

Stopping and trapping the plasma in a poloidal magnetic field depends on toroidal symmetry to close the currents generated in moving into such a field. In fact, when the plasma is known to be asymmetric, trapping does not occur. Interferometer data measuring the trapped plasma indicates that essentially all the particles were trapped. This result coupled with the magnetic probe results seemed to justify the assumptions of toroidal symmetry.

More recently, in order to increase the plasma energy, a larger, low inductance driver was installed in the system. This system has a total inductance of 13.5 nanohenries for capacitors, switch, leads and gun; so that the new system shows efficiencies of greater than 50% of the energy in the capacitor delivered to the first burst of plasma. This system under limited tests has given a plasma velocity of 45 cm/microsecond for a burst of 8×10^{18} particles corresponding to a Mach 6 plasma.

The use of a bias magnetic field parallel to the driving magnetic field in a plasma gun has the advantage that it is inherently more efficient and less dirty. This can be seen from Equation (1) where the driver term is proportional to $(I^2 + 2 I I_0)$. I_0 is the bias current and I the plasma current. Since the plasma current is introduced through electrodes, this interaction is reduced when I is reduced. Also apparent from Equation (3), small values of I lead to higher electrical efficiency for the same drive.

The disadvantage to using a bias current is that the current is closed outside the plasma and the plasma is created within a coil structure. To form a compact torus it is necessary to remove the plasma from the coil by passing through spokes.

Removing the plasma from the coil may not be as difficult as it first seems. Predicting the behavior of the plasma is simplified if the plasma is moving at supersonic velocities. In the experiments so far performed with the toroidal plasma gun there has been a range of Mach numbers of from 2 to 6. Higher energy plasmas can be expected to give even higher Mach numbers.

Consider a toroidal plasma with a toroidal field moving with a Mach number, M . The toroidal field is produced by a current I_0 flowing through the center of the system and returned through n bars each carrying I_0/n amperes. We make the approximation that the magnetic field near the bars is given by $B = 2I_0/rn$ Gauss where r is the distance from the center of each bar. The toroidal magnetic field in the plasma is approximately $B_0 = 2I_0/R_0$ Gauss. (The actual field is slightly higher due to a paramagnetic effect in the plasma as is characteristic of the Tokamak configuration.)

As plasma approaches the bars the plasma is compressed. However, the disturbance cannot be communicated to the rest of the plasma because of the supersonic flow. A characteristic bow shock then forms with a stand off distance such that the magnetic field pressure near the bar balances the directed momentum of the plasma, i.e., $1/2 \rho v^2 = B^2/8\pi$ or $v = B/\sqrt{4\pi\rho}$ where v is the velocity of the plasma. Thus going through the bars disturbs a plasma of width $2r$ where $r = 2I_0/Bn$. In the limit of high Mach number and a thin plasma the fraction of plasma disturbed by the bars is $f = 2nr/2\pi R_0$. Using the fact that $B/B_0 = M$ we find $f = 1/M^2$. Thus for large Mach number, the bulk of the plasma passes through the bars unaffected. However, it is interesting

to speculate on the integrity of the magnetic configuration after passing through the bars.

Alfvén's theorem states that in a frame of reference, moving with and within a plasma, the magnetic field remains constant. Thus changes in magnetic field geometry are confined to the perturbances created at the bars where the plasma is cut. Since the cut is very thin, we can assume at some point down stream that the toroidal magnetic field will be symmetric and reconnection will have taken place. The question is thus one of asking in what distance or in what time this reconnection takes place. One notes that as the plasma flows by the bars, the field lines are bent, the volume available for the plasma to fill by flow along magnetic field lines becomes larger and larger. One also notes that there is a magnetic x-point or line in this region behind the bars. It has been shown³ that in the region of an x-point reconnection can take place at the Alfvén velocity if it is accompanied by flow along magnetic field lines which drains plasma from the region of reconnection. Thus, in the region behind the bars reconnection can be expected to proceed at the Alfvén velocity. Since the plasma in this region can be expected to be subsonic and reconnection fast, this implies that the magnetic configuration will be effectively unchanged as the plasma passes through the bars.

As mentioned above, the current apparatus includes a large toroidal field coil surrounding a smaller poloidal field coil which is used in the plasma trapping experiments. The toroidal field coil has 16 turns. These turns can be shorted using thin rods near the muzzle of the gun. This would then leave the bias current and the poloidal field coil structure intact. Thus, a plasma produced by the gun would have to pass through the coil structure before interacting with the poloidal field. However, after passing through the coil, if the plasma maintains its configurational integrity it will not be able to penetrate the poloidal field and a sharp boundary of penetration of the plasma will be observed. However, unlike the current experiment where the plasma is trapped in place, in the proposed experiment the plasma can be expected to bounce back toward the gun. If this experiment is successful a very simple extension will lead to the formation of a compact torus.

¹ Lawrence Berkeley Laboratory, Report LBL-9507

² C. Marshall in "Plasma Acceleration (S. Kash, ed.) Stanford University Press, Stanford, California (1959).

³ V. Lunas, Review of Geophysics and Space Physics, 13, 303 (1975).

RECONNECTION CONDITIONS FOR FLOWING FIELD-REVERSED PLASMA FROM A PLASMA GUN

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Although various theoretical models are known for magnetic reconnection, (1),(2) none of them are applicable to the BETA-II experiment because they do not model the plasma flow conditions. The coaxial gun produces a plasma stream with an axial velocity of $\sim 10^8$ cm/sec. In the plasma rest frame an aperture or snipper coil would appear to move in the opposite direction at this same velocity.

A more suitable model for the BETA-II reconnection problem was formulated based on the equations of fluid flow through a nozzle. Assuming a sharp-boundary model for the plasma (fig. 1), Bernouilli's law for an adiabatic fluid leads to an equation for the axial plasma velocity u:

$$u = u_m \left[1 - (P/P_s) (1 - 1/\gamma) \right]^{1/2} \quad (1)$$

where u_m is the maximum velocity (at $P = 0$), and P_s is the stagnation pressure. The plasma density ρ and stagnation density ρ_s are given by

$$\rho = \rho_s (P/P_s)^{1/\gamma} \text{ and } \rho_s = \frac{2\gamma}{\gamma-1} \frac{P_s}{u_m^2} \quad (2)$$

Using the long thin approximation for the magnetic field, the plasma pressure P for the sharp boundary model equals the magnetic pressure

$$P = B^2/8\pi \quad \text{and field } B \text{ is } B = (\phi_o + 2\phi_i)/\pi R^2 \quad (3)$$

where R is the wall radius, ϕ_o is the open field line flux, and ϕ_i is the field-reversed flux. The mean radius r of the plasma is:

$$r = (R/\sqrt{2}) (1 - \phi_o/\pi R^2 B)^{1/2} \quad (4)$$

The plasma thickness $2a$ is assumed to be small compared to the radius r , and is obtained from the equation of continuity:

$$a = F/(4\pi r u \rho) \quad (5)$$

where F is the mass flow rate (gm/sec).

The diffusion of the magnetic field causes a loss of field-reversal flux ϕ_i . From Faraday's law one obtains

$$\dot{\phi}_i = -2\pi r B D/a \quad (6)$$

*Work performed under the auspices of the U.S. Department of Energy by the Lawrence Livermore Laboratory under contract number W-7405-ENG-48."

where the diffusivity $D = \eta / 4 \pi$, η being the electric resistivity. A simple approximation for η is

$$\eta \text{ (emu)} = \left[\frac{10^{-8}}{(T_e)^{3/2}} \right] \exp \left(\frac{v_D^2}{v_i^2} \right) \quad (7)$$

where the term in brackets is the classical collisional resistivity,⁽⁴⁾ T_e is the electron temperature in eV, v_D is the electron drift velocity, and v_i is the ion thermal velocity. The exponential term approximates the effect of unstable anomalous conductivity effects near their threshold. As these turbulent effects try to grow, the increased diffusivity D causes the current sheath to broaden, thus lowering the electron drift velocity v_D and stabilizing the current sheath.⁽⁵⁾ The electron temperature T_e is fixed at 50eV, in agreement with plasma gun experiments. It is assumed to be constant throughout the flow due to its high parallel thermal conductivity. The ion temperature T_i is much higher ($T_i \gg T_e$), so that the adiabatic equations (1) - (3) apply to the ions only.

These equations were combined into a differential equation for the rate of change of pressure with axial distance z .

$$\frac{dP}{dz} = \frac{1}{-R^2} \left(\frac{P}{2\pi} \right)^{1/2} \frac{d\phi_0}{dz} - \frac{8\pi R D P}{u A R^2} \quad (8)$$

where the first term approximates the clipper coil effect, and the second term is the diffusive effect.

Figure 2 presents results for one example, where $\gamma = 5/3$, $u_m = 100 \text{ cm}/\mu \text{ sec}$, $z_m = 200 \text{ cm}$, $R = 20 \text{ cm}$, $F = 6 \text{ gm/sec}$, $P_s = 2 \text{ atm}$, $P_0 = .25 \text{ atm}$, and $T_e = 50 \text{ eV}$. In this example,

$$\phi_0 \text{ (MG-cm}^2\text{)} = 4\pi \frac{z}{z_m} \left(1 - \frac{z}{z_m} \right) \quad (9)$$

The largest flux losses are found to occur in the low field regions where the plasma density is lowest (Figure 2). Additional calculations showed that the flux losses increase strongly with decreasing mass flow rate F . These trends were traced to the sheath-broadening effect of the anomalous resistivity factor in eq. (7).

Figure 3 shows a two-dimensional MHD calculation⁽⁶⁾ of a similar problem, but here the clipper coil flux ϕ_0 is time-dependent. At $t = 11.2 \mu \text{ sec}$ one of the plotted flux surfaces has reconnected near $z = 152 \text{ cm}$ due to magnetic diffusion downstream from the clipper coil. The velocity plot shows strong axial velocity divergence in that region because the upstream flow is being stagnated by the clipper coil. This lowers the mass flow rate F near $z = 152$, thus enhancing the anomalous diffusion effects, with consequent enhanced reconnection.

In summary, low density and low flow rate regions experience enhanced diffusion which broadens the current sheaths. When the width of these current sheaths approaches the scale size of the plasma, reconnection is rapid. A clipper coil compresses and stagnates the upstream flow, but the reconnection region is downstream where the flow rate is minimal.

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FIGURE 1
NOZZLE ANALOGY

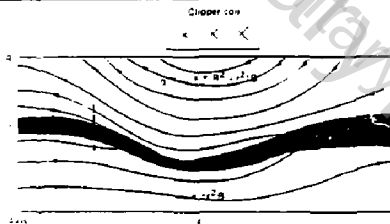
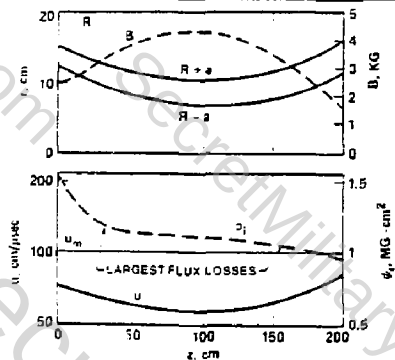


FIGURE 2
REFERENCE CASE RESULTS



NOTICE

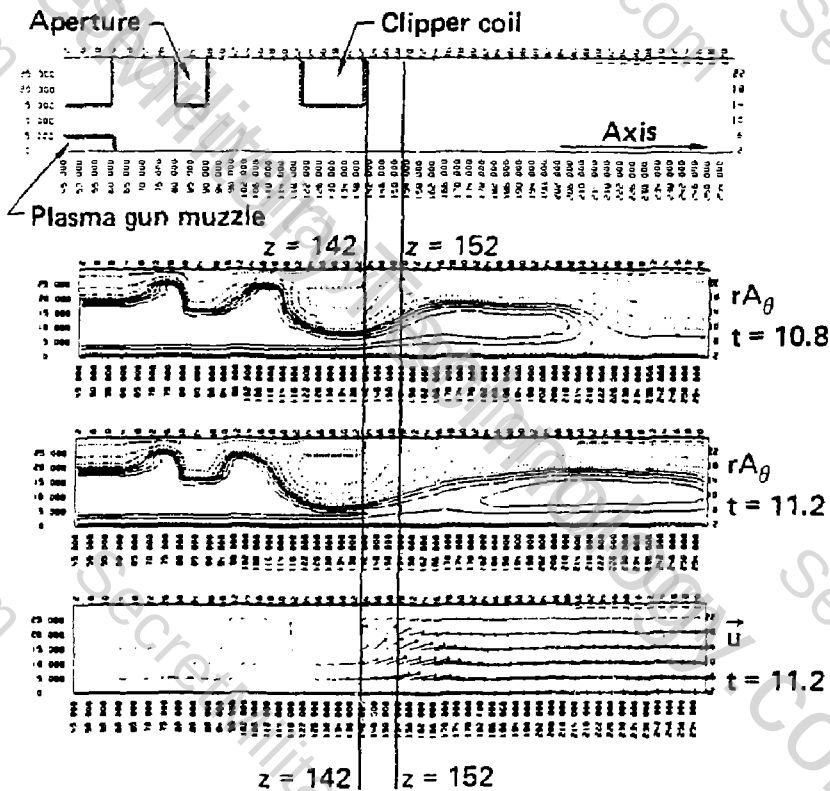
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FIGURE 3
2D MHD CALCULATIONS
OF REVERSED-FIELD PLASMA FLOW

$$\phi_i = 1.0 \text{ MG-cm}^2$$

$$\phi_0 = 14.1 \sin \frac{\pi}{2} (t - 10.4)$$



PHYSICS OF THE OHTE

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It is commonly known that stable toroidal magnetic plasma confinement requires both poloidal and toroidal magnetic fields. In axisymmetric confinement, the poloidal field is generated by toroidally directed plasma currents, while the toroidal field is supplied by external coils (tokamak), plasma paramagnetism (spheromak), or a combination of the two (reversed-field pinch). In tokamaks the dangerous $m=1$ current-driven kink is stabilized by periodicity ($q \gg 1$) while average magnetic well stabilizes the interchange modes. This q -limit drives tokamak designs toward low aspect ratios in order to obtain β values sufficient for fusion. In reversed-field pinches (RFPs) a conducting shell and magnetic shear ($q < 1$) provide stability. Since toroidal periodicity is irrelevant in RFPs, "cylindrical" tori of high aspect ratio are preferred. Relatively compact fusion reactors have thus been predicted, taking advantage of the high engineering β and the likelihood of ohmically heating the plasma to ignition.

The poloidal field may also be produced independently of plasma currents in helically symmetric toroidal systems by the combination of the magnetic field from a helical winding (helical field) with a strong externally generated toroidal field to provide rotational transform. This is the basis of stellarator and torsatron devices. Like tokamaks, they are limited to $q \gg 1$ and to low β .

It is also possible to provide a net toroidal field by translational transform through the combination of a helical field with a predominantly poloidal field ($q < 1$), such as that of a paramagnetic pinch, and this is the basis of OHTE confinement. The similarities and differences among these toroidal systems are illustrated in Figure 1. Ideal MHD stability

in low- q systems at high β requires high shear throughout the plasma. This is achieved only if $q(r)$ decreases monotonically and reverses, and in fact, RFP experiments yield stable plasmas at higher β than stabilized pinches without reversal. The reversal of q in RFPs is achieved either by fast programming of the toroidal field during plasma setup or by self-reversal when the pinch ratio $\beta = B_z / \langle B_t \rangle$ at the plasma boundary exceeds a profile-dependent value typically between 1 and 2.

TOROIDAL MAGNETIC CONFINEMENT

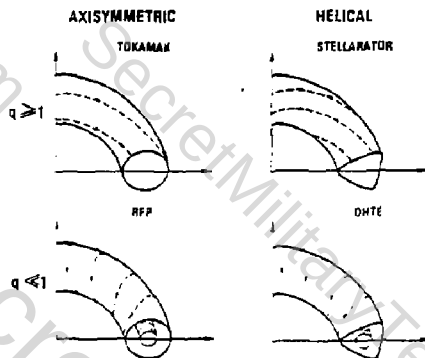


Fig. 1: A comparison of tokamak, stellarator, RFP, and OHTE configurations.

However, in RFP experiments self-reversal is driven either by turbulence (hence poor confinement) or by a reversed toroidal E-field (Poynting vector out of the plasma, hence a transient situation). In OHTE a steady-state q-reversal is independently imposed on the outer portion of the plasma by the evanescent helical field; q in the interior is determined by the plasma current profile and paramagnetism as in a conventional RFP. Since the OHTE aspect ratio may be large, it is technically feasible to drive large plasma currents inductively for long times. Calculations show that ohmic heating to ignition will be possible if energy loss is not much worse than Alcator na² empirical confinement. Because of the large shear, δ is expected to be high. Therefore, an OHTE reactor should be smaller and simpler than a tokamak.

Ideal MHD numerical calculations in the straight helical plasma approximation with varying degrees of paramagnetism and a range of profile parameters have been performed for $\ell=2$ and $\ell=3$ configurations to map the parameter space of OHTE equilibria. Figures 2 and 3 illustrate typical $\ell=2$ OHTE flux surfaces and pitch ($P=qR$) versus helical flux profile, respectively. Numerical equilibria are being tested for local, pressure-driven ideal interchange stability using the criteria given by Mercier (1) and Greene and Johnson (2). The minimum energy force-free helical pinch analytical equilibrium given by Taylor (3) is a special case of the $\ell=1$ OHTE.

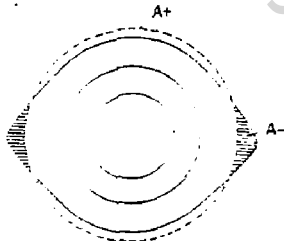


Fig. 2: Typical $\ell=2$ calculated OHTE flux surfaces.

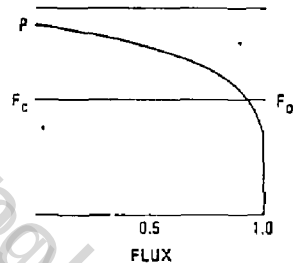


Fig. 3: Plot of a typical pitch versus flux profile. P_c and P_0 are central and plasma boundary fluxes, respectively.

Field line tracing was used to study the loss of q-reversed volume owing to error fields. In this calculation, the transform reversal persisted for both a uniform vertical field and a local stray field up to 7% of the poloidal field at the separatrix.

Free boundary current-driven instabilities in helical plasmas have been investigated by two techniques. The first is to use averaged fields in the circular mode equation given by Robinson (4). It is found that helically enhanced pitch reversal tends to draw resonant surfaces inward, transforming some kinks into tearing modes. A stabilizing contribution for kink modes is also obtained for a given current profile. The second technique is to analyze

the helical free-boundary force-free equilibrium $\nabla \times \mathbf{B} = \alpha \mathbf{B}$ in a circular conducting cylinder, adopting the approach of Rosenbluth and Bussac (5). The analysis can be formulated analytically when the perturbation has the same periodicity as the plasma. A shift of the mode resonant surfaces is again found, and the stability condition is the same as for a mode of the same helicity in a cylindrical equilibrium.

The OHTE experiment is under construction and is expected to begin operation late in 1980. It consists of a single, thin stainless steel bellows vacuum chamber bakeable to 125°C and pumped by turbomolecular pumps. The major radius is 1.24 m and the maximum internal minor radius is 0.19 m. The vacuum chamber is surrounded by an aluminum alloy conducting shell 15 mm thick, with internal minor radius 0.20 m, which provides stabilization against plasma kinking. The flux penetration time through the shell is approximately 40 ms. The shell also supports and aligns the helical winding, which is assembled by bolting together machined copper half-turn segments. An $i=3$, $m=16$ helical winding driven by a motor-generator-rectifier system was selected for the initial experiments. A toroidal field up to 0.4 tesla in either direction can be produced by supplying unequal currents to the positive and negative helical windings. A separate vertical field system is used to null the vertical field resulting from this mode of toroidal field generation, maintain plasma radial equilibrium for long discharges, and cancel the local stray fields at the conducting shell gap when radial equilibrium is maintained by image currents in the shell. Plasma current is driven inductively by an independent coil, which is rated for a 2.25 weber flux swing (unidirectional current) to allow for at least 200 ms discharges at 300 kA. The coil is designed for either inductive storage or externally driven modes of operation.

It is expected that the filling gas will break down inside a small diameter $i=3$ stellarator confinement volume produced by the strong helical field and a weak toroidal field. Current rise time will be 2 to 10 ms, and gas puffing will be used in attempting to program plasma density. If the electron energy loss obeys the empirical Alcator law, it is expected that central plasma temperatures will be 41 keV.

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FORMATION OF TOROIDAL PLASMA CONFINEMENT CONFIGURATIONS BY USING HOT ELECTRONS *

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I. INTRODUCTION

There exist a variety of reasons (and configurations) for employing hot electrons in toroidal or mirror-toroidal hybrid confinement. In addition to in situ heating of dense plasma,¹ the hot electron diamagnetic current can be employed to shape hydromagnetically unstable field configurations, as in EBT,² or to increase the allowable β of a closed system as in Tormac.³ Alternatively, hot electron current along B , nearly dissipationless if classical, can be used to "construct" toroidal, pinch-like fields as in SPIRE.⁴ In either case the tendency of hot electron plasma to be immune from usual MHD instability can play an important role.

This note discusses possible means of producing closed, toroidal pinch-like configurations with hot electrons starting from a collisionless, mirror-confined, hot electron plasma. The final configurations are directly related to Spheromak, Tormac, and the stabilized Z-pinch.

II. Initial Plasma and Field Shape

The "preheat" phase consists of establishing a mirror confined hot electron plasma either by well-known ECR heating or by injecting energetic electrons from a pulse source. Possible axisymmetric initial mirror configurations are shown in Fig. 1.

Typically, at the end of ECR heating or injection, a hot electron plasma could be produced with parameters, $n_{eh} = 10^{11} - 10^{12} \text{ cm}^{-3}$, $T_{eh} = 0.1 - 0.5 \text{ MeV}$, and $\beta = 0.2 - 0.7$. If all of n_{eh} could be directed to carry current at $v_p = c$, current densities of $500 - 5000 \text{ A/cm}^2$ would be achieved.

III. Toroidal Pinch Formation

Starting with the toroidal hexapole mirror (Fig. 1a), the formation of a hot electron pinch has been discussed earlier neglecting all contributions to current other than by hot electrons.⁴ A driving flux is introduced inside the x-point radius which induces toroidal pinch current to modify the poloidal field configuration of Fig. 1a to that shown in Fig. 2 which is qualitatively the same as that obtained in the Tokapole.⁵ The subsequent buildup of current and collisionless reconnection of field lines in an anisotropic plasma can be seen from a single particle viewpoint. Guiding center trajectories shown in Fig. 2 drift perpendicular to B_p with velocity $v_D = \vec{E}_t \times \vec{B}_p / B_p^2$ as in Ware pinching in tokamaks

* Work performed under the auspices of the U.S. Department of Energy by the Lawrence Livermore Laboratory under contract number W-7405-ENG-48.

when the driving flux ψ is changed. At the X-point the banana undergoes a topological change (Fig. 2c). Further drift carries the banana into tokamak-like orbits which drift towards the O-point to enter passing orbits as shown in Fig. 2b. Passing occurs when either the reflection points merge or when the banana flattens to encompass the O-point, depending on the particle gyroradius and the field distribution. Electrons on passing orbits are then accelerated by E_t contributing current to pinch buildup. Outside the closed region almost all electrons oscillate in v and j is a purely diamagnetic current. It would appear therefore that field reconnection would be uninhibited by the hot electrons.

IV. Spheromak/Tormac Formation

The formation of a Spheromak/Tormac configuration begins with the Levitron-like, Min B mirror shown in Fig. 1b or the gun configuration of Fig. 1c. To form an isolated, closed field region in Fig. 1b the current in the two small radius coils would be increased as shown in Fig. 3. In Fig. 1c the gun would be fired with the emerging plasma and embedded B_t stretching the field to cause reconnection and an isolated ring. Electron guiding center orbits (similar for both Fig. 1b and 1c) undergo topological transitions as illustrated in Fig. 3. Additional electrons trapped against the toroidal field gradient, have banana orbits which do not intersect the midplane. These orbits undergo the transitions described earlier into trapped, tokamak-like bananas and bananas trapped on the small major radius side of the midplane ring.

The orbits shown in Fig. 3 all make a transition to passing electrons in the pinch region and are accelerated by the flux change of the small radius rings to increase the pinch current. If the small radius ring current in Fig. 1b is turned off, the pinch would be attracted to the outer ring and the outer x-point would flatten forming a Tormac bicuspid configuration imbedded in a hot electron, mirror confined plasma.

If the outer ring is levitated, plasma formation without a vacuum toroidal field becomes possible. For this case the electron guiding center orbits collapse to zero poloidal width and nearly coincide with poloidal flux surfaces. The transition in orbit topology at the x-point takes place by nonadiabatic scattering at the x-point ($B_\theta = 0$) and the field lines reconnect in the presence of both hot electrons and cold plasma. The resulting pinch (or field-reversed-mirror) current would be carried largely by diamagnetic current of the hot electrons. The ring without B_t would be expected to be hydromagnetically unstable. However stability may be achieved by the tendency of hot electrons to be immune from MHD and other instabilities in the presence of dense cold plasma when the precessional drift frequency exceeds the ion gyrofrequency.

Alternatively, if a toroidal field is necessary for stability, the potential of very long lifetime of the hot electron rings (1-10 seconds) makes it possible to turn off the external toroidal field, remove the winding, and remove the ring on a technically nondemanding timescale.

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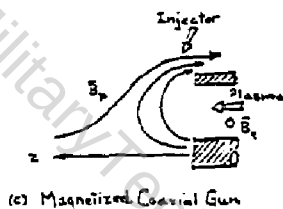
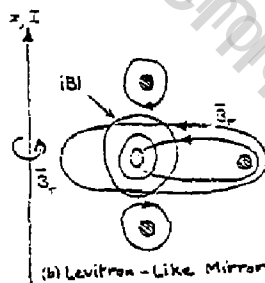
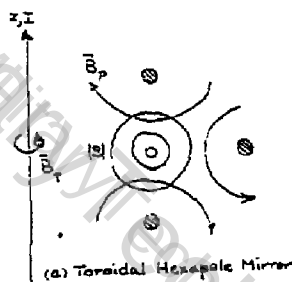


Fig. 1 (a) ψ mirror formed by 2 supported current loops and B_z . (b) ψ mirror is in (a) and (c) mirror at the muzzle of a magnetized coaxial plasma gun.

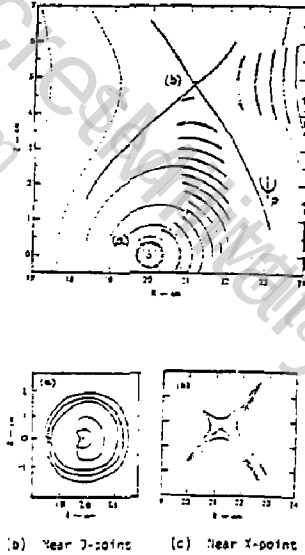


Fig. 2 Guiding Center drifts for Fig. 1a.

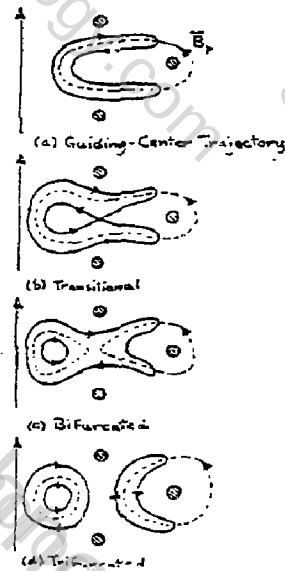


Fig. 3 Guiding-center orbits for Fig. 1b.

PARTICLE-FLUID HYBRID SIMULATION OF FIELD REVERSAL IN A MIRROR PLASMA

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A one-dimensional, cylindrically symmetric hybrid simulation code has been developed to investigate field reversal in a mirror plasma. The fluid momentum equation is used to determine the electron current density with $n_e m_e d\bar{v}_e/dt = 0$ and $n_e \approx n_i$. Large-orbit ions are followed by integrating particle equations of motion. Momentum-conserving electron-ion drag is included. Ion current is accumulated on a radial grid. $J_\theta^i + J_\theta^e$ is used in Ampere's law to determine the magnetic flux $\psi = rA_\theta$, and from Faraday's law $E_z = -\partial A_\theta/\partial t$. On open field lines $|\Delta\phi| \leq 4$ or $5 T_e$, and electrostatic effects on ion orbits are negligible for $T_e \ll T_i$. However, electron temperature clamping and shorting of electrostatic fields need not occur on closed field lines. Good parallel electron conductivity forces $\nabla_\parallel \phi \approx 0$; the code incorporates this by flux-tube averaging; $\nabla_\parallel \phi = (4\pi/3) \int_0^1 (4 - 3\bar{E}/\partial t) = 0 \Rightarrow \phi = \phi(\psi)$. Of particular interest in the simulation are relaxation of electron return currents opposing ion-beam injection, the role of Ohkawa currents in sustaining field reversal, and large ion orbit effects on the diffusion and relaxation of an initially field reversed equilibrium.

Physics ingredients in code:

- Axisymmetry ($\partial/\partial\theta = 0$) and $B_\theta = 0$
- Particle ions obeying Newton-Lorentz equations $\rightarrow j^{\text{ion}}$
- "Massless" fluid electrons with drag on ions $\rightarrow j^e(A_\theta, \phi)$
- Limited use of quasi-neutrality in electron momentum eq.
- Open field lines -- line-tying

$$e \sim T_e^{\text{cold}} \ll \frac{1}{2} m_{\text{ion}} \langle v_{\text{ion}}^2 \rangle$$

$$\left(\frac{r_z^2}{r^2} - \frac{1}{r^2}\right) A_\theta \approx -4 \frac{T}{c} j_\theta^{\text{ion}} \quad E_\theta = -\frac{1}{c} \frac{\partial A_\theta}{\partial t}$$

ion velocity-space loss hole

- Closed field lines

Simultaneous solution of

$$\left(\frac{r_z^2}{r^2} - \frac{1}{r^2}\right) A_\theta = -4 \frac{T}{c} [j_\theta^{\text{ion}} + j_\theta^e(A_\theta, \phi)]$$

and

$$\int \frac{d\theta}{B} \left[4 \pi (j_\theta^{\text{ion}} + j_\theta^e(A_\theta, \phi)) - \frac{3}{3T} \frac{r_z^2}{r^2} \right] = 0.$$

$$A_\theta, \phi \rightarrow \vec{E}, \vec{B}$$

Electron temperature evolution

- Injection of hot ions
- Boundary conditions: conducting radial limiter and continuity of A_θ and $\vec{B}$ at separatrix.

Code equations:

particle ions:

$$m_s \frac{d\vec{v}_s}{dt} = z_s e (\vec{E} + \vec{v}_s \times \vec{B}/c) + m_s \nu_{se} (\vec{v}_e - \vec{v}_s)$$

Eulerian mesh
s = species index

$$\frac{d\vec{x}_s}{dt} = \vec{v}_s$$

$$(\vec{x}_s, \vec{v}_s) \rightarrow \vec{J}_s, n_s$$

"massless" fluid electrons:

$$0 = -en_e \vec{E} - en_e \vec{v}_e \times \vec{B}/c - \nabla \cdot \vec{p}_e + \nu_{ei} \left[\sum_s n_s z_s^2 \langle \vec{v}_s \vec{v}_e \rangle \right]$$

where $\vec{p}_e = n_e T_{e\perp} \vec{I} + n_e (T_{e\parallel} - T_{e\perp}) \vec{b}\vec{b}$

$$\nu_{ei} = \frac{4\sqrt{2}\pi n_e e^4 \ln \Lambda}{3\sqrt{m_e} T_e^{3/2}} \quad (\text{classical}) \text{ or } \text{anomalous}$$

$\vec{B} = \vec{B}/B$

and $n_e \approx \sum_s z_s n_s$

$$-\vec{J}_e = n_e e \vec{v}_e = \text{nonlinear function of } \vec{E} \text{ and } \vec{B}$$

$T_e = \begin{cases} \text{cold} & \text{open field lines (line-tying)} \\ T_e(\text{flux, time}) & \text{due to convection and} \\ & \text{Coulomb collisions with ions on closed lines} \end{cases}$

or $P_e = P_e(\psi, t)$

Field equations:

For axisymmetry ($\partial/\partial\theta = 0$) and $B_\theta = 0$, $\vec{A} = \frac{r e_\theta}{r}$ and

$$\left(\nabla^2 - \frac{1}{r^2}\right) A_\theta = \frac{-4\pi}{c} [J_\theta^i + J_\theta^e(A_\theta, \phi)]$$

minuscule for $e\phi/T_e^{\text{cold}} = d(1)$

on open field lines

$$\vec{B} = \nabla \times \vec{A}_\theta \quad \vec{E}_\theta = -\frac{1}{c} \frac{\partial}{\partial t} \vec{A}_\theta$$

$\psi = \begin{cases} \text{Boltzmann-like on open field lines} - \text{negligible for } T_e^{\text{cold}} \ll \frac{1}{2} m v_{\text{ion}}^2 \\ \text{determined on closed lines by} \end{cases}$

$$\int \frac{d\vec{A} \cdot \vec{B}}{B^2} \nabla \cdot [4\pi \vec{J}_i + \vec{J}_e - \frac{\partial}{\partial t} \nabla \phi] = 0$$

$$\langle \partial\phi / \partial\psi \rangle = \dots$$

and $\frac{\vec{B}}{B}$ - electron momentum equation $\rightarrow$

$$e \frac{\partial \phi}{\partial s} = T_e(\psi) \frac{\partial}{\partial s} \ln n_e \quad \text{secondary dependence}$$

Solve equations iteratively. We guarantee continuity of A_θ and $\vec{B}$ at separatrix. There is a conducting wall at the radial limiter. An Eulerian mesh is used.

So far only a 1-D radial version of the code exists.

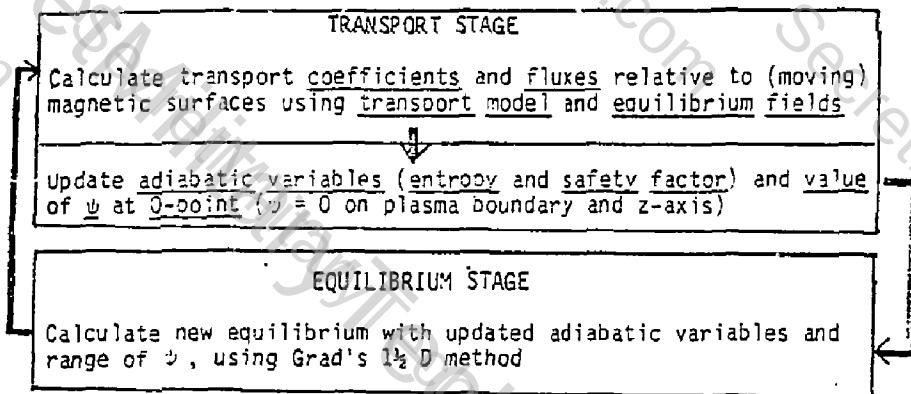
Work performed by Lawrence Livermore Laboratory for U.S. Department of Energy under contract W-7405-Eng-48

TWO DIMENSIONAL TIME-DEPENDENT TRANSPORT IN FIELD REVERSED EQUILIBRIA

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Goal: Study buildup, steady state and decay of field-reversed mirrors, with emphasis on studying effects of neutral beams.

Method: Our method is very similar to H. Grad's "1½-D" method, with some techniques from N. Byrne and H. Klein's G2M code. Each time step is carried out in two stages, a transport stage and an equilibrium stage, as outlined next.



The computation domain is shown in Fig. 1.

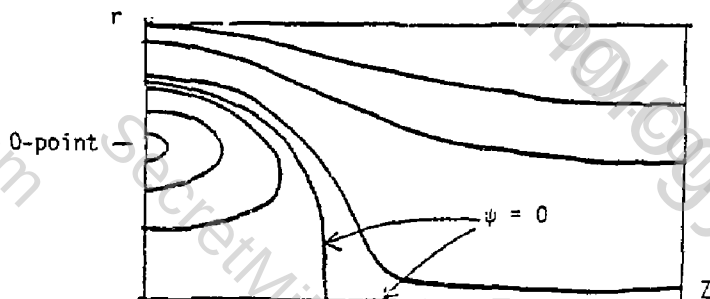


Fig. 1 Computational domain

The transport stage solves equations for the adiabatic variables: particle number, energy and safety factor. The adiabatic variables are conserved if there is no transport. In detail, we solve the following:

Particle Number:

$$\frac{D}{Dt} (n_r \frac{dV}{d\psi}) + \frac{d\Gamma_r}{d\psi} = \langle \sigma_n^r \rangle$$

Entropy:

$$\frac{DS_r}{Dt} + (\frac{dV}{d\psi})^{2/3} \left\{ \frac{1}{n_r} \frac{dP_r}{d\psi} \Gamma_r + \frac{5}{3} \Gamma_r \frac{d\Gamma_r}{d\psi} + \frac{2}{3} \frac{d}{d\psi} \langle q_r \cdot \nabla V \rangle \right\}$$

$$= \frac{2}{3} (\frac{dV}{d\psi})^{5/3} \langle Q_r - \underline{U}^r \cdot \underline{R}^r + \sigma_s^r \rangle$$

$$S_r = P_r (\frac{dV}{d\psi})^{5/3}$$

Safety Factor:

$$\frac{Dq}{Dt} = \frac{1}{4\pi^2} \frac{dV}{d\psi} \langle \underline{E} \cdot \underline{B} \rangle$$

Flux at 0-point

$$\frac{\partial \psi}{\partial t} \Big|_{0\text{-point}} = \frac{rc}{en_e} R_{e,0}$$

In these equations

$$D/Dt = \partial/\partial t \Big|_{\psi}$$

$$r = \text{species label}$$

$$\psi = \text{poloidal flux, } V = \text{volume inside a constant-}\psi \text{ surface.}$$

$$\langle \rangle = \text{denotes averaging over a constant-}\psi \text{ surface}$$

$$\langle \sigma_n^r \rangle = \text{particle source due to beams}$$

$$\langle \sigma_s^r \rangle = \text{entropy source due to beams}$$

$$\Gamma_r = \text{particle flux across (moving) constant-}\psi \text{ surface.}$$

$$\langle q_r \cdot \nabla V \rangle = \text{heat flux}$$

$$\langle Q_r \rangle = \text{temperature equilibration term}$$

$$\langle \underline{U}^r \cdot \underline{R}^r \rangle = \text{work against drag force } R$$

The last 4 terms above are computed from whatever transport model is used. At present, we have in place the full surface averaged Braginskii equations

The equilibrium stage alternates between solving the 2-D equilibrium equation ($B_z = 0$ for simplicity):

$$\nabla \cdot \left(\frac{1}{r^2} \nabla \psi \right) = -\frac{dP}{d\psi}$$

with

$$\psi = \psi(r, z)$$

$$P = P(\psi)$$

elliptic boundary conditions

and the surface averaged equilibrium equation

$$\frac{d}{dV} \left(K(V) \frac{d\psi}{dV} \right) = -\frac{d}{d} \left(S(\psi) \left(\frac{d\psi}{dV} \right)^{5/3} \right)$$

with

$$\psi = \psi(V)$$

$$S = S(\psi)$$

Boundary conditions at plasma edge and at 0-point

We iterate between these until consistency is achieved.

Some special features of the code:

- a) 2-D equation solved with 5-point ICCG algorithm on non-uniform r-z grid.
- b) We allow boundary conditions at infinity, or specified coil currents.
- c) We can deal with moving plasma boundary, and separatrix touching the r-axis.
- d) Surface averages near the 0-point are computed by fitting a polynomial to ψ near the 0-point, and using analytic formulae for averages.

Present status of the code:

- A) Equilibrium: the equilibrium solver and the $1\frac{1}{2}$ D algorithm have been extensively checked, using values of $S(\psi)$ computed analytically for Hill's vortex; i.e., we put in $S(\psi)$ and checked that the self-consistent solution reproduce Hill's vortex.
- B) Transport: the transport stage is working, though more testing is required.
- C) Interface: the interface between the transport and equilibrium stages is still being tested and debugged.

Acknowledgement: We would like to thank Dr. H. Grad for many useful conversations.

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A STEADY STATE BEAM DRIVEN FIELD-REVERSED MIRROR

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We present here a method for sustaining a current in a beam driven field reversed mirror. It has been shown¹ that attempts to drive steady state field reversed configurations (or Tokamaks, Spheromaks) with neutral beams may be foiled by electron currents. The plasma electrons are accelerated by collisional interaction with the beam-produced ion current, causing the net current to vanish asymptotically in time.

We show that the current cancellation can be avoided by weakly breaking the toroidal symmetry of the device, for instance by the addition of quadrupole magnetic fields. The symmetry breaking allows angular momentum transfer between the electrons and the external coil structures, without having plasma in contact with material surfaces. The momentum transfer is manifested as an additional drag force on the electrons, preventing them from accelerating to the ion velocity and cancelling the current.

The detailed mechanism for transferring momentum is magnetic pumping (synonymous with parallel viscosity, non-adiabatic pressure effects). The injected beam causes a toroidal flow which convects tubes of poloidal flux ($B_{\text{toroidal}} = 0$ for this analysis) in the ϕ direction. The flux tubes undergo a periodic compression-decompression as they move past the toroidally varying structure, causing electron pressure modulation. If the electron collision frequency, ν_e , were zero, the pressure would vary double-adiabatically, i.e., the magnetic moment and parallel velocity are conserved, at least in the long field line limit. If the electron collision frequency were large, $\nu_e/\Omega_{\text{rotation}} \gg 1$, the pressure variation would again be adiabatic, $P_e \sim n_e^{2/3}$. In the intermediate regime, $0 < \nu_e/\Omega_{\text{rotation}} < \infty$, the pressure may vary non-adiabatically, causing a net transfer of energy from the flow to electron thermal energy. Corresponding to the energy transfer is a force which damps the flow. This force is the extra drag force on electrons that prevents current cancellation.

To see how the extra force arises, examine electron force balance:

$$\nabla \cdot P_e + en_e(E + \underline{u}_e \times B) = m_e n_e \nu_e (\underline{u}_i - \underline{u}_e)$$

If we take the toroidal average of $1/en_e \times$ (toroidal component) of this equation we obtain:

$$\left\langle \frac{1}{en_e} \nabla \cdot P_e \right\rangle + E_p + \underline{u}_n B = n \omega_0$$

$\underline{u}_n$ = flow normal to flux surfaces

*This work was performed under the auspices of the U.S. Department of Energy by the Lawrence Livermore Laboratory under contract number W-7405-ENG-48.

This is the usual Ohm's law except for the pressure term, which might be described as a thermo-electric effect. For symmetric systems, $\hat{\phi} \cdot \nabla p_{1e} = 0$, so this term vanishes. For adiabatic non-symmetric systems, $\hat{\phi} \cdot \nabla p_{1e}$ and n_e would be 90° out of phase giving zero average. When collisions are included, a phase shift arises that gives a non-zero average. We find:

$$\left\langle \frac{1}{en_e} \hat{\phi} \cdot \nabla p_{1e} \right\rangle = \frac{v_e r^2}{3en_e u_e} p_{1e} \left\langle \left(\int d\phi \nabla \cdot \underline{u} \right)^2 \right\rangle$$

$$\text{for } v_e r / u_e \ll 1$$

This is always of the correct sign to prevent current cancellation.

Using a fluid ion model and the long, thin approximation self-consistent steady state equilibria have been obtained by including the extra drag term in Ohm's law. The size of the symmetry breaking perturbation, ϵ , must typically be of order 10^{-1} to obtain an equilibrium. The directed velocity of the beam must be of the order of the ion thermal velocity and the required particle input rate of the beam corresponds to a particle loss rate close to the classical diffusion rate. Explicit substitution of experimental parameters into the theory for devices at LLL (Beta II, MFTF) indicates that steady state equilibria may be maintained using the present beam current and voltage capabilities. The necessary symmetry breaking can be provided by the existing yin-yang coils. A limitation on available facilities, however, is the need to run the experiment for times longer than the resistive decay time in order to test the existence of a steady state.

Two other considerations are necessary to complete the theory. First, in the region within an electron orbit size of the field null, the electron fluid equations break down. This is an important region since any equilibrium must have finite current at the null. Near the field null it can be shown that shear viscosity effects become important. Estimates indicate that the shear viscous force alone is sufficient to prevent current cancellation in this region. Second, the quadrupole (or other symmetry breaking) field must be matched to the solution. Implicit in the analysis has been the assumption that the quadrupole field in the bulk of the plasma is negligible. Penetration of the quadrupole field is deleterious to any field-reversed scheme since the field lines are opened up and the advantages of closed flux surfaces for confinement are lost. In this regard the equilibrium flow plays an important role. The toroidal flow "sweeps" the quadrupole field out of the main body of the plasma, confining it to a boundary layer of order $r_p / \sqrt{R_m}$ in thickness. r_p is the plasma radius and R_m is the magnetic Reynolds number $R_m \sim \omega r_p / \eta$, typically $R_m \gg 1$. A boundary layer analysis shows that the vacuum quadrupole fields can be smoothly matched to the interior solution where the quadrupole field vanishes.

References

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CALCULATION OF IDEAL MHD GROWTH RATES AND EIGENFUNCTIONS IN FIELD REVERSED MIRRORS IN THE LARGE TOROIDAL MODE NUMBER LIMIT

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The observation of MHD stable configurations in field reversed theta pinches has led us to review the ideal MHD stability theory. We produce 2D r, z equilibria from assorted models, including Hill's vortex, which are intended to match various profiles measured in experiments such as the FRX series at Los Alamos. These equilibria are used as the starting point for several stability calculations:

1. MALICE Several 3D ideal MHD simulations of stationary and rotating plasmas have yielded good qualitative agreement with experiment.¹
2. RIPPLE VI 3D linear ideal modes with $m = 1$ have been evolved showing an unstable tilting mode.^{2,3}
3. ALIMO 2D $m = 0$ linear axisymmetric modes are seen to be stable or have very small growth rates.³
4. MHD-2D 2D non-linear modes seem stable.^{3,4}
5. STABGROW Growth rates are calculated from the generalized energy principle. This report is limited to the subject of STABGROW.

Equilibrium Model

Pressure balance and Ampere's Law are expressed by

$$J_z = cr \frac{\partial P}{\partial r} \quad \psi = rA_\theta \quad (1)$$

and

$$\frac{\partial^2 \psi}{\partial z^2} + \frac{\partial^2 \psi}{\partial r^2} - \frac{1}{r} \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial r} = - \frac{4\pi r}{c} J_\theta \quad (2)$$

*This work was performed under the auspices of the U.S. Department of Energy by the Lawrence Livermore Laboratory under contract number W-7405-ENG-48.

Specification of the equilibrium is completed by giving the pressure function taken to be

$$P(\psi) = (1-H)P_1\left(\frac{\psi-\psi_s}{\psi_s-\psi_v}\right)^m + HP_1\left\{1 + \cos[\pi(\alpha + \gamma \tanh(a\psi + b))]\right\}. \quad (3)$$

A special case of this $H = 0$, $\psi_s = 0$, $m = 1$ is Hill's vortex:

$$P(\psi) = P_1\psi. \quad (4)$$

Conventional Energy Principle

From Bernstein⁵ a generalized Sturm-Liouville equation

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial s} \left(\frac{1}{r^2 B} \frac{\partial X}{\partial s} \right) + (\Lambda - P'D) \frac{X}{B} = \frac{D}{B(H + U/rP)} \oint \frac{DX}{B} ds \quad (5)$$

is used to determine stability (instability) if the smallest eigenvalue Λ is positive (negative). This equation is obtained by taking the toroidal mode number $n \rightarrow \infty$ which is the least stable mode in ideal theory. However, since the above equation is obtained in the norm

$$1 = \frac{\pi}{2} \oint ds \frac{X^2}{B} \quad (6)$$

the value of Λ cannot be related to growth rates.

Energy Principle with Growth Rates

To get growth rates we need to use the kinetic energy norm

$$1 = K = \frac{\pi}{2} \int \frac{ds}{B} \left[\left(\frac{X}{rB} \right)^2 + (BZ)^2 \right]. \quad (7)$$

Now the parallel displacement Z cannot be analytically eliminated from the energy principle. After minimizing with respect to X and Z we obtain

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial s} \left(\frac{1}{r^2 B} \frac{\partial X}{\partial s} \right) + \left(\frac{\Lambda}{r^2 B^2} - P'D - \frac{D^2}{1/B^2 + 1/rP} \right) \frac{X}{B} = \frac{D}{1/B^2 + 1/rP} \frac{\partial Z}{\partial s} \quad (8)$$

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial s} \left(\frac{B}{1/B^2 + 1/rP} \frac{\partial Z}{\partial s} \right) + \Lambda BZ = - \frac{\partial}{\partial s} \left(\frac{DX}{1/B^2 + 1/rP} \right)$$

Here the growth rates are obtained from $\omega^2 = \Lambda$. As before $\Lambda_{\min} > 0$ gives stability.

