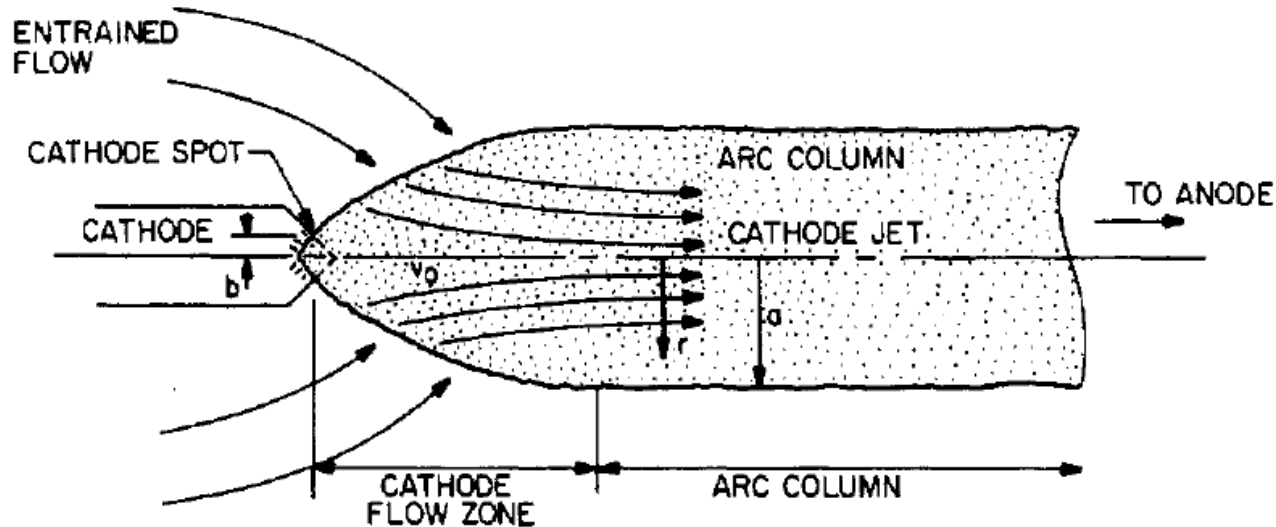


$$B_\theta = \frac{1}{2} \mu_0 J_z r \quad r \leq a$$

$$\vec{F} = \vec{J} \times \vec{B} = F_r \hat{r} = -\frac{1}{2} \mu_0 J_z^2 r \hat{r} (N/m^3)$$



# Cathode jet is driven by the axial pressure gradient

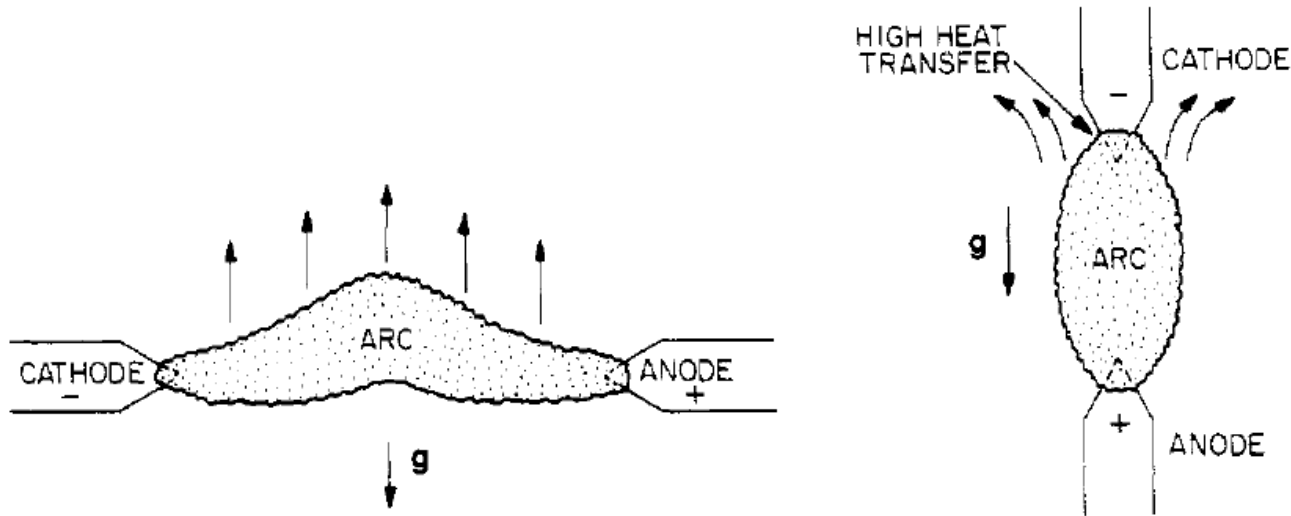


$$\nabla p = \vec{j} \times \vec{B} \quad B_{\theta} = \frac{1}{2} \mu_0 J_z r \quad r \leq r_{\max}$$

$$p(r) = \int_r^{r_{\max}} J_z B_{\theta} dr = \frac{1}{4} \mu_0 J_z^2 (r_{\max}^2 - r^2) \quad p_0 = \frac{\mu_0 I^2}{4\pi^2 r_{\max}^2} \quad \text{where } I = \pi r_{\max}^2 J_z$$

$$\because b < a, \therefore p_b > p_a$$

# Example - Linear Arcs (free-burning arc)

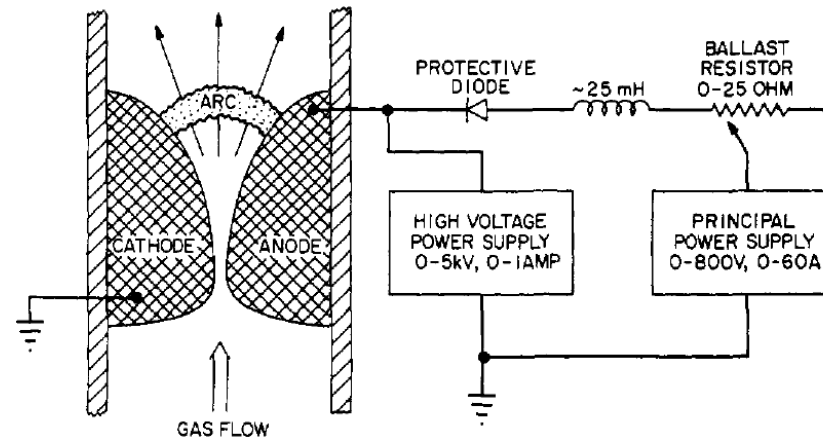


- The buoyancy of the hot gases causes a horizontal linear arc to bow upward, resulting in an arched appearance that gave the 'arc' its name.
- The cathode is usually operated at the top, in order to better balance the heat loads on the two electrodes.

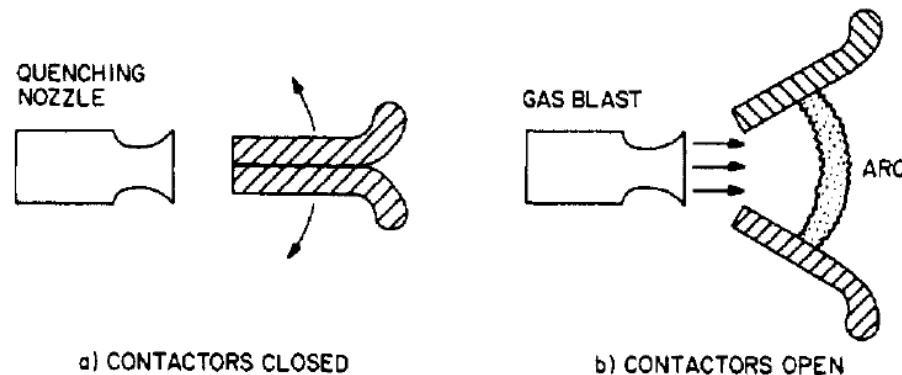
# Expanding Arcs



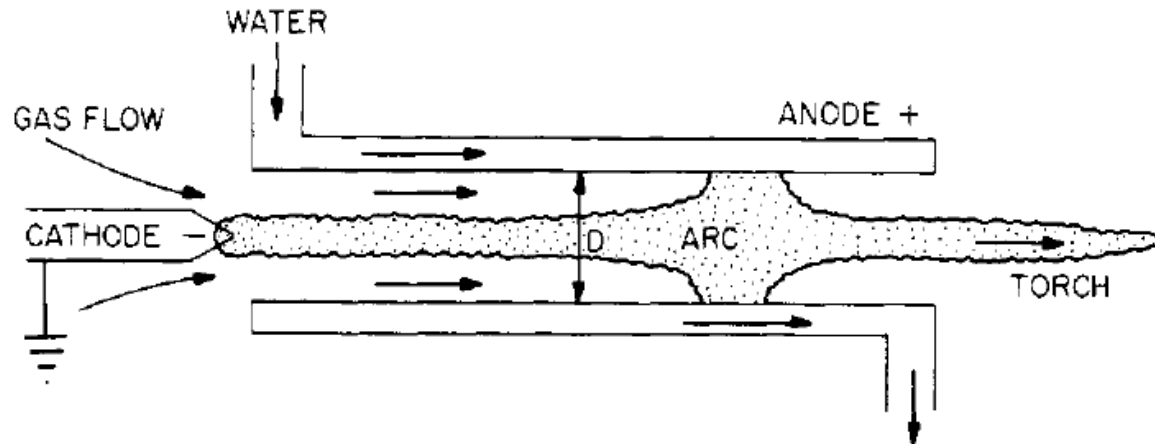
- The gliding arc is used for toxic waste disposal and destructive plasma chemistry.



- Heavy duty switchgear:



# Wall-stabilized arc



- Radial power balance:

$$\sigma E^2 = -\nabla \cdot (\kappa \nabla T) = -\frac{1}{r} \frac{d}{dr} \left( r \kappa \frac{dT}{dr} \right)$$

- Assume that the axial electric field  $E$  is constant  $\sigma$  and  $\kappa$  are not function of temperature:

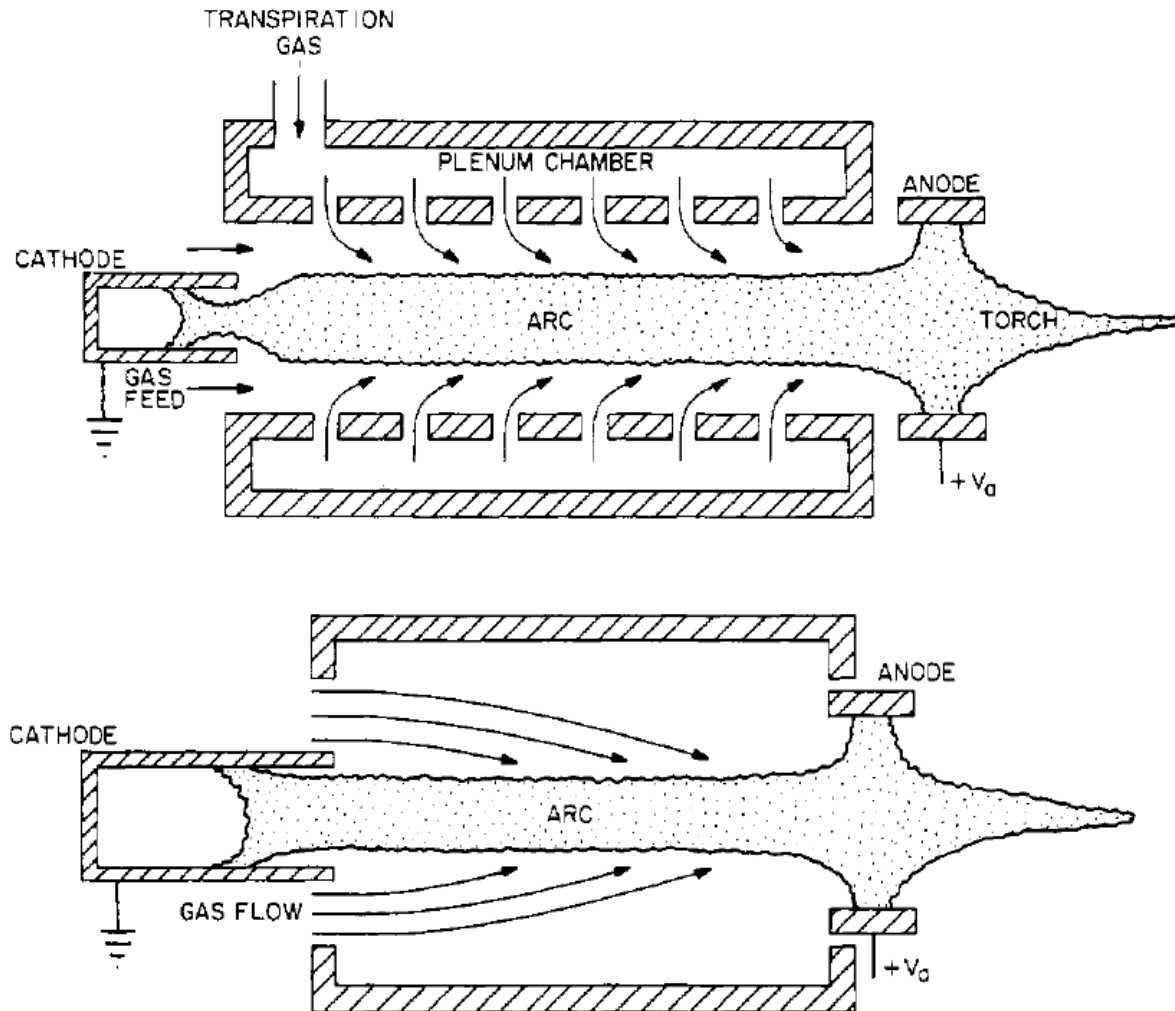
$$T_0 = T_w + \frac{\sigma E^2 a^2}{4\kappa}$$

- Wall-stabilized effect:

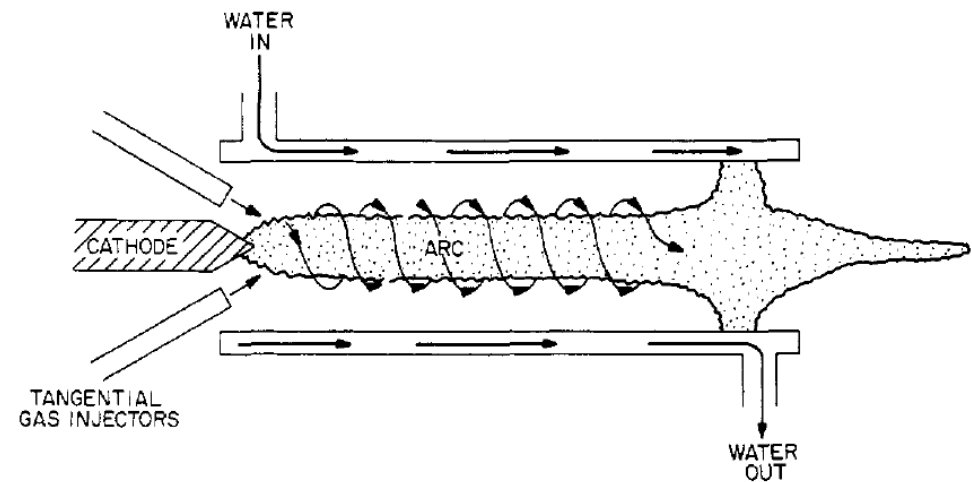
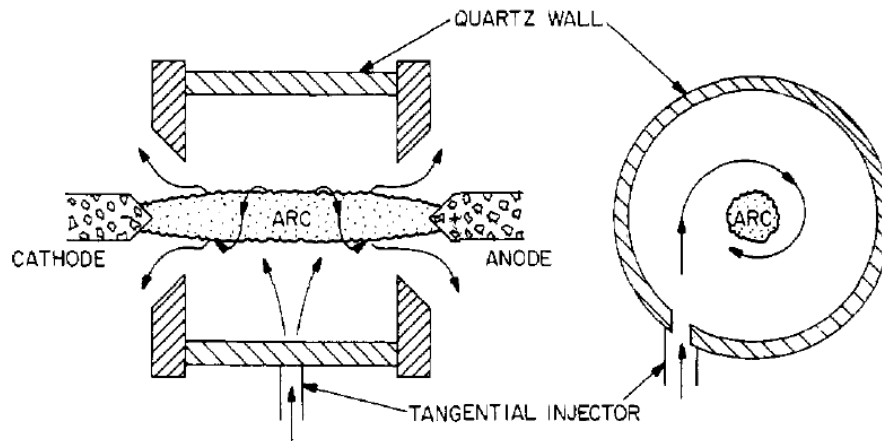
$T \downarrow \Rightarrow \kappa \downarrow \Rightarrow T_0 \uparrow \Rightarrow \sigma \uparrow \Rightarrow$  the arc will be pulled back on axis

$$\tau_e = \frac{3\sqrt{m_e}(kT_e)^{3/2}}{4\sqrt{2\pi n\lambda e^4 z}} \quad \kappa = 3.2 \frac{nkT_e \tau_e}{m_e} \propto T_e^{5/2} \quad \sigma = \frac{ne^2 \tau_e}{m_e} \propto T_e^{3/2}$$

# Arc can be stabilized by air flow



# Arc can be stabilized by the vortex flow

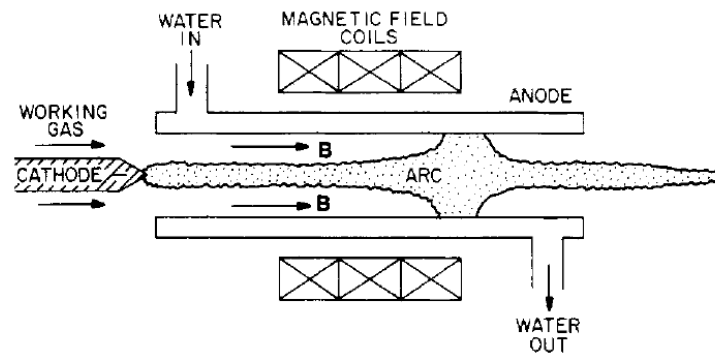


- The vortex flow is very effective in reducing the heat flux to the wall.

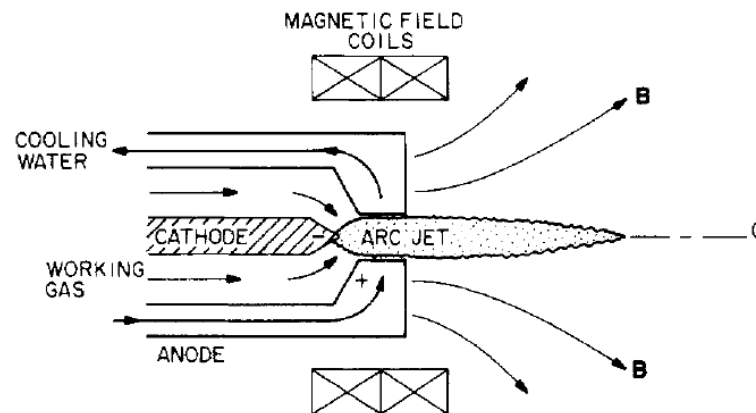
# Magnetically stabilized arc



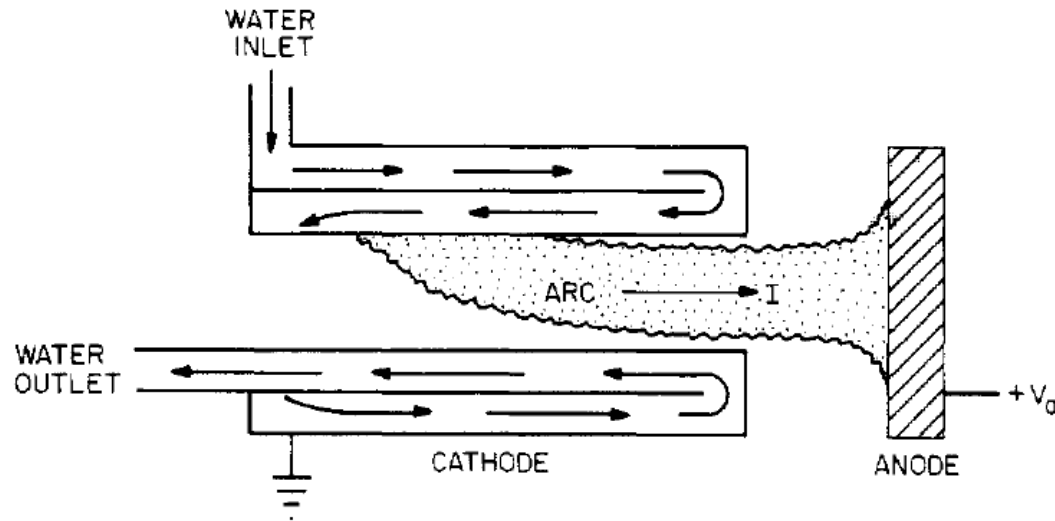
- An axial magnetic field provides  $\vec{J} \times \vec{B}$  forces which rotate the arc spoke to avoid high local heat loads on the anode.



- An axial magnetic mirror coaxial with the anode so that the magnetic field maximum is near the plane of the arc rotation.



# Transferred arc is good for metal melting and refining industry



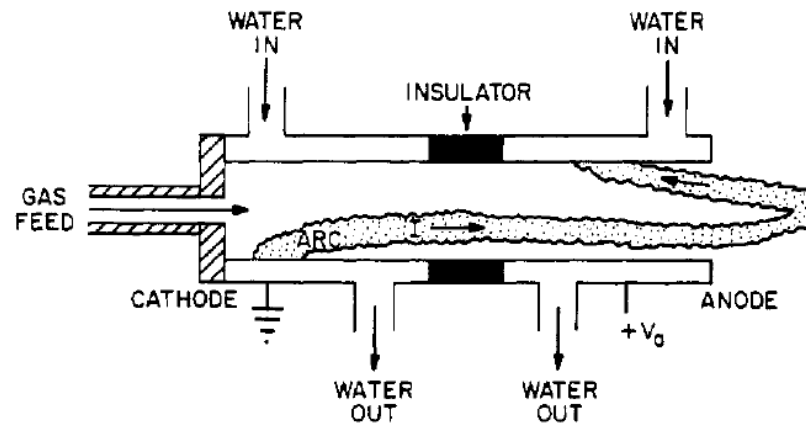
- Capable of operating at the multi-megawatt level for duration (100s ~1000s hours) that are not possible for thermionically emitting cathodes or uncooled, incandescent cathodes operating in air.
- The arc root moves over the cathode surface, further reducing the cathode heat load and increasing the lifetime of the hardware.
- The object to be heated is used as the anode since the anode receives the heat deposition from the cathode jet.



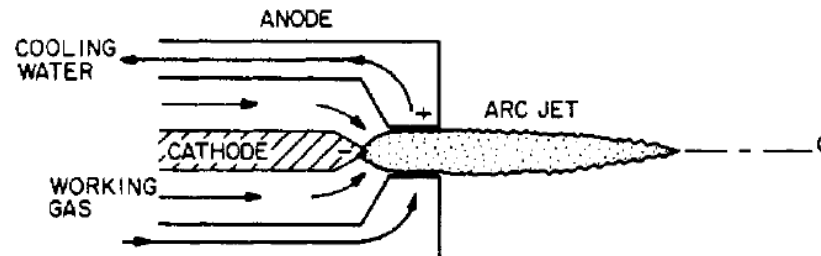
# Non-transferred arc



- Gas fed along the axis blows the arc out toward the material which is to be heated.



- A working gas is fed in coaxially and forms a very hot arc jet, at supersonic velocities.

