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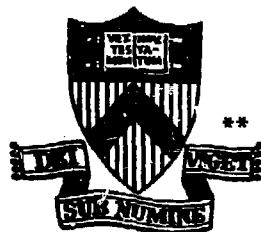
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COMPUTATIONAL STUDIES OF IMPURITY
EFFECTS, IMPURITY CONTROL,
AND NEUTRAL BEAM INJECTION
IN LARGE TOKAMAKS

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COMPUTATIONAL STUDIES OF IMPURITY EFFECTS, IMPURITY CONTROL,
AND NEUTRAL BEAM INJECTION IN LARGE TOKAMAKS

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ABSTRACT

Computational models have been constructed for the Princeton Large Torus (PLT), the Poloidal Divertor Experiment (PDX), and the Tokamak Fusion Test Reactor (TFTR). These models have been calibrated by comparison with current experiments and used to predict plasma parameters and delineate favourable modes of operation for future experiments. The models for PLT emphasize plasma transport and neutral beam injection heating. The models for PDX emphasize the capability of divertors for impurity and recycling control in intense neutral-beam-heated tokamaks, as well as optimization of the MHD properties of divertor-equipped tokamaks. The TFTR calculations stress the fusion aspects of a large, circular cross-section D-T tokamak with intense neutral beam injection.

The calculations indicate that the highest neutron yields on PDX and PLT will be obtained by co- and counter-injection of deuterium beams into a discharge whose density is kept low by reducing the plasma recycling by gettering or a divertor. The highest ion temperatures can also be obtained by injection into low density plasmas. High density plasmas have higher nT_e 's, but are colder, and have lower neutron yields. For TFTR, the fusion yield can be maximized by a warm-electron, hot-ion mode characterized by an intermediate plasma density ($5 \times 10^{13}/\text{cm}^3$) and high power injection (32-45 MW).

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Beam slowing is computed with a simple Fokker-Planck equation for which the surface which limits the pitch angle scattering, slowing-down, and energy exchange rates of the beam ions. No orbital effects are included. The hot electrons from the ionization of injected neutral atoms are added to the background electrons. Thermalized beam ions are added to the background plasma. Alpha particle slowing is computed with a simple slowing-down equation which includes loss angles and orbital spreading. The transport model which is used is empirical based on PLF and ALICOP-77 results, with $v_{th} = 5 \times 10^8$ cm/sec, $\nu = 10^{-10}$ cm²/sec for 0.1×10^{19} cm⁻³ $n_0 + 5000 \times (\text{ratio})^{0.5}$ cm²/sec, and ν neoclassical. This transport model gives a lower temperature electron temperature profile than observed in recent PLF experiments. For the PLF neutral injection experiments, a $\nu = 10^{-10}$ cm²/sec for the form $\nu_{th} Q^{1/3}$ in the 10-15 eV cm²/sec is used to make the electron temperature profile peaked. Non-equilibrium low- Z impurity radiation is modeled by 10^{-10} cm²/sec, the radiation loss for even hydrogen ionization from 40 eV to ~ 2000 eV depending on the impurity level. Convection energy losses are included. Titanium gettering is modeled by recycling as neutral atoms only a fraction 0.99 of the plasma which flows to the limiter and walls.

II. FLT INJECTION CALCULATIONS

Recent PLT [4] neutral beam injection experiments have been calculated with BALDUR to test the validity of the models and assumptions used in the code, and to assist in analyzing the experimental data. The general agreement was reasonable; however there were important qualitative and quantitative differences between the calculations and the experimental data. Figure 1 shows a comparison of a low power injection run ($I = 32$ kA, $I_p = 420$ kA) [8] in which the impurity level had been kept low with titanium gettering with a calculation that assumed that $\phi_g = 4 \times 10^{19}$ cm⁻²/sec. Electron conductivities of the form $\sigma T^{3/2} n_e$ were tried, and matches of the calculated profiles, temperature rises, and loop voltages with the PLT results for neutral injection into high density, gettered discharges indicated that $\phi_g \sim 1.5$.

Injection into lower density plasmas is predicted higher ion temperatures. Figure 2 shows the average of the central electron and ion temperatures, electron and ion densities, time average density, Z_{eff} , loop voltage, and beam current for a representative case for 1.5 MW of hydrogen injection into deuterium, $B = 4.5$ kG, $I_p = 400$ kA, $n_0 = 1.5 \times 10^{20} \text{ cm}^{-3}$, $Z_{eff} = 1.0$ (mostly carbon). The ion temperature conductivity was enhanced by a factor of two. The qualitative features of this calculation are similar to the experiment. As the beam is turned on, the central electron density begins to rise. The central Z_{eff} drops due to dilution of the carbon. The density of beam ions is comparable to the plasma density. The beam material due to the beam expands the plasma. For a low density plasma, however, the peak temperature is higher than the experiment, 1.5 keV versus 1.0 keV, however the central ion temperature for these very low density cases is sensitive to the choice of the electron temperature profile and to the diffusion coefficient. Larger and more realistic values of the diffusion coefficient of the beam, such as finite orbit expansion of the beam ions, increases the temperature by a reasonable amount. For 1.5 MW of hydrogen in the calculations to 1.5 keV. The beam material dilutes the electron energy has less influence on the ion energy compared to the low density case. The lowest Z_{eff} is about 1.0.

The highest temperature cases obtained in our calculations are 1.5 MW of deuterium injection into a low density (mostly iron, cobalt and iron) discharge. For many of these discharges, central oscillations were observed, and Z_{eff} enhanced transport was seen. The calculated electron temperature is shown on Figure 3 showing the central temperature. The calculated ion temperature is a function of time in which the ion temperature conductivity has been enhanced by factors of two, two and a half. The electron temperature lags slightly the temperature of the ion temperature. It somewhat more slowly than the experiment. The calculated ion temperature saturates after about one second of injection, before the beam is turned off.

An interesting feature of both the experiment and calculation is that the central electron temperature drops when the beam is turned on. The electron temperature later recovers to a higher value. When the beam is turned off, the electron temperature drops again, the ion temperature slowly (down time) and then begins to fall. Figure 4 shows this for the 1.5 MW deuterium case. In the calculation this is due to the dilution of the hot electrons by the cold electrons formed from the ionization of the fast neutral beam atoms. At the end of the neutral beam pulse, this dilution is ended, and the electron heating is increased for about one slowing down time.

The general features of these low density, high temperature PLT discharges in which the ion energy confinement is better than the electron energy confinement are exploited by calculations for PDX and TFTR to achieve reactor plasma conditions and to maximize the neutron yield and fusion power.

