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## **SECONDARY ELECTRON EMISSION CAUSING POTENTIAL BARRIERS AROUND NEGATIVELY CHARGED SPACECRAFT**

### **Poster Session I**

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### **Abstract**

Low-energy secondary electrons have been observed to be reflected back to the spacecraft during eclipse conditions. It has been argued that the presence of negative potential barriers can be caused by the secondary electron emission space charge and may play a role in the spacecraft charging process. The barriers turn back the low-energy spacecraft-emitted electrons and prevent the low-energy ambient electrons from reaching the detector. Two numerical methods previously presented by Whipple and by Parrot et al. in the literature have been used to study the effect of secondary electrons on potential barriers negatively charged spacecrafts. The former method provides an upper bound for the potential barriers when the sheath is large compared to spacecraft dimension. The latter one provides in principle the exact sheath profile subject to accurate integration of the density distribution over the energy. The application of the methods to data provided by the ATS6 and Freja spacecraft suggests that the high level negative charging is not due to barriers induced by secondary electron emission space charge.

### **Introduction**

A key problem in plasma-body interaction studies is the self-consistent modelling of the plasma distribution in the electrostatic sheath. Numerous assumptions to tackle the problem in different ways have been set since the founder article by Mott-Smith and Langmuir [6]. The phenomenon is made even more complicated by the effect of secondary particles emitted at the body surface. This has been discussed by a number of authors (cf. e.g. Grard [4]). There has been evidence that under certain circumstances a potential barrier may be induced by the space charge due to an excess of secondary electron particles (cf. e.g. Whipple [10][11]). The electrostatic potential barrier has been suspected to play a role in high charging level. This has been invoked for ATS-6 spacecraft (cf. Whipple [10]) and more recently for the Freja spacecraft [2][9].

An example of a charging event observed on Freja spacecraft is shown on Figure 1 where the time series of the energy spectrograms of the ions (panel 1: Oxygen, panel 2: Helium and panel 3: Hydrogen) and of electrons (bottom panel) are shown. The pitch-angles of the ion and electron detectors are shown respectively in panel 4 and 6. In panel 5 the integrated flux of electrons in a broad energy range is shown. The charging event can be monitored via the acceleration of ions seen for all species between 17:00 and 18:20 UT. Beyond 18:20 the spacecraft acceleration signature is unclear due to the overlap with other high energy ion phenomena probably of natural origin. When no energetic ions are seen one can observe the usual feature of ram ion flux with energy corresponding to the relative velocity of the spacecraft with respect to the plasma.

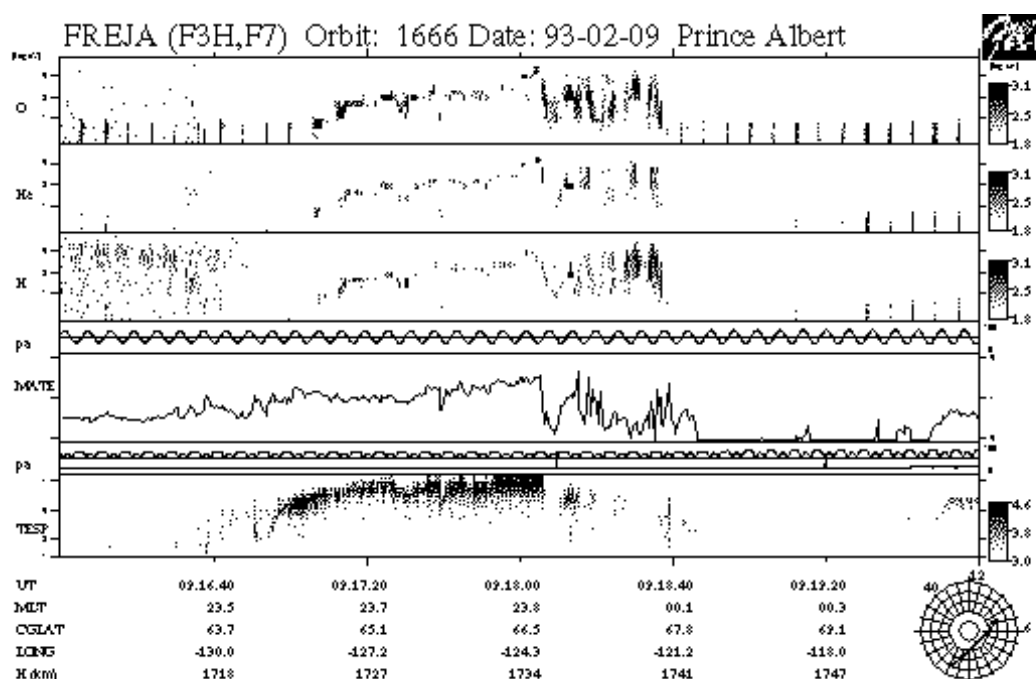


Figure 1 : Time series plot of Freja particle measurements during a high level charging event [8].