Reduction to First Order Equations

The form of the above equations is

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial s} \left(f \frac{\partial X}{\partial s} \right) + hX = c \frac{Z}{s}, \quad h = h(\Lambda), \quad (9)$$

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial s} \left(g \frac{\partial Z}{\partial s} \right) + kZ = - \frac{\partial}{\partial s} (cX), \quad k = k(\Lambda).$$

With the substitutions $U = f \frac{\partial X}{\partial s}$ and $W = g \frac{\partial Z}{\partial s} + cX$ we arrive at the first order system

$$\frac{\partial U}{\partial s} = c \frac{\partial Z}{\partial s} - hX, \quad \frac{\partial X}{\partial s} = U/f, \quad (10)$$

$$\frac{\partial W}{\partial s} = -kZ, \quad \frac{\partial Z}{\partial s} = \frac{W - cX}{g}.$$

These equations together with the equations defining a field line

$$\frac{\partial r}{\partial s} = \frac{B_r}{B}, \quad \frac{\partial z}{\partial s} = \frac{B_z}{B} \quad (11)$$

are solved using a shooting method which adjusts Λ until all boundary conditions are satisfied.

Properties of the Numerical Solution Obtained in STABGROW

The equilibria are accurately known either from the equilibrium code CYLEQ (which employs a bi-cubic spline representation with the ICCG algorithm) or from the analytic Hill's vortex formula. A bi-cubic spline representation is also used in the stability code such that

$$\psi, B, \underline{7B}, k = - \underline{b} \cdot \underline{7} \underline{b}, \underline{7} \cdot \underline{B} \equiv 0$$

are calculated analytically. From these the field lines and the coefficients in the above stability equations are known to arbitrary precision within the spline representation. These Sturm-Liouville like equations are solved by shooting first with a finite difference integrator and then when near convergence with the GEAR method. The GEAR method allows finite difference errors to be reduced arbitrarily to roundoff levels.

It follows from the foregoing that, within the spline representation, one can calculate the exact eigenfunctions and eigenvalues to roundoff precision.

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TOROIDAL REVERSED FIELD-PINCH EXPERIMENTS*

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Small Experiments

The small Reversed Field Pinch (RFP) experiments are listed in Table I. These experiments demonstrated the favorable stability of the reversed-field profiles, which were predicted by MHD theory. Self reversal of the toroidal magnetic field has been demonstrated in many machines but the important feature of the reduced fluctuation period (quiescent period) following the turbulent start up was not observed. The best results on ZT-S were obtained by programming, i. e., by forcing the field reversal by reversing the current in the toroidal field windings. Well-behaved pinches were observed for ~ 40 μ s. The pinch terminated in an instability when the fields profiles diffused and beta became too high.

Recently a pitch programming mode has been studied on ZT-S in which the toroidal and poloidal fields rise together. The method has been successful in that decreasing values of pitch ($P = rB_z/B_\theta$) programmed at the wall resulted in favorable monotonically decreasing values of pitch vs radius in the plasma. This method can give rise to reduced diffusion and a smaller energy loss during the set up of the RFP. When done slowly the method requires gross stability during the programming; methods for accomplishing this are being studied theoretically.

ETA BETA II

The ETA BETA II results are discussed in detail in the following paper and in Ref. [1]. It is worth emphasizing here that this experiment is significant in that it has shown that the transport and radiation losses can be overcome in an intermediate-sized experiment (bore = 25 cm) using a 0.1 ms rise time. The experiment has reproduced many of the results of the much larger Zeta experiment (1 m bore) and has reached electron temperatures above 100 eV by ohmic heating following a turbulent startup.

ZT-40

The ZT-40 experiment is one of a new generation of reversed-field pinches (RFP) that includes ETA BETA II and HBTX-LA. These experiments will extend the plasma temperatures and confinement times by an order of magnitude above previous RFP experiments, and will establish the physics base for the next generation devices RFX and LCK.

The ZT-40 device has a major diameter for the 2.28 m and a 0.4 m minor diameter for the vacuum wall (99.5% alumina). The experiment is designed to operate over a range of plasma current risetimes, 0.01 to 0.7 ms. During the initial operation the risetime of plasma current is ~ 0.1 ms, comparable to that of ETA BETA II [1] in which the limitation of oxygen impurity radiation was overcome.

The device has operated in the fill pressure range of 3-10 μ torr. After about 200 discharges with currents up to 400 kA, the initial ~ 0.15 ms current decay time was increased to ~ 0.25 ms showing an increase in the plasma conductivity and a reduction in the energy losses due to impurities as discharge cleaning of the vacuum chamber occurred. There have been a few test discharges with currents up to the full design value of 500 kA. A sample current waveform is shown in Fig. 1(a). A zero-dimensional plasma model consisting of a coupled set of equations governing the deuterium and impurity ionization states, the electron temperature, the ion temperature, and the

*Work performed under the auspices of the US Department of Energy.

circuit behavior is used to evaluate the ZT-40 performance. A primary impurity, as determined spectroscopically, is oxygen. Line radiation can explain the observed current decay times if oxygen is present in amounts of $\sim 7 \times 10^{12} \text{ cm}^{-3}$ ($\sim 1\%$ at 10 mtorr deuterium fill pressure). The model also indicates that with the expected further reduction in the impurity level and/or a lower deuterium gas density a "burn through" of the oxygen line radiation will occur and the plasma temperature will rise above 100 eV with the present passive crowbars to extend the current.

The initial values of the pinch parameter ($q = B_{\text{wall}}/B_{\text{co}}$) have ranged from 1.5 to 3.5. The toroidal field winding is crowbarred at its maximum current. Because of the small amount of toroidal flux outside the discharge tube in this device, self-reversal is readily obtained without any programmed reversal of the current in the toroidal field windings [see Fig. 1(b)].

A multi-channel interferometer simultaneously measures the line-integrated electron density along seven parallel chords across the discharge tube. A sample display of the data is shown in Fig. 1(d). After a period of large density excursions, a reduction in the total density and in the fractional fluctuation level is often observed starting shortly after current peak [e.g. at ~ 0.14 ms in Fig. 1(d)]. This period is sustained during the current decay until the reversed field disappears (~ 0.21 ms in Fig. 1(b)). The necessary conditions for this plasma behavior are toroidal currents above 500 kA and initial filling pressures below 6 mtorr. This interval of reduced activity is similar to that observed in ZETA and ETA BETA II.

Further discharge cleaning techniques will be used to reduce the impurity level and the expected burn through of OV and OVI ionization states will be observed spectroscopically and the increased electron temperature will be measured by Thomson scattering. In situ baking of the alumina torus can be used to further reduce the impurity level.

A power crowbar, to be installed in early 1980, will extend the current duration to times > 2 ms. The plasma behavior for longer current risetimes will be investigated when the impurity radiation barrier is overcome.

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Table I

SMALL RFP EXPERIMENTS

EXPERIMENT	COUNTRY	MAJOR RADIUS (cm)	MINOR RADIUS (cm)	I, (kA)
ZT-1	US	33	5.15	60
ZT-5	US	40.4	7.7	55
ETA BETA	ITALY	40	5	55
HEX-1	UK	100	5	50
STP-1	JAPAN	12	4.2	53
TPE-1	JAPAN	40		40-20
TPE-12	JAPAN	50	10	

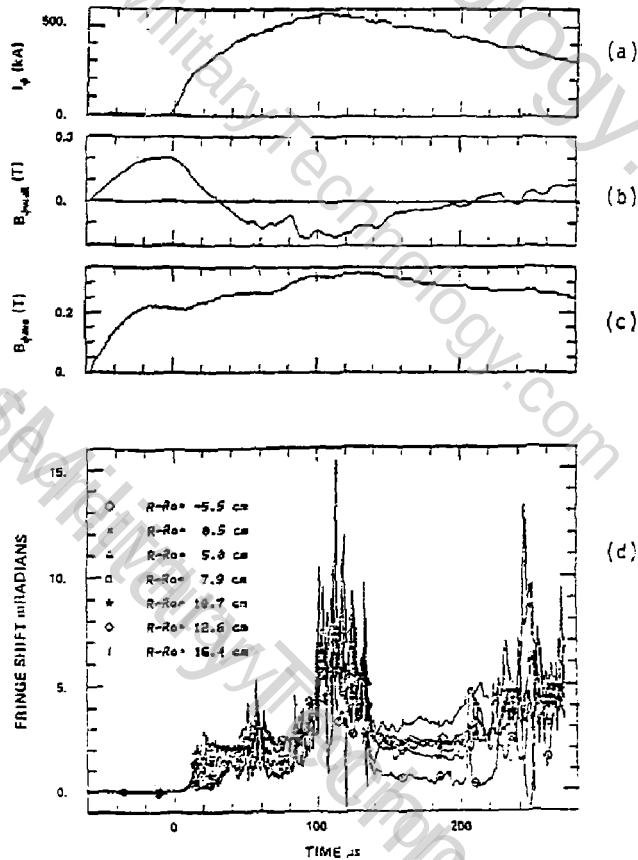


Fig. 1. Plots showing the time dependence of (a) toroidal current, (b) toroidal magnetic field at the wall, (c) average toroidal magnetic field, (d) integral of the electron density along seven chords normal to the torus midplane. The radial distance of each chord from the toroidal minor axis is shown in the insert.

SOME PROPERTIES OF THE HEATING AND CONFINEMENT IN THE RFP CONFIGURATION

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In this paper some properties of RFP plasmas as observed in the ETA-BETA II experiment¹ are discussed; and some comments on scaling laws appropriate to the RFP² are presented. In Fig. 1 the main experimental parameters of ETA-BETA II are summarized and the time evolution of the toroidal plasma current, I_ϕ , and of the toroidal field at the vacuum wall, B_ϕ , is sketched. The results obtained on ETA-BETA II can be summarized as follows. At high filling pressure (≥ 10 mtorr) radiation losses by light elements (oxygen in particular) dominate and prevent the plasma heating beyond a few tens of eV. The detailed study of the variation of the current decay time and of the electron temperature as a function of the filling pressure is discussed in Ref. 1 and here only a comparison between a RFP discharge and a nonreversed (NR) discharge in the nonradiation-dominated regime is discussed in some details. In Fig. 2 some results for the NR plasma (Fig. 2a) and for

RFP plasma (Fig. 2b) are compared. In particular in the figure are shown a function of time, from top to bottom, the toroidal current, OIV and OIV stable line intensities, the dI_ϕ/dt signal, and, only for the RFP plasma, a streak picture and the local dB/dt signal as measured by a magnetic probe measuring the poloidal flux at ~ 3 cm inside the inner convolution of the stainless steel liner. The results shown in Fig. 2 can be discussed as follows. At low filling pressure (≤ 6 mtorr) burning through of oxygen impurities is observed but in NR discharges complete overcome of the radiation barrier is not quite achieved because the temperature is probably held down by turbulent transport associated with the high level of fluctuations as measured on the toroidal current trace. When a RFP configuration is formed, higher temperatures are obtained with current e-folding times of up to 1.5 ms lasting for about 0.7 ms. This is associated with a distinct reduction in the fluctuations of the dI_ϕ/dt signal observed in the RFP as compared to the NR discharges. Internal magnetic probes (dB/dt) show a significant reduction in the fluctuation level during the slow current decay phase of a RFP discharge. Temperature measurements have also been made³ and about 50 eV are measured on axis at the time of current peak. During the slow current decay the temperature increases up to ~ 100 eV before current termination. By using the filling density value a β_ϕ of $\sim 0.1-0.2$ is estimated at the time of the current peak. If the density remains about constant in time, β_ϕ will increase by more than a factor of 2 due to the increase in temperature and to the decay of the plasma current. An instability due to too high beta is then likely the cause of the current termination. The behaviour, in time, of the RFP plasmas on the F, θ diagram (where $F = B_{\phi w}/\langle B_\phi \rangle$ and $\theta = B_{\theta w}/\langle B_\theta \rangle$ are computed just inside the metal vacuum liner) is drawn in Fig. 3. Several discharges are superimposed in the figure and they all indicate that the RFP state is characterized by $|F| \leq 0.5$ and $1.5 \leq \theta \leq 2.5$. The importance of the external vacuum region separating the plasma from the flux conserving wall and the comparison with theoretical calculations is described by Turner in another paper at this meeting.³

The results, shortly discussed here, obtained on ETA-BETA II are rather encouraging and indicate good confinement properties of the RFP configuration, but the following questions are usually asked about the overall interest of the RFP as a magnetic confinement fusion experiment.

- why the temperature in the RFP is so low as compared to a tokamak of similar current?
- how can the too high beta (which eventually terminates the discharge) be avoided?

To possibly clarify these points a short discussion of some scaling laws appropriate to the RFP and a comparison with tokamaks is given below.

From tokamak research we know that there is an upper density limit associated with the problems of radiation losses and of plasma disruptions. This limit is usually written in terms of the average particle density as:

$$n < 5 \cdot 10^{19} \frac{B \phi}{R}, \quad (1)$$

where $B \phi$ is the toroidal magnetic field and R is the major radius of the torus. By using the q parameter this limit can be written in terms of the average current density as

$$J/n = I/N > \frac{3.2}{q} \cdot 10^{-14} \text{ A} \cdot \text{m}, \quad (2)$$

which for high field tokamaks ($q \sim 2-3$) can simply be written as:

$$I/N \geq 10^{-14} \text{ A} \cdot \text{m}. \quad (3)$$

Indeed, the high field tokamak experiments (as Alcator and FT), aiming at large ohmic heating and long energy confinement times, do operate in this range of parameters. Operation at lower densities is easily achieved in tokamak experiments but shorter energy confinement times are obtained in this case.

There is also evidence that, to obtain a good performance of an RFP plasma, experiments must operate above a minimum value of I/N .

In fact, in ETA-BETA II, to overcome the line radiation barrier due to light impurity elements, we had to operate at $I \sim 200 \text{ kA}$ and $p_0 < 6 \text{ mtorr}$. Only under these conditions was the good RFP performance (slow current decay and temperature increase vs time) observed in ETA-BETA II.¹ These parameters correspond to I/N as given in Eq. (3). Optimum conditions for quiescence in ZETA were obtained with $I \geq 0.42 \text{ MA}$ and $n = 5 \cdot 10^{19} \text{ m}^{-3}$, corresponding again to I/N as given in Eq. (3).

If ignition is eventually to be reached by ohmic heating alone, a minimum critical value for J/n will be required to overcome bremsstrahlung radiation; with classical resistivity this value is easily found to be described by Eq. (3).

The value of J/n can then define a class of experiments capable of scaling to ignition conditions by ohmic heating alone, provided the overall losses remain acceptable.⁵

As in the tokamak, there are arguments in the RFP posing limitations on the upper value for I/N at which an experiment can operate.

On ZETA, quiescence was not obtained at filling pressures lower than ~ 1.5 mtorr and streaming induced microinstability could have enhanced the transport and limited the achievable temperature. Values of $I/N \sim 2 \cdot 10^{-14}$ A·m were not reached with quiescent performance.⁴

Streaming induced microinstabilities should arise at high I/N values and a limit on I/N can be set as⁵

$$I/N \leq 3.5 \cdot 10^{-14} \sqrt{T} \text{ A·m} \quad , \quad (4)$$

with T in keV.

All these considerations suggest then that a value of I/N substantially larger than $2 \cdot 10^{-14}$ A·m can be incompatible with achieving good confinement of the plasma. The following optimum range of values:

$$10^{-14} \text{ A·m} \leq I/N \leq 2 \cdot 10^{-14} \text{ A·m} \quad , \quad (5)$$

is then indicated by the previous discussion.

Pressure balance simply requires for the average temperature:

$$T = 1.5 \cdot 10^8 \beta_0 N (I/N)^2 \text{ keV} \quad , \quad (6)$$

or

$$T = 1.5 \cdot 10^8 \beta_0 I (I/N) \text{ keV} \quad , \quad (7)$$

with T in keV; with the above discussed limitations on the values of I/N , this gives:

$$T = (1-2) \cdot 1.5 \cdot 10^{-6} \beta_0 I \quad . \quad (8)$$

Compared to a tokamak with similar current, the temperature in the RFP will then be at least lower by $\beta_{\text{RFP}}/\beta_{\text{STOK}} = 0.1-0.2$. As an example, a temperature of ~ 1 keV with $I/N \sim 10^{-14}$ A·m requires:

$$I \beta_0 \sim 0.64 \cdot 10^6 \text{ A}$$

which, with $\beta_0 \sim 0.1$, prescribes:

$$I \sim 6.5 \text{ MA} \quad , \quad (9)$$

and

$$N \sim 6.5 \cdot 10^{20} \text{ m}^{-1} \quad . \quad (10)$$

These figures are of course inversely proportional to β_0 , but once the radiation losses are overcome and transport losses dominate, the eventual β_0 will be limited, and one way to be conservative about the transport losses is to conceive operation at $\beta_0 \approx 10\%$.

There are reasons to believe that an RFP will have a larger and more persistent level of fluctuations than a tokamak, because of the large number of resonant surfaces which characterizes the RFP as compared to the few

resonant surfaces that characterize the tokamak configuration. Moreover, the ion heat conduction should be more relevant in the pinch than in the tokamak because of the lower magnetic field.

All these considerations support the idea that a very high β_0 will not be reached in large-current experiments.

The study at high temperatures of the resistive stability properties of the RFP will be a major objective of the future experiments, but the temperature regime in which these studies can be done must first be achieved. If we base our estimates on $\beta_0 \sim 30\%$, we assume to already know that high temperature stabilizing effect will lead to low fluctuations and to transport properties at least as good as in tokamaks. Compared to tokamaks, RFP's do not require high toroidal fields, but it can be expected that large toroidal currents (even taking into account the poloidal currents) will be necessary to overcome the losses.

The discussed scaling is plotted in Fig. 4 where graphs of I vs N and of T vs N as given by Eqs. (5) and (6), are drawn for $\beta_0 = 0.1-0.2$.

There is clear evidence that high current (> 2 MA) experiments are required for a significant step toward high temperature (0.5-1 keV) RFP plasmas.

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ETA BETA II
EXPERIMENTAL PARAMETERS

MAJOR RADIUS	0.05	m
MINOR RADIUS OF LINES	1.175	cm
PEAK PLASMA CURRENT AT 25 kV	270	mA
RISE TIME TO PEAK CURRENT	100	ns
DECAY TIME OF THE PRIMARY CURRENT	5	ns
PEAK TOROIDAL FIELD AT 25 kV	0.1	T
QUARTER PERIOD OF B FIELD	150	ns
FILLING PRESSURE D_2	8×10^{-6}	torr
BASE PRESSURE	4×10^{-6}	torr

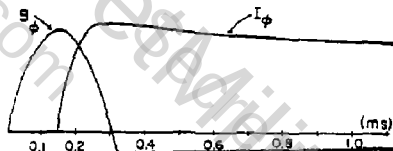


FIG. 1

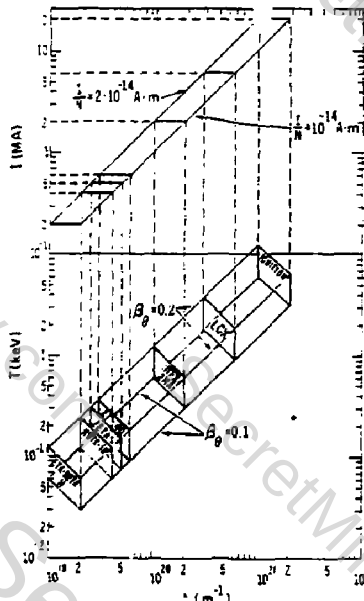
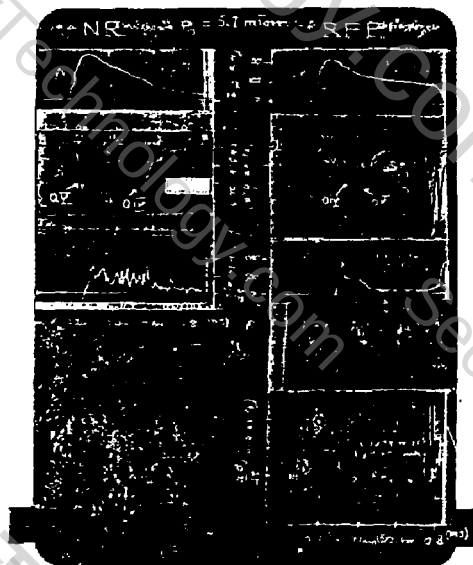


FIG. 4



a)

FIG. 2

b)

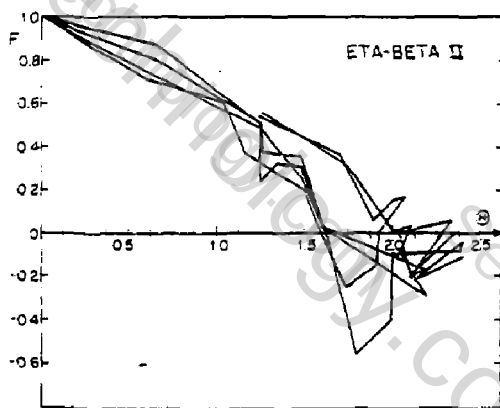


FIG. 3

RELAXATION OF TOROIDAL DISCHARGES*

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The variational principle of Taylor¹ provides the guiding spirit for calculations concerning the relaxation of turbulent plasma discharges. The principle states that a turbulent, high-magnetic-Reynolds-number plasma confined by a perfectly conducting shell will achieve the state of minimum magnetic energy consistent with specified magnetic helicity and magnetic flux. It yields the Euler equation $\nabla \times \mathbf{E} = \lambda \mathbf{B}$ where, for reversed-field pinch geometries, the eigenvalue λ is a continuous variable that specifies the ratio of net toroidal current to net toroidal magnetic flux. Although this principle has not as yet received rigorous justification, it has been able to reproduce much of the gross experimental features of the British reversed-field pinch experiment ZETA. The quiescent ZETA plasma was observed to follow closely the theoretical F-8 trajectory predicted by use of the Taylor principle.² {See Fig. 1. $[F(r) = B_z(r)/B_z^{avg}(r' < R), \quad \theta(r) = B_\theta(r)/B_\theta^{avg}(r' < R)]$ } For a quiescent ZETA plasma with field reversal, $1.2 \leq \theta \leq 1.6$. On the basis of the Taylor principle, the upper limit is explained as that point beyond which the symmetric ($m = 0, k_z = 0$) state is no longer the minimum energy state; the lower limit is that point at which field reversal first occurs.

The Taylor principle received some theoretical support in the work of Montgomery, Turner, and Vahala.³ By representing the velocity and magnetic fields in terms of a truncated expansion of Chandrasekhar-Kendall vector eigenfunctions⁴ whose time-dependent coefficients obey a Liouville theorem for the case of three-dimensional ideal magnetohydrodynamics, an absolute equilibrium ensemble was established that specified the probability distribution of the coefficients. It was observed that the state corresponding precisely to the minimum energy state of Taylor was the only state that was quiescent in the sense: $\langle v^2 \rangle = 0$. The study suggested a physical mechanism causing evolution toward the minimum energy state; namely, resistive dissipation, which, acting predominantly at high wave numbers, more readily dissipates magnetic energy than magnetic helicity because (1) the magnetic energy spectrum peaks at higher wave numbers than the corresponding magnetic helicity spectrum, and (2) the natural

direction of magnetic energy flow is toward higher wave numbers whereas that of magnetic helicity flow is toward lower wavenumbers.

Recently there have been concerns^{5,6} regarding the possibility that the continuous nature of the eigenvalue spectrum of the minimum energy state is a pathological result of the assumption of a circular plasma cross section. To allay these fears, Rasband and Turner⁷ demonstrated that the continuous spectrum for λ is neither an artifact of the straight cylindrical geometry nor of the circular nature of the cross section. They proved that for any value of λ , the solution of the above Euler equation in either a straight cylindrical or a toroidal geometry with arbitrary cross section can be reduced to the the solution of either an inhomogeneous Helmholtz equation or an inhomogeneous Grad-Shafranov equation with simple boundary conditions. Using standard Green's function theory they obtained analytical solutions for the case of rectangular cross sections, with relevance to force-free regions within cusped geometries. Further support for the presence of the continuous spectrum comes from the current numerical work of Baker and Mann who are solving the inhomogeneous Grad-Shafranov equation for a constant pressure plasma utilizing the LASL axisymmetric toroidal magnetohydrodynamic equilibrium code.⁸ It is crucial to remark here that there is only a discrete eigenvalue spectrum for plasmas contained in simply-connected regions; e.g., spheromak plasmas.

The most recent reversed-field pinch experiment to achieve the quiescent-like results of ZETA is the Padua experiment ETA-BETA II.⁹ This experiment has a plasma column confined to a radius of 12.5 cm by a stainless steel liner. A vacuum occupies the region between the liner and the flux-conserving shell at radius 17.8 cm. In an attempt to explain the experimental data, we have made a generalization¹⁰ of the variational principle of Taylor to the case where an insulating or resistive liner at radius r_0 maintains a vacuum region between the plasma column and the perfectly conducting shell at radius R .

We demand that

$$\delta \{ \alpha - \lambda \phi - \gamma \phi - \gamma [B_r(r_0^+) - B_r(r_0^-)] \} = 0 \quad (1)$$

for arbitrary variations $\delta B_\theta(\vec{r})$, $\delta B_z(\vec{r})$ in the plasma and for arbitrary

variations of the independent components of the vacuum magnetic field. The parameters λ , γ , and η are undetermined Lagrange multipliers. Since the total magnetic flux Φ within the flux-conserving shell is time-independent and prescribed, we define K to be the total magnetic helicity inside the flux-conserving shell in order that the field equations remain gauge-invariant. This invariance is physically required by the dynamical isolation of the plasma from magnetic fields external to the flux-conserving shell. The jump in the normal component of $\vec{B}$ at the liner $[B_r(r_0^+) - B_r(r_0^-)]$ is constrained to be zero. We then solve Eq. (1) for the state of minimum magnetic energy within the flux-conserving shell, ϵ , with prescribed values of K and Φ .

We find that in the minimum energy state the confined plasma is force-free and enveloped by a skin current. (See Fig. 2, for example.) The $F - \theta$ trajectory evaluated at the flux-conserving shell with ETA-BETA II parameters is depicted in Fig. (1). The θ interval discussed above has become in this case $1.4 < \theta < 2.2$.

Note that skin currents must also occur at the surfaces of relaxed (force-free) spheromak plasmas where a liner maintains a vacuum region between the plasma and the conducting shell.

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Figure 1

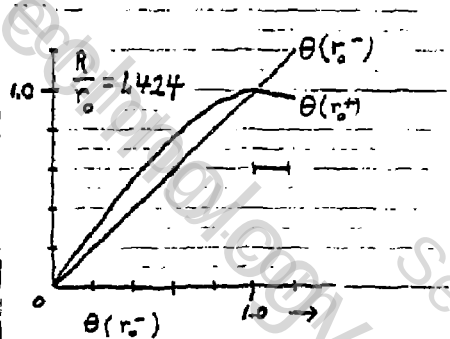
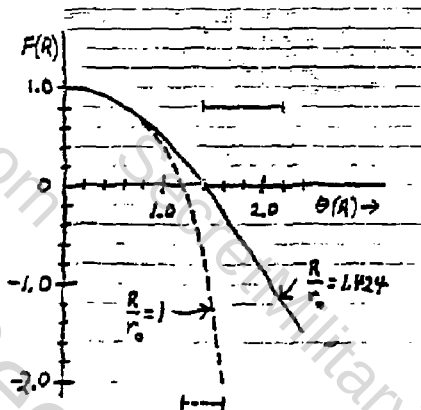


Figure 2

EFFECTS OF IMPURITY RADIATION ON REVERSED-FIELD PINCH EVOLUTION

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Spheromak and reversed-field pinch plasmas share the property that Ohmic heating must overcome strong radiative cooling by oxygen impurity atoms which peaks at a temperature $T_0 \approx 25\text{eV}$. We present results of transport code studies of this phenomenon, for several reversed-field pinch devices, and summarize these results in terms of two nondimensional parameters which parametrize the impurity content and the device size.

Both spheromak and reversed field pinch plasmas depend on Ohmic heating to raise the plasma temperature past the peak of the radiative cooling caused by the presence of oxygen impurity atoms. The peak of this cooling curve lies near $T_0 \approx 25\text{eV}$. Two conditions must be satisfied for this to occur: First the Ohmic heating power $\eta(T_0)j^2$ must exceed the maximum cooling rate $C(T_0)n_0n_e$ [$C(T_0) = 9 \times 10^{-13} \text{ erg cm}^3/\text{sec}$]. In other words the inequality

$$\zeta = \frac{C(T_0)n_0n_e}{\eta(T_0)j^2} < 1 \quad (1)$$

must be satisfied over a good portion of the plasma. Secondly, the energy expended in heating the plasma to a temperature $T_1 \approx 40\text{eV}$, must be a small fraction of the magnetic energy stored in the poloidal magnetic field or else a serious erosion of the poloidal field will result. The first criterion is evidently a criterion involving impurity concentration, plasma density, and current density. The second criterion, which can be written as

$$T_1 << \frac{B_0^2}{8\pi n_e} = (\text{const.}) \frac{1}{n_e} \frac{a^2}{a} \quad (2)$$

involves device size and plasma density.

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A transport code for reversed-field pinches, which embodies classical transport and impurity radiation losses, has been developed² and applied to the three devices listed in Table 1. The results are summarized in Figure 1. The evolutionary parameter τ is given in terms of the loss of poloidal field energy W_p

$$\tau = \frac{1}{2} \ln \frac{W_p(\tau=0)}{W_p} \quad (3)$$

The definition of β_T is $\beta_T \equiv \frac{2U}{3W_p(\tau=0)} \quad (4)$

where U is the internal kinetic energy content of the plasma. The parameter $\sum_0$ is defined by $\sum_0 = \frac{C(T_0) \langle n_0 \rangle \langle n_e \rangle}{n(T_0) \langle j \rangle^2} \quad (5)$

where the $\langle \rangle$ brackets indicate a mass-weighted average. In practical units, the formula for $\sum_0$ is

$$\sum_0 = (0.005) \left(\frac{1 \text{ kA/cm}^2}{\langle j \rangle} \right)^2 \left(\frac{\langle n_0 \rangle}{10^{12} \text{ cm}^{-3}} \right) \left(\frac{\langle n_e \rangle}{10^{14} \text{ cm}^{-3}} \right) \quad (6)$$

In terms of these nondimensional evolutionary parameters, each of the three devices is quite similar. Figure 1d provides an empirical fit to many transport code runs, giving the β_T which will be achieved for a given expenditure of magnetic field energy (parameterized by τ) as a function of impurity concentration (parameterized by $\sum_0$). The location of various devices (with β_D being the β_T value at 40eV) is also shown.

	ST-5	ST-40	PFX
Vacuum Wall Radius	7.7 cm	20 cm	60 cm
Conducting Wall Radius	7.9 cm	22 cm	63 cm
I_z Current	10 KA	500 KA	750 KA
Toroidal Field On Axis	4000 G.	10,500 G.	5100 G.
Density On Axis	$1 \times 10^{13} \text{ cm}^{-3}$	$5 \times 10^{14} \text{ cm}^{-3}$	$5 \times 10^{13} \text{ cm}^{-3}$
Initial Temperature	10 ev	10 ev	10 ev
Initial Beta	5.2 %	.38 %	.16 %

Table 1

Figure 1d is intended to provide a design guide for reversed-field pinch and spheromak devices. For a given design, one computes $\sum_0$ from Eq. (5) or (6) and the β_D value corresponding to $T = 40\text{eV}$ from Eq. (4) and plots the resulting point on Figure 1d. A design falling in region I ($\sum_0 > 0.45$)

will not break through the radiation barrier. Designs in region II ($0.25 < \beta_c < 0.45$) will experience substantial difficulty in breaking through the radiation barrier and should be regarded as risky. Region III [$\beta_c < 0.25$, $\beta_D > \beta_T$ ($\tau \approx 0.05$)] corresponds to devices that have too small a size for their density. In the shaded region IV, the plasma should safely break through the radiation barrier. Within region IV, the value τ corresponding to a design point gives, via Eq. (3), fraction of the initial poloidal field energy which must be expended to achieve temperature of 40eV.

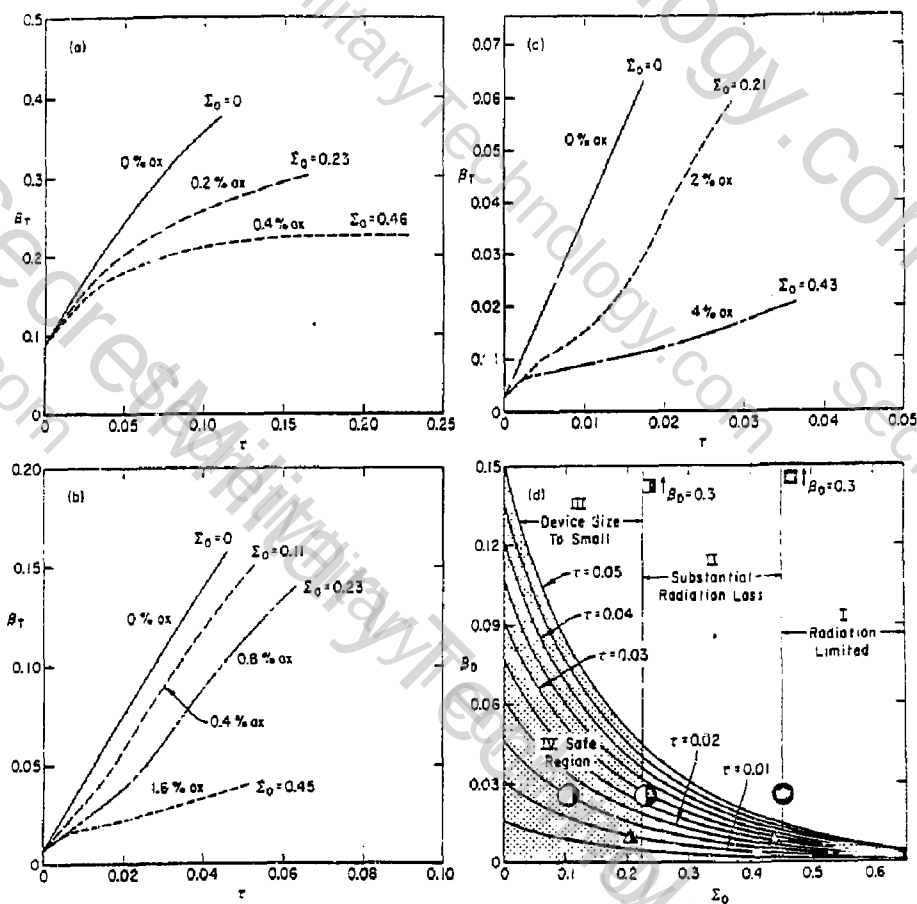
According to Figure 1d, ZT-S was much too high a density (or too small a device) to break through the radiation barrier. The ZT-40 device is predicted to work well for oxygen concentrations below 0.4%, but to experience grave difficulties at 1.6% (given the density of Table 1). The RFX parameters produce a successful device at 2% oxygen impurity concentration due to its low density.

Clearly, oxygen impurity radiation cooling remains a key issue for reversed field pinch and spheromak devices.

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Fig. 1. (a-c) Nondimensional Evolution of the reversed-field pinch plasmas listed in Table 1, for indicated concentrations of oxygen impurities; (a) ZT-S, (b) ZT-40, (c) RFX.

Fig. 1d. Design guide for reversed-field pinch plasmas. Full, half, and quarter-shaded symbols correspond to the maximum, half-maximum, and quarter-maximum oxygen concentrations of Figs. 1(a), 1(b), and 1(c). The Δ represent RFX, $\circ$ represent ZT-40, and $\square$ represent ZT-S. (Note that ZT-S is off-scale.)

Field Reversal Experiments.
FRX-A and FRX-B Results*

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I. Introduction

The equilibrium, stability, and confinement properties of the Field Reversed Configuration (FRC) are being studied in two theta pinch facilities referred to as FRX-A, and FRX-B. The configuration is a toroidal plasma confined in a purely poloidal field configuration containing both closed and open field lines (see Fig. 1). The FRX system produces highly elongated tori with major radius $R=3-5$ cm, minor radius $a \sim 2$ cm, and a full length $z \sim 35-50$ cm. Plasma conditions have ranged from $T_e \sim 150$ eV, $T_i \sim 800$ eV, and $n_{max} \sim 10^{15}/cm^3$ to $T_e \sim 100$ eV, $T_i \sim 150$ eV, and $n_{max} \sim 4 \times 10^{15}/cm^3$. The plasma remains in a stable equilibrium for up to 50 μs followed by an $n=2$ rotational instability which results in termination of the FRC. The plasma behavior with respect to equilibrium, stability, and rotation is consistent with recent theoretical work in these areas.

II. FRX-A Recent Results

Independently driven, crowbarred mirror coils were recently included on FRX-A. With optimum mirror timing, it was found that the particle inventory increased as compared with plasmas created with passive mirrors or without any mirrors, the increase being largely due to greater plasma length. It is thought that the mirrors produce a more localized tearing and reconnection of field lines during the formation phase by providing more favorable field curvature at the ends. This should contribute to increased inventory. After the first few microseconds, the mirrors act more like an extension of the implosion coil which would also increase plasma length and inventory. An increase in plasma lifetime from 20 to about 35 μs is also observed.

An experiment in plasma translation was performed by disconnecting one of the driven mirrors. Where the remaining mirror was activated 0-5 μs before the implosion, the plasma was observed to translate towards the opposite end with an initial drift velocity of 3-3 cm/ μs , exiting the coil in 15 μs . This time is intermediate between the plasma stable time (t_s) and an Alfvén transit time (t_A) so that the plasma can undergo a collective translation prior to instability. A 6328 Å fractional fringe interferometer, external field probes, and a side on streak camera all indicated a well defined plasma column forming in the center of the implosion coil and then drifting uniformly out of the system. End-on framing photography indicated retention of an annular equilibrium as the plasma moves axially.

*Work performed under the auspices of the U. S. Department of Energy.

III. FRX-B Spatial Scans

Radial scans with Thomson scattering have recently been made on FRX-B. The scattering system has all its components rigidly mounted to a single table surface such that all relative alignments remain fixed. To shift the instrument for either radial or axial scans of the plasma, the table is translated by means of air bearings. This versatility is permitted because a three grating polychromator¹ has been employed. This instrument has sufficient rejection at 6943 Å to obviate the necessity of a beam or viewing dump. Observations were made on the axial midplane at a constant filling pressure of 17 mtorr. Over the stable lifetime of the plasma, the electron temperature was essentially constant in both time and space at about 100 eV for radii interior to the separatrix. Relative density was also fairly constant as a function of time at these radii.

Line-integrated density across a diameter and excluded flux radius have been determined as a function of axial coordinate (z). Measurements were taken along a half-length of the coil at 17 mtorr fill pressure. Interferometry measurements indicate a plasma half-length of about 22 cm. The excluded flux radius near the midplane is found to be close to the separatrix radius, as inferred from Thomson scattering and image converter measurements. This correlation is expected from several equilibria models. Plasma shape modeling is required to unfold the data in the region $z > 20$ cm due to field curvature effects in this region.

IV. FRX-B Scaling Studies

Scaling of plasma parameters with fill pressure have been made for $P_0 = 9, 13, 17, 21$ mtorr. Density measurements were made using Thomson scattering and two fractional fringe interferometers operated at different wavelengths. The Thomson scattering measurement was made near the midplane with $r = 4$ cm, the approximate value of the major radius. The peak density (corresponding to $r = 4$ cm) was unfolded from the interferometers integral measurement through profile information from excluded flux and luminosity measurements. The peak density (determined at 10 μ s) varies from 1.8×10^{15} cm⁻³ with $P_0 = 9$ mtorr, to 4.2×10^{15} cm⁻³ with $P_0 = 21$ mtorr.

Electron temperature measurements were made at the axial midplane and $r = 4$ cm with Thomson scattering. Ion temperatures were deduced from CV(2271Å) Doppler broadening measurements. The carbon impurity radiation was collected along a diameter in the midplane of the plasma configuration. At all fill pressures, the electron temperature appears rather constant in the range of 100-150 eV. Whereas, the ion temperature approaches the electrons on an approximately classical time scale. T_i (measured at 10 μ s) varies from ~500 eV with $P_0 = 9$ mtorr, to ~180 eV with $P_0 = 21$ mtorr.

Interferometer, Thomson Scattering and Doppler broadening measurements were used to examine pressure balance with the measured external field as a function of time and fill pressure. The errors associated with the determination of the temperatures and peak density

result in a cumulative uncertainty in the plasma pressure of 40%. Pressure balance is satisfied within these uncertainties.

V. Rotation

The plasma lifetime is limited by the onset of an $n=2$ rotational instability which has been treated theoretically by Seyler² using a Vlasov fluid code, and by Freidberg and Pearlstein³ using an FLR expansion. In Seyler's model $-\omega_r/\Omega^* = 1.64$ where ω_r is the real part of the perturbation frequency, and Ω^* is the diamagnetic drift frequency. For FRX, this ratio is about 2.0 where ω_r is determined by end on framing photography. The Vlasov fluid model also indicates a critical value of $\alpha \equiv -\Omega/\Omega^* = 1.40$ for stability where Ω is the ion rotational frequency. Attempts have been made to establish the value of α experimentally using the Doppler shifted profile of the 2271 Å line of CV. The measured value of 0.4 is highly suspect for the following reason. The ion fluid equilibrium equation requires that when CV and D⁺ ions are both rotationally and thermally equilibrated the CV density profile must be highly peaked at the major radius. The experimentally determined CV radial distribution is in total disagreement with this requirement. The failure of the data to satisfy the theoretical criterion $\omega_r < n\Omega$ is further evidence that the assumption of rotational equilibration is faulty. The critical Ω however has been observed to scale with Ω^* as predicted.

The most plausible explanation for the spin-up of the plasma has also been advanced by Seyler⁴ where the preferential loss of particles with negative angular momentum is considered. These particles are found to be located either outside the separatrix or encircling the axis, precisely the locations of anticipated large losses. This mechanism requires ~50% plasma loss for $\alpha = 1.5$. Inventory estimates of particles were made from combined measurements of plasma parameters at 17 mtorr. Particle loss at the time of the rotational instability was ~40%. The inherent uncertainties in the determination of the particle inventory prevent a definitive correlation with Seyler's hypothesis, however, the results are not inconsistent with this model.

VI. Transport/Scaling

The energy confinement time during the stable period is of the order of tens of microseconds which is significantly shorter than a classical diffusion time. One candidate for enhanced transport is anomalous diffusion due to the lower hybrid drift (LHD) instability which is driven by strong pressure gradients. A 1D hybrid code developed by Hameiri⁵ to consider both classical and anomalous transport has yielded preliminary results indicating significant LHD transport exists near the separatrix. From this code, times for 50% particle loss are calculated. The scaling of this loss time with $1/\rho_1$ and R^2/ρ_1 compares favorably with stable time scaling from FRX-A and FRX-B (see Fig. 2).

Experimentally, the study of transport and scaling is limited by the relatively restricted parameter range of existing machines. A larger experiment called FRX-C has been proposed to alleviate the difficulty.

VII. Conclusions

Considerable progress has been made in defining the equilibrium, stability, and rotational properties of the FRC. These efforts have been aided by the addition of Thomson scattering and excluded flux measurements to FRX-B, and by substantial new results from the theoretical community. Many key issues however remain unresolved both experimentally and theoretically. The range of equilibria for which the FRC will remain MHD stable is still poorly defined. The stability of the plasma to resistive modes has not yet been characterized either by experiment or theory. Finally, transport and scaling are inadequately understood particularly with regard to anomalous processes. The next generation of experiments combined with more sophisticated 2D computer codes will hopefully elucidate these key points.

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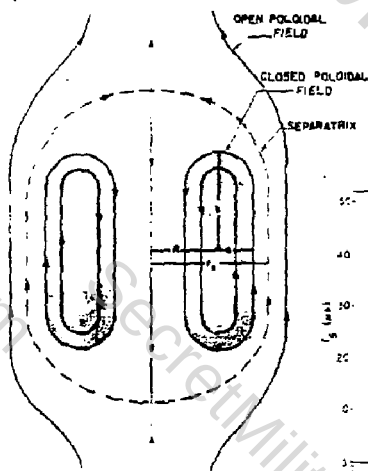


Figure 1

Field Reversed Configuration

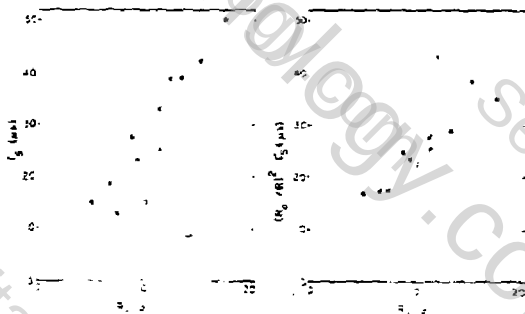


Figure 2

Scaling of the Stable Period -

Open circle is FRX-A data, dots and crosses are old, and recent FRX-B data respectively. $R_0 = 4$ cm.

FRX-C AND MULTIPLE-CELL EXPERIMENTS

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Background

Two new compact torus experiments have recently been proposed¹ and one (FRX-C) is now under construction. The proposed experiments are based on recent theoretical advances² and experimental results obtained with the LASL FRX-A and FRX-B field-reversed theta-pinch devices.³ These recent experiments demonstrate a formation method and establish some of the confinement properties for one type of plasma compact torus--an elongated prolate plasma torus confined by purely poloidal magnetic field. The plasma displays a quiescent phase, free of any gross MHD instabilities, that persists much longer than either characteristic MHD times or open-field line loss times. The quiescent phase is terminated by an $n=2$ mode that is correlated experimentally with a steadily increasing plasma rotation that eventually exceeds the theoretically predicted threshold for instability (approximately $1.5 \Omega^*$ where Ω^* is the angular diamagnetic drift frequency). The rotation is interpreted as resulting from a preferential loss of ions that carry angular momentum in a particular direction leaving the plasma to spin in the opposite direction. According to this point of view a significant fraction (about one-half) of the plasma must be lost to the closed-field configuration before the plasma reaches the threshold for instability, and therefore the $n=2$ disruption can be viewed as a secondary consequence of the more important cross-field transport processes. Both the FRX-C and Multiple-Cell experiments are intended to investigate ways of reducing cross-field transport.

FRX-C

The FRX-C experiment is a scaling study which will extrapolate the FRX-B results toward the higher temperature and longer lifetime needed for fusion. As shown in Fig. 1, the FRX-C coil dimensions are approximately twice those of FRX-B. Two high-voltage banks in a dual-feed arrangement are used to produce strong implosion heating. Larger variation of plasma density and temperature should be possible as a result of the higher voltage, because the higher voltage allows a larger variation in initial filling pressure as shown in Table I. For the same temperature in FRX-C as in FRX-B, the larger diameter coil results in an increase of a/ρ_i , where a is the plasma minor radius and ρ_i is the ion gyro radius. Thus, the important scaling of confinement with plasma size will be tested.

Another important design objective of FRX-C is to use a small amount of magnetic compression, and thereby to produce a "fat" plasma characterized by a large ratio of the separatrix radius to the metal wall radius, r_s/r_w . As a general rule, better confinement in this type of field-reversed configuration has been observed experimentally when r_s/r_w is made larger (see discussion of literature in Ref. 1). The reason for improved confinement with large values of r_s/r_w (typically > 0.4) is, theoretically, a result of reduced pressure on

the separatrix and a corresponding reduction of cross-field transport at the boundary of the plasma. It is a necessary consequence of pressure balance that the plasma pressure at the separatrix is reduced as r_s/r_w increases.⁴

The minimum amount of adiabatic compression (maximum r_s/r_w) results when the maximum reversed flux is trapped in the plasma. Trapping the maximum flux in the ordinary theta pinch requires reversing the magnetic field quickly, because during the reversal phase the ionized plasma tends to expand, interact with the wall, and allow flux to be lost. The high voltage of FRX-C produces a rapid magnetic field reversal, and the resulting ratio r_s/r_w should be larger than in FRX-A or FRX-B.

The FRX-C experiment is located adjacent to, and on a centerline with, the CTK vacuum tank and d.c. magnetic mirror coils. Thus, the device is planned to serve as a plasma source for confinement studies of CT's containing no toroidal field. As much flexibility as possible is being designed in the FRX-C system to allow variation of the basic configuration. Important options are the addition of electrodes for I_z to include toroidal field,⁴ and the introduction of barrier fields and trigger coils for study of the Kuratulaev mode of operation.⁵

Multiple-Cell Experiment

In addition to possible reactor implications, a linear array of compact torus plasma cells makes possible interesting studies of the confinement system. In a single-cell experiment such as FRX-B, the plasma on open field lines is unconfined, and ions leave in approximately one thermal transit time. The radial pressure profile presumably drops abruptly at the separatrix producing enhanced cross-field transport. In the proposed Multiple-Cell Experiment, the confinement of plasma on open field lines is expected to be markedly improved by the influence of multiple magnetic mirrors created by the linear array of plasma cells as shown in Fig. 2. The resulting pressure profile should be smoother and the plasma confinement in the closed-field configuration should improve.

The improved confinement on the open magnetic field lines is a consequence of multiple magnetic mirror effects that become important when the classical ion mean free path becomes comparable to the cell length. For the plasma parameters expected in the experiment, the mean free path is approximately 30 cm, and the required condition is satisfied. Consequently, the plasma decay time on the open fields is increased from approximately 3 μ s in FRX-B ($\tau \sim L/v_{th}$ where L is the half-length and v_{th} is the ion thermal speed) to approximately 60 μ s in the proposed Multiple-Cell Experiment ($\tau \sim M^2 L^2 / \lambda v_{th}$ where M is the magnetic mirror ratio, and λ is the mean free path).