III. PDX INJECTION CALCULATIONS

In the PDX and TFTR experiments, as well as in higher power PLT experiments, the injected neutral beam power will far exceed the ohmic heating power. By controlling the warm-ion density by gettering or by a magnetic divertor, it should be possible to operate in three different reactor-plasma regimes parameterized by the relative energetic ion density ($q_i = 1$). The energetic-ion regime, where the plasma recycling coefficient $R_{\infty} > 1$, $n_{hot}/n_c > 0.3$, and the dominant fusion production is by reactions between the

energetic ions; 2) The TCT regime, where $n_{D0} / n_E \leq 0.1$, and the dominant fusion production is by beam-target reactions; 3) The beam driven thermonuclear regime, where $n_{D0} / n_E \geq 0.1$, and the dominant fusion production is by thermonuclear reactions. These regimes are illustrated in Figure 5, which shows the dependence of n_E , the average ion energy, and the neutron production rate on the axial plasma density for 50% co-injection and 50% counter-injection with deuterium beams as calculated by FPL.

The effect of a smaller density variation is illustrated in more detail in Figure 6, which shows the effect of varying the plasma profile coefficient on the plasma parameters. The Q_p fusion power/injected power, and the average ion energy are largest at the small densities, and the dominant fusion reaction comes from collisions between the counter-stream energetic ions.

Plasma with a density variation exceeding 20 keV can be obtained in a laboratory discharge device with intense neutral-beam injection, provided that beam spreading is minimized by a magnetic divertor or gutter assembly, and that the neutral beam heating is performed by the beams [10]. The temperature variation is that of the other 0.5 n_E , and the average ion temperature is 100 eV. In PDX-sized plasma with 4 to 10 megawatts of beam input power, n_E and n_D are 50 keV, 30 fusion-neutron intensities are reached, and the neutrons seen are attainable in this energetic-ion mode of operation. The plasma energy confinement time needs to satisfy only $n_E \tau_E \geq 2 \times 10^{-6}$ seconds.

IV. TFR CALCULATIONS

The TFR calculations have concentrated on finding ways to maximize the fusion yield while minimizing the deleterious effects of impurities and transport losses. For the initial power level of 32 megawatts of neutral beam injection, two operating schemes were examined using BALDUR (Table 1). The first is one in which the neutral beams are injected into a small (60 cm radius) discharge at the outer edge of the vacuum vessel for a short time, after which the discharge is compressed adiabatically, as in the AT experiments. Compression energizes the fast ions and heats the plasma. As can be seen in Table 1, this discharge achieves quite high n_E 's (2.3%) and high fusion powers (27 MW), in spite of a large impurity content, and small n_D 's. Almost all of the fusion power comes from the two-component collisions (energetic deuterons from the beam reacting with thermal tritium). The compression case has the advantage of a large power density and good neutral beam penetration, and is only a modest (factor of one to three) extrapolation from FLT and ATC results. It is insensitive to impurities in that one can compress after only a few hundred milliseconds of injection if impurities begin to accumulate. The disadvantages are that it does not take full advantage of the plasma current capabilities or vacuum vessel size. Only 50% of the alphas are confined and the discharge has relatively low n_E 's.

The second mode is to form a 2.5 MA discharge with a 85 cm radius centered at $R = 248$ cm, and inject for one-half second. The alphas are well confined and somewhat higher n_E 's, especially for the ions, are obtained. Due to the high ion temperature, there is an appreciable fusion yield due to the thermal D-T reactions, although the dominant contributions are still from beam ions reacting with the background plasma (TCT reactions). The ion n_E 's are much greater than the electron n_E 's. Relying on TCT reactions limits the nuclear power to a range near the injected power level. Thermal reactions can raise the nuclear yield, but require increases in beta, (requiring more

injected power), and are more sensitive to reductions in the gross confinement time.

The relative ion confinement can be exploited if the injection power is raised to 45 MW and the beam pulse is extended to one second, as is proposed for a TFTR upgrade. For this case the ion temperatures are very high (23 keV) and the electrons are cooler (14 keV). The ion n_{i0} is four or five times greater than the electron n_{e0} , and most of the fusion yield is from the beam driven thermal D-T reactions, with only a modest component from the T-T reactions. This hot-ion, warm-electron mode in which the electrons and ions are only loosely coupled can tolerate poor electron energy confinement compared to the ion energy confinement. Quite large fusion yields are obtained with modest n_{i0} 's. Should the ion confinement continue to scale favorably, and electron losses continue to be large due to impurities and anomalous processes, the hot-ion, warm-electron plasma is an attractive way to make large fusion powers.

V. PDX DIVERTOR CALCULATION

A key element in estimating the efficiency of various impurity control techniques is the development of a realistic plasma-wall interaction model. We have developed a simple model that self-consistently describes the plasma interaction with a limiter or wall. In this limit-divertor model, sink terms, representing particle and energy loss parallel to field lines into the limiter or divertor, are added to the one dimensional radial transport code in the scrape-off region. For nearly all tokamak plasmas of interest, the scrape-off plasma is collisional and an ion sound model is appropriate for parallel mass flow. At high electron densities (several 10^{14} /cm³), the neutral hydrogen density is sufficiently high in the scrape-off region to exert a charge-exchange drag that reduces the mass flow. In addition, we assume that a classical sheath exists at a non-emitting neutralizer or limiter plate. With these assumptions, the appropriate sink terms for a hydrogen plasma in the density, electron energy and ion energy equations are:

$$S_N = -v_N n/L (1 + 1/4 v_N/v_s)$$

$$S_e = -5.8 kT_e S_N$$

$$S_i = -2.0 kT_i S_N$$

where $v_s = [k(T_i + T_e)/m]^{\frac{1}{2}}$, $v_N = n_0 v_{ex} v_i$, n_0 is the neutral density, v_{ex} is the charge-exchange cross section, v_i is the ion velocity and $2L$ is the length of a field line between the limiters or divertors.

The validity of this edge model was tested by comparing calculations with measurements of the edge region of ALCATOR for a Z=1 discharge where $B_z = 55$ kG, $I = 270$ kA, $\bar{n}_e = 3.5 \times 10^{14}$ /cm³, $T_i(0) = T_e(0) = 800$ eV, the edge parameters were found to be $n_e = 5 \times 10^{13}$ /cm³, $T_e(a) = 10$ eV and the density fall-off distance was 1 cm.

The transport calculations with $\chi_e = 7 \times 10^{17}$ / n_e cm²/sec, $D = 2 \times 10^{17}$ / n_e cm²/sec and $L = 180$ cm gave $T_e(a) = 30$ eV, $T_i(a) = 20$ eV, $n_e(a) = 4 \times 10^{13}$ /cm³ which is reasonable agreement for an initial comparison. The higher edge temperature in the calculation relative to the measurement may be due to: not extending the probe all the way to the limiter edge, residual impurity radiation at the edge or limitations of the model. The computed edge temperatures can be brought into agreement with the measurements by increasing

the thermal transport coefficient in the r region near the plasma surface.

The edge parameters for a Z=1 PDX plasma ($a = 35$ cm, $R = 130$ cm, $B_0 = 10$ kG and $B_z = 10$ kG) were calculated using this model for the case of 10% of perpendicular injection of hydrogen beams into a hydrogen plasma (Figure 10). At low electron densities, the edge electron temperature is relatively high (~100 eV) and would produce a sheath drop for escaping ions of ~400 eV which would cause significant sputtering of the divertor or limiter plate. At high densities, the edge temperature of electrons and ions is ~20 eV, in which case sputtering should be significantly reduced.

