

COMPARISON OF TOWNSEND DIELECTRIC BARRIER DISCHARGE IN N₂, N₂-O₂ AND N₂-N₂O: BEHAVIOUR AND DENSITY OF RADICALS

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1. Introduction

The goal of this work is to help in the understanding of the processes which control the transition from filamentary dielectric barrier discharge (DBD) to Townsend DBD (also noted APTD for Atmospheric Pressure Townsend Discharge). The approach consists in comparing the influence of the adding of rather similar additives on the stability of the N₂ APTD. These additives are O₂ and N₂O. According to the literature the maximum concentration allowing an APTD is only 400 ppm for O₂ [1] when it is more than 1200 ppm for N₂O.

In order to understand the mechanisms taking place in such processes, it is important to study the chemical kinetic occurring in the gas phase. To do so, Laser-Induced Fluorescence (LIF) has been developed here for the study of dielectric barrier discharges at atmospheric pressure. One photon LIF is used to measure the absolute concentration of NO and Two-photons Absorption LIF (TALIF) is used to measure [N] and [O] in N₂/O₂ and N₂/N₂O mixtures. A 0D model allows to determine the dominant reaction leading to N formation in N₂.

After a description of the electrical behaviour of the discharge in the two gas mixtures, the absolute density of atomic nitrogen N, atomic oxygen O and nitric oxide NO, in their ground state, are reported and discussed to try to understand the influence of reactive gases on DBD.

2. Experiment

The DBD reactor is a longitudinal flow one with a gas flow injection localized on one side of the discharge. The gas flow is laminar. Such a gas flow configuration allows the study of the chemical composition of the gas as a function of the equivalent gas residence time (t) in the discharge area and then the energy: E= power x t. The gas gap is 1 mm for the electrical study and 2 mm for the laser analyses. The power supply is a sinusoidal one allowing a separate adjustment of the voltage amplitude and frequency from 0 to 20kV_{pk-pk}, and 0.5 to 20kHz respectively. The voltage applied to the electrodes is measured by means of a high voltage probe. The current is measured through a 50 Ω resistor in series with the electrodes. The discharge current and the voltage really applied to the gas are calculated from these two measurements [2].

Concerning the TALIF, the 2070Å nm excitation scheme is used to measure the N(2p³ 4S_{3/2}) atom (fluorescence between 742 and 747 nm). For O(2p⁴ 3P_j) atom, 2255 Å laser wavelength is used and the fluorescence is observed at 844.6 nm. The absolute calibration is performed by TALIF in krypton for N and on xenon for O atoms[3,4]. For NO(X²Π), LIF has been achieved

by the excitation of the (0,0) band at 225.16 nm and detection of (0,1) band at 236.3 nm. NO gas is used to calibrate the LIF signal.

Measurements are done for O₂ and N₂O concentrations in N₂ varying from 0 to 500 ppm and 2000 ppm respectively. The discharge power is varied from 1.5W/cm³ to 3.5W/cm³.

3. Results

3.1. Electrical behavior

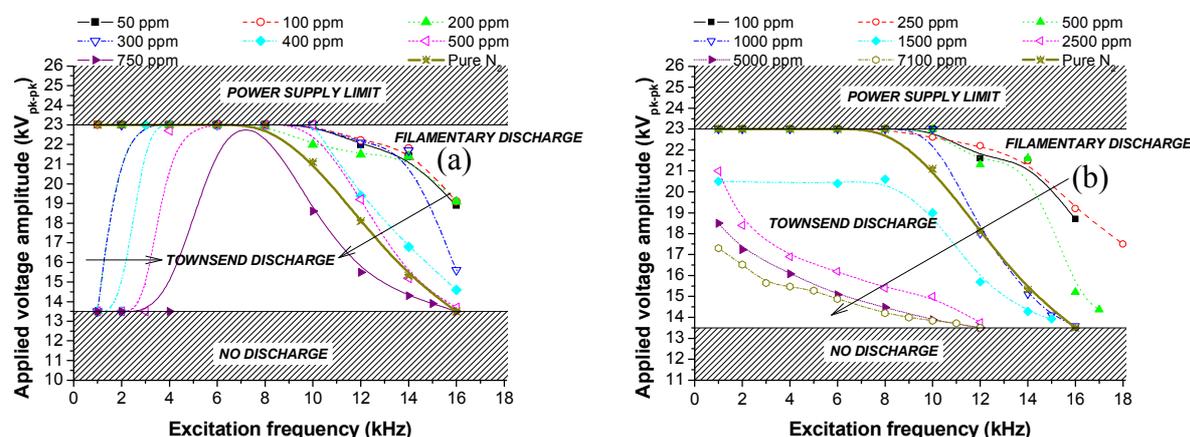


Figure 1: Working domains of the APTD for different concentrations of **a) O₂** **b) N₂O** in N₂

The Townsend discharge working domain, in terms of amplitude and frequency of the excitation determined for different concentration of N₂O and O₂ added to N₂, illustrates the influence of the nature of the additive on the APTD electrical behavior. At a given frequency, the working domain has two limits. The lower limit corresponds to the applied voltage required to extend the discharge over the entire electrode surface. The upper limit is either 23 kV_{pk-pk}, which is the maximum voltage used for these experiments (power supply limit) or the applied voltage at which instabilities appear on the discharge current and so which defines the transition to filamentary discharge.