An experiment to test the effects of multiple plasma cells can be done by a straightforward modification of the existing S-m Scylla IV-P theta pinch. The coil, discharge tube, and capacitor bank would be modified to match the FRX-B experiment in all respects except length. Providing field line tearing and reconnection can be controlled to generate a linear array of cells in the

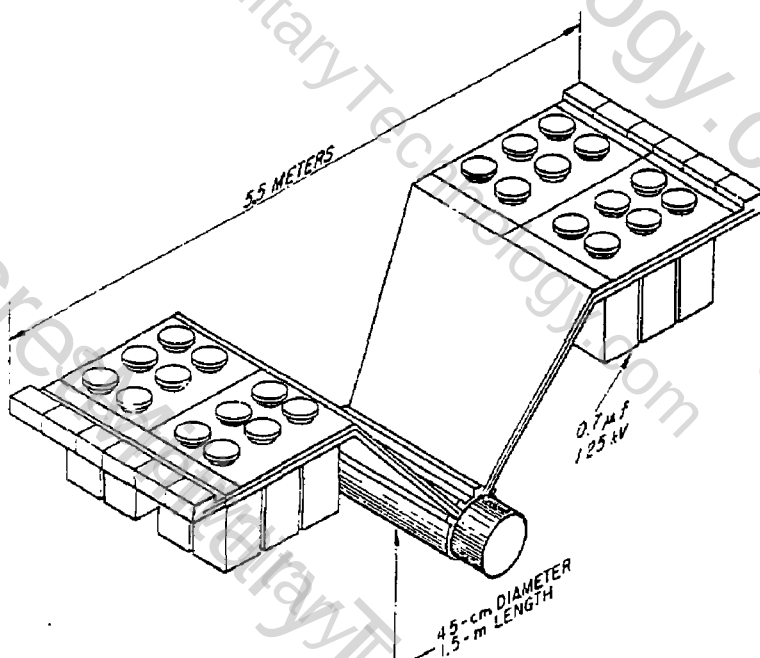


Fig. 1. FRX-C experiment showing high-voltage capacitor banks, dual-feed collector plates, theta-pinch coil, and discharge tube. "Gull wing" arrangement makes optimum use of the available space adjacent to the CTX, a vacuum tank and mirror coil for compact torus translation, trapping, and confinement studies.

TABLE I.
FRX-C Experimental Parameters

<u>Theta-Pinch Parameters</u>		
Coil diameter (cm)	45	
Coil length (cm)	150	
Source voltage (kV)	250	
Magnetic field (kG)	9	
Field quarter period (μs)	1.6	
<u>Anticipated Plasma Parameters</u>		
Initial filling pressure (μtorr)	2.4	24
Plasma density (cm ⁻³)	1.2×10^{15}	6.8×10^{15}
Electron temperature (eV)	500	90
Ion temperature (eV)	1100	200

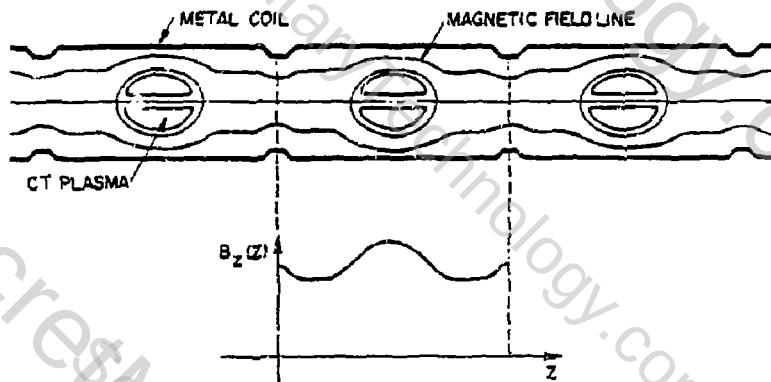


Fig. 2. Schematic drawing of magnetic fields surrounding linear array of compact torus plasma cells.

5-m coil, the influence of multiple cells can be studied for a plasma with the known single-cell characteristics of FRX-B. It has been pointed out that weak magnetic mirrors in the external coil structure may not produce tearing; preliminary tests of methods for controlling tearing are being planned for FRX-A or FRX-B.

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COMPACT TORUS THEORY—MHD EQUILIBRIUM AND STABILITY

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Introduction

Field reversed theta pinches at Los Alamos and elsewhere^{1,2} have demonstrated the production and confinement of compact toroidal configurations with surprisingly good MHD stability. In these observations, the plasma is either lost by diffusion or by the loss of the applied field or is disrupted by an $n = 2$ (where n is the toroidal mode number) rotating instability only after 30-100 MHD times, when the configuration begins to rotate rigidly above a critical speed.

These experiments have led us to investigate the equilibrium, stability, and rotation of a very elongated, toroidally axisymmetric configuration with no toroidal field. Many of the above observations are explained by recent results of these investigations which are summarized here.

Equilibrium

The MHD equilibrium of a very elongated, field reversed configuration has been considered by a number of authors.³⁻⁵ Suppose an elongated plasma is reflection symmetric about a midplane and is terminated by a separatrix which is of radius r_s at the midplane and which extends to the axis at the plasma end. Assume further that this equilibrium is contained in a uniform cylindrical conductor of radius r_w which extends axially well beyond the plasma end.

Integrating the equilibrium equations over the volume bounded by the midplane, the cylindrical wall, and an endplane leads to

$$\int_0^{r_w} r \, dr \left(P - \frac{1}{2} B^2 \right)_{\text{midplane}} = \int_0^{r_w} r \, dr \left(P - \frac{1}{2} B^2 \right)_{\text{endplane}} \quad (1)$$

where B is the (predominantly axial) magnetic field and P is the plasma pressure. At the endplane, $P = 0$, $B = B_e$ which is approximately constant in r . At the midplane, $P + \frac{1}{2} B^2 = \frac{1}{2} B_0^2$, where B_0 is the external magnetic field. Finally, since the same vacuum flux passes through the midplane and the endplane, $B_0(r_w^2 - r_s^2) = B_e r_w^2$. Using these, Eq. (1) becomes

$$\langle B \rangle = 1 - \frac{\kappa^2}{2} \quad (2)$$

where $\langle \beta \rangle = 2/r_s^2 \int_0^{r_s} r dr (P / \frac{1}{2} B_0^2)$, is the average β and where $\kappa = r_s/r_w$.

For specific pressure profiles, the relative pressure at the separatrix, $\Delta = P(r_s)/P_{\text{max}} = \beta(r_s)$, may be expressed as a function of the radial compression, κ . Two examples are shown in Fig. 1. As $\kappa \rightarrow 0$ (very compressed plasma), Eq. (2) indicates that $\langle \beta \rangle \rightarrow 1$, the central β . Thus, in this limit, the profile becomes very flat, Δ approaches 1, and the details of the profile are less important. This is indicated by the convergence of the two curves as $\kappa \rightarrow 0$. Experimentally, $\kappa = .5$, $\Delta = .7$, which is consistent with either profile considered.

The above analysis gives no details of the axial structure of the equilibrium. Elongated solutions have been found numerically using a two-dimensional, r-z, equilibrium code, CYLEQ. These solutions have gradual z variation and associated elliptical flux surfaces. Experimentally, the z variation occurs over only a fraction of the plasma length and the overall picture is of a more racetrack like equilibrium. This feature is not well understood, but might be explained by considering configurations with internal islands.

Stability

The simplest modes to consider are gross displacements of the plasma. For very elongated configurations, the applied field has a maximum in the midplane. Thus, sideways displacements of the equilibrium (normal to the axis) are stable. Axial displacements are unstable without a conducting wall but are neutral for a smooth cylindrical boundary and become stable if the wall is moved closer.

To examine stability in more detail, consider δW^6 . For incompressible modes δW may be written as

$$\delta W_0 = \frac{\pi}{2} \int d\psi \int dX \left\{ \frac{1}{r^2 B^2 J^2} \left(\frac{\partial X}{\partial \psi} \right)^2 + B^2 \left(\frac{\partial X}{\partial \psi} \right)^2 - P'' X^2 + f Y \right\} \quad (3)$$

where Y and f are functionals of X defined by

$$L_n Y = \frac{1}{n^2} \frac{1}{J} \frac{\partial}{\partial X} \frac{r^2}{J} \frac{\partial Y}{\partial X} - B^2 Y = f = B^2 \frac{\partial X}{\partial \psi} + P' X \quad (4)$$

and where the notation of Ref. 6 has been used.

Since all eigenvalues of L_n are negative, the last term in Eq. (3) is negative definite. An examination of the remaining terms indicates that, for elongated configurations, δW is large and positive, unless $X = x r B_r$ or $X = x r B_z$, where x is a slowly varying function, i.e., does not have rapid variation near the turning points of the field lines. The choices B_r and

B_z in the above lead to axial or radial displacements respectively. For the axial mode

$$\delta W_n = \frac{\pi}{2} \int dy J dx \left\{ r^2 B_z^2 \left[\frac{1}{r^2 B_z^2} \left(\frac{\partial x}{\partial y} \right)^2 + B_z^2 \left(\frac{\partial x}{\partial \psi} \right)^2 \right] + fY \right\} \quad (5)$$

The second term on the right above is small for elliptical, elongated equilibria. The first term vanishes for $x = x(\psi)$. Thus, we find that axial, internal displacements are unstable for all n for sufficiently elongated configurations with elliptical flux surfaces. For racetrack equilibria, this scaling does not apply, and the possibility of stabilizing small n modes exists. Similarly, for radial modes, the stability of small n modes is determined by the external boundary conditions.

These conclusions are reproduced by numerical simulations. Using equilibria generated by CYLEQ as initial conditions, the MALICE⁷ code has been used to study stability of large scale modes. Equilibria completely stable to $n \leq 3$ have been constructed. When κ is made too small, however, the $n = 2$ radial mode is found to be unstable. These results are shown in Fig. 2. In independent work, Shestakov *et al.*⁸ have observed an $n = 1$ internal, axial instability. This is related to the spheromak tilting mode but becomes nearly an azimuthally varying axial translation of the plasma for the very elongated case considered.

Local modes with $n \neq 0$ are of two types. For the interchange mode, the normal displacement is approximately constant along a field line and the plasma compressibility must be taken into account. Interchange stable solutions have been constructed by analytic⁹ and numerical means. For the remaining co-interchange modes, compressibility is less important. In an independent paper, we report recent work on these local modes.¹⁰

Rotation

The rotational stability of infinitely long field reversed theta pinches has been studied by Pearlstein¹¹, Freidberg¹², and Seyler¹³. Freidberg used the finite Larmor radius equations in which he treated the field null in an ad hoc manner. The predicted value of the critical rotation velocity was about $\Omega = 1.6 \omega_*$, where ω_* is the ion diamagnetic drift frequency. Using the exact Vlasov-Fluid equations in which no field null singularities occur, Seyler found the critical rotation velocity to be somewhat lower, $\Omega = 1.3-1.5 \omega_*$, depending upon the profiles. Both results, however, are in qualitative agreement, the threshold for $n = 2$ rotational instability is $\Omega > \omega_*$. Direct experimental measurement of the critical rotation velocity is extremely difficult, however, the real part of the eigenfrequency has been measured and is in agreement with the theoretical prediction, thus lending indirect experimental support for the theory.

The mechanism which causes the plasma to spin up to this instability threshold has not been positively identified. However, three types of explanations have been proposed. First, the plasma may initially rotate and because of profile changes related to transport later reach the critical rotation. The magnitude of initial rotation for this explanation to hold requires the ions to carry a large fraction of the current initially. Since this is inconsistent with observations in other theta pinches, this explanation seems unlikely.

A second possible explanation of plasma rotation might be end shorting on the open field lines and viscous transfer of rotation to the remainder of the plasma. This is unlikely to be the full explanation because the energy available in the open field region is much less than the final rotational energy of the plasma.

Finally, particle loss from the closed field region might result in the loss of angular momentum from the system and corresponding plasma rotation. This appears to be the most likely cause of rotation. There are five types of particle orbits in a field reversed configuration and those encircling the axis or outside the separatrix have negative mechanical angular momentum. These particles are lost in a thermal transit time, resulting in a net gain of angular momentum by the confined plasma. In fact, for a neutral plasma, the total mechanical angular momentum of all particles is a constant of the motion. Thus, if a fraction F of particles are lost from a plasma with no initial rotation, this conservation law is approximately

$$(1-F)m_iNR^2 + Fm_iN\langle r^2\omega_d \rangle = 0 \quad (6)$$

where m_i is the ion mass, N is the total number of particles, R is the plasma major radius, ω_d is the drift frequency of an ion at radius r where it is lost, and $\langle \rangle$ indicates an average over the particle distribution. For a rigid rotor distribution with cold electrons, the rotational velocity reaching the instability threshold requires the loss of about one half of the plasma. Experimental measurement of the particle confinement time gives a value of about 35% $\pm$ 15% for the fraction of particles lost at the time the rotational instability is observed. This result is somewhat inconclusive in determining the rotation mechanism, however, other factors could account for rotation in addition to the particle transport mechanism.

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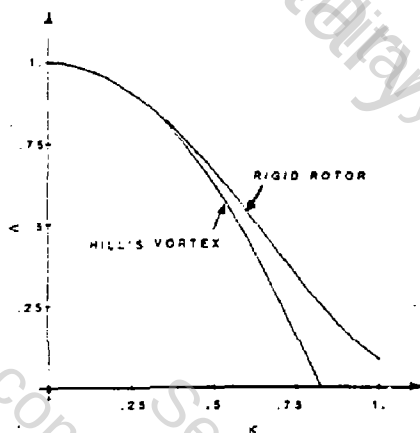


Figure 1 - Normalized separatrix pressure, P , as a function of normalized plasma radius K for two profiles. Hill's vortex curve for $P'(\psi) = -\lambda$ (constant). Rigid rotor profiles for $P'(\psi) = \alpha \exp(-\psi/\psi_0)$.

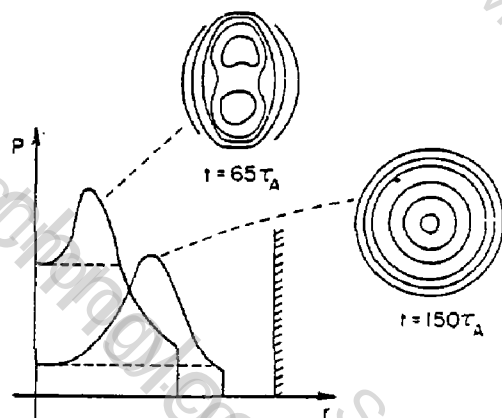


Figure 2 - Results of three-dimensional simulations for two different elongated plasmas. Curves indicate P in midplane as a function of r for two cases. Conducting wall position is indicated by shaded line. Density contours at late times indicate $n = 2$ instability for compressed case, stability for less compressed case.

TWO-DIMENSIONAL SIMULATION OF COMPACT TORUS FORMATION

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A recently-developed two-dimensional algorithm¹ is now being used in formation studies of the FRX configuration at LASL. The new procedure is part of a quasi-neutral R-Z hybrid code which, by representing the ion component by the particle-in-cell technique, correctly represents the complicated orbits exhibited by the ions in such field-reversed configurations. The electron and Maxwell's equations are combined in the new part of the algorithm in the zero-electron-inertia limit to eliminate electron time scales. The resulting combination is solved so that electron source terms and the electric and magnetic fields are provided self-consistently even in strongly inhomogeneous plasmas with arbitrary plasma-vacuum intermixing. As will be seen, this last feature makes simulation of such highly dynamic configurations as the FRX much more tractable.

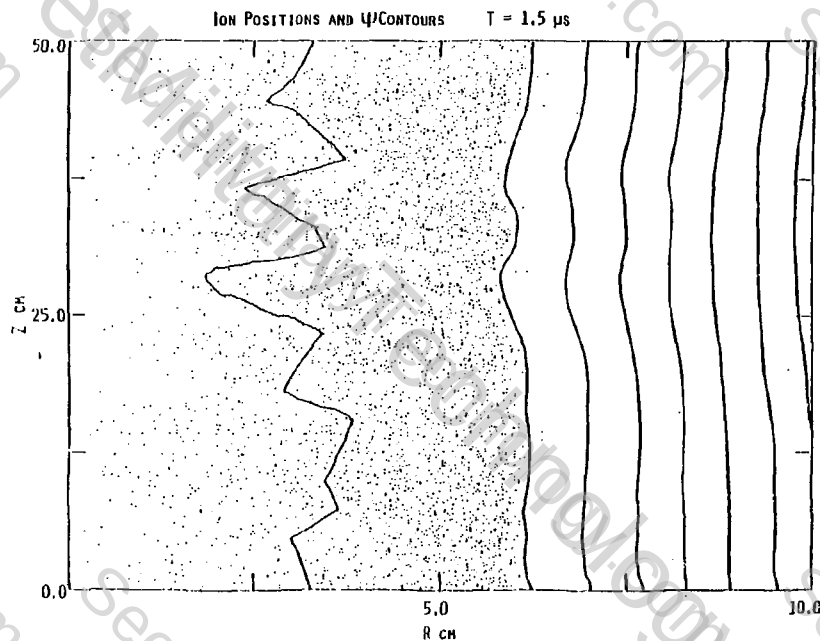
The FRX formation studies are accomplished by simulating the time evolution of a homogeneous plasma with a negative bias B_z -field (~500 gauss) which is subjected at $t = 0$ to an external implosion B_z -field (5 KG). The implosion field drives the plasma toward the axis where it exhibits rapid radial oscillations for a period of about 1.5 μ s. After this initial chaotic behavior, the plasma settles into a configuration which, while not yet in thermal equilibrium, attains the macroscopic appearance of an infinitely long field reversed θ -pinch configuration. Figure 1 shows the ion particle positions in R-Z space at this time. The surrounding magnetic flux contour is also shown.

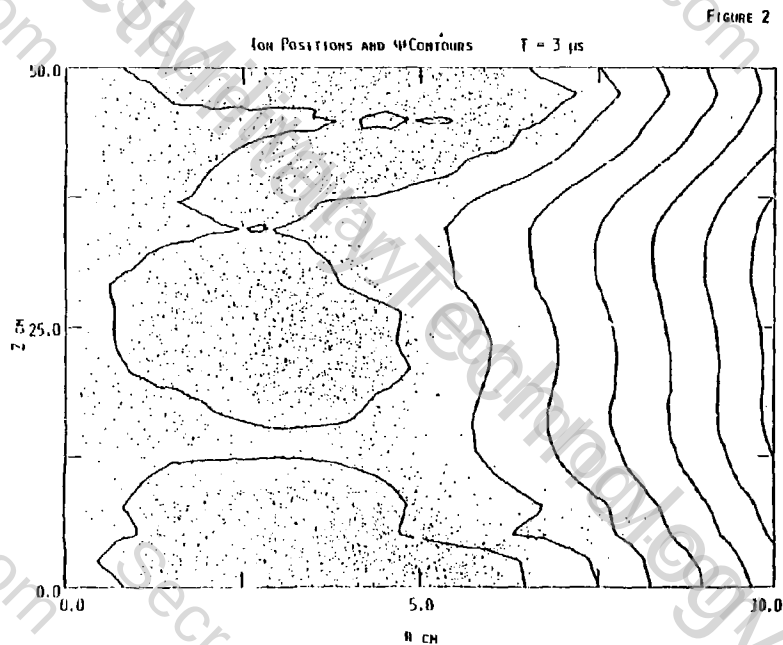
After the gross radial motion has subsided, the plasma develops inhomogeneities along the outer surface of the configuration in the Z-direction. Given the restrictions of R-Z geometry, these perturbations are necessarily $m = 0$ modes. As is apparent in Fig. 2, these perturbations continue to grow, and after approximately 3 μ s from the $t = 0$ implosion break the axially homogeneous configuration into elongated current rings or compact toroids with dimensions of roughly 2.5 cm in minor radius in the R direction and 10 cm in minor radius in the Z-direction. The initial configuration had a 10 cm radius and has a periodicity length in Z of 50 cm. Also shown in Fig. 2 are the contours of constant toroidal flux, which now indicate reconnection.

The $t = 0$ temperature of both electrons and ions was 1 eV and at $t = 3 \mu$ s the ions were roughly 4 keV. A self-consistent electron temperature has not yet been included in the model. For this run T_e was artificially raised from 1 eV to 50 eV linearly during the first 500 μ s of the simulation and then held constant. The electrical resistivity is the Spitzer value consistent with this electron temperature.

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FIGURE 1





Two-Dimensional Compression in General Compact Tori

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Introduction

Field-reversed θ -pinches are observed to rotate, presumably as a result of the loss of particles. If the rotating plasma is compressed, conservation of angular momentum dictates that the rotation frequency will increase by approximately the square of the radial compression ratio. Thus, even a small initial rotation may affect the equilibrium state and stability properties of the compressed plasma.

In this work we generalize the adiabatic compression code of H. Grad [1] to include the effects of rotation. The situation envisioned is a compression process much slower than acoustical transit times across the major dimensions of the plasma. The plasma waves then cause fast equilibration and on the compression time scale the plasma is seen as creeping from one equilibrium state to the next. The different states are related to each other by maintaining constants of the motion of the exact dynamical system, namely: the magnetic flux and the mass and angular momentum within each flux tube. The compression itself is created either by increasing the magnetic flux in the vacuum region, or by moving the external wall to a new radial position (to simulate the liner experiment).

For the work described here, transport processes have been neglected and the plasma is assumed to obey the ideal MHD equations. We also assume that the plasma is contained completely within the closed separatrix. This represents a slight departure from reality since experimental measurements have shown a small but finite pressure on the separatrix. It offers, however, a substantial numerical advantage in eliminating surface currents which may appear in a compressed plasma which spills outside the separatrix. In addition, the assumption makes it possible to guarantee that the computed equilibria will be interchange stable. (The interchange stability criterion was generalized to cover rotating systems.)

The Equilibrium State

In a rotating axisymmetric equilibrium state, if the magnetic field has a toroidal component B_θ , compression of the plasma will generate both toroidal and poloidal flows. To avoid this complication and consider purely toroidal flows we assume $B_\theta = 0$ if the plasma rotates. In the static case we allow $B_\theta \neq 0$.

The rotating equilibrium state can be described by a poloidal flux function ψ such that $\mathbf{B} = \hat{\theta} \times \nabla\psi/r$, and three functions of ψ : the entropy $s(\psi)$, the toroidal rotation frequency $\Omega(\psi)$, and the Bernoulli function $H(\psi)$. (Notice that each field line must rotate like a rigid body.) The equilibrium equations are then

$$-\operatorname{div}(\gamma w/r^2) = r^2 \rho \dot{M} + \rho \dot{H} - \rho \dot{s}/(\gamma-1) \quad (1)$$

$$\gamma s \rho^{\gamma-1}/(\gamma-1) = H + r^2 \Omega^2/2 \quad (2)$$

with the dot derivative denoting $d/d\psi$. Given the value of ψ on the plasma boundary, and using equation (2) to solve for the density $\rho = \rho(r, \psi)$, Eq. (1) becomes a standard elliptic problem. Notice that (2) can be easily solved for $\gamma = n/(n-1)$, with n some integer, since then $\gamma-1 = 1/(n-1)$. The correct γ value (5/3) between $n = 2$ ($\gamma = 2$) and $n = 3$ ($\gamma = 3/2$). Here, for simplicity, we use $\gamma = 2$.

During compression, $s(\psi)$ is unchanged but H and Ω vary. To find them it is convenient to present a variational formulation for the rotating equilibrium (along the lines of a known static formulation [2]).

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Minimize } E &= \int B^2/2 + \rho r^2 \Omega^2/2 + s \rho^\gamma/(\gamma-1) \\ \text{subject to } \int_V \rho \, dv &= M(\psi), \quad \int_V r^2 \rho \Omega \, dv = L(\psi) \end{aligned} \quad (3)$$

and the range of ψ in the plasma is also given. $V(\psi)$ is the domain within a particular ψ surface. The two constraints represent conservation of mass and angular momentum, and the functions $s(\psi)$, $M(\psi)$, $L(\psi)$ are unchanged during compression.

Following Grad [1], we introduce a surface average, $\langle f \rangle \equiv \int f \, dS/|\nabla \psi|$, with the function $V(x)$ describing the volume within any ψ -curve. We also define the inductance function $K(V) = \langle |\nabla V|^2/r^2 \rangle$. After differentiating the constraints with respect to V and defining $\mu(\psi) = S M'$, $\lambda(\psi) = L'/M$ and $\rho \equiv M \psi' u$ ($\psi' \equiv d\psi/dV$), the variational problem takes the form

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Minimize } E &= \int \frac{1}{2} K(V) \psi'^2 + \frac{1}{2} \lambda^2 \psi' \langle r^2 u \rangle + \mu \psi'^\gamma \langle u \rangle/(\gamma-1) \\ \text{subject to } \langle u \rangle &= 1. \end{aligned} \quad (4)$$

Assuming for the time being that the geometry is known, i.e., $V(x)$ is given but not $\psi(x)$, $K(V)$ is then known and averages can be taken. The Euler equation for u yields (for $\gamma = 2$)

$$u = a(V) + r^2 b(V). \quad (5)$$

$\langle u \rangle = 1$ implies $u = 1 + (r^2 - \langle r^2 \rangle)b$. This expression is inserted into (4), yielding an unknown function $b(V)$ instead of $u(x)$. E now is minimized with respect to ψ and b by solving the corresponding Euler equations (an ODE for ψ , an algebraic cubic equation for b).

Numerical Algorithm

- (i) Initial level curves in the plasma region are assumed.
- (ii) $V(V)$ is obtained by solving a mixed ODE-algebraic system as described before. The shooting method is used to satisfy the boundary conditions of given ψ values at $V = 0$ and at the total plasma volume.

- (iii) A comparison of (2) and (5) enables us to determine H, Ω at each point in space.
- (iv) The right-hand side of (1) is evaluated as a function of ψ . In particular it is set to zero in the assumed vacuum region. Eq. (1) is solved as a linear Poisson problem. The boundary conditions used are a constant value of ψ at the outer wall and $\psi = \text{const.} \cdot r^2$ at the two ends of the device. This last condition equals the behavior of ψ in the absence of any plasma.
- (v) The geometry of the new solution is determined. Steps (ii)-(v) are repeated until convergence is achieved.

Interchange Stability

When $B_\theta = 0$, all field lines within the plasma region are closed, regardless of rotation. Thus, the relative positions of fluid elements carrying specific mass μ and angular momentum λ , cannot be predetermined but have to be found as part of the solution. Specifically, it means that instead of specifying the functions $\mu(\psi), \lambda(\psi)$ one gives the set of values of these functions but allows "permutations". Presumably, the plasma will pick a permutation corresponding to the lowest energy state. From a numerical point of view, however, this state is rather difficult to find. We treat the problem as a stability problem (the usual misconception) where we specify $\mu(\psi), \lambda(\psi)$ and then check if the energy decreases after local permutations. After some experimentation it is possible to find states which remain stable throughout the compression.

The criterion for stability can be obtained in the following way: specify functions $\mu_0(\psi), \lambda_0(\psi)$, and let $\mu(\psi) = \mu_0(f(\psi)), \lambda(\psi) = \lambda_0(f(\psi))$. $f(\psi)$ expresses the original flux coordinate of the particle now residing in ψ . Because of the flux conservation, f is required to be measure preserving, with the measure expressing total flux. Thus $\text{meas}\{f^{-1}(E)\} = \text{meas}\{E\}$ for every set E in the ψ interval. For a given magnetic field and density, the energy has the form $E = \int F(f(\psi), \psi) d\psi$ and has to be minimized with respect to all measure preserving f . It can be shown that a necessary condition for the function $f(\psi) \equiv \psi$ to be a local minimum (local in the maximum norm sense), is to have $\partial^2 E / \partial f^2 \psi \leq 0$ at $f = \psi$, for all ψ in the plasma. In terms of the variables in Eq. (4), stability requires

$$\mu'(\langle u \rangle \psi^{-1})' / (\gamma - 1) + \lambda' \lambda' (1/r^2 u)' \leq 0. \quad (5)$$

It is difficult to decide analytically when the criterion will be satisfied except for the static case $\lambda = 0$. Then $u \leq 1$ and we have the condition $\mu' \psi'' \leq 0$. This is recognized as the well known interchange stability criterion, where it is pointed out that $2\pi\psi' = (\partial d/B)^{-1}$ and $\mu\psi'$ is the pressure. In the case of a reverse field configuration it appears that always $\mu' \geq 0$, hence we need μ to be *nondecreasing* towards the boundary. Notice that the pressure can still vanish at the plasma boundary if $\psi' \rightarrow 0$ there. Fortunately, this is the case since $K \rightarrow \infty$ at the boundary due to the singularity associated with the separatrix while $K\psi'$, which is the total toroidal current, remains finite. The current density however depends on the derivative of singular quantities and will tend to infinity towards the separatrix. This "skin current" appears regardless of the rotation only if we insist on interchange stable equilibria. The computation also suggests that

it is favorable for stability to have λ^2 decrease towards the separatrix.

Results

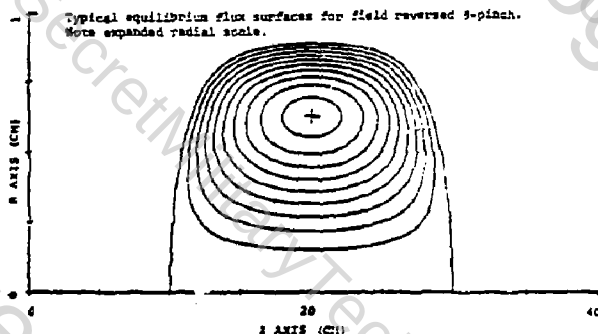
1. Typical compressions by increase of the magnetic flux in the vacuum region, tend to make flux surfaces circular while preserving the aspect ratio (defined as the ratio of the plasma radius to the radius of the magnetic axis).
2. Typical linear compressions tend to elongate the flux surfaces.
3. In all cases β increases by a few percent during compression. (β is defined in terms of volume integrals over the plasma region.)
4. The Mach number of the rotation (with respect to the relevant fast magnetoacoustic wave) increases by only a few percent during compression, thus removing the possibility of shocked solutions as the result of the increase in rotation frequency.
5. The evolution of the ratio $\alpha = \Omega/\Omega_A$, with Ω_A the diamagnetic frequency ($\Omega_A = V \times B / (2\pi n e B^2)$), was monitored during compression. $\alpha < 1$ is known [4] to be a sufficient condition for stability within the FLR model. We find in the few cases computed, that α decreases during compression thus suggesting that the compression itself will not give rise to rotational instabilities.

Acknowledgment

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TEARING-MODE STABILITY ANALYSIS OF A CYLINDRICAL PLASMA

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Reversed field θ -pinch experiments exhibit long lifetimes,¹⁻³ and the question of stability to the tearing mode frequently arises. In this note, we use neighboring equilibrium arguments originally developed by Pfirsch⁴ to show that tearing-mode stability is strongly enhanced if two conditions are fulfilled: the first that the flux tend to be excluded in the bulk of the plasma, and the second that the plasma edge lie close to the axis. Such conditions tend to be fulfilled in reversed-field θ -pinch experiments and may be responsible for lack of observations of tearing instability. This beneficial effect can also arise in steady-state plasmas with a significant bootstrap effect, where the flux is low throughout the body of the plasma.

First, let us consider a class of MHD cylindrical equilibria for the flux ψ that satisfy the Grad-Shafranov equation,

$$-\frac{\partial}{\partial r} \frac{1}{r} \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial r} + r^2 \frac{\partial p}{\partial \psi} = 0, \quad (1)$$

where p is the pressure, and the magnetic field $B_z = \frac{1}{r} \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial z}$. We choose

$$\frac{\partial p}{\partial \psi} = -\alpha^2 \psi \theta(\psi_e - \psi), \quad (2)$$

where ψ_e is the flux at the plasma edge.

The solution to Eq. (2) in the region containing plasma is

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$$\psi = \frac{B_e \cosh [\alpha(r^2 - r_0^2)/2]}{\alpha \sinh [\alpha(r_0^2 - r_e^2)/2]}$$

$$r_e^2 < r^2 < 2r_0^2 - r_e^2 \quad (3)$$

$$B = \frac{B_e \sinh [\alpha(r^2 - r_0^2)/2]}{\sinh [\alpha(r_0^2 - r_e^2)/2]}$$

Here r_0 is the position of the field null, and the inner and outer boundaries of the plasma are $r^2 = r_e^2$, $2r_0^2 - r_e^2$, respectively. We assume the presence of a wall ($r^2 = r_e^2$) that traps the flux of the plasma.

To apply the neighboring equilibrium method, we need to consider perturbations of the form $\delta\psi = \delta\psi_n(r) \exp(ikz)$ that satisfy the equation

$$r \frac{\partial}{\partial r} \frac{1}{r} \frac{\partial}{\partial r} \delta\psi - k^2 \delta\psi = -r^2 \frac{\partial^2}{\partial \psi^2} \delta\psi, \quad (4)$$

with the boundary condition $\delta\psi(r^2 = 0) = 0$. If we can show that $\delta\psi(r^2)$ has no nulls between $0 \leq r^2 \leq r_e^2$, then the system is stable to tearing. (This is the same technique used by Marx.⁵)

We now have, from Eq. (2),

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\partial^2 p}{\partial \psi^2} &= -\alpha^2 \delta(\psi_e - \psi_1) + \alpha^2 \delta(\psi - \psi_e) \psi_e \\ &= -\alpha^2 \delta(r^2 - r_e^2) \delta(2r_0^2 - r_e^2 - r^2) \\ &\quad + \frac{\alpha^2}{2B_e} \{ \delta(r - r_e) + \delta[r - (2r_0^2 - r_e^2)^{1/2}] \} \end{aligned} \quad (5)$$

Hence the equation for $\delta\psi$ becomes,

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{1}{r} \frac{d}{dr} \left(\frac{1}{r} \frac{d\delta\psi}{dr} \right) - \alpha^2 \delta\psi \left(r_0^2 - r_e^2 \right) \left(2r_0^2 - r_e^2 - r^2 \right) - k^2 \delta\psi / r^2 \\ = - \frac{2}{rB_e} \psi_e \left\{ \delta(r - r_e) + \delta(r - (2r_0^2 - r_e^2)^{1/2}) \right\} \end{aligned} \quad (6)$$

The easiest case to analyze (and the most difficult to stabilize) is $k = 0$, and we now limit ourselves to this case.

After solving for Eq. (6), the marginal stability condition found is,

$$\alpha r_w^2 \leq 2\alpha r_0^2 + 2 \sinh \left[\alpha(r_0^2 - r_e^2) \right] \left\{ 1 - \frac{\alpha r_e^2}{2} \coth \left[\frac{\alpha(r_0^2 - r_e^2)}{2} \right] \right\} \quad (7)$$

The most dramatic aspect of this result is the improvement of the stability criteria for large α if $\alpha r_e^2 < 2$. If we first consider $r_e = 0$, we have

$$\frac{r_w^2}{2r_0^2} = \begin{cases} 2 & , \quad \alpha r_0^2 \rightarrow 0 \\ \frac{1}{\alpha r_0^2} \exp(\alpha r_0^2) & , \quad \alpha r_0^2 \gg 1 \end{cases} \quad (8)$$

which shows that the wall can be exponentially far as α becomes large. Physically, α increasing corresponds to increasing the flux exclusion in the plasma. The flux contained in the plasma is $\psi(r_e) - \psi(r_0)$, which from Eq. (3b) gives,

$$\psi(r_e) - \psi(r_0) = \frac{B_e}{4\alpha r_0^2} (r_0^2 - r_e^2) \quad \alpha r_0^2 \gg 1 \quad \frac{B_e}{\alpha}$$

The stabilizing property of flux exclusion disappears if the plasma edge is away from the axis, i.e., $\alpha r_e^2/2 \geq 1$. Assuming $\alpha r_0^2 \gg 1$, αr_e^2 , Eq. (7) is approximately

$$r_w^2 \leq r_{ed}^2 + r_e^2 - \frac{2}{\alpha} \left(\frac{\alpha r_e^2}{2} - 1 \right) \sinh(\alpha r_0^2). \quad (9)$$

Then a wall outside the plasma can stabilize only when $\frac{\alpha r_e^2}{2} < 1$.

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THE TILTING MODE IN THE REVERSED-FIELD THETA PINCH*

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1. Introduction

There is currently active interest in plasma confinement schemes in which the separatrix extends to the major axis. Fusion experiments based on such configurations (e.g. the field-reversed theta pinch, the field-reversed mirror, Spheromak, etc.) are expected to avoid certain engineering difficulties associated with conventional toroidal devices. Higher values of β may also be attainable.

The MHD stability of such equilibria has been investigated analytically by Rosenbluth and Bussac [1] who used a modified energy principle to determine marginal stability to all ideal modes and most tearing modes. They found stability against magnetically driven modes for all toroidal mode numbers $n \geq 1$, but found an unstable $n=1$ mode for prolate spheroidal plasmas (prolomaks). This mode, which is characterized by a rotation of the major axis inside the separatrix, is termed the tilting mode.

In this paper we describe preliminary results of a numerical investigation of the resistive stability of such devices. We employ an initial value approach in which the linearized resistive MHD equations are used to follow the time evolution of an arbitrary perturbation in a known equilibrium configuration until an exponentially growing eigenmode appears. The fastest growing mode is thus determined. This differs from previous work [2] in that Fourier decomposition is performed only in the toroidal direction so that two-dimensional equilibria can be treated. The specific model is described briefly in section 2, and in more detail elsewhere [3].

We have applied our model to a numerically determined equilibrium [4] which contains no toroidal field and closely resembles the FRX-B experiment at Los Alamos. We find this prolate configuration to be unstable to an $n=1$ tilting mode, in qualitative agreement with ref. [1]. These results, and their relevance to experimental observations, are described in section 3.

2. Computational Model

We assume that the hydromagnetic approximation is valid, that the resistivity is isotropic; neglect pressure and inertia terms in Ohm's law, and take the fluid to be incompressible. When a static equilibrium ($\vec{v}=0$) and constant density are assumed, and the effects of perturbed resistivity are neglected, the resulting linearized resistive MHD equations are:

$$\frac{\partial \vec{B}_1}{\partial t} = \text{curl} \left(\vec{v}_1 \times \vec{B}_0 - \frac{c^2}{4\pi} \gamma_0 \text{curl} \vec{B}_1 \right), \quad (1)$$

$$\text{div} \vec{B}_1 = 0, \quad \text{div} \vec{v}_1 = 0, \quad (2)$$

$$-\rho_0 \nabla^2 \left(\frac{\partial \vec{v}_1}{\partial t} \right) = \frac{1}{4\pi} \text{curl} \text{curl} \left[(\vec{B}_0 \cdot \nabla) \vec{B}_1 + (\vec{B}_1 \cdot \nabla) \vec{B}_0 \right]. \quad (3)$$

*Work performed under the auspices of the U.S. Department of Energy by the Lawrence Livermore Laboratory under Contract Number W-7405-ENG-48.

We obtain Eq. (3) by taking the double curl of the equation of motion.

The component equations are written in cylindrical coordinates and the equilibrium is specified by: $B_0 = \hat{r} B_{r0}(r, z) + \hat{\phi} B_{\phi 0}(r, z) + \hat{z} B_{z0}(r, z)$. The perturbations are of the form $f(r, z, t) \exp(in\phi)$. In the following we consider non-axisymmetric instabilities ($n \neq 0$). The conditions (2) allow us to express v_{r1} and B_{z1} in terms of their corresponding r and z components. The Reversed Field Theta Pinch (RFTP) experiment contains no toroidal field ($B_{\phi 0} = 0$). This allows us to consider only the four variables v_{r1} , v_{z1} , B_{r1} , and B_{z1} . In the general case with non-zero $B_{\phi 0}$, we need to compute both the real and imaginary parts of the complex perturbations giving a total of eight unknown quantities.

It is convenient to put the equations in dimensionless form. There are two characteristic time scales in the problem, the resistive diffusion time, $\tau_R = 4\pi a^2 / c^2 \langle \eta \rangle$, and the hydromagnetic transit time, $\tau_H = a(4\pi \rho_0)^{1/2} / \langle B \rangle$. The symbol $\langle \cdot \rangle$ denotes a characteristic value for the enclosed variable; "a" denotes a characteristic distance. We non-dimensionalize time by τ_H , spatial coordinates by "a", magnetic fields by $\langle B \rangle$ and velocities by $v_A = a / \tau_H$. The magnetic Reynolds number is $S = \tau_R / \tau_H$.

In the RFTP case, the above substitutions in Eqs. (1) and (3) yield four equations of which we present only the B_{z1} equation in detail:

$$\frac{\partial B_{z1}}{\partial t} = \frac{n}{S} L(B_{z1}) - S^{-1} \frac{\partial n}{\partial r} \left(\frac{\partial B_{r1}}{\partial z} - \frac{\partial B_{z1}}{\partial r} \right) + \left(B_{r0} \frac{\partial v_{z1}}{\partial r} + B_{z0} \frac{\partial v_{z1}}{\partial z} - \frac{\partial B_{z0}}{\partial r} v_{r1} - \frac{\partial B_{z0}}{\partial z} v_{z1} \right) \quad (4)$$

$$\text{where } L(u) = \frac{1}{r} \frac{\partial}{\partial r} \left(r \frac{\partial u}{\partial r} \right) + \frac{\partial u}{\partial z^2} - \frac{n^2}{r^2} u.$$

Implicit Difference methods are used to solve the system of four equations. The same equations are assumed to hold inside the plasma and in the vacuum. We presently assume constant resistivity ($=1$) in the plasma but set n to an arbitrarily high value ($=10^{20}$) in the vacuum.

These assumptions allow the use of a modified leap-frog, predictor-corrector algorithm to advance the system one equation at a time. In the n -constant case under consideration, Eq. (4) does not contain B_{r1} . Given B_{z1} at time $n\Delta t$ and $(n-1)\Delta t$ and v_{z1} at $t = n\Delta t$, B_{z1} is advanced by its implicit discretization at $(n+1)\Delta t$, and a leap-frog discretization of v_{z1} at $n\Delta t$. Once B_{z1}^{n+1} is computed, a similar approach is used in the analogue of Eq. (4) to compute B_{r1}^{n+1} . Using B_{r1} at $t = n\Delta t$ and the newly computed B_{r1}^{n+1} , B_{z1}^{n+1} , the v_{r1} , v_{z1} equations are solved by implicit methods to compute the poloidal velocity. This describes the predictor phase of the time advancement. The fields can be corrected in a similar manner, however in practice the correction cycle is rarely used.

We are also able to compute axisymmetric ($n=0$) instabilities by similar initial value methods. The equations in this case are modified and are

described elsewhere [3]. Results for the RFTP indicate that those instabilities are less dangerous than the $n=1$ case to be described below.

3. Preliminary Results

We apply the methods described above to a numerically obtained equilibrium with zero toroidal field [4]. The particular case has a half-length of 45 cm., and a conducting wall of $r_w = 12.5$ cm. The resulting plasma properties are $n = 2 \times 10^{16}$ cm $^{-3}$, $B_{zwall} = 8.84$ KG, and $T = 100$ eV. The midplane plasma radius is 6 cm, the vortex radius is 3.4 cm, and the separatrix radius is 4.7 cm. The separatrix intersects the major axis at $z_{sep} = 20.9$ cm, so that the plasma resembles a prolomak with elongation $z_{sep}/r_{sep} = 4.45$. This configuration closely models the FRX-B experiment, and the poloidal flux surfaces are shown in figure 1. As stated above, we model the vacuum as a highly resistive region, and choose the scale length to be $a = r_{wall} = 12.5$ cm. This results in a magnetic Reynolds number $S = 103$.

As described above, we excite an $n=1$ perturbation and follow the solution forward in time until an exponentially growing eigenmode appears. In figure 2a we display the resulting poloidal velocity field $\vec{v}_p = v_r \hat{r} + v_z \hat{z}$, and figure 2b shows contours of constant toroidal velocity v_θ . We remark that the results portrayed in figures 2a,b lie on distinct $\phi = \text{const.}$ planes that differ by an angle of $\pi/2$. This is due to the description of the perturbations as $\text{Re}\{u(r,z,t)\exp(i\phi)\}$ and the use of Eq. (2) to express v_θ in terms of v_r and v_z . While the largest displacements are clearly concentrated near the vortex, a more detailed analysis reveals that there is net flow across the major axis corresponding to a tilting of the plasma inside the separatrix. Figure 3a shows the magnetic field vectors for the equilibrium configuration $\vec{B}_0 = B_{r0} \hat{r} + B_{z0} \hat{z}$. This is to be contrasted with figure 3b in which we plot $\vec{B} = \vec{B}_0 + .1 \vec{B}_1$, thus displaying the distortion due to the presence of the eigenmode. The tilting of the major axis is evident.

We have found the growth rate for this mode to be $\omega_i = 0.47$, approximately independent of resistivity. This corresponds to an e-folding time of ~ 2 μsec . However, experimental results indicate that such configurations can persist in a quiescent state for times approaching 30 μsec , the discharge being lost due to a rotationally driven $n=2$ interchange instability. There are several possible reasons for the lack of observation of the tilting mode [5]. Firstly, it is thought that the experimental flux surfaces may be more "racetrack" than elliptical, as they are in our model. In that case the concentration of magnetic field in the regions of high curvature may be stabilizing. Secondly, even if the experimental flux surfaces were elliptical, nonlinear effects may cause the field in the high curvature regions to increase, leading to a reduced growth rate or complete saturation. Thirdly, the effect of finite particle orbits on this mode is unknown, but is probably stabilizing.

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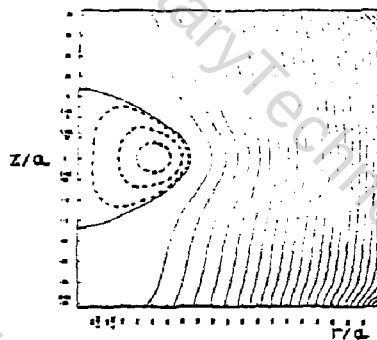


Fig. 1. Equilibrium ψ_0

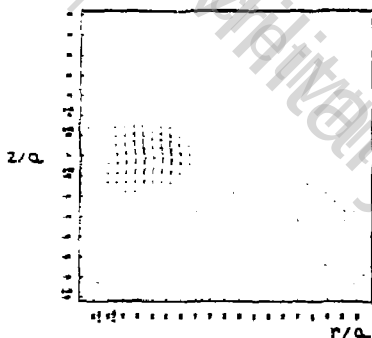


Fig. 2a. Perturbed poloidal velocity

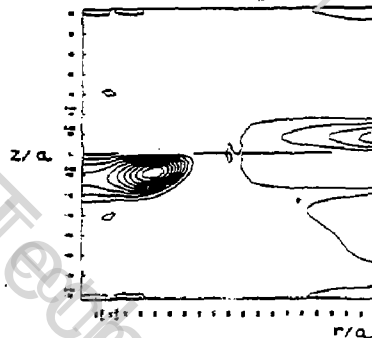


Fig. 2b. Perturbed toroidal velocity

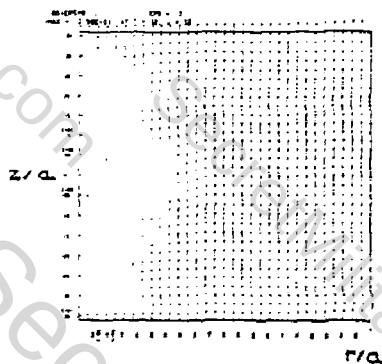


Fig. 3a. Equilibrium $\vec{B}_0$

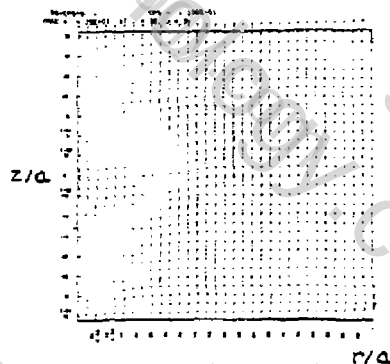


Fig. 3b. $\vec{B}_0 + (0.1)\vec{B}_1$

PERIODIC FIELD-REVERSED EQUILIBRIA FOR A MULTIPLE-CELL LINEAR THETA PINCH*

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I. Introduction

Analytical solutions for azimuthally symmetric reversed-field MHD equilibria were the object of several early investigations.¹ Recently, there has been renewed interest in these solutions, particularly in the investigation of the MHD stability of a Field-Reversed Theta Pinch.^{2,3} In this paper we report the possibility of producing periodic field-reversed equilibria in the High-Beta Q Machine.⁴ We give analytical solutions within the framework of a linear flux approach:⁵

$$\begin{aligned} p' &= dp/d\psi = \bar{p} \cdot (a + b\psi) \\ I^2 &= dI^2/d\psi = \bar{I}^2 (r_a^2 + r_b^2 b\psi), \end{aligned} \quad (1)$$

where ψ is the longitudinal flux, p the plasma pressure and I the longitudinal current. All other quantities are independent of r, z . The disposable parameters a and b are constrained by certain stability criteria² for the case where $I=0$ and ψ is periodic in z .