In addition to obtaining the background plasma interaction in the scrapeoff region, a similar model has been used to analyze impurity/oxygen ion energy transport in the region. Once again in the scrapeoff region there is a sink term corresponding to a flow of oxygen ions into the limiter at the ion sound speed. The transport equation for ionization states is then including ionization, recombination, and the flow due to neoclassical transport in addition to anomalous transport. The neoclassical fluxes are due to impurity-impurity collisions between the ionization concentration states as well as between ion and also with the background plasma. These calculations also take into account the mixed collisionality region. It is assumed for simplicity to be a constant. As shown in Figure 11, the parameters typical of an optimally coated PDX discharge, the particle replacement time (total impurity density/neutral impurity influx required to maintain a quasi-steady state) is finite though relatively small in comparison with experimental measurements. The inclusion of anomalous transport results in a considerable decrease in the recycling time, which is also a strong function of the edge density and temperature profile for the scrapeoff parameters. Clearly by modifying the edge parameters it appears to be possible to substantially alter the recycling time, which may be critically important for the successful operation of a divertor.

VI. PDX MHD CALCULATIONS

Divertor configurations possess different MHD equilibrium and stability properties compared with conventional circular tokamaks. To determine if the transport predictions are consistent with our understanding of ideal MHD stability, we have carried out a study using the stability code PERF for toroidal plasma parameters appropriate to PDX and possible upgrades.

The ideal MHD model used employs quite flat current profiles consistent with our expectation that shielding impurity inflow will reduce the extent of the low temperature resistive region around the plasma edge. The plasma-vacuum interface is taken to lie just within the ideal MHD separatrix surface, and q at the limiter is taken to be small (~2.5 to 2.7) thus avoiding the computational difficulties associated with separatrices. The results of these studies are consistent with the more general parameter surveys of Frieman, et al. [11], and indicate that β_N of 5% may be stable in the PDX device. Large elongation ($b/a \geq 2$), small aspect ratio and triangularity all increase the possible β_N values approximately as $\propto [a/Rq^2] \times (b/a)$ [12]. Free boundary ($n=1$) modes generally set the lower limit within the ideal MHD model. Since these modes clearly depend strongly on the current profile near the edge of the plasma, one might hope that divertor control may allow experimental study of this aspect of MHD theory.

Thus the magnetic field configuration to achieve maximum β_N can be optimized with a combination of elongation and introduction of a divertor. An example of these configurations is shown in Figure 9 where the usage of available area with a given toroidal coil cross-section was maximized with a single-null divertor. In this configuration, the required divertor current is about 60% of the plasma current.

VII. HIGH-Z IMPURITY RADIATION

Our previous calculations [4] have shown that radiation from such metals as tungsten can be an important energy loss for tokamaks. It has been found that in EFT experiments [13] that the presence of tungsten in the form of limiters inhibits plasma heating by neutral beams. Our previous calculations used an "average ion" model. We have improved upon the model by using the same prescriptions for the atomic processes as before [4] to construct a code to calculate the rates (recombination, ionization, and excitation) for individual ionic species (e. g. Fe^{+22} , etc.). In addition, we have included dielectronic recombination due to inner shell excitations which had been neglected. The coronal equilibrium results for the radiative rates are very similar to the previous results, with the main difference being that there is now less structure in the radiative rates near closed shells due to additional dielectronic recombination near closed shells (Figure 10). Figure 11 shows the equilibrium ionic fractions as a function of T_e .

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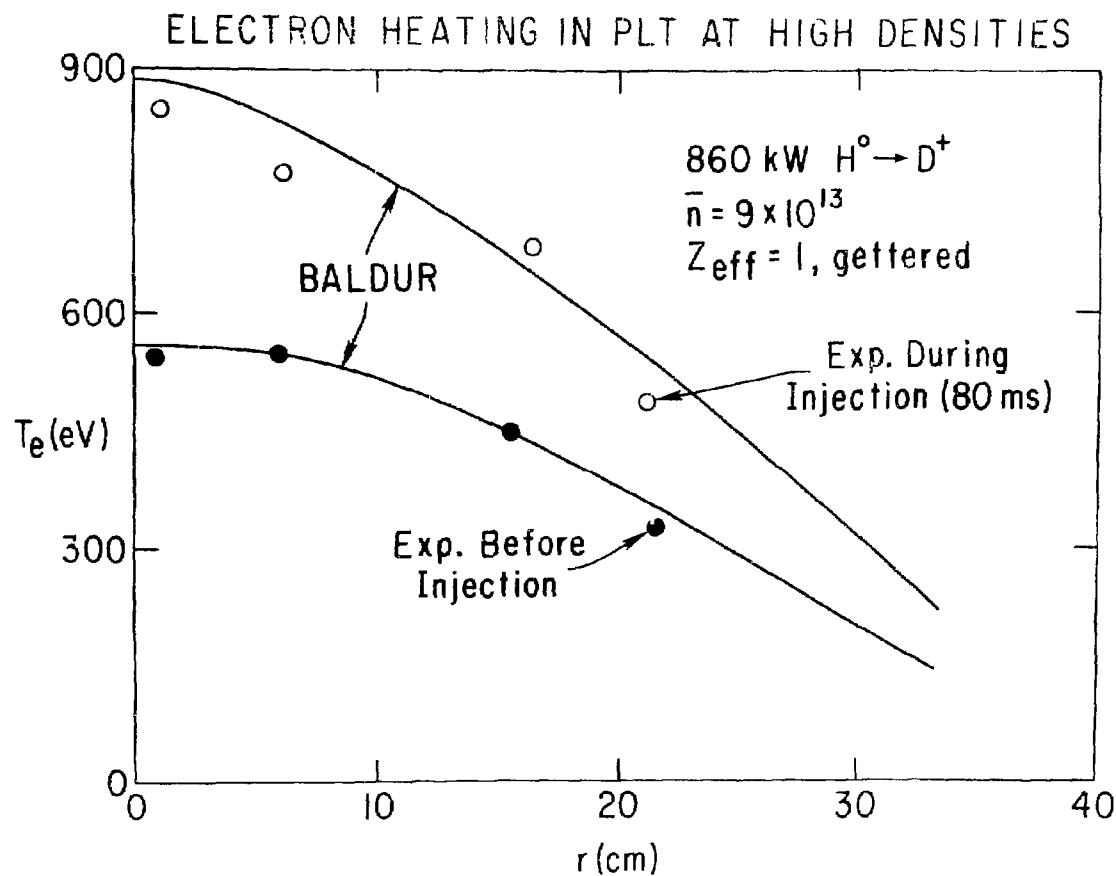


Fig. 1. Electron temperature profiles for PLT just before injection and after 80 ms of injection ($B_p = 32 \text{ KG}$, $I = 400 \text{ KA}$). The points are the measured temperature and the line is the BALDUR calculation using $K_e = 5 \times 10^{17} / n_e$.

