Physics and application of plasma diagnostics, electrostatic confinement and characterization by optical emission spectroscopy

Física e aplicação de diagnóstico de plasmas, confinamento eletrostático, e caracterização por espectroscopia de emissão óptica

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ABSTRACT
In this work, supplementary experiments were accomplished by using argon plasmas for studying in the field of nuclear fusion and plasma diagnostics. In this way, three attempts were accomplished to describe the physics of the probes, (plasma sheath), electrical breakdown and electro-static confinement assisted by Spectroscopy. (i) In the first attempt, Langmuir probes was aimed either to determine the electron density, temperature of the argon plasma, and the characteristic Current-Voltage curve (I–V). (ii) In the second attempt, the Paschen curve was acquired to demonstrate the effects that determine the electrical breakdown voltage. (iii) The last attempt, the electro-static confinement was analyzed using optical emission spectroscopy. The fusor has been suggested as a simple alternative to magnetic confinement. Although on fundamental grounds this claim cannot be supported, interesting physics aspects appeared, some of which have their counterpart in tokamak as well.

Keywords: Argon plasmas, Langmuir probes, Paschen curve, fusor, electro-static confinement, Optical Emission Spectroscopy.

RESUMO
Neste trabalho, experimentos complementares foram realizados usando plasmas de argônio para estudar no campo da energia nuclear, o diagnóstico de plasmas de fusão. Dessa forma, três experimentos foram realizados para descrever a física das sondas (na bainha do plasma), quebra dielétrica e confinamento eletrostático assistido por espectroscopia. (i) Na primeira tentativa, a sonda de Langmuir foi usada para se determinar a densidade de elétrons, a temperatura do plasma de argônio e a curva de corrente-tensão característica (I-V). (ii) Na segunda tentativa, a curva de Paschen foi adquirida para demonstrar os efeitos que determinam a quebra dielétrica em um gás e, em seguida, foi possível determinar a Voltagem em que ocorre a quebra dielétrica (iii) Na última tentativa, o confinamento eletrostático foi analisado usando espectroscopia de emissão óptica. A fusão foi sugerida como uma alternativa simples ao confinamento magnético. Embora, por razões fundamentais, esta afirmação pode não ser suportada, aspectos físicos interessantes apareceram, alguns dos quais têm contraparte em tokamaks.


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INTRODUCTION

Langmuir probe

An electrostatic probe was first used to measure the potential distribution in gas discharges on the ground by Joseph John Thomson. The theory was later developed by Irving Langmuir and his collaborators. The technique, with further developments, has been extensively applied to the study of gas discharges. A Langmuir probe refers to an electrode immersed in charged particle plasma, whose current–voltage (I–V) characteristics can be measured. From the I–V characteristics, one can estimate the temperature and number density of thermal electrons as bulk parameters which a DC bias is applied. The ideal I–V curve is demonstrated in Fig. 1.

![Figure 1: Typical double probe I-V characteristics in a nearly Maxwellian plasma (low discharge voltage, high argon pressure)](image)

In other studies, the effects of RF potential oscillation on the Langmuir probe characteristic I–V were described. This method is based on using a time-averaged Langmuir probe I–V characteristics. The I–V characteristics has three different regions: 1) ion saturation region where the electrons are repelled but ions are collected; 2) electron retarding potential region where most of the current is due to electrons, but the actual current is determined by the number of electrons which can overcome a retarding potential; and 3) electron saturation region where ions are repelled but electrons are attracted to the probe. The probe leads were shielded by bare metal tubes to eliminate RF interferences in the probe circuits as has been done in previous research.

When a probe is immersed in plasmas, its current generally depends on the collections of positive ions, negative ions, and electrons. We consider the electron current on a spherical probe under the condition that the electrons have a Maxwellian velocity distribution in a coordinate system fixed with respect to the probe. Recent studies report the use of tungsten filament (probe) for plasma diagnostics. Other work, also was dedicated to probe measurements in RF plasmas using bare metal protective shields underneath the floating potential.

For understanding, developing and maintaining plasma processes, it is desirable to determine the basic plasma parameters, like electron temperature, plasma density and their dependence on the discharge voltage and operating gas pressure. Nowadays, it was reported in literature the use of Langmuir probe to measure these parameters.

Electron plasma parameters such as density, temperature and the energy distribution depend on the plasma operating conditions such as gas composition, pressure, applied power, reactor geometry and reactor material.

In recent studies, standard probe measurements were determined to registering the following parameters of plasma: electron temperature (Te), electron concentration (ne), floating potential of probe (Vf), potential of space (Vs), and its corresponding density of electron saturation current (jes). These parameters quite sufficiently characterize the physical state of plasma. In addition, other studies considered the particle mass (m) as an important parameter.