II. The Problem

A. Inside the plasma: We assume $p \neq 0$ and take the Fourier expansion of the real quantity $\tilde{\psi} = \psi + a/b$. After a change of variable to $x = cr^2$, the differential equation for the flux¹ takes the following form:

$$\frac{d^2}{dx^2} \tilde{\psi}_k(x) + \left(\frac{b}{4a^2} + \frac{1}{x} \frac{br_b^2 - k^2}{4a} \right) \tilde{\psi}_k(x) = \frac{1}{x} \frac{a(r_b^2 - r_a^2)}{4a} \delta_{k,0}. \quad (2)$$

Depending on the sign of b , we can choose the scaling parameter a conveniently to transform (2) into the form of the Coulomb-wave equation ($b>0$) or into Whittaker's standard form ($b<0$).⁵

For $\psi(r=0, z) \equiv 0$, and with $X(b) = \frac{1}{2}\sqrt{|b|} r^2(b)$, the general solution of the homogeneous part of (2) (i.e., $r_a=r_b$) reads⁶ as follows:

(1) for $b < 0$:

$$\psi(r, z) = \frac{a}{|b|} (1 - \Gamma(\frac{1}{2}X_b)) W_k(0, \frac{1}{2}X) + \sum_{k \neq 0} M_k(k, \frac{1}{2}X) (A_k e^{ikz} + A_{-k} e^{-ikz}) \quad (3a)$$

where $\kappa(k) = -k^2/4\sqrt{|b|} - \frac{1}{2}X_b$. The M 's and W 's are the regular and irregular Whittaker functions respectively.

(2) For $b > 0$:

$$\psi(r, z) = \frac{a}{b} (G_0(-\frac{1}{2}X_b; X) - 1) + \sum_{k \neq 0} F_0(\kappa(k), X) (A_k e^{ikz} + A_{-k} e^{-ikz}), \quad (3b)$$

*Work supported by the U.S. Department of Energy.

where $n(k) = k^2/4\sqrt{b} - \frac{1}{2}x_b$. Here F_L and G_L are the regular and irregular Coulomb-wave function.⁶

For reference we give only the resulting fields on axis ($r = 0$) for $I = 0$;

$$B_r = 0; B_z = \frac{\sqrt{|b|}}{2\pi} (2A_0 + \sum_{k \neq 0} (A_k e^{ikz} + A_{-k} e^{-ikz})). \quad (4)$$

If there is only one non-zero Fourier component, (4) implies for a multiple cell solution: $2A_0 < A_k + A_{-k}$.

- B. Vacuum solution: For $p = 0$ (and also for $p' = \text{const}$) the k -dependent solutions are modified Bessels functions for $m = 1$:

$$\psi_{\text{vac}}(r, z) = A_0^V + B_0^V r + r \sum_k e^{ikz} (A_k^V I_1(kr) + B_k^V K_1(kr)) + \text{c.c.} \quad (5)$$

Regarding boundary conditions, three cases are of importance:

- C. Boundary conditions across a current sheath (coil): For a current $j_\phi(r, z) = \delta(r-b) \cdot \exp ikz \cdot j_{\phi, k}$ on a cylindrical surface one has, in addition to the continuity of ψ_k :

$$\lim_{\epsilon \rightarrow 0} \left(\frac{d}{dr^2} \psi_k \Big|_{b+\epsilon} - \frac{d}{dr^2} \psi_k \Big|_{b-\epsilon} \right) = \frac{4\pi^2}{c} j_{\phi, k}. \quad (6)$$

- D. Boundary condition on a metallic wall (perfect skin effect):

$$\psi_k(r > b_W) = \lim_{\epsilon \rightarrow 0} \psi_k(b_W - \epsilon) = \text{const.} \quad (7)$$

- E. Plasma-vacuum interface: This interface is determined by the condition $p \rightarrow 0$ in the plasma and $p \equiv 0$ in vacuum. This boundary condition is non-linear. Generally, it has to be evaluated numerically, for on the surface both flux and its derivatives have to be continuous, and $\psi(r_s, z_s) = \bar{\psi}$, where $\bar{\psi}$ is the first zero (w.r.t. increasing r) of $p(\psi)$. In our case (c.f. (1)), depending on the choice of a , b , and $p_0 = p(\psi=0)/\bar{p}$:

$$\bar{\psi} = -\frac{a}{b} \pm \sqrt{\frac{a^2}{b^2} - \frac{2p_0}{b}}. \quad (8)$$

Of course, we require $p_0 \leq a^2/2b$ in the case $b > 0$ to ensure real $\bar{\psi}$. For preliminary demonstration, we have assumed appropriate surface values.

III. Results

The following stability criteria may be applied:²

- A. Interchange stability: Finite pressure on the separatrix, i.e., $\bar{\psi} < 0$.⁺ With (8), this always holds true for $b > 0$, but for $b < 0$ it implies that ψ within the plasma never exceed $a/|b| + (a^2/b + 2p_0/|b|)^{1/2}$. This is the case for multiple cell parameters.

⁺We choose $\psi > 0$ inside the separatrix.

B. Surface stabilization: Zero pressure gradient on plasma surface: $\nabla p|_S = p'|_S = 0$, i.e., $\bar{r} = -a/b$ and therefore $b > 0$ and $p_0 = a^2/2b$, where we used (B) and (A).

C. Roman candle stability: A sufficient condition is $p'' < 0$; i.e., $b < 0$.

In conclusion, we see that not all conditions can be satisfied simultaneously. For characteristic values of the parameters (cgs-units), field-lines ($\psi = \text{const}$), β_{local} , and pressure are depicted in Figures 1, 2 and 3.

IV. Application to the High-Beta Q Machine

This is a 3-meter, low density theta pinch whose plasma radius is about 5 cm. Its compression coil is segmented axially into 30 rings which can be excited with currents of alternating sign, before or after they are all excited in parallel to form the theta pinch. Figure 4b shows schematically the periodic vacuum bias field which might be used to form the field reversed cells of Figure 4a.

Acknowledgment

The authors wish to thank R. Sanchez for numerous discussions and assistance with the computational evaluation.

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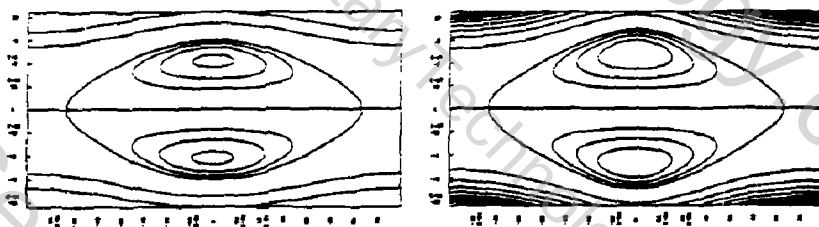


Fig. 1. Fieldlines for $a=4$, $A_0=0.5$, $A_k=A_{-k}=0.5125$, $k=\pi/4$, and $b=+1$ (left), $b=-1$ (right). Flux scale: inside separatrix $\Delta\psi=0.2$, outside $\Delta\psi=2$.

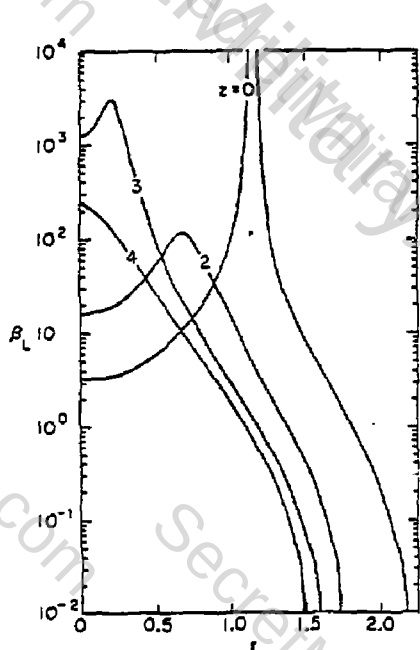


Fig. 2. $B_{0\text{local}}$ as a function of r and z for same parameters as in Fig. 1, with $b=+1$ and $p_0=8$. $B_{0\text{local}}$ is not very sensitive to changes of b for $-1 \leq b \leq +2$.

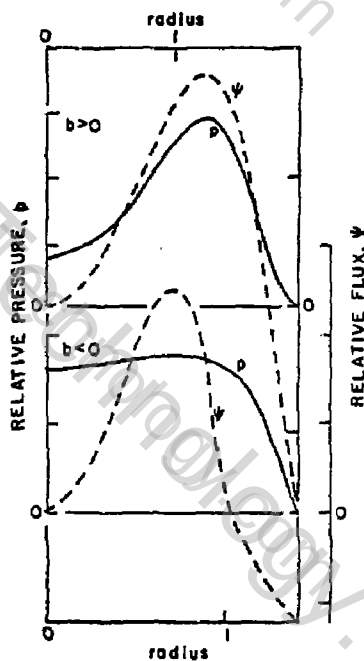


Fig. 3. Variation of magnetic flux and pressure with radius for negative and positive values of the parameter b of Eq. (1) at $z=0$.

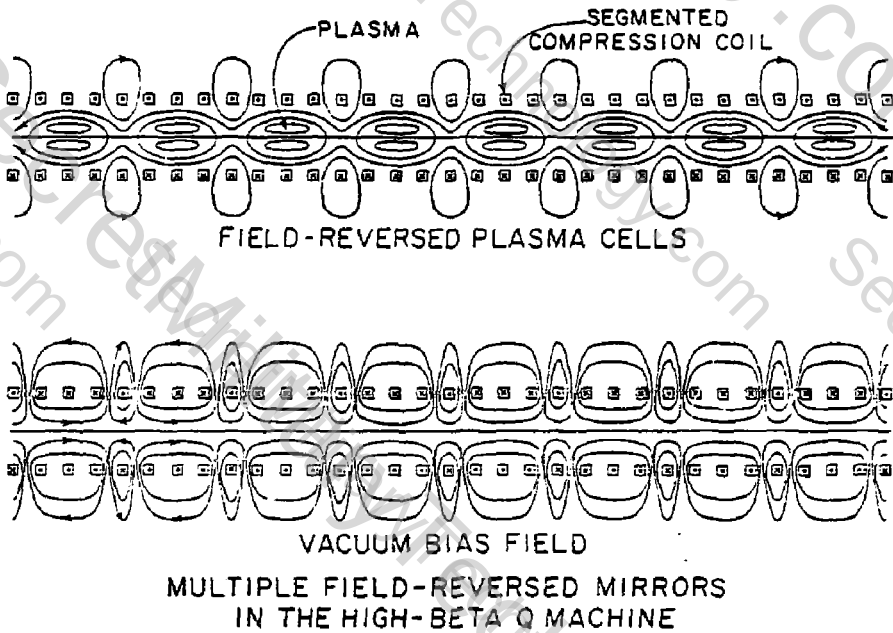


Fig. 4. Qualitative plots of periodic magnetic fields in the High Beta Q machine in vacuum (lower) and after plasma compression (upper).

ZERO DIMENSIONAL MODELING OF FIELD-REVERSE THETA PINCH MACHINES

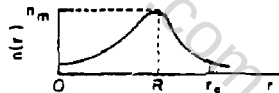
Edward H. Klewans, The Pennsylvania State University

A zero-dimensional (0-D) time dependent computer model is developed to describe post-implosion behavior of field-reverse theta pinch machines.¹⁻³ The model consists of six equations, representing the rate of change of plasma particle number, electron internal energy, and ion internal energy; radial pressure balance; axial tension balance; and the change of the flux inside the major radius R , where $B(R) = 0$. It is assumed that the length l is much larger than either R or the minor radius a , so that particle and heat losses are taken to be predominately radial. However, axial losses (through the X point, for example) can be included by use of phenomenological coefficients in the particle and heat loss confinement times.

A rigid rotor model² is chosen to describe the radial behavior of the density and B field:

$$n = n_m \operatorname{sech}^2 K[(r^2/R^2) - 1] \quad (1)$$

$$B = B_m \tanh K[(r^2/R^2) - 1] \quad (2)$$

Fig. 1. $n(r)$ vs. r .

where n_m and R , shown in Fig. 1, and K are time dependent parameters, and B_m is a specified function of time. The electron and ion temperatures are assumed to be uniform inside the separatrix. By setting $B(r_s) = -B(0)$, where r_s is the separatrix radius, one finds that $r_s = \sqrt{2}R$. The minor radius is defined by Linford² through the relation

$$n_m 2\pi R(2a) = \int_0^{r_s} n 2\pi r dr \text{ which yields } R/a = 4K/(1 + \tanh K) \quad (3)$$

Assuming axial uniformity of n and B within the separatrix, the equations for

$$N = 22\pi \int_0^{r_s} dr n(r) = 2\pi n_m \int_0^{r_s} dr \operatorname{sech}^2 K[(r^2/R^2) - 1] = 2\pi n_m \frac{2}{K} \tanh K \quad (4)$$

$$W_e = 22\pi (3/2) T_e \int_0^{r_s} dr n(r) = 2\pi n_m \frac{2}{K} 1.5 T_e \tanh K \quad (5)$$

$$W_i = 22\pi (3/2) T_i \int_0^{r_s} dr n(r) = 2\pi n_m \frac{2}{K} 1.5 T_i \tanh K \quad (6)$$

can be reduced to

$$\frac{1}{n_m} \frac{dn_m}{dt} = -\frac{1}{\tau} - \frac{2}{R} \frac{dR}{dt} - \frac{1}{2} \frac{dK}{dt} - \left(\frac{2K}{\sinh 2K} - 1 \right) \frac{1}{K} \frac{dK}{dt} \quad (7)$$

$$\frac{1}{T_e} \frac{dT_e}{dt} = \left(\frac{T_i - T_e}{T_e} \right) \left(\frac{1}{\tau_{eq}} \right) - \frac{1}{\tau_e} - \frac{4}{3} \frac{1}{R} \frac{dR}{dt} - \frac{2}{3} \frac{1}{2} \frac{dK}{dt} + \frac{\dot{H}_e}{W_e} \quad (8)$$

$$\frac{1}{T_i} \frac{dT_i}{dt} = -\left(\frac{T_i - T_e}{T_i} \right) \left(\frac{1}{\tau_{eq}} \right) - \frac{1}{\tau_i} - \frac{4}{3} \frac{1}{R} \frac{dR}{dt} - \frac{2}{3} \frac{1}{2} \frac{dK}{dt} \quad (9)$$

where τ is the particle confinement time; τ_{th} and τ_{th}^i are the electron and ion thermal conduction times; $(1/\tau_{eq})$ is the average of the inverse of the electron-ion equilibration time, defined by

$$(1/\tau_{eq}) = \frac{2}{N} 2\pi \int_0^{r_s} dr n(r) / \tau_{eq}(r) = \left[\frac{8\sqrt{2}\pi}{3m_i} e^{1/2} a^4 Z^2 n \Lambda \right] \frac{n_m}{T_e^{3/2}} (1 - \frac{\tanh^2 K}{3}) \quad (10)$$

where the Spitzer expression for $\tau_{eq}(r)$ was used; and $\dot{H}_0$ is the Ohmic heating rate given by

$$\dot{H}_0 = \int_0^R dr 2\pi r n_e j_g^2 \quad (11)$$

with n_e , the classical cross field electrical resistivity (associated with flux annihilation), and j_g , the diamagnetic current density, given by

$$j_g = -\frac{c}{4\pi}(\partial B_z/\partial r) = -(rcKB_z/2\pi R^2)\text{sech}^2 K[(r^2/R^2) - 1] \quad (12)$$

Particle confinement is governed by $\tau_p = N/[2\pi r_s l(nu_r)_{r_s}]$. Assuming diffusive loss at the separatrix,

$$(nu_r)_{r_s} = -D \left(\frac{\partial n}{\partial r} \right)_{r_s} = -\{[(c^2 n_e p_n(r_s)(T_e + T_i))/B^2(r_s)](\partial n/\partial r)_{r_s}\} \quad (13)$$

where τ_p is the resistivity governing particle loss. Several expressions for τ_p have been tested, including classical resistivity and the lower hybrid drift resistivity.⁴ The former expression resulted in particle losses which were too small and did not agree with experiment. Consequently, we have chosen⁴

$$\tau_p = \frac{2\sqrt{2}\pi^{3/2}}{5\Omega_i} \left(\frac{m_e}{m_i} \right)^{1/2} \frac{(T_i/T_e)^{5/4}}{1 + (T_i/T_e)} \frac{\Omega_i^2}{\omega_i^2} (\epsilon_n a_i)^2 \left[1 - \frac{1}{\sqrt{10}} \left(\frac{T_i}{T_e} \right)^{1/4} \right] \quad (14)$$

where Ω_i is the ion cyclotron frequency and ω_i is the ion plasma frequency. The quantity ϵ_n is the inverse gradient length, and a_i is the ion gyro-radius. When ϵ_n is evaluated at the separatrix using a rigid rotor profile, the value ϵ_n is sufficiently small that particle loss times are larger than those observed experimentally. Hamasaki⁵ has found from 1-D modeling that the density drops very rapidly outside the separatrix, so ϵ_n should be larger than the value obtained from the rigid rotor profile. These uncertainties have led us to take the quantity $\epsilon_n a_i$ as a parameter which can be varied. Typically we have found that $\epsilon_n a_i = 2$ yields good agreement with experimental data.

The treatment of thermal conduction is uncertain because the temperature is constant inside the separatrix and is unknown outside the separatrix. If it is assumed that hot ions which cross the separatrix flow out the ends without collision then there is no ion thermal conduction loss across the separatrix. Classical cross field ion thermal conduction with an ion gyro-radius temperature gradient length has also been studied. Although the differences in results are not great, dropping ion thermal conduction gives better agreement with experiment.

For electron thermal conduction we use

$$\tau_{ch}^e = \delta / (q_r^e)_{r_s} \text{ where } (q_r^e)_{r_s} = -K^e (\partial T_e / \partial r)_{r_s} = -K^e (T_e / \delta) \quad (15)$$

where δ is the thermal sheath length and K^e is the classical value for electron thermal conductivity. The value of δ is not known, but two choices were examined: $\delta = a_i$ and $\delta = \sqrt{2} a_e$. When $\delta = a_i$ is used, electron thermal conduction times are so long that electron thermal conduction is unimportant. When the hybrid gyro-radius is used, electron thermal conduction is no longer negligible, and may be responsible for the observed "clamping" of the electron temperature, in spite of a continual energy input from the hotter ions. Consequently the hybrid radius was chosen for the present studies. [Radiation

from oxygen impurities was also considered as a possible mechanism for electron temperature clamping, but it was found to be small.]

The unknowns in this theory are n_m , K , R , z , T_e and T_i . Consequently three more equations are needed. The first is obtained from pressure balance:

$$(1/n_m)(dn_m/dt) = -[1/(T_e + T_i)](dT_e/dt + dT_i/dt) + (2/B_m)(dB_m/dt) \quad (16)$$

The next equation represents magnetic flux change inside R :

$$d\phi/dt = (d/dt) \int_0^R dr r B = \int_0^R dr r (\partial B / \partial t) \quad (17)$$

Using Ampere's Law and Ohm's Law to compute $\partial B / \partial t$, the integral on the right can be evaluated. The integral in the middle is evaluated using Eq. (2). After differentiation, Eq. (17) can be reduced to the expression

$$\frac{2}{R} \frac{dR}{dt} = -\frac{1}{\tau_\phi} - \left(\frac{K \tanh K}{\log \cosh K} - 1 \right) \frac{1}{K} \frac{dK}{dt} - \frac{1}{B_m} \frac{dB_m}{dt} \quad (18)$$

where $\tau_\phi = (4R^2 \log \cosh K) / (\eta_e \phi c^2 K^2)$ is the decay time for the flux.

The final expression is obtained from axial tension balance (see Fig. 2).

$$\int_0^{r_w} dr [B^2(r, z_0) / 8\pi - p(r, z_0)] \\ = \int_0^{r_w} dr [B^2(r, 0) / 8\pi - p(r, 0)] \quad (19)$$

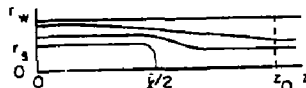


Fig. 2. B line behavior.

where r_w is a conducting wall, and $l/2 \ll z_0 <$ chamber half length. We neglect particle pressure at z_0 , and take $B(r, z_0) = B(z_0)$. Also we neglect particle pressure beyond the separatrix at $z = 0$, and set $B(r, 0) = B_0$ for $r_s < r < r_w$. Using flux conservation, $B(z_0)\pi r_w^2 = B_0\pi(r_w^2 - r_s^2)$. Then Eq. (19) can be evaluated, resulting in the expression $(R^2/r_s^2) = 1 - (\tanh K)/K$. Note that setting $r_s^2 = 2R^2$ results in a maximum value for K of 1.91. Converting the last expression into a differential equation we obtain

$$(2/R)(dR/dt) = [K \tanh^2 K / (K - \tanh K) - 1](1/K)(dK/dt) \quad (20)$$

The set of six equations can be reduced to obtain an equation for z :

$$\frac{1}{z} \frac{dz}{dt} = -\frac{3}{5} \frac{1}{\tau_i} + \left(\frac{T_e}{T_e + T_i} \right) \frac{1}{\tau_{eh}} + \left(\frac{T_i}{T_e + T_i} \right) \frac{1}{\tau_{th}} + \frac{3}{5} \frac{\dot{n}}{n_e} + \frac{\alpha}{\tau_\phi} - \left(\frac{6}{5} - \alpha \right) \frac{1}{B_m} \frac{dB_m}{dt} \quad (21)$$

where α is a function of K and is approximately 0.5 for the LASL experiments.

It is seen that z can expand or contract depending on the relative size of the heating and loss terms, and the behavior of the B field.

The set of Eqs. (7), (8), (9), (16), (18) and (20) has been solved simultaneously on the computer. Comparison with a recent FRX-B set of experiments³ conducted at 17 mTorr fill pressure of D_2 are shown in Figs. 3 and 4. Initial values correspond to $t = 10$ μ s in the experiment. Initial conditions are the following: $B_0 = 6.8$ kG, $T_i = 200$ eV; $T_e = 120$ eV; $n_m = 3.6 \times 10^{15}$ cm⁻³; $K = 1.1$; $R = 4$ cm; $l = 50$ cm and $N = 1.3 \times 10^{19}$. The magnetic field behavior is given approximately by $B = B_0[1 - (t/96 \mu s)]$. Fig. 3 shows temperature behavior. Ion temperature behavior, which is dominated by ion-electron equilibration, is in good agreement with experiment. Electrons gain heat from ions and lose it slowly through electron thermal conduction. The experimental re-

sults suggest a greater electron energy loss, either from anomalous electron thermal conduction or from radiation. Fig. 4 shows the decay of N and n_m , both with an exponential decay time of $\tau = 50 \mu s$. These results are within the large error bars of the experimental values. Quantities not shown include length l , which decreased from 50 cm to 46 cm in 20 μs ; R , which increased from 4.0 to 4.2 cm; and K , which increased from 1.1 to 1.2. These results are consistent with experimental observation.

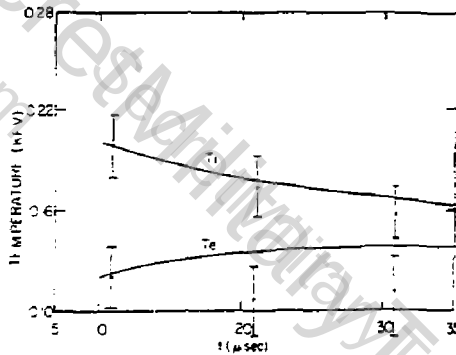


Fig. 3. T_e and T_i vs. t .
(ϵa_1) = 2; $\delta = \sqrt{a_e a_i}$

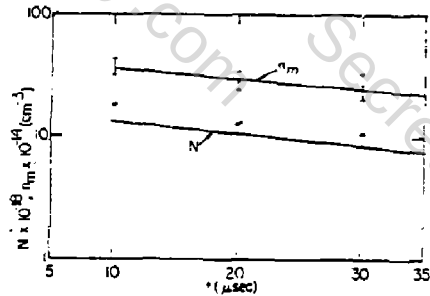


Fig. 4. N and n_m vs. t .
(ϵa_1) = 2; $\delta = \sqrt{a_e a_i}$

In conclusion, a 0-D model has been constructed which predicts behavior consistent with behavior observed in FRX-B. Additional work on electron temperature modeling may be needed. The model will next be used for scaling studies and comparison with the 1-D model of Hamasaki.⁵

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SPHEROMAK FORMATION BY THETA PINCH

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Abstract

Spheromak configuration is formed by using a theta pinch combined with a z-discharge. Toroidal field is generated by the z-current flowing in the plasma and the reverse current on its surface. The reverse mechanism is investigated here by the analysis of z-discharge circuit including the plasma. It is easy to reverse 70% of z-current on the plasma surface by using a very low external inductance circuit.

1. Introduction

Compact torus has a number of advantages in order to simplify the machine design.¹⁾ However, it is not easy to generate the toroidal field because of the spherical design. The toroidal field can be produced by z-discharge current operated with a linear theta pinch. It is necessary for the formation of magnetic surface that most of z-current flowing in the plasma returns on its surface as soon as the reverse field configuration is formed. Two methods are considered to produce this closed current loop. One is the return of z-current due to an inverse voltage applied from an external circuit between the electrodes.²⁾ The other is that due to an inverse voltage associated with the compression of plasma column. The latter case is investigated here from analysis of the electric circuit including the compressed plasma. The analysis shows that the large reverse ratio of z-current is obtained by the small external inductance of z-discharge circuit and the large compression ratio of plasma. Experimental results agree well with that of the analysis.

2. Generation of Reverse Current

It was already shown that the reverse toroidal current emerged on the plasma column when the tokamak plasma was compressed by the fast rising toroidal field.³⁾ It is expected that the reverse current can be also generated in the linear machine. The z-current is initially flowed in the plasma along the bias field through the electrodes without the self pinch. When the current is compressed by the theta pinch field, the reverse current emerges on the plasma surface. The reverse current will link with the initial current at the ends where the conductivity of plasma is very low.

Two conditions must be imposed on the generation of reverse current. One is that the field diffusion time is longer than the compression time due to the theta pinch field. The other is a condition to the z-discharge circuit. The present experimental circuit is shown in Fig.1-(a). Since the theta pinch field is applied to the current after the short of the 1st crowbar circuit, it is important to take out only the right side net-

work. Its equivalent circuit is shown simply in Fig.1-(b), where L_e and R_e are the inductance and the resistance of external circuit, respectively, and L_p and R_p are the inductance and the resistance of plasma. The L_p is sum of the external inductance, L_{pe} , and the internal inductance, L_i , of plasma. Then the circuit equation is written as follows

$$\frac{d}{dt} [(L_e + L_p) I] + (R_e + R_p) I = 0 \quad (1)$$

By using the conservation of poloidal flux in plasma, reverse ratio of z-current, α , is calculated from Eq.(1) as follows ⁴⁾

$$\alpha = \frac{I_0 - I}{I_0} = \frac{(\mu_0 l / 2\pi) \ln(a/r_p)}{L_e + (\mu_0 l / 2\pi) \ln(b/r_p)} \quad (2)$$

where I_0 is trapped current in plasma, l is length of plasma column, a is initial plasma radius, r_p is compressed plasma radius and b is inner radius of conducting shell. From this equation the next conditions are needed for the effective generation of the reverse current;

- (1) much smaller external inductance of the circuit than that of the compressed plasma,
- (2) large compression ratio,
- (3) small distance between the conducting shell and the tube wall as possible.

We show the reverse ratio as functions of the compression ratio, r_p/a , and L_e in Fig.4, where l , a and b are values in the present experiment.

3. Apparatus

The experimental machine consists of a theta pinch system and a z-discharge one, as shown in Fig.2. The machine is so designed as to generate largely the reverse current. The theta pinch coil produces 800 G negative bias field and 10 kG compression field having 2 μ s rise time. The discharge tube has two cylindrical electrodes at both ends, which are 230 cm apart each other. The z-current flowing in the plasma returns to the electric circuit through the conducting shell. The z-current can be obtained till 50 kA by varying the inductance L_0 shown in Fig.1. The 1st crowbar circuit is connected in order to reduce the external inductance, L_e . This switch is clamped at a quarter period of the current ringing. The decay behavior of the current in plasma is mainly determined by the inductance, L_p , and the resistance, R_p . The 2nd crowbar switch is set for decoupling the current flowing in condenser with the current in plasma. This switch is usually clamped at a half period of the current ringing. The theta pinch field is applied to compress the plasma near the time when the 2nd crowbar switch is clamped. A typical wave form of plasma current is shown in Fig.3.

4. Experimental Results

At first the plasma is produced by the z-discharge. The magnitude of z-current must be selected to get a initial plasma without self pinch. It is also necessary that most of the

current flows in the plasma, but does not on its surface. The reason is that the reverse current emerges on the plasma when the plasma is compressed. The slow rise time and the crowbar of the plasma current are favorable to this condition. At the present experiment, the current is adjusted to 10 kA with the rise time of 10 μ s. The plasma current shows the rapid decrease with the increase of the compression field and the slow decrease after the crowbar of compression field, as shown in Fig.3. At the present experiment three values of 60, 150 and 270 nH are prepared for L_e . The observed values of $\alpha = 70, 62$ and 49 % corresponding to each inductance are plotted with small circles in Fig.4. The radius predicted from the analysis is about 2.5cm which is independent of experimental values, L_e and L_p . The similar size radius is an anticipated result because the compression ratio will not depend on almost the external inductance, L_e . The internal profiles of magnetic field are measured by a magnetic probe inserted into the plasma in case of $L_e=60$ nH. The B_z and B_θ profiles at 1 μ s after the plasma compression are shown in Fig.5 and Fig.6, respectively. The data of three shots are plotted in these figures at every radial position. The dotted line in Fig.6 is the current density profile calculated from the observed radial profile of the average value of B_θ on the assumption that the z-current flows cylindrically along the axis. Because of bad reproducibility of B_θ near the axis, the current density is not calculated there. The current density profile shows the clear generation of the reverse current. The plasma radius estimated from this profile is about 3cm. The radial position of the null current surface in the plasma agrees well with that of $B_z=0$. The total B_z flux trapped in the plasma equals nearly the flux produced by the compression field within 2.5cm. This radius is almost the same within experimental errors as the current flowing region calculated from B_θ profile and the radius predicted from the reverse ratio of the current.

5. Conclusion and Discussion

Productions of the toroidal field for spheromak configuration are studied from the analysis of electric circuit of z-discharge. The analysis shows the generation of reverse current on the plasma column with the plasma compression due to the theta pinch. Magnetic probe measurements show clearly not only the generation of reverse current, but also the establishment of spheromak configuration.

Merits of the present method are that the reverse of z-current can be done by using a simple technique like a theta pinch and its magnitude can be controlled by such parameters as the external inductance of z-discharge circuit, the compression ratio and the length of plasma. The effect of the externally supplying voltage is excluded here, it will be needed in such case that the studies of spheromak configuration are made at the unfavorable condition to the generation of the reverse current.

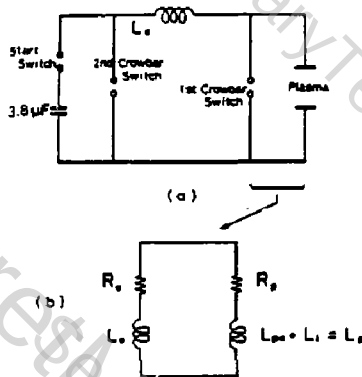


Fig. 1 Z-discharge Circuit

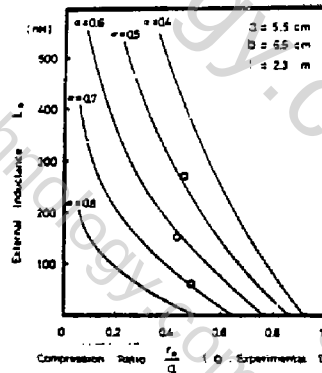


Fig. 4 Current Reverse Ratio

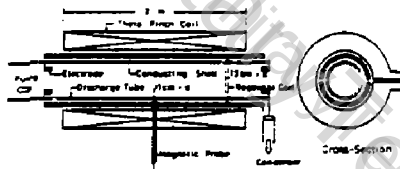


Fig. 2 Experimental Apparatus

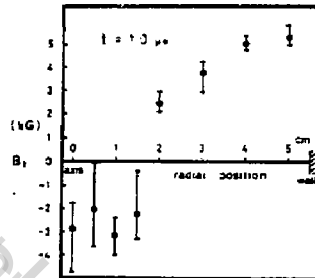


Fig. 5 Radial Profile of B_z



Upper Beam : Compression Field
10kG/div, 5μs/div
Lower Beam : Plasma Current
4 kA/div, 5μs/div

Fig. 3 Oscilloscope Trace

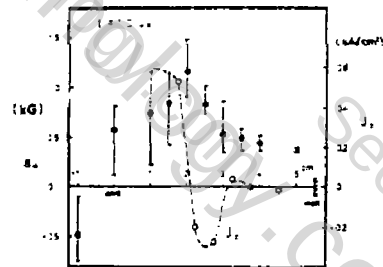


Fig. 6 Radial Profiles of B_z and J_z

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FIELD-REVERSED PLASMA GUN BASED ON THE INVERSE-PINCH DISCHARGE

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The inverse pinch (i.e., hard-core pinch or unpinch) discharge possesses several properties that make it potentially useful as the basis of a plasma gun for injecting a field-reversed plasma into a confinement device. The useful characteristics are: (1) the possibility of initial resistive heating by axial current flow followed by compression heating; (2) the controlled generation of toroidal and poloidal plasma currents and the associated magnetic field components; and (3) the relatively slow plasma formation time which permits the use of pulse technology on the time scale of several microseconds. These characteristics are shared with the imploding-pinch concept upon which the Paramagnetic Spheromak (PS-1)¹ is based, but in addition the inverse pinch is theoretically stable to ideal MHD instabilities as predicted by the Suydam criterion². It may therefore offer some advantages in high-power regimes of operation or for certain geometrical shapes.

To produce a useful hot plasma the pinch discharge must be separated from the electrodes and translated axially to clear them before further heating by compression or other means takes place. Several recent experiments have shown that this separation can be done.

The experimental properties of the inverse pinch discharge were reported by Colgate and Furth³ in 1960 and by Aitken, et al.⁴, in 1964. Improved MHD behavior relative to the imploding pinch was found, but non-MHD instabilities identified as the tearing mode were observed. This mode was apparently more prominent in the Aitken experiment, a result attributable to the longer length of the discharge tube. More recently, the inverse pinch discharge was successfully used as a preionizer in a Marshall coaxial gun⁵ and as a plasma injector for TORMAC⁶. The TORMAC plasma injector has recently been reported to have produced a detached plasma ring with many of the properties expected from the analysis presented in this paper⁶.

The basic operation of the proposed inverse-pinch plasma gun is illustrated in Fig. 1. A discharge with an initial positive (or negative) B_z bias field is accelerated radially by the inverse-pinch $J \times B$ radial force. A toroidal field (B_θ) is produced in the plasma by the z-directed current flow. As the plasma ring crosses the axial magnetic field it will develop a toroidal current J_θ to preserve constant flux linkage by the plasma ring. Thus a toroidal and poloidal magnetic field component will be generated in the plasma. The plasma ring must be separated from the inverse-pinch electrodes while maintaining

this magnetic structure. From the results of the TORMAC and PS-1 experiments^{1,6} it appears that this separation can occur. Following separation the ring must be transported axially to clear the gun electrodes. Axial transport velocities observed in field-reversed ring experiments range from 1 to 20 cm/μsec, limited by eddy-current drag in the adjacent metal walls.^{7,8} Therefore the time scale for axial transport should be a few microseconds, sufficiently fast in comparison to the pinch time and the plasma energy confinement time (expected to be 20-40 μsec). Radial compression could then follow to reheat the plasma as shown in Fig. 1(c,d).

Inverse pinch experiments^{3,4} indicate that one can use axial currents up to 300kA and produce plasmas with B_z and B_θ values in the 1-10kG range, and toroidal currents of several kA. Electron temperatures are estimated to be 5 to 10 eV and densities are 10^{14} to $10^{16}/\text{cm}^3$. The β for the plasmas produced in References 3 and 4 is of the order of unity. The aspect ratio R/a (see dimensions in Fig. 1) varies from ≈ 0.1 in the Aitken apparatus to ≈ 10 in the TORMAC gun. The range of B_θ and B_z , and the geometry make these plasmas similar to belt-pinch of tokamak plasmas.

As shown in Figure 1, the ejected plasma may have an aspect ratio of the order of 3 to 10, and the geometry is similar to that of a tokamak. Since stability requires the safety factor

$$q = \frac{a}{R} \frac{B_\theta}{B_z} \approx 1 \quad (1)$$

this configuration will have B_θ much larger than B_z and $\beta_\theta = R/a$ as in tokamaks; thus $\beta = a/Rq^2$ may have to be small to maintain stability. In this geometry several azimuthal coils would be pulsed to supply dB_z/dz to translate the plasma ring in a manner similar to the use of radial B-field control to position a tokamak plasma vertically.

By using a smaller aspect ratio one approaches belt-pinch geometry and

$$q = \frac{2a}{R} \frac{B_\theta}{B_z} \quad (2)$$

with $2a \approx R$. Thus one can obtain $q=1$ with $B_\theta=B_z$ and high β . The axial inverse-pinch plasma current would control B_θ and the azimuthal coil currents control B_z . The magnetic field and plasma parameters of the early experiments give $q=1$ from Eq. (2) and $\beta=1$.

A plasma in the belt-pinch geometry could be generated directly by using a B_z reverse-bias field in the inverse pinch. Discharges with a reverse field of 4kG inside the plasma and a positive B_z field of 3.5kG outside the plasma have been produced by an inverse-pinch with $2a/R=4$ at a time of 15 μs after

initiation of the discharge³. By forcing reconnection of the field lines at each end, one may be able to form a reversed-field plasma in this geometry and translate it axially. Es'kov, et. al.⁹, have reported doing this in a hard core device with $q=1$ and $\beta=6-.9$. In their device the hard core current did not return through the plasma as in the inverse pinch.

An inverse-pinch plasma gun utilizing belt-pinch geometry and the field reconnection and axial transport scheme of Es'kov, et. al.,^{8,9} is illustrated in Figure 2. A plasma cylinder with entrapped B_z and reverse-bias B_z is injected from the inverse-pinch electrodes and a positive B_z field is applied by an external coil. A pulsed coil at one end forces reconnection at that end and accelerates the plasma cylinder axially. A similar pulsed coil causes reconnection at the other end before the pinch electrodes are cleared, and axially compresses the plasma. A transverse octupole "barrier" field similar to that of Es'kov, et. al.,⁹ could be used to prevent the plasma from striking the wall. The new feature in the scheme of Figure 2 is the entrapped B_z field, which with the induced poloidal field should allow a stable high- β equilibrium to exist from the onset of the discharge.

CONCLUSION

The inverse-pinch discharge has a proven magnetic-field configuration with stability and geometric properties that make it attractive for generating a reversed-field plasma. A high- β plasma cylinder or ring can be generated with frozen-in poloidal and toroidal magnetic field components. The inverse-pinch discharge is theoretically MHD stable and has shown superior stability properties in experiments. By choice of the aspect ratio, one can produce tokamak- or belt-pinch-like geometries. In the latter case one could use azimuthal coils to force reconnection of field lines and axially compress the plasma.

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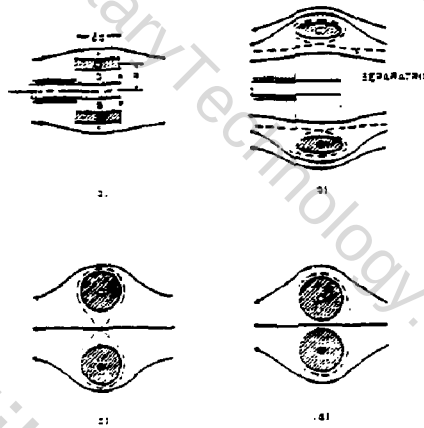


Fig. 1 (a) Inverse pinch stage with B_z bias field. (b) After separation from inverse pinch electrode and formation of separatrix by induced azimuthal current. (c) After axial translation and radial compression. (d) After additional compression.

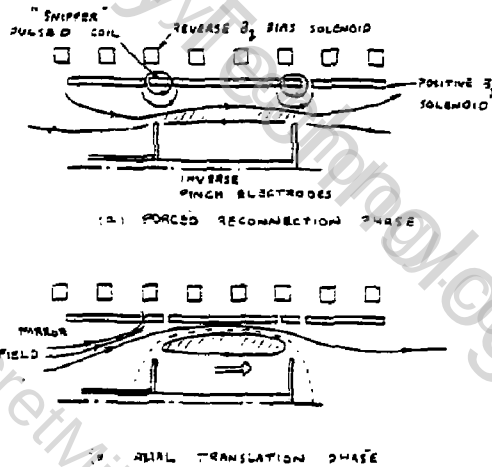


Fig. 2 General scheme for separation from electrodes, forced reconnection, and axial translation of an elongated plasma ring.

A TRIGGERED-RECONNECTION COMPACT TOROID EXPERIMENT

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Field reversed theta pinches have been the subject of renewed interest both in the Soviet Union and the United States. The primary reason for this interest is the attainment of plasma configurations which are stable for many Alfvén times. One particularly interesting and very promising compact torus experiment is the BH-I device of Kurtmullaev and co-workers at the Kurchatov Institute.¹ This group has observed plasma lifetimes of up to 100 μ sec in a 1 m long device. The lifetime was limited by electrical circuit parameters alone, with no tendency toward rotational instability, which has been the lifetime terminating process in all other long lived field reversed theta pinch experiments.

The principal feature of the BH-I experiment is careful control of the field line reconnection process so as to maximize the trapped poloidal flux. A byproduct of this technique is an increase in the non-adiabatic plasma heating through rapid axial compression, which has important implications for both current experiments and eventual reactor designs. Mathematical Sciences Northwest, Inc. (MSNW) has initiated a reversed field theta pinch experiment which is designed to incorporate and improve on the features of the Kurchatov experiment, to thoroughly explore the controlled reconnection process, and to investigate the full parameter space between conventional "radial" compression processes and the axial compression brought about by triggered reconnection. An additional principal objective of this experiment is to explore the causes and cures for plasma rotation.

A schematic of the MSNW experimental apparatus, which is closely patterned after the Soviet experiment,¹ is shown in Figure 1. A bias field is created by an "external" quasi-steady solenoid. An additional quasi-steady coil at each end is used to apply a mirror or cusp field configuration. Eight pairs of oppositely directed longitudinal conductors are located as shown to form a pulsed octopole field near the tube wall. In addition, at each end there is a very fast pulsed mirror "trigger coil" used to force reconnection at the desired time.

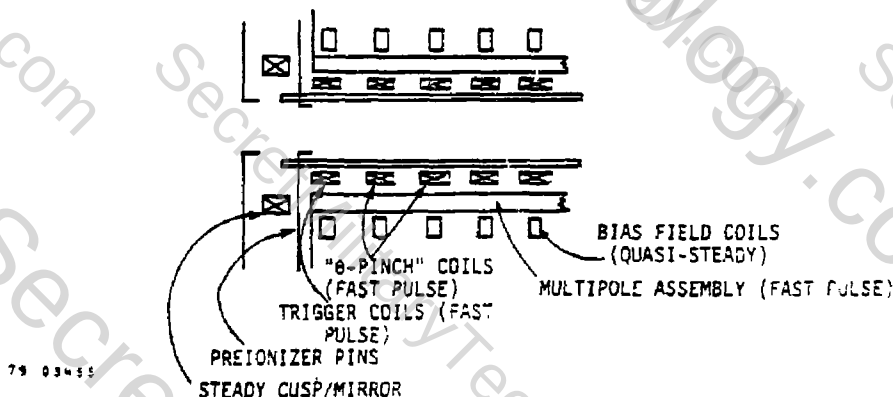


Figure 1. Schematic of MSNW Experimental CT Apparatus

Figure 2 shows sketches of the field line topology at various phases of a second half cycle "Russian operating mode". A bias field with a weak mirror is established, and the plasma is preionized (Stage 1). The main field is then applied, first in the direction of the bias. It rings through the first half cycle and reaches a maximum in the opposite direction, creating a cusp in the outer field lines (Stage 2). During the period when the main field passes through zero, the octopole field is pulsed on in order to minimize plasma-wall contact and to thus prevent rapid cooling and loss of trapped bias field. This technique maximizes the compact toroid poloidal flux, and

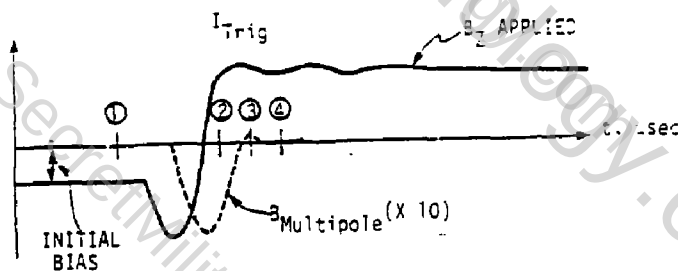
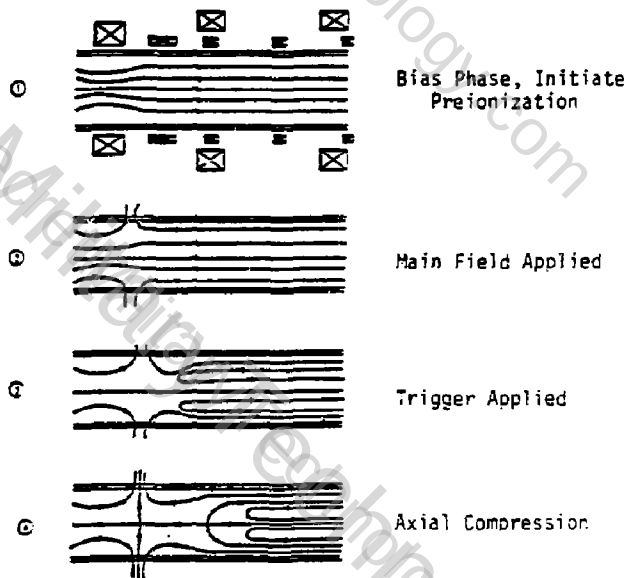
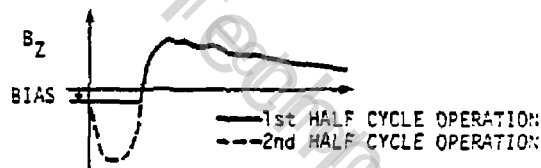


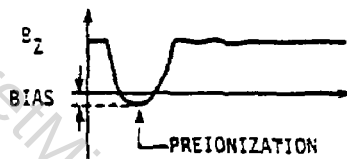
Figure 2. Stages of Toroid Formation Using Cusp Holdoff and Triggered Reconnection (second half-cycle operating mode)

may also inhibit development of rotation. When the main field is near its peak value, the fast trigger coil is energized, causing rapid reconnection (Stage 3). The resulting toroid is not in equilibrium and strong axial compression occurs (Stage 4). In the Russian experiments, it was shown that this axial contraction increased the line energy density and the separatrix radius, resulting in long plasma lifetimes.

The MSNW experiment, while incorporating all of the features of the Kurchatov experiment, has the capability of providing a higher rate of field rise so that it can explore the trade offs between radial and axial "shock" heating. It employs an axial Z discharge, so that high levels of preionization are possible and it can operate on either first or second half cycles. First and second half cycle operation is indicated by the B_z plots on Figure 3a labelled "conventional operation". Also shown is a mode labelled "compound magnet operation" which uses a quasi-steady outer solenoid and a fast pulsed concentric inner "theta pinch" coil set. In this second mode, the initial quasi-steady field is nulled out by the inner theta pinch coils, and operation from that point proceeds as it does in the "standard" mode. The principal experimental advantage is the ability to achieve a fast rise (10 μ sec) followed by a very long (~ 100 msec) flat-top, rather than the 100 - 200 μ sec decay of conventional crowbarred θ -pinches. The principal uncertainty with the compound magnet technique lies in the limited time to preionize, and in the relatively lower rate of field rise at the zero field cross-over point. Both difficulties can be overcome, if need be, by a pulse shaping network driving the inner magnets.



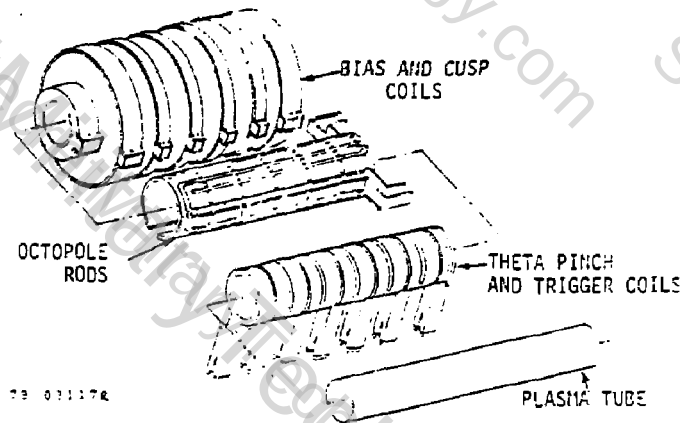
(a) Conventional Operation



(b) Compound Magnet Operation

Figure 3. Schematic of Operating Modes

A drawing of the magnet system is shown on Figure 4. The basic plasma tube is 1 m long and has a 20 cm bore. Fast theta pinch and trigger coils are fed through gaps between the quasi-steady bias and cusp coils. The octopole rods can produce 0.20 tesla fields at the inner edge of the plasma tube. Initial operation will be in the standard mode with 1 tesla theta pinch fields produced with 3 μ sec quarter cycle times. The compound magnet will be operable up to 2.0 tesla fields. Depending on the efficiency of the axial heating process, scaling analyses predicts that toroids with 10^{16} cm⁻³ peak densities and up to 500 eV temperatures could be produced. Containment times based on classical perpendicular thermal diffusion are 10 msec, and the quasi-steady field decay time is designed to exceed this value by a factor of 10.