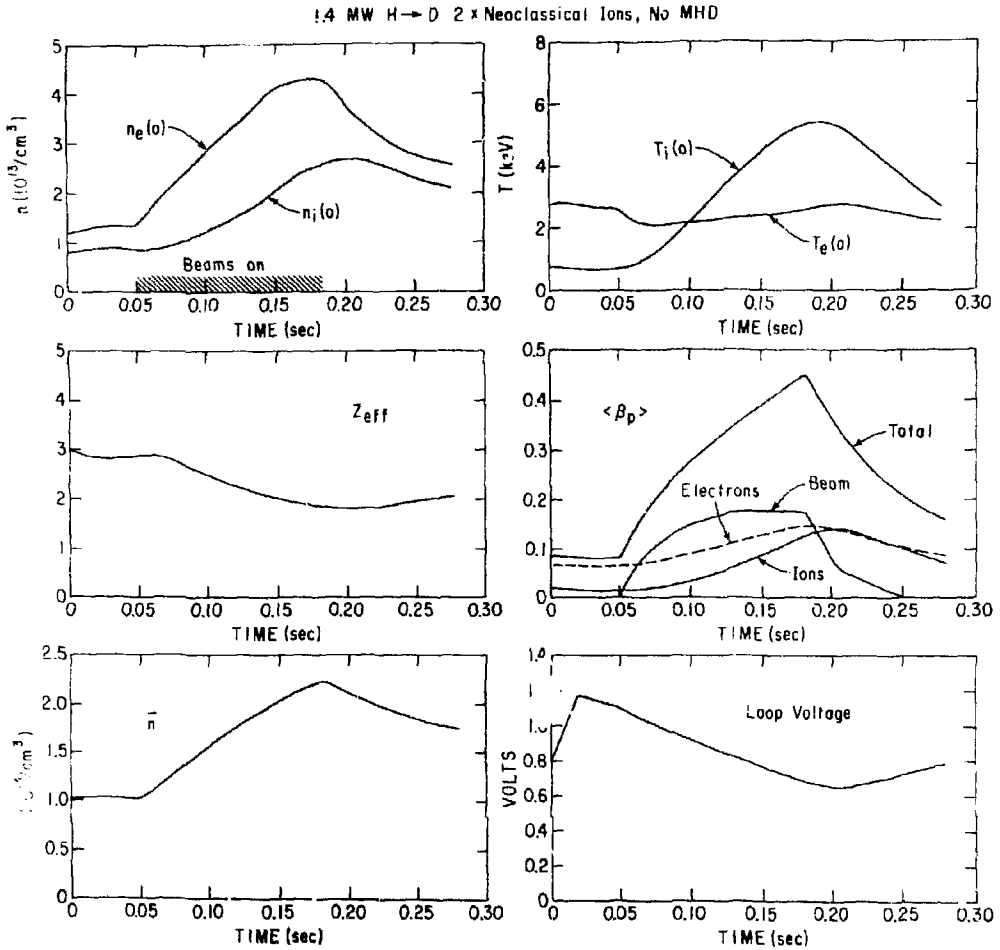


Fig. 2. BALDUR calculation of 1.4 MW H injection into D for PLT ($B_z = 32$ KG, $I = 480$ KA, $\bar{n}(t=0) = 10^{13} \text{ cm}^{-3}$, $Z_{\text{eff}} = 3$) with the ion neoclassical conduction enhanced by factor of 2.

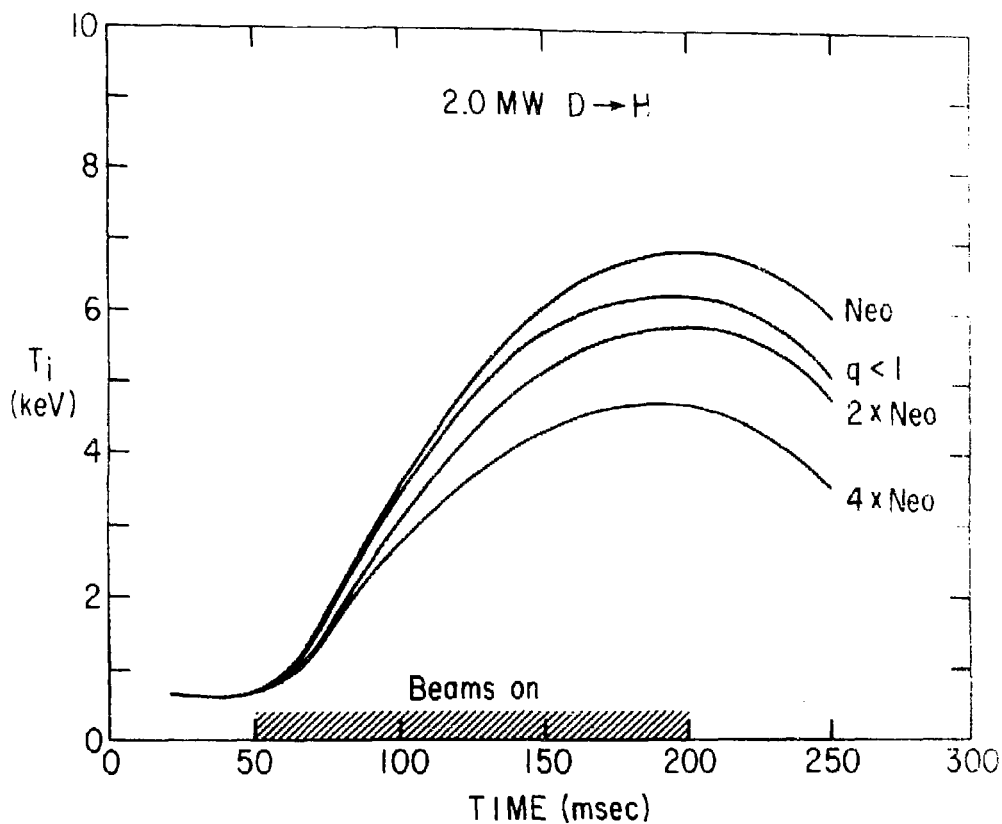


Fig. 3. BALDUR calculations of ion heating on PLT (2.0 MW of D into H, $B_z = 32$ KG, $I = 480$ KA, $\bar{n}(t=0) = 10^{13} \text{ cm}^{-3}$, $Z_{\text{eff}} = 4$). The experimentally determined temperature reaches 5.5 keV, and saturates after 100 msec. (782250)

