

Vacuum Systems

Lecture 1

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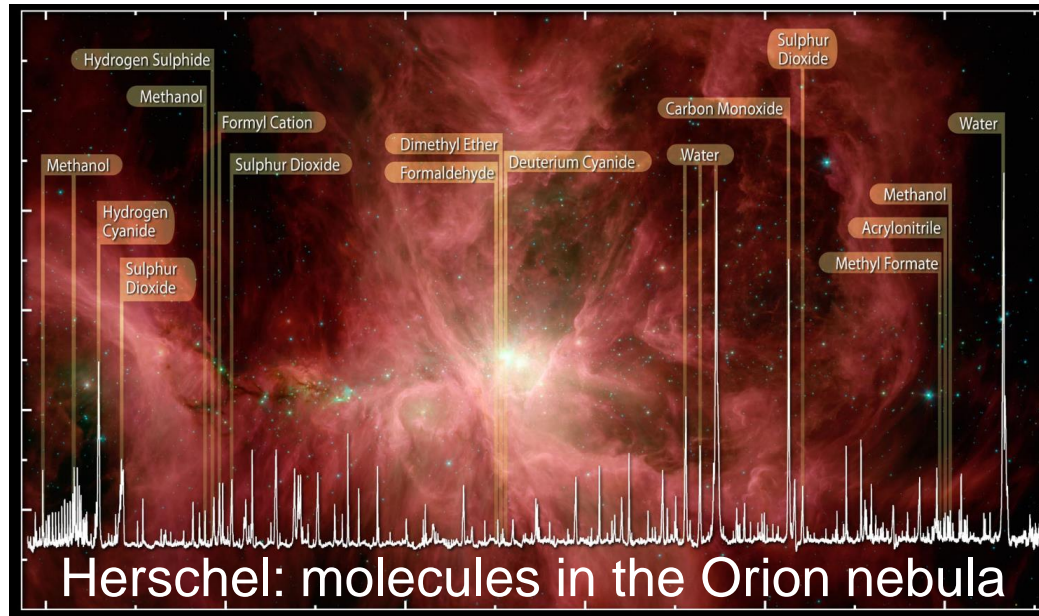
Outline

1. Introduction
2. Gas kinetic theory & gas flow
3. Measurement & production of vacuum

1. Introduction

Vacuum

- “Pure vacuum” does not exist on earth nor in space!
- Interstellar medium in a galaxy such as the Milky Way:
 - Composed of molecules, ions atoms, cosmic rays & dust (size 0.1 micron)
 - In molecular clouds, which are cold (>10 K) and dense region $n \sim 10^4$ molecules/cm³
 - Atoms density:
 - 50 H/cm³ at 100 K ($\sim 10^{-13}$ Pa)
 - 1 H/cm³ at 10 000 K ($\sim 10^{-13}$ Pa)



Vacuum Systems

- Vacuum technology is present in many devices/ systems



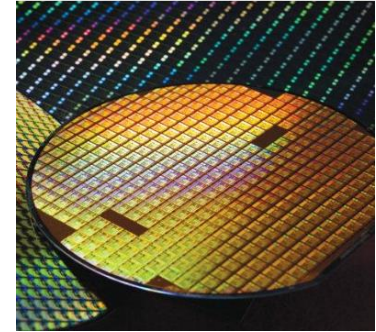
Light bulb



Vacuum pump
For wine



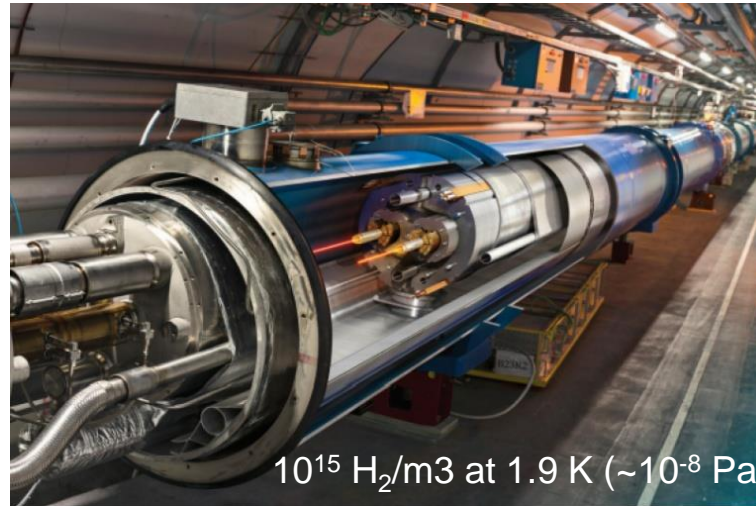
Electron beam welding machine



Semiconductor industry



Under vacuum brazing



Accelerator

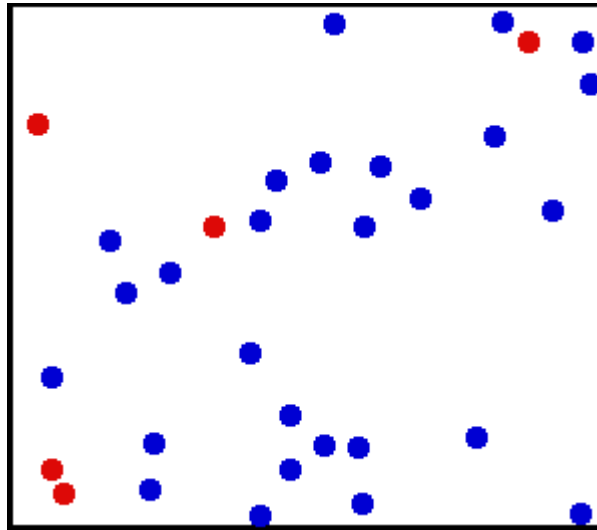
The objective is to reduce the collision of molecules on the surrounding to preserve the quality of the process

2. Gas kinetic theory & gas flow

2.1 Gas kinetic theory

Introduction

- Assume a **large number** of molecules, always moving in a disordered manner
- The size of molecules is very **small** as compared to the intermolecular distance
- Molecules **moves** in a rectilinear uniform manner between successive collisions
- **Collisions** (elastic) are against molecules themselves or against the wall
- The molecular trajectories are **broken lines**



<http://www.matierevolution.fr>

Maxwell Boltzmann Distribution

- Assume a pure gas, in thermal equilibrium and enclosed in an isothermal volume
- In this case:
 - The molecule density is constant in the volume and do not vary in time
 - The direction of the molecule's speed is uniform
 - The speed distribution is stationary

$$\frac{dn}{n} = \frac{4}{\sqrt{\pi}} \left(\frac{m}{2kT} \right)^{3/2} v^2 e^{-\frac{mv^2}{2kT}} dv$$

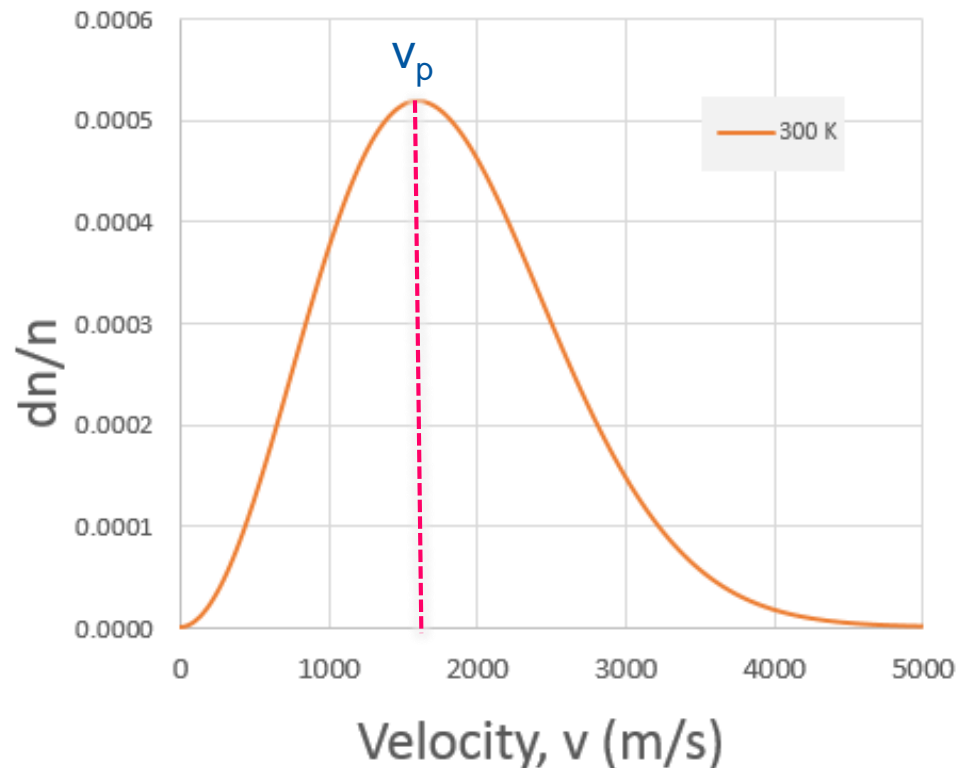
- The speed of the molecules follows a **Maxwell-Boltzmann distribution**

- Most of the molecules have a speed around the maximum, v_p

- Less than 1/1000 of molecules have speed:

$$v < 0.1 v_p \text{ or } v > 3 v_p$$

Hydrogen: speed distribution



Maxwell Boltzmann Distribution

- The most probable speed is given at the maximum of the distribution: $d(dn/n)/dv = 0$. It equals

$$v_p = \sqrt{\frac{2kT}{m}}$$

- The mean thermal speed equals:

$$\bar{v} = \frac{1}{n} \int_0^{\infty} v \frac{dn}{dv} dv = \sqrt{\frac{8kT}{\pi m}}$$

- The average quadratic speed equals:

$$v_q^2 = \overline{v^2} = \frac{1}{n} \int_0^{\infty} v^2 \frac{dn}{dv} dv$$
$$v_q = \sqrt{\frac{3kT}{m}}$$

- The corresponding kinetic energy is:

$$\frac{1}{2} m v_q^2 = \frac{3}{2} kT$$

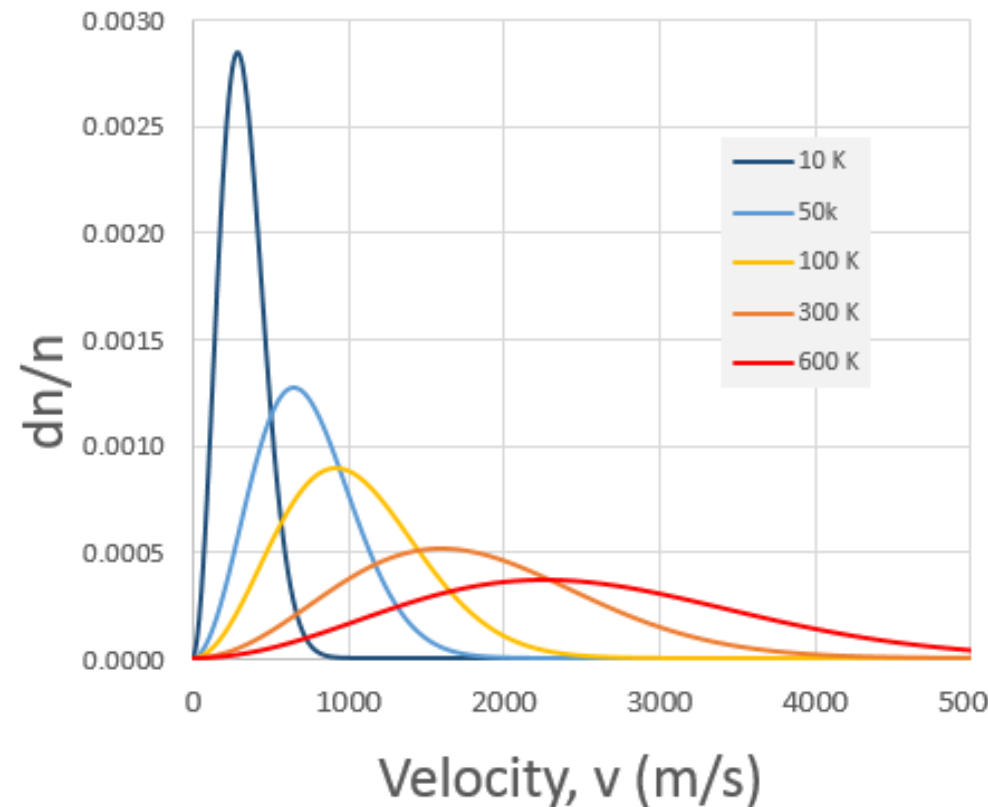
All the molecular speeds scales like $\sim \sqrt{(T/m)}$

Maxwell Boltzmann Distribution

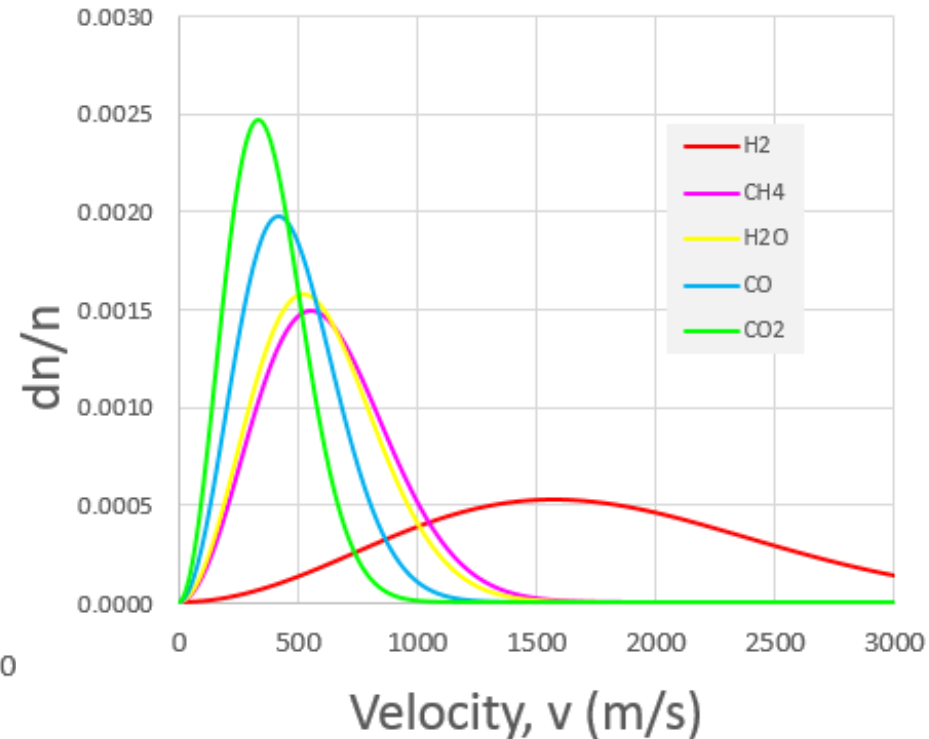
- The gas velocity:
 - increase with increasing temperature
 - is the largest for light molecules

$$\sim \sqrt{T/m}$$

Hydrogen: speed distribution



Speed distribution at 300 K



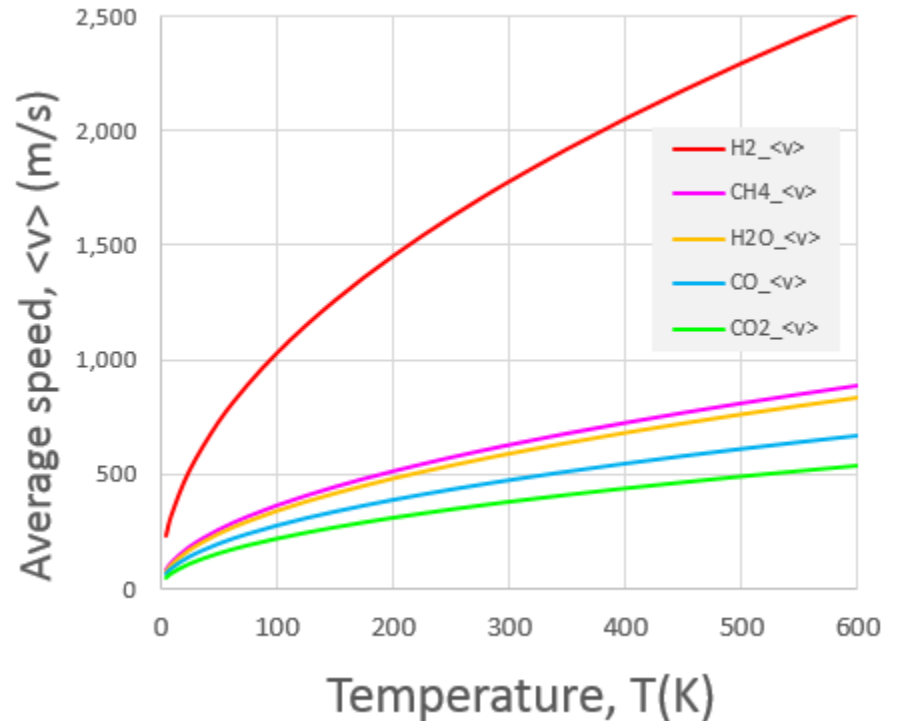
Average velocity

- The mean thermal speed range from ~ 100 till 1000 m/s:
This is much larger than vacuum chamber dimensions!

$$\bar{v} = \sqrt{\frac{8kT}{\pi m}} = 145 \sqrt{\frac{T}{M}}$$

$$\sim \sqrt{T/m}$$

T (K)	He	Air	Ar
4.2	150	55	50
300	1300	470	400
600	1800	660	560



Collision on the wall

- The molecular collision rate on the wall (the incidence rate), v , can be derived from the Maxwell Boltzmann distribution

$$v = \frac{\text{number of collision with the wall}}{\text{area of wall} \times \text{time}} = \frac{1}{4} n \bar{v}$$

- Monolayer formation time



- At room temperature, a monolayer is formed in 1 s at 10^{-6} Torr : Langmuir formation time

- 1 L = 1 monolayer.s

- Very low pressure is preferred

10^{-6} mbar

1 atm

n (H ₂ /m ³)	V (H ₂ /cm ² /s)	Time
10 ¹⁰	4 10 ⁸	26 d
10 ¹¹	4 10 ⁹	3 d
10 ¹²	4 10 ¹⁰	6 h
10 ¹³	4 10 ¹¹	40 min
10 ¹⁴	4 10 ¹²	4 min
10 ¹⁵	4 10 ¹³	20 s
10 ¹⁶	4 10 ¹⁴	2 s
2 10 ¹⁶	10 ¹⁵	1 s
2 10 ²⁵	10 ²⁴	1 ns

H2 at 300 K

n (H ₂ /m ³)	V (H ₂ /cm ² /s)	Time
10 ¹⁰	5 10 ⁷	220 d
10 ¹¹	5 10 ⁸	22 d
10 ¹²	5 10 ⁹	2
10 ¹³	5 10 ¹⁰	5 h
10 ¹⁴	5 10 ¹¹	30 min
10 ¹⁵	5 10 ¹²	3 min

H2 at 4.2 K

Pressure & Ideal gas law

- Molecules which collides the wall of surface A, produce a force, F, onto it.
- The pressure P, exerted on the wall by the molecules is defined by the ratio of the force to the surface:

$$P = \frac{F}{A}$$

- It can be shown that, for any particle velocity distribution, the pressure is given by the mass density and the quadratic speed:

$$P = \frac{1}{3} \rho v_q^2$$


- In the special case the particle velocity distribution, follows a Maxwell Boltzman distribution, the pressure is given by the **IDEAL GAS LAW**:

$$P = n k T$$

- For such a gas, the pressure, P [Pa], is defined by the gas density, n [molecules.m⁻³], the temperature of the gas, T [K] and the Boltzman constant k, (1.38 10⁻²³ J/K)
- The pressure increase linearly with the gas temperature

Units

- The pressure is the **force** exerted by a molecule per unit of surface : $1 \text{ Pa} = 1 \text{ N/m}^2$

 Pa	Pa	kg/cm ²	Torr	mbar	bar	atm
1 Pa	1	$10.2 \cdot 10^{-6}$	$7.5 \cdot 10^{-3}$	10^{-2}	10^{-5}	$9.81 \cdot 10^{-6}$
1 kg/cm ²	$98.1 \cdot 10^3$	1	735.5	980	0.98	0.96
1 Torr	133	$1.35 \cdot 10^{-3}$	1	1.33	$1.33 \cdot 10^{-3}$	$1.31 \cdot 10^{-3}$
1 mbar	101	$1.02 \cdot 10^{-3}$	0.75	1	10^{-3}	$0.98 \cdot 10^{-3}$
1 bar	$1.01 \cdot 10^5$	1.02	750	10^3	1	0.98
1 atm	101 300	1.03	760	1 013	1.01	1

As a consequence of the « vacuum force » ...