The experiment is supported by an analytical-computational program which incorporates a 2-D hydrodynamics code and examination of the effects of anomalous transport and impurity radiation.

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PLASMA ROTATION IN FIELD-REVERSED THETA PINCHES

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Field-reversed plasmas (FRP) have for many years been observed to spin up and develop a destructive $m=2$ instability. While the instability threshold for rotating modes has been reasonably well characterized, the cause of rotation remains obscure. Several mechanisms have been proposed to explain the rotation. The most promising seems to be the following: end shorting on open field lines causes that portion of the plasma to spin up; viscous friction then transfers the rotating motion to plasma on closed field lines. We develop theoretical models to describe this mechanism.

Structure and Rotational Stability of Field-Reversed Theta Pinches. The separatrix in a field-reversed pinch divides the plasma into two distinct regions, the central closed magnetic field line region and the surrounding open line region. In a straight coil theta pinch, the magnetic fields are purely poloidal (field vectors in r - z plane) and have negligible toroidal field.

Rotating FRP stability was treated recently by Barnes, et al.¹ They calculate that the stability threshold for the commonly observed rotating $m=2$ mode is $\Omega \approx 1.35$ to $1.55 \times \Omega_*$ where $\Omega_* = -(1/renB)\partial p_i/\partial r$ is the ion diamagnetic drift frequency; i.e., the threshold is similar to that predicted for non-reversed field pinches.²

MHD Picture of Plasma Rotation. Treating the plasma as a magnetohydrodynamic fluid, the principal equations governing the rotation are the ion angular momentum law,

$$\frac{1}{r^2} \frac{D(r^2 \Omega)}{Dt} - \frac{1}{nr^2} \nabla \cdot (r^2 n \nu_1 \nabla \Omega) = \frac{\vec{B}}{\mu r} \cdot \nabla (r B_\theta) \quad (1)$$

and a reduced form of Ohm's law, which in simplified form is

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial t} \left(\frac{B_\theta}{r} \right) - \nabla \cdot \left[\frac{n}{\mu r} \nabla (r B_\theta) \right] - B_z \frac{\partial}{\partial z} (\Omega + \Omega_*) = S \quad (2)$$

where D/Dt is the convective derivative, ν_1 is the ion kinematic shear viscosity, and S is a source term containing principally gradient terms in the poloidal field, temperature and other plasma properties.

Evidently from (1), changes in angular momentum arise from either viscous forces or $j \times B$ forces. The latter are manifested heuristically as magnetic field line tension exerting an azimuthal torque on the plasma. The rotational kinetic energy is not carried by transport processes or torsional Alfvén waves³ (else the waves would decay) but instead springs out of polarization energy latent in the non rotating plasma. This is principally in two forms; static energy due to ion displacement in the presence of the electric field (proportional to E^2); and convective energy due to displacement when there is a radial ion pressure gradient (proportional to $E_r dp_i/dr$). The $B_\theta^2/2\mu$ and rotational kinetic energies appearing in a spinning plasma are, in the course of establishing a new plasma equilibrium, drawn naturally from the transverse kinetic energy, p , and axial field energy $B_z^2/2\mu$.

Rotation on Open Field Lines. Open line plasma contact with end walls shorts the transverse electric field. This initiates a torsional Alfvén wave which imparts an angular velocity of $\Omega = -\Omega_*$ to the plasma (if shorting produces $E_r = 0$). In the dissipationless problem, the interaction of waves from opposite ends alternately sets Ω to $-\Omega_*$, to $-2\Omega_*$, then to zero, and so on. The dissipation (diffusivities η_i/μ , η_e/μ , ν_i appearing in (1), (2), which are comparable at $\beta \approx 1$) leads to spatial spreading of approximately

$$\delta_{\text{diff}} \approx \rho_i (L/\lambda_e)^{1/2} \quad (3)$$

where ρ_i is the ion larmor radius in vacuum and L/λ_e is the axial collisionality. Evidently the spreading, $\approx \rho_i$, is small compared to the axial dimension L and would be negligible if the torsional waves had uniform velocity over the plasma cross section. In fact, they do not since their speed $V_A = B_z/\sqrt{\mu n}$ is very high at low density and vice versa. Consequently, the rotation, Ω , quickly develops an evolving closely-spaced spatially-oscillating radial structure with length scales less than ρ_i . In short, dissipation produces a roughly uniform rotation $\Omega = -\Omega_*$ in at most a few Alfvén transit times (based on the Alfvén speed at the separatrix).

Even after end shorting, a net outward-pointing electric field can arise on a transient basis as observed by Ekdahl.⁴ There is another effect which even in quasistatic conditions can cause a reversed (outward) electric field. If the electrical potential is uniform across the plasma at the end wall, then the thermoelectric potential in the plasma interior is proportional to kT_e/e . If in addition, the plasma has a negative radial temperature gradient, there will be an outward electric field. Such gradients are expected because the internal closed line plasma remains hotter, not being in contact with the end walls. The resulting rotation is found by applying the appropriate electric field to Ohm's law

$$\Omega = -\Omega_* \left[1 + \frac{0.93}{\delta_{T_e}} \left(\frac{T_e}{T_i} \right) \left(\frac{1}{z_n} + \frac{1}{z_{T_i}} \right)^{-1} \right] \quad (4)$$

where $\delta_{T_e} \equiv -T_e/(\partial T_e/\partial r)$ is the local electron temperature gradient length, and δ_{T_i} , δ_n correspond likewise to T_i and n . Clearly $-\Omega/\Omega_*$ can exceed unity as a consequence of the expected ∇T_e . The thermoelectric potential then provides a physical basis for the outwardly oriented electric fields needed to explain observed rotational instabilities in non reversed field theta pinches.²

Rotation on Closed Field Lines. In contrast to the open-line plasma, the closed-line plasma is spun principally by viscous forces rather than $\mathbf{j} \times \mathbf{B}$ forces. Shorting can take place within a closed field line, but the result only produces uniform rotation along the flux line, $\Omega = \Omega(\psi)$. This result holds so long as n , T_e and T_i are uniform along the flux line. Angular momentum imparted by viscous drag to plasma near the separatrix is therefore transmitted at the Alfvén speed to plasma on the same flux line near the axis; this in

effect increases the moment of inertia of the outer layers.

The transient spinup of the closed line plasma accounting for the inertia enhancement and ignoring cross-field particle diffusion is governed by

$$\frac{\partial \Omega}{\partial t} = \frac{1}{nr} \frac{\partial}{\partial r} \left[\frac{nr\nu}{2} \left(\frac{r}{R} \right)^2 \frac{\partial \Omega}{\partial r} \right] \quad (5)$$

where R is the radius of the magnetic axis (where $B = 0$). This is a simple diffusion equation with spatially dependent diffusivity; since it is in fact linear, it can be solved by a normal mode analysis. The transient behavior is dominated by the lowest order (fundamental) mode, the decay time of which is

$$\tau_{\text{spin}} = \frac{a^2}{\nu_{\perp}}; \frac{a^2}{\nu_{\perp}} (\mu\text{sec}) = \frac{a^2(\text{cm})T^{3/2}(\text{eV})}{39} \quad (6)$$

for a deuterium plasma with $T_e = T_i = T$ and $2n\lambda = 15$; $\nu_{\perp}$ is $\nu_{\perp}$ at $\beta_z = 1$ (β_z is based on the local magnetic field). The proportionality factor α depends on the aspect ratio of the toroidal plasma; calculated values for a rigid rotor density profile are shown in Table I.

Table I
Transient Spinup Factor

Aspect Ratio, R/a	α
2	0.16
3	2.3
4	22
5	165

Several trends emerge from this result.

- (1) The transient spinup time scales with plasma size (minor radius) and temperature in the same way as the classical cross field particle transport time $\tau_{\perp} = a^2/2\nu_{\perp}$; since $\nu_{\perp} \approx 3.2n_{\perp}/\omega$ (deuterium, $T_e = T_i$) then $\tau_{\text{spin}}/\tau_{\perp} \approx \alpha/1.6$.
- (2) The proportionality factor α from Table I is extremely sensitive to aspect ratio. The physical basis for this is clear considering that the kinematic viscosity varies as $\nu_{\perp} \approx n/B^2 T^{1/2}$; low aspect ratio plasmas have high average density and low average field inside the separatrix, therefore they tend to be highly viscous; high aspect ratio plasmas have low average density and average fields almost as high as the vacuum field, B_0 . Of course a highly viscous plasma will rapidly spin up in response to a rotation applied at the surface, and a low viscosity plasma will spin up slowly.
- (3) Evidently for $R/a \leq 3$, the transient spinup time is shorter than the plasma decay time; for $R/a \geq 3$ the plasma tends to decay faster than the spin transient.

The above analysis only treats the transient aspect of the spinup. The other side of the question is the quasisteady rotation rate that is approached. The asymptotic state has uniform Ω (rigid body) inside the separatrix with $\Omega = \Omega_s$, the rotation rate at the separatrix. (Note, Ω_s is equal to or slightly greater than $\langle \Omega_* \rangle$ according to (4)). If, e.g., the asymptotic rotation rate, Ω_s , were relatively fast, then the rotational stability limit ($-\Omega/\Omega_* = 0(1)$) could be reached in a time less than τ_{spin} . In this case the stable time to reach $-\Omega/\Omega_* = 1$ is

$$\tau_{\alpha=1} = \tau_{\text{spin}} \langle \Omega_* \rangle / \Omega_s \quad (8)$$

where $\langle \Omega_* \rangle$ denotes the average value inside the separatrix. If, on the other hand, $\Omega_s < \langle \Omega_* \rangle$ then the asymptotic state should itself be stable. What distinguishes these two cases is the plasma profile, in particular the radial profile of Ω_* . If the radial pressure profile becomes very steep near the separatrix, such as may arise as a result of endloss in the open field line plasma, then $\Omega_s > \langle \Omega_* \rangle$ and $\tau_{\alpha=1}$ may be short indeed. If, on the other hand, the gradients near the separatrix become more gentle, which is the case for an anomalous radial transport sheath, then $\Omega_s < \langle \Omega_* \rangle$ and the asymptotic state may be rotationally stable.

Summary. The open field line region is spun up principally by $j \times B$ forces, and the closed line plasma by viscous forces (although $j \times B$ forces insure uniform Ω along a closed flux line). The non uniform speed of torsional Alfvén waves caused by end shorting creates a highly transient, highly structured radial Ω -profile; dissipative processes smooth the profile in at most a few Alfvén transient times, producing $\Omega \approx \Omega_s$. The transient spinup time in the closed line plasma scales in the same way as the transverse particle diffusion time, but has extreme sensitivity to aspect ratio; it is short for "viscous" low aspect ratio plasmas, and vice versa. Ultimately, the rotational stability depends on the ion pressure profile; endloss (which steepens the profile near the separatrix) is destabilizing, and anomalous radial transport (which flattens the profile) is stabilizing.

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ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

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STELLARMAK A HYBRID STELLARATOR - SPHEROMAK

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I. Introduction

It has been known for some time that nonaxisymmetric, vacuum-field, toroidal confinement systems can be formed by combination of axisymmetric multipole fields and modified Stellarator-like fields.¹ This "hybridization" can result in improved negative $\nabla \eta$ properties and shear. In addition, simpler coil topology, as compared with a conventional Stellarator, is possible since the Stellarator-like windings need not link the torus. Initial calculations were concerned largely with vacuum fields however, it is apparent that plasma current can also serve to provide a poloidal field which can then be transformed in the toroidal direction by helical stellarator windings as has been recently suggested².

This paper discusses hybridization of modified Stellarator-like transform windings (T-windings) with a Spheromak³ or Field-Reversed-Mirror configuration.⁴ This configuration-Stellarmak-retains the important topological advantage of the Spheromak or FRM of having no plasma linking conductors or blankets. The T-windings provide rotational transformation in toroidal angle of the outer poloidal field lines, in effect creating a reversed B_{toroidal} Spheromak or adding average B_T to the FRM producing higher shear, increased limiting β , and possibly greater stability to kinks and tilt. The presence of field ripple in the toroidal direction may be sufficient to inhibit cancellation of directed ion current by electron drag to allow steady state operation with the toroidal as well as poloidal current maintained by neutral beams.

II. Stellarmak Configuration

The basic hybrid approach is shown in Fig. 1. Axisymmetric fields are provided by I_z , the two rings, and a uniform B_z to give the poloidal-field pattern shown. Helical windings, centered on the z-axis, provide Stellarator-like rotational transform. The combined fields give numerically computed toroidal magnetic surfaces as shown with the rotational transform on the small-major-radius side of the surfaces provided by the axisymmetric poloidal field and the transform on the large-major-radius side provided by the helical windings. Continuation of the rotational transform by the axisymmetric B_θ eliminates the need for helical windings which link the toroidal surfaces.

Application of T-windings to produce toroidal rotational transform b_T of the basic poloidal field of a Spheromak is shown in Fig. 2. The modular T-windings shown in Fig. 2(a) lie on a sphere and follow loxodromic spiral trajectories with latitudinal cross-links. A vacuum poloidal field line near $\psi = 0$ passes near the axis of the Spheromak,

emerges at the poles, and returns near the spherical surface where the T-windings induce toroidal transform modifying the basic Spheromak configuration to that shown in Fig. 2(b). Numerical calculations in progress (assuming vacuum B_p) have given $t_p/t_p = .04$ for 8 T-winding modules with flux surfaces as shown in Fig. 2(c). Alternatively T-windings for a highly prolate reversed-field- configuration would more nearly resemble the helices of Fig. 1 and arbitrarily large t_p/t_p could be obtained depending on the elongation.

III. MHD Stability Aspects

The most striking aspect of introducing transform windings to a Spheromak/FRM is that shear and reversed toroidal transform can be introduced externally without hole-linking conductors. For a large aspect ratio stabilized Z-pinch the maximum stable β is increased from 15% to 40% in going from a field profile having $B_T = 0$ on the last ψ_p surface to the usual reversed B_T configuration. A similar factor of 3 in β can possibly be obtained for the Stellaromak providing ballooning limits are not encountered. Similarly, T-windings added to the FRM can lend shear stabilization to an otherwise MHD unstable configuration.

Since a conventional stellarator is stable to tilt and slip solid body motions, the transform windings would presumably give improved stability in the Stellaromak.

IV. Equilibrium Aspects

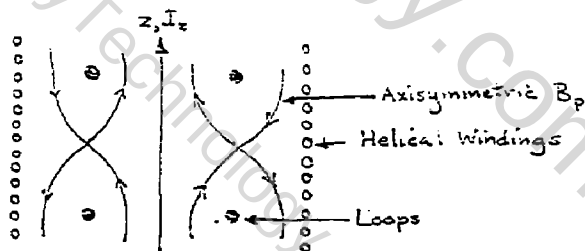
Probably the most significant advantage to be gained by introducing symmetry perturbing transform windings is the potential of sustaining the plasma currents by injection of directed neutral beams. Electron trapping and viscous effects caused by the field ripple can prevent electron cancellation of the ion directed current opening the way to a truly steady state system. For a large spheromak reactor with resistively decaying currents the Q based on resistive losses is,

$$Q_M = \int P_F dt / W_M \approx 100 \sim \beta^2 B^2$$

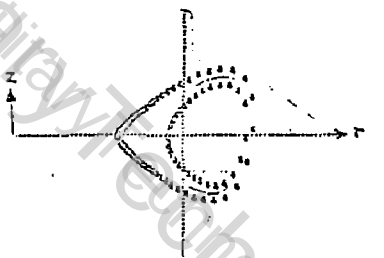
so that a relatively small current-sustaining beam power is necessary if the process is fairly efficient. This is especially true if βB is increased by a factor of 3 by enhanced stability.

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(a) Coil Configuration



(b) Magnetic Surfaces

Fig. 1. Hybritron Configuration. Intersections of magnetic surfaces with the $r-z$ plane [Fig. 2(b)] were computed for the coil configuration [Fig. 2(a)] with $B_z = 1/r$, $B_{\theta} = 0.12$, $I_{\text{Loops}} = -0.12$ (at $r = 1$, $z = +1$) and with a helical magnetic potential $\chi = C_A I(kr) \cos(\lambda\phi + kz)$ where $\lambda = 6 = k$ and $C_A = 1$.

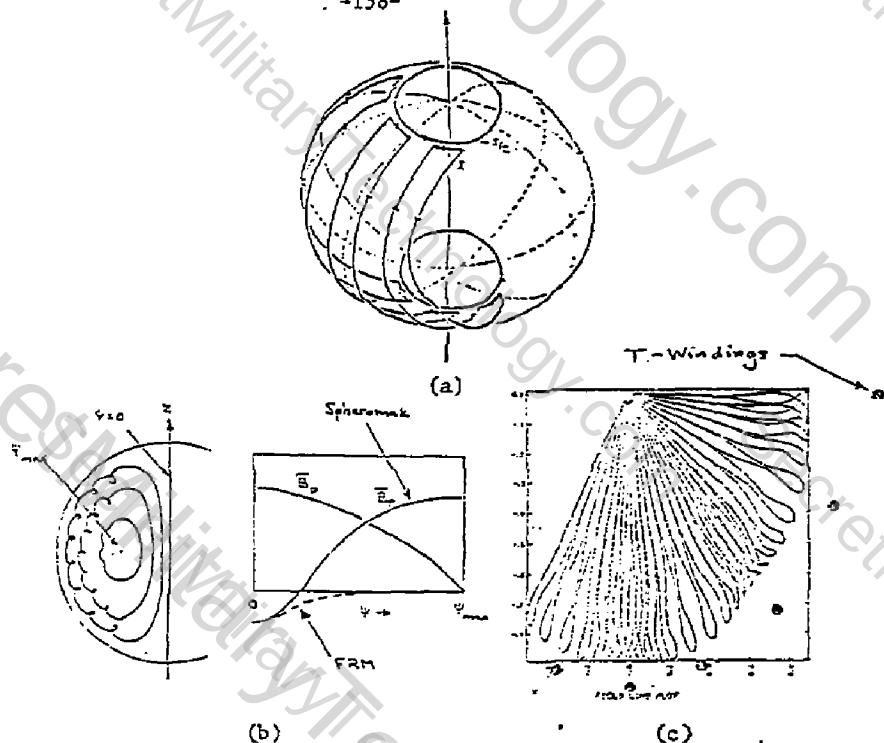


Fig. 2. Stellarmak Properties. Fig. 2(a) shows three modular T-windings based on loxodromic spirals and latitudinal cross links. Also shown are compensating loops. Fig. 2(b) shows heuristic field-line-trajectory projections in a meridional plane. Also shown are average B_p and B_t vs ψ for Spheromak and FRM configurations. Fig. 2(c) shows computed field-line projections in the equatorial plane for 8 modular windings.

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UTILIZATION OF ELECTRON COILS FOR AN ADVANCED TOKAMAK AND CONJECTURE ABOUT THE CAUSE FOR CURRENT STEP (DOWN).

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1. Utilization of electron coils for an advanced tokamak

The use of relativistic electron beam current (REB) in the plane of plasma current in tokamaks offers several possible advantages such as:

- (i) reduction in q ;
- (ii) lowering $A (= R/a)$;
- (iii) avoidance of current driven microinstabilities.¹

We repeat, though, the above advantages may well be illusory.

The fourth advantage is the possibility of a current-sustained tokamak. In this scenario, the REB electron current or electron coil will be set up either by runaway discharges at UCLA or by REB injection at IPP, Nagoya University. The resultant configuration will be kept for a while until the cold plasma trapped in this magnetic trap is heated to high temperatures leading to ignition or high Q (Fusion Power/N.B. Power) modes. Then the REB current will be maintained by the rf wave acceleration of electrons. This should be compared with the rf maintenance of plasma current.² The rf power needed, P_{rfw} , for maintaining the REB current is given by

$$P_{rfw} \propto n_b v_{ph} E_{OH} \propto n_b v_{ph} nJ \quad (1)$$

but

$$\gamma = \frac{1}{W^{3/2}} \frac{n_p}{n_b} \quad (2)$$

where n_b is the beam density, W is the energy of relativistic electrons, n_p is the plasma electron density. Therefore ($v_{ph} \approx c$)

$$P_{rfw} \propto n_p \frac{1}{W^{3/2}} J \quad (3)$$

This should be compared with the rf power needed to couple to superthermal electrons, P_{rfT} , which is

$$P_{\text{rft}} \propto n_p \frac{v_e}{T_e} \int f\left(\frac{v_{ph}}{v_e}\right) dv_e \quad (4)$$

where f may be between $1/3$ to $1/10$ and v_e is the electron thermal velocity. The rf power needed for REB is then lower than P_{rft} by the ratio

$$\frac{P_{\text{rfw}}}{P_{\text{eft}}} \sim \frac{1}{f\left(\frac{v_{ph}}{v_e}\right)} \frac{T_e}{W} \quad (5)$$

which could be easily $1/10$ to $1/30$.

2. Conjecture about the Cause for Current Step

As Mohri has shown, the current in the SPAC experiment³ decays in step. One possible explanation of this phenomenon is the inability of the REB beam to maintain toroidal equilibrium.

REB is moving in toroidal directions, hence there is a centrifugal force, $F = (F_\phi, 0, 0)$. This force is not derivable from the surface function $\psi(\psi)$. The situation is analogous to toroidal equilibrium of rotating plasma under gravity.⁴ Thus the plasma pressure must be finite, so that

$$\vec{\nabla} p + \vec{F} = \vec{\nabla} \psi. \quad (6)$$

It is conjectured that the plasma pressure decays with its own energy confinement time until when Eq. (6) could not be maintained. Then the equilibrium is lost. The resultant partial loss of REB may contribute to the production of background plasma either by instability (yet unidentified) or by beam-wall interaction. The increased plasma pressure, restores the equilibrium by satisfying Eq. (6). The process repeats itself, hence current steps. Normal resistive interaction between REB and background plasma is not expected to keep the plasma temperature high.

The experimental verifications of this conjecture may be done by measuring plasma pressure. Also, if the plasma can be heated by rf or other means without upsetting the electron coil, the current step may be avoided. Finally Thompson scattering may enable the measurement of pressure gradient within the magnetic surface.

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DYNAMICALLY FORMED SPHEROMAK PLASMA (PS-1)

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Formation Phase

In this paper we discuss our recently reported observations of the formation of a highly elongated spheromak configuration. (1) In the present context, we define a spheromak as a toroidal configuration with both toroidal and poloidal field components, but with no toroidal field coils and no transformer. The toroidal field vanishes on the symmetry axis and has a maximum near the magnetic axis. Both the toroidal and poloidal fields have approximately equal maximum values. Our experiment is called Paramagnetic Spheromak (PS-1). The present vacuum chamber is a circular cross section cylinder ($R=11$ cm) filled with deuterium gas at a pressure of 5 to 30 mTorr. A capacitor bank is discharged into a single turn solenoid surrounding the cylinder creating an axial B_z field. The field rises to 4 kG in 9 μ sec and is clamped to give a 100 μ sec L/R decay time. At about peak B_z field a second capacitor bank is discharged between annular electrodes to produce an annular shell of I_z current. This current puts the B_θ toroidal flux into the plasma. The current rises to 150 kA in 4 μ sec. Finally a fast rising current is produced in the external solenoid creating a 9 kG B_z field opposite in direction to the initial B_z field. This field rises in 1.5 μ sec. Presently, this circuit is clamped so that it decays to 1/e of its maximum in 58 μ sec. Most of the results reported in reference 1 were obtained without the clamp switch however, i.e. the circuit oscillated. The plasma radially implodes at approximately the snowplow speed to give an ion energy of $B_z^2/4\pi n_e$, where B_z is fast rising piston field and n_e is the density. For the conditions of this experiment, the radially directed ion energy is about 1.0 keV. Typically, in theta pinches, some of this directed energy is randomized resulting in larger ion temperature than electron temperature. The ion and electron temperatures may then equilibrate if there is no other heating or loss mechanism dominating one of the species.

Three important physics questions arise in the formation phase: 1) Will closed poloidal magnetic surfaces form? 2) Will the toroidal field be peaked approximately in the center of the closed flux surfaces (paramagnetic toroidal field)? 3) Will heating occur as a result of the implosion? In the previously referred to paper (1) all these questions are answered in the affirmative. An experimentally determined poloidal flux surface contour map is shown in figure 2, demonstrating closed surfaces. Flux surface closure occurs within 0.5 μ sec of the start of the reversed B_z field. Initially, two magnetic islands form which coalesce to form the structure shown in figure 2. In reference (1), it was shown that for the conditions chosen, the maximum of toroidal field is about 6 kG and occurs near the center of the magnetic island shown in figure 2. The poloidal field on the outer edge rises to about 9 kG. Finally, Doppler broadening spectroscopy has indicated a temperature of 190 eV for carbon impurity ions while the same type of measurements on the D_α line indicates 290 eV at 2 μ sec. Thomson scattering

measurements give an electron temperature of 30-50 eV at the same time. He-Ne laser interferometry indicate a density of $3 \times 10^{15} \text{cm}^{-3}$ in the center of the island at 2 μsec .

Equilibrium Phase

In any dynamically formed plasma, an important consideration is the relaxation of the imploded state to the desired equilibrium configuration. An appealing feature of the spheromak is the possibility of a near force-free configuration corresponding to a minimum magnetic energy. Rosenbluth and Bussac(2) have considered a classical force-free spheroid as well as slightly prolate and oblate spheroids. They find a tilting instability for a prolate spheroid. We have no internal magnetic field data for times later than 2 μsec and consequently, cannot, with certainty, say whether the magnetic surfaces exhibit any tilting after 2 μsec . We do have interferometer measurements of the integral of the density along lines parallel to the z axis so that the integrated density as a function of radius can be determined. We find that at 30 μsec , the plasma still exhibits an annular shape with no indication of grossly unstable behavior. During this time there are about 40 Alfvén transit times from the end to the center.

Since it is desirable to know what the largest β value is for which the plasma remains grossly stable, it is of interest to know what the value of β is here. We will assume an operational value of β defined as

$$\beta_e = \frac{8\pi p(r=5 \text{ cm})}{B_z^2(r=11 \text{ cm})}$$

Because the ion lines used for the ion temperature measurement burn out, we do not know the ion temperature after about 5 μsec . Thomson scattering measurements indicate an electron temperature of about 30 eV as late as 40 μsec . Since the electron and ion equilibration time is of the order of a few microseconds, we have to presume the ion temperature has dropped to the electron temperature. From the interferometer measurements we get the line integral of the density at $r=5 \text{ cm}$ as a function of time. Assuming a length of 30 cm, we calculate the density and hence the pressure. In figure 3, we plot β_e as a function of time. We see that as the field, density and temperature drop, the value of β stays almost constant, in the vicinity of 0.3 to 0.4. From this we conclude that it is possible to confine $\beta = 0.4$ plasmas. The question of whether the internal magnetic field structure remains the same during this time is difficult to answer at this time. We note, however, that at $t=2 \mu\text{sec}$, the radial profiles of the toroidal and poloidal fields are to a good approximation, given by Bessel functions, [$B_\theta = J_1(kr)$ and $B_z = J_0(kr)$]. The Bessel function model has the property of retaining its configuration as it diffuses. Since the configuration decay time ($\tau = 4\pi\sigma/k_z^2 c^2$) for these parameters is about 66 μsec , the configuration should not drastically change in 30 μsec if only classical resistive diffusion is present.

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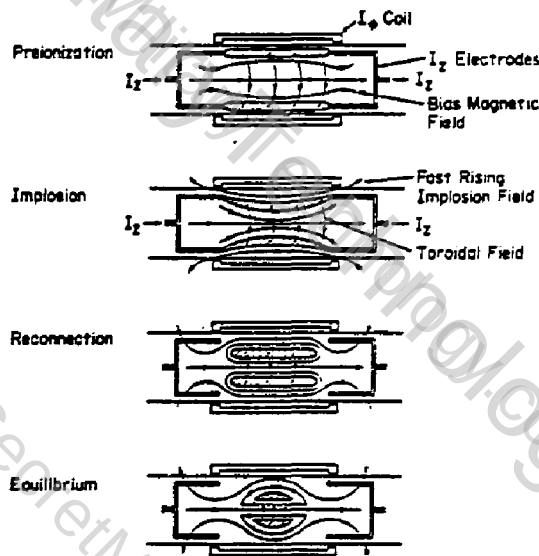


Figure 1 Schematic diagram of the formation and equilibrium phases of the spheromak configuration in PS-1.

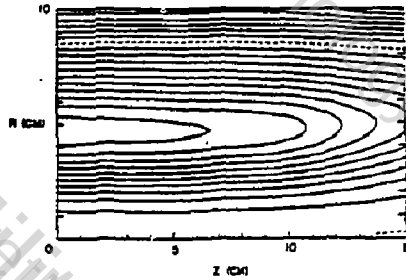


Figure 2 Contours of constant poloidal flux at 2 μ sec after the start of the fast B_z field. The contours are calculated from magnetic field measurements made in the plasma and are plotted in intervals of 20mG-cm^2 .

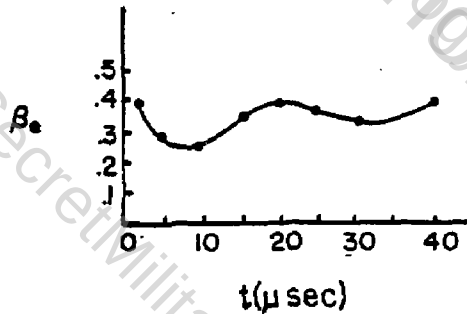


Figure 3 Time dependence of β_e . At 40 μ sec the externally applied field has dropped to half its maximum.

SPHEROMAK EQUILIBRIUM AND STABILITY AND NUMERICAL STUDIES OF A SPHEROMAK FORMATION SCHEME

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Recently, intensive theoretical studies of the spheromak configuration have been carried out to reveal possible advantages towards a commercial reactor [1-3]. These MHD analyses have shown that stable configurations exist at medium beta with respect to the externally applied equilibrium field. The focus of recent theoretical work has therefore shifted toward the study of plasma formation processes without a toroidal or inductive coil on the axisymmetric axis.

The formation scheme proposed by Princeton is quasi-static where the configuration formation takes place over many Alfvén transit times (≈ 1000), through a sequence of quasi-MHD equilibrium states. The process is controlled by three groups of coils: (1) external equilibrium field coils; (2) a "flux core" consisting of toroidal coils producing poloidal flux, and a toroidal solenoid producing toroidal flux; and (3) a pair of "pinching coils."

Initially, the equilibrium field coils are turned on and the resultant field, which supports the final plasma equilibrium, penetrates the vacuum vessel. All subsequent field programming proceeds on a faster time scale, whereby the vacuum vessel acts as a perfect conductor. The toroidal coils in the core and the pinching coils are now turned on, to generate the vacuum field pattern of Fig. 1a. Breakdown is initiated around the core and the solenoid is energized. Field pressure balance causes the plasma to expand preferentially towards the low field region on the symmetric axis side of the core. As the toroidal flux penetrates the plasma, a reduction of the toroidal current in the core and an increase of the negative pinching coil currents induces a positive toroidal current in the plasma, leading to the equilibrium configuration of Fig. 1b. The core currents are now crowbarred while the pinching coil currents are further increased until a section of the plasma is severed from the core, as shown in Fig. 1c. The core and pinching coil currents are now turned off leaving a 0.25-m minor radius spheromak plasma with an aspect ratio of two, supported by the initial external field.

The formation configurations shown here were calculated as force-free MHD equilibrium solutions satisfying $\Delta^* \psi = -2\tau^2 [dg(\psi)^2/d\psi]$, where ψ is the poloidal magnetic flux and $g(\psi) = RB_T$. Such sequences are currently being advanced in time using the circuit equations to produce a more self-consistent picture of the evolution. However, it is clear that the importance of resistivity with regard to flux loss and field-line reconnection requires a two-dimensional time-dependent solution.

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The incompressible MHD equations are solved on a nonorthogonal grid. Grid lines are lines of constant i or constant j . Derivatives with respect to either i or j have the other held fixed. If (x, ϕ, z) are cylindrical coordinates, then the Jacobian $\delta = (\partial i / \partial x \times \partial \phi / \partial z - \partial i / \partial z \times \partial \phi / \partial x)^{-1}$. The velocity and magnetic field are represented in the form

$$\vec{B} = \nabla \phi \times \nabla \psi + \frac{x^2}{\delta} \nabla \phi,$$

$$\vec{v} = \nabla \phi \times \nabla A + \frac{w}{\delta} \nabla \phi.$$

Here, ψ , g , A , and w obey the time advancement equations:

$$\frac{\partial \psi}{\partial t} = \frac{1}{\delta} \left(\frac{\partial \psi}{\partial j} \frac{\partial A}{\partial i} - \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial i} \frac{\partial A}{\partial j} \right) + \nabla A \cdot \psi,$$

$$\frac{\partial g}{\partial t} = \frac{\partial}{\partial i} \left(-\frac{w}{\delta} \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial j} - \frac{g}{\delta} \frac{\partial A}{\partial j} \right) + \frac{\partial}{\partial j} \left(-\frac{w}{\delta} \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial i} + \frac{g}{\delta} \frac{\partial A}{\partial i} \right) + \delta \nabla \cdot \frac{1}{x^2} \nabla \left(\frac{x^2 g}{\delta} \right),$$

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\partial}{\partial t} \left(\frac{\partial}{\partial x} \left(\frac{x^2}{\delta} \nabla A \right) \right) &= \frac{\partial}{\partial i} \left[\frac{1}{2} \nabla A \cdot \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial j} + \frac{g}{\delta} \frac{\partial}{\partial i} \left(\frac{x^2 g}{\delta} \right) - \frac{\partial A}{x^2} \frac{\partial A}{\partial j} - \frac{w}{x^2} \frac{\partial}{\partial j} \left(\frac{w}{\delta} \right) \right] \\ &+ \frac{\partial}{\partial j} \left[-\frac{1}{2} \nabla A \cdot \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial i} - \frac{g}{\delta} \frac{\partial}{\partial j} \left(\frac{x^2 g}{\delta} \right) + \frac{\partial A}{x^2} \frac{\partial A}{\partial i} + \frac{w}{x^2} \frac{\partial}{\partial i} \left(\frac{w}{\delta} \right) \right], \end{aligned}$$

$$\frac{\partial w}{\partial t} = \frac{\partial}{\partial i} \left(\frac{x^2 g}{\delta} \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial j} - \frac{w}{\delta} \frac{\partial A}{\partial j} \right) + \frac{\partial}{\partial j} \left(-\frac{x^2 g}{\delta} \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial i} + \frac{w}{\delta} \frac{\partial A}{\partial i} \right).$$

The core boundary conditions are that $\vec{v} \cdot \vec{n} = 0$, and that the voltages, $\oint \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{l}$ in the poloidal and toroidal directions, are prescribed functions of time. The equations are advanced using a leap-frog scheme with Dufort-Frankiel differencing of the diffusive terms.

We illustrate the results of one calculation using these equations in Figs. 2-6. Figure 2a shows the poloidal flux surfaces ($\psi = \text{constant}$ contours) at time $t = 0$, while Fig. 2b shows the computational mesh (lines of constant i and constant j). Initially, a current of 600 k amps is flowing in the shell (core) in the toroidal direction. At time $t = 0$ voltages are applied to the shell to reduce the toroidal current and to induce a current in the poloidal direction.

Figure 3 shows contours of constant ψ ($\partial A / \partial j$) and constant toroidal field ($x^2 g / \delta$) at time $t = 3.0$ usec, when the toroidal core current is almost half its original value and current has been induced in the plasma. Note that a magnetic axis has formed near the inside of the shell and that some closed magnetic field lines now exist.

Figure 4 shows the flux surfaces at time $t = 6.7$ μsec after two-thirds of the current has been induced into the plasma. More closed flux surfaces have now been formed around the plasma magnetic axis. Figure 5 shows the flux surfaces at $t = 36$ μsec , after all of the toroidal current has been transferred to the plasma by induction. This method of spheromak formation is very efficient in transferring current from the flux shell to the plasma. Figure 6 shows the time histories of the currents in the shell and the plasma, and the total kinetic energy in the plasma.

In addition to this incompressible code, we have developed a two-dimensional simulation code which solves the compressible one-fluid resistive MHD equations [4] using a two-step Lax-Wendroff algorithm. Initially a low-beta plasma is assumed to exist everywhere between the vacuum vessel and the circular core. The toroidal and poloidal magnetic fields at the surface of the core are given as functions of time, and their penetration into the plasma is being studied. Preliminary results indicate that the toroidal field can penetrate into a plasma, preferentially toward the axisymmetric axis, in a stable manner; hence suggesting the successful formation of a spheromak plasma under actual conditions.

ACKNOWLEDGMENT

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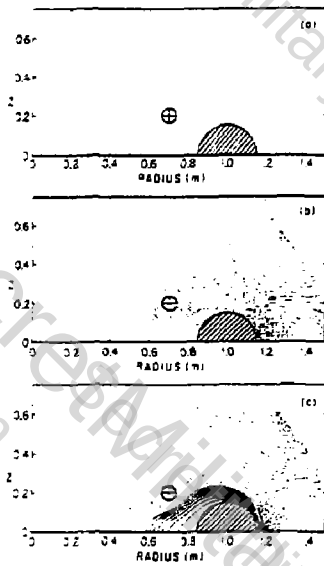


Fig. 1(a-c).
(PPL 792439)

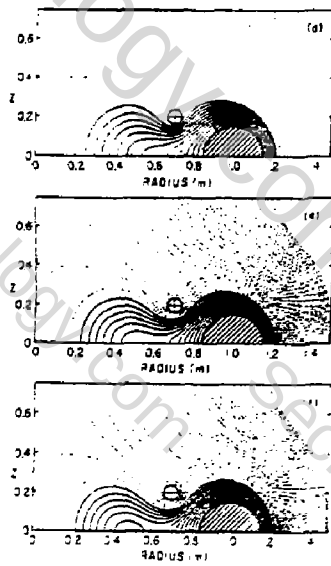


Fig. 1(d-f).
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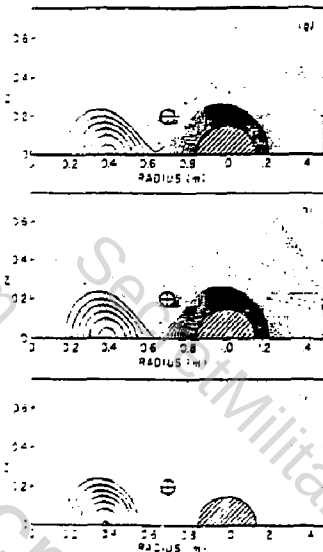


Fig. 1(g-i).
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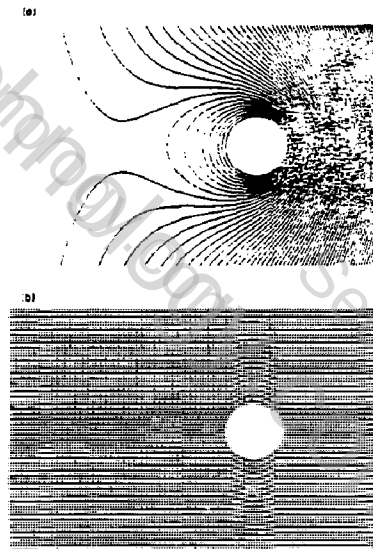
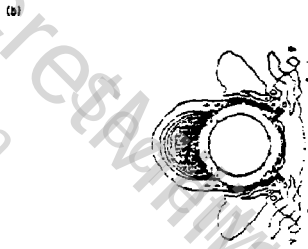
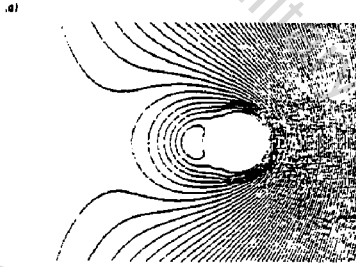
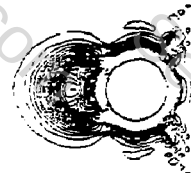
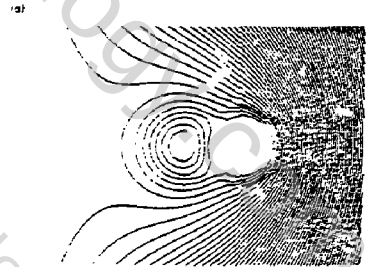


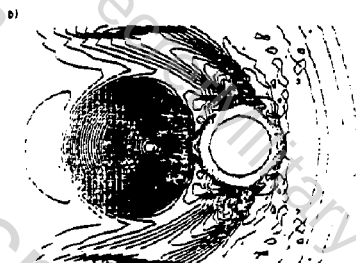
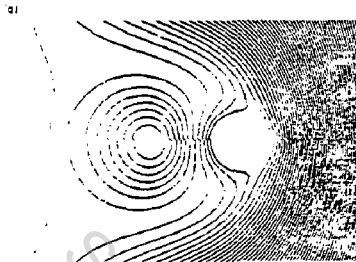
Fig. 2.
(PPL 792640)



TIME = 3.0 μ sec
Fig. 3.
(PPL 792639)



TIME = 6.7 μ sec
Fig. 4.
(PPL 792638)



TIME = 36 μ sec
Fig. 5.
(PPL 792641)

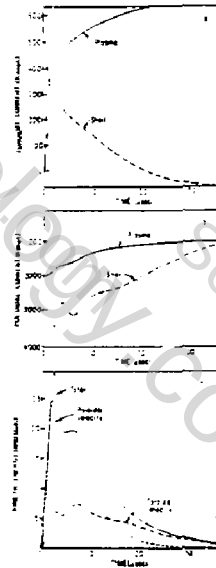


Fig. 6.
(PPL 792648)

Design and Fabrication of the S-1 Spheromak Device

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ABSTRACT

The S-1 experiment will develop an electroless "slow" spheromak formation technique to produce a 500 kA toroid of $a = 25$ cm, $R = 40$ cm. The formation scheme is based on a transformation of poloidal and toroidal magnetic flux into a plasma from a flux core and two-dimensional MHD calculations of the formation process are described in an accompanying paper. Physics background and engineering aspects of the S-1 apparatus are presented. The objectives of the S-1 experiment are:

- (1) development of a slow "quasi-static" formation scheme, suitable for future scale-up to large magnetic energy contents at moderate forming powers.
- (2) investigation of spheromak stability and energy confinement properties on a slow time scale of magnetic diffusion time.

I. Introduction

1.1 The Spheromak Configuration and stability

The spheromak concept is characterized by magnetic field lines that are closed — as in a tokamak — and by a coil-blanket topology that does not link the plasma — as in a mirror machine.^{1,2,3} The magnetic field configuration of the spheromak (Fig. 1) includes both toroidal and poloidal components, but the toroidal component is maintained entirely by plasma currents, and therefore vanishes outside the plasma. Correspondingly, there are no toroidal-field-coils — only poloidal-field coils, as in a mirror machine. The outward pressure of the toroidal field and of the plasma is balanced by the inward pressure of the poloidal field.

The equilibrium and stability of the spheromak configuration has been investigated and it was concluded that an oblate spheromak configuration (Oblimak) of aspect ratio 2.0, ellipticity 0.5, having a peaked current profile will be stable to ideal MHD modes up to $\beta_{edge} = 15\%$. Global modes can be stabilized by a loose-fitting shell. Another theoretical approach to the problem is Taylor's ($a_p/a_r \approx 1.5$) treatment of RFP, which finds that the idealized large-hole spheromak is stable for low beta condition. However, it should be noted that a resistive MHD theory demands a close-fitting shell for stability against high number modes. It also predicts interchange modes growing at all β values although various stability effects due to finite-gyroradius effects, non-linear self-stabilization and line-tying of the diverted edge plasma have to be assessed in the future. An encouraging feature of the experiments^{5,6} to date is that there is no sign of gross instability even though the walls are not near. But the long-time confinement characteristic of the spheromak configuration is yet to be proved.

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1.2 Spheromak Forming Scheme

In the S-1 experiment, we will employ a "slow" (quasistatic) spheromak formation scheme, suitable for future scale-up to large reactor-level experiments. The formation time scale (~ 100 usec) is intermediate between the dynamic time scale ($\tau_A = \frac{a}{V_A} \approx 0.1$ usec) and the resistive time scale ($\tau_R = \frac{4\pi}{2\eta} \sim 1$ msec). We expect that the present slow formation scheme will exploit a certain advantage of slow RFP (ZETA, Eta-beta) experiments.

The proposed scheme (Fig. 2) will create a spheromak plasma configuration without using coils which link the compact toroidally shaped plasma. In this scheme an initial poloidal field is generated by a winding inside a toroidal ring-shaped flux core. The initial poloidal field is weakened on the small-major-radius side of the ring by superposition of an external vertical field. The ring also contains a toroidal solenoid, which is able to generate an interior toroidal flux, and is therefore able to emit an equal and opposite toroidal flux on its exterior. When the toroidal solenoid is energized, it induces a poloidal current in a sleeve-shaped plasma surrounding the ring. The associated toroidal field distends the poloidal-field sleeve, stretching it in the direction towards the magnetic axis, where the poloidal field is weakest. When the pinch coils are energized, the plasma will be pinched off from the topology linked to the flux core, producing a separated spheromak plasma configuration. The electric currents inside the ring can then be allowed to decay, while the spheromak configuration remains.

II. Parameter Survey for the Spheromak Experiment.

In order to select parameters for an experimental spheromak device, we begin by considering the simultaneous requirements of MHD stability and microstability, which impose a limitation on the line density. We then determine values of plasma current, field strength and size that should allow adequate plasma temperature.

Theoretical studies indicate that optimal finite- β stability will be achieved in a spheromak that is somewhat oblate and has an appreciable "flux hole" around the axis of symmetry. Conducting-wall stabilization also takes place more easily with large-hole devices. Beta-values close to maximum are achieved for a toroidally shaped plasma of aspect ratio $R/a \approx 2$, as in Fig. 1. The significance of a central "flux hole" in practical experimental terms is that an outer flux region is maintained free of plasma current, so that the shear at the edge of the current-carrying region becomes large. Various options for realizing this situation are available, including appropriate initial field-programming, edge-cooling, and shaping of the "divertor flux."

The range of appropriate plasma size density is determined basically by the MHD β -limit and by the limit on the electron streaming velocity v_{stream} . The typical β -requirement is

$$\beta_0 \approx \frac{2\mu \langle p^2 \rangle^{1/2}}{B_0^2} \leq 0.02. \quad (1)$$

Assuming that MHD stability can be achieved at this β -level, it will be important, next, to avoid microinstabilities. For this purpose, the electron drift velocity associated with the strong internal currents of the magnetic field configuration has to be well below the electron thermal velocity. We require

$$\frac{v_{\text{stream}}}{v_{\text{thermal}}} < 0.03. \quad (2)$$

The conservative limit .03 was chosen by examining data from various toroidal pinch experiments and noting that the onset of plasma anomalies very generally tends to occur at this level. Combining the conditions on β and v_{stream} with the large-flux-hole condition ($R/a = 2$), we obtain

$$\frac{v_{\text{stream}}}{v_{\text{thermal}}} = \left(\frac{3 \cdot 10^{11} \text{ cm}^{-1}}{\beta_0^* n_e a^2} \right)^{1/2} < 0.03. \quad (3)$$

The parameter region that is stable from the point of view of Eq. 3 is shown in Fig. 3 for the case $\beta_0^* = 2\%$. This figure shows that in a spheromak plasma with $R = 40$ cm, $a = 20$ cm and a density $n_e > 5 \cdot 10^{13} \text{ cm}^{-3}$, one can hope to operate without generating gross MHD or current-driven microinstabilities, provided the beta limit is reached. Once the line-density is determined, the maximum electron temperature to satisfy Eq. 1 and Eq. 2 must scale as $T_{e1} I_c^{2/3}$, where I_c is the toroidal current. In the desirable temperature range $T_e > 100$ eV, a 500 kA toroidal current provides an appreciable operating margin. (Fig. 4) The nature of the ohmic-heating power balance in S-1 is illustrated graphically in Fig. 5. Above the 100 eV level in which classical magnetic-field decay time τ_R exceeds 10 milliseconds, the ohmic heating power falls below 10 MW. For $n_e = 10^{14} \text{ cm}^{-3}$, this heating power would be sufficient to balance the radiation cooling due to one percent of metallic impurities, plus transport losses comparable to Bohm diffusion. The most critical temperature limitation in the initial discharge cycle is expected to arise from heat losses along field lines to the ring supports. As a result, T_e will probably be "clamped" in the 50 eV range. As soon as some reconnection of field lines has taken place, so as to create a "private flux" within the spheromak section of the plasma, the local electron temperature will begin to grow again; finally the temperature of the whole detached spheromak plasma will begin to rise to a new limit. In Fig. 6 a typical evolution of flux-core currents, plasma current and plasma parameters are shown together with a sequence of field configurations during formation.