Such a high charging level is relatively rare on Freja. The examination of 2 years of data (~7000 orbits) by Wahlund et al. [9] has identified about 170 charging events with negative potential below  $-10$  V during auroral arc crossings. About 40 exhibited a potential lower than  $-100$  V and 5 of the order of  $-1000$  V.

The total distribution of the values of the potential for these events is shown in Figure 2 below. It must be noted that Freja manufacturers made use of material coating that are known to alleviate charging (especially ITO and cover glasses) therefore when  $-10$  V was observed on Freja another spacecraft could have experienced a much more negative potential in the same environment.



independent of time and not influenced by magnetic fields. Both methods solve the system of Vlasov-Poisson equations around a sphere equipotentially charged and therefore apply in principle to spherically symmetric problems.

The Vlasov-Poisson system of equations in spherical symmetry can be written as follows

$$V_i \cdot \nabla f_i - q_i \nabla \Phi \cdot \nabla_p f_i = 0$$

$$\Delta_R \Phi(R) = -\frac{\rho(R)}{\epsilon_0}$$

Where  $V$  is the particle velocity,  $f$  is the particle distribution function in speed,  $\tilde{n}$  is the particle density,  $\hat{O}$  is the electrostatic potential,  $R$  is the radial distance, and  $\Delta_R$  is the Laplacian in spherical coordinate for spherical symmetry. The density of various species is determined by counting particles accessible in each relevant phase and space domain. Two formulations have been proposed to count the particles: the Effective Potential and the Turning Point methods.

### **Effective Potential Method**

The effective potential formulation (Bernstein and Rabinowitz [1]) has been used by Whipple [10] to analytically solve the Vlasov equation in the  $E$ - $J^2$  domain under the hypothesis of a very large Debye length compared to the spacecraft dimension. The particle counting in phase space is based on the fact that the energy  $E$  must be greater than the effective potential  $U$  for radial motion for the trajectories to exist:

$$E > U = q \cdot \mathbf{f} + \frac{J^2}{2 \cdot m \cdot R^2}$$

Where  $U$  is the effective potential,  $\mathbf{f}$  is the electrostatic potential,  $q$  and  $m$  the charge and mass of the particle,  $R$  the distance from the probe and  $J$  the angular momentum of the particle. Particle densities at any point are given by an integral over velocities. Assuming spherical symmetry, they can be transformed into an integral over  $E$  and  $J^2$ . The result for secondary particles density  $n$  are, if Maxwellian distributions for both plasma and emitted electrons are assumed:

$$\frac{n}{n_0} = \frac{e^{\mathbf{f}_s}}{2p^{1/2} x^2} \cdot \iint \frac{w \cdot e^{-E} \cdot dE \cdot dJ^2}{(E - \mathbf{f} - J^2 / x^2)^{1/2}}$$

Where  $n_0$  is the nominal secondary particles density,  $x$  is the radial spatial variable (scaled to the satellite radius),  $\mathbf{f}_s$  is the satellite potential and  $w$  is a weight value which has the value unity in regions where only one-way trajectories are possible and

has the value 2 in regions where particles from a given source can be going in both directions. The applicability of Maxwellian distribution for secondary electrons has been discussed by e.g., Grard [4].

Whipple [10] used the above equation with an approximation of the boundary of the particle trajectories (cf. Figure 3) in the  $E$ - $J^2$  domain. He developed a numerical scheme to find out an upper bound of the value of the potential barrier in a given plasma environment.

