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Is an extended barrier-free discharge under nanosecond-pulse excitation really diffuse?

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Abstract

A homogeneous discharge with a large volume is a desirable plasma source for many applications. Nanosecond-pulsed high-voltage (HV) excitation is believed to be a promising strategy for obtaining homogeneous or diffuse discharges at atmospheric pressure. In this paper, using a knife–plate geometry driven by a nanosecond-pulsed generator, a diffuse plasma sheet with a gap distance of 1 cm and a length of 12 cm is generated in atmospheric air, maintaining a low gas temperature of ~ 330 K. However, time-resolved images reveal that the discharge, which appears diffuse to the naked eye, actually consists of multiple individual streamers that propagate from knife (HV) to plate (ground). The appearance of two processes, namely primary and secondary streamers, is consistently verified by discharge images, electric field evolution and fluid simulation. This further proves that the entire discharge belongs to an intermediate state between corona and spark. This work aids a deeper understanding of the intrinsic characters of similar diffuse discharges and optimizing parameters in practical applications.

Keywords: nanosecond pulsed discharge, diffuse plasma sheet, electric field-induced second-harmonic, plasma modeling, fluid model

(Some figures may appear in color only in the online journal)

1. Introduction

Atmospheric pressure non-thermal plasmas have received much attention due to their potential for use in many applications [1, 2], such as hydrogen production [3], surface modification [4, 5], biomedical sterilization [6, 7] and flow control [8, 9]. To improve application efficiency and control precision, homogeneous discharges with a large volume are more desirable [10, 11]. Typically, the high collision frequency in the atmosphere easily induces thermal-ionization instability and

leads to a glow-to-arc transition [12, 13], which makes the generation of a homogeneous discharge challenging [14, 15].

With the development of nanosecond pulsed power technology, many efforts have been devoted to the formation of stable homogeneous discharges. With a sufficiently high pre-ionization level, electron avalanches can overlap before streamer formation [16–18]. Studies of volume discharges can be traced back to the middle of the last century [19–22]. By using x-rays as the pre-ionization source, a spatially homogeneous self-sustained discharge with a volume of several liters has been successfully generated at atmospheric pressure [22]. Even though the introduction of a dielectric barrier can stop streamer development and restrain the thermalization of the

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plasma channel, the limited gap distance restricts its available processing volume and is unfavorable for large-scale applications [14, 23]. With a repetition frequency of 40 kHz, the largest homogeneous discharge gap is extended up to 7 mm with dense seed electrons due to memory effects and a reduced gas density at a high temperature of 1300 K [10], which may be unsuitable for heat-sensitive applications such as biomedical engineering [24].

Unlike the plasma sources mentioned above, and without additional pre-ionization sources, a barrier-free diffuse discharge characterized by a large volume can be generated in an extremely inhomogeneous electric field [25–31]. As reported in [25, 26, 30], the gap bridged by diffuse discharges can reach several centimeters and no filaments or constricted channels are observed. A diffuse discharge can be generated under a flexible electrode geometry [25, 26, 32] and maintained over a wide range of operating parameters, such as pressure, gas type and mixture ratio, showing great potential for practical applications [33–35]. When applied with a high over-voltage and sub-nanosecond voltage fronts, a single large-volume streamer with a radius of several millimeters can be produced [25, 26, 30, 36]. Under these conditions runaway electrons may be generated and have an impact on discharge dynamics by providing a relatively high pre-ionization level [26, 30, 36]. However, if the high over-voltage level is decreased and the voltage rise time increased to several hundred nanoseconds, the diffuse form of the discharge can be maintained under an extremely inhomogeneous electric field, i.e. the knife–plate electrode configuration [37], but the temporal evolution of discharge during the ignition, propagation and connection of the electrode gap may be very different from the volume discharge. The reason for this is still not fully understood.

In this work, a transverse diffuse discharge is generated with a 1 cm air gap. Electrometry characteristics and dynamics of plasma propagation under a knife–plate geometry are investigated by experiments and numerical simulations.

2. Experimental methods and model description

Figure 1(a) shows the experimental electrode configuration and discharge image with an exposure time of 1 ms. The electrode system consists of a stainless-steel knife with length of 10 cm and thickness of 400 μm , and a copper plate with a length of 12 cm and width of 2.5 cm, between which a gap of 1 cm is kept. The knife is connected to a high-voltage (HV) unipolar positive nanosecond-pulse generator (Xi'an Lingfeng Electric Technology Co., Ltd) while the plate is grounded. The minimum rise time of the output voltage is ~ 50 ns and the maximum amplitude is ~ 23 kV. The repetition frequency of the voltage pulse is fixed at 50 Hz. Experiments were carried out in ambient air at atmospheric pressure at a temperature of around 25 $^{\circ}\text{C}$ and humidity of around 30%. As shown in the integral discharge image, a transverse uniform plasma sheet under the knife tip can be directly observed by the naked eye. The emitted luminosity is very intense near

the HV electrode, and no filaments or constricted channels are formed.