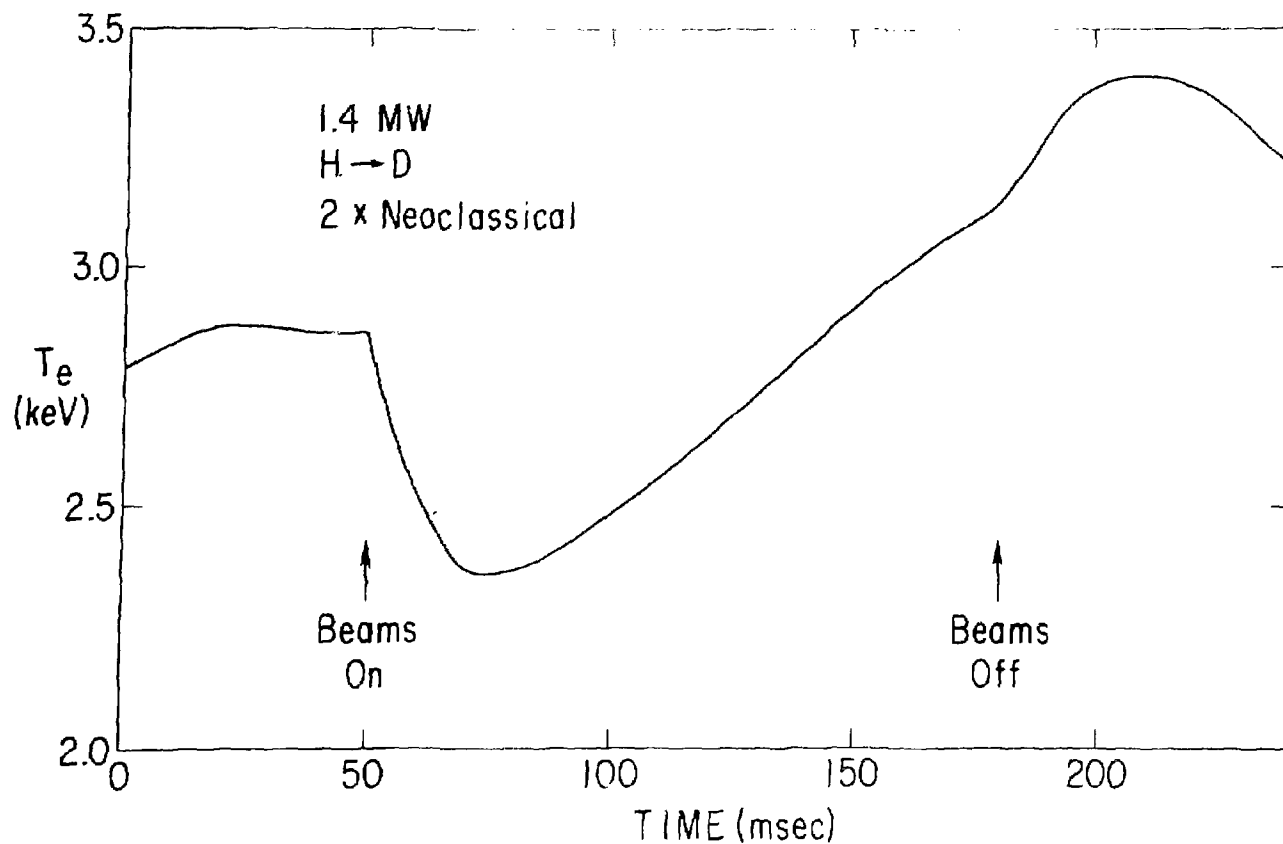


Fig. 4. BALDUR calculation of the central electron temperature during injection for a 1.4 MW H → D PLT experiment ($B_z = 32$ KG, $I = 480$ KA, $\bar{n}(t=0) = 10^{13}/\text{cm}^3$, $\beta_{p f 1} = 5$). The fast ion slowing down time is about 30 msec at the end of the beam pulse.

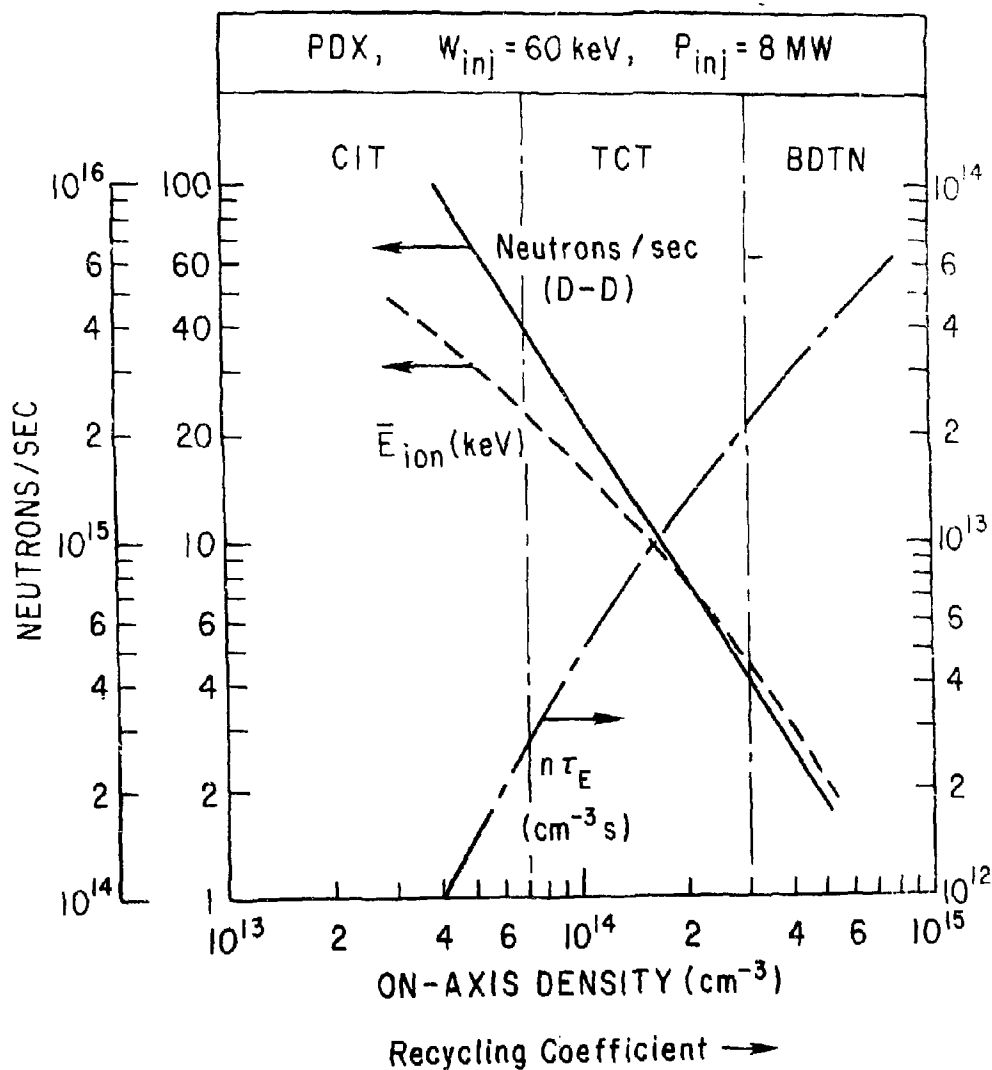


Fig. 5. The neutron yield, average ion energy, and $n\tau$ for PDX with 8 MW of 60 keV deuterium (equal co- and counter) injection into deuterium showing the effect of varying the central electron density.