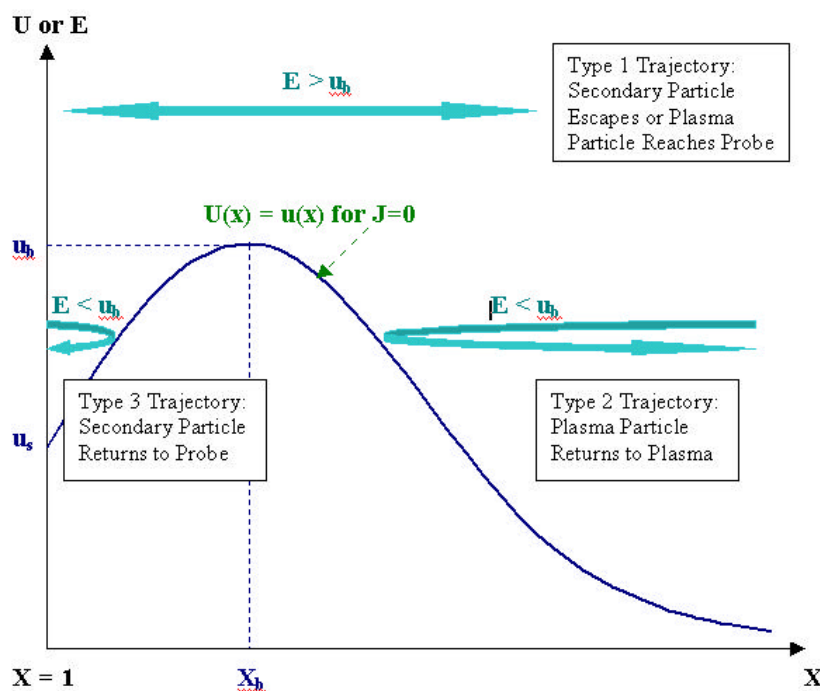


Figure 3: Orbit classification using the effective potential formulation

### Turning Point Formulation Method

The turning point formulation described by Parrot et al. [7] and also by Thiébaud et al. [8] is based upon the study of the possible particles orbits in the  $r$ - $J^2$  phase space to solve the Vlasov equation for a given potential profile. The Vlasov-Poisson system is then solved iteratively by under-relaxation.

This has been validated for the application of sheath modelling in presence of secondary electron by Thiébaud et al. [8] by comparison with a 3D Particle-In-Cell (PIC) code developed by Forest et al. [3]. The main limitation of the turning point approach is that the full solution is obtained via a numerical integration over the particles energies which is very demanding in terms of computing time.

### Application of the turning point method to ATS-6

The effective potential method was further applied by Whipple to the ATS-6 satellite data for which a potential barrier had been observed thanks to the identification of a knee in the electron spectra [11]. The various plasma and potential values deduced

from the ATS-6 satellite data by Whipple [10] for 4 events where potential barriers were identified are shown in Table 1.

Table 1: Plasma parameters derived from ATS-6 data by Whipple [10].

	<b>Nph</b> (p/cc)	<b>Ne/Ni</b> (p/cc)	<b>Tph</b> (eV)	<b>Te</b> (eV)	<b>Ti</b> (eV)	<b>Vsat</b> (V)	<b>ëe</b> (m)	<b>ëph</b> (m)
<b>Day 198</b>	10.3	0.2	4.9	65	7	-20	36.79	5.2
<b>Day 199</b>	90	1.2	2	32	10	0	9.59	1.1
<b>Day 204</b>	200	90	1.9	14.5	3.5	-2	1.08	0.73
<b>Day 273</b>	0.4	17	6	320	650	-2000	4.41	29.4

For each event three estimates of the potential barrier magnitude are available and are reported in Table 2 under the columns labelled **E**, **W**, and **P** which stand respectively for the **E**xperimental estimate of the potential barrier observed on ATS-6 data, an estimate of an **U**pper bound of the potential barrier based on the effective potential method, and the theoretical **P**rediction of the barrier based on the turning point formulation. In this table Vmin stands for the minimum of the potential while Vdiff is equal to Vsat-Vmin. The two first estimates were provided by Whipple [10] while the later one is provided by this study. An example of potential profile computed for day 204 is shown on Figure 4.

Table 2: Experimental, Upper bound and turning point method estimates.