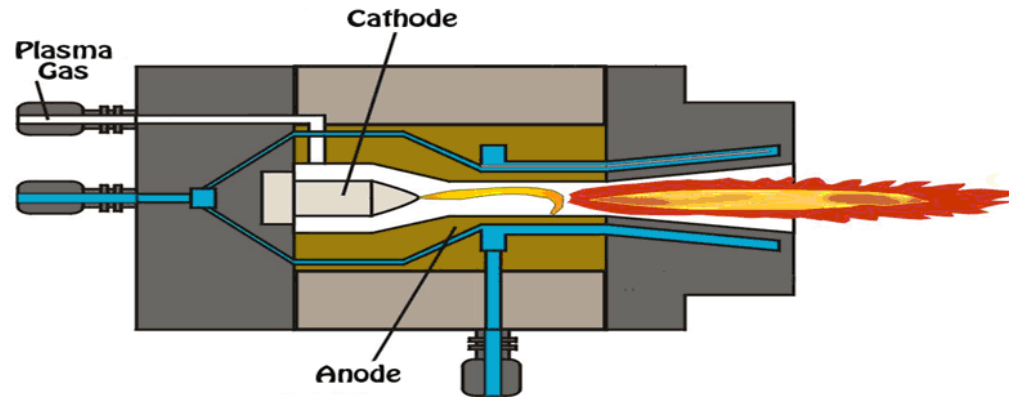


# Application – Plasma torch

## (電漿熔融爐 by 奧特拉斯/豐映科技)



- Non-Transferred arc
- Transferred arc



| 特 性             | 非 傳 輸 型                        | 傳 輸 型                                       |
|-----------------|--------------------------------|---|
| 電 極 結 構         | 兩個電極皆在火炬本體上                    | 一個電極在火炬本體上，另一電極在被處理物上(或爐底電極)                |
| 操作/安裝空間         | 較 小                            | 較 大(尤其垂直高度)                                 |
| 氣 流 量           | 較 大 (100%)                     | 較 小 (20%)                                   |
| 中 心 溫 度 (°C)    | 4,000 ~ 10,000                 | 15,000 ~ 20,000                             |
| 能 量 密 度 (MJ/kg) | 5 ~ 40                         | 20 ~ 200                                    |
| 功率控制參數          | 電流、氣流量                         | 電流、氣流量、電弧長度                                 |
| 電能轉換熱能效率 (%)    | 80 ~ 90                        | ≥ 90  |
| 熔 融 機 制         | 1. 火焰直接加熱<br>2. 電能使用效率較低 (45%) | 1. 火焰直接加熱<br>2. 熔漿電阻加熱<br>3. 電能使用效率較高 (60%) |

<https://www.atlas-innotek.com/projects/e6oFj63K47PYPqPe2>  
<http://www.resi.com.tw/PlasmaTorch.htm>

# Methods of plasma production

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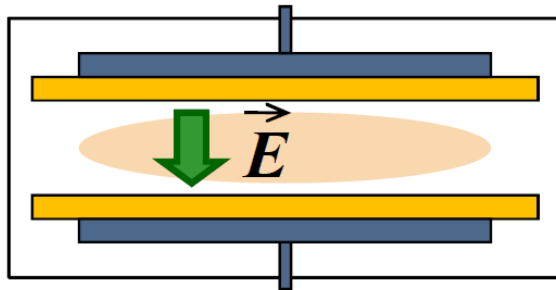
- **DC electrical discharges**
  - Dark electrical discharges in gases
  - DC electrical glow discharges in gases
  - DC electrical arc discharges in gases
- **AC electrical discharges**
  - **RF electrical discharges in gases**
  - Microwave electrical discharges in gases
  - Dielectric-barrier discharges (DBDs)
- **Other mechanism**
  - Laser produced plasma
  - Pulsed-power generated plasma

# RF can interact with plasma inductively or capacitively

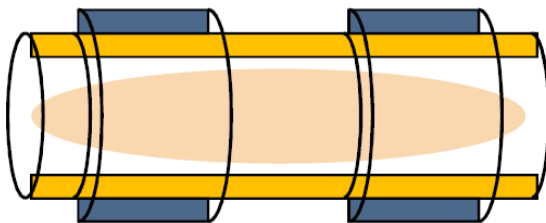


## Capacitively coupled

planar

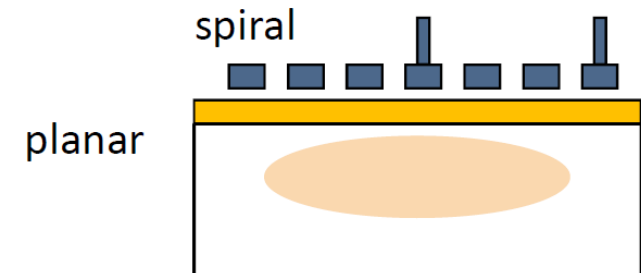
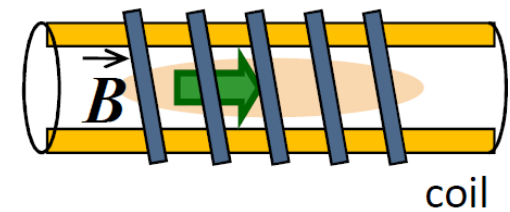


coaxial



## Inductively coupled

coaxial



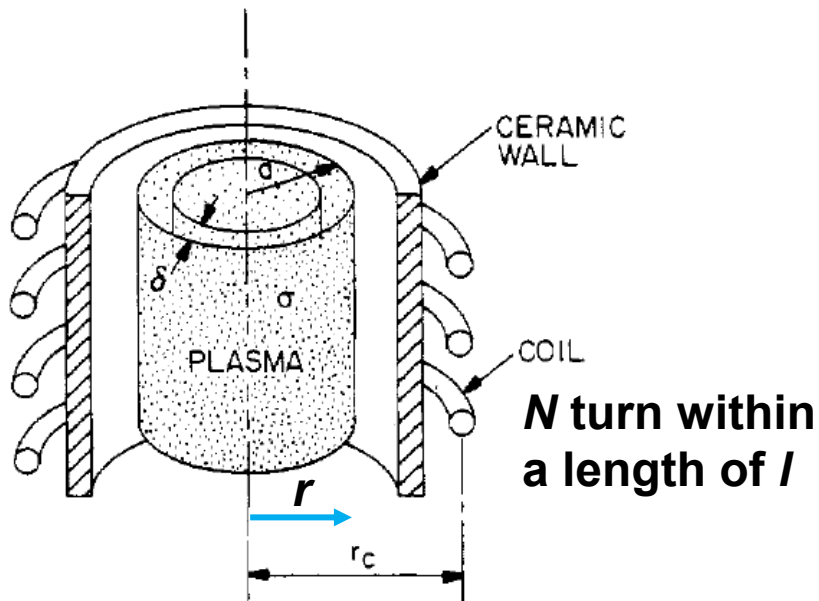
# AC electrical discharges deliver energy to the plasma without contact between electrodes and the plasma

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- **DC electrical discharge** – a true current in the form of a flow of ions or electrons to the electrodes.
- **AC electrical discharge** – the power supply interacts with the plasma by displacement current.
  - **Inductive radio frequency (RF) electrical discharges**
  - Capacitive RF electrical discharges
  - Microwave electrical discharges
  - Dielectric-barrier discharges (DBDs)
- Other mechanism
  - Laser produced plasma
  - Pulsed-power generated plasma

# The plasma is generated by the induced electric field from the oscillating magnetic field



$$\nabla \times \vec{E} = -\frac{\partial \vec{B}}{\partial t}$$

$$\int (\nabla \times \vec{E}) \cdot d\vec{A} = \int \left( -\frac{\partial \vec{B}}{\partial t} \right) \cdot d\vec{A}$$

$$2\pi r E = -\pi r^2 \frac{\partial B}{\partial t}$$

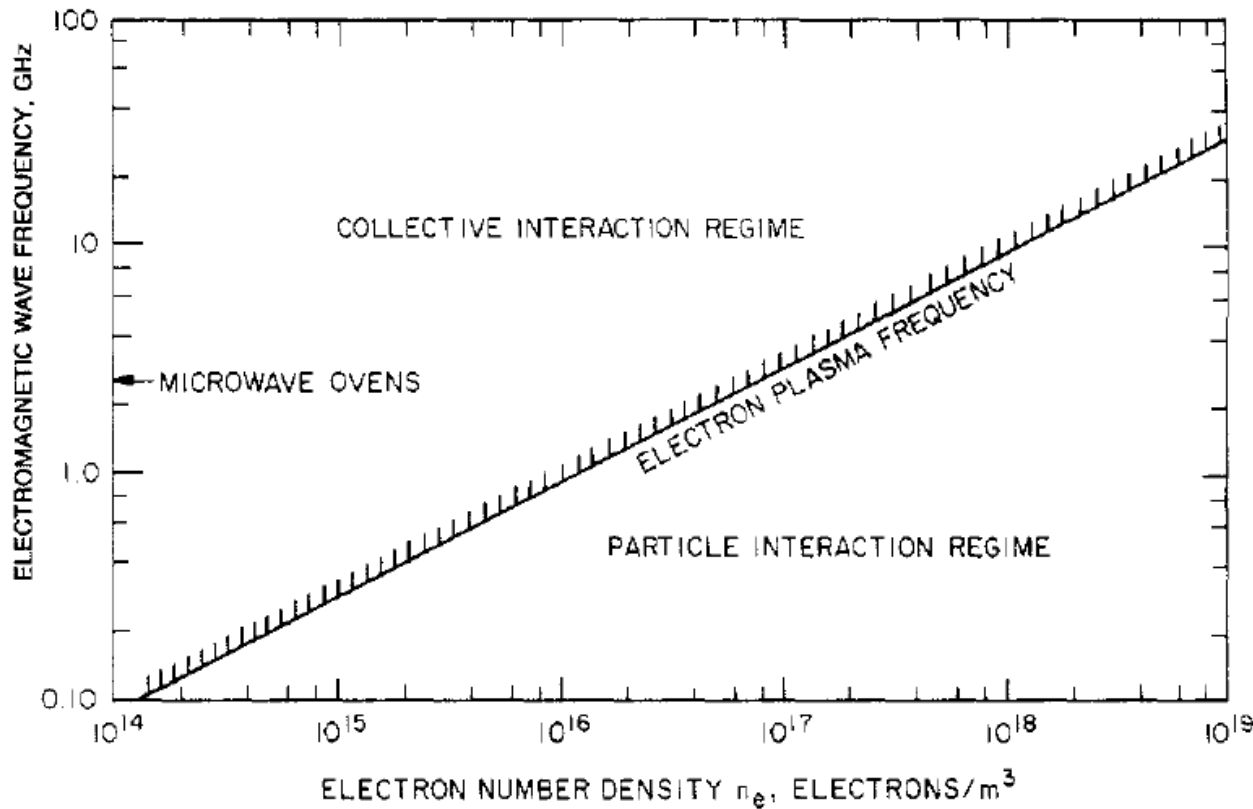
$$E = -\frac{r}{2} \frac{\partial B}{\partial t}$$

$$B \times l = \mu_0 N I$$

$$E = -\frac{r}{2} \mu_0 \frac{N}{l} \frac{\partial I}{\partial t}$$

$$|E| = \frac{r}{2} \mu_0 \frac{N}{l} \omega I$$

# How an electromagnetic wave interacts with a plasma depends on its frequency



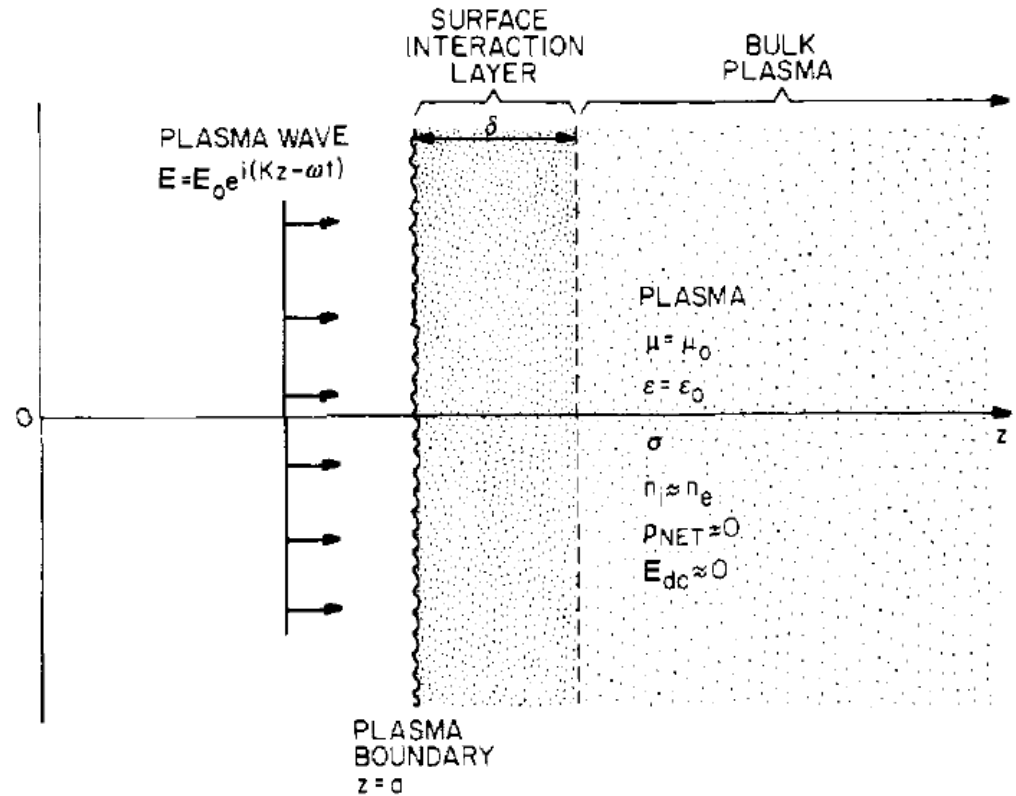
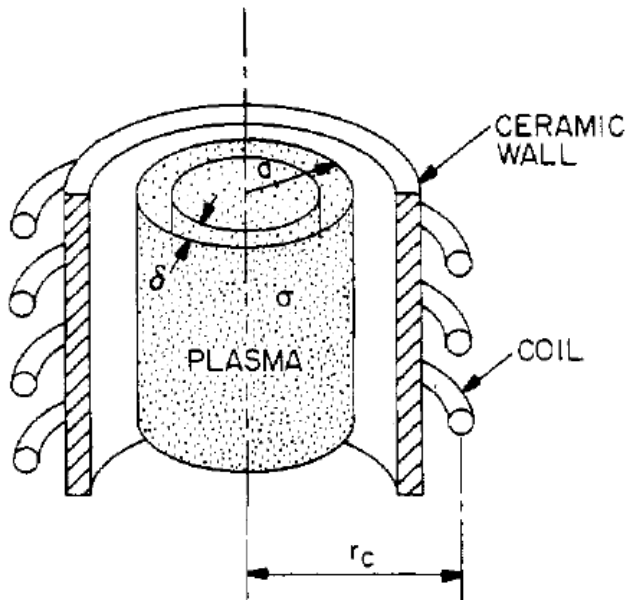
$$\omega_{pe} = \sqrt{\frac{n_e e^2}{\epsilon_0 m_e}} \text{ (rad/s)}$$

$$n_{cri} = \frac{\epsilon_0 m_e}{e^2} \omega_{pe}^2 \text{ (m}^{-3}\text{)}$$

$$n_{760 \text{ Torr} / 300\text{K}} = 2.45 \times 10^{25} \text{ m}^{-3}$$

$$n_{0.1 \text{ Torr}, 1 \% \text{ ionization}} = 3.2 \times 10^{19} \text{ m}^{-3}$$

**RF energy is strongly absorbed within the skin depth if the frequency is below the electron plasma frequency**





# Skin depth is calculated using Maxwell's equations



$$\nabla \cdot \vec{E} \approx 0 (\text{quasi-neutral}) \quad \nabla \cdot \vec{B} = 0$$

$$\nabla \times \vec{E} = -\frac{\partial \vec{B}}{\partial t} \quad \nabla \times \vec{B} = \mu_0 \vec{J} + \mu_0 \epsilon_0 \frac{\partial \vec{E}}{\partial t} \quad \vec{J} = \sigma \vec{E} \text{ (Ohm's law)}$$

$$\nabla \times (\nabla \times \vec{E}) = -\frac{\partial}{\partial t} (\nabla \times \vec{B}) = \nabla (\nabla \cdot \vec{E}) - \nabla^2 \vec{E} \sim -\nabla^2 \vec{E}$$

$$\frac{\partial^2 \vec{E}}{\partial z^2} - \mu_0 \sigma \frac{\partial \vec{E}}{\partial t} - \mu_0 \epsilon_0 \frac{\partial^2 \vec{E}}{\partial t^2} = 0 \quad \vec{E} = \vec{E}_0 \exp[-i(kz - \omega t)] \quad k \equiv \alpha + \frac{i}{\delta}$$

$$(-k^2 + i\omega\mu_0\sigma + \mu_0\epsilon_0\omega^2) \vec{E} = 0 \quad \alpha = \sqrt{\frac{\sigma\mu_0\omega}{2}} \left[ \frac{\omega\epsilon_0}{\sigma} + \sqrt{1 + \left(\frac{\omega\epsilon_0}{\sigma}\right)^2} \right]^{1/2}$$
$$\frac{1}{\delta} = \sqrt{\frac{\sigma\mu_0\omega}{2}} \left[ \sqrt{1 + \left(\frac{\omega\epsilon_0}{\sigma}\right)^2} - \frac{\omega\epsilon_0}{\sigma} \right]^{1/2}$$

# Skin depth is calculated using Maxwell's equations



$$\alpha = \sqrt{\frac{\sigma\mu_0\omega}{2}} \left[ \frac{\omega\epsilon_0}{\sigma} + \sqrt{1 + \left(\frac{\omega\epsilon_0}{\sigma}\right)^2} \right]^{1/2} \quad \frac{1}{\delta} = \sqrt{\frac{\sigma\mu_0\omega}{2}} \left[ \sqrt{1 + \left(\frac{\omega\epsilon_0}{\sigma}\right)^2} - \frac{\omega\epsilon_0}{\sigma} \right]^{1/2}$$

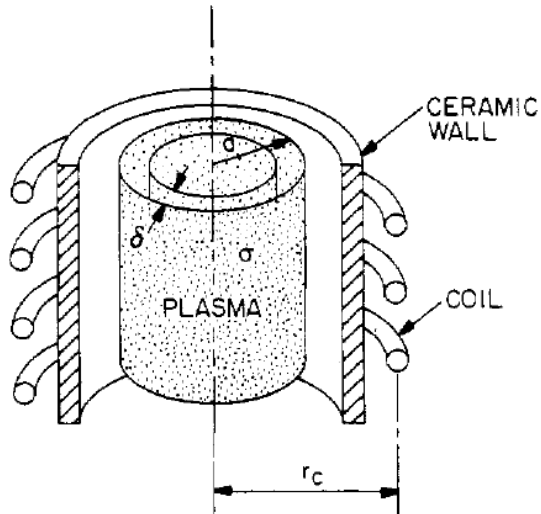
- In most industrial plasma,  $\frac{\omega\epsilon_0}{\sigma} \ll 1$ . Note that  $\sigma = \frac{e^2 n_e}{m_e \nu_c} = \frac{\epsilon_0 \omega_{pe}^2}{\nu_c}$  so  $\nu_c \omega \ll \omega_{pe}^2$  is required.

$$\alpha \approx \sqrt{\frac{\sigma\mu_0\omega}{2}} (m^{-1})$$

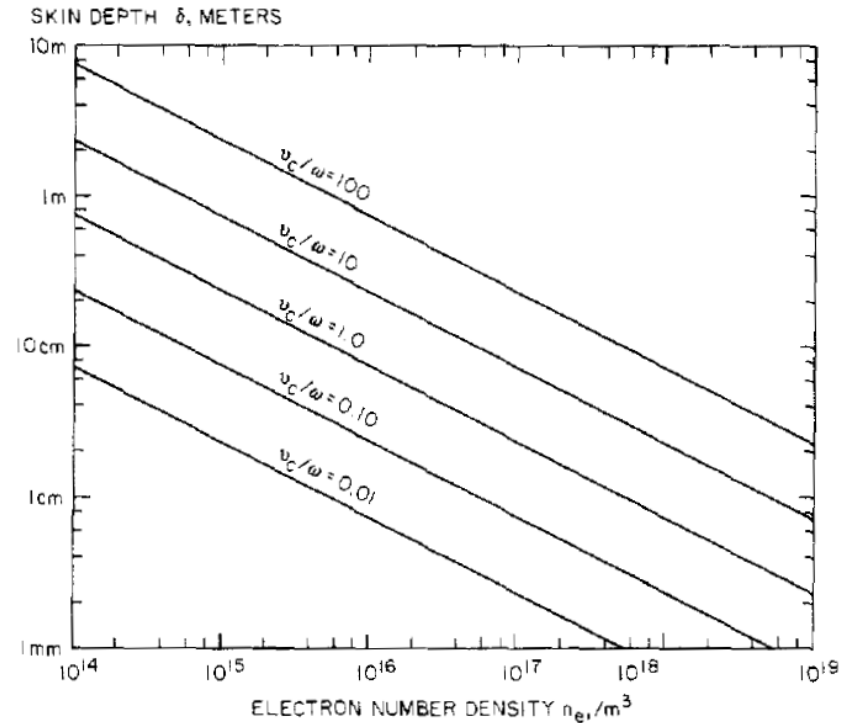
skin depth:  $\delta \approx \sqrt{\frac{2}{\sigma\mu_0\omega}} = \frac{c}{2\pi\nu_{pe}} \sqrt{\frac{\nu_c}{\pi\nu}} (m)$

- The skin depth  $\delta$  ~ the distance that an electromagnetic wave propagates into a medium during one period of the electron plasma frequency.

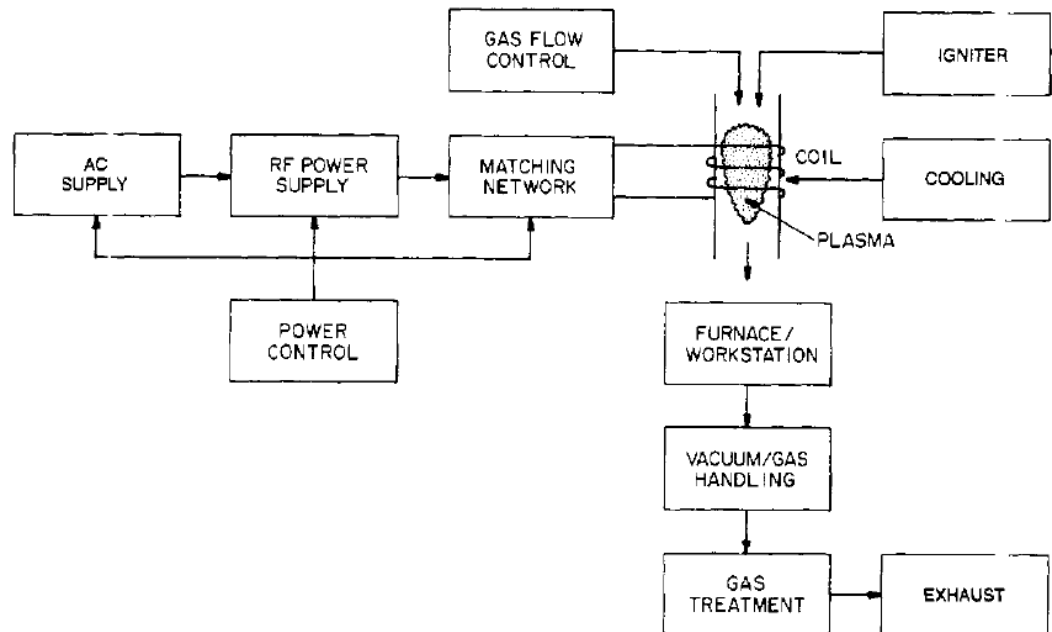
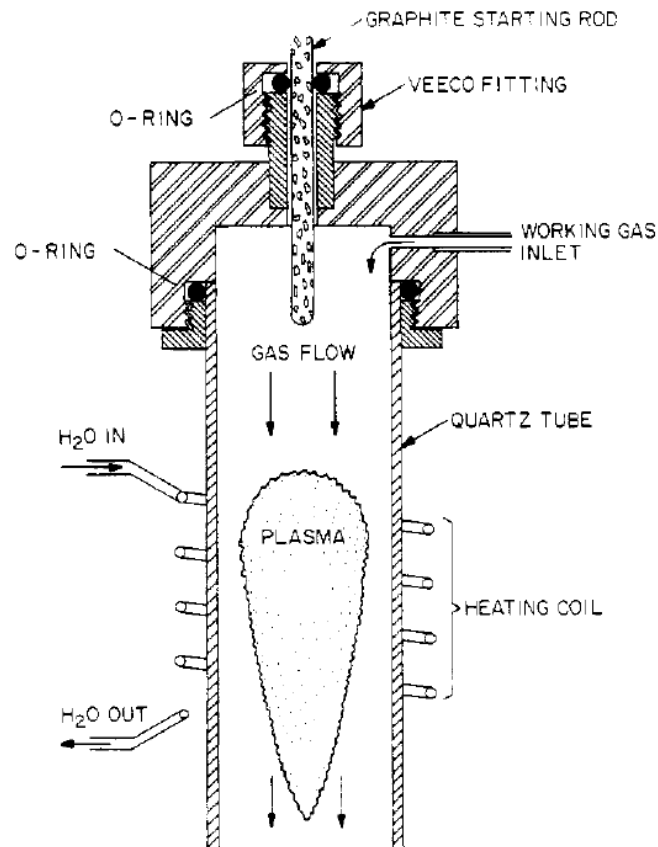
# Skin depth needs to be carefully considered in the design of inductive industrial plasma reactors



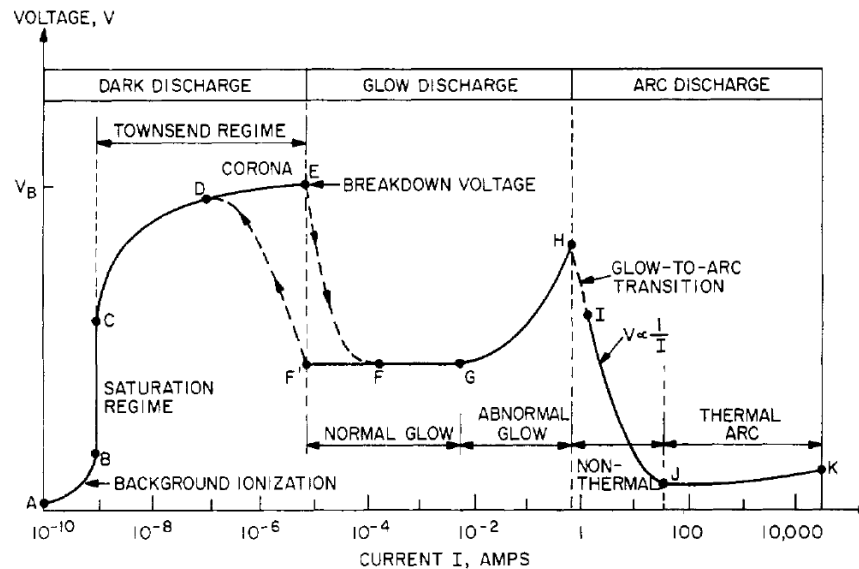
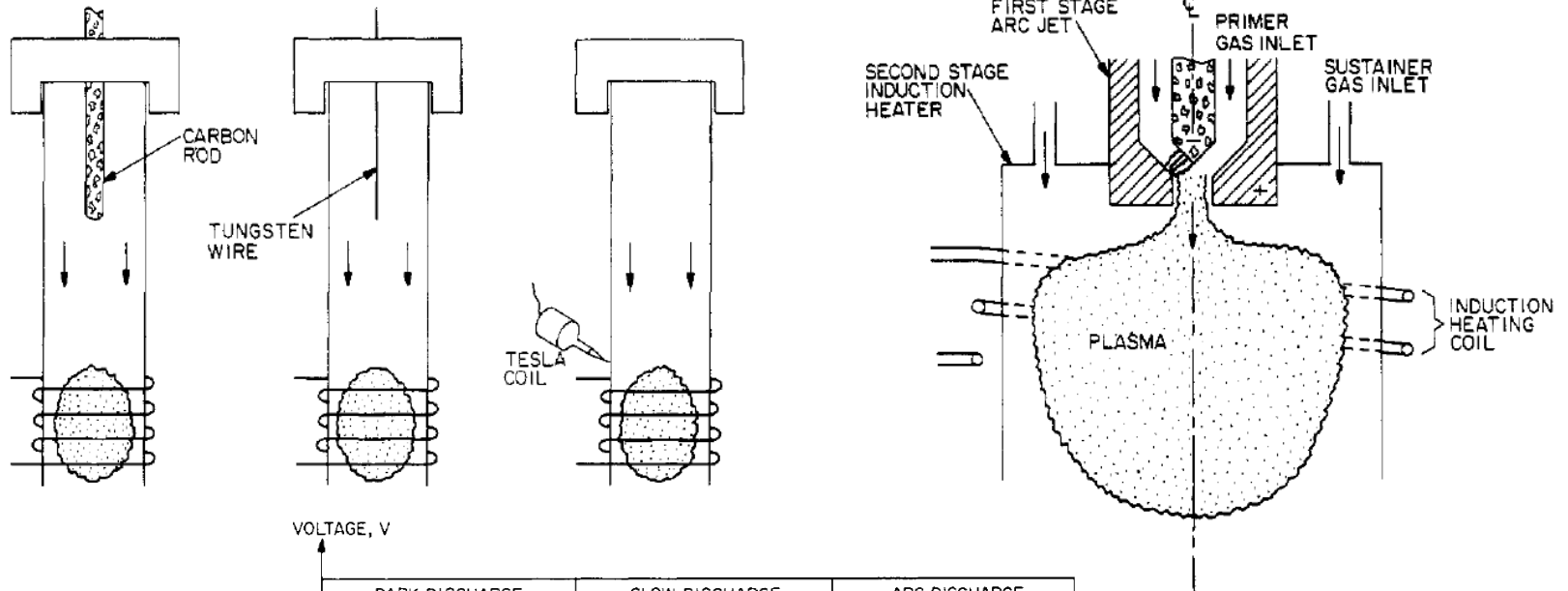
- Boulos et al showed that the energy coupling parameter is maximum when  $1.5\delta \leq a \leq 3\delta$ . However, it doesn't mean the plasma will be uniformly heated.