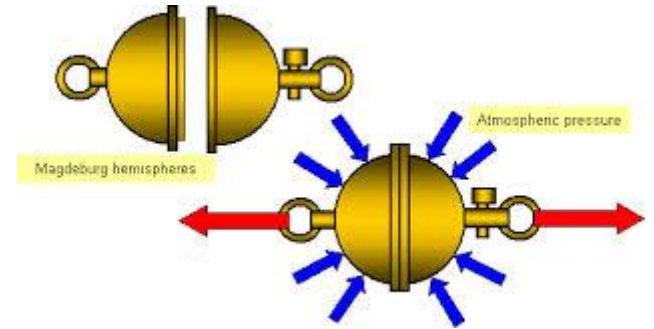
D (mm)	16	35	63	80	100	130	150	212
kg	2	10	32	52	81	137	182	363

“Vacuum force”: Magdeburg hemisphere

- 1654, Regensburg



Expérience des Hémisphères de Magdebourg,
exécutée par Otto de Guéricke devant l'empereur Ferdinand III, à la diète de Ratisbonne

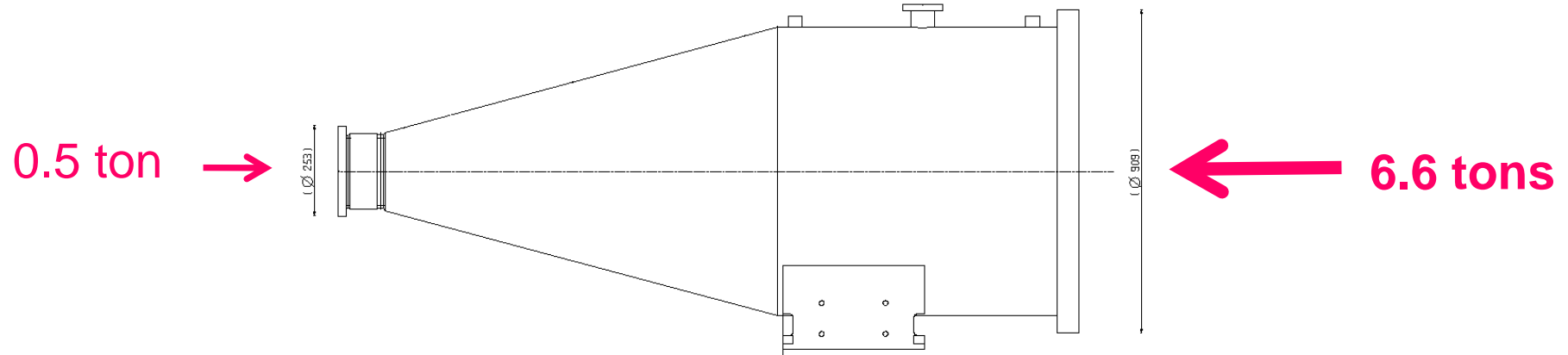


55 cm diameter → 25 Tons



Otto von Guericke

Work with the Mechanical Design Office !



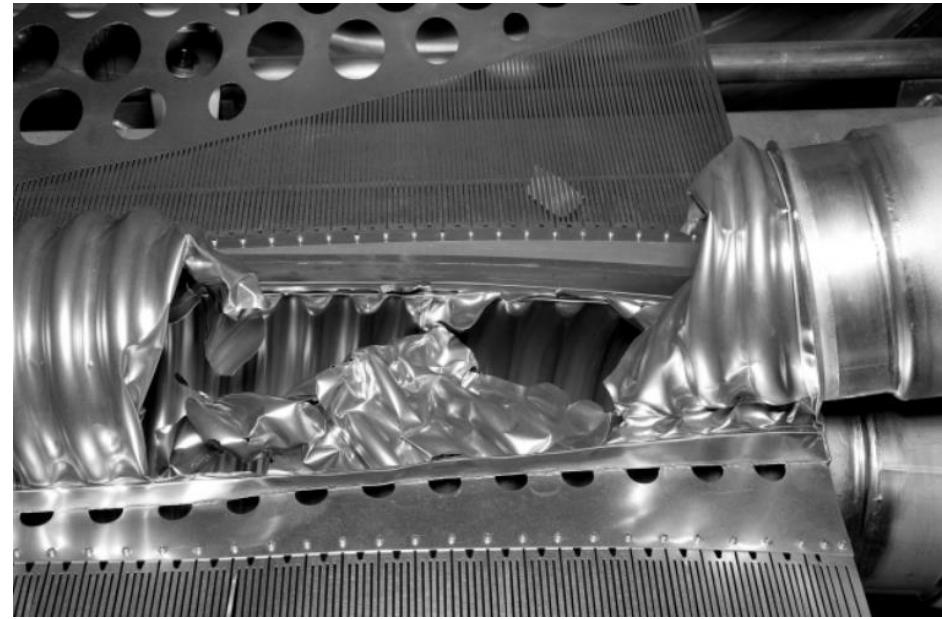
Otherwise...

Typical accidents with UHV!

- Case of the CERN ISR in the 70's :



spontaneous breaking of the a bellow (due to a bad design or due to a fixed point not well attached ?)



Imploded “flat fish” at an ISR intersection

Even in modern times ...

- Accident still possible nowadays even with modern computing tools ...
- Case of the QRL's bellows in the LHC deformed during pump down,
- Origin attributed to a **bad design of the bellow** with a too small corrugation high



Total Pressure and Partial Pressure

- The gas is usually composed of several types of molecules (ex : air, residual gas in vacuum systems)
- The **total pressure**, P_{Tot} , is the sum of all the **partial pressure**, P_i (Dalton law)

$$P_{\text{Tot}} = \sum P_i = k T \sum n_i$$

Partial pressures for atmospheric air

Gas	%	Pi (Pa)
N ₂	78.1	7.9 10 ⁴
O ₂	20.5	2.8 10 ³
Ar	0.93	1.2 10 ²
CO ₂	0.0033	4.4
Ne	1.8 10 ⁻³	2.4 10 ⁻¹
He	5.2 10 ⁻⁴	7 10 ⁻²

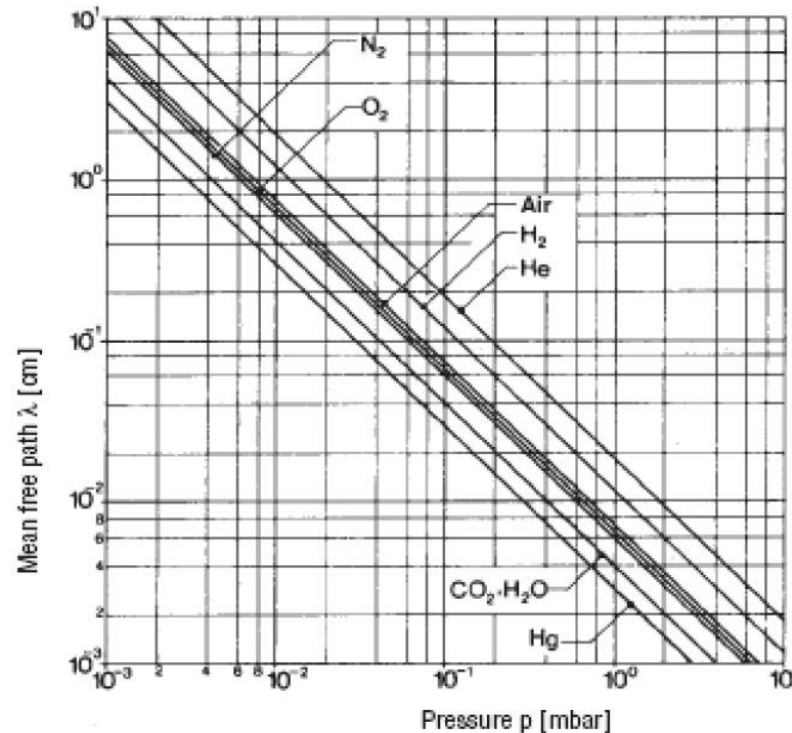
2.2 Gas flow

Mean Free Path

- It is the path length that a molecules traverse between **two successive impacts with other molecules**. It was derived by Clausius.
- It depends of the pressure, of the temperature and of the molecular diameter, σ .

$$\lambda = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}\pi n\sigma^2} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}\pi} \frac{kT}{P} \frac{1}{\sigma^2}$$

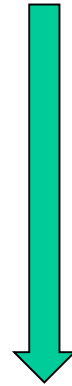
Molecule	Diameter (Å)
H ₂	2.8
H ₂ O	2.9
O ₂	2.9
N ₂	3.7
CO ₂	3.2



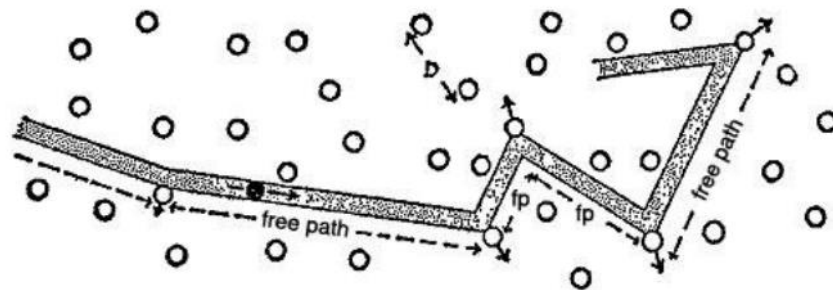
Mean Free Path: air at room temperature

- At atmospheric pressure, $\lambda = 70 \text{ nm}$
- At 1 Torr, $\lambda = 50 \text{ }\mu\text{m}$
- At 10^{-3} Torr, $\lambda = 5 \text{ cm}$
- At 10^{-7} Torr, $\lambda = 500 \text{ m}$
- At 10^{-10} Torr, $\lambda = 500 \text{ km}$

$$\lambda_{air}[cm] = \frac{5 \cdot 10^{-3}}{P[Torr]}$$



Increasing mean free path
when decreasing pressure



Mean free path of a gas molecule

Classification of vacuum

- From atmospheric pressure to very low pressure, the mean free path varies over **more than 10 orders of magnitude!**
- Low or Rough vacuum
 - 10^5 to 10^2 Pa ; 10^3 to 1 mbar
- Medium vacuum
 - 10^2 to 10^{-1} Pa ; 1 to 10^{-3} mbar
- High vacuum (HV)
 - 10^{-1} to 10^{-5} Pa ; 10^{-3} to 10^{-7} mbar
- Ultra-high vacuum (UHV)
 - 10^{-5} to 10^{-10} Pa ; 10^{-7} to 10^{-12} mbar
- Extreme-high vacuum (XHV) (below actual limit of “standard” instrumentation)
 - $<10^{-12}$ Pa ; $<10^{-12}$ mbar

Turbulent and Viscous Flows

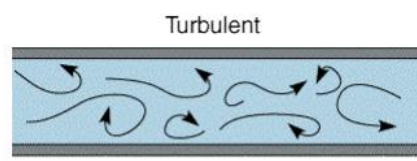
- When pumping down from atmospheric pressure, the physics is characterised by different flow regimes. It is a function of the pressure, of the mean free path and of the components dimensions.

- Reynold number, Re :

- if $Re > 2000$ the flow is turbulent
- it is viscous if $Re < 1000$

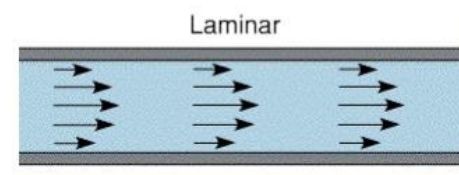
$$Re = \frac{Q[Torr.l / s]}{0.089D[cm]}$$

- The **turbulent** flow is established around the **atmospheric pressure**



- In the **low vacuum** (10^3 -1 mbar), the flow is **viscous**. The flow is determined by the interaction between the molecules themselves. The flow is **laminar**. The mean free path of the molecules is **small** compared to the diameter of the vacuum chamber

$$\text{Viscous flow : } \bar{P} D > 0.5 [Torr.cm]$$



Transition and Molecular Flows

- In the **medium vacuum** ($1-10^{-3}$ mbar), the flow is **transitional**. In every day work, this range is transited quickly when pumping down vacuum chambers. In this regime, the calculation of the conductance is complex. A simple estimation is obtained by adding laminar and molecular conductances.
- In the **high vacuum** ($10^{-3} - 10^{-7}$ mbar) and **ultra-high vacuum** ($10^{-7}-10^{-12}$ mbar), the flow is **molecular**. The mean free path is **much larger** than the vacuum chamber diameter. The molecular interactions do not longer occurs. Molecules interact **only** with the vacuum chamber walls

$$\text{Molecular flow : } \bar{P} D < 1.5 \cdot 10^{-2} [\text{Torr.cm}]$$

Molecular flow is the main regime of flow to be used in vacuum technology

In this regime, the vacuum vessel has been evacuated from its volume. The pressure inside the vessel is dominated by the nature of **the surface**.

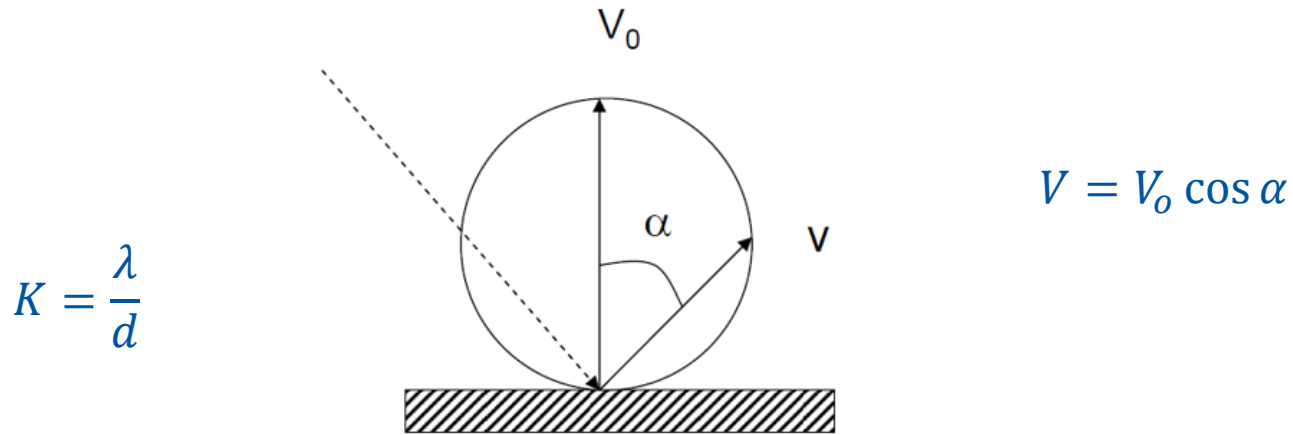
As a function of pressure

Complementary
information

P (mbar)	Force per unit surface	Gensity (molec.cm ⁻³)	Mean free path	Incidence rate (cm ⁻² .s ⁻¹)	Monolayer formation time
1013	1 kg/cm ²	2.5 10 ¹⁹	0.1 μm	2.9 10 ²³	3.4 ns
1	1 g/cm ²	2.5 10 ¹⁶	0.1 mm	2.9 10 ²⁰	3.4 μs
10 ⁻³	1 mg/cm ²	2.5 10 ¹³	10 cm	2.9 10 ¹⁷	3.4 ms
10 ⁻⁶	1 μg/cm ²	2.5 10 ¹⁰	100 m	2.9 10 ¹⁴	3.4
10 ⁻⁹	10 μg/m ²	2.5 10 ⁷	100 km	2.9 10 ¹¹	1 h
10 ⁻¹²	10 ng/m ²	2.5 10 ⁴	10 ⁵ km	2.9 10 ⁹	40 days

Molecule interaction with the wall

- In the molecular regime Knudsen observed that the speed of the molecules is reduced due to interactions with the pipe
- Following the collision on the wall, due to the roughness of the surface, the molecule is re-emitted into the vacuum system according to a Beer-Lambert law.