There are several factors which may prevent accurate measurement of electron temperature and density in plasmas by Langmuir probes. Among them, a contamination of the probe surface is one of the most potential sources of error. In particular, the electron temperature tends to be estimated to be higher than the true value when the probe has a contaminated surface. Hysteresis in the measurement of I–V characteristics may also be seen in such a situation.

In general, the electron current is calculated by subtracting the ion current from the probe current, where the ion current is estimated by extrapolation from the ion saturation current. Electron current is completely controlled by the ion saturation current so that probe draws very little amount of current without disturbing the plasma conditions.

The electron temperature is estimated from the gradient, which is proportional to 1/Te, in a plot of log (Ie). The random electron current is a function of the electron temperature and density. Therefore, once the random electron current and the electron temperature are known, the number density of electrons can be calculated. In other recent studies, it was noted that parameters such as the electron density and the electron temperature can also be obtained from the electron energy probability function (EEPf). More recent studies can be found in literature.

An investigation into the referencing limitations of probe was presented by Babu, however, it is rarely observed in argon plasmas. For another gas, recent studies reported its dielectric properties using Langmuir Probe.

Paschen curve

The electric breakdown of gases is one of the fundamental phenomena of gas discharge physics. It has been studied for a long time but still attracts incessant interest of researchers.

Besides the interesting physics, breakdown is important for many applications including development of reliable electric insulation.
in electric grids and the study of different aspects of gas discharge physics26-27. Normally, a breakdown is represented by the so-called Paschen curve or the Paschen law28.

The electrical breakdown occurs in Townsend regime when the ions reaching the cathode have sufficient energy to generate secondary electrons29. The reflection of electrons from the plasma volume walls is important in gas discharge physics. For example, this effect may have profound influence on probe measurements30. The ion-assisted field emission takes over in this regime and lowers the breakdown voltage considerably31.

The breakdown voltage \( V_b \) for a particular gas and electrode material depends on the product of the pressure and the distance between the electrodes, as expressed in Paschen law. This breakdown voltage curve represents a balance between the number of electrons lost by diffusion and drift in the interelectrode gap and the number of secondary electrons generated at the cathode32.

\( V_b \) increases as \( pd \) increases on the right side of the Paschen curve and increases with respect to the lowest breakdown value on the left side of the Paschen curve. For most gases, \( V_b \) is a single-valued function of \( pd \). At high pressures, breakdown voltage follows Paschen law until the electric field reaches the critical value and, after that, breakdown curve falls below the pure Paschen curve33.

For the breakdown, failures from the Paschen law are observed in different regions34. First, departure appears at the right-hand branch of the curve corresponding to high pressures. The deviation is also noticed at the left-hand branch related to the low pressures and finally near the minimum of the breakdown curve. For each region, the required value for the electric field has to be of the order of \( 10^6 \) V.cm\(^{-1} \) or more to induce a field emission effect from the cathode.

The critical issue in extending the standard (gaps of distance \( d = 1 \) cm, and pressures \( p = 1 \) Torr) low pressure discharges to dimensions of the order of millimeters is how to predict the conditions that could lead to a breakdown35. In this way, we prefer to regard the Paschen curve (law) as the dependence of the breakdown voltage on \( pd \) (the pressure–gap product) without implying any analytic dependences36. It was found that when the additional electron emission due to the high electric field is included, the breakdown voltage decreases very rapidly with decreasing \( pd \) (for smaller \( pd \)) of the Paschen minimum. However, in a number of papers, experimental Paschen curves obtained for both DC and rf discharges displayed a plateau to the minimum and these curves disagreed with those obtained at standard dimensions37,38.

In other study, the higher \( pd \) values the scaling of electrical characteristics and light emission intensity with electrode separation was verified39. Figure 2 shows a typical Paschen curve for a given gas, where the breakdown voltage \( (V_b) \) was fitted as function of pressure \( \times \) gap distance \( (pd) \).

Other authors also reported that Paschen law predicts the value of the breakdown voltage as a function of the product of the pressure and the interelectrode distance, \( V_b = f(pd) \) in a given gas for a given reactor configuration40.

An additional and independent influence of the interelectrode distance on the breakdown voltage has been observed by Penning and Addink41, Miler42, Auday et al.43, Lisovskiy et al.44, and Mariotti et al.45.

Moreover, breakdown voltage curves corresponding to the measured breakdown voltages for RF discharges in argon and DC discharges with various electrode materials can be found in another study46. Under the same discharge conditions (including capacitor voltage, cathode material, shape and electrode spacing), the electrode configuration with higher breakdown voltage is able to generate higher-density plasma since the cathode runaway electrons can gain relatively larger energy from the electric field47. In addition, the DC breakdown voltage curves in argon discharges for different gap spacing is described in literature48. Recent studies also revealed the voltage breakdown as function of product (\( pd \)) and Paschen curve using argon plasma for a distance \( d = 2 \) cm, while the pressure was changed from 0.4 to 2.6 mbar49.