The voltage waveform on the knife electrode is monitored by a HV probe (Tektronix, P6015A) and the current waveform is measured by a current probe (Pearson, 6595), both of which are recorded simultaneously by a digital oscilloscope (Lecroy WR204Xi). An intensified charge-coupled device (ICCD; Andor iStar sCMOS) camera is used to capture the discharge dynamics in the visible domain. Optical emission spectroscopy of the discharge is done with a spectrometer (PG-2000-Pro). Moreover, the electric field-induced second-harmonic (E-FISH) generation system is used to measure the temporal evolution of the electric field at different points within the gap [38, 39]. The 1064 nm fundamental output of a nanosecond Nd:YAG laser (Beamtech SGR-S400, pulse width 7–9 ns, and pulse energy ~ 15 mJ) is focused on the discharge region, which remains parallel to the knife tip. The radius of a laser beam at the focus, measured by traversing a knife edge across the laser beam, is approximately 130 μm [38]. When using a lens with a shorter focal length, the beam radius around the focus will be less and the spatial resolution of the E-FISH measurement will be improved [40]. The intensities of the fundamental laser and the second-harmonic signal are detected by a photodiode (Thorlabs, DET10A2) and a photomultiplier (Hamamatsu, R1828-01), respectively. The calibration of the E-FISH signal is based on a parallel-plate electrode system (34 mm \times 12 mm, gap 2.5 mm).

In this work, simulation is conducted with the two-dimensional (2D) PASSKEY (Parallel Streamer Solver with KinEtics) code [41], which has been used in modeling nanosecond-pulsed discharges [42–44]. Continuity equations with the drift-diffusion approximation, the energy conservation equation for mean electron energy, Poisson's equation for electric field and Helmholtz equations for photoionization are taken into account. Detailed descriptions of numerical approaches and mathematical formulations can be found in [43, 44]. As shown in figure 1(b), a 2D computational domain of size 3 cm \times 2 cm is set up based on Cartesian (xy) coordinates, in which a 1 cm gap is adopted to approximate the side of a three-dimensional (3D) knife–plate configuration. The knife with a thickness $w = 400$ μm and tip radius $r_{\text{tip}} = 15$ μm is driven by a positive voltage pulse smoothed from the measured voltage, while the plate is grounded. A uniform mesh size of 8 μm is applied for the plasma domain and refined to 2 μm near the knife tip. Beyond the plasma domain, the mesh size grows exponentially. The plasma kinetics scheme for N_2/O_2 includes 15 species and 34 reactions. Detailed reactions and corresponding rates can be found in [43].

The numerical simulation mainly focuses on the case containing a series of pulses, not the very first pulse. The initial electron density before the next pulse can be enhanced. During the interval between two consecutive nanosecond pulses, the electron density n_e decays due to dissociative recombination [45, 46]

$$n_e(t) \approx \frac{n_{e,\text{max}}}{1 + k_r n_{e,\text{max}} t}$$

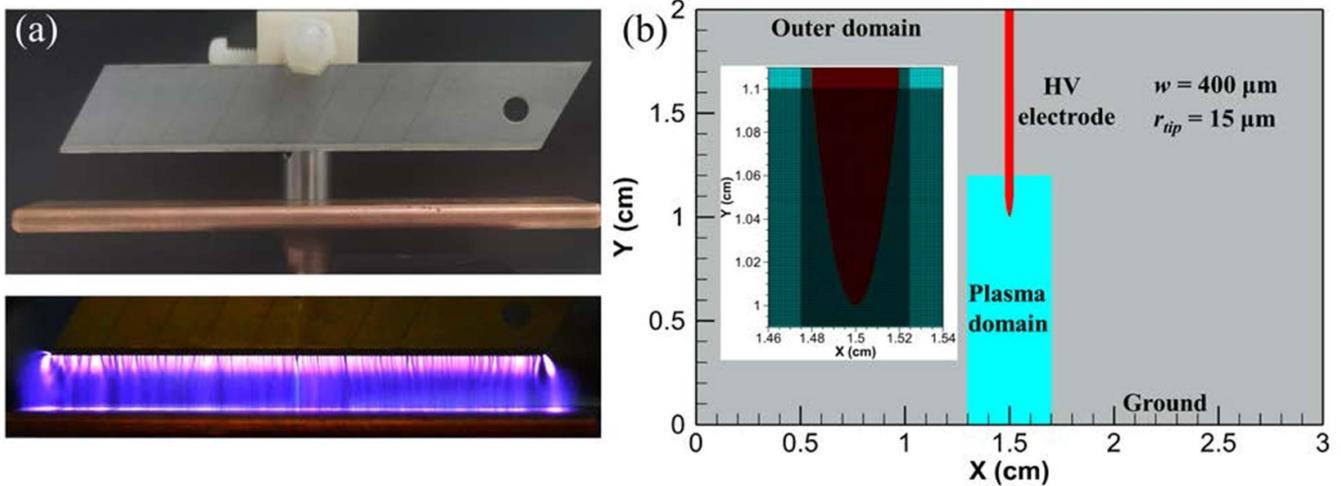


Figure 1. Geometric configuration of the knife–plate electrode and discharge image with an exposure time of 1 ms (a). Schematic of the computational domain in Cartesian coordinates (b).