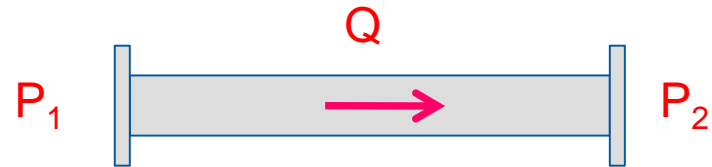


- This observation introduced the concept of conductance (Dushman)

Conductance

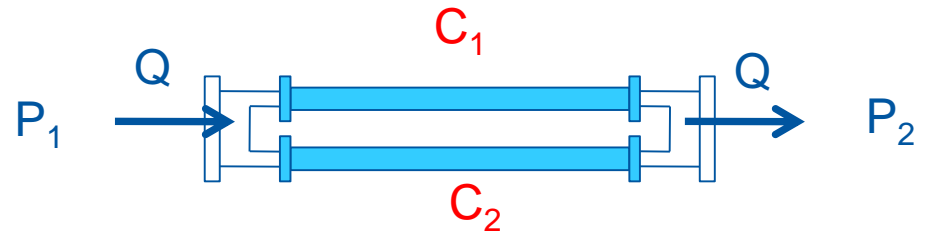
- It is defined by the ratio of the molecular flux, Q , to the pressure drop along a vacuum vessel. It is a function of the shape of the vessel, the nature of the gas and its temperature.

$$C = \frac{Q}{(P_1 - P_2)}$$



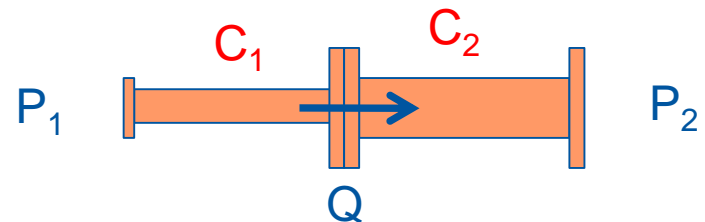
- Adding conductances in parallel

$$C = C_1 + C_2$$



- Adding conductances in series

$$\frac{1}{C} = \frac{1}{C_1} + \frac{1}{C_2}$$



Conductance Calculus in Molecular Regime

- For an orifice :

$$C = \sqrt{\frac{kT}{2\pi m}} A; \quad C_{\text{air}, 20^\circ} [l/s] = 11.6 A [cm^2]$$

The conductance of an orifice of 10 cm diameter is 900 l/s

- For a tube :

$$C = \frac{1}{6} \sqrt{\frac{2\pi kT}{m}} \frac{D^3}{L}; \quad C_{\text{air}, 20^\circ} [l/s] = 12.1 \frac{D [cm]^3}{L [cm]}$$

The specific conductance of a tube of 10 cm diameter is 120 l/s.m

To increase the conductance of a vacuum system, it is better to have a vacuum chamber with large diameter and short length

More conductances

Complementary information

- Short tube: the conductance of an orifice multiplied by the Clausing factor *i.e.* the transmission probability through the “short tube”

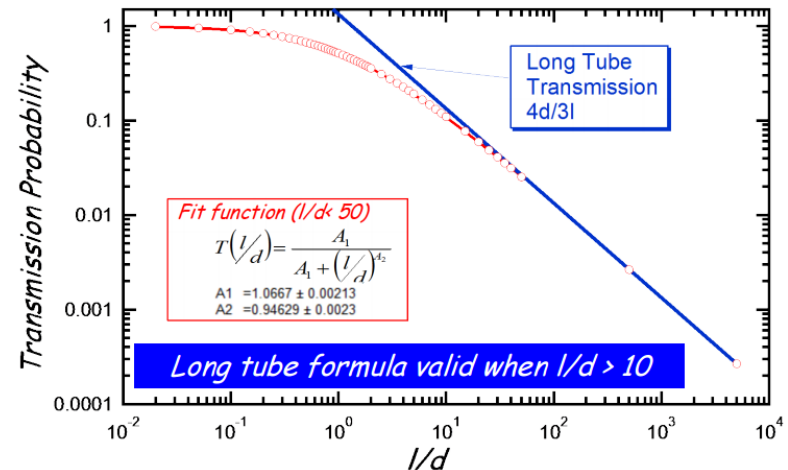
$$C = \alpha C_{Orifice} = \alpha \frac{v}{4} A$$

<i>l/d</i>	<i>a</i>	<i>l/d</i>	<i>a</i>	<i>l/d</i>	<i>a</i>
0.00	1.00000	0.9	0.53898	5.0	0.19099
0.05	0.95240	1.0	0.51423	6.0	0.16596
0.10	0.90922	1.1	0.49185	7.0	0.14684
0.15	0.86993	1.2	0.47149	8.0	0.13175
0.20	0.83408	1.3	0.45289	9.0	0.11951
0.25	0.80127	1.4	0.43581	10	0.10938
0.30	0.77115	1.5	0.42006	15	0.07699
0.35	0.74341	1.6	0.40548	20	0.05949
0.40	0.71779	1.8	0.37935	25	0.04851
0.45	0.69404	2.0	0.35658	30	0.04097
0.50	0.69178	2.5	0.31054	35	0.03546
0.55	0.65143	3.0	0.27546	40	0.03127
0.60	0.63223	3.5	0.24776	50	0.02529
0.70	0.59737	4.0	0.22530	500	2.65x10 ⁻²
0.80	0.56655	4.5	0.20669	5000	2.66x10 ⁻³

- For long circular tube, the transmission probability equals:

$$\alpha_{long_tube} = \frac{4d}{3l}$$

Table & plot courtesy of Y. Li and X. Liu
http://uspas.fnal.gov/materials/15ODU/Session1_Fundamentals.pdf

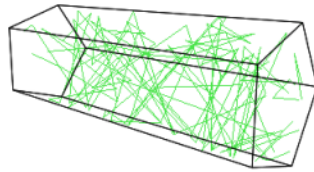


Calculating conductances with Molflow+

Complementary information

- A test particle Monte-Carlo code for molecular flow
- <http://molflow.web.cern.ch/>
- R. Kersevan – M. Ady

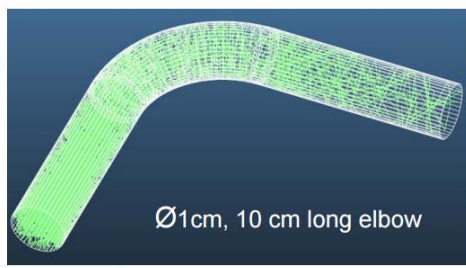
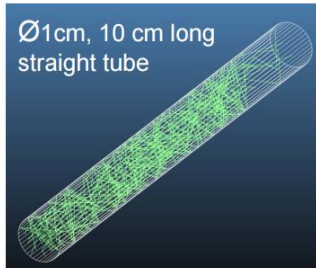
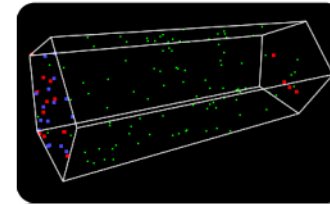
Lines
Particle trajectories



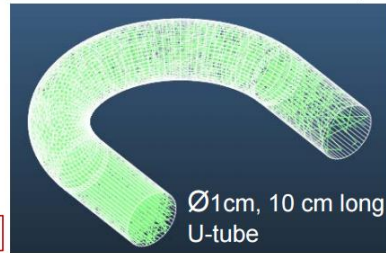
Leaks
If a molecule escapes from the system, show where the last hit occurred and in what direction the molecule rebounded before leaving



Hits
Particle collisions with facets.
Red: Absorption
Blue: Desorption
Green: Reflection / Transparent pass

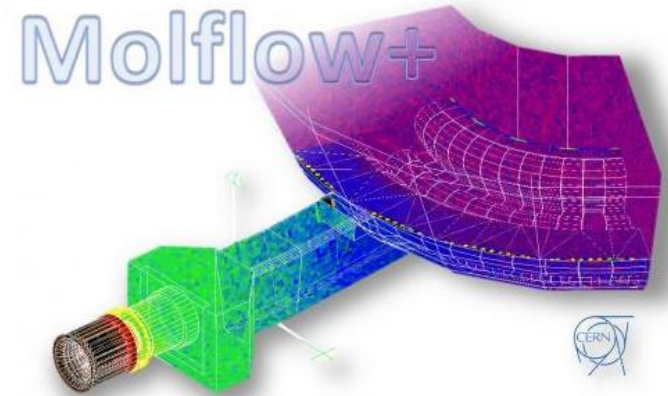


Straight	$\alpha = 0.109$
90° Elbow	$\alpha = 0.105$
180° U	$\alpha = 0.093$



These simple calculations took <1-minute

courtesy of Y. Li and X. Liu



A test-particle Monte-Carlo simulator for ultra-high-vacuum systems

Developed at CERN

Pumping Speed

- The pumping speed, S , is the ratio of the flux of molecules pumped to the pressure

$$S = \frac{Q}{P}$$

Diagram illustrating the pumping speed equation $S = \frac{Q}{P}$. The equation is enclosed in a red box. An arrow points from the text "l/s" to the variable S . Another arrow points from the text "mbar.l/s" to the variable Q . A third arrow points from the text "mbar" to the variable P .

- S range from 10 to 20 000 l/s
- Q range from 10^{-14} mbar.l/s/cm² for metallic tubes to 10^{-5} – 10^{-4} mbar.l/s/cm² for plastics

3 orders of magnitude for pumping

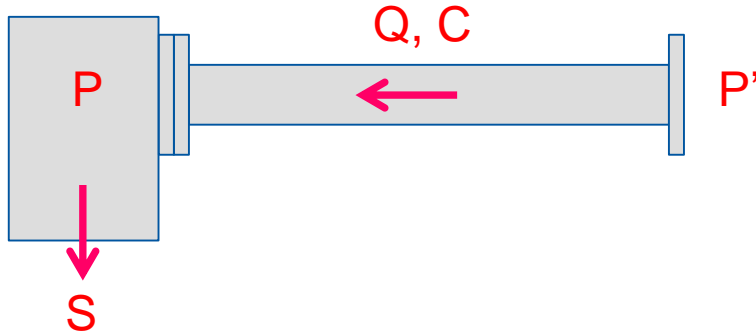
vs

10 orders of magnitude for outgassing

Outgassing MUST be optimised to achieve UHV

Effective pumping speed

- It is the pumping speed seen from P' through the pipe of conductance, C



$$\begin{cases} Q = P S \\ Q = C (P' - P) \end{cases} \Rightarrow Q = \frac{SC}{S + C} P' = S_{eff} P'$$

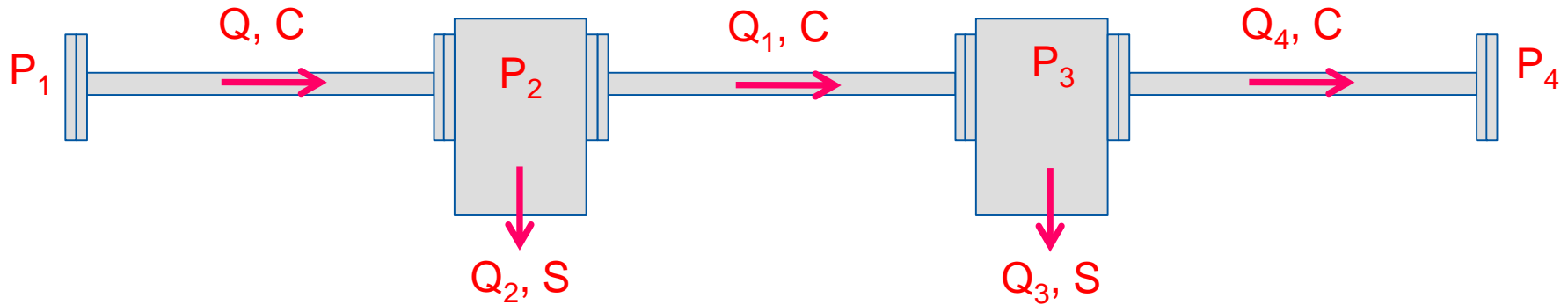
$$S_{eff} = \frac{SC}{S + C}$$

- This is the result of adding in series the conductance C with the pumping speed S
- If:
 - 1) $C=S$ then $S_{eff} = S/2$
 - 2) $C \gg S$ then $S_{eff} = S$
 - 3) $C \ll S$ then $S_{eff} = C$, the system is “conductance limited”

Differential pumping system

Complementary information

- This system allows to decouple a vacuum system from another one (e.g. in Linac source, between baked and unbaked vacuum system)



- Commercial differential pumps



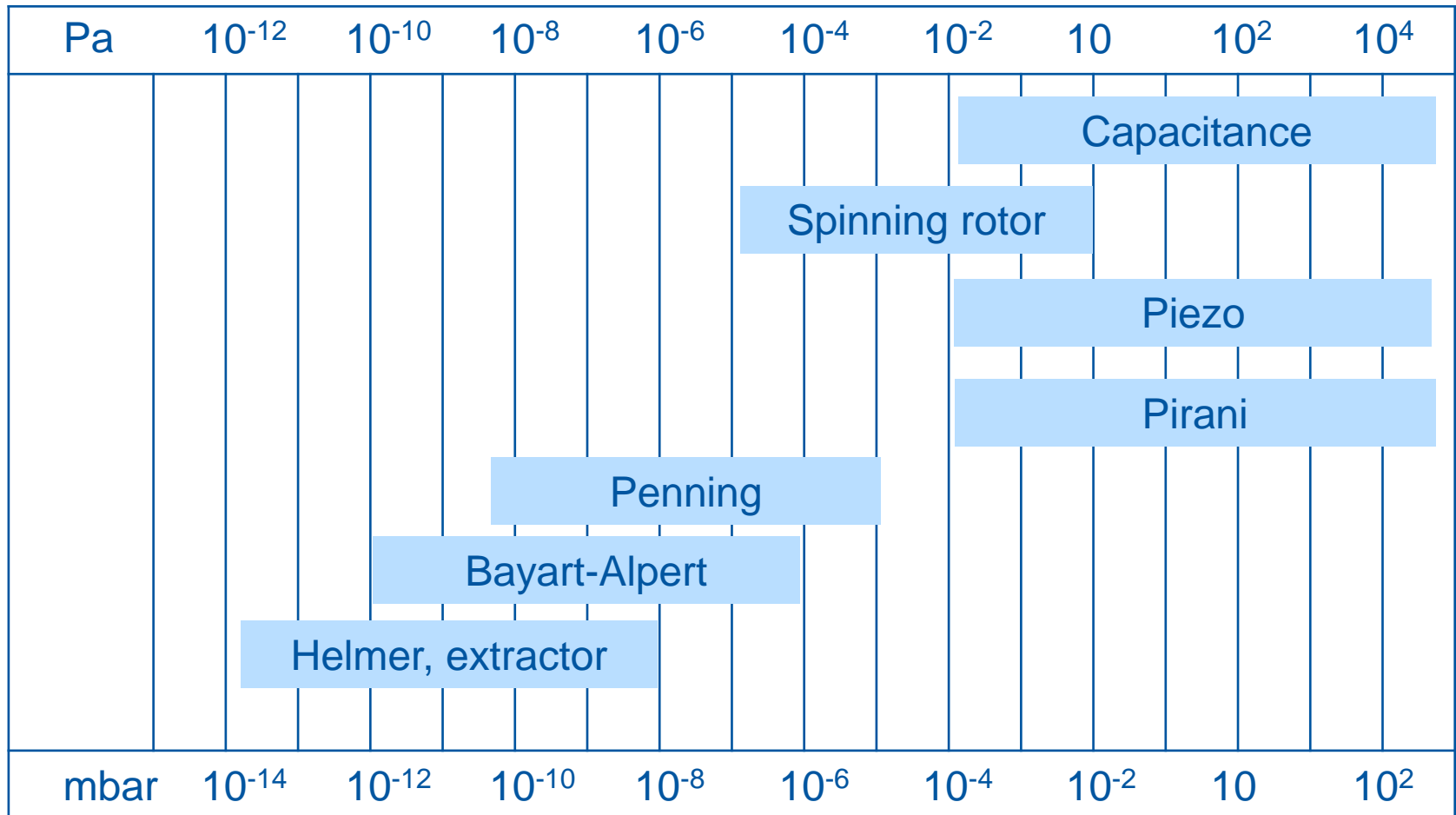
Pictures Edwards

3. Measurement & production of vacuum

3.1 Vacuum gauges

Vacuum gauges pressure range

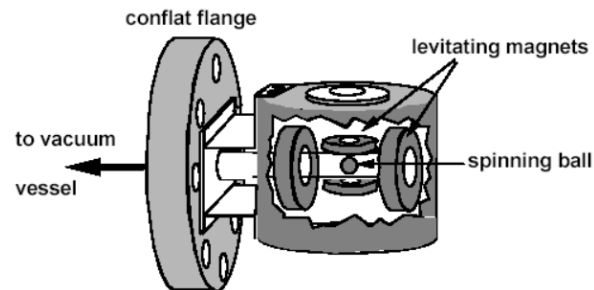
16 orders of magnitude !