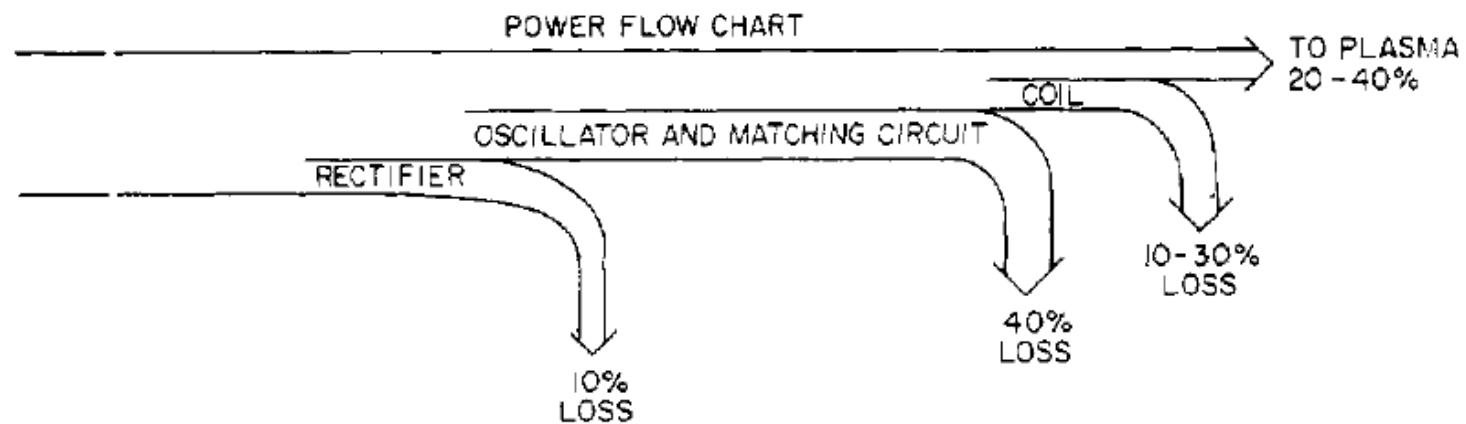
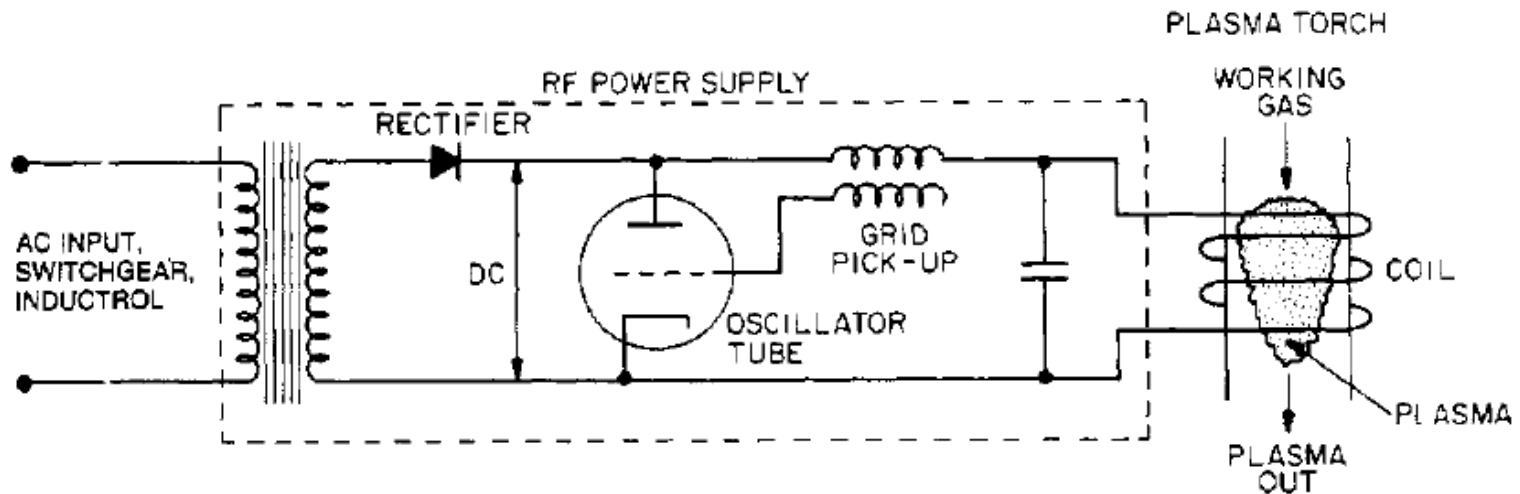
# A kilowatt-level inductively coupled plasma torch is shown



# High voltage initiation is usually required for inductive RF plasma torches



# The power supplies are relatively inefficient

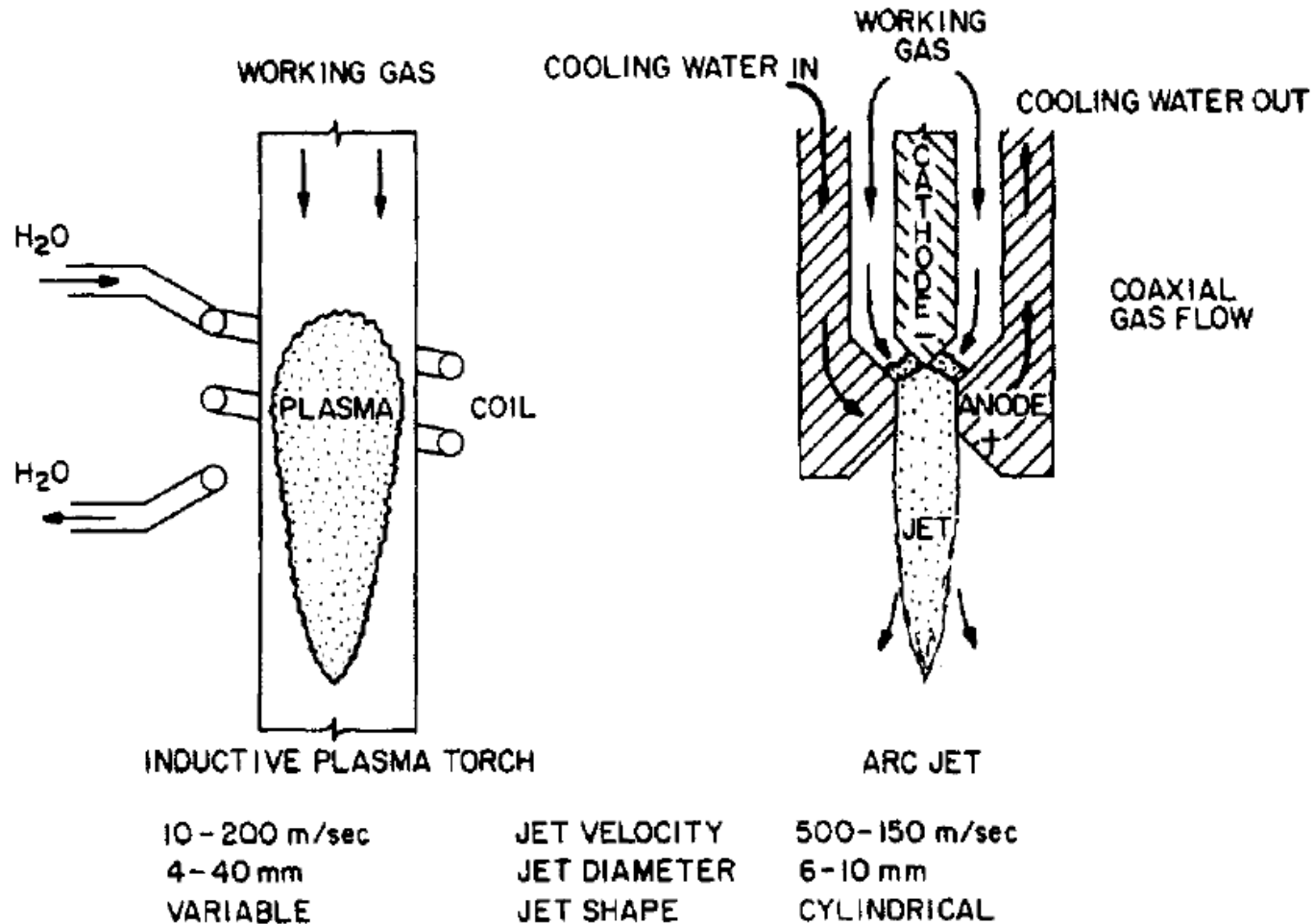


# Operating regimes of inductively coupled plasma torches



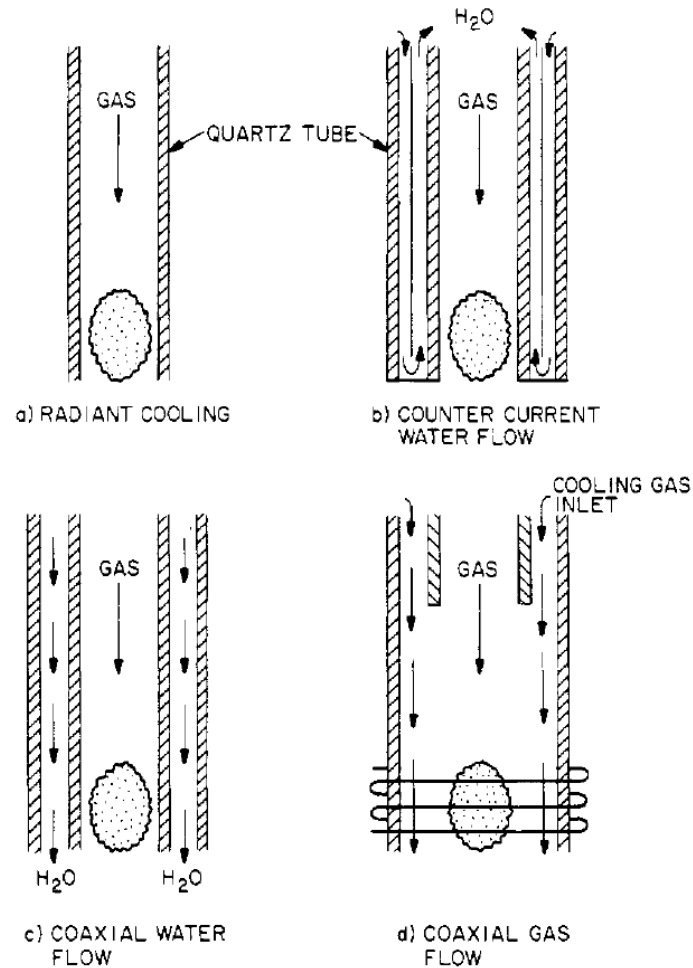
| Parameter       | Low     | Characteristic | High              |
|-----------------|---------|----------------|-------------------|
| Frequency       | 10 kHz  | 13.56 MHz      | 100 MHz           |
| Power           | 1 kW    | 30 kW          | 1MW               |
| Efficiency      | 20%     | 35%            | 50%               |
| Pressure        | 10 Torr | 1 atm          | 10 atm            |
| Gas temperature | 1000 K  | $10^4$ K       | $2 \times 10^4$ K |

# Inductive RF coupling provides a plasma with less contamination from the electrode

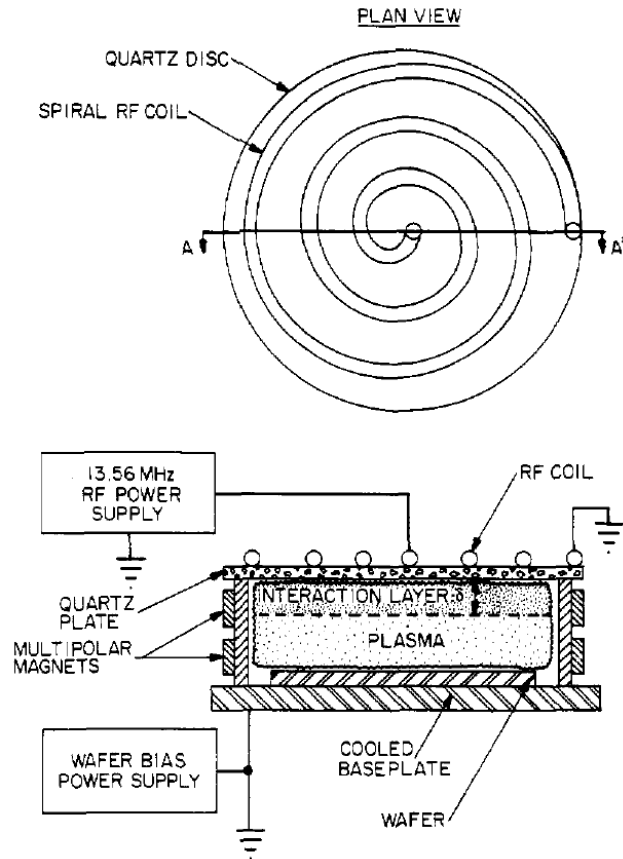




# Several cooling configurations are shown

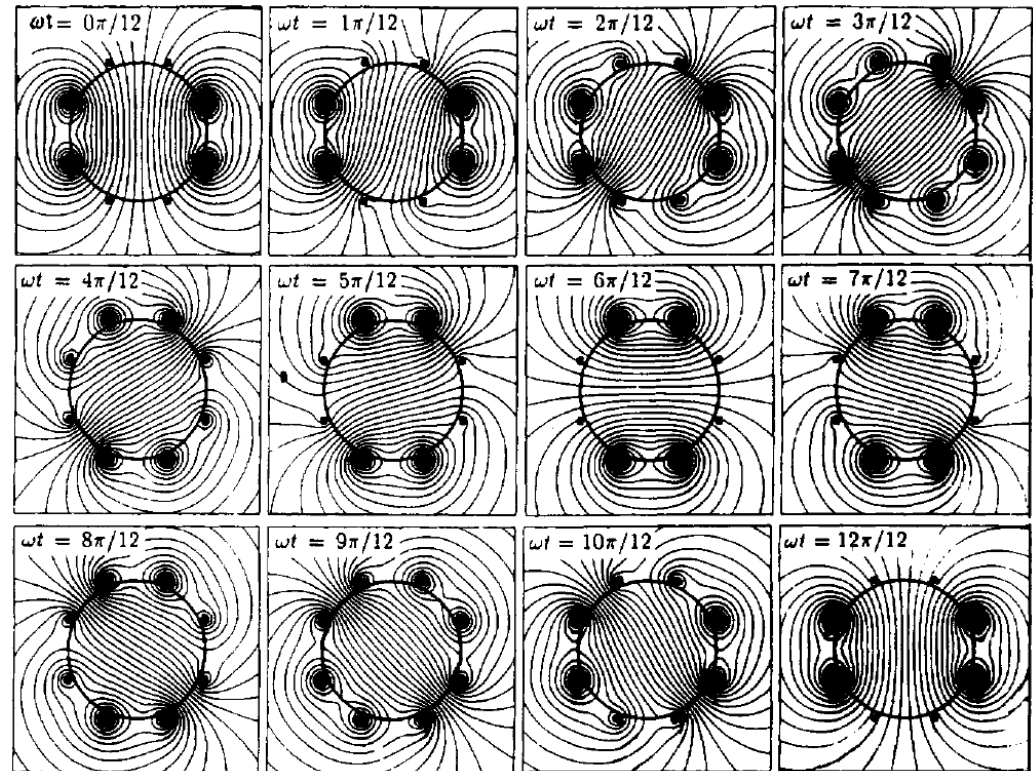
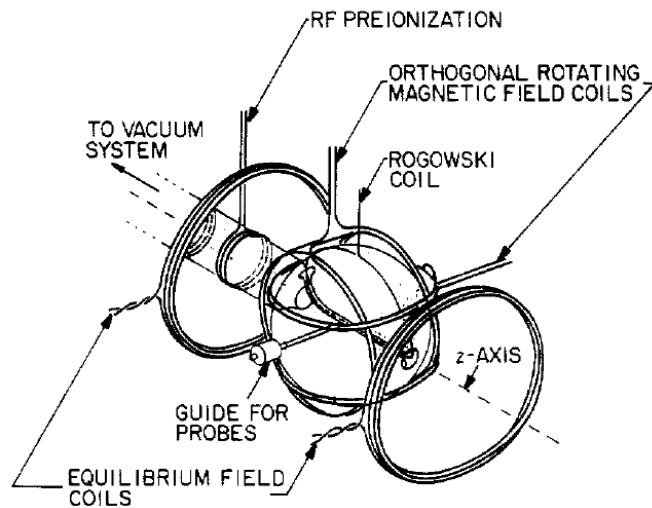


# Inductive parallel plate reactor



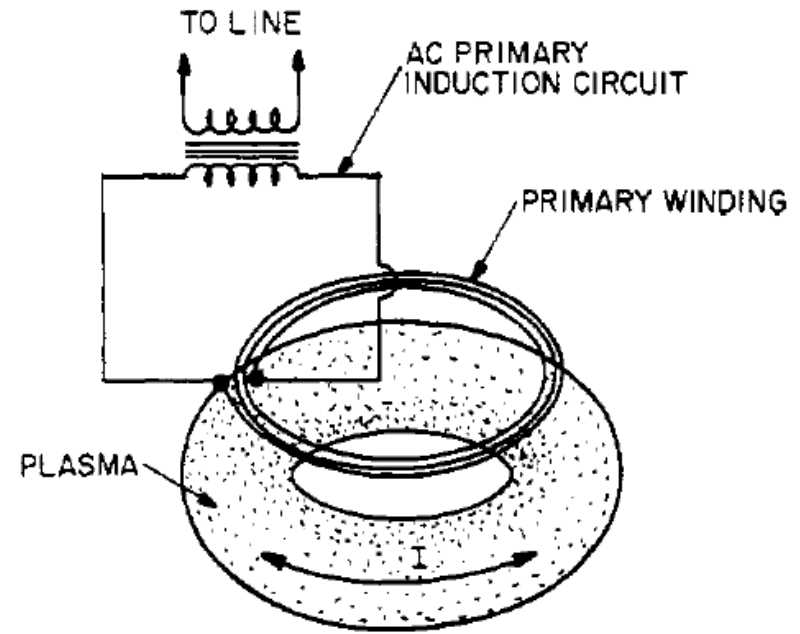
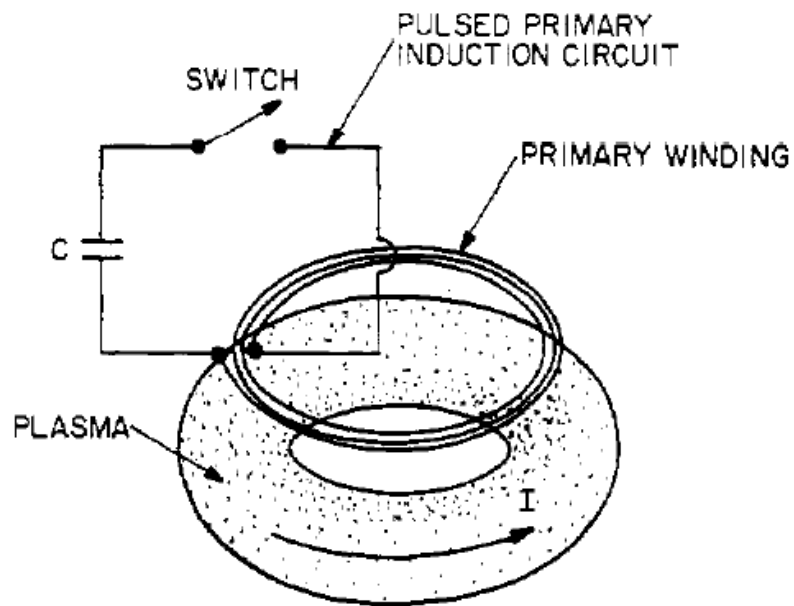
- **Uniform plasma source**
- **Higher power (2 kW) leading to higher plasma density (up to  $10^{18}$  electrons/m<sup>3</sup>)**
- **Lower gas pressure, i. e., longer mean free paths and little scattering of ions and is desired in deposition and etching applications.**

# Rotamak



- The rapidly rotating magnetic field generates large plasma currents, thus heating the plasma to densities and temperatures of interest in many industrial applications

# Inductively heated toroidal plasmas



- Large currents are induced in the plasma by transformer action from a ramped current in a pulsed primary induction circuit.

# Applications of inductive plasma torches

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- **High purity materials production**
  - Silica and other refractories
  - Ultrafine powder
  - Spherical fine power
  - Refining/purification
- **High temperature thermal treatment**
  - Heat treatment
  - Plasma sintering
- **Surface treatment**
  - Oxidation
  - Nitriding

# Applications of inductive plasma torches

---



- **Surface coating**
  - Plasma flame spraying
  - Surface coating of powder
- **Chemical vapor deposition (CVD)**
  - At atmospheric pressure
  - At reduced pressure
- **Chemical synthesis and processing**
- **Experimental applications**
  - Laboratory furnace
  - High intensity light source
  - Spectroscopic analysis
  - Isotope separation
  - Ion source
  - High power density plasma source

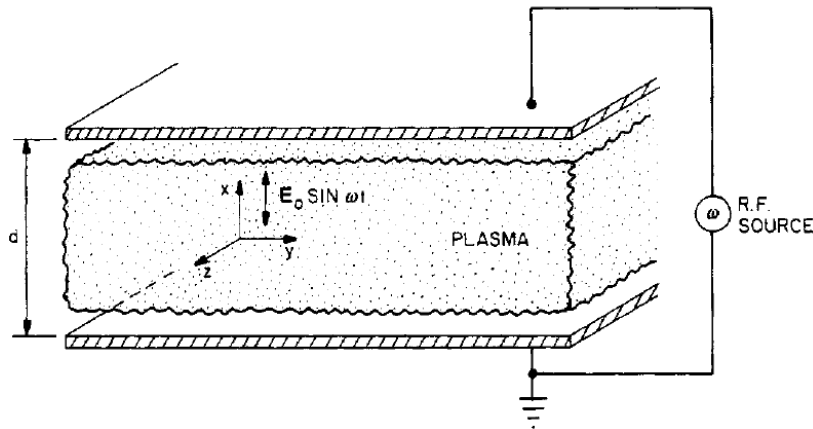
# AC electrical discharges deliver energy to the plasma without contact between electrodes and the plasma

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- Other mechanism
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  - Pulsed-power generated plasma

# Capacitive RF coupling plasma without magnetic fields



$$\vec{F} = m \vec{a} = -\nu_c m \vec{v} - e \vec{E}$$

$$m \frac{dv_y}{dt} + m\nu_c v_y = 0$$

$$v_y(t) = v_{y0} \exp(-\nu_c t)$$

$$m \frac{d^2 x}{dt^2} + m\nu_c \frac{dx}{dt} = eE_0 \sin(\omega t)$$

$$x = C_1 \sin(\omega t) + C_2 \cos(\omega t)$$

$$C_1 = -\frac{eE_0}{m} \frac{1}{\omega^2 + \nu_c^2}$$

$$C_2 = -\frac{\nu_c eE_0}{\omega m} \frac{1}{\omega^2 + \nu_c^2}$$

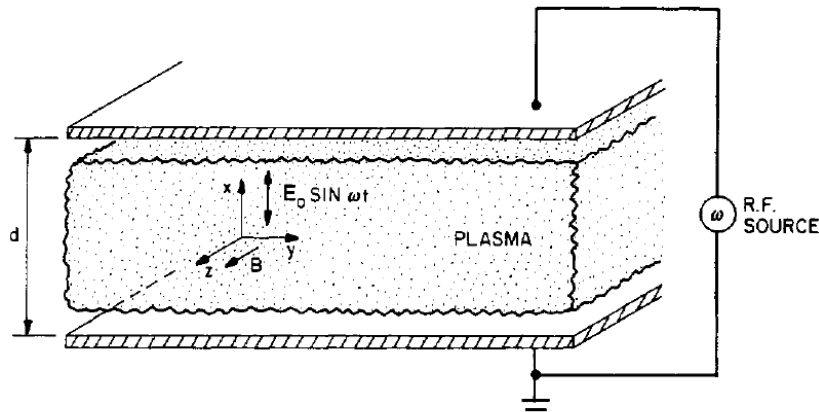
$$v_x(t) = -\frac{eE_0 \omega}{m(\omega^2 + \nu_c^2)} \left[ \cos(\omega t) - \frac{\nu_c}{\omega} \sin(\omega t) \right]$$

$$P = \frac{dW}{dt} = eE_0 \sin(\omega t) v_x$$

$$\bar{P}_{\text{tot}} = n_e \bar{P} = \frac{1}{4} \epsilon_0 E_0^2 \frac{2n_e e^2}{m \epsilon_0} \frac{\nu_c}{\omega^2 + \nu_c^2}$$



# Capacitive RF coupling plasma with magnetic fields



$$\begin{aligned} \frac{d^2x}{dt^2} + \nu_c \frac{dx}{dt} + \omega_c \frac{dy}{dt} &= -\frac{eE_0}{m} \sin(\omega t) \\ \frac{d^2y}{dt^2} + \nu_c \frac{dy}{dt} - \omega_c \frac{dx}{dt} &= 0 \quad \omega_c = \frac{eB}{m} \end{aligned}$$

$$\vec{F} = m \vec{a} = -\nu_c m \vec{v} - e(\vec{v} \times \vec{B}) - e \vec{E}$$

$$m \frac{d^2x}{dt^2} + m\nu_c \frac{dx}{dt} + eB \frac{dy}{dt} = -eE_0 \sin(\omega t)$$

$$m \frac{dv_y}{dt} + m\nu_c v_y - eB \frac{dx}{dt} = 0$$

$$m \frac{dv_z}{dt} + m\nu_c v_z = 0$$

$$v_z(t) = v_{z0} \exp(-\nu_c t)$$

$$x = C_1 \sin(\omega t) + C_2 \cos(\omega t)$$

$$y = C_3 \sin(\omega t) + C_4 \cos(\omega t)$$

$$C_1 = -\frac{eE_0}{2m} \left[ \frac{\omega + \omega_c}{(\omega + \omega_c)^2 + \nu_c^2} + \frac{\omega - \omega_c}{(\omega - \omega_c)^2 + \nu_c^2} \right]$$

$$C_2 = -\frac{\nu_c eE_0}{2\omega m} \left[ \frac{1}{(\omega + \omega_c)^2 + \nu_c^2} + \frac{1}{(\omega - \omega_c)^2 + \nu_c^2} \right]$$

$$C_3 = \frac{\omega_c (C_1 \nu_c + C_2 \omega)}{\omega^2 + \nu_c^2} \quad C_4 = -\frac{\omega_c (C_1 \omega - C_2 \nu_c)}{\omega^2 + \nu_c^2}$$