Since O_4^+ is the main positive ion in the discharge channel during the late afterglow for atmospheric air [47], $k_r = 1.4 \times 10^{-12} (300/T_e)^{0.5}$ is taken as the dissociative recombination of electrons with O_4^+ ions [45, 46]. The maximum electron density $n_{e,max}$ is around 10^{20} m^{-3} (details are shown in the appendix) and t is 20 ms with pulse repetition of 50 Hz. When T_e changes from 1 to 0.1 eV, k_r changes from $2.25 \times 10^{-13} \text{ m}^3 \text{ s}^{-1}$ to $7.12 \times 10^{-13} \text{ m}^3 \text{ s}^{-1}$, thus n_{e0} changes from $2.22 \times 10^{14} \text{ m}^{-3}$ to $7.02 \times 10^{13} \text{ m}^{-3}$ before the next pulse. As for the initial electron density, when the change exceeds more than an order of magnitude it may have a significant impact on the discharge properties. Thus, in the model, $n_{e0} = 10^{14} \text{ m}^{-3}$ distributes uniformly in the plasma domain and the initial ion density is given based on quasi-neutrality.

3. Results and discussion

Figure 2(a) presents the waveforms of voltage and current obtained by measurement and simulation, respectively. The voltage pulse (V_{exp}) with a rise time of 50 ns, full width at half maximum (FWHM) of 130 ns and an amplitude of 15 kV is used to generate the diffuse plasma sheet. As for the measured total current waveform I_{exp} , two wider current peaks with different polarities appear in the rising and falling edges of V_{exp} , while one small peak with 6.4 A appears in the plateau. The displacement current obtained from $C \times dV/dt$ contributes to the majority of I_{exp} except for the plateau phase of V_{exp} , where C is the capacitance of the electrode system and dV/dt is the time derivative of V_{exp} . The conductive current I_c can be estimated by the difference between I_{exp} and $C \times dV/dt$, which reaches its maximum value at ~ 90 ns. Before the breakdown occurs, the measured current and the displacement current are theoretically identical. However, since the conductive current I_c is estimated from the difference between the two close values of I_{exp} and $C \times dV/dt$, the errors introduced by the

differentiation process cause the fluctuations of I_c to be amplified. The signal delay on the cable also makes it difficult for I_{exp} and $C \times dV/dt$ to be completely consistent. Besides, due to the existence of stray capacitance and inductance in the circuit, some fluctuations are generated for I_{exp} . Thus, the obtained conductive current I_c presents some fluctuations before breakdown occurs and during the decline of the voltage pulse.

As for simulation, the waveform of V_{sim} smoothed from V_{exp} is adopted as the input voltage. The calculated current I_{sim} is the integral of fluxes of negative and positive charges through the surface of the HV electrode, consisting of a small spike of 1.1 A at 57 ns and a large peak of 7.3 A at 87 ns. The latter qualitatively agrees with I_c in both amplitude and temporal phase. The fact that the two current peaks have the same polarity indicates the presence of primary and secondary streamers in the discharge gap, different from the usual second current peak at the voltage falling phase which is due to a reversed electric field [48]. Similar phenomena can be found in other works [49, 50].

As shown in figure 2(b), the optical emission spectrum ranging from 280 to 430 nm is collected from the diffuse plasma sheet. It is clear that for the nanosecond-pulsed knife–plate discharge, the emission spectrum is dominated by the second positive system of molecular nitrogen $N_2(C^3\Pi_u-B^3\Pi_g)$. By fitting the measured spectrum of $N_2(C^3\Pi_u-B^3\Pi_g)$ with the Specair program [51], the rotational ($T_{rot} = 330$ K) and vibrational ($T_{vib} = 3310$ K) temperatures of N_2 are obtained. Since T_{vib} is much higher than T_{rot} , the extremely non-equilibrium plasma sheet enhances chemical activity [10], occupying unique advantages in diverse applications such as processing of heat-sensitive materials and sterilization of biological tissue.

Figure 3 shows the evolution of single-shot images for the knife–plate discharge taken by an ICCD camera during the voltage pulse. The gate width of the ICCD is 3 ns and the delay time between the two consecutive images is 2 ns. The image of