**Fusor (electrostatic confinement)**

Atomic spectra are known to be a rich source of information about the structure of atomic nuclei without involving any model concepts. It was shown that spectroscopic methods may appear very promising for this kind of investigation50. Later, natural spectral-line broadening in atoms with unstable nuclei was explored by Gainutdinov51.

Spherical electrodes immersed into background plasma were first studied by Stenzel et al.52,53. In these two companion papers, the bias on the relevant electrode was positive with respect to ground. In this way, electrons can oscillate between the boundaries of the gridded anode. The main difference between the aforementioned works and this third experiment is that the sign for the electrode bias in this work is highly negative. Its amplitude is in fact so high.
that the ions can gain enough kinetic energy to undergo fusion reactions. Fig. 3 shows schematic of a possible experimental setup.

Figure 3: Schematic of a possible experimental setup. Ions are accelerated by the applied voltage into the grid in the center of the machine where they are able to fuse.

Generally, spectral diagnostic methods attempt to establish relationships between the plasma parameters and the radiation features, such as the emission or absorption intensity and the broadening or shifting of the spectral lines. An emission line is defined as the energy emitted per second and it depends on the probability of transitioning between the two involved energy levels and their electron population.

Several factors result in the broadening of the spectral lines. In the following, the most important factors for broadening are explained.

The spectral lines are not infinitely sharp in wavelength or frequency, but has a spread in wavelength/frequency described by a Lorentzian profile. Hutchinson noted that spectral lines emitted by bound-bound transitions do not have an infinitesimal spectra width, but undergo several possible lines broadening mechanism useful for diagnostics.

Many studies in the literature on plasma parameters use the optical emission spectroscopy (OES) technique, which can be applied in many fields, from spatial plasmas to laboratory experiments, such as in nuclear fusion.

OES is the most popular technique to investigate glow discharges since it is simple and produces no perturbation in the plasma. Some authors also have used OES for probing the cold plasma (few eV electrons), whose role is relevant in plasma stability. Nevertheless, OES is used to measure vibrational, rotational and gas temperatures and electron energy distribution functions in argon plasmas. Moreover, the optical emission spectrum of capacitive and inductive discharge has been compared in detail. Fig. 4 shows the background line broadening for our experiments.

Recently, it was developed a nonequilibrium collisional-radiative model (CRM) for pure argon to calculate the populations of argon excited states and line intensities. In particular, they focused on the light emission of the three most intense argon lines at 811.5 nm, 763.5 nm, and 750.4 nm.

From OES measurements reported in the literature, it is known that the relative intensity of these dominant argon lines depends on the type of plasma. In capacitively coupled plasmas (CCP), inductively coupled plasmas (ICP), and glow discharges, the 811.5 nm line is the dominant line in pure argon. For glow discharges, and CCP plasmas, the relative increase in emission intensity is 811.5 nm > 763.5 nm > 750.4 nm. In ICP plasmas, the intensity of 750.4 nm line is reported to be higher than the 763.5 nm line.

In pure argon, the 811.5 nm line presented the highest intensity because it originates from the 2p9 state, which is the most populated level. It is followed by the 763.5 nm line, which originates from the 2p6 level with the second highest population, and finally, by the 750.4 nm line, which originates from the least populated 2p1 state.

The electron impact excitation cross sections out of the argon ground state are taken from literature. The electron impact excitation rates out of the argon ground state account for direct excitation only. The total rates, however, include cascades from higher lying levels.

Emitting atoms suffer frequent collisions with other atoms and ions in the plasma, which produces distortion of their energy levels. This is a mechanism leading to the so-called collisional broadening of the emission lines. Depending on the nature of disturbing particles, there are different types of collisional broadenings: Van der Waals, resonance and Stark broadenings.

The Van der Waals broadening is due to dipole moment induced by neutral atom perturbers in the instantaneous oscillating electric field of the excited emitter atom. The resonance broadening of spectral lines is due to dipole-dipole interactions of the emitter with ground-state atoms of the same element.
The Stark broadening results from Coulomb interactions between the emitter atom and surrounding charged particles, perturbing the electric field it experiences. Both ions and electrons induce Stark broadening, but, in nonthermal plasmas, electrons are responsible for the major part of it because of their higher relative velocities.

These three collisional broadenings mechanism generates a Lorentzian shape profile with a FWHM for argon.

EXPERIMENTAL

In the first attempt (i), an insulating probe with tungsten electrode tip was positioned in argon plasma. A voltage stepping between a lower and upper limit was applied between the probe tip and the plasma. The tips measured 19 × 10^{-3} and 3 × 10^{-3} m. The area was 1.3273 × 10^{-4} m. The current running from the electrode to the plasma was recorded and the I–V was fitted to determine plasma temperature and density. The source 300 VDC was applied to an alternative electrical configuration, the pressure in the chamber was 8.0 × 10^{-3} bar. The series resistors reached 1.2 × 10^{3} Ω and the maximum current (i_{max}) reached 100 × 10^{-3} A. The computer-controlled probe was calculated using a “Keithley 2400” source meter from Tektronix Company.