Spinning rotor gauge

Complementary information

- It is a reference standard which allows an absolute measurement of the pressure
- It is fully bake able up to 450 deg (so low outgassing rate)
- SRG gauges are used in the range $5 \cdot 10^{-7}$ - 10^{-2} mbar, accuracy $\sim 2\%$, uncertainty $\sim 0.5\%$.
- A stainless steel ball is magnetically levitated and rotated by a drive assembly
- Collisions of the gas molecules with the surface of the ball decelerates the ball: the principle of measurement is mechanical
- The viscosity of the gas shall be entered into the power supply for pressure measurement



$$P = \frac{d_{Ball} \rho_{Ball}}{10 \sigma_{gaz}} \sqrt{\frac{2\pi RT}{M} \frac{(T_{rev,n+1} - T_{rev,n})}{\overline{T_{rev}}^2}}$$

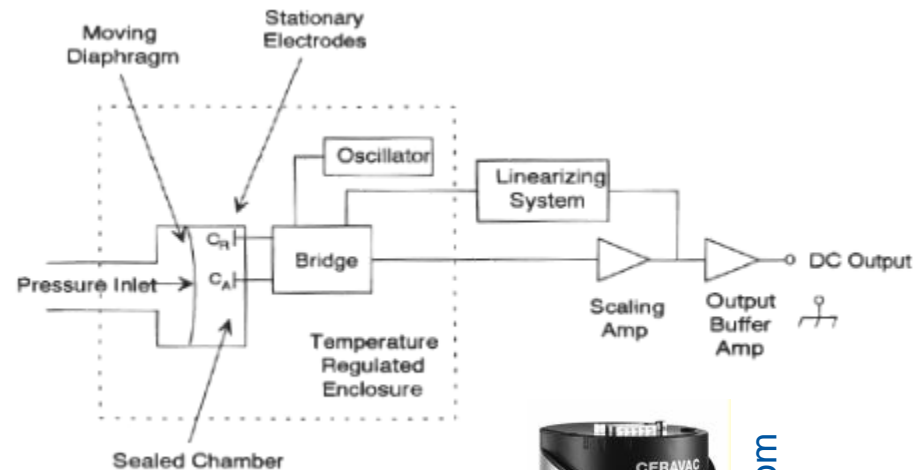
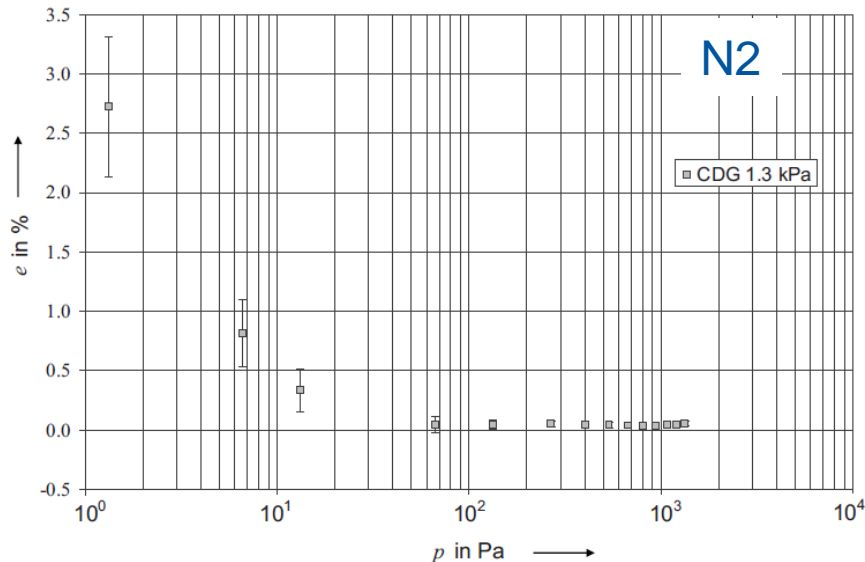


Viscosity, η_{gaz}	H ₂	He	CH ₄	H ₂ O	N ₂	CO	Ar	CO ₂	Xe
10^{-6} Pa.s	8.8	19.6	10.8	9	17.5	17.6	22.1	14.6	21.9

Capacitance diaphragm gauge

Complementary information

- It allows an absolute direct measurement of the pressure: the reading is independent of the gas species!
- It operates in the range $10^{-5} - 10^4$ mbar
- Electrodes are placed in a vacuum of $\sim 10^{-7}$ mbar maintained by a getter.
- The capacitance varies under the deflection of a 25 micron thick diaphragm due to the vacuum force (the pressure in the vacuum system)
- The sensitivity of the diaphragm deflection is 0.4 nm (10^{-4} pF) !
- It is sensitive to thermal fluctuations: a thermostated housing is used (45 \pm 0.02 degrees C)
- Uncertainty : 0.3 to 10 % - Accuracy: 0.15 %



Courtesy Vacom

K. Jousten, S. Nael, J.Vac. Sci.Technol. A 29(1), Jan/Feb 2011, 011011-1

Strain gauge

Complementary
information

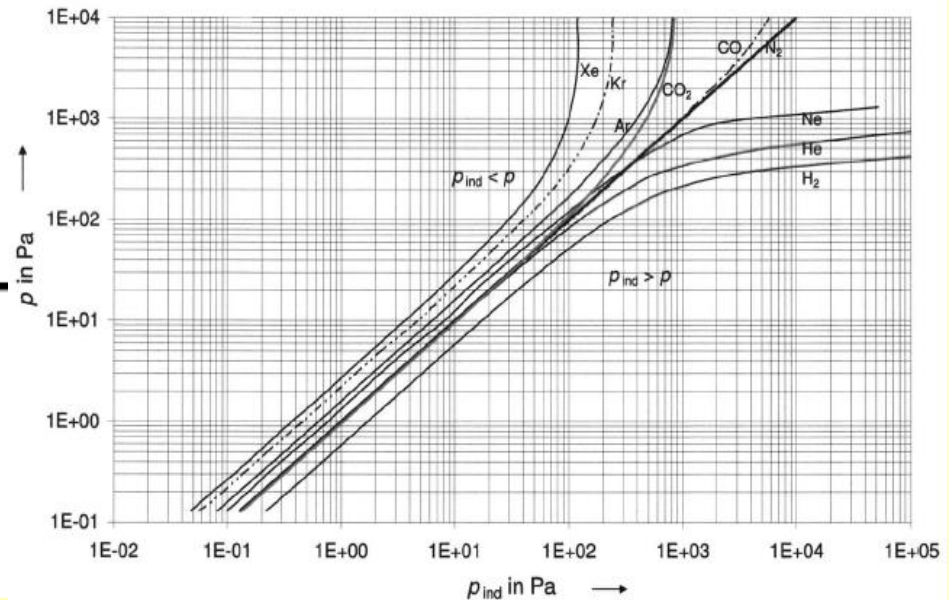
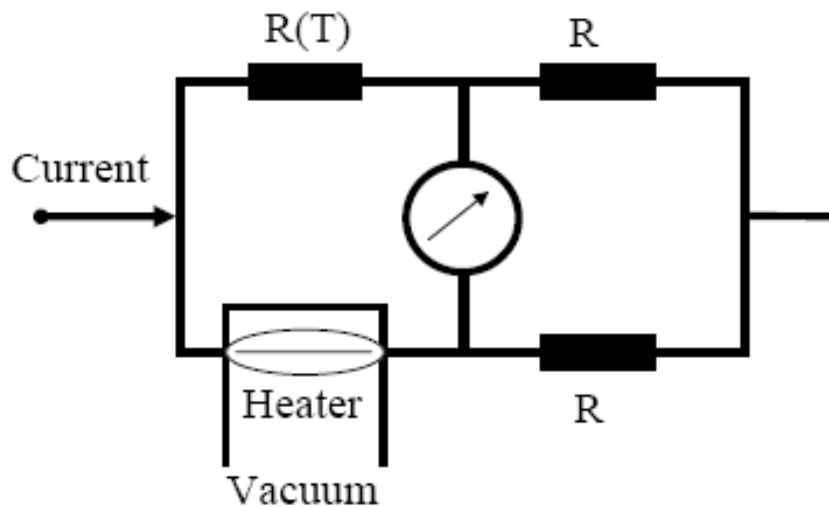
- It allows a direct measurement of the pressure: the reading is **independent** of the gas species!
- A strain sensor is placed in a sealed volume
- The change of the pressure causes a diaphragm to move against the **piezo** sensitive plate of the strain sensor.
- This induce the change of the resistance of the piezoelectric transducer part of a bridge network



Pirani Gauge

- Pirani gauges are commonly used in the range 1 atm - 10^{-4} mbar.
- The operating principle is based on the **variation of the thermal conductivity** of the gases as a function of pressure. A resistor under vacuum is heated at a constant temperature ($\sim 120^\circ\text{C}$). The heating current required to keep the temperature constant is a measure of the pressure.
- In the viscous regime, the thermal conductivity is independent of the pressure. Therefore pressure readings given above 1 mbar are wrong !

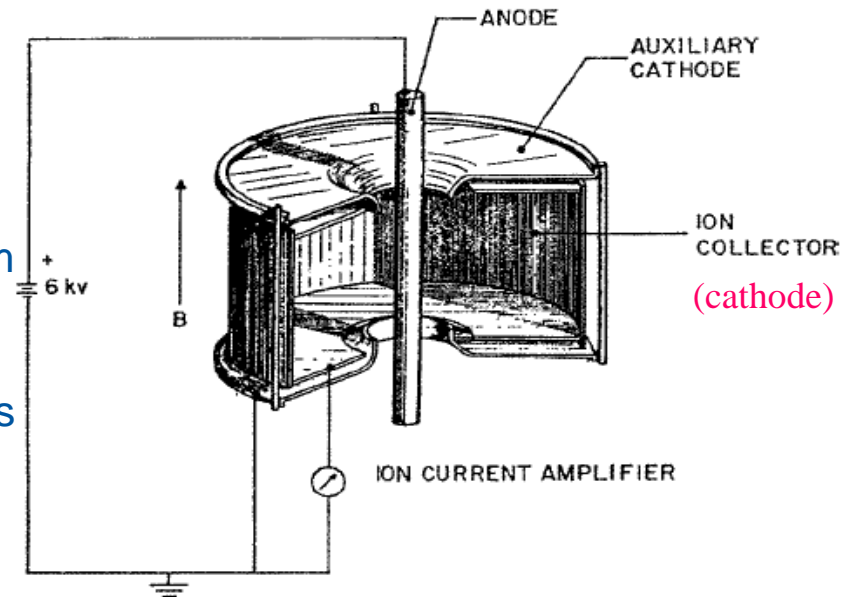
True vs indicated pressure



K. Jousten. J.Vac.Sci. Technol. 26(3), May/June 2008, 352-359

Penning Gauge

- Penning gauges are commonly used in the range 10^{-5} - 10^{-10} mbar. They are used for **interlocking** purposes
- It is a cold cathode ionisation gauge *i.e.* there are no hot filaments
- The operating principle is based on the **measurement of a discharge current** in a Penning cell which is a function of pressure : $I^+ = P^n$, n is close to 1
- At high pressure the discharge is unstable due to arcing.
- At low pressure, the discharge extinguishes which means zero pressure reading.
- Electrons are produced by field emission and perform oscillations due to the magnetic field
- Along the path length, molecules are ionised and ions are collected onto the **cathode**
- **WARNING** : leakage current on the HV cables simulates a higher pressure



P. Redhead. J.Vac.Sci. 21(5), Sept/Oct 2003, S1-S5

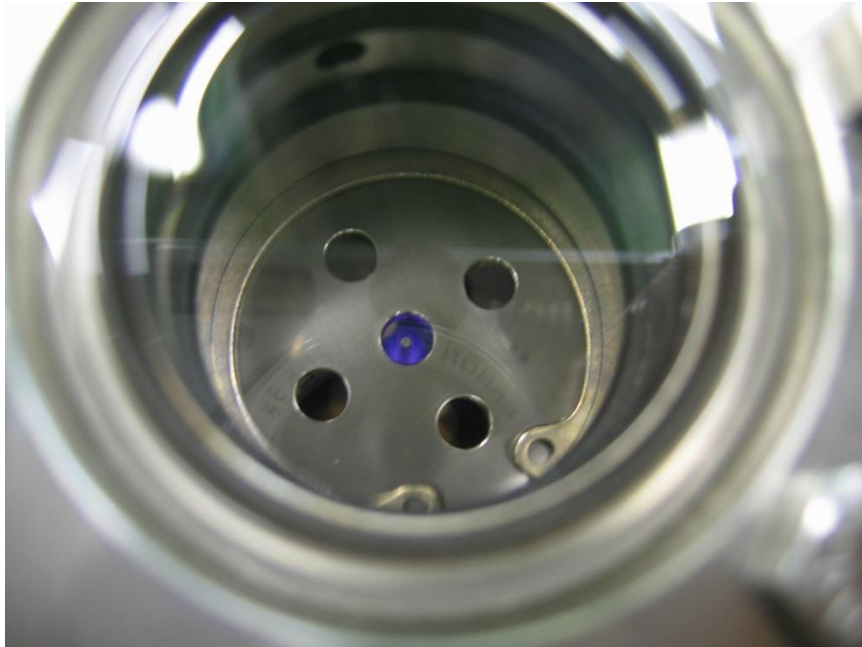
A discharge in a Penning gauge

- a Penning gauge:

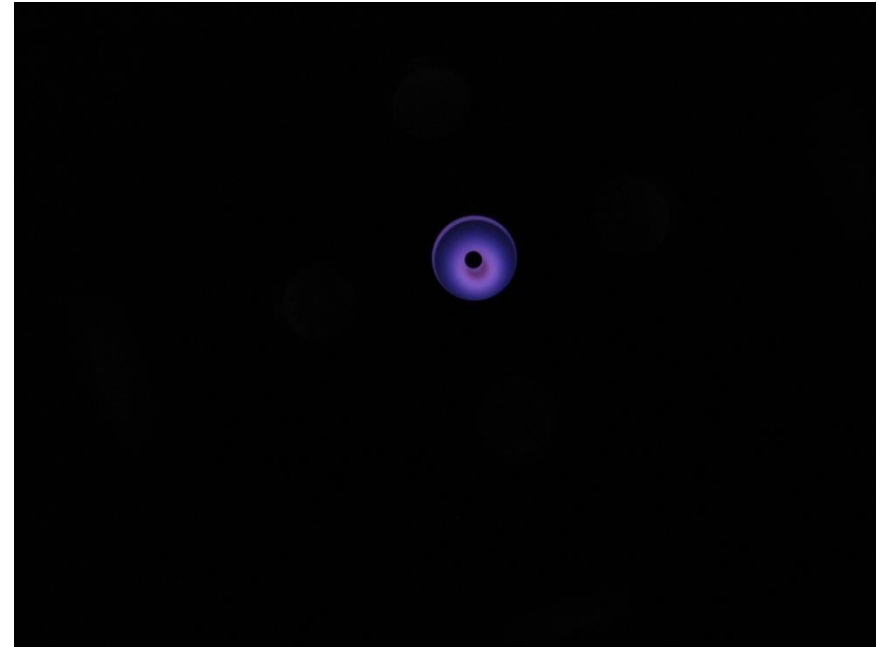


Courtesy Pfeiffer

Penning gauge ON behind a window



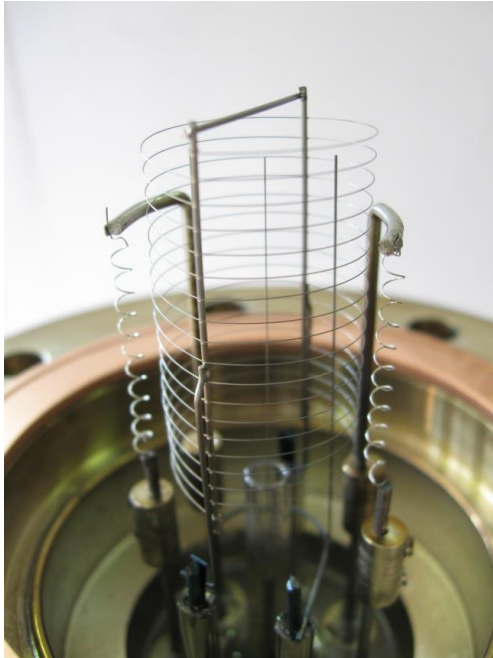
In the dark



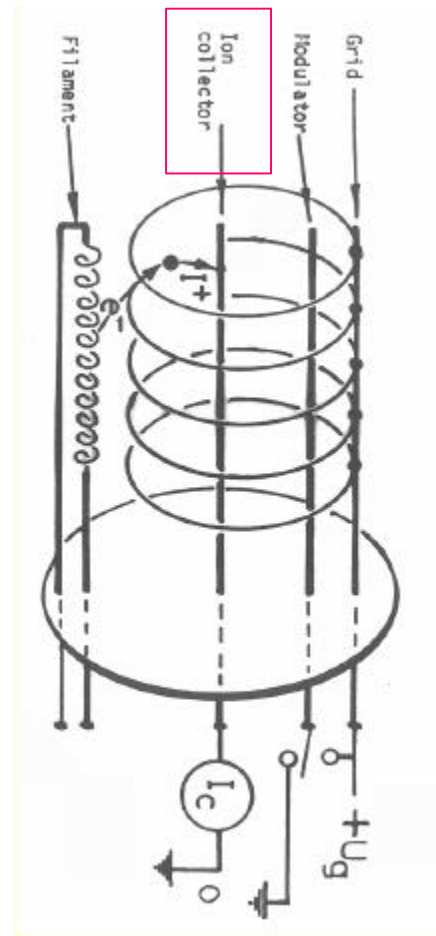
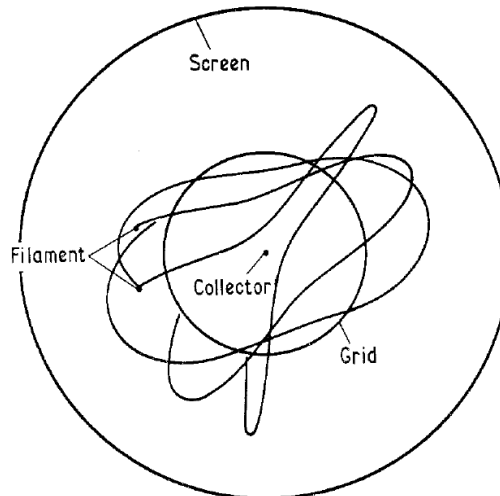
Pictures courtesy B. Henrist

Bayard-Alpert Gauge

- Bayard-Alpert gauges are used for vacuum **measurement** purposes in the range 10^{-6} - 10^{-12} mbar.
- It is a hot filament ionisation gauge. Electrons emitted by the filament perform oscillations inside the grid and ionise the molecules of the residual gas. Ions are then collected by an electrode.



Ion collector = 0 V
 Filament = + 50 V
 Grid = + 150 V
 Modulator = + 150 V



Path length of particles has exponential distribution.

Electrons make on average 4 turns
 Before they impinge on the grid
 Their average path is about 150 mm
 Only path inside the grid is useful.