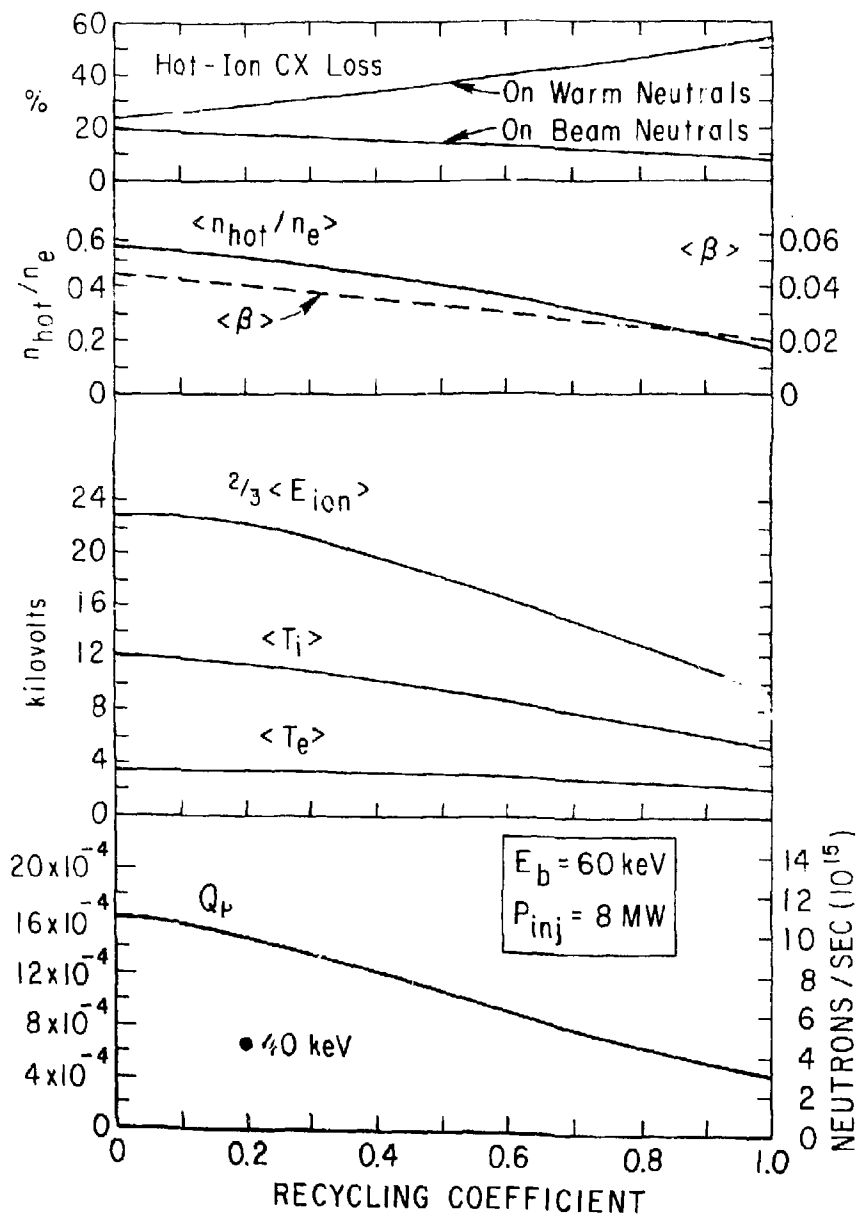


Fig. 6. Plasma parameters for PDX with 8 MW of 60 keV deuterium (equal co- and counter) injection into deuterium showing the variation with the recycling coefficients.

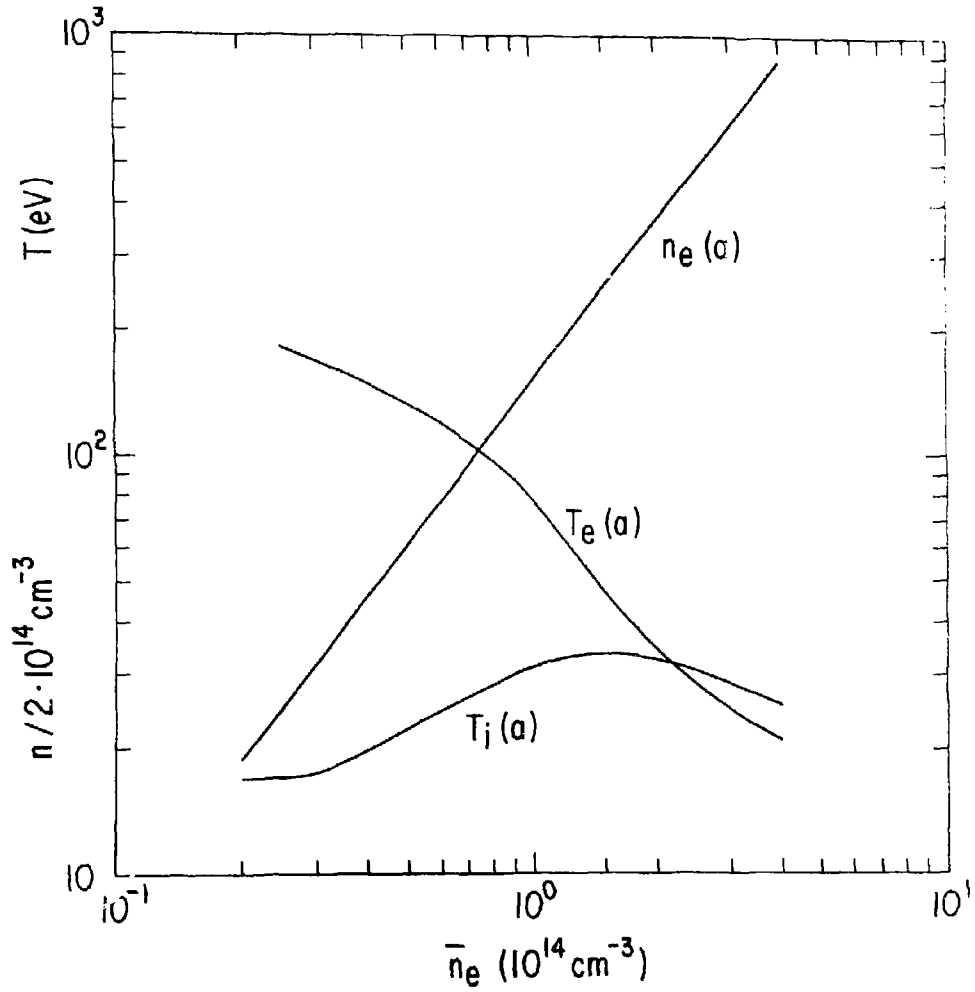


Fig. 7. Edge parameters for a PDX plasma with 6 MW of hydrogen injection into hydrogen as a function of the line average electron density.