In this second attempt (ii), an argon plasma was used to record the breakdown voltage as a function of pressure and distance between the electrodes until the saturation of electrical current using a DC power supply. In the first step, the argon pressure was changed from 0.08 × 10^{-3} to 47.4 × 10^{-3} bar, while the distance between the electrodes was fixed to 3.6 × 10^{-3} m. The voltage applied was changed from 3.2 × 10^{3} to 2.6 × 10^{6} V, while the output current was 4 × 10^{-3} A. The objective was to fit the curve voltage × pressure. In the second step, the pressure was fixed at 1 × 10^{-3} bar and current 4 × 10^{-3} A, while voltage was changed from 260 to 500 V, in order to collect the voltage × distance curve. Figure 5 shows the scheme of experimental plasma system for i and ii.

In the third attempt (iii), another plasma system was used for the electrostatic confinement, which was accomplished in a self-build fusor experiment consisted in a spherical vacuum chamber with diameter of 50 × 10^{-2} m, containing an internal grid at – 100 × 10^{3} V potential in a low electrical current of ~ 15 × 10^{-3} A, using argon plasmas in a pressure work of 3.2 × 10^{-4} bar. The measurements of plasma parameters were acquired using OES and density profile was determined. It was possible to fit the four spectral lines of optical emission from temperatures between 7 to 10 eV.

The underlying concept is rather simple: a high voltage of several kV (up to several hundred kV) accelerates ions from background plasma radially into the inner grid electrode where they collide and fuse. The frequently used working gases are a mixture of deuterium and tritium or pure deuterium gas, which is not, was available.

The scheme of experimental plasma fusor system for iii can be observed in Fig. 6.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

Langmuir probe and optical spectroscopy were recently studied using argon plasma. Argon gas is considered as one of the most often used gases in plasma technologies. The relative cheapness of argon also enables it to be used as the carrier gas in industry. The results and discussions are presented for the three experiments (i, ii and iii):

Figure 5: Scheme of experimental plasma system for i and ii. The diameters of the tips are: Ø = 3 mm and Ø = 19 mm. The PC-controlled probe was a “Keithley 2400.”

Figure 6: Scheme of experimental plasma fusor system for iii. Argon ions are accelerated by the applied negative voltage of -100 kV into the grid in the center of the reactor.

The argon gas was used as an alternative for the iii experiment. For this experiment, it is assumed that the system does not present a perfect spherical symmetry; it is possible to obtain grid loss energy collision losses, and finally, at center, the electric field (E ≠ 0).
Experiment i

The electron density and temperature are the basic parameters that characterize space plasmas; they were obtained through in situ measurements by using Langmuir probes, which is in agreement with recent studies\(^8\). The I–V characteristic can describe the operating regime of the electric discharge. Using this I–V curve, the plasma parameters of interest can be calculated\(^8\). To obtain the I–V characteristic, the power supply voltage was varied for a top current of \(2.8 \times 10^{-6}\) A, in an area of \(1.3273 \times 10^{-4}\) m, while the argon pressure was \(1.338 \times 10^{-3}\) bar.

The real current saturation cannot be estimated for this range. Thus, the curve represents the transition region between electronic and ionic current saturation. In this region, while the electric field is very small, the value of the current (some tens of \(\mu\)A) will be proportional to the rate at which the ions and electrons move toward the electrodes. Under these conditions, the density of current is proportional to the electric field and the voltage range, reaches some tens of volts, and independently of how potent is the power source. Fig. 7 shows the results obtained in this study.

![I-V curve](image)

**Figure 7**: I–V curve resulted from i experiment.

At \(1.338 \times 10^{-3}\) bar (\(\sim 130\) Pa), the random flux (\(\Gamma\)) of argon atoms (a.m.u 40) at room temperature is \(2 \times 10^{23}\) atoms m\(^{-2}\)s\(^{-1}\). The distance travelled by an argon atom between collisions will be on average about \(0.11 \times 10^{-3}\) m, and the frequency of collisions between gas atoms at room temperature is \(3.5 \times 10^{6}\) s\(^{-1}\).\(^6\) The linearity observed on the graph is interpreted as follows: as long as the electric field is very small, the equilibrium between the production and the loss of charge in the medium will be maintained and the current value will be proportional to the speed with which the ions and electrons move towards the electrodes. Under these conditions the current density is proportional to the electric field and, consequently, the phase is an ohmic conductor.