Ions oscillate more than electrons
 About 50 turns — above 1 m
 Collected ions oscillate more than repelled.
 In modulation mode path is much shorter.

L.G. Pittaway. J. of Phys. D: Appl.Phys. 3, 1113-1121, 1970

Courtesy B. Jenninger

Bayard-Alpert Gauge: CERN construction

- Large electron path length are needed to increase the vacuum gauge sensitivity: $L \sim 7 \text{ cm}$
- The ionization volume (grid volume) must be large
- The gauge is mounted on a DN63 flange
- It is bake able to 400°C
- Low outgassing rate ($\sim 5 \cdot 10^{-10} \text{ mbar.l/s}$)
- Large sensitivity $\sim 40 \text{ mbar}^{-1}$ for N_2

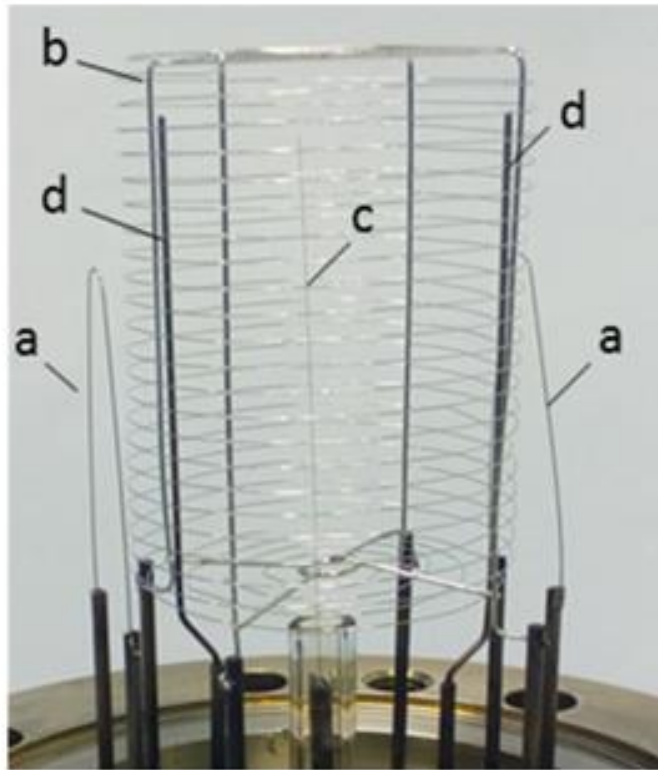
a. W Filament: $\text{Ø}0.18$, height 30

b. Closed grid: $\text{Ø}35 \times 45$, pitch 2
Platinum-iridium wire: $\text{Ø}0.13$

c. W Collector: $\text{Ø}0.05$, length 42

d. Modulator: $\text{Ø}0.7$, length 42

$$V_{\text{grid}} = 50 \text{ cm}^3$$



Bayard-Alpert Gauge: Filament

Complementary information

- Electron are produced at the W filament by thermo-electronic emission
- The emission is a function of the work function, Φ , of the material
- Filaments are made of Iridium/Ytrium, W/Thorium coated to reduce the work function, thereby reducing the operating temperature, T , (thus gas load into the system)

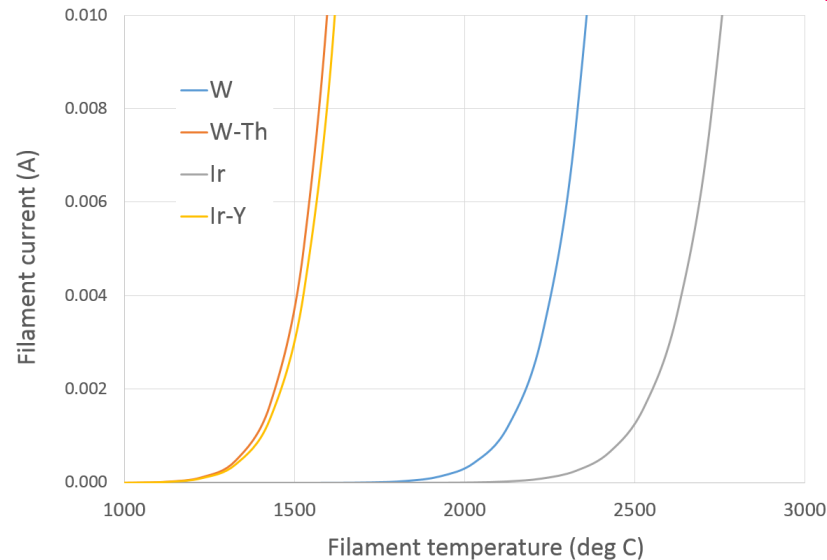
Richardson-Dushman equation

$$J = A T^2 e^{-\left(\Phi/kT\right)}$$

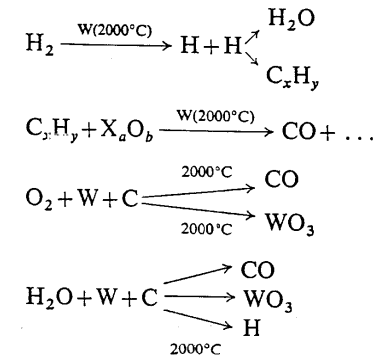
$$A = (1-r) A_0$$

$$A_0 = 120 \text{ A}/(\text{cm}^2\text{K}^2)$$

Material	A	Φ (eV)
W	60	4.54
W-Th	3	2.63
Ir	60	5.3
Ir-Y	2	2.6

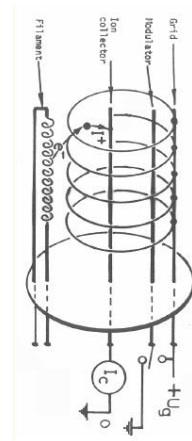


Typical chemical reactions at the filament



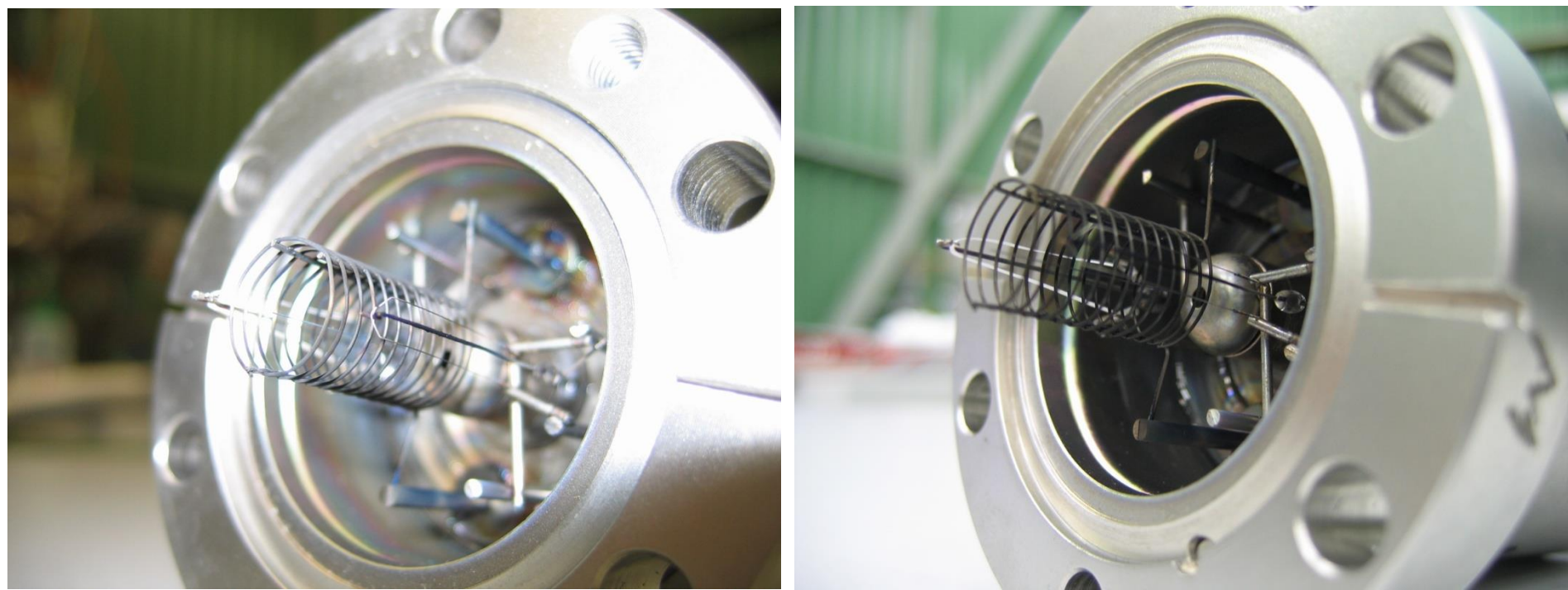
D. Alpert, Le Vide 17 (1962),19

- Some electrons can bombard the grid with ~ 150 eV: they can desorb gas molecules and produce an artificial increase of the pressure.
- The vacuum gauges are therefore “degassed” by electron bombardment at large current (~ 10 mA) and energy () of the grid and electrodes
- Filaments have pumping speed: 0.1 – 1 l/s



A burned filament

- Obviously, even if there are 2 filaments, the gauge is polluted therefore the pressure measurement will not be correct !
- It is wise to exchange the vacuum gauge



Pictures courtesy B. Henrist

Bayard-Alpert Gauge: Sensitivity

- The ion current collection can be described by:

$$I^+ = I_e \sigma n L$$

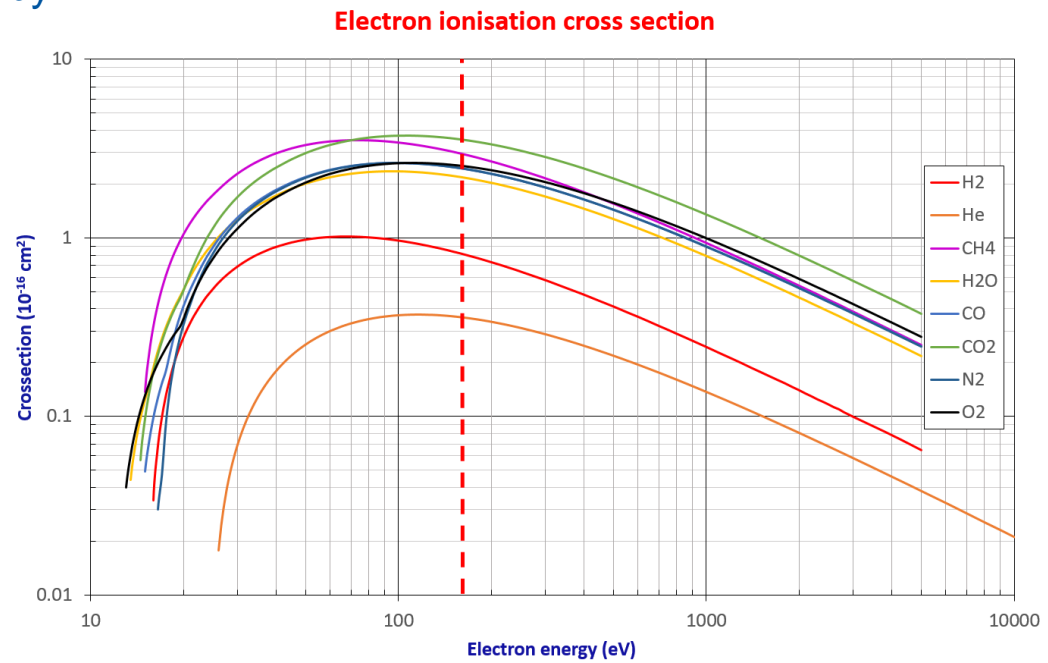
Where :

- I^+ is the ion current
- I_e is the filament current
- σ is the ionisation cross section
- n the gas density
- L the electron path length

- The vacuum gauge sensitivity, S in mbar^{-1} , is defined by:

$$I^+ = I_e S P \quad S = \frac{\sigma L}{k T}$$

- The gauge needs to be calibrated for several gases
- $S_{N_2} \sim 40 \text{ mbar}^{-1}$
- The pressure reading is expressed in nitrogen equivalent
- In UHV, typical collected current are in the pA range



I_e (mA)	P (mbar)	I^+ (pA)
4	10^{-10}	16
4	10^{-12}	0.16
0.1	10^{-10}	0.4
0.1	10^{-12}	0.004



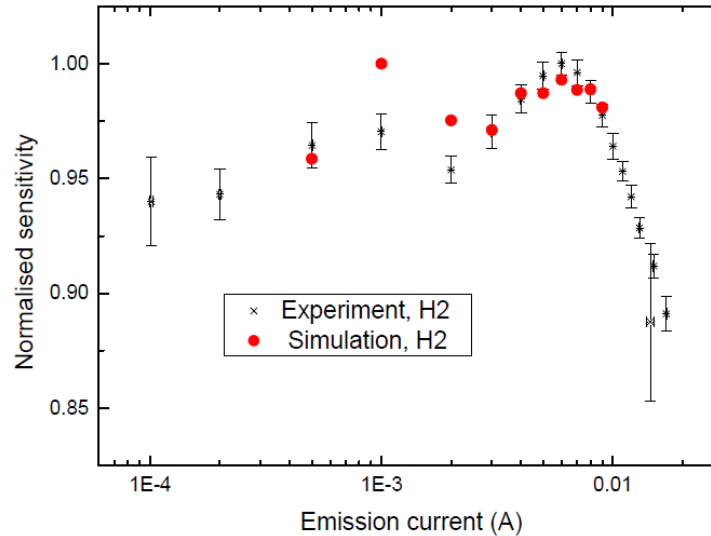
Bayard-Alpert Gauge: Sensitivity

- The sensitivity can be measured and also computed from simulations

$$S_i = \frac{\sigma L}{k T}$$

$$S_{rel,i} = \frac{S_{N_2}}{S_i}$$

$$P_i = S_{rel,i} P_{N_2}$$



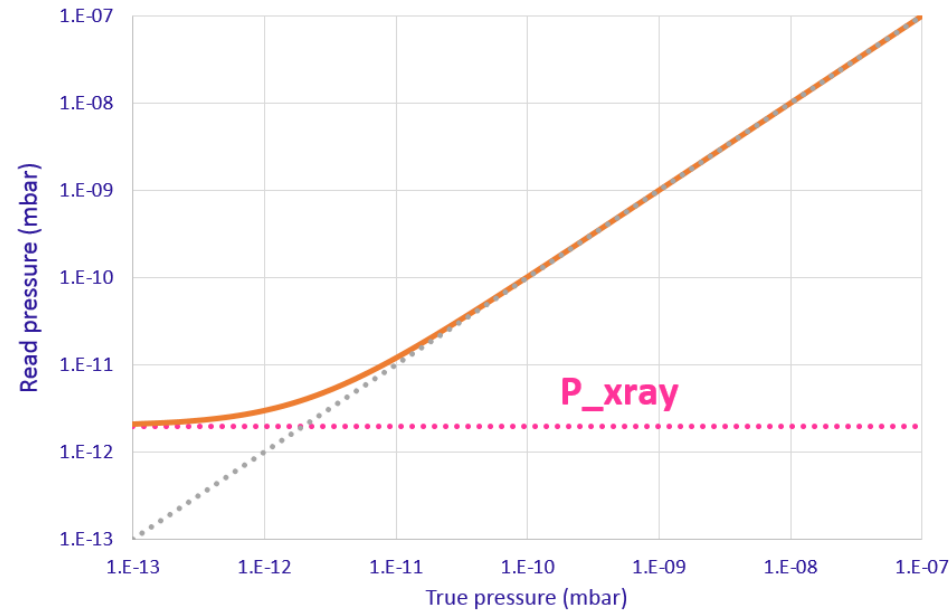
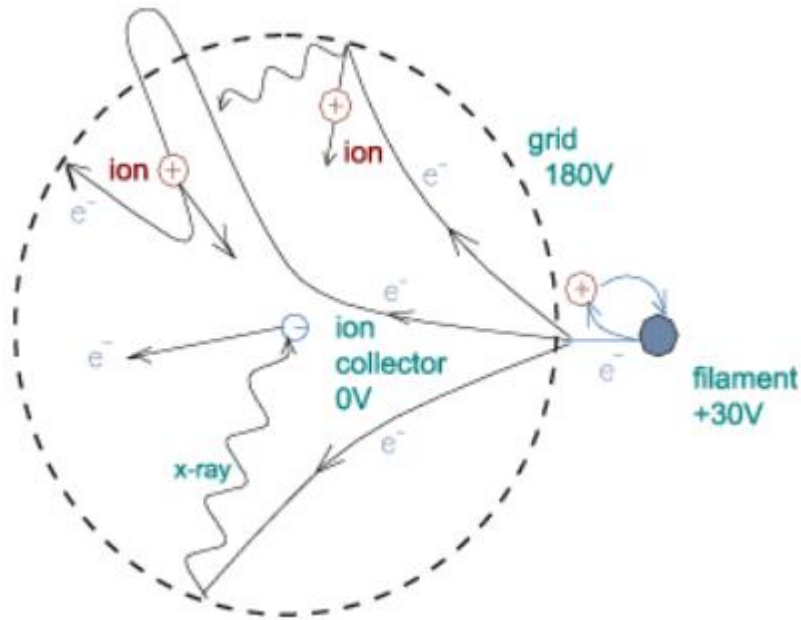
B. Jenninger et al. Vacuum

	H ₂	He	CH ₄	Ne	N ₂	CO	C ₂ H ₆	Ar	CO ₂	Xe
S _i (mbar ⁻¹)	19.06	7.46	60.62	10.48	41.84	42.30	114.71	53.19	54.48	7.50
S _{rel,i} (mbar _i /mbar _{N₂)}	2.20	5.61	0.69	3.41	1.00	0.99	0.36	0.79	0.77	4.83

- The sensitivity relative error equals ~ 10 %
- A pressure reading in N₂ equivalent is: $P_{read} = 2 \cdot 10^{-10}$ mbar, in the case the main molecular species is H₂, the real pressure is: $P = S_{rel,H_2} \times P_{read} = 4.4 \cdot 10^{-10}$ mbar

Bayard-Alpert Gauge: X-rays

- Electrons which are bombarding the grid, creates photons by bremsstrahlung
- A fraction of those photons irradiated the collector producing a photoelectron
- The photoelectron production is interpreted by the electronic system as a positive charge *i.e.* as a constant pressure, $P_{x\text{-ray}}$