III. The S-1 Facility.

The machine configuration and its main components are shown in Figures 7. The flux ring contains the Poloidal Flux Core (PC) and the Toroidal Flux Core (TC). These two coil systems induce the toroidal and poloidal currents of the initial plasma. The pinching coils (PN) are to separate a fraction of the initial plasma and to move it towards the center of the vessel where it takes on the spheromak configuration. The Equilibrium Field Coils (EF) hold the final spheromak plasma in a position near the center of the vessel. The vacuum vessel is made of 1/2" stainless steel with no insulating breaks, since it constitutes a passive element in the overall spheromak magnetic circuit.

The EF coils are driven by a generator and have a relatively long pulse length; the EF is basically constant during the time of the experiment. The PC, TC, and PN coils are all driven by fast capacitor banks. Principal parameters of the S-1 facilities are as follows.

$R_{RING} = 100 \text{ CM}$

$a_{RING} = 15 \text{ CM}$

TOROIDAL RING CURRENT $< 600 \text{ KA T}$

POLOIDAL RING CURRENT $< 15 \text{ MA T}$

TOTAL MAGNETIC ENERGY $< 1 \text{ MJ}$

FORMATION TIME $\sim 10 \text{ usec}$

MAXIMUM $V_{TOR} = 10 \text{ kV}$

MAXIMUM $V_{POL} = 1.6 \text{ kV}$

EQUILIBRIUM FIELD $= 2.2 \text{ kG}$

The flux core contains toroidal and poloidal copper windings housed in a insulating ceramic material. It can emit 0.1 volt-sec of toroidal flux and can induce a 0.5 volt-sec of poloidal flux change requiring about 2 MJ of capacitor energy for each circuit. The core will be covered by 10 mil thick metallic liner (stainless-steel or inconel) that will not only protect the core-surface from sputtering and erosion but also will smooth an induced field at the initial breakdown stage. The core is self supported against induced forces and is powered by six sets of electrical leads.

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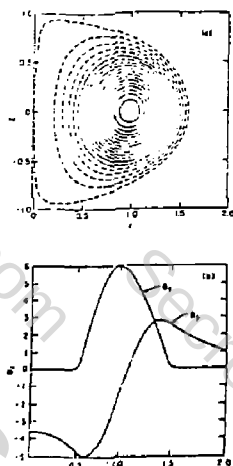


Fig. 1

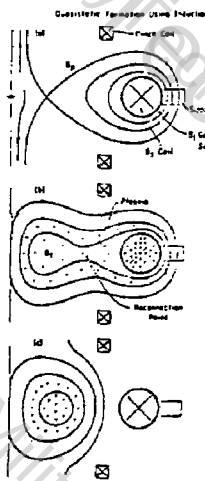


Fig. 2

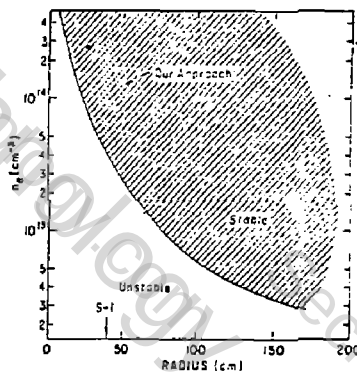


Fig. 3

Fig. 4

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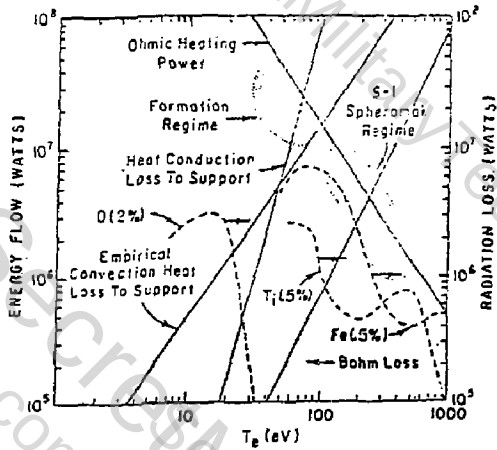


Fig. 5

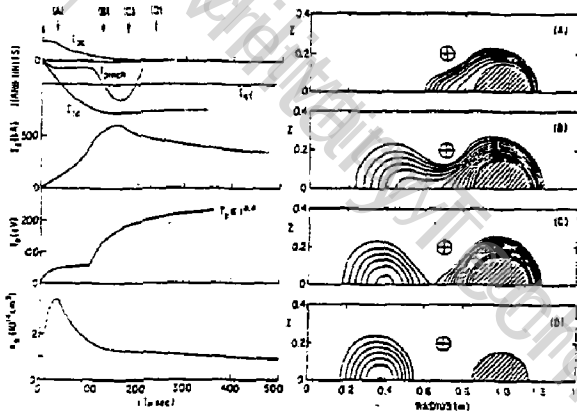
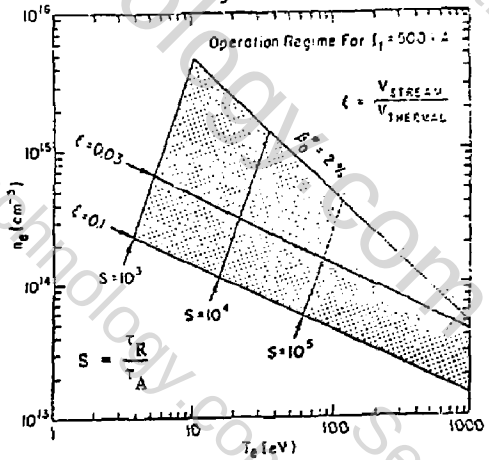


Fig. 6

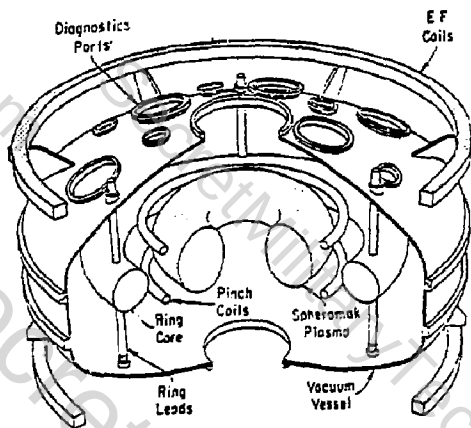


Fig. 7

The S-1 Spheromak device

TWO-DIMENSIONAL SIMULATION OF THE FORMATION OF THE PPPL SPHEROMAK

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This paper is a progress report on the simulation of the formation of the PPPL spheromak with a dissipative MHD calculation. We present the precise formulation of the problem, emphasizing particularly the time-dependent boundary conditions. We also present some very preliminary results, which are by no means complete or conclusive, but which do indicate that the general trend is correct and that this model has the basic capability to make a realistic simulation.

Assuming axisymmetry, we describe the plasma in the poloidal plane by the usual single-fluid MHD equations with dissipation, see e.g. Ref. 1. The ohmic dissipation used is either classical Spitzer or anomalous, the thermal conductivity is usually (but not necessarily) taken to be constant, and viscosity is neglected, except for a small numerical viscosity to remove numerical oscillations in regions of sharp gradients or low densities. Vacuum regions are not handled explicitly: a low density cut-off (or "density pedestal"), typically 0.1 of the initial filling density, is used. Equivalently, one can allow a small flow velocity from the walls into the plasma. Simulations of this type have been carried out successfully for screw and belt pinches¹, reversed-field pinches, and Tormac². Agreement with experiment has been invariably good.

Initial conditions for the plasma are a low-temperature (say 1 eV) conducting fluid at rest. A vacuum equilibrium "vertical" field is already present in this plasma.

The set of equations uses the variables ρ (density), $\mathbf{v}$ (velocity), T (temperature), ψ (the poloidal flux function), and $\chi = R B_\theta$ (toroidal field function). Boundary conditions on ρ and $\mathbf{v}$ are standard for inviscid fluids, while T , ψ , and χ are given on all boundaries (or their normal derivatives). Relating the boundary values of ψ and χ to the externally controlled fields and currents is not immediately obvious, and we shall describe it in some detail.

Fig. 1(a) shows the geometry of the spheromak in the poloidal plane; detailed descriptions are given elsewhere in this conference³. The equilibrium vertical field current I_e is

assumed to be d.c. and already fully established at $t = 0$. The toroidal current I_t is also already on, and then drops as shown in fig. 1(b), while the solenoidal current I_s rises as shown in fig. 1(b). We have not yet simulated the pinching current I_p , shown in the same figure.

On the outer boundaries, we stipulate $\psi = \psi_{\text{initial}}$ and $\chi = 0$, since the conducting shell has essentially a frozen-in field. On the inner tube, which is also conducting, we write $\psi = \psi_{\text{initial}} + \psi_B(t)$, and $\chi = \chi_B(t)$. Here both ψ_B and χ_B are constant on the tube but change with time, while ψ_{initial} is fixed in time but nonuniform on both the tube and the outer walls.

To relate ψ_B to the current I_t , we must solve the problem in the plasma, then calculate $\partial\psi/\partial n$ on the tube boundary, which is equal to the tangential B field. I_t is then given by

$$I_t = \oint \underline{B} \cdot d\underline{l} \quad \text{on the tube surface}$$

To relate χ_B to the solenoid current I_s , we note that χ is also constant everywhere inside the tube, and in fact, it is equal to $\chi_B - NI_s$, where N is the number of turns per unit radian. Thus, the total toroidal flux $\oint$ inside the tube can be expressed in terms of the boundary value χ_B and the current I_s . Now from the solution of the MHD problem, we have $\underline{E} = -\underline{v} \times \underline{B} + \underline{j}/\sigma$, and thus,

$$\oint (-\underline{v} \times \underline{B} + \underline{j}/\sigma) \cdot d\underline{l} = -d\oint/dt \quad \text{on tube surface}$$

which is the condition that links I_s to χ_B .

Using the differential equations and boundary conditions shown in fig. 1(c), we obtained the results shown in fig. 2. Fig. 2(a) shows the poloidal flux, 2(b) the density, and 2(c) the toroidal field, at the peak of the toroidal field rise on the tube boundary. These results are preliminary, in that we have not yet shifted to the correct time scale (our basic code, written for pinches, deals with $\sim 5 \mu s$ while the present problem has a time scale of $\sim 100 \mu s$), we have not understood all the seemingly anomalous results, we have not varied the input parameters or optimized them, and we are still dealing with a coarse grid and crude geometry (e.g., the circular tube is replaced by an octagon, etc.). Nevertheless, we see that (1) the poloidal flux lines do close at the right locations, (2) the density increases in about the same area, and (3) considerable toroidal field is trapped in the closed poloidal flux region. These features indicate that the model as well as the proposed formation scheme are operating in the right direction. More conclusive results will be provided at a later occasion.

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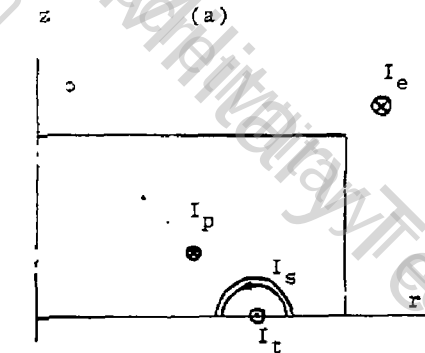
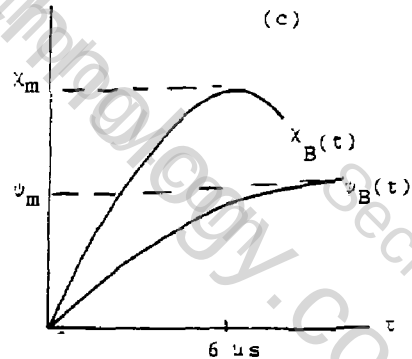
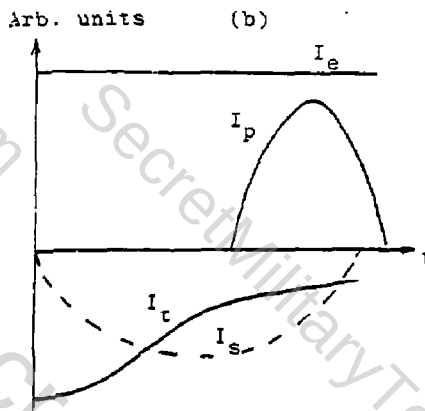


Fig. 1. (a) Schematic diagram of spheromak.

(b) Proposed time-programmed currents.

(c) Boundary values used in this simulation.



$$\chi_m = 6 \times 10^5 \text{ G-cm}$$

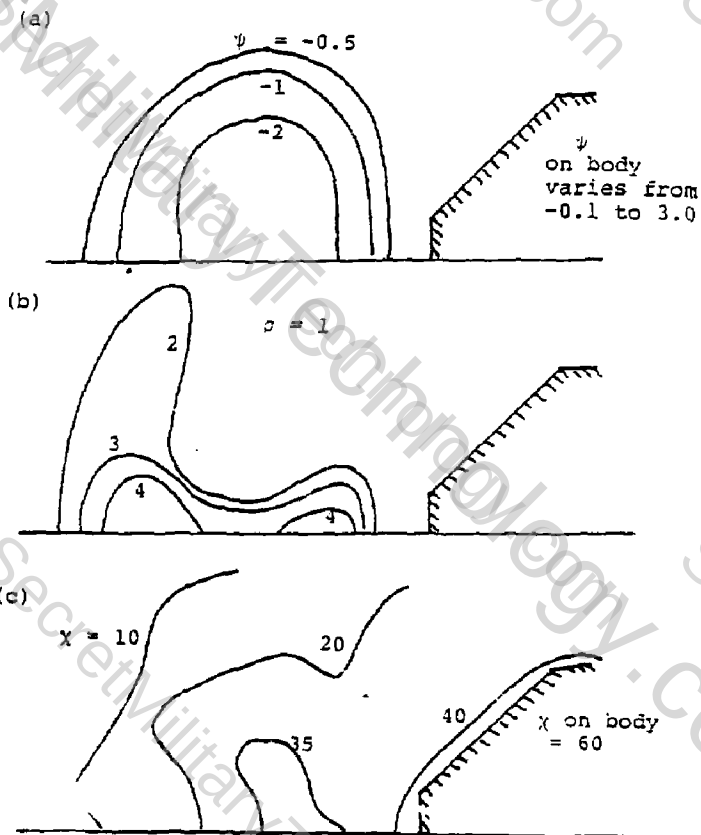
$$\psi_m = 9 \times 10^5 \text{ G-cm}^2$$

Fig. 2. (a) Contours of ψ at 6 us.

(b) Contours of ρ .

(c) Contours of χ .

(All units suitably normalized)



BIFURCATION OF TOROIDAL PLASMA IN A POLOIDAL QUADRUPOLE FIELD

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We have studied the effect of a poloidal quadrupole field on the elongation and bifurcation of a current-carrying toroidal plasma. The experiment was carried out by using an argon discharge in a small tokamak with the toroidal field $B_t = 2.5 \text{ KG}$, the major radius $R_0 = 11 \text{ cm}$, the plasma current $I_p = 2.5 \text{ KA}$, $T_i = T_e = 10 \text{ eV}$, and $n = (5-10) \times 10^{15} / \text{cc}$.

The quadrupole field B_{qp} , which increases as a function of time, is applied after the tokamak discharge has settled. As B_{qp} increases, the plasma cross-section elongates until B_{qp} reaches a critical value. The photographs in Fig. 1 were taken from the tangential direction and show the plasma cross-section. The cross-section is circular when $B_{qp} = 0$ [Fig. 1(a)]. Near the critical value of B_{qp} , the plasma is elongated vertically as shown in Fig. 1(b). The elongation ratio, b/a , reaches about 3, where b and a are the larger and the smaller radii. The horizontal dark stripe at the middle of the cross-section is a shadow caused by the quadrupole field winding. When B_{qp} exceeds the critical value, the plasma divides in two within a few microseconds and each section migrates toward the wall [Fig. 1(c)]. This splitting time is shorter than the resistive field penetration time which is about $20 \mu\text{s}$, but much longer than the Alfvén time ($0.05 \mu\text{s}$).

We have measured the horizontal component of the poloidal field B_R on the vertical axis, y , which is crossing the minor axis. Fig. 2 shows the profiles of B_R , the current density J_z and the safety factor q . The quadrupole field is turned on at a time $t=0$. As B_{qp} increases and the plasma elongates, B_R decreases, which is consistent with the theory for elongated equilibria. B_{qp} reaches the critical value at $t=17 \mu s$. An oscillatory profile of B_R , indicating the existence of a magnetic island, is seen at $t=20 \mu s$. The magnetic field reconnection occurs at this stage.

We write the flux function of the quadrupole field as

$$\psi = \frac{1}{2} A r^2 \cos 2\theta, \quad (1)$$

where r and θ are the minor radius and the angle around the minor axis, respectively. Strauss¹ has shown that the elongated equilibria are found when $A/J_z = A_{cr}/J_z \approx 0.05$. He also found that $b/a=2.9$ when $A=A_{cr}$. The experimentally observed value of A_{cr} is about 50% larger than the theoretical value.

The addition of the quadrupole field to the vertical field yields a large field index (the sign of index is negative in our case), which constitutes an unstable field

configuration with respect to the translative movement along the vertical direction. No stable discharge has been obtained, if a DC quadrupole field is applied. We have also tried to produce elongation in the horizontal direction. The experiment has not been successful, however, because of the positional instability.

The present experiment suggests some ideas for the design of a proposed spheromak plasma source² which requires plasma splitting.

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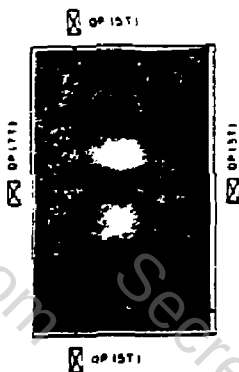


Fig. 1(a)



Fig. 1(b)

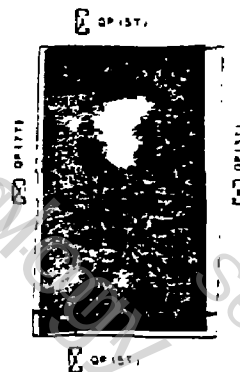


Fig. 1(c)

Fig. 1 Photographs showing plasma crosssection.
(a) No quadrupole field. (b) Most elongated.
(c) After plasma bifurcates

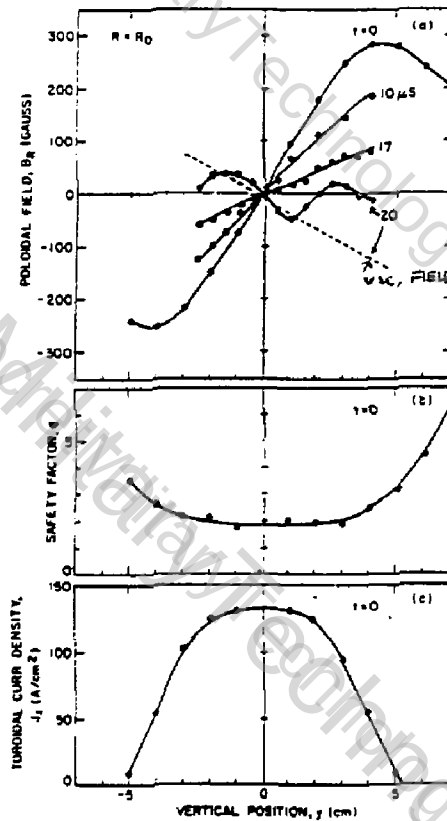


Fig. 2 (a) Profiles of the poloidal field. The quadrupole field starts rising at $t=0$ and reaches the critical value at $t=17 \mu s$. (b), (c) The safety factor and the toroidal current density at $t=0$.

Start-up Scenario of Compact Tori Based on REB-injection
Developed in SPAC-group

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Quasi-static start-up of compact tori without toroidal field coil is reviewed thoroughly in a proposal of the S-1 spheromak. During the formation phase we should note that the rapid heat loss from the plasma will give a bad effect for the generation of the confinement configuration. In the case of fast start-up of the configuration plasma can safely pass over the dangerous state of the instability toward the desirable stable state with a bonus of producing hot plasma.¹⁾ By this reason it is intended to discuss a fast start-up scenario of the compact tori based on REB injection developed in SPAC group.¹⁾

Well-known coaxial plasma gun is assumed, throughout in this story, to act as a injection chamber of REB when the gun is working. Consider a coaxial plasma gun with a third electrode which is a REB ejector. One of the arrangement is shown in Fig.1-a. A low temperature plasma disc is made to drift toward the end of the inner electrode. As soon as the disc reaches the end, the strong pulse voltage is applied to the third electrode in order to eject the REB which propagates along spiral lines of force to the disc. As soon as the REB is trapped in the disc plasma (Fig. 1-b), it heats the plasma rapidly. As the REB together with the hot plasma emerges downstream from the end of the inner

electrode the REB ring is formed and settled in as shown in Fig.1-c. After adjusting and improving properly the parameters of the plasma thus formed the configuration could work as a reactor.²⁾ The impurity problem must be solved in this device.

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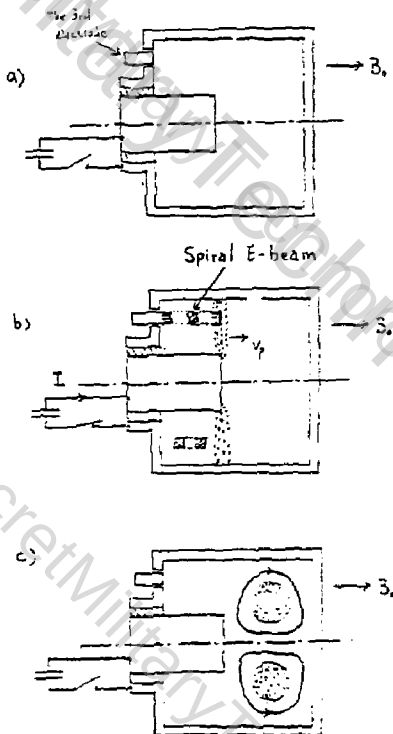


Fig. 1

THE SPS COMPACT TORUS EXPERIMENT

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I. Introduction

Balancing the apparent advantages of the spheromak configuration as a potential reactor are the difficulties in creating such a configuration in the first place. In particular, creating a toroidal field without material conductors threading the torus is a nontrivial exercise. We propose here a scheme that utilizes an intermediate energy storage within the plasma in the form of ordered kinetic energy, that may be released to drive poloidal currents and thereby create a toroidal magnetic field. The scheme is seen as a means of obtaining, in a short time, a spheromak configuration isolated from external current sources, for study of basic stability properties.

The proposed scheme rests on some unpublished observations in rotating-plasma machines made in Berkeley in the early 1960's, and on subsequent work on normal ionizing shock waves performed at Columbia University^{1,2,3} and the University of Sydney.^{4,5} In order to describe the proposal, it is necessary to first describe briefly the properties of the normal ionizing shock wave in a cylindrical geometry.

II. The Normal Ionizing Shock

Figure 1 shows the shock and driver schematically. A steady axial bias magnetic field is initially applied. Application of a high voltage pulse to the coaxial electrode structure causes the gas to break down, and a radial current flows near the end insulator. This current ionizes the gas, and through the $j_r \times B_z$ body force, sets the plasma into rotation about the tube axis. The current front advances at constant speed parallel to the tube axis, leaving behind a rotating, nearly fully ionized plasma. Typically the rotational kinetic energy per ion is about equal to the ionization energy. Such shocks have been studied extensively.^{2,4,5}

III. Compact Torus Initiation

The compact torus is to be created by utilizing a reverse-bias theta pinch to make the poloidal fields and to perform plasma heating, with the normal ionizing shock used to initially ionize the gas and to make the toroidal B_θ field. Figure 2 shows schematically the sequence of events. Ionizing shocks having opposite polarities, and therefore the same sense of axial current flow, are driven from both ends. The unpublished work referred to in the introduction concerns this phase. It was observed in Berkeley that simultaneous application of opposite polarity potentials to the end electrodes in such a geometry did indeed lead to the creation of oppositely-directed shocks. Unfortunately this observation was not pursued.

As the shocks approach one another, plasma energy is stored as rotational kinetic energy. At the time the shocks meet in the center, fuses open the driving circuits, leaving the plasma without external current linkages (Fig. 2b). At the midplane, the opposite potentials associated with the rotation short-circuit in an internal crowbar. Since E_r goes to zero, v_θ must also go to zero. The information that E_r and v_θ are zero at the midplane is carried axially outward by MHD shock waves with a poloidal current structure as in Fig. 2b. The radial current flow in the shock front provides the impulse that halts rotation, and the kinetic energy of rotation is converted to B_θ magnetic field energy. The process is analogous to the short-circuiting to each other of two freely spinning generators, with the result that a large pulse of current is driven and the generator's kinetic energy converts to field energy associated with the short-circuit current.

As the MHD shocks propagate outward, the reversed theta pinch is rapidly applied, compressing and trapping the plasma through field line reconnection at the ends (Fig. 2c).

IV. The SPS Experiment

A schematic of the experimental apparatus is shown in Fig. 3. Initial experiments are directed at determining whether the sequence of events postulated in Section II will work out in practice. If so, a theta pinch coil and capacitor bank will be added to the circuit to complete the necessary set of drivers.

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VI. Figure Captions

1. Schematic of coaxial driver for normal ionizing shock wave.
2. Sequence of events to form toroidal magnetic field. (a) Normal ionizing shocks are driven from each end. (b) Shocks meet at midplane and internal short-circuit occurs. Simultaneously, fuses open up external circuit. MHD shocks propagate axially out from midplane, with radial current at shock fronts returning via axial paths along the tube axis and near wall. (c) Application of reversed B_z field by theta pinch coil sets up poloidal field by reconnection at ends and some compressional heating follows.
3. Schematic of experiment.

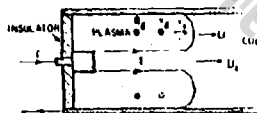


Figure 1

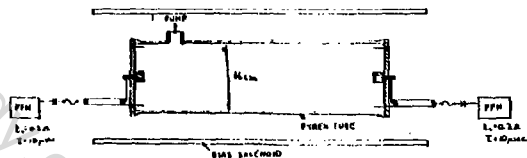


Figure 3

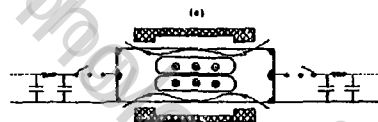
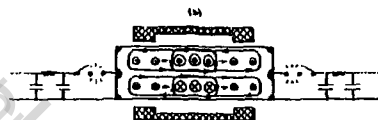
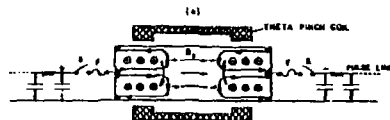


Figure 2

MINIMUM ENERGY EQUILIBRIA

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Taylor's theory of the relaxation of toroidal plasma discharges has accounted remarkably well for the experimentally observed behavior of toroidal z-pinchs [1]. His analysis also leads to particularly stable magnetic configurations which have served as the starting point for work on the speromak [2]. We present here a corrected version of Taylor's analysis, including a term improperly left out of his expression for the energy of a force-free state. We also present force-free equilibrium solutions in cusp and higher order multipole external fields. These are to serve as the starting point for a study of modified speromak configurations having improved magnetic field line curvature.

Taylor's prescription is to minimize the magnetic energy,

$$W = \frac{1}{2} \int_V B^2 d^3x, \quad (1)$$

subject to the constraints of global flux conservation and conservation of

$$K = \int_V \mathbf{A} \cdot \mathbf{B} d^3x. \quad (2)$$

In Eqs. (1) and (2) the integration is over the plasma volume, with plasma boundaries assumed rigid. From the method of Lagrange multipliers it follows that the state of minimum energy must satisfy

$$\nabla \times \mathbf{B} = u\mathbf{B}, \quad (3)$$

where u is a constant independent of position. This is of course a necessary but not a sufficient condition for minimum energy.

Equation (3) has an infinite set of solutions. Taylor gives an expression for the most general solution in a large aspect ratio torus of circular cross section [1]. We want to know which solution has the lowest energy, consistent with a given initial value of K and of toroidal flux. Integrate by parts, using Eq. (3), to express the energy in terms of K plus a boundary term,

$$(1/2) \int_V B^2 d^3x = uK/2 + (1/2) \int_S (\mathbf{A} \times \mathbf{B}) \cdot \hat{n} d^2x. \quad (4)$$

Here V denotes the plasma volume, S is the surface of the plasma, and $\hat{n}$ is a unit vector normal to the plasma surface.

Taylor expresses the energy difference between two solutions corresponding to the same K as $W_a - W_b = (1/2)(u_a - u_b)K$. He then minimizes the energy by finding the state of lowest u . His expression for the energy difference is incorrect. The surface integral in Eq. (4) is in general a nonvanishing function of u .

We evaluate the surface integral in Eq. (4) explicitly, using the general solution to Eq. (3) given in Ref. 1 for a torus of large aspect ratio and circular cross section. The torus is represented by a cylinder of radius a and length $2\pi R$, with its ends identified. The result is

$$W = (1/2)(R/a) \Psi^2 u [(a/R)(K/\Psi^2) + J_0(ua)/J_1(ua)]. \quad (5)$$

Because our expression for W is not a monotonic function of u , as was Taylor's, the determination of the minimum energy state is now more complicated. Although the analysis using the correct expression for the energy is considerably different in some respects from that of Taylor, it yields the same minimum energy state for a large aspect ratio torus of circular cross section. Because of the dependence of the boundary term on u , this term cannot be removed by a gauge transformation. Whether the boundary term can alter the minimum energy state for some other geometry is at present an open question.

Now we show how to find the state which minimizes Eq. (5), subject to fixed K and Ψ [5]. In addition to satisfying Eq. (3), B must also satisfy the boundary condition, $B_r = 0$ at $r = a$. The $m = 0, k = 0$ solution has $B_r = 0$ everywhere, and thus always satisfies the boundary condition. (Here m is the azimuthal mode number and k the axial wave number.) If $m \neq 0$ or $k \neq 0$ the boundary condition gives an eigenvalue equation.

Only the $m = 0, k = 0$ mode contributes to Ψ . The amplitude of this mode is therefore determined by Ψ ,

$$b_0 = \Psi / [2\pi a J_1(ua)]. \quad (6)$$

Once we fix b_0 in this way, we automatically satisfy the constraint on Ψ . We need only minimize

$$V(ua) \equiv ua [(a/R)(K/\Psi^2) + J_0(ua)/J_1(ua)], \quad (7)$$

subject to a given value of

$$\alpha \equiv (a/R)(K/\Psi^2). \quad (8)$$

Only the $m = 0, k = 0$ mode contributes to the boundary term of Eq. (4). We therefore consider first the pure $m = 0, k = 0$ mode. In Fig. 1 the solid line is a plot of $V(ua)$ vs. ua for the $m = 0, k = 0$ solutions. For each value of α there is a discrete set of ua consistent with the $m = 0, k = 0$ mode. The lowest such value of ua corresponds to the $m = 0, k = 0$ mode with lowest energy.

Now suppose we superpose a discrete eigenmode on the $m = 0, k = 0$ solution. Let the coefficient of this mode be b_m . Evaluating α for such a mode, we find that it is of the form $\alpha(ua) = \alpha_0(ua) + (b_m/b_0)^2 \alpha_{m,k}(ua)$, with $\alpha_{m,k} > 0$. As b_m goes from 0 to ∞ , with ua fixed, α goes from α_0 to ∞ . V increases linearly with increasing α . In Fig. 1, each such mixed state would correspond to a straight line originating on the $m = 0, k = 0$ curve. The four dashed lines in Fig. 1 correspond to four such solutions.

The lowest dashed line in Fig. 1 corresponds to $\mu a = 3.11$, which is the lowest discrete eigenvalue. This line clearly lies below the solid line, so the pure $m = 0$, $k = 0$ mode is unstable to the $\mu a = 3.11$ mode when it can exist (that is, for $\alpha > 8.21$). The lines corresponding to all other discrete eigenvalues lie above this one. We thus arrive at the same conclusion reached by Taylor.

Our derivation of the minimum energy state has been specific to a large aspect ratio torus of circular cross section. Are there geometries for which the minimum energy state is not the one with lowest eigenvalue? We don't know at present. A rough estimate indicates that the ratio of the boundary term to μK is of the order $S/(\mu V)$, where S is the surface area of the boundary and V is the plasma volume. This suggests that the boundary term will be most important for a geometry with large surface to volume ratio. We are led to a study of tori with noncircular cross section.

The eigenfunctions of Eq. (3) subject to the condition $B \cdot \hat{n} = 0$ at the boundary have recently been determined for a large aspect ratio torus of elliptical cross section [4]. We can use these solutions in determining the state of minimum energy. The eigenfunctions corresponding to the continuous part of the spectrum are now sums of products of Mathieu functions. We have verified that again the discrete eigenfunctions do not contribute to Ψ or to the boundary term. This allows us to carry through our analysis exactly as for a circular cross section. We have expressed $W(\mu a)$ and $V(\mu a)$ for the continuous eigenfunction as a sum of integrals over radial Mathieu functions. These expressions are being evaluated numerically to produce a graph corresponding to that of Fig. 1. The mixed states with fixed eigenvalue will again produce straight lines on this graph.

Finally, we turn to the problem of improving the field line curvature of the spheromak. Our motivation in doing this is to improve the stability of surface modes and to increase the β allowed by the Mercier criterion. Previous work on improving the spheromak stability has focused on the introduction of a hole to improve shear [5]. Our approach is an outgrowth of recent work on systems with mass flow.

It was shown by Woltjer that the force-free solutions with

$$\mathbf{v} = B/\sqrt{4\pi}$$

represent a minimum energy state for a plasma bounded by an infinitely conducting wall, subject to the constancy of K and of $\int_V \mathbf{v} \cdot \mathbf{B} \, d^3x$ [6]. Stability to surface perturbations, if the boundary is no longer assumed rigid, has recently been established for such a system in an external cusp field [7]. This suggests that in the absence of mass flow, too, we study force free equilibria in cusp-type external fields. We have constructed analytic equilibrium solutions of this type, for use in studies with and without mass flow.

We work in spherical coordinates, treating the plasma boundary as a perturbation about a spherical surface. The boundary is thus given by

$$r = r_0 + \Delta r(\theta),$$

where $\Delta r \ll r_0$ is assumed. The general solution for the poloidal flux function is

$$\psi_p \text{ in} = \frac{r}{a} \sin^2 \theta \sum_m c_m P'_m(\cos \theta) j_m(\mu r)$$

inside the plasma, and

$$\psi_p \text{ vac} = \sin^2 \theta \sum_m \left[\frac{a_m}{m+1} r^{m+1} - \frac{b_m}{m} r^{-m} \right] P'_m(\cos \theta)$$

in the vacuum. Here P_m is a Legendre polynomial, j_m is a spherical Bessel function, and we have assumed axial symmetry.

A vacuum cusp solution with the field coils far away corresponds to having only $a_2 \neq 0$. Requiring $\psi_p \text{ in} = 0$ for $\theta = \pi/2$, we find that the interior solution can have only even modes. Beginning with only $m = 2$, we progressively add modes until we get the kind of solution we are seeking. For only $c_2 \neq 0$, the boundary is spherical. The matching external solution has only $a_2, b_2 \neq 0$, and is a cusp at large r . Adding $c_4 \neq 0$, $c_4 \ll c_2$, makes the surface oblate or prolate. With $c_6 \neq 0$, $c_4, c_6 \ll c_2$, we can choose the coefficients so that $\Delta r = \epsilon \cos^2 \theta \sin^2 \theta$. This gives us the qualitative behavior we seek. It matches to external modes having $m = 2, 4, 6$. If we wish to sharpen up the corners further, we can do so by adding more modes.

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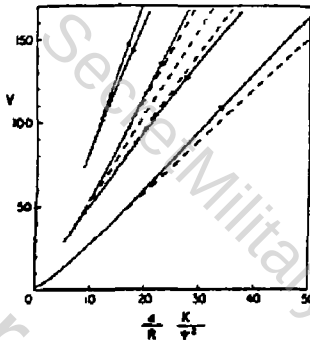


Figure 1. Energy of the force free solutions. The arrows indicate the direction of increasing β .

COMPACT TOROIDAL PLASMA EQUILIBRIUM AND IMPLICATIONS ON STABILITY

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The very enthusiastic interest and activity during the past year or so in compact toroidal plasma containment is gratifying to those of us who have been studying various low-aspect-ratio configurations and devices for a number of years. From an experimental viewpoint a desirable feature of compact-torus studies is that relatively small-scale working devices are apparently possible [1] and this fortunate state-of-affairs may hold up to break-even fusion states. This happy possibility is in striking contrast to the present development of the next generation of tokamak-type machines with large external poloidal current-carrying coils surrounding a toroidal plasma container.

However, my earlier [2] and present studies indicate that some caution is necessary in the on-going process of reducing the external toroidal magnetic field B_z to a small value in compact tight toruses; in fact both present theoretical and experimental spheromak studies apparently hope to eliminate this field completely. Such configurations may be feasible for relatively fast pinch-type low β experiments and plasmoid guns; but for future longer-lasting higher β devices, albeit in the moderate β paramagnetic regime, provision for some external B_z is necessary particularly as the diamagnetic regime is approached. To satisfy this modest B_z requirement we only need to provide an electric current I_0 along the major axis with the initial flexibility of using either a straight material conductor or straight charged beams.

The present discussion is limited primarily to the close relationship between the plasma-current-density distribution (mostly poloidal J_θ) and the need for an external axial current I_0 to prevent unreal singular behavior in the plasma or plasma-vacuum interface. Consider the configuration (shown in Fig. 1) which is related to spheromaks; the toroidal plasma ($\rho > 0$) is nominally in the double-cross-hatched region, and the single-cross-hatched region represents a toroidal vacuum (or force-free pressureless plasma $p = 0$) region between the spherical separatrix (plus the major axis) and the plasma. For axially symmetric magnetohydrodynamic (MHD) equilibrium ($\partial/\partial\theta = 0$) in spherical polar coordinates, the magnetic field in terms of the poloidal flux function $\Psi(\rho, \theta)$ is

$$\vec{B} = (B^r(\rho, \theta), B^\theta(\rho, \theta), B^z(\rho, \theta)) = \frac{1}{\rho \sin \theta} \left[\frac{\partial \Psi}{\partial \theta} \hat{e}_\rho - \frac{\partial \Psi}{\partial \rho} \hat{e}_\theta + I(\Psi) \hat{e}_z \right] \quad (1)$$

Specifically we choose $\Psi = w(\rho) \cdot \sin^2 \theta$ (separable); and also $I = I_0 + \lambda \Psi^2 = I(\Psi)$, $I \cdot \nabla \Psi = \lambda \Psi$, where λ is the poloidal current parameter and $\Psi = \Psi^2 \ll 1$ is the flux function value at the plasma-

vacuum interface. We choose $\Psi = 0$ on the spherical separatrix and along the major axis and $\Psi > \delta^2$ in the interior of the plasma with Ψ attaining its maximum value on the magnetic axis. In addition if we choose the plasma pressure $p = \kappa(\Psi - \delta^2)$ the electric current density is

$$\vec{J} = (J(\rho), J(\phi), J(\theta)) \\ = \left\{ I'(\Psi) \cdot \vec{B}(\rho), \frac{1}{\rho \sin \phi} [\kappa \cdot \rho^2 \sin^2 \phi + I \cdot I'(\Psi)] \right\} \quad (2)$$

where κ is the pressure parameter; and

$$I'(\Psi) = \frac{\lambda \Psi}{I} = \frac{\lambda \Psi}{[I_0^2 + \lambda(\Psi^2 - \delta^4)]^{1/2}} \quad (3)$$

In particular for $\kappa = 0$ (or $p = 0$) the current density is

$$\vec{J} = I'(\Psi) \cdot \vec{B} \quad (4)$$

where $\lambda = \lambda = 20.2$, the lowest eigenvalue; the pressureless plasma is moderately paramagnetic. Initially this force-free-field configuration was studied with C. S. Gardner as a possible model for a megagauss magnet. Now in any viable plasma equilibrium configuration we require that the magnetic field be bounded (nonsingular). Then for any $\delta > 0$ (or $\kappa > 0$) the nature of the current-density distribution $\vec{J}$ given by (2) depends primarily on the structure of $I'(\Psi)$ shown in (3); this is particularly so for the pressureless plasma. For $\kappa > 0$ this factor mainly affects the poloidal component $J_p = (J(\rho), J(\phi))$. In the entire paramagnetic regime $\lambda > \lambda > 0$, J_p has a singularly high value for $I_0 = 0$ and $\Psi = \delta^2$. When δ is increased into the diamagnetic regime $\lambda < 0$, $I(\Psi)$ becomes unreal unless $I_0 > 0$; and the required I_0 rapidly becomes excessive as δ is increased (cf. Ref. 2 and earlier work cited therein). In addition the toroidal current density $J(\theta)$ changes sign (plasma current reversal) in the diamagnetic regime as δ increases. Apparently there will be a severe restriction on δ for compact toroidal equilibrium in the diamagnetic regime; fortunately the useable range of δ is about $0 \leq \delta \leq 1/2$. In the transition region between the paramagnetic and diamagnetic regimes $|\lambda| < \pi^2/4$ an analytic study of equilibrium configurations with slightly anisotropic pressure ($p_1 \neq p_2 = p$) has been made using the guiding-center-fluid (GCF) formulation. For $\lambda = 0$ the lowest order plasma boundary (for $\delta = 0$) can be a prolate or oblate spheroid depending on whether $p_1 > p_2$ or $p_1 < p_2$ (initially studied with D. Dobrot). However for $\lambda = 1$ (paramagnetic) a spherical plasma boundary can be maintained for $p_1 \geq p_2$; and the preceding MHD arguments for $0 < \delta < 1$ appears to be valid in the full paramagnetic regime ($\lambda \leq \lambda < 2$). The implication of these GCF calculations is that a small (but nonlinear) prolate-oblate oscillating MHD mode is stable in this paramagnetic transition region; and an estimate on the required size of I_0 obtains.

We conclude this brief discussion with a short description of a more elaborate compact plasma confinement configuration (initiated with E. Pebban and Tyan Yeh) for future consideration (fig. 2). From the viewpoint of a possible "steady-state" (or slowly oscillating α) reactor, the introduction of a center ring-coil to produce a spherical (or spheroid) vacuum hole of radius $\rho = a$ may have benefits which override the increased design complexity. Aside from the advantages stated in Ref. 2 other benefits of an α -vacuum hole are: (1) The configuration will be steadied from global disturbances such as vertical, sideways and tilting motions; for example these movements can arise when ring plasmoids are fed axially into the main body of plasma periodically and ring impurities are rejected; and (2) the plasma remains paramagnetic for larger β with increasing α , decreasing the I_0 requirement.

Finally the implication of our work is that a study of nonlinear stability of compact toroidal configurations with plasma-vacuum interfaces is needed. Numerical computations may involve a combined Eulerian-Lagrangian formulation to handle the free boundary and to choose the proper vacuum flux surface to locate the shaped external current-carry toroidal coils.

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FIG. 1. The axially symmetric geometry of an equilibrium configuration when there is no dipole at the origin.

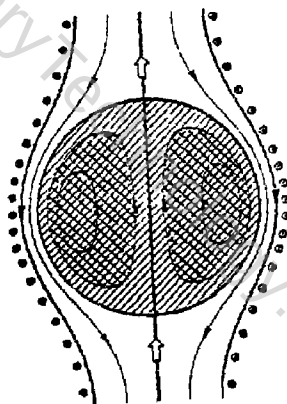
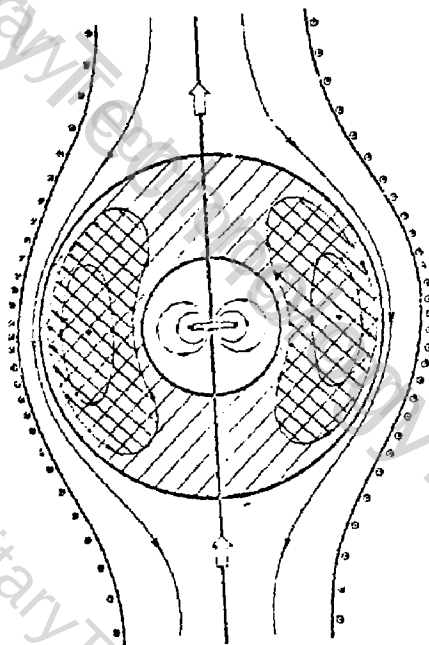


FIG. 2.



RADIO FREQUENCY FLUX CONTROL OF TOROIDAL PLASMAS

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One of the most important problems in the research of thermonuclear fusion is how we confine inhomogeneous plasmas in the stable state. The series of experiments in the world has been showing that the plasma suffers from its anomalous cross-field transport, particularly in particle and electron heat losses. There has been much work done to try to understand the anomalous losses. A spontaneous excitation of the waves, which is the consequence of instabilities, is believed to be a cause of anomalous loss mechanisms. This anomalous transport mechanism, however, implies a possibility to control actively plasma confinement by RF waves. We have proposed a concept of Radio Frequency Flux Control (RFFC), a new scheme to control plasma losses [1].

The basic concept of RFFC is to drive inward plasma fluxes by supplying the momentum via waves so as to compensate the outward fluxes induced by instabilities. The particle fluxes and electron heat flux due to arbitrary low frequency electromagnetic (EM) waves are given as [1,2]

$$\Gamma_x = \Sigma \frac{ecn}{BkT_e} \frac{\omega_* + k_{||}u - \omega}{\sqrt{2}|k_{||}|v_e} \operatorname{Im} Z\left(\frac{\omega - k_{||}u}{\sqrt{2}|k_{||}|v_e}\right) \left| \tilde{E}_y + \frac{\omega}{k_{||}c} \tilde{B}_x - \frac{iv_e k_{\perp}}{c} \tilde{B}_z \right|^2 \quad (1)$$

$$Q_x = \Sigma \frac{ecn}{3kT_e} \frac{\omega_* + k_{||}u - \omega}{\sqrt{2}|k_{||}|v_e} \operatorname{Im} Z\left(\frac{\omega - k_{||}u}{\sqrt{2}|k_{||}|v_e}\right) \left\{ 2T_e \operatorname{Im}\left(\frac{\omega}{k_{||}} - u\right)^2 \left| \tilde{E}_y + \frac{\omega}{k_{||}c} \tilde{B}_x - \frac{iv_e k_{\perp}}{c} \tilde{B}_z \right|^2 \right. \\ \left. + \left(\frac{\omega}{k_{||}} - u \right) \left| \tilde{E}_y + \frac{\omega}{k_{||}c} \tilde{B}_x - \frac{iv_e k_{\perp}}{c} \tilde{B}_z \right|^2 \right\} \quad (2)$$

where x-axis is taken in the direction of gradients, and other notations are standard. The general expression of the particle flux, i.e., $\Gamma_x = (c/B) \operatorname{Re} \langle (\tilde{n} E_y) + 1/c (\tilde{p} \times \tilde{B}) \rangle + (c/B) n E_y$, electron heat flux, energy and momentum balance equations including the magnetic fluctuations $\tilde{B}_x$ terms are obtained in Ref. 3. Concerning the ion particle flux we have also demonstrated that the ion particles follow to electrons so as to maintain the ambipolarity of the particle flux in the presence of any low frequency electromagnetic waves [2]. Due to a strong dependence of the ion heat flux on the nonlinear effect, fortunately, ion heat loss flux remains small [4]. Therefore, we should consider the particle fluxes and electron heat flux. The equations (1) and (2) are saying that, by the proper choice of the RF waves which satisfy the condition $(\omega_* + k_{||}u - \omega)k < 0$, i.e., the wave momentum is absorbed by electrons via Landau

resonance near the resonant surface in the plasma column, the inward fluxes are to be obtained. The plasma fluxes, as far as a quasilinear approximation is used, are proportional to the fluctuating amplitude of the parallel electric field which particles feel, $|\vec{E}_{\parallel}|^2 = |\vec{E}_z + (z/L_s)\vec{E}_y|^2 \approx [(k_{\parallel}/k)^2]E_y^2 + (\omega/k_{\parallel}c)^2 B_x^2 - (iv_e k_{\parallel} c/c)^2$, and the wave particle resonance rate, namely, the momentum and the energy exchange rate between particles and the waves.

The total plasma fluxes, firstly neglecting the nonlinear interactions, are given by

$$\Gamma_x = \Gamma_x(\text{anomalous}) + \Gamma_x(\text{RF}) \quad (3)$$

$$Q_x = Q_x(\text{anomalous}) + Q_x(\text{RF}). \quad (4)$$

In RFFC scheme, we induce the negative diffusions of particle and heat fluxes.

In order to utilize RFFC, we have to examine various kinetic RF waves one by one to search out the optimum condition in parameters such that input power, frequency ranges and wave numbers, taking the plasma energy and momentum balances correctly into considerations. We examine the EM low frequency RF waves to study the efficiency and the optimum condition for RFFC scheme, solving the radial propagation equations and show its accessibility and dependences of induced fluxes, $\Gamma_x(\text{RF})$ and $Q_x(\text{RF})$, on the wave structures.

We have basic equations for RF waves in current-carrying finite- β cylindrical plasma in sheared magnetic field, which are the same as for drift-tearing and EM-drift waves [5]. The resonant surface must be inside the plasma column.