# The coupling efficient for capacitive RF with magnetic fields is less than DC electrical discharge



$$P = \frac{dW}{dt} = eE_0 \sin(\omega t) v_x$$

$$\begin{aligned} \bar{P}_{\text{tot}} = n_e \bar{P} &= \frac{1}{4} \epsilon_0 E_0^2 \frac{n_e e^2}{m \epsilon_0} v_c \left[ \frac{1}{(\omega + \omega_c)^2 + v_c^2} + \frac{1}{(\omega - \omega_c)^2 + v_c^2} \right] \\ &= \frac{1}{4} \epsilon_0 E_0^2 \times \omega_{pe}^2 v_c \left[ \frac{1}{(\omega + \omega_c)^2 + v_c^2} + \frac{1}{(\omega - \omega_c)^2 + v_c^2} \right] \end{aligned}$$

- DC, unmagnetized discharge ( $\omega = \omega_c = 0$ ):  $v_{*0} = \frac{2\omega_{pe}^2}{v_c}$
- Low collisionality ( $\omega_c \gg v_c$ ):  

$$v_* \approx v_{*0} v_c^2 \left[ \frac{\omega^2 + \omega_c^2}{(\omega^2 - \omega_c^2)^2} \right] \rightarrow v_{*0} \frac{v_c^2}{\omega_c^2} \ll v_{*0} \quad (\omega, v_c \ll \omega_c)$$
- High collisionality ( $\omega_c \ll v_c$ ):  

$$v_* \approx v_{*0} \frac{v_c^2}{\omega^2 + v_c^2} \approx v_{*0} (\omega, \omega_c \ll v_c)$$
- Resonant ( $\omega = \omega_c$ ):

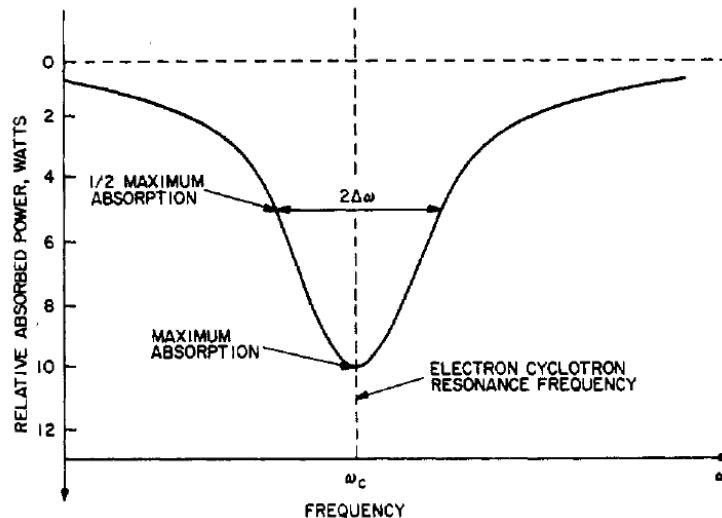
$$v_* = v_{*0} \frac{2\omega_c^2 + v_c^2}{4\omega_c^2 + v_c^2} \rightarrow \frac{1}{2} v_{*0} (\omega = \omega_c \gg v_c)$$

# Collision frequency can be measured using capacitive RF electrical discharges



$$\bar{P}(\omega_c) = \frac{1}{4} \epsilon_0 E_0^2 \times v_{*0} \frac{2 + (v_c/\omega_c)^2}{4 + (v_c/\omega_c)^2} = \frac{1}{4} \epsilon_0 E_0^2 \times v_{*0} \frac{2 + \epsilon^2}{4 + \epsilon^2}$$

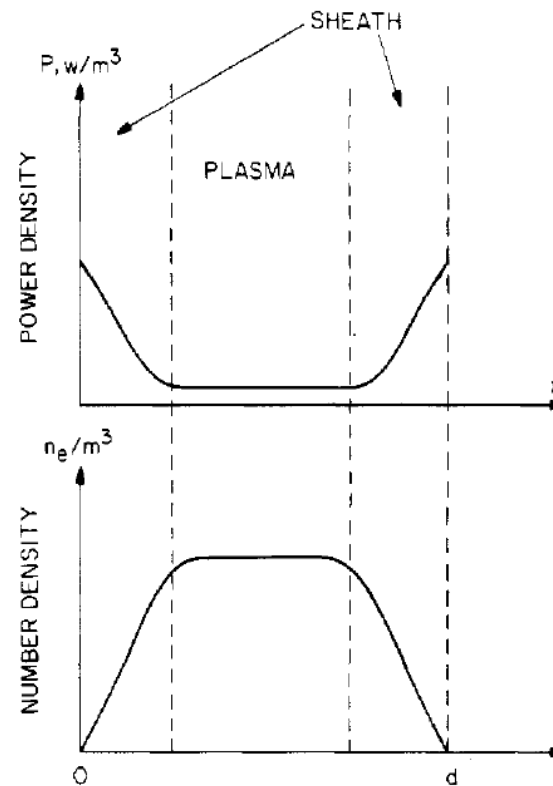
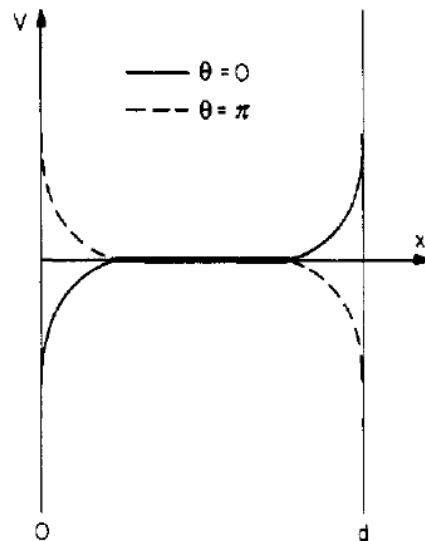
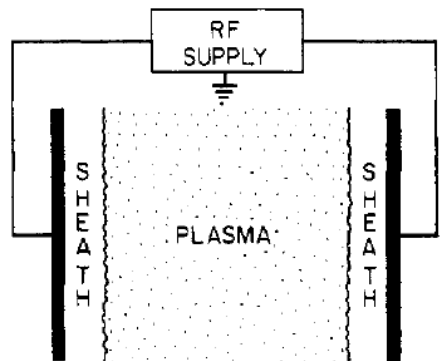
$$\begin{aligned} \bar{P}(\omega_c \pm \Delta\omega) &= \frac{1}{4} \epsilon_0 E_0^2 \times \frac{v_{*0}}{2} \left( \frac{v_c}{\omega_c} \right)^2 \left[ \frac{1}{(2 \pm \Delta\omega/\omega_c)^2 + (v_c/\omega_c)^2} + \frac{1}{(\Delta\omega/\omega_c)^2 + (v_c/\omega_c)^2} \right] \\ &= \frac{1}{4} \epsilon_0 E_0^2 \times \frac{v_{*0}}{2} \epsilon^2 \left[ \frac{1}{(2 \pm \delta)^2 + \epsilon^2} + \frac{1}{\delta^2 + \epsilon^2} \right] \quad \text{where } \delta \equiv \frac{\Delta\omega}{\omega_c}, \epsilon \equiv \frac{v_c}{\omega_c} \end{aligned}$$



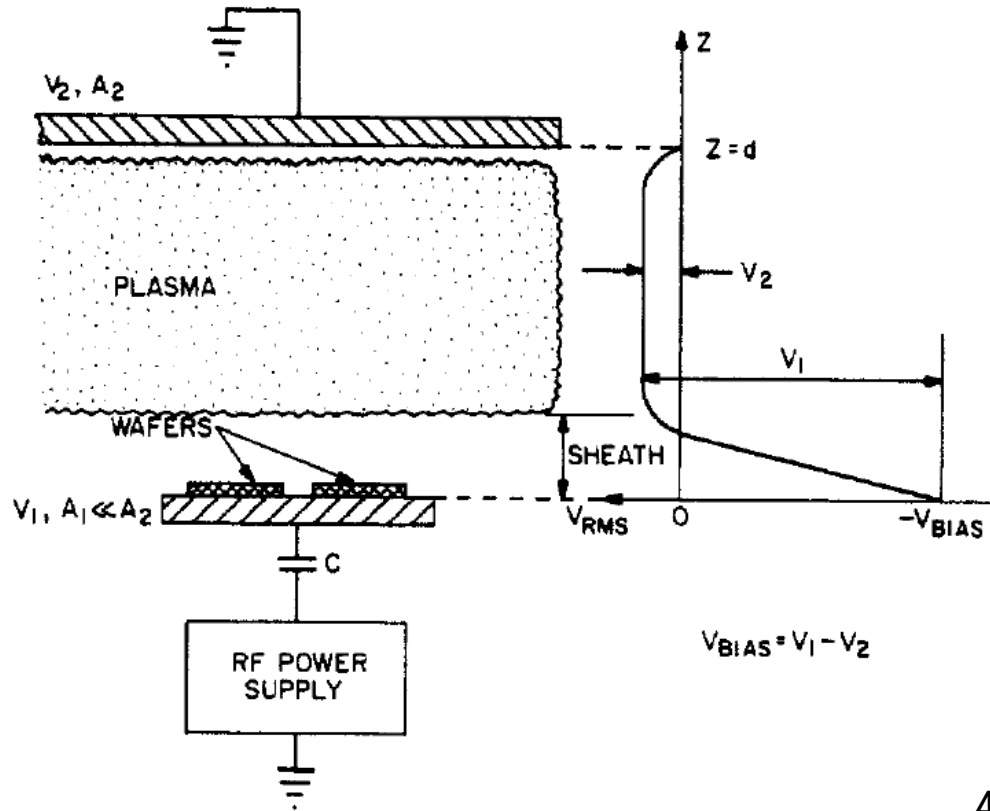
For  $\delta \approx \epsilon \ll 1$ ,

$$\bar{P}(\omega_c \pm v_c) = \frac{1}{2} \bar{P}(\omega_c)$$

# Symmetrical capacitive RF discharge model



# Empirical scaling of electrode voltage drop



$$I_1 = A_1 J_1 = A_1 e n_{i1} \bar{v}_{i1}$$

$$I_2 = A_2 J_2 = A_2 e n_{i2} \bar{v}_{i2}$$

$$\bar{v}_{i1} = \sqrt{\left(\frac{2eV_1}{m_i}\right)}$$

$$\bar{v}_{i2} = \sqrt{\left(\frac{2eV_2}{m_i}\right)}$$

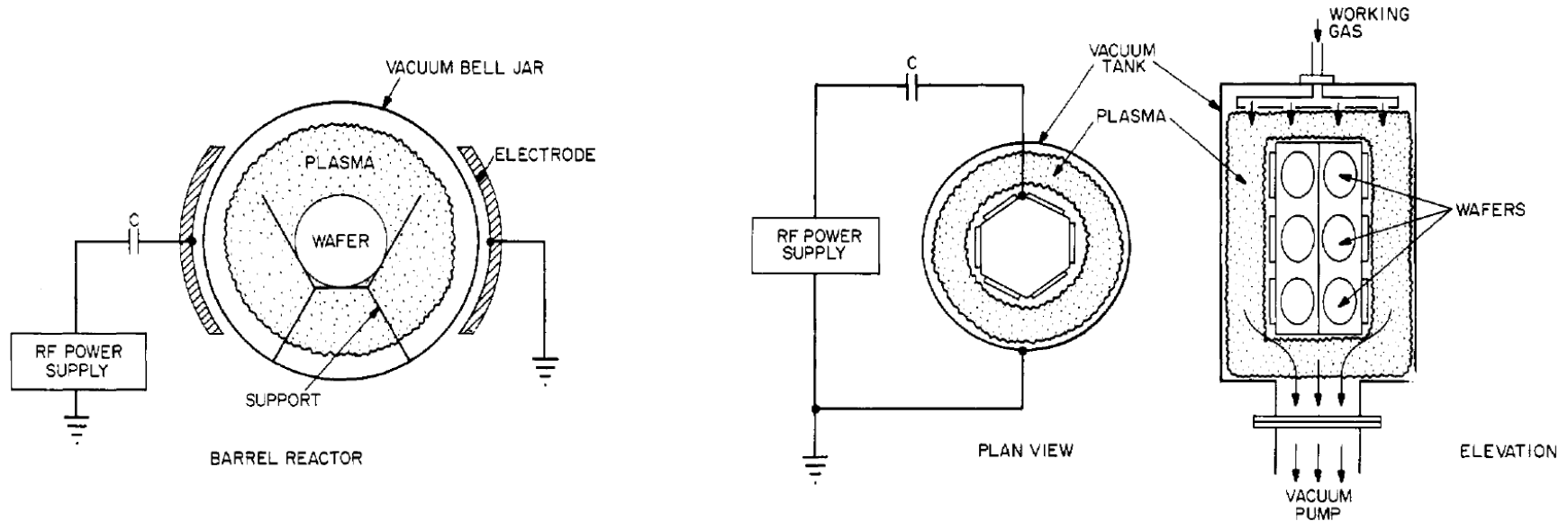
Assuming:  $I_1 = I_2$      $n_{i1} = n_{i2}$

$$A_1 e n_{i1} \sqrt{\left(\frac{2eV_1}{m_i}\right)} = A_2 e n_{i2} \sqrt{\left(\frac{2eV_2}{m_i}\right)}$$

$$\frac{V_1}{V_2} = \left(\frac{A_2}{A_1}\right)^q \text{ where } 1.0 \leq q \leq 2.5$$

$$\frac{V_1}{V_2} = \left(\frac{A_2}{A_1}\right)^2$$

# Example of capacitively coupled RF plasma source 1



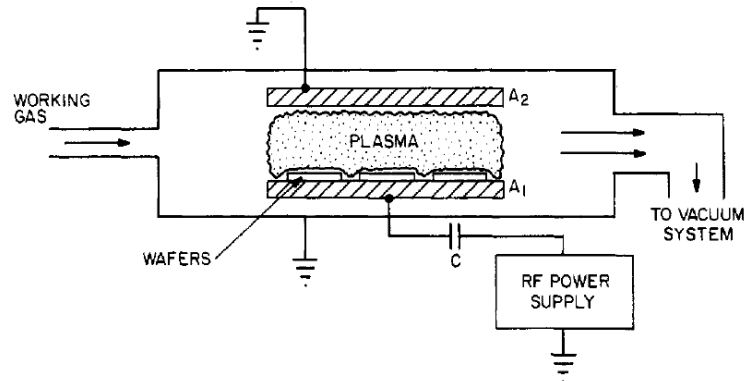
- **Barrier reactor** – the wafers float electrically and have low ion bombardment energies

- **Hexagonal reactor** – the wafers develop a DC bias which leads to a relatively anisotropic, vertical etch.

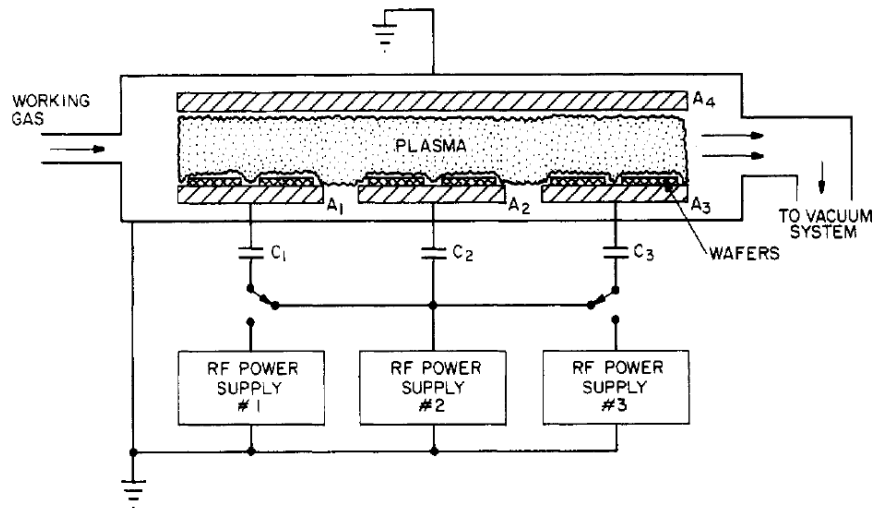
# Example of capacitively coupled RF plasma source 2



- Plane parallel reactor



- Multiple electrode system



# Operating regimes of capacitively coupled plasma reactors used for plasma processing



| Parameter                   | Low value                        | Typical value                              | High value                         |
|-----------------------------|----------------------------------|--|------------------------------------|
| Frequency                   | 1 kHz                            | 13.56 MHz                                  | 100 MHz                            |
| Gas pressure                | 3 mTorr                          | 300 mTorr                                  | 5 Torr                             |
| Power level                 | 50 W                             | $\approx 200$ W                            | 500 W                              |
| rms electrode voltage       | 100 V                            | $\approx 300$ V                            | 1000 V                             |
| Current density             | 0.1 mA/cm <sup>2</sup>           | $\approx 3$ mA/cm <sup>2</sup>             | 10 mA/cm <sup>2</sup>              |
| Electron temperature, $T_e$ | 3 eV                             | $\approx 5$ eV                             | 8 eV                               |
| Electron density, $n_e$     | 10 <sup>15</sup> /m <sup>3</sup> | $\approx 5 \times 10^{15}$ /m <sup>3</sup> | $3 \times 10^{17}$ /m <sup>3</sup> |
| Ion energy, $\mathcal{E}_i$ | 5 eV                             | 50 eV                                      | 500 eV                             |
| Electrode separation, $d$   | 0.5 cm                           | 4 cm                                       | 30 cm                              |



# AC electrical discharges deliver energy to the plasma without contact between electrodes and the plasma

---



- DC electrical discharge – a true current in the form of a flow of ions or electrons to the electrodes.
- AC electrical discharge – the power supply interacts with the plasma by displacement current.
  - Inductive radio frequency (RF) electrical discharges
  - Capacitive RF electrical discharges
  - **Microwave electrical discharges**
  - Dielectric-barrier discharges (DBDs)
- Other mechanism
  - Laser produced plasma
  - Pulsed-power generated plasma

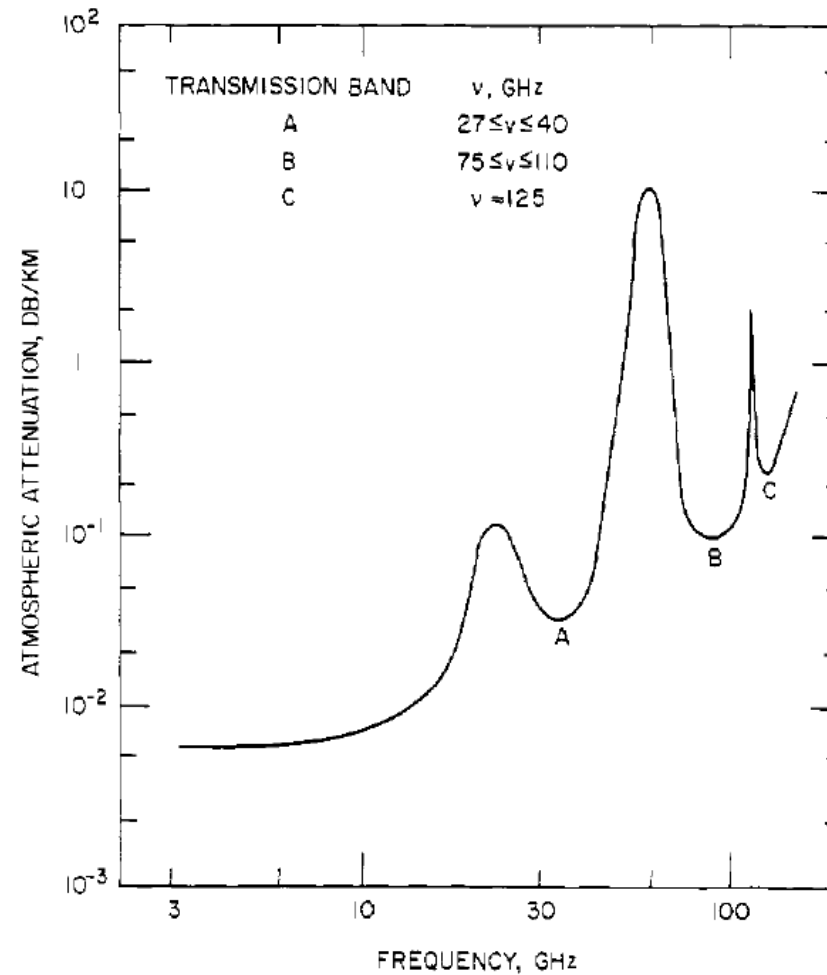
# Advantage of using microwave electrical discharges

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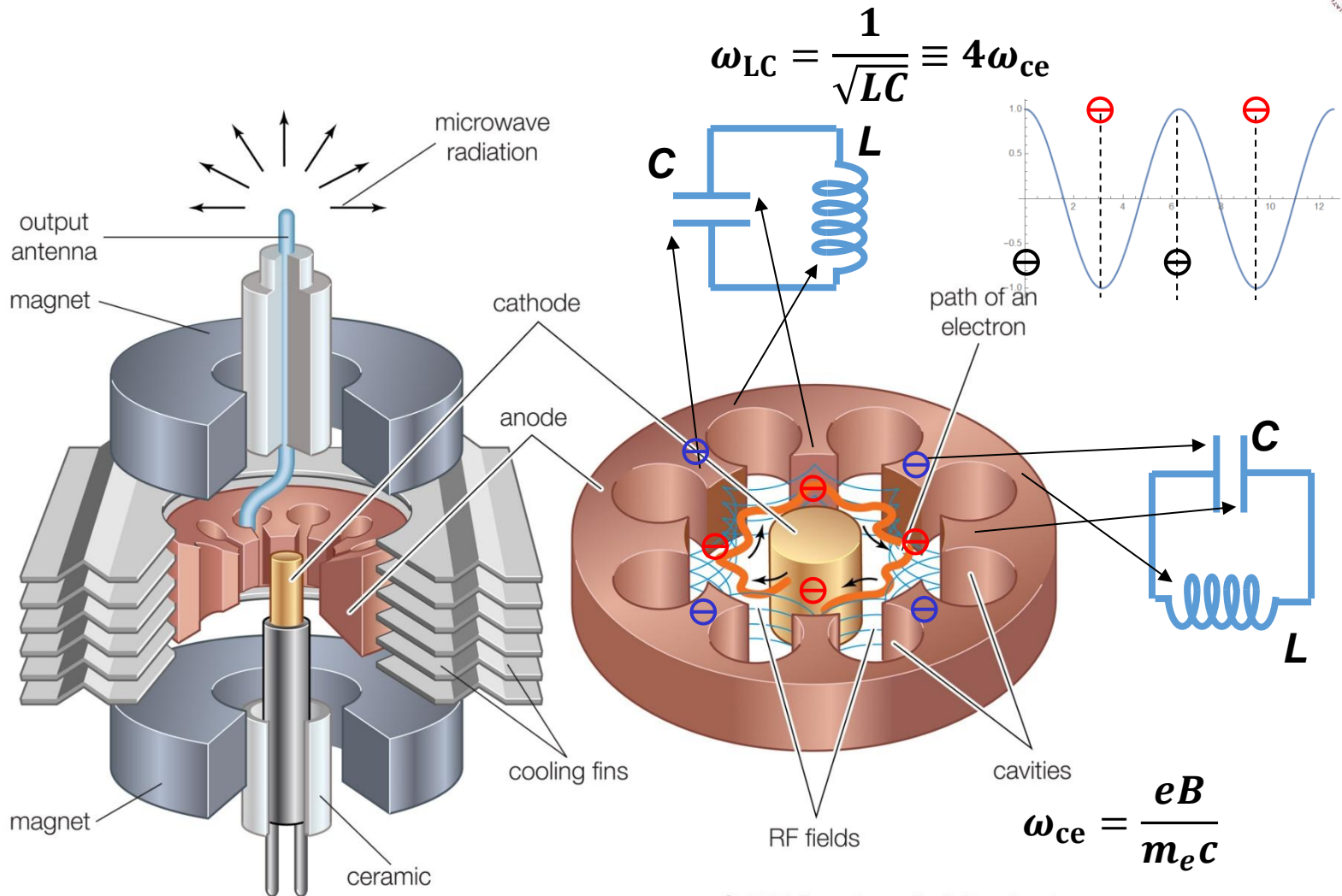


- The wavelength of the microwave is in centimeters range. In contrast, the wavelength is 22 m for RF frequency  $f = 13.6$  MHz.
- The electron number density can approach the critical number density. ( $7 \times 10^{16} \text{ m}^{-3}$ ) at a frequency of 2.45 GHz.
- The plasma in microwave discharges is quasi-optical to microwave.
- Microwave-generated plasmas have a higher electron kinetic temperature (5 ~ 15 eV) than DC or low frequency RF-generated plasmas (1 or 2 eV).
- Capable of providing a higher fraction of ionization.
- Do not have a high voltage sheath.
- No internal electrodes.