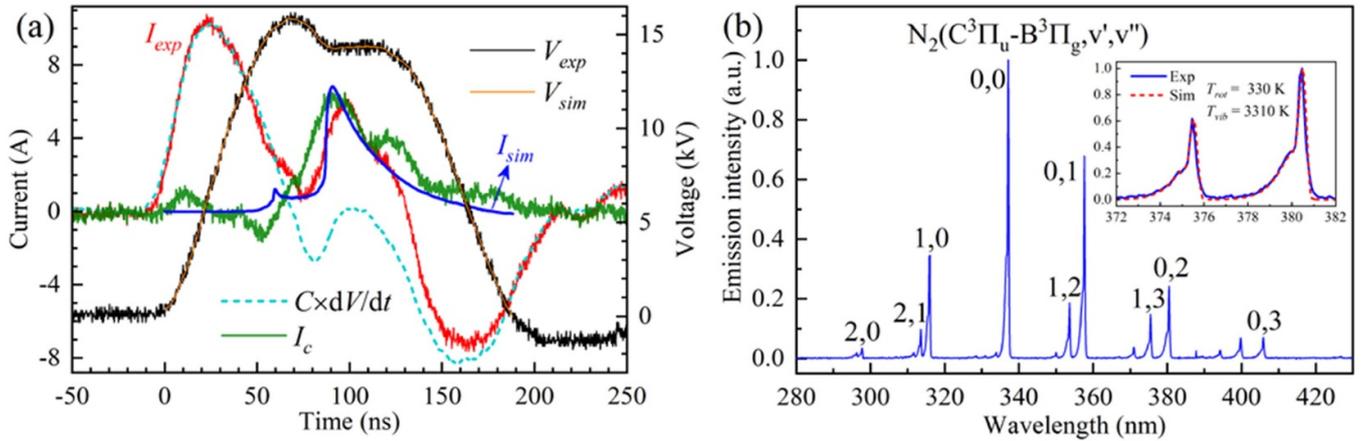


Figure 2. Waveforms of voltage and current from both measurement and simulation (a) and optical emission spectrum of the discharge (b).

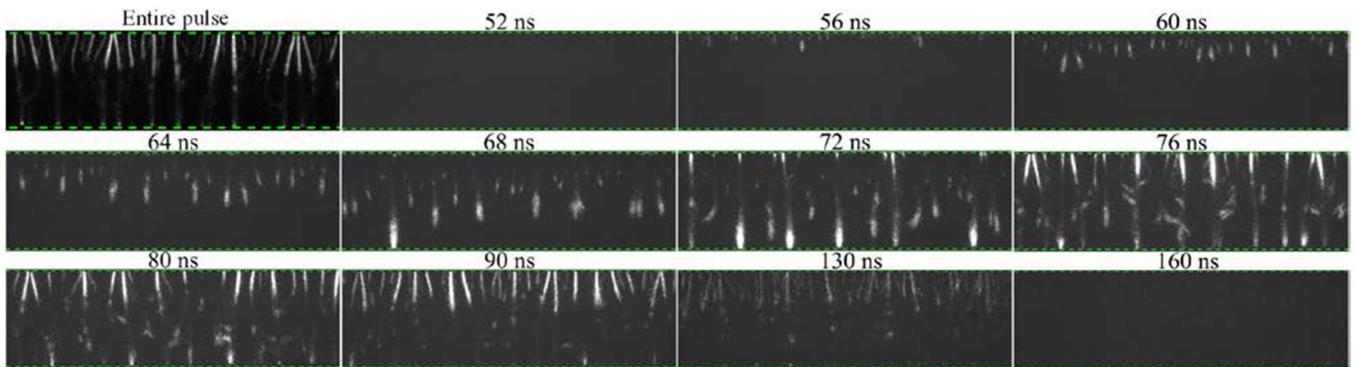


Figure 3. Temporal evolution of the knife–plate discharge (camera gate 3 ns) with a peak voltage of 15 kV taken by an ICCD camera (single-shot). The entire pulse image is also shown (camera gate 150 ns).

one discharge pulse with a gate of 150 ns is also presented. The two dashed lines indicate the location of the knife and plate electrodes, respectively. As shown in the single-shot image, the plasma sheet, which appears uniform to the naked eye, actually consists of multiple individual streamers, whose light emission is more intense near the knife tip but becomes rather weak below it. At 52 ns, a weak luminous spot is generated at the knife tip and no plasma can be found before that, indicating discharge breakdown (primary streamer). Afterwards, several discharge spots gradually appear at different locations along the knife tip and propagate towards the plate (52–72 ns). A dark region is left behind the primary streamer fronts. At 68 ns, one streamer reaches the plate first and then more streamers arrive step by step (72 ns). The mean propagation velocity of the primary streamers can be roughly estimated as $(5.0\text{--}6.3) \times 10^5 \text{ m s}^{-1}$.

After reaching the ground, primary streamers quickly extinguish while multiple luminous channels, i.e. secondary streamers, appear again in the vicinity of the knife tip, which looks much brighter than the former. When a pre-ionized channel is present the electric field E is much lower than that of the primary streamer [50, 52, 53]. Thus, secondary streamers only propagate about 3–4 mm away from the HV electrode, i.e. the

secondary streamers do not punch through the discharge gap. During the period with secondary streamers, luminescence exists along the entire discharge gap due to the left-over channel of primary streamers. The entire discharge is more intensified than a corona, but is inhibited from transition to a spark [26]. The development of secondary streamers is very rapid, but can be maintained for a relatively long time (72–90 ns). Subsequently, secondary streamers fade away until they are completely extinguished at 160 ns as the voltage continues to decrease.