On the other hand, the ranges of data collection from current and voltage were not sufficient to fit the curve as the I–V curve described in Figure 1, thus the fitted curve is quite linear in this range for those plasma conditions. It is suggested that the probe currents in this experiment were saturated at the maximum voltages of 60 and \(-60\) V. Thus, the plasma potential should be smaller than 60 V because the electrons moved from the plasma to the probes by the electric force of the applied saturation voltage.

Extrapolating this region, the plasma discharge will be in progress, thus, when the bias voltage on the probe reaches a sufficiently negative value with respect to the plasma potential, the probe collects the ion saturation current. Positive ions continue to be collected by the probe until the bias voltage reaches the plasma potential; at this point, ions begin to be repelled by the probe. If the bias voltage is higher than the plasma potential, all positive ions are repelled, and the ion current to the probe vanishes\(^7\).

Similarly, when the probe is positively biased, then most of the current to the probe is due to electrons, but the actual current is determined by the number of electrons overcoming a retarding potential\(^8\).

Other works review probes in flowing plasma conditions at moderate to high pressures\(^9,10,11\). At higher pressures (\(p > 50\) Pa), the frequency of electron collisions with the plasma species also increases and the mean free path between successive collisions decreases. It shows that the electrons lose their energy in the discharge. Thus, as the chamber pressure increases, more and more energy is transferred from the electrons to the plasma species.

In addition, the elastic collisions of electrons with the plasma species can also play a significant role in reduction of ionization events. Similarly, at higher pressures, the high-energy tail depletes to low energies; as a result, the availability of highly energetic electrons for electron impact ionization processes and, consequently, the electron number density (\(n_e\)) decreases. This depletion in the tail of the electron energy distribution function might be due to rapid diffusion and recombination of highly energetic electrons at the chamber walls\(^11,12\).

At low pressure, when mean free paths are relatively long, the electrons remain much hotter than the gas; conversely, at high pressures, thermal equilibrium can be approached. A crude estimate of the electric field in a self-sustaining plasma can be obtained by supposing that electrons travel their entire free path in the direction of the field and lose all the energy gained in an optimum collision with the (cold) gas, (which suggests a scaling of temperature with \(E/p\)). This gives several volts/cm at next to 1 Torr in argon (133.32 Pa).

**Experiment ii**

If an electric field is applied to a plain parallel gap of width \(d\), containing a gas, at sufficiently high fields, the gas suddenly switches from being insulating dielectric to conducting gas. It is supposed that a few electrons are always around in the gap, either by the action of cosmic rays or else as a consequence of field emission from asperities on the surface, close to which electric fields are strongly enhanced. Our results are consistent with the theory\(^13,14\) that predicts the violation of scaling when field emission becomes significant only at gaps smaller than \(10\) \(\mu\)m.
Our plasma reactor is designed in a DC configuration, and has two electrodes “cathode and anode”, with an adjustable interelectrodes distance; the maximal interelectrodes spacing is approximately calculated. Fig. 8 shows the results of voltages as function of pressure, and voltage as function of electrode distance.

breakdown, higher values of pd require larger voltages to achieve breakdown, and at low pd there is again a sharp rise in breakdown voltage. For a pressure of 1 mbar (0.75 Torr), the minimum breakdown voltage (Vb) is 260 V.

If the long path explanation is considered then, the penetration of the discharge into the gap between the electrode and the insulator allows the discharge length to vary as required and the breakdown voltage stays close to the minimum value98.

Experiment iii

The total collisional broadening result from the convolution of sum of the three mechanisms (Van der Waals, Resonance and Spark broadening).

The Lorentzian line shape typical of natural broadening: I(ν) = (1 + ∆ν²)⁻¹, with ∆ν in units of 1/2Πt, where t is the lifetime of argon atom in an upper state. This arises straightforwardly from the Doppler shift caused by thermal argon particle motion. The thermal Doppler broadening is one of the explanations for the broadening of spectral lines. Figure 8 shows the spectral emission lines from 4 × 10⁻³ mbar of argon plasma under -10.0 kV and 15 mA. In addition, the energies for fusor are 17.6 and 91.1 MeV. Fig.10 shows the image of the spectral emission lines from argon plasma.

The gap between the electrodes, so the electrons cannot gain enough energy to perform ionizations. Consequently, a higher voltage is required to assure ionization of enough argon gas atoms to start an avalanche. Argon is monoatomic and tends to have smaller diameters and, therefore, a greater mean free path length. Figure 9 shows the Paschen curve as result of the experiment ii99.

The shape of the curve can be attributed to the increase of collision on the left side and decrease of ionization cross section on the right side96.

To determine the breakdown threshold, the electric field distortion can be neglected, and the field can be assumed uniform and equal to the applied field97. As with DC (and low-frequency)
around $10^{-6}$ bar, where the mean free paths are in the order of the size of the machine.