We launch a MHD shear Alfvén wave at the plasma edge $r = a$, demanding $E_r = 0$, which propagates into the plasma. The kinetic interactions become in-

ignorable in the region $|k_{\parallel} v_A/\omega| \leq 1$. In the region $|k_{\parallel} v_A/a| \leq 1$, the wave turns out to be kinetic drift-Alfvén mode exciting outgoing drift modes. Due to strong ion Landau damping, in-coming drift waves are suppressed. With these boundary conditions we solve the propagation equations, dividing the plasma column into MHD and kinetic regions [5]. The radial wave structure and the excited fluxes for the parameters $\omega = 3\omega_{pe}$, $m = -$ and $n = 1$ are shown in Fig. 1. One sees the wave accessibility and that the controllable fluxes can be induced at arbitrary magnetic surfaces by RF waves with sharp spectrum. A broad spectrum one, on the other hand, gives rise to fluxes in the whole plasma column [6]. The required power of RF wave for particle confinement time being twice larger than the one without RFFC can be estimated. The rate of RF heating which is simultaneously caused by the RF wave can also be calculated.

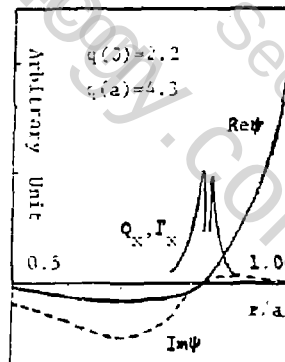


Fig. 1

In conclusion, the plasma parameters are improved through the reduction of the losses and the increment of the input. We thus have additional freedom by RFEC scheme to optimize plasma confinement; one finds the possibilities to control temperature, density and current profiles, impurities, scrape-off and boundary plasmas and the global stability by employing RFEC.

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Field-Reversed Configurations:
Theoretical Considerations and Reactor Applications*

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Introduction -- The Motivation

A major motivation for studying *compact forms* (CT) is the desire for a small low-capital cost fusion plant with easy access for maintenance. Access is achieved by having plasma currents produce most of the confining field, reducing external coils. Small size is achieved by the combination of high- β and closed-field confinement embedded within an open-field to form a natural divertor.

The potential advantages of a *small* power plant require comment. For a capital intensive plant, "economy of scale" dictates that the electrical output cost in \$/kW-hr decreases with size. (Size limit: ~10-20% of network capacity). Consequently, some CT concepts run the risk of being too small to be economical! Still a low capital cost pilot (demonstration) unit could significantly speed up fusion development. This suggests an important, if not essential, feature -- that increased power is possible by addition of modules [1]. This has the dual advantage that the pilot unit would provide a test of the basic module while the desired sizing and improved economics would be achieved by mass production of modules [2].

Another desirable feature of the CT concepts is that their high- β makes them candidates for burning advanced fuels. Smaller plants are most logically located near the user, reducing transmission costs. Such siting would require relatively clean units, suggesting the concept of a satellite plant burning fuels such as D- 3 He [3,4].

In summary, CT concepts should be judged on their ability to achieve:

- Small size with possible modular addition;
- Easy maintenance (minimum obstructing coils);
- High- β (favorable power density and extension to advanced fuels).

Reactor Concepts -- General Considerations

A CT reactor contains three basic components (Fig. 1): formation, heating and burning zones. Reactor designs either incorporate these functions into a single chamber or use a linear configuration based on the moving ring or plasmoid concept. Examples of static burn-chamber designs are the FRM concepts [4,5] and reversed field pinch (RFP) reactors [10, 11], while linear configurations include the moving ring FRM [6], the moving plasmoid heater (MPH) [7-9] and the ion ring compressor (IRC) [12]. The MPH differs from the other concepts in several respects, including the use of injection heating rather than compression.

Typical reactor designs are summarized in Fig. 2. FRM and RFP concepts are quite small (< 10 MW_e per module) due to finite Lamor radius (PLR) stabilization theory which is thought to require the S-factor (plasma radius/ion gyro radius) to be < 10 [13,14] (a fundamental issue requiring much more study). In contrast, the Spheromak and RFP, being described by MHD theory, cover a range of larger sizes. Except for the FRM, all CT concepts to date have involved pulsed operation.

*Work Performed for EPRI (Contract 645-1) and JOE (EY-76-S-02-2213).

Figure 1: BASIC CT COMPONENTS

		Formation	Heating	Burn Chamber
Stabilization	Rotor	• Ion Ring (IR)		
	FLR	• Field-Reversed Mirror (FRM)	Injection	Pulsed
		• Reversed-Field Theta Pinch (RF θ P)	Compression	Steady-State
	MHD	• Reversed-Field Pinch (RFP)	Ohmic	(refueling/ deashing/energy recovery)
		• Spheromak (Spk)	RF	

Figure 2: REACTOR CHARACTERISTICS

Power ($\dot{W}_e$)	< 10	100 - 300	500-1000												
Maj. Rad. (m)	< 0.3	1 - 5	6-12												
Plasma β	1	0.3 - 1	0.3-0.5												
<table border="1"> <tr> <td>FRM [4,5]</td><td>- - - - -</td><td>Spk [8,9]</td><td>- - - - -</td></tr> <tr> <td>MRFRM [6]</td><td>- - - - -</td><td>RFP [10,11]</td><td>- - - - -</td></tr> <tr> <td>MPH (RFθP) [7]</td><td>-</td><td>IRC [12]</td><td>- - - - -</td></tr> </table>				FRM [4,5]	- - - - -	Spk [8,9]	- - - - -	MRFRM [6]	- - - - -	RFP [10,11]	- - - - -	MPH (RF θ P) [7]	-	IRC [12]	- - - - -
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MPH (RF θ P) [7]	-	IRC [12]	- - - - -												

Reactor Concepts -- Examples

We briefly review four illustrative examples of CT reactor concepts.

1. SAFFIRE: a quasi-steady state FRM

SAFFIRE is a D-³He fueled FRM designed as a pilot unit for satellite operation [3,4]. It is quite small (see comparison with 2X-II in Table 1). Reversed-field targets generated by a conical pinch coil are first built-up in density and heated by neutral-beam injection. Then, a quasi-steady state burn is achieved using the three features of Fig. 3. Because of SAFFIRE's small size (radius ~ 20 cm), detailed Monte Carlo studies [15,16] of fusion product (fps) heating were done. Despite the small fraction of fps confined in the closed field (~ 10%), significant heating is obtained from fps that circulate through both open and closed regions. Thus, ~ 50% of the alpha energy (protons ~ 20%) in SAFFIRE goes into the closed-field plasma, approaching ignition. Indeed the S-factor is the key parameter: for S = 5, an energy multiplication (Q) of ~ 5 would result while at S = 15 ignition is predicted.

Table 1: PILOT UNIT PARAMETERS

	SAFFIRE	2X-II
Avg. ion, elect. energy (keV)	80, 68	20, 4
Max. Magnetic Field (Tesla)	5	1
Plasma Volume (Liters)	30	25
Fusion, Net Elect. Power (MW)	1.2, .32	-

Figure 3: SELF-SUSTAINED SAPHIRE CONCEPT

- Cold fueling maintains pressure profile/diamagnetic current
- Fusion product heating supplemented by auxiliary heating
- Cold plasma blanket provides divertor/energy recovery

2. Spheromak Moving Plasmoid Reactor (SMPR)

Preliminary studies of the SMPR were carried out in support of the PPPL Spheromak project to establish a possible operating "window" using moderate technology assumptions [8]. Physics assumptions are listed in Fig. 4.

Figure 4: SMPR ASSUMPTIONS

- Creation of MHD-Stable, Reactor-Scale Plasma
- Stabilization of Tilting Mode by Conducting Shell
- Ohmic Heating to Ignition
- Marginal Internal-Mode Stability During the Burn
- High-Efficiency Recovery of Magnetic Energy in Plasma

A modified PEST code computed equilibrium at each time step during the burn, plasma losses being assumed at a rate to satisfy stability requirements. The β was optimized using an ellipticity of ~ 0.5 , a flattened current profile, and a center hole of $\sim 10\%$. The "window" found is listed in Table 2.

Table 2: SMPR "WINDOW"

- $3 < B_p < 6$ Tesla
- $0.5 < a < 1.0$ meters
- $10 < \tau_{CR} < 50$ sec
- $1.5 < r_{wall}/r_{pl} < 2$
- $100 < \beta_{net} < 1000$ MW

3. A "Compact" Reversed-Field Pinch (CRFP)

While prior reversed-field pinch (RFP) reactor studies [10] concentrated on larger reactors (2-3000 MW_{th}), the RFP could potentially make an attractive small reactor. It operates at high β (> Kruskal-Shafranov), with arbitrary aspect ratio being stabilized by shear and a conducting wall. Ignition is by ohmic heating; operation is in a long pulse mode (10-100 s) with either a batch or refueled burn.

A 3-fluid, 1-D code (RFPBRN) [17,18] used in prior designs [10] was used here to seek a small RFP (~ 100 MW_{th}) design termed CRFP. Preliminary results (Table 3) indicate that, even with Bohm-like thermal conduction, a reasonable energy gain factor can be maintained. Larger conduction losses necessitate higher densities and larger B-fields for ignition, resulting in shorter burns. Still, the CRFP concept appears to warrant further study.

Table 3: COMPARISON OF CRFP AND PRIOR DESIGNS

	"Large" RFPR [10]	CRFP
First-wall and Major Radius: $r_w(m)$, $R(m)$	1.5, 12.7	0.75, 6.35
Burn and Cycle Times; $\tau_B(s)$, $\tau_c(s)$	21, 26	10, 15
Total Th. and Elect. Power, P_{TH} (MW _{th}), P (MW _e)	3000, 750	528, 150
$Q_p = (\text{fusion energy})/(\text{ohmic \& field energy})$	14	10

4. Reversed-Field Theta Pinch (RF θ P) Moving Plasmod Heater (MPH) Concept

Preliminary studies suggest use of the MPH concept for RF θ P operation is potentially attractive with ~ 10 MW_e output using a 0.5-m drift tube with $R = 0.15m$, and $B = 3 T$ [7]. A key component is neutral-beam-assisted heating which also builds up reversal currents and, most importantly, controls rotational instabilities [20].

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THE HOLOMAK -- A TOROIDAL SPHEROMAK

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ABSTRACT. Recent spheromak stability analysis favors a profile of plasma current concentrated in the toroidal core of the spheromak, with very low current density (and correspondingly low temperatures) in the region immediately about the major axis. Considering a toroidal (rather than spheroidal) spheromak therefore produces little change in the physics, but the existence of a permanently accessible central hole introduces major options in the reactor engineering. The "holomak" geometry (from *holos*, Greek: whole, safe) is a low- $|q|$ toroidal pinch which exploits these options:

- *A close-fitting toroidal stabilizing shell.
- *Divertor capability.
- *Tokamak-type Ohmic heating transformer.
- *Tokamak-type start-up with finite toroidal field, a quadrupole or hexapole null in the poloidal field, and protection from impurities by a large scrape-off region.
- *Programmed toroidal field. The stabilizing shell also serves as a transformer-coupled one-turn toroidal field coil. In a reactor, a non-superconducting shell could provide a medium-strength temporary field for start-up, followed by a weak forward or reversed field, all with low energy dissipation.
- *Magnetic shear profile adjustable over a broad range.
- *Spheroidal blanket.
- *Axial disassembly.

Engineering features which would be eminently desirable in the apparatus for a CTR reactor include axial and/or radial disassembly and a spheroidal blanket. With toroidal magnetic confinement, one also looks for high beta, closed magnetic surfaces, high shear and, possibly, divertor compatibility. Satisfying these criteria are spheromaks and low- $|q|$ toroidal pinches. The latter correspond exactly to the toroidal "core" portion of the spheromak, but the existence of an actual accessible central hole permits a close-fitting toroidal shell, a weak external toroidal B field, and a normal-conductor Ohmic-heating transformer. Motivating research on such "holomak" devices is the following: confirmation of adequate confinement for a low- $|q|$ pinch would provide the scientific basis for a CTR reactor engineered with existing technology.

The holomak design introduces a toroidal stabilizing shell which also serves as a one-turn toroidal-field coil. (Incorporation of such a toroidal one-turn non-superconducting shell in a reactor is still consistent with axial disassembly and a spheroidal blanket!) Current to produce the external toroidal B field is induced by transformer coupling to the shell; after start-up, this field can be driven to a low value, to zero, or can be reversed. (In a reactor after start-up, a weak toroidal field may be maintained with modest power dissipation in the non-superconducting shell.) Quasi-steady-state current in two large outer Helmholtz coils provides the vertical field (in a reactor, the vertical field would be produced by constant-current superconducting coils located outside the spheroidal reactor blanket), while inner coils form, for start-up, a temporary hexapole or

quadrupole null in this poloidal field. After start-up, these nulling currents may also be driven to zero, to form a conventional toroidal z-pinch, or to reduced values, leaving the plasma with one or two poloidal divertor lobes. In a reactor, these (normal-conductor) coils may also be driven in a pulsed mode, to remove helium ash from time to time. See Figs. 3 and 4.

An ideal holomak would have, after start-up, zero net external toroidal field on the plasma surface, obviating the need for steady-state current in the toroidal-field coil. But without compromising the CTR engineering technology — i.e., the axial-disassembly and spheroidal-blanket concepts — one may allow a relatively weak external toroidal field driven with modest power dissipation by current flowing poloidally in the non-superconducting toroidal shell. (A conducting shell fitting close to the plasma appears necessary for spheromaks and holomaks to suppress plasma instabilities.) The S-1 spheromak apparatus can, without major changes, be operated in the "holomak" mode and Fig. 3 indicates the placement of an inner shell into the S-1 vacuum chamber to achieve this end. The low impedance of the shell — considered as a single-turn inductor — suggests transformer coupling to the (higher impedance) supply. The S-1 spheromak core with its programmed toroidal flux provides exactly such a transformer and operation of the S-1 apparatus in the holomak mode makes use of this compatibility. Pulsing the core will induce poloidal currents in the shell with toroidal magnetic field values up to several kilogauss. The exact value of this B field will depend on the shape of the shell and particularly on the closeness of fit of the shell to the plasma and to the core. After start-up, the core can be programmed to bring the toroidal B field down to a low value, to zero, or to a reversed field value.

Ohmic-heating current is induced by the Ohmic-heating transformer, an array of coils which produces a changing magnetic flux through the holes of the plasma-stabilizing shell and linking the plasma. The shell shields the plasma itself from the OH B-field, which is channeled around the plasma by eddy currents induced in the shell and in the vacuum-chamber wall.

In equilibrium, the radial hoop force of the plasma, due to magnetic and particle pressure, is balanced by the interaction of the toroidal plasma current and the so-called vertical field. In S-1, the equilibrium vertical field is induced by quasi-steady-state current in two Helmholtz coils located outside the vacuum vessel and the field is thus "frozen" into both the vacuum vessel and shell. For start-up, the vertical field is annihilated locally by pulsing the "pinch" coils, now lowered to 12.5 cm above and below the central plane, and producing a hexapole null on the midplane approximately at $R=57.5$ cm. (Fig. 1) As plasma current start to flow, the cross-section of the closed magnetic surfaces is small and a large scrape-off region protects the interior plasma from wall impurities released at this early stage of the discharge. (Fig. 2) As the plasma current then builds up further, radial force balance requires a stronger net vertical field and it is necessary to reduce the current in the nulling coils. At this point, several scenarios can be followed: reducing the current to zero in both nulling coils leads to the standard toroidal z-pinch with plasma current I_0 force-balanced by the full vertical field. Reducing the nulling-coil current to half its original value allows force balance with the toroidal current at about 60% of I_0 and leaves the cross-section still with two divertor lobes (Fig. 3). Or, in a reactor, occasional pulsing of the nulling coils could be used to reduce I^2R loss while still removing the helium

ash as needed (Fig. 4).

The early work on low- $|q|$ and reversed-field pinches, particularly that on the British Zeta device, showed a promise that has been neither adequately explored nor exploited in the laboratory. On the other hand, the theoretical calculations which argue stability for the spheromak may be applied to reach the same optimistic conclusions for the low- $|q|$ pinch. Holomak mode-operation of S-1 shares with Zeta the concept of the low- $|q|$ toroidal pinch, and addresses approximately the same parameter regimes of gas density, magnetic field strength, and time scale. But the differences between the devices are significant and include (a) an externally produced vertical field "frozen" into the shell, (b) a programmed toroidal field which, after start-up, may be driven to low positive or negative values, (c) a hexapole or quadrupole null for start-up, with a large scrape-off region which protects the interior plasma from wall impurities released at this early stage of the discharge, (d) divertor or pulsed divertor operation, (e) an adjustable shear profile, via programming of the OH, divertor and toroidal fields, and (f) axial disassembly.

In common with other compact-torus reactor concepts, there are major questions which are still unresolved — stability, maintenance of the q -profile, and overall reactor economics. Nevertheless, a low- $|q|$ pinch with adequate confinement would form the scientific basis for a holomak CTR reactor engineered with existing technology. It will, therefore, be the experimental objective of holomak-mode research on S-1 to apply the laboratory knowledge and experience of successful tokamak research to seek experimental confirmation of the stability indicated by recent theory, and to chart the path toward a CTR reactor which could be built with engineering based on present technology.

This work has been supported in part by the U. S. Department of Energy Contract No. EY-76-C-02-3073.

Figure 1. Vacuum field for S-1 in holomak-mode operation. Hexapole null, for start-up, is placed at $R=0.575$, $Z=0$. Equilibrium coils: $I_E=393,000$ amperes Φ $R=1.5$, $Z=0.825$; Nulling coils: $I_N=85,370$ amperes Φ $R=0.7$, $Z=0.125$. (PPPL-79245)

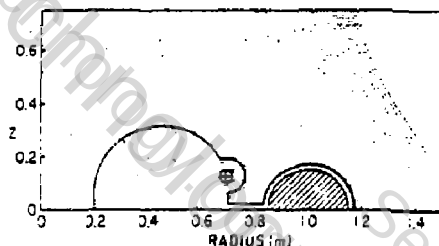
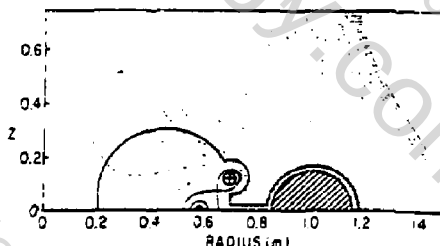


Figure 2. Start-up of S-1 in holomak mode. Flux plot with plasma current modeled by $I=50,000$ amperes at $R=0.575$, $Z=0$. Coil currents as in Fig. 1. (PPPL-792454)



HOLOMAK-MODE OPERATION FOR S-1

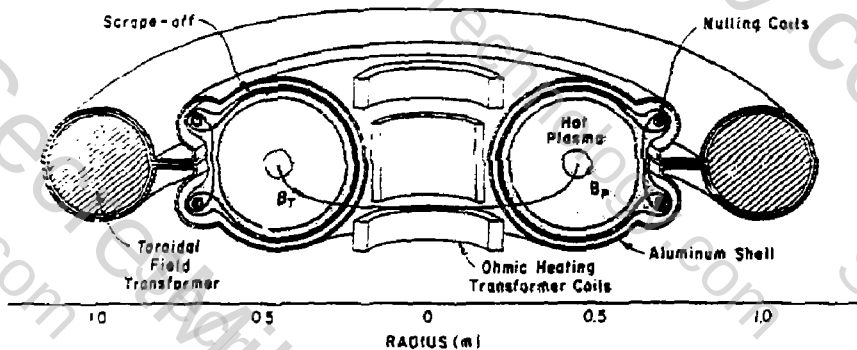


Figure 3. Sketch of S-1 interior configured for holomak operation, showing addition of aluminum shell and of OH transformer. S-1 vacuum chamber and vertical field coils not shown (see Fig. 7, W. Yamada et al., these proceedings). PPPL-793947

HOLOMAK REACTOR-SCHEMATIC REPRESENTATION

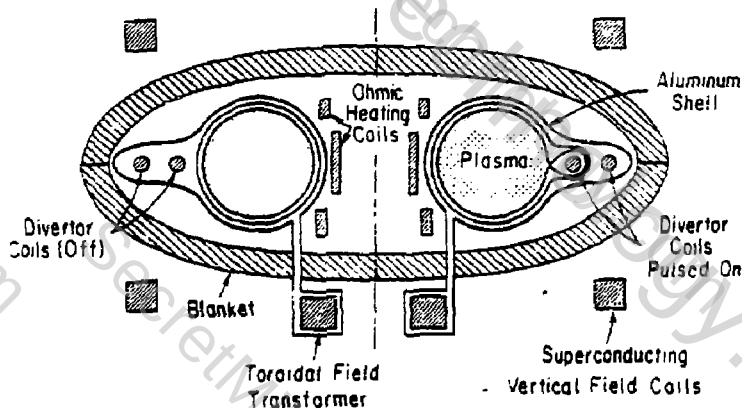


Figure 4. Schematic representation of a holomak reactor. 5-toroidal blanket encloses aluminum stabilizing shell which also serves as a one-turn toroidal-field coil. Divertor shown pulsed on (right-side) and off (left-side). Design is compatible with axial disassembly. (PPPL-796525)

THE LINUS REACTOR: COMPRESSION OF A COMPACT TORUS BY A LIQUID METAL LINER

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The Linus reactor concept^{1,2,3}, is based upon a nondestructive, reversible, compression-expansion cycle in which a rotating liquid lithium liner is imploded mechanically, using high pressure helium as the energy source, and acts as a cylindrical piston to compress a magnetically-confined plasma adiabatically from a few hundred eV to about 15keV. The magnetic field at peak compression is ~0.4-0.5MG, corresponding to a peak density of $\sim 10^{27}$ ions. cm⁻³. In the subsequent expansion the plasma energy and the fusion energy carried by trapped α -particles is directly recovered; the α -particle energy compensates for the electrical and mechanical losses in the system, making the mechanical cycle self-sustaining (Fig. 1). The Linus reactor can thus be regarded as a fusion engine, except that there is no shaft output: all the nuclear energy appears in the liner as heat. At peak compression the liner is thick enough (~1m) to absorb the fusion neutrons, and so serves as both tritium-breeding blanket and the heat-transfer medium, as well as providing a continuously-regenerated 'first wall' whose mean power loading can be 3-5 times greater than in a reactor with a permanent wall. The combination in one element, the liner, of functions which in other fusion concepts require separate systems, leads to a rather simple reactor design.

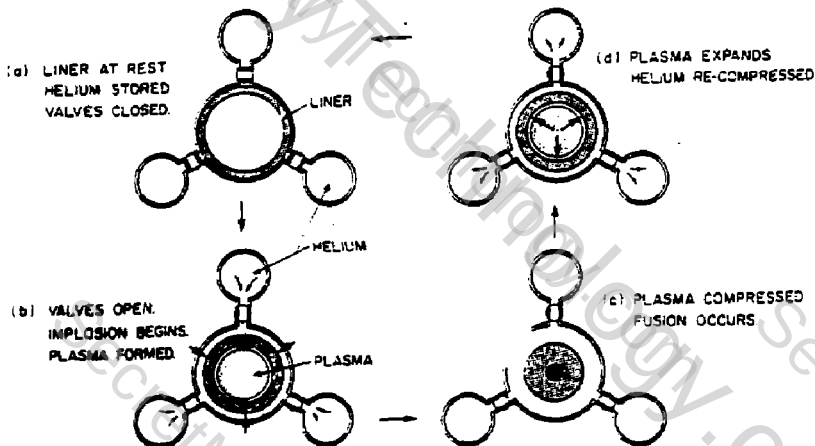


Fig. 1 Linus Reactor Cycle

Hydrodynamically stable compression-expansion cycles are obtained by rotating the liner (which stabilizes the inner surface against Rayleigh-Taylor instability at turnaround) and eliminating the outer free surface by means of a constraining mechanism (the captive liner). A number of arrangements have been devised for this purpose, one of which is shown in Fig. 2. Here a quasi-cylindrical collapsing shell is formed by a number of long interleaved members which can slide into one another, while the axis of the shell is maintained fixed by means of a system of connecting rods. Driven by helium at ~2000 psi such a mechanism could implode a rotating liquid lithium liner with a mean inner surface velocity of $\sim 10^4$ cm. sec⁻¹. This relatively slow velocity requires that the plasma be well confined, and an elongated compact torus configuration is required, as shown in Fig. 3. The configuration may or may not have a toroidal field for stability. The solid end walls contain the liquid lithium, and also serve to take the end pressure of the plasma, which allows an initial plasma with average $\beta > 0.5$. When compressed radially, β falls until it reaches a value of 0.5, after which the plasma contracts axially while maintaining β constant.

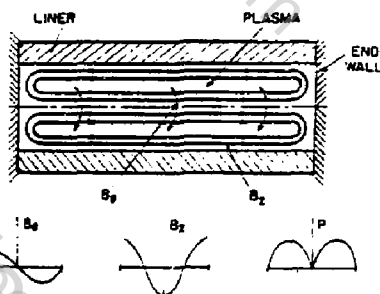


Fig. 2 (left) Captive liner mechanism

Fig. 3 (above) Compact toroidal plasma inside liner

The principal loss mechanism during a cycle arises from the resistive penetration of the confining magnetic field into the inner surface of the liner. As the system initial radius R is increased, the α -particle energy increases faster than the resistive loss, so a self-sustaining cycle is always possible if the system is made large enough. Scaling laws derived elsewhere show that the minimum radius is related to the principal variables as follows:

$$R \propto \langle \beta \rangle^{-1/2} (\rho^{1/2} \eta^{1/2} P^{1/2} (L_m)^{-1/2})$$

where p is the driving pressure, ϵ the hydraulic efficiency of the system, η the resistivity and ρ the density of the liner, and α the radial compression ratio. Although here it seems that R is quite insensitive to α , if $\alpha > 10$ the increase in η due to heating of the liner, and the decrease in ϵ due to wave motion and compressibility in the liner, result in a rapid increase in R . Using reasonable values of the main parameters, the self-sustaining cycle requires $R > 2m$.

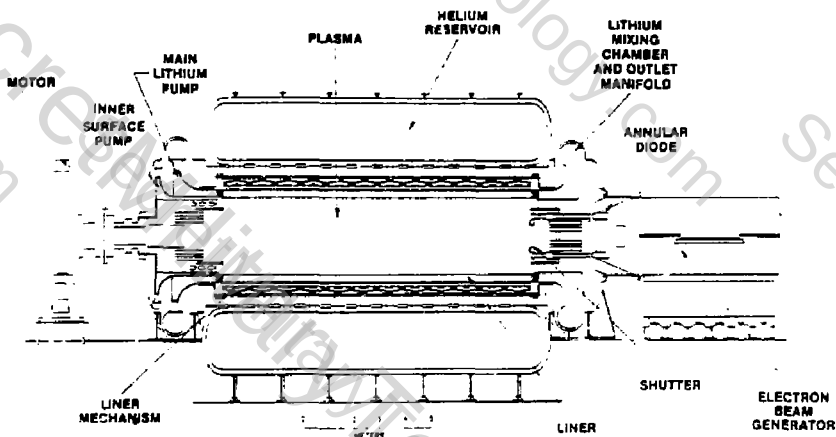


Fig. 4 Linus Reactor

A conceptual reactor on these principles is shown in Fig. 4. The initial plasma is created inside the liner by means of a rotating relativistic electron beam, as described elsewhere⁵. The initial D-T fuel charge is injected in supersonic jets from injectors in the end plugs directed so as to avoid the liquid surface of the liner. The electron beam is injected through an annular slit in one end, which is closed by a shutter as the liquid liner implodes. The lithium is circulated through the reactor in the axial direction by means of two concentric pumps: the inner surface pump replaces the hot inner surface between cycles, and by introducing a cool lithium stream, condenses the lithium vapor and the previous fuel charge. This pumping requirement limits the repetition rate to $\sim 2\text{Hz}$. The main body of the lithium is circulated more slowly, and is completely replaced after about ten reactor cycles.

The principal physical and technical characteristics of this system are given in Table 1. A more complete description of the reactor can be found in Ref. 5.

Table 1. Linus Point Design

Liner length: 10 m
Initial inner radius: 2 m
Driving pressure: 2000 psi
Implosion time: 24 msec

Lithium: 2.6 tonnes. m^{-1}
Steel shell: 25 tonnes. m^{-1}
Fluid rotation: 2.5 rpm
Reaction Time: 0.85 msec

	<u>Initial</u>	<u>Compressed</u>
Plasma radius	200 cm	22 cm
Central density	$9.3 \times 10^{14} \text{ cm}^{-3}$	$1.1 \times 10^{17} \text{ cm}^{-3}$
Temperature	635 eV	15 keV
Magnetic field	6.9 kG	300 kG
$\langle \beta^2 \rangle$	0.6	0.375
Energy (plasma + field)	30 MJ	1016 MJ
E-beam energy/cycle	60 MJ	Gross electric power 844 MW
Initial plasma energy	30 MJ	E-beam power 141 MW
Compressed plasma energy	1016 MJ	Motor power 13 MW
Nuclear energy (22.4 MeV/DT)	1206 MJ	Power to b.o.p. 50 MW
Repetition rate	2 Hz	Net electric power 640 MW
Gross thermal power	2532 MW	Mass of reactor 3500 tonnes

Note that the reactor operates with $Q \sim 1$: this is made possible by the efficient energy recovery in the mechanical cycle. Since the fractional burnup is small, helium accumulation in the plasma is no problem. Because of the size, and the short timescale, plasma loss during a cycle should be negligible, even allowing for anomalous transport. Also, because of the short timescale and the high field, contamination by lithium vapor should be confined to the edge of the plasma.

Probably the most significant feature of this concept is that, apart from the electron beam generator and the pump driving motor, there are no electrical components in the reactor. The electron beam sets up both the plasma and the confining magnetic field and the latter is maintained by skin currents in the liner, making any permanent field coils unnecessary. The main shortcoming of the concept is that the size of the reactor, determined by the conditions for a self-sustaining cycle, is rather large. The size is particularly sensitive to β , and to obtain the figure given above, a rather high β has been assumed. Note that the electron beam generator shown in Fig. 4 is based upon a conceptual inductive storage system: a conventional capacitor-powered generator would be substantially larger.

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PRELIMINARY STUDIES OF SPHEROMAK REACTORS

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1. Introduction. In the spheromak reactor, a toroidal fusion plasma is confined by its own internal (self-generated) magnetic field and the vertical-field B_z which is produced by coils not linking the plasma. Among various kinds of spheromak configurations, an oblate-shaped plasma configuration with a center hole called "Obliimak", has been shown to provide better MHD stability and higher attainable beta value than the classical spherical spheromak [1] [2]. In this paper, we derived approximate functional relations between various spheromak plasma parameters, based on a simplified energy principle of circuit theory and using these relationships, have carried out preliminary studies of conceptual spheromak reactor with a stationary plasma as well as with a moving plasma produced by the cormak type formation scheme employed in the S-1 experiment at PPPL [3].

2. Approximate Analytical Treatment of the Spheromak Configuration. In the framework of electric circuit theories, the spheromak confinement system is regarded as a kind of inductance circuit, where the spheromak plasma corresponds to a single current loop immersed in the magnetic field produced by the external coils, as shown in Fig. 1. The energy function of this system is given by

$$W = \frac{1}{2} L_0 I_0^2 - M I_0 I_c + \frac{1}{2} L_c I_c^2 + \frac{1}{2} L_p I_p^2 + V_p p \quad (1)$$

where L and M are the self and mutual inductances; and V_p and p are the volume and the pressure of the plasma, respectively.

The spheromak configurations are characterized by the following two conditions (R : the major radius, a : minor radius):

$$\left(\frac{\partial W}{\partial R} \right)_{I_0, I_c, I_p, p} = 0, \quad \left(\frac{\partial W}{\partial a} \right)_{I_0, I_c, I_p, p} = 0 \quad (2)$$

In the low- β limit, where effects of plasma pressure is neglected, the following relationships are derived [4]:

$$B_z = \frac{10}{4\pi} \frac{I_c}{R} \left\{ 2n \frac{R}{a} - 1 \right\}, \quad I_p = 1.9 \frac{R}{a} I_c \quad (3)$$

3. Adiabatic Compression. For the formation and heating-up of the reactor grade spheromak plasmas, the adiabatic compression scheme is one of key factors. During the compression, the toroidal and poloidal fluxes have to be conserved resulting in the conservation of both the average safety factor and the aspect ratio of the plasma. Considering further the equation of adiabaticity $T_p V_p^{2/3} = \text{const}$, where T_p is the plasma temperature, the following scalings for various quantities are obtained:

$$T_p \propto R^{-2}, \quad B_{z0} \propto B_z \propto R^{-2}, \quad I_p \propto I_c \propto R^{-1}, \quad P_M (\propto W_M / \tau_M) \propto R^{-3}$$

P_M is the input power required for the magnetic flux supply, W_M is the magnetic energy inside the plasma and τ_M is the magnetic diffusion time.

4. Reactor Studies. Based upon the above approximate analytical solutions, studies are made on the spheromak reactors. When the aspect ratio is assumed to be in the range of about 1.7 to 4, the relation $B_{T0} \sim 2.1 B_z$ is obtained where B_{T0} is the toroidal magnetic field at the center and B_z is the magnetic field at the outer-edge of the plasma as shown in Fig. 2. The location of the semi-spherical first wall is specified by a_w and $a_w = 1.5 a$ is assumed. Three types of reactors are investigated: 1) DT reactor with TCT (two-component type) operation with a fusion gain Q_F of 1.7; 2) ignited DT reactor and, 3) ignited catalyzed-type DD (Cat-D) reactor. Spatially uniform temperature and density are assumed.

Table 1 lists the main parameters for different conceptual designs of a spheromak reactor with a stationary plasma. A total wall loading of 4 MW/m^2 and the center beta value $\langle \beta_0 \rangle = 0.045$ are assumed. The outer-edge magnetic field is about 4T for DT ignited reactors, which is about half the value for tokamaks. If this field is given rise to $\sim 8T$, the required energy confinement time is reduced by a factor of ~ 4 , however, the wall loading is increased by a intolerable factor of ~ 16 . In these stationary spheromaks, the wall loading is found to be a major constraint against increasing the fusion power density and decreasing the required energy confinement time.

5. Structural problems of the spheromak reactor. Various methods have been proposed to produce the spheromak plasma in the reaction chamber. However, they usually require installations of various plasma formation components such as coils, conductors, and sometimes electrodes in the space between the plasma and the blanket, which are used only to produce the spheromak plasma at the start-up phase. The installations of such formation components give rise to numerous difficult technological problems associated with their radiation shielding and cooling, and also result in the deterioration of the neutron economy in the blanket system caused by the neutron absorption by them. Therefore, it is highly recommended that those components are isolated from the reactor chamber so that the direct bombardments of radiation and neutrons to them are avoided. This requirement can be fulfilled by applying the configuration where the production chamber is separated spatially, and the spheromak initially produced by a non-reacting plasma in the former is injected or moved into the latter followed by the fuel supply and further heating. Examples of schematic structure are presented in Fig. 2, where spheromak plasma is injected or carried into the reaction chamber by specially arranged pinch gun (a), or the cormak type exciters (b) [3]. In addition, if the concept of the merging of spheromaks are proved practical, its application is very attractive because it enables relatively small exciter with small aperture to be used to feed a larger spheromak in the reaction chamber. Successive injection of plural of spheromaks will be able to produce one large spheromak in the chamber by this method as illustrated in Fig. 3.

6. Moving Spheromak Reactor. The spheromak plasma, fed specially in the cylindrical reaction chamber, can be moved along the center axis during the fusion reaction process, which enables us to reduce effective wall loading. An example of the configuration is shown in Fig. 3 where the plasma moves inwards according to the numbers (1) to (4), in a continuously repeating cycle. An example of the operation, whose plasma parameters for (1) to (4) are listed in Table 2, is explained in [4].

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FIGURE CAPTIONS

Fig. 1. Circuit model for the spheromak configuration

Fig. 2. Examples of conceptual methods to feed spheromak plasma in the reactor chamber. Initial spheromak is produced by the pinch gun (a) and, the cormak type exciters (b).

Fig. 3. Conceptual design of the spheromak reactor with moving plasma and the cormak type excitor.

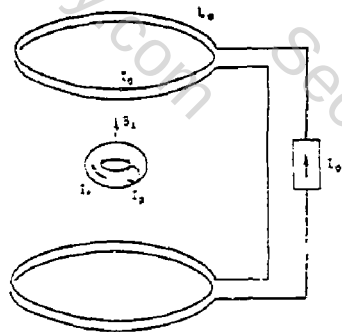


Fig. 1

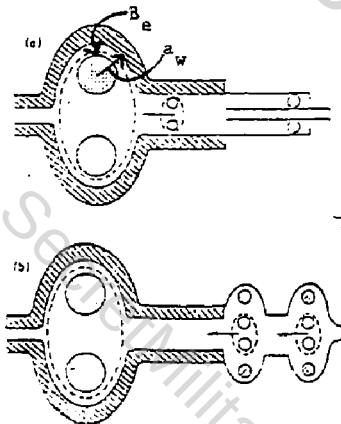


Fig. 2

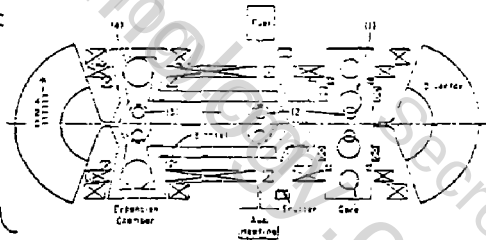


Fig. 3

Type of Fusion	DT			D-D	
Type of Operation	TCR C=1.7	ICM		ICM	
a Minor radius (m)	0.5	1	1.5	1.5	2
R Major radius (m)	1	1	3	3	4
P Total output power (GW)	0.12	0.47	1.1	1.1	1.9
P ₀ Total wall loading (MW/m ²)	4	4	4	4	4
B ₁ Vertical magnetic field (T)	1.5	1.9	1.7	4.6	4.4
B ₂₀ Toroidal magnetic field at center (T)	5.8	8.2	7.4	20	19
<β> Center beta	0.043	0.043	0.043	0.043	0.043
T Plasma temp. (keV)	7	13	13	35	35
n Electron density (cm ⁻³)	1.9	2.6	2.1	6.5	5.6
τ _E Required energy confinement time (sec)	0.053	1.2	1.4	5.4	8.7
(n ₀ τ _E) ₀ (cm ⁻³ sec 10 ¹⁴)	0.1	3	3	35	35
t Magnetic diffusion time (sec)	46	580	1,300	4,700	8,300
W Internal magnetic energy (MJ)	50	580	1.6 × 10 ³	1.2 × 10 ⁴	3.3 × 10 ⁴
I _c Toroidal current (MA)	8.9	22	29	79	98
I _p Poloidal current (MA)	34	82	110	300	370

TABLE 1

Phase No. (Plasma)	(1) (Plasma)	(2) (H ₀ core)	(3) (H ₀ core)	(4) (D-T)	(5)
Minor radius a (m)	(1.5)	2.0	3.0	3.0	4.0
Major radius R (m)	(15)	4.0	2.0	2.0	8.0
Vertical field B ₁ (T)		0.75	3.0	1.3	3.381
Center toroidal field B ₂₀ (T)	(3.5)	3.2	13.0	5.5	0.34
Total poloidal flux Φ _p (Wb)	(240)	72	72	32	32
Toroidal flux Φ _t (Wb)	(10)	11	11	4.8	4.8
Poloidal current I _p (MA)	(110)	65	100	55	24
Toroidal current I _c (MA)	(10)	17	34	14	3.5
Internal magnetic energy W _{int} (MJ)		50	1,500	260	55
Total wall loss (MW/m ²)			25	0.78	
Discharge power P ₀ (MW)			3,000	91	
Average value			$\frac{P_0}{W_{int}} = 1 \text{ MW/MJ}$ $\frac{P_0}{P_0} = 100 \text{ W}$		

TABLE 2

THE ALL PLASMA SPHEROMAK: THE PLASMAK

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There has been an evolutionary pattern established in magnetic fusion concepts. The flow in ideas follows three directions. By extrapolating this evolutionary movement, we have anticipated the concept called Spheromak and have predicted the omega of this evolution which is called PLASMAK, or all Plasma Spheromak. The evolutionary directions are from open systems to closed systems, from zero or low dimensional compression schemes to three dimensional compression, and finally from plasma configurations without any self confining currents to a plasma configuration which is completely self confined except for the mechanical pressure necessary to maintain the vertical field and hoop stress. The Stellarator represents a closed configuration requiring a very complex array of external confinement coils. The Tokamak allows vast improvement in plasma parameters, lower aspect ratio, and ohmic heating from plasma confining toroidal currents. ATC compression ratios of ~ 1 may be possible. Nevertheless, the plasma is imprisoned by heavy poloidal coils and a vacuum wall.

The Spheromak enjoys greater stability and obtains higher effective betas, simply expressed as higher fuel amount per unit external confining pressure. This comes about due to the poloidal plasma currents which, in addition to the vertical field, exert a second confining force on the plasma torus. Spheromaks have higher interior magnetic energy than at the separatrix or vertical field current shell. The term used to describe this advantage is Pressure Leverage. Unfortunately, in Tokamaks this second confining force is wasted on the poloidal windings and is a source for engineering problems. See Fig. 1.

Higher ATC compression ratios for Spheromaks are allowed because of the lack of axial obstructions. Energy scales as the square of the linear compression ratio c , (c^2), as it does in Tokamaks; this limits the utility of large compressions. Another consideration limiting very large compressions is the necessity of a tightly fitting shell to maintain stability.

This brings us to the Plasmak, or all Plasma Spheromak. The Plasmak represents the final step in reducing the dependence on external confining coils and for improving compressibility. In the Plasmak, the confining currents are all embedded in plasma with the fully ionizing energetic currents in the outermost mantle producing the vertical field. The equilibrium force arises from the ordinary gas pressure. See Fig. 2.

The Plasmak is fully compressible. As in Spheromak, there are no axial obstructions. The currents are energetic, allowing for high conductivity contributing to ideal MHD stability. Utilizing high voltage or EMF starting formation schemes results in very compact Plasmaks with intensive currents. In the Plasma Kernel (see Fig. 2 for nomenclature) the current densities result in considerable ohmic heating while the L/R times of the uncompressed (higher inductance) Plasmaks is > 1 second. The tightly fitting mantle is another prerequisite for ideal stability.

Compression is achieved by simply increasing the fluid pressure of the

surrounding gas blanket. The first advantage is that the upper bound on mechanical compression methods is higher than magnetic techniques. The second advantage is that the mantle is compressed along with the internal kernel, thereby maintaining a tightly fitting shell and ideal MHD stability throughout compression. The third advantage relates the significantly lower amounts of energy needed to compress a Plasmak as opposed to Tokamaks, or rigid shell Spheromaks where the magnetic energy varies as the compression ratio squared (c^2). In Plasmak, the energy is proportional to the compression ratio (c). The magnetized volume varying as the compression ratio inverse cube (c^{-3}) is responsible for this advantage.

In general, formation techniques can include a technique in which the Plasmak is produced through MHD effects initiated by a helical current stroke in a high density gas. Such a formation technique has been proposed to the US DOE and is currently under review. This particular approach sets up the Plasma Kernel and Mantle simultaneously with high density energetic currents and assumes an ideal MHD configuration from the outset. This technique relates to physical parameter regimes and phenomena not familiar to most fusion physicists, and will not be discussed here.

Another class of formation techniques utilizes a step by step formation and assembly of the Plasmak. A three step scenario includes ring formation followed by capture and injection of energetic currents. The third final step would be formation of the mantle over its external vacuum magnetic field. One common technique for ring formation being currently pursued is the plasma gun. Even the S-1 Spheromak can be considered a plasma gun. This gun differs from those described by LLL and LASL in that it utilizes an inductive startup and it has a disc shape rather than conical or cylindrical shape. Fig. 3 demonstrates this scenario. Incidentally, the formation technique of G. Goldenbaum of the University of Maryland is also amenable to gun conversion since the magnetized plasma kernel can be ejected through a hollow electrode at one end.

Compression, ignition, and energy exchange can take place in a separate and remote compartment. This is true to a limited extent for Spheromaks. Convenience of moving Plasmaks by EM or fluid flow is assured since lifetimes for uncompressed Plasmaks are on the order of seconds. An exciting engineering feature of this fusion furnace in electric power generating application is that the entire fusion and magnetic energy less neutrons can be dissipated in the gas blanket without affecting the walls. This blanket heated to tens of eV can be fed into inductive MHD generators achieving electrical conversion efficiencies of about 85%. Such efficiencies obtain Q values on the order of one hundred. Reduced wall loading is also achieved by moving radiating Plasmaks and Spheromaks. But less direct energy conversion schemes will not be as efficient.

High effective Betas, Pressure Leverage, favorable energy compression scaling ratios, and a technique called SCH or Self Compression Heating along with high Q all combine in the Plasmak to make this approach by far the most viable vehicle to burn exotic fuels. See Fig. 4 and Table 1.

Self Compression Heating (SCH) is the beneficial effect that occurs when a Plasmak has been gas compressed to ignition in a tightly fitting pressure chamber. Fusion energy driven Bremsstrahlung and alphas radiated by the kernel plasma thermalize the surrounding high density cold compression blanket. The subsequent pressure increase of the fusion thermalized blanket further drives

In addition to the proposed work by Spheromak Inc., a subsidiary of Progress II, Ltd., the Westinghouse Fusion Power Systems Division is planning Plasmak fusion power generating studies in early 1980. The enthusiasm for this concept is largely due to its engineering simplicity and design points. By proceeding directly with the proposed Plasmak scheme of Spheromak, Inc., the development of a compact fusion device could be completed within five years. Spheromak Inc. is fully ready to cooperate with various interests to develop Plasmak fusion furnaces and power generators. The implementation of Plasmak development requires exceptional administrative and executive action.

Figure 1 consists of two diagrams illustrating the structure of a spheromak. The left diagram is a cross-section showing a central 'KERNEL VACUUM FIELD' surrounded by 'KERNEL PLASMA' and an outer 'HANTLE PLASMA' layer. The right diagram is a longitudinal section showing a 'RIGID SHELL' and a 'VERTICAL FIELD COIL'.

FIGURE 2
PLASMAK

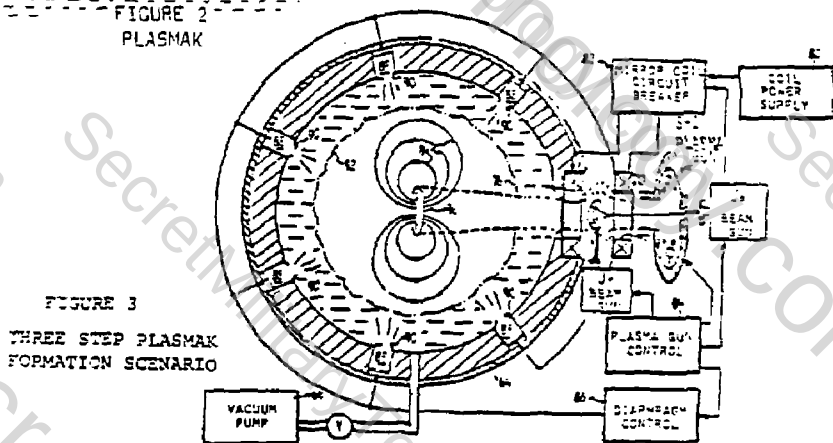
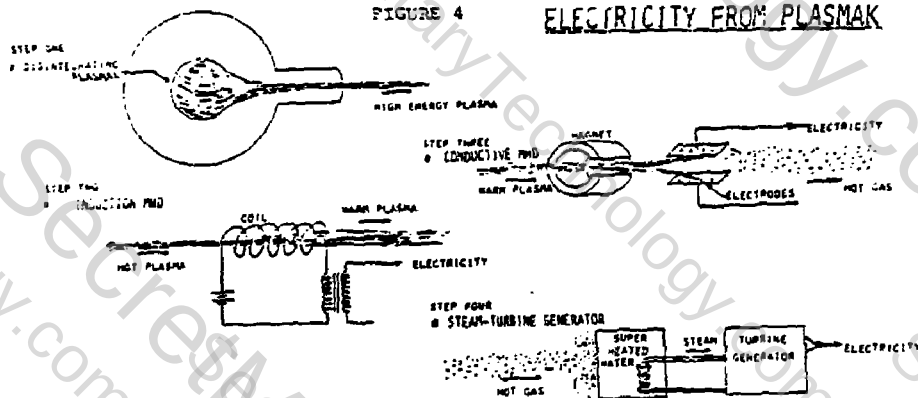


FIGURE 4

ELECTRICITY FROM PLASMAK



EXPECTED PLASMA PARAMETERS COMPRESSION EXPERIMENTS

TABLE 2

	BEF Experiment, D-T		Furnace, D-T		2-211 Furnace	
	Before	After	Before	After	Before	After
	Compression		Compression		Compression	
	c = 6.09		c = 51		c = 12.6	
Major radius R (cm)	17.7	2.65	38.2	7.63	38.2	3.03
Minor radius a (cm)	8.86	1.32	19.1	3.82	19.1	1.52
Major volume V (cc)	27.4 K	91.7	274 K	2.2 K	274 K	139
Major volume V ₀ (cc)	1	2.4	2	1.25 K	2	50 K
Major volume V ₁ (cc)	5	226	7.1	178	7.1	1.13 K
Major volume V ₂ (cc)	20.3	856	28.7	686	27.9	2.15 K
Major volume V ₃ (cc)	.57*	3.93**	1.74*	8.71***	1.74*	22.9
Major volume V ₄ (cc)	.611	.091	1.32	.263	1.32	.105
Major volume V ₅ (cc)	.019	.128	.021	.104	.076	.781
Major volume V ₆ (cc)	.2	8.94	.27	6.75	1.07	150
Major volume V ₇ (cc)	.2	8.94	.27	6.75	1.07	150
Major volume V ₈ (cc)	1 E15	2.99 E17	1.6 E15	2 E17	1.26 E15	2.51 E18
Magnetic Energy E _M (*10 ⁶ J)	.1	.67	2	10	2	25
Radiation loss time t _R	.804	.018	.584	.023	.2.14	.013
Major volume V ₉ (cc)	.048	.643	.103	.324	.183	97.8
Major volume V ₁₀ (cc)	.060	35.7 K	.177	15.9 K	.179	7700 K
Major volume V ₁₁ (cc)	6.1	106	2.5	30.6	1.3	158
Major volume V ₁₂ (cc)	2.07	.8	4	1.92	.66	0.55
Major volume V ₁₃ (cc)	1.76	9.07 K	1.83	2.37 K	1.1	331 K
Major volume V ₁₄ (cc)	.121	7.04	.216	20.8	29.2	2.37
Major volume V ₁₅ (cc)	.028	.0026	.061	.029	.035	.0013
Major volume V ₁₆ (cc)	2.35 E-28	263	3.7 E-28	18.5	37.3 E-28	78.4 K
Major volume V ₁₇ (cc)	19.3	120	309	203	60.1	10.8 K
Major volume V ₁₈ (cc)	.160	1.52	1.52	.006	.006	.006
Major volume V ₁₉ (cc)	2.41 E17	3.95 E17	3.95 E17	1.38 E18	1.38 E18	1.38 E18
Major volume V ₂₀ (cc)	28.9	30.9	30.9	2.4	2.4	2.4

* 2 Mev runaway electron currents

** 15 Mev

*** 10 Mev

- excludes energy flux returned through self compression heating

excludes neutron energy flux

2 25 Mev

NEUTRAL BEAM SUSTAINED, FIELD-REVERSED MIRROR REACTORS*

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We have carried out conceptual design studies for neutral beam sustained, field-reversed mirror reactors. The field-reversed mirror has a compact toroidal plasma geometry bounded by closed poloidal magnetic field lines generated by an azimuthal diamagnetic plasma current in a nearly uniform background magnetic field. The closed poloidal field structure has major radius R and minor radius a . The principal hypotheses of the FRM plasma are as follows:

- Equilibrium with weak or zero toroidal field, and therefore $\beta \approx 1$.
- Magnetohydrodynamic (MHD) stability achieved by finite ion Larmor radius, $S \equiv a/\rho_i \approx 5$, combined with low aspect ratio, $R/a \approx 2$.
- Plasma positioning by weak mirrors.
- Plasma confinement controlled by cross-field transport.
- Steady state plasma density, energy, and current maintained by neutral beam injection.