The calculated temporal evolutions of n_e , $N_2(C^3\Pi_u)$ density and E are shown in figure 4. The maximum electron density occurs at the HV electrode first, then decreases slightly during the propagation of the primary streamer and rises again as the plate is approached. After the discharge front has passed by, the reduction of T_e in the channel makes n_e decrease due to rapid recombination processes, for example $e + O_4^+ \rightarrow 2O + O_2$ with a rate of $1.4 \times 10^{-12} (300/T_e)^{0.5}$ [45, 46], especially near the HV electrode. The drop in n_e weakens the shielding effect caused by space charge in the channel, and the high potential applied on the HV electrode is maintained; both these effects make E near the knife tip exceed the breakdown threshold again and trigger the secondary streamer [45].

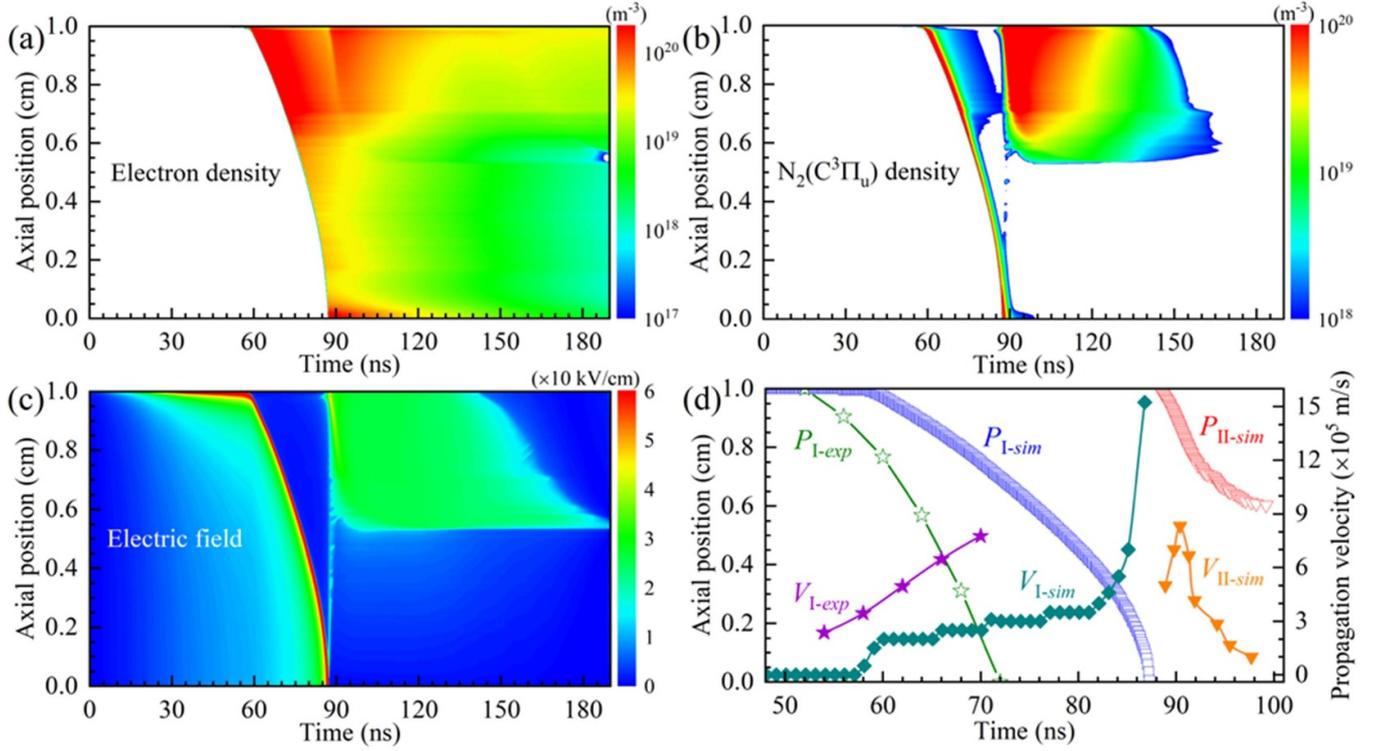


Figure 4. Temporal evolution of calculated n_e (a), $\text{N}_2(\text{C}^3\Pi_u)$ (b) and E (c) along the streamer propagation axis $x = 1.5$ cm, and dynamics (location and velocity) of the ionization front obtained by measurement and simulation (d).

Moreover, since the discharge emission intensity is proportional to molecular density on the upper energy level of the spectral band, the distribution of $\text{N}_2(\text{C}^3\Pi_u)$ can be used to characterize the discharge kinetics [42]. During the primary streamer propagation, the maximum $\text{N}_2(\text{C}^3\Pi_u)$ density is mainly concentrated on the discharge front and rapidly diminishes after the front passes. In contrast, as for the secondary streamer, $\text{N}_2(\text{C}^3\Pi_u)$ density keeps a continuous profile along the discharge channel and decays slowly versus time. The calculated discharge dynamics and morphology are consistent with the ICCD images.