The spectral lines emitted by bound-bound transitions do not have infinitesimal spectral width, but undergo several possible line broadening mechanisms that are extremely useful for diagnostics. The energy spread arises because perturbations of the atomic system due to interaction with the electromagnetic fields of virtual (or real) photons cause the quantum states to be only approximate eigenmodes of the system. The temperature was measured for different potentials. For each applied potential, the wavelength resulted to the same peaks formation, around $420 \pm 0.5$ and $528 \pm 0.5$ nm.

Table 1: Values of data acquired by optical emission spectroscopy from argon plasma with $E = -10$ keV, $I = 20.2$ mA and $p = 4 \times 10^{-3}$ mbar.

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Figure 11 shows the broadening lines for argon temperatures from 7 to 10 keV. The spectrum of intensity lines is showed as function of wavelength (nm).

The moderated fields act not to split the upper emitting state, but it rather acts to broaden the emitted line. It was shown earlier that this effect leads to inhomogeneous broadening of spectral line, i.e., the emitted line becomes of Lorentzian shape on contrast to other broadening mechanisms, e.g. Doppler effect, which leads to a homogeneous broadening.

In recent literature, a method to circumvent this dependence on electron density by considering pairs of emitted lines was proposed. This method allows the determination of the gas...
temperature from the measurements of Lorentzian profiles of some pairs of argon atomic lines, and when applying it, no assumptions on the degree of thermodynamic equilibrium among excited states are needed\textsuperscript{101}.

For thermal plasmas with a gas temperature similar to the electron one, the mobility of ions is high and the impact approximation is also valid for ions, being their contribution to the broadening also being Lorentzian. In the ion impact limit, line profiles are symmetric Lorentzian. On the contrary, for plasmas where the ion mobility is small (e.g., plasmas with gas temperature relatively low), a quasistatic approximation is often needed to model the ion broadening in order to explain the slightly asymmetric shape of the profiles. The less dynamical the ions are, the more asymmetric the lines are.

Finally, Fig. 12 shows the spectrum of lines emission from argon plasmas resulted from experiment iii by applying of –10 kV and 3.2 $\times$ 10\textsuperscript{-3} mbar for different temperatures.

![Figure 12: Lorentzian Spectrum of argon plasma resulted from iii experiment by applying of –10 kV and 3.2 $\times$ 10\textsuperscript{-3} mbar.](image)

The 4 peaks ranged between 467 and 469 nm. The peaks of line broadening to argon comprise ions excitation (electronic transitions). While the fusor is in progress, the spectra intensity (counts) will change, and then it is possible to determine the temperature ($\Delta$T) in the plasma. The data were collected applying high voltage of -10 kV while top current was 20.2 mA.

The intensity of these lines is obtained from the spectrum by taking integration over the respective profiles and normalizing the same with the spectral response of the instrumental sensitivity.

The spectra emitted from plasma contain a wealth of information that are stored in the emitted line shape as well as the continuum radiation often appeared under the emitted lines. The relative spectral radiance (in the units of counts per second) of some emitted lines can be related to the plasma temperature, while the Lorentzian full width of the line at half of the maximum spectral radiance (FWHM) usually contains information about electron and/or ion density\textsuperscript{102-104}.

The described discharge operation of argon is found in literature\textsuperscript{105}. They developed the volume averaged global model for low-pressure high-density discharges for noble gases, including argon. While argon ions are moving a Maxwell-Boltzmann distance ($\Delta d = d - d_0$), there are photon emission with initial velocity ($v_i$) to final velocity ($v_f$) due to energy loss.

Analyzing the FWHM, it can be estimated for each temperature with the equation $\Delta d = \lambda_1 - \lambda_2 = 0.20 \pm 0.1$ nm. Using the equations $d/d_0 = (1 - v/c)$, and $\Delta f = v/d_0$, then, the estimated electrons frequency is 2.1363 MHz. The distance $\Delta d$ does not change significantly for each condition, which means that the temperature does not change significantly as function of the applied $\Delta V$.

### Measuring the temperature ($T_e$) of thermal electrons and number density ($n_e$) of thermal electrons in the argon plasma

**Input:**

- $m_{\text{argon}} = 40 \times 1.27 \times 10^{-27} = 6.4 \times 10^{-26}$ kg.
- $c = 3 \times 10^8$ m/s\textsuperscript{-1} (light velocity in vacuum)
- $\lambda_{\text{argon}} = 467.9 \times 10^{-9}$ m (spectral line position peak)

For $E_1 = 17.6$ MeV (typical fusor energy):

\[
1 \text{ eV} = 1.6 \times 10^{-19} \text{ J}
\]

17.6 $\times$ 10\textsuperscript{6} eV = x J; then $x = 2.816 \times 10^{-12}$ J

Velocity:

\[
V_{01} = \left[\frac{2.816 \times 10^{-12} \text{ J} \times 467.9 \times 10^{-9} \text{ m}}{6.64 \times 10^{-34} \text{ J s}}\right]^{1/2}
\]

$V_{01} = 3.92 \times 10^7$ m/s\textsuperscript{-1}.