These hypotheses will be tested in the ongoing Beta II experiment at LLL. The objectives of Beta II are startup of a field-reversed plasma, confinement in a magnetic well, and steady state sustenance by neutral beam injection. For our reactor studies, we have assumed the validity of the FRM plasma hypotheses, and have calculated the characteristics of the plasma using an analytical model described in Ref. 1.

Our reactor designs have included a multicell commercial reactor and a single cell pilot reactor. The multicell reactor¹ has a linear arrangement of 11 cells, each containing a neutral beam sustained, field-reversed plasma. Advantages of the linear multicell approach include: more uniform wall loading and better utilization of background magnetic field.

The pilot reactor design² was sponsored by the Electric Power Research Institute and was carried out jointly by LLL, General Atomic Company, and Pacific Gas and Electric Company. Net power production was specified to be the primary objective of the pilot reactor. Another objective was the use of near-term technology in order to permit construction of the pilot plant in the late 1980's, if the present experimental program on field-reversed mirrors is successful. Following the operation of the pilot plant, we would envisage the rapid development of multicell commercial reactors, each cell of which would contain a field-reversed plasma identical to that in the pilot plant.

*This work was performed for the Electric Power Research Institute under Contract No. RP922 and under the auspices of the U.S. Department of Energy Contract No. W-7405-ENG-48 with Lawrence Livermore Laboratory.

The FRM pilot plant is shown in Fig. 1. The field-reversed DT plasma is at the center of the reactor. A cylindrical blanket and shield surround the plasma. The blanket is helium-cooled and contains lithium oxide for the breeding of tritium fuel. Surrounding the blanket and shield is a set of niobium-titanium superconducting magnets which provide the required background magnetic field. Neutral beam injectors fuel and energetically sustain the plasma. The large tanks at the ends of the reactor house direct energy converters and vacuum pumping systems for the plasma and leakage. Also housed in one of the tanks is a coaxial plasma gun for plasma startup.

The performance of the field-reversed plasma depends most strongly on the parameter S , the ratio of plasma minor radius a to the ion gyroradius r_i . Stability of the plasma is believed to require that S be a small number, probably 10 or less. We have considered both $S = 5$ and $S = 7$, and have sized the reactor to accommodate either plasma. The $S = 5$ plasma produces 22 MW of fusion power and requires 4.4 MW of neutral beam injection power; so $Q = 5$. The $S = 7$ plasma produces 42 MW of fusion plasma and requires 3.2 MW of neutral beam injection power; so $Q = 13$.

Several ways of forming field-reversed plasma rings are being considered for FRM startup. The startup scenario chosen for this design is the use of a magnetized, coaxial plasma gun, similar to the one now being tested on the Beta II experiment at LLL. A ring-shaped plasma is formed and axially accelerated by discharge current flowing radially across the anode-cathode gap. Beyond the end of the gun the plasma passes through a cusp-shaped magnetic field and emerges - with "captured flux" - as an annular plasma confined by an axially field-reversed, closed magnetic field. We designed the pilot reactor gun based on the Beta II gun and preliminary scaling laws. A unique feature of the pilot reactor gun is the use of a hollow cathode of sufficient radius to permit uninhibited passage of the escaping plasma stream to the direct converters.

The neutral beam injector for the FRM pilot reactor must continuously deliver 11 A of 200 keV deuterium and 11 A of 200 keV tritium. (These are the requirements for the $S = 5$ plasma; the requirements for $S = 7$ are somewhat less.) In this study we designed an injector based on negative ions that are directly extracted from a source, similar in principle to that under development at the Brookhaven National Laboratory. The ion source is held at a -200 kV potential. The negative ions, extracted from the source, travel to the accel grids via a sector magnet. The sector magnet separates the negative ions from electrons and deflects the ion beam out of the plume of neutral gas streaming out of the ion source. Subsequently the beam is accelerated and made to pass through a cesium vapor stripping cell, where about 60% of the negative ions are stripped of their extra electrons to become neutrals. A percentage of the energy carried by the un-neutralized fraction of the beam which leaves the stripper is recovered via a thermal beam dump at ground potential. Based on an analysis of all the power needs of such an injector, we estimate its efficiency to be 50%, not including the thermal recovery of the beam dump ions.

The magnet system for the FRM pilot plant consists of a pair of superconducting solenoidal magnets and a set of four superconducting saddle coils. The overall diameter of the coil set is 7.5 m and the overall length is 3.5 m. The solenoidal magnets provide a nearly uniform background magnetic field parallel to the axis of the reactor. The background magnetic field strength is 4.8 T for the $S = 5$ plasma and 4.6 T for the $S = 7$ plasma. The solenoidal coils also provide a shallow axial magnetic well for plasma centering. The need for a radial magnetic well is not presently clear, but in this study we assumed that it is necessary for plasma stability. The radial well is produced by the saddle coils.

The FRM plasma particles, although confined in a toroidal, closed magnetic field region, diffuse to open field lines and escape from the ends of the reactor into the direct conversion/vacuum pumping tanks. Half of the particles exit at each end. At the end of each tank is a simple one-stage, immersed-grid direct converter. The plasma first passes through a tenuous grounded grid, then through a negative grid which reflects the primary electrons. The ions are then decelerated by a collector plate held at a positive potential. The direct recovery efficiency of this direct converter is estimated to be about 50%. The collector plate for the direct converter is convectively cooled to remove the heat deposited by the impacted ions. For the pilot plant design, we have assumed that the heat will be removed at a thermodynamically uninteresting temperature and therefore do not route it to the thermal conversion system.

In steady state, the ions collected in the direct converter will reflux as gas and must be vacuum-pumped to maintain an operating pressure of about 5×10^{-6} torr. The pumping is done by an array of chevron-baffled liquid helium-cooled cryopanel mounted on the side walls of the direct conversion/vacuum pumping tanks. The total area of cryopanel is double the active area so that half of the system can be defrosted and degassed while the other half is actively pumping. Reclaimed deuterium and tritium from the cryopanel are recycled to the neutral beam injectors.

Neutron moderation and tritium breeding takes place in the cylindrical shell blanket constructed of Inconel 718. The tritium breeding material is lithium oxide and the blanket coolant is helium. The local blanket energy multiplication is 1.21 and the average multiplication, accounting for beam port and end losses, is 1.14.

The blanket consists of a single large module which may be removed and replaced without cutting and welding. The module is clamped in a frame made by prestressing the biological shielding vault in which the reactor is placed. The clamping force is generated by an inflatable cushion interposed between the module and the frame. When the cushion is inflated it closes all-metal knife seals to seal the central vacuum region.

We calculated the overall performance of the FRM pilot reactor for two cases: the smaller, $S = 5$ plasma and the larger, $S = 7$ plasma. The pilot reactor with the smaller plasma is just barely a net power producer: 90% of the 11.6 MW gross electric power must be recirculated to operate the reactor, and the net electric power is only 1.2 MW. Although marginal, the pilot reactor with the smaller plasma does satisfy the net electric power criterion. The larger plasma results in much more attractive performance: 46% of the 19.8 MW gross electric power is recirculated to operate the reactor, and the net electric power is 10.7 MW. Further improvements in performance would be realized in a multicell commercial reactor.

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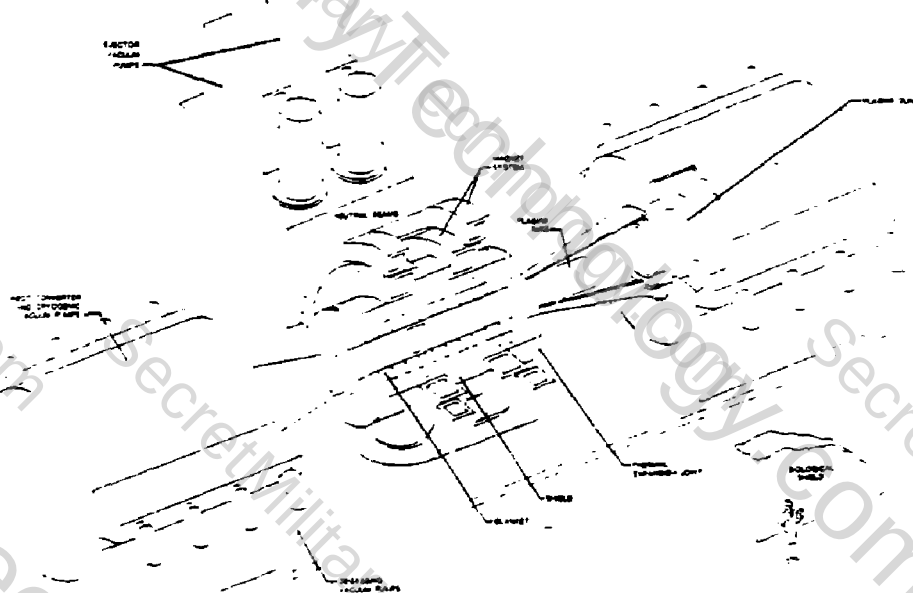


Fig. 1. Single Cell FRM Pilot Reactor

THE MOVING-RING FIELD-REVERSED MIRROR REACTOR CONCEPT*

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The Moving-Ring Field-Reversed Mirror Reactor (MRFRMR) concept envisions production of electric power by burning magnetically field-reversed rings of fusion fuel which are translated continuously down the bore of a straight, cylindrical reactor burner chamber. Our interest in this reactor scheme arises from its potential design simplicity and the hope that it might be piloted in small size (50-100 MW(e)). This reactor has been evaluated only on a preliminary basis thusfar and much of the following discussion is founded on the results of that first evaluation¹. We are currently performing a more detailed and thorough design study of this concept*.

The principle features of the reactor's burner section are shown schematically in Figure 1. The reactor is cylindrically-symmetric and consists of three in-line sections: a plasma ring generator, a central burner section, and a spent-ring exhaust section. The preliminary scoping study mentioned above concentrated chiefly on the burner section of the reactor.

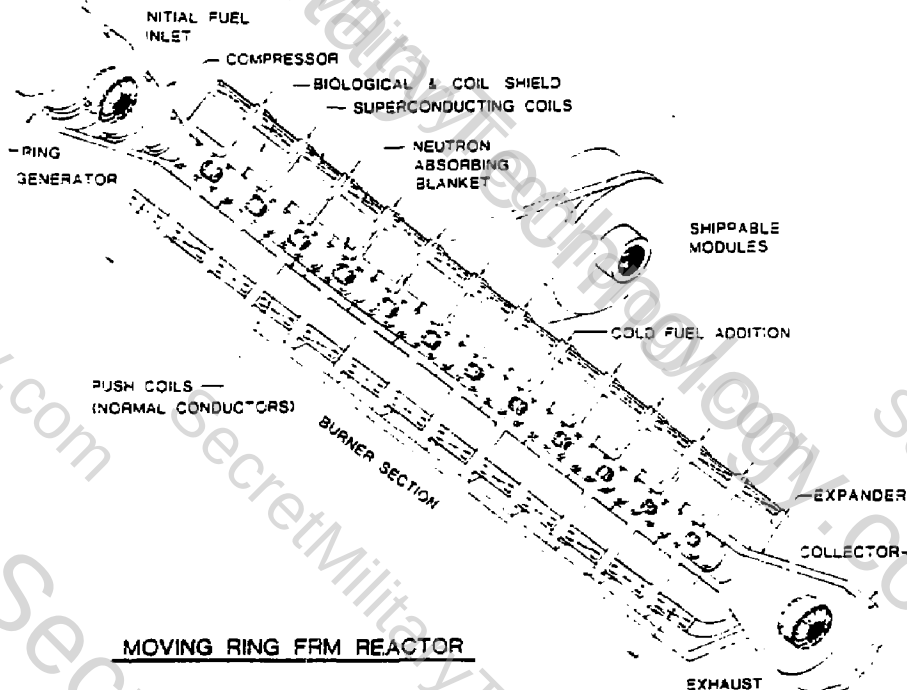


Figure 1

General Reactor Overview: A pulsed start-up mechanism (such as an intense charged particle beam source or a coaxial plasma gun) could generate a field-reversed plasma ring in the relatively low magnetic field just beyond the end of the burner chamber ("Ring Generator" section of Figure 1). A local "moving mirror" (provided by sequentially energizing "push coils" located near the wall of the reactor) then rapidly forces the plasma ring into the high solenoidal magnetic field of the burner section. Certain start-up approaches, such as the coaxial plasma gun currently being tested on the Beta II device at LLL, may provide the plasma ring with adequate axial kinetic energy to drive the ring into the high field region without the use of auxiliary coils. The ring may therefore be compressed and heated to initial burn temperatures in a manner that is potentially efficient. Also, the pulsed start-up mechanism and transient nature of the rings' lifetimes in the reactor may easily permit imbedding a toroidal magnetic field in the plasma, should plasma stability or other considerations require it.

Once the plasma ring has been brought to initial burn temperature, it is transported through the "burner section" of the reactor, possibly by the peristaltic action of an array of sequentially-energized local "moving mirror" coils positioned just inside the first wall. These pulsed coils would probably be constructed from aluminum or copper. The burner chamber consists of a linear string of identical cylindrical modules. Each module is itself a set of nested cylindrical components consisting of the first wall, the tritium breeding blanket, the biological and magnet coil shield, and the superconducting magnet coils providing the axial solenoidal guide field.

As discussed below, the ring may be refueled during its transit of the burner section with cold plasma (either as pellets or via low-energy plasma guns) such that the power produced by the plasma ring is held nearly constant. Without energetic beam injection, the confinement will be sustained by the internal plasma currents driven by the ring's magnetic self-inductance. For fusion rings of interest, classical magnetic diffusion times can be of the order of tens of seconds, considerably longer than the 0.2 - 1 s plasma burn times envisioned so far. Also, absence of energetic beams in the burner chamber means that only relatively small-bore penetrations in the first wall, blanket, and shield may be required for refueling, considerably simplifying the overall reactor design.

An attractive engineering design feature arising from the pulsed plasma operation in the MRFRMR is the possible elimination of multipole fields to provide radial stabilization of the rings in the mirror field. If successful, this approach would use an electrically conducting first wall to center the rings radially in the burner section through the action of the eddy currents induced in the wall as the rings move with adequate speed down the axis of the device. Elimination of multipole fields may also have advantages in terms of overall plasma confinement. Theoretical work is currently underway to explore this possible means of ring stabilization.

Depending on the fuel composition and purpose of the reactor, heat can be extracted from the tritium-breeding blanket and the radiation shield and used in a conventional steam cycle. When the plasma burn is nearly quenched (due to the cooling effect on the plasma by cold-ion refueling), the plasma rings may be exhausted out the expansion end of the device into magnetic and electrostatic energy recovery units. The linear arrangement of the reactor also offers a built-in divertor-like action, since particles which have diffused out of the burning plasma rings in the reactor will probably flow out both ends of the device into direct converters along the open, axial solenoidal field lines. Although the MRFRMR plasma burns are, individually

speaking, transient events, we believe that fluctuations in the reactor wall heat load can be minimized by appropriate choices of inter-ring spacing and ring axial speed.

Pulsed Plasma Burn Calculations: To date, most of the work on the MRFRMR has centered on studying the characteristics of pulsed burns of DT plasmas. The details of the current 0-0 Fokker-Planck plasma modelling analysis have been given elsewhere. Where possible, ongoing plasma equilibrium and stability studies will be incorporated to improve the burn model assumptions on plasma density profiles, diffusion processes, heat transfer, and permissible plasma size. Although the plasma burn model is still under development, some preliminary results illustrate what we might expect during the transient burn of a field-reversed plasma ring heated to initial temperatures $T_i(t=0) = 75\text{keV} = 2T_e(t=0)$. The confining guide field is 65 kG and S , the number of average ion gyroradii which fit across the ring's minor radius, is chosen $S(t=0) = 10$. (The implication that the plasma is stable in the range of $S = 10 - 12$ may well be an optimistic presumption). Two cases are considered: (A) a plasma which proceeds to burn in a constant magnetic field with no external fuel addition to influence the burn characteristics and (B) a plasma with identical initial conditions but where low energy ions (3 keV deuterons, 5 keV tritons) are added during the burn at a rate such that the total radiated power is held nearly constant. Burn characteristics for cases (A) and (B) are plotted in Figures 2 - 4.

Adding no cold fuel to the plasma causes the ring radiated power to drop from 49 MW to less than 10 MW in 0.5 s (Figure 2). Adding cold plasma fuel under the condition of case (B) shows the ring radiated power of ≈ 49 MW is sustained for about 0.35 s before dropping rapidly to zero.

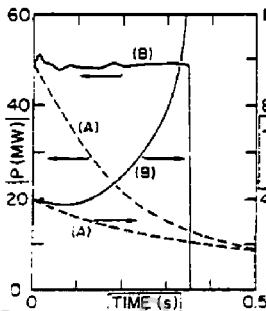


Figure 2

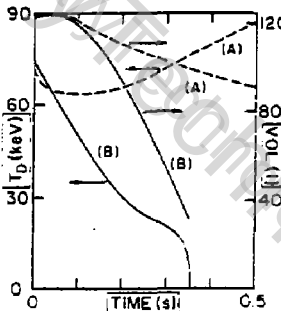


Figure 3

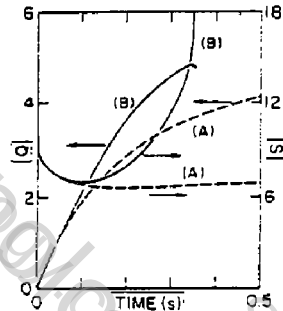


Figure 4

The reasons for this disparate behavior are summarized in Figures 2 - 4. As shown in Figure 3, withholding cold fuel leads to a brief drop in fuel temperature due to heat conduction followed by a rise as alpha particle heating takes effect. Also, as particles are lost via diffusion, the ring volume drops to maintain pressure equilibrium with the external confining field. As shown in Figures 2 and 3, the combined effect of decreasing fuel ion density and plasma volume results in a net drop in ring power by about a factor of 5 at the end of 0.5 s. On the other hand, adding "cold" fuel to the burning plasma brings a dramatic drop in ion temperatures--from 75 keV at $t = 0$ to about 8 keV at $t = 0.35$ s. While such a drop in ion temperature greatly reduces $\langle \sigma v \rangle$ for the DT reactions, the ion density has been increased via the cold fuel addition by nearly a factor of 3 in 0.35 s to

maintain constant ring power. As seen in Figure 4, after 0.35 s the Q of the plasma to which cold fuel is added exceeds that of the no fuel addition case by about 30%. Also, the S-value of the rings with no cold fuel added eventually hovers around $S = 7$, while the cold-fuel-addition case shows a dramatic rise in S near the end of the burn. Plasma stability considerations may dictate whether such a plasma parameter regime is tenable.

This sample, preliminary calculation illustrates some general features which may strongly influence reactor design. Because of the trade-off between ion temperature and density in a fixed confining field, optimal plasma Q values lie in the range of 75 - 150 keV under current assumptions. Both total power per ring and plasma performance are critically sensitive to plasma size: beginning the case (8) plasma burn with an $S(t=0) = 12$ leads to ignition, while decreasing the initial value of S to 8 gives a Q of only 2.3 and a burn time of 0.17 s. A practical pilot plant design with commercial upgrade potential will probably require plasma Q values in excess of 15.

Preliminary Reactor Study (1978)¹: The preliminary design mentioned above for the MRFRM called for a reactor burner chamber 12 m long, a first wall radius of 32 cm, and blanket/shield thickness of 137 cm. The guide field of 65 kG was provided by superconducting coils located just outside the shield. Plasma fuel ion/electron temperatures were presumed to be 75/37.5 keV at the start of the burn and stability concerns limited us to burns in which $S(t) \leq 5$. The plasma ring major radius ranged from 9.6 cm to 6.6 cm during the burn. Plasma refueling was accomplished by laser-accelerated DT pellets. Heat conduction from the field-reversed rings was neglected in this work under the assumption that the diffusing plasma escaping from the closed-field confinement is rapidly lost. Also, to achieve a plasma Q value nearly equal to that of the beam-driven FRM³ ($Q \approx 5.5$), it was necessary in the preliminary study to assume that the particle confinement was three times better than that needed for the FRM. The plasma rings produced 10.6 MW/ring with a burn time of 0.32 s. The rings moved down the axis of the 2 cm thick aluminum first wall at a speed of 40 m/s to achieve radial focusing with minimal dissipative wall drag (≤ 10 kJ/m per ring). Heat was recovered from the 40 cm thick Li₇Pb₂ breeding blanket and the 97 cm thick stainless steel/B₄C shield by circulating helium in a gas turbine cycle. A plant energy balance showed a net electric power production of 1.25 - 4.75 MW(e) per ring, depending on the efficiencies possible for the magnetic compression and ring energy recovery processes.

Continuing Reactor Design Work: Work is continuing on the MRFRM to re-evaluate the design issues bearing most directly on reactor performance. The goal of the study is to identify (where possible) the physics and technology issues and conditions which will lead to a pilot reactor which scales to an economically commercial plant.

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*This work is being performed for the Electric Power Research Institute under contract No. RP922.

PRELIMINARY REACTOR IMPLICATIONS OF COMPACT TORI: HOW SMALL IS COMPACT?

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I. INTRODUCTION

The generic name "compact torus" (CT) is applied to the general class of toroidal plasma configurations in which no magnetic coils or material walls extend through the torus. Figure 1 schematically summarizes the "family tree" of CT configurations that have been subjected either to theoretical or experimental examination. Two branches to the CT family of closed-field plasmoids are evident. On-

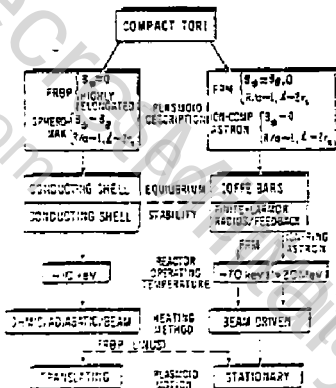


Figure 1
Schematic summary of compact torus plasma configurations.

II. MODEL

A. GENERAL CONSIDERATIONS

Figure 2 depicts the CT model and pertinent notation that form the basis for this analysis. Experimental evidence indicates:

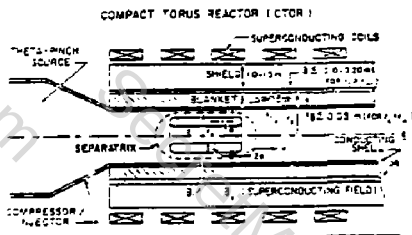


Figure 2
Schematic layout of Compact Torus Reactor (CTOR) based on FRPP. Conducting shell is shown located either at first wall or outside of blanket.

going reactor studies at LA3L have focused primarily onto the left-hand branch depicted in Fig. 1, with an emphasis being placed upon field-reversed theta pinch (FRPP) as a means to form, heat and confine a CT plasmoid in a reactor context. Both the spheromac and the FRPP configurations are assumed to require an electrically conducting wall to provide equilibrium and stability. The purpose of this paper is to present parametrically and by means of a simple analytic model the reactor implications of a FRPP; an electrically conducting shell is presumed necessary for equilibrium and stability. The question of minimum power and size for this specific CT configuration is addressed.

decreased confinement times as r_c/r_s increases beyond ~ 2 and the plasma becomes over-compressed. The experimental parameters $r_c/r_s \sim 2$ and $4/r_s \sim 7$, along with analytic equilibrium constraints, are used to guide this study. As is observed in experiments, the FRPP plasmoid is assumed to contain little or no toroidal field. The question of plasmoid formation and heating is not addressed here, although these processes would occur in an ex-reactor system by means of slow implosion, adiabatic heating, the application of energetic particle beams, and/or ohmic dissipation.

Given the formation, heating, and translation of the FROP plasmoid, how best can useful fusion energy be obtained from a shell-stabilized configuration, and in which way does this constraint affect the projected reactor size and power level if realistic engineering constraints are applied? In short, how small is compact?

8. ROLE AND LOCATION OF CONDUCTING SHELL

A central thesis of this study is the presumption that a passive, electrically conducting shell provides both equilibrium and stability and that r_c/r_s must be < 2 for this to occur. The heated and ignited plasmoid of length l enters the linear burn chamber of length L and radius r_w at a velocity $v = L/\tau_s$ that is compatible with the electrical skin time, τ_s , of the conducting shell positioned at radius $r_c > r_w$. Translation of the plasmoid inside this flux-conserving shell increases the stationary magnetic field (provided by external superconducting magnets, Fig. 2), as magnetic flux is constricted to a smaller volume between the separatrix and the shell. That part of the plasma pressure supported by the conducting shell results in ohmic dissipation within shell which must be extracted from the translational energy of the plasmoid. This energy loss may be significant and generally points to the use of a room-temperature shell located outside a blanket of thickness Δb .

As the plasmoid is translated to the burn chamber, the flux within the shell, provided initially by the external superconducting coils, is conserved. A characteristic time, τ_s , for flux penetration into the shell of resistivity η can be derived on the basis of this flux conservation

$$\tau_s = \frac{\mu_0}{2\eta} \frac{\delta}{r_c} (r_w^2 - r_s^2) \quad (1)$$

This expression is based upon an allowable flux loss as determined by the limit when the plasmoid would contact the first wall. Placement of the shell at the first wall (i.e., $r_c = r_w$) will require that the shell thickness, δ , be less than ~ 0.05 m for neutronic reasons; additionally, η will be increased because of the higher operating temperature at a first-wall location. Generally, τ_s is computed to be 3-4 times longer if the shell is positioned outside the blanket, in spite of the higher value of $r_c = r_w + \Delta b$. Even when located outside the blanket, the shell thickness should present a cross-sectional area that is appreciably smaller than the crucial area from which flux is being displaced (i.e., $\pi(r_w^2 - r_s^2)$). Furthermore, the ohmic power dissipated in the shell, P_{OHM} , when expressed relative to the alpha-particle power, P_α , is given by

$$P_\alpha/P_{OHM} = 8.6(10)^{16} \frac{\delta}{\eta} \frac{r_c^3}{r_s^2} \frac{\langle \sigma v \rangle}{T^2} B_1^2 \quad (2)$$

where B_1 is the compressed magnetic field within the shell. For typical reactor parameters ($r_w = 1.0$ m, $\Delta b = 0.5$ m, $B_1 = 5$ T), this ratio decreases from ~ 60 for an ex-blanket shell ($\delta = 0.1$ m) to ~ 4 ($\delta = 0.05$ m) for a first-wall shell, again giving impetus to shell placement outside the blanket. Lastly, the ohmic dissipation occurring within the shell must be provided either by the kinetic or the fusion (i.e., directly converted alpha-particle energy) powers associated with the translating, burning plasmoid. For a first-wall shell, the required translational power can be considerable, and the plasma expansion required to channel directly the alpha-particle energy to supply this ohmic loss would be prohibitively large. On the basis of these

arguments, the stabilizing conducting shell should be located at a radius $r_c = r_w + \Delta b$, where Δb is expected to be ~ 0.5 m. In order to provide the necessary stabilization of a plasmoid of length $l = 7 r_s$, the translational velocity must be $v = l/\tau_3$, again with $r_c/r_s = 2$. As will be seen, these simple constraints play an important role in establishing the minimum size and power of the CT reactor.

C. CONSTRAINTS IMPOSED BY NEUTRON WALL LOADING AND TOTAL POWER

The fusion neutron wall loading, I_w (W/m²), and a Lawson-like criterion, $n\tau_B$ (s/m³), at this level of analysis represent important indicators of system performance. The analytic CT equilibrium relationships predict that 87% of the plasmoid volume within the separatrix radius, r_s , would be filled with $B = 1$ plasma. The fraction of the burn chamber that is filled with plasma (i.e., the duty factor), is easily shown to equal τ_s/τ_1 , where $1/\tau_1$ is the plasmoid injection rate. Recalling that the burn time, $\tau_3 = \tau_s(L/2)$, the following expression for I_w results

$$\frac{9.02 I_w \tau_1}{(n\tau_B)^2 \langle \sigma v \rangle E_N} = \frac{r_s^2}{r_w} \frac{\tau_s}{\tau_B^2} = \frac{r_s^4}{2r_s - \Delta b} \frac{(l/r_s)^2}{L^2 \tau_s} \quad (3)$$

where mks units are used, E_N is the fusion neutron energy, $r_w = r_c - \Delta b$, $r_c/r_s = 2$, $l/r_s = 7$, and τ_s (Eq. (1)) can similarly be expressed in terms of r_s . With the exception of τ_1 , the left-hand-side of Eq. (3) represents a constant that is chosen on the basis of confinement physics, $n\tau_B$, and desired system performance, I_w . The total system thermal power, P_{TH} (Wt) equals $2\pi r_w L I_w M$, where the multiplication M is typically ~ 1.42 (20 MeV/fusion). For a given wall loading and $n\tau_B$ value, therefore, P_{TH} can be evaluated as a function of system dimensions (i.e., r_s and L).

An additional and important constraint is imposed by the allowable thermal cycle, ΔT (K), experienced by the first wall. The thermal heat flux at the structural first wall is expected to originate primarily from Bremsstrahlung radiation, in that particle losses should be directed out of the burn chamber along open field lines in the region from radius r_s to r_w . If κ (W/mK), ρ (kg/m³) and c_p (J/kg K) are, respectively, the thermal conductivity, density, and heat capacity of the first-wall material, the temperature rise for a "thermally thick" first wall that is irradiated solely by Bremsstrahlung leads to the additional constraint

$$\frac{\Delta T \sqrt{c_p \kappa \rho}}{2.63(10)^{-37} (n\tau_B)^2 T^{1/2}} = \frac{r_s^2}{r_w} \left[\frac{l}{L} \right]^2 \frac{1}{\tau_s^{3/2}} = \frac{r_s^4}{2r_s - \Delta b} \frac{(l/r_s)^2}{L^2 \tau_s^{3/2}} \quad (4)$$

where T (keV) is the average plasmoid temperature, and the thermal irradiation time experience by any given section of first wall is taken as τ_s .

III. RESULTS

Typical results are illustrated on Fig. 3, which shows the dependence of P_{TH} , L , and τ_3 on the separatrix radius for the fixed parameters indicated. A minimum total power is shown for this case where the duty factor, $f_d = \tau_s/\tau_1$, has been fixed at 0.1 and $n\tau_3 = 5(10)^{21}$ s/m² (i.e., a fuel burnup fraction $f_b = 0.22$). The reactor power initially decreases with increased r_s because of the increased τ_3 and correspondingly decrease in required translational

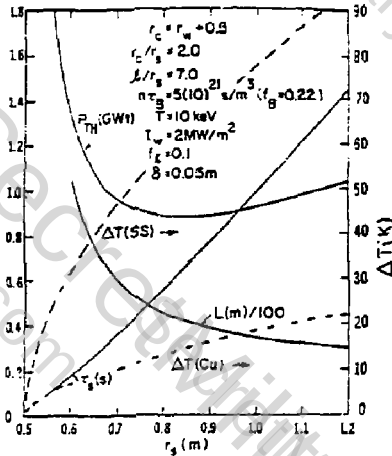


Figure 3
Dependence of total power, P_{TH} , length of burn chamber, L , and shell skin time, τ_s , on plasmoid separatrix radius, r_s , for the fixed parameters indicated.

velocity; an increased reactor length results. As r_s increases beyond the power minimum at 0.83 m, the power increases because of the increased plasma cross-sectional area. Only the magnitude but not the position of the minimum power indicated on Fig. 3 depends on the choice of fixed parameters, Eq. (3) providing the appropriate scaling relationship. Specifically, combining Eq. (3) with $P_{TH} = 2\pi r_s L I_w M$ gives the following explicit form for the power curve depicted on Fig. 3.

$$P_{TH}(W) = 8.78 M I_w^{1/2} <\sigma>^{1/2} (\eta/\delta) \Delta b^{3/2} \\ (n\tau_B)^{1/2} \frac{(1-x)^{1/2}}{x^{3/2}[(1-x)^2 - 1/4]} \quad (5)$$

where $x = \Delta b/r_c = \Delta b/2r_s$. Equation (5) shows the expected minimum at $x = 0.3$ (i.e., $r_s = 0.83$ for $\Delta b = 0.5$ m). For $T = 10$ keV, $M = 1.42$ and $n = 2(10)^{21}$ ohm m (Cu at 300 K), the minimum power equals

$$P_{TH}(W) = 5.54(10)^{-17} I_w^{1/2} \Delta b^{3/2} \\ f_2^{1/2} (n\tau_B)/\delta \quad (6)$$

which illustrates explicitly the CTOR minimum-power scaling. Because of the direct coupling of plasma performance with the ex-blanket shell, Δb plays a prominent role in establishing the minimum power. Furthermore, contrary to intuition, the minimized total power varies weakly as the square root of the first-wall neutron wall loading. For the minimum power shown on Fig. 3, the following system characteristics are predicted: $P_{TH} = 380$ MW, $L = 42$ m, $r_s = 0.83$ m, $L = 5.8$ m, $r_w = 1.2$ m, $r_c = 1.7$ m, $\tau_s = 0.6$ s, $\tau_B = 4.3$ s, $\tau_I = 6.2$ s (f_2 fixed at 0.1), $v = 9.4$ m/s (34 km/h), $n = 1.1(10)^{21}$ m⁻³, $B_1 = 3$ T, $P_{TH}/\pi r_c^2 L = 2.4$ MW/m³.

The temperature-rise constraint given by Eq. (4) is expressed below in explicit form

$$\Delta T = 8.33(10)^{-28} \left[\frac{(1-x^2)-1/4}{x} \right]^{1/2} \left[\frac{\delta \Delta b}{c_p \rho k \eta} \right]^{1/2} \frac{I_w}{(<\sigma>/T^{1/2}) f_2} \quad (7)$$

which predicts $\Delta T = 14.2$ K at the minimum-power point for a first wall with thermophysical properties of copper. Equation (7) has been plotted on Fig. 3 for first walls with both stainless-steel and copper thermophysical properties. Application of the thermal cycle constraint, $\Delta T < 30$ K, requires that τ_s to be adjusted to ~ 3.2 s and f_2 correspondingly be reduced to $\sim .05$.

resulting in an optimum (i.e., minimized) reactor power of 600 MWt with $L = 30$ m, again for a first wall with thermophysical properties similar to copper. Stainless steel represents an extreme relative to the assumed copper-like first-wall properties, representing an increase in ΔT by a factor of $\gamma(kc_p)_{Cu}/(kc_p)_{SS} = 4.4$. It is emphasized that the methods used to estimate the thermal-cycle constraint are highly approximate, and considerably more analysis of this important and often neglected problem is warranted.

IV. CONCLUSIONS

The application of simplified but realistic engineering constraints to the special class of wall-stabilized FRPP configurations leads to reactor systems that may be as small as ~ 30 m in length and generating a total thermal power of the order of 500 MWt. Decreased size and power for a given $n\tau_E$ will be accompanied by decreased performance indicators, as reflected in this study by L , and the allowable ΔT . It should be noted that this analysis is based upon fixing the duty factor, $f_d = \tau_E/\tau_I$. Other approaches which treat τ_I rather than f_d as a parameter give somewhat different optima, but the basic conclusions and results embodied in Fig. 3 are not significantly altered. The results of this simple scoping calculation will be used to guide a more detailed modeling of important issues related to plasmod injection, plasma transport/equilibrium/stability, burn dynamics, transient response of the first wall and conducting shell, and overall system energy balance.

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TRACT: A SMALL FUSION REACTOR BASED ON A COMPACT TORUS PLASMA

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A compact torus formed by triggered reconnection and adiabatic compression of a reversed-field theta-pinch plasma can provide the basis for fusion power reactors which are small, relatively easy to fabricate and maintain, and which promise high power gain with modest recirculating power requirements. A new reactor concept, designated TRACT (Triggered Reconnection, Adiabatically Compressed Torus), has been developed based on such a confinement scheme. The TRACT plasma is produced in a linear solenoid by a staged process involving plasma formation in a reversed bias field, introduction of forward flux by external solenoidal shock coils, triggered reconnection of the magnetic field lines resulting in rapid axial compression and heating of the resultant plasma torus and, finally, some adiabatic compression of the plasma by additional forward flux. Plasmas formed in this manner have been experimentally observed to be stable for at least 100 Alfvén times.¹

For plasma major radii of 7 cm or more, the confinement time based on classical particle diffusion across the separatrix exceeds one second. Allowing for anomalous transport across the separatrix to establish a quasi-steady state balance with axial transport processes leads to a confinement time which is about a factor of 30 smaller than classical. Based on this hybrid confinement model, a 15 keV compact torus with a major radius of 24 cm and aspect ratio of 3.9, confined by an external field of 7 Tesla, has a plasma confinement time of 0.5 sec. Such a plasma would generate 225 MJ of neutron energy in 0.5 sec. A TRACT reactor based on this plasma with a repetition rate of one Hertz is capable of generating 90 megawatts of net electrical power.

A conceptual TRACT reactor design is illustrated in Figure 1. The complete reactor vessel, including the blanket, shield, and magnets, is 9 meters high and 3.5 meters in diameter. The plasma chamber is five meters long with a one meter bore. A steady 7 Tesla axial field is maintained with a superconducting solenoid located outside the blanket. This field is disturbed briefly by a normal coil located near the first wall during plasma formation. Prior to each pulse, deuterium-tritium gas is injected axially through a screen nozzle. The normal coil is activated in the opposite polarity to the superconductor to establish a reverse bias field in the plasma chamber. After preionization, the plasma is heated to ignition by a four stage process occurring during the second quarter cycle of the normal coil. First, a rapid drop in the normal coil current causes radial shock compression of the plasma and reversal of the magnetic field. Magnetic field line reconnection is delayed with a magnetic cusp at each end while the plasma is compressed. When sufficient forward flux has been introduced, the cusp current is reversed, resulting in a mirror field which rapidly triggers field line reconnection. This triggered reconnection causes the plasma to contract axially to a configuration with a much less elongated torus. As the normal coil current reduces to zero, the plasma is then adiabatically compressed to ignition temperature. During burn the plasma is confined wholly by the superconducting field. Fusion product heating raises the temperature to 15 keV during burn.

The axial contraction results in a compact torus with a high fill factor χ , defined as the ratio of the separatrix radius to the first wall radius.

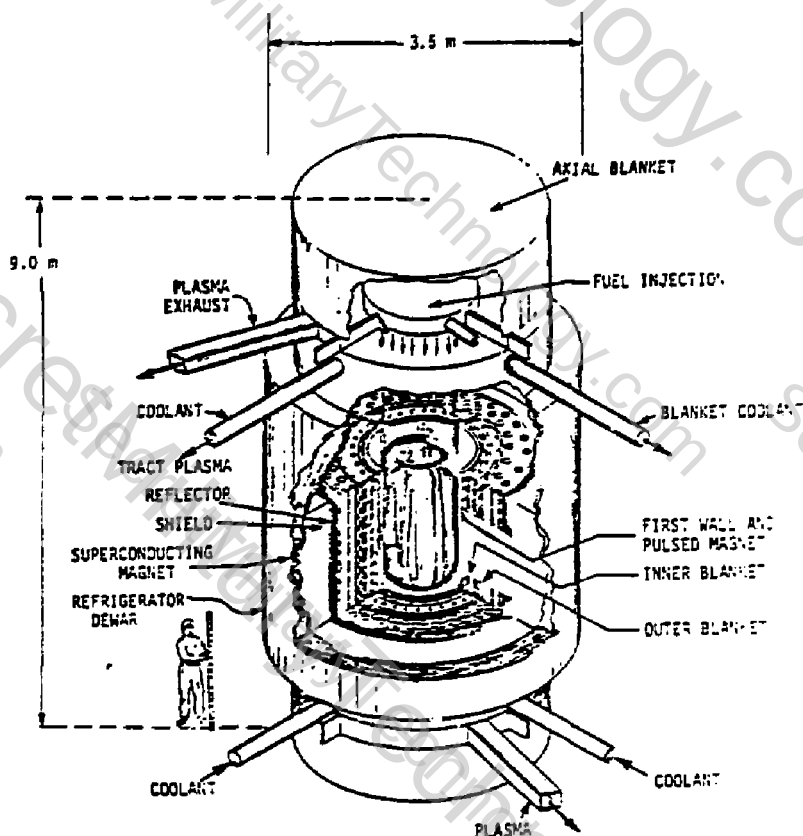


Figure 1. A 90 MWe TRACT Fusion Reactor

Fill factors approaching one ($r_s \rightarrow r_w$) have been observed.¹ No signs of instability have been observed for the circuit decay time of the confining magnet as long as the fill factor remains above a critical value which depends on the initial pressure, and is in the range $x = 0.3-0.4$.

The rapid axial contraction and magnetic field reconnection generates irreversible heating of the plasma, so that the contracted torus is hotter than if the process were adiabatic. Thus, the plasma has been heated by two nonadiabatic processes: radial shock heating of the conventional theta pinch type, and axial compression heating from the reconnection process. The more the plasma is heated by axial compression, the less is required from purely radial processes. This relationship is illustrated in Figure 2, where the axial heating is described by the ratio, g , of the temperature after reconnection to that immediately before reconnection. The higher the value of g , the more heating is achieved by axial processes and the less is required of radial processes. This translates to more relaxed requirements on the azimuthal electric field E_θ at the first wall for shock heating. Figure

2 shows the electric field required to achieve 6 keV at final fill factor X_f for a range of axial temperature gains. X_1 is the fill factor after reconnection. If the critical fill factor $X_f = 0.3$, then $E_g < 0.5$ kV/cm for very modest temperature gains, $g \approx 1.5-2.0$. If the critical fill factor is $X_f = 0.5$, then $g \geq 10$ is required for $E_g = 0.5$ kV/cm.

The normal coil is supplied by two separate power supplies: the slow field reversal and adiabatic compression is provided by an 85 MJ fast-discharging homopolar generator, and the radial shock field is provided by a 10 MJ capacitor bank. The first wall is made of alumina to allow the fast-rising field to penetrate. The blanket concept chosen for the reference design consists of lithium lead plates cooled by boiling water flowing axially in stainless steel tubes. The radial blanket is divided into two zones: the inner blanket zone must be replaced periodically because of radiation damage, and the outer zone lasts the lifetime of the reactor. A 0.60 meter thick shield of boron carbide and stainless steel protects the superconducting coil from radiation. The entire vessel is enclosed in a vacuum chamber which can be ten meters high and seven meters in diameter. The plasma chamber is vacuum pumped continuously through penetrations at the ends.

The small size and simple geometry of the TRACT reactor provides a great advantage for reactor maintenance. The reactor vessel is small enough to stand vertically. There are no radial penetrations into the plasma chamber or inner blanket, so there are no restrictions to vertical movement during component maintenance. Since the first wall, normal coil, and inner blanket zone are free to move axially and are small, no remote cutting must be performed to prepare these components for removal and replacement by an overhead crane. These features will greatly decrease the time required for blanket/first wall replacement compared to other fusion reactor concepts.

The recirculating power requirements for an ignited TRACT reactor are low. A 1 m bore, 5 m long plasma chamber is sufficient to produce 278 MJ of thermal energy per pulse, with a blanket multiplication of 1.22. Use of the compound magnet concept limits resistive heating of the magnet to only a small fraction of the duty cycle. With a ten millisecond half-cycle time, which is achievable with fast-discharging homopolar generators, Joule heating losses are 1.9 MJ/pulse. Assuming 95 percent switching efficiency, switching losses in the magnet system account for another 4.2 MJ/pulse. Plasma thermal energy at ignition is 4.5 MJ, which is not recovered in the current design. Other losses, including vacuum and coolant pumping power in the blanket as well as the superconductor, amount to less than 1 MJ/pulse. At 36 percent blanket thermal efficiency, the recirculating power fraction is 11 percent. A reactor with ≥ 50 percent duty factor would thus produce 90 MW of net electric power.

Since the plasma volume scales as r^3 , where r is the first wall radius, and the confinement time scales as r^2 , the thermal energy output per pulse scales roughly as r^5 . A small change in the reactor dimensions can substantially change the power output. The hybrid confinement model described above predicts that an experiment with a 0.52 meter bore would result in energy breakeven, and a fusion power pilot plant which produces net electrical power requires only a 0.70 meter bore. The strong power dependence on size also leads to weak reactor sensitivity to confinement scaling. Figure 3 illustrates the first wall radius required to produce 90 MWe for different confinement times. Particle confinement based on classical radial transport would allow a first

wall radius of 0.39 m. Alcator scaling allows a radius of 0.56 m. Even if the particle confinement time scaled as one-tenth of the Alcator model, the required first wall radius would still be only 0.9 m.

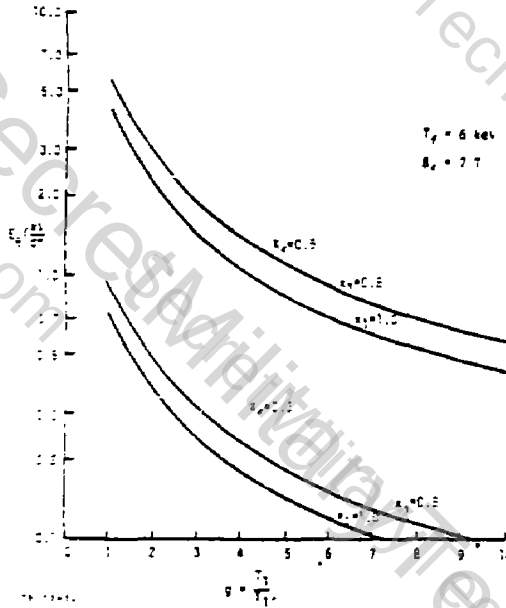


Figure 2. Electric Field Reduction With Axial Compression. Field Required to Achieve $T_e = 6$ keV at fill factor X_f with 7 Tesla Magnetic Field. Length Compression Factor = 3. X_f = radial fill factor immediately after reconnection.

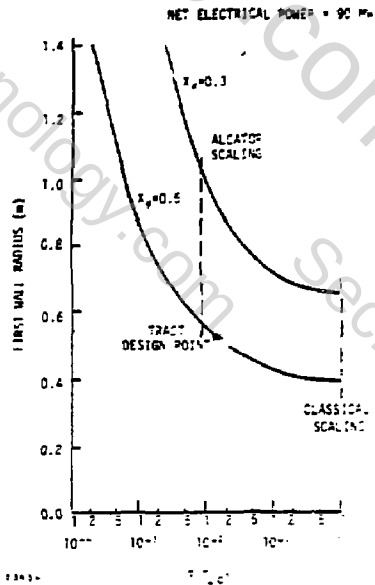


Figure 3. Reactor Size Scaling With Confinement Time. First Wall Radius Required to Achieve 90 MW Net Electrical Power. X_f = radial fill factor at ignition.

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1. A.G. Es'kov et al., "Features of Plasma Heating and Confinement in a Compact Toroidal Configuration," 7th IAEA Conf. on Plasma Physics and Controlled Thermonuclear Research, Innsbruck, 1978.

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US-Japan Joint Symposium on Compact Toruses and Energetic Particle Injection

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