# Microwave frequency is determined for those used in communications and radar purposes

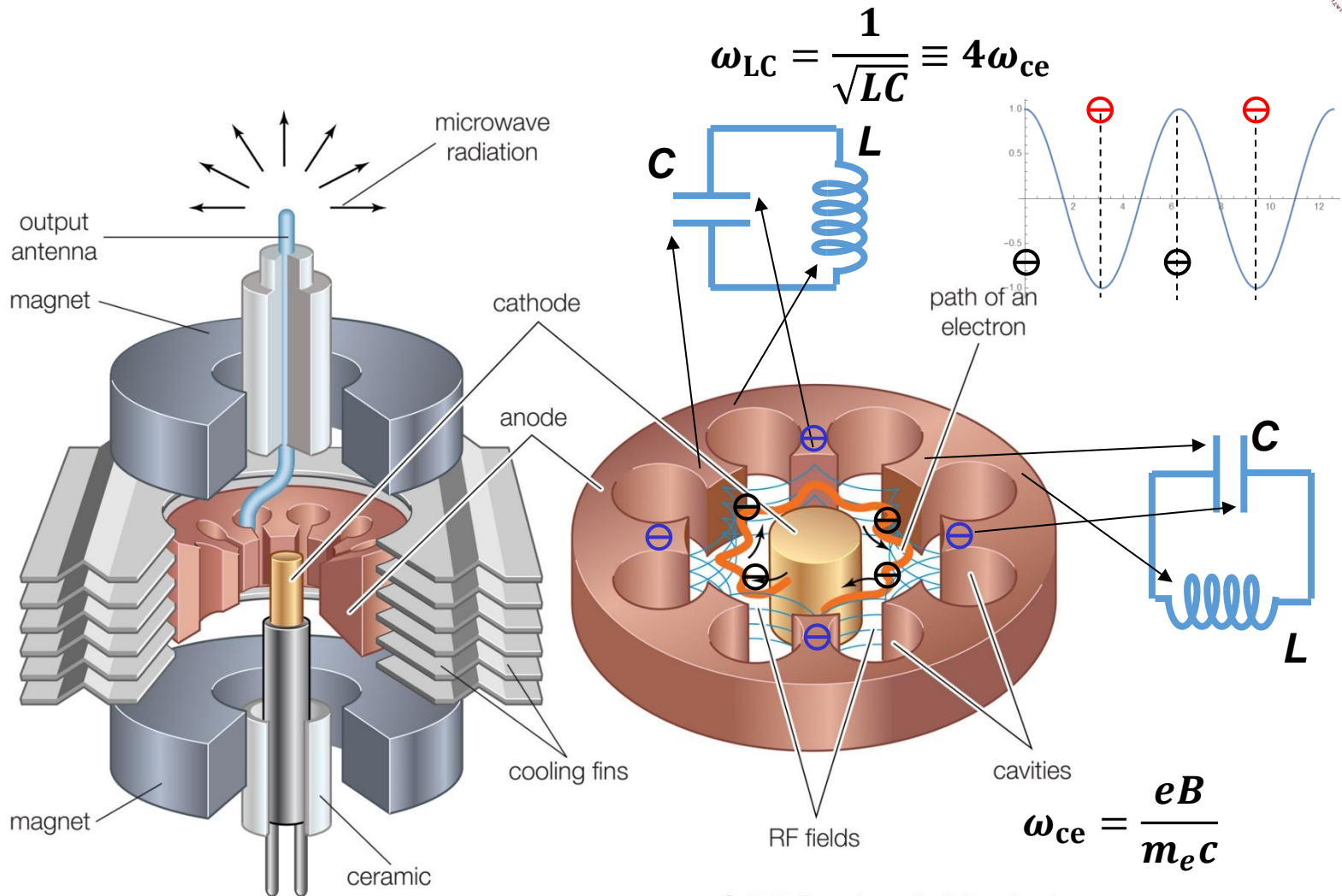


# Internal of a magnetron



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# Internal of a magnetron

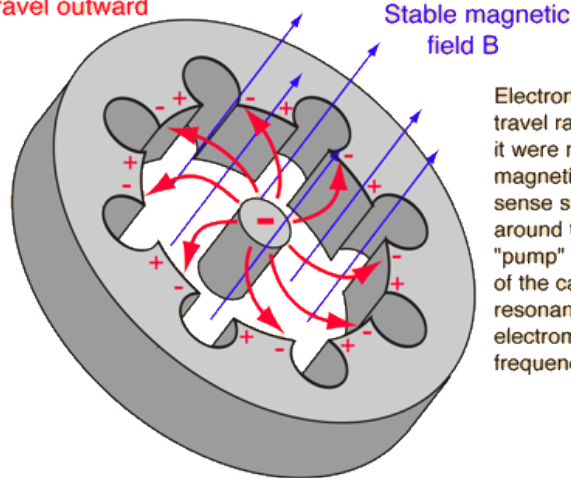


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# Magnetron is a forced oscillation driven by electrons between the gap

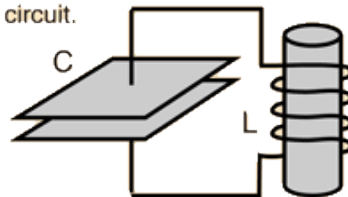


Hot cathode emits electrons which travel outward



Electrons from a hot filament would travel radially to the outside ring if it were not for the magnetic field. The magnetic force deflects them in the sense shown and they tend to sweep around the circle. In so doing, they "pump" the natural resonant frequency of the cavities. The currents around the resonant cavities cause them to radiate electromagnetic energy at that resonant frequency.

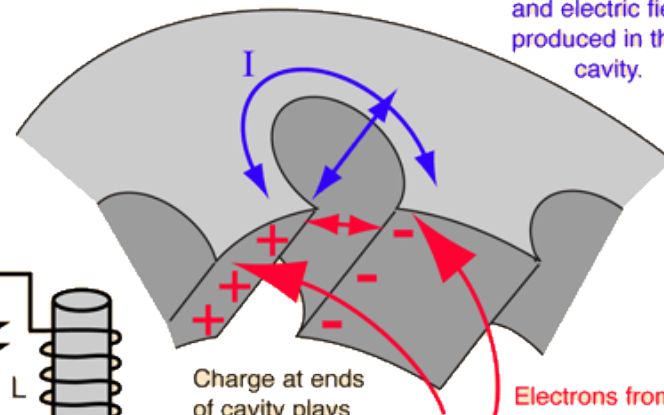
The cavity exhibits a resonance analogous to a parallel resonant circuit.



$$f_{\text{resonance}} \approx \frac{1}{2\pi} \sqrt{\frac{1}{LC}}$$

Current around the cavity plays the role of an inductor.

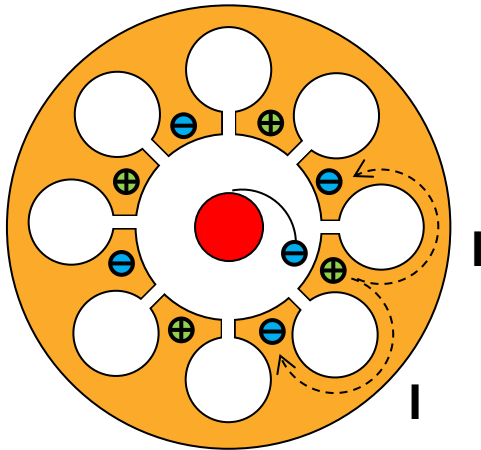
Oscillating magnetic and electric fields produced in the cavity.



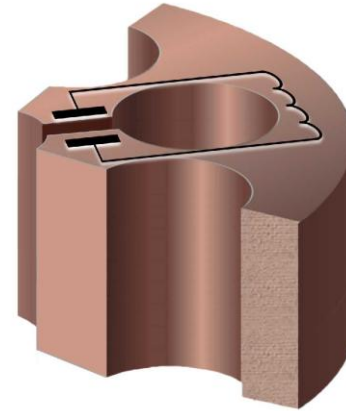
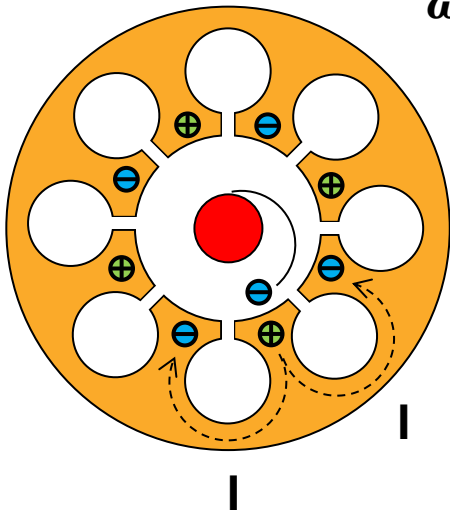
Charge at ends of cavity plays the role of a capacitor.

Electrons from the hot center cathode arriving at a negatively charged region tend to drive it back around the cavity, "pumping" the natural resonant frequency.

# Strong oscillation occurs when the electron cyclotron frequency match the LC oscillation frequency



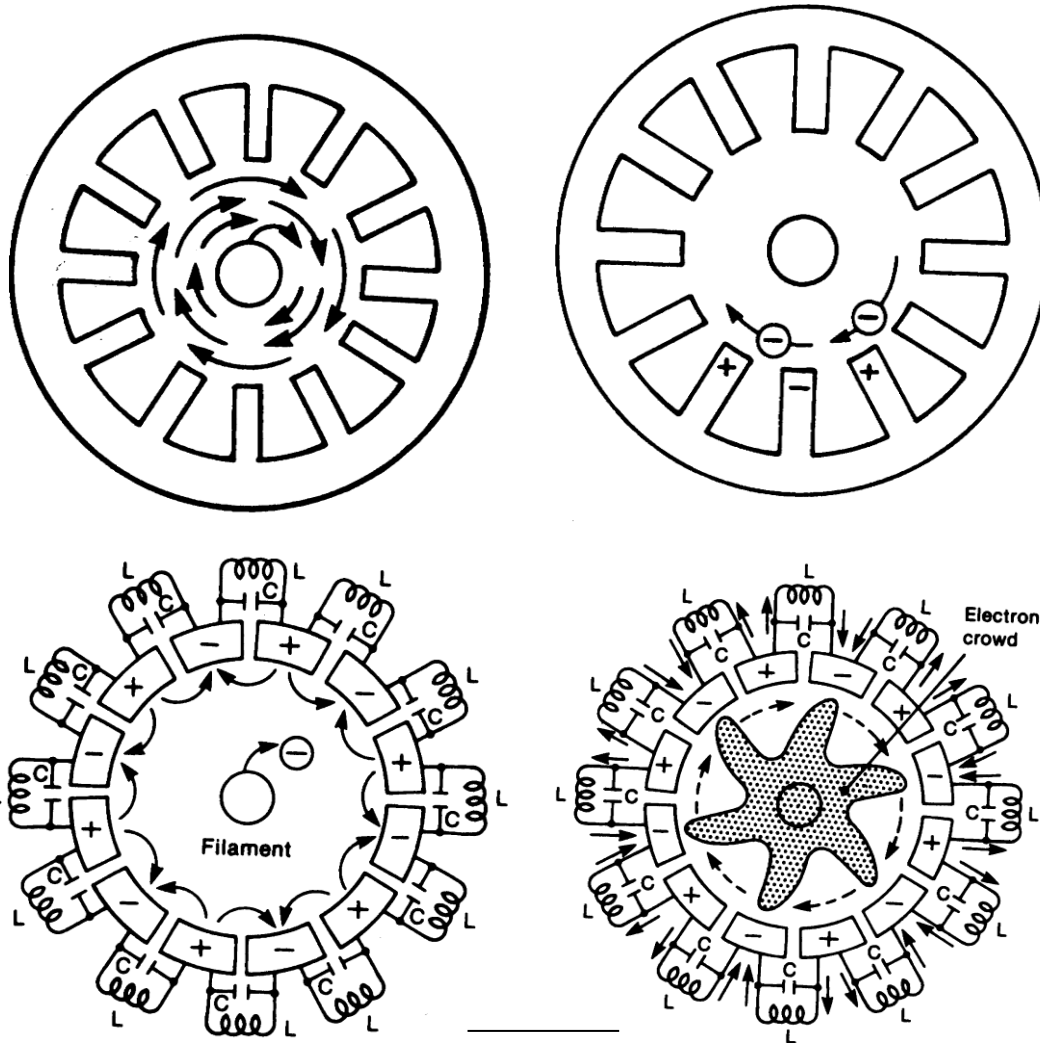
$$\omega_{\text{CE}} = \frac{eB}{mc}$$



$$\omega = \frac{1}{\sqrt{LC}}$$

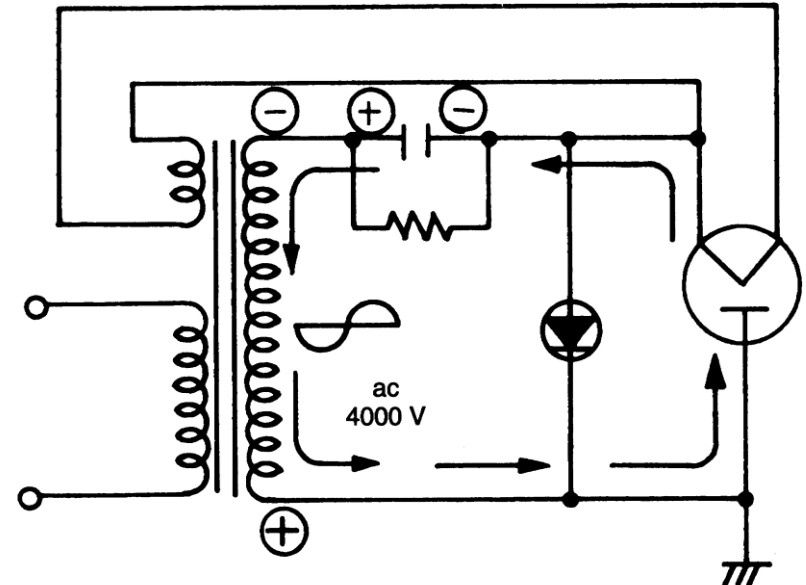
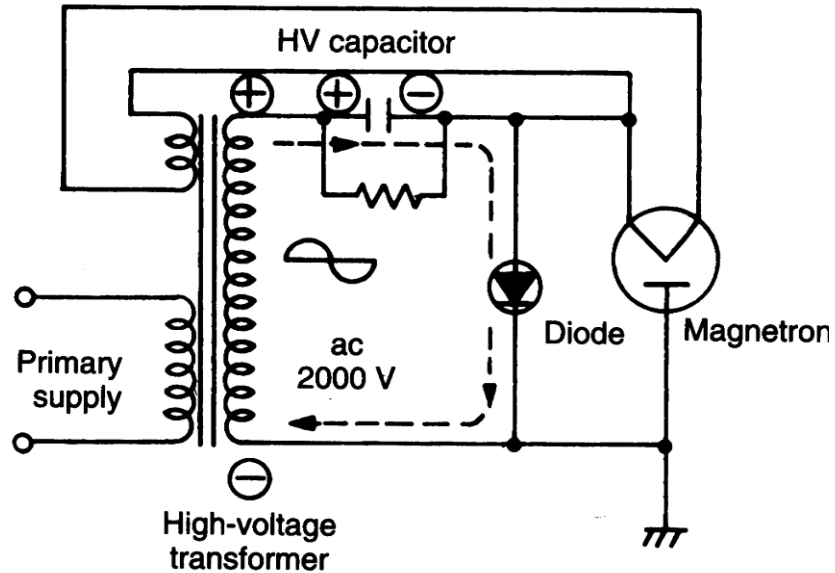
Resonance condition:  $\omega_{\text{CE}} = \omega$

# Resonance in a magnetron

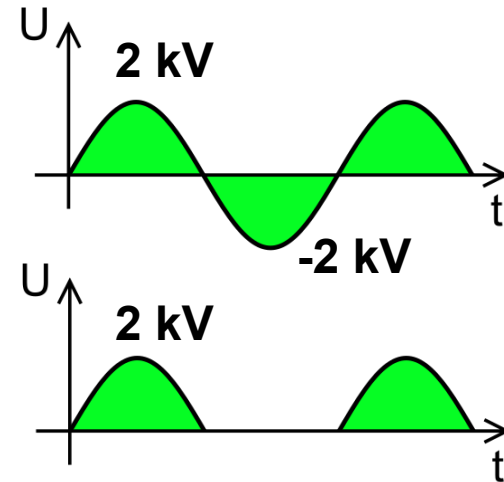
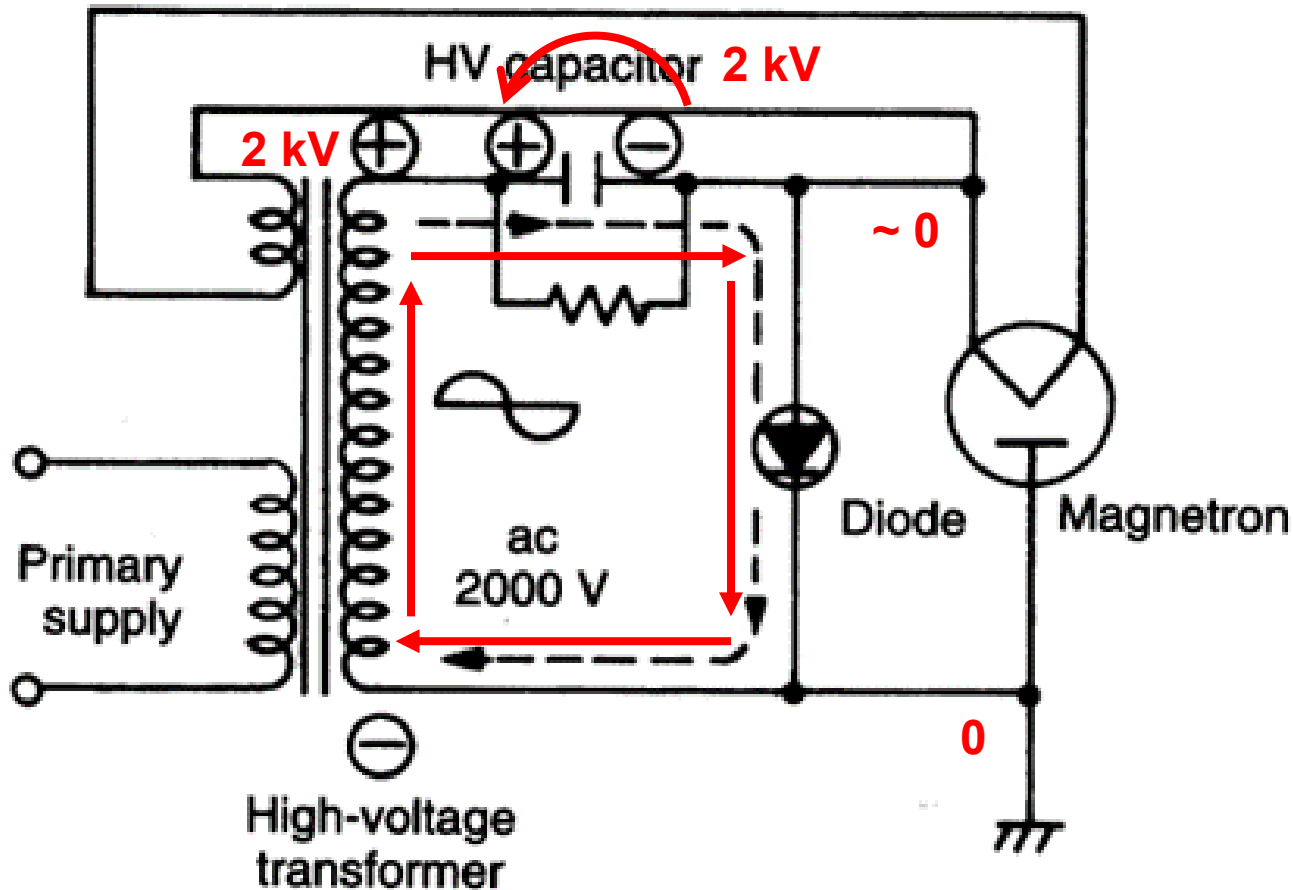




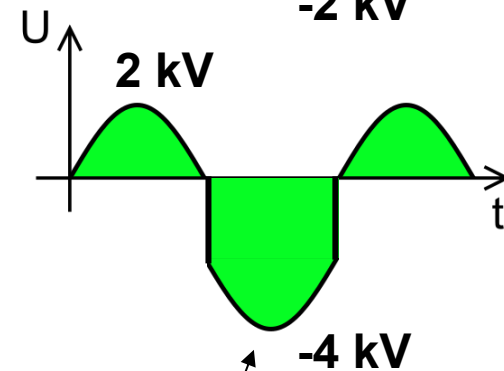
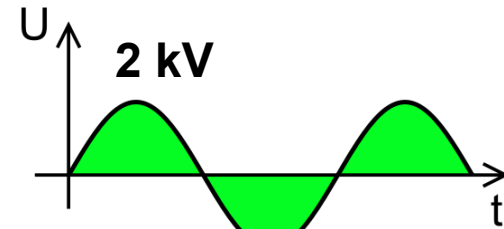
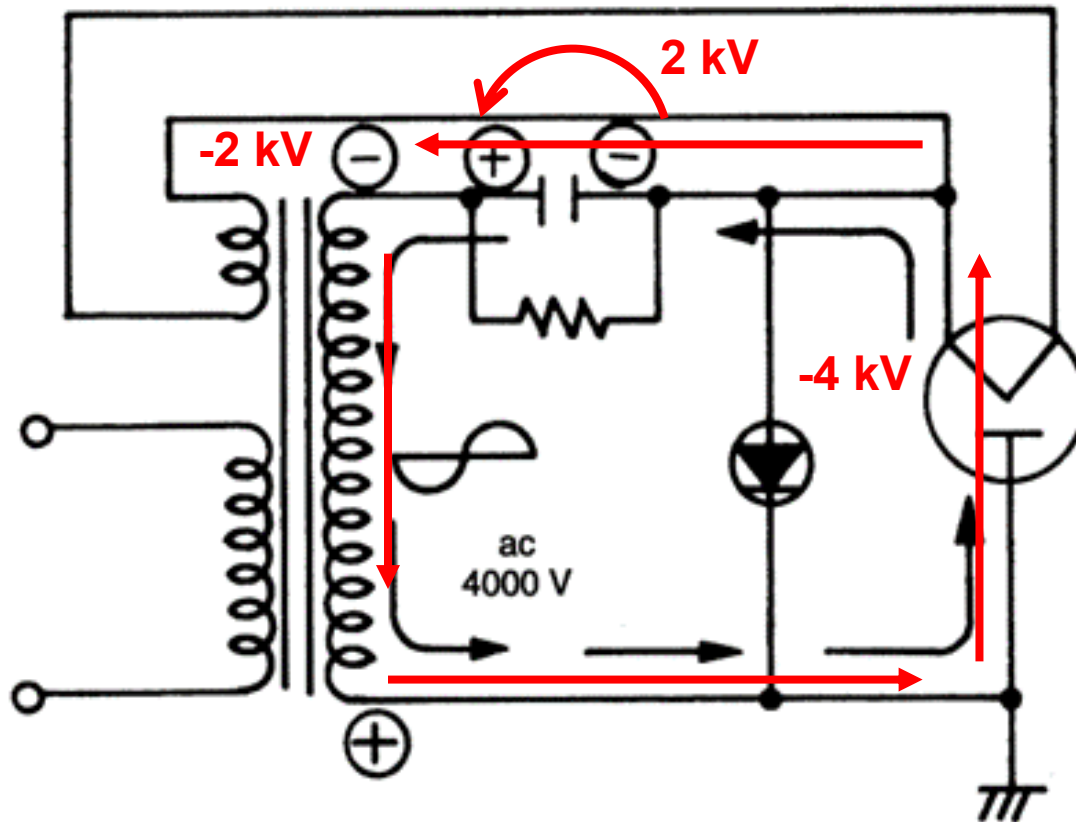
# Magnetron schematic diagram



# Magnetron schematic diagram

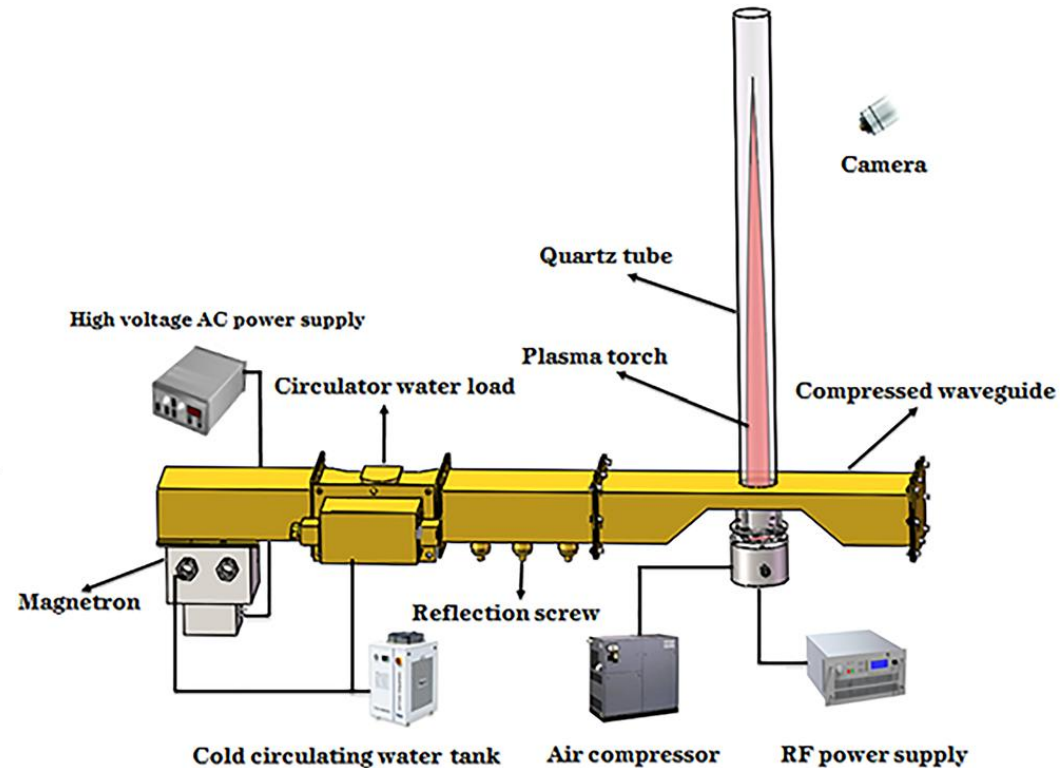
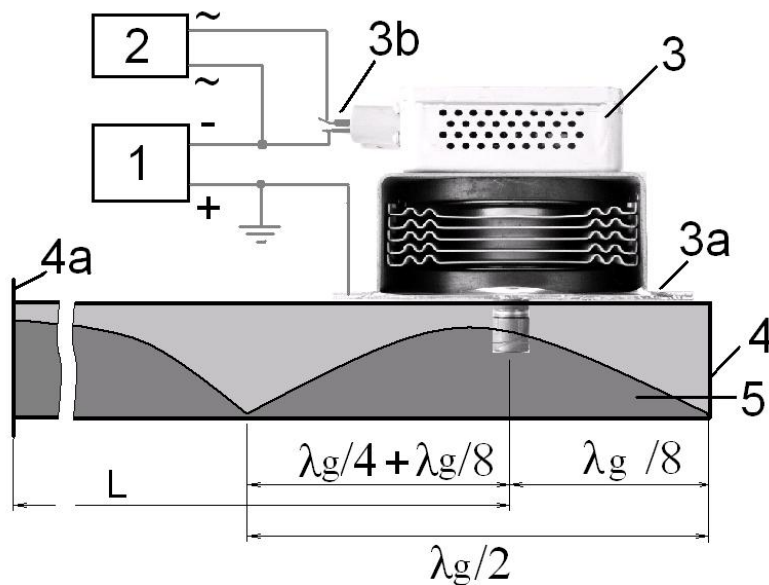