For $E_2 = 911$ MeV (fusor energy):

- Neutronicity = 0.8
- Power density = 34 W/m\textsuperscript{3}/kPa\textsuperscript{2}

1 eV = 1.6 $\times$ 10\textsuperscript{-19} J

911 $\times$ 10\textsuperscript{6} eV = x J; then $x = 1.457 \times 10^{-10}$ J

Velocity:

\[
V_{02} = \left[\frac{1.457 \times 10^{-10} \text{ J} \times 467.9 \times 10^{-9} \text{ m}}{6.64 \times 10^{-34} \text{ J s}}\right]^{1/2}
\]

$V_{02} = 1.01 \times 10^8$ m/s\textsuperscript{-1}.

Using the equation 6.4.8 p. 265,\textsuperscript{106}. The results showed that:

\[
E/h = \Delta v_{1/2} = 2v \sqrt{\left(\frac{2}{v_0} \right)^2 + 2} = \frac{T_m}{m} \left(\frac{T}{m}\right)^{1/2} \left(\frac{1}{3} \times 10^8 \text{ m/s}^2\right)
\]

Where: $\Delta v_{1/2}$ is the full-width at half-maximum of the Lorentzian:

For $E_1 = 17.6$ MeV:

\[
17.6 \times 10^6 \text{ eV} / 6.64 \times 10^{-13} \text{ J s} = 2 v_0 \left[\sqrt{T / m}\right] / \left(2 \sqrt{2}\right)
\]

2.65 $\times$ 10\textsuperscript{10} eV/J s kg/s\textsuperscript{1} 4.63 $\times$ 10\textsuperscript{4} m/s\textsuperscript{3}/[(T/m)]\textsuperscript{1/2} $\times$ 1/3\times10\textsuperscript{8} m/s\textsuperscript{2}

1.71 $\times$ 10\textsuperscript{10} = (T/m)\textsuperscript{1/2}

4.14 $\times$ 10\textsuperscript{16} = T/m

$T_1 = 4.14 \times 10^{16}$ eV/kg $\times$ 6.4 $\times$ 10\textsuperscript{-26} kg = 2.65 $\times$ 10\textsuperscript{8} eV
\[ T_1 = 2.65 \times 10^{-9} \text{ eV} \times 17.6 \times 10^6 \text{ eV} = 0.046675 \text{ eV}^2 \]

\[ T_{1e} = 0.21 \text{ eV} = 2507.41 \text{ kelvin} \]

\[ \Delta \lambda = d - d_0 \]

Where: \( E(v) = A \exp \left[-0.5mv^2/T\right] \)

For \( E_2 = 911 \text{ MeV} \):

\[ 911 \times 10^6 \text{ eV} / 6.64 \times 10^{-34} \text{ J s} = 2v^2 \]

\[ 0.5(1/3) \times 10^8 \text{ m/s} \]

\[ 1.73 \times 10^{13} = (T_2/m)^{1/2} \]

\[ 4.15 \times 10^{16} = T_2/m \]

\[ T_2 = 4.15 \times 10^{16} \text{ eV/kg} \times 6.4 \times 10^{-26} \text{ kg} = 2.66 \times 10^{-9} \text{ eV} \]

\[ T_2 = 2.66 \times 10^{-9} \times 911 \times 10^6 \text{ eV} = 2.4228 \text{ eV}^2 \]

\[ T_{2e} = 1.55 \text{ eV} = 18065.41 \text{ kelvin} \]

For this \( T_e \) ranges (1.55 eV to 1.58 eV), the number density \( n_e \) of thermal electrons can be calculated using the equation:

\[ n_e = \frac{\Gamma}{kT/2\pi m}^{1/2} \]

Where:

\( \Gamma = \) random flux of argon atoms at room temperature \([2 \times 10^{25} \text{ atoms/m}^2 \cdot \text{s}]\)

\( K = \) Boltzmann \([8.617 \times 10^{-5} \text{ eV m}^2 \cdot \text{kg/s}^2 \cdot \text{k}]\)

\( \Pi = 3.14 \)

\( m = \) argon mass \([\text{kg}]\)

\[ ne = 2 \times 10^{25} / [8.617 \times 10^{-5} \times 18150 / 2 \times 3.14 \times 6.4 \times 10^{-26}] \]

\[ ne = 2 \times 10^{25} / 1.97 \times 10^{12} \]

\[ ne = 1.012 \times 10^{13} \text{ m}^{-3} \sim 10^{13} \text{ m}^{-3} \]