- X-ray limit of $P_{x\text{ray}} \sim 2 \cdot 10^{-12}$ mbar

Bayard-Alpert Gauge: Modulation

- A correction of the residual pressure due to the x-ray can be applied by the “modulation” technique

Modulator	High Pres.	Low Pres.
0 V	$I'_1 = I^+$	$I_1 = I^+ + I_x$
+ grid	$I'_2 = k I^+$	$I_2 = k I^+ + I_x$

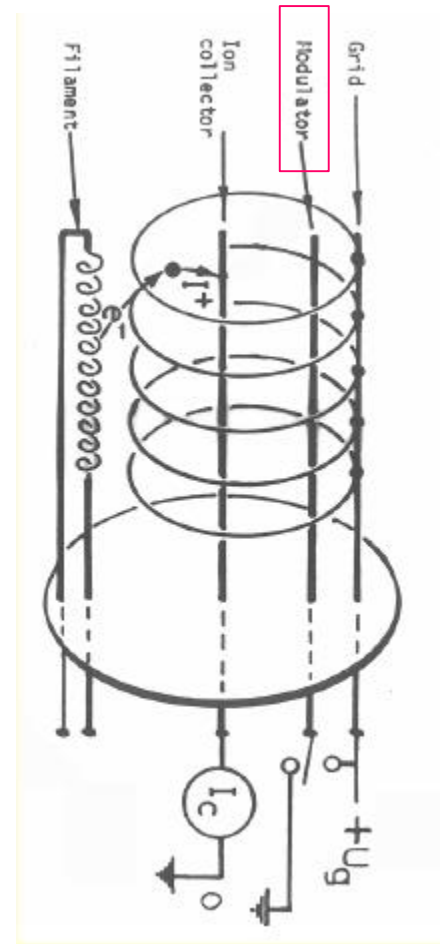
$$k = \frac{I'_2}{I'_1} = \frac{P'_2}{P'_1}$$

$$I^+ = \frac{I_1 - I_2}{1 - k}$$

$$\Rightarrow P = \frac{P_1 - P_2}{1 - k}$$

	H ₂	He	CH ₄	N ₂	CO	C ₂ H ₆	Ar	CO ₂
k	0.86	0.91	0.89	0.89	0.89	0.89	0.89	0.89

- X-ray limit of $P_{\text{xray}} \sim 2 \cdot 10^{-12}$ mbar



Helmer gauge

Complementary
information

- Electrostatically-deflected ion beam with an electron suppressor grid
- Very low x-ray value $\sim 5 \cdot 10^{-14}$ mbar
- 10^{-13} to 10^{-6} mbar with $I_e \sim 10$ mA
- 10^{-6} to 10^{-4} mbar with $I_e \sim 0.18$ mA
- Sensitivity: 20 mbar^{-1} for N_2
- Bakeable to 450 deg C, degassing current at 100 mA with + 500 V on the grid

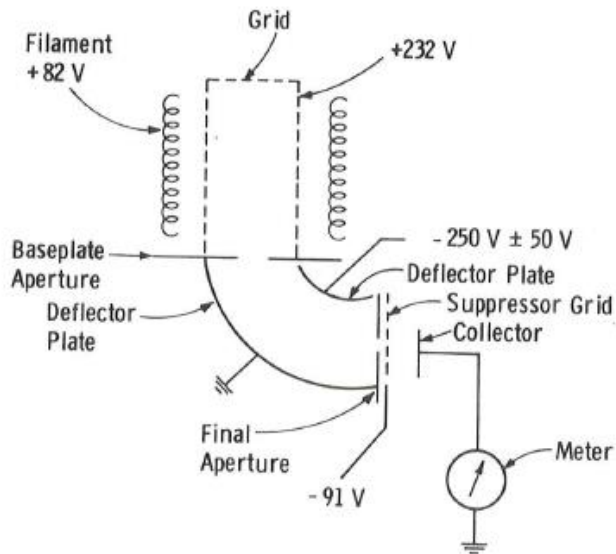
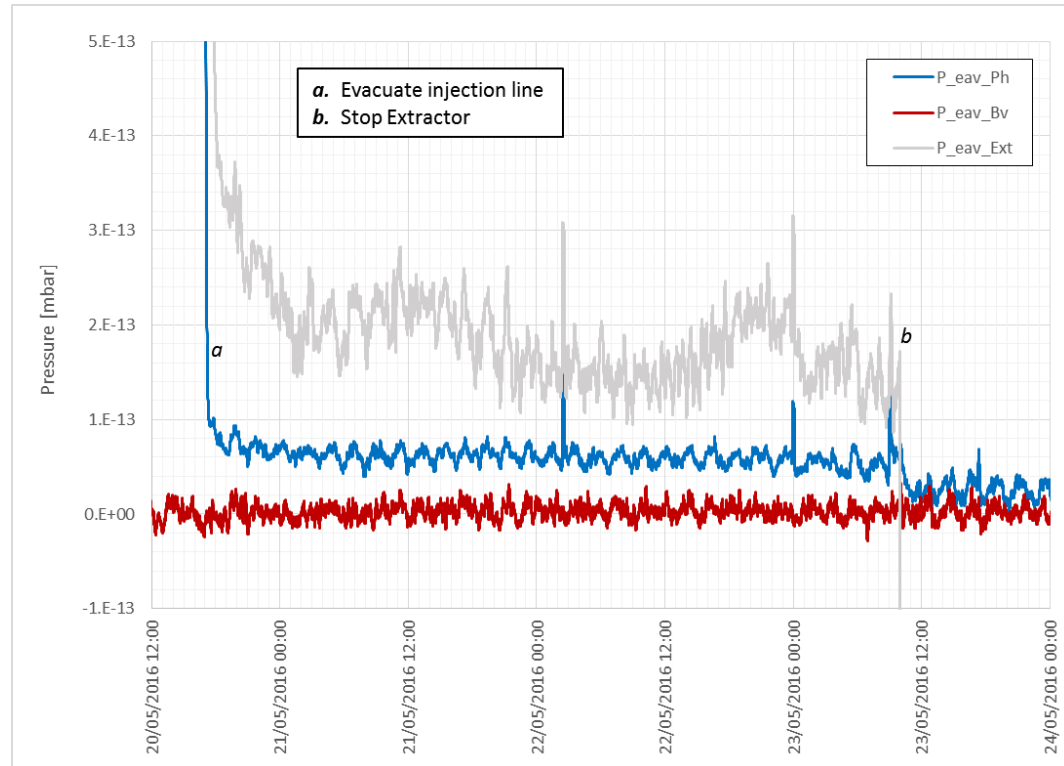


Figure 8: Main components of the Helmer gauge; on the right with opened cage. (a filament, b grid, c cage, d inner deflector, e outer deflector (on ground potential), f suppressor, g collector). The yellow line indicates the ion trajectory from the grid volume towards the collector.

Helmer gauge and XHV

Complementary information

- Recently measured pressure are $\sim 5 \cdot 10^{-14}$ mbar in a dedicated set up



Courtesy B. Jenninger

Extractor gauge

Complementary
information

- The ion collection (collector) is **located outside** the ionization region (grid)
- The reflector used to reflect the ions on the collector tip for sensitive enhancement
- Low x-ray value $\sim 10^{-12}$ mbar
- 10^{-12} to 10^{-4} mbar
- Operating current: 1.6 mA, filament in Iridium with yttric oxid coating
- Sensitivity: 5 mbar^{-1} for N_2 (due to the small grid volume $\text{Ø}12 \times 25$)
- Bakeable up to 350°C

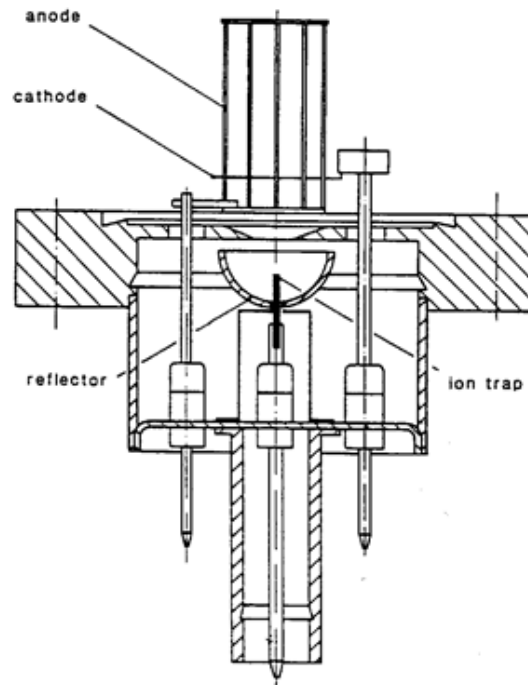
Anode: grid at 220 V

Cathode: filament at 100 V

Reflector at 205 V

Ion collector at 0 V

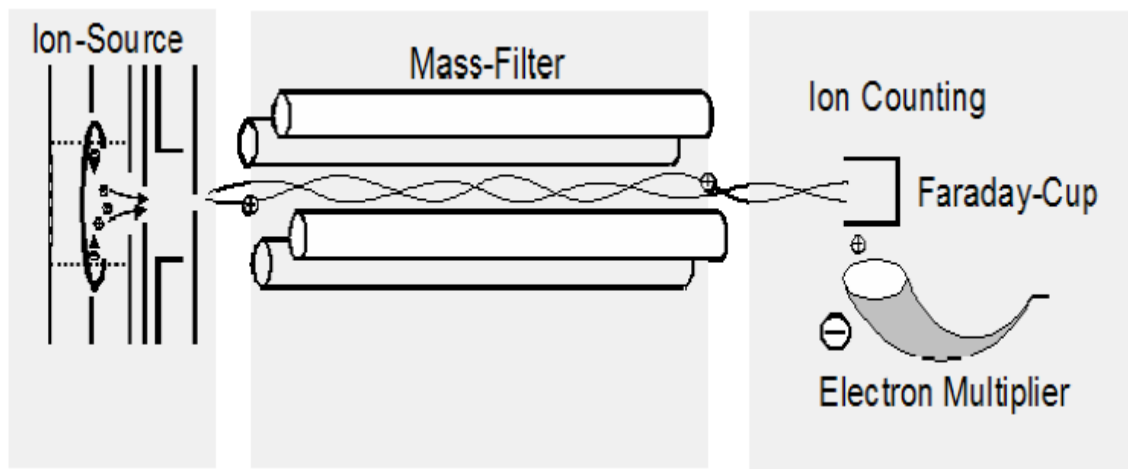
$$V_{\text{grid}} = 10 \text{ cm}^3$$



Residual Gas Analysers

- Residual Gas Analysers are used in the range 10^{-4} - 10^{-13} mbar. Their purpose is to do gas analysis
- A filament produces electrons which ionise the residual gas inside a grid.
- A mass filter is introduced between the grid and the ion collector.
- The ion current can be measured in Faraday mode or in secondary electron multiplier mode.

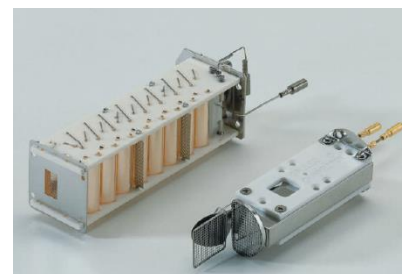
G.J. Peter, N. Müller. CAS Vacuum in accelerators CERN 2007-003



1 mA
Q ~ $2 \cdot 10^{-9}$ mbar.l/s



ΔM at FWHM = 0.5 AMU



Range: 10^{-14} till 10^{-5} A
Gain ~ 10^3 - 10^4 electrons/ion

Picture Pfeiffer

RGA: Cracking pattern

- Ions produced inside the grid can be **fragmented** into sub-species by the collisions with electrons
- The table gives the percentage of the fragments with respect to the main pic

• Example Mass 28

- Nitrogen is traced by mass:

28 (N_2^+)

14 (N^+): $I_{14} = 0.14 I_{28}$

- Carbon monoxide is traced by mass:

28 (CO^+)

12 (C^+): $I_{12} = 0.06 I_{28}$

- Carbon dioxide is traced by mass:

44 (CO_2^+)

28 (CO^+): $I_{28} = 0.13 I_{44}$

16 (O^+): $I_{16} = 0.16 I_{44}$

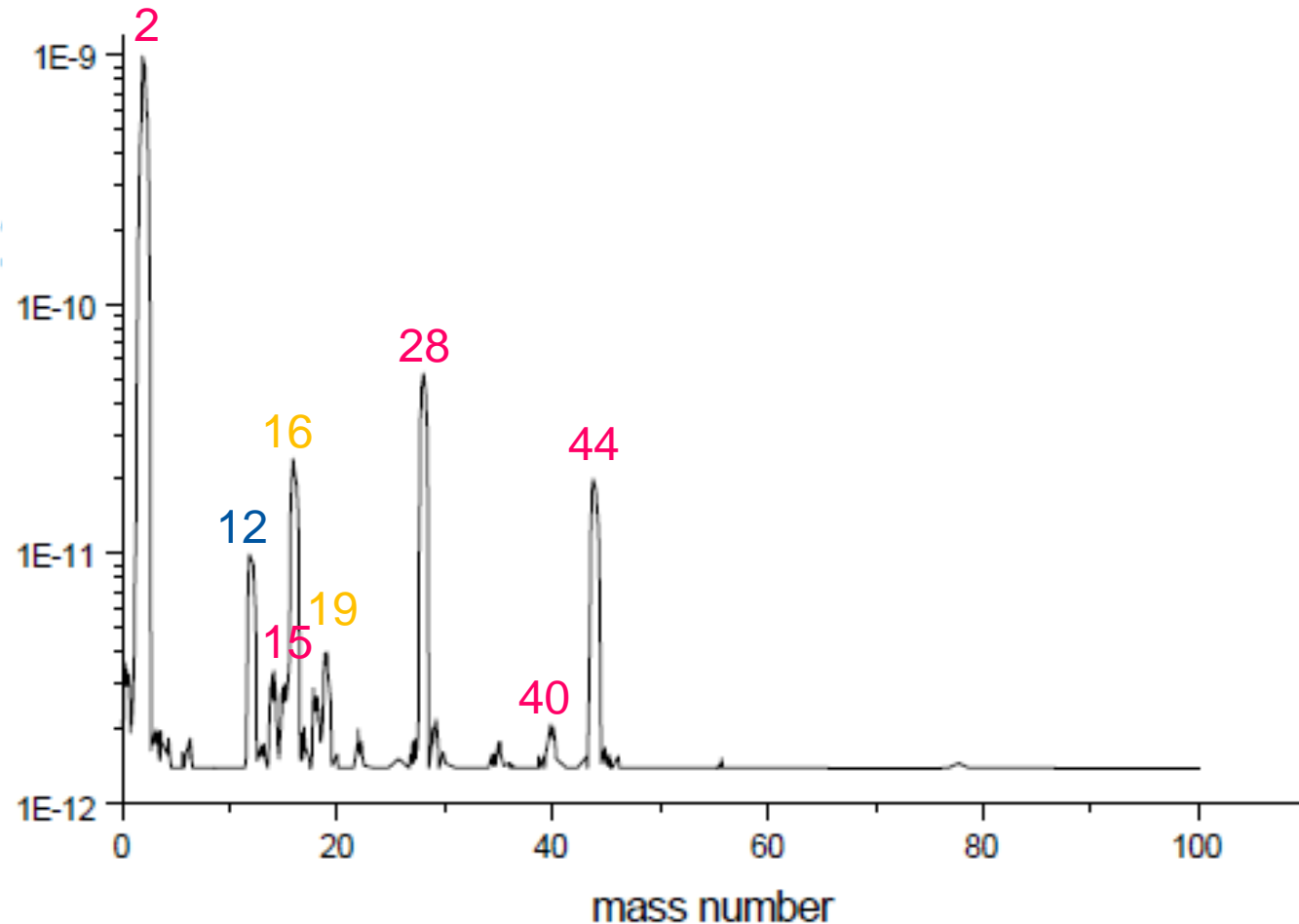
12 (C^+): $I_{12} = 0.10 I_{44}$

M (u.m.a)	H ₂	CH ₄	H ₂ O	N ₂	CO	O ₂	Ar	CO ₂
1	3	16,5	2,4					
2	100							
12		3,0			6,3			9,7
13		7,8						
14		16,0		14	0,8			
15		85,0						
16		100	1,8		2,8	18		16,0
17		1,2	26					
18			100					
20							22,6	
22								2,1
28				100	100			13,0
29				0,7	1,2			
32						100		
34						0,4		
36							0,34	
38							0,06	
40							100	
44								100
45								1,2

RGA: Spectrum

- A typical spectrum of a **baked** vacuum system: $P = 10^{-10}$ mbar

M/e	Ion	Molecule
2	H ₂ ⁺	H ₂
15	CH ₃ ⁺	CH ₄
28	CO ⁺	CO
40	Ar ⁺	Ar
44	CO ₂ ⁺	CO ₂
12	C ⁺	CO+CO ₂
16	O ⁺	Filament artefacts
19	F ⁺	



RGA: Partial Pressure

- The RGA needs to be calibrated against a total pressure gauge for standard gases.
- To take into account the RGA ageing, relative sensitivities are used and a normalization factor, K , is introduced

$$P_{i,N_2} = K S_{abs,CO,RGA} \times S_{rel,i,RGA} \times I_i$$

- According to Dalton's law, the reading given by the total pressure gauge shall equal the sum of the partial pressure, expressed in nitrogen equivalent:

$$P_{N_2} = \sum_{j=1}^n P_{j,N_2} = K S_{abs,CO,RGA} \sum_{j=1}^n (S_{rel,j,RGA} \times I_j)$$

- Therefore:

$$K = \frac{P_{N_2}}{S_{abs,CO,RGA} \sum_{j=1}^n (S_{rel,j,RGA} \times I_j)}$$

- So:

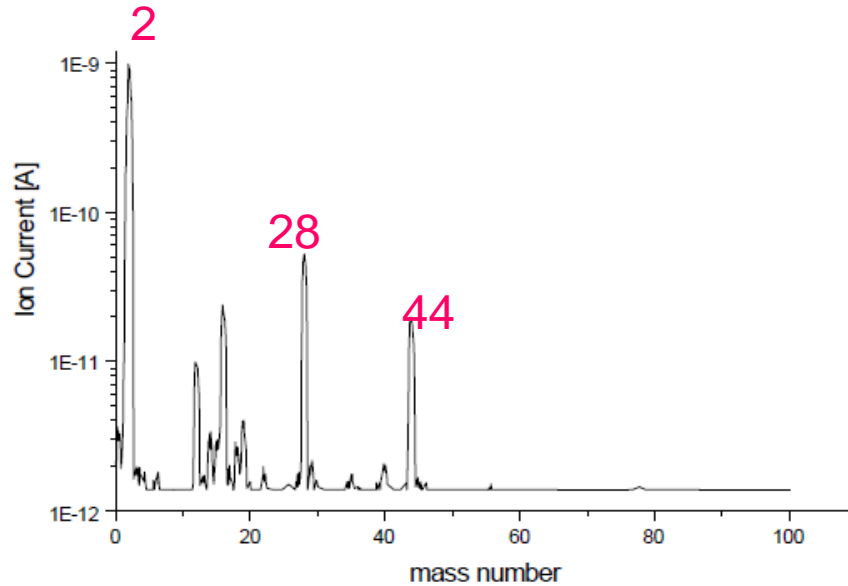
$$P_i = S_{rel,i} P_{i,N_2} = S_{rel,i} \frac{S_{rel,i,RGA}}{\sum_{j=1}^n S_{rel,j,RGA} \times I_j} P_{N_2} I_i$$

	H ₂	CH ₄	N ₂	CO	Ar	CO ₂
S _{rel,i,RGA} (Torr N ₂ /Torr)	1.09	0.93	0.99	1	1.18	1.96

Give an example

RGA: Partial Pressure

- Example: a baked system with $P = 10^{-10}$ mbar N_2 eq



	H_2	CH_4	CO	Ar	CO_2
I (A)	$1 \cdot 10^{-9}$	$2 \cdot 10^{-12}$	$7 \cdot 10^{-11}$	$5 \cdot 10^{-13}$	$2 \cdot 10^{-11}$
P (mbar)	$2 \cdot 10^{-10}$	$1 \cdot 10^{-13}$	$6 \cdot 10^{-12}$	$4 \cdot 10^{-14}$	$3 \cdot 10^{-12}$
% Pi	96	0	3	0	1

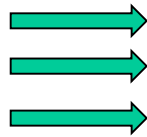
- Note: a simple estimation from the total pressure measurement would give $P = 2.2 \cdot 10^{-10}$ mbar!