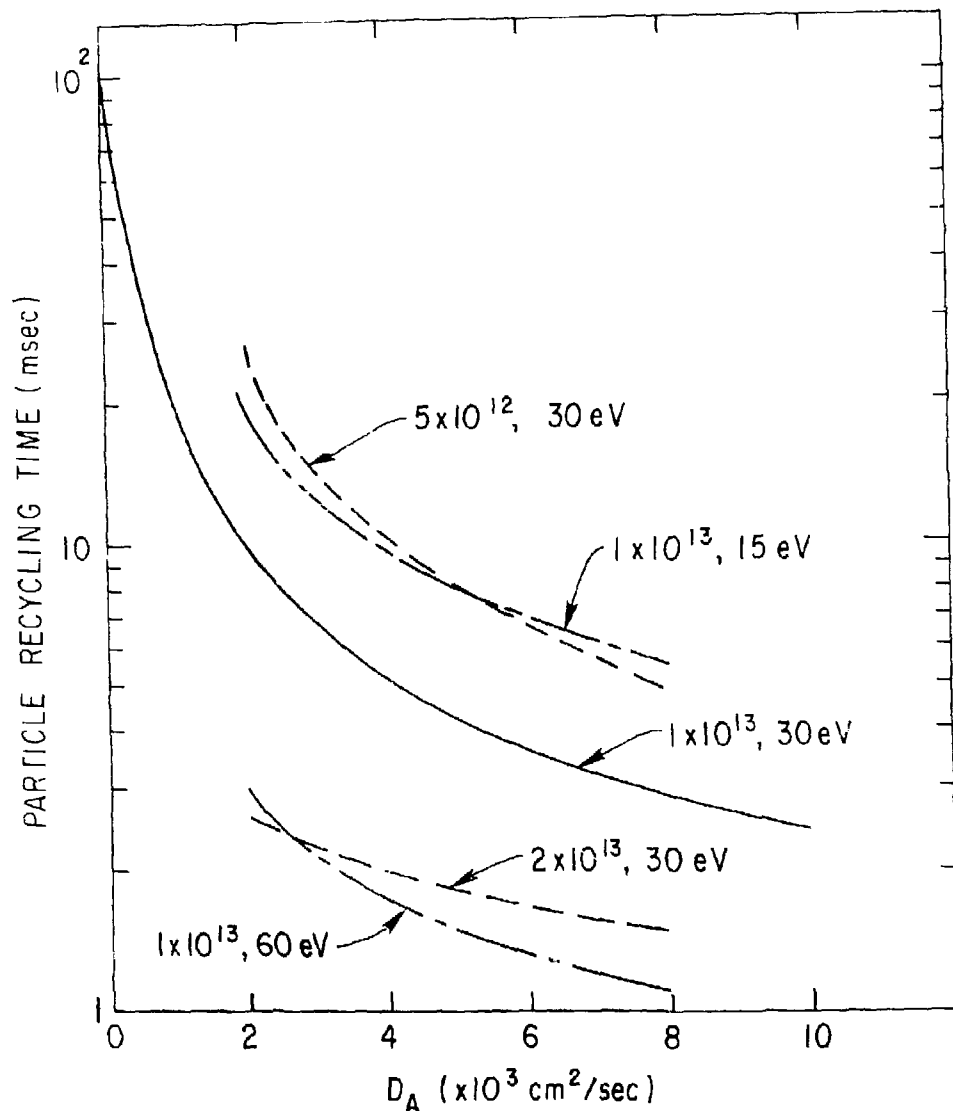


Fig. 8. Oxygen particle recycling time as a function of anomalous diffusion (D_A) for different edge densities and temperatures.

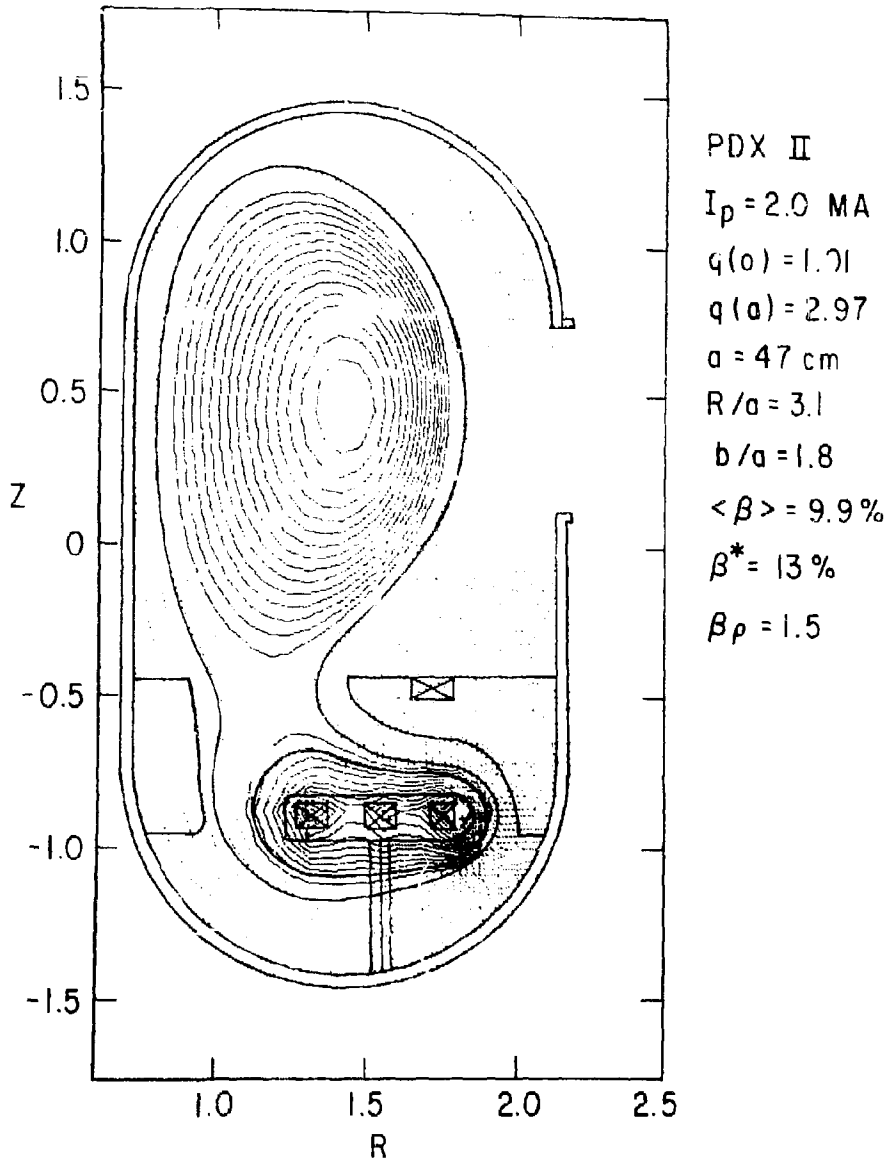


Fig. 9. Magnetic configuration with asymmetric divertor (z , R in meters).