In N₂/O₂ mixtures, the behavior is different for small and large amounts of O₂ (Figure 1a). For oxygen amounts lower than 200 ppm, the working domain is larger than in pure N₂, showing that a process compensates the increase of the nitrogen metastable quenching rate [5]. For higher concentrations, filamentary discharge can be observed at low frequency and the voltage limit at high frequency decreases as well. Thus, for 750 ppm of oxygen added in N₂, the working domain is especially reduced and centered around 8 kHz. The high frequency behaviour is very similar in N₂O and O₂: for amounts lower than 1000 ppm, the domain is larger than in pure N₂, showing that here also something compensates the nitrogen metastable destruction. Indeed, N₂O is also an efficient quencher of N₂(A³Σ_u⁺) [6], and the reactive products generated by a N₂/N₂O discharge should not be really different from the ones produced by N₂/O₂ discharge. Actually, this is interesting to notice that the high frequency limit is similar in N₂/O₂ and N₂/N₂O mixtures for N₂O concentrations twice as large as in O₂ case. Then, the high frequency behaviour is controlled by the concentration of O atoms introduced in the discharge. Nevertheless, the low frequency behaviour is completely different for O₂ and N₂O mixtures: it is always possible to get a Townsend discharge at low power in N₂-N₂O mixtures for N₂O concentration lower than 1% and even in pure N₂O, with electrical characteristics (discharge current and gas voltage time dependence) very close to N₂ ones.

3.2. N, O and NO density

To try to understand these observations, N, O and NO absolute density in their ground state have been measured in an APTD for different amounts of N₂O and O₂ in N₂. Measurements are made as a function of the position along the gas flow (from the entrance to the exit of the discharge 17mm), of the power dissipated in the discharge and of the gas flow (1 to 4slm).

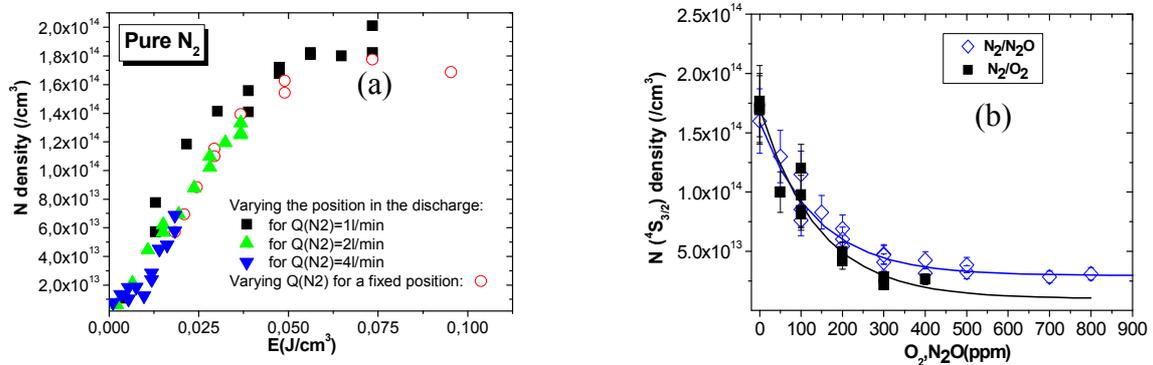


Figure 2: Absolute nitrogen atom density in an APTD **a)** in pure N₂ vs. energy dissipated in the discharge **b)** in N₂/N₂O and N₂/O₂ mixtures vs. N₂O and O₂ concentration for a fixed energy $E=73\text{mJ/cm}^3$

The first results concern the $N(2p^3\ ^4S_{3/2})$ absolute density. The measurement sensitivity is 10^{13}cm^{-3} . A reproducibility of 20% is reached including the error on krypton calibration. As shown in figure 2a, for a given gas mixture, the N concentration increases following and exponential law: $N=N_0+A\exp(-E/E_0)$.

In pure N₂, the N maximum value, $(1.5 \pm 0.3)10^{14}\text{cm}^{-3}$, is reached for an energy of $E_0=18 \pm 2\text{mJ/cm}^3$ which corresponds to 0.45kJmole^{-1} or 4.7meV/N_2 . In an APTD, the N density in the fundamental level slowly increases in agreement with its long lifetime. A 0D model has been developed [7] to determine the dominant mechanism of N creation and destruction. To obtain a N value of 10^{14}cm^{-3} the dissociative recombination of N_2^+ at the surface has to be taken into account and the ion temperature has to be higher than 10^3K to get the right balance between N_2^+ and N_4^+ ions.

When adding N₂O or O₂, as shown in figure 2b, the maximum value of $N(2P^3\ ^4S_{3/2})$ absolute density exponentially decreases with the concentration of N₂O or O₂. The variation is similar for the two added gases and the equivalent constant rate of the exponential law is around 46ppm.