# Magnetron schematic diagram

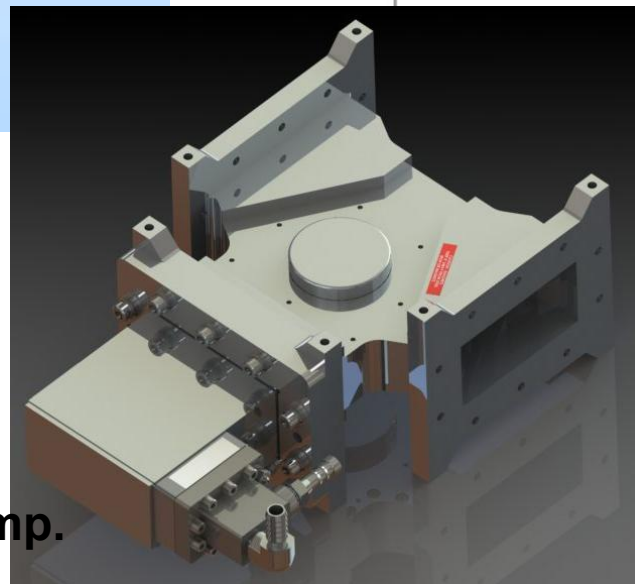
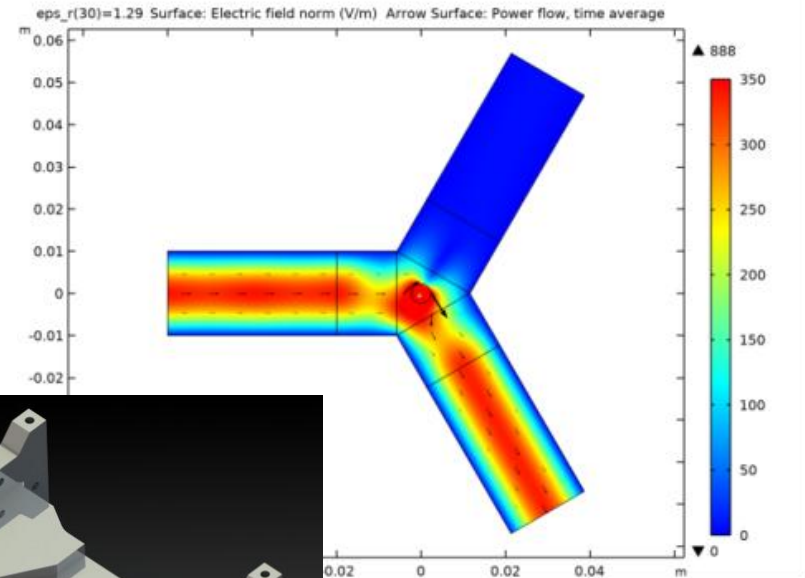
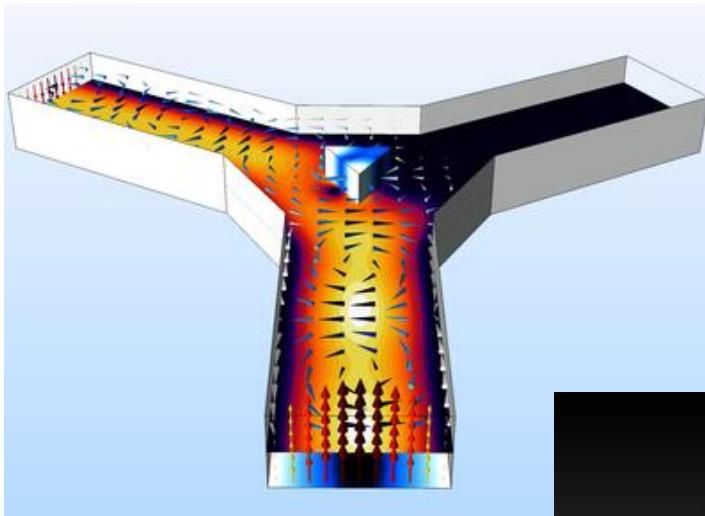


**Microwave is generated.**

# The electrode of the microwave source is located at the location with the highest electric field



# A 3-port circulator combining with a dump can be used as a isolator



**Water load as a dump.**

<https://cn.comsol.com/model/impedance-matching-of-a-lossy-ferrite-3-port-circulator-10302>

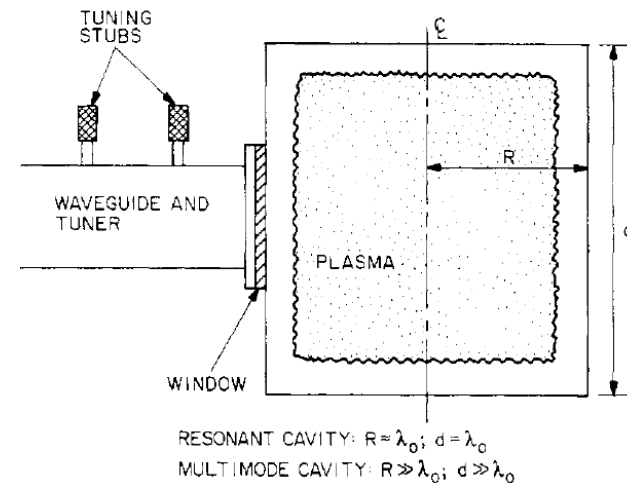
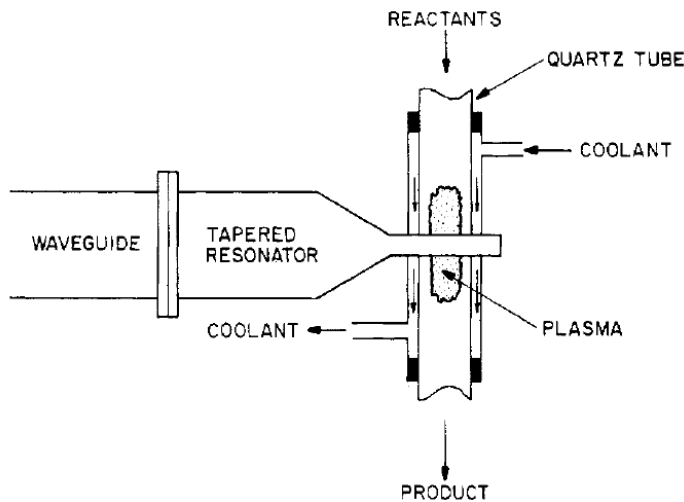
<https://doc.comsol.com/6.0/doc/com.comsol.help.models.rf.circulator/circulator.html>

<https://ferriteinc.com/high-power-microwave-circulators-isolators/wr340-waveguide-s-band/>

# Microwave plasma reactor configurations



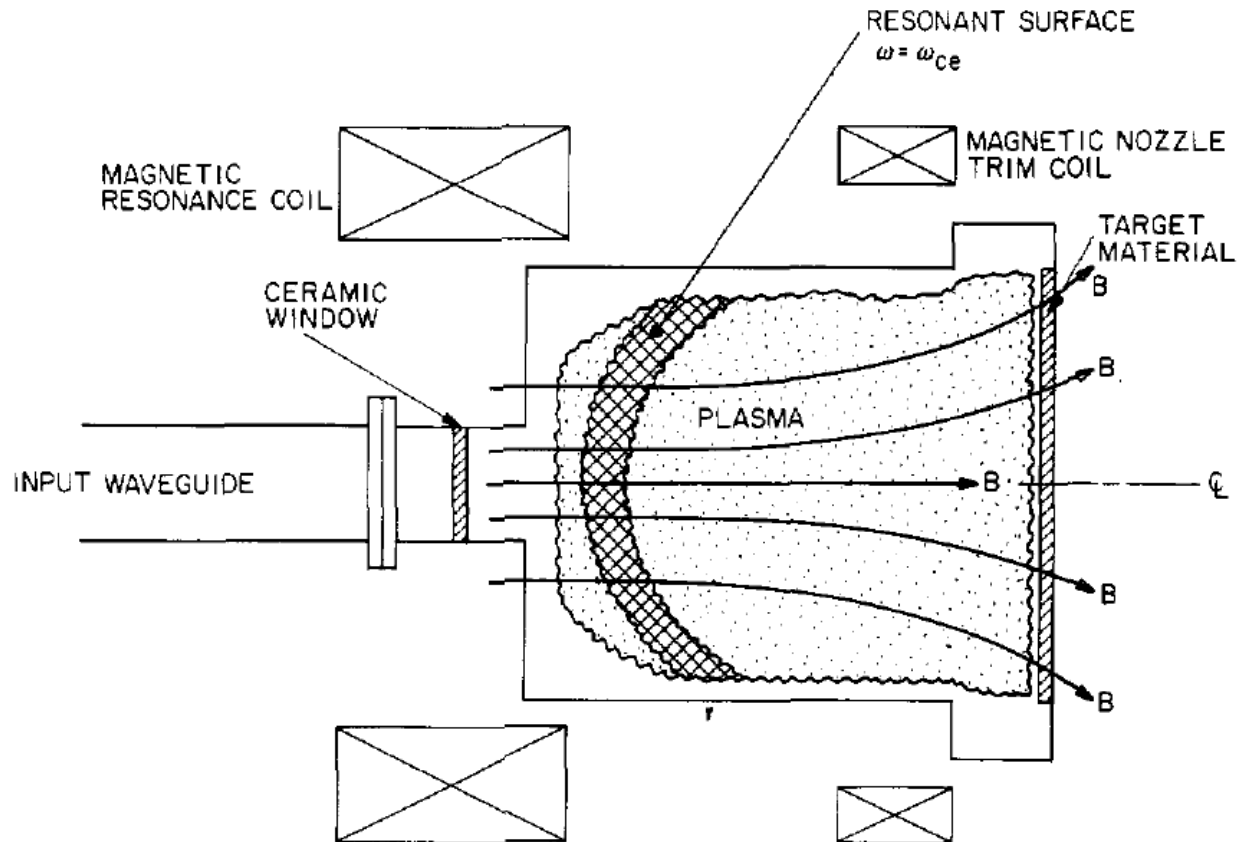
- **Waveguide coupled reactor**
- **Resonant or multimode cavity –**  
if the impedance matching is good, more energy can be fed into the cavity.



# Strong absorption occurs when the frequency matches the electron cyclotron frequency



- Electron cyclotron resonance (ECR) plasma reactor



# Electron cyclotron frequency depends on magnetic field only



$$m_e \frac{d\vec{v}}{dt} = -\frac{e}{c} \vec{v} \times \vec{B}$$

- Assuming  $\vec{B} = B\hat{z}$  and the electron oscillates in x-y plane

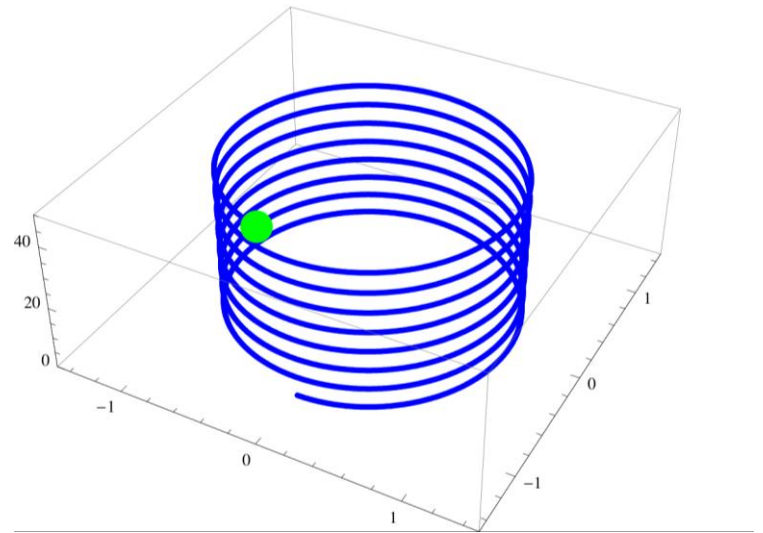
$$\begin{aligned} m_e \dot{v}_x &= -\frac{e}{c} B v_y & m_e \dot{v}_z &= 0 \\ m_e \dot{v}_y &= \frac{e}{c} B v_x \end{aligned}$$

$$\ddot{v}_x = -\frac{eB}{m_e c} \dot{v}_y = -\left(\frac{eB}{m_e c}\right)^2 v_x$$

$$\ddot{v}_y = -\frac{eB}{m_e c} \dot{v}_x = -\left(\frac{eB}{m_e c}\right)^2 v_y$$

- Therefore

$$\omega_{ce} = \frac{eB}{m_e c}$$





# Electrons keep getting accelerated when a electric field rotates in electron's gyrofrequency



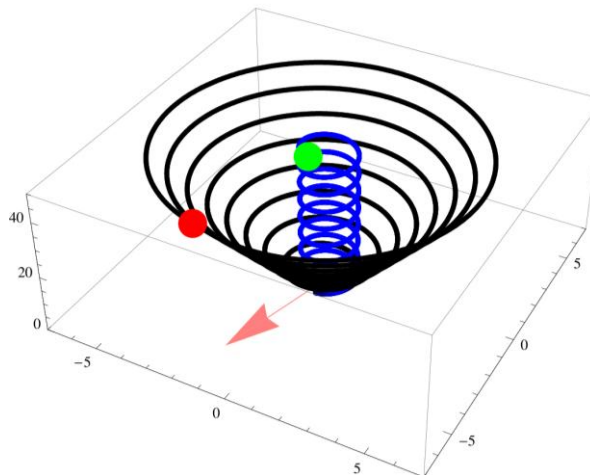
$$m_e \frac{d\vec{v}}{dt} = -\frac{e}{c} \vec{v} \times \vec{B} - e \vec{E} \quad \vec{B} = B_0 \hat{z} \quad \vec{E} = E_0 [\hat{x} \cos(\omega t) + \hat{y} \sin(\omega t)]$$

$$m_e \dot{v}_x = -\frac{e}{c} B v_y + E_0 \cos(\omega t) \quad m_e \dot{v}_y = \frac{e}{c} B v_x + E_0 \sin(\omega t) \quad m_e \dot{v}_z = 0$$

$$\ddot{v}_x = -\frac{eB}{m_e c} \dot{v}_y - \frac{E_0}{m_e} \omega \sin(\omega t) = -\omega_{ce}^2 v_x - \frac{E_0}{m_e} (\omega_{ce} + \omega) \sin(\omega t)$$

$$\ddot{v}_y = -\frac{eB}{m_e c} \dot{v}_x + \frac{E_0}{m_e} \omega \cos(\omega t) = -\omega_{ce}^2 v_y + \frac{E_0}{m_e} (\omega_{ce} + \omega) \cos(\omega t)$$

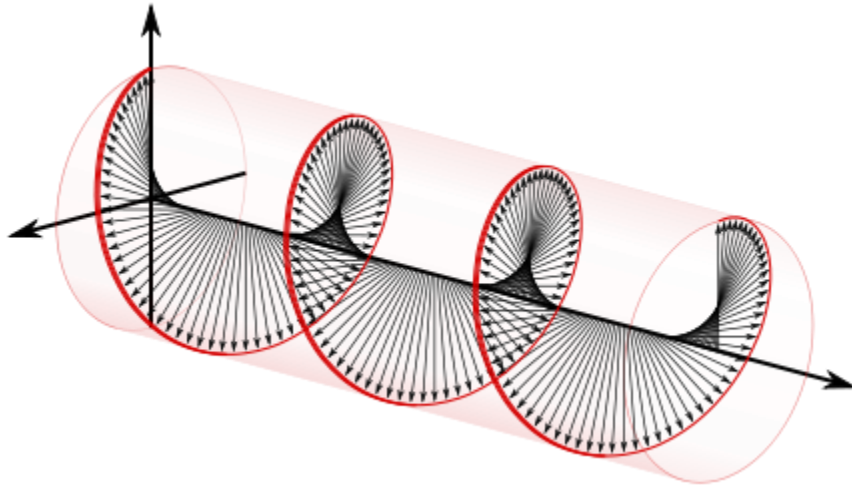
$$\omega_{ce} = \frac{eB}{m_e c}$$



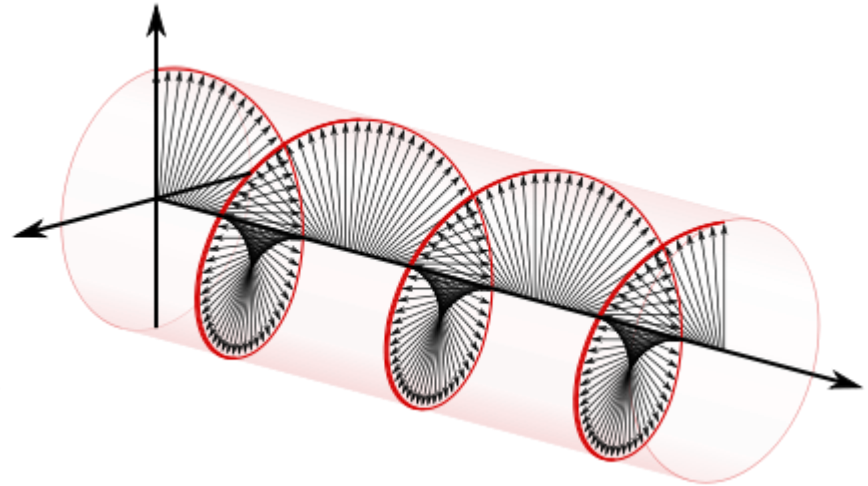
# Electric field in a circular polarized electromagnetic wave keeps rotating as the wave propagates



- Right-handed polarization



- Left-handed polarization

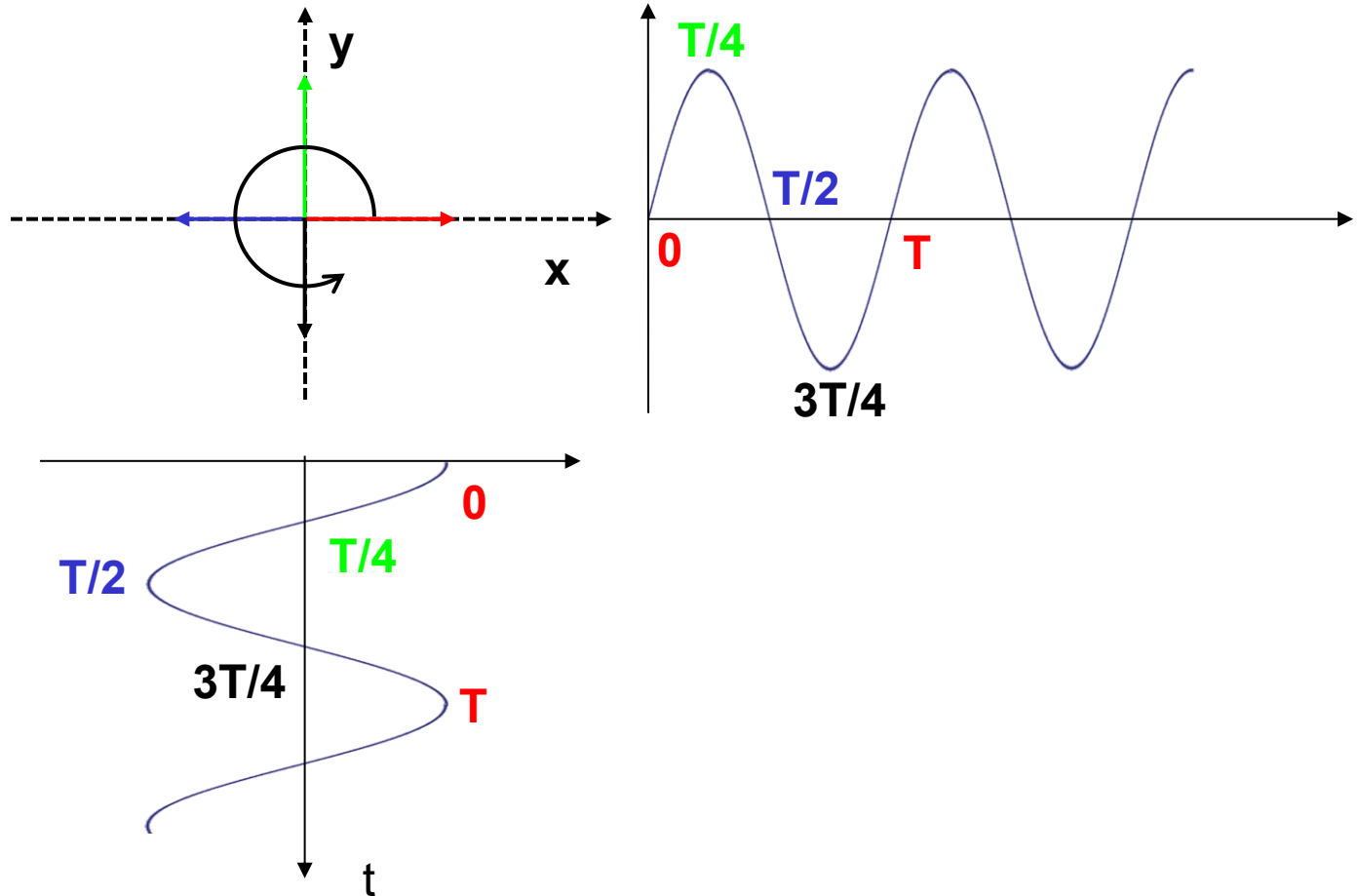


# Electric field rotates in a circular polarization



$$E_x = E_0 \exp(-i\omega t)$$

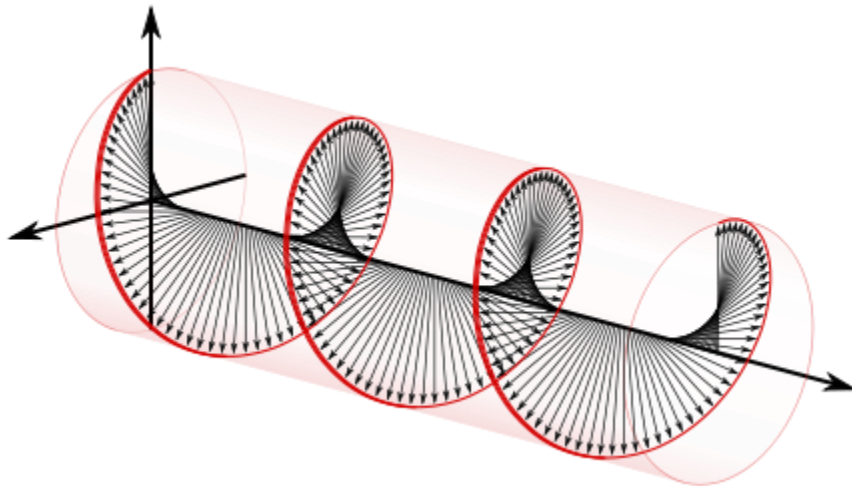
$$E_y = \pm i E_x = i E_0 \exp(-i\omega t) = E_0 \exp\left(\pm i \frac{\pi}{2}\right) \exp(-i\omega t) = E_0 \exp\left[-i\left(\omega t \pm \frac{\pi}{2}\right)\right]$$



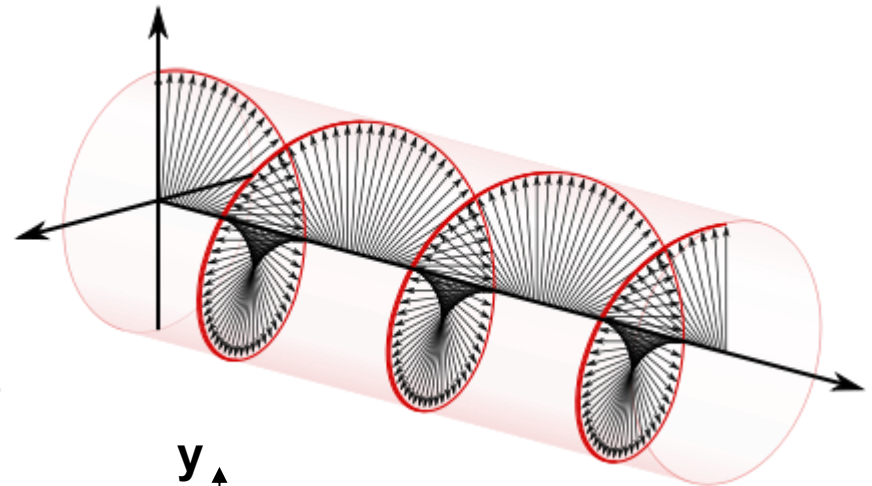
# A linear polarized wave can be decomposed by a left-handed and a right-handed polarized wave



- Right-handed polarization

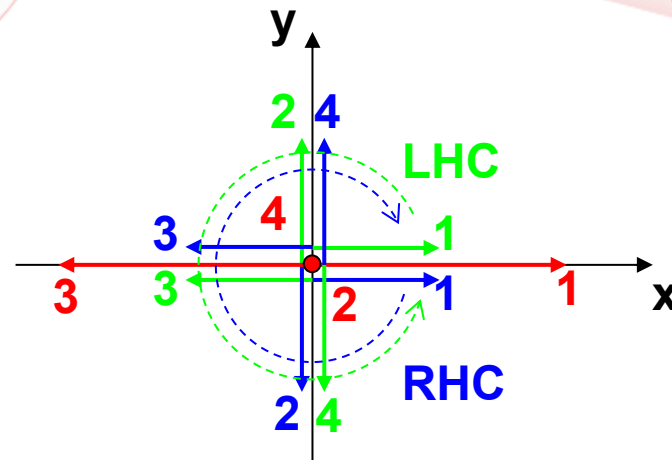


- Left-handed polarization

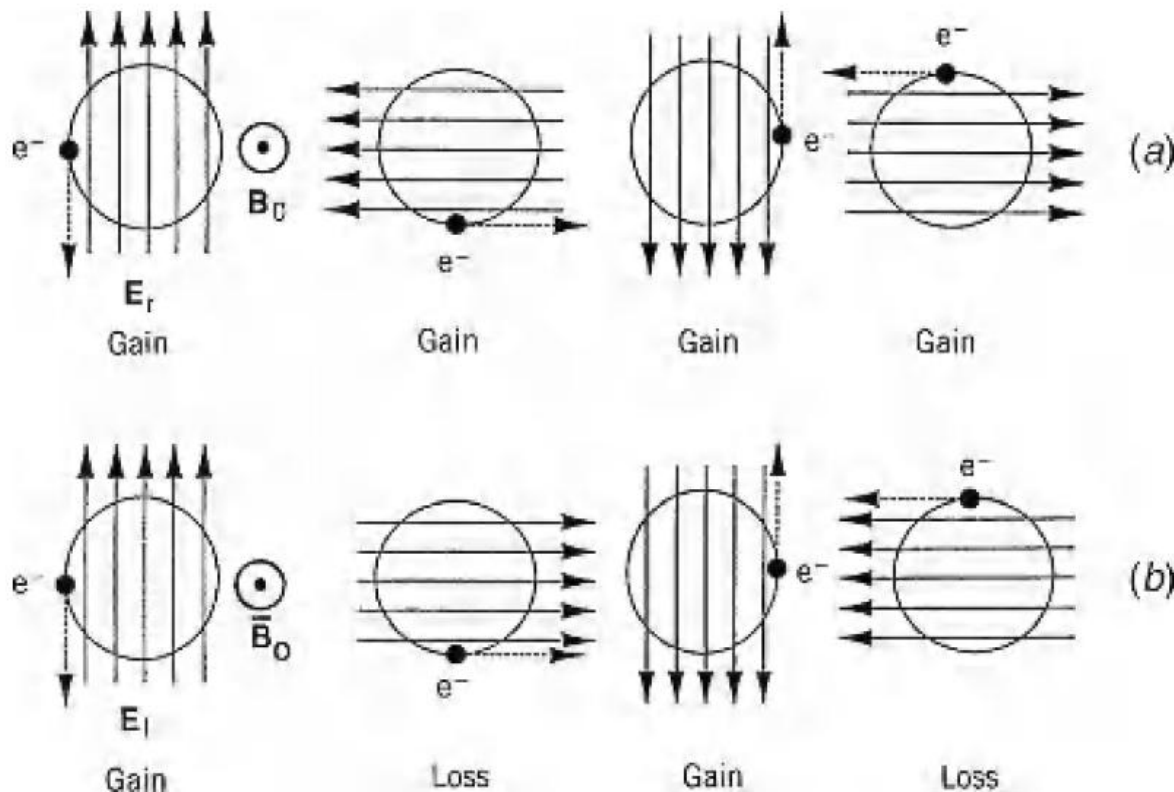


$$\vec{E} = E_0 \hat{x} = \frac{E_0}{2} [(\hat{x} + i\hat{y}) + (\hat{x} - i\hat{y})]$$