RGA: Air Leak

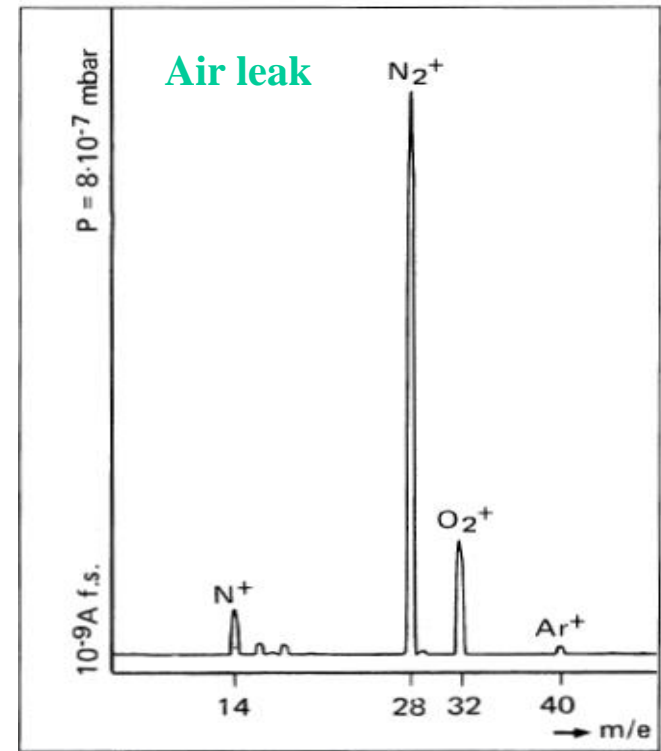
- RGA are useful to identify and trace air leak

Partial pressures for atmospheric air

Gas	%	Pi (Pa)
N ₂	78.1	7.9 10 ⁴
O ₂	20.5	2.8 10 ³
Ar	0.93	1.2 10 ²
CO ₂	0.0033	4.4
Ne	1.8 10 ⁻³	2.4 10 ⁻¹
He	5.2 10 ⁻⁴	7 10 ⁻²



M/e	Ion	Molecule
14	N ⁺	N ₂
28	N ₂ ⁺	N ₂
32	O ₂ ⁺	O ₂
40	Ar ⁺	Ar



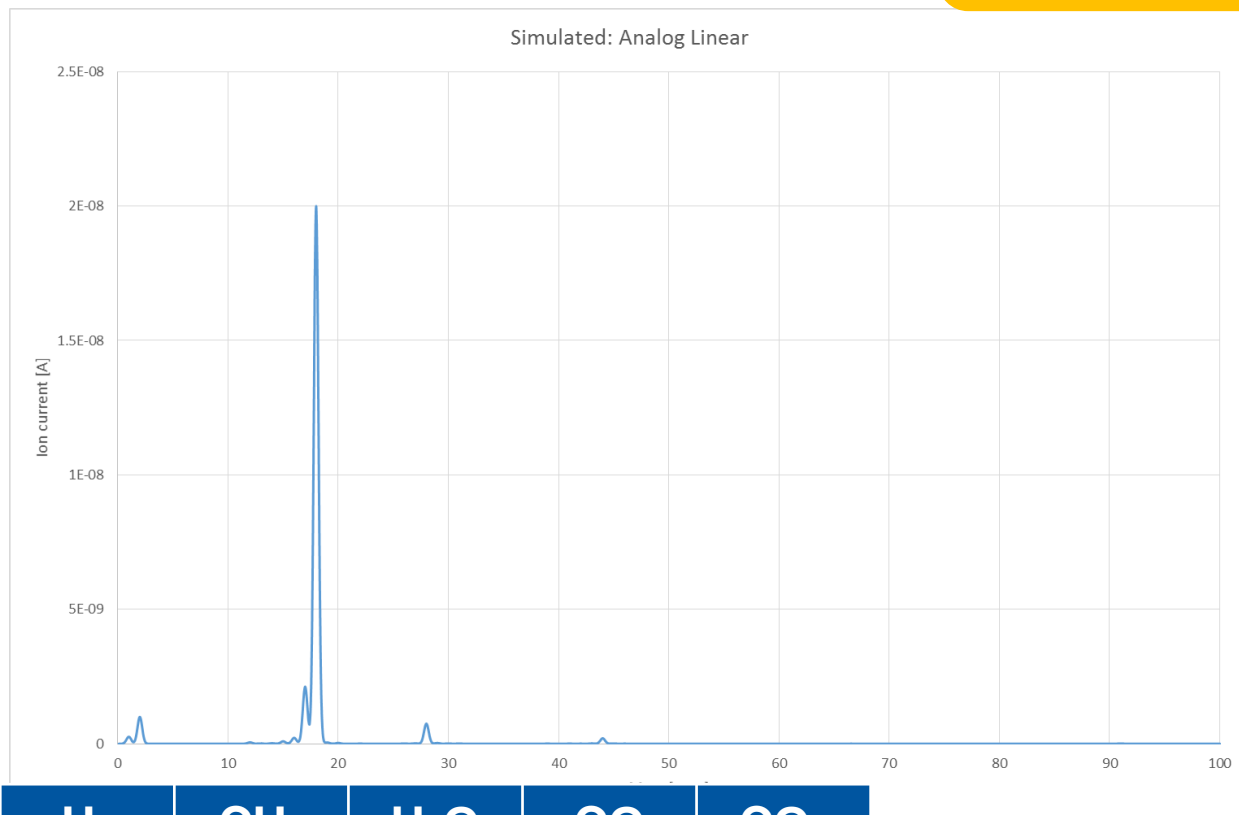
- Assuming a 10 m long, 8cm diam. tube of specific conductance ~ 60 l.s.m
- A pumping speed of 6 l/s at the level of the leak would give a leak rate is 5 10⁻⁶ mbar.l/s
- Oxygen being highly chemically reactive is not always present!

RGA: Unbaked system

Complementary information

- A typical spectrum of an unbaked vacuum system

M/e	Ion	Molecule
2	H ₂ ⁺	H ₂
18	H ₂ O ⁺	H ₂ O

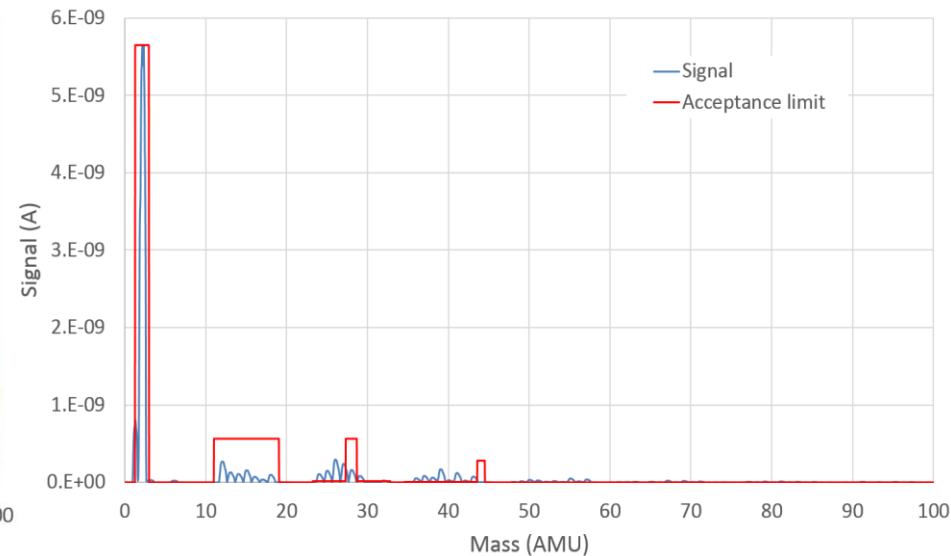
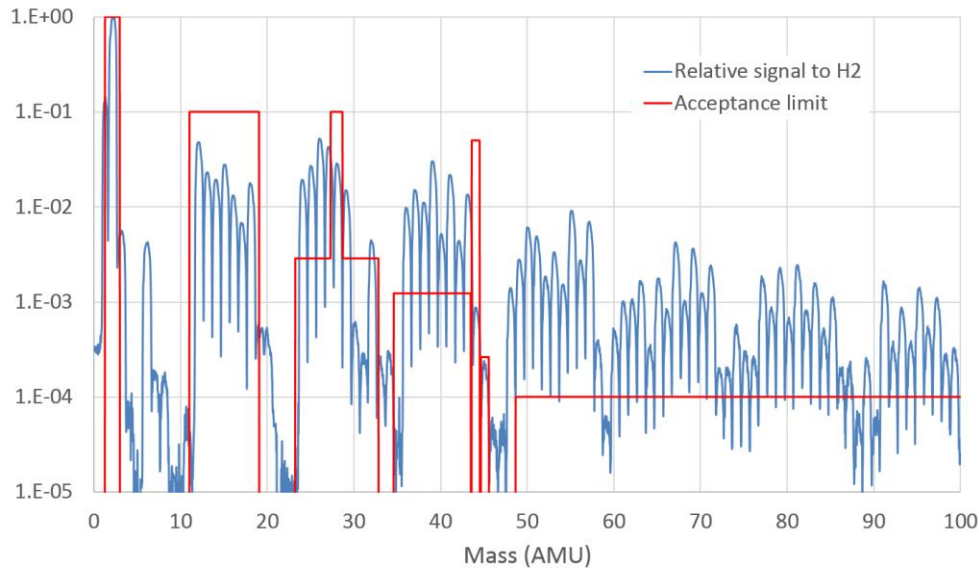


	H ₂	CH ₄	H ₂ O	CO	CO ₂
I (A)	1 10 ⁻⁹	1 10 ⁻¹⁰	2 10 ⁻⁸	7 10 ⁻¹⁰	2 10 ⁻¹⁰
P (mbar)	1 10 ⁻⁹	3 10 ⁻¹¹	1 10 ⁻⁸	4 10 ⁻¹⁰	2 10 ⁻¹⁰
% Pi	10	0	85	3	1

RGA: Contamination

Complementary
information

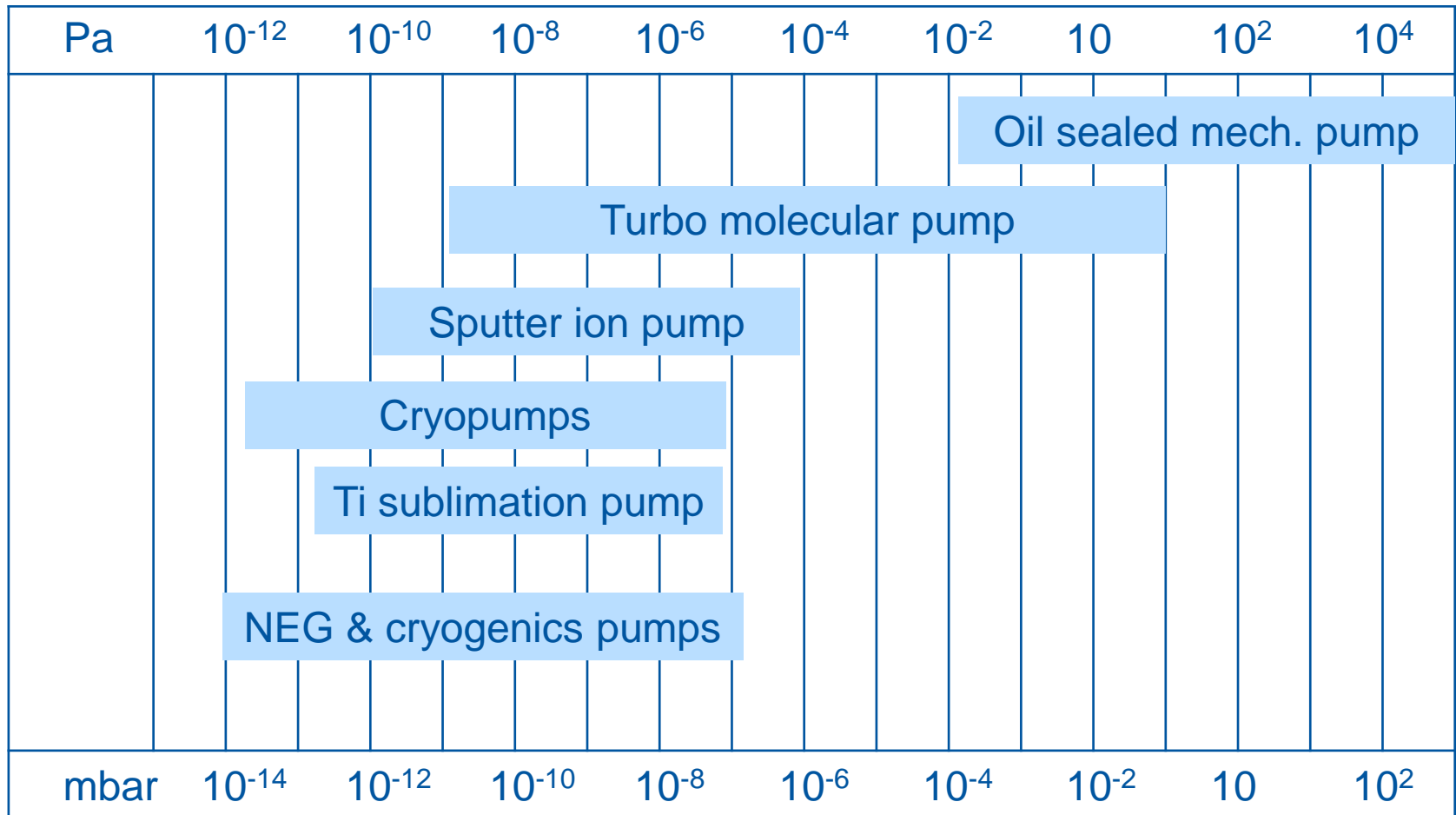
- RGA spectra are used to qualify the cleanliness of a vacuum system
- A typical spectrum of a hydrocarbons contaminated system
- Peaks are separated by 14 units corresponding to one or more CH₂ groups (C_nH_{2n+2})
- Acceptance limits are defined for validation tests



3.2 Vacuum pumps

Vacuum pumps pressure range

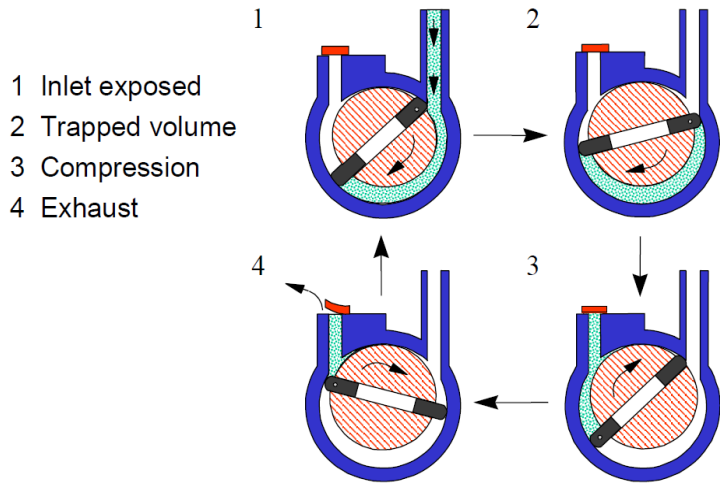
16 orders of magnitude !