The maximum E appears at the front of the primary streamer, while during the secondary streamer phase E is uniformly distributed along the discharge channel near the knife tip and drops remarkably in the remaining gap. Between the primary and secondary streamers, a return stroke propagates towards the anode at an extremely fast velocity. A similar phenomenon is also obtained in both experiments and simulations [31, 36, 50, 52, 53].

Figure 4(d) presents the locations of the measured and calculated discharge fronts (P , hollow symbols) and corresponding instantaneous speeds (V , solid symbols) for the primary (I) and secondary streamers (II), respectively. The position of the maximum $\text{N}_2(\text{C}^3\Pi_u)$ at $x = 1.5$ cm is selected to represent the location of the discharge front. It is clear that the calculated primary streamer ignites at ~ 56 ns and reaches the ground at ~ 87 ns, taking about 31 ns to penetrate the discharge gap. Its speed continues to increase during the propagation and shows

a significant increment as it approaches the ground. As for the secondary streamer, the farthest reachable distance from the HV electrode (~ 4 mm) is obtained at 98 ns and its propagation velocity first increases and then drops remarkably within ~ 8 ns. Thus, the small spike in I_{sim} indicates the initiation of the primary streamer, and the large peak is contributed by both the breakdown of the primary streamer and the initiation of the secondary streamer.

For comparison, the discharge dynamics of the fastest batch of primary streamers obtained from ICCD images are also shown. Obviously, in the experiment, it takes less time to cross the discharge gap. Note that, the knife–plate discharge is essentially a 3D phenomenon and the radius of curvature of the steamer head should be smaller than in 2D simulation [54]. Besides, the selection of r_{tip} for the knife in the simulation greatly affects the discharge properties. A smaller r_{tip} enhances the discharge intensity. The roughness of the knife electrode causes streamers to ignite at different locations in the experiments. Nevertheless, as more primary streamers arrive at the ground, the discharge current pulse I_c reaches its maximum gradually at around 90 ns, showing excellent agreement with I_{sim} , as shown in figure 1(a).

Figure 5(a) presents the temporal evolution of the measured electric field at different locations by the E-FISH method. As the voltage begins to increase, E first increases near the HV electrode (1.0 cm), while it remains unchanged close to the ground (0.0 cm), which also means that it is a Laplacian field before the breakdown happens. After E at the knife tip reaches