RHC                  LHC



# Only right-handed polarization can resonance with electron's gyromotion

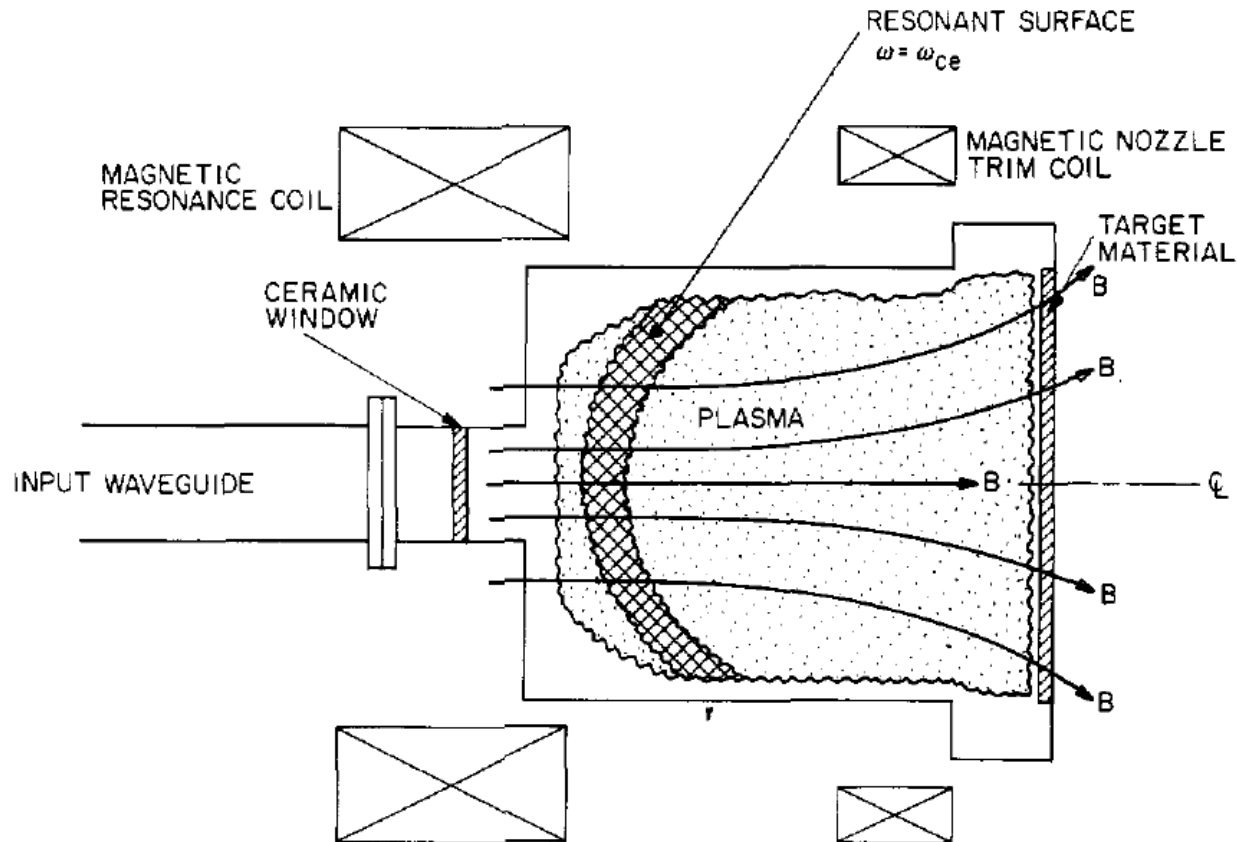


**FIGURE 13.5.** Basic principle of ECR heating: (a) continuous energy gain for right-hand polarization; (b) oscillating energy for left-hand polarization (after Lieberman and Gottscho, 1994).

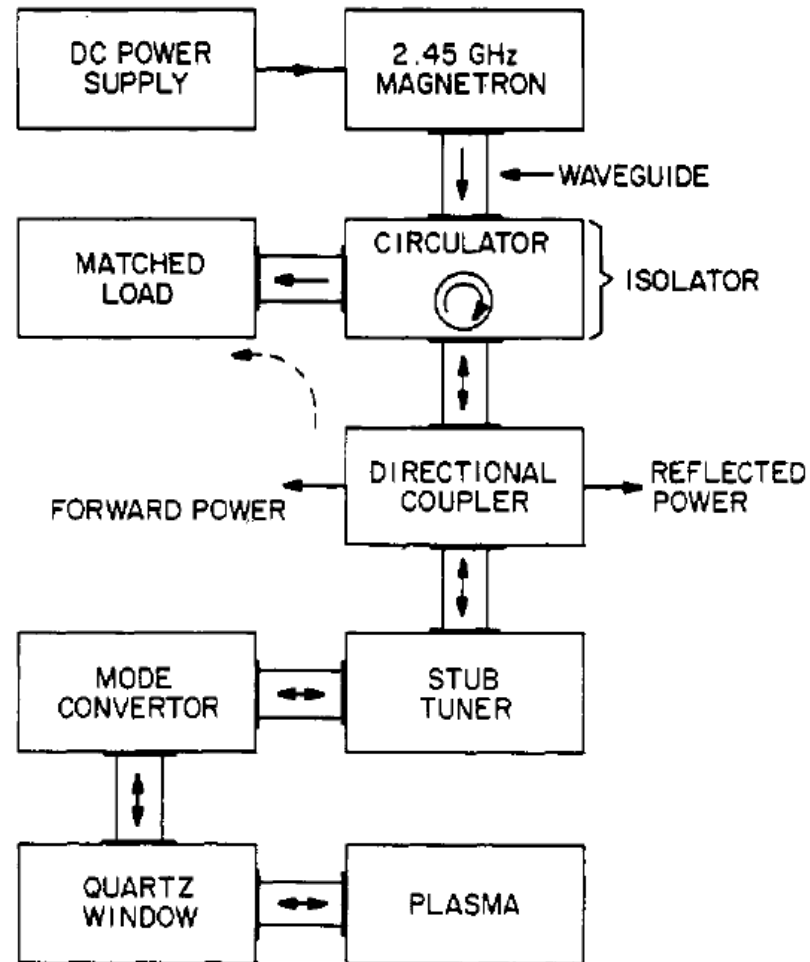
# Strong absorption occurs when the frequency matches the electron cyclotron frequency



- Electron cyclotron resonance (ECR) plasma reactor



# Electron cyclotron resonance (ECR) microwave systems

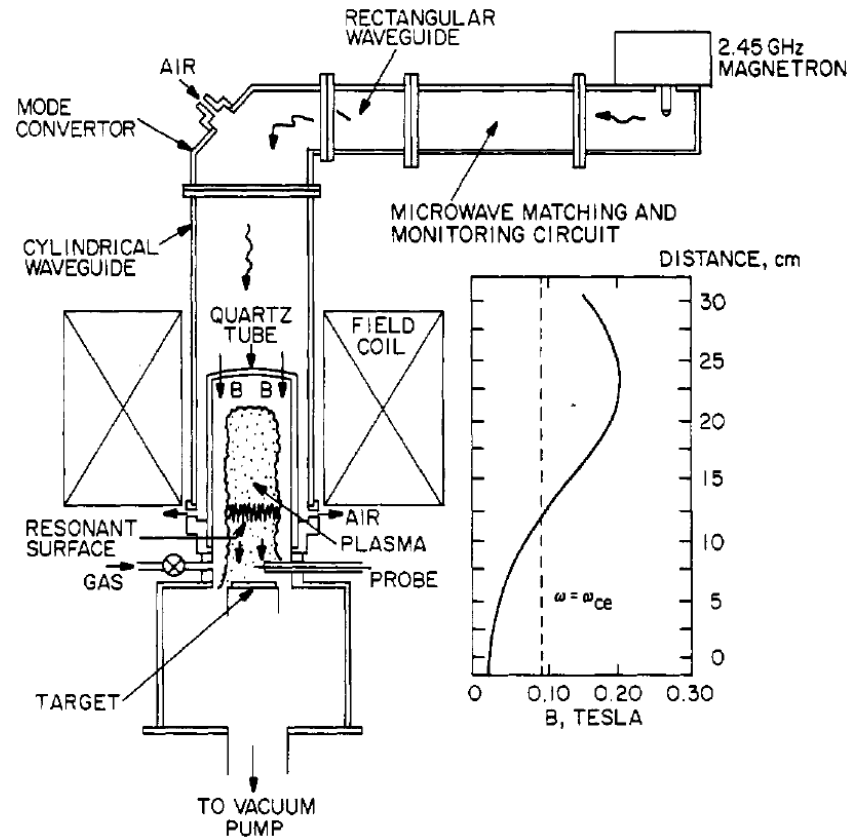


microwave systems

# Immersed ECR plasma source

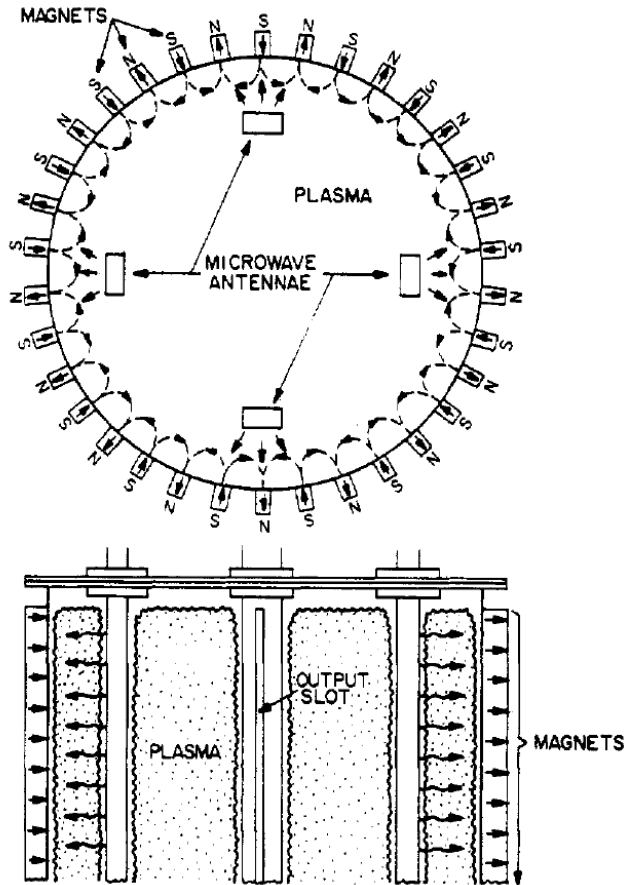


- High particle fluxes on targets for diamond or other thin film deposition
- The ions in the plasma flux can be used for etching.



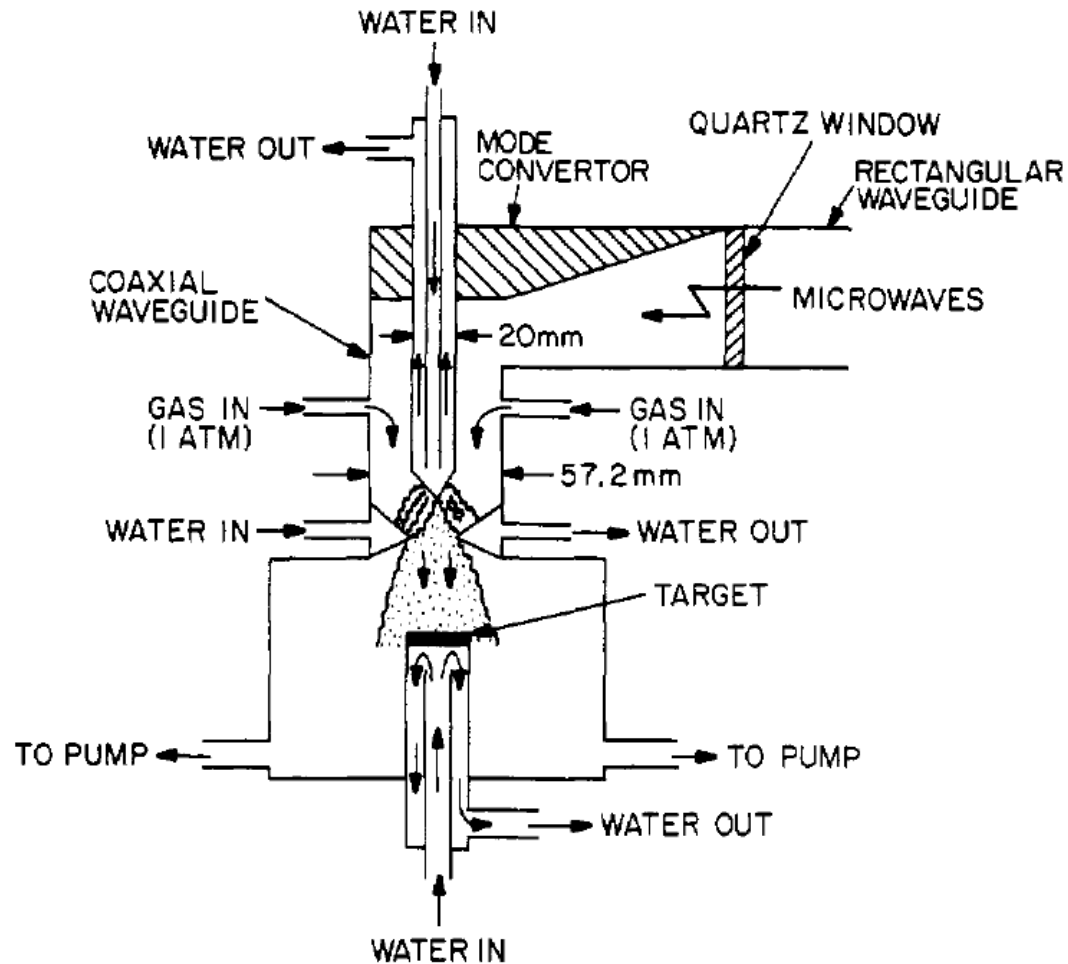


# Distributed ECR system



- **Function of the multipolar magnetic field at the tank boundary:**
  - Provide a resonant surface for ECR absorption
  - Improve the confinement of the plasma

# Microwave plasma torch deposit a much faster rate than other types of plasma source for diamond film deposition



# Microwave-generated plasmas have the capability of filling very large volumes with moderately high density

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- **Advantages**

- Lower neutral gas pressure, i.e., longer ion and neutral mean free paths.
- Higher fraction ionize.
- Higher electron density.

- **Disadvantages**

- Lower ion bombardment energies.
- Less control of the bombarding ion energy.
- Difficult in tuning up and achieving efficient coupling.
- Much more difficult and expensive to make uniform over a large area.
- More expensive.

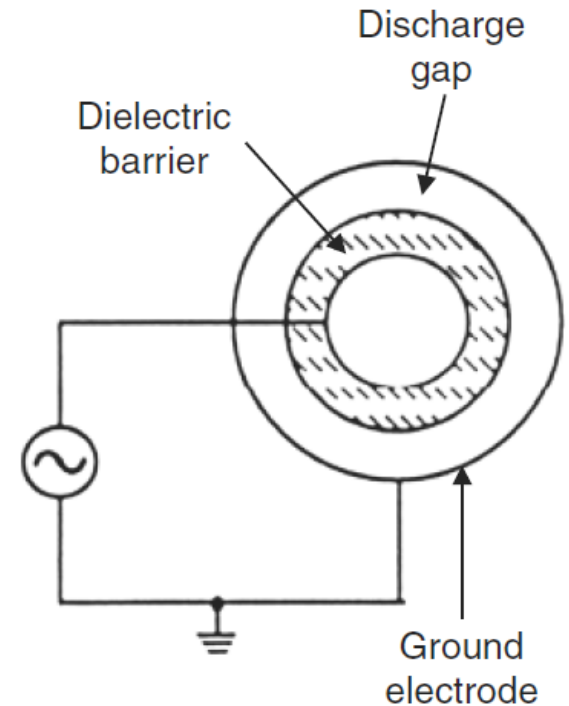
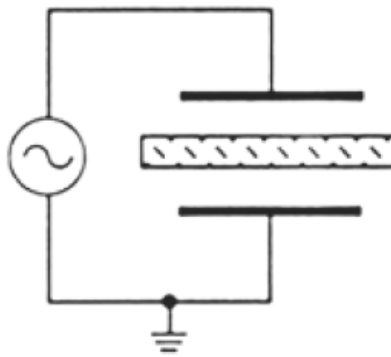
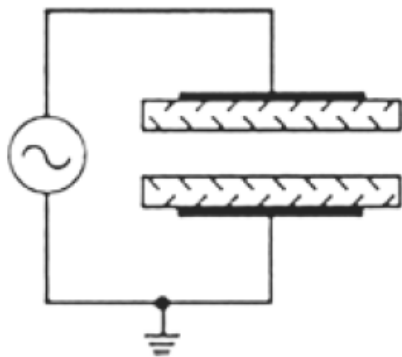
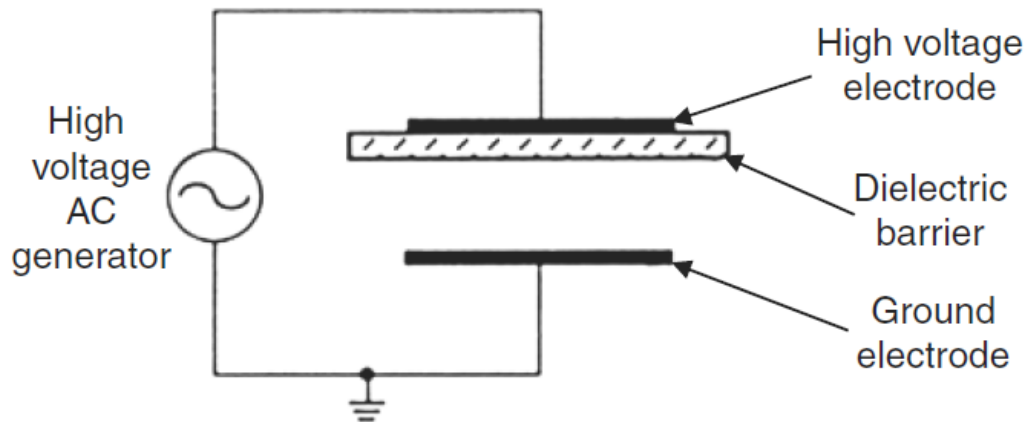
# AC electrical discharges deliver energy to the plasma without contact between electrodes and the plasma

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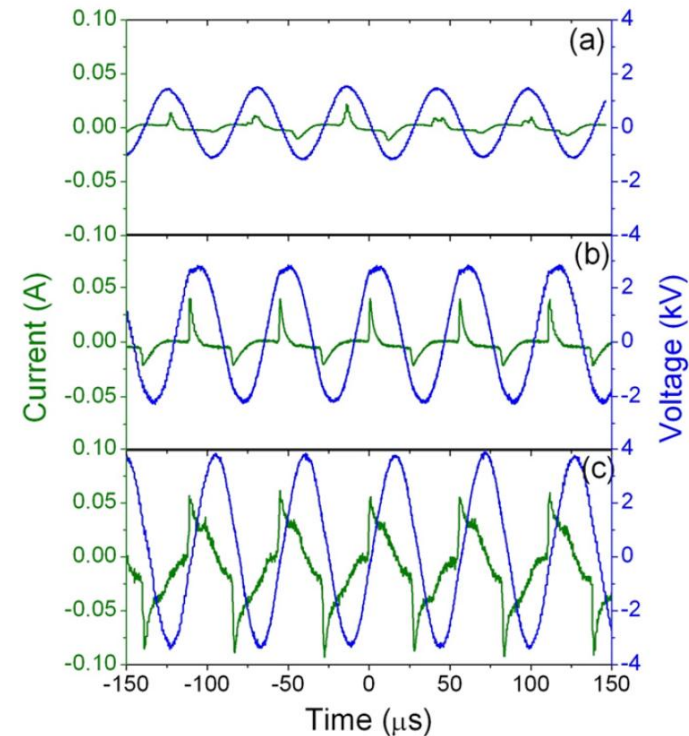
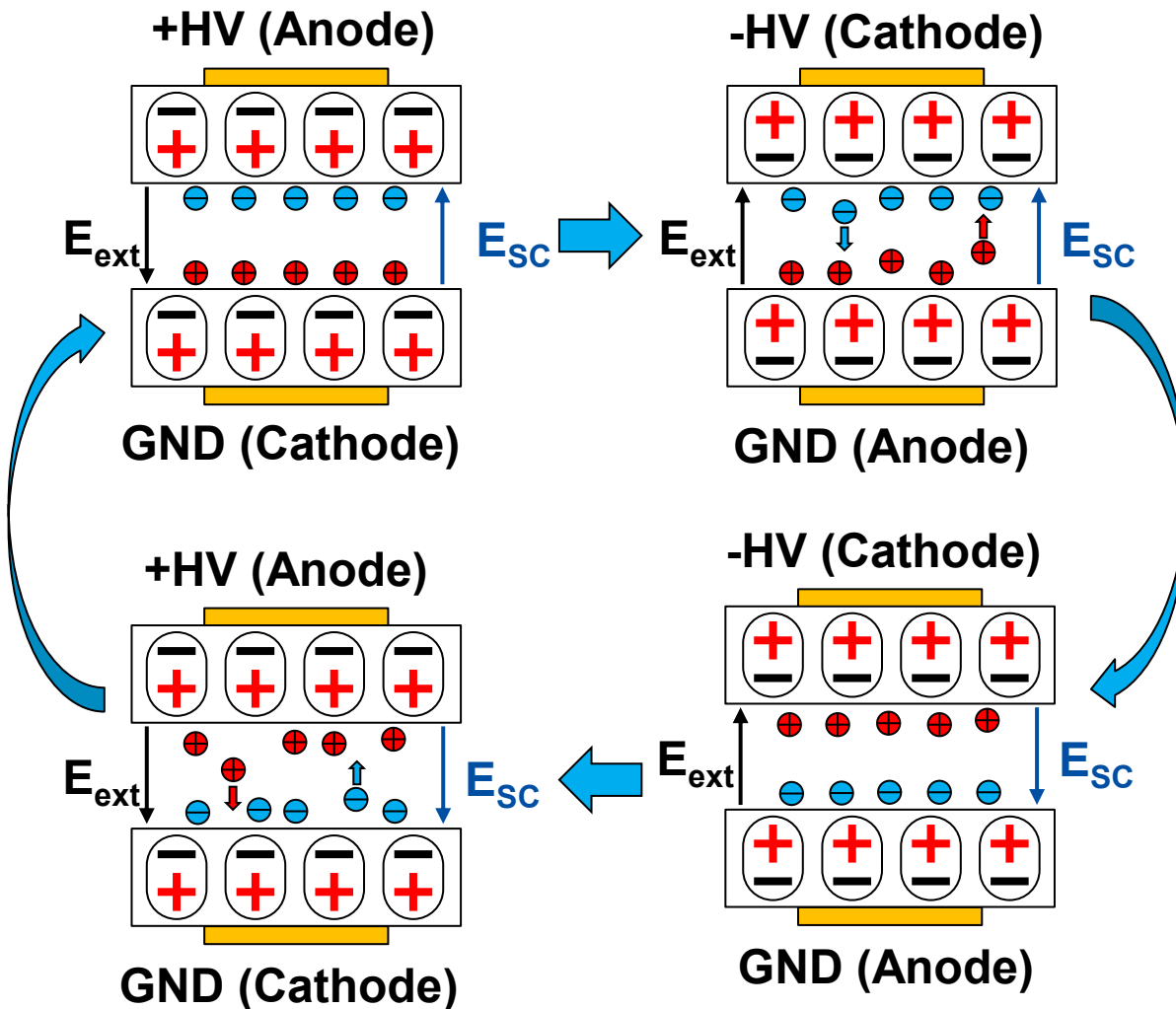


- DC electrical discharge – a true current in the form of a flow of ions or electrons to the electrodes.
- AC electrical discharge – the power supply interacts with the plasma by displacement current.
  - Inductive radio frequency (RF) electrical discharges
  - Capacitive RF electrical discharges
  - Microwave electrical discharges
  - **Dielectric-barrier discharges (DBDs)**
- Other mechanism
  - Laser produced plasma
  - Pulsed-power generated plasma