<b>Potential</b> (V)	<b>Day 198</b>			<b>Day 199</b>			<b>Day 204</b>			<b>Day 273</b>		
	<b>E</b>	<b>U</b>	<b>P</b>	<b>E</b>	<b>U</b>	<b>P</b>	<b>E</b>	<b>U</b>	<b>P</b>	<b>E</b>	<b>U</b>	<b>P</b>
<b>-Vsat</b>	20			0			2			2000		
<b>-Vmin</b>	60	24.6	20	10	6.2	3.82	10	3.2	2.47	2050	2000	2000
<b>Vdiff</b>	40	4.6	0	10	6.2	3.82	8	1.2	0.47	50	0	0

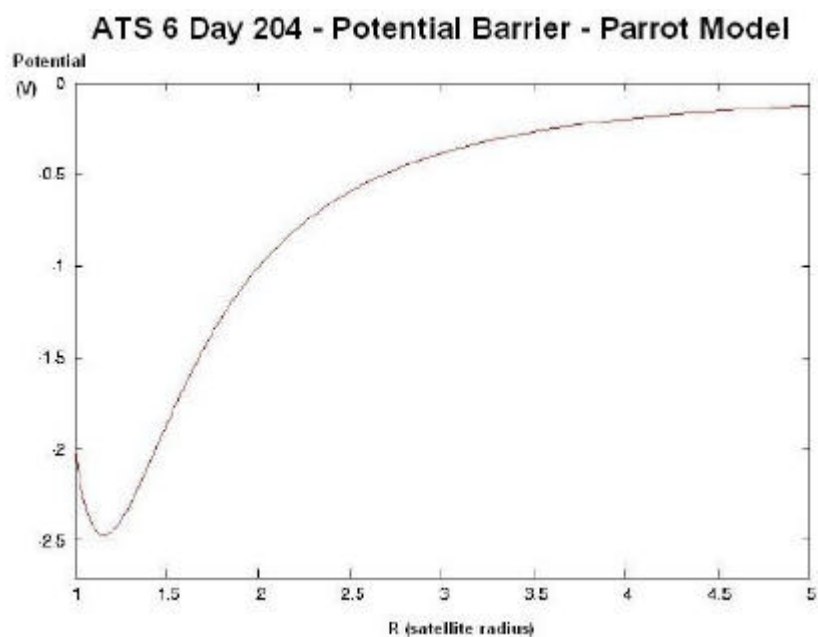


Figure 4: Potential barrier for ATS during the charging event of day 204 computed with the turning point method.

The upper bound and the exact prediction are consistent with each other. It can be noted that during day 198 the turning point formulation method even indicates that no potential barrier exists which is a significant refinement compared to the upper bound estimate method. In all cases, however, the theoretical predictions and upper bound estimates are both significantly lower than the observed barrier. This is interpreted as an impossibility that the potential barrier actually observed is due to the secondary electron space charge.

### **Application to Freja charging events**

Freja, which was on a low altitude polar orbit, encountered a somewhat different environment than ATS-6, which was on a geosynchronous orbit. The main difference during the charging events was especially the much higher background plasma density observed on Freja. The turning point formulation method and the upper bound estimate method have been used to derive an estimate of a possible potential barrier around Freja spacecraft during four well identified charging events. The environmental data and the spacecraft potential for each of these events have been derived from the data. The flux of secondary particle was chosen such as to remain in a realistic range but favouring the occurrence of negative electrostatic barrier. In all cases, no barrier could be found. A parametric study has been performed to find out the range of parameters for which barriers would occur on Freja. It was found that barrier would not occur for spacecraft potential lower than  $-7$  Volts. We can therefore conclude that a secondary electron induced potential barrier is very unlikely to play a role in the process of high level charging observed on Freja.

### **Conclusion**

The application of the turning point formulation to the modelling of electrostatic sheath has improved the prediction of secondary electrons induced potential barriers compared to previous studies. With this method the prediction made by Whipple of an upper bound of the expected secondary electron induced potential barrier has been refined. The conclusions of Whipple, however, remain unchanged. Applied to Freja, the turning point method shows that secondary electrons seem not to be causing potential barriers when the spacecraft is beyond a few volts negative in the polar region, where the density is relatively high (a few tens of particles per cc). Therefore, secondary electron induced potential barrier is unlikely to be involved in the building process of high level negative charging observed on Freja. Other aspects of the secondary electron emission process will have to be taken into account in order to explain the highly negative Freja charging events. This might still be due to differential charging effects although the reason for it is not understood yet. It must be also noted that certain characteristics of the secondary electron emission properties may not be well modelled yet and these could significantly affect the charging level too.

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