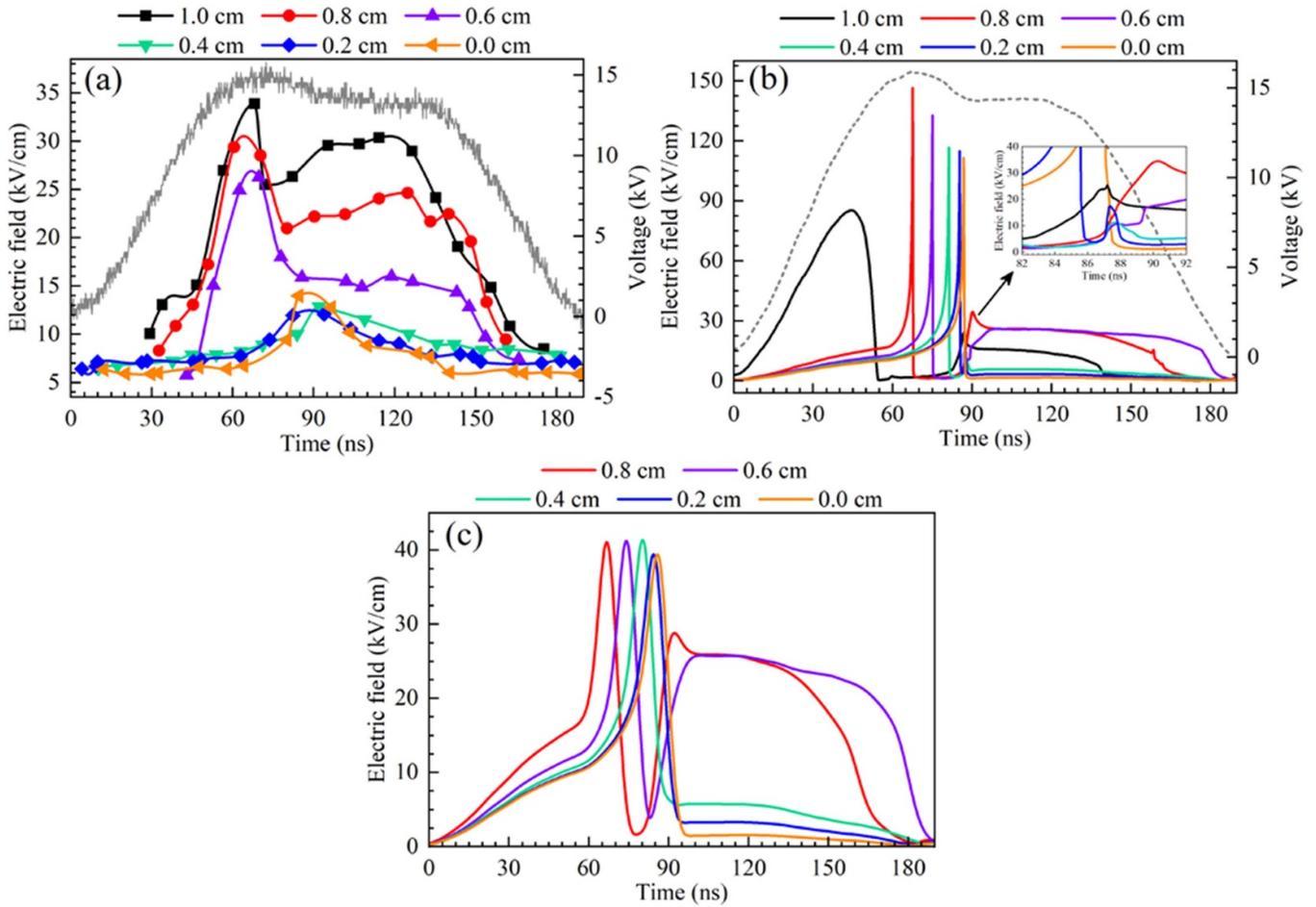


Figure 5. Temporal evolution of measured (a) and calculated (b) E at different locations in the knife–plate discharge gap. Convolution of calculated E with a Gaussian laser pulse (c).

a peak of 34 kV cm^{-1} , it starts to drop and then a decrease in the amplitude of E also occurs at locations further away from the HV electrode, indicating the process of propagation of the primary streamer. Subsequently, only E near the knife tip increases again and reaches its second peak, which corresponds to the secondary streamer. When the applied voltage decreases, E in the discharge gap diminishes to a low level.

Similarly, in the simulation, a two-peak feature is observed for the electric field near the knife and in the middle of discharge gap, but only one peak is obtained near the plate (figure 5(b)). The second peak of the calculated E near the knife tip corresponds to the secondary streamer, while near the plate it is induced by a reverse ionization wave as the primary streamer approaches the plate.

However, the most distinct difference between the measurement and simulation is that the peak value of the electric field in the simulation is more than four times higher than the measured one. This is due to the extremely fast propagation speed and the limitation of temporal resolution of the E-FISH system (7–9 ns) [38]. As shown in figure 5(c), after convolution between the calculated E and a Gaussian laser pulse (FWHM ~ 8 ns), an average electric field can be obtained,

which is closer to the measured E . Thus, although the nanosecond E-FISH system can measure the variation of E in a shorter time than the laser pulse [55], the peak is greatly underestimated, especially during streamer development. For further investigation, a femtosecond or picosecond laser is more desirable [40, 56].

4. Summary and conclusions

In summary, characteristics of the knife–plate discharge operated in atmospheric pressure air were studied experimentally and numerically. Excited by a nanosecond-pulsed generator, a diffuse plasma sheet was formed with a gap of 1 cm. Discharge dynamics obtained by the ICCD camera demonstrate that the plasma sheet, which appears diffuse to the naked eye, actually consists of multiple individual streamers, including primary and secondary streamers. The primary streamers can penetrate the discharge gap and quickly extinguish after reaching the plate, while the secondary streamers only propagate about 3–4 mm away from the HV electrode. Although the diffuse discharge generated in the knife–plate electrode geometry is not completely homogeneous, the short voltage pulse restricts

the thermal-ionization instability and maintains the entire discharge in an intermediate state between corona and spark. Both current and discharge dynamics in the experiment qualitatively agree with the calculated results. Even though a 2D electrode geometry was used to generate diffuse discharge and 2D simulation can capture the dominant features of discharge propagation dynamics, the 3D structure of individual streamer is still an important factor for further investigation.

Data availability statement

All data that support the findings of this study are included within the article (and any supplementary files).

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Appendix

To illustrate the influence of the initial electron density n_{e0} on the discharge properties, the calculated results with three different n_{e0} values ranging from 10^{12} to 10^{14} m^{-3} are shown below. As for the calculated current (figure 6), the increment in n_{e0} makes the breakdown occur earlier and elevates the amplitude of the second peak, while it reduces the first peak slightly. The temporal evolution of electron density, $\text{N}_2(\text{C}^3\Pi_u)$ density and electric field at two different locations (0.2 and 0.8 cm away from the HV electrode) is also presented (figure 7). For these three cases, the temporal evolution of electron density and $\text{N}_2(\text{C}^3\Pi_u)$ density shows a two-peak feature near the HV electrode, but only one peak near the ground, all of which indicate that the discharge consists of a primary and secondary streamer phase. Although n_{e0} varies by two orders of magnitude, the calculated results show that the maximum electron density, $\text{N}_2(\text{C}^3\Pi_u)$ density and electric field change slightly. For example, when n_{e0} varies from 10^{12} to 10^{14} m^{-3} , $n_{e,\text{max}}$ changes from 4.4×10^{20} to 4.7×10^{20} at a location of 0.2 cm away from the HV electrode. Thus, the value of n_{e0} has a little effect on $n_{e,\text{max}}$.