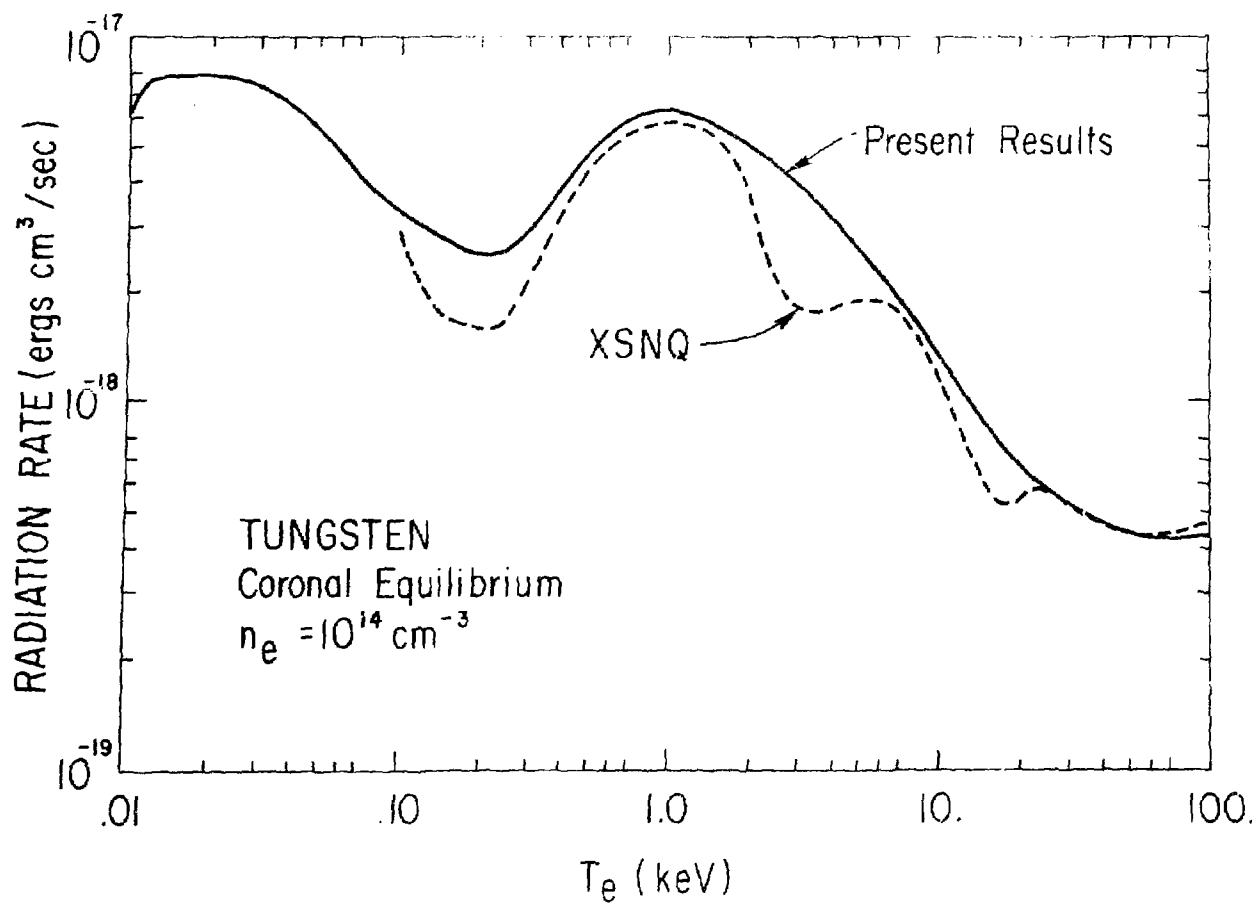


Fig. 10. Graph of radiative rates as a function of temperature for tungsten for the full average ion model (XSNQ) and present results.

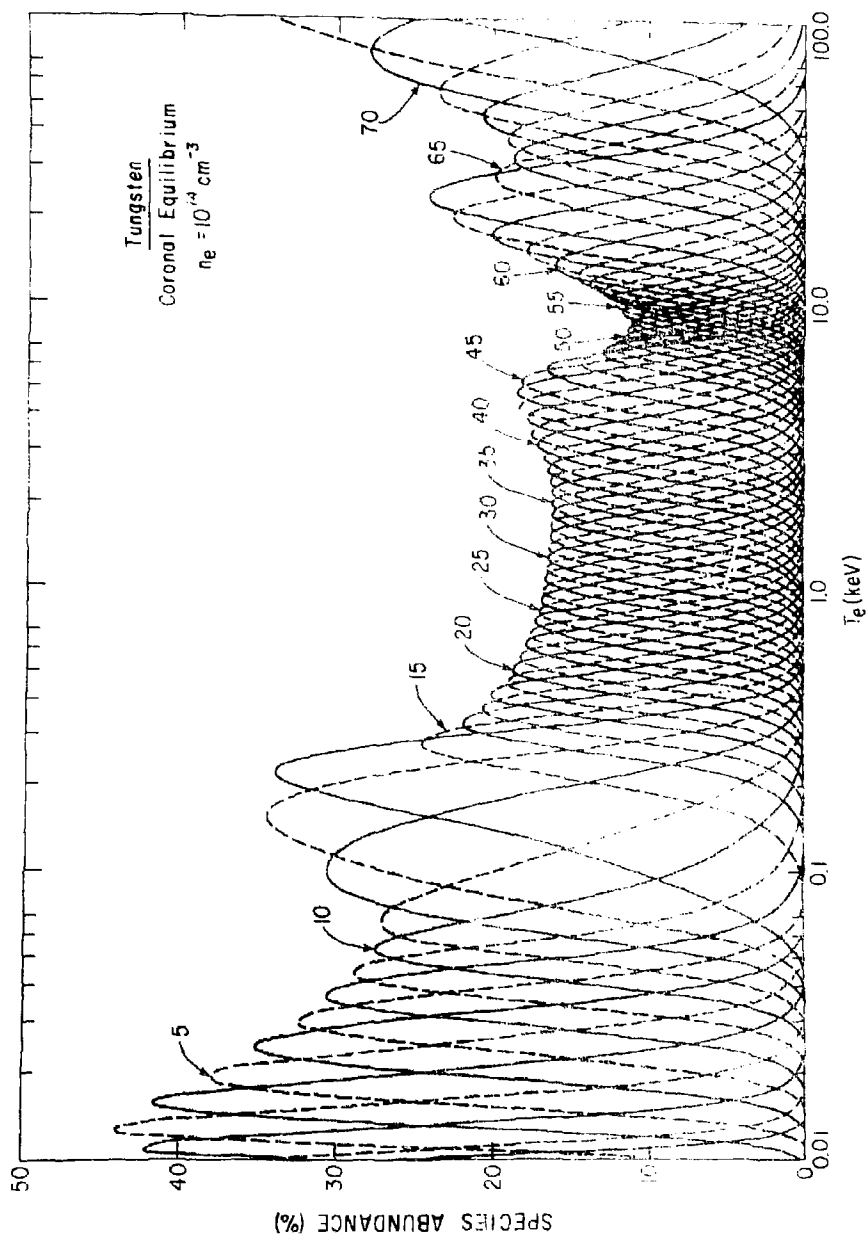


Fig. 11. Steady state relative abundances of tungsten ionization states as a function of electron temperature.