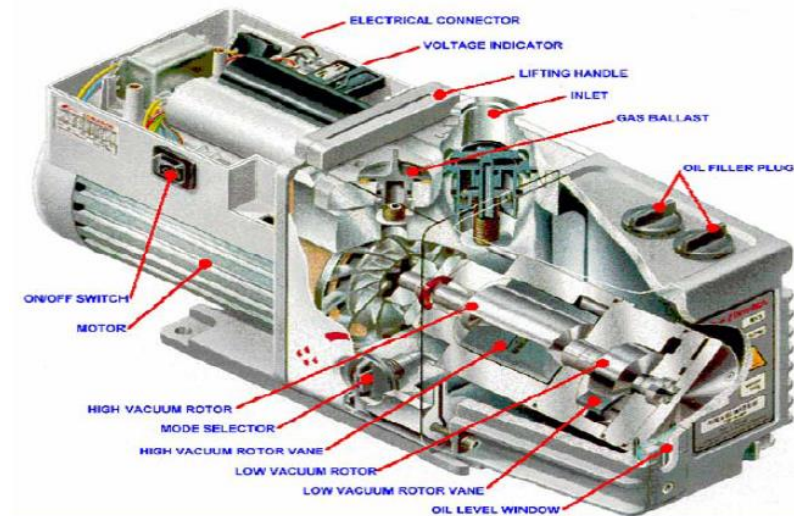
Primary Pumps

- Are used to pump down from atmosphere down to 10^{-2} mbar with a speed of a few m^3/h
- They are usually used as a **backing pump** of turbomolecular pumps
- Two categories : dry and wet pumps.
- Dry pumps are expensive and need additional cooling (water)
- Wet pumps are operating with oil which acts as a sealing, a lubricant, a heat exchanger and protects parts from rust and corrosion

Oil Sealed Rotary Vane Pump

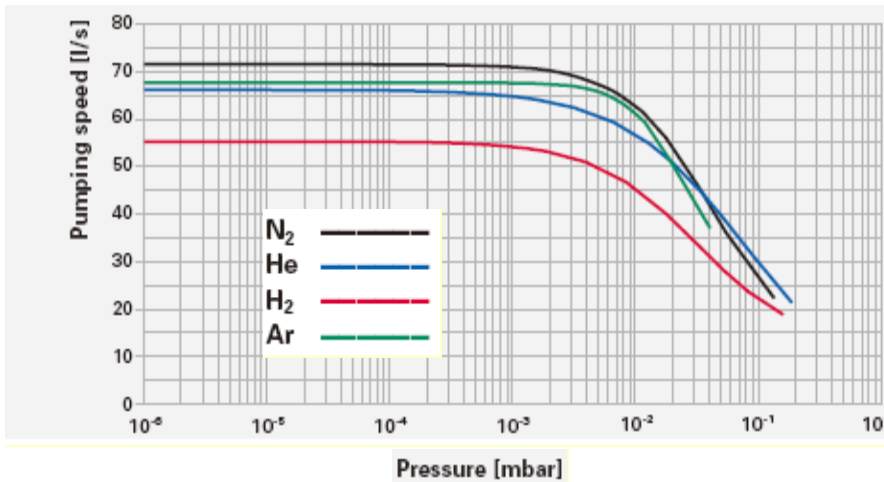


A.D. Chew. CAS Vacuum in accelerators CERN 2007-003



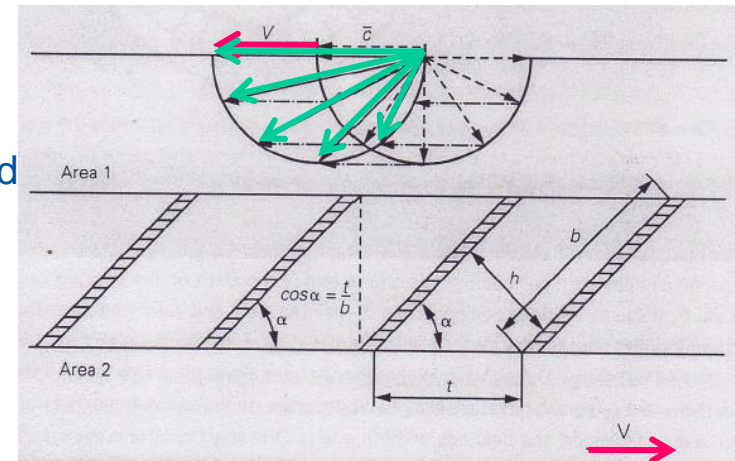
Turbomolecular Pump

- This pump operates in the molecular regime and is used to **pump down** an accelerator vacuum system. Usually, it is installed with its primary pump on a mobile trolley : it can be removed after valving off
- Its ultimate pressure can be very low : 10^{-11} mbar
- Its pumping speed range from 10 to 3 000 l/s



Picture Pfeiffer

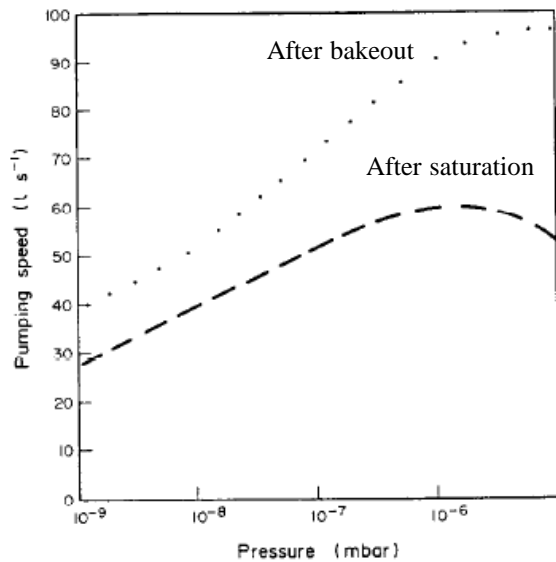
- The pumping mechanism is based on the **transfer of impulse**. When a molecule collides a blade, it is adsorbed for a certain length of time. After re-emission, the blade speed is added to the thermal speed of the molecules. To be significant, the blade speed must be comparable to the thermal speed hence it requires fast moving surfaces (~ 40 000 turns/min)



- The compression ratio (P_{inlet}/P_{outlet}) increase exponentially with \sqrt{M} : **“clean” vacuum without hydrocarbons**. So, the oil contamination from the primary pump is avoided

Sputter Ion Pump

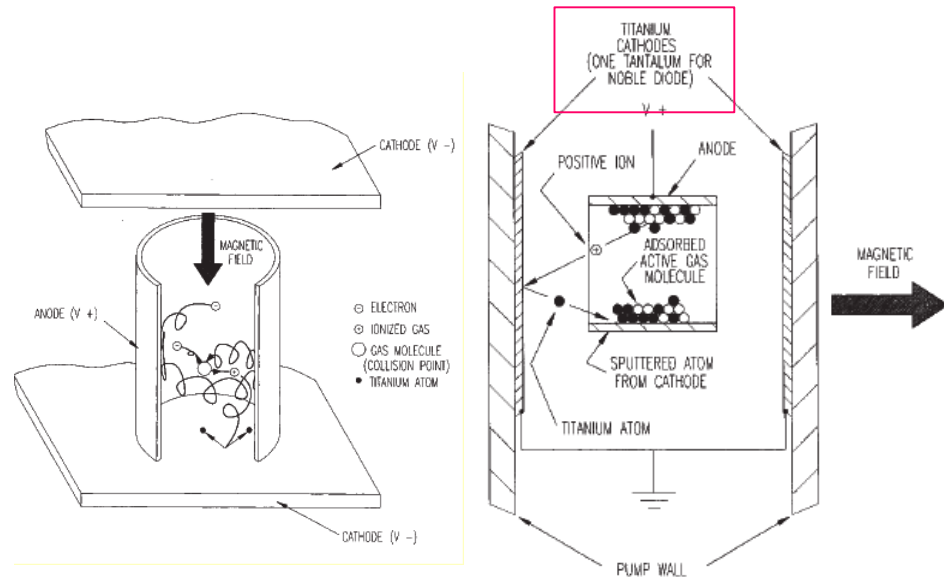
- This pump operates in the range 10^{-5} - 10^{-11} mbar. It is used to maintain the pressure in the vacuum chamber of an accelerator.
- Their pumping speed ranges from 1 to 500 l/s
- When electrons spiral in the Penning cell, they ionize molecules. Ions are accelerated towards the cathode (few kV) and sputter Ti. Ti, which is deposited onto the surfaces, forms a chemical bonding with molecules from the residual gas. Noble gases and hydrocarbons, which do not react with Ti, are buried or implanted onto the cathode.
- **Advantage** : like for a Penning gauge, the collected current is proportional to the pressure. It is also used for interlock.



M. Audi. Vacuum 38 (1988) 669-671



Picture Varian

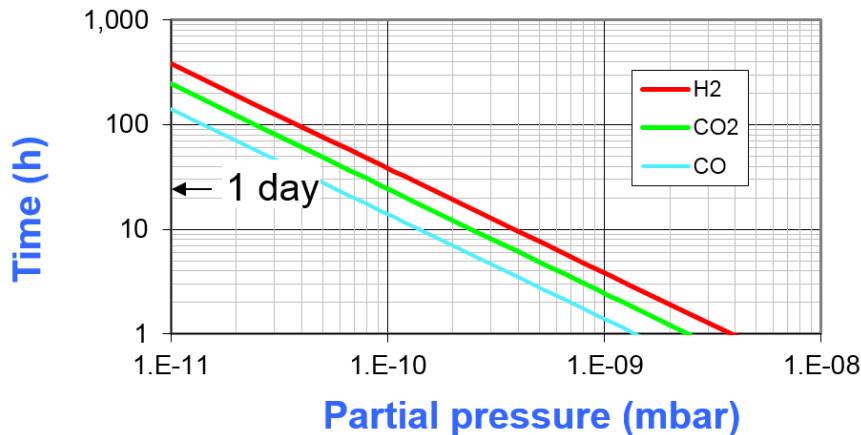


Sublimation pump

Complementary information

- This pumps operates in the UHV regime in a range $\ll 10^{-9}$ mbar
- It is used as a **complementary** pumping system to e.g. ion pumps.
- Their pumping speed is very large : $\sim 5\,000$ l/s, typical surface ~ 1000 cm²
- A Ti filament is sublimated by Joule effect. Ti is adsorbed on the vacuum chamber wall and provides molecular pumping by a “gettering” effect.
- Getterable gases are H₂, H₂O, O₂, CO, O₂, CO₂ and,
- When assisted with liquid N₂ cooling H₂ pumping speed is boosted
- Sublimation at regular intervals is needed.

Saturation time of a sublimation pump



l/s cm ⁻²	H ₂	D ₂	H ₂ O	CO	N ₂	O ₂	CO ₂
300 K	2.6	3.1	7.3	8.2	3.5	8.7	4.7
77 K	17.0	6.2	14.6	11.0	8.2	11.0	9.3

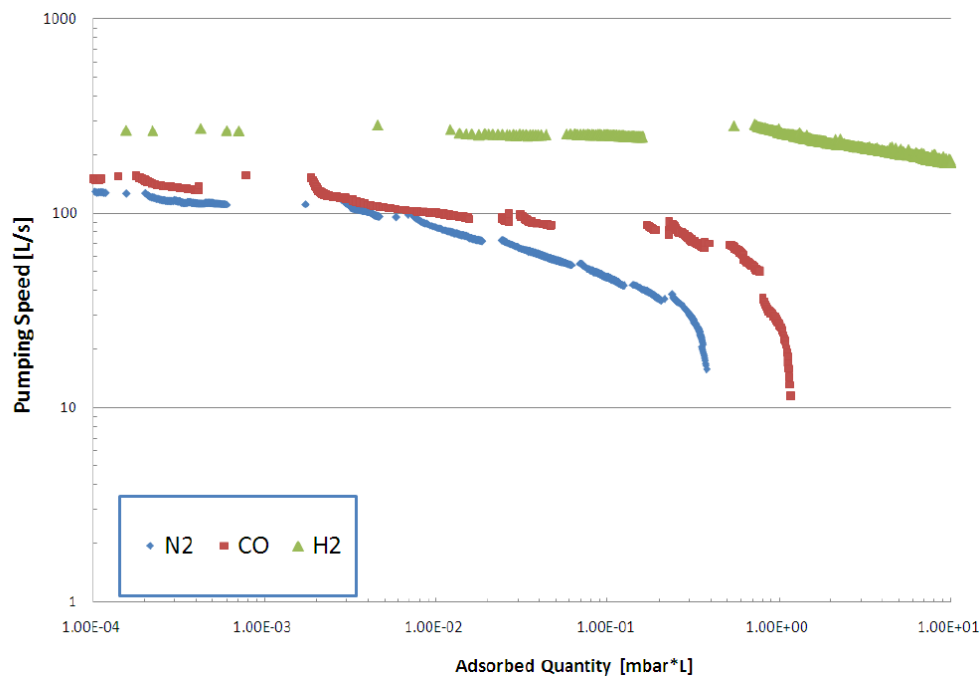
K. Welch, Capture pumping technology, Pergamon press, 1991



NEG cartridge

Complementary information

- This pumps operates in the UHV regime in a range $< 10^{-8}$ mbar
- It is used as a **complementary** pumping system to e.g. ion pumps.
- Zr based **getter materials** are sintered into porous disks.
- After activation at $\sim 500^{\circ}\text{C}$ for 1h, the pumping speed can be large: 100 – 2 000 l/s
- Large sorption capacity: $>0.1 - 10$ mbar.l for N_2 , CO and > 10 mbar.l for H_2 !
- Reminder: 1 mbar.l = $4.3 \cdot 10^{19}$ molecules, ~ 1 monolayers of a 10m long, $\varnothing 10$ tube
- H_2 diffuse into the bulk, CO is adsorbed in 1 active site whereas N_2 requires 6.
- Gas mixture: CO adsorption inhibit H_2 and N_2 pumping

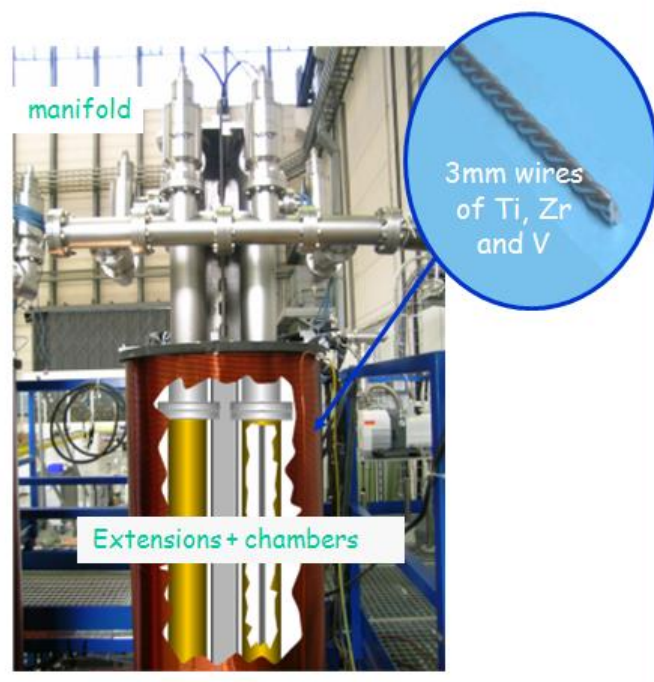


Courtesy G. Bregliozzi, J. Callagher, 2012

Neg coated chamber

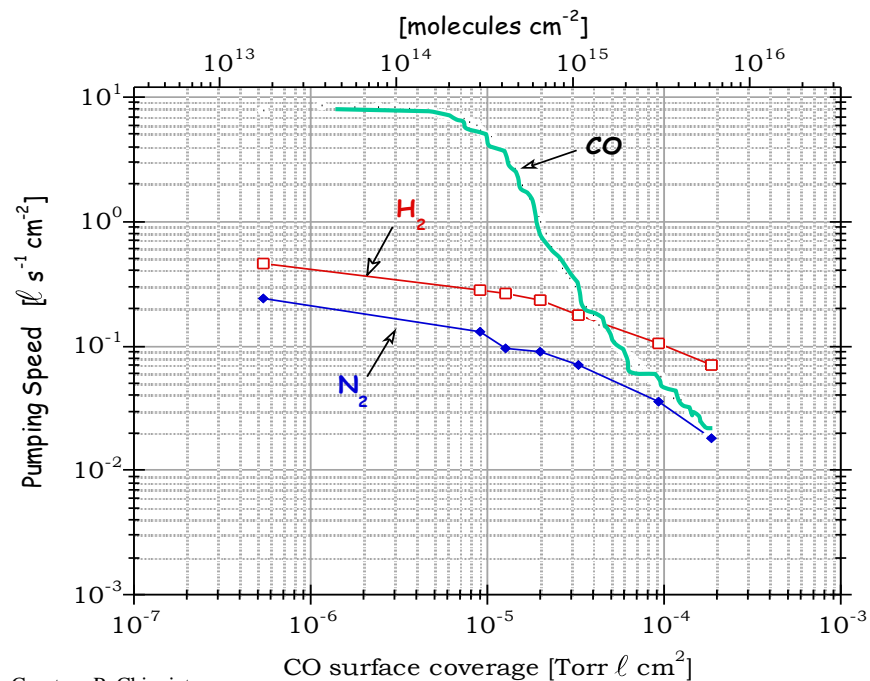
Complementary information

- A $\sim 1 \mu\text{m}$ getter film made of TiZrVa is coated inside a vacuum chamber
- Ti-Zr-V is coated by magnetron sputtering with Kr gas



P. Costa Pinto, P. Chiggiato / Thin Solid Films 515 (2006) 382-388

Pumping Speed



Courtesy P. Chiggiato

- Very large pumping speed : $\sim 250 \text{ l/s/m}$ for H_2 , $20\,000 \text{ l/s.m}$ for CO
- Very low outgassing rate
- **But** : limited capacity and fragile coating sensitive to pollutant (hydrocarbons, Fluor ...)

Lecture 1 summary

- The kinetics of gas molecules is described by a **Maxwell-Boltzmann distribution**.
- The pressure is defined by the **ideal gas law**.
- As a function of **mean free path**, several regime of flow exists.
- The **molecular flow** is the regime of vacuum systems: the molecules interact **only** with the vacuum chamber wall.
- The **conductance** characterise the pressure drop along a vacuum component
- The pressure in a vessel is defined by the ratio of the **gas flow** to the **pumping speed**
- Main components for vacuum measurement are: Pirani, Penning, Bayart-Alpert gauges and residual gas analysers
- Main devices for vacuum pumping are: primary, turbomolecular and ion pumps.

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Some Journals Related to Vacuum Technology

- Journal of vacuum science and technology
- Vacuum

Thank you for your attention !!!