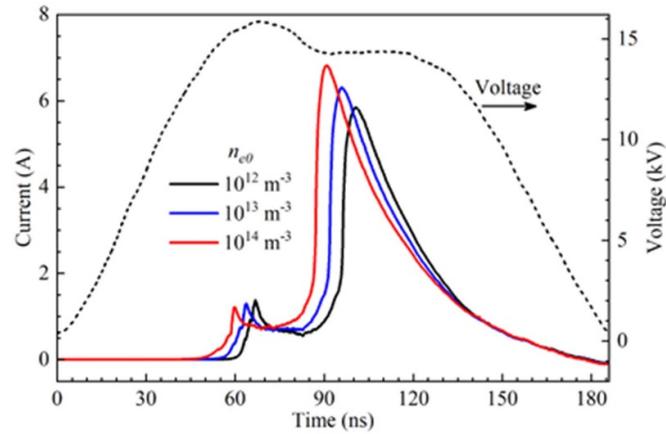


Figure 6. Calculated current with different initial electron density n_{e0} .

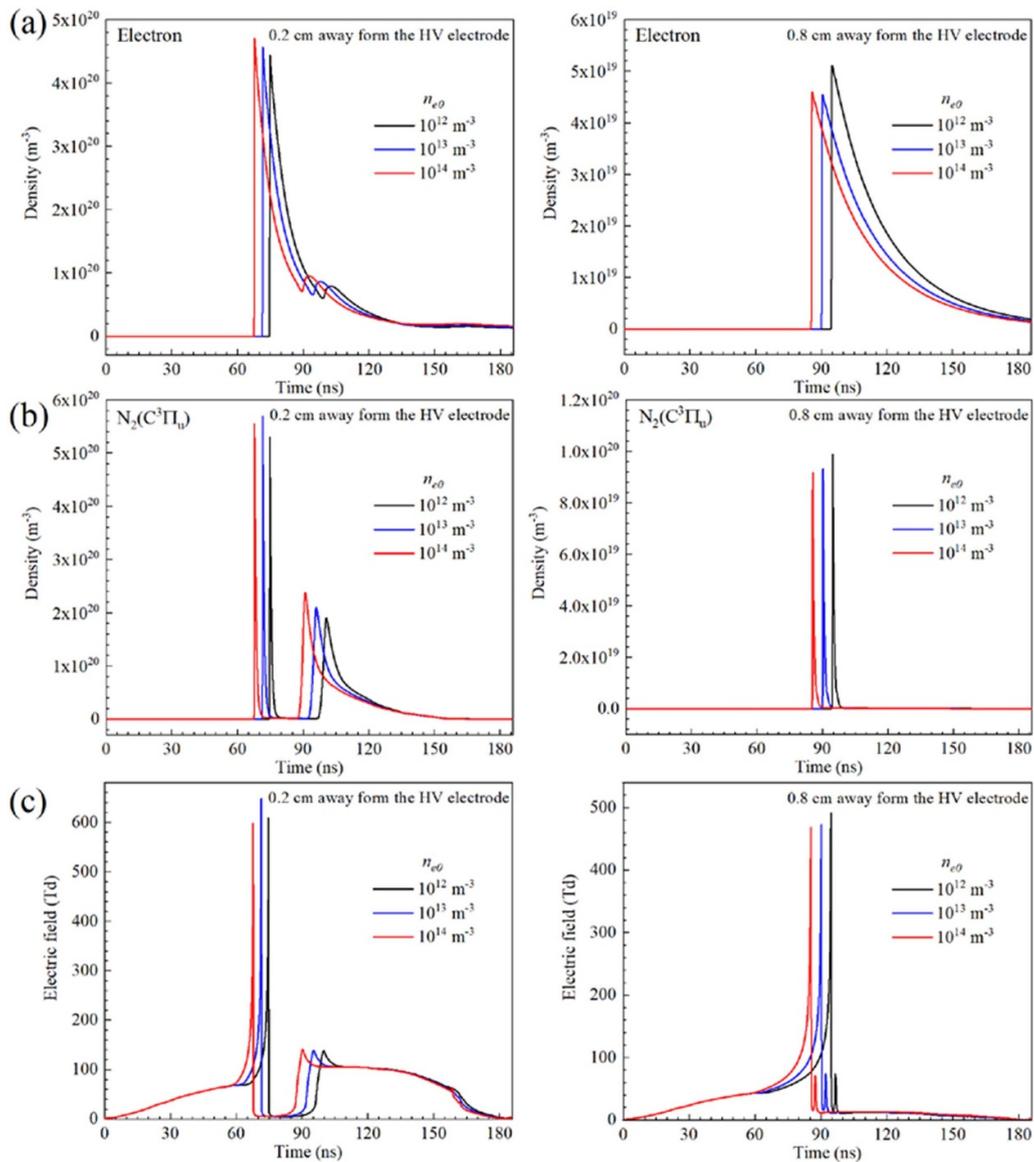


Figure 7. Temporal evolutions of (a) electron density, (b) $N_2(C^3\Pi_u)$ density and (c) electric field with different n_{e0} at locations 0.2 cm (left) and 0.8 cm (right) away from the HV electrode.

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