Using the breakdown voltage (Vb) for calculate Townsend coefficient of argon ionization

Moreover, the Paschen law was used to calculate the breakdown voltage (Vb). In this case, the equation can be found in:\[107\].

\[ Vb = B p d / \ln(Ap) - \ln[\ln(1 + 1/\gamma)] \]

Where:

\( P = \) argon pressure \(= 100 \text{ Pa} \)

\( d = \) electrode distance \(= 5.4 \times 10^{-3} \text{ m} \)

\( Vb = 260 \text{ V} \)

\( \gamma = \) Townsend coefficient of argon ionization, which represents the number of electrons produced by secondary processes, that explain the increase of ion current during the increase of the voltage, followed by relaxed electric field. (The higher efficiency of secondary ionization processes in argon discharge occurs in the region of the Paschen’s minimum; in this case, next to 260 Vb).

\( A \) [Pa⁻¹ cm⁻²]; \( B \) [V Pa⁻¹ cm⁻²] are constants, supposed to be:

1° attempt: \( A = 1.5 \) for \( B = 0.0984 \)

then, \( \gamma = 0.172 \)

2° attempt: \( A = 4.14 \times 10^{-5} \) for \( B = 1.57 \times 10^{-4} \)

then, \( \gamma = 0.60 \)

3° attempt: \( A = 0.09 \) for \( B = 1.35 \)

then, \( \gamma = 0.00386 \)

CONCLUSIONS

For experiment i, with the data collected from I–V curves, provided to the region of the linear fit, was not possible to estimate the real current saturation. A crude estimate of the electric field in a self-sustaining plasma can be obtained by supposing that electrons travel their entire free path in the direction of the field and lose all the gained energy in an optimum collision with the (cold) gas, (which suggests a scaling of temperature with E/p). This gives several volts/cm at 1 Torr in argon (133.32 Pa). The relation E/p is useful to calculate FWHM in order to estimate the temperature and number density of thermal electrons for argon mass of \( 6.4 \times 10^{-26} \text{ kg} \).

In experiment ii, the number of secondary electrons production at the cathode induced by argon ions impact compensated the loss of electrons at the anode and there by enabled self-sustained discharge. To determine the breakdown threshold, the electric field distortion can be neglected, and the field can be assumed uniform and equal to the applied field. As with DC (and low-frequency) breakdown, higher values of pd require larger voltages to achieve breakdown, and at low pd there is again a sharp rise in breakdown voltage. If the long path explanation is considered then, the penetration of the discharge into the gap between the electrode and the insulator allows the discharge length to vary as required and the breakdown voltage stays close to the minimum value of 260 V.

In experiment iii, different velocities of the argon particles emission resulted in different Doppler shifts, the cumulative effect of which is the homogeneous line broadening. The following calculations are based on the assumption that the plasma between the two spherical electrodes is collisionless (this is reasonable because most of such electrostatic confinement fusion experiments are carried out at a pressure around 10⁻³ mbar where the mean free paths are in the order of the size of the machine). The temperature for different potentials was measured. For each applied potential, the wavelength resulted to the same peaks formation, around 420 ± 0.5 and 528 ± 0.5 nm. Moreover, for thermal plasmas with a gas temperature similar to the electron one, the mobility of ions is high and the impact approximation is also valid for ions,
being their contribution to the broadening also Lorentzian. The spectrum of lines emission from argon plasmas resulted in 4 peaks ranged between 467 and 469 nm comprise ions excitation (electronic transitions). While the fuser is in progress, the spectra intensity (counts) will change, and then it is possible to determine the temperature ($\Delta T$) in the plasma, changing from 7 to 10 eV. While argon ions are moving a Maxwell-Boltzmann distance ($\Delta d = d - d_0$), there are photon emission with initial velocity ($v_i$) to final velocity ($v_f$) due to energy loss.

Analyzing the FWHM, it can be estimated for each temperature, $\Delta d = \lambda_2 - \lambda_1 = 0.20 \pm 0.1$ nm. Using the equations $d/d_0 = (1 - v/c)$, and $\Delta f = v/d_0$, then, the estimated electrons frequency is 2.1363 MHz. The distance ($\Delta d$) does not change significantly for each condition, which means that the temperature does not change significantly as function of the applied $\Delta V$.

For typical fusor energy (MeV), the plasma temperature calculated ranged from 0.21 to 1.58 eV while the number density was estimated as $1.012 \times 10^{13}$ m$^{-3}$.

The number of electrons produced by secondary processes can be explained by Townsend coefficient ($\gamma$) which explains the increase of ion current during the increase of the voltage, followed by relaxed electric field. The $\gamma$ depends on the constants $A$ and $B$ in the equation $V_B = B p d / \ln(A p d) - \ln[\ln(1 + 1/\gamma)]$, where $\gamma$ is the Townsend coefficient.

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