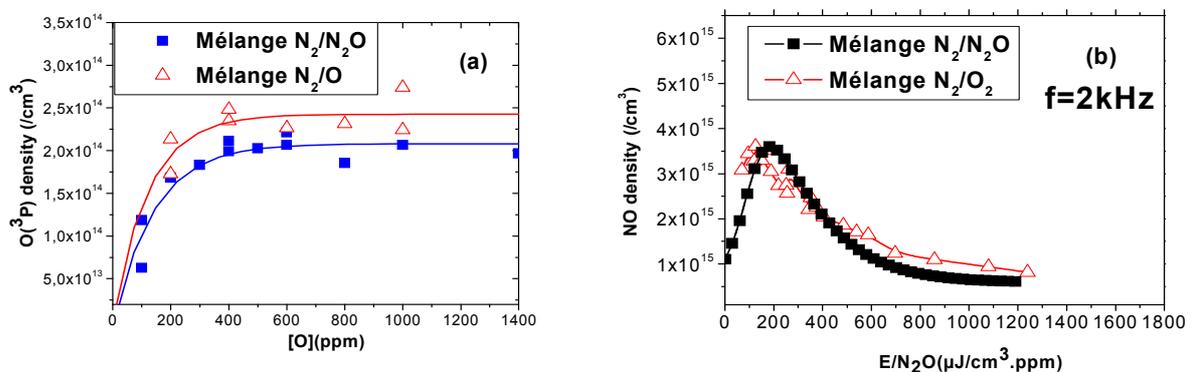


Figure 3: **a)** Absolute $O(2p^4\ ^3P_i)$ density as a function of the concentration of O atoms in the mixture ($[O] = [N_2O] = 2 [O_2]$) for a fixed energy $E=73\text{mJ/cm}^3$ **b)** absolute $NO(X^2\ II)$ density as a function of the energy injected in the gas per molecule of reactive gas added to N₂ for an excitation frequency of 2kHz

The kinetic of the concentration of O($2p^4\ ^3P_1$) is a function of the energy. The O density is slightly higher in the case of O₂ and the value of $2.4 \cdot 10^{14} \text{cm}^{-3}$ is reached (Figure 3a). The variation as a function of the concentration of the added gas is two times higher in case of O₂ than in case of N₂O showing that the important parameter is the concentration of O atom added in the N₂:

$$[\text{O} (^3\text{P})] = [\text{O} (^3\text{P})_{\text{max}}](1 - \exp(-[\text{O}]/[\text{O}]_0)) \quad \text{with } [\text{O}]_0 = 130 \text{ppm}$$

Even in pure nitrogen, $2 \cdot 10^{14} \text{cm}^{-3}$ of NO($X^2\Pi$) can be detected. This is probably related to surface reaction of N atoms with oxygen atoms of the dielectrics in contact with the gas. The maximum value measured when oxygen compound is added is 30 times higher. One of the specificity of NO($X^2\Pi$) behaviour compared to that of N atoms is that the equivalency between the position and the residence time is not verified: a higher gas flow corresponds to a quicker is the kinetic of NO($X^2\Pi$) formation. The concentration of NO is a function of the energy and the number of reactive molecule added to nitrogen. For a given excitation frequency, all the results can be reported on one curve using the energy per N₂O or O₂ molecule as a parameter (figure 3b). For a 2 kHz excitation frequency, the maximum of NO is observed for 49eV/N₂O molecule and 35eV/O₂ molecule. When the excitation frequency is increased by a factor 3, the optimum energy is lower, 38eV/molecule for N₂O and 28eV/molecule for O₂.

4. Discussion and conclusion

Measurements of the density of N, O and NO confirm that products issued from N₂O and O₂ dissociation are rather similar. Then, the difference in the APTD stability observed in N₂/O₂ and N₂/N₂O mixtures has to be related to something else. A kinetic model of the chemistry occurring in the different gas mixtures will be very helpful. However, a possible explanation coherent with all the experimental results is that the negative ions play a dominant role.

According to the literature [1], in an APTD, attachment is negligible because of the low electronic density (10^8cm^{-3}). However in an APTD, the highest electronic density is reached between two discharges, when the electrical field value is low and then the attachment probability is high. A typical characteristic time for the reaction ($e + \text{N}_x\text{O}_y + \text{M} \rightarrow \text{N}_x\text{O}_y^- + \text{M}$) is between 19 and 190 μs for 100 ppm of N_xO_y. This time is comparable to the time between two discharges (about 100 μs for a 2 kHz excitation). Then, attachment reduce the density of seed electrons except if detachment occurs previous to breakdown. The difference between the 2 mixtures is larger for low frequency excitation i.e. low power and then low dissociation of the N₂O or O₂. In these conditions electronic affinities which should be compared are those of O and O₂ (1.46eV and 0.44eV) and NO and N₂O (0.03eV and 0.24eV). According to these values we can assume that attachment is higher and detachment lower in N₂/O₂ mixtures inducing a decrease of the seed electrons and then a streamer breakdown.

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