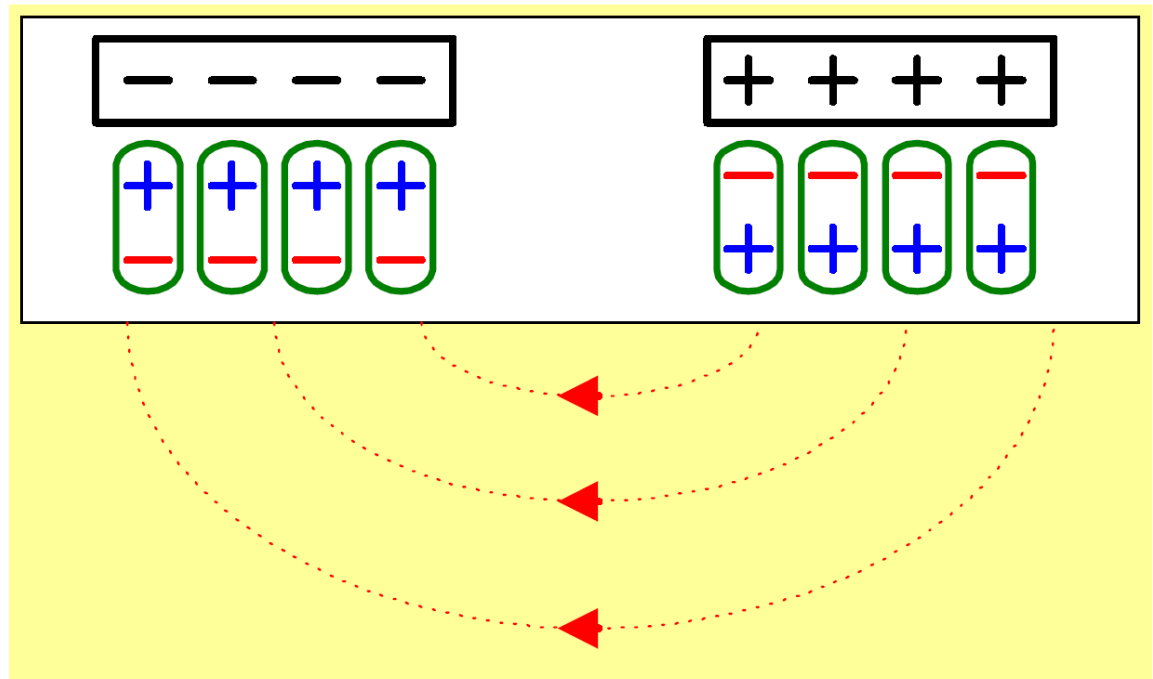
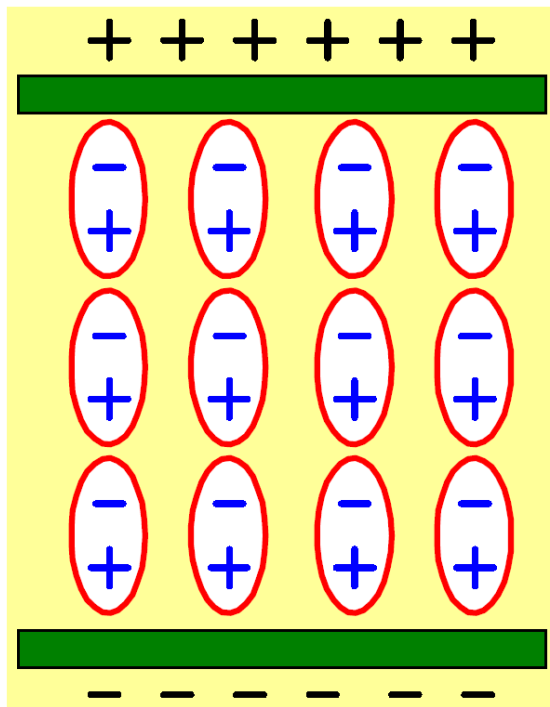
# Dielectric-barrier discharges (DBDs)



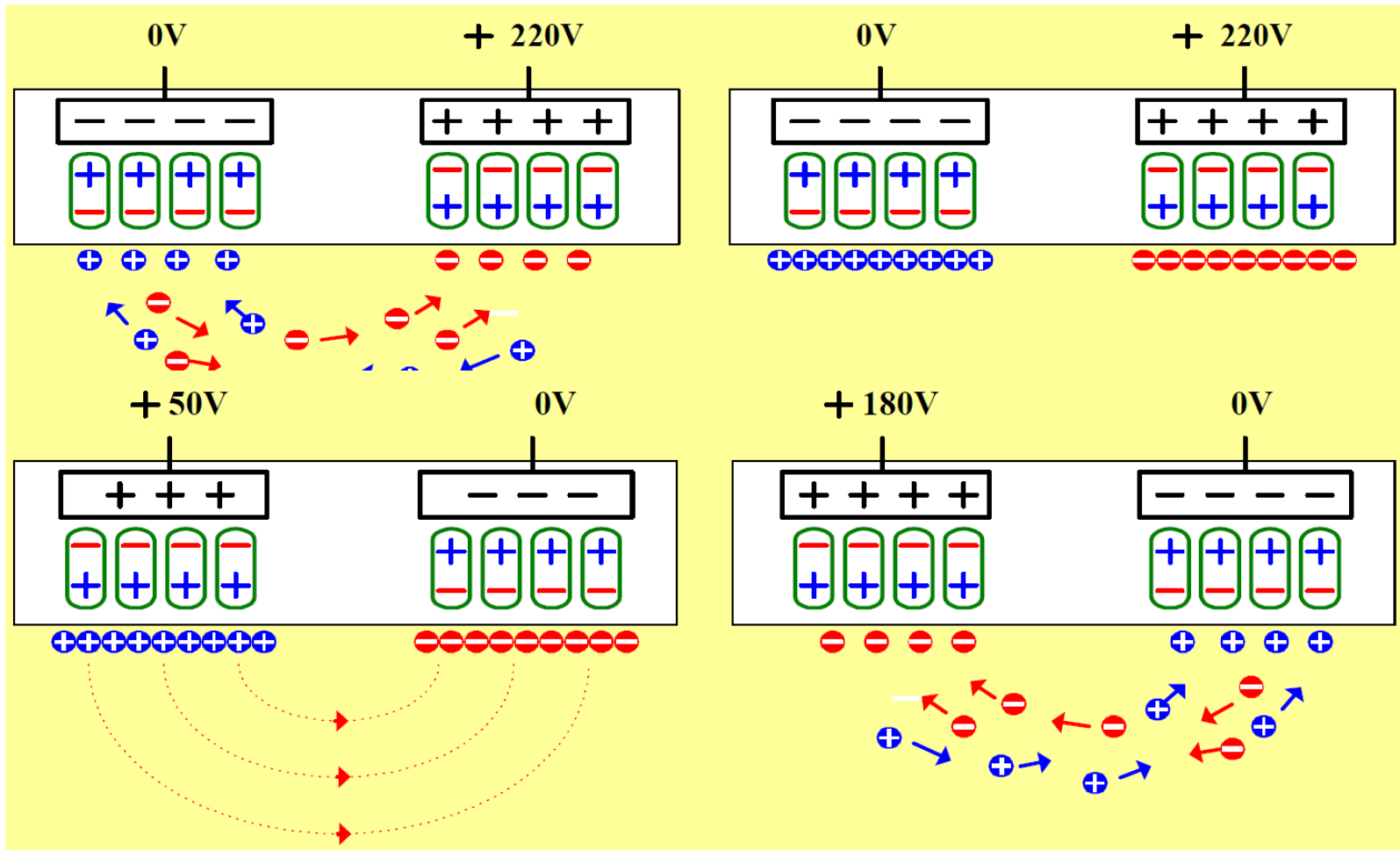
# Space charge effect enhance the electric field



# The foundation of AC discharge in plasma display panel



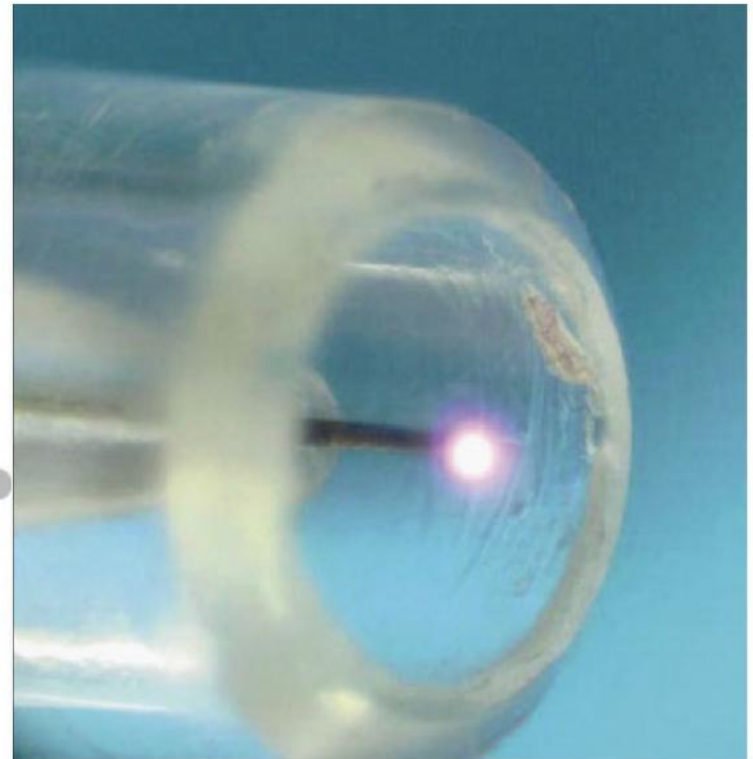
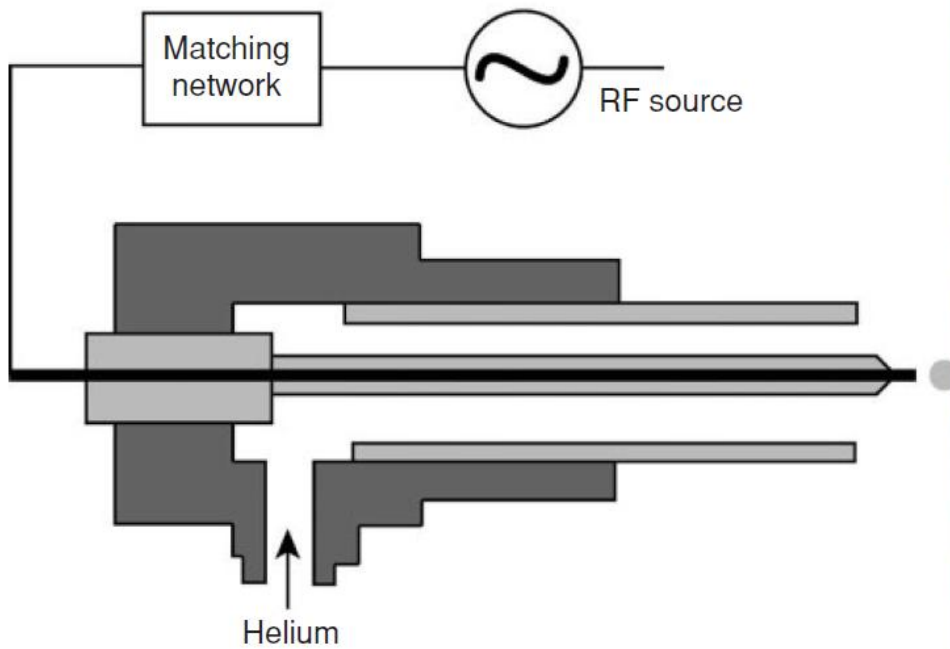
# The plasma can be sustained using ac discharged in plasma display panel



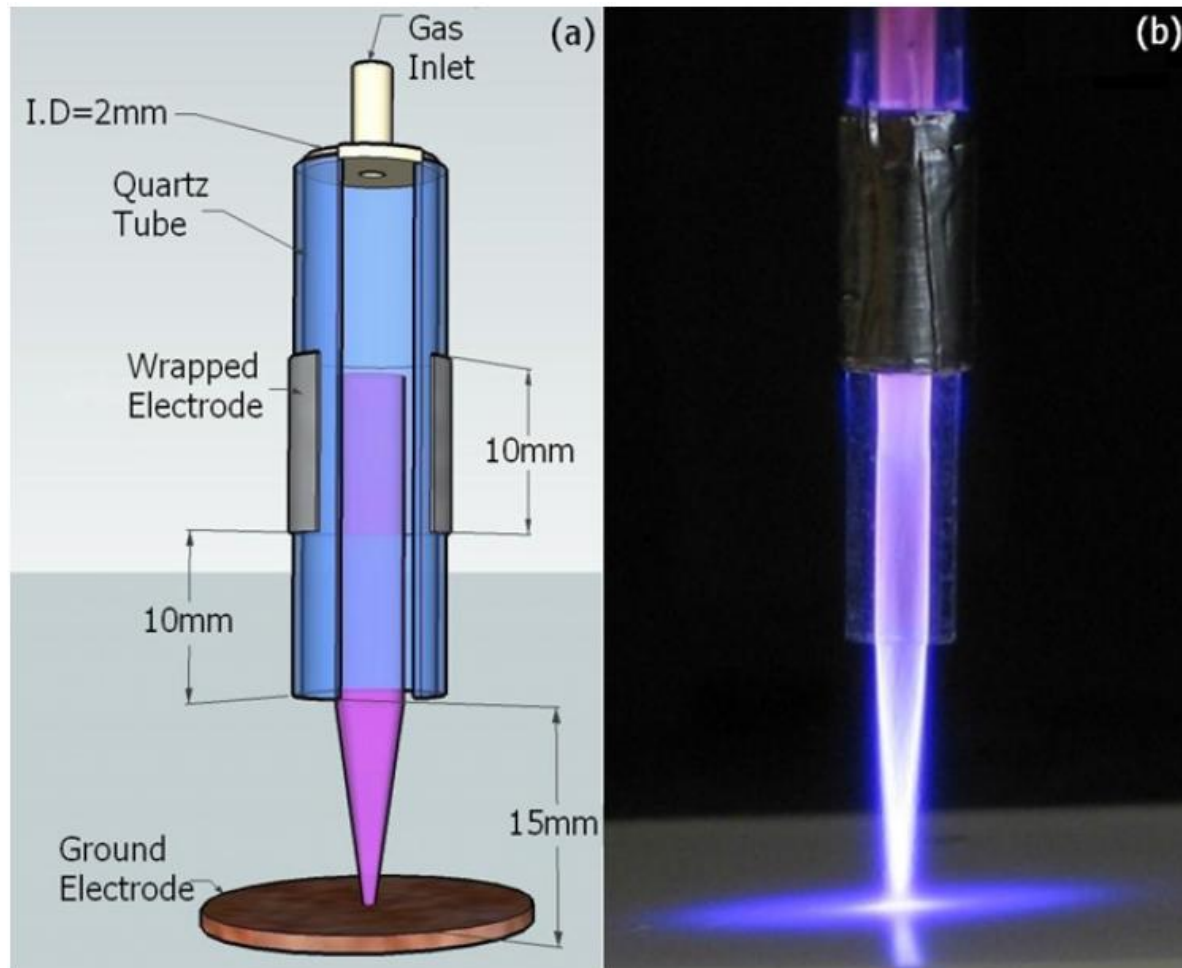
- **Wall discharge reduced the required discharge voltage**



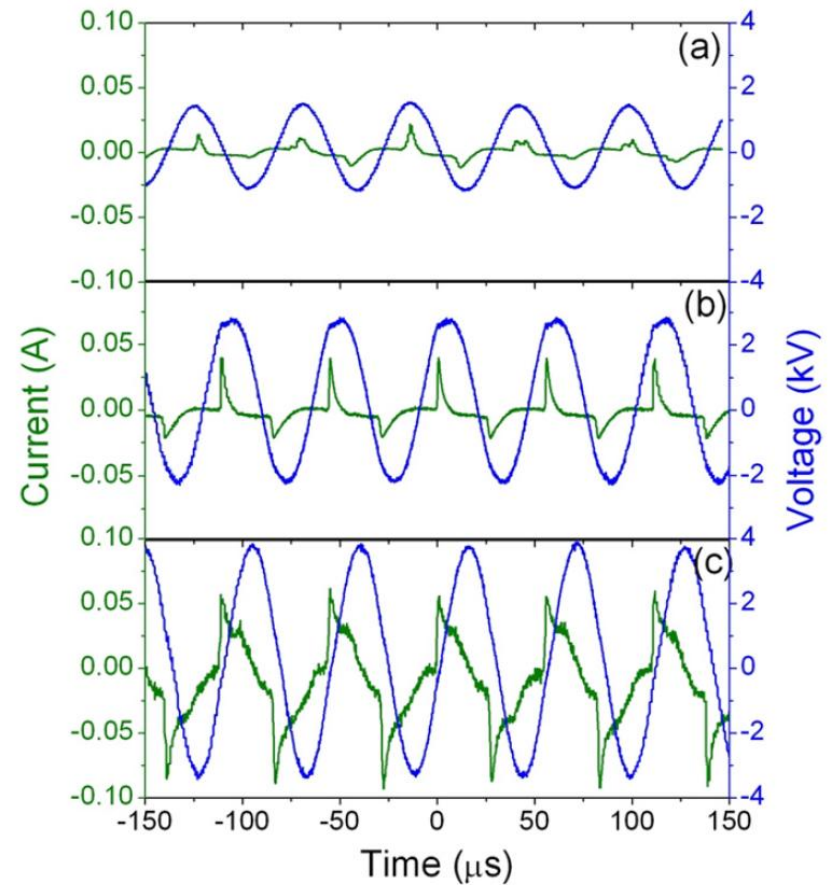
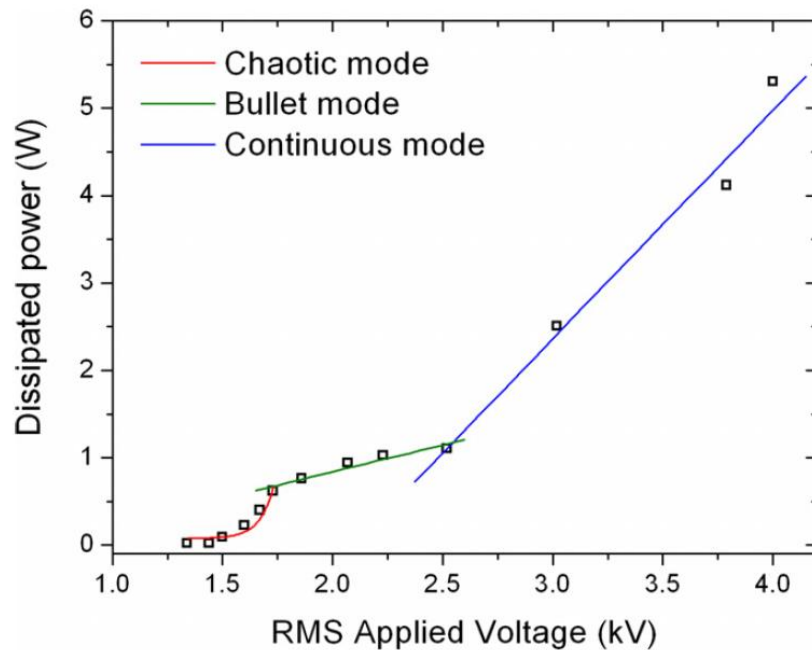
# Plasma-needle discharge



# Atmospheric-pressure cold helium microplasma jets



# There are three different modes: chaotic, bullet, and continuous mode



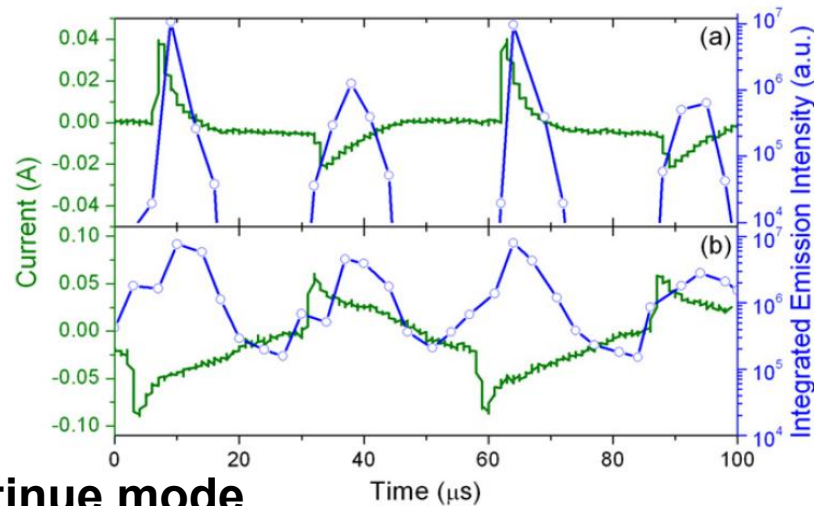
# In bullet mode, the plasma jet comes out as a pulse



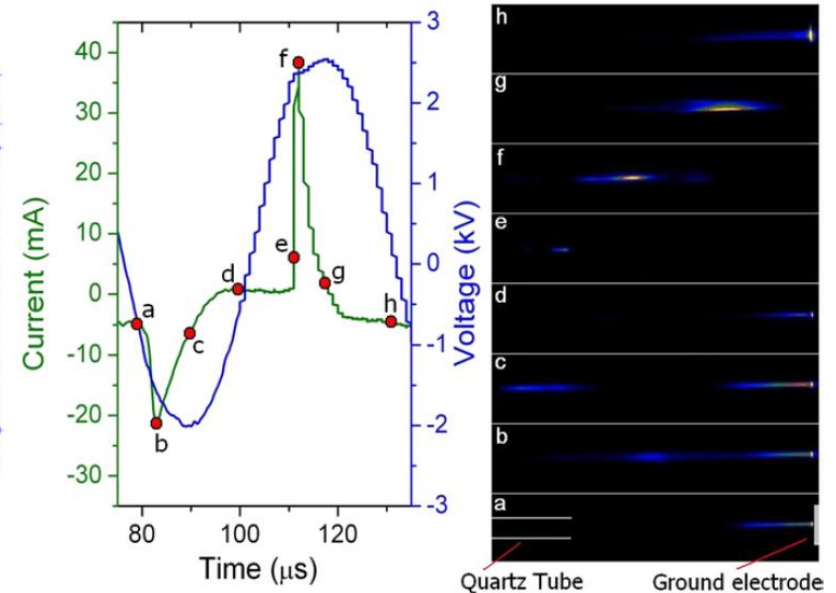
- wavelength-integrated optical emission signal (350–800 nm)

- Images of bullet mode

## Bullet mode



## Continue mode



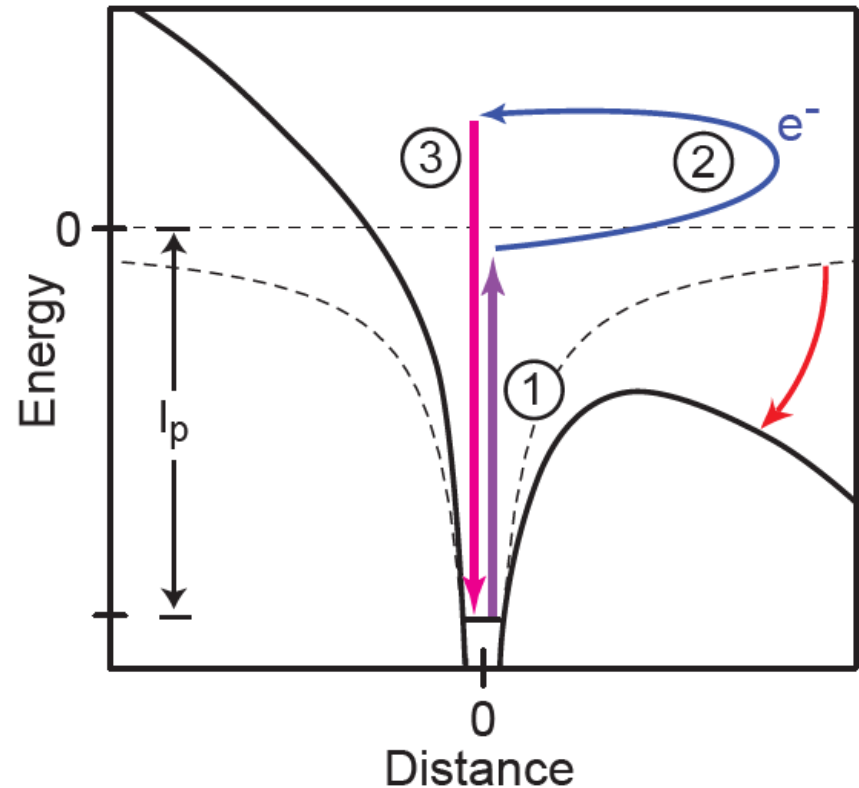
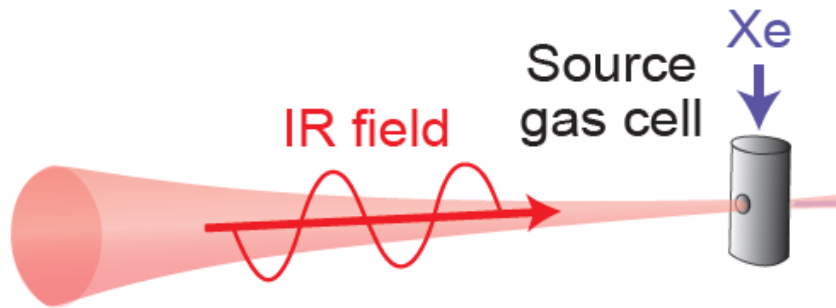
# AC electrical discharges deliver energy to the plasma without contact between electrodes and the plasma

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# Electric field of a high-power laser can perturb the potential of a nucleus and thus ionize the atom directly



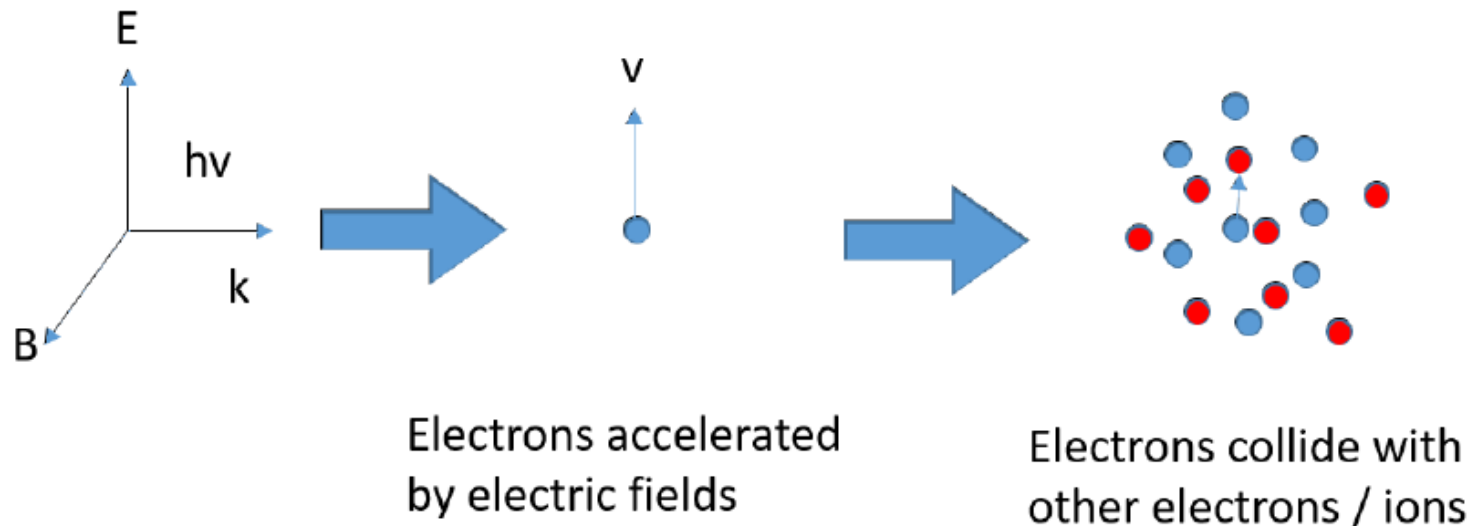
# Laser is absorbed in underdense plasma through collisional process called inverse bremsstrahlung



- Bremsstrahlung



- Inverse bremsstrahlung



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- Other mechanism
  - Laser produced plasma
  - Pulsed-power generated plasma – it will be introduced later.